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**The Epidemiology of Auditory Dysfunction in Type 2 Diabetic Adults in Africa:
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis**

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99	Table of contents:	
100	Declaration	
101	Acknowledgements	
102	Abstract	
103		
104	Table of Contents	
105	CHAPTER ONE: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW PROTOCOL	
106	1. Introduction	9
107	1.1. Background	9
108	1.1.2. Aim of this paper	11
109	1.1.3. Why is it important to do this review?	11
110	1.1.4. Objective	11
111	1.1.5. Review question.....	12
112	1.2. Rationale	12
113	1.3. Methodology and Analysis	13
114	1.3.1. Study Selection.....	13
115	1.3.2. Inclusion criteria.....	13
116	1.3.2.1. Primary outcomes:.....	13
117	1.3.2.2. Secondary outcome:	13
118	1.4. Search strategy for identification of relevant studies	14
119	1.4.1. Electronic databases	14
120	1.4.2. Hand selection	14
121	1.4.3. Search methods for identification of studies.....	14
122	1.4.4. Study Selection.....	14
123	1.4.5. Data extraction and management	15
124	1.5. Quality appraisal of included studies	16
125	1.6. Data synthesis and analysis	16
126	1.6.1. Meta-analysis	16
127	1.6.2. Assessment of heterogeneity	16
128	1.7. Assessment of publication bias	17
129	1.8. Reporting of this review	17
130	1.9. Ethics and dissemination	17
131	1.10. Logistics and timetable	18
132	References	19

133	Appendix A: PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram	21
134	Appendix B: Adapted Data Extraction Sheet	22
135	Appendix C: Quality Appraisal Tool	25
136		
137		
138		
139		
140	CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
141	2.	27
142	2.1. Background	27
143	2.2. Diabetes: Definition and Prevalence	28
144	2.2.1. Definition of Diabetes Mellitus	28
145	2.2.2. Epidemiology of Type 2 Diabetes in Africa	28
146	2.2.3. Prevalence of T2DM.....	29
147	2.3. Worldwide incidence and prevalence of T2DM related Hearing Impairment	29
148	2.3.1. Incidence of T2DM related auditory dysfunction	29
149	2.3.2. Prevalence data of T2DM related auditory dysfunction.....	31
150	2.4. History of T2DM related auditory dysfunction	33
151	2.5. Pathophysiology of T2DM	34
152	2.6. Anatomy and Physiology of the Human ear	35
153	2.6.1. Description of the anatomy of the cochlea and its mechanisms.....	35
154	2.6.2. Mechanisms of auditory transduction.....	35
155	2.6.3. Diabetes and the Auditory system: Evidence from Human Pathophysiology	37
156	2.6.4. Auditory: Peripheral and central system pathophysiology.....	38
157	2.6.5. Human Temporal Bone Studies	38
158	2.7. Additional auditory disorder associated with DM	39
159	2.7.1. Tinnitus.....	39
160	2.7.2. Middle ear disorders.....	39
161	2.8. Audiometric results for T2DM related hearing impairment	40
162	2.9. Hearing loss as a function of age and diabetes mellitus	40
163	2.10. Discussion and Conclusion	41
164		
165		
166		

167	CHAPTER THREE: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS	
168	Abstract	50
169	3.1. Introduction	51
170	3.2. Aim:	52
171	3.3. Methods	52
172	3.3.1. Literature search	52
173	3.3.2. Data Extraction and Management.....	54
174	3.3.3. Selecting studies for inclusion	54
175	3.3.4. Quality appraisal of studies.....	55
176	3.3.5. Data synthesis and assessment of heterogeneity	55
177	3.4. Results	56
178	3.4.1. Description of the studies and their design	56
179	3.4.2. Quality of methodology	59
180	3.5. Data Synthesis:	61
181	3.5.1 Overall synthesis	61
182	3.5.2. Glycaemic control analysis.....	62
183	3.5.3. Objective Hearing tests analysis.	65
184	3.5.4. Frequency specific hearing level comparison diabetic and non-diabetic groups.....	66
185	3.6. Literature Review Findings	66
186	3.6.1. Age	66
187	3.6.2. Glycaemic control	67
188	3.6.3. African region specific and Overall Prevalence.....	67
189	3.7. Discussion:	68
190	3.7.1. Summary of main results	68
191	3.7.2. Overall application of evidence	69
192	3.7.3. Limitations:.....	71
193	3.7.4. Strengths	72
194	3.7.5. Conclusion and Recommendations:	72
195	3.8. Ethics and Dissemination	73
196	3.9. Funding	73
197	3.10. Contributions	73
198	3.11. Declaration of interests	74
199	3.12. Acknowledgements	74
200	References	75
201	Appendix A: PRISMA Checklist 2009	78

202	Appendix B: Descriptive Search Strategy	80
203	Appendix C: Human Research Ethics Waiver	84
204	Appendix D: Critical Appraisal Checklist	85
205		
206		
207		
208		
209		
210		
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CHAPTER ONE

Epidemiology of Auditory Dysfunction in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Adults in Africa:

A Systematic Review Study Protocol

256 **1. Introduction**

257 1.1. Background
258

259 Hearing loss is a condition that requires significant attention in less-developed regions of the world.
260 Africa, in particular, has insignificant infrastructure and resources for early diagnosis and effective
261 treatment. Hearing loss (defined as >35dB) is more common in Sub-Saharan Africa than in more
262 affluent parts of the world. According to the World Health Organization, hearing loss prevalence
263 estimates show 15.7% for those older than 15 years old in sub-Saharan Africa, compared to 4.9% of
264 cases in high-income countries (1). Unfortunately, these prevalence results are met with
265 disproportionate healthcare spending between low and middle (LMIC) and high-income countries. The
266 global spend on treatment covers just 3% of the need in LMIC countries (1). However, the review that
267 produced these results included only eleven studies (eight published and three unpublished), which
268 went on to show very little existing evidence on health care spending in Africa. (2). This lack of data
269 persists as many countries struggle to conduct extensive population-based surveys using standardised
270 protocols and classification methods, which calls for more research to be executed in this field for an
271 African population.

272

273 Similarly, financial restraint has also affected the treatment of diabetes in LMIC but, because of its
274 exponential growth, more studies are implemented and published than ever before. WHO estimated
275 246 million people are living with DM at present, with an expected increase to 380 million people by
276 the year 2025 (3). Reports have shown that low- and middle-income countries will suffer considerable
277 consequences for the rise in incidence and that Africa will contribute to the rising global rates (4). The
278 International Diabetes Federation (IDF) Atlas revealed that approximately

279 10.8 million individuals in Sub-Saharan Africa had DM in 2006, and that by 2025 it will rise to 18.7
280 million. This rate is increased by 80%, which has bypassed the worldwide predicted rise of 55% (4).

281

282 As DM grows to become more common in the general population, its impact on various organs of the
283 body becomes more critical (5). Chronic complications of DM contribute to several changes that
284 happen to the body in different periods of times, involving the nerves, skin, and lens (6). These
285 complications disrupt an individual's quality of life and contribute to high rates of morbidity and
286 mortality (7).

287

288 Diabetes is a metabolic disorder causing elevated blood sugar levels in the blood. It contributes to
289 increased glycated haemoglobin deposits in vascular walls that lead to atherosclerosis (thickening of
290 the basement membrane of the vessels). This constricting effect of diabetes is more pronounced in
291 systems that require microvascular supply like the cochlea for energy and substrates. This constriction
292 then leads to hearing loss, tinnitus, and even nerve damage as oxygen struggles to reach the inner
293 ear's nerves (8). Hearing loss and tinnitus contribute to a decreased quality of life among those with
294 the diagnoses (5).

295

296 Current epidemiological knowledge supports T2DM and its association with auditory disorders in both
297 the young and older generation, proving that the occurrence of auditory disorder from a T2DM patient
298 is independent of the pathophysiological changes likened to ageing (8). Most of the cross-sectional
299 studies showed elevated hearing thresholds of participants diagnosed with T2DM, while some even
300 reported the presence of otitis media and tinnitus (8). Prevalence studies, however, cannot account
301 for temporality, and for this reason, cohort studies are used to attain incidence rates for the linear
302 progression of auditory dysfunction in individuals with T2DM. There are, however, fewer incidence
303 studies than prevalence studies, but the ones observed show a modestly increased risk of hearing
304 impairment in people with T2DM compared to those without it (9).

305

306 Although these studies support the association between T2DM and the occurrence of auditory
307 dysfunction, most of them are not investigated in an African population. In addition to African budget
308 constraints, the literature gap creates a problem as lifestyle trends are different in the African context
309 compared to the Western and European countries. This difference in lifestyle trends is due to higher-
310 income countries being better suited to afford specific resources that low-middle-income countries
311 would not sustain.

312

313 Evidence on this topic will inform the need for more epidemiology population-based studies assessing
314 the association of auditory dysfunction in African people with T2DM. It will also facilitate the
315 integration of audiological assessment in medical examinations of DM patients of all ages in Africa.
316 Moreover, the robust knowledge focusing on the African context will assist in gaining the attention of
317 policymakers to fund audiological screening programs. This knowledge will help in the early
318 identification and treatment of hearing impairments in DM patient, further helping to decrease the
319 double burden of infection on patients with DM. Early identification and management strategies for

320 hearing impairment in DM individuals are currently not included in the IDF guidelines. A study of this
321 nature may warrant the inclusion of the methods mentioned above.

322

323 1.1.2. Aim of this paper

324

325 We are conducting this systematic review to determine the prevalence and incidence of T2DM related
326 auditory dysfunction in African adults (aged 19 years and older) to provide robust epidemiological
327 data within the African context. We anticipate this review will illuminate the growing prevalence of
328 T2DM-related auditory dysfunctions, alert health professionals to the importance of screening T2DM
329 patients for various auditory disorders, as well as for policymakers to prioritise early detection and
330 treatment of hearing impairments.

331

332 1.1.3. Why is it important to do this review?

333

334 We anticipate that this review would provide a robust synthesis of epidemiological data to guide
335 clinicians and researchers in their practice and further research. It will also potentially bring awareness
336 to auditory dysfunction manifested in other highly prevalent chronic diseases. We found no
337 information detailing the early identification and management of hearing impairment in DM patients
338 in the IDF guidelines. We believed that meta-data showing an association between T2DM and the
339 occurrence of auditory dysfunction may help facilitate the inclusion of hearing impairment
340 management strategies for individuals with T2DM. It will also provide holistic and comprehensive care
341 for patients diagnosed with T2DM in 160 countries that correspond with the IDF. The double burden
342 of infection in people with DM will also reduce because early identification and hearing impairment
343 management will prevent increased financial strain associated with late-stage identification of
344 hearing.

345

346 1.1.4. Objective

347

348 We set out to provide an evidence-based estimate of the prevalence and incidence of T2DM-related
349 hearing loss in African regions. Furthermore, we plan to compare audiometric thresholds of reported
350 studies and factors influencing the prevalence, incidence, and severity of hearing loss. These factors
351 will include the duration of T2DM effect on the onset of hearing loss and the relationship between

352 good versus poor glycaemic control on the occurrence and severity of T2DM in an African adult
353 population.

354

355 1.1.5. Review question

356

357 The following research question guides this systematic review:

358 What is the prevalence and incidence of auditory dysfunction in adults clinically identified with type 2
359 diabetes mellitus aged 19 years and older in studies done on an African population?

360

361 1.2. Rationale

362

363 Several studies investigating the link between auditory disorders and DM have reported differing
364 findings, with most of them assessing mixed populations of Type 1 and Type 2 DM in European and
365 American people, and minimal research carried out on indigenous Africans with DM (10). There is a
366 great need for robust evidence looking at the incidence and prevalence of diabetes-related auditory
367 disorders in Africa. This information will bring awareness to the condition to improve identification
368 and early treatment of ear and hearing impairments in people with T2DM. This study is unique
369 because it focuses exclusively on the African continent. The data gathered on auditory disorders in
370 people with T2DM will help develop policies and programmes focused on improving patient
371 outcomes. The paper will also create a benchmark for comparing future patient outcomes and results
372 to measure the success of the interventions.

373

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383 1.3. Methodology and Analysis

384

385 1.3.1. Study Selection

386

387 All population-based study designs, cross-sectional studies and prospective or retrospective cohort
388 studies that report the prevalence and incidence of auditory dysfunction in T2DM in an African
389 population will be included.

390

391 1.3.2. Inclusion criteria

392

393 We included studies meeting the following inclusion criteria:

- 394 1. Include all cross-sectional and cohort studies examined on adults in Africa that report:
- 395 a. Adults from Africa 19 years and above as per WHO guidelines
- 396 b. Adults should be medically diagnosed or defined based on a measured fasting plasma glucose
397 (FPG) specified by the WHO Criteria.
- 398 c. Published between the year January 1991 and January 2021 (11).

399

400 Authors were contacted via email for more information needed with the categorisation of articles.

401

402 1.3.2.1. Primary outcomes:

403

- 404 - Overall prevalence of auditory dysfunction in adults clinically diagnosed with T2DM in Africa.
- 405 - Prevalence of auditory dysfunction by African region.

406

407 1.3.2.2. Secondary outcome:

408

- 409 - Prevalence of auditory dysfunction according to the duration of T2DM.
- 410 - Prevalence of auditory dysfunction according to glycaemic control (good vs poor).

411

412

413 1.4. Search strategy for identification of relevant studies

414

415 1.4.1. Electronic databases

416

417 1. Electronic databases including PubMed/MEDLINE, EBSCO Host, Scopus, Web of Science.

418 2. Grey literature databases, e.g., Google scholar. Thesis and dissertation databases

419

420 1.4.2. Hand selection

421

422 1. A reference list of retrieved articles will be scanned for viable studies.

423 2. Notable authors of chosen studies will be contacted for more information on similar papers.

424

425 1.4.3. Search methods for identification of studies

426

427 Both published and unpublished studies were considered for inclusion in this study. A comprehensive
428 search strategy with an African search filter was used to search for articles between 1991- 2021.
429 Professional librarians from the University of Cape Town Health Sciences library were consulted for
430 the expert design of the search strategy. Individual African countries and regional grouping names
431 were used to identify studies that may have been indexed under local names. Both English and the
432 specific country's native language were used in the search strategy for countries with both English and
433 non- English names, while countries that had their name changed over the span of 1991-2021 had
434 both their names included in the search strategy. Medical Search Terms (MeSH) terms were used
435 when searching for studies on MEDLINE and PubMed. Rayyan QCRI systematic review web software
436 was used to manage citations (12).

437

438 1.4.4. Study Selection

439

440 Three review authors (AF, AH and LP.) independently screened titles and abstracts of articles from
441 electronic search outputs. The primary review author emailed study authors where clarification and
442 essential details were missing. This step constituted the first stage of the review.

443

444 During the screening process, studies were marked as 'included' and 'excluded'. A meeting was
445 scheduled to discuss which studies should be included or excluded from the 'pending' studies pile with

446 substantiated reasons for each decision. Full-text copies of studies that met the inclusion criteria were
447 included and reviewed, and their details were drafted onto a data extraction form. Both reviewers
448 agreed to the final number of studies included in the study. The search steps were documented on a
449 PRISMA flow diagram. Conflicts between reviewers were resolved through discussion and
450 involvement of a third reviewer if necessary.

451

452 1.4.5. Data extraction and management

453

454 Data was extracted by two independent authors (A.F & A.H). Discrepancies were resolved through
455 discussion or by the involvement of the senior author, who made the final decision on what
456 information should be included in the study. The data extraction form was pre- designed and piloted
457 independently by two study authors using the same studies to assess comprehension. Data extracted
458 form subheadings were adapted from the Joanna Briggs Institute Manual for prevalence studies
459 [https://wiki.jbi.global/display/MANUAL/Appendix+5.2%3A+Data+extraction+form+for+prevalence+s](https://wiki.jbi.global/display/MANUAL/Appendix+5.2%3A+Data+extraction+form+for+prevalence+studies)
460 [tudies](https://wiki.jbi.global/display/MANUAL/Appendix+5.2%3A+Data+extraction+form+for+prevalence+studies). (Refer to Appendix 2).

461

462 The following information was retrieved:

- 463 - Study details: date of publication, study title, study design, study period and study purpose.
- 464 - Study population: which African country the study was conducted, the setting in which the
465 research was conducted (e.g., community health facility or hospital), whether it was run in an urban
466 or rural setting and how large the sample size was.
- 467 - The case definition reported in the study.
- 468 - The infected and uninfected individuals, namely, hearing loss or hearing impairment,
469 ototoxicity, otitis media, and deafness.
- 470 - Type of audiometric test used, and average thresholds obtained.
- 471 - T2DM definition, good vs poor glucose control, average T2DM duration (years)
- 472 - The characteristic of the study population: age, sex, ethnicity and whether they have any
473 comorbid diseases such as TB, HIV or hypertension.

474

475 After retrieval, the data was analysed and compared using Review Manager 5.4.1 software. If
476 discrepancies arose during this process, they were resolved through discussions between the two
477 reviewers and possibly involved a third reviewer if the matter was not resolved. Authors of studies
478 deemed relevant for this review were contacted for missing information.

479

480 1.5. Quality appraisal of included studies

481

482 The Hoy et al., modified by Werfalli and colleagues' critical appraisal tool (13) (Appendix 3), was used
483 to assess the prevalence studies' methodological quality in this paper. The quality of each study was
484 assessed by grading the external and internal validity of each paper. The Risk of Bias criteria in the tool
485 allocated four points for external validity and six points for internal validity. High risk of bias was
486 marked as accumulated points between 0-5, moderate risk is 6-8 points, and low risk is >8. Authors
487 independently assessed the risk of bias for each included study, and where there was disagreement,
488 a third reviewer was consulted to resolve the dispute.

489

490 1.6. Data synthesis and analysis

491

492 1.6.1. Meta-analysis

493

494 Data was presented in text, tables, and graphs to illustrate the numerators and denominators of
495 auditory disorders in Africans with T2DM. Data outcomes from similar studies were pooled together
496 for analysis using a random-effects model where significant clinical and methodological heterogeneity
497 existed between them. The pooled data for auditory disorders was presented as prevalence ratios
498 with a 95% confidence interval (CI). Meta-analysis illustrating high heterogeneity were reported
499 narratively.

500

501 1.6.2. Assessment of heterogeneity

502

503 Data was pooled to assess heterogeneity, first by visual inspection of the forest plots, and then
504 followed by a Chi-squared test for heterogeneity. The significance level was set to 0.10, which is a p-
505 value of <0.10, implying that studies do not share a standard effect size. The I(squared) (<25% low,
506 25%-50% as moderate and >75% high heterogeneity) statistics were used to estimate the percentage

507 of total variance across studies to assess the truth between-study differences. The studies'
508 heterogeneity was evaluated using subgroups study-level characteristics, such as geographical region,
509 rural/urban setting, duration of T2DM, good and poor glycaemic control. If there was a further
510 explanation to be made, meta-regression was employed where necessary.

511 A sensitivity analysis was carried out to determine whether the study designs, study period or
512 publication type of the removed study impacted the meta-analysis results.

513

514 **1.7. Assessment of publication bias**

515

516 Funnel plots were used to display the existence, if any, of publication bias. We used the estimators'
517 distributional properties to formulate tests for the presence of publication bias and compare them
518 with new methods of Begg (1994) and Egger (1997). The Duval and Tweedie' trim and fill methods
519 were used alongside the Egger and Begg test to assess the robustness and magnitude of the
520 publication problem (14).

521

522 **1.8. Reporting of this review**

523

524 This review was reported according to the preferred reporting items detailed in the PRISMA 2009
525 Checklist for systematic reviews and meta-analysis (15). The checklist contains a guideline for
526 reporting systematic reviews of healthcare interventions and includes a PRISMA checklist.

527

528 **1.9. Ethics and dissemination**

529

530 This study did not require ethics approval since published material with non-identifiable data was be
531 used. This study was the first to address and synthesise available studies reporting the epidemiology
532 of auditory function in type 2 diabetes adults in the African context. Findings generated in this study
533 will be used to inform the National Burden of Disease specialists of the incidence and prevalence and
534 guide in health policy planning.

535

536 **1.10. Logistics and timetable**

537

538 **Table 1:** Schedule for completion of study (Estimate)

539 The expected timeline for the completion of this proposed study is summarised.

	June '20	July '20	Aug'20	Sep'20	DEC'21	JAN'21	FEB'21	FEB'21
Protocol and Lit review	X	X	X					
Data management				X				
Data analysis					X	X		
Results							X	
Write-up								X

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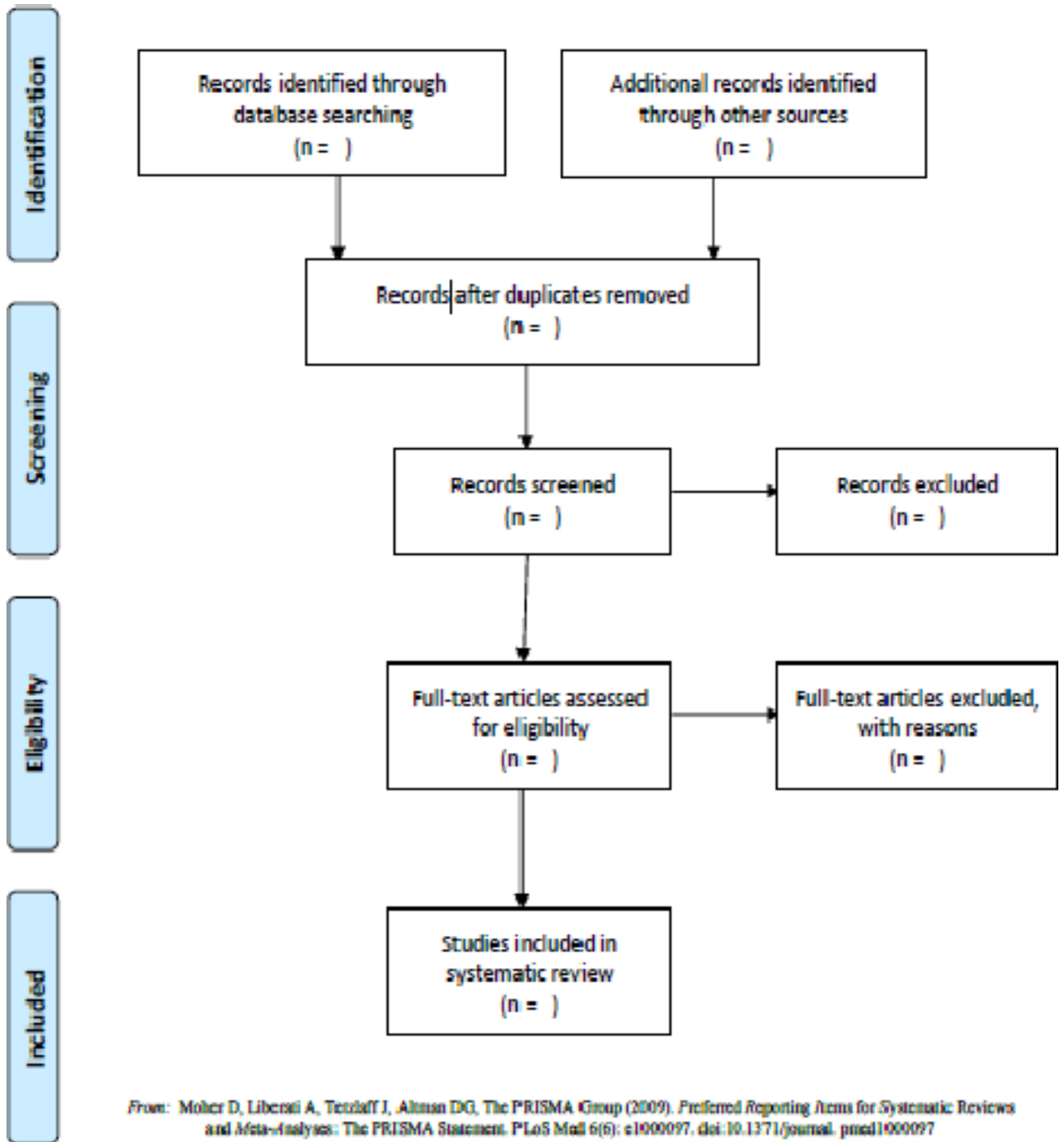
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612 Appendix A: PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram
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617

618 **Appendix B: Adapted Data Extraction Sheet**

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620 1. Study Information

621

622 Reviewer:

623 Checked by:

624 Study ID:

625

626 2. Citation Details

627

628

629 Authors:

630 Title of the study:

631 Journal:

632 Year:

633 Issue:

634 Study period:

635

636 3. Characteristics of Included Studies

637

638

639 Methods: Case definition:

640 Aim of the Study:

641 Study Design:

642 Year/timeframe for data collection:

643 Method of Assessment (PTA, ABR, OAE): Hearing Assessment classification:
644
645
646 Condition Studied: Study definition used for T2DM:
647 Reported auditory dysfunction: PTA average (Left and Right ear): Comorbid diseases reported:
648
649
650 Participants: Population description:
651 No. of participants:
652 Abnormal/ T2DM (numerator/denominator): Age:
653 Sex:
654 Ethnicity:
655 Duration diagnosed with T2DM:
656 No. of abnormal results in good vs poor glycaemic control:
657
658 ABR means (waves I, III, V):
659
660 Setting: Inclusion criteria:
661 Exclusion criteria:
662 Subgroup reported:
663 Subgroup measured:
664 Rural or Urban:
665
666
667 4. Additional Information

668

669 Study author key conclusions:

670 Correspondence required for further study information:

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693 Appendix C: Quality Appraisal Tool

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Name of author (s):		
Year of publication:		
Study title:		
Risk of bias items	Risk of bias levels	Points scored
EXTERNAL VALIDITY		
1. Was the study's target population a close representation of the national population in relation to the variables, e.g., age, sex, occupation?	Yes (LOW RISK): The study's target population was a close representation of the national populations.	0
	No (HIGH RISK): The study's target population was clearly NOT representative of the national population	1
2. Was the sampling frame a true or close representation of the target populations?	Yes (LOW RISK): The sampling frame was a true or close representation of the target population.	0
	No (HIGH RISK): The sampling frame was NOT a true or close representation of the target population.	1
3. Was some form of random selection used to select the sample, OR was a census undertaken?	Yes (LOW RISK): A census was undertaken, OR, some form of random selection was used to select the sample (e.g. simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic sampling).	0
	No (HIGH RISK): A census was NOT undertaken, AND some form of random selection was NOT used to select the sample.	1
4. Was the likelihood of non-response bias minimal?	Yes (LOW RISK): The response rate for the study was $\geq 75\%$, OR, an analysis was performed that showed no significant difference in relevant demographic characteristics between responders and non- responders	0
	No (HIGH RISK): The response rate was $< 75\%$, and if any analysis comparing responders and non-responders was done, it showed a significant difference in relevant demographic	1

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CHAPTER TWO

Epidemiology of Auditory Dysfunction in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Adults in Africa:

Literature Review

721 2. Introduction

722 2.1. Background

723

724 Hearing impairment is a partial or complete inability to hear sounds. It is one of the major sensory
725 disorders worldwide, affecting 466 million people globally, with 93% being adults (1). Hearing
726 problems, when left untreated, may worsen and in severe cases, cause permanent damage to the
727 hearing structures of the ear. Due to a lack of education on varying risk factors that affect hearing
728 acuity, many people may unknowingly damage it, making it challenging to communicate with others
729 without the assistance of a listening aid.

730

731 Hearing impairment is more common in sub-Saharan Africa than in more affluent parts of the world
732 (2). WHO statistics show that hearing loss (defined as threshold >30dB) for adults above the age of 15-
733 years old (1) were 15.7% in sub-Saharan Africa compared to the 4.9% prevalence rates in high-income
734 countries. However, the estimates focusing on Africa are based on minimal data as the review only
735 includes eleven studies (eight published and three unpublished). This shortage in literature is further
736 propagated by the lack of relevant population-based surveys that use standardised protocols and
737 classification methods (3), making it difficult to draw significant evidence to justify better healthcare
738 resources and services for audiological conditions for the African context.

739

740 In addition to the limited data on hearing loss in Africa, its relation to Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)
741 is an under-researched topic worldwide and much less investigated in Africa. Some studies have
742 related the lack of research to a limited understanding of the cellular and molecular systems involved
743 in hearing loss in people with diabetes mellitus (DM), while other studies attribute it to reduced access
744 to cochlear tissue in humans for pathophysiological studies (4). Nevertheless, the available data,
745 though scarce, does confirm a relationship between the presence of T2DM and the occurrence of
746 hearing impairment (4, 5, 6, 7, 8).

747

748 With the growing interest in diabetes-related auditory dysfunction, it is not unexpected that increased
749 research would initially reveal conflicting outcomes. For instance, several authors reported that the
750 central nervous system was involved in auditory and vestibular issues in DM patients, while others
751 proposed that DM accelerated the ageing process (9, 10). More recent population-based studies

752 investigating the association between T2DM and auditory dysfunction report their findings as
753 outcomes of a slow, progressive, bilateral, high-frequency sensorineural hearing loss. Other studies
754 analysing the mechanisms of the association of DM and hearing impairment produced results
755 suggesting a combination of hyperglycaemia, oxidative stress due to microangiopathy, and auditory
756 neuropathy (4). However, even with this knowledge, the topic is still far from complete elucidation.

757

758 This paper will provide an overview of human evidence of pathophysiological changes caused by T2DM
759 and its effects on the auditory system. It will review prevalence and incidence data to assess the
760 burden of disease in Africa. Trends contributing to disease impact between high- and low-income
761 countries will be narratively discussed.

762

763 Findings discussed in the paper will help inform appropriate planning of policies and services of
764 evidence-based advocacy for people with hearing impairment in low and middle-income countries.
765 Results gathered will facilitate the integration of early detection and treatment of hearing disorders
766 in T2DM patients with the hopes of possible integration of audiological screening in the medical
767 treatment of T2DM patients.

768

769 **2.2. Diabetes: Definition and Prevalence**

770

771 **2.2.1. Definition of Diabetes Mellitus**

772

773 The World Health Organization (WHO) defines DM as a non-communicable disease (NCD)
774 characterised by high glucose levels in the blood. The high glucose content can damage the heart,
775 blood vessels, eyes, kidneys, and nerves (11). There are several types of diabetes mellitus, T2DM being
776 the most common. T2DM, usually diagnosed in adults, manifests when the body becomes resistant to
777 insulin or does not create enough insulin; this is in contrast to type 1 diabetes (T1DM), which occurs
778 due to an absolute deficiency of insulin secretion (12).

779

780 **2.2.2. Epidemiology of Type 2 Diabetes in Africa**

781

782 Sub-Saharan Africa is not immune to the uprising of DM. In keeping with the WHO statistics mentioned
783 above, T2DM is the predominant type of diabetes in the region, accounting for over 90% of cases (13)

784 T1DM constitutes the remainder. The reported cases add a significant burden on an already
785 compromised health system due to high cases of infectious diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis and
786 HIV in the continent (14).

787

788 2.2.3. Prevalence of T2DM

789

790 About 40 years ago, DM was a rare disease in the region. Low prevalence rates were evident in East
791 and Western African countries (Ethiopia, Ghana, Lesotho, Uganda and Malawi between 1960 – mid-
792 1985 presented a prevalence of <1%), while South Africa showed moderate prevalence rates, with
793 cities and peri-urban areas having the highest occurrence of the disease (4%-8%). The high prevalence
794 rates point to high obesity rates compared to other countries in the region (14, 15, 16). In countries
795 such as Tanzania and Cameroon, the prevalence of DM is reported to increase six to ten-fold within
796 10 years. (17).

797

798 In 1995, the WHO estimated 135 million people living with DM globally and a projected increase to
799 154 million by 2000 (18). Estimates from the recent (International Diabetes Federation (IDF) Atlas of
800 2019 show that the current rates of infection is 463 million and will increase to 700 million by 2045
801 (19). Moreover, the 2019 IDF report showed that low to middle-income countries claim 79% of the
802 world's diabetes cases. Within that rating, 19 million are adults between the ages of 20-79 living in
803 African countries. This figure is estimated to rise to 47 million by 2045 (20). Each of these reports
804 highlight that low to middle-income countries will claim the majority of the expected increase of DM
805 cases, with the African continent contributing the largest proportion of cases to the rise (13, 21, 22).

806

807 2.3. Worldwide incidence and prevalence of T2DM related Hearing Impairment

808

809 2.3.1. Incidence of T2DM related auditory dysfunction

810

811 Although prevalence studies predominate most literature on the topic, there is a consensus of an
812 increased risk of hearing impairment in people with DM than individuals without diabetes. One
813 example of an incidence study is the Beaver Dam Study. The study recruited 1925 residents from the
814 Beaver Dam to participate in a support study called the Epidemiology of Hearing loss Study (EHLS).
815 Participants were aged between 43-84 years with normal hearing at baseline. Baseline hearing tests

816 were done between 1993 to 1995, followed by assessments in 1998-2000, 2003-2005, and 2009- 2010.
817 Incident hearing impairment was defined as a pure-tone average (PTA) greater than 25dB at
818 frequencies 500, 1000, 2000 and 4000Hz in either ear. The study showed an association between DM
819 and slight elevation of risk of hearing impairment in age and sex-adjusted models. Although the risk
820 was insignificant (HR = 1.26 [95% CI, 0.93-1.71]), a more significant risk was found in individuals with
821 poorly controlled DM (HR=2.03 [95%CI, 1.01-4.08]) (23)

822

823 A more recent longitudinal study assessing 139 909 women from the Nurses' Health Study looked at
824 the relationship between T2DM and the risk of self-reported incidence of hearing impairment. During
825 the evaluation period (>2.4 million person-years of follow-up), subjects with T2DM for >8 years were
826 found to have a higher risk of moderate or severe hearing impairment compared to participants that
827 did not have T2DM in their multivariable-adjusted model (HR=1.16 [95% CI, 1.27]) (24).

828

829 The Blue Mountains Hearing Study sought to report the relationship between T2DM and the 5-year
830 incidence and progression of hearing impairment. Hearing impairment was defined as a PTA above
831 25dB at 500, 1000, 2000 and 4000Hz in the better ear. T2DM was defined by physician-diagnosed
832 reports stating a fasting blood glucose level of ≥ 7.0 mmol/L. After adjusting for multiple risk factors,
833 results showed age-related hearing impairment in 50% of DM participants (n=210) compared to 38.2%
834 of non-DM participants (n=1648), odds ratio (OR) 1.55 [95% CI 1.11-2.17]. After five years, hearing
835 impairment appeared in 18.7% of subjects and 18.0% in those without DM (adjusted OR 1.01 [CI 0.54-
836 1.91]). Participants that already had hearing impairment had threshold averages increased by >5dB.
837 This progression was greater in participants with newly diagnosed DM (69.6%) than in those without
838 DM (47.8%) over five years (adjusted OR 2.71 [CI 1.07-6.86]). (25). What stands out about the results
839 of this study is that it observed a significant association between prevalent DM and hearing
840 impairment but not incident DM and hearing impairment, which made the study not true to the
841 intended study design.

842

843 Another study looked at the risk of sudden hearing impairment in DM individuals. A retrospective
844 cohort study based on the Taiwan National Health insurance program (universal healthcare system
845 covering 99% of the country's 23 million residents) assessed 26 566 newly diagnosed DM patients and
846 26 566 subjects without DM. These participants were selected from the claims made during 2000-
847 2004. There were no significant differences between age, sex, or health care costs between the sample

848 group and all claimants. The sample group was extracted from the Longitudinal Health Insurance
849 Database of 2000, which is a subset of the National Health Insurance Research Database containing
850 all claim data from 1996 to 2009. Sudden sensorineural hearing loss was defined by the ICD-9 code
851 (International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification). From 2000 to 2004,
852 claims data were available for 26 566 people with DM meeting the criteria. An additional 26 566 non-
853 DM subjects were recruited through random selection. Results showed a significant risk of sudden
854 sensorineural hearing loss (SNHL) in the DM group compared to the non-DM group in two age groups:
855 35-49 and 50-64 years old. Incidence ratio for these groups were 2.09 (95% CI, 1.27-3.45) and
856 1.67(95% CI, 1.23-2.26) respectively. For people younger than 65, incidence rates did not show
857 significant incidence rates for the DM group (26).

858

859 2.3.2. Prevalence data of T2DM related auditory dysfunction

860

861 Generally, epidemiological studies support the association between DM and hearing impairment.
862 Most of the population-based studies that were found did not differentiate between T1DM and T2DM.
863 However, attempts have been made to filter out studies only focusing on subjects with T2DM. We first
864 examine the cross-sectional (prevalence) data.

865

866 A cross-sectional study carried out at a diabetes outpatient clinic in LAUTECH Teaching hospital (LTH)
867 in Ogbomoso, Nigeria, assessed the patterns of otologic diseases and auditory acuity in T2DM patients.
868 Ninety-seven consenting patients diagnosed with DM were recruited together with their age and sex-
869 matched non-DM patients (90 subjects). Both groups were screened using otoscopy and pure-tone air
870 and bone conduction audiometry. For audiometric testing, air conduction thresholds measured were
871 250, 500, 1000, 2000, 4000, 6000 and 8000Hz, while bone conduction was measured at 250, 500,
872 1000, 2000 and 4000Hz for each ear separately. Audiometry results showed hearing impairment in
873 21.5% (n= 21) T2DM candidates and 8.9% (n= 8) of controls (p=0.016). 5 out of 21 T2DM (23.8%) and
874 6 out of 10 controls (75.0%) presented with unilateral hearing impairment. Bilateral abnormal PTA
875 results revealed a significantly higher proportion of T2DM patients than controls (p = <0.001). The
876 most occurring type of hearing impairment was SNHL which was found to be significantly different (p=
877 0.012) from the 37.5% found in controls. The degree of hearing impairment common in T2DM patients
878 was moderate hearing impairment found in 8 out of 21 participants (38.0%) and mild hearing
879 impairment in controls (3 out of 8 = 37.5%), which were found to be statistically significant (p = 0.057).

880 (27). The most common occurring auditory disease associated with T2DM was otitis media with
881 effusion (p= 0.027) (27).

882

883 A report looking at prevalence trends in US citizens between the ages of 25-69 years with and without
884 DM found that the prevalence of hearing impairment in DM showed an increase from (28.5% [95% CI,
885 20.4%-36.6%] to 34.4% [95% CI, 29.1-39.7%]). Citizens without diabetics declined over time (from
886 24.4% [95% CI, 22.3-26.6%] to 22.3% [95% CI, 20.4-24.2%]), (28). Data from 1971-1973 and 1999-2004
887 cycles were used for this study. Estimates were adjusted for age, sex, race and educational level.
888 Results illustrated in this study show that not only has the prevalence for hearing in T2DM is higher
889 compared to those that do not have T2DM, but that those with DM have not had a reduction in hearing
890 impairment prevalence since the 1970s (28).

891

892 Another Beaver Dam study similarly showed an association between T2DM and hearing impairment
893 (29). The study analysed 3571 participants and found that people with T2DM were more likely to
894 present with hearing impairment (59%) compared to controls (44%). Also, once participants with
895 presbycusis-like audiometric results were excluded from the analysis, a significant association
896 between T2DM and hearing impairment prevailed (OR = 1.41 [95% CI, 1.05-1.88, P= 0.02]) (29).
897 However, the difference was not statistically significant when controlled for age.

898

899 Studies carried out outside of the US investigating the association of T2DM and hearing impairment
900 have also proved an association. For instance, a Japanese study assessed middle-aged self-defence
901 males through testing their hearing. Hearing impairment was defined as a PTA of >25dB in the worst
902 ear at the following frequencies (500, 1000, 2000 and 4000 Hz). High frequencies (3000, 4000 and
903 6000Hz) were also evaluated. Participants were split into three groups; the first was impaired glucose
904 tolerance (n=154), the second was a group of identified DM candidates (n= 103), and the third was
905 non-diabetic candidates (n= 442). Results showed that T2DM was associated with hearing impairment
906 (OR = 1.87 [95% CI, 1.20-2.91]), and significant threshold elevation was observed at 1000, 3000 and
907 8000Hz in people with DM compared to their non-diabetic controls. Furthermore, impaired glucose
908 tolerance was not associated with an increased risk of hearing impairment (OR =1.16 [95% CI, 0.80-
909 1.68]) (30).

910

911 Lastly, the Brazilian Longitudinal Study of Adult Health (ELSA-Brasil) examined hearing outcomes in
912 901 adults with DM (mean age: 57.4 years, +/- 9.0 years; n = 191) and without DM (51.2 years +/- 8.9,
913 n= 710). Results showed a sign of low to mid-frequency hearing impairment (250-2000Hz) in persons
914 with DM. However, no significant hearing impairment was found for age, sex, and hypertension-
915 adjusted models (OR = 1.03 [95% CI, 0.56 – 1.92]). Furthermore, hearing thresholds were not affected
916 by occupational noise exposure in the groups with and without DM. There was also no association
917 between the length of diabetes and worsened hearing thresholds after adjusting for age, sex and
918 hypertension (31).

919

920 2.4. History of T2DM related auditory dysfunction

921

922 In 1857, Jordao reported a case of hearing impairment associated with an emerging diabetic coma
923 (32). Soon after, the invention of pure-tone audiometry made it possible to assess for auditory acuity
924 of the inner ear in people with diabetes. Afterwards, researchers started reporting auditory acuity
925 using audiometric test outcomes. The typical hearing impairment described by authors at that time
926 was a progressive, bilateral, sensorineural deafness that occurred gradually. It mimicked presbycusis
927 because it affected higher frequencies in older patients (32).

928

929 Papers looking at incidence rates between 1943- 1975 showed no consensus in the literature as
930 varying authors quoted sensorineural hearing impairment incidence rates to be between 0 to 93%
931 (32). In cases where authors disclosed their methodology for obtaining incidence rates, one of three
932 options was used; two of the methods involved comparing hearing thresholds of diabetics to Johansen
933 curves relating hearing levels of normal individuals to their ages (32). The second method compared
934 the mean hearing level of diabetic participants with predicated hearing thresholds, while the third,
935 unique to Friedman, involved calculated regression equations. Friedman then diagnosed subjects with
936 z scores above 1.96 as having abnormal hearing (32). Subsequently, several authors reported
937 additional factors that impact the hearing level of diabetic patients, such as duration of diabetes, sex,
938 age, blood pressure, retinopathy, nephropathy and angiopathy (32).

939

940 As previously mentioned, not all authors agreed that DM could lead to hearing impairment. In 1981,
941 a cross-sectional study carried out by Harner on 200 adults found no evidence of an increased
942 prevalence of hearing among individuals with DM (33). Pure-tone audiometry was administered on

943 the participants using frequencies ranging from 250Hz to 8000Hz. The hearing prevalence results were
944 compared to data from a population study of hearing prevalence from 12 years earlier. Harner's
945 outcomes were made less valid because the results were not adjusted for decreased smoking
946 prevalence and improved occupational hearing protection technology. Another study with a similar
947 outcome investigated whether noise and DM together produce more hearing impairment than
948 workers without DM. Participants (n= 28) with DM were sectioned into a high-noise (n= 15) and low-
949 noise (n= 13) group. Results showed no difference in the higher threshold in the high-noise and low-
950 noise exposed group compared to the non-exposed group of high and low noise (34). However, the
951 results of this study are questionable as low participant numbers may reduce the power of the study
952 and, as a result, miss the hearing difference between the DM group and their non-DM controls.
953 Moreover, both Harner and Hodgson's research did not include the smoking history of the
954 participants. Smoking is known to be a principal risk factor for hearing impairment.(35).

955

956 It is worth noting that most studies completed after the year 2000 found more positive reported
957 associations between hearing impairment and DM. The development is a possible indication of
958 increased awareness of potential confounders and a change in study designs over time. Hong, Buss
959 and Thomas (2013) found that the change in study design may shift whether DM causes hearing
960 impairment to focus on the pathology, prevalence, incidence, and progression of hearing impairment
961 in people with diabetes. It can possibly raise the question of preventative measures that healthcare
962 providers can use in reducing the risk of hearing for patients with DM (35).

963

964 2.5. Pathophysiology of T2DM

965

966 The exact aetiology of T2DM is not well-understood in literature due to the various findings in different
967 research studies. Early investigators demonstrated that sustained neurodegeneration of cells caused
968 by T2DM would lead to intercellular and extracellular processes that cause secondary disorders. These
969 disorders include coronary artery disease, peripheral vascular disease, retinopathy, neuropathy and
970 nephropathy, which the inner ear is sensitive to (36, 37, 38). Other studies provide evidence that
971 T2DM is a multisystem disorder affecting the micro and macro-vascular system that cause vascular
972 pathologies in the cochlea, resulting in auditory dysfunction (5, 39, 40). There is still yet to be an
973 agreed-upon pathophysiological explanation of how T2DM affects the auditory system. The
974 information presented below will explore the theories that existed in the past, and some current
975 beliefs.

976

977 2.6. Anatomy and Physiology of the Human ear

978

979 2.6.1. Description of the anatomy of the cochlea and its mechanisms

980

981 The inner ear structures are designed to convert mechanical energy transmitted in the form of waves
982 into neuronal impulses that can be interpreted as sound by the brain. In addition to hearing, inner ear
983 structures also assist with postural balance and gaze fixation. The cochlear component assists with
984 hearing, and the vestibular component assists with balance.

985

986 2.6.2. Mechanisms of auditory transduction

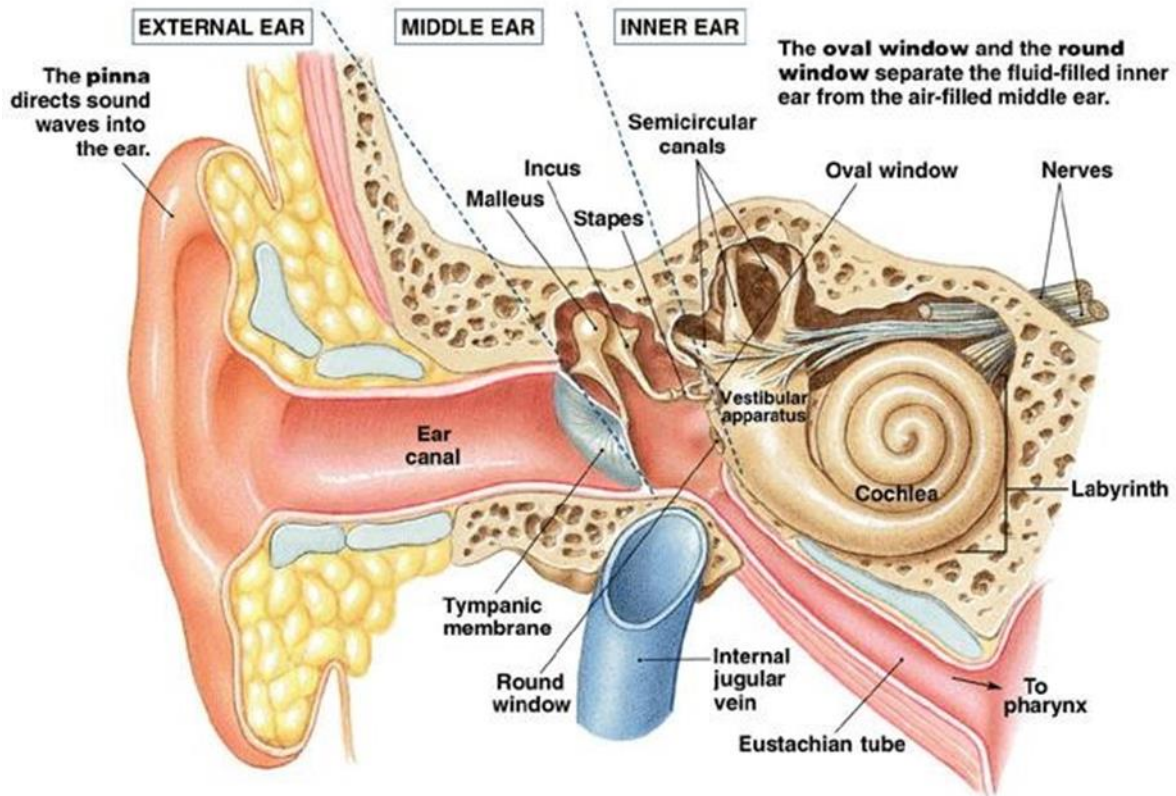
987

988 Auditory transduction is when the ear converts sound waves in the inner ear, changes them into nerve
989 impulses in the cochlear component and later sends them to the brain to be interpreted as sound.

990

991 Sound waves enter the ear via the external auditory canal to reach the tympanic membrane (also
992 referred to as the eardrum) (Figure 1). The tympanic membrane is a cone-shaped structure. It
993 articulates with three tiny bones (or ossicles): the malleus, incus, and stapes, in the middle ear. (Figure
994 2a). The vibration of the tympanic membrane causes the ossicles in the middle ear to vibrate and pass
995 information about frequency and amplitude to the footplate of the stapes, which moves in a piston-
996 like motion that sends vibrations to another bony structure called the labyrinth. Due to the flexibility
997 of the round window, the movement of the stapes allows for the displacement of the perilymph to
998 allow sound vibrations to enter the bony labyrinth (41).

999



1000

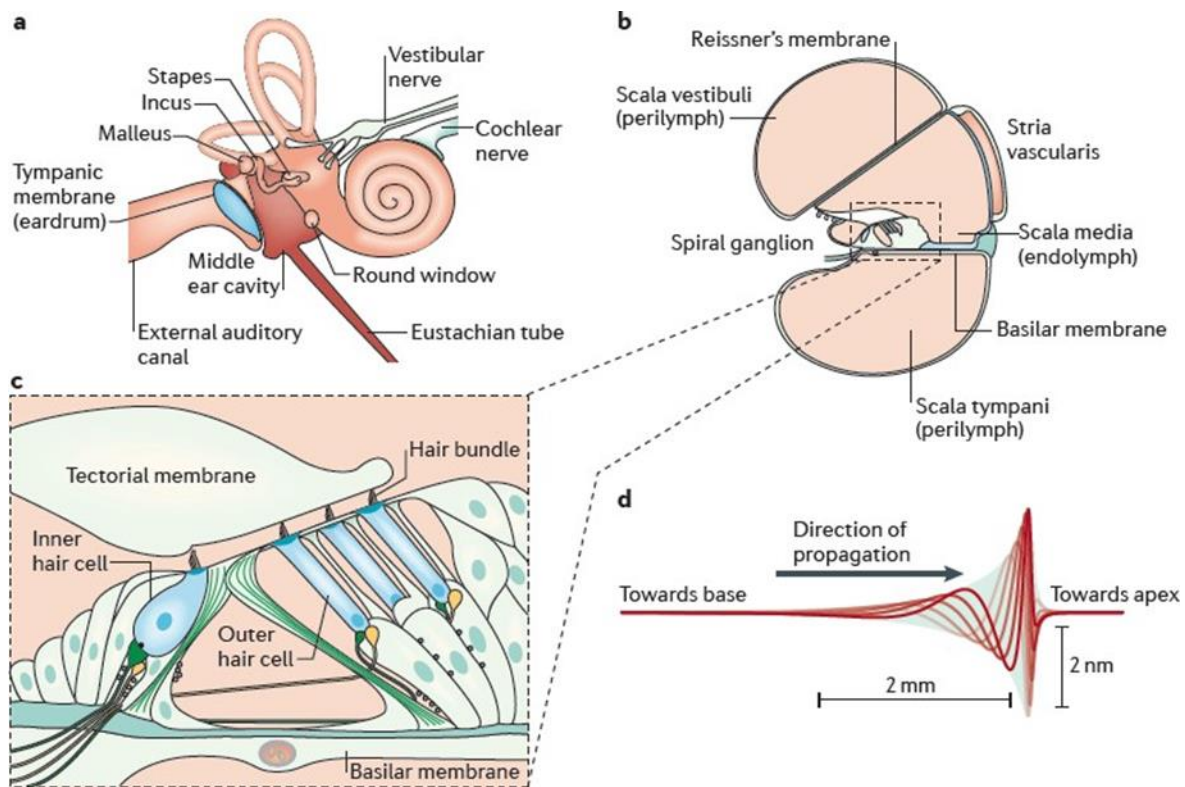
1001 **Figure 1:** Illustration of external, middle and inner ear structures (41).

1002 <https://www.austincc.edu/apreview/PhysText/PNSafferentpt2.html#hearing>

1003 The portion of the spiral passage whereby vibrations ascend to the apex of the cochlear is called the
 1004 scala vestibuli. The descending part of the passage is called the scala tympani. A third structure called
 1005 the cochlear duct filled with endolymph is situated between these two structures. When viewed in
 1006 cross-section, the membranes separating the two fluid-filled systems are visible (Figure 2a). They are
 1007 the Reissner's membrane and the basilar membrane (Figure 2c). The membranes are flexible and will
 1008 move with the vibrations scaling up the scala vestibuli. A specialised structure called the Organ of Corti
 1009 is situated above the BM (41).

1010

1011 The basilar membrane is a specialised organ that responds to different sounds. Lower frequency
 1012 sounds vibrate the BM closer to the apex, whereas higher frequency sounds will vibrate the base of
 1013 the membrane (Figure 2d). The Organ of Corti converts these vibrations into nerve impulses and
 1014 transports them via the brain's cochlear nerve to the brain to interpret it as sound.



1015

1016 **Figure 2:** Showing the cochlea and the organ of Corti (41).

1017

1018 2.6.3. Diabetes and the Auditory system: Evidence from Human Pathophysiology

1019

1020 T2DM negatively affects the normal process of auditory transduction. The elevated blood glucose
 1021 levels in DM result in increased deposits of glycated haemoglobin in the vascular walls. This increase
 1022 in glycated haemoglobin deposits on endothelial walls results in abnormal growth of endothelial cells,
 1023 leading to high blood lipid levels that inevitably trigger atherosclerosis (thickening of the base of blood
 1024 vessels). The thickening of the vessels worsens over time and eventually disrupts body systems that
 1025 need a free-flowing microvascular supply of blood (42), such as the cochlea. This disruption of blood
 1026 flow to the cochlea causes issues in the disposal of metabolic waste to maintain homeostasis and the
 1027 transportation of energy and substrates to sustain normal functioning (4). In addition to microvascular
 1028 complications, DM is also believed to cause hyperglycemia-induced oxidative and nitrosative stress .
 1029 This stress leads to endothelial dysfunction and DNA damage at a cellular level. (43). Research on the
 1030 effects of DM on auditory dysfunction reports a multifactorial contribution of hyperglycaemia,
 1031 oxidative stress that leads to cochlear microangiopathy and auditory neuropathy (44).

1032

1033 2.6.4. Auditory: Peripheral and central system pathophysiology

1034

1035 The effects of T2DM on the auditory system have also been observed by examining the peripheral
1036 auditory system of people with long-standing DM (6, 10, 45, 46, 47). Studies performed on human
1037 remains report many pathological mechanisms of the inner ear, such as thickened capillaries in the
1038 stria vascularis (6, 44), demyelination of the vestibulocochlear nerve, narrowed internal auditory
1039 artery, thickened basilar membrane and degeneration of inner and outer hair cells of the cochlea (48,
1040 49, 50). Moreover, discoveries in other studies revealed degeneration of fibrocytes in the spiral
1041 ligament resulting in a loss of neurons to the spiral ligament. Other degenerative changes in the
1042 auditory brainstem pathway include; ischemia, sclerosis in the ventral and dorsal cochlear nuclei,
1043 inferior colliculus and medial geniculate body (47). These anomalies are found to occur independent
1044 of the normal processes of ageing (5, 45, 51).

1045

1046 Vascular abnormalities have also been found to affect cranial nerves resulting in malnourishment,
1047 progression of dysplasia (abnormal cells in tissues or organs with the probability of causing cancer),
1048 necrosis (death of cells in tissue or organ due to disease) of the nerve cell membrane and
1049 demyelination (52). This collection of abnormalities leads to reduced auditory conduction efficacy,
1050 which has been said to be a significant attribute to diabetes peripheral neuropathies (4).

1051

1052 The long-term presence of DM can also negatively affect auditory brainstem function. According to
1053 Konrad-Martin et al. (2010), Gupta et al. (2013) and Vaughan et al. (2007), abnormal Auditory
1054 Brainstem Responses (ABR) responses reported as prolonged peak, interpeak latencies and reduced
1055 peak amplitudes in individuals with T2DM. Latencies give us information about how electrical sound
1056 signals are transmitted through different parts of the auditory brainstem (53). Therefore, elongation
1057 of waves I, III and V in studies (54) and (55) signify a delay in the conduction of auditory signals in the
1058 brainstem of diabetic individuals. Auditory neuropathy is also reported to be responsible for degraded
1059 neural temporal coding in the upper brainstem, causing central auditory processing deficits.
1060 Audiometry shows higher interaural phase differences, poor frequency discrimination limens and
1061 increased gap detection (56).

1062

1063 2.6.5. Human Temporal Bone Studies

1064

1065 Histological studies are examining temporal bones belonging to individuals with DM show pathological
1066 changes in different cochlear cell types, especially in thick vascular regions of the stria vascularis, spiral
1067 ganglion, spiral ligament, and the basal turn of the cochlea (43). Various studies reveal different cell
1068 types in the cochlea show the same syndrome of histopathological changes. Differences in
1069 abnormalities, especially across the different cell types, exist. The theory behind the disparities is that
1070 other cochlear cells have different ways of transporting glucose and insulin, which causes them to
1071 have different susceptibilities to toxic effects of hyperglycemia (57).

1072

1073 2.7. Additional auditory disorder associated with DM

1074

1075 2.7.1. Tinnitus

1076

1077 Studies looking at the association between the presence of DM and the occurrence of tinnitus are
1078 relatively inconclusive. A study supporting the association compared 103 patients with T2DM (mean
1079 age 61.6, range 33-88 years) to 15,622 non-diabetics (mean age 55.1 years, range 26-98 years) (58).
1080 Results revealed that 80% of T2DM patients self-reported tinnitus while only 14% of non-T2DM
1081 patients reported experiencing tinnitus (58). Another study using data of 8,143 adults between the
1082 ages of 20-68 years from the National Health and Nutritional Examination Study (NHANES) of 1999-
1083 2002. Twenty-one percent reported tinnitus within the first year of the study, while 11.7% reported
1084 persistent tinnitus, which was defined to be experienced monthly or even more frequently (59). The
1085 study controlled for confounding variables such as age, sex, race/ethnicity, DM, noise exposure and
1086 smoking status. The study reported a strong correlation between DM and tinnitus. Other studies have
1087 not reported a strong association, and as a result, more population-based studies need to be carried
1088 out to clarify the relationship (8, 60).

1089

1090 2.7.2. Middle ear disorders

1091

1092 Individuals with DM are at increased susceptibility to infection due to elevated serum glucose levels
1093 that cause alterations in the diseased person's immune system. As a result, people with DM are at risk
1094 of developing malignant otitis externa (MOE) (8). MOE is a rare condition that can spread to adjacent
1095 bones. A study of MOE revealed that 90% of people with this condition had DM (61). Within that
1096 population, the infection is more common in older individuals with poor glucose control and those
1097 who wore hearing aids (62). The mortality for this MOE is as high as 50% (Deresinski, 1995). hrsth

1098 **2.8. Audiometric results for T2DM related hearing impairment**

1099

1100 The typical diabetes-related hearing impairment found by several studies is a bilateral sensorineural
1101 hearing loss (63). It is characterised by a progressive hearing impairment that mainly affects high
1102 frequencies but shows a different configuration in low and medium frequencies. Moreover, some
1103 studies have even described diabetes as the cause for sudden unilateral hearing impairment (64, 65,
1104 66). A study assessing the auditory acuity in forty-one T2DM participants and their age and sex-
1105 matched non-diabetic controls used pure-tone audiometry to find differences between the two
1106 groups (67). Results showed higher thresholds in the hyperglycemic age groups. Elevated thresholds
1107 were also observed in participants with poor control of their blood sugar levels (HbA1C > 8%) (9, 32,
1108 65, 67, 68).

1109

1110 In contrast, a cross-sectional study of fifty people with diabetes (twenty-two of the people with
1111 diabetes were insulin-dependent) compared with age and sex-matched control group >60 years found
1112 no significant association between DM (69). The participants were assessed using pure-tone
1113 audiometry and tone decay as well as otological examinations. There was no significant difference
1114 between audiometric and speech testing results between the DM and control groups; in fact, they
1115 were all found to be normal. (69). More population-based data are needed to clarify this relationship.

1116

1117 **2.9. Hearing loss as a function of age and diabetes mellitus**

1118

1119 Ageing is the leading cause of sensorineural hearing loss in adults. Not only does it impair
1120 communication, but it severely diminishes an individual's quality of life, causing social withdrawal,
1121 psychological alienation, loss of confidence, and increased depression and anxiety (70). The internal
1122 ear structure undergoes different changes as we grow, and as a result, our hearing abilities may
1123 change in each age group.

1124

1125 A cross-sectional study involving 37,773 individuals (9,101 females and 28,672 males) who visited the
1126 Health Promotion Center for health screening from 2006 to 2012 conducted a hearing test examining
1127 500, 1kHz, 2kHz, 3kHz, 4kHz and 6kHz in a double walled sound booth. PTA results were determined
1128 by summing up the air conduction thresholds of the right and left ears at four frequencies (500, 1kHz,
1129 2kHz and 4kHz) and dividing each frequency by two.

1130

1131 Average hearing thresholds were determined as mild ($\geq 26\sim 40$ dB), moderate (41~55 dB), moderately
1132 severe (56~70 dB) and severe (71~90 dB) based on the standards of ISO. Participants were split into
1133 age groups (20, 30, 40, 50, 60 and 70 year olds).

1134

1135 Results showed a significant increase in hearing loss prevalence with age being 1.6%, 1.8%, 4.6%.
1136 14.0%, 30.8% and 49.2% respectively. Frequency-specific results showed abnormal thresholds at 6kHz
1137 for subjects in their twenties and thirties, at 4kHz-6kHz for subjects in forties and fifties, at 2-6kHz for
1138 subjects in their sixties and at 0.5kHz-6kHz for subjects in their seventies. Higher losses of hearing
1139 were observed in high frequencies, indicating that suggesting that age-related hearing loss starts
1140 relatively earlier in high frequencies. (71)

1141

1142 2.10. Discussion and Conclusion

1143

1144 Most studies reviewed in this study show an association between T2DM and hearing impairment in
1145 both the young and middle-aged population. This association further proves that auditory dysfunction
1146 in T2DM individuals is independent of the pathophysiological changes that come from ageing. It is
1147 likely that the effects of T2DM on the auditory system are easier to identify in the younger generation
1148 before the cumulative effects of ageing, noise exposure, ototoxic drugs, lifestyle and cardiometabolic
1149 risk factors that cause a discrepancy in the relationship.

1150

1151 Interpretation of the results found in the studies is made complicated by many factors. Most of the
1152 studies are cross-sectional, inhibiting conclusions on causality. However, incidence data from studies
1153 (72, 73, 74) provide some support to the causal relationship between T2DM and auditory dysfunction.
1154 Furthermore, most studies do not explicitly state the type of DM, further inhibiting studies available
1155 for review.

1156

1157 Most of the studies on this topic are carried out in the Western and European context. Although it is
1158 beneficial for knowing the potential effects T2DM has on the human ear and infer it to other countries;
1159 it becomes a problem because lifestyle trends and limited access to resources due to budget
1160 constraints found in African countries will require their own tailored intervention programs different

1161 from those of Western countries. Therefore, more studies looking at the association between diabetes
1162 and hearing impairment for the African context are needed.

1163

1164 Not all the studies are controlled for factors such as smoking, socioeconomic status, ototoxic
1165 medication, and medical comorbidities. Knowledge extracted from the studies mentioned show a
1166 limited amount of data looking at the reversal of auditory alterations caused by T2DM and an
1167 inconclusive relationship between T2DM and tinnitus (8).

1168

1169 There has also been some complication in noise exposure and ageing. Some authors reported that
1170 self-reported noise exposure isn't an explanation for the observed discrepancies between hearing
1171 impairment and people with T2DM compared to those without T2DM or in people with T2DM and
1172 employed in low and high-noise working spaces (34). Therefore, it is evident that ageing and noise
1173 exposure are partial explanations for the variance in auditory outcomes observed in people with
1174 T2DM. It, therefore, calls for more critical evaluations of these relationships.

1175

1176 In conclusion, there are enough meta-data findings available to support an association between T2DM
1177 and auditory dysfunction for other regions of the world, but scarce data to support an association for
1178 an African population. These findings necessitate the need for African-based research related to this
1179 topic. Knowledge gathered will facilitate the early identification and management of hearing and
1180 otologic disorders in people with DM. Moreover, high prevalence reports of T2DM-related auditory
1181 disorders found in young and older ages call for further investigation and inclusion in the International
1182 Diabetes Federation of Africa (IDF Africa). These inclusions will help facilitate the integration of
1183 audiological assessment in medical assessments of diabetic patients of all ages in Africa.

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1190 2.11. References

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CHAPTER THREE

The Epidemiology of Auditory dysfunction in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Adults in Africa:

Meta-analysis

1394 **Abstract**

1395

1396 **Background:** There is a growing rate of diabetes related hearing loss (HL) worldwide. However, in
1397 under-developed countries, HL is still under-recognised as a complication of type 2 diabetes mellitus
1398 (T2DM). Although Africa presents a significant rise in T2DM every year, it is met with limited resources
1399 to assist its growing and ageing population.

1400 **Objectives:** This systematic review and meta-analysis brings awareness to diabetes-related HL in the
1401 form of reliable medical evidence measuring the prevalence of T2DM-related HL in an African
1402 population.

1403 **Methods:** Studies were screened using Rayyan QCRI. STATA software and the random-effects meta-
1404 analysis model was used to aggregate prevalence estimates with a 95% confidence interval. The
1405 Freeman Tukey Transformation was used to account for between study variability. The study protocol
1406 is published in PROSPERO international Register of Systematic Reviews (registration number
1407 CRD42021227801).

1408 **Results:** We identified a total of 99 studies, 14 duplicates were removed and 67 were excluded. After
1409 full review only five studies were included for quantitative synthesis. All the studied were cross-
1410 sectional and used purposive sampling as their recruitment method.

1411 **Conclusions:** Findings show most participants with T2DM experienced mild HL and slight delays in
1412 objective hearing assessments. Audiometric resources and qualified Audiologists are scarce in Africa.
1413 Therefore, the available evidence does not justify the added costs needed for routine audiometric
1414 assessments for patients with T2DM. However, it does serve to recommend prioritising further
1415 research regarding risk factors associated with developing auditory disorders in people with T2DM.

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1417 **Keywords:** auditory dysfunction, hearing loss, T2DM, prevalence, adults, Africa.

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1425 3.1. Introduction

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1427 Hearing loss (defined as >35 decibel (dB) (1) is a disabling disease more common in Sub-Saharan Africa
1428 compared to wealthier countries around the world. Hearing loss (HL) prevalence rates are estimated
1429 at 15.7% for people older than 15 years old in Sub-Saharan Africa compared to 4.9% in high-income
1430 countries. Although there is a higher number of cases of HL in low-middle-income countries, they are
1431 met with disproportionate health care spending, with health care treatment projections showing a
1432 mere 3% of the need in low-income countries (1).

1433 Studies investigating diabetes mellitus (DM) have similarly reported financial restraint about the
1434 treatment of DM in African countries. WHO estimated 246 million to be living with DM with a
1435 projected rise to 380 million people by 2025 (2). Unfortunately, low, and middle-income countries will
1436 bear the brunt of this uprise. The International Diabetes Federation (IDF) Atlas approximated that
1437 10.8million people in Sub-Saharan African had DM in 2006 and estimated an 18.7 million rise in cases
1438 by 2025. This increase of 80% bypasses the worldwide predicted rise of 55% (3)

1439 Over the past 150 years, the causal relationship between diabetes duration and hearing loss
1440 occurrence has been investigated. Organisations like *The Audiology Project* and the *American*
1441 *Association of Diabetes Educators* dedicated to diabetes-related hearing loss research propose that
1442 DM causes elevated blood sugar levels in the blood, which contribute to an increase of glycated
1443 haemoglobin deposits in vascular walls, leading to atherosclerosis (thickening of the basement
1444 membrane of the vessels). This constricting effect is more pronounced in systems requiring
1445 microvascular supply, such as the cochlea for energy and substrates. This compression in the vascular
1446 system of the cochlea can potentially lead to hearing loss, tinnitus, and even nerve damage as oxygen
1447 struggles to reach nerves of the inner ear (4).

1448 Recent epidemiological studies support the association of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and
1449 auditory dysfunction for both the young and older generations, proving that the auditory disorder is
1450 independent of the pathophysiological changes coupled with ageing (4). Most cross-sectional studies
1451 showed elevated hearing thresholds of participants with T2DM, while others reported otitis media
1452 and tinnitus (4). There are significantly fewer studies presenting the linear progression of auditory
1453 dysfunction in people with T2DM. Still, those observed show a modestly increased risk of hearing
1454 impairment in people with T2DM compared to those without the diagnosis (5).

1455

3.2. Aim:

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1458 Although there are studies investigating the association between T2DM and auditory dysfunction,
1459 most of them are not carried out on an African population. This creates a problem when attempting
1460 to advocate for resource allocation for audiology and diabetes interventions, as robust knowledge
1461 focusing on the African context can be used to gain policymakers' attention to fund intervention
1462 programs and help in early identification and treatment of hearing impairment in diabetic patients.
1463 This action can help decrease the double burden of infection on patients with DM. Currently, early
1464 identification and management strategies for hearing impairment in people with DM are not included
1465 in the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) guidelines. Therefore, a study of this manner, may
1466 warrant inclusion of the findings gathered in this study.

1467

3.3. Methods

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1469

1470 This study was registered in the PROSPERO International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews
1471 (<https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/PROSPERO>). The systematic review protocol was assessed according to
1472 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis Protocols (6) (Appendix A,
1473 chapter 3) and provided the registration number CRD42021227801.

1474

3.3.1. Literature search

1475
1476

1477 In this study, we intended to identify prevalence and incidence studies that carried out their research
1478 on an African population between the year 1 January 1991, till 1 January 2021. We adapted this date
1479 range because WHO introduced a new grading system for hearing severity in 1991 (7, 8). The
1480 development of this grading system was necessary to allow worldwide gathering of prevalence data
1481 concerning hearing impairment and determine population factors that influence these prevalence
1482 results. Utilising this updated system for classifying hearing impairments will assist in providing up to
1483 date evidence-based comparison of the T2DM population groups for all regions identified for this
1484 study.

1485 A comprehensive search for both published and unpublished studies was carried out by two authors
1486 (AF, AH and LP). A professional librarian assisted with formulating the research strategy. To identify
1487 studies exclusively done in Africa or on an African population, we used an African search filter
1488 alongside medical subject headings (MeSH) with a range of search terms for PubMed/MEDLINE,

1489 EBSCOHost and Google Scholar. The African search filter consists of African country names and
 1490 truncations like “east* Africa” to ensure studies indexed with regional instead of country-specific
 1491 terms are retrieved (9). African names are both in English and other languages that countries may be
 1492 identified in (i.e., “Ivory Coast” also specified as “Cote d’Ivoire”. In countries with more updated
 1493 names, or names that have changed over the years, both their old and new names are included in the
 1494 search (i.e., “Zaire” and “Democratic Republic of Congo” are both included” (Appendix B, chapter 3).
 1495 We re-ran the search terms all the electronic databases on 09/05/2021 and found no additional
 1496 studies.

1497 **Table 1: Electronic Search Strategy**

Database	Search strategy	Results.
PubMed and MEDLINE	(((((Hearing Disorders OR hearing loss OR hearing impairment OR hearing disorder OR auditory disorder OR auditory disorders) OR ("Hearing Disorders"[Mesh])) OR ("Hearing Loss"[Mesh])) OR (deaf OR deafness)) AND ((type 2 diabetes OR type 2 diabetes mellitus OR T2DM OR NIDDM OR non-insulin dependent diabetes) OR ("Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2"[Mesh])) AND ((Africa OR African OR Algeria OR Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR Cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR Congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR Djibouti OR Egypt OR Eritrea OR eSwatini OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea- Bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR Jamahiriya OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Libya OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mayotte OR Morocco OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Principe OR Reunion OR Rwanda OR "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "St Helena" OR Sudan OR Swaziland OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Tunisia OR Uganda OR "Western Sahara" OR Zaire OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe) OR ("Africa"[Mesh]))	26
Scopus and EbscoHost	(TITLE-ABS-KEY (("Hearing Disorder*" OR "hearing loss" OR "hearing impairment" OR "auditory disorder*"))) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY (("type 2 diabetes" OR "type 2 diabetes mellitus" OR t2dm OR niddm OR "non-insulin dependent diabetes"))) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY (africa OR african OR algeria OR angola OR benin OR botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR cameroon OR cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR "Central African Republic" OR chad OR comoros OR congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR djibouti OR egypt OR eritrea OR eswatini OR ethiopia OR gabon OR gambia OR ghana OR guinea OR guinea- AND bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR jamahiriya OR kenya OR lesotho OR liberia OR libya OR madagascar OR malawi OR mali OR mauritania OR mauritius OR mayotte OR morocco OR mozambique OR namibia OR niger OR nigeria OR principe OR reunion OR rrwanda OR "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR senegal OR seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR somalia OR "St Helena" OR sudan OR swaziland OR tanzania OR togo OR tunisia OR uganda OR "Western Sahara" OR zaire OR zambia OR zimbabwe))	4

1498
 1499
 1500 **Type of studies for inclusion:** For a study to be included in this systematic review, it must be a cross-
 1501 sectional or cohort study design to assess the prevalence and temporality of auditory dysfunction in
 1502 T2DM adults. T2DM in adults aged 19 years and above had to be medically diagnosed or defined based
 1503 on a measured fasting plasma glucose (FPG) specified by the WHO criteria (10). We ensured that
 1504 studies included presented data to guarantee the calculation of prevalence. Studies were identified as
 1505 meeting the inclusion criteria by ensuring their titles and abstracts were included for full-text review

1506 by three reviewers (AF, AH and LP). Studies not meeting the inclusion criteria in the screening stage
1507 were excluded. Disagreements were discussed between reviewers until concurrence was reached.

1508

1509 **Type of participants:** This study intends to describe the prevalence of auditory dysfunction in clinically
1510 diagnosed T2DM adults in Africa.

1511

1512 **Types of outcomes:** Prevalence of Auditory dysfunction in adults with T2DM segregated by:

1513 a) Overall prevalence of abnormal pure-tone average (PTA) in T2DM African population

1514 b) Good versus poor glycaemic control

1515 c) Age-specific prevalence of auditory dysfunction in T2DM population

1516 d) African region-specific prevalence of auditory dysfunction.

1517

1518 3.3.2. Data Extraction and Management

1519

1520 AF and AH independently extracted data from the included studies according to the inclusion criteria.

1521 AF designed the data extraction form and independently piloted on three studies by team members

1522 AH and LP. After the pilot, the form was modified, and the three reviewers extracted data from the

1523 included studies and resolved disputes through discussion. The modified data extraction form is in

1524 *Appendix B, chapter 2.*

1525

1526 3.3.3. Selecting studies for inclusion

1527

1528 With the use of RAYYAN QCRI systematic review web application (<https://rayyan.qcri.org/welcome>)

1529 AF, AH and LP individually screened the titles and abstracts of all identified records from both the

1530 database searches and manual searches. The web application allowed for duplicate removal, blinding

1531 during the process of study selection, and easy pdf access to full articles and dissertations of studies

1532 included for the full review. Full-text studies eligible for inclusions were assessed and agreed upon by

1533 all three authors. The selection of studies process is documented on the PRISMA flow diagram

1534 displayed on *Figure 3, chapter 3.*

1535

1536 3.3.4. Quality appraisal of studies

1537

1538 The risk of bias assessment was conducted with the use of the Hoy et al criteria modified by Werfalli
1539 and colleagues (11) for each domain of the 9 included studies (12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20). The
1540 tool consists of 10 questions where each question is graded as either “yes” = “1” and “no” = “0”. We
1541 summated the points for each study, and the risk of bias was declared high risk if the points were
1542 between 0-5, moderate risk with 6-8 points and low risk > 8 points. One can locate the scoring form
1543 in *Appendix D, chapter 3*.

1544 We assessed the risk of selection bias and attrition bias on Review Manager 5.4.1 according to the
1545 Cochrane guidelines (21). Three reviewers AF, AH and LP independently assessed the studies’ quality
1546 and resolved conflicts by consensus.

1547

1548 3.3.5. Data synthesis and assessment of heterogeneity

1549

1550 Data were analysed using STATA 15.0 statistical software (22). Prevalence estimates for each study
1551 were re-calculated using the numerator and denominators for each included study (Table 1, chapter
1552 3). The overall prevalence of eligible studies was calculated with the inclusion of a 95% confidence
1553 interval (CI), random-effects model and Freeman Tukey transformation to account for between-study
1554 variability. Due to the limited number of studies included in the meta-analysis, subgroup analysis was
1555 limited. We conducted a subgroup analysis by glycaemic control, and we narratively described results
1556 for objective hearing assessments and frequency-specific hearing level results. Although we initially
1557 intended to stratify by rural vs urban, none of the studies disclosed the type of area they conducted
1558 their studies in. Therefore, we were unable to carry out an analysis of this nature.

1559 Heterogeneity between studies was assessed by analysing the chi-square tests and I² statistic. An I²
1560 output of >50% was regarded as substantial heterogeneity (23).

1561 Lastly, the assessment of the certainty of the evidence was carried using the Grading of
1562 Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) tool
1563 (<https://www.gradeworkinggroup.org/#>). Findings across the studies were judged as having high,
1564 moderate, low, or very low certainty of evidence. Certainty of the evidence lowers every time there is
1565 concern for risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and publication bias. High certainty
1566 means that carrying out more research on the subject matter is unlikely to change our confidence in
1567 the effect estimate. Moderate certainty represents a need for further or additional research in the
1568 subject matter. There is a possibility that it may impact the confidence of the effect estimate or may

1569 even change the estimate. Lastly, a low certainty means that further research is highly likely to make
1570 a significant impact on our confidence in the estimate effect and is most likely to change the estimate,
1571 and very low states that we have very little confidence in the estimate effect and that the true effect
1572 is likely to be substantially different from the presented estimate effect (24, 25).

1573

1574 3.4. Results

1575

1576 3.4.1. Description of the studies and their design

1577

1578 We identified sixty-nine records from searching four electronic databases, and thirty additional studies
1579 were included from screening the reference lists of studies included for full-text review. After
1580 screening the titles and abstracts and removing duplicate studies, we were left with 18 studies eligible
1581 for full-text review. Of these, only nine studies met the inclusion criteria and were included in the
1582 systematic review. The reason for excluding the other nine studies are found in *Figure 3, chapter 3*.

1583 Of the nine included studies, five (56%) were published in peer-reviewed medical journals, the rest
1584 were master's theses completed in fulfilment of MA Audiology (22%) and Master's in
1585 Otorhinolaryngology (22%). Out of the 54 African countries, this study only managed to retrieve data
1586 from four (7%) African countries, which equates to 31% of the total African population (422 million of
1587 1.341 billion) represented in this study. This review consists of three studies from South Africa, one
1588 from Egypt, four from Nigeria and one from Kenya (*Figure 1, chapter 3*). All the studies were cross-
1589 sectional and used purposive sampling as their recruitment method, with seven (77.8%) of the studies
1590 recruiting patients from local diabetes clinics (*table 2*).

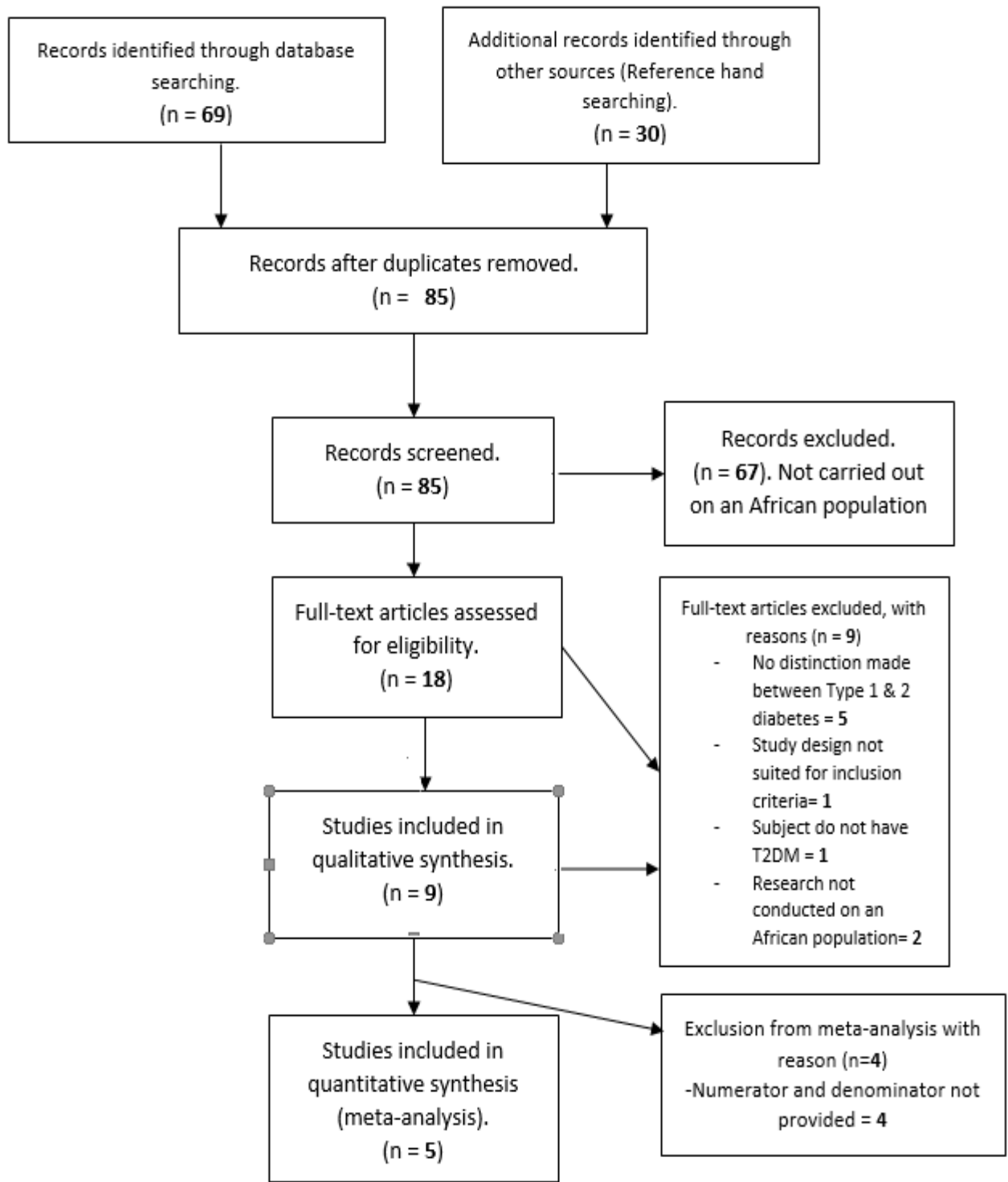
1591 Data extraction of applicable information was independently conducted by AF and SG. A third reviewer
1592 was included to mitigate any disagreements between the two reviewers. Study characteristics
1593 recorded included the country name, type of setting the study was conducted, the response rate, the
1594 case definition reported in the study, prevalence and incidence of auditory disorders (hearing loss,
1595 ototoxicity, otitis media, central auditory disorders, deafness), the type of diabetes and how it is
1596 defined in the study, and the characteristic of the study population (age, sex, ethnicity and whether
1597 they have any comorbid diseases).

1598

1599

1600 **Figure 2: PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram search results**

1601 Flow diagram for study selection of studies looking at the effects of T2DM on hearing function



1602
1603
1604
1605

1606 **Table 2: Summary of Study Characteristics**

1607 The table below compares common research methods and population sizes between the studies
 1608 included for review in this study.

1609

Author	Country	Study Period	Study Design	T2DM Definition	Measures used to assess auditory functioning	Sex: F/M	Age specific	Population size: T2DM/Control
Adeba, 2015	Nigeria	-	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	PTA	T2DM=53/44 Control=50/40	58.9 μ age for T2DM group. 58.8 μ age for Control.	97/90
Idugboe, 2017	Nigeria	12 months	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	PTA	T2DM=35/35 Control=35/35	31 – 64	70/70
Kruger, 2018	South Africa	12 months	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	Interacoustics Eclipse AEP system	T2DM=18/12 Control=18/12	37 – 57	30/30
Lasisa, 2003	Nigeria	-	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	PTA	ALL= 137/103	13 – 90	80/160
Minnaar, 2017	South Africa	12 months	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	Kuduwave (PTA)	T2DM = 16/12 Control = 16/12	43 - 55	28/28
Noha, 2015	Egypt	-	Cross-sectional	-	PTA, BAEP, OAEs: TEOAE & DPOAE	T2DM= 18/14 Control= 18/12	32 – 70	32/30
Okwiri, 2016	Kenya	17 months	Cross-sectional	WHO, 1991	PTA, ABR	ALL= 43/35	22 – 55	78 (ALL)
Ologe, 2005	Nigeria	-	Cross-sectional	-	PTA	T2DM=40/16 Control=34/18	56.95 μ age for T2DM group. 53.27 μ age for control group	56/52
Van der Westhuizen, 2019	South Africa	-	Cross-sectional	-	PTA	-	23 – 60	32/32

1610

1611

1612

1613

1614 **Table 3: Excluded studies with reasons**

1615 List of studies excluded after full-text assessment. The table below describes the reasons for
 1616 excluding these studies.

Author	Reasons for exclusion
El-Hini et al, 2019	No distinction made between Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes
Hlayisi et al, 2017	
Hlayisi et al, 2019	
Ogundiran et al, 2012	
Finsterer et al, 2017	Study type is not included cohort or cross-sectional study
Sanju et al, 2016	
Gorwara et al, 2016	Participants are not inhabitants in Africa
Shamshirgaran et al, 2019	
Ologe FE et al, 2005	Participants not => 18 years

1617

1618

1619 3.4.2. Quality of methodology

1620

1621 **Risk of bias assessment:** We used the Hoy et al, modified by Werfalli and colleagues Critical Appraisal
 1622 Checklist for Studies Reporting Prevalence to assess the methodological quality of the included full-
 1623 text articles (8). The review was carried out by two reviewers (AF and AH). Four studies scored risk of
 1624 bias score of eight (2, 3, 4, 5, 6), and five studies scored a risk of bias score of nine (12, 13, 27, 14, 15).
 1625 Because all the studies included for full review used purposive sampling, the risk of bias question three
 1626 was marked as “N/A” for “not applicable” on the use of random allocation. Question 10 posed the
 1627 question of whether an appropriate use of the numerator and denominator was conducted, however,
 1628 as mentioned before, some of studies did not provide numerator and denominator values (2, 3, 4, 5,
 1629 6) and therefore the note “NP” meaning “not provided” was made on the critical appraisal form.
 1630 Taking the exceptions into consideration, all the included studies scored a low risk of bias. (Appendix
 1631 C, Chapter 3).

1632 **Publication bias assessment:** According to the Cochrane Recommendations on testing for funnel plot
1633 asymmetry <https://training.cochrane.org/handbook/current> research should only carry out this
1634 assessment when there are at least ten studies included for meta-analysis. When there are fewer
1635 studies, the power of the tests will be too low to distinguish chance from real asymmetry. For this
1636 reason, we could not conduct this test.

1637 **Heterogeneity:** The overall synthesis showing a prevalence of hearing loss in an African population
1638 depicted a significantly high heterogeneity ($I^2=94.5\%$, $p = 0.000$). We carried out a heterogeneity
1639 assessment by temporarily removing the Adeba (2015) study ($I^2= 89.9\%$, $p = 0.00$). After observing a
1640 high heterogeneity even after removing the Adeba (2015) study, we temporarily removed the Okwiri
1641 (2016) and the Noha (2015) study in addition to the Adeba (2015) study and found that the
1642 heterogeneity significantly decreased to $I^2 0.00\%$, $p = 0.00$. The high heterogeneity levels could be
1643 owed to the following:

- 1644 A. Physiological noise (breathing, heartbeat of the patient), psychological factors (level of
1645 concentration of the patient, how they perceive the instruction of the examiner), the method
1646 of stimulus presentation (duration of tone presentation and the length of the interval)
1647 contribute a 5-10dB difference on obtained thresholds (28). Physical attributions like
1648 differences in the model and calibration of the machine, the position of the transducer when
1649 placed in the ears of a patient and the effects of ambient noise on the results can cause a
1650 combined uncertainty level of 4.9dB. Research further states that, even though a single
1651 clinician takes all the necessary precautions to avoid an uncertainty contribution, they can still
1652 end up with a 4.9dB uncertainty level. These contributions can all affect the accuracy and
1653 reliability of the test results causing an internal and external variability of audiometric results
1654 between patients.
- 1655 B. Individuals belonging to different communities are exposed to different factors in their
1656 environment that can potentially affect their hearing threshold levels. Individuals living closer
1657 to noise polluted areas or working with heavy and loud machinery such as drills and explosives
1658 stand a greater risk of acquiring noise-induced hearing loss. Ototoxic medications such as
1659 aminoglycosides, antibiotics and some cancer treatment drugs can negatively affect an
1660 individual's hearing (28).
- 1661 C. Internal variability attributed to years of diabetes diagnosis and glycaemic control status in
1662 participants can influence hearing thresholds (29).

1663

1664 **Missing Data:** Some of the authors in this study needed to be contacted for additional data. We
1665 contacted the following authors for information:

- 1666 a. Lasisi et al (16): provided frequency-specific mean dB thresholds and listed the number of
1667 participants that fell into either the mild, moderate, severe, or profound level of hearing. The
1668 results were presented as that of both the T1DM and T2DM participants. In addition, results
1669 for tinnitus, sensorineural hearing loss (SNHL), labyrinthitis, Meniere’s disease and poor
1670 versus good glycaemic control averages were reported as percentages. These represented
1671 both the T1DM and T2DM groups in the study. On the 31 January 2021, we emailed the study
1672 author to provide stratified numerator and denominator data for both groups in the study,
1673 but no response was received.
- 1674 b. Ologe et al (19) presented frequency-specific hearing level for the T2DM and control group.
1675 The author presented these figures as mean hearing levels (dB) and standard deviations for
1676 each left and right ear frequency. We contacted the author on the 31 January 2021 to offer
1677 us the total number of participants detected to have hearing loss amongst the T2DM and
1678 control groups. The author has not responded to the request, which resulted in the study not
1679 being added for meta-analysis.
- 1680 c. P300 event potentials reflect information about memory and attention associated with
1681 internal cognitive processes, affecting auditory processing. The study detailing this
1682 information is the only one identified in the African context, resulting in it not being included
1683 for a meta-analysis (18). In addition, the author did not provide numerator and denominator
1684 figures for participants with normal and abnormal P300 event potentials. The results are
1685 therefore reported narratively in the results section.

1686

1687 3.5. Data Synthesis:

1688

1689 3.5.1 Overall synthesis

1690

1691 The overall prevalence of hearing loss in a T2DM African population is 0.56 (95% CI, 0.31 to 0.79). The
1692 test for heterogeneity shows an $I^2 = 94.5\%$ for (5 studies, $n = 305$). (*Figure 3*).

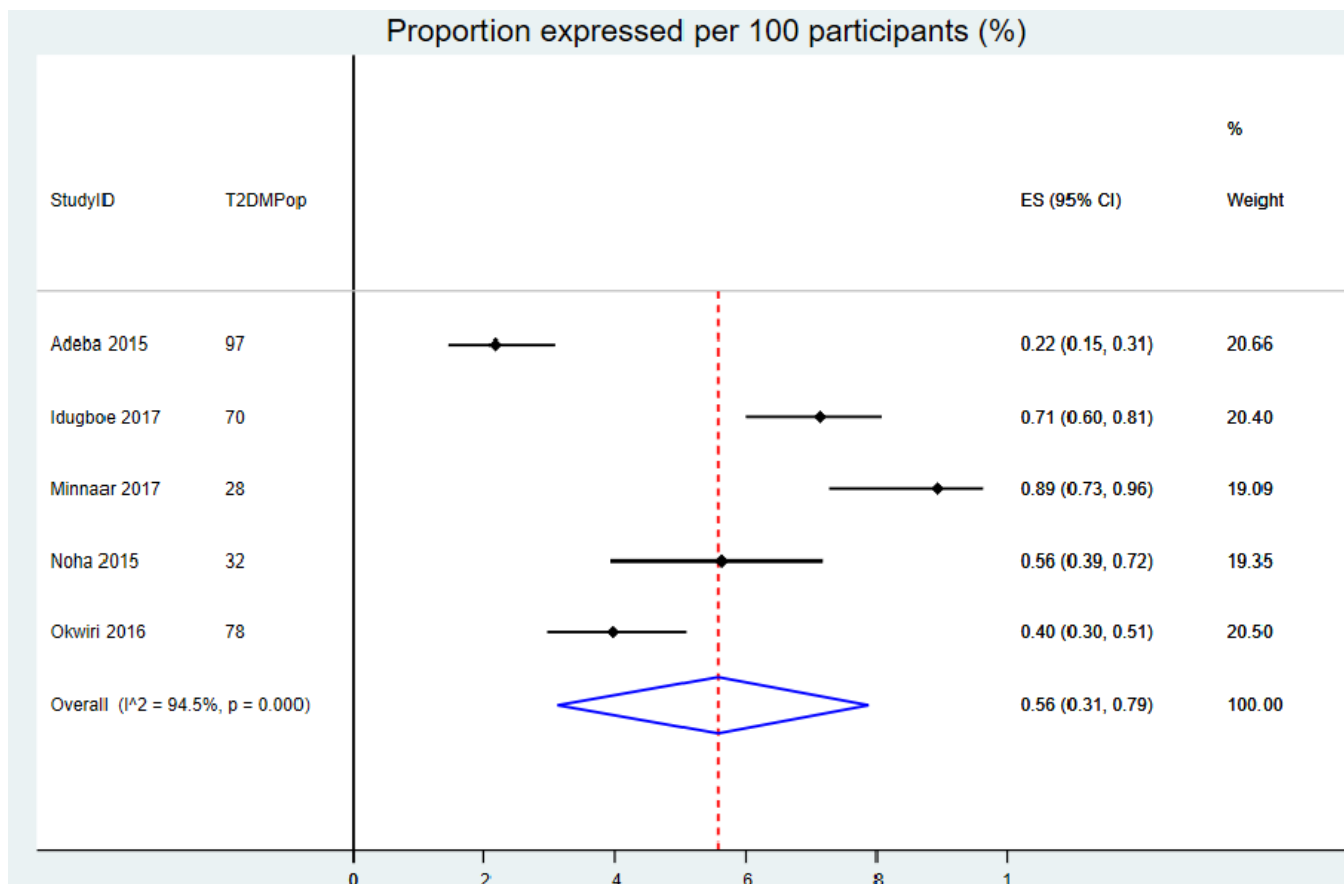
1693

1694

1695

1696 **Figure 3: The overall prevalence of hearing loss in a T2DM African population.**

1697



1698 NB: T2DMPop = T2DM population

1699

1700 Five studies overall provided a prevalence of abnormal PTAs among African participants with T2DM.
 1701 Results illustrate a 56% prevalence of hearing loss in adults with T2DM. The definition we used for
 1702 abnormal PTA was a pure tone average greater than or equal to 25dB at frequencies 500Hz, 1000Hz,
 1703 2000Hz & 4000Hz. The test for heterogeneity shows an I² of 94.5% for all the five studies. Because
 1704 this result is above 75%, it tells us that there is considerable variability between the studies included
 1705 for this analysis.

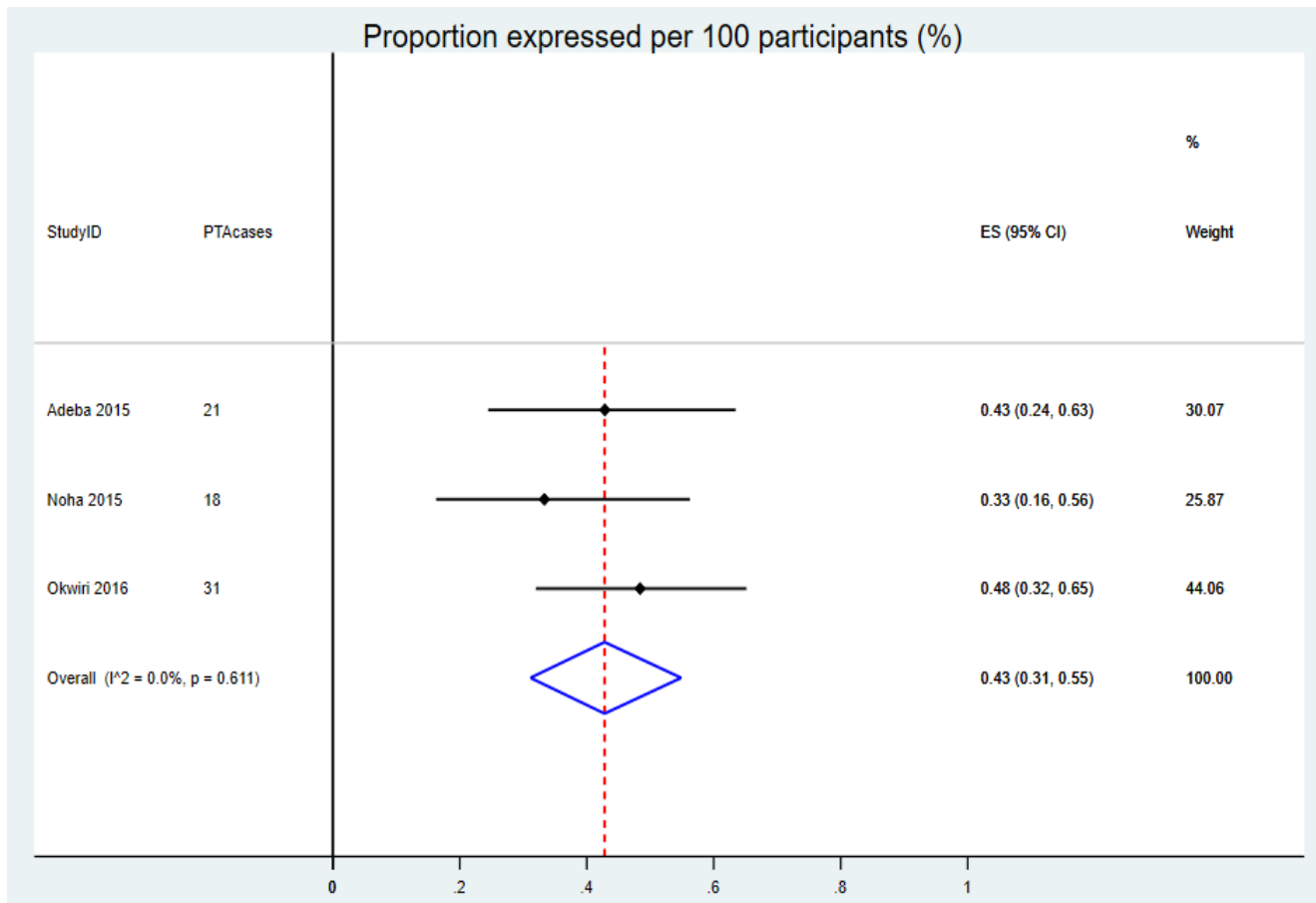
1706

1707 3.5.2. Glycaemic control analysis

1708

1709 An analysis was conducted to assess the pooled prevalence estimate for good versus poor glycaemic
 1710 control in participants with clinically diagnosed hearing loss. The forest plots reveal: 0.43 (95% CI, 0.31
 1711 to 0.55) (3 studies, n= 70) in the good glycaemic control group versus 0.57 (95% CI, 0.45 to 0.69) (3
 1712 studies, n= 70) in the poor glycaemic control group.

1713 **Figure 4: The prevalence rate of good glycaemic control in African participants clinically identified**
 1714 **with hearing loss**



1715 NB: PTAcases = abnormal pure-tone audiometry cases.

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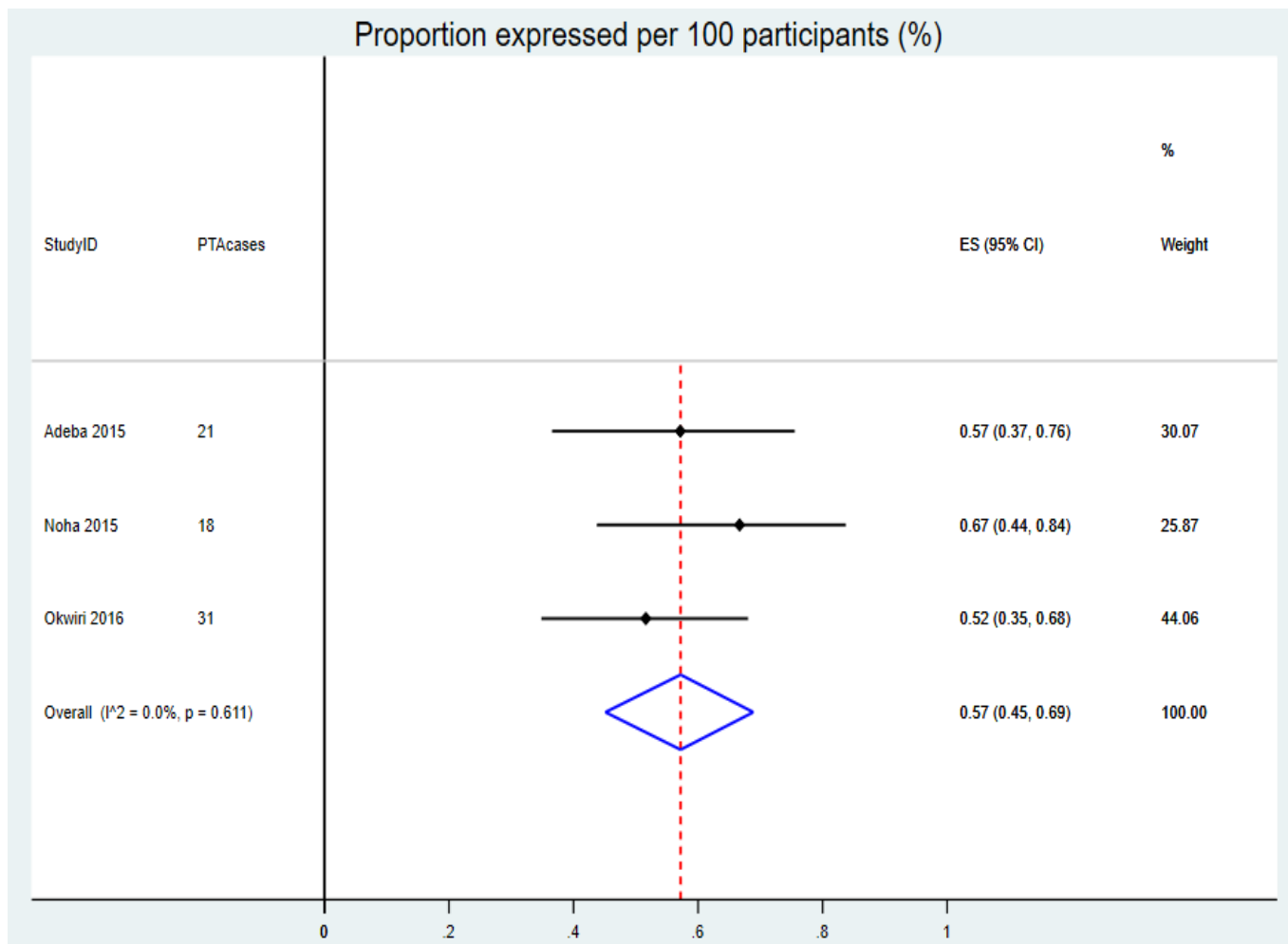
1726

1727

1728

1729 **Figure 5: The prevalence rate of poor glycaemic control in African participants clinically identified**
 1730 **with hearing loss.**

1731



1732 NB: PTAcases = abnormal pure-tone audiometry cases.

1733

1734 We assessed the pooled prevalence estimate for good versus poor glycaemic control in participants
 1735 with clinically diagnosed hearing loss. Forest plot results revealed a 44% prevalence of individuals with
 1736 hearing loss amongst those with good glycaemic control between three studies, while that of poor
 1737 glycaemic control reveals a prevalence of 57% of participants presenting with a hearing loss between
 1738 three studies. Both good and poor glycaemic control heterogeneity show an I² result of below 40%,
 1739 meaning that there is very little to no variance between the three studies included for the analysis.

1740

1741 All the studies used the ADA (2017) and Society for Endocrinology, Metabolism and Diabetes of South
 1742 Africa (EMDSA) of 2016 guideline recommendation of an average of 80-130mg/dL fasting glucose level

1743 for good glycaemic control and an average of \Rightarrow 130mg/dL regarded as poor glycaemic control. The
 1744 results above indicate a pooled prevalence of 43% for good glycaemic controlled participants, while
 1745 those with poor glycaemic control have a 57% pooled prevalence for hearing loss.

1746

1747 3.5.3. Objective Hearing tests analysis.

1748

1749 **Table 4: Mean differences of absolute and interpeak latencies across included studies**

Absolute and Interpeak Latency mean differences							
Author/year	Country	WAVE I	WAVE III	WAVE V	I-III	III-V	I-V
Kruger, 2018	South Africa	1.60/0.22	3.85/0.28	5.73/0.43	2.25/0.27	1.91/0.24	4.15/0.43
Okwiri, 2016	Nigeria	0.67/0.26	2.88/0.40	4.63/0.61	2.21/0.40	1.74/0.34	3.65/0.58
Noha, 2015	Egypt	1.6/0.2	3.75/0.15	5.6/0.25	2.1/0.2	1.8/0.2	3.95/0.25

1750

1751 An Auditory Brainstem Responses (ABR) analysis could not be carried out by studies (12) (17) and (20)
 1752 which conducted objective assessments on their participants because they did not provide participant
 1753 proportions for their results. However, on observation of the mean differences in the absolute
 1754 latencies (Wave I, III and V) showed that two (7, 5) out of the three studies exhibited delayed latencies
 1755 for all three waves, while the Okwiri (2016) study showed normal absolute latencies for its participants
 1756 with T2DM (27).

1757 P300 mean amplitude for the T2DM group presented ($\mu = 12.10$, $SD = 3.70$), and non-diabetic group
 1758 presented with ($\mu = 15.08$, $SD = 2.82$). There was a statistically significant effect of glucose on
 1759 amplitude ($p = 0.013$). For every 1 mmol/L increase in glucose resulted in a -0.27 amplitude decreased
 1760 in the diabetic group for both ears.

1761

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1767 3.5.4. Frequency specific hearing level comparison diabetic and non-diabetic groups
 1768

1769 **Table 5: Frequency-specific hearing mean differences in diabetics and their matched control groups**
 1770 **(mean, standard deviation).**

Frequency-specific hearing mean values for T2DM and control group									
Author,year	Country	500Hz (m, sd)		1000Hz (m, sd)		2000Hz (m, sd)		4000Hz (m, sd)	
		T2DM	Control	T2DM	Control	T2DM	Control	T2DM	Control
Minnaar, 2017	South Africa	29.2dB (14.1)	26.6dB (11.7)	26.8dB (17)	23.8dB (14.5)	24.1dB (15.7)	21.9dB (13.5)	18.7dB (16.5)	19dB (17.55)
Idugboe, 2017	Nigeria	28.5dB (10.7)	23.1dB (14.2)	32dB (11.9)	22.4dB (9.5)	33.5dB (23.2)	21.5dB (10)	42.1dB (15.5)	24.4dB (11.4)
Ologe, 2005	Nigeria	30.5dB (17.45)	19dB (12.55)	30.4dB (18.15)	19.85dB (13.15)	32.6dB (18.9)	21.05dB (12.85)	37.7dB (20.35)	23.6dB (14.85)

1771
 1772 We could not conduct a meta-analysis for frequency-specific hearing levels of 500Hz, 1000Hz, 2000Hz
 1773 and 4000Hz because studies (19), (13) and (15) did not provide participant proportion for all four
 1774 frequencies. However, there was no hearing loss exhibited for diabetic and non-diabetic participants
 1775 in the low (500Hz) and mid (1000Hz) frequency on observation of the mean differences presented for
 1776 each frequency. In the higher frequencies (2000Hz and 4000Hz), we observed mild hearing loss in
 1777 studies (19) and (13) while their matched non-diabetic participants exhibited no hearing loss. The
 1778 study by Minnaar, (2017) (15) presented normal hearing levels for both the diabetic and non-diabetic
 1779 group.

1780

1781 3.6. Literature Review Findings

1782

1783 3.6.1. Age

1784

1785 Diabetes and hearing loss are common problems brought about by ageing. While T2DM has been
 1786 associated with hearing loss, a causal link is difficult to establish. Most of the studies reviewed in this
 1787 study show an association between T2DM and hearing impairment in both the young and middle-aged
 1788 population, proving that auditory impairments caused by T2DM, are independent of the

1789 pathophysiological changes that come from ageing. We realised that the effects of T2DM on the
1790 auditory system are easier to identify in the younger generation before the cumulative effects of
1791 ageing, noise exposure, ototoxic drugs, lifestyle and cardiometabolic that cause a discrepancy in the
1792 relationship.

1793 Out of the studies we decided on including in this review, none of them presented age specific
1794 prevalence results related to auditory functioning for an African population. However, there was a
1795 study that carried out this investigation on a Western population aged between 20 years to 70 years
1796 of age. The results showed that as the years progressed, the more prevalent the hearing loss became.
1797 Results showed a prevalence of 4.49%, 2.97%, 0.00% and 0.00% for mild, moderate, moderately
1798 severe and severe HL respectively for individuals in their thirties. 5.87%, 1.89%, 0.38% and 0.00%
1799 respectively for individuals in their forties. 12.69%, 5.57%, 0.46% and 1.39% respectively for
1800 individuals in their fifties. 14.79%, 11.83%, 0.59% and 2.96% respectively for individuals in their sixties.
1801 Lastly, 24.59%, 14.75%, 3.28% and 3.28% respectively for individuals in their seventies. The study
1802 compared the results of subjects without DM with those that do and found that there was a greater
1803 prevalence of hearing loss in those with DM than those without (17.3% vs 6.5%, $p < 0.05$). Higher
1804 frequency loss was observed in both the subjects with DM and those without, but a greater degree of
1805 high frequency hearing loss was found in those with DM, suggesting that DM can worsen higher
1806 frequency loss in individuals due to its degenerative effects.

1807

1808 3.6.2. Glycaemic control

1809

1810 Whether hearing loss is with diabetes independent of glycaemic control has not been established. A
1811 few studies have shown that hearing impairment in individuals with T2DM is expedited by poor
1812 glycaemic control. This is due to a prolonged collection of glycation of the outer hair cells associated
1813 with poor glycaemic control in individuals with T2DM. This is not a definite explanation as there some
1814 studies that have not identified a significant association between these two phenomena (29). The
1815 mechanisms of glycation are a result of an on-going research on animal models, which are limited by
1816 their hospital-based nature. The confounders and other co-morbidities of the studies were not
1817 controlled, therefore bigger epidemiological studied experimented on human subjects are necessary
1818 for full elucidation of this subject.

1819

1820 3.6.3. African region specific and Overall Prevalence.

1821

1822 Although we had set out to investigate the prevalence of diabetes related hearing loss within different
1823 regions of Africa, this study only managed to retrieve data from only four out of the 54 African
1824 countries, namely, South Africa, Egypt, Nigeria and Kenya (Figure 1, Chapter 3).

1825 Prevalence results of hearing loss in individuals with T2DM were 22%, 40%, 56%, 71% and 89% for
1826 Nigeria, Kenya, Egypt, Nigeria and South Africa respectively. Most these studies do not provide a
1827 significant impact of T2DM on the auditory system and there are no prospective studies to prove the
1828 potential causality of T2DM on the auditory system.

1829 There are reportedly more studies looking at the effects of T2DM on the auditory system carried out
1830 on a Western and European individuals. Although there is some merit in knowing the effects of T2DM
1831 on auditory functioning in other populations to allow inference of data to the less developed
1832 countries, lifestyle trends and limited access to resources due to budget constraints will require their
1833 own tailored intervention programs different from those of the Western and European nations

1834

1835 **3.7. Discussion:**

1836

1837 3.7.1. Summary of main results

1838

1839 This study reviews research on an African population using a comprehensive search strategy across
1840 several electronic databases and grey literature sites without enforcing a language or publication-type
1841 barrier. Our main aim for this systematic review was to determine the prevalence of abnormal hearing
1842 responses on an African population with T2DM as well as present it for adults over the age of 65 and
1843 under 65. Unfortunately, we could not present this analysis because all the study participants included
1844 for this review were below the age of 60 years of age. Furthermore, we were unable to pool data and
1845 present it as per region as stipulated in the protocol as there were only four (Egypt, Kenya, Nigeria
1846 and South Africa) out of the 54 African countries presented. Three out of the four countries were
1847 represented by one study each (Egypt, Kenya and South Africa), while Nigeria had four studies
1848 included (see Figure 1, chapter 3). We could not pool area setting data as studies included for this
1849 review did not disclose the type of area they sampled their participants from. We pooled data for good
1850 versus poor glycaemic control. Furthermore, we conducted an overall analysis of hearing loss within
1851 an African population with T2DM. We narratively reported objective hearing assessment and
1852 frequency-specific hearing level data on account of missing numerator and denominator information.

1853

1854 3.7.2. Overall application of evidence

1855

1856 Pooled calculation of the prevalence of hearing loss in an African population with T2DM was found to
1857 be 56%. Although this meta-analysis does not explicitly show the degree of hearing loss, all these
1858 studies used the same criterion to diagnose HL as a PTA greater than 25dB. Therefore, it would be
1859 safer to infer that people with T2DM are more likely to have a hearing threshold above 25dB. On
1860 observation of the frequency-specific hearing level table, most PTA thresholds were found to be below
1861 30dB in the low frequency (500Hz) for two out of the three included studies (13, 15). The hearing
1862 levels decreased from the mid-to-higher frequency levels for two out of the three studies (13, 19). This
1863 suggests that hearing loss may not significantly impact the quality of life of people with T2DM, but
1864 great caution should be taken to avoid conditions that may superimpose on hearing structures and
1865 worsen the mild degree of hearing loss.

1866 Additionally, the frequency-specific hearing level table reveals that higher frequencies present with
1867 greater hearing thresholds for the Omoregie (2017) and Ologe (2005) studies (13) (19). These studies
1868 assessed participants of an older diabetic population. This information concurs with evidence shown
1869 by several studies stating hearing loss is more dominant in higher frequencies (30, 31, 32), and further
1870 solidifies evidence of an original study by Taylor et al (33) who discovered that the configuration of
1871 diabetes-related hearing loss mimicked that of presbycusis. Presbycusis usually occurs as people
1872 gradually grow older and are most likely to begin at 65 years (34). As ageing occurs, a person starts to
1873 lose sensory cells at the basal turn of the cochlea resulting in higher-frequency hearing loss (35, 36).
1874 Unfortunately, we were unable to ascertain the cause of the higher frequency loss for most of the
1875 studies as all the participants across the studies were below the age of 65, and hearing thresholds
1876 were not stratified according to age groups in most of the studies included. In either case, high-
1877 frequency hearing loss cases often have trouble understanding speech, and when left untreated, can
1878 worsen and negatively impact an individual's quality-of-life.

1879

1880 **Objective tests analysis**

1881 Analysis of mean differences of the absolute and interpeak latencies of the three studies in (*table 2,*
1882 *chapter 3*) show us that most of the studies reveal longer latencies for their T2DM population when
1883 compared to normative values published by the University of Cape Town (UCT), Audiology
1884 Department (26). These results are in accordance with Durmus's study (37) who found prolonged
1885 absolute latencies, and Gupta (42) who found waves III and V to be prolonged but equal in wave I for
1886 the diabetes and control group. Latencies give us information about the speed electrical sound signals

1887 are transmitted through different parts of the auditory brainstem (38). Therefore, elongation of waves
1888 I, III and V in studies (12) and (20) signifies a delay in the conduction of auditory signals within the
1889 brainstem of diabetic individuals. The Okwiri (2016) study showed faster conduction for waves III and
1890 V, but delayed transmission for wave I (17).

1891 Interpeak latencies (IPL) for most of the studies were delayed. IPL's for waves I-III and III-V were
1892 delayed for studies (12) and (17) but normal for (20), when compared to normative data. These
1893 findings justify findings by Bansal (2006) (39), which declaring neuronal development is prominent
1894 among people with diabetes complications. Therefore, it is expected for neurons in the brainstem to
1895 show significant changes in the diabetic groups compared to normative data.

1896 P300 event potentials were assessed on normal hearing participants clinically diagnosed with T2DM.
1897 This assessment gives us information about the processing of memory and attention mechanisms
1898 which are dependent on internal cognitive processing (40). The latency (marked by 240-400ms)
1899 indicates the speed of processing, while amplitude (marked by 8-15 μV) indicates attention ability (41,
1900 42). P300 neural generators are the hippocampus, thalamus, inferior parietal lobe, temporal lobe,
1901 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, cingulate cortex, and amygdala (40, 41, 42). A study by Sadeghi (43)
1902 stated that the hippocampus can be affected by T2DM and decrease auditory information processing
1903 speed. This finding is concurrent with the results of the van der Westhuizen study (18) reporting a
1904 significant decrease in P300 amplitude (12.10 μV , SD = 3.70) and an increase in latency (352.56ms,
1905 SD= 36.36) in adults. The latency results for this study agree with previous studies showing an average
1906 of 314.8 to 405.6ms, but higher than amplitude results, which demonstrate 1.98 μV for the de Freitas
1907 Alvarenga (2005) study and 3.15 μV for the Manjeet (2013) study (44) (45). The significance of this
1908 assessment is to gather information on the subclinical effects T2DM may or may not invoke in adults
1909 tested normal for behavioural audiometric testing.

1910

1911 **Glycaemic control analysis**

1912 Glycaemic control refers to the typical levels of blood sugar (glucose) in a person with DM. For sub-
1913 group analysis, we split the hearing results between good and poor glycaemic control, which are
1914 categories based on the ADA guideline recommendation of 2017 (46). Good glycaemic control is
1915 defined as an average fasting blood glucose level of 80-130mg/dL, while a poor glycaemic control is
1916 an average fasting blood glucose level of >130mg/dL (46). Prevalence data for glycaemic control
1917 indicate a pooled prevalence of 43% for good glycaemic controlled participants, while those with poor
1918 glycaemic control show a pooled prevalence of 57% of hearing loss. These results coincide with the

1919 Beaver Dam Study that found a significant risk of hearing loss in individuals with poorly controlled DM
1920 (47). Unfortunately, we did not have enough studies to pool data for objective hearing tests, but one
1921 study expressed ABR results for good and poor glycaemic control participants (20). Participants with
1922 poor glycaemic control presented slightly delayed latencies across all waves, while participants of
1923 good glycaemic control presented a slight delay in wave III. These findings concur with three studies
1924 that found that the presence of high glucose levels in the blood create free radicals which over time
1925 cause excessive production of reactive oxygen species that lead to neuronal cell death, causing a delay
1926 in ABR potentials (48, 49, 50). It further states that delayed ABR latencies can be prevented or reversed
1927 through the treatment of antioxidants. These antioxidants reverse the effect of diabetes on nerve
1928 conduction velocities and improve auditory neural signal transfer in the brainstem (50). Further
1929 research on this matter will better our understanding of diabetes induced pathogenesis of hearing
1930 loss.

1931

1932 3.7.3. Limitations:

1933

1934 There are a few potential limitations that could be sources of bias in this meta-analysis:

1935 - We included both the PTA and ABR results, which pose the risk of being configured differently.
1936 Although the PTA audiometers results were presented according to the 4-tone PTA average, they may
1937 vary regarding calibration and the model of the machine. In addition, the PTA and ABR tests provide
1938 different results as one assesses behavioural hearing perception and the other evaluates retrocochlear
1939 pathways of hearing, respectively.

1940

1941 - We observed some heterogeneity in the results of the included studies. The variance can be
1942 attributed to the small number of studies included, different sample sizes, populations, proportions
1943 of diabetes and control groups, and hearing loss prevalence in the control groups across included
1944 papers.

1945

1946 - Realising a causal relationship between T2DM and hearing loss or any other auditory disorder
1947 is a complex deed as we have no record of the participants hearing acuity before T2DM diagnosis.
1948 Thus, conducting a prospective study is required to establish the linear progression of hearing function
1949 in people with T2DM and compare them to their matched controls.

1950

1951 - Internal variability such as glycaemic control levels and years of diagnosis within people with
1952 diabetes can influence hearing thresholds. That is why randomising participants into experiment and
1953 control groups for prospective observation can be effective in assessing the effects of these
1954 covariables.

1955

1956 - Lastly, different population groups come from different countries and different environments.
1957 Even though they are age-matched with their experimental groups, we remain uncertain of potential
1958 aggravators in the environment that can influence the effects of T2DM on the auditory system.

1959

1960 3.7.4. Strengths

1961

1962 This systematic review is the first of its kind to assess the prevalence of auditory dysfunction in people
1963 living in Africa diagnosed with T2DM. Its main strength is the method it undertook to retrieve viable
1964 studies for review and synthesis. Firstly, we utilised the skills of a professional librarian to formulate a
1965 comprehensive search strategy for different electronic databases to retrieve as many studies related
1966 to the topic as possible. In addition, using an African search filter, no language and publication
1967 restriction ensured that we got the maximum number of studies available for review. As suggested by
1968 the PRISMA guidelines of 2020 we have carried out a methodological quality appraisal on each study's
1969 individual study. We enforced a 1999 publication date limit to ensure that the method of hearing
1970 assessment for all the studies included reflects the updated WHO hearing loss definition. This ensures
1971 that hearing acuity results from all the studies are standardised to that of the updated WHO definition.

1972

1973 3.7.5. Conclusion and Recommendations:

1974

1975 The results of this meta-analysis show an overall prevalence of 56% for hearing loss in an adult T2DM
1976 population. Many of the participants were found to present with mild hearing loss which was more
1977 prevalent in the higher frequencies (2kHz – 4kHz). These results are compatible with most studies
1978 assessing the prevalence of auditory dysfunction in T2DM participants.

1979

1980 The ABR absolute wave latencies I, II and V are slightly longer when compared to normative adult data,
1981 which is equivalent to studies that found slower latencies within the T2DM groups. Our findings show
1982 that most participants with T2DM experienced mild hearing loss and slight delays in their objective
1983 hearing assessments. Africa is a poorly resourced continent. Audiometric resources and qualified
1984 audiologists are scarce. Therefore, the available evidence we currently have does not justify the added
1985 costs needed for routine audiometric assessments for patients with T2DM. However, this paper does
1986 serve to recommend prioritising further research regarding risk factors associated with developing
1987 auditory disorders in people with T2DM. In addition, in honour of there being a positive risk for
1988 developing hearing loss, adapting low-cost methods for patient and clinician education would help
1989 patients and health practitioners be aware of added complications related to T2DM diagnosis.

1990

1991 **3.8. Ethics and Dissemination**

1992

1993 This study did not require ethical clearance as we utilised secondary data that is accessible to the
1994 public. The study protocol was submitted to the UCT and reviewed by the Faculty of Health Science
1995 Human Research Ethics Committee (reference number: HREC/REF 264/2021). The waiver is located in
1996 *Appendix C, chapter 3.*

1997

1998 **3.9. Funding**

1999

2000 No funding was needed for the carry through of this systematic review.

2001

2002 **3.10. Contributions**

2003

2004 All authors of the study were responsible for formulating the structure of the protocol. AF designed
2005 the study, conducted the literature search, and formulated the data extraction sheet. AF, AH and LP
2006 screened for eligible studies to be included for the study and extracted the relevant information for
2007 data analysis and synthesis. AF synthesised the data and wrote the final draft of the paper. AH
2008 provided critical guidance on the analysis and LP guided the direction of the study. All authors proof-
2009 read the 3 parts of the paper and approved the final version.

2010 **3.11. Declaration of interests**

2011

2012 We declare that there are no competing interests to the creation of this study.

2013

2014 **3.12. Acknowledgements**

2015

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2017 Cape Town for her assistance in developing a search strategy for the literature review and manuscript.

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2019 Danisa for their review of the protocol, literature review and manuscript.

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PRISMA 2009 Checklist

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	
ABSTRACT			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	
METHODS			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.	

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
Risk of bias across studies	15	Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).	
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.	
RESULTS			
Study selection	17	Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.	
Study characteristics	18	For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.	
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).	
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.	
Synthesis of results	21	Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.	
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).	
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).	
DISCUSSION			
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).	
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).	
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.	
FUNDING			
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review.	

From: Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. *PLoS Med* 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097

For more information, visit: www.prisma-statement.org.

2163

2164

2165

2166

2167 **Appendix B: Descriptive Search Strategy**

2168 PUBMED/MEDLINE/SCOPUS/EBSCOHOST

2169 PubMed – Achuma 15 Feb 2021. Rerun on 09 May 2021 (26 results)

2170

2171 #13

2172 Search: (((((Hearing Disorders OR hearing loss OR hearing impairment OR hearing disorder OR
2173 auditory disorder OR auditory disorders) OR ("Hearing Disorders"[Mesh])) OR ("Hearing
2174 Loss"[Mesh])) OR (deaf OR deafness)) AND ((type 2 diabetes OR type 2 diabetes mellitus OR T2DM
2175 OR NIDDM OR non-insulin dependent diabetes) OR ("Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2"[Mesh]))) AND
2176 ((Africa OR African OR Algeria OR Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR Burundi OR
2177 "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR Cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR "Central African
2178 Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR Congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR
2179 Djibouti OR Egypt OR Eritrea OR eSwatini OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea
2180 OR Guinea- Bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR Jamahiriya OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Libya OR
2181 Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mayotte OR Morocco OR
2182 Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Principe OR Reunion OR Rwanda OR "Saint
2183 Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "St Helena" OR
2184 Sudan OR Swaziland OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Tunisia OR Uganda OR "Western Sahara" OR Zaire OR
2185 Zambia OR Zimbabwe) OR ("Africa"[Mesh])

2186 26 02:15:53

2187

2188 #12

2189 Search: (Africa OR African OR Algeria OR Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR
2190 Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR Cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR
2191 "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR Congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic
2192 Republic of Congo" OR Djibouti OR Egypt OR Eritrea OR eSwatini OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia
2193 OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea- Bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR Jamahiriya OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR
2194 Liberia OR Libya OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mayotte OR
2195 Morocco OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Principe OR Reunion OR Rwanda OR
2196 "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "St
2197 Helena" OR Sudan OR Swaziland OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Tunisia OR Uganda OR "Western Sahara"
2198 OR Zaire OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe) OR ("Africa"[Mesh])

2199 904,761 02:15:40

2200

2201 #11

2202 Search: "Africa"[Mesh] Sort by: Most Recent

2203 274,396 02:15:27

2204

2205 #10

2206 Search: Africa OR African OR Algeria OR Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR
2207 Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR Cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR
2208 "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR Congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic
2209 Republic of Congo" OR Djibouti OR Egypt OR Eritrea OR eSwatini OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia
2210 OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea- Bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR Jamahiriya OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR
2211 Liberia OR Libya OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mayotte OR
2212 Morocco OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Principe OR Reunion OR Rwanda OR
2213 "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "St
2214 Helena" OR Sudan OR Swaziland OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Tunisia OR Uganda OR "Western Sahara"
2215 OR Zaire OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe

2216 904,761 02:15:05

2217

2218 #9

2219 Search: (((Hearing Disorders OR hearing loss OR hearing impairment OR hearing disorder OR
2220 auditory disorder OR auditory disorders) OR ("Hearing Disorders"[Mesh])) OR ("Hearing
2221 Loss"[Mesh])) OR (deaf OR deafness)) AND ((type 2 diabetes OR type 2 diabetes mellitus OR T2DM
2222 OR NIDDM OR non-insulin dependent diabetes) OR ("Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2"[Mesh]))

2223 537 02:13:59

2224

2225 #8

2226 Search: (type 2 diabetes OR type 2 diabetes mellitus OR T2DM OR NIDDM OR non-insulin dependent
2227 diabetes) OR ("Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2"[Mesh])

2228 195,791 02:13:42

2229

2230 #7

2231 Search: (((Hearing Disorders OR hearing loss OR hearing impairment OR hearing disorder OR
2232 auditory disorder OR auditory disorders) OR ("Hearing Disorders"[Mesh])) OR ("Hearing
2233 Loss"[Mesh])) OR (deaf OR deafness)

2234 141,686 02:13:31

2235

2236 #6

2237 Search: "Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2"[Mesh] Sort by: Most Recent

2238 137,111 02:13:04

2239 #5

2240 Search: type 2 diabetes OR type 2 diabetes mellitus OR T2DM OR NIDDM OR non-insulin dependent
2241 diabetes

2242 195,791 02:12:38

2243

2244 #4

2245 Search: deaf OR deafness

2246 47,935 02:10:18

2247

2248 #3

2249 Search: "Hearing Loss"[Mesh] Sort by: Most Recent

2250 70,299 02:10:04

2251

2252 #2

2253 Search: "Hearing Disorders"[Mesh] Sort by: Most Recent

2254 88,243 02:09:22

2255

2256 #1

2257 Search: Hearing Disorders OR hearing loss OR hearing impairment OR hearing disorder OR auditory
2258 disorder OR auditory disorders

2259 132,687

2260

2261 Ebsco

2262

2263 Attached

2264

2265 Scopus

2266

2267 4

2268 (TITLE-ABS-KEY (("Hearing Disorder*" OR "hearing loss" OR "hearing impairment" OR "auditory
2269 disorder*"))) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY (("type 2 diabetes" OR "type 2 diabetes mellitus" OR t2dm OR
2270 niddm OR "non-insulin dependent diabetes"))) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY (africa OR african OR algeria
2271 OR angola OR benin OR botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR cameroon

2272 OR cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR "Central African Republic" OR chad OR
2273 comoros OR congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR djibouti OR egypt OR
2274 eritrea OR eswatini OR ethiopia OR gabon OR gambia OR ghana OR guinea OR guinea- AND
2275 bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR jamahiriya OR kenya OR lesotho OR liberia OR libya OR madagascar OR
2276 malawi OR mali OR mauritania OR mauritius OR mayotte OR morocco OR mozambique OR namibia
2277 OR niger OR nigeria OR principe OR reunion OR rwanda OR "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR
2278 senegal OR seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR somalia OR "St Helena" OR sudan OR swaziland OR
2279 tanzania OR togo OR tunisia OR uganda OR "Western Sahara" OR zaire OR zambia OR zimbabwe))

2280 3 document results

2281

2282 3

2283 TITLE-ABS-KEY (africa OR african OR algeria OR angola OR benin OR botswana OR "Burkina Faso" OR
2284 burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR cameroon OR cameroun OR "Canary Islands" OR "Cape Verde" OR
2285 "Central African Republic" OR chad OR comoros OR congo OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Democratic
2286 Republic of Congo" OR djibouti OR egypt OR eritrea OR eswatini OR ethiopia OR gabon OR gambia
2287 OR ghana OR guinea OR guinea- AND bissau OR "Ivory Coast" OR jamahiriya OR kenya OR lesotho OR
2288 liberia OR libya OR madagascar OR malawi OR mali OR mauritania OR mauritius OR mayotte OR
2289 morocco OR mozambique OR namibia OR niger OR nigeria OR principe OR reunion OR rwanda OR
2290 "Saint Helena" OR "Sao Tome" OR senegal OR seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR somalia OR "St
2291 Helena" OR sudan OR swaziland OR tanzania OR togo OR tunisia OR uganda OR "Western Sahara" OR
2292 zaire OR zambia OR zimbabwe)

2293 148,871 document results

2294

2295 2

2296 TITLE-ABS-KEY (("type 2 diabetes" OR "type 2 diabetes mellitus" OR t2dm OR niddm OR "non-insulin
2297 dependent diabetes"))

2298 256,372 document results

2299

2300

2301 1

2302 TITLE-ABS-KEY (("Hearing Disorder*" OR "hearing loss" OR "hearing impairment" OR "auditory
2303 disorder*"))

2304 137,377 document results

2305

2306 - Manual searches were carried out for Google Scholar and the OpenUCT Theses and
2307 Dissertations web browser.

2308



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
Faculty of Health Sciences
Human Research Ethics Committee



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26 April 2021

HREC/REF 264/2021

A/Prof M Engel

Department of Medicine
J46.43-, OMB
Email: mark.engel@uct.ac.za
Student: fhlach001@myuct.ac.za

Dear A/Prof Engel

PROJECT TITLE: THE EPIDEMIOLOGY OF AUDITORY DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS ADULTS IN AFRICA: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS

Thank you for submitting your request to the Faculty of Health Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee.

The HREC note that the proposed study is a systematic review.

As the systematic review involves published literature available through publicly accessible electronic databases, research ethics review and approval is not required.

This is in accordance with Section 1.1.8 of the Department of Health's Ethics in Health Research: Principles, Processes and Structures (South African Department of Health, 2015), which states: "*Research that relies exclusively on publicly available information or accessible through legislation or regulation usually need not undergo formal ethics review. This does not mean that ethical considerations are irrelevant to the research.*"

The HREC recommend that researchers refer to the PRISMA website, for the PRISMA statement and checklist, to facilitate the reporting of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. For more information, please refer to <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>.

Further, fundamental ethical principles for health-related research should be considered in the objectives and methods of the systematic review. See, for example, the Declaration of Helsinki (Fortaleza, Brazil, 2013) and the Department of Health's Ethics in Health Research: Principles, Processes and Structures (South African Department of Health, 2015).

The HREC acknowledge that the Master's Candidate, Miss Achuma Fihla, IS also involved in this project.

Yours sincerely

pp *UBurgess*

PROFESSOR M BLOCKMAN
CHAIRPERSON, FACULTY OF HEALTH SCIENCES HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

2313 Appendix D: Critical Appraisal Checklist
 2314 Hoy et al. Critical Appraisal Checklist for Studies Reporting Prevalence (11)
 2315 Reviewer: Achuma Fihla
 2316 Date: 11 May 2021
 2317

HOY ET AL., QUALITY ASSESSMENT CRITERIA FOR PREVALENCE STUDIES									
	Author/Date								
Questions	Minnaar. D., 2017	Noha. M. et al., 2015	Kruger.L., 2018	Lasisi. O.A., 2003	Okwiri. N., 2016	Adebola. S. O., 2015	Van der Westhuizen., 2019	Idugboe.O.J., 2017	Ologe.F.E., 2005
External Validity									
Risk of Bias 1	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 2	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Risk of Bias 4	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Internal Validity									
Risk of Bias 5	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 6	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 7	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 8	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 9	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Risk of Bias 10	LOW	NP	LOW	NP	LOW	LOW	NP	LOW	NP
QUALITY OF METHODOLOGY (no. of points):	9	8	9	8	9	9	8	9	8

2318
 2319
 2320
 2321
 2322
 2323