



Optimizing Learning – the Vital Role of the Otolaryngologist

Robert J. Ruben

Introduction

Optimal learning is dependent upon optimal communication, and this depends upon the function of the pupil's communication abilities – hearing, voice, speech and language. All of these functions are the medical responsibility of Otolaryngology.

Over the past century, the world-wide economic basis of society has undergone a dramatic evolution. A hundred years ago, manual labor, muscle power, was the mainstay of each society's economic s¹. Today, it is communication, for almost all productivity is based on the worker's ability to communicate, i.e., the ability to use and understand language; this includes person-to-person communication, as in the service industries, but increasingly communication with and through computers as in all sectors of the modern economy. This economic transformation has a medical consequence. When manual labor was the economic engine, medicine under the banner of public health, researched and carried out programs and interventions, for prevention of malnutrition and infection. This was done chiefly through the provision of optimal nutrition and sanitation, which were necessary for the optimization of physical health in a manual labor economy. Today, Medicine, and in particular Otolaryngology, must provide the research and carryout interventions to prevent communication disorders so as to optimize communication abilities. Communication disorders in hearing, voice, speech and language are major consequences of the diseases of the ENT organ systems.

Communication disorders all greatly impair learning, the acquisition of new knowledge, behaviors, skills, values, preferences, understanding, and the synthesis of different types of information. Learning as a process is characterized by the increase of knowledge over time and is dependent on the expression and reception of language. Built into the biological basis of language is the phenomenon of the critical — maximally sensitive — period, a time when there is optimal ability to acquire the basic principles of language so that a complete language can develop from these². One of the first investigators to appreciate and document the phenomenon of a 'sensitive period' was an otolaryngologist, Jean-Marc Gaspard Itard, in his reports of 1801 and 1807 about an abandoned child whom he named Victor^{3,4}. Itard's report and many since have provided evidence for the principle that early deprivation of language inputs results in decreased linguistic function and consequently impaired communication and cognitive ability^{5,6}.

How common prevalence

The prevalence of childhood communication – hearing, voice, speech and language – disorders have been documented during the past half century. There is no single worldwide rate as definitions vary. Additionally, reports differ in how the data were gathered and the social structure within which they were gathered. Hearing loss is the communication disorder with the most information available, and can serve as a model to examine these three variables, which for hearing are the particular defined thresholds, the nature of the population sample, and the society from which it was obtained. Permanent childhood hearing loss in post industrialized nations has a prevalence from 3.1 per 1000⁷ to 3.4 per 1000⁸ with significant differences between ethnic, social, and geographic groups within each country. The children in the developing nations have a prevalence of permanent hearing loss on the average of 7.6 per 1000⁹ or twice the rate of those in post industrialized societies. These numbers do not include unilateral hearing loss, hearing loss from 20 to 30 or 40dB loss and fluctuating losses from otitis media with effusion. Hearing loss from otitis media with effusion has been well studied. Two reports of hearing loss from otitis media with effusion from different societies, Nigeria¹⁰ and India¹¹ give a prevalence of a hearing loss of >20dB as 109/1000 (10.9%) and 119/1000 (11.9%). The Nigerian report shows the great disparity in prevalence of otitis media with effusion between the rich and poor with the prevalence 2.7 times greater in the poor children than in those from a more wealthy community. The hearing losses were also correlated with economic status: the poorer the community the worse the hearing loss. As a generalization the prevalence of hearing loss is approximately 3 to 8 children per 1000 with a permanent hearing (0.3 to 0.8%) loss and another 100 to 200 per 1000 (10-20%) with a non permanent hearing loss from otitis media with effusion, depending on the society in which that child lives.

The same methodological variables are present in the prevalence data for voice, speech and language disorders. There is an estimated childhood prevalence for voice disorders is in the range of 60 to 70 per 1000 (6% to 7%)¹¹⁻¹⁴; speech disorders from 70 to 90 per 1000 (7 to 9%)¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and language disorders from 20 per 1000 to 80 per 1000 (2% to 8%) with a mean prevalence of 59.5 per 1000 (5.95%)¹⁸. It appears that between 130 to 140 per 1000 (13 to 14%) of children have at least one communication disorder¹⁹. The disease burden is greater in the developing world and in children living in poverty.

Effects of diseases of hearing, voice, speech and language on communication

These communication disorders have a very deleterious effect on the child's learning, socialization and eventual economic productivity^{1,20-23}. Preschool children with speech and/or language delays are at increased risk for learning disabilities²⁴ as exemplified by reading skills^{25,26}, written language²⁷, academic underachievement^{28,29} and lower IQ scores²⁶. Children with permanent hearing losses have language deficiencies proportional to their loss³⁰⁻³⁴. Children with losses PTA between 40 to 80db were found to have a language quotients of 40%³⁰ and with losses from 20 to 40 db a language quotients of 80%^{33,35,36}. Learning is also diminished from the hearing losses associated with otitis media with

effusion^{10;37;38 39;40} and unilateral hearing losses^{41;42}. These learning deficiencies are exacerbated by the extrinsic factors of poverty⁴³⁻⁴⁵ and /or inadequate linguistic input^{46;47}.

Case Finding — Screening

There is ample evidence that the earlier a communication disorder is identified, the better the outcome. This is well documented in numerous studies of early and late intervention of children with hearing impairments such as the 1998 report of Yoshinaga-Itano et al⁴⁸, the 2000 report of Moeller et al⁴⁹ and the 2007 report of Bubbico et al⁵⁰ for severe to profound hearing losses and the reports of Wake et al^{33;34} for hearing loss which are moderate to severe.

The need for early detection of hearing loss was recognized in the first quarter of the 20th century and childhood hearing impairment has been the major focus of otolaryngology for screening. There was, from the beginning of the 20th century, a concern for the hearing of school children but there was no accurate method for hearing assessment. The major advance in the diagnosis and care of children's hearing was the development of the first commercial vacuum tube audiometer, the Western Electric 1A by Fletcher^{51;52} and introduced as a clinical tool by E.P. Fowler Jr. and R.L. Wengel in 1922⁵³. This was used to objectively test the hearing of school children and resulted in the 1928 article entitled "Three million deafened school children"⁵⁴ which was a major stimulus to the establishment of hearing screening programs for young school children in the middle of the 20th Century.

The first experimental screening of a large population cohort of newborns (n = 1,388) for hearing loss was carried out at the Johns Hopkins Medical Hospital, Baltimore from 1959 to 1962⁵⁵. J. Hardy, in 1965⁵⁶ suggested, apparently for the first time, the use of a high-risk register for detecting infants with hearing loss. This low-technology approach not carried out at the time but with a significant subsequent history, was to consist of a form that could be filled out and compiled by a clerk. Downs and Sterritt⁵⁷, realizing that the newborn nursery allowed almost universal accessibility, carried out in one Colorado hospital a newborn hearing screen pilot study using an auditory stimulus and observation of the infant's response. While Downs' study demonstrated that screening with the audiometer and observation might be feasible, the use of subjective assessments of infant reaction to sound lacked both sensitivity and specificity. This approach was little used, as noted in the report of the 1971 Committee on Fetus and Newborn Joint Statement on neonatal screening for hearing impairment⁵⁸. Following this report, the strategy for early detection shifted from the technologically and professionally intensive protocol to the high risk register, based on the etiologies of congenital and early onset hearing loss as were understood at the time⁵⁹. The use of the high risk registry identified about half of the affected newborns⁶⁰. During the late 1980s and early 1990s, there was developed an efficient technology- otoacoustic emissions - for newborn hearing screening. In a large study with comprehensive follow-up in the transient evoked otoacoustic emissions test (TEOAE) was used to screen 1,850 newborns. It was found to be both sensitive and specific⁶¹. These and other studies led to world wide establishment of physiologically-based universal

newborn infant screening programs. Since then, the development of genetic testing for hearing loss has provided the potential for an etiological diagnosis at time of audiometric detection and the possibility to predict delayed onset of the disorder⁶². The hearing-impaired child is identified by differing administrative, professional and technical systems in different countries, but is primarily cared for by the otolaryngologist.

Presently there are no universal screening programs for voice, speech and/or language. The identification of these children is not organized and relies on the awareness of parents, medical providers, teachers and others. As many of these children are seen by otolaryngologists to determine if the child's speech delay and/or unintelligible speech are due to a hearing loss, the otolaryngologist can and should also use one of a number of accurate and efficient language and speech screening tools^{17,63-65} such as the Early Language Milestones Screen©⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ to identify such a child. These screening instruments are applicable from birth until 3 years or older. They are also used to monitor the outcomes of interventions to aid the child's language development.

Interventions and Outcomes

The otolaryngologist can institute interventions once a disorder is recognized so as to ameliorate the condition, and so optimize learning. Each communication disorder has a variety of effective care or cure modalities, all of which can help reduce language and learning deficits. Once a hearing loss is diagnosed by either an auditory or physiological audiometric evaluation and/or otoscopic examination, it can be effectively cared for by tympanostomy tubes, adenoidectomy, tympanoplasty, cochlear implants, bone-anchored hearing aids, traditional hearing aids, FM classroom amplification systems, etc.

Voice disorders are diagnosed though direct observation with a fiber optic nasopharyngoscope and/or a computerized voice analysis. Once the diagnosis is made, appropriate therapy, either voice therapy and/or micro laryngeal surgery is carried out. Speech disorders are diagnosed by computerized speech analysis, nasopharyngoscopy, especially for velopharyngeal insufficiency — hypo nasal speech - and are corrected with speech therapy and/or appropriate surgery. All of this medical care is the province of the otolaryngologist.

The optimization of learning requires much more than just the providing of the appropriate physical care. The effectiveness of the intervention in assisting learning must be measured, documented and reported to the otolaryngologist so that the effectiveness of the intervention can be accessed and modified if necessary. There needs to be a communication between the school and the otolaryngologist — between education and Medicine. Presently these are two very distinct domains with almost no permanent structure for exchange of information. For the 21st century — the communication age — change is essential in the exhausted paradigm of professional isolation. There must be the transfer of appropriate information from the school (from classroom level) for each child with a communication disorder to the otolaryngologist who is caring for that child, and vice versa. The school would report to the educational progress of each pupil with a communication disorder. If this appears to be inadequate, then the

otolaryngologist would review the intervention(s) to determine their effectiveness. An example would be a child with a unilateral hearing loss who has an FM system in the class room. Let us imagine that this child's reading and language skills are below expectations. This is reported to the otolaryngologist. Several possible causes would then be investigated which would include, further hearing loss in the better ear, further loss in the effected ear, lack of compliance by the teacher or the child, faulty FM equipment etc. The defect would be rectified or further cared for and the child continually followed to determine if the reading and language skills did improve. This scenario with multiple feedback loops would optimize the learning for the effected child.

Another example would be a child with severe dysphonia - hoarseness who could not participate in classroom oral actives and consequently was underachieving. Let us imagine that this child has been in voice therapy but the therapy was ineffective. This could be due to a lack of compliance or to laryngeal pathology so extensive that the voice therapy was unable to overcome the problem. The otolaryngologist would have this information, it appears that the compliance is excellent, and thus a mircolaryngoscopy would be carried out to surgically correct the disorder and allow the child to participate in the class's oral activities so as to optimize that child's learning.

Another use of feedback is exemplified in the following scenario. A two year old with a 35dB hearing loss from otitis media with effusion is found upon language screening, to have a marked expressive and receptive language delay. Tympanostomy tubes are placed and the child achieves near-normal hearing for the next few months or so. The child's language is reassessed using the language screen. One possible outcome is that the expressive and receptive language has improved and the child now has age-appropriate linguistic function. In this case the intervention has optimized learning. But there can be and are other outcomes: that the hearing is now normal but the language function only improves slightly or not at all, or even deteriorates. Each one of these outcomes mandates a further investigation to determine the cause of the linguistic deficiency which could be a form of specific language impairment, autism, or some from of developmental delay. This then allows the child to have a correct diagnosis and intervention so as to optimize learning.

Conclusion

The children of today will be the providers of the future communication based economy. There is a world-wide shift in the age of the populations, in that there are fewer young and people live longer. This aging demographic⁶⁹ is most pronounced in the post-industrialized societies of Western Europe, North America and Oceania and less so in the developing world. In 2050 there will be fewer workers, age 20-65 to support those aged less than 20 and over 65. Each worker will have to be much more economically efficient so as to insure the same standard of living for that pupation in 2050 as in 2009. As the economy becomes increasingly communication-based, it will be necessary for each worker to have optimal communication skills for learning. The otolaryngologist has the task of optimizing these skills through the care of children's communication disorders.

Recommended readings

1. R. J. Ruben, "Redefining the Survival of the Fittest: Communication Disorders in the 21st Century," *Laryngoscope* 110, no. 2 Pt 1 (2000): 241-245.
2. R. J. Ruben and I. Rapin, "Plasticity of the Developing Auditory System," *Ann.Otol.Rhinol.Laryngol.* 89, no. 4 Pt 1 (1980): 303-311.
3. Itard JMG, *De L' Education d'un homme sauvage ou des premiers développements physiques et moraux dy jeune sauvage d l'Aveyron* (Paris: Chez Gousson fils rue Taranne, 1801).
4. Itard EM, *Rapport fait à son le Ministre de L'Intérieur, sur les nouveaux développemens et l'état actuel du sauvage de l'Aveyon* (Paris: De L'Imprimerie Impériale, 1807).
5. H. Neville and D. Bavelier, «Human Brain Plasticity: Evidence From Sensory Deprivation and Altered Language Experience,» *Prog.Brain Res.*2002.;138.:177.-88. 138 (2002): 177-188.
6. Rymer R, *Genie: a Scientific Tragedy* (New York: Harper Collins, 1993).
7. S. Mehra, R. D. Eavey, and D. G. Keamy, Jr., "The Epidemiology of Hearing Impairment in the United States: Newborns, Children, and Adolescents," *Otolaryngol.Head Neck Surg.* 140, no. 4 (2009): 461-472.
8. J. Bamford et al., "Current Practice, Accuracy, Effectiveness and Cost-Effectiveness of the School Entry Hearing Screen," *Health Technol.Assess.* 11, no. 32 (2007): 1-iv.
9. Davis, A. and Hind, S. The impact of hearing impairment: a global health problem. *Int.J.Ped.Otorhinolaryngol.* 49, S51-S54. 1999. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
10. F. Olatoke et al., "The Prevalence of Hearing Loss Among Schoolchildren With Chronic Suppurative Otitis Media in Nigeria, and Its Effect on Academic Performance Hearing Impairment and Otitis Media in a Rural Primary School in South India," *Ear Nose Throat J* 2008.Dec.;87.(12.):E19. 87, no. 12 (2008): E19-8.
11. Annie Jacob et al., "Hearing Impairment and Otitis Media in a Rural Primary School in South India," *International Journal of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology* 39, no. 2 (1997): 133-138.
12. Kilic M. Akif et al., "The Prevalence of Vocal Fold Nodules in School Age Children Epidemiological Study on Vocal Disorders in Paediatric Age. The Prevalence of Childhood Dysphonia: a Cross-Sectional Study. Prevalence of Voice Disorders in African American and European American Preschoolers The Prevalence of Stuttering, Voice, and Speech-Sound Disorders in Primary School Students in Australia," *Int. J Pediatr. Otorhinolaryngol.* 2004.Apr;68. (4):409.-12. 68, no. 4 (2004): 409-412.
13. H. A. Leeper et al., "Otorhinolaryngologic Screening of Children With Vocal Quality Disturbances," *Int. J Pediatr. Otorhinolaryngol.* 2, no. 2 (1980): 123-131.

14. M. Powell, M. D. Filter, and B. Williams, "A Longitudinal Study of the Prevalence of Voice Disorders in Children From a Rural School Division," *J Commun.Disord.* 22, no. 5 (1989): 375-382.
15. "Statistics on Voice, Speech, and Language,".
16. J. H. Beitchman et al., "Prevalence of Speech and Language Disorders in 5-Year-Old Kindergarten Children in the Ottawa-Carleton Region," *J Speech Hear.Disord.* 51, no. 2 (1986): 98-110.
17. H. D. Nelson et al., "Screening for Speech and Language Delay in Preschool Children: Systematic Evidence Review for the US Preventive Services Task Force," *Pediatrics* 117, no. 2 (2006): e298-e319.
18. J. Law, Z. Garrett, and C. Nye, "Speech and Language Therapy Interventions for Children With Primary Speech and Language Delay or Disorder," *Cochrane.Database.Syst.Rev.*, no. 3 (2003): CD004110.
19. S. McLeod and D. H. McKinnon, "Prevalence of Communication Disorders Compared With Other Learning Needs in 14,500 Primary and Secondary School Students," *Int.J Lang Commun.Disord.* 42 Suppl 1 (2007): 37-59.
20. "Economic Costs Associated With Mental Retardation, Cerebral Palsy, Hearing Loss, and Vision Impairment--United States, 2003," *MMWR Morb. Mortal.Wkly.Rep.* 53, no. 3 (2004): 57-59.
21. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Occupational Outlook Handbook. 1998. Ref Type: Generic
22. R. Punch et al., "Career and Workplace Experiences of Australian University Graduates Who Are Deaf or Hard of Hearing Hearing, Deaf, and Hard-of-Hearing Israeli Adolescents' Evaluations of Deaf Men and Deaf Women's Occupational Competence Predicting Career Development in Hard-of-Hearing Adolescents in Australia Screening Infants for Hearing Loss--an Economic Evaluation," *J Deaf Stud. Deaf Educ.* 2007.Fall.;12.(4):504.-17 12, no. 4 (2007): 504-517.
23. U.S.Census Bureau. *Americans with Disabilities:1994 -94*, Table 8. 2002. Ref Type: Generic
24. A. S. Bashir and A. Scavuzzo, "Children With Language Disorders: Natural History and Academic Success," *J Learn.Disabil.* 25, no. 1 (1992): 53-65.
25. H. W. Catts et al., "A Longitudinal Investigation of Reading Outcomes in Children With Language Impairments," *J Speech Lang Hear.Res.* 45, no. 6 (2002): 1142-1157.
26. P. A. Silva, S. Williams, and R. McGee, "A Longitudinal Study of Children With Developmental Language Delay at Age Three: Later Intelligence, Reading and Behaviour Problems," *Dev.Med Child Neurol.* 29, no. 5 (1987): 630-640.
27. D. V. Bishop and B. Clarkson, "Written Language As a Window into Residual Language Deficits: a Study of Children With Persistent and Residual Speech and Language Impairments," *Cortex* 39, no. 2 (2003): 215-237.

28. S. Felsenfeld, P. A. Broen, and M. McGue, "A 28-Year Follow-Up of Adults With a History of Moderate Phonological Disorder: Educational and Occupational Results," *J Speech Hear. Res.* 37, no. 6 (1994): 1341-1353.
29. A. R. Young et al., "Young Adult Academic Outcomes in a Longitudinal Sample of Early Identified Language Impaired and Control Children," *J Child Psychol. Psychiatry* 43, no. 5 (2002): 635-645.
30. R. J. Ruben et al., "Moderate to Severe Sensorineural Hearing Impaired Child: Analysis of Etiology, Intervention, and Outcome," *Laryngoscope* 92, no. 1 (1982): 38-46.
31. R. J. Ruben, "Language Screening As a Factor in the Management of the Pediatric Otolaryngic Patient. Effectiveness and Efficiency," *Arch Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* 117, no. 9 (1991): 1021-1025.
32. B. R. Vohr et al., "Results of Newborn Screening for Hearing Loss: Effects on the Family in the First 2 Years of Life Hearing Loss--an Underestimated Public Health Problem," *Arch. Pediatr. Adolesc. Med.* 2008. Mar.; 162.(3):205.-11 162, no. 3 (2008): 205-211.
33. M. Wake et al., "Outcomes of Children With Mild-Profound Congenital Hearing Loss at 7 to 8 Years: a Population Study," *Ear Hear.* 25, no. 1 (2004): 1-8.
34. M. Wake et al., "Hearing Impairment: a Population Study of Age at Diagnosis, Severity, and Language Outcomes at 7-8 Years," *Arch. Dis. Child* 90, no. 3 (2005): 238-244.
35. R. J. Ruben, "Language Quotient in Children With 20 to 40 Db PTA", 1985).
36. T. Sugiuchi et al., "[The Development of Language and Problems in 30 Mild, Moderate, and Moderately Severe Hearing-Impaired Children]," *Nippon Jibiinkoka Gakkai Kaiho* 104, no. 12 (2001): 1126-1134.
37. R. J. Ruben, I. F. Wallace, and J. Gravel, "Long-Term Communication Deficiencies in Children With Otitis Media During Their First Year of Life," *Acta Otolaryngol.* 117, no. 2 (1997): 206-207.
38. J. S. Gravel, I. F. Wallace, and R. J. Ruben, "Early Otitis Media and Later Educational Risk," *Acta Otolaryngol.* 115, no. 2 (1995): 279-281.
39. K. E. Bennett and M. P. Haggard, "Behaviour and Cognitive Outcomes From Middle Ear Disease," *Arch Dis Child* 80, no. 1 (1999): 28-35.
40. K. E. Bennett et al., "Behaviour and Developmental Effects of Otitis Media With Effusion into the Teens," *Arch Dis Child* 85, no. 2 (2001): 91-95.
41. J. E. Lieu, "Speech-Language and Educational Consequences of Unilateral Hearing Loss in Children," *Arch Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* 130, no. 5 (2004): 524-530.
42. F. H. Bess and A. M. Tharpe, "Unilateral Hearing Impairment in Children," *Pediatrics* 74, no. 2 (1984): 206-216.
43. M. Gissler et al., "Social Class Differences in Health Until the Age of Seven Years Among the Finnish 1987 Birth Cohort," *Soc. Sci. Med.* 46, no. 12 (1998): 1543-1552.

44. R. Schonweiler, "[Synopsis of Results With 1,300 Children With Language Developmental Delay From the Etiopathogenetic, Audiologic and Speech Pathology Viewpoint]," *Folia Phoniatr.Logop.* 46, no. 1 (1994): 18-26.
45. L. A. Castagno and L. Lavinsky, "Otitis Media in Children: Seasonal Changes and Socioeconomic Level," *Int.J. Pediatr.Otorhinolaryngol.* 62, no. 2 (2002): 129-134.
46. I. F. Wallace et al., "Otitis Media, Communication Style of Primary Caregivers, and Language Skills of 2 Year Olds: a Preliminary Report," *J Dev. Behav.Pediatr.* 17, no. 1 (1996): 27-35.
47. H. M. Feldman et al., "Parent-Reported Language Skills in Relation to Otitis Media During the First 3 Years of Life," *J Speech Lang Hear.Res.* 46, no. 2 (2003): 273-287.
48. C. Yoshinaga-Itano et al., "Language of Early- and Later-Identified Children With Hearing Loss," *Pediatrics* 102, no. 5 (1998): 1161-1171.
49. M. P. Moeller, "Early Intervention and Language Development in Children Who Are Deaf and Hard of Hearing," *Pediatrics* 106, no. 3 (2000): E43.
50. L. Bubbico et al., "Early Hearing Detection and Intervention in Children With Prelingual Deafness, Effects on Language Development," *Minerva Pediatr.* 59, no. 4 (2007): 307-313.
51. Flechter H and Wengel RL. The frequency sensitivity of normal ears. *Physiol Rev* 19, 553. 1922. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
52. Fowler EP and Wengel RL. Audiometric methods and their applications. *Transactions of the American Laryngological, Rhinological and Otolological Society* 28, 98-132. 1922. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
53. Fowler EP and Wengel RL. Presentation of a new instrument for determining the amount and character of auditory sensation. *Trans Am Otol Soc* 16, 105-103. 1922. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
54. Fowler EP and Flechter H. Three million deafened school children. *Arch Otolaryngol.* 87, 1877-1882. 1928. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
55. W. G. HARDY et al., "Auditory Screening of Infants," *Ann.Otol Rhinol. Laryngol* 71 (1962): 759-766.
56. The Young Deaf Child: Identification and Management. Proceedings of a conference held in Toronto, Canada, 8-9 October 1964. Davis.H. The Young Deaf Child: Identification and Management. Proceedings of a conference held in Toronto, Canada, 8-9 October 1964. *Acta Oto-Laryngol.(Stockh.) Suppl.* 206, 1-256. 1965. Ref Type: Journal (Full)
57. Downs MP and Sterritt GM, "Identification Audiometry for Neonates: A Preliminary Report," *The Journal of Auditory Research* 4 (1964): 69-80.
58. "Committee on Fetus and Newborn. Joint Statement on Neonatal Screening for Hearing Impairment," *Pediatrics* 47, no. 6 (1971): 1085.
59. Black FO and others, *Congenital deafness: a new approach to early detection through a high risk register* (Denver: Colorado Associated University Press, 1971).

60. "Early Identification of Hearing Impairment in Infants and Young Children," NIH Consens.Statement 11, no. 1 (1993): 1-24.
61. White KR, Vohr BR, and Behrens TR. "Universal Newborn Hearing Screening Using Transient Evoked Otoacoustic Emissions: Results of the Rhode Island Hearing Assessment Project," *Semin Hearing* 14 (1993): 18-29.
62. C. C. Morton and W. E. Nance, "Newborn Hearing Screening--a Silent Revolution," *N.Engl.J Med* 354, no. 20 (2006): 2151-2164.
63. V. Burden et al., "The Cambridge Language and Speech Project (CLASP). I .Detection of Language Difficulties at 36 to 39 Months," *Dev.Med Child Neurol.* 38, no. 7 (1996): 613-631.
64. J. Law et al., "The Feasibility of Universal Screening for Primary Speech and Language Delay: Findings From a Systematic Review of the Literature," *Dev. Med Child Neurol.* 42, no. 3 (2000): 190-200.
65. H. M. van Agt et al., "Detecting Language Problems: Accuracy of Five Language Screening Instruments in Preschool ChildrenCo-Occurrence of Developmental Delays in a Screening Study of 4-Year- Old Finnish Children The Feasibility of Universal Screening for Primary Speech and Language Delay: Findings From a Systematic Review of the Literature," *Dev.Med Child Neurol.*2007.Feb.;49.(2):117.-22.; discussion.84. 49, no. 2 (2007): 117-122.
66. J. Coplan et al., "Validation of an Early Language Milestone Scale in a High-Risk Population," *Pediatrics* 70, no. 5 (1982): 677-683.
67. R. J. Ruben, "Language Screening As a Factor in the Management of the Pediatric Otolaryngic Patient. Effectiveness and Efficiency," *Arch. Otolaryngol.Head Neck Surg.* 117, no. 9 (1991): 1021-1025.
68. R. L. Schum et al., "Language Screening in the Pediatric Office Setting Early Language Milestone Scale and Language Screening of Young Children [See Comments]," *Pediatr.Clin.North Am.*2007.Jun.;54.(3):425.-36., v. 54, no. 3 (2007): 425-36, v.
69. U.S.Census Bureau, "World Population Trends,"