



**EXECUTIVE
FUNCTIONS
& POVERTY:**

IMPLICATIONS FOR LIFELONG TEACHING





Working in schools with diverse populations such as different socio-economic status (SES), we have had the opportunity to use schools' data from assessments of students' executive functions and other cognitive skills and explore the implications for individual interventions and overall classroom management. As we will explain in this paper, the data suggest that executive functions have a meaningful impact on closing the achievement gap for low-SES students and helping them develop social and emotional competence by understanding and addressing the development of cognitive skills in general, and executive functions in particular. Our intent in this article is not to draw statistical conclusions, but rather to illustrate the kinds of challenges and approaches to addressing those challenges for schools with varying proportions of students living in poverty.

The Impact of Poverty on Cognitive Development

In recent years, poverty's impact on cognitive development has been more widely recognized in education (Budge & Parrett, 2018). The critical importance of cognitive skills for academic success (Sheppard, 2017). Nonetheless, many educators are not well-versed in the cognitive developmental sciences and their implications for teaching and learning (Liebbrand & Watson, 2010). Our intent is to demonstrate practical ways to translate the research into meaningful classroom change.

All academic tasks require a range of cognitive skills, and the demands on higher-order skills, including executive functions, increase as students progress in school (Best & Miller, 2010). Executive functions are essential for social and emotional competence, self-regulation, control of attention, and openly adapting to changing circumstances (Diamond, 2013). Executive functions are also essential in the process of learning to read (Sheppard, 2017, Hill, 2017) and learn mathematics (Hegarty & Koshevnikov, 1999; Misunderstood Minds: Basics of Mathematics, 2002).

Rapid developments in neurosciences over the last two decades have exponentially increased our understanding of brain development, the role of the environment, and the negative impacts of poverty. We want to be very clear and do not suggest that the research would suggest, that differences in cognitive development are due to inherent genetic differences among groups. The study does show the developmental impact of poverty on many students, an impact that educators must understand and provide supports to counteract.

The neuroscience evidence reveals both physical differences in brain development and differences in cognitive skill performance related to lower SES. Further, the longer children live in poverty, and the higher the degree of poverty, the more marked the differences (Hair, Wolfe & Pollack, 2015; Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997).

Researchers have found significant differences in certain brain structures, among them the frontal lobes which are involved in executive functions, planning, impulse control and control of attention. (Luby, et al., 2013; Brito & Noble, 2014). Direct measures of cognitive functioning tell the same story, with poverty affecting measures of attention, working memory, inhibitory control, and other cognitive processes. (Noble, Mccandliss, & Farah, 2007). In particular, according to Budge & Parrett (2018), "Poverty contrib

problems with executive functioning, which includes the ability to plan, self-regulate, attend to tasks, understand what information relevant or irrelevant to a task, and retrieve and store information over time (working memory).” While the impact of poverty is multidimensional, with nutrition, trauma and chronic stress commonly cited as factors, there is some evidence that as much of the impact of poverty is accounted for by the richness (or lack thereof) of learning experiences provided to children in their development. (Brooks-Gunn et al., 1993). For example, models of effective planning may be scarce in a family environment where subsistence in the immediate present is paramount.

In other words, difficulties in executive functions affect not only students’ ability to learn but also their readiness to learn and the behaviours expected of them in a classroom setting.

School Experiences

Our interest in the impact of poverty on cognitive development intensified after noticing differences in cognitive measures across schools we work with. It is worth noting that all of the schools we talk about here, regardless of neighbourhood, had been selected for a solution to help them understand individual student learning strengths and weaknesses, to identify any non-academic factors contributing to low academic performance, and to personalize learning supports. The cognitive assessment used in these schools is a nationally normed battery of cognitive tests known as the Penn Neurocognitive Battery (Gur et al., 2010) distributed commercially under the name Mindprint Learning. Students scoring one standard deviation below the mean (bottom 16% of the population) based on national norms on any skill are considered to be “at risk” for that particular skill. Such students will require support to overcome the potential academic and behavioural impact of that deficit. Students performing at one standard deviation above the mean are considered to have a strength in that skill. Students in the middle, 68% are considered to be in the normal range of cognitive development relative to their same-age and same-gender peers.

The executive functions assessed in the Mindprint battery include Attention and Working Memory. The Attention subtest requires the subject to press the space bar on the computer keyboard whenever a 7-segment display (much like the numbers on a digital watch) form a complete digit or letter. The task creates a demand for sustained attention similar to that needed to follow through a frustrating homework assignment. The Working Memory subtest is a version of commonly used working memory assessments including 0, 1 and 2 n-back conditions.

The urban charter school data we are sharing comes from two schools whose populations qualify to receive meals at no cost or reduced cost in school because of their low economic status. The suburban public-school data is from a middle school in a suburb. The urban-outskirts elementary school data comes from a traditional public school within city limits, mainly across from the suburbs but still only a stone’s throw away from lower-SES communities. Again, our

The data from these schools reflect what the research would suggest. On the tests of executive functions, more than 70% of students in both urban charter schools scored in the “at-risk” range, that is, in the bottom 16% of the population. For the suburban middle school group, only 32% performed in that range. The urban-outskirts data fell right in between, albeit closer to the suburban school. Figure 1 displays the data for each of the schools.



% of Students in the At-Risk Range for Attention and/or Working Memory

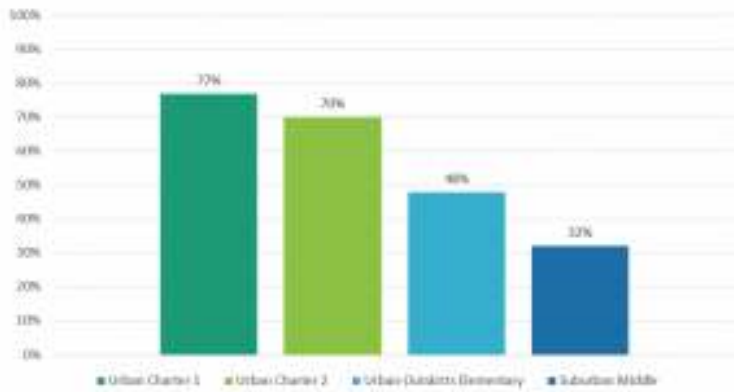


Figure 1.

The disparity in scores between these groups of students is not limited to executive functions, although the disparity is higher than in other cognitive processing areas. Figure 2 shows the percentage of students who scored in the at-risk range in verbal abstract reasoning.

% of Students in the At-Risk Range for Verbal and Abstract Reasoning Skills

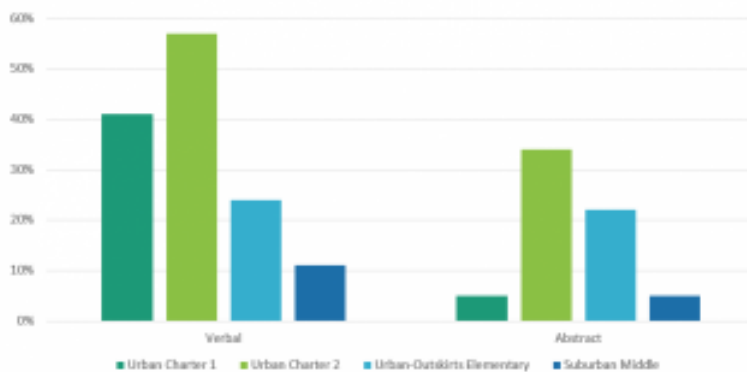


Figure 2.

While the verbal reasoning scores follow a pattern similar to executive functions, one of the charter schools performed better than the suburban middle school in abstract reasoning and well ahead of the urban-outskirts public school. Abstract thinking plays a critical role in complex problem-solving, and these data suggest what we know to be exact – they are capable students; the

grown up in environments that did not nurture their cognitive capacity at the same rate as for more socio-economically advantaged students. We note again that this is an assessment of students at a particular point in time, not a life sentence. Indeed, as shown below, the research on neuroplasticity suggests that schools have the power to effect positive change for these students.

Implications for Teaching

We can confidently recommend that all students in the at-risk range for one or more cognitive skills, regardless of background, need something other than instruction, as usual, to be successful in meeting academic expectations. For teachers managing classrooms of students where the vast majority are “at risk” in executive functioning, the implications are even more significant. Noise, disorganization and poorly regulated behaviour are the first things that come to mind. Also, when teacher-imposed control prevents students sitting quietly in their seats, those underdeveloped executive functions skills are still going to impede learning.

There are two basic approaches schools can use to address the issue – provide supports and strategies to help students with cognitive weaknesses – and provide cognitive training to help students strengthen those skills.

Supports and Strategies

Strategies to support weaker cognitive areas are vital in helping students succeed in school, as the vast literature on learning disabilities and effective instructional practices attest. (Hattie, 2012). Armed with specific data on each child’s cognitive strengths and needs, the root causes of many academic struggles and the appropriate evidence-based strategies for each student need to be a matter of guesswork.

While a comprehensive review of strategies to support weak cognitive skills is beyond the scope of this article, we provide a few popular examples of relatively easy-to-implement classroom strategies tied to specific executive function deficits:

Working Memory. Difficulty holding information in short-term memory can affect a student’s ability to follow instructions, read and comprehend what they read, or complete multi-step math problems.

- When a student has difficulty following a set of instructions due to limited working memory capacity, teachers may use these popular strategies:
 - Chunk information in manageable amounts to avoid overloading working memory.
 - Have students create a written checklist to free up space in working memory.
- When students struggle with reading comprehension due to working memory constraints, key strategies can include:
 - Providing background information or a list of questions before the student reads the text.
 - Having the student stop to summarize at regular intervals to ensure comprehension.
- When difficulty solving a multi-step problem or task is evident because working memory capacity is insufficient to enable a student to keep track of which step they are on and which is next, popular strategies include:
 - The intended use of written checklists to make sure students do not miss critical steps.
 - Permitting/encouraging the use of a calculator to avoid requiring calculation information to be stored in working memory.



Inhibitory Control and Attention. Weaknesses in attention and inhibition make it difficult for students to focus. Essential supports include minimizing external distractions such as noises and

non-essential desktop items, physical outlets to release excess energy (e.g., stress balls, stretching), and allowing for frequent scheduled “brain breaks” (e.g., every 20 minutes). Far from interfering with efficient learning as some administrators might think, more learning will happen for these students overall, despite the potentially reduced amount of seat time, if students are given necessary breaks.

Cognitive Flexibility. Students who struggle to adapt to change will benefit from deliberate

instruction in how to identify multiple problem-solving options when faced with a complex task, and self-awareness of when to ask for help.

All of these strategies are familiar to trained teachers accustomed to learner variability, but they become even more essential in a classroom where as many as three of four students are struggling to focus.

Training Executive Functions and Other Cognitive Skills

Just as there is growing scientific consensus that environmental factors can affect cognitive development, so is there mounting evidence that certain practices can improve executive functions and other cognitive skills in a school setting. The most persuasive evidence exists for computerized training, traditional martial arts, mindfulness and some specific curricula (e.g., Montessori (Diamond, 2013). The school identified as Urban Charter 2 describes itself as built on community engagement, project-based learning, socio-emotional and neuroscientific research.” It has been using daily mindfulness sessions and traditional martial arts training beginning with the 2017-18 school year. The school will be implementing computer-based cognitive training during the 2018-19 school year. The school identified as Urban Charter 1 has already begun implementing computer-based cognitive training, using the kinds of supports and strategies described above. The urban-outskirts school practices mindfulness and emphasizes a growth mindset throughout the curriculum.

There are some promising indications that comprehensive, integrated computer-based cognitive training can play a role in strengthening cognitive deficits with a consequent improvement in academic performance, including students from poverty (Sawtelle, 2007; Avtzon, 2012; Research Summary, 2017). For example, a group of struggling readers in an urban economically disadvantaged public school in Indiana raised their scores on the Verbal portion of the CogAT (Cognitive Abilities Test) from the 48th percentile in 12 weeks (BrainWare, SAFARI Cognitive Skills Development, 2015). The economically disadvantaged students in the Chicago area in 2nd through 8th grades have experienced 1.5 to 3.0 Grade Equivalent (GE) improvements on Woodcock Johnson III cognitive tests, along with 0.5 to 3.9 GE improvements on academic tests, following ten weeks of cognitive training (BrainWare SAFARI, 2009). These results suggest the potential to go beyond merely helping students work around their deficits to improving their capacity to learn.

Concluding Thoughts

We believe it is essential to increase awareness among educators of the underlying reasons why their students may be underperforming academically or exhibiting behavioural issues. While every student comes to the classroom with an ability to learn, environmental factors play a significant role in students’ developed capacity to learn. Most importantly, educators have the power to engender change in students’ learning trajectory. If we want students whose development has been adversely impacted by their environment to achieve as well as their more socio-economically advantaged peers, we need to prepare them and their teachers with the appropriate support and tools that reflect their diverse environments and needs.

The schools we are working with have embraced a combination of strategies and support, informed by cognitive assessment. While it is too soon for results from these particular schools, the approaches are based on evidence, and teacher feedback. We hope that other educators see the promise of these results and consider how they can make similar practical yet effective changes in their schools.

About the Author:



Betsy Hill

1. Betsy Hill is President of BrainWare Learning Company. An experienced educator, she has studied the application of neuroscience to teaching and learning with Dr Patricia Wolfe and other experts in the field and works to help solve some of the most long-standing and perplexing problems in education, including closing the gap for historically underperforming students. She holds a Master of Arts in Teaching and MBA degrees from Northwestern University.





2. Nancy Weinstein is the co-founder and CEO of Mindprint Learning. She has a BSE in bioengineering from the University of Pennsylvania and an MBA from Harvard Business School. She is a co-author of the workbook from CAST Professional Publishing, "The Empowered Student: A Guide to Self-Regulated Learning".

References:

1. Avtzon, S. A. (2012). Effect of neuroscience-based cognitive skill training on the growth of cognitive deficits associated with learning disabilities in children grade 2-4. *Learning Disabilities: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 18(3), 111-122.
2. Best, J. R., & Miller, P. H. (2010). A developmental perspective on executive function. *Child Development*, 81(6), 1641-1651. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01499.x
3. BrainWare SAFARI Cognitive Skills Development in Before and After School Programs with Low-Performing Readers. Retrieved from https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/BWResearch_BWS_Cognitive_Skills_Development_in_Before_and_After_School_Programs_Low_Performing_Readers_20.pdf (https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/BWResearch_BWS_Cognitive_Skills_Development_in_Before_and_After_School_Programs_Low_Performing_Readers_20.pdf)
4. Brito, N. H., & Noble, K. G. (2014, August 17). Socioeconomic status and structural brain development. *Frontiers in Human Development*. Retrieved from <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00276/full> (<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00276/full>)
5. Brooks-Gunn, J., & Duncan, G. J. (1997). The effects of poverty on children. *The Future of Children*, 7(2), 55- 71. doi: 10.2307/1602387
6. Brooks-Gunn, J., Duncan, G. J., Klebanov, P. K., & Sealand, N. (1993). Do neighbourhoods influence child and adolescent development? *American Journal of Sociology*, 99(2), 353-395. doi: 1086/230268
7. Budge, K. M., & Parrett, W. H. (2018) *Disrupting poverty*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

8. Diamond, A. (2013). Executive functions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, (64), 135-168. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-113011-143750> (<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-113011-143750>)
9. Gur, R. C., Richard, J., Hughett, P., Calkins, M. E., Macy, L., Bilker, W. B.,... Gur, R. E. (2010). A cognitive neuroscience-based computerized battery for efficient measurement of individual differences: Standardization and initial construct validity. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*, 187(2), 254–262. doi:10.1016/j.jneumeth.2009.11.017
10. Hair, N. L., Hanson, J. L., Wolfe, B. L., & Pollak, S. D. (2015). Association of child poverty, brain development, and academic achievement. *JAMA Pediatrics*, 169(9):822–829. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2015.1475
11. Hattie, J. (2012). *Visible learning for teachers*. New York, New York: Routledge.
12. Hegarty, M. and Koshevnikov, M. (1999). Types of visual-spatial representations and mathematical problem-solving. *Educational Psychology*, 91(4), 684-689. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.4.684> (<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.91.4.684>)
13. Helms, J., & Sawtelle, S. M. (2007). A study of the effectiveness of cognitive skill therapy delivered in a video-game form. *Journal of Optometry and Vision Development*, 38(1), 19-26.
14. Hill, B. (2017, October 12). *Cognitive skills: The foundation for learning*. Retrieved from <https://www.edcircuit.com/cc-skills-part-1/> (<https://www.edcircuit.com/cognitive-skills-part-1/>)
15. Impact of BrainWare SAFARI on Cognitive and Academic Measures in Grades 2-8. (2009). Retrieved from <https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/BWS.Studies.GlenwoodBrief-4-20092.pdf> (<https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/BWS.Studies.GlenwoodBrief-4-20092.pdf>)
16. Liebbrand, J. A., & Watson, B. H. (2010). *The road less traveled: How the developmental sciences can prepare educators to improve student achievement: Policy recommendations*. Washington, DC: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.
17. Luby, J., Belden, A., Botteron, K., Marrus, N., Harms, M. P., Babb, C.,... Barch, D. (2013). The effects of poverty on child development: The mediating effect of caregiving and stressful life events. *JAMA Pediatrics*, 167(12):1135-1142. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2013.3139
18. Noble, K. G., McCandliss, B. D. & Farah, M. J. (2007). Socioeconomic gradients predict individual differences in neurocognitive abilities. *Developmental Science*, 10(4), 464-480. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7687.2007.00600.x
19. Research Summary: BrainWare SAFARI and Low-SES Students. (2017, April 10). Retrieved from <https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/Research-Summary-Economically-Disadvantaged.pdf> (<https://mybrainware.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/Research-Summary-Economically-Disadvantaged.pdf>)
20. Sheppard, S. (2017). Supporting research-based personalization for reading success. Washington, DC: Digital Promise. Retrieved from http://digitalpromise.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/lps-reading_success_july102017.pdf (http://digitalpromise.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/lps-reading_success_july102017.pdf)
21. Smith, J. R., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Klebanov, P. K. (1997). Consequences of living in poverty for young children's cognitive verbal ability and early school achievement. In G. Duncan & J. Brooks-Gunn (Eds.), *Consequences of growing up poor* (189). New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
22. Misunderstood Minds: Basics of Mathematics. (2002). Retrieved from <http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/misunderstoodminds/mathbasics.html> (<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/misunderstoodminds/mathbasics.html>)



SHARE THIS

♡ 4 likes

f (<http://www.facebook.com/sharer.php?url=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-4/>)

t (<https://twitter.com/share?url=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-4/>)

G+ (<https://plus.google.com/share?url=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-4/>)

p (<http://pinterest.com/pin/create/button?url=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-4/&media=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/content/uploads/2019/07/Title-page-Executive-functions.png&description=Executive Functions and Poverty: Implications for Lifelong Teaching>)

✉ (<mailto:?subject=Executive Functions and Poverty: Implications for Lifelong Teaching&body=https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-4/>)

>

RELATED ARTICLES



(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-2/>)

Mind, Brain and Learning Discipline: Its Implications for Teaching and Learning



(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-5/>)

True Grit? Making a Scientific Object and Pedagogical Tool
(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative->



(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2/>)

LIFELONG LEARNING 
(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative->

(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-2/>)

(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-3/>)
(<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/formative-assessment-how-to-encourage-students-learning-process-2-5/>)

Privacy Policy (<https://www.reformer.pakistanascd.org/privacy-policy/>) | +92-51-2724070 | subscribe@pakistanascd.org
| ©2020 The Reformer

Head Office: Plot # 179, 3rd floor, Zuhra Icon, Civic Center, Phase 4, Bahria Town, Islamabad, Pakistan, 44000

>

