

Article 16

Drinking Glucose Improves Listening Span in Students Who Miss Breakfast

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ABSTRACT. Low blood sugar level resulting from fasting has been shown to reduce performance on a number of cognitive tasks. In this study, 80 nondiabetic A-level students missed breakfast. They completed a version of Daneman and Carpenter's *Listening Span Test* at 9.00 A.M. Half were then given a drink containing glucose, while the other half received a saccharine drink matched for taste. After 20 minutes, both groups completed another form of the *Listening Span Test*. A subset of the sample had their blood glucose levels determined immediately before the drink and again before the second application of the test. Blood glucose levels did not change, but listening span performance significantly improved after a glucose drink, yet not after a saccharine drink. It is concluded that missing breakfast does not seriously affect blood sugar levels in healthy young students, but listening span performance, which is a good predictor of listening comprehension, is improved when fasting individuals imbibe a glucose-rich drink, although not when a saccharine drink is drunk. Ideally students should eat breakfast, but if this is omitted, then a glucose snack or drink before the first class may reverse any adverse effects.

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Failure to eat breakfast before commencing a day of study is probably a fairly common occurrence. Although students may "self-medicate" by drinking sugar-laden drinks during the break between classes, it is likely that many young scholars attend a 9:00 A.M. class without having taken in a significant number of calories since the previous day. This study addresses the consequences of this for listening comprehension by examining the effects of a glucose drink on performance. It addresses the possibility that a "snack," consisting of glucose-rich material, may ameliorate any adverse effects of short-term fasting.

In healthy young individuals, blood glucose levels are maintained at around 5 mmol/l. This control is attained via a negative feedback loop. Insulin is released from the pancreas when blood sugar begins to rise above 5 mmol/l, and it results in glucose being removed from the circulation and immobilized, as glycogen, in the liver and in muscles. When blood sugar

20 levels drop much below 5 mmol/l, the pancreas releases glucagon that releases glycogen from the liver. Glycogen is broken down into glucose and released into the bloodstream, increasing blood sugar until insulin release is triggered. In fact, insulin and glucagon are mutually inhibiting, so deviations from the "set point" for blood sugar occur largely because of absorption of glucose, mainly from the gut, and this is then rapidly regulated. Thus, even in early starvation, blood sugar is maintained because glycogen can be mobilized. Tight control of blood sugar is essential because the brain uses glucose as its "fuel" but it cannot store it—brain processes rely on glucose delivered by the bloodstream.

It is clear that blood glucose level is crucial to brain metabolism. Positron emission tomography studies, which can directly quantify the use of radioactively labeled glucose in the brain, show that different brain areas "light up" depending on the cognitive task being performed (Raichle, 1998). Nevertheless, a clear picture of the relationship between blood sugar level and cognitive capacity has not emerged. For example, Benton and Sargent (1992) found that memory for spatial material and lists of words was better after eating breakfast. However, although Lapp (1981) also found that lists of words were better recalled when blood sugar was high, Azari (1991) found no improvement. Benton and Sargent suggest that one generality that can be made is that tasks that require the participant to remember new information may be sensitive to consumption of breakfast. If this contention is valid, then this has clear implications for the efficiency of study.

Short-term, or working, memory capacity has been implicated in most intellectual tasks (see Baddeley, 1997, for a detailed account of this), and in particular, deficiencies in reading ability and comprehension, especially when listening, have often been associated with reduced working memory capacity (Gathercole and Baddeley, 1993). It is hardly surprising, then, that a test designed by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) to measure individual differences in working memory capacity has considerable predictive power with respect to standards of comprehension (Gathercole and Baddeley, 1993; King and Just, 1991). However, despite its usefulness as a psychometric instrument, Wa-

65 ters and Caplan (1996) have argued that although the
 Daneman and Carpenter (1980) tasks measure several
 components of working memory, they do not allow the
 individual components to be isolated, that is, the meas-
 70 ures cannot separate comprehension from memory re-
 tention. Thus, a fine-grained analysis of sub-com-
 ponents is not possible with this instrument. Notwith-
 standing this, the test remains useful as a slightly
 "blunt" instrument with considerable predictive power.

In this study, we employ the *Listening Span Test* of
 75 Daneman and Carpenter (1980) as oral presentation of
 verbal material is still a predominant mode of delivery
 in the educational setting. Although Waters and Caplan
 (1996) did not examine this version of the task, it is
 likely that the same caveats apply. The *Listening Span*
 80 *Test* provides a measure of verbal memory capacity for
spoken material, presented in sentences, with compre-
 hension required. It is formally equivalent to the *writ-*
ten reading comprehension test and addresses a funda-
 mental aspect of the learning situation, the ability to
 85 process lecture material, and, thus, provides an educa-
 tionally significant measure.

It is predicted that listening span will be sensitive to
 glucose consumption. This experiment compares two
 groups of A-level students who have fasted overnight
 90 and then twice completed the listening span task with a
 glucose or saccharine-laden drink being consumed be-
 tween the two tests. Specifically, it is predicted that
 students who have fasted overnight will improve on
 this task after receiving a glucose-rich drink, whereas
 95 an almost calorie-free drink will not improve perform-
 ance after fasting.

Method

Participants

Eighty A-level students from two colleges in the
 West Midlands participated in this study: 44 were male
 and 36 were female. The mean age was 21.15 years
 100 (s.d. = 4.35). None of these participants was under the
 age of 17, and none suffered from diabetes mellitus or
 had a known family history of diabetes mellitus. All
 had English as a first language.

Procedure

Students at two colleges in the West Midlands were
 105 approached, during classes, with a request that they
 volunteer to take part in a study of the effects of miss-
 ing breakfast on intellectual performance. Those who
 were willing to participate signed informed consent
 forms, which included consenting to providing blood
 samples. All participants believed that they might have
 110 to give a blood sample to verify their abstinence. This
 strategy was used to ensure honesty of report when
 questioned about compliance with the fasting instruc-
 tions.

Students were briefed on the day before testing and
 advised that they must not eat anything after midnight
 and must only drink water. No non-fasting group was
 included, as standardized calorie intake could not be

120 meaningfully imposed because of differences in body
 weight, choice of food items consumed, etc. Clearly,
 there are likely to be individual differences in physi-
 ology within a fasting sample, but these should be mini-
 mized by using a young sample (who have very effi-
 cient blood sugar control, which deteriorates with age).
 125 Each participant was requested to report to a specified
 room for group testing at 9:00 a.m. Groups were never
 larger than 10, and several assistants ran sessions con-
 currently in a series of rooms within a particular col-
 lege. Participants confirmed that they had fasted in the
 130 manner requested and were then randomly assigned to
 either the glucose or placebo group (they were not
 aware that there was a distinction) within a room.

They were administered a version of the Daneman-
 Carpenter (1980) *Listening Span Test*, which requires
 135 the student to listen to a series of sentences presented
 via a tape recorder. On response sheets provided, stu-
 dents recorded whether the proposition in each sen-
 tence was true or false. After a series of sentences had
 been presented, a different voice on the tape requested
 140 "recall." The students were then required to write
 down, in forward serial order, the last word in each
 sentence they had heard. For example, the sequence:
 (1) "Karl Marx was an Irish composer"; (2) "Tony
 Blair is a politician" would require "false," "true" to be
 145 ticked and "composer, politician" to be written on the
 recall sheet. The number of sentences in a sequence
 was incremented by one every two sequences, with the
 result that the longest sequence of sentences from
 which a student could recall all the last words in the
 150 order presented provided a measure of their listening
 span.

The decisions about the propositions were not
 scored for analysis; they were required to ensure that
 students actively listened to the whole of each sen-
 155 tence. (It was decided, before the study commenced,
 that students scoring less than 90 percent would be
 excluded from the analysis as they may have sacrificed
 comprehension for memory performance.) The study
 began with several practice and demonstration trials
 160 followed by trials with, initially, two sentences. The
 longest trials were six sentences. Two sets of trials
 were prepared for the study. Half the students in each
 condition experienced version 1 first, and the remain-
 der experienced version 2 first. All sentences had a
 spoken duration of 2–2.5 seconds.

After completion of the *Listening Span Test*, there
 was an interval of 20 minutes. Students were given a
 300 ml glass of orange juice to drink at the beginning
 of this interval, and they were requested to drink it rap-
 170 idly. The students in the glucose condition received a
 drink consisting of 50 g glucose in 250 ml of water
 plus 40 ml sugar-free Robinson's "Whole-orange
 quash" and 10 ml of lemon juice (to reduce the sweet-
 ness). Those students who were assigned to the placebo
 175 condition drank orange juice that was identical, except
 that 2 g of "Sweetex" replaced the glucose. A pilot

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations (in Parentheses) for Scores on the Daneman and Carpenter *Listening Span Test* Before and After Either a Glucose-Rich Drink or Drink with Saccharine Substituted for Glucose (Maximum Score Possible, 6; $n = 80$)

	Listening span before drink	Listening span after drink
Group receiving a glucose drink ($n = 40$)	2.4 (0.7)	3.1 (0.7)
Group receiving a saccharine drink ($n = 40$)	2.5 (0.7)	2.6 (0.6)

study at the University of Wolverhampton indicated that students could not distinguish between these two drinks.

180 During the 20-min interval between tests, the ex-
perimenters engaged in a question-and-answer session
with the students about studying at the university. At
the end of this time, a different version of the *Listening*
Span Test was administered. Following this, the pur-
185 pose of the study was explained and all students were
advised to eat before attending their first class of the
day.

The study was carried out in the classrooms that
students studied in to maximize the realistic nature of
190 the environment. Unfortunately, such environments are
ill-suited to carrying out biologically hazardous proce-
dures. The taking of blood samples within classrooms
was deemed to be a biologically hazardous procedure
by the University of Wolverhampton safety committee,
195 with the result that restrictions were placed on the pro-
cedure, and only one room was designated for blood
sampling. A clinically trained member of staff was
present throughout sampling and handled disposal of
sharps and other blood-contaminated material. As a
200 result of this, blood samples were taken only from 10
participants (five from the placebo, and five from the
glucose group). These participants provided three
blood samples prior to ingestion of the drink and three
further samples 20 min later, just prior to the second
205 administration of the *Listening Span Test*. Blood glu-
cose level was tested using BM-Test 1-44 blood glu-
cose test strips, following the manufacturer's procedure
and then measured with a Prestige Medical Healthcare
Ltd. HC1 digital Blood Glucometer. The average of the
210 three measures was recorded at each testing. It should
be stressed that the selection of students to give blood
samples was based purely on the room attended. All
participants in the study had consented to provide
blood prior to volunteering for the study.

Results

Blood Glucose Levels

215 Before administration of the drink, both groups
who had their blood glucose levels measured had blood
glucose levels of 4.60 mmol/l (glucose group s.d. =
0.16 and placebo group s.d. = 0.14). Twenty min after
administration of drinks, the glucose group had a blood
220 sugar level of 4.68 mmol/l (s.d. = 0.17, not signifi-
cantly different from the first administration— $t(4) =$

2.24, $p > 0.05$), and the placebo group had a blood
sugar level of 4.62 mmol/l (s.d. = 0.15, $t(4) = 0.01$, $p >$
0.05—no significant change). Thus, blood glucose lev-
225 els were not significantly changed within 20 min by
administration of a glucose-rich drink, and they re-
mained at physiologically acceptable levels throughout
the study. The two groups did not significantly differ in
blood sugar levels across the study.

Listening Span Test

230 All participants scored at least 90 percent correct on
the true/false decisions, so none was excluded from the
analysis. The listening span data were subjected to a
two-way mixed-design analysis of variance with Group
(glucose/placebo) as the between-subject factor and
235 Test (first test vs. second test) as the within-subject
factor. There was no main effect of group ($F(1,78) =$
2.62, $p > 0.05$), but performance was significantly bet-
ter after consuming the drink ($F(1,78) = 28.15$, $p <$
0.001). This effect was modified by an interaction
240 ($F(1,78) = 17.38$, $p < 0.001$). Simple effects analysis
(Kirk, 1968) revealed no performance differences be-
fore the drink was consumed ($p > 0.05$), but a large
improvement in the glucose group after receiving the
245 drink ($p < 0.01$). The means and standard deviations
are shown in Table 1.

In summary, there were no reliable changes in
blood glucose level within 20 min of receiving a drink
containing glucose. However, performance on the
Daneman-Carpenter *Listening Span Test* significantly
250 improved in the group that had received a glucose
drink but not in the group that received the saccharine
drink. These two groups did not differ in their listening
span performance before receiving the drink.

Discussion

255 These data show a modest increase—about a half
sentence, on average—in listening span. If this recall of
a half-item simply represented recalling an additional
half-word, then, in practical terms, the increase would
be trivial. Clearly, however, considerable working
memory capacity is required. One might expect A-level
260 students to recall seven or more items (Miller, 1956),
but only three are recalled in the optimal condition. For
simple word recall, this level of performance would be
pathological. However, an average of a half-word re-
call improvement on the *Listening Span Test* represents
265 a considerably larger increase in available capacity. It
would be more accurate, given the nature of the test, to

view this increase as being better represented as about a half-sentence increment in retention. Such an increase would allow comprehension of sentences with more clauses. Evidently, then, a half-item increment constitutes a useful improvement in listening comprehension/memory capacity and may lead to better comprehension of complex, educationally relevant material.

The literature suggests that this improvement occurs because blood sugar levels are elevated, and this glucose is available as “brain fuel.” The failure to find any significant change in blood sugar level but a sugar-administration-related improvement in performance suggests a more complex relationship. One can only speculate on what this might be, and it should be borne in mind that the trend is in the right direction and might be more marked in a study with greater statistical power. One possible explanation is that reduced glucose availability results in release of stored glycogen to compensate and that this has physiological costs that impair cognitive processing. For example, neurotransmitter systems may be very sensitive to the pulses of glucose that they received. 5-HT (a.k.a. serotonin—an important transmitter in the brain) release, for example, is modified by glucose levels (Wurtman and Wurtman, 1986). Absorption of glucose from the gut may maintain levels more smoothly than the “crisis” release from the liver when levels suddenly start to fall.

Whatever the mechanism by which glucose ameliorates fasting effects, the rapidity with which it improves performance, without creating any hazard, suggests that most students can be advised to consume a convenient form of glucose if they have missed breakfast. One caveat, derived from Thayer (1989), is that “sugar-snacking” can rebound. It appears to be energizing initially but induces later fatigue. This is unlikely to occur following fasting. However, it would be preferable for students to eat a nutritious breakfast with abstinence from sugar snacks *unless* the student has missed breakfast.

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Exercise for Article 16

Factual Questions

1. Does the *Listening Span Test* present sentences or does it present isolated words?
2. Was a nonfasting control group (i.e., a group that did not fast the night before) included in this study?
3. Were the participants randomly assigned to the two groups?
4. Blood samples were taken from how many participants in the placebo group?
5. What was the mean score for the glucose group after they received the drink (i.e., what was the posttest score for the glucose group)?
6. Do the researchers characterize the increase in listening span for the glucose group as “very large”?
7. Do the researchers interpret these results to suggest that students should be advised to eat sugar snacks in the morning?

Questions for Discussion

8. Half the participants were administered version 1 of the *Listening Span Test* first, and the other half were administered version 2 first. This is an example of what researchers call “counterbalancing.” Speculate on why the researchers counterbalanced the two versions of the test.
9. This research report is identified as an example of “true experimental research” in the table of contents of this book. Do you agree with the classification? Why? Why not?
10. The blood tests failed to reveal elevated blood

sugar levels in the glucose group. In your opinion, does this fact make it difficult to interpret the results of this study? Does it decrease your confidence in the results of this study? Explain. (See lines 276–293.)

- 11. In your opinion, does this study provide definitive evidence that students should eat breakfast in the morning? Explain.
- 12. To what population(s) of students, if any, would you be willing to generalize the results of this study?

Quality Ratings

Directions: Indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by circling a number from 5 for strongly agree (SA) to 1 for strongly disagree (SD). If you believe an item is not applicable to this research article, leave it blank. Be prepared to explain your ratings.

- A. The introduction establishes the importance of the study.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- B. The literature review establishes the context for the study.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD

- C. The research purpose, question, or hypothesis is clearly stated.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- D. The method of sampling is sound.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- E. Relevant demographics (for example, age, gender, and ethnicity) are described.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- F. Measurement procedures are adequate.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- G. All procedures have been described in sufficient detail to permit a replication of the study.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- H. The participants have been adequately protected from potential harm.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- I. The results are clearly described.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- J. The discussion/conclusion is appropriate.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD
- K. Despite any flaws, the report is worthy of publication.
SA 5 4 3 2 1 SD

In M.L. Patten (Ed.), Educational and Psychological Research: A Cross Section of Journal Articles for Analysis and Evaluation (3rd ed., 2002). Pyrczak.