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# Memory and intelligence

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Those who carry out better on intelligence tests are generally even more success in school and working settings and live more healthy and longer. Intelligence is therefore important to deal with a complex world. Its importance is also reflected in the concept of fluid intelligence - in contrast to crystallized intelligence -, which defines intelligence as a complex ability to adapt our thinking to a new problem or cognitive situation. But what does some individuals mean more than others? Perhaps they are more skilled in the underlying information processes. The work memory, in particular, is strongly related to intelligence in children and adults. When people work better on a job memory task, they also tend to work better on a task of intelligence. The forward work memory refers to the cognitive system that allows us to keep the information available for processing. When we perform a mental calculation, like 5 + 12 Å Ć Å, ~ "7 = 10, we must keep the numbers in our head while we do the calculation. It is therefore not surprising that the children who better make functioning memory activities also have a score Higher on math test, language, reading and intelligence. Because the work memory develops until the young adult, the older children outperform more young people on work memory activities. There is clearly a narrow Relationship between intelligence and work memory, and both play an important role in a variety of development areas during childhood. It is interesting to note that both involve prefrontal areas of the brain. This lifts the matter if you resolve problems concerning the work memory, more intelligent individuals show more activity in the prefrontal brain related to those who are less intelligent. Pardits, the tests show that Quan l resolves simple to moderately difficult tasks, more intelligent people show less brain activity than inferior intelligence people. Intelligent adults are therefore increasingly efficient problem solvers, because they must evoke less energy. "Shows the resolution of simple tasks that are simple to moderately difficult, more intelligent people exhibit less brain activity than in the individual intelligence individuals. Note if this type of neural efficiency is also found in children of different groups of age, and how it is " influenced by age. So my colleagues and I are trying to answer the following question: are there differences in cerebral activity between 10 and 12 years of higher and lower intelligence? To answer this question we visited schools, , where 10- and 12 years old have solved a fluid intelligence test (test of the culture of the 20-R fair). If the children's IQ was in our IQ criterion for the minor (IQ Å Ć Å 96) or the Superior intelligence group (IQ Å Ć ¥ 115), have been invited to participate in additional sessions at our , thus laboratory, 117 children was asked to resolve a working memory task in our La Boardatory. In this task the children have heard a mixed sequence of letters and numbers (for example, Å Ć Å, ~ Å "D-8-M-1Å Ć Å, ~), and were invited to repeat them, with the numbers in order Numeric first and the letters in alphabetical order according to (eq Å Ć Å, ~ Å "1-8-D-MÅ Ć Å, ~). The cerebral activity in the prefrontal cortex was evaluated using almost infrared spectroscopy (NIRS). The results replied on NIRS data revealed opposite models in the two groups of age. In the youngest group, more intelligent children showed greater neural activity than the sons of lower intelligence. In the oldest group, on the contrary, the sons of lower intelligence tended to show Increased neural activity compared to children of superior intelligence. These results suggest that it is the age that intelligence affect the activity in the frontal area of the brain that is activated by a job memory task. This question has originally appeared on Quora. Reply Paul King, Computational neuroscientist: the work memory capacity is very related to general intelligence, however the exact relationship is the subject of some debate. debate. Psychologists define - general intelligenceÅ Ć in terms of the so-called Å Ć œg factorÅ Ć. Factor G is a statistical measure of an imaginary attitude that correlates between numerous intelligence measures, including: verbal capacity, learning of foreign language, mathematics, abstract reasoning, problem solving, music, understanding of reading and others. (See: Fluid and crystallized intelligence, Ć factor (psychometry)) Work memory capacity can be the most highly related component of general intelligence, but it's not all. (Source: Å Ć Å Ć œTore the memory and its relationship with the general intelligenceÅ Ć Ara Conway, Kane MJ, ENGLE RW, Trends in cognitive sciences, 2003, and Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć œTore memory and intelligence - The same or different constructs? - Ackerman PJ, Beier Me, Boyle Mo, Psychological Bulletin, 2005.) These diagrams give a sense of relationship between general intelligence (Å Ć œg Ć) and work memory (top ), as well as some of the components proposed to reduce work memory (bottom) while the nature and functioning of general intelligence in the brain is imperceptible and only poorly included, there are several proposed components that emerged as recurring themes: Short-term memory capacity (STM): the ability to maintain access ready to information: work memory capacity (WM): integrates attention, executive control and more short-term memory systems attention: the ability to block distractions and reduce M interference Emoria, among other effects Å Ć œSet shiftingÅ Ć and Å Ć œCognitive flexibility Å Ć: the ability to recognize a change in the environmental context and adapt the behavioral rules appropriately. The opposite of this ability is Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć Å Ć œthe The prefrontal cortex emerged mainly (but also in other brain regions) as the main cerebral area responsible for these capacities. (Source: Å Ć œThe role of the prefrontal cortex in the work-memory capacity, the executive attention and general fluid intelligence: a perspective of individual differences, Kane MJ and ENGLE RW, Psychonomic Bulletin & Review, 2002.) To thin the neural capabilities that can subtract intelligence, cognitive scientists come out tests that measure each capacity proposed in relative isolation. Other studies using FMRI or neural recordings try to correlate them with brain areas, neural activities and one with each other. Other questions about cognitive science: memory plays an important role in intelligent behavior. Modern evaluations of cognitive operation, such as the Wechsler adult intelligence scale (WAIS III), include memory tests between the other essential measure of mental capacity. Modern memory information processing conceptions, however, represent a separate change from the information storage concepts advanced by previous researchers such as Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1969). This change, a consequence of the transition from the use of memory metaphors for the use of computer processing metaphors, revolutionized the scientific understanding of memory and its link with intelligence. Memory How to process information in their modified volume, Akira Miyake and Priiti Shah (1999) integrated the work of leading memory theorists in a definition of memory consent, which dispenses with the notion of a biochemical storage cabinet in the brain and proposes An processing system of multimform and functioning information whose function is to help in complex cognition. As shown in Figure 1, the limits of this information processing system can be attributed to multiple factors: such as the coding of new information, simultaneous storage processing of information, and recovery of long-term stored information. The concept of work memory is not new, but was first presented by Alan Baddeley and Graham Hitch in 1974. However, very hard work since 1970 extended the initial work of Baddeley and Hitch to develop apreicise characterization of this system, its limits and its relationship with intelligent behavior. work memory measures showed a strong and consistent relationship with complex cognitive intelligence and processing measures. Although numerous experimental results demonstrate this link, those of Patrick kyllonen and his colleagues, raymond chrystal and deborah stephens, were particularly enlightening. trying to provide an explanation of information processing for intelligence, kyllonen and his colleagues have developed and tested his intelligence performance model, which said that mental functioning depends on four cognitive sources: work memory, processing speed, reporting knowledge and procedural knowledge. kyllonen discovered that of the four sources, the working memory showed the strongest relationships for the acquisition and skill performance on intelligence tests (kyllonen, 1996; kyllonen and stephens, 1990.) kyllonen discovered a high correlation between working memory measures and reasoning tests, even concluding that the working memory and general intelligence amounted to the same thing (kyllonen, 2002). researchers focused on the aspects of coding, processing and recovery of the working memory system. The role of coding is to transform the information percptive from the environment into initial input for the information processing system (see figure 1.) the limits of receiving information from the environment have implications for the nature of later information and, finally, intelligent behavior. christopher jarrold, alan baddeley and alexa howes (2000) examined the relative amount of immediate appeal, almost immediate call, and short-term call in children of various levels of delay. have briefly presented children with three spoken words, each of which was associated with one of three horizontal positions on a computer screen so that the first spoken word was associated with the leftmost position. then highlighted one of the three positions and asked children to remember the word that had been associated with that position. recalling the word associated with the leftmost position, spoken before, required a short-term call, the central position, the almost immediate call, and the right position, immediate call. These researchers were interested in determining whether failure to review information could explain memory deficits in children with down syndrome. they discovered, however, that short-term recall differences associated with intellectual skill occurred despite the fact that none of the children ovated evidence as memory help. Moreover, these memory differences occurred only during short-term recall, in which children with down syndrome showed memory deficits that other children did not do it; all children had a very poor call near the immediate and equally good immediate call. jarrold, baddeley and howes suggested that a possible explanation for these results could be the limitation coding - although their perceptive elaboration was equivalent. children with down syndrome could not transform environmental information into system input (i.e., traces of memory) efficiently as other children with lesser intelligence deficits could. This conclusion reflects that of norman ellis and darlene meador (1985.) which investigated mnemonic strategies and short-term call deficits in delayed children. have presented to children oneExperimental and then, after a delay, they presented a probe stimulus. They asked children to compare the probe stimulus with their experimental stimulus memory and indicate if they match. As expected, the recognition accuracy on this task has decreased as IQ decreased. More important, the rates of forgetting different levels of Qi were were On this task, even with the preclusion of mnemonic strategies. Performance differences are related to Qi's differences with simultaneous presentation of experimental stimuli and probe, even at twenty second retention intervals. The role of treatment as illustrated in Figure 1, after coding, information must remain temporarily active during its support for cognitive activity. The limitations in simultaneous storage and information processing have implications for complex knowledge because active maintenance and processing of information in the work memory play an important role in intelligent behavior. There are, however, different opinions on the nature of the limits in this aspect of the work memory system, which is specific to activities or employees depending on the activities. Meredith Daneman and his colleagues of her, Patricia Carpenter and Brendan, have tested the hypothesis that the efficiency of the specific process is the critical link between working memory and complex knowledge. This work and related research have helped to develop different job memory tests, each with a storage and processing aspect (see Figure 2.) The critical difference between these tests is the type of treatment required in each. The read-span test requires a specific verbal treatment for reading in addition to verbal storage. The individual must read a series of sentences and, after finishing reading all the sentences in the set, call up the last word of each sentence. The conversation-span test is similar to asking for the memory of a series of destination words, but first requires the presentation of the words of destination; The individual must remember the words while using each of them to orally generate a sentence, a task that requires verbal fluence. The operating test-span, created by Marilyn Turner and Randall Engle (1989), requires mathematical processing: after completing a series of simple mathematical operations, the individual must remember the word associated with each. Search results using these memory tests suggest that the correlation between memory and activity performance depends on the degree of similarity between the type of processing required by activity and memory test. Daneman (1991) detected, for example, that speakers-pan scores showed a stronger relationship with an oral fluence measure than with the reading-span scores. On the contrary, the Read-Span scores showed a stronger relationship with oral reading capacities compared to conversation-span scores. Daneman and Hannon (2001) showed that work-span scores showed a relatively weaker correlation for reading understanding than reading-span scores. Not all research agree with the conclusion that memory test processes must be specific to activities. On the contrary, ENGLE, its colleagues have repeatedly shown that the relationship between memory and knowledge is not mediated by effective specific processing of the task. Engle, Kane and Tuholski (1999) described a series of studies in which the specific processing efficiency of the tasks was statistically or experimentally controlled but in which the ratio between work memory and performance on various tests has not been deleted. In one study, the mathematical processing requests for the operation duration test were equated in all individuals. The mathematical capacity of each participant was determined, and the difficulty of operations managed in the operating scope test was adapted to the ability level. The control of individual differences in mathematical capacities has failed to reduce the strong correlation between the memory test performance and understanding of the The test of the working range required attention to be given to both the completion of mathematical operations and the memory of the target words, but the equation of mathematical capacity did not reduce the correlation between the working memory and complex knowledge. Engle and his colleagues have argued, therefore, that controlled attention without domains is the essence of the limits of working memory and pushes the relationship betweenof work memory and intelligence measures. They claim that the controlled attention activates information, from the immediate environment or the immediate environment or from the long-term memory and maintains that information in memory while it is processed, in particular in front of the distraction. Tuholski, Engle and Baylis (2001) found that the performance on the test of the operation could provide for the district on a computerized counting task, indicating the role of controlled attention in reducing the impact of distraction. Unused disagreement on the nature of the limitations of the nature of the work memory limits. , the work of Daneman and his colleagues and his colleagues clearly indicates that the aspect of storage of memory does not represent his strong relationship with a complex cognition. Daneman and Carpenter (1980) found that the performance test performance was substantially correlated with the reports of the verbal school evaluation test (SAT) and the understanding of the reading, while a verbal storage test - by storing a list of words - showed only moderate correlations with SAT scores and understanding of reading. Consistent with these discoveries, entry and his colleagues (1999) used structural equation modeling techniques to demonstrate that the work memory had a stronger correlation with general reasoning compared to short-term memory. They have also shown that the working memory measures were best predictors of reports Sat verbal and quantitative than it was short-term deposit. The role of the knowledge and competence emerging interests to understand daily cognitive functioning has addressed the focus of some researchers to the role of term knowledge and ability to the memory system. These researchers are wary of performance-based experimental results on simple laboratory tasks such as simple mental calculations. They claim that, in the typical university student samples, these tasks show the memory memory requests at acquired knowledge and experience expenses, which is a critical aspect of daily operation. Instead, study how abobes and highly developed knowledge influence the performance of memory.anders Ericsson and Peter Delaney (1999) proposed that the operation of the working memory system during highly qualified performance is determined by specialized encoding and recovery mechanisms Formats on long periods of practice. They stated that individuals use these mechanisms to encode information from the environment in long-term memory to enable efficient and extensive recovery of this information later. These mechanisms allow the individual to demonstrate a specific memory capacity of unexpectedly large ability due to the prompt availability of relevant information for such ability to easily available in long-term memory .ERICSON and DeLaney has found support for their theory in verbalization Memory experts, people who, through training, have developed higher than average memory skills. These verbal relationships indicate that memory experts use existing knowledge to encode information in larger blocks for subsequent recovery. For example, to store a very large figures string, an expert reported the encoding of the figures as millet operating times and retrieving the figures string as groups of figures instead of individual numbers. When the figures were presented in such a way that it cannot be associated with existing knowledge (for example, they would make meaningless operating times), there was no memory expansion. Ericsson and Delaney reported that chess experts not only coded individual chess pieces based on significant configurations, but they also developed recovery facilities associated with chessboard positions. The evaluation of memory is still a critical aspect of commercial intelligence tests, such as Wais- III and its memory scale Wechsler Companion (WMS), the memory test has changed. In contrast to Wais-R, WAIS-III is no longer more than a range of figures as a mandatory test, but has several additional tests of memory. Also consistent with the results of the recent research, the WMS presents immediate, delayed and working memory tests. Instead of reflecting a static storage capacity, the appearance of memory of modern intelligence testing now reflects the dynamic functioning of a complex and multimform information processing system. Such changes in memory and intelligence tests indicate a growing understanding of the critical role of data processing in complex knowledge. 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