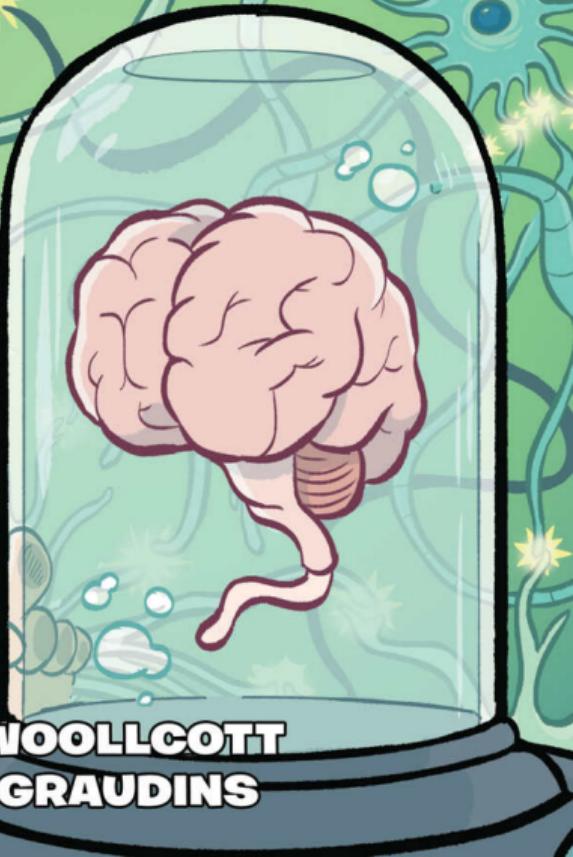


GET TO KNOW YOUR UNIVERSE!

SCIENCE COMICS

THE BRAIN

The Ultimate Thinking Machine

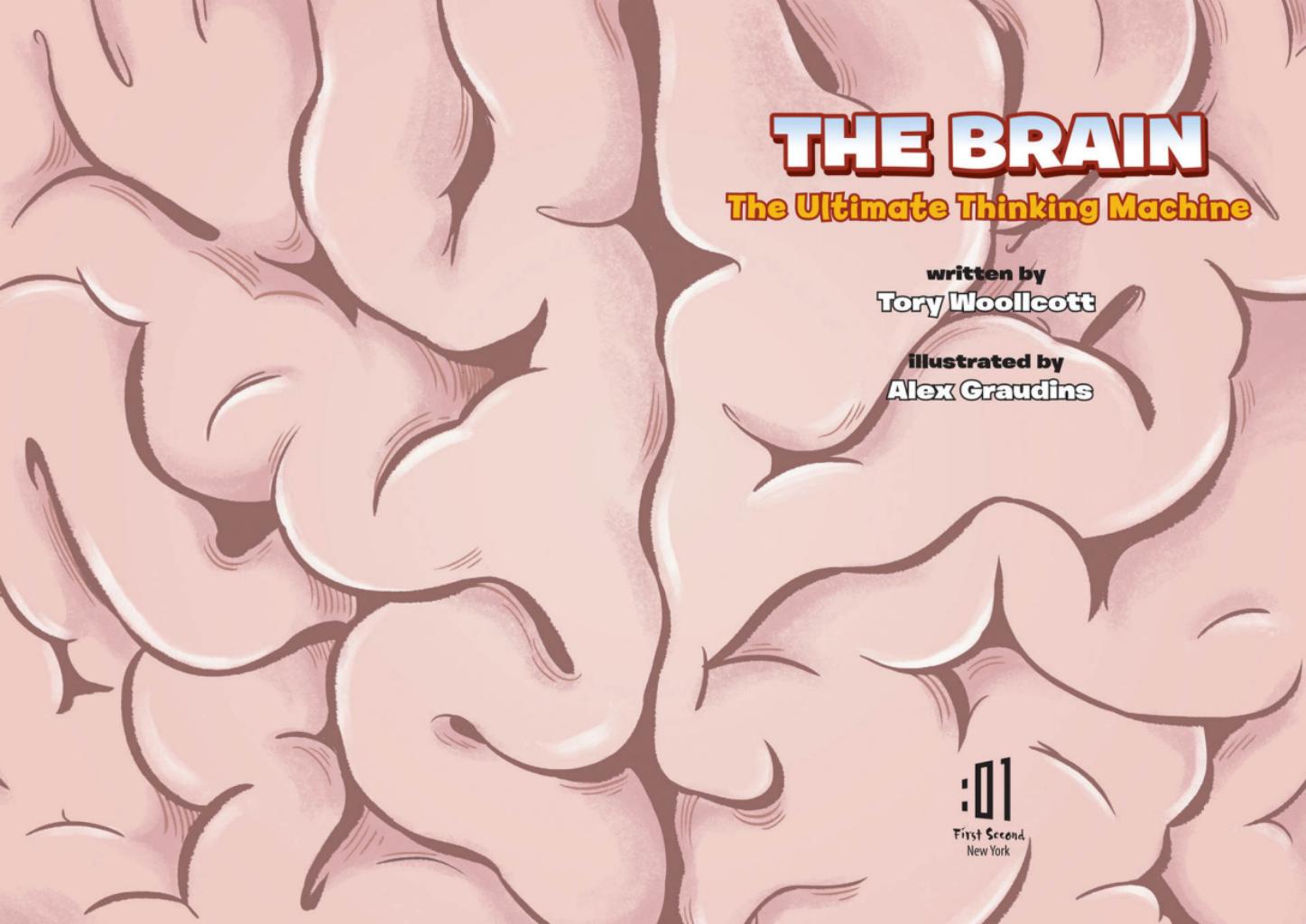


TORY WOOLLCOTT
ALEX GRAUDINS



THE BRAIN

The Ultimate Thinking Machine



THE BRAIN

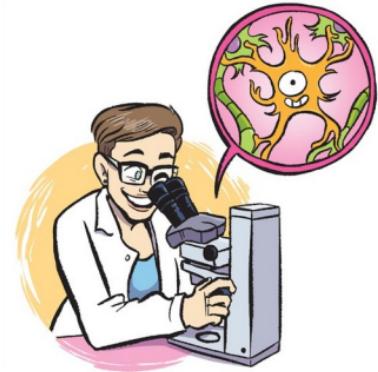
The Ultimate Thinking Machine

written by
Tory Woolcott

illustrated by
Alex Gaudins



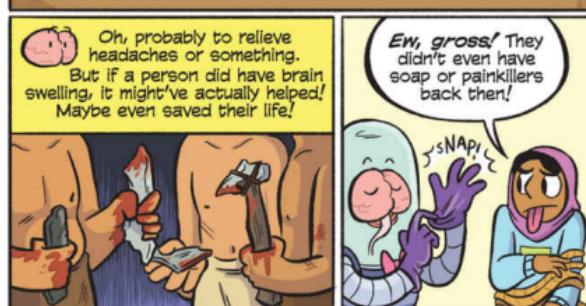
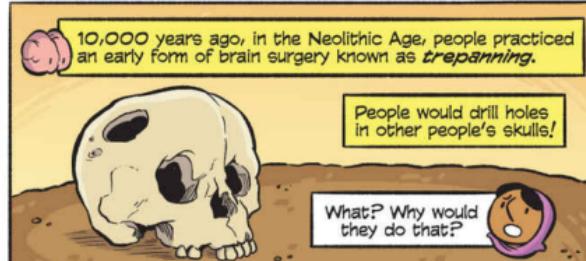
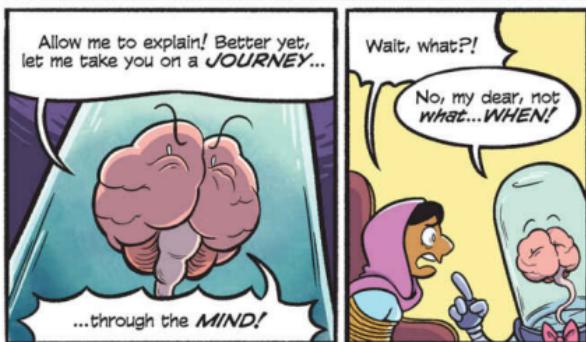
First Second
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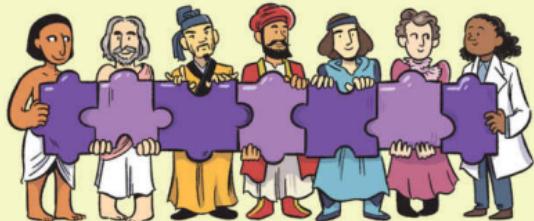




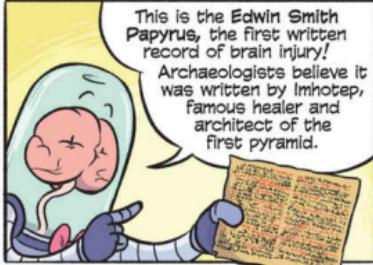
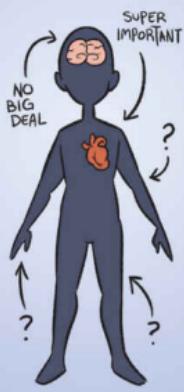




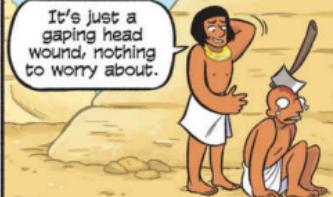
In science, you have to understand the basics first! Each discovery builds on the next, leading to more insight. You can't run until you've learned how to walk!



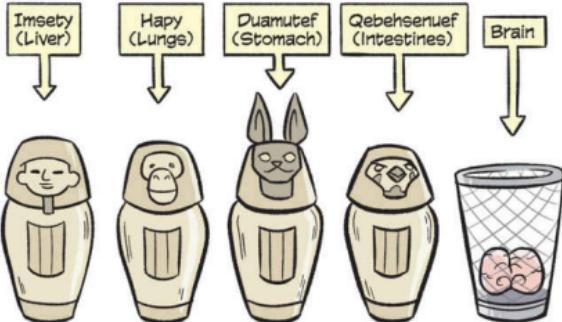
It's the same in biology! For most of history, people thought that the heart was the seat of knowledge, not the brain.



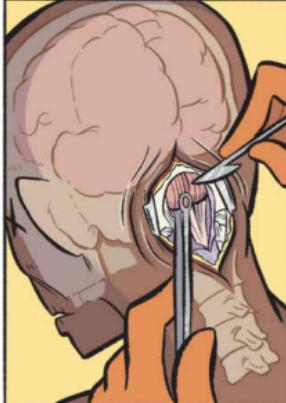
Ancient Egyptians knew that if someone had a head injury, that person would behave strangely, but they didn't know why.

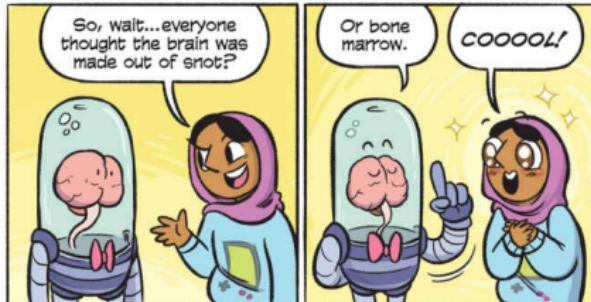


The Egyptians thought so little of the brain, they didn't even keep it when they mummified their dead! They kept all the important stuff in special containers called canopic jars.

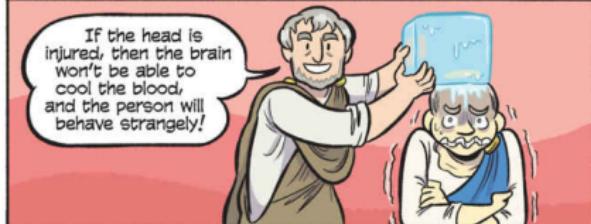


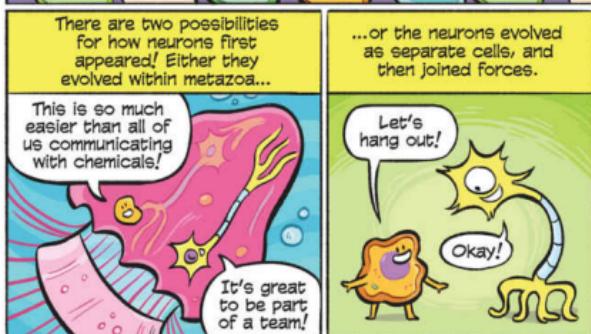
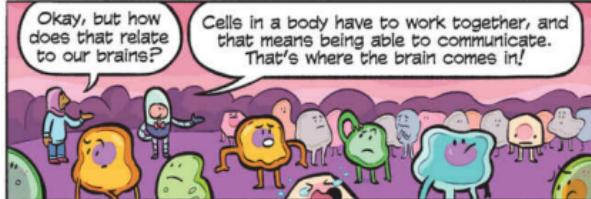
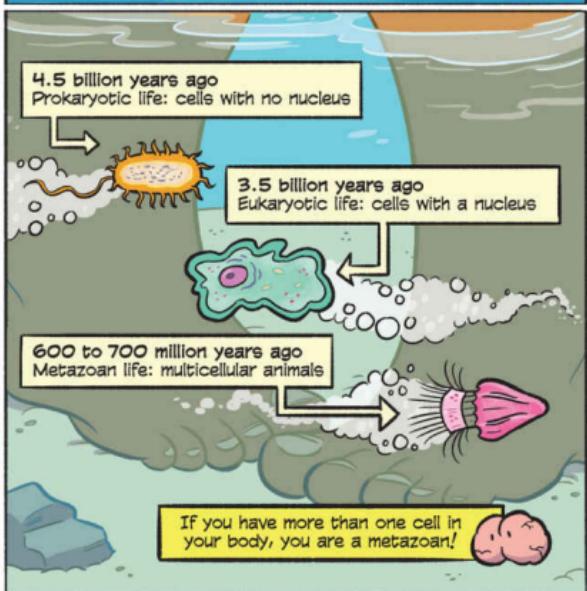
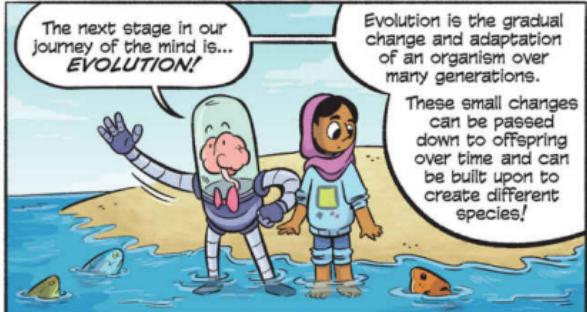
Contrary to popular belief, the Egyptians didn't actually pull out the brain through the nose but through the back of the head, via the foramen magnum!





Speaking of cool...
The Greek philosopher Aristotle believed that the heart was where thought occurred and the brain was just there to cool your blood, like an air conditioner for your body!





But just because you have neurons doesn't mean you need a brain! When neurons started working together, nervous systems began to develop!



Suddenly life went ballistic! New forms of life started to appear, because cells could now work as a team!



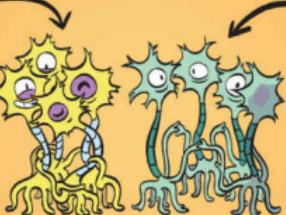
These new types of nervous systems can be separated into two groups:

Bilateral Symmetry
appears in organisms that are divided into two symmetrical halves, left and right. Humans, birds, and worms are all examples of bilateral symmetry.



Radial Symmetry
appears in organisms that don't have a distinct left and right side. Sea anemones, jellyfish, and starfish are all examples of radial symmetry.

Cephalization
is when a group of neurons gather in one place at one end of the body and form a bump called a ganglion. This is a huge step for evolution!



Radial symmetry led to the development of the nerve net, a collection of neurons spread throughout an organism's body that functions like a brain.



Fish

During the Cambrian explosion, about 530 million years ago, fish developed the first true brain and spine. A fish's central nervous system mostly controls movement and deals with the senses!



Amphibians

About 370 million years ago, in the Devonian period, lobe-finned fish evolved into early amphibians. Their brains were very simple, and had more in common with their fish ancestors than with other land animals!

KEY			
Olfactory bulb	used to detect smell		
Forebrain	controls behavior		
Midbrain	used for motor control		
Hindbrain	controls automatic body functions		



Reptiles

Reptiles evolved from amphibians around 310–320 million years ago, during the Carboniferous period.

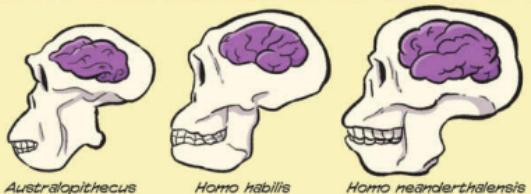
Birds

During the Triassic period, over 230 million years ago, dinosaurs evolved! Unfortunately, we don't have any dinosaur brains lying about, but we do have their descendants—birds!

Up to that point, brains were small and incredibly specialized. Mammals added the neocortex on top of the existing brain, which had already been evolving for so long, making it more adaptable.



With the arrival of primates, the neocortex grew bigger, causing the frontal lobes of the primate brain to grow larger as well!



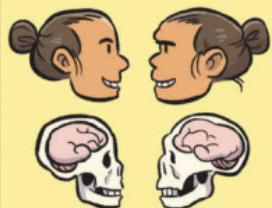
Around 800,000 years ago, there was another sudden jump in brain size. This was when primates related to humans arrived—Neanderthals!



Wait, aren't Neanderthals like cavemen?

You say that like it's a bad thing.

Technically, Neanderthals had a larger brain than modern humans.



But to be honest, I doubt you'd be able to tell the difference between a Neanderthal and a short, muscular modern person.



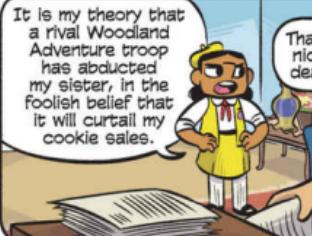


Well, it *is* very complex...



Please? I'm *very* interested.

Hmmmm...



Well, now that we've covered the brain's evolution, we can get on to the good stuff!



There are two main types of brain cells: neurons and glial cells! Let's start with neurons.

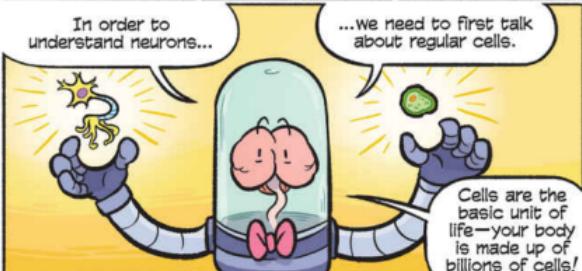


Neurons are cells that can send messages through chemical and electrical signals. They are capable of moving muscles, interpreting stimuli, learning—even creating thought itself!

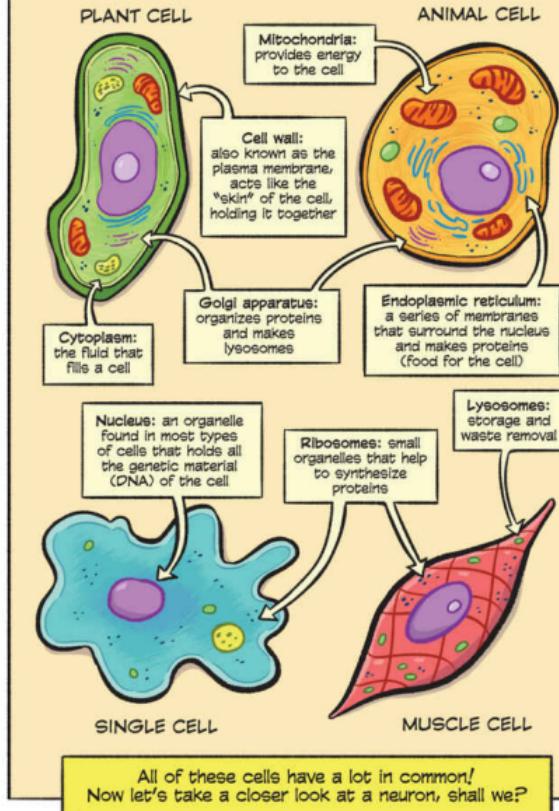


In order to understand neurons...

...we need to first talk about regular cells.



Cells share a similar anatomy, and most cells have the same types of organelles. Organelles are similar to organs in our body, like a cell's tiny lungs or heart!



All of these cells have a lot in common! Now let's take a closer look at a neuron, shall we?

Neurons have a unique shape.

'Sup?



Neurons also make electricity!

You're so cool!

I'm glad you agree.

The first thing that makes neurons unusual is that they don't reproduce.

I reproduce often in order to grow the body or replace damaged cells!



I hardly reproduce at all! Human bodies are born with most of the neurons they'll ever need, and we're well protected, so we rarely need to be replaced!

Neurons have all the same organelles as other cells, but they have a lot more features than a regular cell!

Nucleus: where the DNA of a cell is stored

Cell body: the body of the cell, also known as the soma

Cell membrane: the outside of a cell, sort of like a skin

Dendrites: branch-like projections coming off the cell body of a neuron that receive signals from other cells

Myelin sheath: a fatty covering around an axon

Nodes of Ranvier: the gaps in the myelin sheath

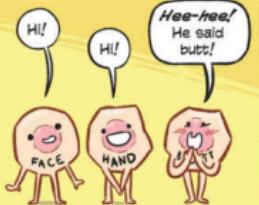
Axon terminals: the ends of an axon that hold neurotransmitters



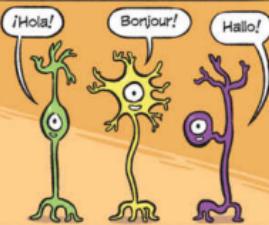
Synapses: the points where a neuron connects to another cell

Axons can vary in length a lot - the longest axon in a human is about 1 meter long. Giraffes can have axons as long as 4.5 meters, and blue whales have axons up to 20 meters in length!

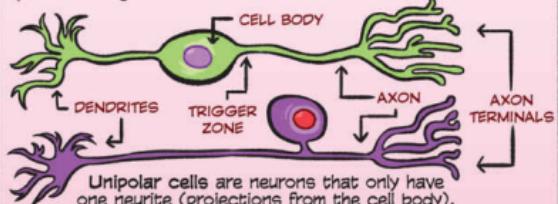
Members of the same cell type will often look the same. A skin cell from your face will look very similar to a skin cell from your hand or your butt!



Neurons are different! Neurons can come in many different shapes. They all have the same basic structures, but can look surprisingly different from one another.



A bipolar cell is a type of neuron that has two long branches projecting out of the cell body. They are used for sending out specialized signals for the senses.

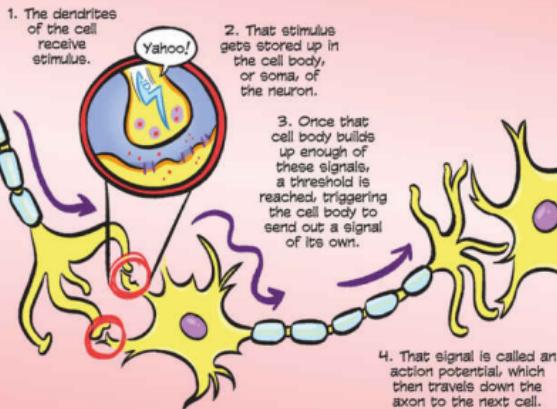


Unipolar cells are neurons that only have one neurite (projections from the cell body).

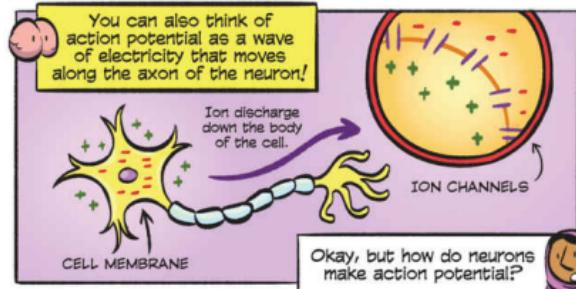
Multipolar cells are neurons that have a single axon. They also have a lot of dendrites so that they can receive action potentials from the axons of many other neurons.



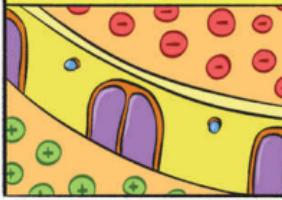
A neuron's job is to communicate with other neurons and cells throughout the rest of the body. A neuron generates electrical signals along its cell membrane and inside its cell body. These signals are called action potential.



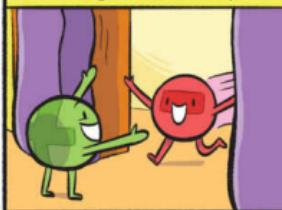
Your brain is like a network of 100 billion batteries, and nerve signals can move at speeds of up to 540 kph (335 mph)!



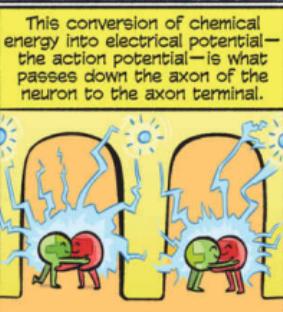
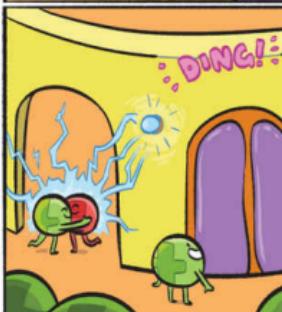
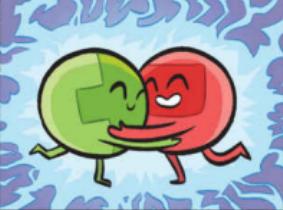
Ah! When you look at a neuron, the outside of the cell membrane is covered in positive ions, while the inside is filled with negative ions.



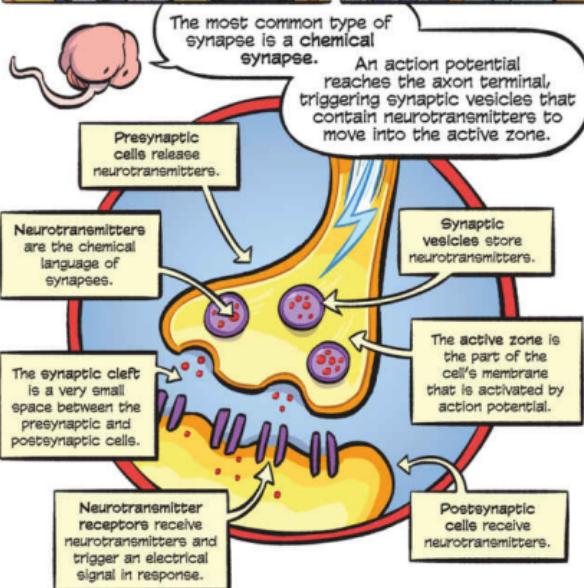
When the neuron is stimulated, little channels open that let the positive and negative ions swap.



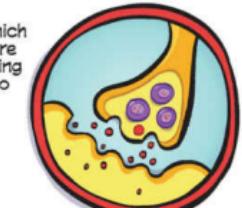
The swapping of positive and negative ions is what triggers action potential!



This conversion of chemical energy into electrical potential—the action potential—is what passes down the axon of the neuron to the axon terminal.



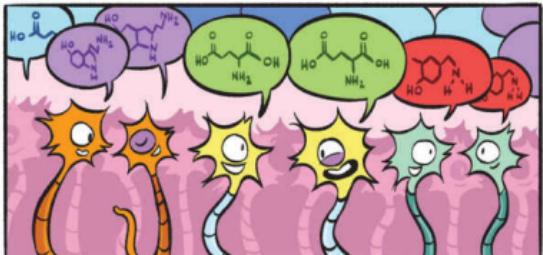
Neurons talk to each other via chemicals called neurotransmitters, which are released by axon terminals and are passed to the receptor of a neighboring cell. Each receptor can only react to one type of neurotransmitter.



Because each axon is connected to so many other neurons by its axon terminals, it's important to be picky about which neuron gets which message, otherwise things get confusing very quickly.



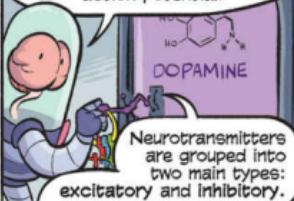
In effect, neurotransmitters filter out all cells the message isn't for!



Each type of neurotransmitter is like a key that can only open one receptor type—one “door,” if you will.



When a “key” is put into its matching “door,” the neuron will then unlock smaller doors on the cell membrane. If enough doors are opened, the cell will fire an action potential.



Neurotransmitters are grouped into two main types: excitatory and Inhibitory.

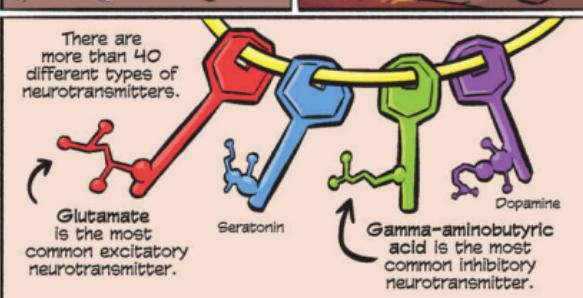
Excitatory neurotransmitters are neurotransmitters that make a neuron more likely to fire action potential.

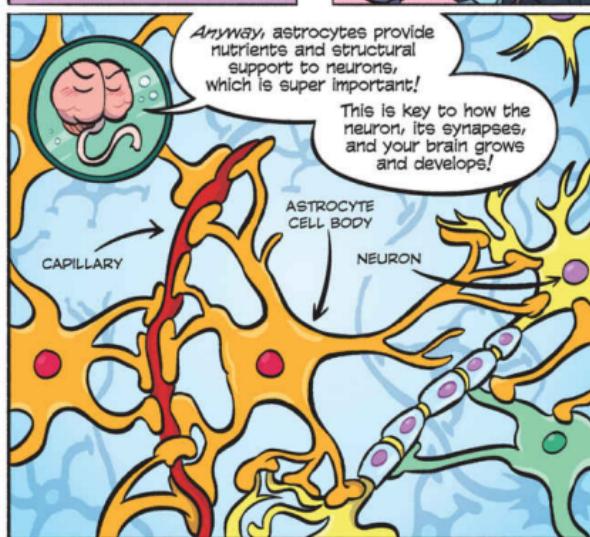
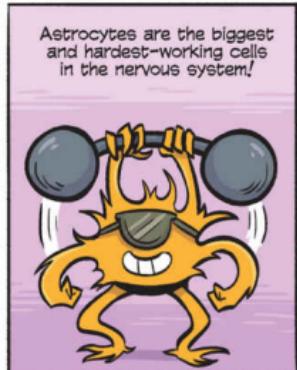
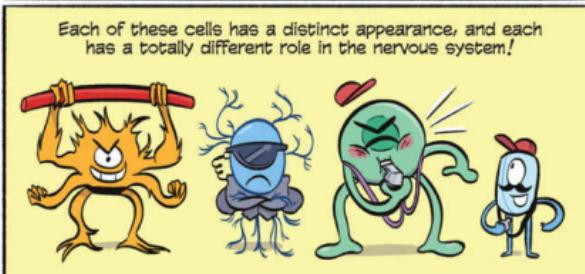
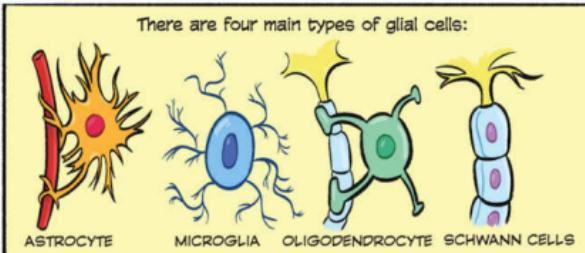
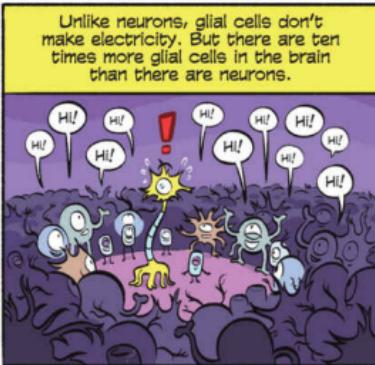
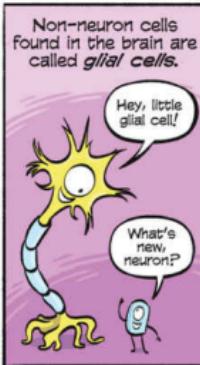


Inhibitory neurotransmitters are neurotransmitters that make a neuron less likely to fire an action potential.

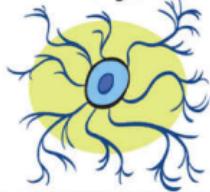


There are more than 40 different types of neurotransmitters.





Microglia are specialized immune cells only found in the brain! About 10–15% of all the cells in your brain are microglia.



These cells are active! They move around the brain a lot, and they change shape in order to do this.



In order to be able to move between tightly packed nerves in the brain, microglia squish themselves very thin and pull themselves around.



The microglia become blobs when they need to absorb and remove "garbage" from the brain.



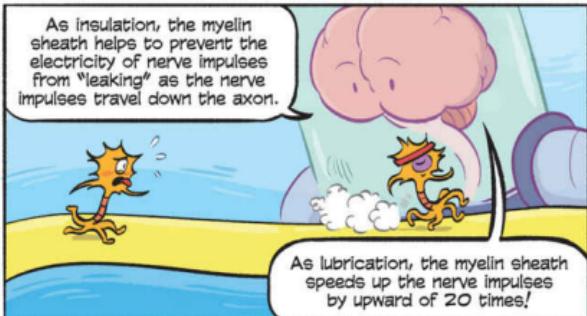
Oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells are pretty similar! They both wrap themselves around the axons in a process called myelination, which creates the myelin sheath.



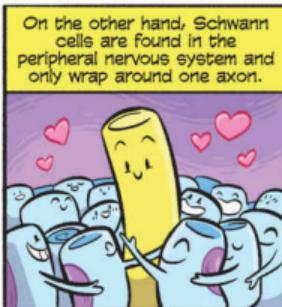
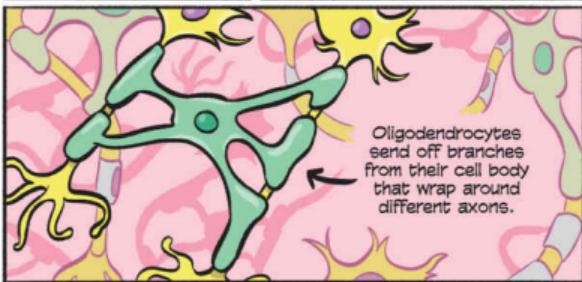
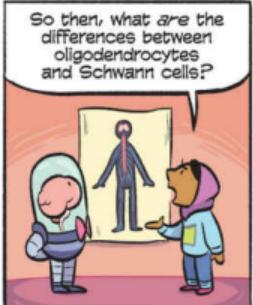
The oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells support and protect the long, delicate tendrils of the axons projecting off the nerves.

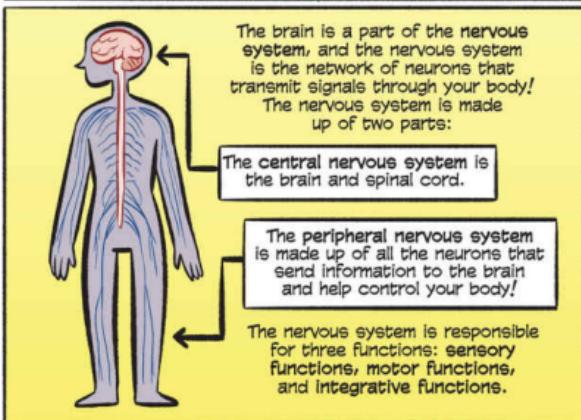


As insulation, the myelin sheath helps to prevent the electricity of nerve impulses from "leaking" as the nerve impulses travel down the axon.



As lubrication, the myelin sheath speeds up the nerve impulses by upward of 20 times!





Sensory functions gather sensory information about the world around us, like touch and smell, but also internal information like "Am I hungry?" "What part of my body hurts?"



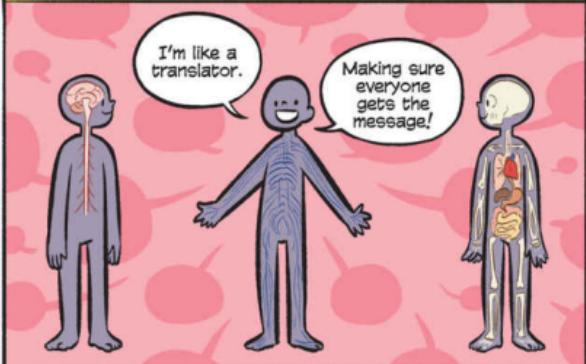
Motor functions are used any time you move! (Which is a lot, I suppose, if you're cursed with a human body.)



Integrative functions interpret the information from your sensory functions and tell the motor functions what to do. These functions make the decisions as to what needs to be done. In other words, "thinking!"



The peripheral nervous system's main job is to connect the central nervous system to the rest of the body.

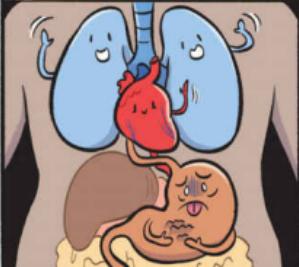


There are two parts to the peripheral nervous system: the somatic nervous system and the autonomic nervous system.

The somatic nervous system controls the voluntary movements of your skeletal muscles—any muscles that are attached to a bone! It also signals pain, like when you stub your toe!



The autonomic nervous system controls all the nonvoluntary or self-regulating movements of your internal organs and glands, like your heartbeat and digestion! It also tells you stuff like if your stomach is upset!



The sympathetic nervous system is part of the autonomic nervous system and is designed to kick in when you're in danger.

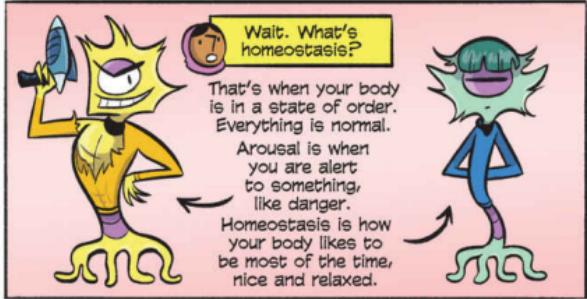


Fight or flight: this system kicks in if you're scared or stressed out—like if you're being chased by a lion!



The parasympathetic nervous system is the chilling system—it brings the body back to a point of homeostasis, especially after something scared you.





The **central nervous system** is made up of both the brain and spinal cord, but let's start with the spinal cord! It's what connects the brain to the peripheral nervous system.



Cervical nerves: These are the nerves in your neck! They're in charge of your arms, neck, and upper body.

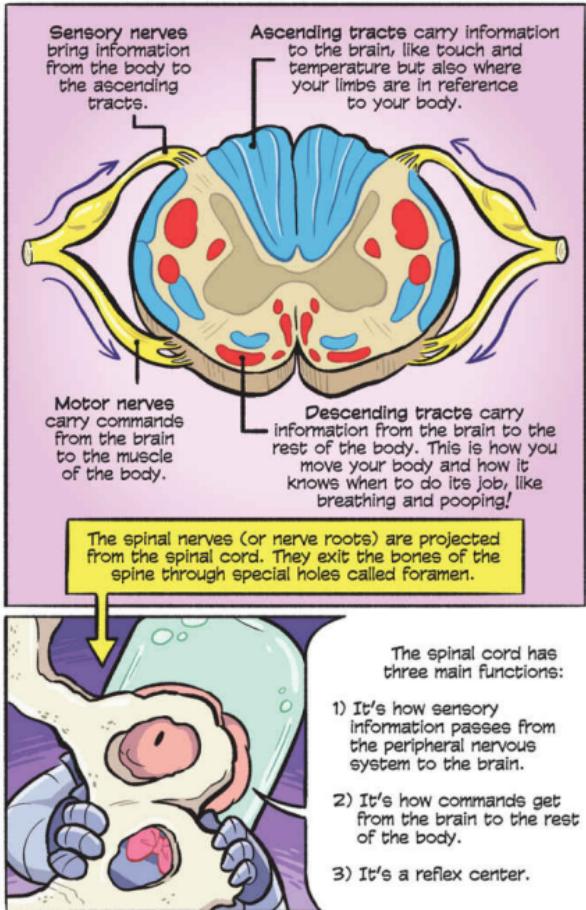
Thoracic nerves: These are the nerves in your upper back and lower body.

Lumbar and Sacral nerves: These nerves are located in your legs and the organs below your belly button.

There are four main spinal nerve groups: the cervical nerves, thoracic nerves, lumbar nerves, and sacral nerves.

Each one of these gives you sensation, feeling, and movement to a particular part of your body!





The brain is super important, obviously! And because most neurons cannot easily be replaced if damaged, the body takes extra precautions to keep it safe!



The skull provides structure and protection for your brain.

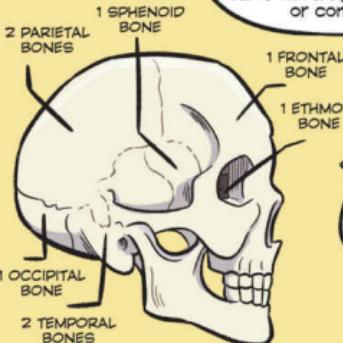
The skull is 6.5–7.1 millimeters thick, and that's not even including the muscles, skin, and hair on top.



The bones on the skull are the first line of defense! There are eight separate bones that grow together as you age.



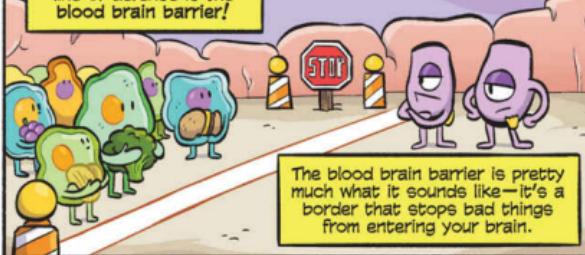
The skull is made up of eight bones:



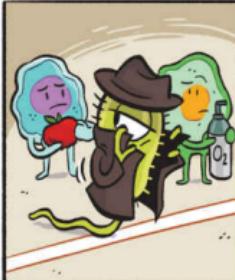
The skull can protect your brain from day-to-day falls or minor impacts, but your skull can't win a fight with a car or concrete! Wear a helmet and protect that beautiful, precious brain of yours!



After the skull, the next line of defense is the blood brain barrier!



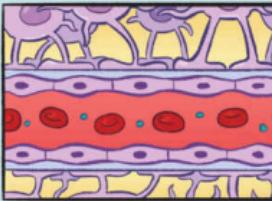
The blood brain barrier is pretty much what it sounds like—it's a border that stops bad things from entering your brain.



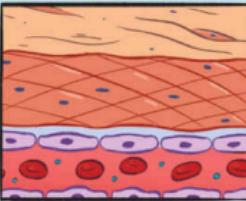
But there are things from the blood that your brain does need, like oxygen and nutrients, and those are allowed to cross the blood brain barrier.



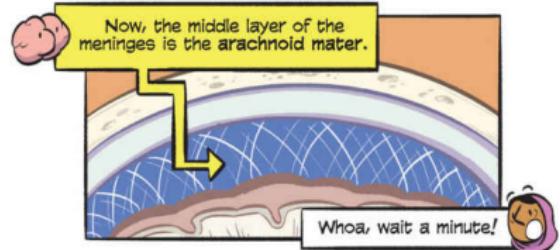
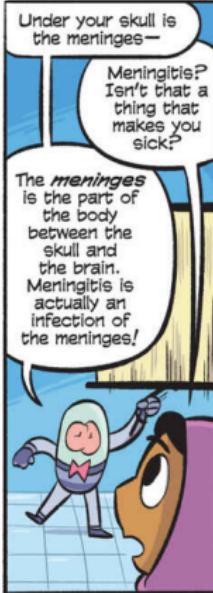
However, it's still much harder to cross the blood brain barrier than it is with regular veins and arteries.



BLOOD BRAIN BARRIER

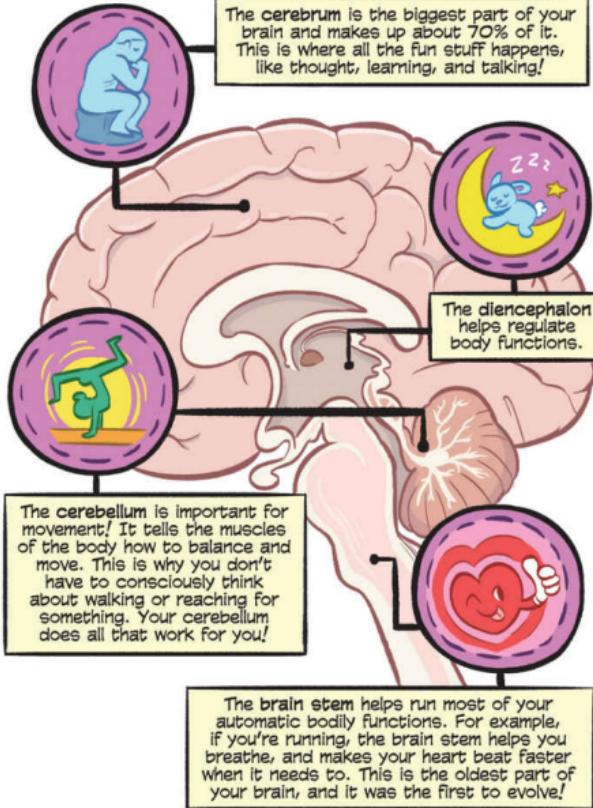


REGULAR VEINS AND ARTERIES

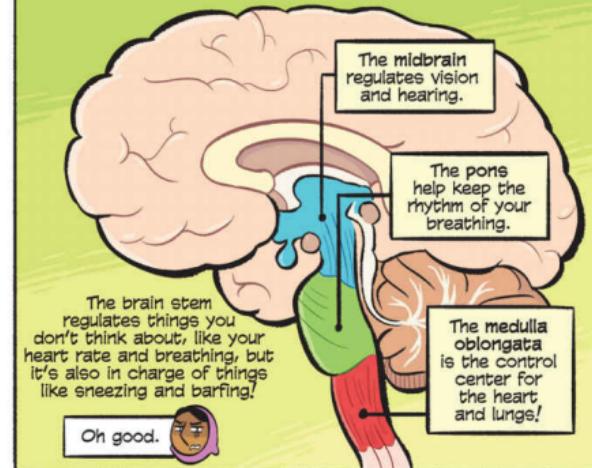




So, *uh*, where were we? Oh yes! There are four regions of the brain. Each of these regions have distinct and important roles.



The brain stem is made up of three main parts:



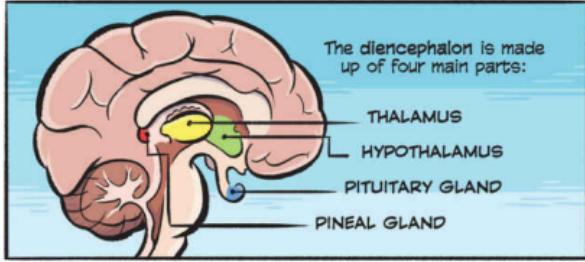
The brain stem also stimulates arousal, kicking your body into survival mode if it thinks you are in danger. A really good example of this is when you're about to fall asleep...



...and then suddenly you jump back awake for no obvious reason? That actually happens when your brain stem mixes up your body falling asleep for your body falling down!



Sometimes I get confused.



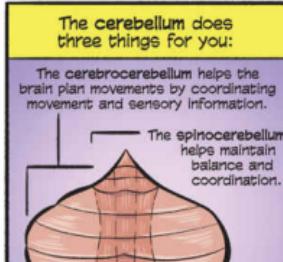
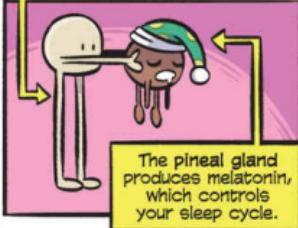
The thalamus is like the relay center for the brain. It collects and sorts sensory information, and then directs that information to other parts of the body.



The hypothalamus regulates the autonomic nervous system. It tells you when you need to go to sleep or wake up, and whether you're hungry or thirsty. It also regulates your body temperature.



The pituitary gland is the "master gland" of the body, is about the size of a pea, and releases hormones that help you grow and develop. The pituitary gland also regulates your blood pressure and metabolism.



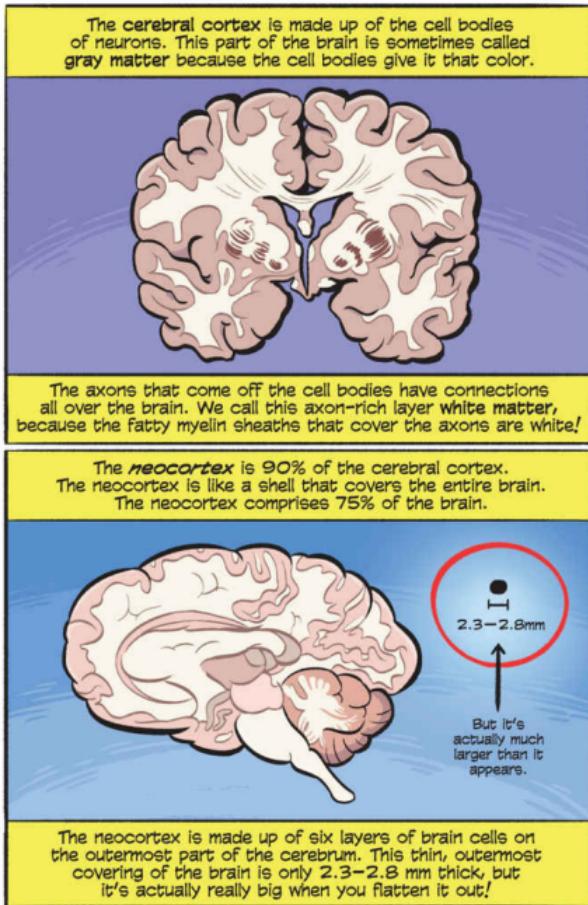
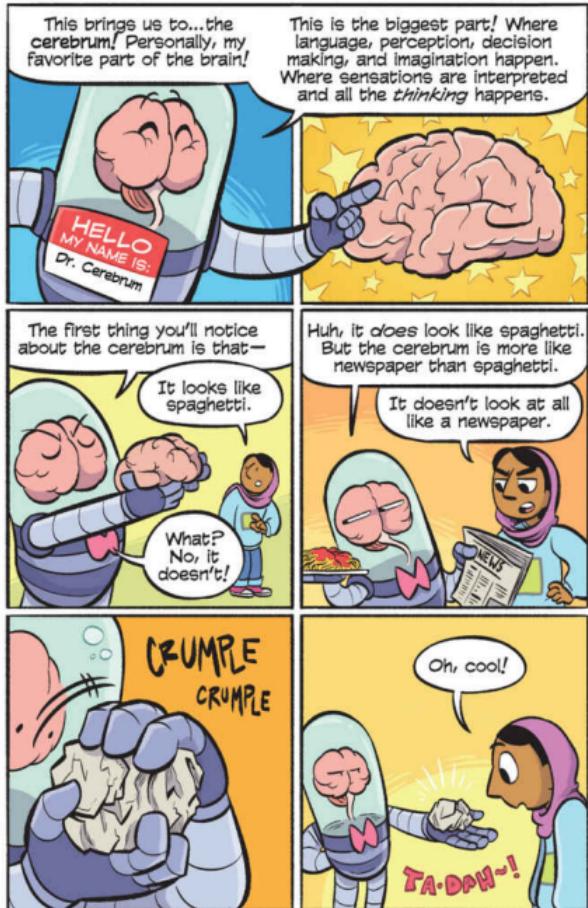
The cerebellum hosts about half the neurons in the brain, but it's only about 10% of the total volume of the brain!



The cerebellum helps us maintain our balance and keeps our limbs coordinated. It's also where we store all our learned motions, like martial arts techniques or how to ride a bike.



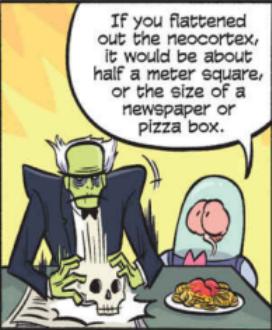
The cerebellum's job is helping you learn to use your body, but it doesn't create movements on its own. That's where the cerebrum comes in!



See, spaghetti is a bunch of separate noodles, but the neocortex is more like a big piece of a gooey newspaper that's been folded over and over again so it can fit in your skull.



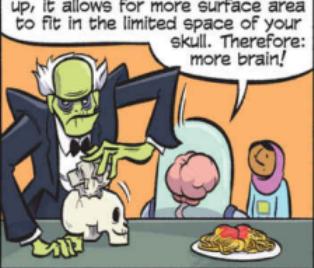
If you flattened out the neocortex, it would be about half a meter square, or the size of a newspaper or pizza box.



That's both gross and cool!



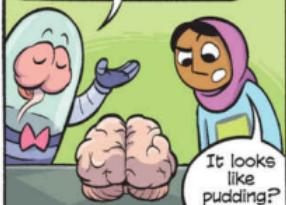
Because the neocortex is folded up, it allows for more surface area to fit in the limited space of your skull. Therefore: more brain!



The resulting wrinkles in the brain are called the sulcus and the gyrus.



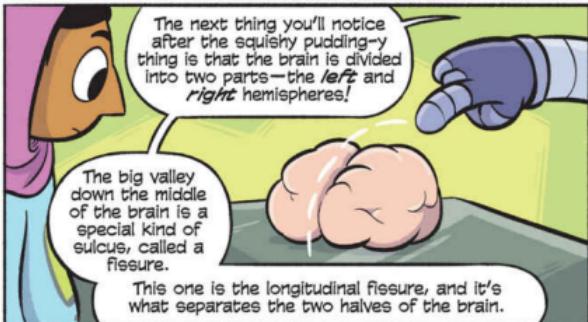
The first thing you'll notice about the cerebrum is—



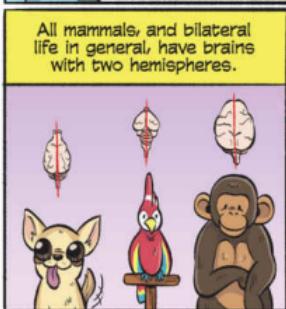
Yes, it does have the consistency of pudding.



The next thing you'll notice after the squishy pudding-y thing is that the brain is divided into two parts—the left and right hemispheres!



All mammals, and bilateral life in general, have brains with two hemispheres.



But why are there two halves of the brain?

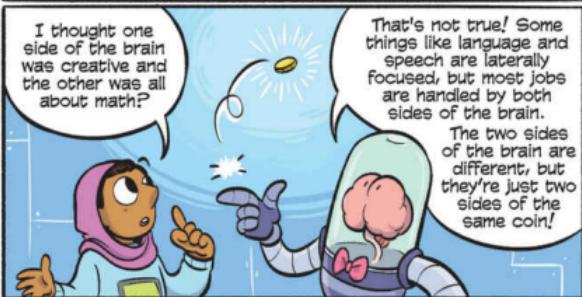


The left side of your brain is in charge of the right side of your body. All the things you hear with your right ear, and all the things you see in your right field of vision is interpreted by the left side of your brain!



The opposite is also true for the right side of your brain. It interprets everything from the left side of your body!

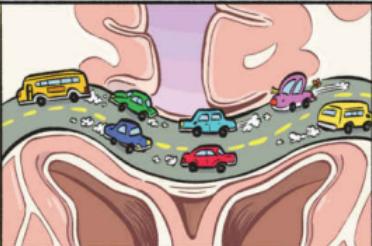
I thought one side of the brain was creative and the other was all about math?



That's not true! Some things like language and speech are laterally focused, but most jobs are handled by both sides of the brain.

The two sides of the brain are different, but they're just two sides of the same coin!

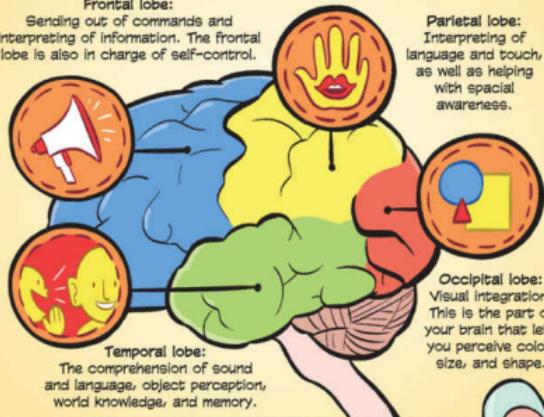
The two hemispheres are connected together by the **corpus callosum**. It's a thick bridge of axons that connect the two hemispheres of the brain. It's like a superhighway that lets the two sides of the brain talk to each other incredibly quickly.



Your cerebrum is divided into four lobes. The lobes are connected to the entire brain and do a lot of different things, but their primary functions are:

Frontal lobe:

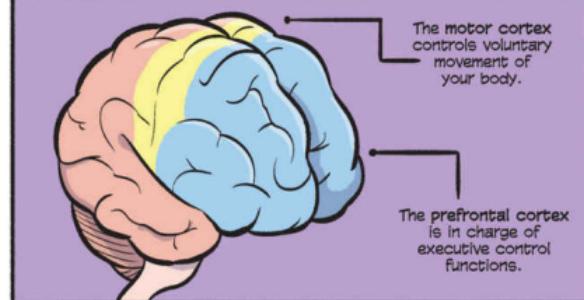
Sending out commands and interpreting of information. The frontal lobe is also in charge of self-control.



Parietal lobe:
Interpreting of language and touch, as well as helping with spacial awareness.

Occipital lobe:
Visual integration. This is the part of your brain that lets you perceive color, size, and shape.

Your personality, emotions, and ability to plan for the future is stored in your prefrontal cortex. It's where what make you "you" is located.



The motor cortex controls voluntary movement of your body.

The prefrontal cortex is in charge of executive control functions.

The prefrontal cortex is the most connected area of the brain! This is where you're able to make decisions using previous experience as well as received stimuli.



The prefrontal cortex gives you the ability to make long-term plans, set goals, relate to other people, control your emotions, and even do things like delaying gratification!

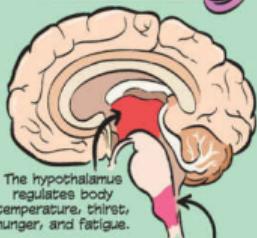


One of the prefrontal cortex's most important jobs is inhibition. This prevents you from doing every silly thing that pops into your head!



There are two kinds of movement: the type you think about, and the type you don't.

I can move without thinking?



The medulla interprets information from the stomach and the heart.

Of course you do! All the time! Every single beat of your heart, the digestion of food—even moving your hand away from a hot surface—you don't have to think about any of that!



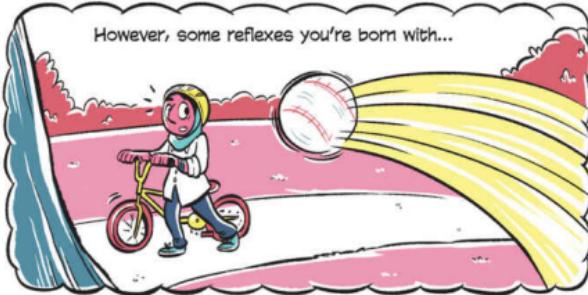
The type of movement that the body does on its own (except for reflexes) is part of the autonomic nervous system.

Things like breathing, body-temperature regulation, hunger, and thirst are all part of the autonomic nervous system.



All the different parts of your body—your organs, bones, and skin—need to work together for your body to run smoothly.







...the sensory receptors detect the stimulus and nerves then send that information up the peripheral nervous system, to the spine and central nervous system.

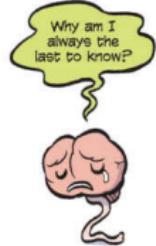
The action potential reaches the integration center in your spine, and that information is passed on to two different places: part of it goes to the brain...



...but motor neurons will also send directions back down the spine to the peripheral nervous system, to the original point of stimulus—causing you to react and move your leg away!



Finally, your brain will get the memo, and it will figure out what caused the stimulus. A reflex is an action your body takes without you telling it to do so. This lets you react faster and stay alive longer!



Gross motor skills involve the use and coordination of the limbs, like playing a sport or performing a dance!



Fine motor skills are the coordination of many small muscles, like those in the hands and fingers. This gives precise control to do fine, detailed work like drawing or using a video game controller!





The senses are how a living thing is able to gather information about the world around it.

Our five senses (touch, taste, smell, sight, and hearing) receive and react to three types of stimuli.

Key

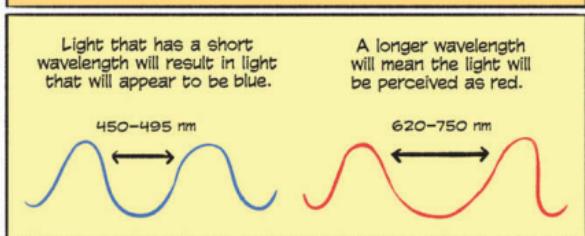
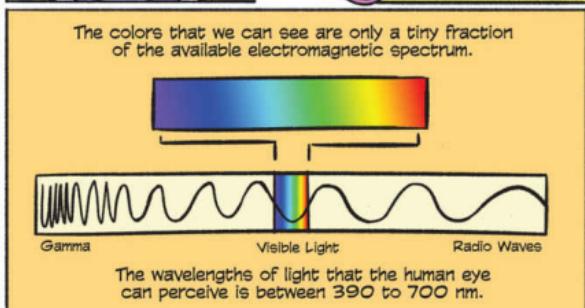
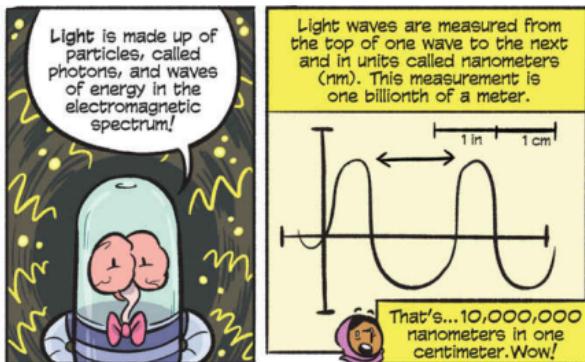
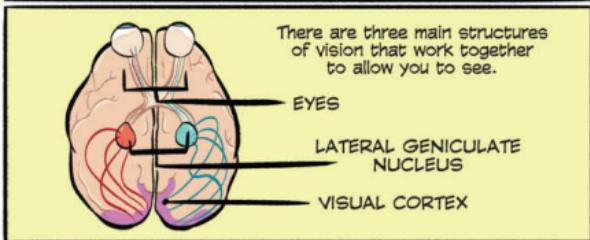
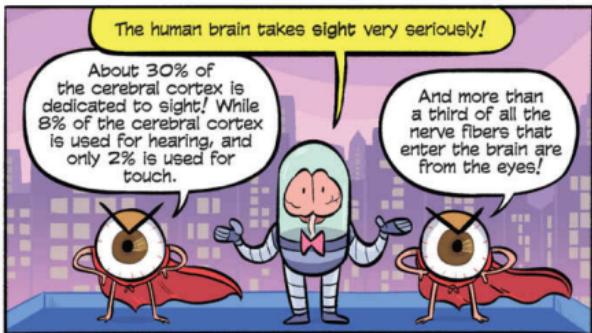
- = electromagnetic stimuli
- = mechanical stimuli
- = chemical stimuli

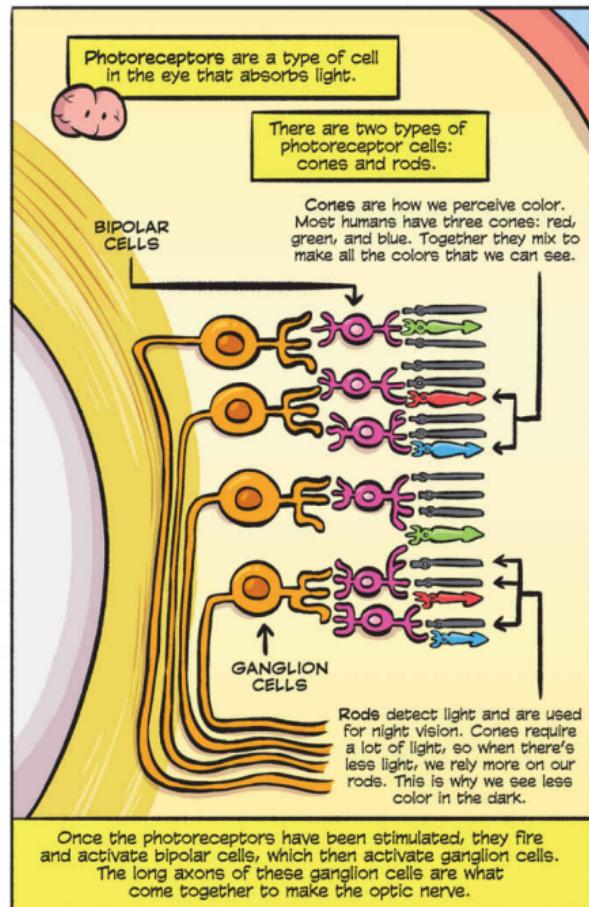
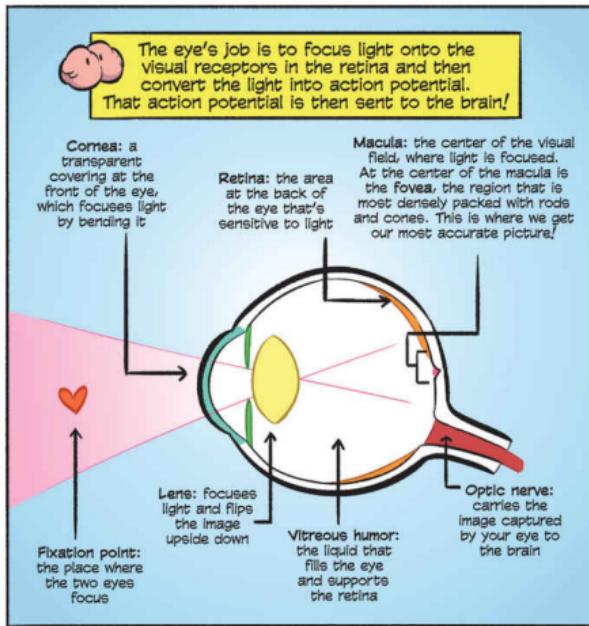
The senses do this by **transduction**.

That's the transformation of physical information into action potentials the brain can understand.

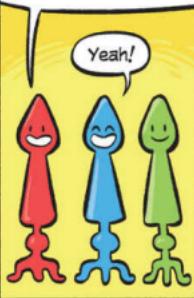
A lot of the brain is dedicated to interpreting and understanding what our senses tell us.

That's what perception is: the organization, interpretation, and contextualization of sensory stimuli.

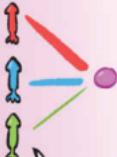




We're the cones in your eye! We let you perceive color.



Tee-hee!

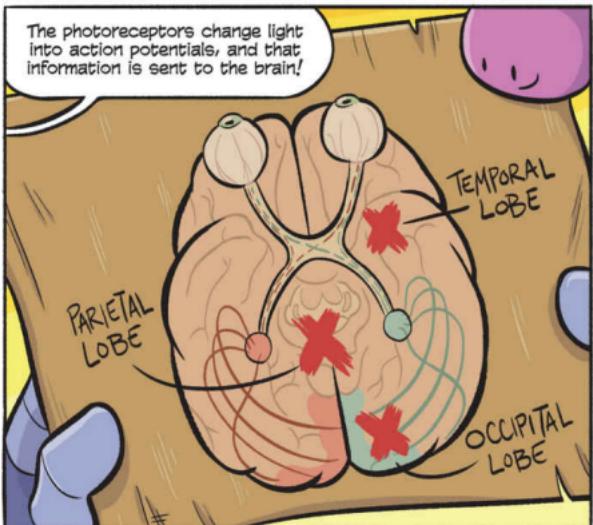


Rods and cones are what translate the light that goes into your eyes into action potentials the brain can understand.

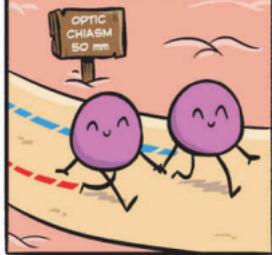
Information in the form of action potential



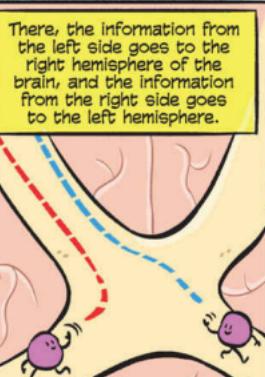
The photoreceptors change light into action potentials, and that information is sent to the brain!



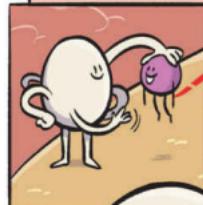
The information travels along the optic nerve until it reaches the optic chiasm.



There, the information from the left side goes to the right hemisphere of the brain, and the information from the right side goes to the left hemisphere.



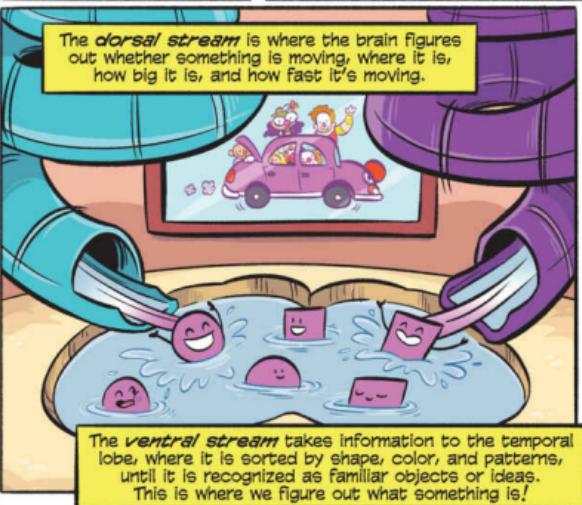
In the thalamus, the lateral geniculate nucleus processes the visual information and sends it to the occipital lobe.



The visual information is roughly decoded by the occipital lobe and visual cortex and is sent on to the cerebral cortex to be integrated with your memories and experience.



From the visual cortex, there are two highways that take the processed visual information away to be analyzed: the dorsal stream and the ventral stream.



Okay, let's move on to **touch**, shall we?



It's more than that! Touch is the border between what is "you" and what is "not you."



Passive touch is when something unexpectedly touches your skin.



You recognize that you've been touched before you know what has actually touched you.

Active touch, on the other hand...

(Get it? The other hand!)



When we touch something on purpose, this is active touch. In this case, you're usually using your hands in order to touch something.



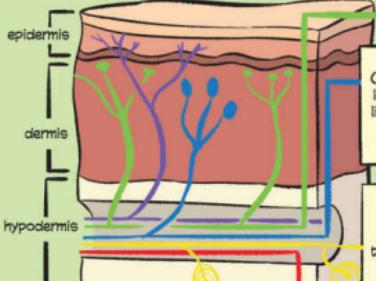
Now, mechanoreceptors are specialized ends of unipolar neurons in your glabrous skin.



Glabrous skin is any part of your body that doesn't have hair.



There are four different types of mechanoreceptors:



Merkel's discs detect pressure. They feel things like grooves in surfaces.

Tactile corpuscles (Meissner's corpuscles) are located in the fingertips and lips. They are super sensitive to light touch and are how you can detect textures.

Pacinian corpuscles respond to pressure being applied to or removed from the skin. They don't respond to sustained pressure, just when it starts and stops.

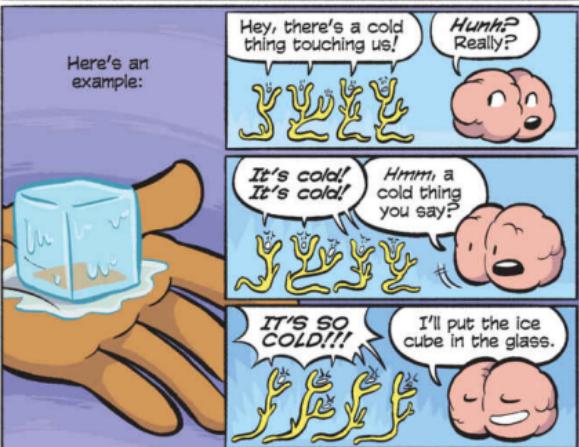
Ruffini endings detect the skin stretching.

There are also **free nerve endings**, which aren't technically mechanoreceptors, but they're important because they're what allow you to feel pain.

Merkel's discs, Ruffini endings, and free nerve endings are known as "slow-adapting" receptors, because these axons will continue to fire until the stimulus is removed.



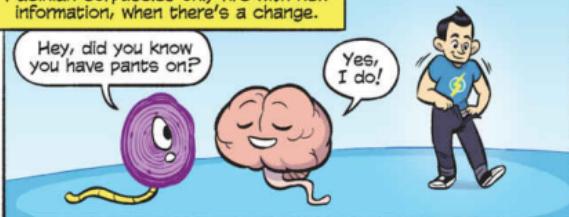
Here's an example:



Pacinian corpuscles only fire with new information, when there's a change.

Hey, did you know you have parts on?

Yes, I do!

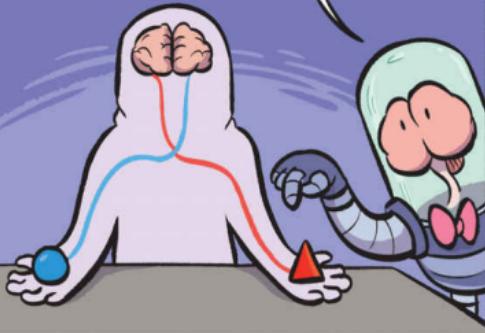


The parietal lobe is used to interpret sensory information and perception. It integrates all the information gathered from our senses and helps us understand our surroundings, allowing us to coordinate our movements.



The somatosensory cortex processes information taken from your skin, things like pressure and temperature.

Stimulus from the left side of the body will activate the right side of your primary somatosensory cortex, and vice versa!



When touch receptors are stimulated, that information is sent to the brain and processed in the somatosensory cortex.



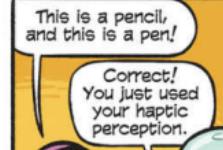
When you use only touch to figure out what something is, you're using your *haptic perception*.



This is your ability to determine details, or even identify an object by touching it and feeling its surface, as opposed to having it passively come in contact with your skin.

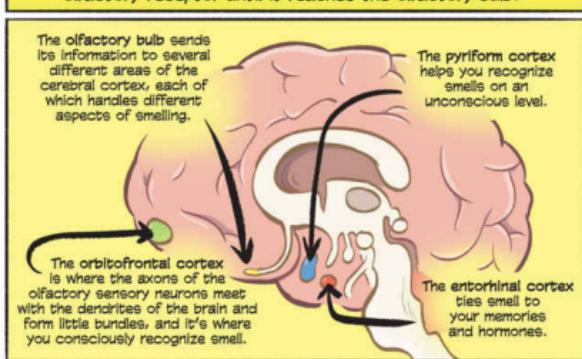
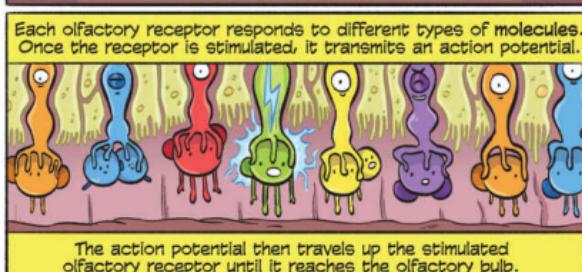
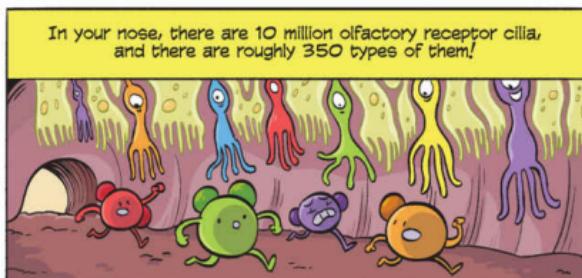
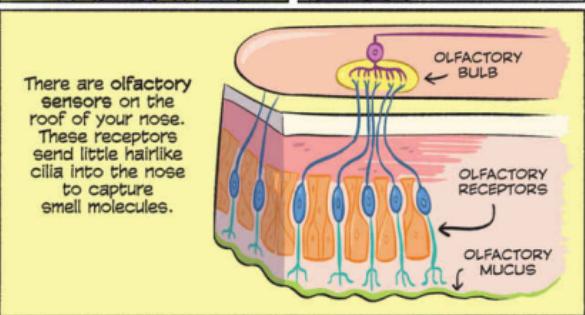


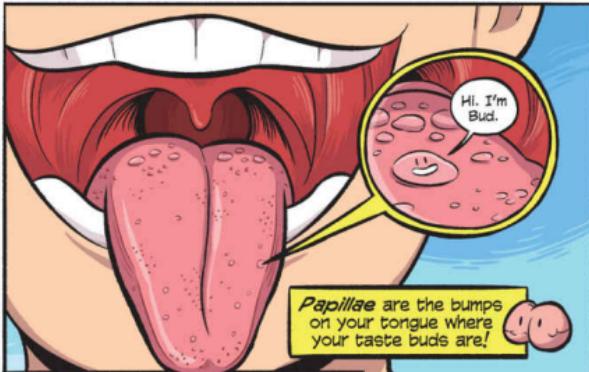
This is a pencil, and this is a pen!



Okay, am I touching you now with the pen or the pencil?

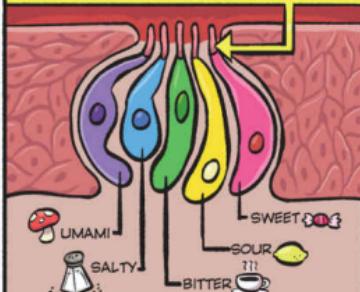






Papillae are the bumps on your tongue where your taste buds are!

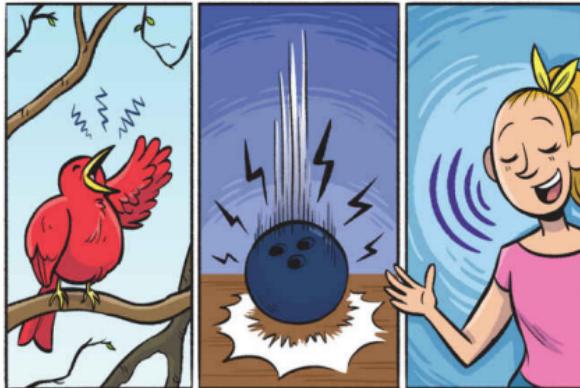
Taste buds are little holes that suck in particles of food and detect those molecules using **microvilli**. Microvilli are like tiny hairs that can detect the different types of flavors: salty, sweet, bitter, umami, or sour.



The ratio of each flavor is important to our understanding of taste, and all of this is decoded in the brain.



As you chew your food, teeny tiny pieces of the food are released and travel up your nose. Your sense of smell actually works to **enhance** your sense of taste!



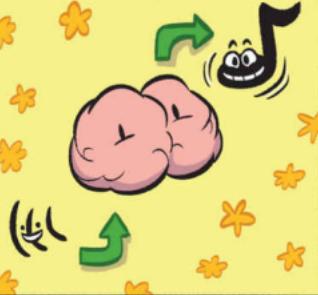
What we perceive as "sound" is our brain interpreting vibrations in the air around us. These vibrations are called sound waves.



But seriously, though, sound gives us a lot of information that we often don't consciously realize! Pitch, loudness, direction, even language, are just a few examples.



When the ear receives a stimulus, it's your brain that changes it into hearing.



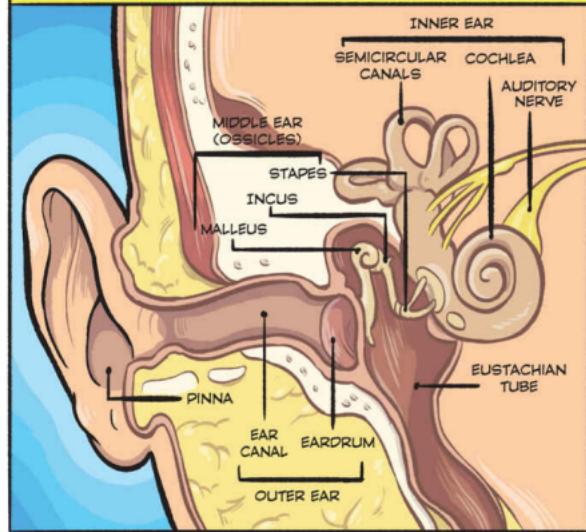
Sound is created when something vibrates! A vibration, or **frequency**, is measured in hertz—the number of vibrations per second. Human hearing spans 20–20,000 hertz. We interpret frequency as pitch.



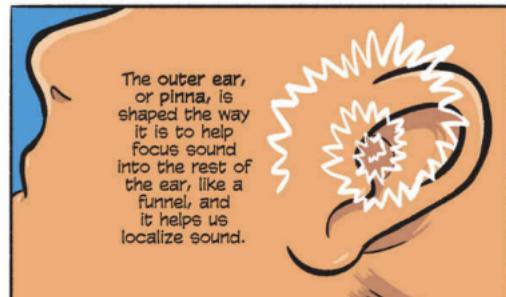
The height of a sound wave determines the loudness of a sound. This is measured in decibels and is all about how hard the wave hits your ear.



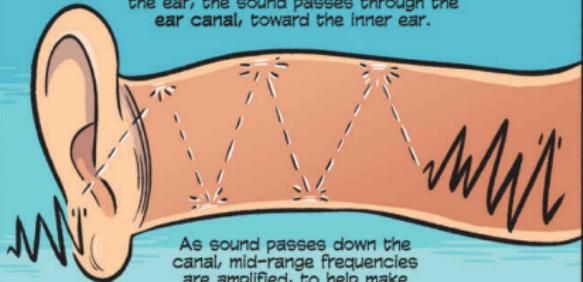
The ear is a complex organ and actually has more in common with touch than it does with sight because it's a mechanical sense!



The outer ear, or pinna, is shaped the way it is to help focus sound into the rest of the ear, like a funnel, and it helps us localize sound.



After the pinna focuses the sound in the ear, the sound passes through the ear canal, toward the inner ear.



As sound passes down the canal, mid-range frequencies are amplified, to help make sound and speech more clear.

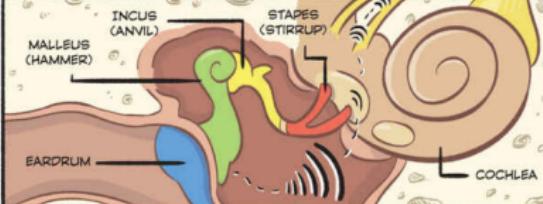
The ear canal also protects the eardrum, which is delicate, you guys!



After the sound has been collected by the pinna and amplified by the auditory canal, it finally reaches the eardrum (also known as the tympanic membrane), causing these amplified vibrations to move into the middle ear.



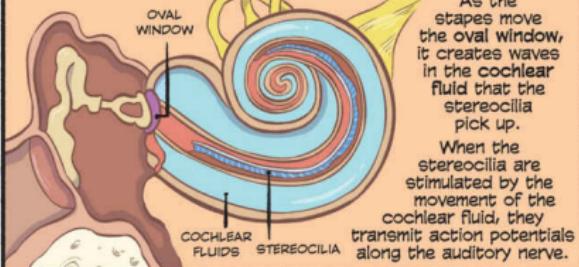
The eardrum converts the sound wave into physical vibrations that travel along the ossicles, a chain of three tiny bones in the middle ear.



The vibrations from the ossicles are transmitted to the cochlea by vibrating a small membrane at the front of the cochlea called the oval window.

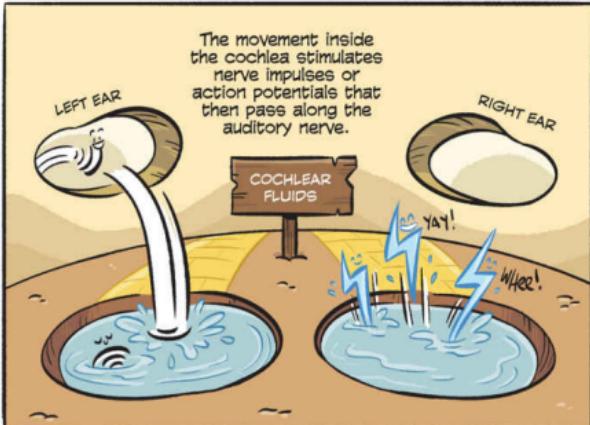


The cochlea is a spiral cavity filled with fluid. It's a little like a seashell deep in the inner ear. The inside of the cochlea is covered in little hairlike cells known as stereocilia.

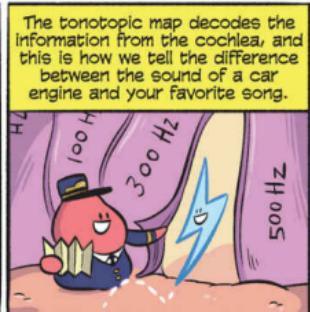
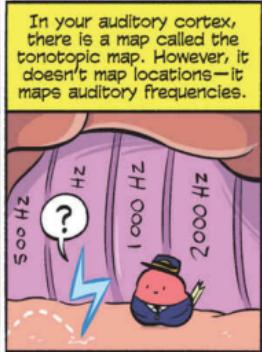
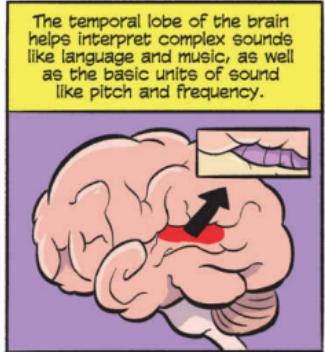
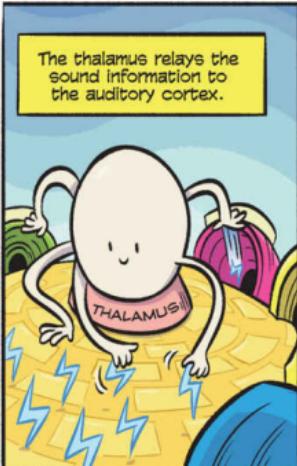
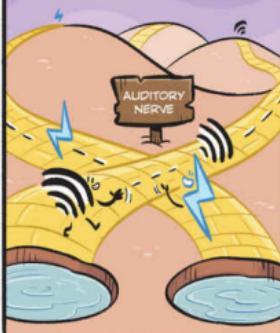


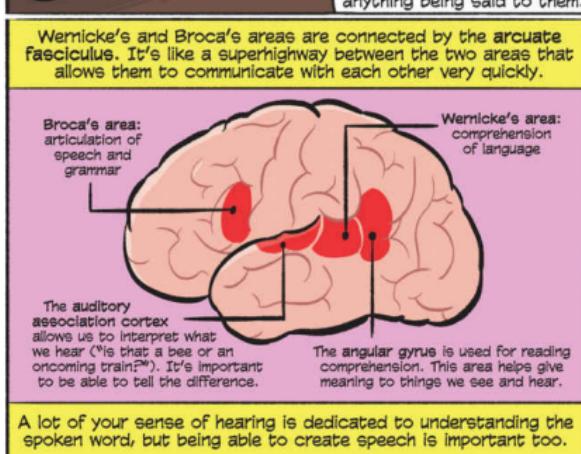
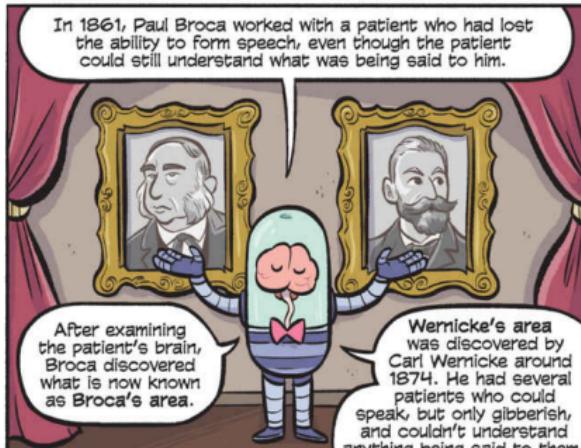
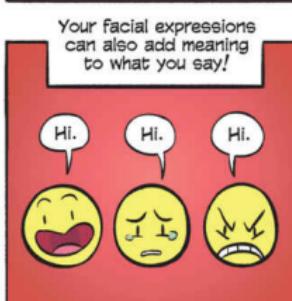
As the steps move the oval window, it creates waves in the cochlear fluid that the stereocilia pick up.

When the stereocilia are stimulated by the movement of the cochlear fluid, they transmit action potentials along the auditory nerve.



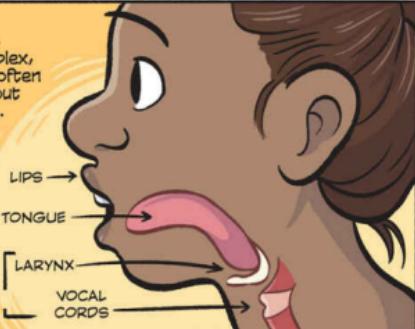
On the way to the auditory cortex, the sound first switches from the left ear to the right side of the brain, and from the right ear to the left side of the brain.





Vocalizing is surprisingly complex, considering how often we use it without even thinking.

You have to control your breathing, the muscles of your larynx and vocal chords, as well as your lips and tongue.

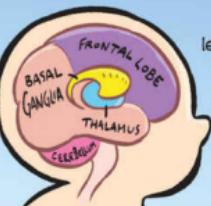


Mama!

Da-da!



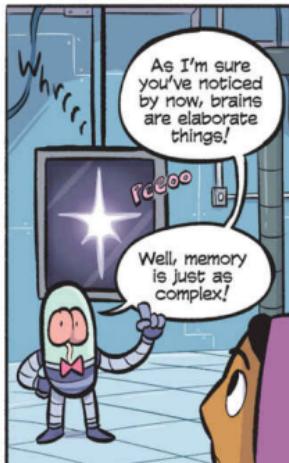
The basal ganglia and the thalamus are the major regions of the brain that work with the frontal lobe to learn language.



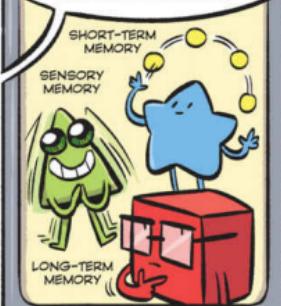
When you're learning to speak, the cerebellum is very active because you're learning to coordinate parts of your body.



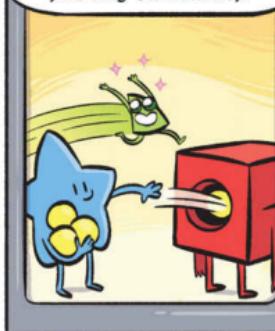
Once you have a handle on language, the cerebellum takes a back seat and lets the rest of your brain do the heavy lifting.



The three main types of memory, sensory memory, working (short-term) memory, and long-term memory, all work together to allow you to access, use, and create memories.

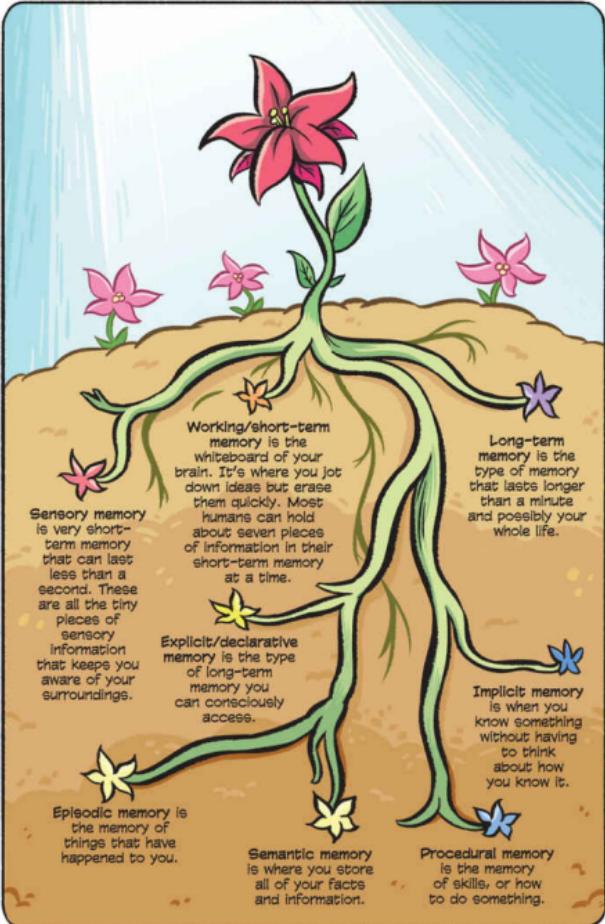


What you probably think of as "memory" is the transfer of information from your short-term memory to your long-term memory.



On the surface, memory seems incredibly straightforward—you either remember something or you don't.







So when you're given a list of things to remember, you store that in your working, or short-term, memory, which is overseen by your frontal lobe.

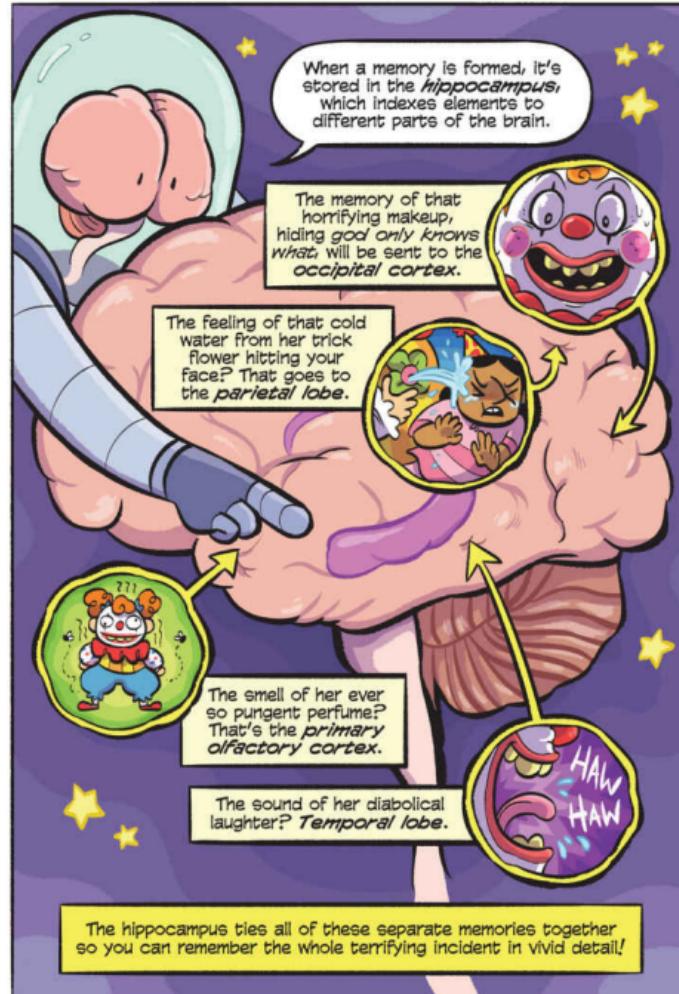


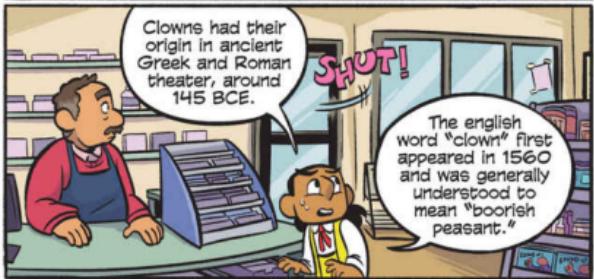
You remember how to ride a bike, but you don't have to think about it because the skill is saved in your cerebellum as a procedural memory.

As you ride a bike down the street, the cars and the people change, so you need to be using your senses to be constantly aware of your environment.



Everything that you've passed is your sensory memory. You don't need to remember this stuff for more than a second because it only exists to give an impression of the world around you.

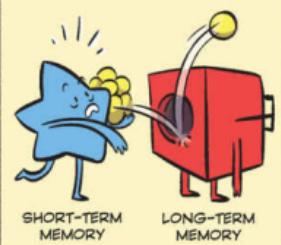




Semantic memory is the other type of explicit, or declarative, memory. This is the type of memory where you can remember facts, figures, and information without necessarily knowing where and when you learned it.



There are a few reasons why you forget things. Either the memory failed to encode, which means the memory never passed from your working memory to your long-term memory, or sometimes the memory is actually just lost (although this is rare)!

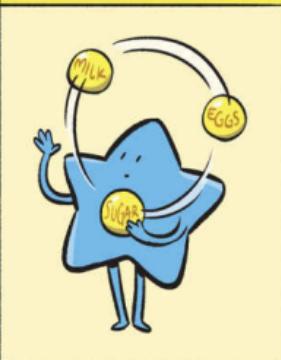


SHORT-TERM MEMORY LONG-TERM MEMORY

Or you might not have actually forgotten; you might have just failed to retrieve the memory. So the memory could still be there, but you're having trouble getting at it.



Your short-term memory can only hold a limited amount of information for a period of time.

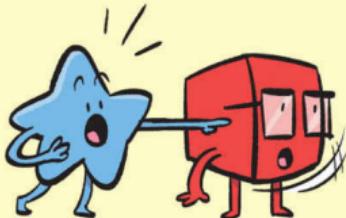


If something happens that takes priority in your short-term working memory—like a clown crisis, for example—your short-term memory will switch to that instead.

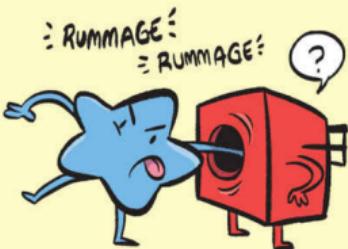


So other things, like a shopping list, might be lost.

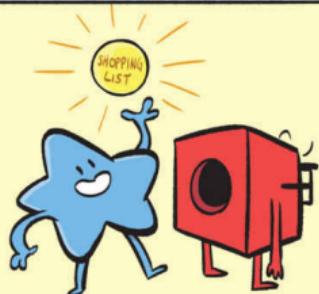
There are ways to trick yourself into remembering! We call these tricks memory prompts.



Instead of struggling to retrieve information from your short-term memory, try using your episodic memory!



You don't remember the list itself, but do you remember the conversation you had with your father? In remembering that conversation, you might then remember the list!



Why can't I remember?



Well, do you remember the first thing you wanted?



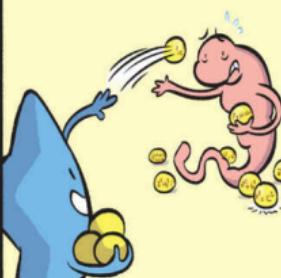
This is an example of a retrieval cue. That's a memory association that helps you retrieve a specific memory. It's easier to remember the first thing on a list than stuff randomly in the middle. This is known as the serial position effect.



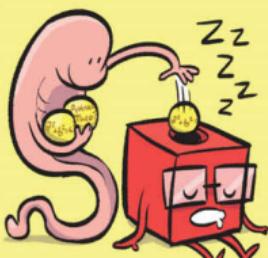
I was in the kitchen... Oh yeah, eggs and sugar! I need milk, eggs, and sugar!



When you want to move something to your long-term memory, you have to pay attention to it! The best way to do that is through practice over a period of time. That tells your hippocampus that this is important.



When you sleep, your hippocampus replays what you want to remember over and over again, firming the synaptic pathways and making the memory stronger.



You'll probably forget a shopping list pretty quickly, but that time you were in a shop and a mob of clowns came in and scared you? You might remember that for the rest of your life.

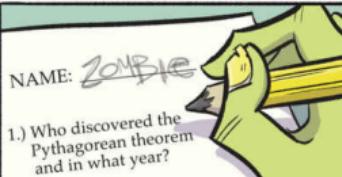


Okay, so if making lasting memories is all about transferring stuff from my short-term memory to my long-term memory, why can't I get 100% on all my tests?



There are lots of different ways to retrieve memories. It's all about how you encode and retrieve memories!

There are three ways to remember: recall, recognition, and relearning.



- 1.) Who discovered the Pythagorean theorem and in what year?

Recall is the ability to retrieve what you learned or experienced previously.

PYTHAGORAS OF GREECE
BETWEEN 570 BCE & 495 BCE
IT WAS LIKELY DISCOVERED MUCH EARLIER
IN ANCIENT BABYLONIA.

- 2.) Multiple-choice question:
Which of the following is the Pythagorean theorem?
a. $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$
b. $a^3 + b^3 = c^3$
c. $E = MC^2$

Recognition is the ability to identify information learned previously.

- 3.) Apply the Pythagorean theorem to determine the length of x:

$$6^2 + 8^2 = x^2$$
$$x = \sqrt{(6^2 + 8^2)}$$

Relearning is learning something for a second time. It goes more quickly than it did the first time.

Learning is the collection of knowledge or skills over time and the ability to adapt. You can examine past experiences and apply new information to solve problems.



Learning involves strengthening and changing synapses in your brain.

The stronger a synapse is, the faster you can react to a situation using the information, skills, or behavior that you've previously learned!



Learning is a lot like a path in a forest. The first time you walk the path, it can be hard to see where you're going.



You might not even know a path is there, but the more you walk it, the more clear and obvious the path becomes.



If this path is important enough to you, it might even turn into a street or highway! That's what learning is.



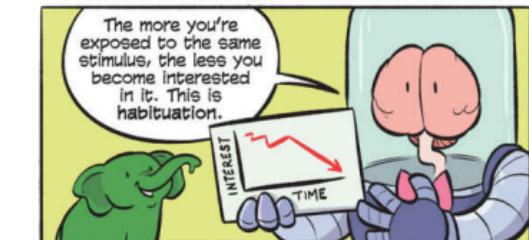
If you want to keep things really simple, there are two types of non-associative learning: habituation and sensitization.

Firstly, you might see something unusual and then get used to it over time.



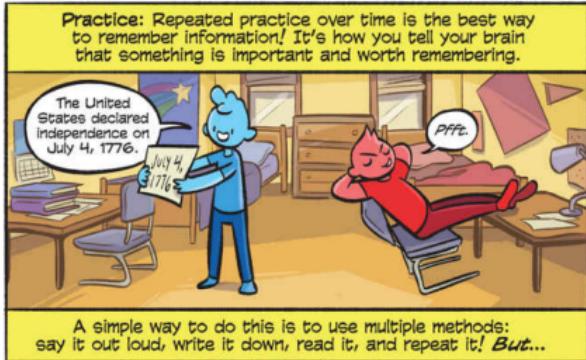
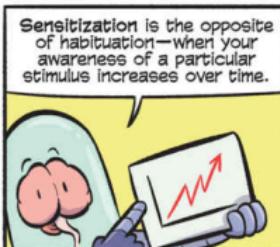
Let's say that on your walk to school, you might come across a house with a huge green elephant in the yard.

Obviously, a giant green elephant would surprise anyone, and you might be very interested, but if that same elephant is there every day, you'll get used to seeing her.



The more you're exposed to the same stimulus, the less you become interested in it. This is habituation.

Sensitization is the opposite of habituation—when your awareness of a particular stimulus increases over time.



Study small: Study a little bit every day, instead of studying for hours all at once! This makes it easier for your brain to absorb and store the information. Think of it like moving 100 bricks. If you try to carry them all at once, it'll be too heavy, but carrying one brick at a time is much easier.



Sleep: Sleep, sleep, **SLEEP!** Sleep is super important in transferring knowledge from your short-term memory to your long-term memory. If you've studied small, it's **much** better to get a full night's sleep before a test than to stay up all night cramming!



So to recap (because repetition is important!): Repeat what you've learned at regular intervals, even if you think you already know it. Don't overload yourself. And get enough sleep!



Think about intelligence like this: everyone has two eyes, a nose, and a mouth, but we all look very, very different.



Just like faces, no two brains are exactly the same! We all have two hemispheres, a corpus callosum, a temporal lobe, all that good stuff. But we all think, behave, and react differently.



The same is true for intelligence. No two people are exactly alike, and honestly, we would be in trouble if we all thought and behaved in exactly the same way! The world would end! Society would collapse!



That's a little dramatic.

Actually, not at all! To understand why, you have to understand what intelligence is.



Tell me, how would you define intelligence?

The ability to learn and acquire knowledge!

To be able to recognize problems and apply our knowledge to solve them.

The ability to communicate your ideas!



TYPES OF INTELLIGENCE

Logic and Mathematics

A strong capacity to quantify, understand, and complete mathematical problems and to see patterns.



Linguistic
Use and understanding of language, both in speech and in thought. This is the ability to make yourself understood using language and the ability to understand language.



Spatial and Visual
The ability to visualize in three dimensions, to navigate the environment, and to reproduce mental images into a real-world space, i.e., drawing, sculpting, etc.



Kinesthetic
The ability to express one's feelings and ideas using your body. For example, the ability to score a goal in soccer or to express love and loss through dance.



Naturalistic
The ability to understand the non-human environment, to recognize the differences between types of plants and animals, and to understand the natural world.



Musical

The ability to create, reproduce, and recognize the elements of pitch, rhythm, and tone.



Interpersonal and Social

The ability to understand the motivations of other people. To be able to interact with other people well, to be able to empathize with another person's perspective, and understand both verbal and nonverbal communication.



Intrapersonal

To be able to understand one's own goals and motivations. Being highly self-motivated and tending to think about existential questions, like "What's the meaning of life?"



There are basically eight types of intelligence.

Most people are a combination of these types, and not just exclusively one.

(It's worth pointing out that this is just one theory of intelligence! There are all sorts of other theories out there. Everybody's brain is awesome!)

Every person in the world has a different mix of these types of intelligence!



For example, an architect needs to have very strong math and spatial intelligence. They also need to be able to work alone, in addition to being able to work in a group.



Doctors need to have a strong understanding of biology and have the ability to communicate what's going on. They also need to be able to understand and empathize with their patients.



A farmer has to be able to work independently and be self-motivated.

They need to understand the world around them in a literal sense, to weigh different factors like the wind, rain, and sun, and to apply these factors to different types of plants and animals with different needs.



Cartoonists need to be able to work alone and be self-motivated.

They need to have an understanding of anatomy and the three-dimensional world in order to draw it. They also need to be able to use their body to help express themselves through drawing.



The mixture of different people with different types of intelligence is how we have innovation, invention, discovery, and society!



Some people have a kind of intelligence that lets them do really well in school, but there are also plenty of people who have a kind of intelligence that lets them do really well in sports, drawing, or any other number of skills! Don't ever underestimate your intelligence or the intelligence of those around you!

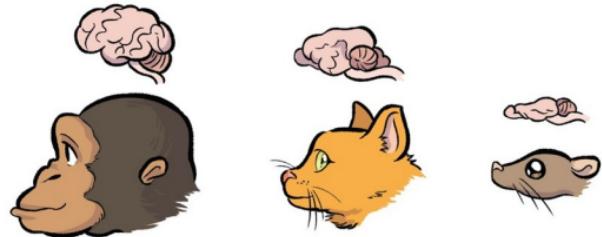


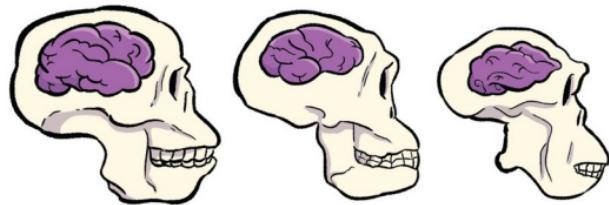
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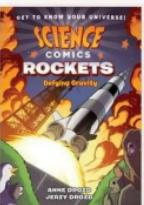
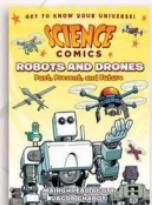
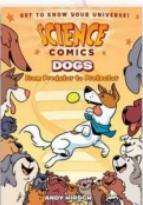
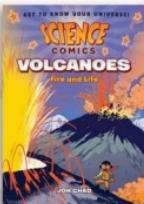
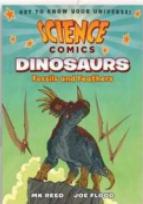
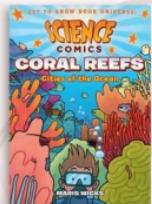






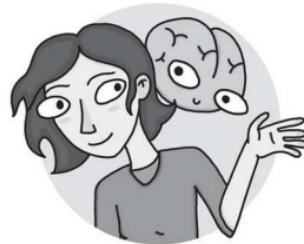
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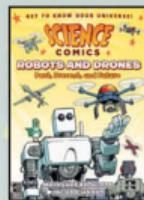
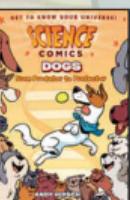
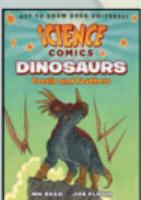
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