

BRAIN STORIES

Game rules

Face up

Face down

3

To place his card the player can :

1. Insert the card into a timeline (general or disciplinary).

When the player has chosen and announced out loud where he/she wants to place the card, the player turns it face down to reveal the date of the event.

5

2. Open a disciplinary timeline.

The player can place his/her card alongside a card in the main timeline to start a new timeline.

The new card must be correctly placed alongside a card from the same century. If the player gets the wrong century, the card is discarded and replaced, and it is the next player's turn.

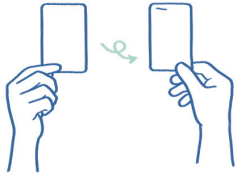
- If the player opens a disciplinary timeline with a card belonging to two fields, it is still possible to place cards belonging to either (or both) of these fields in this timeline.

7

Joker cards can be placed in any disciplinary timeline. If a Joker card opens a new disciplinary timeline, the field of that timeline will be determined by the next card correctly placed in that timeline.

9

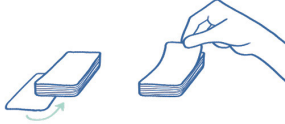




• If the card is correctly placed in relation to the other cards already in the timeline, it remains there. The round ends there.

• If the card is incorrectly placed in the timeline, the player discards it : the card goes back under the deck. The player draws a new card and his/her turn ends there.

The turn passes to the next player in a clockwise direction.



6

Aim of the game

Be the first player to place all the cards in your hand in the right place on the timeline(s)!

Set up

Shuffle the 80 cards. Deal 5 cards to each player. Players place their cards face up on the table (without the date).

The rest of the cards form the deck (face up). Place the first card of the deck in the centre of the table face down (with the date). This card is the starting event for the main timeline of the game.

The player who has most recently learned something about the brain begins.

How the game is played

On his/her turn, the player chooses a card from those placed in front of him/her. He/she must place this card in chronological order in relation to the one(s) already present in the centre of the table. The chronological order is represented by the alignment of the cards from the left (oldest events) to the right (most recent events).

4



Knowledge about the brain has been mixed up. Will you manage to put it back in order before everything is lost forever?

(Re)Discover Brain Stories!

Contents

80 cards corresponding to events that have marked the history of knowledge about the brain, divided according to their respective fields:

- 31 cards in **Medicine and Anatomy**
- 23 cards in **Physiology**
- 23 cards in **Psychology and Philosophy**
- 10 cards in **Artificial Intelligence**
- 7 Joker cards

Beware: 14 cards belong to two fields at the same time.

2

Partner organizations:

- NeuroSchool
- Aix-Marseille Université
- CNRS
- LNC (Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives) - UMR 7291

Game created by Estelle Nakul (PhD in Neuroscience)

Illustrations by Océane Gardet-Pizzo
Supported by the SATT Sud-Est

We warmly thank Anne Kavounoudias (Professor in Neuroscience, LNC - UMR 7291, AMU, CNRS), Zoé Dary (PhD Student in Neuroscience, LNC - UMR 7291, AMU, CNRS), and Fanny Trifilieff (Communications officer and translator) for their help and comments in the making of this game.



As soon as a card belonging to only one field is placed in the timeline, that card determines the field of that timeline.

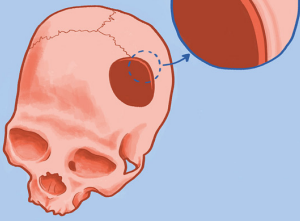


You can only create one disciplinary timeline per field of study, i.e. a maximum of four disciplinary timelines, in parallel with the general timeline. A disciplinary timeline can only contain cards belonging to the same field.

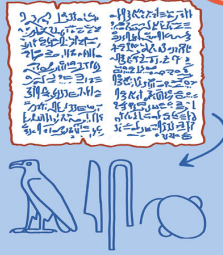
Some cards belong to two fields: they can be placed in either of the disciplinary timelines.



8



Early trepanned skulls sometimes show scarring which indicates that the subjects survived. Trepanning consists of making a circular hole in the skull, either to reduce the pressure on it or for spiritual reasons.

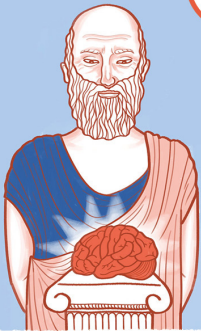


(Transcription of the word "brain" into hieroglyphs)

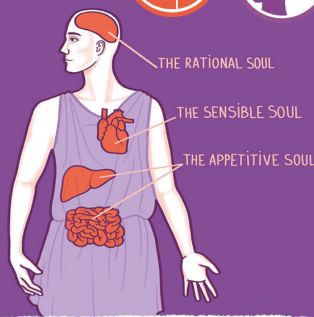
Edwin Smith's papyrus, the first known medical treatise, includes the word «brain» (or «medulla»). The author describes that damage to the brain induces disorders in the rest of the injured person's body on the side opposite the brain injury.



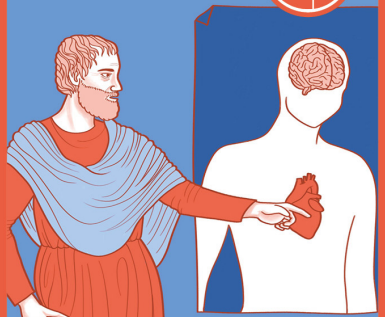
The first mention of automata appears in the Iliad. These autonomous artificial beings are capable of complex behaviors that can resemble those of humans. Greek mythology thus already evokes mechanisms common to technology and living beings.



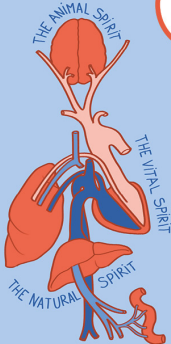
Hippocrates was born on the island of Cos. Father of Western medicine, he considered the brain to be the organ of thought and initiated the humoral theory: the functioning and health of the body is based on the circulation and balance of four fluids.



Plato founds the Academy. He teaches the theory of the three souls, each associated with a part of the body: the rational soul (intellect) in the skull, the sensible soul (feelings) in the heart and the appetitive soul (desires) in the liver and intestine.



Aristotle founds the Lyceum. He considers the heart as the seat of the intellect because it is at the center of the organism and it is warm, whereas the brain is cold. The brain only serves to temper the heat and restlessness of the heart.



Galen locates the mind in the brain. He distinguishes the encephalon, responsible for sensations, from the cerebellum, which controls the muscles by sending them spirits through the nerves, conceived as tubes. He based his work on numerous animal dissections.

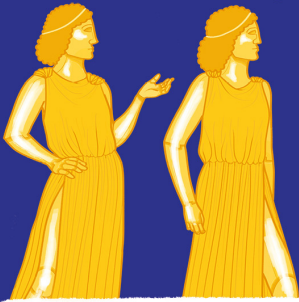


Nemesius develops the ventricular theory in his treatise *On the Nature of Man*. He divides the major mental faculties into three different cells, associated with the cavities of the brain, the ventricles.



Avicenna writes, in the Canon of Medicine, that the soul is in contact with the real world through sensation (the senses) and perception. According to him, perception internalizes the sensation thanks to internal faculties that he locates in the ventricles.

-760



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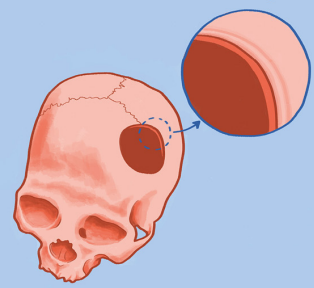
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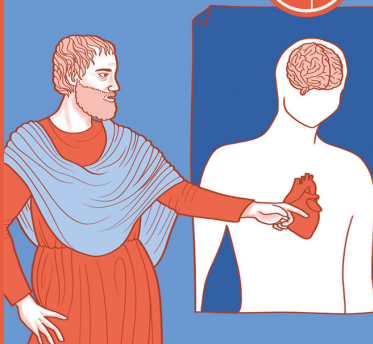
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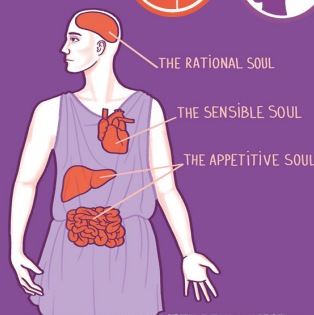
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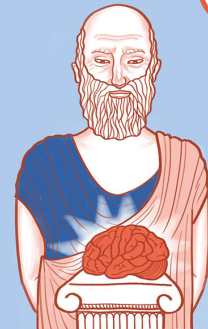
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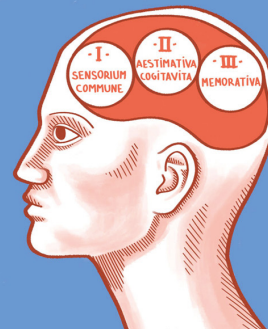
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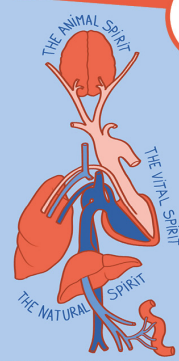
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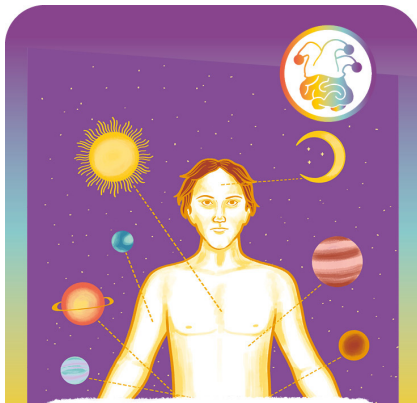


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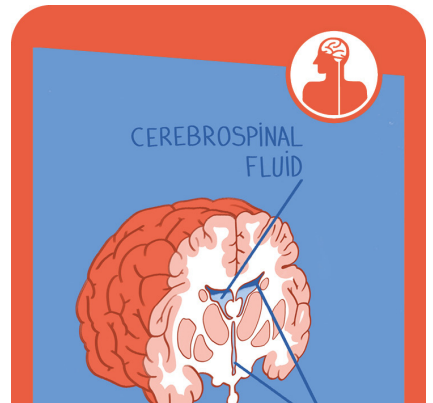
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Paracelsus was born in Switzerland. According to him, the body is a microcosm composed of different chemical elements and influenced by the universe (macrocosm). He opposed the humoral theory and sought the cause and cure of diseases in minerals (iatrochemistry).



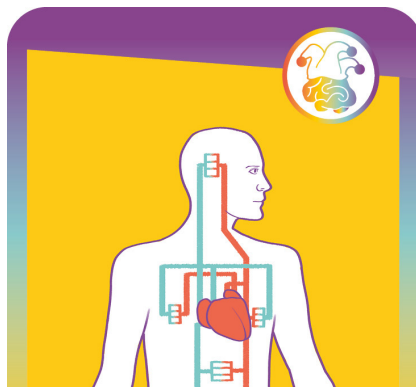
L. da Vinci molds the cerebral ventricles by injecting hot wax into the brain of a bovine, which he noticed had similarities to the human brain.



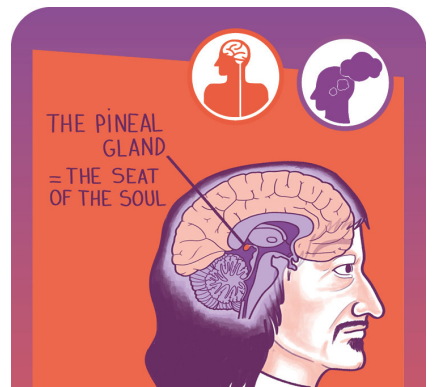
N. Massa publishes his book *Anatomiae Libri Introductorius*, in which he describes for the first time the existence of cerebrospinal fluid in the cerebral ventricles.




A. Vesalius publishes *De humani corporis fabrica*. He criticizes the humoral theory. Considered the father of modern anatomy, he provides very precise anatomical plates, including the subcortical nuclei. He makes a distinction between grey and white matter.




W. Harvey demonstrates that the blood system is closed: the volume of blood is constant and the heart acts as a pump to circulate it throughout the body. He revolutionises medicine and is part of the mechanistic movement.



In *The Passions of the Soul*, R. Descartes dissociates the soul from the body (dualism). The soul is said to control the pineal gland, in the center of the brain. This gland would activate the "animal spirits" which diffuse themselves in liquid form through the nerves to activate the muscles.



In *Cerebre anatome*, T. Willis defends a solidist view. The cerebral functions do not come from the ventricles (cavities full of fluid) but from the solid tissues of the brain, the grey matter and the white matter. He creates the term neurology.



J. Swammerdam shows that a muscle does not change in volume when it contracts, because the level of water in which it is immersed does not move. Thus, the nerves do not seem to bring gases or fluids into the muscles to make them move.



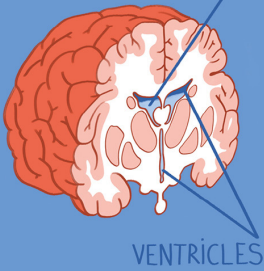
G.W. Leibniz imagines the calculus ratiocinator, an algorithm that should be able to determine the truth and falsehood in any discussion based on the mathematical formalisation of statements. His goal is to put logic into equation form.

INSTEAD OF ARGUING, WE COULD SAY: LET'S COUNT!

1536



CEREBROSPINAL FLUID



VENTRICLES

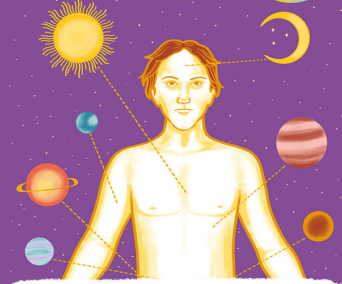
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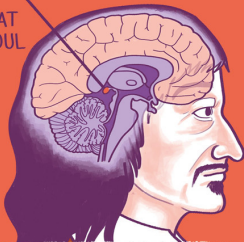


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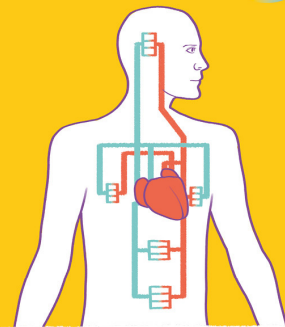


THE PINEAL GLAND = THE SEAT OF THE SOUL



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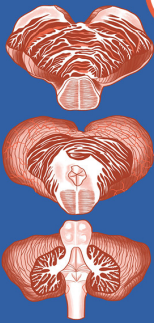
J. de Vaucanson invents an automaton duck, which behaves like a living duck and simulates digestion and defecation. Vaucanson's duck and other humanoid automata suggest that living things also rely on cause-and-effect mechanisms.



A. Morandi Manzolini becomes professor of anatomy at the University of Bologna. Thanks to numerous dissections, her wax sculptures are very precise and show elements as small as capillaries and nerves for the first time.



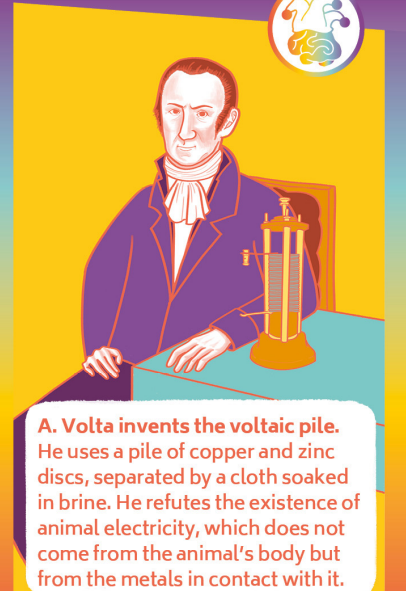
J. Walsh demonstrates that the torpedo produces electricity (to defend itself or to hunt). As the discharge from the fish causes a spark, it provides experimental proof that animal electricity exists.



F. Vicq d'Azyr publishes his *Treatise on anatomy and physiology*, in which he provides anatomical illustrations so precise that they are still relevant today. He describes the cerebral convolutions, names the gyri, and uses coronal sections.



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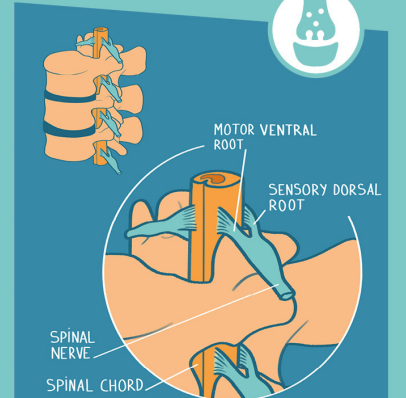
A. Volta invents the voltaic pile. He uses a pile of copper and zinc discs, separated by a cloth soaked in brine. He refutes the existence of animal electricity, which does not come from the animal's body but from the metals in contact with it.



J. Spurzheim calls the theory of his professor F. Gall phrenology. They locate different brain functions in different places in the brain. According to them, the shape of the skull follows the shape of the brain and reveals the characteristics of the person.



J. Parkinson describes the symptoms of what he calls *shaky palsy*, which is characterized by slowed movements, tremors and rigidity of the body.



F. Magendie shows the distinction between motor ventral roots and sensory dorsal roots of the spinal nerves, by clarifying C. Bell's discoveries. He founds physiology as an experimental science.

1772



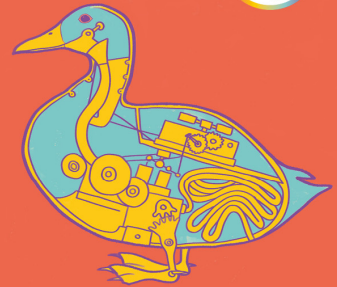
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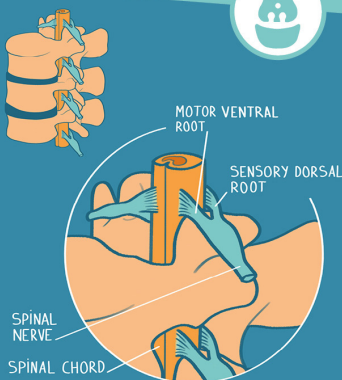
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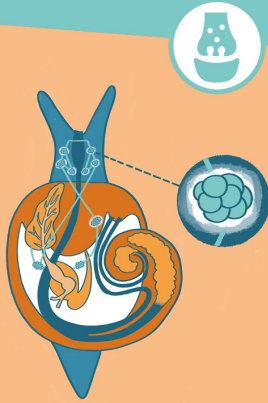


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1810



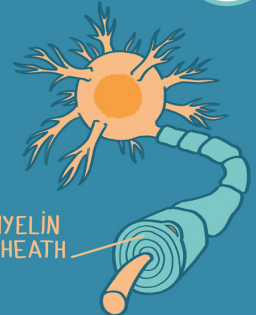
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G. Duchenne de Boulogne tests the clinical applications of electricity. He opens an electrotherapy clinic in Paris, conducts muscle stimulation experiments and precisely describes the pathological muscle atrophies (myopathies).



T. Schwann discovers the existence of a myelin sheath surrounding axons in the peripheral nervous system. This sheath is provided by glial cells (Schwann cells) that surround the neurons.



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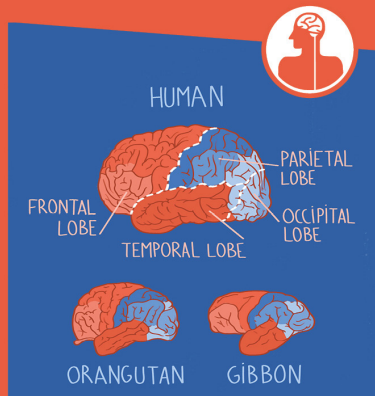
An iron bar goes through P. Gage's skull. He survives but becomes unstable and crude. J. Harlow finds that this is related to damage to the left frontal lobe of his brain. A. and H. Damasio later reconstruct the trajectory of the bar using a computer.



H. von Helmholtz measures the speed of nerve conduction. He shows that there is a time lag between the reception of information and its perception.



G. Boole initiates a mathematical form of logic, which describes thinking with variables, operators and functions. Boolean algebra, or Boolean calculus, has many applications in computer science and for electronic circuit design.

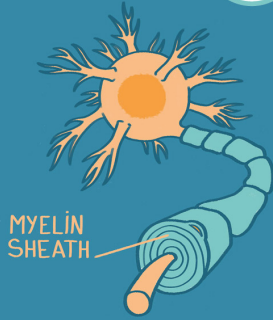


L. Gratiolet compares the cerebral convolutions in different human and non-human primates. He notes that the closer one gets to humans in the phylogenetic tree, the more the brain is folded. He divides the cortex into five lobes.



J. Regnaud determines for the first time the potential difference between the surface of the frog muscle and its section, obtaining values between 24 and 61 mV.

1839



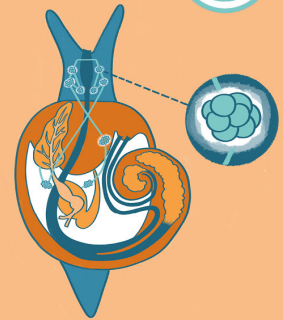
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1850



26,4 METRES PER SECOND



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1848



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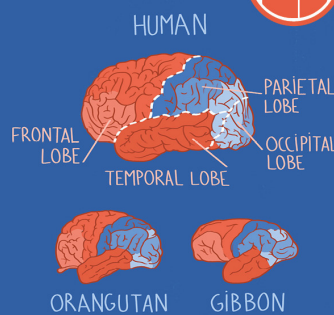


FROM 24 TO 61 mV



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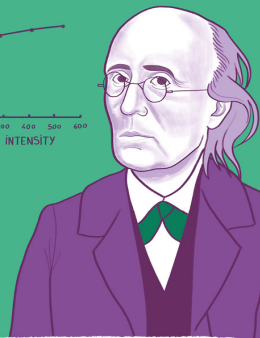
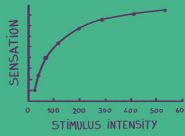
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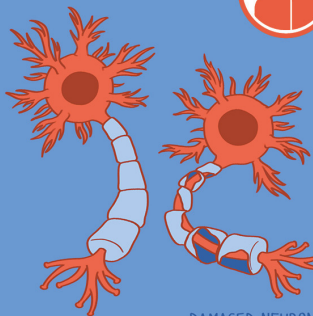
C. Darwin publishes *The Origin of Species*. He is interested in the evolution of mental faculties, instinct and intelligence, as well as language. He links them with the evolution of the brain over the course of a lifetime and over generations.



G. Fechner publishes *Elements of Psychophysics* and founds psychophysics, which relates the intensity of a stimulation to the perceived sensation.

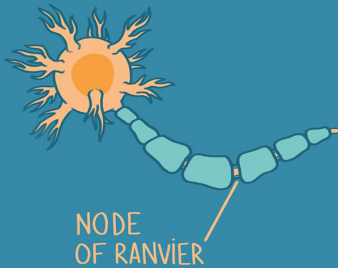


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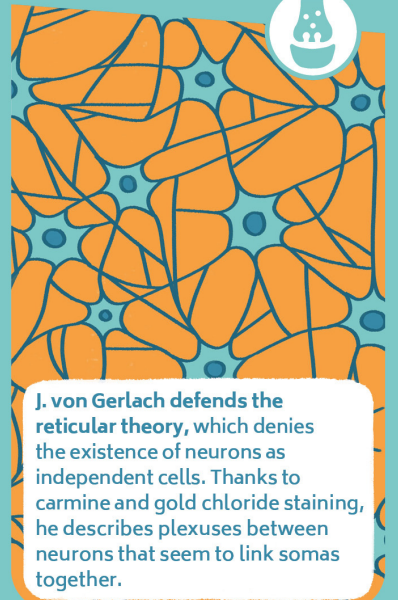


HEALTHY NEURON DAMAGED NEURON

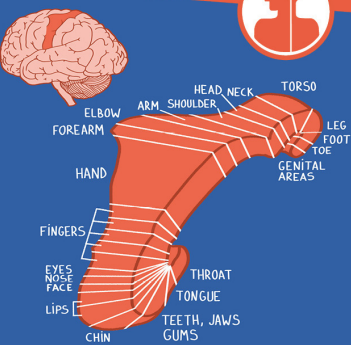
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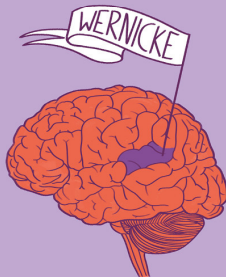
L. Ranvier describes the constrictions in the myelin sheath that bear his name, without understanding how they work.



J. von Gudden defends the reticular theory, which denies the existence of neurons as independent cells. Thanks to carmine and gold chloride staining, he describes plexuses between neurons that seem to link somas together.



J. Hughlings Jackson describes the somatotopic organization of the motor cortex. He noticed that during epileptic seizures, the convulsions progressively reached different parts of the body and deduced the existence of a body map in the brain.



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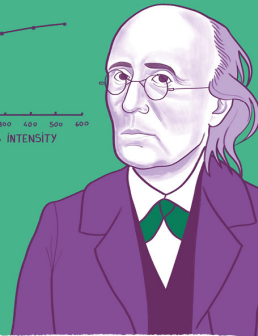
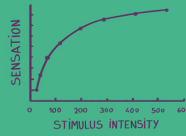
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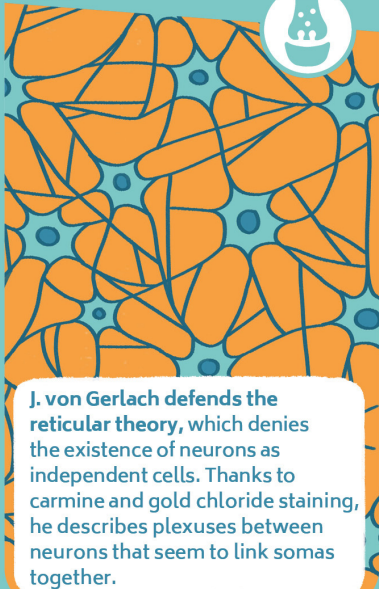
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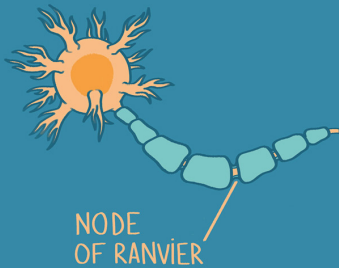
C. Darwin publishes *The Origin of Species*. He is interested in the evolution of mental faculties, instinct and intelligence, as well as language. He links them with the evolution of the brain over the course of a lifetime and over generations.

1872



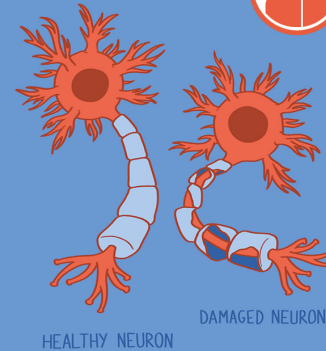
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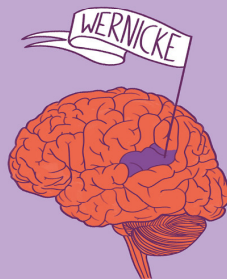
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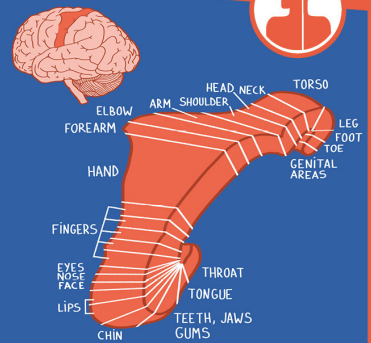
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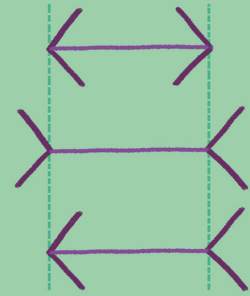
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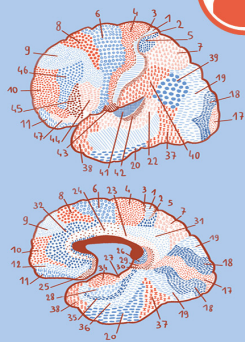
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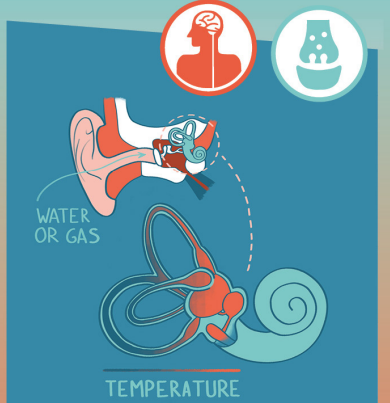
S. Ramón y Cajal and **C. Golgi** are co-winners of the Nobel Prize for their work on the structure of the nervous system. They still argue about the existence of independent neurons: Ramón y Cajal defends the cellular theory, Golgi defends the reticular theory.



K. Brodmann establishes a map of the human cerebral cortex with 52 areas defined according to the density and size of neurons, as well as the number of layers observed on histological sections. This is called cytoarchitectonic.

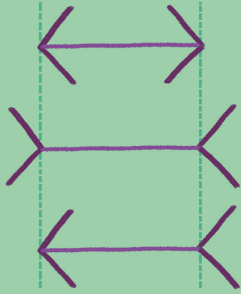


J. Watson finds behaviorism: behaviors would appear to be totally determined by the environment. In the « Little Albert » experiment, he conditions a child to be afraid of a stuffed rat, after having presented it several times with a frightening noise.



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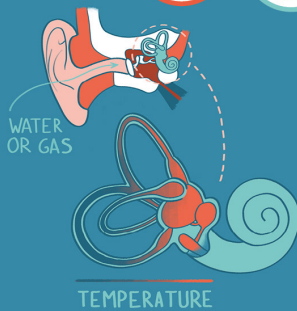
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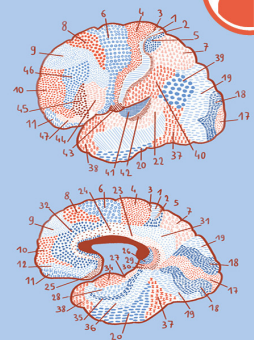
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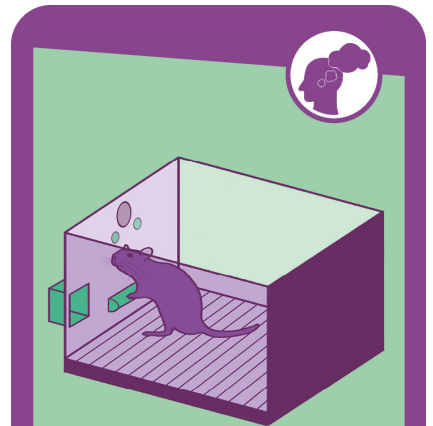
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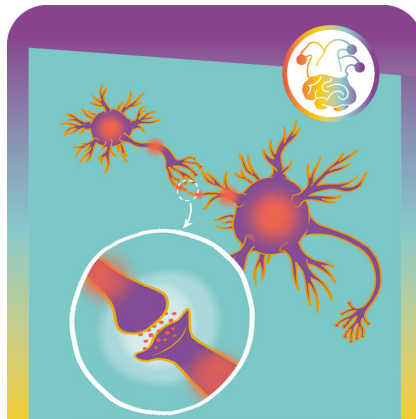
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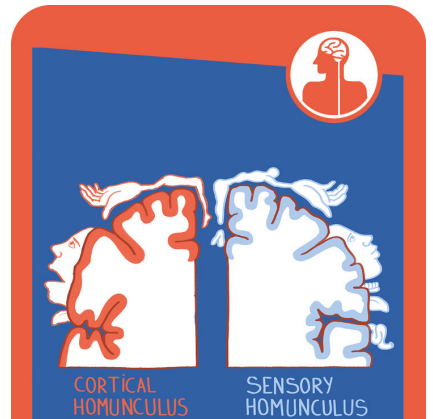
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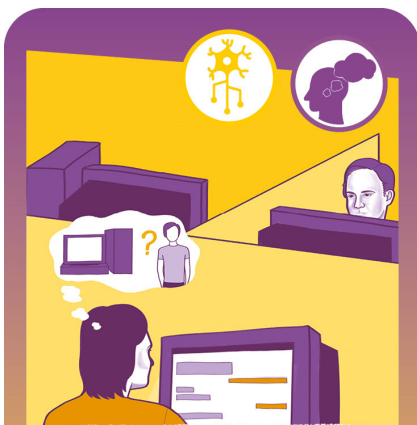
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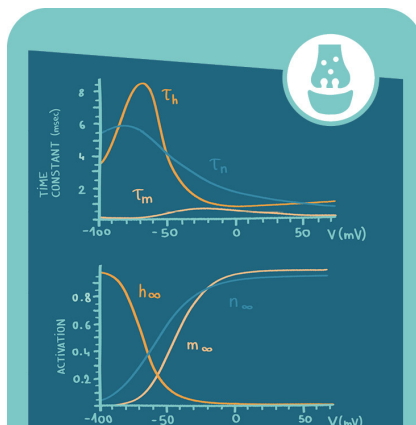
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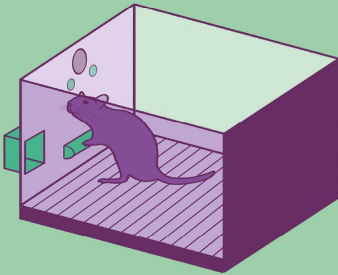


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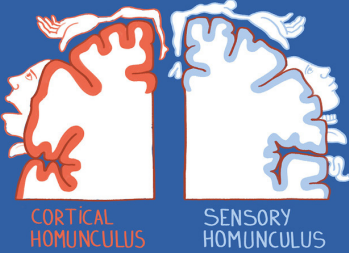
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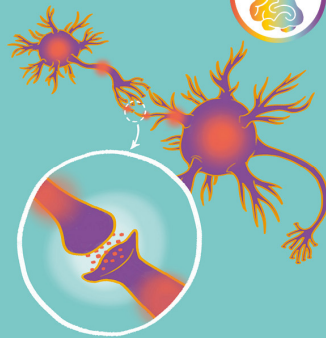
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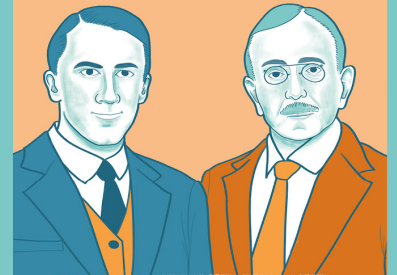
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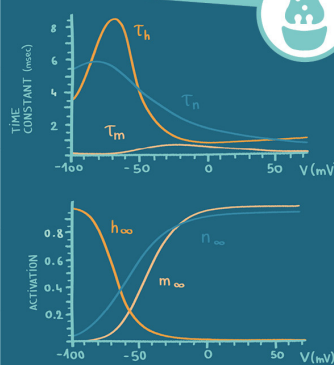
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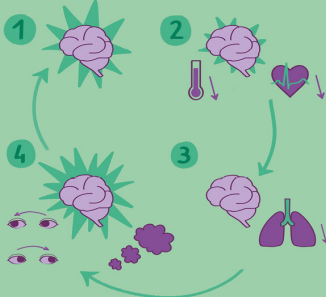
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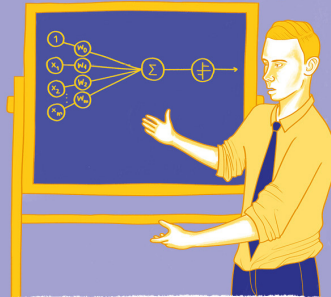
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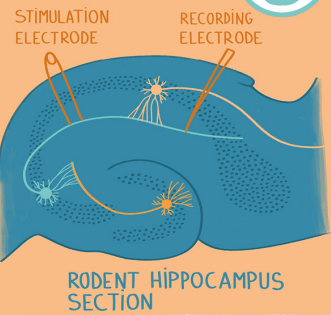
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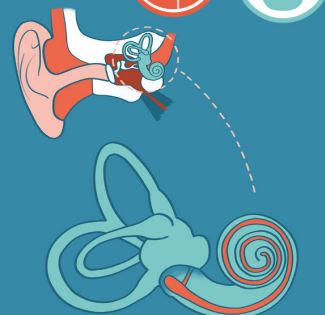
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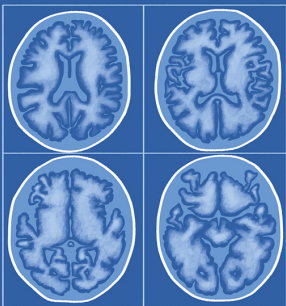
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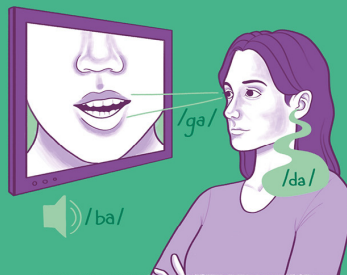
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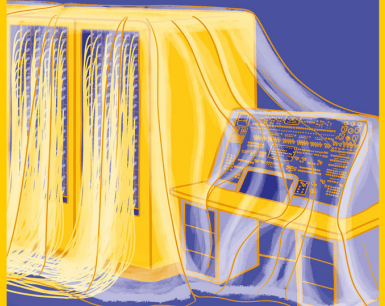
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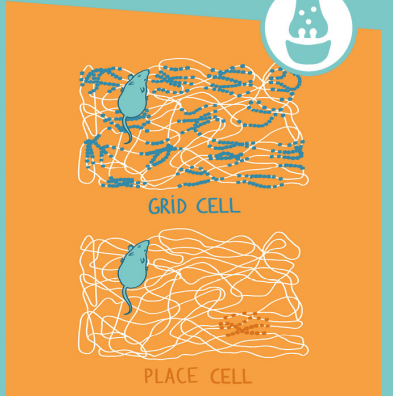
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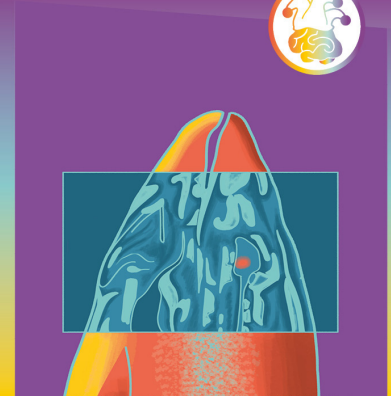
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