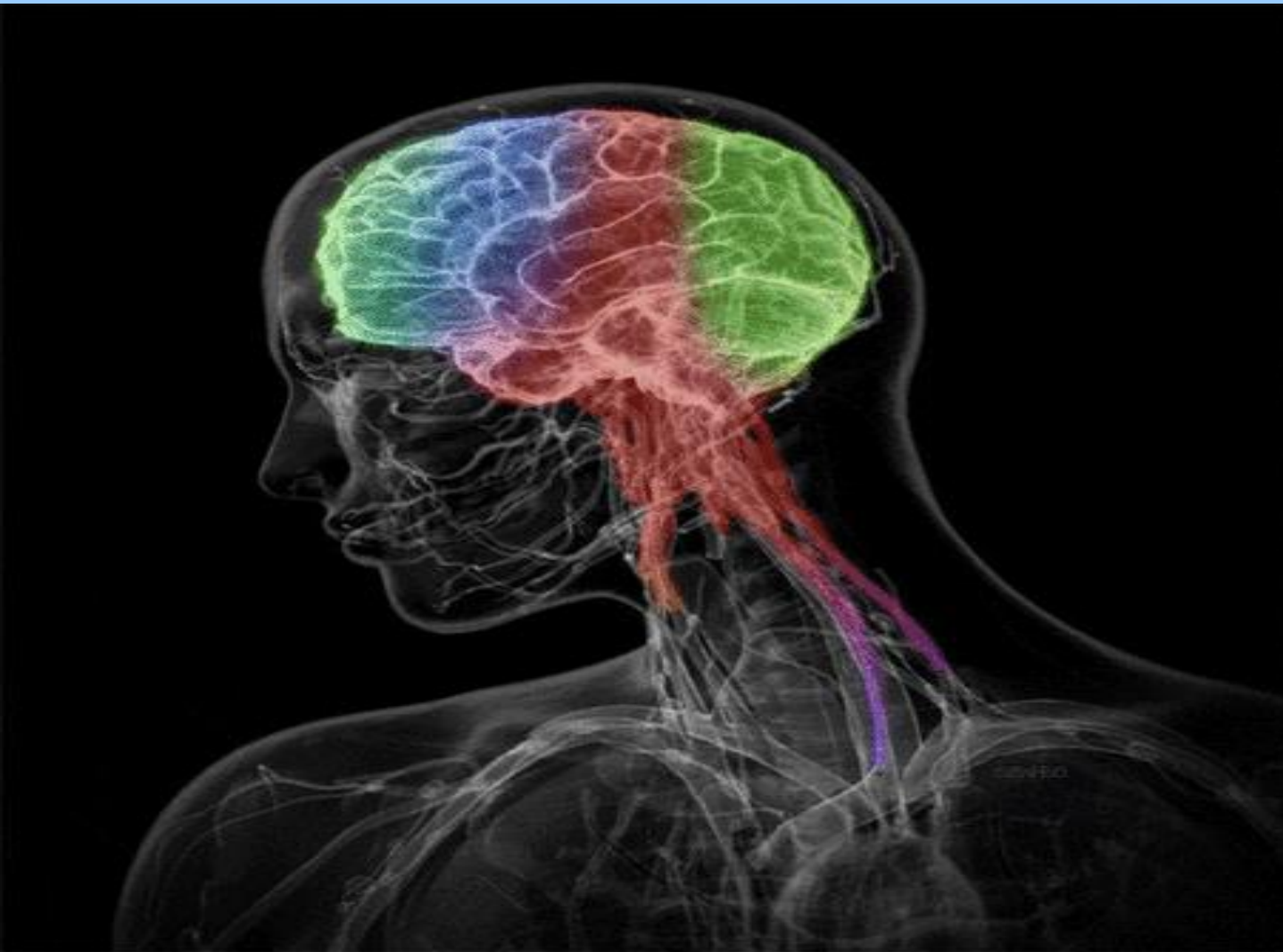
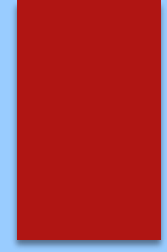


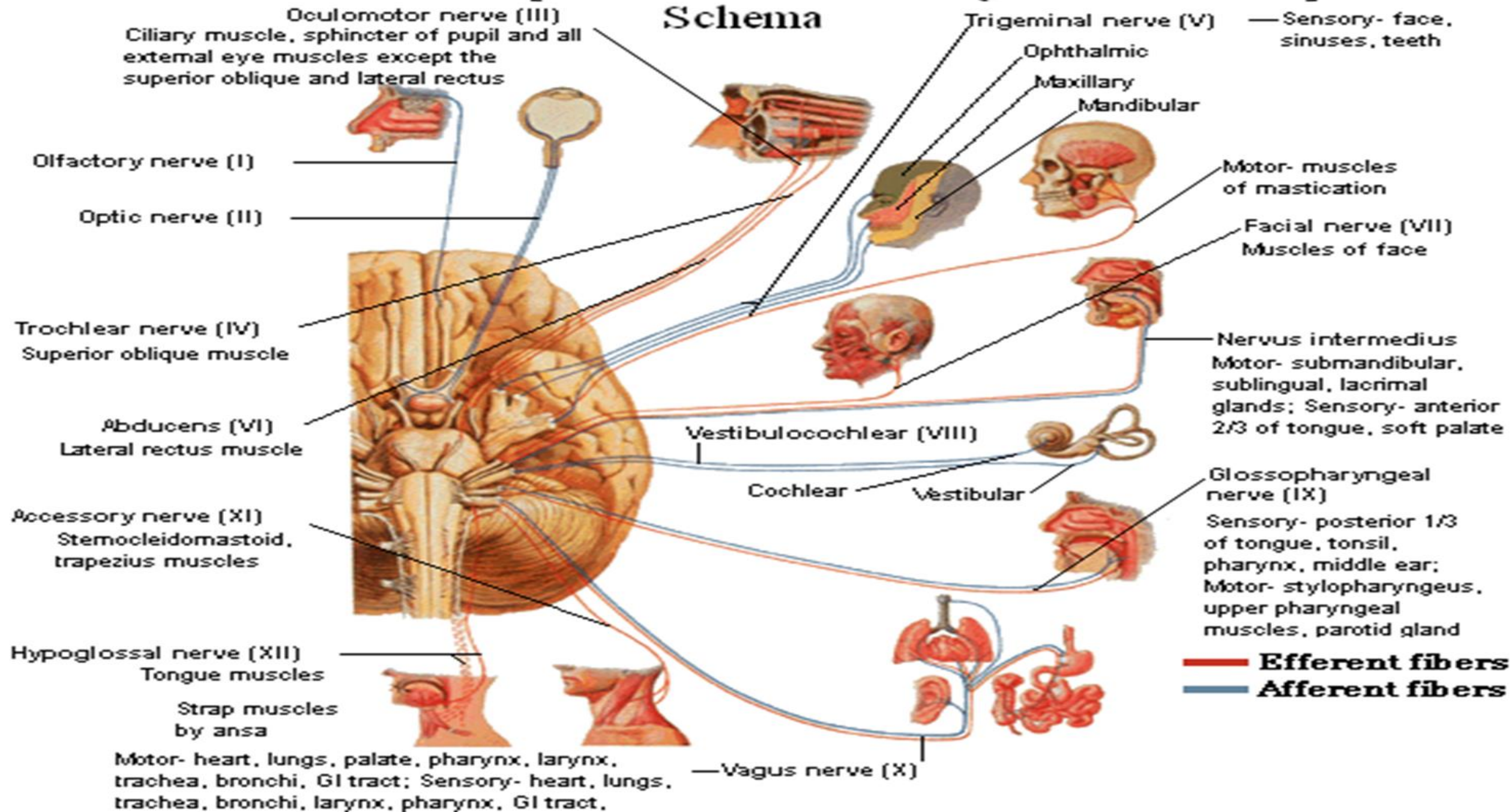
**Kharkiv National Medical University,
Department of Human Anatomy**



CRANIAL NERVES. SENSORY ORGANS.

Associate professor, PhD, Hordiichuk Daria

Cranial Nerves [Motor and Sensory Distribution]



Introduction to Cranial Nerve

- There are 12 pairs of cranial nerves which emerge from the brain itself. The first two olfactory and optic nerves are derived from the forebrain, whereas the remainder originate along the brain stem. These carry both efferent (motor) and afferent (sensory) fibres between the brain and the structures of the head and neck. In contrast to spinal nerves, cranial nerves exit through the cranium and are coated in a derivative of cranial meninges.

- ▶ **The cranial nerves are:**
- ▶ **CN I - Olfactory Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN II - Optic Nerve**
- ▶ **CN III - Oculomotor Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN IV - Trochlear Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN V - Trigeminal Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN VI - Abducens Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN VII - Facial Nerve**
- ▶ **CN VIII - Vestibulocochlear Nerve**
- ▶ **CN IX - Glossopharyngeal Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN X - Vagus Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN XI - Accessory Nerve**
 - ▶ **CN XII - Hypoglossal Nerve**

I Olfactory

Smell



II Optic

X



Vision

III Oculomotor



IV Trochlear



Down and In

V Trigeminal



Touch Forehead and Cheek
Clench Teeth

VI Abducens



Look Side to Side

VII Facial

Taste for the Anterior 2/3 of Tongue



Smile

VIII Acoustic



Hearing
Equilibrium

Glossopharyngeal

IX Posterior 1/3 of the Tongue



Speech

X Vagus



Defecation

Slowed Heart Rate

XI Spinal Accessory

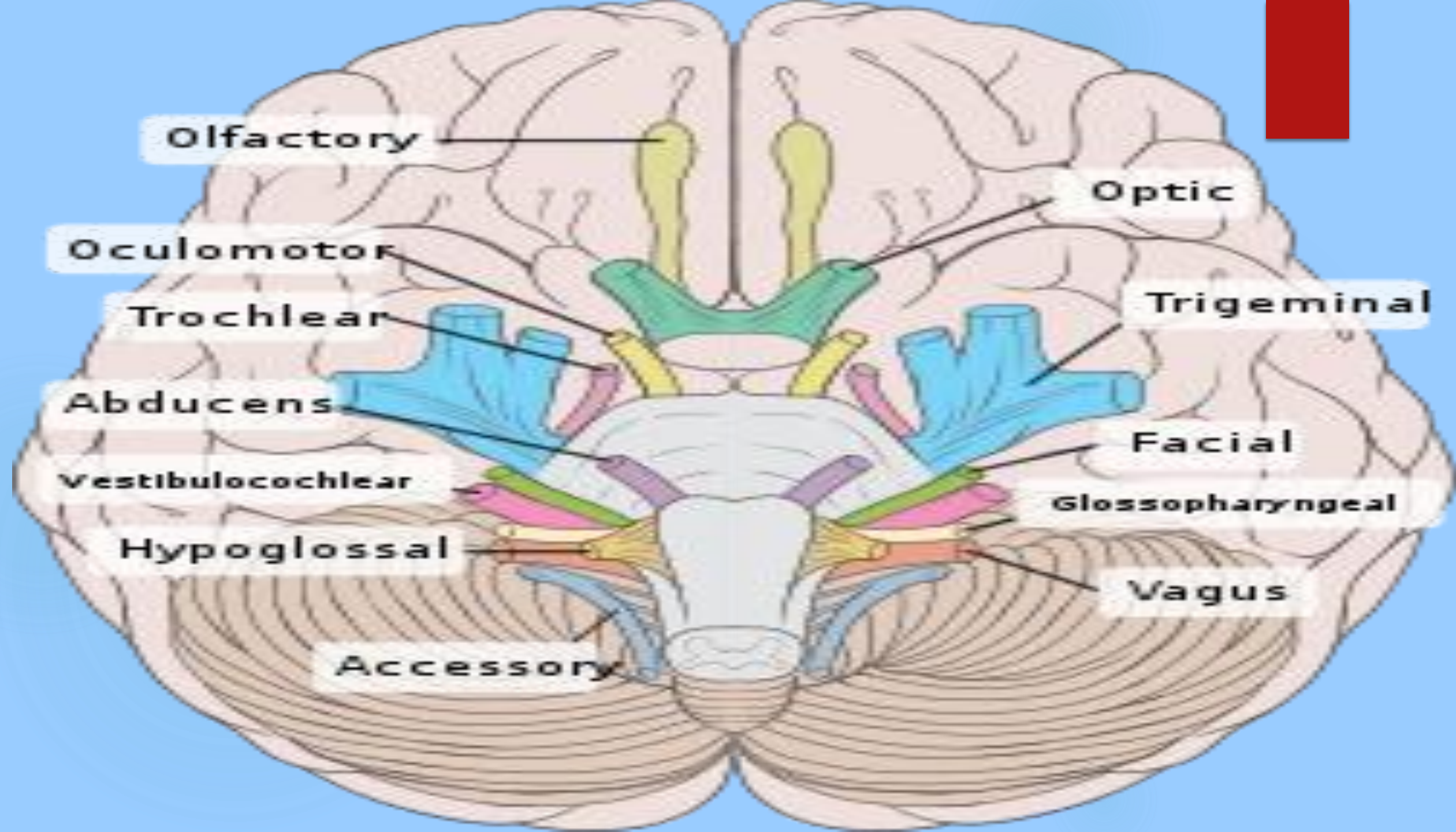


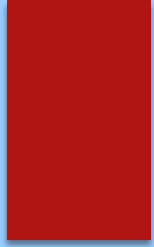
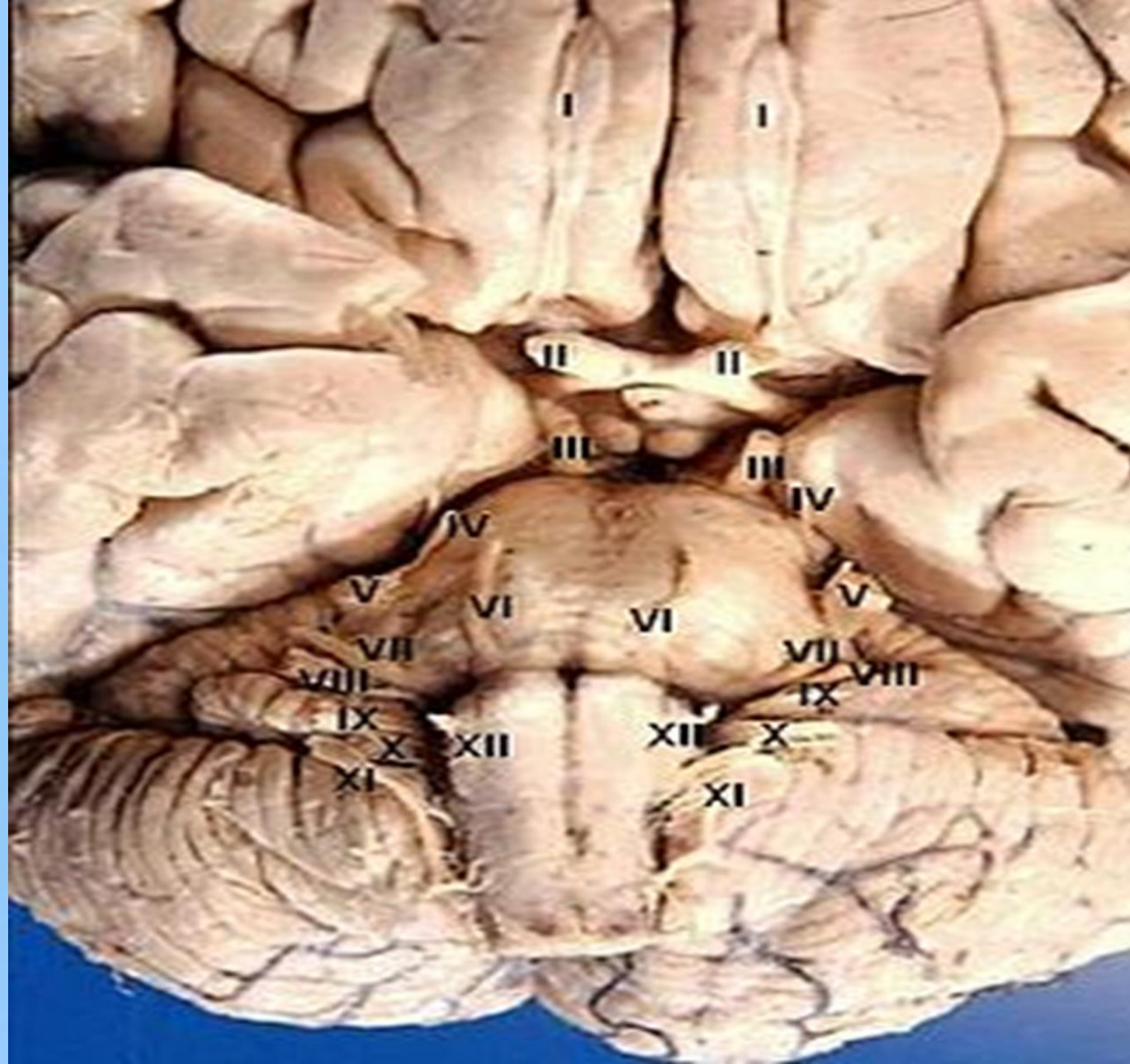
Shoulder Shrug

XII Hypoglossal



Tongue Movement





Classification of the Cranial Nerves

- ▶ It is possible to describe a cranial nerve in terms of its function and embryological origin, initially cranial nerves can be subdivided into being either:
 - ▶ **Motor** (efferent)
 - ▶ **Sensory** (afferent)
- ▶ And from there further categorization can occur.
- ▶ **Motor (efferent) Cranial nerves**
 - ▶ **-Somatic motor (general somatic efferent)**
 - ▶ (III, IV, VI, XII)
 - ▶ These cranial nerves are so called because they innervate muscles derived from the occipital somites, such as the extra ocular and extrinsic tongue muscles.

- **-Branchial motor (special visceral efferent)**
- (V, VII, IX, X, XI)
- These are described as branchial because they specifically innervate muscles which are derived from the branchial arches during development (muscles of mastication, larynx, facial expression, pharynx and middle ear)
- **- Parasympathetic (general visceral efferent)**
- (III, VII, IX, X)
- These nuclei do not innervate striated muscle like the branchial and somatic, they instead provide preganglionic parasympathetic fibers to innervate glands, smooth muscle and cardiac muscle within the head, heart, lungs and digestive tract above the splenic flexure.



▶ **Sensory (afferent) cranial nerves**

▶ **-Visceral sensory**

▶ **special visceral afferent-** (VII, IX, X)

▶ **general visceral afferent-** (IX, X)

▶ The name is related to the fact that it detects sensation from visceral organs.

▶ They are divided into special visceral, referring to the rostral portion of the nucleus which contributes to the special sensation of taste. Whilst the general visceral portion is named as such due to this caudal portion receiving general sensory impulses such as cardiac, respiratory

.

▶ **- General somatic sensory (general somatic afferent)**

▶ (V, VII, IX, X)

▶ These nuclei detect general sensation, such as touch, pain, vibration from the face, sinuses and meninges

▶ **- Special somatic sensory (special somatic)**

▶ (VIII)

▶ This carries information from the special sensation of hearing and balance.

- ▶ **4) CN IV (Trochlear nerve) Somatic motor** - Control of the superior oblique muscle leading to depression and intorsion (inward rotation of the upper pole) of the eye.
- ▶ **5) CN V (Trigeminal nerve) - General somatic sensory** - Sensation of touch, pain, proprioception and temperature for the face, mouth, nasal passages, anterior 2/3s of the tongue and part of the meninges (supratentorial dura mater).
- ▶ **Branchial motor** - It also innervates the muscles of mastication (masseter, temporalis, lateral pterygoid, medial pterygoid) and tensor tympani.
- ▶ **6) CN VI (Abducens nerve) - Somatic motor** - Controls the lateral rectus, leading to abduction of the eye.

▶ 7) CN VII (Facial nerve)

- ▶ **Branchial motor** - Innervates the muscles of facial expression as well as the stapedius and digastric muscle.
- ▶ **Parasympathetic** - Stimulates the lacrimal, sublingual, submandibular and other salivary glands (except parotid).
- ▶ **Special visceral sensory** - Senses taste on the anterior 2/3 of the tongue.

▶ 8) CN VIII (Vestibulocochlear nerve)

- ▶ **Special somatic sensory** - Controls the sensation of hearing and balance

▶ 9) CN IX (Glossopharyngeal Nerve)

- ▶ **Branchial motor** - innervates the stylopharyngeus
- ▶ **Parasympathetic** - stimulates the parotid gland
- ▶ **General somatic sensory** - detects sensation from the middle ear, near the External acoustic meatus (EAM), pharynx and posterior 1/3 of the tongue.
- ▶ **Special visceral sensory** - sensation of taste on the posterior 1/3 of the tongue.
- ▶ **General visceral sensory** - innervates chemo and baroreceptors on the carotid bodies.

▶ 10) CN X (Vagus nerve)

- ▶ **Branchial motor** - Innervates the muscles of the pharynx and larynx for swallowing and speech.
- ▶ **Parasympathetic** - innervation of the heart, lungs and digestive tract down to the splenic flexure.
- ▶ **General somatic sensory** - provides general sensation to the pharynx, meninges (posterior fossa) and a small region .
- ▶ **Special visceral sensory** - taste from the epiglottis and pharynx
- ▶ **General visceral sensory** - chemo and baroreceptors of the aortic arch

▶ 11) CN XI (Spinal Accessory nerve)

- ▶ **Branchial motor** - innervation of the sternocleidomastoid and upper part of trapezius muscle

▶ 12) CN XII (Hypoglossal nerve)

- ▶ **Somatic motor** - The intrinsic muscles of the tongue

Cranial nerves&function

S-SENSORY

M-MOTOR

B-(BOTH MOTOR & SENSORY)

some-1

say-2

marry-3

money-4

but-5

my-6

brother-7

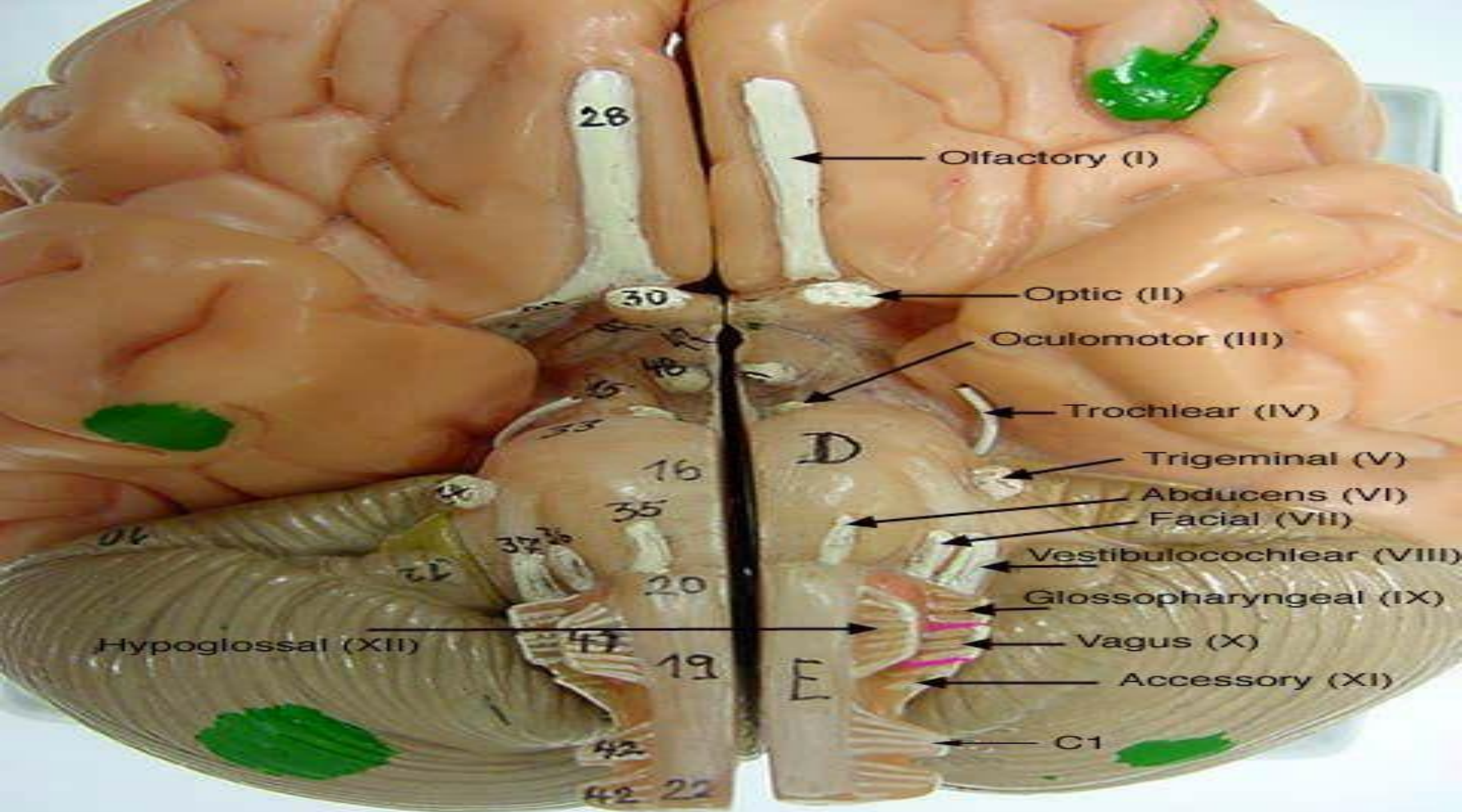
says-8

big-9

brains-10

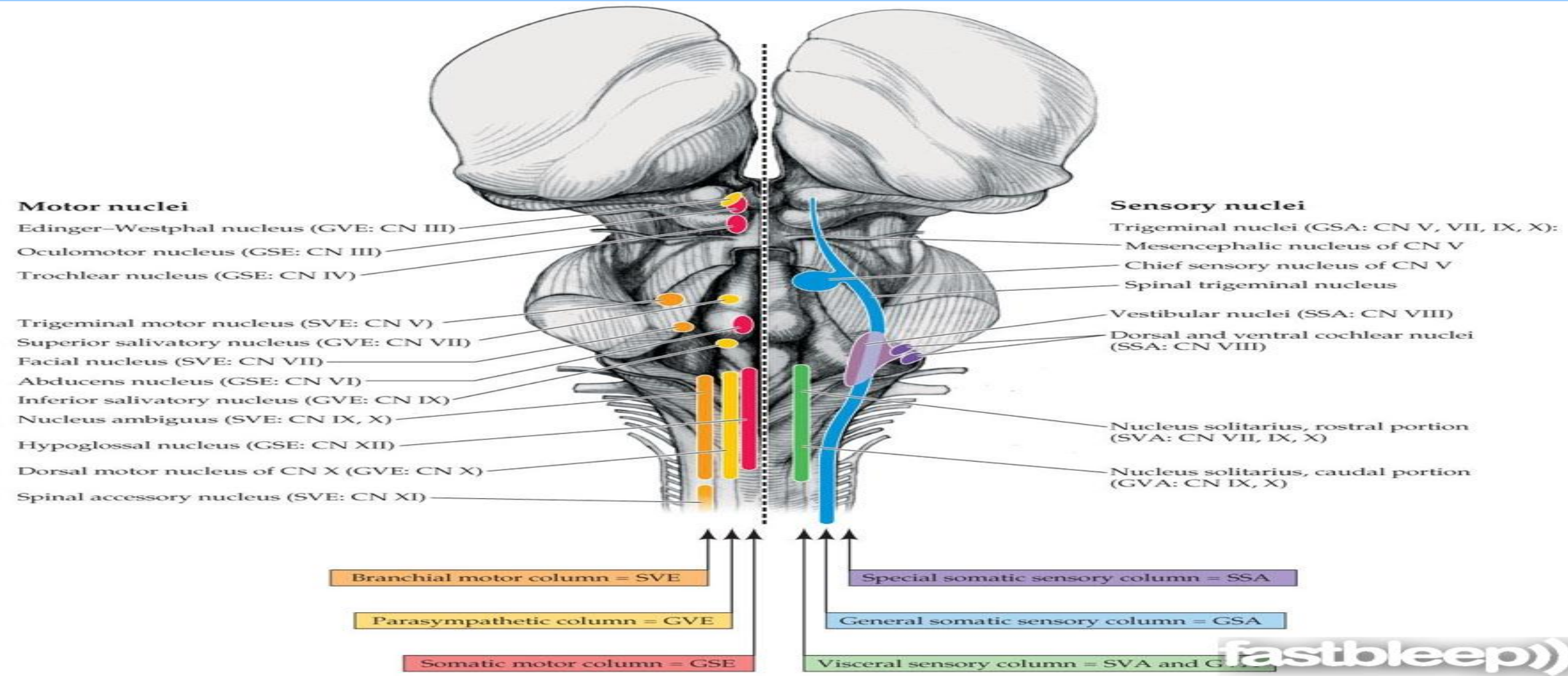
matter-11

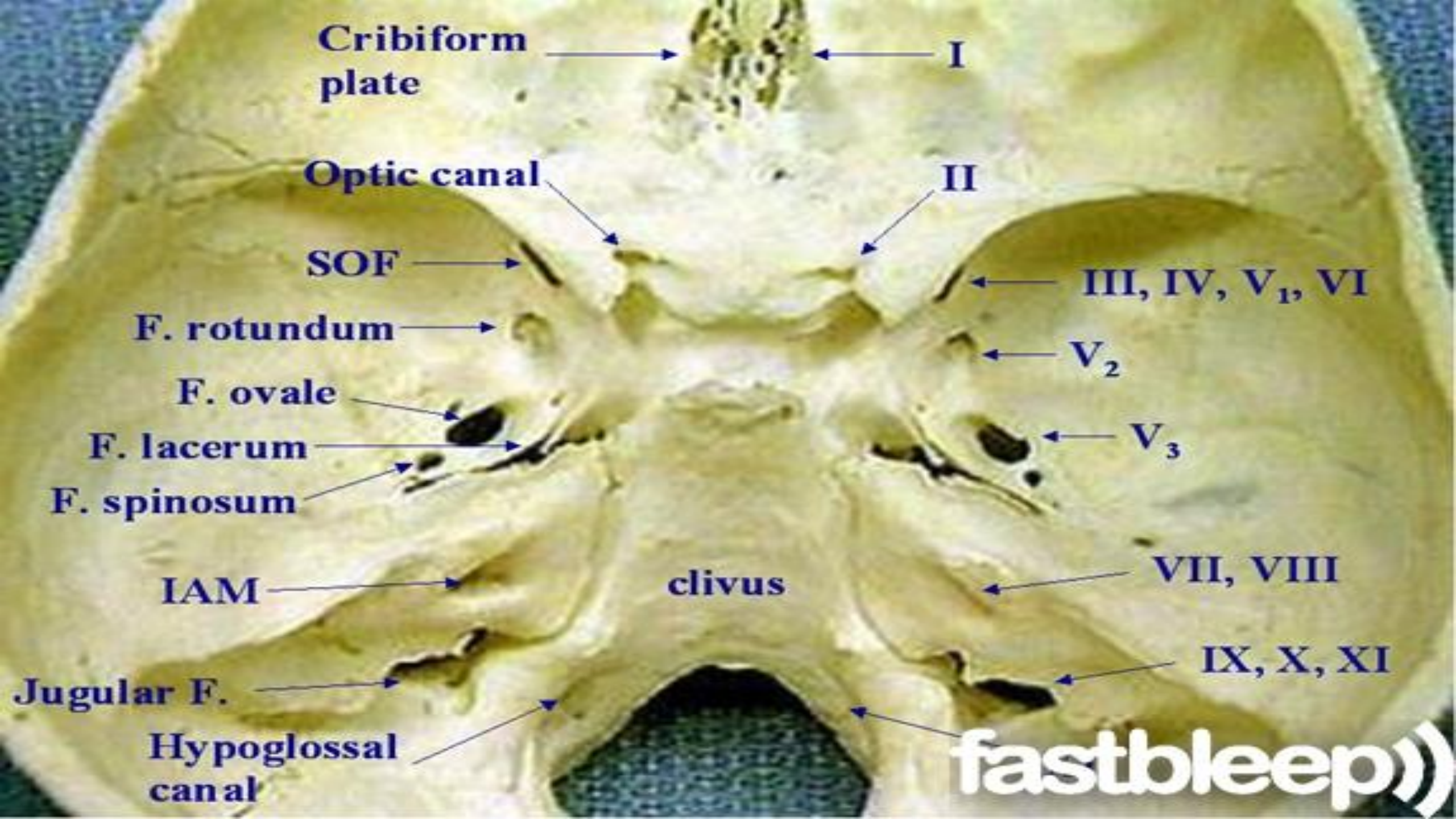
most-12



BRAINSTEM NUCLEI

The cranial nerves originate from pairs of nuclei (motor or sensory) within the brainstem, where like in the spinal cord, the motor nuclei are located ventrally whilst sensory nuclei are found dorsally along the brainstem. 3 motor and 3 sensory columns run the length of the brainstem.





Cribiform
plate

I

Optic canal

II

SOF

III, IV, V₁, VI

F. rotundum

V₂

F. ovale

V₃

F. lacerum

F. spinosum

VII, VIII

IAM

clivus

IX, X, XI

Jugular F.

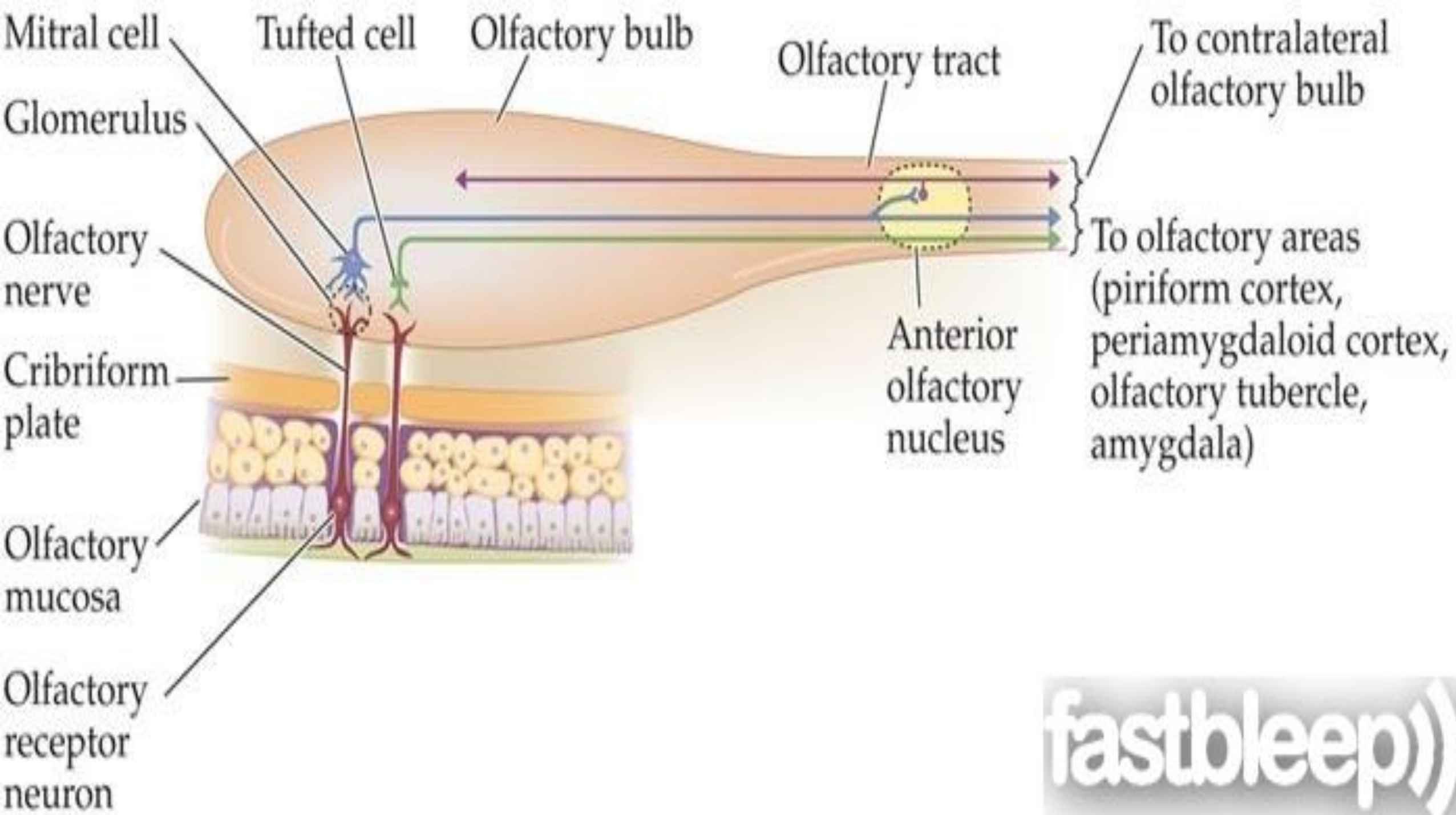
Hypoglossal
canal

fastbleep)

CN I

- ▶ Olfactory receptor neurones are found in the roof of the nasal cavity, the nasal septum and medial wall of superior nasal concha. These ciliated neurones are stimulated by aerosolised odour molecules dissolved in the surrounding mucus. On either side of the nasal septum, these receptor neurones pass through the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone by forming 20 olfactory nerves to reach the olfactory bulb found on the orbital surface of the frontal lobe, within the anterior cranial fossa.
- ▶ These olfactory nerves synapse onto mitral and tufted cells at the glomerulus of the olfactory bulb, which form the olfactory tract. These tracts form the anterior olfactory nucleus along its route, which can then form medial and lateral striae.

- ▶ The lateral stria projects to the primary olfactory cortex, formed of the piriform cortex and periamygdaloid cortex which is found near the medial tip of the temporal lobe. From here connections to the amygdala (involved in emotional olfaction) and entorhinal cortex (memory aspect of olfaction) exist.
- ▶ The medial stria projects through the anterior commissure to the contralateral olfactory bulb and cortex.



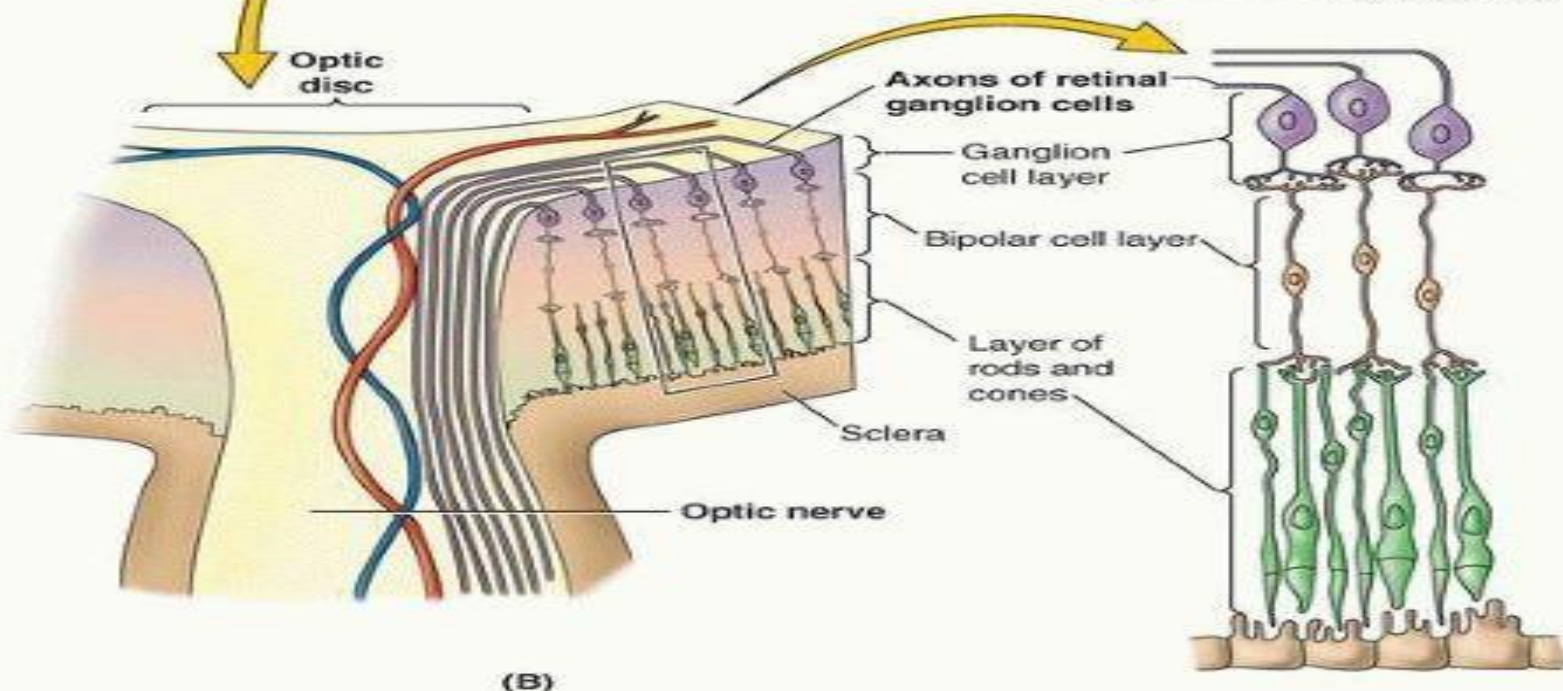
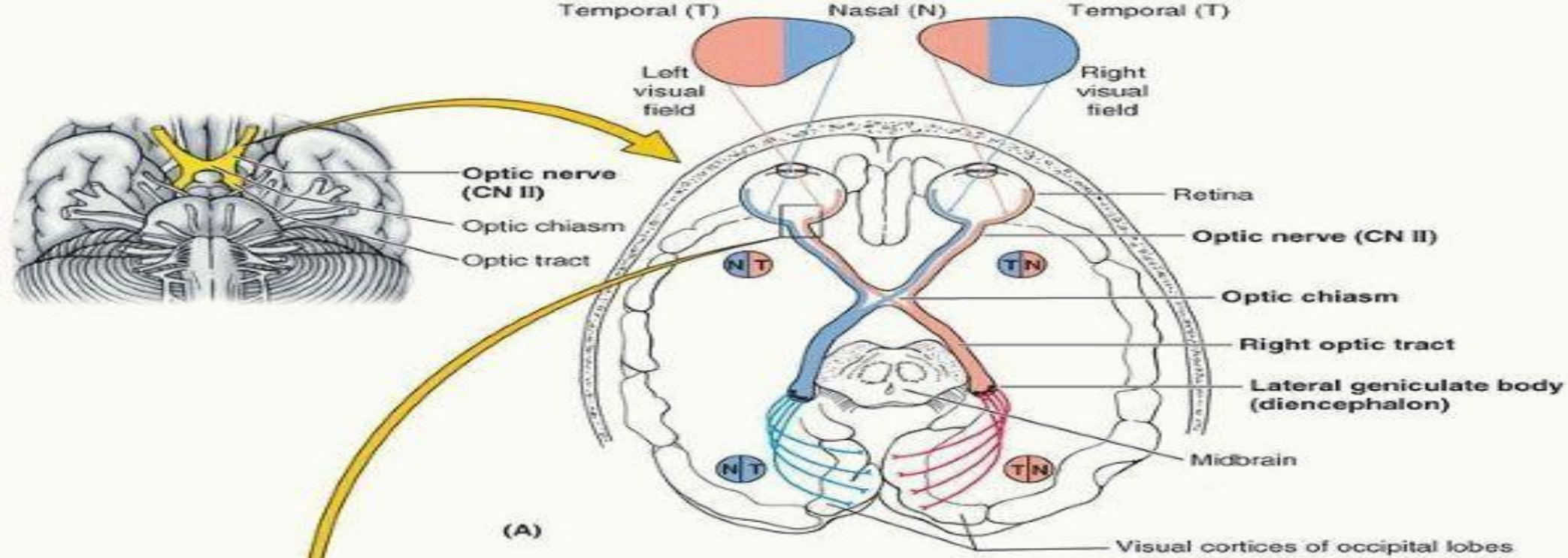
Clinical Correlation - Anosmia

- ▶ Usually patients with unilateral anosmia are unaware of their condition due to the contralateral nostril compensating. This is why each nostril must be tested individually.
- ▶ An important sign of bilateral anosmia is a loss of taste, due to the importance of olfaction to the sensation of flavour.
- ▶ Differential diagnosis of Anosmia:
 - ▶ Head trauma - These can damage the olfactory nerves as they pass through the cribriform plate.
 - ▶ Viruses - damage the olfactory neuroepithelium
 - ▶ Obstruction
 - ▶ Parkinson's/Alzheimer's - this is believed to be due to atrophy of the anterior olfactory nucleus.

- ▶ Intracranial lesions such as meningioma, metastases, meningitis or sarcoidosis when manifested on the frontal lobe cause anosmia. This is important, as frontal lobe lesions are usually difficult to detect and may produce no symptom other than anosmia.
- ▶ Temporal lobe epilepsy sometimes manifests with olfactory hallucinations, due to irritation of the lateral olfactory area.

CN II

- ▶ Embryologically CNII is derived from the diencephalon, so is formed of oligodendrocytes rather than schwann cells, hence CNII is considered a tract of the CNS not a nerve. CNII is unique in that it is covered with meninges.
- ▶ CNII begins where the unmyelinated axons of the retinal ganglion cells pierce the sclera and form the optic disc.
- ▶ These nerves enter the middle cranial fossa, by exiting the optic canal posteromedially where the optic chiasm is formed. Here decussation occurs, whereby the nasal (medial) fibres of the retina cross to join the uncrossed temporal (lateral) fibres to form the optic tract.
- ▶ Most of these fibres terminate in the lateral geniculate body of the thalamus, whereby the axons pass through two separate loops (Baum & Meyer) to enter the occipital cortex, the part of the cerebral hemisphere involved in visual processing.
- ▶ Some fibres enter the pre-tectal nucleus, through the brachium of the superior colliculus, and act as the afferent limb of the pupillary light reflex and control eye movements.
- ▶ Some other fibres enter the suprachiasmatic nucleus controlling circadian rhythms.

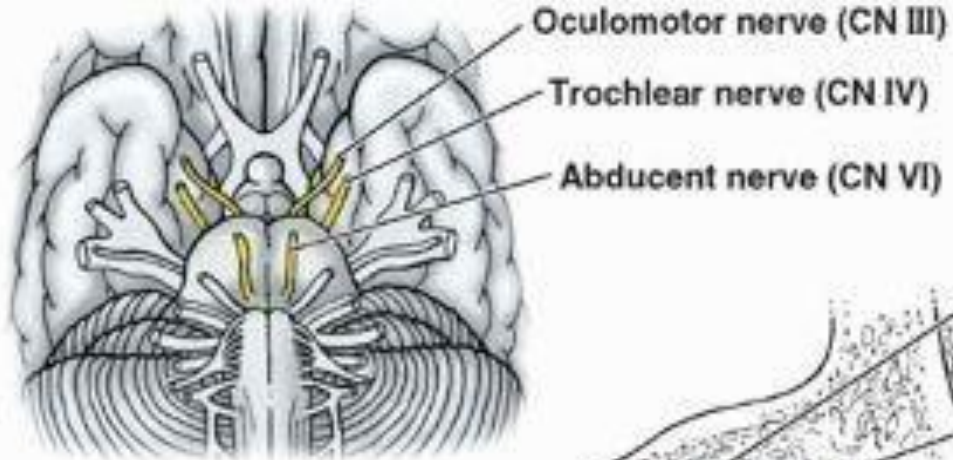


▶ **Clinical Correlation of CNII**

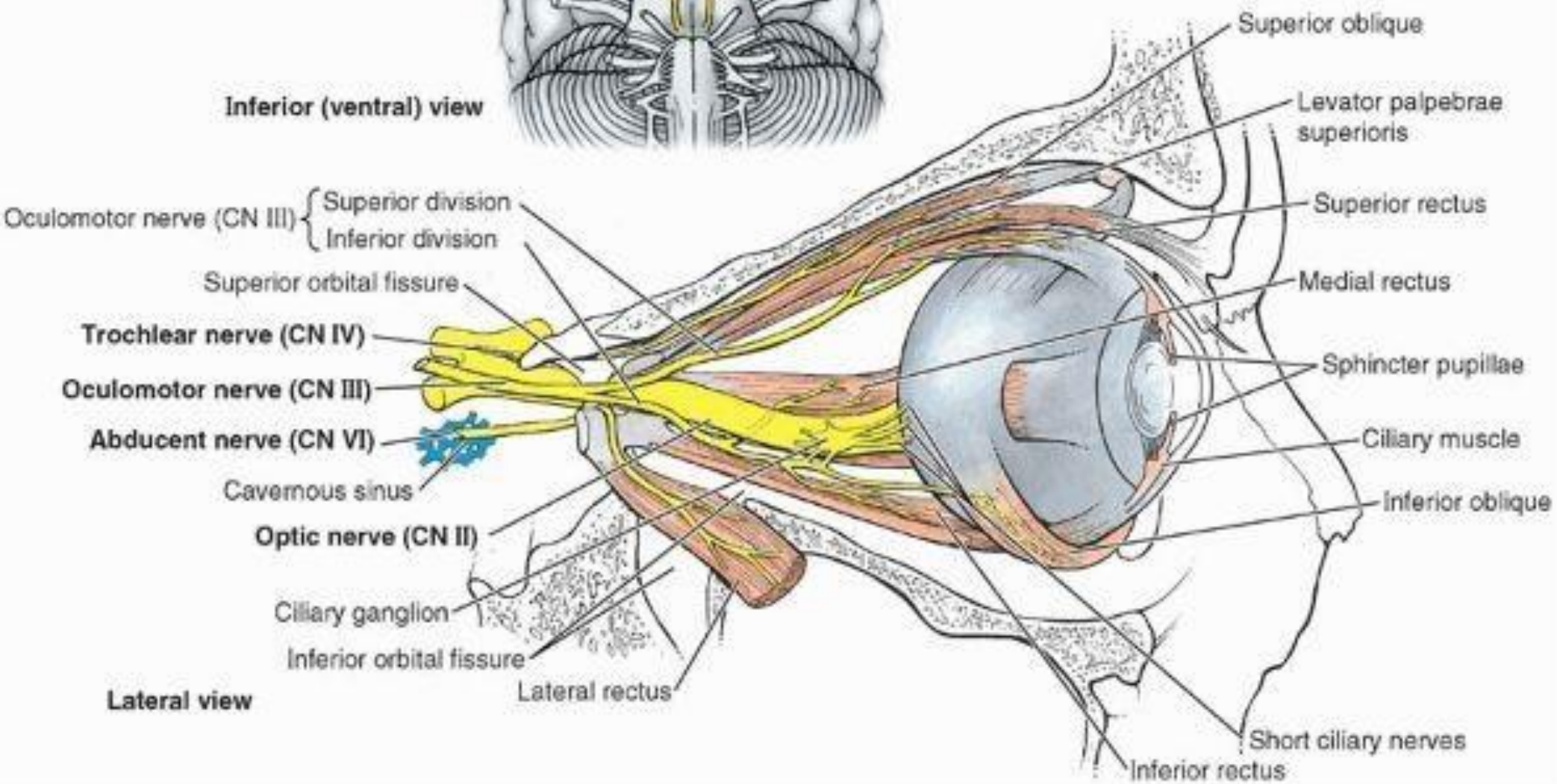
- ▶ Multiple sclerosis, which normally spares the PNS, affects the optic nerve, due to the fact it is a CNS tract rather than a PNS nerve. This results in optic neuritis, leading to loss of visual acuity/peripheral vision. Toxic substances such as alcohol or other inflammatory disorders may also precipitate this condition.
- ▶ Visual field defects can occur due to different lesions that occur along the length of the visual pathway. These lesions can obstruct the transfer of retinal information along the pathway and lead to a loss of a portion of the respective visual field that it was transmitting. This can commonly occur due to berry aneurysms or pituitary gland tumors.
- ▶ Quite commonly during a transient ischemic attack, occlusion of the retinal artery can occur by an emboli from a carotid stenosis which causes loss of vision in one eye for a brief period of time. This is a warning sign for impending retinal or cerebral infarcts.

CN III

- ▶ CNIII leaves the midbrain between the posterior cerebral and superior cerebellar arteries and pierces the sellar diaphragm over the hypophysis. Subsequently upon piercing the cavernous sinus, it enters the superior orbital fissure.
- ▶ CNII then forms two divisions:
- ▶ Superior division - innervates the superior rectus and levator palpebrae superioris.
- ▶ Inferior division - innervates the inferior and medial rectus and inferior oblique.
- ▶ Within the inferior division the **ciliary ganglion** is formed from parasympathetic fibres; these form short ciliary nerves to innervate the ciliary body and sphincter pupillae. This pre-ganglionic parasympathetic branch is derived from the Edinger-Westphall nucleus, and serves as the efferent (motor) limb of the pupillary light reflex.



Inferior (ventral) view



Lateral view

Clinical Correlation of CNIII

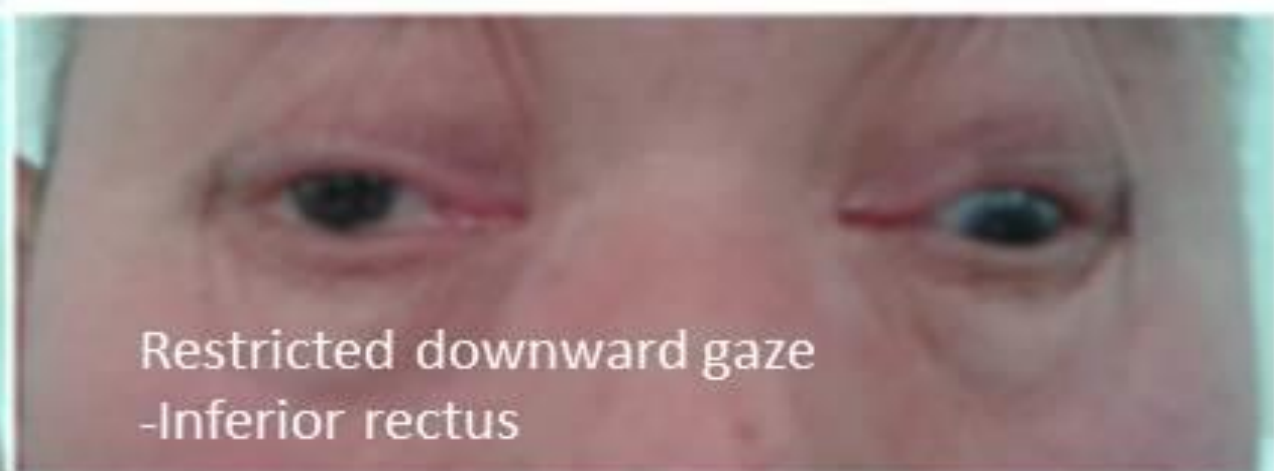
- ▶ Due to the close proximity of CNIII with the superior cerebellar, posterior cerebral and posterior communicating artery, any aneurysms here can lead to CNIII palsy. However due to the more medial and superficial aspects of CNIII carrying the parasympathetics, these are more likely to be compressed.
- ▶ Fractures of the cavernous sinus and a herniating uncus can also lead to CNIII palsy.
- ▶ Any loss of CNIII manifests with dilated pupils due to loss of parasympathetic constriction and absence of pupillary light reflex will be observed as the efferent limb is carried by CNIII. Ptosis may occur due to loss of levator palpebrae superioris. The eye will turn down and out due to overaction of CN IV and VI.



Ipsilateral ptosis
-Superior palpebrae superiorioris, Meuller's



Restricted upward gaze
-Superior rectus



Restricted downward gaze
-Inferior rectus



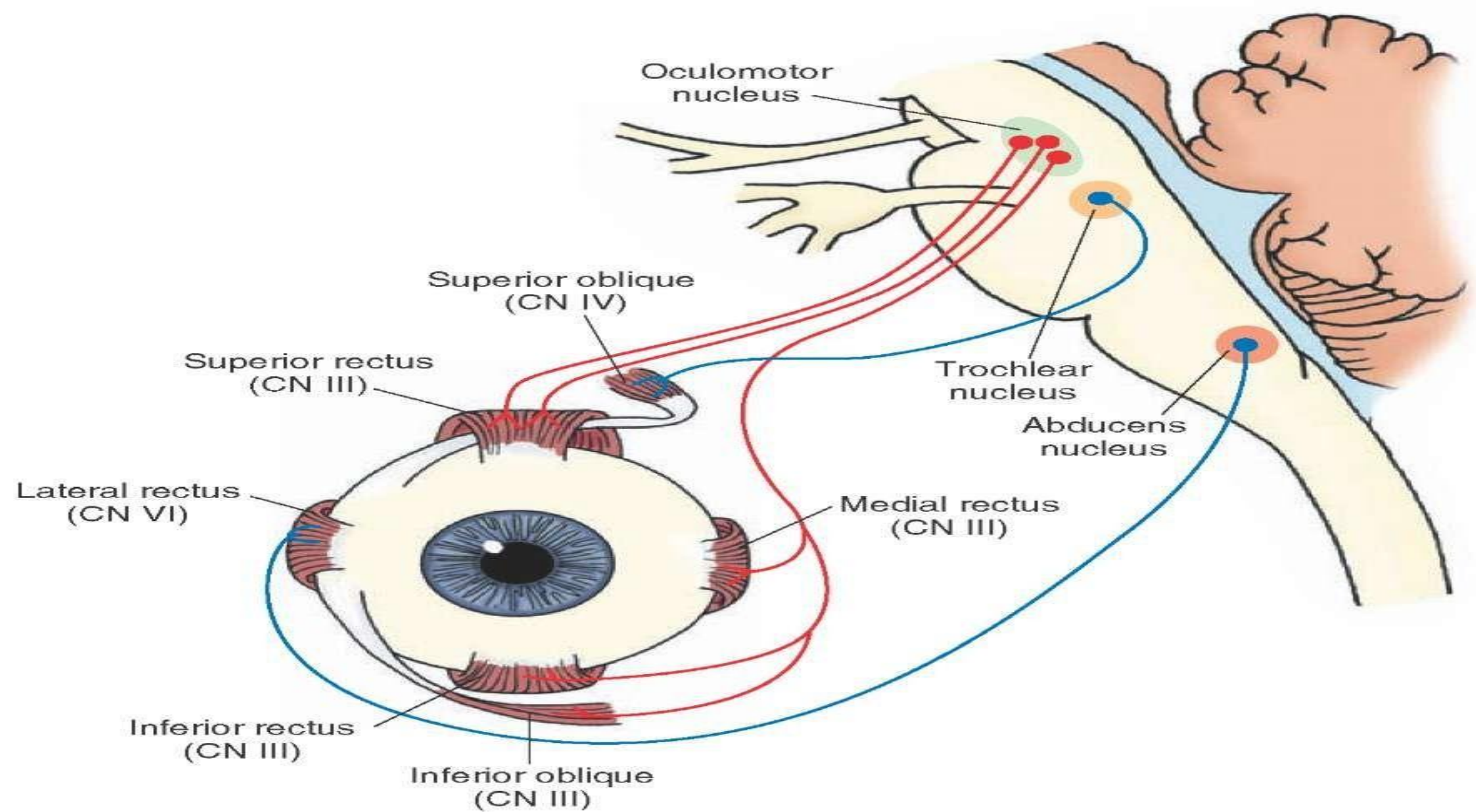
Normal lateral gaze
-Abducens nerve is intact



Restricted medial gaze
-Medial rectus

CN IV

- ▶ **CN IV** is unique in that it is the only cranial nerve to arise from the dorsal brain stem. It loops around the brainstem and passes anteriorly within the subarachnoid space. It, like CNIII, passes between the superior cerebellar and posterior cerebral arteries, and pierces the dura at the tentorium cerebelli and enters the cavernous sinus. After it does this, it passes through the superior orbital fissure into the orbital fissure to innervate the superior oblique.



CLINICAL CORRELATION

- ▶ Due to its crossed method of exiting the brainstem, CNIV is susceptible to cerebellar tumour compression.
- ▶ Due to CNIV being thin and having such a long intracranial course it is easily damaged by the shear injury of head trauma.
- ▶ Symptoms manifest as vertical diplopia, which worsens when the patient looks down and medially, due to the superior oblique normally depressing the pupil and causing intorsion. However the inferior oblique is unopposed in causing extorsion due to CN IV paralysis, which can also cause the eye to drift upward.

CN VI

- ▶ Upon leaving the brainstem at the pontomedullary junction of the pons, these fibres travel within the subarachnoid space between the pons and clivus straddling the basilar artery. Upon exiting the dura, CNVI enters Dorello's canal, where it runs between the skull and dura. It makes a sharp bend as it passes over the petrous temporal bone tip to enter the cavernous sinus. Through this it enters the superior orbital fissure to innervate the lateral rectus.

CLINICAL CORRELATION OF CN VI

- ▶ Due to its long vertical course, CNVI is affected by raised intracranial pressures which act downward especially as it bends over the crest of the petrous tip of the temporal bone. Therefore CNVI palsy is an important sign of hydrocephalus, brain tumours, basilar artery aneurysm and intracranial lesions. Diabetes may cause this due to microvascular complications.
- ▶ Lesions lead to horizontal diplopia, which causes improper abduction of the eye, and unopposed constant adduction.

CN VIII

- ▶ CN VIII leaves at the pontomedullary junction, lateral to the facial nerve. Upon traversing the subarachnoid space it enters the internal acoustic meatus alongside the facial nerve and labyrinthine artery, where it travels within the auditory canal of the petrous temporal bone. Within this it splits into the vestibular nerve and the cochlear nerve.
- ▶ Vestibular nerve - formed of the vestibular ganglion. This nerve attaches to the utricle and saccule and cristae of the ampullae, thereby sensing movement.
- ▶ Cochlear nerve - formed of the spiral ganglion. This extends around the cochlea to sense hearing.

CN 8

Vestibulo-Cochlear Nerve

CN VIII

Cochlear division- Hearing

From organ to Corti in cochlea

Hair cells to cell bodies in spiral ganglion (in modiolus)

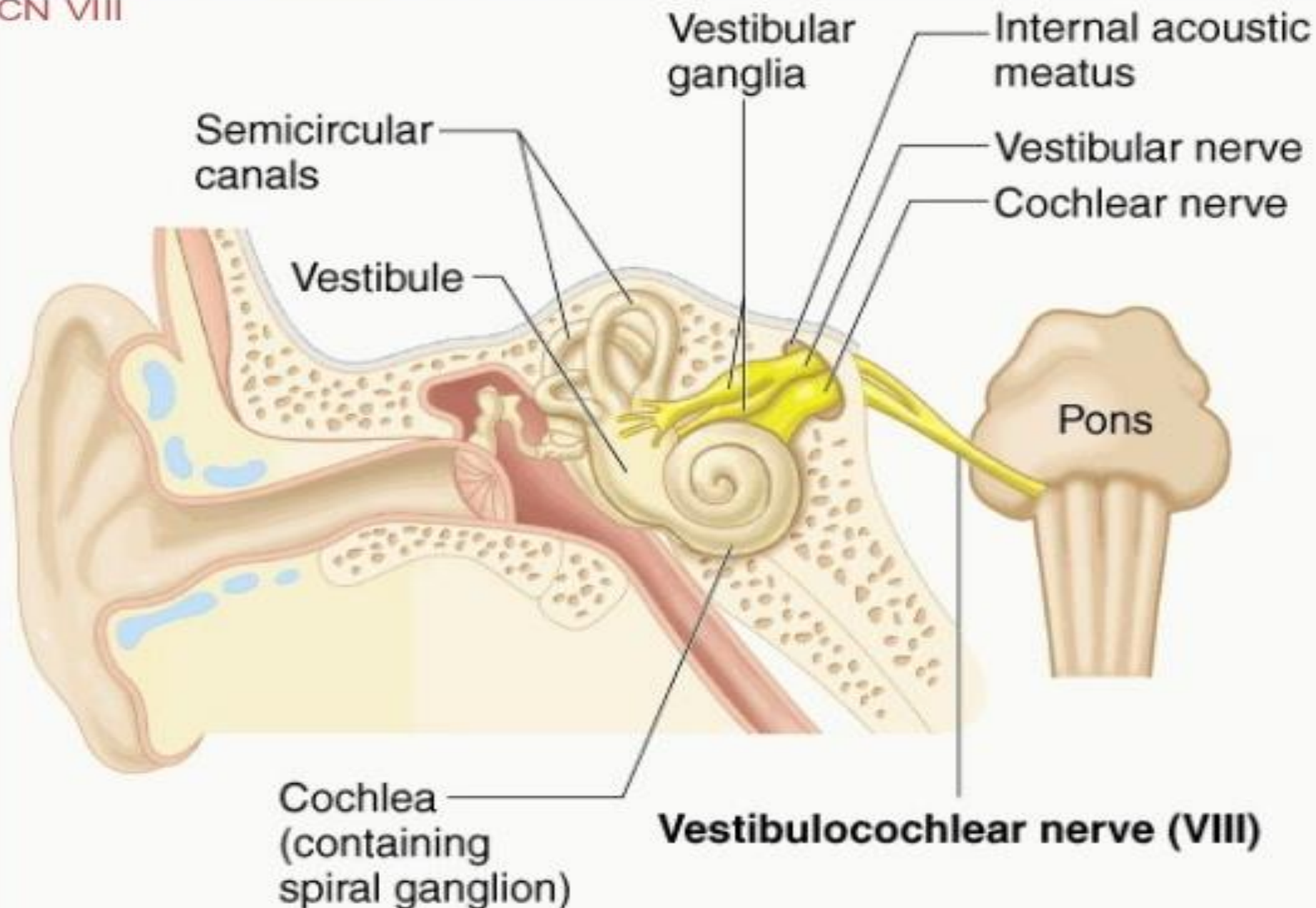
To 2 cochlear nuclei (ventral & dorsal)

Vestibular division – Balance

From semicircular canals, utricle & saccule

Cell bodies in vestibular ganglion in outer part of internal acoustic meatus

To 4 vestibular nuclei (medial, lateral, superior, inferior)



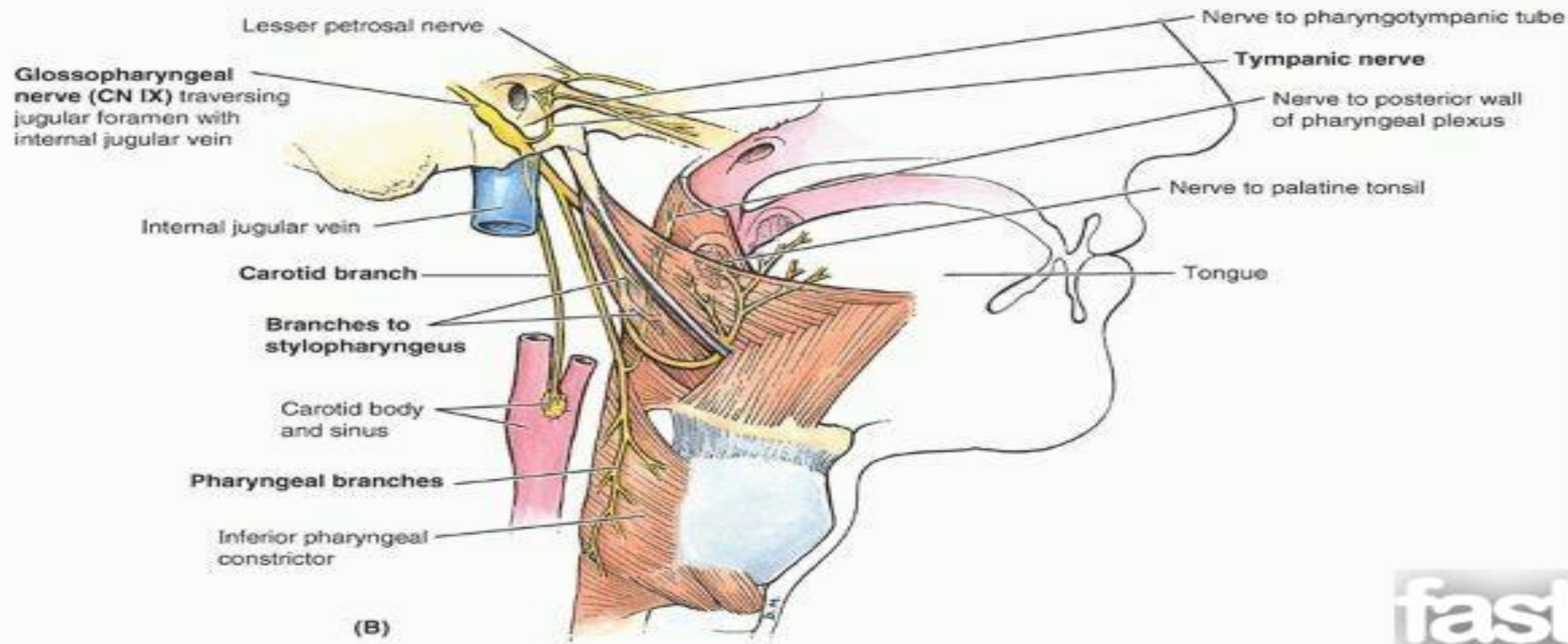
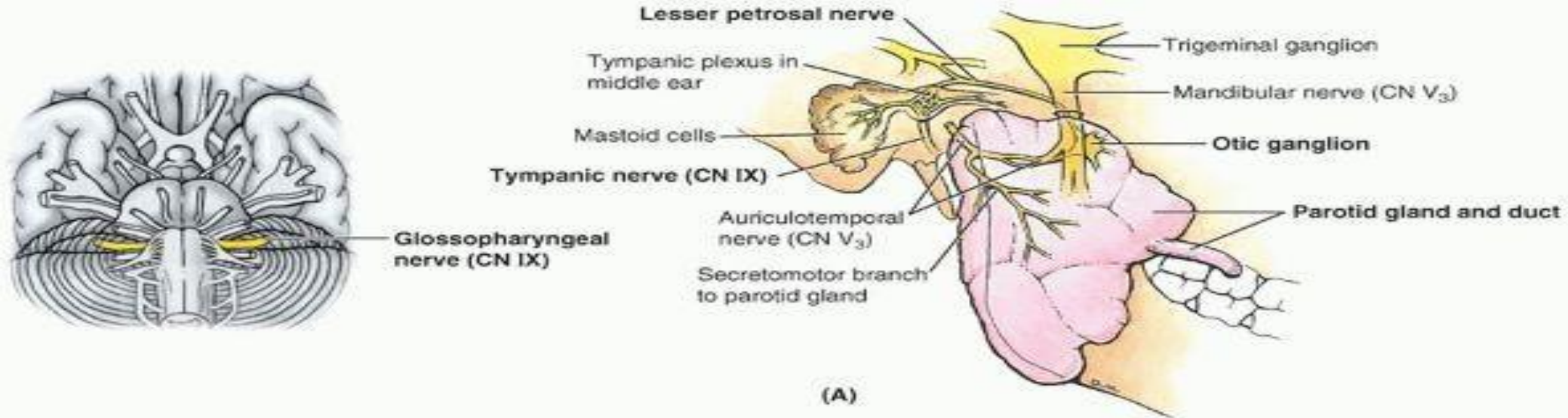
Clinical Correlation of CNVIII

- ▶ Due to the close relationship of the vestibular nerve and cochlear nerve, lesions of one usually affect the other, leading to both tinnitus, vertigo and impaired hearing. Infact usually the cause of vertigo after head trauma is a peripheral vestibular nerve lesion.
- ▶ There are two forms of hearing loss:
- ▶ Conductive hearing loss - CNVIII is working but bone conduction of sound is impaired, due to the external auditory canal/middle ear not transmitting soundwaves.
- ▶ Sensorineural hearing loss - physical ear structures are preserved, however there is damage to the cochlea or neurone that is impairing hearing.

- ▶ Acoustic neuromas are the most common tumors of this region and grow within the auditory canal on the surrounding schwann cells of CNVIII. This tumor can lead to loss of hearing and commonly disequilibrium and tinnitus. This can eventually affect CN V, leading to facial pain and sensory loss and CNVII damage causing facial weakness.

CN IX

- ▶ Also called "a poor man's facial nerve", it is very similar to CNVII.
- ▶ Upon leaving the ventrolateral medulla below CNVIII, it traverses the subarachnoid space to exit via the jugular foramen.
- ▶ Upon exiting, it forms two sensory ganglions, where afferent general sensation, touch and pain of the tongue, pharynx and middle ear are relayed, alongside taste.
- ▶ The only muscle it innervates is the stylopharyngeus, and so it follows its course eventually reaching the tongue. It passes further inferiorly to convey inputs to the baro and chemoreceptors in the carotid body.
- ▶ Parasympathetic fibres leave via the tympanic nerve to join the lesser petrosal to synapse with the otic ganglion (associated with CNV3), innervating the parotid gland.



Motor: Hypoglossal (XII), *except*
Palatoglossus: Pharyngeal branch
of Vagus (X)

Posterior 1/3

Sensory and Taste:
Glossopharyngeal (IX)

Sensory: Lingual branch of V3
from Trigeminal (V)

Taste: Chorda tympani
branch of Facial (VII),
carried by
lingual branch

Anterior 2/3

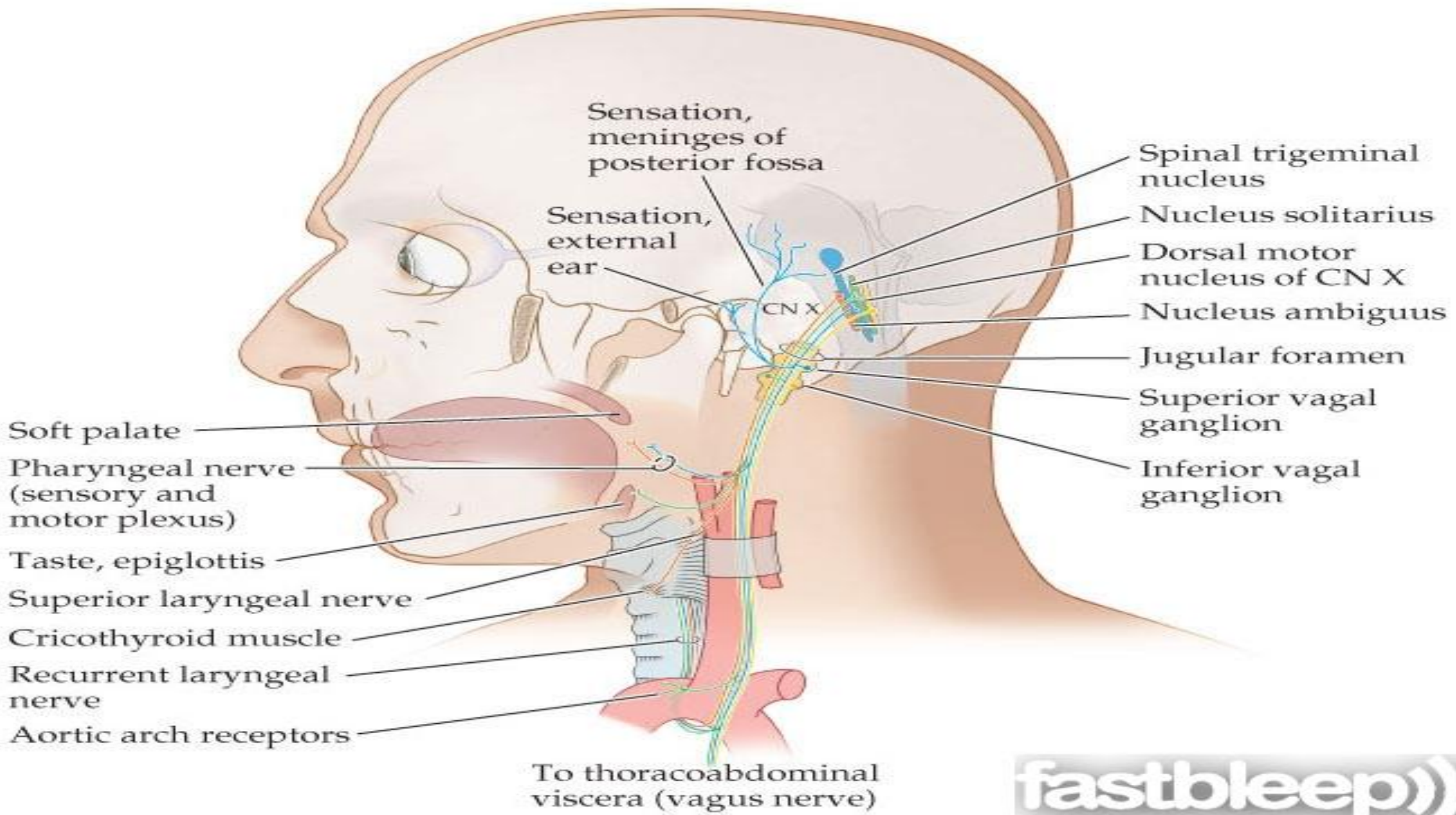
CLINICAL CORRELATION OF CN IX

- ▶ Usually isolated lesions of CNIX are fairly uncommon. However when they occur, taste is absent on the posterior 1/3 of the tongue, alongside an absence of the gag reflex (as the afferent limb is derived from CNIX). However, due to roughly 25% of the population having an absent gag reflex, this is usually not alone a diagnostic marker.
- ▶ Due to the fact that CNIX, X and XI all exit via the jugular foramen, it is common for tumours, infection or trauma to involve these adjacent cranial nerves. Infact tumours in this region cause "jugular foramen syndrome" leading to cranial nerve palsies.
- ▶ Glossopharyngeal neuralgia is very similar to trigeminal neuralgia, but limited to the throat and ear and worsens during eating by sensory stimulation, usually initiated by swallowing.

CN X

- ▶ The vagus nerve is named after the latin for wanderer, due to it having the longest course and extensive distribution.
- ▶ CNX leaves as several rootlets below CNIX on the ventrolateral medulla, crossing the subarachnoid space and exiting the cranium through the jugular foramen between CN IX and XI.
- ▶ Upon exiting, CNX forms 2 ganglions:
 - ▶ the superior ganglion of vagus nerve- synapses with CNIX and the superior cervical ganglion. It is responsible for general sensation.
 - ▶ the inferior ganglion of the vagus nerve- responsible for taste and chemoreceptors from aortic arch.

- ▶ As it descends CNX supplies all pharyngeal, laryngeal and upper oesophageal muscles.
- ▶ CNX continues inferiorly within the carotid sheath; from here it extends into the thorax, supplying parasympathetic sensation to the heart, lungs and bronchi.
- ▶ Upon reaching the oesophageal hiatus, it passes through with the oesophagus entering the abdomen. From here it innervates the oesophagus, stomach and intestines up to the colic flexure.



Clinical Correlation of CN X

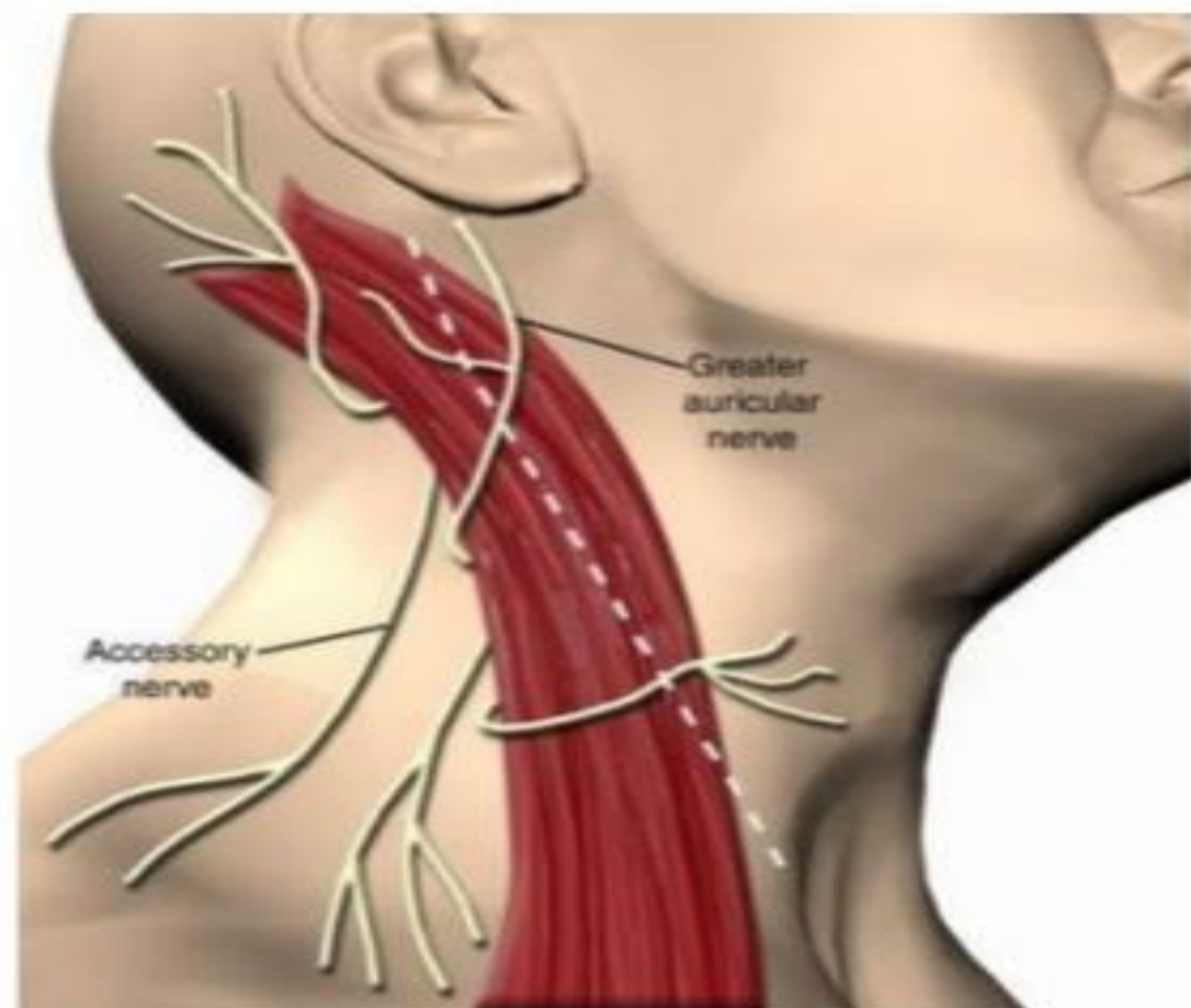
- ▶ Isolated lesions are very uncommon, however CNX damage to the pharyngeal branches can lead to dysphagia, and aphonia can develop due to paralysis of the laryngeal muscles.
- ▶ The recurrent laryngeal nerve (CNX branch) commonly occurs with surgery of the neck. thyroid surgery and carotid endarterectomy, or cardiac surgery due to the recurrent laryngeal looping around the arch of aorta on the left side. Aortic aneurysms and apical lung cancers can also damage the recurrent laryngeal. Damage to the recurrent laryngeal leads to loss of voice and inspiratory stridor.
- ▶ An abnormal gravelly voice is common in Parkinson's disease due to interference of basal ganglia dysfunction with articulation.
- ▶ Usually dysphagia and dysarthria occur together and can be caused by infarcts, cerebellar/brainstem lesions and alcohol. Commonly any dysphagia can lead to aspiration pneumonia due to impaired swallowing in an individual, and is frequently a cause of death.

CN XI

- ▶ This cranial nerve does not arise from the brainstem, rather from C1-5.
- ▶ These rootlets leave the spinal accessory nucleus between the dorsal and ventral nerve roots and ascend through the foramen magnum. Upon entering the cranium it exits the cranium via the jugular foramen by descending alongside the internal carotid artery. It eventually supplies the sternocleidomastoid (SCM) and the upper portion of the trapezius muscle. As it is leaving the cranium, some rootlet fibres from the nucleus ambiguus in the medulla join CNXI briefly before leaving immediately and rejoining CNX to form the recurrent laryngeal nerve. It is mentioned within literature that there are cranial contributions from the medulla, these fibers however do not connect with the spinal component and only travel with CNXI for a few cm, so functionally these fibers can be assumed still part of CNX.

CN XI - SPINAL ACCESSORY NERVE

- **ORIGIN:** Medulla
- **INNERVATION:** Sternocleidomastoid & trapezius muscles
- **FUNCTION:** Motor function
Sternocleidomastoid & trapezius
- **DYSFUNCTION:** Muscle weakness.



▶ **CLINICAL CORRELLATION OF CNXI**

- ▶ lesions of CNXI cause ipsilateral weakness of the shoulder shrug due to trapezius damage and a weakness of the head turning away from the lesion, this is due to the left SCM turning the head right (and vice versa).
- ▶ Due to a tendency of other neck muscles to compensate for the SCM, it is essential to palpate the SCM to detect its contraction.
- ▶ Due to its very superficial course through the cervical region, it is very commonly damaged in surgery, especially lymph node biopsies, internal jugular vein cannulation and carotid endarterectomy.

CN XII

- ▶ Arising from several rootlets from the ventral medulla it leaves the cranium via the hypoglossal canal.
- ▶ Upon leaving the hypoglossal canal, it is joined by branches of the cervical plexus which use CNXII to reach the hyoid muscles.
- ▶ Upon reaching the angle of the mandible it travels anteriorly to innervate all intrinsic and extrinsic muscles of the tongue (except the palatoglossus).

The Hypoglossal Nerves - XII

- Runs inferior to the tongue
 - Innervates the tongue muscles

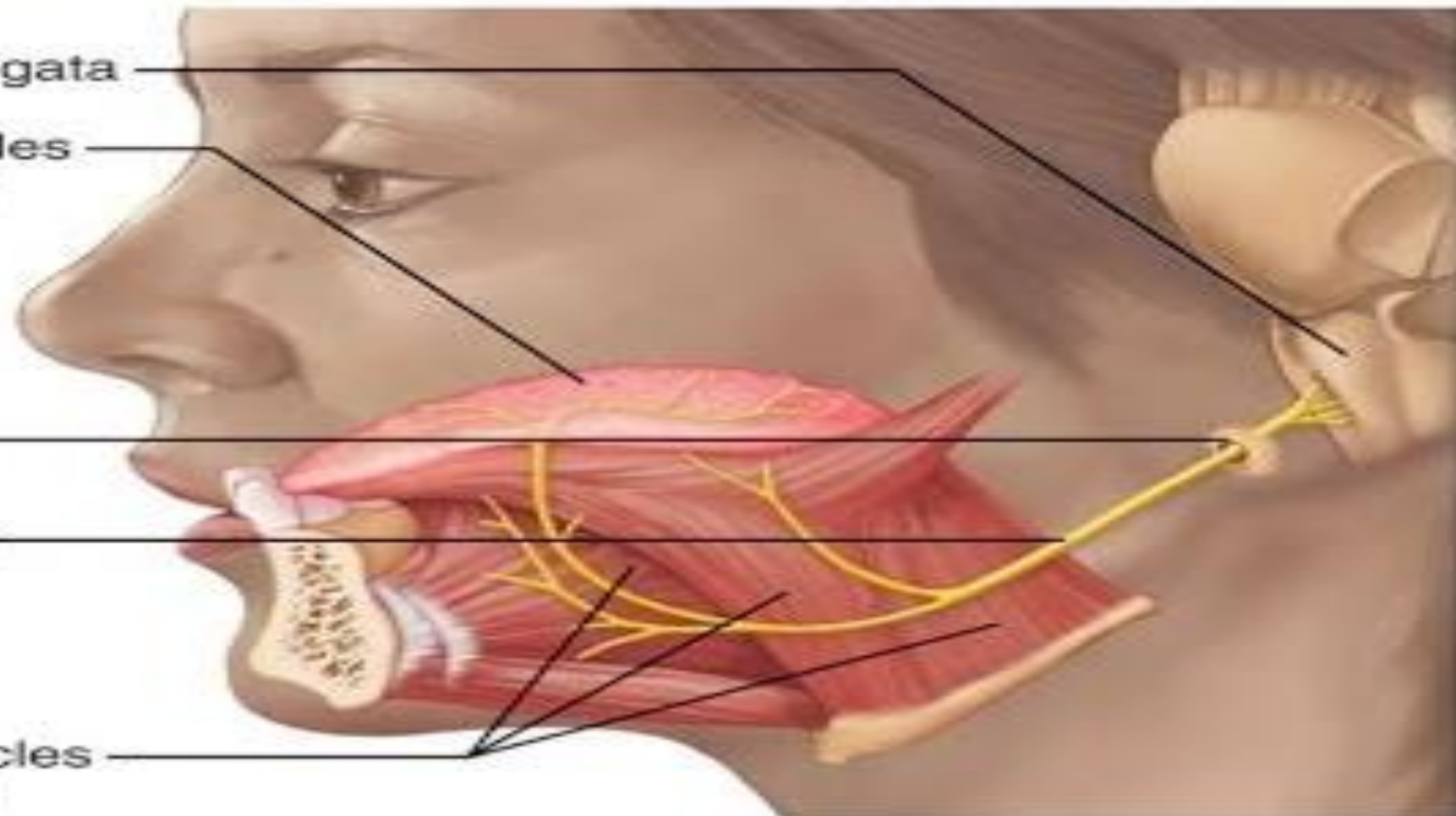
Medulla oblongata

Intrinsic muscles
of the tongue

Hypoglossal
canal

Hypoglossal
nerve (XII)

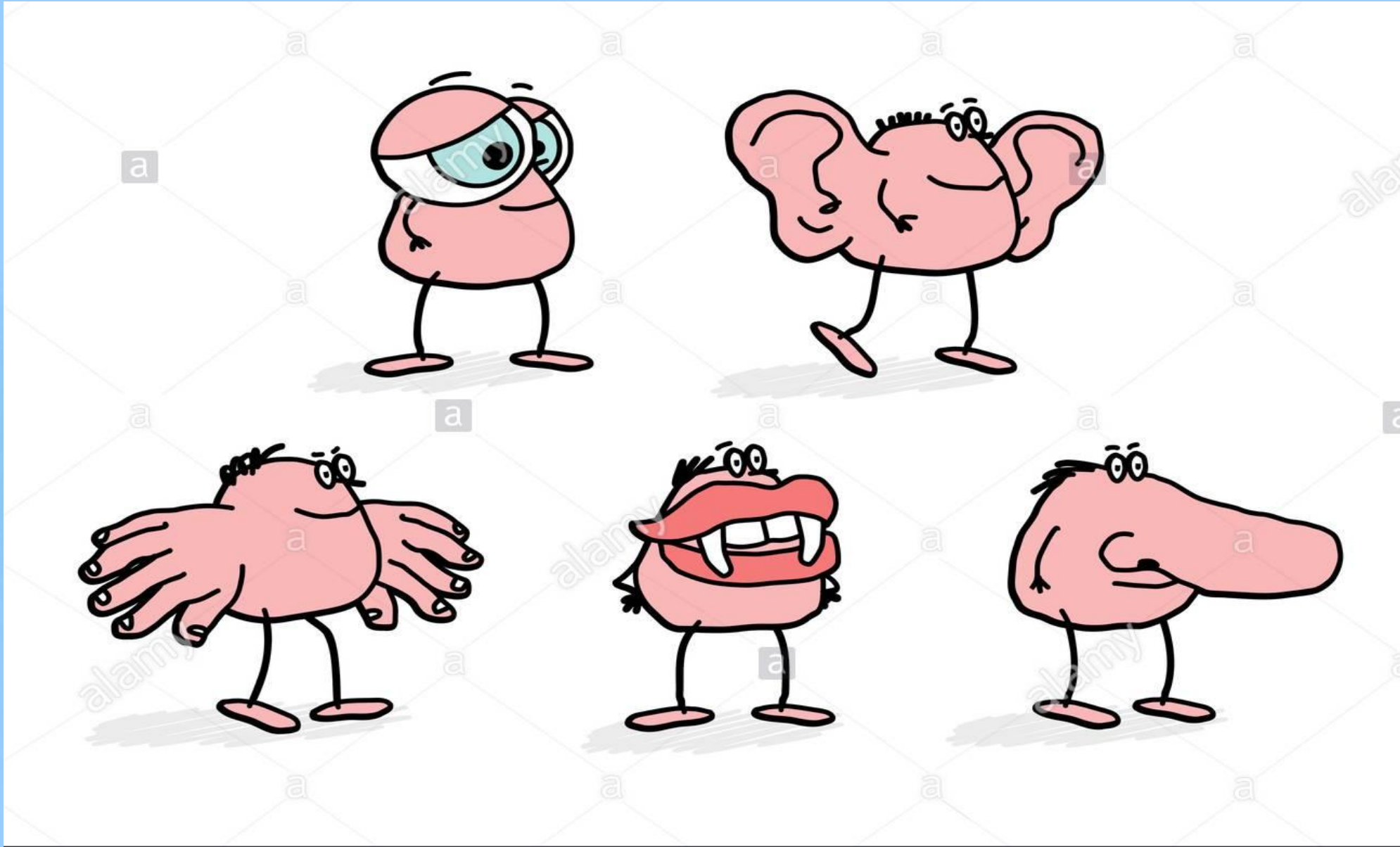
Extrinsic muscles
of the tongue



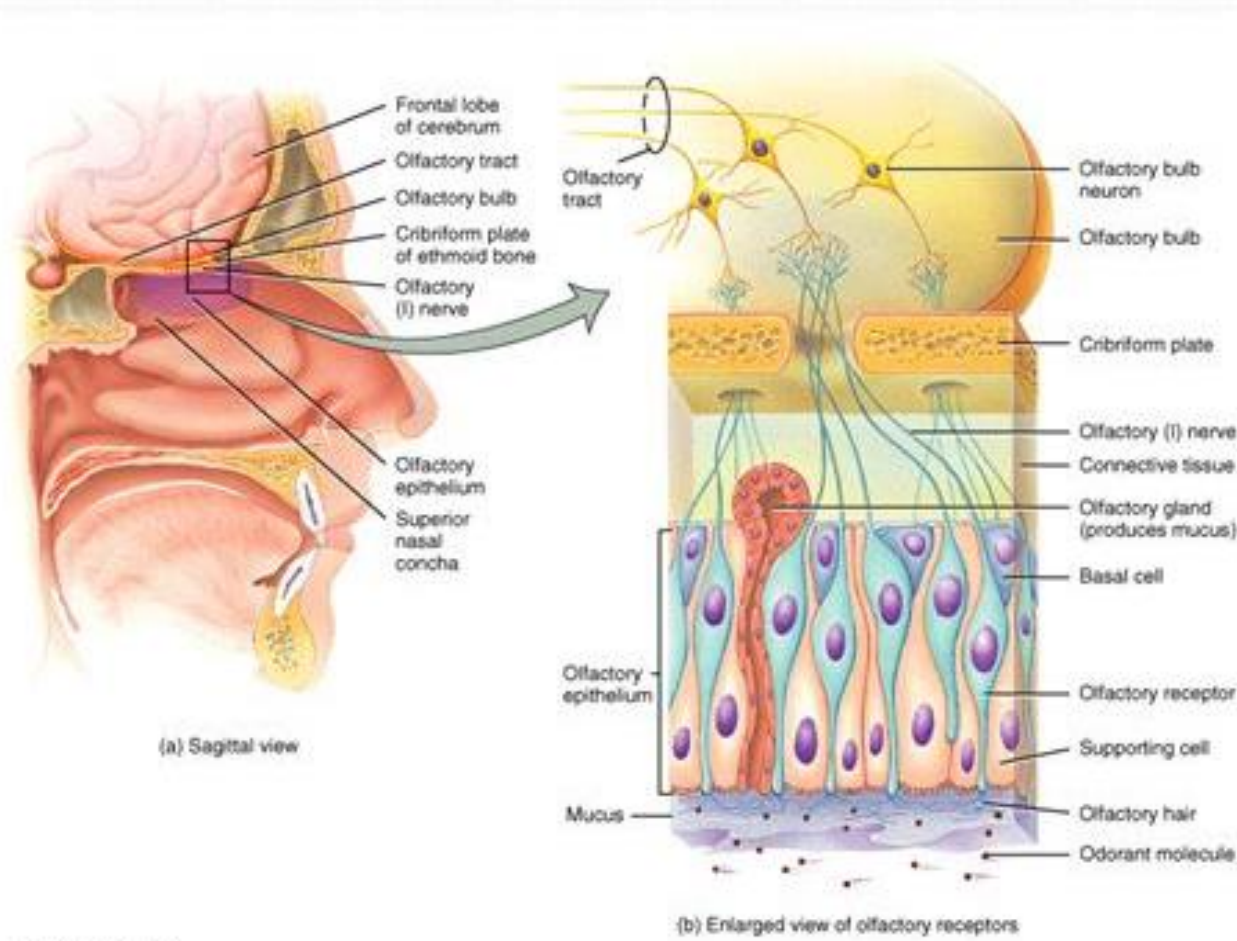
CLINICAL CORRELATION OF CNXII

- ▶ Upper motor neurones that control tongue movement decussate within the corticobulbar tracts before arriving at the hypoglossal nuclei. This means lesions of the primary motor cortex/internal capsule cause contralateral weakness of the tongue, whereas lesions of the hypoglossal nuclei cause ipsilateral weakness of the tongue.
- ▶ Tongue weakness causes the tongue upon protrusion to deviate towards the weak side due to overactive compensatory action of the other hypoglossal nerve. CNXII damage also causes tongue muscles to atrophy.

SENSORY ORGANS

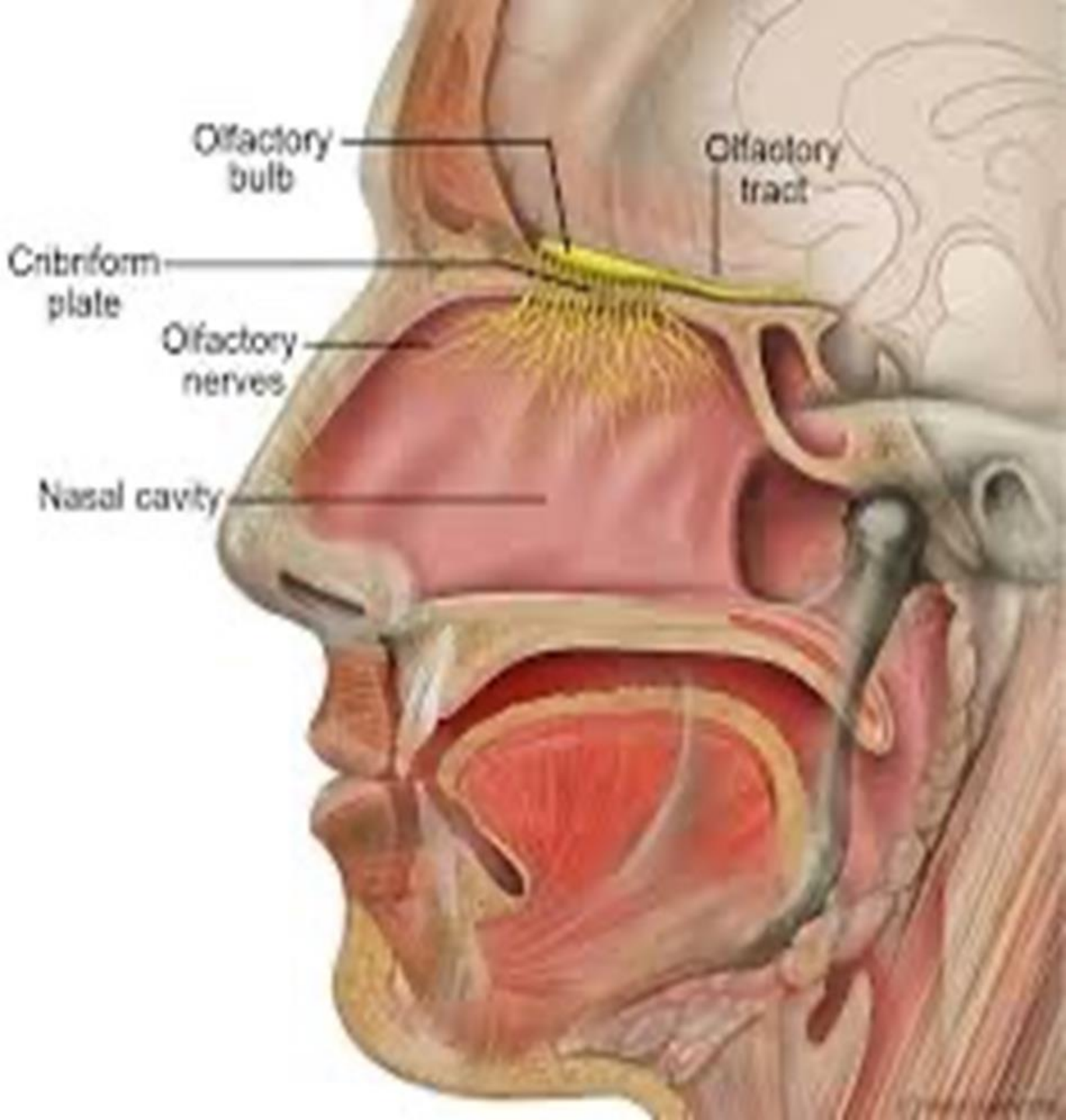
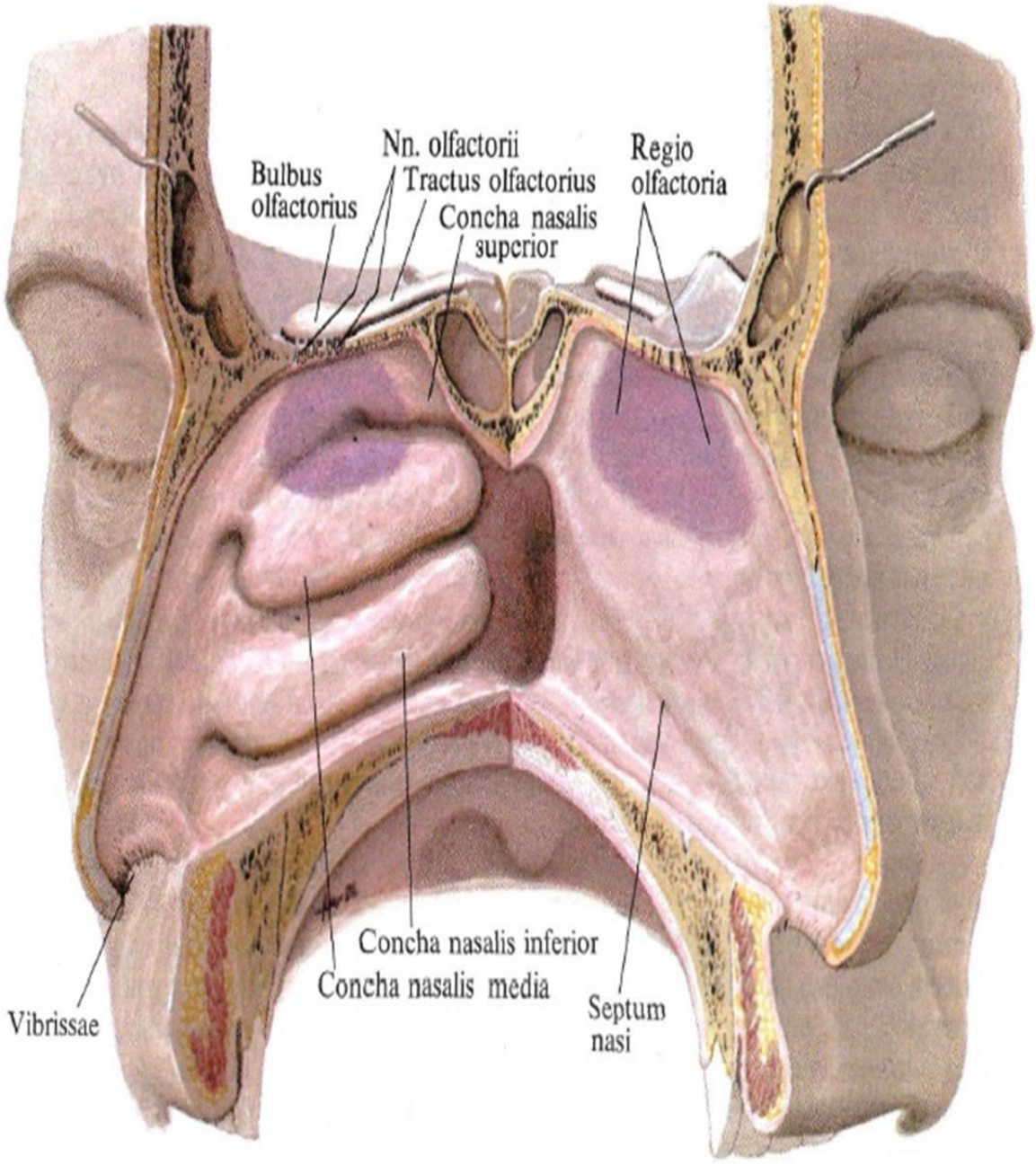


Chemical Senses: Smell

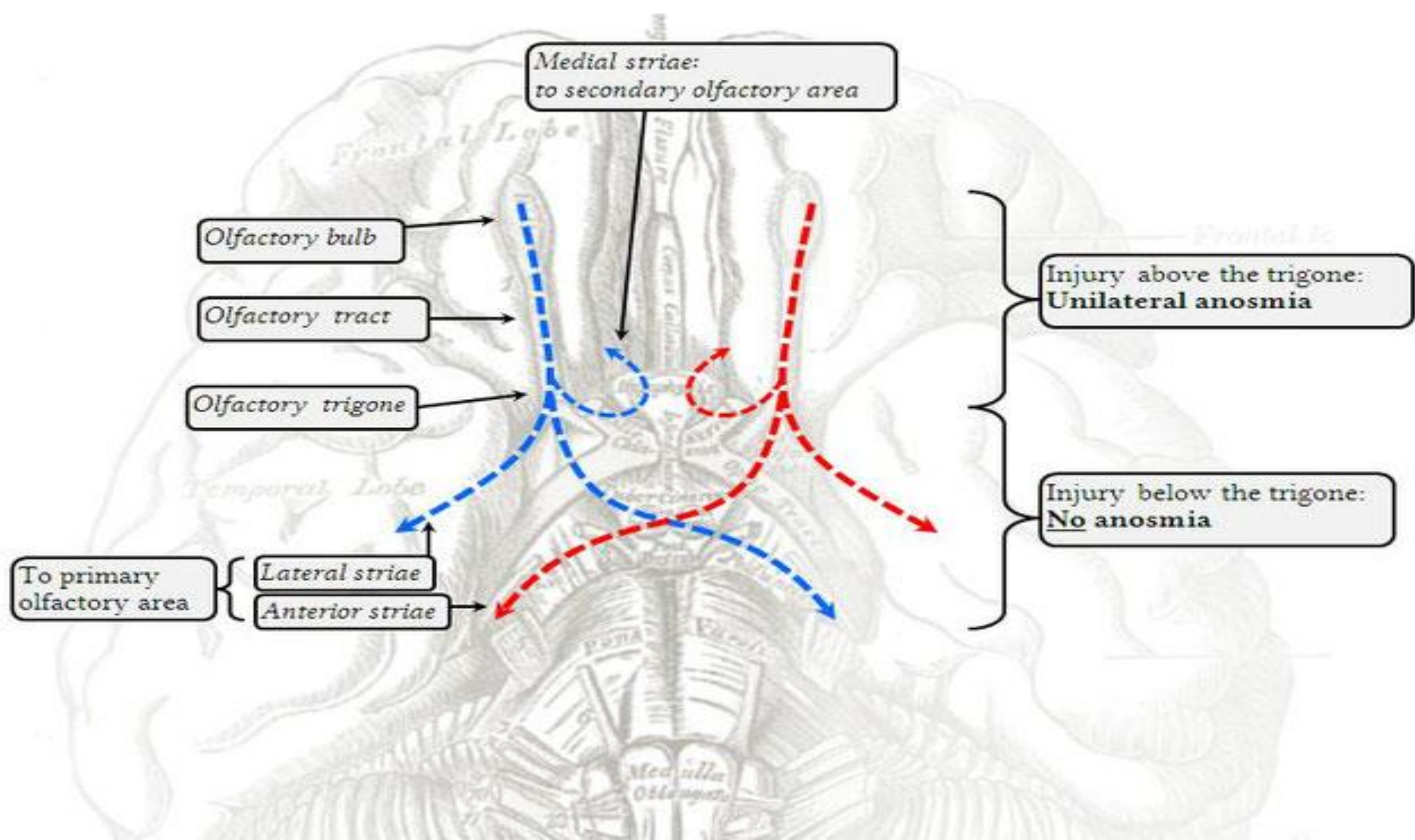


© John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- The olfactory cortex of the brain is tied to the emotional part of the brain, thus many smells with trigger memories and emotions
- The receptors are quickly triggered, but also quickly adapt to smells



- **The lateral stria** projects to the primary olfactory cortex, formed of the piriform cortex and periamygdaloid cortex which is found near the medial tip of the temporal lobe. From here connections to the uncus, amygdala (involved in emotional olfaction) and parahypocampal gyrus (III neurons).
- **The medial stria** penetrate through the anterior perforated substance to the **contralateral olfactory bulb and cortex (III neurons)**.
- **The intermedial stria** penetrate through the anterior perforated substance, projects through the anterior commissure to the subcallosal region then reach gyrus dentatus, fasciolaris, uncus.



The organ of vision

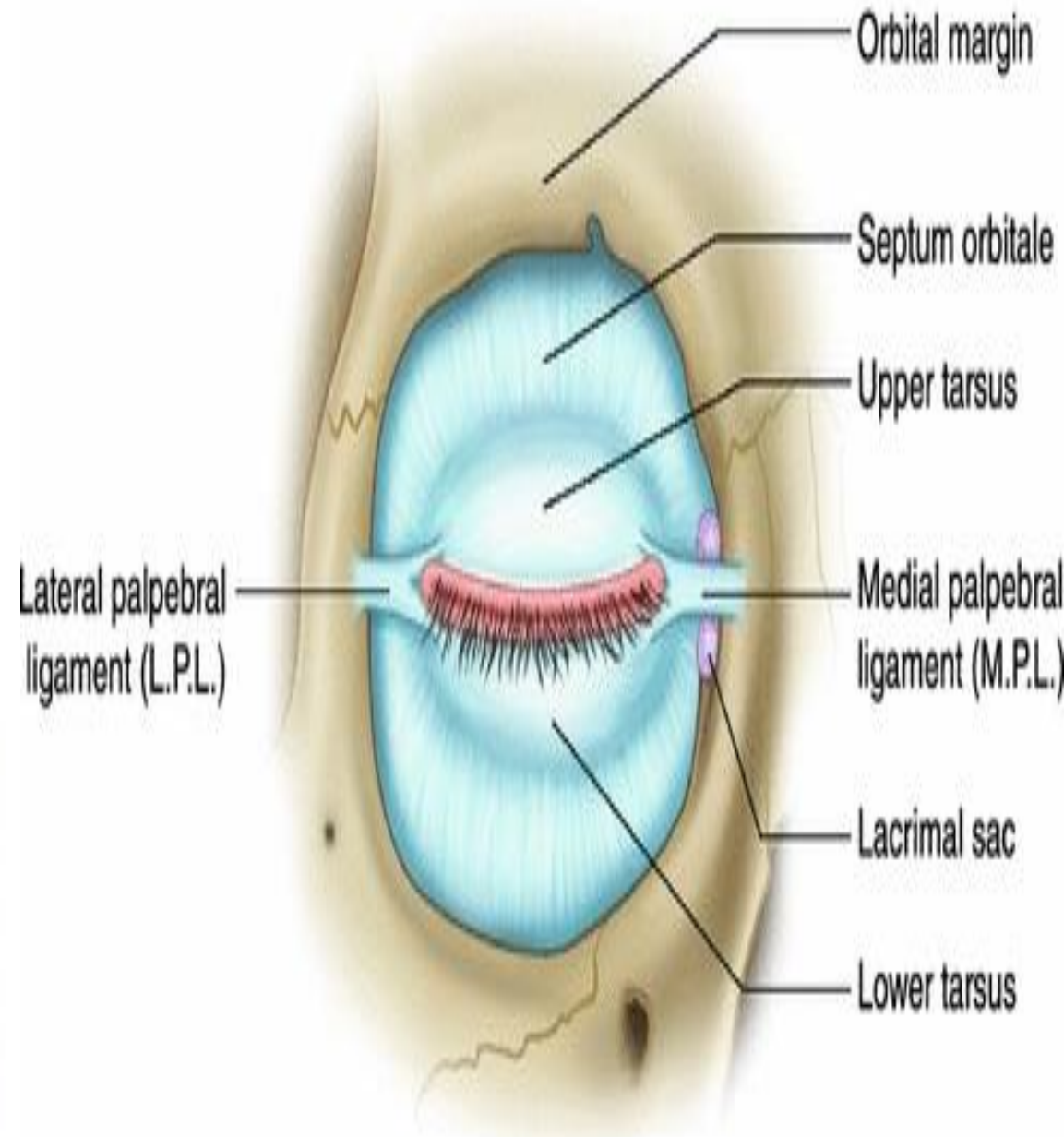
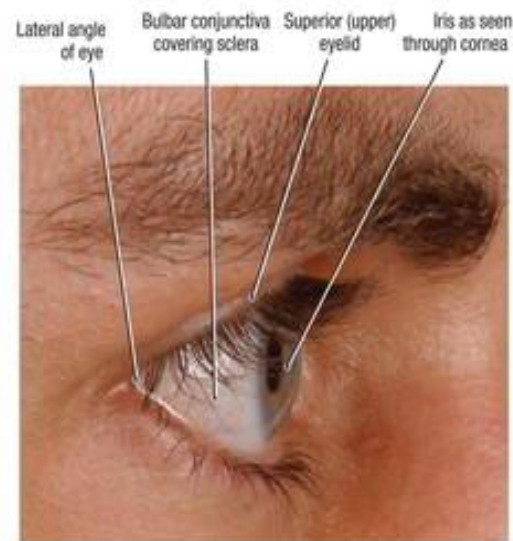
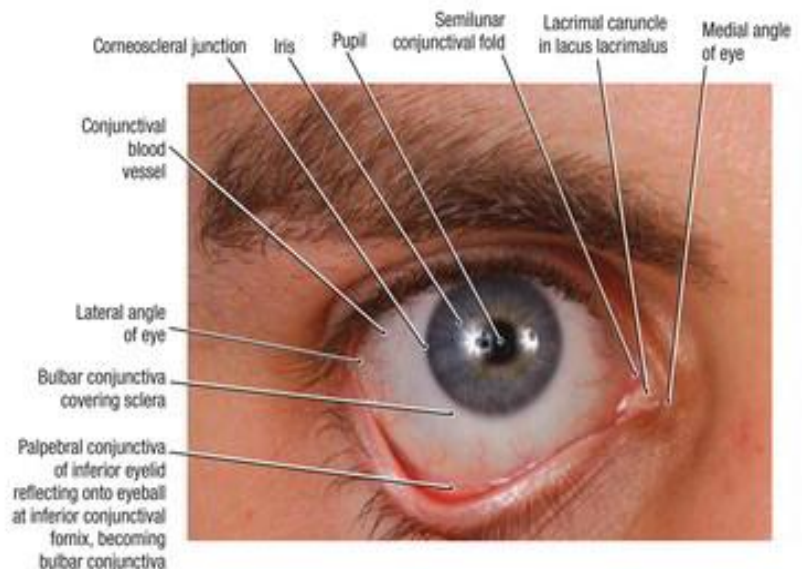
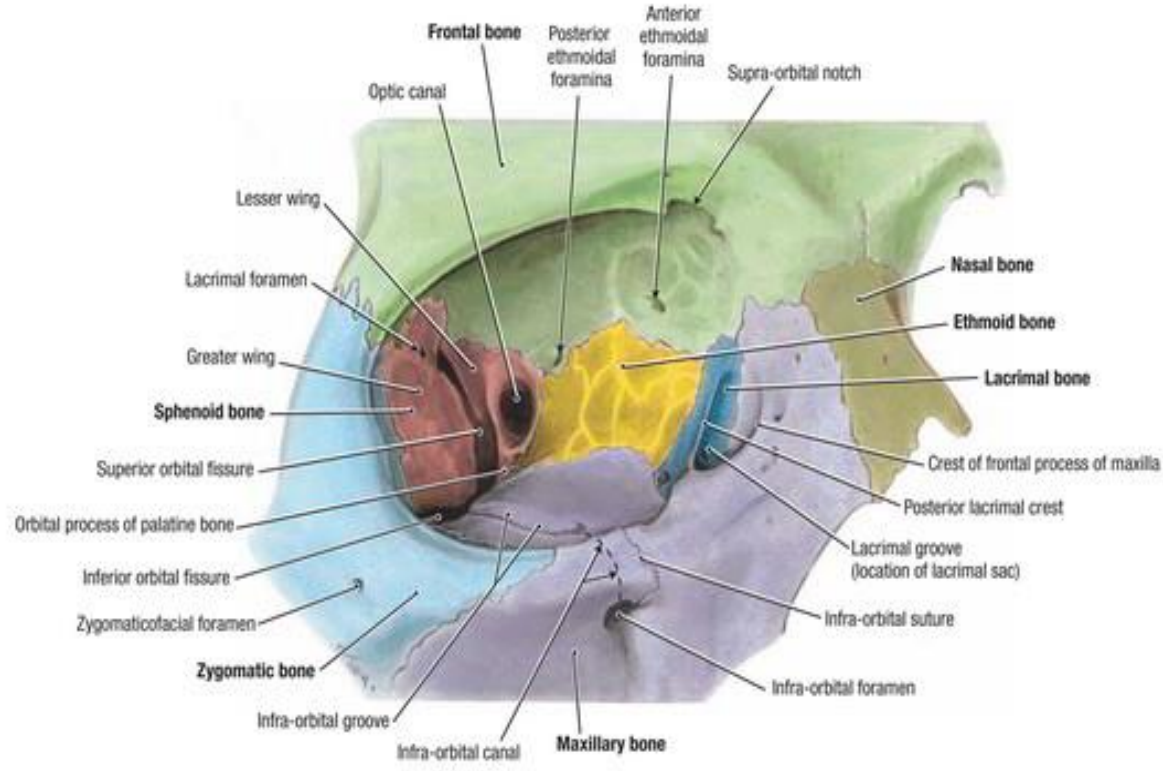
- I. The accessory visual apparatus:
 - the eyelids, the lachrymal apparatus,
 - and motor apparatus.
- II. Eyeball.

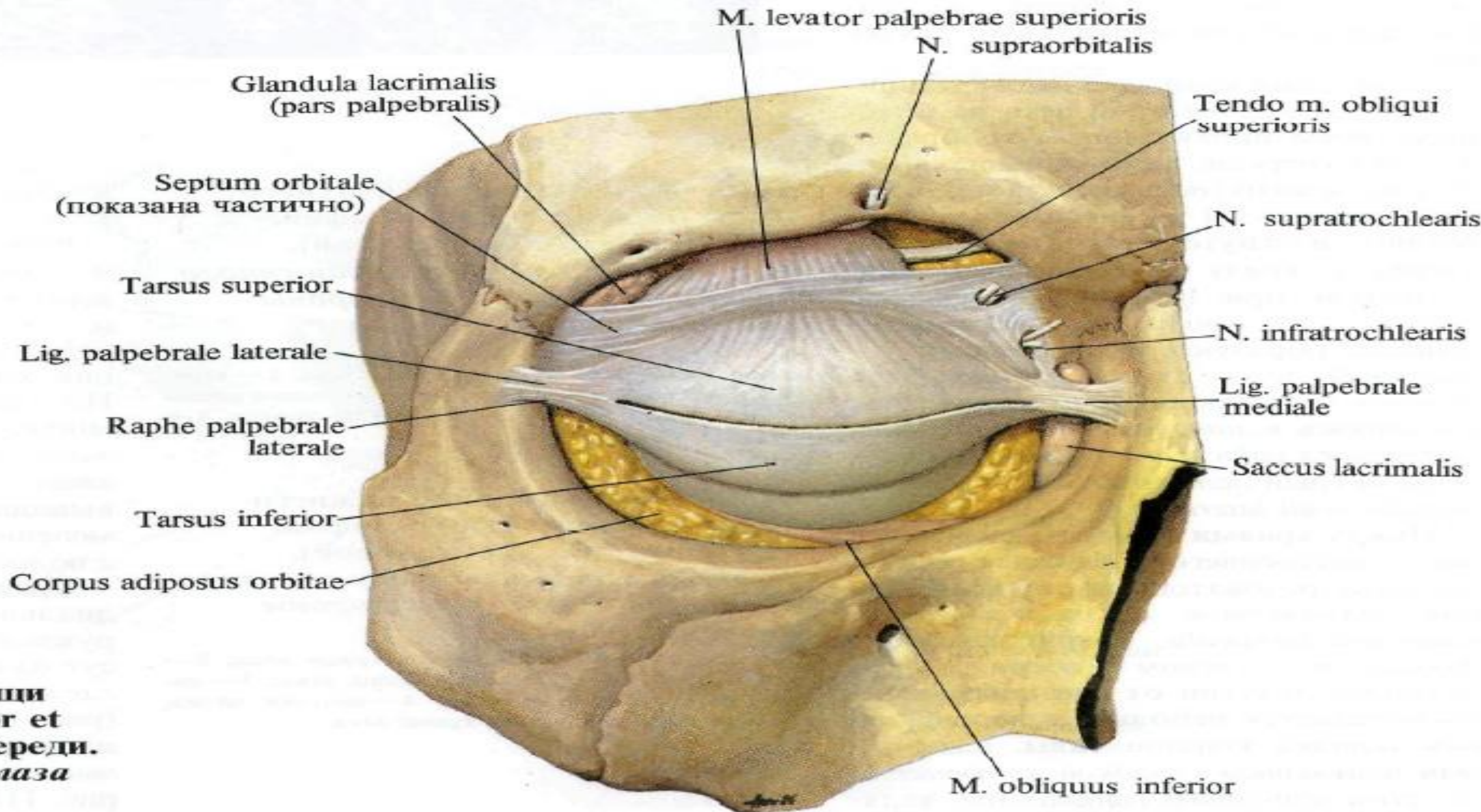
The organ of vision.

The accessory visual apparatus.

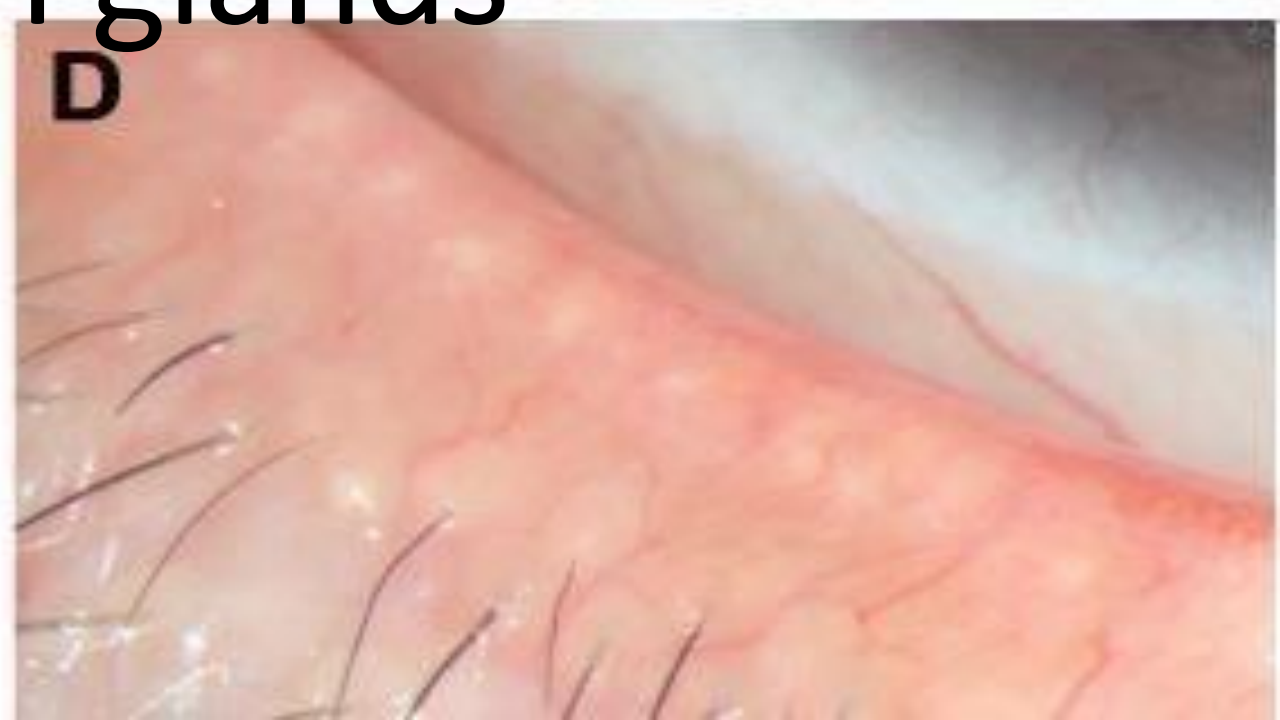
- **1- two eyelids:** skin, orbicularis oculi muscle, tarsus (tarsal glands), conjunctiva (palpebral and ocular parts, superior and inferior fornices).
- **2- the lachrymal apparatus:** lachrymal glands, lachrymal streams, lachrymal lake, lachrymal canaliculi, lachrymal sac, nasolachrymal duct.
- **3- the motor apparatus:** four recti mm., two oblique mm., mm. levator palpebral superiorioris.

Anatomy of lid

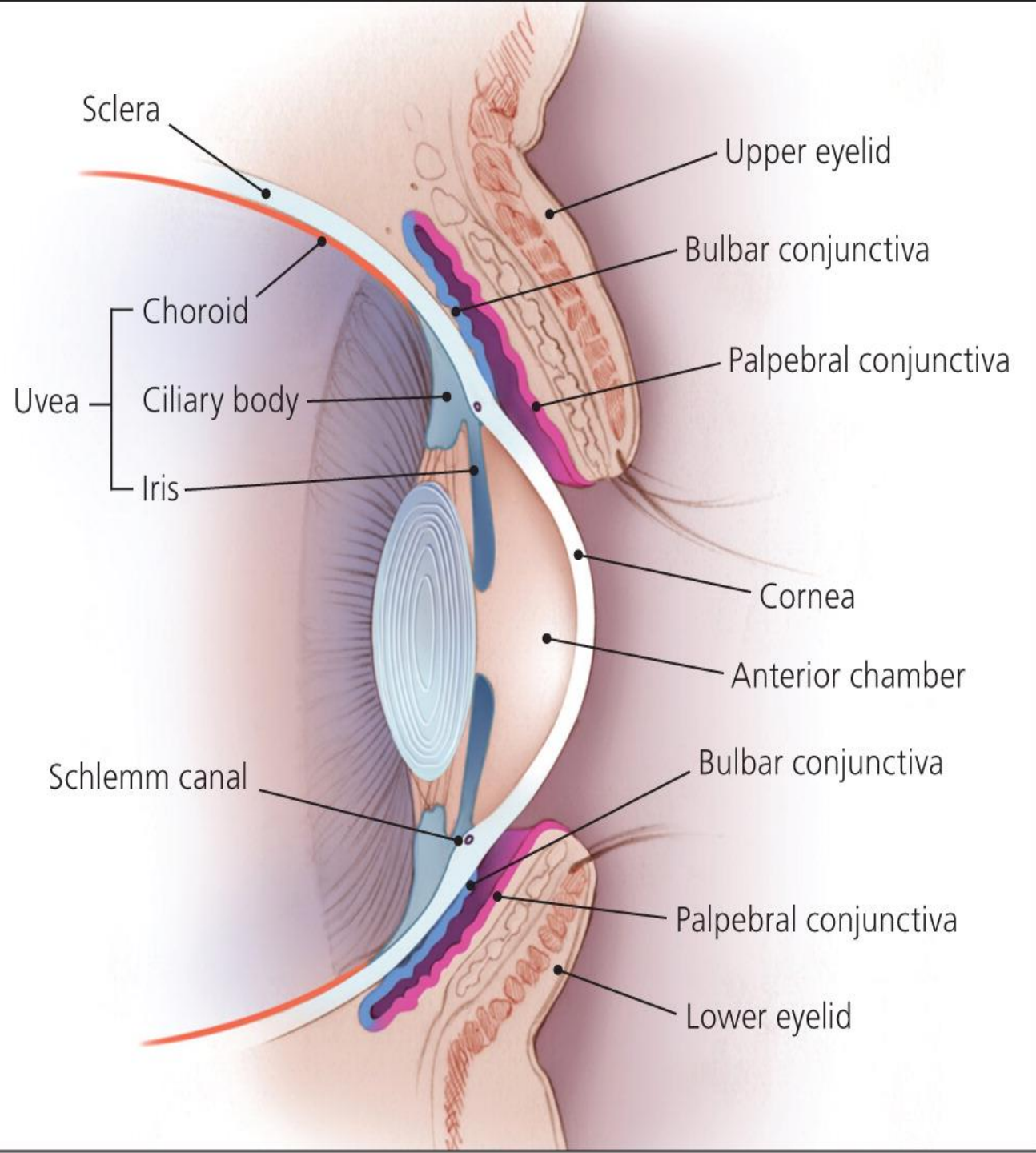
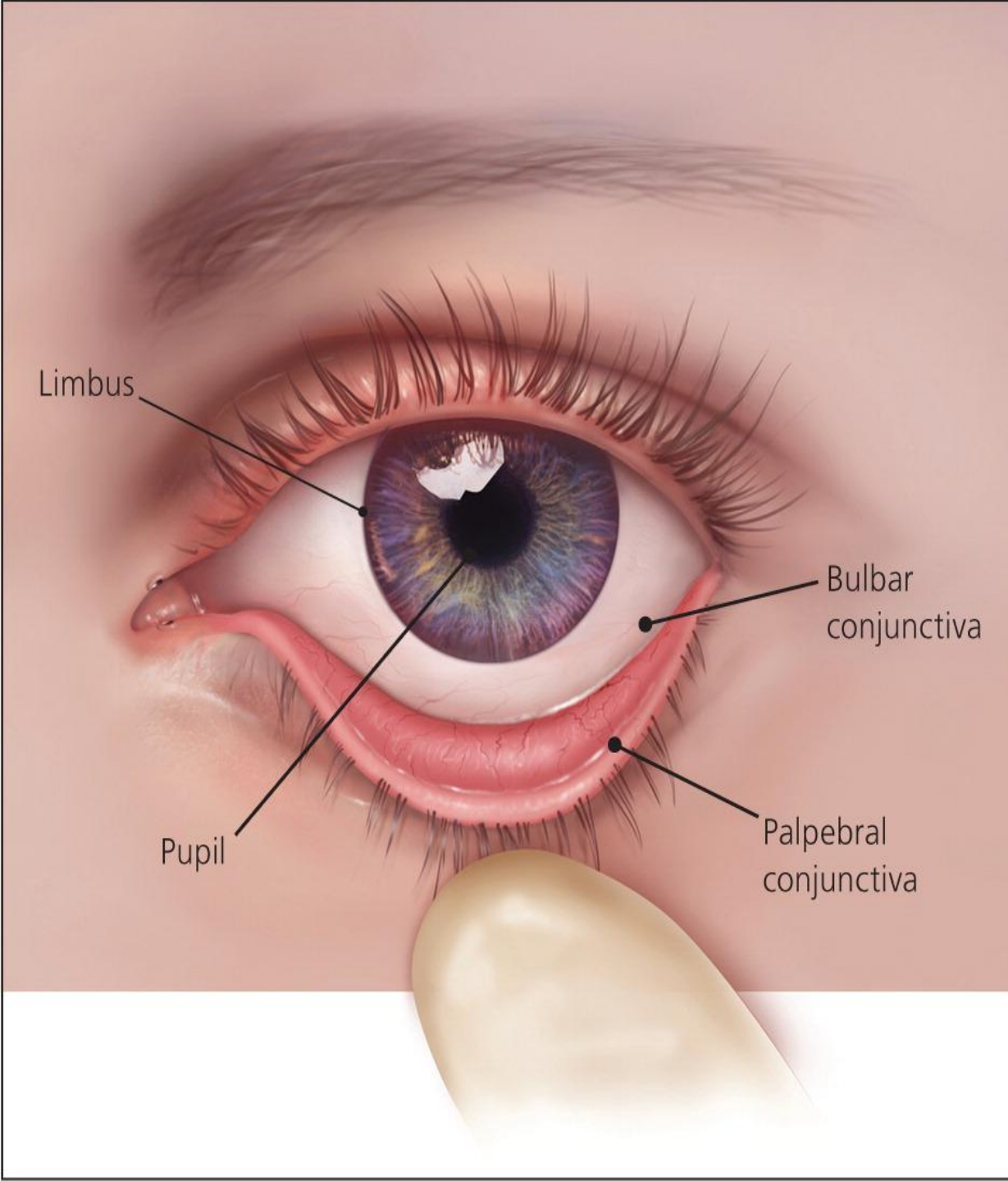


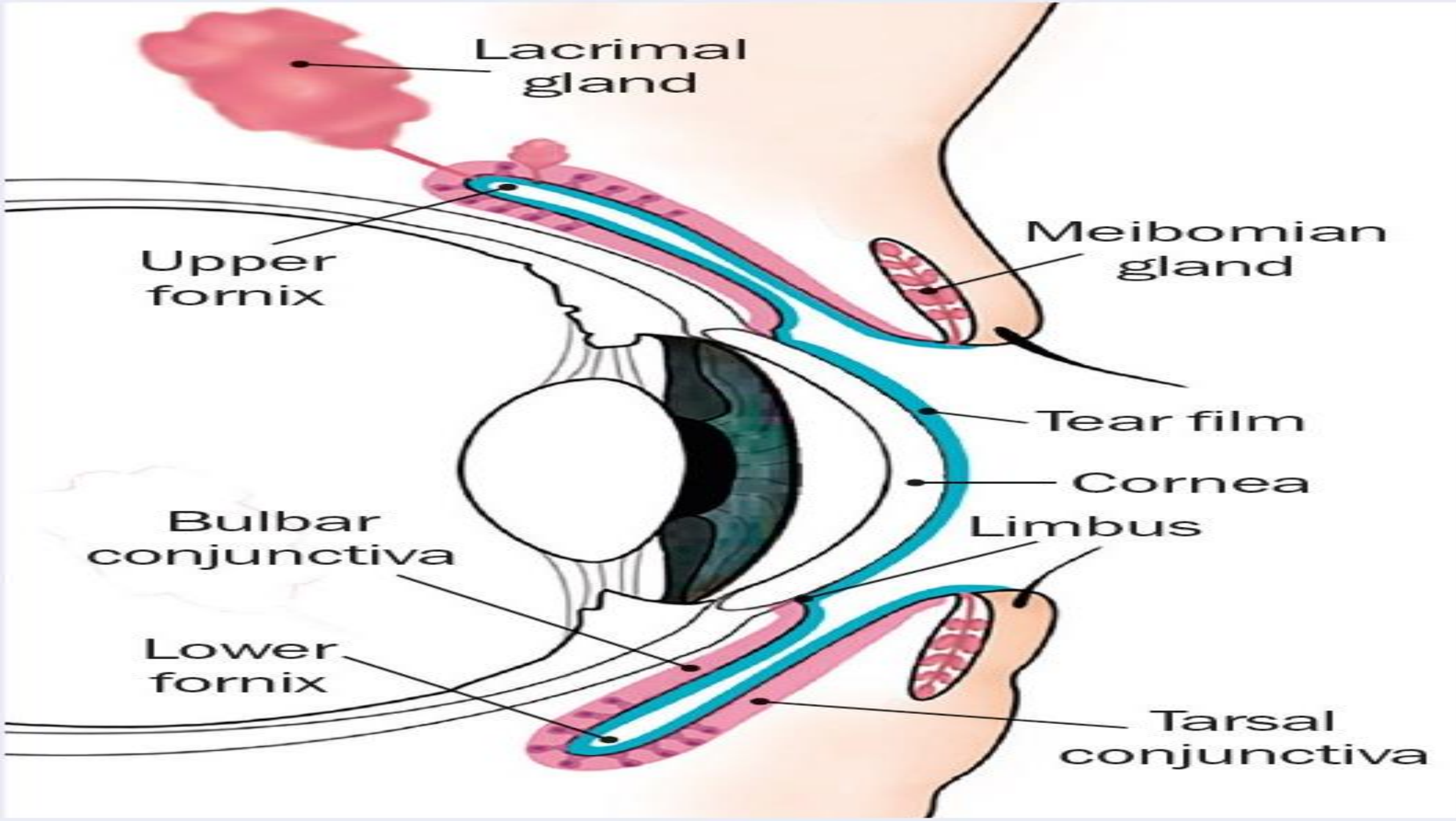


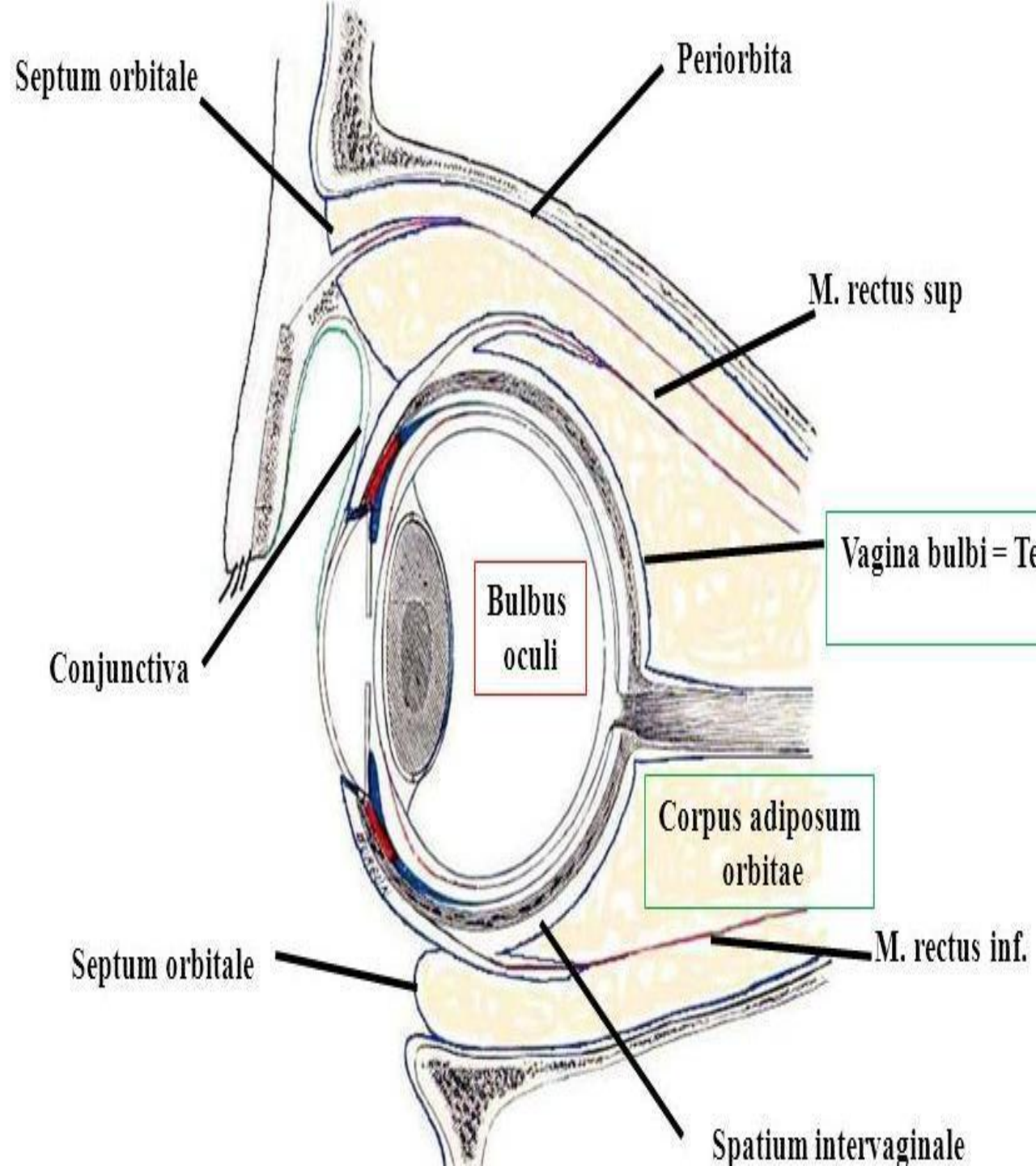
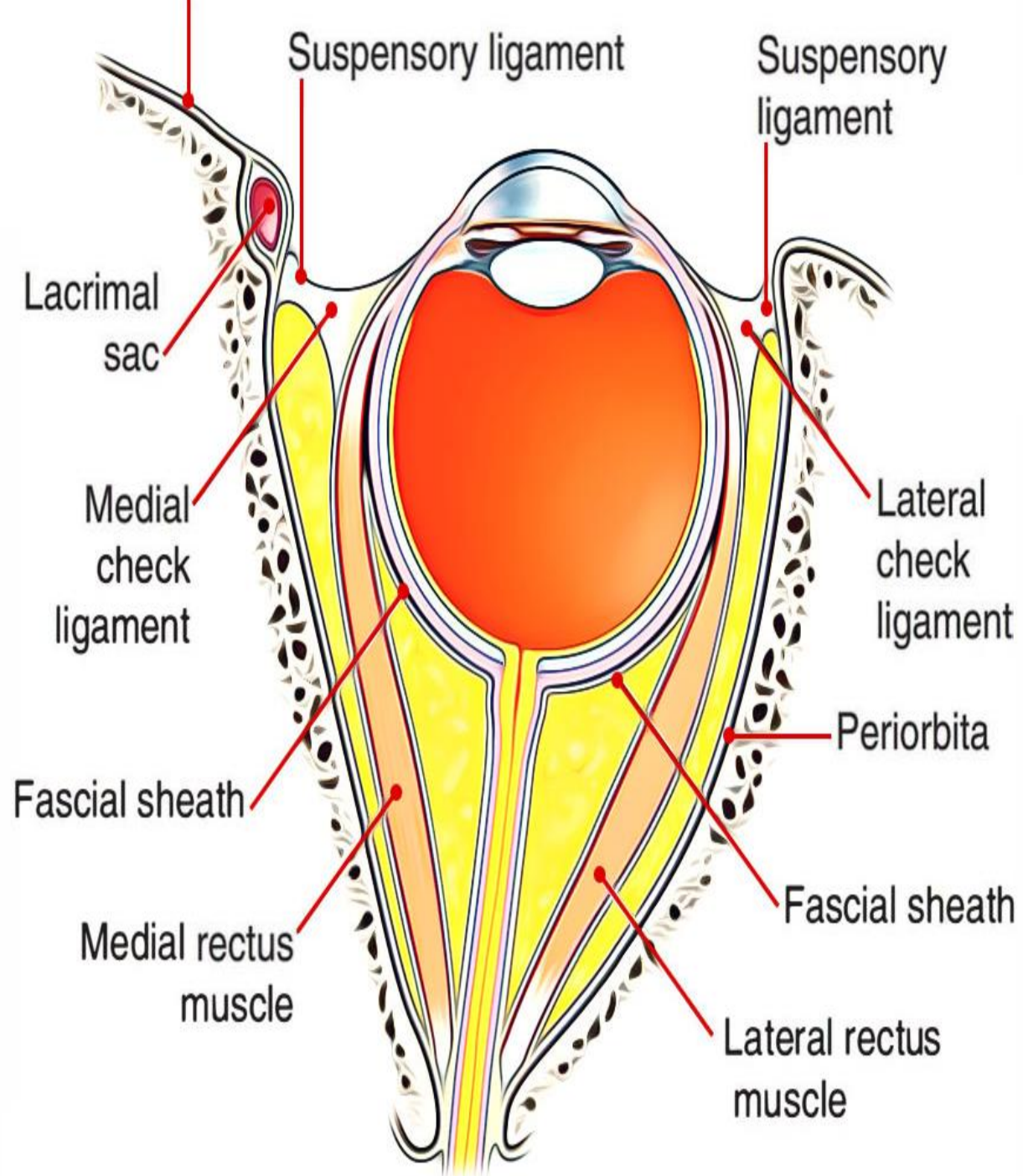
ищи
 or et
 ереди.
 лаза

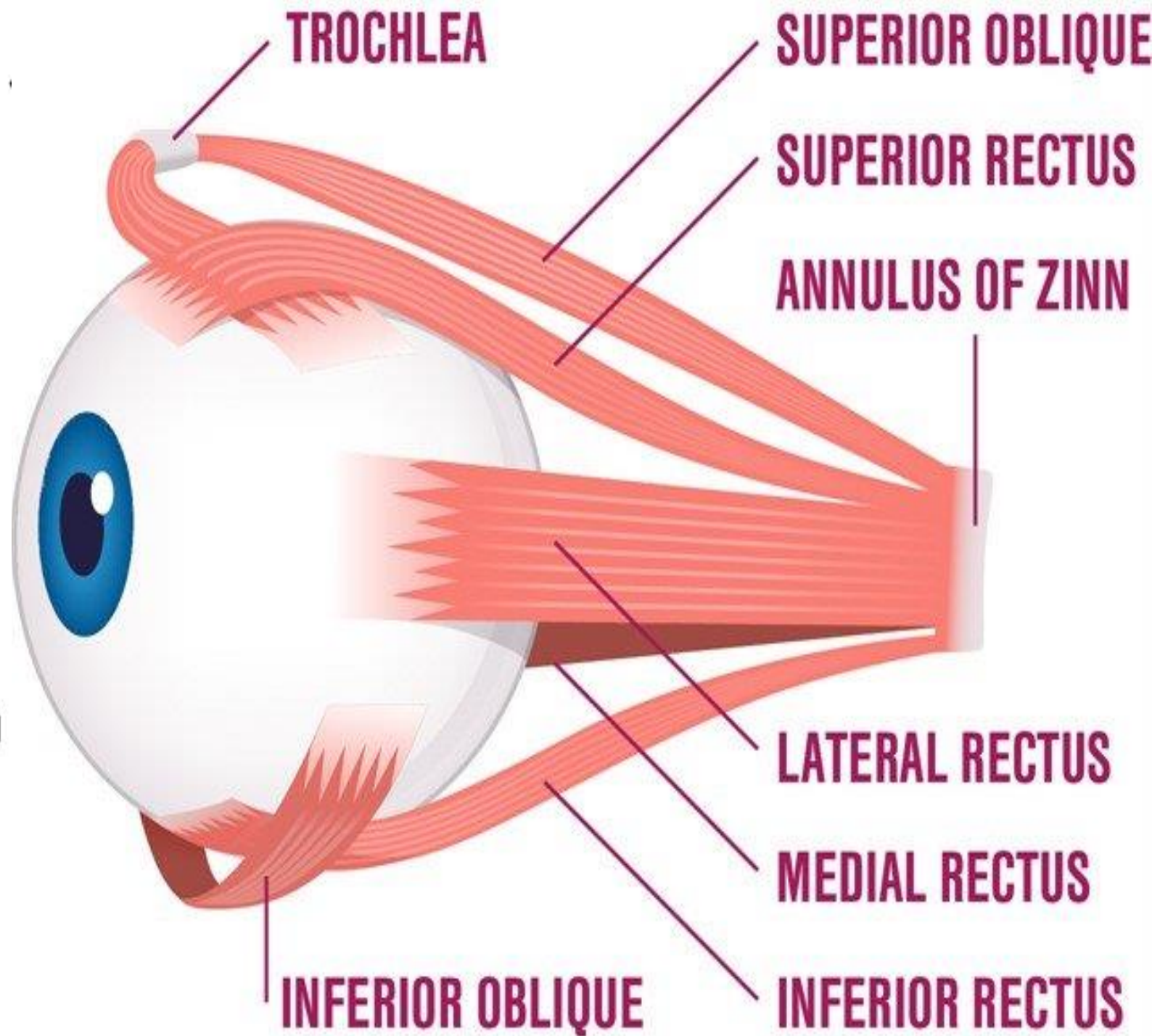
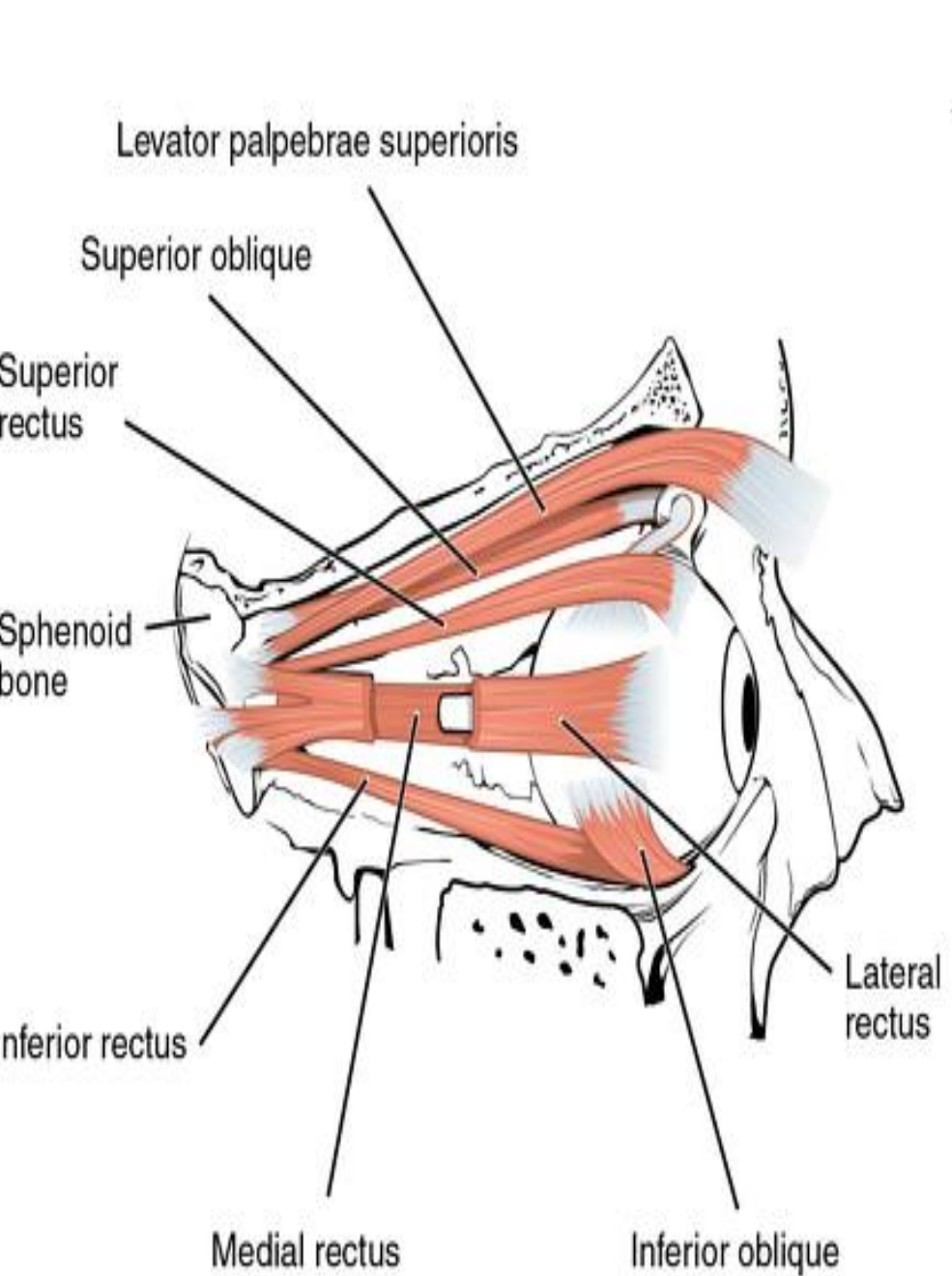


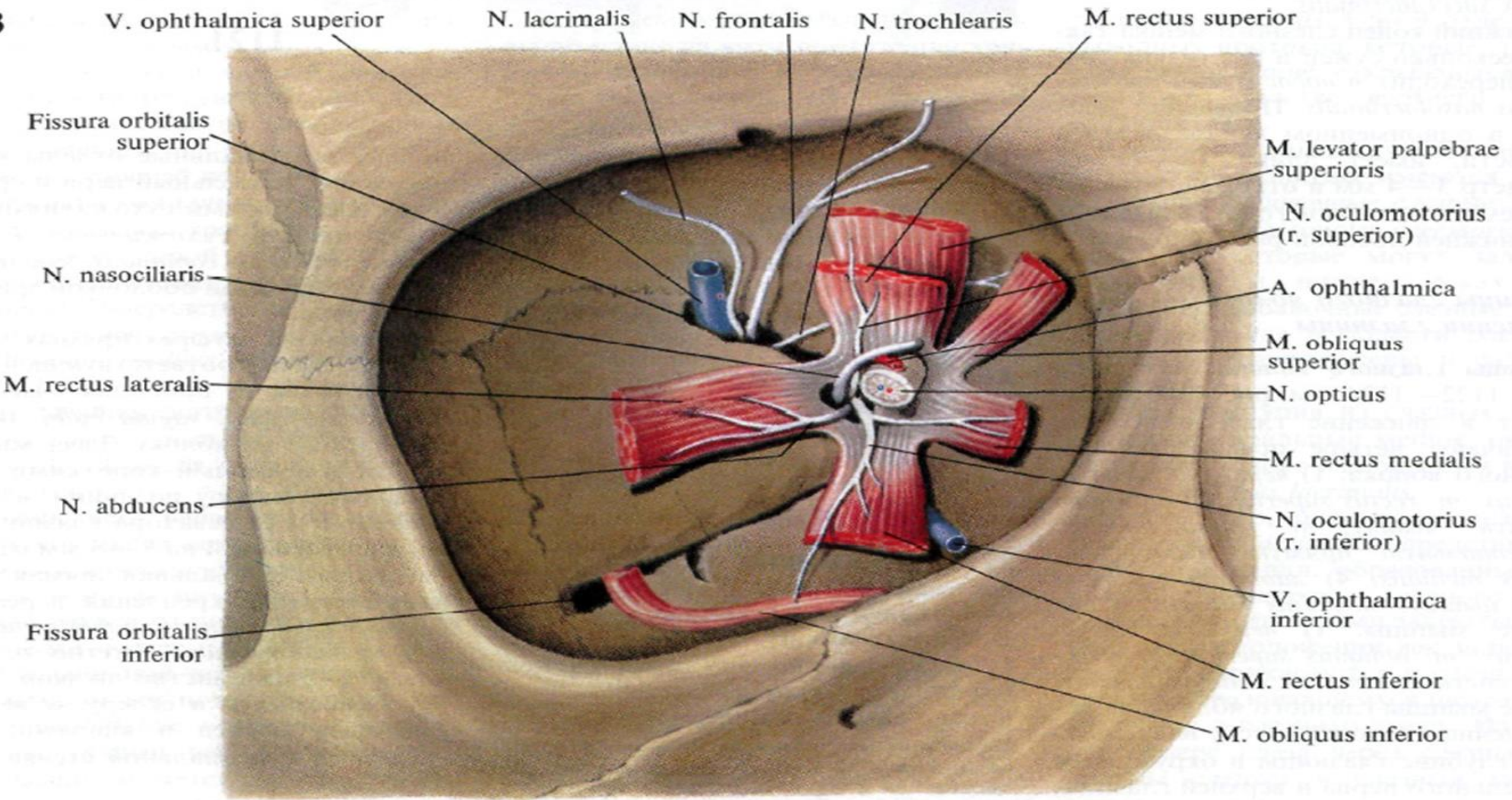
Meibomian glands

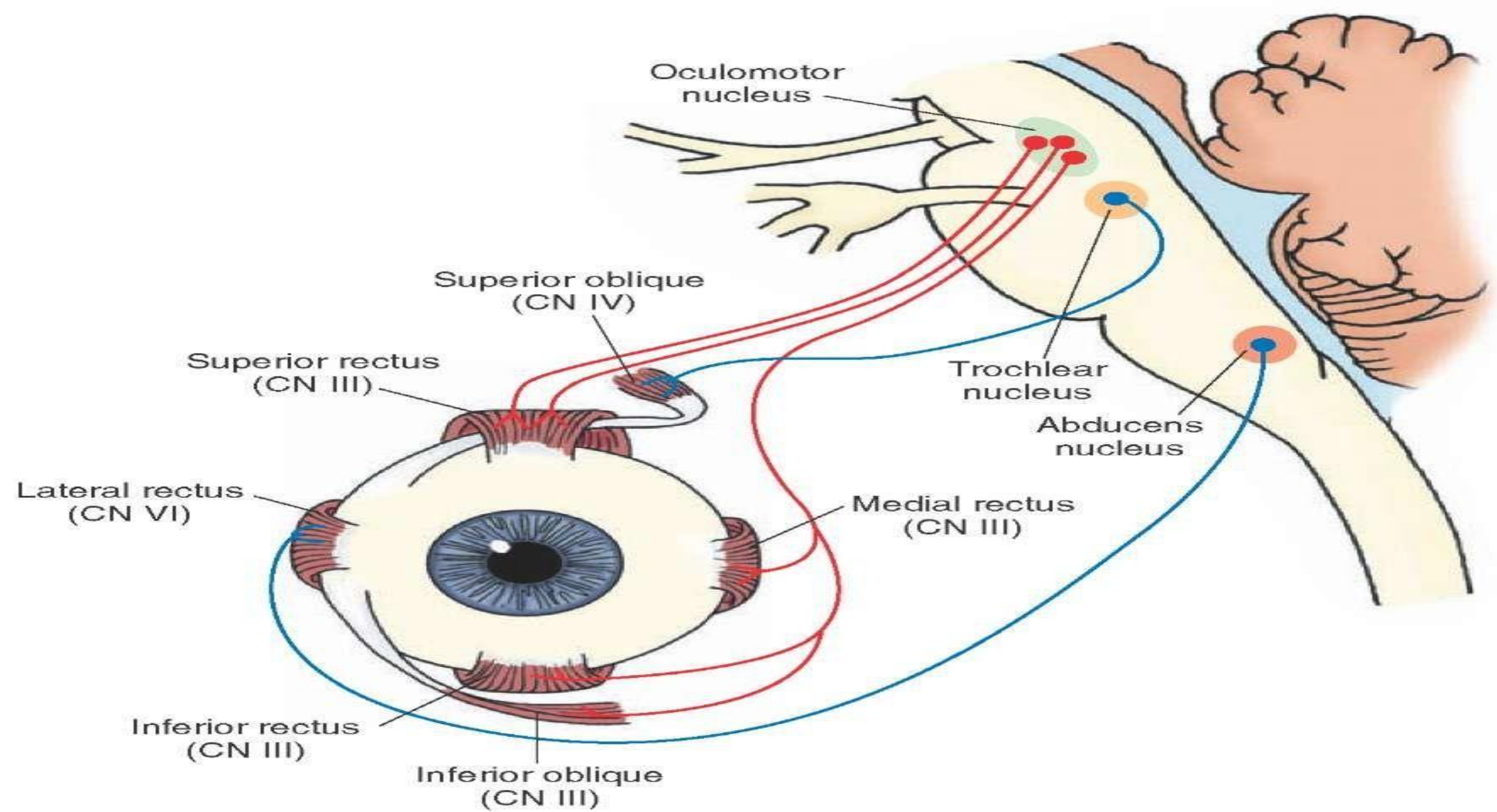


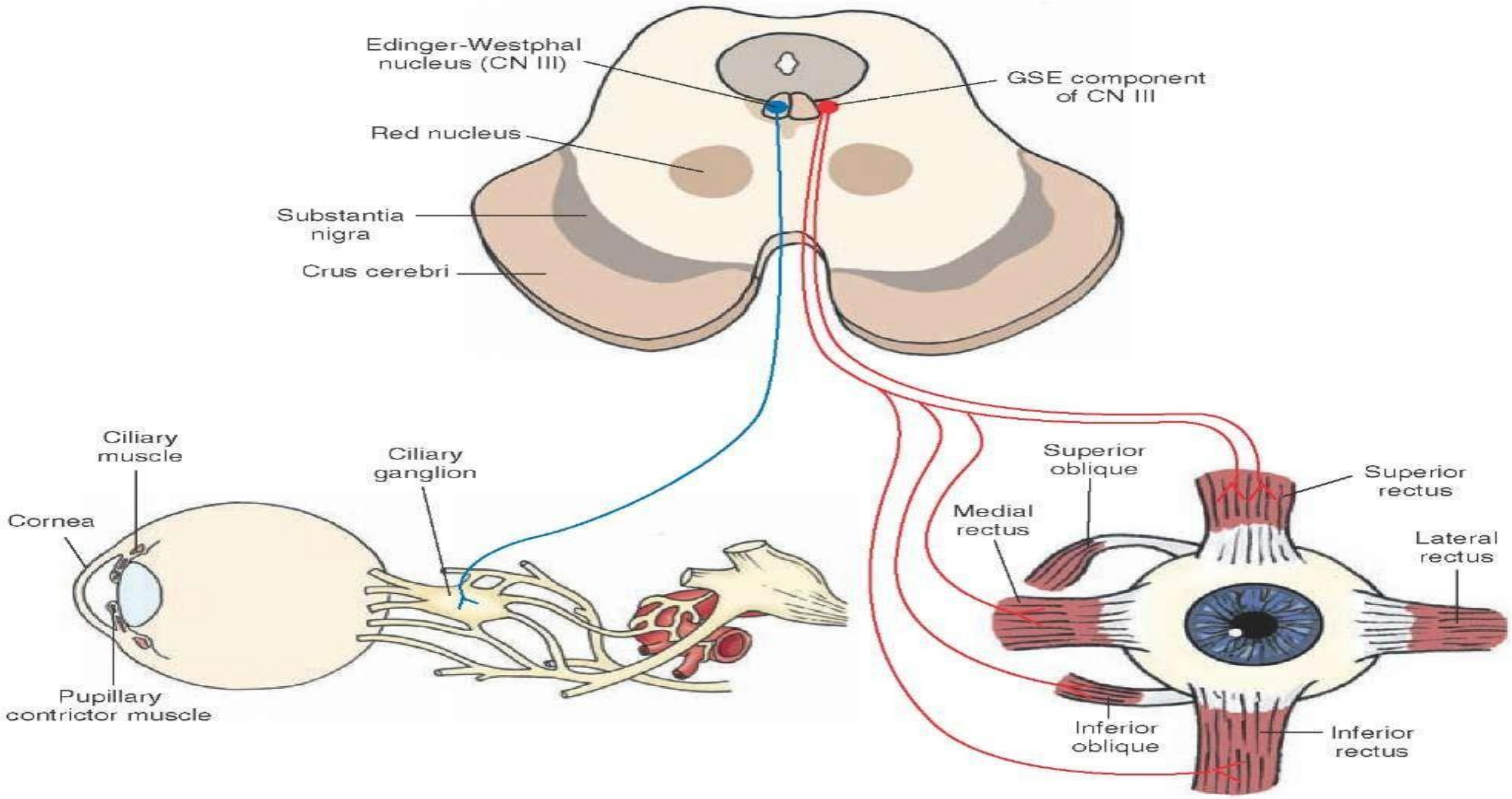












The coats of the eyeball

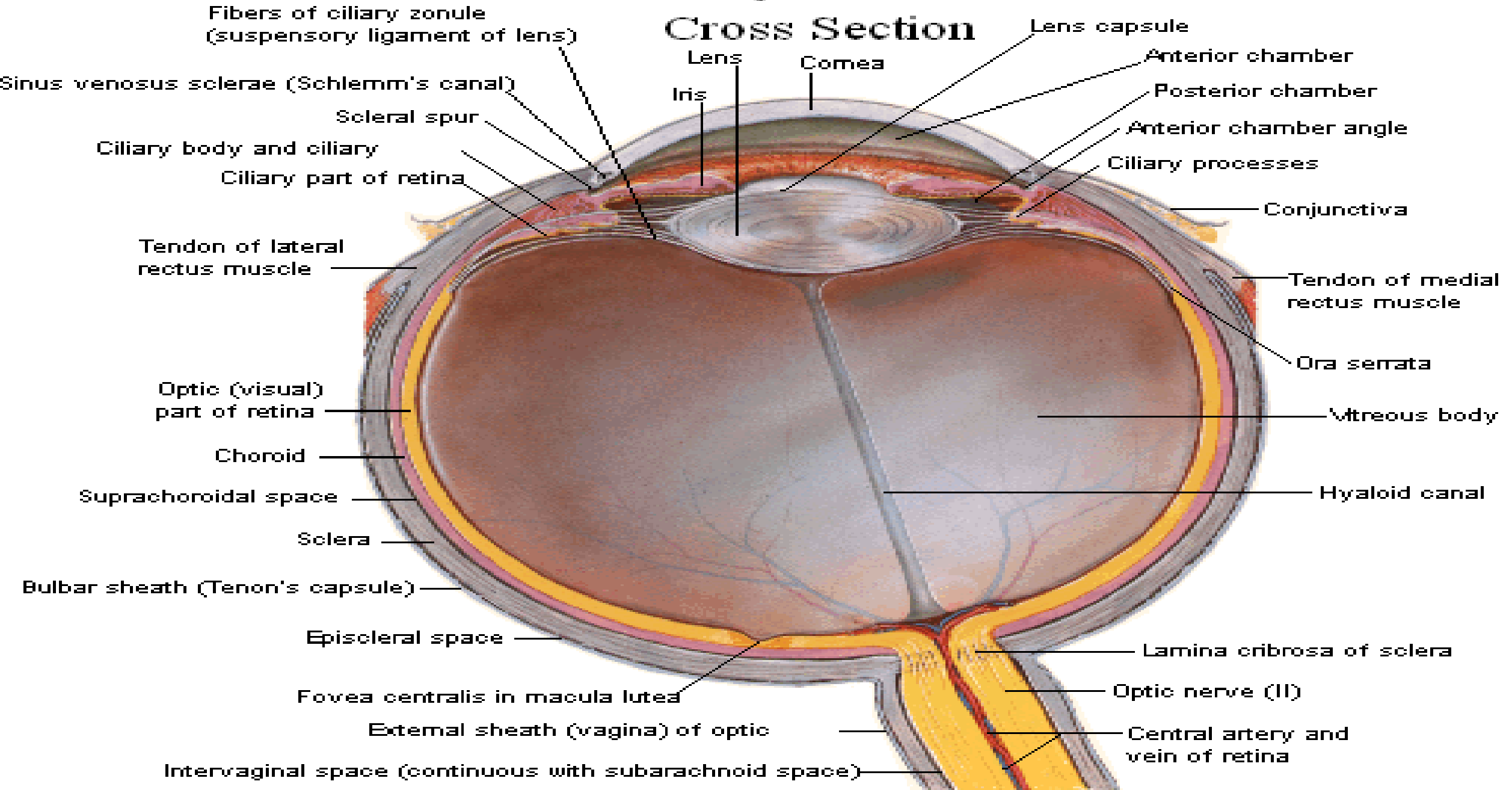
- ▶ 1. The fibrous coat (the sclera, the cornea)
- ▶ 2. The vascular coat (the choroid, the ciliary body, the iris).
- ▶ 3. The retina.

Organ of vision: The coats of the eyeball

- **Three coats:**
 - **1 – fibrous coat:** sclera, limbus cornea, cornea.
 - **2 – vascular coat:** chorioidea, corpus ciliare: (m.ciliaris, ciliary ring, ciliary processes and folds), iris: (mm.sphincter and dilator pupilla).
 - **3 – nervous coat (retina):** optic and blind parts.
- The refracting media or inner nucleus of the eye: vitreous body, lens, fluid (aqueous humour).**

Eyeball

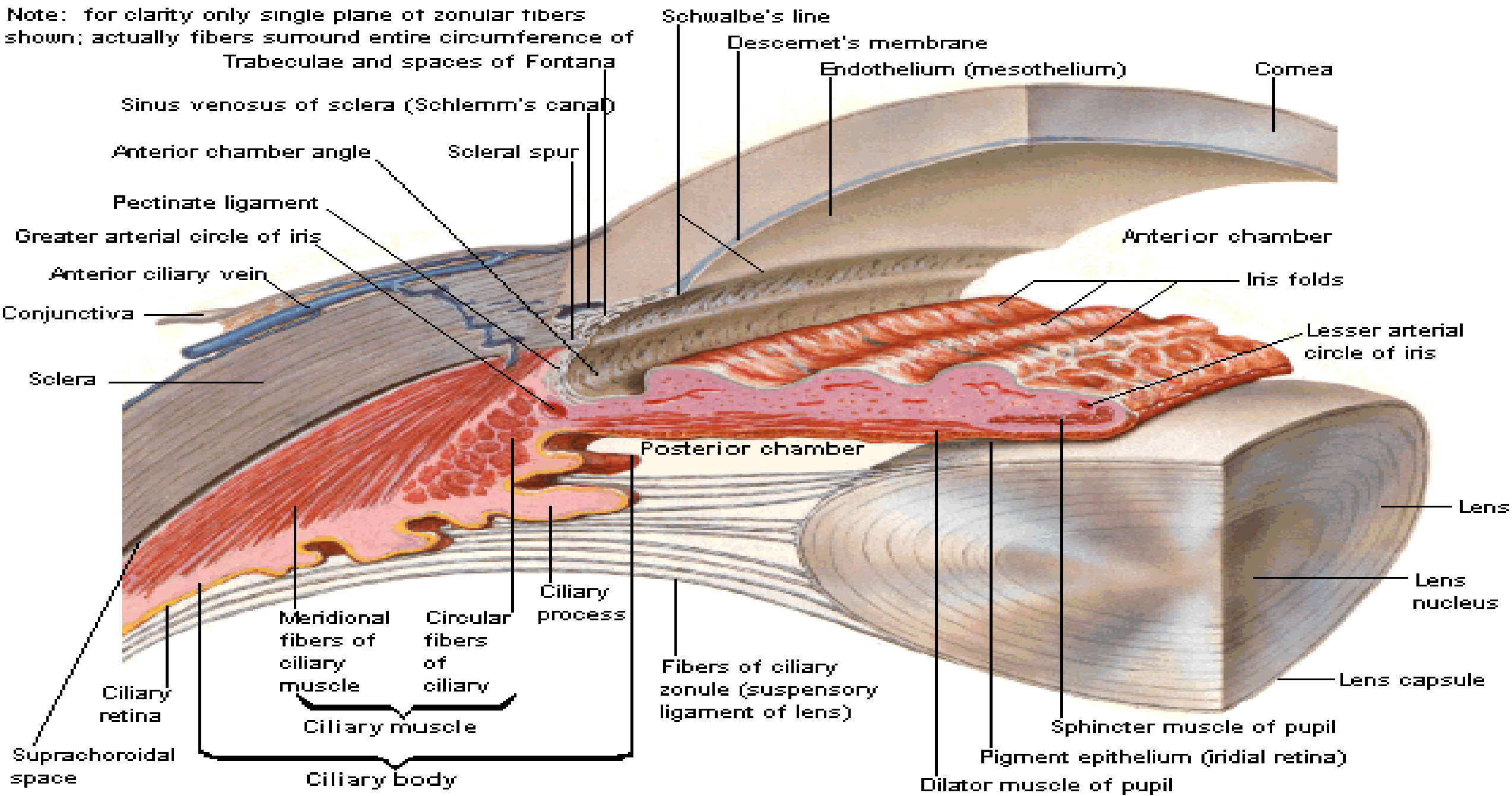
Cross Section



Horizontal section

Anterior and Posterior Chambers of Eye

Note: for clarity only single plane of zonular fibers shown; actually fibers surround entire circumference of Trabeculae and spaces of Fontana

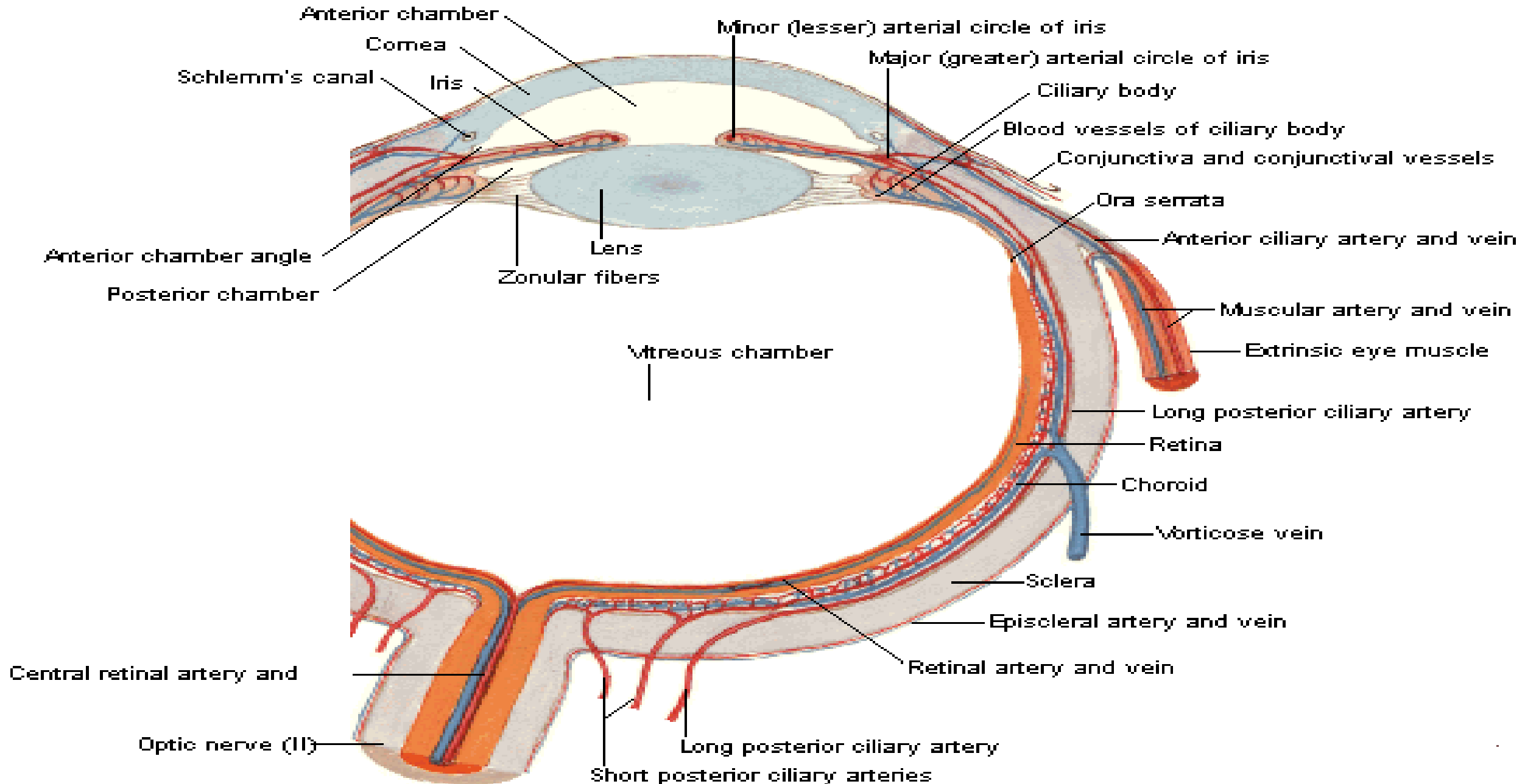


The refracting media of the eye

- **The vitreous body**
- **The lens**
- **The chambers of the eye (they are filled with aqueous humor)**

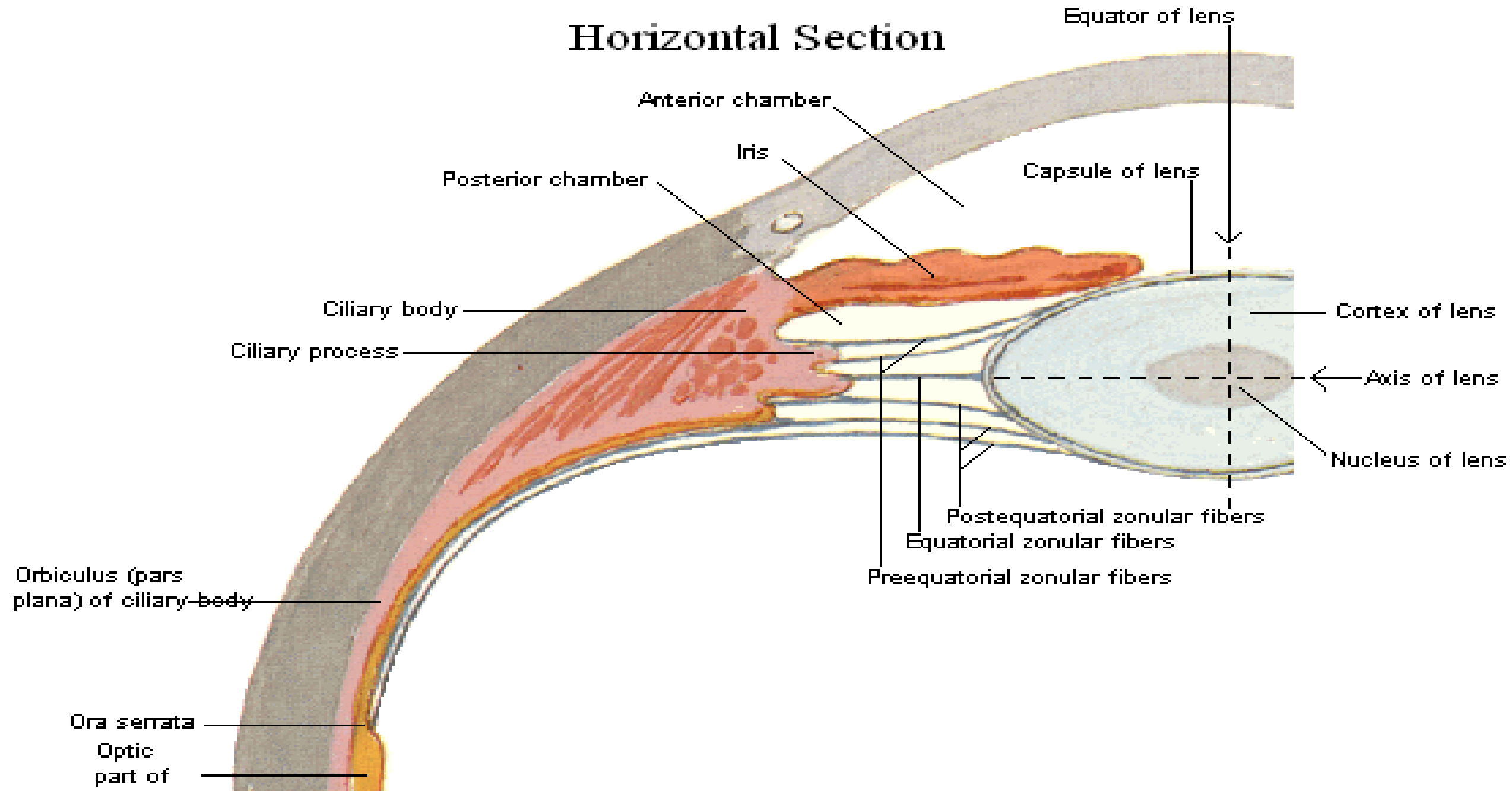
Intrinsic Arteries and Veins of Eye

Horizontal Section

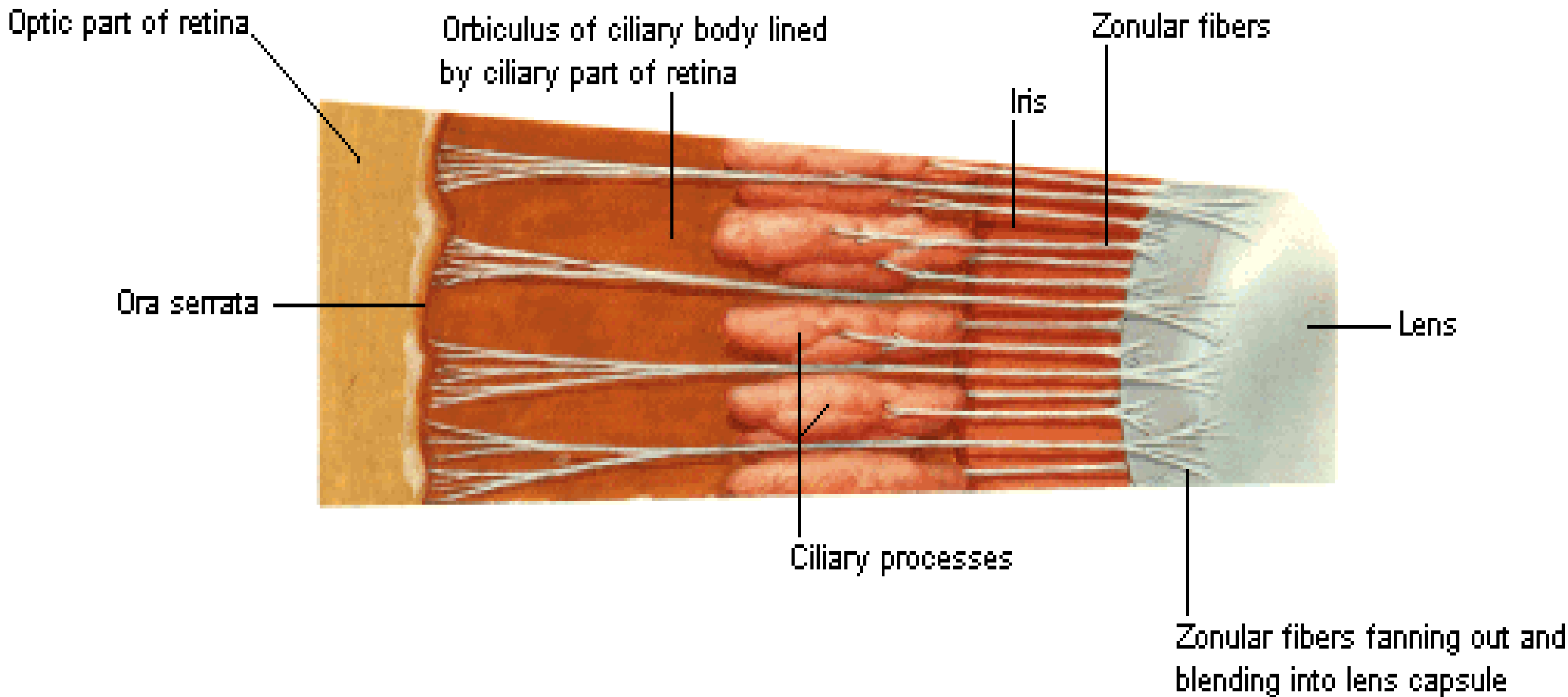


Lens and Supporting Structures

Horizontal Section

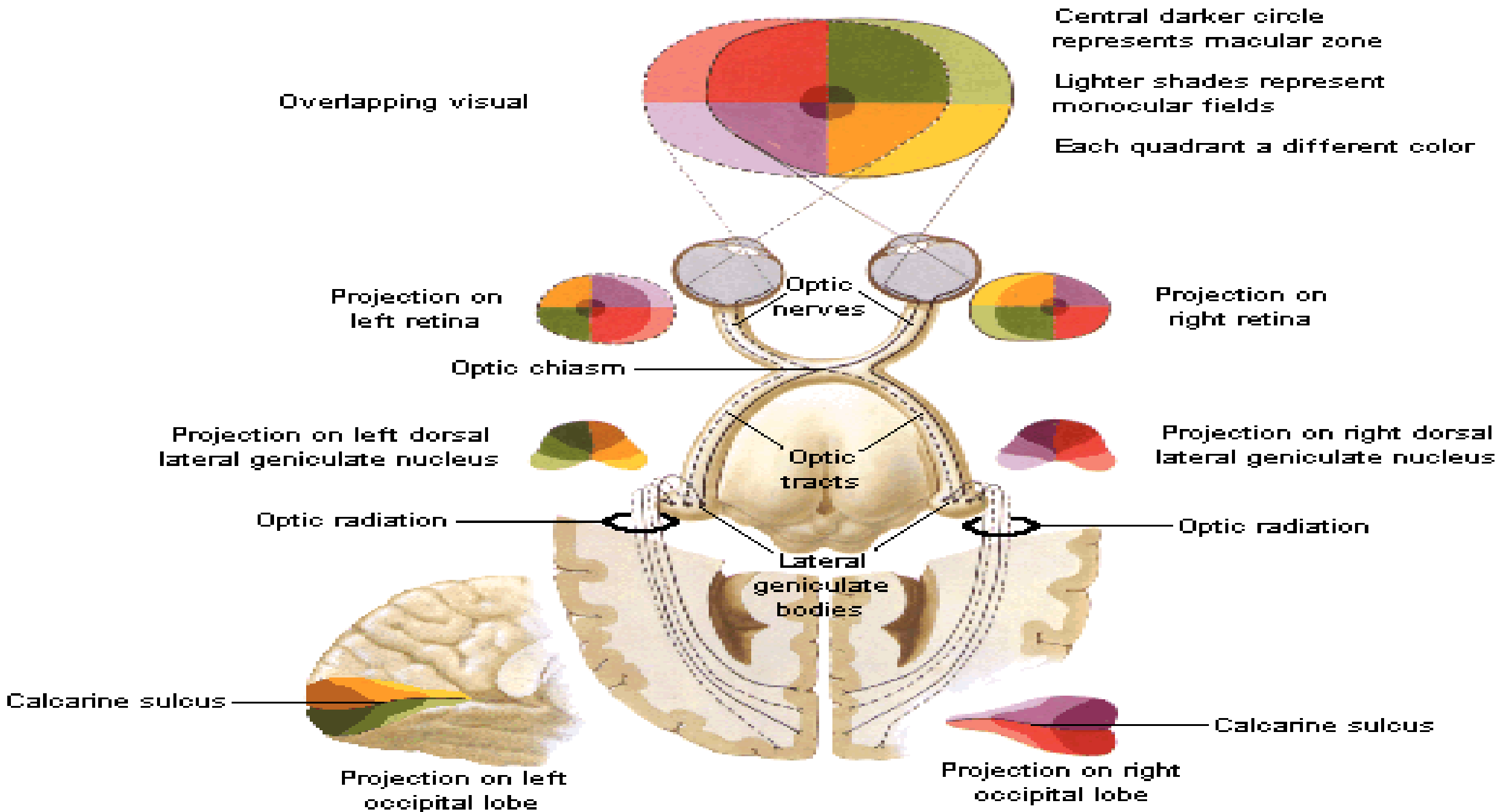


Lens and Supporting Structures



Magnified to ultramicroscopic scale (semischematic)

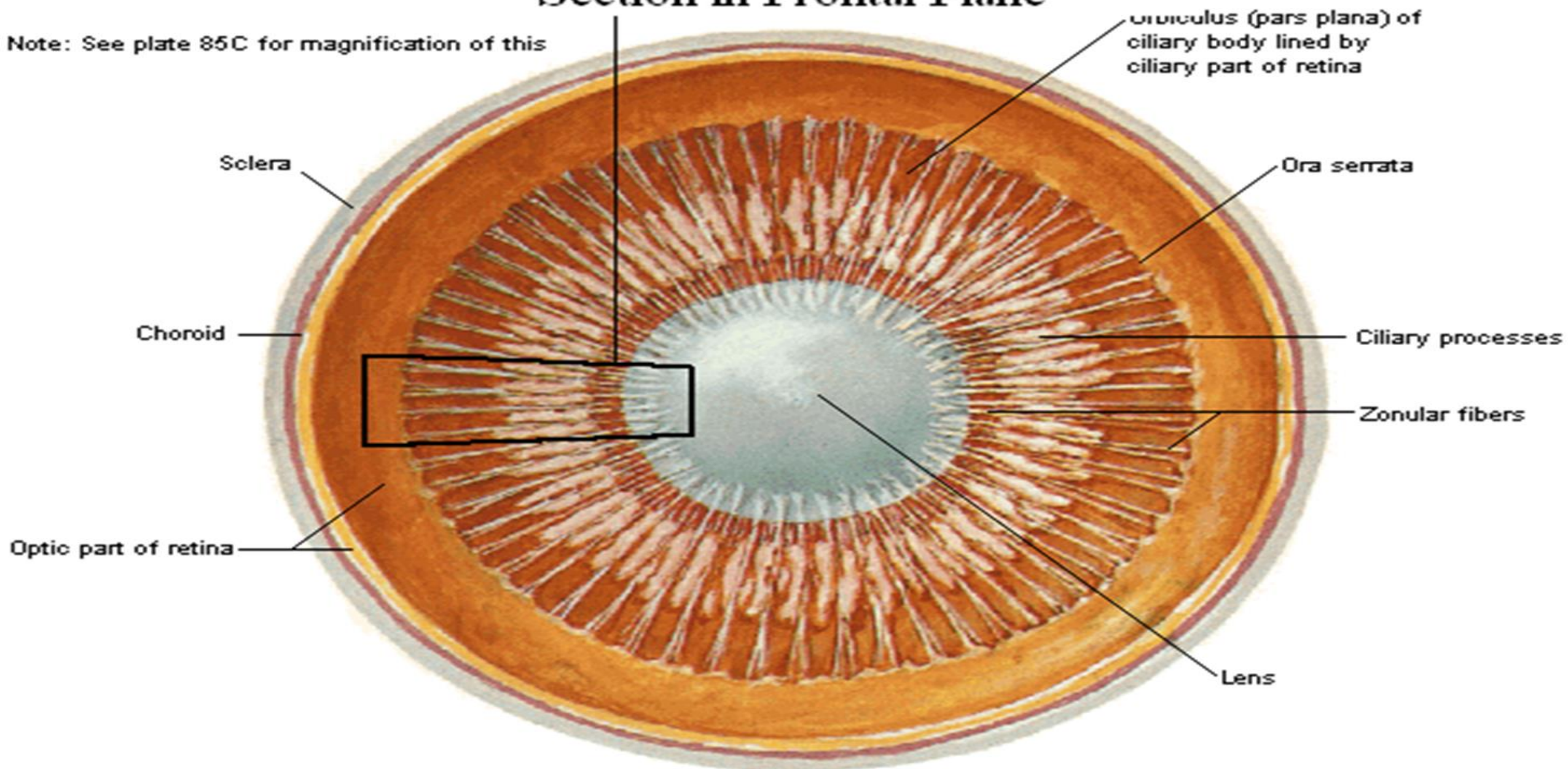
Optic Nerve [Visual Pathway]



Lens and Supporting Structures

Section in Frontal Plane

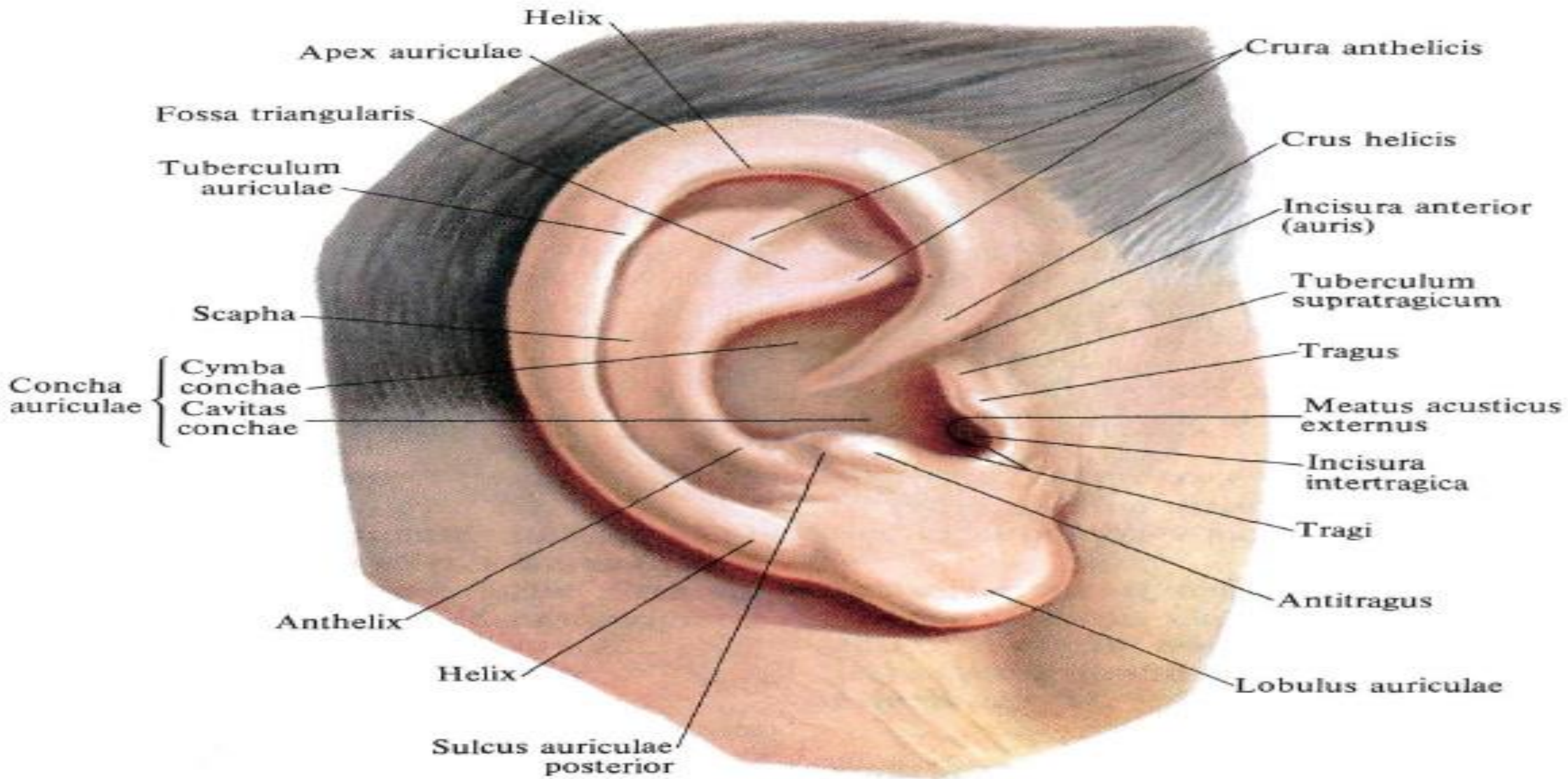
Note: See plate 85C for magnification of this

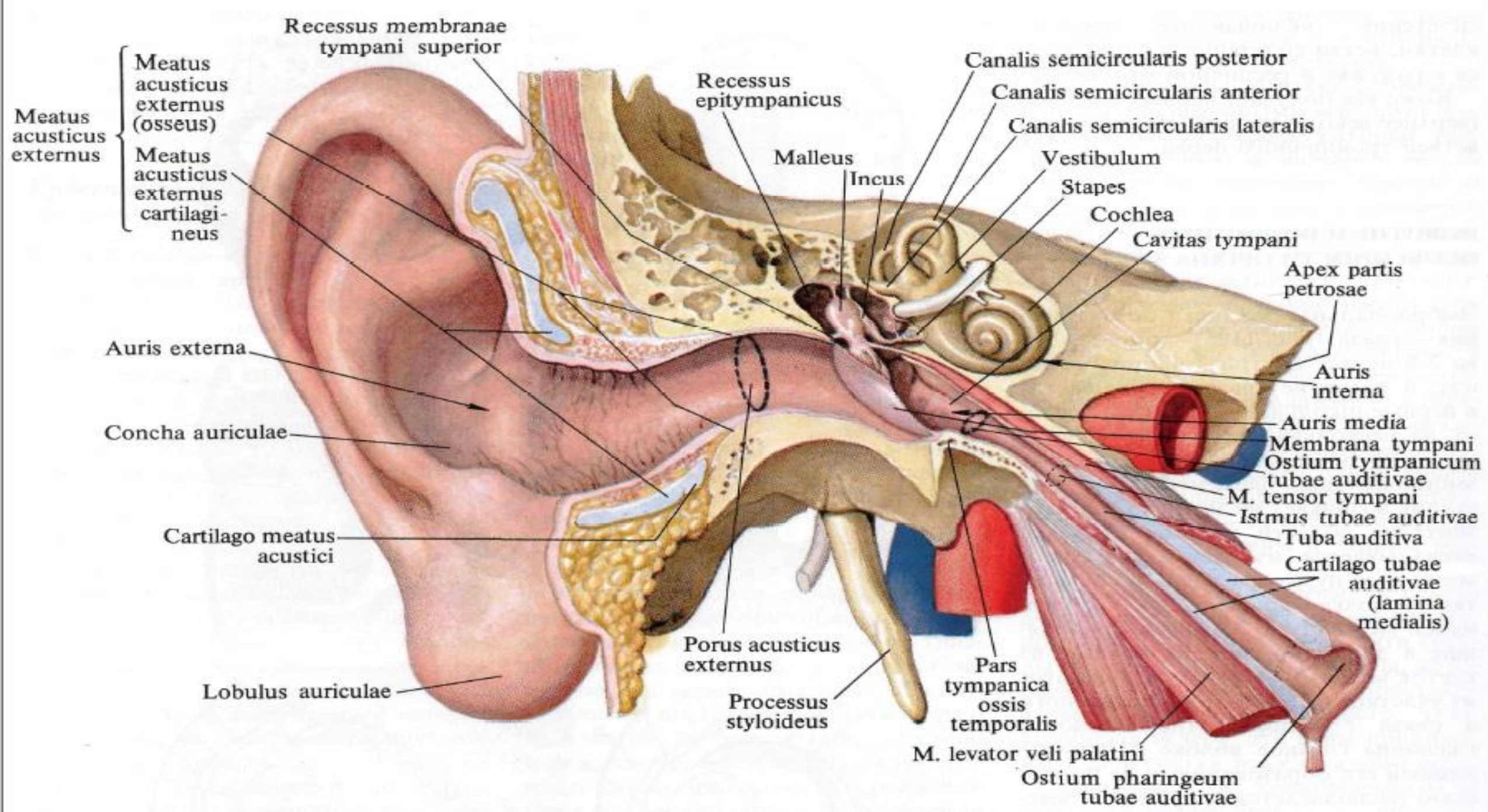


Bulb of eye: anterior segment viewed from behind

THE ORGAN OF HEARING AND GRAVITATION.

- ▶ **THE EXTERNAL EAR :** 1 – the auricle (ear).
- ▶ 2 – the external auditory meatus (“S”-shaped- cartilaginous and bony parts). The tympanic membrane— skin, fibrous tissue, mucous. Umbo, tensed and flaccid parts .
- ▶ **THE MIDDLE EAR :** 1 – the tympanic cavity (6 walls, 3 openings, 3 auditory ossicles: malleus-hammer, incus-anvil, stapes-stirrup). 2 – the auditory tube (bony and cartilaginous parts).
- ▶ **THE INTERNAL EAR :** 1 - the bony labyrinth (the vestibule, 3 semicircular canals, cochlea). 2 – the membranous labyrinth (vestibule –utricle,saccule; 3 semicircular ducts, cochlear duct).





Recessus membranae tympani superior

Meatus acusticus externus
 { Meatus acusticus externus (osseus)
 Meatus acusticus externus cartilagineus

Recessus epitympanicus

Canalis semicircularis posterior
 Canalis semicircularis anterior
 Canalis semicircularis lateralis

Malleus
 Incus
 Vestibulum
 Stapes
 Cochlea
 Cavitas tympani

Apex partis petrosae

Auris externa

Auris interna

Concha auriculæ

Auris media

Cartilago meatus acustici

Membrana tympani
 Ostium tympanicum tubae auditivae

Lobulus auriculæ

Porus acusticus externus

Pars tympanica ossis temporalis

M. tensor tympani
 Isthmus tubae auditivae
 Tuba auditiva

Processus styloideus

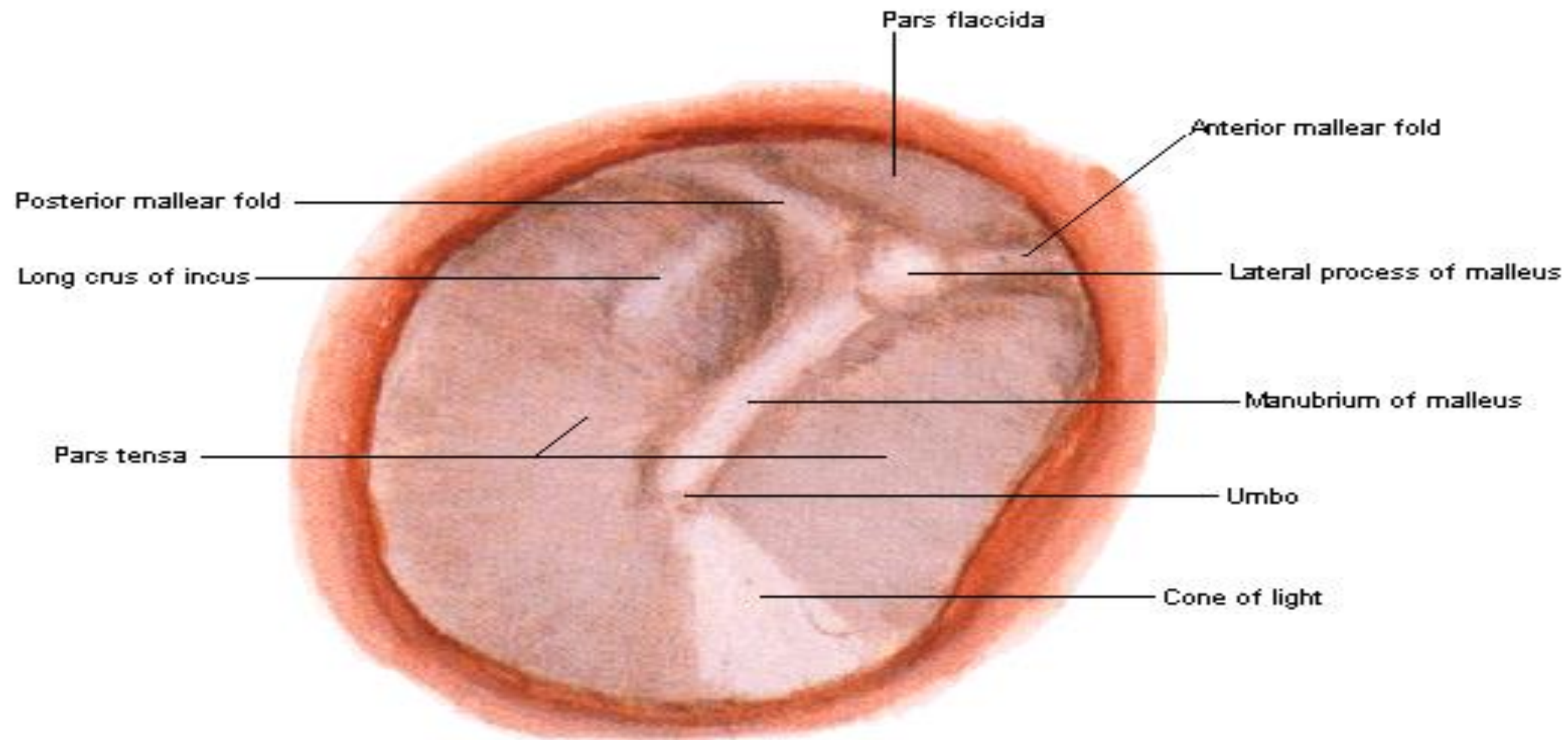
Cartilago tubae auditivae (lamina medialis)

M. levator veli palatini

Ostium pharyngeum tubae auditivae

External Ear

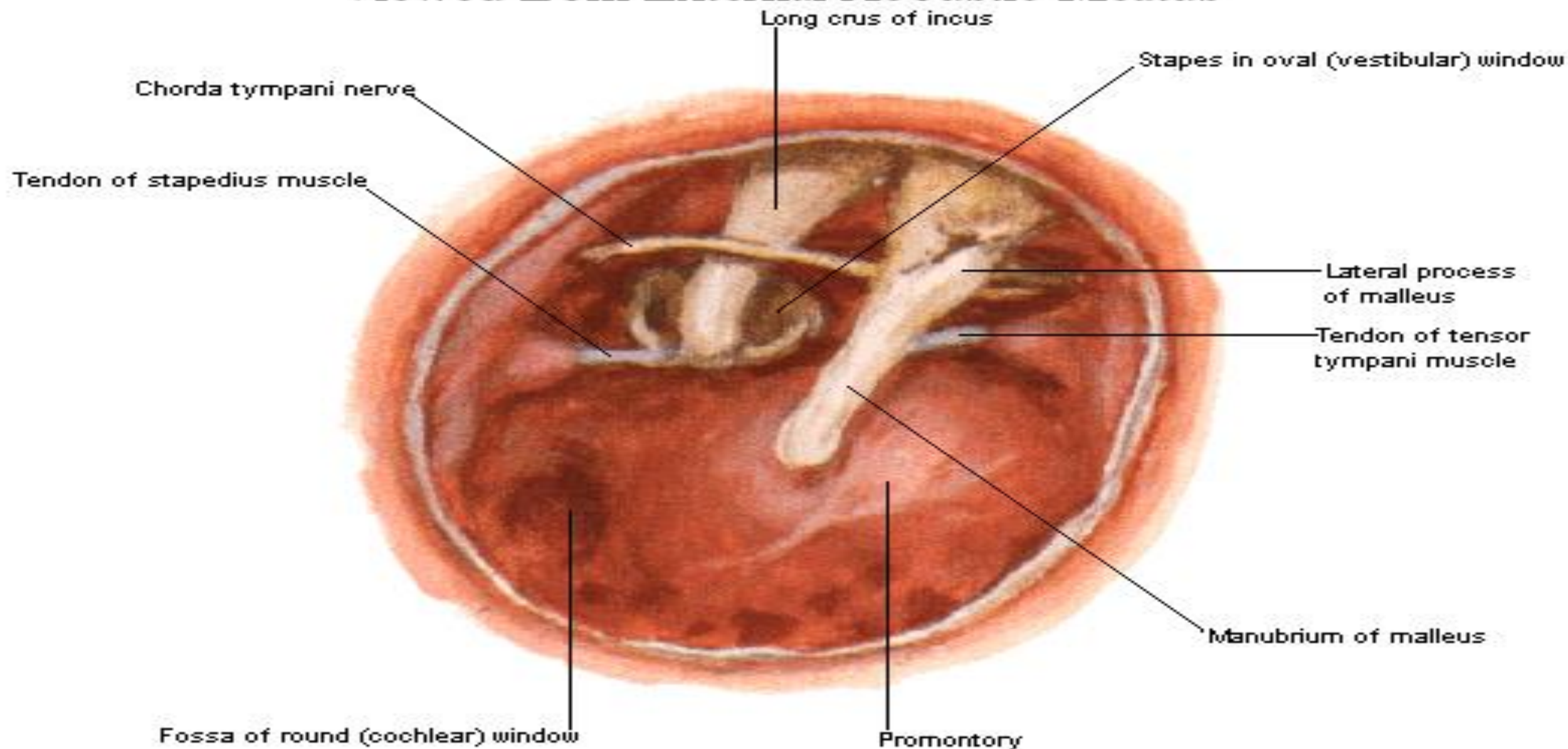
Right Tympanic Membrane



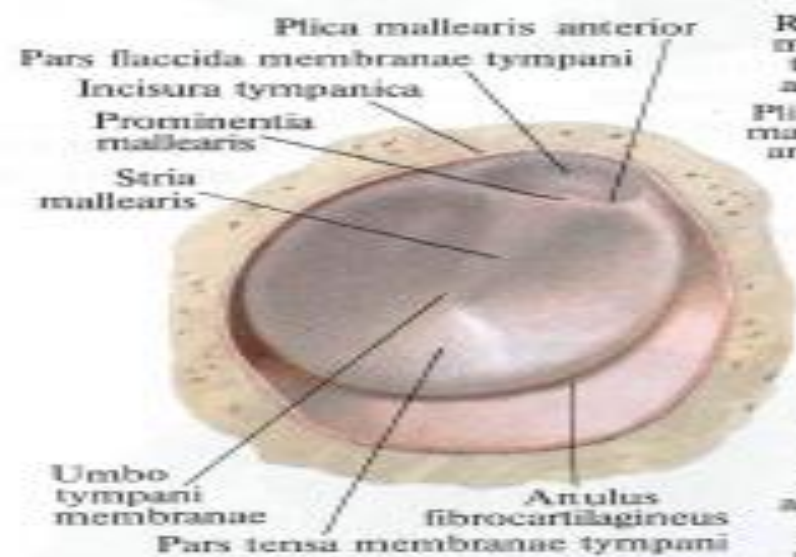
Viewed through speculum

Tympanic Cavity

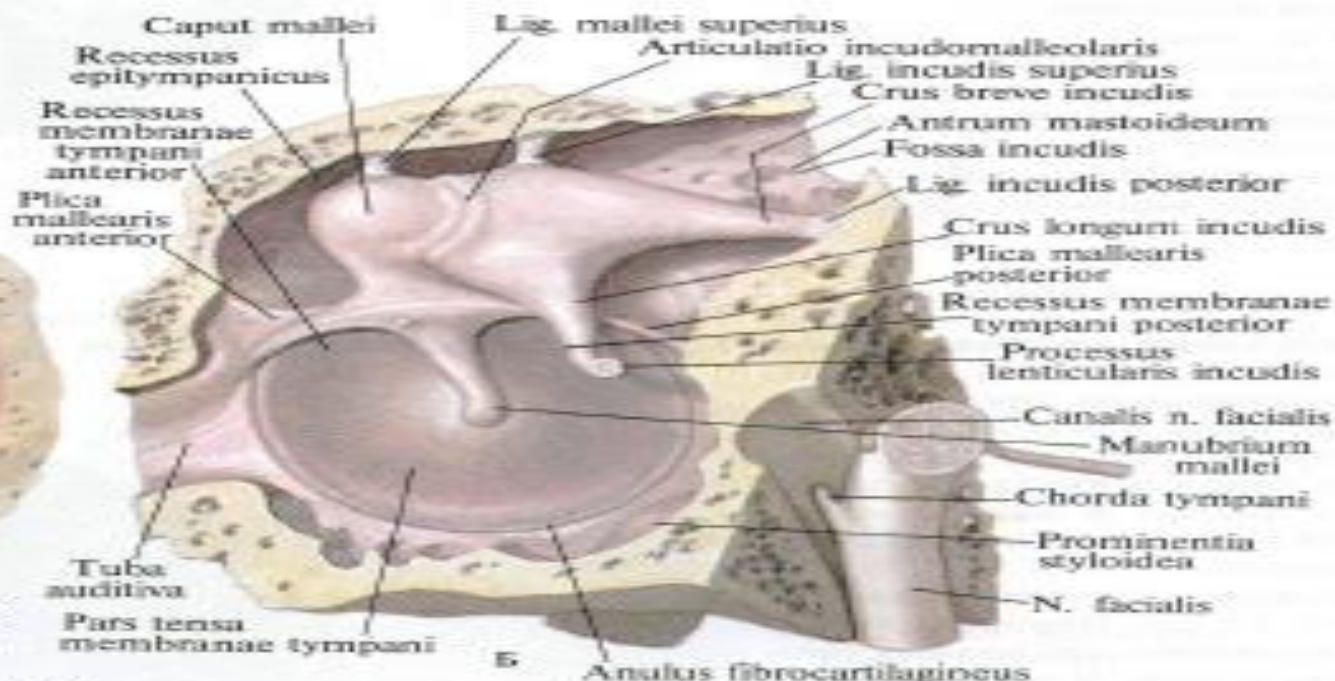
Viewed from External Acoustic Meatus



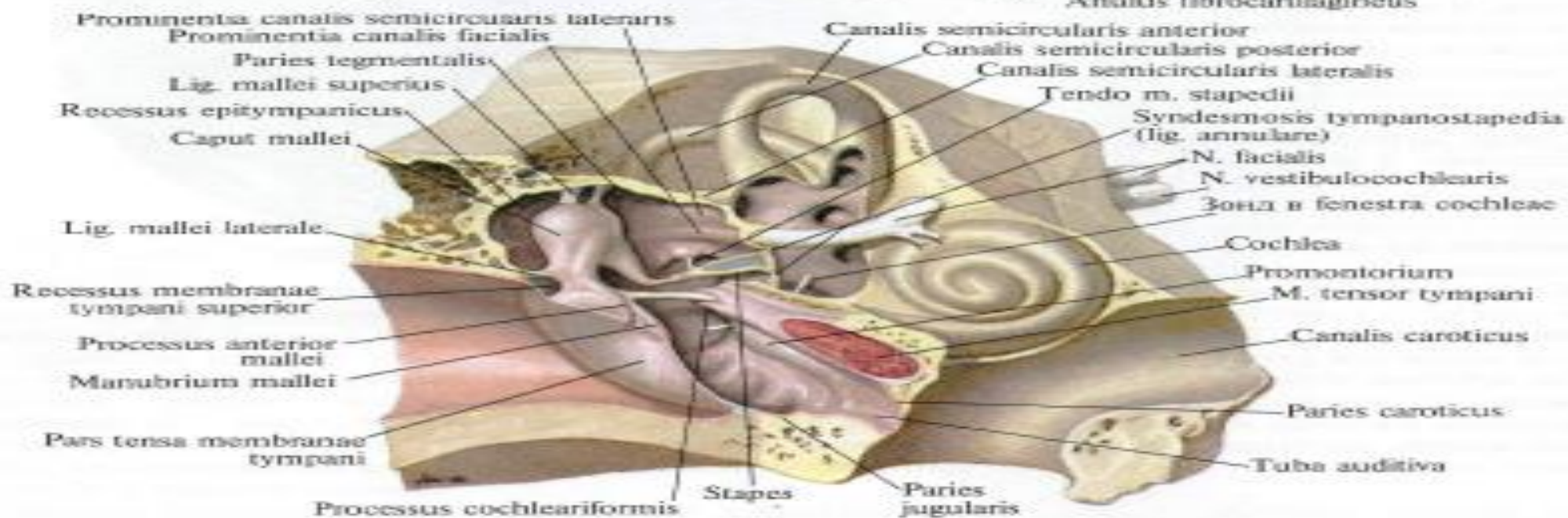
Tympanic Membrane Removed



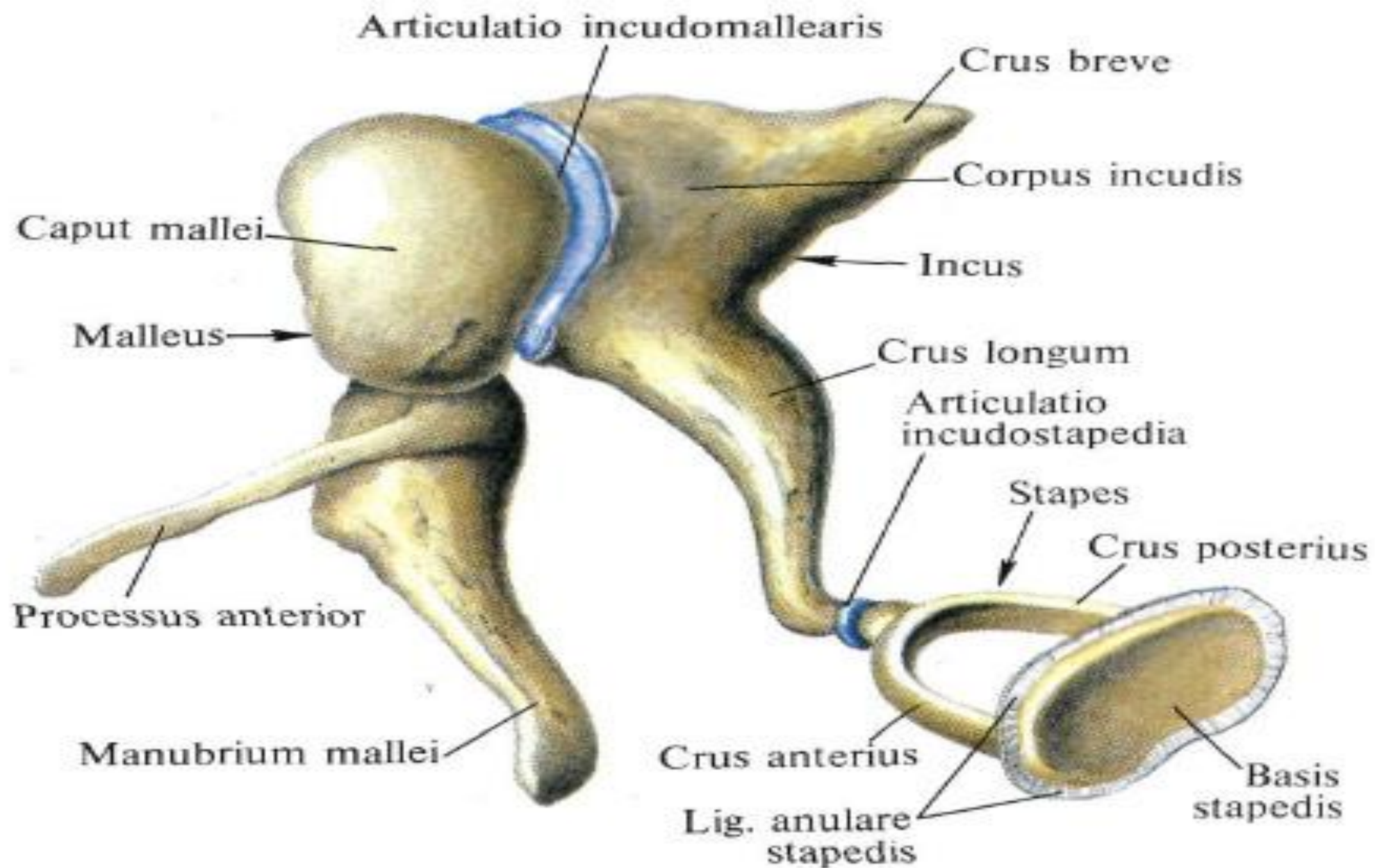
A



B



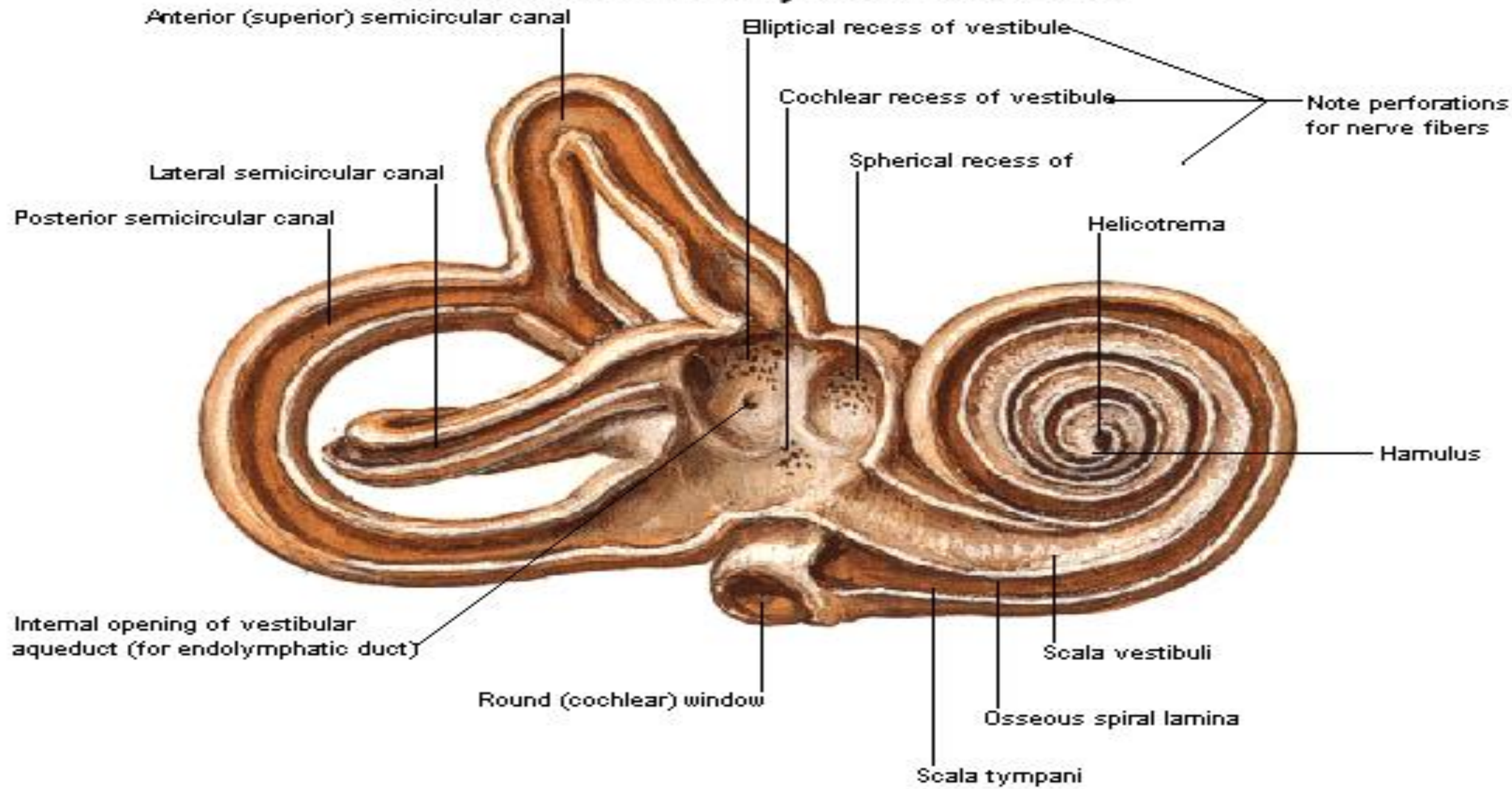
C

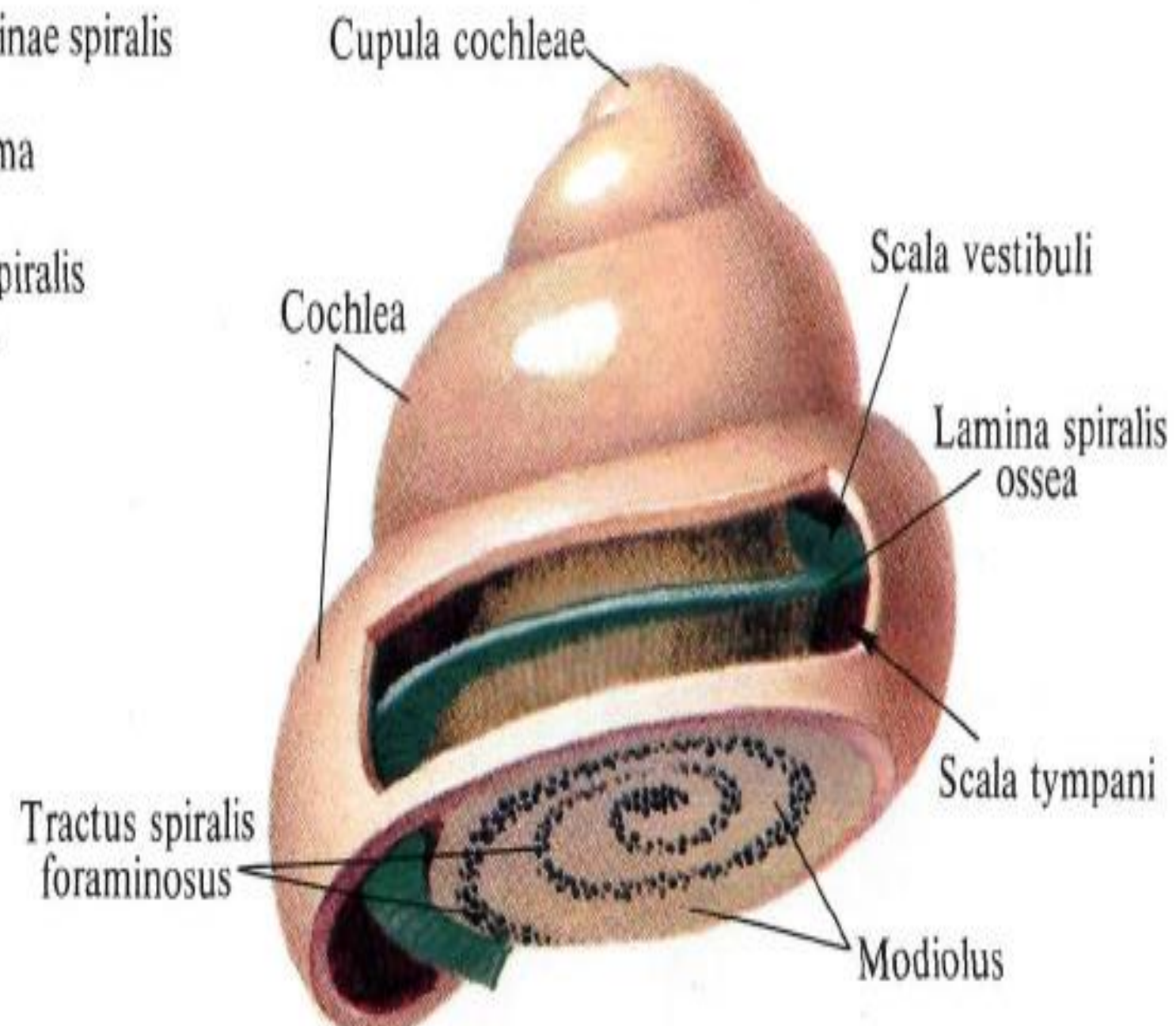
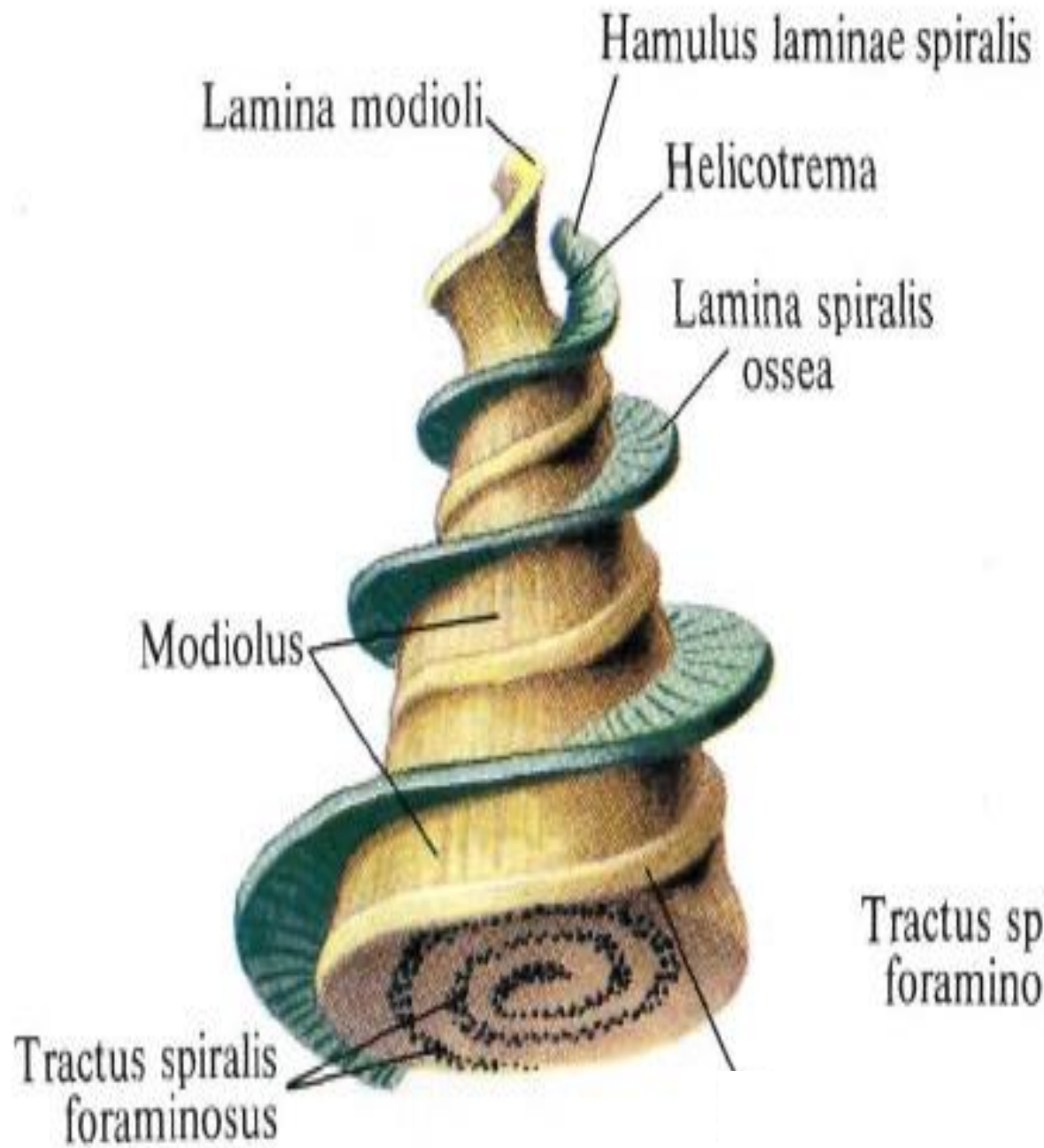


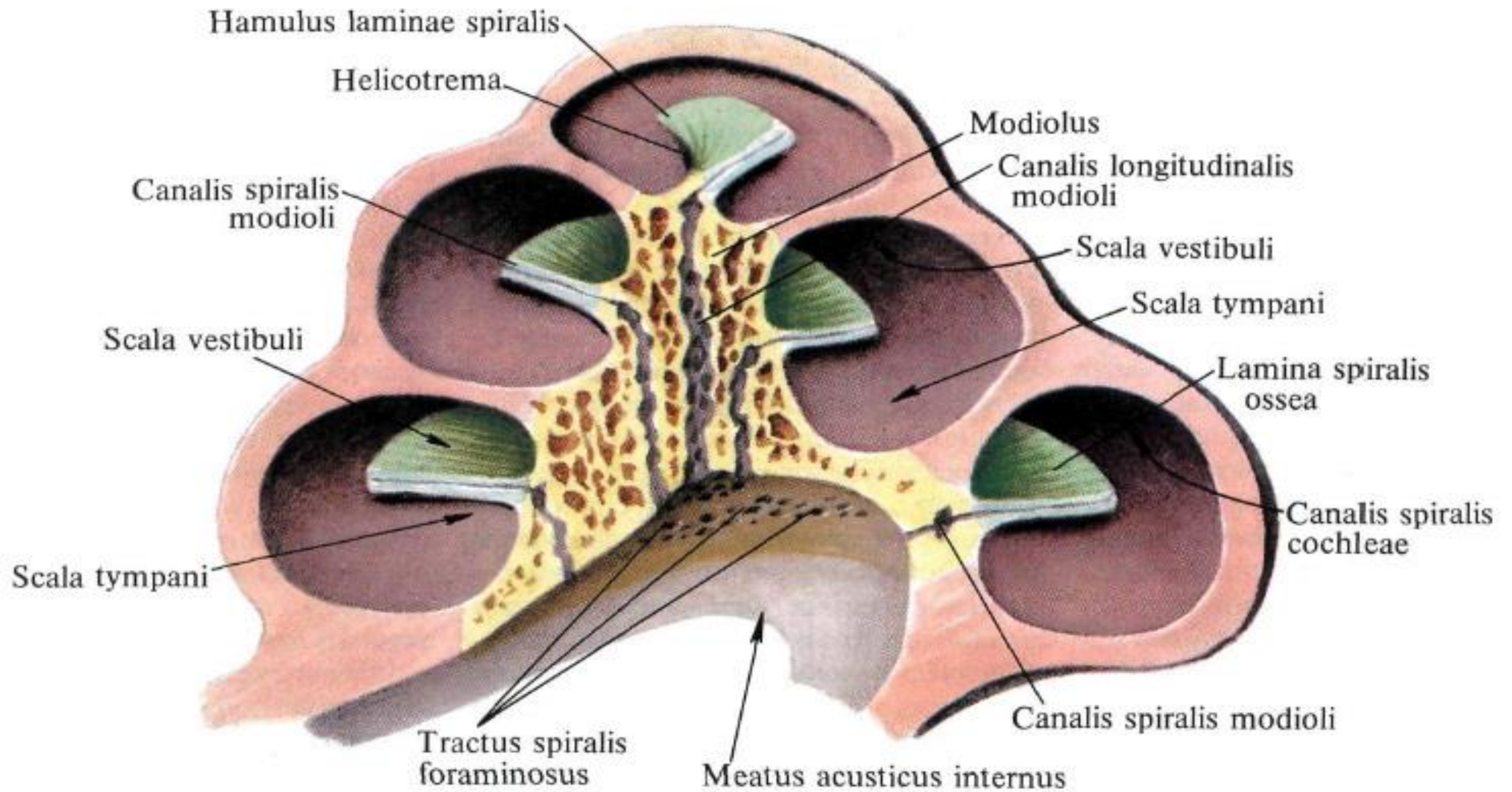
THE ORGAN OF HEARING AND GRAVITATION

- ***3. The internal ear***
- **-bony labyrinth (the vestibule, the cochlea, the semicircular canals)**
- **-membranous labyrinth**

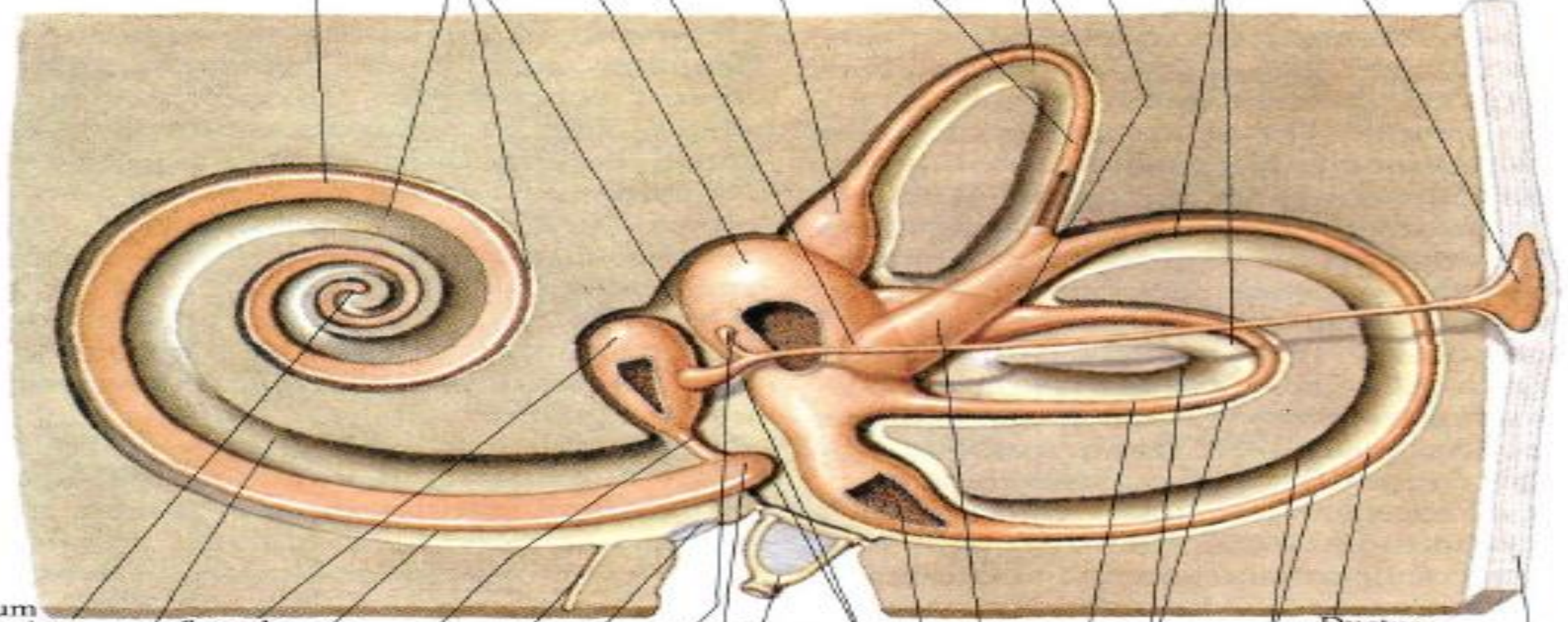
Right Osseous Labyrinth - Dissected Membranous Labyrinth Removed







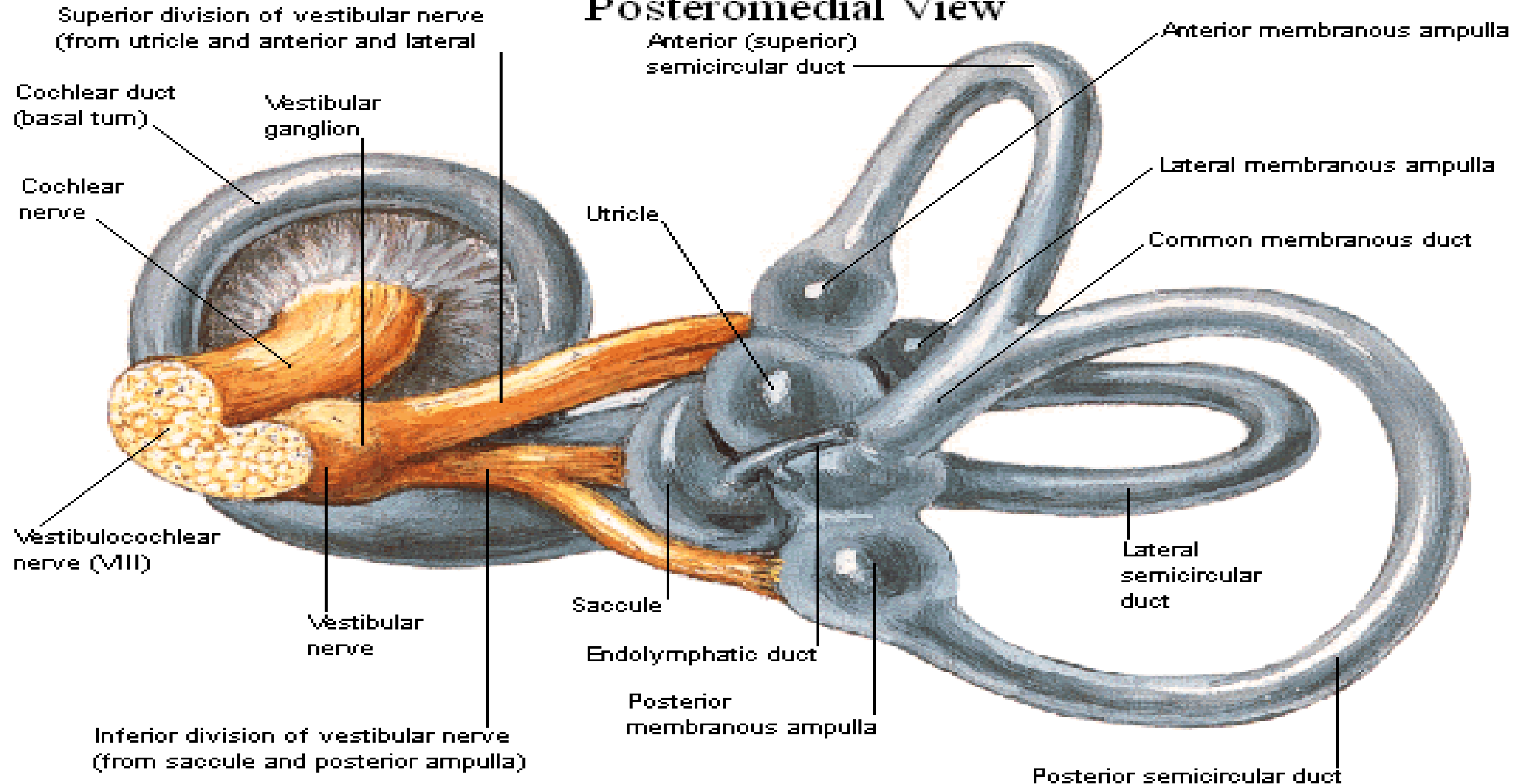
Ductus endolymphaticus
 Utriculus
 Spatium perilymphaticum
 Ductus cochlearis
 Ampulla membranacea anterior
 Ductus semicircularis anterior (частично вскрыт)
 Canalis semicircularis anterior
 Ampulla membranacea lateralis
 Spatium perilymphaticum
 Saccus endolymphaticus



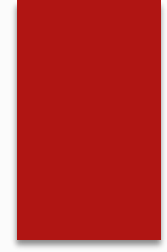
Cecum cupulare
 Sacculus
 Scala vestibuli
 Scala tympani
 Ductus reuniens
 Canaliculus cochleae (содержащий ductus perilymphaticus)
 Membrana tympani secundaria
 Ductus utriculosaccularis
 Stapes
 Vestibulum
 Ampulla membranacea posterior (вскрыта)
 Cecum vestibulare
 Ampulla membranacea anterior
 Ductus semicircularis anterior (частично вскрыт)
 Canalis semicircularis anterior
 Ampulla membranacea lateralis
 Spatium perilymphaticum
 Saccus endolymphaticus
 Ductus semicircularis posterior
 Canalis semicircularis posterior
 Canalis semicircularis lateralis
 Ductus semicircularis lateralis
 Crus membranaceus commune
 Dura mater encephali

Right Membranous Labyrinth with Nerves

Posteromedial View

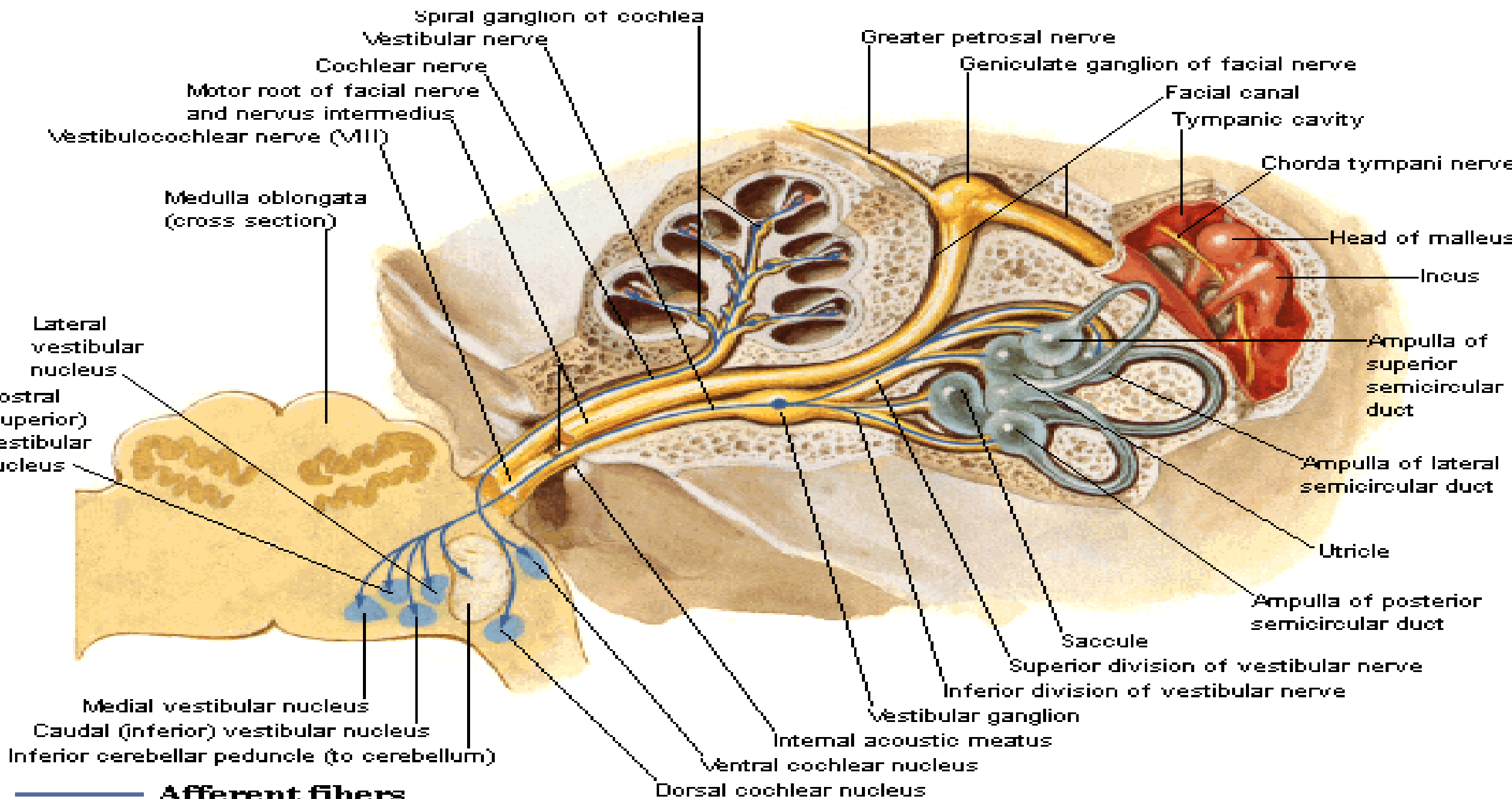


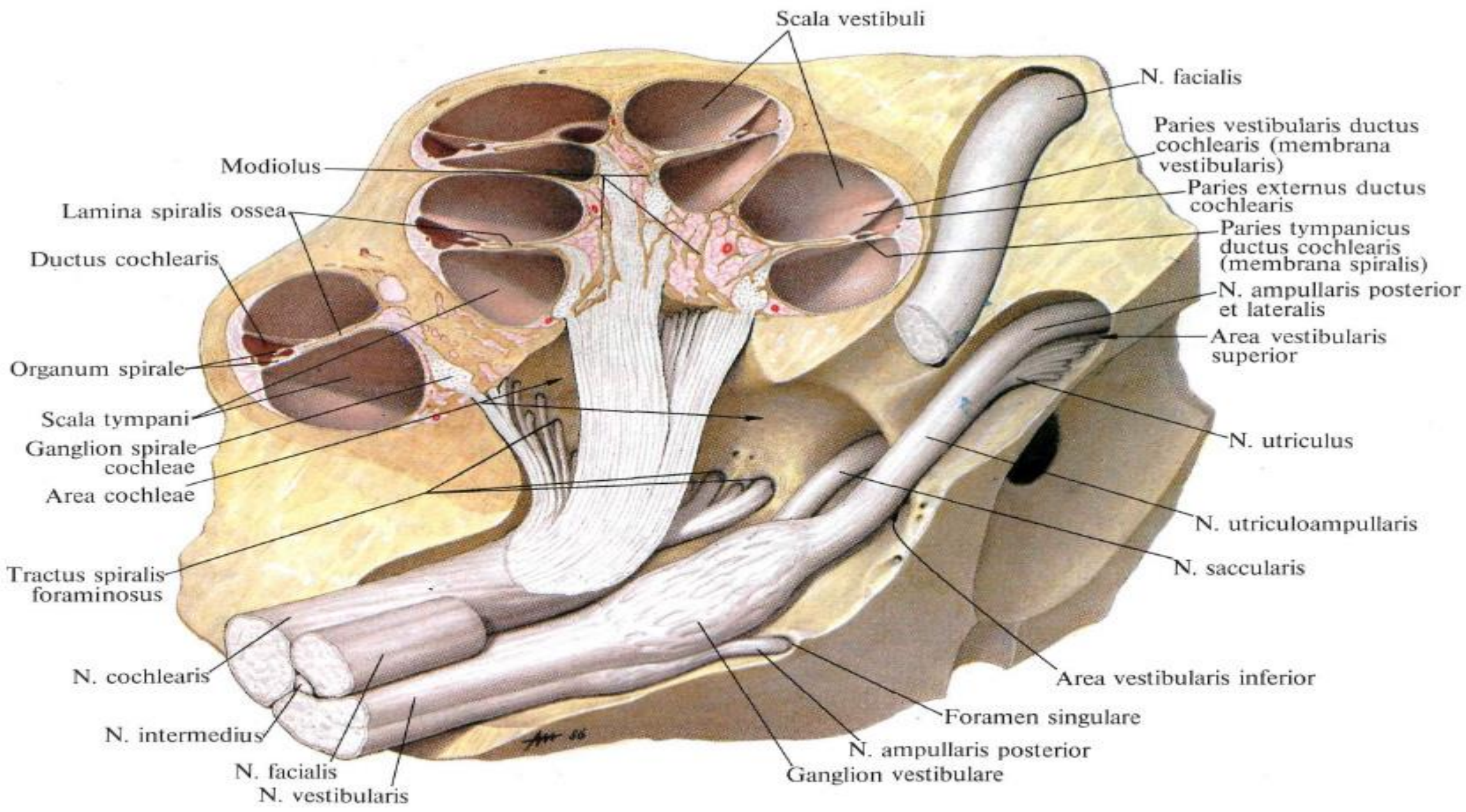
8-th(VIII) pair – the auditory (vestibulocochlear) nerve.



- ▶ **The vestibular nerve: receptors-** sensory cells of the utricle, saccule (receptors of static equilibrium) and of the semicircular canals (receptors of dynamic equilibrium).
- ▶ **I n.** – gang. vestibulare
- ▶ **II n.** -nuclei vestibulares
- ▶ **III n.**-opposite lateral thalamic nuclei. **Cortex** of the temporal and parietal lobes.
- ▶ **The cochlear nerve: receptors-**acoustic cells of the Corti organ on the walls of the membranous cochlear duct
- ▶ **I n.**- ganglia spirales
- ▶ **II n.**-nucleus dorsalis and ventralis of the pons
- ▶ **III n.**- opposite inferior colliculus of the midbrain and medial geniculate body.
- ▶ **Cortex** of the superior temporal gyrus.

Vestibulocochlear Nerve





Scala vestibuli

N. facialis

Modiolus

Paries vestibularis ductus cochlearis (membrana vestibularis)

Lamina spiralis ossea

Paries externus ductus cochlearis

Ductus cochlearis

Paries tympanicus ductus cochlearis (membrana spiralis)

Organum spirale

N. ampullaris posterior et lateralis

Scala tympani

Area vestibularis superior

Ganglion spirale cochleae

N. utriculus

Area cochleae

N. utriculoampullaris

Tractus spiralis foraminosus

N. saccularis

N. cochlearis

Area vestibularis inferior

N. intermedius

Foramen singulare

N. facialis

N. ampullaris posterior

N. vestibularis

Ganglion vestibulare

Taste (gustatory) pathway

- **1. Receptors** Taste buds on tongue, lips, palatal arch and soft palate. Each “bud” contains several cell types in microvilli (taste hairs) that project through taste pore.
- Gustatory receptor cells communicate with cranial nerve axon endings to transmit sensation to brain.
- **Cranial Nerves of taste**
- Anterior 2/3 tongue: chorda tympani → Facial nerve
- Posterior 1/3 tongue: Glossopharyngeal nerve
- Most posterior part of the tongue: Vagus nerve

Gustatory Pathway from Taste Buds

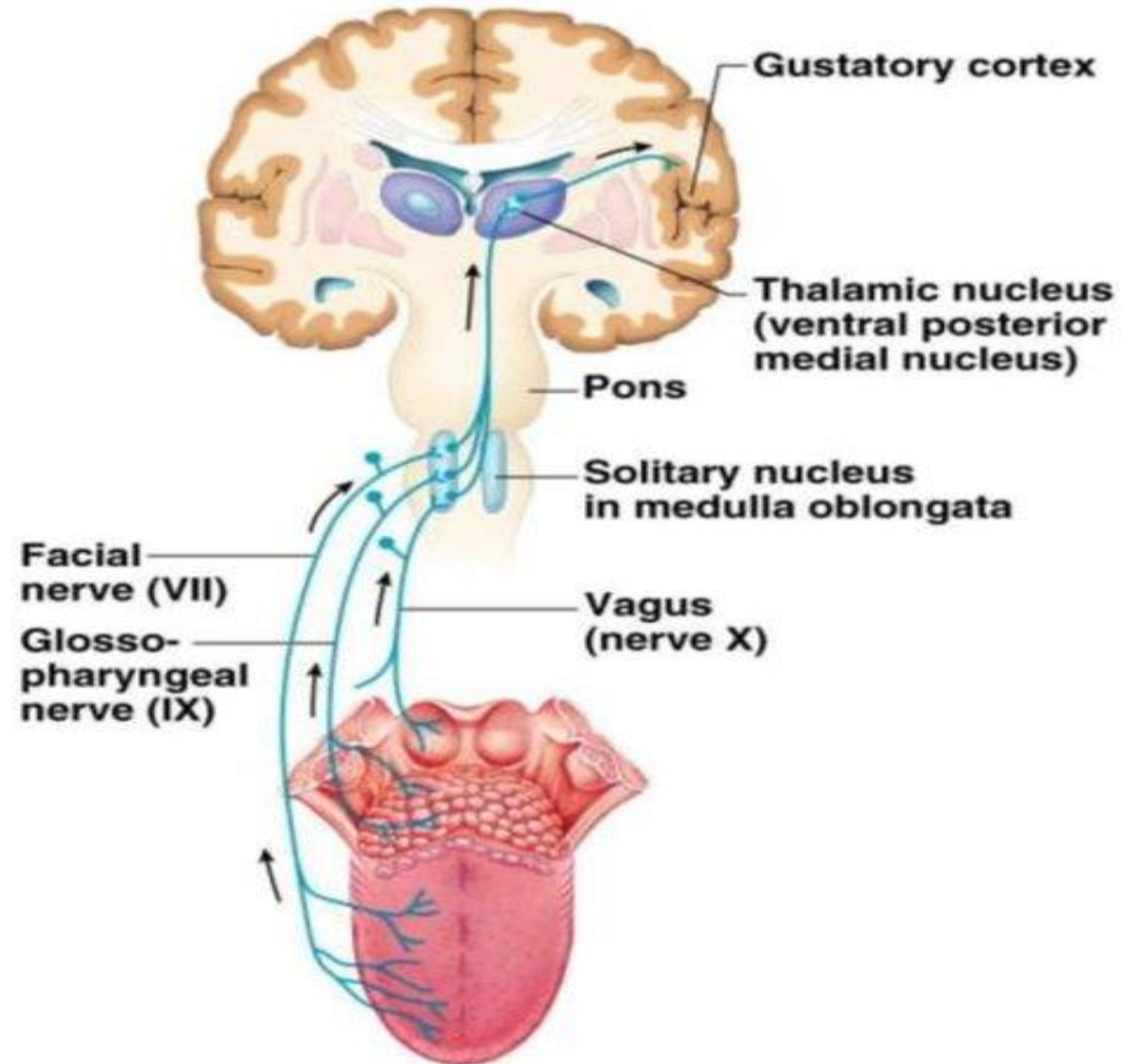
Taste information reaches the cerebral cortex

Primarily through the facial (VII) and glossopharyngeal (IX) nerves

Some taste information through the vagus nerve (X)

Sensory neurons synapse in the medulla

Located in the solitary nucleus



Thx for your attention!!!!

