

# NEUROANATOMY

Prof. Aron Emmi

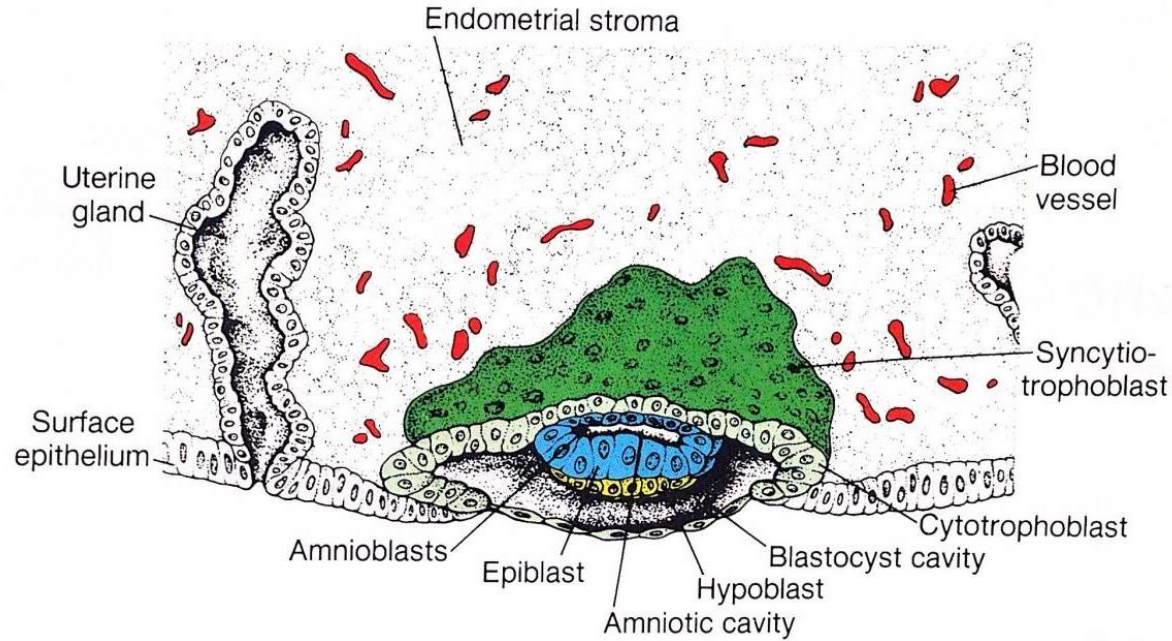




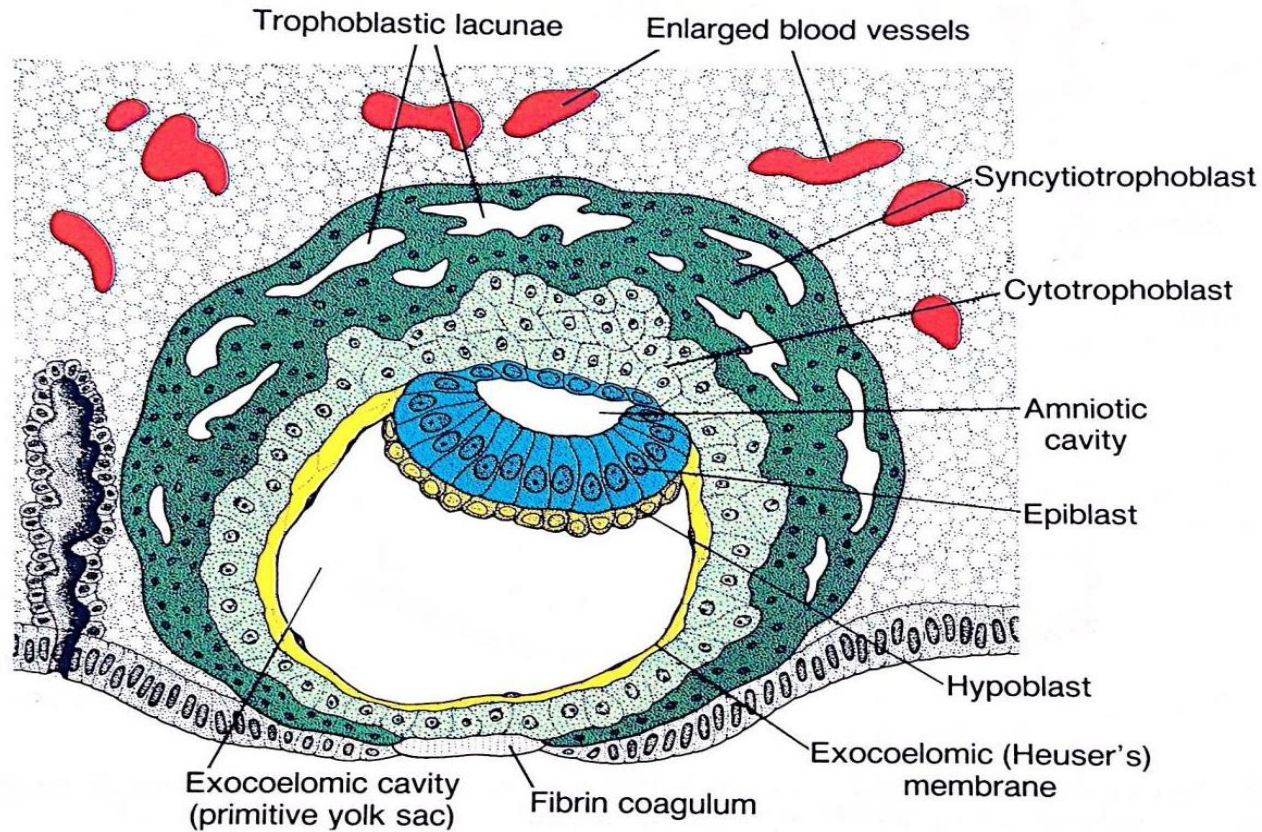
# Central Nervous System Development

Morphogenesis - Histogenesis  
Developmental Alterations



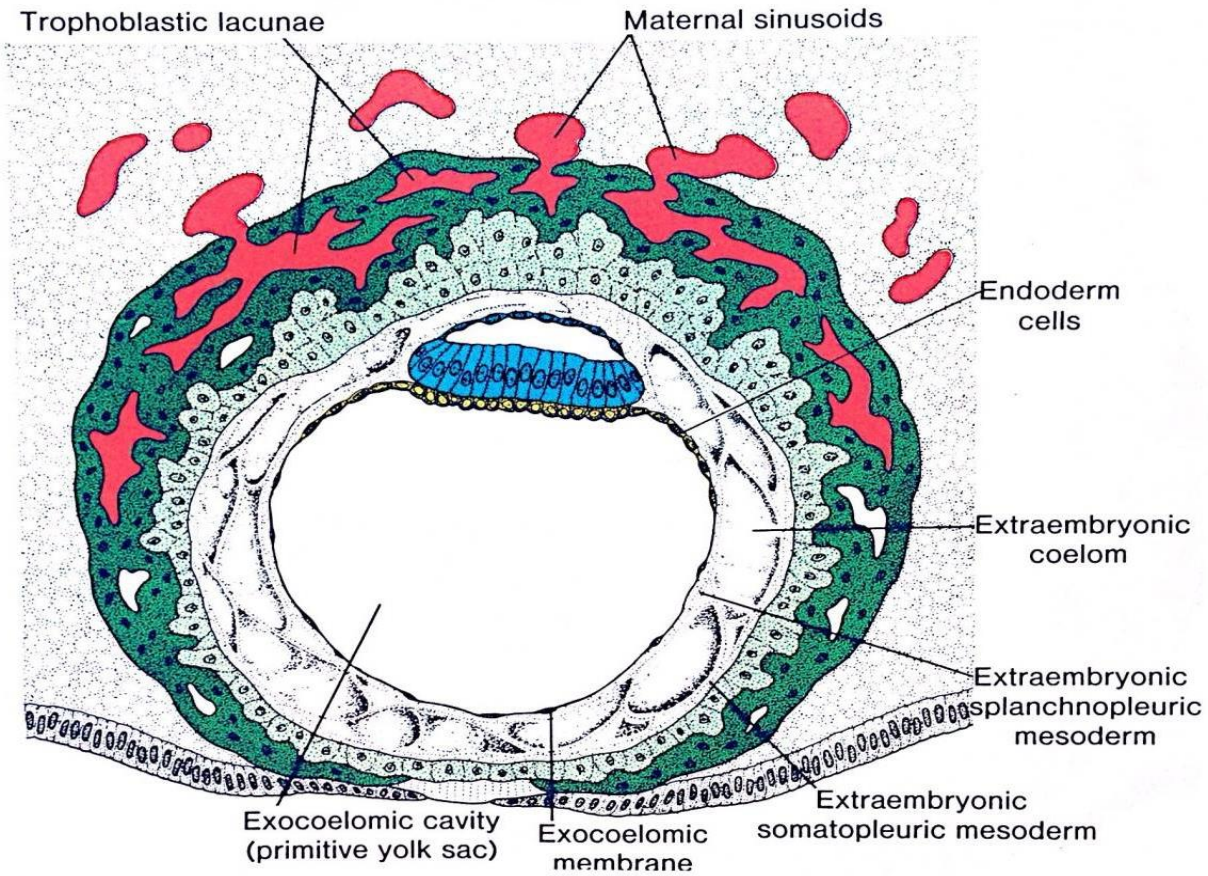


**Figure 4.1** A 7.5-day human blastocyst, partially embedded in the endometrial stroma. The trophoblast consists of an inner layer with mononuclear cells, the cytotrophoblast, and an outer layer without distinct cell boundaries, the syncytiotrophoblast. The embryoblast is formed by the epiblast and hypoblast layers. The amniotic cavity appears as a small cleft.



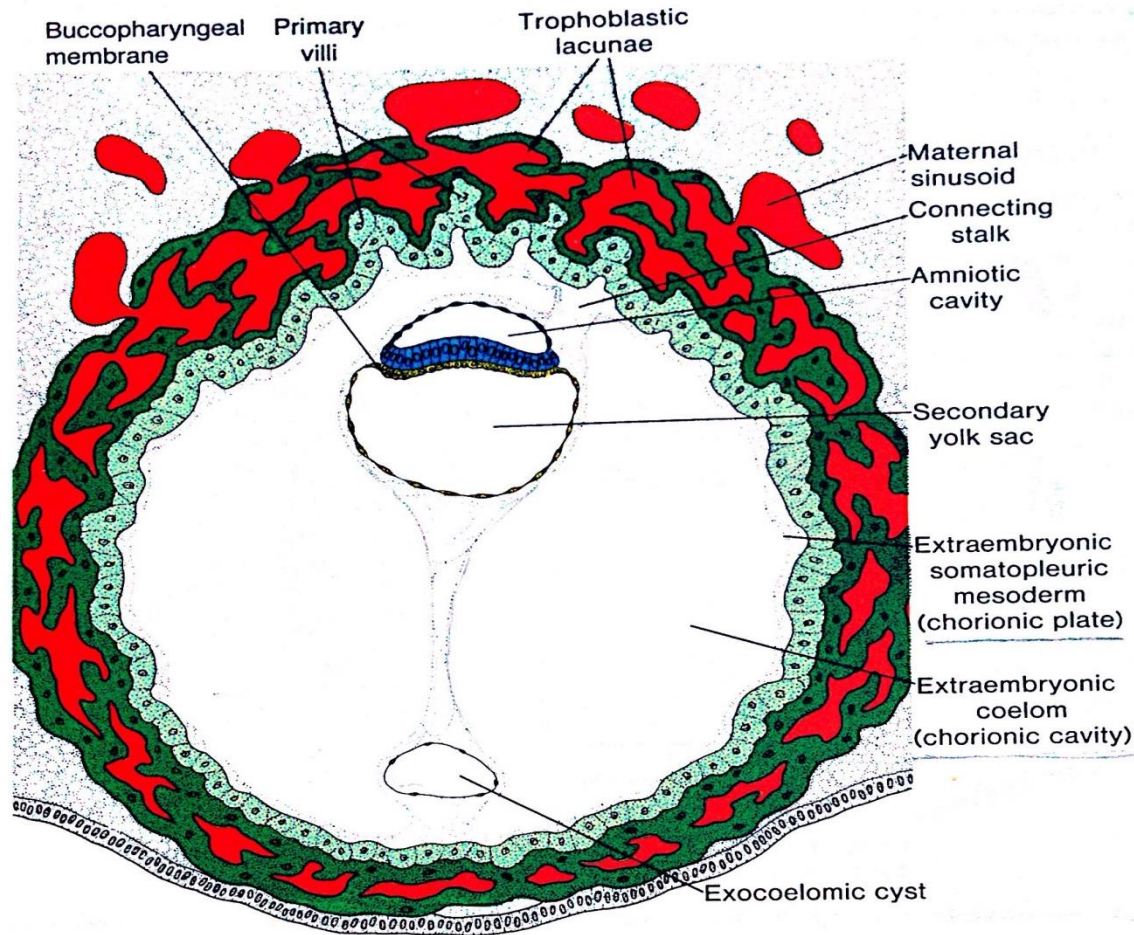
**Figure 4.3** A 9-day human blastocyst. The syncytiotrophoblast shows a large number of lacunae. Flat cells form the exocoelomic membrane. The bilaminar disc consists of a layer of columnar epiblast cells and a layer of cuboidal hypoblast cells. The original surface defect is closed by a fibrin coagulum.



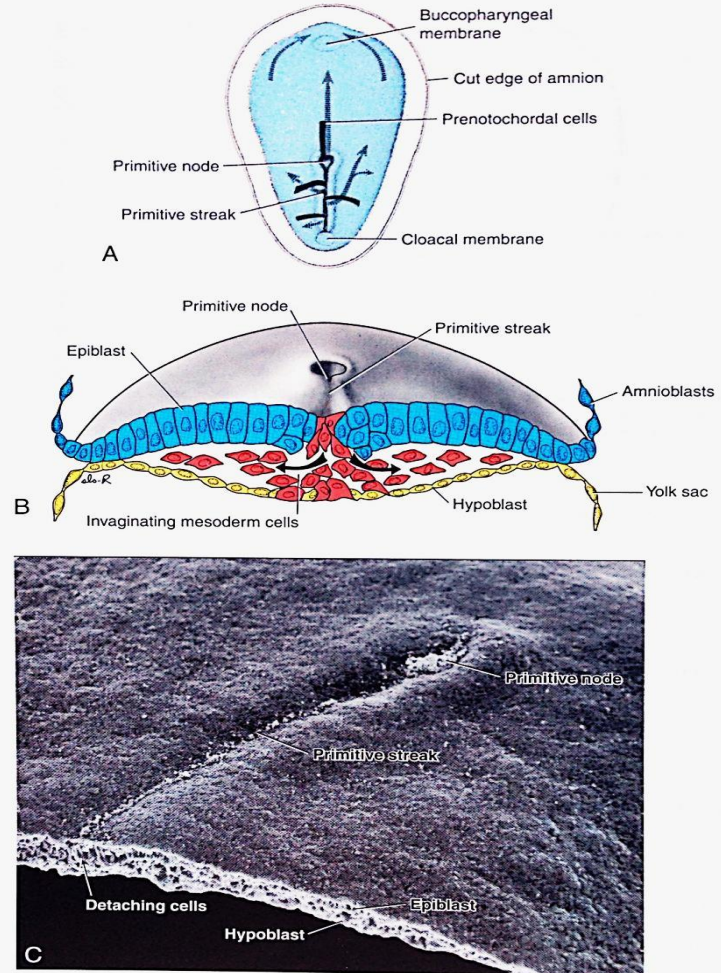


**Figure 4.4** Human blastocyst of approximately 12 days. The trophoblastic lacunae at the embryonic pole are in open connection with maternal sinusoids in the endometrial stroma. Extraembryonic mesoderm proliferates and fills the space between the exocoelomic membrane and the inner aspect of the trophoblast.



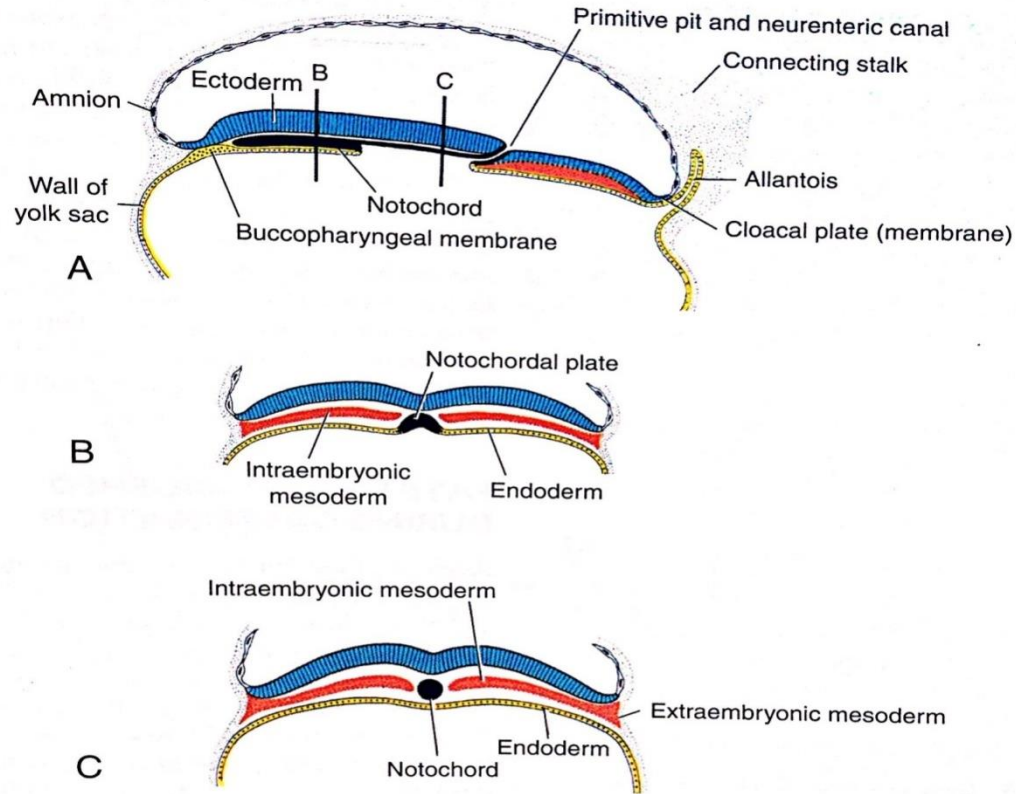


**Figure 4.6** A 13-day human blastocyst. Trophoblastic lacunae are present at the embryonic as well as the abembryonic pole, and the uteroplacental circulation has begun. Note the primary villi and the extraembryonic coelom or **chorionic cavity**. The secondary yolk sac is entirely lined with endoderm.



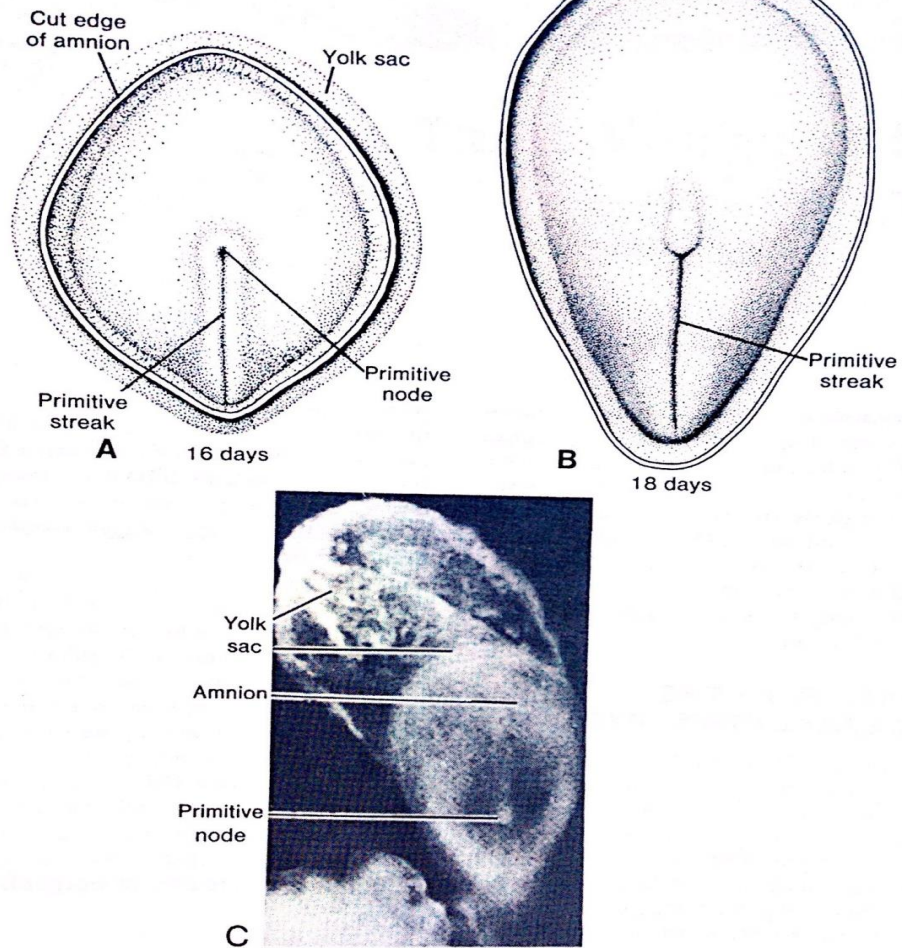
**Figure 5.3** **A.** Dorsal side of the germ disc from a 16-day embryo indicating the movement of surface epiblast cells (solid black lines) through the primitive streak and node and the subsequent migration of cells between the hypoblast and epiblast (broken lines). **B.** Cross section through the cranial region of the streak at 15 days showing invagination of epiblast cells. The first cells to move inward displace the hypoblast to create the definitive endoderm. Once definitive endoderm is established, inwardly moving epiblast forms mesoderm. **C.** Dorsal view of an embryo showing the primitive node and streak and a cross section through the streak. The view is similar to the cartoon in Figure 5.3B; arrow, detaching epiblast cells in the primitive streak.



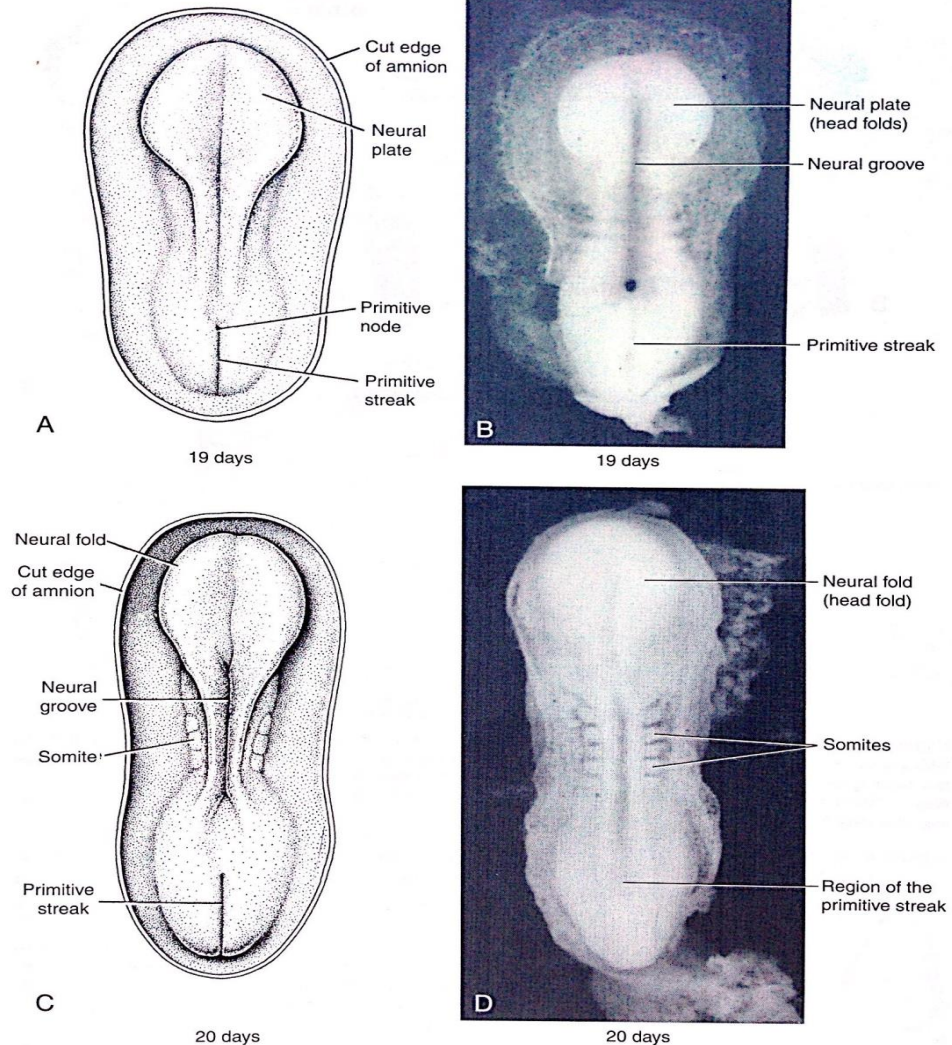


**Figure 5.4** Schematic views illustrating formation of the notochord, whereby prenotochordal cells migrate through the primitive streak, become intercalated in the endoderm to form the notochordal plate, and finally detach from the endoderm to form the definitive notochord. Because these events occur in a cranial-to-caudal sequence, portions of the definitive notochord are established in the head region first. **A.** Drawing of a sagittal section through a 17-day embryo. The most cranial portion of the definitive notochord has formed, while prenotochordal cells caudal to this region are intercalated into the endoderm as the notochordal plate. **B.** Schematic cross section through a region of the notochordal plate. Soon the notochordal plate will detach from the endoderm to form the definitive notochord. **C.** Schematic view showing the definitive notochord.



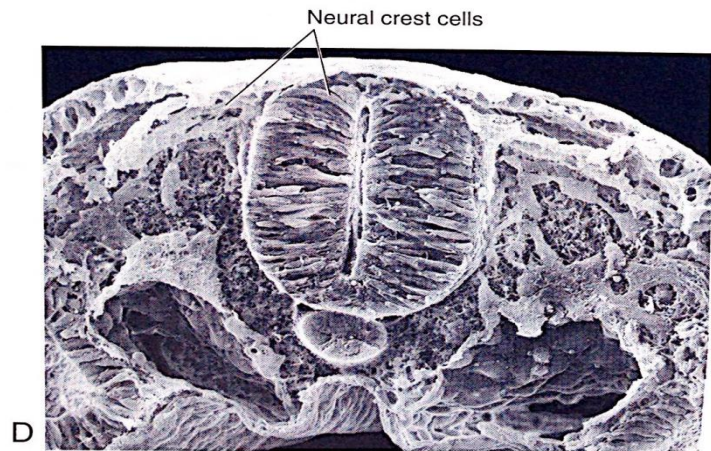
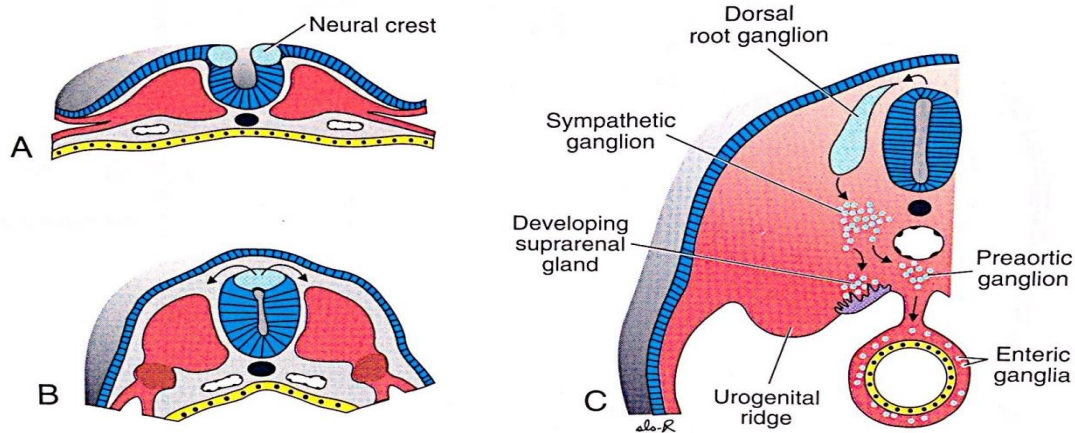


**Figure 6.1** **A.** Dorsal view of a 16-day presomite embryo. The primitive streak and primitive node are visible. **B.** Dorsal view of an 18-day presomite embryo. The embryo is pear-shaped, with its cephalic region somewhat broader than its caudal end. **C.** Dorsal view of an 18-day human embryo. Note the primitive node and, extending forward from it, the notochord. The yolk sac has a somewhat mottled appearance. The length of the embryo is 1.25 mm, and the greatest width is 0.68 mm.



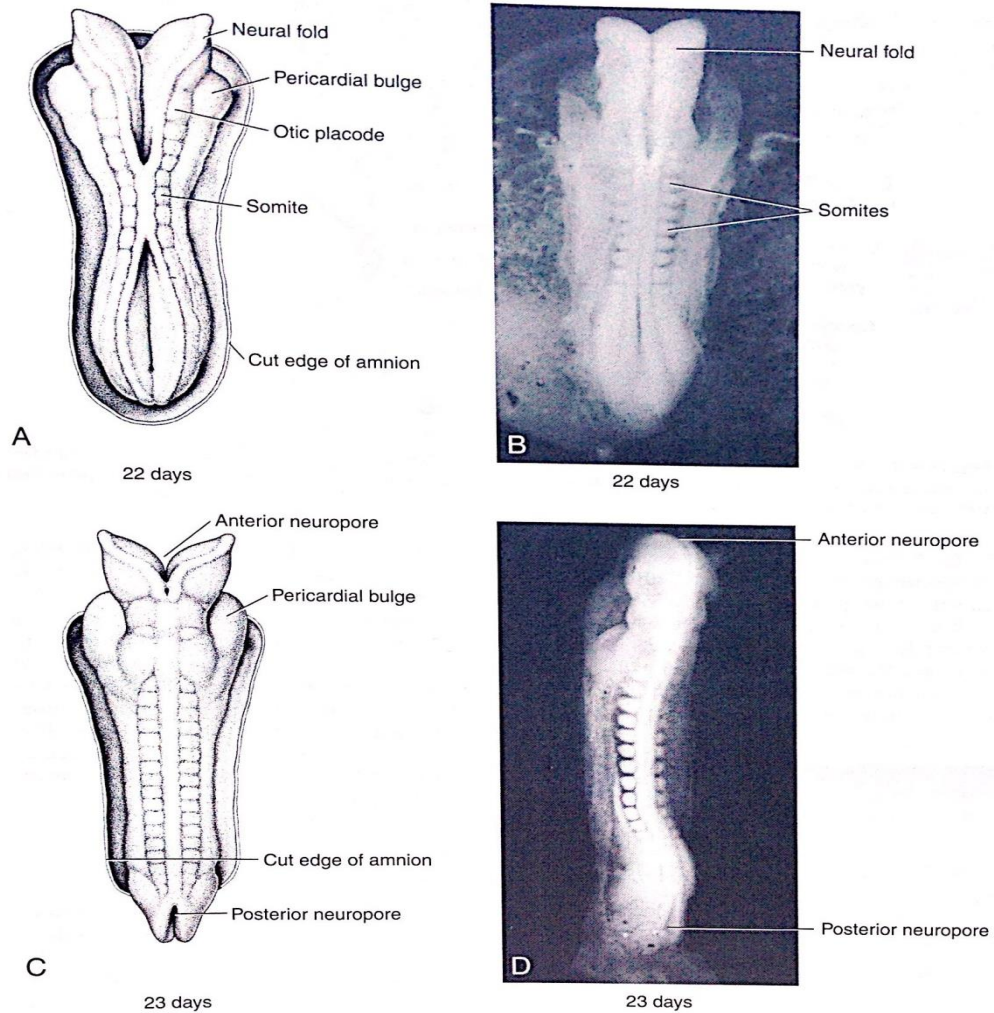
**Figure 6.2** **A.** Dorsal view of a late presomite embryo (approximately 19 days). The amnion has been removed, and the neural plate is clearly visible. **B.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at 19 days. **C.** Dorsal view of an embryo at approximately 20 days showing somites and formation of the neural groove and neural folds. **D.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at 20 days.



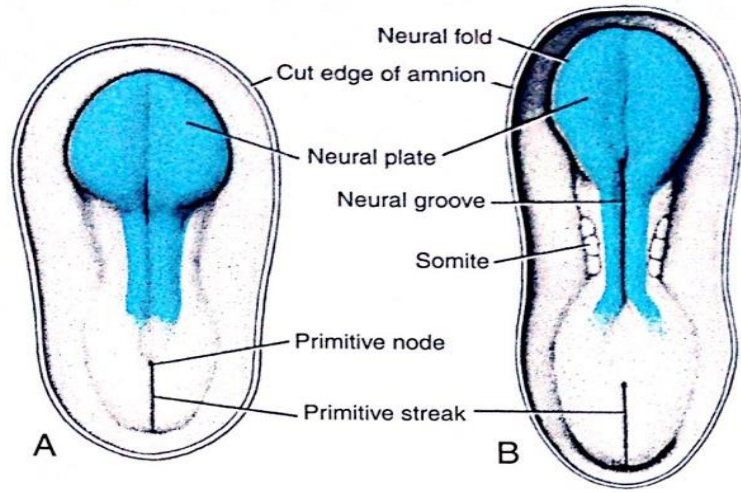


**Figure 6.3** Formation and migration of neural crest cells in the spinal cord. **A,B.** Crest cells form at the tips of neural folds and do not migrate away from this region until neural tube closure is complete. **C.** After migration, crest cells contribute to a heterogeneous array of structures, including dorsal root ganglia, sympathetic chain ganglia, adrenal medulla, and other tissues (Table 6.1, p. 72). **D.** In a scanning electron micrograph, crest cells at the top of the closed neural tube can be seen migrating away from this area.

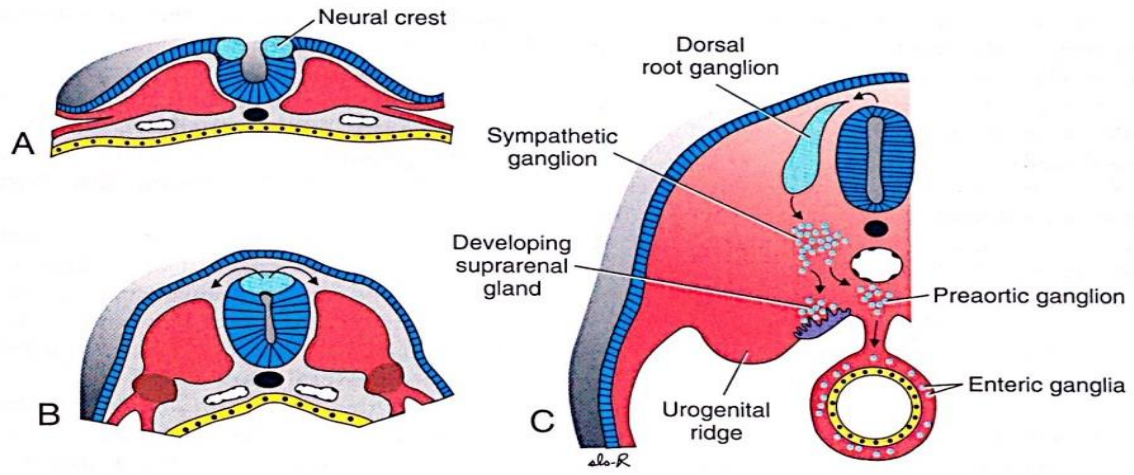




**Figure 6.5** **A.** Dorsal view of an embryo at approximately day 22. Seven distinct somites are visible on each side of the neural tube. **B.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at 21 days. **C.** Dorsal view of an embryo at approximately day 23. Note the pericardial bulge on each side of the midline in the cephalic part of the embryo. **D.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at 23 days.

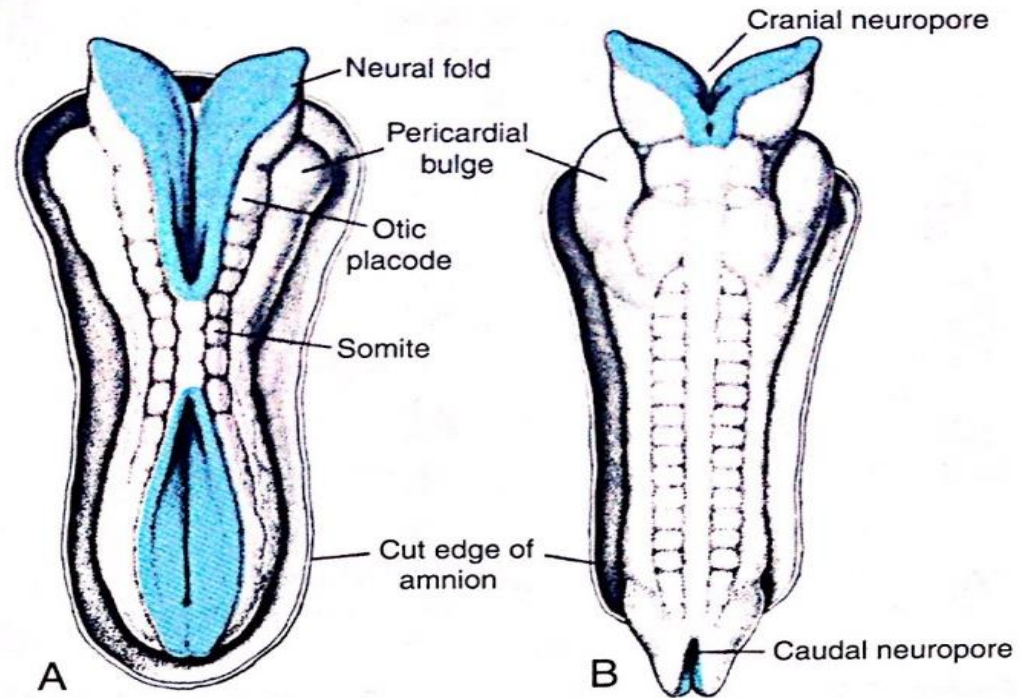


**Figure 17.1** A. Dorsal view of a late presomite embryo at approximately 18 days. The amnion has been removed, and the neural plate is clearly visible. B. Dorsal view at approximately 20 days. Note the somites and the neural groove and neural folds.

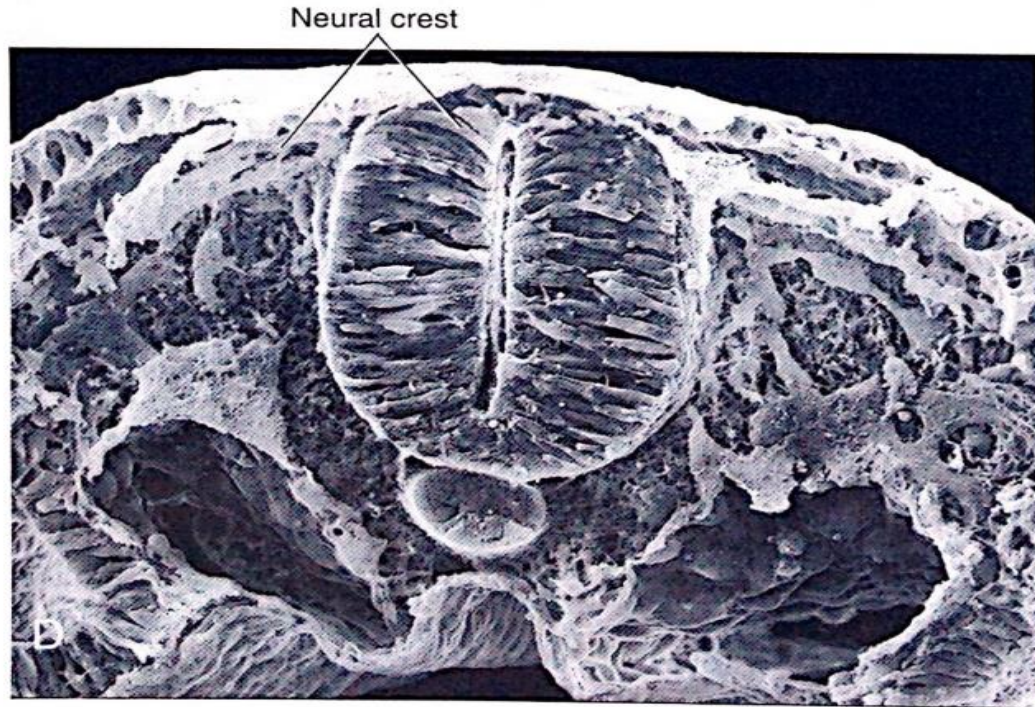




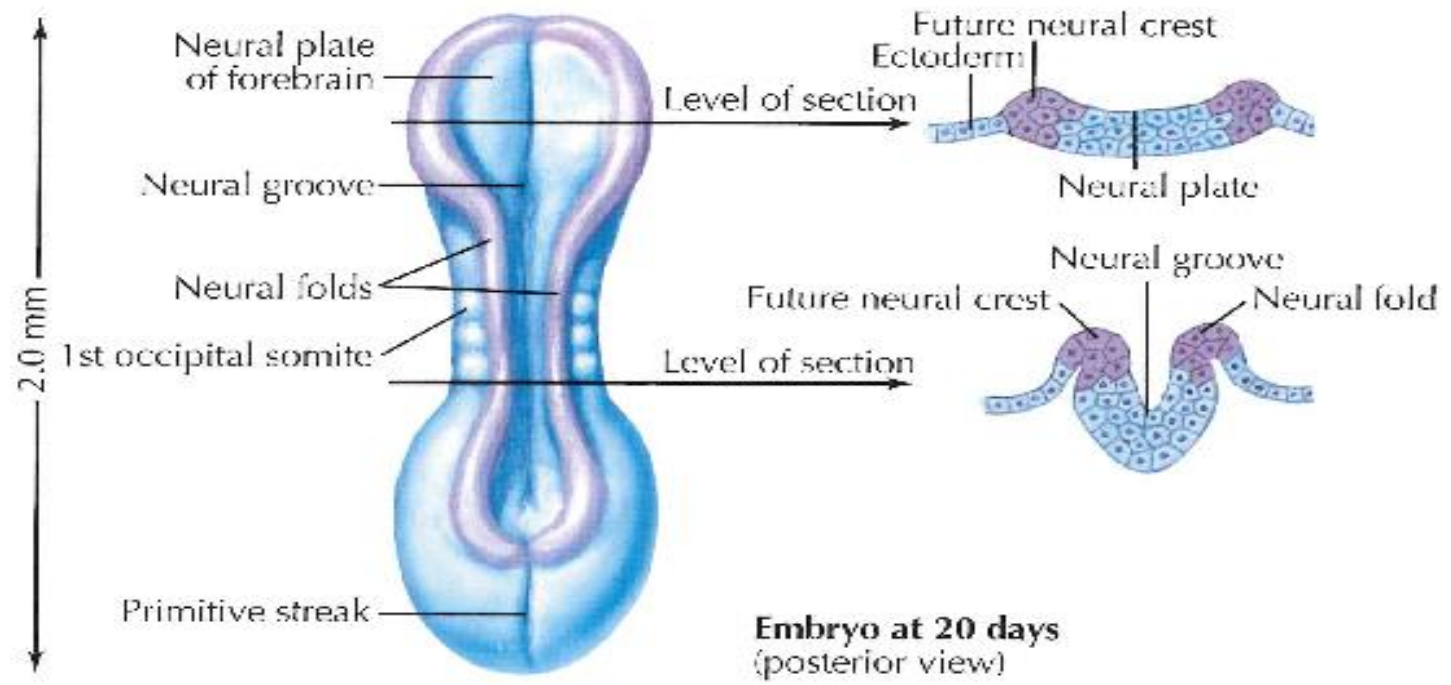
**Figure 17.3** **A.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at approximately day 22. Seven distinct somites are visible on each side of the neural tube. **B.** Dorsal view of a human embryo at approximately day 23. The nervous system is in connection with the amniotic cavity through the cranial and caudal neuropores.



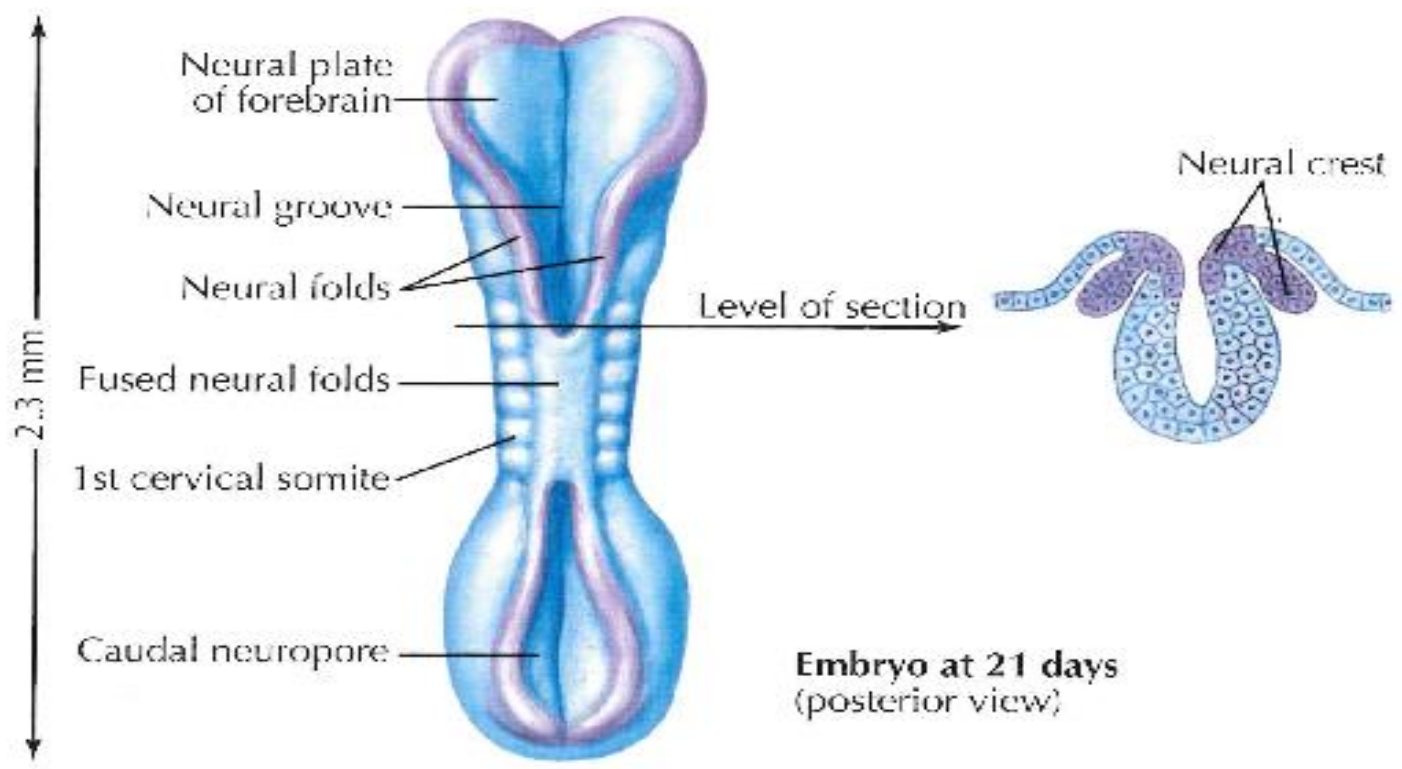




**Figure 17.2** A–C. Transverse sections through successively older embryos showing formation of the neural groove, neural tube, and neural crest. Cells of the neural crest migrate from the edges of the neural folds and develop into spinal and cranial sensory ganglia (A–C). D. Scanning electron micrograph of a chick embryo showing the neural tube and neural crest cells migrating from the dorsal region of the tube (compare with B and C).

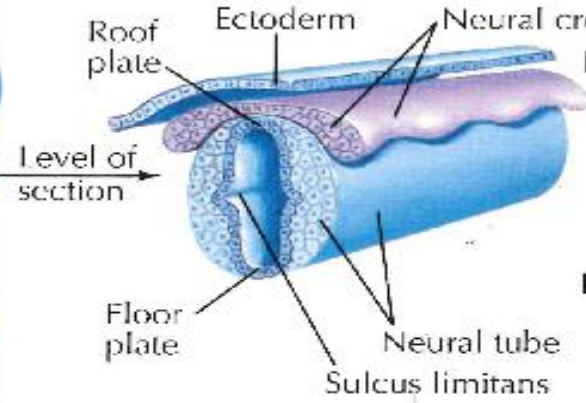








The neural tube will form the brain and spinal cord, the two components of the central nervous system (CNS). The neural crest will give rise to all of the neurons whose cell bodies are located outside the CNS in the peripheral nervous system (PNS) of nerves, ganglia, and plexuses.



**Embryo at 24 days**  
(posterior view)

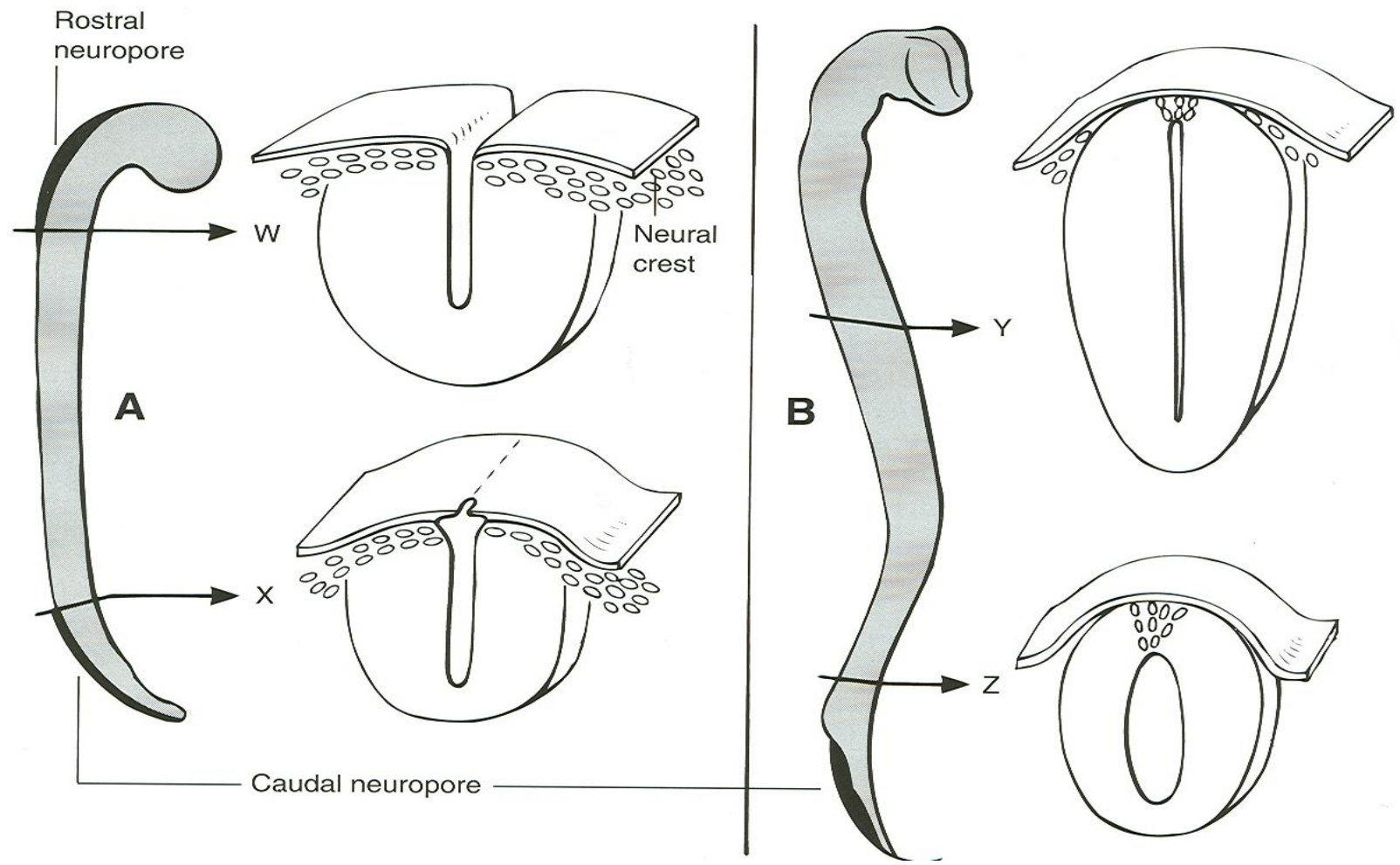
**Derivatives of the neural tube include**

- Neurons of the CNS
- Supporting cells of the CNS
- Somatomotor neurons of the PNS
- Presynaptic autonomic neurons of the PNS

**Derivatives of the neural crest include**

- Sensory neurons in the PNS
- Postsynaptic autonomic neurons
- Schwann (neurolemma) cells
- Adrenal medulla cells
- Head mesenchyme
- Melanocytes in the skin
- Arachnoid and pia mater of meninges (dura mater from mesoderm)







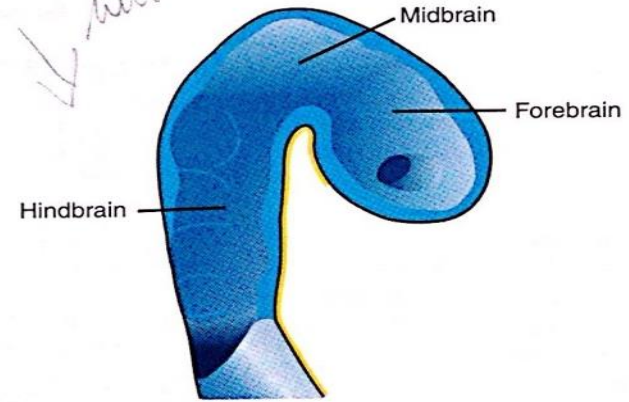
# DEVELOPMENT OF THE CNS

- Morphogenesis → • Development of CNS Structure
- Histogenesis → • Development of CNS Tissue

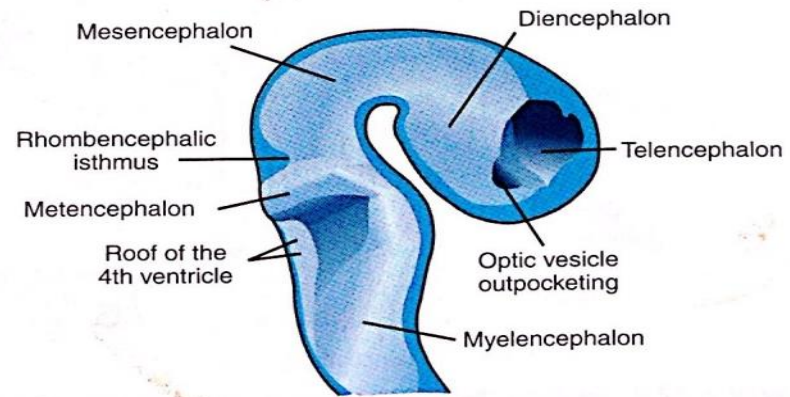


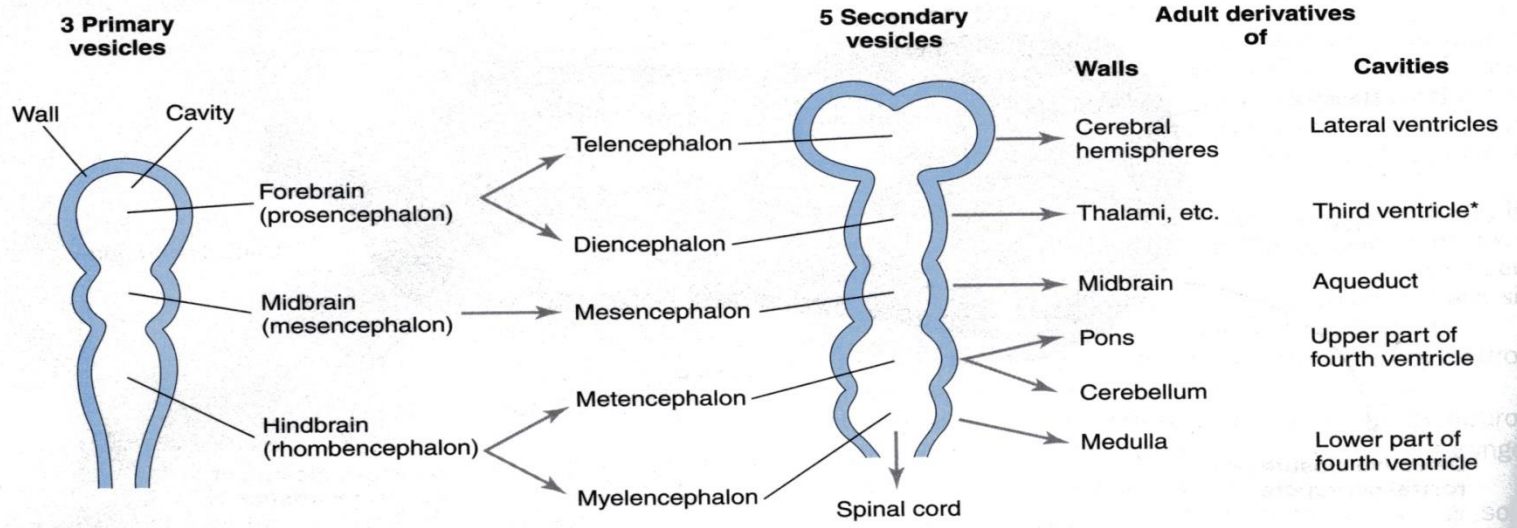


**Figure 17.4** Drawing of a sagittal section through the brain at approximately 27 days of human development. Three brain vesicles represent the forebrain (F), midbrain (M), and hindbrain (H).



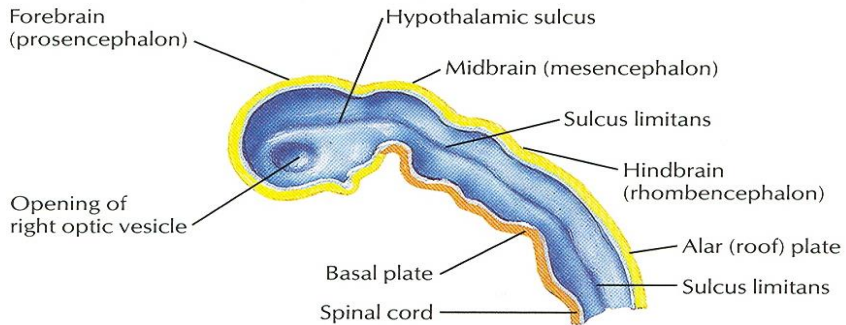
**Figure 17.5** Drawing of a sagittal section through the brain approximately 32 days of human development. The three original brain vesicles have segregated into the telencephalon, diencephalon, mesencephalon, metencephalon, and myelencephalon.







**FIGURE 17-20.** Diagrammatic sketches of the brain vesicles indicating the adult derivatives of their walls and cavities. \*The rostral part of the third ventricle forms from the cavity of the telencephalon; most of this ventricle is derived from the cavity of the diencephalon.



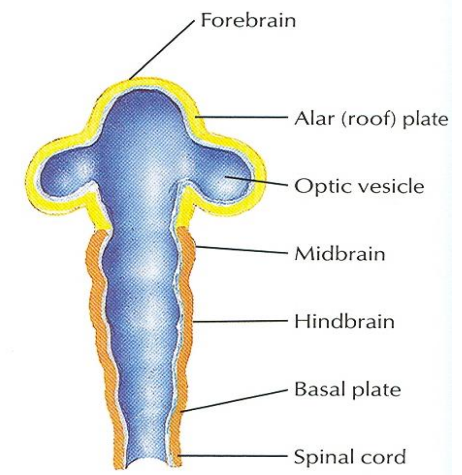


In these sections:

 Alar plate

 Basal plate

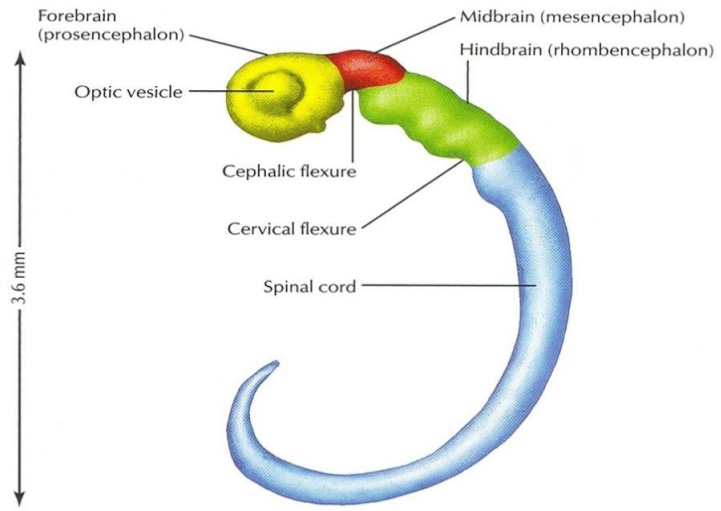
**Sagittal section**

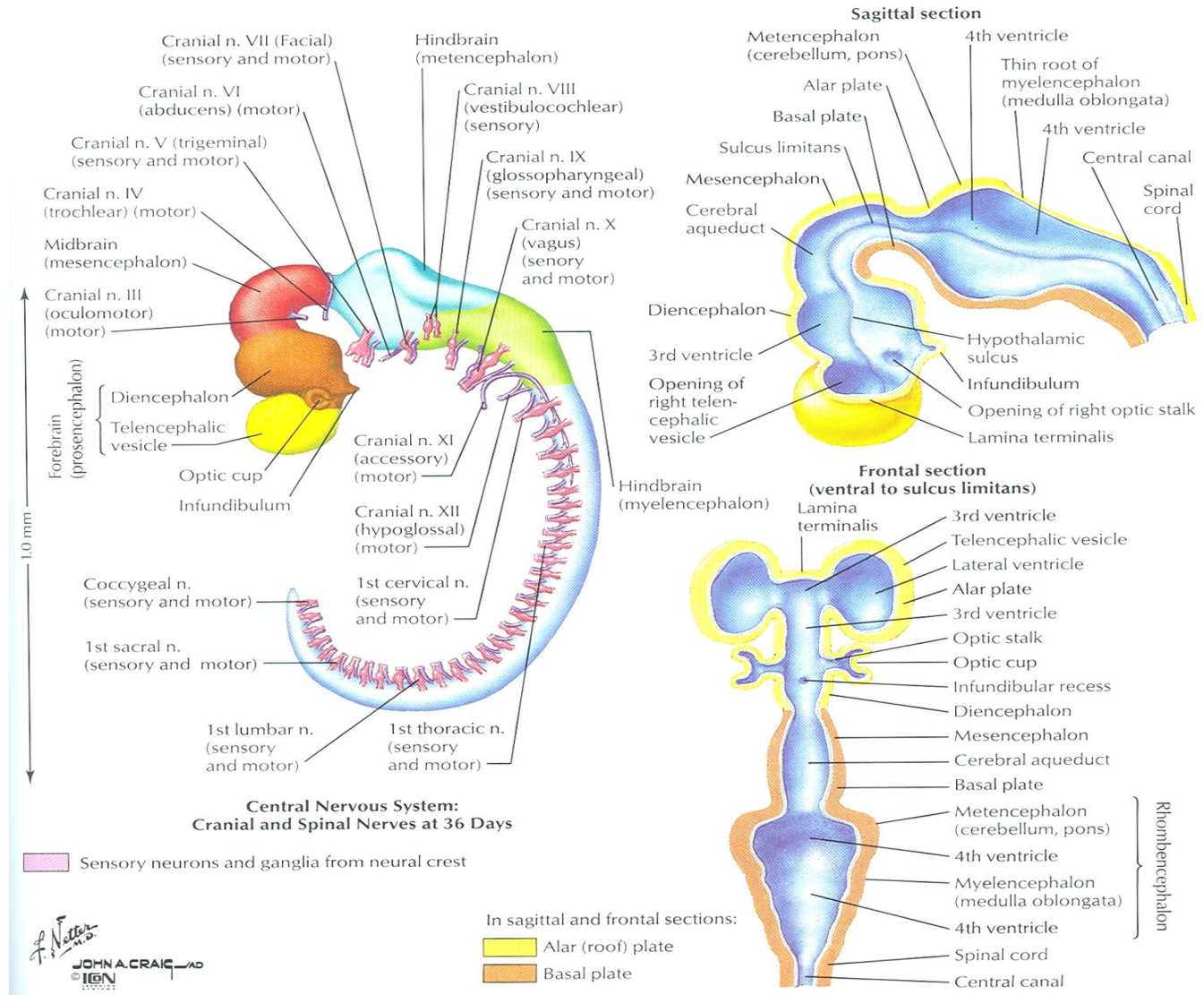


**Frontal section (ventral to sulcus limitans)**

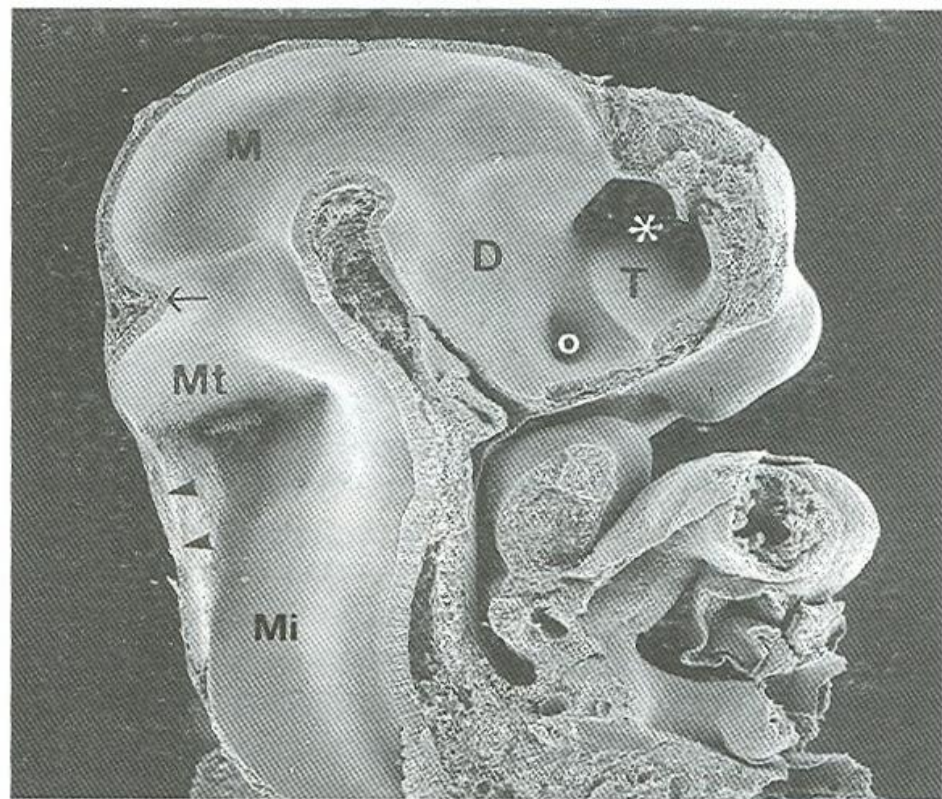
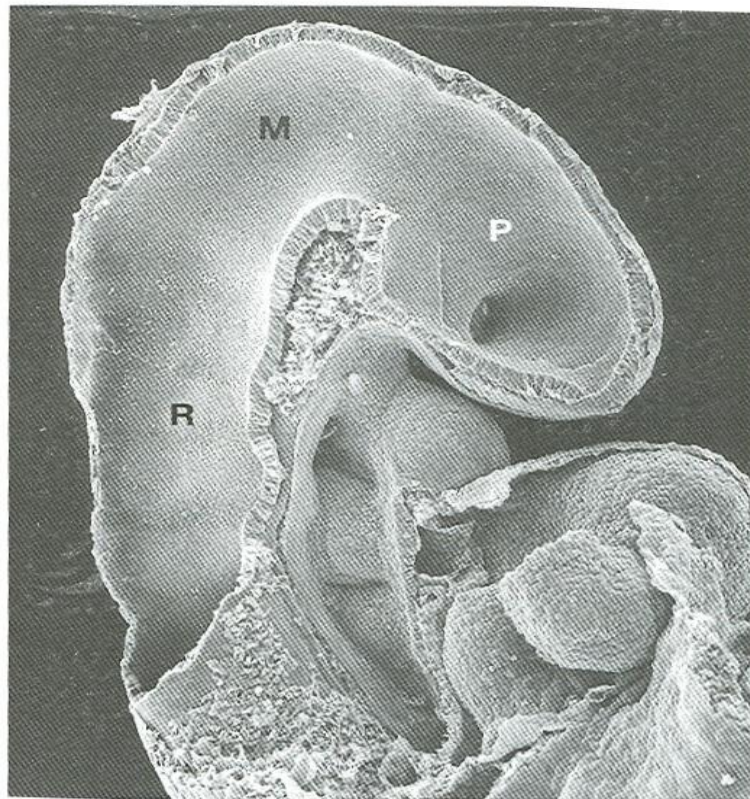
*F. Netter M.D.*  
**JOHN A. C.**  
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**Central nervous system at 28 days**





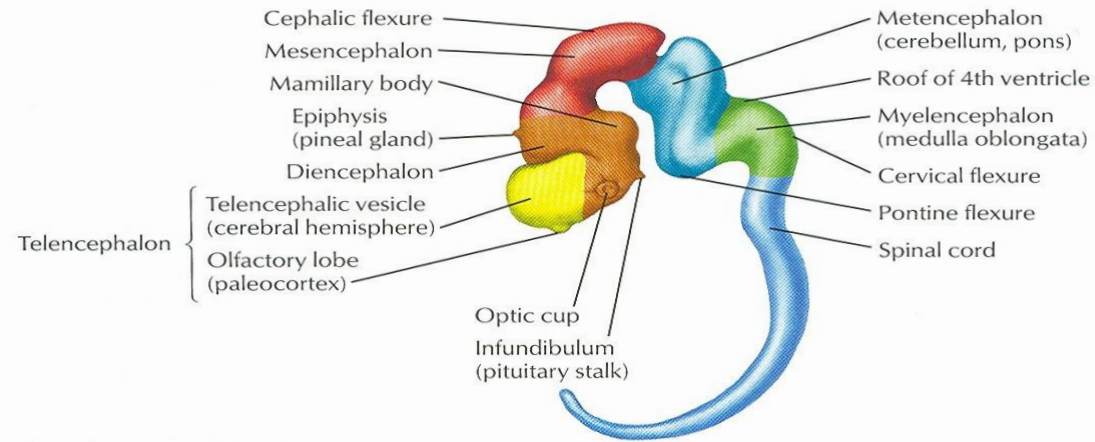






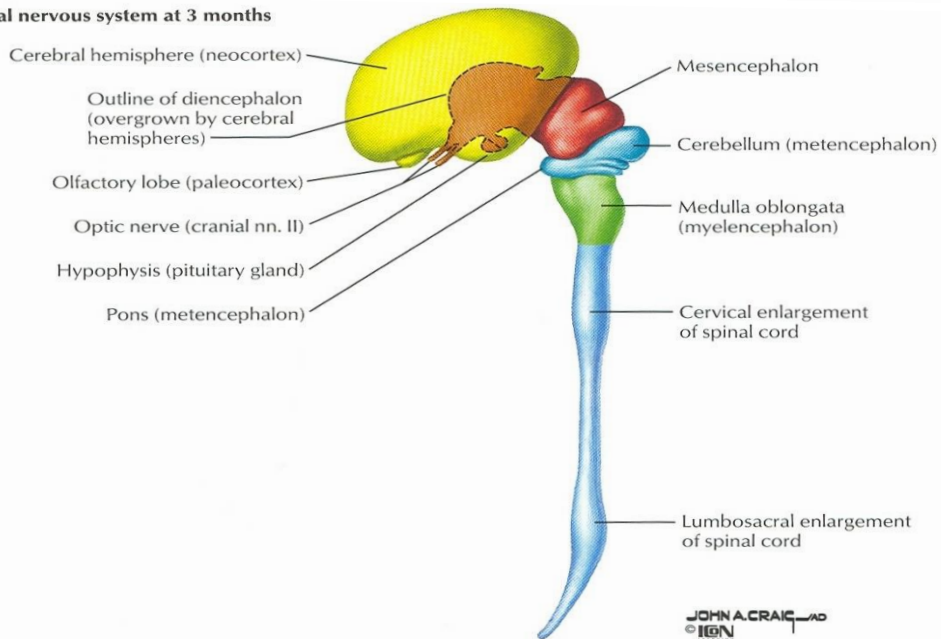
### Central nervous system at 49 days

17.0 mm



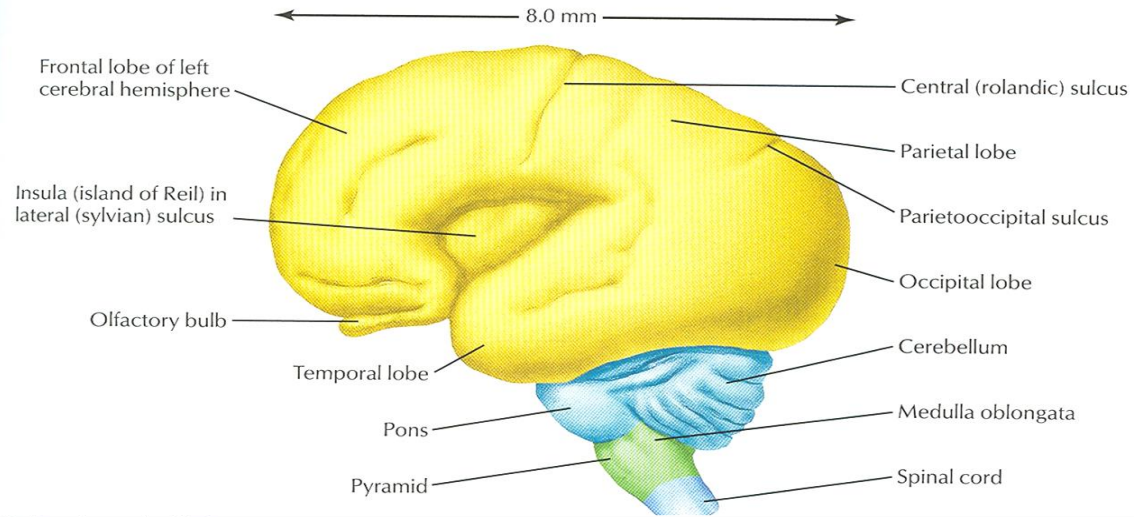
### Central nervous system at 3 months

78.0 mm

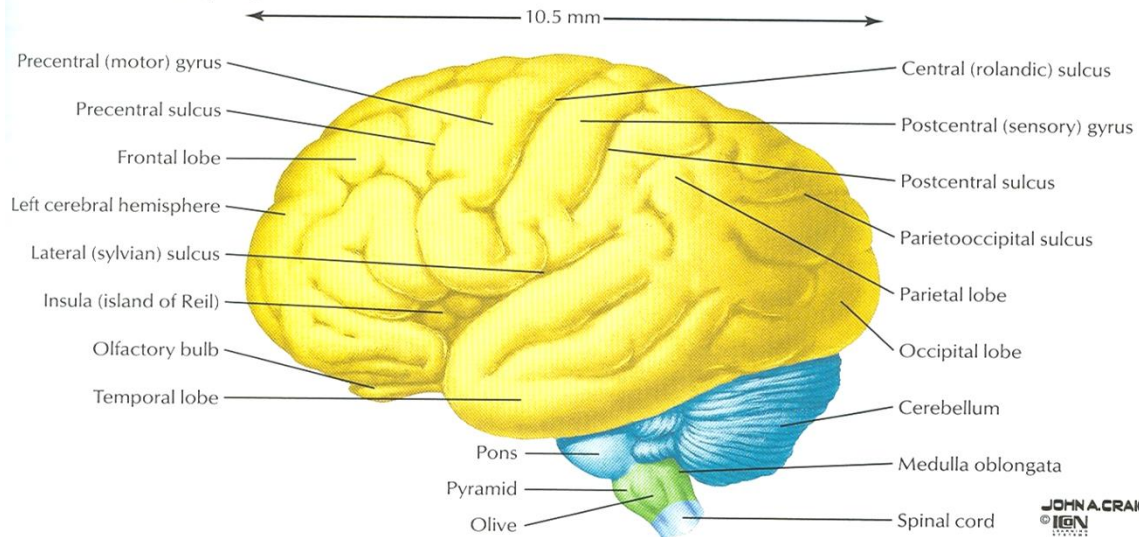




**Brain at 6 months**

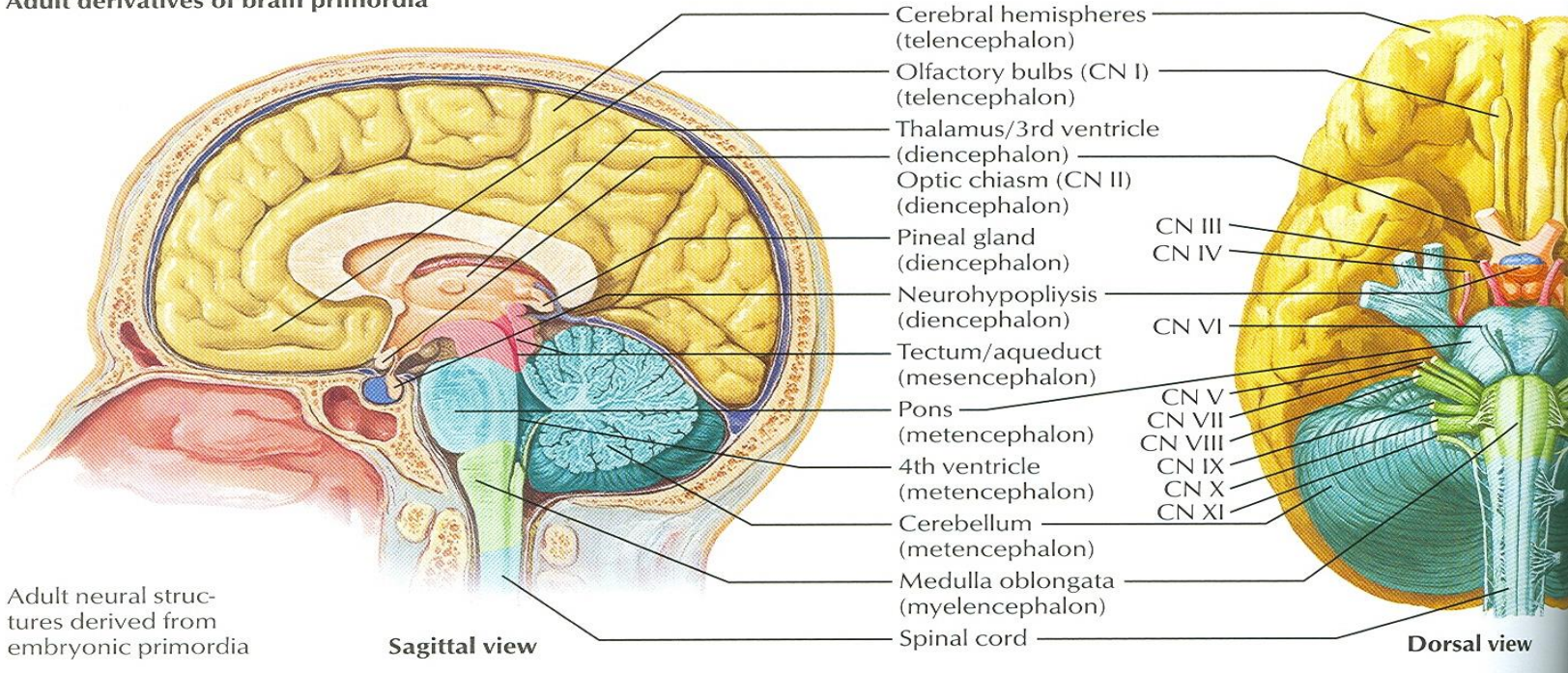


**Brain at 9 months (birth)**

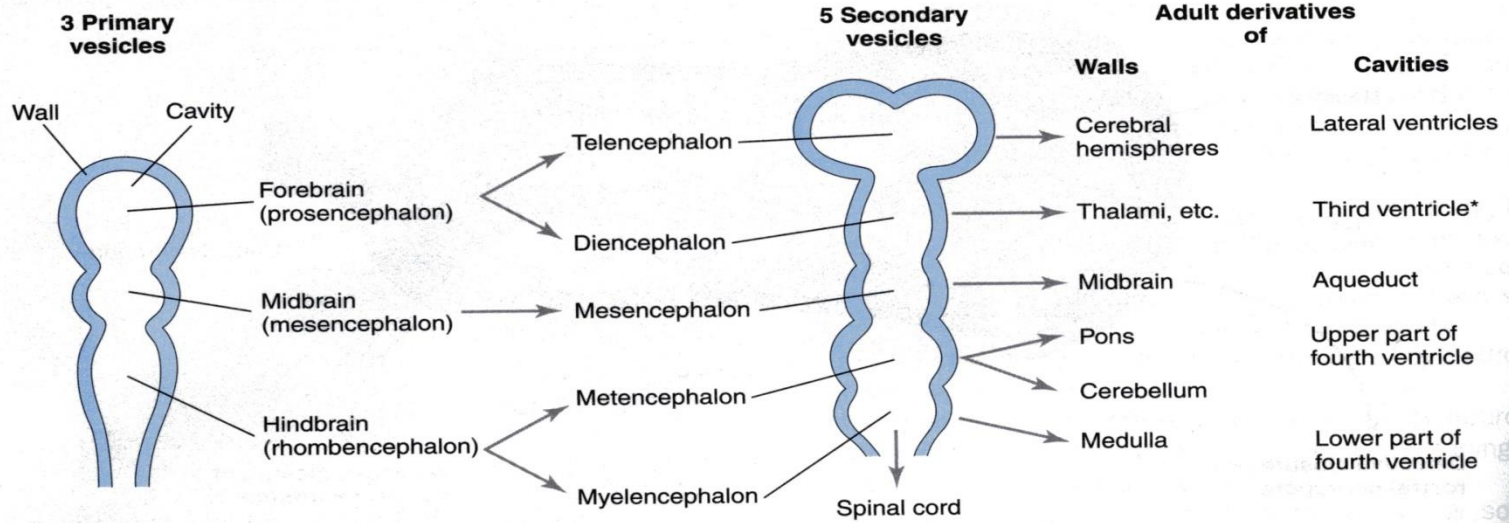




### Adult derivatives of brain primordia

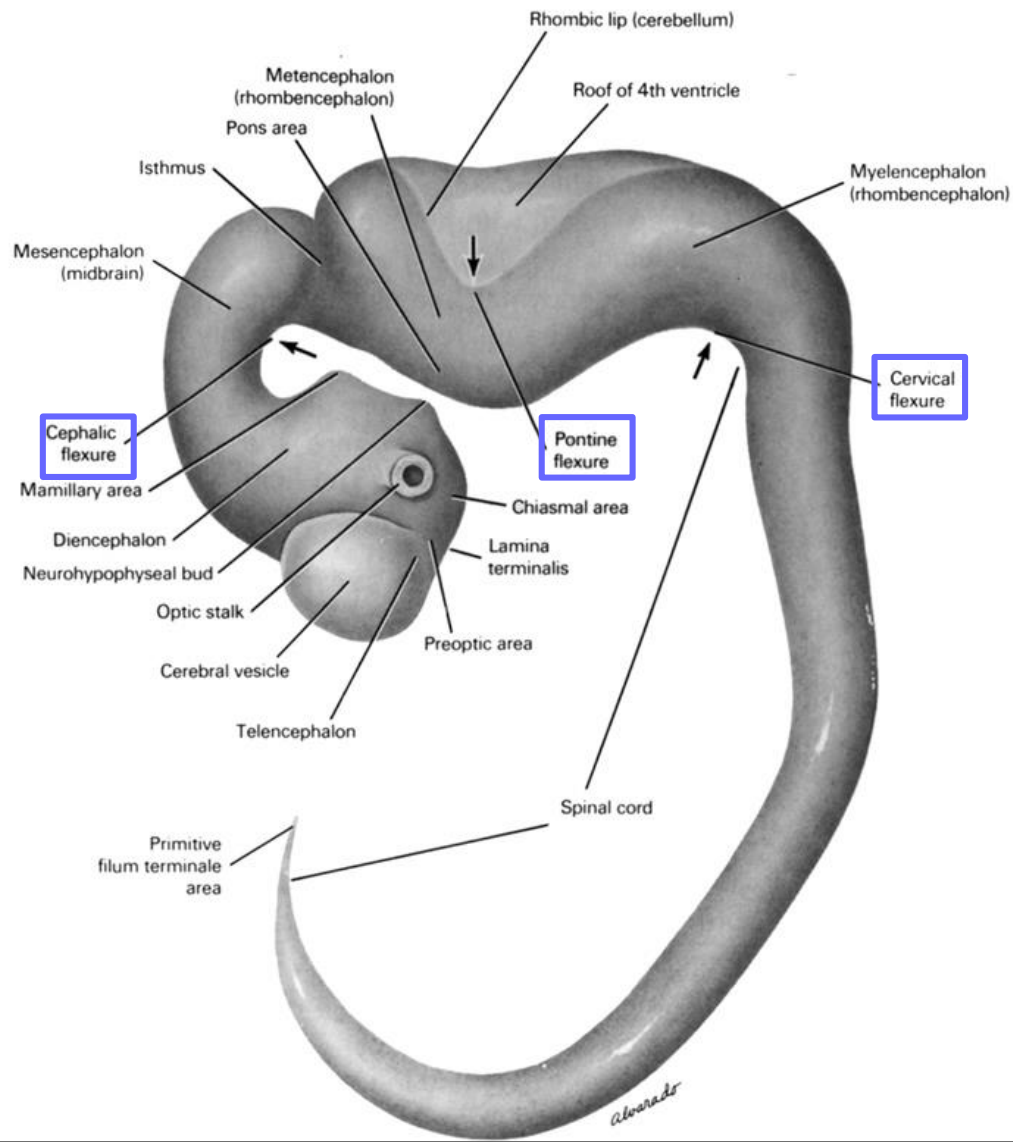






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# Developmental Alterations





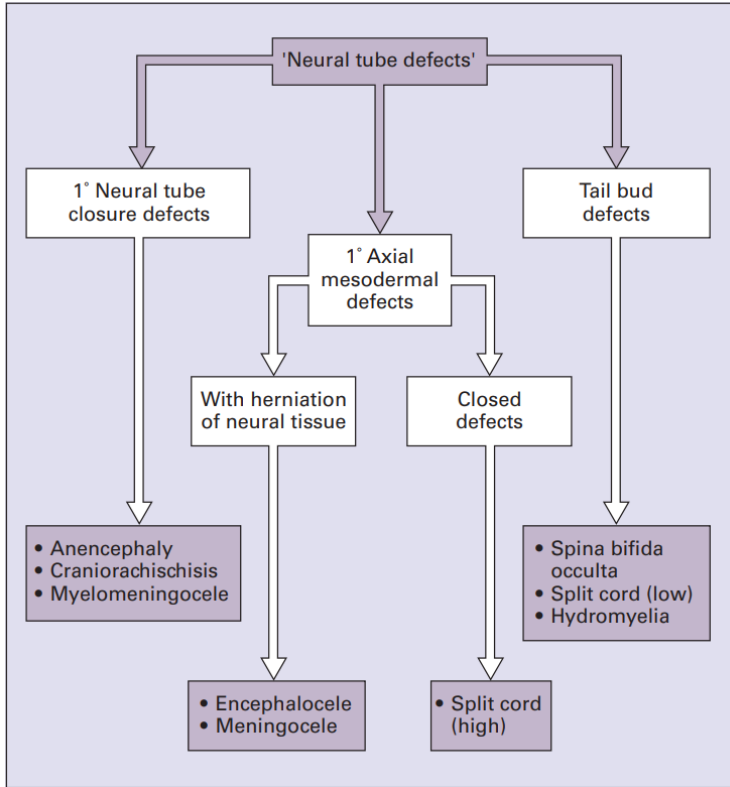
# Developmental Alterations

## EARLY GESTATION (First 20 Weeks)

- Dysraphic malformations
- Disorders of forebrain induction
- Malformations of cortical development



# Dysraphic Malformations



## First order neural tube defects

- Anencephaly
- Craniorachischisis
- Myelomeningocele

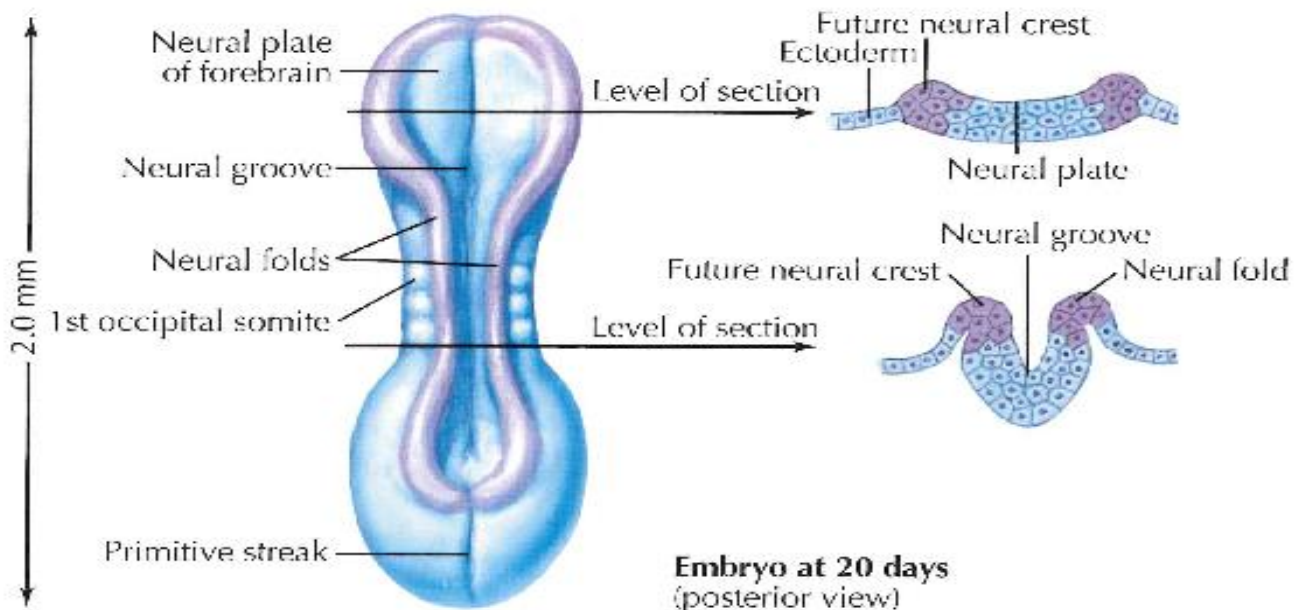
## First order axial mesodermal defects

- With tissue herniation (Encephalocele; Meningocele)
- Closed defects

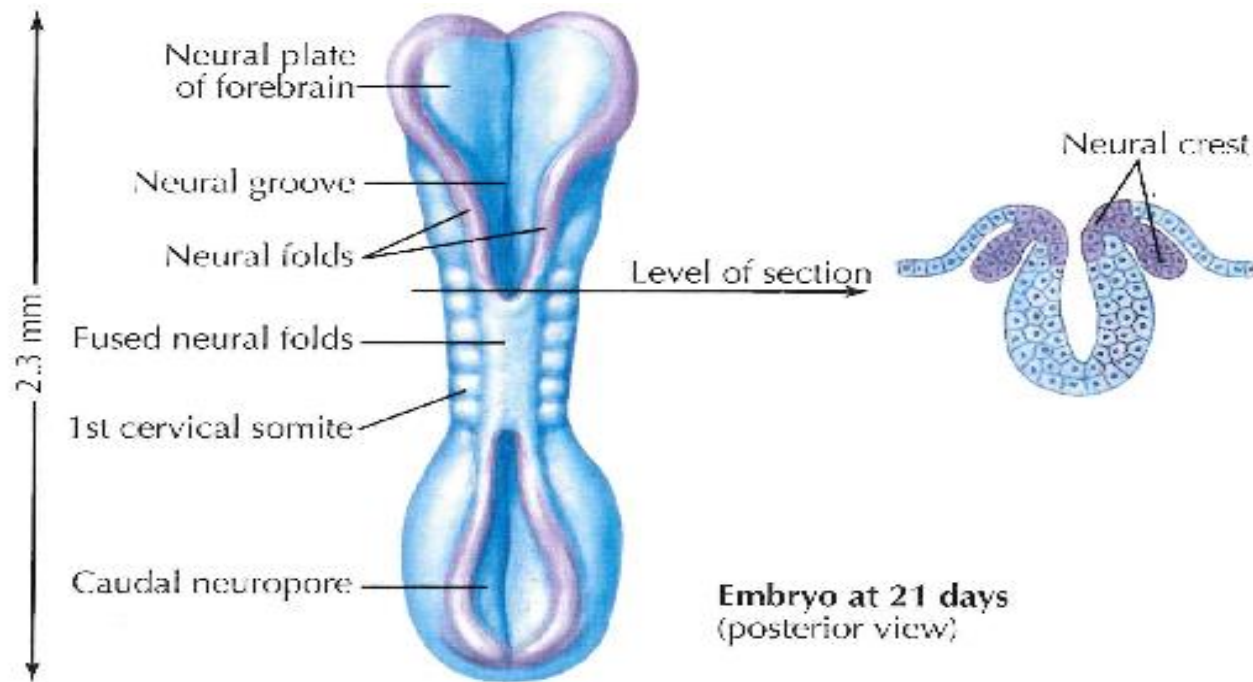
## Tail bud defects

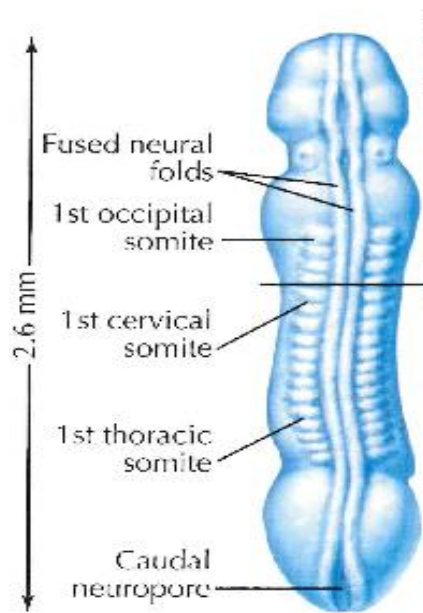
- Spina bifida occulta
- Hydromyelia
- Low Split Cord

- Rostral neural tube
- Caudal neural tube
- Both

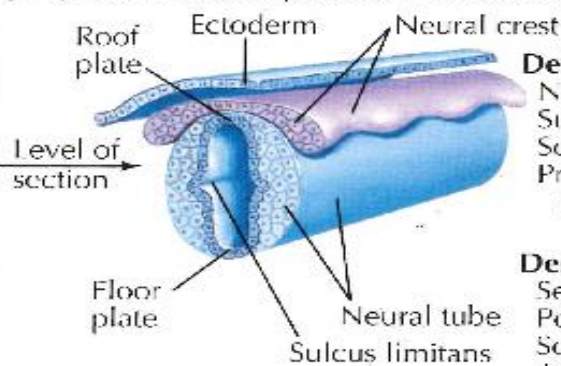








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**Embryo at 24 days**  
(posterior view)

**Derivatives of the neural tube include**

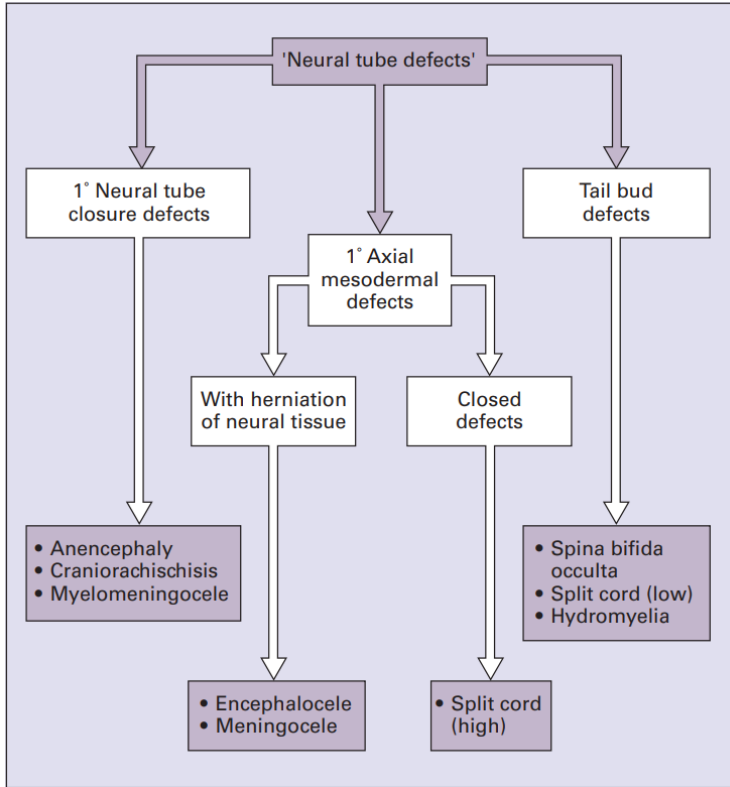
- Neurons of the CNS
- Supporting cells of the CNS
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(dura mater from mesoderm!)



# Dysraphic Malformations



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## First order axial mesodermal defects

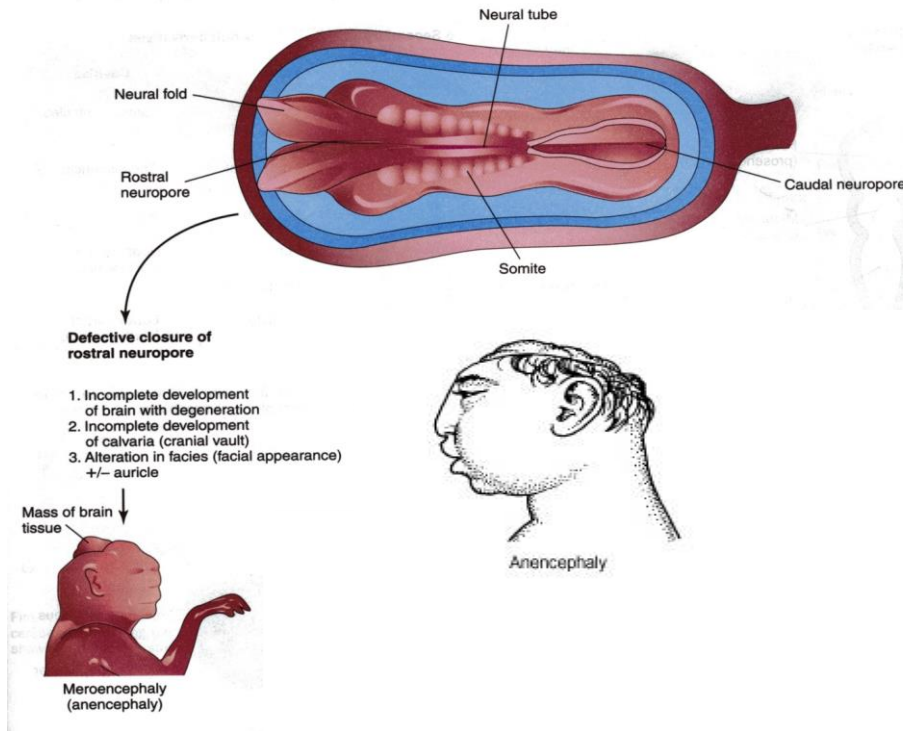
- With tissue herniation (Encephalocele; Meningocele)
- Closed defects

## Tail bud defects

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- Hydromyelia
- Low Split Cord

- Rostral neural tube
- Caudal neural tube
- Both

# Anencephaly



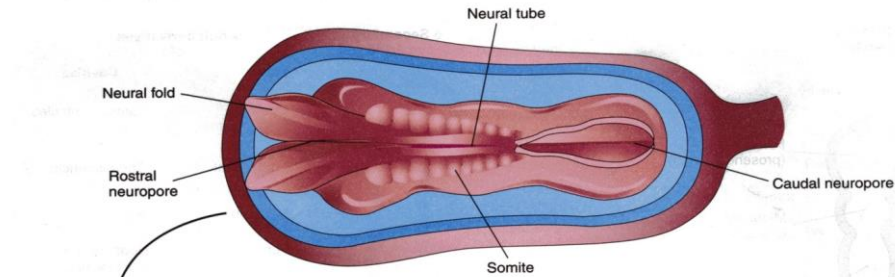
## ANENCEPHALY

Replacement of most of the intracranial contents by the area cerebrovasculosa.

Skull defects include:

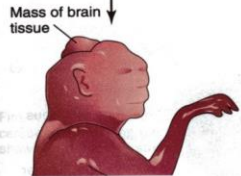
- absent or hypoplastic skull vault
  - thickened and flat skull base
  - shallow orbits so that the eyes protrude
- 
- Incompatible with life
  - Detected with ultrasound
  - raised  $\alpha$  -fetoprotein levels in maternal serum

# Craniorachischisis



## Defective closure of rostral neuropore

1. Incomplete development of brain with degeneration
2. Incomplete development of calvaria (cranial vault)
3. Alteration in facies (facial appearance) +/- auricle



## CRANIORACHISCHISIS - RACHISCHISIS

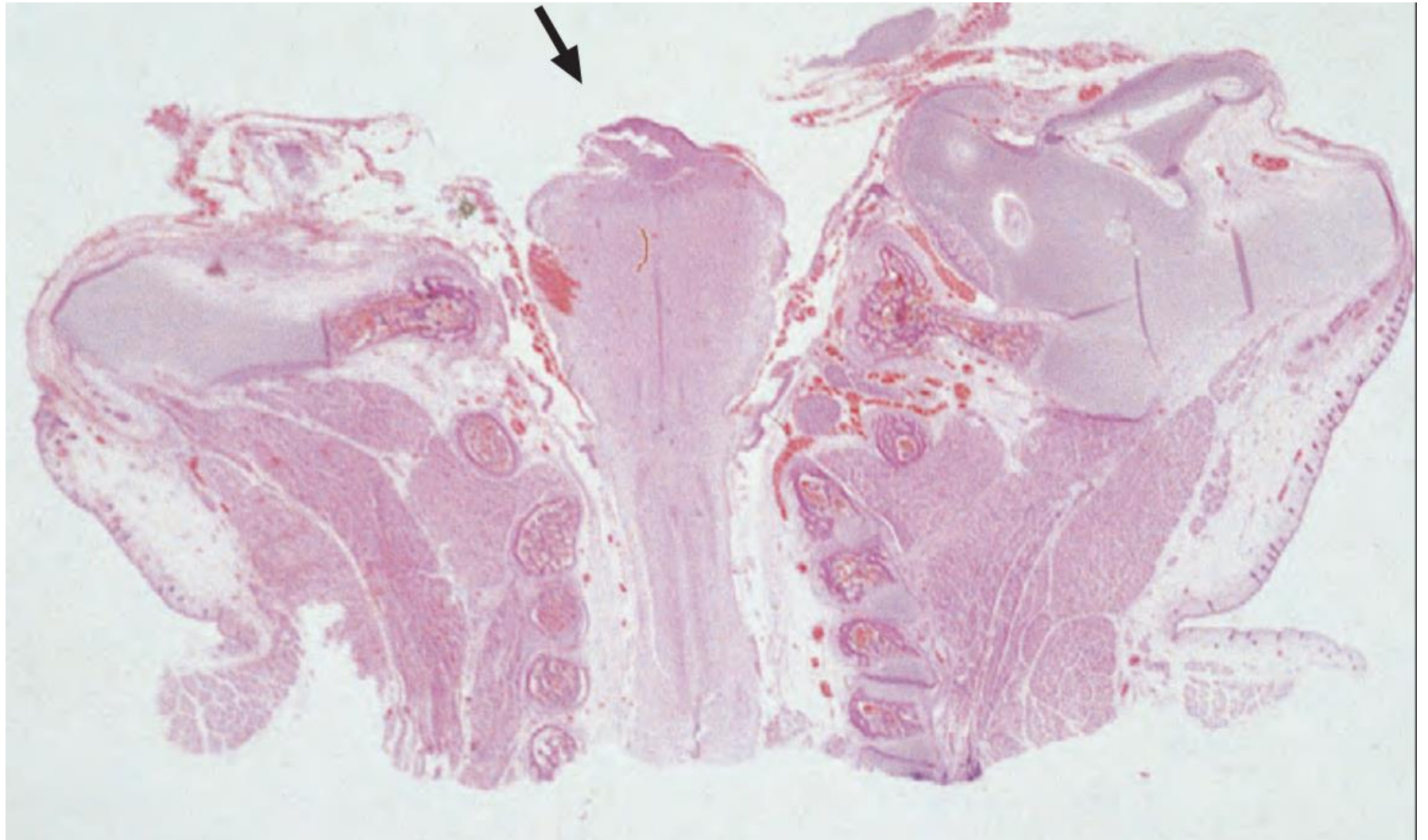


Entire neural tube remains open



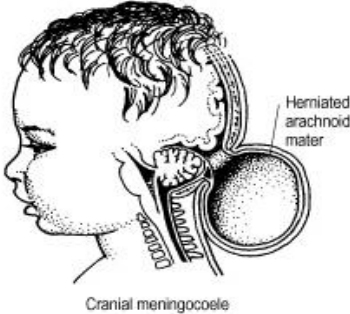
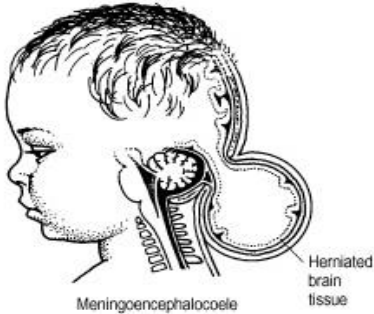
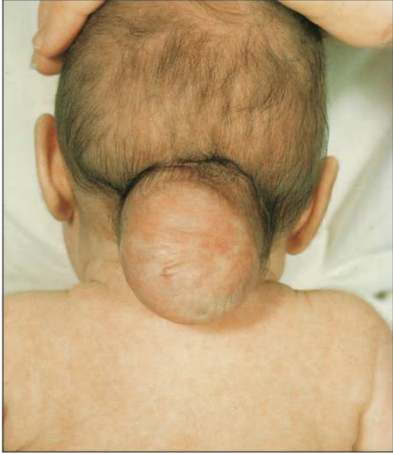
# Ancencephaly - Craniorachischisis





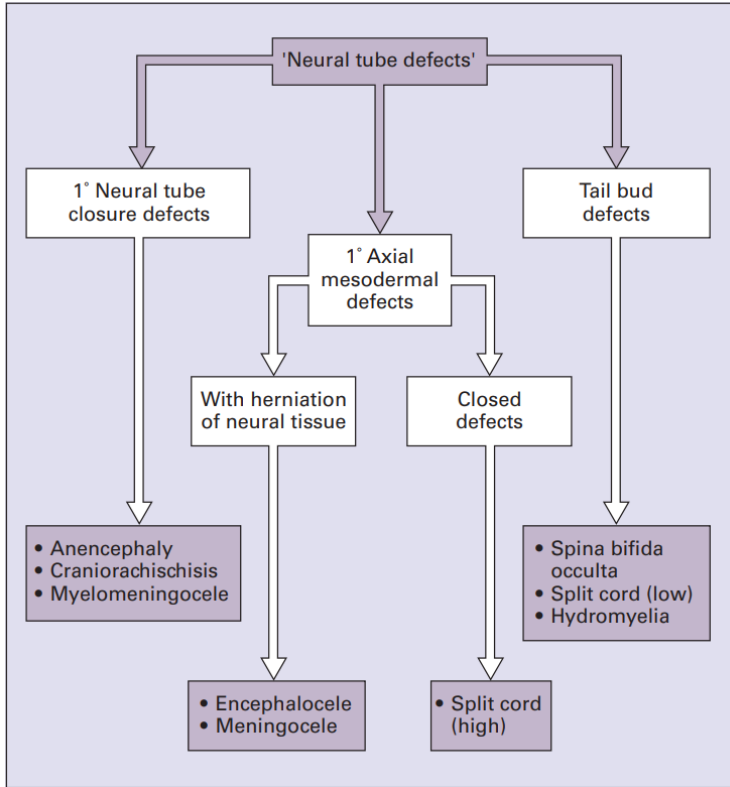


# Encephalocele





# Dysraphic Malformations



## First order neural tube defects

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## First order axial mesodermal defects

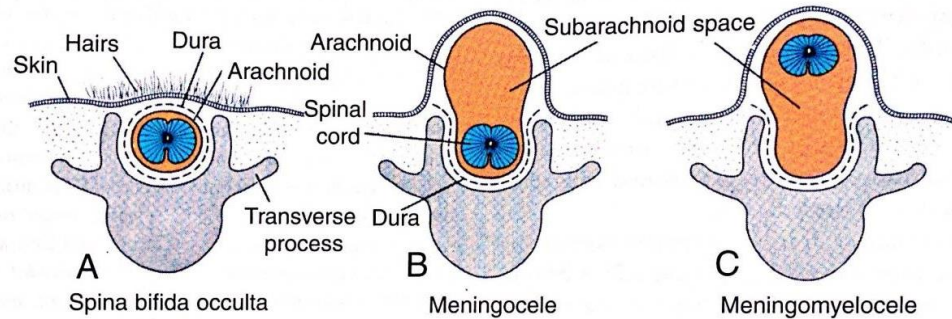
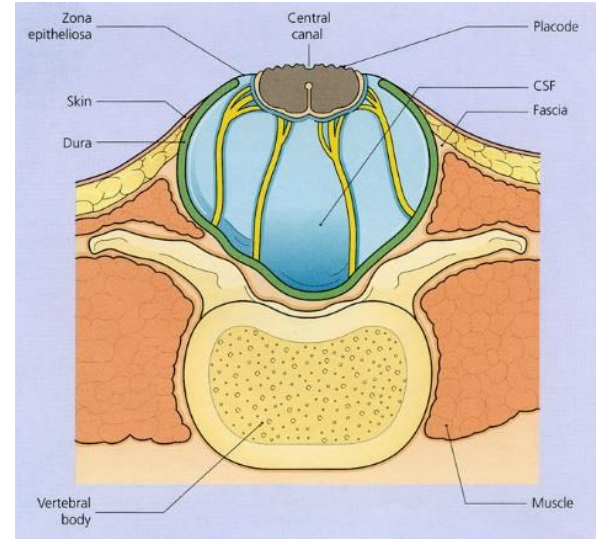
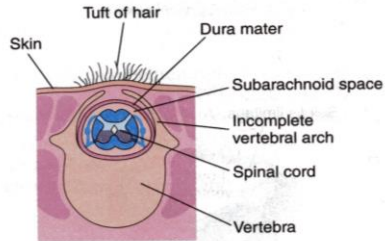
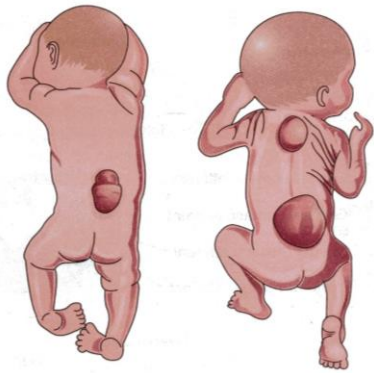
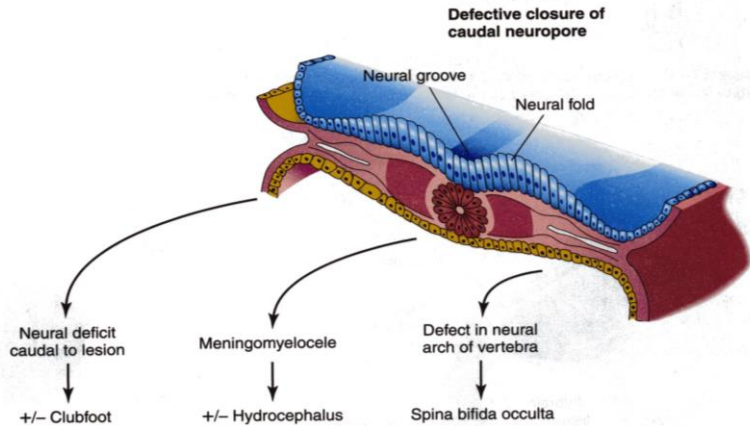
- With tissue herniation (Encephalocele; Meningocele)
- Closed defects

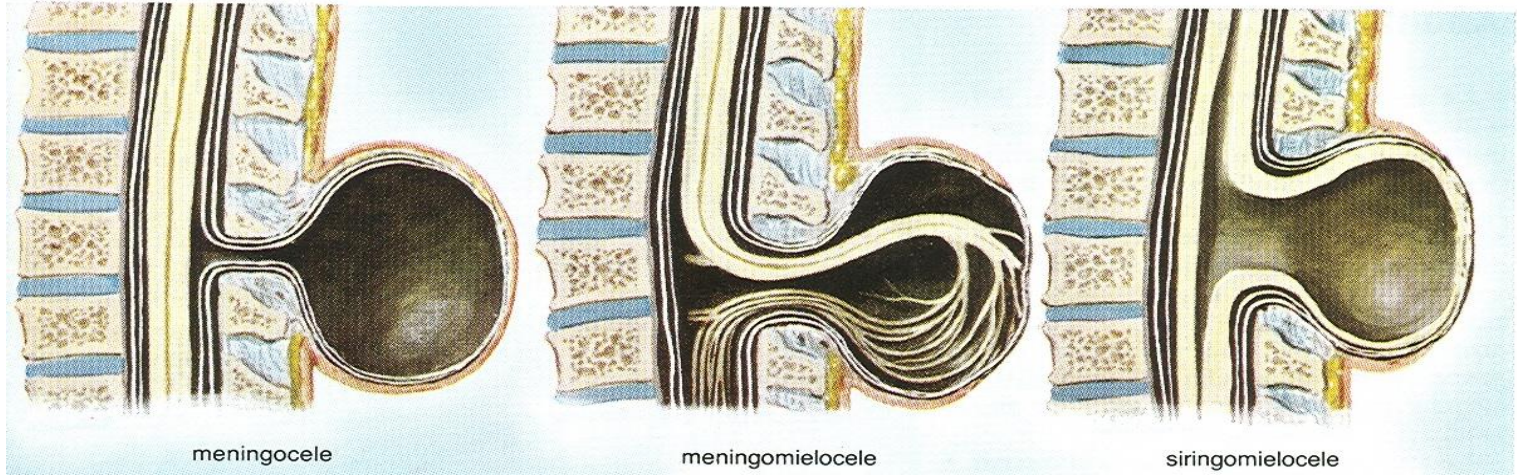
## Tail bud defects

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- Hydromyelia
- Low Split Cord

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- Caudal neural tube
- Both

# Caudal Neuropore Defects





meningocele

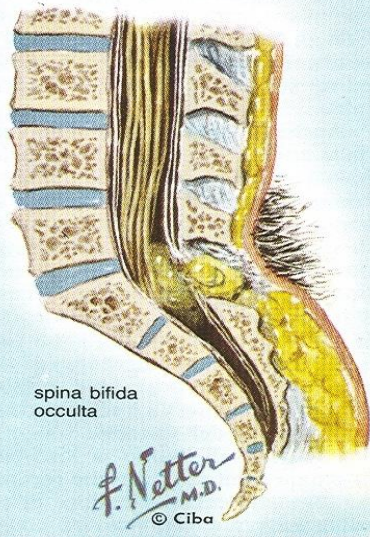
meningomyelocele

siringomyelocele



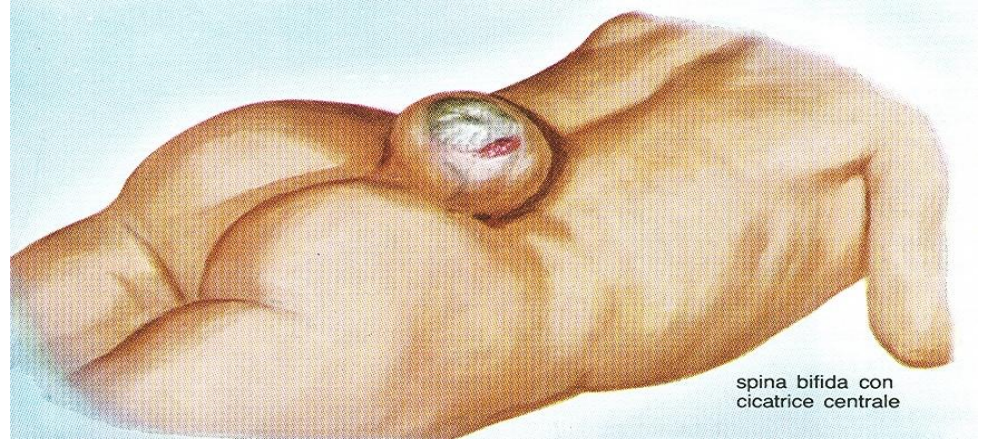


mielocele



spina bifida  
occulta

*F. Netter*  
M.D.  
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spina bifida con  
cicatrice centrale





# Developmental Alterations

## EARLY GESTATION (First 20 Weeks)

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# Chiari Malformations

Three anatomic types of cerebellar deformity associated with hydrocephalus.

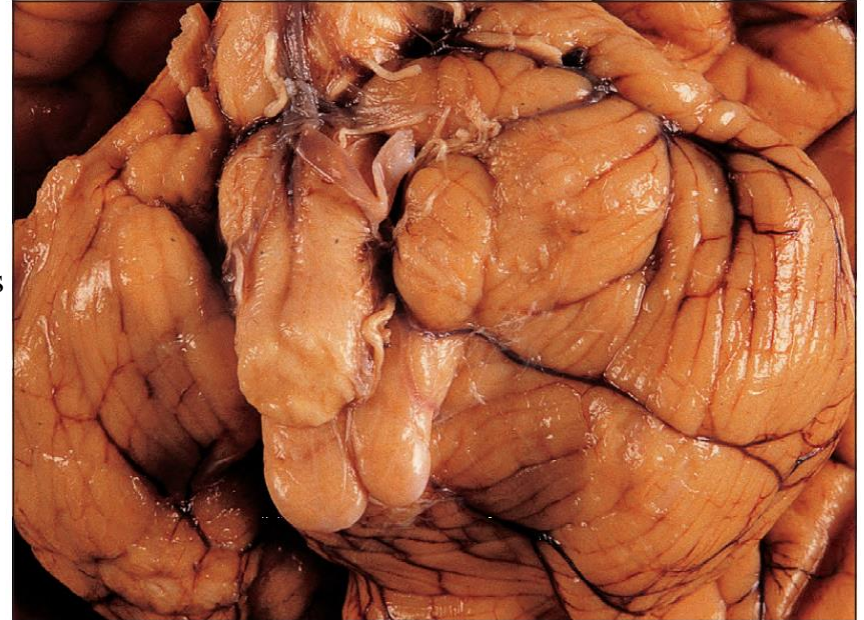
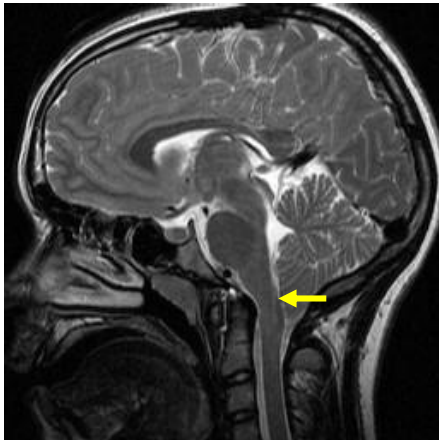
Cerebellar herniation is not secondary to space occupying lesions.

- Chiari Type I
- Chiari Type II (Arnold-Chiari)
- Chiari Type III

# Chiari Type I

Herniation of a peg of cerebellar tonsil (min. 5mm) through the foramen magnum in the absence of an intracranial space-occupying lesion or preceding hydrocephalus. No neural tube defect is present.

- May be asymptomatic.
- May present in infancy with neck pain, lower cranial nerve palsies, sleep apnea, or sudden unexpected death.
- May present in adulthood with cerebellar ataxia, late-onset **hydrocephalus**, long tract signs, or symptoms and signs of syringomyelia.
- Strongly associated with **syringomyelia** (Chiari type I occurs in 90% of patients with syringomyelia, including familial types).

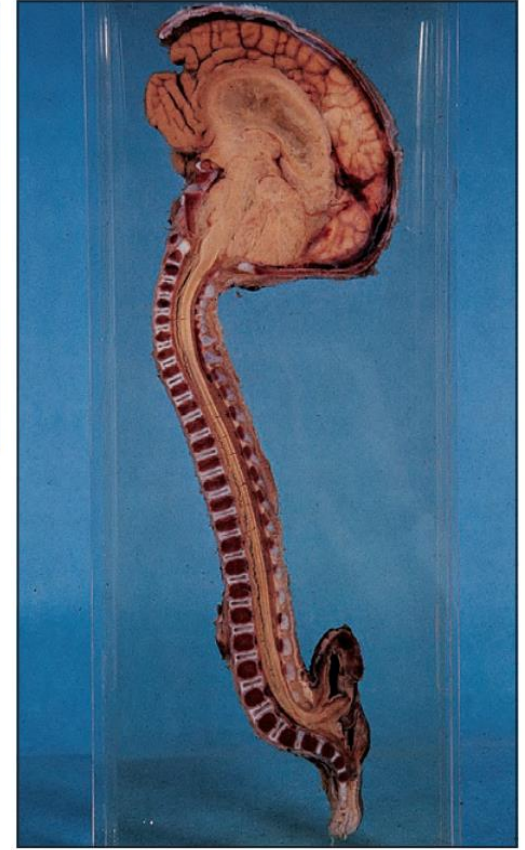
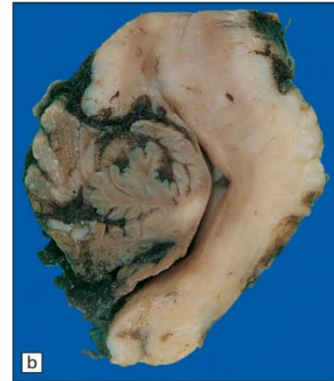
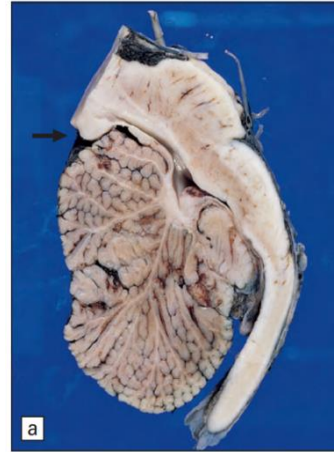
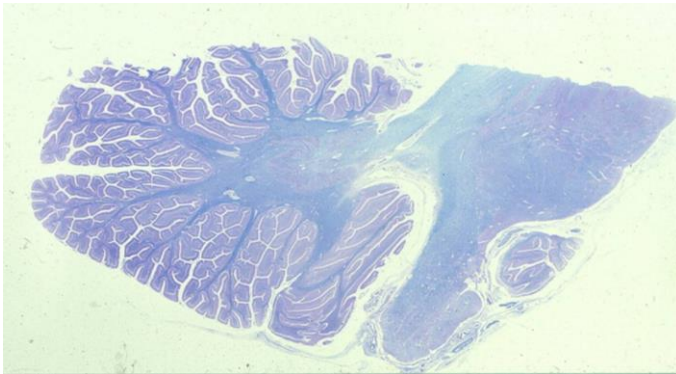


# Chiari Type II – Arnold-Chiari

Association of anomalies characterized by a) a neural tube defect, usually a lumbosacral **myelomeningocele (MMC)** b) **abnormalities of the posterior fossa and craniocervical junction** and c) **hydrocephalus**.

It combines herniation of the cerebellar vermis with malformation and downward displacement of the brain stem.

- Almost invariably associated with a lumbosacral myelomeningocele.
- Associated with craniolacunaria, a shallow posterior fossa and enlarged foramen magnum, a wide tentorial hiatus and low tentorial insertion, a low torcula, and a short fenestrated falx.
- Accompanied by hydrocephalus at birth in more than 80% of cases





# Chiari Type III

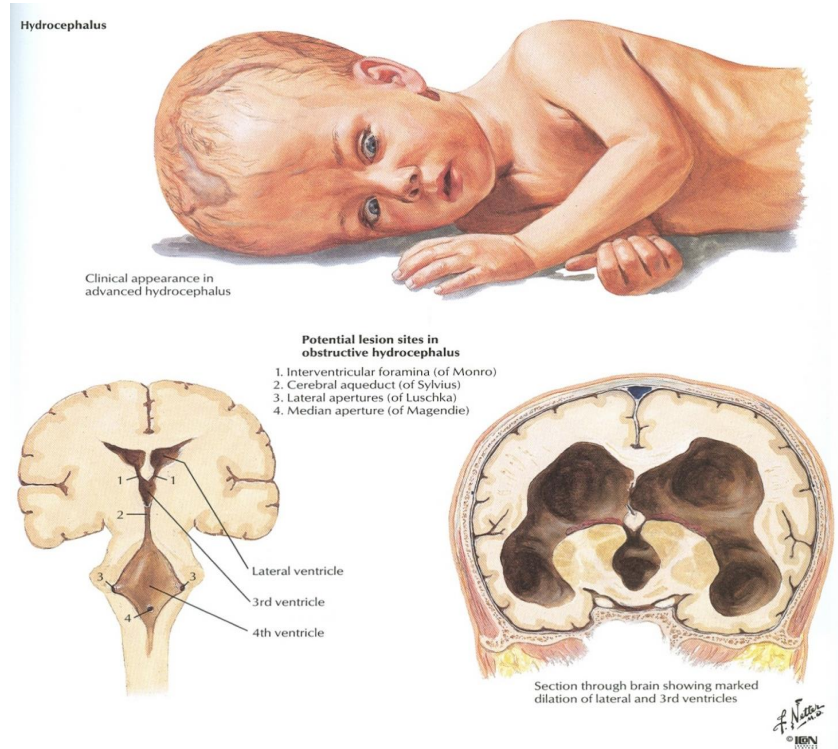
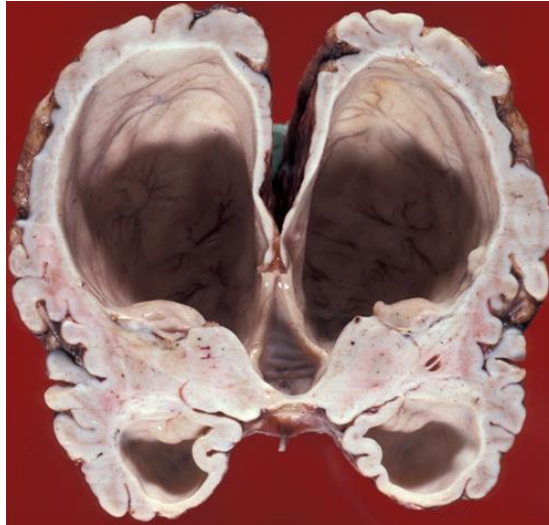
Rare **cerebello-encephalocele** through an occipitocervical or high cervical bony defect. Associated brainstem deformities and spina bifida are similar to type II.



# Hydrocephalus

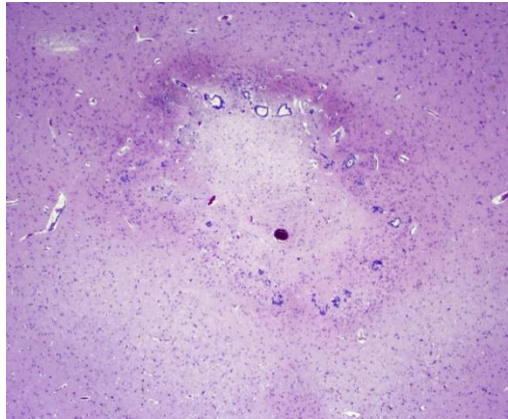
Dilatation of the cerebral ventricles; not a malformation, but **deformation due to increased pressure in the ventricles**. This dilatation has a variety of causes, the common denominator of which is obstruction of CSF flow.

- Hypersecretion of CSF
- **Obstruction of CSF flow**
- Deficitary CSF filtration



## OBSTRUCTIVE HYDROCEPHALUS

- Obstruction of the foramina of Monro (colloid cyst, tuberous sclerosis).
- Obstruction of the third ventricle (craniopharyngioma, pilocytic astrocytoma, germ cell tumors).
- Obstruction of the aqueduct (**aqueductal stenosis or atresia**, posterior fossa tumors, ).
- Obstruction of the foramina of Luschka or impairment of flow from the fourth ventricle (**Chiari malformations**, Dandy-Walker malformation, meningitis, subarachnoid hemorrhage, posterior fossa tumors).
- Fibrosis of the subarachnoid space (meningitis, subarachnoid hemorrhage, meningeal dissemination of tumors), obliteration of the subarachnoid space by glioneuronal heterotopias in the Walker-Warburg syndrome.



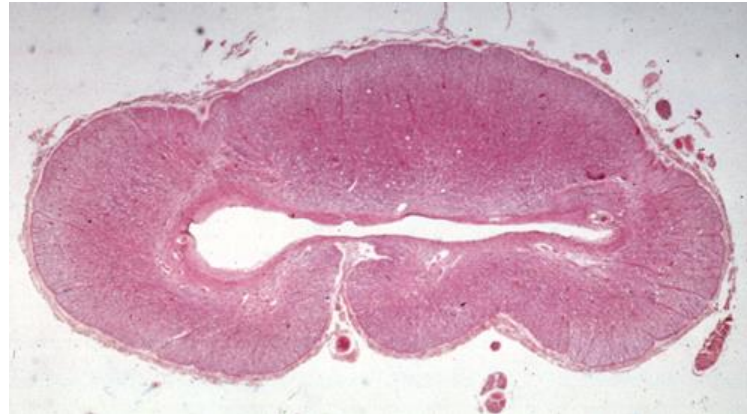
**Aqueductal atresia** is a disruption that occurs in utero or post-natally. It may be caused by clots from intraventricular bleeding, infection, and other pathologies that cause gliosis and obliterate the aqueduct



# Syringomyelia

**Tubular cavitation of the spinal cord** affecting cervical and upper thoracic segments.

- The cavity is in the central gray matter of the spinal cord.
- Initially it is separate from the central canal, but later, as it enlarges, it may communicate with it.
- **Syringobulbia** is an extension of the cavity from the spinal cord into the medulla.
- The syrinx is lined by glial tissue.
- It contains CSF-like fluid which accumulates progressively under **pressure**, causing **atrophy of gray and white matter of the spinal cord**.



## EARLY GESTATION (First 20 Weeks)

- **Dysraphic malformations**
- **Disorders of forebrain induction**
- **Malformations of cortical development**



# Disorders of Forebrain Induction

**Failures in outgrowth and separation** of the **forebrain vesicles** and in the development of the commissures. The hemispheric anomalies are associated with **craniofacial anomalies**.

- Holoprosencephaly
- Agenesis of the corpus callosum





# Holoprosencephaly

- Developmental defect of the forebrain (prosencephalon)
- Incomplete separation of the cerebral hemispheres into distinct right and left halves
- Mostly sporadic (occasional familial cases)
- Prevalence: – 1:16,000 live births – 1:250 conceptuses
- Three types:
  - **Alobar** (complete): no separation of the telencephalon, single ventricle in a small brain
  - **Semilobar** (incomplete): variable degrees of separation of the posterior cerebrum
  - **Lobar**: a small focal fusion of the midline with T-shaped or Y-shaped lateral and third ventricles

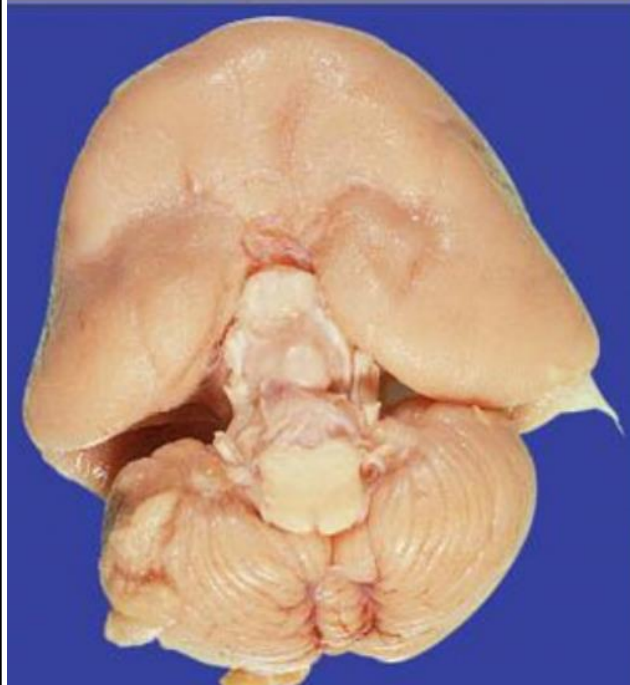
# Holoprosencephaly

## ETIOLOGY

- Material diabetes mellitus
- Infections: toxoplasmosis, syphilis, rubella
- Teratogens: ethanol, retinoic acid, cholesterol synthesis inhibitors
- Genetic factors: – Cytogenetic abnormalities seen in 50% of cases; **Trisomy 13** most frequent

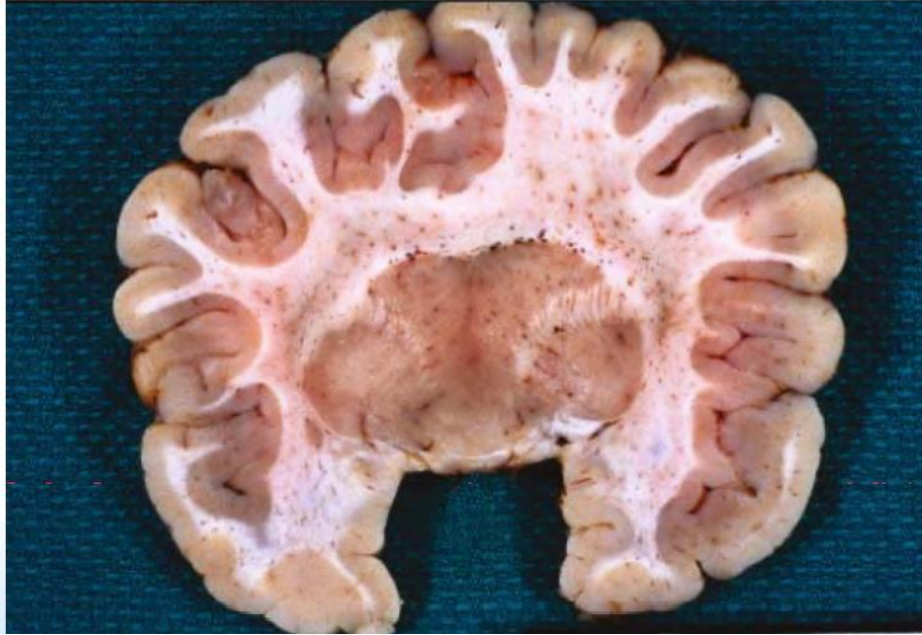
Disease or locus name	CNS malformations involved	Gene	Function of gene product	Chromosome location
Holoprosencephaly (HPE1)	Alobar holoprosencephaly	ND	ND	21q22.3
Holoprosencephaly (HPE2)	Alobar or semi-lobar holoprosencephaly	<i>SIX3</i> <sup>1064</sup>	Homologue of sine oculis gene of <i>Drosophila</i> : homeobox-containing transcription factor	2p21
Holoprosencephaly (HPE3)	Holoprosencephaly	<i>SHH</i> (Sonic hedgehog) <sup>875</sup>	Secreted signalling molecule; neural inducer	7q36
Holoprosencephaly (HPE4)	Holoprosencephaly	<i>TGIF</i> <sup>405</sup>	Homeodomain protein functioning as repressor of TGF- $\beta$	18p11.3
Holoprosencephaly (HPE5; 13q32 deletion syndrome)	Holoprosencephaly, exencephaly	<i>ZIC2</i> <sup>124</sup>	Transcription factor encoded by homologue of odd paired gene of <i>Drosophila</i>	13q32
Holoprosencephaly (HPE6)	Holoprosencephaly	ND	ND	2q37.1
Holoprosencephaly (HPE7)	Holoprosencephaly	<i>PTCH1</i> <sup>703</sup>	Patched: membrane receptor for Sonic hedgehog protein	9q22.3
Holoprosencephaly (HPE8)	Holoprosencephaly	ND	ND	14q13

# Alobar Holoprosencephaly

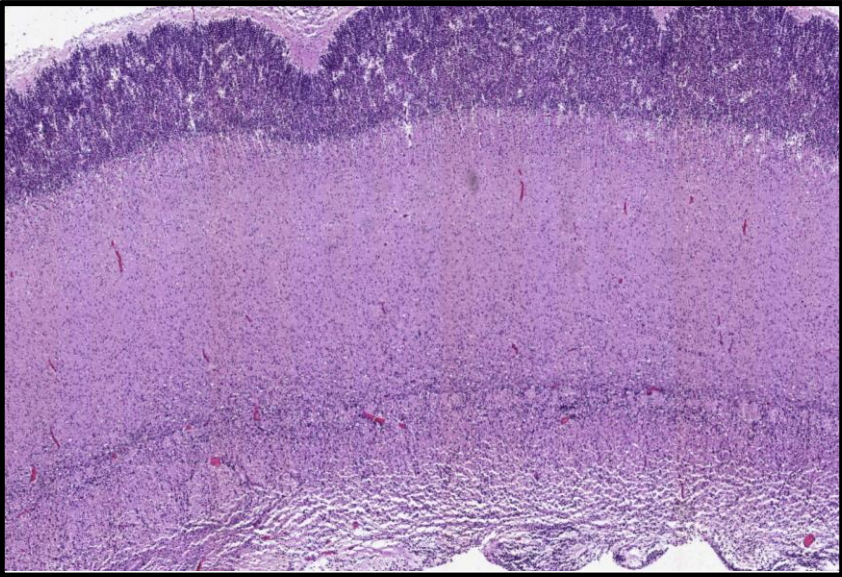
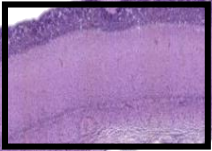
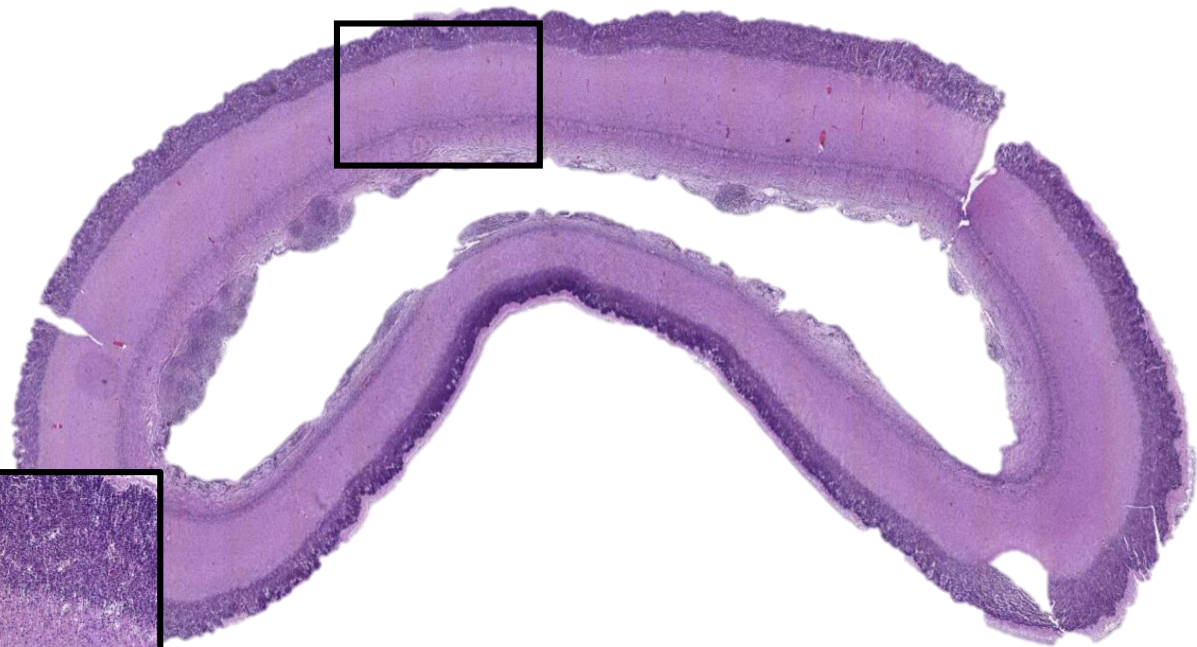




# Alobar Holoprosencephaly



- Neocortical hypoplasia with a relative lack of prefrontal association cortex and excessive allocortex.
- Cortical disorganization or disturbed neuronal migration such as polymicrogyria, superficial cortical segmentation, prominent perpendicular cords of cells, and more deeply placed aneuronal neuropilic glomerular structures.





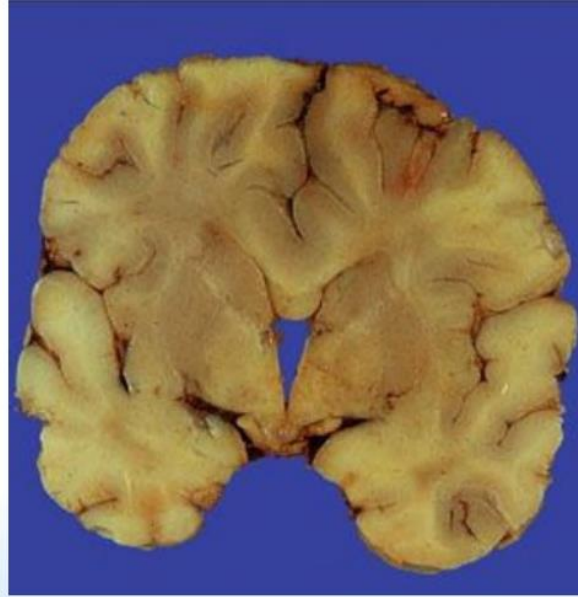
# Semilobar Holoprosencephaly



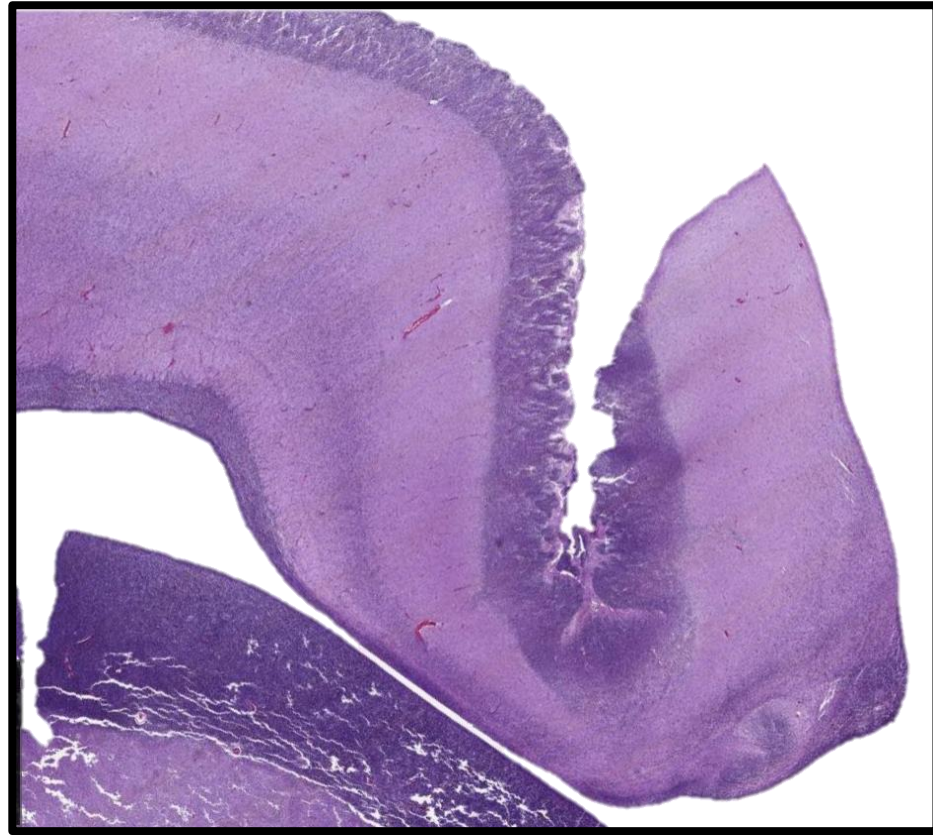
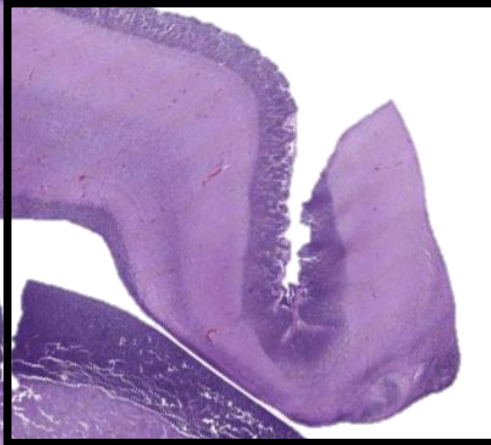
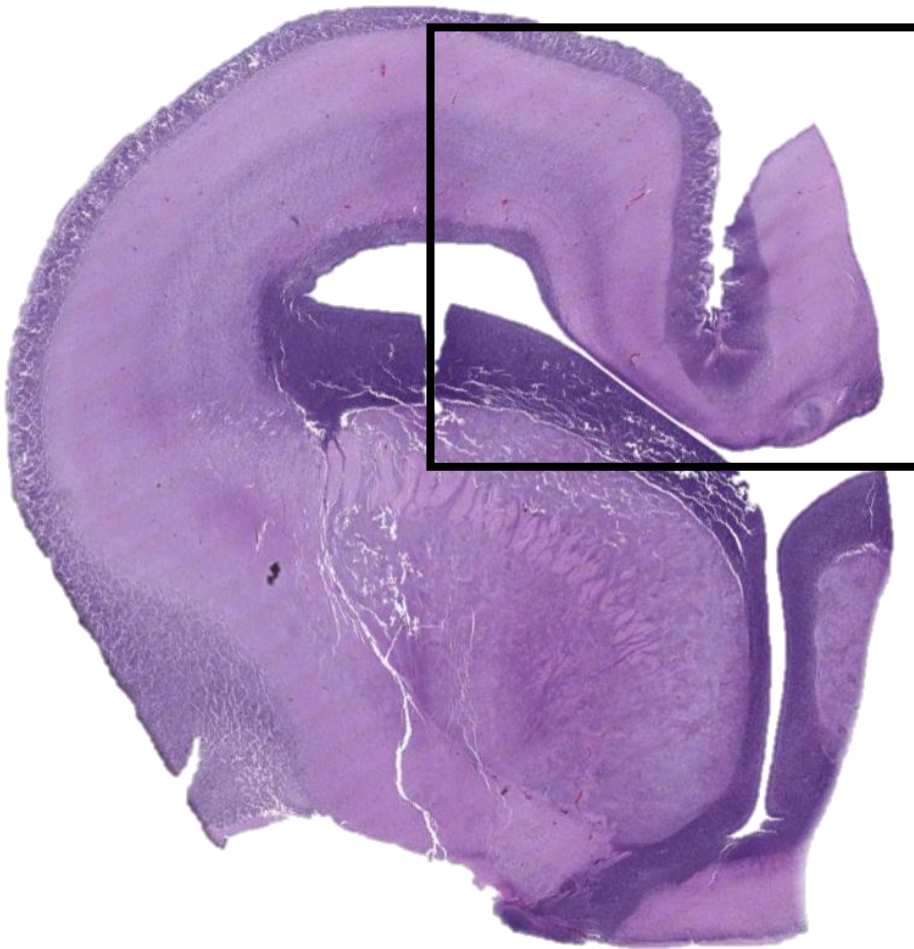
Intermediate between the alobar and lobar forms. There are mild microcephaly, a partly formed shallow interhemispheric fissure, and some lobar structure with rudimentary temporal and occipital horns but continuity of the cortex across the midline. Olfactory structures are usually absent.



# Lobar Holoprosencephaly



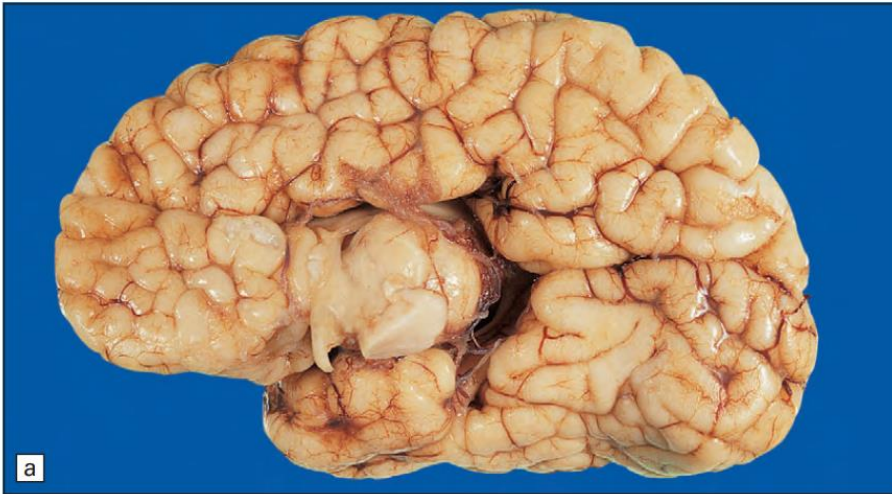
Despite near-normal brain size, normal lobe formation, and separated hemispheres, the cerebral cortex is continuous across the midline, at the frontal pole, or in the orbital region, or above the callosum (cingulosynapsis). Olfactory bulbs and callosum may be absent or hypoplastic. Heterotopic gray matter may be found in the ventricular roof.





# Callosal Agenesis

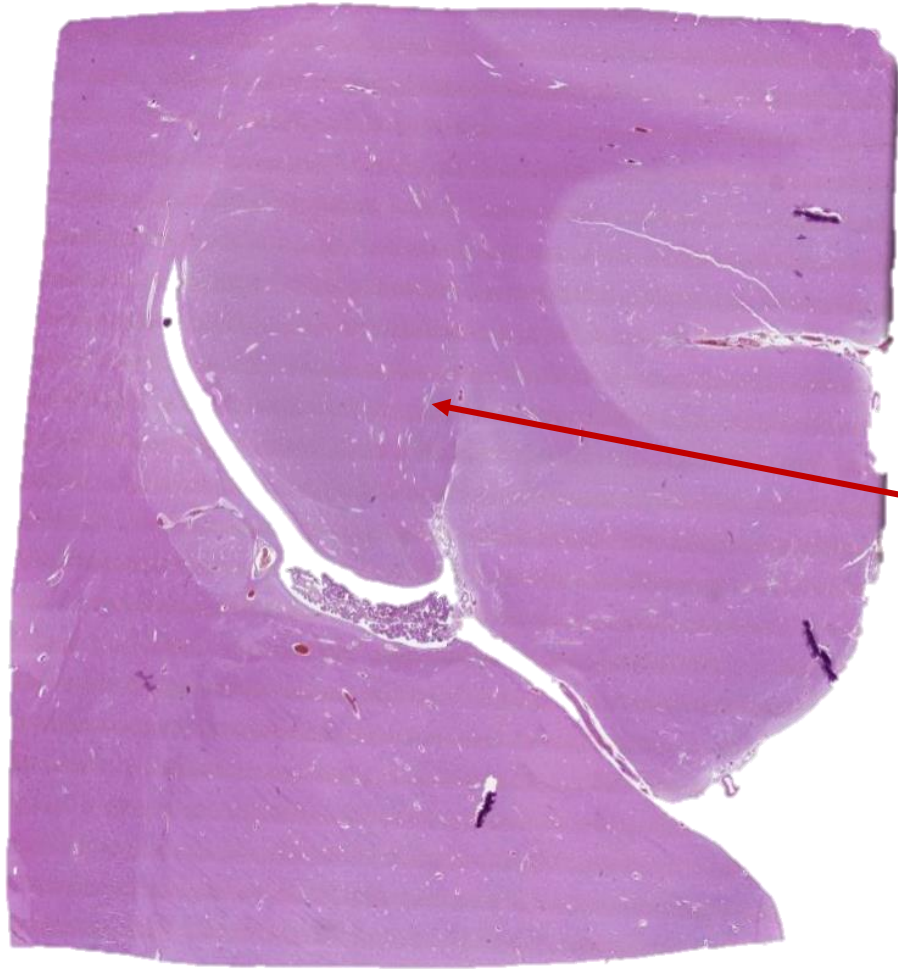
- Complete (total) and incomplete (partial) types – Partial is usually only missing the splenium
- Isolated (silent clinically or subtle) or seen in association with other malformations (ex. holoprosencephaly)
- Possible pathogenetic mechanisms: – Probst bundle of misdirected fibers – Mechanical defect suggested by hamartoma/ lipoma



(b)





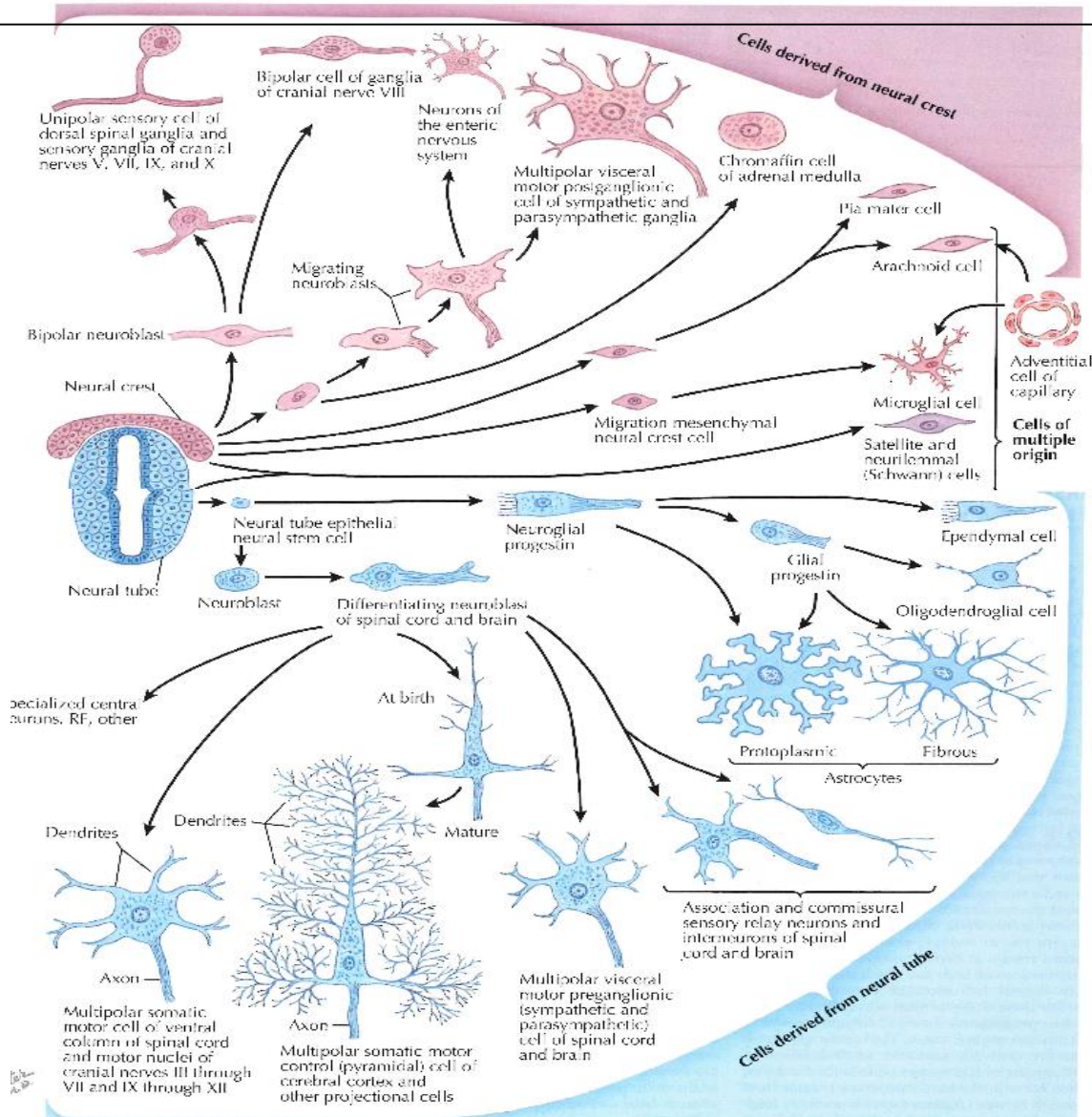


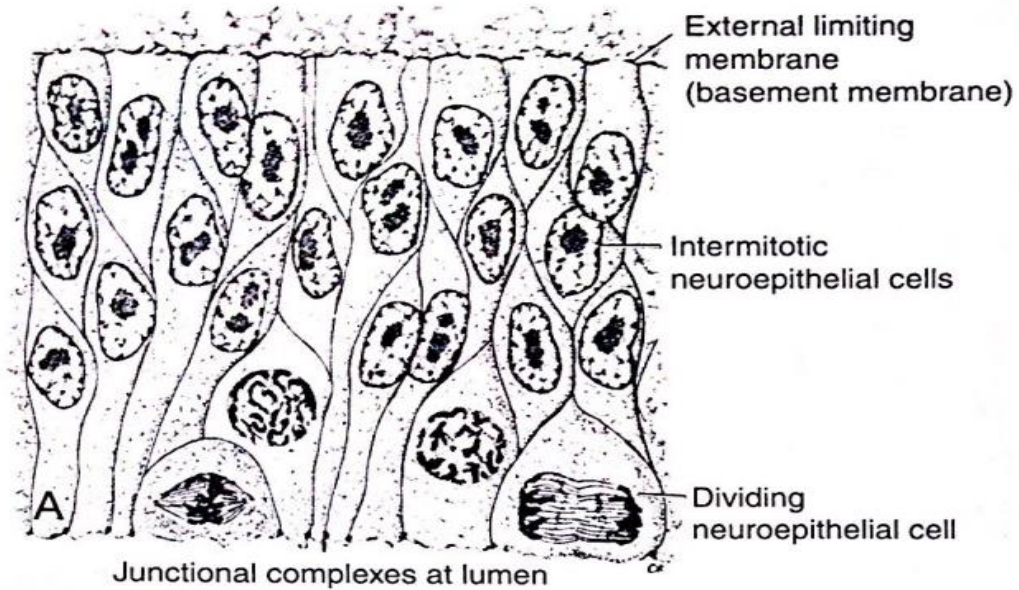


# DEVELOPMENT OF THE CNS

- Morphogenesis → • Development of CNS Structure
- Histogenesis → • Development of CNS Tissue

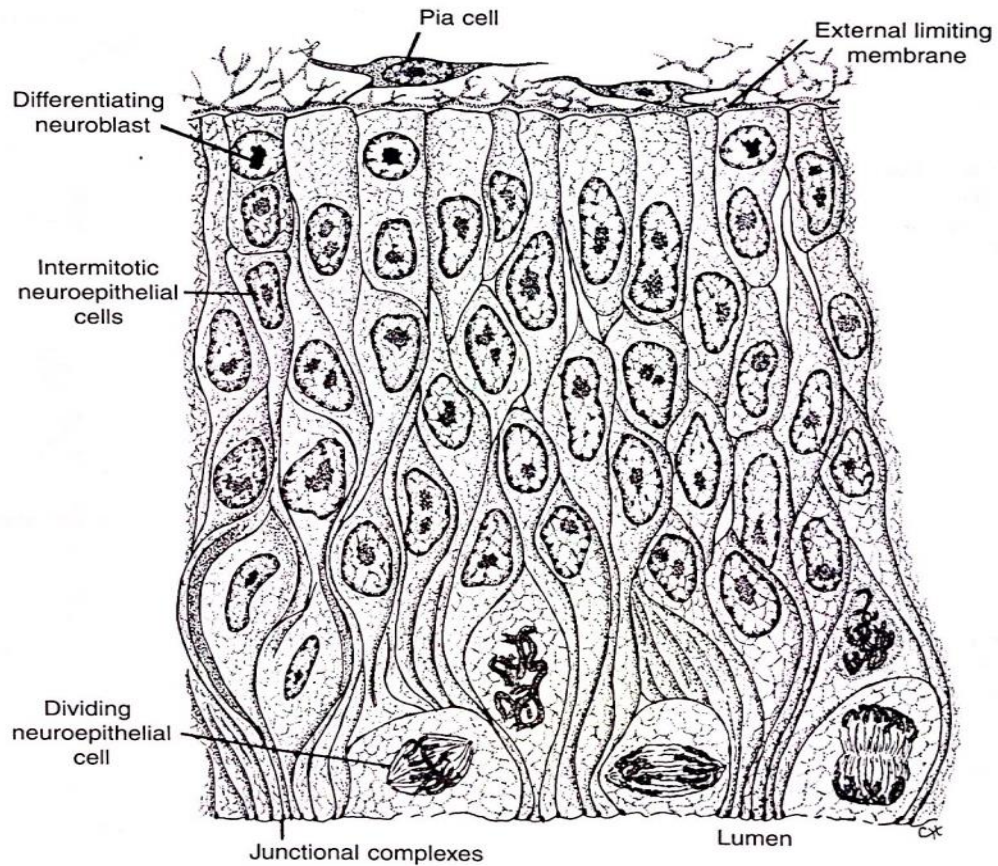






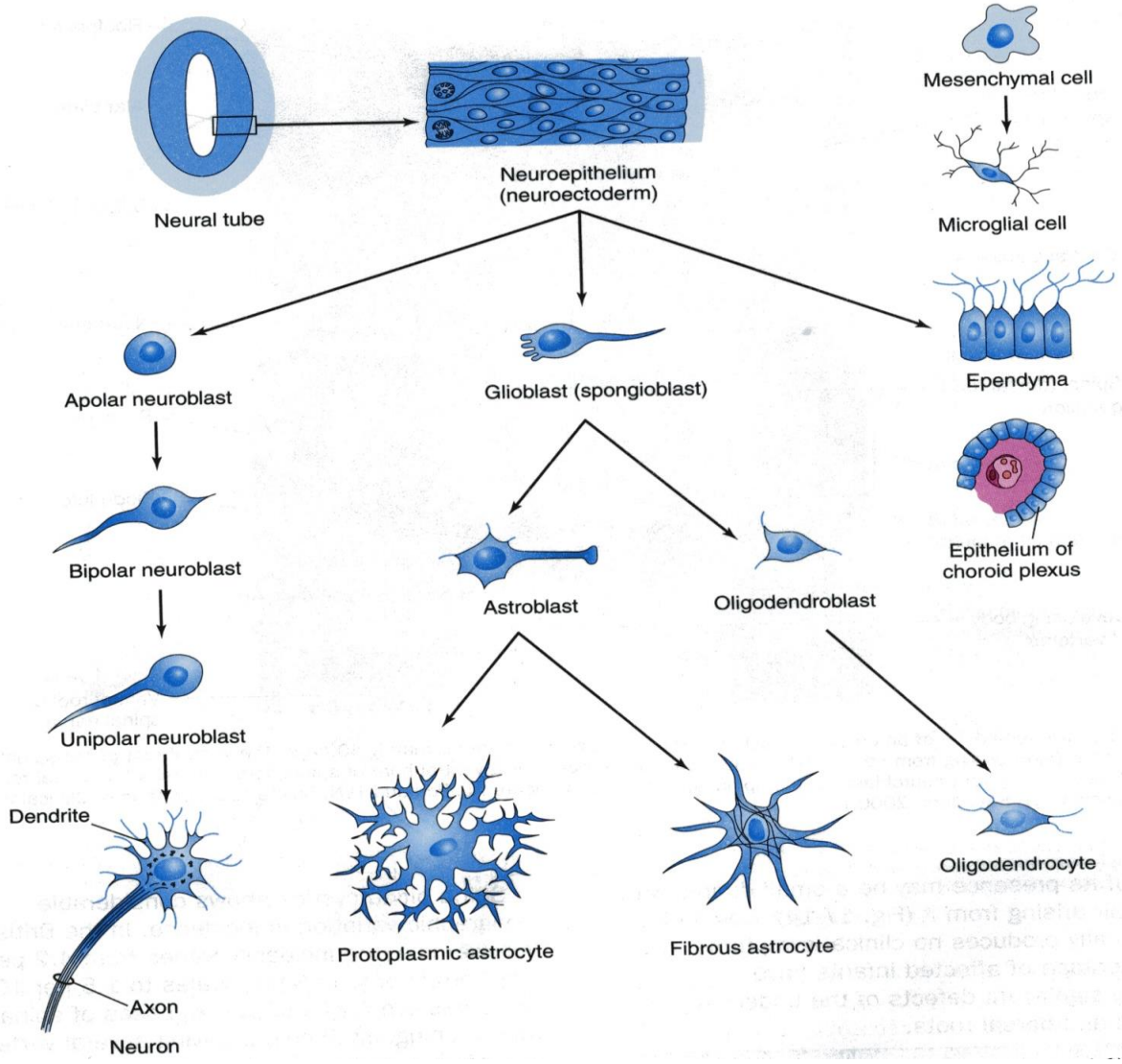
**Figure 17.6** **A.** Section of the wall of the recently closed neural tube showing neuroepithelial cells, which form a pseudostratified epithelium extending over the full width of the wall. Note the dividing cells at the lumen of the tube. **B.** Scanning electron micrograph of a section of the neural tube of a chick embryo similar to that in **A.**

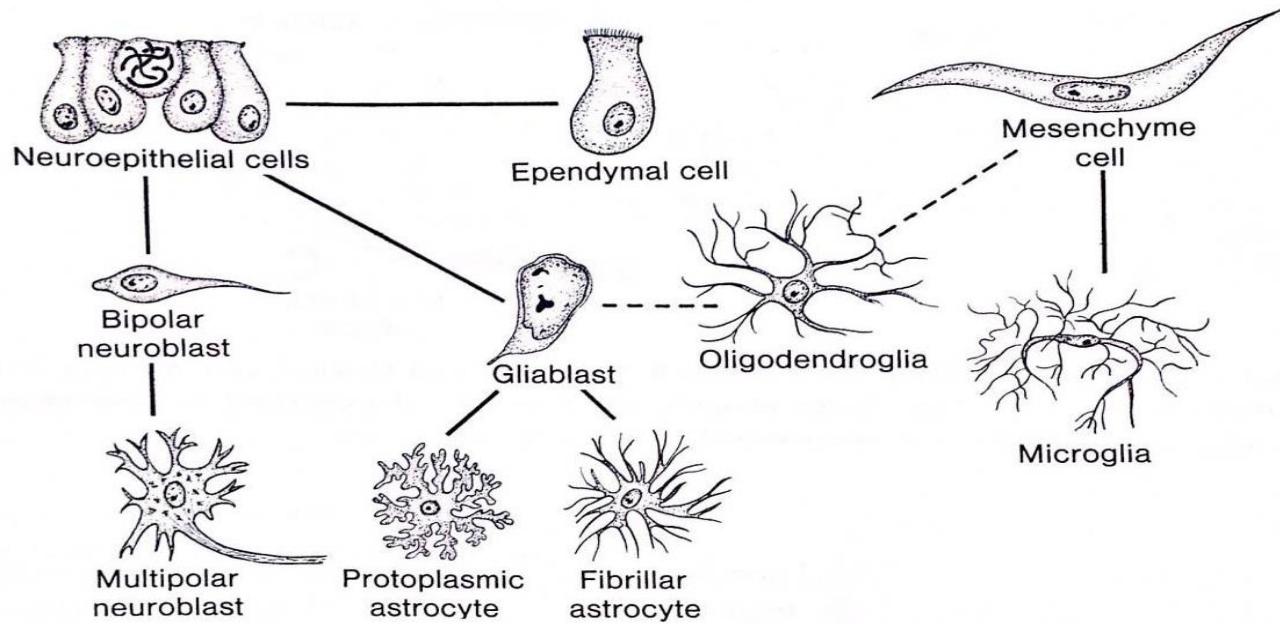




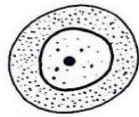
**Figure 17.7** Section of the neural tube at a slightly more advanced stage than in Figure 17.6. The major portion of the wall consists of neuroepithelial cells. On the periphery, immediately adjacent to the external limiting membrane, neuroblasts form. These cells, which are produced by the neuroepithelial cells in ever-increasing numbers, will form the mantle layer.





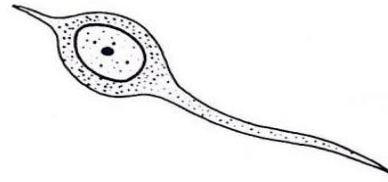


**Figure 17.11** Origin of the nerve cell and the various types of glial cells. Neuroblasts, fibrillar and protoplasmic astrocytes, and ependymal cells originate from neuroepithelial cells. Microglia develop from mesenchyme cells. The origin of the oligodendroglia is not clear.



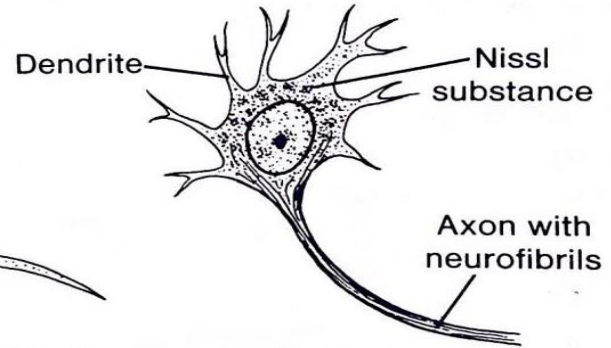
Apolar neuroblast

**A**



Bipolar neuroblast

**B**

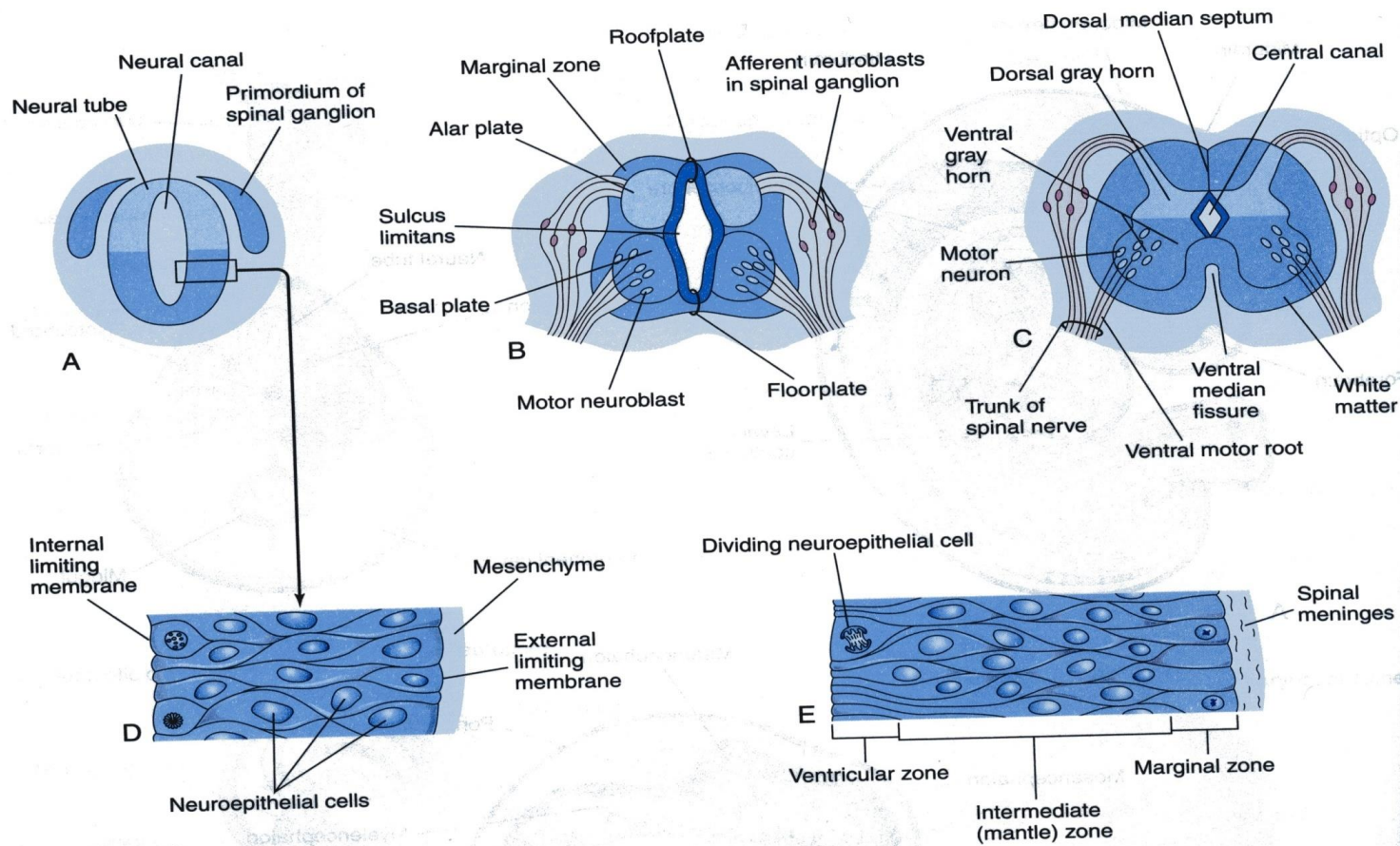


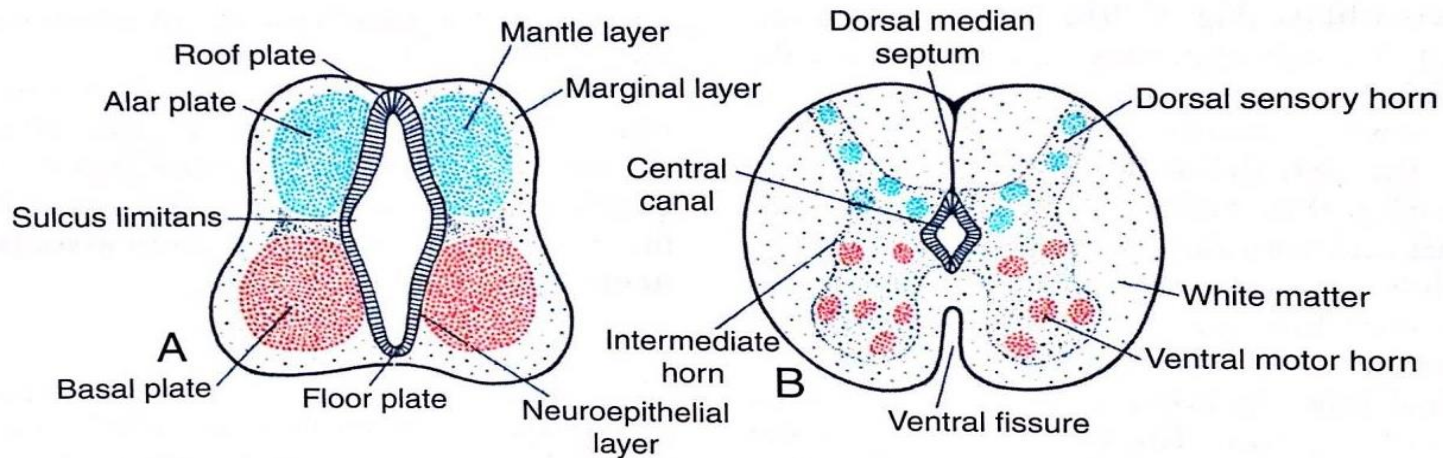
Multipolar neuron

**C**

**Figure 17.9** Various stages of development of a neuroblast. A neuron is a structural and functional unit consisting of the cell body and all its processes.

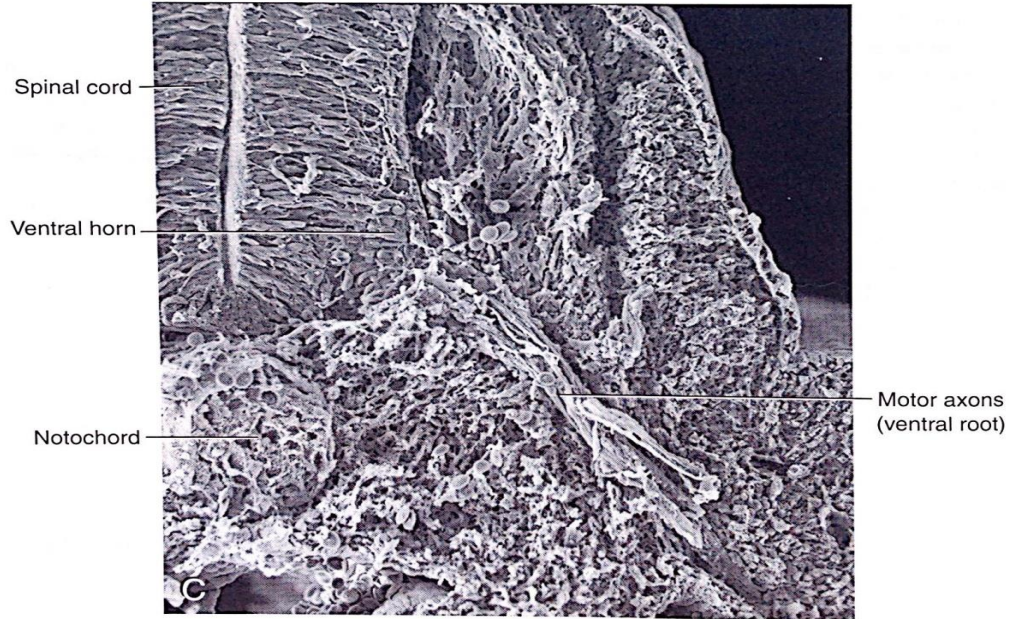
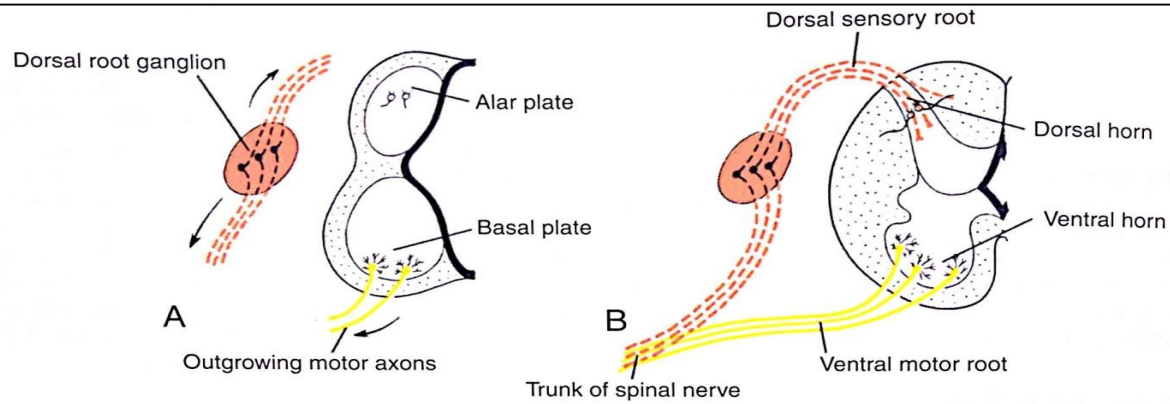






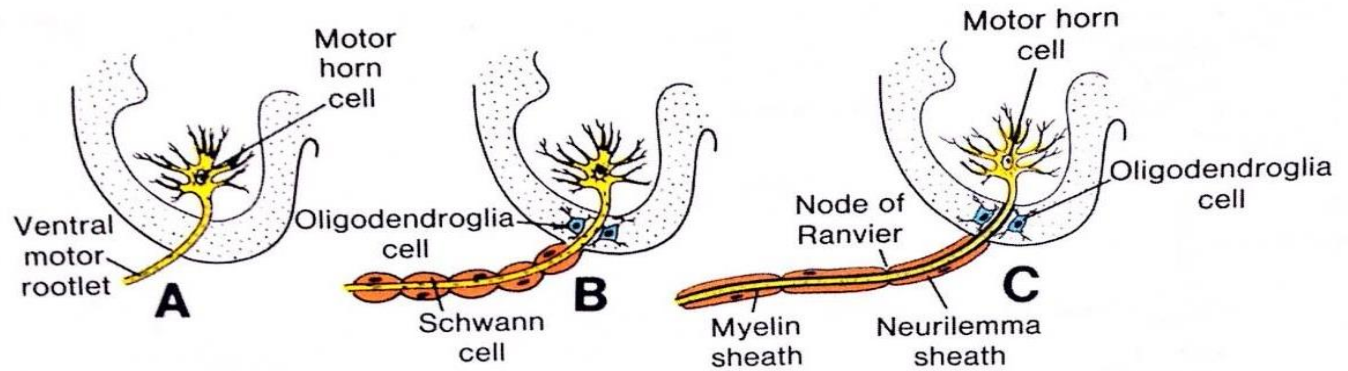
**Figure 17.8 A,B.** Two successive stages in the development of the spinal cord. Note formation of ventral motor and dorsal sensory horns and the intermediate column.



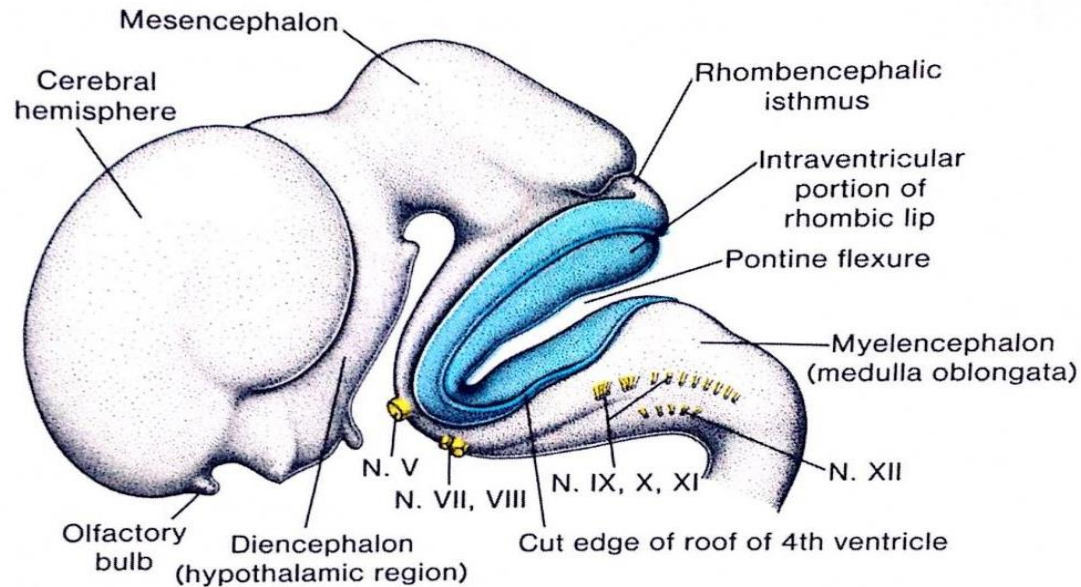


**Figure 17.10** **A.** Motor axons growing out from neurons in the basal plate and centrally and peripherally growing fibers of nerve cells in the dorsal root ganglion. **B.** Nerve fibers of the ventral motor and dorsal sensory roots join to form the trunk of the spinal nerve. **C.** Scanning electron micrograph of a cross section through the spinal cord of a chick embryo. The ventral horn and ventral motor root are differentiating.

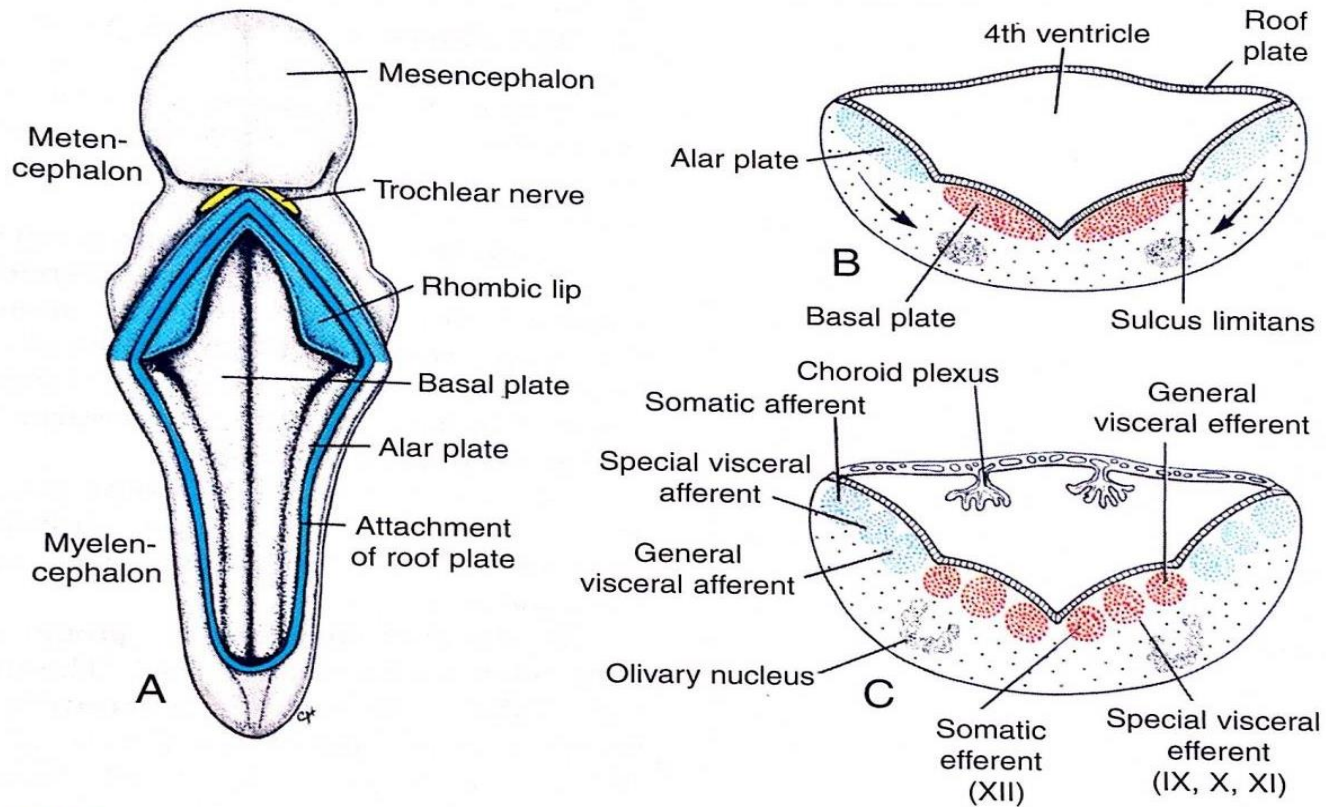




**Figure 17.12** **A.** Motor horn cell with naked rootlet. **B.** In the spinal cord, oligodendroglia cells surround the ventral rootlet; outside the spinal cord, Schwann cells begin to surround the rootlet. **C.** In the spinal cord, the myelin sheath is formed by oligodendroglia cells; outside the spinal cord, the sheath is formed by Schwann cells.

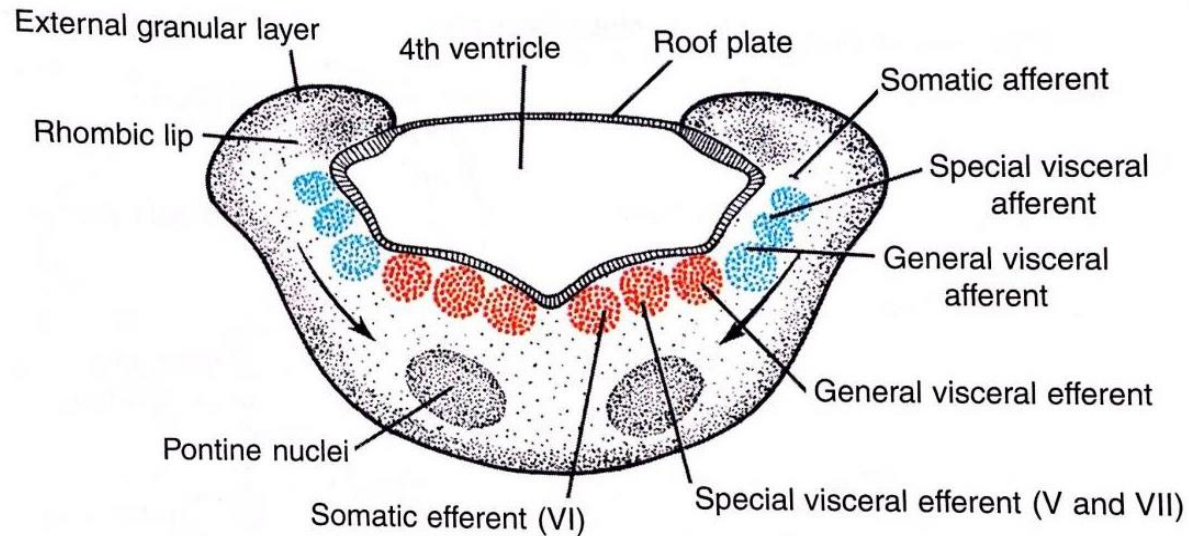


**Figure 17.17** Lateral view of the brain vesicles in an 8-week embryo (crown-rump length ~27 mm). The roof plate of the rhombencephalon has been removed to show the intraventricular portion of the rhombic lip. Note the origin of the cranial nerves.

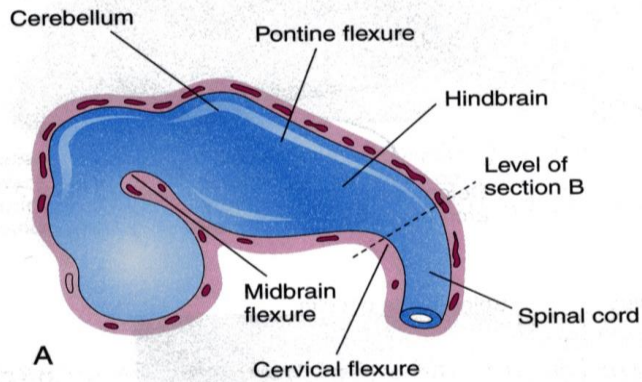


**Figure 17.18** **A.** Dorsal view of the floor of the fourth ventricle in a 6-week embryo after removal of the roof plate. Note the alar and basal plates in the myelencephalon. The rhombic lip is visible in the metencephalon. **B,C.** Position and differentiation of the basal and alar plates of the myelencephalon at different stages of development. Note formation of the nuclear groups in the basal and alar plates. Arrows, path followed by cells of the alar plate to the olivary nuclear complex. The choroid plexus produces cerebrospinal fluid.

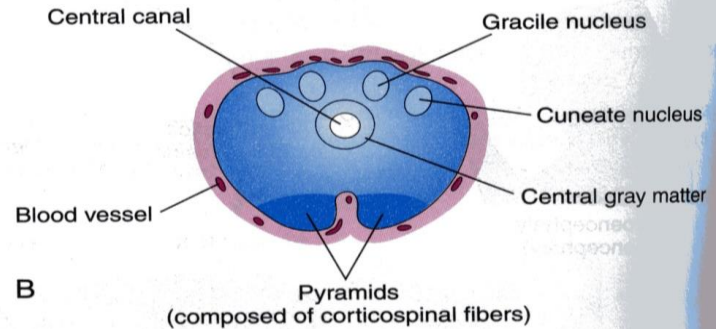




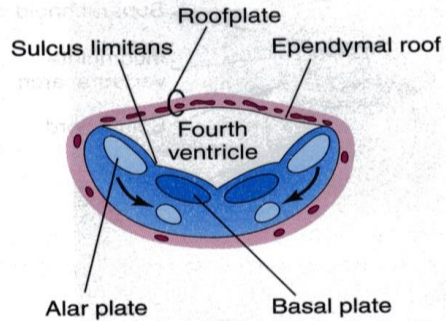
**Figure 17.19** Transverse section through the caudal part of the metencephalon. Note the differentiation of the various motor and sensory nuclear areas in the basal and alar plates, respectively, and the position of the rhombic lips, which project partly into the lumen of the fourth ventricle and partly above the attachment of the roof plate. Arrows, direction of migration of the pontine nuclei.



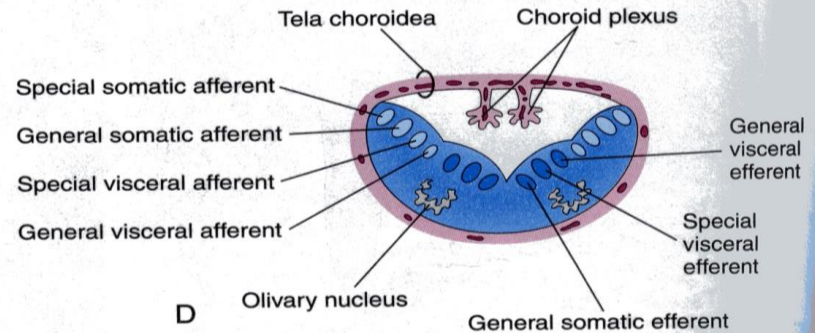
A



B

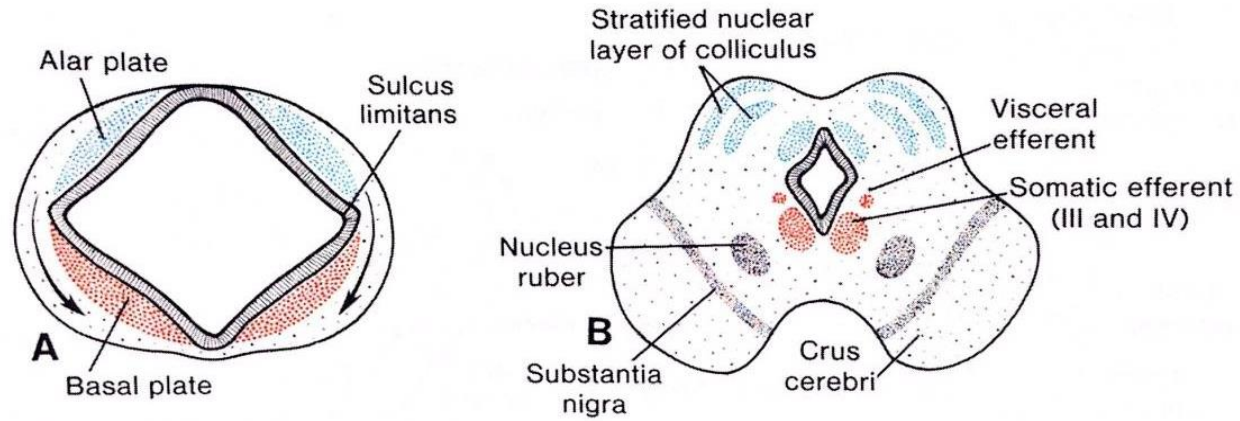


C



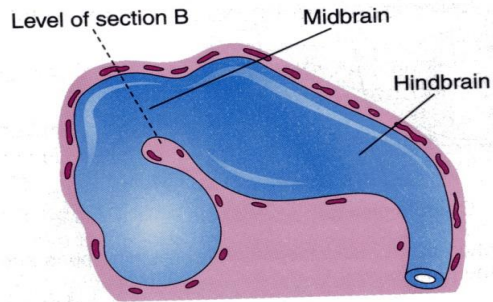
D

**FIGURE 17-21.** **A**, Sketch of the developing brain at the end of the fifth week showing the three primary divisions of the brain and the brain flexures. **B**, Transverse section of the caudal part of the myelencephalon (developing closed part of the medulla). **C** and **D**, Similar sections of the rostral part of the myelencephalon (developing open part of the medulla) showing the position and successive stages of differentiation of the alar and basal plates. The arrows in **C** show the pathway taken by neuroblasts from the alar plates to form the olivary nuclei.

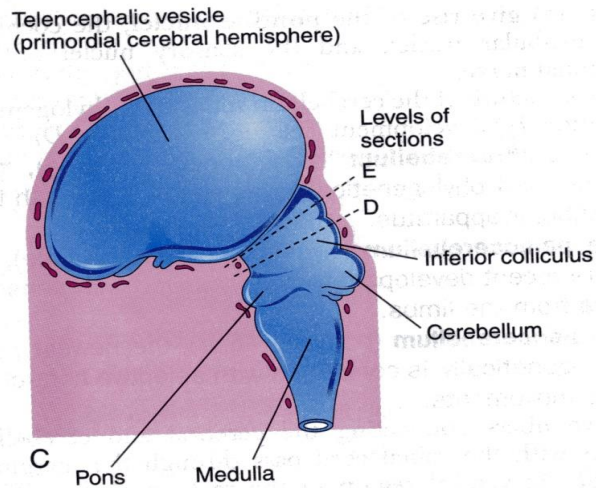


**Figure 17.23** A,B. Position and differentiation of the basal and alar plates in the mesencephalon at various stages of development. Arrows in **A** indicate the path followed by cells of the alar plate to form the nucleus ruber and substantia nigra. Note the various motor nuclei in the basal plate.

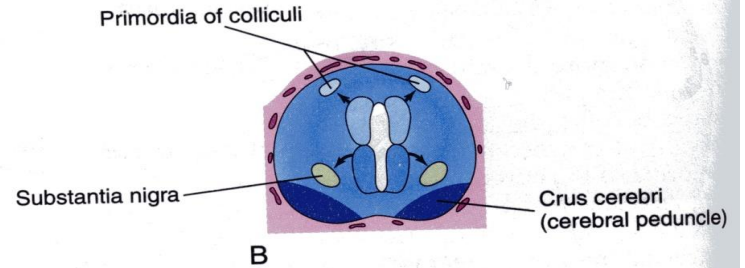




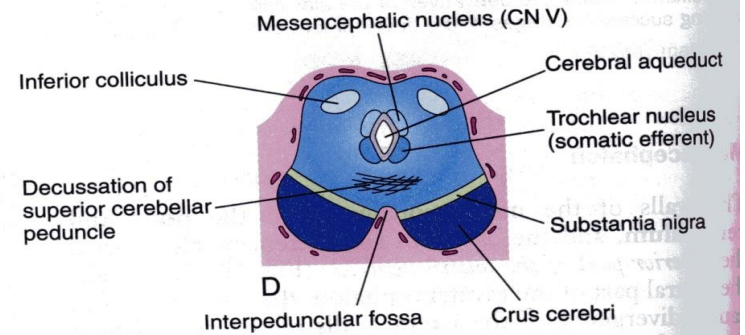
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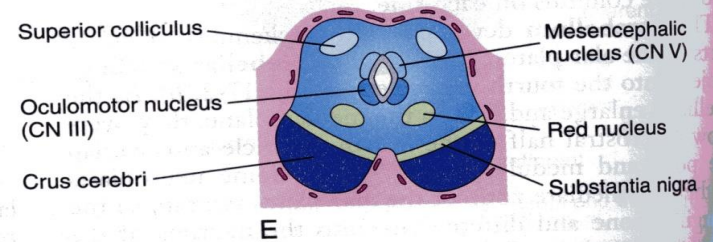
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B

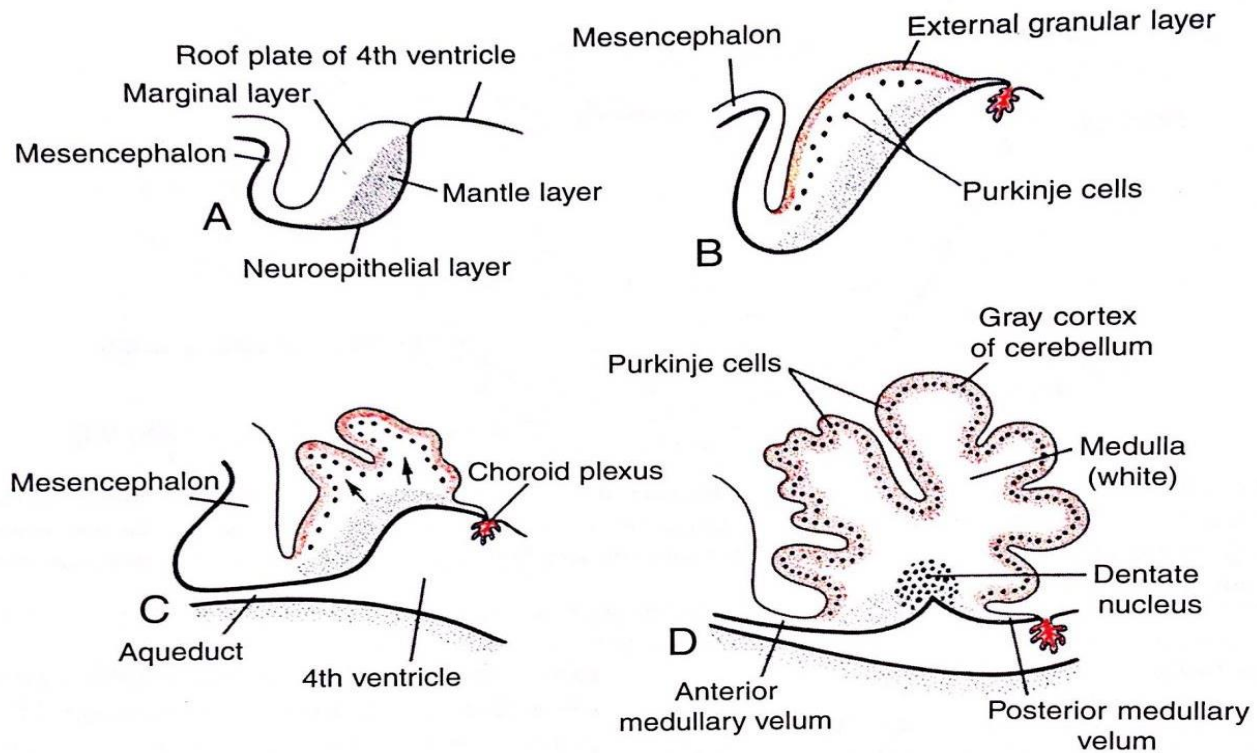


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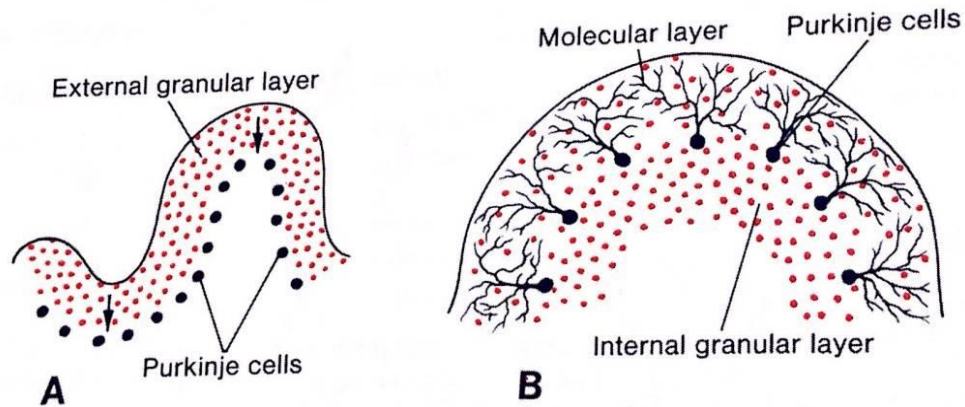


E

**FIGURE 17-23.** **A**, Sketch of the developing brain at the end of the fifth week. **B**, Transverse section of the developing midbrain showing the early migration of cells from the basal and alar plates. **C**, Sketch of the developing brain at 11 weeks. **D** and **E**, Transverse sections of the developing midbrain at the level of the inferior and superior colliculi, respectively. CN, cranial nerve.

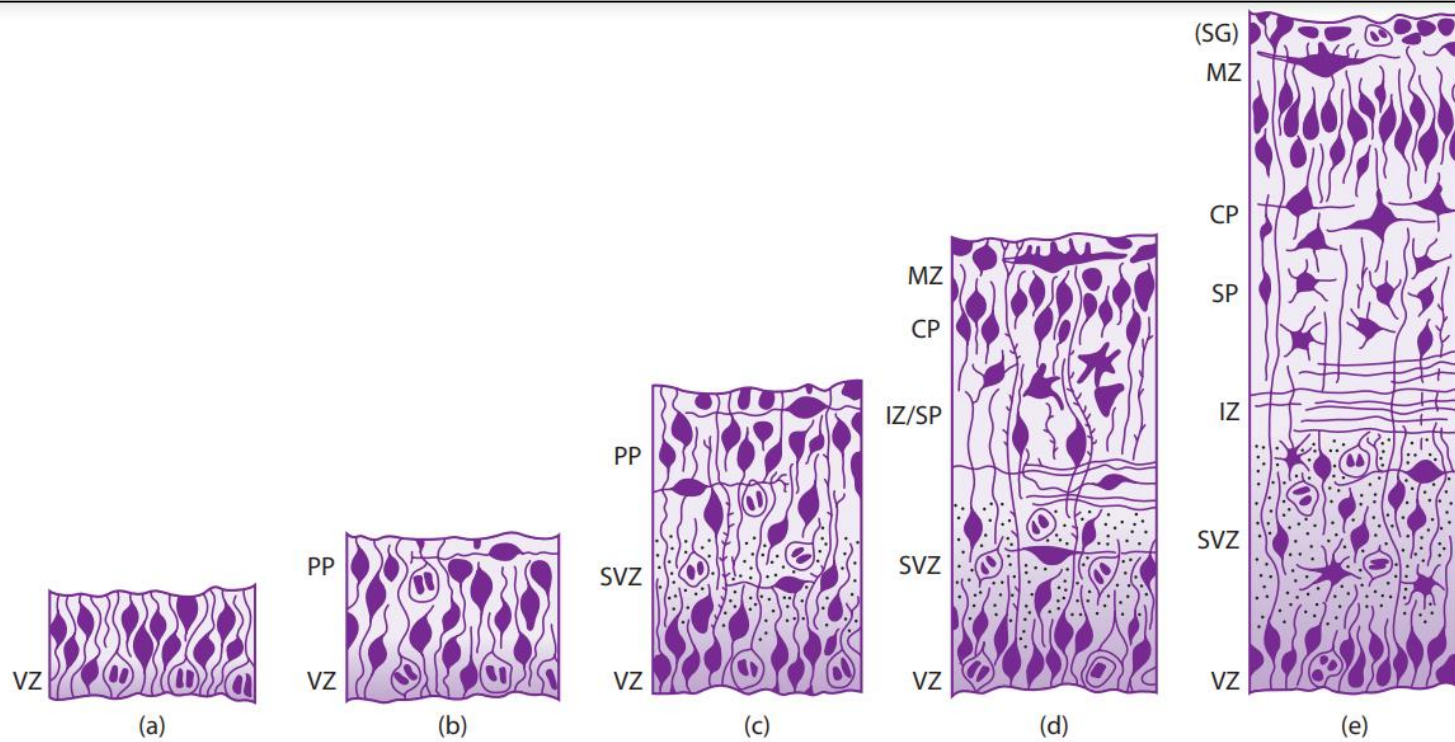


**Figure 17.21** Sagittal sections through the roof of the metencephalon showing development of the cerebellum. **A.** 8 weeks (~30 mm). **B.** 12 weeks (70 mm). **C.** 13 weeks. **D.** 15 weeks. Note formation of the external granular layer on the surface of the cerebellar plate (**B,C**). During later stages, cells of the external granular layer migrate inward to mingle with Purkinje cells and form the definitive cortex of the cerebellum. The dentate nucleus is one of the deep cerebellar nuclei. Note the anterior and posterior velum.



**Figure 17.22** Stages in development of the cerebellar cortex. **A.** The external granular layer on the surface of the cerebellum forms a proliferative layer from which granule cells arise. They migrate inward from the surface (arrows). Basket and stellate cells derive from proliferating cells in the cerebellar white matter. **B.** Postnatal cerebellar cortex showing differentiated Purkinje cells, the molecular layer on the surface, and the internal granular layer beneath the Purkinje cells.

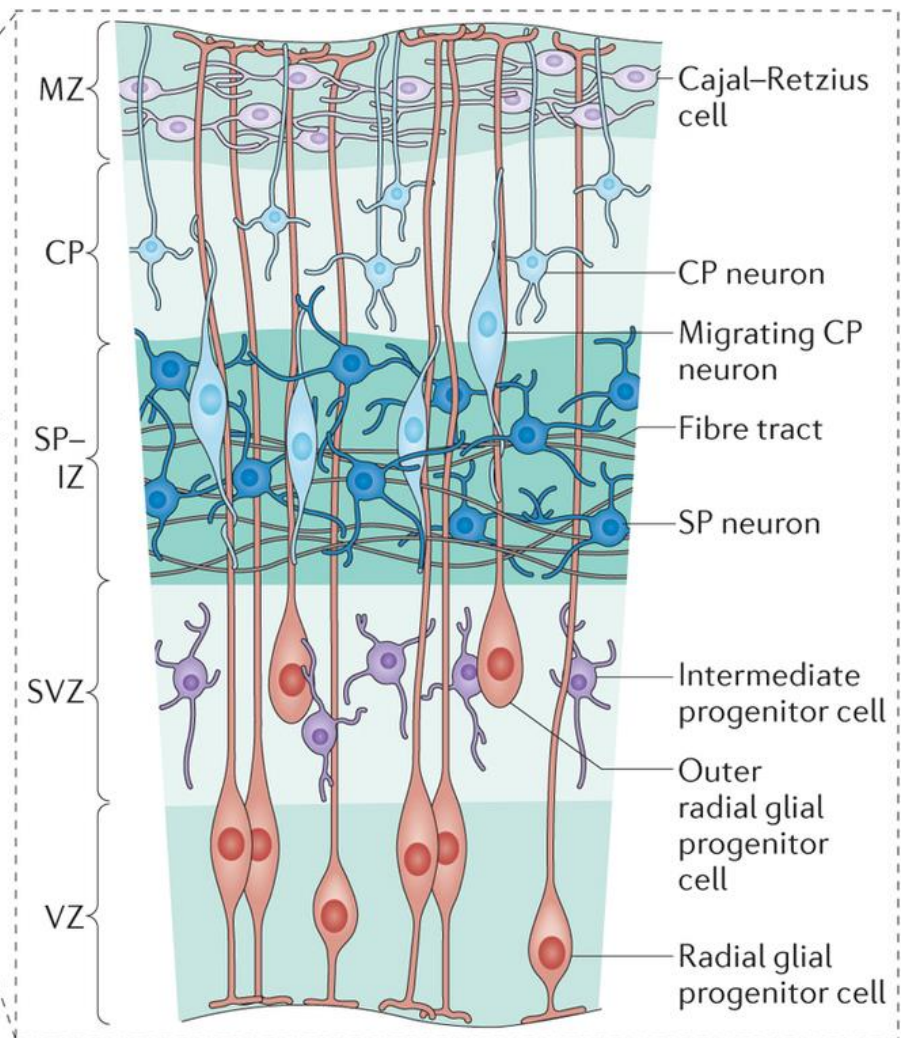
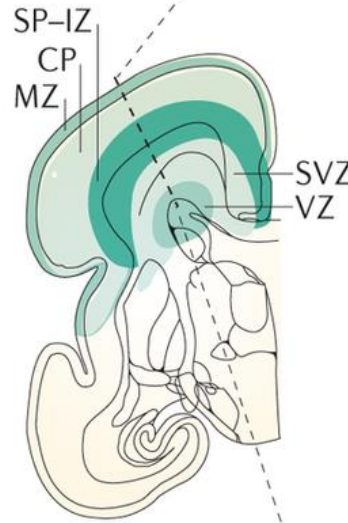


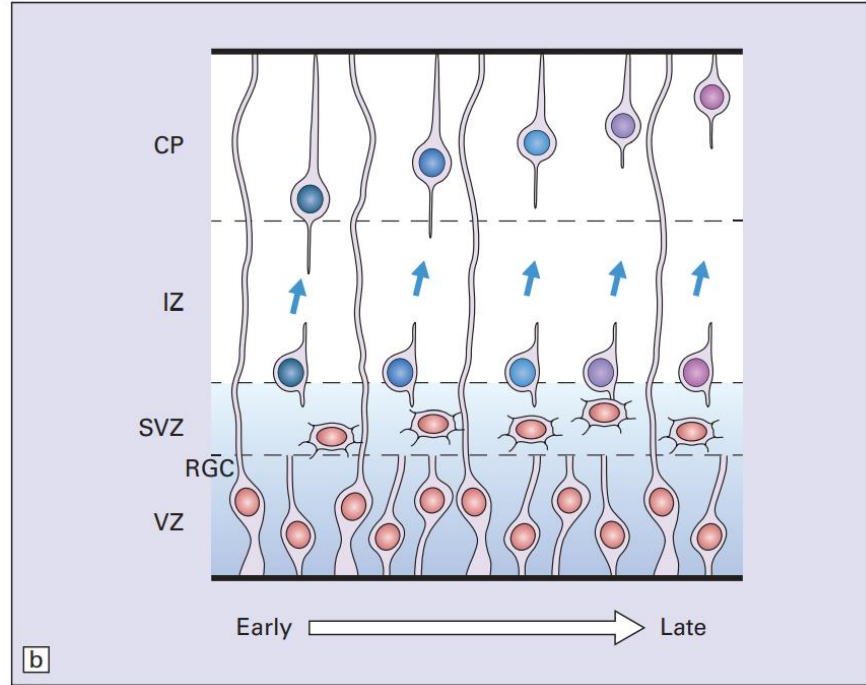
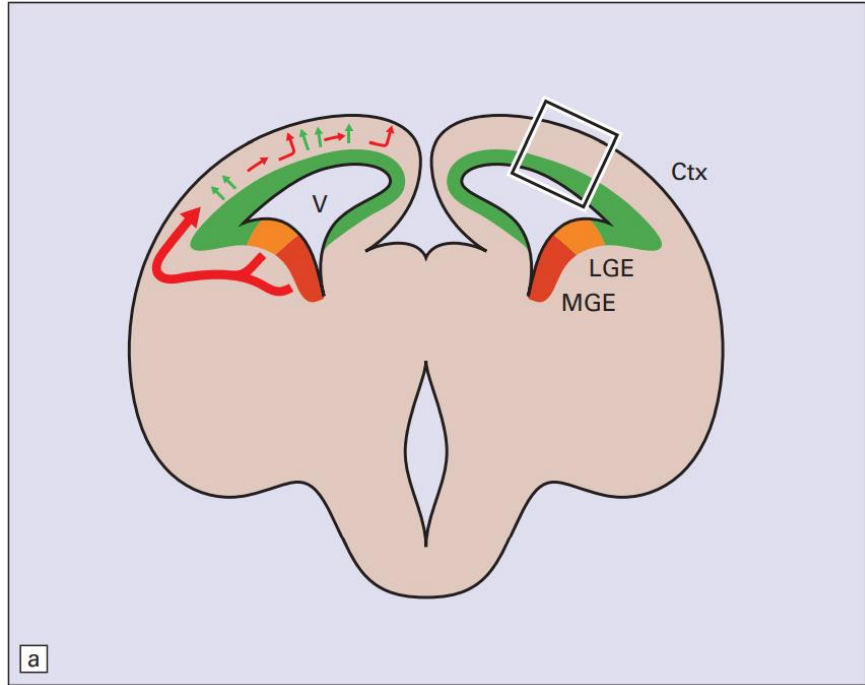


**3.4 Neural tube layering during embryonic development.** A proposed revision of the Boulder Committee's summary diagram of neocortical development shows the sequence of structural changes in the lateral part of the dorsal telencephalon at the approximate ages of embryonic day (E) 30 **(a)**; E31–E32 **(b)**, E45 **(c)**, E55 **(d)** and gestational week 14 **(e)**. The major layers are cortical plate (CP), intermediate zone (IZ), marginal zone (MZ), subventricular zone (SVZ), subpial granular layer (SG; part of the MZ), and the ventricular zone (VZ). The revised view incorporates transient compartments, including the preplate (PP) and the intermediate and subplate zones (IZ and SP).

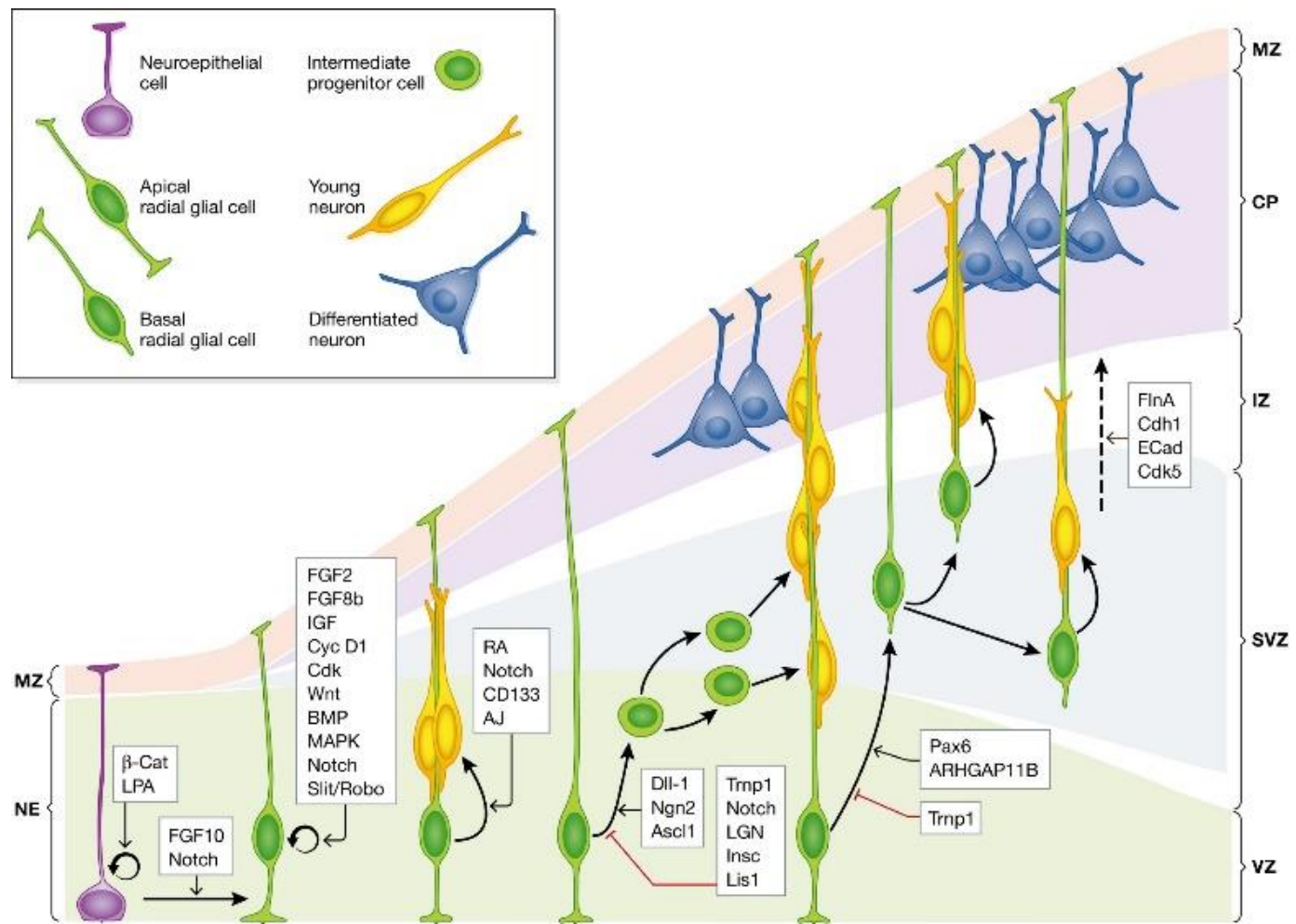


### Human 26 PCWs









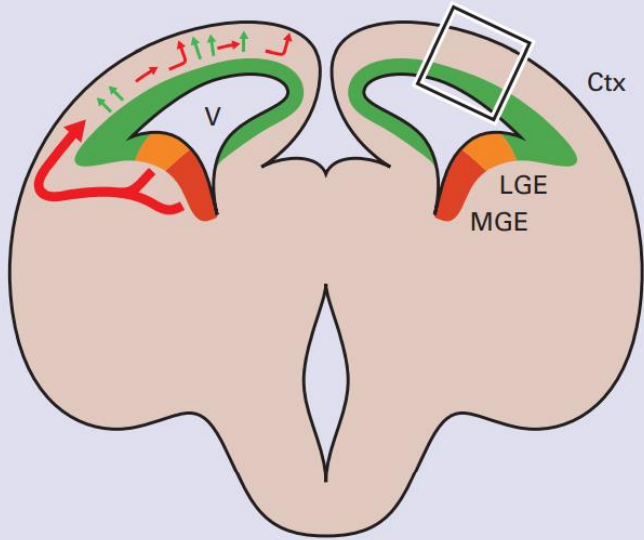


# Developmental Alterations

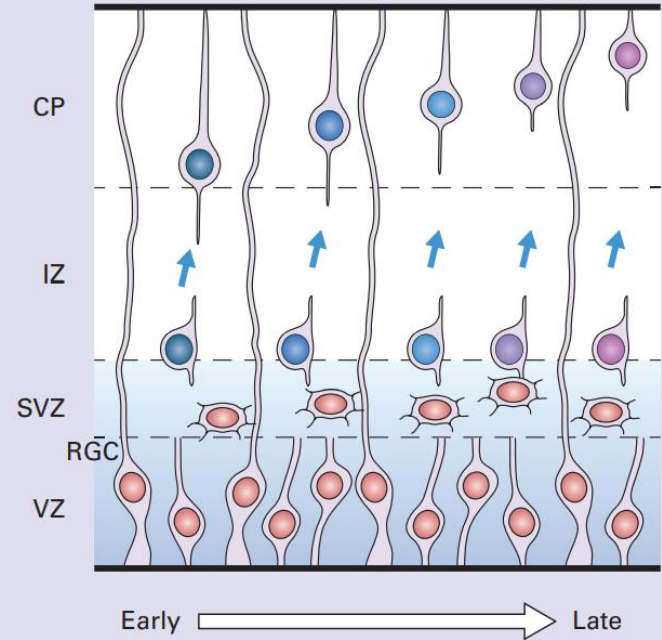
## EARLY GESTATION (First 20 Weeks)

- Dysraphic malformations
- Disorders of forebrain induction
- Malformations of cortical development

# Malformations of Cortical Development



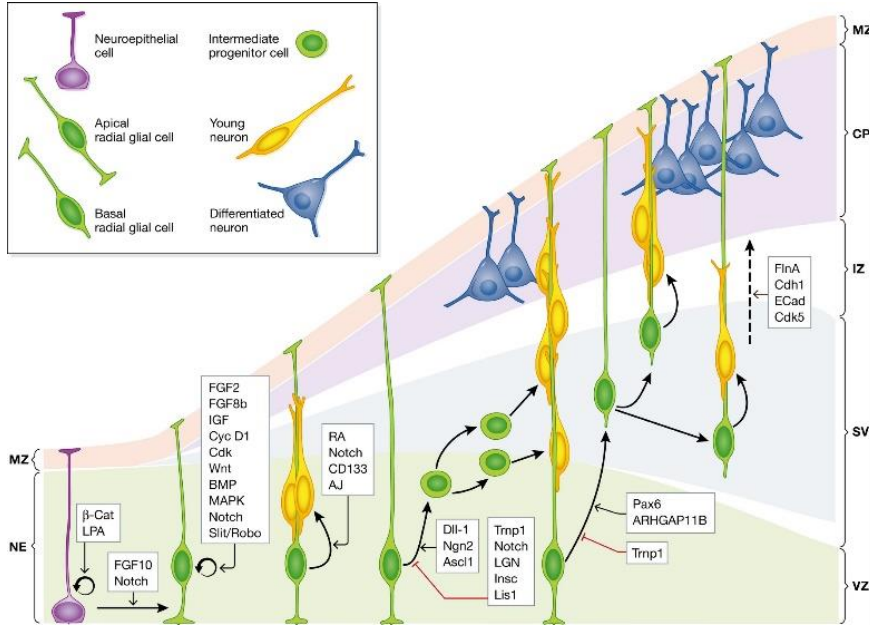
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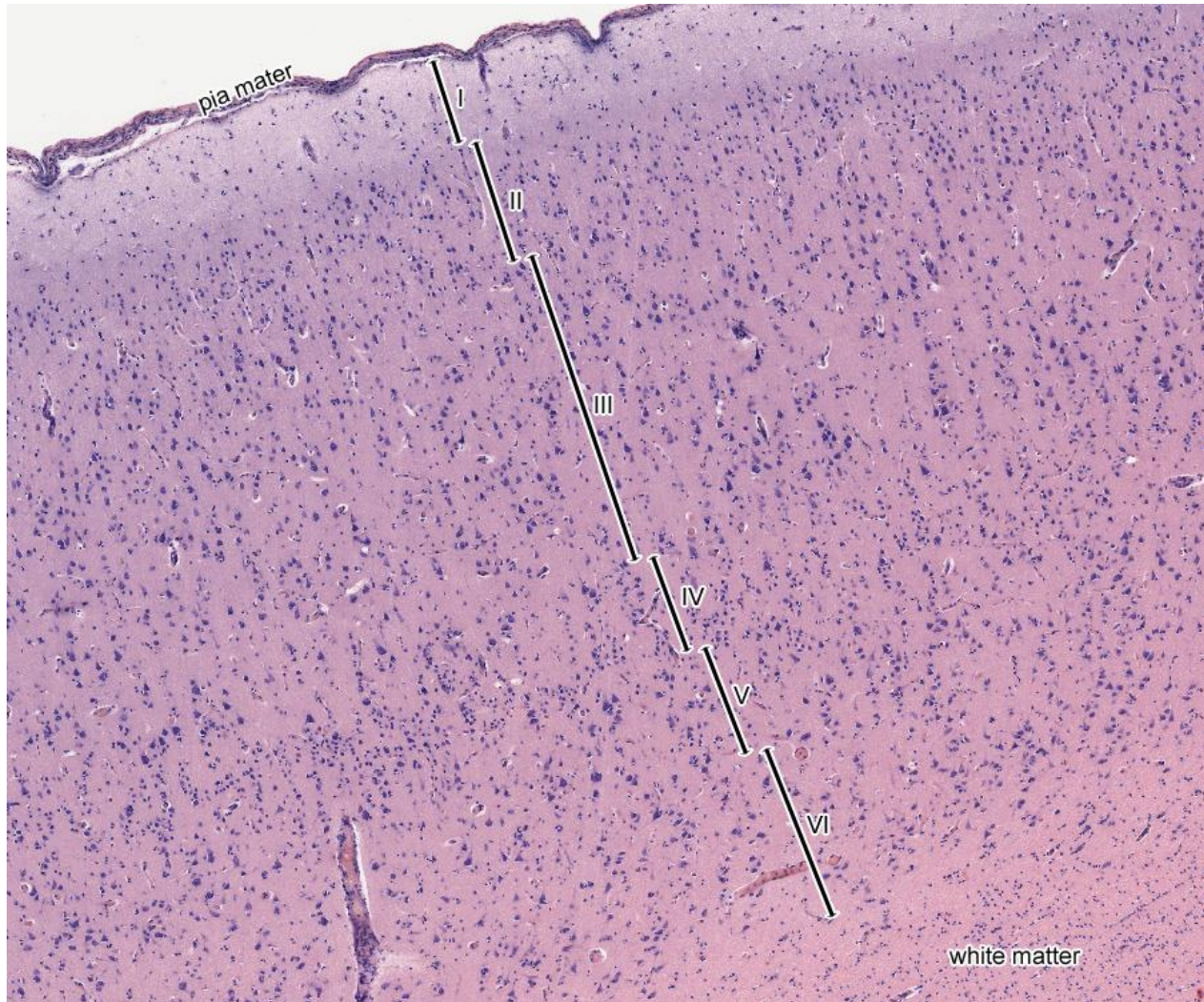


# Malformations of Cortical Development



Malformations of cortical development with associated genes and clinical features

Developmental stage	Cortical malformation	Genetic cause	Clinical features
<b>Abnormal neurogenesis</b>			
	Microcephaly	<i>ASPM</i> <i>Microcephalin</i> <i>CDK5RAP2</i> <i>CENPJ</i>	Mental retardation, not generally associated with epilepsy, autosomal recessive inheritance
	Hemimegalencephaly	Unknown	Mental retardation, early onset seizures (frequently intractable epilepsy), +/- neurocutaneous syndrome
	Focal cortical dysplasia	Unknown	Most common, focal and generalized Seizures
<b>Abnormal neuronal migration</b>			
	Periventricular heterotopia	<i>FLNA</i>  <i>ARFGEF2</i>	Normal intelligence, adolescent onset seizures, X-linked disorder with male lethality Mental retardation, microcephaly, autosomal recessive inheritance, rare
	Subcortical band heterotopia	<i>DCX</i>	Subcortical band heterotopia in females, mental retardation, epilepsy, X-linked disorder
	Lissencephaly	<i>LIS1</i>  <i>DCX</i> <i>TUBA1A</i> <i>ARX</i> <i>RELN</i>	Miller-Dieker syndrome (characteristic facial features), autosomal dominant inheritance Lissencephaly in males, X-linked Lissencephaly, clinical features similar those caused by <i>LIS1</i> and <i>DCX</i> , de novo mutations Associated with ambiguous genitalia, hypothalamic dysfunction, neonatal epilepsy, X-linked disorder Associated with cerebellar hypoplasia, epilepsy, autosomal recessive inheritance
<b>Abnormal arrest in neuronal migration</b>			
	Cobblestone lissencephaly	<i>Fukutin</i> <i>POMGnT1</i> <i>POMT1</i>	Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy Muscle-eye-brain disease Walker-Warburg Syndrome





# Malformations of Cortical Development



Malformations of cortical development with associated genes and clinical features

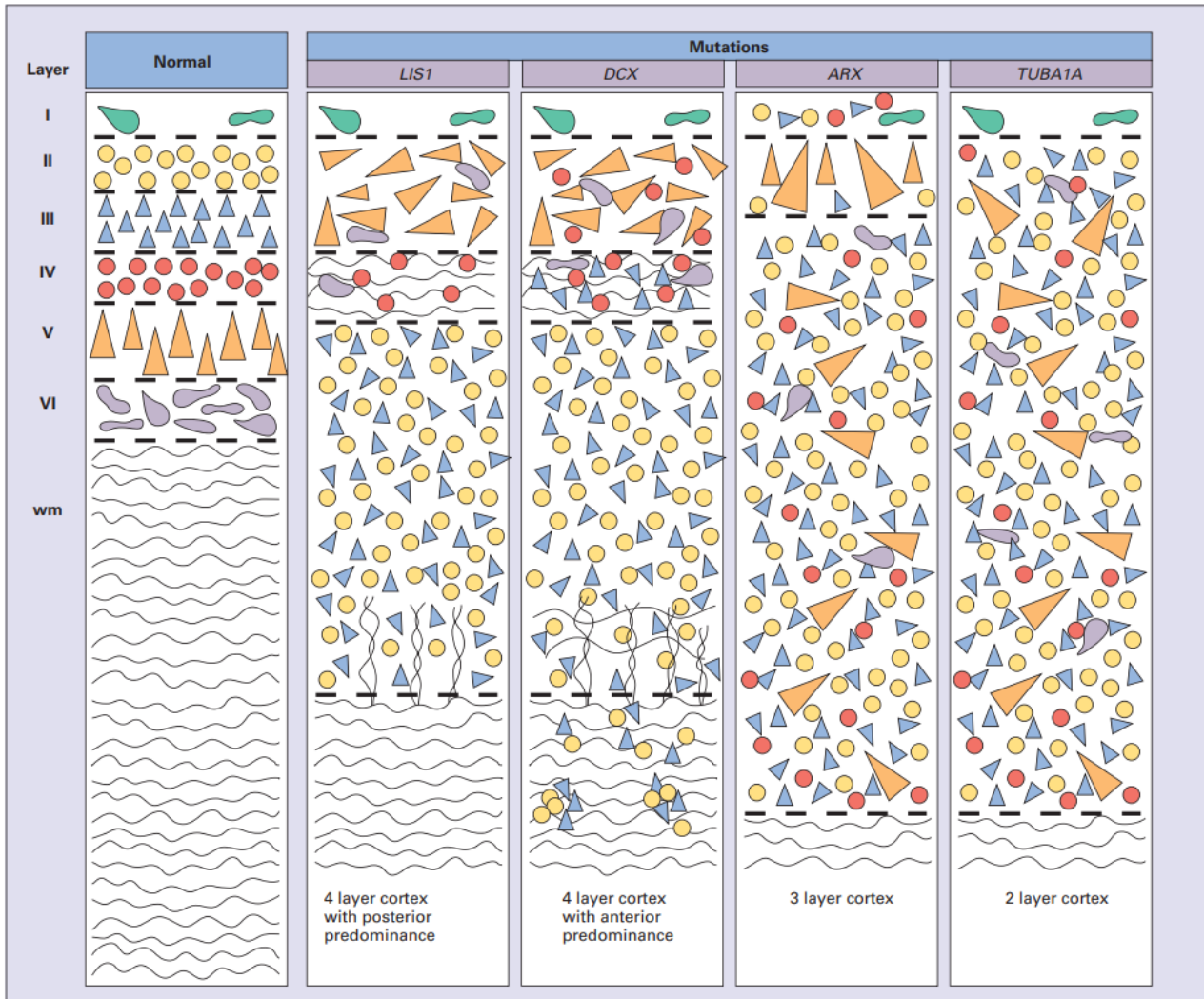
Developmental stage	Cortical malformation	Genetic cause	Clinical features
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<b>Abnormal arrest in neuronal migration</b>			
	Cobblestone lissencephaly	<i>Fukutin</i> <i>POMGnT1</i> <i>POMT1</i>	Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy Muscle-eye-brain disease Walker-Warburg Syndrome



# Lissencephaly Type I

- Neuronal migration disorder characterized by abnormal gyri
- Varies from agyria to pachygyria
- Severe mental retardation, hypotonia, intractable seizures
- Several genetic types are recognized

Disease	CNS	Gene	Function of product	Chromosome	Mouse model
Lissencephaly (type I): autosomal recessive (Norman-Roberts type)	Lissencephaly with low sloping forehead and prominent nasal bridge	<i>RELN</i>	Reelin: extracellular matrix protein produced by Cajal-Retzius cells required for neuronal migration	7q22	<i>reeler</i> mutant mouse causes cerebellar and cerebral cortical lamination anomalies
Lissencephaly (type I): Miller-Dieker syndrome, autosomal dominant (haploinsufficiency)	Lissencephaly, cerebral heterotopias, facial dysmorphism	<i>LIS1</i> and <i>14-3-3<sup>ε</sup></i> <i>YWHAE</i> ; (contiguous gene deletion)	LIS1: Non-catalytic subunit of brain platelet-activating factor acetyl hydrolase (PAFAH)	17p13.3	Targeted loss of function alleles of <i>Pafah1b1</i> gene and <i>14-3-3<sup>ε</sup></i>
Lissencephaly (type I): isolated lissencephaly sequence (ILS), autosomal dominant	Lissencephaly	<i>LIS1</i> deletion alone	LIS1: as above	17p13.3	Targeted loss of function alleles of <i>Pafah1b1</i> gene causes neuronal migration disorders
Lissencephaly (type I): X-linked	Lissencephaly with agenesis of corpus callosum in males; subcortical band heterotopia in females	<i>DCX</i>	Doublecortin: microtubule-associated protein that interacts with non-receptor tyrosine kinases, including Abl	Xq22.3-q23	suppression of doublecortin expression by RNAi inhibits neuronal migration in rat neocortex
Lissencephaly (type I): X-linked (XLAG)	Lissencephaly with ambiguous genitalia	<i>ARX</i>	Aristaless-related homeodomain transcription factor	Xp22.13	Targeted mutation of <i>Arx</i>

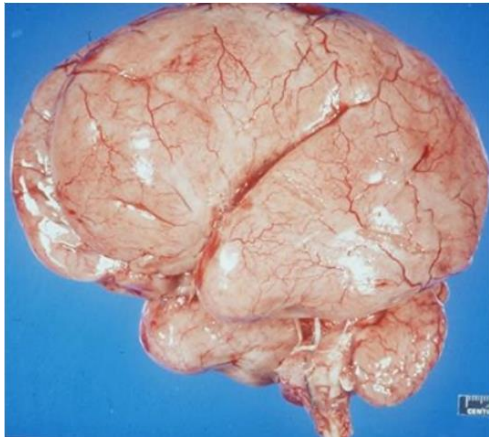


# Lissencephaly Type I

**Isolated lissencephaly** sequence occurs in patients with **deletions of the LIS1 gene**

- **LIS1** encodes the non-catalytic subunit of **platelet activating factor acetyl hydrolase**: Involved in the regulatory pathway for dynein – Important for neuronal migration
- More severe occipital/posterior parietal
- **LIS1 + 14-3-3 GENES** (short arm of chromosome 17): **Miller-Dieker Syndrome** (craniofacial malformations due to 14-3-3; lissencephaly due to LIS1).

**Doublecortin (DCX) gene mutation**: X-linked dominant (Xq22); more severe anteriorly; **lissencephaly in males**, subcortical band heterotopia in females (see later).

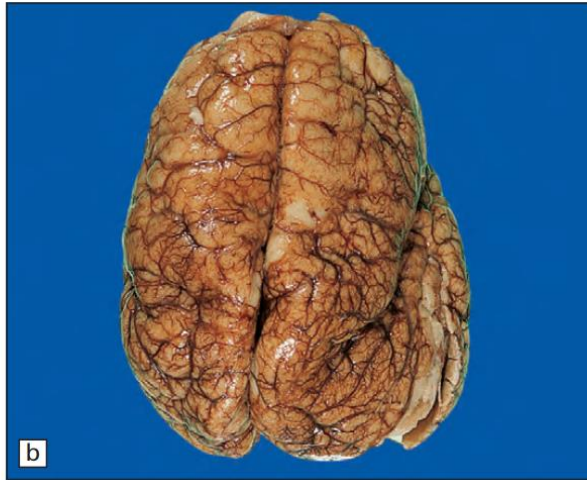


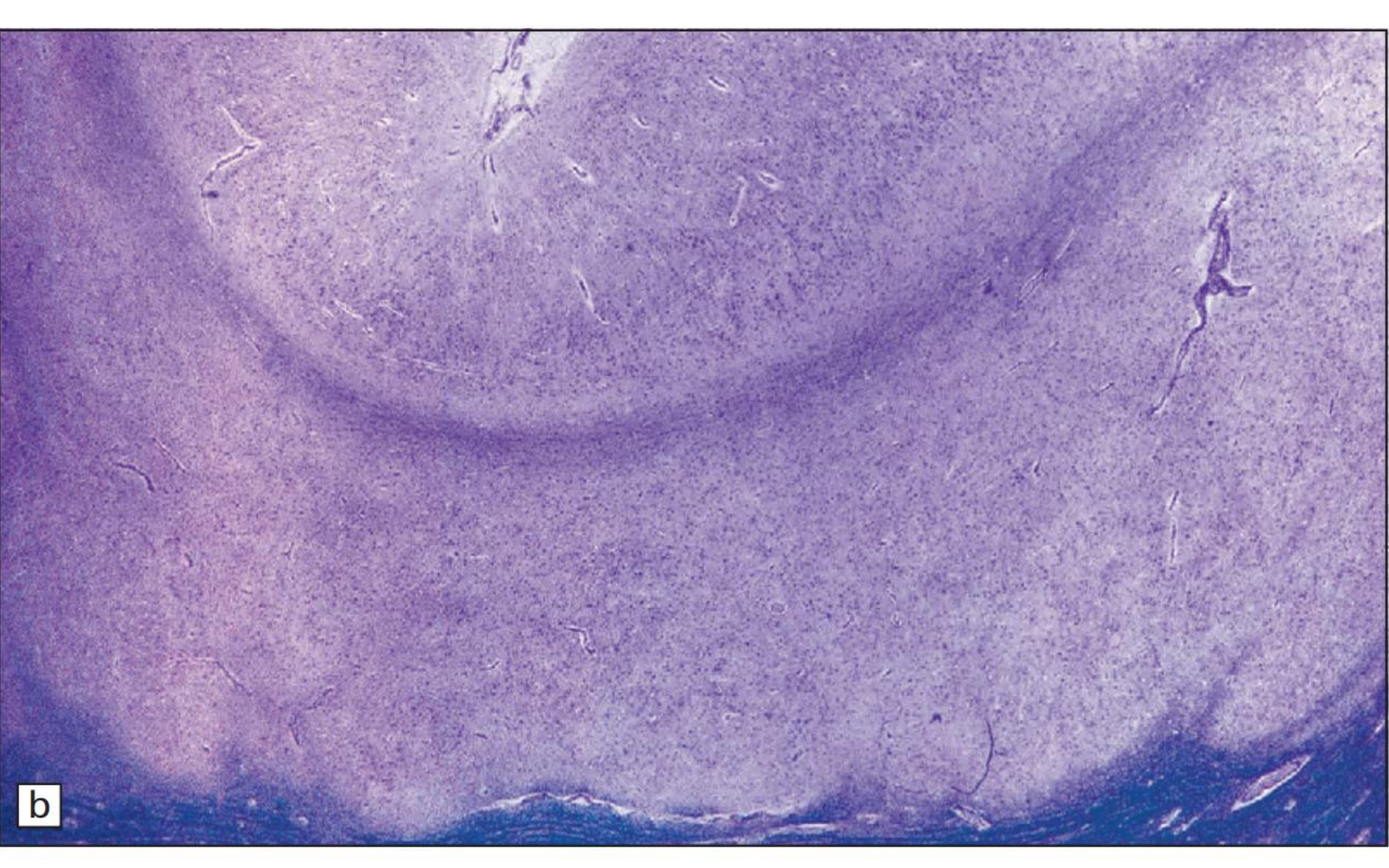


# Agyria ~ Pachygyria

Agyria and pachygyria refer to an absence of gyri and sulci, or reduced numbers of broadened convolutions, respectively, associated both macroscopically and microscopically with a thickened cortical ribbon

- Molecular layer.
- Thin, external neuronal layer.
- Sparsely cellular layer with a tangential myelin fiber plexus.
- A thick, inner neuronal layer, which splits in its deeper zone into columns of cells (lissencephaly type I).
- Posterior–anterior gradient of severity in LIS-I cases
- Anterior–posterior gradient of severity in DCX cases.





b



# Malformations of Cortical Development



Malformations of cortical development with associated genes and clinical features

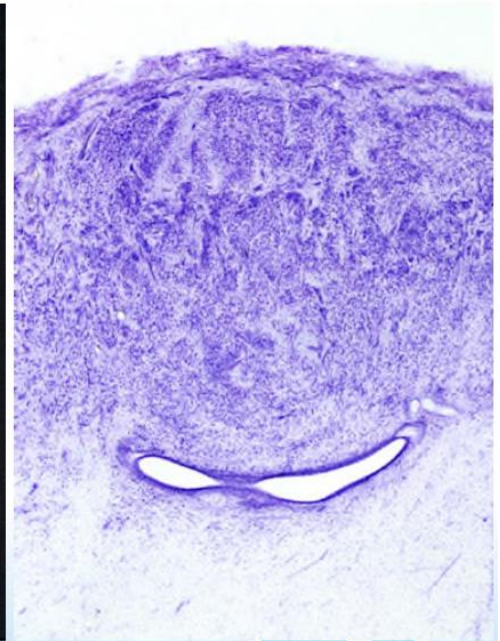
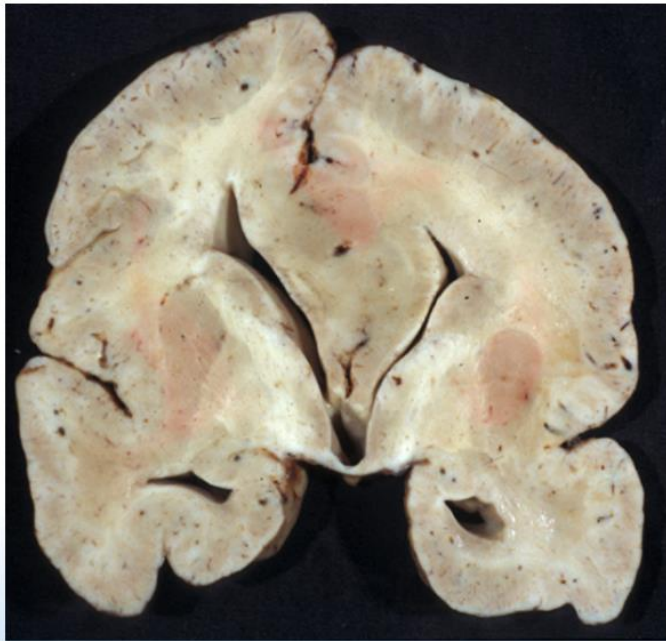
Developmental stage	Cortical malformation	Genetic cause	Clinical features
Abnormal neurogenesis	Microcephaly	<i>ASPM</i> <i>Microcephalin</i> <i>CDK5RAP2</i> <i>CENPJ</i>	Mental retardation, not generally associated with epilepsy, autosomal recessive inheritance
	Hemimegalencephaly	Unknown	Mental retardation, early onset seizures (frequently intractable epilepsy), +/- neurocutaneous syndrome
	Focal cortical dysplasia	Unknown	Most common, focal and generalized Seizures
Abnormal neuronal migration	Periventricular heterotopia	<i>FLNA</i>  <i>ARFGEF2</i>	Normal intelligence, adolescent onset seizures, X-linked disorder with male lethality Mental retardation, microcephaly, autosomal recessive inheritance, rare
	Subcortical band heterotopia	<i>DCX</i>	Subcortical band heterotopia in females, mental retardation, epilepsy, X-linked disorder
	Lissencephaly	<i>LIS1</i>	Miller-Dieker syndrome (characteristic facial features), autosomal dominant inheritance
		<i>DCX</i>	Lissencephaly in males, X-linked
		<i>TUBA1A</i>	Lissencephaly, clinical features similar those caused by <i>LIS1</i> and <i>DCX</i> , de novo mutations
		<i>ARX</i>	Associated with ambiguous genitalia, hypothalamic dysfunction, neonatal epilepsy, X-linked disorder
	<i>RELN</i>	Associated with cerebellar hypoplasia, epilepsy, autosomal recessive inheritance	
Abnormal arrest in neuronal migration	<b>Cobblestone lissencephaly</b>	<i>Fukutin</i> <i>POMGnT1</i> <i>POMT1</i>	Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy Muscle-eye-brain disease Walker-Warburg Syndrome



# Lissencephaly Type II

## LISSENCEPHALY TYPE II (COBBLESTONE)

- Autosomal recessive
- Cortex unlayered disorganized with cobblestone surface and thickened meninges
- Variable muscular and ocular involvement with CNS disorders (muscle-eye-brain disorders)





# Lissencephaly Type II

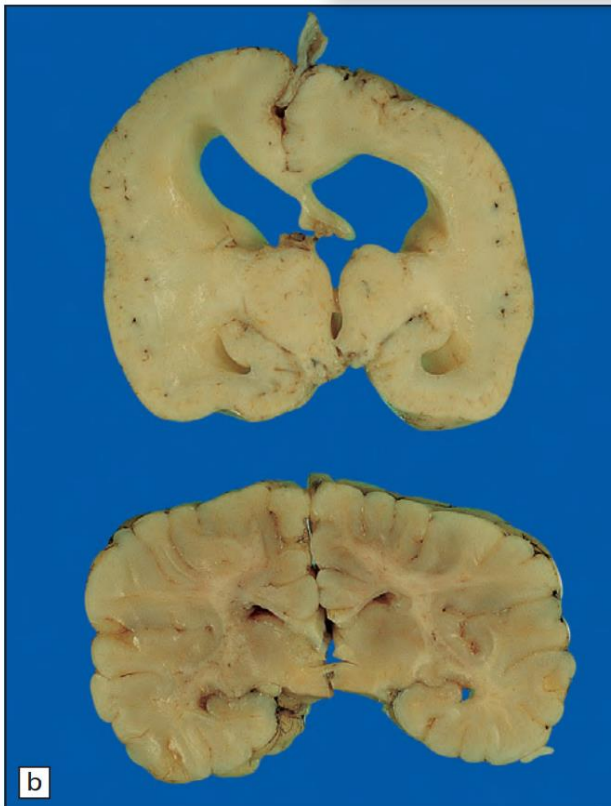
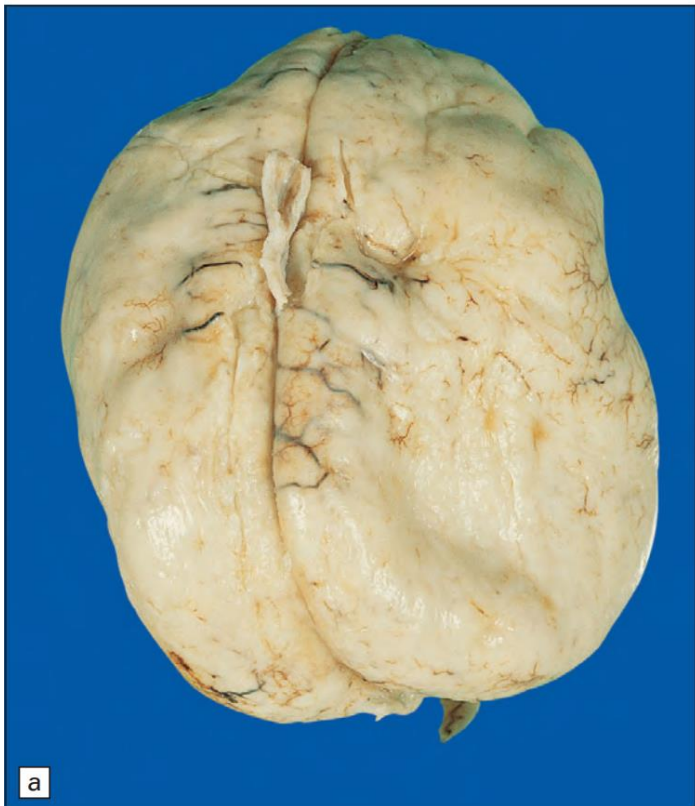
## **Walker–Warburg syndrome**

- Also known as HARD+E syndrome (hydrocephalus, agyria, retinal dysplasia, encephalocele) and cerebro-ocular dysplasia–muscular dystrophy syndrome
- **Cobblestone lissencephaly, cerebellar dysplasia** and **vermal agenesis, hydrocephaly, occipital encephalocele**, congenital muscular dystrophy
- Variety of ocular anomalies
- Die in infancy
- Associated with mutations in **POMT1** and **POMT2** genes

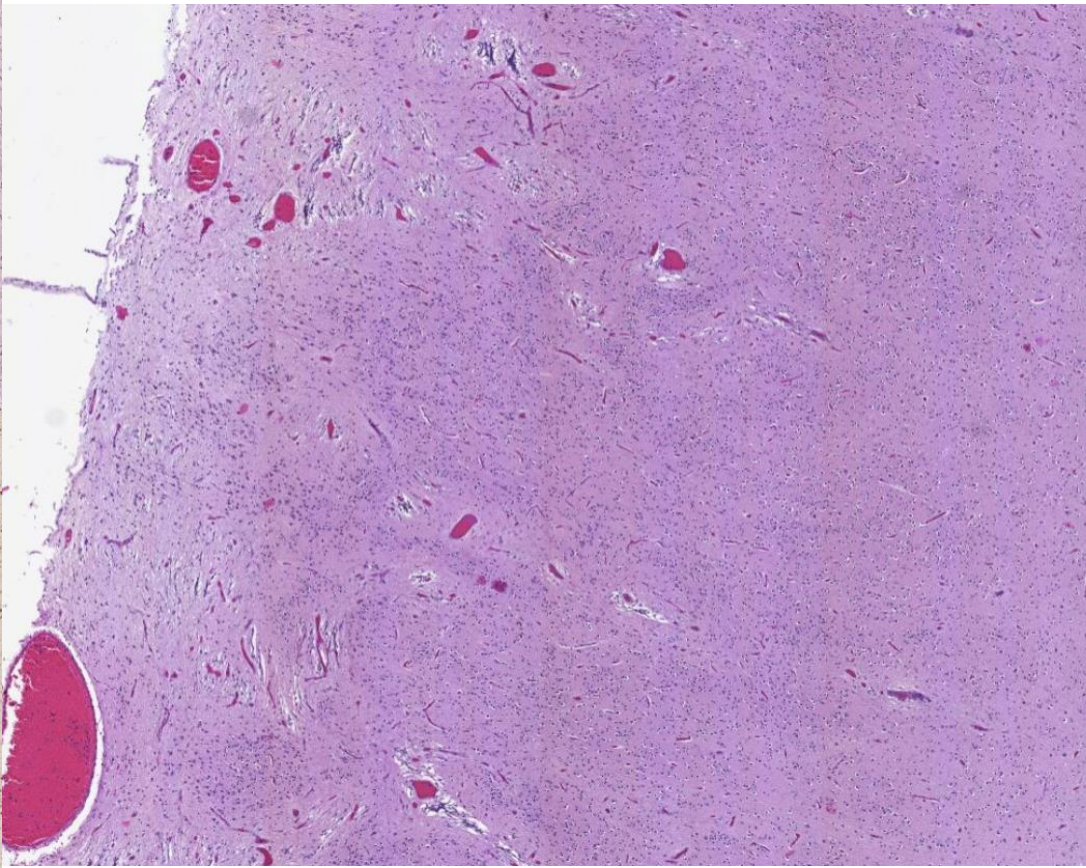
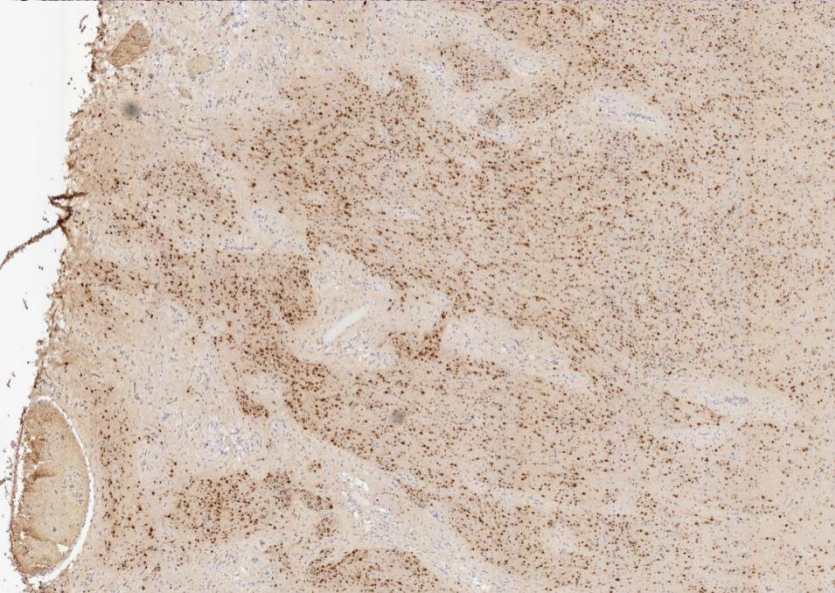
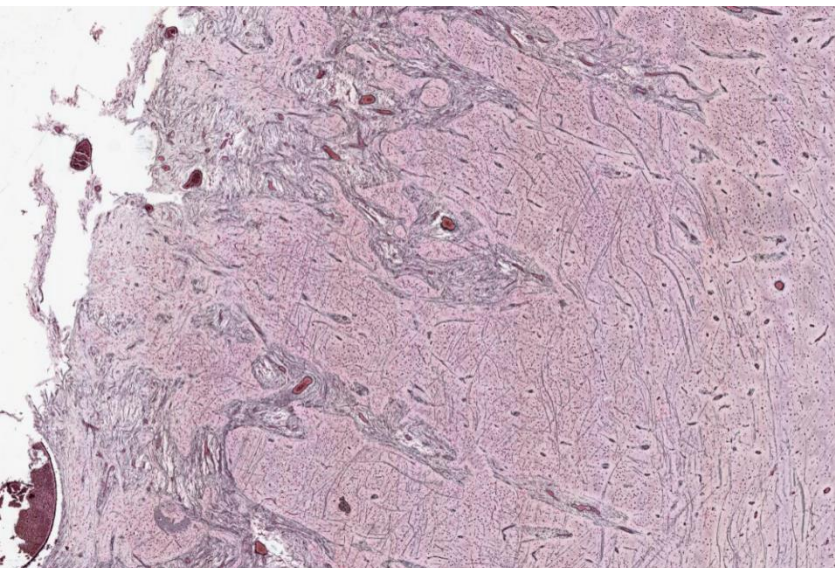
## **Muscle-Eye-Brain disease**

- Generalized muscle weakness, contractures, seizures, eye anomalies, cobblestone lissencephaly
- Associated with mutations in **POMGnT1**, **LARGE**, and **FKRP**

# Lissencephaly Type II









# Malformations of Cortical Development



Malformations of cortical development with associated genes and clinical features

Developmental stage	Cortical malformation	Genetic cause	Clinical features
<b>Abnormal neurogenesis</b>			
	Microcephaly	<i>ASPM</i> <i>Microcephalin</i> <i>CDK5RAP2</i> <i>CENPJ</i>	Mental retardation, not generally associated with epilepsy, autosomal recessive inheritance
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	Subcortical band heterotopia	<i>DCX</i>	Subcortical band heterotopia in females, mental retardation, epilepsy, X-linked disorder
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<b>Abnormal arrest in neuronal migration</b>			
	Cobblestone lissencephaly	<i>Fukutin</i> <i>POMGnT1</i> <i>POMT1</i>	Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy Muscle-eye-brain disease Walker-Warburg Syndrome



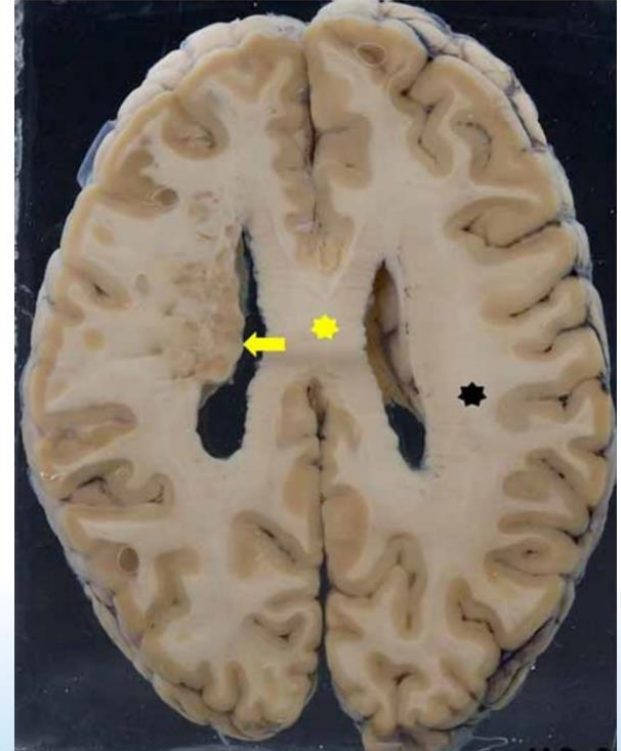
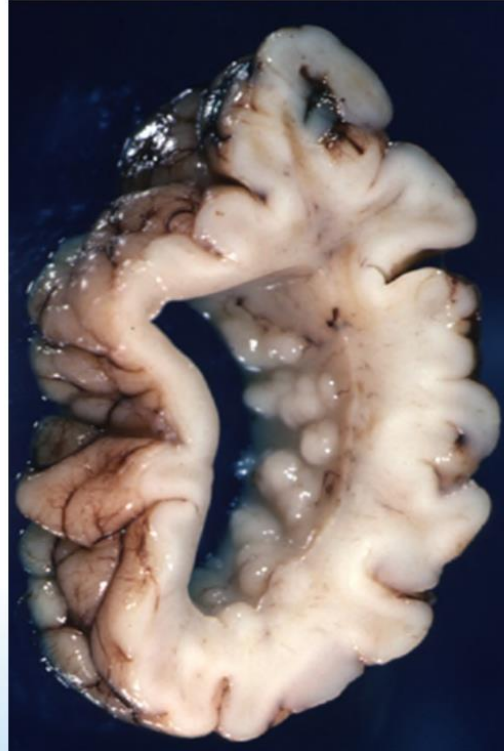
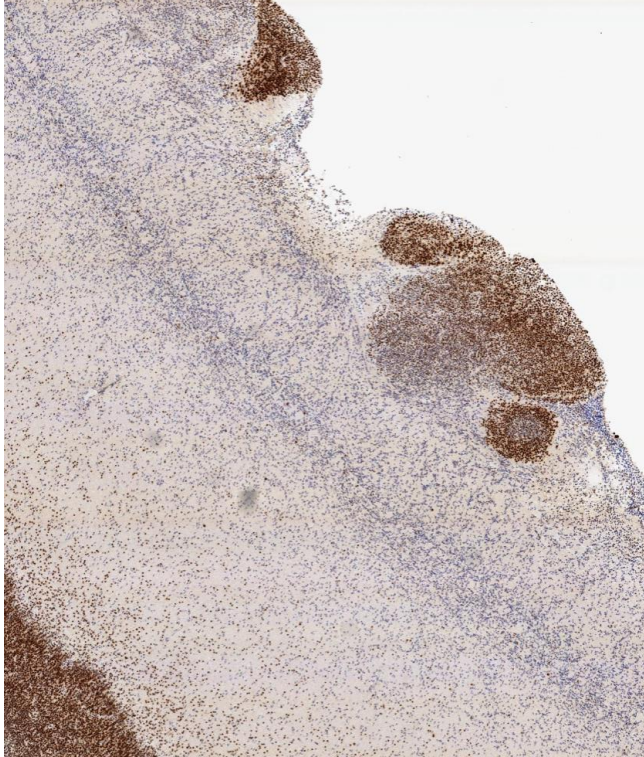
# Gray Matter Heterotopia

- Clusters of neurons and glia that form a region of gray matter in an abnormal location
- May be single or multiple, line ventricles, in deep white matter, subcortical white matter, leptomeninges
- Overlying cortex can be normal or disrupted
- May have normal intelligence and normal neurologic exam

- **Nodular Heterotopia**
- **Band Subcortical Heterotopia**



# Nodular Heterotopia



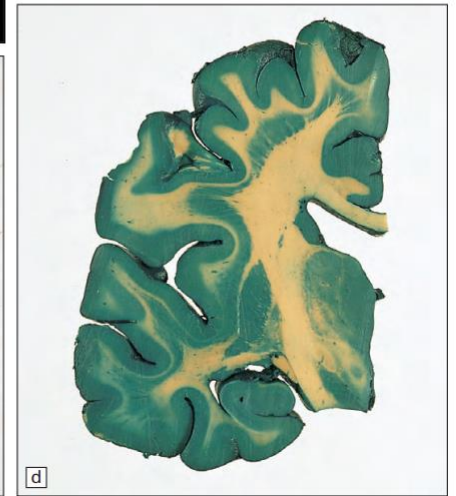
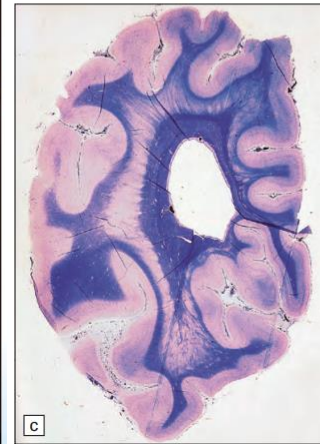
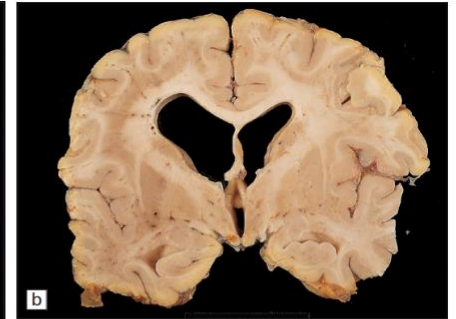
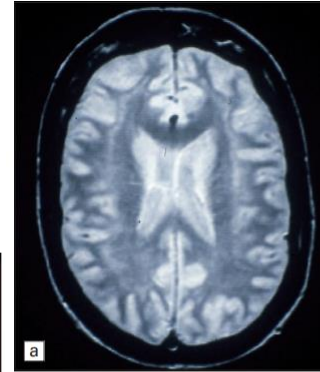
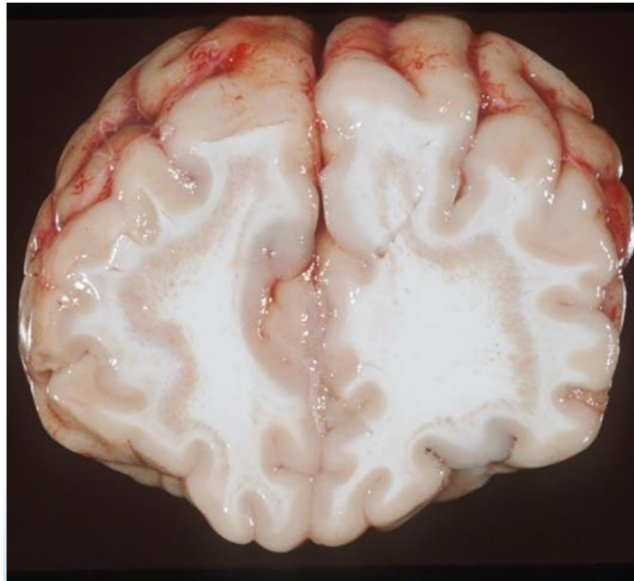
# Band Heterotopia

**Bilateral bands of heterotopic gray matter** in the white matter located between the lateral ventricular walls and the cortex:

- Overlying cortex may be normal or have simplified gyral pattern
- Mild to moderate mental retardation
- Seizures, often with later onset

Mutations of **DCX**

Predominant in females (!)



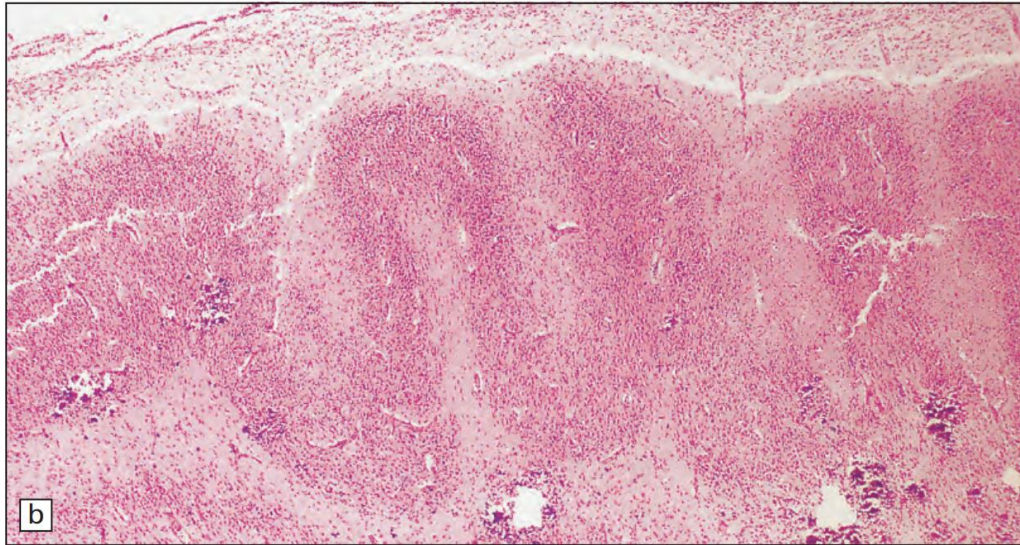


# Polymicrogyria

Hyperconvoluted cortical ribbon of miniature, individually thin gyri, which are often fused together or piled on top of one another.

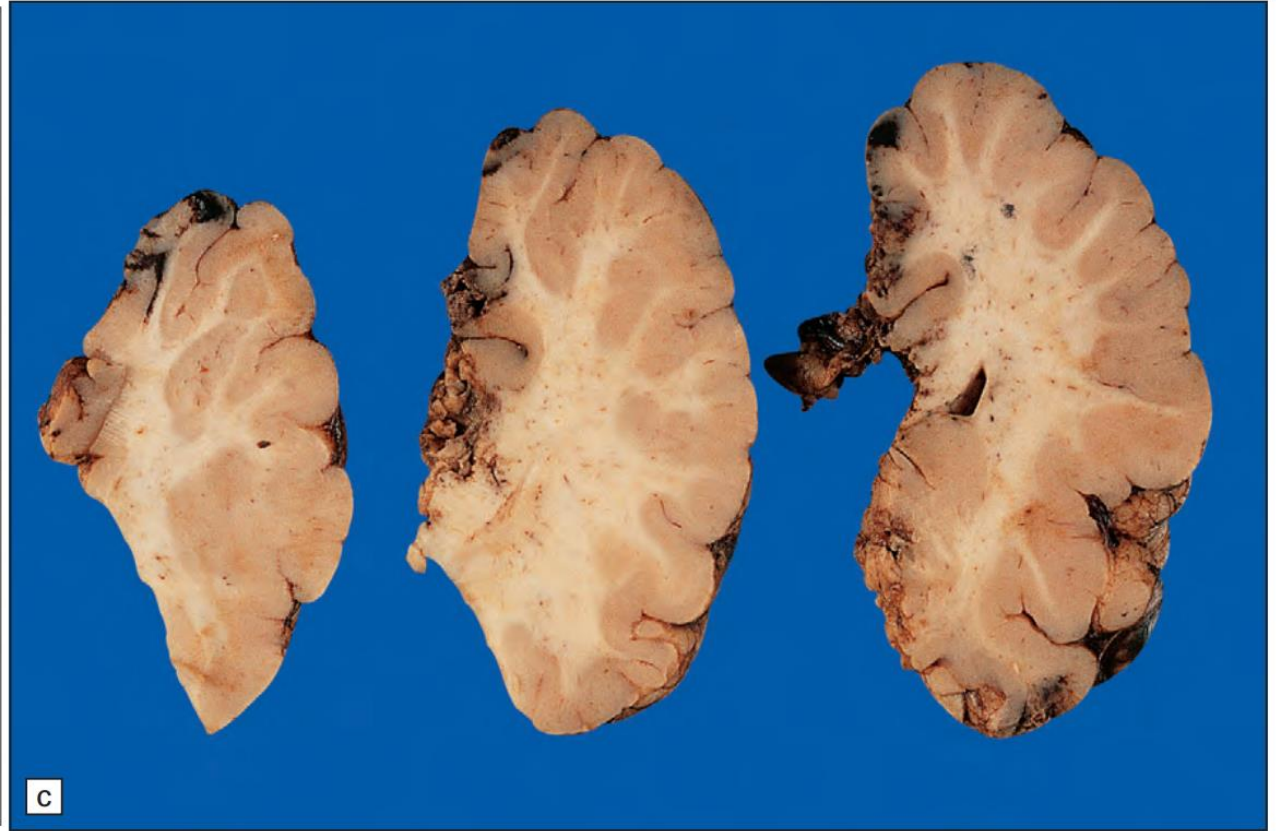
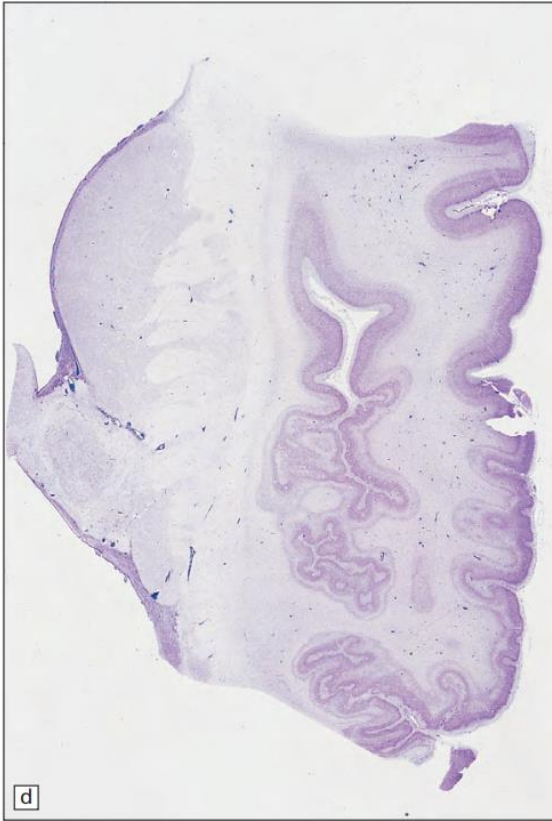
Acquired in the context of **intrauterine ischemia** (including encephaloclastic lesions), twinning, or **intrauterine infection with cytomegalovirus**, varicella–zoster virus, toxoplasmosis, or syphilis.

Can also be familial, associated with metabolic diseases and peroxisomal disorders.





# Polymicrogyria

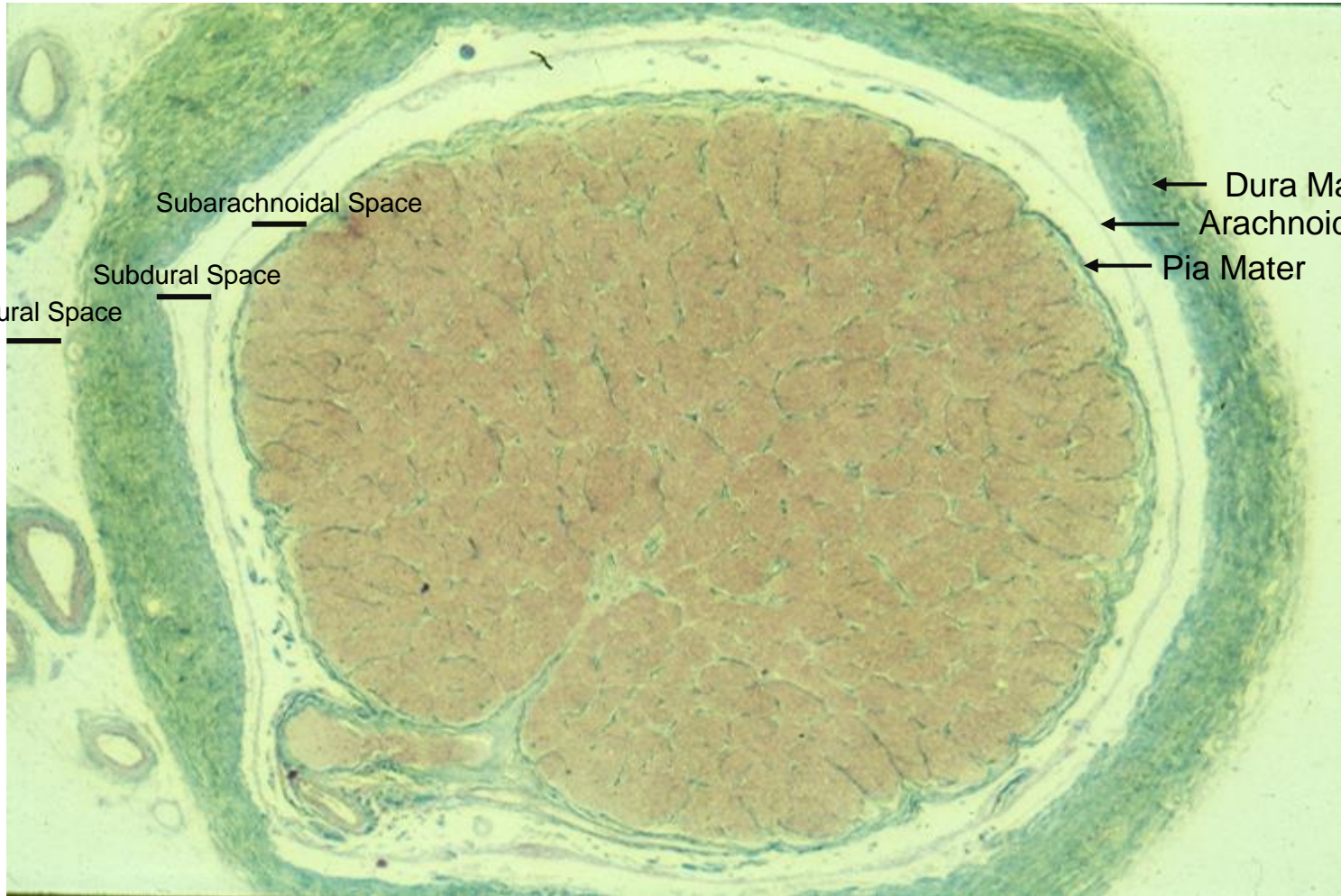




# The Meninges

V. Kandinsky – Squares with concentric circles





Subarachnoidal Space

Subdural Space

Epidural Space

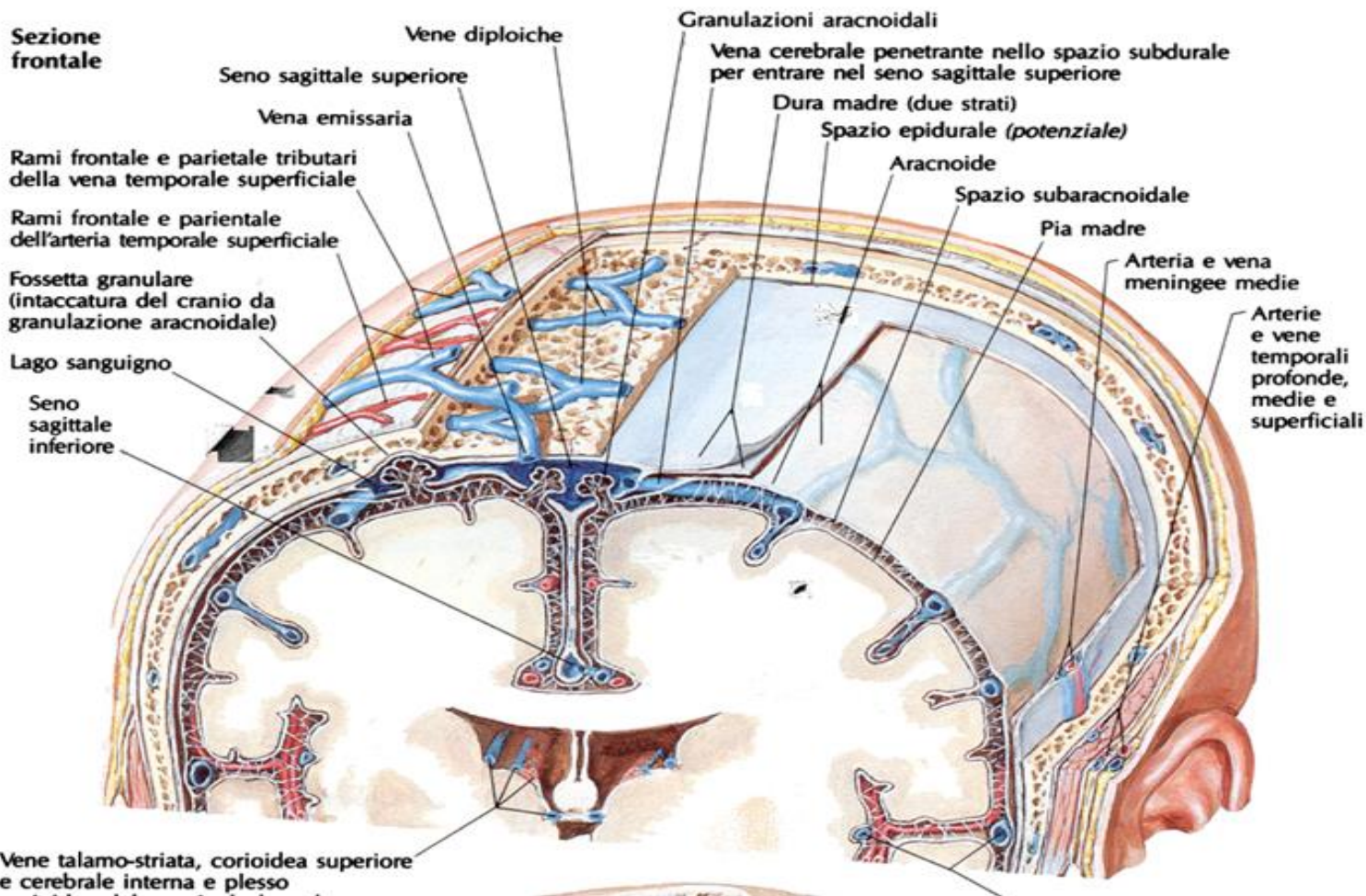
← Dura Mater

← Arachnoid

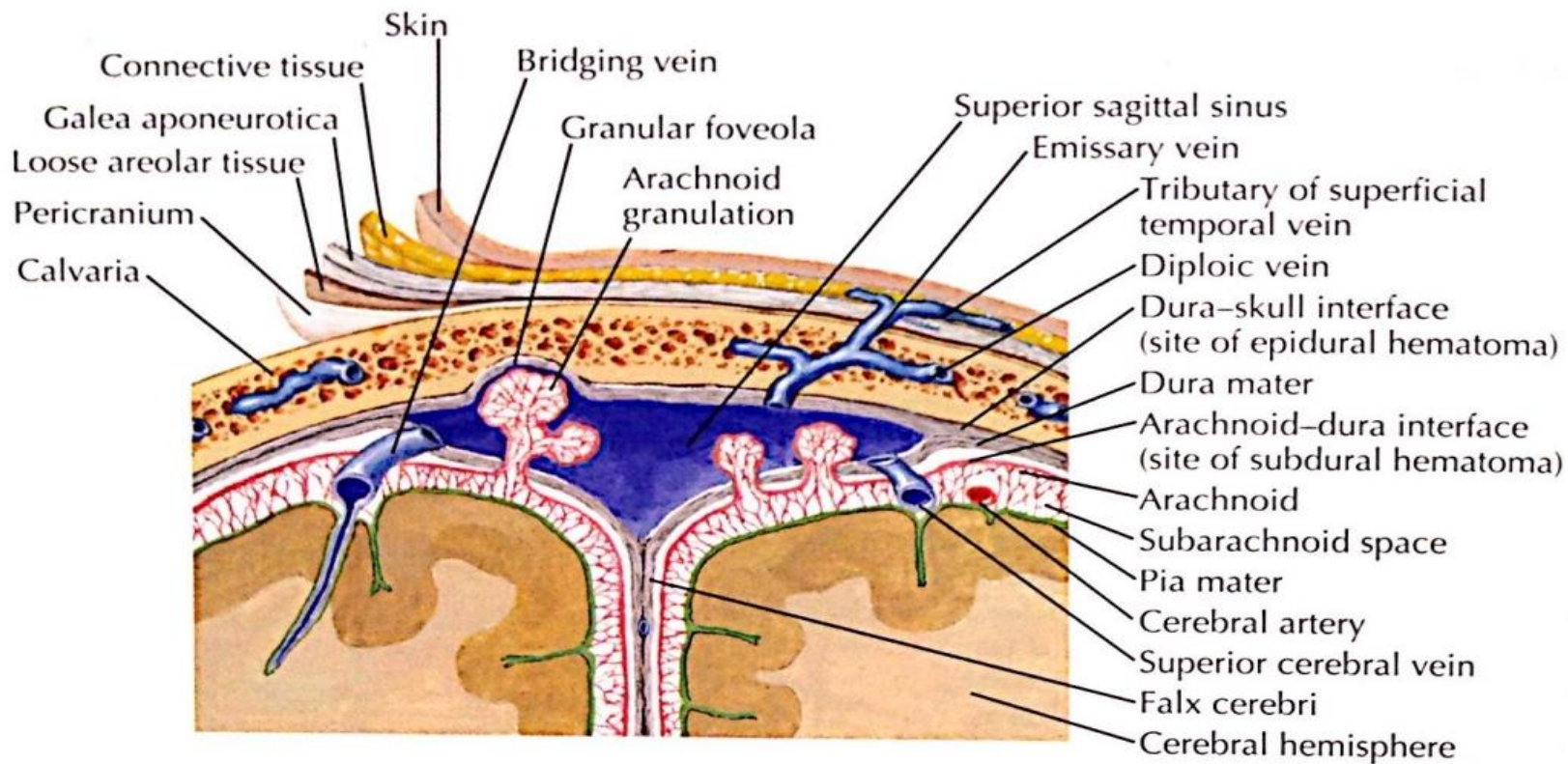
← Pia Mater

Optic Nerve

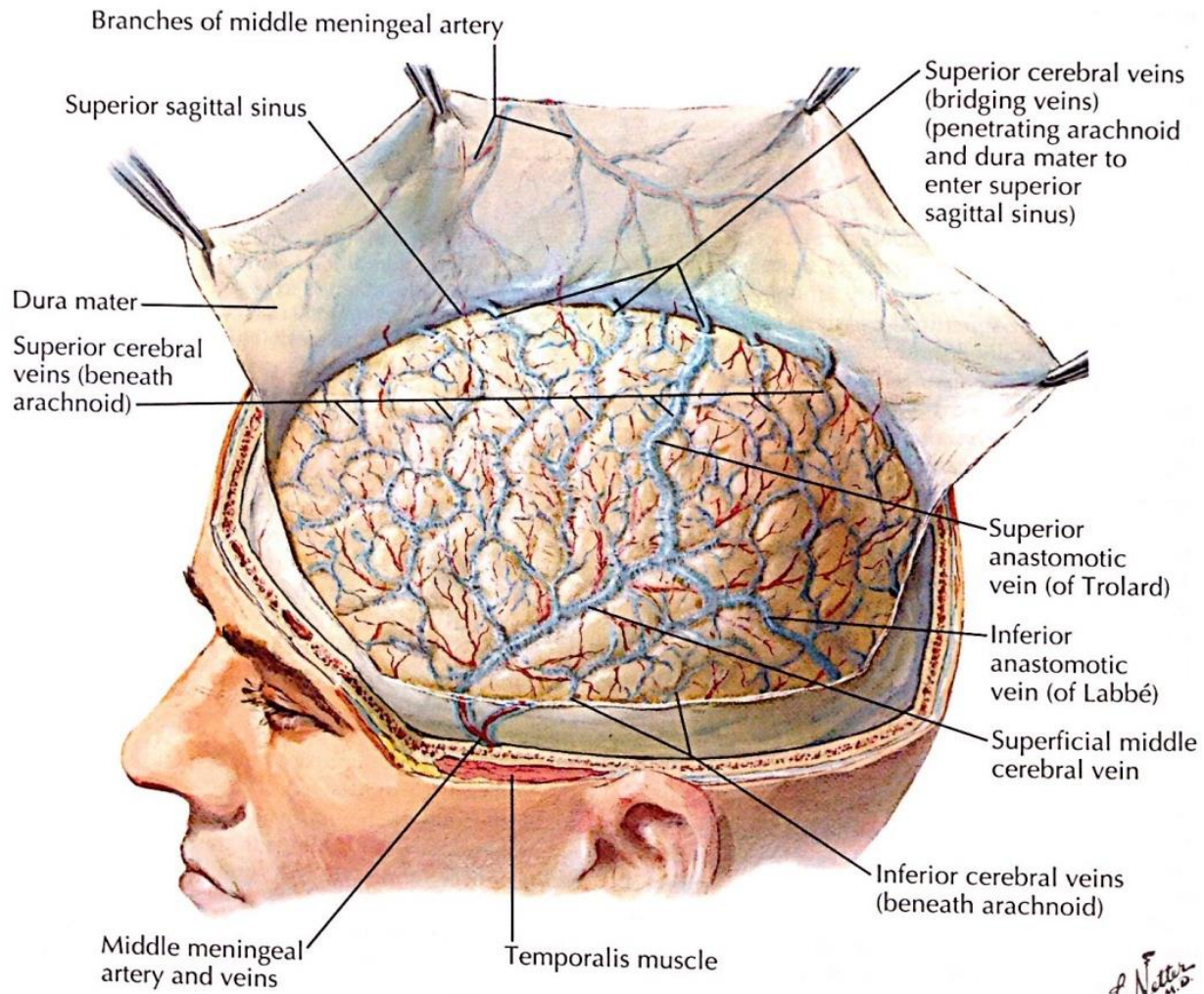




## MENINGES AND SUPERFICIAL CEREBRAL VEINS



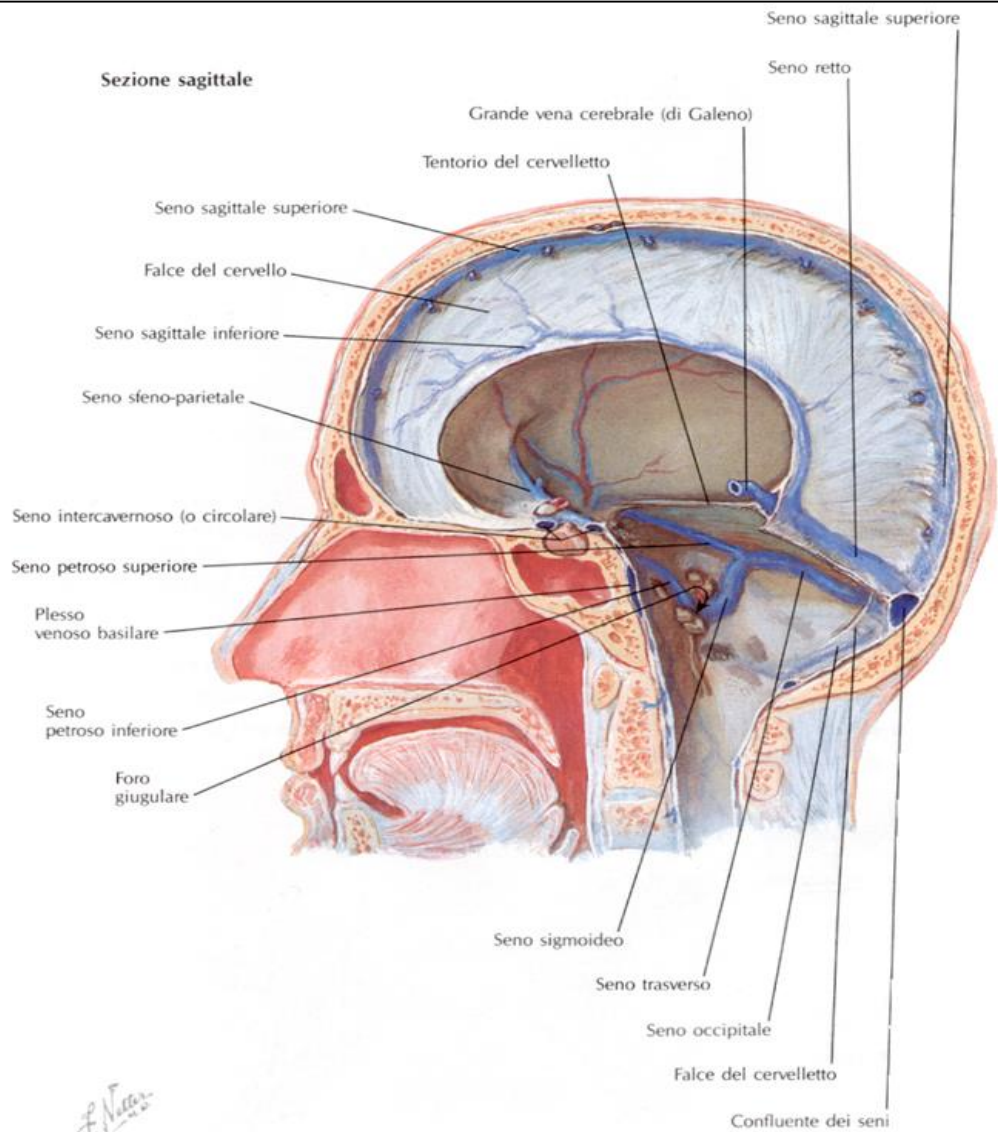




*F. Netter M.D.*

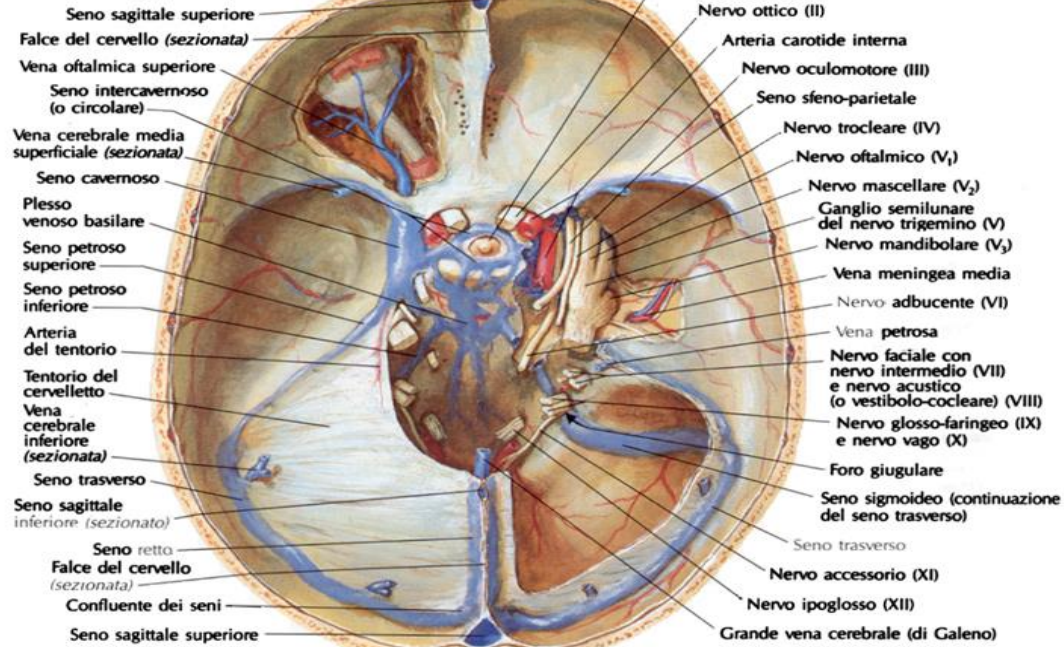


Sezione sagittale

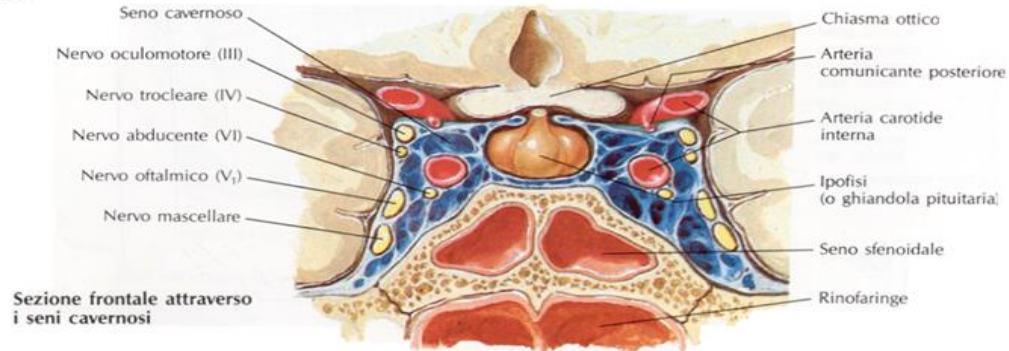


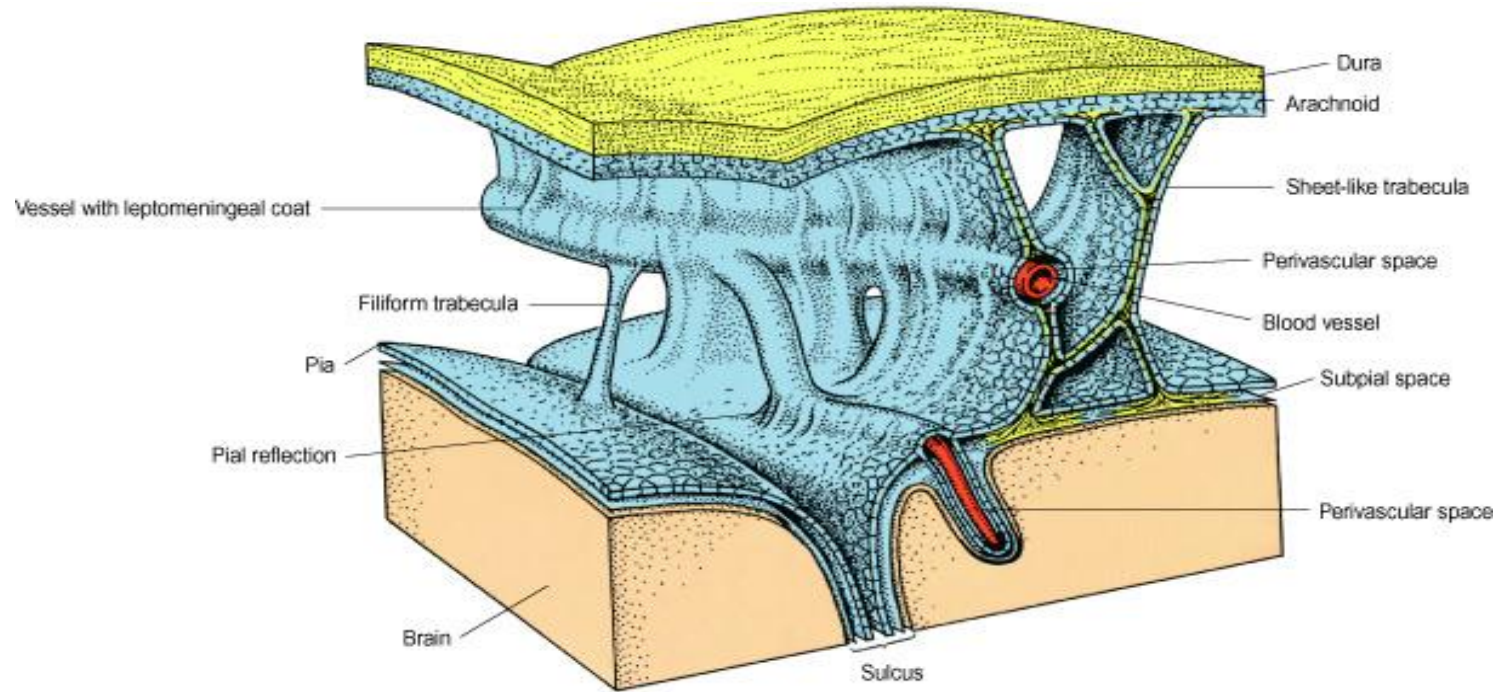
*F. Natta*  
1980

**Sezione orizzontale, vista dall'alto**

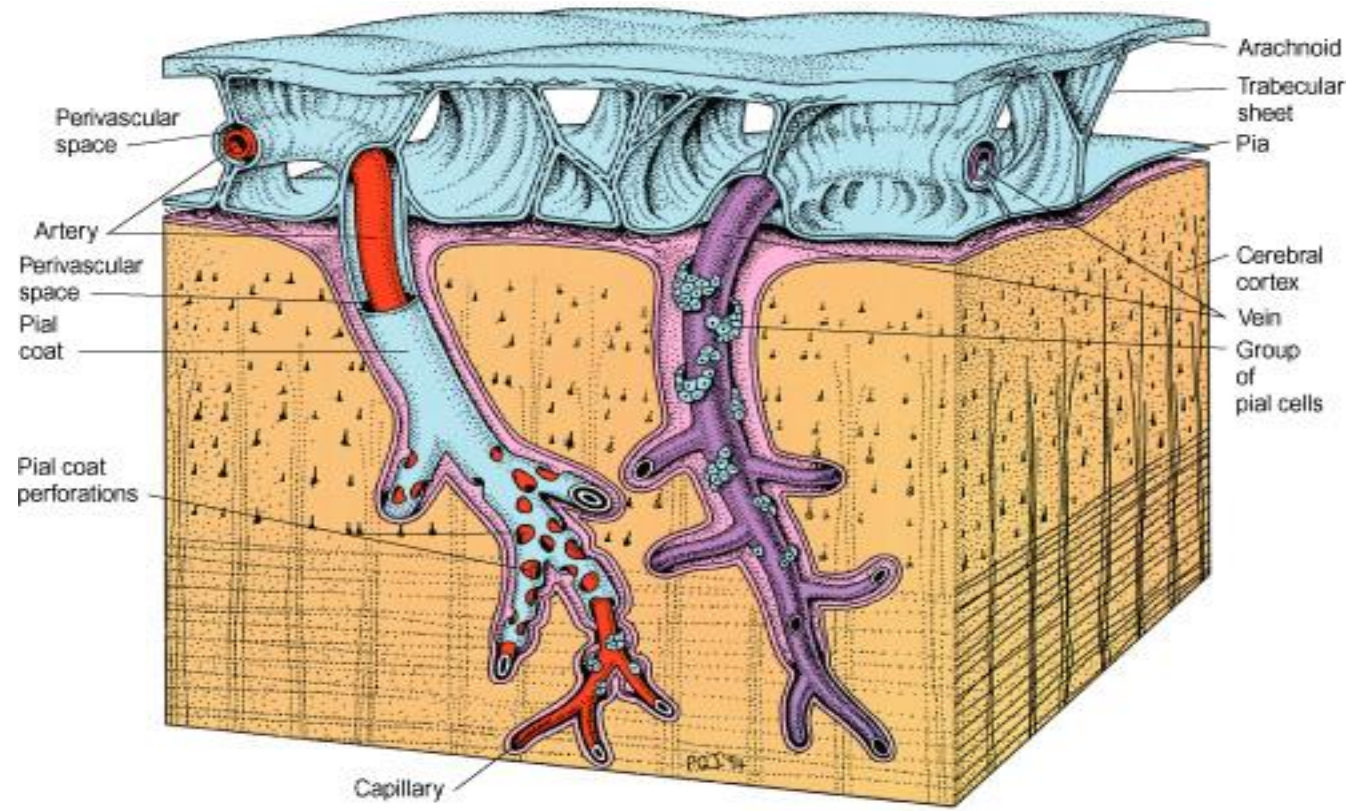


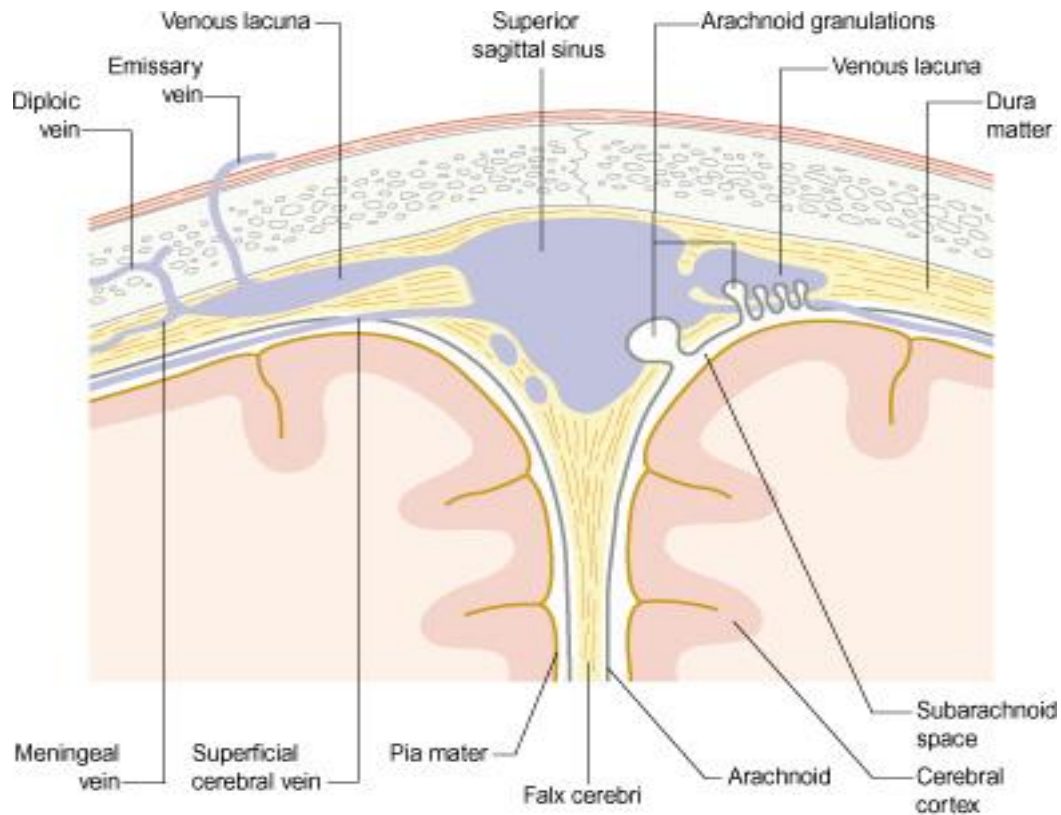
F. Neri  
© 1988













## CLINICAL CASE 1

### **64-year-old Male**

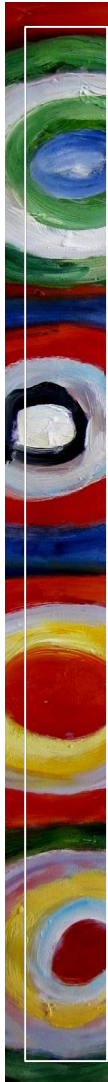
Found unresponsive following head injury. Prior to ER examination, the patient fell down the stairs due to alcohol intoxication.. Reported loss of consciousness for approx. 15 minutes following injury. Refused medical treatment and remained at home. The following morning, the patient was found unresponsive and had vomited during the night; patient was brought to the ER for neurological evaluation.

**Physical examination:** left forehead abrasion.

**Neurological examination:** unresponsive to commands, occasional agitated thrashing. Left pupil not responsive to light. Right arm and leg did not move even in response to painful stimulation.

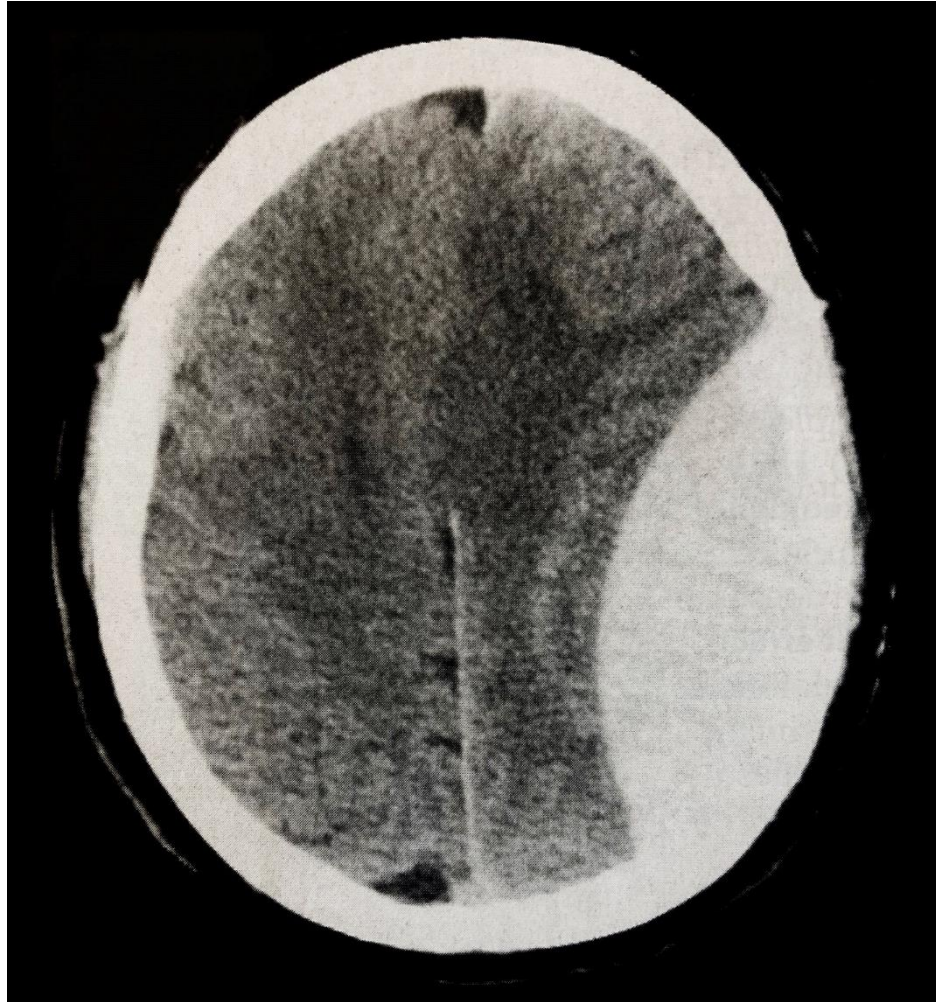
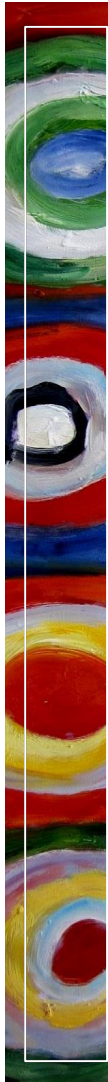
Where is the site of the lesion?  
What's the likely diagnosis?

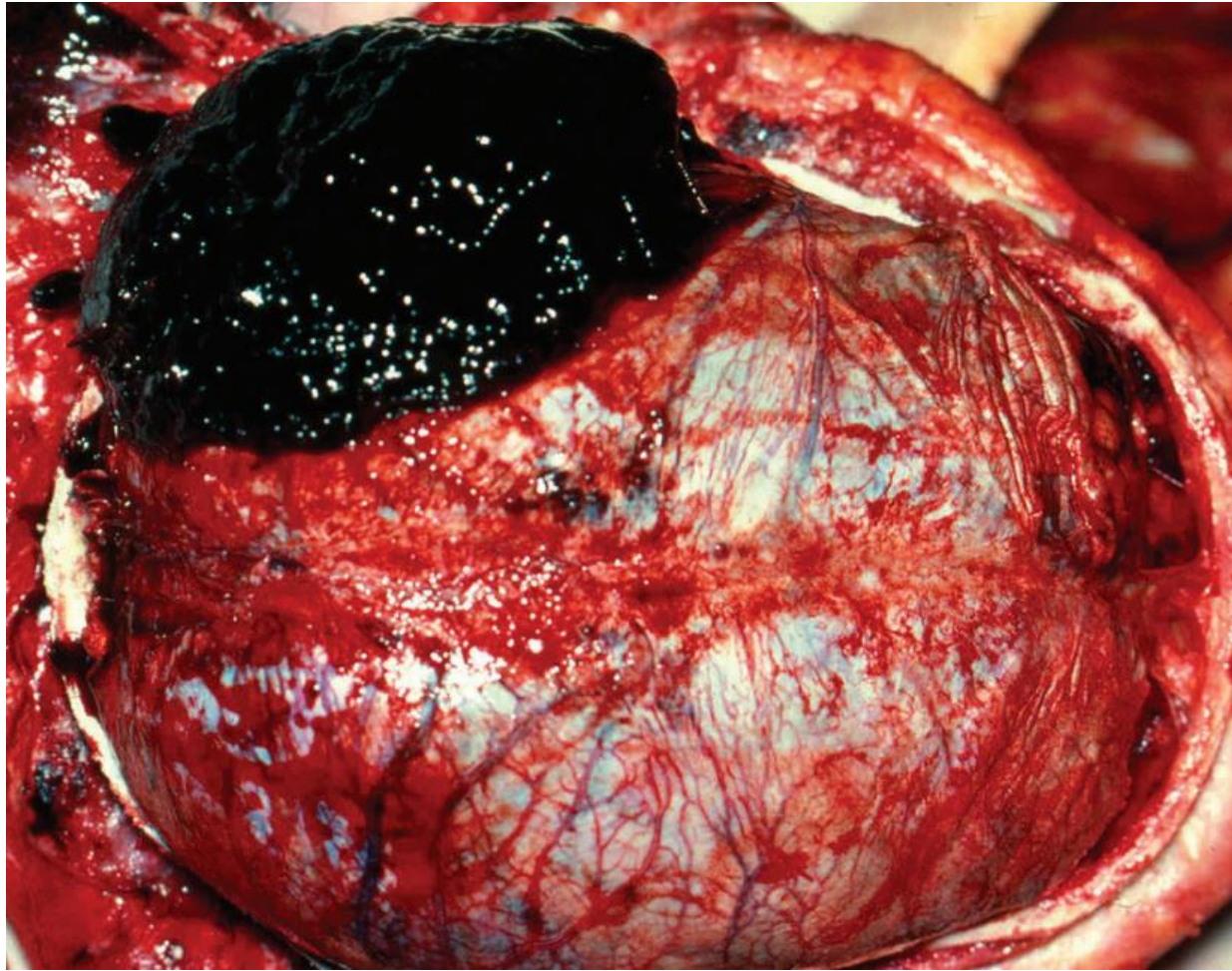
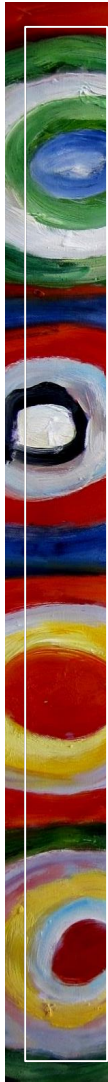




CT SCAN











## CLINICAL CASE 2

78-year-old Male

Prior motorbike accident 2 months ago. The patient does not report direct head trauma nor loss of consciousness during the accident. Examination in the ER following the accident evidenced no abnormalities; the patient was dismissed and sent home.

Ever since, the patient started complaining of generalized fatigue, right-sided headaches, worsening over the last month. The patient reports gait instability due to left leg weakness.

Neurological examination:

Alert and oriented, fluent speech.

Intact visual fields, extinction on the left to double simultaneous stimulation.

Mild left hemiparesis.

Normal reflexes.

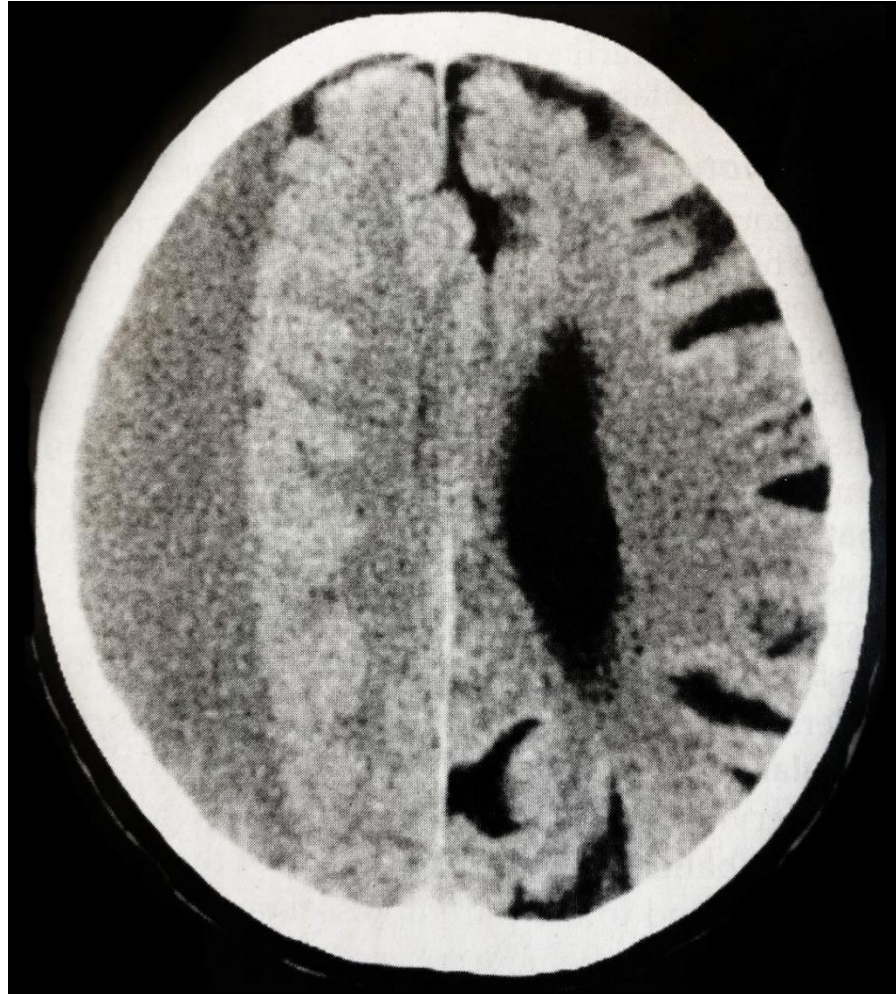
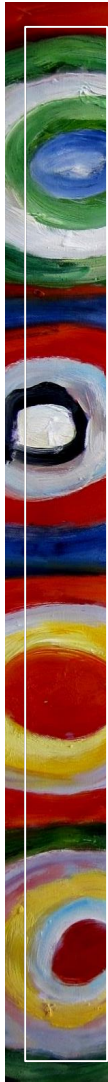
Where is the site of the lesion?

What's the likely diagnosis?

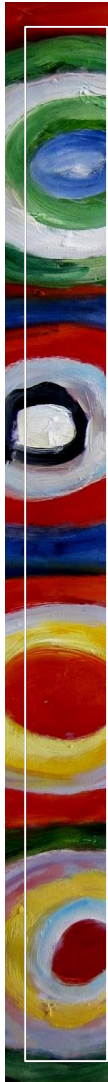
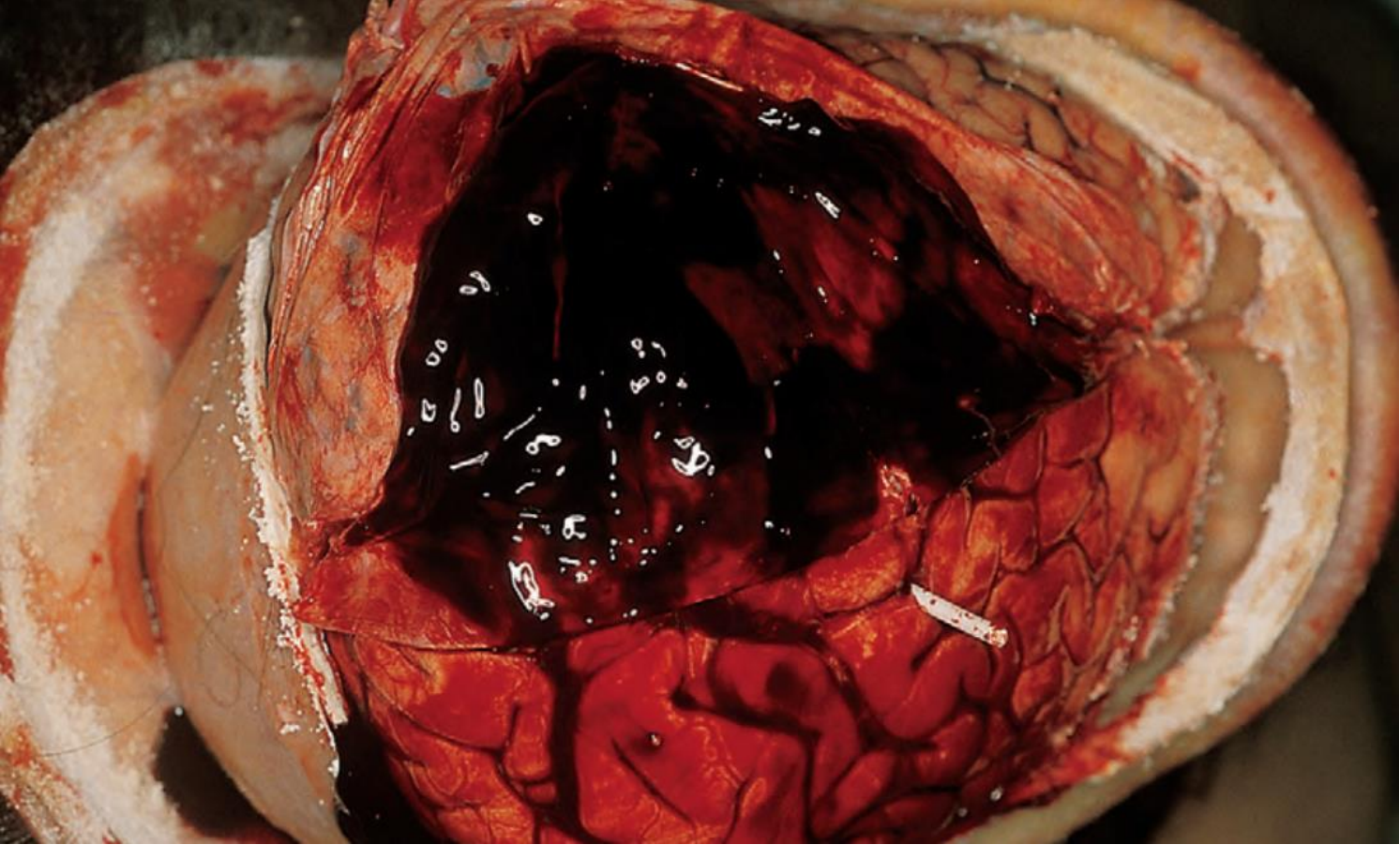


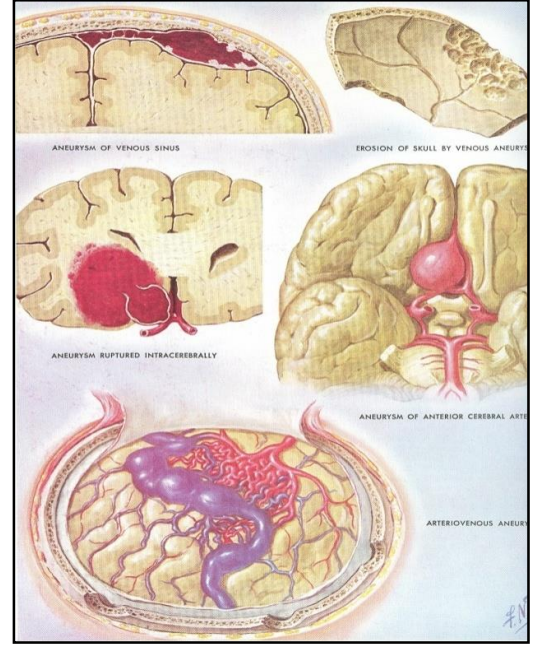
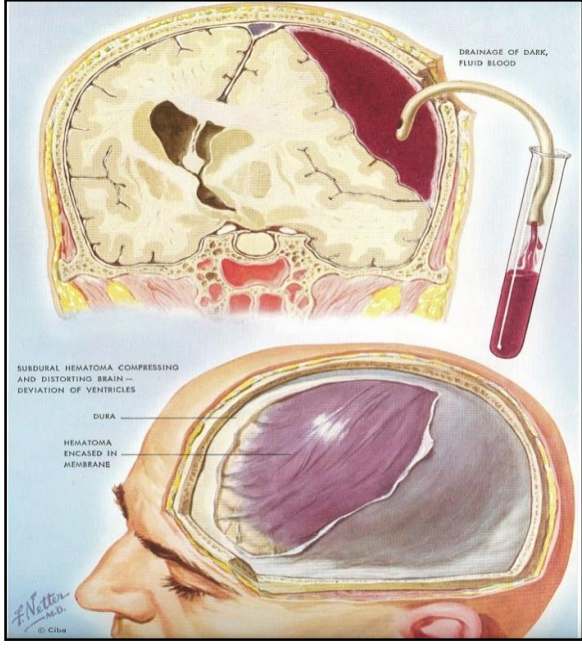
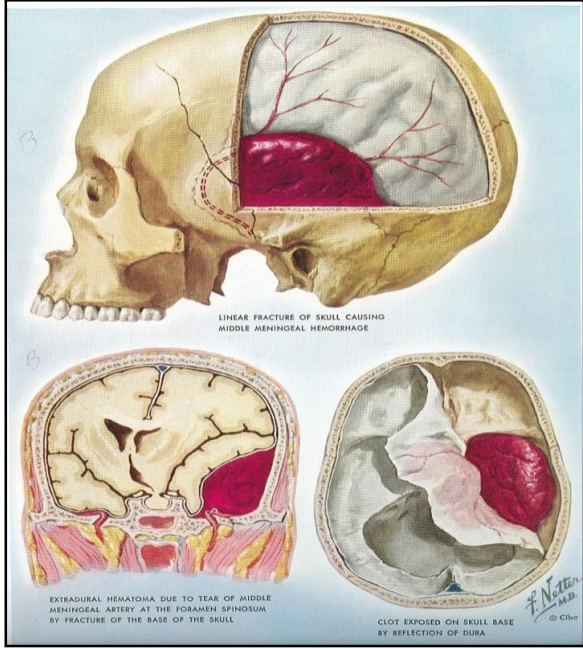
CT SCAN











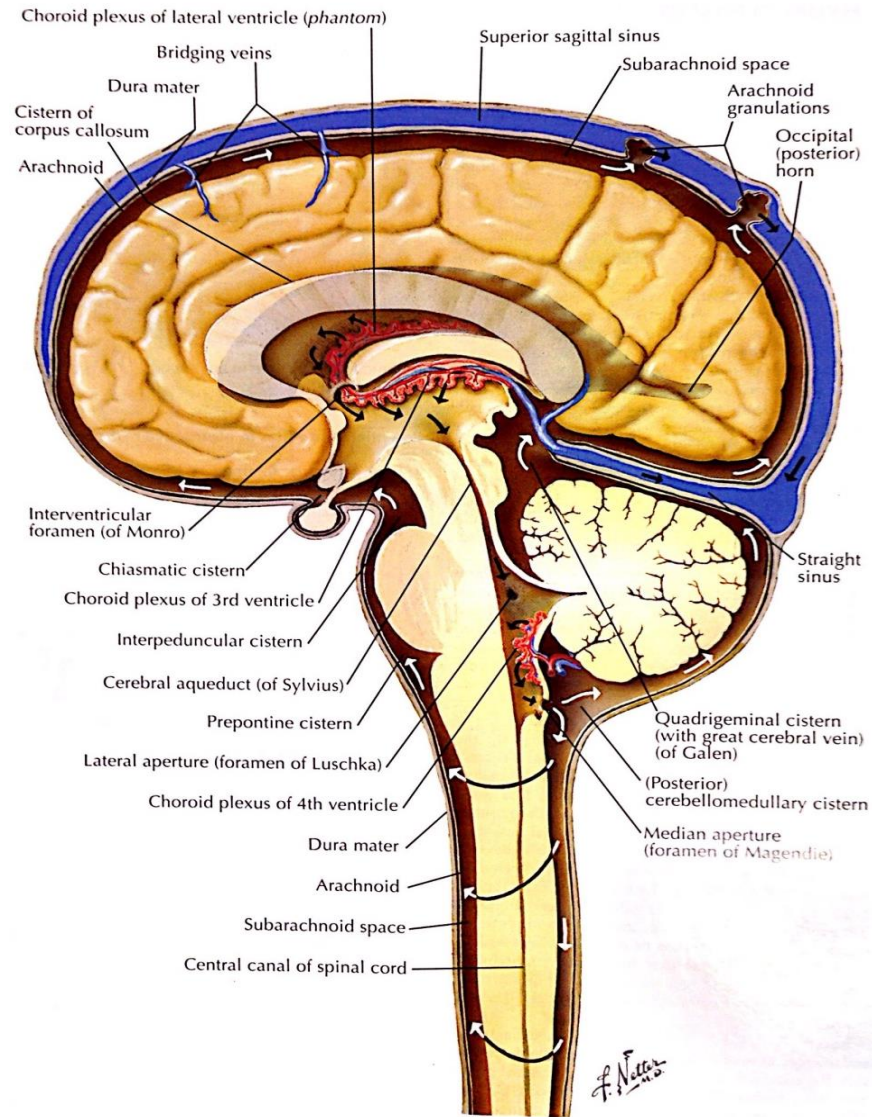




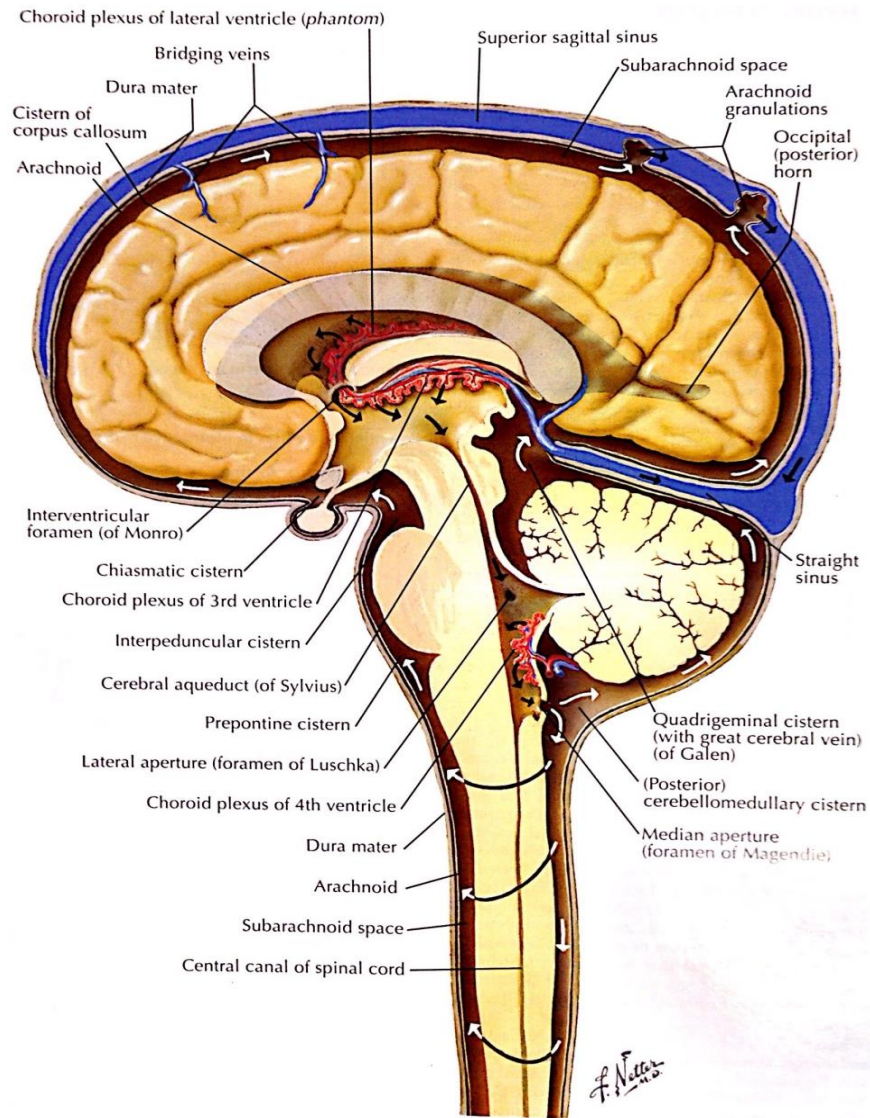
# The Ventricular Sytem

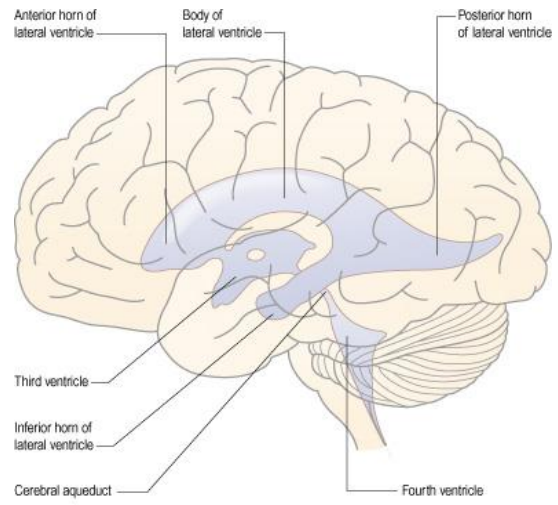
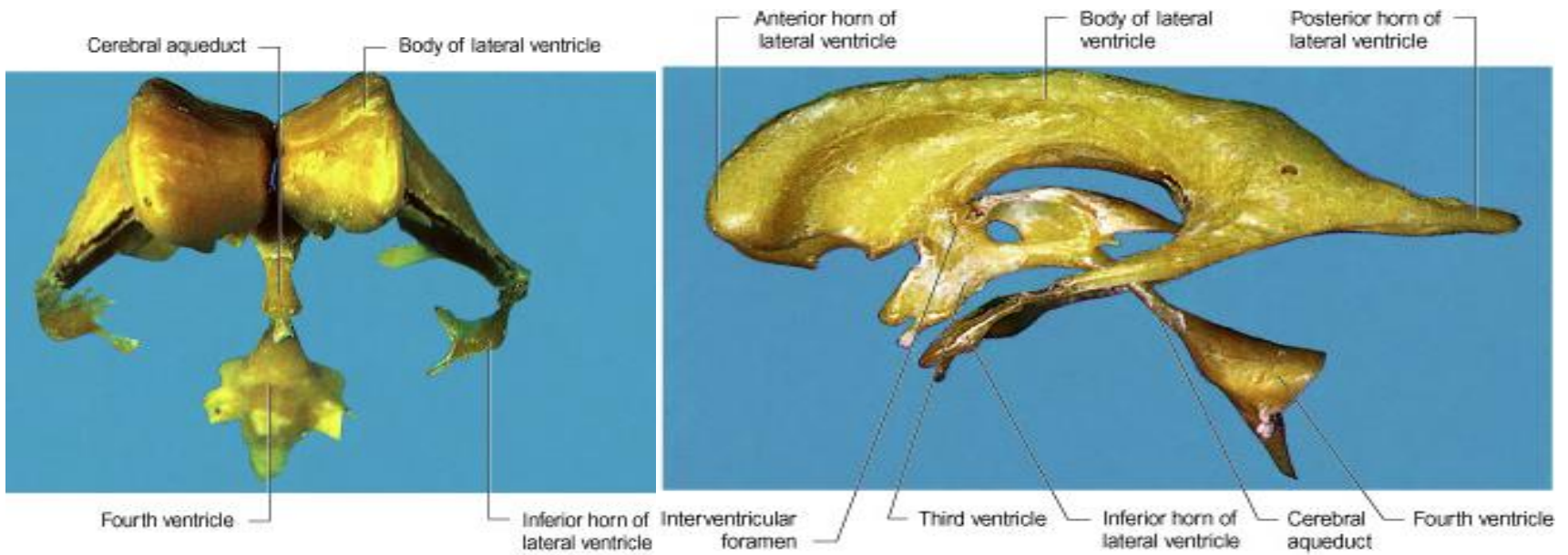
E. Manet – The Grand Canal





*F. Netter M.D.*







**Left lateral phantom view**

Right lateral ventricle

Left interventricular foramen (Monro)

3rd ventricle

Frontal (anterior) horn

Central part

Temporal (inferior) horn

Occipital (posterior) horn

} Left lateral ventricle

Cerebral aqueduct (Sylvius)

4th ventricle

Left lateral aperture (foramen of Luschka)

Left lateral recess

Median aperture (foramen of Magendie)

Central canal of spinal cord



## Hydrocephalus

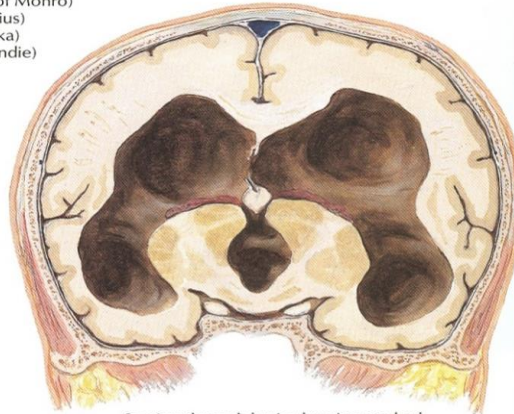
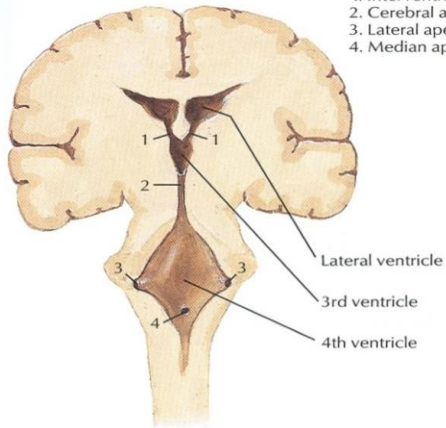


Clinical appearance in advanced hydrocephalus



### Potential lesion sites in obstructive hydrocephalus

1. Interventricular foramina (of Monro)
2. Cerebral aqueduct (of Sylvius)
3. Lateral apertures (of Luschka)
4. Median aperture (of Magendie)



Section through brain showing marked dilation of lateral and 3rd ventricles

F. Netter  
© IGM  
1992

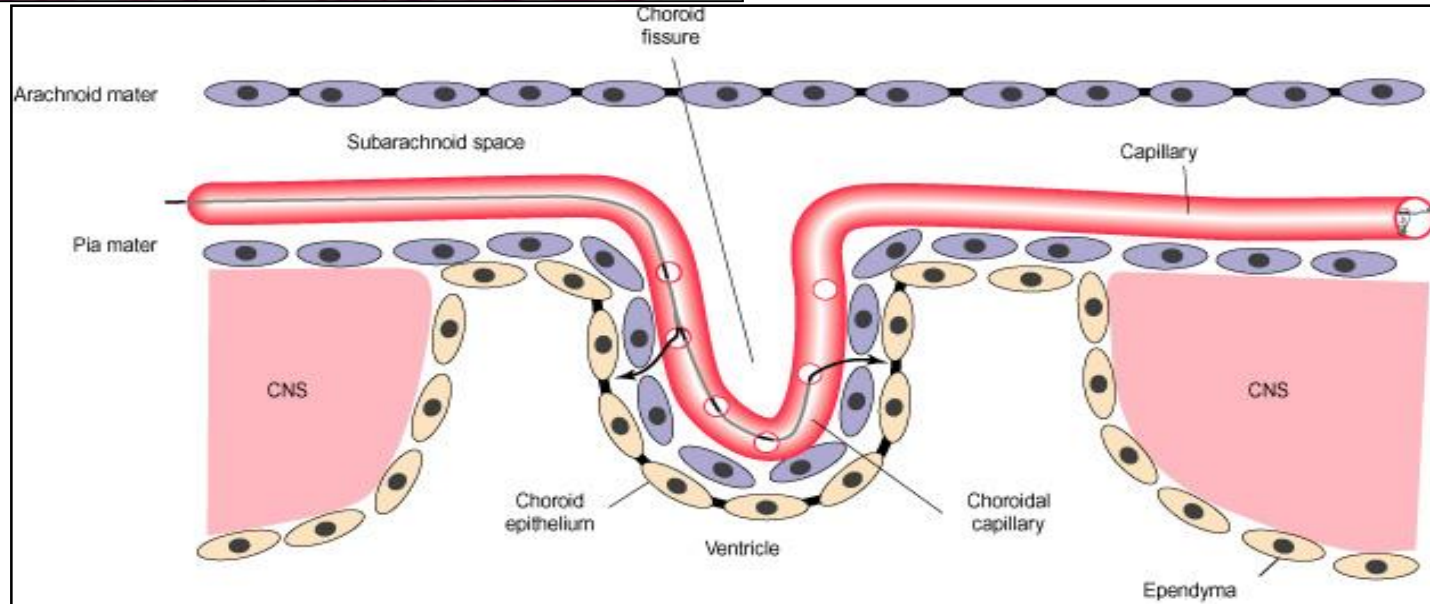


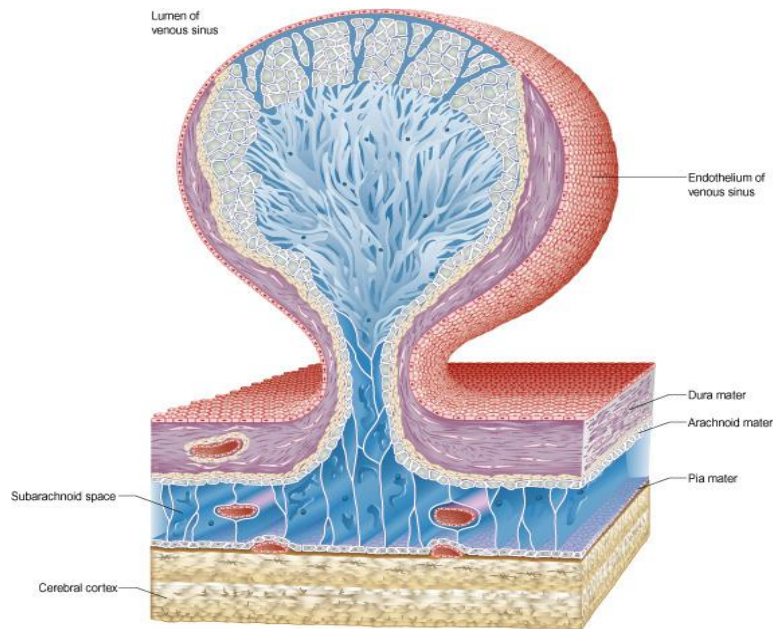
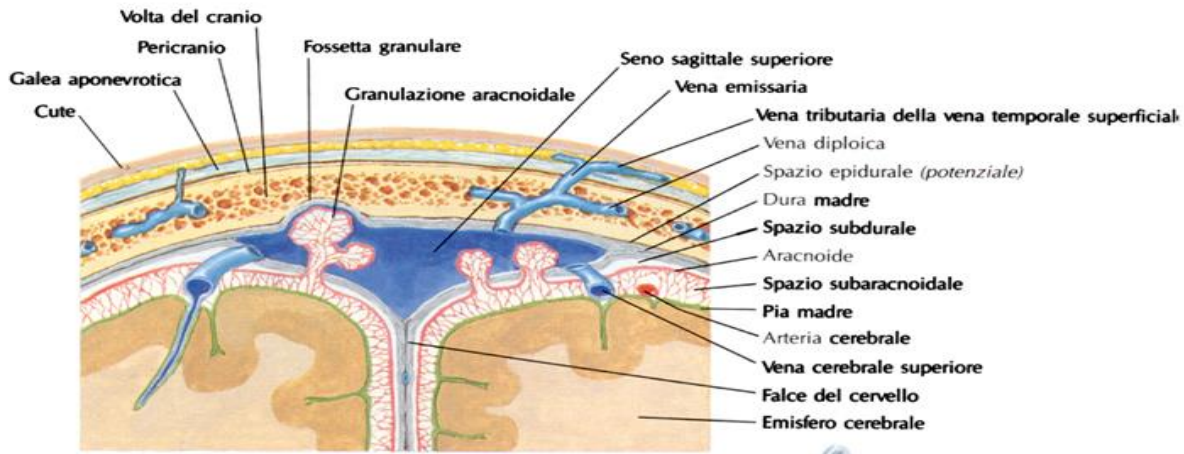


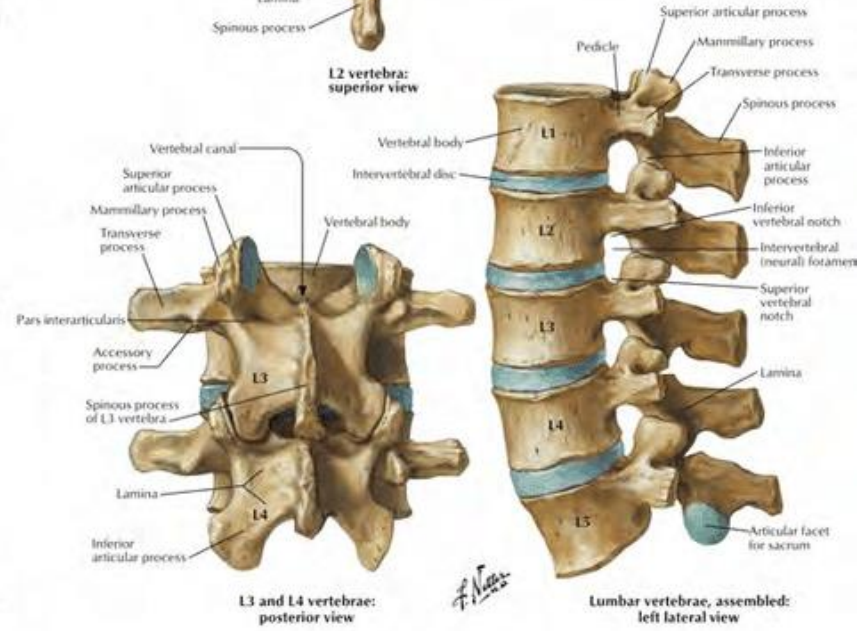
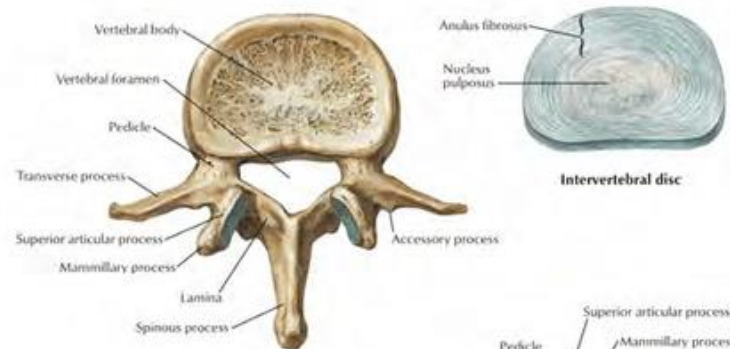
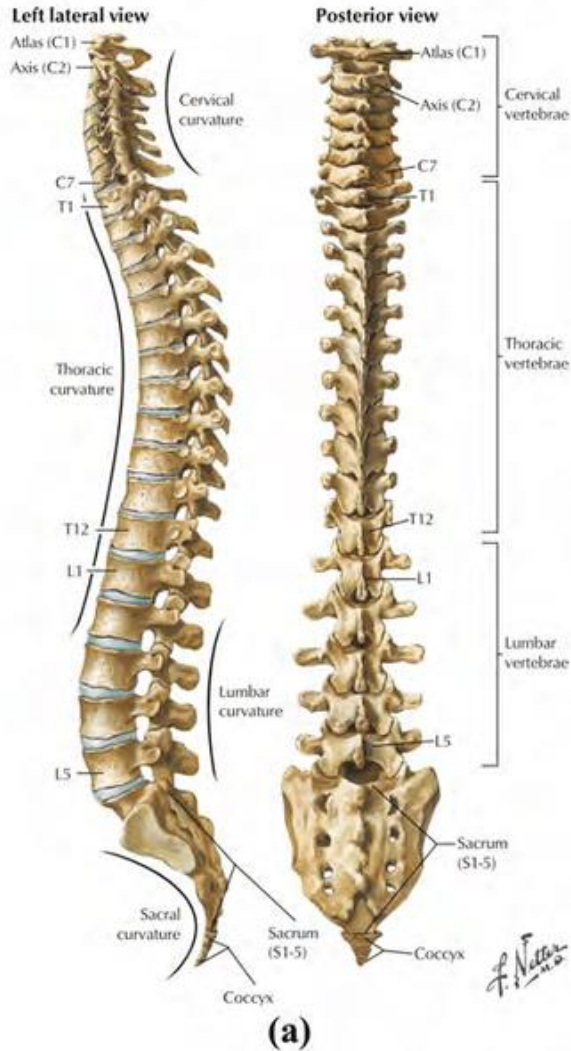
**Ciliated cuboidal ependymal cells lining the central canal of the spinal cord.**



Choroid plexus  
within a ventricle





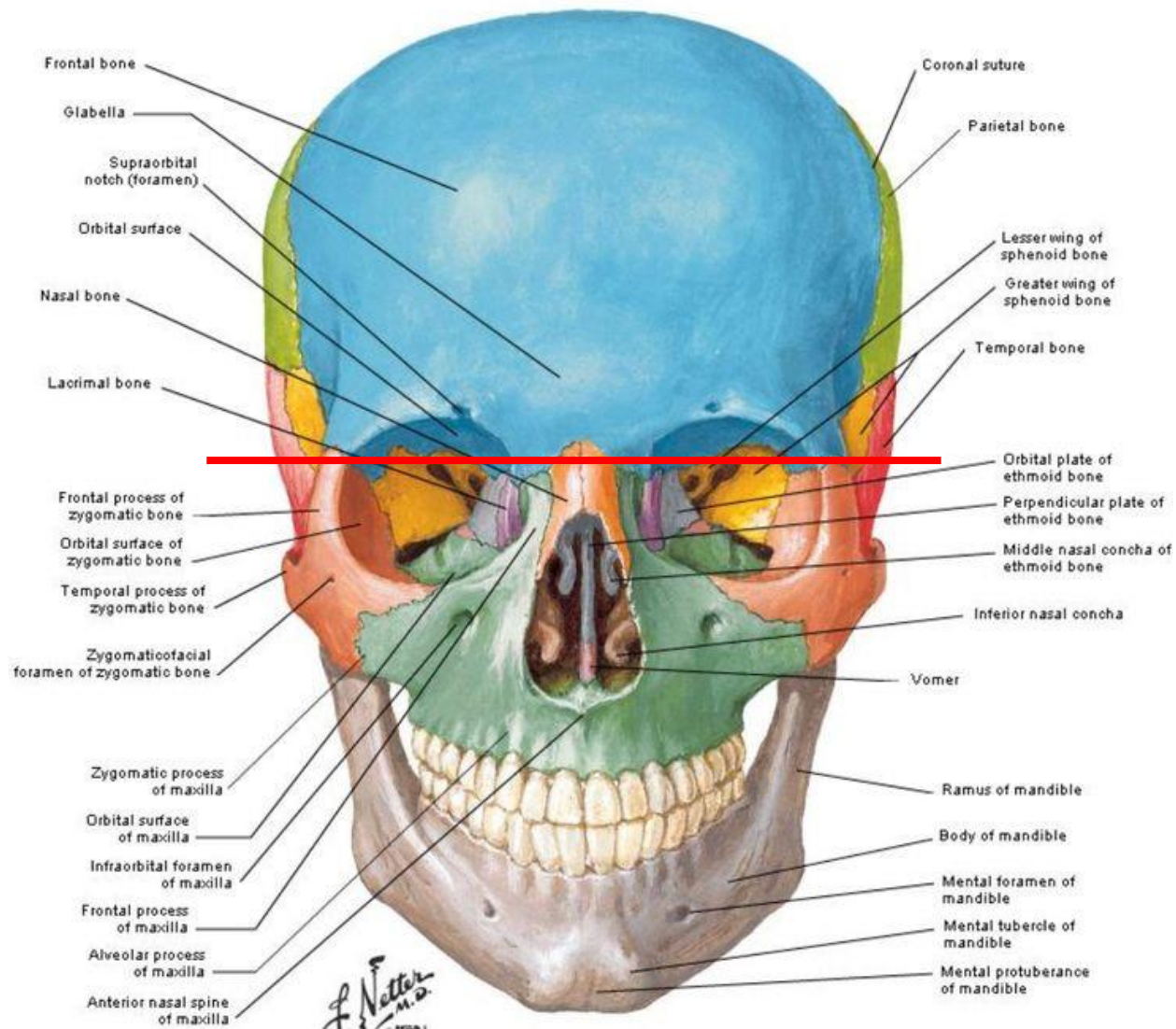


(a)

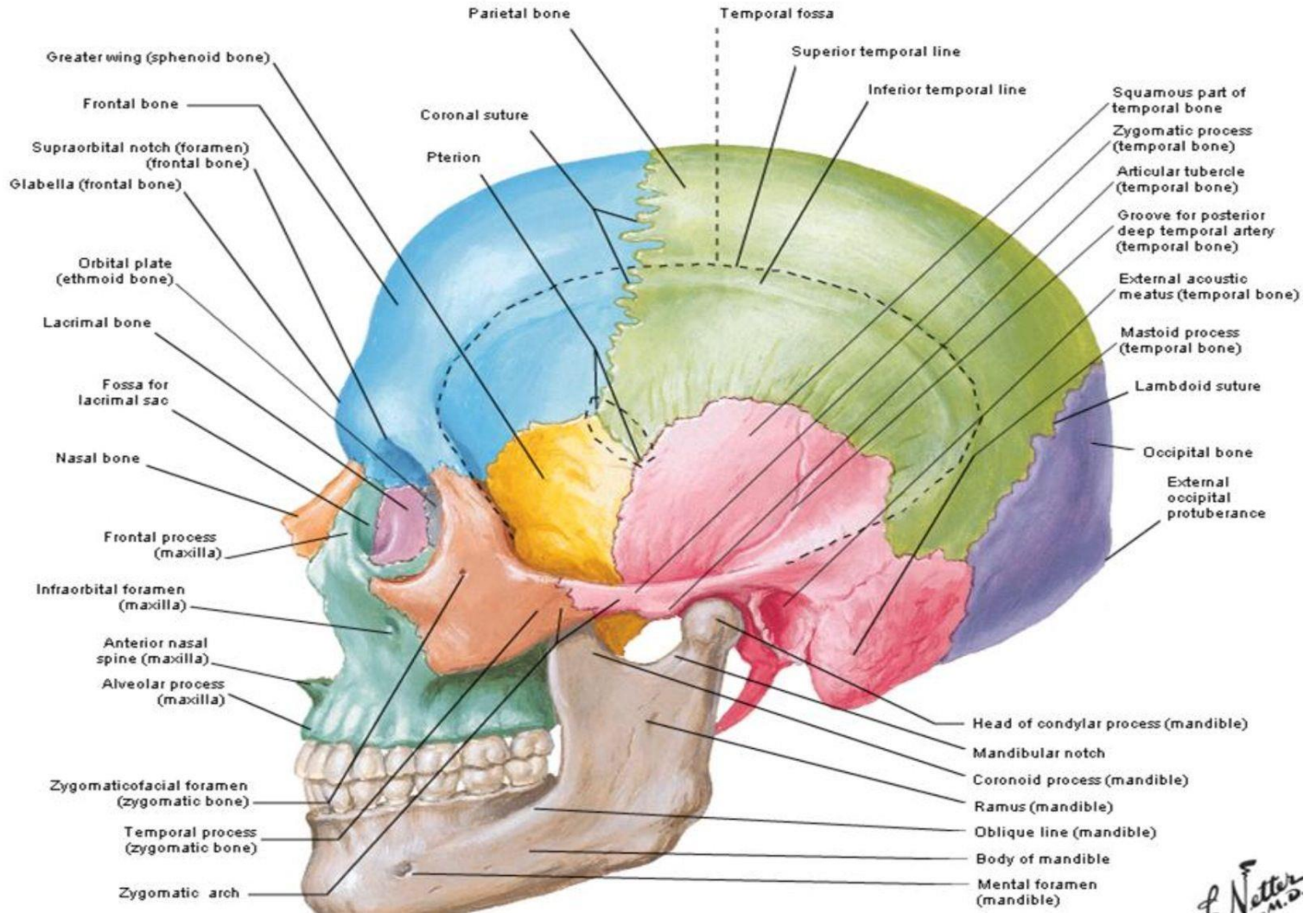
(b)



# Skull: Anterior View

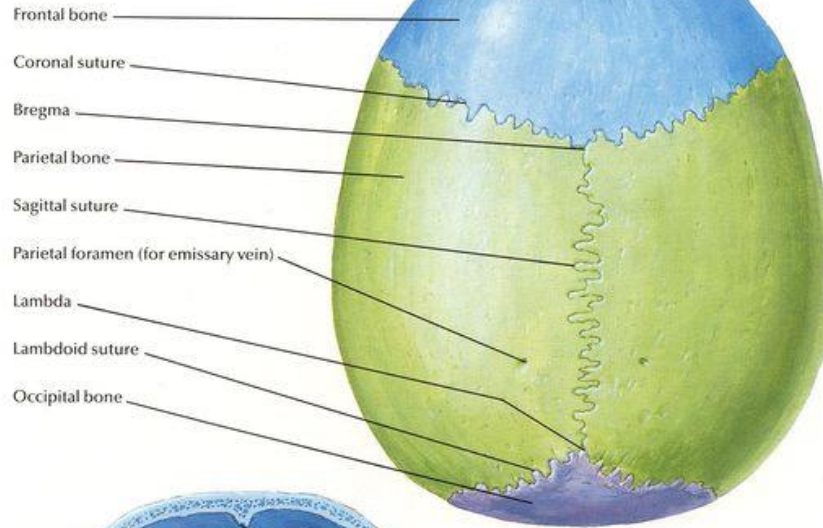


# Skull Lateral View

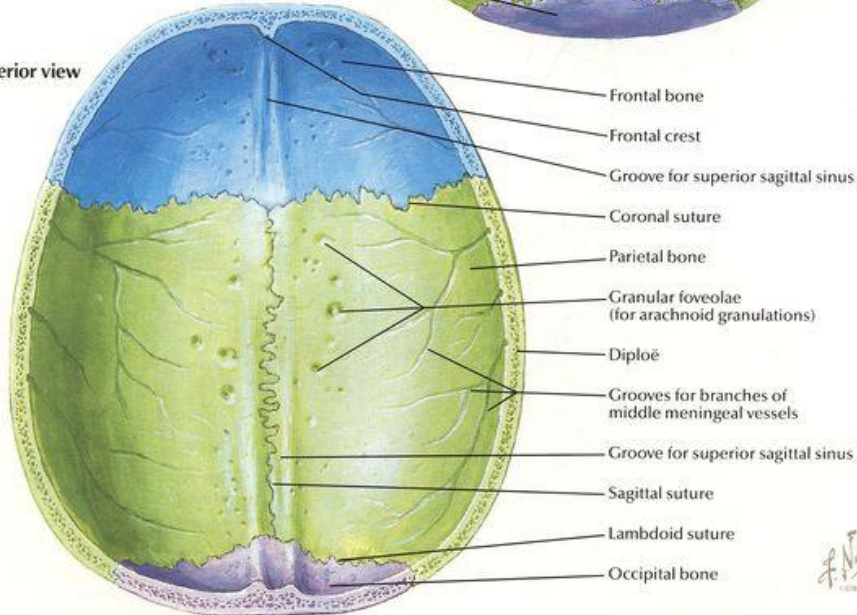


*A. Netter M.D.*

### Superior view



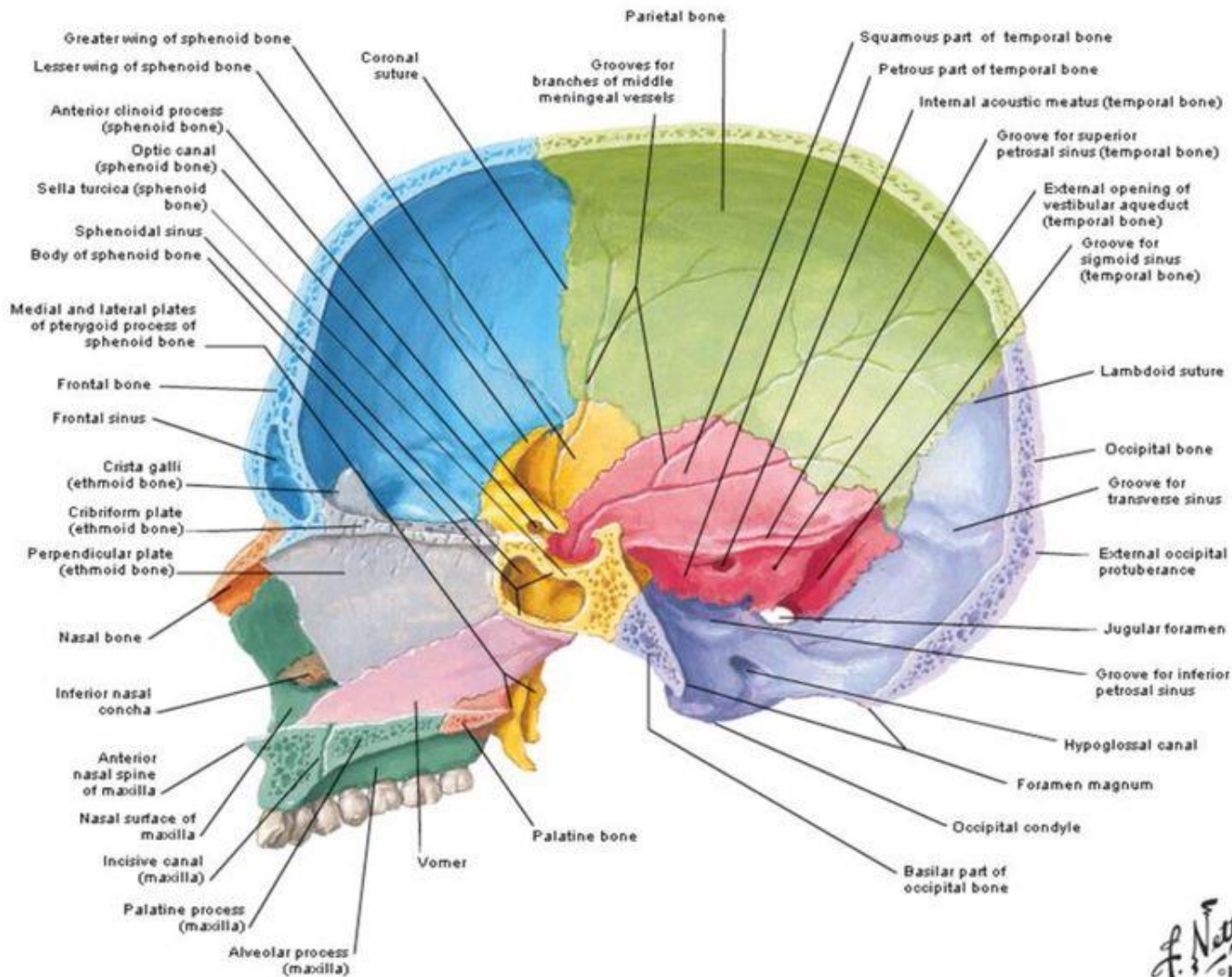
### Inferior view

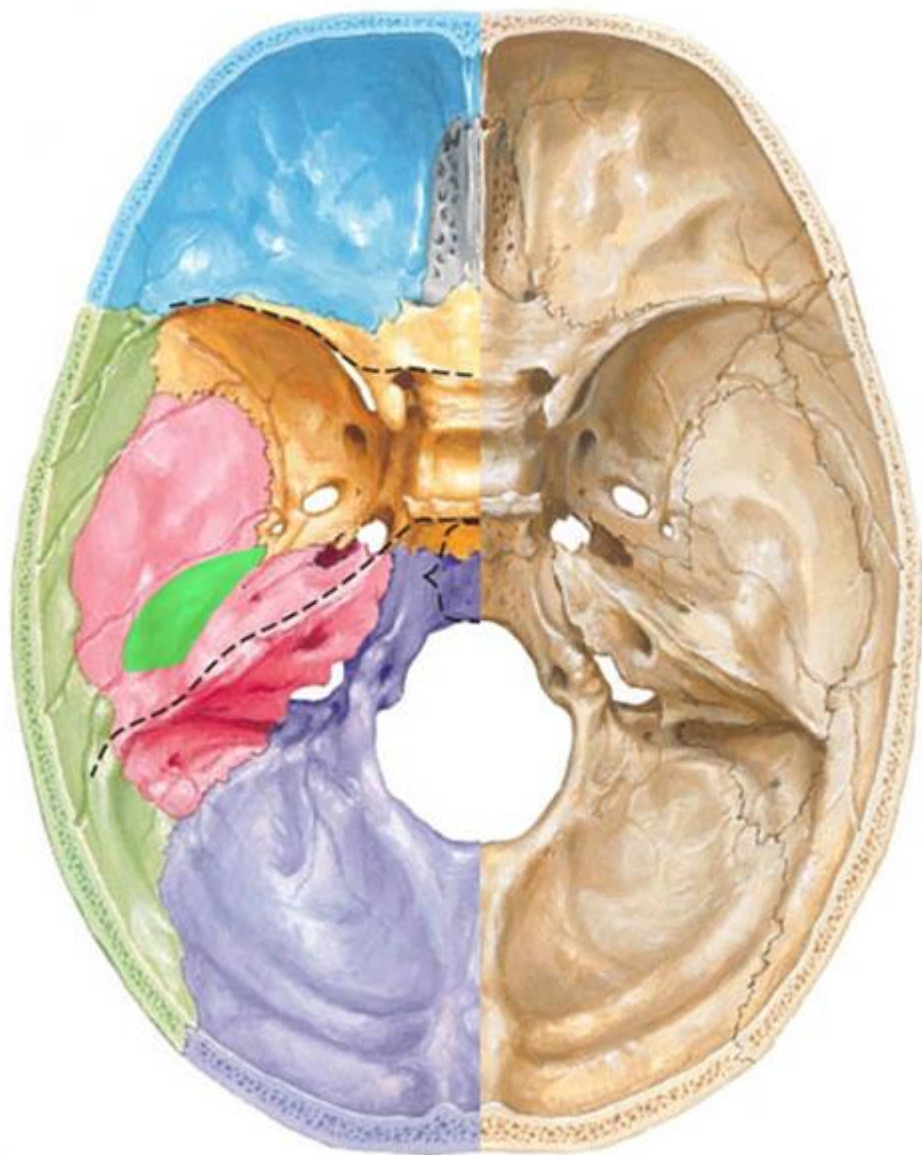


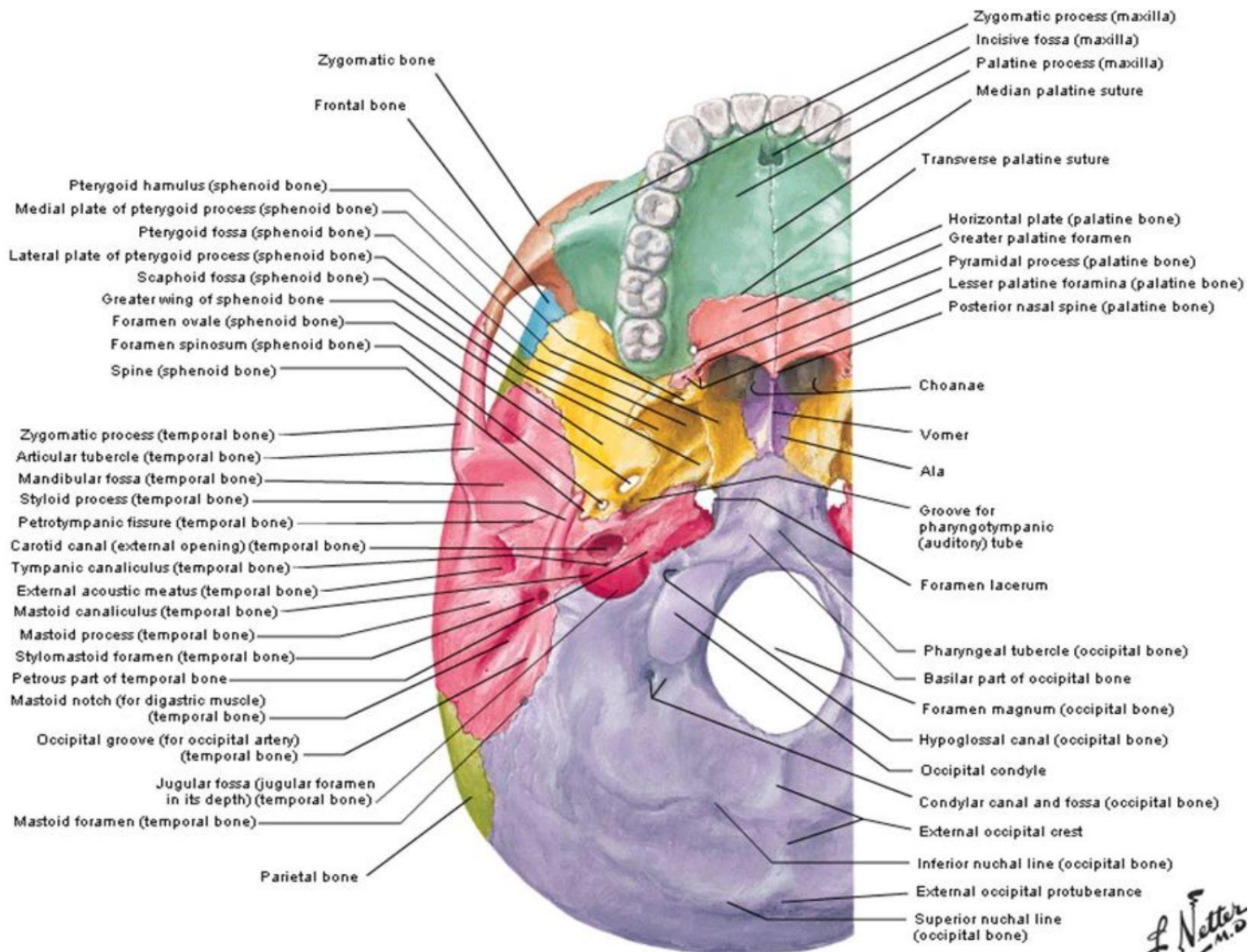


# Skull

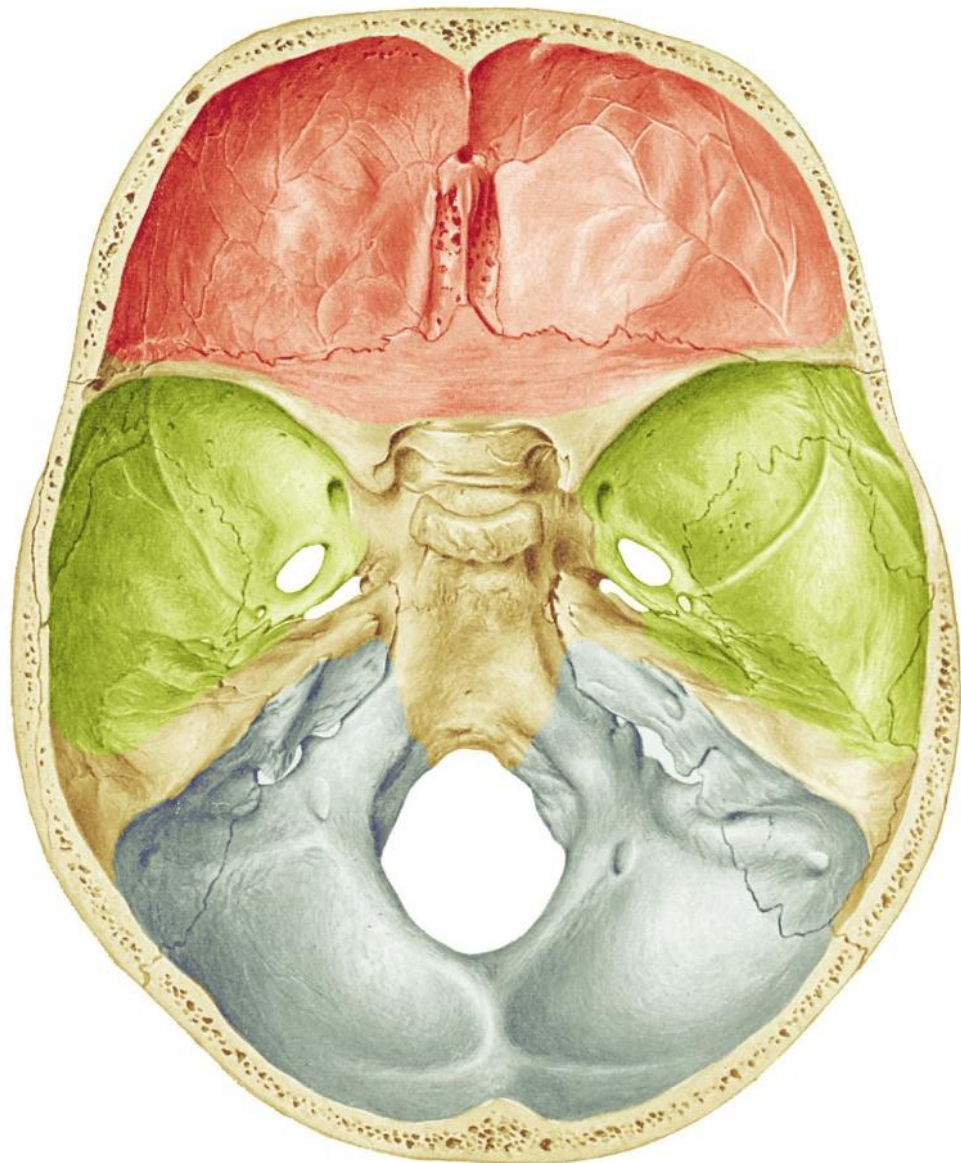
## Midsagittal Section

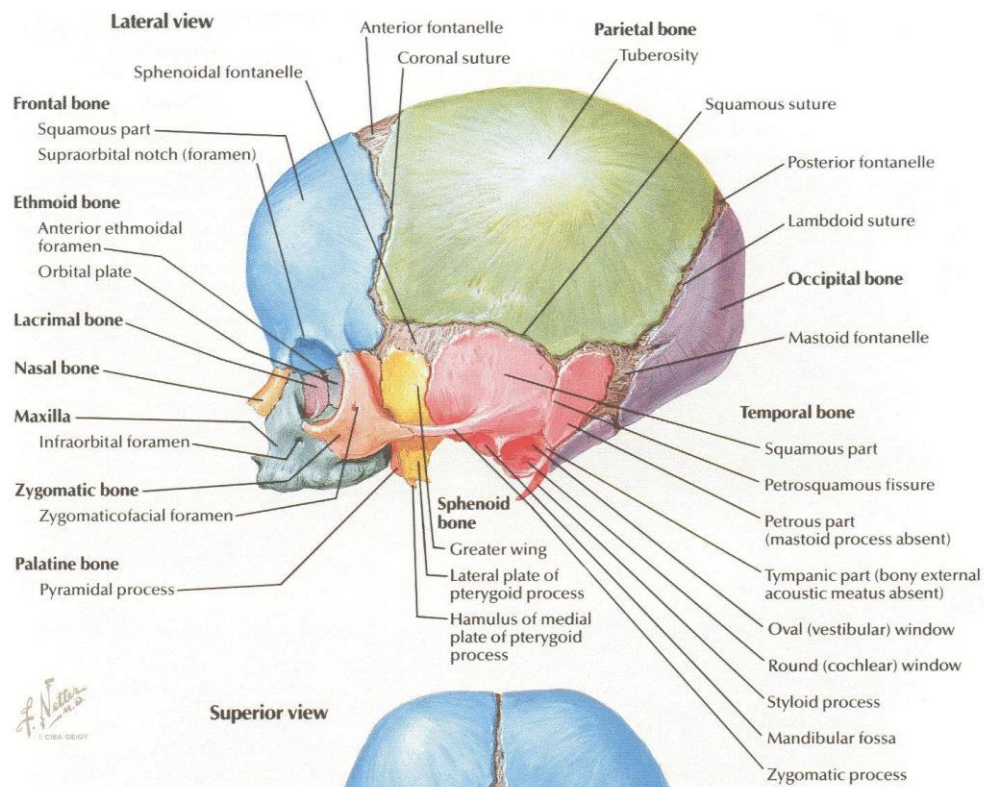




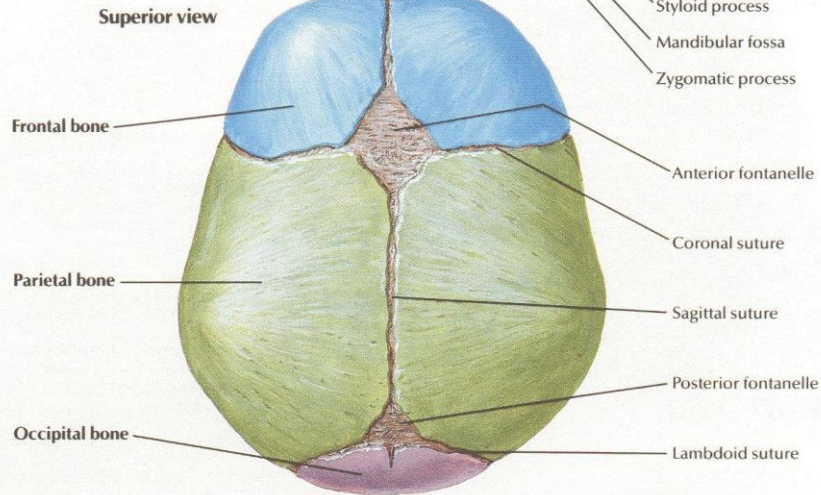




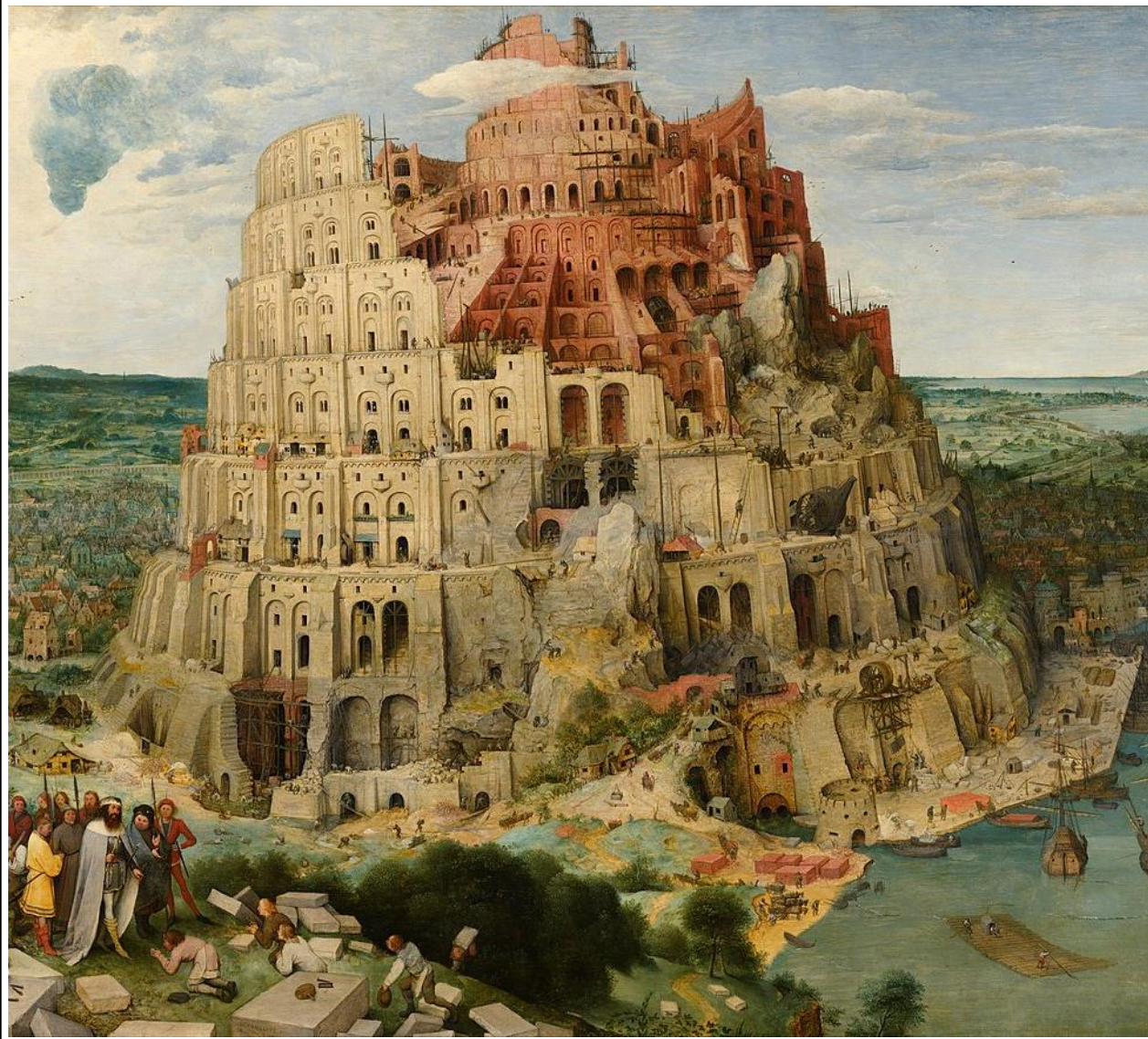




*F. Natter*  
M.D.  
© CIBA-DESIGN







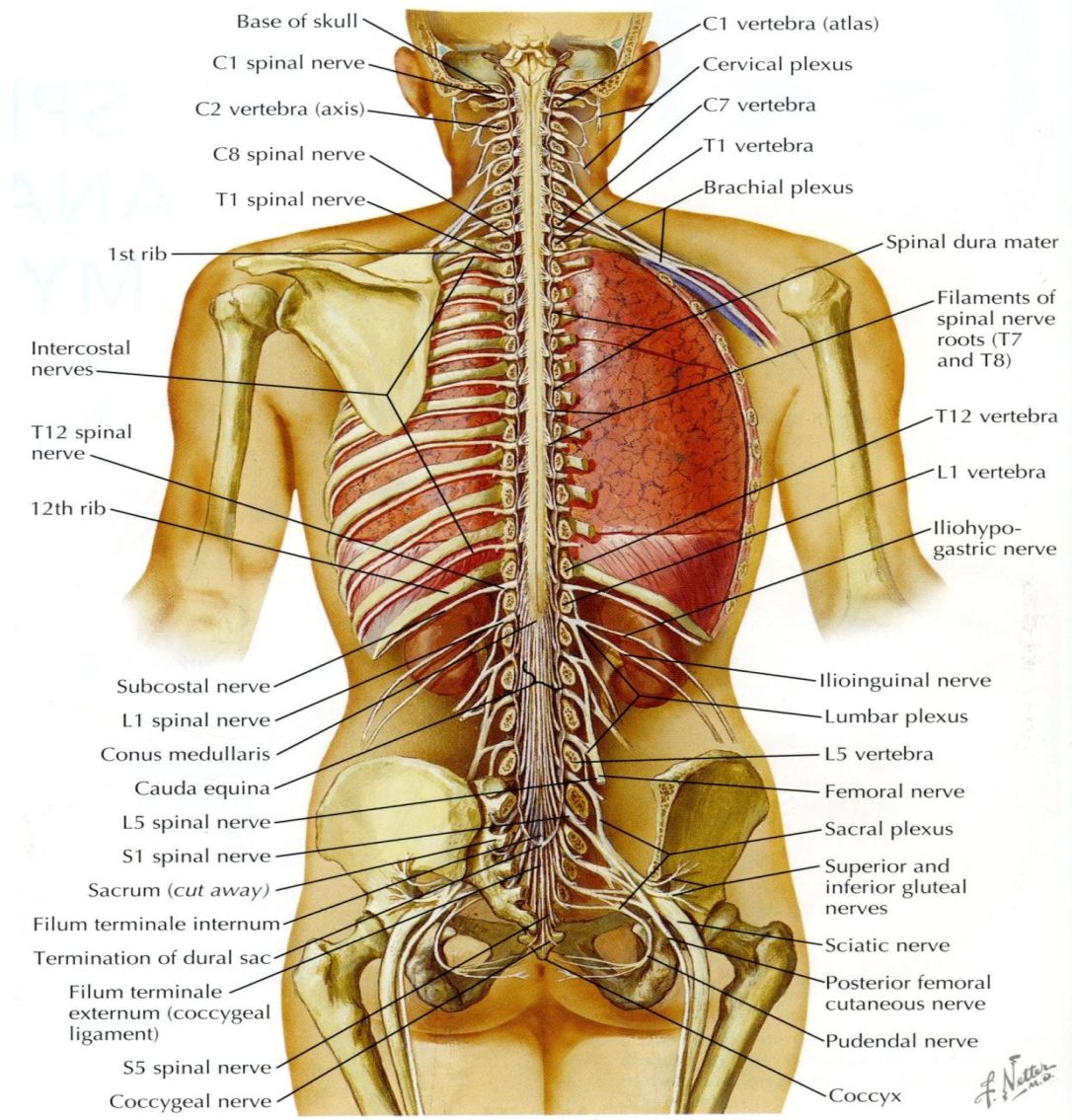
# The Spinal Cord

P. Brueghel – The tower of Babel



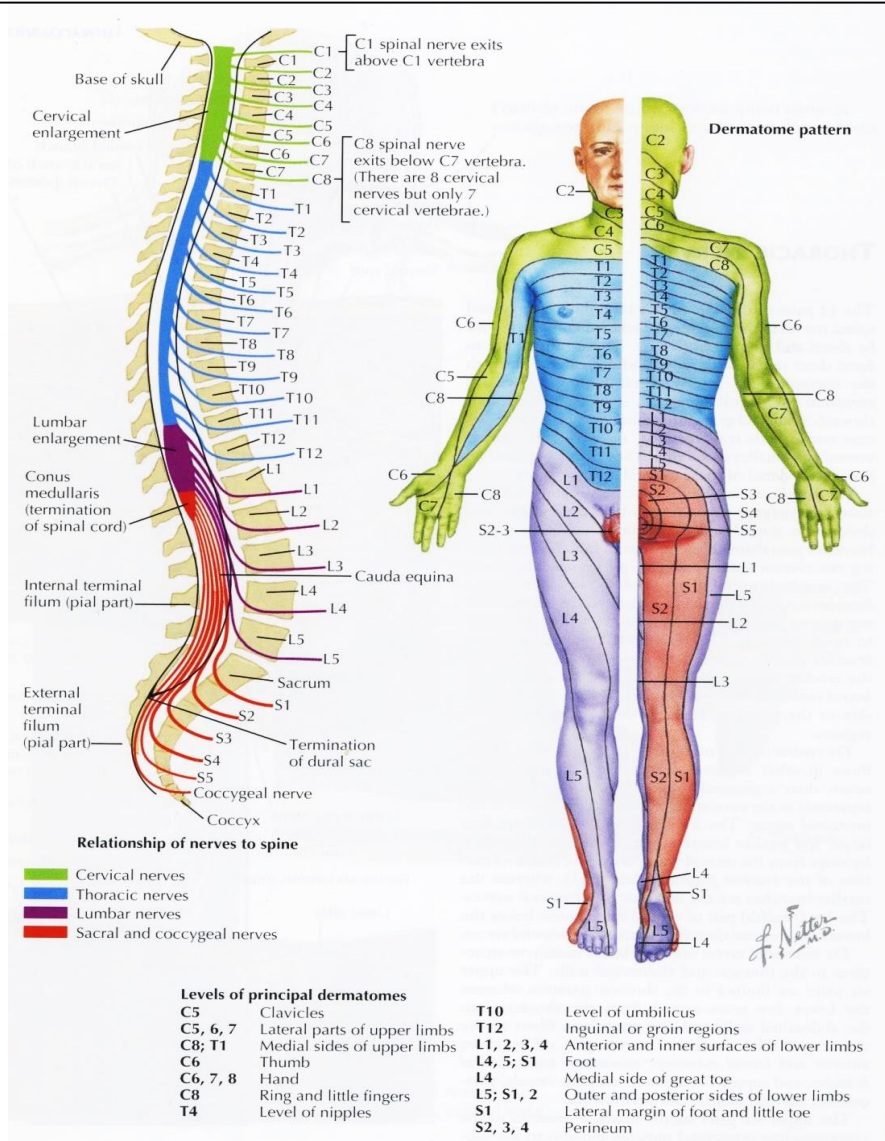


# The Spinal Cord



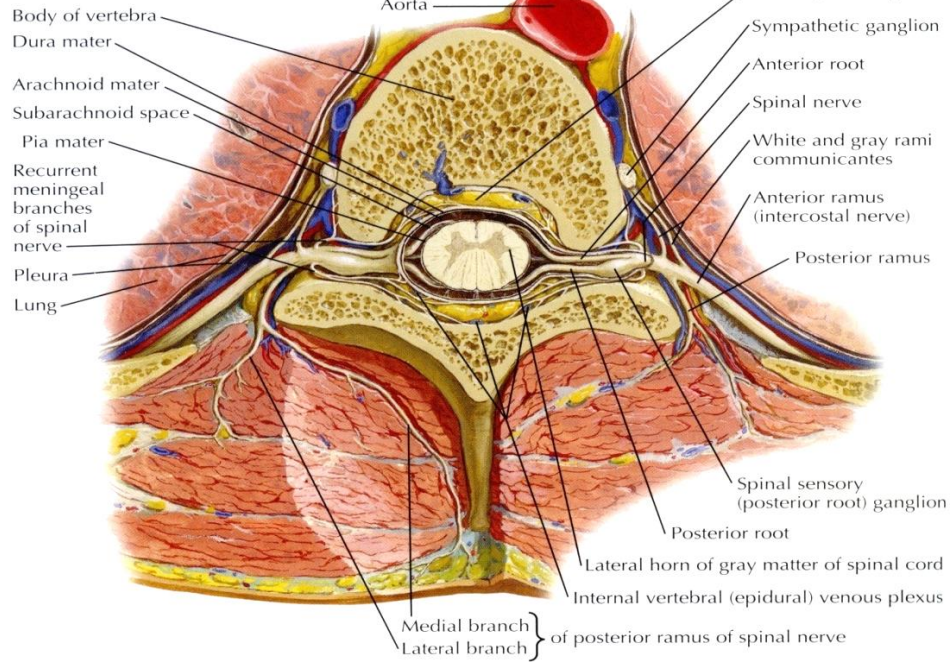
F. Netter  
 M.D.





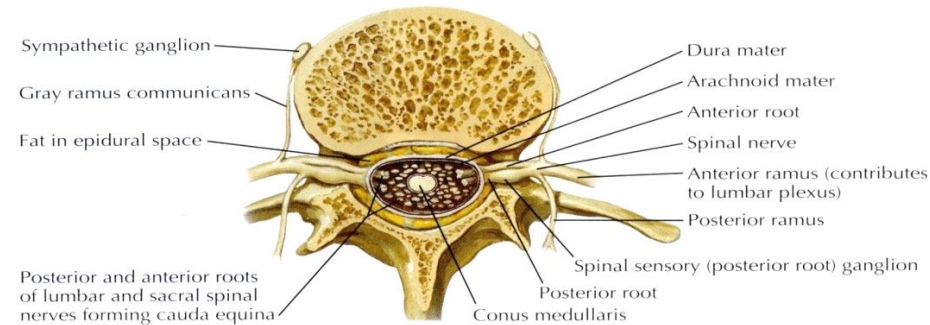


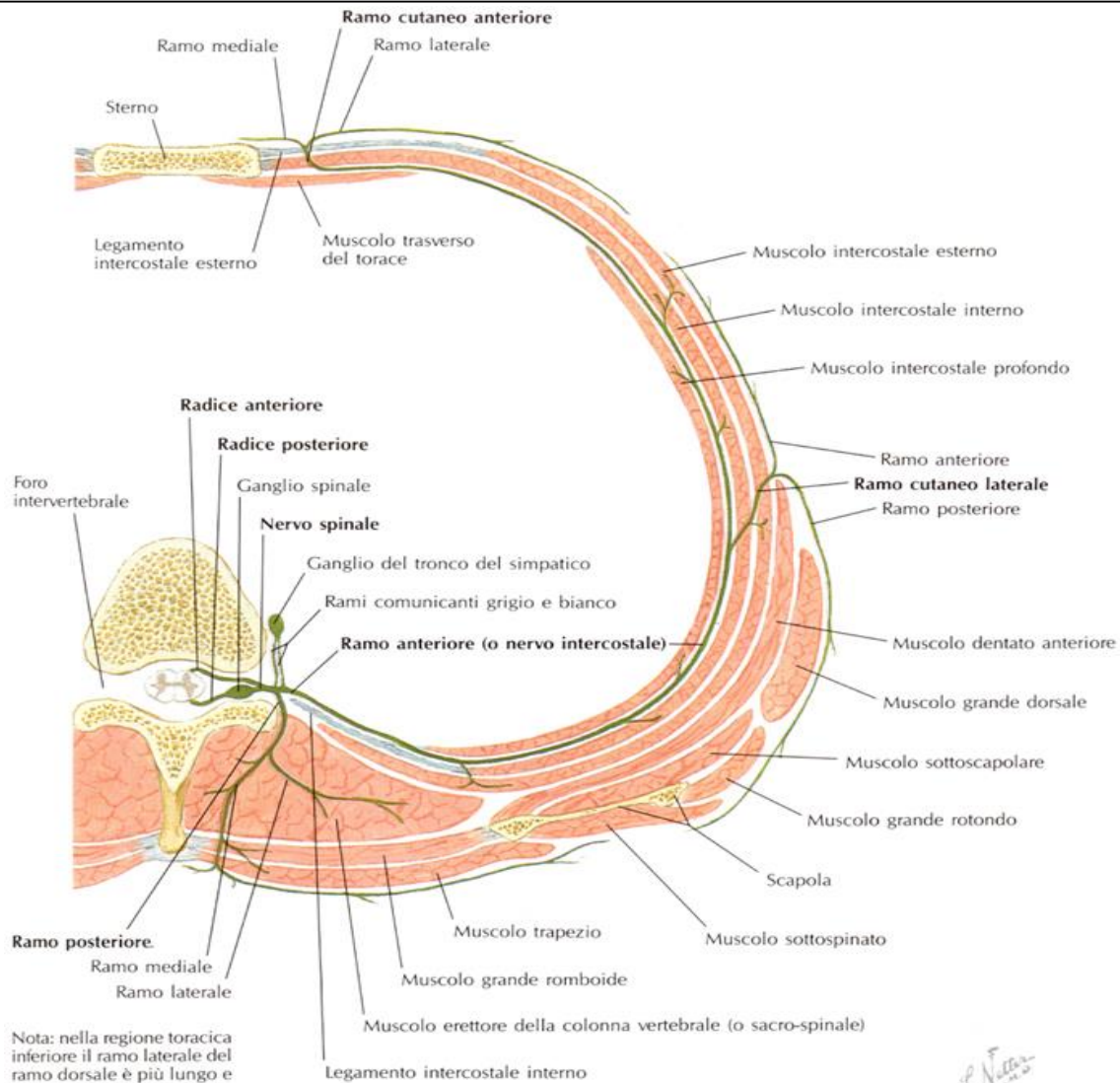
**Section through thoracic vertebra**



*F. Netter M.D.*

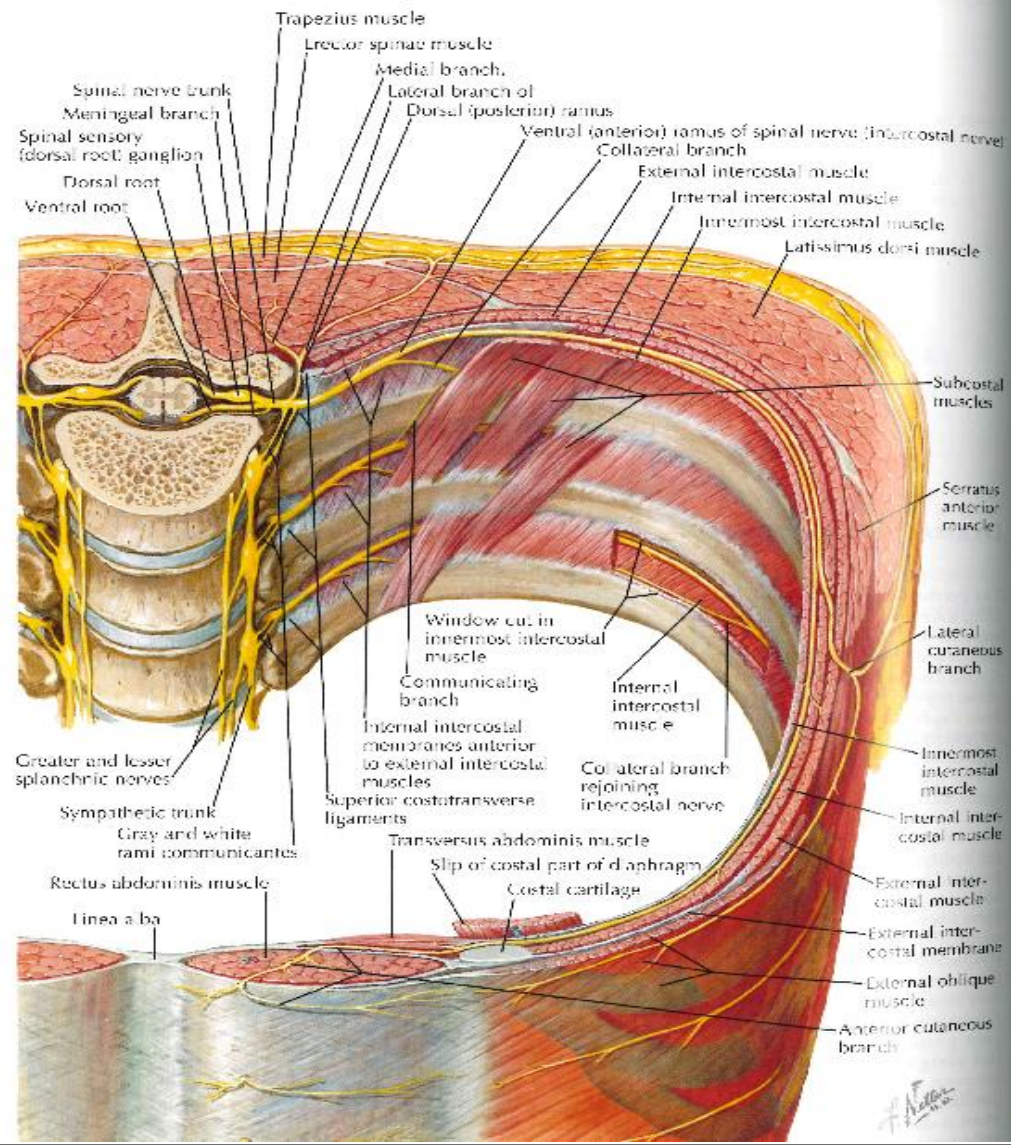
**Section through lumbar vertebra**





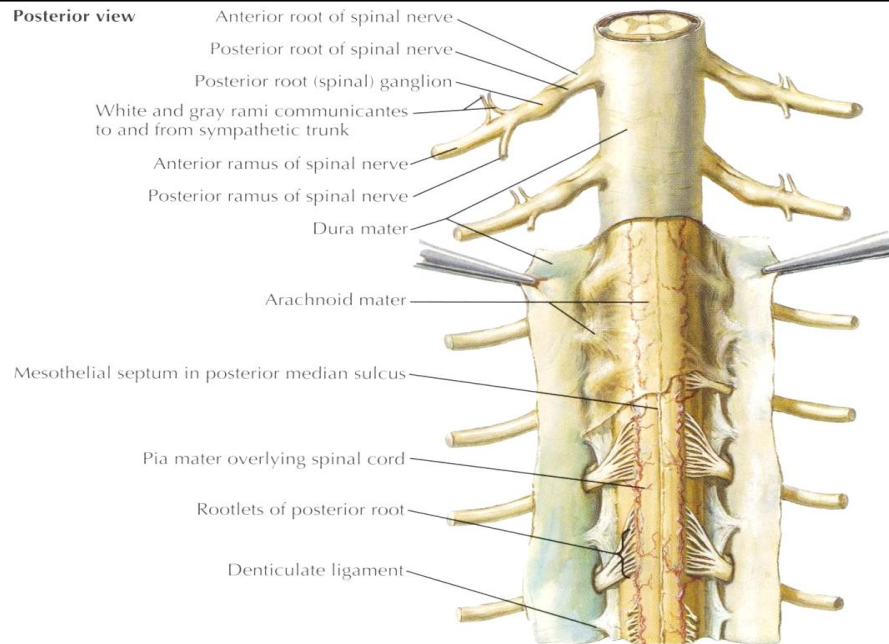
Nota: nella regione toracica inferiore il ramo laterale del ramo dorsale è più lungo e cutaneo; il ramo mediale è più breve e motore



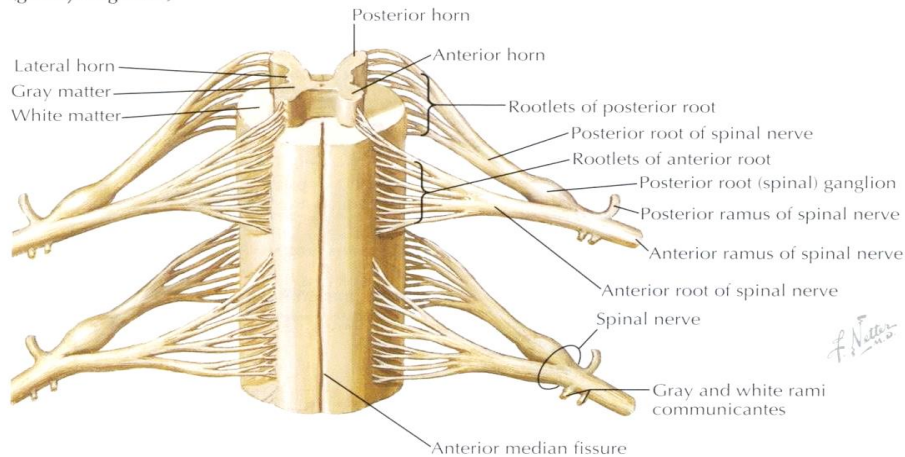








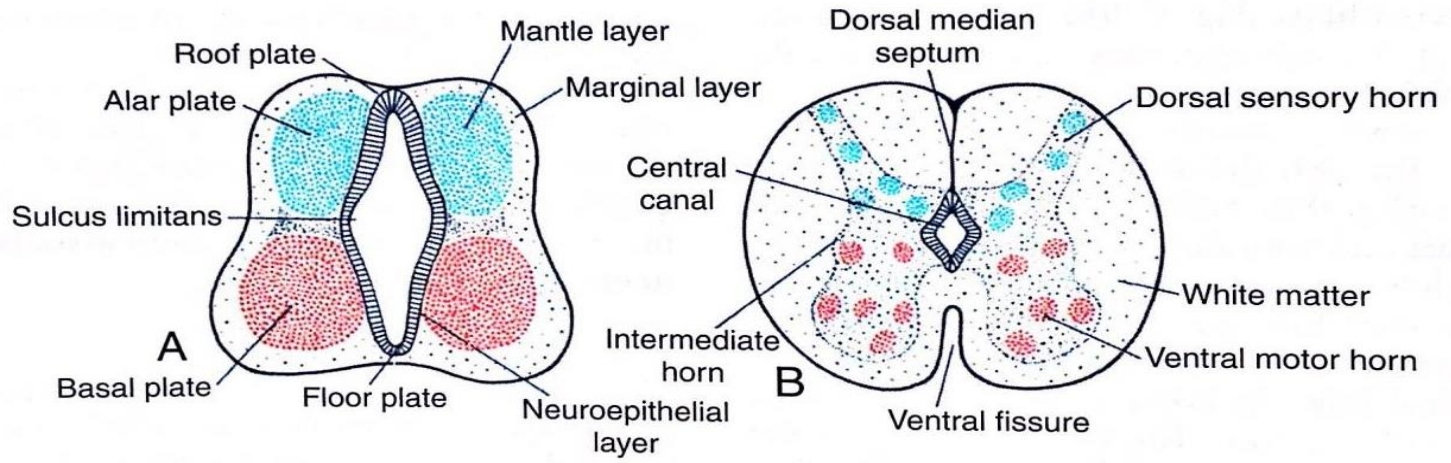
**Membranes removed: anterior view**  
*(greatly magnified)*



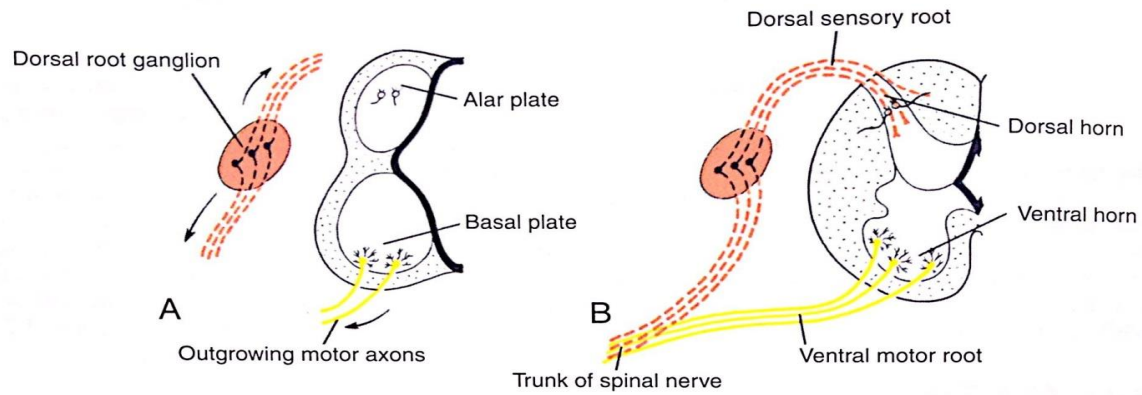




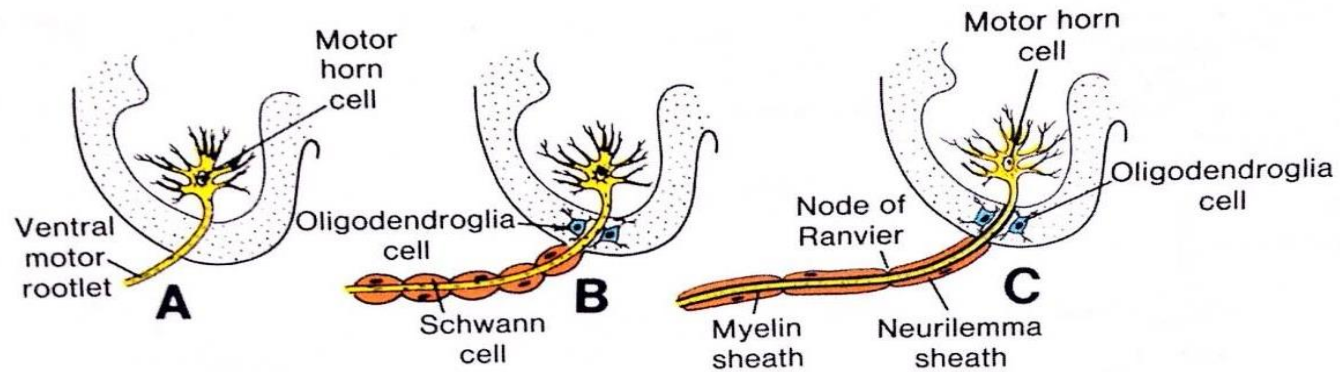




**Figure 17.8 A,B.** Two successive stages in the development of the spinal cord. Note formation of ventral motor and dorsal sensory horns and the intermediate column.

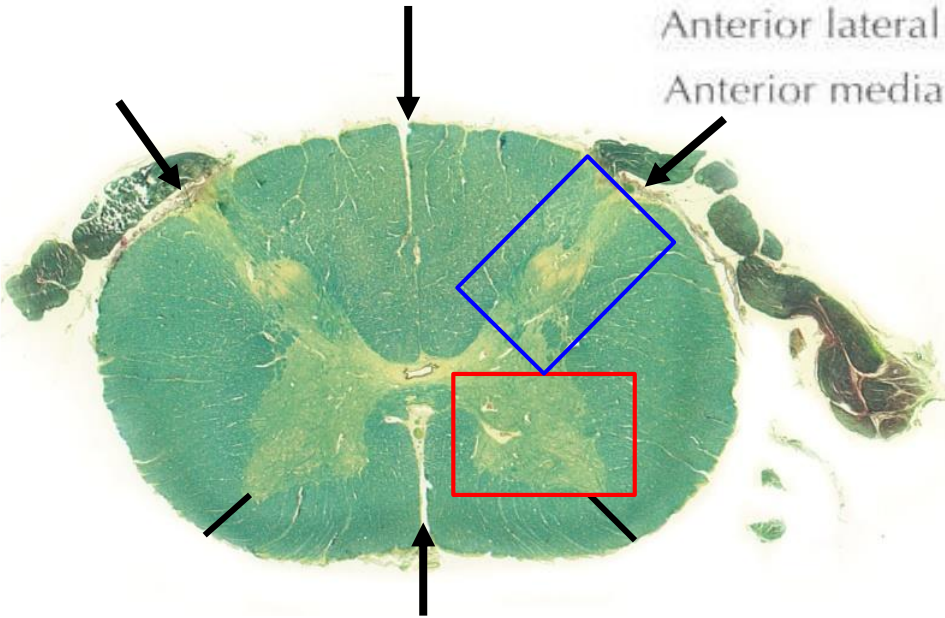
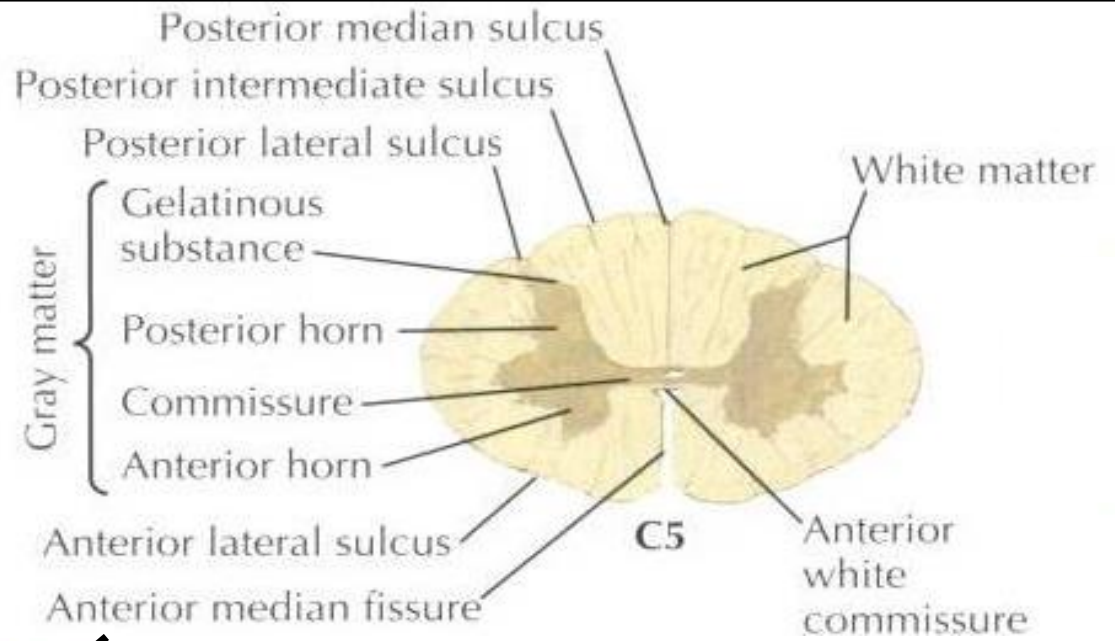


**Figure 17.10** **A.** Motor axons growing out from neurons in the basal plate and centrally and peripherally growing fibers of nerve cells in the dorsal root ganglion. **B.** Nerve fibers of the ventral motor and dorsal sensory roots join to form the trunk of the spinal nerve. **C.** Scanning electron micrograph of a cross section through the spinal cord of a chick embryo. The ventral horn and ventral motor root are differentiating.

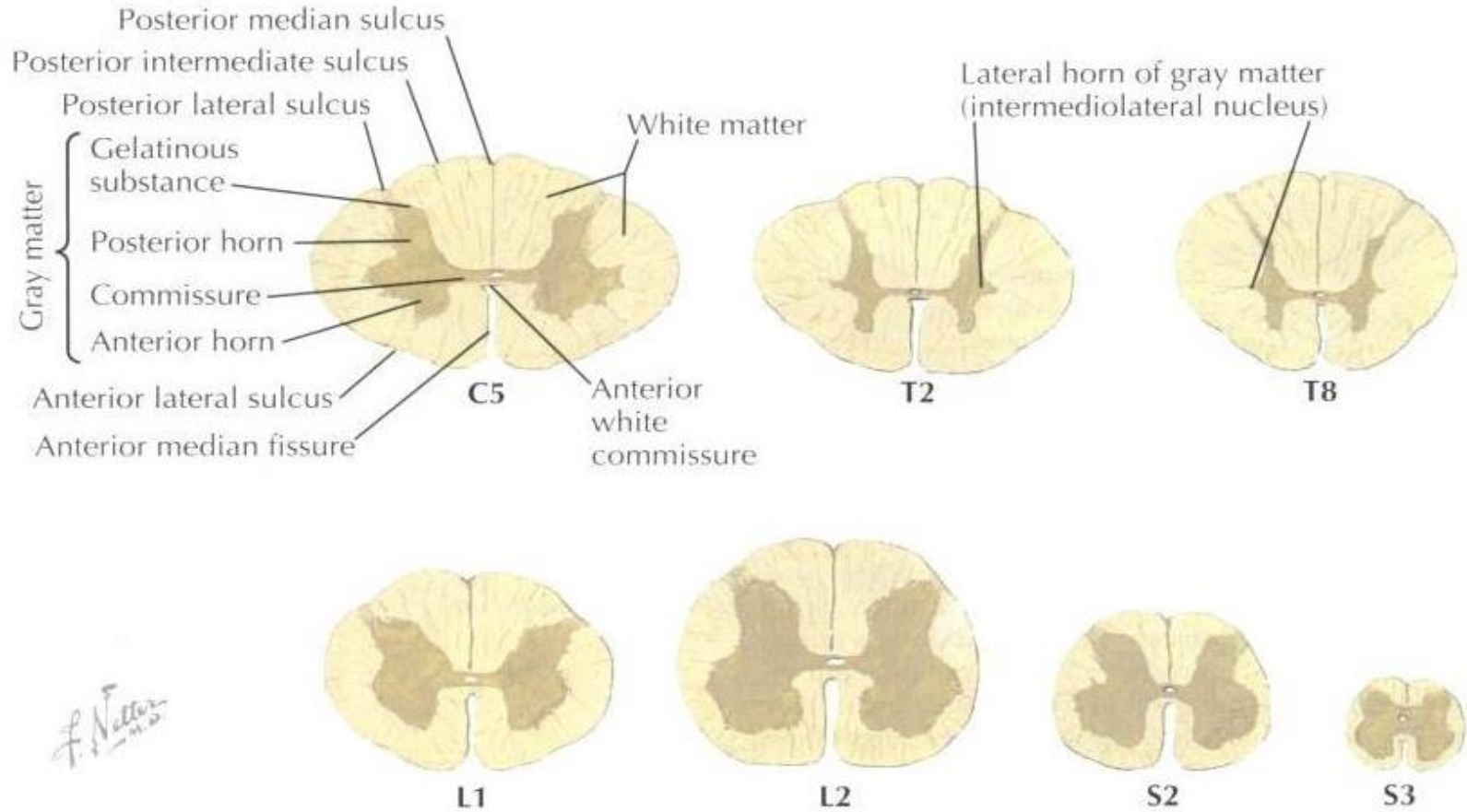


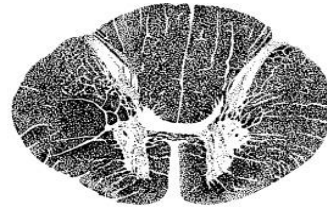
**Figure 17.12** **A.** Motor horn cell with naked rootlet. **B.** In the spinal cord, oligodendroglia cells surround the ventral rootlet; outside the spinal cord, Schwann cells begin to surround the rootlet. **C.** In the spinal cord, the myelin sheath is formed by oligodendroglia cells; outside the spinal cord, the sheath is formed by Schwann cells.



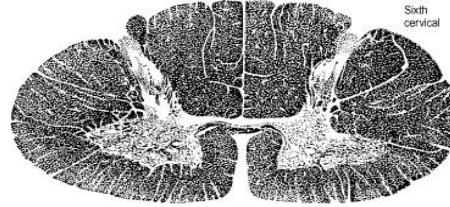


## Sections through spinal cord at various levels

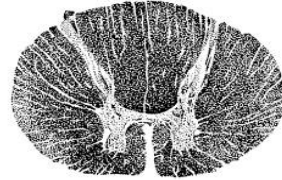




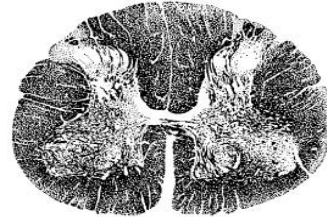
Third  
cervical



Sixth  
cervical



Sixth  
thoracic



Third  
lumbar

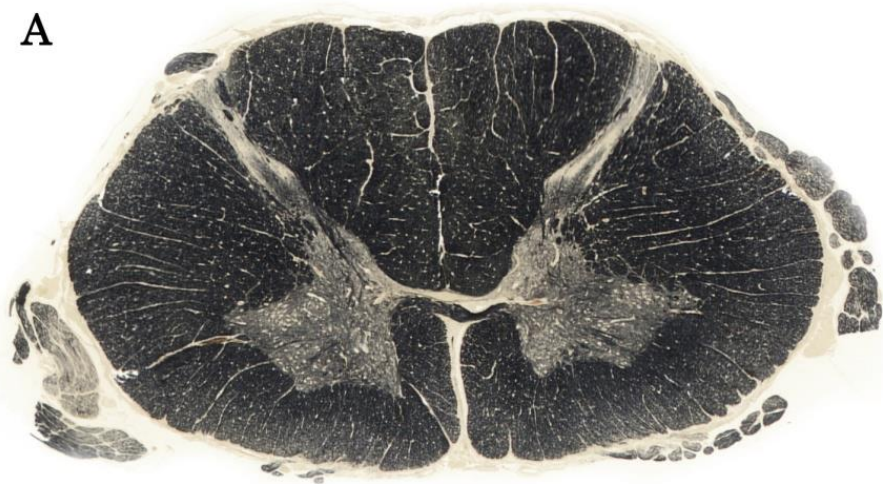


Second  
sacral

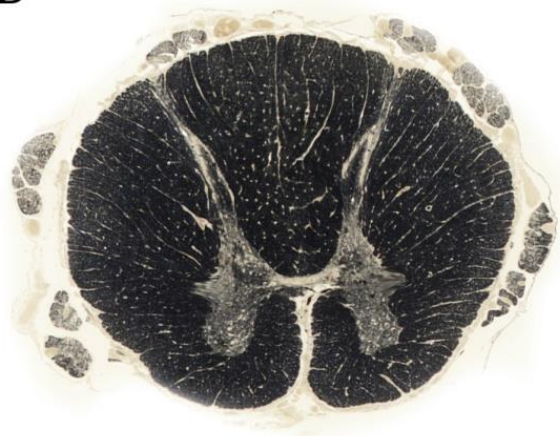




**A**



**B**



**C**



**D**



# SPINAL CORD SERIAL SECTIONS



<https://pathpresenter.net/#/public/display?token=bca1eaba>









# SPINAL CORD NISSL



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# SPINAL CORD SILVER



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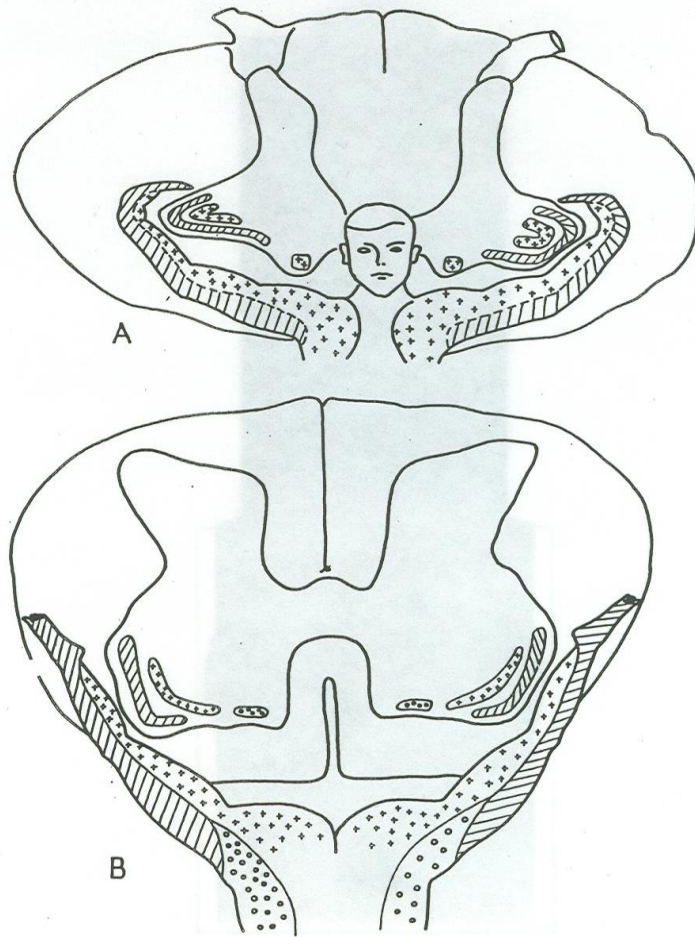


FIG. 16. — *Figure schématique faisant ressortir au niveau des renflements médullaires cervicaux et lombaires les correspondances entre les groupements de motoneurones et les muscles innervés (d'après CROSBY et coll. [4] et DELMAS [5], modifié).*



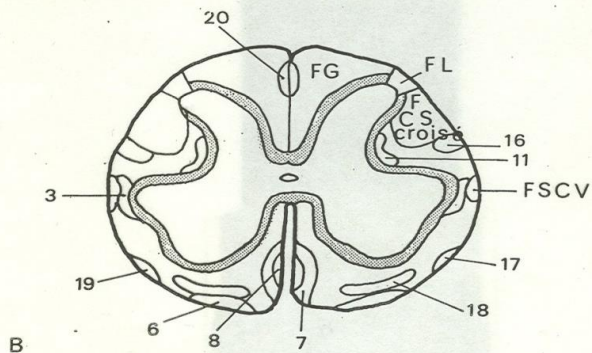
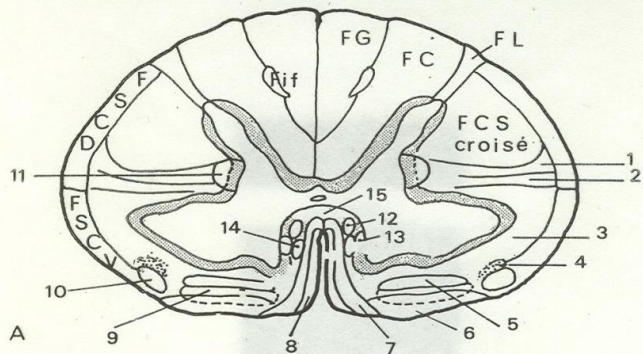
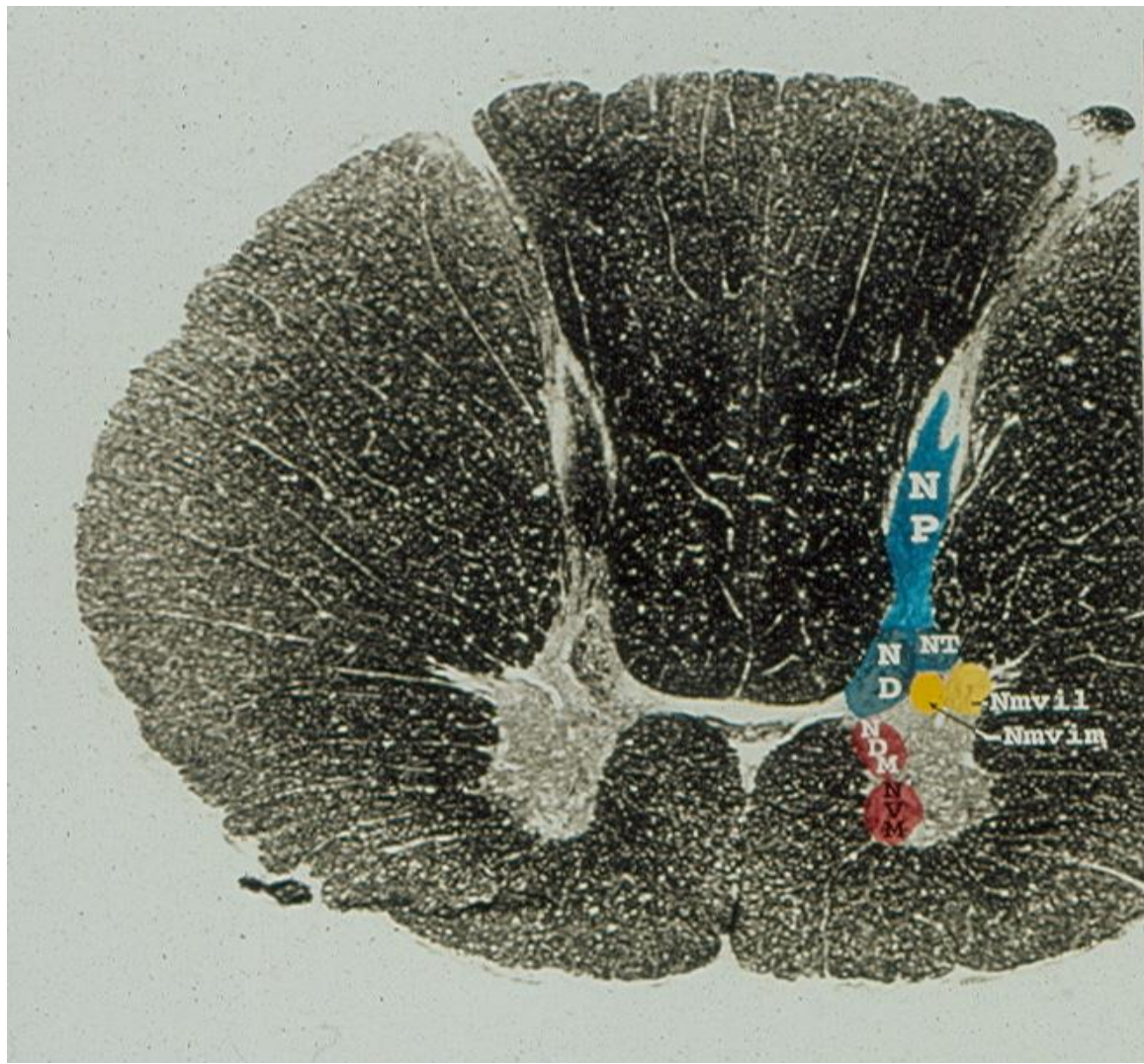


FIG. 19. — Disposition schématique des principaux faisceaux ascendants et descendants médullaires au niveau des renflements cervicaux (A) et lombaires (B) chez l'Homme (d'après CROSBY et coll. [4] légèrement modifié).

1, F. rubro-tegmento-spinal; 2, F. tecto-tegmento-spinal latéral; 3, F. spino-thalamique latéral + F. spino-tectal; 4, F. réticulo-spinal ventro-latéral; 5, F. vestibulo-spinal latéral; 6, F. spino-thalamique ventral; 7, F. cortico-spinal direct; 8, F. sulco-marginal; 9, F. réticulo-spinal ventral; 10, F. olivo-spinal + F. spino-olivaire; 11, F. réticulo-spinal latéral; 12, F. longitudinal médian; 13, F. réticulo-spinal médian; 14, F. tecto-spinal médian; 15, commissure blanche ventrale; 16, F. tegmento-spinal; 17, F. cérébello-spinal; 18, F. vestibulo-spinal latéral; 19, F. spino-olivaire; 20, F. septo-marginal; F. G., F. gracilis (de Goll); F. C., F. cunéiforme (de Burdach); F. C. S. croisé, F. cortico-spinal croisé; F. L., F. de Lissauer; F. S. C. V., F. spino-cérébelleux ventral; F. S. C. D., F. spino-cérébelleux dorsal + F. spino-vestibulaire; F. i. f., F. interfasciculaire. La bande pointillée entourant la moelle grise correspond à la localisation de l'ensemble des voies propriospinales.

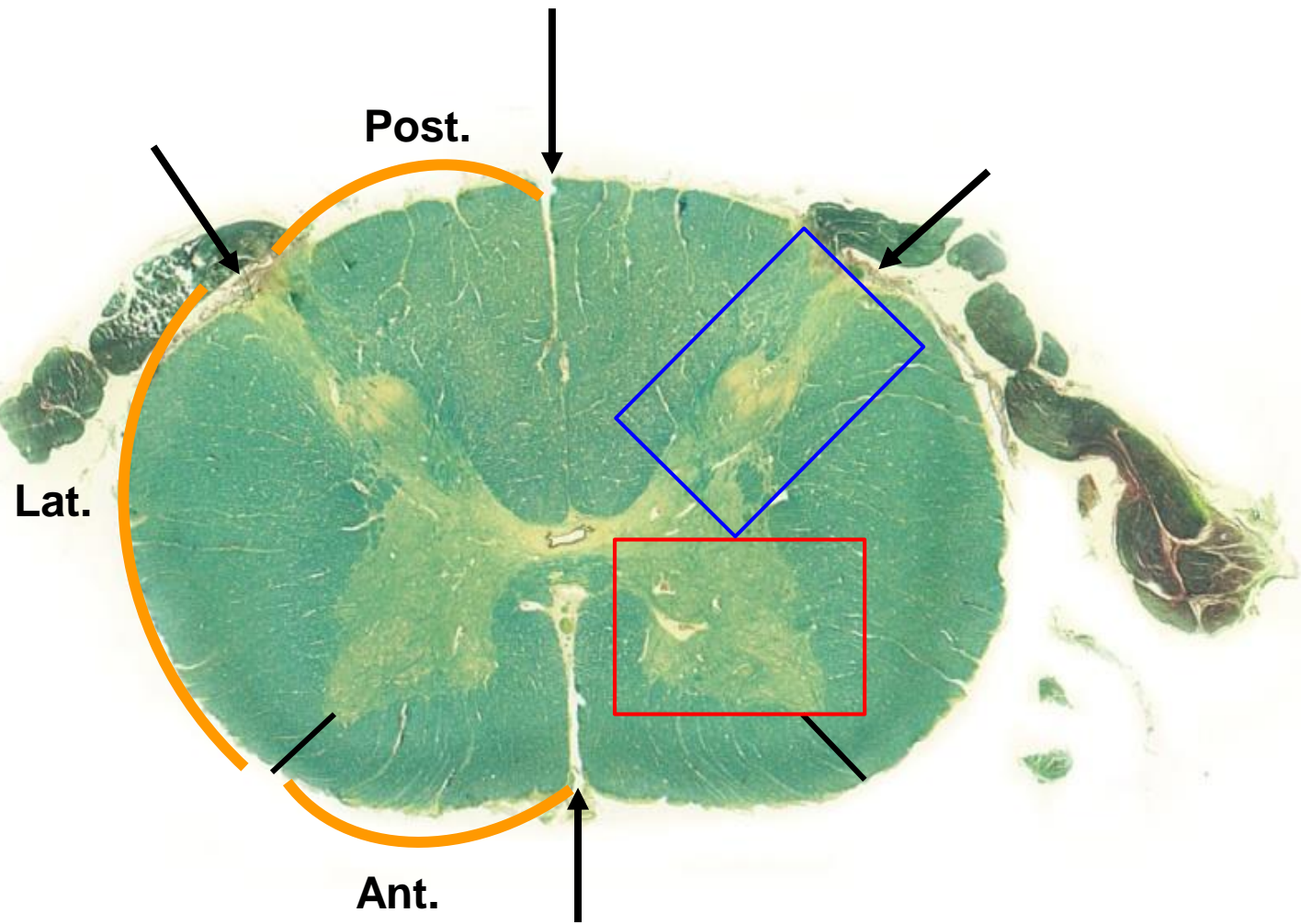


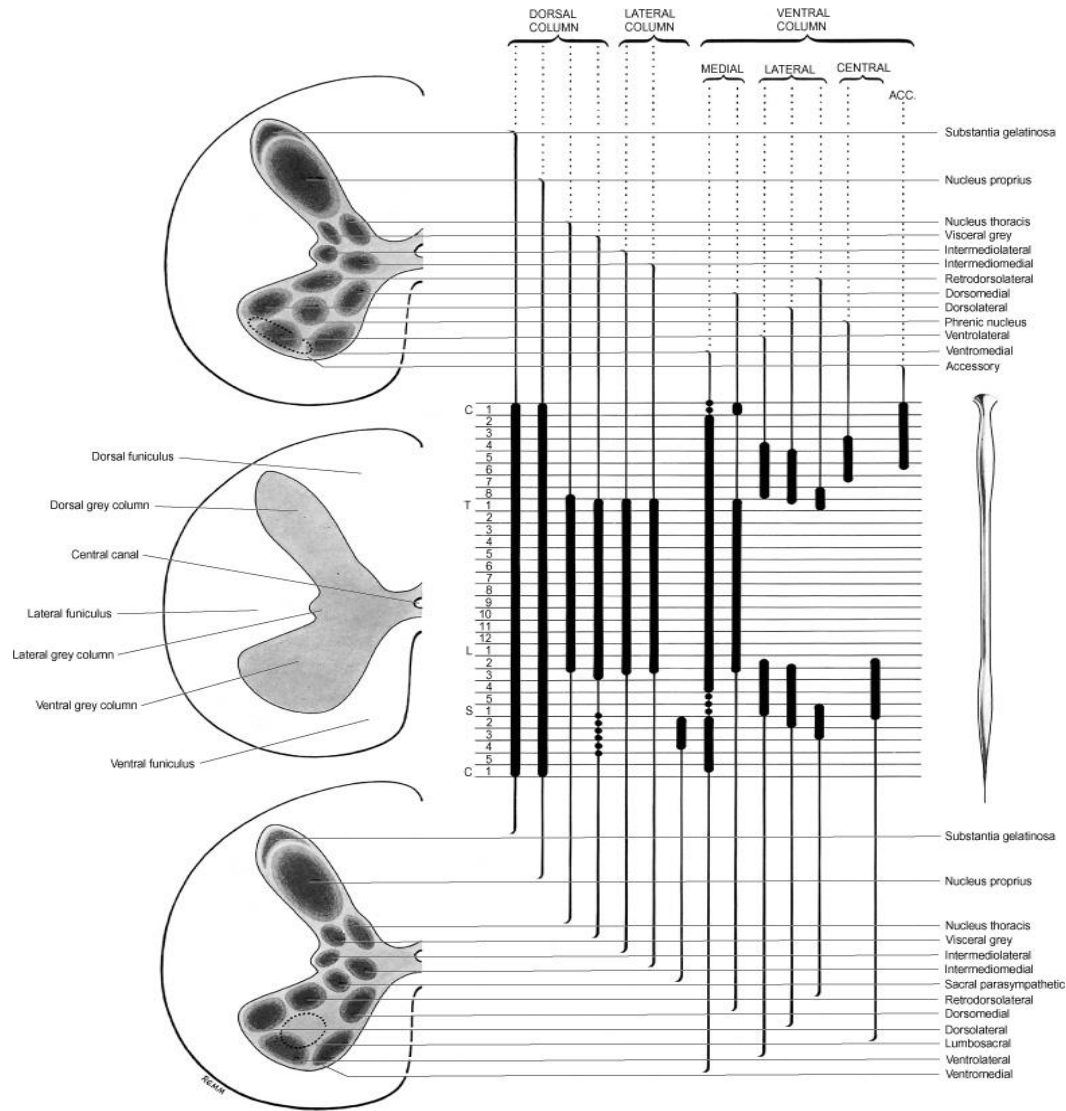


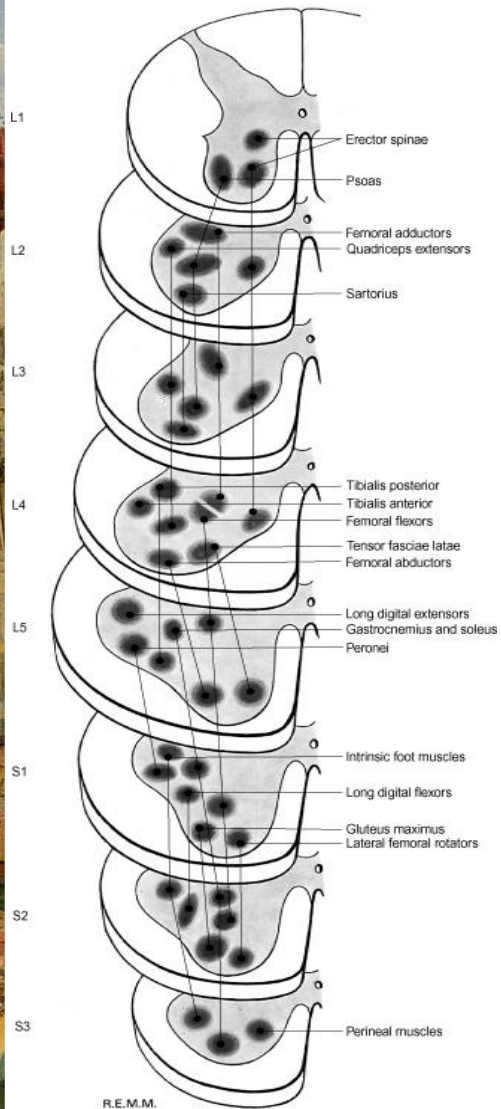




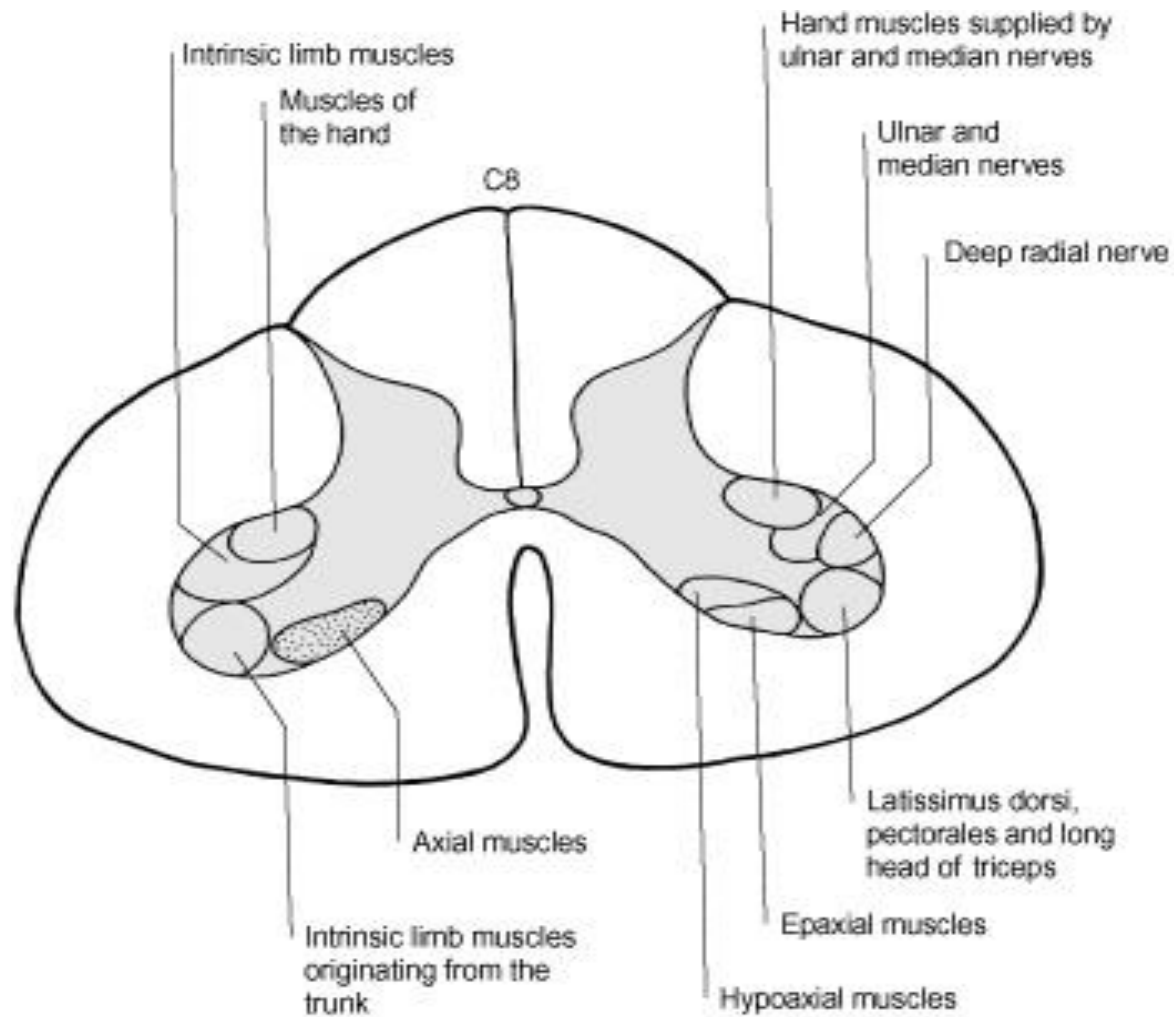






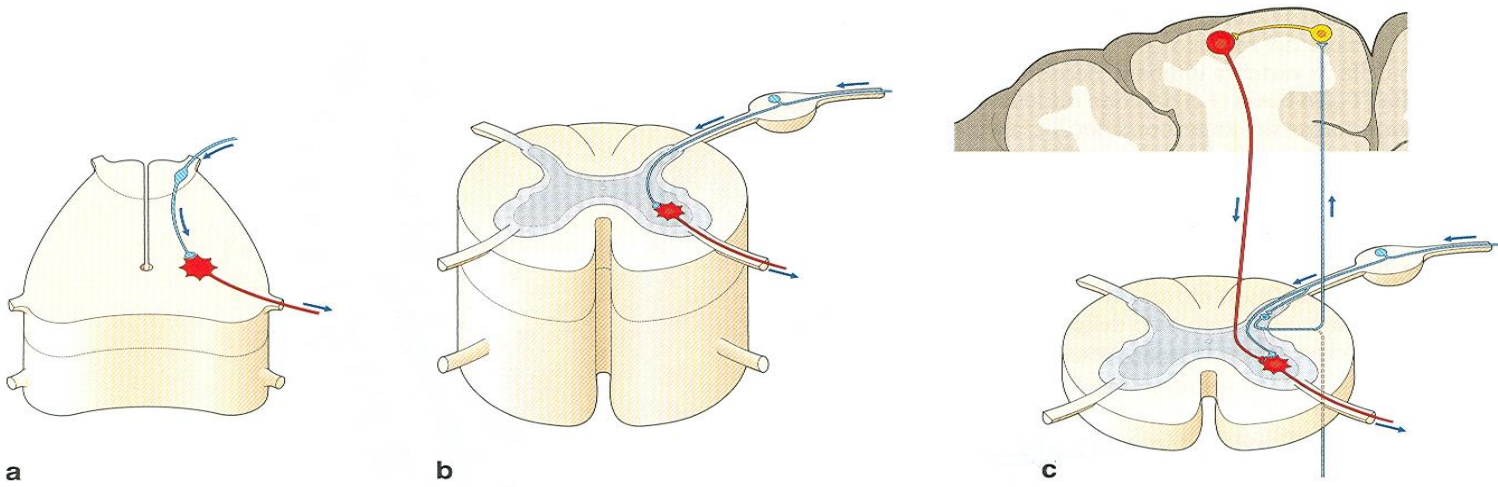






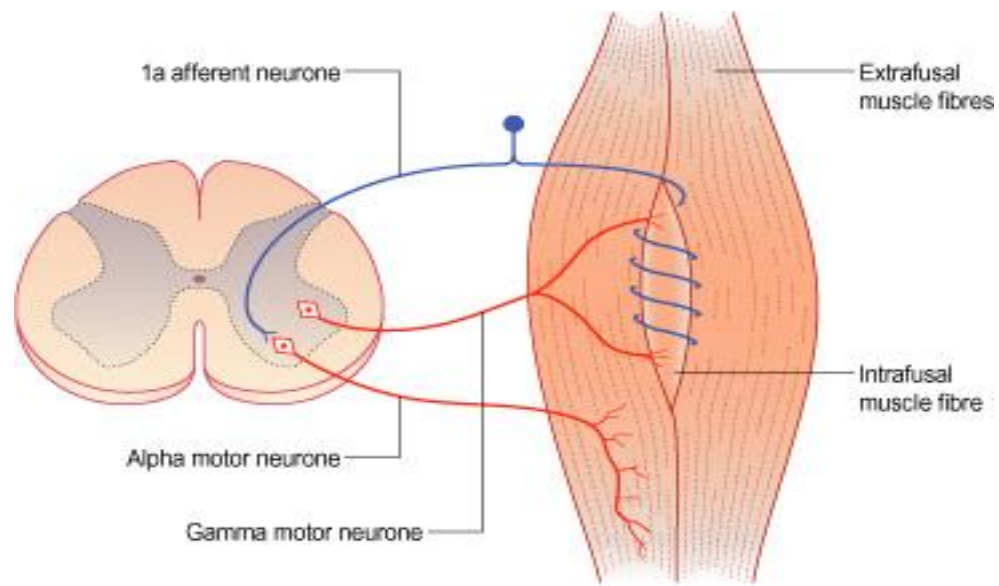


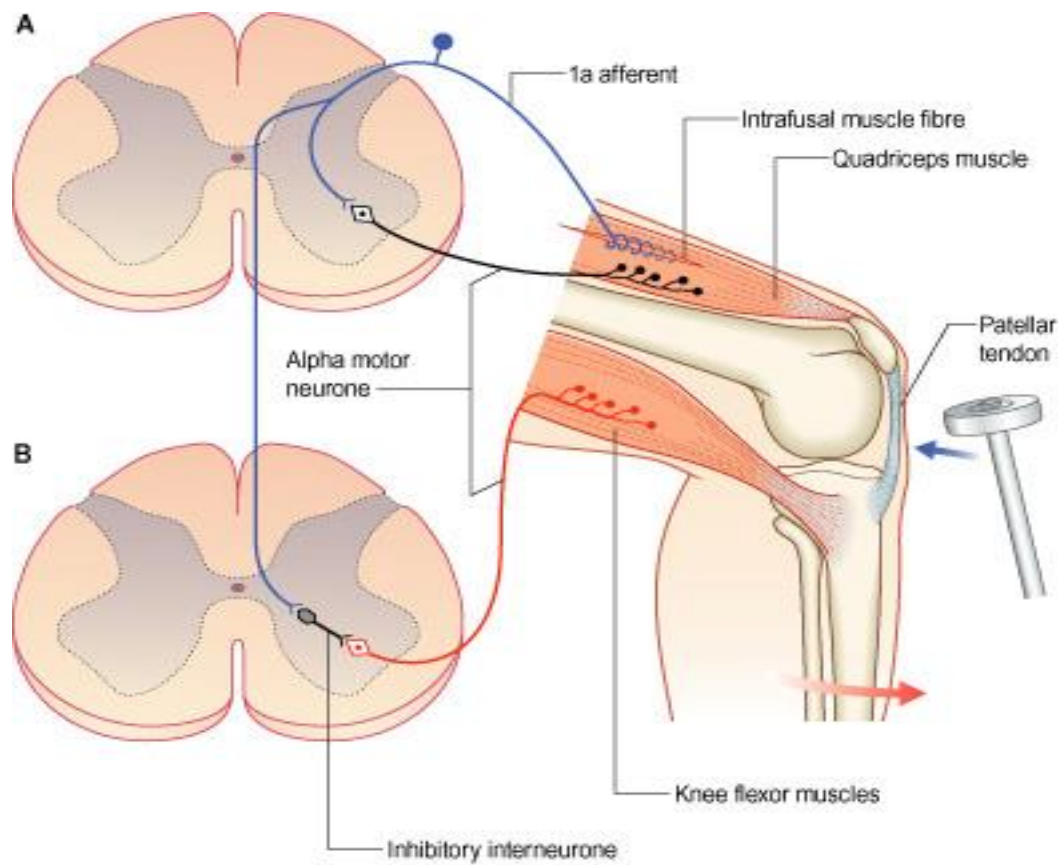
L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	S1	S2	S3
	Iliopsoas						
	Sartorius						
	Pectineus						
	Gracilis						
	Add. longus						
	Add. brevis						
	Adductor magnus						
	Quadriceps femoris						
	Obt. ext.						
	Tib. ant.						
	Tib. post.						
	Ten. fas. lata						
	Glut. med. & min.						
	Semimembranosus						
	Semitendinosus						
	Ext. hall. l.						
	Ext. dig. l.						
	Per. tert.						
	Per. brevis						
	Per. longus						
	Lat. hip. rot						
	Gastrocn.						
	Soleus & plant.						
	Biceps femoris						
	Gluteus max.						
	Flex. hall. L&B						
	Flex. dig. L&B						
	Foot intrinsic						

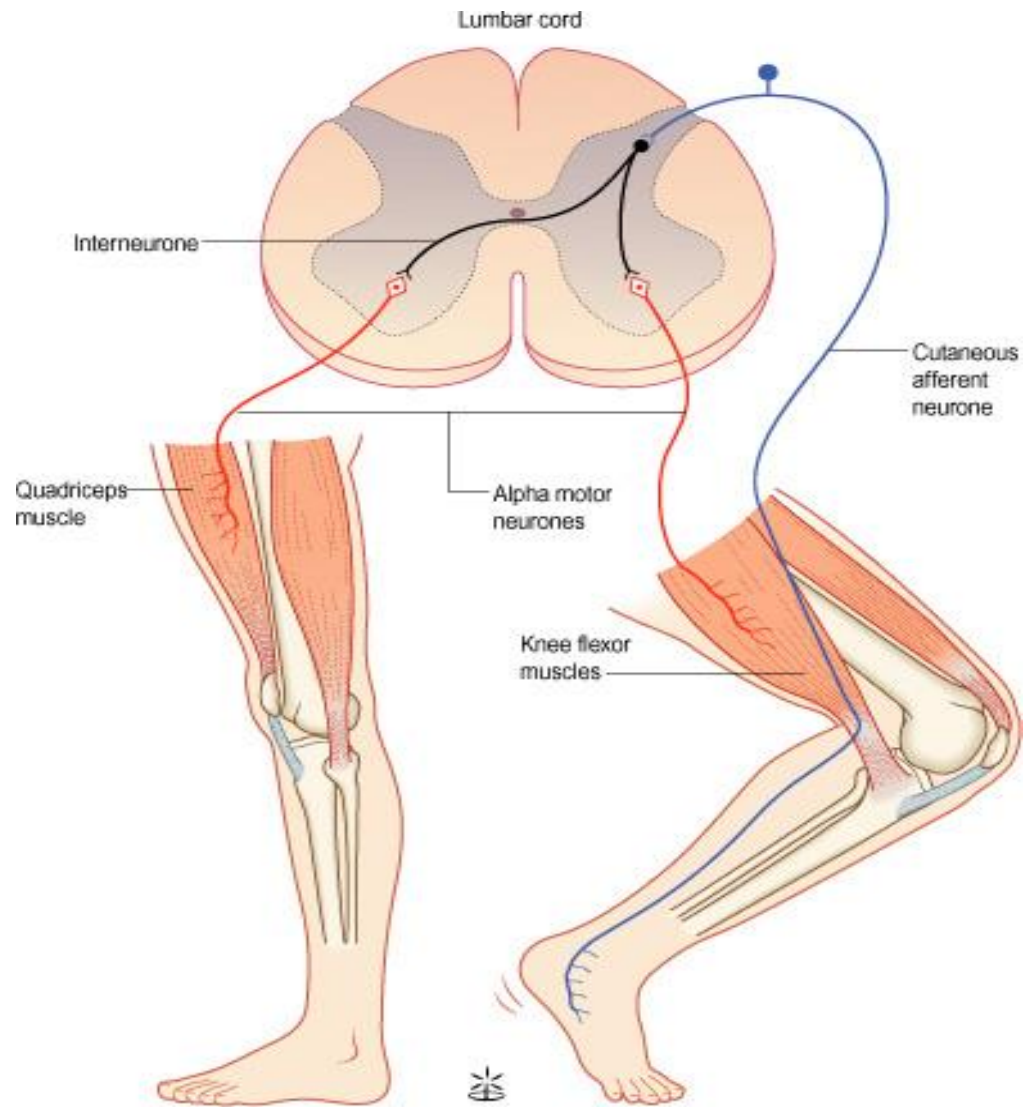


**Figura 14.30** - Rappresentazione schematica dei rapporti che si stabiliscono tra neuroni sensitivi (**blu**) e neuroni di moto (**rosso**) in organizzazioni nervose centralizzate. **a**, Nei Cefalocordati, gli elementi sensitivi e quelli effettori sono localizzati nell'asse nervoso; **b**, nei Vertebrati, il protoneurone sensitivo ha sede al di fuori del nevrasso, in formazioni chiamate gangli; **c**, archi riflessi orizzontali a disposizione segmentaria e archi verticali in cui si riconoscono linee di collegamento ascendenti e discendenti.





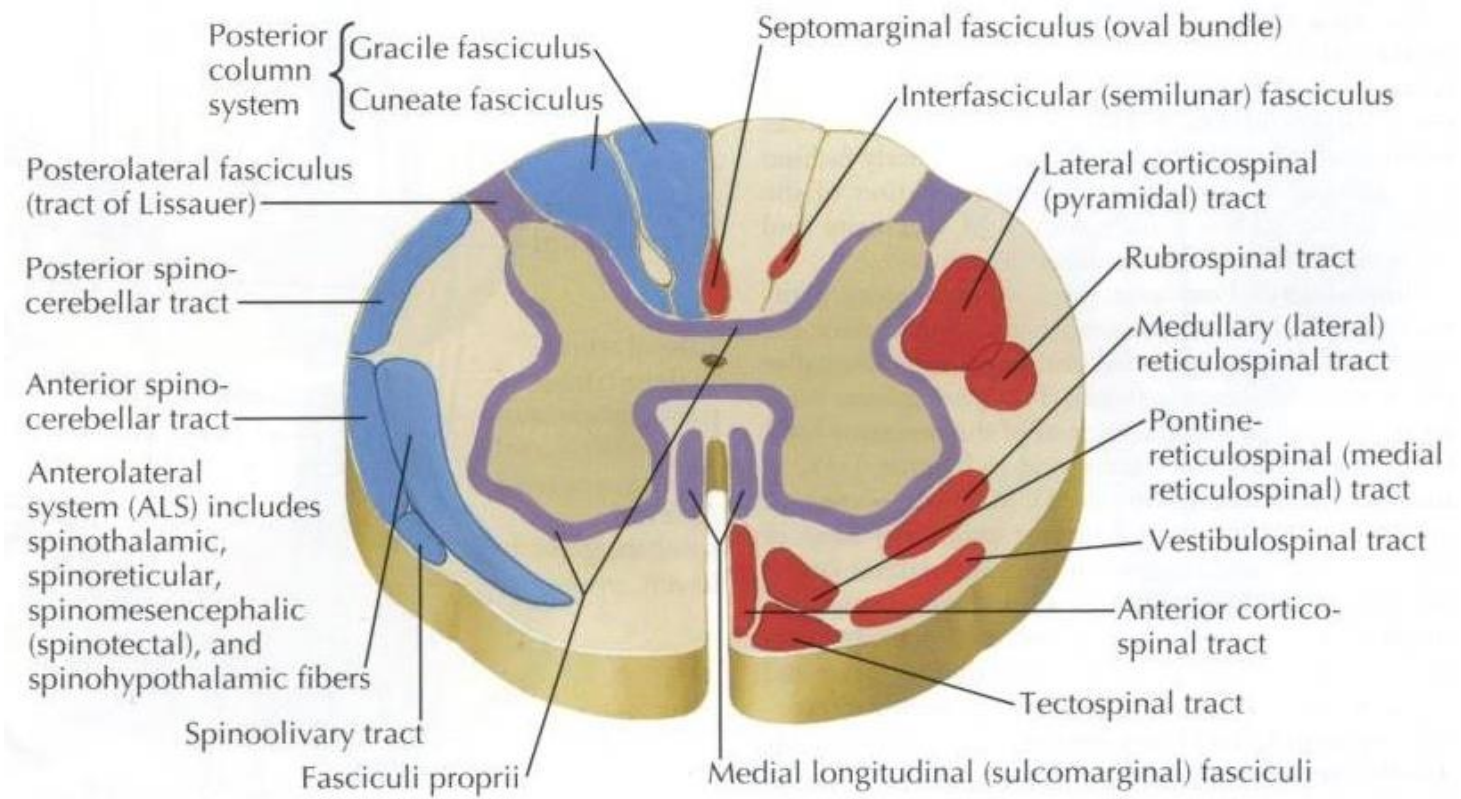


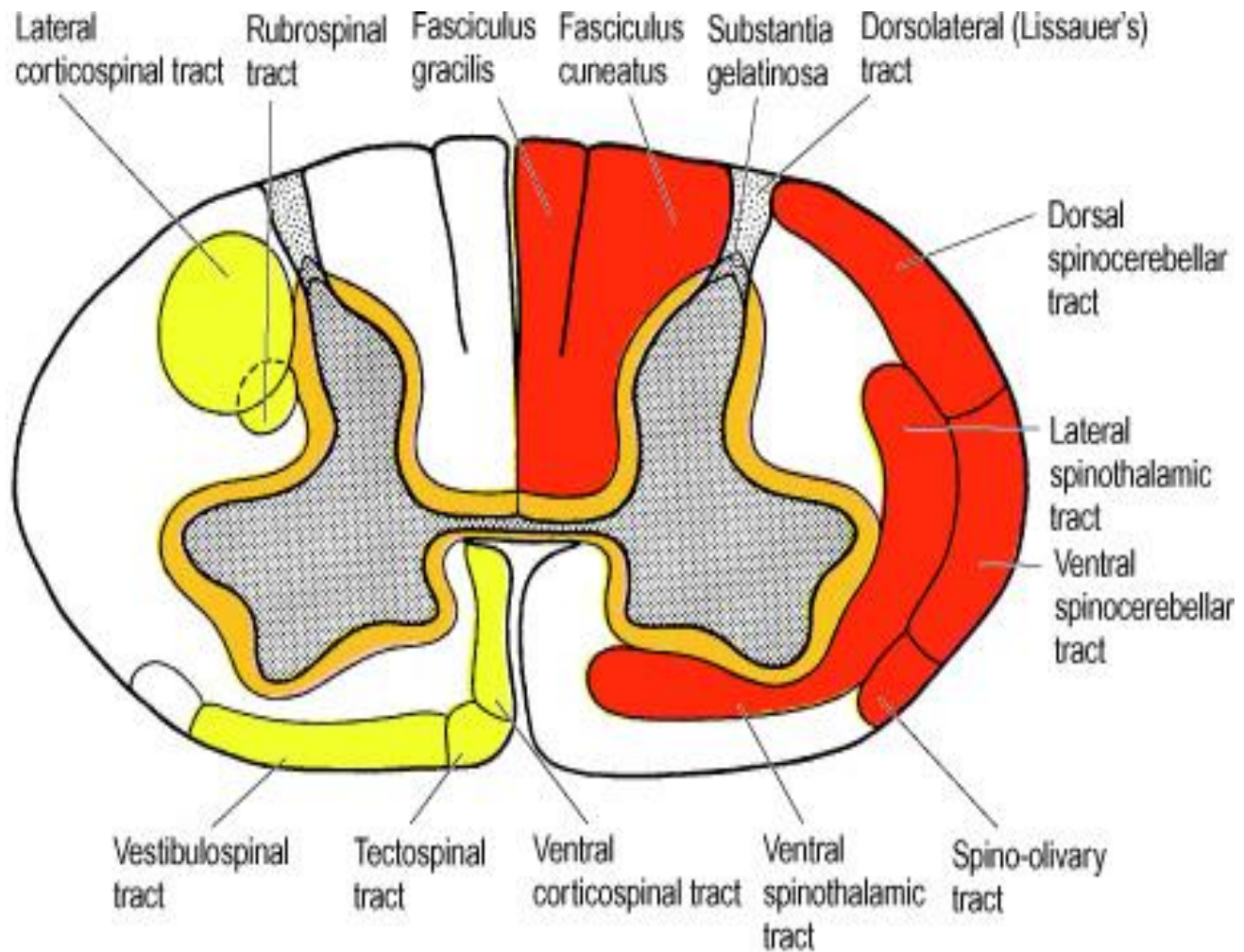


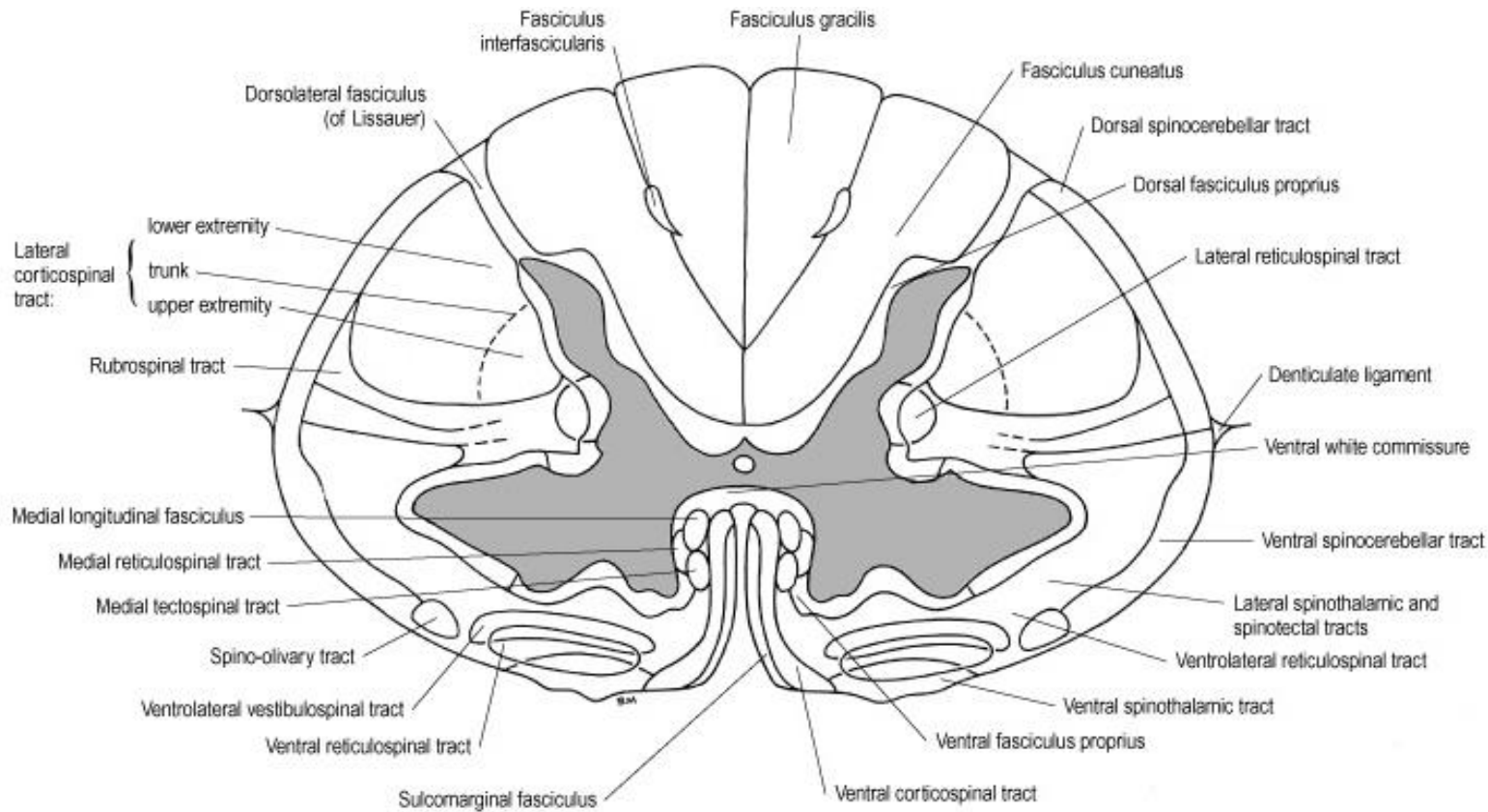




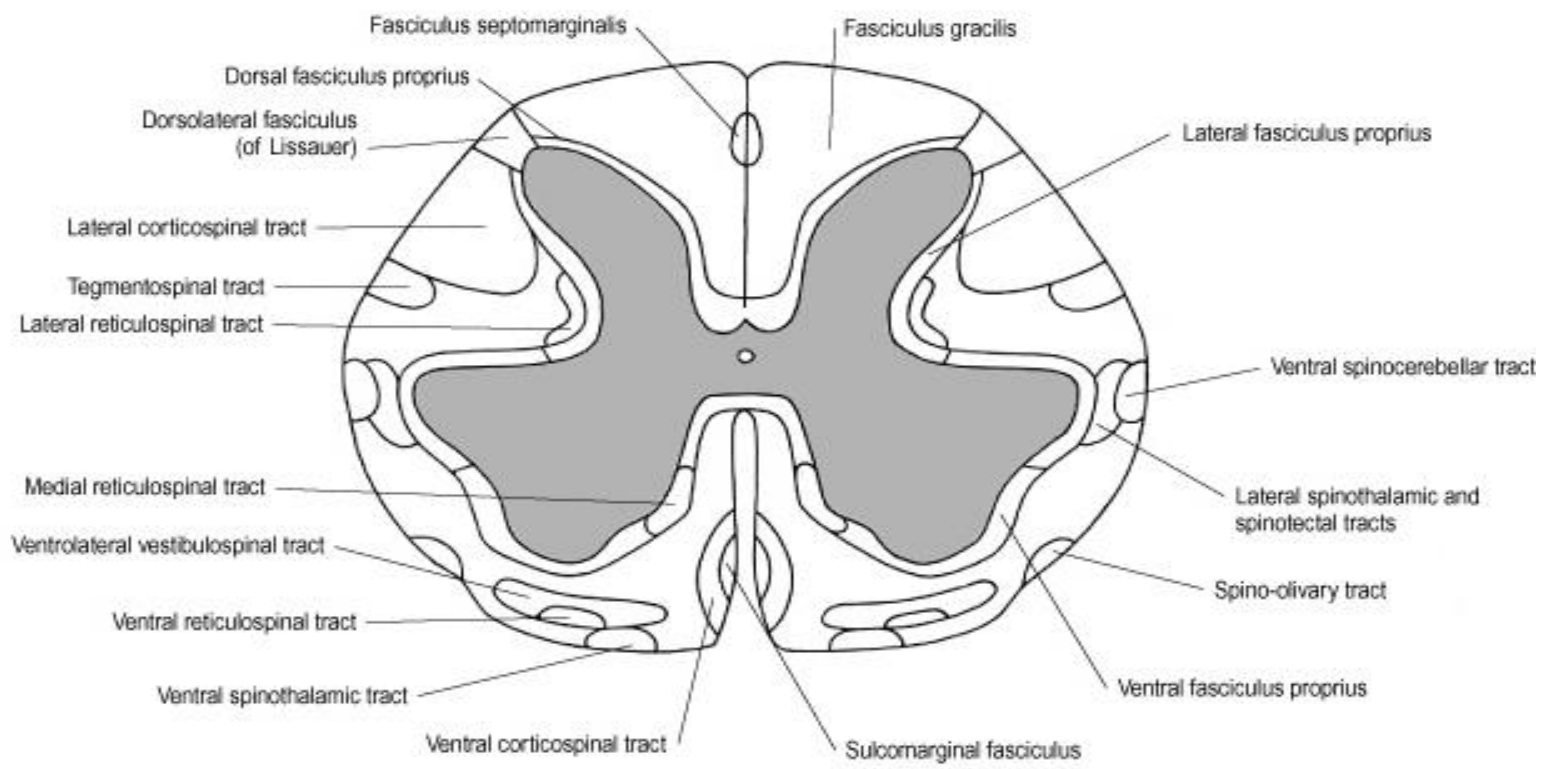
- Ascending pathways
- Descending pathways
- Fibers passing in both directions

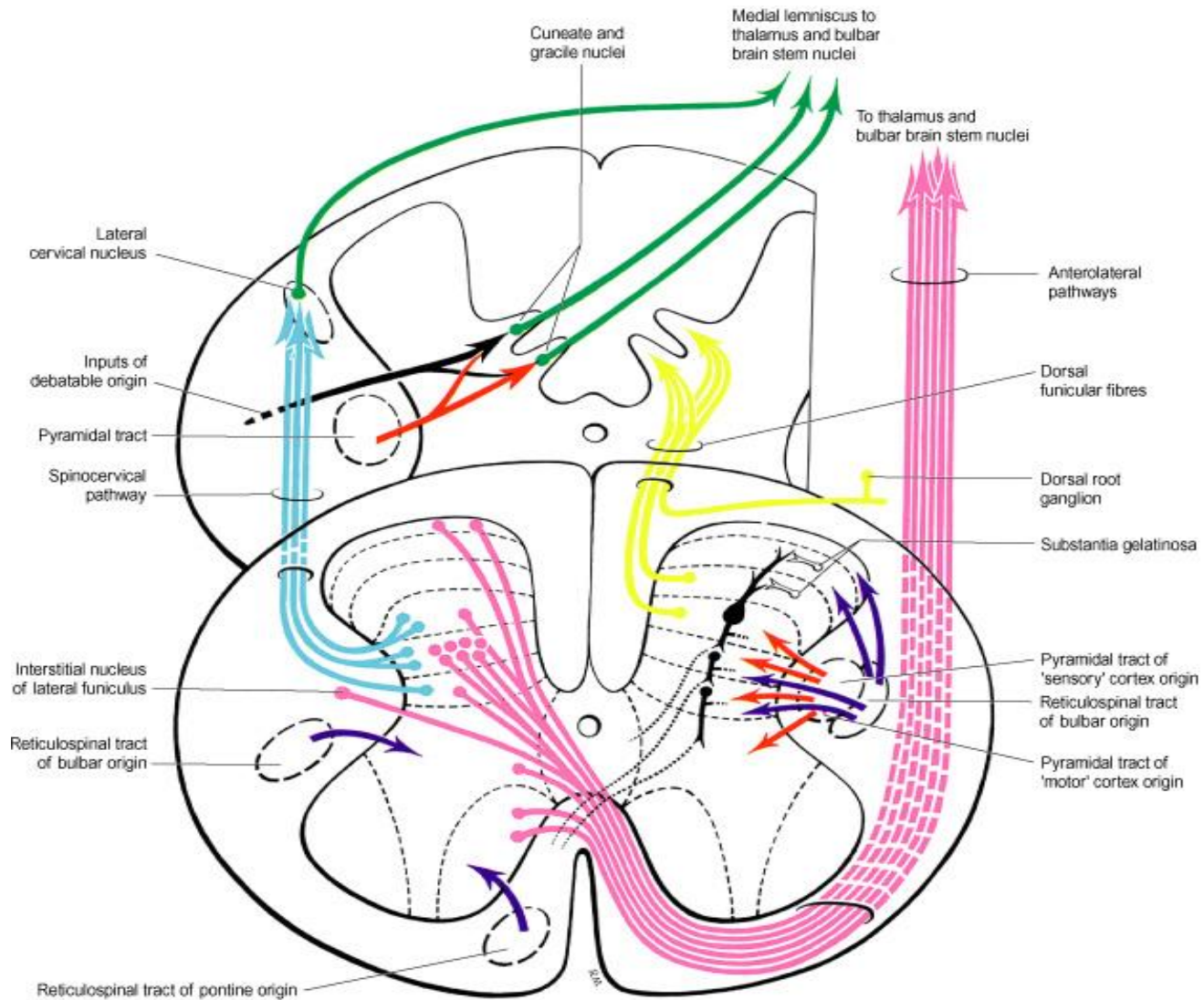














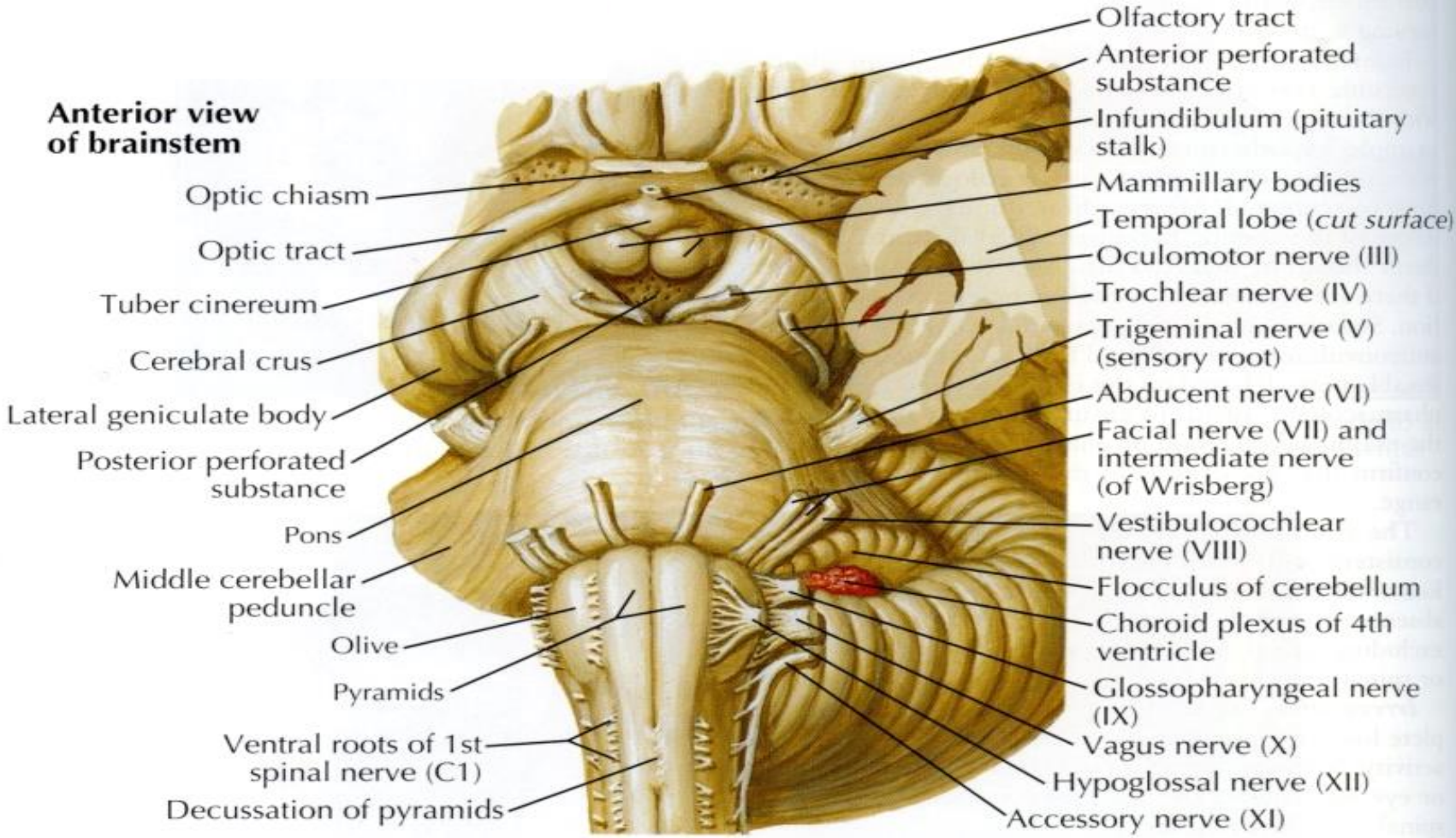


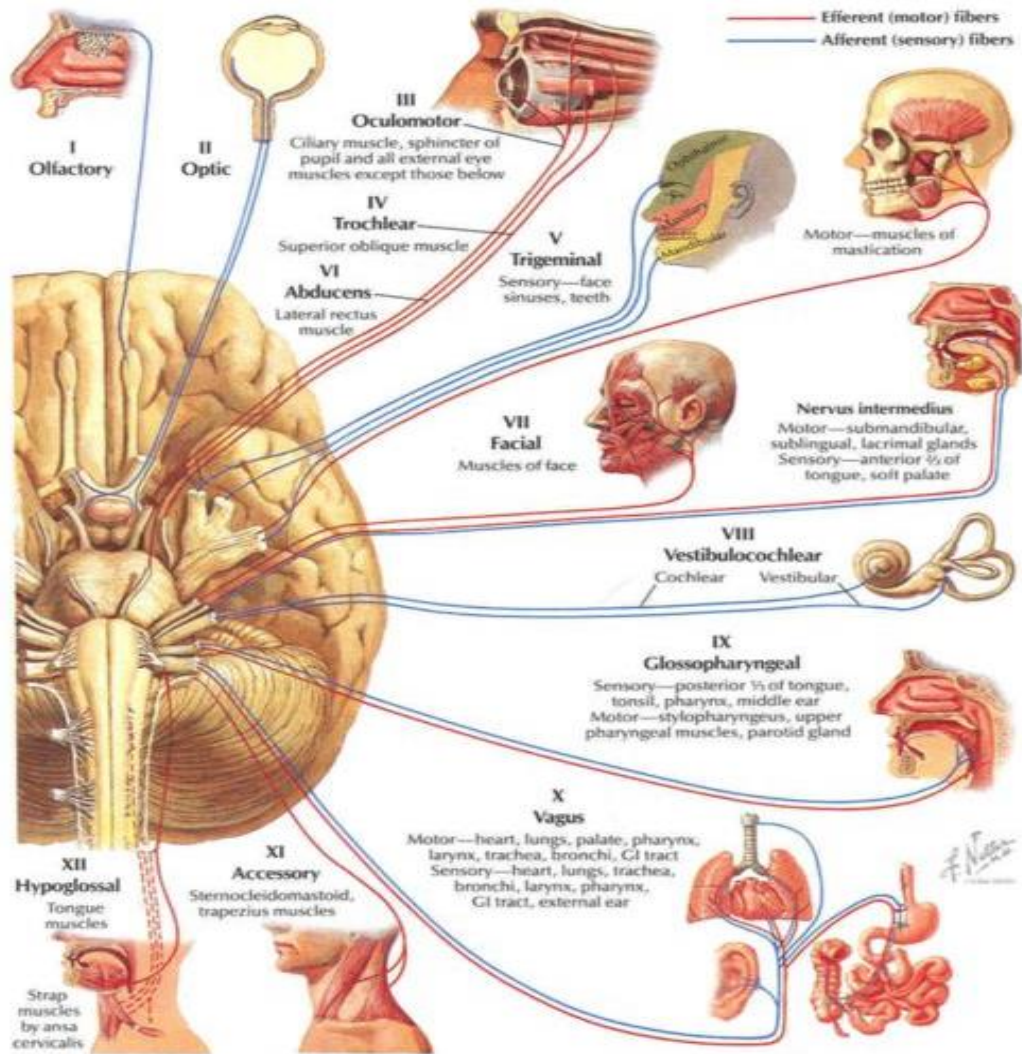
# The Brainstem

V. Van Gogh – Mulberry Tree

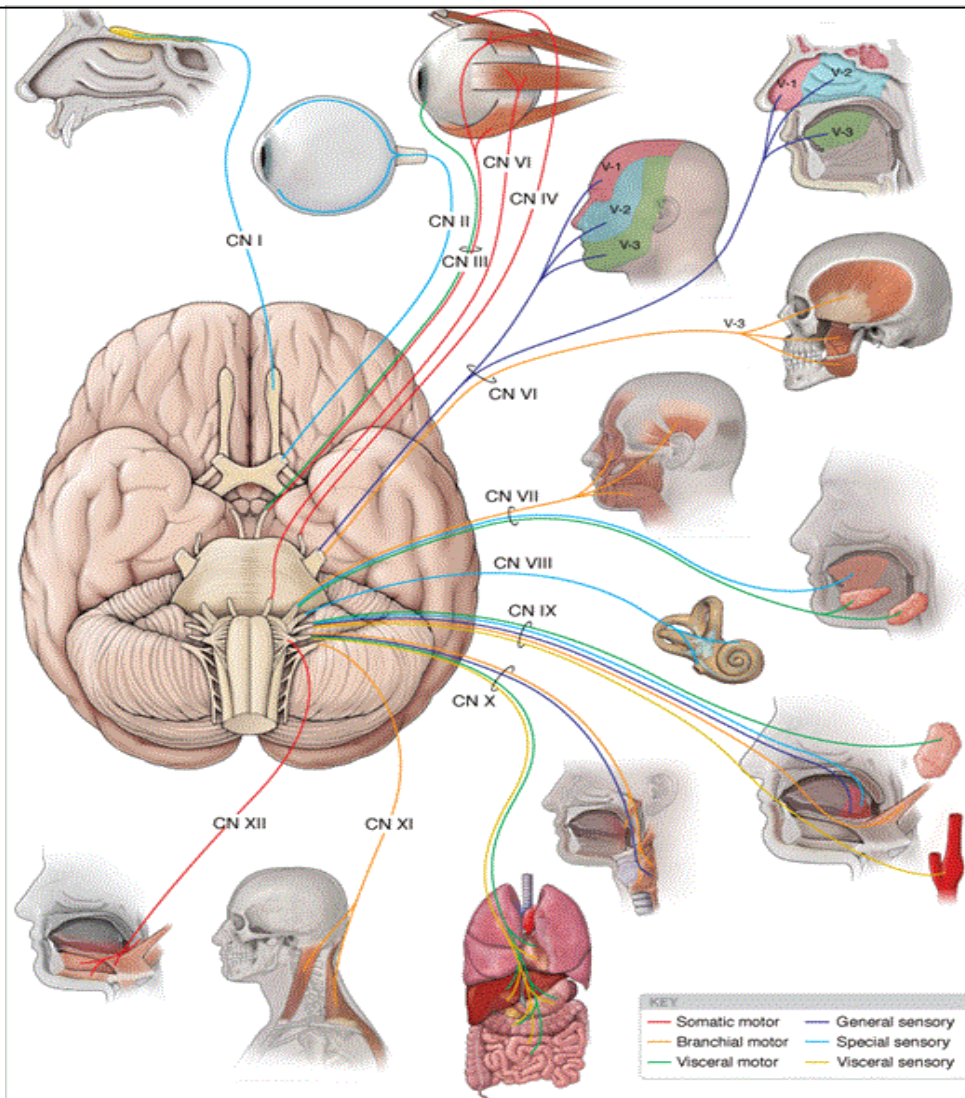


**Anterior view  
of brainstem**



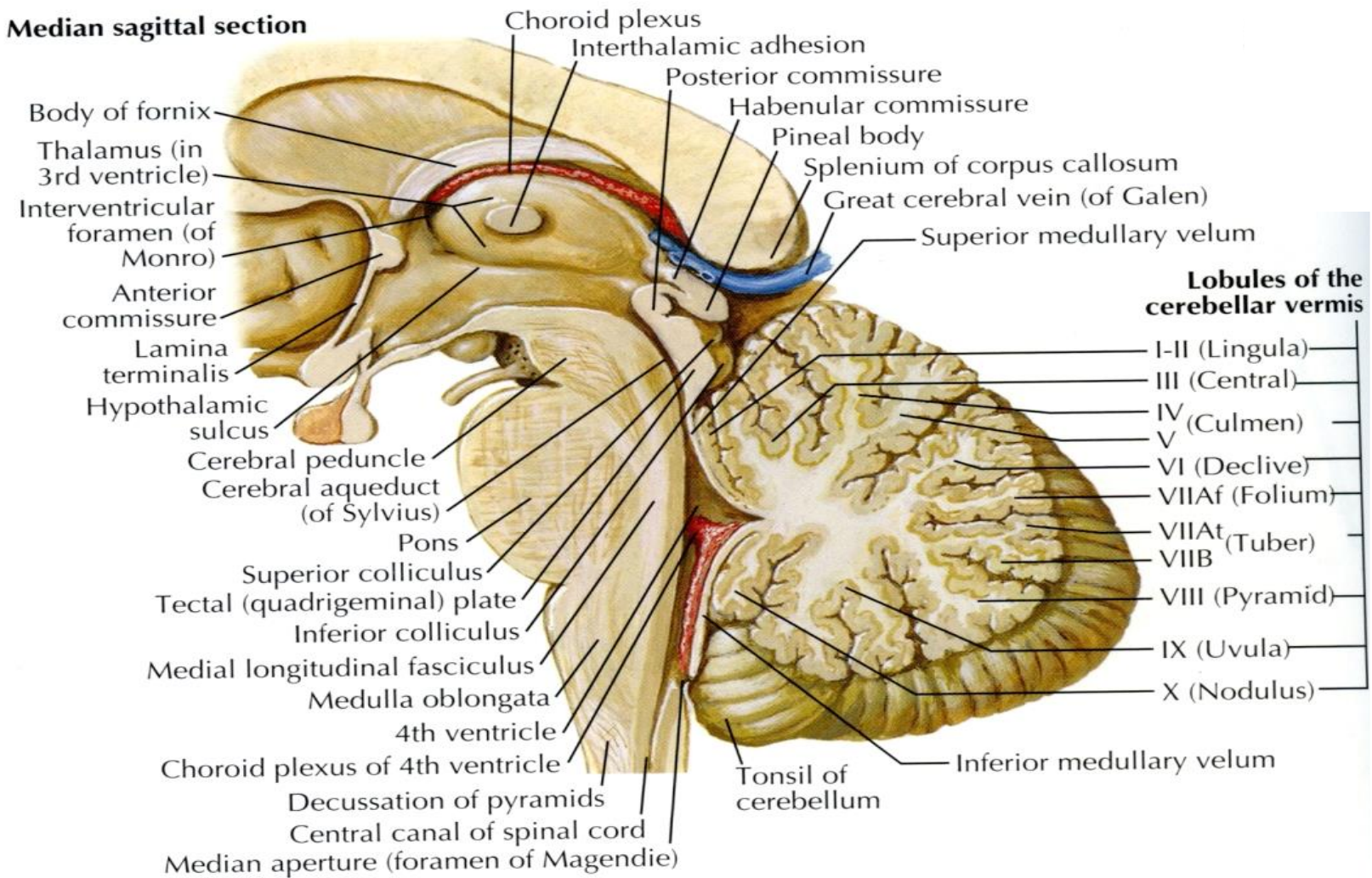








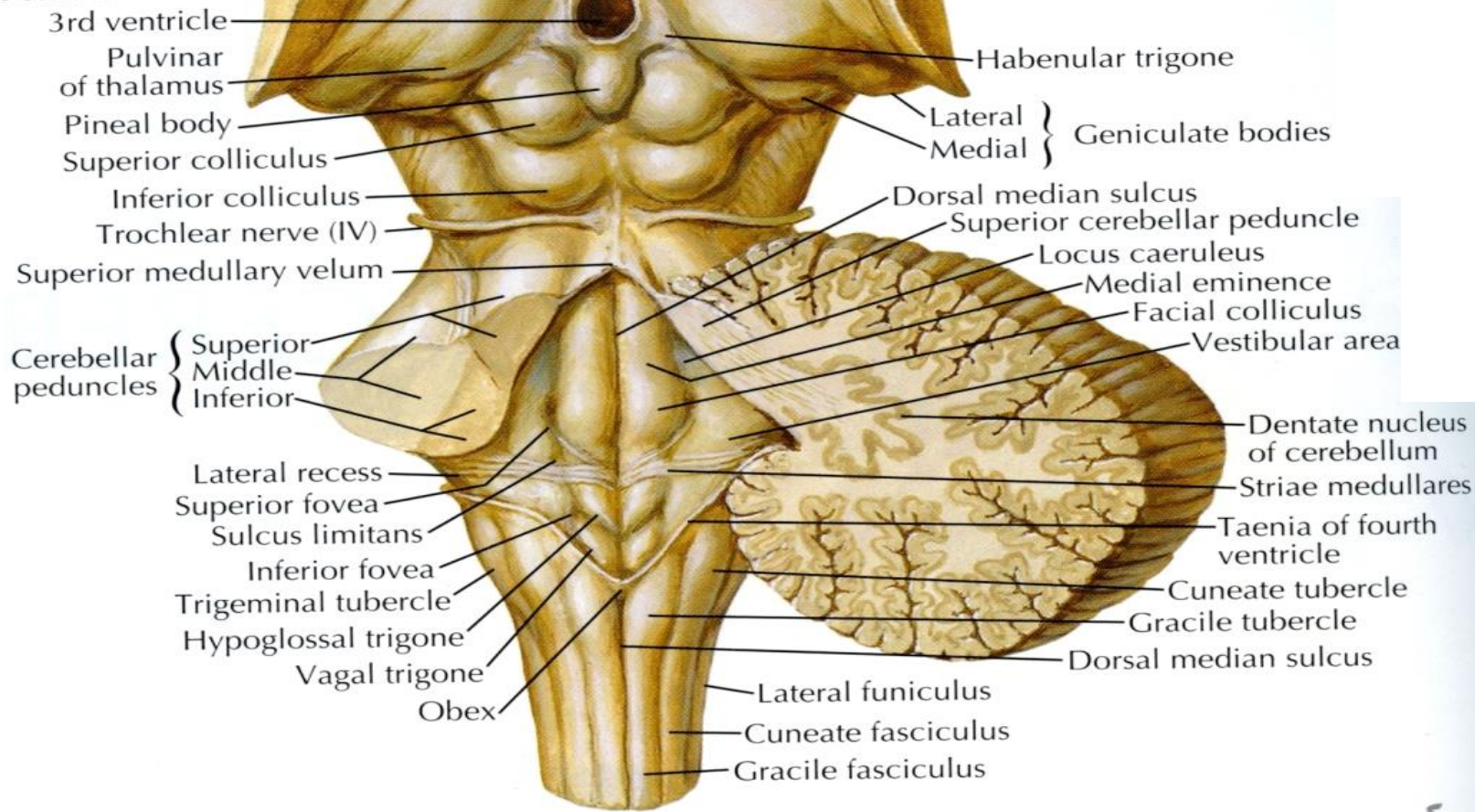
**Median sagittal section**



**Lobules of the cerebellar vermis**

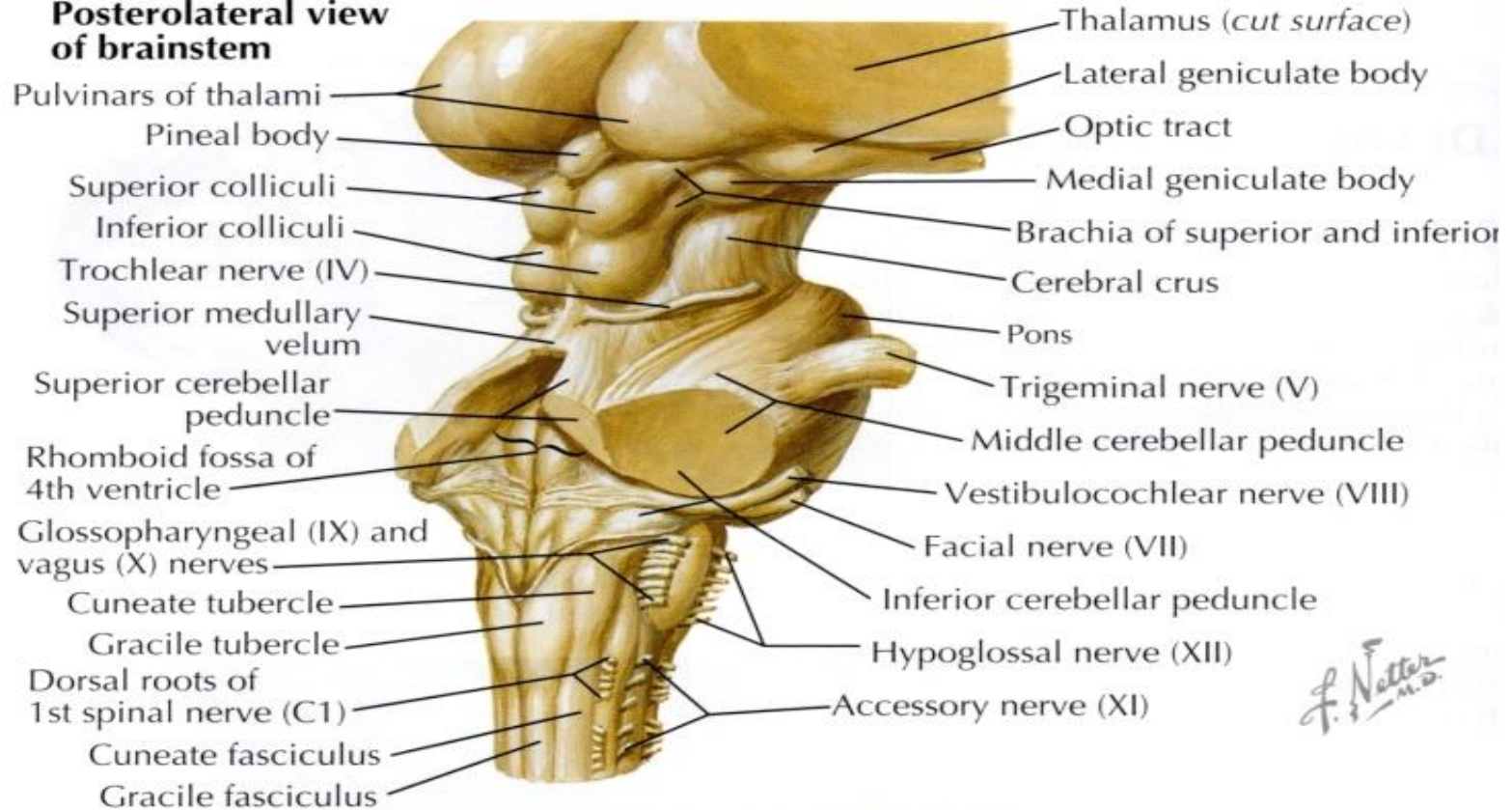
- I-II (Lingula)
- III (Central)
- IV (Culmen)
- V (Declive)
- VI (Declive)
- VIIA (Folium)
- VIIAt (Tuber)
- VIIIB
- VIII (Pyramid)
- IX (Uvula)
- X (Nodulus)

**Posterior view**



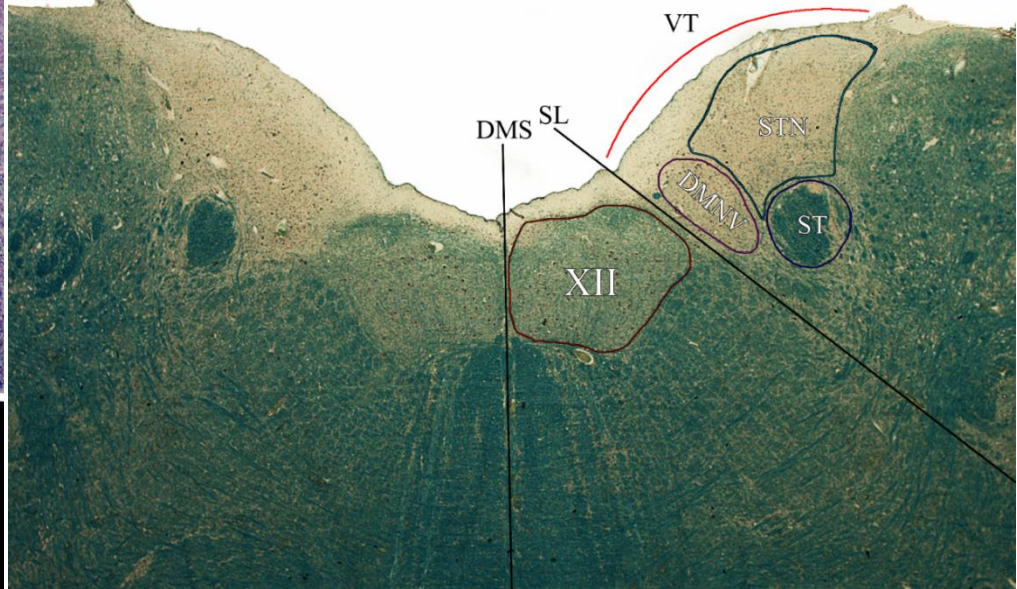
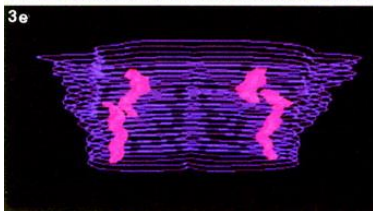
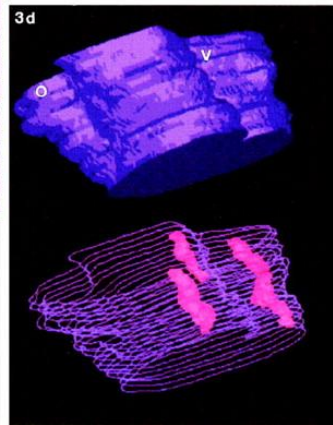
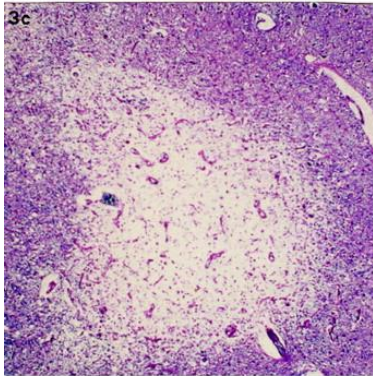
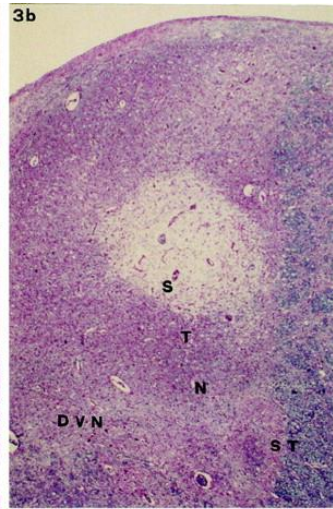
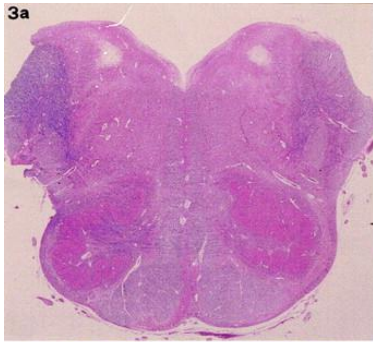


**Posterolateral view  
of brainstem**



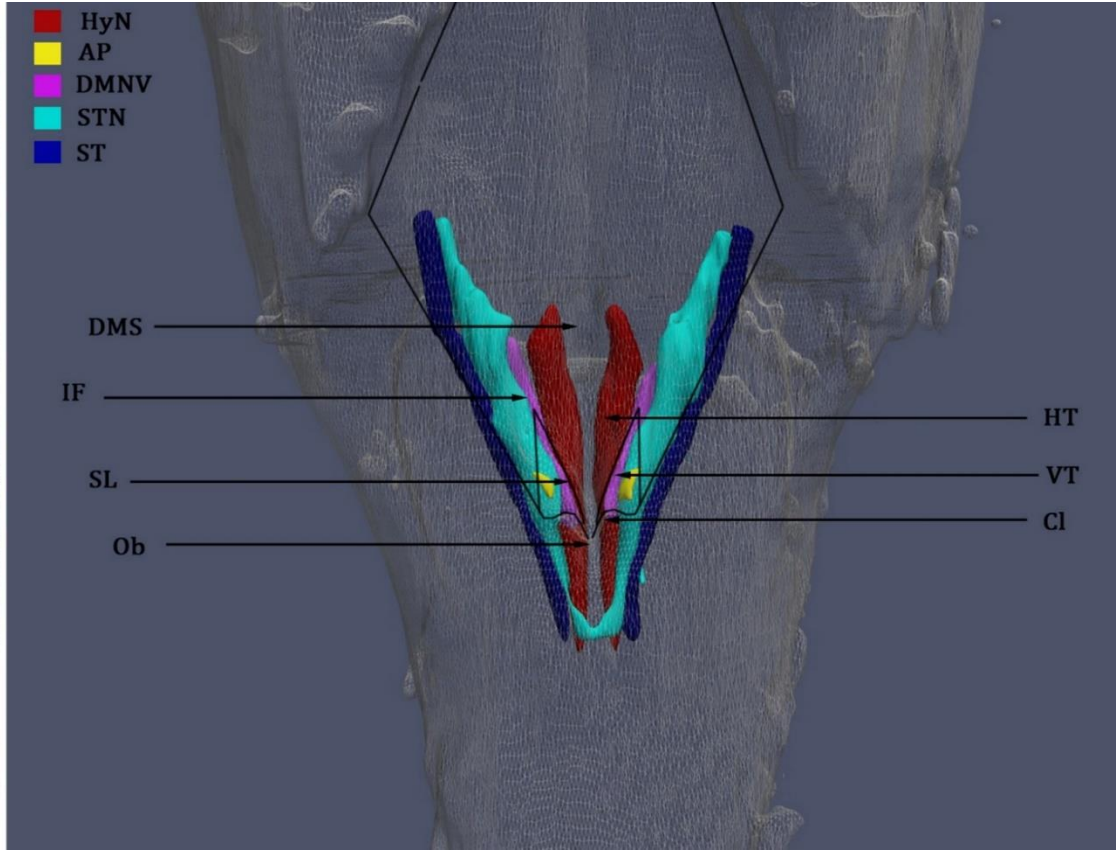
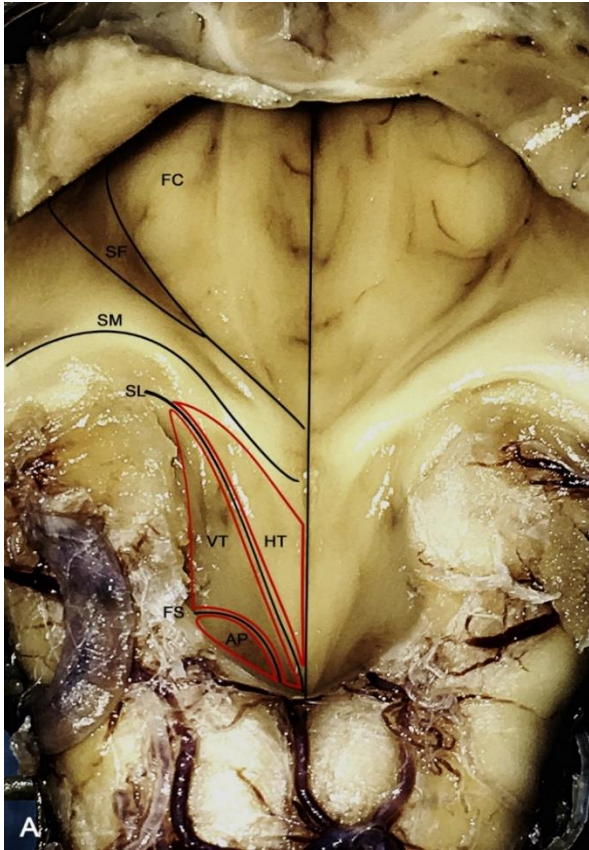
*F. Netter M.D.*





De Caro et al., 2000  
Emmi et al., 2020

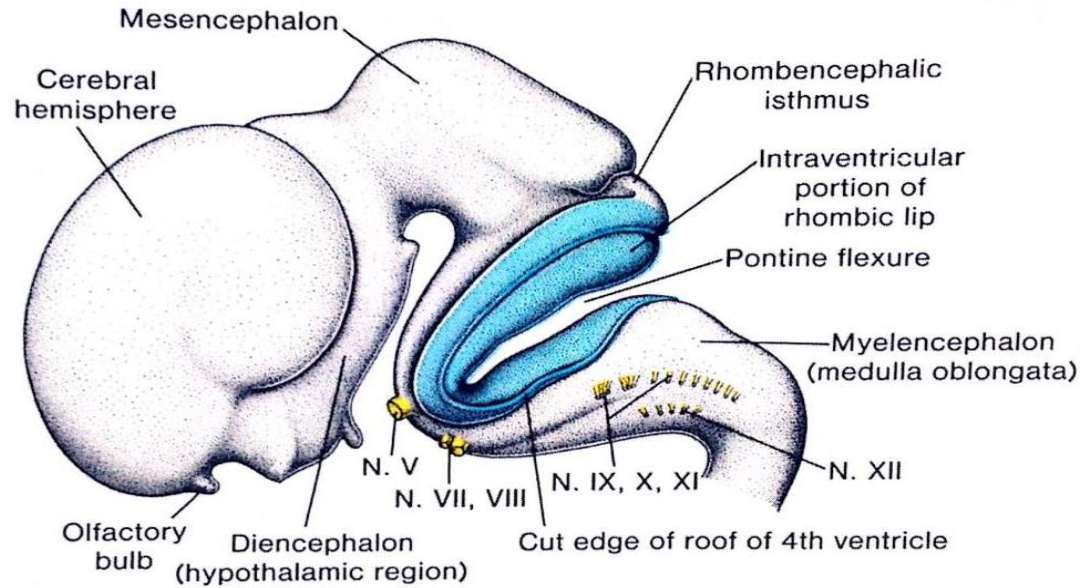




**3D Reconstruction of the Morpho-Functional Topography of the Human Vagal Trigone**

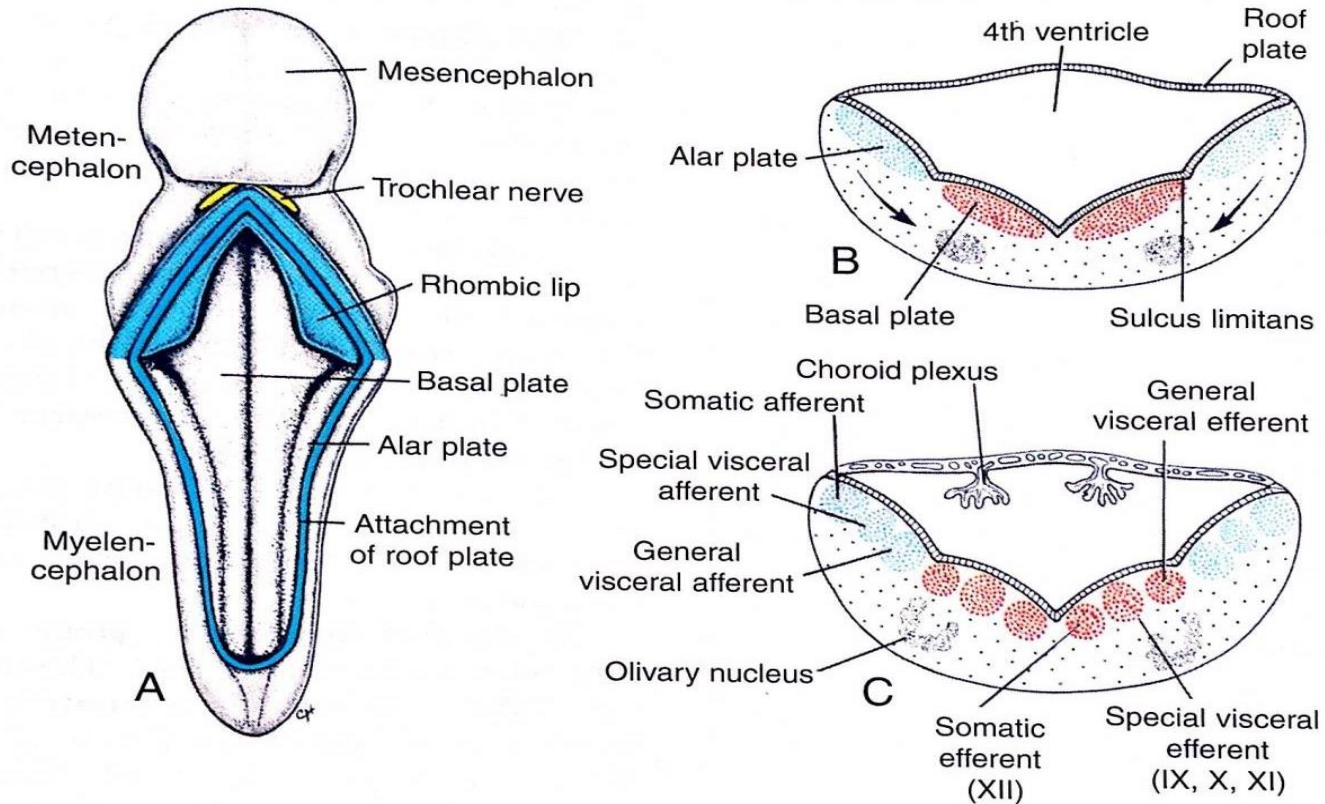
Aron Emmi<sup>†</sup>, Andrea Porzionato<sup>†</sup>, Martina Contran, Enrico De Rose, Veronica Macchi<sup>\*</sup> and Raffaele De Caro

Department of Neuroscience, Institute of Human Anatomy, University of Padua, Padua, Italy

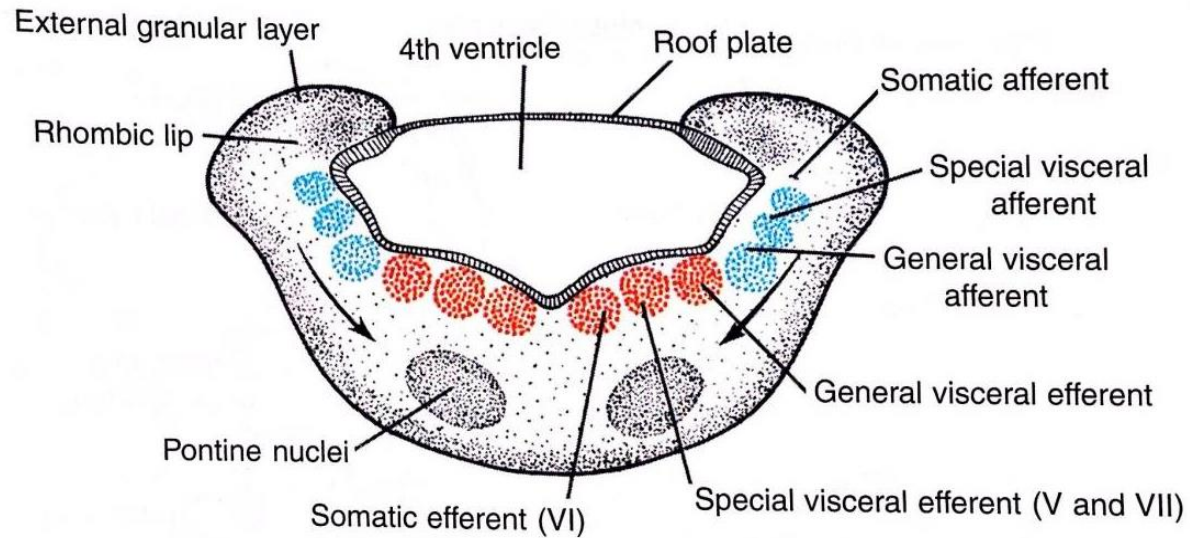


**Figure 17.17** Lateral view of the brain vesicles in an 8-week embryo (crown-rump length ~27 mm). The roof plate of the rhombencephalon has been removed to show the intraventricular portion of the rhombic lip. Note the origin of the cranial nerves.



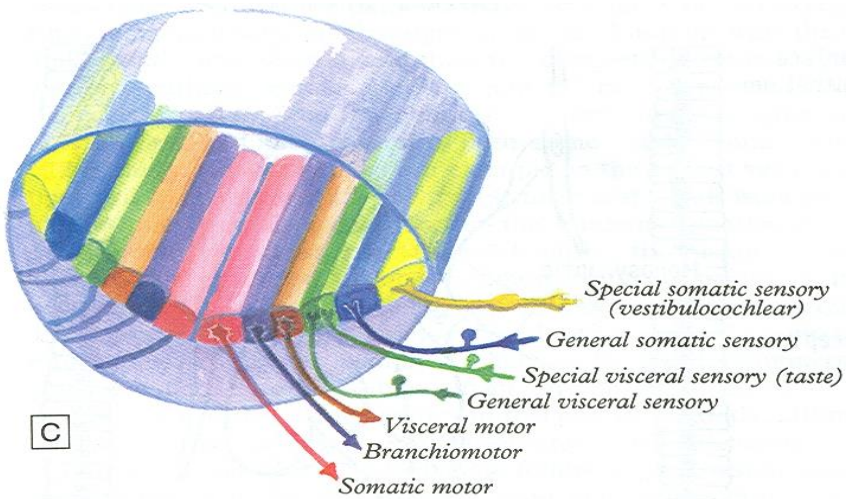


**Figure 17.18** **A.** Dorsal view of the floor of the fourth ventricle in a 6-week embryo after removal of the roof plate. Note the alar and basal plates in the myelencephalon. The rhombic lip is visible in the metencephalon. **B,C.** Position and differentiation of the basal and alar plates of the myelencephalon at different stages of development. Arrows, path followed by cells of the alar plate to the olivary nuclear complex. The choroid plexus produces cerebrospinal fluid.

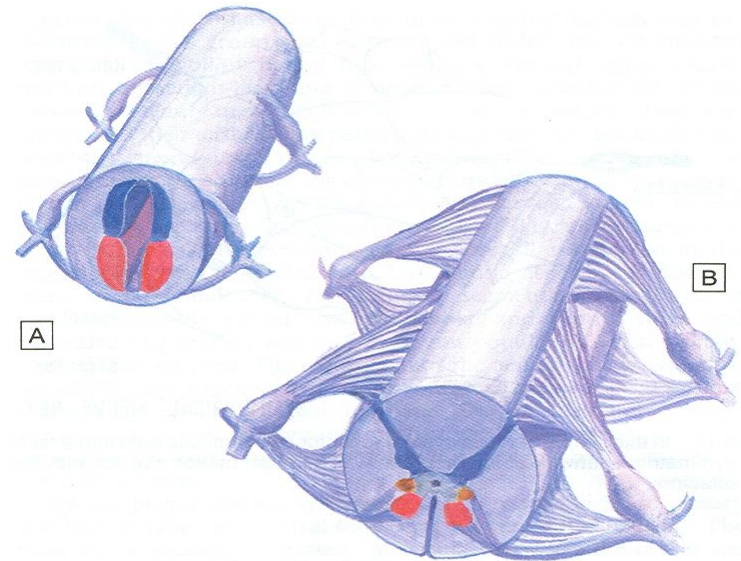


**Figure 17.19** Transverse section through the caudal part of the metencephalon. Note the differentiation of the various motor and sensory nuclear areas in the basal and alar plates, respectively, and the position of the rhombic lips, which project partly into the lumen of the fourth ventricle and partly above the attachment of the roof plate. *Arrows*, direction of migration of the pontine nuclei.





C



A

B

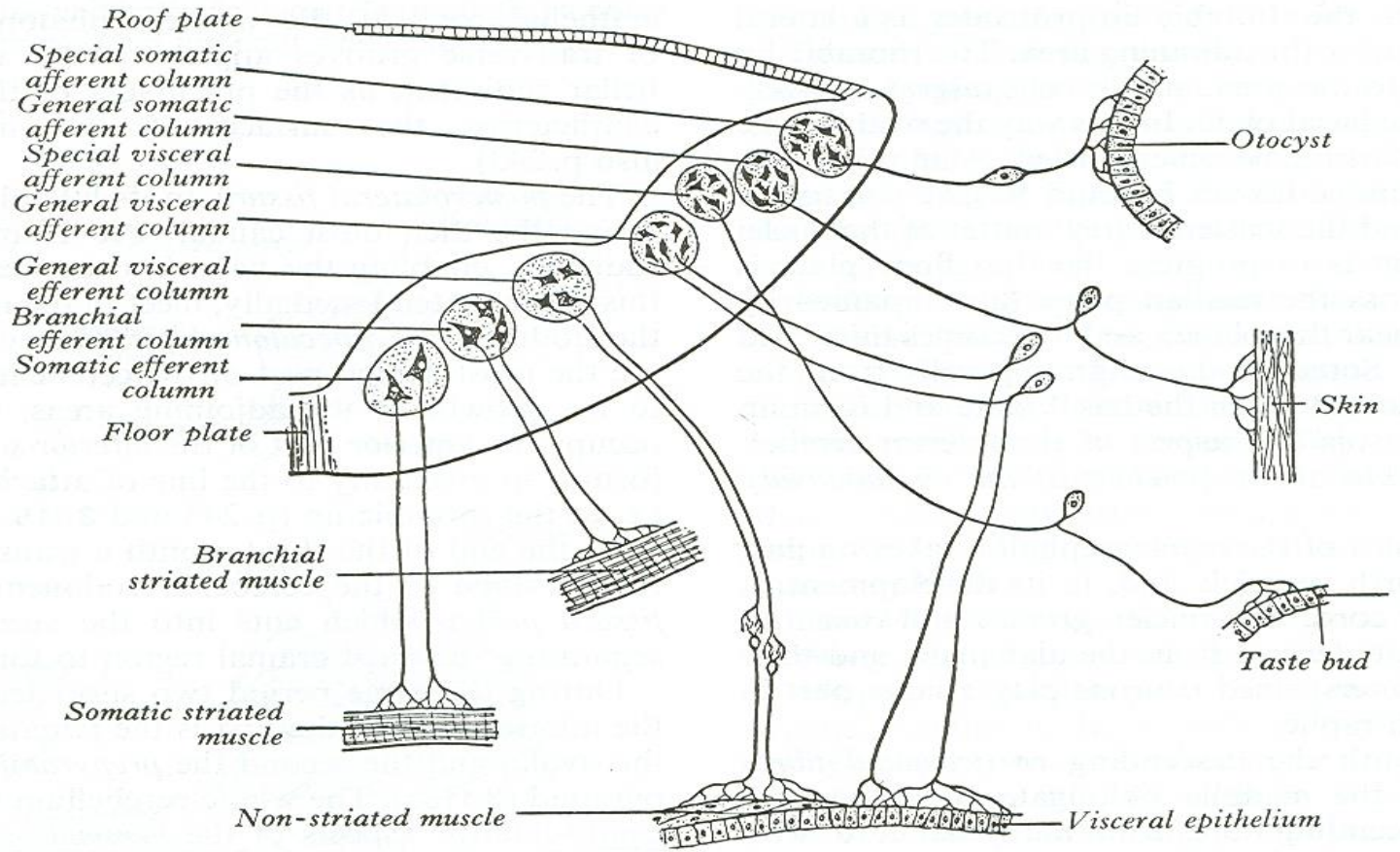
8.13 Schema showing the arrangement of sensory and motor columns in the spinal cord and brain stem.

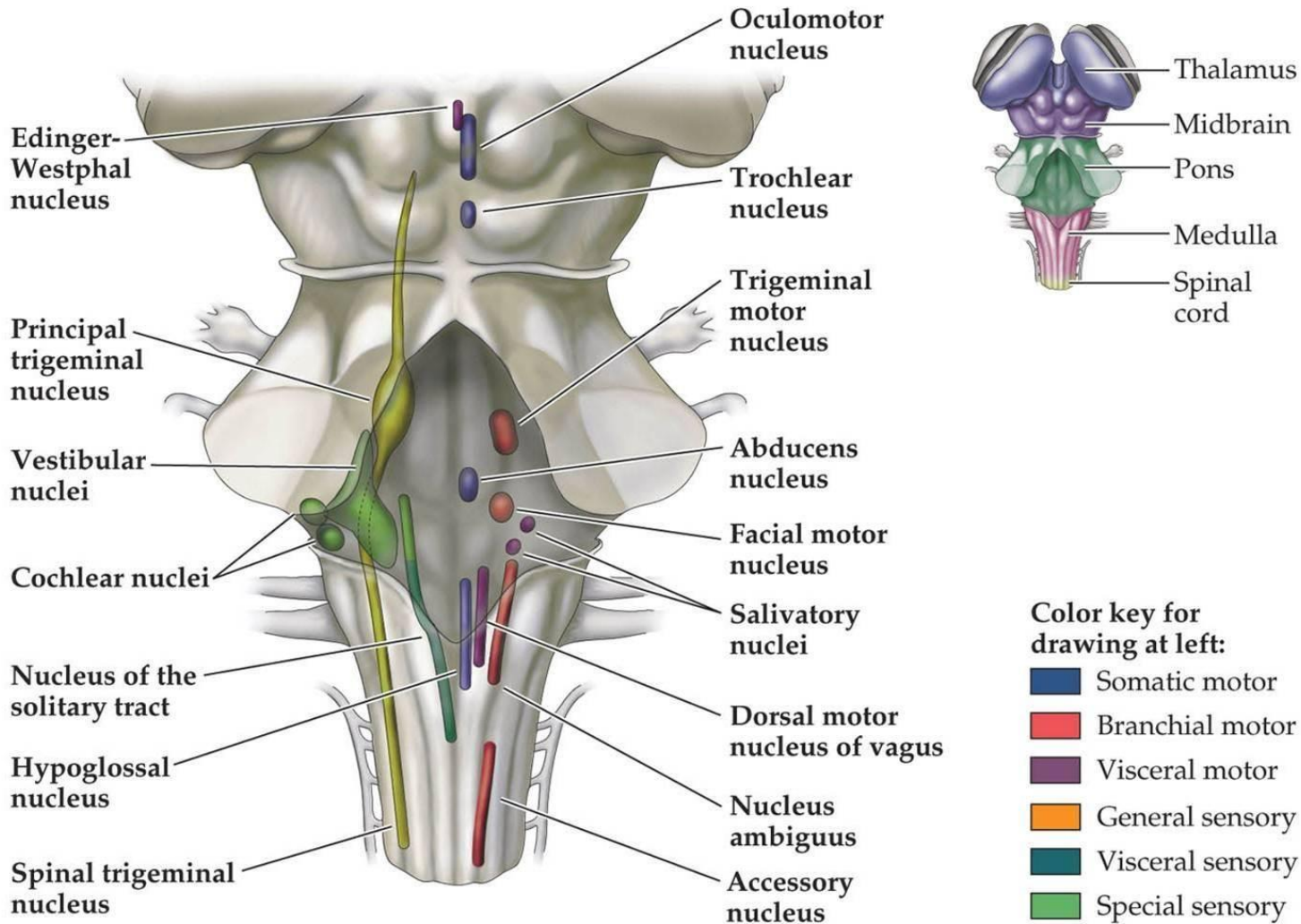
A shows the organization of the primitive spinal cord with a dorsal sensory column (blue), a ventral column (red), and segmentally arranged dorsal and ventral nerve roots.

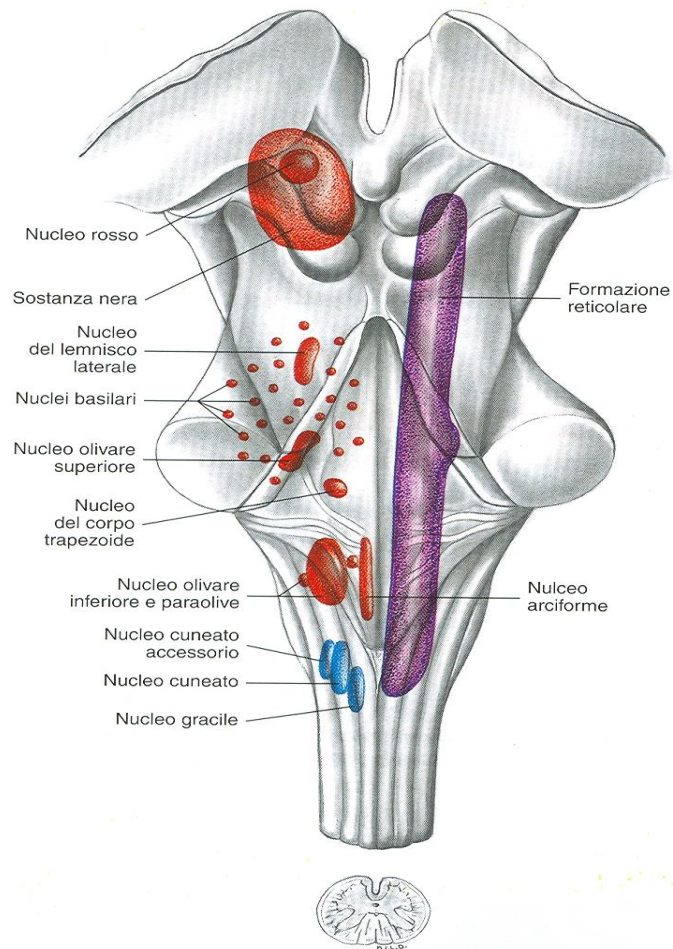
B depicts the arrangement of adult spinal cord serving the thorax and lumbar region, with sensory and somatic motor columns colour coded in the same way, and an additional intermediate (lateral) visceral motor column (brown).

C indicates the arrangement of multiple longitudinal columns in the brain-stem, where the motor column is now subdivided into three, and the sensory column into four. For further information about the embryological aspects of the early nervous system see p. 217 and 3.3.



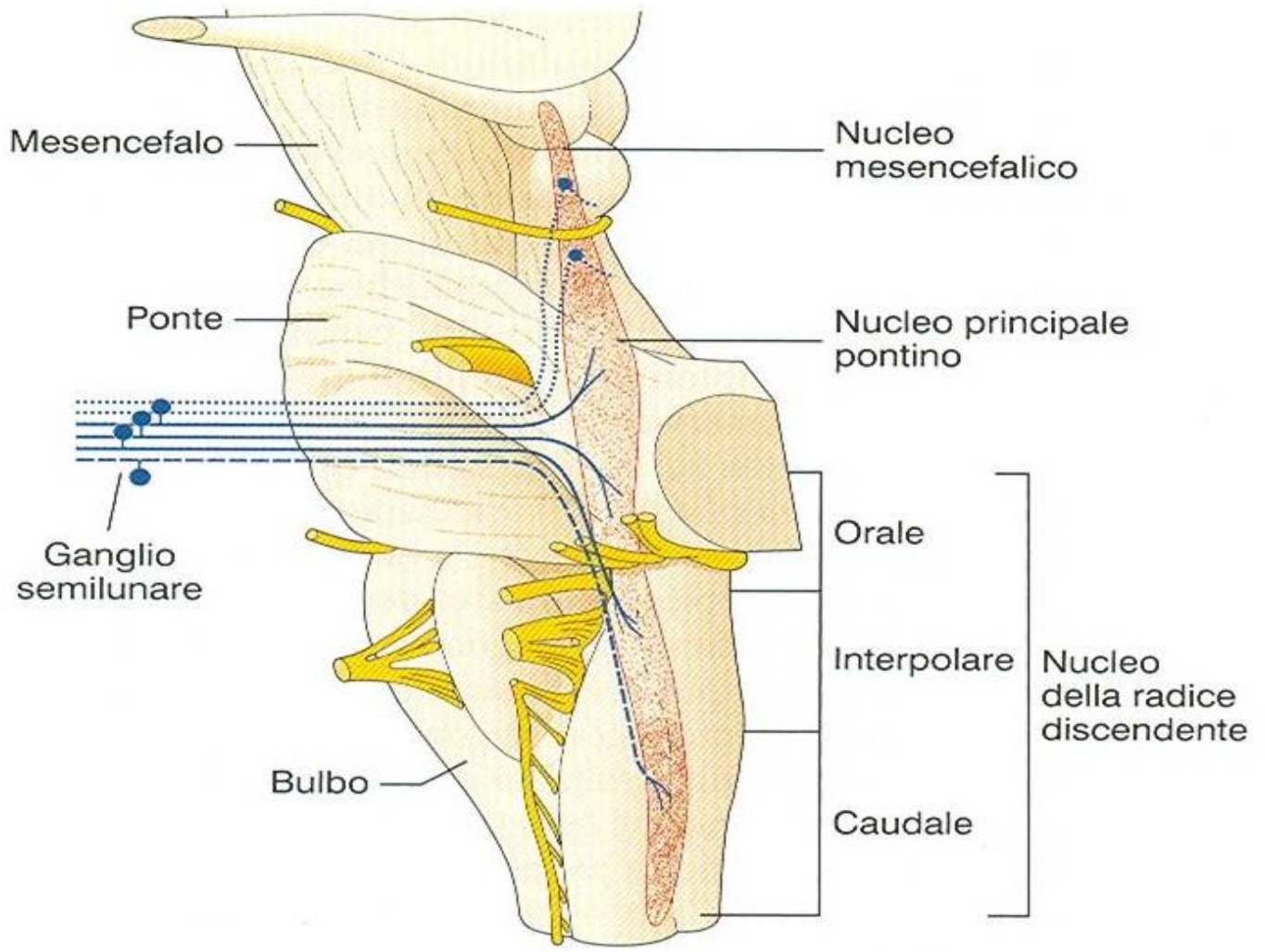


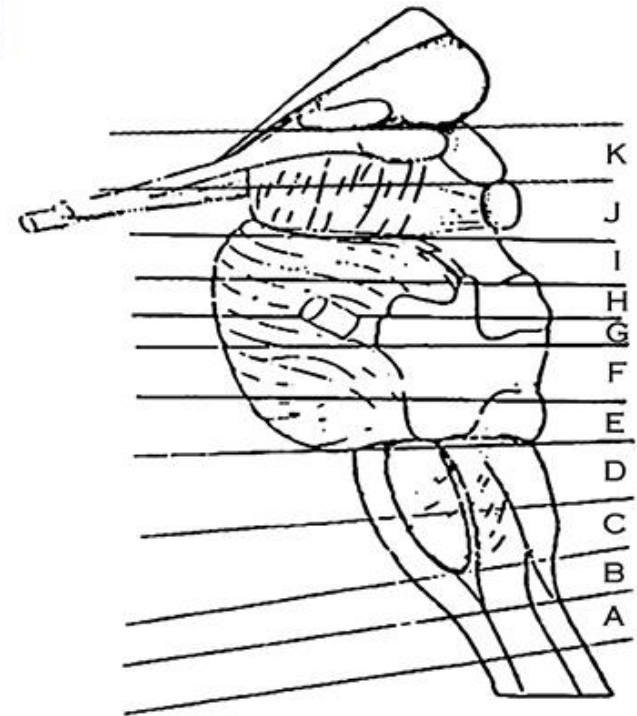
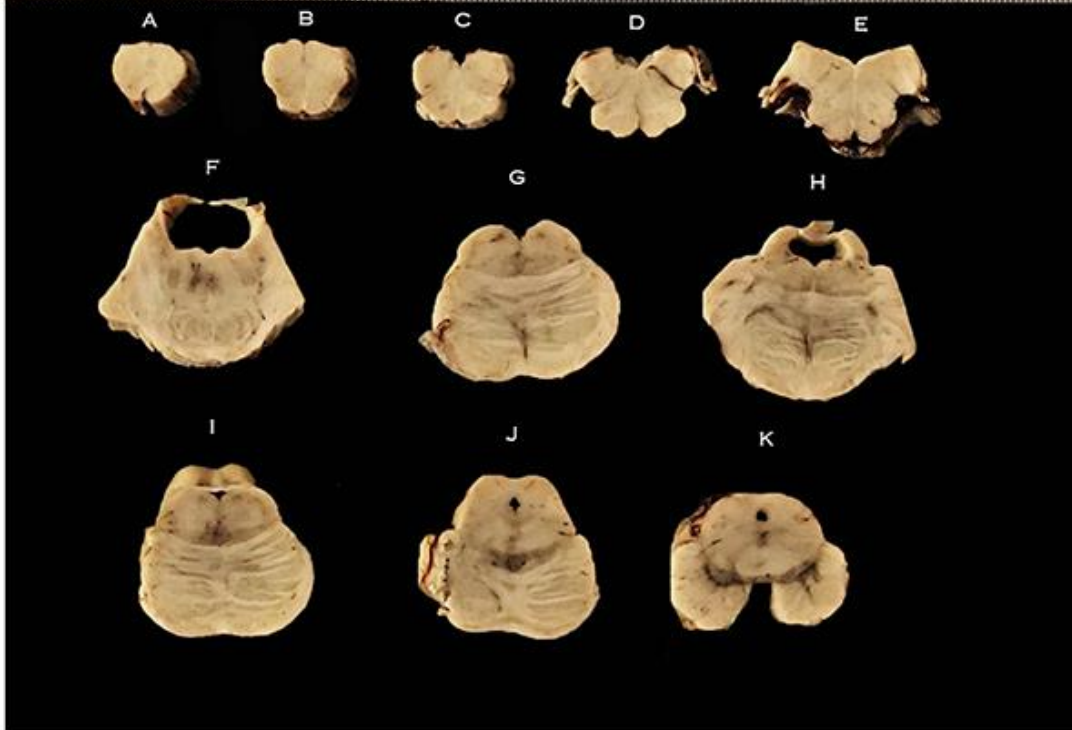




**Figura 14.52** - Nuclei propri del tronco encefalico visti in una ricostruzione tridimensionale. I nuclei gracile e cuneato sono indicati in **blu** e sono intercalati sulla principale via della sensibilità generale, la via spinobulbotalamocorticale. Dal nucleo cuneato accessorio prendono origine fibre cuneocerebellari. Si rileva l'estensione della formazione reticolare in tutti e tre i segmenti del tronco encefalico.







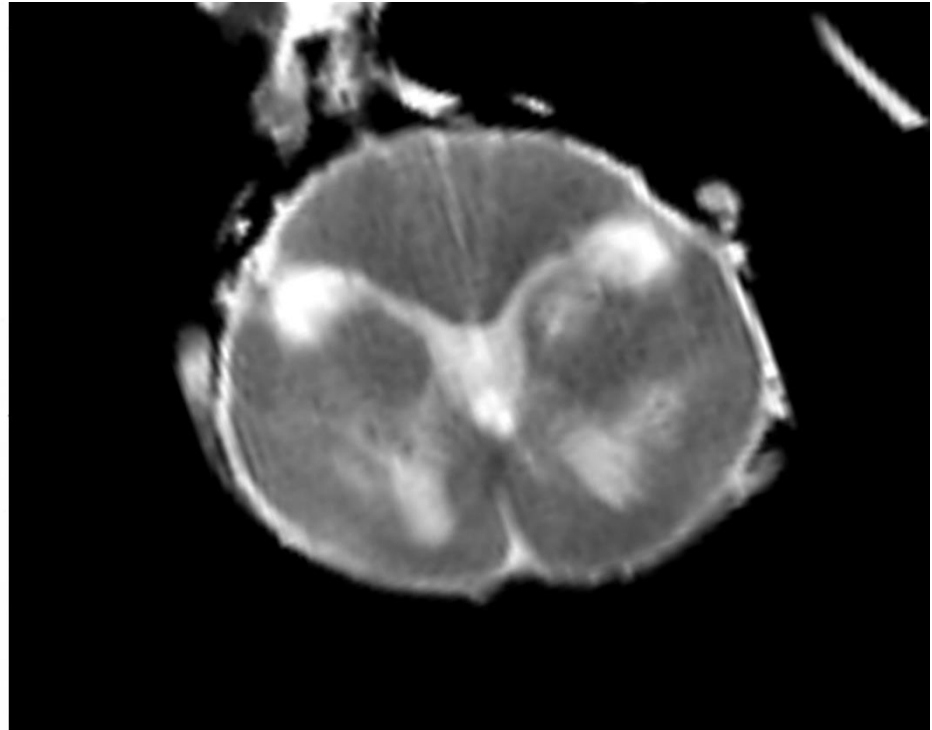
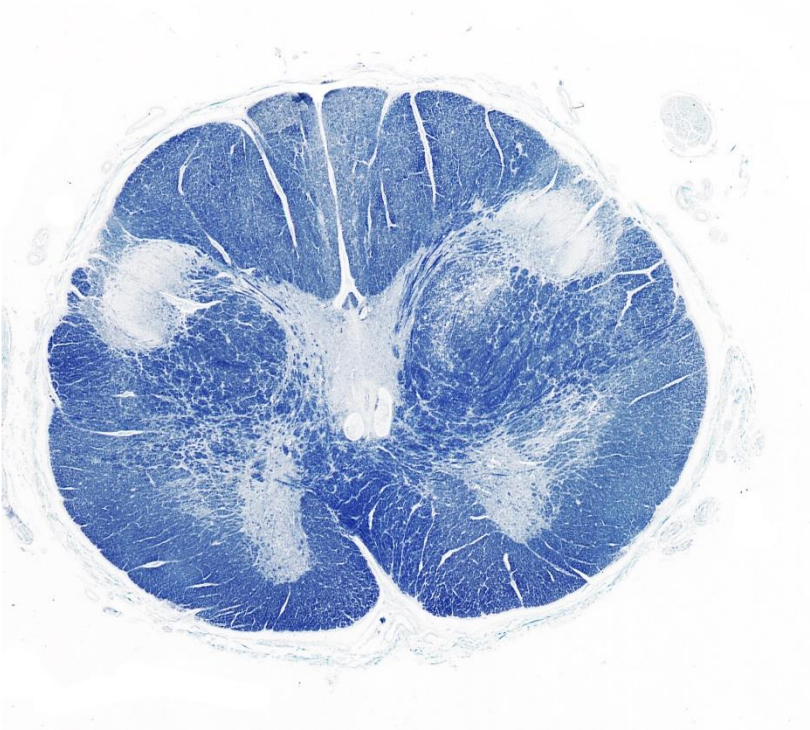
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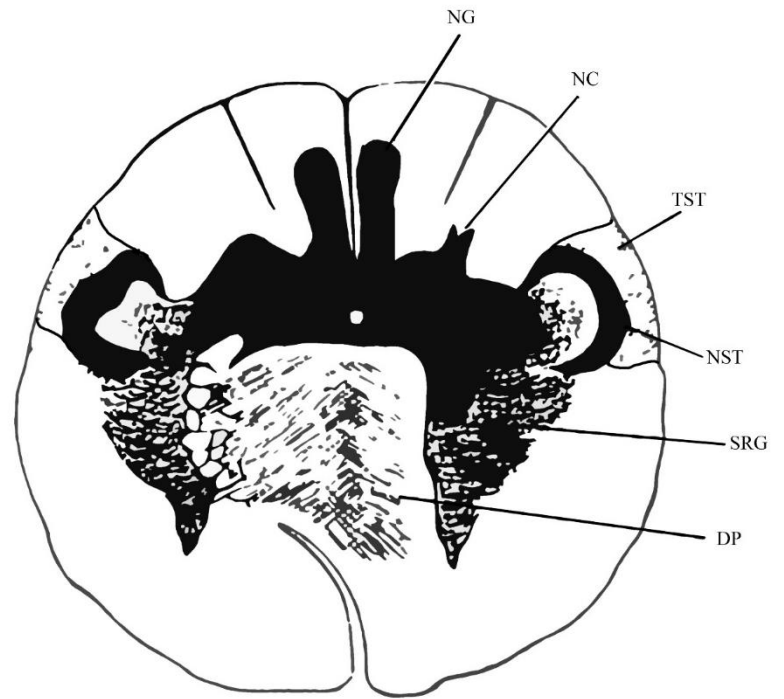
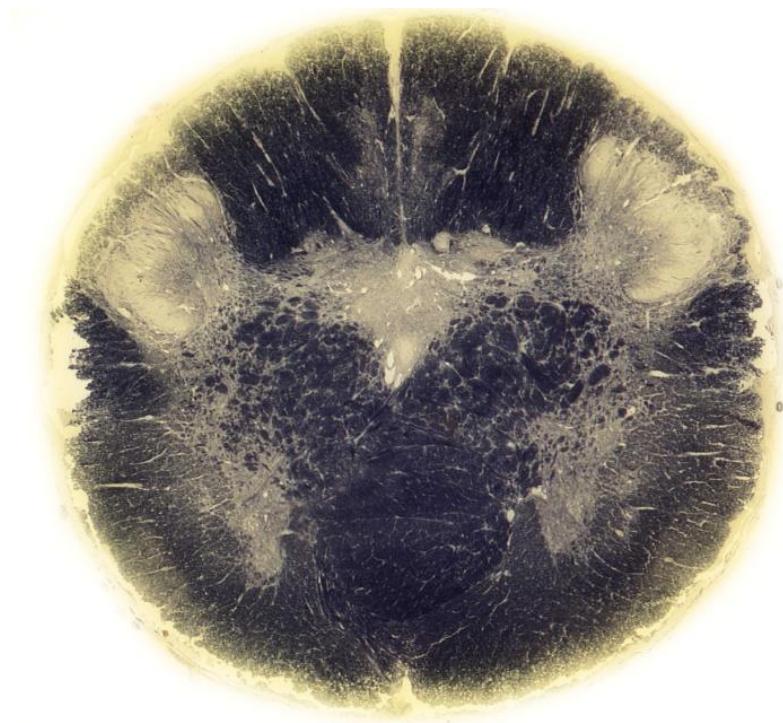
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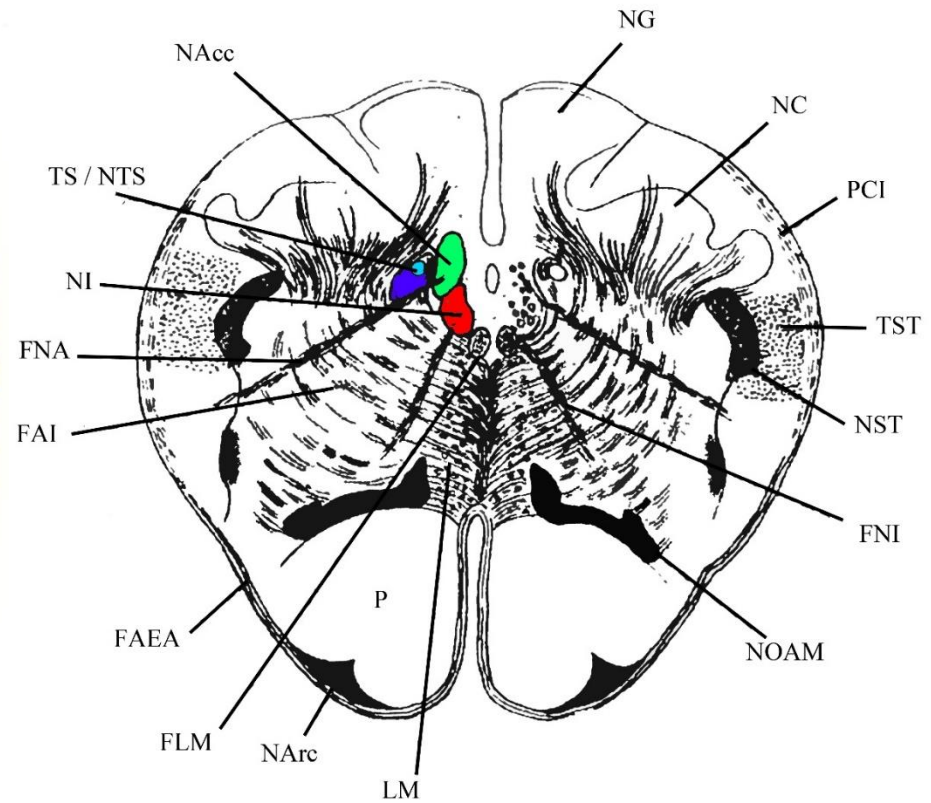
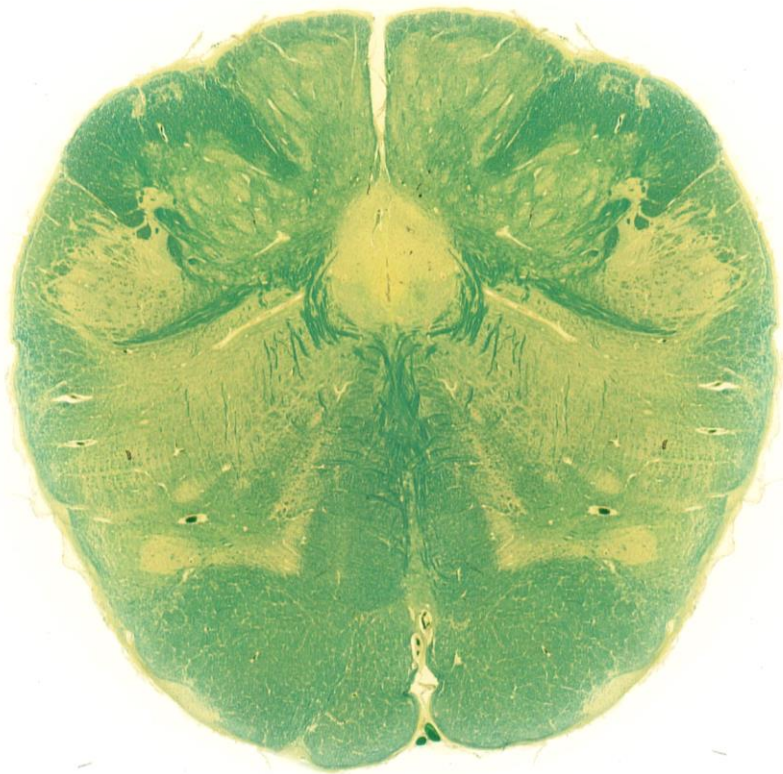


## Medulla (lower) 2

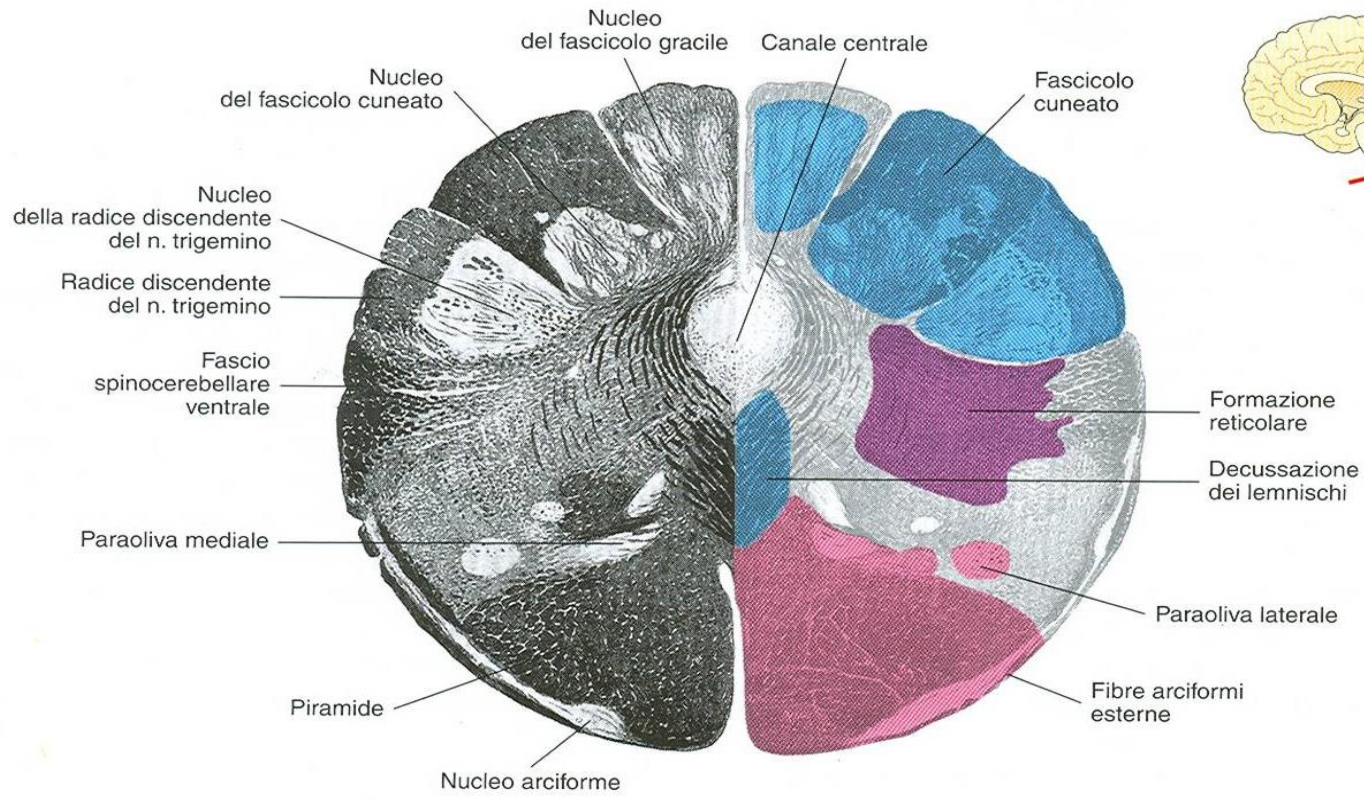


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**Figura 14.55** - Conformazione interna della porzione inferiore del bulbo in una sezione trasversa colorata per la dimostrazione della mielina. Le vie appaiono in **nero**, i centri in **bianco**. La sezione coglie la decussazione del lemnisco mediale ventralmente alla quale si trovano le piramidi. Nella parte destra le vie e i nuclei motori sono evidenziati in **rosso**, le vie e i nuclei sensitivi in **blu**, la formazione reticolare in **viola**.



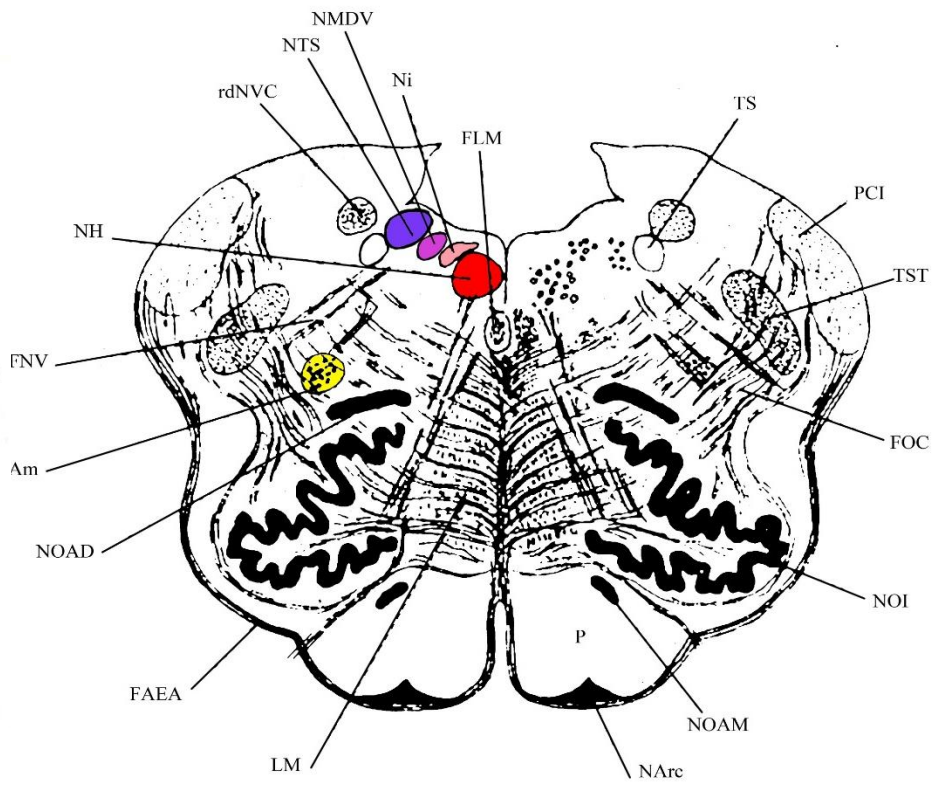
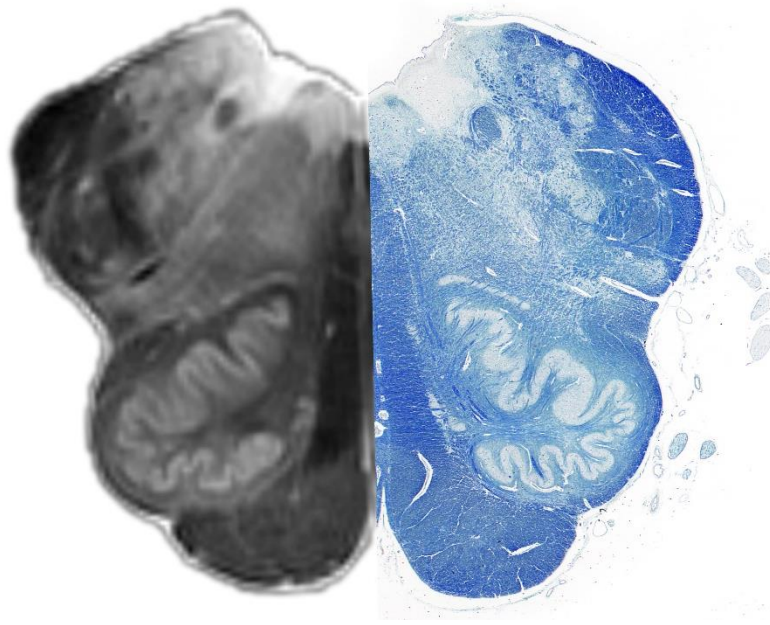
## Medulla (upper)



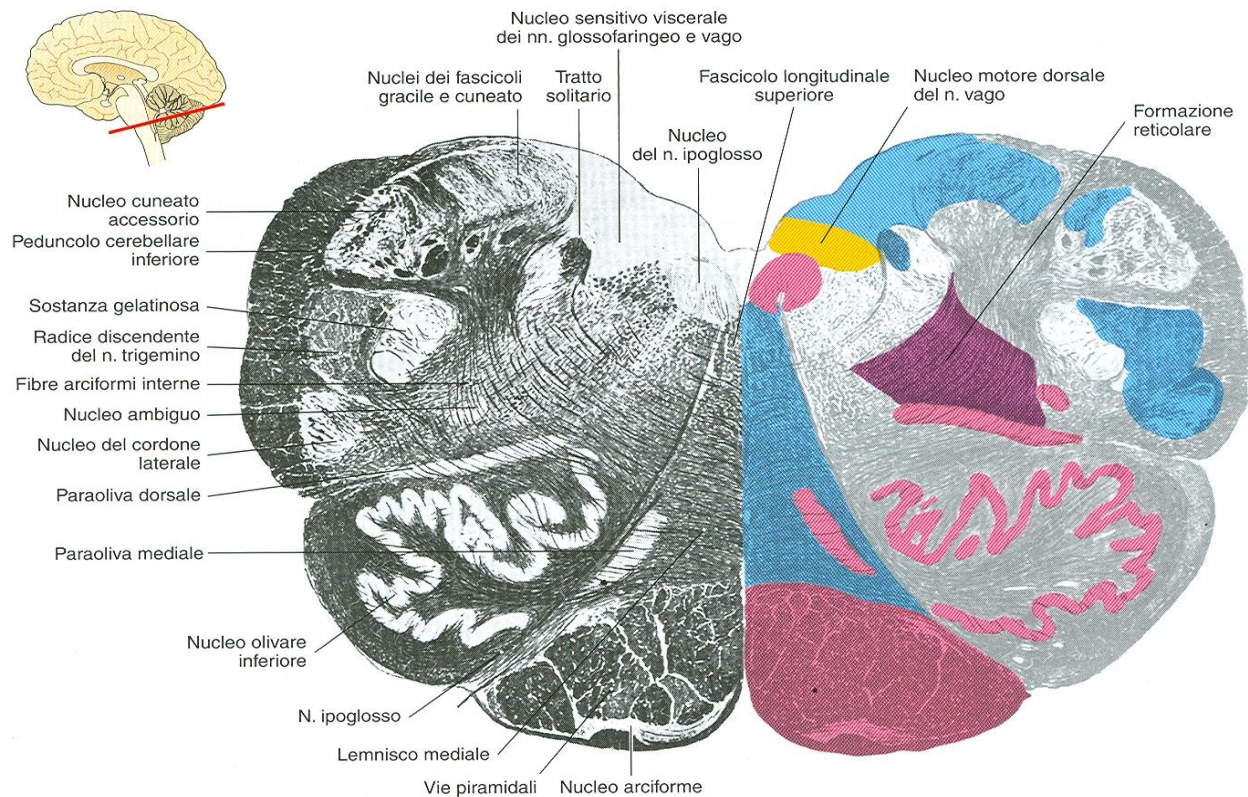
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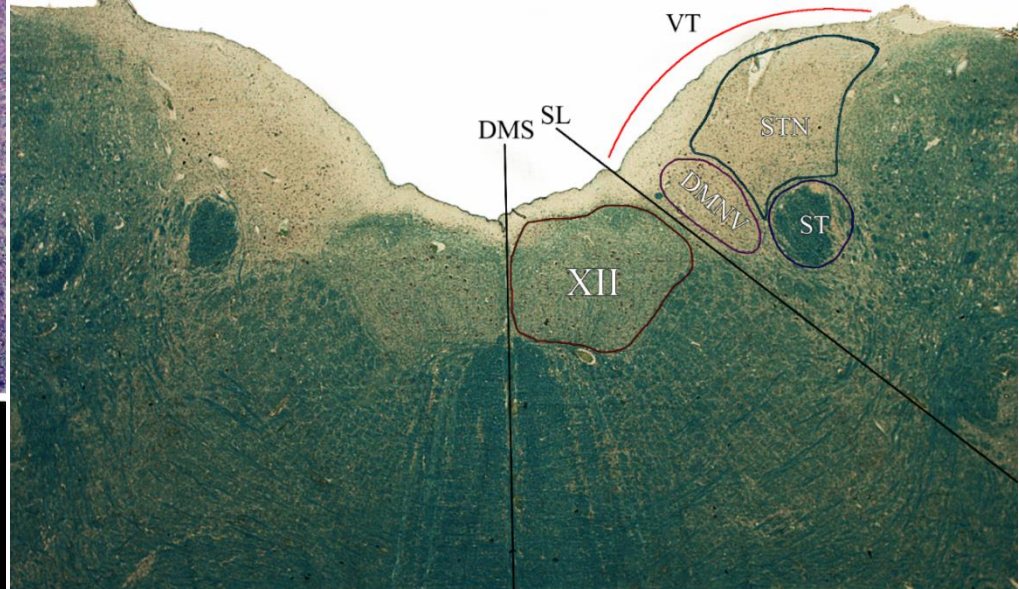
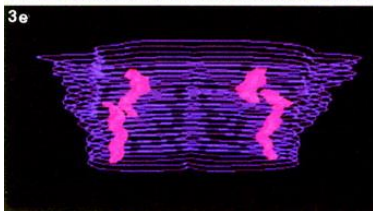
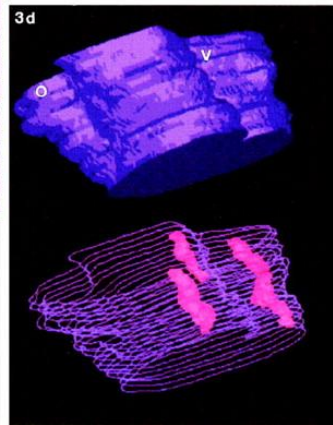
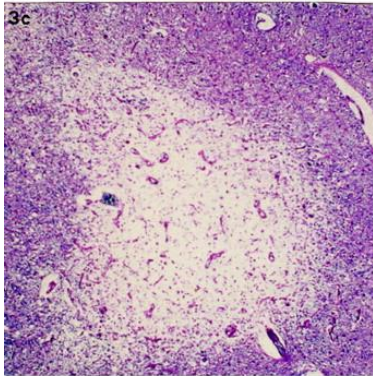
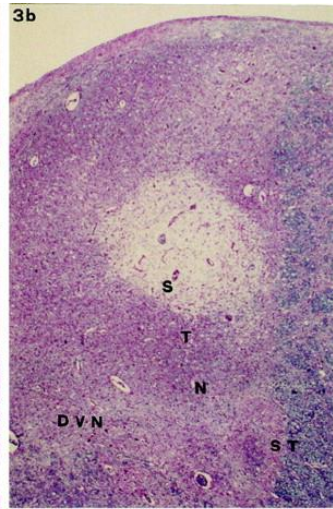
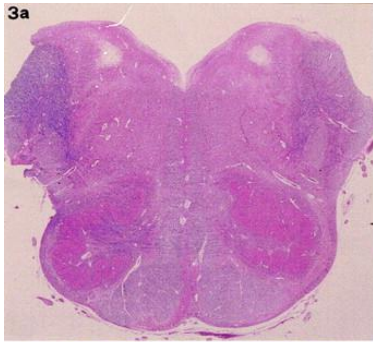






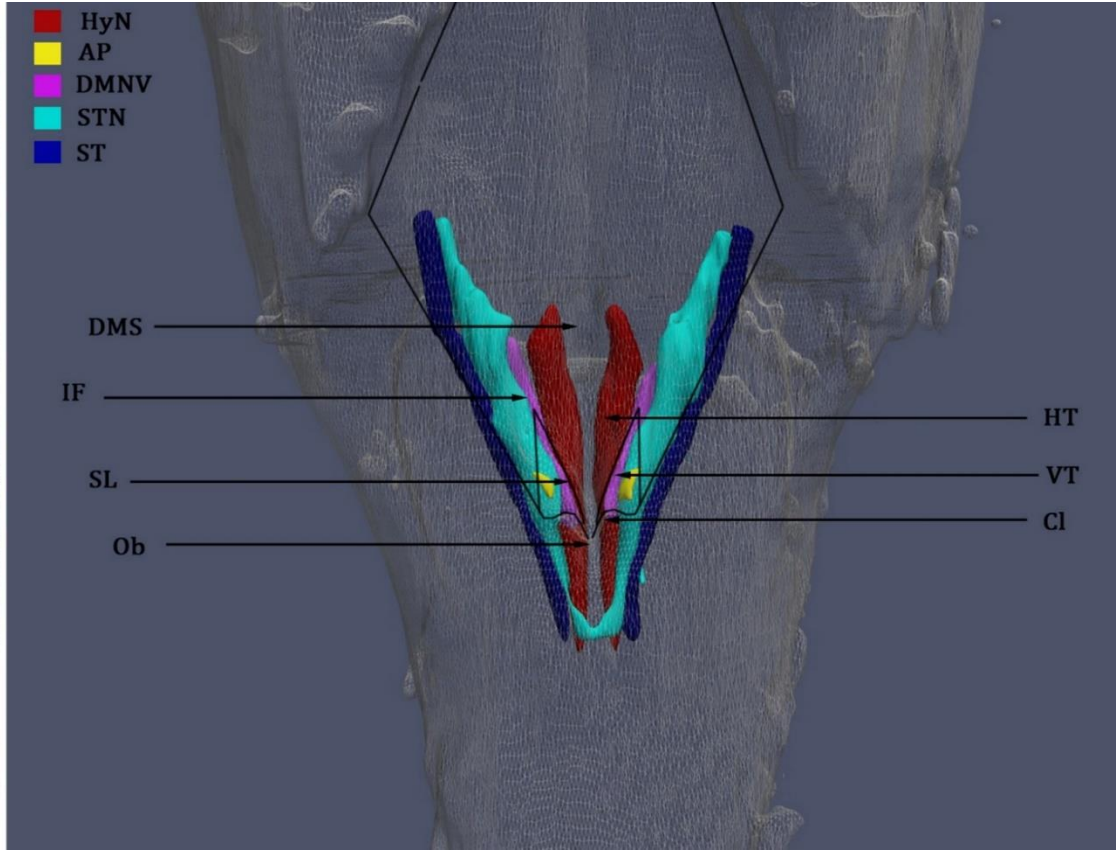
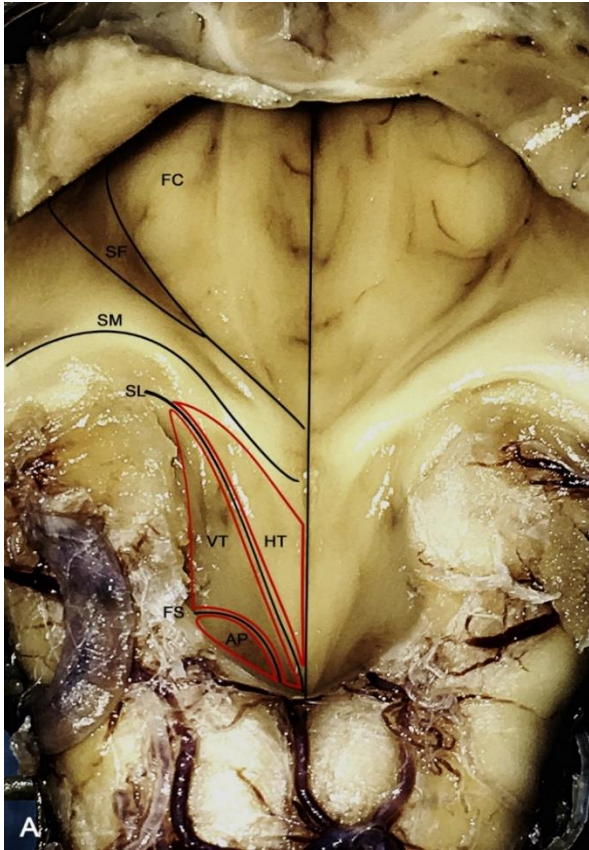
**Figura 14.56** - Conformazione interna della porzione superiore del bulbo in una sezione trasversa colorata per la dimostrazione della mielina. Le vie appaiono in **nero**, i centri in **bianco**. La sezione coglie la parte bulbare del pavimento del IV ventricolo e passa per le piramidi e le olive. Nella parte destra le vie e i nuclei motori sono evidenziati in **rosso**, le vie e i nuclei sensitivi in **blu**, i nuclei parasimpatici in **giallo**, la formazione reticolare in **viola**.





De Caro et al., 2000  
Emmi et al., 2020



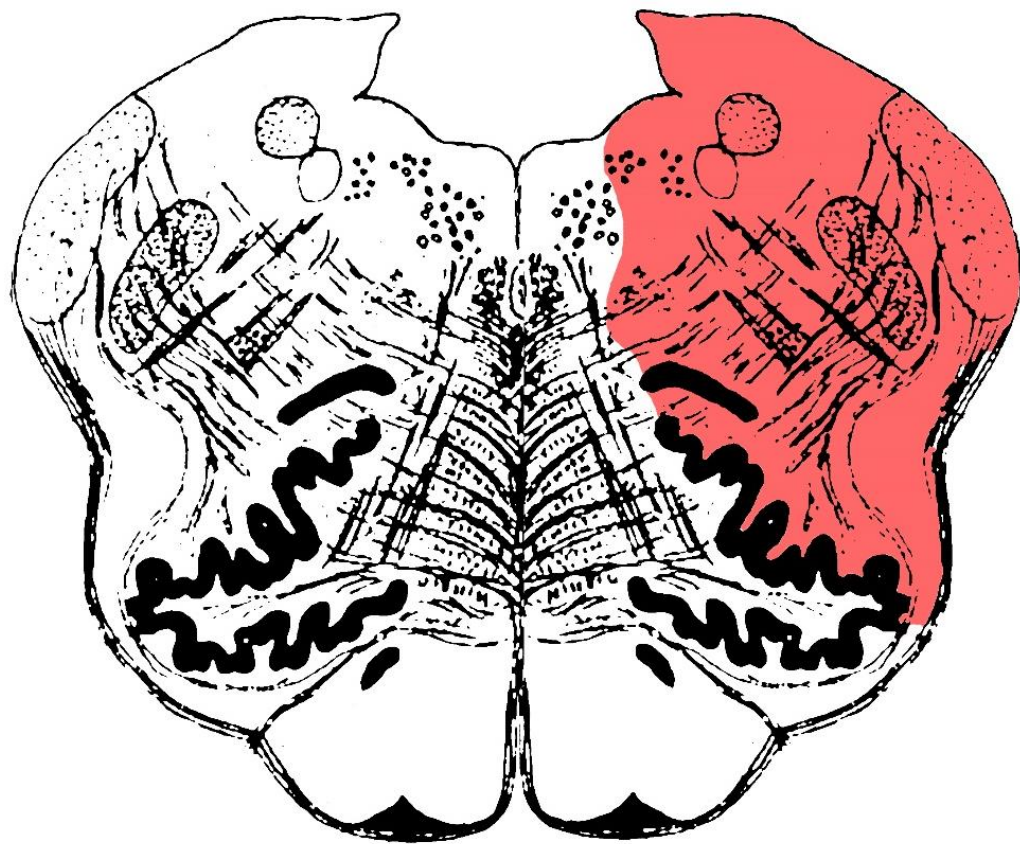


**3D Reconstruction of the Morpho-Functional Topography of the Human Vagal Trigone**

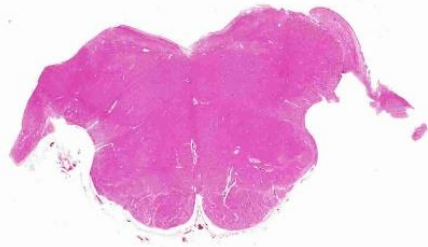
Aron Emmi<sup>†</sup>, Andrea Porzionato<sup>†</sup>, Martina Contran, Enrico De Rose, Veronica Macchi<sup>\*</sup> and Raffaele De Caro

Department of Neuroscience, Institute of Human Anatomy, University of Padua, Padua, Italy

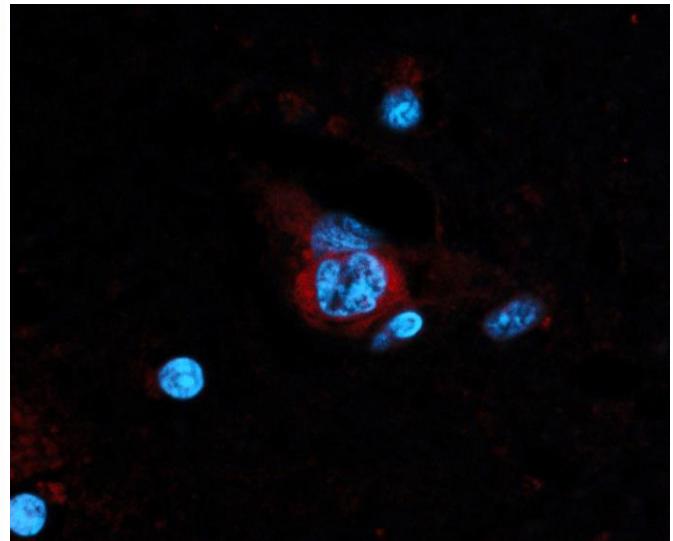
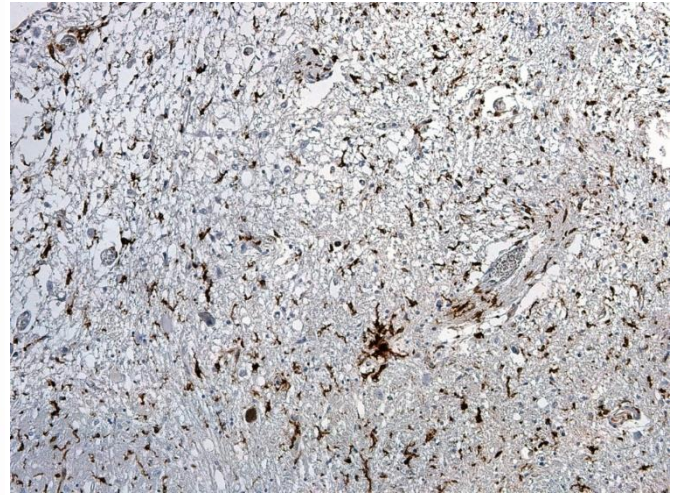
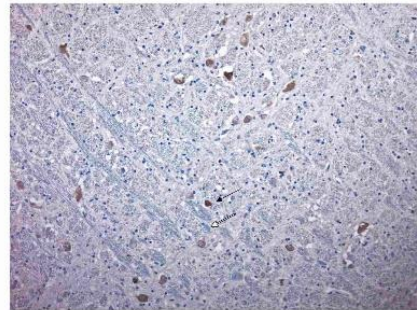
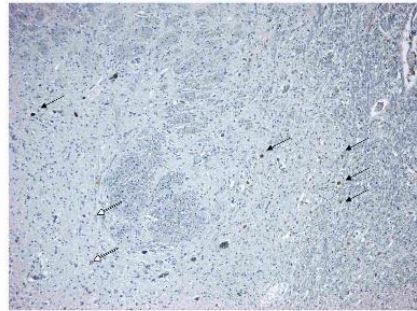
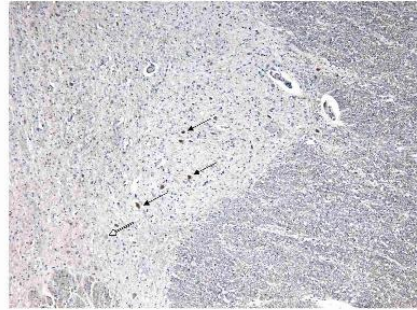




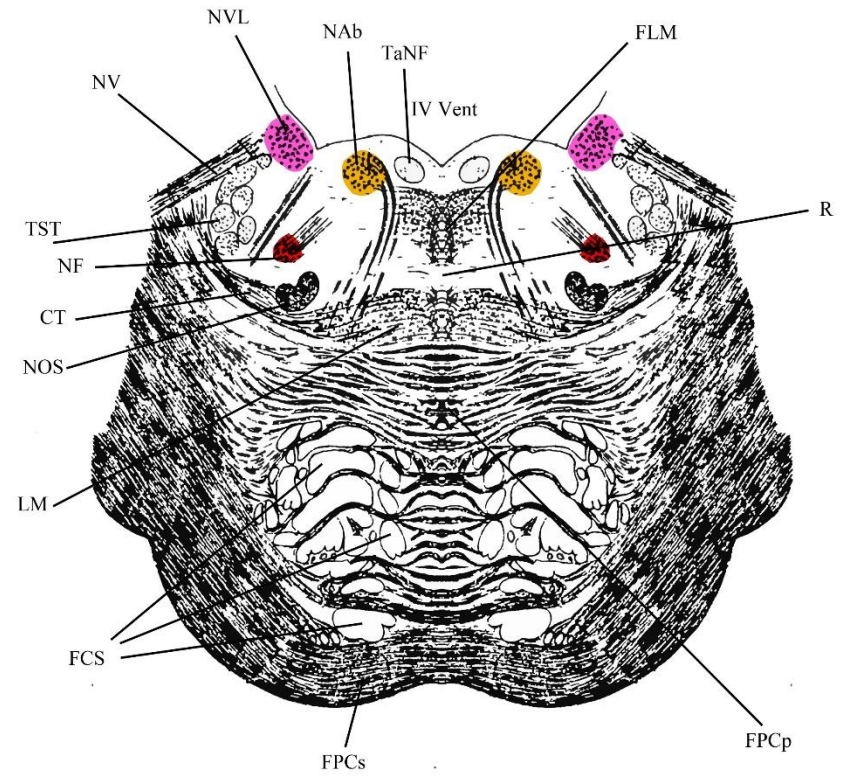
H&E



Spike Protein



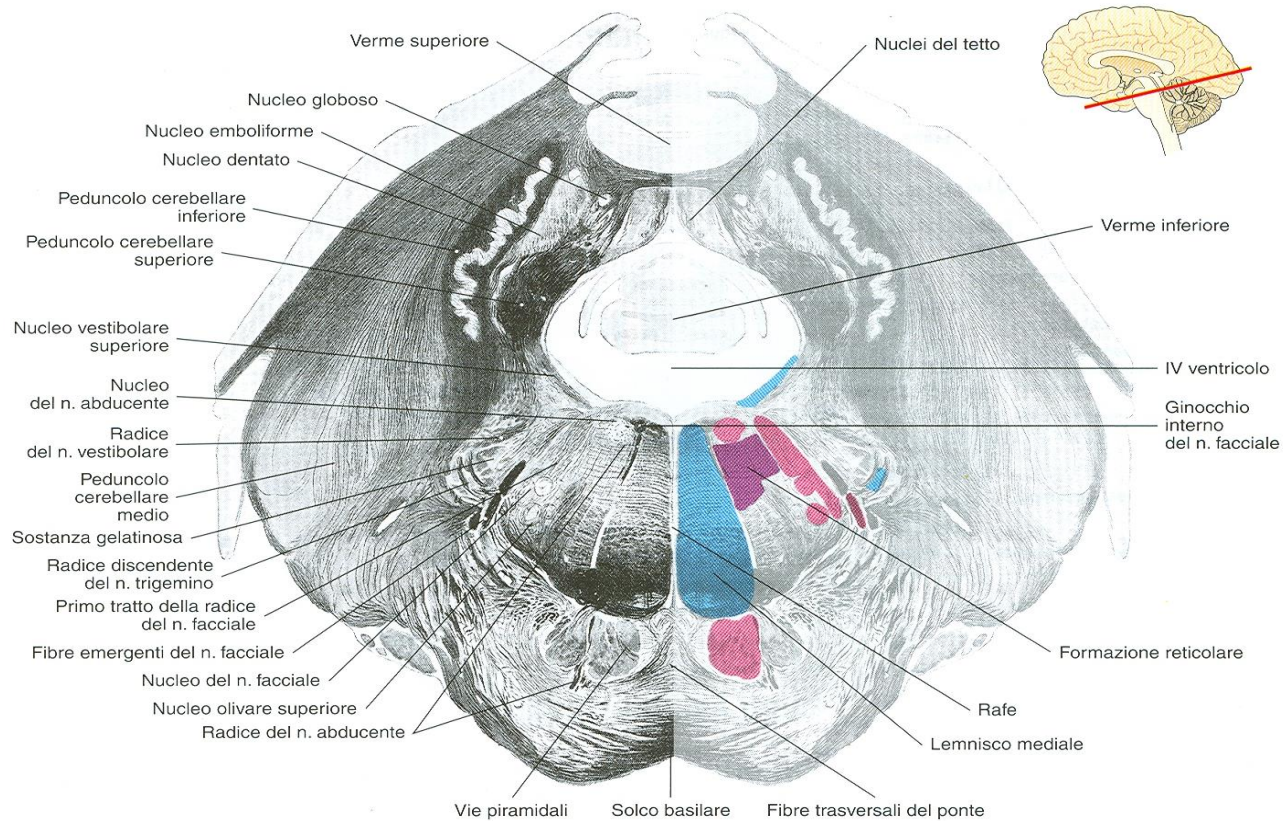




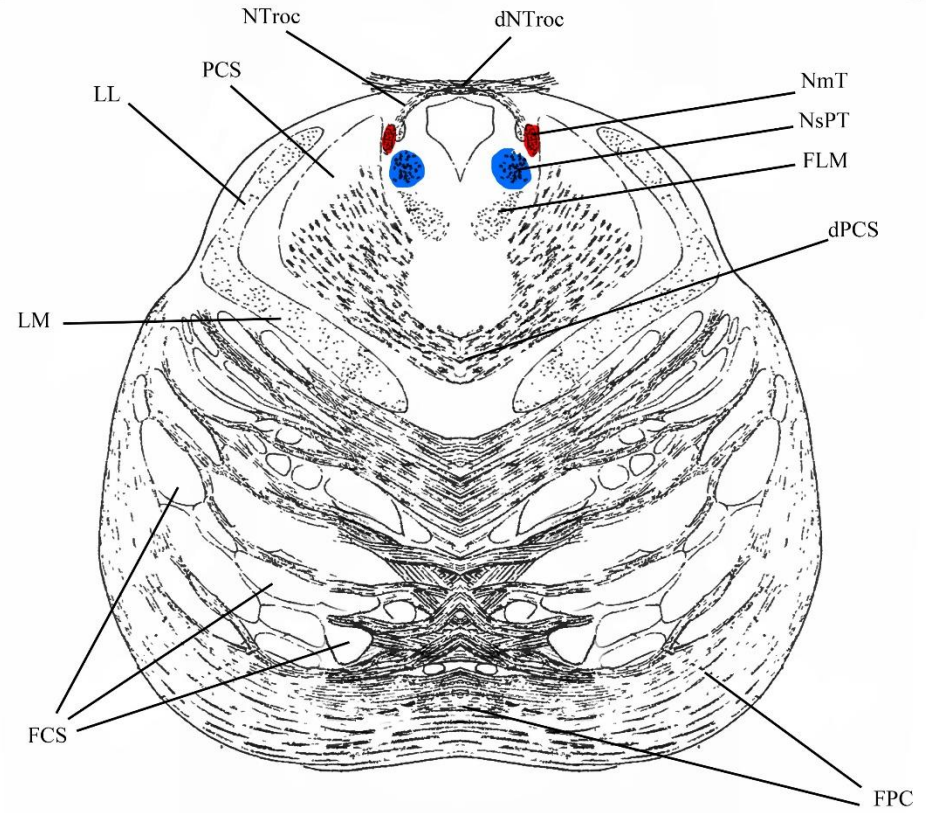




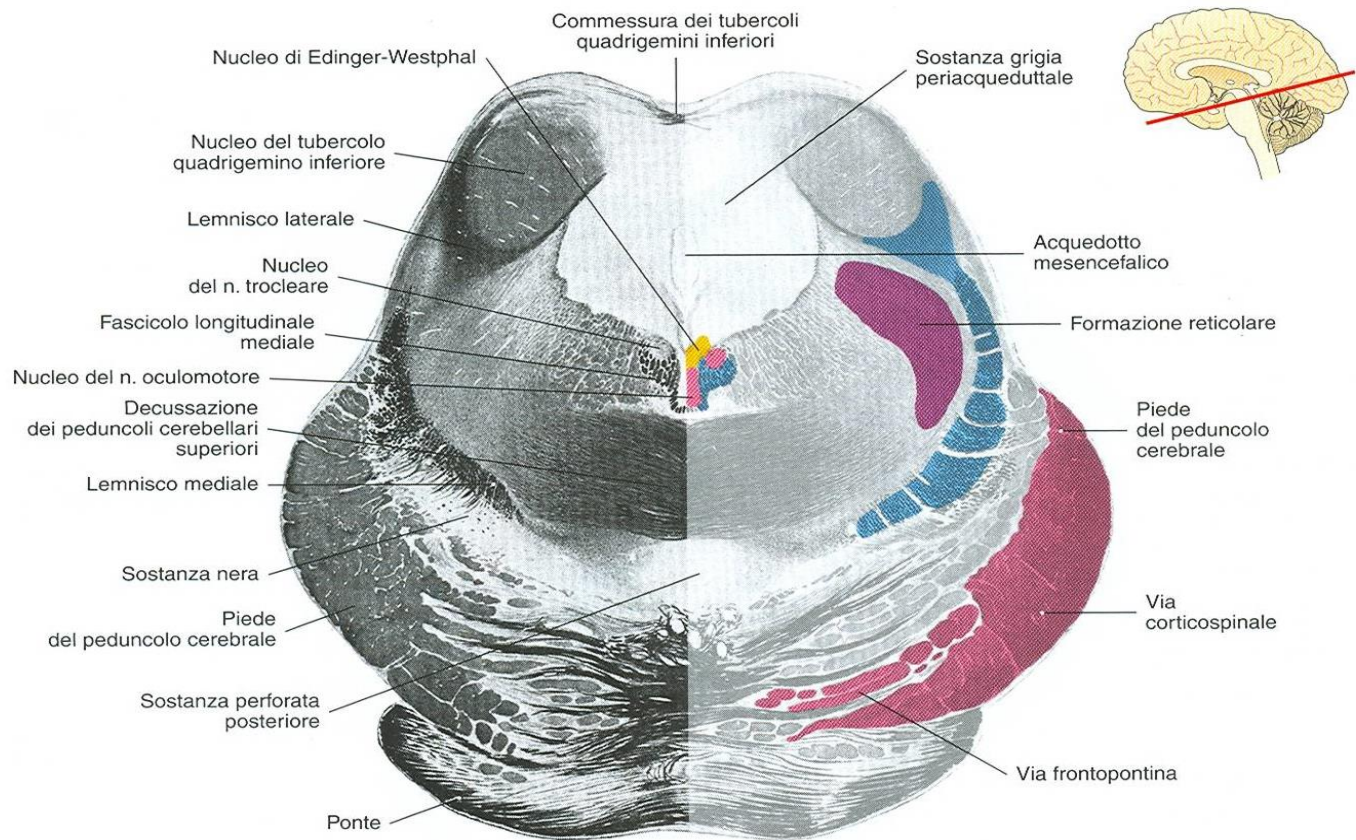
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**Figura 14.57** - Conformazione interna del ponte in una sezione trasversale colorata per la dimostrazione della mielina. Le vie appaiono in **nero**, i centri in **bianco**. È netta la distinzione del piede rispetto al tegmento. Le vie piramidali si trovano innanzi alle fibre del lemnisco mediale. Nel tegmento sono situati numerosi nuclei propri e di nervi encefalici. Dorsalmente e lateralmente al ponte si apprezzano formazioni grigie appartenenti al cervelletto. Nella parte destra le vie e i nuclei motori sono evidenziati in **rosso**, le vie e i nuclei sensitivi in **blu**, la formazione reticolare in **viola**.





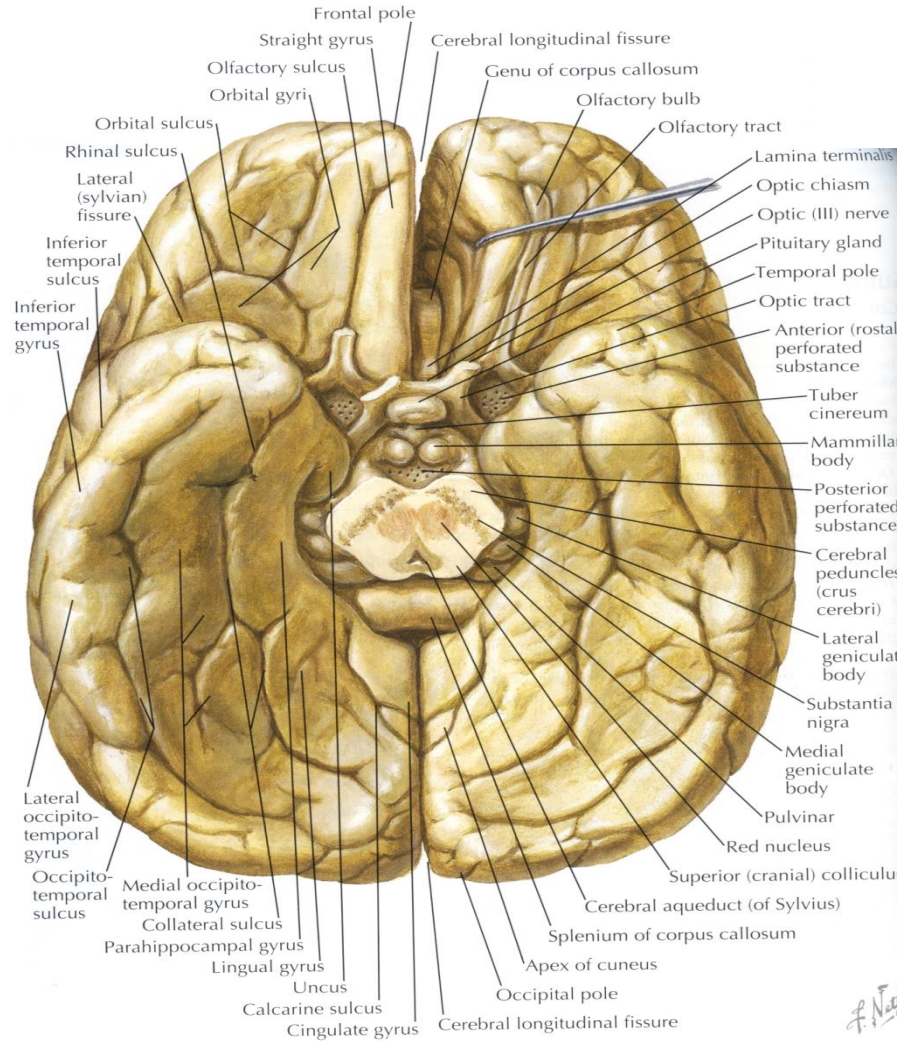


**Figura 14.58** - Conformazione interna del mesencefalo in una sezione trasversale colorata per la dimostrazione della mielina. Le vie appaiono in **nero**, i centri in **bianco**. La sezione passa per i tubercoli quadrigemini inferiori e coglie anche una piccola parte del margine superiore del ponte che sormonta i peduncoli cerebrali. È netta la distinzione tra piede e tegmento a opera della sostanza nera. Nella parte destra le vie e i nuclei motori sono evidenziati in **rosso**, le vie e i nuclei sensitivi in **blu**, i nuclei parasimpatici in **giallo**, la formazione reticolare in **viola**.



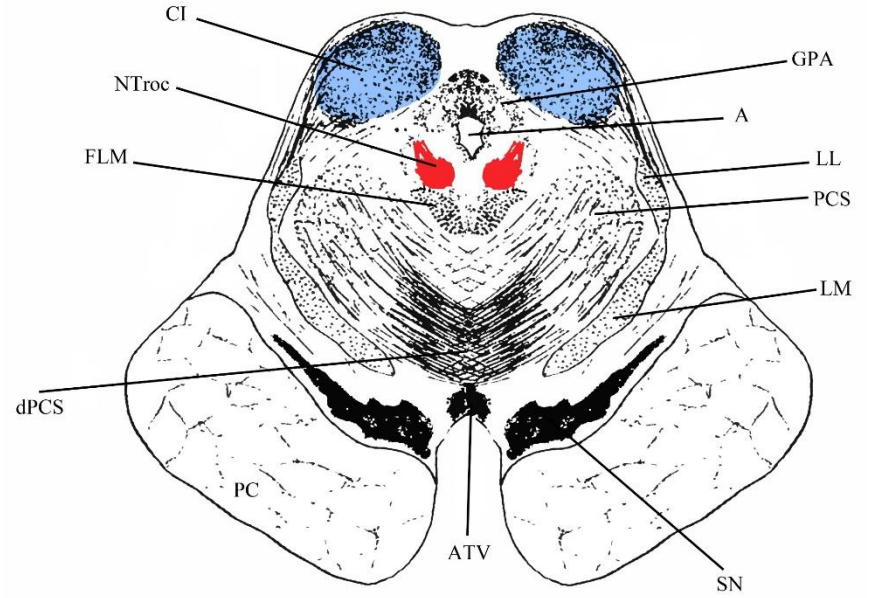
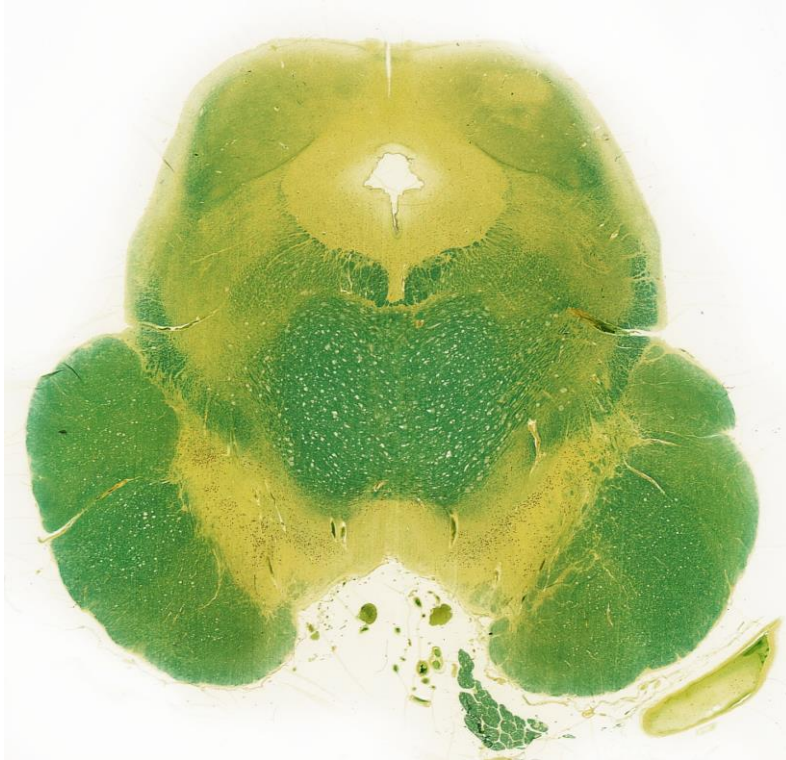


INFERIOR SURFACE OF BRAIN



*F. Net*

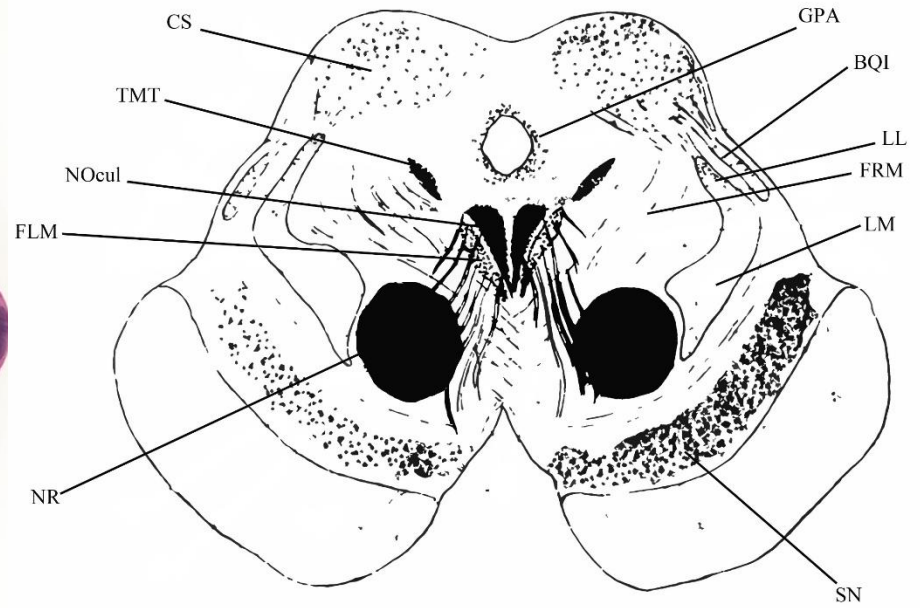
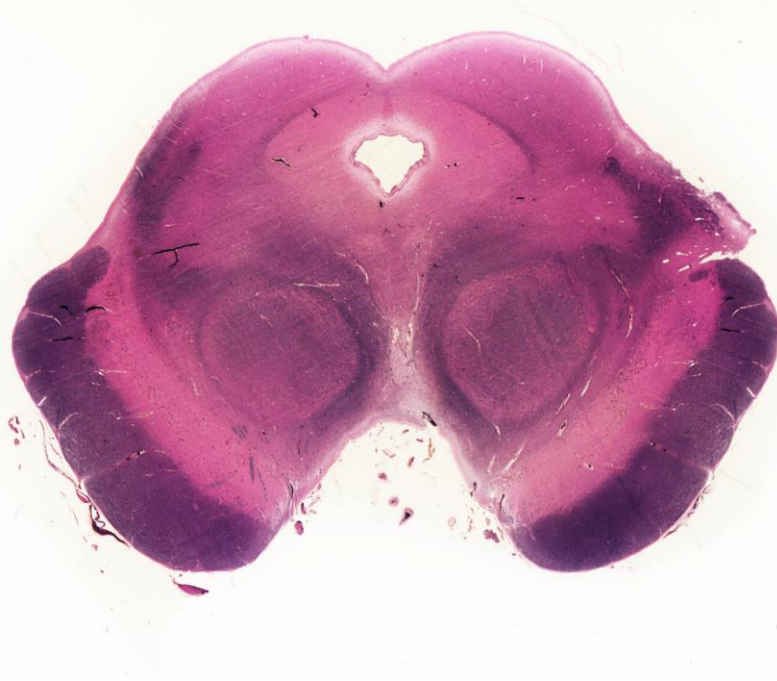




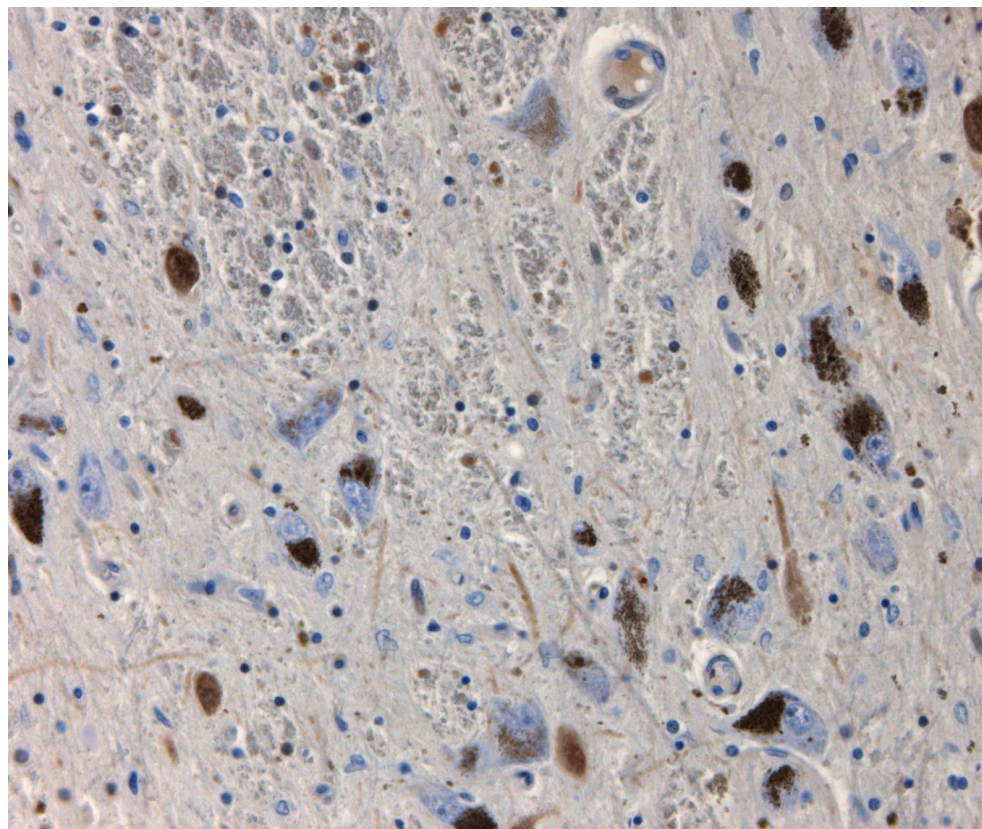
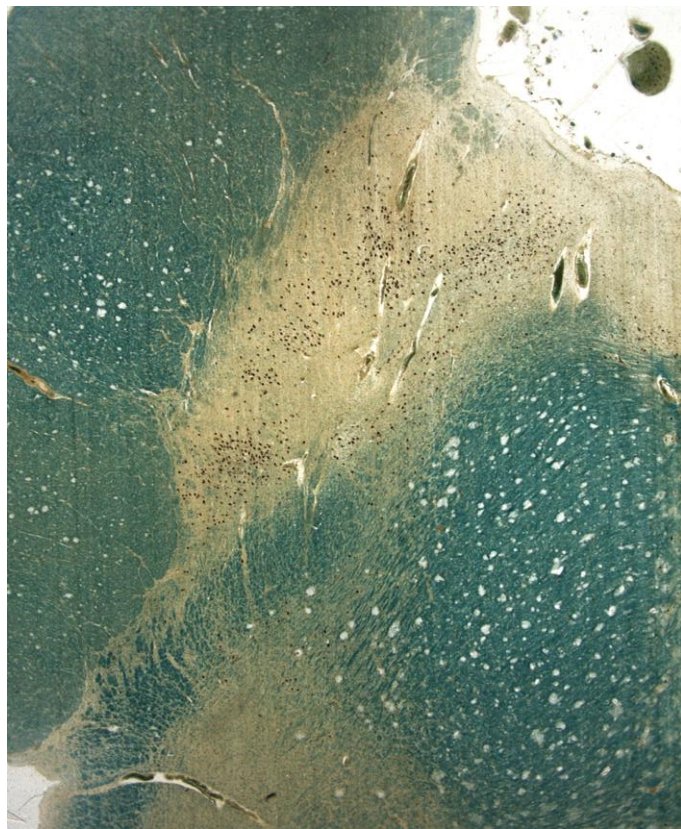






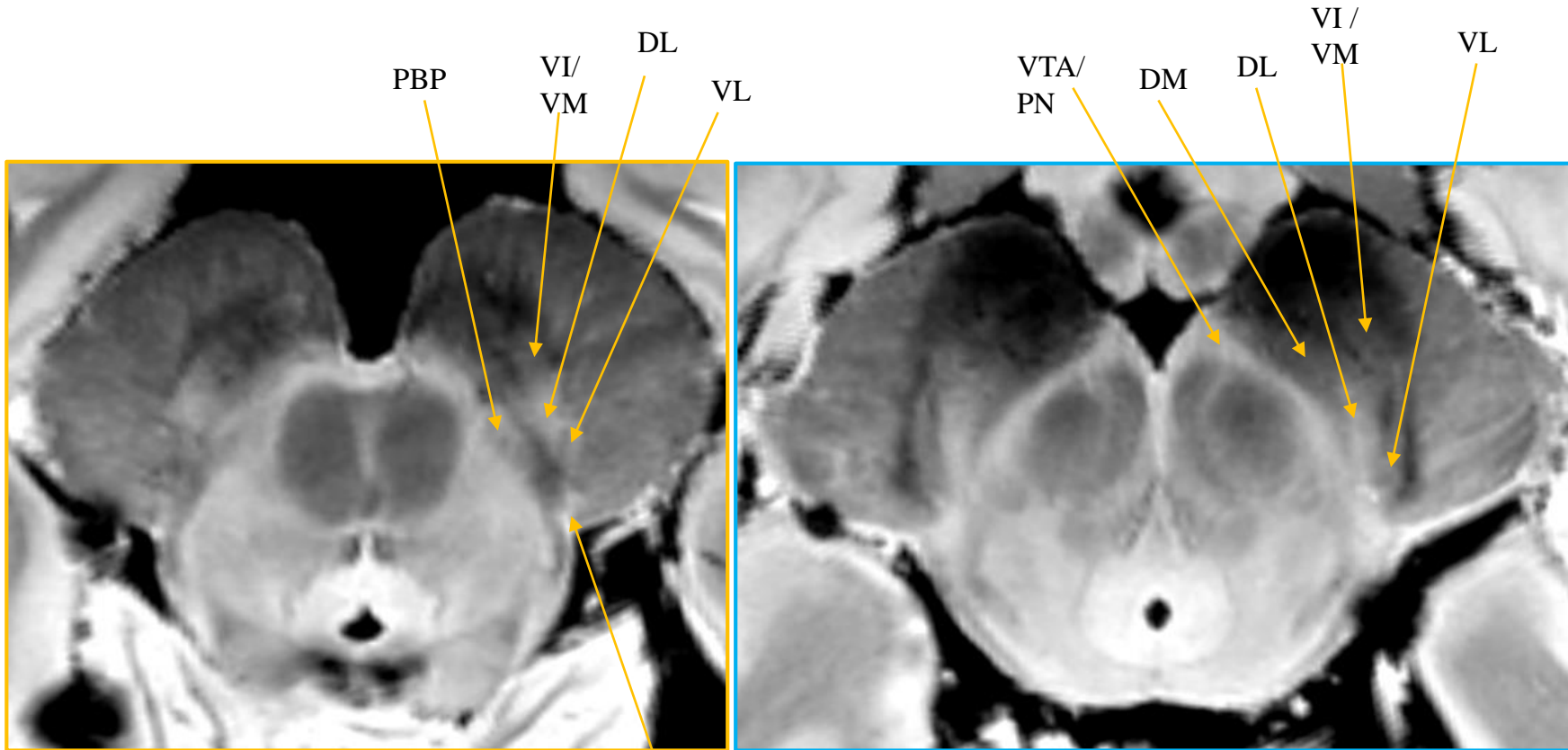








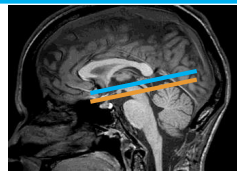
# MESENCEPHALON



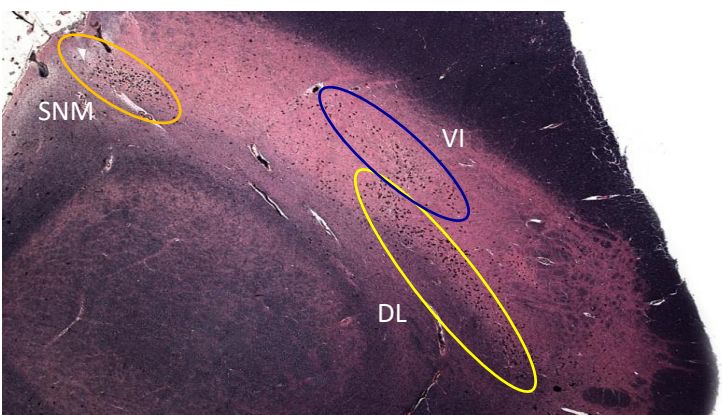
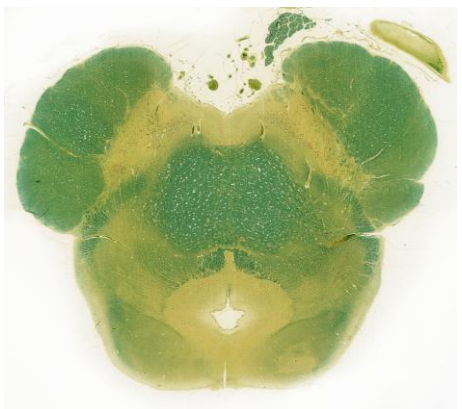
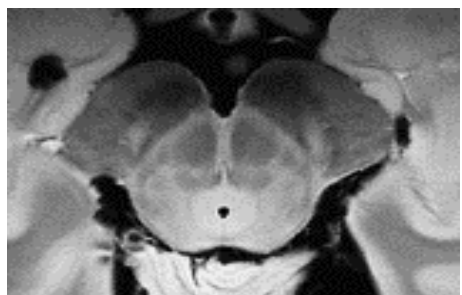
Caudal Section (SCP)

Rostral Section (RN)

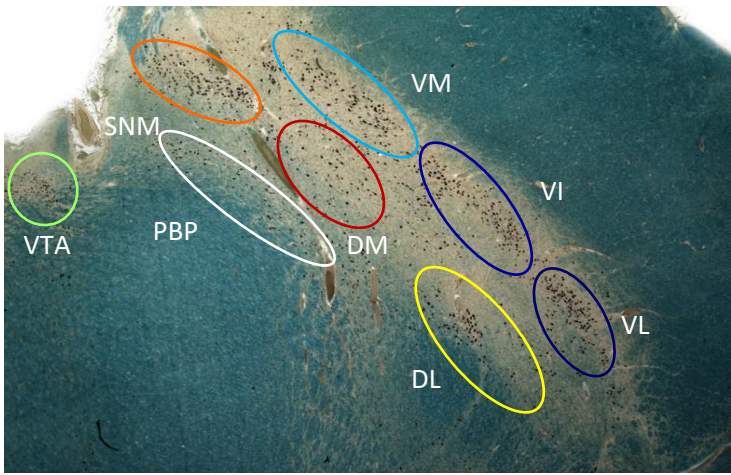
SNL



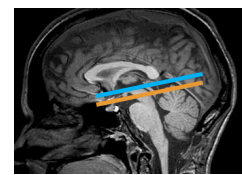
# SUBSTANTIA NIGRA



Rostral Section (RN)



Caudal Section (SCP)





# Reticular Formation of the Brainstem

- The reticular formation is made of aggregates of neurons of various forms and dimensions and by a system of projection fibers with a diffuse organization.
- The dendrites are disposed in bundles forming an intricate net, through which the ascending and descending fibers pass.



# Reticular Formation of the Brainstem

- Phylogenetically ancient, even though primitive organisms present a coexisting diffuse and organized system.





# Reticular Formation of the Brainstem

- Localized deeply within the brainstem.
- Diffuse connectivity,  
with direct and decussating projection systems.
- Somatic and visceral functions.

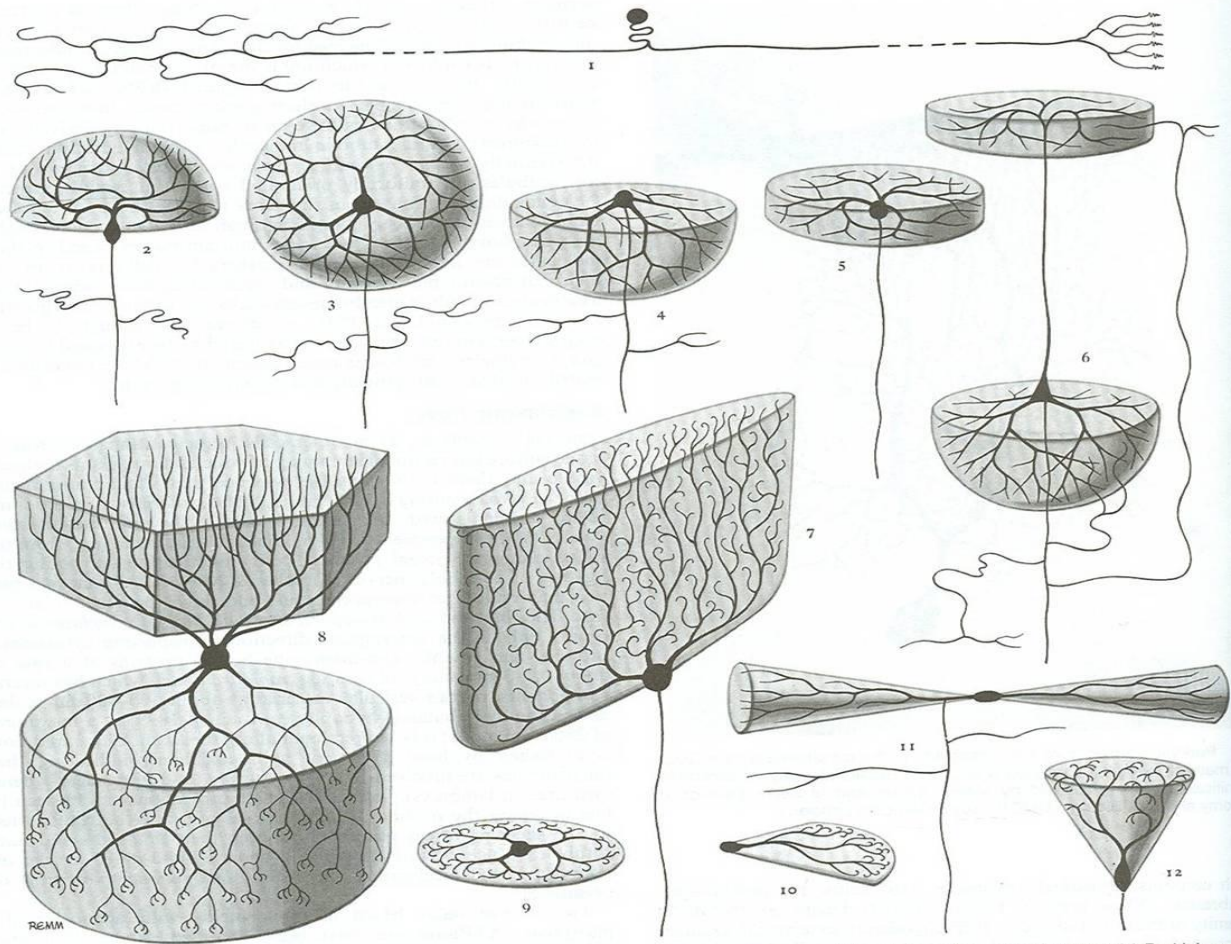


# Reticular Formation

## *Dendritic configuration*

- Isodendritic: long dendrites which extend along the main axis of the brainstem, on the transverse plane. (*the most common type in the reticular formation*)
- Idiodendritic: A single dendritic tree with short dendrites which curve towards the periphery of the nuclei of the reticular formation.
- Allodendritic: many short dendrites with reiterating path.





8.33 Scheme showing pattern variations of neuronal geometry: (1) unipolar, sensory ganglionic neuron; (2) bipolar neuron; (3) stellate (isodendritic) neuron, with (4), (5), and (11) which are modifications of this pattern; (6) pyramidal neuron with an apical and a series of basal dendrites

and recurrent axon collaterals from the cerebral cortex; (7) Purkinje neuron from the cerebellar cortex (see 8.32); (8) Golgi neuron from the cerebellar cortex; (9) and (10) amacrine cells lacking axons; (12) glomerular neuron (mitral cell) from the olfactory bulb, showing recurved dendritic tips.



# Reticular Formation of the Brainstem

- Chemoarchitectural organization of neuronal nuclei:
  - Grup A: noradrenergic e dopaminergic
  - Grup B: serotonergic
  - Grup C: adrenergic
  - Grup Ch: colinergic

# Reticular Formation

## *Anatomical Subdivision in columns*

- Median: large neurons (serotonergic)

*Raphe nuclei*

- Medial: large neurons

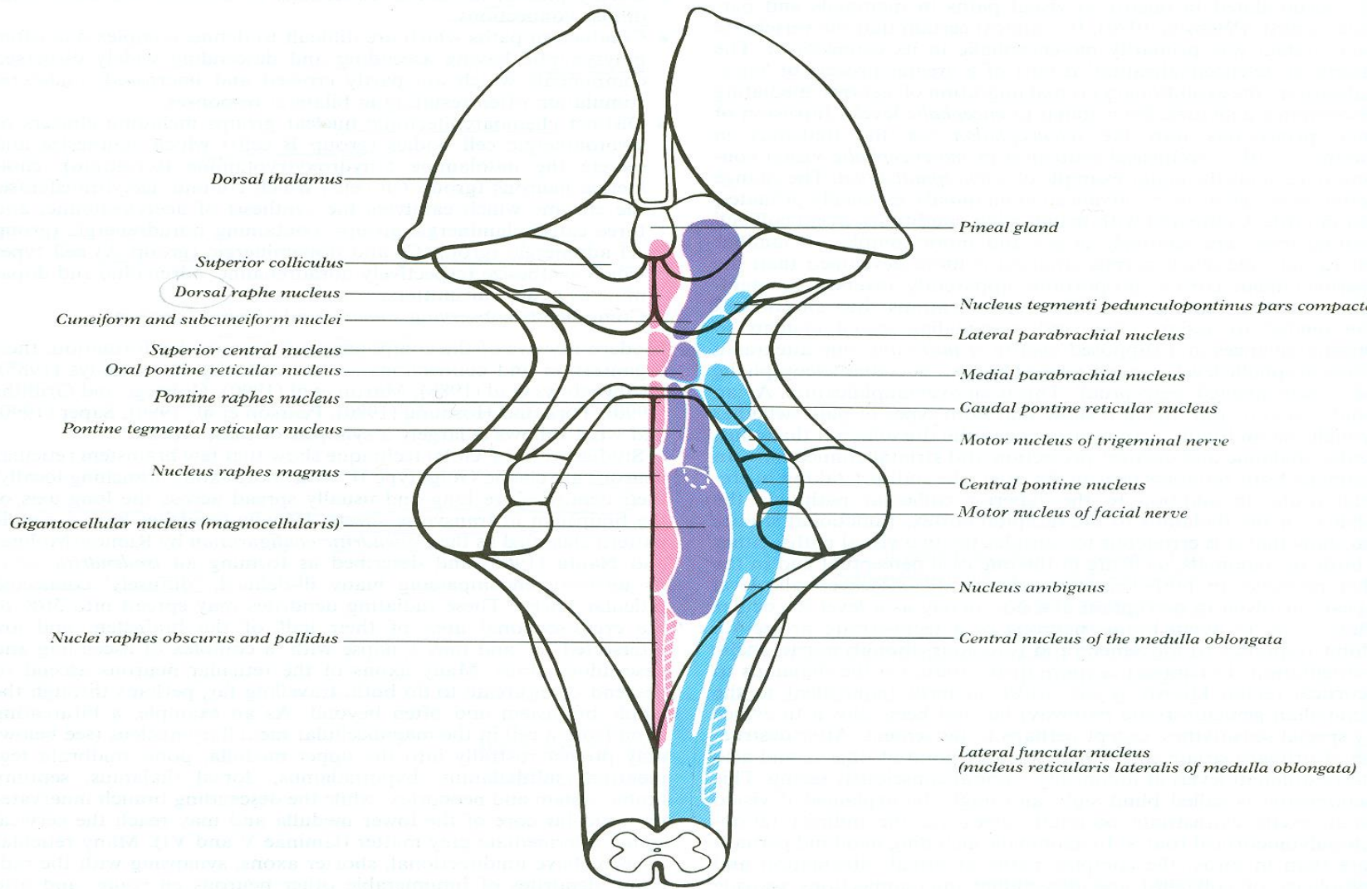
*Gigantocellular neurons*

- Lateral: medium sized and small neurons

*Grey reticular substance of the pontine tegmentum*







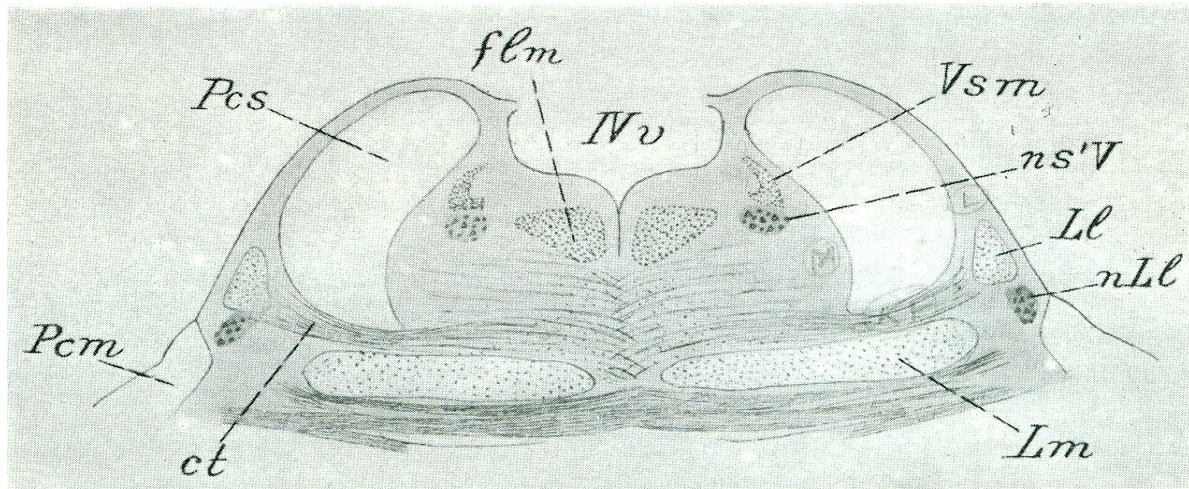
# Grey reticular substance of the lateral pontine tegmentum

Parabrachial Nuclei: -medial

-lateral

-ventral (of Kölliker-Fuse)

*Pneumotaxic center*

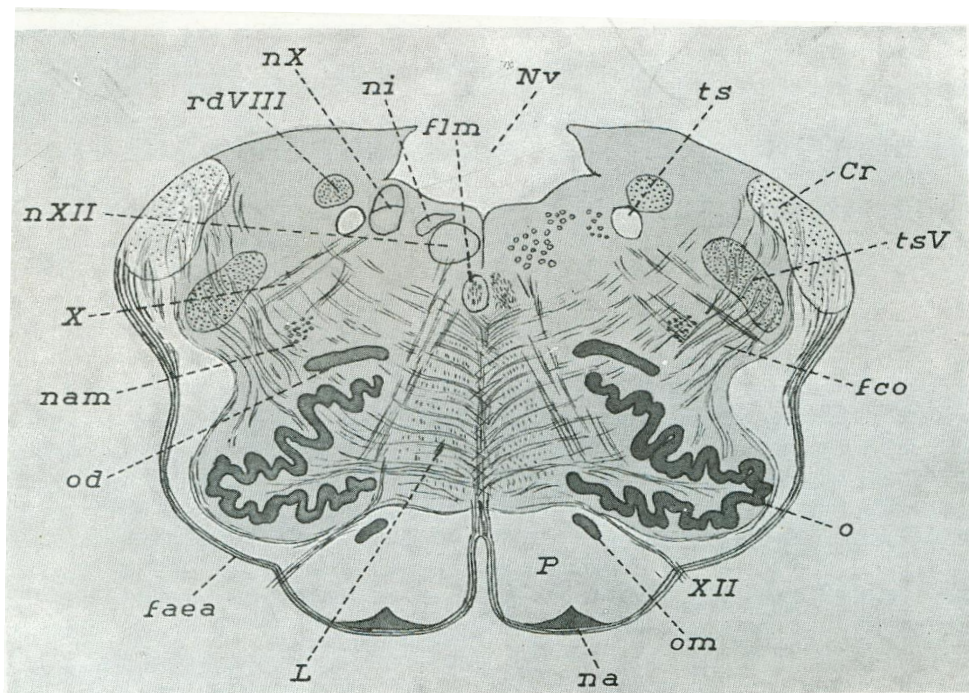




# Bötzinger Nucleus

Stimulation of inhalation

Ventrally to the nucleus ambiguus.



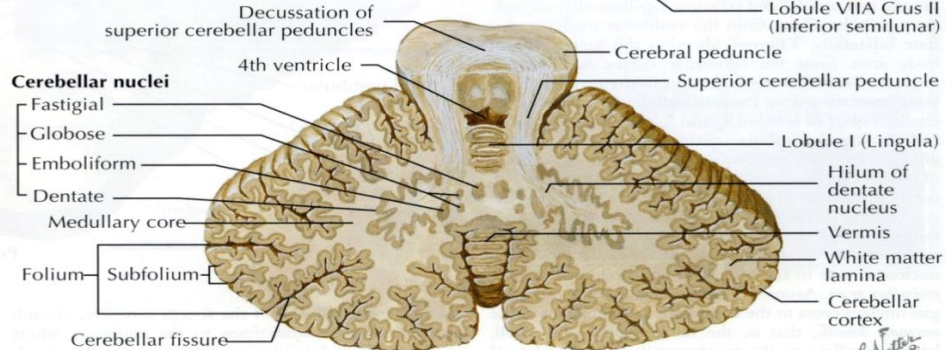
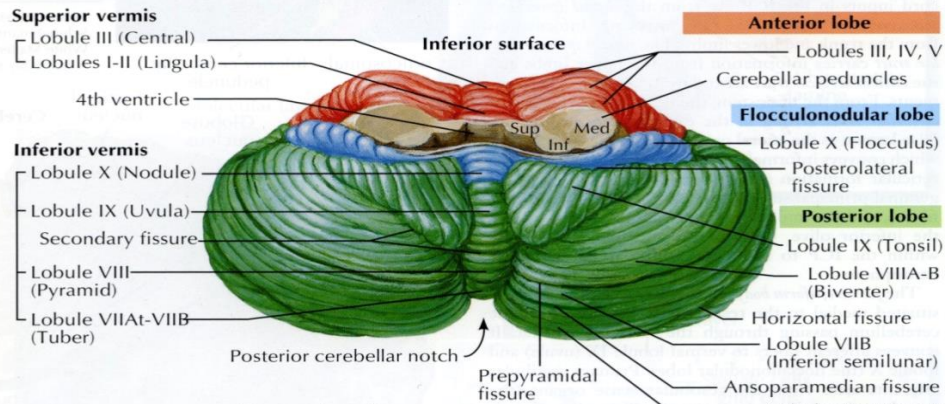
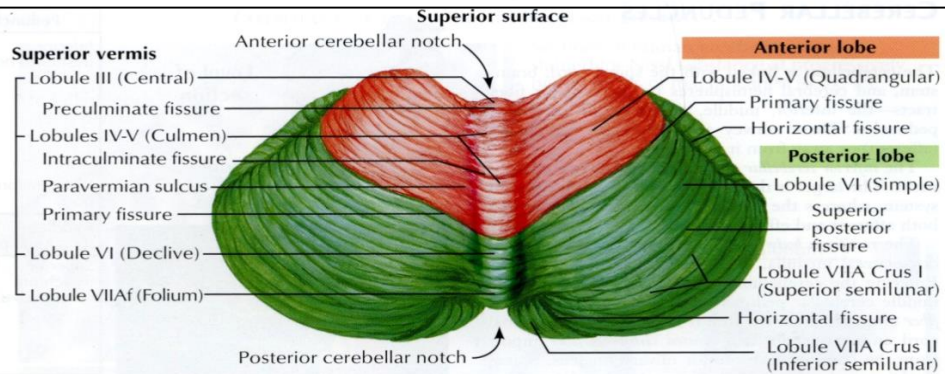




# The Cerebellum

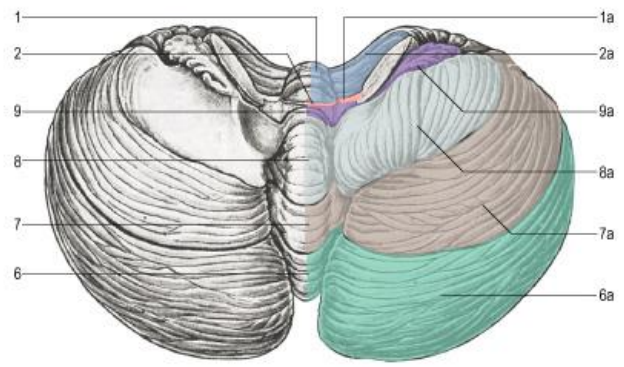
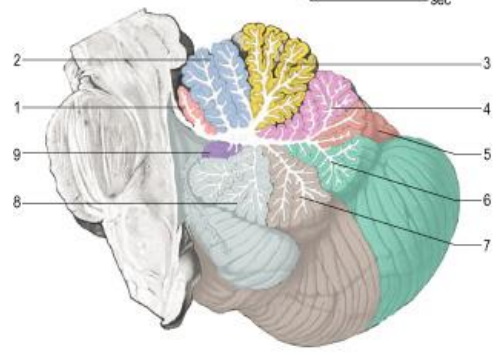
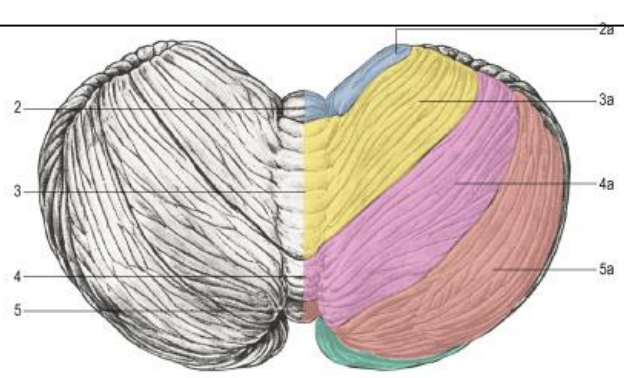
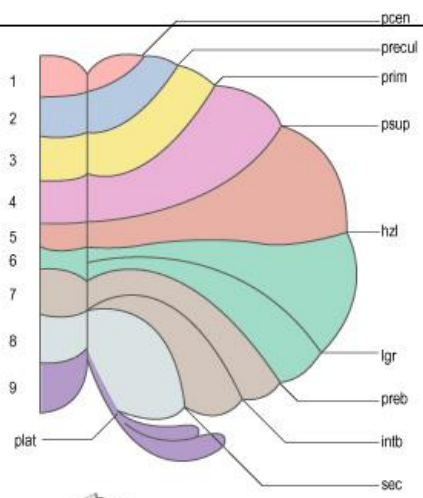


# The Cerebellum



Section in plane of superior cerebellar peduncle

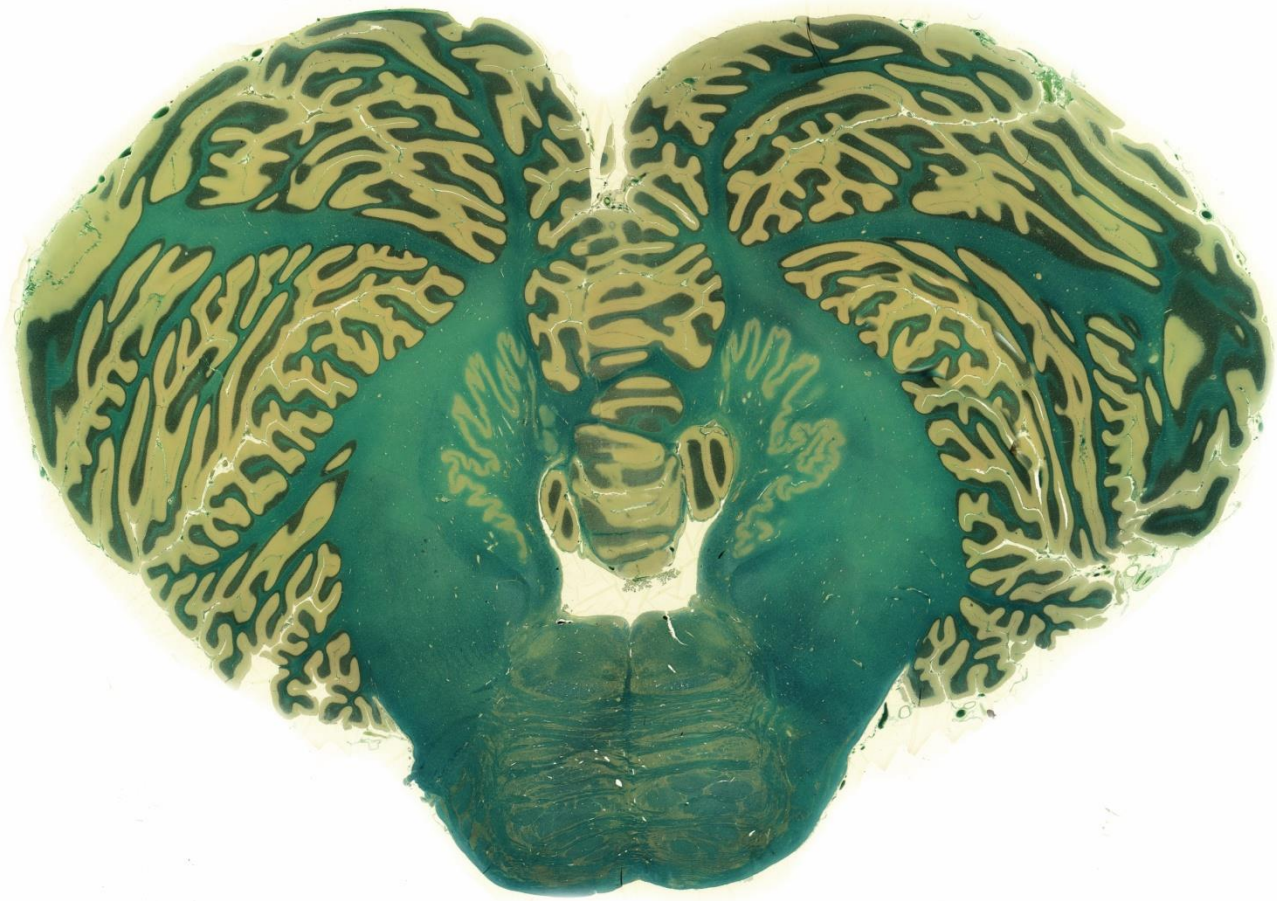
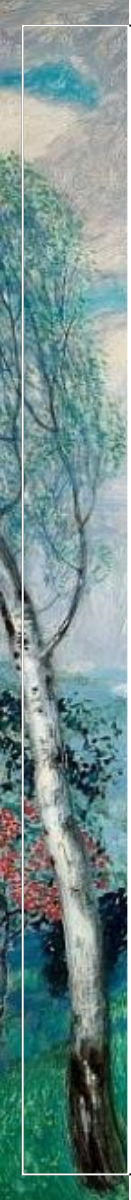




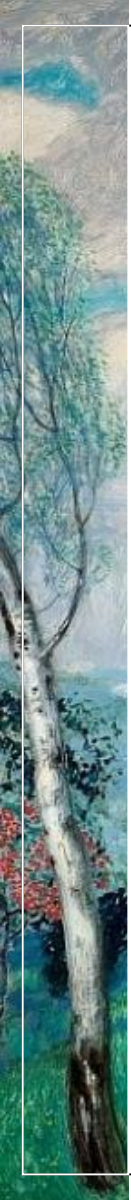
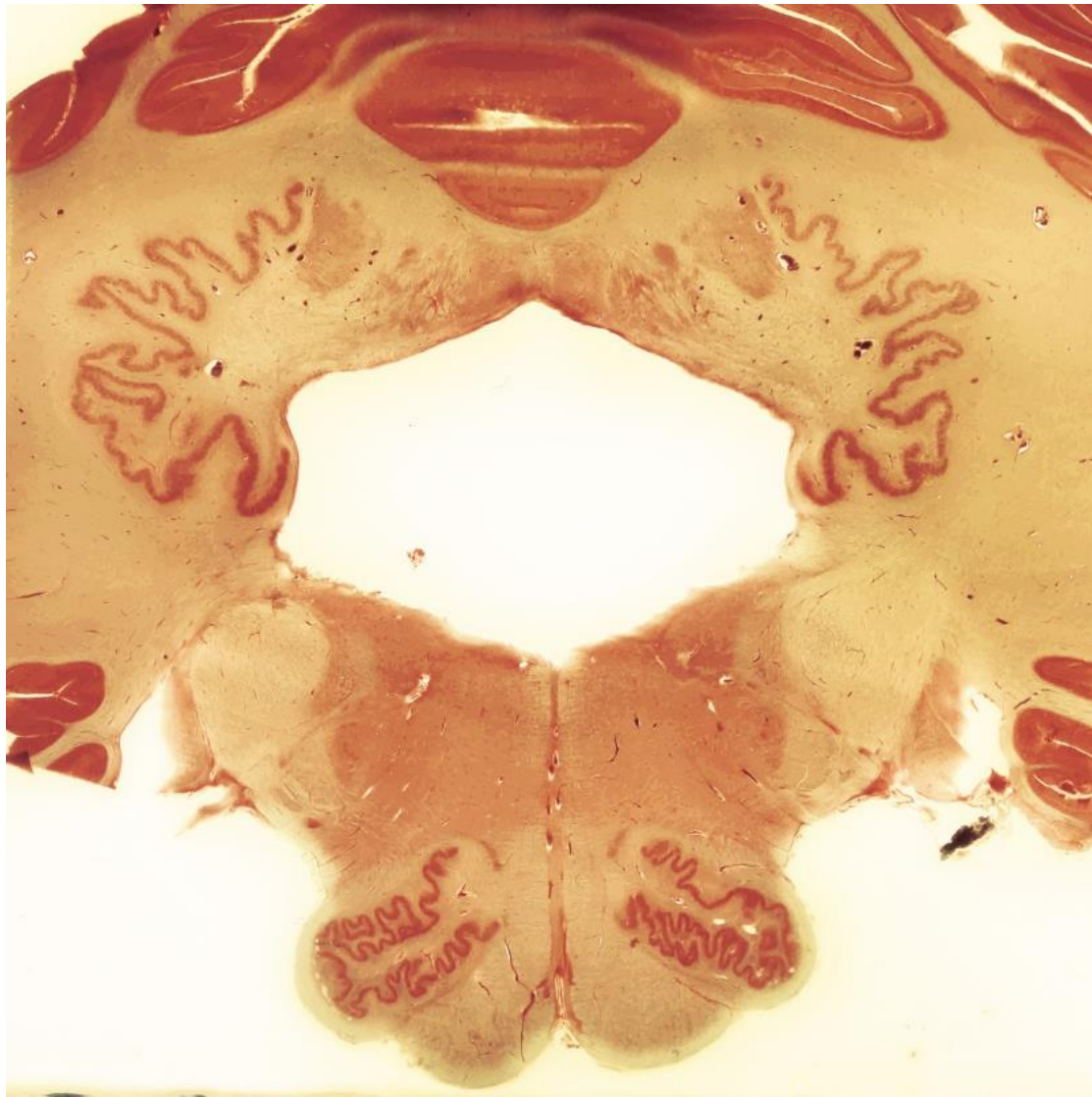
- | Anterior lobe | Posterior lobe | Flocculonodular lobe |
|---------------|----------------|----------------------|
| 1 Lingula     | 4 Simple       | 9 Nodule             |
| 2 Central     | 5 Folium       |                      |
| 3 Culmen      | 6 Tuber        |                      |
|               | 7 Pyramis      |                      |
|               | 8 Uvula        |                      |

- Fissures**
- pccn precentral
  - pccul preculminate
  - prim primary
  - psup posterior superior
  - hzl horizontal
  - lgr lunigracile
  - preb prebiventral
  - intb intraventral
  - sec secondary
  - plat posterolateral

- Wings**
- 1a Wing of lingula
  - 2a Wing of central lobule
  - 3a Anterior quadrangular lobule
  - 4a Posterior quadrangular lobule
  - 5a Superior semilunar lobule
  - 6a Inferior semilunar lobule
  - 7a Biventral lobule
  - 8a Tonsil of cerebellum
  - 9a Flocculus

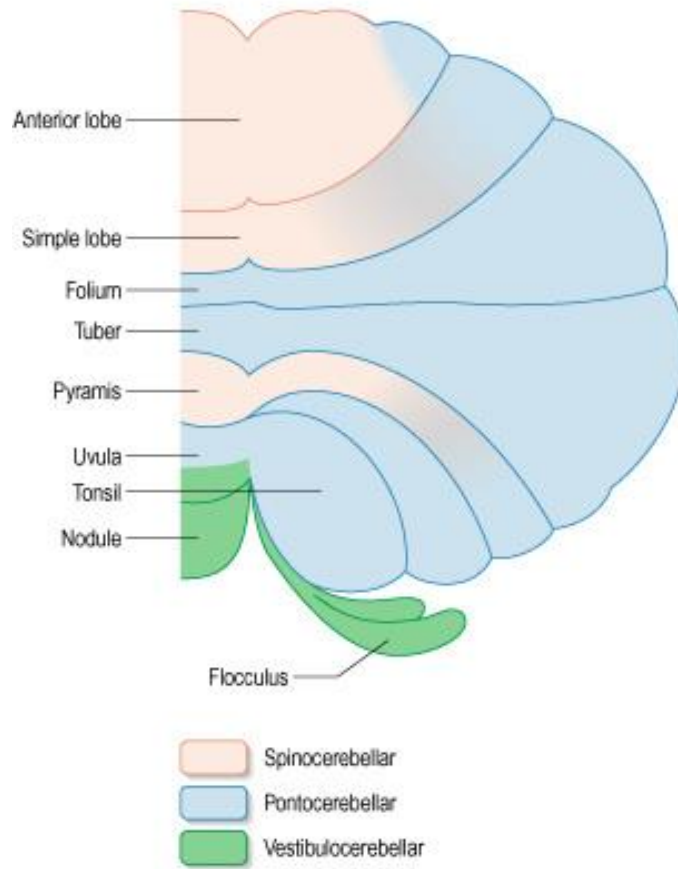


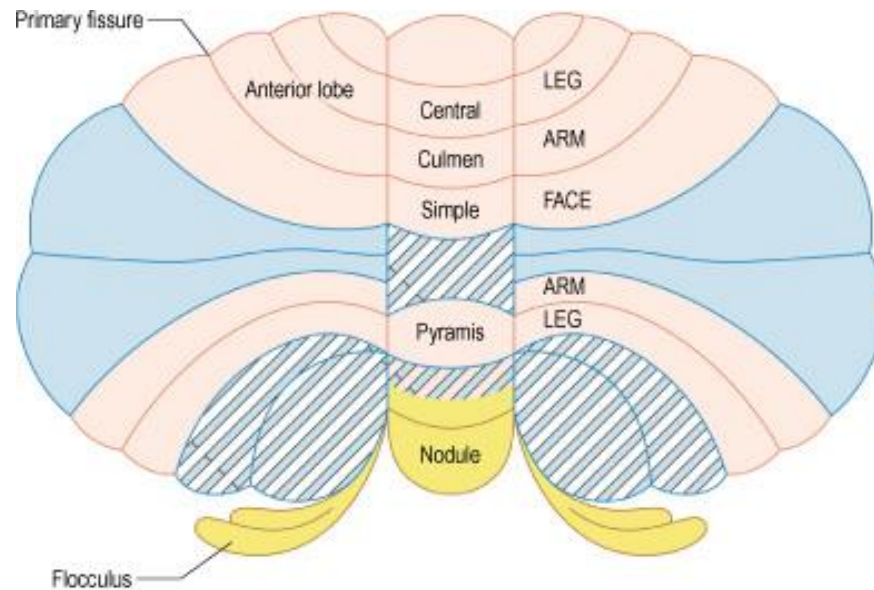




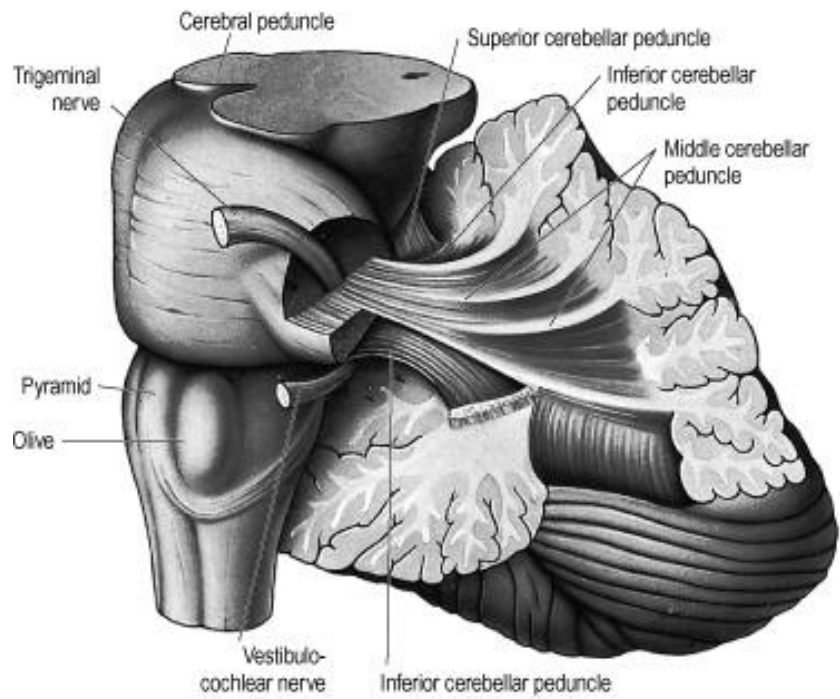


**A**

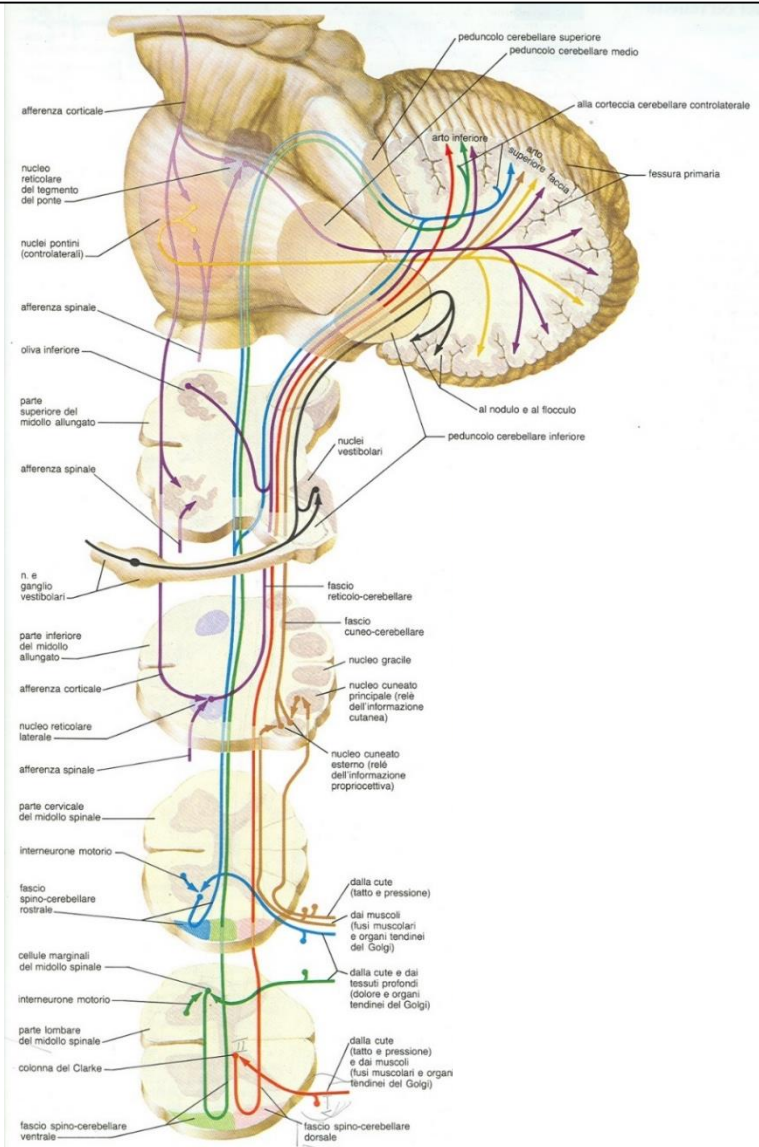




- Lobules receiving somatosensory projections
- Lobules receiving visual and acoustic projections
- Lobules receiving vestibular projections





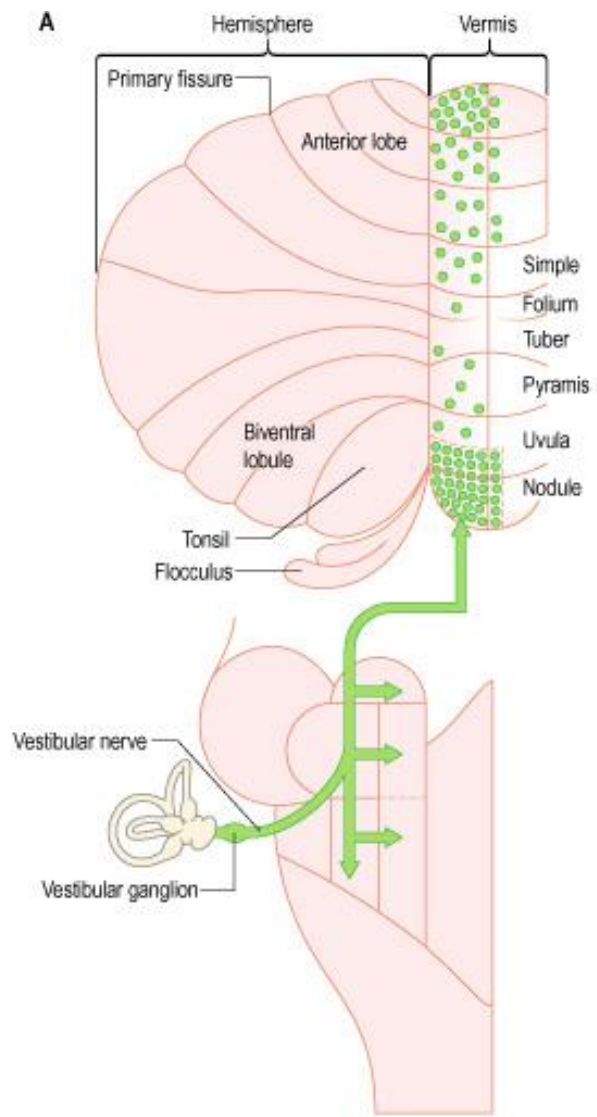


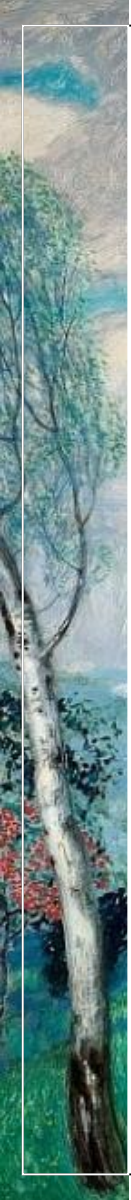
## Cerebellar Afferences

- Vestibulo-cerebellar
- Spino-cerebellar
- Cortico-Ponto-cerebellar
- Olivo-cerebellar

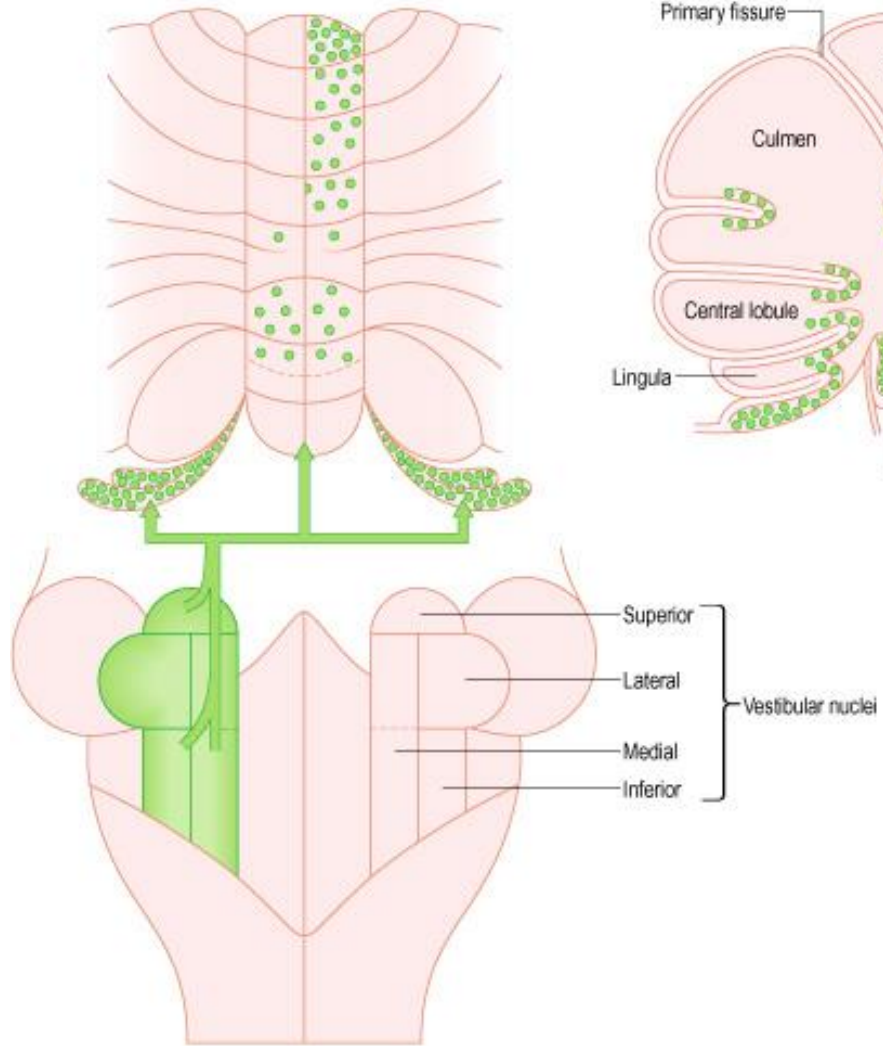
## Cerebellar Efferences

- Cerebello-fastigio-vestibular
- Cerebello-dento-rubro

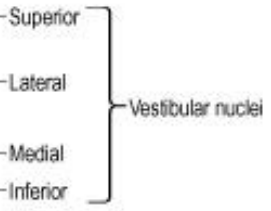
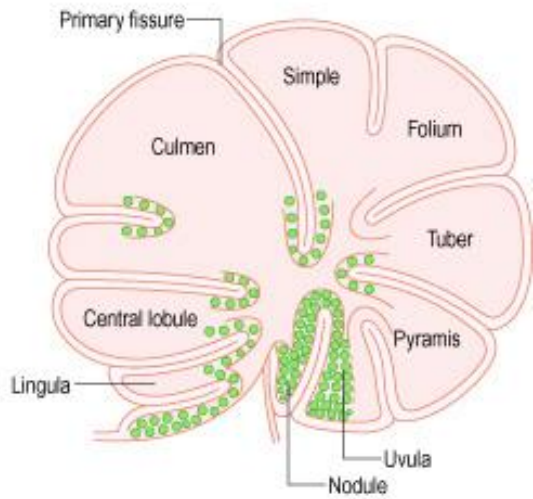




**B**



**C**



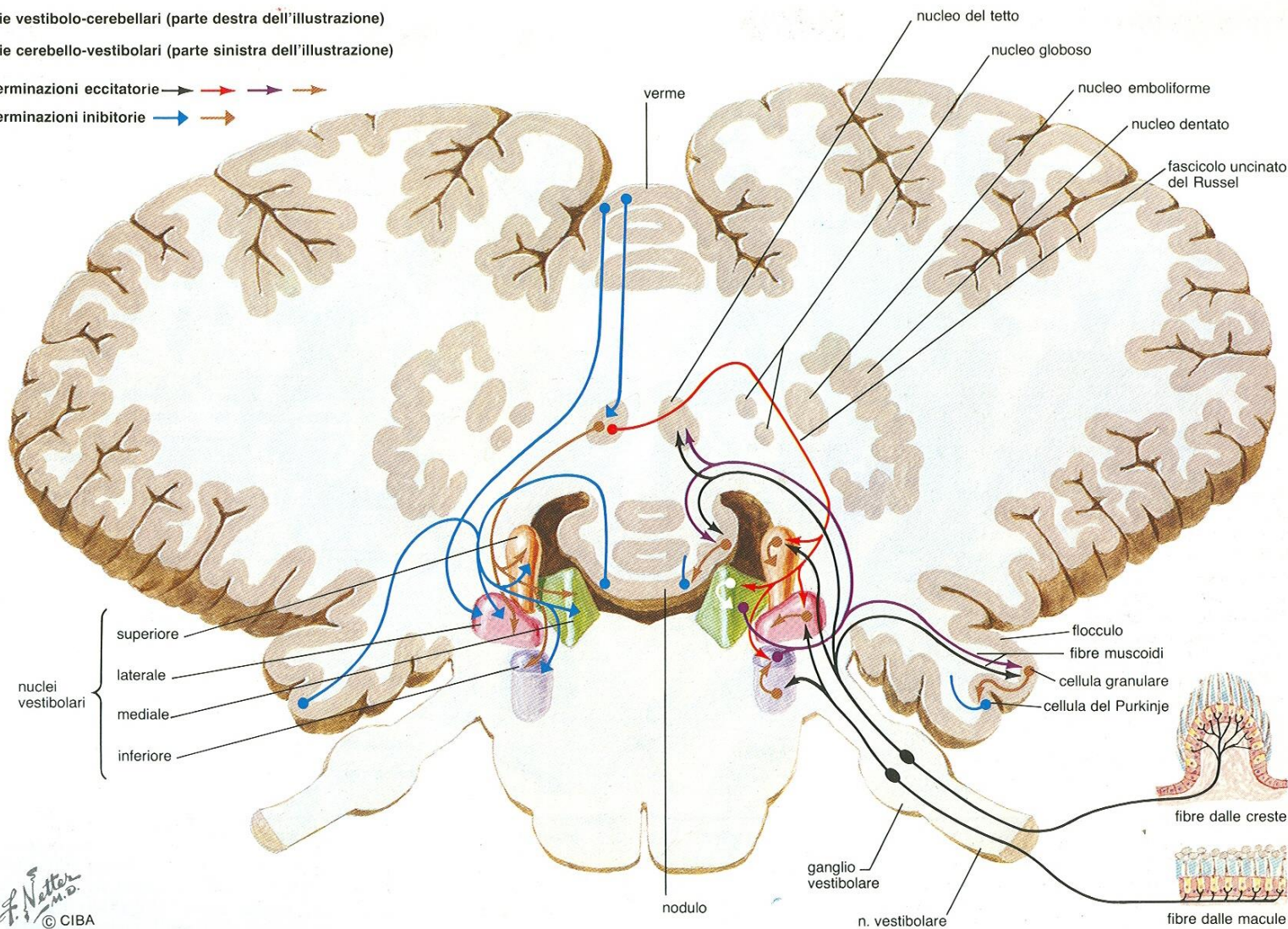


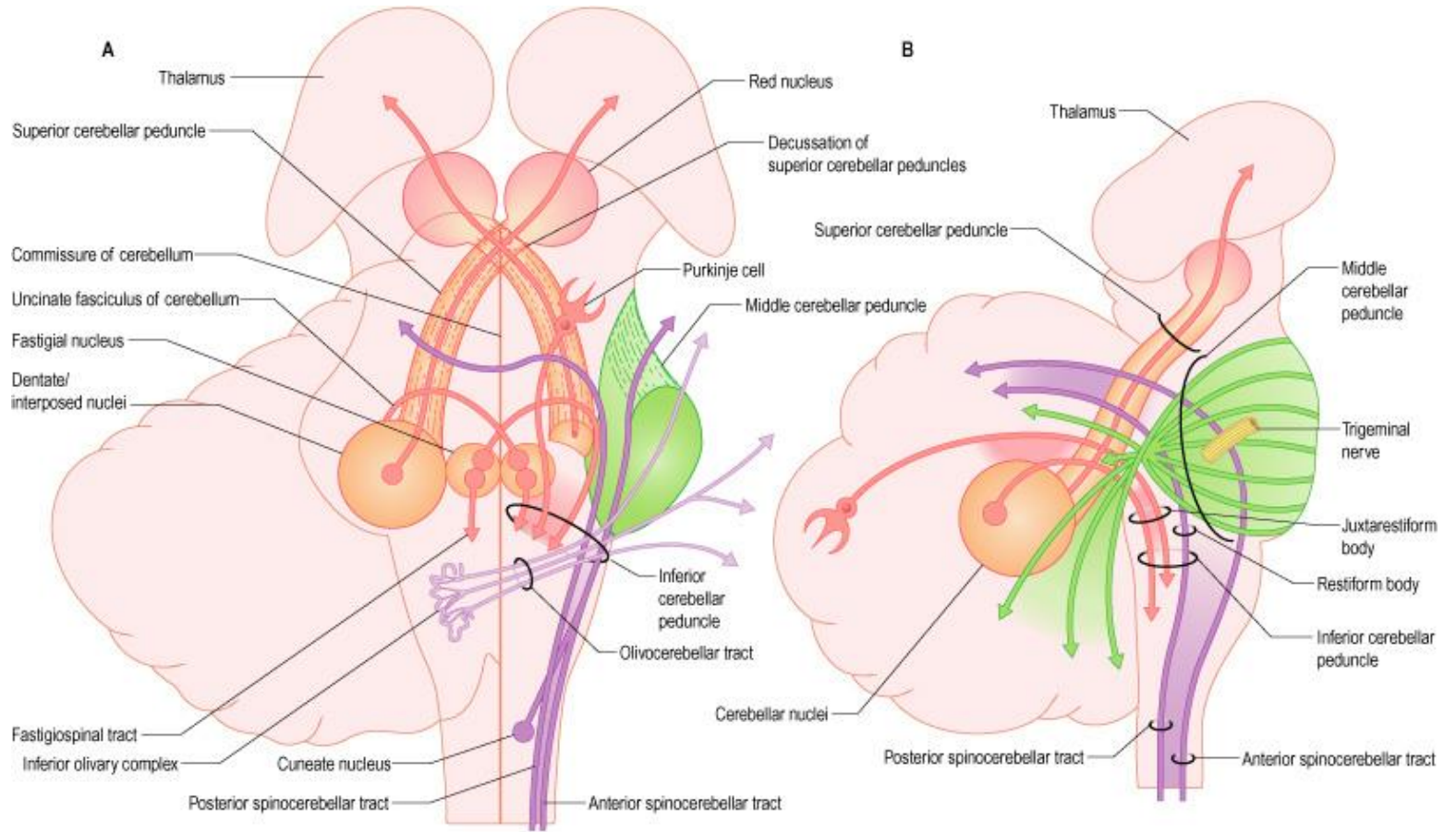
vie vestibolo-cerebellari (parte destra dell'illustrazione)

vie cerebello-vestibolari (parte sinistra dell'illustrazione)

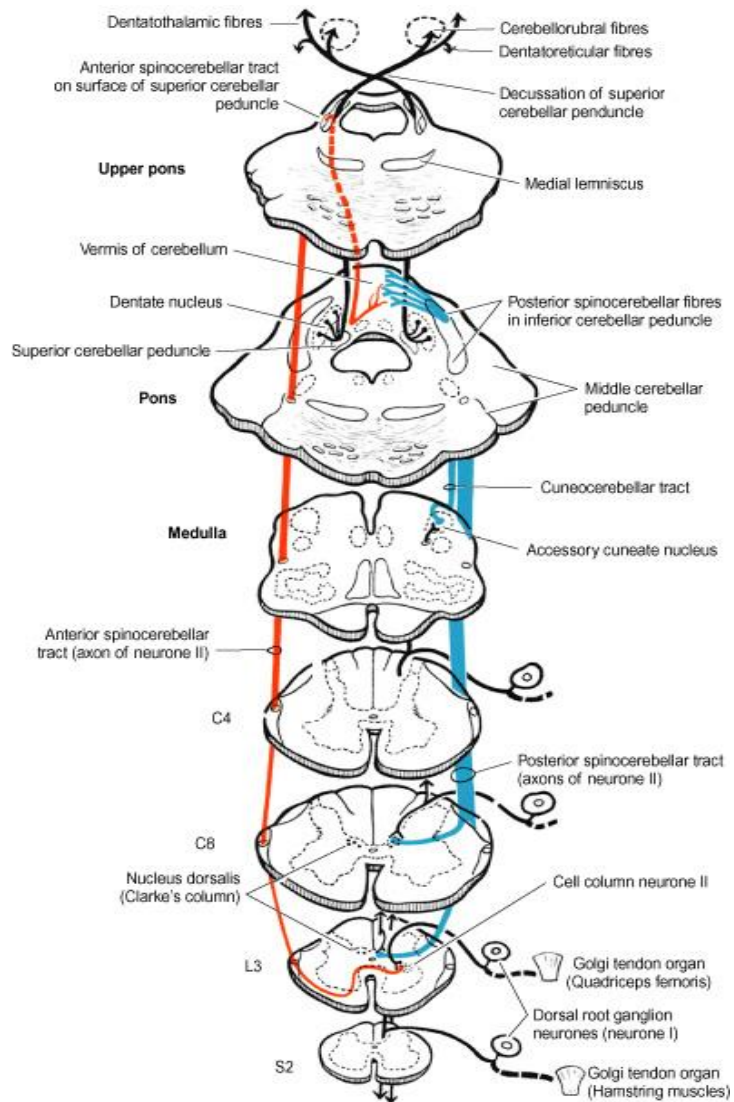
terminazioni eccitatorie → → → →

terminazioni inibitorie → →



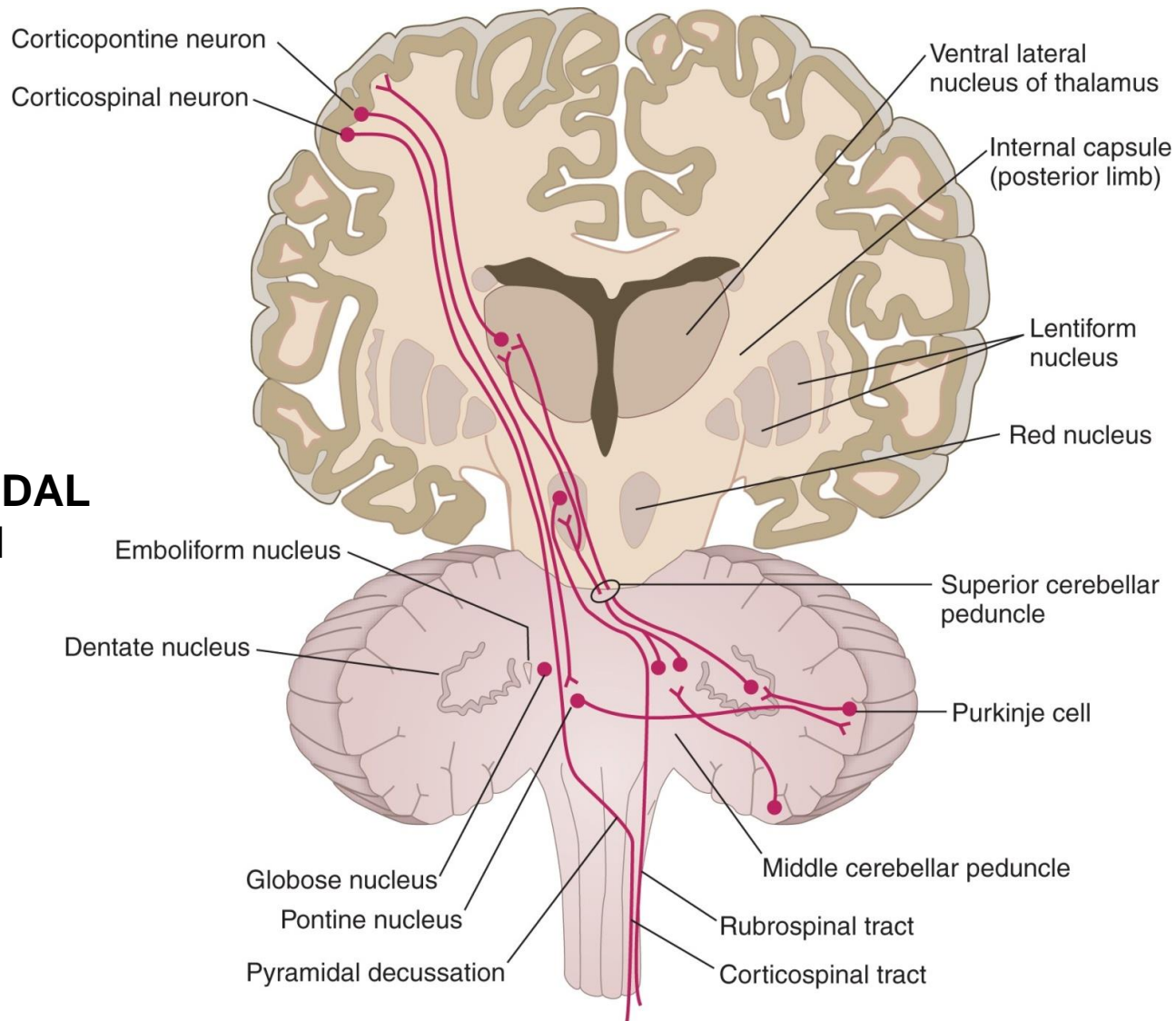


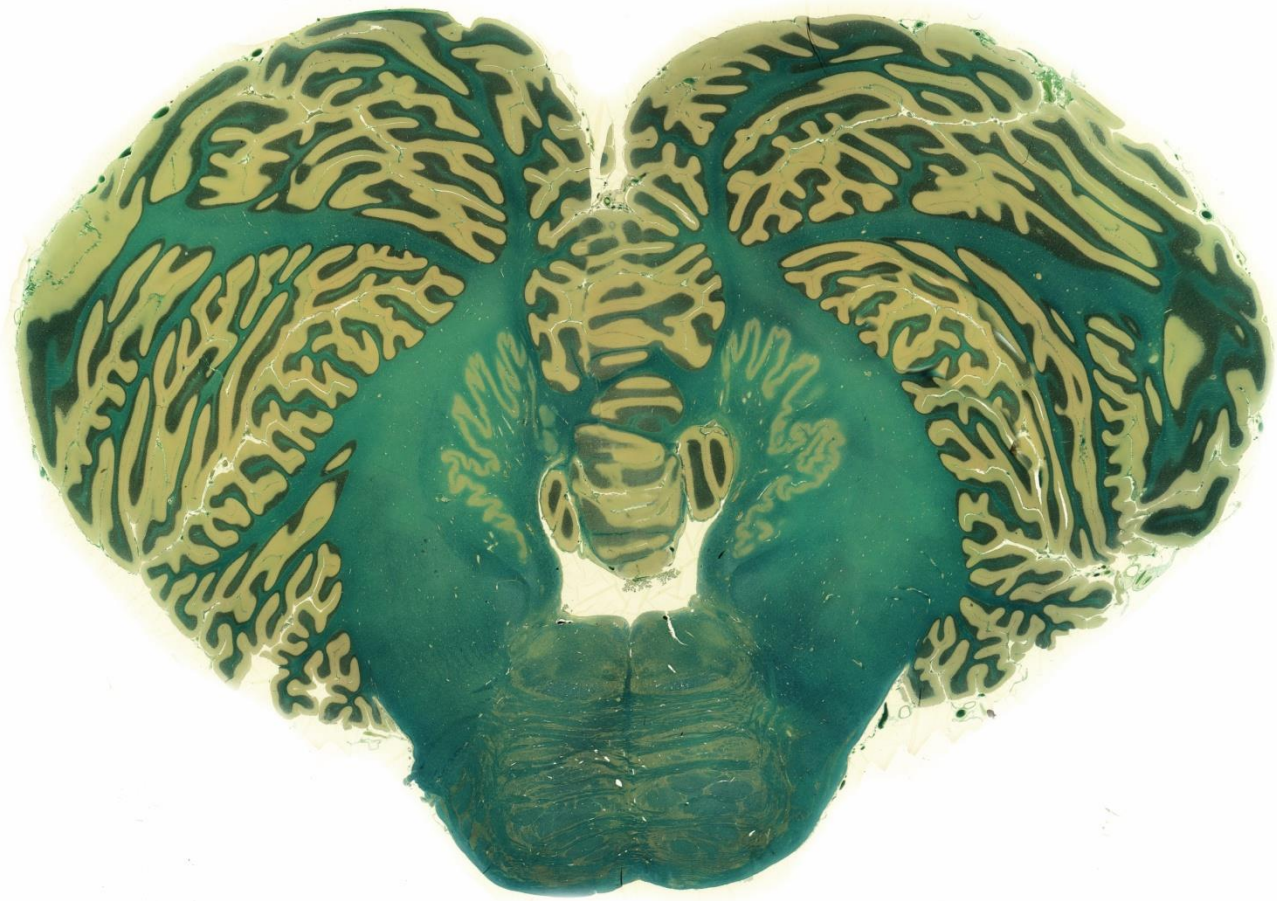
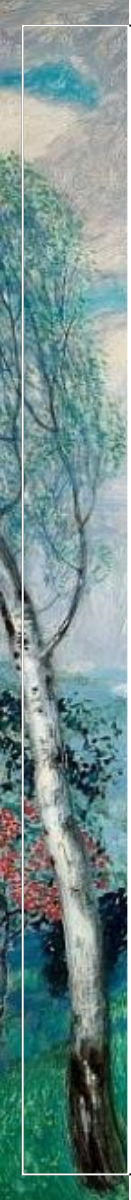




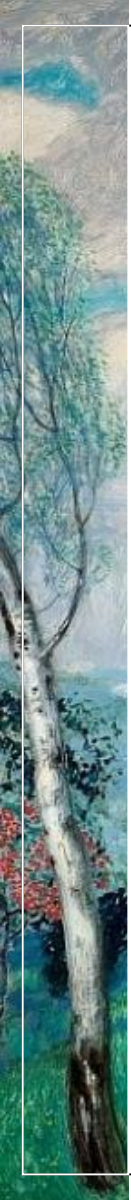
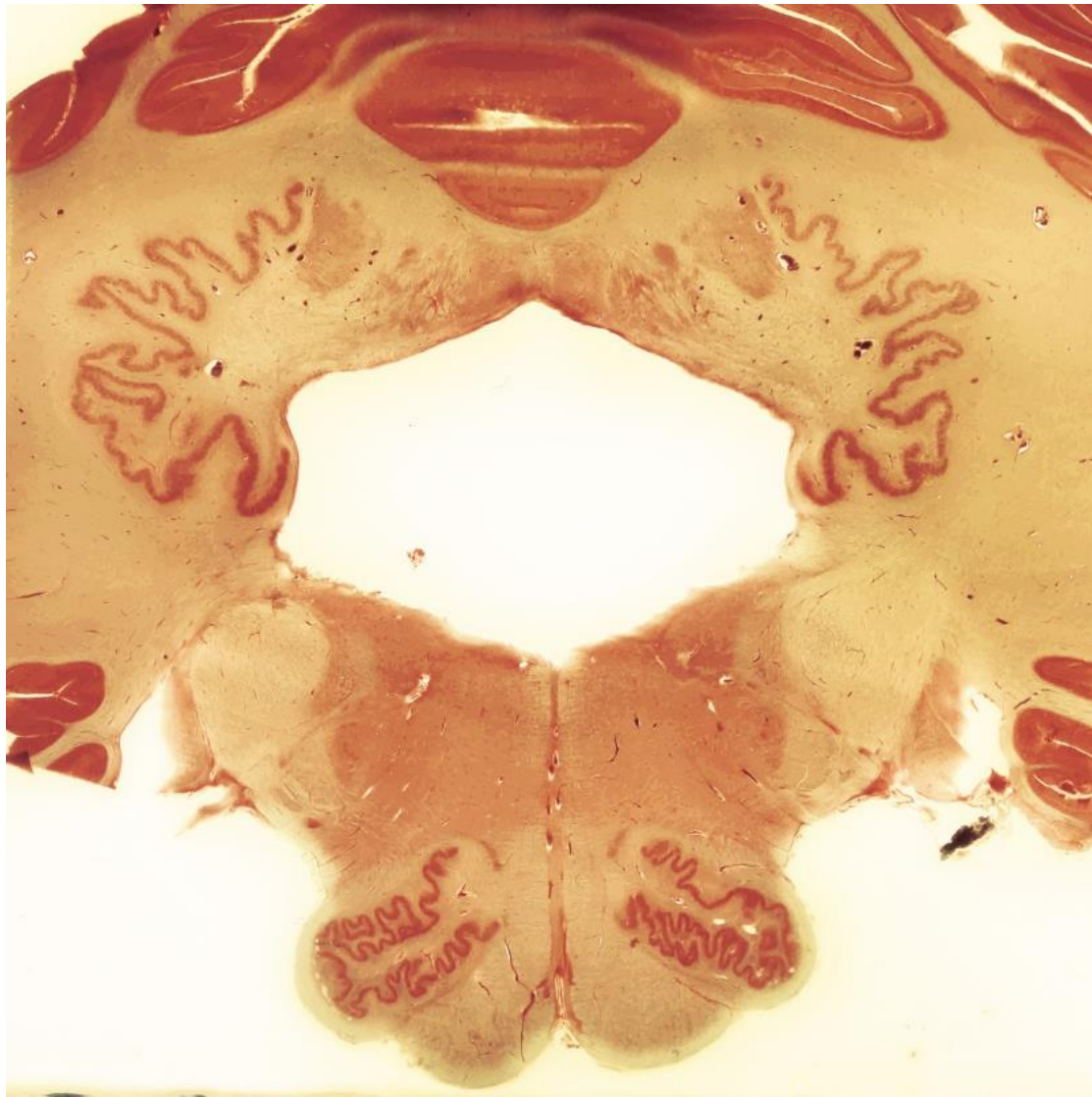


# ESOPYRAMIDAL SYSTEM

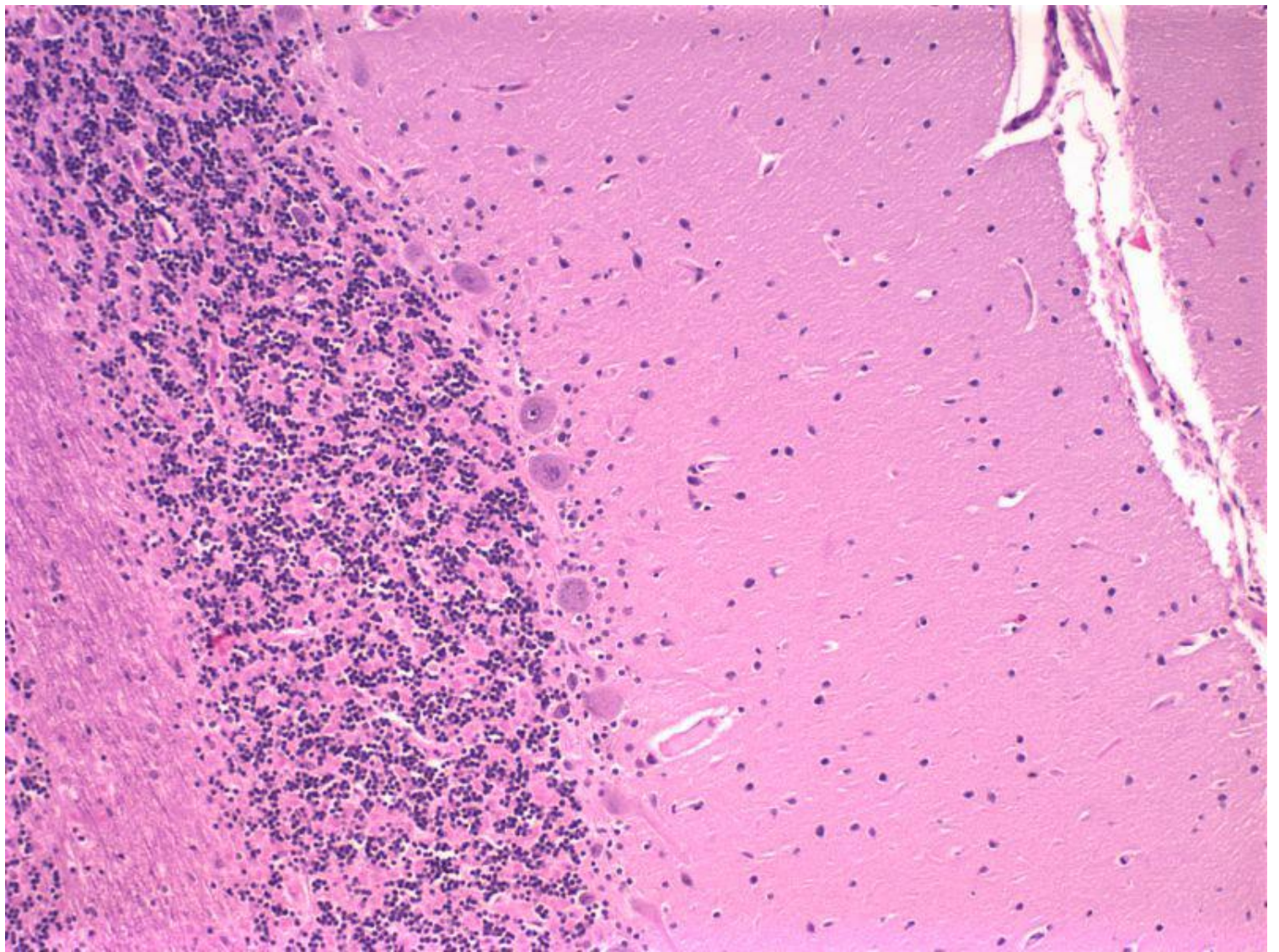




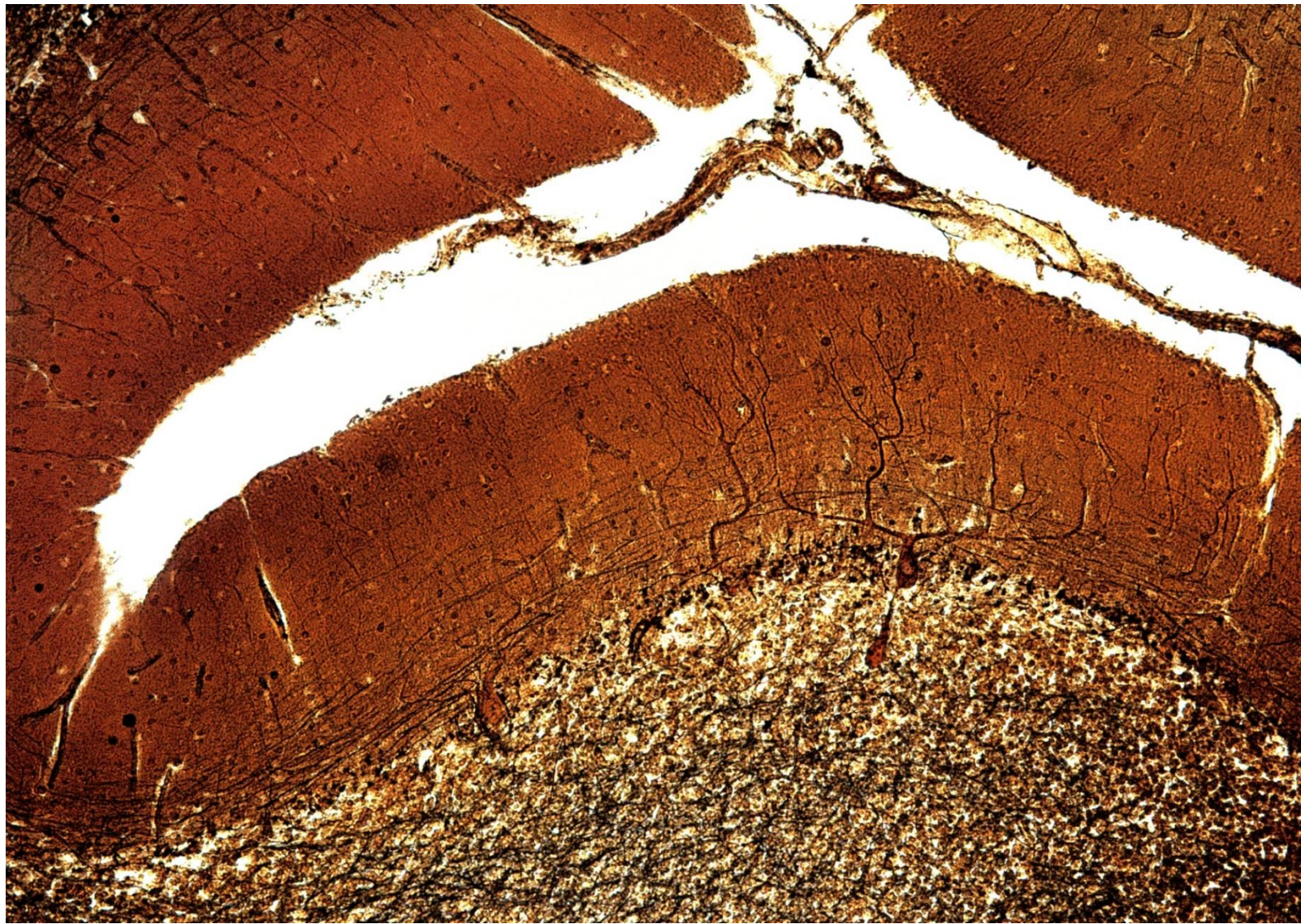




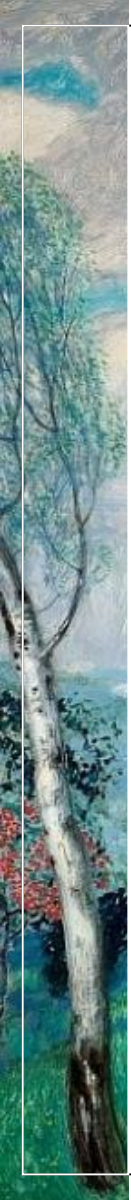
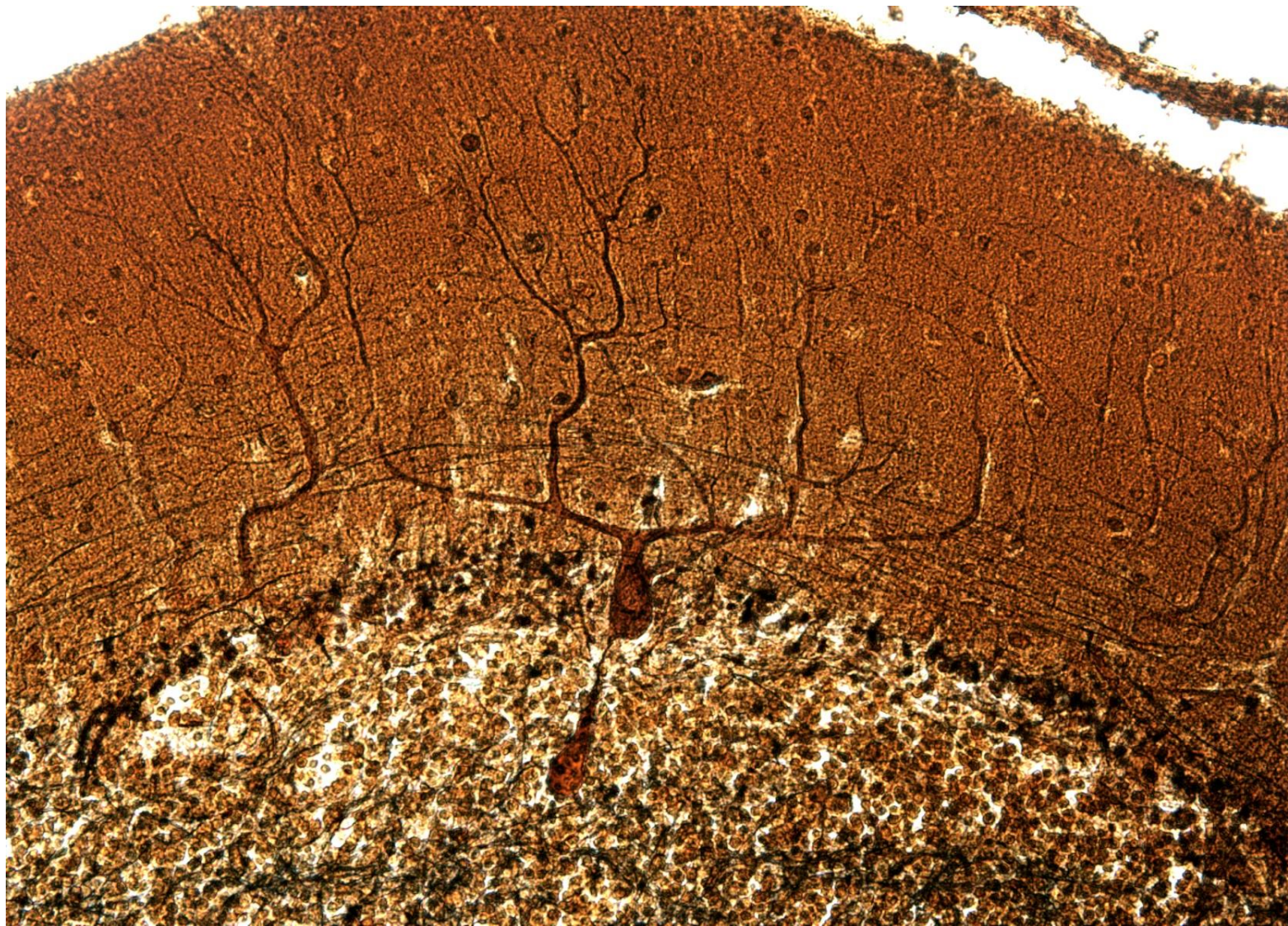




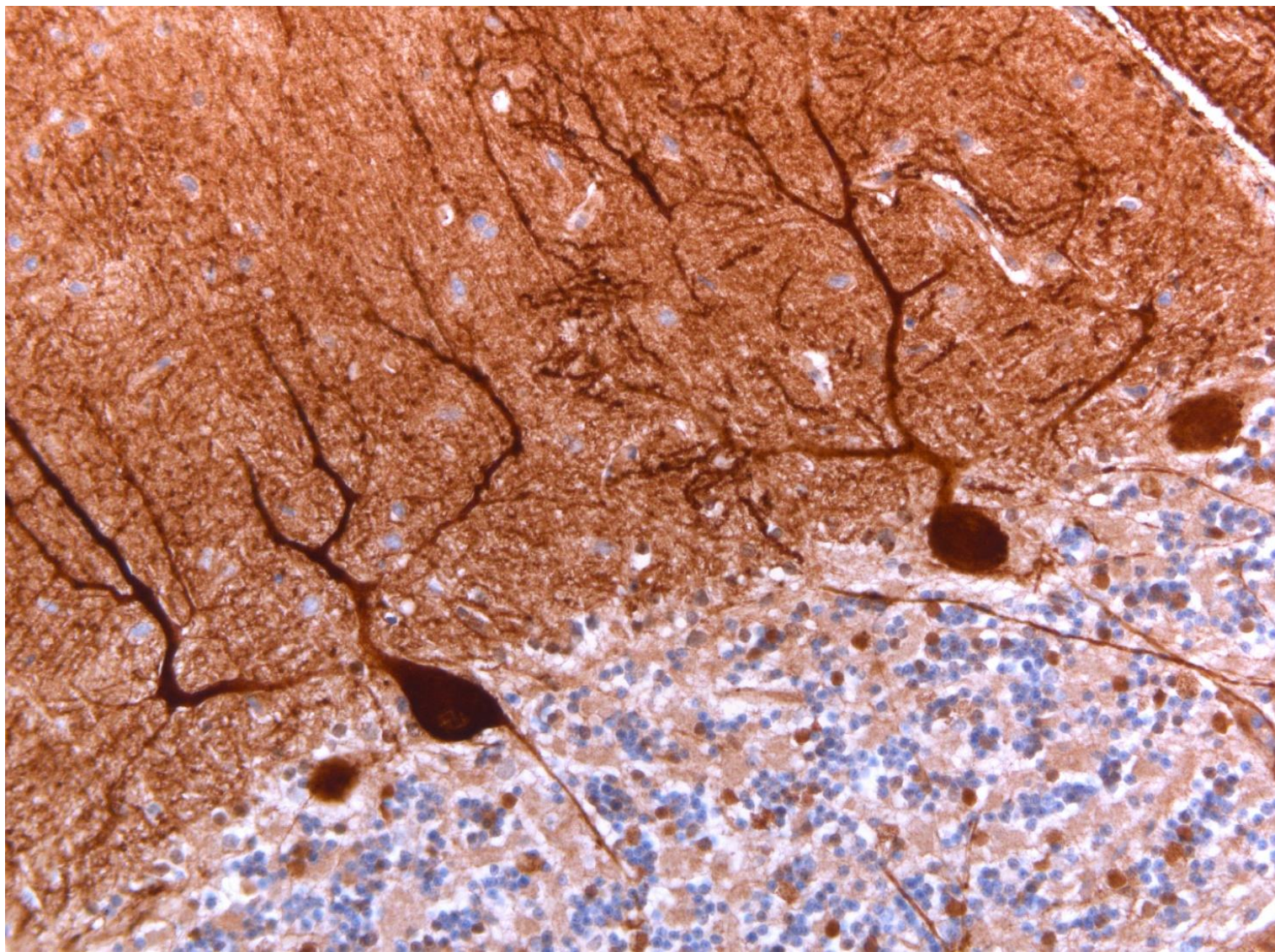














terminazioni eccitatorie → →

terminazioni inibitorie → →

fibre parallele (sezionate)

cellule del Purkinje (inibitorie)

dendriti di una cellula del Purkinje

cellula stellata esterna (inibitoria)

cellula dei canestri (inibitoria)

cellula del Golgi (stellata profonda) (inibitoria)

cellule granulari (eccitatorie)

fibre parallele (assoni delle cellule granulari)

strato molecolare

strato delle cellule del Purkinje

strato granulare

sostanza bianca

assone di una cellula del Purkinje

fibra rampicante (eccitatoria)

glomeruli

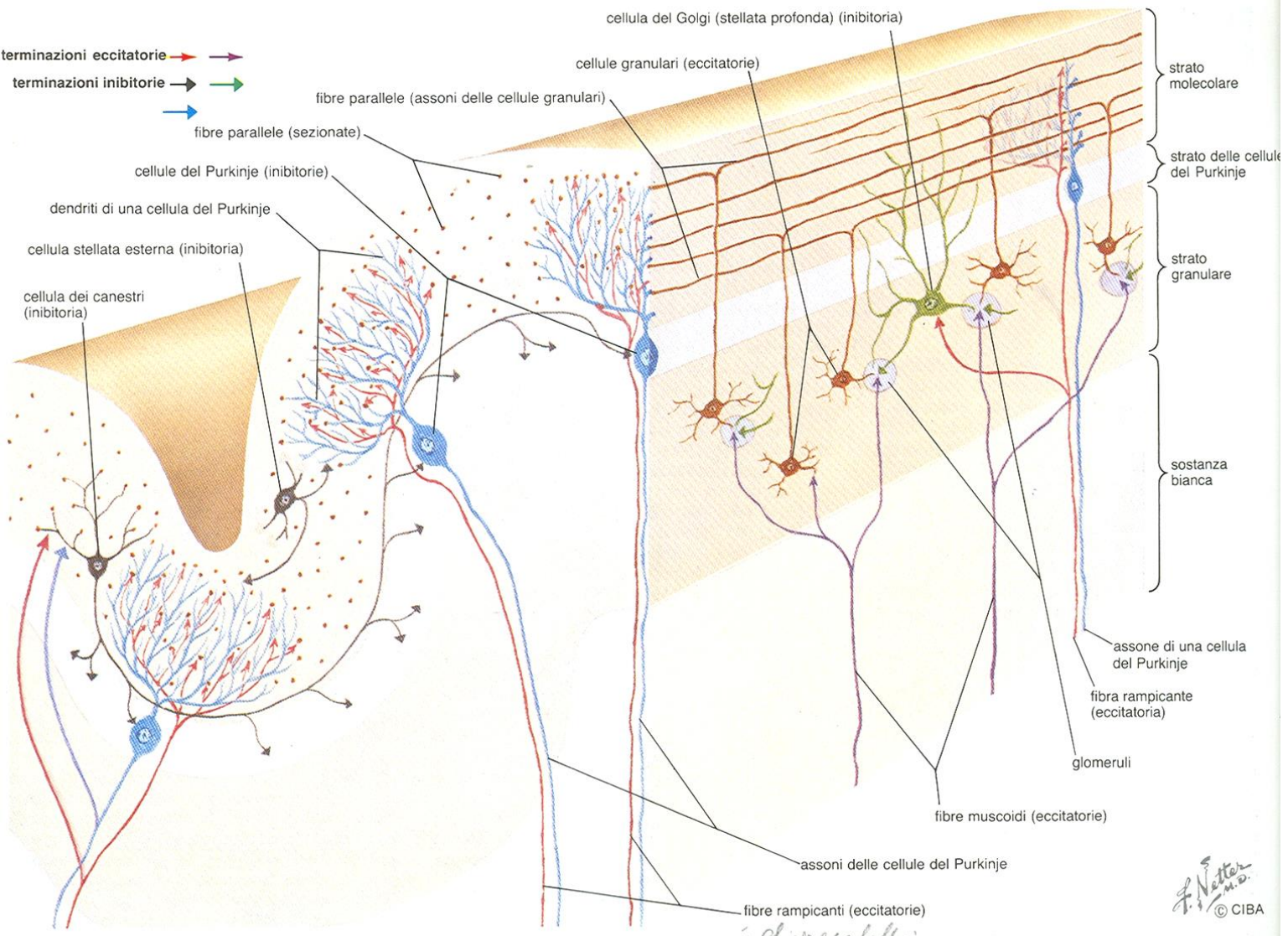
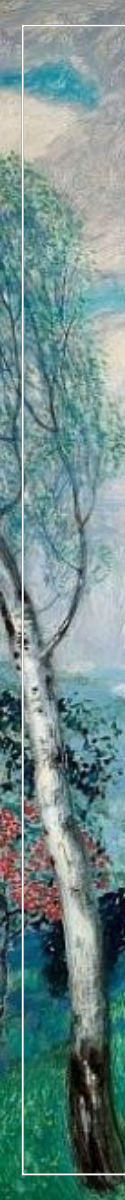
fibre muscolari (eccitatorie)

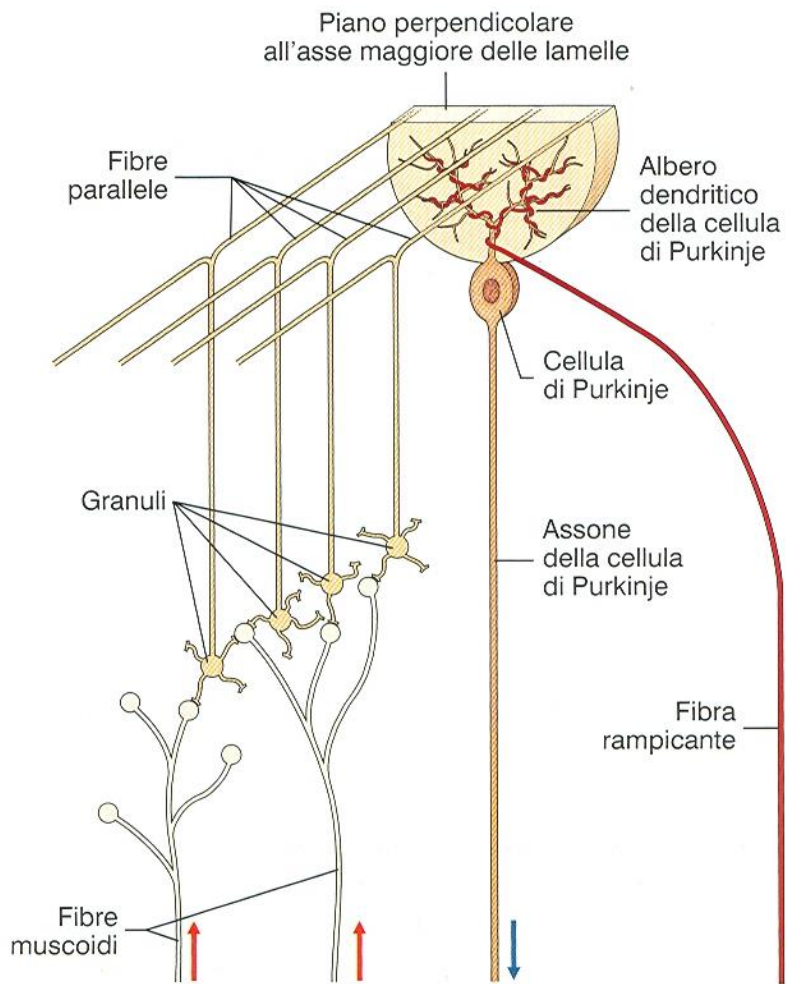
assoni delle cellule del Purkinje

fibre rampicanti (eccitatorie)

*di un cervello*

F. Netter  
M.D.  
© CIBA





**Figura R14.5-1** - Afferenze ed efferenze della corteccia cerebellare.



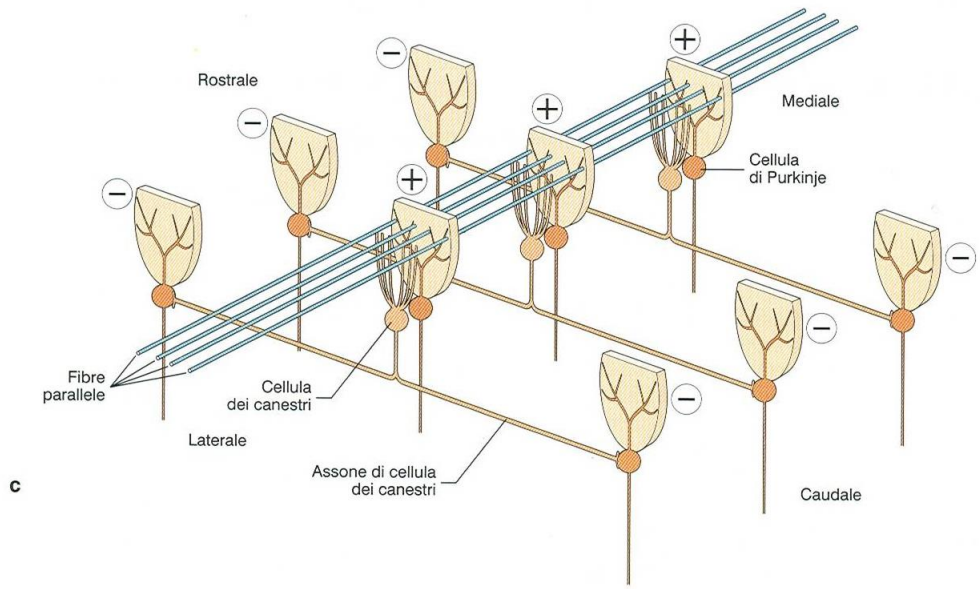
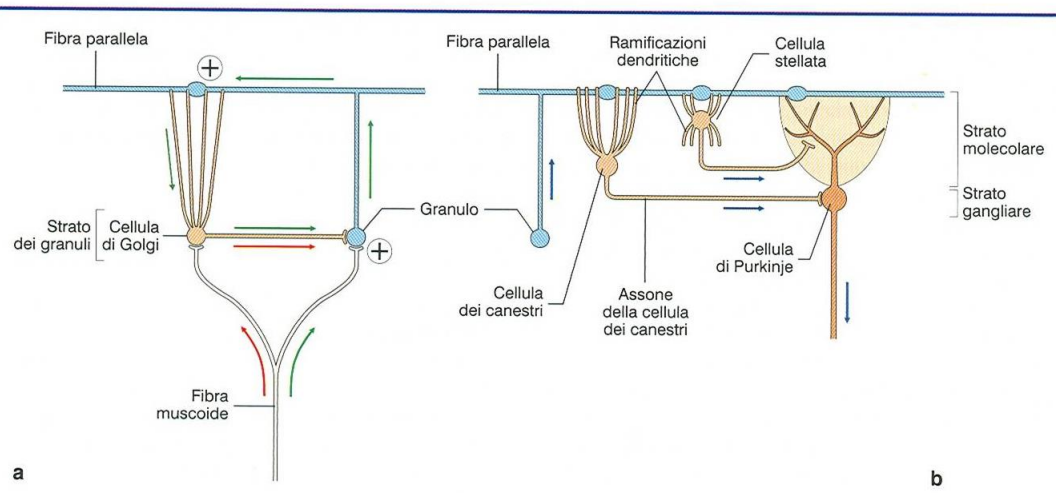


Figura R14.5-2 - Ruolo degli interneuroni inibitori nei circuiti corticali del cervelletto.

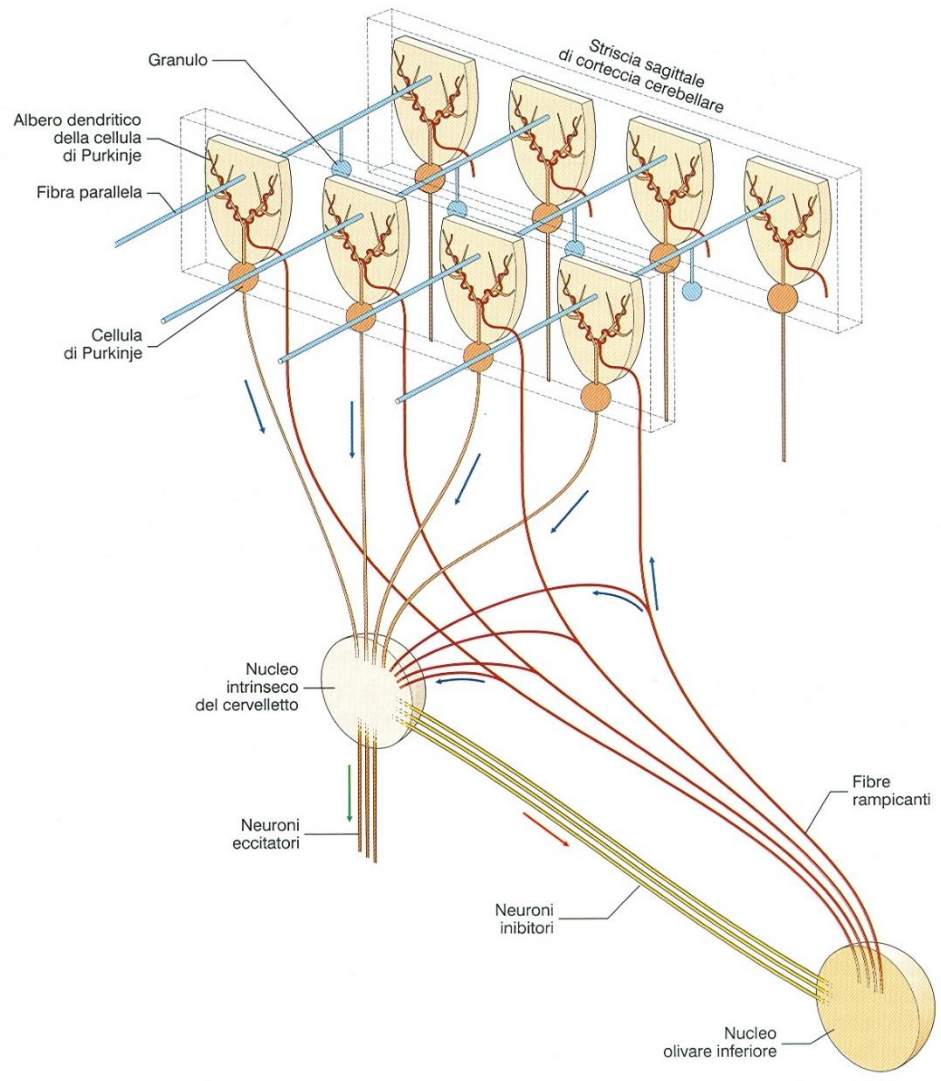
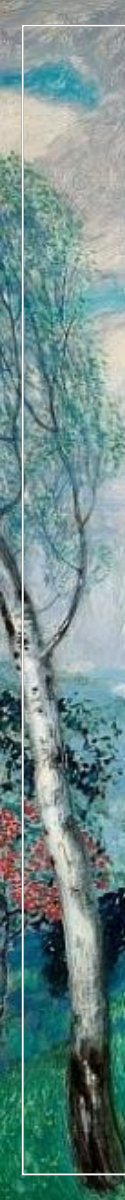
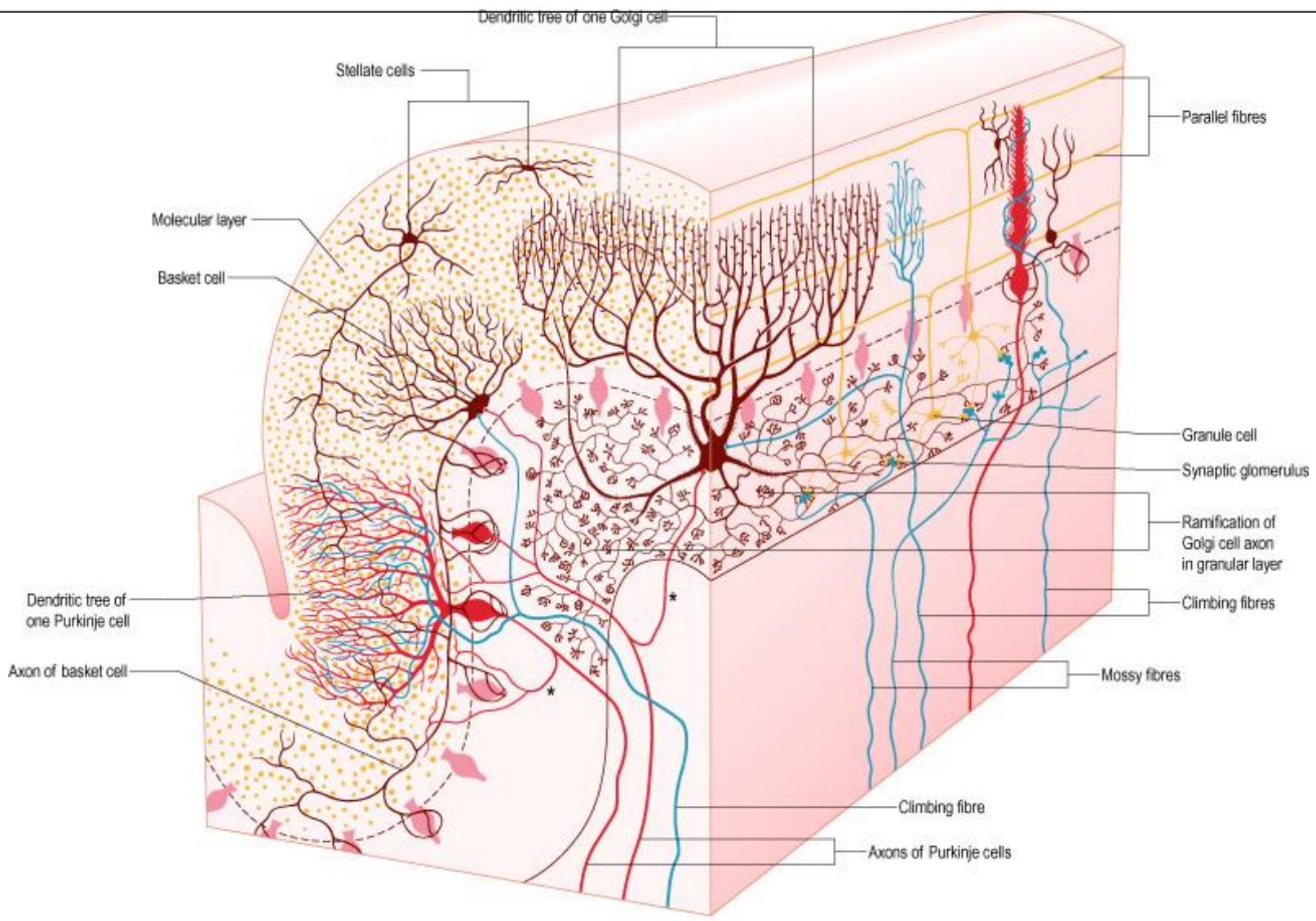
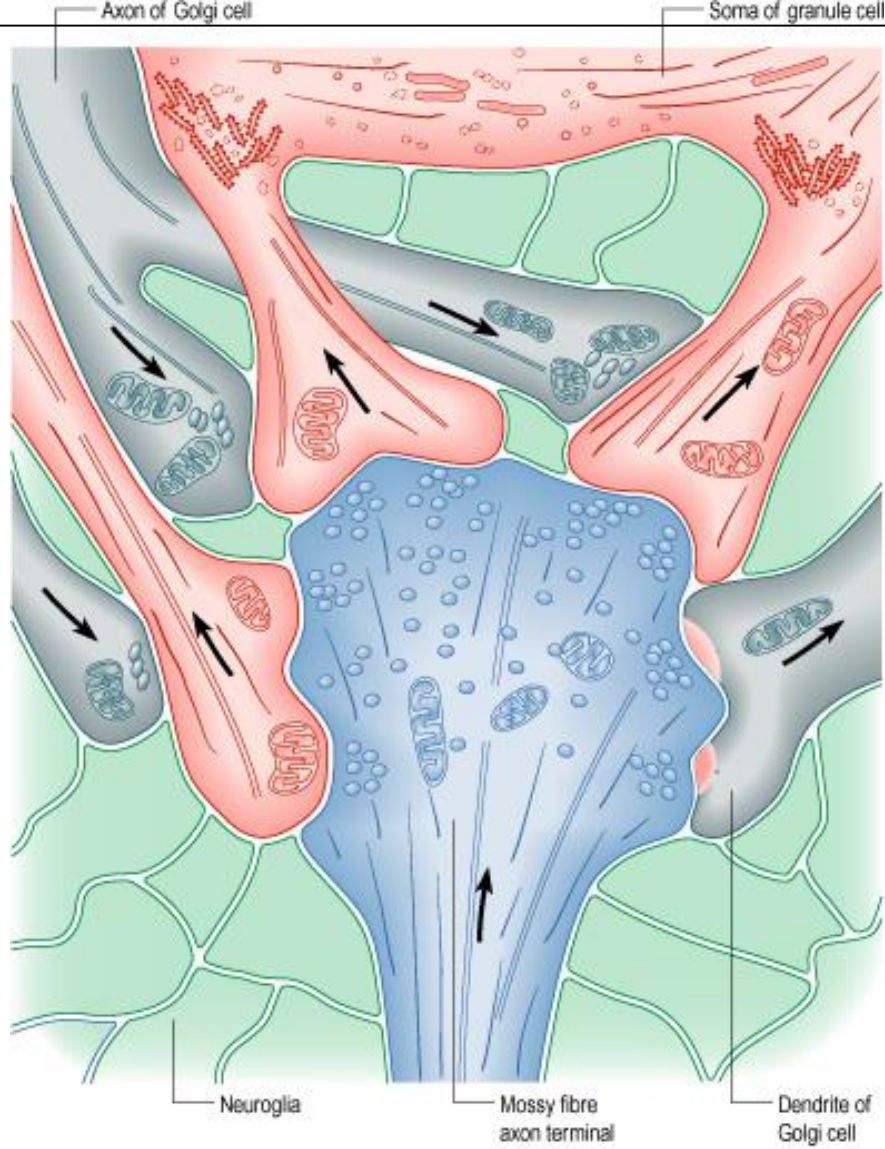
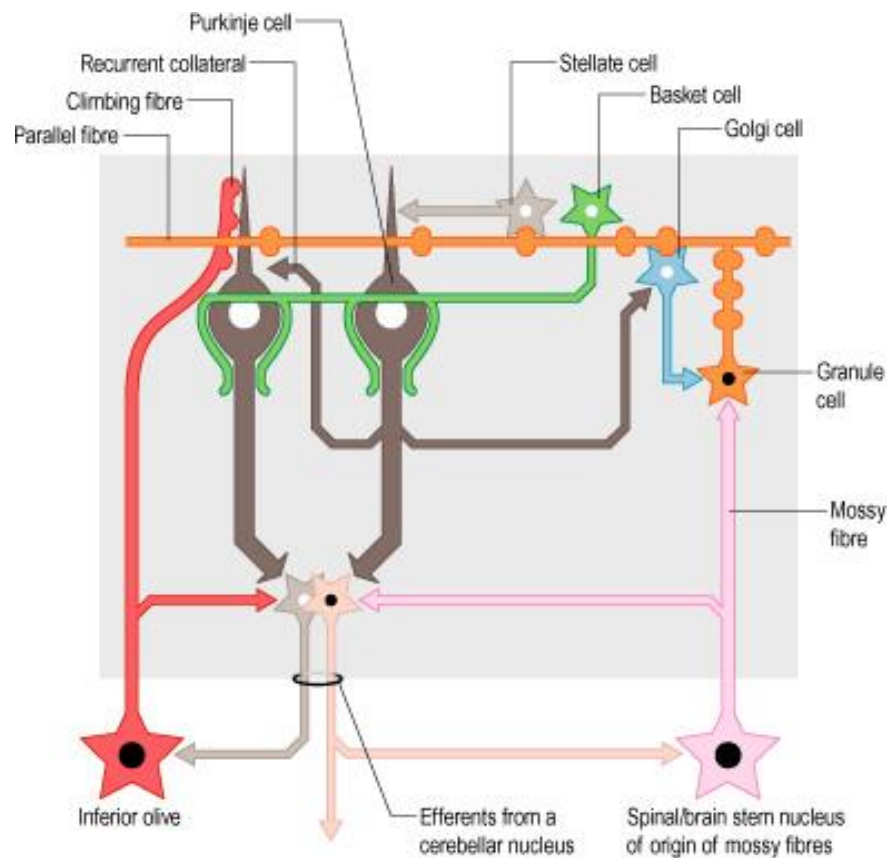


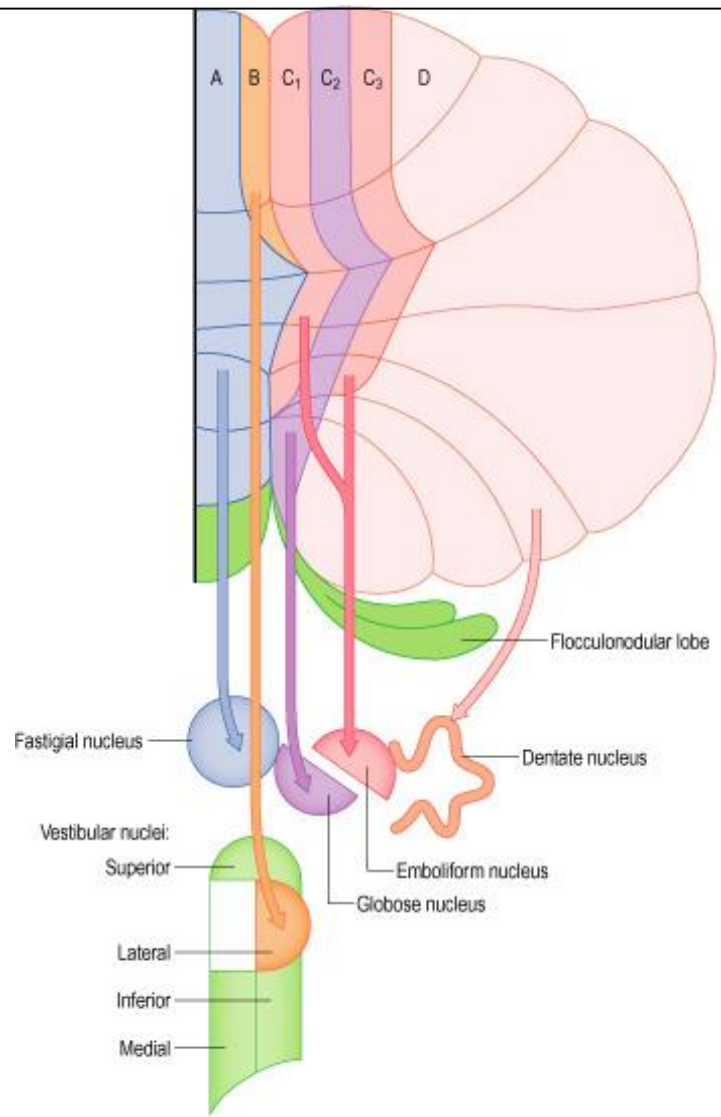
Figura R14.5-3 - Organizzazione di una microzona di cervelletto.



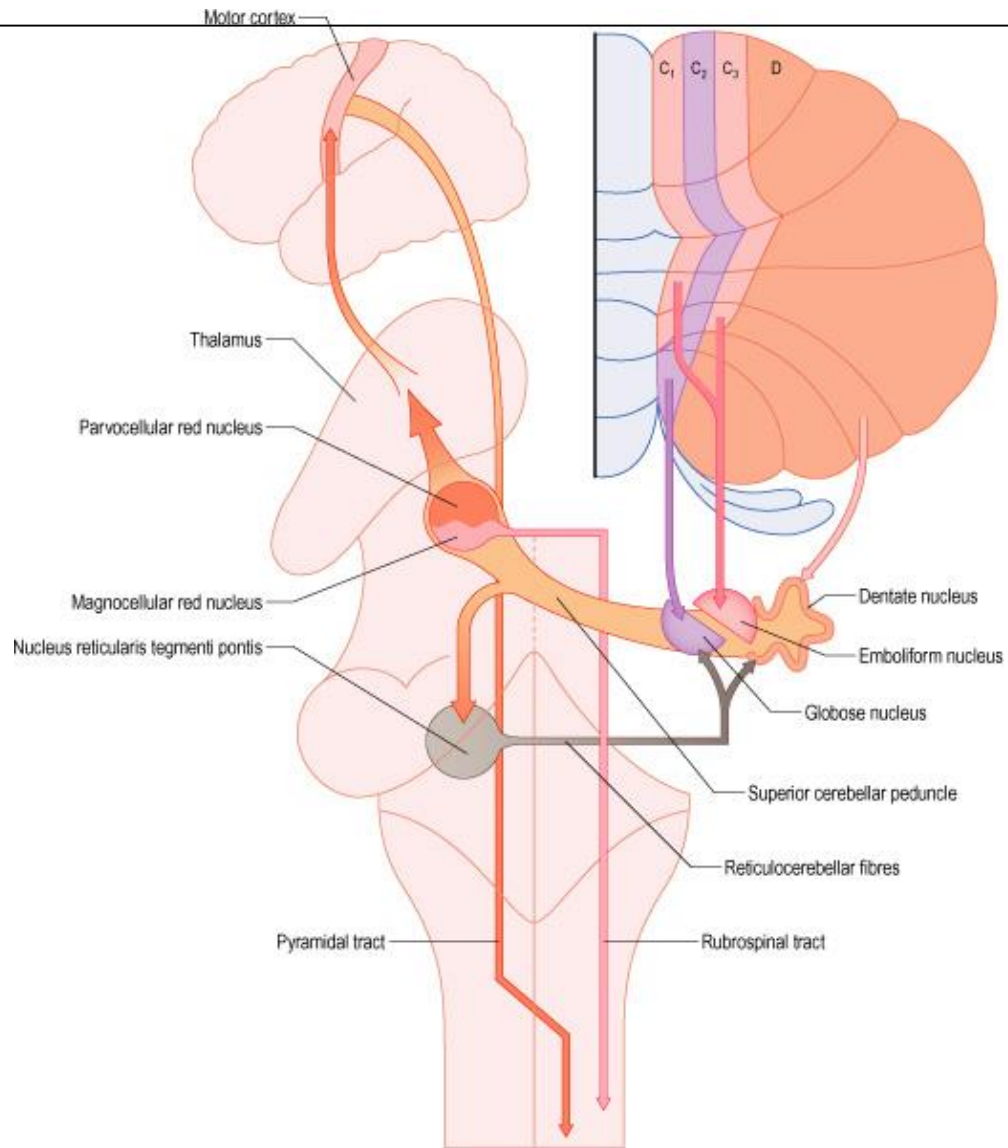










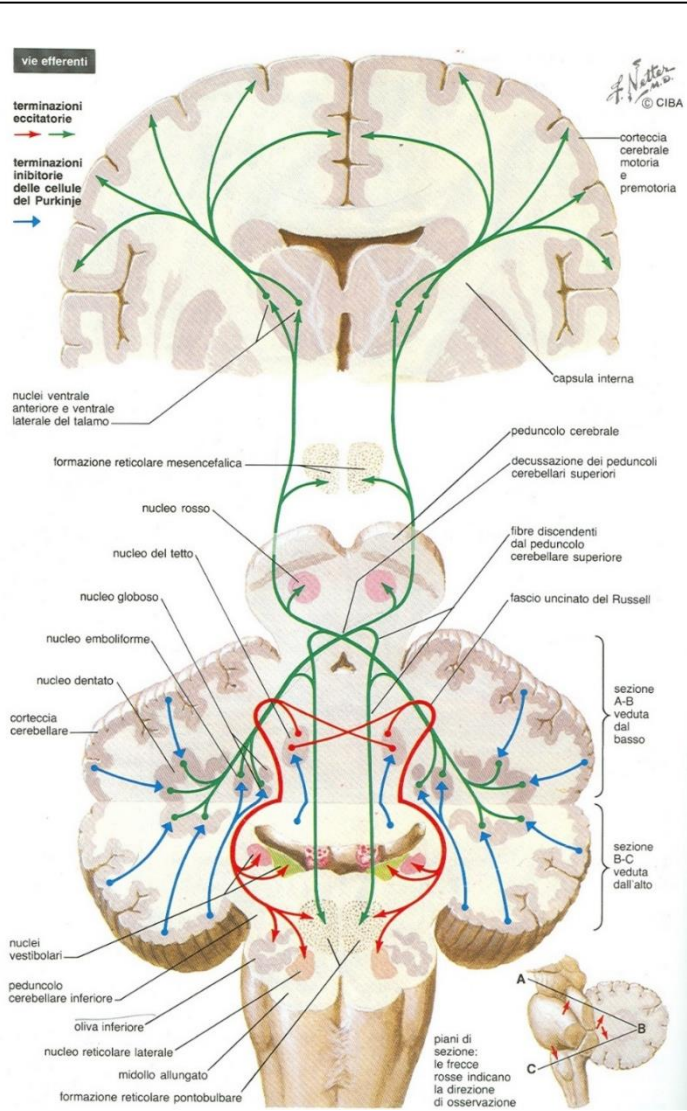


**vie efferenti**

terminazioni  
eccitatorie



terminazioni  
inibitorie  
delle cellule  
del Purkinje



Netter  
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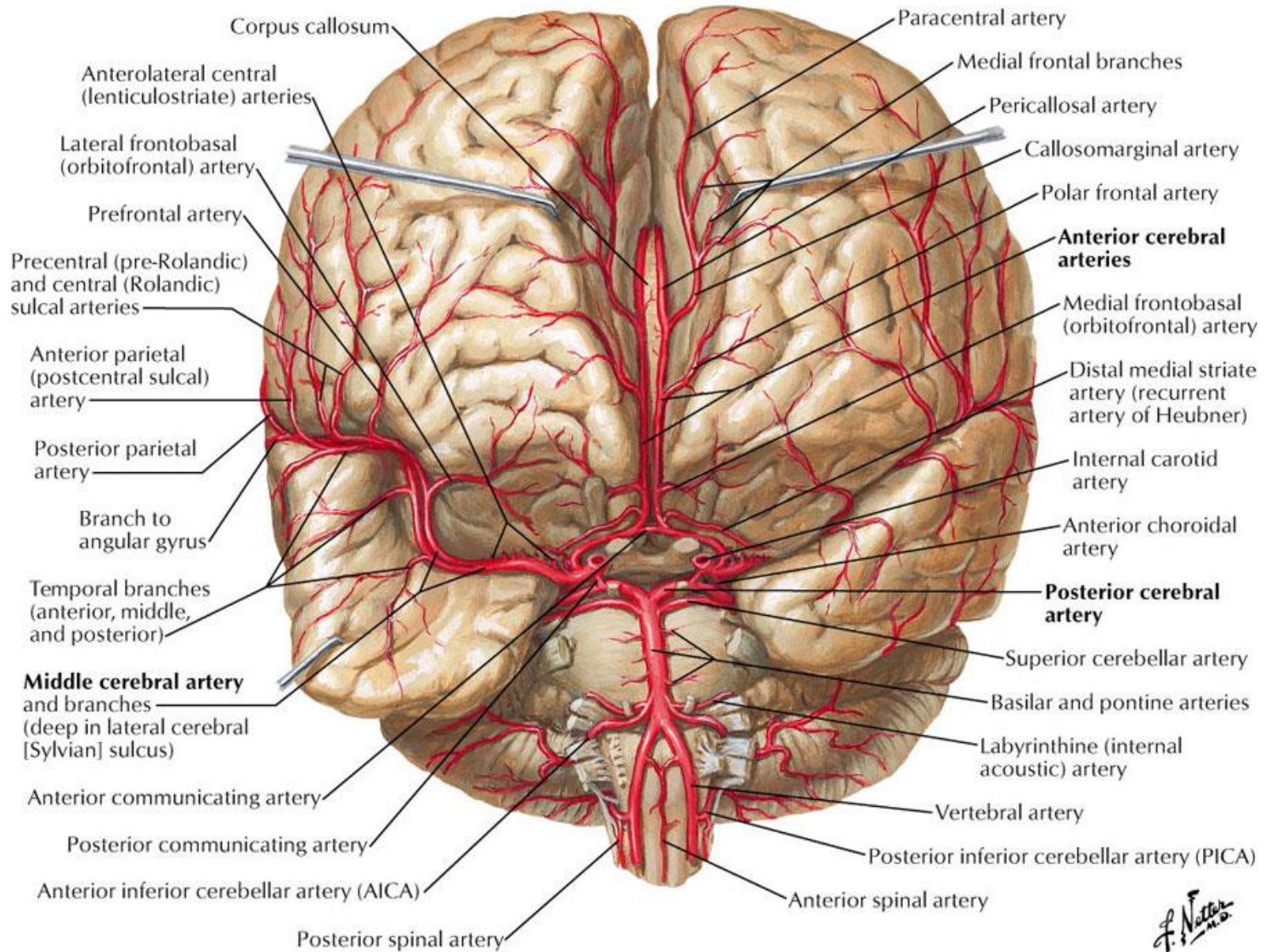
piani di  
sezione:  
le tracce  
rosse indicano  
la direzione  
di osservazione



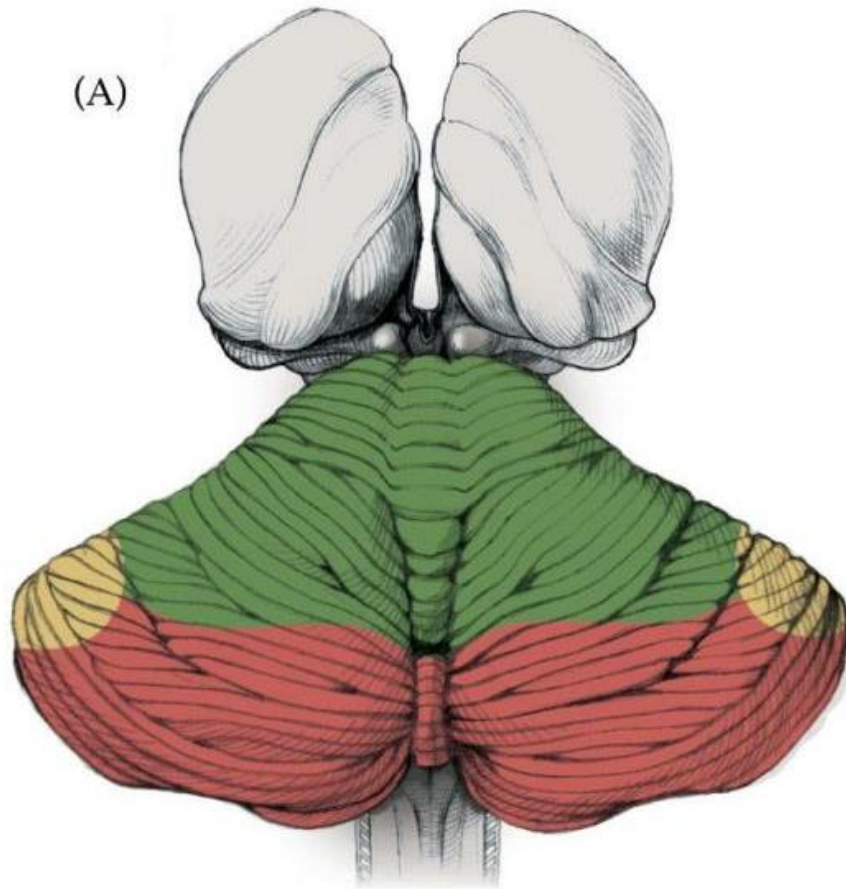
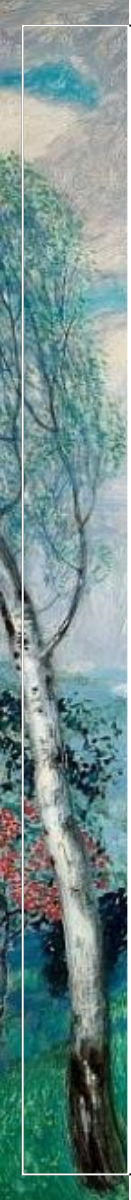
# **CLINICAL NEUROANATOMY**

## *CEREBELLUM*







*F. Netter M.D.*




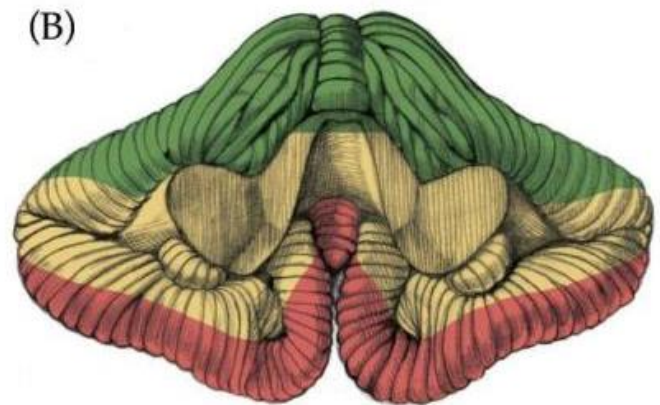
### Vascular areas

Key

 PICA territory

 AICA territory

 SCA territory



# Clinical Aspects - Cerebellar Lesions

- Ataxia -> lack of coordination, dysrhythmia and dysmetria
- Unsteady Gait
- Dysdiadochokinesia
- Vertigo
- Nausea
- Horizontal Nystagmus
- Headache

ATAXIA IS ALWAYS HOMOLATERAL!







# Truncal Ataxia

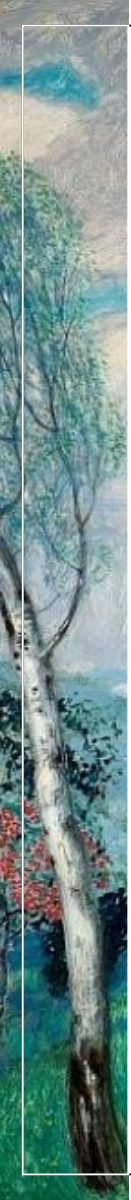
- **Lesions of the Cerebellar Vermis**

Unsteady gait (Drunk-Like walking pattern)

## Appendicular (Limb) Ataxia

- **Lesions of the Cerebellar Hemispheres (intermediate and lateral)**

Ataxic movements of the limbs, depending on the localization of the lesion.



# Evaluating Coordination and Gait

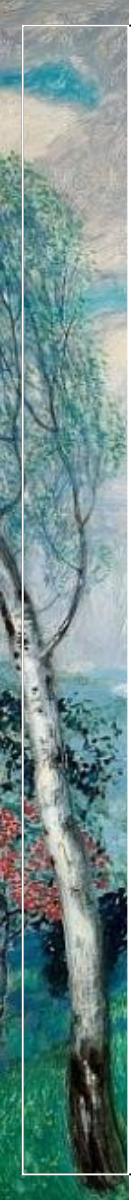
## **APPENDICULAR COORDINATION**

- Finger-nose-finger test (check also for overshoot!)
- Heel-shin test

## **ROMBERG TEST (Stability)**

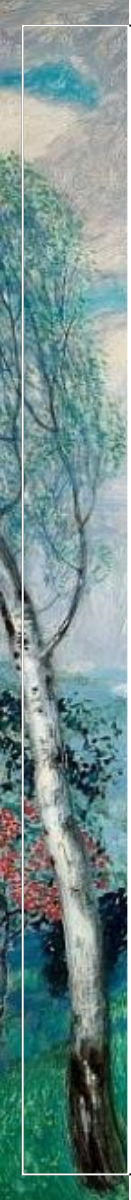
## **GAIT EXAMINATION**

- Check stance, posture, stability, trajectory, circumduction
- Tandem gait , Forced gait









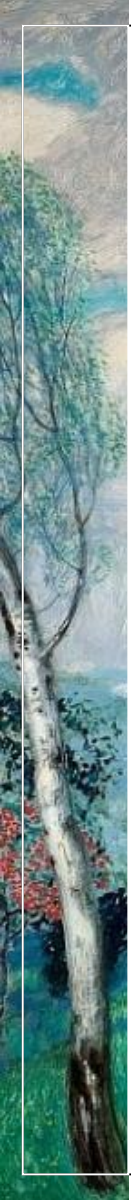
## CLINICAL CASE 1

### 70Y M JANITOR w Hypertension

The patient went to work at 7.00AM and had sudden onset of nausea, vomiting and unsteadiness. In the ER, neurological examination revealed mild slurred speech, slowed tongue movements, dysmetria on finger to nose test on the left, dysmetria on heel to shin test on the left, left dysdiadochokinesia. Romberg test evidences side falls to the left w eyes open; unable to stand. No other signs.

Where is the site of the lesion?

What's the likely diagnosis?







## CLINICAL CASE 2

### 76Y M w History of cigarette smoking habit

Patient developed progressive walking difficulty over the course of 1 month. Reports feeling “woozy” when standing up with a “drunk-like” gait. Frequent loss of balance, with staggering and unsteadiness. Frequent mild headaches with progressive worsening. Neurological exam reveals wide-based unsteady gait with tendency to fall to the left, especially in tandem walking. No ataxia in finger-to-nose or heel-to-shin test. Rapidly alternating movements were normal. No history of alcohol intake.

Where is the site of the lesion?

What’s the likely diagnosis?



## CLINICAL CASE 3

### 13Y M w no prior medical history

Patient is referred to the pediatrician for 2 month progressive left occipital headaches, nausea, slurred speech and unsteadiness. Reported symptoms began with headaches in the left occipital region, sometimes accompanied with nausea and vomiting. Difficulties concentrating and learning. Increasing gait instability and mildly slurred speech.

Neurological examination reveals mild bilateral papilledema, horizontal and vertical nystagmus, worse upwards. Speech slurred with an irregular rate. Marked dysmetria on finger-to-nose testing, dysdiadochokinesia worse on the left, heel-to-shin movements are ataxic on the left. Wide-based gait, unsteady, staggering to the left. Unable to perform tandem test. Romberg does not worsen already present instability.

Where is the site of the lesion?

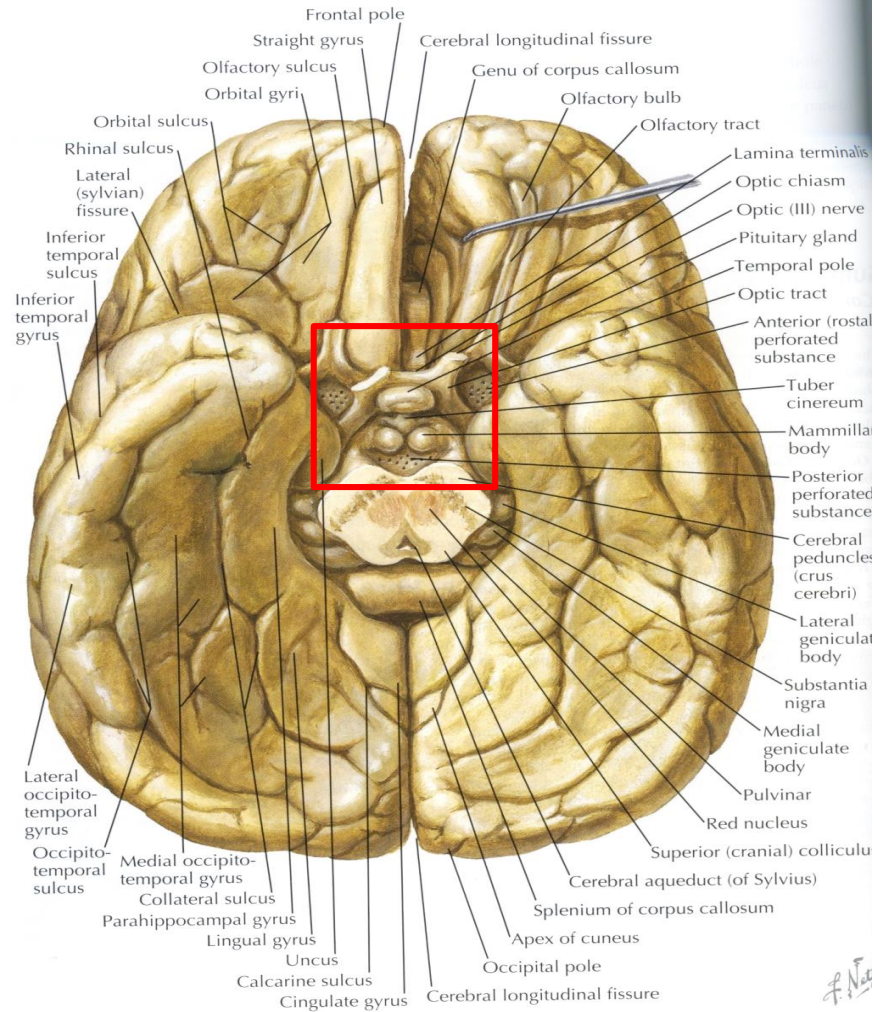
What's the likely diagnosis?



# The Diencephalon



INFERIOR SURFACE OF BRAIN

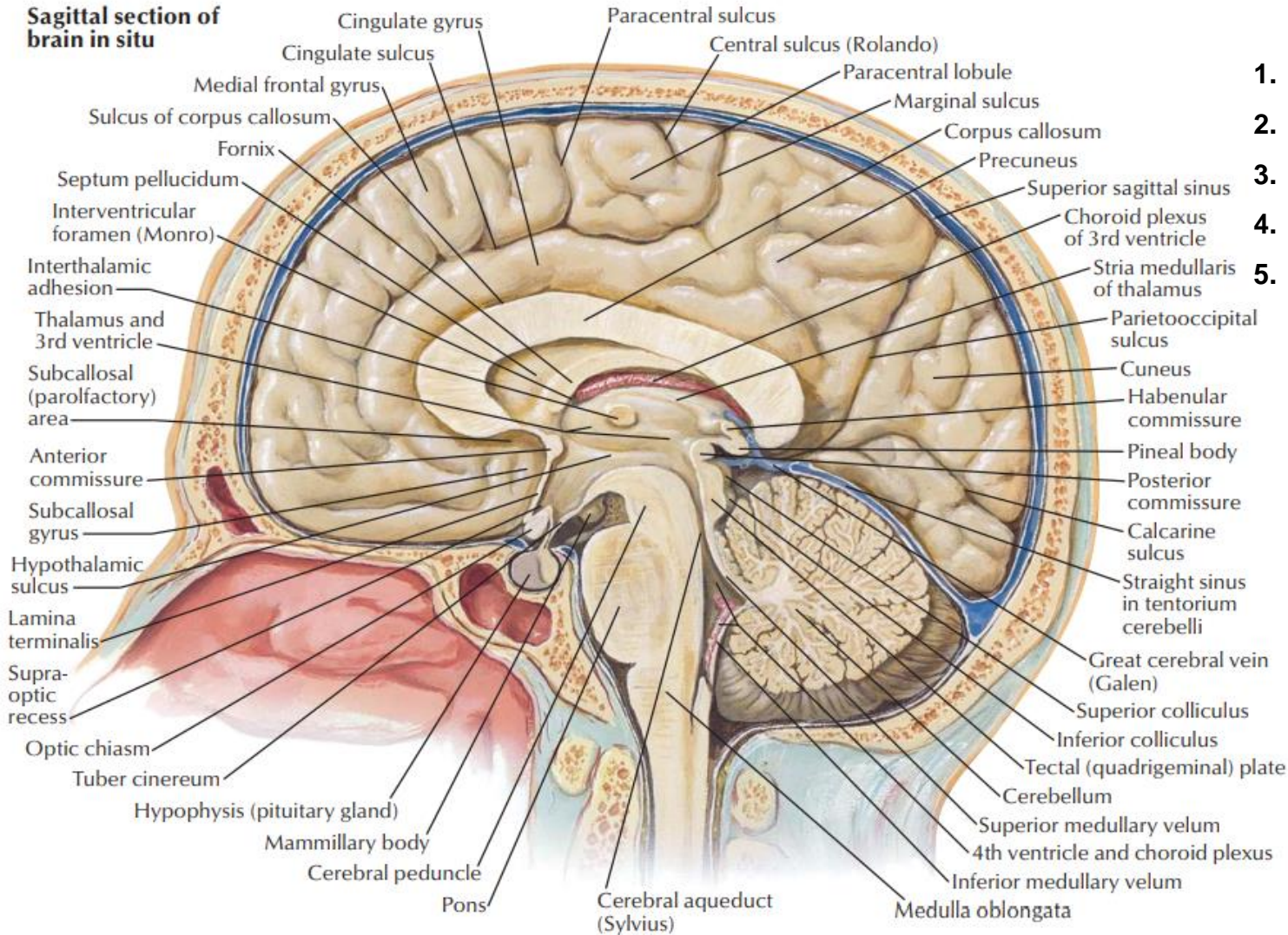


Diencephalon – External Surface

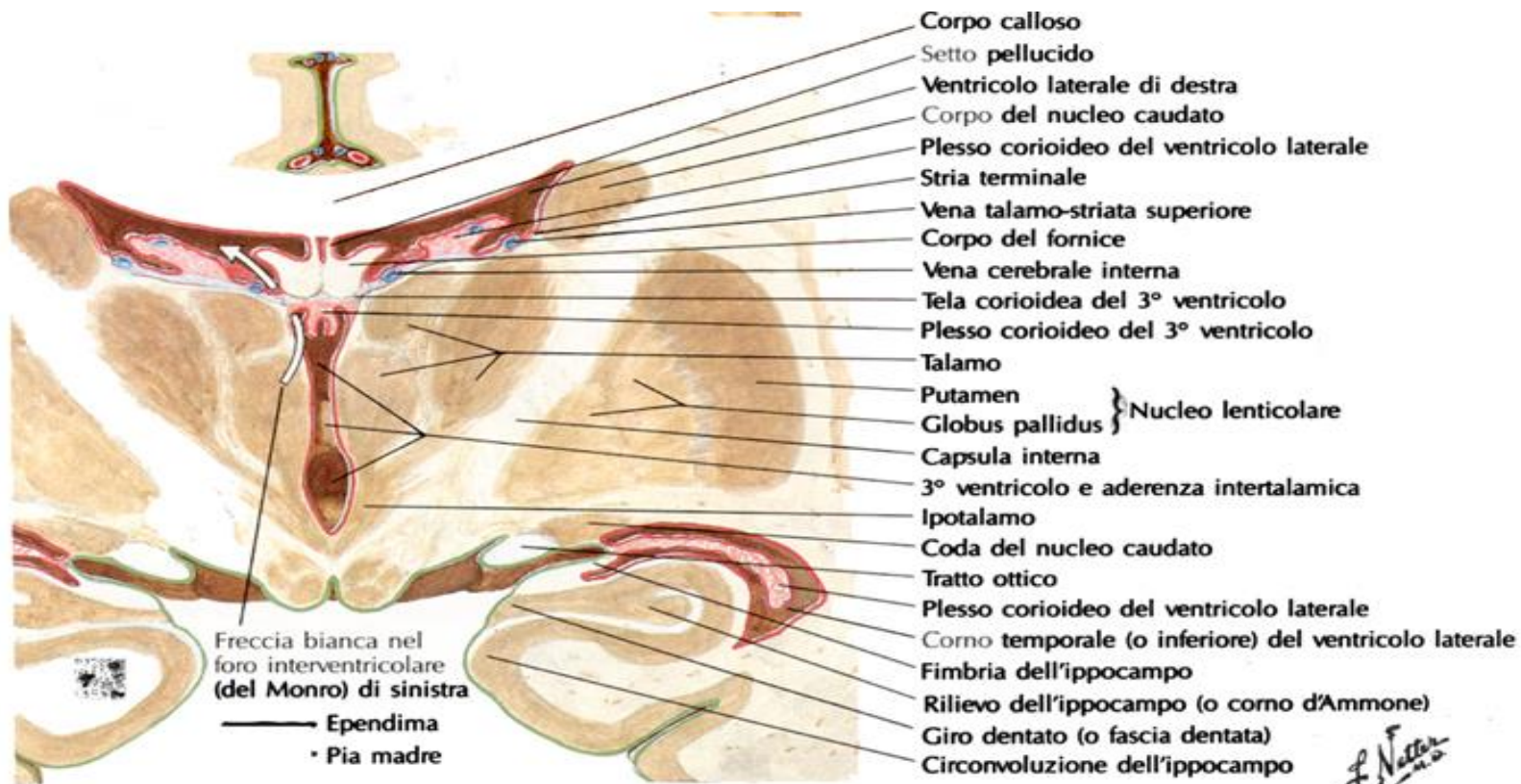
## Diencephalon:

1. **Thalamus**
2. **Subthalamus**
3. **Hypothalamus**
4. **Epithalamus**
5. **Metathalamus**

### Sagittal section of brain in situ

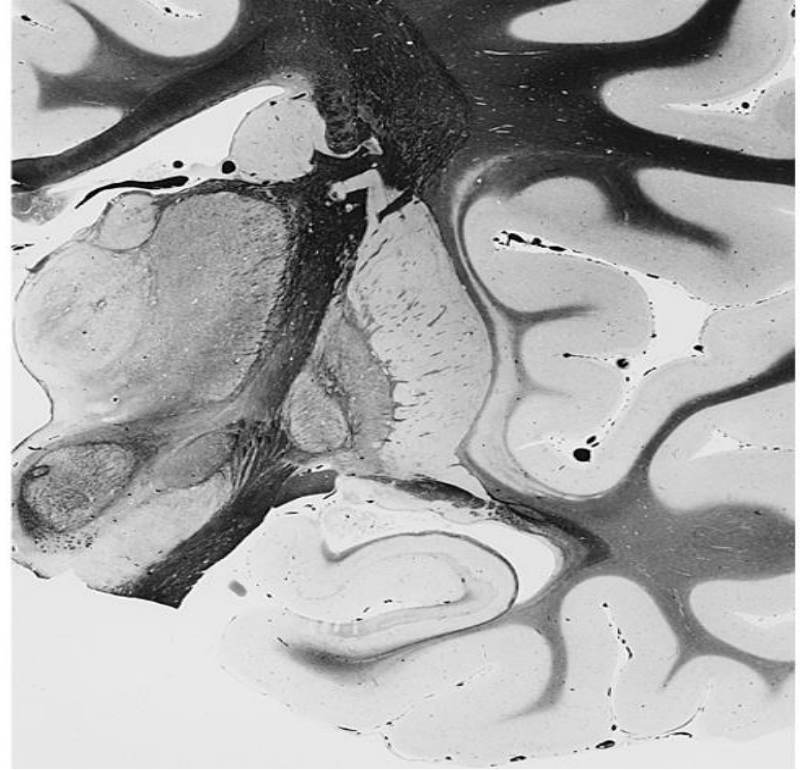
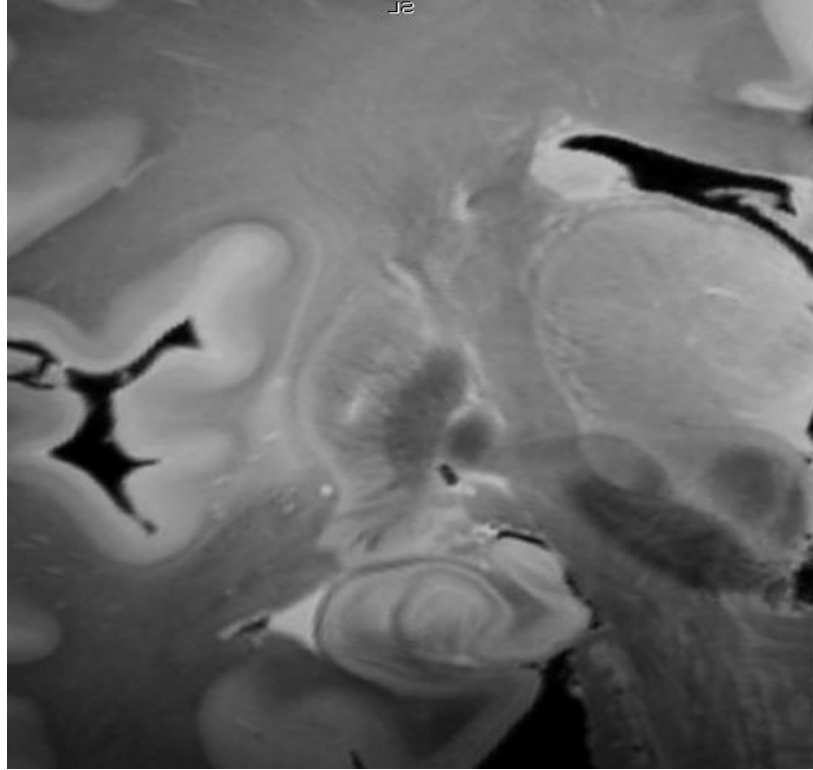
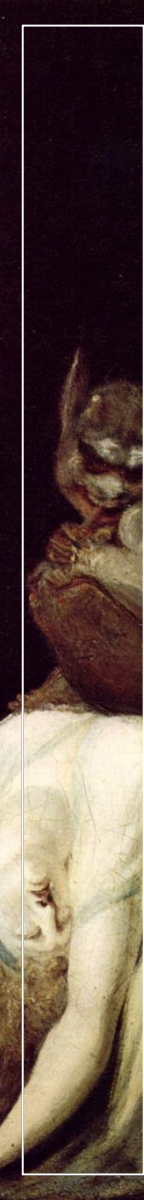


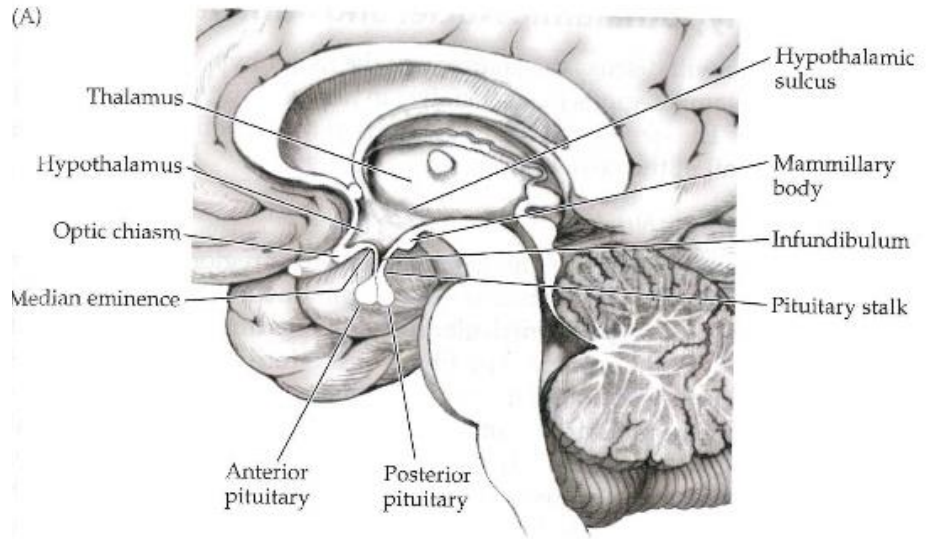
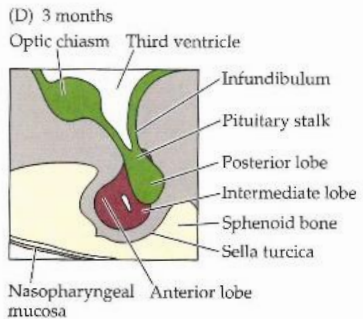
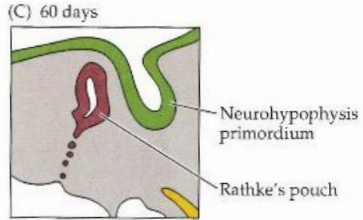
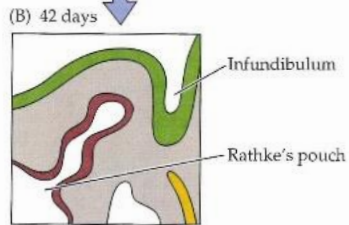
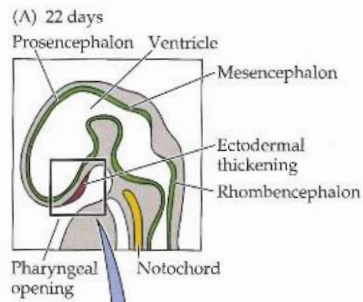


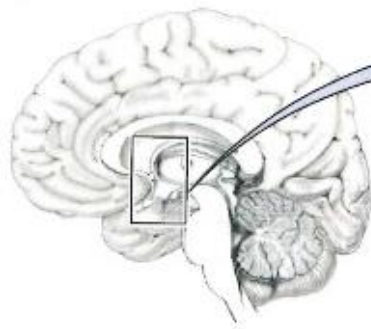


Sezione frontale del cervello (veduta posteriore)









Anterior commissure

Paraventricular nucleus

Medial preoptic nucleus

Anterior nucleus

Suprachiasmatic nucleus

Supraoptic nucleus

Optic chiasm

Preoptic area

Anterior  
(supraoptic)  
region

Middle  
(tuberal)  
region

Posterior  
(mammillary)  
region

Dorsomedial nucleus

Posterior nucleus

Mammillary body

Ventromedial nucleus

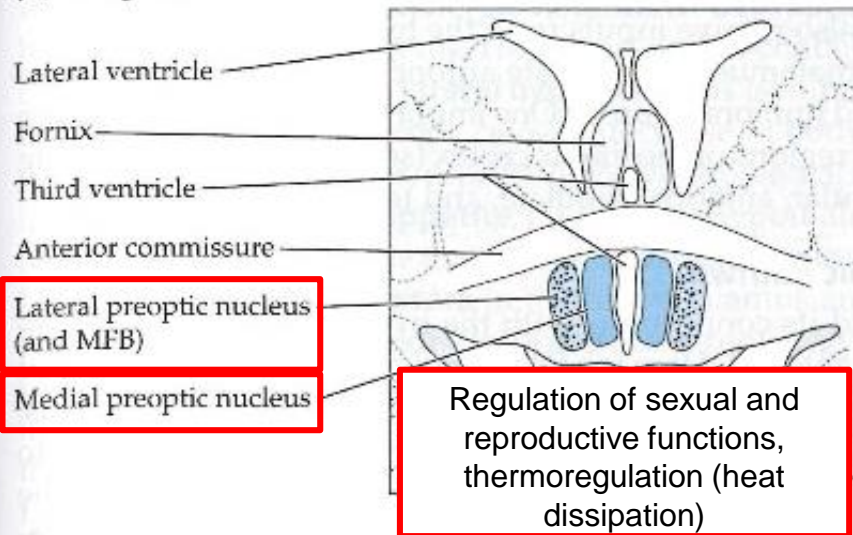
Arcuate nucleus

## Hypothalamic functions

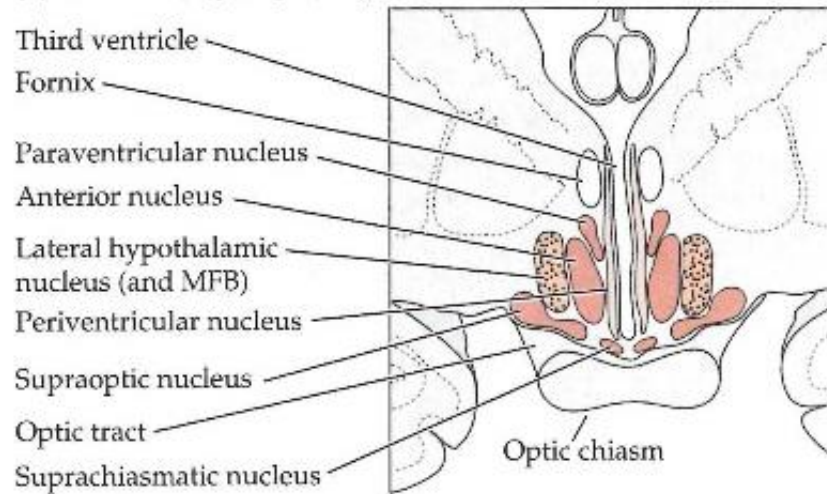
- Autonomic
- Endocrine
- Homeostatic
- Limbic



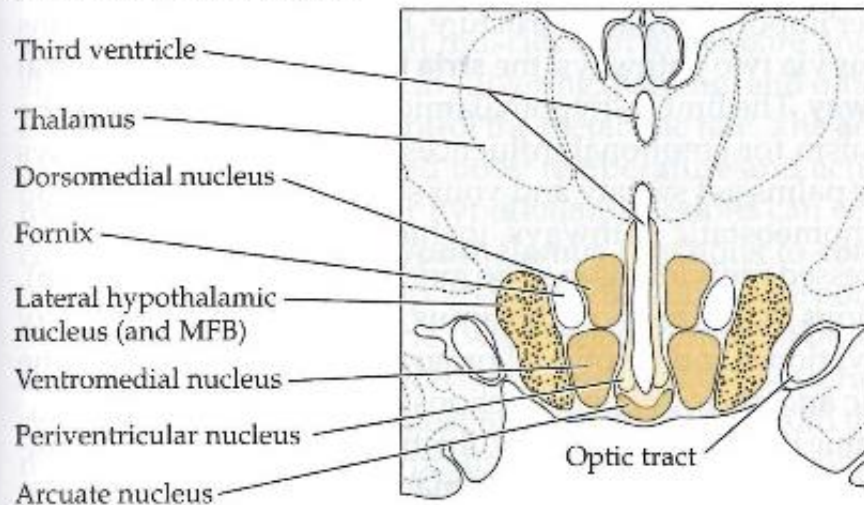
(A) Preoptic area



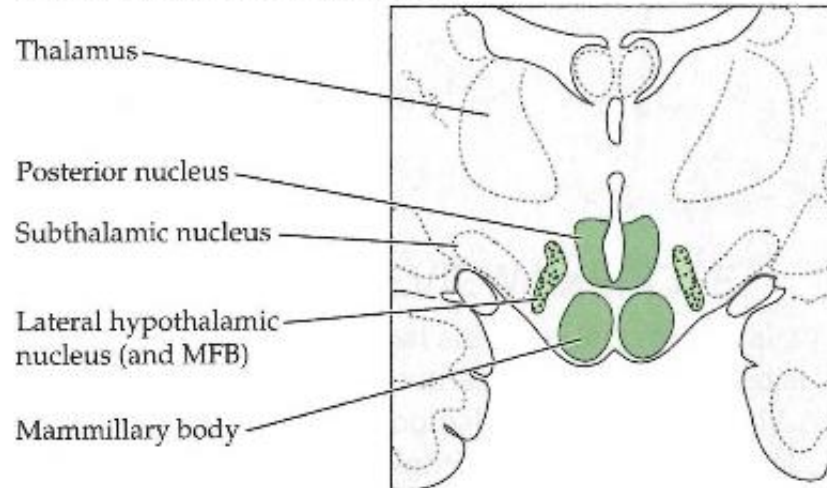
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



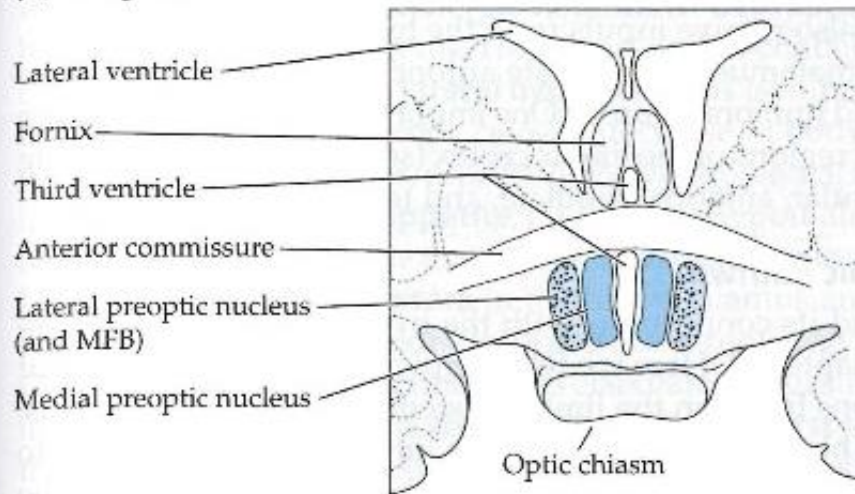
(C) Middle (tuberal) region



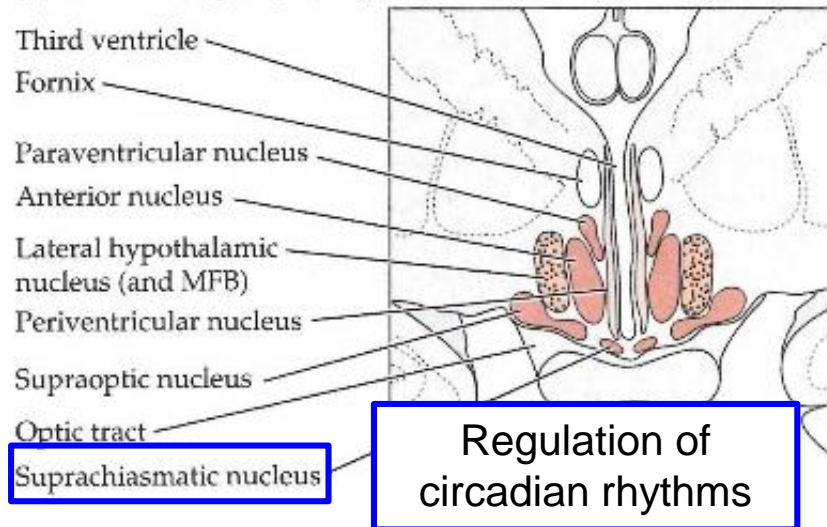
(D) Posterior (mammillary) region



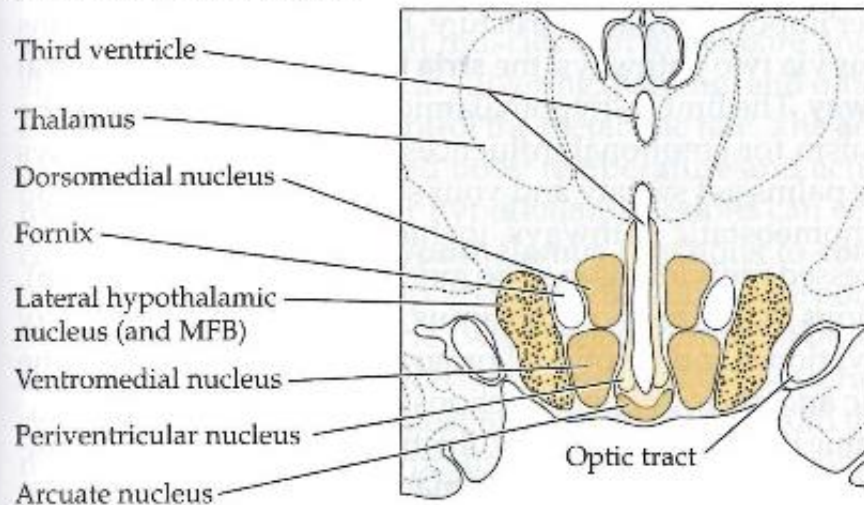
(A) Preoptic area



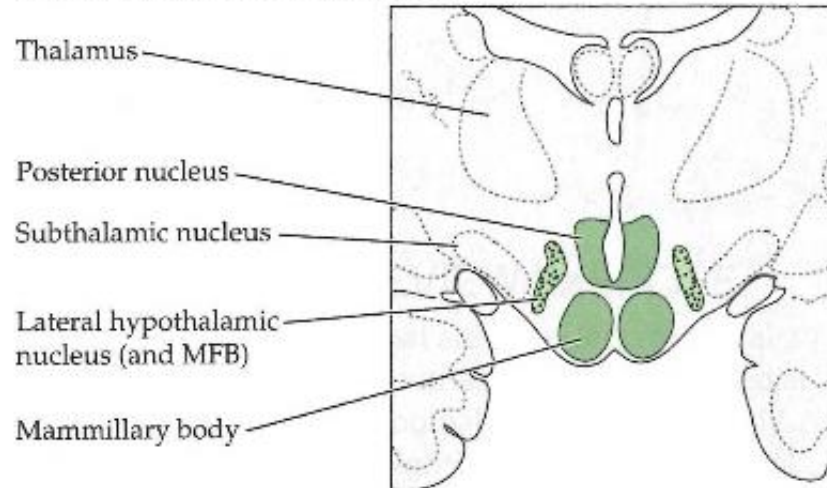
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



(C) Middle (tuberal) region

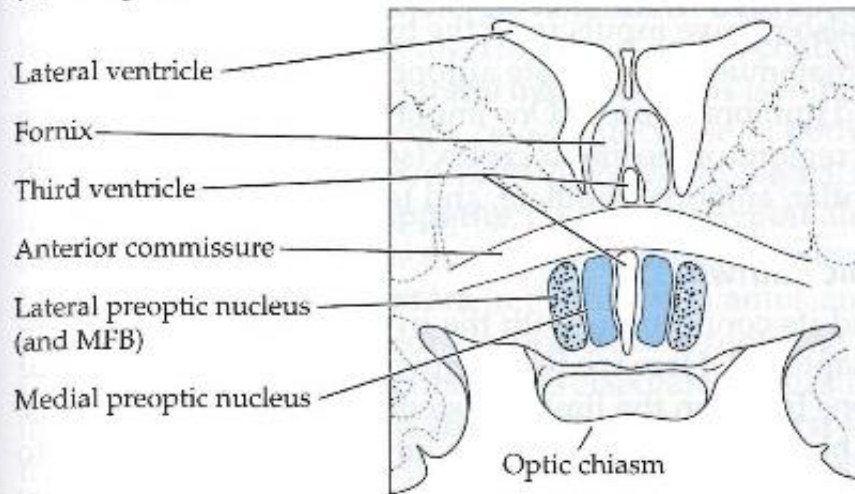


(D) Posterior (mammillary) region

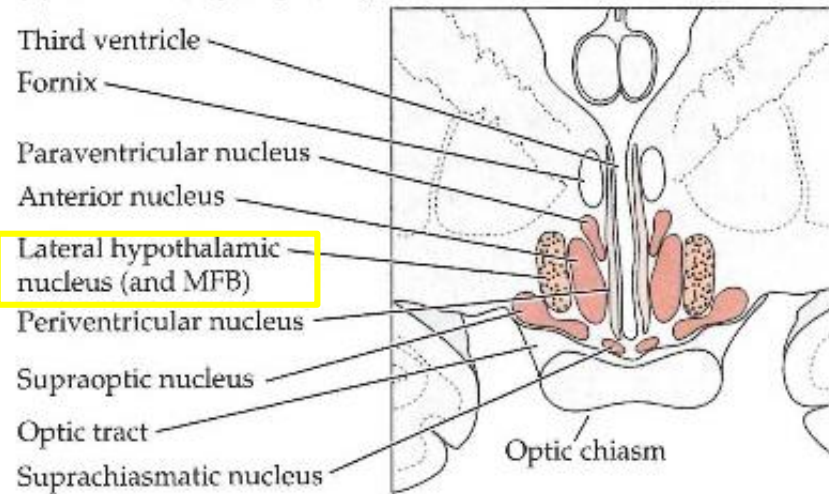




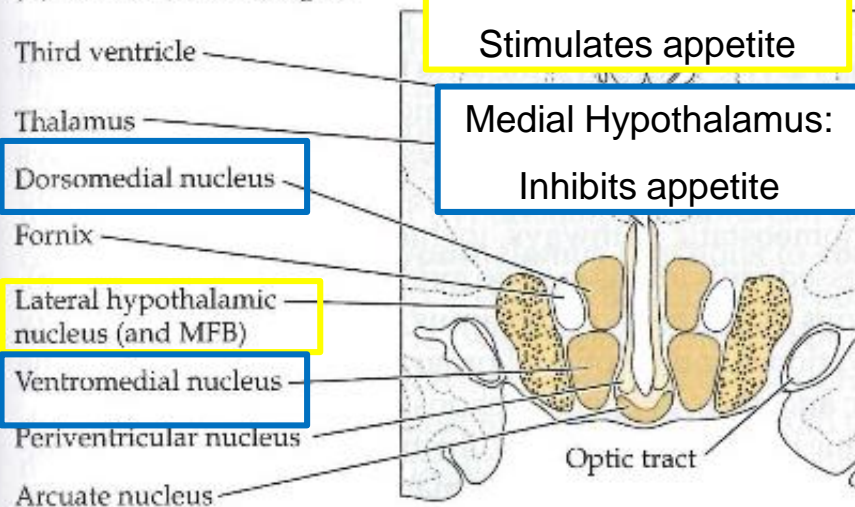
(A) Preoptic area



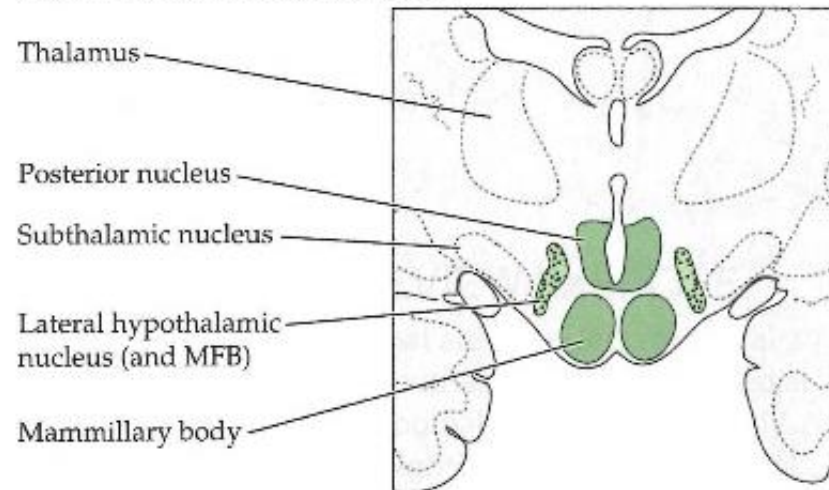
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



(C) Middle (tuberal) region

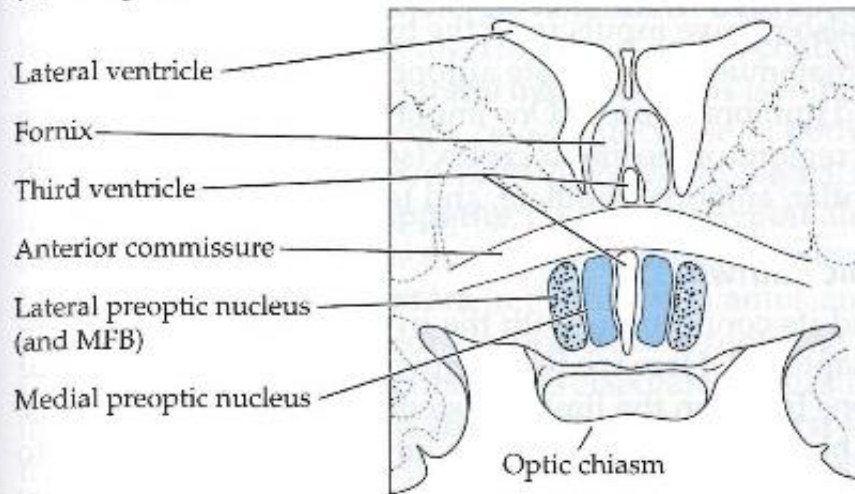


(D) Posterior (mammillary) region

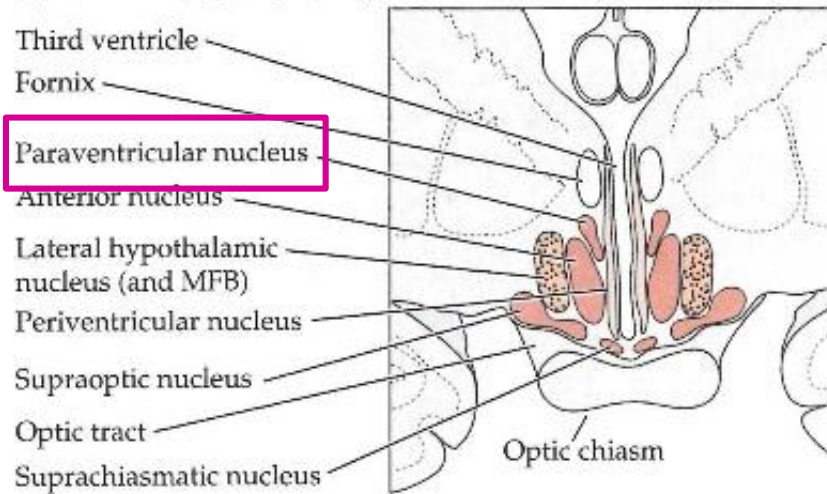




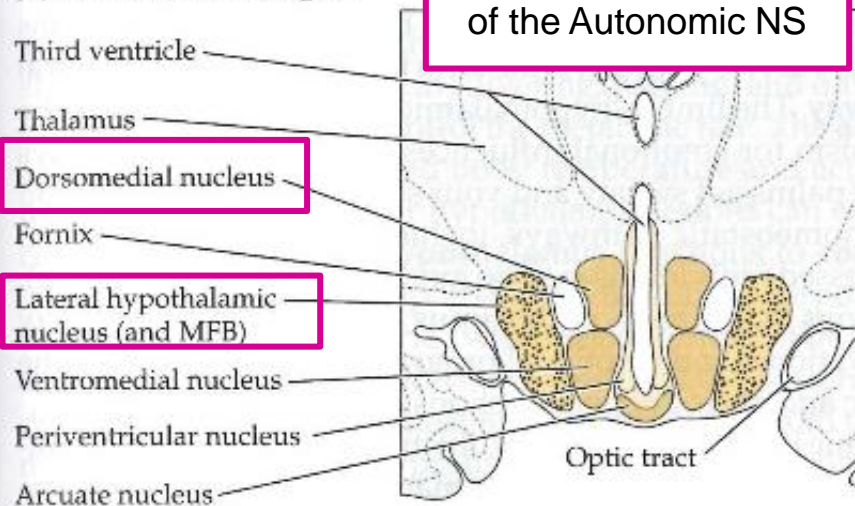
(A) Preoptic area



(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region

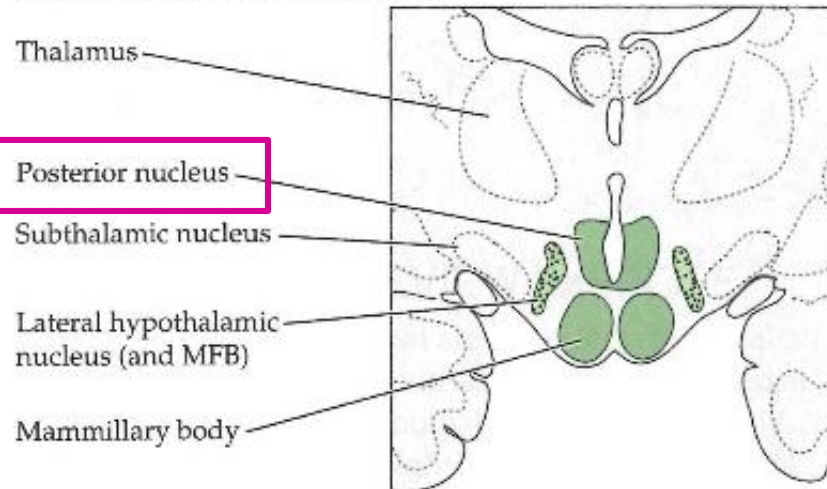


(C) Middle (tuberal) region

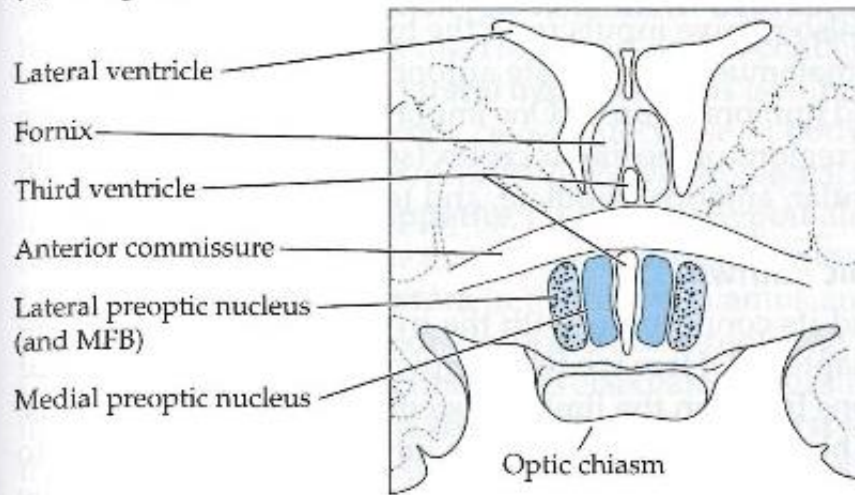


Hypothalamic control of the Autonomic NS

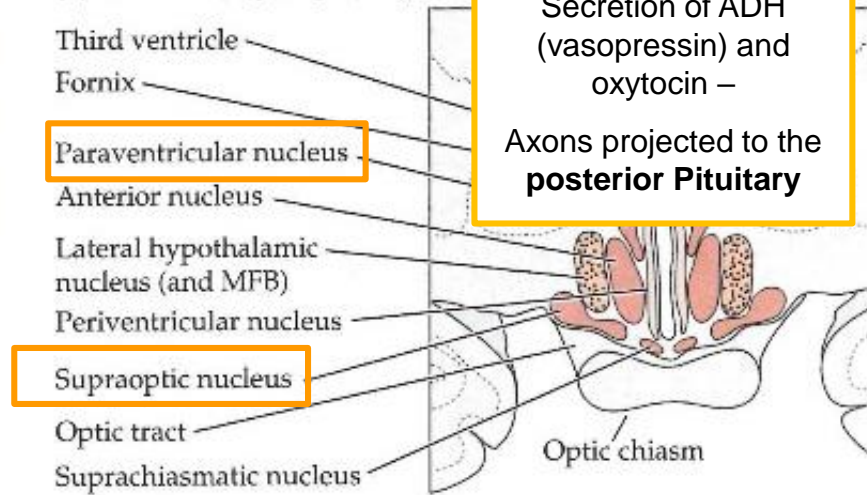
(D) Posterior (mammillary) region



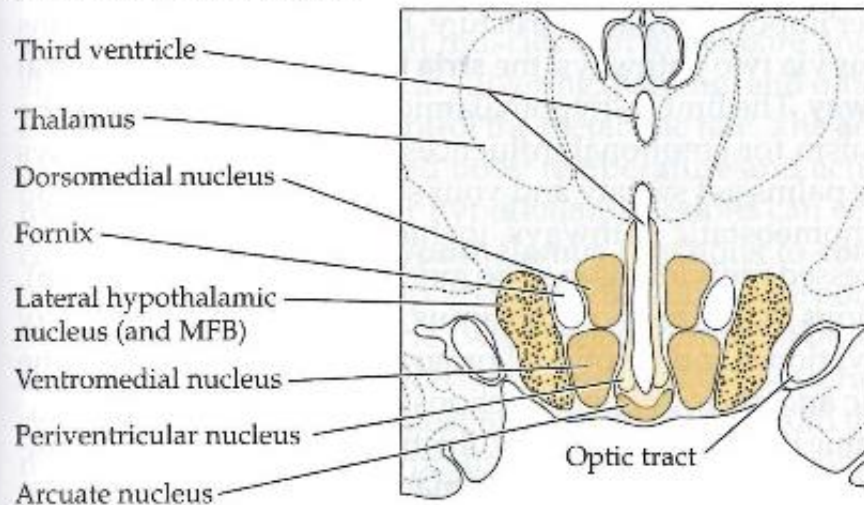
(A) Preoptic area



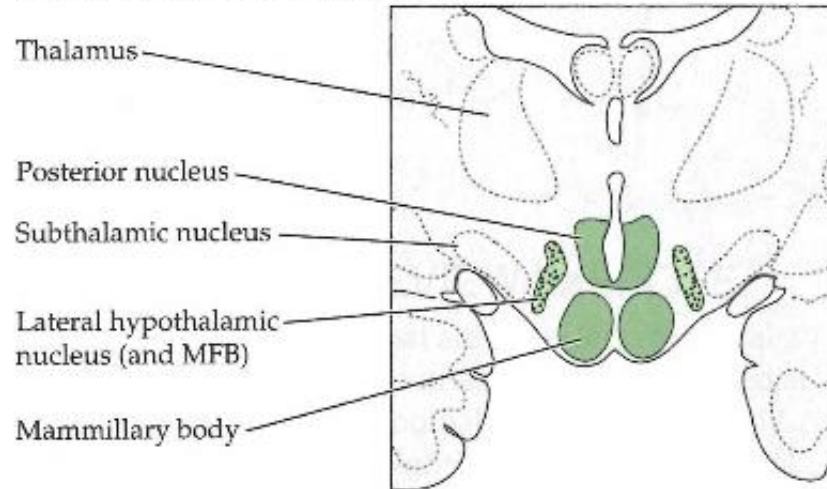
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



(C) Middle (tuberal) region

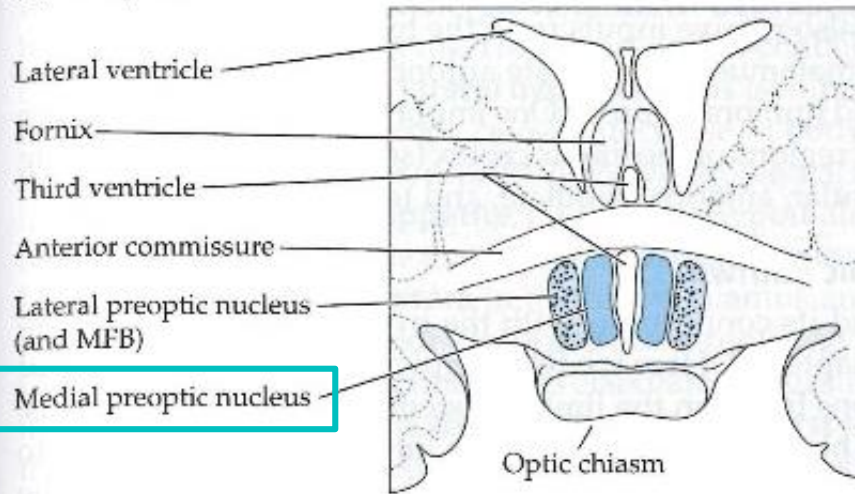


(D) Posterior (mammillary) region

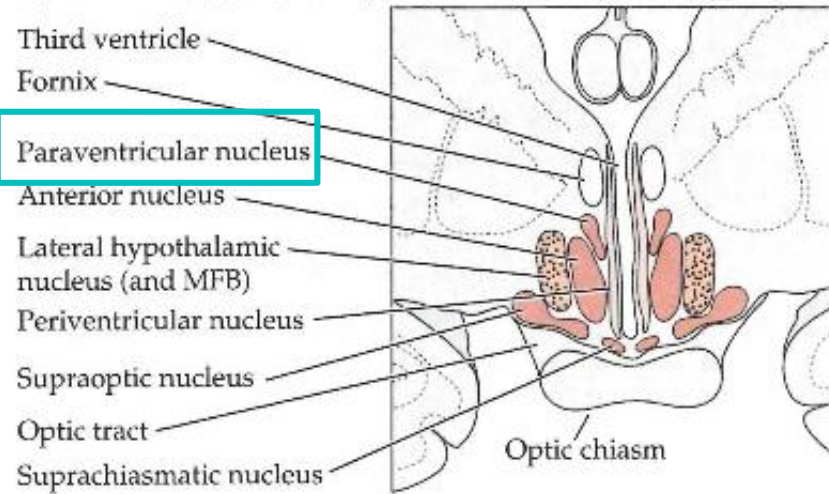




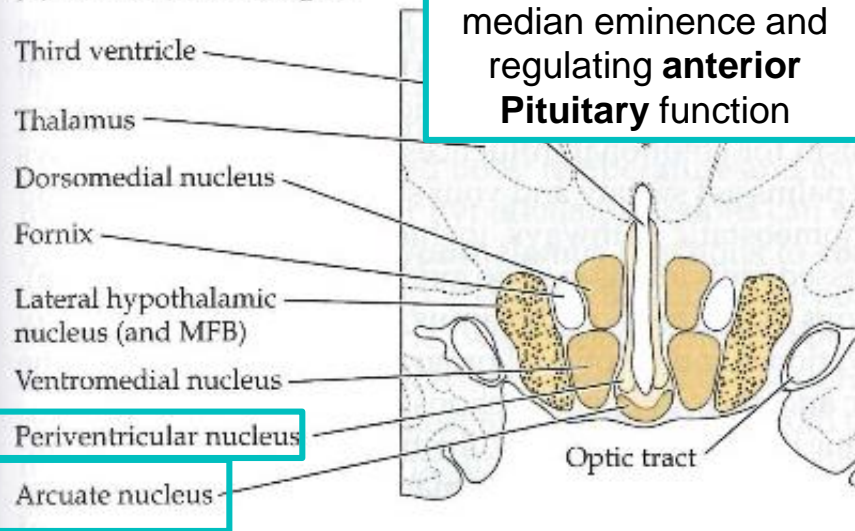
(A) Preoptic area



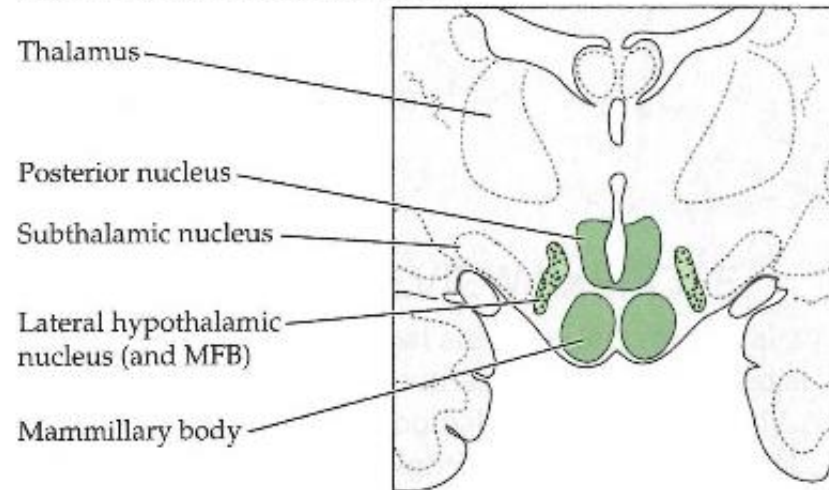
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



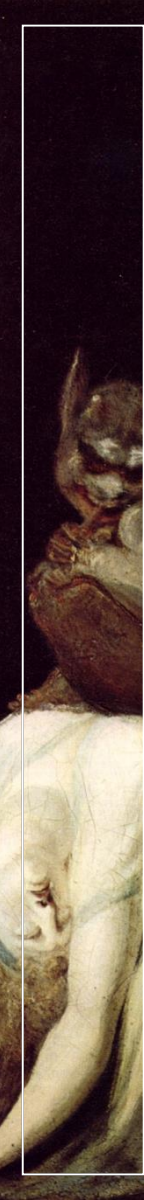
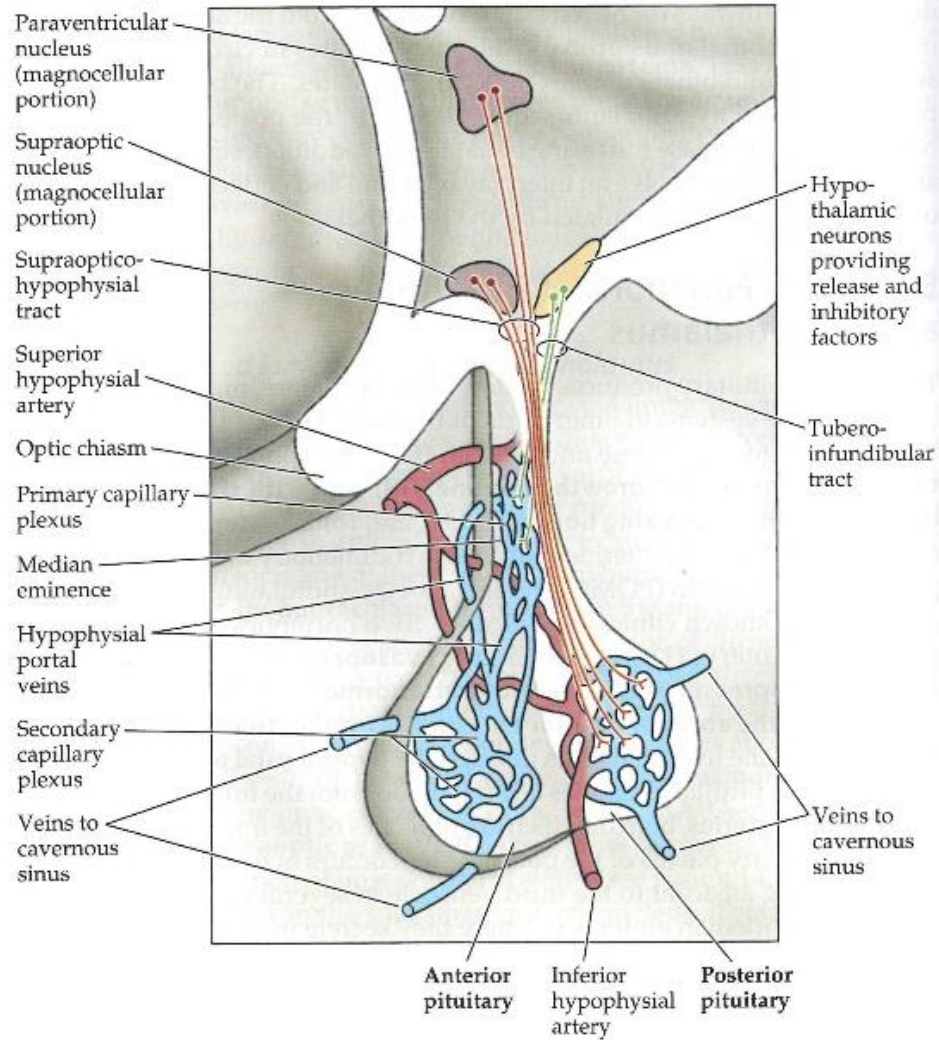
(C) Middle (tuberal) region

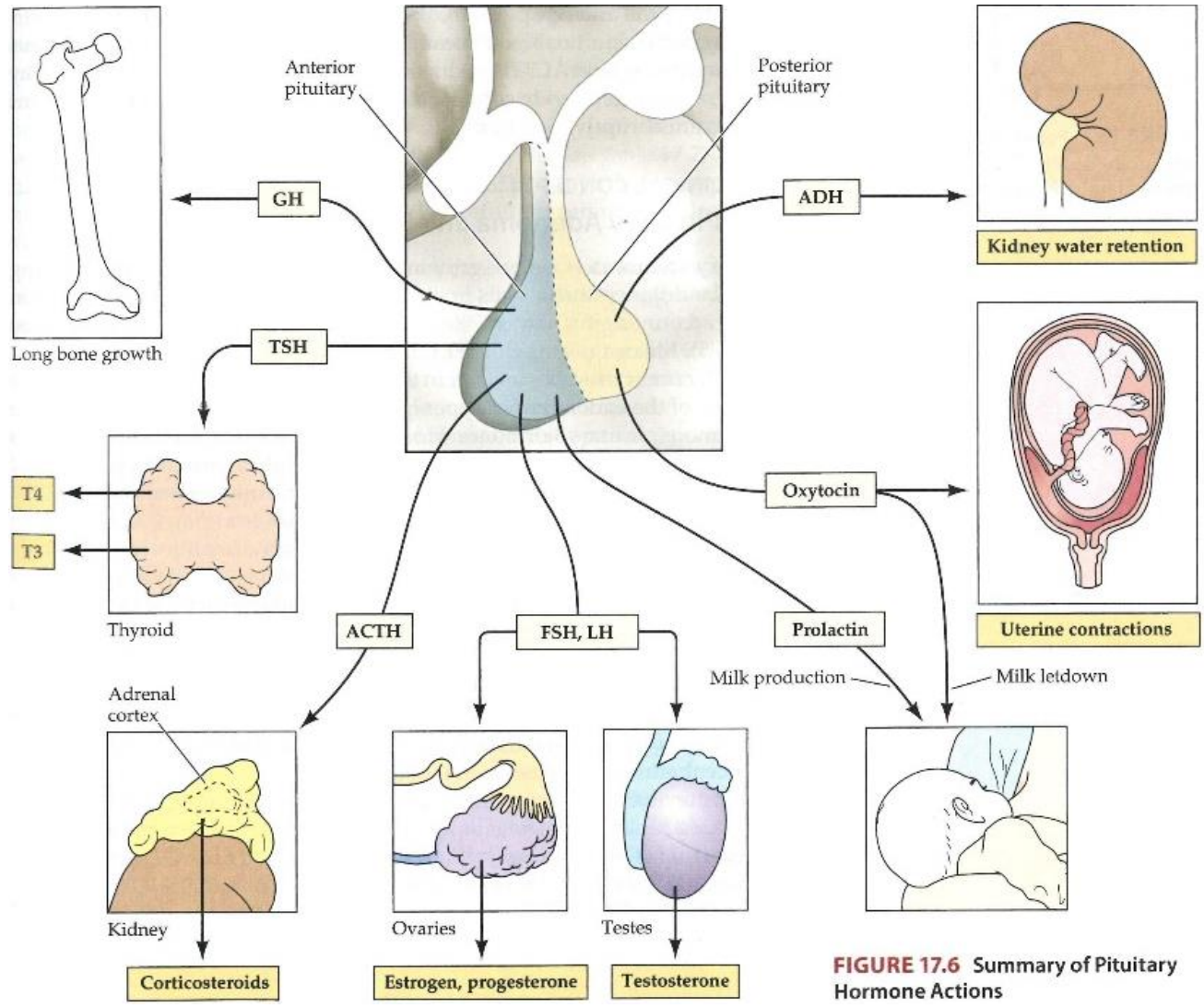


(D) Posterior (mammillary) region







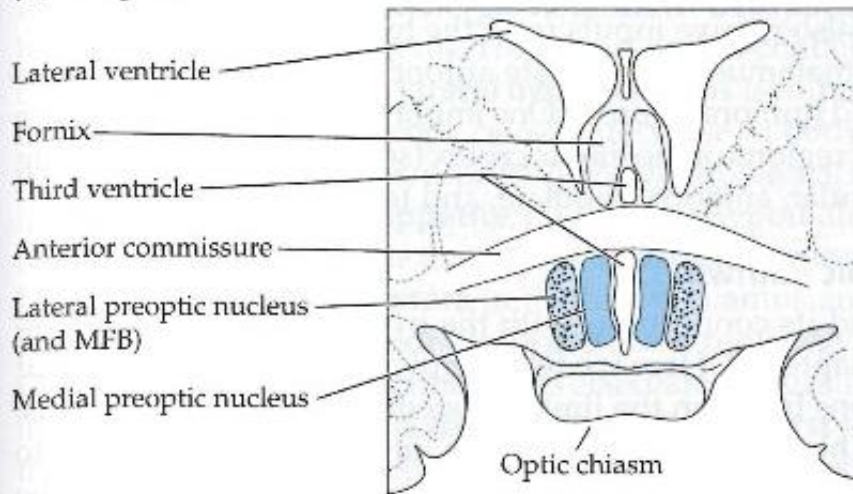


**FIGURE 17.6** Summary of Pituitary Hormone Actions

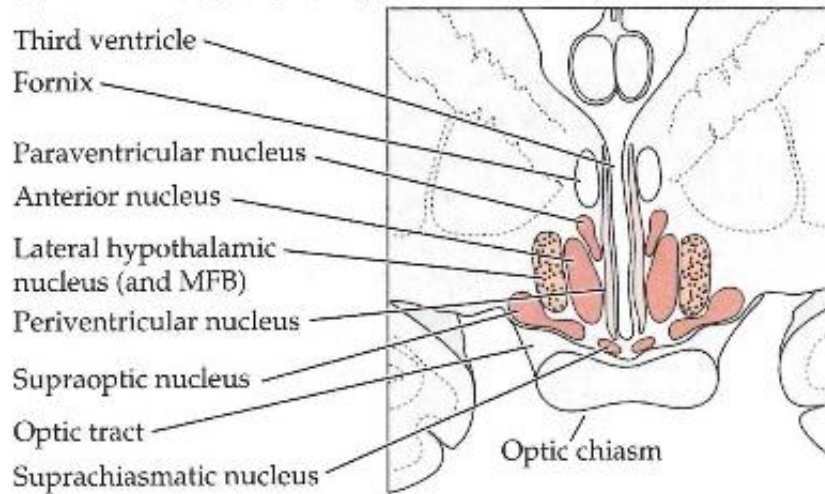
PITUITARY HORMONE	HYPOTHALAMIC RELEASING FACTORS	HYPOTHALAMIC INHIBITORY FACTORS
Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)	Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), vasopressin, and other peptides	—
Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)	Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH)	Growth hormone-inhibiting hormone (GIH, somatostatin)
Growth hormone (GH)	Growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH)	Growth hormone-inhibiting hormone (GIH, somatostatin)
Prolactin	Prolactin-releasing factor (PRF) and thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH)	Prolactin release-inhibiting factor (PIF, dopamine)
Luteinizing hormone (LH)	Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)	—
Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH)	Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)	—



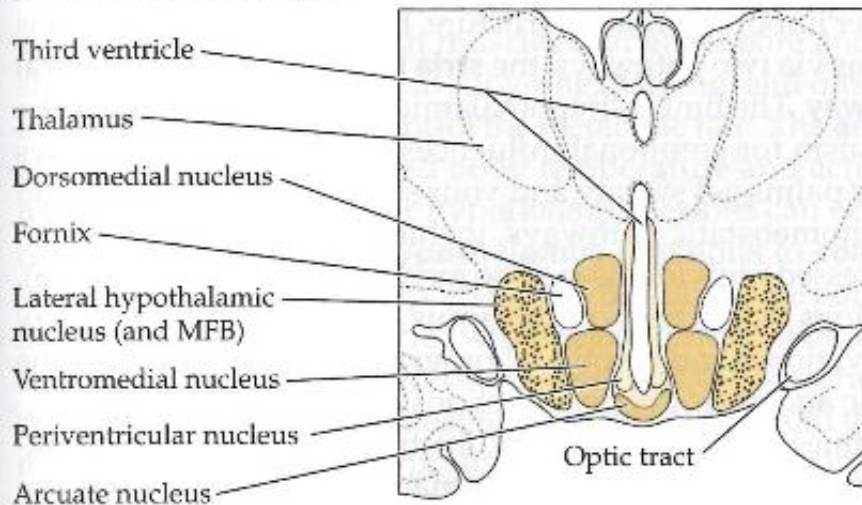
(A) Preoptic area



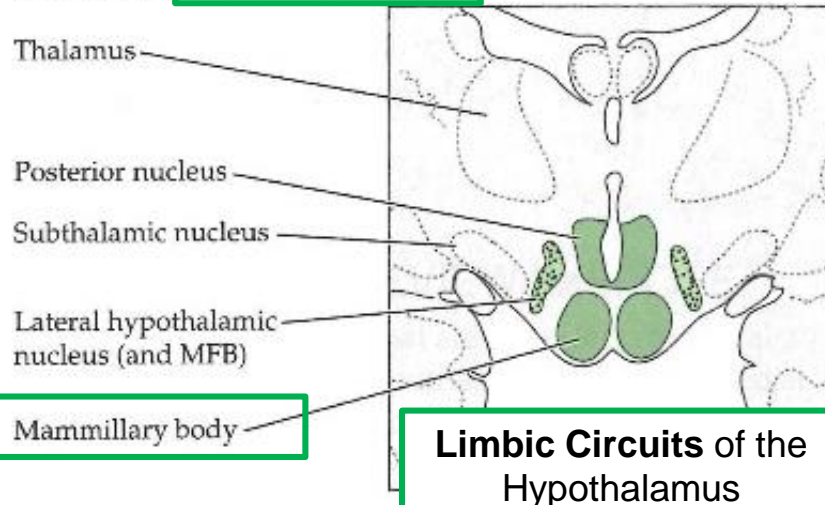
(B) Anterior (supraoptic) region



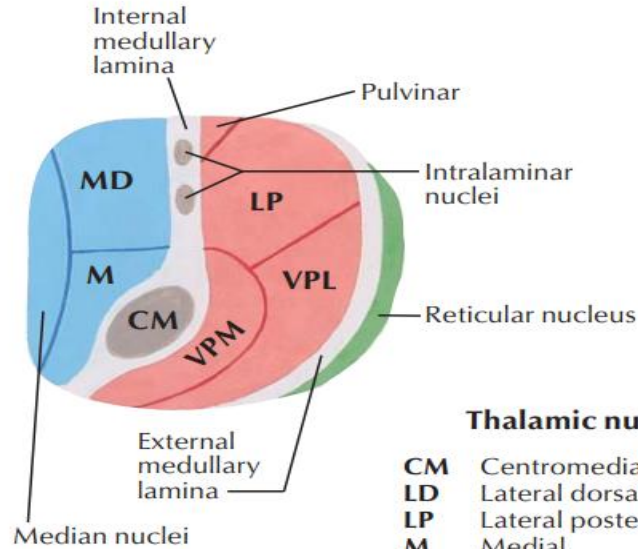
(C) Middle (tuberal) region



(D) Posterior (mammillary) region



**Limbic Circuits of the Hypothalamus**

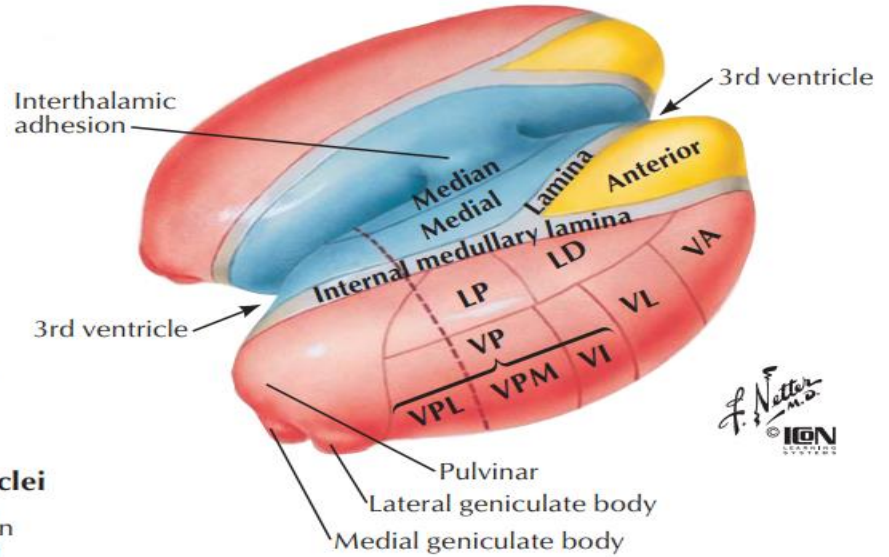


**Schematic section through thalamus**

(at level of broken line shown in figure at right)

**Thalamic nuclei**

- CM** Centromedian
- LD** Lateral dorsal
- LP** Lateral posterior
- M** Medial
- MD** Medial dorsal
- VA** Ventral anterior
- VI** Ventral intermedial
- VL** Ventral lateral
- VP** Ventral posterior
- VPL** Ventral posterolateral
- VPM** Ventral posteromedial

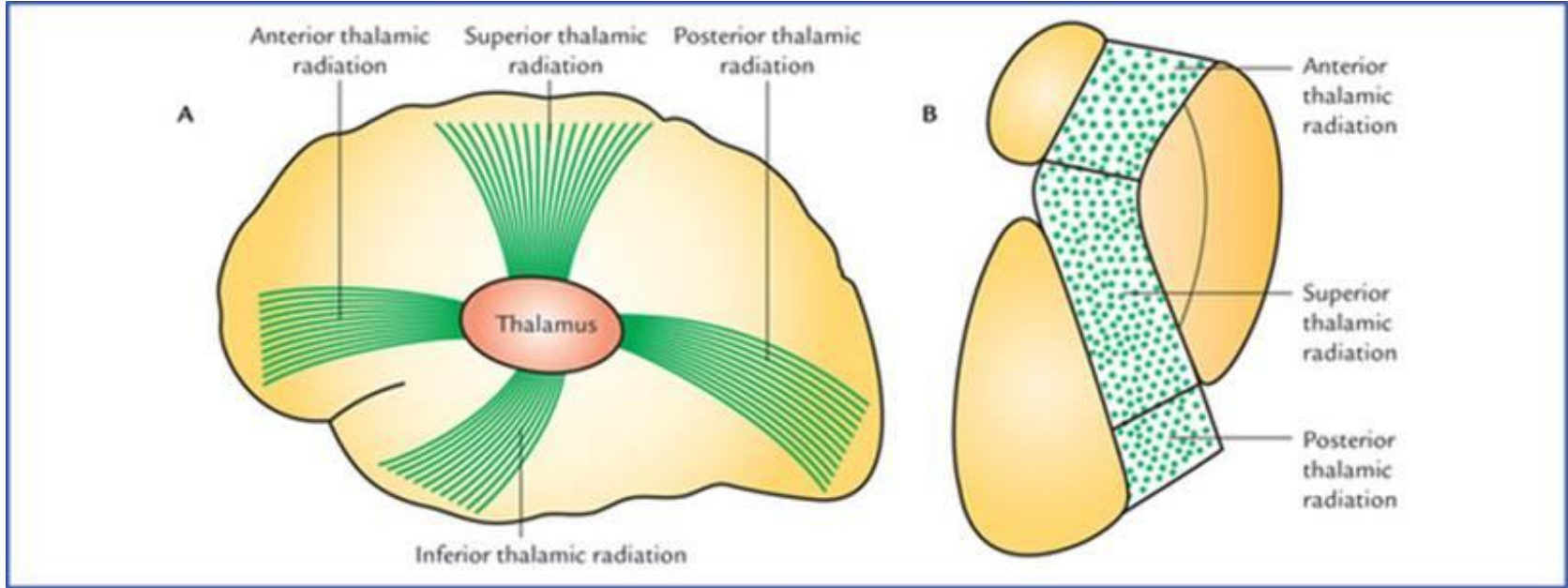
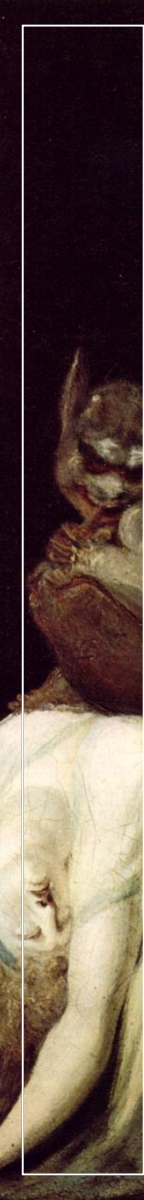


**Schematic representation of thalamus**

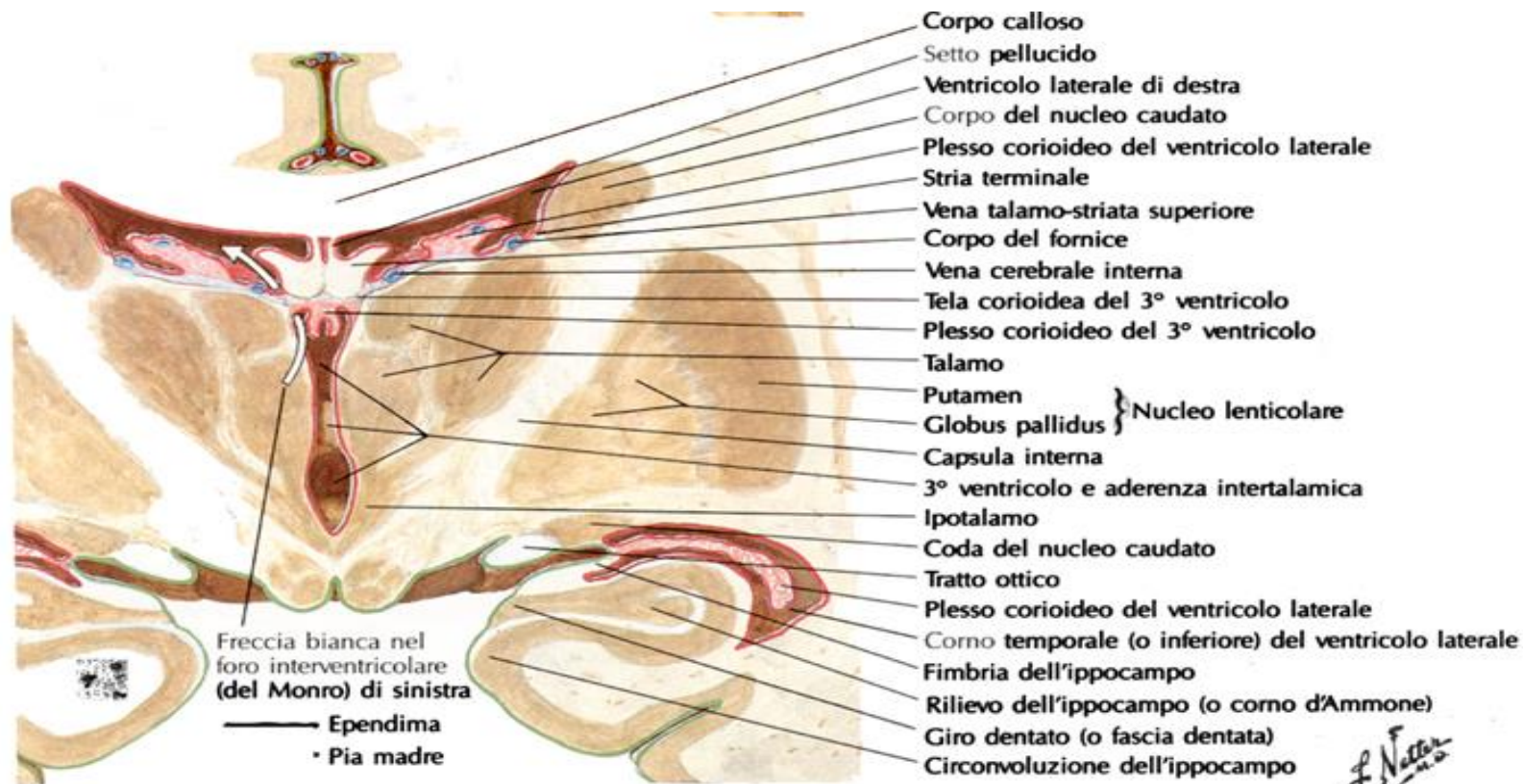
(external medullary lamina and reticular nuclei removed)

- Lateral nuclei**
- Medial nuclei**
- Anterior nuclei**



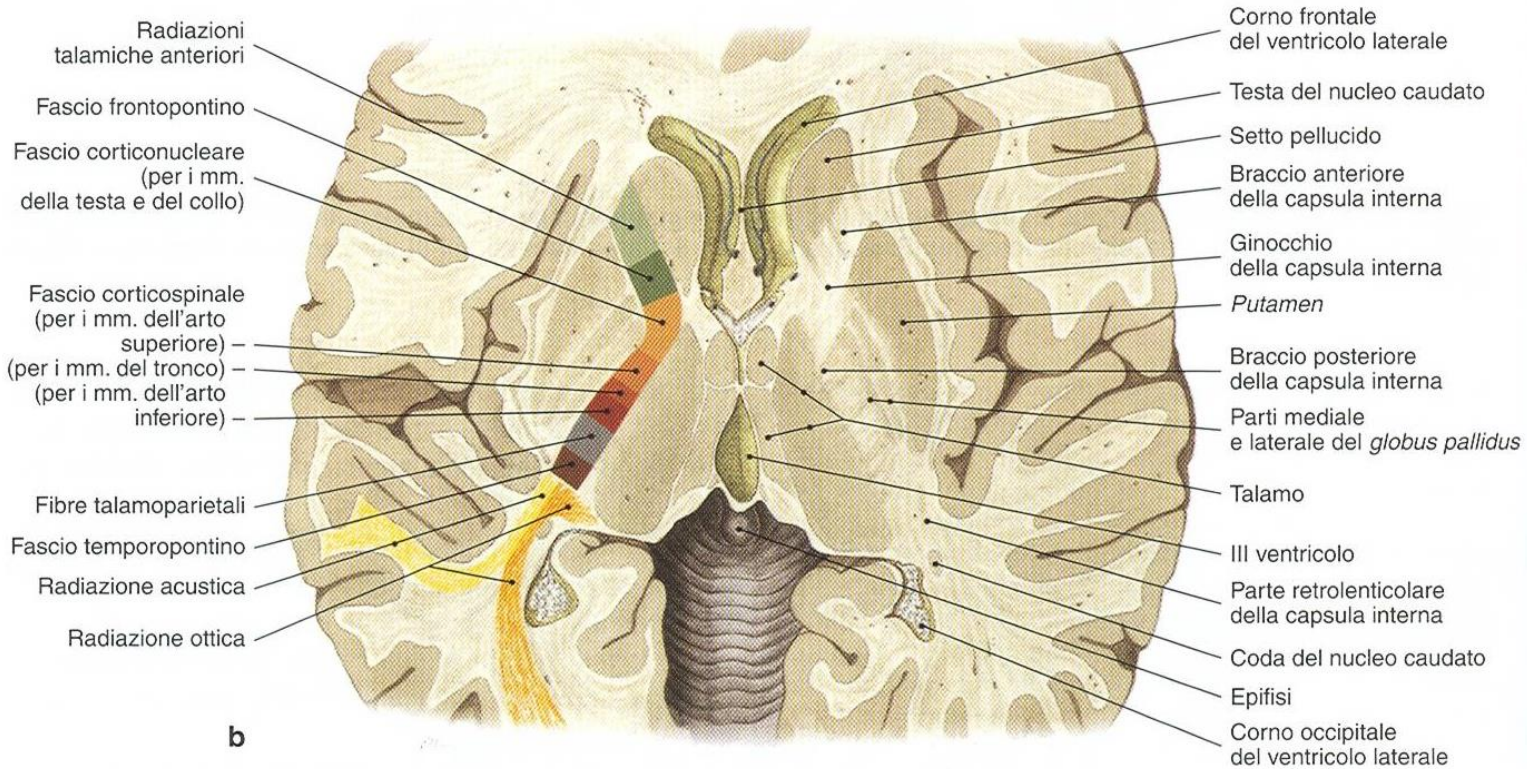






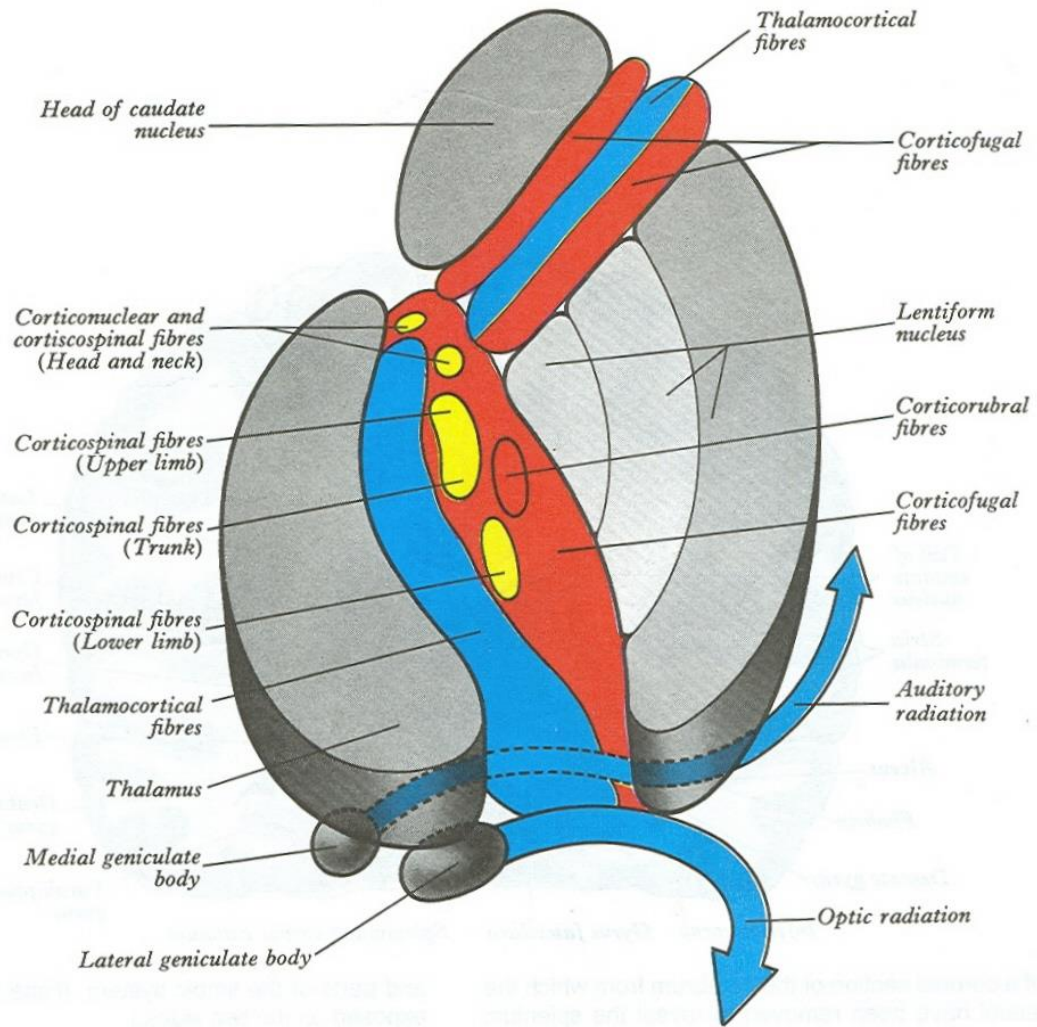
**Sezione frontale del cervello (veduta posteriore)**

*F. Natta*  
 © CIBA-GEIGY

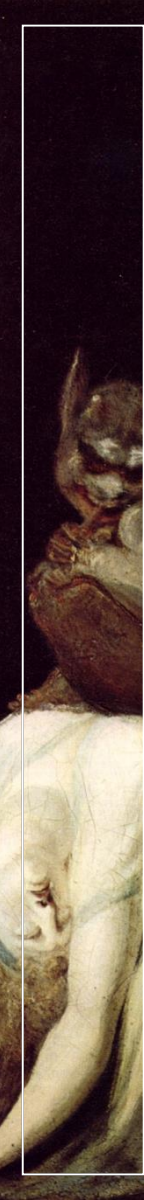
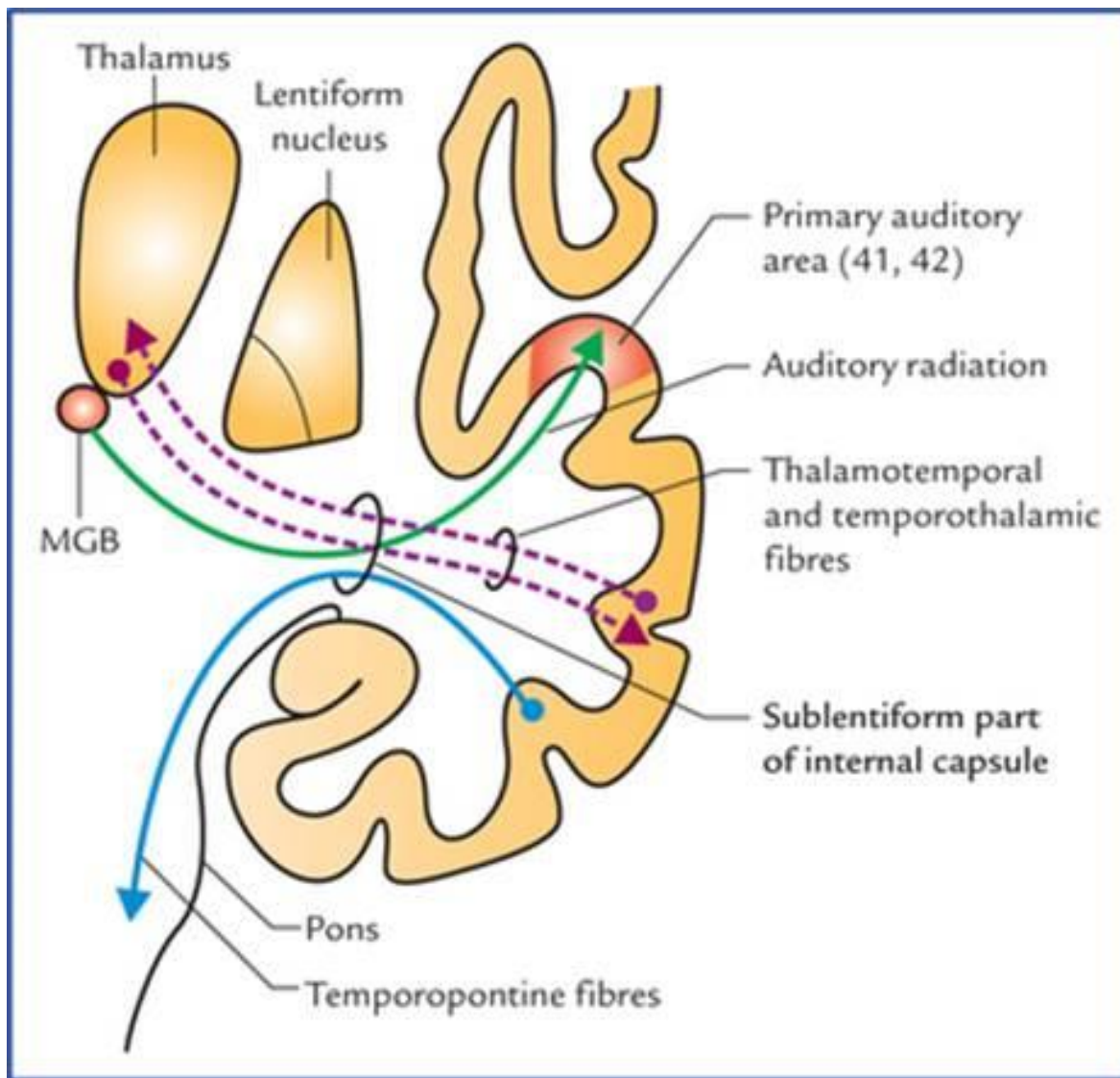


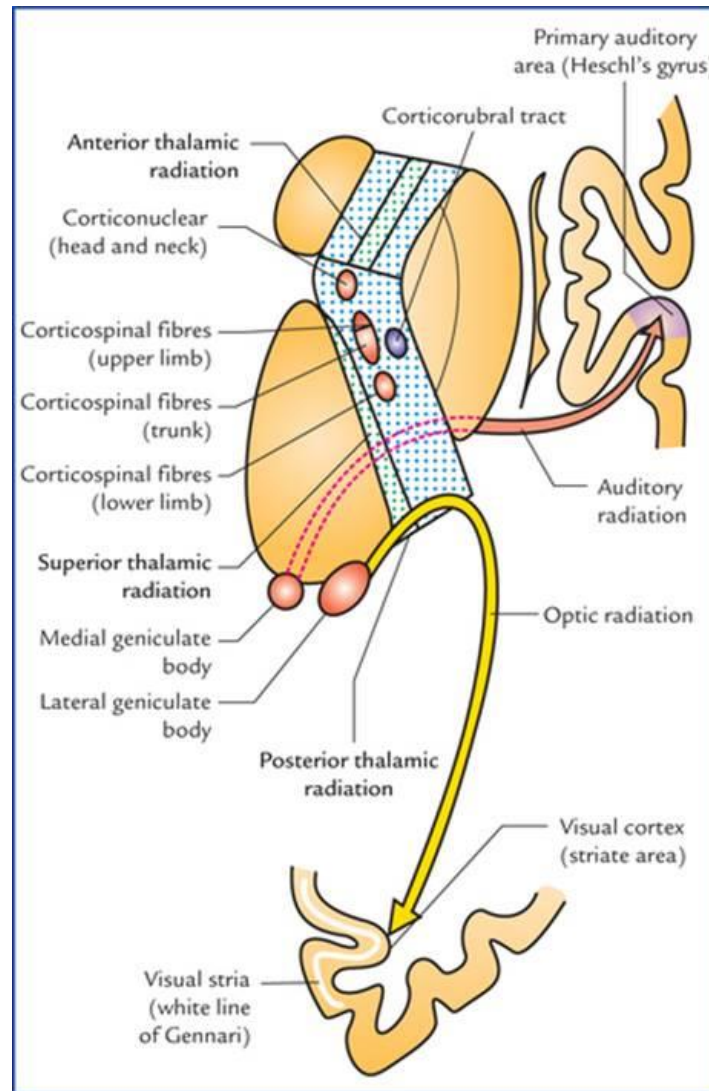
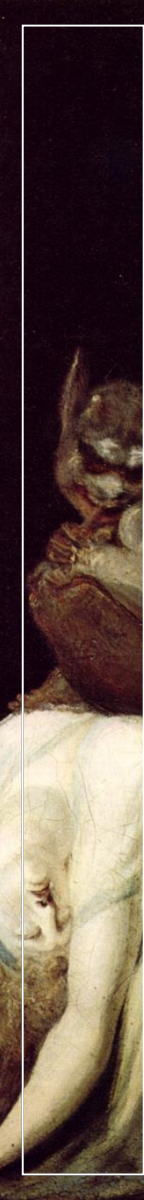
**Figura 14.79** - Nuclei del proencefalo e capsula interna. **a**, Talamo, corpo striato (nuclei caudato e *putamen*) e nucleo lenticolare (*putamen* e *globus pallidus*) con capsula interna, proiezione occipitolaterale destra. **b**, Sezione orizzontale della capsula interna e dei nuclei adiacenti. A sinistra le parti principali della capsula interna sono state messe in evidenza con colori differenti. Proiezione parietale (da Köpf-Maier P, ed.: Wolf-Heidegger's Atlas of Human Anatomy, 5<sup>th</sup>, completely revised and supplemented edition, Basel, Karger, 2000, with permission from S. Karger AG, Basel).

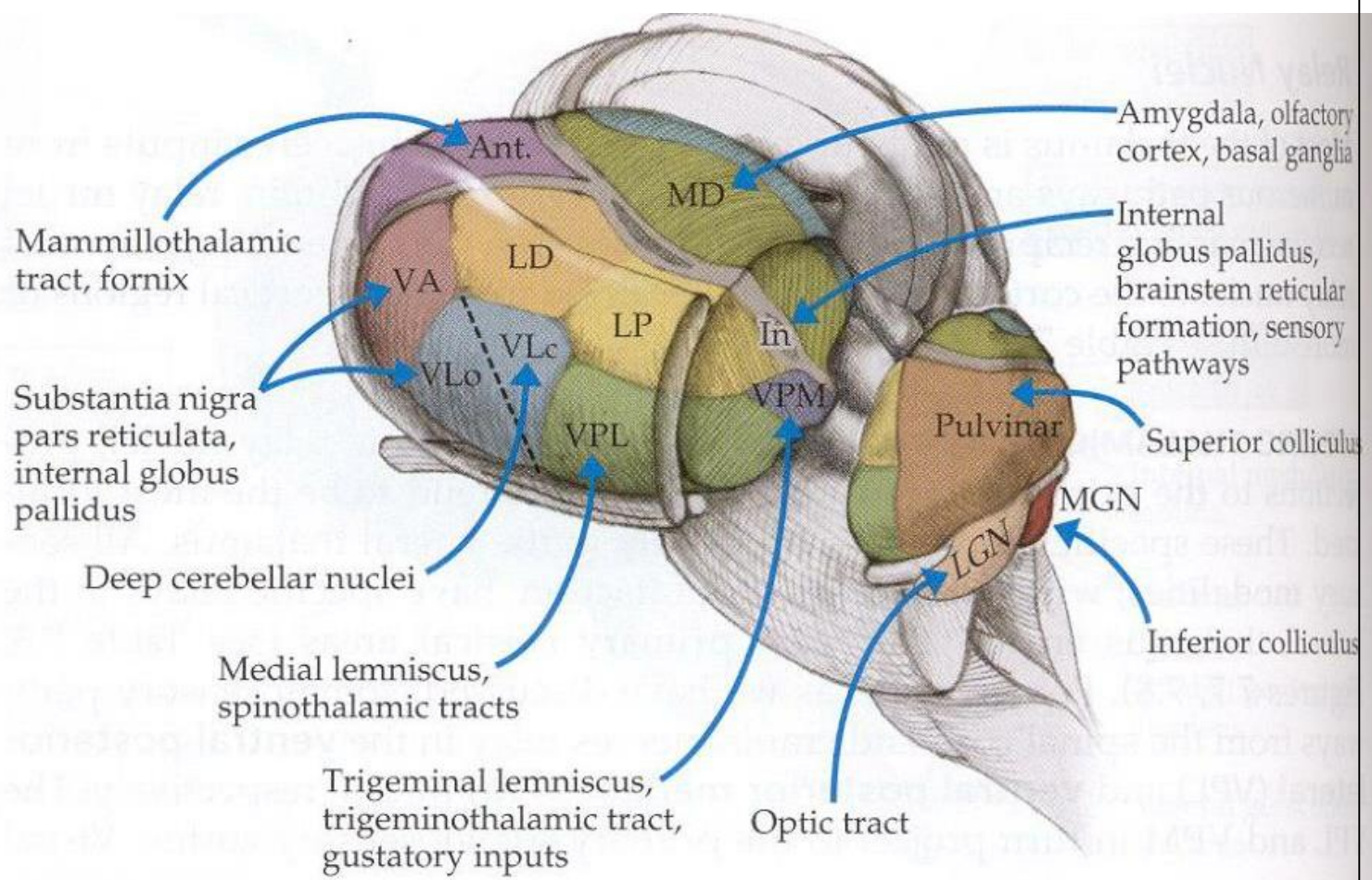
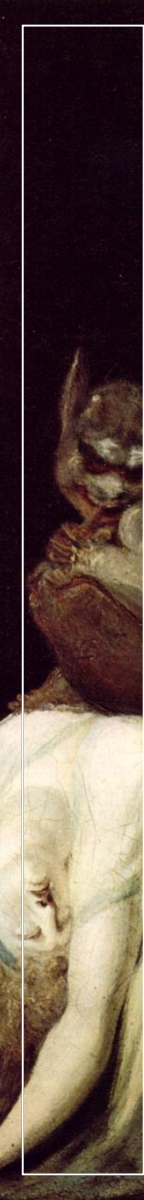




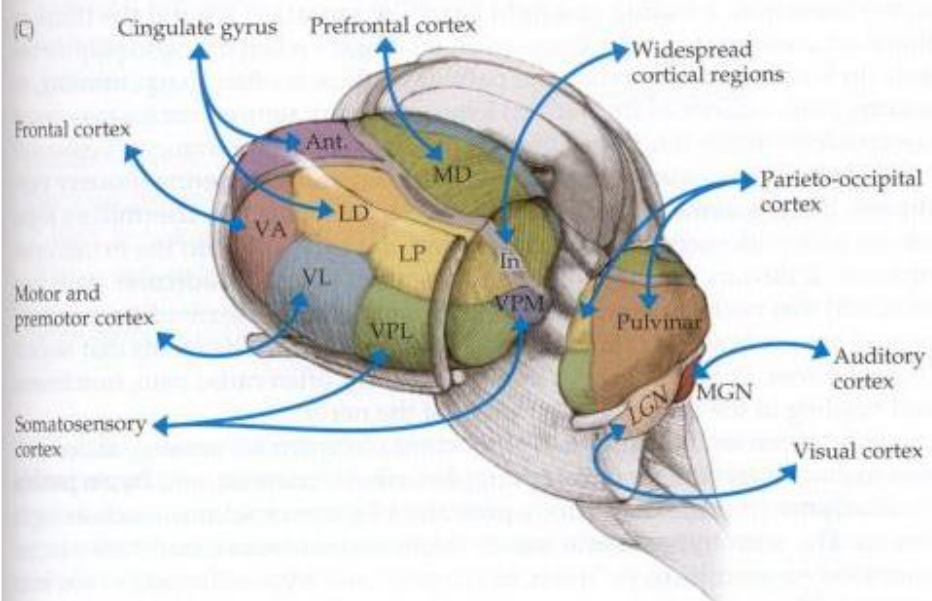
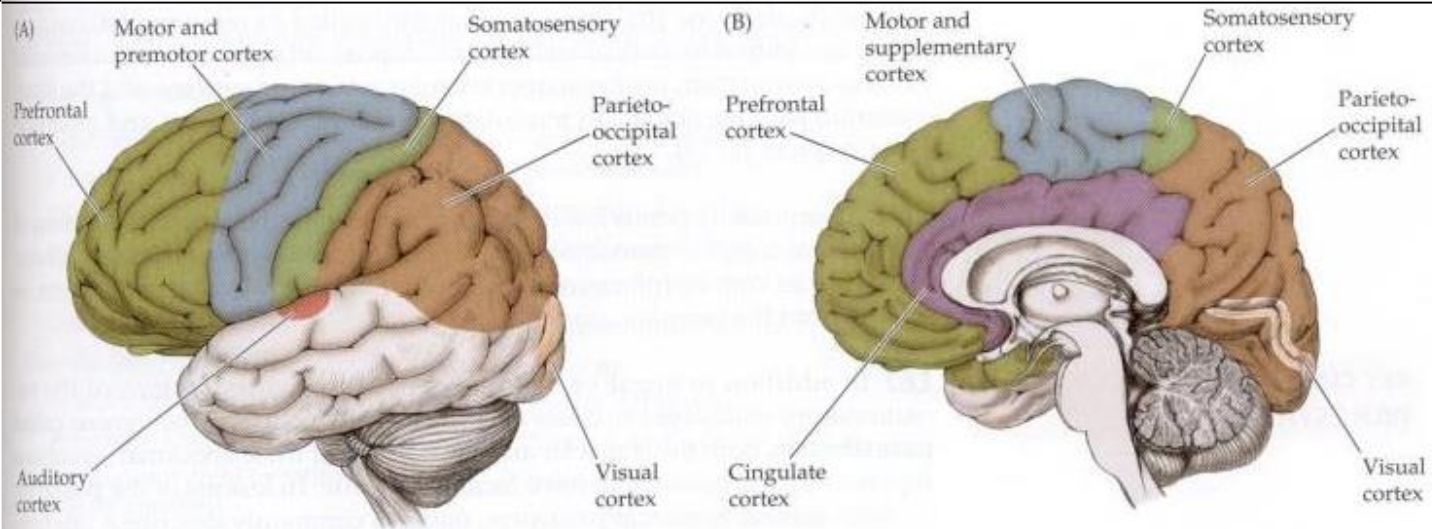








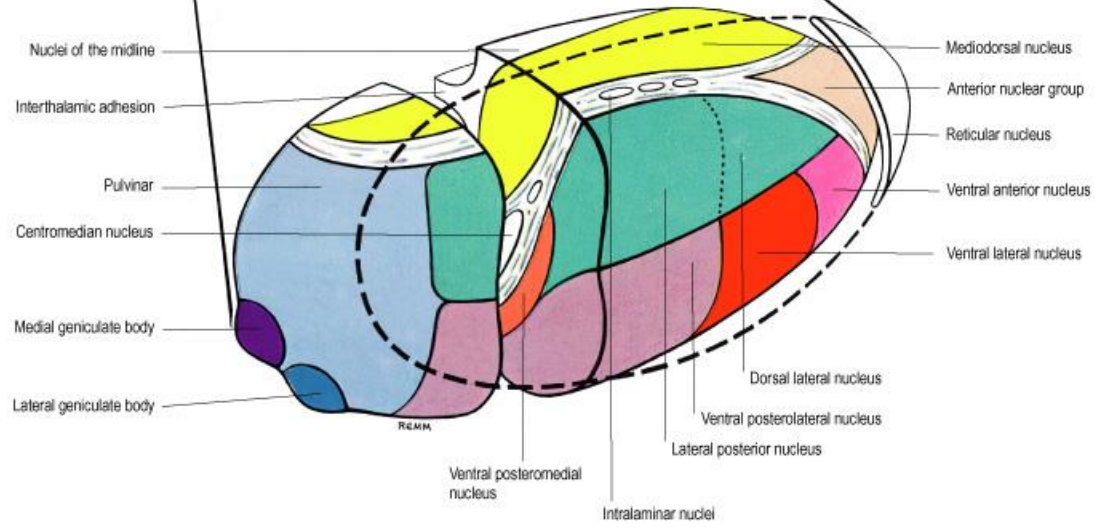
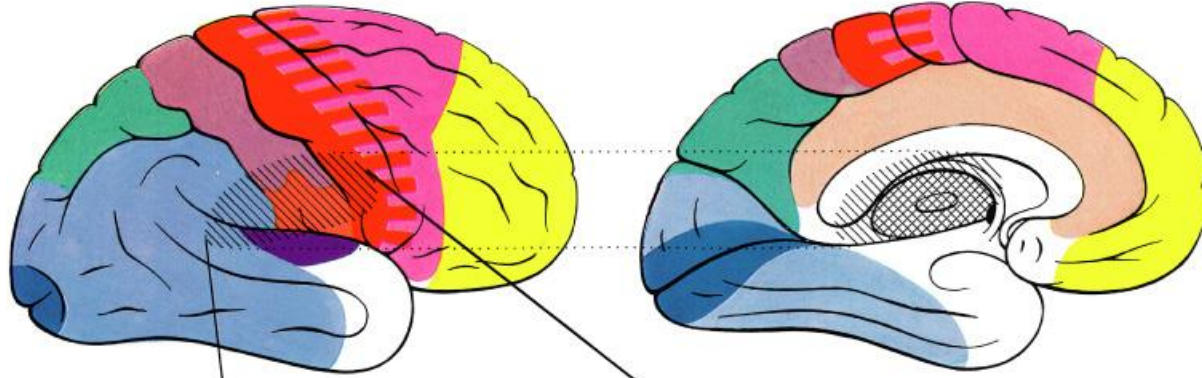




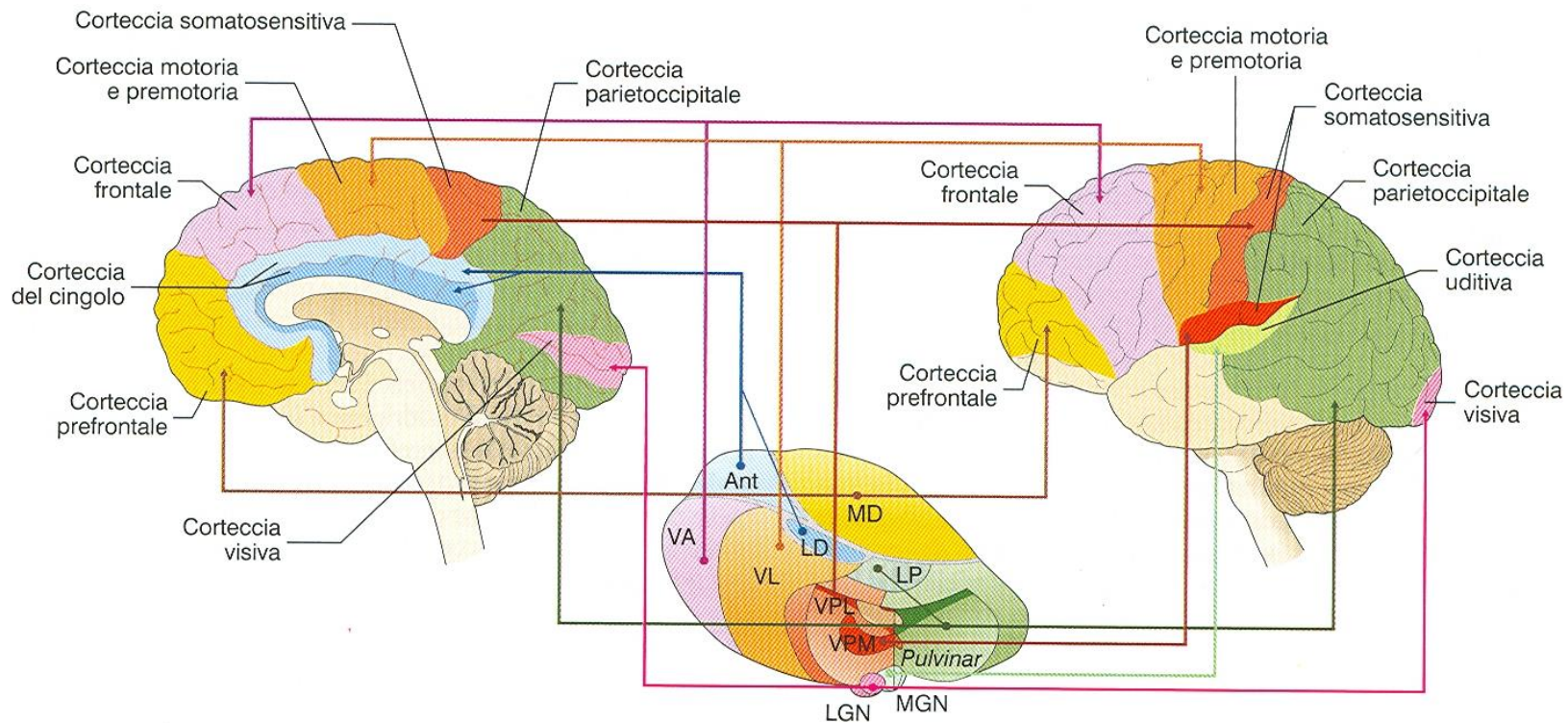
**Figure 7.8 Reciprocal Connections between Thalamus and Cortex** Major connections between thalamic nuclei and cortical areas are shown using corresponding colors. (A) Cortex, lateral view. (B) Cortex, medial view. (C) Thalamus. See Table 7.3 for additional details. Abbreviations are the same as in Figure 7.7.

SUPEROLATERAL SURFACE OF HEMISPHERE

MEDIAL SURFACE OF HEMISPHERE







**Figura 14.74** - Principali raggruppamenti nucleari del talamo e relative proiezioni corticali.



## PRION DISEASES – FATAL FAMILIAL INSOMNIA

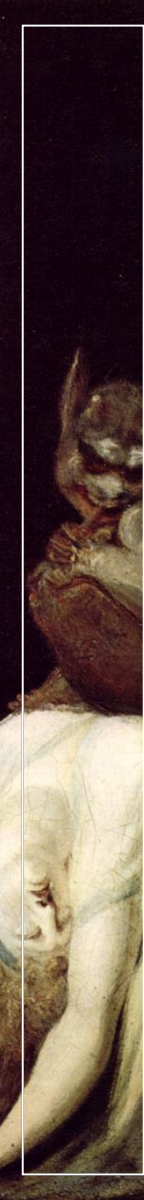
Prion diseases are fatal neurological disorders that are thought to be caused by the misfolding of a benign, widely expressed protein (PrP<sup>C</sup>) into a distinct pathological conformation(s) (PrP<sup>Sc</sup>) which is regarded as the disease agent.

Prion diseases affect a range of important food production species and include scrapie in sheep and goats, bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE) in cattle and chronic wasting disease (CWD) in deer.

Sporadic (sCJD, sFI)

Acquired (vCJD, Kuru)

**Genetic (gCJD, FFI, GSS)**

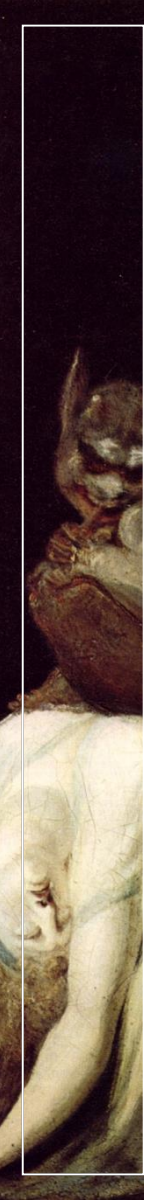


## PRION DISEASES – FATAL FAMILIAL INSOMNIA

**Fatal familial insomnia** is a very rare and invariably fatal autosomal dominant neurodegenerative prion disease caused by a mutation of the prion protein (PRNP) gene. Hallmarks of the disease include aggressively progressive insomnia, subsequent autonomic disturbances, including tachycardia, hyperhidrosis, and hypertension, cognitive disturbances including deficits in short-term memory and attention, balance problems, and endocrine dysfunction.

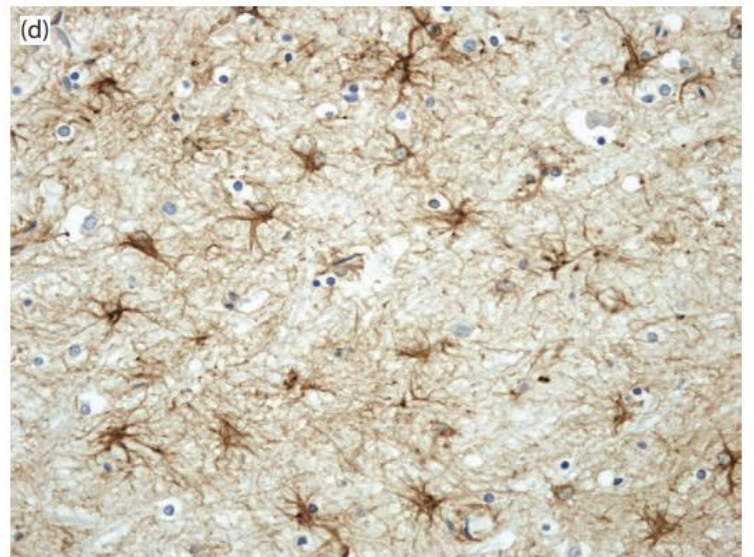
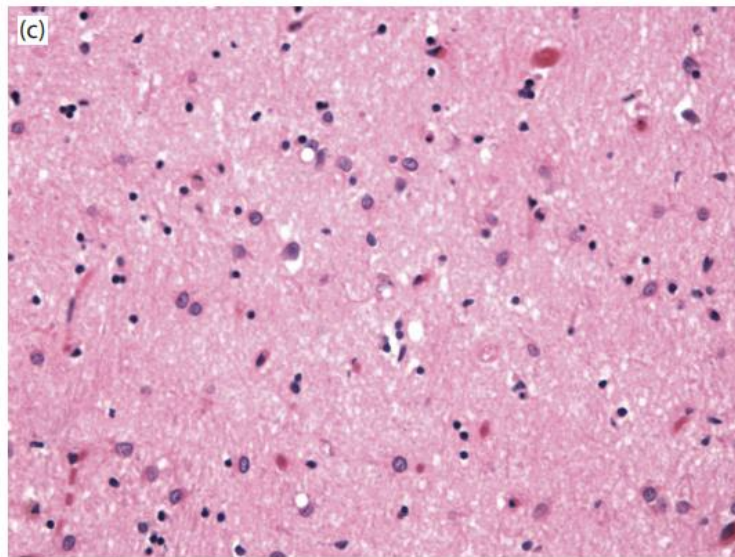
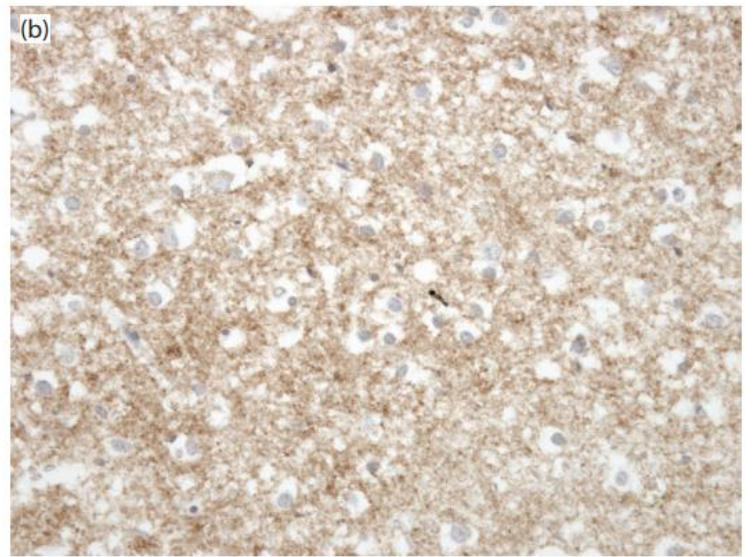
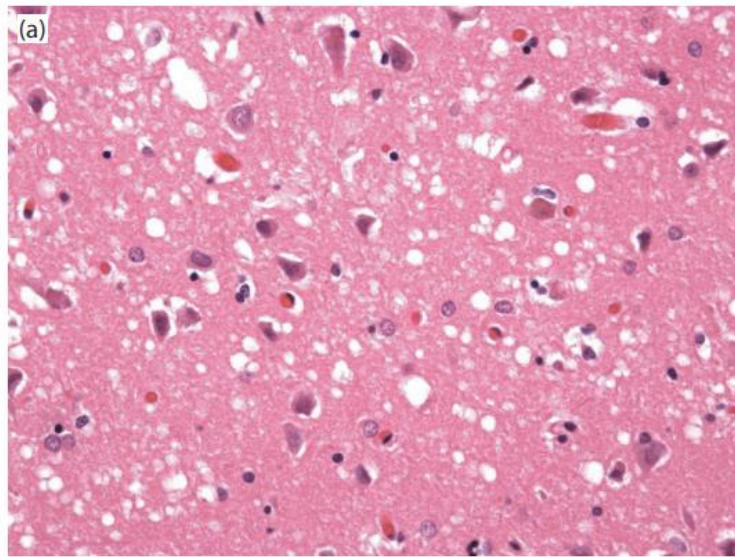
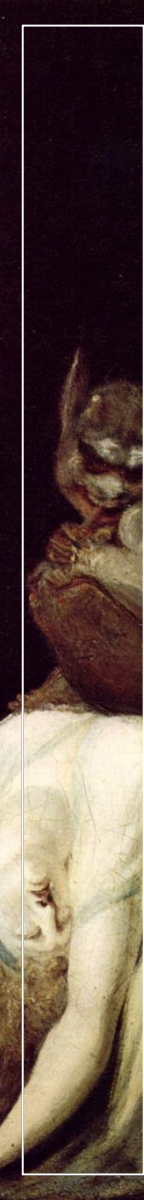
To date at least 70 kindreds affected by FFI with 198 members and 18 unrelated carriers have been published.





The cardinal symptoms of FFI, i.e. apathetic behaviour, attention deficit, hypovigilance and loss of sleep, sympathetic hyperactivity, and progressive attenuation of autonomic and hormonal circadian oscillations, may be related to **selective involvement of the AV and MD thalamic nuclei**. In fact, the severe and consistent atrophy of these nuclei is the only common finding shared by all FFI cases





# The Somatosensory Systems

Michelangelo Buonarroti – The Creation of Adam





**Myself wanting to finish examining slides from a case and go home**



**De Caro at 8PM asking to see more memes from the students**





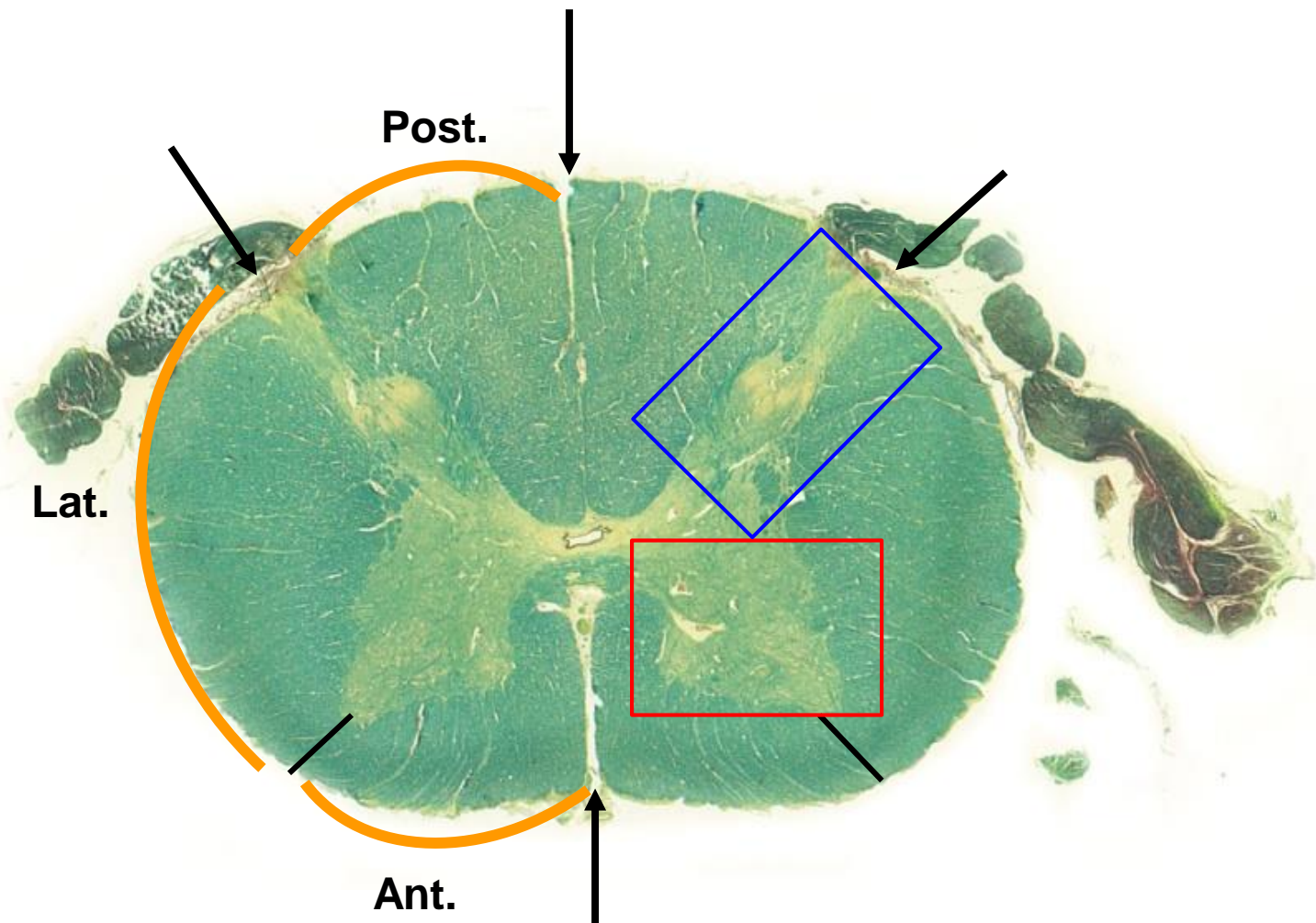
## My favorite (so far)

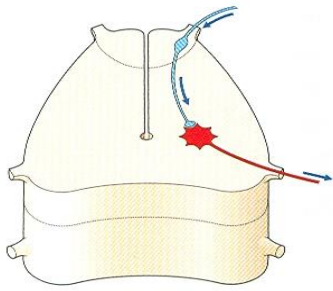
anatomy professors trying to  
organize the human body course:



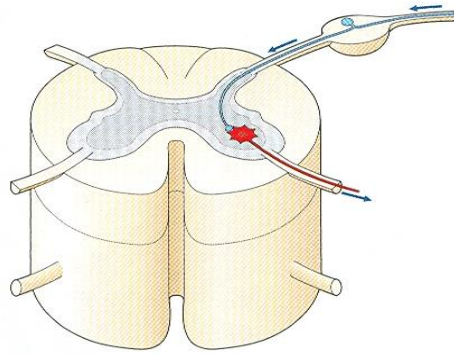
## De Caro's favorite (so far)



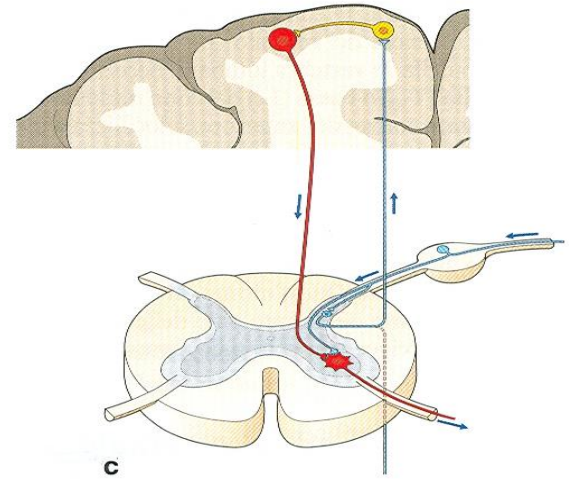




a



b



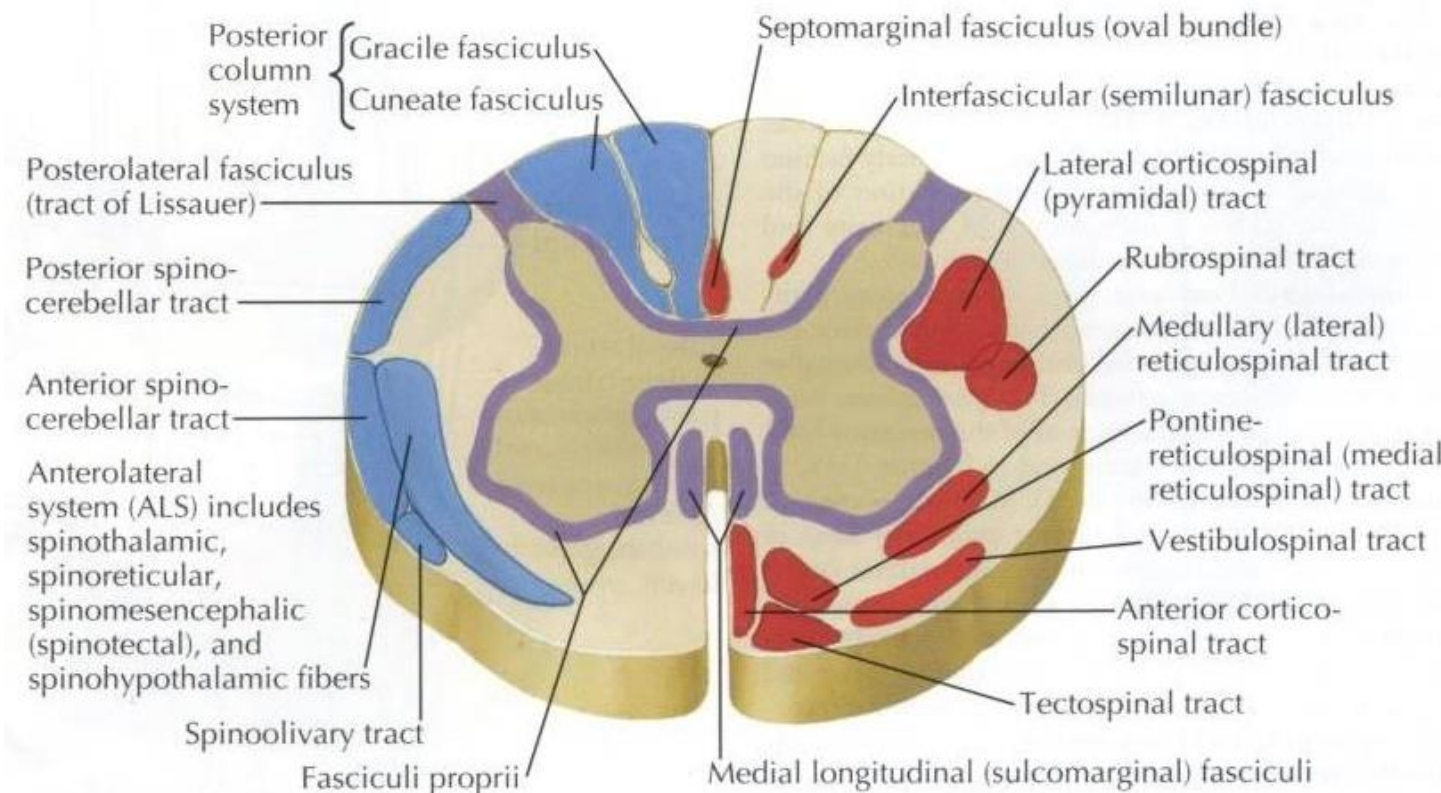
c

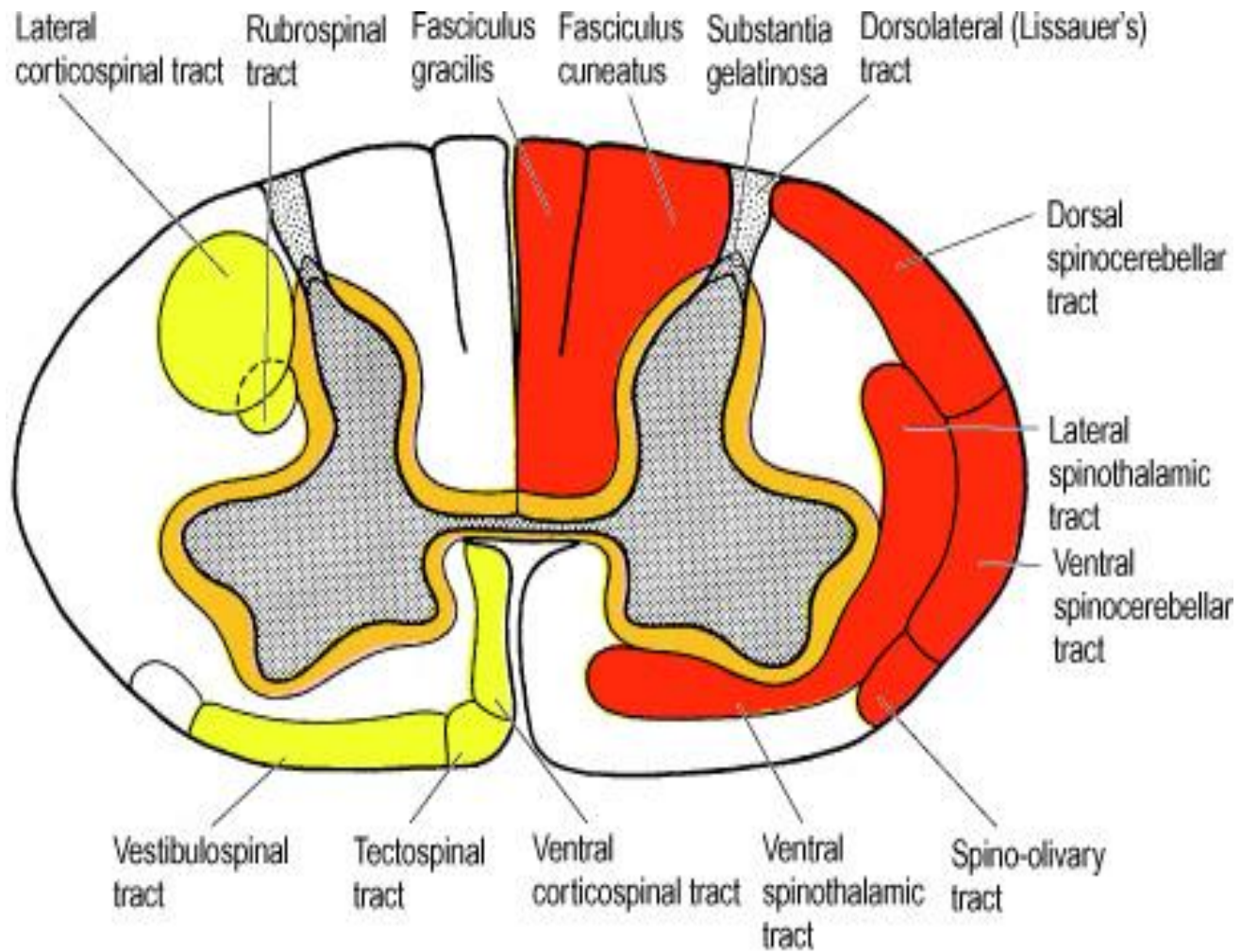
**Figura 14.30** - Rappresentazione schematica dei rapporti che si stabiliscono tra neuroni sensitivi (**blu**) e neuroni di moto (**rosso**) in organizzazioni nervose centralizzate. **a**, Nei Cefalocordati, gli elementi sensitivi e quelli effettori sono localizzati nell'asse nervoso; **b**, nei Vertebrati, il protoneurone sensitivo ha sede al di fuori del nevrasso, in formazioni chiamate gangli; **c**, archi riflessi orizzontali a disposizione segmentaria e archi verticali in cui si riconoscono linee di collegamento ascendenti e discendenti.





- Ascending pathways** (blue)
- Descending pathways** (red)
- Fibers passing in both directions** (purple)



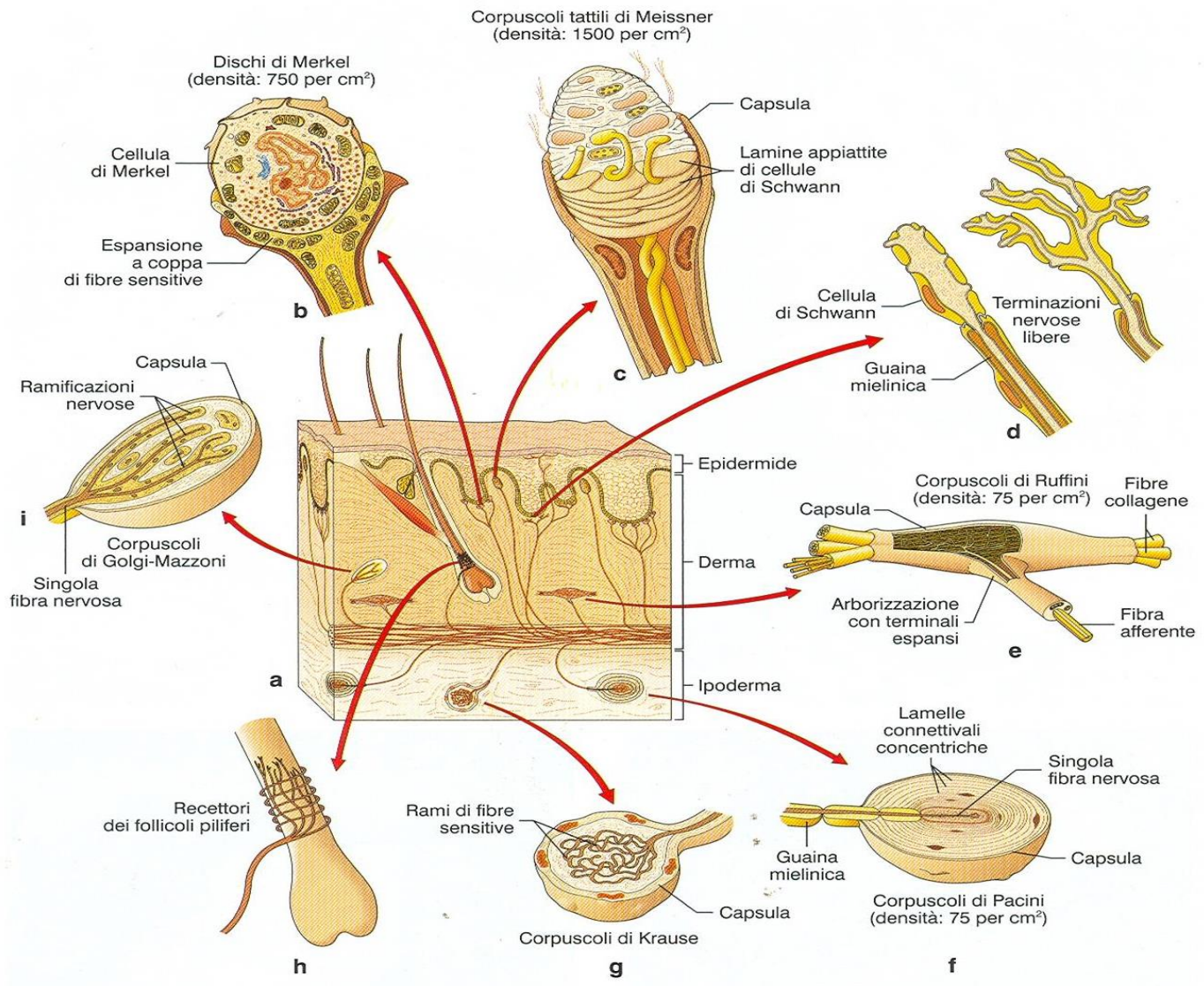




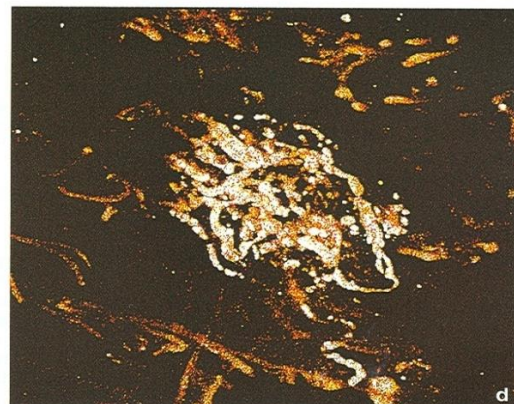
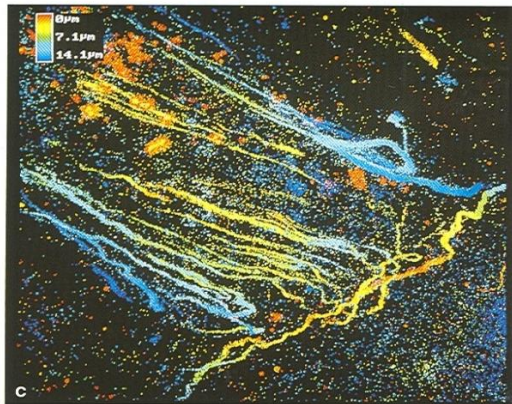
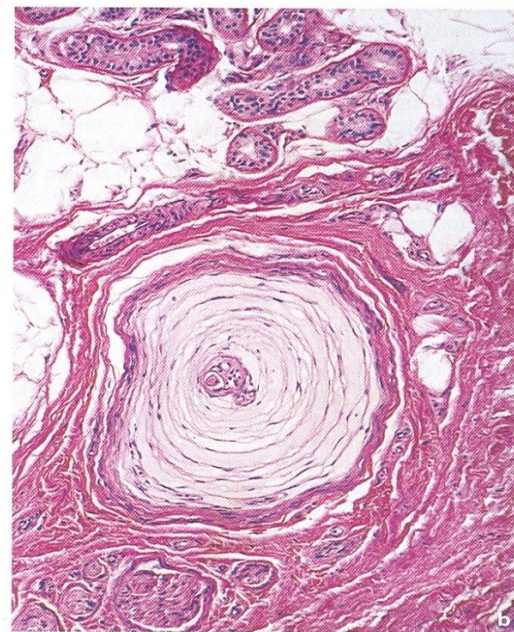
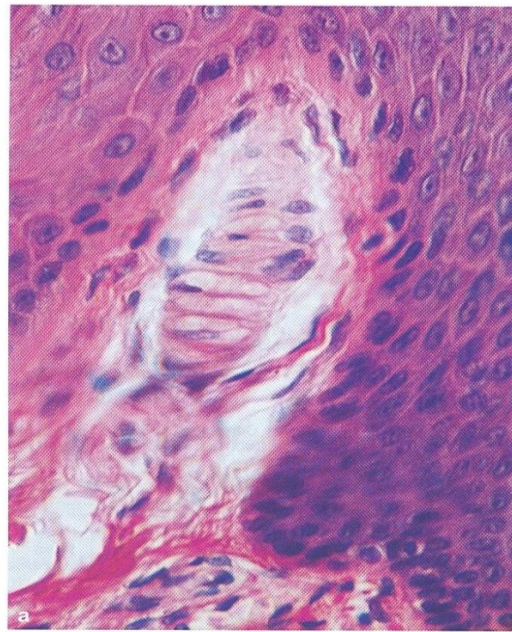
# Types of Sensitivity

- *Tactile (Touch)*: - Protopartic  
- Epicritic
- *Proprioceptive* (Conscious vs Non-Conscious)
- *Enteroceptive*
- *Nociceptive* (Pain and Temperature)

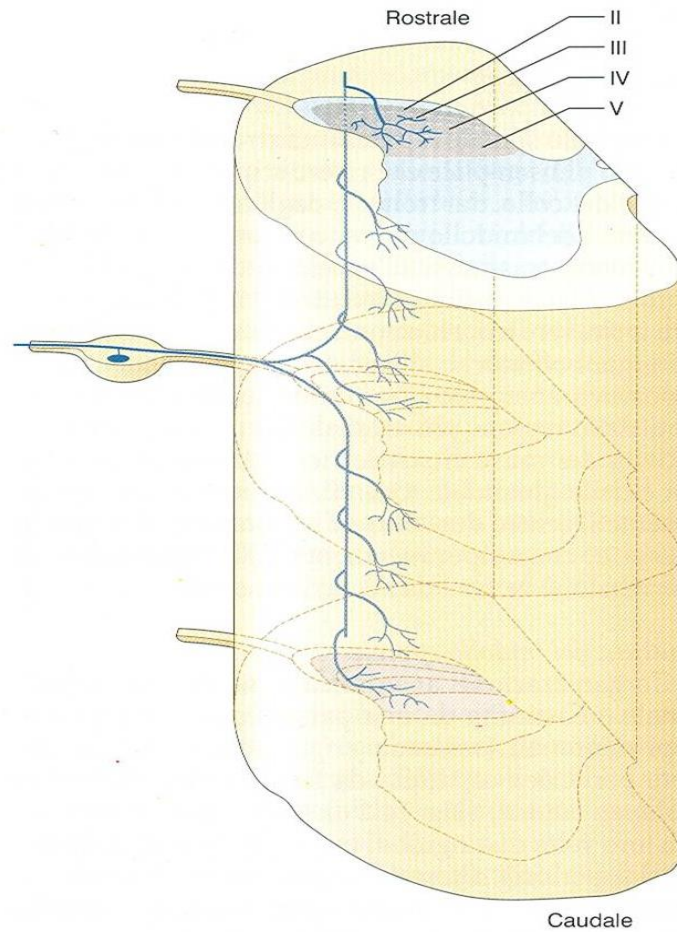






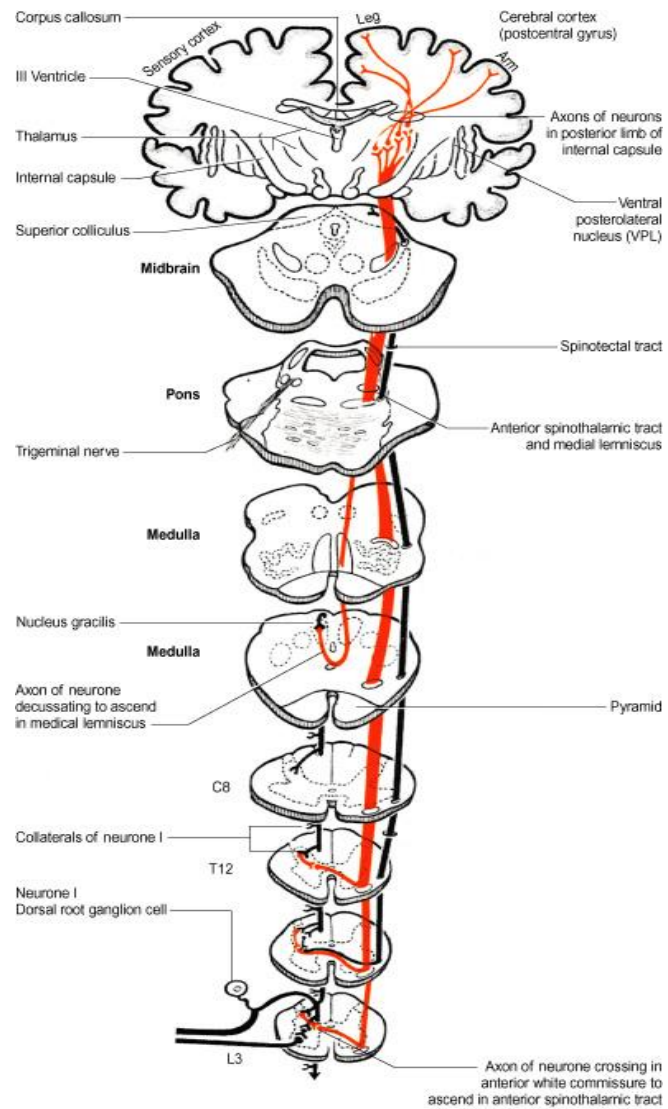


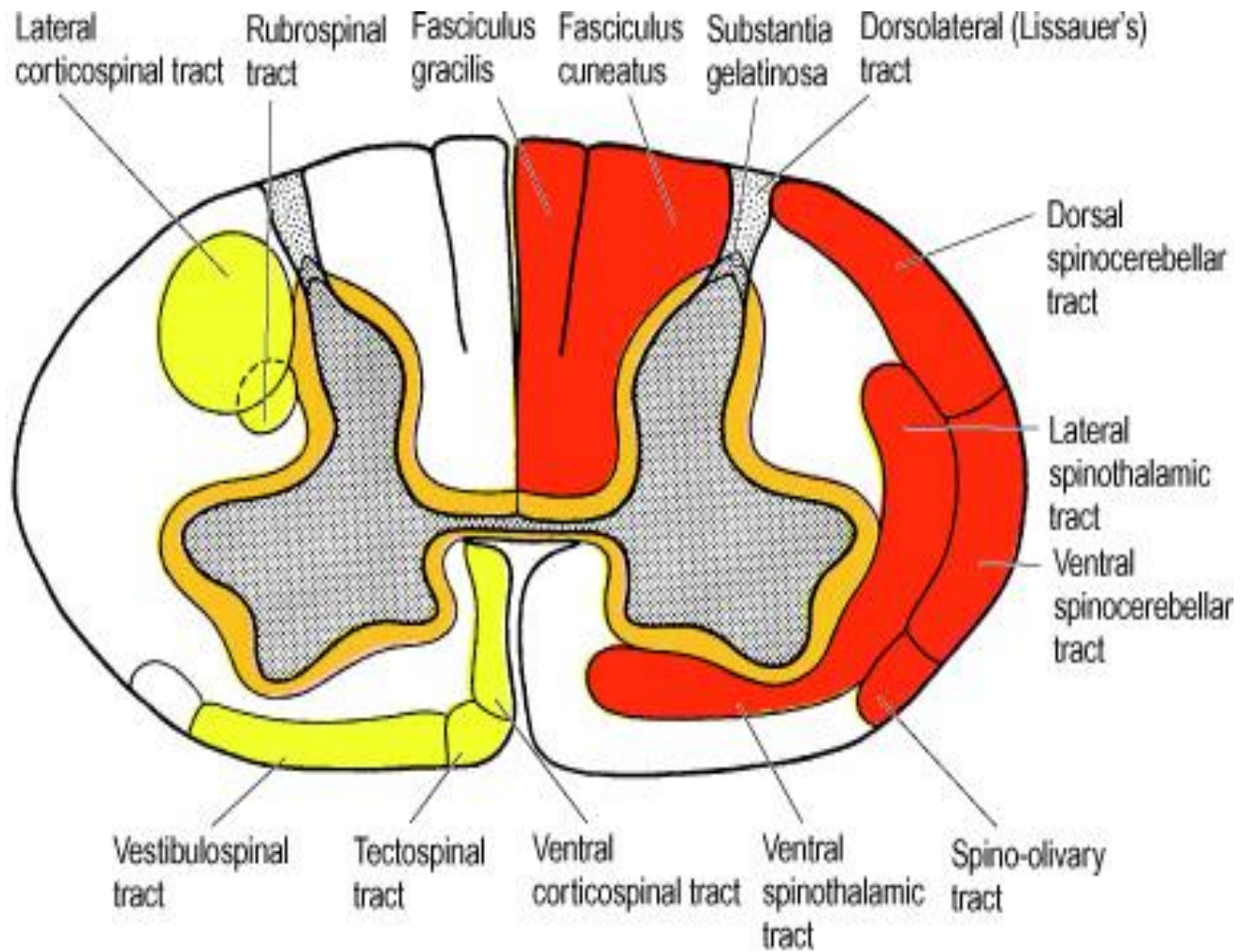
**Figura R14.1-2** - Alcune terminazioni corpuscolate della pelle umana. **a**, Corpuscolo di Meissner entro una papilla dermica; **b**, corpuscolo di Pacini, in sezione trasversale, nel derma profondo; **c**, reticolo perifollicolare; **d**, clava di Krause (del freddo) nel derma intermedio (**b**, **c**: microscopio confocale a scansione laser).

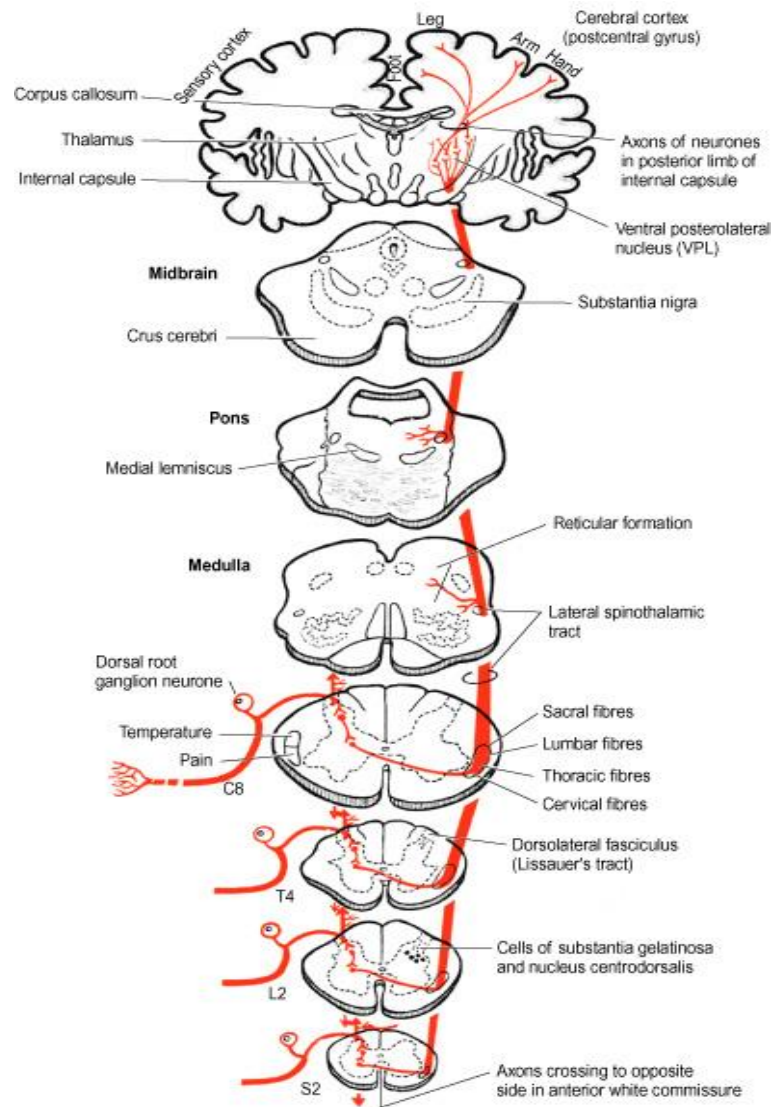


**Figura R14.1-4** - Ricostruzione tridimensionale del corno posteriore del midollo spinale. Sono rappresentate la biforcazione a T del ramo centripeto del neurone gangliare e la distribuzione delle sue collaterali all'interno della sostanza grigia del corno posteriore.

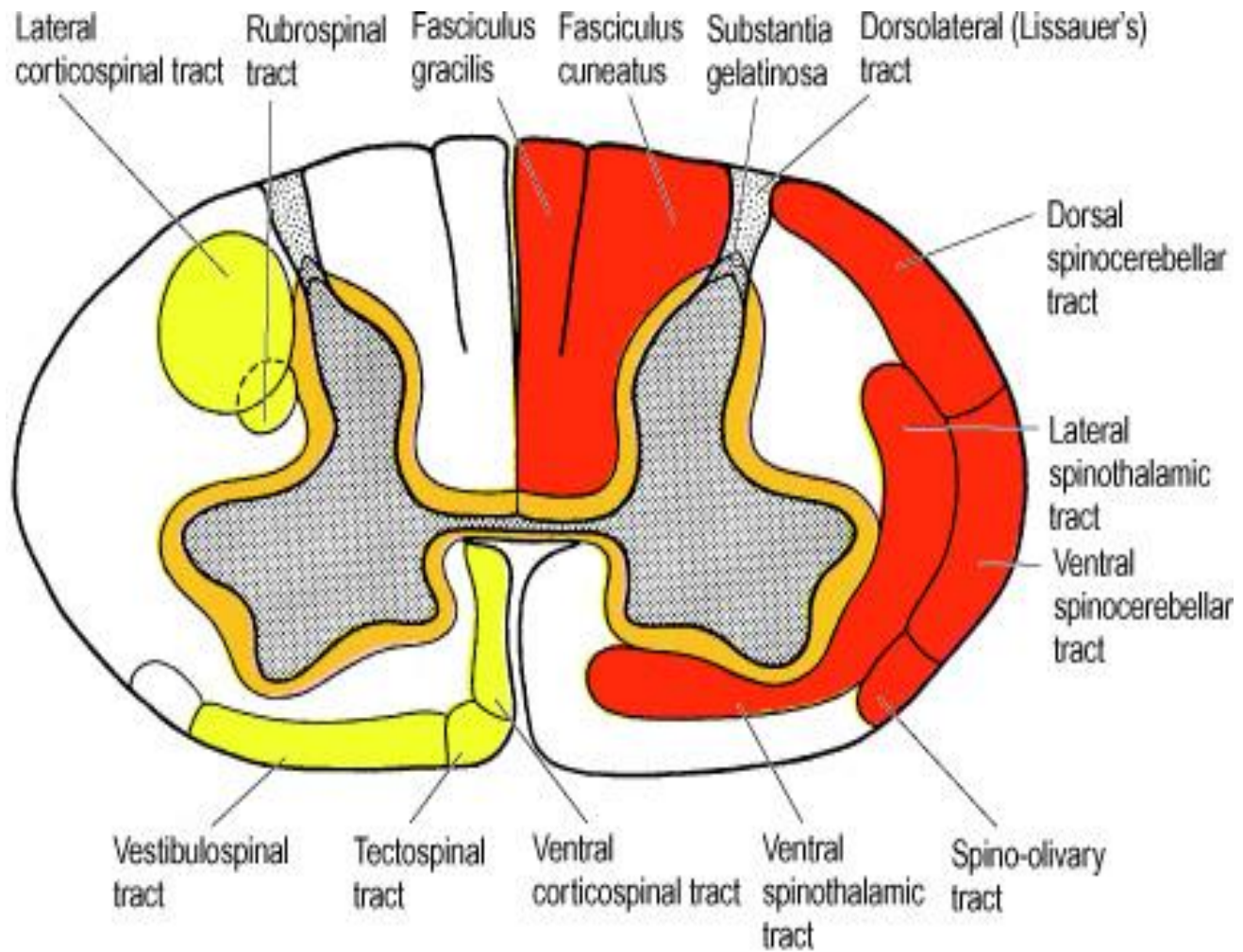


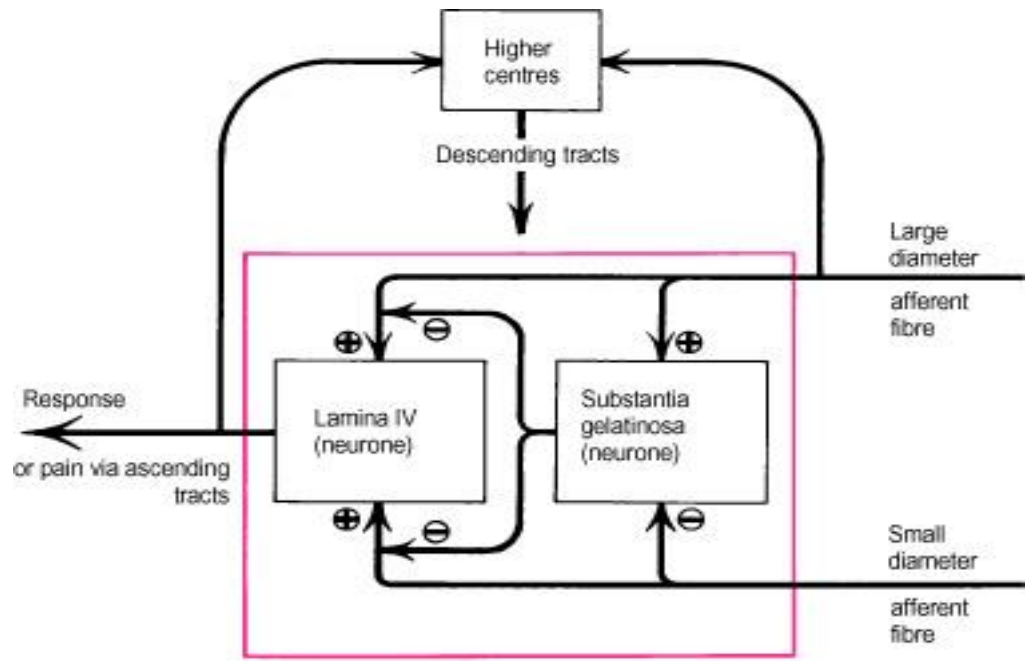


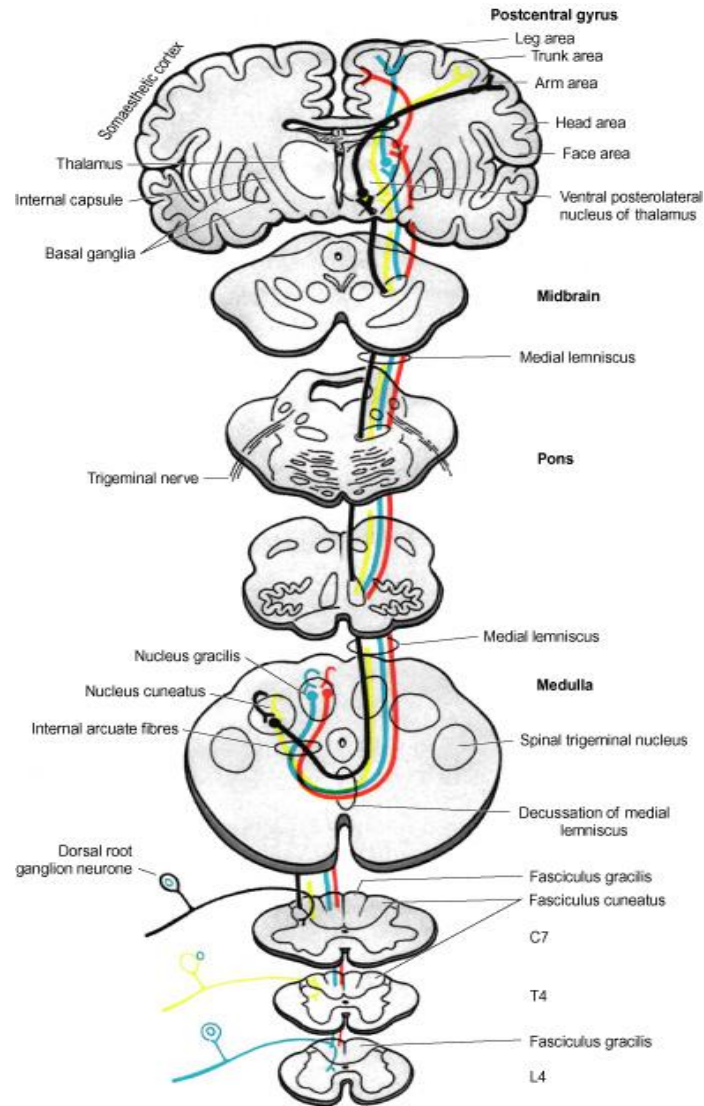




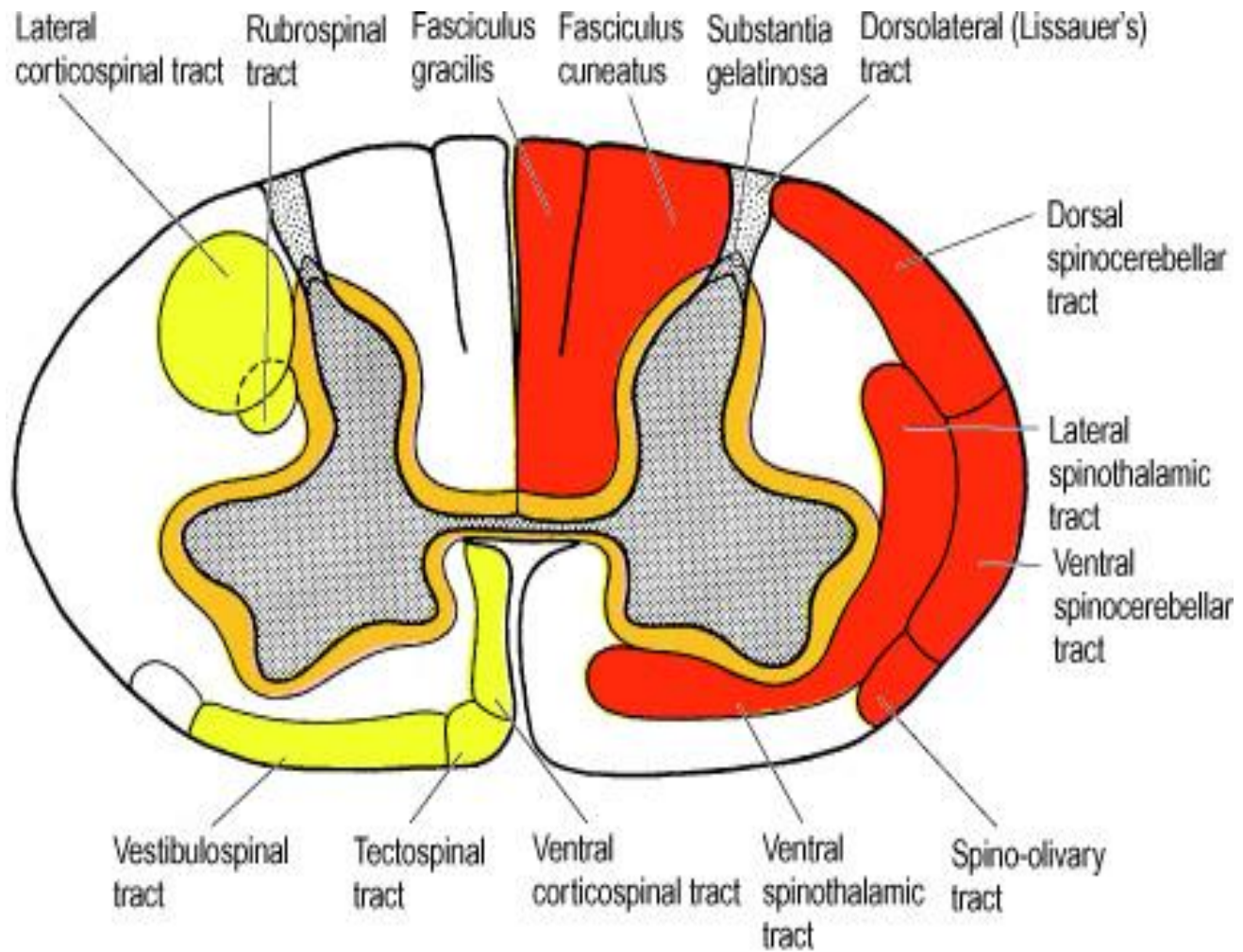


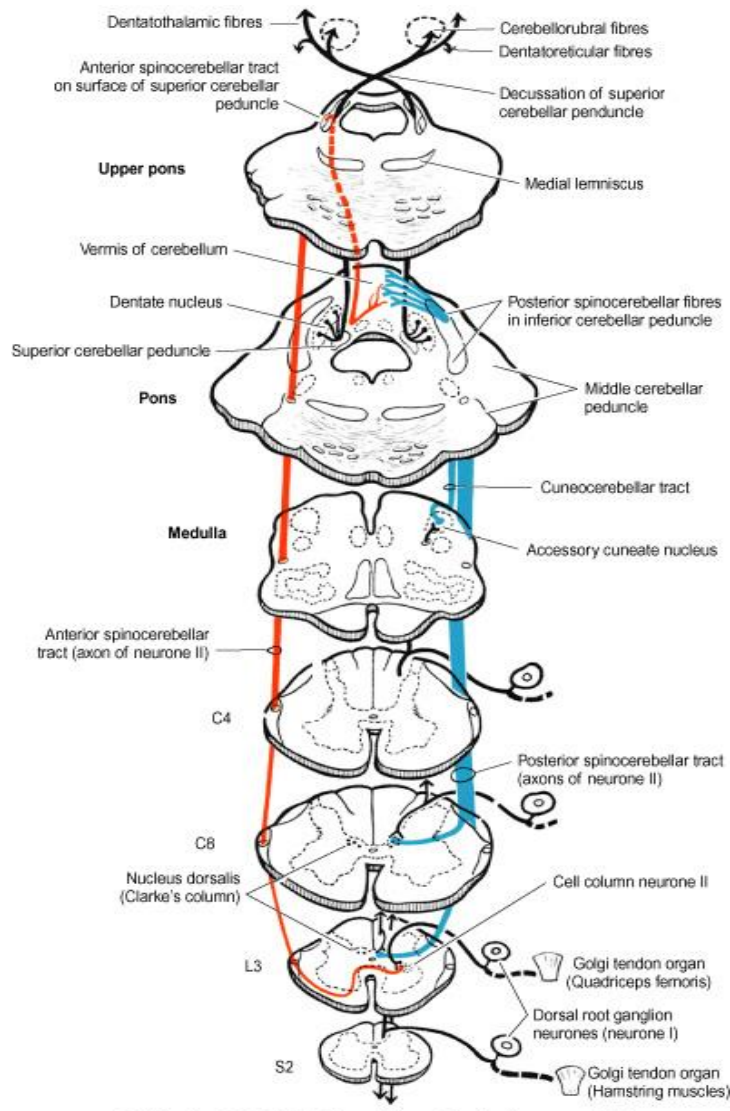


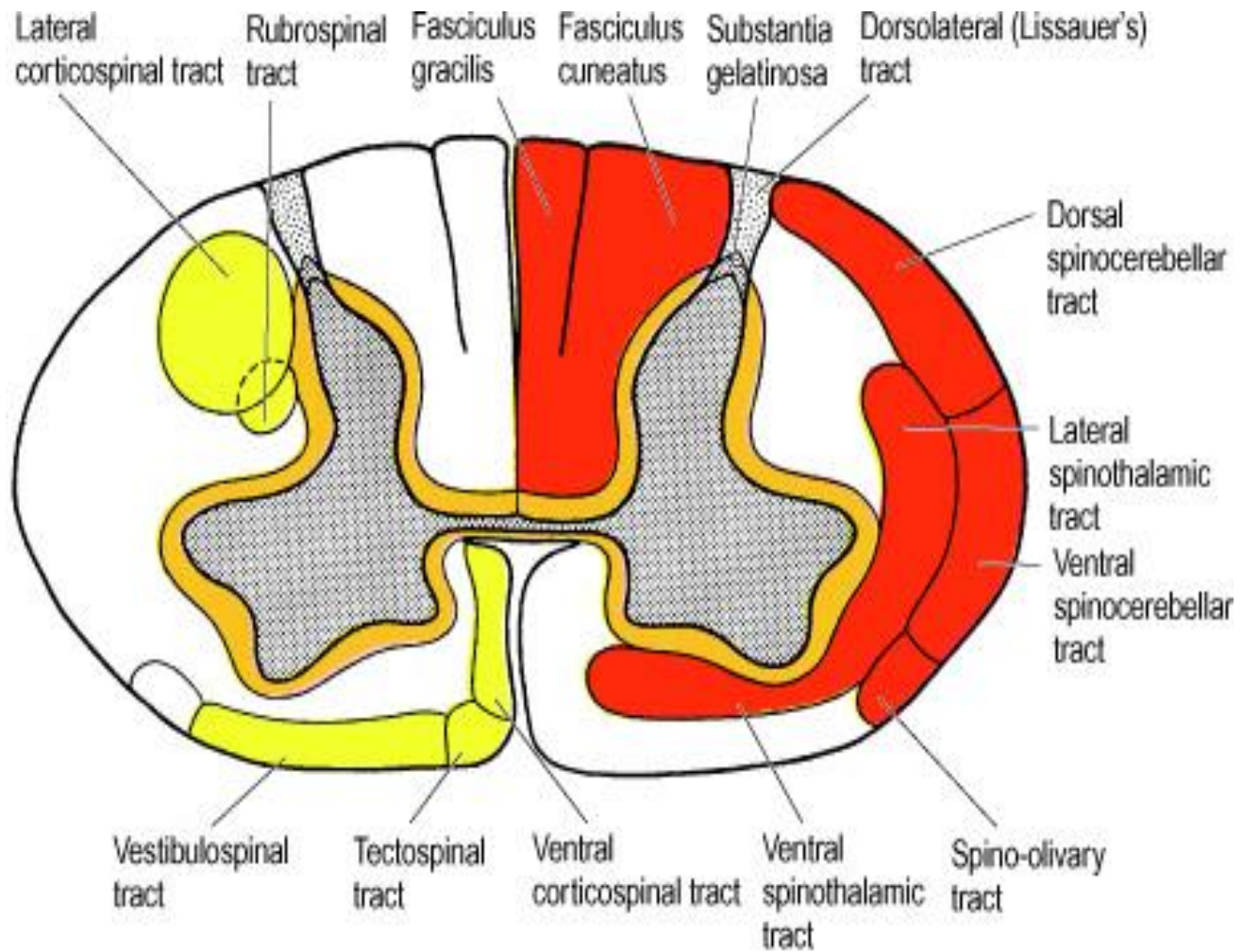




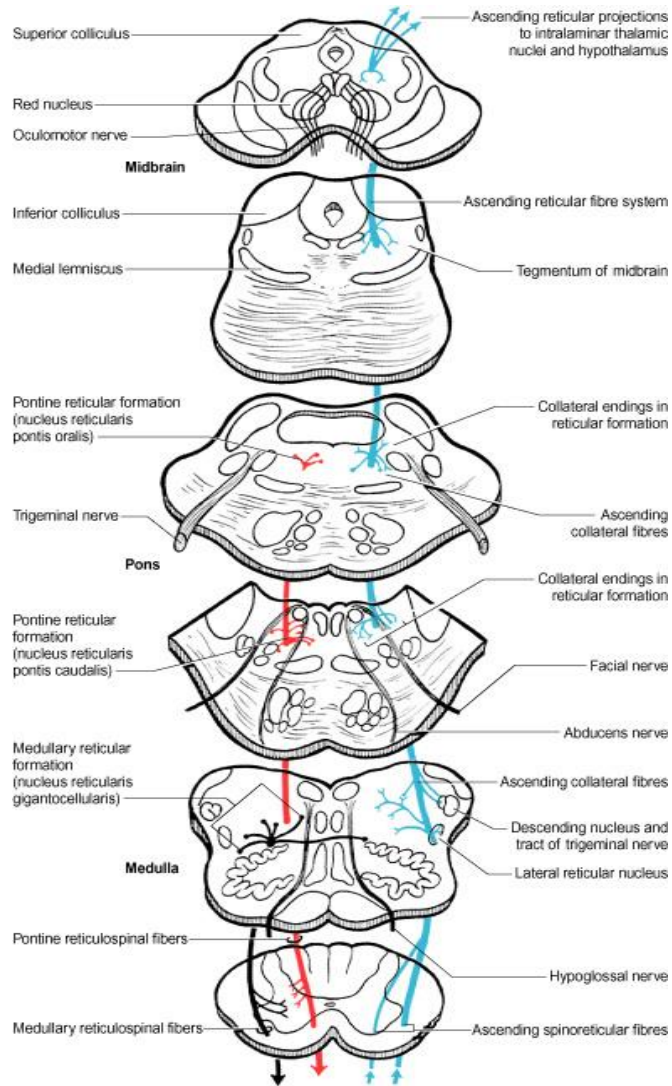


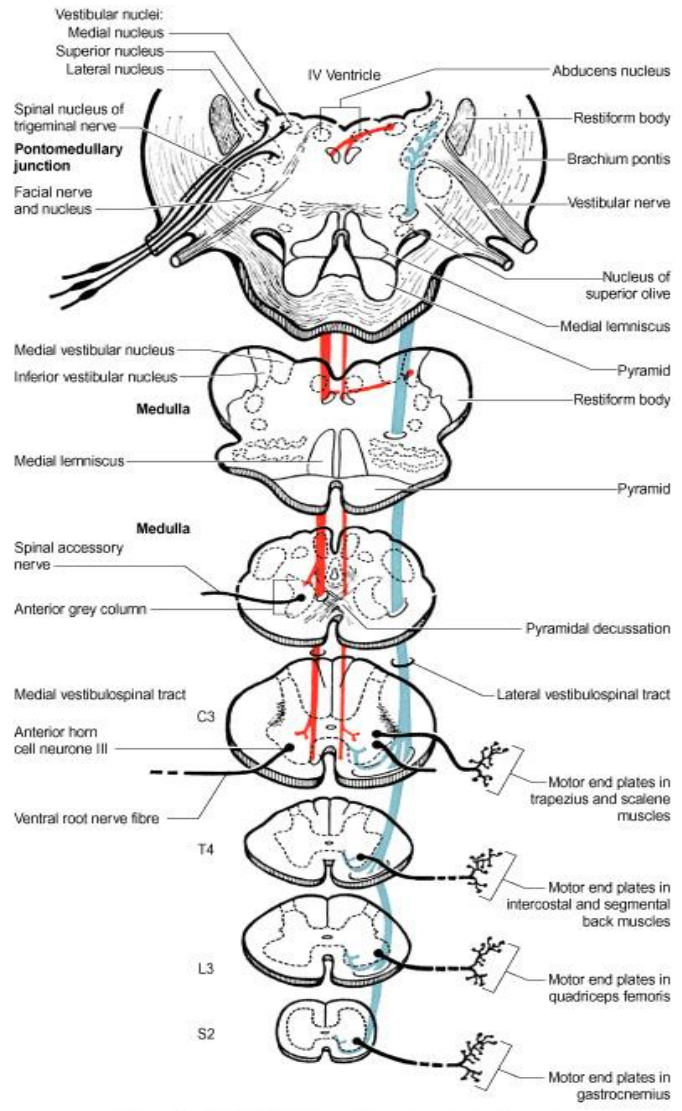


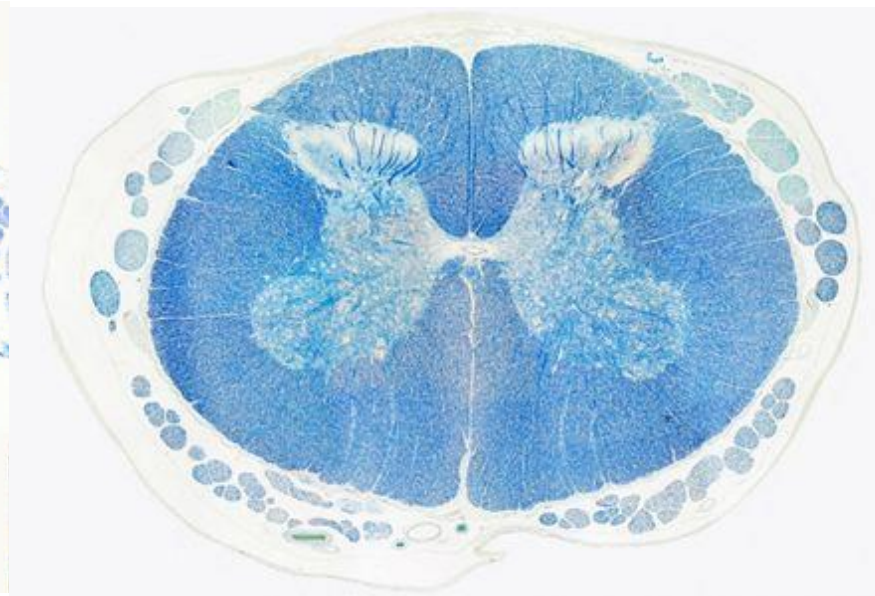












## **FRIEDREICH'S ATAXIA**

Caused by expansion of GAA triplets (normal 6-34, pathological 1000+), chromosome 9q in FRDA, encoding frataxin.  
- Low levels of frataxin lead to iron accumulation in mitochondria -> oxidative stress and neurodegeneration

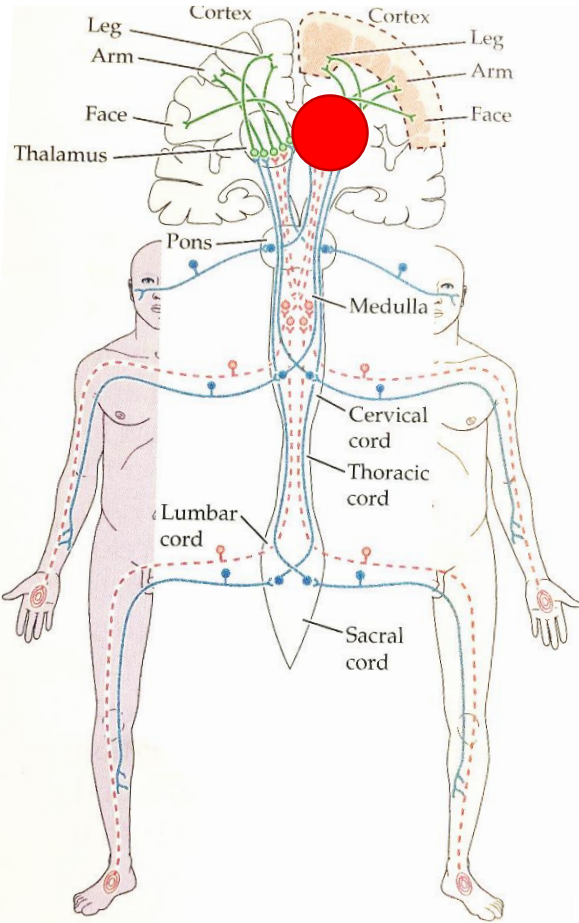




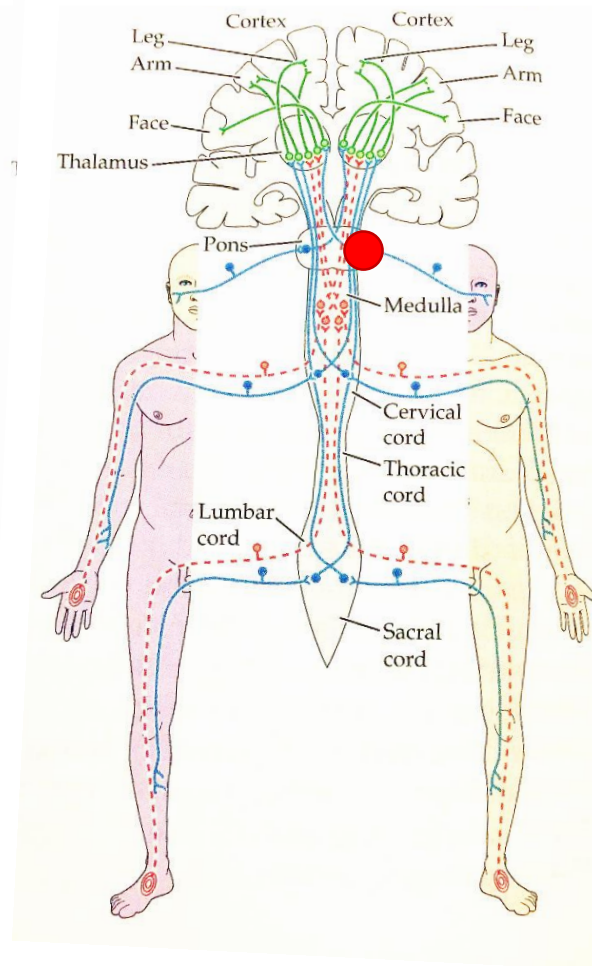
## Tabes Dorsalis

- Following syphilitic infection (15-20 years following first infection)
- Due to chronic inflammatory disease of the dorsal roots and ganglia with associated degeneration of the posterior columns of the spinal cord.
- With progression, loss of pain and proprioceptive sensation may lead to recurrent joint trauma and degeneration (Charcot's joints), and ulceration of the feet.
- characteristic shuffling broad-based gait due to the proprioceptive deficit.

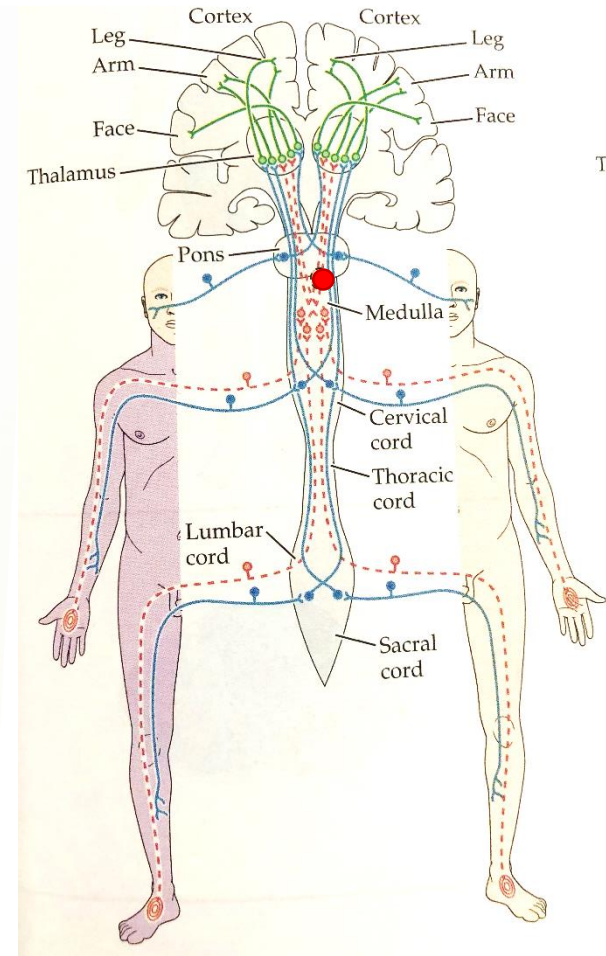
## Thalamic or Cortical lesion

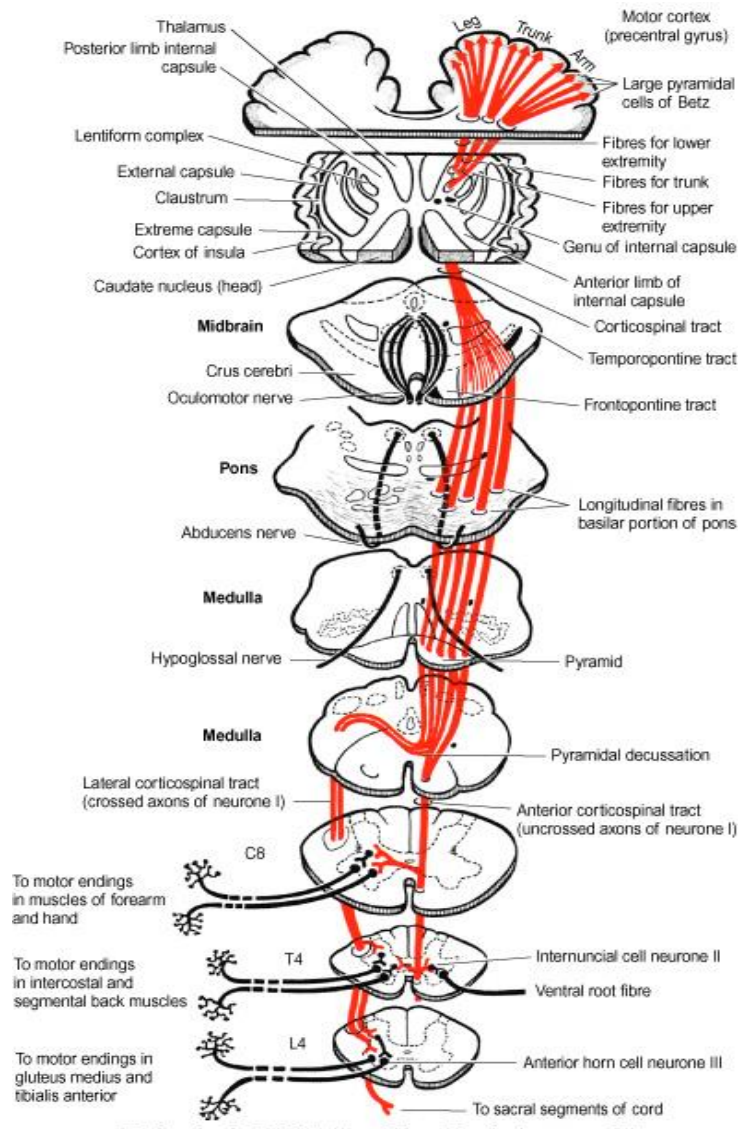


## Lateral pontine or medullary lesion



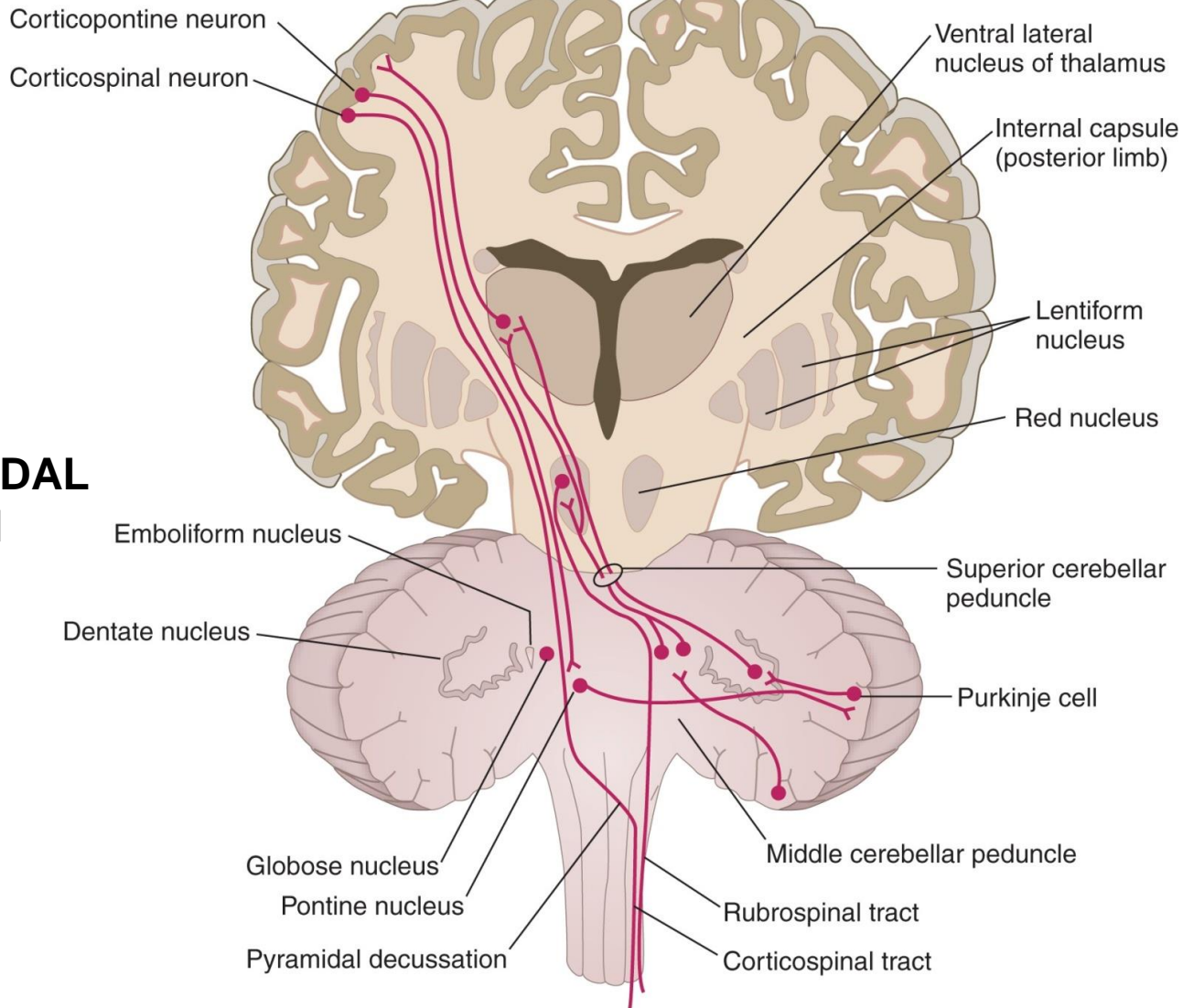
## Medial medullary lesion





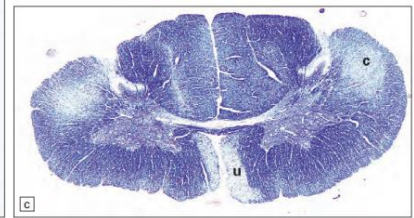
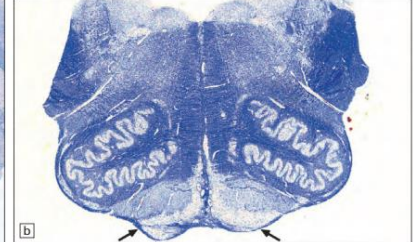
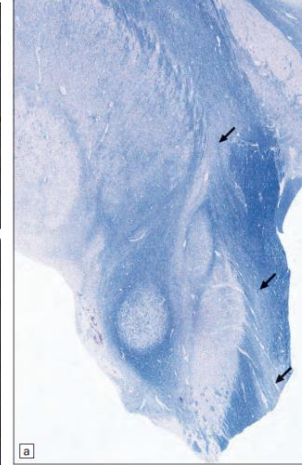
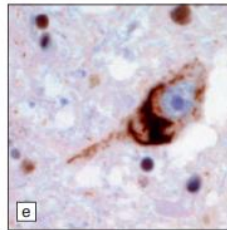
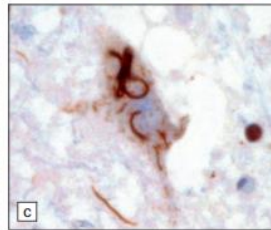
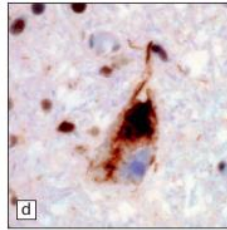
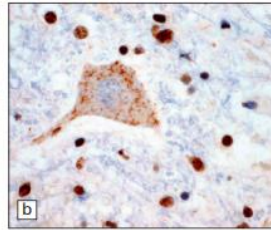
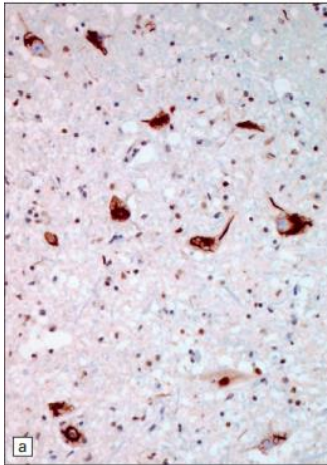
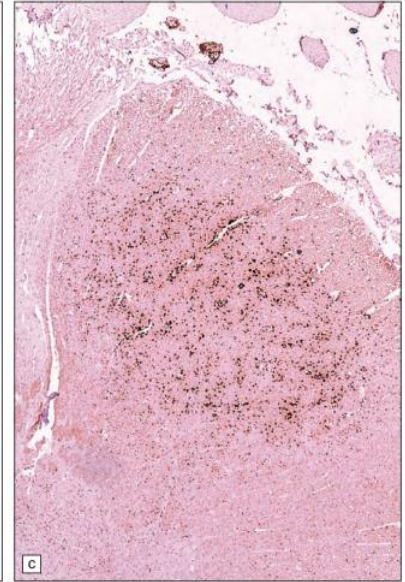
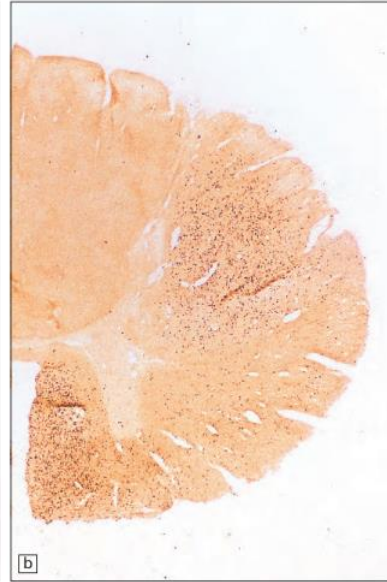
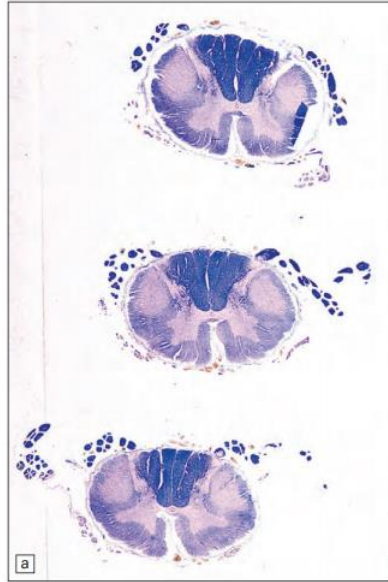


# ESOPYRAMIDAL SYSTEM







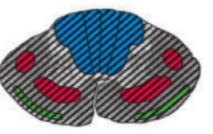
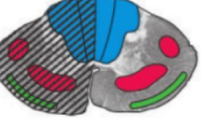
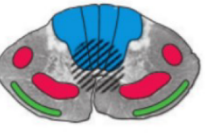
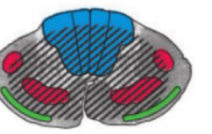
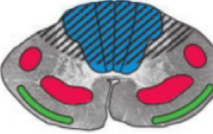
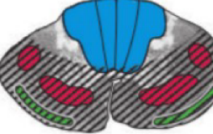


## Aymotrophic Lateral Sclerosis

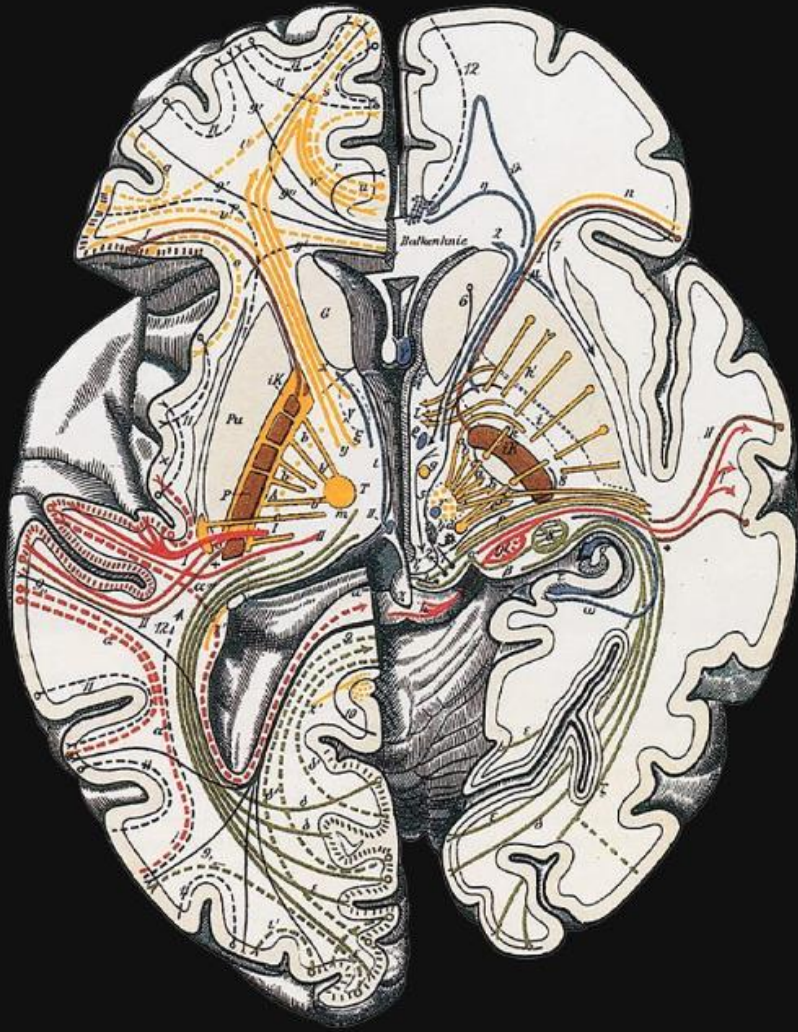
- TDP-43 linked neurodegeneration
- Same protein involved in FTLD (TDP-43 type, non tau FTLD)
- Upper and Lower motor neuron involvement
- Degeneration of cortico-spinal tract





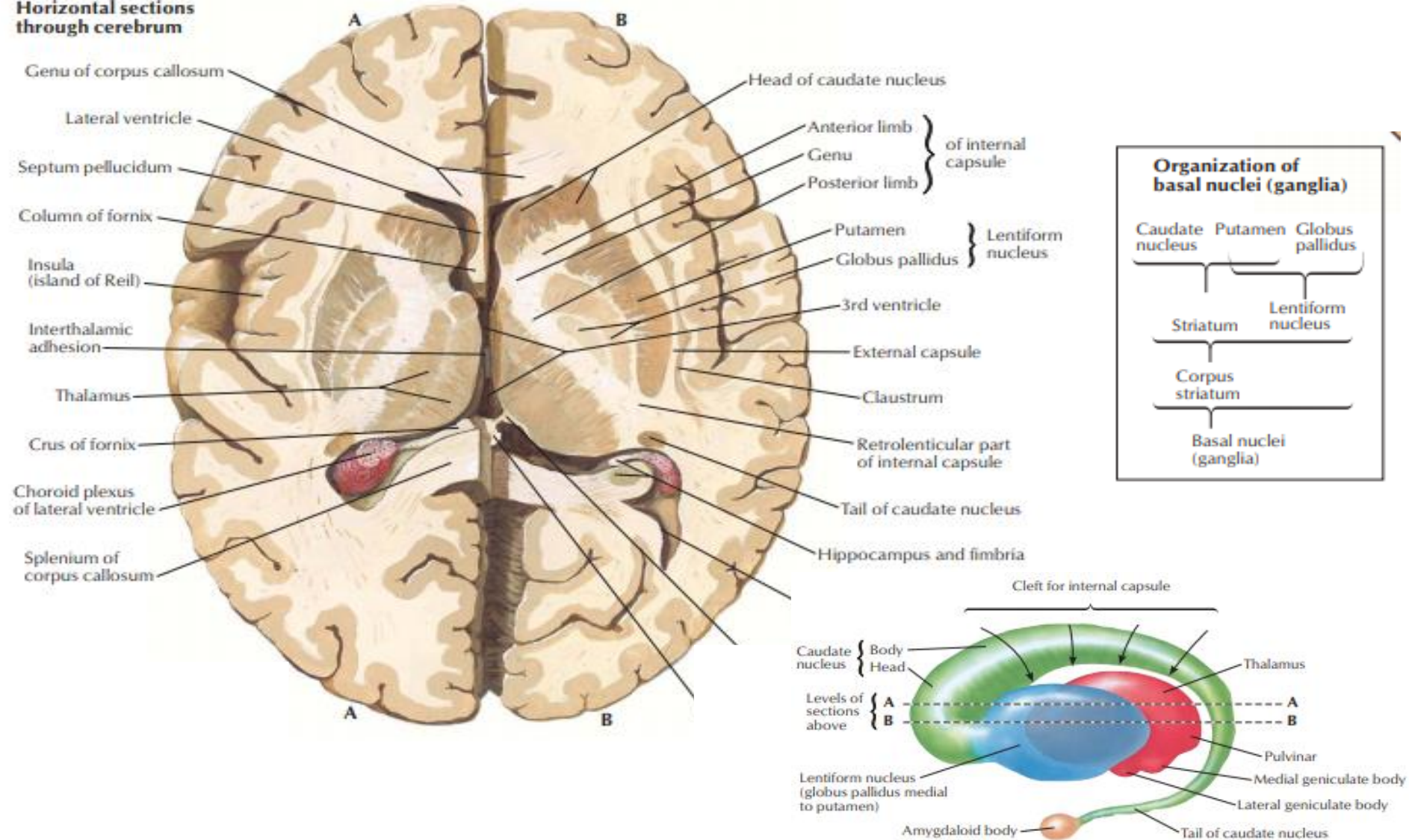
	Transverse cord lesion	Hemicordlesion: Brown-Séquard Syndrome	Central cord syndrome (small lesions)	Central cord syndrome (large lesion)	Posterior cord syndrome	Anterior cord syndrome
<p><b>KEY</b></p> <p>▨ Lesion</p> <p><b>SENSORY/MOTOR LOSS:</b></p> <p>■ Vibration and position sense loss</p> <p>■ Pain and temperature sense loss</p> <p>■ Motor loss</p>						
<p><b>SPINAL CORD STRUCTURES</b></p> <p>Posterior columns (vibration and position sense)</p> <p>Lateral corticospinal tract (UMN)</p> <p>Anterior horn cells (LMN)</p> <p>Anterolateral pathways (pain and temperature sense)</p> <p>Ventral commissure</p>						
<b>Lesion</b>	All sensory motor pathways are either partially or completely interrupted.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Lateral corticospinal tract</li> <li>Posterior columns</li> <li>Anterolateral system</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Spinothalamic fibers crossing in the ventral commissure</li> <li>Cervical cord</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Anterior horn cells are damaged (a); Corticospinal tracts are affected (b); Posterior columns may be involved as well</li> <li>Anterolateral pathways compressed from medial surface</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Posterior columns</li> <li>With larger lesions there may also be encroachment on the lateral cortico-spinal tracts</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Anterolateral pathways</li> <li>With larger lesions the lateral corticospinal tracts may also be involved</li> </ol> <p>SPHINCTER FUNCTION controlling descending pathways (ventrally located)</p>
<b>Deficit</b>	<b>Sensory level:</b> Diminished sensation in all dermatomes below the level of the lesion	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>Ipsilateral</i> upper motor neuron-type weakness</li> <li><i>Ipsilateral</i> sensory loss of vibration and joint sense</li> <li><i>Contralateral</i> sensory loss of pain and temperature (begins slightly below the lesion because the anterolateral fibers ascend two or more segments as they cross into the ventral commissure); <i>Ipsilateral</i> sensory loss of pain and temperature in strip of one of two segments (damage to posterior horn cells before their axons have crossed over)</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bilateral suspended sensory loss to pain and temperature.</li> <li>Classic cape distribution (suspended dermatomes of pain and temperature sensory loss)</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Lower motor neuron deficits at the level of the lesion (a); Upper motor neuron signs (b).</li> <li>Near complete loss of pain and temperature sensation below the lesion except for in a region of <b>sacral sparing</b> (review somatotopic distribution of anterolateral systems).</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Loss of vibration and position sense below the level of the lesion</li> <li>Upper motor neuron-type weakness</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Loss of pain and temperature sensation below the level of the lesion.</li> <li>Upper motor neuron signs</li> </ol> <p>INCONTINENCE</p>
<b>Reason</b>	Trauma, tumor, multiple sclerosis, and transverse myelitis	Penetrating injuries, multiple sclerosis, and lateral compression from tumors.		Contusion, nontraumatic or posttraumatic syringomyelia, and intrinsic spinal cord tumors such as hemangioblastoma, ependymoma, or astrocytoma.	Trauma, extrinsic compression from posteriorly located tumors, and multiple sclerosis. Vitamin B12 deficiency and tabes dorsalis (tertiary syphilis) affect the posterior cord.	Trauma, multiple sclerosis, and anterior spinal artery infarct.





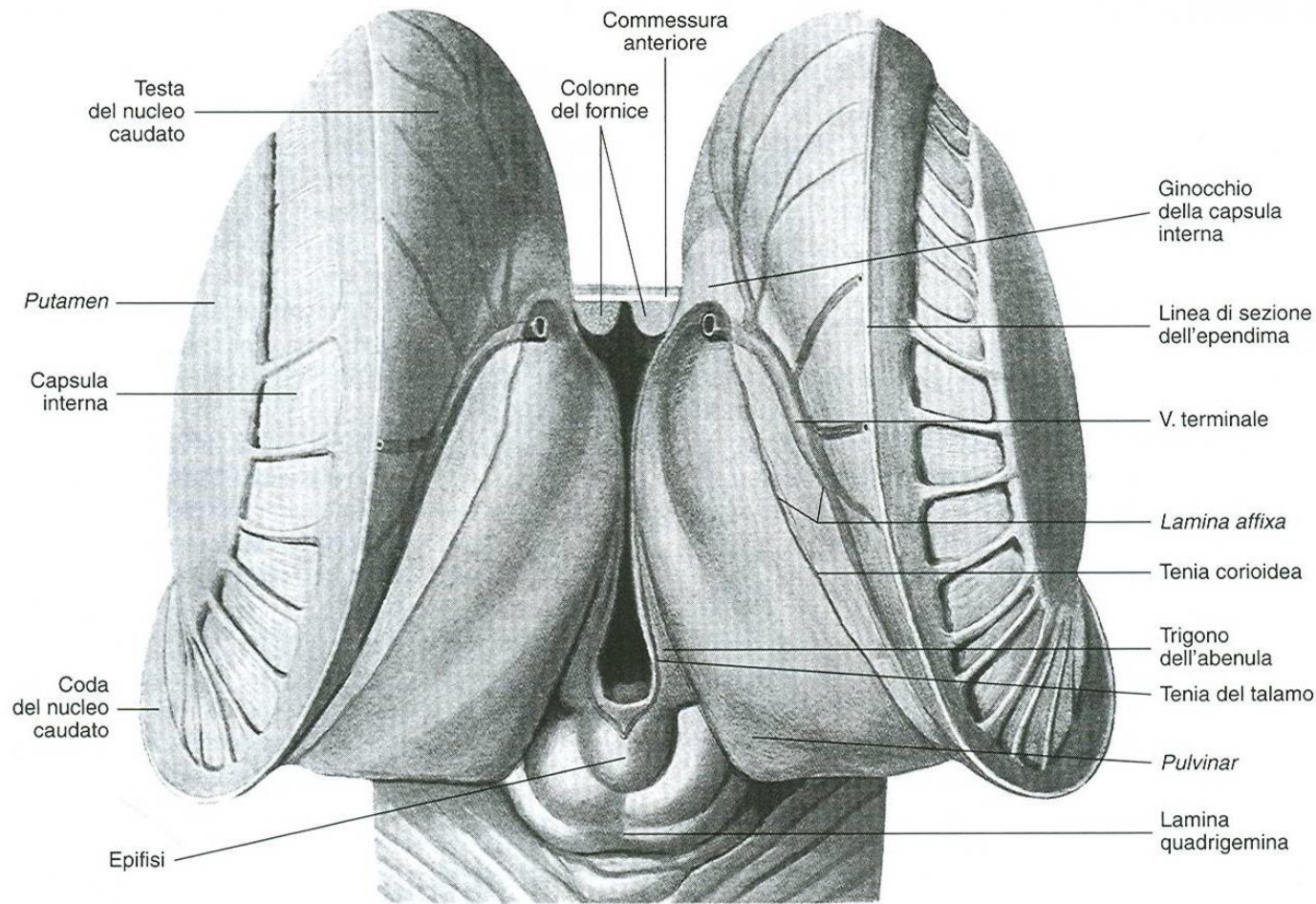
# The Telencephalon

## Horizontal sections through cerebrum



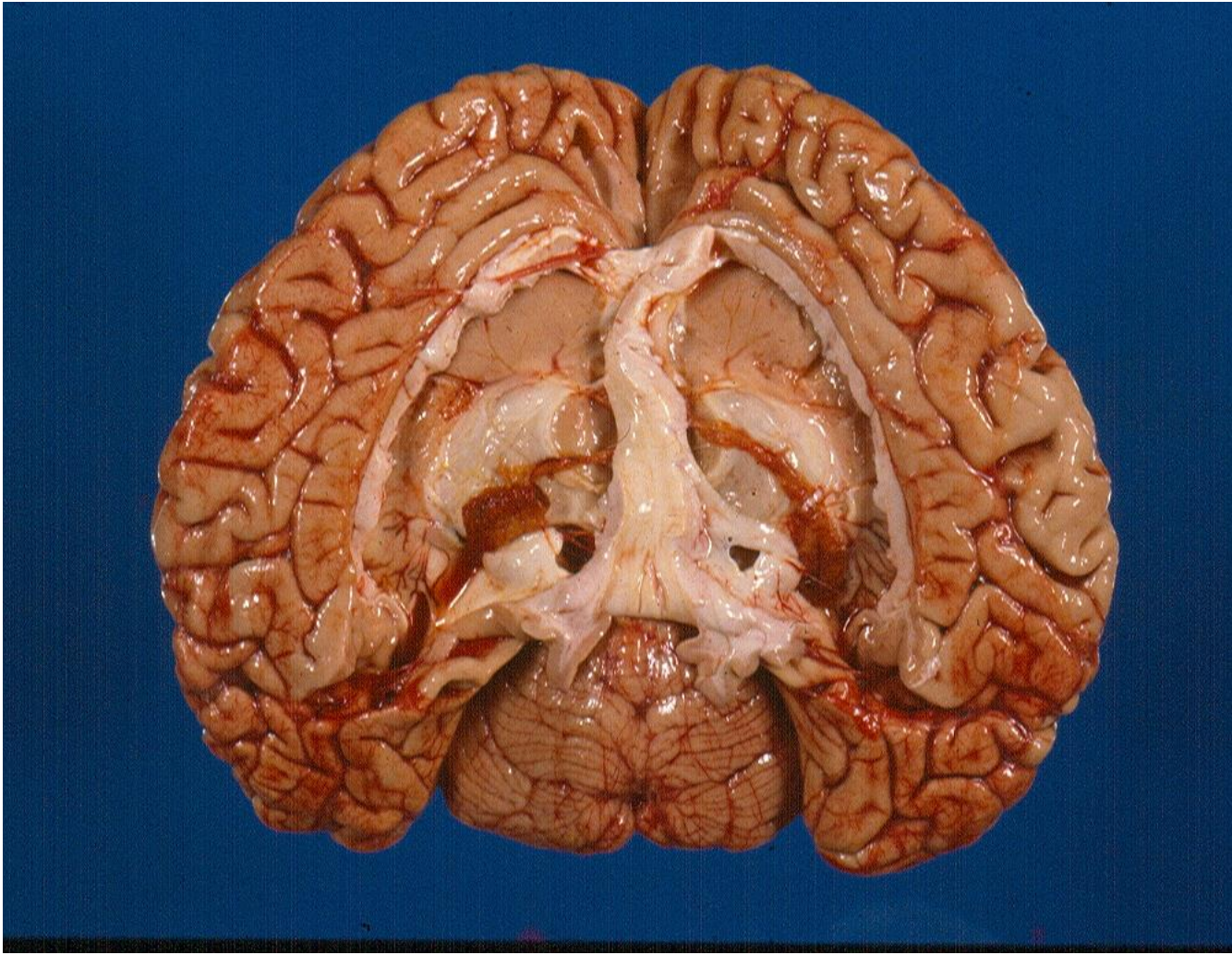
**Interrelationship of thalamus, lentiform nucleus, caudate nucleus and amygdaloid body (schema): left lateral view**



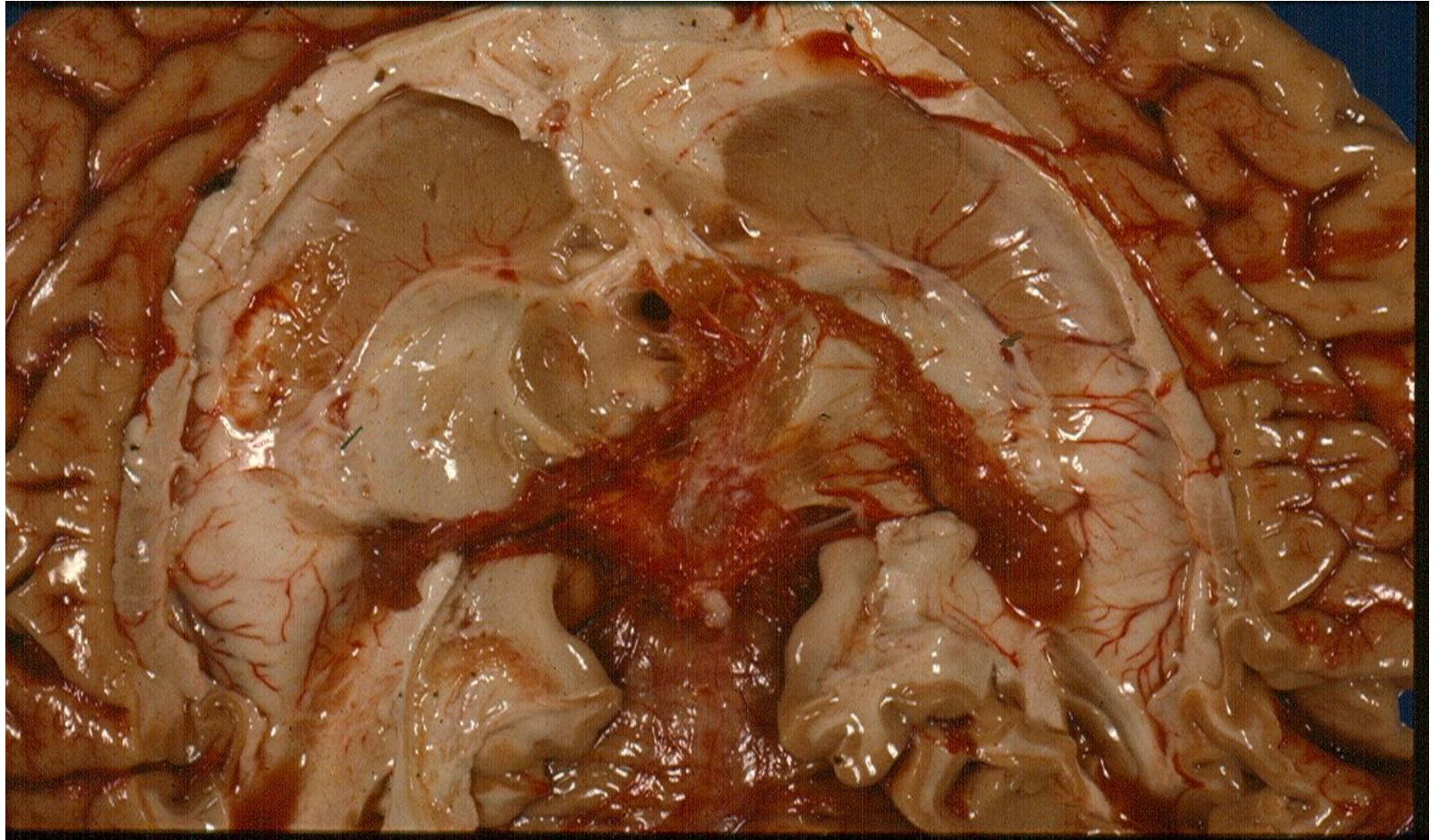


**Figura 14.76** - Il talamo e il corpo striato con le formazioni bianche interposte sono visti dal lato dorsale, dopo demolizione degli emisferi telencefalici. Posteriormente e medialmente rispetto ai talami e rostralmente alla lamina quadrigemina si trovano le varie formazioni dell'epitalamo.

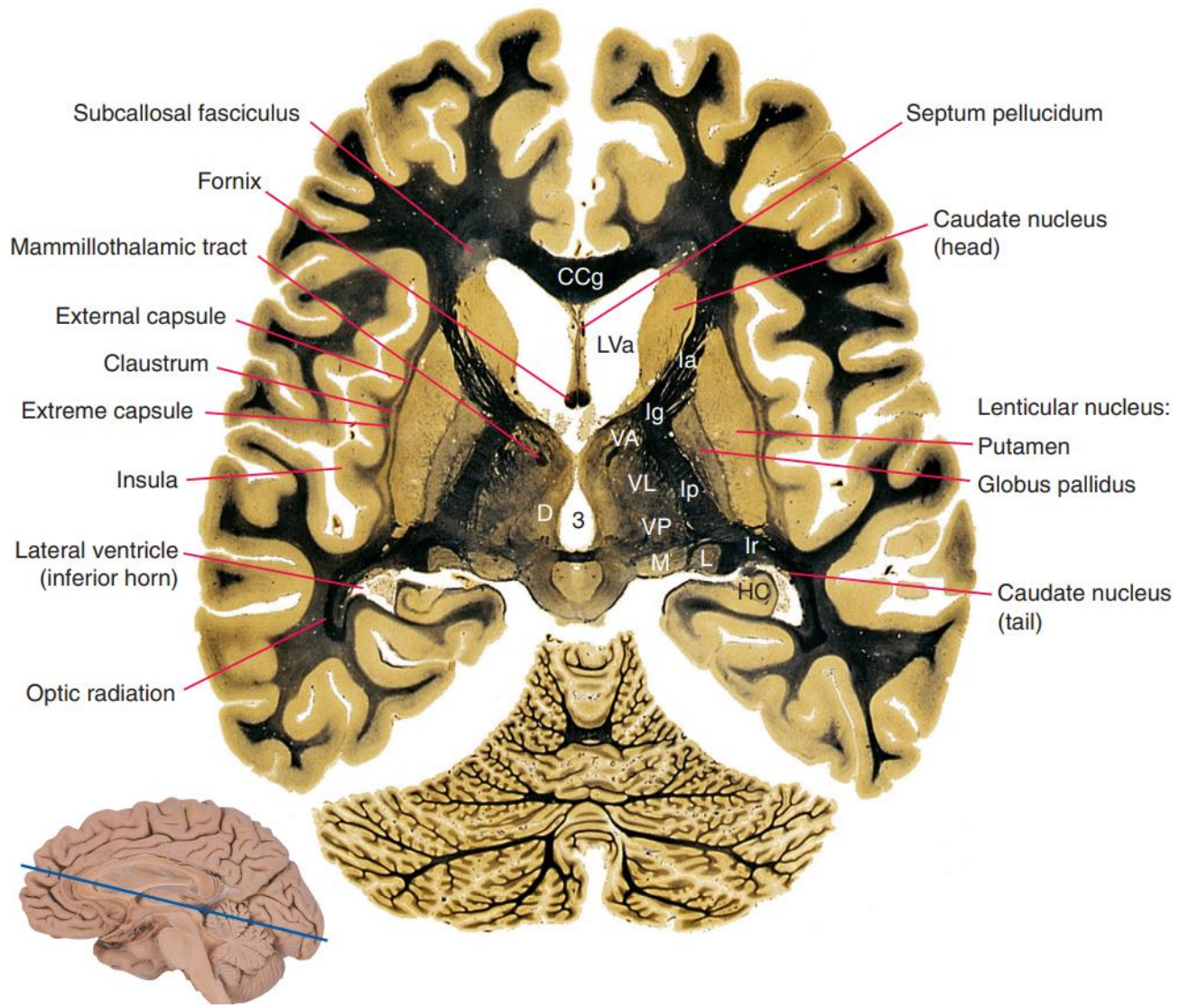




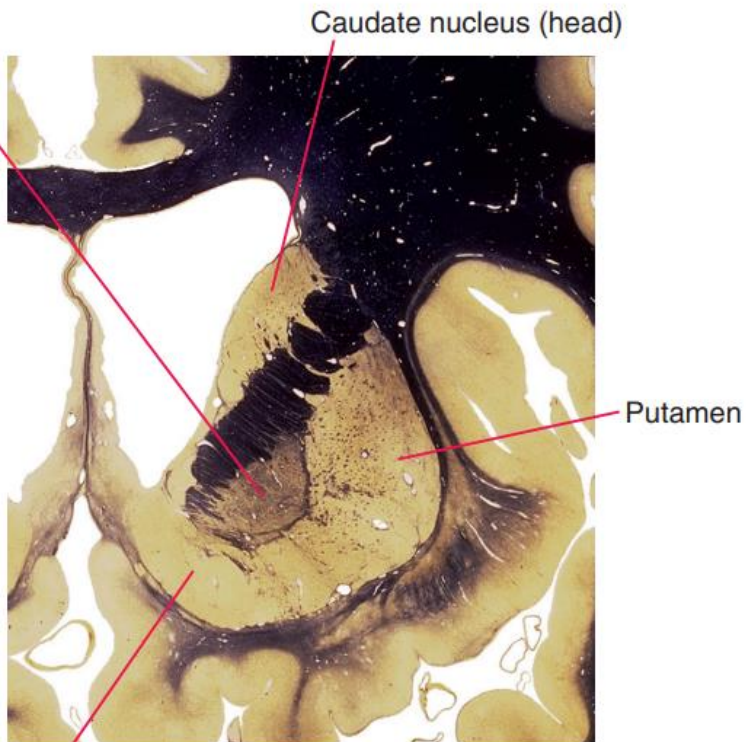
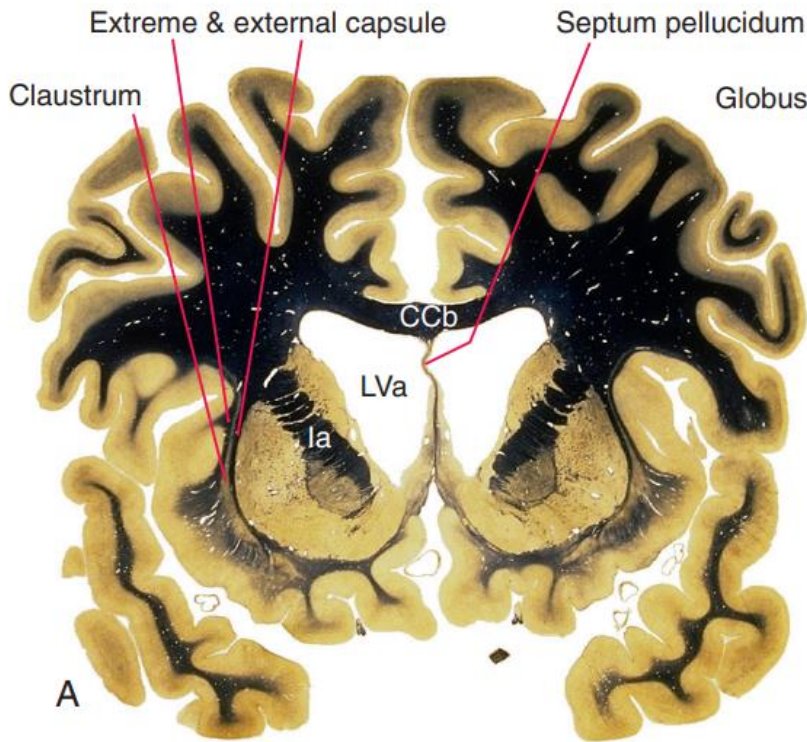




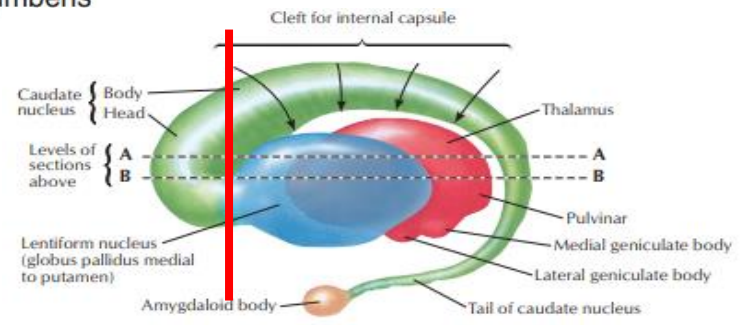


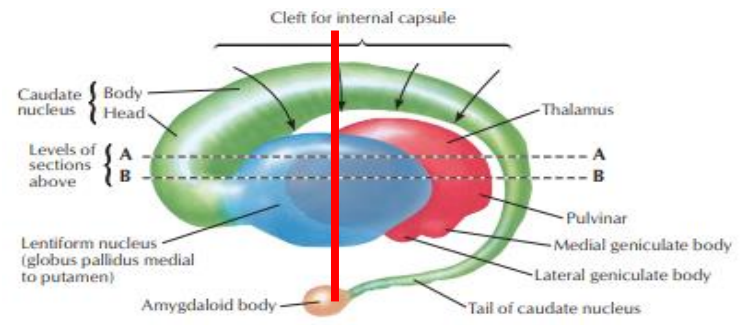
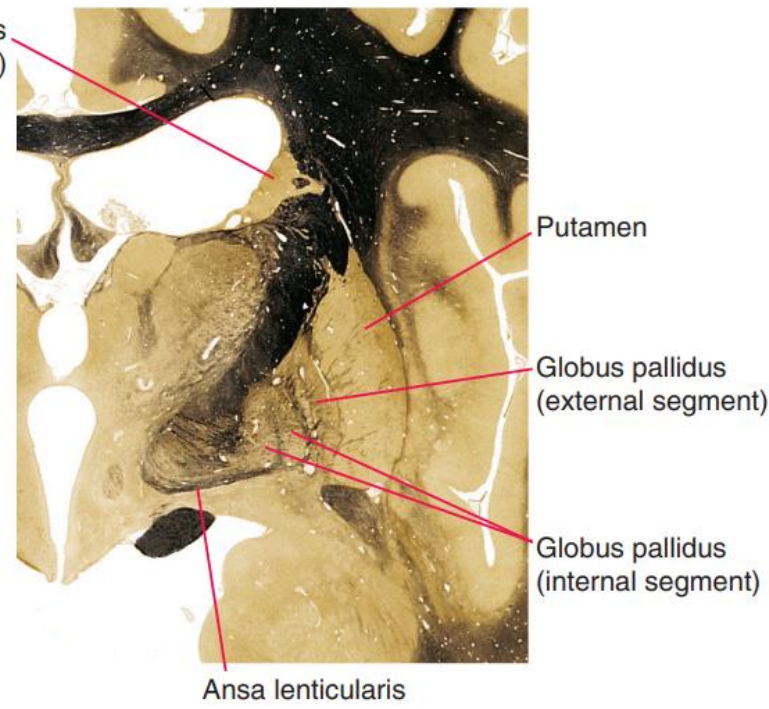
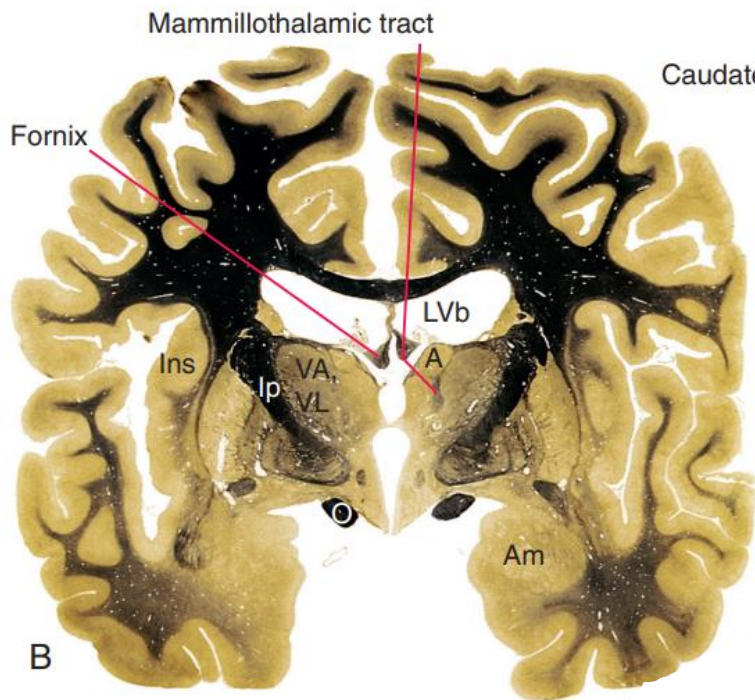




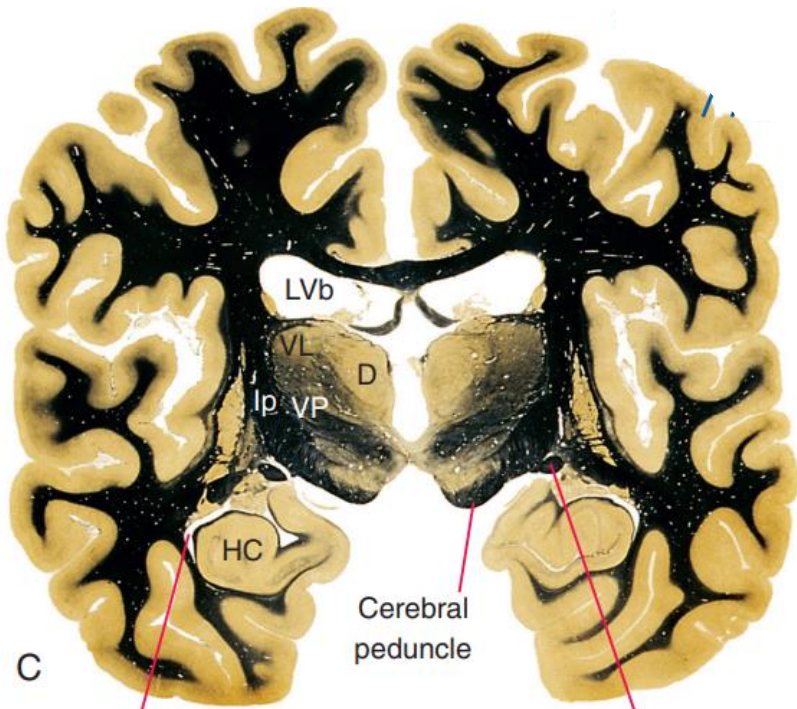


Nucleus accumbens





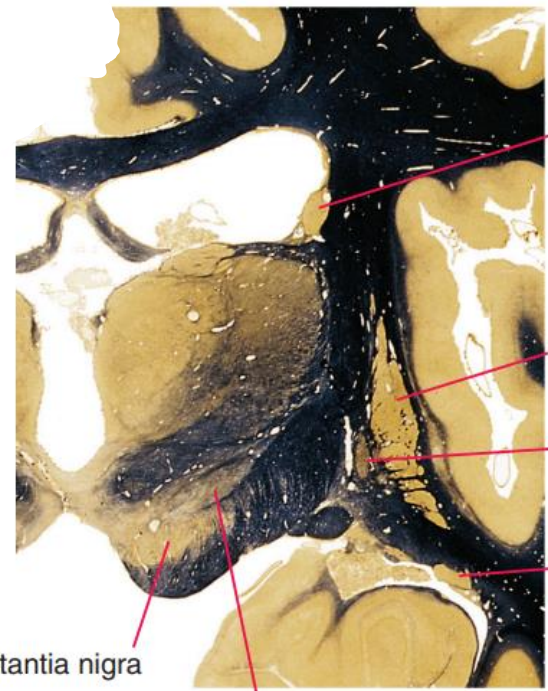




C  
Lateral ventricle (inferior horn)

Cerebral peduncle

Optic tract



Caudate nucleus (body)

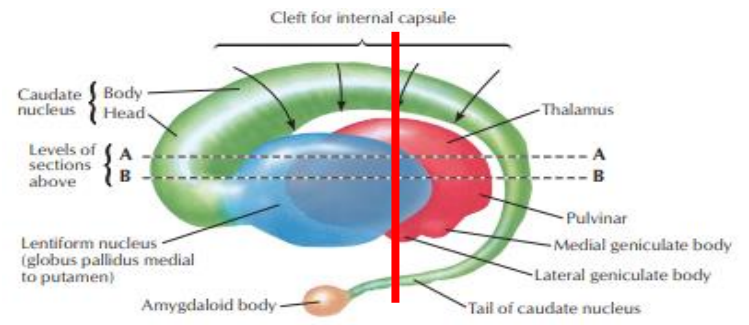
Putamen

Globus pallidus

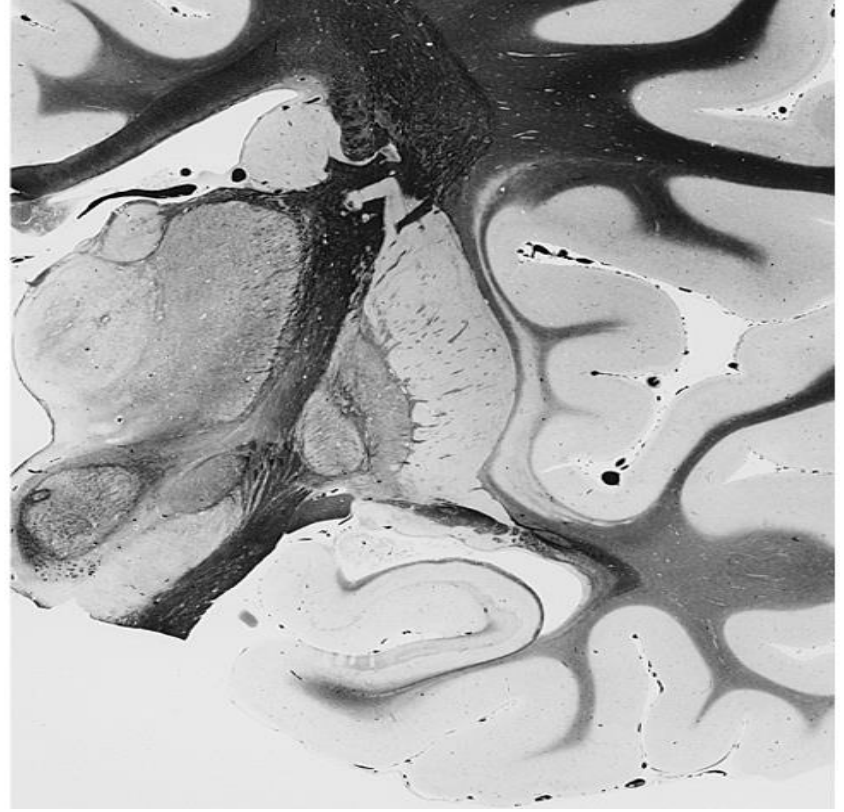
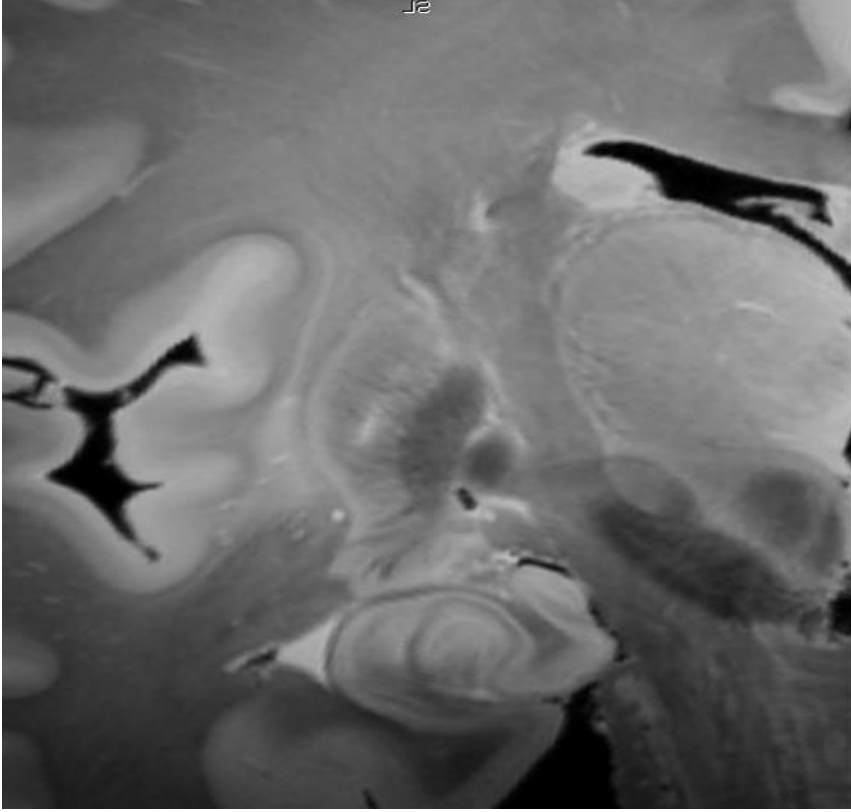
Caudate nucleus (tail)

Substantia nigra

Subthalamic nucleus





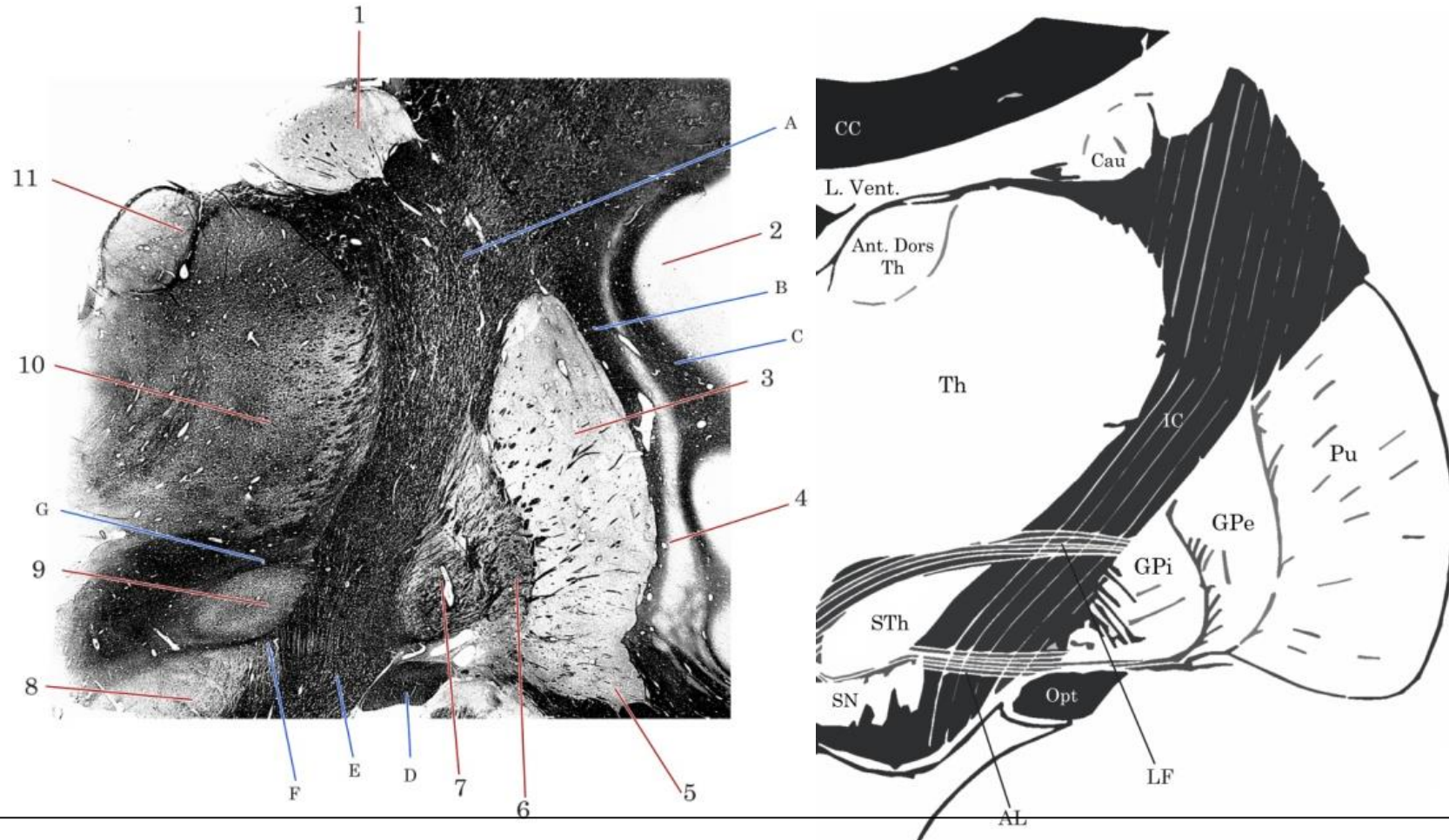


# Anatomy and Connectivity of the Subthalamic Nucleus in Humans and Non-human Primates

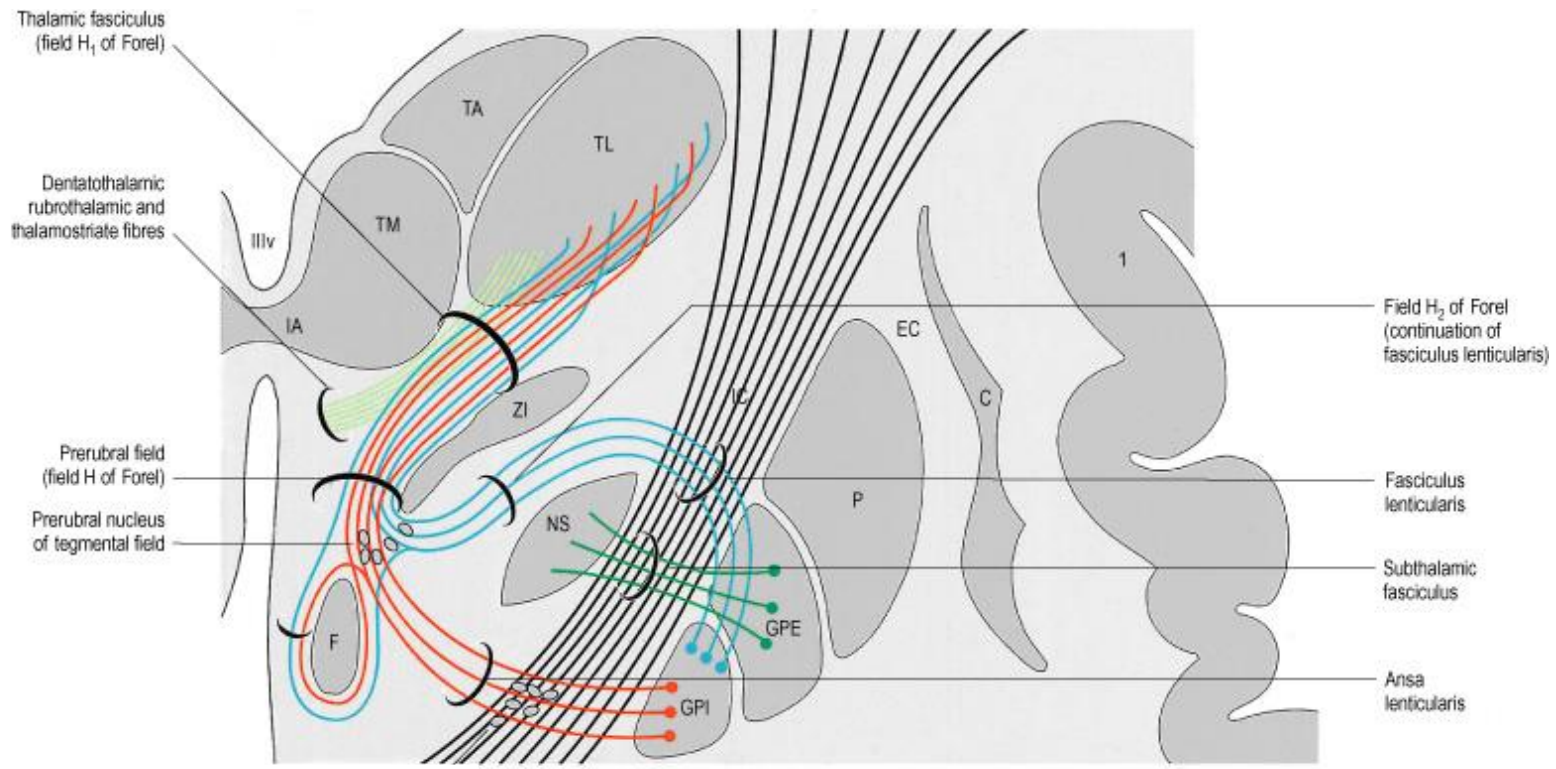


Aron Emmi<sup>1</sup>, Angelo Antonini<sup>2</sup>, Veronica Macchi<sup>1</sup>, Andrea Porzionato<sup>1\*</sup> and Raffaele De Caro<sup>1</sup>

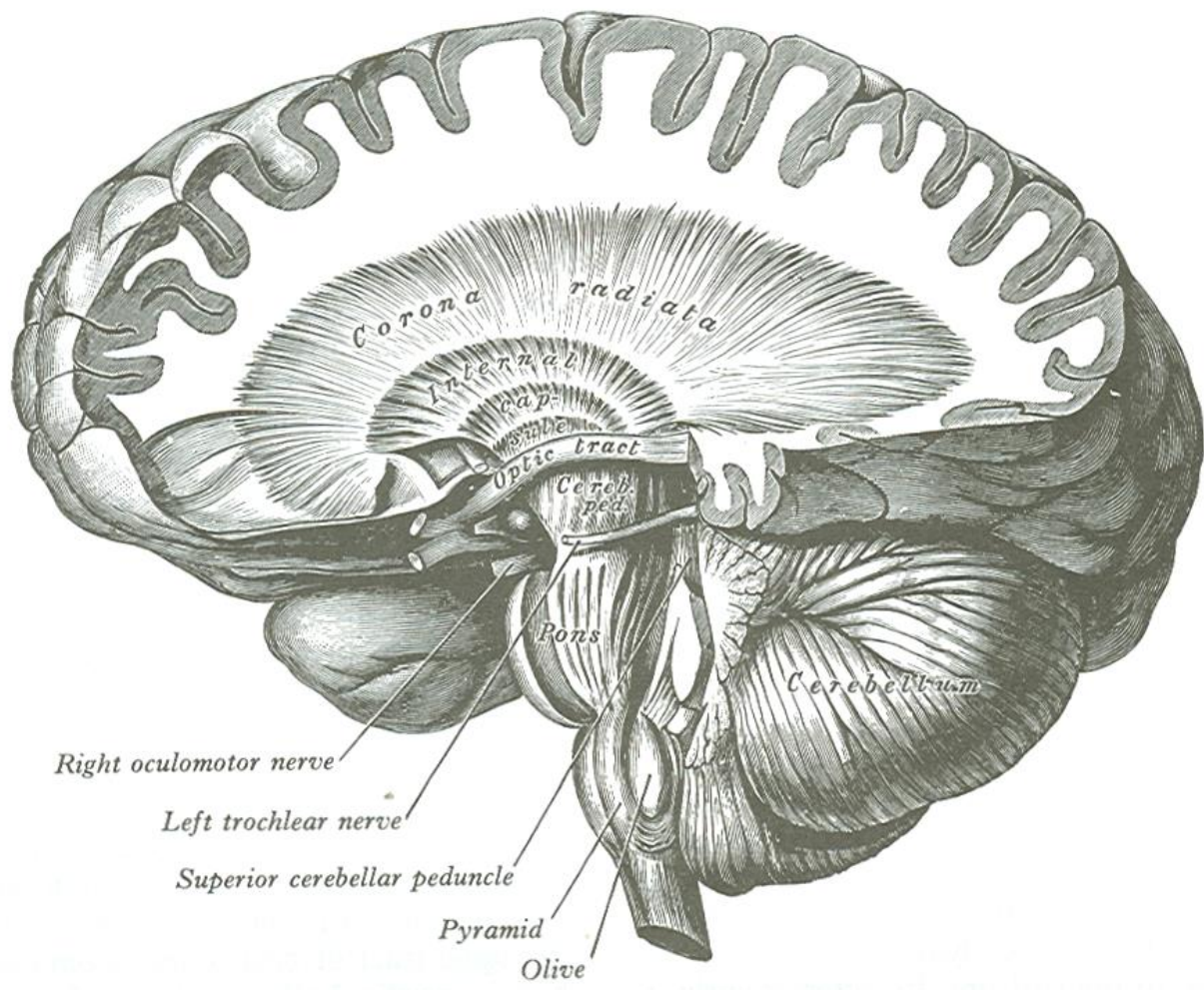
Front. Neuroanat., 22 April 2020 | <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnana.2020.00013>











Right oculomotor nerve

Left trochlear nerve

Superior cerebellar peduncle

Pyramid

Olive

Corona radiata

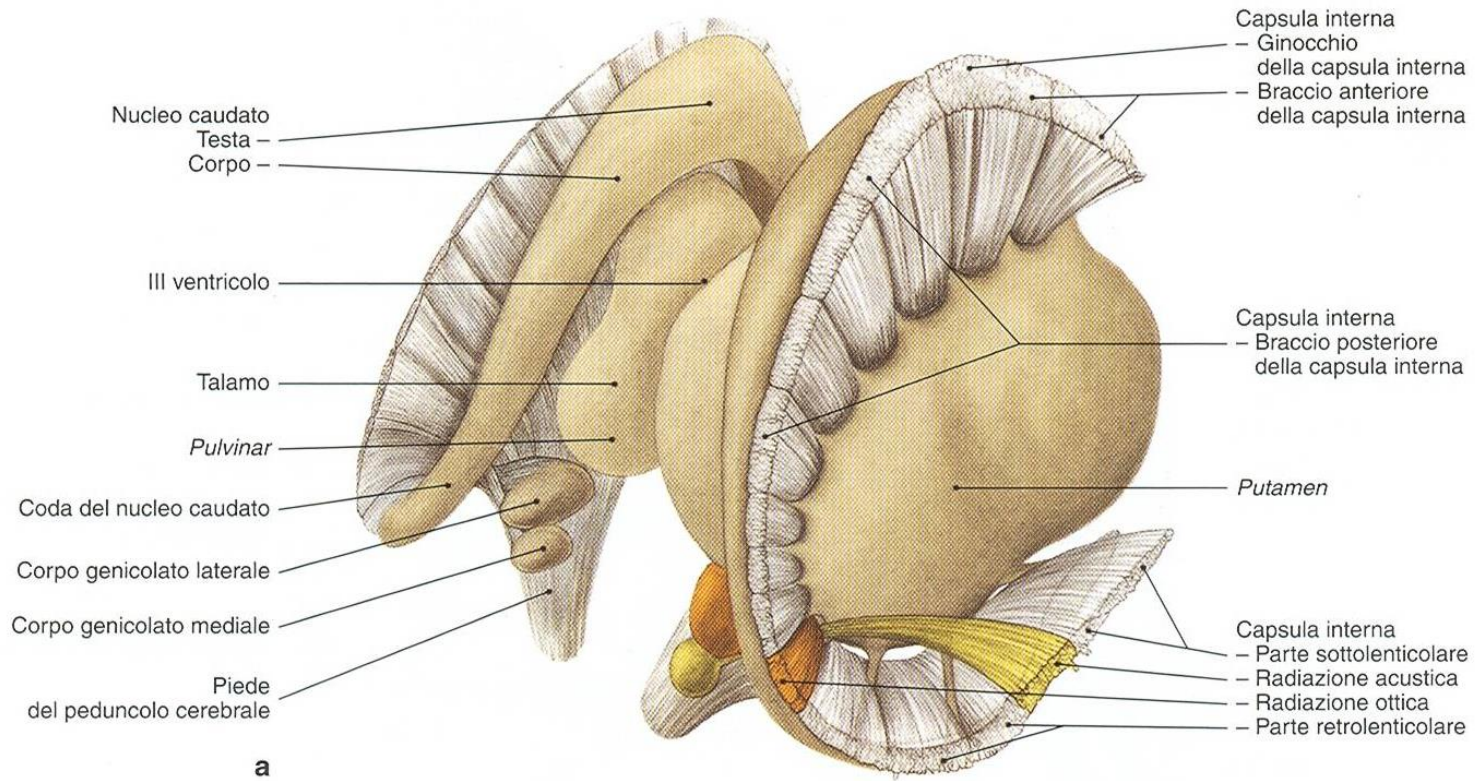
Internal capsule

Optic tract

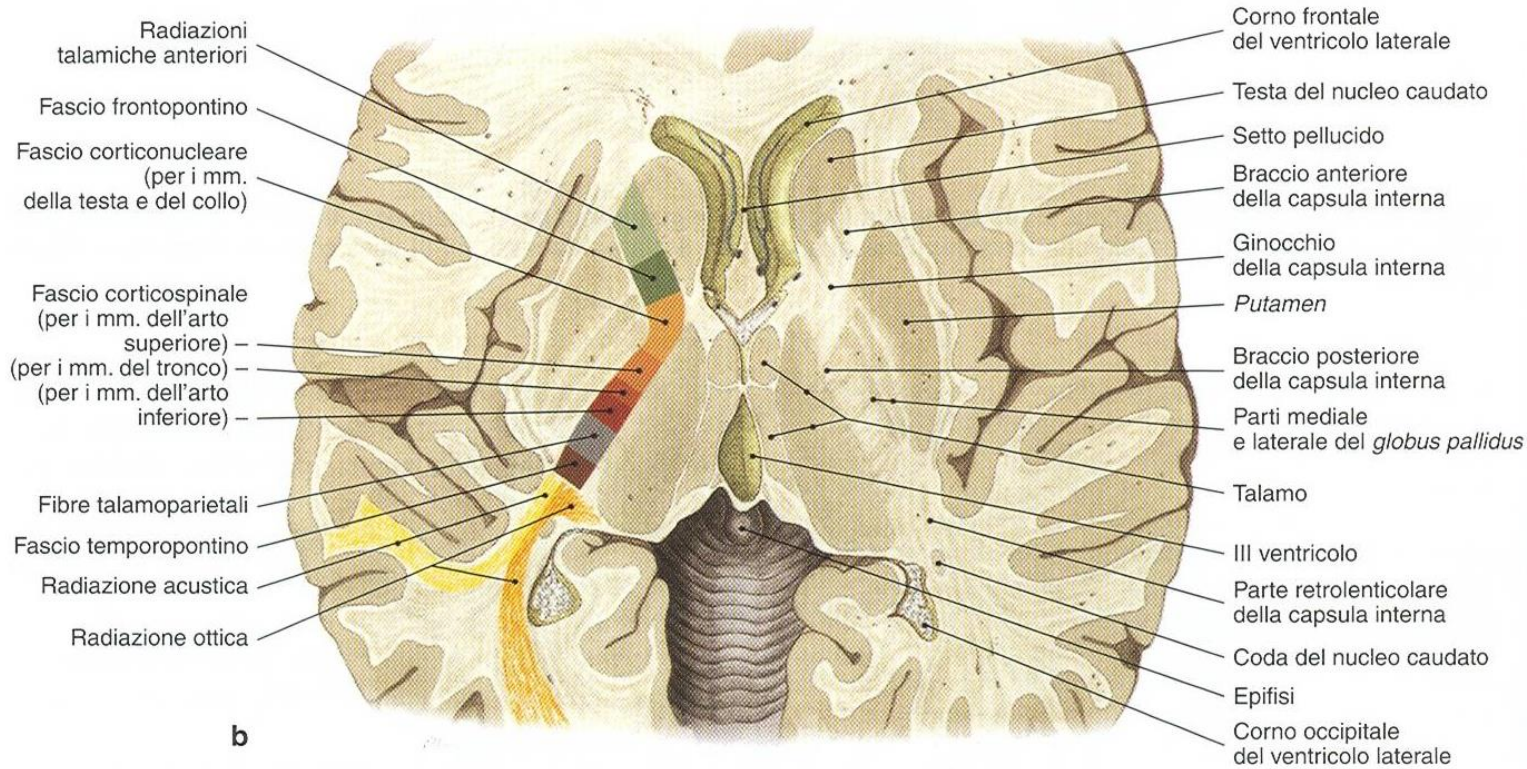
Cerebellar ped.

Pons

Cerebellum

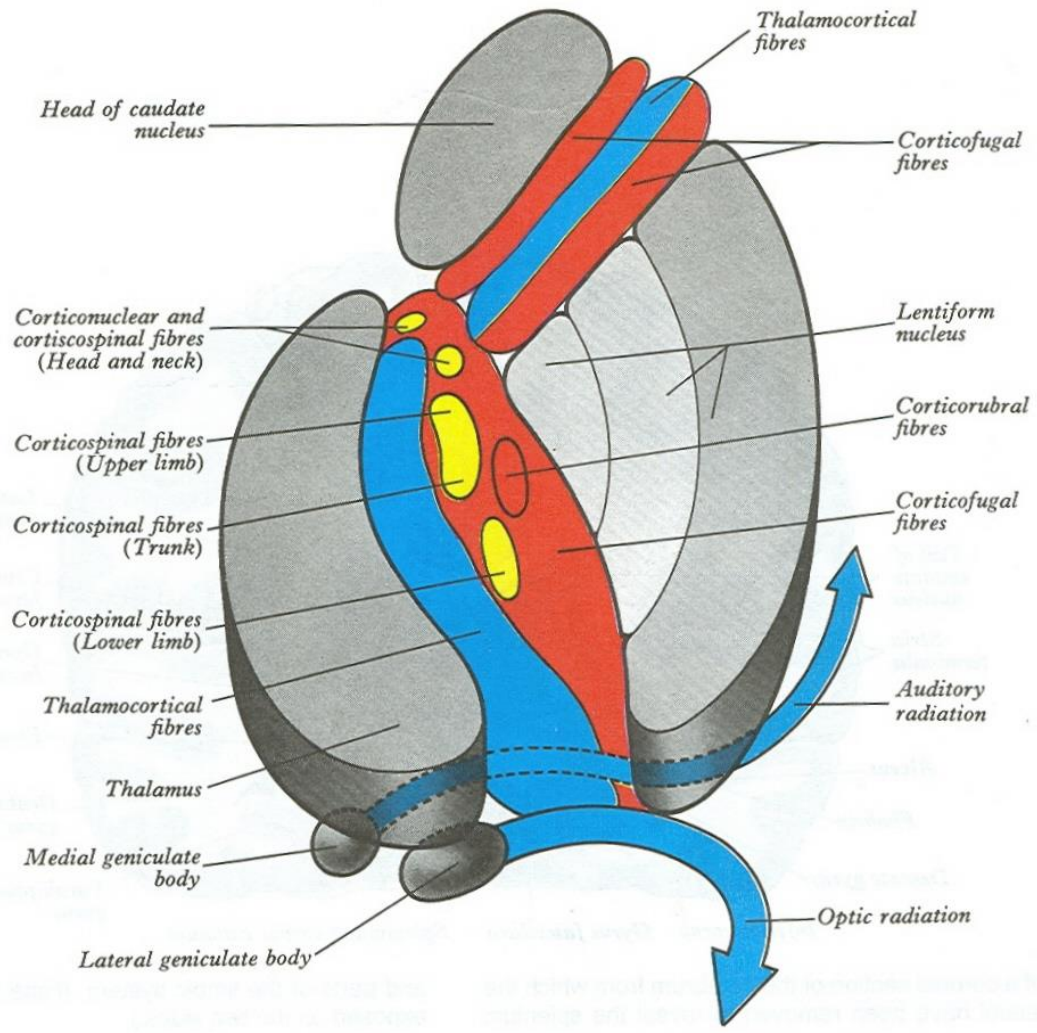


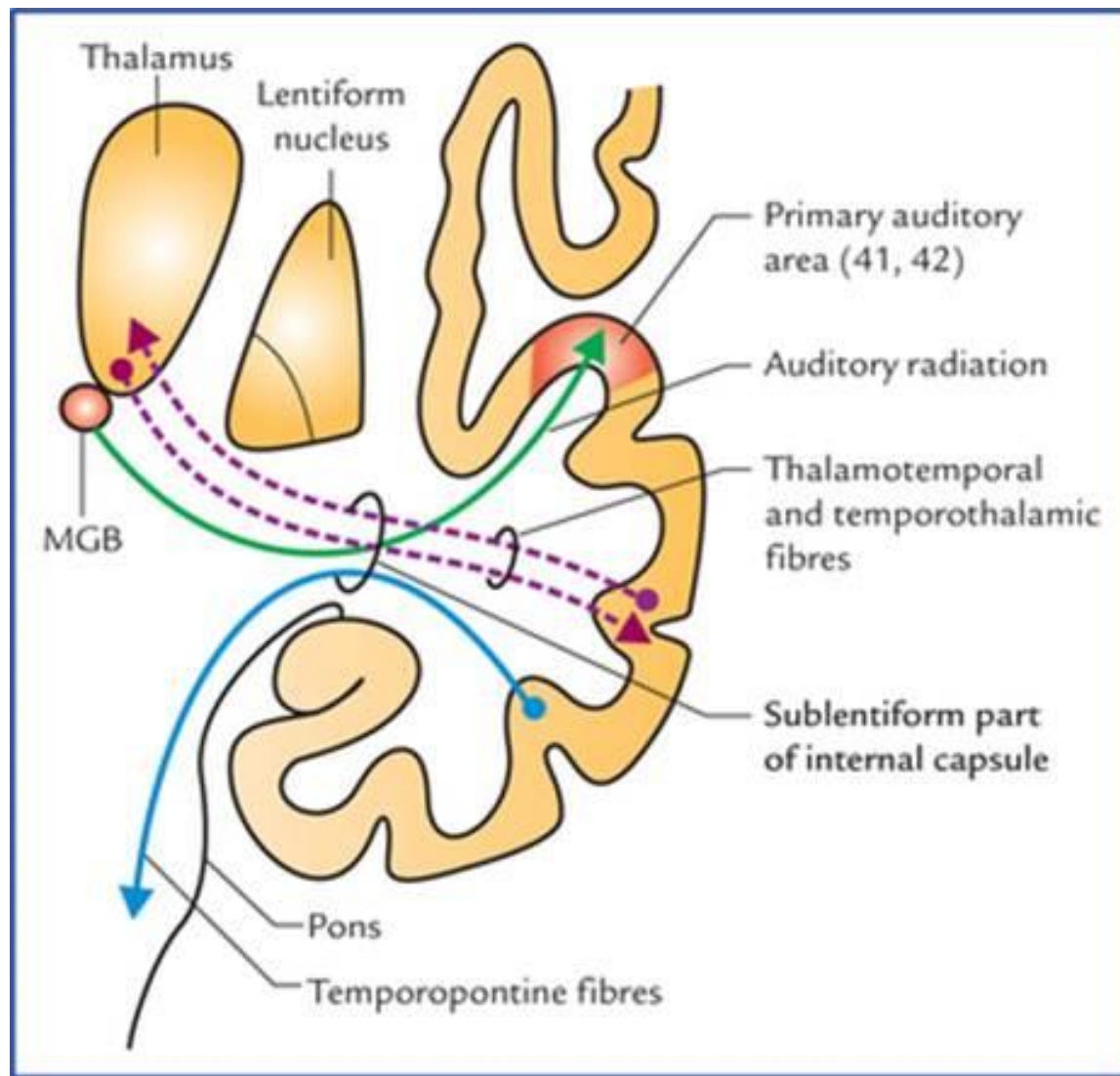


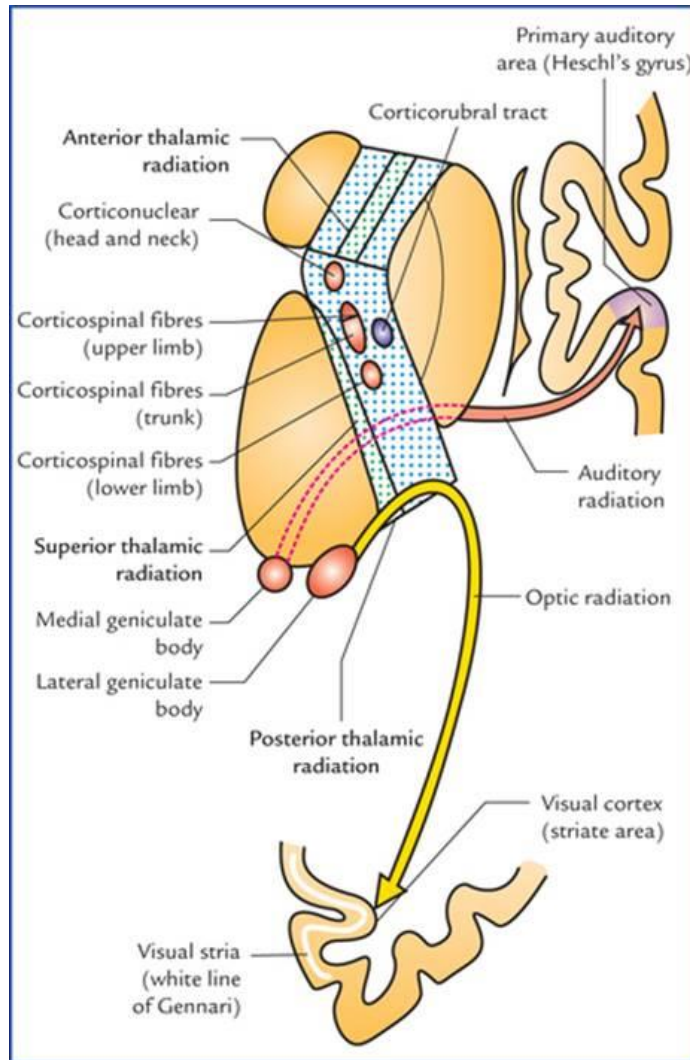


**Figura 14.79** - Nuclei del proencefalo e capsula interna. **a**, Talamo, corpo striato (nuclei caudato e *putamen*) e nucleo lenticolare (*putamen* e *globus pallidus*) con capsula interna, proiezione occipitolaterale destra. **b**, Sezione orizzontale della capsula interna e dei nuclei adiacenti. A sinistra le parti principali della capsula interna sono state messe in evidenza con colori differenti. Proiezione parietale (da Köpf-Maier P, ed.: Wolf-Heidegger's Atlas of Human Anatomy, 5<sup>th</sup>, completely revised and supplemented edition, Basel, Karger, 2000, with permission from S. Karger AG, Basel).











# THE BASAL GANGLIA – Functional Anatomy

## **Input nuclei:**

- Caudate nucleus
- Putamen

## **Relais nuclei:**

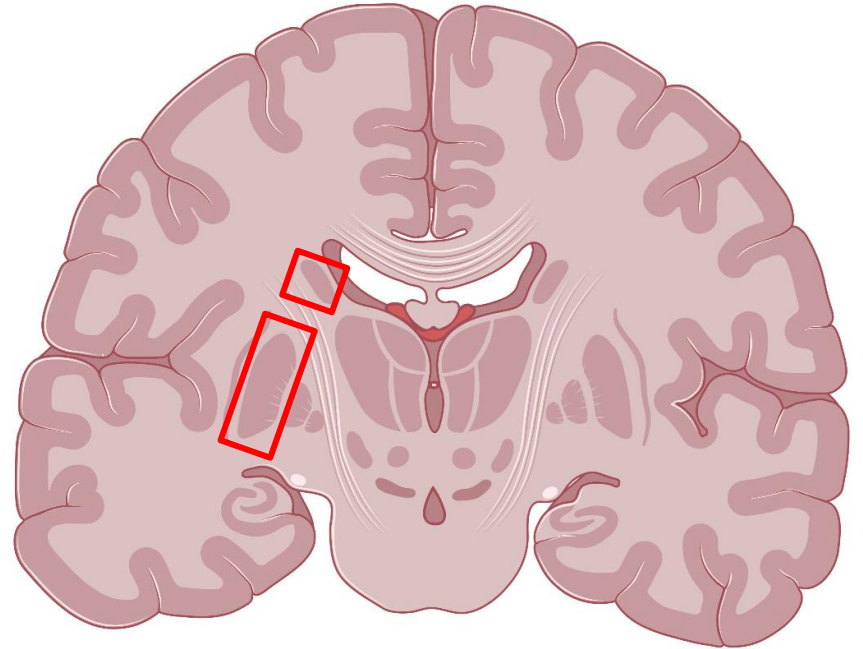
- External globus pallidus (GPe)
- Subthalamic Nucleus (STh)

## **Output nuclei:**

- Internal globus pallidus (GPi)
- Non-dopaminergic substantia nigra (SNND)

## **Modulating structures:**

- Dopaminergic substantia nigra (SND)



# THE BASAL GANGLIA – Functional Anatomy

## Input nuclei:

- Caudate nucleus
- Putamen

## Relais nuclei:

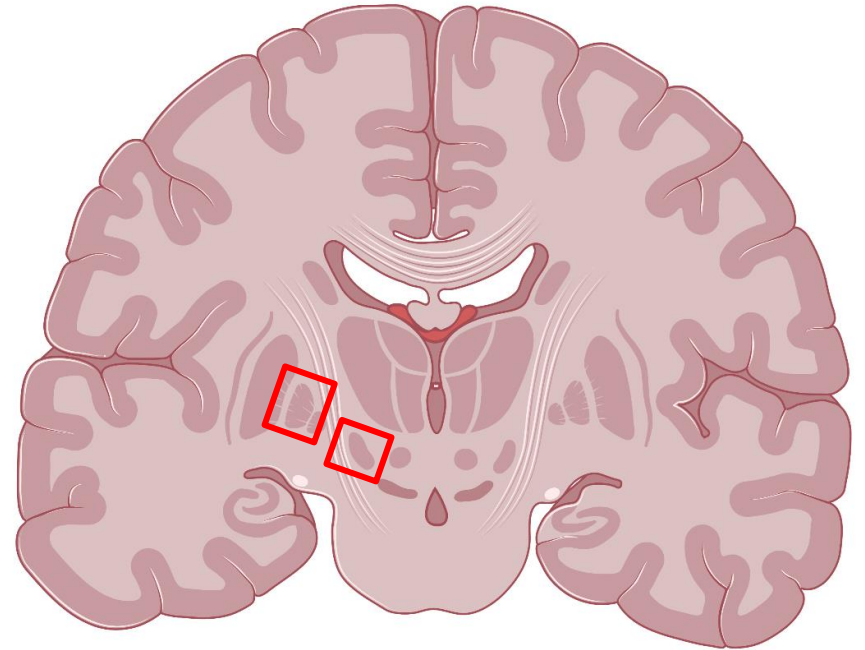
- External globus pallidus (GPe)
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- Non-dopaminergic substantia nigra (SNND)

## Modulating structures:

- Dopaminergic substantia nigra (SND)



# THE BASAL GANGLIA – Functional Anatomy

## Input nuclei:

- Caudate nucleus
- Putamen

## Relais nuclei:

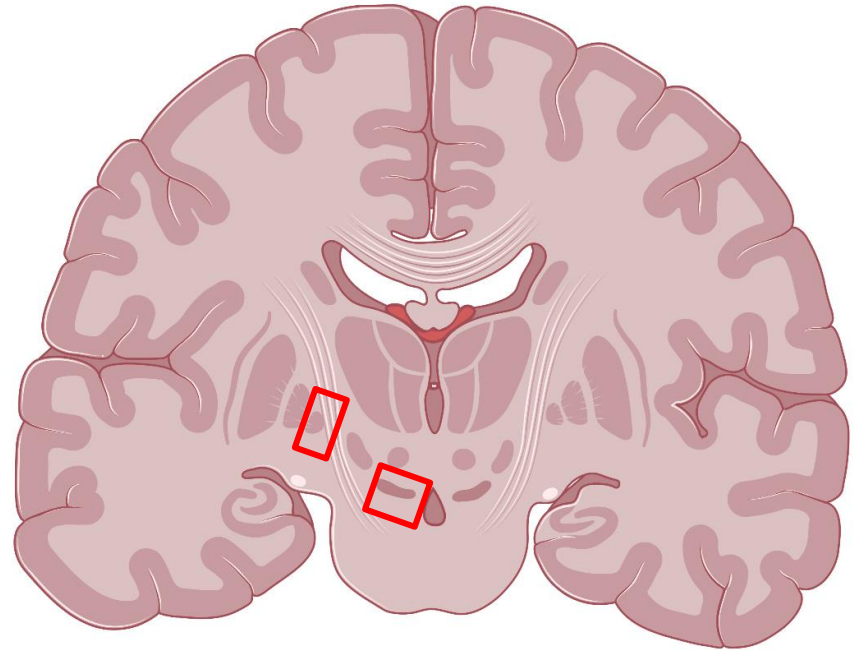
- External globus pallidus (GPe)
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- Non-dopaminergic substantia nigra (SNND)

## Modulating structures:

- Dopaminergic substantia nigra (SND)





# THE BASAL GANGLIA – Functional Anatomy

## Input nuclei:

- Caudate nucleus
- Putamen

## Relais nuclei:

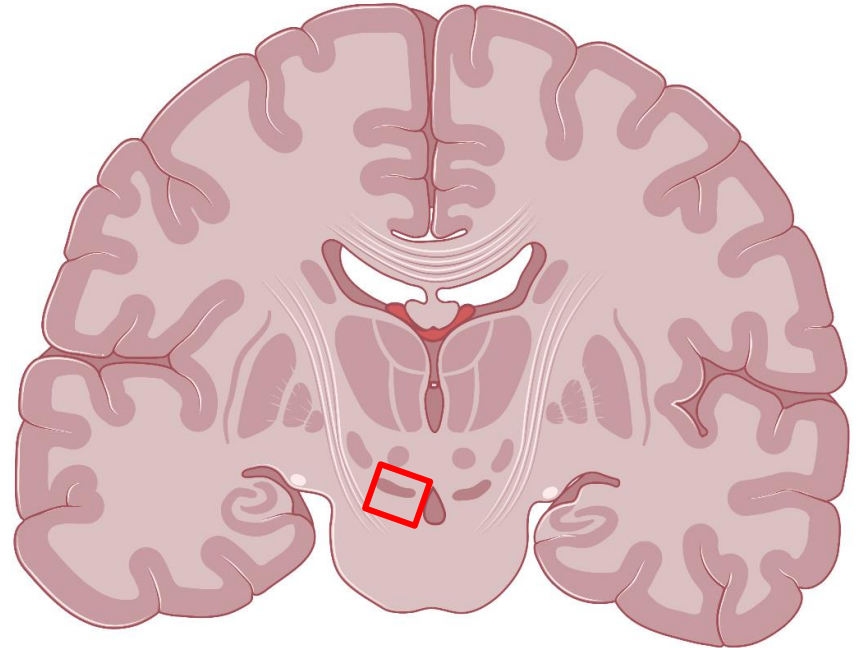
- External globus pallidus (GPe)
- Subthalamic Nucleus (STh)

## Output nuclei:

- Internal globus pallidus (GPi)
- Non-dopaminergic substantia nigra (SNND)

## Modulating structures:

- Dopaminergic substantia nigra (SND)

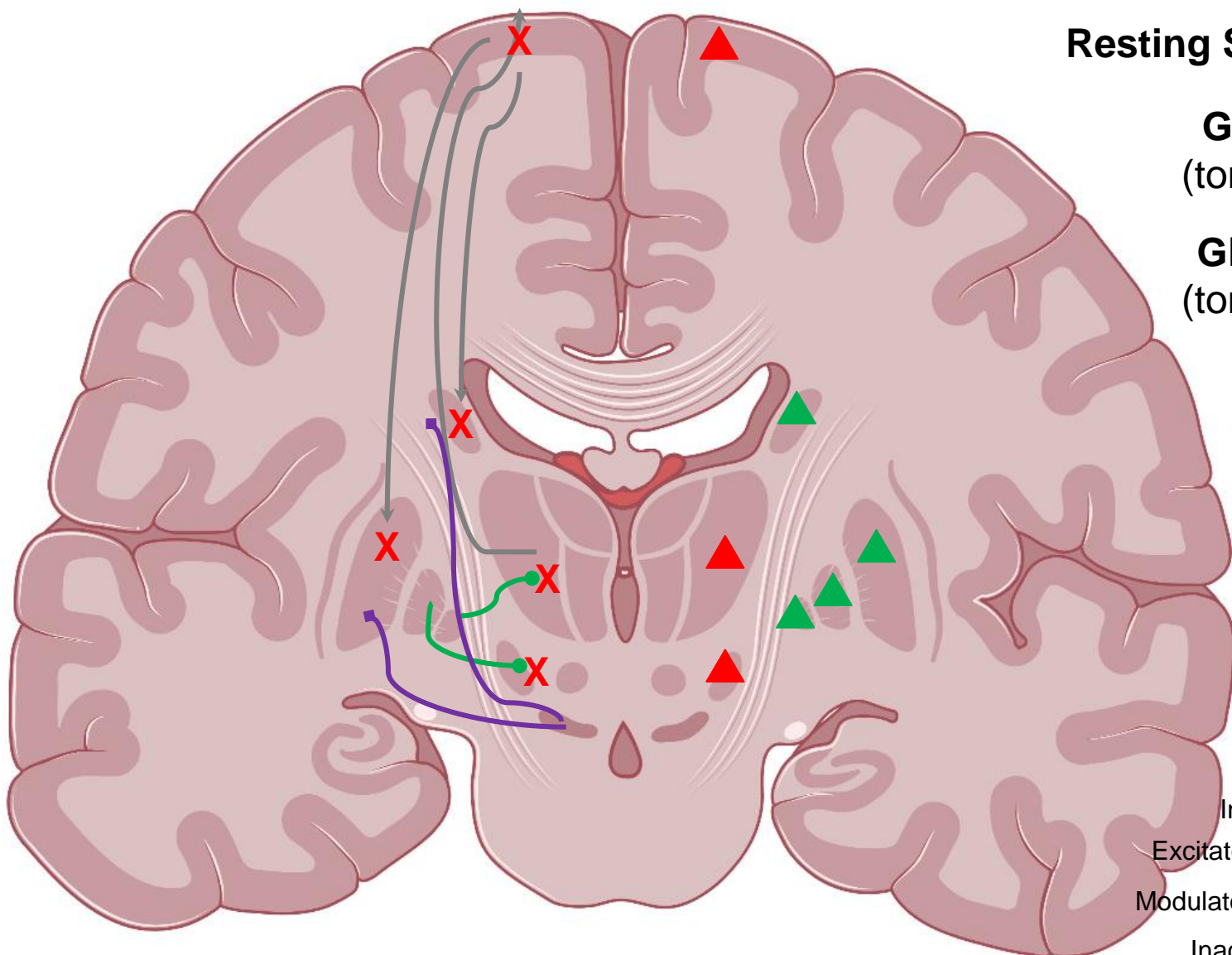


## Resting State (schematic)

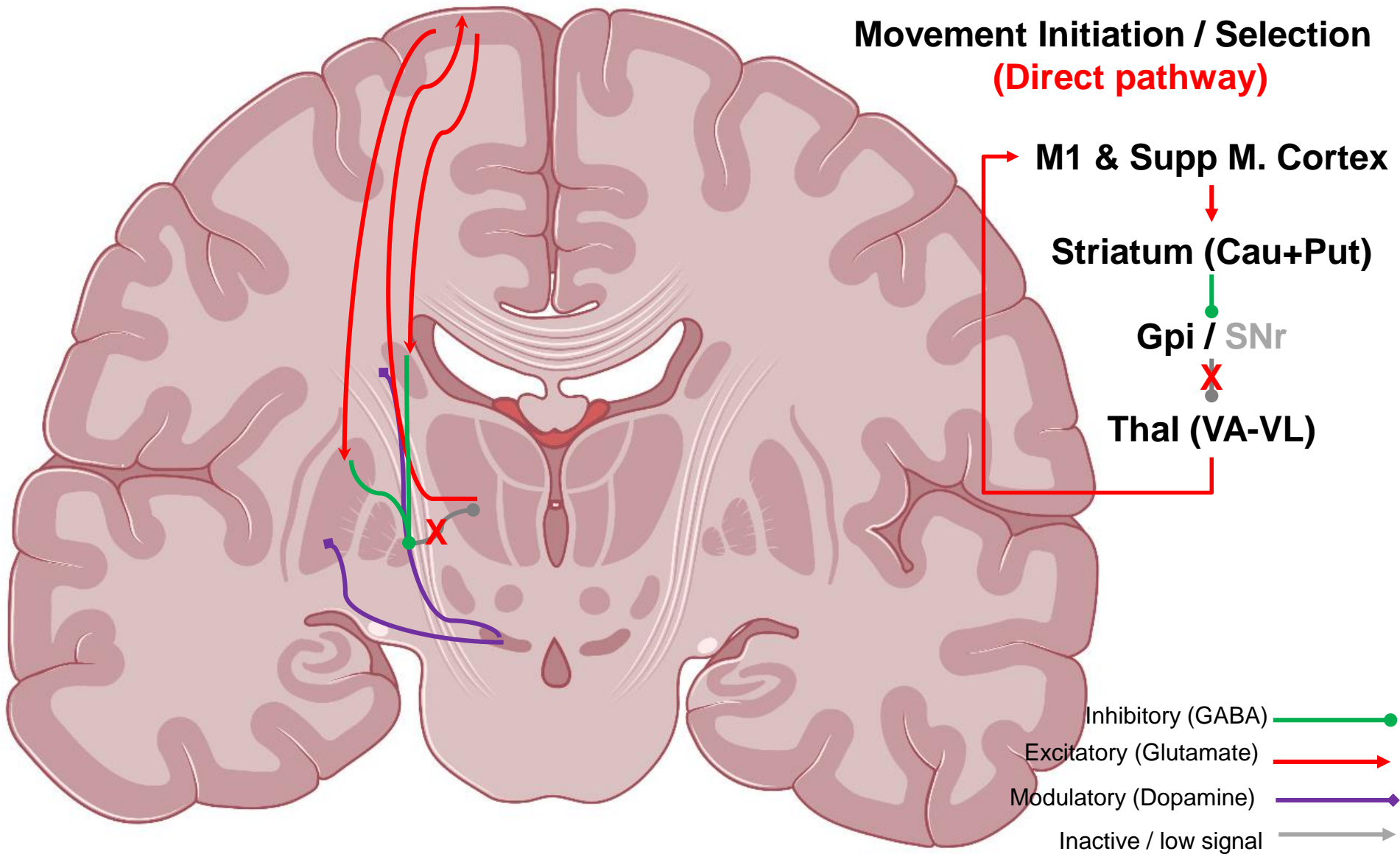
**GPI**  
(tonic) —●— **Thal**  
VA-VL

**GPe**  
(tonic) —●— **STh**

Inhibitory (GABA) —●—  
Excitatory (Glutamate) —▶—  
Modulatory (Dopamine) —◆—  
Inactive / low signal —▶—

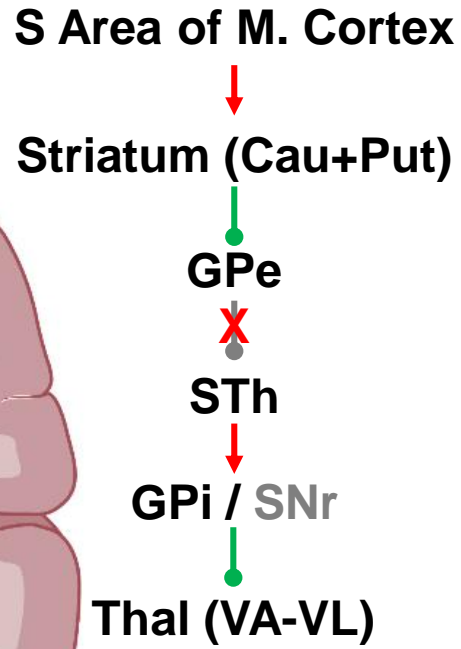
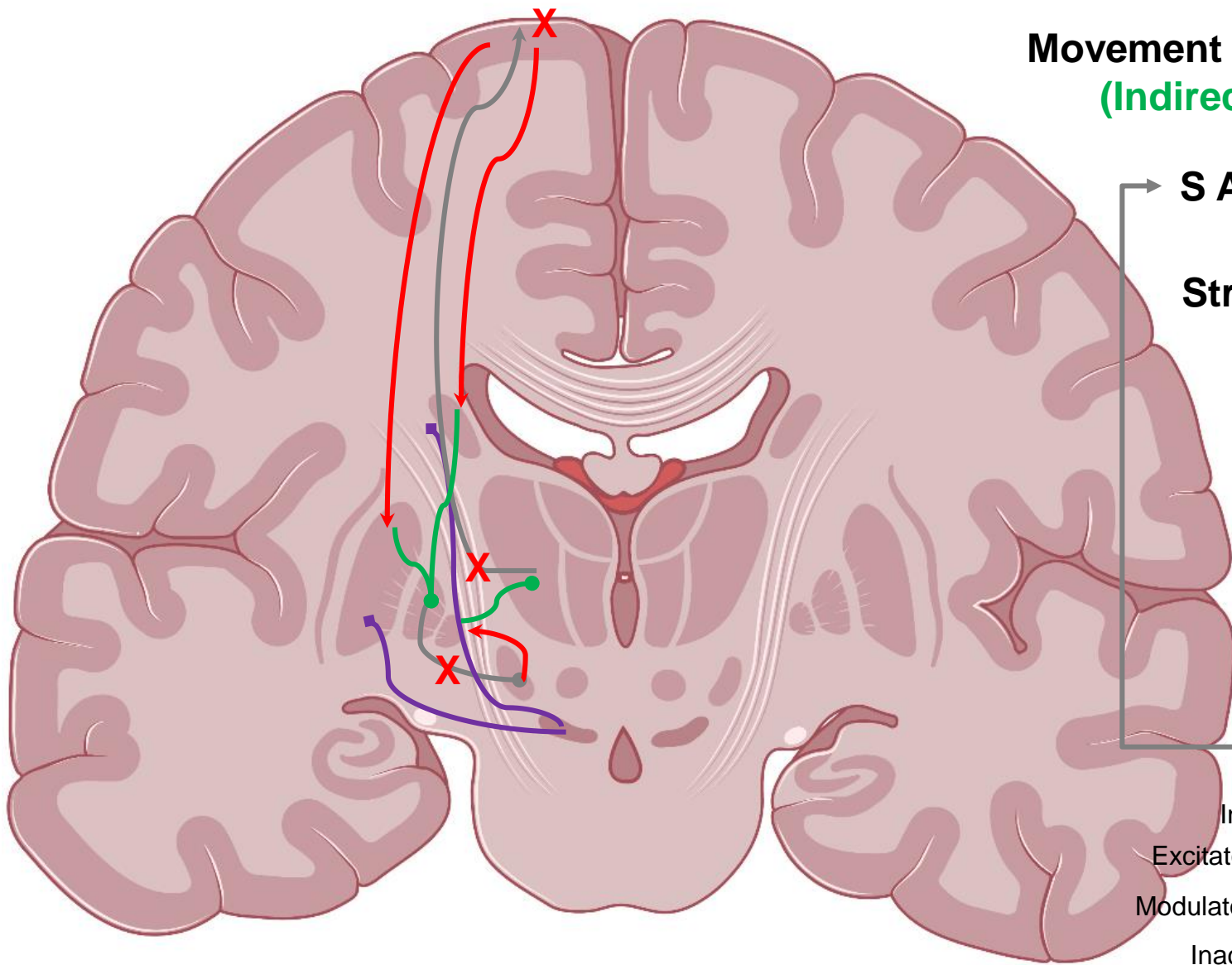


# Movement Initiation / Selection (Direct pathway)

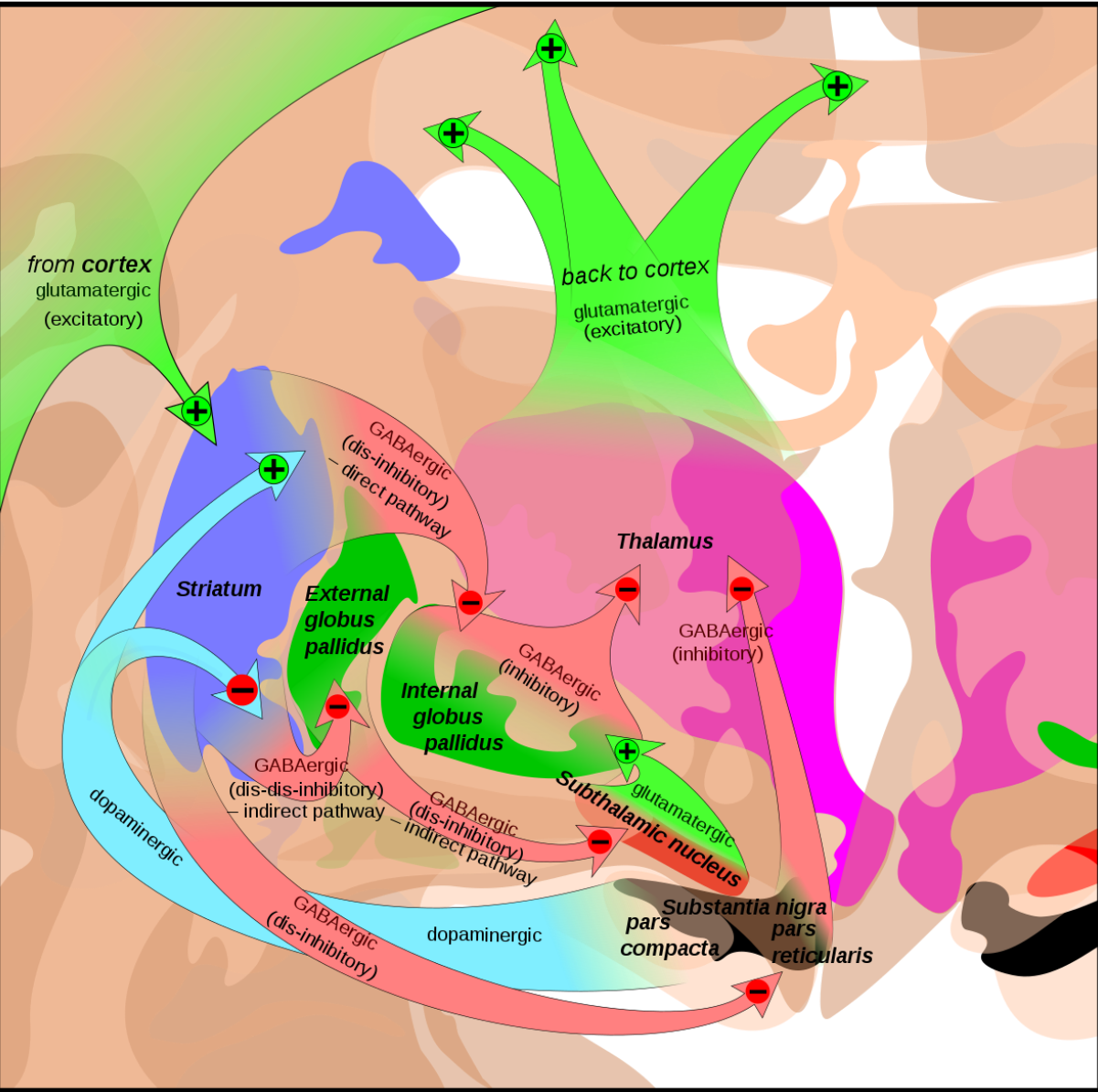




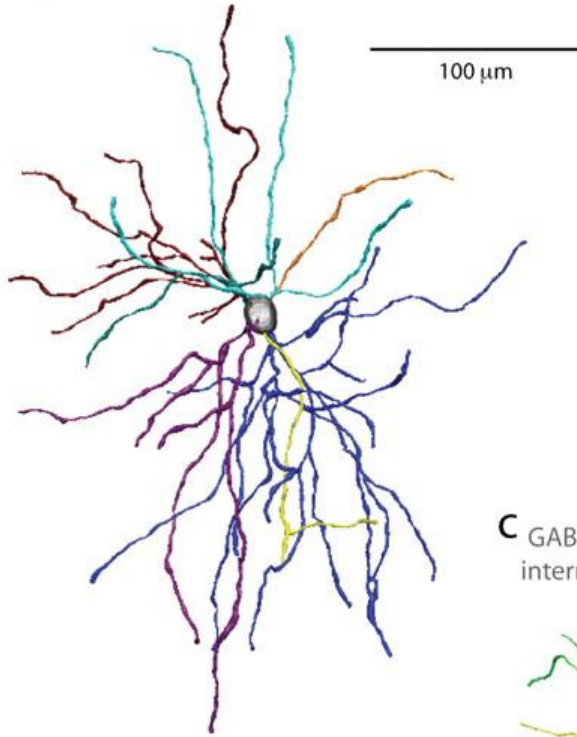
# Movement Suppression (Indirect Pathway)



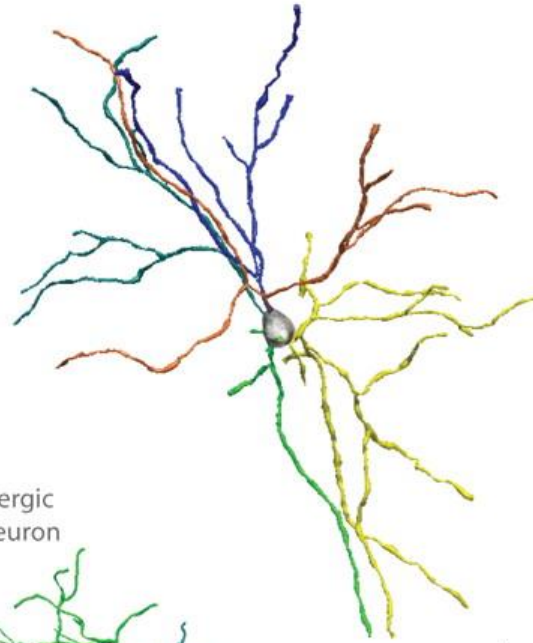
- Inhibitory (GABA) — green line with circle
- Excitatory (Glutamate) — red arrow
- Modulatory (Dopamine) — purple arrow with diamond
- Inactive / low signal — grey arrow



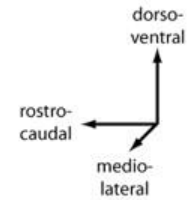
a  $D_1$  MSN



b  $D_2$  MSN



c GABAergic interneuron



**D2 (inhibitory)**  
**Enkephalin**

**D1 (excitatory)**  
**Dynorphin**  
**Substance P**



## Matrix

70-80%

D2 MSN

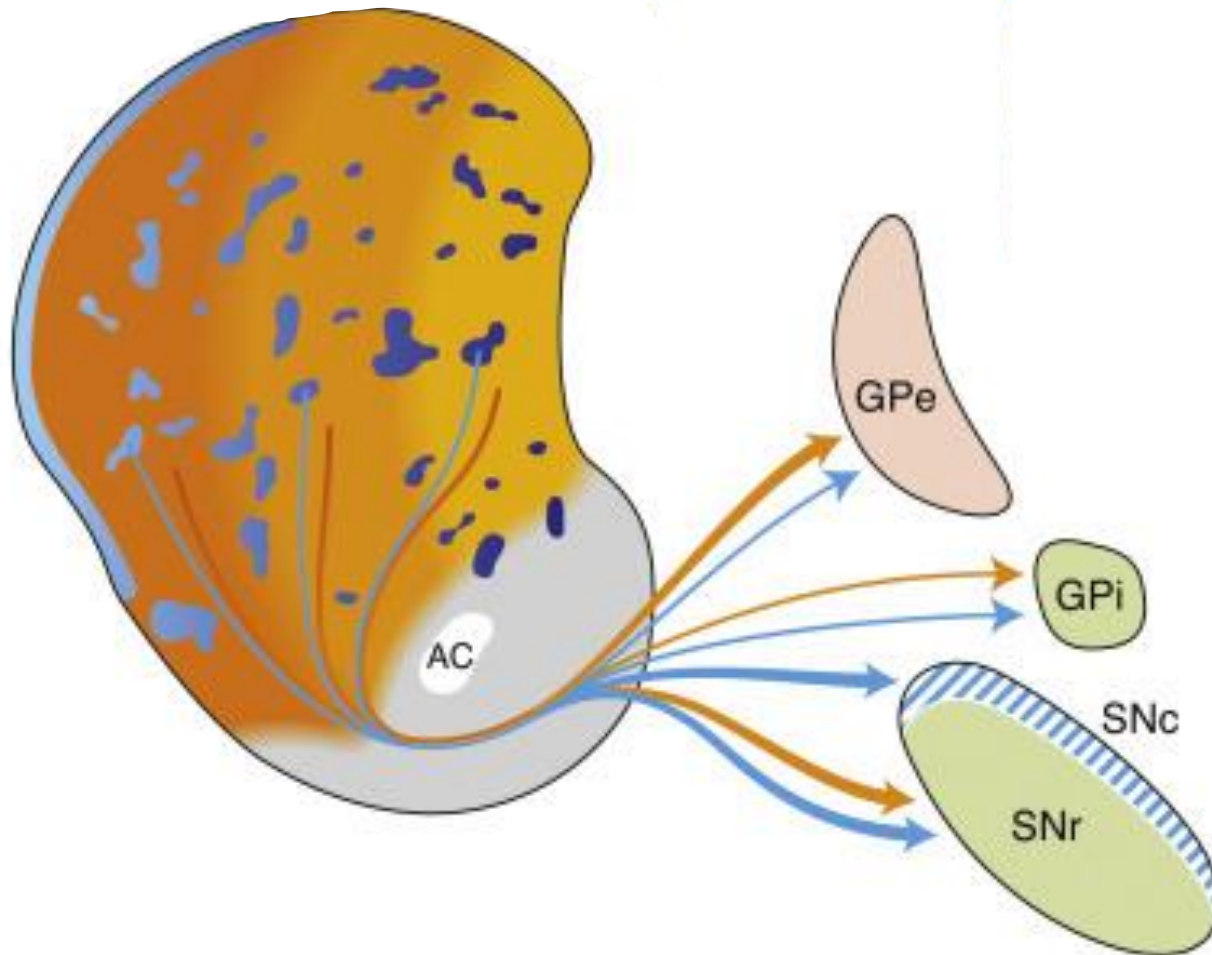
Indirect Pathway

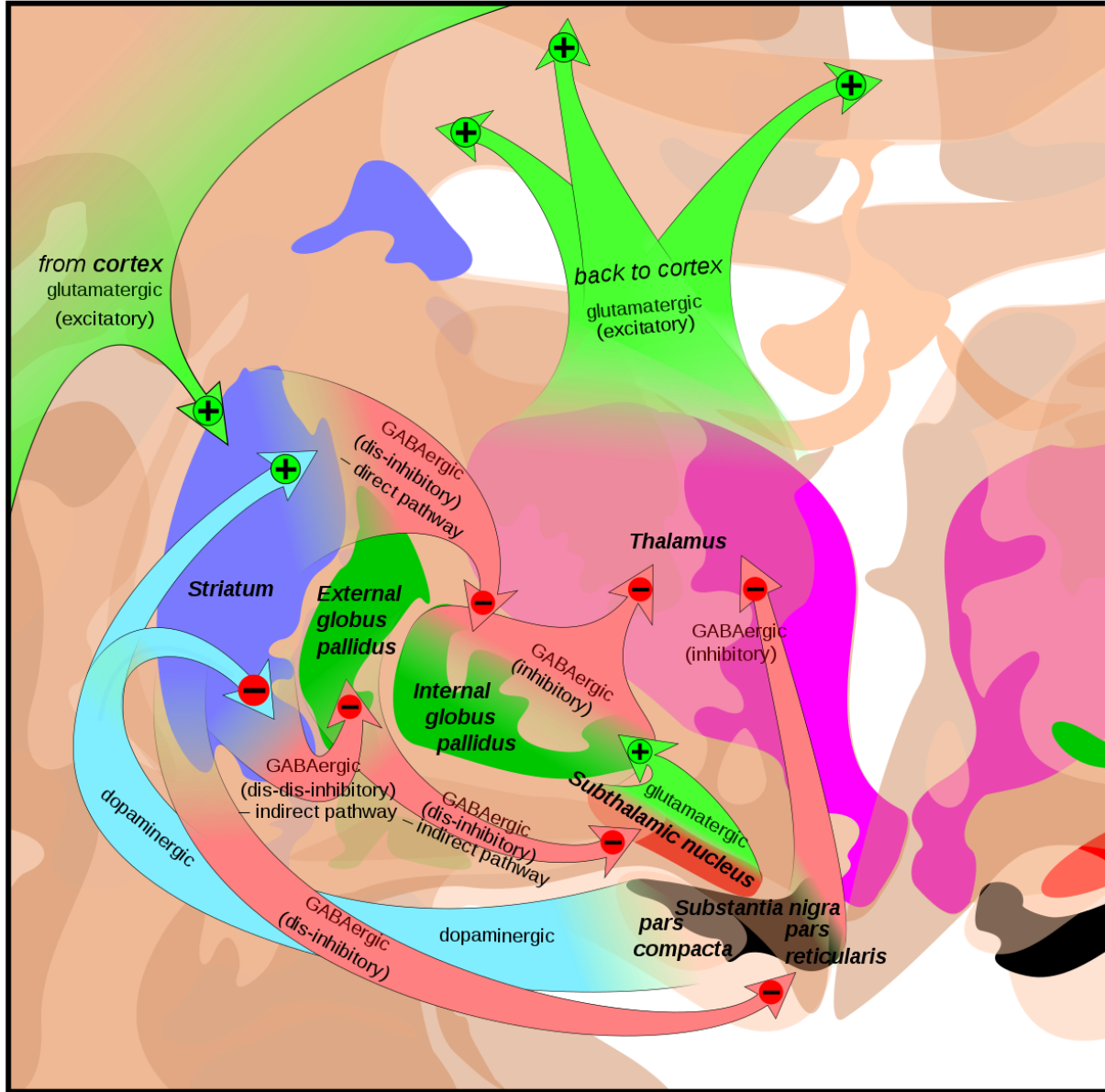
## Striosomes

20-30%

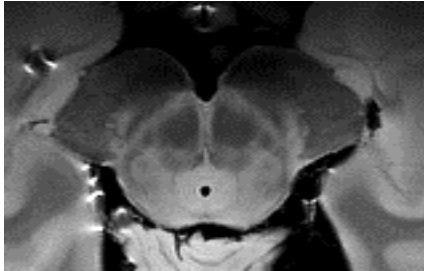
D1 MSN

Direct Pathway

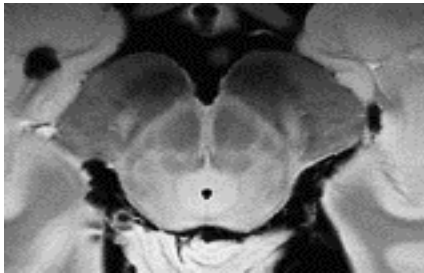




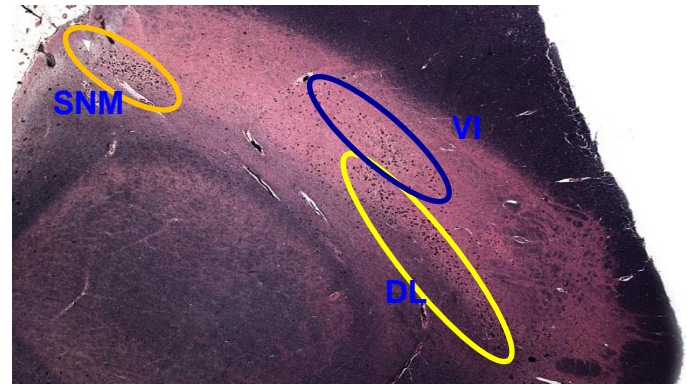
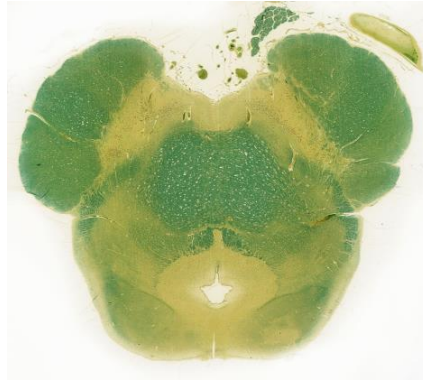
2D SE DP



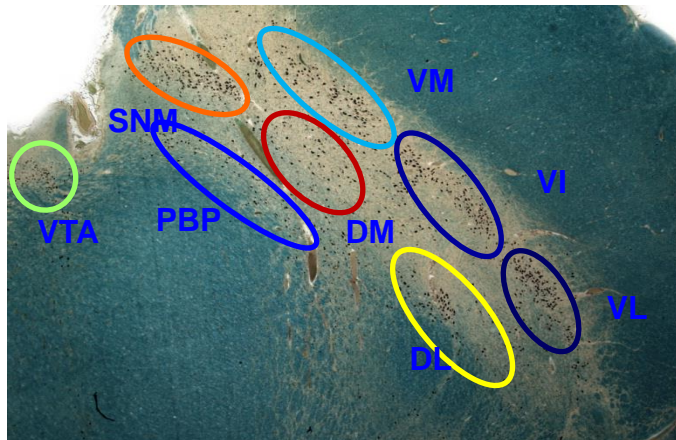
2D GRE T2\*



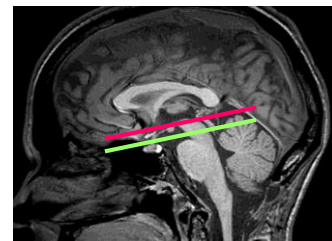
2D SE T2



Sezione trasversa rostrale (RN)



Sezione trasversa caudale (PCS)







## CLINICAL CASE 2

62-year-old Male

The patient reports onset of mild right upper limb stiffness (10 years prior). Symptoms progressed to difficulty with fine motor control and micrographia. Five years after the onset of the first symptoms, he developed right hand tremor. The tremor spread to involve head and jaw, and had difficulties in initiating movements. CT and MRI scans were normal. Neuropsychological testing revealed mild frontal executive dysfunction.

Neurological examination:

Alert and oriented, speech fluent. Micrographia.

Reduced blink rate, mask-like facial expression.

Motor examination: cogwheel rigidity, bradykinesia (especially of the right upper limb).

Gait: slow, stiff gait with short steps and reduced arm swing.

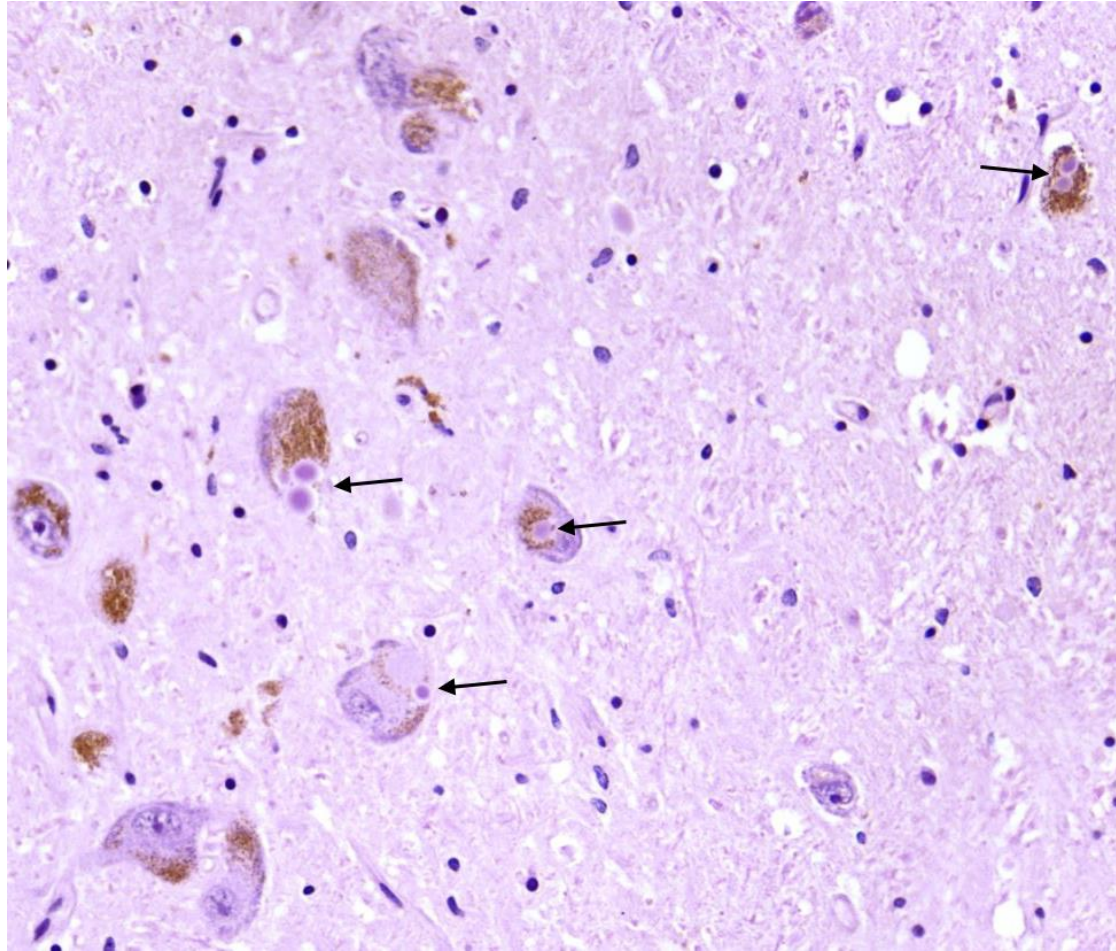
Where is the site of the lesion?

What's the likely diagnosis?



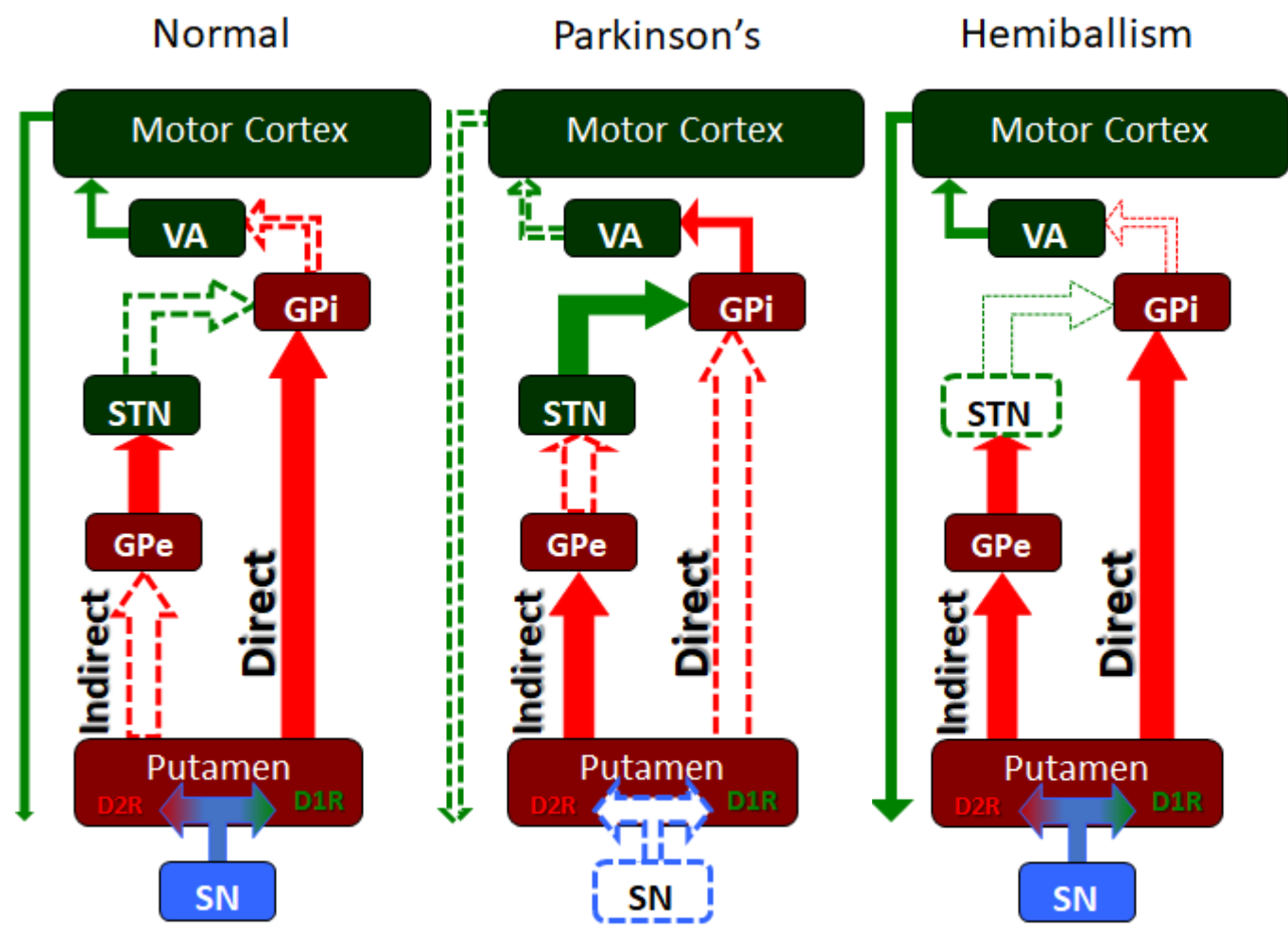
## Histopathology













## CLINICAL CASE 1

40-year-old Male

The patient's girlfriend reports irregular jerking movements, initially of the upper limbs, and progressively of the trunk, neck and lower limbs. The patient denies having any involuntary movements. Also, behaviour is disinhibited with flat affect.

Neurological examination:

Alert and oriented, fluent speech. Mild blunted affect.

Saccadic eye movements appear slowed.

Motor examination: sporadic, brief and irregular movements of the face, neck, trunk and upper extremities. Tandem gait unsteady.

Where is the site of the lesion?

What's the likely diagnosis?





## CLINICAL CASE 1

40-year-old Male

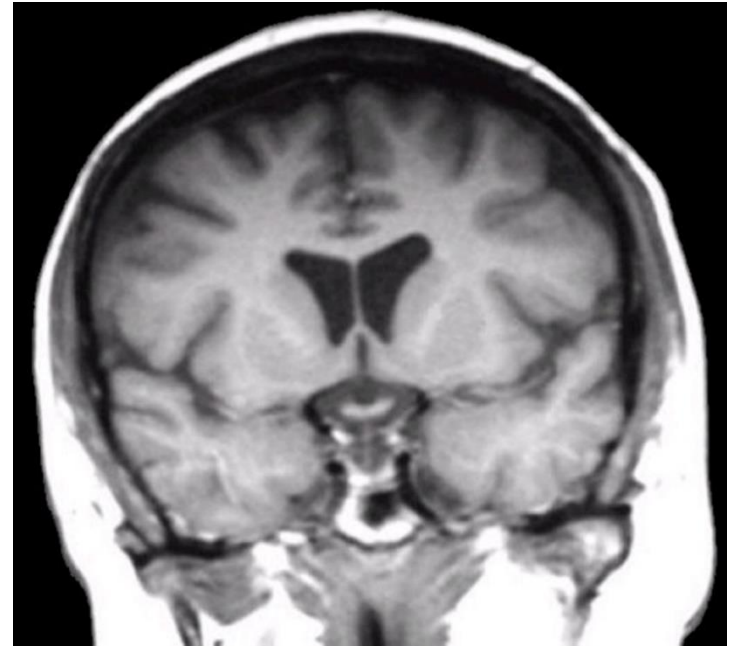
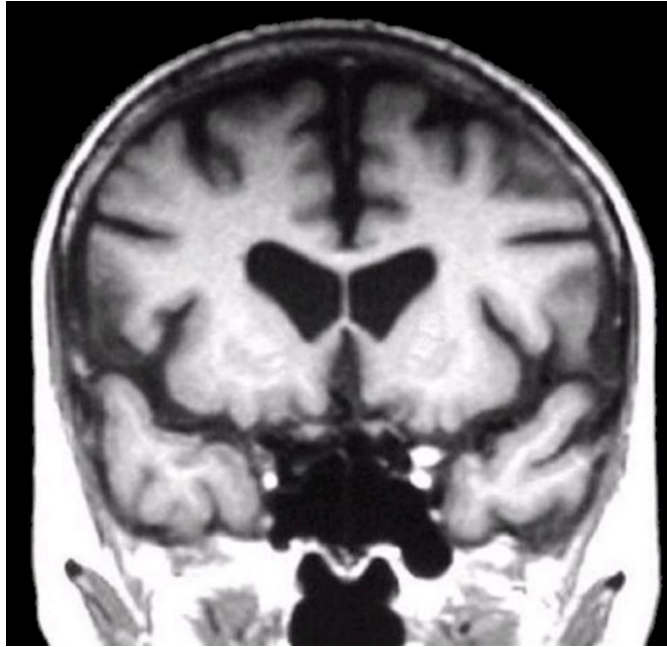
Family history: No siblings. Father was affected by the same symptoms and died 5 years following initial onset at age 49. Mother's family was unaffected.

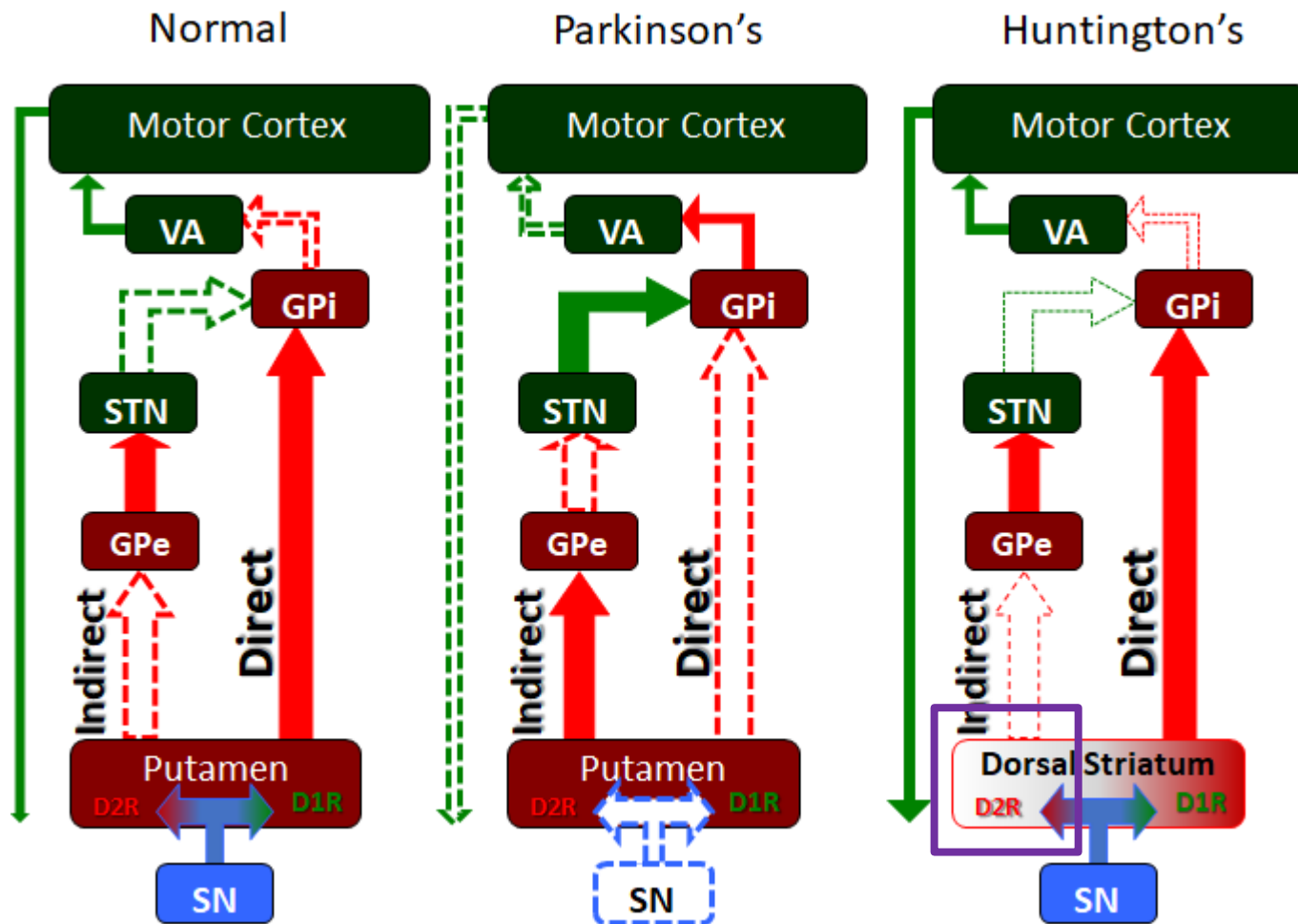
Patient MRI



Healthy MRI



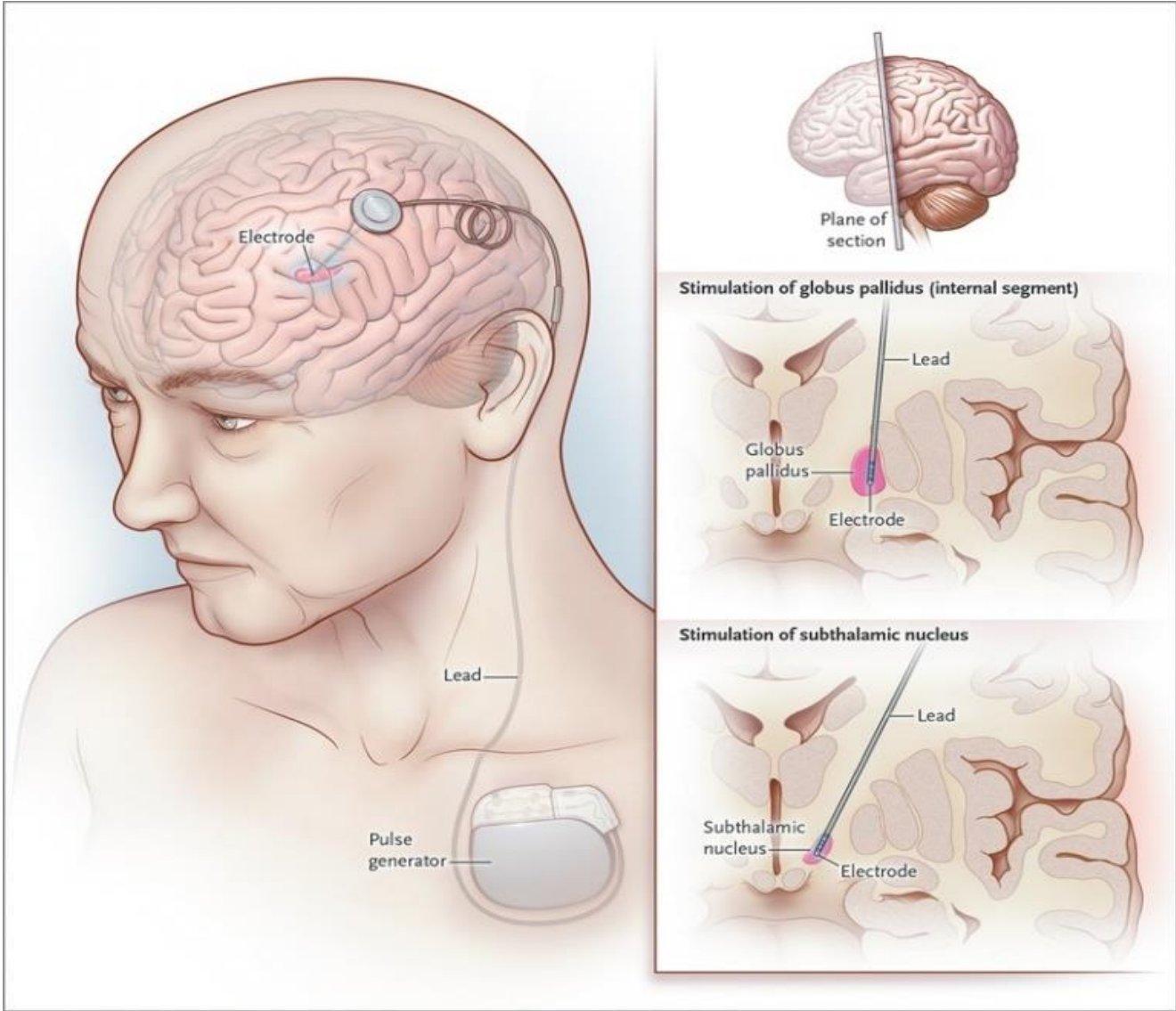


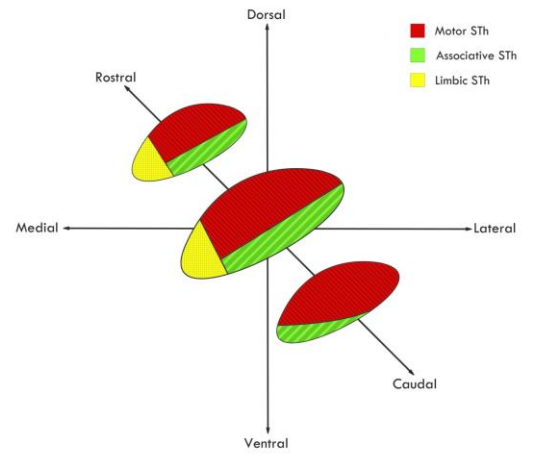
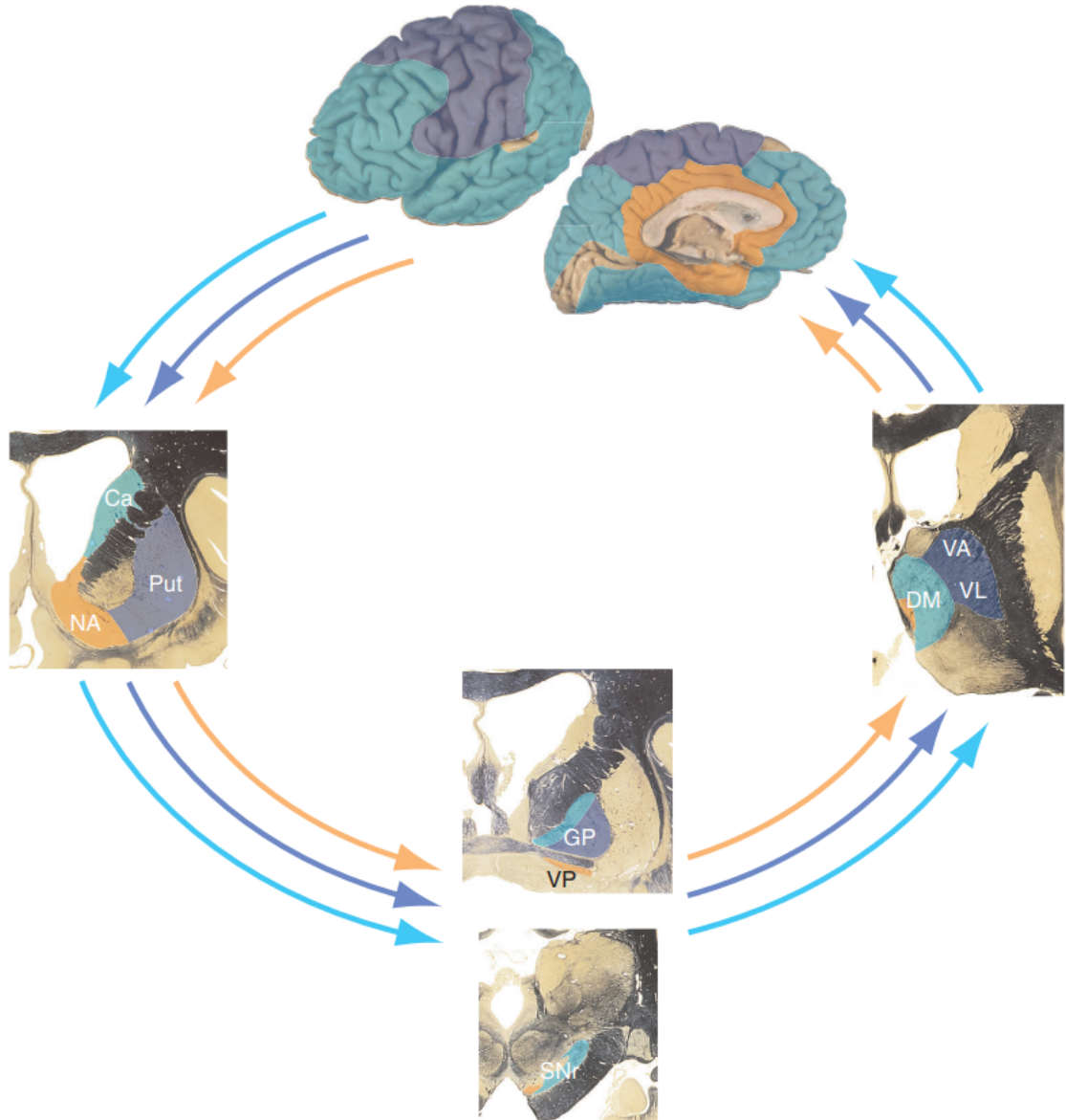


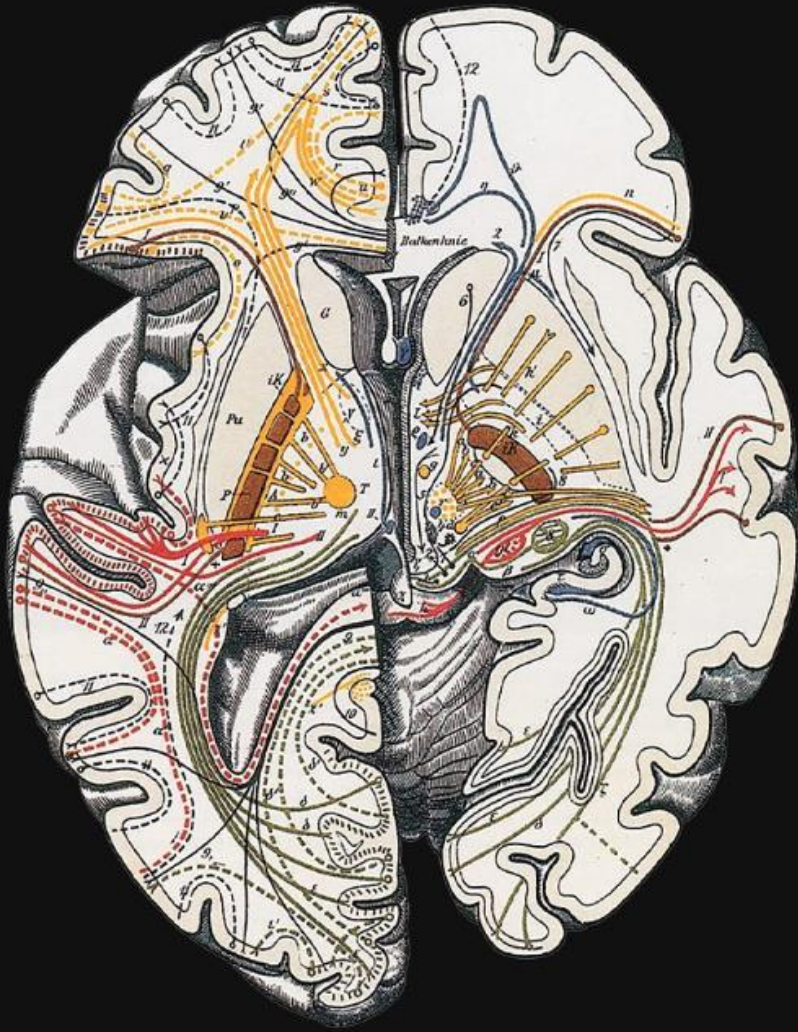
Autosomal dominant –  
degeneration of matrix MSN



# Deep brain stimulation for movement disorders



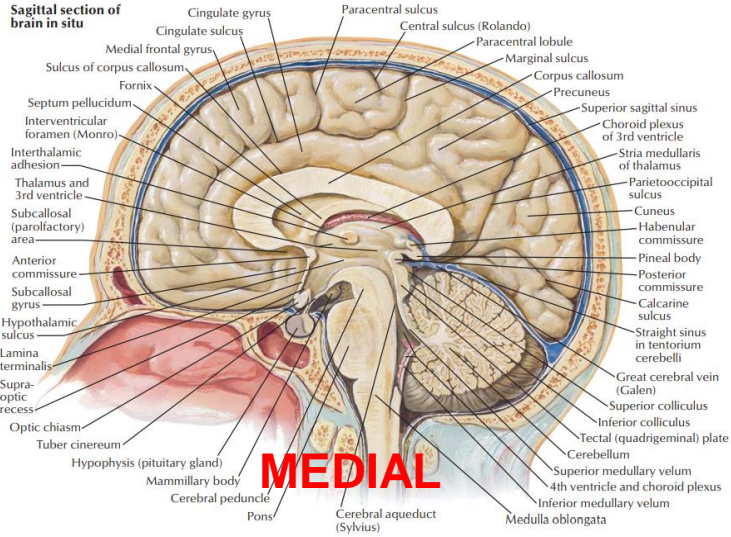




# The Telencephalon

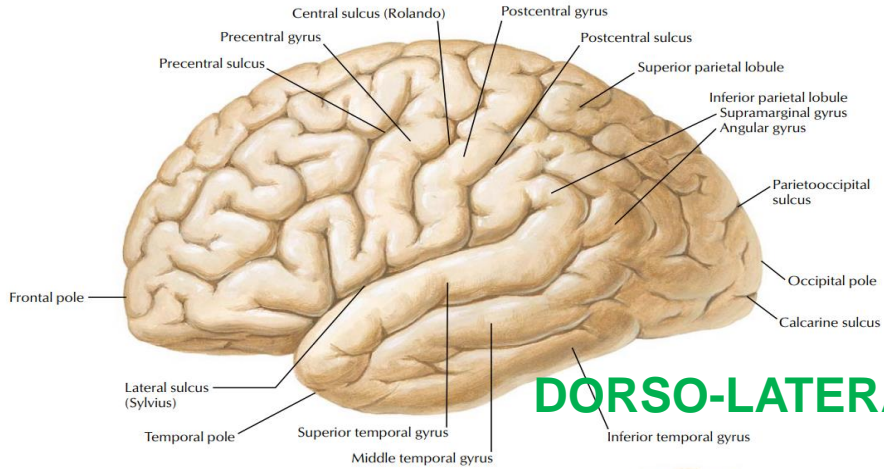
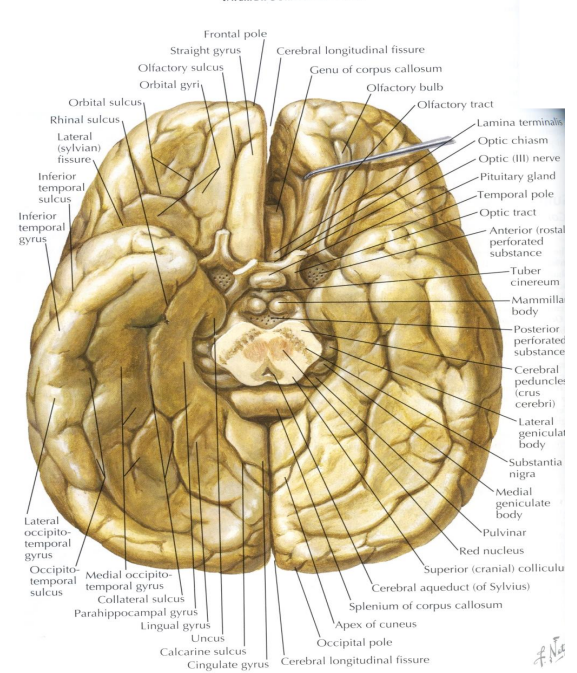


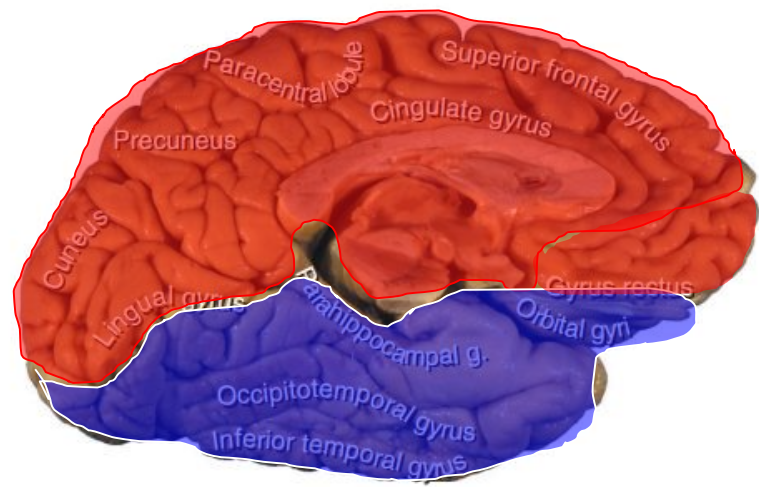
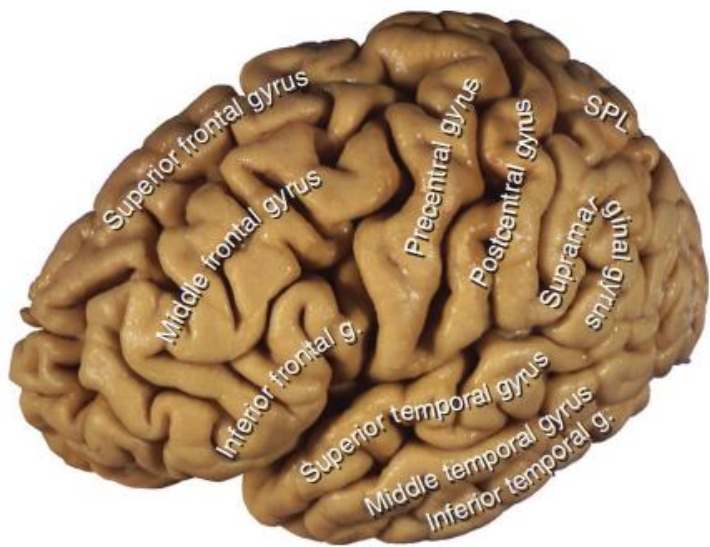
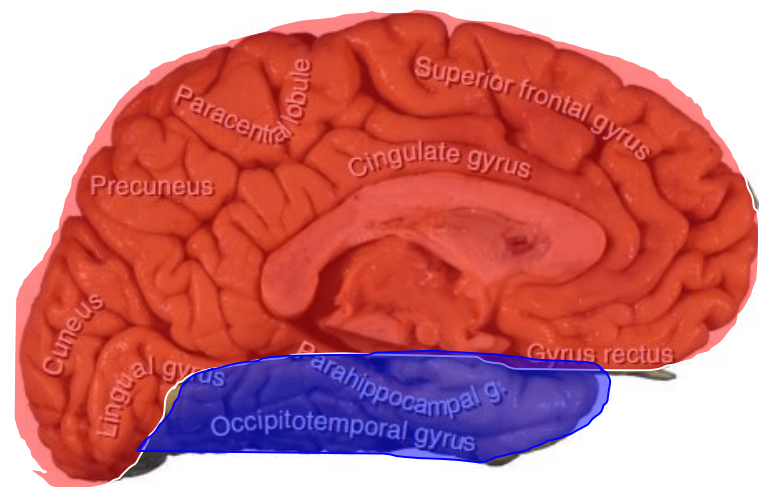
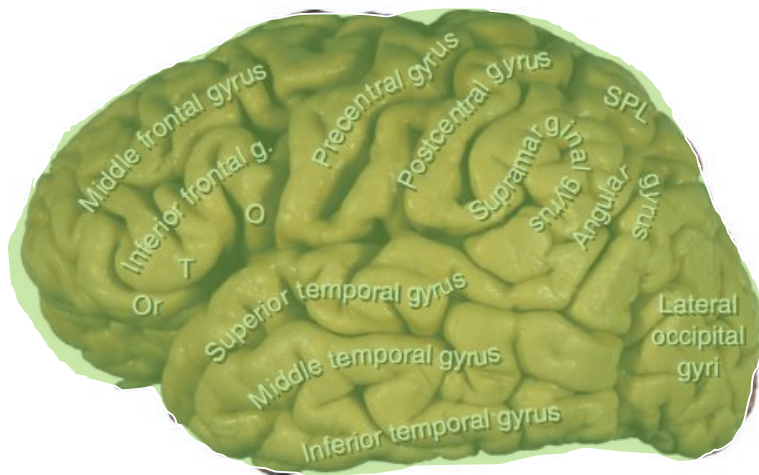
# SURFACES OF THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERES



**MEDIAL**

## INFERIOR / VENTRAL







## Surface Landmarks

The cerebral hemispheres present a convoluted surface characterized by

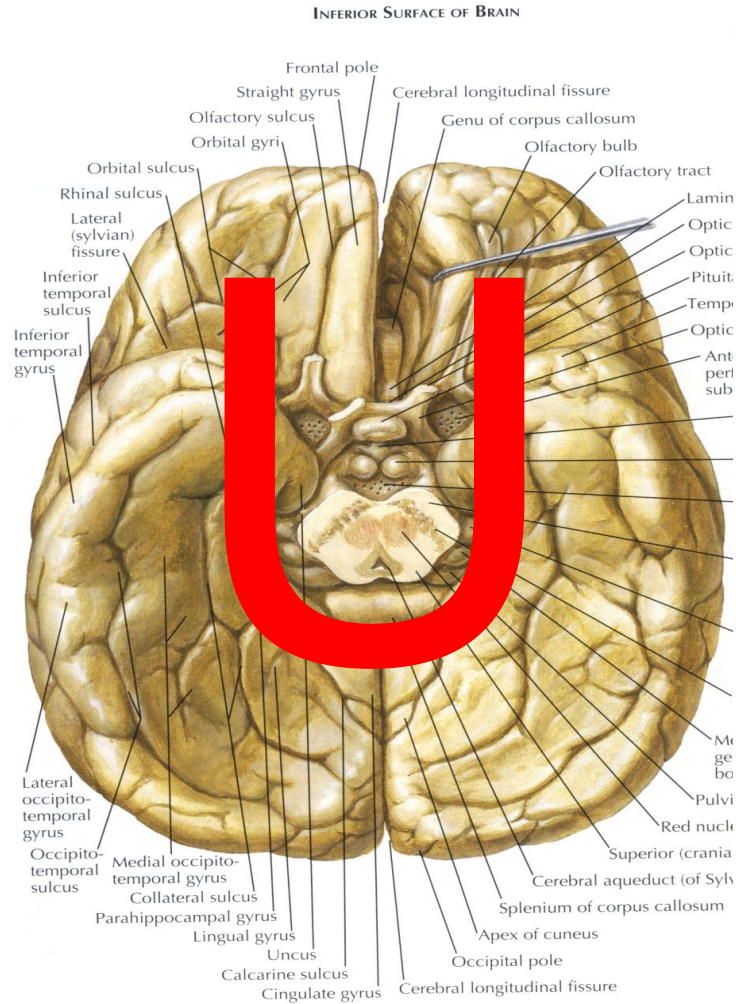
- Cerebral convolutions or **gyri**
- Cerebral **furrows** (*sulci, scissures and fissures*).



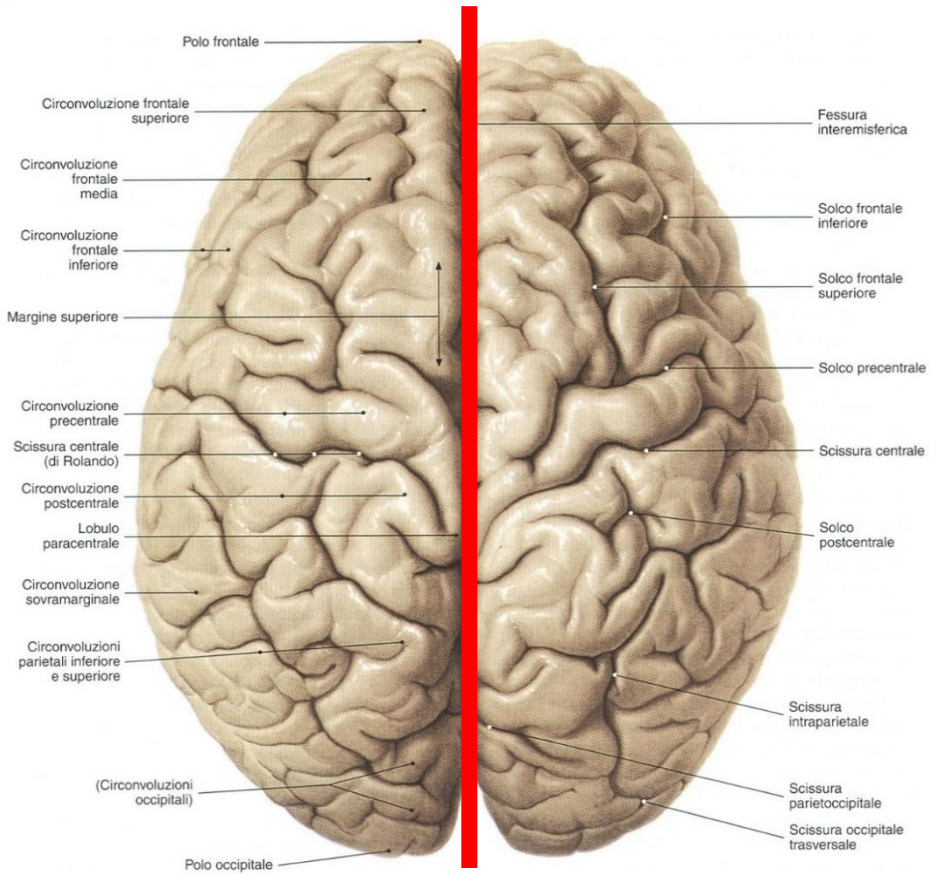
- **Fissures**: deep clefts which separate large anatomical regions (no variation)
- **Scissures**: deep clefts that separate the hemispheres into distinct **lobes** (little variation)
- **Sulci**: separate gyri from each other (high variability)







**Transverse fissure of Bichat**



**Interhemispheric fissure**

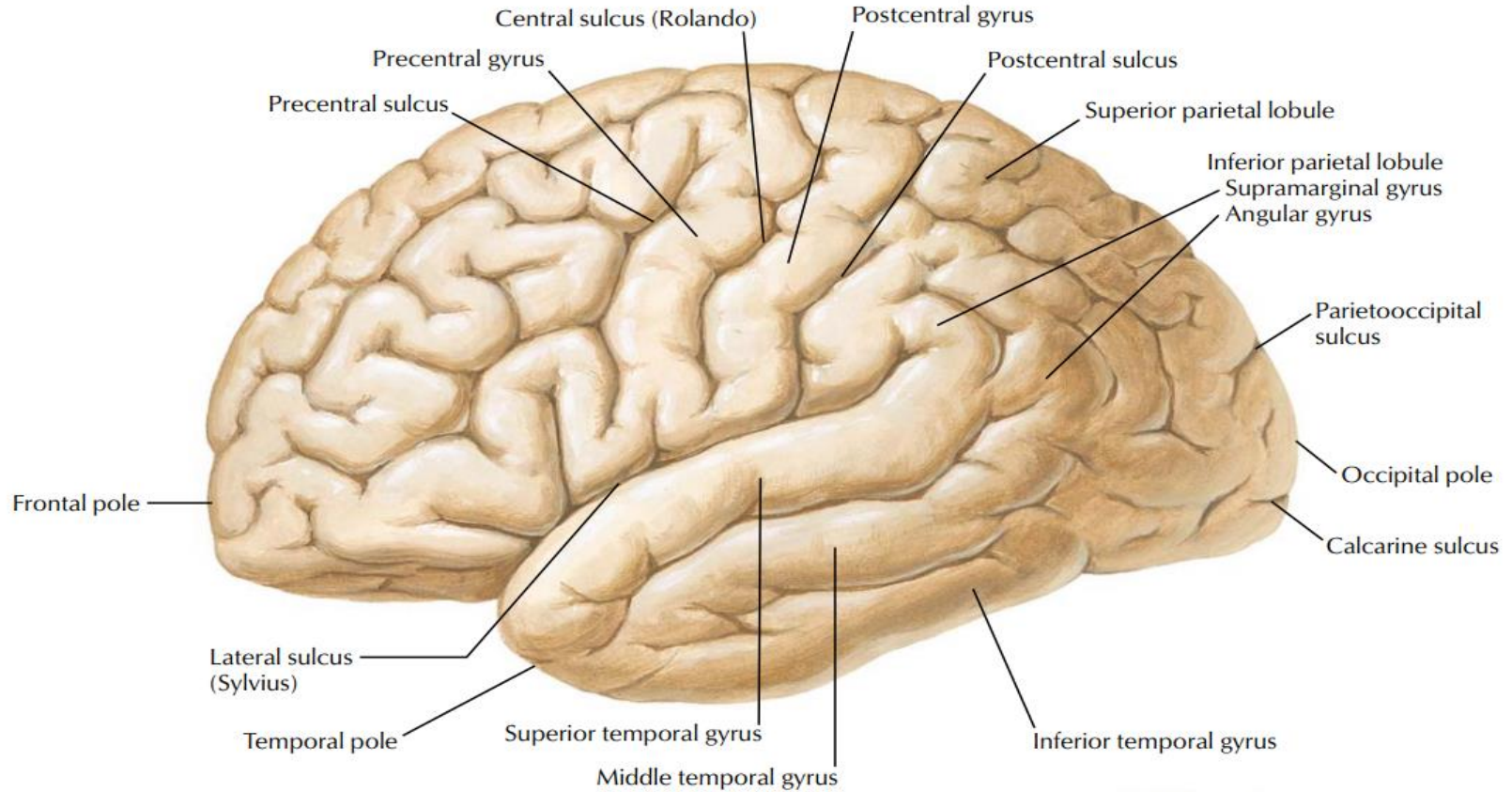
**Figura 14.87** - Emisferi cerebrali, proiezione superiore (da Köpf-Maier P, ed.: Wolf-Heidegger's Atlas of Human Anatomy, 5th, completely revised and supplemented edition, Basel, Karger, 2000, with permission from S. Karger AG, Basel).

# LATERAL SURFACE

## 2 Scissures:

Lateral Scissure (Sylvius)

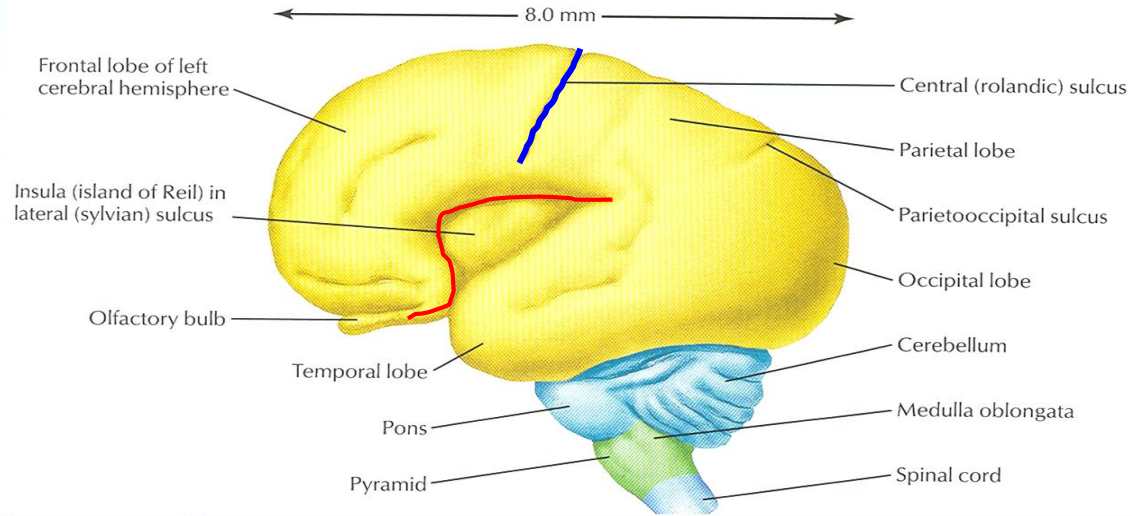
Central Scissure (Rolandus)



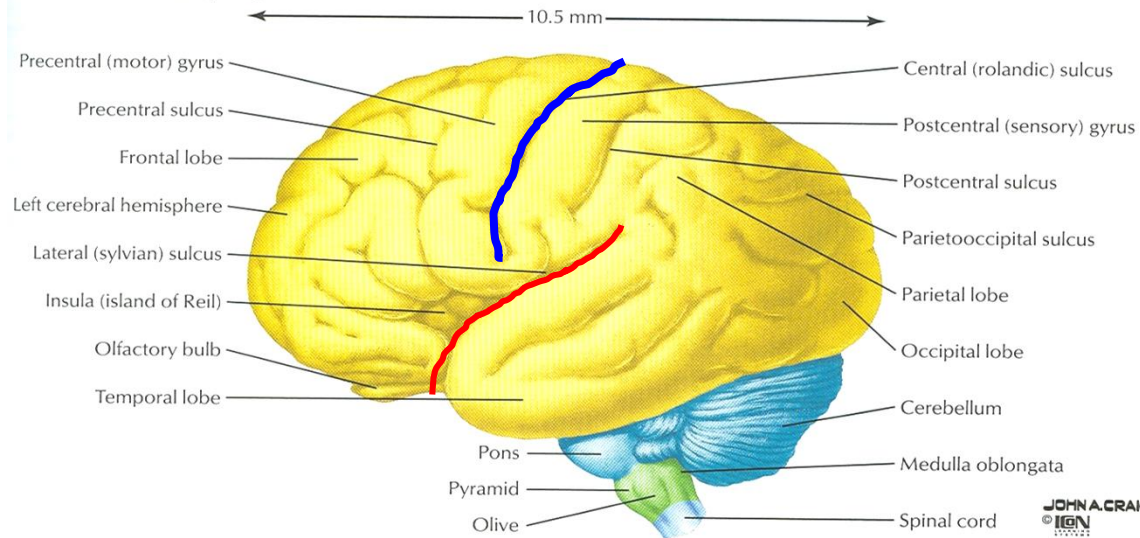




### Brain at 6 months



### Brain at 9 months (birth)





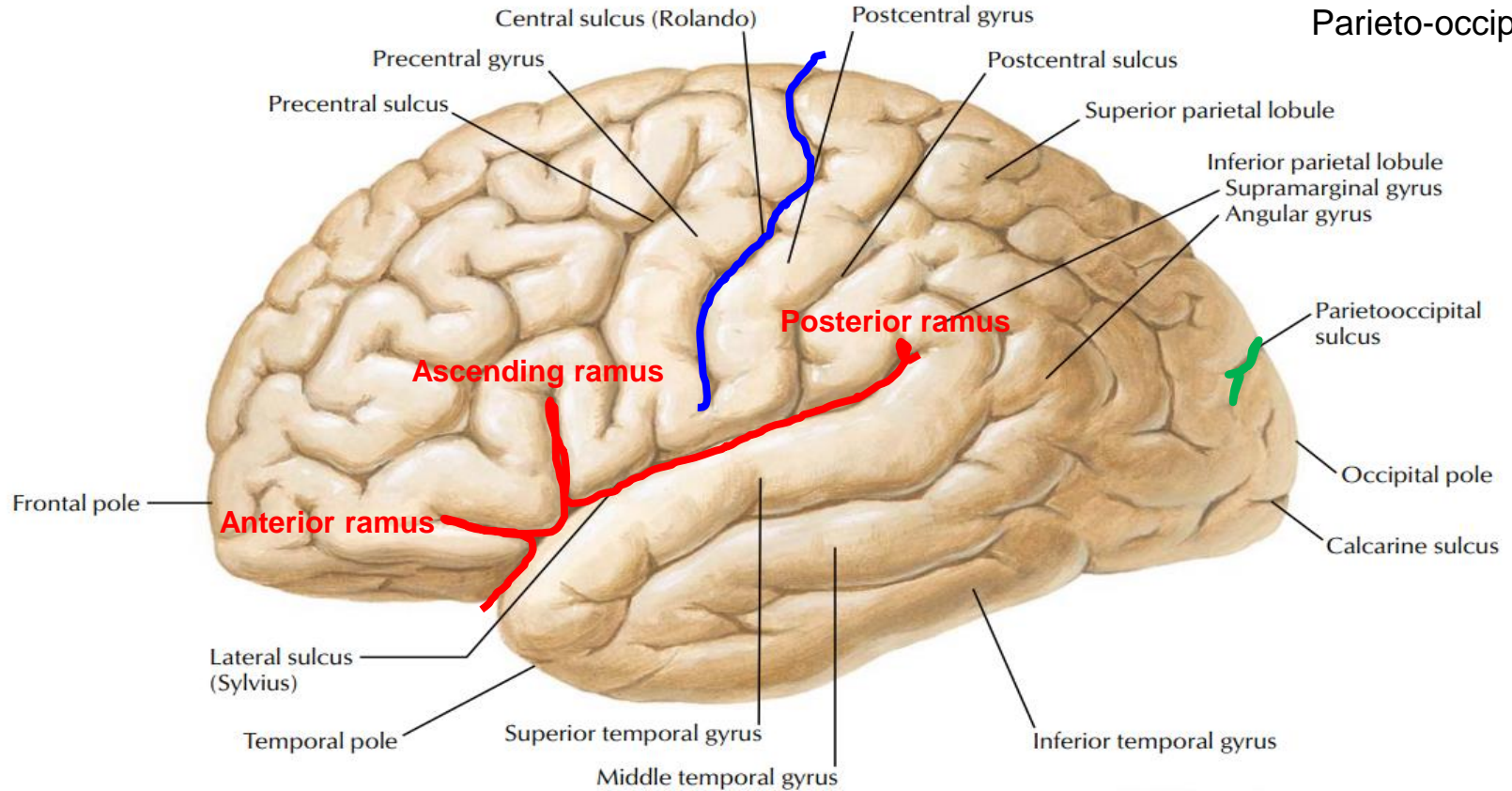
# LATERAL SURFACE

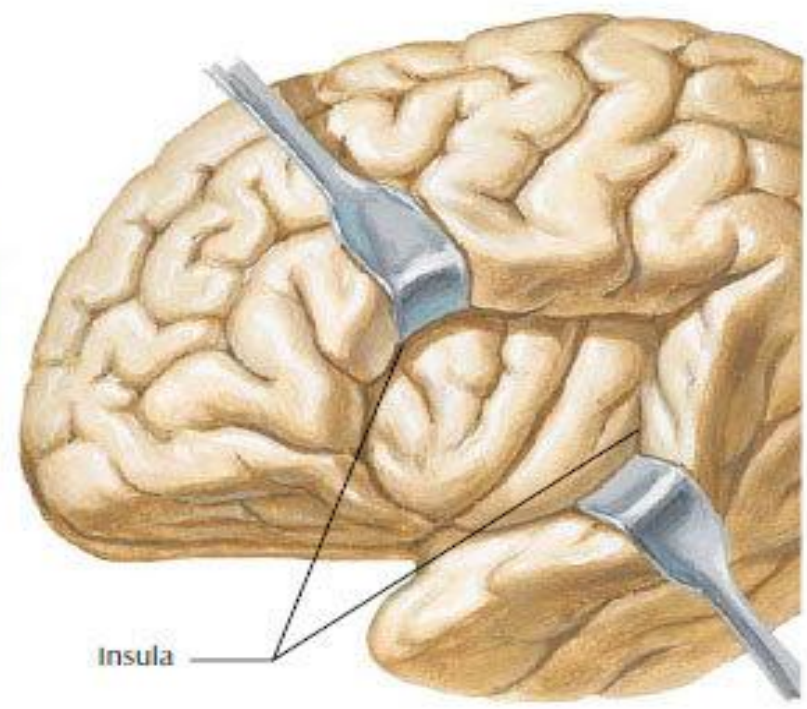
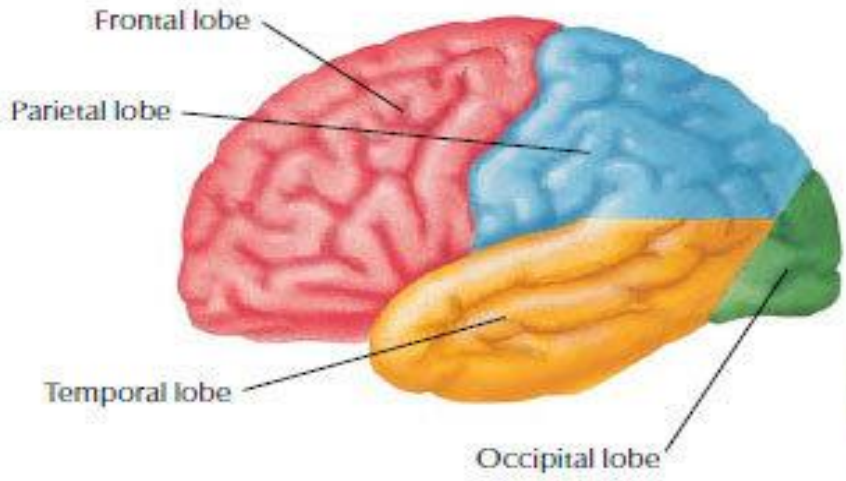
## 3 Scissures:

Lateral Scissure (Sylvius)

Central Scissure (Rolando)

Parieto-occipital





## 6 Lobes

- |              |   |  |
|--------------|---|--|
| 1. Frontal   | } | Visible (also) from the lateral surface                  |
| 2. Parietal  |   |  |
| 3. Temporal  |   |  |
| 4. Occipital |   |  |
| 5. Insular   |   | Visible by widening the Sylvian Scissure                 |
| 6. Limbic    |   | Visible <u>only</u> from the medial and inferior surface |



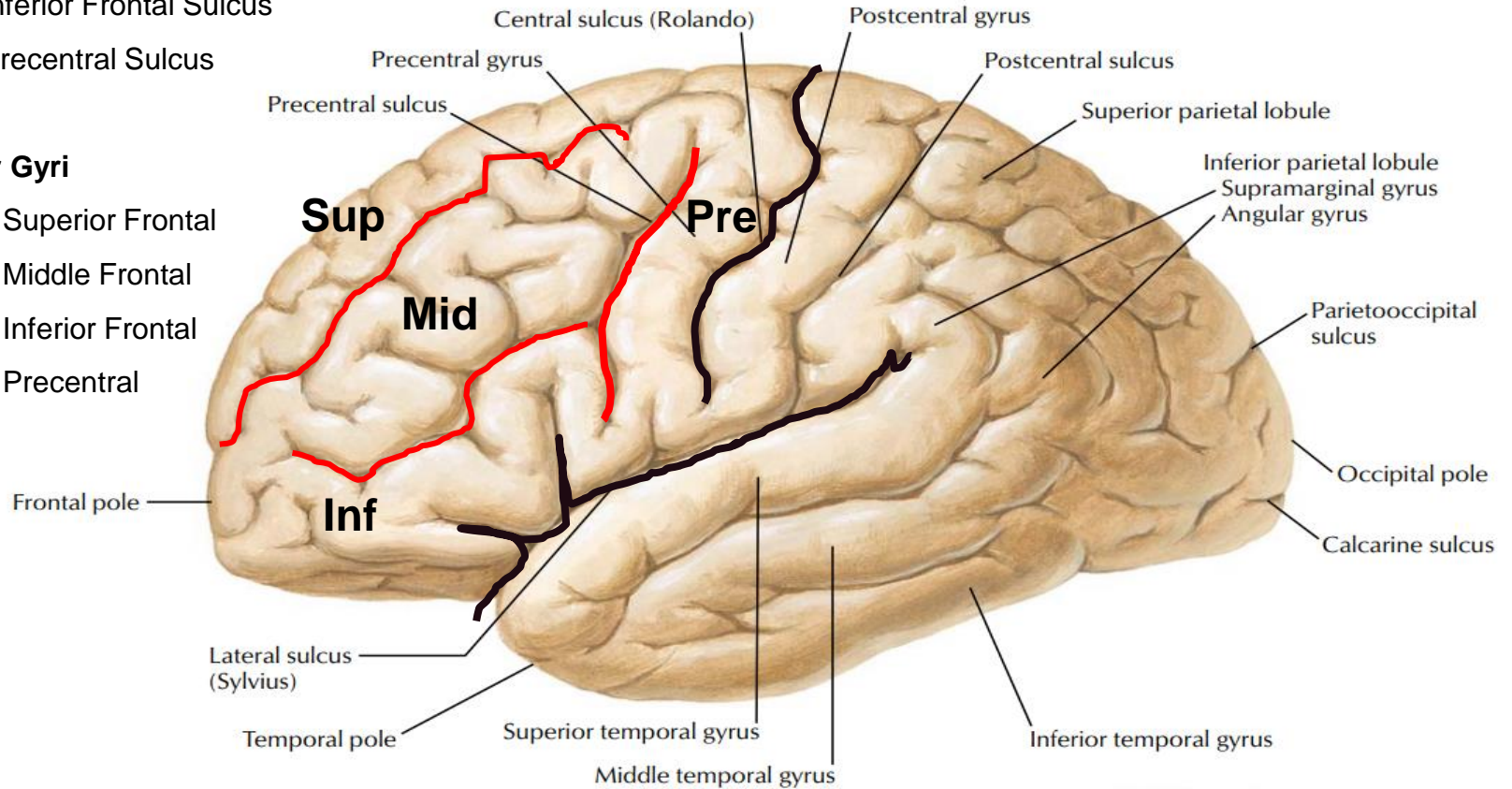
# Frontal Lobe – Lateral Surface

## Three sulci

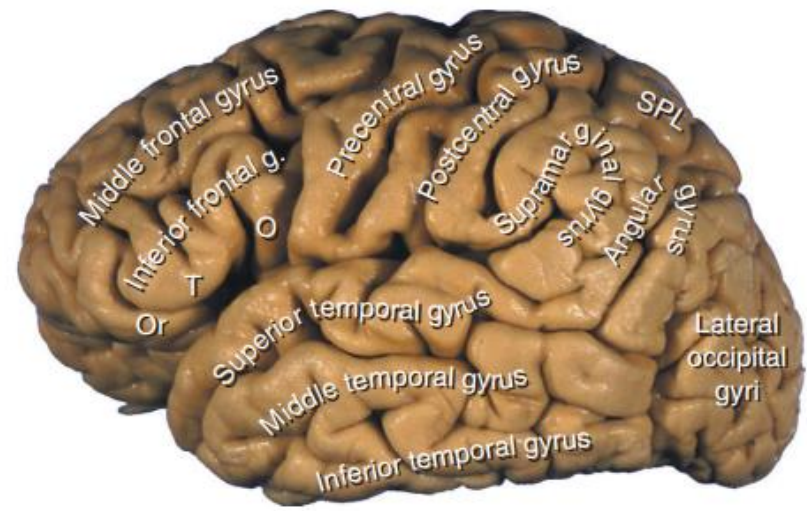
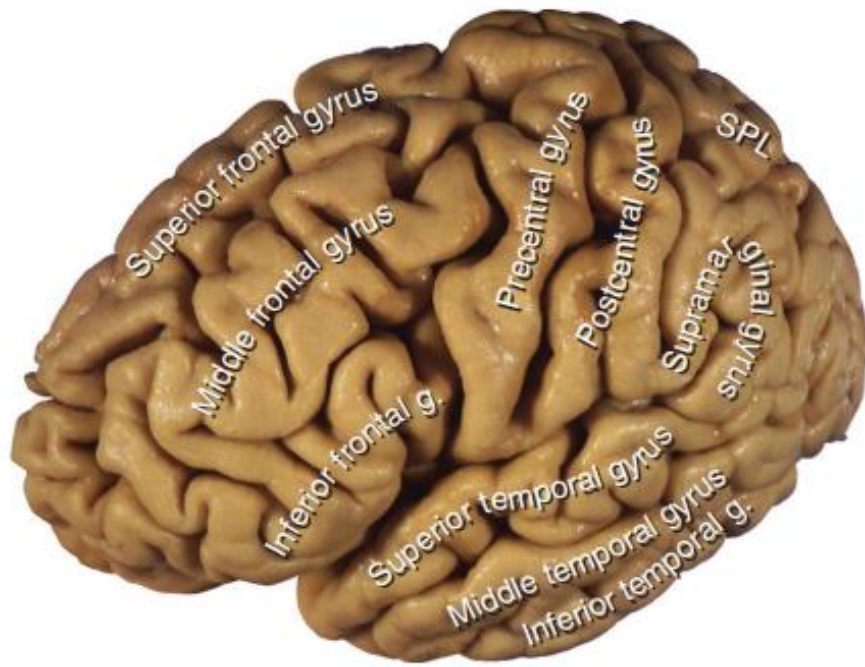
1. Superior Frontal Sulcus
2. Inferior Frontal Sulcus
3. Precentral Sulcus

## Four Gyri

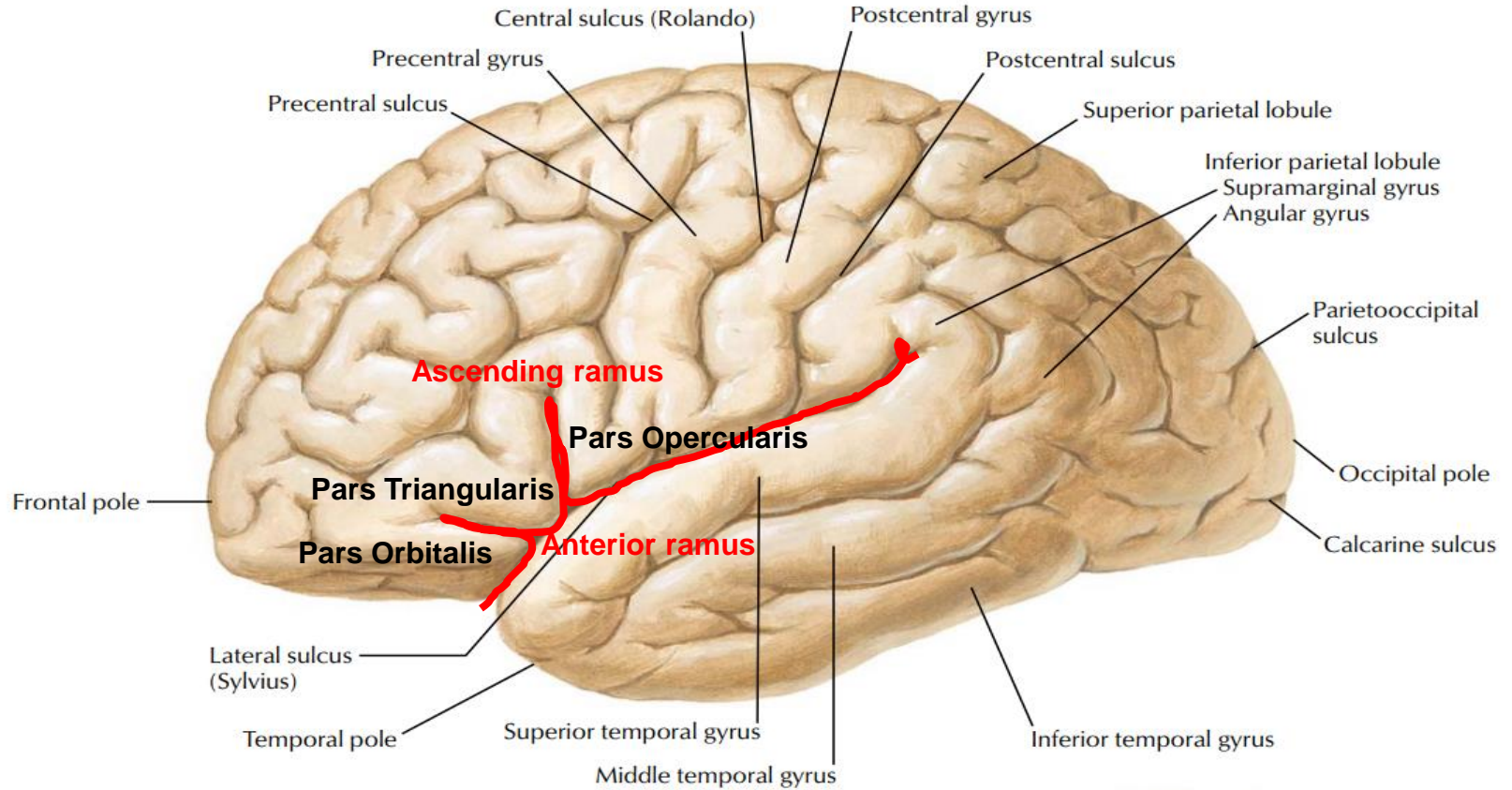
1. Superior Frontal
2. Middle Frontal
3. Inferior Frontal
4. Precentral

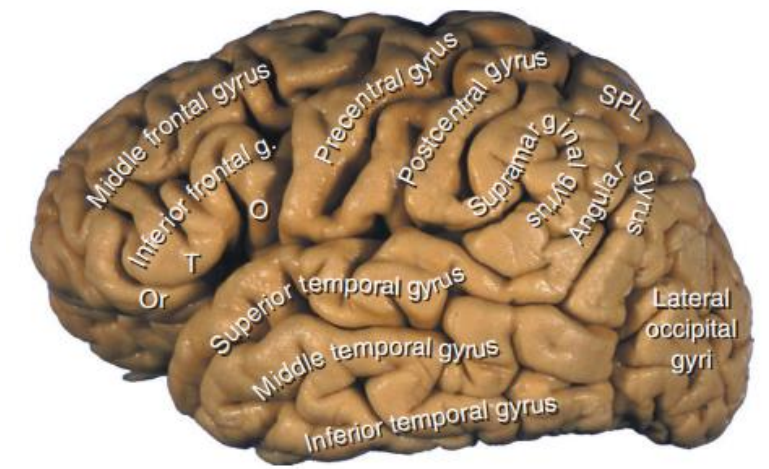
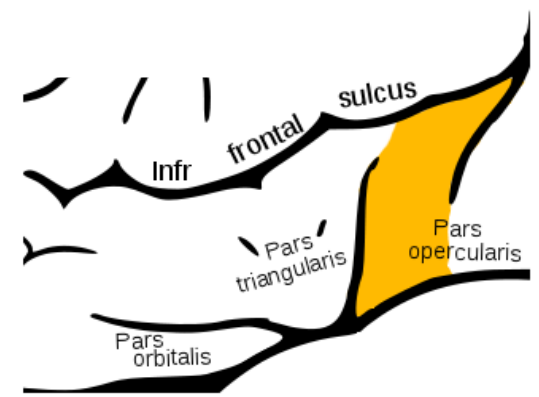
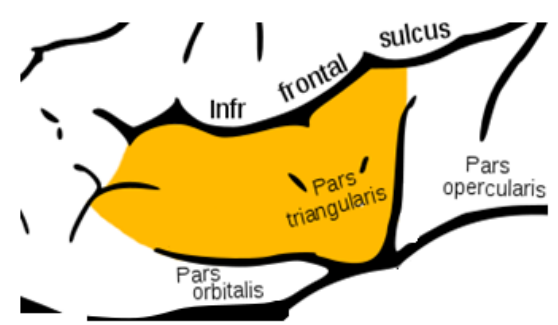
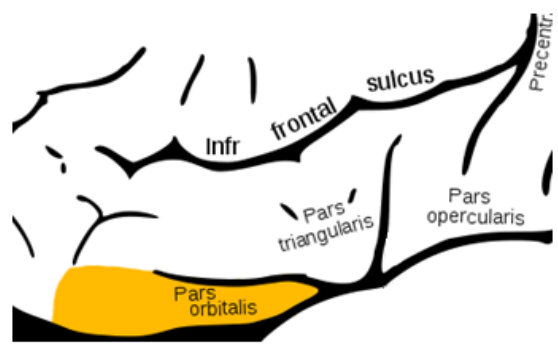






# Inferior Frontal Gyrus







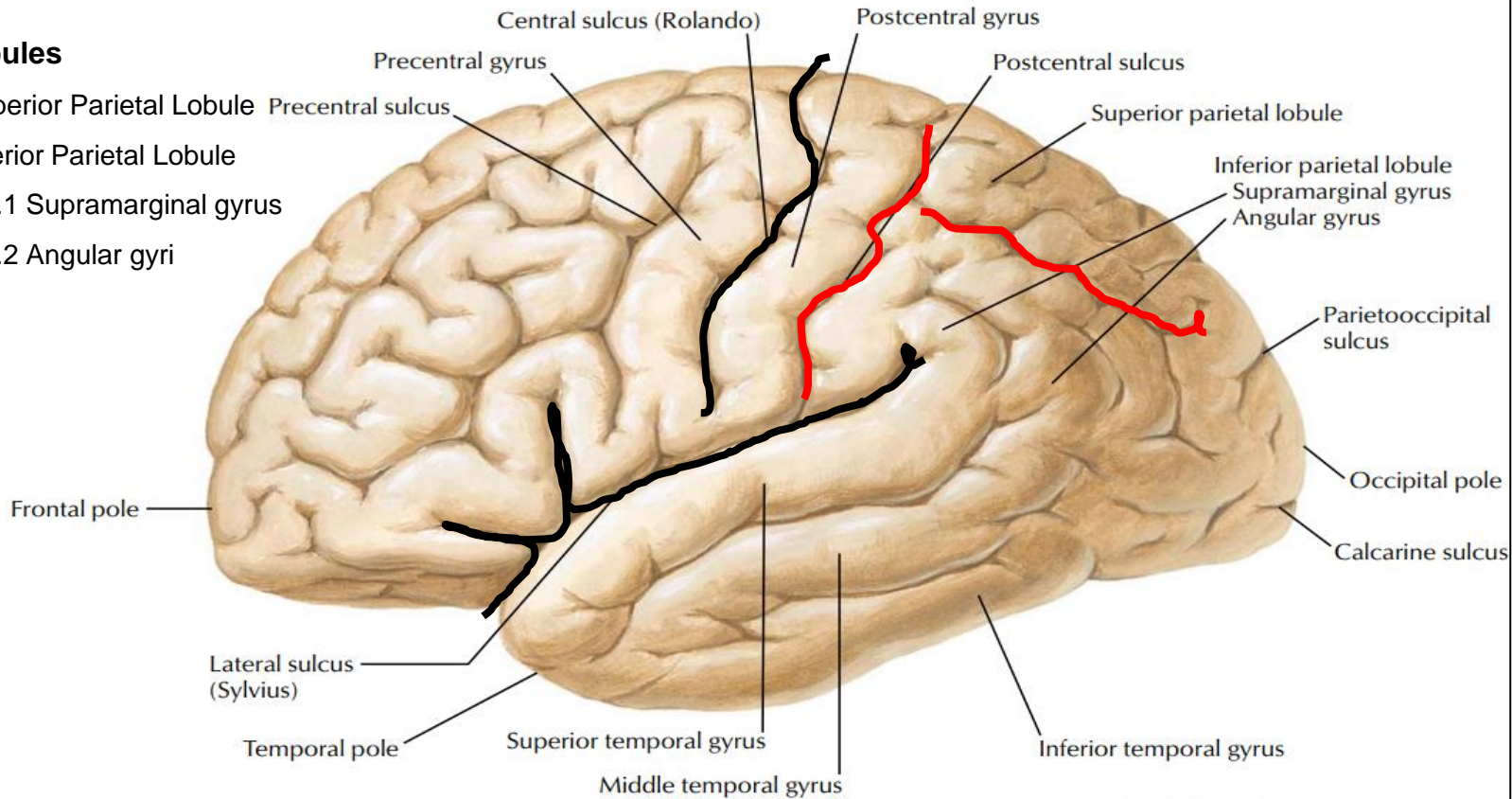
# Parietal Lobe – Lateral Surface

## Two Sulci

1. Postcentral sulcus
2. Intraparietal sulcus

## Two lobules

1. Superior Parietal Lobule
2. Inferior Parietal Lobule
  - 2.1 Supramarginal gyrus
  - 2.2 Angular gyri



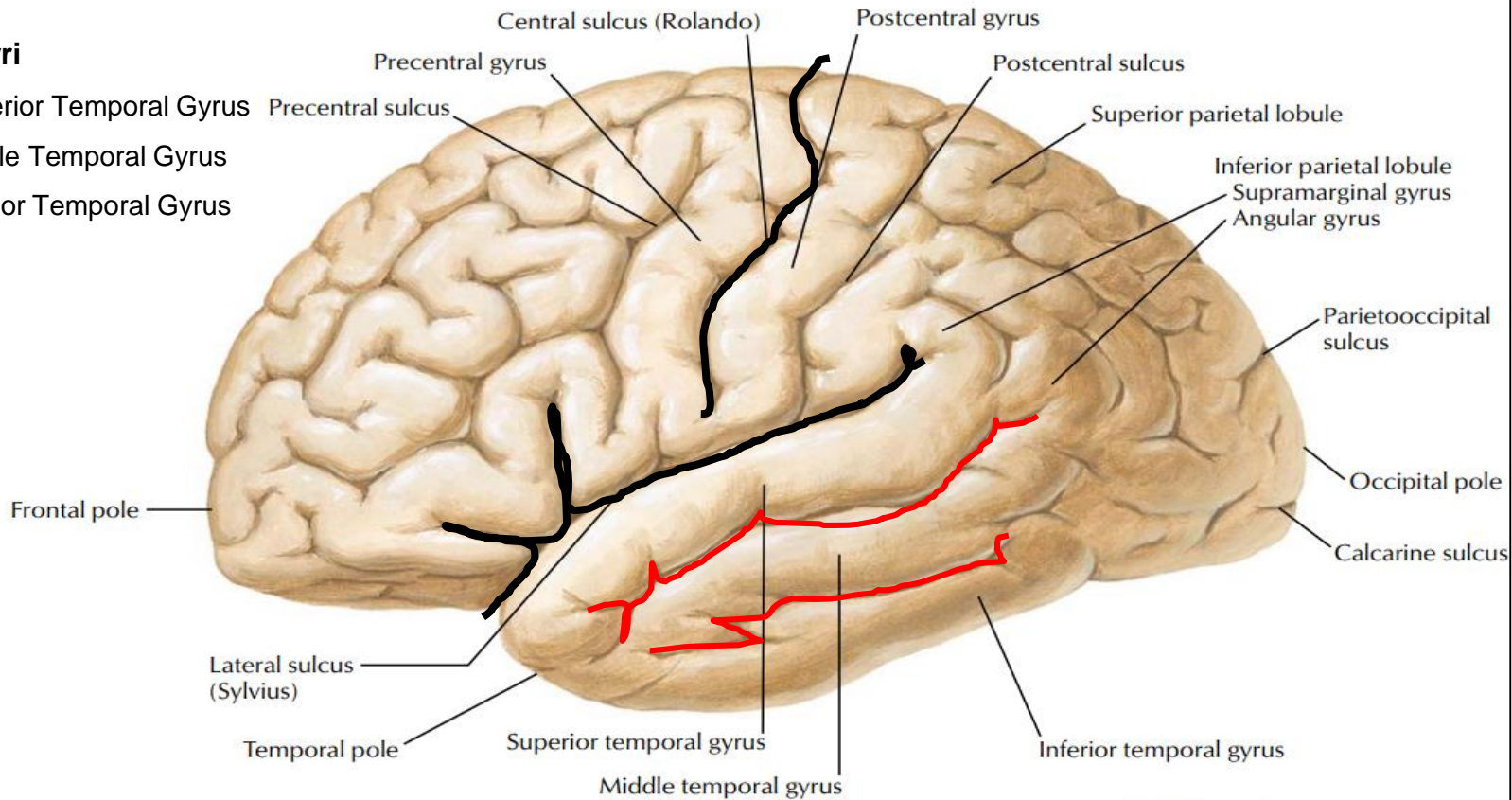
# Temporal Lobe – Lateral Surface

## Two Sulci

1. Superior Temporal Sulcus
2. Inferior Temporal Sulcus

## Three Gyri

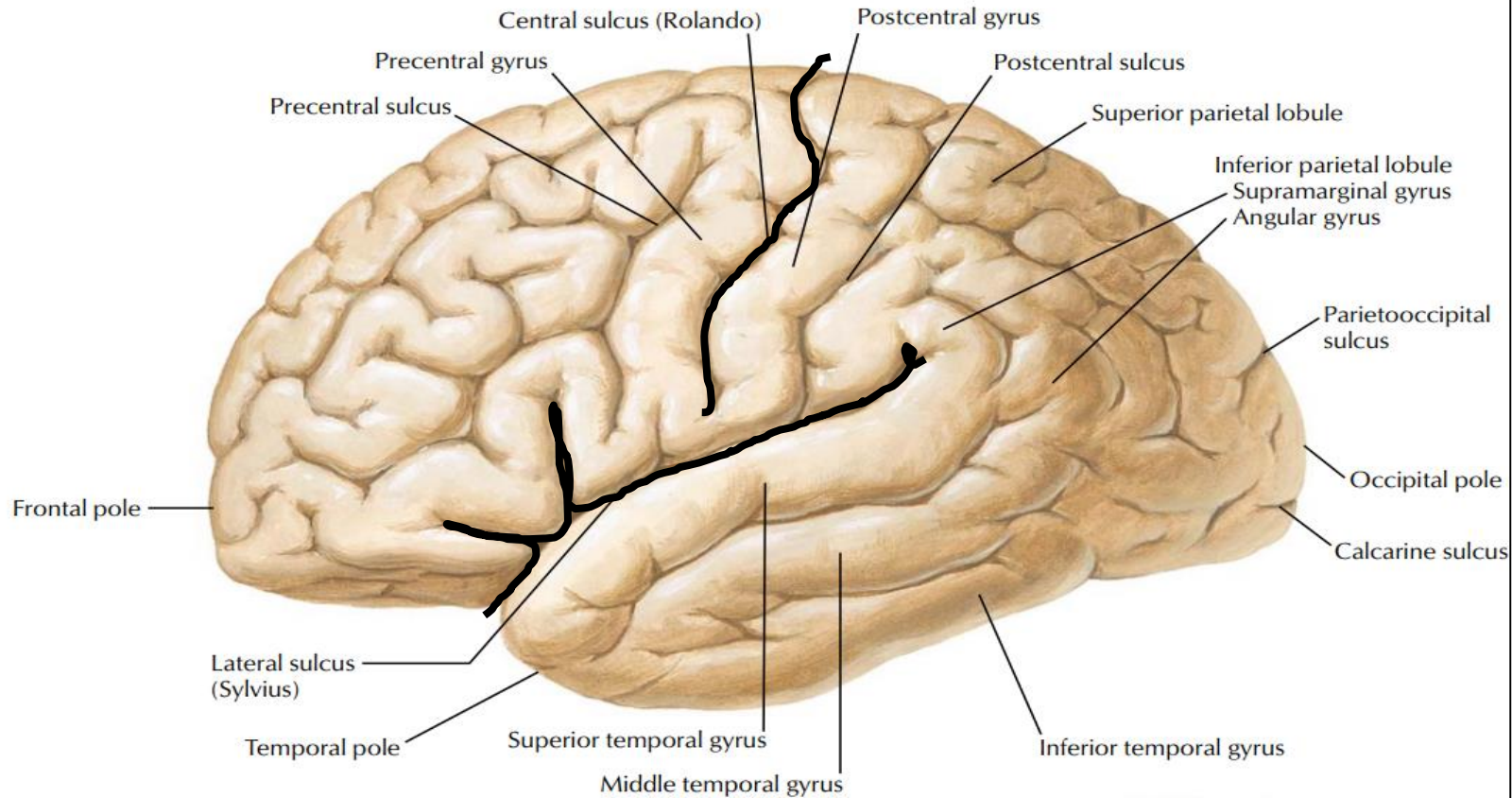
1. Superior Temporal Gyrus
2. Middle Temporal Gyrus
3. Inferior Temporal Gyrus





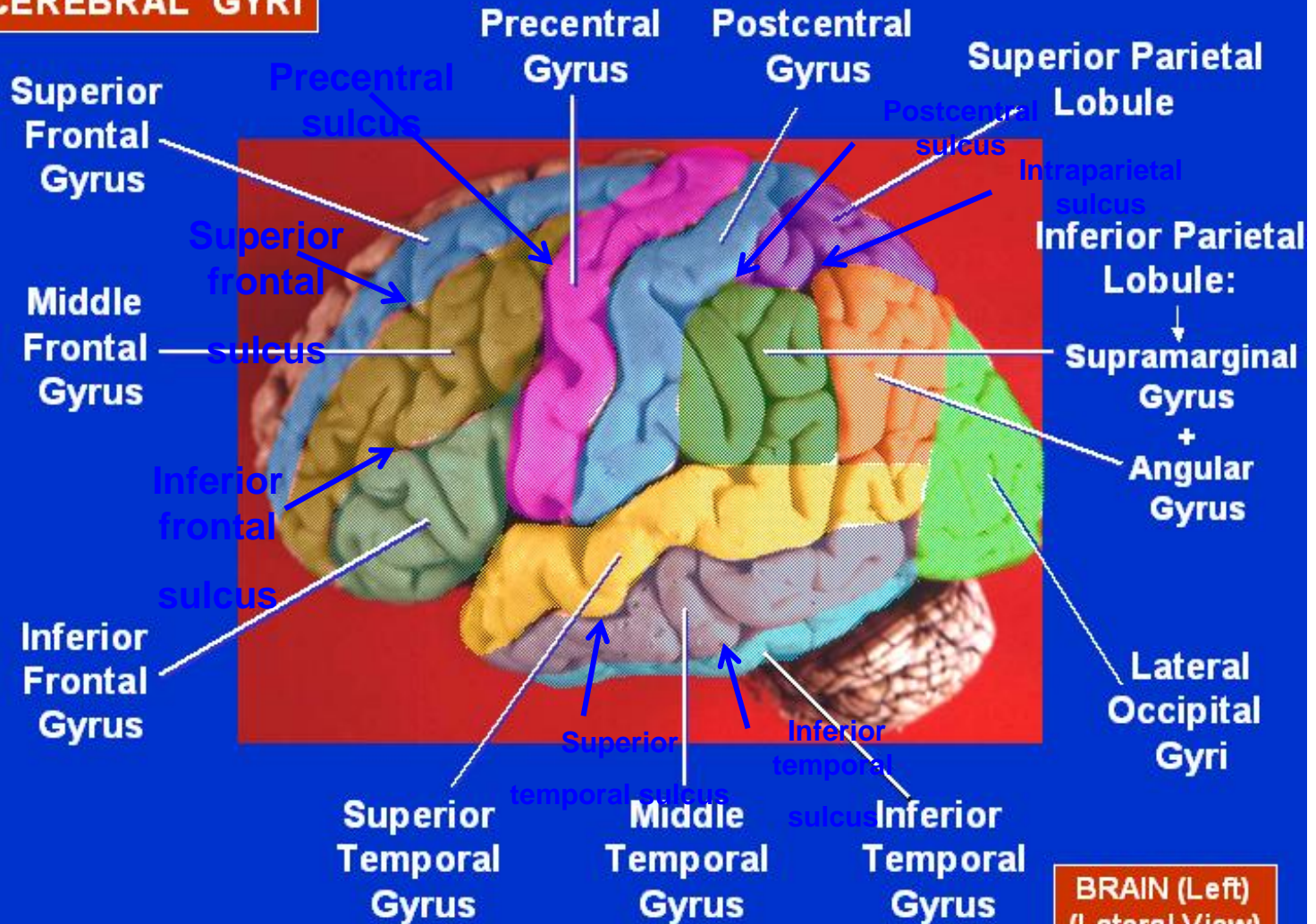
# Occipital Lobe – Lateral Surface

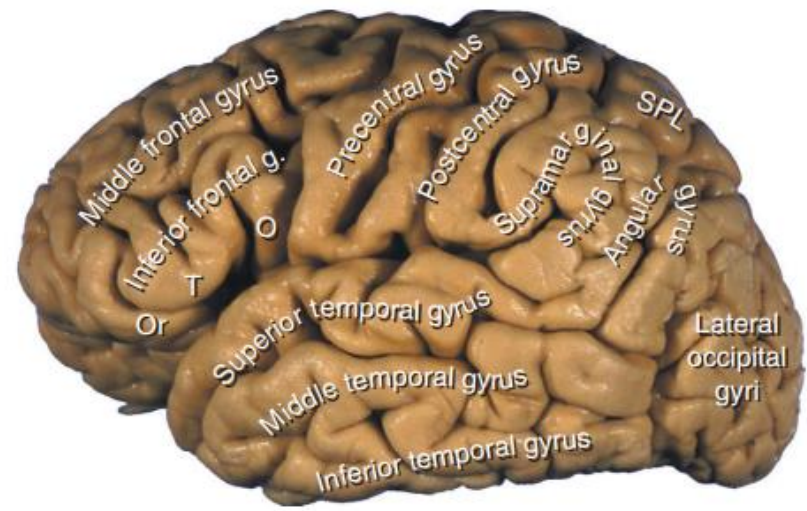
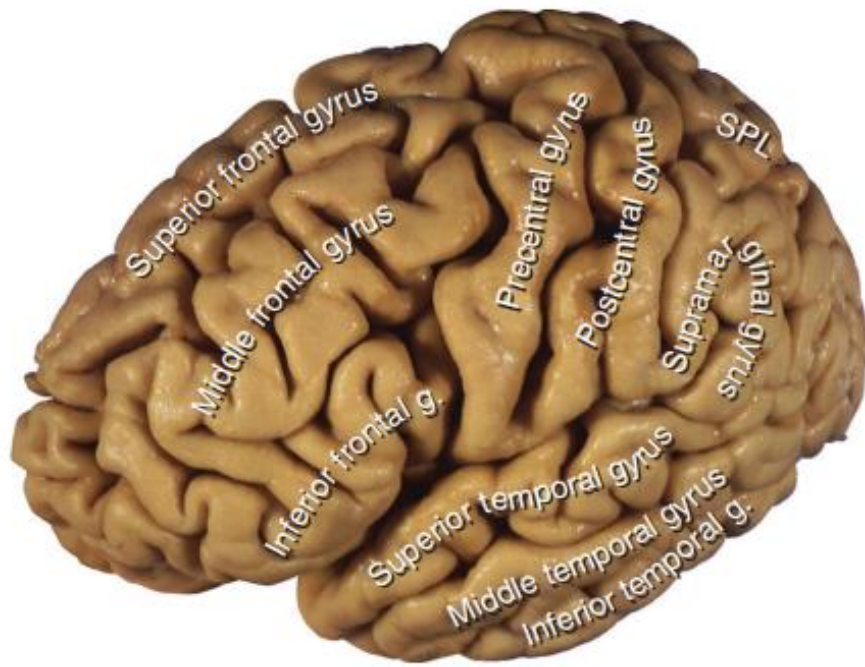
- No distinct gyri
- No distinct boundaries from the other lobes
- (only partially marked by parieto-occipital scissure)





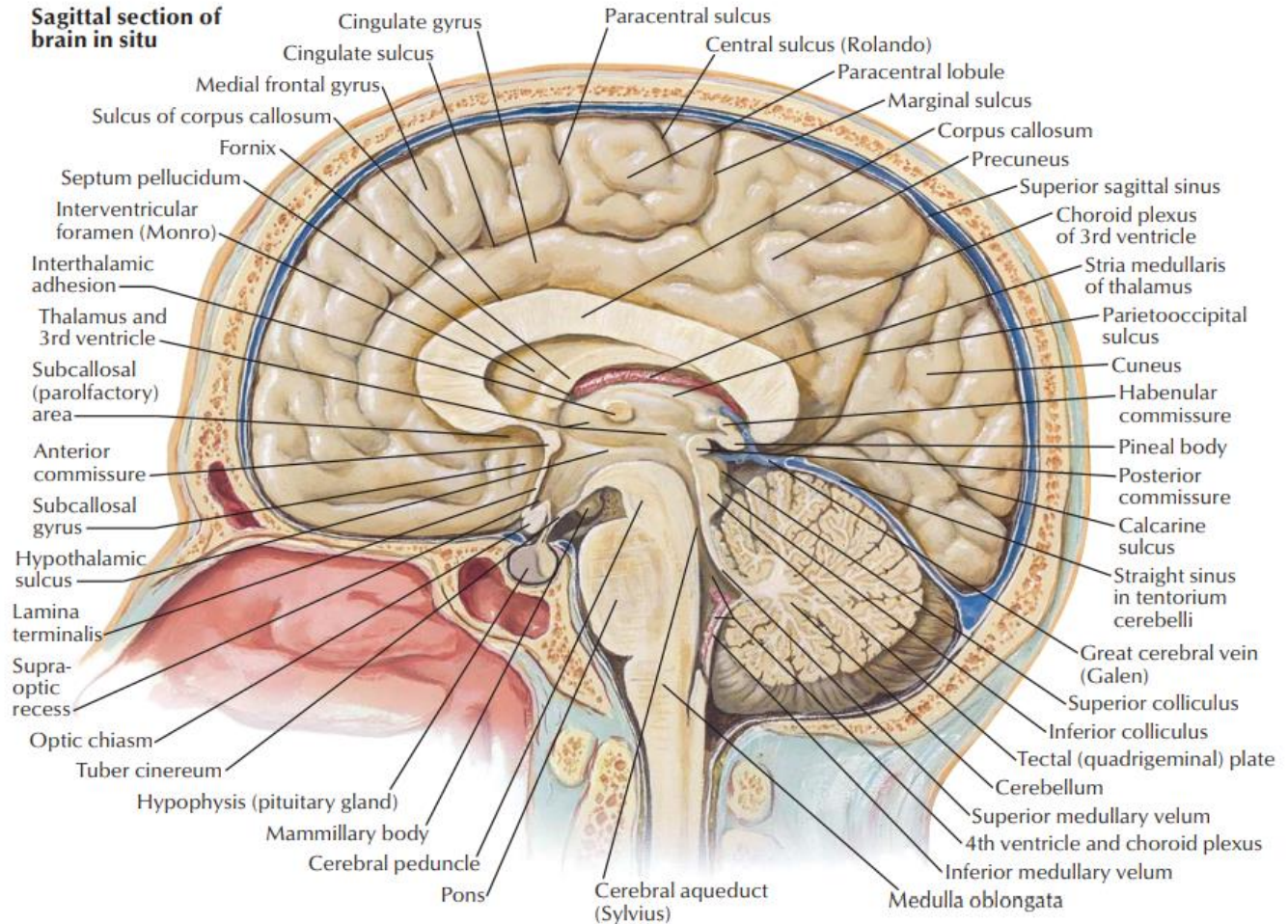
# CEREBRAL GYRI



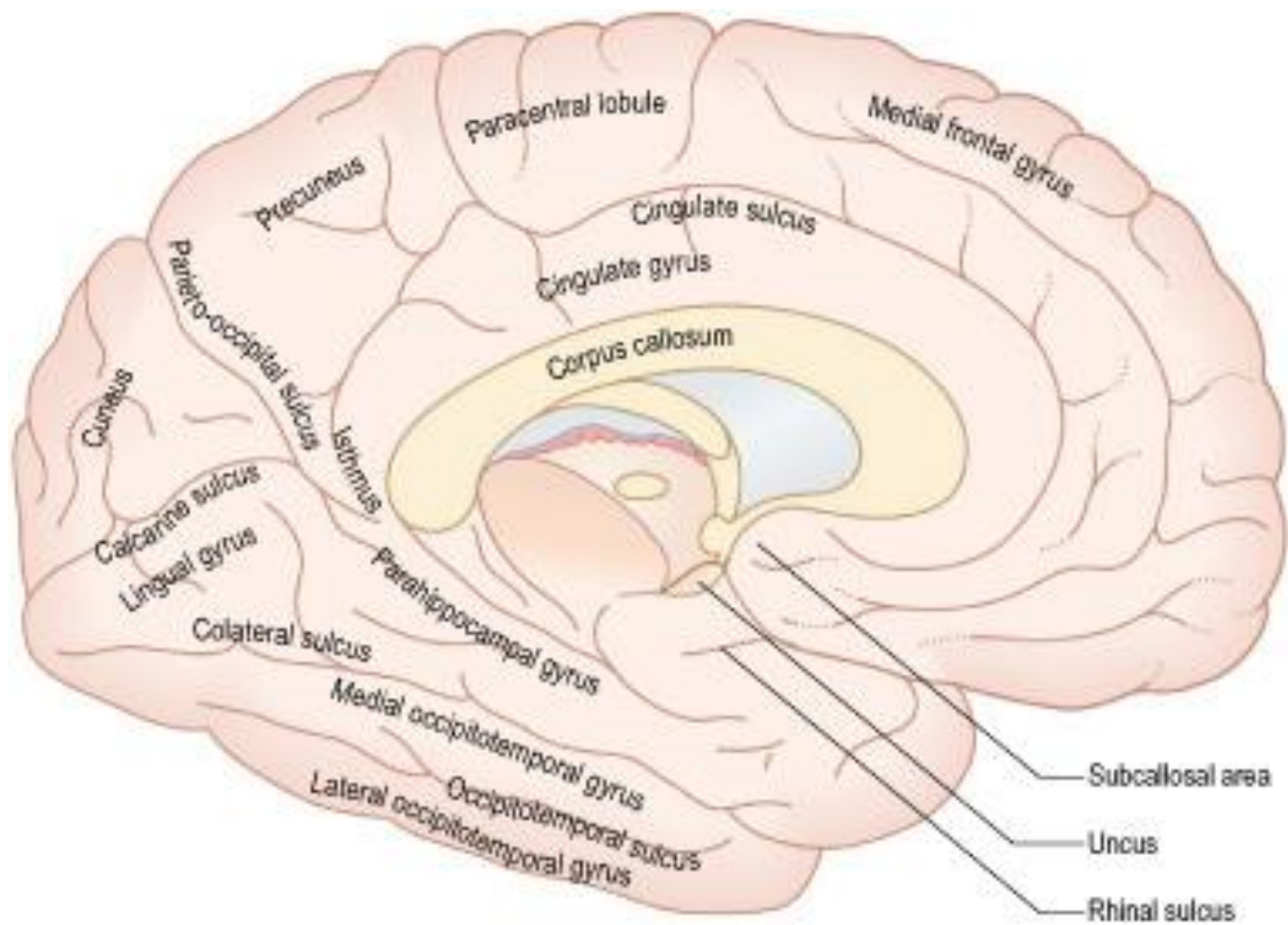


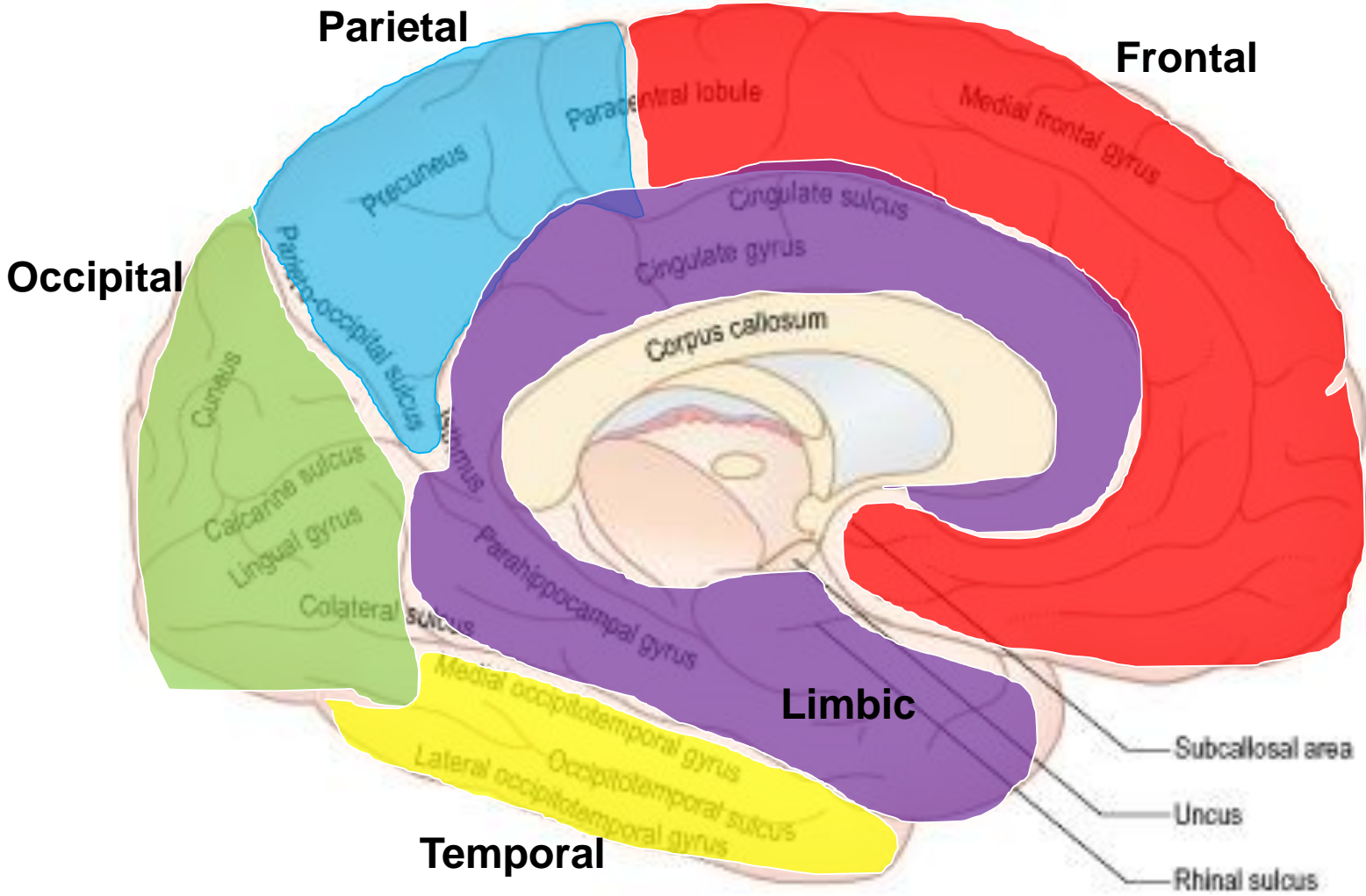


# MEDIAL SURFACE OF THE BRAIN









**Parietal**

**Frontal**

**Occipital**

**Temporal**

**Limbic**

Paracentral lobule

Medial frontal gyrus

Precuneus

Cingulate sulcus

Cingulate gyrus

Corpus callosum

Cuneus

Calcarine sulcus

Lingual gyrus

Colateral sulcus

Parahippocampal gyrus

Medial occipitotemporal gyrus

Occipitotemporal sulcus

Lateral occipitotemporal gyrus

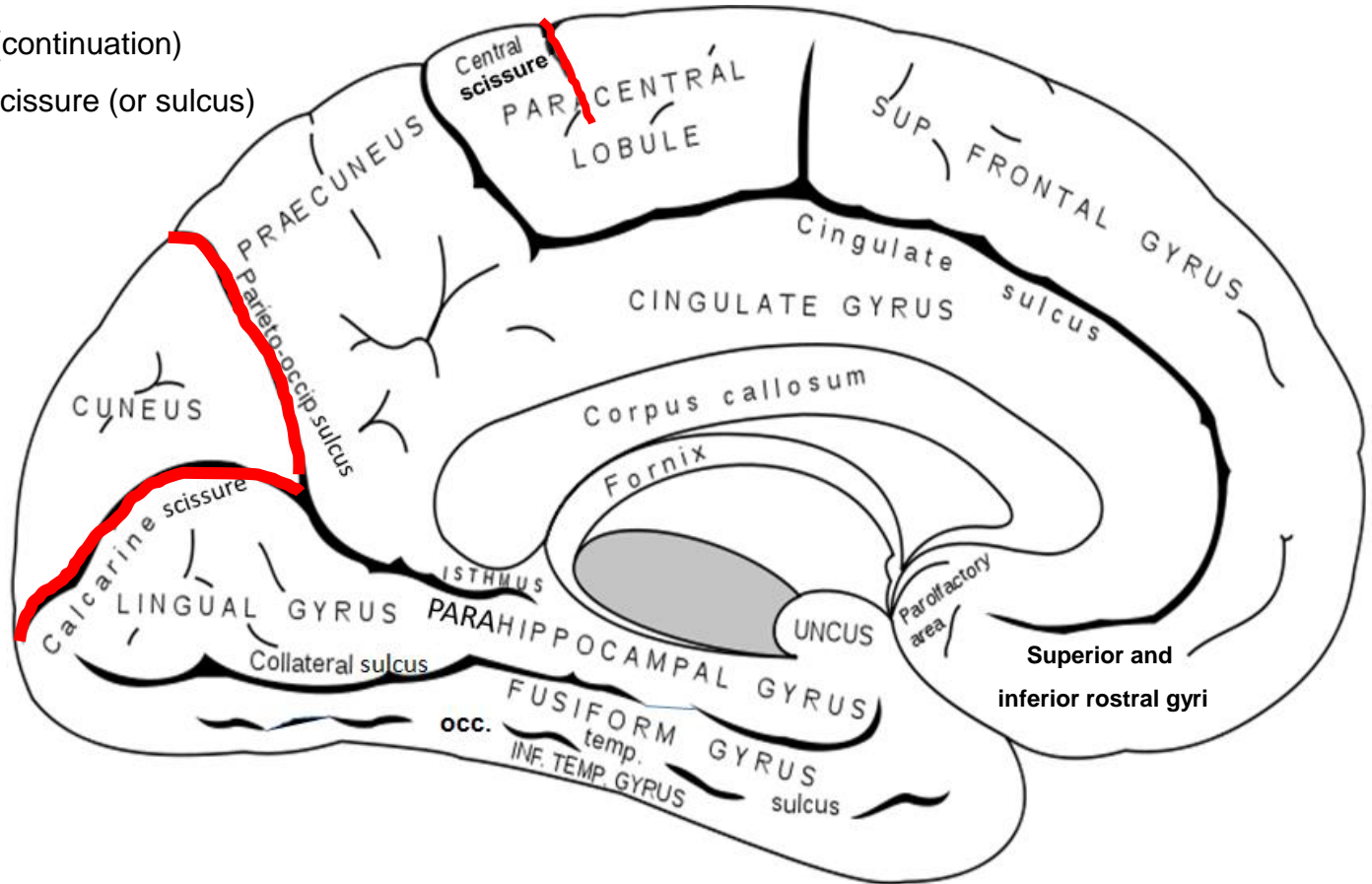
Subcallosal area

Uncus

Rhinal sulcus

# Main Scissures of the medial surface

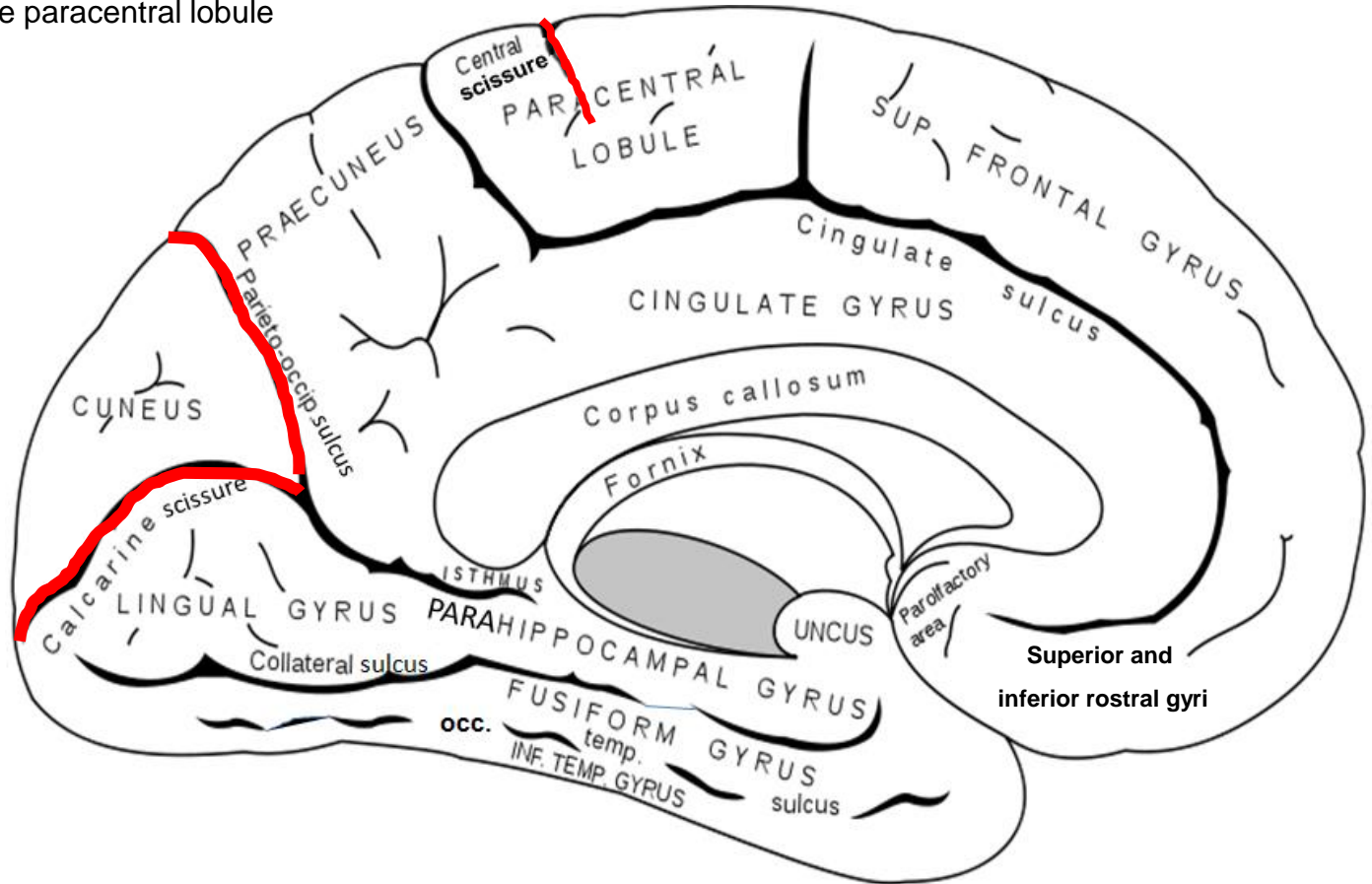
- Calcarine Scissure
- Central Scissure (continuation)
- Parieto-occipital scissure (or sulcus)

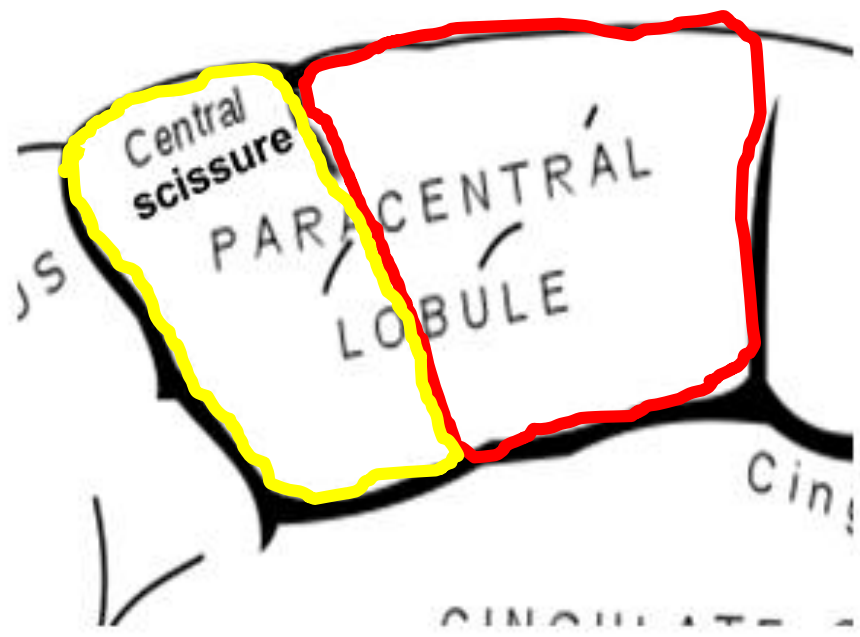




# Frontal Lobe – Medial Surface

- Superior frontal gyrus (sometimes called medial frontal gyrus)
- Inferior and superior rostral gyri
- Anterior part of the paracentral lobule





# Limbic Lobe

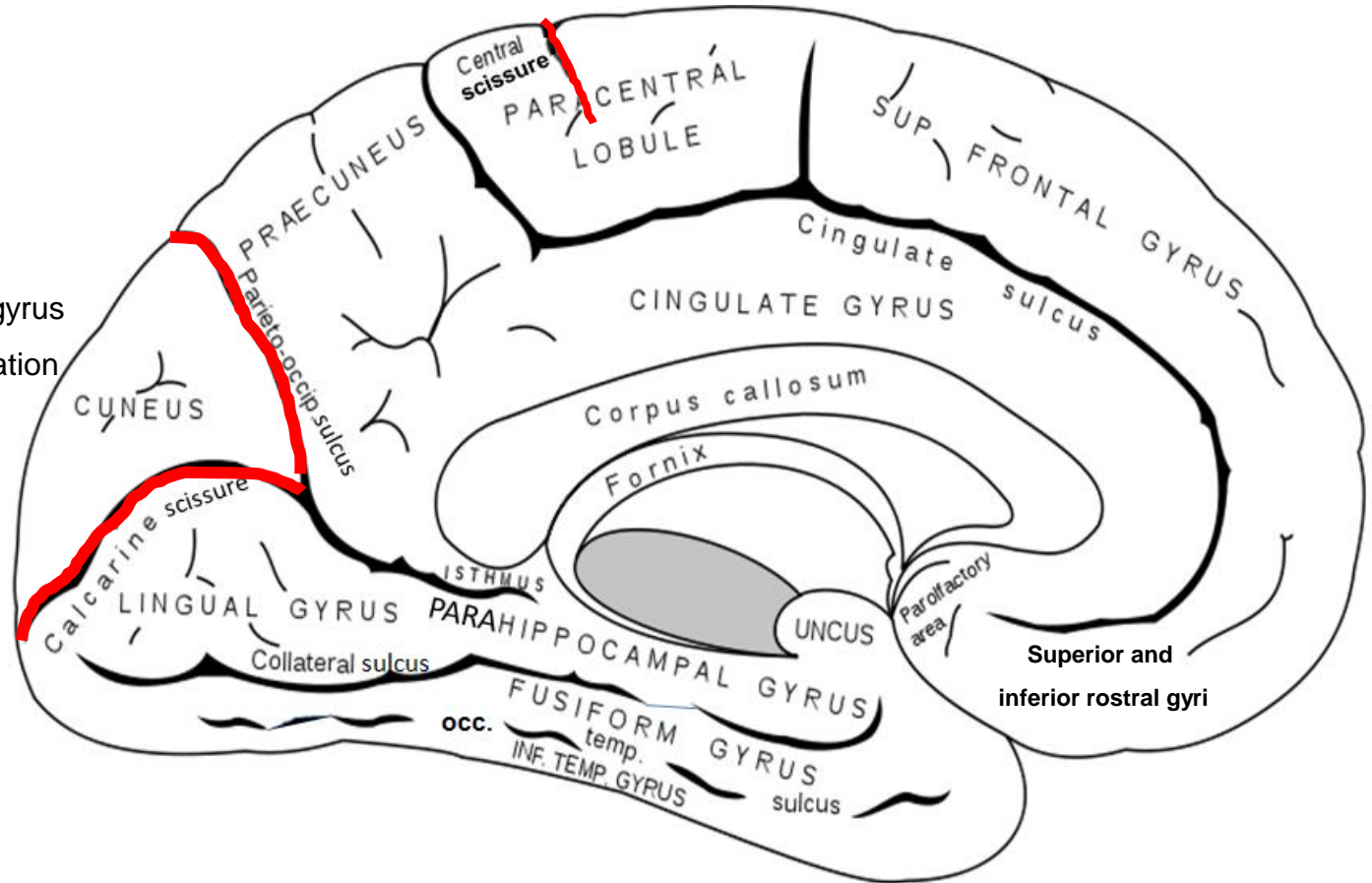
Limited by:

- Limbic Scissure (or callosal scissure)
- Cingulate Gyrus

Constituted by:

- Cingulate Gyrus
- Isthmus
- Parahippocampal gyrus
- Hippocampal formation

(hidden, not visible)







## Parietal Lobe

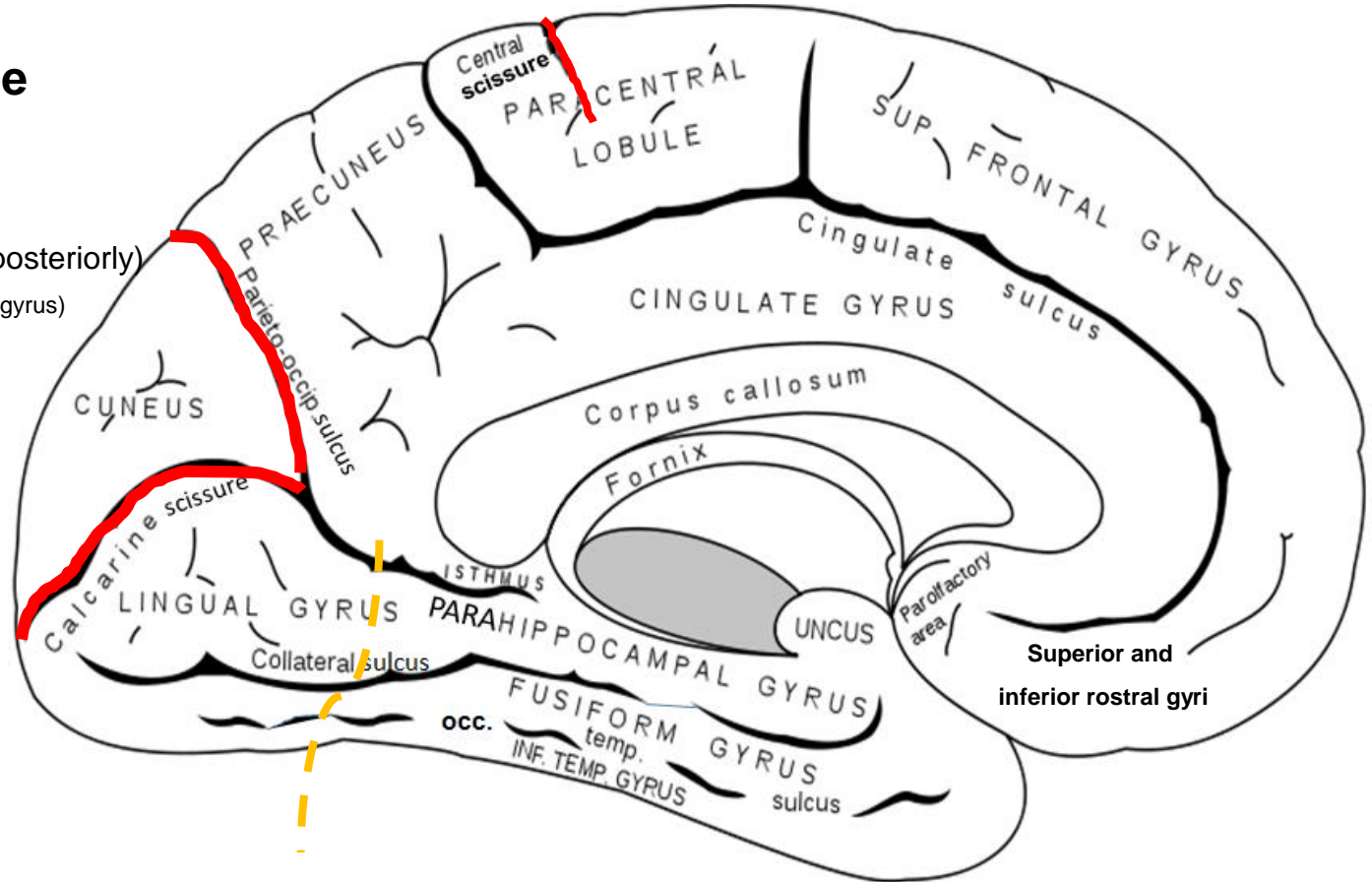
- Posterior part of the paracentral lobule
- Praecuneus

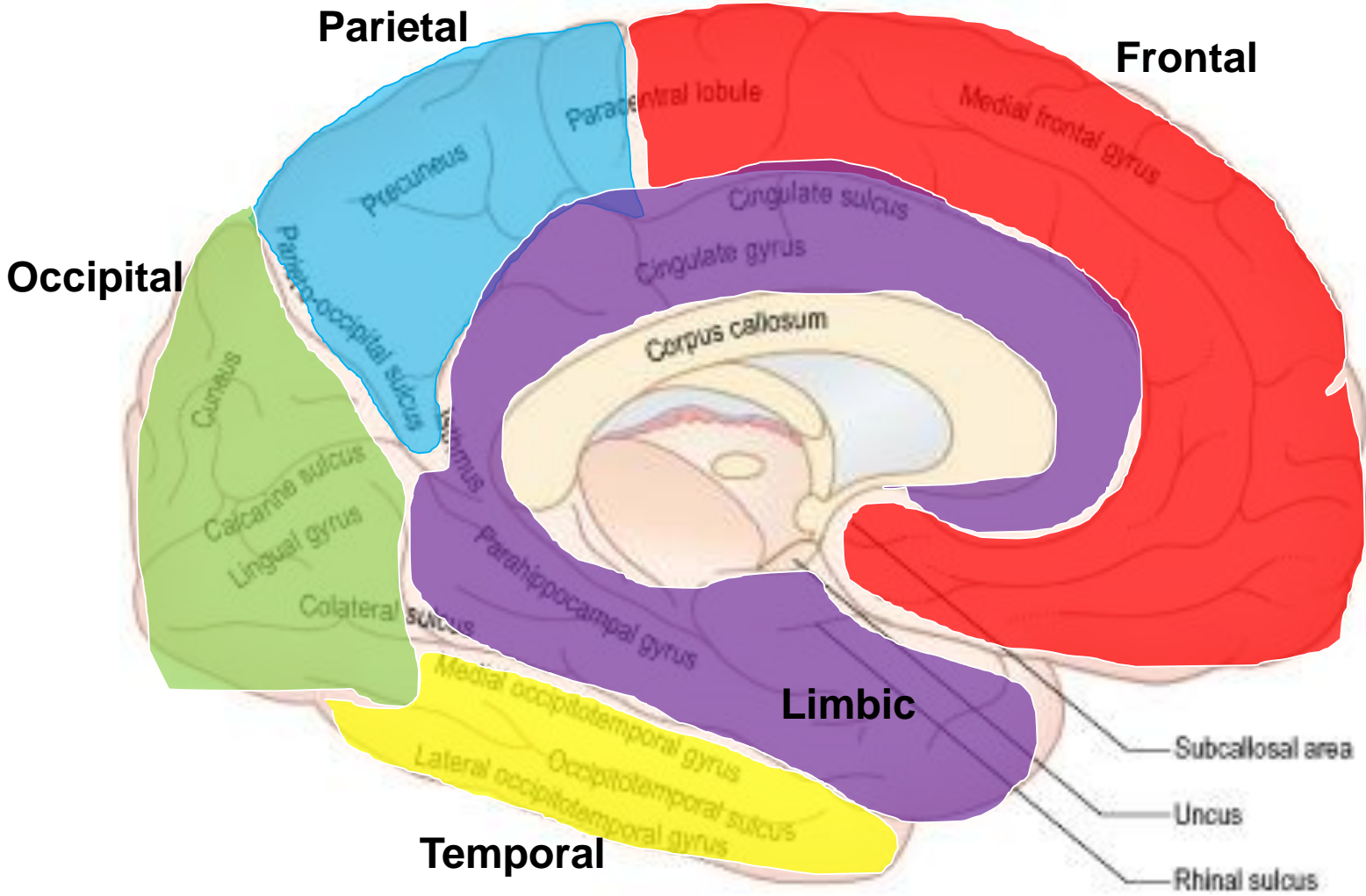
## Occipital Lobe

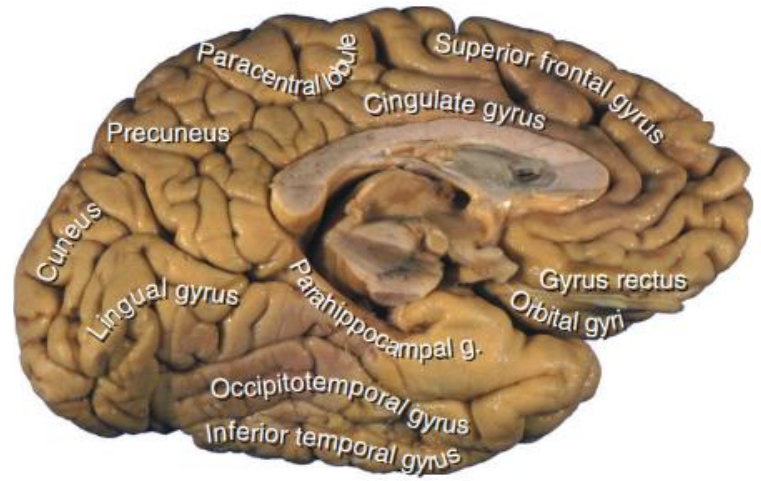
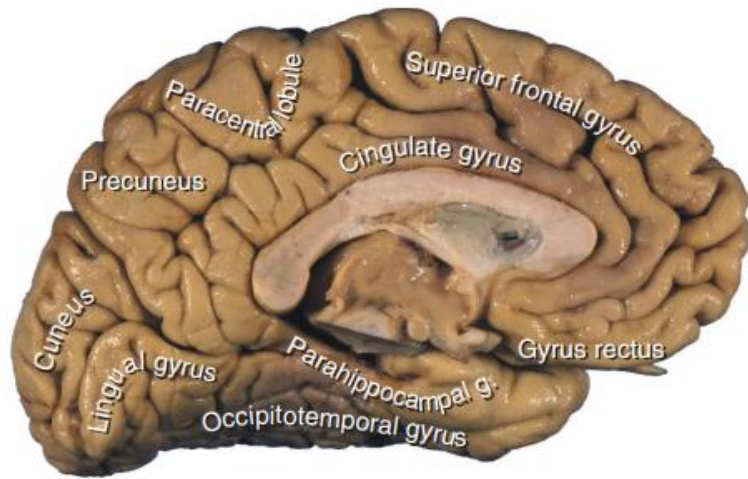
- Cuneus
- Lingual Gyrus
- Fusiform gyrus (posteriorly)  
(or medial occipito-temporal gyrus)

## Temporal Lobe

- Fusiform Gyrus (anteriorly) (or medial occipito-temporal)
- Inferior temporal (or lateral occipito-temporal)













Occipito-temporal



Medial Occipito-temporal



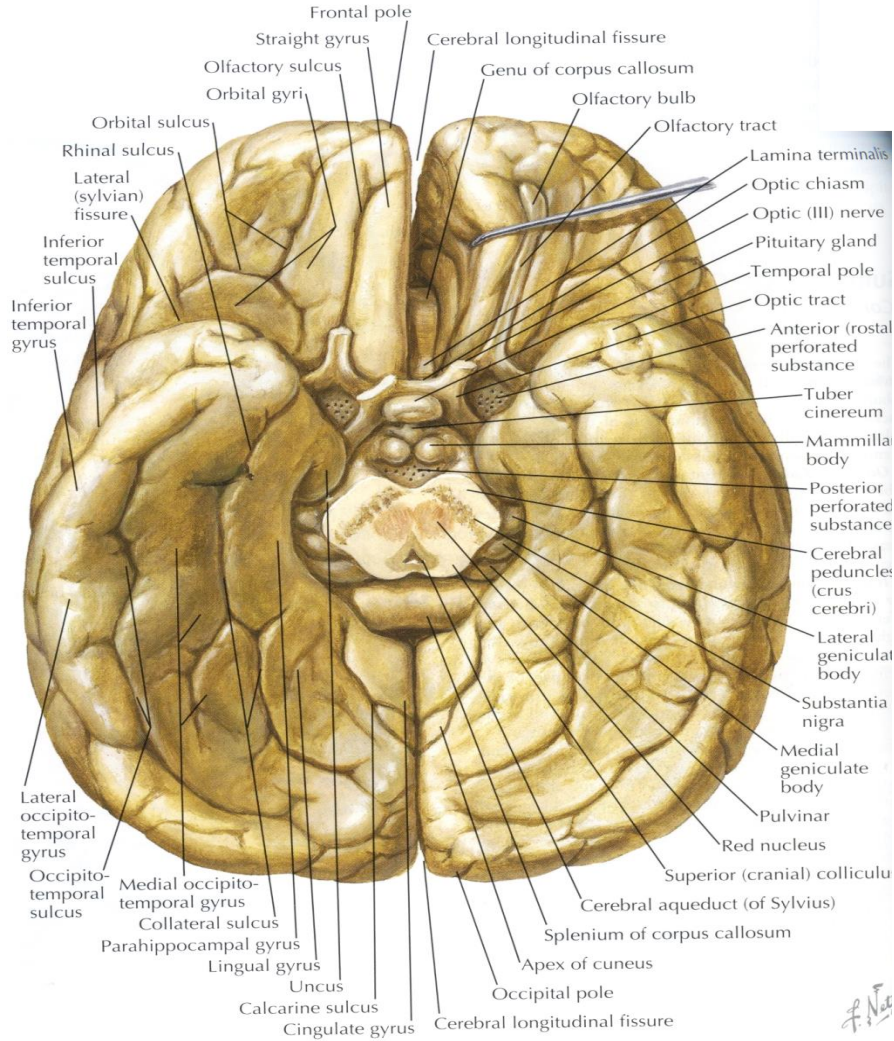
Fusiform



Fusiform v2



## INFERIOR SURFACE OF BRAIN



## Inferior surface of the brain

### Two regions:

- Frontal
- Tentorial

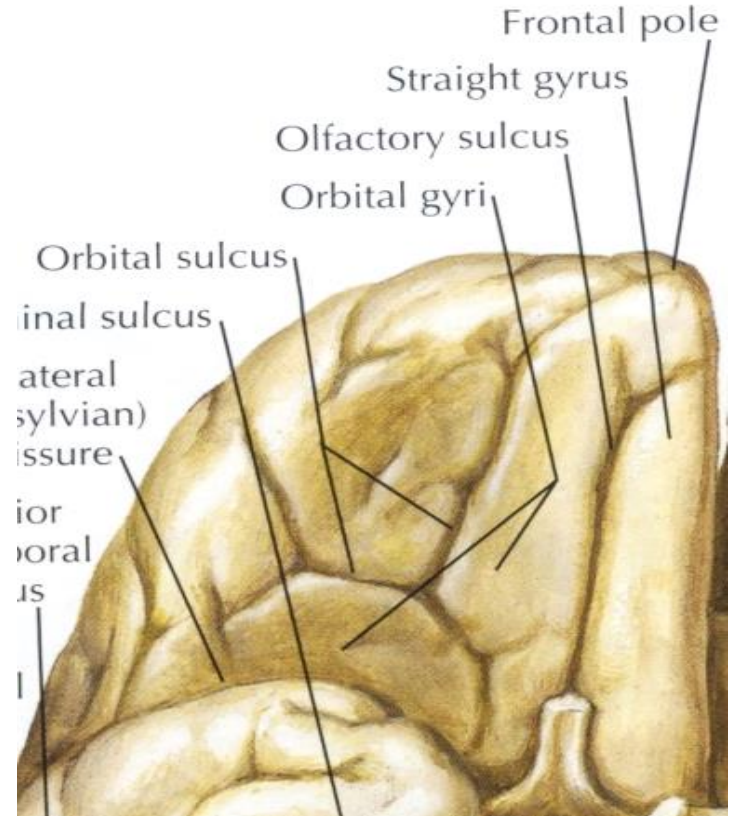
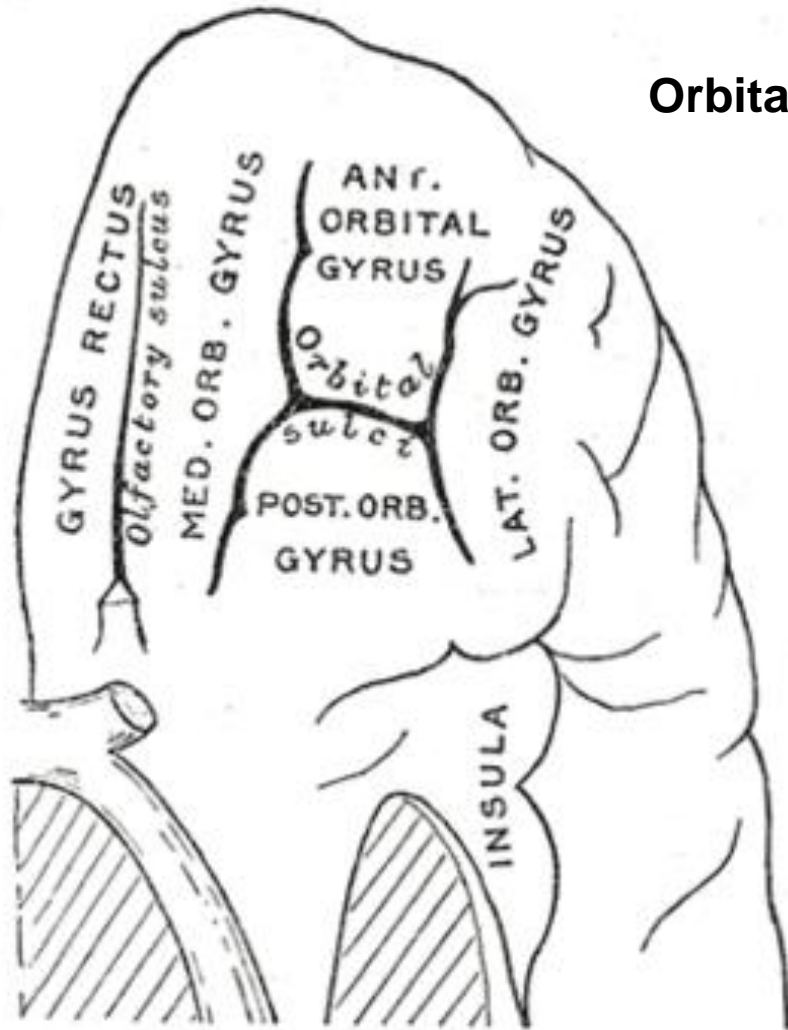
*f. Net*



# Frontal lobe

## Orbital part (orbito-frontal)

INFERIOR



## CEREBRAL GYRI

### Tentorial part

- Temporal lobe
- Limbic Lobe
- Occipital Lobe

Uncus  
of  
Parahippocampal  
Gyrus

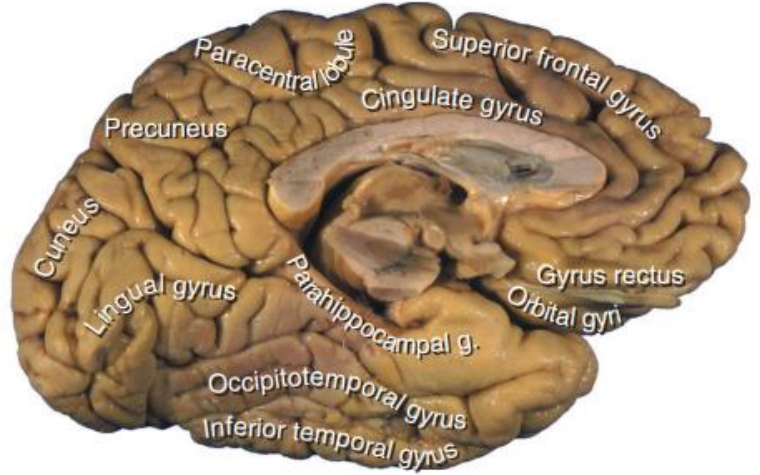
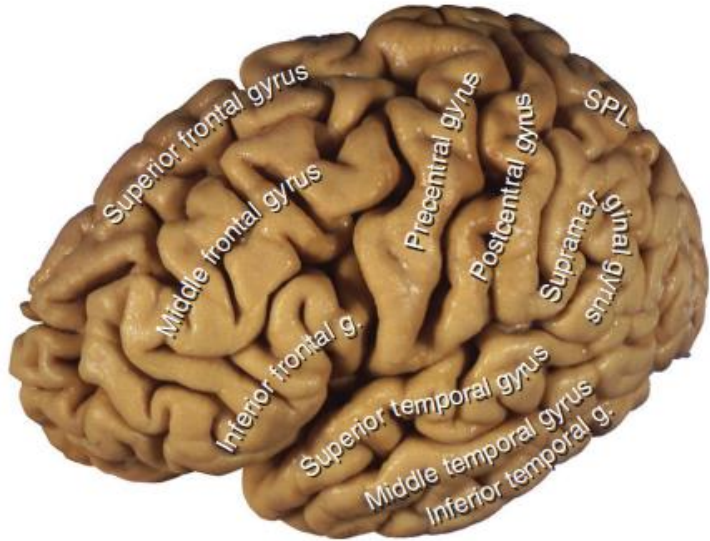
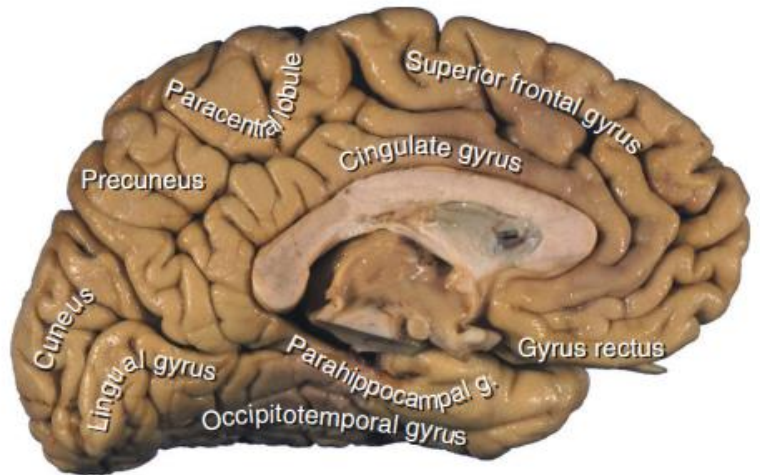
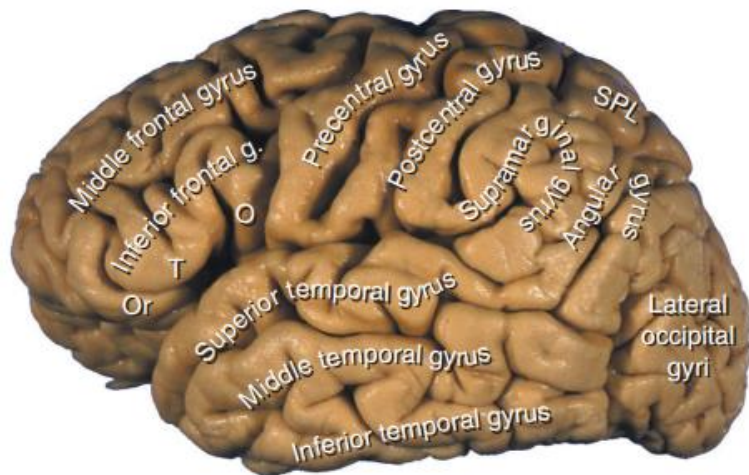


Parahippocampal  
Gyrus

Inferior  
Temporal  
Gyrus

BRAIN  
(Inferior View)

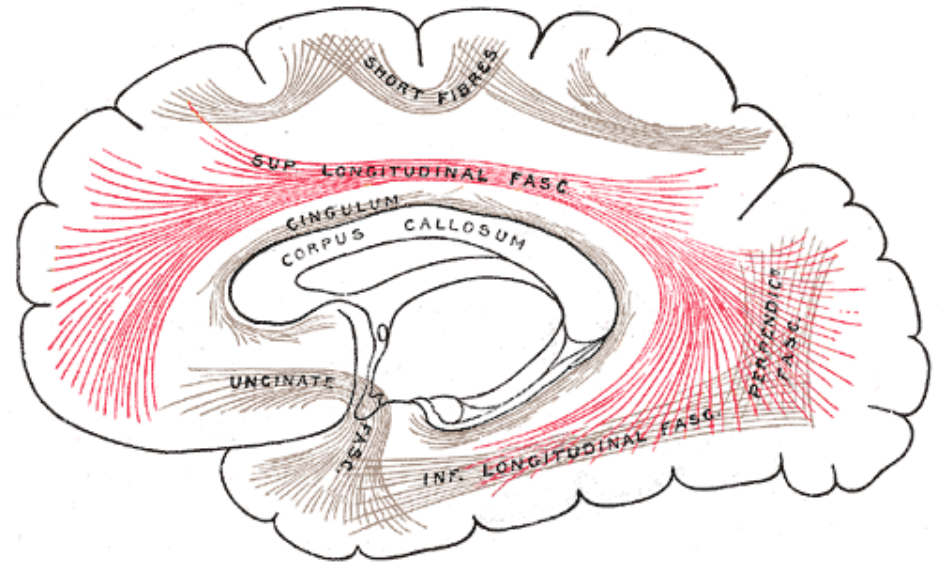






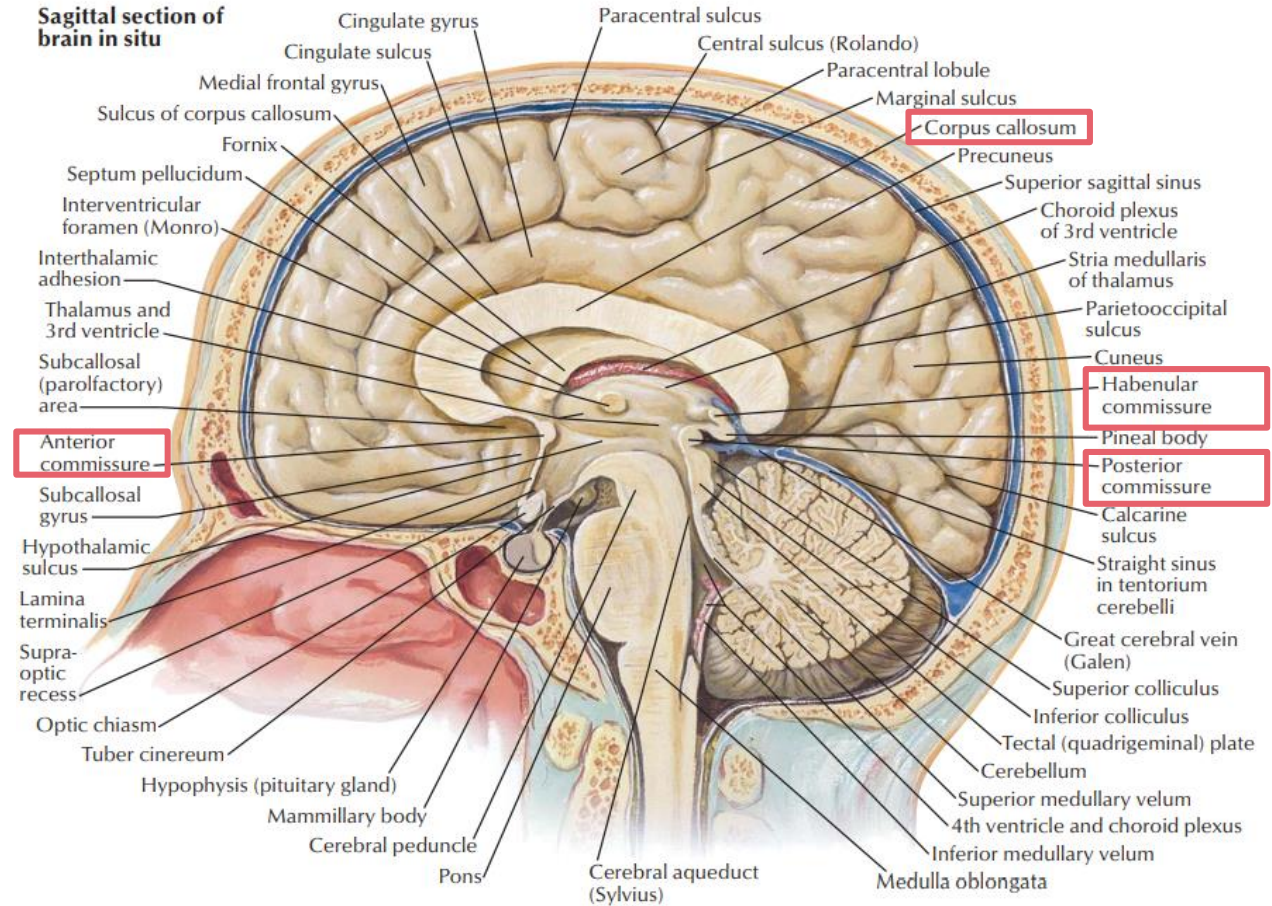
# White Matter Anatomy

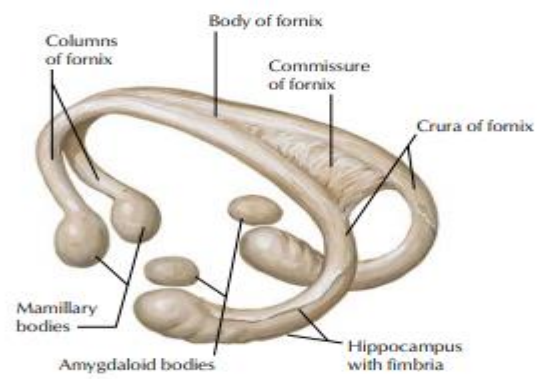
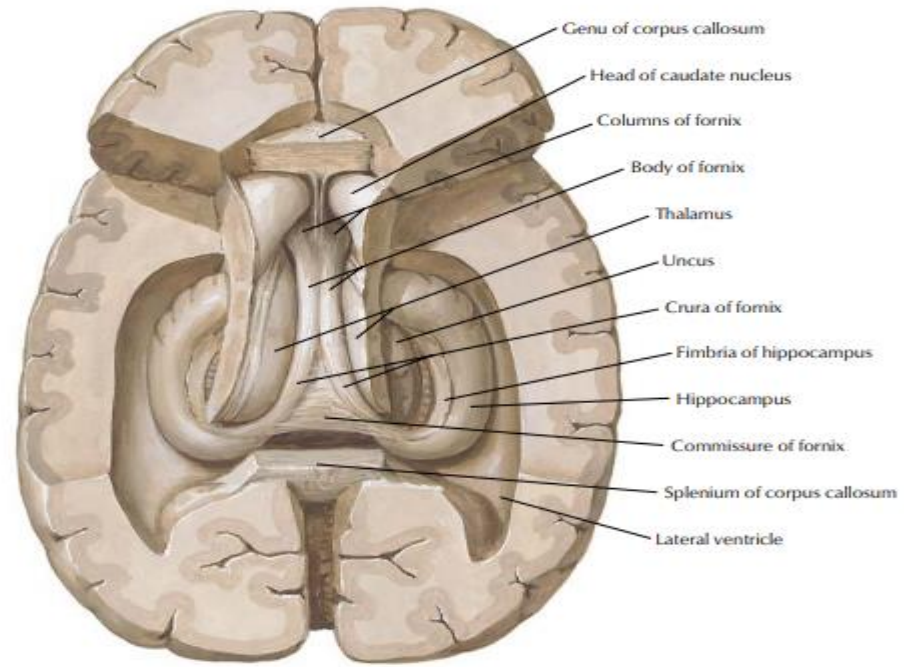
- Commissural fibers (telencephalon impar) (to the opposite hemisphere)
- Associative fibers (within the same hemisphere)
- Projection fibers (to lower targets, e.g. brainstem and spinal cord)



## Commissural systems

- Corpus Callosum
- Anterior Commissure
- Posterior Commissure
- Habenular Commissure
- Commissure of the fornix

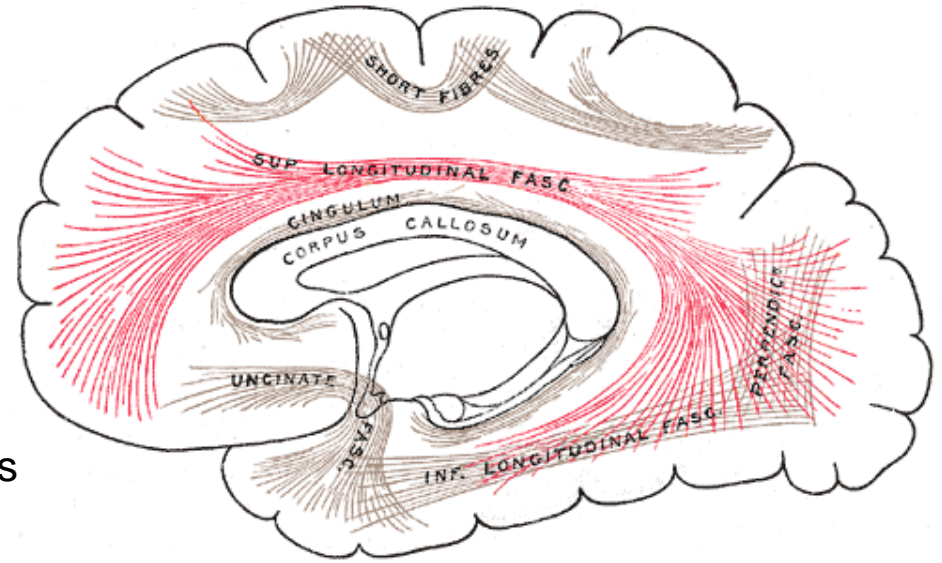






## Association systems

- Short fibers (within adjacent gyri)
- Long fibers:
  1. Cingulum (limbic lobe)
  2. Superior longitudinal fasciculus
  3. Inferior longitudinal fasciculus
  4. Superior and inferior occipito-frontal fasciculus
  5. Uncinate fasciculus
  6. Arcuate fasciculus





## Projection fibers

### Descending systems (cortico-...)

- Cortico-striatal (basal ganglia) *Extayramidal*
- Cortico-ponto-cerebellar *Esoyramidal*
- Cortico-nuclear } *Pyramidal*
- Cortico-spinal }

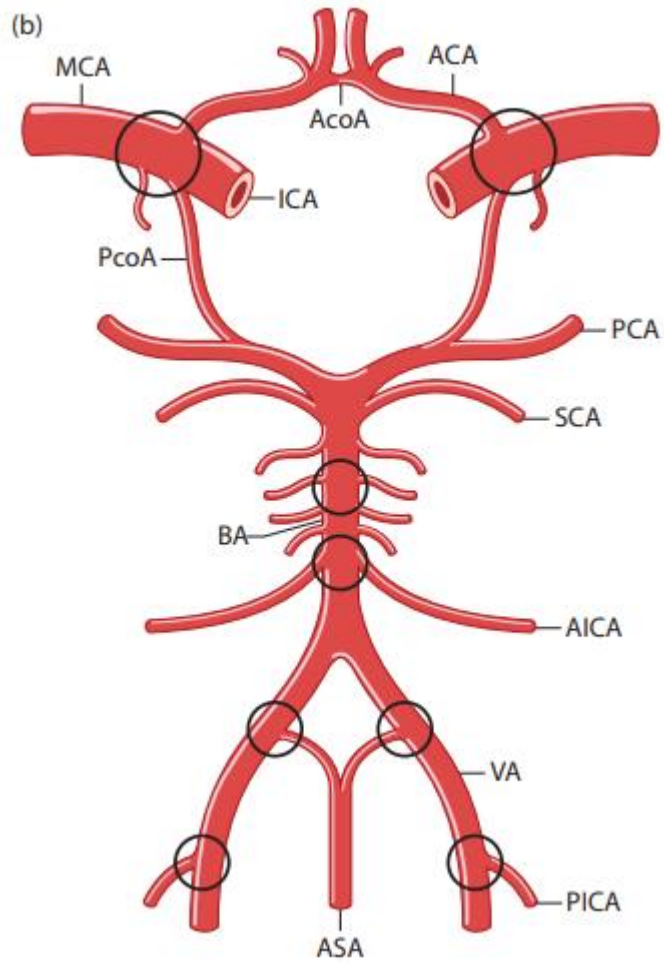
**THE ANATOMICAL BASES**  
**OF**  
**CEREBRAL VASCULAR PATHOLOGY**



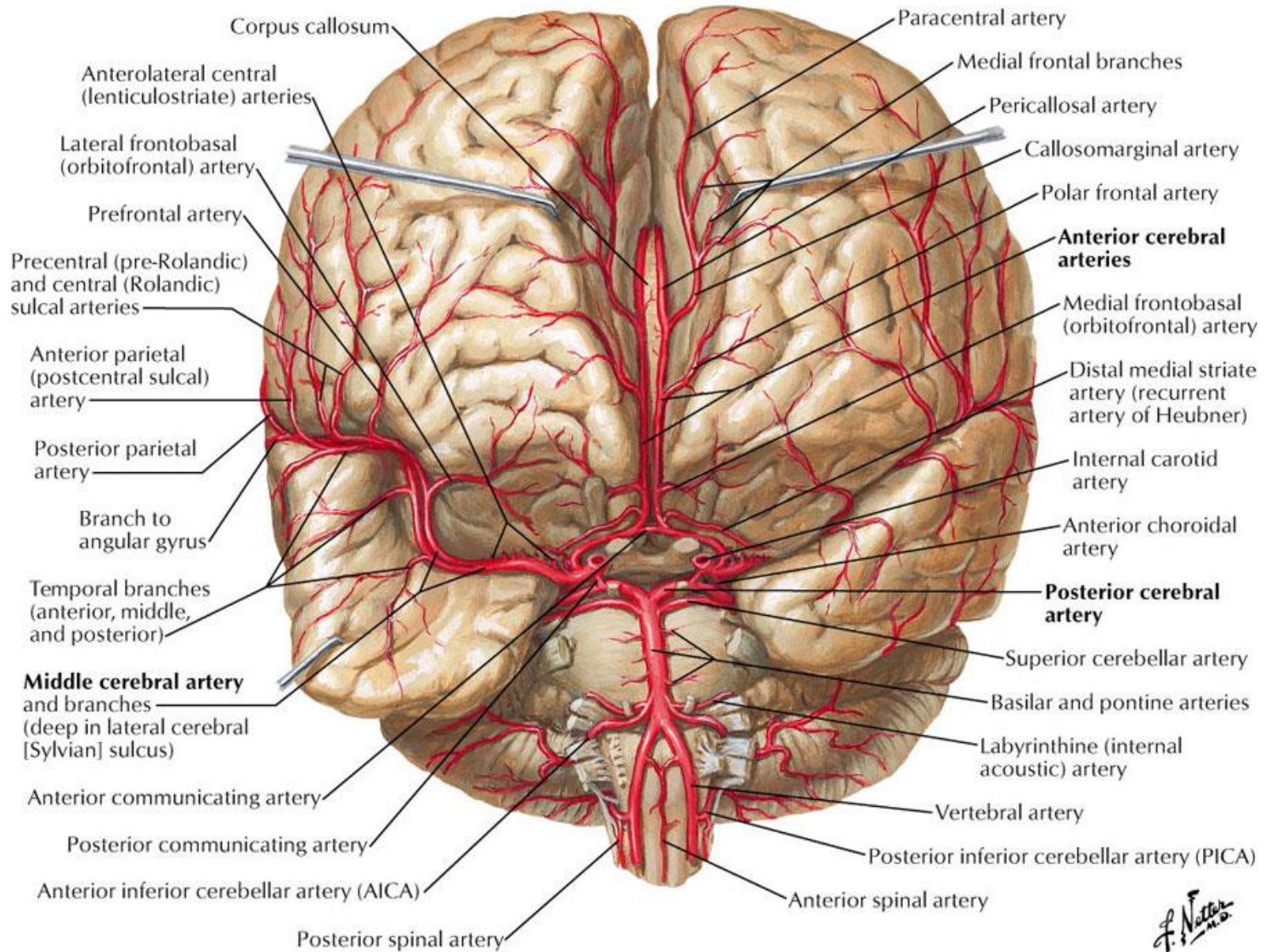
**TABLE 2.1** Terminology: definitions of key terms and concepts

Term	Description	Type of damage in brain tissue	Comment
Anoxia	No oxygen	Not a specific or useful term by itself	Carries no specific meaning in the intact organism
Anoxaemia	No oxygen in blood	Impossible to assess in intact animal	An impossibility without cardiac bypass and removal of all blood O <sub>2</sub>
Anaemic hypoxia	Low blood haemoglobin	No brain-damaging potential	Actually protective for stroke because of favourable rheology
Asphyxia	Inability to breathe	Can cause brain necrosis if ischaemia results	Includes suffocation, strangulation and some chemicals (cyanide, sulphide, azide) which paralyze breathing centres in medulla oblongata
Carbon monoxide (CO) toxicity	CO in blood, displacing O <sub>2</sub> from haemoglobin sites	Necrosis in pallido-reticularis, plus typical ischaemic distribution	Complex triad effected: anaemia (haemoglobin occupation by CO), histotoxic hypoxia (by binding to iron-rich globus pallidus), and global ischaemia due to heart failure
Haematoma	Localized bleeding (e.g. intracerebral, sub-arachnoid or sub-dural) from ruptured vessels or aneurysms	Haemorrhagic strokes result in tissue injury by causing compression of tissue from expanding bleeds	Not to be confused with hemangioma

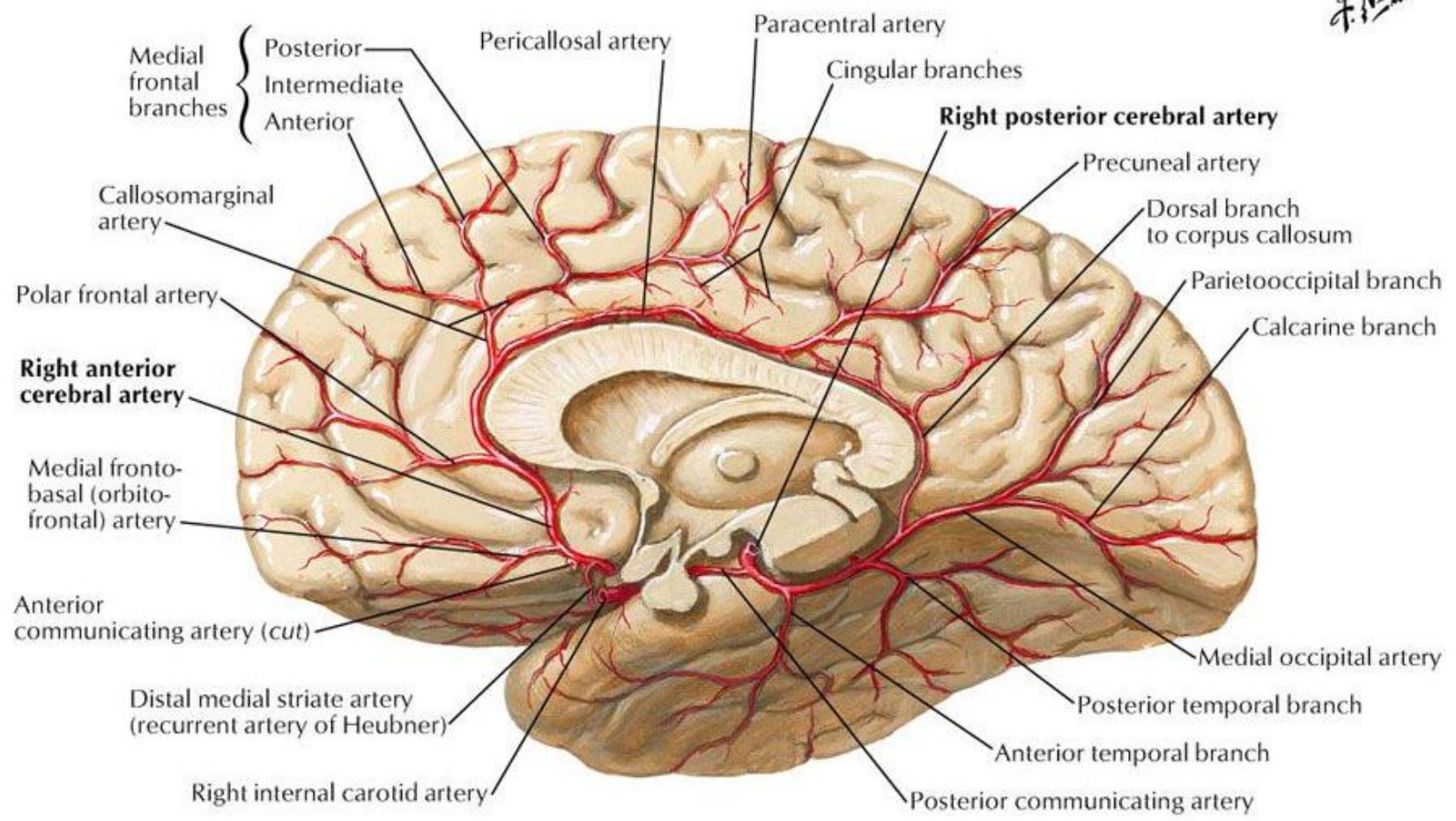
Hypoxia	Low oxygen, not further specified (tissue, blood, atmosphere)	See specific entities	Not a useful term without further qualification
Hypoxia/ischaemia	Combination of hypoxia and ischaemia	Hypoxia and ischaemia cause even greater necrosis	Occurs in strangulation and hanging; widely used incorrectly to describe pure ischaemia; cardiac arrest encephalopathy and global ischaemia are better terms, if that is what is meant
Hypoxaemia	Low oxygen in blood	Reversible synaptic alterations without neuronal necrosis	Seen in respiratory tract disease (larynx, trachea, bronchi, bronchioles), not in pure cardiovascular disease; tends to occur in younger patients; causes tissue hypoxia that is not necrotizing
Hypobaric hypoxia	Hypoxaemia accompanying decrease in ambient $pO_2$	Reversible synaptic alterations (at very high altitudes), but without neuronal necrosis	Temporary synaptic alterations produce 'high-altitude stupid' (HAS) syndrome; capillary leakage produces high altitude cerebral oedema (HACE), which is potentially lethal; both reverse on descent or on increasing inspired $O_2$
Histotoxic hypoxia	Tissue utilization of oxygen impaired	No brain-damaging potential without accompanying hypotension	Examples: poisoning by cyanide, sulphide and azide
Ischaemia	Cessation of blood flow to tissue; no perfusion	Variable cellular damage, neurons most vulnerable	Often also used (albeit imprecisely) to describe reduced blood flow — oligoemia
Oligoemia	Low blood flow, hypoperfusion	Selective vulnerability	Close to normal but still insufficient
Tissue hypoxia (global ischaemia)	Low tissue $pO_2$ due to global ischaemia	Necrosis (both pan-necrosis and selective neuronal necrosis) in brain regions of selective vulnerability	Decreased tissue $pO_2$ due to imbalance between delivery and utilization everywhere in brain
Tissue hypoxia (focal ischaemia)	Low tissue $pO_2$ due to focal ischaemia	Necrosis is usually pan-necrosis and does not spare glia	Decreased tissue $pO_2$ due to imbalance between delivery and utilization in focal arterial distribution
Watershed infarction	Localized to the border zones between territories of two major arteries (e.g. anterior cerebral artery [ACA] and middle cerebral artery [MCA] or MCA and posterior cerebral artery [PCA])	Ischaemic injury	Analogous to a lawn watered by multiple sprinklers: occlusion of the hose leads to a dry lawn in the territory centred on a sprinkler (or artery), but low pressure (hypotension) leads to a dry lawn between the sprinklers.



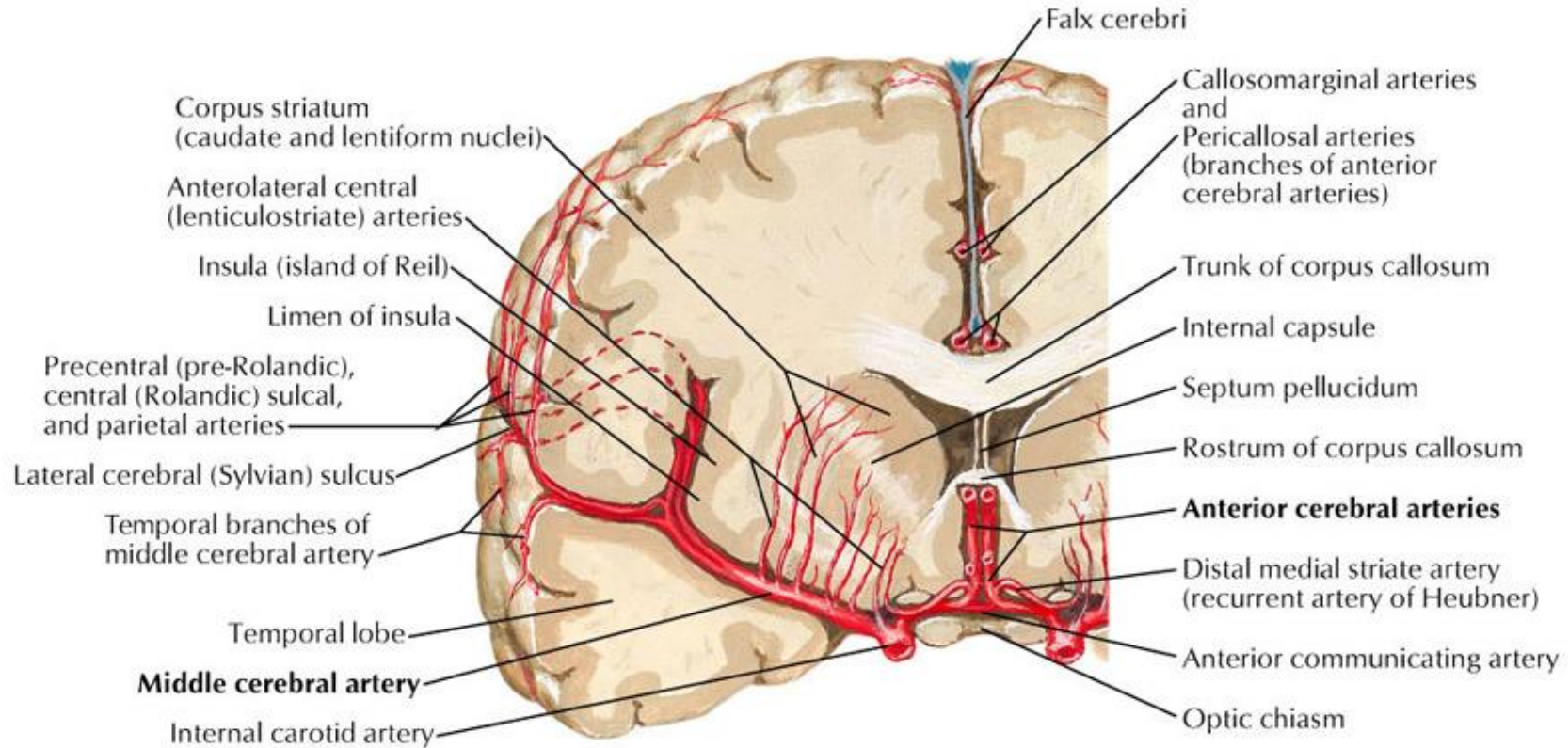




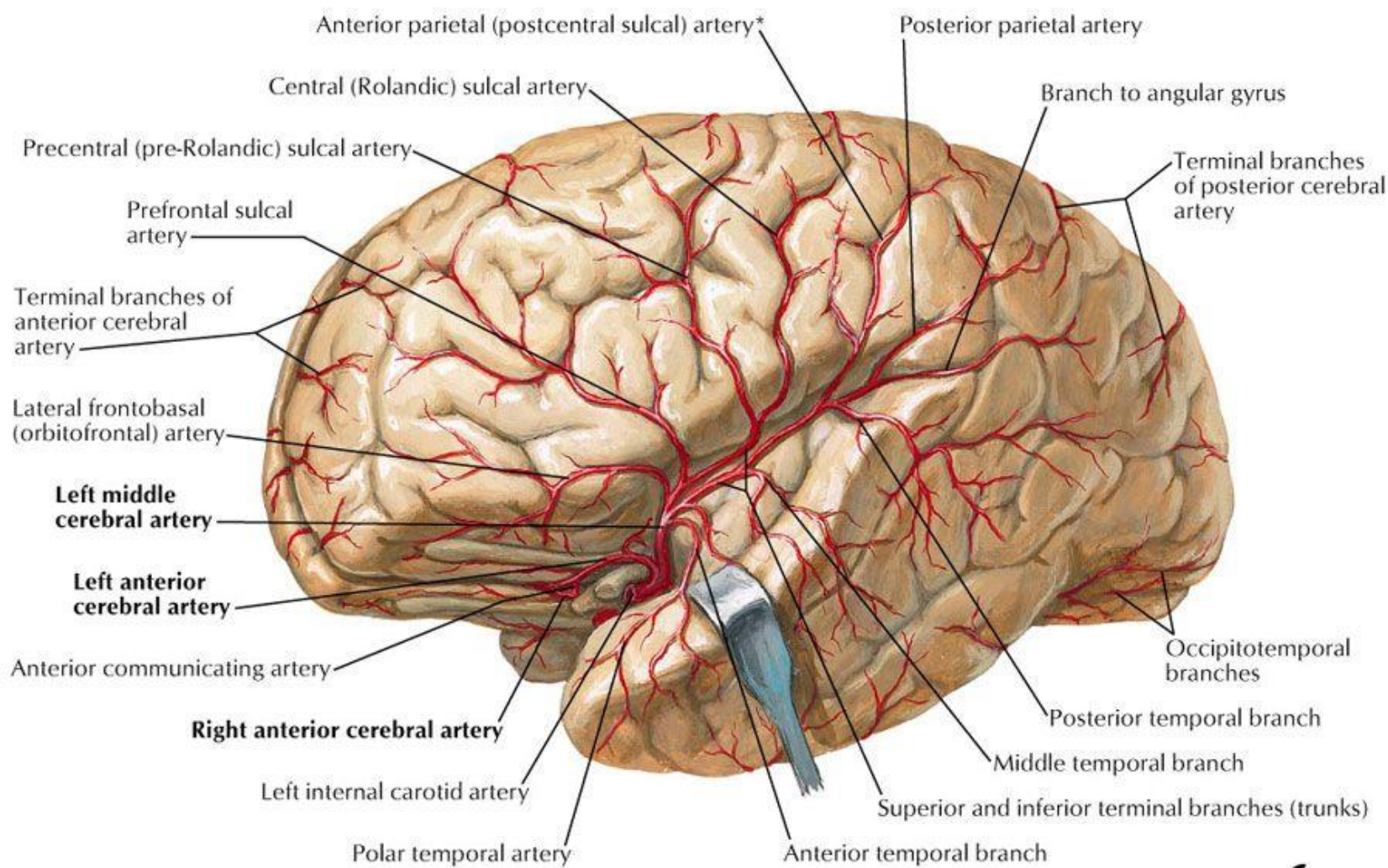
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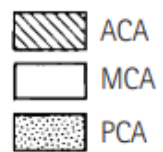
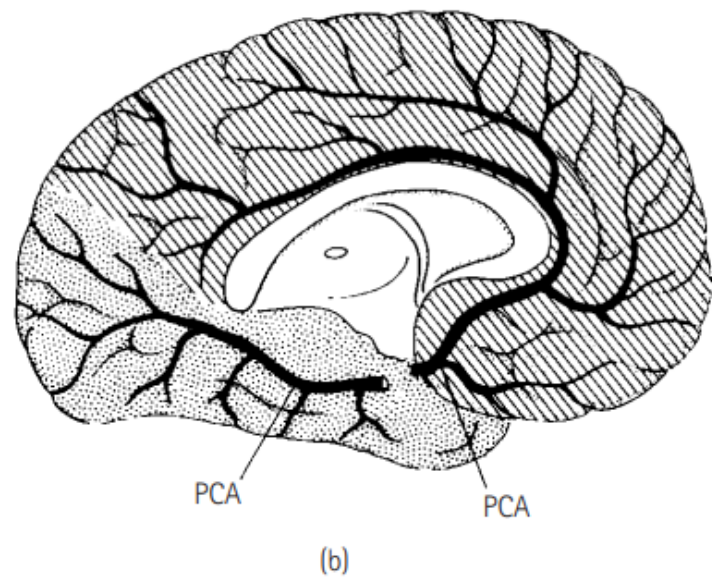
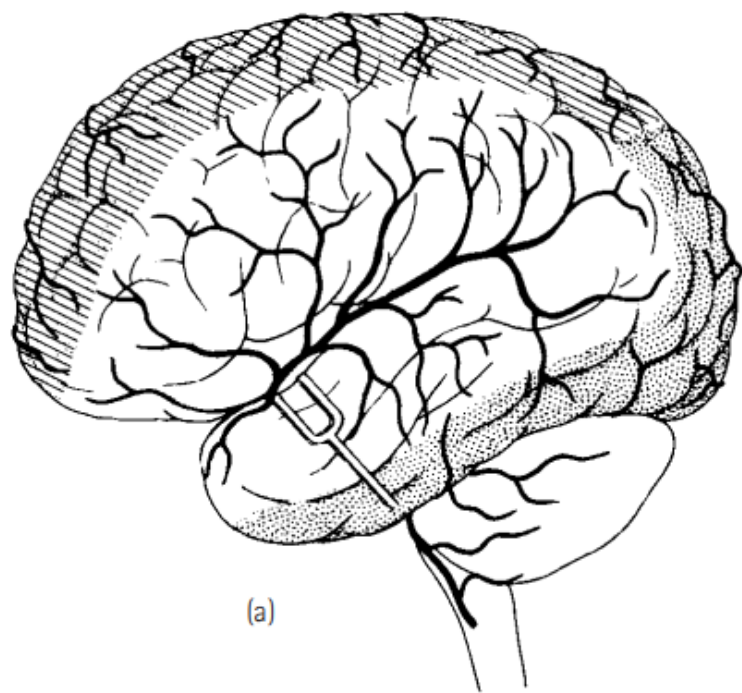


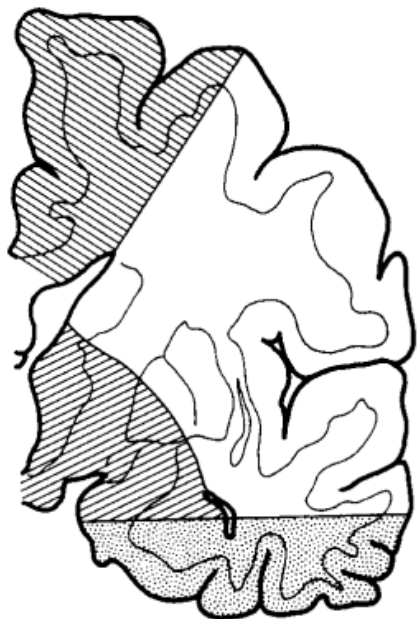












(a)



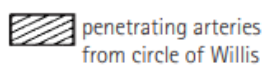
ACA



MCA



PCA

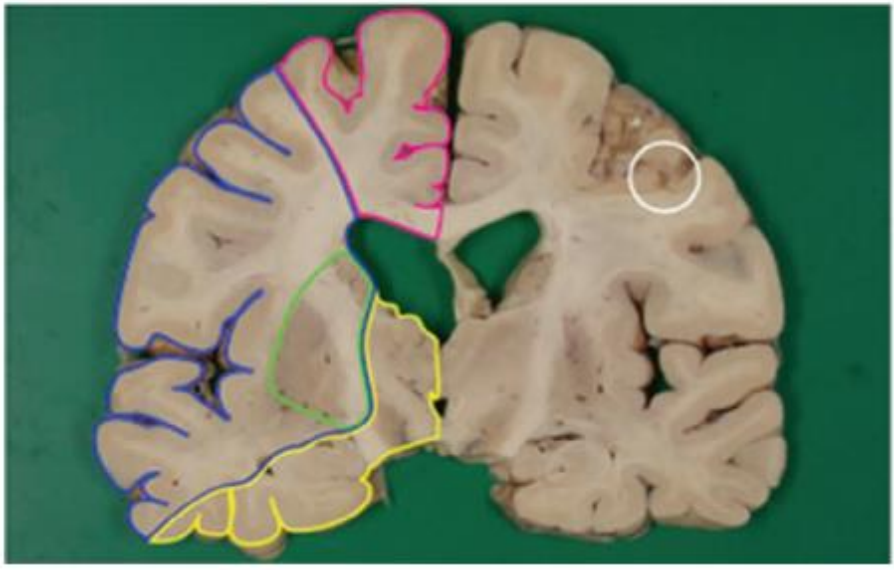
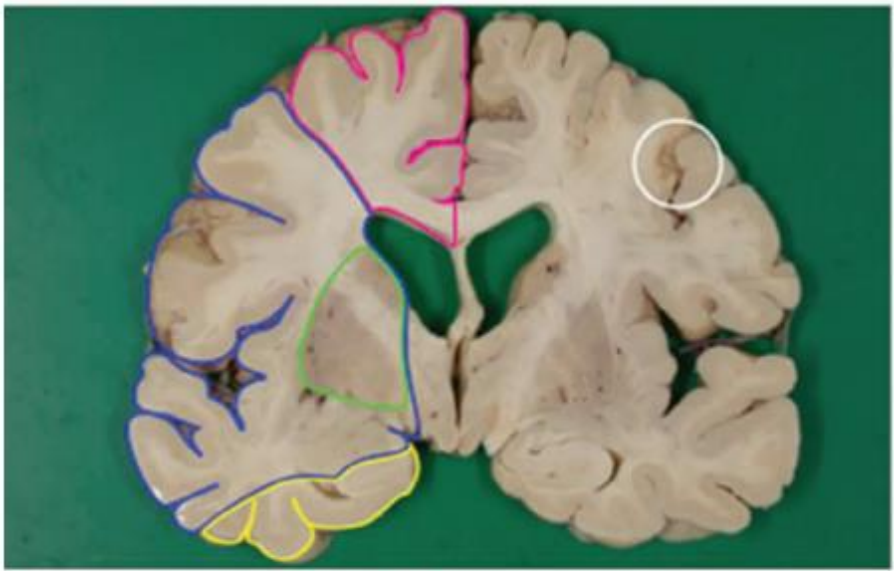
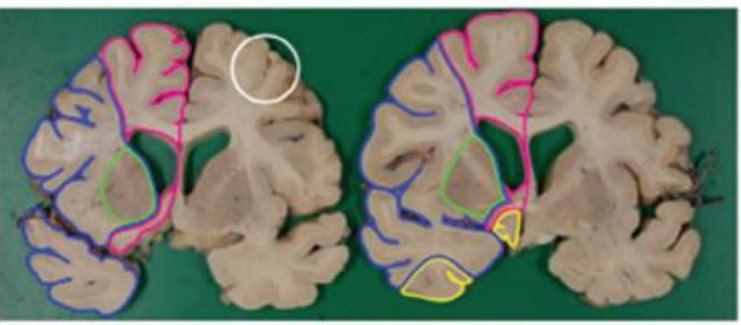
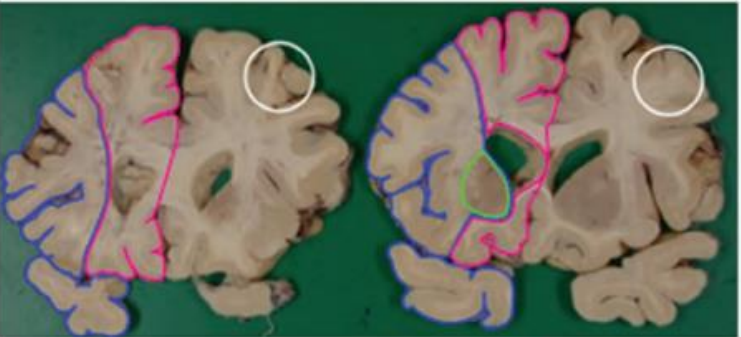
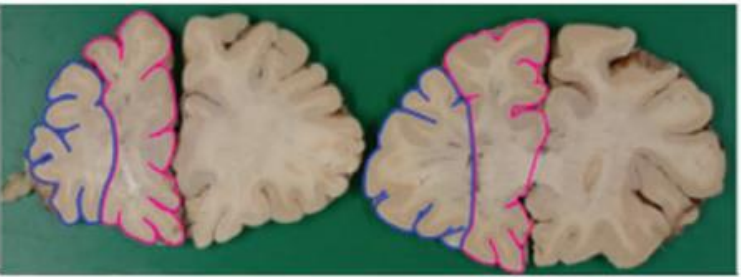


penetrating arteries  
from circle of Willis

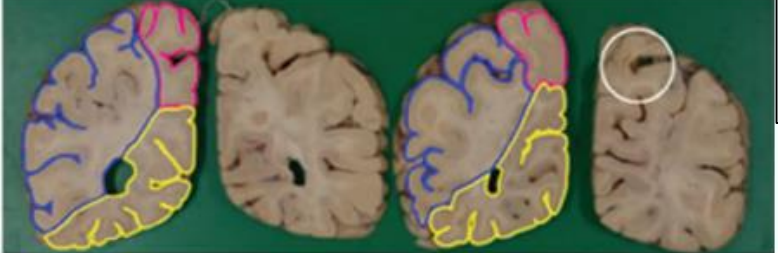
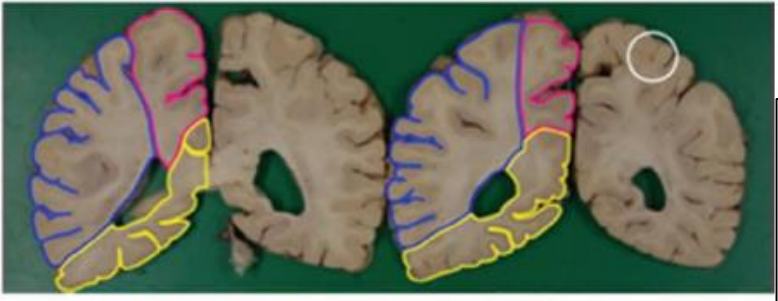
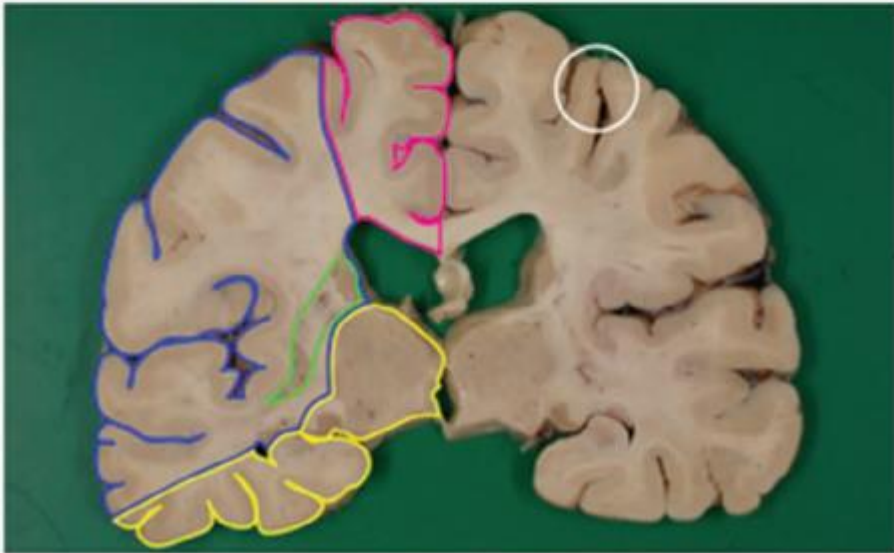
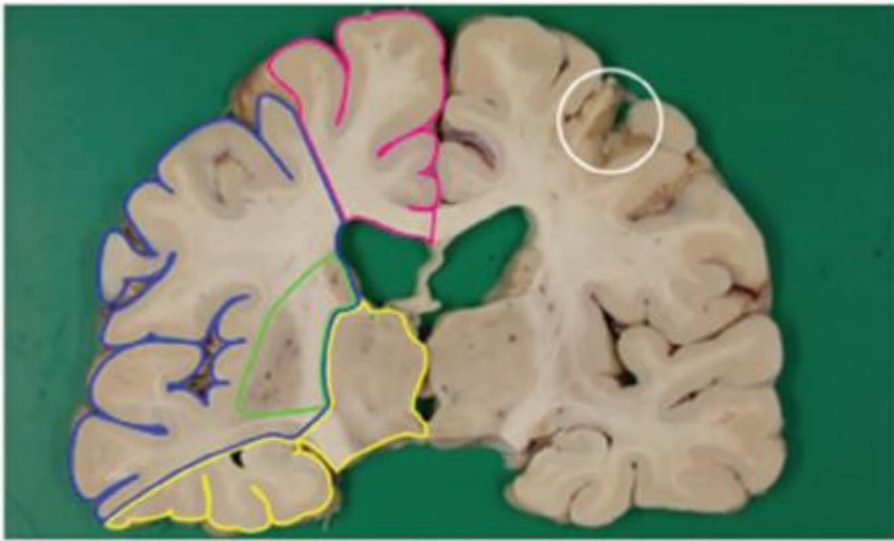


(b)

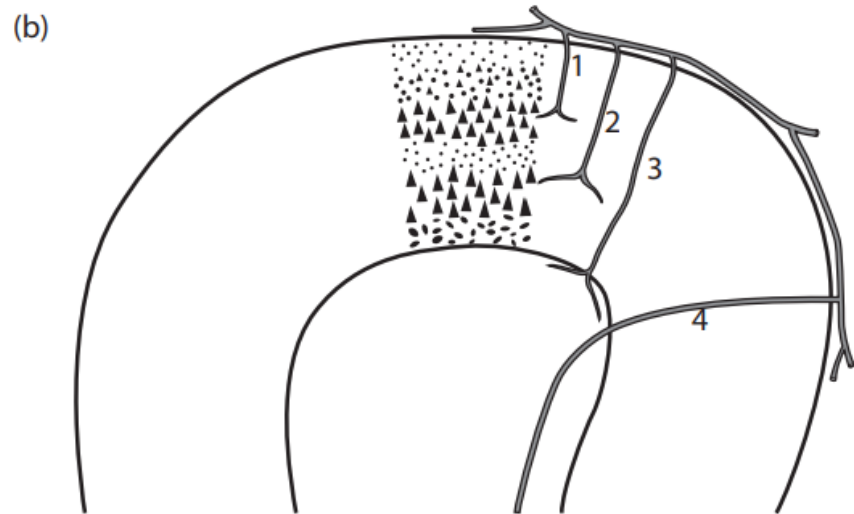
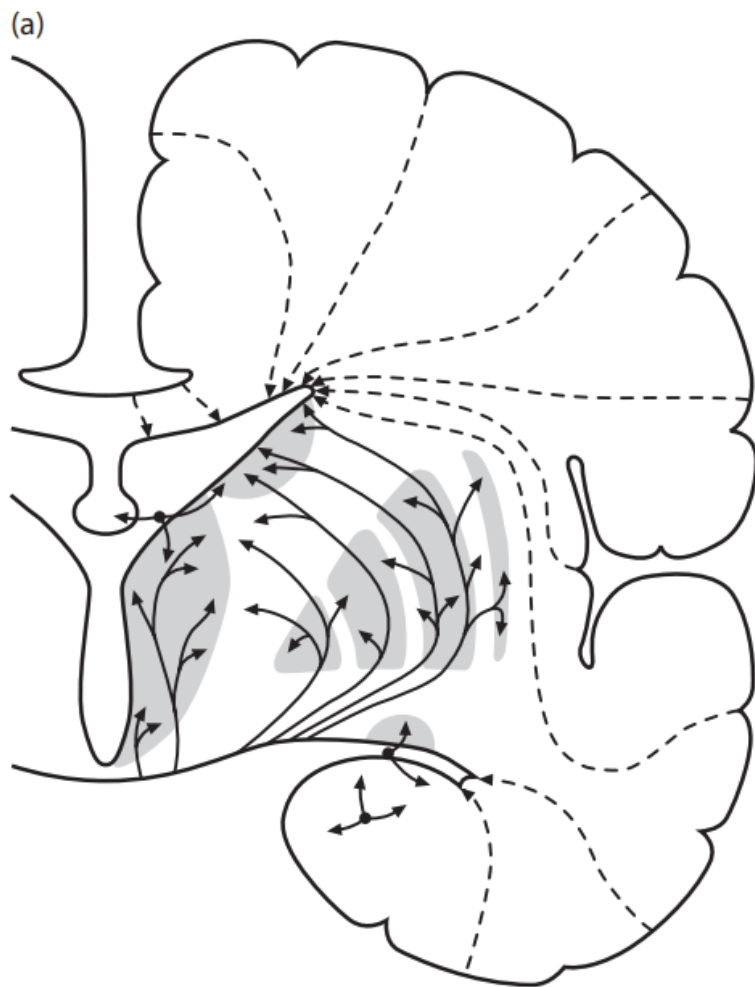




ACA  
MCA  
PCA  
PA(MCA)  
STROKE



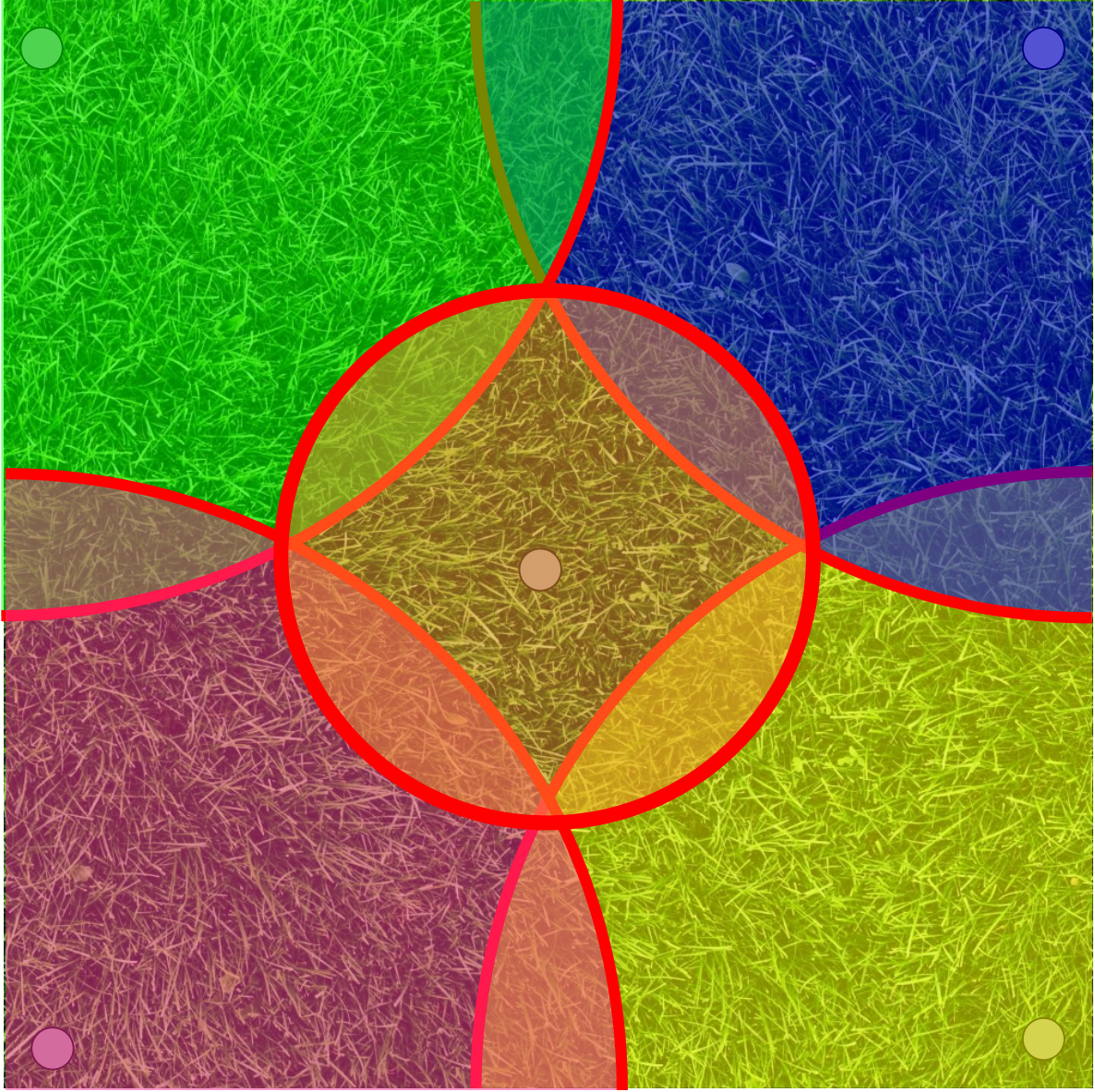
**ACA**  
**MCA**  
**PCA**  
**PA(MCA)**  
**STROKE**



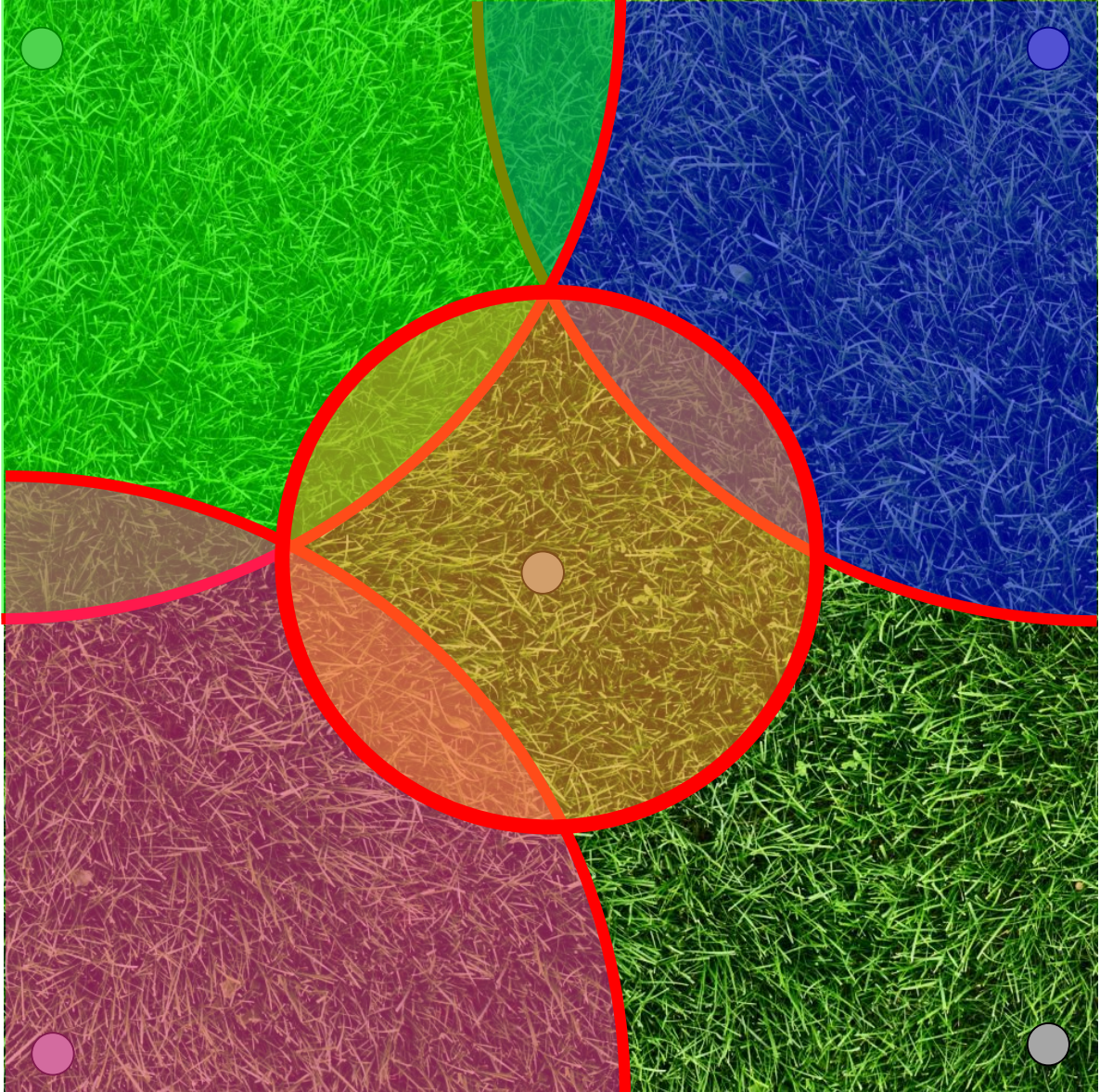






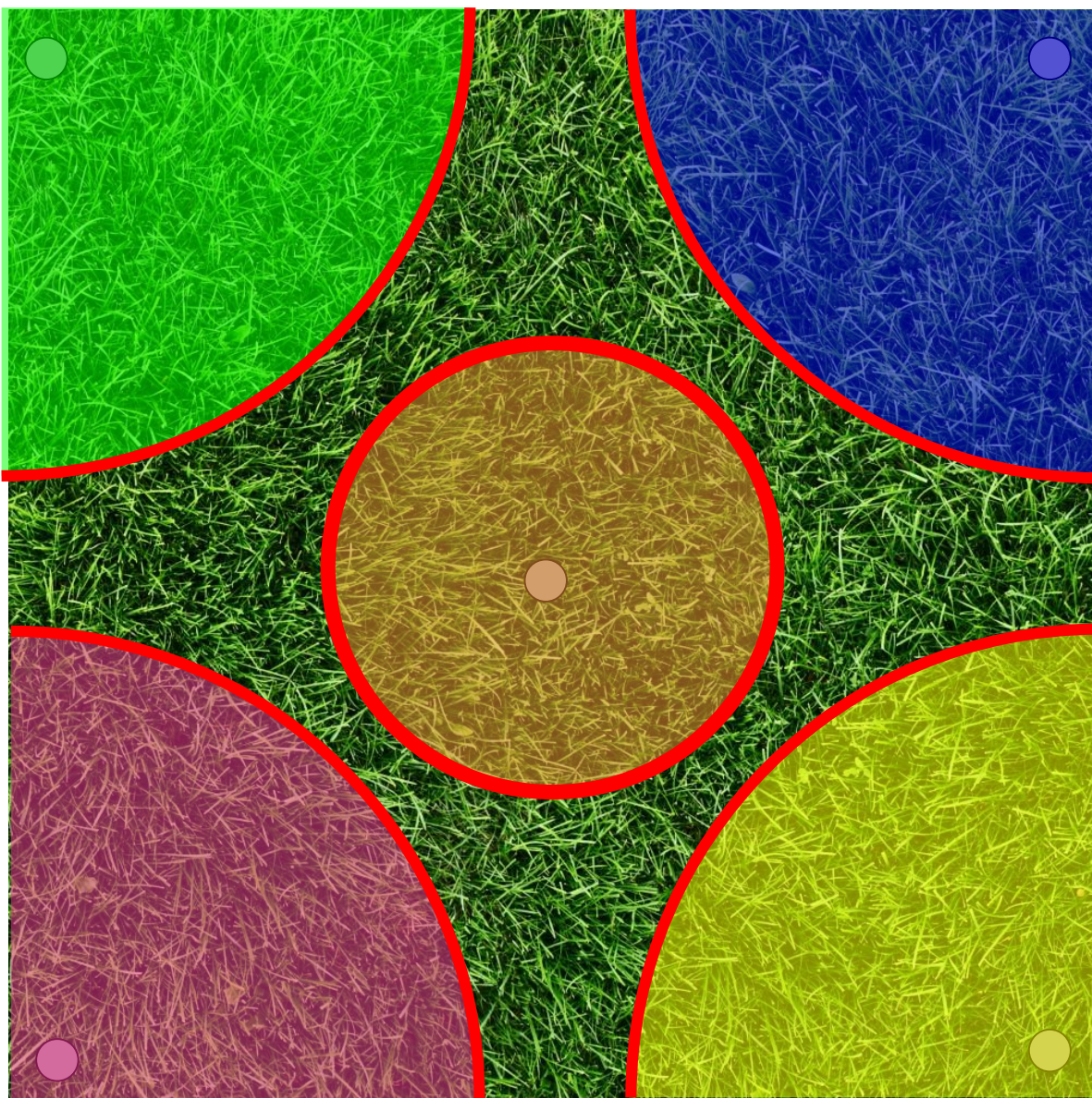




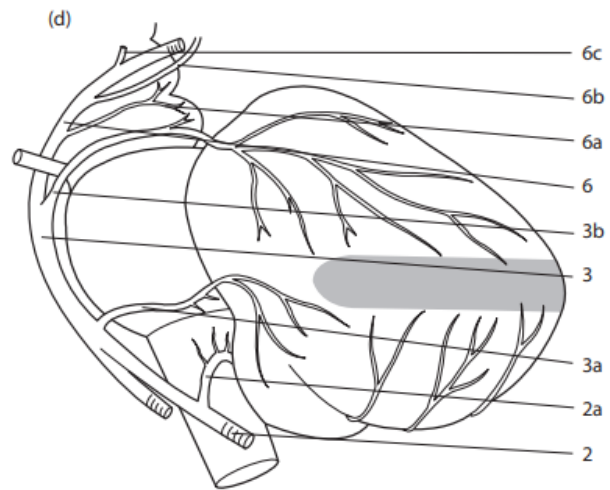
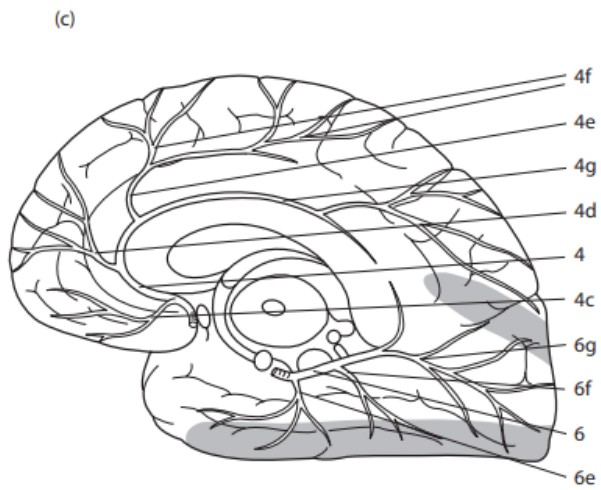
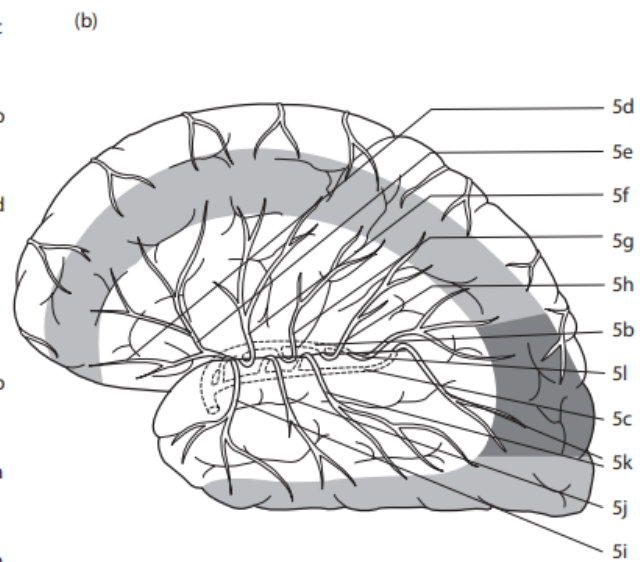
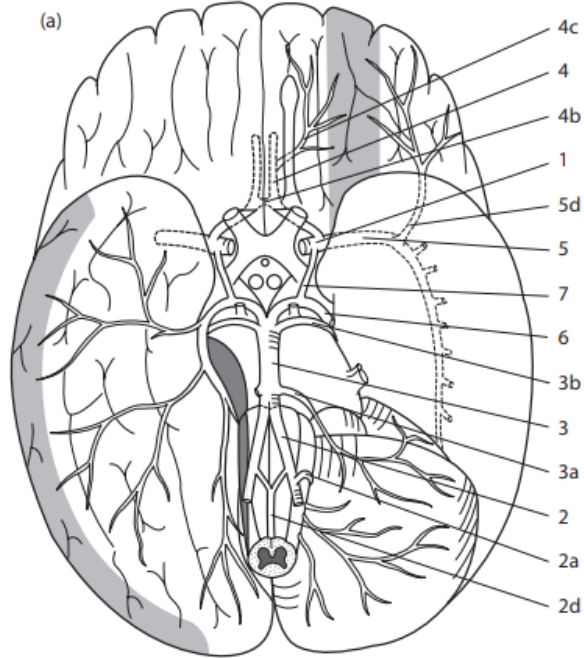


**Artery Occlusion**  
(territorial ischemia)

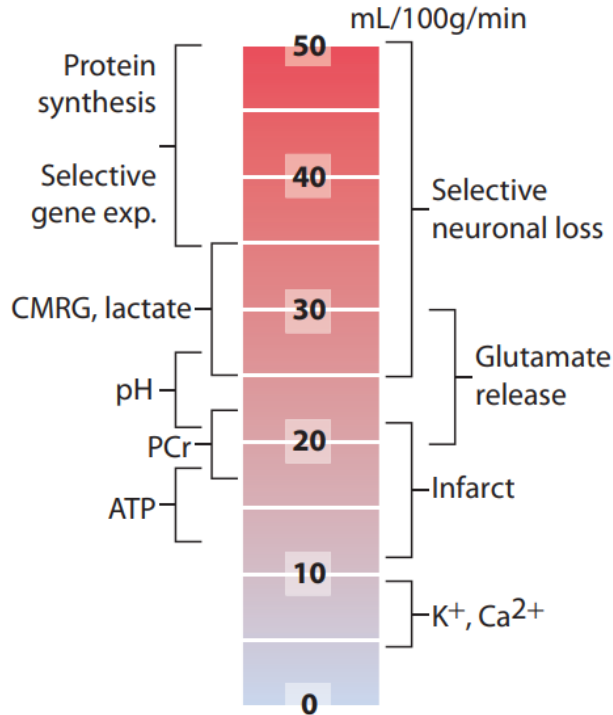
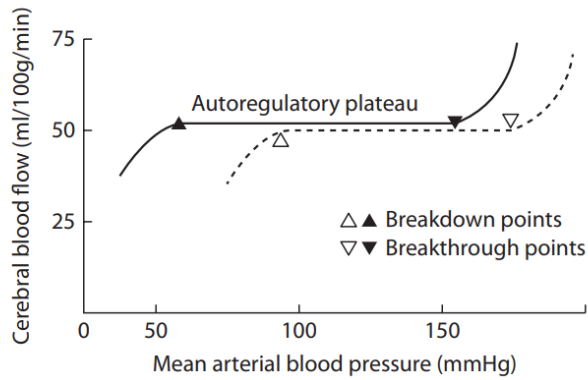




**Hypotension**  
**(Watershed ischemia)**







## CEREBRAL BLOOD FLOW (CBF)

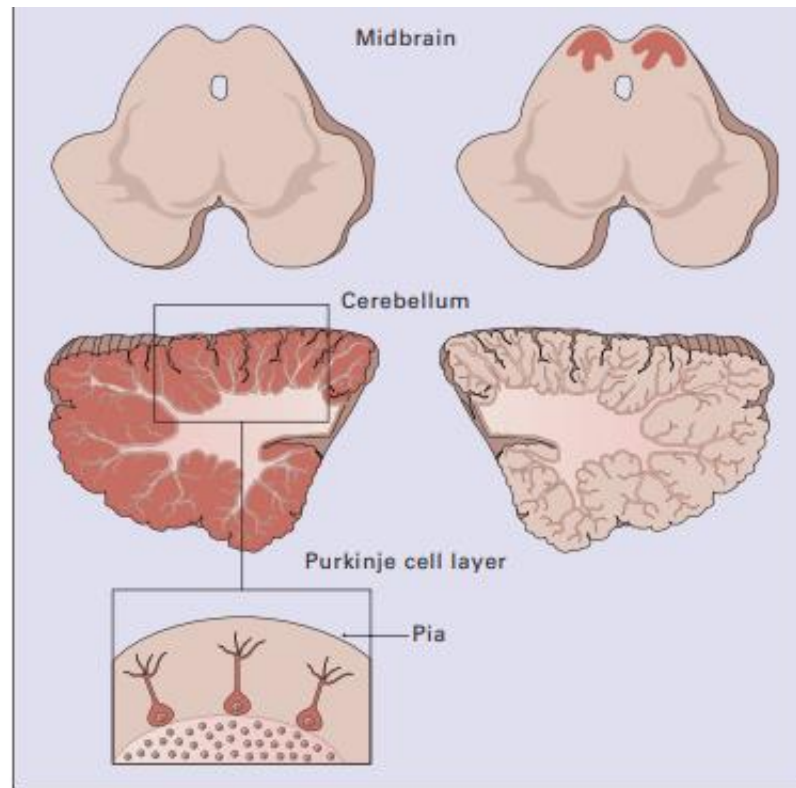
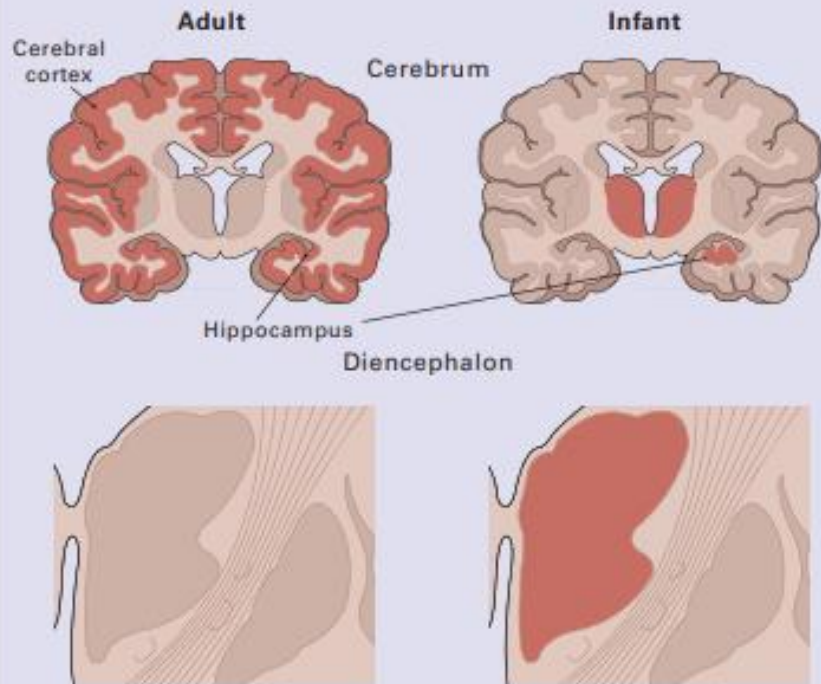
CBF = cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP)/cerebrovascular resistance (CVR)

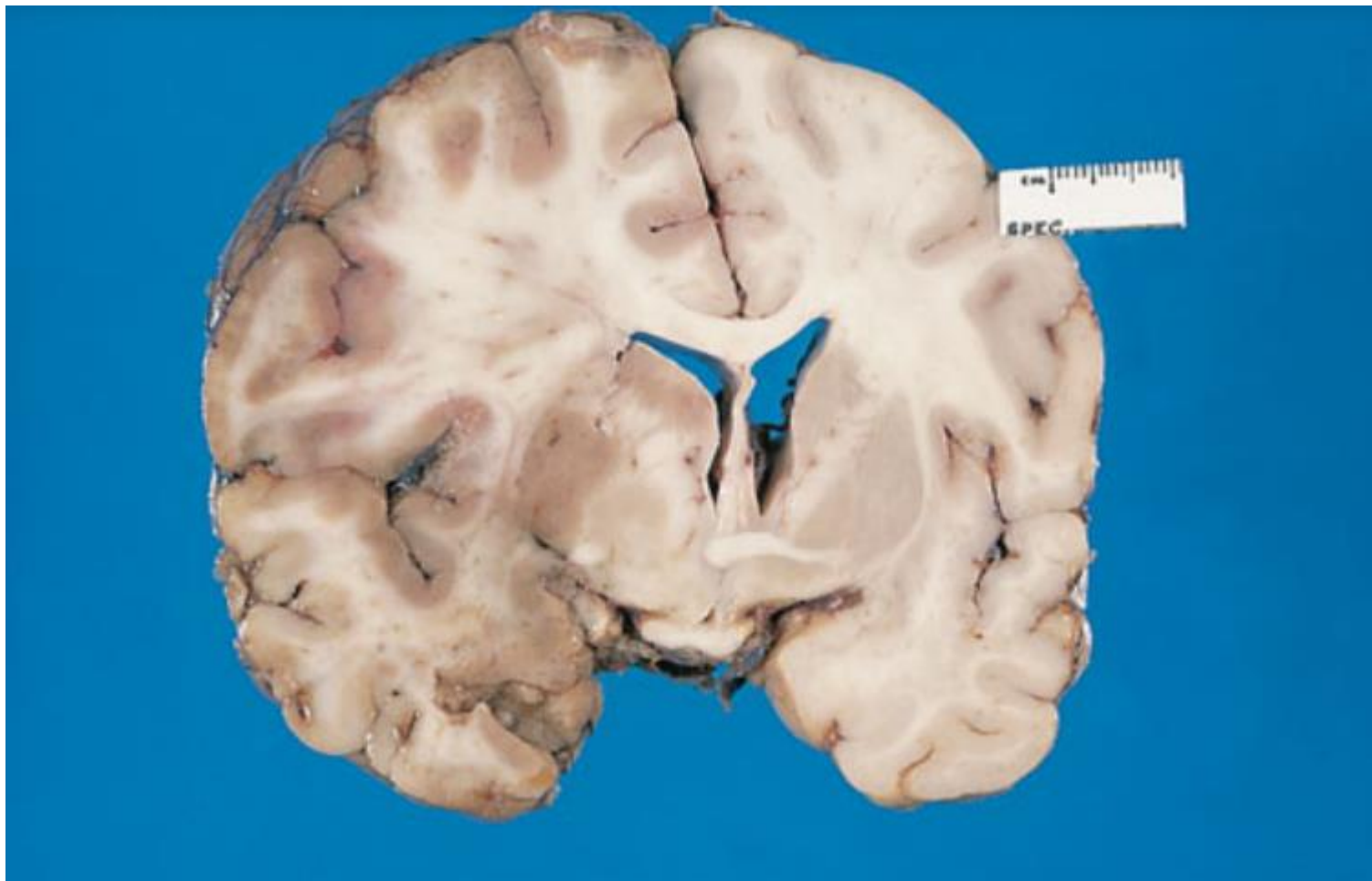
CPP = systemic arterial blood pressure – intracranial pressure (ICP)

- CBF is approximately 750 mL/min, representing 15% of cardiac output.
- As long as mean CPP remains above approximately 5.3 kPa (~ 40 mmHg), the tone of vascular smooth muscle in intracranial arteries and arterioles (and hence CVR) adjusts in response to changes in CPP to maintain CBF in a constant range of 50–55 mL/100g/min in adults (the value is higher in children). This is the phenomenon of autoregulation.
- Though overall CBF remains constant while CPP remains above the threshold for autoregulation, blood flow varies by anatomic region, according to demand for oxygen and glucose (largely dependent upon neuronal activity), a process described as functional hyperemia or neurovascular coupling. This variability of local blood flow is also used to advantage in functional MRI studies.
- The density of capillaries is greater in gray than white matter, reflecting the pronounced difference in their metabolic requirements and resulting in a corresponding difference in blood flow:
  - 80–100 mL/100 g/min in gray matter
  - 20–25 mL/100 g/min in white matter.
- If mean CPP falls below about 5.3 kPa, autoregulation becomes impaired or fails entirely, and CBF falls dramatically.
- Threshold CBF for infarction in primate brain is estimated to be 10–12 mL/100g/min.



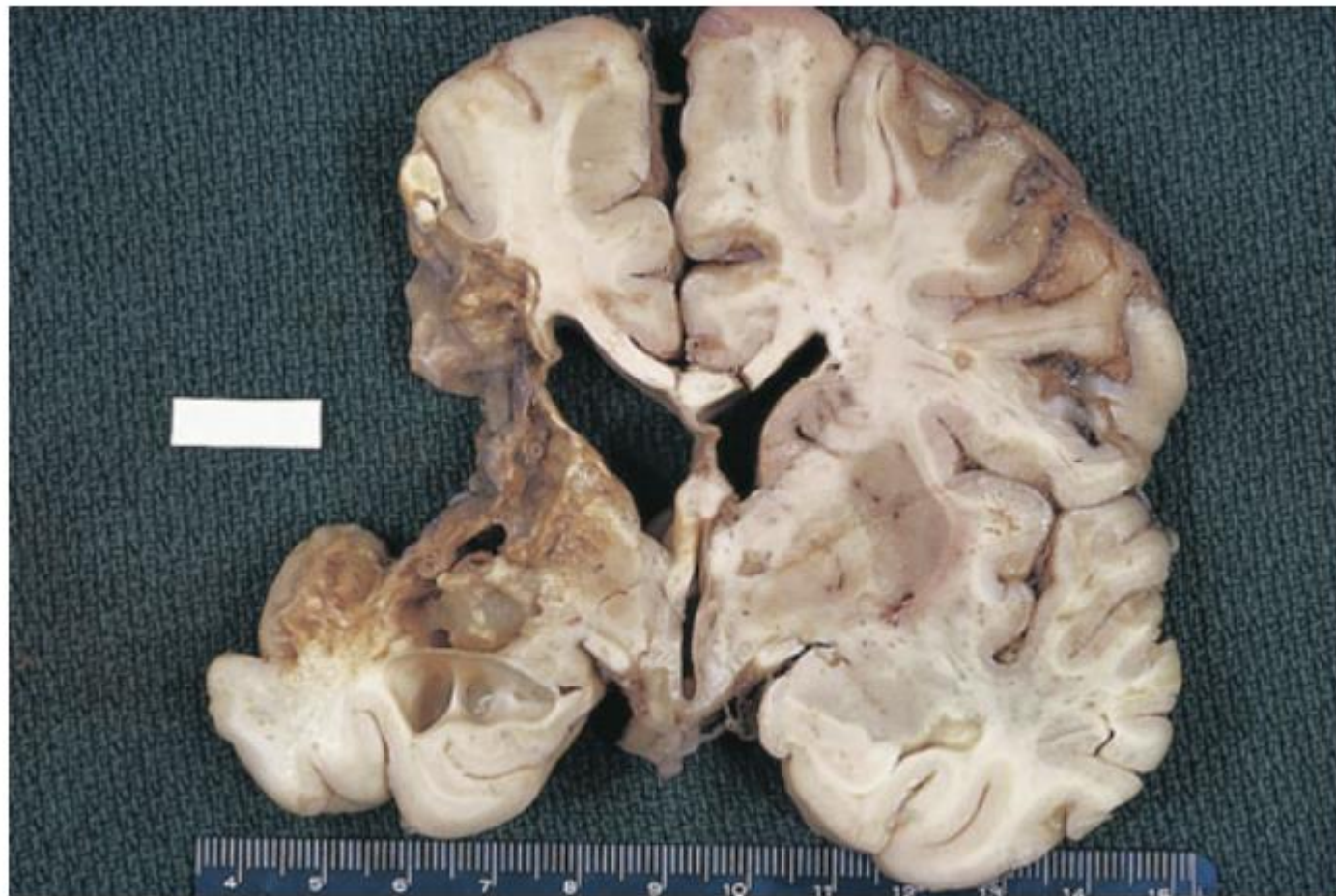
### Comparative vulnerability to hypoxic/ischemic injuries

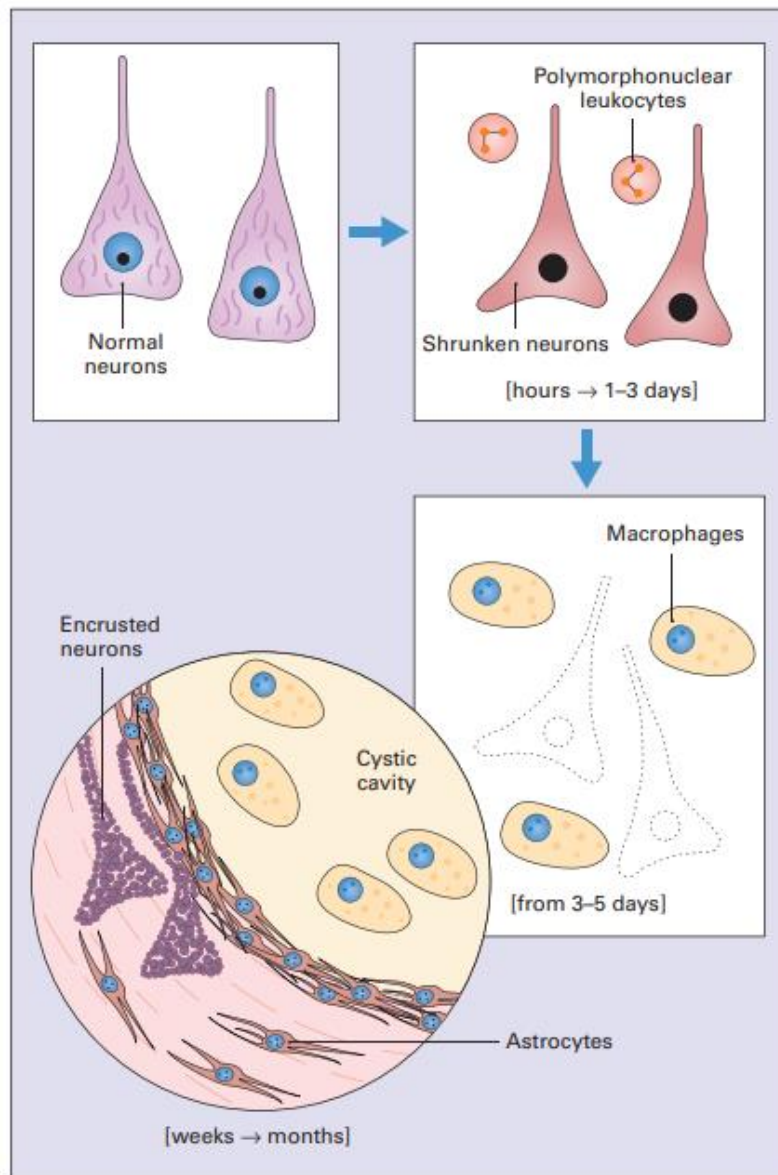








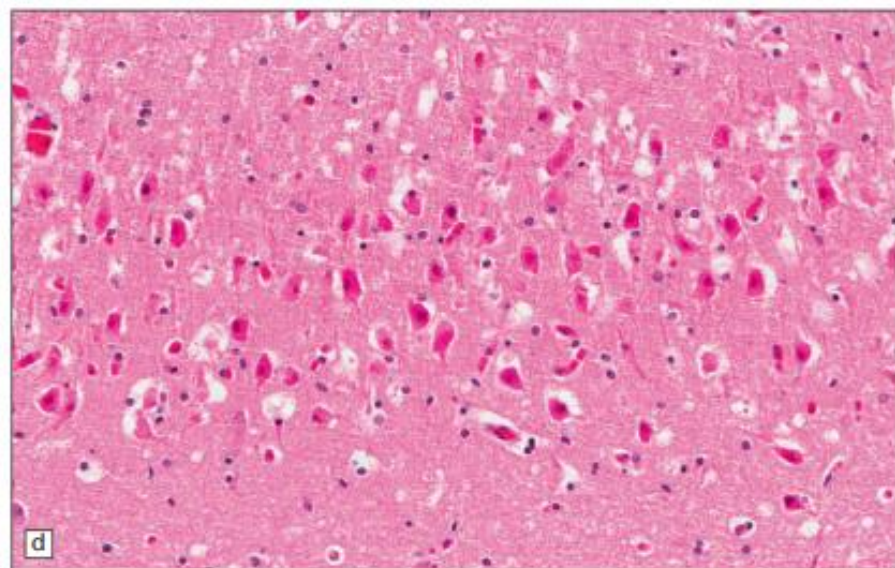
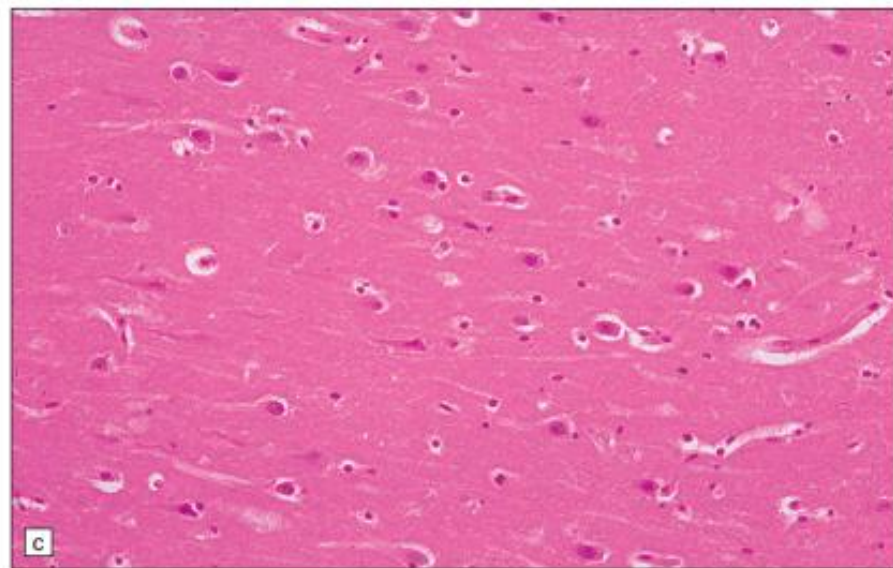
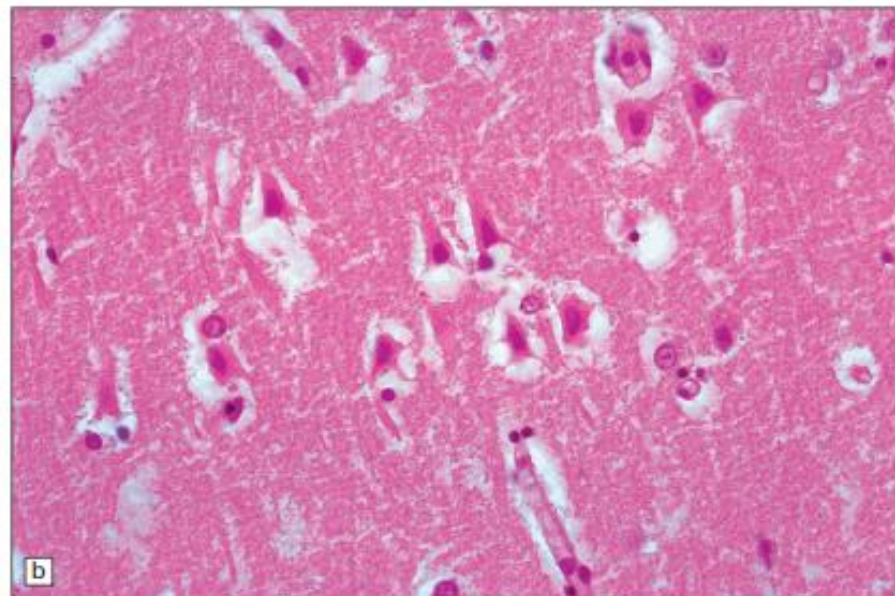
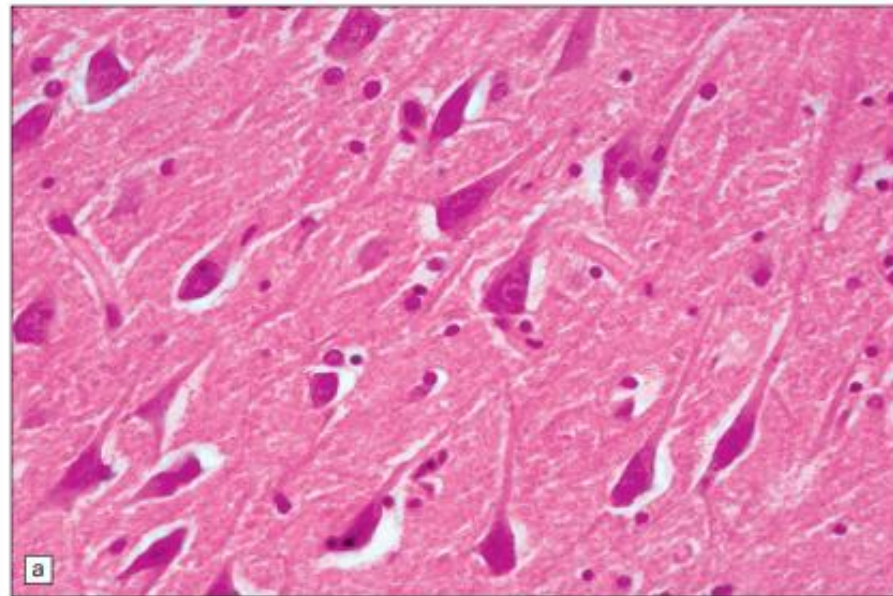




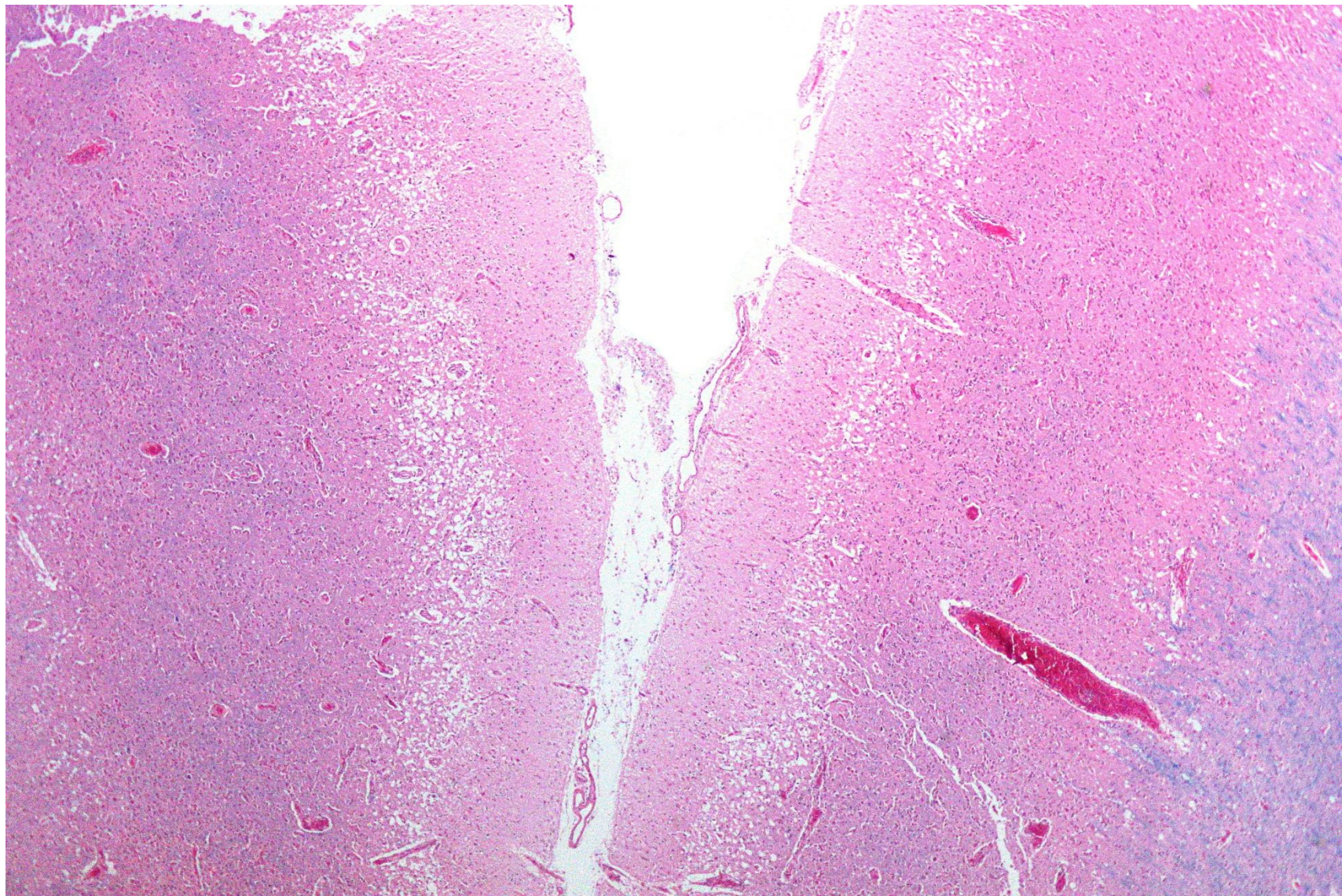
## CELLULAR MECHANISMS OF ISCHEMIC CELL DEATH

- Depolarization of neuronal/axonal membranes within 60–180 seconds of global anoxia leads to changes in extracellular and intracellular electrolyte composition and a decrease in ATP (secondary to impaired glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation), with associated release of lactate and hydrogen ions and acidosis. ATP may decline to <25% of that in normally perfused tissue.
- Ionic fluxes include increased potassium ions ( $K^+$ ) in the extracellular space and decreased extracellular calcium ions ( $Ca^{++}$ ), with concomitant rise in intracellular  $Ca^{++}$  by up to 25%, a process mediated in part by NMDA receptors.
- Increased intracellular  $Ca^{++}$  activates calpain and other molecules, with deleterious effects on cytoskeletal and membrane structures.
- Mitochondrial injury secondary to  $Ca^{++}$  influx causes further decrease in ATP, an increase in free radicals, and a progressive inability to buffer  $Ca^{++}$  loads.
- Cytoskeletal damage can affect the machinery of protein synthesis, but this may eventually recover.
- Lipases, proteases and nucleases are activated, also with deleterious effects.
- Free radicals and NO/peroxynitrite, a mediator of NO toxicity, increase.
- Excitotoxic activation of glutamate receptors causes induction of heat shock proteins and rapid transcription of IE genes.

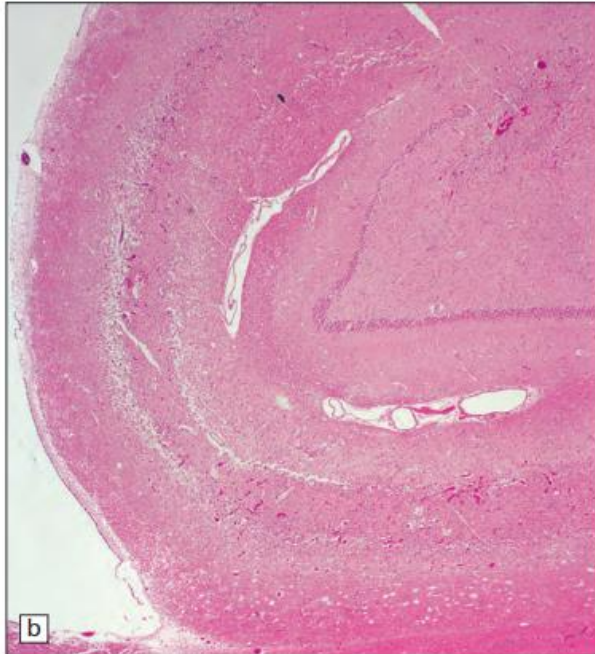
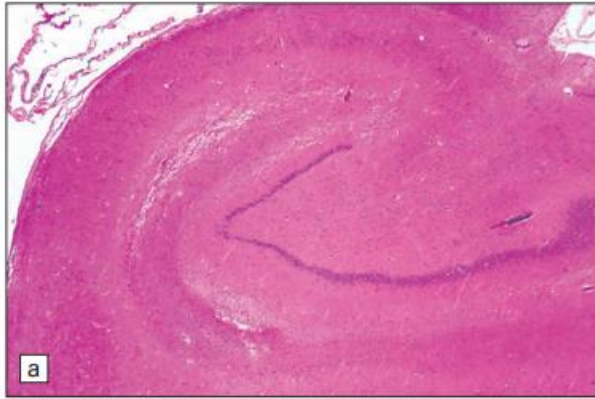




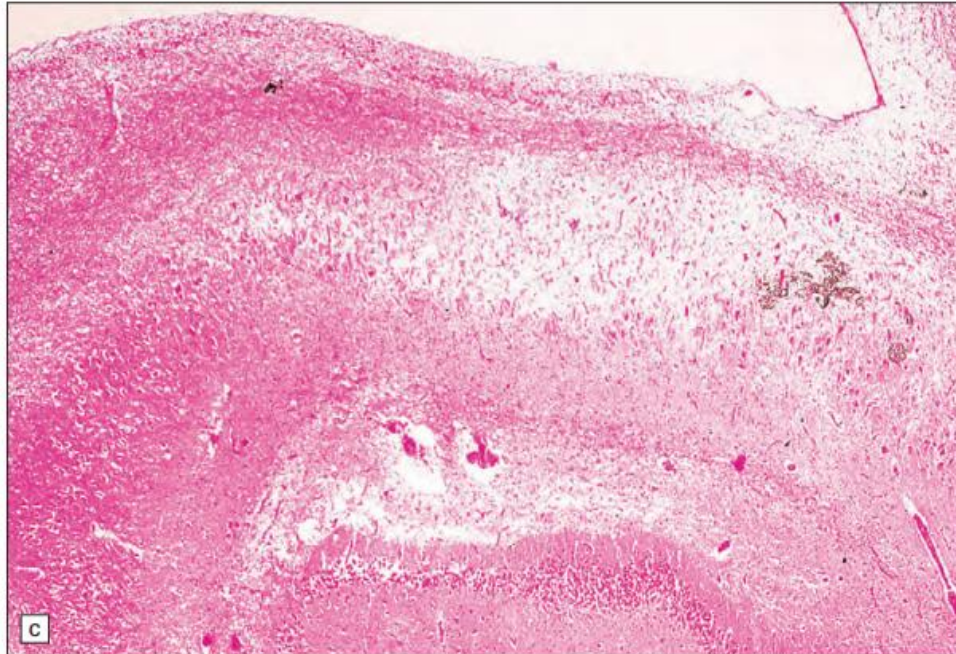








**8.12 Selective vulnerability to hypoxic–ischemic change in the hippocampal pyramidal cell layer.** (a) Normal hippocampus at low magnification. The figure includes part of the granule cell layer and part of the pyramidal cell layer as far as the prosubiculum/CA1 junction. (b) Segmental loss of neurons and prominent neuropil vacuolation within the CA1 sector of pyramidal cell layer. (c) There is an infarct involving virtually the entire CA1 field or sector and extending into the prosubiculum. Neuron loss and spongy change are seen in the affected neuropil. Note preservation of the granule cell layer (dentate fascia). (d) Normal CA1 zone of hippocampal pyramidal cell layer, contrasted with (e) a region with severe acute anoxic–ischemic change (neuronal eosinophilia, cytoplasmic and nuclear collapse, etc). (f,g) Severe hippocampal sclerosis in a patient with longstanding temporal lobe epilepsy. (f) Arrows indicate junction between sclerotic CA1 zone (at left) and intact prosubiculum (at right). (g) The junction between the two sectors is highlighted; gliotic tissue and neuron depletion in CA1, intact neurons in prosubiculum.



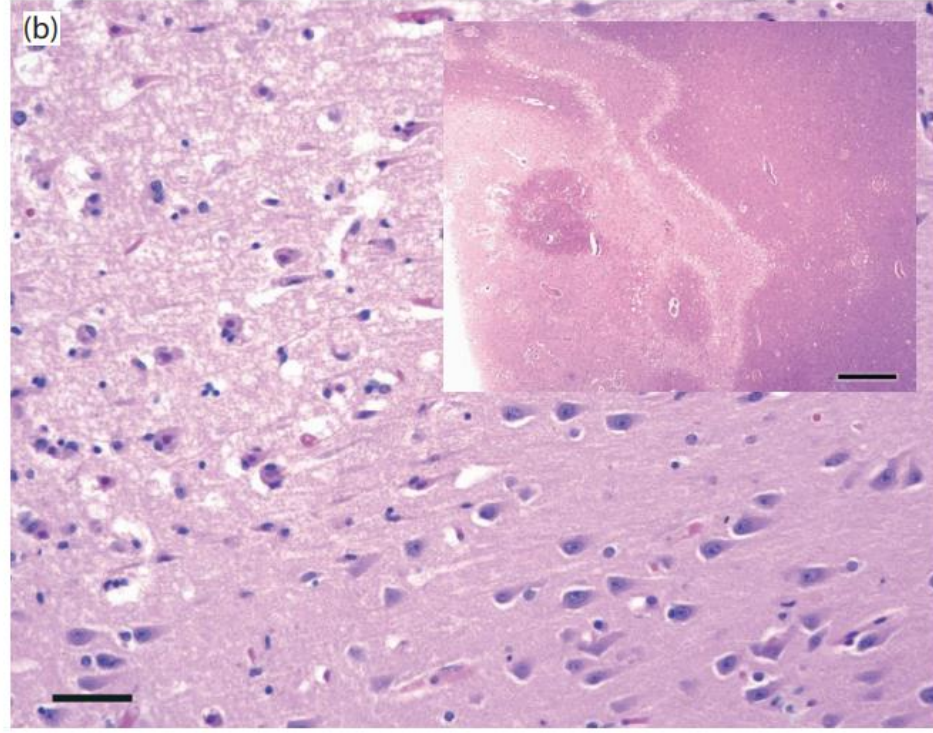
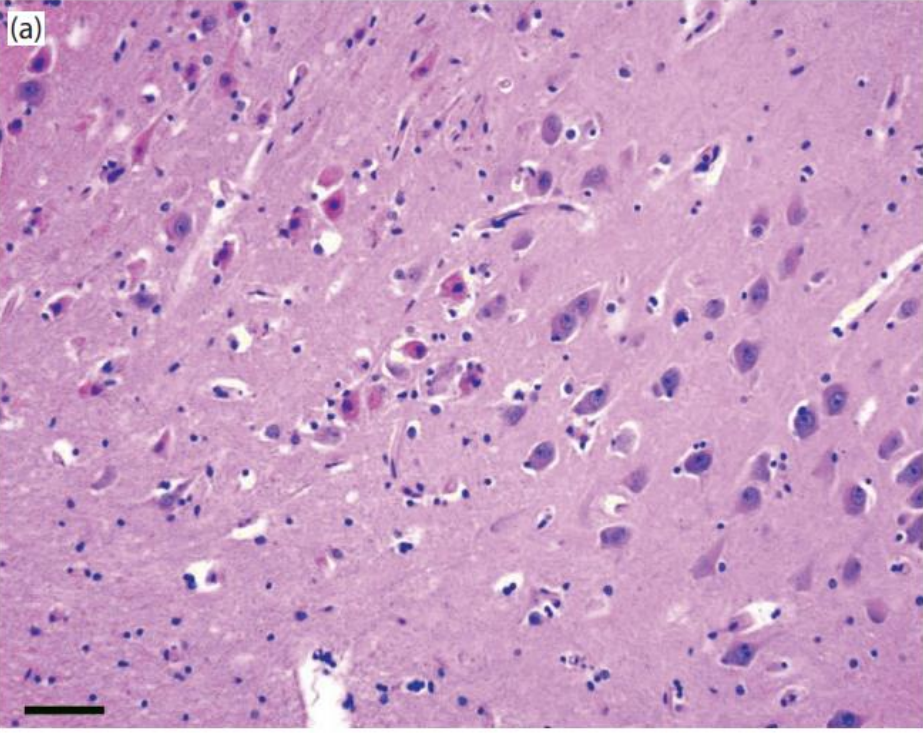


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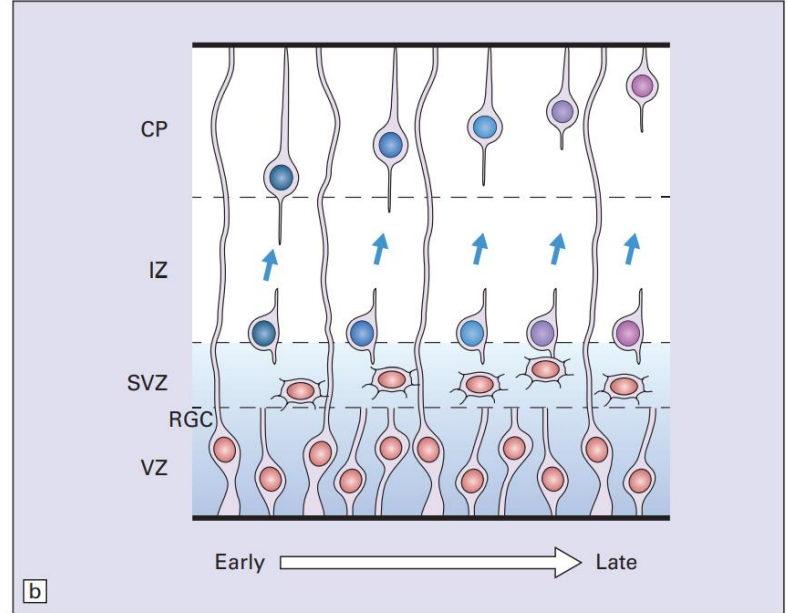
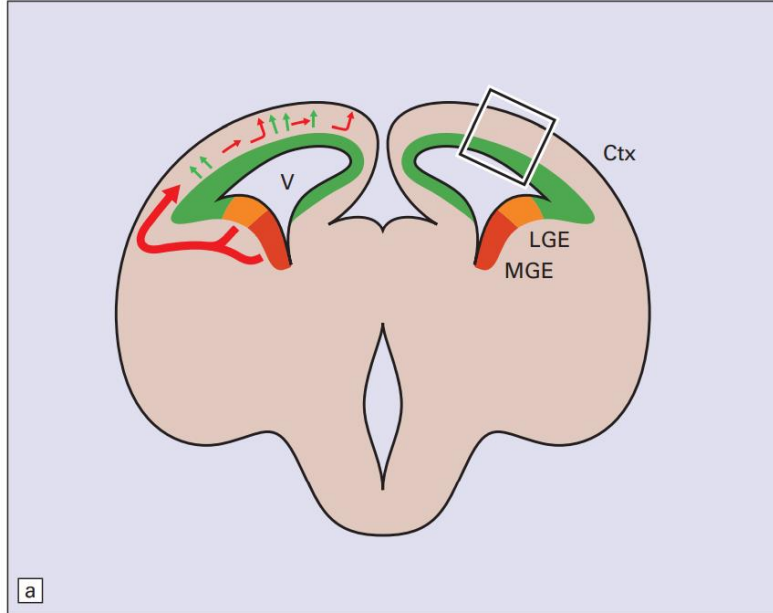




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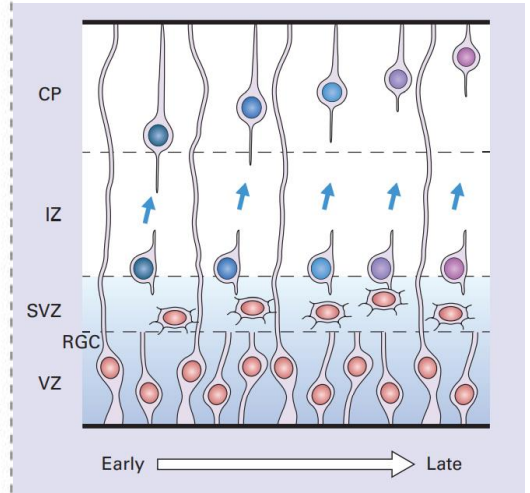
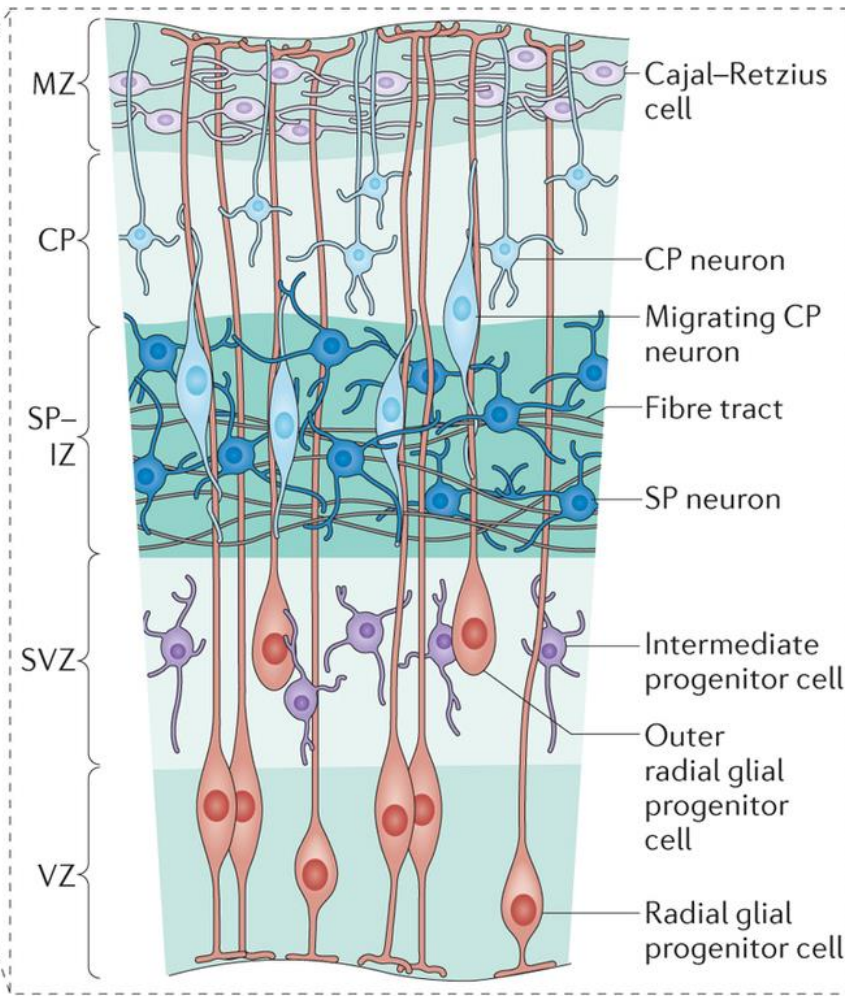
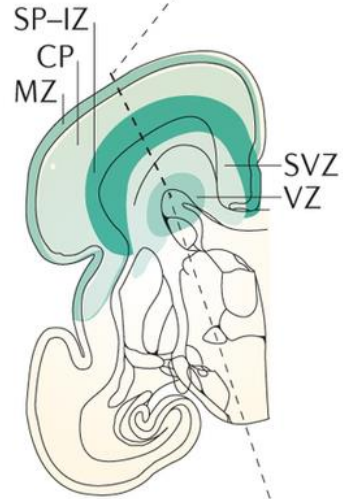


# Functional Anatomy of the Telencephalon

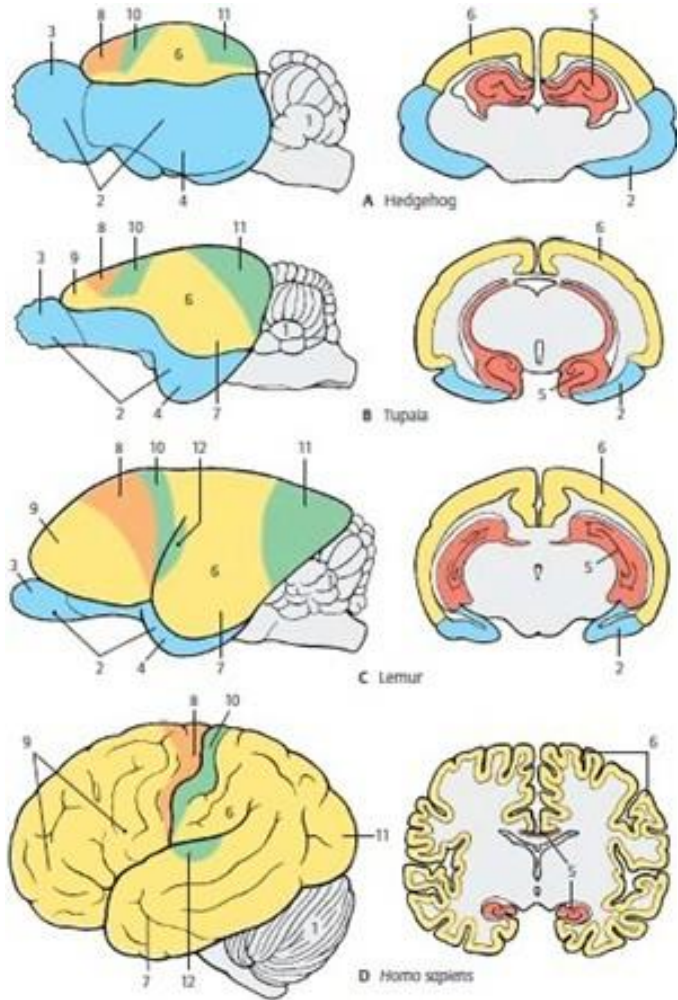




# Human 26 PCWs

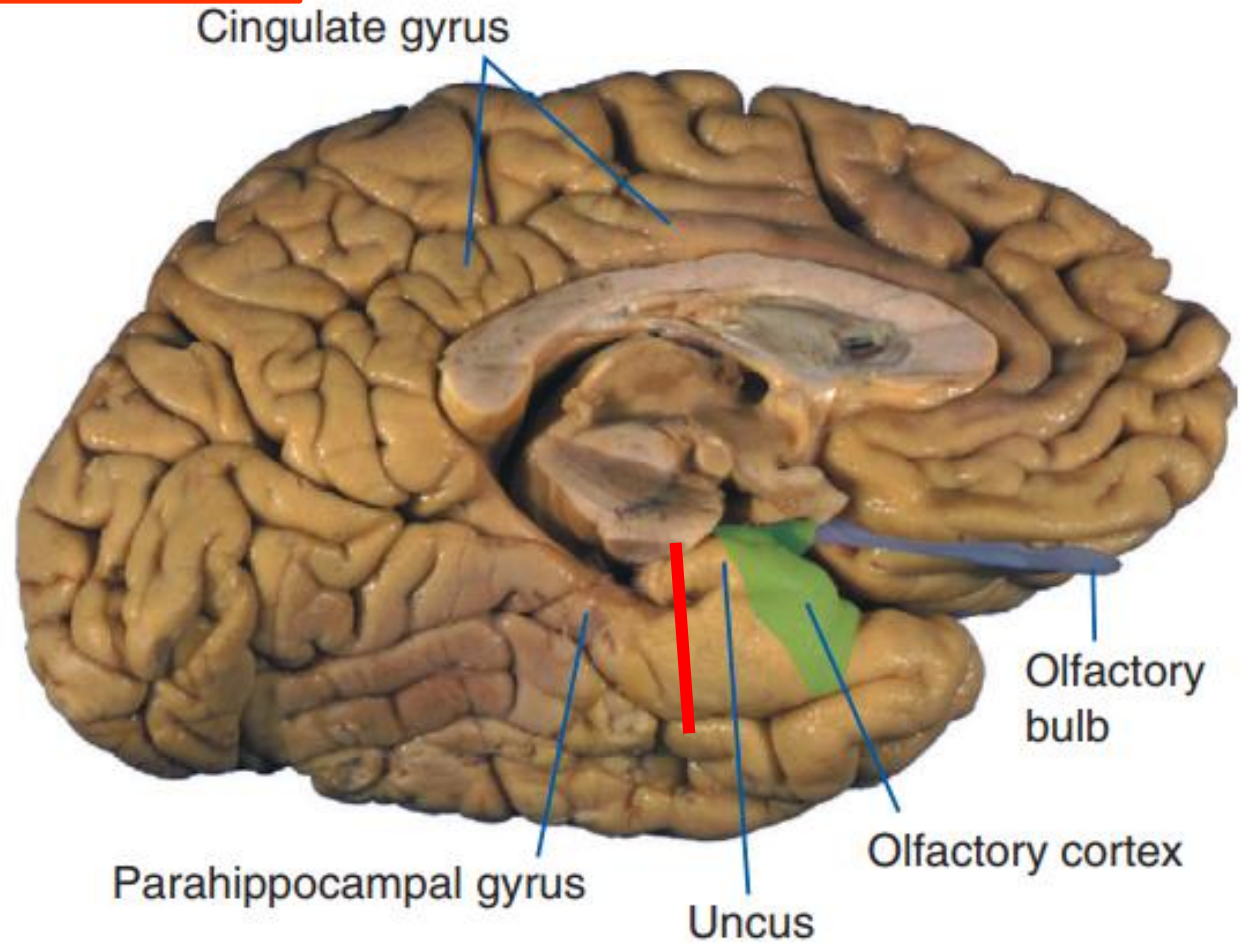


## Phylogenesis of the Cerebral Cortex

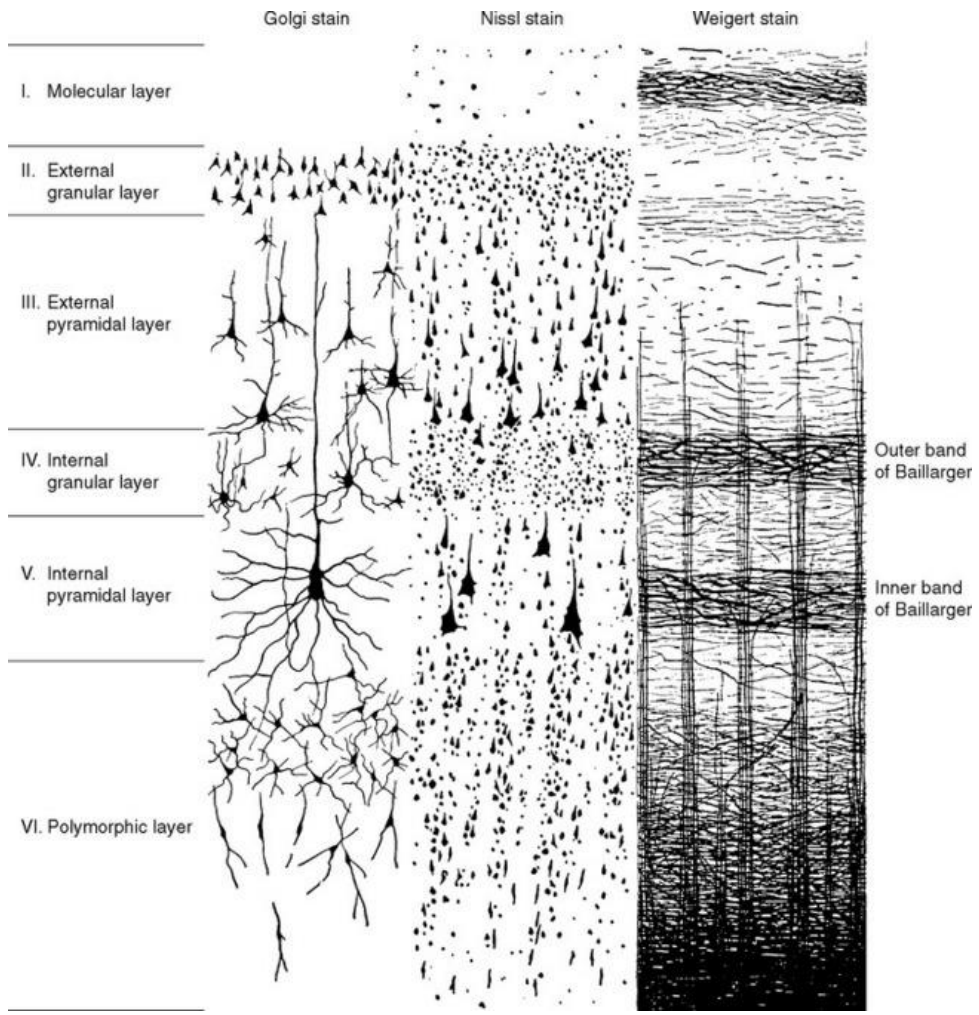


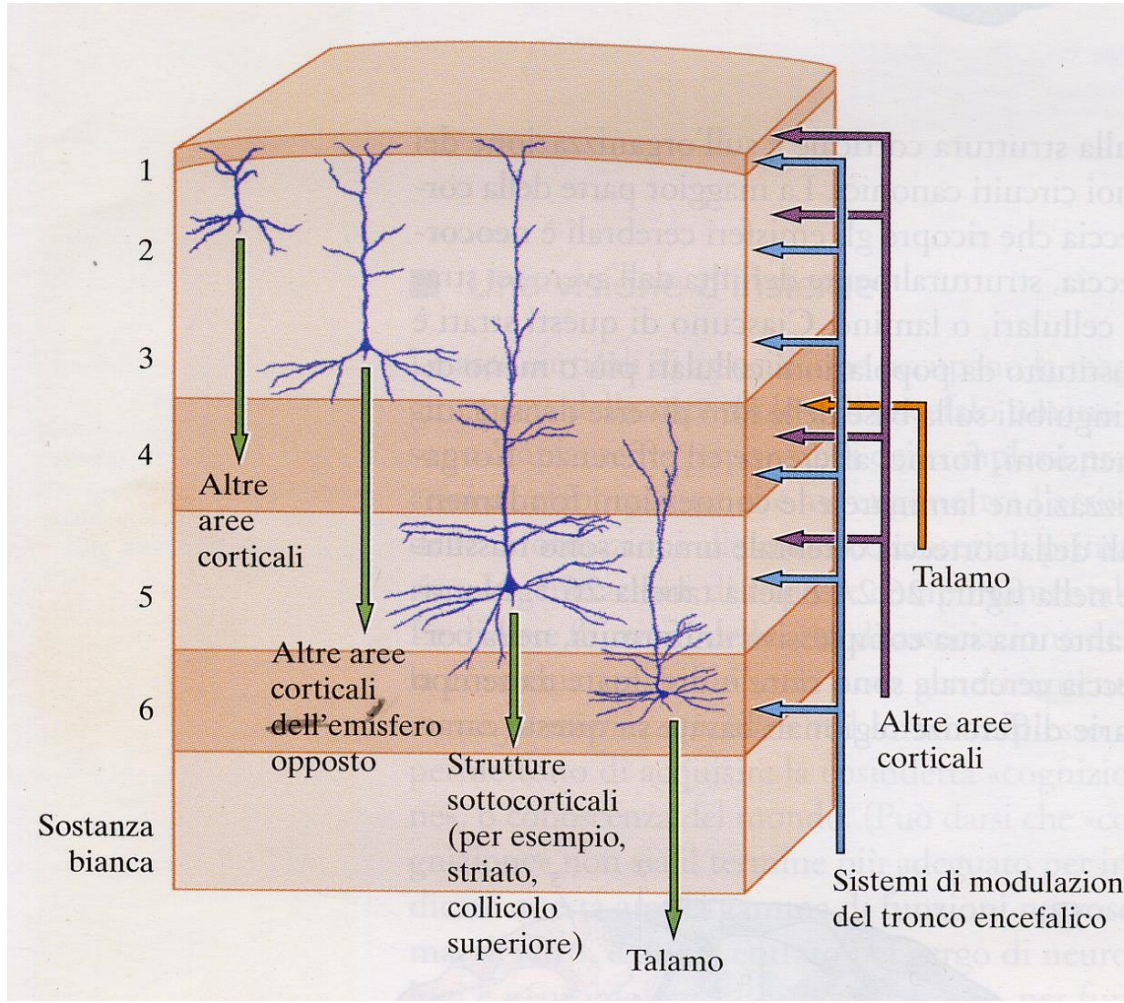
- **Allocortex:** also known as archicortex / archipallium. Most ancient part of the cortex. 3 Layers. Found in the hippocampal formation.
- **Mesocortex:** also known as paleocortex / paleopallium. 4-5 layers; represents an intermediate stage between the allocortex and the isocortex.
- **Isocortex:** also known as neocortex or neopallium. Most recent part of the cortex. 6 Layers. Makes up most of the cerebral cortex.

**Non-neocortical areas**

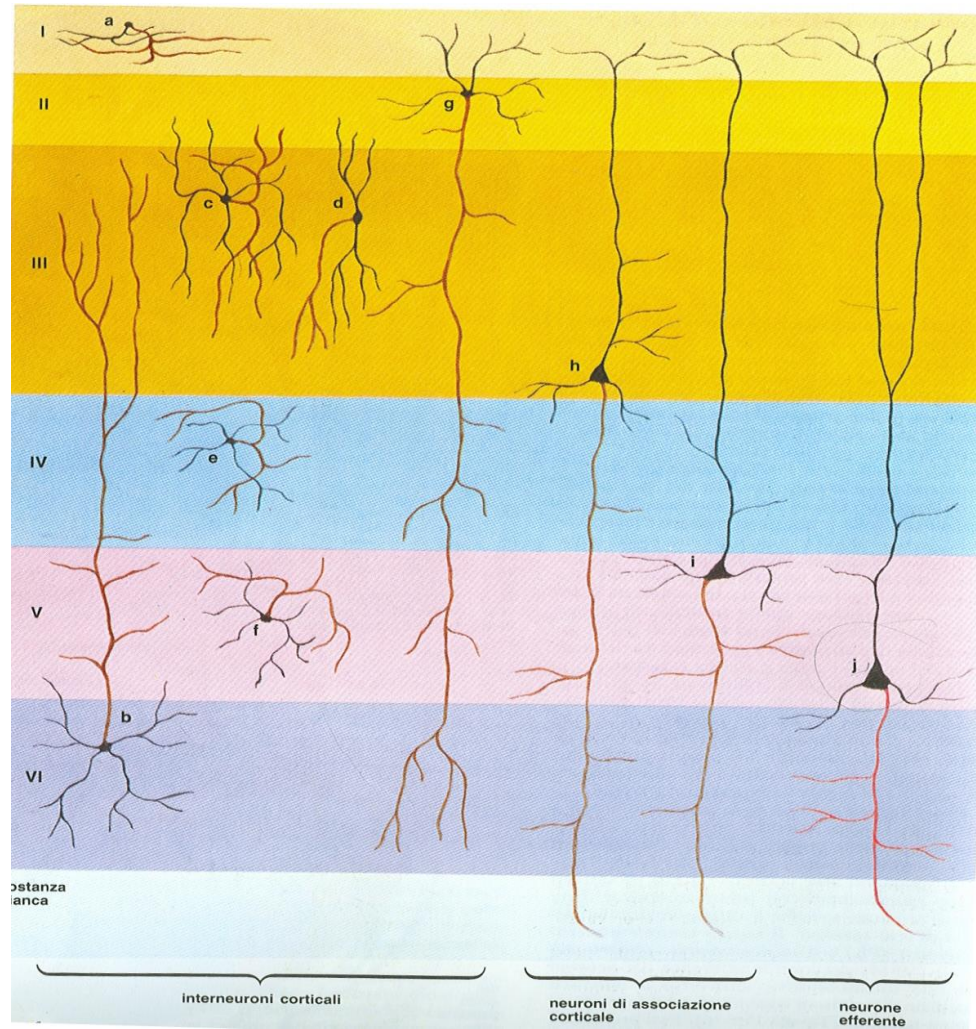






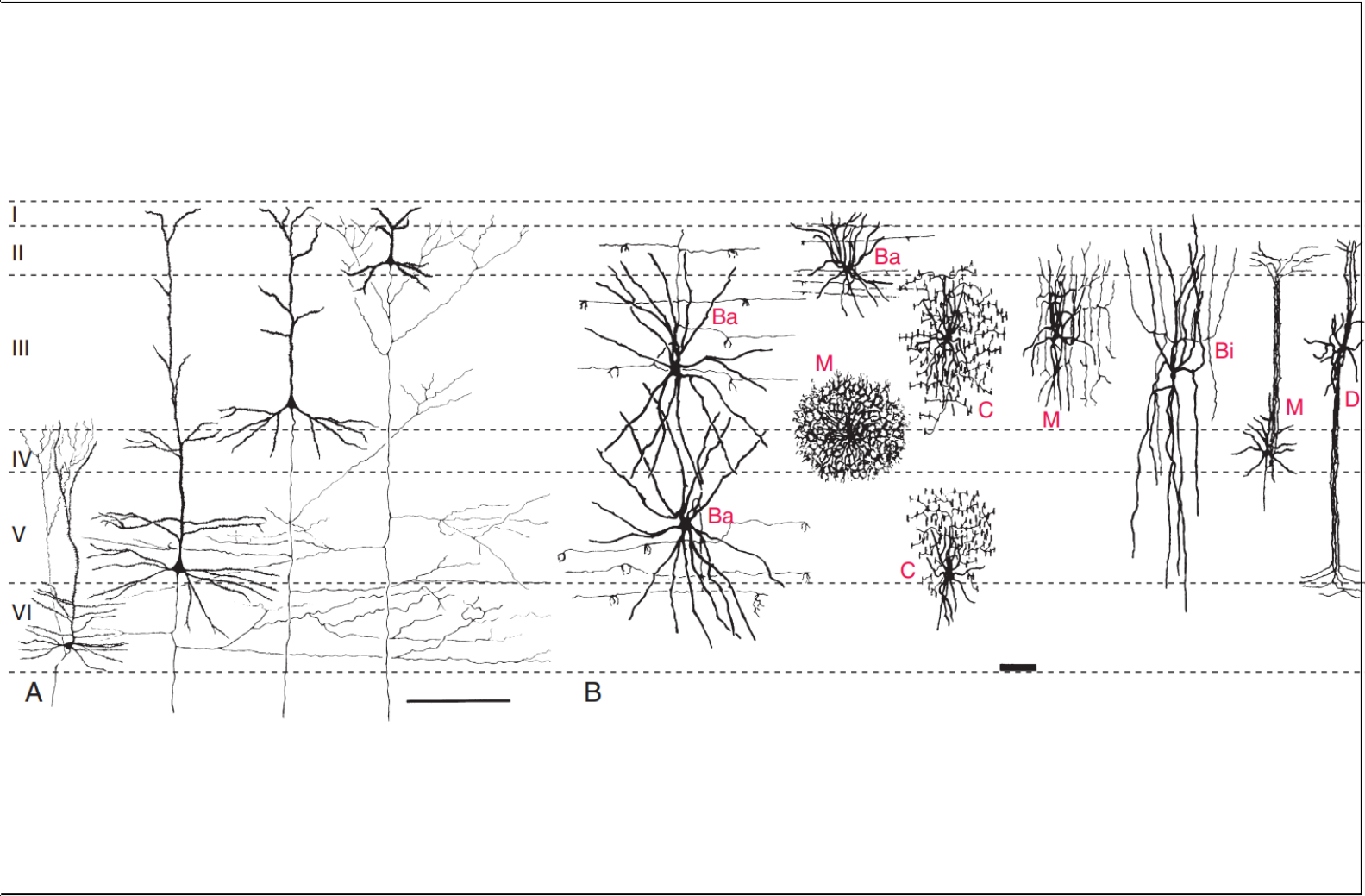




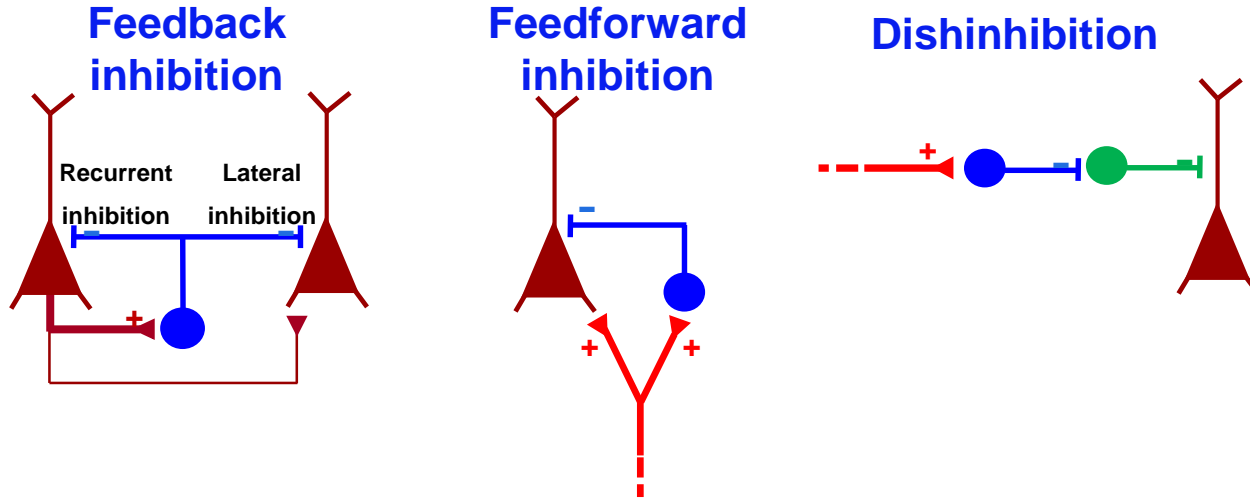








## Three main cortical microcircuits core motifs involving inhibitory interneurons

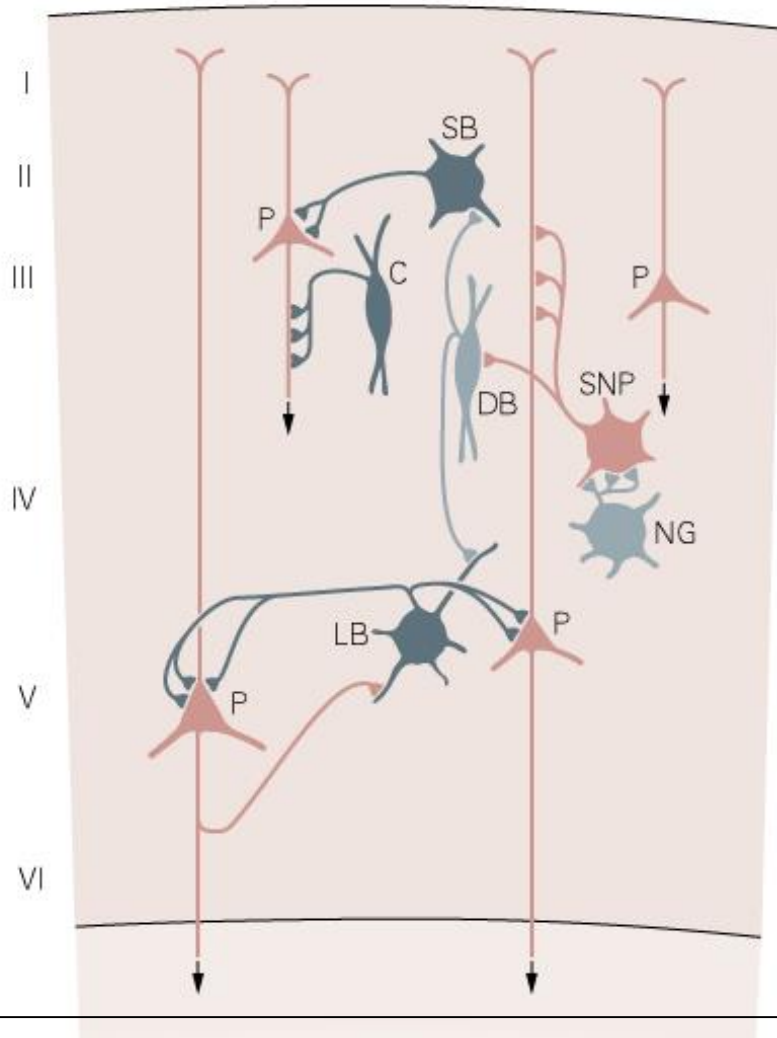


--Essential for the correct processing of sensory information

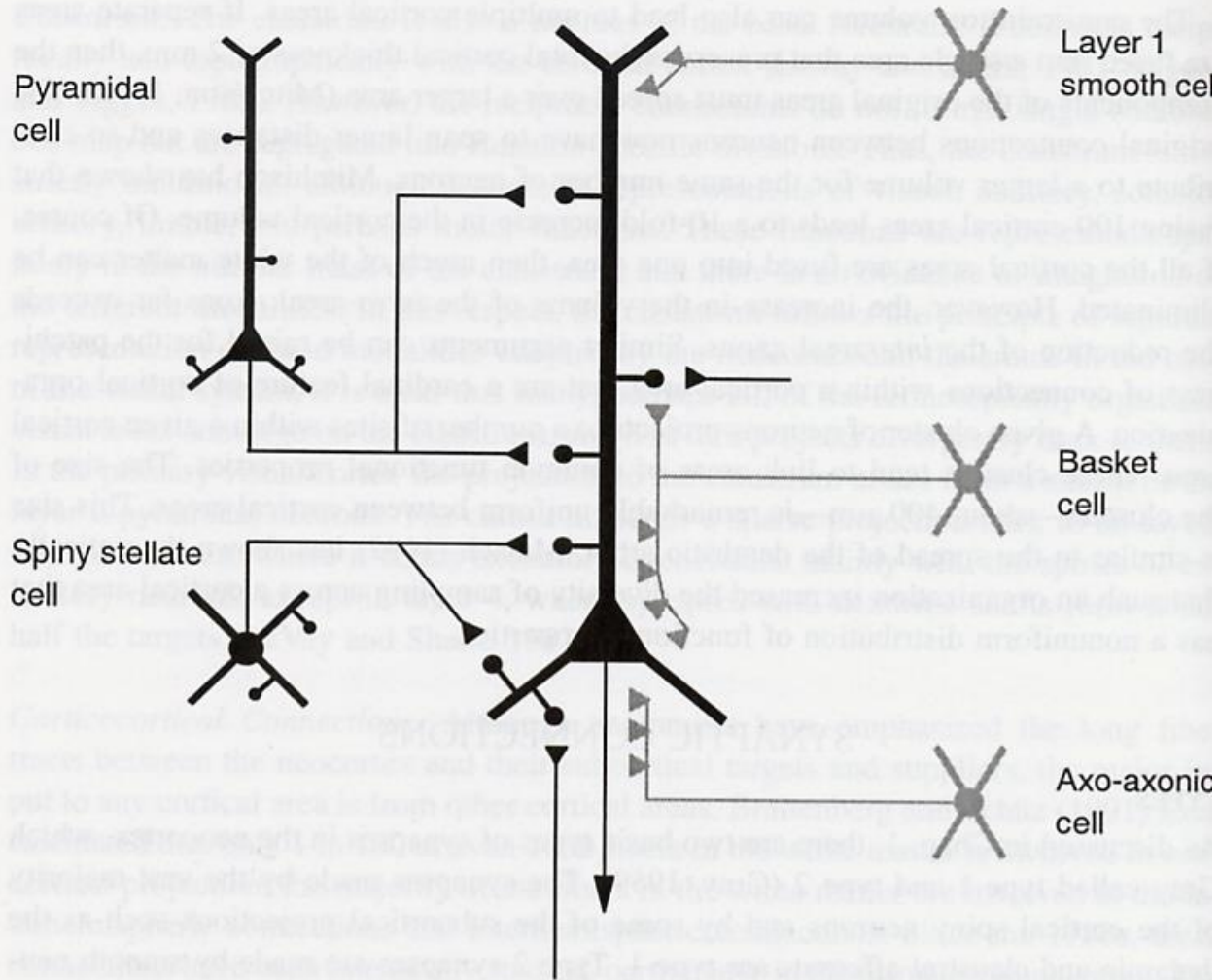
(e.g. gain control and dynamic range modulation, sensory feature selectivity, surround suppression, synchronization, cell assemblies formation and competition)

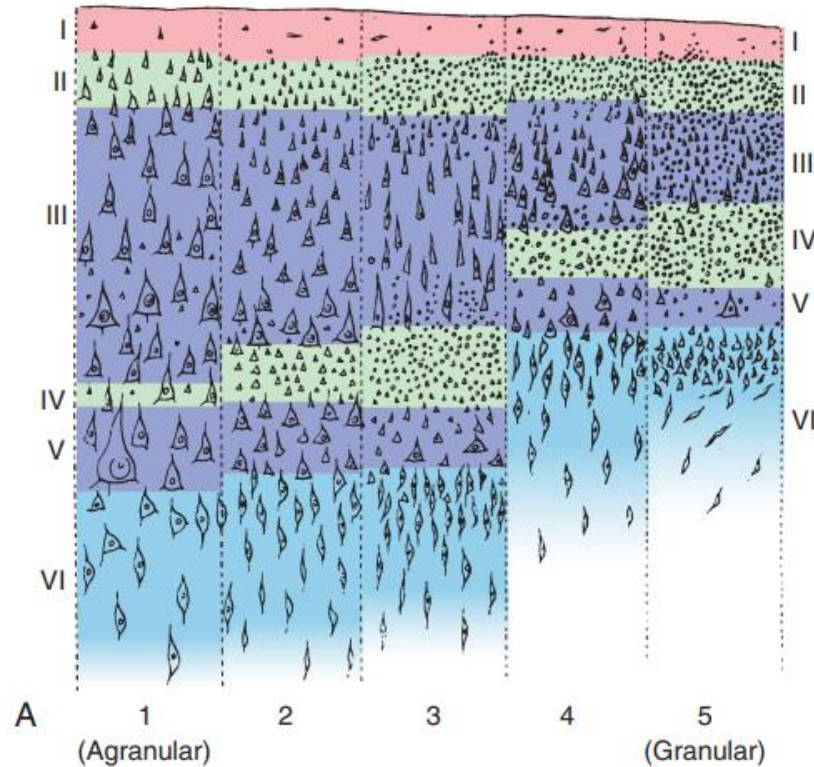
--Essential to maintain a dynamic cellular excitatory-inhibitory (E/I) balance necessary for the transfer of information while preventing runaway excitation





**LB: large basket**  
**SB: small basket**  
**DB: double bouquet**  
**NG: neurogliaform**

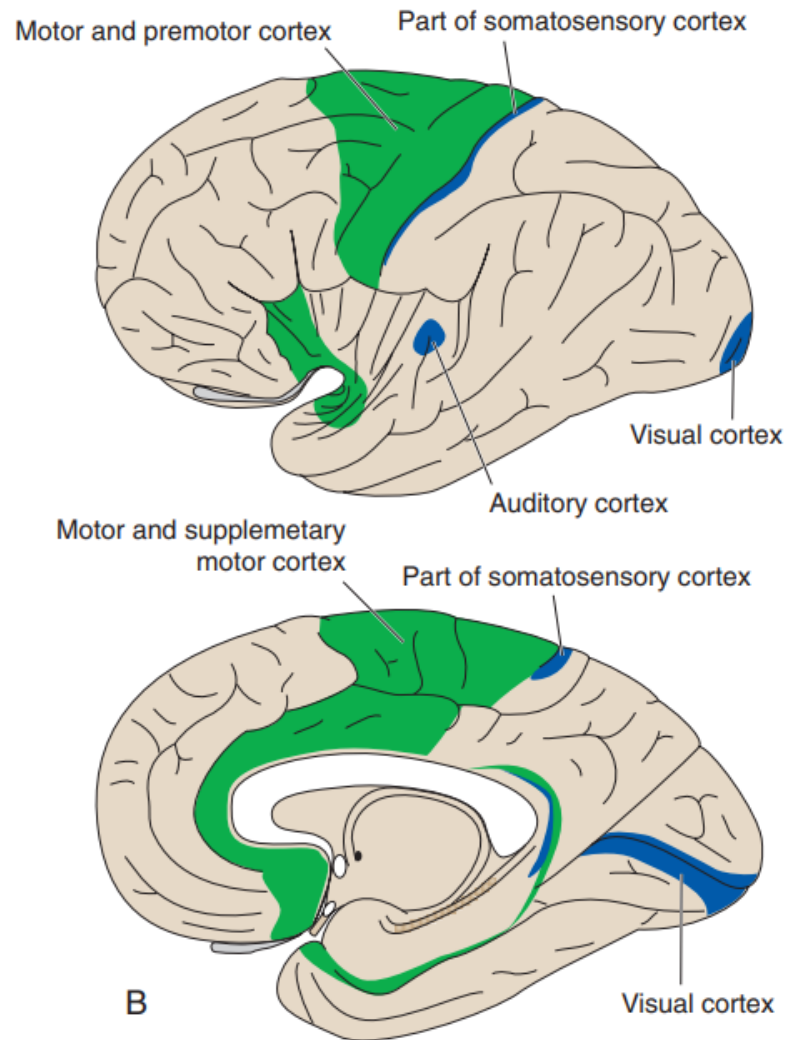
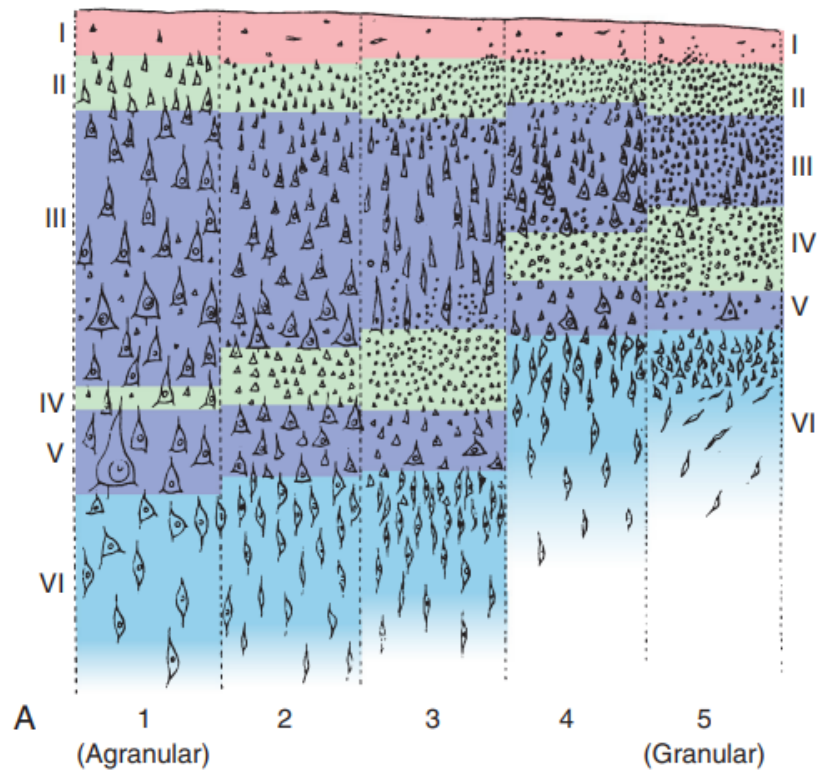




## Zonal differences

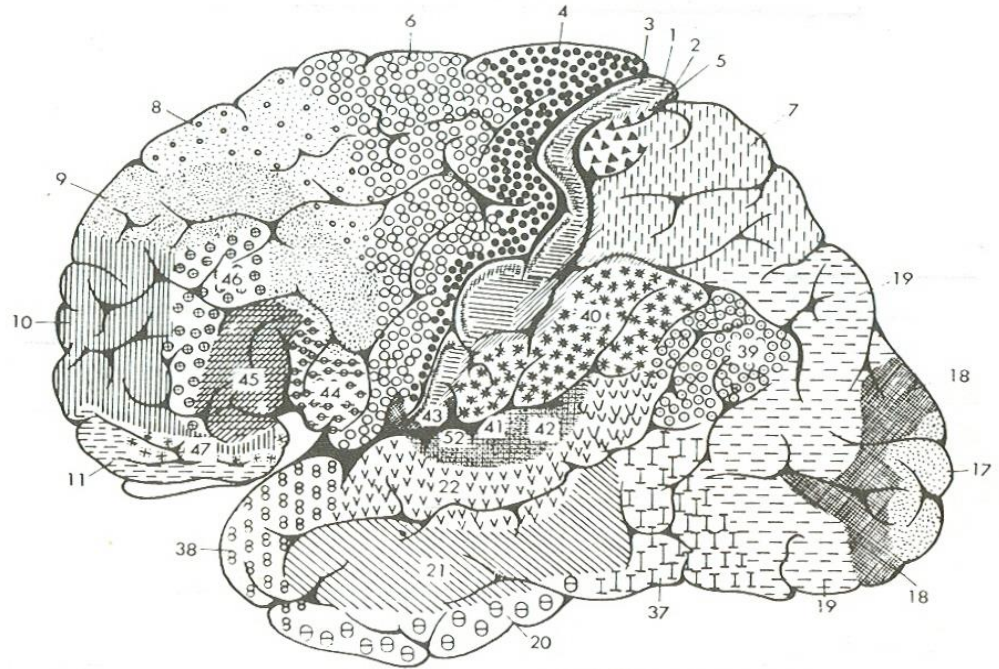
- **Agranular (1):** almost absent granular layers, very little incoming sensory fibers (astriate). Motor areas (M1).
- **Frontal (2):** little developed, yet present, granular layers. Mostly found in the frontal and parietal lobe (non primary motor/sensory areas).
- **Parietal (3)** Predominance of granule cell layers over pyramidal layers, but both are present and developed. Sensory cortices, balance between incoming (sensory) and outgoing (motor / association) fibers.
- **Polar (4):** thin layers of the frontal and occipital poles. Granular predominate over pyramidal. generally thinner than parietal cortices.
- **Granular (5):** almost absent pyramidal layers, layer V almost not distinguishable. Predominance of granule cells. Often also termed striate cortex due to prominent afferent fiber systems (eg. Stria of Gennari in the occipital lobe).



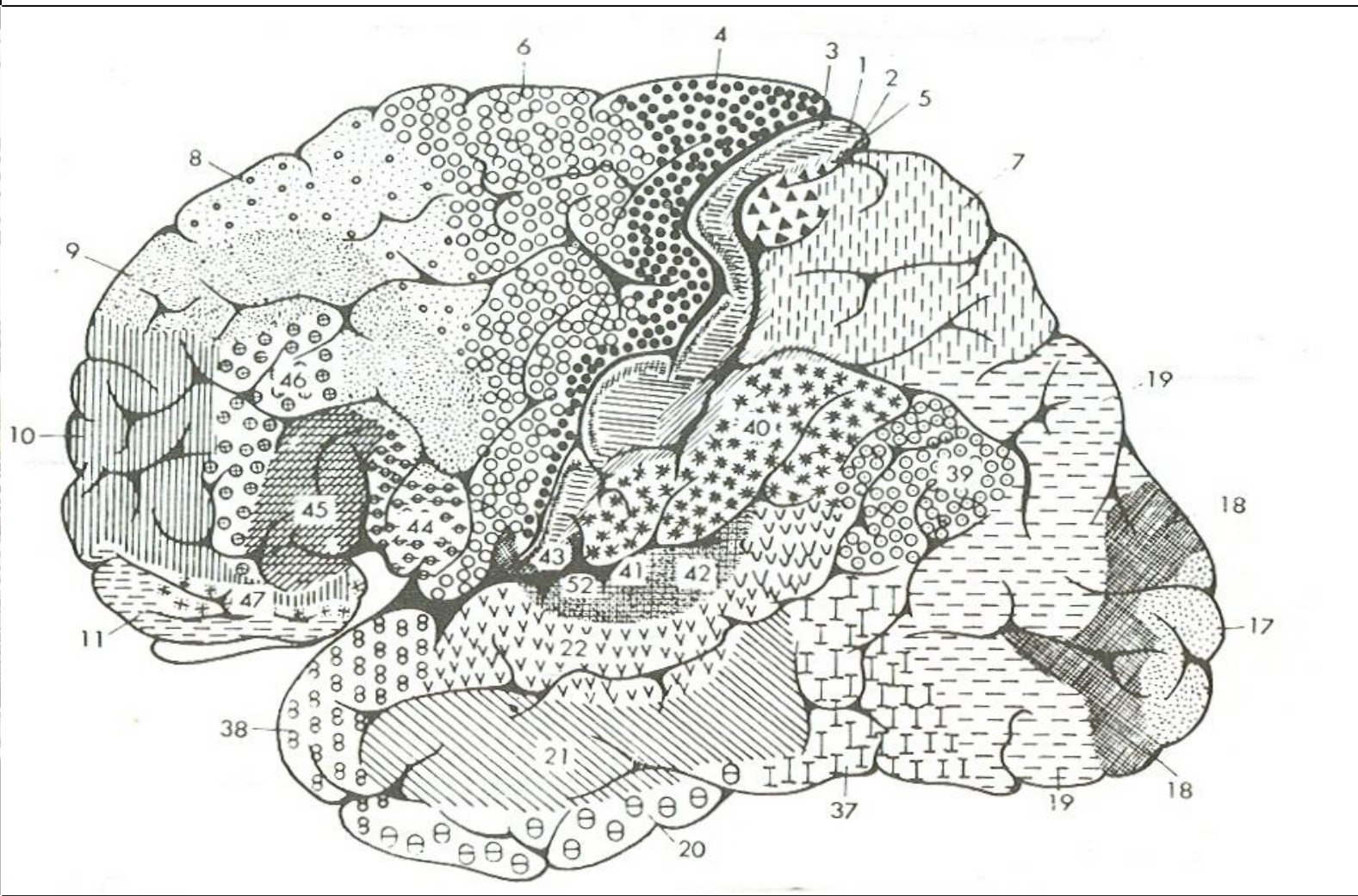


## Corbinus Brodmann (1909)

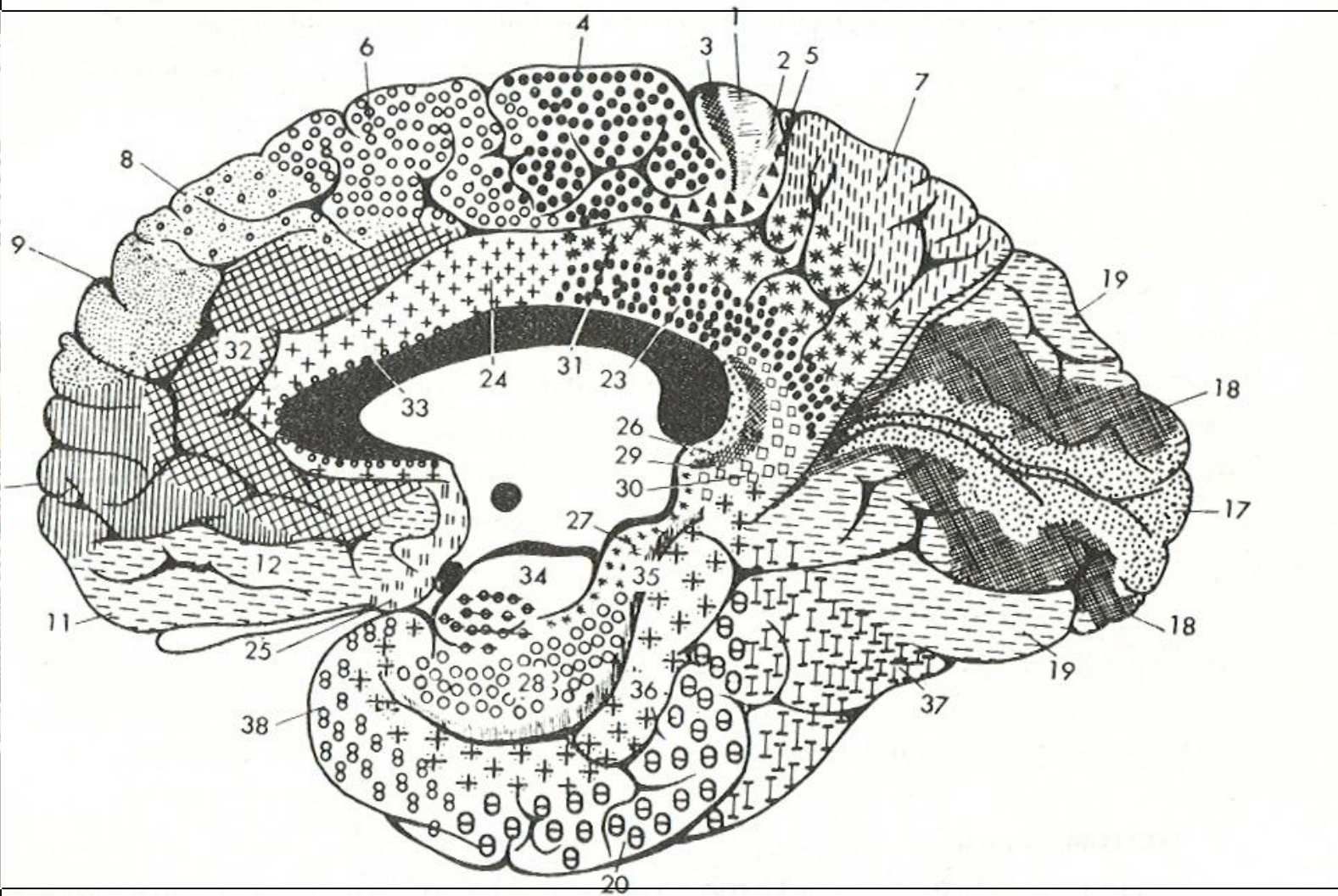
*Map of cytoarchitectural areas of the cortex (1-52)*

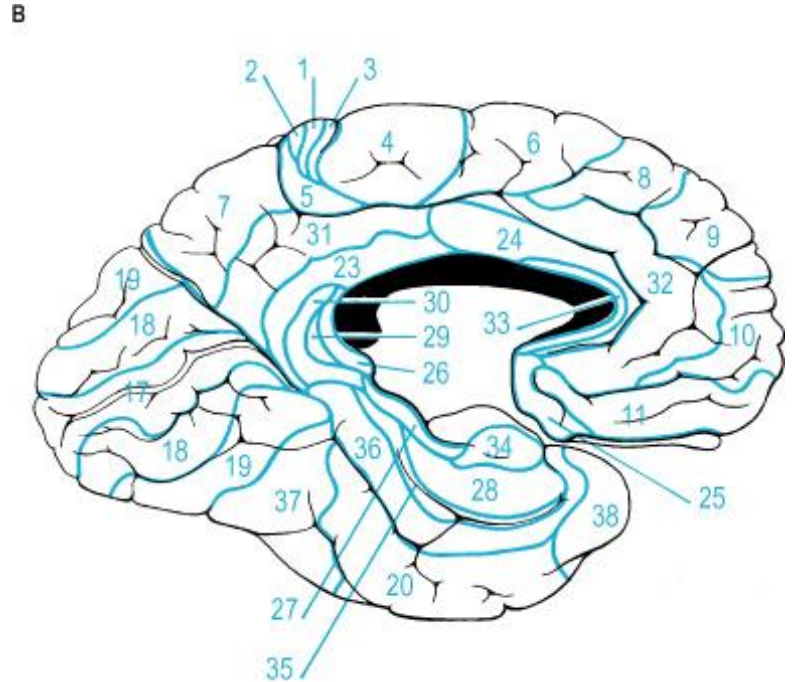
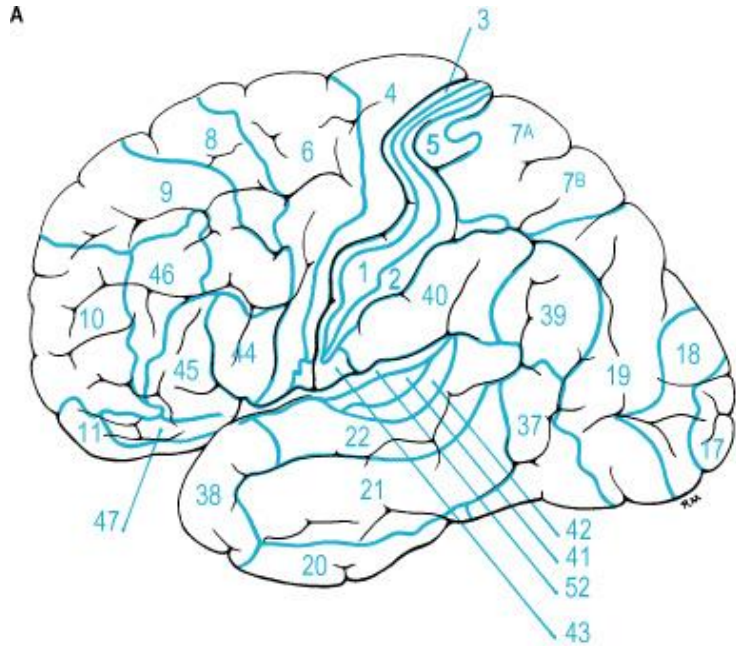








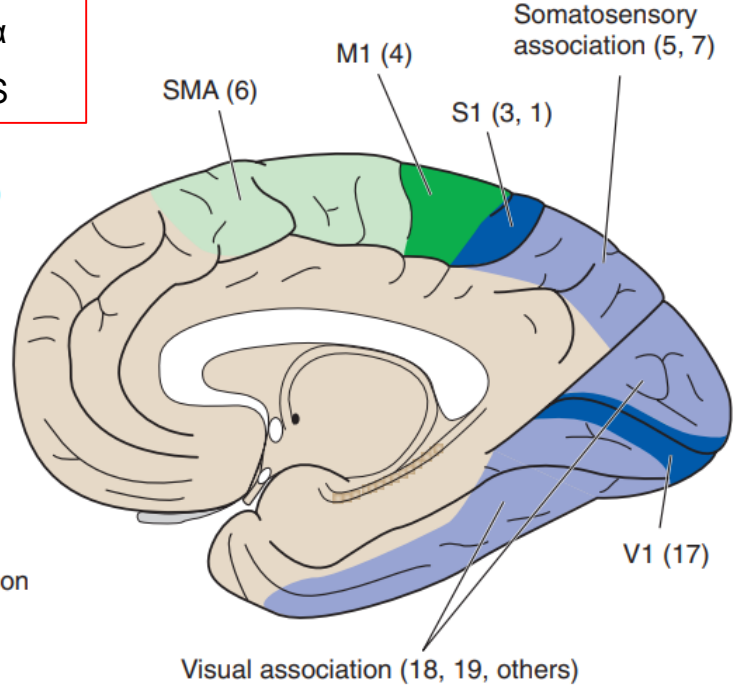
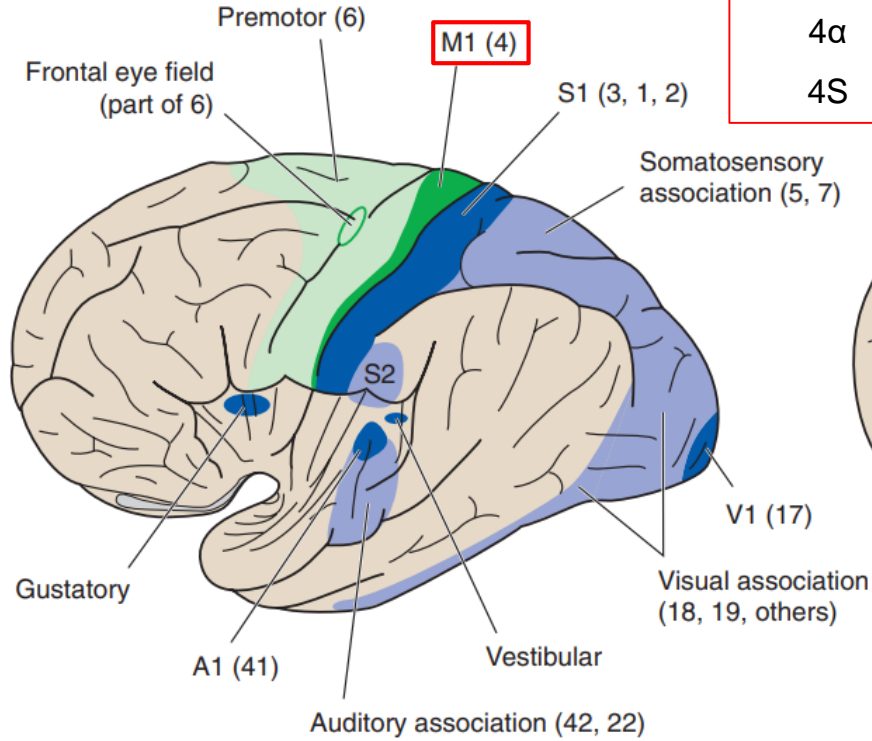




Lobe	Number	Location	Other Names
Frontal	4	Precentral gyrus, anterior paracentral lobule	Primary motor area; M1
	6	Superior and middle frontal gyri, precentral gyrus	Premotor area, supplementary motor area
	44, 45	Inferior frontal gyrus (opercular and triangular parts)	Broca's area (on the left)
Parietal	3, 1, 2	Postcentral gyrus, posterior paracentral lobule	Primary somatosensory area; S1
	5, 7	Superior parietal lobule	Somatosensory association area
	39	Inferior parietal lobule	Angular gyrus
	40	Inferior parietal lobule	Supramarginal gyrus
Occipital	17	Banks of calcarine sulcus	Primary visual area; V1
	18, 19	Surrounding 17	Visual association areas; V2, V3, V4, V5
Temporal	41	Transverse temporal gyri	Primary auditory area; A1
	42	Transverse temporal gyri	Auditory association area; A2
	22	Superior temporal gyrus	Auditory association area; posterior portion (on the left) = Wernicke's area

# Primary Motor Area (M1)

Divides into:  
4γ  
4α  
4S





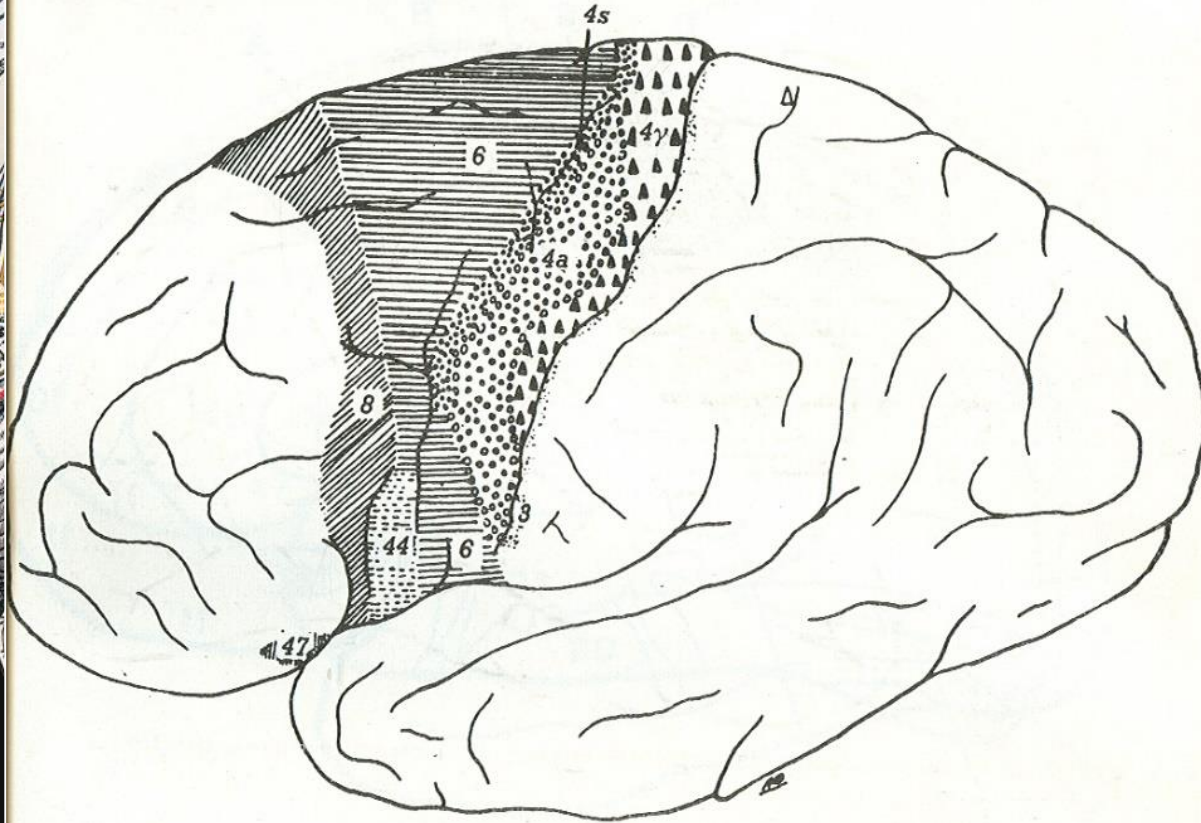
**Form descending fibers (pyramidal pathway)**

4γ

4α

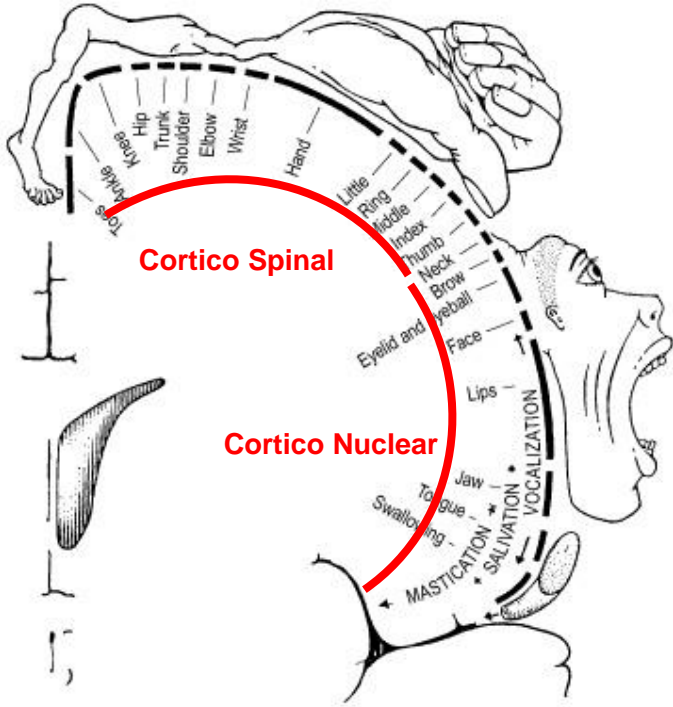
**Form descending fibers to striatum (extrapyramidal pathway)**

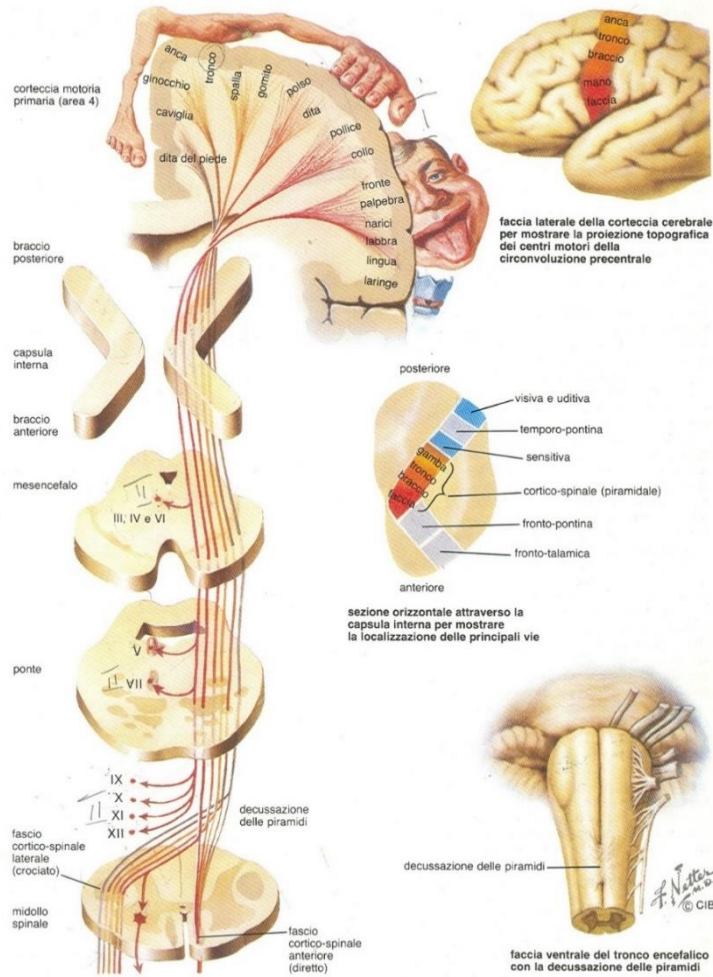
4S





A



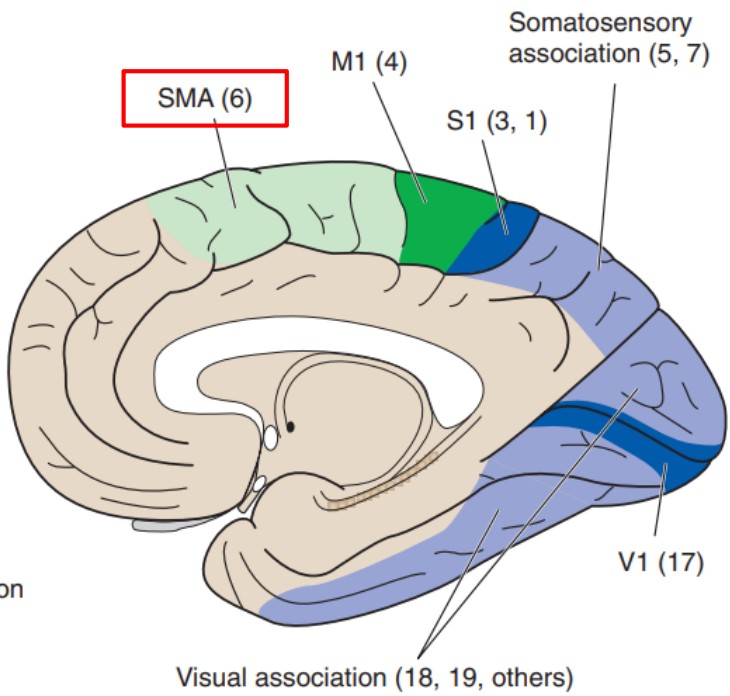
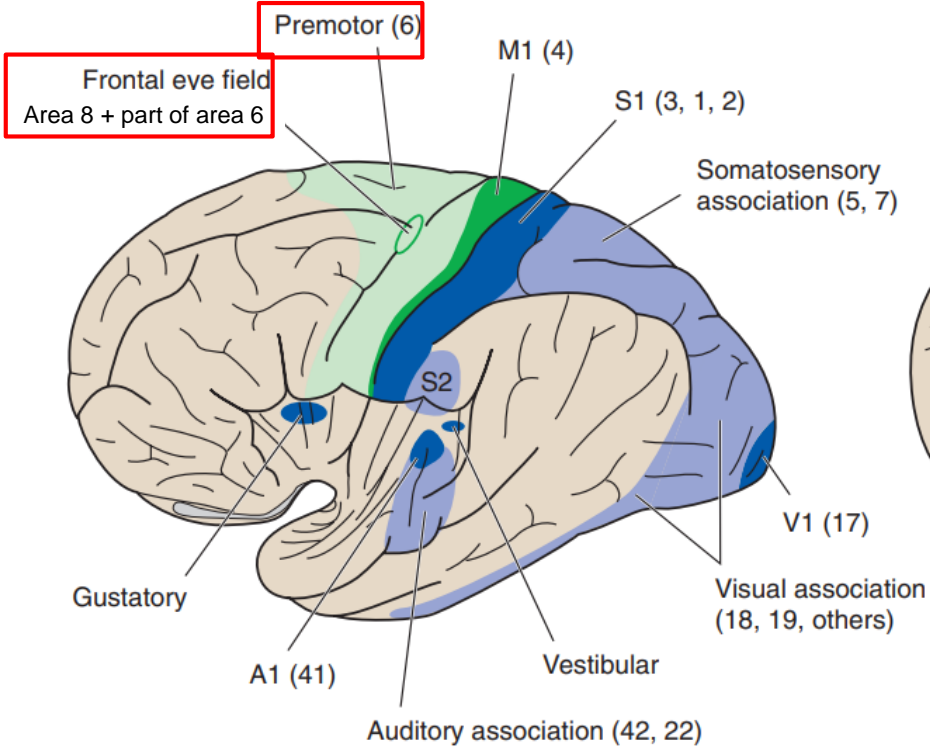


# Lesion of M1

## Contralateral paralysis



**Premotor, Supplementary Motor & Frontal Eye Field (Area 6)**



## Premotor, Supplementary Motor & Frontal Eye Field (Area 6)

### Premotor (lateral area 6):

Anterior to M1 (lateral area 6).

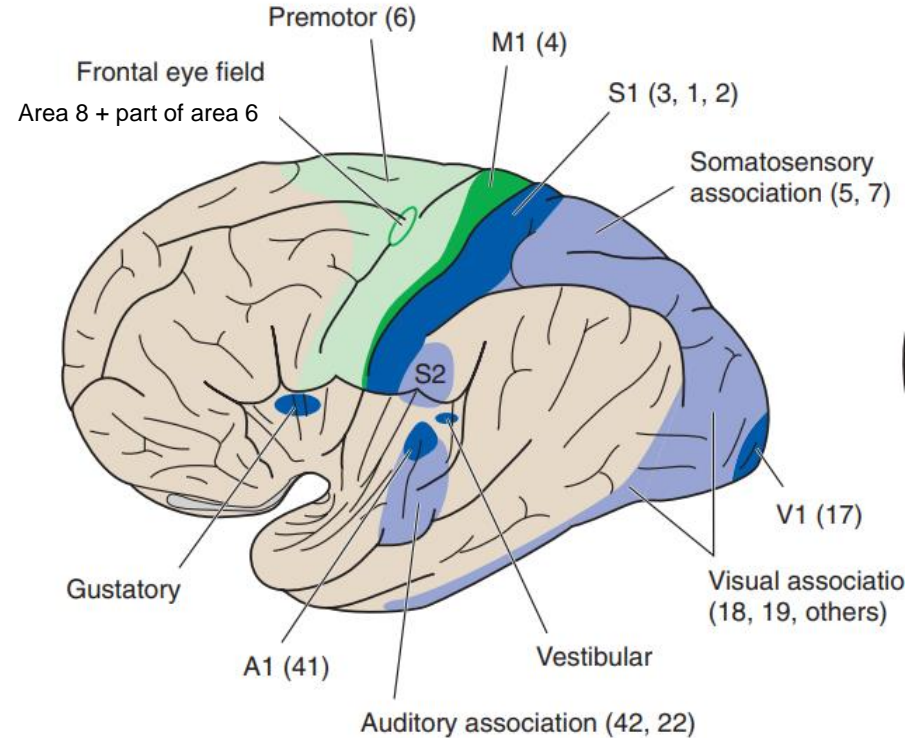
- Connected to the basal ganglia circuits
- Contributes to the pyramidal pathway

**Function:** motor preparation and movement

### Frontal Eye Field (8+6):

- Connected to the oculomotor circuits
- Contributes to the cortico-nuclear pathway

**Function:** control of conjugated eye movements



**LESION:** ipsilateral conjugate deviation of the eyes

## Premotor, Supplementary Motor & Frontal Eye Field (Area 6)

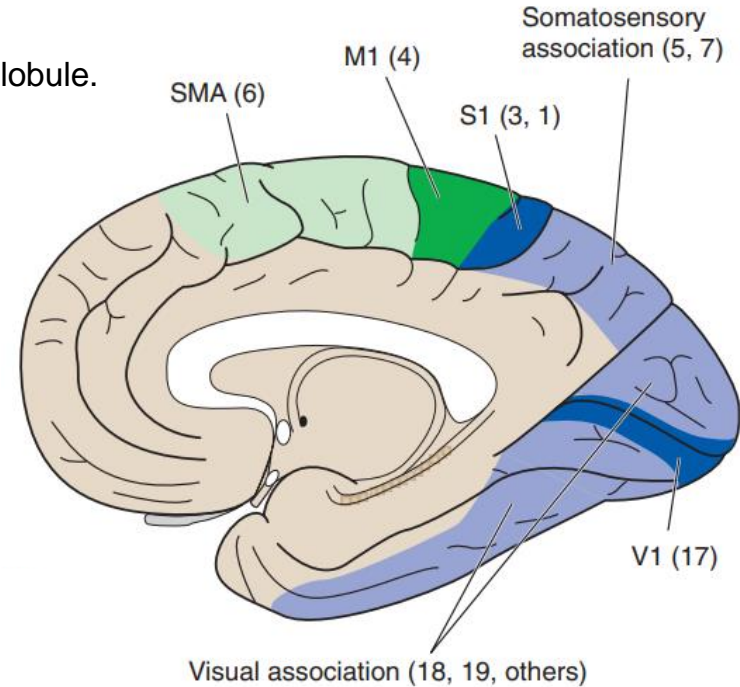
### Supplementary Motor (Medial area 6):

Medial surface of the frontal lobe, anterior to the paracentral lobule.

- Contributes to the pyramidal pathway
- Great quantity of connections with the frontal lobe and motor areas

**Function:** Motor memory, complex movements and sequential movements.

LESION: similar to basal ganglia lesions  
and akinesia



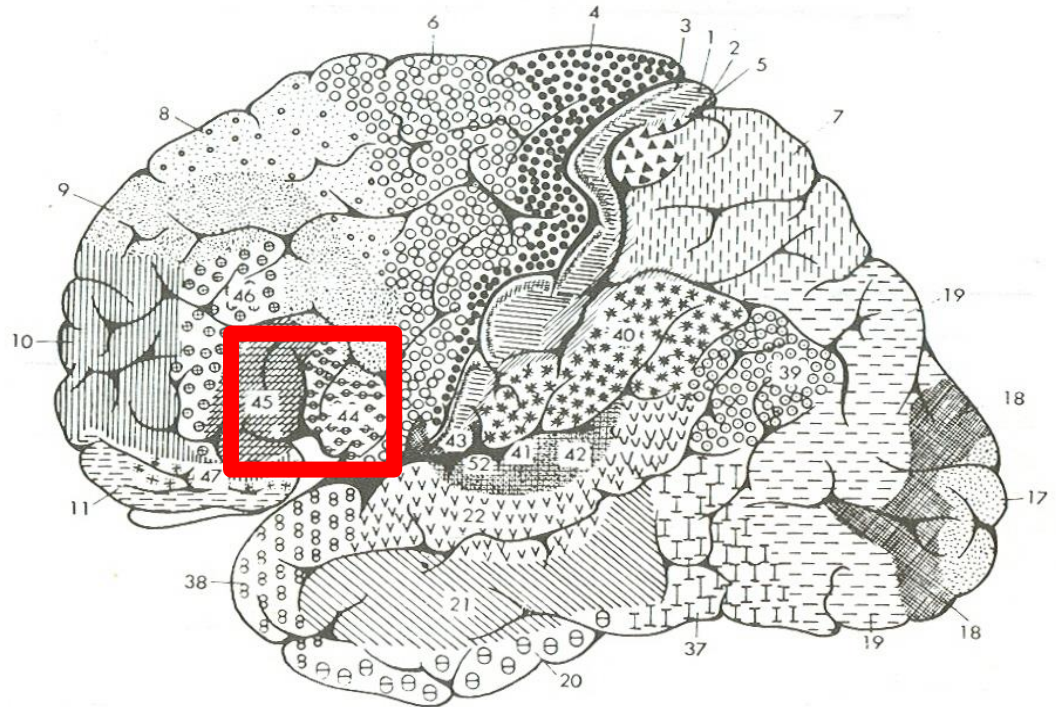


## Prefrontal Cortex

Motor areas for speech (Broca's Area): Area 44-45

- Opercular and triangular part of the inferior frontal gyrus
- In the dominating hemisphere: center for speech production

**LESION: non-fluent aphasia**



# Non-fluent Aphasia (Broca's Aphasia)



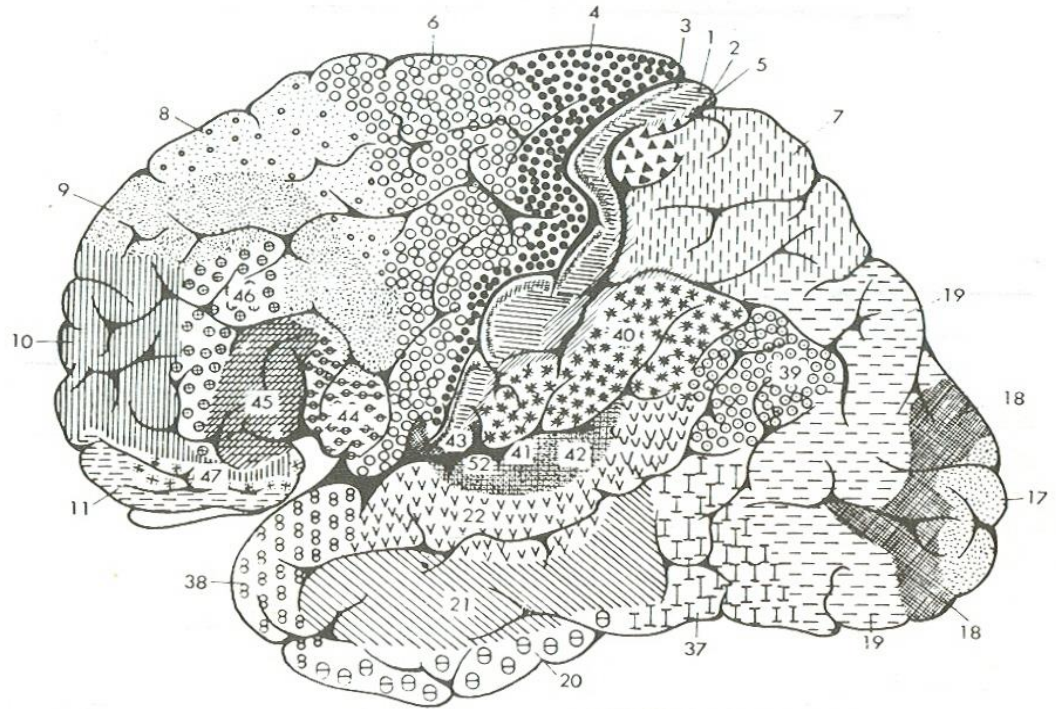


## Prefrontal Cortex

Areas 9-10 (DL-PFC)

Areas 11 (orbitofrontal cortex)

LESION: dysexecutive syndromes, lack of inhibition,  
complex cognitive disturbances





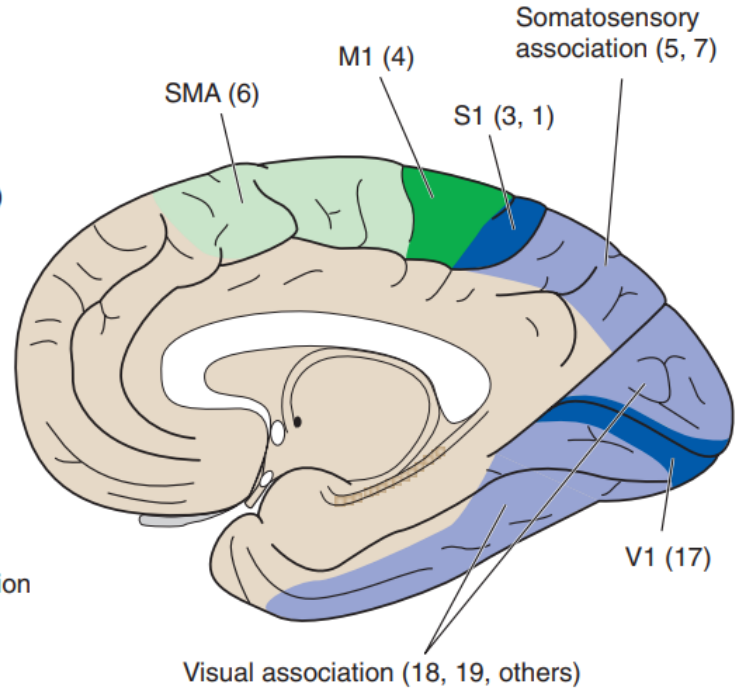
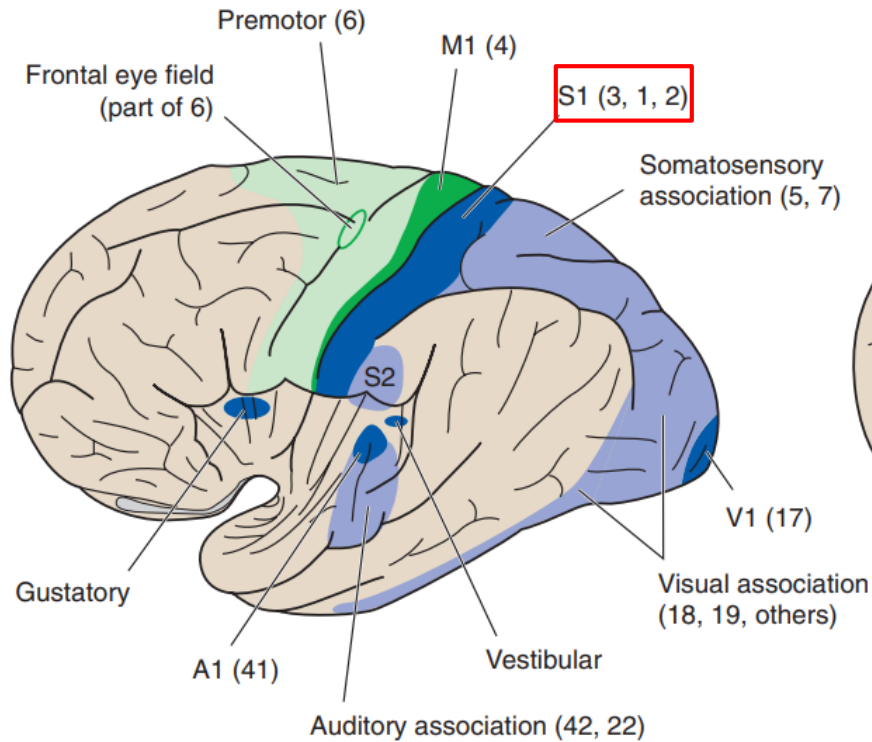


LESION: dysexecutive syndromes, lack of inhibition,  
complex cognitive disturbances

## Case of Phineas Gage

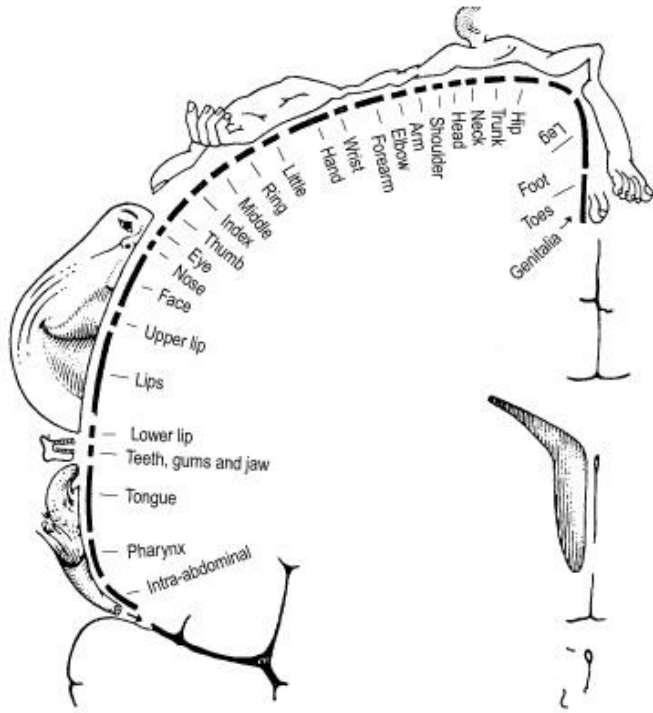


# Somatosensory Area (S1)





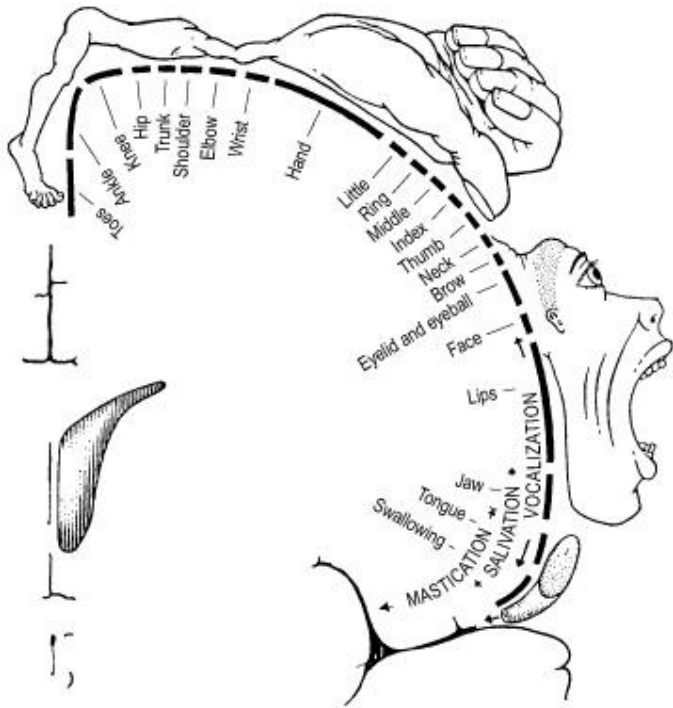
B



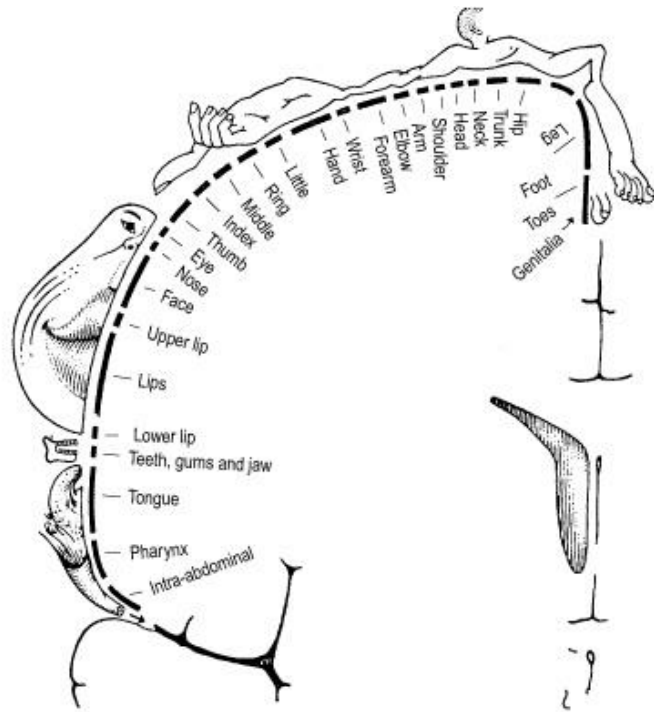




A

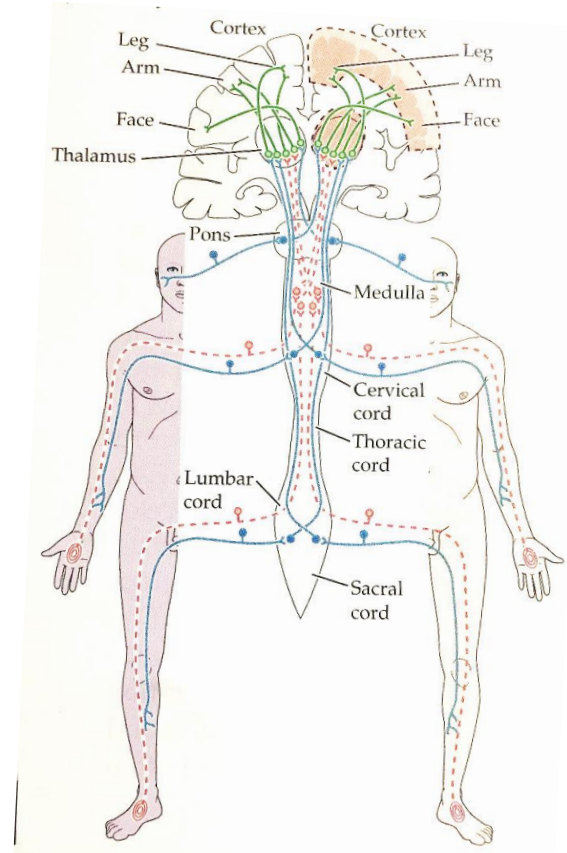
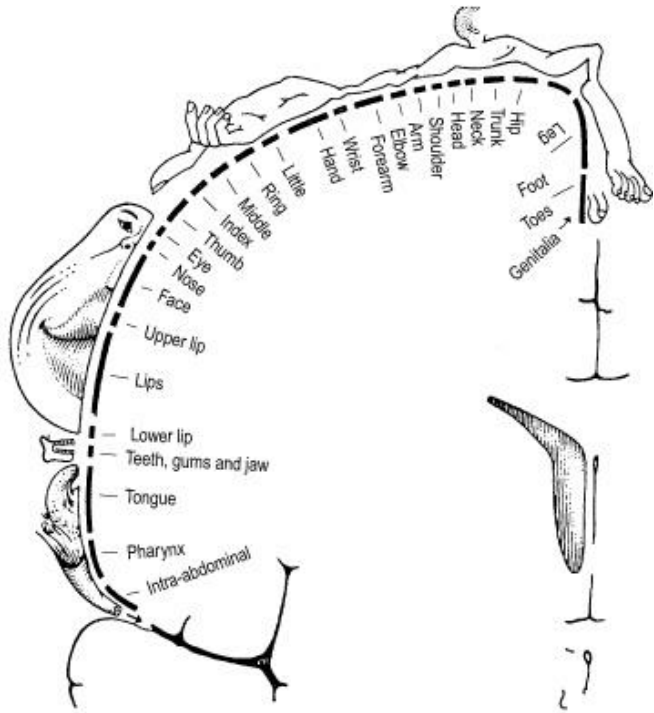


B





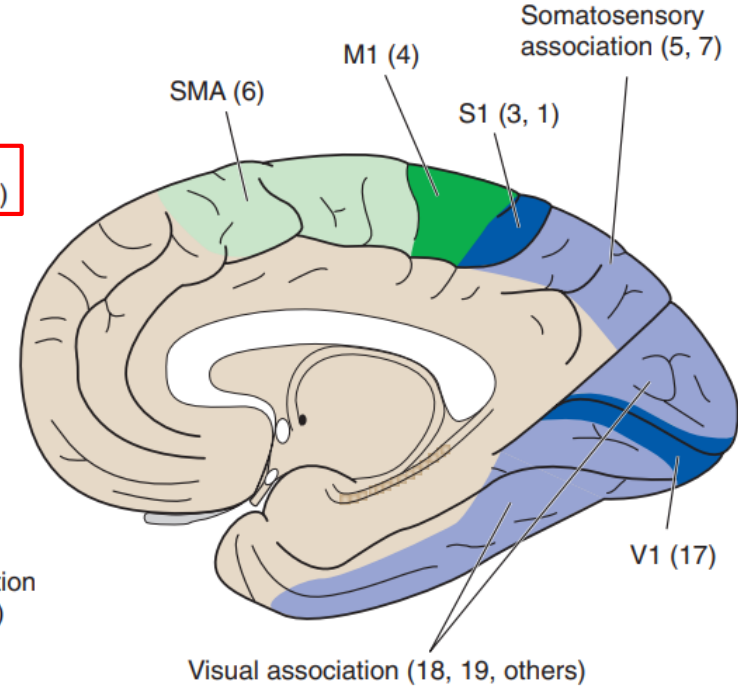
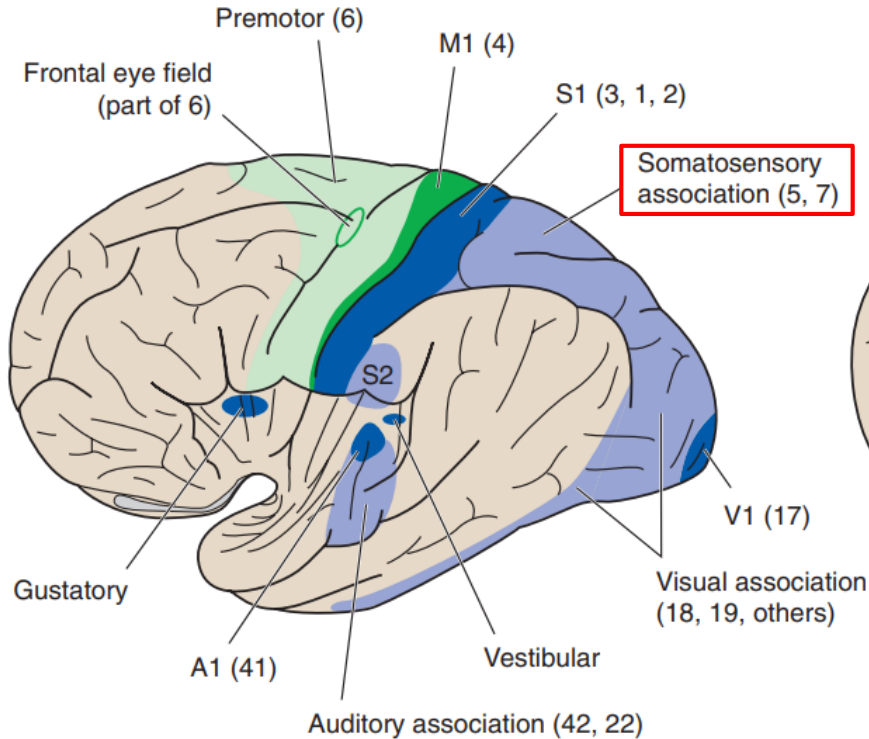
B



## Associative somatosensory areas

- Superior parietal lobule (cortex) – Areas 5-7
- Inferior parietal lobule (cortex) – Areas 49-40

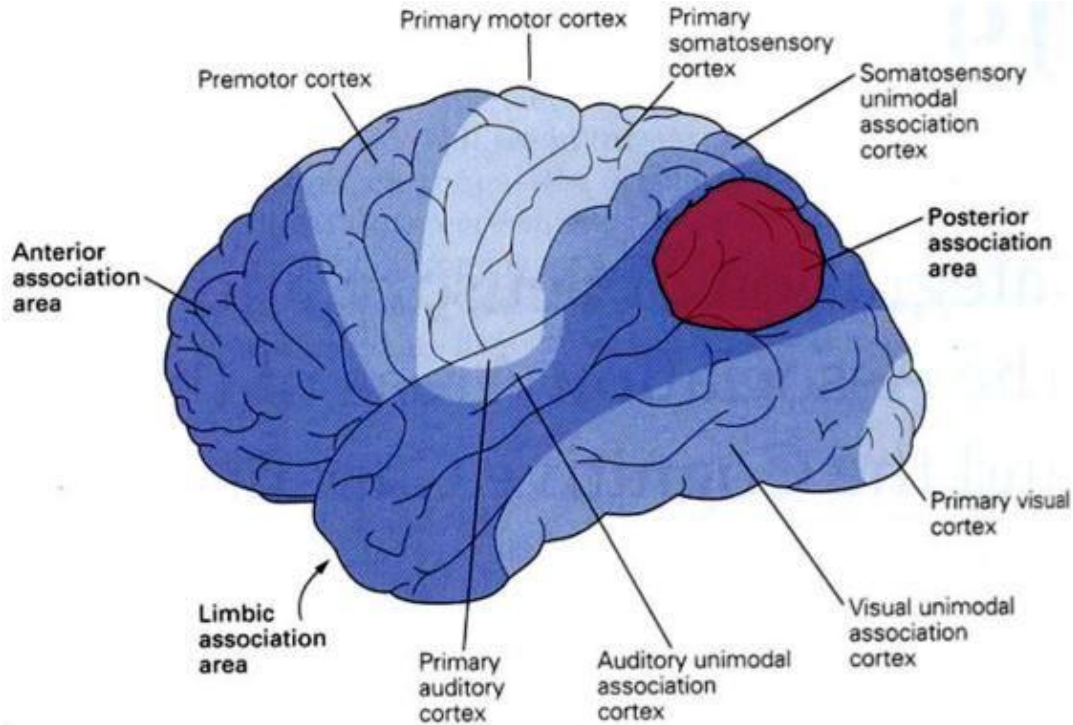
Functionally related to **stereognosis**





## Lesion of associative parietal areas (left hemisphere or dominant hemisphere)

- Inferior parietal lobule (cortex) – Areas 49-40



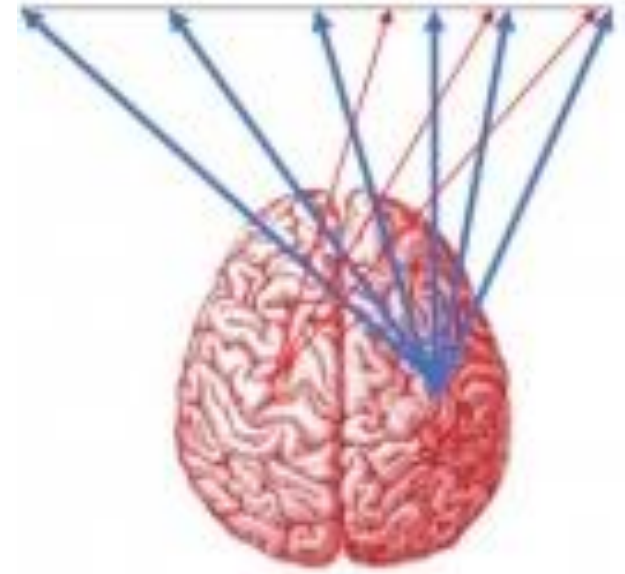
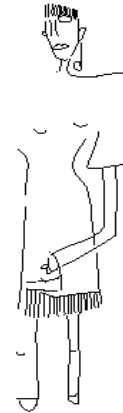
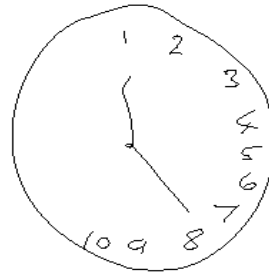
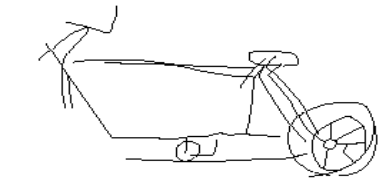
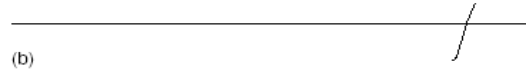
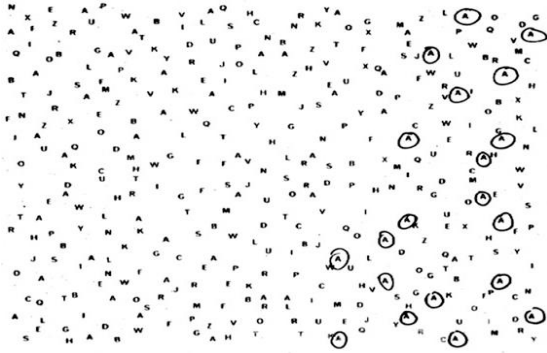
## Gerstmann Syndrome

- Dysgraphia / Agraphia
- Dyscalculia / Acalculia
- Left-right disorientation
- Finger Anomia

## Lesion of associative parietal areas (right hemisphere)

- Superior parietal lobule (cortex) – Areas 5-7

## Neglect



**Figure 1.** Examples of left-sided neglect after damage to the right hemisphere of the brain, in clinical paper-and-pencil tests. (a) Cancellation; (b) line bisection; (c) drawings of bicycle, clock and woman.



**Neglect**

- Most often, limbic and emotional circuits are intact



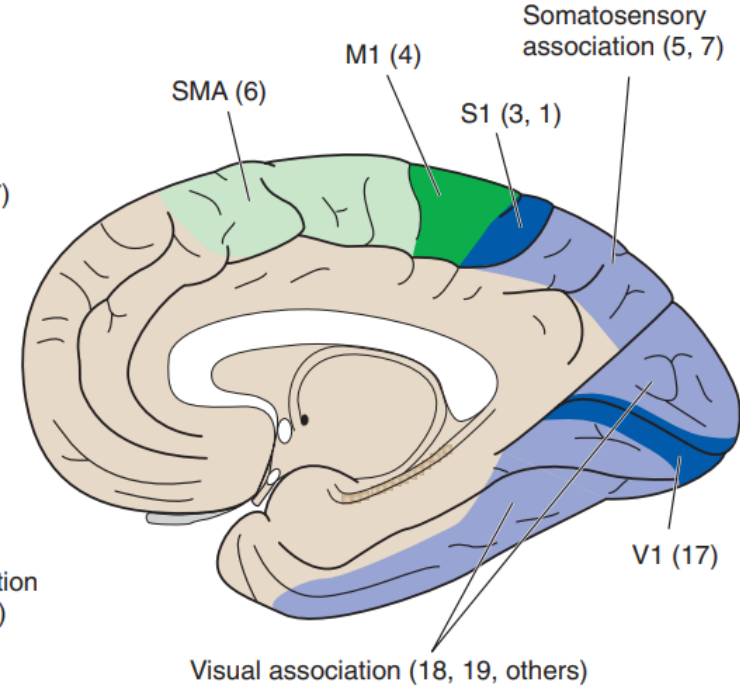
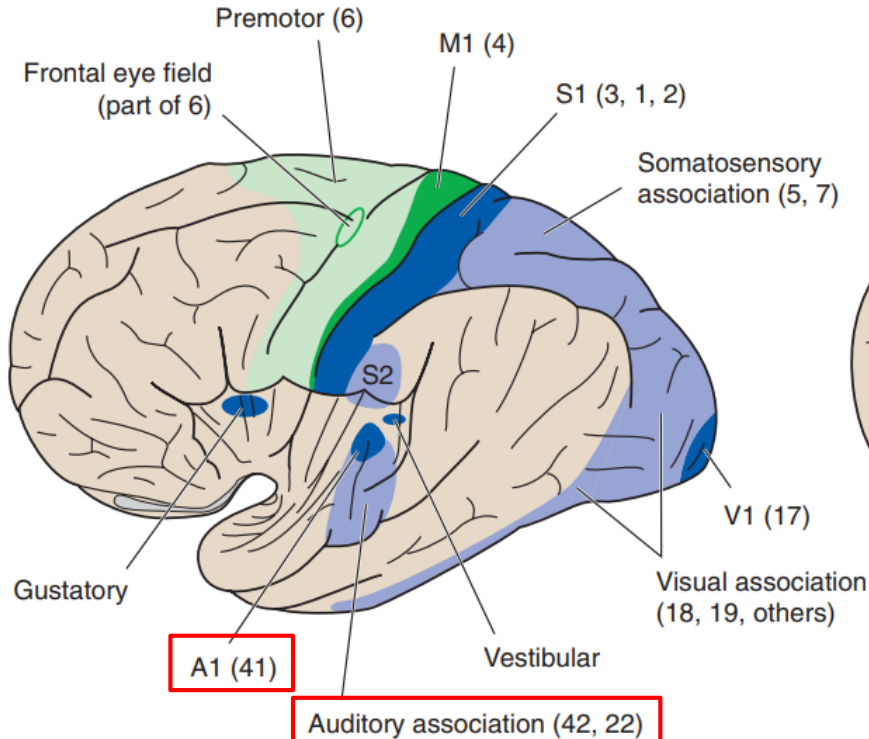


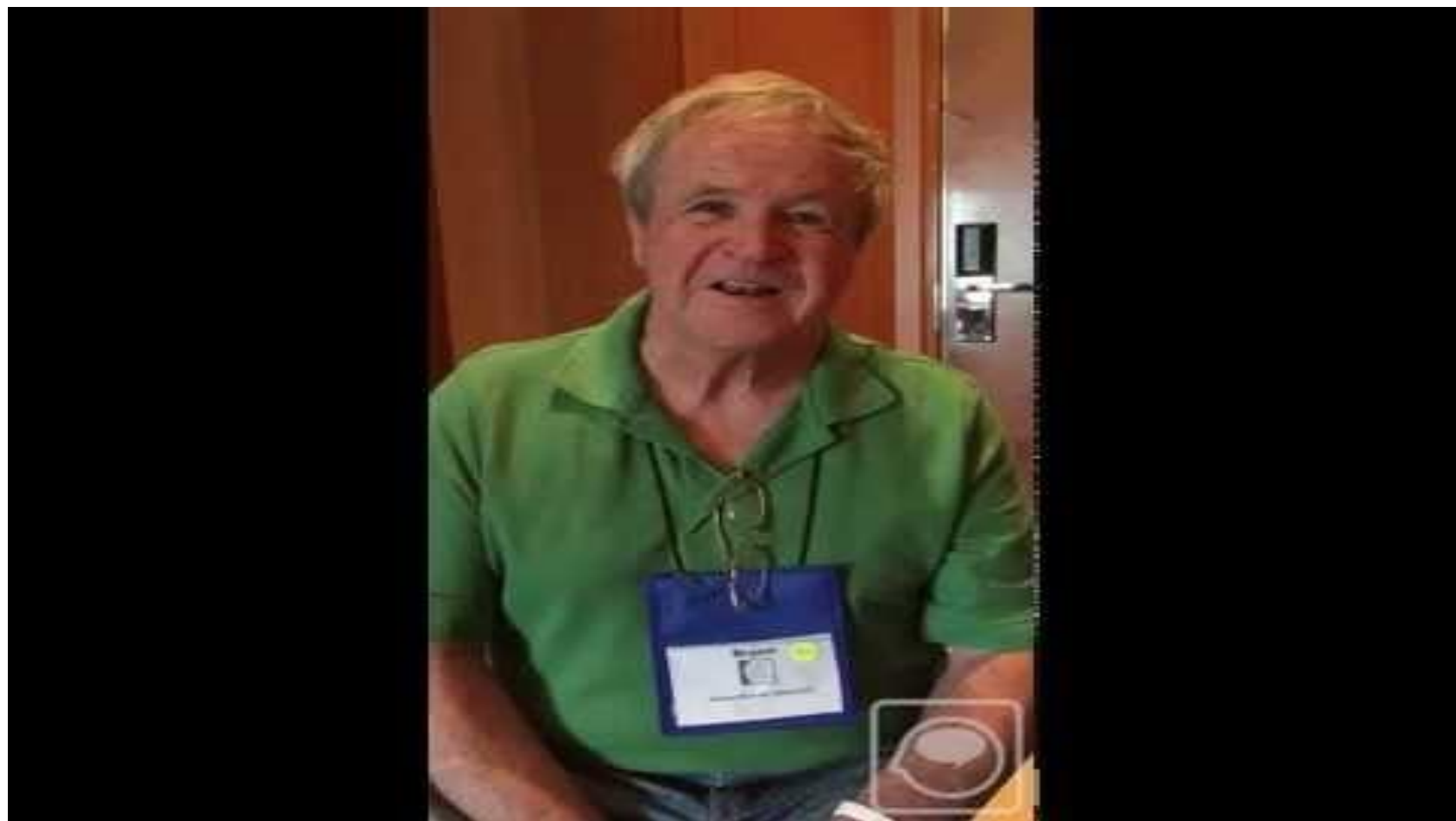
## Primary and associative auditory areas






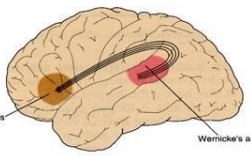
- Heschl's Gyri (cortex) – Area 41 (A1)
- Superior temporal and inferior parietal cortex – Areas 42-22

## Lesion

- • Cortical Deafness
- • Fluent Aphasia  
**Wernicke's aphasia**

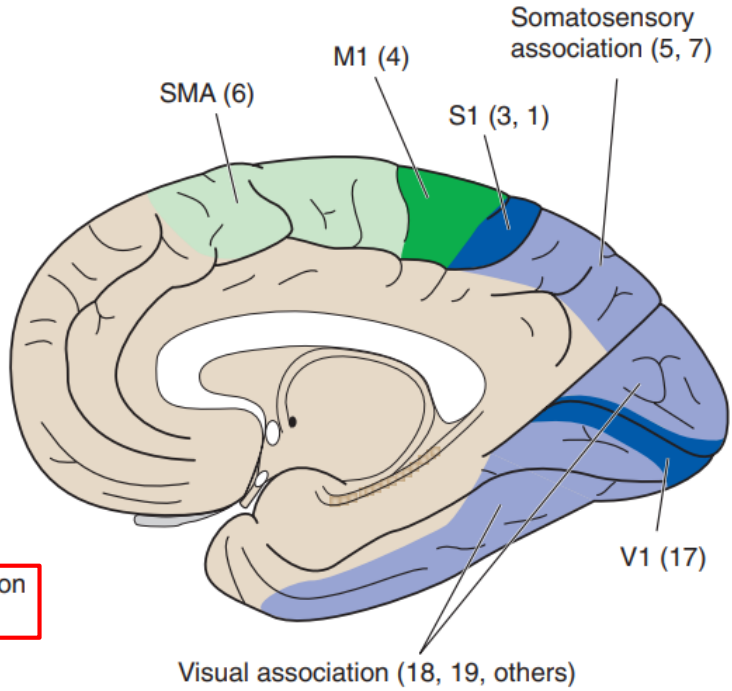
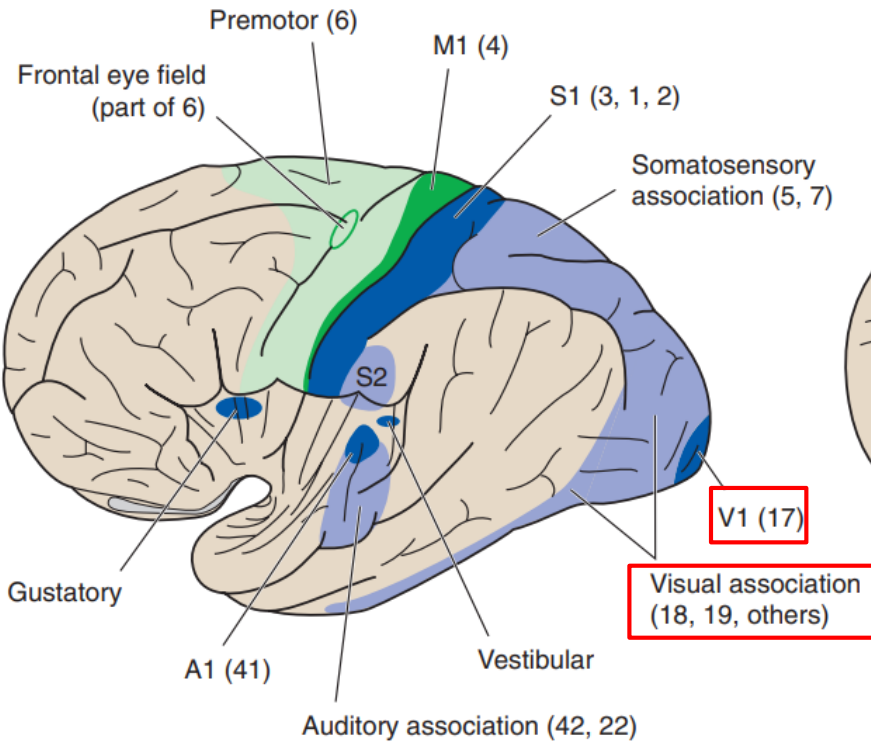




Aphasia Type	Fluency	Repetition	Comprehension	Typical Lesion Location*
Broca's	↓	↓	±	
Transcortical motor	↓	±	±	
Global	↓	↓	↓	
Wernicke's	±	↓	↓	
Transcortical sensory	±	±	↓	
Conduction	±	↓	±	



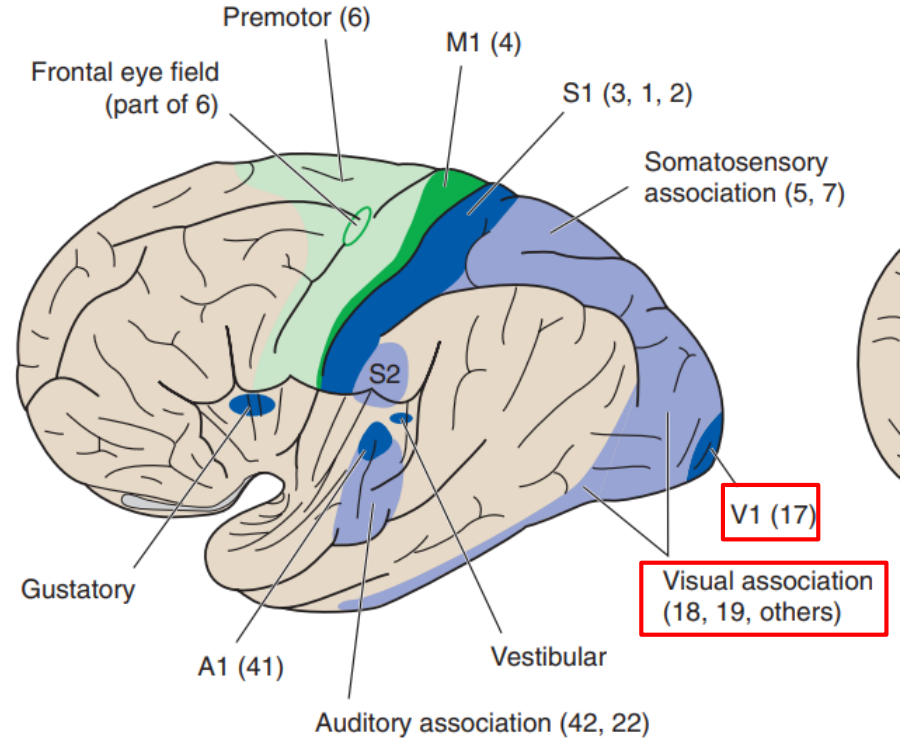
# Primary (V1) and associative visual areas(V2-3)



## Primary (V1) and associative visual areas(V2-3)

### V1 – Area 17

Primary visual cortex



LESION: Anton's Syndrome (Cortical Blindness)

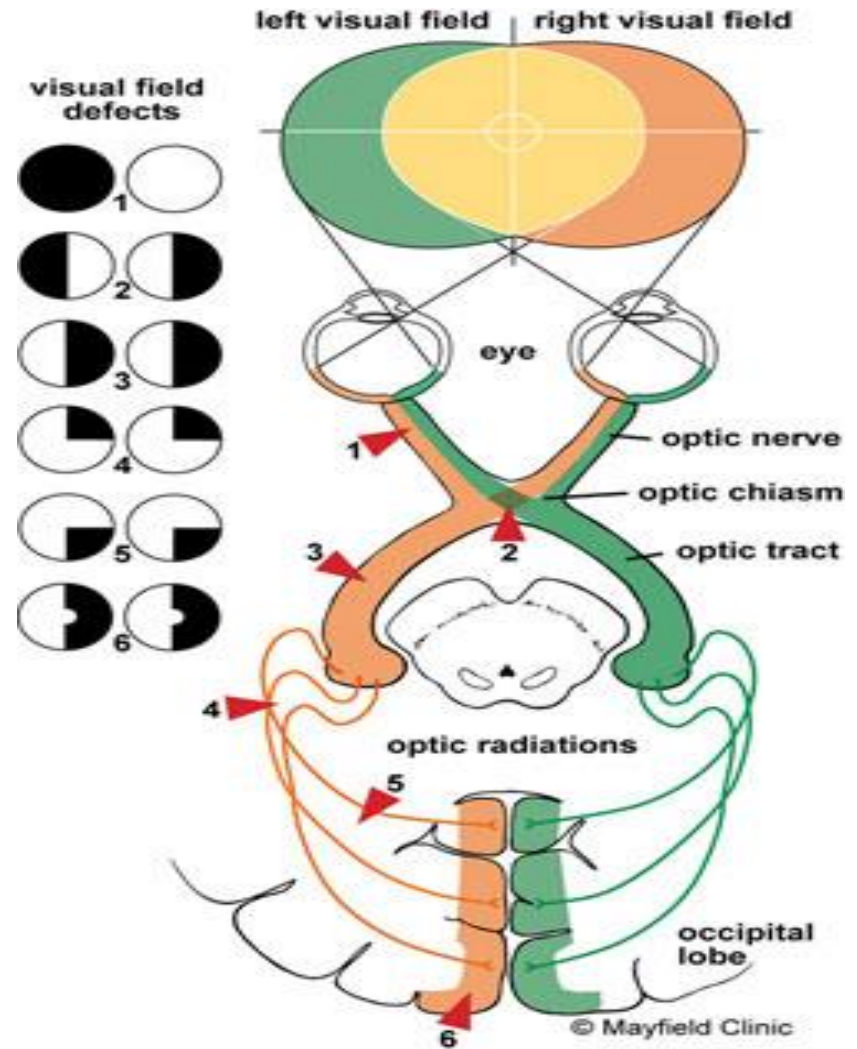
## Primary visual areas (V1)

### V1 – Area 17

Primary visual cortex



LESION: Anton's Syndrome (Cortical Blindness)





## Primary (V1) and associative visual areas(V2-3)

### V2-3 – Area 18-19

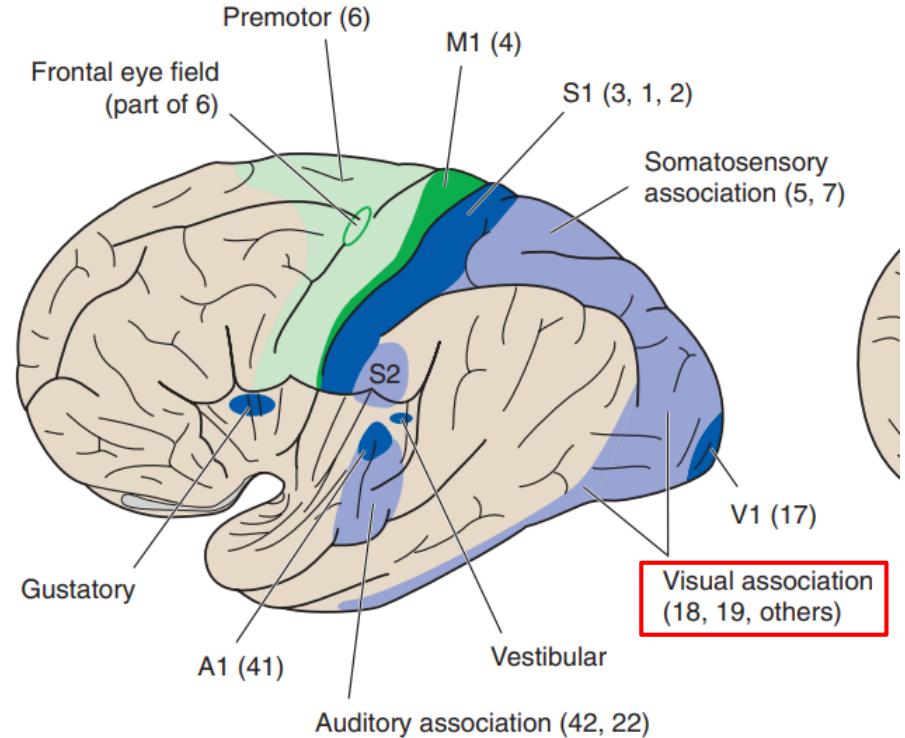
Associative visual cortices

- *Occipito-parietal circuit* → *Where?*

LESION: Optic Ataxia, Balint Holmes Syndrome

- *Occipito-temporal circuit* → *What?*

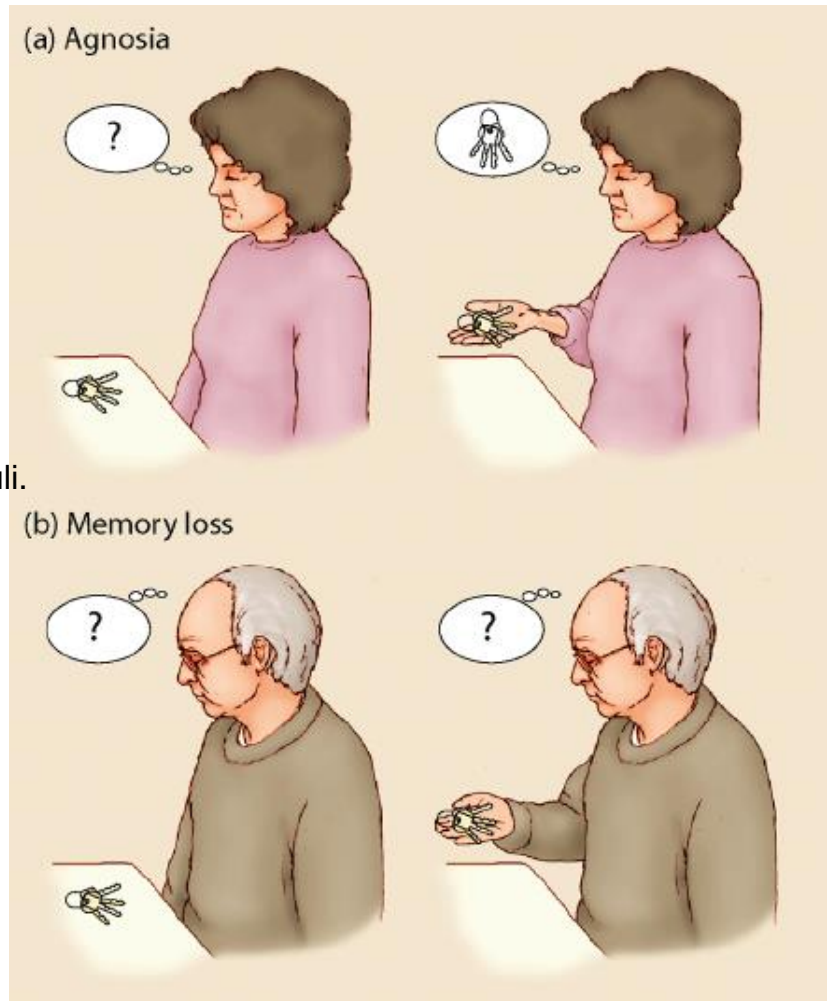
LESION: Agnosia, Prosopagnosia

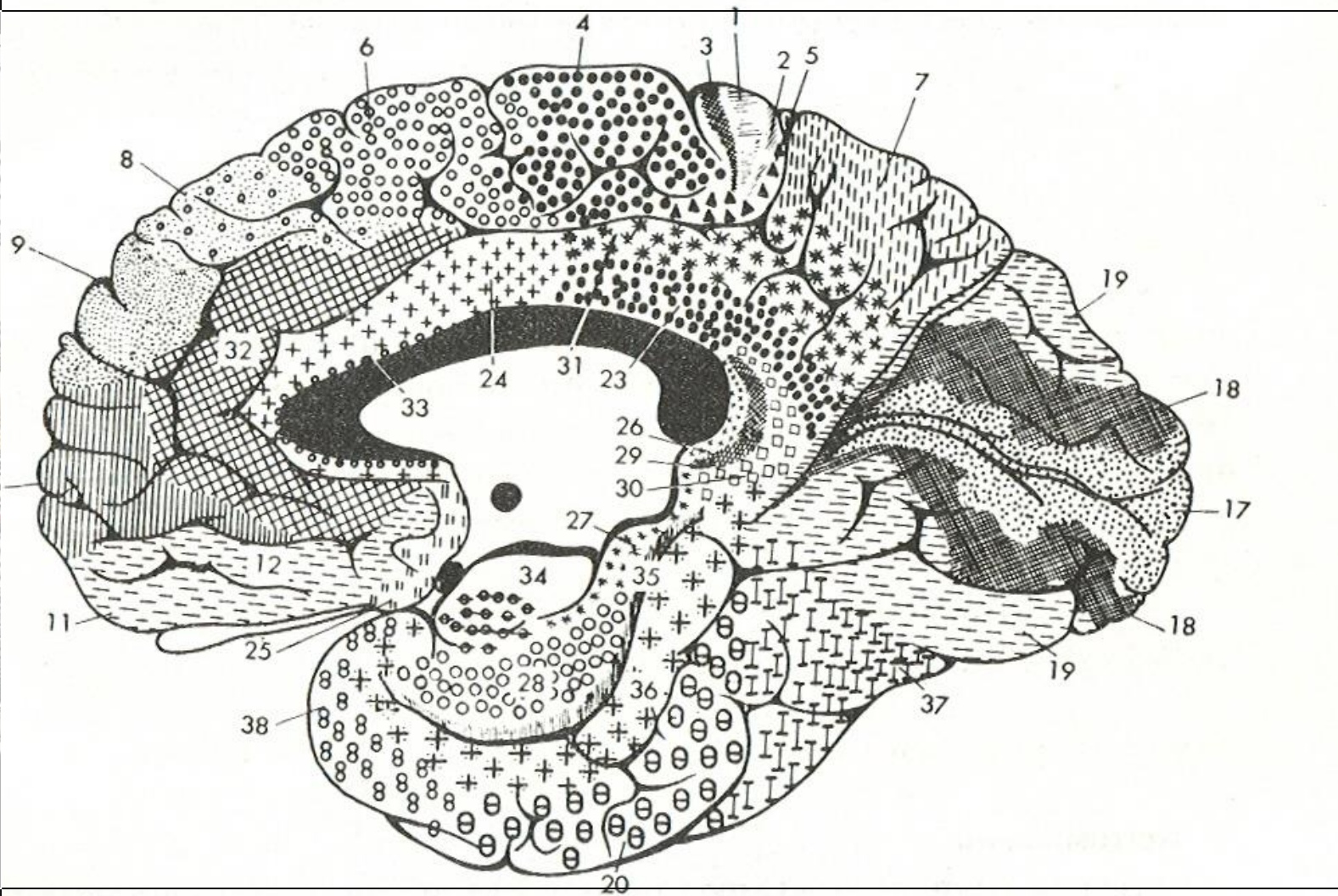




# Agnosia

Deficit in the post-sensorial elaboration of stimuli.  
(which are modality specific!)







# Limbic System

Telencephalic structures:  
(Limbic Lobe)

- Cingulate cortex
- Subcallosal Cortex
- Parahippocampal cortex
- Hippocampal formation
- Amygdala
- Septal Nuclei
- Nucleus Accumbens

Neocortex

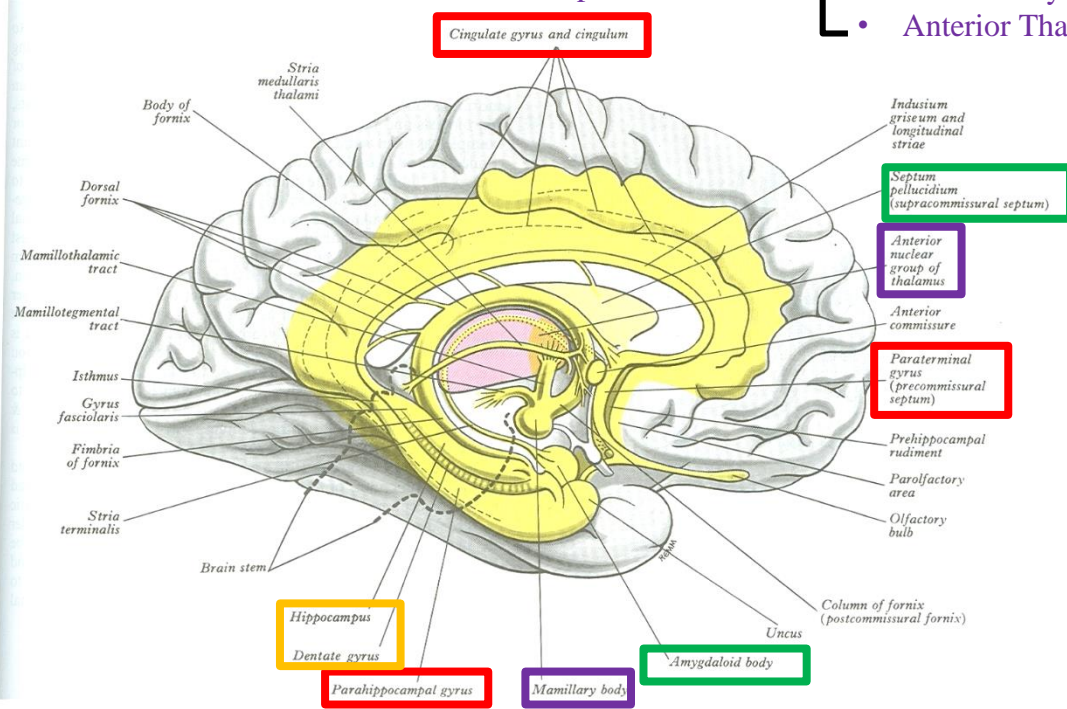
Archicortex

Deep nuclei  
(telencephalon)

Diencephalic structures:

- Mammillary Bodies
- Anterior Thalamic nuclei

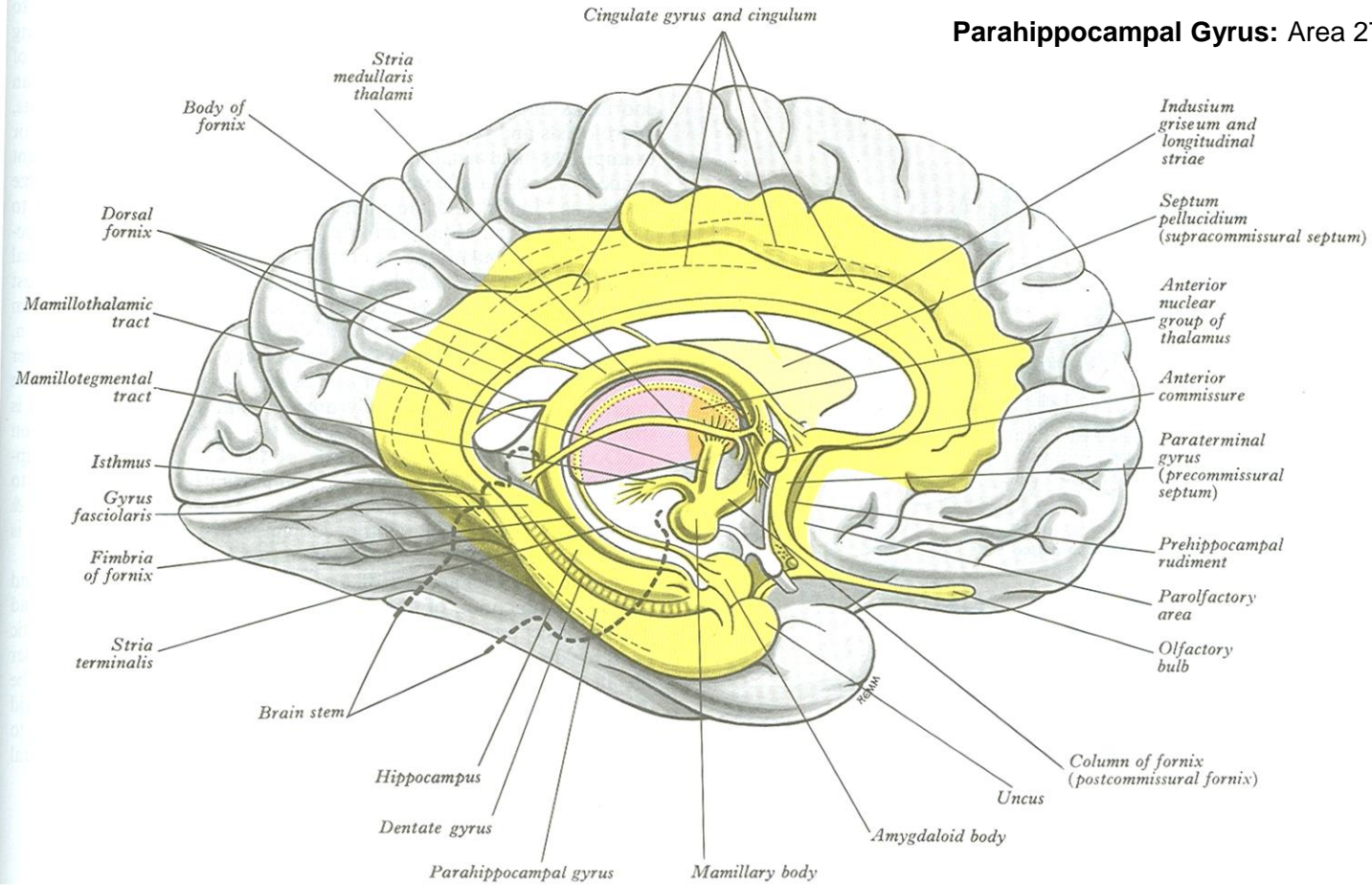
Deep nuclei  
(diencephalon)



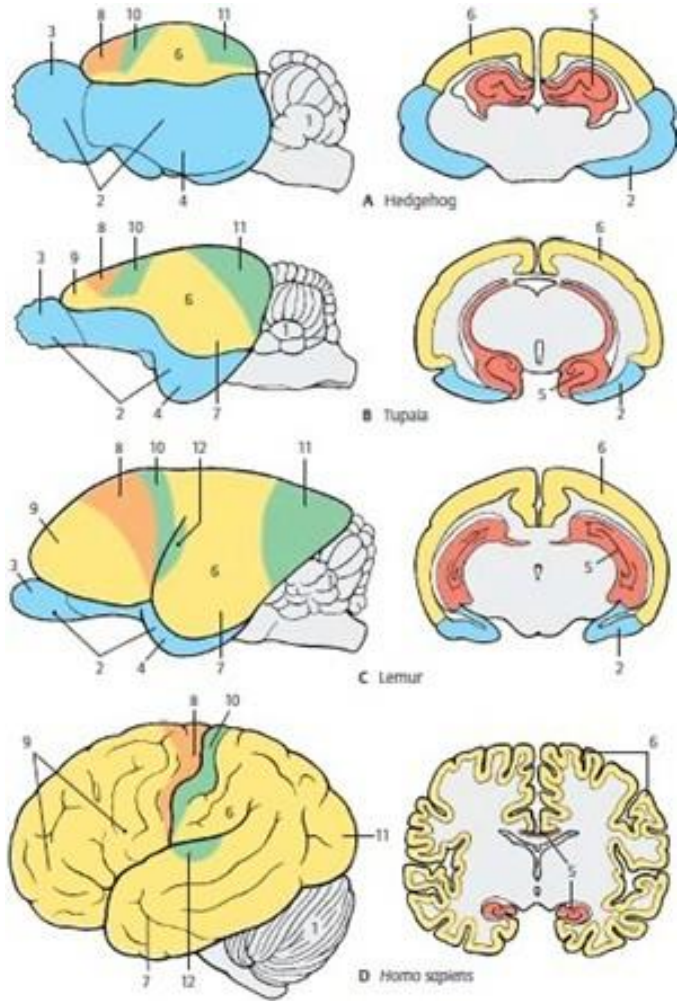


**Cingulate gyrus: Areas 23-24-31**

**Parahippocampal Gyrus: Area 27-28-35**



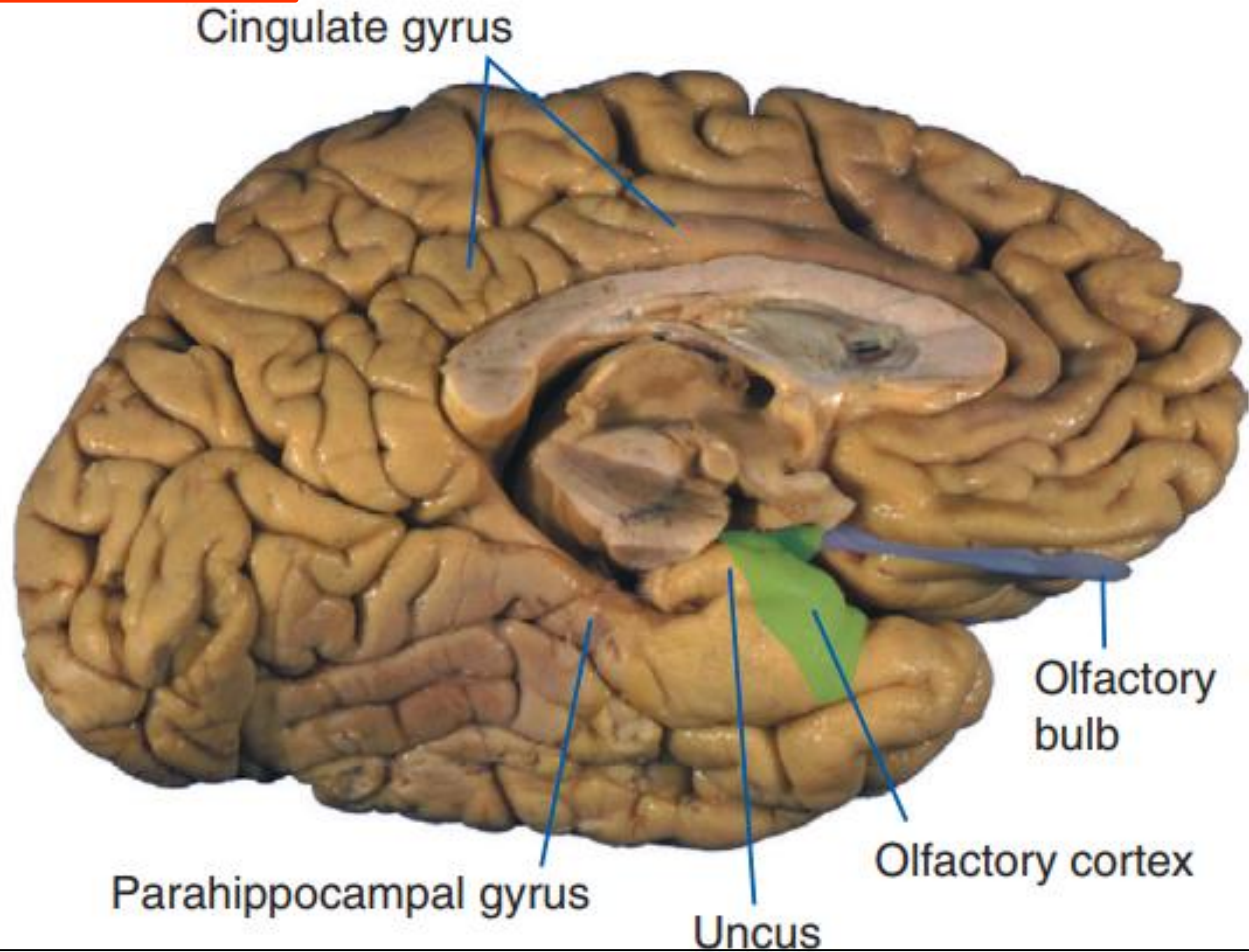
## Phylogenesis of the Cerebral Cortex

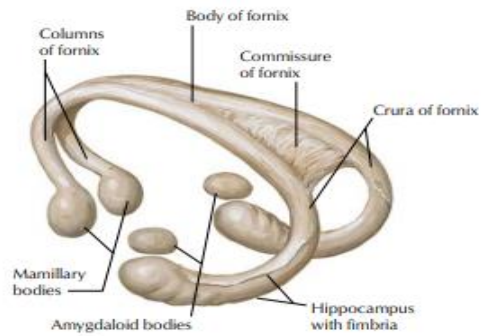
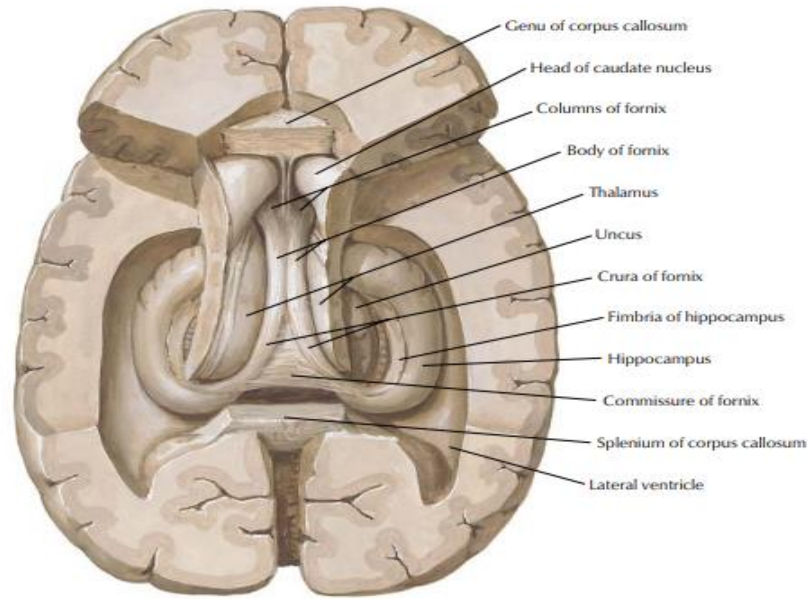


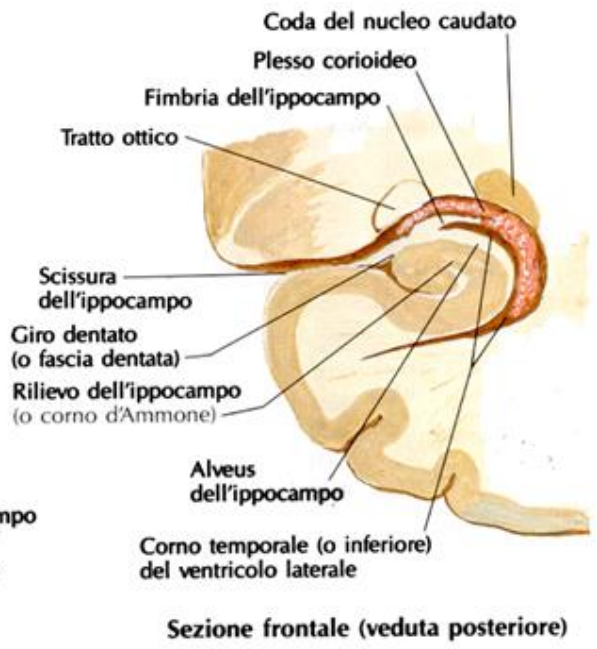
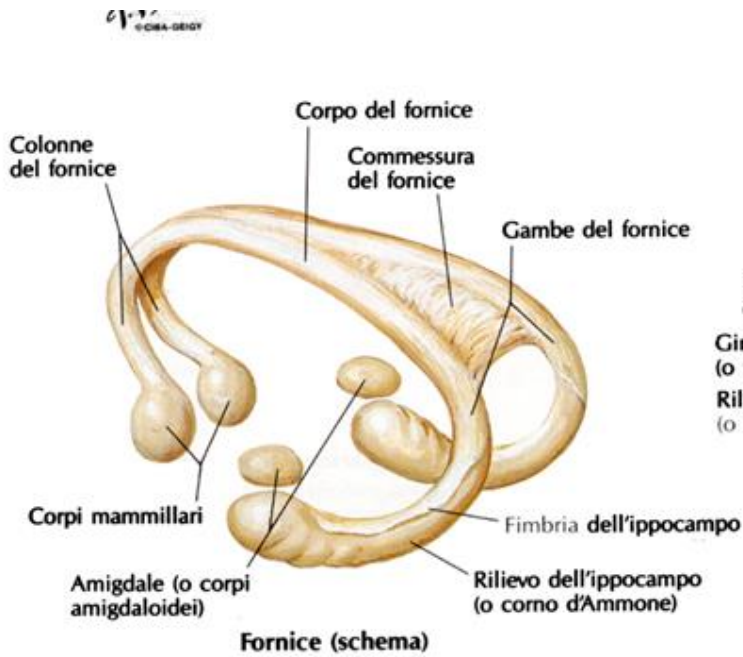
- **Allocortex:** also known as archicortex / archipallium. Most ancient part of the cortex. 3 Layers. Found in the hippocampal formation.
- **Mesocortex:** also known as paleocortex / paleopallium. 4-5 layers; represents an intermediate stage between the allocortex and the isocortex.
- **Isocortex:** also known as neocortex or neopallium. Most recent part of the cortex. 6 Layers. Makes up most of the cerebral cortex.



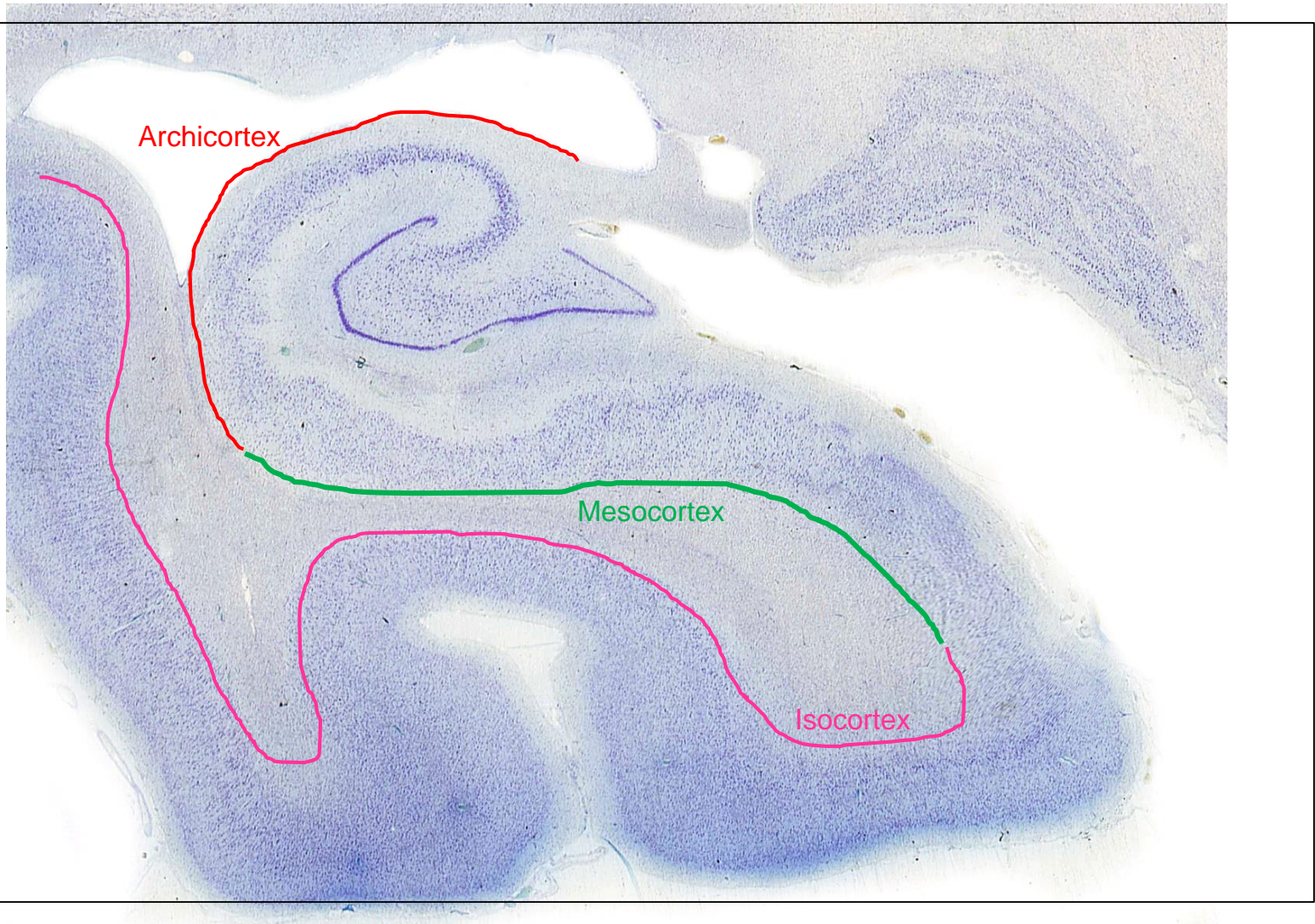
## Non-neocortical areas









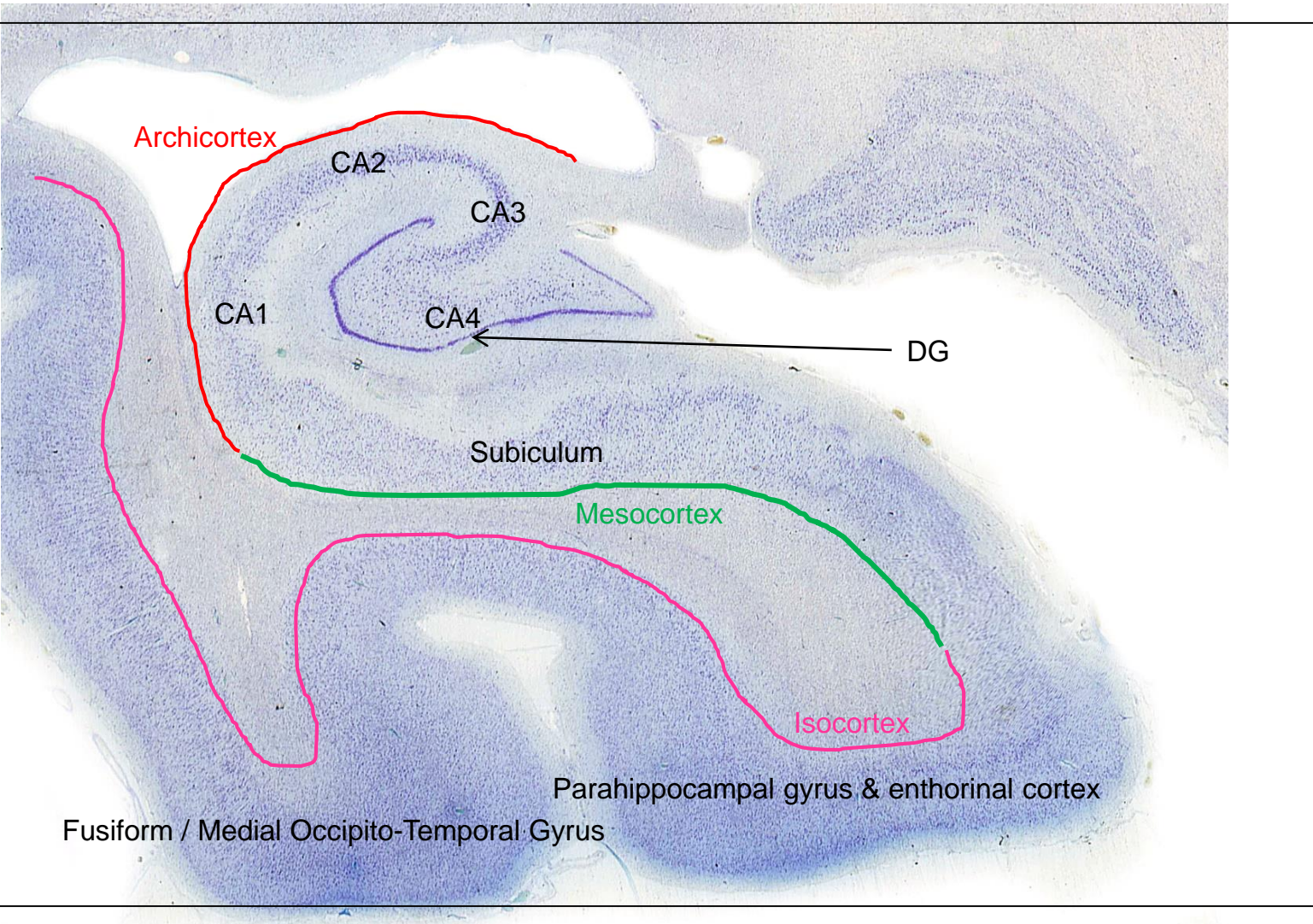


Archicortex

Mesocortex

Isocortex





Archicortex

CA2

CA3

CA1

CA4

DG

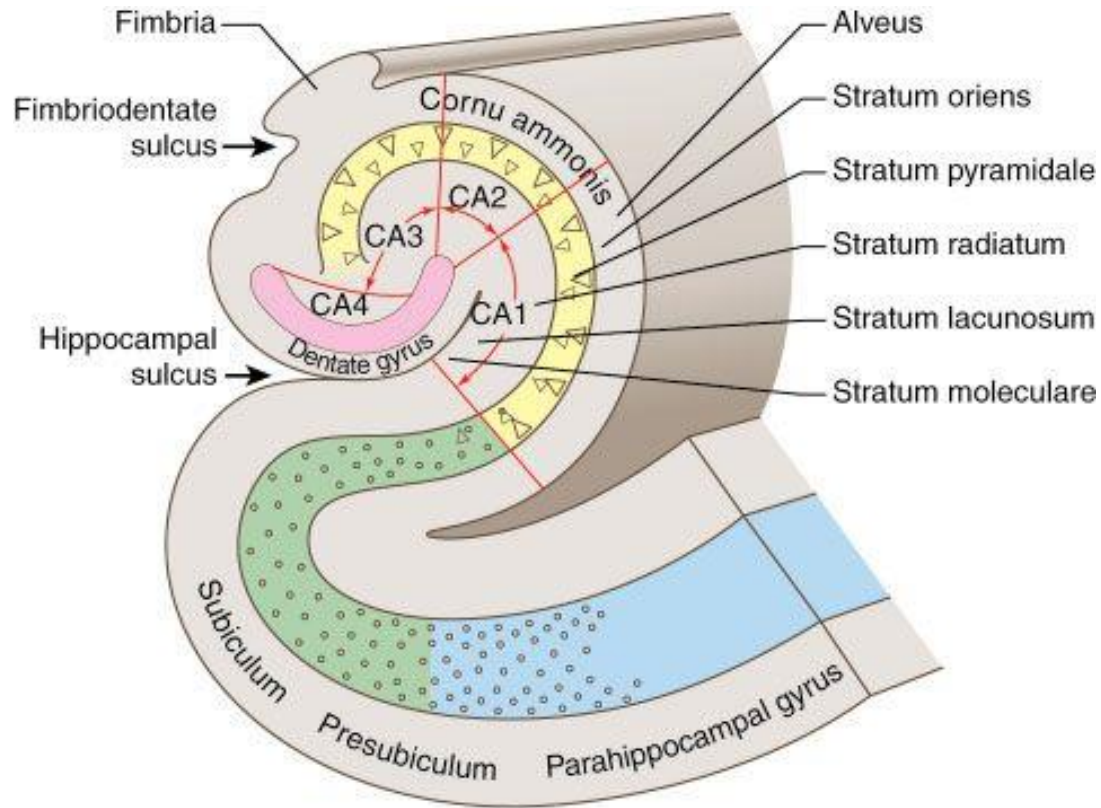
Subiculum





Mesocortex

Isocortex

Parahippocampal gyrus & enthorinal cortex

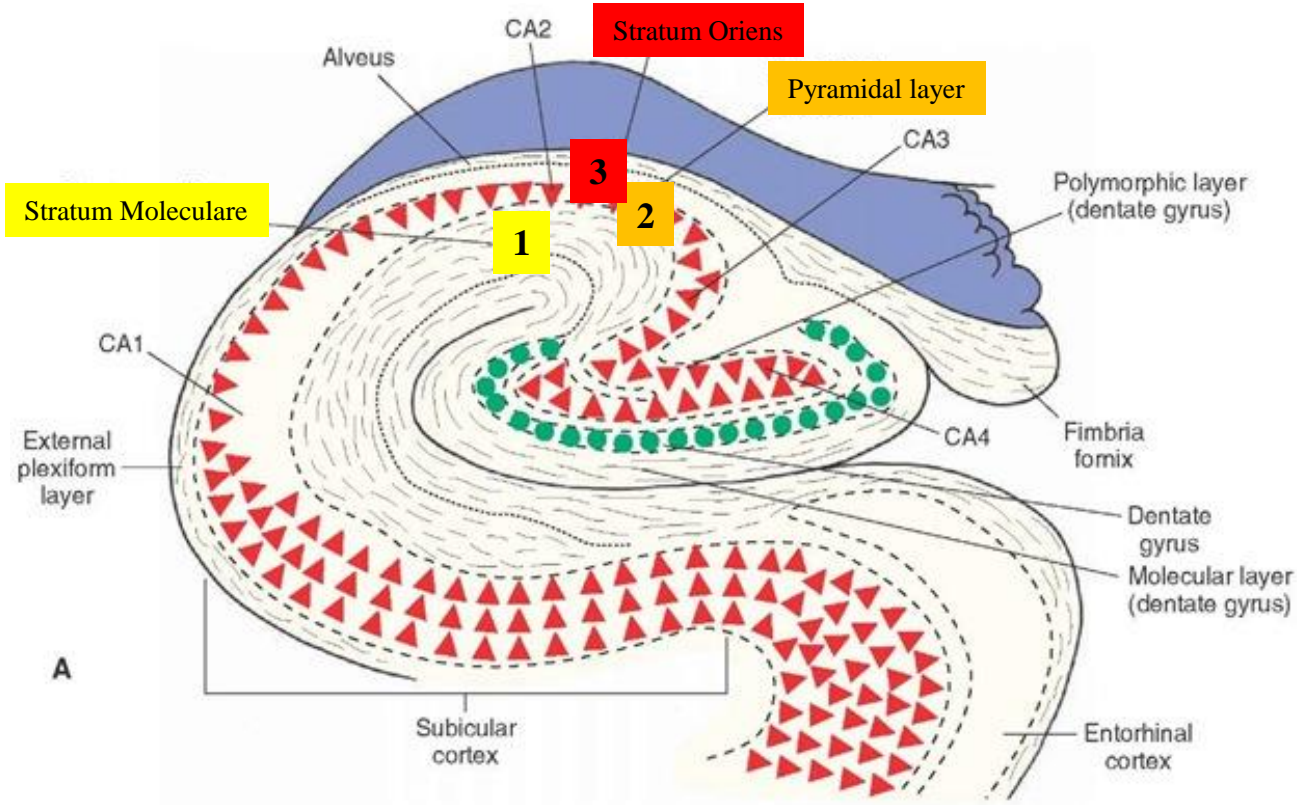
Fusiform / Medial Occipito-Temporal Gyrus



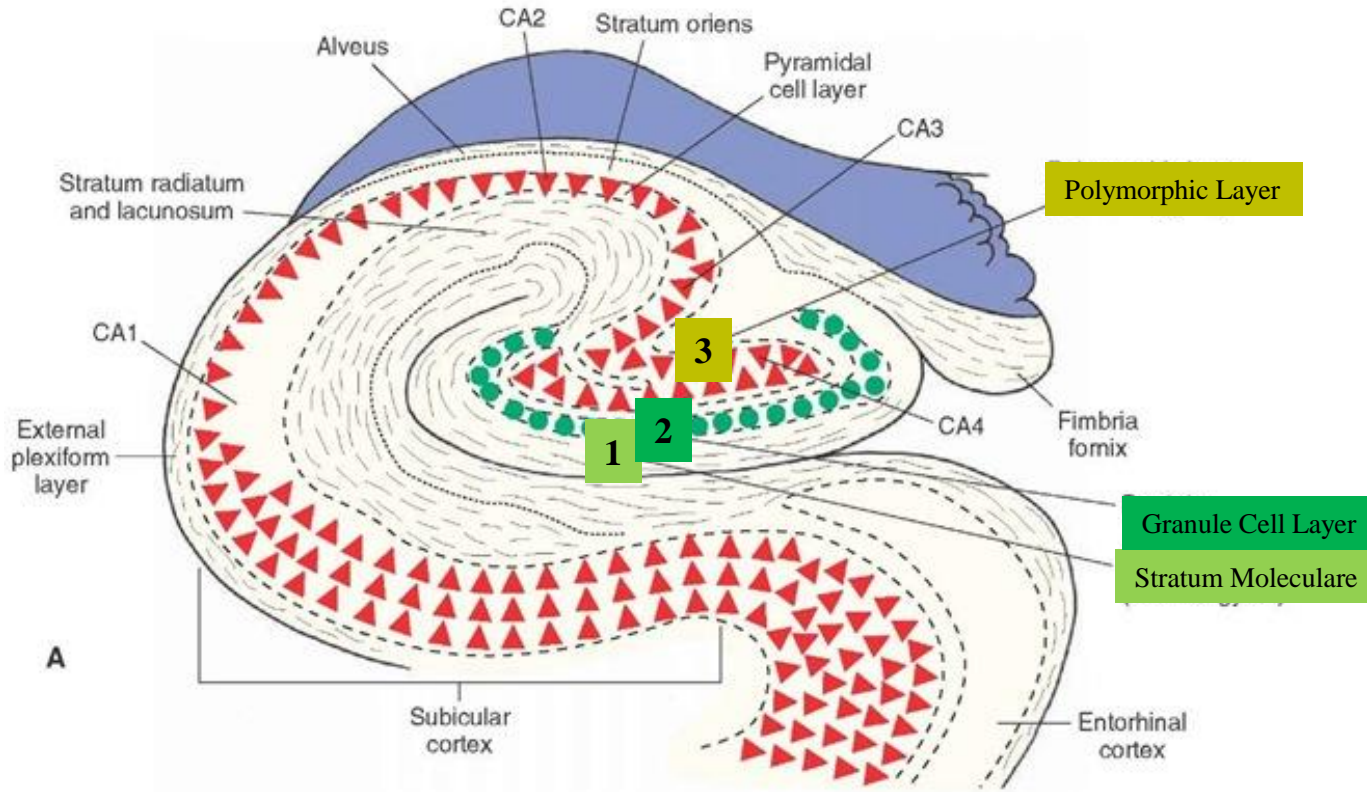
- |   |   |
|---|---|
|  Dentate gyrus                |  Entorhinal cortex      |
|  Hippocampus (cornu ammonis) |  Parahippocampal gyrus |



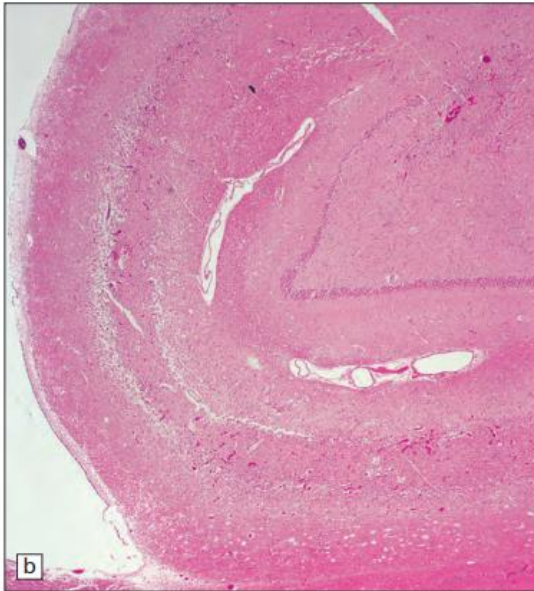
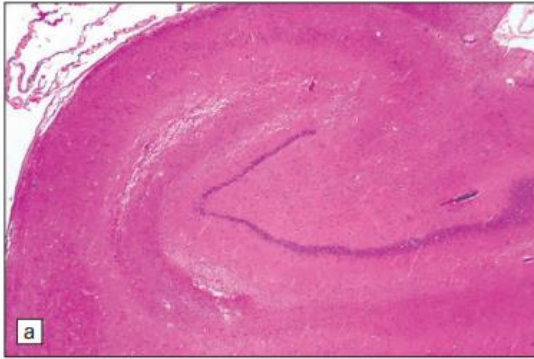
- Ammon's Horn (CA):
1. Molecular Layer (Stratum Moleculare)
  2. Pyramidal Layer
  3. Polymorphic Layer (Stratum Oriens)



- Dentate Gyrus:
1. Molecular Layer (Stratum Moleculare)
  2. Granule Cell Layer
  3. Polymorphic Layer (Stratum Oriens)

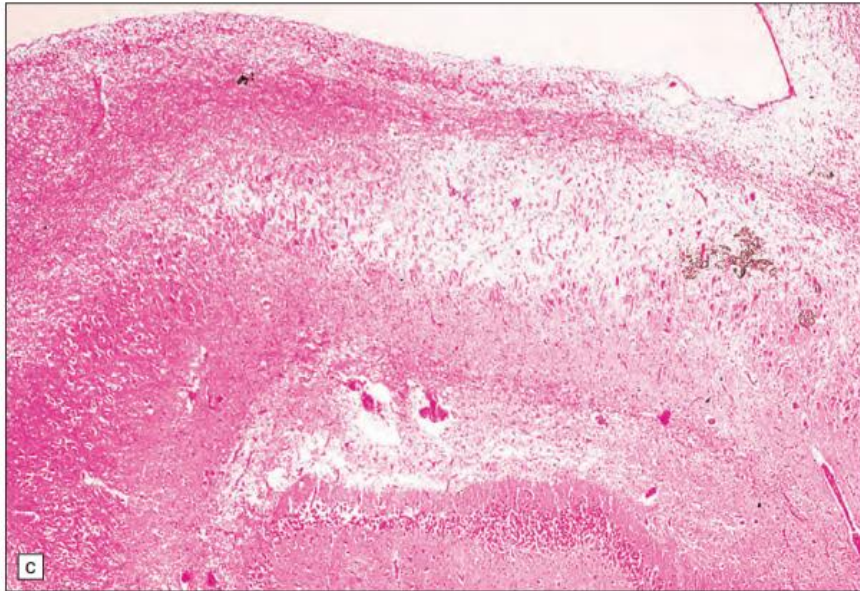






**8.12 Selective vulnerability to hypoxic–ischemic change in the hippocampal pyramidal cell layer.**

**(a)** Normal hippocampus at low magnification. The figure includes part of the granule cell layer and part of the pyramidal cell layer as far as the prosubiculum/CA1 junction. **(b)** Segmental loss of neurons and prominent neuropil vacuolation within the CA1 sector of pyramidal cell layer. **(c)** There is an infarct involving virtually the entire CA1 field or sector and extending into the prosubiculum. Neuron loss and spongy change are seen in the affected neuropil. Note preservation of the granule cell layer (dentate fascia). **(d)** Normal CA1 zone of hippocampal pyramidal cell layer, contrasted with **(e)** a region with severe acute anoxic–ischemic change (neuronal eosinophilia, cytoplasmic and nuclear collapse, etc). **(f,g)** Severe hippocampal sclerosis in a patient with longstanding temporal lobe epilepsy. **(f)** Arrows indicate junction between sclerotic CA1 zone (at left) and intact prosubiculum (at right). **(g)** The junction between the two sectors is highlighted; gliotic tissue and neuron depletion in CA1, intact neurons in prosubiculum.







Afferences:

- Entorhinal Cortex
- Modulatory nuclei of the brainstem
- Septal nuclei



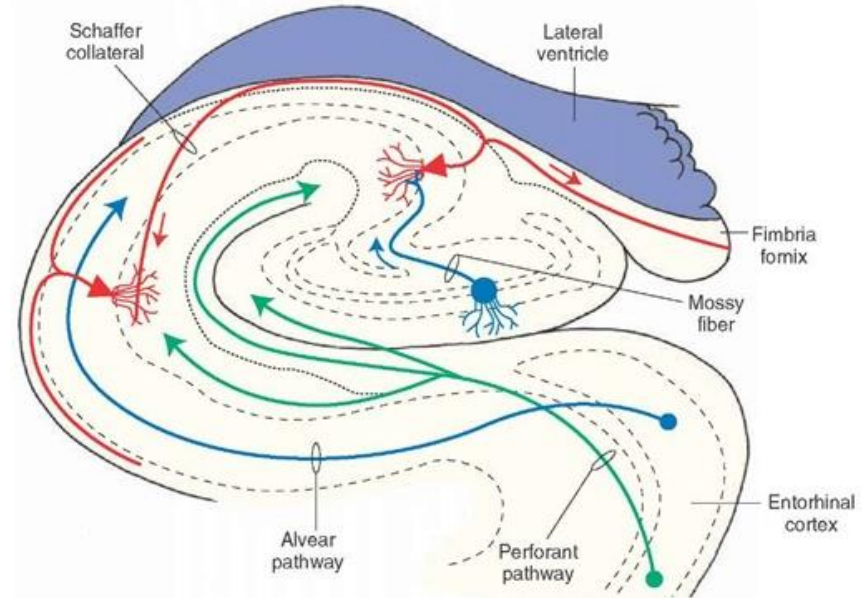
Two main intrinsic pathways in the Hippocampal Formation:

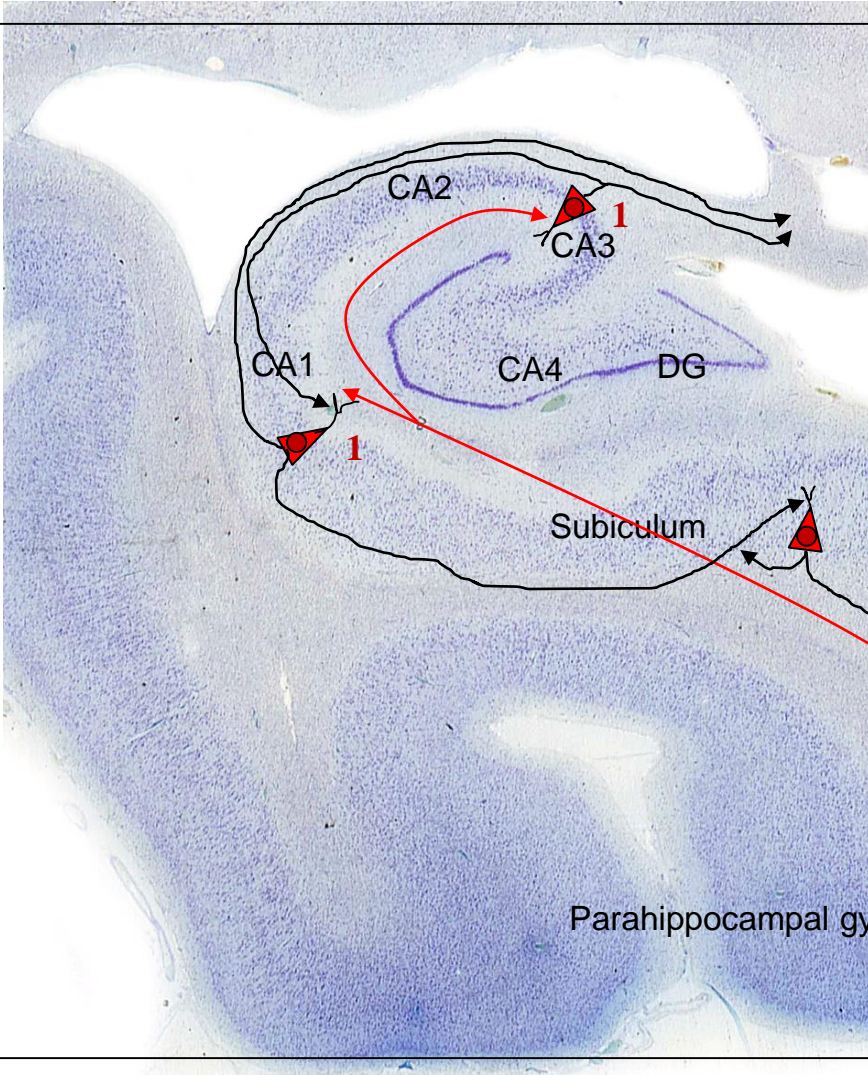
- **Alvear pathway**
- **Perforant Pathway**



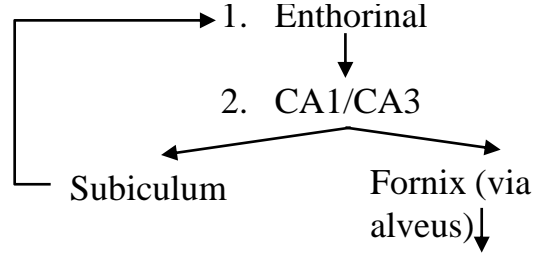
Efferences (via the Fornix):

- Septal nuclei (precommissural)
- Mammillary bodies (post commissural)
- Contralateral hippocampus (commissural)
- Entorhinal cortex and subiculum (loop)



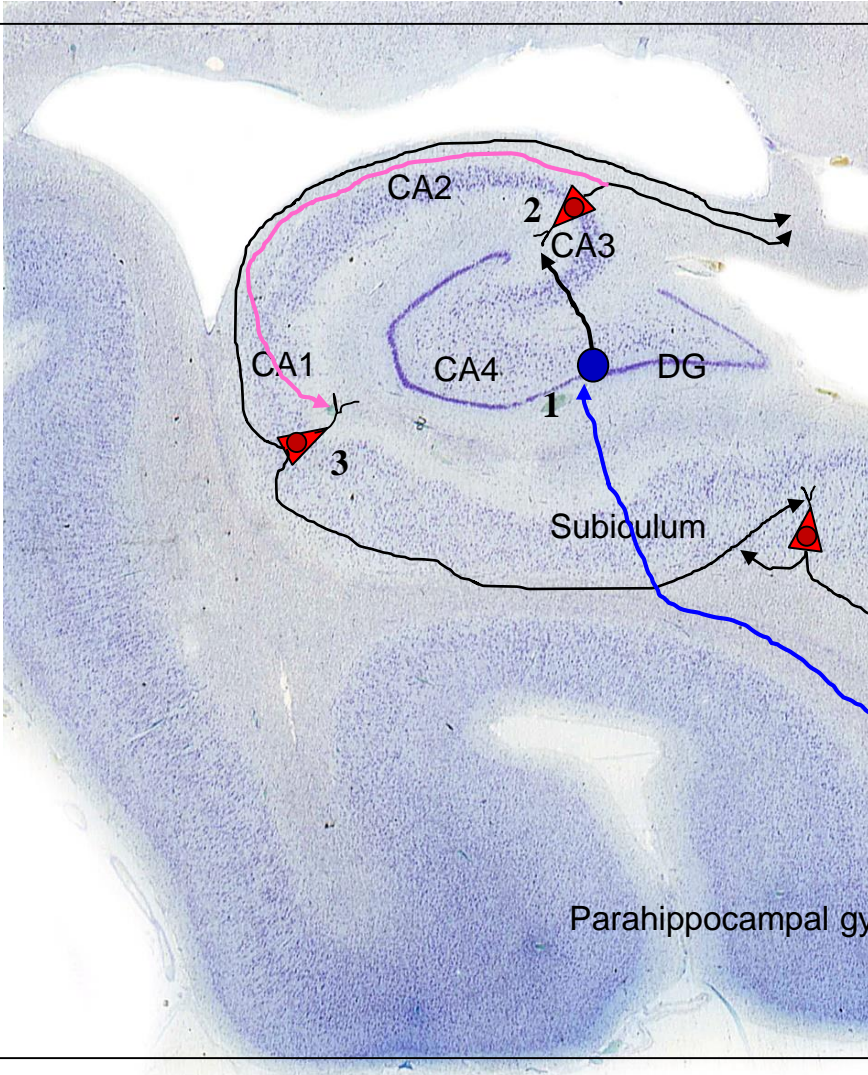


**Alvear pathway (monosynaptic)  
or Temporo-ammonic pathway:**

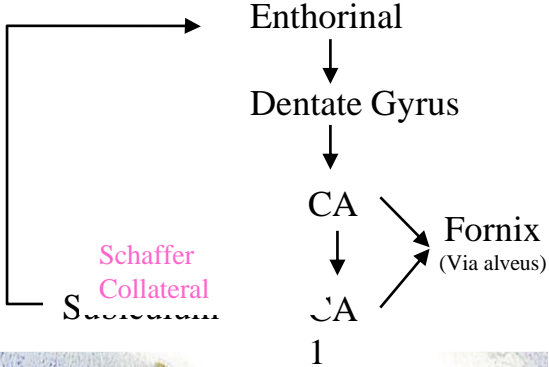


Parahippocampal gyrus & enthorinal cortex





**Perforant pathway (trisinaptic):**



Parahippocampal gyrus & enthorinal cortex

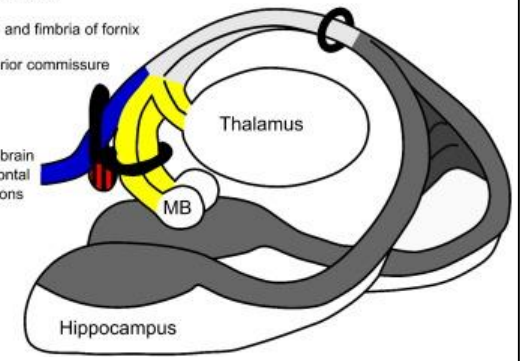
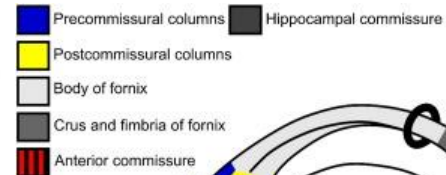
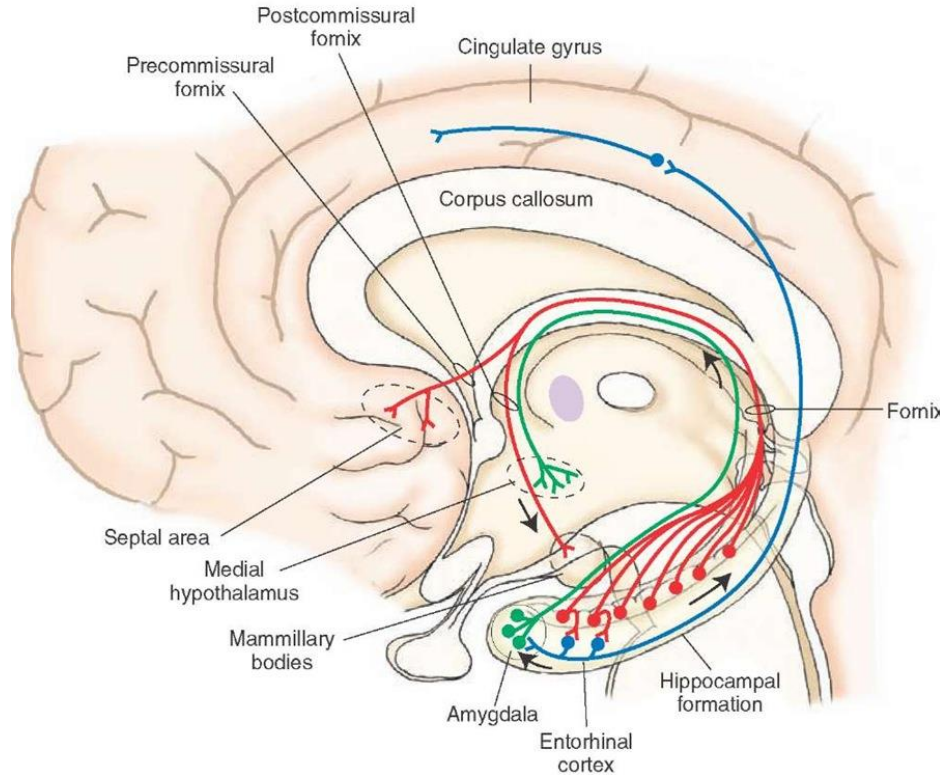




**Efferences (via the Fornix):**

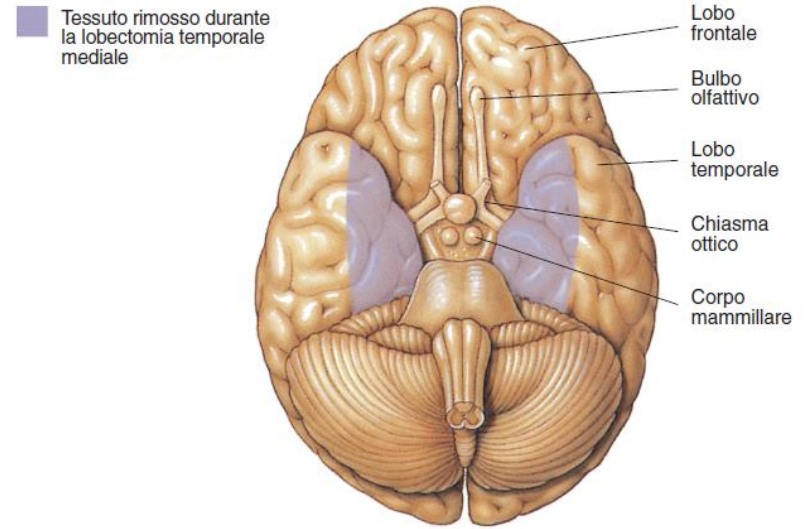
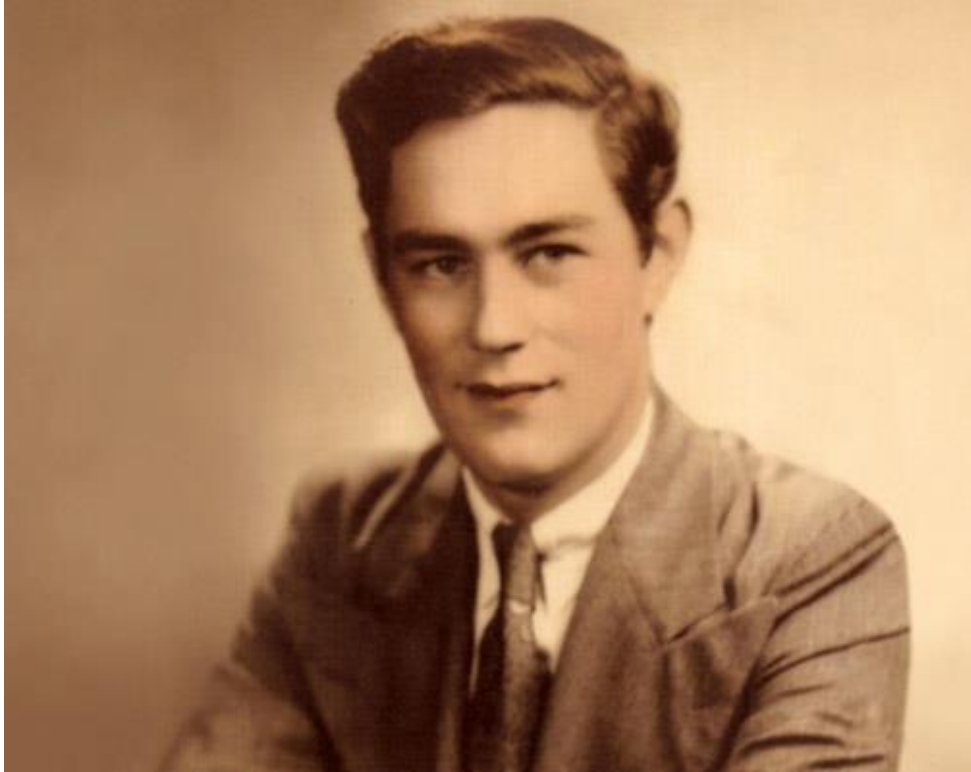
- Septal nuclei (precommissural)
- Mammillary bodies (post commissural)
- Contralateral hippocampus (commissural)
- Entorhinal cortex and subiculum (loop)

Associative cortices  
(long term memory storage)



## Patient H.M.

Total anterograde memory loss (unable to form new memories) following surgical resection of the medial temporal lobe (including hippocampus) due to intractable epilepsy.





## The amygdala (amygdaloid body)

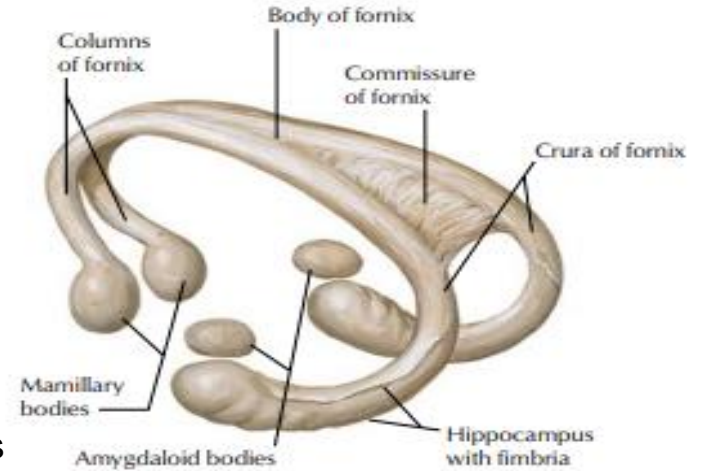
- Fear and salient stimuli, mediates survival-related quick responses

### Afferences:

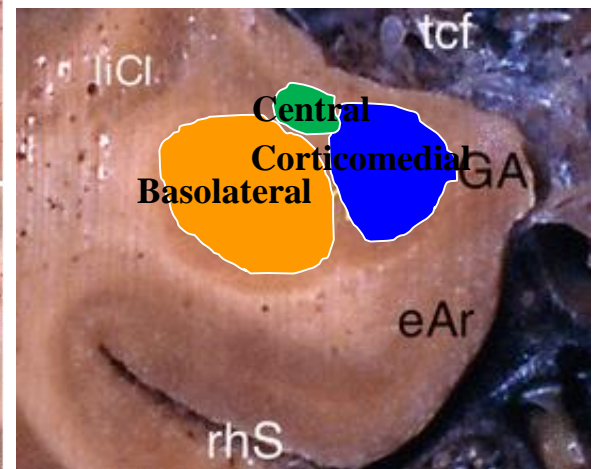
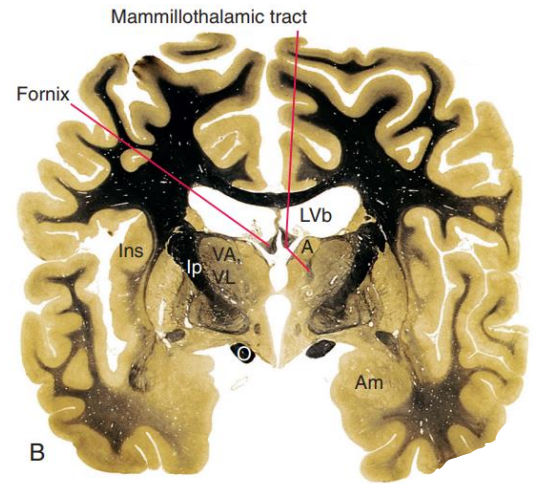
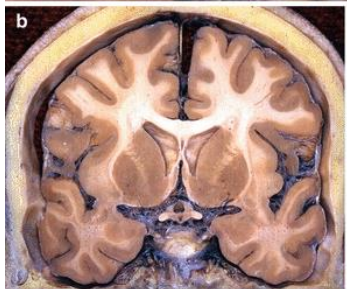
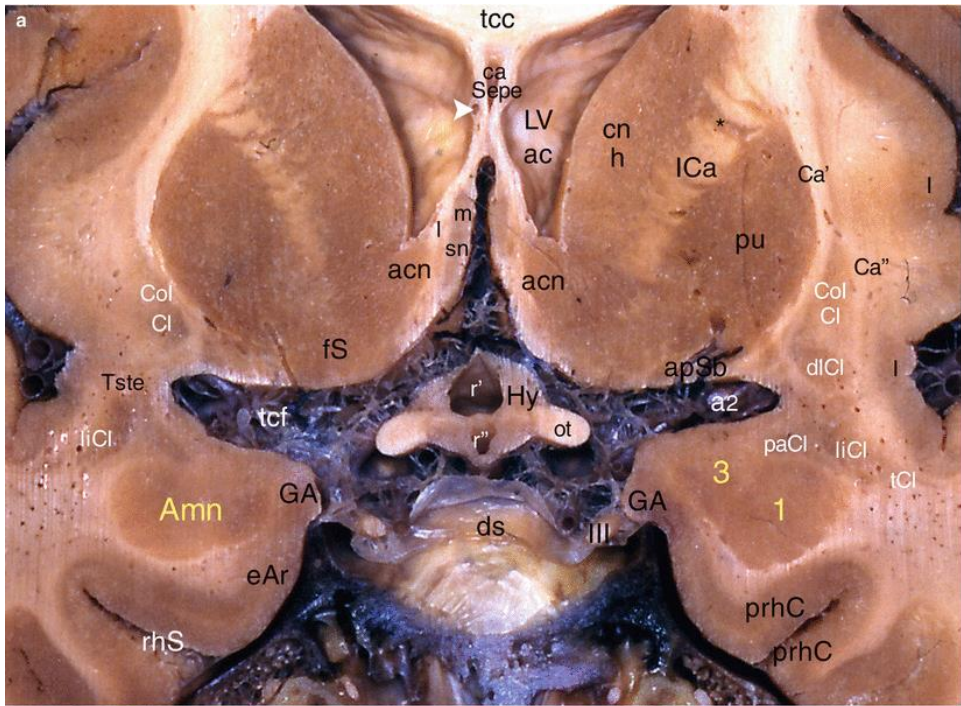
Sensory thalamus, Brainstem, Association Cortices

### Efferences:

- Stria terminalis (to thalamus)
- Amygdalofugal pathways (to hypothalamus, brainstem, hippocampus)







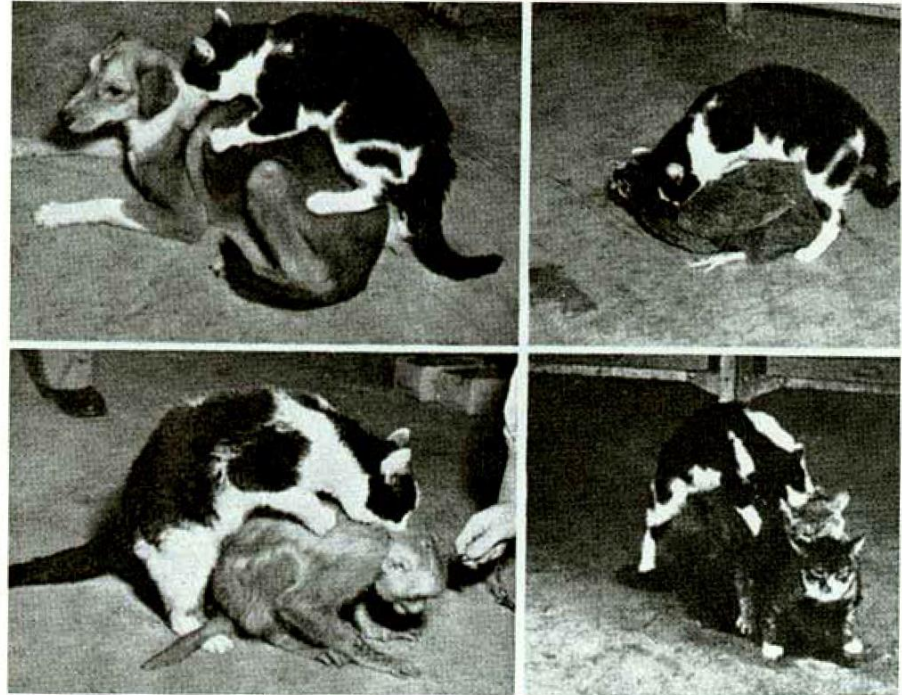




# Amygdala

## Klüver-Bucy syndrome

- bilateral lesions of amygdalae
- visual agnosia (auditory, tactile)
- hypermetamorphosis (compulsively explore the environment and overreact to visual stimuli)
- hyperorality
- hyperphagia
- hypersexuality
- extremely placid behavior; inability to experience fear



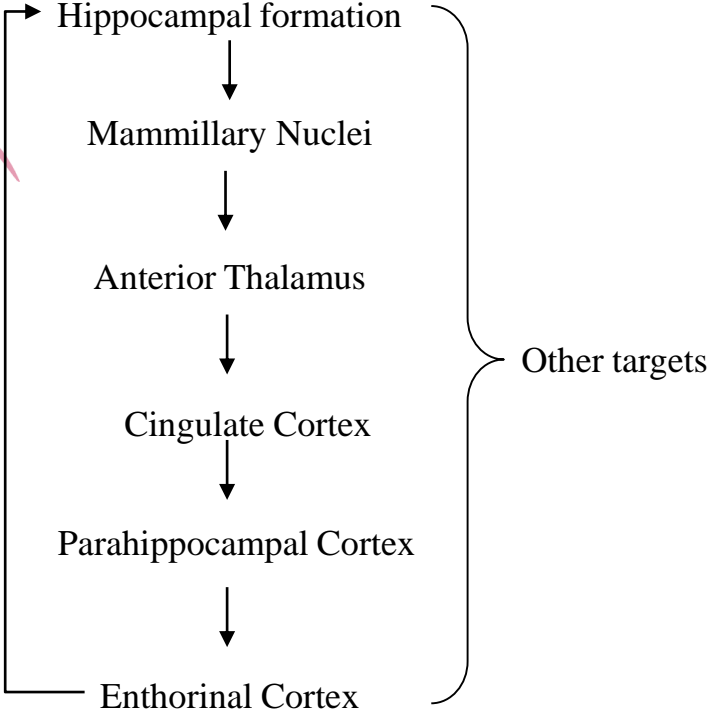
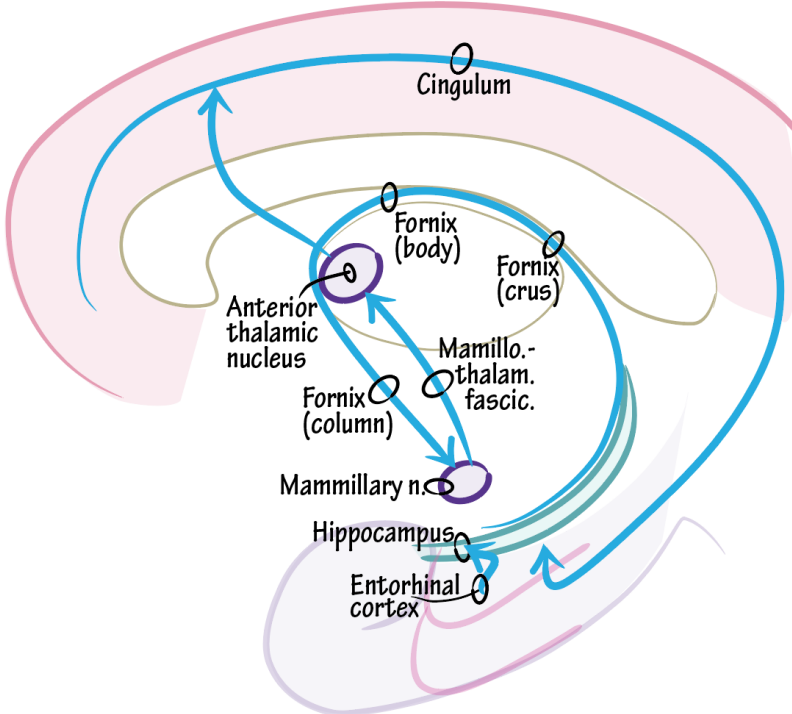




To summarize the Limbic System....

# Papez's Circuit (1937)

## Extra-Hippocampal Circuitry The Papez Circuit





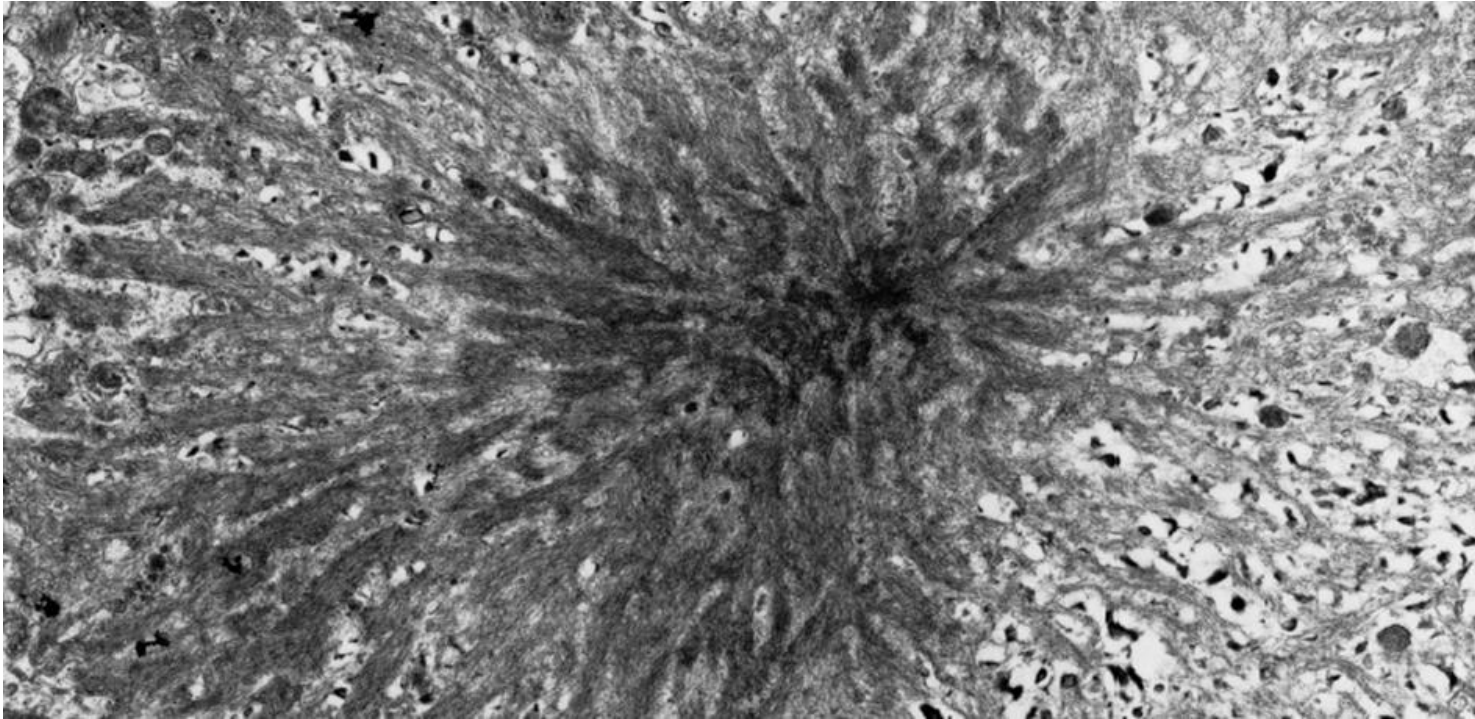
The neocortex and archicortex in pathology

# Alzheimer's Disease



# Alzheimer's Disease

- Commonest cause for dementia
- Can be sporadic, familiar, or associated to other syndromes (e.g. Down Syndrome)

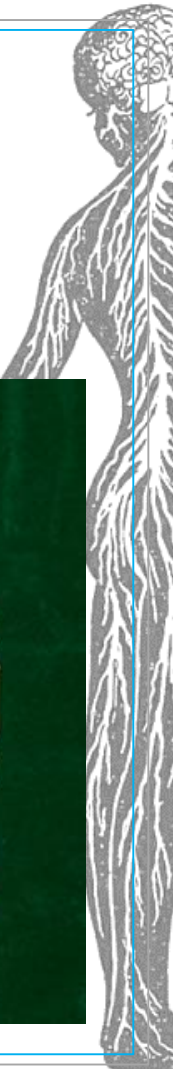
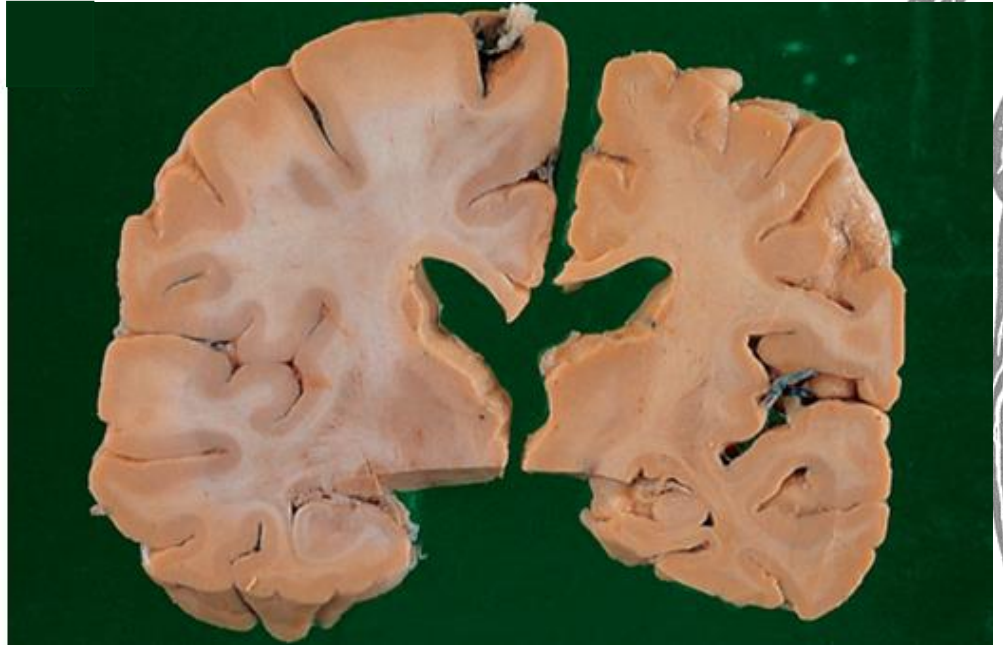


# Alzheimer's Disease

- Commonest cause for dementia
- Can be sporadic, familial, or associated to other syndromes (e.g. Down Syndrome)

## MACROSCOPIC FEATURES

- Global atrophy (weight > 1200g)
- Shrinkening of gyri, enlargement of sulci
- Ventricular dilation (hydrocephalus ex-vacuo)



**A**



**B**

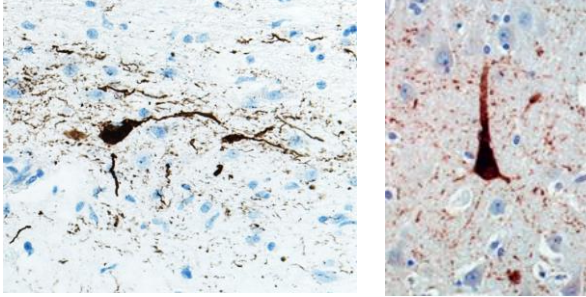




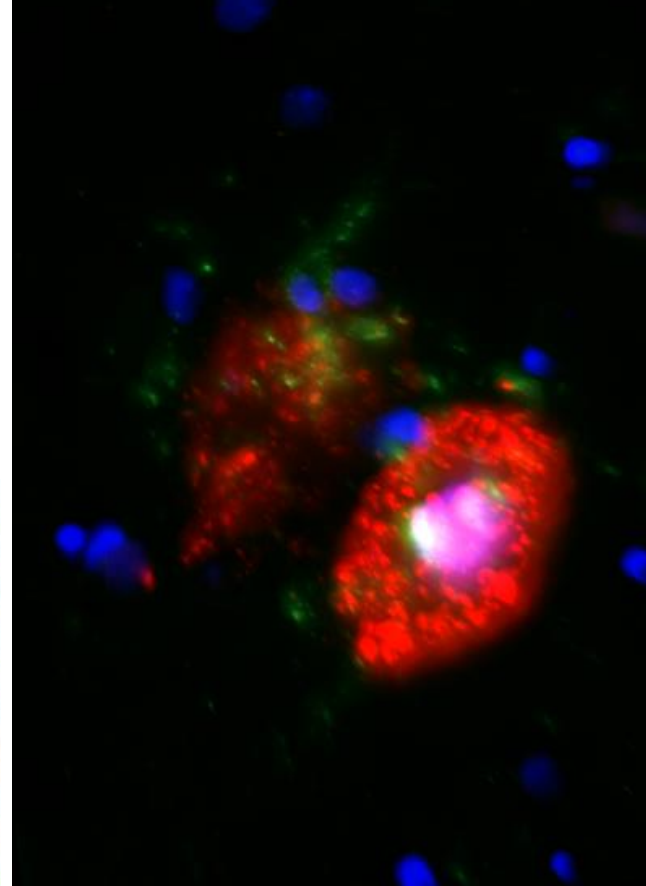
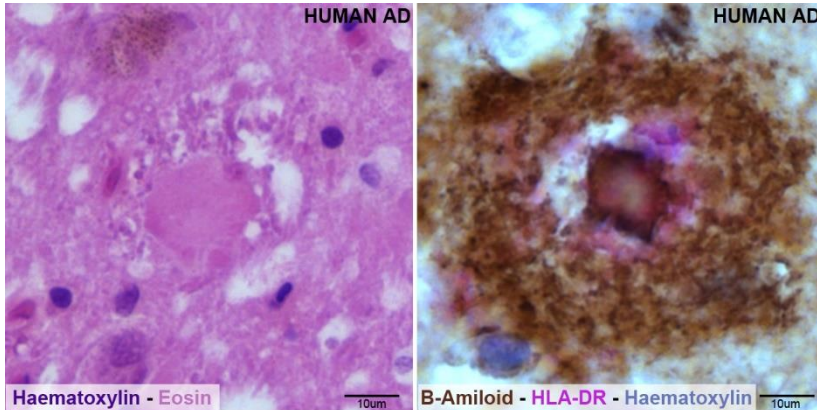
# Alzheimer's Disease

## Microscopic Features

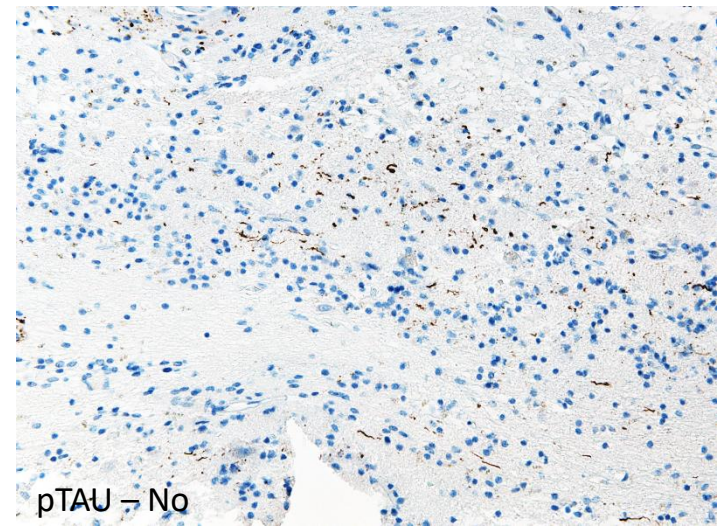
- Intracellular Neurofibrillary Tangles (TAU)



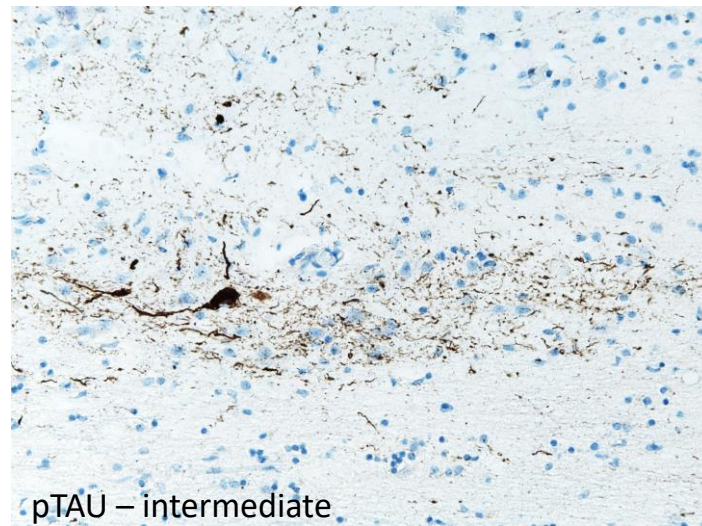
- Extracellular Senile Plaques (Beta-Amyloid Plaques)



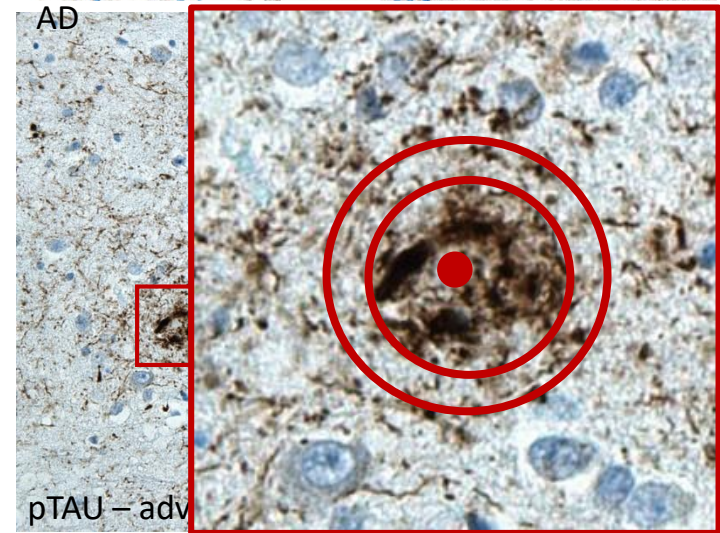




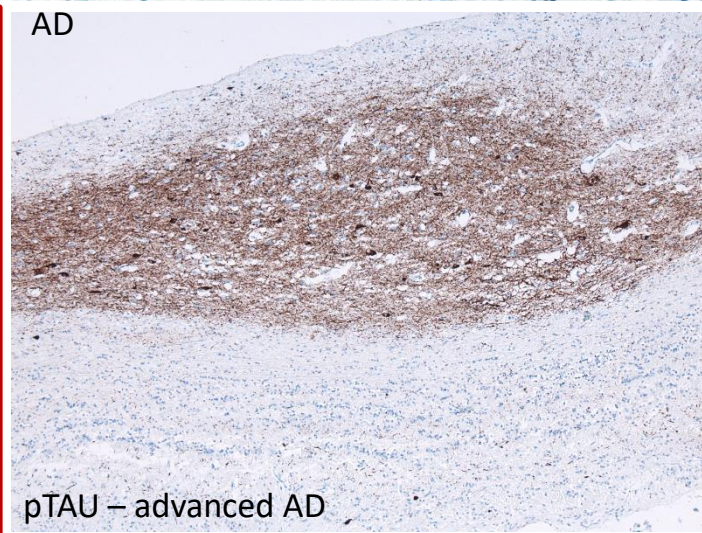
pTAU – No  
AD



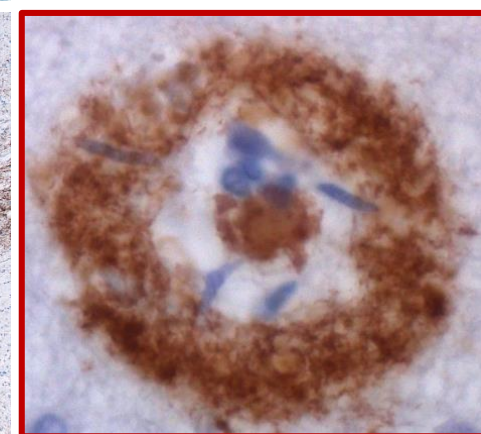
pTAU – intermediate  
AD



pTAU – adv

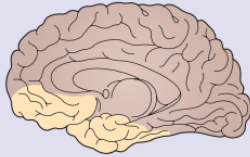
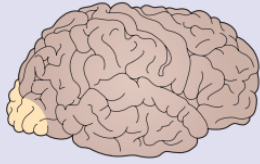


pTAU – advanced AD

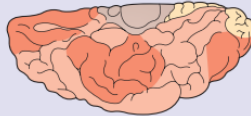
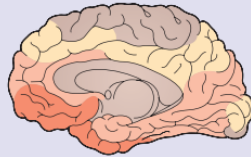
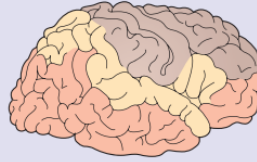


$\beta$ -Amyloid – advanced AD

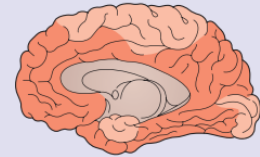
## AD Amyloid Plaque Staging



**Stage A:** Low density of plaques in neocortex, especially frontal, temporal and occipital lobes



**Stage B:** Plaques present in neocortical association areas with moderate hippocampal involvement



**Stage C:** Plaques present in primary sensory and motor areas in addition to other cortical areas



Mild



Moderate



Severe



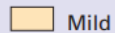


### TRANSENTORHINAL

(Clinically asymptomatic)

**Stage I:** NFTs and NTs in small density, confined to transentorhinal cortex in pre- $\alpha$  cells

**Stage II:** Tangles present in moderate density in pre- $\alpha$  cells of entorhinal cortex. Small numbers develop in CA1 region of hippocampus



Mild



Moderate



Severe



Very severe



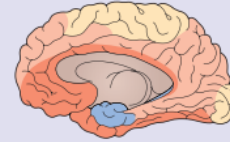
### LIMBIC

(Incipient AD)

**Stage III:** There are modest numbers of NFTs and NTs throughout CA1 and in pyramidal cells in the subiculum. Small numbers appear in the fusiform gyrus lateral to the transentorhinal cortex as well as in the nucleus basalis of Meynert and amygdaloid complex

There is now severe involvement of pre- $\alpha$  cells with neuronal loss and gliosis

**Stage IV:** Severe involvement of areas affected in stage 3. Large numbers of ghost tangles in entorhinal and transentorhinal regions. Mild involvement of isocortex with sparing of primary sensory and motor cortices

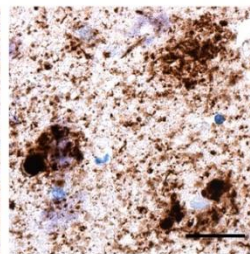
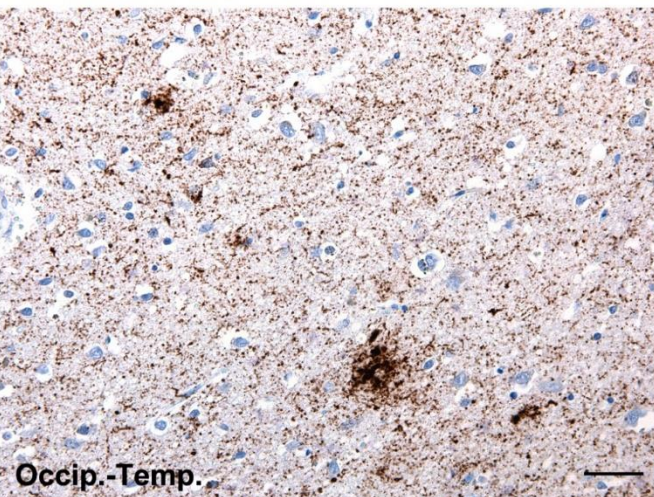
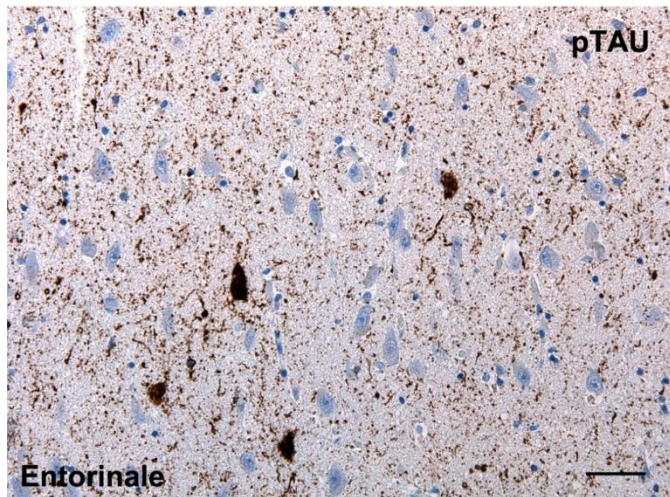
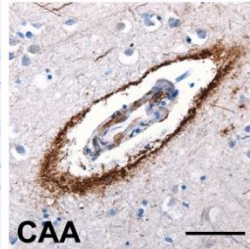
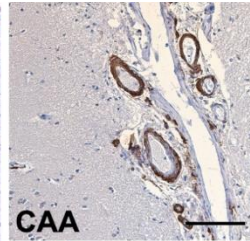
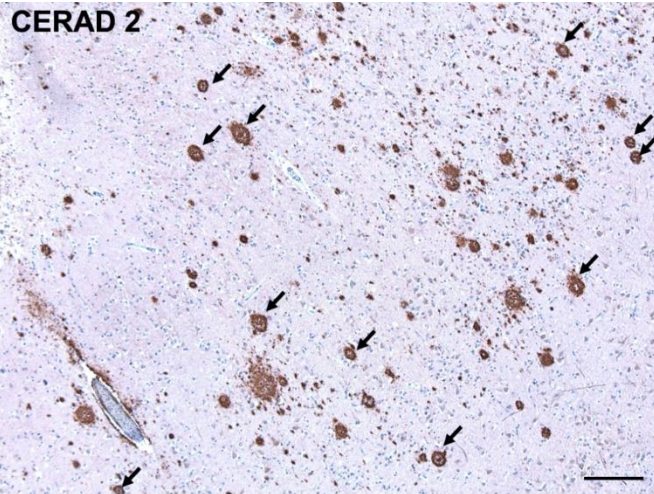
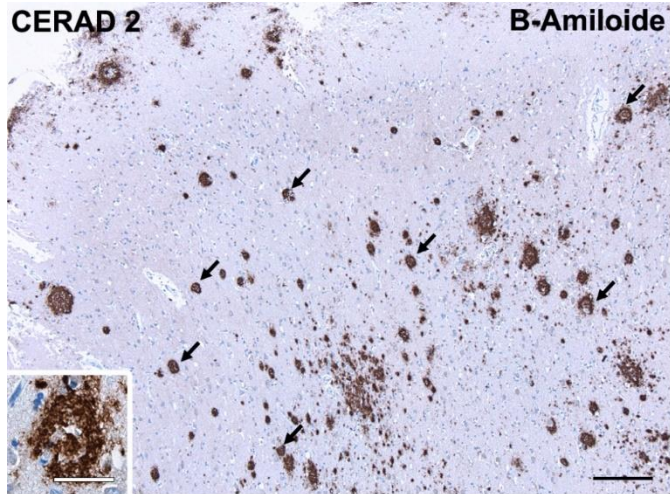


### ISOCORTICAL

(Symptomatic AD)

**Stage V:** Tangles in all sectors of hippocampus and subiculum. Widespread, moderate to severe isocortical involvement but still relative sparing of primary sensory and motor cortices. Tangles in claustrum, thalamus, hypothalamus. Ghost tangles with neuronal loss and astrocytic gliosis involving pre- $\alpha$  cells, CA1, antero-dorsal thalamic nucleus

**Stage VI:** Increased densities of tangles in regions affected in earlier stages. Tangles in dentate granule cell layer. Marked involvement of claustrum, thalamus, hypothalamus, substantia nigra



**THAL: STADIO II**  
**BRAAK: STADIO III**  
**CERAD: STADIO II**  
**NIA-AA: INTERMEDIO**



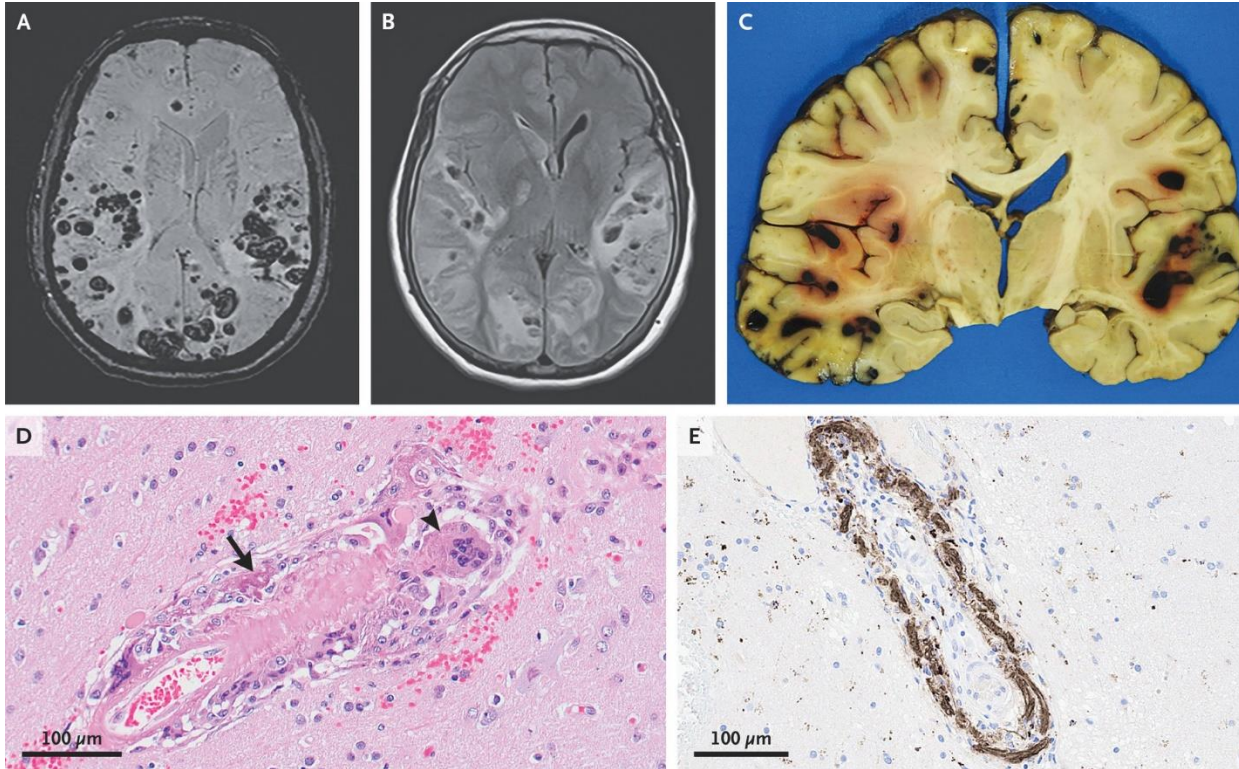






# Alzheimer's Disease

Lecanemab trial.... a monoclonal antibody against Beta-Amyloid



## CLINICAL CASE 1

83-year-old Male

Reported 4 years of worsening memory impairment, following retirement. Initially the patient was unable to remember new information, especially events occurring recently, and reported loss of smell (anosmia). No difficulties in recalling distant memories. Family reports disorientation and inability to find the way back home. Started displaying signs of irritability and was easy to anger.

Neurological examination:

Alert. MoCA score: 22/30.

MRI: mild global atrophy.

Progressive worsening of cognitive status on follow-up examinations.

Mild atrophy of the cerebral hemispheres. Cored amyloid plaques are found in the associative cortices of the parietal and temporal lobe and, less diffusely, in the limbic regions.

pTAU is mainly found in the limbic regions and in the temporal cortex.

Parietal Cortex  
- Beta Amyloid IHC



## CLINICAL CASE 2

86-year-old Female

Housewife. 7 years of worsening memory impairment; admitted to hospice. Marked cognitive decline, abulia and anhedonia.

MRI moderate global atrophy.

Neuropathological evaluation revealed global cortical atrophy, more pronounced frontally, and reduced hippocampal volume. Neurofibrillary tangles and cored neuritic plaques are found throughout the limbic and associative cortices.



Anterior Hippocampus  
- pTAU (Pink)  
- Beta Amyloid (Brown)