

GENERAL ANATOMY**BASIC TISSUES****SHORT ESSAYS**

1. Describe the structure and function of skin with its appendages.

Introduction

Skin is the largest organ of the body forming the external covering. It protects the body from physical, chemical and microbial injury.

Structure of Skin

Skin consists of two main layers:

1. Epidermis

- **Outer ectodermal layer.**
- **Made of keratinized stratified squamous epithelium.**
- **Avascular.**
- **Cells present:**
 - **Keratinocytes**
 - **Melanocytes**
 - **Langerhans cells**
 - **Merkel cells**

Layers of epidermis

From deep to superficial:

- 1. Stratum basale**
- 2. Stratum spinosum**
- 3. Stratum granulosum**
- 4. Stratum lucidum (only in thick skin)**
- 5. Stratum corneum**

2. Dermis

- **Mesodermal in origin.**

- **Composed of connective tissue.**
- **Contains blood vessels, nerves and skin appendages.**

Layers of dermis

- 1. Papillary layer**
- 2. Reticular layer**

3. Hypodermis (Subcutaneous tissue)

- **Consists of loose connective tissue and fat.**
- **Anchors skin to underlying structures.**

Appendages of Skin

- 1. Hair**
- 2. Sebaceous glands**
- 3. Sweat glands**
- 4. Nails**

Hair

- **Develops from epidermis.**
- **Parts:**
 - **Shaft**
 - **Root**
 - **Bulb**

Sebaceous glands

- **Holocrine glands.**
- **Secrete sebum.**
- **Usually associated with hair follicles.**

Sweat glands**Eccrine glands**

- **Widely distributed.**
- **Help in thermoregulation.**

Apocrine glands

- Present in axilla and genital region.
- Become active at puberty.

Nails

- Modified keratin plates.
- Protect terminal phalanges.

Functions of Skin

1. Protection
2. Regulation of body temperature
3. Sensation
4. Excretion through sweat
5. Vitamin D synthesis
6. Storage of fat
7. Prevention of water loss
8. Immune defense

Conclusion

Skin acts as a protective covering and performs important sensory, metabolic and thermoregulatory functions.

SHORT NOTES

1. Connective tissue fibres

Connective tissue fibres are components of extracellular matrix.

Types

1. Collagen fibres
2. Elastic fibres
3. Reticular fibres

Collagen fibres

- Most common.
- White in colour.
- Strong and inelastic.
- Formed by collagen protein.
- Provide tensile strength.

Elastic fibres

- Yellow fibres.
- Composed of elastin.
- Stretchable and elastic.
- Seen in ligaments and large arteries.

Reticular fibres

- Thin branching fibres.
- Composed of type III collagen.
- Form supporting network in lymphoid organs.

Functions

1. Support
2. Strength
3. Elasticity
4. Framework for organs

2. Compound glands

Compound glands are multicellular exocrine glands with branched ducts.

Classification

Based on secretory part

1. Compound tubular
2. Compound acinar
3. Compound tubuloacinar

Examples

- Salivary glands
- Pancreas
- Brunner's glands

Structure

- Capsule present.
- Septa divide gland into lobes and lobules.

- Duct system highly branched.
- Secretory units lined by glandular epithelium.

Functions

- Secretion of enzymes, mucus or serous fluid.

BONES AND JOINTS

LONG ESSAYS

1. Classify joints. Give the structure of synovial joint with an example.

Classification of Joints

A. Fibrous joints

Bones united by fibrous tissue.

Types

1. Suture – skull bones
2. Syndesmosis – inferior tibiofibular joint
3. Gomphosis – tooth in socket

B. Cartilaginous joints

Bones united by cartilage.

Types

Primary cartilaginous joint
(Synchondrosis)

- Hyaline cartilage present.
- Example: Epiphyseal plate.

Secondary cartilaginous joint
(Symphysis)

- Fibrocartilage present.
- Example: Pubic symphysis.

C. Synovial joints

- Freely movable joints.
- Have synovial cavity.

Structure of Synovial Joint

Essential features

1. Articular surfaces

- Covered by hyaline cartilage.
- Smooth and avascular.

2. Joint cavity

- Space between articular surfaces.
- Contains synovial fluid.

3. Articular capsule

Fibrous capsule

- Outer strong layer.

Synovial membrane

- Inner vascular membrane.
- Secretes synovial fluid.

4. Synovial fluid

Functions:

- Lubrication
- Nutrition of cartilage
- Shock absorption

Accessory structures

1. Ligaments
2. Articular disc/meniscus
3. Labrum
4. Fat pads
5. Bursae

Blood supply

- Articular arteries form periarticular anastomosis.

Nerve supply

- Hilton's law.

Example**Knee joint.****Conclusion**

Synovial joints provide maximum mobility and are structurally specialized for movement.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the structure of synovial joints. Classify synovial joints with examples.

Structure of Synovial Joint

1. Articular cartilage
2. Joint cavity
3. Fibrous capsule
4. Synovial membrane
5. Synovial fluid
6. Accessory ligaments and discs

Classification of Synovial Joints**1. Plane joint**

- Gliding movement.
- Example: Intercarpal joints.

2. Hinge joint

- Flexion and extension.
- Example: Elbow joint.

3. Pivot joint

- Rotation.
- Example: Superior radioulnar joint.

4. Condylar joint

- Biaxial.
- Example: Wrist joint.

5. Ellipsoid joint

- Example: Metacarpophalangeal joint.

6. Saddle joint

- Example: First carpometacarpal joint.

7. Ball and socket joint

- Multiaxial.
- Example: Shoulder joint.

2. Classify cartilage with suitable examples. Describe the structure of elastic cartilage.

Classification of Cartilage**1. Hyaline cartilage****Examples:**

- Articular cartilage
- Costal cartilage
- Tracheal rings

2. Elastic cartilage**Examples:**

- Pinna
- Epiglottis

- Auditory tube

3. Fibrocartilage

Examples:

- Intervertebral disc
- Pubic symphysis
- Menisci

Structure of Elastic Cartilage

- Yellow flexible cartilage.
- Covered by perichondrium.
- Chondrocytes present in lacunae.
- Matrix contains elastic fibres.
- Highly flexible.

Functions

1. Provides support.
2. Maintains shape.
3. Gives elasticity.

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the parts and arterial supply of a developing long bone

Parts of developing long bone

1. Diaphysis
2. Metaphysis
3. Epiphysis
4. Epiphyseal plate
5. Articular cartilage

Arterial supply

1. Nutrient artery
2. Periosteal arteries
3. Metaphyseal arteries
4. Epiphyseal arteries

Importance

- Essential for growth and ossification.

2. Blood supply of a long bone.

Sources

1. Nutrient artery
2. Periosteal arteries
3. Metaphyseal arteries
4. Epiphyseal arteries

Nutrient artery

- Enters through nutrient foramen.
- Supplies medulla and inner cortex.

Periosteal arteries

- Supply outer cortex.

Metaphyseal and epiphyseal arteries

- Supply ends of bone.

Venous drainage

Through nutrient and periosteal veins.

Applied anatomy

- Fracture may disturb blood supply causing avascular necrosis.

3. Classify synovial joints with an example for each

1. Plane – Intercarpal joint
2. Hinge – Elbow joint
3. Pivot – Superior radioulnar joint
4. Condylar – Wrist joint
5. Saddle – First carpometacarpal joint
6. Ball and socket – Shoulder joint

4. Types of epiphysis

Types

1. Pressure epiphysis
2. Traction epiphysis
3. Atavistic epiphysis
4. Aberrant epiphysis

Examples

- Pressure: Head of femur
- Traction: Greater trochanter
- Atavistic: Coracoid process
- Aberrant: Epiphysis at first metacarpal

5. Sesamoid bone

Sesamoid bones are bones developed within tendons.

Features

- Reduce friction.
- Modify pressure.
- Increase efficiency of muscles.

Examples

1. Patella
2. Pisiform
3. Sesamoid bones of thumb and great toe

6. Periosteum

Periosteum is fibrous membrane covering bone except at articular surfaces.

Layers

1. Outer fibrous layer
2. Inner osteogenic layer

Functions

1. Nutrition

2. Appositional growth
3. Repair of fractures
4. Attachment for tendons and ligaments

7. Pivot joint

Pivot joint is a uniaxial synovial joint permitting rotation.

Features

- Rounded process rotates within ring.

Examples

1. Superior radioulnar joint
2. Median atlantoaxial joint

Movements

- Rotation only.

8. Epiphyseal plate

Epiphyseal plate is hyaline cartilage plate between epiphysis and diaphysis.

Zones

1. Resting zone
2. Proliferation zone
3. Hypertrophy zone
4. Calcification zone
5. Ossification zone

Functions

- Responsible for longitudinal growth.

9. Fibrous joints

Fibrous joints are joints where bones are united by fibrous tissue.

Types

1. Suture
2. Syndesmosis
3. Gomphosis

Features

- No joint cavity.
- Minimal movement.

10. Epiphysis

Epiphysis is the end part of a long bone developing from secondary ossification center.

Types

1. Pressure epiphysis
2. Traction epiphysis
3. Atavistic epiphysis
4. Aberrant epiphysis

Functions

- Growth of bone.
- Articulation.

11. Osteon

Osteon or Haversian system is the structural unit of compact bone.

Components

1. Haversian canal
2. Concentric lamellae
3. Lacunae with osteocytes
4. Canaliculi

Functions

- Strength and nutrition of compact bone.

12. Cells of bone tissues**Types**

1. Osteoprogenitor cells
2. Osteoblasts
3. Osteocytes
4. Osteoclasts

Osteoblasts

- Bone forming cells.

Osteocytes

- Mature bone cells.

Osteoclasts

- Bone resorbing cells.

13. Anterior fontanelle

Anterior fontanelle is diamond-shaped membranous gap between skull bones.

Boundaries

- Frontal bones anteriorly.
- Parietal bones posteriorly.

Closure

- Closes by 18 months.

Importance

1. Indicates hydration.
2. Helps during birth.
3. Clinical importance in hydrocephalus.

MUSCLES**SHORT NOTES**

1. Sarcomere

Sarcomere is the structural and functional unit of skeletal muscle.

Extent

- **Between two Z lines.**

Parts

1. **A band**
2. **I band**
3. **H zone**
4. **M line**
5. **Z line**

Filaments

- **Thick filaments: Myosin**
- **Thin filaments: Actin**

Function

- **Muscle contraction by sliding filament mechanism.**

CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM**SHORT ESSAYS**

1. Describe the various types and structure-function correlation of blood vessels.

Classification of blood vessels

1. **Arteries**
2. **Arterioles**
3. **Capillaries**
4. **Venules**
5. **Veins**

General structure

Blood vessels have three layers:

1. **Tunica intima**
2. **Tunica media**
3. **Tunica adventitia**

Arteries

- **Thick wall.**
- **Narrow lumen.**
- **Thick tunica media.**
- **Carry blood under high pressure.**

Functions

- **Transport blood away from heart.**
- **Maintain blood pressure.**

Arterioles

- **Small arteries.**
- **Regulate blood flow and peripheral resistance.**

Capillaries

- **Only endothelial layer.**
- **Site of exchange.**

Types

1. **Continuous**
2. **Fenestrated**
3. **Sinusoidal**

Veins

- **Thin wall.**
- **Wide lumen.**
- **Valves present.**

Functions

- **Return blood to heart.**
- **Blood reservoir.**

Structure-function correlation

- Thick arterial wall withstands pressure.
- Thin capillary wall permits exchange.
- Valves in veins prevent backflow.

NERVOUS SYSTEM

SHORT NOTES

1. Neuroglia

Neuroglia are supporting cells of nervous tissue.

Types in central nervous system

1. Astrocytes
2. Oligodendrocytes
3. Microglia
4. Ependymal cells

Types in peripheral nervous system

1. Schwann cells
2. Satellite cells

Functions

1. Support neurons
2. Nutrition
3. Myelination
4. Phagocytosis
5. Formation of blood-brain barrier

GENERAL EMBRYOLOGY

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the formation of placenta.
Add a note on placental barrier.

Placenta

Placenta is a fetomaternal organ formed by fetal chorion and maternal decidua basalis.

Formation of placenta

Fetal part

- Chorion frondosum.

Maternal part

- Decidua basalis.

Development

1. Formation of trophoblast.
2. Formation of chorionic villi.
3. Development of intervillous spaces.
4. Establishment of uteroplacental circulation.

Functions

1. Nutrition
2. Respiration
3. Excretion
4. Endocrine function
5. Protection

Placental barrier

Layers:

1. Syncytiotrophoblast
2. Cytotrophoblast
3. Connective tissue of villus
4. Endothelium of fetal capillaries

Functions of placental barrier

- Exchange of gases and nutrients.
- Prevents mixing of maternal and fetal blood.

2. Describe the formation, subdivisions and fate of intra embryonic mesoderm

Formation

- Formed during gastrulation from primitive streak.

Subdivisions

1. Paraxial mesoderm
2. Intermediate mesoderm
3. Lateral plate mesoderm

Lateral plate mesoderm divides into

- Somatopleuric layer
- Splanchnopleuric layer

Fate

Paraxial mesoderm

- Somites
- Vertebrae
- Skeletal muscles

Intermediate mesoderm

- Urogenital system

Lateral plate mesoderm

- Heart and blood vessels
- Serous membranes
- Connective tissue

3. Describe the steps of fertilization and its effects.

Definition

Fertilization is fusion of male and female gametes.

Steps

1. Capacitation of sperm
2. Penetration of corona radiata
3. Penetration of zona pellucida
4. Fusion of plasma membranes
5. Completion of second meiotic division
6. Formation of male and female pronuclei
7. Fusion of pronuclei

Effects

1. Formation of zygote
2. Restoration of diploid number
3. Determination of sex
4. Activation of cleavage
5. Mixing of paternal and maternal genes

4. Describe the formation, fate and embryological significance of primitive streak.

Formation

- Appears during third week in epiblast.
- Develops at caudal end.

Parts

1. Primitive groove
2. Primitive node
3. Primitive pit

Fate

- Regresses and disappears by end of fourth week.

Embryological significance

1. Establishes body axis.
2. Site of gastrulation.
3. Formation of mesoderm.
4. Formation of notochord.

Applied anatomy

Persistence may cause sacrococcygeal teratoma.

5. Describe the process of implantation and common abnormal sites of implantation

Definition

Implantation is embedding of blastocyst into endometrium.

Process

1. Zona pellucida disappears.
2. Blastocyst attaches to endometrium.
3. Trophoblast differentiates into:
 - Cytotrophoblast
 - Syncytiotrophoblast
4. Blastocyst embeds into endometrium.

Normal site

Upper posterior wall of uterus.

Abnormal sites

1. Fallopian tube
2. Ovary
3. Cervix
4. Abdominal cavity
5. Lower uterine segment

Clinical importance

- Ectopic pregnancy.

6. Describe the process of neurulation. Name the vesicles in the cranial expanded part of the neural tube and mention their fate.

Neurulation

Formation of neural tube from ectoderm.

Steps

1. Formation of neural plate.
2. Formation of neural groove.
3. Fusion of neural folds.
4. Formation of neural tube.

Cranial vesicles**Primary brain vesicles**

1. Prosencephalon
2. Mesencephalon
3. Rhombencephalon

Fate**Prosencephalon**

- Telencephalon → cerebral hemispheres
- Diencephalon → thalamus

Mesencephalon

- Midbrain

Rhombencephalon

- Metencephalon → pons and cerebellum
- Myelencephalon → medulla

7. Development of placenta and its associated anomalies.

Development

- Placenta develops from chorion frondosum and decidua basalis.
- Chorionic villi proliferate.
- Intervillous spaces form.

- Maternal and fetal circulations established.

Functions

1. Nutrition
2. Respiration
3. Endocrine function
4. Protection

Anomalies

1. Placenta previa
2. Placenta accreta
3. Succenturiate placenta
4. Circumvallate placenta
5. Retained placenta

8. Formation of placenta

Placenta develops from fetal chorion frondosum and maternal decidua basalis.

Steps

1. Trophoblast differentiation.
2. Formation of chorionic villi.
3. Development of intervillous spaces.
4. Formation of fetal blood vessels.
5. Establishment of placental circulation.

Functions

1. Nutrition
2. Respiration
3. Excretion
4. Hormone secretion

9. Formation and fate of notochord.

Formation

- Cells from primitive node form notochordal process.
- Notochordal plate forms.

- Plate folds to form notochord.

Fate

- Mostly degenerates.
- Remnant forms nucleus pulposus of intervertebral disc.

Functions

1. Induces neural tube formation.
2. Forms axial skeleton basis.

10. Graafian follicle

Graafian follicle is mature ovarian follicle.

Parts

1. Secondary oocyte
2. Zona pellucida
3. Corona radiata
4. Antrum
5. Granulosa cells
6. Theca interna
7. Theca externa

Functions

- Ovulation.
- Hormone secretion.

11. Process of implantation and its clinical aspects

Implantation

Embedding of blastocyst into endometrium.

Stages

1. Apposition
2. Adhesion
3. Invasion

Clinical aspects

1. Ectopic pregnancy
2. Placenta previa
3. Abnormal implantation

12. Implantation

Implantation is attachment and embedding of blastocyst in endometrium.

Site

Upper posterior uterine wall.

Stages

1. Hatching
2. Attachment
3. Invasion

Importance

- Establishes pregnancy.

13. Divisions and derivatives of intraembryonic mesoderm.**Divisions**

1. Paraxial mesoderm
2. Intermediate mesoderm
3. Lateral plate mesoderm

Derivatives**Paraxial**

- Vertebrae
- Skeletal muscles

Intermediate

- Kidneys and gonads

Lateral plate

- Heart
- Blood vessels
- Serous membranes

14. Notochord

Notochord is midline mesodermal structure.

Formation

From primitive node cells.

Functions

1. Induces neural plate.
2. Basis of vertebral column.

Fate

Forms nucleus pulposus.

15. Stages and consequences of fertilisation**Stages**

1. Capacitation
2. Acrosomal reaction
3. Fusion of gametes
4. Pronuclear fusion

Consequences

1. Zygote formation
2. Restoration of chromosome number
3. Sex determination
4. Genetic variation

16. Placenta

Placenta is temporary fetomaternal organ.

Parts

1. Fetal part – chorion frondosum
2. Maternal part – decidua basalis

Functions

1. Nutrition
2. Respiration
3. Endocrine secretion
4. Protection

17. Intra embryonic mesoderm

Intraembryonic mesoderm develops during gastrulation.

Divisions

1. Paraxial
2. Intermediate
3. Lateral plate

Derivatives

- Muscles
- Skeleton
- Cardiovascular system

18. Neural crest

Neural crest cells arise from margins of neural folds.

Derivatives

1. Spinal ganglia
2. Autonomic ganglia
3. Schwann cells
4. Melanocytes
5. Adrenal medulla

Importance

- Important in peripheral nervous system development.

SHORT NOTES

1. Blastocyst

Blastocyst is the stage formed after morula during first week of development.

Parts

1. Trophoblast
2. Embryoblast
3. Blastocyst cavity

Functions

1. Implantation
2. Formation of embryo
3. Formation of fetal membranes

2. Describe fertilization and its results

Definition

Fertilization is fusion of male and female gametes.

Steps

1. Capacitation
2. Acrosomal reaction
3. Penetration of zona pellucida
4. Fusion of gametes
5. Formation of zygote

Results

1. Restoration of diploid number
2. Determination of sex
3. Genetic variation
4. Initiation of cleavage

3. Development of interatrial septum

Development

Interatrial septum develops from septum primum and septum secundum.

Septum primum

- Grows downward from roof of primitive atrium.
- Leaves foramen primum.
- Later forms foramen secundum.

Septum secundum

- Develops right to septum primum.
- Forms foramen ovale.

Fate

- At birth foramen ovale closes forming fossa ovalis.

4. Formation and fate of primitive streak**Formation**

- Appears in epiblast during third week.
- Located in caudal midline.

Fate

- Regresses and disappears by fourth week.

Importance

1. Gastrulation
2. Formation of germ layers
3. Establishment of body axis

5. Parts of blastocyst**Parts**

1. Trophoblast
2. Embryoblast
3. Blastocyst cavity

Trophoblast

- Forms fetal membranes and placenta.

Embryoblast

- Forms embryo proper.

6. Oogenesis

Oogenesis is formation of ovum from oogonia.

Stages

1. Multiplication phase
2. Growth phase
3. Maturation phase

Sequence

Oogonium → Primary oocyte → Secondary oocyte → Ovum

Features

- Begins before birth.
- Meiosis II completed after fertilization.

7. Subdivisions and derivatives of neural tube**Subdivisions**

1. Prosencephalon
2. Mesencephalon
3. Rhombencephalon

Derivatives**Prosencephalon**

- Cerebrum
- Thalamus

Mesencephalon

- **Midbrain**

Rhombencephalon

- **Pons**
- **Cerebellum**
- **Medulla**

8. Formation and structure of umbilical cord.

Formation

- **Formed from connecting stalk and yolk sac stalk.**
- **Covered by amnion.**

Structure

Contains:

1. **Two umbilical arteries**
2. **One umbilical vein**
3. **Wharton's jelly**

Functions

- **Connects fetus to placenta.**

9. Embryological basis of twinning

Types

1. **Dizygotic twins**
2. **Monozygotic twins**

Dizygotic twins

- **Two ova fertilized by two sperms.**
- **Genetically different.**

Monozygotic twins

- **Single zygote divides.**
- **Genetically identical.**

10. Neural crest cells.

Neural crest cells arise from neural folds.

Derivatives

1. **Spinal ganglia**
2. **Autonomic ganglia**
3. **Schwann cells**
4. **Melanocytes**
5. **Adrenal medulla**

11. Spermatogenesis.

Spermatogenesis is formation of spermatozoa from spermatogonia.

Stages

1. **Multiplication phase**
2. **Growth phase**
3. **Maturation phase**
4. **Spermiogenesis**

Sequence

Spermatogonium → Primary spermatocyte → Secondary spermatocyte → Spermatid → Spermatozoon

12. Decidua

Decidua is modified endometrium during pregnancy.

Parts

1. **Decidua basalis**
2. **Decidua capsularis**
3. **Decidua parietalis**

Functions

1. **Nutrition of embryo**
2. **Formation of maternal placenta**

13. Yolk sac

Yolk sac is extraembryonic membrane lined by endoderm.

Functions

1. Early nutrition
2. Hemopoiesis
3. Formation of primordial germ cells
4. Part of gut tube formation

14. Graafian follicle

Graafian follicle is mature ovarian follicle before ovulation.

Parts

1. Secondary oocyte
2. Zona pellucida
3. Corona radiata
4. Antrum
5. Granulosa cells

Functions

- Ovulation and hormone secretion.

15. Zona pellucida

Zona pellucida is glycoprotein membrane surrounding oocyte.

Functions

1. Species-specific sperm binding
2. Prevents polyspermy
3. Protection of oocyte

16. Right atrial development**Development**

Right atrium develops from:

1. Primitive atrium
2. Right horn of sinus venosus

Primitive atrium forms

- Trabeculated anterior part.

Right horn forms

- Smooth posterior wall (sinus venarum).

17. Inter ventricular septum

Interventricular septum separates right and left ventricles.

Parts

1. Muscular part
2. Membranous part

Development

- Muscular part from ventricular floor.
- Membranous part from endocardial cushions.

18. Somites

Somites are segmented blocks of paraxial mesoderm.

Parts and derivatives

1. Sclerotome → vertebrae
2. Myotome → muscles
3. Dermatome → dermis

19. Neural crest derivatives**Derivatives**

1. Spinal ganglia
2. Autonomic ganglia

3. Schwann cells
4. Melanocytes
5. Adrenal medulla
6. Pia and arachnoid mater

20. Chorionic villi

Chorionic villi are finger-like projections of chorion.

Types

1. Primary villi
2. Secondary villi
3. Tertiary villi

Functions

- Maternal-fetal exchange.

21. Development of lungs

Development

- Respiratory diverticulum appears from foregut.
- Forms bronchial buds.
- Repeated branching forms bronchial tree.

Stages

1. Pseudoglandular
2. Canalicular
3. Terminal sac
4. Alveolar stage

22. Dizygotic twins

Dizygotic twins develop from fertilization of two ova by two sperms.

Features

1. Genetically different
2. Separate placenta and membranes

3. Resemble ordinary siblings

23. Fertilisation

Fertilisation is fusion of sperm and ovum.

Site

Ampulla of uterine tube.

Results

1. Zygote formation
2. Restoration of chromosome number
3. Determination of sex

24. Neural tube

Neural tube develops from neural plate.

Development

- Neural folds fuse in midline.
- Cranial end forms brain.
- Caudal end forms spinal cord.

Defects

1. Spina bifida
2. Anencephaly

25. Spermiogenesis

Spermiogenesis is transformation of spermatid into spermatozoon.

Changes

1. Formation of acrosome
2. Condensation of nucleus
3. Formation of tail
4. Loss of excess cytoplasm

26. Implantation

Implantation is embedding of blastocyst into endometrium.

Site

Upper posterior wall of uterus.

Stages

1. Apposition
2. Adhesion
3. Invasion

GENETICS

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the technique of karyotyping with its applications.

Definition

Karyotyping is arrangement of chromosomes in homologous pairs according to size and morphology.

Technique

1. Collection of peripheral blood.
2. Culture of lymphocytes.
3. Addition of colchicine to arrest metaphase.
4. Hypotonic treatment.
5. Fixation and staining.
6. Photography and arrangement of chromosomes.

Applications

1. Diagnosis of chromosomal disorders.
2. Prenatal diagnosis.
3. Sex determination.
4. Detection of structural abnormalities.
5. Genetic counseling.

2. Describe the karyotyping with its applications

Karyotype

It is the complete chromosomal complement of an individual.

Steps of karyotyping

1. Cell culture
2. Arrest in metaphase
3. Hypotonic treatment
4. Fixation
5. Staining
6. Arrangement of chromosomes

Applications

1. Diagnosis of Down syndrome
2. Turner syndrome
3. Klinefelter syndrome
4. Prenatal diagnosis

3. With the help of pedigree charts describe the various modes of inheritance involving the sex chromosomes. Give suitable examples for each type.

Sex-linked inheritance

Inheritance involving genes on sex chromosomes.

Types

X-linked recessive

Features

- Males commonly affected.
- Females are carriers.

Examples

1. Hemophilia

2. Colour blindness**X-linked dominant****Features**

- Both sexes affected.
- Affected father transmits to daughters.

Example

Vitamin D resistant rickets.

Y-linked inheritance**Features**

- Only males affected.
- Father to son transmission.

Example

Hypertrichosis of pinna.

4. Describe the structure of chromosomes with classification. Explain any three structural anomalies of chromosomes

Structure of chromosome

1. Chromatid
2. Centromere
3. Telomere
4. Secondary constriction
5. Satellite

Classification based on centromere

1. Metacentric
2. Submetacentric
3. Acrocentric
4. Telocentric

Structural anomalies**1. Deletion**

Loss of chromosome segment.

2. Duplication

Repeated chromosome segment.

3. Translocation

Transfer of segment to another chromosome.

5. Karyotyping**Definition**

Arrangement of chromosomes according to morphology.

Procedure

1. Cell culture
2. Metaphase arrest
3. Staining
4. Photography
5. Arrangement

Uses

1. Diagnosis of chromosomal disorders
2. Prenatal diagnosis

6. Numerical aberrations of chromosomes**Definition**

Abnormal number of chromosomes.

Types**Euploidy**

Variation in complete sets.

Aneuploidy**Loss or gain of individual chromosome.****Examples**

1. Down syndrome – Trisomy 21
2. Turner syndrome – Monosomy X
3. Klinefelter syndrome – XXY

7. Chromosomal aberrations.**Types**

1. Numerical abnormalities
2. Structural abnormalities

Numerical

- Aneuploidy
- Polyploidy

Structural

1. Deletion
2. Duplication
3. Inversion
4. Translocation

8. Describe various modes of inheritance with examples**Modes**

1. Autosomal dominant
2. Autosomal recessive
3. X-linked dominant
4. X-linked recessive
5. Y-linked

Examples

- Autosomal dominant – Marfan syndrome
- Autosomal recessive – Sickle cell anemia

- X-linked recessive – Hemophilia

9. Mendelian inheritance**Mendel's laws**

1. Law of segregation
2. Law of independent assortment
3. Law of dominance

Importance

- Basis of classical genetics.

10. Down syndrome**Cause****Trisomy of chromosome 21.****Features**

1. Intellectual disability
2. Epicanthic fold
3. Flat face
4. Protruding tongue
5. Simian crease

Karyotype**47, XX/XY +21****SHORT NOTES****1. Describe the principle of genetic counselling****Definition****Genetic counseling is guidance given regarding hereditary disorders.****Principles**

1. Accurate diagnosis
2. Risk assessment

3. Nondirective counseling
4. Confidentiality
5. Psychological support

2. Explain the genetic basis of numerical anomalies of chromosomes

Cause

Usually due to nondisjunction during meiosis.

Types

1. Trisomy
2. Monosomy

Examples

- Down syndrome
- Turner syndrome
- Klinefelter syndrome

3. Karyotype and clinical features of Turner syndrome

Karyotype

45, X

Clinical features

1. Short stature
2. Webbed neck
3. Shield chest
4. Streak gonads
5. Primary amenorrhea

4. What is Barr Body. What is its significance.

Barr body

Condensed inactive X chromosome in female cells.

Significance

1. Sex chromatin identification
2. Detection of chromosomal abnormalities
3. Determination of genetic sex

5. Explain autosomal dominant inheritance in genetic diseases

Features

1. Vertical transmission
2. Both sexes affected equally
3. One affected parent usually present
4. 50% risk to offspring

Examples

1. Marfan syndrome
2. Achondroplasia

6. Karyotype and clinical features of Klinefelter syndrome

Karyotype

47, XXY

Clinical features

1. Tall stature
2. Small testes
3. Gynecomastia
4. Sterility
5. Sparse body hair

7. Karyotyping

Definition

Study and arrangement of chromosomes.

Steps

1. Cell culture
2. Metaphase arrest
3. Staining
4. Arrangement

Uses

- Detection of chromosomal disorders.

8. Define Karyotype. What are the steps of Karyotyping.

Karyotype

Chromosomal complement of an individual.

Steps

1. Collection of cells
2. Cell culture
3. Metaphase arrest
4. Hypotonic treatment
5. Staining
6. Arrangement of chromosomes

9. Trisomy 21

Trisomy 21 is chromosomal disorder due to extra chromosome 21.

Features

1. Intellectual disability
2. Flat face
3. Epicanthic folds
4. Congenital heart disease

10. Describe structure of chromosome with classification.

Structure

1. Chromatid
2. Centromere

3. Telomere
4. Satellite

Classification

1. Metacentric
2. Submetacentric
3. Acrocentric
4. Telocentric

11. Chromosomes and its classification

Chromosome

Thread-like hereditary structure in nucleus.

Classification

1. Metacentric
2. Submetacentric
3. Acrocentric
4. Telocentric

12. Name the structural chromosomal abnormalities

1. Deletion
2. Duplication
3. Inversion
4. Translocation
5. Ring chromosome
6. Isochromosome

13. Barr body

Barr body is inactive condensed X chromosome.

Location

- Seen at nuclear periphery.

Importance

1. Sex determination

2. Detection of chromosomal disorders

14. Genetic counselling

Definition

Process of advising individuals or families regarding the risk, nature and prevention of hereditary disorders.

Indications

- Family history of genetic disease
- Recurrent abortions
- Advanced maternal age
- Previous child with congenital anomaly

Importance

- Early diagnosis
- Prevention of genetic disorders
- Prenatal diagnosis and family planning

15. Chromosomal aberrations

Definition

Abnormalities in the structure or number of chromosomes.

Types

Numerical abnormalities

- Aneuploidy
- Polyploidy

Structural abnormalities

- Deletion
- Duplication
- Inversion
- Translocation

Effects

- Congenital malformations
- Mental retardation
- Infertility

16. Numerical chromosomal abnormalities

Definition

Abnormal change in chromosome number.

Types

Aneuploidy

- Monosomy
- Trisomy

Polyploidy

- Triploidy
- Tetraploidy

Examples

- Down syndrome – Trisomy 21
- Turner syndrome – 45,X
- Klinefelter syndrome – 47,XXY

17. Down syndrome

Definition

Chromosomal disorder caused by trisomy of chromosome 21.

Karyotype

47,XX,+21 or 47,XY,+21

Features

- Intellectual disability

- Flat face
- Epicanthic folds
- Protruding tongue
- Single palmar crease
- Congenital heart defects

Cause

Meiotic nondisjunction

18. Reciprocal translocation

Definition

Exchange of chromosomal segments between two non-homologous chromosomes.

Features

- Usually balanced
- No loss of genetic material
- May produce abnormal gametes

Importance

- Recurrent abortions
- Congenital anomalies in offspring

19. Klinefelter's syndrome

Definition

Sex chromosomal abnormality in males due to extra X chromosome.

Karyotype

47,XXY

Features

- Tall eunuchoid body
- Small testes
- Infertility
- Gynecomastia

- Sparse body hair

20. Turner's syndrome

Definition

Chromosomal disorder due to monosomy X.

Karyotype

45,X

Features

- Short stature
- Webbed neck
- Streak gonads
- Primary amenorrhea
- Shield chest
- Infertility

GENERAL HISTOLOGY

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Illustrate and describe the microscopic anatomy of transverse section of compact bone. Add a note on the functions of periosteum.

Introduction

Compact bone is made up of closely packed bony lamellae arranged in the form of osteons or Haversian systems.

Microscopic anatomy of compact bone

1. Osteon (Haversian system)

- Structural and functional unit of compact bone.
- Cylindrical structure parallel to long axis of bone.
- Consists of:

- Central Haversian canal
- Concentric lamellae
- Lacunae containing osteocytes
- Canaliculi

2. Haversian canal

- Present at centre of osteon.
- Contains blood vessels, lymphatics and nerve fibres.
- Lined by endosteum.

3. Concentric lamellae

- Arranged concentrically around Haversian canal.
- Composed of collagen fibres and calcified matrix.
- Fibres in adjacent lamellae run in different directions.

4. Lacunae

- Small spaces between lamellae.
- Contain osteocytes.

5. Canaliculi

- Tiny canals radiating from lacunae.
- Contain cytoplasmic processes of osteocytes.
- Help in nutrition and communication.

6. Interstitial lamellae

- Remnants of old osteons between adjacent osteons.

7. Circumferential lamellae

- Outer circumferential lamellae beneath periosteum.

- Inner circumferential lamellae around medullary cavity.

8. Volkmann's canals

- Transverse or oblique canals connecting Haversian canals.
- Carry blood vessels from periosteum.

Functions of periosteum

- Nutrition of bone.
- Appositional growth of bone.
- Repair after fracture.
- Attachment for tendons and ligaments.
- Contains osteogenic cells for bone formation.
- Rich sensory nerve supply.

Conclusion

Compact bone shows organized osteons adapted for strength, nutrition and resistance to stress.

2. Describe the microscopic structure of hyaline cartilage and elastic cartilage.

Hyaline cartilage

Definition

Most common type of cartilage having glassy matrix.

Microscopic structure

1. Perichondrium

- Present except at articular surfaces.
- Outer fibrous layer and inner chondrogenic layer.

2. Cells

- Chondroblasts present beneath perichondrium.
- Chondrocytes lie in lacunae.
- Isogenous groups commonly seen.

- Pinna
- Epiglottis
- Auditory tube

Differences between hyaline and elastic cartilage

3. Matrix

- Homogeneous and basophilic.
- Contains type II collagen fibres.
- Rich in proteoglycans.

Hyaline cartilage	Elastic cartilage
Type II collagen fibres	Elastic fibres abundant
Glassy matrix	Yellow elastic matrix
Less flexible	Highly flexible
Calcification may occur	Calcification rare

4. Territorial matrix

- Dark staining around lacunae.

5. Interterritorial matrix

- Lighter staining between lacunae.

3. Describe the structure of transitional epithelium with site of occurrence and its functional significance.

Examples

- Costal cartilage
- Tracheal rings
- Nasal septum
- Articular cartilage

Definition

Transitional epithelium or urothelium is a stratified epithelium specialized for distension.

Elastic cartilage**Structure****Definition****1. Basal cells**

Cartilage containing abundant elastic fibres.

- Single layer of cuboidal or columnar cells.
- Rest on basement membrane.

Microscopic structure**2. Intermediate cells**

- Similar to hyaline cartilage.
- Perichondrium present.
- Chondrocytes larger and numerous.
- Matrix contains dense network of elastic fibres.
- Fibres visible with special stains.

- Several layers of polygonal or pear-shaped cells.

3. Superficial cells

- Large dome-shaped umbrella cells.
- Often binucleate.
- Flatten when organ distends.

Examples

Sites of occurrence

- Renal calyces
- Renal pelvis
- Ureters
- Urinary bladder
- Upper part of urethra

Functional significance

- Permits distension of urinary passages.
- Forms impermeable barrier against urine.
- Protects underlying tissues from toxic effects of urine.

Conclusion

Transitional epithelium is specially adapted for stretching and protection in urinary organs.

4. Illustrate and describe the microscopic anatomy of the large artery and medium-sized artery highlighting how their structure is suited for their function.

Large artery (Elastic artery)**Examples**

Aorta, pulmonary trunk.

Microscopic structure**1. Tunica intima**

- Endothelium with subendothelial connective tissue.
- Internal elastic lamina inconspicuous.

2. Tunica media

- Thickest layer.

- Numerous elastic lamellae.
- Smooth muscle fibres between elastic lamellae.

3. Tunica adventitia

- Thin connective tissue.
- Contains vasa vasorum and nerves.

Functional correlation

- Elastic fibres allow stretching during systole.
- Elastic recoil maintains blood flow during diastole.

Medium-sized artery (Muscular artery)**Examples**

Radial, femoral arteries.

Microscopic structure**1. Tunica intima**

- Endothelium.
- Prominent internal elastic lamina.

2. Tunica media

- Predominantly smooth muscle.
- Few elastic fibres.

3. Tunica adventitia

- Thick connective tissue.
- External elastic lamina may be present.

Functional correlation

- Smooth muscle regulates blood flow.

- Vasoconstriction and vasodilatation maintain blood pressure.

Differences

Elastic artery	Muscular artery
Elastic fibres predominant	Smooth muscle predominant
Internal elastic lamina indistinct	Internal elastic lamina prominent
Conducting artery	Distributing artery

5. Histology of thin skin. Write a note on appendages of skin.

Histology of thin skin

Epidermis

Keratinized stratified squamous epithelium.

Layers:

1. Stratum basale
2. Stratum spinosum
3. Stratum granulosum
4. Stratum corneum

Stratum lucidum absent.

Dermis

Papillary layer

- Loose connective tissue.
- Dermal papillae present.

Reticular layer

- Dense irregular connective tissue.
- Contains vessels, nerves and appendages.

Appendages of skin

1. Hair follicles

- Present in dermis.
- Associated with sebaceous glands and arrector pili muscle.

2. Sebaceous glands

- Holocrine glands.
- Secrete sebum.

3. Sweat glands

Eccrine glands

- Simple coiled tubular glands.
- Help in thermoregulation.

Apocrine glands

- Present in axilla and genital region.

4. Nails

- Plates of hard keratin.
- Protect terminal phalanges.

6. Explain the microscopic structure of thin skin.

Introduction

Thin skin covers most parts of body except palms and soles.

Epidermis

Keratinized stratified squamous epithelium.

Layers

1. Stratum basale

2. Stratum spinosum
 3. Stratum granulosum
 4. Stratum corneum
- Stratum lucidum absent.
 - Melanocytes present in basal layer.

Dermis

Papillary layer

- Loose connective tissue.
- Capillaries and nerve endings.

Reticular layer

- Dense irregular connective tissue.
- Collagen and elastic fibres.

Skin appendages

- Hair follicles
- Sebaceous glands
- Sweat glands

Functions

- Protection
- Sensation
- Thermoregulation
- Vitamin D synthesis

7. Classify muscular tissue with suitable examples. Describe the structure of skeletal muscle.

Classification of muscular tissue

Type	Example
Skeletal muscle	Biceps brachii
Cardiac muscle	Myocardium
Smooth muscle	Intestinal wall

Structure of skeletal muscle

1. Muscle fibre

- Long cylindrical multinucleated cell.
- Peripheral nuclei.
- Cross striations present.

2. Sarcolemma

- Plasma membrane surrounding fibre.

3. Sarcoplasm

- Contains myofibrils.
- Rich in glycogen and mitochondria.

4. Myofibrils

- Composed of actin and myosin filaments.
- Show alternating A and I bands.

5. Connective tissue coverings

- Endomysium around fibre.
- Perimysium around fascicle.
- Epimysium around muscle.

6. Triad

- One T tubule and two terminal cisternae.

Functions

- Voluntary movements.
- Maintenance of posture.
- Heat production.

SHORT NOTES

1. Explain the structural and functional differences between elastic and muscular arteries.

Elastic arteries	Muscular arteries
Large arteries	Medium-sized arteries
Tunica media rich in elastic fibres	Tunica media rich in smooth muscle
Internal elastic lamina indistinct	Internal elastic lamina prominent
Conduct blood from heart	Distribute blood to organs
Elastic recoil maintains blood flow	Regulate blood flow and pressure
Example: Aorta	Example: Radial artery

2. Microscopy of lymph node.

Capsule

- **Dense connective tissue.**
- **Trabeculae extend inward.**

Cortex

- **Lymphoid follicles with germinal centres.**
- **B lymphocytes predominant.**

Paracortex

- **Rich in T lymphocytes.**
- **High endothelial venules present.**

Medulla

- **Medullary cords and sinuses.**

Lymphatic circulation

- **Afferent lymphatics enter capsule.**
- **Efferent lymphatic leaves hilum.**

Functions

- **Filtration of lymph.**
- **Immune response.**

3. Transitional epithelium

Definition

Stratified epithelium specialized for distension.

Structure

- **Basal cuboidal cells.**
- **Intermediate polygonal cells.**
- **Superficial umbrella cells.**

Sites

- **Urinary bladder**
- **Ureter**
- **Renal pelvis**

Functions

- **Distension**
- **Protection from urine**

4. Microscopic structure of peripheral nerve

Connective tissue coverings

Endoneurium

- **Surrounds individual nerve fibres.**

Perineurium

- **Surrounds fascicles.**
- **Forms blood-nerve barrier.**

Epineurium

- **Surrounds whole nerve.**

Nerve fibres

- Myelinated and non-myelinated fibres.
- Schwann cells present.

Nodes of Ranvier

- Gaps in myelin sheath.

5. Microscopic structure of thymus

Capsule

- Thin connective tissue capsule.
- Septa divide gland into lobules.

Cortex

- Dark staining.
- Rich in lymphocytes.

Medulla

- Pale staining.
- Fewer lymphocytes.
- Hassall's corpuscles present.

Functions

- T lymphocyte maturation.
- Cell-mediated immunity.

6. Histologic difference between Cardiac and Skeletal Muscles.

Cardiac muscle	Skeletal muscle
Branched fibres	Long cylindrical fibres
Single central nucleus	Multiple peripheral nuclei
Intercalated discs present	Intercalated discs absent
Involuntary	Voluntary
Striated	Striated

7. Microscopic structure of spleen

Capsule

- Fibroelastic tissue with smooth muscle.

White pulp

- Lymphoid tissue around central artery.
- Malpighian corpuscles present.

Red pulp

- Splenic cords and venous sinusoids.

Functions

- Destruction of old RBCs.
- Immune function.
- Blood reservoir.

8. Microscopic structure of hyaline cartilage

- Perichondrium present.
- Chondrocytes in lacunae.
- Isogenous groups seen.
- Matrix homogeneous and basophilic.
- Type II collagen fibres present.

Examples

- Trachea
- Costal cartilage

9. Microscopic structure of large artery and correlate with its function

Structure

- Tunica intima thin.

- Tunica media very thick with elastic lamellae.
- Adventitia contains vasa vasorum.

Functional correlation

- Stretching during systole.
- Elastic recoil during diastole.
- Maintains continuous blood flow.

10. Microscopic Structure of compact bone

- Osteons or Haversian systems present.
- Haversian canal at centre.
- Concentric lamellae arranged around canal.
- Osteocytes present in lacunae.
- Canaliculi interconnect lacunae.
- Volkmann's canals connect adjacent osteons.

11. Microscopic structure of Elastic artery

- Intima thin.
- Internal elastic lamina indistinct.
- Media contains many elastic lamellae.
- Smooth muscle between lamellae.
- Adventitia thin with vasa vasorum.

Function

Maintains blood flow by elastic recoil.

12. Labelled diagram of histology of hyaline cartilage

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

- Perichondrium
- Chondroblasts

- Chondrocytes
- Lacunae
- Isogenous groups
- Matrix

13. Microscopic structure of skeletal muscle

- Long cylindrical multinucleated fibres.
- Peripheral nuclei.
- Cross striations present.
- Myofibrils arranged longitudinally.
- Endomysium surrounds fibres.

14. Large artery

Features

- Thick tunica media.
- Elastic lamellae abundant.
- Internal elastic lamina indistinct.

Examples

- Aorta
- Pulmonary artery

Function

Conduct blood under high pressure.

15. Muscular artery

Features

- Tunica media rich in smooth muscle.
- Prominent internal elastic lamina.
- Adventitia relatively thick.

Function

Controls blood flow by vasoconstriction and vasodilatation.

16. Bone**Definition**

Specialized connective tissue with calcified matrix.

Cells

- Osteoblasts
- Osteocytes
- Osteoclasts

Types

- Compact bone
- Spongy bone

Functions

- Support
- Protection
- Haemopoiesis
- Mineral storage

17. Spinal ganglion**Features**

- Collection of sensory neuron cell bodies.
- Surrounded by capsule.
- Pseudounipolar neurons present.
- Satellite cells surround neurons.
- Myelinated nerve fibres present.

18. Hyaline cartilage

- Most common cartilage.
- Matrix glassy and homogeneous.
- Type II collagen fibres.
- Chondrocytes in lacunae.
- Perichondrium usually present.

19. Hyaline cartilage and locations**Features**

- Homogeneous matrix.
- Chondrocytes in lacunae.
- Type II collagen fibres.

Locations

- Articular surfaces
- Costal cartilages
- Tracheal rings
- Nasal septum
- Larynx

UPPER LIMB**BONES****SHORT NOTES****1. Contents of radial groove****Contents**

- Radial nerve
- Profunda brachii artery

Applied anatomy

Radial nerve injury may occur in fracture of shaft of humerus.

2. Spiral groove**Definition**

Oblique groove on posterior surface of shaft of humerus.

Boundaries

- Between medial and lateral heads of triceps.

Contents

- Radial nerve
- Profunda brachii artery

Applied anatomy

Injury in humeral shaft fracture.

3. Coracoid process of scapula

Features

Hook-like projection from superior border of scapula.

Attachments

Muscles

- Short head of biceps brachii
- Coracobrachialis
- Pectoralis minor

Ligaments

- Coracoacromial ligament
- Coracoclavicular ligament
- Coracohumeral ligament

Importance

Provides attachment to muscles and ligaments.

PECTORAL REGION

LONG ESSAYS

1. Describe the mammary gland under the following headings: extent, deep relations, gross structure, arterial supply and lymphatics.

Extent

- Extends vertically from 2nd to 6th ribs.

- Horizontally from lateral border of sternum to midaxillary line.
- Axillary tail of Spence extends into axilla.

Deep relations

- Skin and superficial fascia superficially.
- Retromammary space deep to gland.
- Pectoral fascia covering pectoralis major.
- Serratus anterior laterally.

Gross structure

- Modified sweat gland.
- Consists of 15–20 lobes.
- Each lobe drained by lactiferous duct.
- Lactiferous sinuses present beneath areola.
- Nipple situated opposite 4th intercostal space.
- Suspensory ligaments of Cooper support gland.

Arterial supply

- Internal thoracic artery.
- Lateral thoracic artery.
- Thoracoacromial artery.
- Posterior intercostal arteries.

Venous drainage

- Axillary vein.
- Internal thoracic vein.

Lymphatic drainage

75% drains into axillary lymph nodes

- Mainly anterior (pectoral) group.

Remaining drains into

- Parasternal nodes.
- Posterior intercostal nodes.
- Opposite breast.

Applied anatomy

Carcinoma breast commonly spreads through lymphatics.

2. A 55-year-old female presented to general surgery outpatient department with pain in left axilla and swelling of left upper limb. On clinical examination the surgeon noted the presence of few enlarged swellings in her left axilla and a swelling in upper lateral quadrant of her left breast. With your knowledge in anatomy, answer the following questions.

Which group of axillary lymph nodes could be enlarged in this patient.

- Anterior (pectoral) group of axillary lymph nodes.
- Central and apical groups may also enlarge.

Describe the anatomical groups of axillary lymph nodes and specify their areas of drainage.

1. Anterior (pectoral) group

- Along lateral thoracic vessels.
- Drain anterior thoracic wall and breast.

2. Posterior (subscapular) group

- Along subscapular vessels.
- Drain posterior thoracic wall and scapular region.

3. Lateral group

- Along axillary vein.
- Drain upper limb.

4. Central group

- In axillary fat.
- Receive lymph from above groups.

5. Apical group

- At apex of axilla.
- Receive lymph from all groups.
- Drain into subclavian lymph trunk.

Describe the lymphatic drainage of mammary gland.

- 75% lymph drains to axillary nodes.
- Mainly to anterior group.
- Medial quadrants drain to parasternal nodes.
- Some lymph crosses to opposite breast.
- Inferior quadrants may drain to subdiaphragmatic nodes.

Enumerate the boundaries and contents of axilla.

Boundaries

Apex

- Cervicoaxillary canal.

Base

- Skin, superficial fascia and axillary fascia.

Anterior wall

- Pectoralis major.
- Pectoralis minor.

- Clavipectoral fascia.

Posterior wall

- Subscapularis.
- Teres major.
- Latissimus dorsi.

Medial wall

- Serratus anterior over thoracic wall.

Lateral wall

- Intertubercular sulcus of humerus.

Contents

- Axillary artery and branches.
- Axillary vein and tributaries.
- Brachial plexus cords and branches.
- Axillary lymph nodes.
- Fat and areolar tissue.

3. A painter experienced difficulty in raising the right arm upwards. The physician asked the patient to press his hands against the wall in front. It was found that the medial border and inferior angle of right scapula became prominent.

Name the muscle tested in this person to detect the injury to which nerve.

- Muscle tested: Serratus anterior.
- Nerve injured: Long thoracic nerve.

What is the name of the deformity.

- Winging of scapula.

What is the origin and root value of this nerve.

- Origin: Roots of brachial plexus.
- Root value: C5, C6, C7.

How this nerve gets damaged

- During axillary surgeries.
- Trauma to lateral thoracic wall.
- Repetitive strain.

What are the attachments and actions of this muscle.

Attachments

Origin

- Outer surfaces of upper 8 ribs.

Insertion

- Costal surface of medial border of scapula.

Actions

- Protracts scapula.
- Rotates scapula upward.
- Holds scapula against thoracic wall.
- Essential for overhead abduction.

4. A 45 years old nulliparous woman reported to the OPD with two small palpable nodules in her left axilla. She was admitted, investigated and taken up for mastectomy (left) in the same week. With your knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions:

What could be the probable diagnosis?

- Carcinoma of left breast.

What could be the nodule in the axilla and why?

- Enlarged axillary lymph nodes due to lymphatic spread of carcinoma.

Describe the blood supply and lymphatic drainage of the breast.

Blood supply

Arterial supply

- Internal thoracic artery.
- Lateral thoracic artery.
- Thoracoacromial artery.
- Posterior intercostal arteries.

Venous drainage

- Axillary vein.
- Internal thoracic vein.

Lymphatic drainage

- Mainly to anterior axillary nodes.
- Medial quadrants to parasternal nodes.
- Some drainage to posterior intercostal nodes.

Mention the development and developmental anomalies of the breast.

Development

- Develops from mammary ridge (milk line).
- Ectodermal origin.

Developmental anomalies

- Polythelia
- Polymastia
- Athelia
- Amastia
- Inverted nipple

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Lymphatic drainage of mammary gland

Axillary drainage

- 75% lymph drains to axillary nodes.
- Mainly anterior (pectoral) group.
- Then central and apical groups.

Parasternal drainage

- Medial quadrants drain to parasternal nodes.
- Communication with opposite breast.

Posterior intercostal drainage

- Some lymph drains posteriorly.

Subdiaphragmatic drainage

- Inferior quadrants may drain below diaphragm.

Applied anatomy

- Spread of carcinoma through lymphatics.
- Axillary nodes examined clinically.

2. Serratus anterior

Origin

- Outer surfaces of upper 8 ribs.

Insertion

- Costal surface of medial border of scapula.

Nerve supply

- Long thoracic nerve (C5, C6, C7).

Actions

- Protraction of scapula.
- Upward rotation.
- Fixes scapula to thoracic wall.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes winging of scapula.

3. Lymphatic drainage of mammary gland and its applied significance.**Lymphatic drainage**

- Mainly to axillary nodes.
- Medial quadrants to parasternal nodes.
- Posterior drainage to posterior intercostal nodes.
- Some lymph crosses midline.

Applied significance

- Spread of breast carcinoma.
- Enlargement of axillary nodes.
- Metastasis to opposite breast.
- Sentinel lymph node biopsy important.

SHORT NOTES**1. Clavipectoral fascia****Definition**

Fascial sheet deep to pectoralis major.

Extent

- From clavicle above to axillary fascia below.

Parts

- Costocoracoid membrane.

- Suspensory ligament of axilla.

Structures piercing it

- Cephalic vein
- Thoracoacromial artery
- Lateral pectoral nerve
- Lymphatics

2. Name four structures piercing clavipectoral fascia

1. Cephalic vein
2. Thoracoacromial artery
3. Lateral pectoral nerve
4. Lymphatics from breast to apical nodes

3. Pectoralis minor**Origin**

- 3rd, 4th and 5th ribs.

Insertion

- Coracoid process of scapula.

Nerve supply

- Medial pectoral nerve.

Actions

- Stabilizes scapula.
- Accessory muscle of inspiration.

4. Lymphatic drainage of breast

- Mainly to axillary nodes.
- Medial quadrants to parasternal nodes.
- Posterior drainage to posterior intercostal nodes.
- Inferior quadrants to subdiaphragmatic nodes.

AXILLA**LONG ESSAYS**

1. Describe Brachial plexus under the following headings: formation (roots, trunks, divisions, cords), branches and Erb's point. Add a note on Klumpke's paralysis.

Formation

Brachial plexus is formed by anterior rami of C5, C6, C7, C8 and T1.

Roots

- **Five roots: C5 to T1.**

Trunks

- **Upper trunk: C5 + C6**
- **Middle trunk: C7**
- **Lower trunk: C8 + T1**

Divisions

Each trunk divides into:

- **Anterior division**
- **Posterior division**

Cords

Named according to relation to second part of axillary artery.

Lateral cord

- **From anterior divisions of upper and middle trunks.**

Medial cord

- **From anterior division of lower trunk.**

Posterior cord

- **From posterior divisions of all trunks.**

Branches**From roots**

- **Dorsal scapular nerve**
- **Long thoracic nerve**

From trunks

- **Suprascapular nerve**
- **Nerve to subclavius**

From lateral cord

- **Musculocutaneous nerve**
- **Lateral root of median nerve**
- **Lateral pectoral nerve**

From medial cord

- **Ulnar nerve**
- **Medial root of median nerve**
- **Medial pectoral nerve**
- **Medial cutaneous nerves**

From posterior cord

- **Axillary nerve**
- **Radial nerve**
- **Upper and lower subscapular nerves**
- **Thoracodorsal nerve**

Erb's point

- **Junction of C5 and C6 roots forming upper trunk.**
- **Site prone for upper brachial plexus injury.**

Klumpke's paralysis

Cause

Injury to lower trunk (C8, T1).

Features

- **Claw hand.**
- **Paralysis of intrinsic hand muscles.**
- **Sensory loss along medial side of forearm and hand.**

2. A 45-year-old man was brought to the casualty following fall from a tree. On examination it was found that there was clawing of little and ring fingers and sensory loss along the medial part of forearm. Brachial plexus injury was diagnosed.

a) Name the part of brachial plexus that is involved in this patient

- **Lower trunk of brachial plexus (C8, T1).**

b) Formation of trunks and cords of brachial plexus

Trunks

- **Upper trunk: C5 + C6**
- **Middle trunk: C7**
- **Lower trunk: C8 + T1**

Cords

- **Lateral cord from anterior divisions of upper and middle trunks.**
- **Medial cord from anterior division of lower trunk.**
- **Posterior cord from posterior divisions of all trunks.**

c) Branches from the cords of brachial plexus mentioning the root value of each branch

Lateral cord

- **Musculocutaneous nerve – C5, C6, C7**
- **Lateral root of median nerve – C5, C6, C7**
- **Lateral pectoral nerve – C5, C6, C7**

Medial cord

- **Ulnar nerve – C8, T1**
- **Medial root of median nerve – C8, T1**
- **Medial pectoral nerve – C8, T1**
- **Medial cutaneous nerve of arm – T1**
- **Medial cutaneous nerve of forearm – C8, T1**

Posterior cord

- **Axillary nerve – C5, C6**
- **Radial nerve – C5 to T1**
- **Upper subscapular nerve – C5, C6**
- **Thoracodorsal nerve – C6, C7, C8**
- **Lower subscapular nerve – C5, C6**

d) Add a note on Erb's point

- **Formed by union of C5 and C6 roots.**
- **Site of upper trunk lesion.**
- **Causes Erb-Duchenne paralysis.**
- **Waiter's tip deformity occurs.**

3. Assisted delivery was required during the birth of a baby at term. The manoeuvre involved an unusually wide stretching at the neck shoulder angle. The neonate on examination by a neurologist

showed upper brachial plexus injury.
Answer the following

Describe formation and branches of brachial plexus

Formation

- Formed by anterior rami of C5–T1.

Roots

- C5, C6, C7, C8, T1.

Trunks

- Upper, middle and lower.

Divisions

- Anterior and posterior divisions.

Cords

- Lateral, medial and posterior.

Important terminal branches

- Musculocutaneous nerve
- Median nerve
- Ulnar nerve
- Axillary nerve
- Radial nerve

Explain the anatomical basis of the above lesion

- Excessive separation of neck and shoulder stretches upper trunk.
- Upper trunk formed by C5 and C6.
- Causes Erb's palsy.

Clinical features

- Arm adducted and medially rotated.
- Elbow extended.
- Forearm pronated.
- “Waiter’s tip” deformity.

4. Describe the brachial plexus under the following headings.

Formation

- Formed by anterior rami of C5–T1.

Relations

- In neck between scalenus anterior and medius.
- In axilla around second part of axillary artery.

Branches

Supraclavicular branches

- Dorsal scapular nerve
- Long thoracic nerve
- Suprascapular nerve
- Nerve to subclavius

Infraclavicular branches

- Musculocutaneous nerve
- Median nerve
- Ulnar nerve
- Axillary nerve
- Radial nerve

Applied anatomy

- Erb's palsy.
- Klumpke's paralysis.
- Injury during birth or trauma.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Axillary artery**Extent**

- Continuation of subclavian artery.
- Extends from outer border of first rib to lower border of teres major.

Parts

Divided into three parts by pectoralis minor.

First part**Branch**

- Superior thoracic artery.

Second part**Branches**

- Thoracoacromial artery
- Lateral thoracic artery

Third part**Branches**

- Subscapular artery
- Anterior circumflex humeral artery
- Posterior circumflex humeral artery

Relations

- Axillary vein medial.
- Brachial plexus cords around artery.

Applied anatomy

- Compression to control bleeding.

2. Brachial plexus**Formation**

- Anterior rami of C5–T1.

Parts

- Roots
- Trunks
- Divisions
- Cords
- Branches

Important branches

- Musculocutaneous
- Median
- Ulnar
- Axillary
- Radial

Applied anatomy

- Erb's palsy
- Klumpke's paralysis

SHORT NOTES**1. Axillary lymph nodes****Groups**

1. Anterior
2. Posterior
3. Lateral
4. Central
5. Apical

Drainage

- Upper limb
- Breast
- Thoracic wall

Applied anatomy

Enlarged in carcinoma breast.

2. Axillary artery

Extent

Outer border of first rib to lower border of teres major.

Parts

- **First part**
- **Second part**
- **Third part**

Branches

- **Superior thoracic**
- **Thoracoacromial**
- **Lateral thoracic**
- **Subscapular**
- **Circumflex humeral arteries**

3. Erb's point

Definition

Point where C5 and C6 roots unite.

Importance

Site of upper trunk injury.

Effects of injury

- **Erb's palsy.**
- **Waiter's tip deformity.**

4. Erb's paralysis

Cause

Upper trunk lesion (C5, C6).

Causes

- **Birth injury**
- **Fall on shoulder**

Clinical features

- **Adducted arm.**
- **Medially rotated shoulder.**
- **Extended elbow.**
- **Pronated forearm.**

Deformity

Waiter's tip position.

5. Relations of first part of axillary artery

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Anterior

- **Skin**
- **Fascia**
- **Pectoralis major**
- **Clavipectoral fascia**

Posterior

- **First intercostal space**
- **Serratus anterior**
- **Medial cord of brachial plexus**

Medial

- **Axillary vein**

Lateral

- **Lateral and posterior cords of brachial plexus**

DELTOID AND SCAPULAR REGION

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Axillary nerve

Introduction

Axillary nerve is a branch of the posterior cord of brachial plexus. It is the chief nerve supply of deltoid and teres minor muscles.

Root value

C5, C6.

Origin

Arises from posterior cord of brachial plexus in the axilla.

Course

1. Lies posterior to axillary artery.
2. Passes inferiorly in front of subscapularis.
3. Accompanies posterior circumflex humeral vessels.
4. Enters quadrangular space.
5. Winds around surgical neck of humerus deep to deltoid.
6. Divides into anterior and posterior branches.

Branches

1. Muscular branches

- Deltoid
- Teres minor

2. Articular branch

- To shoulder joint.

3. Cutaneous branch

- Upper lateral cutaneous nerve of arm.

Applied anatomy

- Injured in fracture of surgical neck of humerus.
- Injured in inferior dislocation of shoulder joint.
- Causes paralysis of deltoid.
- Loss of shoulder contour.
- Difficulty in abduction from 15° to 90°.
- Sensory loss over regimental badge area.

2. Intra muscular spaces of scapular region

Introduction

The scapular region contains three important intermuscular spaces:

1. Quadrangular space
2. Upper triangular space
3. Lower triangular space

Quadrangular space

Boundaries

- Superior – Teres minor
- Inferior – Teres major
- Medial – Long head of triceps
- Lateral – Surgical neck of humerus

Contents

- Axillary nerve
- Posterior circumflex humeral vessels

Upper triangular space

Boundaries

- Superior – Teres minor
- Inferior – Teres major
- Lateral – Long head of triceps

Contents

- Circumflex scapular vessels

Lower triangular space**Boundaries**

- Superior – Teres major
- Medial – Long head of triceps
- Lateral – Shaft of humerus

Contents

- Radial nerve
- Profunda brachii vessels

Applied anatomy

- Compression of axillary nerve in quadrangular space syndrome.
- Important surgical landmarks in posterior shoulder region.

3. Deltoid muscle and its deep relations**Deltoid muscle****Origin**

- Lateral one-third of clavicle
- Acromion
- Spine of scapula

Insertion

- Deltoid tuberosity of humerus

Nerve supply

- Axillary nerve (C5, C6)

Actions

- Chief abductor of shoulder joint from 15°–90°.

- Anterior fibers – flexion and medial rotation.
- Posterior fibers – extension and lateral rotation.

Deep relations**Structures deep to deltoid are:**

1. Shoulder joint
2. Head of humerus
3. Supraspinatus tendon
4. Infraspinatus tendon
5. Teres minor tendon
6. Subdeltoid bursa
7. Long head of biceps tendon
8. Axillary nerve
9. Posterior circumflex humeral vessels

Applied anatomy

- Intramuscular injections are given in lower part of muscle.
- Axillary nerve may be injured in shoulder dislocation.

SHORT NOTES**1. Deltoid muscle****Origin**

- Lateral one-third of clavicle
- Acromion
- Spine of scapula

Insertion

- Deltoid tuberosity

Nerve supply

- Axillary nerve (C5, C6)

Actions

- Abduction of arm from 15°–90°.
- Flexion and medial rotation by anterior fibers.
- Extension and lateral rotation by posterior fibers.

Applied anatomy

- Deltoid paralysis causes flattening of shoulder.

2. Trapezius muscle

Origin

- External occipital protuberance
- Superior nuchal line
- Ligamentum nuchae
- Spinous processes of C7–T12

Insertion

- Lateral one-third of clavicle
- Acromion
- Spine of scapula

Nerve supply

- Spinal accessory nerve
- C3, C4 proprioceptive fibers

Actions

- Elevation, retraction and rotation of scapula.

Applied anatomy

- Accessory nerve injury causes shoulder droop.

3. Quadrangular intermuscular space

Boundaries

- Superior – Teres minor

- Inferior – Teres major
- Medial – Long head of triceps
- Lateral – Surgical neck of humerus

Contents

- Axillary nerve
- Posterior circumflex humeral vessels

Importance

- Transmits axillary nerve to deltoid region.

4. Biceps brachii muscle

Origin

- Long head – Supraglenoid tubercle
- Short head – Coracoid process

Insertion

- Radial tuberosity
- Bicipital aponeurosis

Nerve supply

- Musculocutaneous nerve

Actions

- Flexion of elbow
- Supination of forearm

Applied anatomy

- Biceps jerk tests C5–C6 spinal segments.

5. Axillary nerve

Root value

C5, C6.

Course

Passes through quadrangular space around surgical neck of humerus.

Supply

- Deltoid
- Teres minor
- Shoulder joint
- Skin over regimental badge area

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes inability to abduct shoulder.

SHOULDER JOINT

LONG ESSAYS

1. Describe the shoulder joint under the following headings: type of joint, articulating surfaces, ligaments, movements and muscles causing them and applied anatomy

Type of joint

- Synovial ball and socket type of multiaxial joint.

Articulating surfaces

1. Head of humerus
2. Glenoid cavity of scapula
3. Glenoid labrum deepens the cavity.

Ligaments

1. Fibrous capsule

- Attached medially to margin of glenoid cavity.
- Attached laterally to anatomical neck of humerus.

2. Glenohumeral ligaments

- Superior
- Middle
- Inferior

3. Coracohumeral ligament

- Extends from coracoid process to greater tubercle.

4. Transverse humeral ligament

- Bridges intertubercular sulcus.

5. Coracoacromial ligament

- Forms coracoacromial arch.

Movements and muscles causing them

Flexion

- Anterior deltoid
- Clavicular head of pectoralis major
- Coracobrachialis
- Biceps brachii

Extension

- Posterior deltoid
- Latissimus dorsi
- Teres major

Abduction

- Supraspinatus initiates first 15°.
- Deltoid acts from 15°–90°.
- Trapezius and serratus anterior rotate scapula beyond 90°.

Adduction

- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi
- Teres major

Medial rotation

- Subscapularis
- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi
- Teres major
- Anterior deltoid

Lateral rotation

- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor
- Posterior deltoid

Circumduction**Combination of all movements.****Applied anatomy**

- Shoulder joint is most commonly dislocated joint.
- Dislocation usually occurs inferiorly.
- Rotator cuff tears commonly involve supraspinatus tendon.
- Frozen shoulder causes painful restriction of movements.

2. Describe shoulder joint under the following headings:-**a) Articular surfaces****b) Structures stabilizing the joint****c) Movements and muscles producing each movement****d) Applied importance****a) Articular surfaces**

- Head of humerus articulates with glenoid cavity of scapula.
- Glenoid labrum deepens glenoid cavity.

b) Structures stabilizing the joint**1. Rotator cuff muscles**

- Supraspinatus
- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor
- Subscapularis

2. Glenoid labrum**3. Coracoacromial arch****4. Tendon of long head of biceps****5. Glenohumeral ligaments****6. Coracohumeral ligament****c) Movements and muscles producing each movement****Flexion**

- Deltoid (anterior fibers)
- Pectoralis major
- Coracobrachialis
- Biceps brachii

Extension

- Posterior deltoid
- Latissimus dorsi
- Teres major

Abduction

- Supraspinatus
- Deltoid

Adduction

- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi
- Teres major

Medial rotation

- Subscapularis
- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi

Lateral rotation

- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor

d) Applied importance

- Shoulder dislocation is common.
- Axillary nerve may be injured.
- Rotator cuff tear causes painful abduction.
- Frozen shoulder causes stiffness.

3. A patient was brought with complaints of inability to abduct the right arm. On inspection, bulging in the upper part of the arm was observed

a) Name the joint involved

b) Write on the ligaments of the joint

c) Write on the relations of the joint

d) Write on the movements of the joint with muscles helping in the movements

a) Name the joint involved

- Shoulder joint.

b) Ligaments of the joint

1. Fibrous capsule
2. Glenohumeral ligaments
3. Coracohumeral ligament
4. Transverse humeral ligament
5. Coracoacromial ligament

c) Relations of the joint

Superiorly

- Supraspinatus
- Coracoacromial arch

- Subacromial bursa

Inferiorly

- Long head of triceps
- Axillary nerve

Anteriorly

- Subscapularis
- Coracobrachialis

Posteriorly

- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor

d) Movements of the joint with muscles helping in the movements

Flexion

- Anterior deltoid
- Pectoralis major

Extension

- Posterior deltoid
- Latissimus dorsi

Abduction

- Supraspinatus
- Deltoid

Adduction

- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi

Medial rotation

- Subscapularis

Lateral rotation

- **Infraspinatus**
- **Teres minor**

4. A 50 years old man came to the casualty with complaints of pain at the shoulder joint. Answer the following questions:

- **Name the bones forming the joint**
- **Movements and muscles causing them**
- **Nerve supply**
- **Ligaments**
- **Blood supply**
- **Applied aspects**

Bones forming the joint

- **Head of humerus**
- **Scapula (glenoid cavity)**

Movements and muscles causing them

Flexion

- **Deltoid**
- **Pectoralis major**

Extension

- **Posterior deltoid**
- **Latissimus dorsi**

Abduction

- **Supraspinatus**
- **Deltoid**

Adduction

- **Pectoralis major**
- **Latissimus dorsi**

Medial rotation

- **Subscapularis**

Lateral rotation

- **Infraspinatus**
- **Teres minor**

Nerve supply

- **Axillary nerve**
- **Suprascapular nerve**
- **Lateral pectoral nerve**

Ligaments

- **Fibrous capsule**
- **Glenohumeral ligaments**
- **Coracohumeral ligament**
- **Transverse humeral ligament**

Blood supply

- **Anterior circumflex humeral artery**
- **Posterior circumflex humeral artery**
- **Suprascapular artery**
- **Circumflex scapular artery**

Applied aspects

- **Dislocation**
- **Rotator cuff tear**
- **Frozen shoulder**

5. A football player dislocated his right shoulder while playing. After one month treatment, he noticed right shoulder was less prominent than the left and there was difficulty to abduct.

- **Mention the anatomical features making the shoulder to joint more prone for dislocation**
- **What is the cause for flattening of shoulder in this case and difficulty to abduct ?**
- **Name the movements occurring at the**

shoulder joint and muscles producing these movements

• State the reason, why head of the humerus is often displaced downwards?

Anatomical features making shoulder joint prone for dislocation

1. Large head of humerus with small glenoid cavity.
2. Loose capsule.
3. Weak inferior part of capsule.
4. Wide range of movements.

Cause for flattening of shoulder and difficulty in abduction

- Injury to axillary nerve.
- Paralysis and wasting of deltoid muscle.
- Abduction from 15°–90° affected.

Movements occurring at shoulder joint and muscles producing them

Flexion

- Anterior deltoid
- Pectoralis major

Extension

- Posterior deltoid
- Latissimus dorsi

Abduction

- Supraspinatus
- Deltoid

Adduction

- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi

Medial rotation

- Subscapularis

Lateral rotation

- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor

Reason why head of humerus is often displaced downwards

- Inferior part of capsule is weakest and unsupported by rotator cuff muscles.

6. A football player fell heavily and dislocated his right shoulder joint while playing. A collar and cuff support was given, after reducing the dislocation. Subsequently an orthopedic surgeon noticed that his right shoulder was less prominent than the left. The player was finding it difficult to abduct the arm to the horizontal level. Based on your anatomical knowledge answer the following questions:

- What anatomical features make the shoulder joint particularly prone to dislocation
- Briefly describe the most stabilizing structure of the joint and why the head of the humerus is often displaced downwards.
- In this case, what is the cause of subsequent flattening of the right shoulder and the difficulty in abducting the arm to a horizontal level.
- Briefly mention the ligaments and the muscles acting at the shoulder joint.

Anatomical features predisposing to dislocation

1. Large humeral head.
2. Small shallow glenoid cavity.
3. Loose capsule.

4. Weak inferior capsule.
5. Extensive mobility.

Most stabilizing structure of shoulder joint

- Rotator cuff is the chief stabilizing structure.
- Formed by tendons of supraspinatus, infraspinatus, teres minor and subscapularis.
- Inferior part lacks rotator cuff support; hence downward dislocation is common.

Cause of flattening and difficulty in abduction

- Axillary nerve injury.
- Deltoid muscle paralysis.
- Loss of shoulder contour.
- Abduction to horizontal level affected.

Ligaments of shoulder joint

- Fibrous capsule
- Glenohumeral ligaments
- Coracohumeral ligament
- Transverse humeral ligament
- Coracoacromial ligament

Muscles acting at shoulder joint

Flexors

- Deltoid
- Pectoralis major

Extensors

- Latissimus dorsi
- Posterior deltoid

Abductors

- Supraspinatus
- Deltoid

Adductors

- Pectoralis major
- Latissimus dorsi

Medial rotators

- Subscapularis

Lateral rotators

- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Ligaments of shoulder joint

1. Fibrous capsule

- Attached to margin of glenoid cavity.
- Laterally attached to anatomical neck.
- Loose and lax inferiorly.

2. Glenohumeral ligaments

- Superior
- Middle
- Inferior
- Strengthen anterior capsule.

3. Coracohumeral ligament

- Coracoid process to greater tubercle.

4. Transverse humeral ligament

- Bridges intertubercular sulcus.
- Holds tendon of long head of biceps.

5. Coracoacromial ligament

- Between coracoid and acromion.
- Forms protective arch.

Functions

- Stabilize shoulder joint.
- Prevent dislocation.

2. Rotator cuff of shoulder joint**Definition**

Rotator cuff is a musculotendinous cuff around shoulder joint formed by fusion of tendons of scapular muscles with capsule.

Muscles forming rotator cuff

- Supraspinatus
- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor
- Subscapularis

Function

- Stabilizes head of humerus.
- Prevents upward displacement.
- Assists shoulder movements.

Deficiency

- Inferior part deficient.

Applied anatomy

- Supraspinatus tendon commonly torn.
- Rotator cuff injuries cause painful abduction.

SHORT NOTES**1. Rotator cuff of shoulder joint****Muscles**

- Supraspinatus
- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor
- Subscapularis

Functions

- Stabilization of shoulder joint.
- Holds humeral head in glenoid cavity.

Applied anatomy

- Rotator cuff tear causes shoulder pain.

2. Sagittal section through shoulder**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Structures seen**

- Clavicle
- Acromion
- Coracoid process
- Head of humerus
- Glenoid cavity
- Capsule
- Supraspinatus tendon
- Deltoid
- Subacromial bursa

ARM**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A Patient was brought to the clinic with a history of giddiness since one week. The physician asked the junior doctor to check the blood pressure. It was found that blood pressure was high.

a) Name the artery used to monitor the blood pressure

- b) In which fossa is the bell of the stethoscope placed
 c) Give the boundaries of the fossa
 d) Mention the contents of the fossa in detail

a) Artery used to monitor blood pressure

- Brachial artery.

b) Fossa in which bell of stethoscope is placed

- Cubital fossa.

c) Boundaries of cubital fossa

Base

- Imaginary line joining medial and lateral epicondyles.

Medial boundary

- Pronator teres.

Lateral boundary

- Brachioradialis.

Apex

- Meeting point of brachioradialis and pronator teres.

Roof

- Skin
- Superficial fascia
- Deep fascia reinforced by bicipital aponeurosis

Floor

- Brachialis
- Supinator

d) Contents of cubital fossa

From medial to lateral:

1. Median nerve
2. Brachial artery and its bifurcation
3. Tendon of biceps brachii
4. Radial nerve

Additional contents:

- Radial recurrent artery
- Median cubital vein in roof

Applied anatomy

- Site for measuring blood pressure.
- Venepuncture commonly performed here.

2. A 35-year-old rowdy sheeter involved in a fight received a deep cut in the middle of the back of his right arm. He was bleeding profusely and was rushed to the hospital.

- Which nerve and artery at this site are in danger of injury.
- What is the origin and termination of this artery.
- How will you assess the functional integrity of the nerve in this case.
- Which part of the brachial plexus gives origin to this nerve and which other nerves arise from this part.
- Give the motor distribution and cutaneous branches of this nerve.

Nerve and artery in danger

- Radial nerve
- Profunda brachii artery

Origin and termination of artery

Origin

- Profunda brachii artery arises from brachial artery.

Termination

- Ends by dividing into middle and radial collateral arteries.

Assessment of functional integrity of radial nerve

1. Test extension at wrist.
2. Test extension of fingers.
3. Check triceps reflex.
4. Examine sensation over dorsal first web space.

Part of brachial plexus giving origin

- Posterior cord.

Other nerves from posterior cord

- Axillary nerve
- Upper subscapular nerve
- Thoracodorsal nerve
- Lower subscapular nerve

Motor distribution of radial nerve

- Triceps
- Anconeus
- Brachioradialis
- Extensor muscles of forearm

Cutaneous branches

- Posterior cutaneous nerve of arm
- Lower lateral cutaneous nerve of arm
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of forearm

3. Describe the cubital fossa under following headings.

- Boundaries
- Contents
- Clinical importance

Boundaries

Base

- Line joining epicondyles.

Medial

- Pronator teres.

Lateral

- Brachioradialis.

Roof

- Skin
- Superficial fascia
- Deep fascia
- Bicipital aponeurosis

Floor

- Brachialis
- Supinator

Contents

From medial to lateral:

1. Median nerve
2. Brachial artery
3. Biceps tendon
4. Radial nerve

Clinical importance

- Blood pressure recording.
- Venepuncture site.
- Brachial artery palpation.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Arterial anastomoses around elbow joint

Arteries participating

From arm

- Superior ulnar collateral
- Inferior ulnar collateral
- Radial collateral
- Middle collateral

From forearm

- Anterior ulnar recurrent
- Posterior ulnar recurrent
- Radial recurrent
- Interosseous recurrent

Importance

- Maintains collateral circulation around elbow.

2. Cubital fossa

Definition

Triangular depression in front of elbow joint.

Boundaries

- Medial – Pronator teres
- Lateral – Brachioradialis
- Base – Line joining epicondyles

Contents

- Median nerve
- Brachial artery
- Biceps tendon
- Radial nerve

Applied anatomy

- Venepuncture.
- Blood pressure recording.

SHORT NOTES

1. Boundaries and contents of cubital fossa

Boundaries

- Medial – Pronator teres
- Lateral – Brachioradialis
- Roof – Skin and fascia
- Floor – Brachialis and supinator

Contents

- Median nerve
- Brachial artery
- Biceps tendon
- Radial nerve

2. Cephalic vein

Formation

- Begins from lateral end of dorsal venous network.

Course

- Ascends along lateral side of forearm and arm.
- Passes through deltopectoral groove.
- Pierces clavipectoral fascia.

Termination

- Ends in axillary vein.

Applied anatomy

- Used for intravenous access.

3. Brachial artery

Extent

- Continuation of axillary artery.
- Extends from lower border of teres major to neck of radius.

Termination

- Divides into radial and ulnar arteries.

Branches

- Profunda brachii
- Nutrient artery
- Collateral branches

Applied anatomy

- Blood pressure recording.

4. Median cubital vein**Situation**

- Lies in superficial fascia of cubital fossa.

Connections

- Connects cephalic and basilic veins.

Importance

- Common site for venepuncture.

FOREARM**SHORT ESSAYS****1. Movements and the muscles involved in causing each movement at the wrist joint****Flexion**

- Flexor carpi radialis
- Flexor carpi ulnaris
- Palmaris longus

Extension

- Extensor carpi radialis longus
- Extensor carpi radialis brevis
- Extensor carpi ulnaris

Abduction

- Flexor carpi radialis
- Extensor carpi radialis longus and brevis

Adduction

- Flexor carpi ulnaris
- Extensor carpi ulnaris

Circumduction**Combination of all movements.****2. Radio-ulnar joints****Types**

1. Superior radioulnar joint – Pivot synovial joint.
2. Middle radioulnar joint – Fibrous syndesmosis.
3. Inferior radioulnar joint – Pivot synovial joint.

Movements

- Supination
- Pronation

Muscles**Supination**

- Supinator

- Biceps brachii

Pronation

- Pronator teres
- Pronator quadratus

3. Supination and pronation

Supination

Movement in which palm faces anteriorly.

Muscles

- Supinator
- Biceps brachii

Pronation

Movement in which palm faces posteriorly.

Muscles

- Pronator teres
- Pronator quadratus

Axis

- Passes through head of radius and head of ulna.

SHORT NOTES

1. Structures passing under extensor retinaculum of upper limb

First compartment

- Abductor pollicis longus
- Extensor pollicis brevis

Second compartment

- Extensor carpi radialis longus

- Extensor carpi radialis brevis

Third compartment

- Extensor pollicis longus

Fourth compartment

- Extensor digitorum
- Extensor indicis

Fifth compartment

- Extensor digiti minimi

Sixth compartment

- Extensor carpi ulnaris

2. Posterior interosseous nerve

Origin

- Continuation of deep branch of radial nerve.

Course

- Passes through supinator.
- Descends in posterior compartment.

Supply

- Extensor muscles of forearm.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes finger drop.

3. Extensor retinaculum of hand

Attachments

Lateral

- Lower end of radius.

Medial

- Pisiform and triquetrum.

Function

- Prevents bow-stringing of extensor tendons.

4. Supination and pronation

Supination muscles

- Supinator
- Biceps brachii

Pronation muscles

- Pronator teres
- Pronator quadratus

HAND

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Flexor retinaculum of hand and its clinical implications

Definition

Strong fibrous band stretching across anterior concavity of carpus.

Attachments

Medially

- Pisiform
- Hook of hamate

Laterally

- Tubercle of scaphoid
- Crest of trapezium

Structures passing superficial

- Ulnar nerve
- Ulnar artery
- Palmaris longus tendon

Structures passing deep

- Median nerve
- Tendons of flexor digitorum superficialis
- Flexor digitorum profundus
- Flexor pollicis longus

Clinical implications

- Median nerve compression causes carpal tunnel syndrome.
- Thenar wasting may occur.

2. Carpometacarpal joint of thumb

Type

- Saddle type synovial joint.

Articular surfaces

- Trapezium and base of first metacarpal.

Movements

- Flexion
- Extension
- Abduction
- Adduction
- Opposition

Muscles for opposition

- Opponens pollicis

Applied anatomy

- Osteoarthritis common.

3. Ulnar nerve in hand**Course**

- Enters hand superficial to flexor retinaculum.
- Passes through Guyon's canal.

Branches**Superficial branch**

- Cutaneous and palmaris brevis.

Deep branch

- Supplies interossei and adductor pollicis.

Muscles supplied

- Hypothenar muscles
- Interossei
- Medial two lumbricals
- Adductor pollicis

Applied anatomy

- Ulnar claw hand.

4. Palmar fascial spaces**Types**

1. Midpalmar space
2. Thenar space

Midpalmar space

- Located beneath flexor tendons.
- Infection spreads from medial synovial sheath.

Thenar space

- Located lateral to midpalmar space.

Applied anatomy

- Spaces may contain pus in hand infections.

5. Superficial palmar arch**Formation**

- Mainly by ulnar artery.
- Completed by superficial palmar branch of radial artery.

Situation

- Beneath palmar aponeurosis.

Branches

- Common palmar digital arteries.

Applied anatomy

- Allen's test assesses arterial supply.

SHORT NOTES**1. Flexor retinaculum of hand****Attachments****Medial**

- Pisiform
- Hook of hamate

Lateral

- Scaphoid
- Trapezium

Function

- Forms roof of carpal tunnel.

Applied anatomy

- Carpal tunnel syndrome.

2. Describe boundaries and contents of anatomical snuff box

Boundaries

Lateral

- Abductor pollicis longus
- Extensor pollicis brevis

Medial

- Extensor pollicis longus

Floor

- Scaphoid
- Trapezium

Contents

- Radial artery
- Superficial branch of radial nerve
- Cephalic vein

Applied anatomy

- Tenderness in scaphoid fracture.

3. Claw hand

Definition

Hyperextension at metacarpophalangeal joints with flexion at interphalangeal joints.

Cause

- Ulnar nerve palsy.

Features

- More marked in ring and little fingers.

4. Anatomical basis of claw hand

Cause

- Paralysis of lumbricals and interossei due to ulnar nerve injury.

Result

- Hyperextension at metacarpophalangeal joints.
- Flexion at interphalangeal joints.

5. Palmar aponeurosis

Definition

Triangular thickening of deep fascia in palm.

Attachments

- Apex attached to flexor retinaculum.
- Base divides into slips for fingers.

Functions

- Protects underlying tendons and vessels.

Applied anatomy

- Dupuytren contracture.

6. Superficial palmar arch

Formation

- Ulnar artery with superficial branch of radial artery.

Branches

- Common palmar digital arteries.

Importance

- Supplies palm and fingers.

7. Midpalmar spaces

Boundaries

- Anterior – Flexor tendons
- Posterior – Metacarpals and interossei

Importance

- Site of pus collection.

8. Wrist joint

Type

- Ellipsoid synovial joint.

Articulating surfaces

- Radius and articular disc with scaphoid, lunate and triquetrum.

Movements

- Flexion
- Extension
- Abduction
- Adduction

9. First carpometacarpal joint

Type

- Saddle joint.

Movements

- Flexion
- Extension
- Opposition

Importance

- Provides mobility of thumb.

10. Deep palmar arch

Formation

- Mainly radial artery.
- Completed by deep branch of ulnar artery.

Branches

- Palmar metacarpal arteries.

Situation

- Deep to flexor tendons.

11. Interossei of hand

Types

1. Dorsal interossei – abduct fingers.
2. Palmar interossei – adduct fingers.

Nerve supply

- Deep branch of ulnar nerve.

Mnemonic

- DAB – Dorsal abduct.
- PAD – Palmar adduct.

12. Carpal tunnel

Boundaries

Roof

- Flexor retinaculum.

Floor

- Carpal bones.

Contents

- Median nerve
- Flexor tendons

Applied anatomy

- Carpal tunnel syndrome.

13. Adductor pollicis**Origin**

- Oblique and transverse heads.

Insertion

- Base of proximal phalanx of thumb.

Nerve supply

- Deep branch of ulnar nerve.

Action

- Adduction of thumb.

14. Lumbricals**Origin**

- Tendons of flexor digitorum profundus.

Insertion

- Extensor expansions.

Nerve supply

- Lateral two – Median nerve
- Medial two – Ulnar nerve

Action

- Flex metacarpophalangeal joints and extend interphalangeal joints.

15. Anatomical snuff box**Boundaries**

- Lateral – Abductor pollicis longus and extensor pollicis brevis
- Medial – Extensor pollicis longus

Contents

- Radial artery

Clinical importance

- Scaphoid tenderness.

16. Flexor retinaculum**Attachments**

- Medial – Pisiform and hook of hamate
- Lateral – Scaphoid and trapezium

Function

- Converts carpal groove into carpal tunnel.

Applied anatomy

- Compression of median nerve.

NERVES**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 45 year old man was brought to the casualty following a road traffic accident. He had pain and swelling over his right arm. On clinical examination it was found that he was unable to extend his right wrist joint and joints of his right hand and also sensory loss on dorsum of right hand. X-ray of his right arm showed fracture shaft of humerus. With your knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions

- Name the nerve injured in this patient.
- Give the root value of the nerve.
- Describe the course of the nerve.
- Name the branches given off by the nerve specifying the sites of origin.
- What is the reason behind the patient's inability to extend wrist joint and other joints of right hand.

Answer

Nerve injured

Radial nerve.

Root value

Radial nerve is derived from posterior cord of brachial plexus.

Root value: C5, C6, C7, C8 and T1.

Course of radial nerve

In axilla

- Arises from posterior cord of brachial plexus behind third part of axillary artery.
- Lies posterior to axillary artery.
- Leaves axilla through lower triangular space along with profunda brachii artery.

In arm

- Enters posterior compartment.
- Runs obliquely in radial groove of humerus between medial and lateral heads of triceps.
- Pierces lateral intermuscular septum about 10 cm above lateral epicondyle.
- Comes to anterior compartment between brachialis medially and brachioradialis and extensor carpi radialis longus laterally.
- In front of lateral epicondyle, divides into superficial and deep branches.

In forearm

Superficial branch

- Runs deep to brachioradialis.
- Accompanies radial artery in upper forearm.
- Emerges on dorsum of hand.
- Supplies skin over lateral dorsum of hand and dorsal aspects of lateral 3½ digits.

Deep branch (Posterior interosseous nerve)

- Pierces supinator muscle.
- Winds around neck of radius.
- Enters posterior compartment of forearm.
- Supplies extensor muscles.

Branches of radial nerve with sites of origin

In axilla

1. Muscular branches to:
 - Long head of triceps
 - Medial head of triceps
2. Cutaneous branches:
 - Posterior cutaneous nerve of arm

In radial groove

1. Muscular branches to:
 - Lateral head of triceps
 - Medial head of triceps
 - Anconeus
2. Cutaneous branches:
 - Lower lateral cutaneous nerve of arm
 - Posterior cutaneous nerve of forearm

In anterior compartment of arm

1. Muscular branches to:
 - Brachioradialis
 - Extensor carpi radialis longus
 - Lateral part of brachialis

Terminal branches

1. Superficial branch – cutaneous.
2. Deep branch/posterior interosseous nerve – muscular.

Reason for inability to extend wrist joint and joints of hand

- Radial nerve supplies all extensor muscles of forearm.
- Injury to radial nerve in spiral groove due to fracture shaft of humerus paralyses wrist extensors and finger extensors.
- Paralysis of extensor carpi radialis longus, extensor carpi radialis brevis and extensor carpi ulnaris causes wrist drop.
- Paralysis of extensor digitorum, extensor indicis and extensor digiti minimi causes inability to extend fingers.
- Sensory loss occurs over dorsum of hand due to involvement of superficial branch of radial nerve.

Applied anatomy

- Fracture shaft of humerus commonly injures radial nerve in radial groove.
- Characteristic deformity is wrist drop.

2. A 45 year old man was brought to the casualty with a fracture of shaft of the humerus. On examination he had impaired extension of the wrist. There was also impaired sensation over the dorsum of the forearm and lateral aspect of the hand.

- Name the structure involved and site of injury
- Mention its origin, course and distribution
- Mention its branches at different levels
- Mention the reasons for loss of sensation
- Name the accompanying blood vessel at the site of the injury

Answer

Structure involved and site of injury

- Structure involved – Radial nerve.
- Site of injury – Radial groove of humerus in fracture shaft of humerus.

Origin

- Radial nerve is a branch of posterior cord of brachial plexus.
- Root value: C5–T1.

Course

In axilla

- Lies behind axillary artery.
- Leaves axilla through lower triangular space with profunda brachii artery.

In arm

- Runs in radial groove between heads of triceps.
- Pierces lateral intermuscular septum.
- Descends between brachialis and brachioradialis.
- Divides in front of lateral epicondyle.

In forearm

- Superficial branch supplies skin.
- Deep branch passes through supinator and continues as posterior interosseous nerve.

Distribution

Motor

- Muscles of posterior compartment of arm and forearm.
- Brachioradialis and lateral part of brachialis.

Sensory

- Posterior arm.
- Posterior forearm.
- Lateral dorsum of hand.
- Dorsal aspect of lateral 3½ digits proximally.

Branches at different levels

In axilla

- Muscular branches to triceps.
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of arm.

In radial groove

- Muscular branches to triceps and anconeus.
- Lower lateral cutaneous nerve of arm.
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of forearm.

In front of lateral epicondyle

- Superficial branch.
- Deep branch.

Reasons for loss of sensation

- Posterior cutaneous nerve of forearm supplies dorsum of forearm.
- Superficial branch of radial nerve supplies lateral aspect of dorsum of hand.
- Injury to radial nerve interrupts sensory supply producing sensory loss.

Accompanying blood vessel at site of injury

Profunda brachii artery.

3. A 25 year old cricket player sustained injury in his left arm. On X-ray examination, a fracture of shaft of humerus was observed. Following internal reduction of fracture, he was not able to extend his left wrist. Based on knowledge in anatomy answer the following:

- Injury to which nerve produce inability to extend wrist
- Briefly describe the origin, course and distribution of the nerve involved
- Name the other nerves related to humerus and mention appropriate sites

Answer

Nerve injured

Radial nerve.

Origin

- Branch of posterior cord of brachial plexus.
- Root value: C5–T1.

Course

In axilla

- Posterior to axillary artery.
- Passes through lower triangular space.

In arm

- Runs in radial groove with profunda brachii artery.
- Pierces lateral intermuscular septum.
- Passes anterior to lateral epicondyle.
- Divides into superficial and deep branches.

In forearm

- Superficial branch is sensory.
- Deep branch continues as posterior interosseous nerve.

Distribution**Motor**

- Triceps.
- Anconeus.
- Brachioradialis.
- Extensor muscles of forearm.

Sensory

- Posterior arm.
- Posterior forearm.
- Dorsolateral aspect of hand.

Other nerves related to humerus and sites

1. Axillary nerve – related to surgical neck of humerus.
2. Ulnar nerve – related to medial epicondyle.
3. Median nerve – related to supracondylar region.
4. Musculocutaneous nerve – related to coracobrachialis and anterior compartment.

Applied anatomy

- Injury to radial nerve causes wrist drop.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Radial nerve- root value, course and branches in axilla, arm and cubital fossa.
What is Saturday night palsy

Answer**Root value**

C5, C6, C7, C8 and T1.

Origin

- Largest branch of posterior cord of brachial plexus.

Course**In axilla**

- Lies behind third part of axillary artery.
- Leaves through lower triangular space with profunda brachii artery.

In arm

- Winds around posterior aspect of humerus in radial groove.
- Lies between heads of triceps.
- Pierces lateral intermuscular septum.
- Descends between brachialis and brachioradialis.

In cubital fossa

- Lies in front of lateral epicondyle.
- Divides into superficial and deep branches.

Branches

In axilla

- Muscular branches to triceps.
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of arm.

In radial groove

- Muscular branches to triceps and anconeus.
- Lower lateral cutaneous nerve of arm.
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of forearm.

In lower arm

- Muscular branches to brachioradialis, extensor carpi radialis longus and brachialis.

Terminal branches

1. Superficial branch.
2. Deep branch.

Saturday night palsy

- Compression injury of radial nerve in radial groove due to prolonged pressure over arm during deep sleep, especially in intoxicated persons.
- Produces wrist drop and sensory loss over dorsum of hand.

2. Radial nerve**Answer****Origin and root value**

- Branch of posterior cord of brachial plexus.
- Root value: C5–T1.

Course

- Passes through lower triangular space.
- Runs in radial groove with profunda

brachii artery.

- Pierces lateral intermuscular septum.
- Divides into superficial and deep branches.

Branches

- Muscular branches.
- Cutaneous branches.
- Superficial branch.
- Deep branch.

Distribution**Motor**

- Extensor muscles of arm and forearm.

Sensory

- Posterior arm.
- Posterior forearm.
- Dorsolateral hand.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes wrist drop.
- Commonly injured in fracture shaft of humerus.

3. Median nerve**Answer****Root value**

C5, C6, C7, C8 and T1.

Formation

- Formed by lateral and medial roots from lateral and medial cords of brachial plexus.

Course

In arm

- Runs with brachial artery.
- Crosses artery from lateral to medial side.

In cubital fossa

- Lies medial to brachial artery.
- Passes between two heads of pronator teres.

In forearm

- Descends between flexor digitorum superficialis and profundus.
- Gives anterior interosseous nerve.

In hand

- Passes through carpal tunnel.
- Divides into terminal branches.

Distribution**Motor**

- Most flexor muscles of forearm.
- Thenar muscles.
- Lateral two lumbricals.

Sensory

- Lateral palm.
- Palmar aspect of lateral 3½ digits.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes ape thumb deformity.
- Compression in carpal tunnel syndrome.

4. Ulnar nerve**Answer****Root value**

C8 and T1 mainly, sometimes C7.

Origin

- Branch of medial cord of brachial plexus.

Course**In arm**

- Descends medial to brachial artery.
- Pierces medial intermuscular septum.
- Passes behind medial epicondyle.

In forearm

- Passes between two heads of flexor carpi ulnaris.
- Runs with ulnar artery.

In hand

- Enters superficial to flexor retinaculum through Guyon canal.
- Divides into superficial and deep branches.

Distribution**Motor**

- Flexor carpi ulnaris.
- Medial half of flexor digitorum profundus.
- Most intrinsic muscles of hand.

Sensory

- Medial 1½ fingers and adjacent palm.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes claw hand.

SHORT NOTES

1. Explain the anatomical basis of wrist drop.

Answer

- Wrist drop occurs due to paralysis of extensor muscles of forearm supplied by radial nerve.
- Common causes:

1. Fracture shaft of humerus injuring radial nerve in radial groove.
2. Compression neuropathy – Saturday night palsy.
 - Paralysed muscles:
 - Extensor carpi radialis longus.
 - Extensor carpi radialis brevis.
 - Extensor carpi ulnaris.
 - Unopposed action of flexors causes flexion at wrist.
 - Patient cannot extend wrist and fingers.

2. Explain the anatomical basis of carpal tunnel syndrome

Answer

- Carpal tunnel is an osseofibrous tunnel deep to flexor retinaculum.
- Contents:
- Median nerve.
- Four tendons of flexor digitorum superficialis.
- Four tendons of flexor digitorum profundus.
- Tendon of flexor pollicis longus.
- Compression of median nerve within tunnel causes carpal tunnel syndrome.

Causes

- Tenosynovitis.
- Rheumatoid arthritis.
- Pregnancy.
- Myxoedema.

Clinical features

- Pain and tingling in lateral 3½ fingers.
- Thenar muscle wasting.
- Weak thumb opposition.
- Ape thumb deformity in severe cases.

3. Compartments deep to extensor retinaculum of hand

Answer

Extensor retinaculum forms six osteofibrous compartments.

1. First compartment:
 - Abductor pollicis longus.
 - Extensor pollicis brevis.
2. Second compartment:
 - Extensor carpi radialis longus.
 - Extensor carpi radialis brevis.
3. Third compartment:
 - Extensor pollicis longus.
4. Fourth compartment:
 - Extensor digitorum.
 - Extensor indicis.
5. Fifth compartment:
 - Extensor digiti minimi.
6. Sixth compartment:
 - Extensor carpi ulnaris.

4. Anatomical basis of claw hand.

Answer

- Claw hand occurs due to ulnar nerve injury.
- Paralysis of lumbricals and interossei causes hyperextension at metacarpophalangeal joints and flexion at interphalangeal joints.
- More marked in ring and little fingers.
- Seen in lesions at elbow or wrist.
- Associated findings:
- Interosseous wasting.
- Loss of finger abduction and adduction.

5. Anterior interosseous nerve**Answer**

- Branch of median nerve in forearm.
- Arises between heads of pronator teres.
- Runs on anterior surface of interosseous membrane with anterior interosseous artery.

Supply

- Flexor pollicis longus.
- Lateral half of flexor digitorum profundus.
- Pronator quadratus.

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes inability to make “OK sign”.

HEAD AND NECK**BONES****SHORT NOTES****1. Structures passing through foramen ovale of skull****Answer****Structures passing through foramen ovale:**

1. Mandibular nerve.
2. Accessory meningeal artery.
3. Lesser petrosal nerve.
4. Emissary vein connecting cavernous sinus with pterygoid venous plexus.

2. Styloid apparatus.**Answer****Styloid apparatus consists of:**

1. Styloid process.
2. Stylohyoid ligament.
3. Muscles attached:
 - Styloglossus.
 - Stylohyoid.
 - Stylopharyngeus.

Development

Derived from second pharyngeal arch cartilage.

Applied anatomy

- Elongated styloid process causes Eagle syndrome.

3. Structures passing through foramen magnum**Answer****Structures passing through foramen magnum:**

1. Medulla oblongata with meninges.
2. Vertebral arteries.
3. Anterior spinal artery.
4. Posterior spinal arteries.
5. Spinal roots of accessory nerve.
6. Tectorial membrane.
7. Apical ligament of dens.
8. Alar ligaments.

4. Jugular foramen**Answer****Location**

Between petrous temporal bone and occipital bone.

Structures passing through

Anterior compartment

- Inferior petrosal sinus.

Intermediate compartment

- Glossopharyngeal nerve.
- Vagus nerve.
- Accessory nerve.

Posterior compartment

- Sigmoid sinus continuing as internal jugular vein.
- Meningeal branches of occipital and ascending pharyngeal arteries.

5. Styloid process**Answer**

- Slender pointed projection from inferior surface of temporal bone.

Attachments**Muscles**

1. Styloglossus.
2. Stylohyoid.
3. Stylopharyngeus.

Ligaments

1. Stylohyoid ligament.
2. Stylomandibular ligament.

Development

Derived from Reichert cartilage of second arch.

6. Foramen Magnum**Answer****Situation**

Large opening in occipital bone.

Boundaries

- Anterior – Basilar part.
- Lateral – Condylar parts.
- Posterior – Squamous part.

Structures transmitted

1. Medulla oblongata.
2. Vertebral arteries.
3. Spinal accessory nerves.
4. Spinal arteries.
5. Ligaments.

Applied anatomy

- Herniation of cerebellar tonsils may compress medulla.

SCALP**SHORT ESSAYS**

1. Name the layers of the scalp. Why do scalp wounds bleed profusely. Which layer is considered the dangerous layer and why

Answer**Layers of scalp****Mnemonic: SCALP**

1. Skin.
2. Connective tissue (dense).
3. Aponeurosis (epicranial aponeurosis).
4. Loose areolar tissue.
5. Pericranium.

Why scalp wounds bleed profusely

- Scalp has rich arterial supply.
- Blood vessels are firmly attached in dense connective tissue.
- Cut vessels cannot retract after injury.
- Hence bleeding is profuse.

Dangerous layer of scalp

Loose areolar tissue is called dangerous layer.

Reason

- Emissary veins in this layer connect extracranial veins with intracranial venous sinuses.
- Infection can spread from scalp to intracranial venous sinuses causing intracranial complications.

2. Layers of scalp with clinical implications

Answer

Layers

1. Skin.
2. Dense connective tissue.
3. Epicranial aponeurosis.
4. Loose areolar tissue.
5. Pericranium.

Clinical implications

- Profuse bleeding due to dense connective tissue.
- Gaping wounds occur when epicranial aponeurosis is cut transversely.
- Loose areolar tissue is dangerous area for spread of infection.
- Black eye may occur due to spread of blood into eyelids.
- Cephalhematoma occurs beneath pericranium.

FACE

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the attachments, innervation and actions of muscles of mastication.

Answer

Muscles of mastication

1. Masseter.
2. Temporalis.
3. Medial pterygoid.
4. Lateral pterygoid.

Masseter

Attachments

- Origin – Zygomatic arch.
- Insertion – Lateral surface of ramus and angle of mandible.

Nerve supply

Masseteric nerve from mandibular nerve.

Actions

- Elevates mandible.
- Superficial fibres help protrusion.

Temporalis

Attachments

- Origin – Temporal fossa.
- Insertion – Coronoid process and anterior border of ramus.

Nerve supply

Deep temporal nerves.

Actions

- Elevates mandible.
- Posterior fibres retract mandible.

Medial pterygoid

Attachments

- **Origin** – Medial surface of lateral pterygoid plate and maxillary tuberosity.
- **Insertion** – Medial surface of angle of mandible.

Nerve supply

Nerve to medial pterygoid.

Actions

- Elevates and protrudes mandible.
- Side to side movements.

Lateral pterygoid

Attachments

- **Origin** – Greater wing of sphenoid and lateral surface of lateral pterygoid plate.
- **Insertion** – Neck of mandible and articular disc of temporomandibular joint.

Nerve supply

Nerve to lateral pterygoid.

Actions

- Protrudes mandible.
- Helps opening of mouth.
- Side to side movements.

Nerve supply of muscles of mastication

All supplied by mandibular nerve.

2. Muscles of mastication

Answer

Muscles of mastication are:

1. Masseter.
2. Temporalis.
3. Medial pterygoid.
4. Lateral pterygoid.

Nerve supply

All are supplied by mandibular division of trigeminal nerve.

Actions

- **Elevation of mandible** – Masseter, temporalis, medial pterygoid.
- **Depression** – Lateral pterygoid.
- **Protrusion** – Lateral and medial pterygoid.
- **Retraction** – Posterior fibres of temporalis.

3. Temporomandibular joint

Answer

Type

Modified synovial joint.

Articular surfaces

- Head of mandible.
- Mandibular fossa and articular tubercle of temporal bone.

Articular disc

Fibrocartilaginous disc divides joint into upper and lower compartments.

Ligaments

1. Fibrous capsule.

2. Lateral ligament.
3. Sphenomandibular ligament.
4. Stylomandibular ligament.

Movements

- Depression and elevation.
- Protrusion and retraction.
- Side to side movements.

Muscles producing movements

- Masseter.
- Temporalis.
- Pterygoids.

Nerve supply

Auriculotemporal nerve and masseteric nerve.

Applied anatomy

- Dislocation of temporomandibular joint.

4. Orbicularis oculi muscle

Answer

Parts

1. Orbital part.
2. Palpebral part.
3. Lacrimal part.

Origin

- Medial orbital margin.
- Medial palpebral ligament.
- Lacrimal bone.

Insertion

Skin around orbit and eyelids.

Nerve supply

Temporal and zygomatic branches of facial nerve.

Actions

- Closes eyelids.
- Orbital part closes tightly.
- Palpebral part closes gently.
- Lacrimal part aids lacrimal drainage.

Applied anatomy

- Facial nerve palsy causes inability to close eye.

SHORT NOTES

1. Facial artery

Answer

Origin

Branch of external carotid artery.

Course

- Arises in carotid triangle.
- Passes deep to submandibular gland.
- Winds around lower border of mandible.
- Runs tortuously across face to medial angle of eye.

Branches

Cervical branches

1. Ascending palatine.
2. Tonsillar.
3. Glandular.
4. Submental.

Facial branches

1. Inferior labial.

2. Superior labial.
3. Lateral nasal.
4. Angular artery.

Applied anatomy

- Pulse felt at lower border of mandible.

2. Orbicularis oculi muscle

Answer

- Muscle surrounding orbit and eyelids.
- Supplied by facial nerve.
- Closes eyelids.
- Paralysis causes inability to close eye.

3. Extra cranial branches of facial nerve

Answer

After emerging from stylomastoid foramen facial nerve gives:

1. Posterior auricular nerve.
2. Nerve to posterior belly of digastric.
3. Nerve to stylohyoid.

Within parotid gland it divides into:

1. Temporal.
2. Zygomatic.
3. Buccal.
4. Marginal mandibular.
5. Cervical branches.

4. Routes of spread of infection from dangerous area of face to cavernous sinus

Answer

Dangerous area of face includes upper lip and lower part of nose.

Routes of spread

1. Facial vein → Angular vein → Superior ophthalmic vein → Cavernous sinus.
2. Facial vein → Deep facial vein → Pterygoid venous plexus → Emissary veins → Cavernous sinus.

Reason

- Facial veins are valveless.
- Infection can spread retrogradely.

DRAW AND LABEL

5. Distribution of cutaneous nerves to head and neck

Answer

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Sensory nerves of face

- Supraorbital.
- Supratrochlear.
- Infraorbital.
- Mental.
- Auriculotemporal.
- Buccal.

Sensory nerves of scalp

Anterior to auricle:

- Supratrochlear.
- Supraorbital.
- Zygomaticotemporal.
- Auriculotemporal.

Posterior to auricle:

- Lesser occipital.
- Greater auricular.
- Greater occipital.
- Third occipital.

PAROTID GLAND

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 12 year old boy developed fever and painful swelling just in front and below the lobule of right ear. On examination the right ear lobule was found to be lifted by the swelling. Based on your knowledge of anatomy answer the following questions:

- a) Identify the gland that is swollen
- b) Explain the anatomical basis of pain arising from the swelling
- c) Describe the gross features and relations of this gland
- d) Describe the secretomotor nerve supply of the gland

Answer

- a) Identify the gland that is swollen

Parotid gland.

- b) Anatomical basis of pain

- Parotid gland is enclosed in tough unyielding parotid fascia derived from deep cervical fascia.
- Swelling stretches the fascia causing severe pain.
- Great auricular nerve supplies fascia.

- c) Gross features and relations

Gross features

- Largest salivary gland.
- Wedge shaped.
- Situated below external acoustic meatus between ramus of mandible and sternocleidomastoid.

Surfaces

1. Superficial surface.

2. Anteromedial surface.
3. Posteromedial surface.

Borders

1. Anterior.
2. Posterior.
3. Medial.

Apex

Directed downwards.

Base

Related to zygomatic arch.

Relations**Superficial surface**

- Skin.
- Superficial fascia.
- Great auricular nerve.
- Deep fascia.

Anteromedial surface

- Ramus of mandible.
- Masseter.
- Medial pterygoid.
- Temporomandibular joint.

Posteromedial surface

- Mastoid process.
- Sternocleidomastoid.
- Posterior belly of digastric.
- Styloid apparatus.
- Carotid sheath.

Structures within gland

From superficial to deep:

1. Facial nerve.

2. Retromandibular vein.
3. External carotid artery.

d) Secretomotor nerve supply

- Preganglionic fibres arise from inferior salivatory nucleus.
- Pass through glossopharyngeal nerve.
- Tympanic branch forms tympanic plexus.
- Lesser petrosal nerve carries fibres to otic ganglion.
- Postganglionic fibres pass through auriculotemporal nerve to parotid gland.

2. A 35 year old female came with a history of swelling below the ear lobule on right side. The swelling was associated with pain.

- a) Which is the structure involved.
- b) What are the coverings, surfaces and borders of the structure.
- c) What are the structures passing through it.
- d) Write the secretomotor pathway of the structure.

Answer

a) Structure involved

Parotid gland.

b) Coverings, surfaces and borders

Coverings

1. True capsule.
2. False capsule (parotid fascia).

Surfaces

1. Superficial surface.
2. Anteromedial surface.
3. Posteromedial surface.

Borders

1. Anterior border.
2. Posterior border.
3. Medial border.

c) Structures passing through it

From superficial to deep:

1. Facial nerve.
2. Retromandibular vein.
3. External carotid artery.

d) Secretomotor pathway

Inferior salivatory nucleus → Glossopharyngeal nerve → Tympanic branch → Tympanic plexus → Lesser petrosal nerve → Otic ganglion → Auriculotemporal nerve → Parotid gland.

3. A 50-year-old man presented with a history of rapidly growing painful swelling on the face below the ear lobule on the left side. On examination the left ear lobule was found to be lifted by the swelling. There was an inability to close the left eye and to blow the cheek. The angle of mouth was deviated to the right side.

- Name the surfaces, borders and structures related to the affected organ
- Give the nerve supply of the organ
- Correlate the symptoms seen in relation to the anatomical structures

Answer

Affected organ

Parotid gland.

Surfaces

1. Superficial.
2. Anteromedial.
3. Posteromedial.

Borders

1. Anterior.
2. Posterior.
3. Medial.

Relations

Superficial surface

- Skin.
- Fascia.
- Great auricular nerve.

Anteromedial surface

- Ramus of mandible.
- Masseter.
- Medial pterygoid.

Posteromedial surface

- Mastoid process.
- Sternocleidomastoid.
- Styloid apparatus.
- Carotid sheath.

Nerve supply

Sensory

Auriculotemporal nerve and great auricular nerve.

Secretomotor

Glossopharyngeal nerve through otic ganglion and auriculotemporal nerve.

Correlation of symptoms

- Facial nerve traverses parotid gland.
- Compression of facial nerve causes facial muscle paralysis.
- Orbicularis oculi paralysis causes inability to close eye.
- Buccinator paralysis causes inability to blow cheek.
- Unopposed action of muscles on normal side causes deviation of angle of mouth to opposite side.

4. A 70-yr-old man presented with a rapidly growing swelling below the ear lobule on the left side. The left ear lobule is lifted due to swelling. The person was unable to close the left eye and blow his mouth. Angle of mouth deviated to right side.

- Which is the gland enlarged
 - What major structures pass through this gland
 - Name the surfaces and relations of this gland.
 - Which nerve is involved in this case.
- Give the extracranial distribution by this nerve.**

Answer

Enlarged gland

Parotid gland.

Major structures passing through gland

From superficial to deep:

1. Facial nerve.
2. Retromandibular vein.
3. External carotid artery.

Surfaces and relations

Superficial surface

- Skin.
- Fascia.
- Great auricular nerve.

Anteromedial surface

- Mandible.
- Masseter.
- Temporomandibular joint.

Posteromedial surface

- Mastoid process.
- Sternocleidomastoid.
- Styloid apparatus.
- Carotid sheath.

Nerve involved

Facial nerve.

Extracranial distribution

Branches after stylomastoid foramen

1. Posterior auricular.
2. Nerve to stylohyoid.
3. Nerve to posterior belly of digastric.

Terminal branches within parotid gland

1. Temporal.
2. Zygomatic.
3. Buccal.
4. Marginal mandibular.
5. Cervical.

5. A 58 year old man presented with rapidly growing swelling of parotid gland. On examination, there was an inability to close the left eye and blow the cheek. The angle of mouth was deviated to right side. Based on your anatomical knowledge answer these :

- External features and secretomotor pathway of parotid gland
- Name the structures within the gland and which of these injured in this patient
- What is the reason for inability to close the eye and blow the cheek
- Mention the course of parotid duct and structures pierced by it

Answer

External features of parotid gland

- Largest salivary gland.
- Wedge shaped.
- Situated below external acoustic meatus.
- Has base, apex, three surfaces and three borders.

Secretomotor pathway

Inferior salivatory nucleus → Glossopharyngeal nerve → Tympanic branch → Tympanic plexus → Lesser petrosal nerve → Otic ganglion → Auriculotemporal nerve → Parotid gland.

Structures within gland

From superficial to deep:

1. Facial nerve.
2. Retromandibular vein.
3. External carotid artery.

Structure injured in this patient

Facial nerve.

Reason for inability to close eye and blow cheek

- Paralysis of orbicularis oculi causes inability to close eye.
- Paralysis of buccinator causes inability to blow cheek.

Course of parotid duct

- Emerges from anterior border of gland.
- Runs over masseter.
- Turns medially at anterior border of masseter.
- Pierces buccal fat pad and buccinator.
- Opens into vestibule opposite upper second molar tooth.

Structures pierced by parotid duct

1. Buccal fat pad.
2. Buccopharyngeal fascia.
3. Buccinator muscle.
4. Oral mucosa.

6. A 55 year old man presented with a rapidly growing swelling on the left side of his face just below the ear lobule. On examination, the ear lobule was found to be lifted by the swelling. Following surgical excision of the swelling, the person found difficult to close the left eye and blow the cheek. The angle of mouth was deviated to the right.

Based on your knowledge of anatomy, answer the following:

- which anatomical structure is likely to be involved
- Briefly describe the external features, relations and blood supply of structures involved
- Accidental injury to which nerve is probable cause of man's difficulties
- Briefly explain the reasons for the disabilities

Answer

Anatomical structure involved

Parotid gland.**External features**

- Largest salivary gland.
- Pyramidal/wedge shaped.
- Situated in parotid bed.
- Base directed upward.
- Apex directed downward.
- Three surfaces and three borders.

Relations**Superficial surface**

- Skin
- Fascia
- Great auricular nerve

Anteromedial surface

- Ramus of mandible
- Masseter
- Medial pterygoid

Posteromedial surface

- Mastoid process
- Sternocleidomastoid
- Styloid apparatus
- Carotid sheath

Blood supply**Arterial supply****Branches of:**

- External carotid artery
- Superficial temporal artery
- Maxillary artery
- Transverse facial artery

Venous drainage**Retromandibular vein.**

Nerve injured

Facial nerve.

Reason for disabilities

1. Orbicularis oculi paralysis → inability to close eye.
2. Buccinator paralysis → inability to blow cheek.
3. Paralysis of facial muscles → deviation of angle of mouth to opposite side.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Parotid gland relations

Answer

Relations of parotid gland

Superficial surface

Related to:

- Skin
- Superficial fascia
- Great auricular nerve
- Parotid lymph nodes
- Deep fascia

Anteromedial surface

Related to:

- Posterior border of ramus of mandible
- Masseter muscle
- Medial pterygoid muscle
- Temporomandibular joint

Posteromedial surface

Related to:

- Mastoid process
- Sternocleidomastoid muscle
- Posterior belly of digastric
- Styloid process
- Stylohyoid
- Styloglossus
- Stylopharyngeus
- Carotid sheath containing internal carotid artery, internal jugular vein and vagus nerve

Structures passing through gland

From superficial to deep:

1. Facial nerve
2. Retromandibular vein
3. External carotid artery

2. Parotid gland

Answer

Parotid gland

Situation

Largest salivary gland situated below and in front of external acoustic meatus in parotid bed.

External features

- Wedge-shaped.
- Base upward.
- Apex downward.
- Three surfaces:
 1. Superficial
 2. Anteromedial
 3. Posteromedial
- Three borders:
 1. Anterior
 2. Posterior
 3. Medial

Coverings

1. True capsule
2. False capsule/parotid sheath

Structures within gland

1. Facial nerve
2. Retromandibular vein
3. External carotid artery

Parotid duct

- 5 cm long.
- Crosses masseter.
- Pierces buccinator.
- Opens opposite upper second molar tooth.

Nerve supply

Parasympathetic

Glossopharyngeal nerve through otic ganglion and auriculotemporal nerve.

Sympathetic

From superior cervical ganglion.

Sensory

Auriculotemporal and great auricular nerves.

Blood supply

External carotid artery and branches.

SHORT NOTES

1. Anatomical basis of inability to close the right eye following surgery on right parotid gland

Answer

1. Facial nerve passes through parotid gland.
2. During parotid surgery, facial nerve may be injured.
3. Temporal and zygomatic branches supply orbicularis oculi muscle.
4. Paralysis of orbicularis oculi causes inability to close eye.
5. Associated features:
 - Loss of blinking
 - Watering of eye
 - Deviation of angle of mouth to opposite side.

2. Structures related to antero lateral surface of parotid gland

Answer

Structures related to anterolateral/superficial surface of parotid gland

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Great auricular nerve
5. Parotid lymph nodes
6. Investing layer of deep cervical fascia

SUBMANDIBULAR GLAND

LONG ESSAYS

1. A patient had a swelling below the lower jaw on the right side. The swelling increases in size during eating. The surgeon did a bi-digital examination of the swelling. Based on anatomical knowledge answer these –

- Which gland is palpated and what is the cause?

• Name the parts of this gland and muscle separating them

• Mention the relations of this gland

• What is the length of its duct and where does it open?

• Draw a diagram to secretomotor innervation

• Microscopic structure of the gland

Answer

Which gland is palpated and what is the cause?

Submandibular salivary gland.

Cause

- Swelling increases during eating due to obstruction of submandibular duct by calculus.
- Saliva accumulates causing enlargement.
- Bimanual palpation is possible because gland has superficial and deep parts.

Parts of submandibular gland and muscle separating them

Parts

1. Superficial part
2. Deep part

Muscle separating them

Mylohyoid muscle.

Relations of submandibular gland

Superficial part

Superficial surface

- Skin
- Platysma
- Investing fascia
- Facial vein
- Submandibular lymph nodes

Lateral surface

- Submandibular fossa of mandible

Medial surface

Anterior part related to:

- Mylohyoid

Posterior part related to:

- Hyoglossus
- Styloglossus
- Lingual nerve
- Hypoglossal nerve

Deep part

Related to:

- Mylohyoid laterally
- Hyoglossus medially
- Lingual nerve superiorly
- Hypoglossal nerve inferiorly

Submandibular duct

- Length: about 5 cm.
- Arises from deep part of gland.
- Runs forwards on hyoglossus.
- Opens at sublingual papilla beside frenulum of tongue.

Secretomotor innervation

1. Preganglionic fibers arise from superior salivatory nucleus.

2. Fibers pass through facial nerve.
3. Chorda tympani carries fibers.
4. Joins lingual nerve.
5. Fibers synapse in submandibular ganglion.
6. Postganglionic fibers supply submandibular gland directly.
7. Some fibers rejoin lingual nerve to supply sublingual gland.

Microscopic structure

1. Compound tubuloalveolar gland.
2. Mixed salivary gland with predominantly serous acini.
3. Serous acini are dark staining.
4. Mucous acini are pale.
5. Serous demilunes present.
6. Duct system includes:
 - Intercalated ducts
 - Striated ducts
 - Interlobular ducts
7. Lobules separated by connective tissue septa.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Parts, relations and nerve supply of submandibular salivary gland

Answer

Parts

1. Superficial part
2. Deep part

Separated by posterior border of mylohyoid muscle.

Relations

Superficial part

Superficial surface

- Skin
- Platysma
- Deep fascia
- Facial vein
- Submandibular lymph nodes

Lateral surface

- Submandibular fossa of mandible

Medial surface

- Mylohyoid
- Hyoglossus
- Styloglossus
- Lingual nerve
- Hypoglossal nerve

Deep part

- Lies between mylohyoid and hyoglossus.
- Related to lingual nerve and hypoglossal nerve.

Nerve supply

Parasympathetic secretomotor

- Facial nerve through chorda tympani.
- Chorda tympani joins lingual nerve.
- Synapse in submandibular ganglion.

Sympathetic

- Fibers from superior cervical ganglion.

Sensory

- Lingual nerve.

SHORT NOTES

1. Nerve supply of submandibular salivary gland

Answer

Parasympathetic secretomotor supply

1. Superior salivatory nucleus.
2. Facial nerve.
3. Chorda tympani.
4. Lingual nerve.
5. Synapse in submandibular ganglion.
6. Postganglionic fibers supply gland.

Sympathetic supply

- From superior cervical ganglion through periarterial plexus.

Sensory supply

- Lingual nerve.

THYROID GLAND

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 35 year old female presented to OPD with complaints of swelling in front of neck for past 3 months. She also complains of progressive weight gain, fatigue, constipation and cold intolerance, a diagnosis of hypothyroidism was made after the lab investigations.

a-Describe the location, external features and coverings of thyroid gland

b-Mention the medial and lateral relations of the gland

c-Describe the arterial supply of the gland with its relation to the corresponding nerves

d-Briefly describe the histology of thyroid gland

Answer

a) Location, external features and coverings of thyroid gland

Location

- Situated in lower part of anterior neck.
- Opposite C5 to T1 vertebrae.
- Consists of right and left lobes joined by isthmus.

External features

Lobes

- Conical in shape.
- Each lobe has:
 - Apex
 - Base
 - Three surfaces
 - Two borders

Isthmus

- Connects lower parts of lobes.
- Lies opposite 2nd, 3rd and 4th tracheal rings.

Pyramidal lobe

- May arise from isthmus.

Coverings

1. True capsule – condensation of connective tissue.
2. False capsule – derived from pretracheal fascia.
3. Suspensory ligament of Berry connects gland to cricoid cartilage.

b) Medial and lateral relations**Lateral relations**

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Superior belly of omohyoid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial relations

- Larynx
- Trachea
- Pharynx
- Esophagus (especially left lobe)
- Cricothyroid muscle
- Inferior constrictor
- External laryngeal nerve
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

c) Arterial supply and relation to nerves**Superior thyroid artery**

- Branch of external carotid artery.
- Accompanied by external laryngeal nerve near upper pole.
- During surgery artery should be ligated close to gland to avoid nerve injury.

Inferior thyroid artery

- Branch of thyrocervical trunk.
- Closely related to recurrent laryngeal nerve near lower pole.
- Ligated away from gland to avoid nerve injury.

Thyroidea ima artery

- Occasionally present.
- Arises from brachiocephalic trunk or arch of aorta.

d) Histology of thyroid gland

1. Made up of follicles.
2. Follicles lined by cuboidal epithelium.
3. Lumen contains colloid containing thyroglobulin.
4. Follicular cells produce T3 and T4.
5. Parafollicular cells (C cells) secrete calcitonin.
6. Rich vascular connective tissue stroma present.

2. A 39-year-old female presents to the clinic for a routine health maintenance exam. The patient reports she is feeling nervous and anxious all the time with frequent palpitations, diarrhea and has been losing weight. She has also noticed a change in hair and fingernail. She frequently feels warm while others are cold or comfortable. On examination her heart rate is 110 beats per minute. She has a slight tremor and has increased reflexes in all extremities. A nontender thyroid enlargement is appreciated in the thyroid region. She was diagnosed with hyperthyroidism after biochemical tests. Based on your anatomical knowledge answer the following:

- Parts and relations of thyroid gland.
- Blood supply of thyroid gland.
- Explain the embryological basis for possible abnormal locations of the thyroid gland.
- Microscopic structure of thyroid gland.

Answer**Parts of thyroid gland**

1. Right lobe
2. Left lobe
3. Isthmus

4. Pyramidal lobe (occasionally)

Relations of thyroid gland

Lateral relations

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Superior belly of omohyoid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial relations

- Larynx
- Trachea
- Pharynx
- Esophagus
- Cricothyroid muscle
- Inferior constrictor
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve
- External laryngeal nerve

Posterolateral relations

- Carotid sheath

Blood supply

Arteries

1. Superior thyroid artery
2. Inferior thyroid artery
3. Thyroidea ima artery (occasionally)

Veins

1. Superior thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
2. Middle thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein → brachiocephalic vein

Embryological basis for abnormal locations

1. Thyroid develops from median endodermal diverticulum from floor of primitive pharynx at foramen cecum.
2. Gland descends in front of hyoid bone and laryngeal cartilages.
3. Thyroglossal duct usually disappears.
4. Failure of descent leads to lingual thyroid.
5. Persistence of thyroglossal duct causes thyroglossal cyst.
6. Ectopic thyroid tissue may occur anywhere along line of descent.
7. Pyramidal lobe represents persistent distal part of thyroglossal duct.

Microscopic structure

1. Numerous thyroid follicles.
2. Follicles lined by cuboidal epithelial cells.
3. Colloid present in lumen.
4. Follicular cells secrete thyroid hormones.
5. Parafollicular cells secrete calcitonin.
6. Rich capillary network present.

3. A 30 year old female visited to the surgical out-patient department with complaints of pain and swelling in the lower part of front of neck. On examination the swelling moves with deglutition. Based on the history and clinical examination a provisional diagnosis of thyroid swelling was made.

With your knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions related to thyroid gland.

- Reason for thyroid swelling moves with deglutition.

• Describe the parts, coverings, relations, blood supply and lymphatic drainage of thyroid gland.

• Microstructure of thyroid gland.

Answer

Reason for movement with deglutition

- Thyroid gland is attached to cricoid cartilage and upper trachea by pretracheal fascia and ligament of Berry.
- During swallowing larynx moves upward carrying thyroid gland with it.

Parts

1. Right lobe
2. Left lobe
3. Isthmus
4. Pyramidal lobe

Coverings

1. True capsule
2. False capsule from pretracheal fascia.

Relations

Lateral

- Sternothyroid
- Sternohyoid
- Omohyoid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial

- Trachea
- Larynx
- Pharynx
- Esophagus

- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

Posterolateral

- Carotid sheath

Blood supply

Arterial

1. Superior thyroid artery
2. Inferior thyroid artery
3. Thyroidea ima artery

Venous

1. Superior thyroid vein
2. Middle thyroid vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein

Lymphatic drainage

1. Prelaryngeal nodes
2. Pretracheal nodes
3. Paratracheal nodes
4. Deep cervical lymph nodes

Microstructure

1. Follicles lined by cuboidal epithelium.
2. Colloid-filled lumen.
3. Follicular cells produce thyroid hormones.
4. Parafollicular cells produce calcitonin.
5. Rich vascular connective tissue.

4. A 32 years old woman presented with a swelling in front of her neck and that was moving up and down during swallowing. Following surgical removal of the swelling, she noticed a change in her voice. Based on your knowledge in anatomy, answer the following questions:

- Name the structure that causes the swelling and give the reason why it moves up and down during swallowing.
- Briefly describe the gross anatomical features, relations and the blood supply of the structure involved.
- What could be the probable cause for a change in her voice following surgery.
- What precautions should be taken during surgery to avoid this complication

Answer

Structure involved

Thyroid gland.

Reason for movement during swallowing

- Thyroid gland is attached to larynx and trachea by ligament of Berry and pretracheal fascia.
- During deglutition larynx moves upward and gland moves with it.

Gross anatomical features

- Two lateral lobes joined by isthmus.
- Situated opposite C5–T1 vertebrae.
- Each lobe has apex, base, three surfaces and two borders.
- Isthmus lies opposite 2nd–4th tracheal rings.

Relations

Lateral

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial

- Trachea
- Larynx
- Esophagus
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve
- External laryngeal nerve

Blood supply

Arteries

1. Superior thyroid artery
2. Inferior thyroid artery
3. Thyroidea ima artery

Veins

1. Superior thyroid vein
2. Middle thyroid vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein

Probable cause for change in voice

- Injury to recurrent laryngeal nerve during thyroid surgery causing vocal cord paralysis.
- Injury to external laryngeal nerve may also affect voice.

Precautions during surgery

1. Identify recurrent laryngeal nerve before ligating inferior thyroid artery.
2. Ligate inferior thyroid artery away from gland.
3. Ligate superior thyroid artery close to gland to avoid injury to external laryngeal nerve.
4. Careful dissection near ligament of Berry.

5. A 65 year old woman came to the hospital with swelling in front of the neck. It was moving with deglutition. After

surgical excision of the gland, she had hoarseness of the voice. Answer the following.

- Name the structure involved
- Briefly describe coverings, external features, relations and blood supply
- State the reasons for the up and down movement of the swelling
- What's the cause of hoarseness of voice after the surgery
- Add a note on development of the structure involved

Answer

Structure involved

Thyroid gland.

Coverings

1. True capsule
2. False capsule from pretracheal fascia.

External features

- Two lateral lobes connected by isthmus.
- Pyramidal lobe may be present.
- Each lobe has apex, base, three surfaces and two borders.

Relations

Lateral

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial

- Trachea
- Larynx
- Pharynx
- Esophagus
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

Blood supply

Arteries

1. Superior thyroid artery
2. Inferior thyroid artery
3. Thyroidea ima artery

Veins

1. Superior thyroid vein
2. Middle thyroid vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein

Reason for movement during swallowing

- Attachment to larynx and trachea by pretracheal fascia and ligament of Berry.

Cause of hoarseness after surgery

- Injury to recurrent laryngeal nerve causing paralysis of vocal cord.

Development of thyroid gland

1. Develops from median endodermal diverticulum from floor of primitive pharynx.
2. Begins at foramen cecum.
3. Descends through thyroglossal duct.
4. Final position in lower neck.
5. Thyroglossal duct disappears normally.

6. Remnants may form thyroglossal cyst or pyramidal lobe.

6. 55 year old woman complained of midline nodular swelling in the front of her neck which moves on swallowing. On examination, she had slight tremors on outstretched hands; pulse was 111 per min, BP 156/100 mm Hg and slight blurring of eyes. She also told that, she had lost weight and feels feverish. Answer the following questions

- Which organ is likely to be involved
- Why does this swelling move during swallowing
- Mention the relations of this organ
- Explain the blood supply of this organ and mention the precautions to be taken while ligating these vessels during surgery

Answer

Organ involved

Thyroid gland.

Why swelling moves during swallowing

- Thyroid gland is attached to larynx and trachea by pretracheal fascia and ligament of Berry.
- During swallowing gland moves upward with larynx.

Relations of thyroid gland

Lateral relations

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Omohyoid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial relations

- Larynx
- Trachea
- Pharynx
- Esophagus
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve
- External laryngeal nerve

Posterolateral relations

- Carotid sheath

Blood supply

Arterial supply

1. Superior thyroid artery – branch of external carotid artery.
2. Inferior thyroid artery – branch of thyrocervical trunk.
3. Thyroidea ima artery – occasional.

Venous drainage

1. Superior thyroid vein.
2. Middle thyroid vein.
3. Inferior thyroid vein.

Precautions during ligation

1. Superior thyroid artery should be ligated close to gland to avoid injury to external laryngeal nerve.
2. Inferior thyroid artery should be ligated away from gland to avoid injury to recurrent laryngeal nerve.
3. Care should be taken near ligament of Berry where recurrent laryngeal nerve is closely related.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Relations of thyroid gland

Introduction

The thyroid gland is a highly vascular endocrine gland situated in the lower part of the anterior neck opposite C5–T1 vertebrae. It consists of right and left lobes connected by an isthmus.

Relations of lateral lobe

Superficial (Lateral) relations

From superficial to deep:

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Deep fascia
5. Sternohyoid
6. Sternothyroid
7. Superior belly of omohyoid
8. Anterior border of sternocleidomastoid

Medial relations

1. Larynx – thyroid and cricoid cartilages
2. Trachea
3. Pharynx
4. Esophagus (more on left side)
5. Cricothyroid muscle
6. Inferior constrictor muscle
7. External laryngeal nerve
8. Recurrent laryngeal nerve in tracheoesophageal groove

Posterolateral relations

1. Carotid sheath containing:
 - Common carotid artery
 - Internal jugular vein
 - Vagus nerve

Posterior border relations

1. Superior parathyroid gland
2. Inferior parathyroid gland
3. Anastomosis between superior and inferior thyroid arteries

Relations of isthmus

Anterior relations

1. Skin
2. Fasciae
3. Sternohyoid
4. Sternothyroid
5. Anterior jugular venous arch

Posterior relations

1. 2nd, 3rd and 4th tracheal rings

Applied anatomy

1. Enlargement of thyroid gland produces goitre.
2. Enlargement may compress trachea causing dyspnoea.
3. Recurrent laryngeal nerve may be injured during thyroidectomy.
4. Thyroid gland moves during deglutition because of attachment to larynx.

2. Thyroid gland – external features, relations, blood supply and development

External features

1. Butterfly-shaped endocrine gland.
2. Situated in anterior triangle of neck.
3. Consists of:
 - Right lobe
 - Left lobe
 - Isthmus
4. Weight: about 25 g in adults.
5. Each lobe has:
 - Apex

- Base
 - Three surfaces: lateral, medial, posterolateral
 - Two borders: anterior and posterior
6. Isthmus lies opposite 2nd–4th tracheal rings.
 7. Pyramidal lobe may arise from isthmus.

Relations

Lateral surface

Covered by infrahyoid muscles and sternocleidomastoid.

Medial surface

Related to:

- Larynx
- Trachea
- Pharynx
- Esophagus
- Cricothyroid
- Inferior constrictor
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

Posterolateral surface

Related to carotid sheath.

Posterior border

Related to parathyroid glands.

Blood supply

Arterial supply

1. Superior thyroid artery – branch of external carotid artery.
2. Inferior thyroid artery – branch of thyrocervical trunk.

3. Thyroidea ima artery may be present.

Venous drainage

1. Superior thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
2. Middle thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein → brachiocephalic vein

Lymphatic drainage

1. Prelaryngeal nodes
2. Pretracheal nodes
3. Paratracheal nodes
4. Deep cervical nodes

Development

1. Develops from median endodermal diverticulum from floor of primitive pharynx at foramen cecum.
2. Descends in front of hyoid bone and laryngeal cartilages.
3. Connected to tongue by thyroglossal duct.
4. Thyroglossal duct normally disappears.
5. Parafollicular cells develop from ultimobranchial body.

Applied anatomy

1. Thyroglossal cyst occurs due to persistence of thyroglossal duct.
2. Ectopic thyroid tissue may occur along line of descent.
3. Goitre may cause compression symptoms.

3. Blood supply and microscopic structure of thyroid gland

Blood supply**Arterial supply**

1. Superior thyroid artery from external carotid artery.
2. Inferior thyroid artery from thyrocervical trunk.
3. Occasionally thyroidea ima artery.

Venous drainage

1. Superior thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
2. Middle thyroid vein → internal jugular vein
3. Inferior thyroid vein → brachiocephalic vein

Lymphatic drainage

1. Prelaryngeal nodes
2. Pretracheal nodes
3. Paratracheal nodes
4. Deep cervical nodes

Microscopic structure

1. Thyroid gland is enclosed by fibrous capsule.
2. Gland is made up of follicles.
3. Follicles are lined by cuboidal epithelium.
4. Follicles contain colloid rich in thyroglobulin.
5. Parafollicular cells (C cells) lie between follicles.
6. C cells secrete calcitonin.
7. Highly vascular connective tissue stroma is present.

Functions

1. Secretion of thyroxine (T4)
2. Secretion of triiodothyronine (T3)
3. Regulation of metabolism

SHORT NOTES**1.Explain the surgical importance of thyroid gland**

1. Thyroid gland is highly vascular; severe bleeding may occur during thyroid surgery.
2. Recurrent laryngeal nerve lies close to inferior thyroid artery and may be injured during thyroidectomy causing hoarseness.
3. External laryngeal nerve may be injured during ligation of superior thyroid artery leading to voice changes.
4. Parathyroid glands may be accidentally removed causing tetany.
5. Enlarged thyroid gland moves during swallowing.
6. Thyroglossal cyst moves on protrusion of tongue.
7. Tracheostomy is avoided through isthmus.

2.Blood supply of thyroid gland**Arterial supply**

1. Superior thyroid artery – branch of external carotid artery.
2. Inferior thyroid artery – branch of thyrocervical trunk.
3. Thyroidea ima artery may arise from arch of aorta or brachiocephalic trunk.

Venous drainage

1. Superior thyroid vein drains into internal jugular vein.
2. Middle thyroid vein drains into internal jugular vein.
3. Inferior thyroid vein drains into brachiocephalic vein.

Lymphatic drainage

1. Prelaryngeal nodes
2. Pretracheal nodes
3. Paratracheal nodes
4. Deep cervical nodes

3.Relations of thyroid gland**Relations of lateral lobe****Superficial relations**

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Omohyoid
- Sternocleidomastoid

Medial relations

- Larynx
- Trachea
- Pharynx
- Esophagus
- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

Posterolateral relation

- Carotid sheath

Posterior border

- Parathyroid glands

Relations of isthmus**Anterior**

- Sternohyoid
- Sternothyroid
- Anterior jugular vein

Posterior

- 2nd–4th tracheal rings

FASCIAS OF NECK**SHORT NOTES****1.Carotid sheath****Definition**

Carotid sheath is a tubular condensation of deep cervical fascia extending from base of skull to root of neck.

Formation

Formed by contributions from:

1. Investing layer
2. Pretracheal layer
3. Prevertebral layer

Contents

1. Common carotid artery/internal carotid artery – medial
2. Internal jugular vein – lateral
3. Vagus nerve – posterior
4. Deep cervical lymph nodes
5. Carotid sympathetic plexus

Applied anatomy

1. Carotid pulse felt within sheath.
2. Spread of infection may occur along sheath.
3. Carotid endarterectomy performed through sheath.

TRIANGLES OF NECK**SHORT ESSAYS**

1.Describe the location, drainage and applied anatomy of cervical lymphnodes. Add a note on microscopy of lymphnode.

Cervical lymph nodes

Location

Cervical lymph nodes are arranged as:

1. Superficial cervical lymph nodes
2. Deep cervical lymph nodes

Superficial cervical nodes

Lie along external jugular vein superficial to sternocleidomastoid.

Deep cervical nodes

Lie along internal jugular vein deep to sternocleidomastoid.

Important nodes:

- Jugulodigastric node
- Jugulo-omohyoid node

Drainage**Superficial nodes drain**

1. Scalp
2. Face
3. Neck

Deep cervical nodes drain

1. Tongue
2. Pharynx
3. Larynx
4. Thyroid gland
5. Deep structures of head and neck

Efferents

Drain into jugular lymph trunk.

Applied anatomy

1. Enlargement occurs in infections.

2. Metastatic spread from carcinomas commonly involves cervical nodes.
3. Jugulodigastric node enlarges in tonsillitis.
4. Jugulo-omohyoid node enlarges in carcinoma tongue.

Microscopy of lymph node

1. Covered by fibrous capsule.
2. Trabeculae extend inward.
3. Cortex contains lymphoid follicles.
4. Medulla contains medullary cords and sinuses.
5. Reticular connective tissue forms framework.
6. Afferent lymphatics enter convex surface.
7. Efferent lymphatic leaves hilum.

2. Classify triangles of neck. Explain digastric triangle in detail**Classification of triangles of neck**

The sternocleidomastoid divides neck into:

1. Anterior triangle
2. Posterior triangle

Subdivisions of anterior triangle

1. Submental triangle
2. Digastric triangle
3. Carotid triangle
4. Muscular triangle

Subdivisions of posterior triangle

1. Occipital triangle
2. Supraclavicular triangle

Digastric triangle

Boundaries

1. Above – lower border of mandible
2. Anteroinferiorly – anterior belly of digastric
3. Posteroinferiorly – posterior belly of digastric and stylohyoid

Roof

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Investing layer of deep fascia

Floor

1. Mylohyoid
2. Hyoglossus
3. Middle constrictor

Contents

1. Submandibular gland
2. Facial artery
3. Facial vein
4. Hypoglossal nerve
5. Nerve to mylohyoid
6. Submandibular lymph nodes

Applied anatomy

1. Submandibular gland enlargement occurs in infections.
2. Facial artery can be palpated at lower border of mandible.

3. Boundaries and contents of carotid triangle**Boundaries**

1. Superoanteriorly – posterior belly of digastric
2. Superoposteriorly – anterior border of sternocleidomastoid

3. Inferiorly – superior belly of omohyoid

Roof

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Investing fascia

Floor

1. Thyrohyoid
2. Hyoglossus
3. Inferior constrictor
4. Middle constrictor

Contents

1. Common carotid artery and bifurcation
2. Internal carotid artery
3. External carotid artery and branches
4. Internal jugular vein
5. Vagus nerve
6. Hypoglossal nerve
7. Ansa cervicalis
8. Deep cervical lymph nodes
9. Carotid sinus and carotid body

Applied anatomy

1. Carotid pulse is felt here.
2. Carotid sinus massage may reduce tachycardia.

4. Boundaries and contents of sub occipital triangle**Boundaries**

1. Superomedially – rectus capitis posterior major
2. Superolaterally – obliquus capitis superior

3. Inferolaterally – obliquus capitis inferior

Roof

1. Semispinalis capitis

Floor

1. Posterior arch of atlas
2. Posterior atlanto-occipital membrane

Contents

1. Third part of vertebral artery
2. Suboccipital nerve
3. Venous plexus

Applied anatomy

1. Vertebral artery may be compressed during neck movements.

5. Sternocleidomastoid muscle

Origin

1. Sternal head – manubrium sterni
2. Clavicular head – medial one-third of clavicle

Insertion

1. Mastoid process
2. Lateral half of superior nuchal line

Nerve supply

1. Spinal accessory nerve – motor
2. C2 and C3 – proprioception

Actions

1. Unilateral contraction – turns face to opposite side.
2. Bilateral contraction – flexes neck.
3. Accessory muscle of respiration.

Applied anatomy

1. Torticollis occurs due to spasm.
2. Spinal accessory nerve injury causes weakness.

6. Boundaries and contents of posterior triangle of neck

Boundaries

1. Anterior – posterior border of sternocleidomastoid
2. Posterior – anterior border of trapezius
3. Base – middle one-third of clavicle
4. Apex – meeting of sternocleidomastoid and trapezius

Roof

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Investing layer of deep fascia

Floor

1. Splenius capitis
2. Levator scapulae
3. Scalenus medius
4. Scalenus posterior

Contents

1. External jugular vein
2. Spinal accessory nerve
3. Brachial plexus trunks
4. Cervical plexus branches
5. Transverse cervical artery
6. Suprascapular artery

Applied anatomy

1. Spinal accessory nerve is vulnerable to injury.
2. Enlarged lymph nodes may occur.

SHORT NOTES**1.Branches of external carotid artery****Mnemonic**

Some Anatomists Like Freaking Out Poor Medical Students

Branches

1. Superior thyroid artery
2. Ascending pharyngeal artery
3. Lingual artery
4. Facial artery
5. Occipital artery
6. Posterior auricular artery
7. Maxillary artery
8. Superficial temporal artery

2.Contents of carotid triangle

1. Common carotid artery
2. Internal carotid artery
3. External carotid artery
4. Internal jugular vein
5. Vagus nerve
6. Hypoglossal nerve
7. Ansa cervicalis
8. Deep cervical lymph nodes
9. Carotid sinus
10. Carotid body

3.Ansa cervicalis**Formation**

1. Superior root – fibers from C1 via hypoglossal nerve.

2. Inferior root – fibers from C2 and C3.

Location

Embedded in anterior wall of carotid sheath.

Supply

Supplies infrahyoid muscles except thyrohyoid.

Applied anatomy

Damage causes difficulty in swallowing and phonation.

4.Posterior triangle of neck**Boundaries**

1. Sternocleidomastoid
2. Trapezius
3. Clavicle

Contents

1. External jugular vein
2. Spinal accessory nerve
3. Brachial plexus
4. Cervical plexus branches

Clinical importance

Spinal accessory nerve injury causes shoulder droop.

INFRATEMPORAL FOSSA**SHORT ESSAYS****1.Mandibular nerve****Introduction**

Mandibular nerve is the largest branch of trigeminal nerve and is mixed in nature.

Origin

Arises from trigeminal ganglion.

Exit from skull

Leaves cranial cavity through foramen ovale.

Branches from main trunk

- 1. Meningeal branch**
- 2. Nerve to medial pterygoid**

Divisions

- 1. Small anterior division – mainly motor**
- 2. Large posterior division – mainly sensory**

Branches of anterior division

- 1. Masseteric nerve**
- 2. Deep temporal nerves**
- 3. Nerve to lateral pterygoid**
- 4. Buccal nerve**

Branches of posterior division

- 1. Auriculotemporal nerve**
- 2. Lingual nerve**
- 3. Inferior alveolar nerve**

Functional components

- 1. General sensory to lower face.**
- 2. Motor to muscles of mastication.**

Applied anatomy

- 1. Inferior alveolar nerve block during dental extraction.**

- 2. Trigeminal neuralgia may involve mandibular nerve.**

SHORT NOTES

1. Middle meningeal artery

Origin

Branch of first part of maxillary artery.

Course

- 1. Enters cranial cavity through foramen spinosum.**
- 2. Runs deep to pterion.**
- 3. Divides into frontal and parietal branches.**

Applied anatomy

- 1. Rupture causes extradural hemorrhage.**
- 2. Pterion is a weak point of skull.**

2. Temporalis muscle

Origin

Temporal fossa and temporal fascia.

Insertion

Coronoid process and anterior border of ramus of mandible.

Nerve supply

Deep temporal nerves from mandibular nerve.

Actions

- 1. Elevates mandible.**
- 2. Posterior fibers retract mandible.**

Applied anatomy**Spasm causes trismus.****ORBIT****SHORT ESSAYS**

**1.Name the extra ocular muscles.
Describe their actions, nerve supply and
applied aspects.**

Extraocular muscles

1. Superior rectus
2. Inferior rectus
3. Medial rectus
4. Lateral rectus
5. Superior oblique
6. Inferior oblique
7. Levator palpebrae superioris

Nerve supply**By oculomotor nerve**

1. Superior rectus
2. Inferior rectus
3. Medial rectus
4. Inferior oblique
5. Levator palpebrae superioris

By trochlear nerve

- Superior oblique

By abducent nerve

- Lateral rectus

Actions**Superior rectus**

1. Elevation
2. Adduction

3. Intorsion**Inferior rectus**

1. Depression
2. Adduction
3. Extorsion

Medial rectus**Adduction****Lateral rectus****Abduction****Superior oblique**

1. Depression
2. Abduction
3. Intorsion

Inferior oblique

1. Elevation
2. Abduction
3. Extorsion

Applied anatomy

1. Oculomotor nerve palsy causes ptosis and squint.
2. Trochlear nerve palsy causes diplopia while looking down.
3. Abducent nerve palsy causes medial squint.
4. Strabismus results from extraocular muscle imbalance.

2.Explain the attachments, nerve supply and actions of extra ocular muscles of eyeball

Recti muscles**Common origin**

Arise from common tendinous ring.

Insertions

1. Superior rectus – superior sclera
2. Inferior rectus – inferior sclera
3. Medial rectus – medial sclera
4. Lateral rectus – lateral sclera

Oblique muscles

Superior oblique

Origin – body of sphenoid.

Insertion – posterolateral sclera.

Inferior oblique

Origin – maxilla.

Insertion – posterolateral sclera.

Nerve supply

1. Oculomotor – all except lateral rectus and superior oblique.
2. Trochlear – superior oblique.
3. Abducent – lateral rectus.

Actions

1. Medial rectus – adduction
2. Lateral rectus – abduction
3. Superior rectus – elevation
4. Inferior rectus – depression
5. Superior oblique – depression and intorsion
6. Inferior oblique – elevation and extorsion

3.Extraocular muscles

List

1. Four recti
2. Two oblique muscles
3. Levator palpebrae superioris

Nerve supply

LR6 SO4 Remaining by 3.

Functions

Produce movements of eyeball.

SHORT NOTES

1.Describe anatomical basis of Horner's syndrome

Horner's syndrome

Occurs due to interruption of cervical sympathetic pathway.

Features

1. Ptosis
2. Miosis
3. Anhidrosis
4. Enophthalmos

Causes

1. Cervical sympathetic chain lesion
2. Pancoast tumor
3. Neck injury

2.Superior orbital fissure

Location

Gap between greater and lesser wings of sphenoid.

Structures passing through

1. Oculomotor nerve
2. Trochlear nerve
3. Abducent nerve
4. Ophthalmic veins
5. Ophthalmic division of trigeminal nerve

Applied anatomy

Superior orbital fissure syndrome causes ophthalmoplegia.

3.Branches of ophthalmic artery

1. Central artery of retina
2. Lacrimal artery
3. Supraorbital artery
4. Posterior ciliary arteries
5. Ethmoidal arteries
6. Dorsal nasal artery

4.Extraocular muscles with nerve supply

1. Superior rectus – oculomotor nerve
2. Inferior rectus – oculomotor nerve
3. Medial rectus – oculomotor nerve
4. Inferior oblique – oculomotor nerve
5. Superior oblique – trochlear nerve
6. Lateral rectus – abducent nerve

5.Lacrimal apparatus**Components**

1. Lacrimal gland
2. Lacrimal canaliculi
3. Lacrimal sac
4. Nasolacrimal duct

Function

Drainage of tears into inferior meatus.

6.Levator palpebrae superioris**Origin**

Lesser wing of sphenoid.

Insertion**Upper eyelid.****Nerve supply**

1. Oculomotor nerve
2. Sympathetic fibers to superior tarsal muscle

Action

Elevates upper eyelid.

Applied anatomy

Paralysis causes ptosis.

EAR**SHORT ESSAYS****1.Tympanic membrane****Introduction**

Thin semitransparent membrane separating external and middle ear.

Features

1. Oval in shape.
2. Diameter about 9–10 mm.
3. Obliquely placed.

Parts

1. Pars tensa
2. Pars flaccida

Attachments

Attached to tympanic sulcus.

Layers

1. Outer cuticular layer
2. Middle fibrous layer

3. Inner mucous layer**Nerve supply**

1. Auriculotemporal nerve
2. Vagus nerve
3. Glossopharyngeal nerve

Applied anatomy

1. Otitis media may rupture membrane.
2. Myringotomy performed in posteroinferior quadrant.

2. Middle ear**Definition**

Air-filled cavity in petrous temporal bone.

Parts

1. Epitympanum
2. Mesotympanum
3. Hypotympanum

Walls

1. Roof – tegmen tympani
2. Floor – jugular wall
3. Medial wall – promontory
4. Lateral wall – tympanic membrane
5. Anterior wall – auditory tube opening
6. Posterior wall – aditus to mastoid antrum

Contents

1. Auditory ossicles
2. Muscles
3. Nerves

Functions**Transmission of sound.****Applied anatomy**

Otitis media may spread to mastoid antrum.

SHORT NOTES**1. Contents of middle ear cavity**

1. Malleus
2. Incus
3. Stapes
4. Tensor tympani
5. Stapedius
6. Chorda tympani
7. Tympanic plexus

2. Tympanic membrane

1. Separates external and middle ear.
2. Has pars tensa and pars flaccida.
3. Layers – cuticular, fibrous and mucous.
4. Cone of light seen in healthy membrane.
5. Rupture occurs in otitis media.

PALATE**1. Muscles of soft palate and their nerve supply****Muscles**

1. Tensor veli palatini
2. Levator veli palatini
3. Palatoglossus
4. Palatopharyngeus
5. Musculus uvulae

Nerve supply

1. Tensor veli palatini – mandibular nerve.

2. All others – cranial part of accessory nerve via pharyngeal plexus.

Actions

1. Elevate palate during swallowing.
2. Close nasopharynx.

2.Soft palate

Definition

Fibromuscular movable posterior part of palate.

Features

1. Contains palatine aponeurosis.
2. Ends as uvula.
3. Forms palatoglossal and palatopharyngeal arches.

Muscles

1. Tensor veli palatini
2. Levator veli palatini
3. Palatoglossus
4. Palatopharyngeus
5. Musculus uvulae

Nerve supply

Mainly through pharyngeal plexus.

Functions

1. Deglutition
2. Phonation

ORAL CAVITY

LONG ESSAYS

1.A 10-year-old girl underwent bilateral tonsillectomy for chronic tonsillitis. On

examination, prior to discharge, the surgeon noted an absence of touch sensation on the posterior $\frac{1}{3}$ of the tongue along with an absent gag reflex. Based on your knowledge of anatomy answer the following.

a) Name the nerve damaged during the surgery

Glossopharyngeal nerve.

b) What are the external features on the posterior $\frac{1}{3}$ of tongue

1. Posterior one-third lies behind sulcus terminalis.
2. Contains lingual tonsil.
3. Mucosa is irregular.
4. Vallate papillae lie anterior to sulcus terminalis.
5. Median glossoepiglottic fold present.
6. Lateral glossoepiglottic folds present.
7. Valleculae present.
8. Foramen cecum lies at apex of sulcus terminalis.

c) Correlate the development of the tongue to its nerve supply

Anterior two-thirds

1. Develops from first pharyngeal arch.
2. General sensation by lingual nerve (mandibular nerve).
3. Taste by chorda tympani.

Posterior one-third

1. Develops from third pharyngeal arch.

2. Supplied by glossopharyngeal nerve for general and taste sensation.

Posterior most part

1. Develops from fourth arch.
2. Supplied by superior laryngeal nerve.

Muscles

Develop from occipital myotomes and supplied by hypoglossal nerve.

d) Briefly describe the histology of the tonsil

1. Covered by stratified squamous nonkeratinized epithelium.
2. Deep tonsillar crypts are present.
3. Lymphoid follicles with germinal centers present.
4. Capsule present on lateral surface.
5. Mucous glands present near capsule.

2.A 65-year-old man who was Chronic Smoker and Tobacco chewer for past 15 years, came to hospital with ulcerated lesion on the anterior part of the Tongue, which bleeds on touch. He was unable to swallow and foul smell was emitting from his mouth. O/E he had enlarged Submandibular and lower cervical lymph nodes. He was diagnosed with Carcinoma of the Tongue.

a) Based on anatomical knowledge, what are the external features of Tongue

Parts

1. Apex
2. Body
3. Root

Surfaces

1. Dorsal surface
2. Inferior surface

Features of dorsum

1. Median sulcus
2. Sulcus terminalis
3. Foramen cecum
4. Papillae:
 - Filiform
 - Fungiform
 - Vallate
 - Foliate
5. Lingual tonsil on posterior one-third

Inferior surface

1. Frenulum linguae
2. Deep lingual veins
3. Fimbriated folds

b) Name the muscles of tongue with their nerve supply

Extrinsic muscles

1. Genioglossus
2. Hyoglossus
3. Styloglossus
4. Palatoglossus

Intrinsic muscles

1. Superior longitudinal
2. Inferior longitudinal
3. Transverse
4. Vertical

Nerve supply

1. All muscles supplied by hypoglossal nerve.

2. Palatoglossus supplied by cranial accessory via pharyngeal plexus.

c) Describe the Blood supply and Lymphatic drainage of Tongue

Blood supply

Arterial supply

Lingual artery – branch of external carotid artery.

Branches

1. Dorsal lingual
2. Deep lingual
3. Sublingual artery

Venous drainage

Lingual veins drain into internal jugular vein.

Lymphatic drainage

1. Tip → submental nodes.
2. Lateral anterior two-thirds → submandibular nodes.
3. Central anterior two-thirds → deep cervical nodes.
4. Posterior one-third → deep cervical nodes especially jugulodigastric.

d) Explain the development of tongue

Development

1. Tongue develops in floor of primitive pharynx.
2. Anterior two-thirds develops from lateral lingual swellings of first arch.

3. Posterior one-third develops from hypobranchial eminence of third arch.
4. Posterior most part develops from fourth arch.
5. Muscles develop from occipital myotomes.

Applied anatomy

1. Ankyloglossia due to short frenulum.
2. Carcinoma tongue spreads through lymphatics.

SHORT ESSAYS

1.Lymphatic drainage of tongue

Drainage of tongue

Tip of tongue

Drains into submental lymph nodes.

Lateral anterior two-thirds

Drain into submandibular lymph nodes.

Central anterior two-thirds

Drain bilaterally into deep cervical nodes especially jugulo-omohyoid node.

Posterior one-third

Drain into upper deep cervical nodes especially jugulodigastric node.

Applied anatomy

1. Carcinoma tongue spreads early through lymphatics.
2. Cross drainage causes bilateral spread.

SHORT NOTES**1.Nerve supply of tongue****Motor supply**

1. Hypoglossal nerve supplies all muscles except palatoglossus.
2. Palatoglossus supplied by cranial accessory via pharyngeal plexus.

Sensory supply**Anterior two-thirds**

1. General sensation – lingual nerve.
2. Taste – chorda tympani.

Posterior one-third**Glossopharyngeal nerve.****Posterior most part****Internal laryngeal nerve.****2.Dorsum of tongue****Features**

1. Median sulcus
2. Sulcus terminalis
3. Foramen cecum
4. Vallate papillae
5. Lingual tonsil

Papillae

1. Filiform
2. Fungiform
3. Vallate
4. Foliate

3.Sensory innervation of tongue

1. Lingual nerve – general sensation anterior two-thirds.
2. Chorda tympani – taste anterior two-thirds.
3. Glossopharyngeal – posterior one-third.
4. Internal laryngeal – posterior most part.

4.Structures over hyoglossus

1. Lingual nerve
2. Hypoglossal nerve
3. Submandibular duct
4. Deep part of submandibular gland
5. Sublingual gland

Structures deep to hyoglossus

1. Lingual artery
2. Glossopharyngeal nerve

5.Motor and sensory innervation of tongue**Motor****Hypoglossal nerve except palatoglossus.****Sensory**

1. Lingual nerve
2. Chorda tympani
3. Glossopharyngeal nerve
4. Internal laryngeal nerve

6.Hyoglossus muscle and its relations**Origin****Body and greater horn of hyoid bone.****Insertion****Side of tongue.**

Nerve supply**Hypoglossal nerve.****Action****Depresses tongue.****Relations****Superficial**

1. Lingual nerve
2. Hypoglossal nerve
3. Submandibular duct

Deep

1. Lingual artery
2. Glossopharyngeal nerve

NASAL CAVITY**SHORT ESSAYS****1.Lateral wall of nasal cavity****Features**

1. Superior concha
2. Middle concha
3. Inferior concha
4. Superior meatus
5. Middle meatus
6. Inferior meatus
7. Sphenoethmoidal recess

Openings**Superior meatus****Posterior ethmoidal sinuses.****Middle meatus**

1. Frontal sinus

2. Maxillary sinus
3. Anterior and middle ethmoidal sinuses

Inferior meatus**Nasolacrimal duct.****Blood supply**

1. Sphenopalatine artery
2. Ethmoidal arteries

Nerve supply

1. Olfactory nerve
2. Trigeminal nerve branches

Applied anatomy

1. Deviated nasal septum.
2. Sinusitis.
3. Epistaxis.

SHORT NOTES**1.Lateral wall of nasal cavity****Features**

1. Three conchae
2. Three meatuses
3. Sphenoethmoidal recess

Functions

1. Warms inspired air.
2. Filters air.

2.Draw diagram of nasal septum**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Components**

1. Perpendicular plate of ethmoid.

2. Vomer.
3. Septal cartilage.
4. Maxillary crest.
5. Palatine crest.

Applied anatomy

Deviation causes nasal obstruction.

3.Middle meatus of nose

Features

1. Bulla ethmoidalis
2. Hiatus semilunaris
3. Ethmoidal infundibulum

Openings

1. Frontal sinus
2. Maxillary sinus
3. Anterior and middle ethmoidal sinuses

Applied anatomy

Common site of sinus infection.

PHARYNX

SHORT ESSAY

1.Auditory tube

Definition

Fibrocartilaginous canal connecting middle ear to nasopharynx.

Length

About 36 mm.

Parts

1. Bony part – lateral one-third

2. Cartilaginous part – medial two-thirds

Functions

1. Equalizes air pressure.
2. Drains middle ear secretions.

Muscles opening tube

1. Tensor veli palatini
2. Levator veli palatini

Applied anatomy

1. Infection spreads from nasopharynx to middle ear.
2. Otitis media common in children.

SHORT NOTES

1.Pharyngeal muscles and their nerve supply

Circular muscles

1. Superior constrictor
2. Middle constrictor
3. Inferior constrictor

Longitudinal muscles

1. Stylopharyngeus
2. Palatopharyngeus
3. Salpingopharyngeus

Nerve supply

1. All muscles by pharyngeal plexus.
2. Stylopharyngeus by glossopharyngeal nerve.

2.Nasopharynx

Extent

From base of skull to soft palate.

Features

1. Pharyngeal tonsil
2. Opening of auditory tube
3. Tubal elevation
4. Pharyngeal recess

Nerve supply

Pharyngeal plexus.

Applied anatomy

Enlarged adenoids obstruct breathing.

3.Features of nasopharynx

1. Pharyngeal tonsil
2. Opening of auditory tube
3. Tubal tonsil
4. Salpingopharyngeal fold
5. Pharyngeal recess

4.Constrictors of pharynx

Muscles

1. Superior constrictor
2. Middle constrictor
3. Inferior constrictor

Nerve supply

Pharyngeal plexus.

Actions

Constriction during swallowing.

5.Auditory tube

1. Connects middle ear to nasopharynx.
2. Equalizes pressure.

3. Opened by tensor veli palatini.
4. Infection spreads through tube.

6.Sphincter muscles of pharynx

1. Cricopharyngeus
2. Palatopharyngeus
3. Salpingopharyngeus

Function

Prevent reflux during swallowing.

7.Pharyngeal constrictions

Sites

1. Junction with base of skull.
2. Crossing of aortic arch.
3. Crossing of left bronchus.
4. Diaphragmatic opening.

Importance

Foreign bodies commonly lodge here.

LARYNX

LONG ESSAYS

1.4 year old child swallowed a shirt button. Since the child began to suffocate she was rushed to the hospital, where on X-ray examination, impaction of the foreign body in the larynx was confirmed. Based on your knowledge, Answer the following

Which is the narrowest part of laryngeal cavity?

Rima glottidis in adults; subglottic region at cricoid level in children.

Briefly describe the interior of larynx

Parts

1. Vestibule – from inlet to vestibular folds.
2. Middle part – between vestibular and vocal folds.
3. Infraglottic cavity – below vocal folds.

Features

1. Vestibular folds – false vocal cords.
2. Vocal folds – true vocal cords.
3. Laryngeal ventricle between folds.
4. Rima glottidis – gap between vocal folds.

Which is the safety muscle of larynx?

Posterior cricoarytenoid muscle.

Name the joints at which the muscles of larynx act and briefly mention the movements taking place at these joints

Cricothyroid joint

Movements

1. Rotation and gliding.
2. Tenses vocal cords.

Cricoarytenoid joint

Movements

1. Rotation.
2. Gliding.
3. Abduction and adduction of vocal cords.

What anatomical structures in the midline of neck are encountered during surgical approach to trachea below isthmus of thyroid gland

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Platysma
4. Deep fascia
5. Sternohyoid muscles
6. Sternothyroid muscles
7. Pretracheal fascia
8. Inferior thyroid veins
9. Trachea

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Interior of larynx

Extent

From laryngeal inlet to lower border of cricoid cartilage.

Parts

1. Vestibule
2. Middle part
3. Infraglottic cavity

Vestibule

Extends from inlet to vestibular folds.

Middle part

1. Contains vestibular folds.
2. Contains vocal folds.
3. Laryngeal ventricle lies between them.
4. Rima glottidis is narrowest part in adults.

Infraglottic cavity

Extends from vocal folds to lower border of cricoid.

Applied anatomy

1. Edema causes airway obstruction.

2. Foreign body may lodge in rima glottidis.

SHORT NOTES

1.Vocal cords

Types

1. True vocal cords
2. False vocal cords

Formation of true vocal cords

1. Vocal ligament
2. Vocalis muscle
3. Mucous membrane

Functions

Phonation.

Nerve supply

Recurrent laryngeal nerve.

Applied anatomy

Paralysis causes hoarseness.

2.Boundaries and clinical significance of pyriform fossa

Boundaries

1. Medially – aryepiglottic fold.
2. Laterally – thyroid cartilage and thyrohyoid membrane.

Clinical significance

1. Foreign bodies may lodge here.
2. Internal laryngeal nerve lies deep to mucosa and may be injured.

3.Cavity of larynx

Parts

1. Vestibule
2. Middle part
3. Infraglottic cavity

Features

1. Vestibular folds
2. Vocal folds
3. Rima glottidis

4.Interior of larynx

1. Vestibule
2. Middle part
3. Infraglottic cavity
4. Vocal folds
5. Vestibular folds
6. Laryngeal ventricle

5.Piriform recess

Location

Depression in laryngopharynx on either side of laryngeal inlet.

Boundaries

1. Aryepiglottic fold
2. Thyroid cartilage

Applied anatomy

Foreign bodies commonly lodge here.

6.Transverse section through the neck at level of cricoid (C6 vertebrae)

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Structures seen

1. Skin
2. Platysma

3. Sternocleidomastoid
4. Carotid sheath
5. Thyroid gland
6. Trachea
7. Esophagus
8. Vertebral artery
9. Prevertebral muscles
10. Cervical vertebra

Importance

1. Level of cricoid cartilage corresponds to C6 vertebra.
2. Pharynx continues as esophagus.
3. Larynx continues as trachea.

BLOOD SUPPLY OF HEAD & NECK

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the formation, termination, tributaries and clinical importance of external jugular vein.

Formation

External jugular vein is formed below and behind the angle of mandible by the union of:

1. Posterior division of retromandibular vein
2. Posterior auricular vein

Course

- It runs vertically downward superficial to sternocleidomastoid muscle.
- It pierces investing layer of deep cervical fascia in the lower part of neck.
- Ends in the subclavian vein.

Termination

- Terminates into the subclavian vein lateral to venous angle.

Tributaries

1. Posterior external jugular vein
2. Transverse cervical vein
3. Suprascapular vein
4. Anterior jugular vein
5. Occasionally occipital vein

Clinical importance

1. Jugular venous pressure can be assessed through external jugular vein.
2. Air embolism may occur if vein is cut because it is attached to deep fascia.
3. Used for venous cannulation.
4. Vein becomes distended in right-sided heart failure.

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the formation, course, termination and tributaries of external jugular vein.

Formation

- Formed by union of posterior division of retromandibular vein and posterior auricular vein.

Course

- Descends superficial to sternocleidomastoid.
- Pierces investing layer of deep cervical fascia.

Termination

- Ends in subclavian vein.

Tributaries

1. Posterior external jugular vein
2. Transverse cervical vein
3. Suprascapular vein
4. Anterior jugular vein

2. Branches of subclavian artery**First part**

1. Vertebral artery
2. Internal thoracic artery
3. Thyrocervical trunk

Second part

1. Costocervical trunk

Third part

1. Dorsal scapular artery

Important point

- Right subclavian artery arises from brachiocephalic trunk.
- Left subclavian artery arises directly from arch of aorta.

VERTEBRAL JOINTS**SHORT NOTES****1. Mention the type and movements at atlanto-occipital joints****Type**

- Synovial condylar joint.

Articular surfaces

- Occipital condyles of skull with superior articular facets of atlas.

Movements

1. Flexion
2. Extension
3. Slight lateral flexion
4. Minimal circumduction

Muscles producing movements

- Flexion: Longus capitis, rectus capitis anterior
- Extension: Splenius capitis, trapezius

Applied anatomy

- Nodding movement of head occurs here.

CRANIAL NERVES**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 20 years old female underwent right sided mastoidectomy following which she developed weakness of facial muscles on that side. There was also impairment of taste sensation from the anterior two thirds of the tongue on the same side. Based on your knowledge of anatomy, Answer the following questions:

- Name the structure involved during surgery that would have led to the symptoms in this patient.
- Name all the nuclei in the brain stem which are concerned with this structure.
- Describe the intracranial, intra petrous and extra cranial course of the structure.
- Name its branches at different levels

Diagnosis: Facial nerve**Structure involved**

- Facial nerve was injured during mastoid surgery.

Nuclei concerned with facial nerve

1. Motor nucleus of facial nerve
2. Superior salivatory nucleus
3. Lacrimal nucleus
4. Nucleus tractus solitarius

Course of facial nerve

Intracranial course

- Emerges at pontomedullary junction.
- Has motor root and nervus intermedius.
- Enters internal acoustic meatus with vestibulocochlear nerve.

Intrapetrous course

The nerve passes through facial canal and has three parts:

1. Labyrinthine part

- Extends to geniculate ganglion.
- Greater petrosal nerve arises here.

2. Tympanic part

- Runs backward in medial wall of middle ear.

3. Mastoid part

- Descends vertically.
- Gives nerve to stapedius and chorda tympani.
- Exits through stylomastoid foramen.

Extracranial course

- Passes forward between superficial and deep lobes of parotid gland.
- Divides into temporofacial and cervicofacial divisions.
- Forms parotid plexus.

Branches

Within facial canal

1. Greater petrosal nerve
2. Nerve to stapedius
3. Chorda tympani

After emerging from stylomastoid foramen

1. Posterior auricular nerve
2. Nerve to posterior belly of digastric
3. Nerve to stylohyoid

Terminal branches within parotid gland

1. Temporal
2. Zygomatic
3. Buccal
4. Marginal mandibular
5. Cervical

Functions

- Motor to muscles of facial expression
- Taste from anterior two-thirds of tongue
- Secretomotor to lacrimal and salivary glands

Applied anatomy

- Injury causes Bell's palsy.
- Hyperacusis occurs due to paralysis of stapedius.
- Loss of taste from anterior two-thirds of tongue.

2. A college student was brought to casualty with history of road traffic accident. Among other clinical findings there was evidence of injury of the facial nerve on the right side. From your knowledge of anatomy, Answer the following:

- Describe the extra cranial course, relations, branches and distribution of the facial nerve
- What clinical features are expected to be seen if the nerve is injured as it emerges from the stylomastoid foramen

Extra cranial course

- Facial nerve emerges from stylomastoid foramen.
- Passes downward and forward.
- Enters parotid gland.
- Divides into temporofacial and cervicofacial divisions.
- Forms parotid plexus.

Relations

1. Lies superficial to retromandibular vein.
2. External carotid artery lies deep.
3. Traverses parotid gland.

Branches after stylomastoid foramen

1. Posterior auricular nerve
2. Nerve to posterior belly of digastric
3. Nerve to stylohyoid

Terminal branches

1. Temporal
2. Zygomatic
3. Buccal
4. Marginal mandibular
5. Cervical

Distribution

- Supplies muscles of facial expression.
- Supplies stylohyoid and posterior belly of digastric.

Clinical features of lesion at stylomastoid foramen

1. Paralysis of muscles of facial expression
2. Loss of forehead wrinkling
3. Inability to close eye
4. Deviation of mouth to opposite side
5. Food collection in vestibule
6. Dribbling of saliva
7. Bell's phenomenon

Features absent

- Taste sensation preserved
- Lacrimation preserved
- Salivation preserved

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Facial nerve

Functional components

1. Branchial motor
2. Parasympathetic
3. Special sensory
4. General sensory

Nuclei

1. Motor nucleus
2. Superior salivatory nucleus
3. Nucleus tractus solitarius

Course

- Emerges at pontomedullary junction.
- Enters internal acoustic meatus.
- Traverses facial canal.
- Exits through stylomastoid foramen.
- Passes through parotid gland.

Branches

1. Greater petrosal nerve
2. Nerve to stapedius
3. Chorda tympani
4. Posterior auricular nerve
5. Terminal branches

Functions

- Motor to muscles of facial expression.
- Taste from anterior two-thirds of tongue.
- Secretomotor to lacrimal and salivary glands.

Applied anatomy

- Bell's palsy.

SHORT NOTES

1. Explain anatomical basis of facial nerve palsy

Causes

1. Infection
2. Trauma
3. Compression in facial canal

Features

1. Paralysis of facial muscles
2. Inability to close eye
3. Deviation of angle of mouth
4. Loss of forehead wrinkling

5. Dribbling of saliva

Additional features

- Hyperacusis if stapedius affected.
- Loss of taste if chorda tympani affected.

2. Explain anatomical basis of wry neck

Definition

- Wry neck or torticollis is deformity due to spasm or fibrosis of sternocleidomastoid muscle.

Causes

1. Congenital fibrosis of sternocleidomastoid
2. Birth injury
3. Spasm due to spinal accessory nerve irritation

Features

- Head tilted to affected side.
- Chin rotated to opposite side.

Applied anatomy

- Restricted neck movements.

3. Chorda tympani nerve

Origin

- Branch of facial nerve in facial canal.

Course

- Traverses middle ear.
- Leaves skull through petrotympanic fissure.
- Joins lingual nerve.

Fibres carried

1. Taste fibres from anterior two-thirds of tongue
2. Preganglionic parasympathetic fibres to submandibular ganglion

Distribution

- Submandibular gland
- Sublingual gland

Applied anatomy

- Loss causes impairment of taste.

NEUROANATOMY**CNS – OVERVIEW****SHORT NOTES****1. DRAW AND LABEL: Median section of brain****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels to be marked**

1. Corpus callosum
2. Septum pellucidum
3. Thalamus
4. Hypothalamus
5. Pineal body
6. Midbrain
7. Pons
8. Medulla oblongata
9. Fourth ventricle
10. Cerebellum
11. Pituitary gland
12. Optic chiasma

SPINAL CORD**SHORT ESSAYS****1. External features and blood supply of spinal cord****Extent**

- Extends from lower border of medulla oblongata to lower border of L1 vertebra.

External features

1. Cervical enlargement
2. Lumbosacral enlargement
3. Conus medullaris
4. Filum terminale
5. Anterior median fissure
6. Posterior median sulcus

Blood supply**Arteries**

1. One anterior spinal artery
2. Two posterior spinal arteries
3. Segmental medullary arteries
4. Artery of Adamkiewicz

Veins

- Six longitudinal veins drain into internal vertebral venous plexus.

Applied anatomy

- Compression causes paraplegia.

2. Spinal cord- gross features, blood supply, and vertebral levels of spinal segments**Gross features**

1. Cylindrical structure
2. Two enlargements
3. Conus medullaris
4. Filum terminale

Blood supply

- Anterior spinal artery supplies anterior two-thirds.
- Posterior spinal arteries supply posterior one-third.

Vertebral levels

- Cervical segments lie opposite corresponding vertebrae.
- Lower segments lie higher than corresponding vertebrae.
- Lumbar puncture done below L2.

SHORT NOTES**3. Coverings and blood supply of spinal cord****Coverings**

1. Dura mater
2. Arachnoid mater
3. Pia mater

Blood supply

1. Anterior spinal artery
2. Posterior spinal arteries
3. Radicular arteries

Venous drainage

- Internal vertebral venous plexus.

BRAIN STEM**SHORT NOTES****1. Medial lemniscus****Formation**

- Formed by internal arcuate fibres after sensory decussation.

Course

- Ascends through medulla, pons and midbrain.

Fibres carried

1. Fine touch
2. Proprioception
3. Vibration sense

Termination

- Ventral posterolateral nucleus of thalamus.

Applied anatomy

- Lesion causes contralateral loss of fine touch.

2. Crus cerebri**Definition**

- Ventral part of cerebral peduncle in midbrain.

Fibres

1. Corticospinal fibres
2. Corticonuclear fibres
3. Corticopontine fibres

Blood supply

- Posterior cerebral artery.

Applied anatomy

- Lesion causes contralateral hemiplegia.

DRAW AND LABEL

3. Transverse section of midbrain at the level of superior colliculus.

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Structures to label

1. Superior colliculus
2. Red nucleus
3. Oculomotor nucleus
4. Medial lemniscus
5. Substantia nigra
6. Crus cerebri
7. Cerebral aqueduct
8. Periaqueductal gray matter

4. Transverse section of midbrain at the level of inferior colliculus.

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Inferior colliculus
2. Trochlear nucleus
3. Medial lemniscus
4. Lateral lemniscus
5. Substantia nigra
6. Crus cerebri

5. Transverse section of medulla at the level of motor decussation.

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Pyramidal decussation
2. Central canal
3. Gracile fasciculus
4. Cuneate fasciculus
5. Spinal tract of trigeminal nerve

6. Transverse section of medulla at the level of olive

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Inferior olivary nucleus
2. Pyramid
3. Medial lemniscus
4. Hypoglossal nucleus
5. Dorsal motor nucleus of vagus
6. Inferior cerebellar peduncle

7. Transverse section of medulla oblongata at the level of sensory decussation

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Gracile nucleus
2. Cuneate nucleus
3. Internal arcuate fibres
4. Medial lemniscus
5. Central canal

8. Transverse section of the pons at the level of Facial colliculus

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Facial colliculus
2. Abducent nucleus
3. Facial nerve fibres
4. Medial lemniscus
5. Fourth ventricle

9. Transverse section of medulla at the level of pyramidal decussation

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Pyramid

2. Decussating corticospinal fibres
3. Central canal
4. Spinal nucleus of trigeminal nerve

10. Transverse section at the level of lower part of pons

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Trapezoid body
2. Facial nucleus
3. Abducent nucleus
4. Middle cerebellar peduncle

11. Transverse section at the level of upper part of pons

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Trigeminal nucleus
2. Superior cerebellar peduncle
3. Medial lemniscus
4. Fourth ventricle

CEREBELLUM

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Cerebellum

Situation

- Lies in posterior cranial fossa behind pons and medulla.

Parts

1. Two hemispheres
2. Vermis

Lobes

1. Anterior lobe
2. Posterior lobe
3. Flocculonodular lobe

Deep nuclei

1. Dentate nucleus
2. Emboliform nucleus
3. Globose nucleus
4. Fastigial nucleus

Functions

1. Maintenance of posture
2. Coordination of movements
3. Maintenance of equilibrium

Applied anatomy

- Cerebellar lesions cause ataxia.

2. Gross anatomy of cerebellum with its nuclei

External features

1. Two hemispheres
2. Vermis
3. Fissures and lobules

Deep nuclei

1. Dentate
2. Emboliform
3. Globose
4. Fastigial

Functions

- Coordination and equilibrium.

3. Cerebellar peduncles

Superior cerebellar peduncle

- Mainly efferent fibres.

Middle cerebellar peduncle

- Largest peduncle.
- Contains pontocerebellar fibres.

Inferior cerebellar peduncle

- Connects medulla and cerebellum.

Functions

- Connect cerebellum with brain stem.

SHORT NOTES**1. Superior cerebellar peduncle****Connections**

- Connects cerebellum with midbrain.

Fibres

- Mainly efferent fibres.

Function

- Carries cerebellothalamic fibres.

2. Middle cerebellar peduncle**Features**

- Largest cerebellar peduncle.
- Connects pons and cerebellum.

Fibres

- Pontocerebellar fibres.

3. Inferior cerebellar peduncle**Connections**

- Connects medulla and cerebellum.

Fibres

1. Posterior spinocerebellar tract
2. Olivocerebellar fibres

4. Deep cerebellar nuclei**Nuclei**

1. Dentate
2. Emboliform
3. Globose
4. Fastigial

Function

- Relay centres of cerebellum.

VENTRICLES OF BRAIN**SHORT ESSAYS****1. Describe the boundaries and features of floor of the IV ventricle****Definition**

- Floor of fourth ventricle is rhomboid fossa.

Boundaries

1. Upper angle continuous with cerebral aqueduct
2. Lower angle continuous with central canal
3. Superolateral boundaries formed by superior cerebellar peduncles
4. Inferolateral boundaries formed by inferior cerebellar peduncles

Features

1. Median sulcus

2. Medial eminence
3. Facial colliculus
4. Sulcus limitans
5. Vestibular area
6. Hypoglossal triangle
7. Vagal triangle
8. Area postrema
9. Striae medullares

Applied anatomy

- Lesions produce cranial nerve deficits.

2. Floor of fourth ventricle

Features

1. Median sulcus
2. Facial colliculus
3. Vestibular area
4. Hypoglossal triangle
5. Vagal triangle

Clinical importance

- Related to cranial nerve nuclei.

3. Fourth ventricle

Situation

- Between cerebellum and pons-medulla.

Boundaries

- Roof, floor and lateral recesses.

Communications

1. Cerebral aqueduct
2. Central canal
3. Median aperture
4. Lateral apertures

Functions

- Contains cerebrospinal fluid.

4. Parts boundaries and features of lateral ventricle.

Parts

1. Body
2. Anterior horn
3. Posterior horn
4. Inferior horn

Features

1. Choroid plexus
2. Caudate nucleus
3. Hippocampus

5. Lateral ventricle

Parts

1. Body
2. Anterior horn
3. Posterior horn
4. Inferior horn

Communications

- Interventricular foramen communicates with third ventricle.

6. Tela choroidea of fourth ventricle

Definition

- Double layer of pia mater forming part of roof of fourth ventricle.

Features

1. Contains choroid plexus.
2. Has median and lateral apertures.

SHORT NOTES**1. Floor of fourth ventricle of brain****Features**

1. Median sulcus
2. Facial colliculus
3. Vestibular area
4. Hypoglossal triangle
5. Vagal triangle

2. Features in the floor of fourth ventricle.**Important features**

1. Facial colliculus
2. Sulcus limitans
3. Vestibular area
4. Area postrema

3. Third ventricle**Situation**

- Midline cavity of diencephalon.

Boundaries

- Formed by thalamus and hypothalamus.

Communications

1. Interventricular foramina
2. Cerebral aqueduct

4. Tela choroidea of fourth ventricle**Features**

1. Double layer of pia mater
2. Forms lower roof of fourth ventricle
3. Contains choroid plexus

5. Lateral ventricle of brain**Parts**

1. Body
2. Anterior horn
3. Posterior horn
4. Inferior horn

DRAW AND LABEL**6. Floor of fourth ventricle****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels**

1. Median sulcus
2. Facial colliculus
3. Sulcus limitans
4. Vestibular area
5. Hypoglossal triangle
6. Vagal triangle
7. Area postrema

CEREBRUM**SHORT ESSAYS**

1. Describe the Sulci, Gyri, functional areas and blood supply on the superolateral surface of cerebrum

Sulci

1. Central sulcus
2. Lateral sulcus
3. Precentral sulcus
4. Postcentral sulcus
5. Superior temporal sulcus

Gyri

1. Precentral gyrus
2. Postcentral gyrus
3. Superior frontal gyrus

4. Superior temporal gyrus
5. Supramarginal gyrus
6. Angular gyrus

Functional areas

1. Primary motor area – Area 4
2. Premotor area – Area 6
3. Primary sensory area – Areas 3,1,2
4. Visual area – Area 17
5. Auditory area – Areas 41,42
6. Broca's area – Areas 44,45
7. Wernicke's area

Blood supply

- Mainly by middle cerebral artery.
- Superomedial strip by anterior cerebral artery.
- Occipital pole by posterior cerebral artery.

2. Describe the Functional areas and Blood supply of Superolateral surface of Cerebral hemisphere

Functional areas

1. Motor area
2. Sensory area
3. Visual area
4. Auditory area
5. Speech areas

Blood supply

1. Middle cerebral artery – major supply
2. Anterior cerebral artery – superomedial margin
3. Posterior cerebral artery – occipital area

3. Functional areas of supero-lateral surface of cerebrum

Motor areas

1. Primary motor cortex
2. Premotor cortex
3. Broca's area

Sensory areas

1. Primary sensory cortex
2. Auditory cortex
3. Visual cortex

Association areas

- Wernicke's area.

4. Thalamus

Situation

- Part of diencephalon.

Surfaces

1. Superior
2. Medial
3. Lateral

Nuclei

1. Anterior nucleus
2. Medial nucleus
3. Lateral nuclei

Functions

- Relay station for sensory pathways.

Applied anatomy

- Thalamic syndrome.

SHORT NOTES

1. Broca's area

Situation

- Inferior frontal gyrus of dominant hemisphere.

Brodmann areas

- Areas 44 and 45.

Function

- Motor speech area.

Lesion

- Motor aphasia.

2. Functional areas of supero-lateral surface of cerebrum**Areas**

1. Motor area
2. Sensory area
3. Visual area
4. Auditory area
5. Speech areas

3. Lateral sulcus of cerebrum**Features**

- Separates temporal lobe from frontal and parietal lobes.

Parts

1. Stem
2. Anterior ramus
3. Ascending ramus
4. Posterior ramus

4. Pre central gyrus of cerebrum**Situation**

- Between central and precentral sulci.

Function

- Contains primary motor cortex.

Blood supply

- Middle cerebral artery.

5. Visual cortex**Situation**

- Around calcarine sulcus.

Brodmann area

- Area 17.

Function

- Perception of vision.

Lesion

- Cortical blindness.

DRAW AND LABEL**6. Sulci and gyri of superolateral cerebral hemisphere.****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels**

1. Central sulcus
2. Lateral sulcus
3. Precentral gyrus
4. Postcentral gyrus
5. Superior frontal gyrus
6. Superior temporal gyrus

7. Supero-lateral surface of cerebral hemisphere

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

1. Frontal lobe
2. Parietal lobe
3. Temporal lobe
4. Occipital lobe
5. Central sulcus
6. Lateral sulcus

BLOOD SUPPLY OF BRAIN

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Formation and branches of circle of Willis

Formation

Circle of Willis is formed by:

1. Anterior cerebral arteries
2. Anterior communicating artery
3. Internal carotid arteries
4. Posterior communicating arteries
5. Posterior cerebral arteries

Branches

1. Anterior cerebral artery
2. Middle cerebral artery
3. Posterior cerebral artery
4. Central branches

Functions

- Provides collateral circulation.

Applied anatomy

- Berry aneurysm may occur.

2. Circulous arterioses

Definition

- Arterial circle at base of brain.

Components

1. Anterior cerebral arteries
2. Anterior communicating artery
3. Internal carotid arteries
4. Posterior communicating arteries
5. Posterior cerebral arteries

Importance

- Collateral circulation.

3. Arterial supply and venous drainage of cerebral cortex

Arterial supply

1. Anterior cerebral artery
2. Middle cerebral artery
3. Posterior cerebral artery

Venous drainage

1. Superficial cerebral veins
2. Deep cerebral veins
3. Superior sagittal sinus
4. Cavernous sinus

SHORT NOTES

1. Circle of Willis

Components

1. Anterior cerebral arteries
2. Anterior communicating artery
3. Internal carotid arteries
4. Posterior communicating arteries
5. Posterior cerebral arteries

Importance

- Collateral circulation.

DRAW AND LABEL**2. Circle of Willis****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels**

1. Anterior cerebral artery
2. Anterior communicating artery
3. Internal carotid artery
4. Posterior communicating artery
5. Posterior cerebral artery
6. Basilar artery

3. Blood supply of medial surface of cerebrum**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels**

1. Anterior cerebral artery
2. Posterior cerebral artery
3. Pericallosal artery
4. Callosomarginal artery

4. Blood supply of inferior surface of cerebrum**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels**

1. Middle cerebral artery
2. Posterior cerebral artery
3. Internal carotid artery

WHITE MATTER OF BRAIN**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 60-year-old male known hypertensive is on anti-hypertensive drug for 5 years, wakes up in the morning and notices difficulty in moving his right limbs. He was brought to emergency department. Neurological examination revealed right sided hemiplegia. CT scan revealed hemorrhage in the posterior limb of the left internal capsule.

- Name the blood vessel responsible for the haemorrhage.
- Discuss the white matter of cerebrum.
- Parts and fibres of internal capsule.
- Blood supply of internal capsule.

Vessel responsible

- Lateral striate branches of middle cerebral artery (Charcot artery).

White matter of cerebrum**Types of fibres**

1. Association fibres
2. Commissural fibres
3. Projection fibres

Association fibres

- Connect areas within same hemisphere.
- Example: Superior longitudinal fasciculus.

Commissural fibres

- Connect two hemispheres.
- Example: Corpus callosum.

Projection fibres

- Connect cerebral cortex with lower centres.

- Form corona radiata and internal capsule.

Internal capsule

Parts

1. Anterior limb
2. Genu
3. Posterior limb
4. Retrolentiform part
5. Sublentiform part

Fibres

Anterior limb

- Frontopontine fibres
- Anterior thalamic radiations

Genu

- Corticonuclear fibres

Posterior limb

- Corticospinal fibres
- Sensory fibres

Retrolentiform part

- Optic radiation

Sublentiform part

- Auditory radiation

Blood supply

1. Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery
2. Anterior choroidal artery
3. Recurrent artery of Heubner

Applied anatomy

- Hemorrhage causes contralateral hemiplegia.

Blood supply of internal capsule

Arterial supply

1. Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery
2. Anterior choroidal artery
3. Recurrent artery of Heubner from anterior cerebral artery

Areas supplied

- Posterior limb mainly by anterior choroidal artery.

Applied anatomy

- Hemorrhage leads to capsular stroke.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Classify white matter fibres of cerebrum with suitable examples. Add a note on fibres of internal capsule.

Classification of white matter fibres of cerebrum

White matter of cerebrum consists of myelinated nerve fibres situated deep to the cerebral cortex. The fibres are classified into:

1. Association fibres

These fibres connect different cortical areas within the same cerebral hemisphere.

Types

a) Short association fibres

- Connect adjacent gyri
- Also called arcuate fibres

b) Long association fibres

Connect distant parts of the same hemisphere.

Examples:

- Superior longitudinal fasciculus
- Inferior longitudinal fasciculus
- Uncinate fasciculus
- Cingulum
- Fronto-occipital fasciculus

2. Commissural fibres

These fibres connect corresponding cortical areas of the two cerebral hemispheres.

Examples:

- Corpus callosum
- Anterior commissure
- Posterior commissure
- Hippocampal commissure

3. Projection fibres

These fibres connect cerebral cortex with lower centres.

Types

a) Ascending fibres

Carry impulses to cerebral cortex.

Examples:

- Thalamocortical fibres
- Medial lemniscus fibres

b) Descending fibres

Carry impulses from cortex.

Examples:

- Corticospinal fibres
- Corticonuclear fibres
- Corticopontine fibres

Projection fibres converge to form corona radiata and pass through internal capsule.

Note on fibres of internal capsule

Internal capsule contains ascending and descending projection fibres.

Fibres in anterior limb

- Frontopontine fibres
- Anterior thalamic radiations

Fibres in genu

- Corticonuclear fibres

Fibres in posterior limb

- Corticospinal fibres
- Sensory fibres from thalamus
- Corticorubral fibres
- Corticoreticular fibres

Fibres in retrolentiform part

- Optic radiation
- Parietopontine and occipitopontine fibres

Fibres in sublenticular part

- Auditory radiation
- Temporopontine fibres

Applied anatomy

- Internal capsule is supplied by lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery.

- Hemorrhage causes capsular stroke.
- Lesion of posterior limb produces contralateral hemiplegia.

2. Classify white matter of the brain with an example of each. Describe the white matter bundle seen in the median longitudinal cerebral fissure.

Classification of white matter of brain

White matter fibres are classified into:

1. Association fibres

**Connect areas within same hemisphere.
Example: Superior longitudinal fasciculus.**

2. Commissural fibres

**Connect two cerebral hemispheres.
Example: Corpus callosum.**

3. Projection fibres

**Connect cortex with lower centres.
Example: Corticospinal tract.**

White matter bundle seen in median longitudinal cerebral fissure – Corpus callosum

Corpus callosum is the largest commissural bundle connecting two cerebral hemispheres.

Parts

1. Rostrum
2. Genu
3. Body
4. Splenium

Situation

- Forms floor of longitudinal cerebral fissure.
- Lies above septum pellucidum and lateral ventricles.

Fibres

- Connect corresponding cortical areas of both hemispheres.

Radiation of fibres

- Forceps minor from genu to frontal lobes
- Forceps major from splenium to occipital lobes
- Tapetum forms roof and lateral wall of posterior and inferior horns

Functions

- Interhemispheric transfer of information.
- Coordination of bilateral cortical activity.

Applied anatomy

- Agenesis causes mental retardation.
- Sectioning may be done in severe epilepsy.

3. Internal capsule of brain

Definition

Internal capsule is a compact band of projection fibres situated between caudate nucleus and thalamus medially, and lentiform nucleus laterally.

Parts

1. Anterior limb

2. Genu
3. Posterior limb
4. Retrolentiform part
5. Sublentiform part

Relations

Anterior limb

- Medial: Head of caudate nucleus
- Lateral: Lentiform nucleus

Genu

- Junction of anterior and posterior limbs

Posterior limb

- Medial: Thalamus
- Lateral: Lentiform nucleus

Fibres

Anterior limb

- Frontopontine fibres
- Anterior thalamic radiation

Genu

- Corticonuclear fibres

Posterior limb

- Corticospinal fibres
- Sensory fibres

Retrolentiform part

- Optic radiation

Sublentiform part

- Auditory radiation

Blood supply

- Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery
- Anterior choroidal artery

Applied anatomy

- Common site of hemorrhage.
- Posterior limb lesion causes contralateral hemiplegia.
- Damage to sensory fibres causes hemianesthesia.

4. Association fibres of the cerebrum

Definition

Association fibres connect different cortical areas within the same cerebral hemisphere.

Classification

1. Short association fibres

- Connect adjacent gyri.
- Called arcuate fibres.

2. Long association fibres

Superior longitudinal fasciculus

- Connects frontal, parietal and occipital lobes.

Inferior longitudinal fasciculus

- Connects occipital and temporal lobes.

Uncinate fasciculus

- Connects frontal and temporal lobes.

Cingulum

- Lies in cingulate gyrus.
- Connects frontal and parahippocampal gyri.

Fronto-occipital fasciculus

- Connects frontal and occipital lobes.

Functions

- Integration of cortical functions.
- Coordination between different cortical areas.

Applied anatomy

- Lesions may produce aphasia, agnosia and apraxia.

5. Internal capsule- parts, fibre constituents, arterial supply and applied anatomy**Definition**

Internal capsule is a compact bundle of projection fibres in the cerebrum.

Parts and fibre constituents**1. Anterior limb****Fibres:**

- Frontopontine fibres
- Anterior thalamic radiation

2. Genu**Fibres:**

- Corticonuclear fibres

3. Posterior limb**Fibres:**

- Corticospinal fibres
- Sensory fibres from thalamus
- Corticorubral fibres

4. Retrolentiform part**Fibres:**

- Optic radiation
- Occipitopontine fibres

5. Sublentiform part**Fibres:**

- Auditory radiation
- Temporopontine fibres

Arterial supply**Anterior limb**

- Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery
- Recurrent artery of Heubner from anterior cerebral artery

Genu

- Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery

Posterior limb

- Lenticulostriate branches of middle cerebral artery
- Anterior choroidal artery

Applied anatomy

- Charcot artery rupture causes cerebral hemorrhage.

- Posterior limb lesion causes spastic hemiplegia.
- Damage to genu causes cranial nerve palsy.
- Optic radiation lesion causes visual defects.

6. Internal capsule – parts, relations, ascending and descending fibers and applied anatomy.

Definition

Internal capsule is a compact sheet of white matter carrying projection fibres.

Parts

1. Anterior limb
2. Genu
3. Posterior limb
4. Retrolentiform part
5. Sublentiform part

Relations

Anterior limb

- Medial: Head of caudate nucleus
- Lateral: Lentiform nucleus

Posterior limb

- Medial: Thalamus
- Lateral: Lentiform nucleus

Ascending fibres

- Thalamocortical sensory fibres
- Optic radiation
- Auditory radiation

Descending fibres

- Corticospinal fibres
- Corticonuclear fibres

- Corticopontine fibres
- Corticorubral fibres

Applied anatomy

- Common site of hypertensive hemorrhage.
- Lesion produces contralateral hemiplegia.
- Sensory loss due to thalamocortical fibre involvement.
- Internal capsule stroke causes upper motor neuron paralysis.

7. Describe internal capsule

Definition

Internal capsule is a compact band of projection fibres situated in inferomedial part of each cerebral hemisphere.

Situation

- Between caudate nucleus and thalamus medially and lentiform nucleus laterally.

Parts

1. Anterior limb
2. Genu
3. Posterior limb
4. Retrolentiform part
5. Sublentiform part

Fibres

Anterior limb

- Frontopontine fibres
- Anterior thalamic radiation

Genu

- Corticonuclear fibres

Posterior limb

- Corticospinal fibres
- Sensory fibres

Retrolentiform part

- Optic radiation

Sublentiform part

- Auditory radiation

Blood supply

- Middle cerebral artery
- Anterior cerebral artery
- Anterior choroidal artery

Applied anatomy

- Hemorrhage causes capsular stroke.
- Contralateral paralysis occurs due to corticospinal tract involvement.

8. Association fibres of brain

Association fibres connect different cortical areas within same cerebral hemisphere.

Types**Short association fibres**

- Connect adjacent gyri.
- Also called arcuate fibres.

Long association fibres

1. Superior longitudinal fasciculus
2. Inferior longitudinal fasciculus
3. Uncinate fasciculus
4. Cingulum
5. Frontal-occipital fasciculus

Functions

- Integration of sensory and motor activities.
- Coordination of cortical functions.

Applied anatomy

- Lesions may produce aphasia and agnosia.

SHORT NOTES**1. Internal capsule**

Internal capsule is a compact bundle of projection fibres.

Situation

- Between thalamus and caudate nucleus medially and lentiform nucleus laterally.

Parts

1. Anterior limb
2. Genu
3. Posterior limb
4. Retrolentiform part
5. Sublentiform part

Important fibres

- Corticospinal fibres
- Corticonuclear fibres
- Sensory fibres
- Optic radiation
- Auditory radiation

Blood supply

- Lenticulostriate arteries
- Anterior choroidal artery

Applied anatomy

- Common site of hemorrhage causing hemiplegia.

2. Fornix of brain

Fornix is a bundle of commissural and projection fibres related to hippocampus.

Parts

1. Fimbria
2. Crus
3. Body
4. Columns

Connections

- Connects hippocampus with mammillary body.

Functions

- Part of limbic system.
- Concerned with memory.

Applied anatomy

- Damage causes memory disturbances.

3. Corpus callosum

Corpus callosum is the largest commissural bundle of cerebrum.

Parts

1. Rostrum
2. Genu
3. Body
4. Splenium

Functions

- Connects cerebral hemispheres.

- Coordinates bilateral cortical activities.

Applied anatomy

- Agenesis causes mental retardation.
- Callosotomy done in epilepsy.

BASAL GANGLIA AND LIMBIC SYSTEM

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe parts, relations, connections and clinical anatomy of basal ganglia

Definition

Basal ganglia are masses of grey matter situated deep within cerebral hemispheres.

Parts

1. Caudate nucleus
2. Lentiform nucleus
 - Putamen
 - Globus pallidus
3. Claustrum
4. Amygdaloid body

Relations

Caudate nucleus

- Lies lateral to lateral ventricle.
- Related to thalamus.

Lentiform nucleus

- Medial: Internal capsule
- Lateral: External capsule

Connections

Afferent connections

- Cerebral cortex
- Thalamus
- Substantia nigra

Efferent connections

- Thalamus
- Brainstem motor nuclei

Functions

- Regulation of muscle tone.
- Control of posture and voluntary movements.
- Suppression of unwanted movements.

Clinical anatomy

- Parkinson disease due to substantia nigra degeneration.
- Chorea due to caudate nucleus lesions.
- Hemiballismus due to subthalamic nucleus lesion.

2. Basal nuclei**Definition**

Basal nuclei are subcortical masses of grey matter in cerebral hemispheres.

Components

1. Caudate nucleus
2. Lentiform nucleus
3. Claustrum
4. Amygdaloid body

Corpus striatum

- Formed by caudate nucleus and lentiform nucleus.

Functions

- Control of voluntary movements.
- Regulation of posture.
- Control of muscle tone.

Applied anatomy

- Parkinsonism
- Chorea
- Athetosis

3. Basal ganglia

Basal ganglia are collections of grey matter located deep in cerebral hemispheres.

Components

- Caudate nucleus
- Lentiform nucleus
- Claustrum
- Amygdaloid body

Functions

- Planning and execution of movements.
- Maintenance of posture.
- Control of muscle tone.

Clinical anatomy

- Parkinson disease
- Huntington chorea
- Hemiballismus

4. Corpus striatum**Definition**

Corpus striatum consists of caudate nucleus and lentiform nucleus.

Components

1. Caudate nucleus
2. Lentiform nucleus
 - Putamen
 - Globus pallidus

Functions

- Control and coordination of movements.
- Regulation of muscle tone.

Applied anatomy

- Parkinsonism
- Chorea

SHORT NOTES

1. Basal nuclei of cerebrum

Basal nuclei are deep masses of grey matter.

Components

- Caudate nucleus
- Lentiform nucleus
- Claustrum
- Amygdaloid body

Functions

- Motor control.
- Maintenance of posture.

Clinical importance

- Parkinson disease.

2. Parts of basal ganglia with functional importance

Parts

1. Caudate nucleus
2. Putamen

3. Globus pallidus
4. Claustrum
5. Amygdaloid body

Functional importance

- Regulation of voluntary movement.
- Maintenance of posture.
- Control of muscle tone.
- Emotional behaviour through amygdala.

CRANIAL CAVITY AND CSF CIRCULATION

LONG ESSAYS

1. A male patient was brought to emergency department with head injury following road traffic accident. On examination he was found to have black eye and pulsating exophthalmos on left side. On radiological examination fracture of body of sphenoid was noted.

a) What is the anatomical basis of black eye and pulsating exophthalmos in this patient

Black eye

- Due to extravasation of blood into loose connective tissue of eyelids.
- Blood tracks into eyelids from fracture of anterior cranial fossa.

Pulsating exophthalmos

- Due to carotico-cavernous fistula following rupture of internal carotid artery within cavernous sinus.
- Increased venous pressure causes protrusion and pulsation of eyeball.

b) Name the dural venous sinus that is likely to be involved in this patient and describe its relations, tributaries and communications

Cavernous sinus

Situation and extent

- Situated on either side of body of sphenoid.
- Extends from superior orbital fissure to apex of petrous temporal bone.

Relations

Structures in lateral wall

1. Oculomotor nerve
2. Trochlear nerve
3. Ophthalmic nerve
4. Maxillary nerve

Structures within sinus

1. Internal carotid artery
2. Abducent nerve

Tributaries

- Superior ophthalmic vein
- Inferior ophthalmic vein
- Superficial middle cerebral vein
- Sphenoparietal sinus

Communications

- Opposite cavernous sinus through intercavernous sinuses
- Superior petrosal sinus
- Inferior petrosal sinus
- Pterygoid venous plexus
- Facial vein through ophthalmic veins

Applied anatomy

- Cavernous sinus thrombosis.
- Infection may spread from face.
- Involvement of cranial nerves causes ophthalmoplegia.

c) Classify dural venous sinuses

Unpaired sinuses

1. Superior sagittal sinus
2. Inferior sagittal sinus
3. Straight sinus
4. Occipital sinus
5. Basilar venous plexus
6. Intercavernous sinuses

Paired sinuses

1. Cavernous sinus
2. Superior petrosal sinus
3. Inferior petrosal sinus
4. Transverse sinus
5. Sigmoid sinus
6. Sphenoparietal sinus

2. Classify dural venous sinuses. Describe the Cavernous sinus under the following headings

Classification of dural venous sinuses

Unpaired sinuses

- Superior sagittal sinus
- Inferior sagittal sinus
- Straight sinus
- Occipital sinus
- Intercavernous sinus

Paired sinuses

- Cavernous sinus
- Superior petrosal sinus
- Inferior petrosal sinus

- Transverse sinus
- Sigmoid sinus

Cavernous sinus

Situation and extent

- Located on either side of body of sphenoid.
- Extends from superior orbital fissure to apex of petrous temporal bone.

Relations

Lateral wall

1. Oculomotor nerve
2. Trochlear nerve
3. Ophthalmic nerve
4. Maxillary nerve

Within sinus

1. Internal carotid artery
2. Abducent nerve

Tributaries and communications

Tributaries

- Superior ophthalmic vein
- Inferior ophthalmic vein
- Superficial middle cerebral vein
- Sphenoparietal sinus

Communications

- Facial vein
- Pterygoid venous plexus
- Superior and inferior petrosal sinuses
- Opposite cavernous sinus

Applied anatomy

- Cavernous sinus thrombosis.
- Infection spread from danger area of face.
- Carotico-cavernous fistula causes pulsating exophthalmos.

3. A patient brought to casualty following road traffic accident had bulging of right eyeball with every radial pulse beat. X ray revealed fracture of right half of body of sphenoid. Answer the following questions

Mention the location and extent to cavernous sinus

- Cavernous sinus lies on either side of body of sphenoid.
- Extends from superior orbital fissure to apex of petrous temporal bone.

Its relations and its tributaries

Relations

Lateral wall:

- Oculomotor nerve
- Trochlear nerve
- Ophthalmic nerve
- Maxillary nerve

Within sinus:

- Internal carotid artery
- Abducent nerve

Tributaries

- Superior ophthalmic vein
- Inferior ophthalmic vein
- Sphenoparietal sinus
- Superficial middle cerebral vein

Mention the reason for pulsating bulge of right eyeball in the above patient

- Rupture of internal carotid artery into cavernous sinus causes carotico-cavernous fistula.
- Arterial pulsations transmitted to orbital veins produce pulsating exophthalmos.

Classify the cranial dural venous sinuses

Unpaired

- Superior sagittal
- Inferior sagittal
- Straight
- Occipital

Paired

- Cavernous
- Transverse
- Sigmoid
- Petrosal sinuses

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Confluence of venous sinuses

Confluence of sinuses is the meeting point of several dural venous sinuses.

Situation

- Located at internal occipital protuberance.

Sinuses meeting

1. Superior sagittal sinus
2. Straight sinus
3. Occipital sinus
4. Transverse sinuses

Functions

- Drains venous blood from brain.

Applied anatomy

- Venous thrombosis may affect cerebral drainage.

2. Dural venous sinuses.

Definition

Dural venous sinuses are endothelial-lined venous channels between layers of dura mater.

Features

- Valveless.
- No muscular coat.
- Drain into internal jugular vein.

Classification

Unpaired

- Superior sagittal sinus
- Inferior sagittal sinus
- Straight sinus
- Occipital sinus

Paired

- Cavernous sinus
- Transverse sinus
- Sigmoid sinus
- Petrosal sinuses

Functions

- Drain venous blood and cerebrospinal fluid.

3. Cavernous sinus - structures related, tributaries and applied aspects

Situation

- On either side of body of sphenoid.

Structures related**Lateral wall**

- Oculomotor nerve
- Trochlear nerve
- Ophthalmic nerve
- Maxillary nerve

Within sinus

- Internal carotid artery
- Abducent nerve

Tributaries

- Superior ophthalmic vein
- Inferior ophthalmic vein
- Superficial middle cerebral vein

Applied aspects

- Cavernous sinus thrombosis.
- Spread of facial infection.
- Ophthalmoplegia due to cranial nerve involvement.

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the site and structures pierced while performing a lumbar puncture

Site

- Midline between L3–L4 or L4–L5 vertebrae.

Structures pierced

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. Supraspinous ligament
4. Interspinous ligament
5. Ligamentum flavum
6. Epidural space
7. Dura mater

8. Arachnoid mater

9. Subarachnoid space

Importance

- Used for cerebrospinal fluid examination.
- Used for spinal anesthesia.

2. Explain the clinical importance of cavernous sinus

Clinical importance

- Infection from danger area of face can spread to cavernous sinus.
- Causes cavernous sinus thrombosis.
- Cranial nerves III, IV, V1, V2 and VI may be affected.
- Internal carotid artery involvement may cause carotico-cavernous fistula.
- Produces pulsating exophthalmos and ophthalmoplegia.

3. Tentorium cerebelli

Tentorium cerebelli is a fold of dura mater separating cerebellum from occipital lobes.

Attachments

- Attached to petrous temporal bone and occipital bone.

Features

- Has tentorial notch for brainstem.

Functions

- Supports occipital lobes.

4. Falx Cerebri

Falx cerebri is a sickle-shaped fold of dura mater.

Attachments

- Attached anteriorly to crista galli.
- Posteriorly blends with tentorium cerebelli.

Sinuses present

- Superior sagittal sinus
- Inferior sagittal sinus

Functions

- Separates cerebral hemispheres.

5. Cisterna magna

Cisterna magna is the largest subarachnoid cistern.

Situation

- Between cerebellum and medulla.

Communications

- Receives cerebrospinal fluid from fourth ventricle through median aperture.

Importance

- Site for cisternal puncture.

SYSTEMIC EMBRYOLOGY

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the development and congenital anomalies of palate

Development of palate

Palate develops between 6th and 12th weeks.

Parts

1. Primary palate
2. Secondary palate

Primary palate

- Develops from intermaxillary segment.
- Forms anterior part of hard palate.

Secondary palate

- Develops from lateral palatine processes of maxillary prominences.
- Palatine shelves fuse in midline.
- Fuse with nasal septum.

Derivatives

- Hard palate
- Soft palate
- Uvula

Congenital anomalies

Cleft palate

- Failure of fusion of palatine shelves.

Types

- Complete cleft palate
- Incomplete cleft palate
- Bifid uvula

Clinical importance

- Difficulty in feeding and speech.

2. Describe embryological basis of nerve supply of tongue.

Developmental basis

Tongue develops from first, third and fourth pharyngeal arches.

Anterior two-thirds

- Develops from first arch.
- General sensation by lingual nerve.
- Taste by chorda tympani.

Posterior one-third

- Develops from third arch.
- Supplied by glossopharyngeal nerve for general sensation and taste.

Posterior-most part

- Develops from fourth arch.
- Supplied by internal laryngeal nerve.

Motor supply

- Muscles develop from occipital myotomes.
- Supplied by hypoglossal nerve.

Exception

- Palatoglossus supplied by vagus nerve.

3. Development of face

Facial prominences

Face develops from:

1. Frontonasal prominence

2. Paired maxillary prominences
3. Paired mandibular prominences

Development

- Nasal placodes appear on frontonasal prominence.
- Medial nasal prominences fuse to form intermaxillary segment.
- Maxillary prominences fuse with medial nasal prominences.
- Mandibular prominences form lower jaw.

Derivatives

- Forehead
- Nose
- Upper lip
- Cheeks
- Mandible

Congenital anomalies

- Cleft lip
- Oblique facial cleft
- Macrostomia
- Microstomia

4. First brachial arch

Components

1. Maxillary process
2. Mandibular process

Cartilage

- Meckel cartilage

Skeletal derivatives

- Malleus
- Incus
- Mandible
- Maxilla

- Zygomatic bone

Muscular derivatives

- Muscles of mastication
- Mylohyoid
- Anterior belly of digastric
- Tensor tympani
- Tensor veli palatini

Nerve supply

- Trigeminal nerve (mandibular division)

Artery

- Maxillary artery

SHORT NOTES

1. Mesodermal derivatives of second pharyngeal arch

Muscles derived

- Muscles of facial expression
- Stapedius
- Stylohyoid
- Posterior belly of digastric

Nerve supply

- Facial nerve

2. Development of thyroid gland

Development

- Develops from median endodermal diverticulum at foramen caecum.
- Descends in neck through thyroglossal duct.

Derivatives

- Follicular cells.

Ultimobranchial body

- Gives parafollicular cells.

Congenital anomalies

- Thyroglossal cyst
- Lingual thyroid

3. Mesodermal derivatives of first pharyngeal arch

Muscles

- Muscles of mastication
- Mylohyoid
- Anterior belly of digastric
- Tensor tympani
- Tensor veli palatini

Nerve supply

- Mandibular nerve.

4. Development of face

Face develops from frontonasal, maxillary and mandibular prominences.

Derivatives

- Forehead
- Nose
- Lips
- Cheeks

Anomalies

- Cleft lip
- Facial clefts

5. First pharyngeal pouch

Derivatives

- **Tubotympanic recess**
- **Tympanic cavity**
- **Auditory tube**

6. Development of pituitary gland

Adenohypophysis

- **Develops from Rathke pouch.**

Neurohypophysis

- **Develops from neuroectoderm of diencephalon.**

Parts formed

- **Pars distalis**
- **Pars intermedia**
- **Pars nervosa**

7. Derivatives of pharyngeal pouches

First pouch

- **Auditory tube and middle ear.**

Second pouch

- **Palatine tonsil.**

Third pouch

- **Inferior parathyroid and thymus.**

Fourth pouch

- **Superior parathyroid.**

8. Cleft palate

Cleft palate occurs due to failure of fusion of palatine shelves.

Types

- **Complete**
- **Incomplete**
- **Bifid uvula**

Clinical importance

- **Feeding and speech difficulty.**

9. Development and congenital anomalies of face

Development

- **From facial prominences.**

Congenital anomalies

- **Cleft lip**
- **Oblique facial cleft**
- **Macrostomia**
- **Microstomia**

10. First brachial arch

Derivatives

- **Maxilla**
- **Mandible**
- **Muscles of mastication**

Nerve

- **Mandibular nerve.**

11. Development of lips

Upper lip

- **Formed by fusion of maxillary prominence with medial nasal prominence.**

Lower lip

- **Formed by mandibular prominences.**

Anomaly

- Cleft lip.

SYSTEMIC HISTOLOGY**SHORT ESSAYS****1. Explain the microscopic structure of pituitary gland****Pituitary gland**

Pituitary gland is an endocrine gland situated in hypophyseal fossa.

Parts

1. Adenohypophysis
2. Neurohypophysis

Adenohypophysis**Parts**

- Pars distalis
- Pars intermedia
- Pars tuberalis

Cells**Chromophils**

1. Acidophils
 - Somatotrophs
 - Mammotrophs
2. Basophils
 - Thyrotrophs
 - Gonadotrophs
 - Corticotrophs

Chromophobes

- Poorly stained cells.

Neurohypophysis**Parts**

- Pars nervosa
- Infundibulum

Components

- Unmyelinated nerve fibres
- Pituicytes
- Herring bodies

Functions

- Secretion and storage of hormones.

SHORT NOTES**1. Compare and contrast the microscopic features of lymph node and spleen**

Feature	Lymph node	Spleen
Capsule	Thin	Thick
Sinuses	Present	Absent
Cortex and medulla	Present	Absent
White pulp	Absent	Present
Function	Filters lymph	Filters blood
Afferent lymphatics	Present	Absent

2. Histology of pituitary gland**Parts**

- Adenohypophysis
- Neurohypophysis

Adenohypophysis cells

- Acidophils
- Basophils

- **Chromophobes**

Neurohypophysis

- **Pituicytes**
- **Herring bodies**

3. Microscopic structure of thymus

Coverings

- **Capsule with septa.**

Lobules

Each lobule has:

- **Cortex**
- **Medulla**

Cortex

- **Dense lymphocytes.**

Medulla

- **Fewer lymphocytes.**
- **Hassall corpuscles present.**

Functions

- **T lymphocyte maturation.**

4. Histology of thyroid

Structure

- **Made of follicles.**
- **Lined by cuboidal epithelium.**

Contents

- **Colloid containing thyroglobulin.**

Cells

1. **Follicular cells**
2. **Parafollicular cells**

5. Microscopic structure of retina

Layers of retina

1. **Pigment epithelium**
2. **Layer of rods and cones**
3. **External limiting membrane**
4. **Outer nuclear layer**
5. **Outer plexiform layer**
6. **Inner nuclear layer**
7. **Inner plexiform layer**
8. **Ganglion cell layer**
9. **Nerve fibre layer**
10. **Internal limiting membrane**

Functions

- **Photoreception.**

6. Microscopic structure of cerebellum

Layers of cerebellar cortex

1. **Molecular layer**
2. **Purkinje cell layer**
3. **Granular layer**

White matter

- **Present centrally.**

Purkinje cells

- **Flask-shaped neurons.**

7. Microscopic anatomy of pituitary gland.

Adenohypophysis

- **Acidophils**
- **Basophils**
- **Chromophobes**

Neurohypophysis

- Pituicytes
- Herring bodies

8. Microscopic structure of cerebrum**Layers of cerebral cortex**

1. Molecular layer
2. External granular layer
3. External pyramidal layer
4. Internal granular layer
5. Internal pyramidal layer
6. Multiform layer

White matter

- Deep to cortex.

9. Histology of palatine tonsil**Covering epithelium**

- Stratified squamous non-keratinized epithelium.

Features

- Crypts present.
- Lymphoid follicles present.

Capsule

- Present on deep surface.

10. Histology of cerebellum**Layers**

1. Molecular layer
2. Purkinje cell layer
3. Granular layer

White matter

- Forms arbor vitae.

11. Histology of thyroid gland and parathyroid glands**Thyroid gland**

- Follicles lined by cuboidal epithelium.
- Colloid present.

Parathyroid gland**Cells**

1. Chief cells
2. Oxyphil cells

Function

- Calcium regulation.

12. Histology of submandibular salivary gland**Type**

- Mixed salivary gland.

Acini

- Serous acini predominant.
- Mucous acini present.

Ducts

- Intercalated ducts
- Striated ducts

13. Spinal ganglion**Structure**

- Collection of pseudounipolar neurons.

Features

- Satellite cells surround neurons.
- Connective tissue capsule present.

Function

- Sensory relay station.

GENERAL QUESTIONS**SHORT NOTES**

1. Describe the correct procedure while handling cadavers.

Procedure while handling cadavers

- Maintain respect and dignity.
- Wear gloves, apron and mask.
- Handle instruments carefully.
- Do not mutilate structures unnecessarily.
- Keep cadaver covered when not dissecting.
- Follow dissection hall discipline.
- Wash hands after dissection.
- Dispose biomedical waste properly.

2. Write your reflection on the cadaver as a teacher of anatomy

Cadaver is the first teacher of anatomy for a medical student. It helps in understanding the three-dimensional arrangement of structures and develops clinical orientation. Dissection teaches discipline, teamwork and respect for human body. Cadaveric study also builds surgical skills and professional ethics. Hence cadaver should always be treated with gratitude and dignity.

3. Describe briefly the process of cadaver maintenance in the Anatomy department.

Cadaver maintenance

- Embalming is done using preservative fluids.
- Cadavers are stored in tanks with formalin solution.
- Regular moistening prevents drying.
- Proper ventilation is maintained.
- Dissection tables are cleaned regularly.
- Biomedical waste disposal protocols are followed.
- Cadavers are handled respectfully.

4. Reflect on how to honor and extend gratitude to the cadaver as a Phase 1 MBBS student

Cadaver donation is a noble act contributing to medical education. As a Phase 1 MBBS student, gratitude can be shown by maintaining respect during dissection, handling the body carefully and observing ethical conduct. Cadavers should be regarded as silent teachers who help students learn anatomy and develop professional values. Participation in memorial ceremonies and maintaining dignity of the body are important ways to honor cadavers.

PAPER-II

THORAX**BONES****SHORT NOTES****1. Manubrium sterni****Definition:**

Manubrium sterni is the upper broad quadrangular part of sternum.

Features

- **Lies opposite T3 and T4 vertebrae.**
- **Articulates with body of sternum at sternal angle.**
- **Superior border presents jugular notch.**
- **Clavicular notches are present on each side for articulation with clavicle.**

Attachments**Muscles attached:**

- **Sternocleidomastoid**
- **Sternohyoid**
- **Sternothyroid**
- **Pectoralis major**

Articulations

- **With clavicle**
- **First costal cartilage**
- **Upper half of second costal cartilage**
- **Body of sternum**

Applied anatomy

- **Sternal angle is an important surface landmark.**
- **Marks level of bifurcation of trachea and beginning/end of arch of aorta.**
- **Bone marrow biopsy can be performed through sternum.**

DIAPHRAGM**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 23year-old pregnant woman who did not go for regular antenatal screening delivered a full-term baby weighing 2kg. Soon after birth the baby was found to be dyspnoeic and vomited continuously after every feed. CT was done for the newborn and it revealed herniation of stomach and intestines into the left side of thoracic cavity. With your knowledge in anatomy, answer the following:

a) Name the structure that is defectively developed in this newborn.

The defect is due to defective development of the diaphragm, commonly due to failure of closure of pleuroperitoneal membrane causing congenital diaphragmatic hernia.

b) Describe the attachments of this structure.

Attachments of Diaphragm

The diaphragm has:

1. Sternal origin
2. Costal origin
3. Vertebral origin
4. Central insertion

1. Sternal part

- Arises from posterior surface of xiphoid process.

2. Costal part

- Arises from inner surfaces of lower six ribs and their costal cartilages.

3. Vertebral part

Formed by right and left crura and arcuate ligaments.

Right crus

- Arises from bodies and intervertebral discs of L1–L3 vertebrae.

Left crus

- Arises from bodies and intervertebral discs of L1–L2 vertebrae.

Median arcuate ligament

- Extends between two crura.

Medial arcuate ligament

- Extends from body of L2 to transverse process of L1.

Lateral arcuate ligament

- Extends from transverse process of L1 to 12th rib.

Insertion

- All fibres converge into central tendon.

c) Mention the innervation and actions of this structure.

Innervation of diaphragm

Motor supply

- Phrenic nerve (C3, C4, C5).

Sensory supply

- Central part: Phrenic nerve.
- Peripheral part: Lower intercostal nerves and subcostal nerve.

Actions of diaphragm

Principal muscle of inspiration

- During contraction, domes descend and thoracic cavity enlarges vertically.
- Increases intrathoracic volume.

Increases intra-abdominal pressure

Helps in:

- Defecation
- Micturition
- Parturition
- Vomiting
- Coughing

d) Mention the openings in this structure and structures passing through them.

Major openings of diaphragm

Opening	Vertebral level	Structures passing through
Caval opening	T8	Inferior vena cava, terminal branch of right phrenic nerve
Esophageal opening	T10	Esophagus, anterior and posterior vagal trunks, esophageal branches of left gastric vessels
Aortic opening	T12	Descending aorta, thoracic duct, azygos vein

Minor openings

- Greater, lesser and least splanchnic nerves
- Sympathetic trunks
- Superior epigastric vessels
- Musculophrenic vessels
- Subcostal nerves and vessels

e) Describe the development of this structure.

Development of diaphragm

Diaphragm develops from four components:

1. Septum transversum
 - Forms central tendon.
2. Pleuroperitoneal membranes
 - Form posterolateral parts.
3. Dorsal mesentery of esophagus
 - Forms crura.
4. Muscular ingrowth from lateral body wall
 - Forms peripheral muscular part.

Developmental anomaly

- Failure of fusion of pleuroperitoneal membrane causes congenital diaphragmatic hernia, commonly on left side.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. List the sources of development of the thoracoabdominal diaphragm. Enumerate the structures passing through its major openings.

Sources of development of diaphragm

1. Septum transversum
2. Pleuroperitoneal membranes
3. Dorsal mesentery of esophagus
4. Muscular ingrowth from lateral body wall

Major openings and structures passing through

Caval opening (T8)

- Inferior vena cava

- Terminal branch of right phrenic nerve

Esophageal opening (T10)

- Esophagus
- Anterior vagal trunk
- Posterior vagal trunk
- Esophageal branches of left gastric vessels

Aortic opening (T12)

- Descending aorta
- Thoracic duct
- Azygos vein

2. Thoracic diaphragm

Definition

Thoracic diaphragm is a musculotendinous partition separating thoracic and abdominal cavities.

Parts

- Central tendon
- Peripheral muscular part

Attachments

Sternal part

- Xiphoid process

Costal part

- Lower six ribs and costal cartilages

Vertebral part

- Right and left crura
- Arcuate ligaments

Openings

- Caval opening – T8
- Esophageal opening – T10
- Aortic opening – T12

Nerve supply

- Motor: Phrenic nerve
- Sensory: Phrenic and lower intercostal nerves

Actions

- Chief muscle of inspiration
- Increases intra-abdominal pressure

Applied anatomy

- Diaphragmatic hernia
- Phrenic nerve palsy
- Hiccough

SHORT NOTES

1. Openings in the abdominal diaphragm

Major openings

Caval opening (T8)

Contents:

- Inferior vena cava
- Right phrenic nerve

Esophageal opening (T10)

Contents:

- Esophagus
- Vagal trunks
- Esophageal vessels

Aortic opening (T12)

Contents:

- Aorta
- Thoracic duct
- Azygos vein

Minor openings

- Sympathetic trunk
- Splanchnic nerves
- Superior epigastric vessels
- Subcostal vessels and nerve

2. Diaphragm**Definition**

Musculotendinous partition between thorax and abdomen.

Attachments

- Sternal
- Costal
- Vertebral

Nerve supply

- Phrenic nerve

Actions

- Principal muscle of inspiration
- Raises intra-abdominal pressure

Applied anatomy

- Congenital diaphragmatic hernia
- Eventration

3. Major openings of diaphragm

Opening	Level	Contents
Caval opening	T8	Inferior vena cava, right phrenic nerve
Esophageal	T10	Esophagus, vagal

Opening	Level	Contents
opening		trunks
Aortic opening	T12	Aorta, thoracic duct, azygos vein

WALL AND RESPIRATION**LONG ESSAYS**

1. Describe Typical Intercostal Space under the following headings:-

- (a) Muscles (b) Blood vessels
(c) Nerve (d) Applied importance

Typical intercostal space

It is the space between adjacent ribs and costal cartilages.

Boundaries

- Above – Inferior border of rib above
- Below – Superior border of rib below

Contents

- Intercostal muscles
- Intercostal vessels
- Intercostal nerves

(a) Muscles**External intercostal muscle**

- Fibres directed downward and forward.
- Extends from rib tubercle to costochondral junction.
- Replaced anteriorly by external intercostal membrane.
- Elevates ribs during inspiration.

Internal intercostal muscle

- Fibres directed downward and backward.
- Extends from sternum to angle of rib.
- Replaced posteriorly by internal intercostal membrane.
- Assists in expiration.

Innermost intercostal muscle

- Incomplete layer.
- Separated from internal intercostal by neurovascular bundle.

(b) Blood vessels**Arteries**

- Posterior intercostal arteries
- Anterior intercostal arteries

Veins

- Posterior intercostal veins drain into azygos system.
- Anterior intercostal veins drain into internal thoracic vein.

Arrangement in costal groove**From above downwards:**

- Vein
- Artery
- Nerve (VAN)

(c) Nerve**Typical intercostal nerve**

- Anterior primary ramus of thoracic spinal nerve T3–T6.

Course

- Runs in costal groove between internal and innermost intercostal muscles.

Branches

- Muscular branches
- Collateral branch
- Lateral cutaneous branch
- Anterior cutaneous branch

Supply

- Intercostal muscles
- Skin of thoracic wall
- Parietal pleura

(d) Applied importance

- Site for intercostal nerve block.
- Thoracocentesis performed in lower part of intercostal space to avoid neurovascular bundle.
- Rib fractures may injure intercostal vessels and nerves.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the course, branches and applied anatomy of typical intercostal nerve

Typical intercostal nerve

It is the anterior primary ramus of thoracic spinal nerve T3–T6.

Course

- Runs in intercostal space.
- Lies between internal and innermost intercostal muscles.
- Occupies costal groove.
- Ends as anterior cutaneous nerve.

Branches

1. Muscular branches
2. Collateral branch
3. Lateral cutaneous branch
4. Anterior cutaneous branch
5. Pleural branches

Distribution

- Intercostal muscles
- Skin of thoracic wall
- Costal pleura

Applied anatomy

- Intercostal neuralgia
- Herpes zoster infection
- Intercostal nerve block

2. Intercostal vessels**Arteries****Posterior intercostal arteries**

- 1st and 2nd from superior intercostal artery.
- Remaining from thoracic aorta.

Anterior intercostal arteries

- Upper six from internal thoracic artery.
- Lower spaces from musculophrenic artery.

Veins

- Drain into azygos system.
- Right side into azygos vein.
- Left side into hemiazygos and accessory hemiazygos veins.

Arrangement in costal groove

- Vein
- Artery
- Nerve

Applied anatomy

- Hemothorax due to injury.
- Important in thoracocentesis.

3. Typical intercostal space- Boundaries, Extent, Contents, Applied anatomy**Boundaries**

- Above: Rib above
- Below: Rib below

Extent

- From vertebral column to sternum.

Contents

1. Intercostal muscles
2. Intercostal vessels
3. Intercostal nerves
4. Lymphatics

Applied anatomy

- Intercostal nerve block
- Thoracocentesis
- Rib fractures

SHORT NOTES**1. Typical intercostal space****Definition**

Space between adjacent ribs.

Contents

- Muscles

- Vessels
- Nerves

Neurovascular plane

Between internal and innermost intercostal muscles.

Applied anatomy

- Thoracocentesis

2. Briefly explain the intercostal muscles.

Layers

1. External intercostal
2. Internal intercostal
3. Innermost intercostal

Actions

- External intercostals elevate ribs.
- Internal intercostals depress ribs.
- Help in respiration.

Nerve supply

- Intercostal nerves.

3. Mechanics and types of respiration

Types of respiration

1. Thoracic respiration
2. Abdominal respiration

Mechanics

Pump handle movement

- Increases anteroposterior diameter.

Bucket handle movement

- Increases transverse diameter.

Descent of diaphragm

- Increases vertical diameter.

4. Typical thoracic spinal nerve

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Formation

Formed by union of dorsal and ventral roots.

Branches

- Posterior primary ramus
- Anterior primary ramus
- Meningeal branch
- Rami communicantes

Distribution

- Muscles and skin of thoracic wall.

5. Typical intercostal nerve

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Definition

Anterior primary ramus of thoracic spinal nerve.

Course

Runs in costal groove.

Branches

- Collateral
- Lateral cutaneous
- Anterior cutaneous

Supply

- Muscles and skin of thoracic wall.

6. Typical spinal nerve

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Formation

Union of anterior and posterior roots.

Branches

- Posterior ramus
- Anterior ramus
- Meningeal branch
- Communicating branches

Functional components

- Somatic motor
- Somatic sensory
- Sympathetic fibres

MEDIASTINUM

LONG ESSAYS

1. Describe mediastinum under the following headings

- Boundaries • Divisions
- Contents • Clinical implications.

Definition

Mediastinum is the interpleural space between two pleural cavities.

Boundaries

- Superior: Thoracic inlet
- Inferior: Diaphragm
- Anterior: Sternum
- Posterior: Thoracic vertebrae
- Lateral: Mediastinal pleura

Divisions

Plane passing from sternal angle to lower border of T4 vertebra divides mediastinum into:

1. Superior mediastinum
2. Inferior mediastinum

Inferior mediastinum subdivided into:

- Anterior
- Middle
- Posterior mediastinum

Contents

Superior mediastinum

- Thymus
- Arch of aorta and branches
- Superior vena cava
- Trachea
- Esophagus
- Thoracic duct
- Vagus and phrenic nerves

Middle mediastinum

- Heart
- Pericardium
- Roots of great vessels

Posterior mediastinum

- Descending thoracic aorta
- Esophagus
- Thoracic duct
- Azygos vein

Clinical implications

- Mediastinal syndrome
- Compression of trachea causes dyspnoea.

- Compression of esophagus causes dysphagia.
- Compression of superior vena cava causes venous congestion.

2. A 52 year old man presented with shortness of breath and coughing up small volumes of blood. Clinical examination revealed multiple dilated veins around the neck. A chest X- ray demonstrated a tumor mass involving the upper part of right lung and elevated right dome of diaphragm. Based on your anatomical knowledge answer the following questions.

Compression of which structure is responsible for dilated veins in the head and neck

Compression of superior vena cava causes dilated veins in head and neck.

Mention the extent and relations in the mediastinum

Extent of superior vena cava

- Formed behind lower border of first right costal cartilage.
- Ends at upper border of third right costal cartilage by opening into right atrium.

Relations

Anterior

- Thymus
- Right pleura and lung

Posterior

- Trachea
- Right vagus nerve

Right side

- Right phrenic nerve
- Right lung and pleura

Left side

- Ascending aorta

Briefly describe the other related structures to mediastinal surface of right lung

Structures related to mediastinal surface of right lung

- Superior vena cava
- Inferior vena cava
- Arch of azygos vein
- Esophagus
- Trachea
- Right brachiocephalic vein
- Cardiac impression

Injury to which structure is responsible for elevated diaphragm on the right side

Injury to right phrenic nerve causes paralysis and elevation of right dome of diaphragm.

Briefly describe the broncho-pulmonary segments and its applied importance

Bronchopulmonary segment

It is a pyramidal subdivision of lung supplied by a segmental bronchus.

Features

- Functionally independent.
- Separated by connective tissue septa.
- Supplied by tertiary bronchus.

Right lung**10 segments.****Left lung****8–10 segments.****Applied importance**

- Segmental resection possible.
- Tuberculosis may remain localized.
- Aspiration commonly affects lower lobe segments.

SHORT ESSAYS**1. Arch of aorta****Extent****Begins and ends at level of sternal angle.****Course****Passes upward, backward and to left.****Branches**

1. Brachiocephalic trunk
2. Left common carotid artery
3. Left subclavian artery

Relations**Anterior**

- Left vagus nerve
- Left phrenic nerve

Posterior

- Trachea
- Esophagus

Applied anatomy

- Aneurysm may compress recurrent laryngeal nerve.

2. Superior vena cava**Formation****Formed by union of right and left brachiocephalic veins.****Extent****From first to third right costal cartilage.****Tributaries**

- Azygos vein
- Small mediastinal veins

Relations

- Right lung and pleura
- Ascending aorta
- Trachea

Applied anatomy

- Superior vena cava obstruction syndrome.

SHORT NOTES**1. Arch of aorta****Branches**

- Brachiocephalic trunk
- Left common carotid
- Left subclavian

Relations

- Left vagus nerve
- Left recurrent laryngeal nerve

Applied anatomy

- Aneurysm.

2. Superior mediastinum**Boundaries**

- Above: Thoracic inlet
- Below: Plane of sternal angle

Contents

- Thymus
- Great vessels
- Trachea
- Esophagus
- Thoracic duct

3. Thoracic duct**Extent**

From T12 to root of neck.

Course

Ascends through posterior mediastinum.

Termination

At junction of left internal jugular and subclavian veins.

Applied anatomy

- Chylothorax.

4. Superior vena cava**Formation**

Union of brachiocephalic veins.

Tributary**Azygos vein.****Applied anatomy**

Superior vena cava syndrome.

HEART**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 60 year old man who is a smoker, alcoholic and known hypertensive suddenly developed pain in the left side of chest radiating along the medial border of left arm. ECG showed myocardial ischaemia. Coronary angiogram was advised for further evaluation. Based on your knowledge of anatomy answer the following

a) Describe the origin, course, branches and distribution of coronary arteries

Right coronary artery**Origin**

Arises from anterior aortic sinus.

Course

Runs in coronary sulcus between right atrium and right ventricle.

Branches

- SA nodal artery
- Right marginal artery
- AV nodal artery
- Posterior interventricular artery

Distribution

- Right atrium
- Most of right ventricle
- Part of left ventricle

- SA node and AV node

Left coronary artery

Origin

Arises from left posterior aortic sinus.

Course

Passes between pulmonary trunk and left auricle.

Branches

1. Anterior interventricular artery (LAD)
2. Circumflex artery

Distribution

- Left atrium
- Most of left ventricle
- Part of right ventricle
- Interventricular septum

b) Add a note on coronary dominance

Coronary dominance

Defined by artery giving posterior interventricular branch.

Right dominance

- Posterior interventricular artery from right coronary artery.
- Seen in majority.

Left dominance

- Posterior interventricular artery from circumflex branch.

Balanced circulation

- Contribution from both arteries.

c) Explain the nerve supply of heart

Cardiac plexus

Formed by sympathetic and parasympathetic fibres.

Sympathetic supply

- From T1–T5 segments.
- Increases heart rate and force.

Parasympathetic supply

- Vagus nerve.
- Decreases heart rate.

Sensory fibres

- Pain fibres travel with sympathetic nerves.

2. Describe the Heart under the following headings:-

a) External features - Surfaces, borders and grooves and sulcus with their contents

b) Describe the blood supply of the heart

c) Add a note on the coronary dominance

d) Applied anatomy

External features of heart

Surfaces

1. Sternocostal surface
2. Diaphragmatic surface
3. Right pulmonary surface
4. Left pulmonary surface

Borders

- Right border – right atrium

- Inferior border – right ventricle
- Left border – left ventricle and auricle
- Superior border – atria and great vessels

Grooves and sulci

Coronary sulcus

Contains:

- Coronary arteries
- Coronary sinus

Anterior interventricular groove

Contains:

- LAD artery
- Great cardiac vein

Posterior interventricular groove

Contains:

- Posterior interventricular artery
- Middle cardiac vein

Blood supply of heart

Arterial supply

- Right coronary artery
- Left coronary artery

Venous drainage

- Coronary sinus
- Great cardiac vein
- Middle cardiac vein
- Small cardiac vein

Coronary dominance

- Right dominance common.

- Determined by posterior interventricular artery.

Applied anatomy

- Coronary artery disease
- Myocardial infarction
- Angina pectoris
- Coronary bypass surgery

3. A 55-year-old male brought to the emergency department with complaints of severe squeezing chest pain, breathing difficulty, sweating and pain along the inner aspect of left upper limb. After taking an electrocardiogram a provisional diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction was made. Apply your knowledge in anatomy and answer the following questions related to coronary artery.

Describe the origin, course, relations and branches of left coronary artery.

Left coronary artery

Origin

Arises from left posterior aortic sinus.

Course

Passes between pulmonary trunk and left auricle.

Relations

- Pulmonary trunk
- Left auricle

Branches

1. Anterior interventricular artery
2. Circumflex artery
3. Diagonal branches

Describe the arterial supply of conducting system of heart.

SA node

- Usually supplied by right coronary artery.

AV node

- Usually supplied by right coronary artery.

AV bundle and bundle branches

- Supplied mainly by anterior interventricular branch of left coronary artery.

Describe the venous drainage of heart.

Coronary sinus

Main venous channel opening into right atrium.

Tributaries

- Great cardiac vein
- Middle cardiac vein
- Small cardiac vein
- Posterior vein of left ventricle
- Oblique vein of left atrium

Anterior cardiac veins

Drain directly into right atrium.

Name two arteries supplying the heart most commonly involved in ischemic heart disease.

1. Anterior interventricular artery (LAD)
2. Right coronary artery

4. A 50 year old man was brought to medical casualty with complaints of sudden onset of pain in chest with sweating and increased pulse rate. The chest pain was radiating to inner border of left upper limb. ECG showed evidences of ischemic heart disease. Answer the following.

Mention the origin, course and distribution of the arteries possibly affected in the patient.

Right coronary artery

Origin

Anterior aortic sinus.

Course

Runs in coronary sulcus.

Distribution

Right atrium, right ventricle, SA node, AV node.

Left coronary artery

Origin

Left posterior aortic sinus.

Course

Between pulmonary trunk and left auricle.

Distribution

Most of left ventricle and interventricular septum.

Name the veins accompanying the various branches

Artery	Vein
Anterior interventricular artery	Great cardiac vein
Posterior interventricular artery	Middle cardiac vein
Right marginal artery	Small cardiac vein

Why the pain is radiating to the inner border of the left upper limb?

Cardiac pain fibres enter spinal cord through T1–T4 segments. These segments also supply medial side of upper limb through intercostobrachial nerve, causing referred pain.

Add a note on surgical intervention possible

Coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG)

- Great saphenous vein or internal thoracic artery used.
- Bypasses blocked coronary artery.

Angioplasty

- Balloon dilatation and stent placement.

CORONARY ARTERY

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the features of the interior of the right atrium. Add a note on its development

Interior of right atrium

Smooth posterior part

- Sinus venarum.

Rough anterior part

- Pectinate muscles.

Crista terminalis

Separates smooth and rough parts.

Openings

- Superior vena cava
- Inferior vena cava
- Coronary sinus
- Right atrioventricular orifice

Interatrial septum

Contains fossa ovalis.

Development

- Smooth part from sinus venosus.
- Rough part from primitive atrium.

2. Describe the arterial supply of heart. Add a note on Coronary Artery Bypass Grafting.

Arterial supply

Right coronary artery

Supplies:

- Right atrium
- Right ventricle
- SA and AV nodes

Left coronary artery

Supplies:

- Left atrium
- Left ventricle
- Interventricular septum

Coronary artery bypass grafting

- Surgical procedure to bypass blocked coronary artery.
- Internal thoracic artery or great saphenous vein used.
- Improves myocardial blood supply.

3. Arterial supply of heart**Arteries**

1. Right coronary artery
2. Left coronary artery

Areas supplied

- Right heart mainly by RCA.
- Left heart mainly by LCA.

Applied anatomy

- Coronary artery disease.

4. Coronary arteries**Right coronary artery**

- Origin: Anterior aortic sinus.
- Branches: Marginal, posterior interventricular.

Left coronary artery

- Origin: Left posterior aortic sinus.
- Branches: LAD and circumflex.

Applied anatomy

- Atherosclerosis.
- Myocardial infarction.

5. Right atrium**Features**

- Receives superior vena cava, inferior vena cava and coronary sinus.
- Contains pectinate muscles.
- Fossa ovalis on septum.

Openings

- SVC
- IVC
- Coronary sinus
- Tricuspid orifice

6. Interior of right atrium**Parts**

- Smooth sinus venarum.
- Rough pectinate part.

Septal features

- Fossa ovalis.
- Limbus fossae ovalis.

7. Right atrium and its development**Development**

- Sinus venosus forms smooth part.
- Primitive atrium forms rough part.

Features

- Crista terminalis
- Pectinate muscles
- Fossa ovalis

8. Blood supply of heart**Arterial supply**

- Right and left coronary arteries.

Venous drainage

- Coronary sinus.
- Cardiac veins.

Applied anatomy

- Ischemic heart disease.

9. Pericardium

Definition

Fibroserous sac enclosing heart.

Layers

1. Fibrous pericardium
2. Serous pericardium
 - Parietal layer
 - Visceral layer

Sinuses

- Transverse sinus
- Oblique sinus

Blood supply

- Pericardiophrenic artery.

Nerve supply

- Phrenic nerve.

Applied anatomy

- Pericarditis
- Cardiac tamponade

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the anatomical basis of ischemic heart disease.

Definition:

Ischemic heart disease occurs due to inadequate blood supply to the

myocardium because of reduced coronary circulation.

Anatomical basis

1. Coronary arteries are functional end arteries with poor anastomosis.
2. Atherosclerosis commonly affects:
 - Anterior interventricular artery
 - Right coronary artery
 - Circumflex artery
3. Narrowing or thrombosis reduces myocardial blood supply.
4. Myocardium supplied by blocked artery undergoes ischemia and infarction.
5. Left ventricle is most commonly affected due to high oxygen demand.
6. Sudden occlusion causes myocardial infarction.
7. Gradual occlusion may produce collateral circulation.

Common sites of coronary occlusion

- Anterior interventricular artery – 40–50%
- Right coronary artery – 30–40%
- Circumflex artery – 15–20%

Clinical features

- Angina pectoris
- Myocardial infarction
- Arrhythmias
- Cardiac failure

Applied anatomy

- Coronary angiography identifies blockage.

- Coronary artery bypass grafting and angioplasty are treatment methods.

2. Draw a neat labelled diagram of the anterior view of arteries supplying the heart.

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels to be included:

- Ascending aorta
- Right coronary artery
- Marginal artery
- Posterior interventricular artery
- Left coronary artery
- Anterior interventricular artery
- Circumflex artery
- Great cardiac vein

3. Pericardium

Definition

Pericardium is a fibroserous sac enclosing the heart and roots of great vessels.

Parts

1. Fibrous pericardium
2. Serous pericardium
 - Parietal layer
 - Visceral layer (epicardium)

Fibrous pericardium

- Cone-shaped fibrous sac.
- Base fused with central tendon of diaphragm.
- Apex continuous with adventitia of great vessels.

Serous pericardium

- Parietal layer lines fibrous pericardium.
- Visceral layer covers heart.
- Pericardial cavity contains fluid.

Blood supply

- Pericardiophrenic artery
- Musculophrenic artery
- Esophageal and bronchial branches

Nerve supply

- Fibrous and parietal pericardium: phrenic nerve
- Visceral layer: sympathetic and vagal fibers

Functions

- Protects heart
- Prevents overdistension
- Reduces friction
- Fixes heart in mediastinum

Applied anatomy

- Pericarditis
- Pericardial effusion
- Cardiac tamponade
- Pericardiocentesis

4. Describe the venous drainage of the heart.

Venous drainage

The venous drainage of heart occurs through:

1. Coronary sinus
2. Anterior cardiac veins
3. Venae cordis minimae

Coronary sinus

- Main venous channel.
- Lies in posterior atrioventricular groove.
- Opens into right atrium.

Tributaries

- Great cardiac vein
- Middle cardiac vein
- Small cardiac vein
- Posterior vein of left ventricle
- Oblique vein of left atrium

Anterior cardiac veins

- Drain right ventricle directly into right atrium.

Venae cordis minimae

- Small veins opening directly into chambers.

Applied anatomy

- Coronary sinus used in cardiac catheterization.

5. Name tributaries of coronary sinus.

Tributaries

1. Great cardiac vein
2. Middle cardiac vein
3. Small cardiac vein
4. Posterior vein of left ventricle
5. Oblique vein of left atrium

6. Sinuses of pericardium

Types

1. Transverse sinus
2. Oblique sinus

Transverse sinus

- Passage between arterial and venous ends of heart.
- Anterior: ascending aorta and pulmonary trunk
- Posterior: superior vena cava and left atrium

Oblique sinus

- Blind recess behind left atrium.
- Bounded by pulmonary veins and inferior vena cava.

Applied anatomy

- Surgeons pass finger through transverse sinus during cardiac surgery.

7. Coronary sinus

Definition

Coronary sinus is the main venous channel of the heart situated in posterior atrioventricular groove.

Extent

- Begins at union of great cardiac vein and oblique vein of left atrium.
- Ends in right atrium.

Tributaries

- Great cardiac vein
- Middle cardiac vein
- Small cardiac vein
- Posterior vein of left ventricle
- Oblique vein of left atrium

Features

- About 3 cm long.
- Guarded by Thebesian valve.

Applied anatomy

- Used in cardiac pacing procedures.

8. Left coronary artery**Origin**

Arises from left posterior aortic sinus.

Course

Passes between pulmonary trunk and left auricle.

Branches

1. Anterior interventricular artery
2. Circumflex artery
3. Diagonal branches
4. Marginal branches

Areas supplied

- Left atrium
- Most of left ventricle
- Part of right ventricle
- Interventricular septum

Applied anatomy

- Commonest artery affected in coronary artery disease.

DRAW AND LABEL**10. Sterno-costal surface of heart****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels:**

- Right atrium
- Right ventricle
- Left ventricle
- Left auricle

- Superior vena cava
- Inferior vena cava
- Pulmonary trunk
- Ascending aorta
- Anterior interventricular groove

11. Pericardial sinuses**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels:**

- Transverse sinus
- Oblique sinus
- Ascending aorta
- Pulmonary trunk
- Superior vena cava
- Left atrium
- Pulmonary veins

12. Borders, surfaces and valves of heart**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Borders**

- Right border
- Inferior border
- Left border
- Superior border

Surfaces

- Sternocostal surface
- Diaphragmatic surface
- Base
- Right pulmonary surface
- Left pulmonary surface

Valves

- Tricuspid valve
- Pulmonary valve
- Mitral valve
- Aortic valve

LUNGS**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 66-year-old man with a smoking history of one pack per day for the past 47 years presents with history of progressive shortness of breath and chronic cough, and production of yellowish sputum for 2 years. On examination, he has moderate respiratory distress, pursed lip breathing. He has a barrel chest and his neck veins are dilated. Lung examination reveals poor air entry bilaterally with moderate inspiratory and expiratory wheeze. Heart and abdominal examination are within normal limits. A chest X-ray was taken and a provisional diagnosis of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease was made.

a) Explain the relations of apex of lungs

Apex of lung

- Projects into root of neck about 2.5 cm above medial one-third of clavicle.
- Covered by cervical pleura and suprapleural membrane.

Relations**Anterior**

- Subclavian vein

Posterior

- Neck of first rib
- First thoracic vertebra

Medial

- Trachea

- Esophagus
- Thoracic duct (left)
- Sympathetic trunk

Lateral

- Scalenus medius

Superior

- Subclavian artery
- Lower trunk of brachial plexus

Applied anatomy

- Pancoast tumor may involve brachial plexus.
- Cervical pleura may be injured during root of neck procedures.

b) Enumerate the divisions and cells of Tracheo Bronchial tree

Divisions of tracheobronchial tree

1. Trachea
2. Main bronchi
3. Lobar bronchi
4. Segmental bronchi
5. Bronchioles
6. Terminal bronchioles
7. Respiratory bronchioles
8. Alveolar ducts
9. Alveolar sacs
10. Alveoli

Cells

1. Ciliated columnar cells
2. Goblet cells
3. Basal cells
4. Brush cells
5. Neuroendocrine cells
6. Clara (club) cells
7. Type I pneumocytes
8. Type II pneumocytes

9. Alveolar macrophages

c) Describe bronchopulmonary segment

Definition

A bronchopulmonary segment is a wedge-shaped subdivision of lung supplied by a segmental bronchus and a branch of pulmonary artery.

Features

1. Functionally independent.
2. Separated by connective tissue septa.
3. Veins are intersegmental.
4. Pyramid shaped.
5. Apex toward hilum and base toward surface.

Segments of right lung

- Upper lobe: apical, posterior, anterior
- Middle lobe: lateral, medial
- Lower lobe: superior, medial basal, anterior basal, lateral basal, posterior basal

Segments of left lung

- Upper lobe: apicoposterior, anterior
- Lingula: superior lingular, inferior lingular
- Lower lobe: superior, anteromedial basal, lateral basal, posterior basal

Surgical importance

- Segmentectomy possible because segments are independent.

d) Briefly describe the histology of lung

Histology

1. Bronchi lined by pseudostratified ciliated columnar epithelium.
2. Cartilage plates present in bronchi.
3. Bronchioles lack cartilage and glands.
4. Terminal bronchioles lined by cuboidal epithelium.
5. Alveoli lined by:
 - Type I pneumocytes
 - Type II pneumocytes
6. Inter-alveolar septum contains capillaries and elastic fibers.
7. Alveolar macrophages present.

Functions

- Gas exchange
- Surfactant production

2. A patient was brought with a history of difficulty in breathing and breathlessness to a clinic. On auscultation creps were noted on both sides of the chest.

•Name the organs involved.

•Write on external features of the organ and its coverings

•Write on the differences between right and left side of the organ

•Write a note on bronchial tree and bronchopulmonary segments

Organs involved

- Right lung
- Left lung

External features of lungs

Apex

	Projects into neck.	Right lung	Left lung								
Base		fissures	fissure								
		No cardiac notch	Cardiac notch present								
	Concave diaphragmatic surface.	10 segments	8–10 segments								
Surfaces		Shorter and wider	Longer and narrower								
	- Costal surface - Mediastinal surface - Diaphragmatic surface	Bronchial tree									
Borders		- Trachea divides into right and left main bronchi. - Main bronchi divide into lobar bronchi. - Lobar bronchi divide into segmental bronchi. - Further divisions form bronchioles and alveoli.									
	- Anterior - Posterior - Inferior										
Fissures		Bronchopulmonary segments									
	- Right lung: oblique and horizontal fissures - Left lung: oblique fissure	Definition									
Coverings		Functionally independent lung units supplied by segmental bronchi.									
Pleura		Features									
	- Visceral pleura - Parietal pleura	- Wedge shaped - Separated by connective tissue - Surgically resectable									
Parts of parietal pleura											
	- Costal - Diaphragmatic - Mediastinal - Cervical	SHORT ESSAYS									
		1. Explain the subdivisions, innervation and recesses of pleura									
Differences between right and left lungs		Pleura									
	<table><tr><td>Right lung</td><td>Left lung</td></tr><tr><td>Larger and heavier</td><td>Smaller and lighter</td></tr><tr><td>3 lobes</td><td>2 lobes</td></tr><tr><td>Horizontal and oblique</td><td>Only oblique</td></tr></table>	Right lung	Left lung	Larger and heavier	Smaller and lighter	3 lobes	2 lobes	Horizontal and oblique	Only oblique	Pleura is a serous membrane covering lungs and thoracic cavity.	
Right lung	Left lung										
Larger and heavier	Smaller and lighter										
3 lobes	2 lobes										
Horizontal and oblique	Only oblique										
		Subdivisions									
		Visceral pleura									

- Covers lungs.

Parietal pleura

1. Costal pleura
2. Mediastinal pleura
3. Diaphragmatic pleura
4. Cervical pleura

Innervation

Visceral pleura

- Autonomic nerves
- Insensitive to pain

Parietal pleura

- Intercostal nerves
- Phrenic nerve
- Pain sensitive

Pleural recesses

1. Costodiaphragmatic recess
2. Costomediastinal recess

Applied anatomy

- Pleural effusion
- Thoracocentesis

2. Pleura and pleural recesses

Pleura

Serous membrane consisting of visceral and parietal layers.

Pleural cavity

Potential space containing pleural fluid.

Pleural recesses

1. Costodiaphragmatic recess

- Between costal and diaphragmatic pleura.
- Largest recess.

2. Costomediastinal recess

- Between costal and mediastinal pleura.
- More prominent on left side.

Functions

- Allows free movement of lungs.

Applied anatomy

- Fluid accumulates in costodiaphragmatic recess.

3. Describe the recesses of pleura and their clinical significance.

Recesses

1. Costodiaphragmatic recess
2. Costomediastinal recess

Costodiaphragmatic recess

- Between diaphragm and thoracic wall.
- Deepest part of pleural cavity.

Costomediastinal recess

- Near sternum.
- Larger on left side because of cardiac notch.

Clinical significance

- Pleural fluid accumulates in recesses.
- Thoracocentesis done in costodiaphragmatic recess.
- Pneumothorax affects pleural cavity.

4. Briefly describe bronchopulmonary segment. Name the broncho-pulmonary segments in each lung. Write about their surgical importance.

Definition

Bronchopulmonary segment is a functionally independent part of lung supplied by a segmental bronchus.

Features

- Pyramid shaped
- Separated by septa
- Veins intersegmental

Right lung segments

1. Apical
2. Posterior
3. Anterior
4. Lateral
5. Medial
6. Superior
7. Medial basal
8. Anterior basal
9. Lateral basal
10. Posterior basal

Left lung segments

1. Apicoposterior
2. Anterior
3. Superior lingular
4. Inferior lingular
5. Superior
6. Anteromedial basal
7. Lateral basal
8. Posterior basal

Surgical importance

- Segmentectomy possible.
- Disease may remain localized to one segment.

5. Bronchopulmonary segments

Definition

Anatomically and functionally independent subdivisions of lung.

Features

- Supplied by segmental bronchus.
- Supplied by pulmonary artery branch.
- Drained by intersegmental veins.

Importance

- Surgical resection possible.

6. Broncho pulmonary segments of left lung

Segments

1. Apicoposterior
2. Anterior
3. Superior lingular
4. Inferior lingular
5. Superior
6. Anteromedial basal
7. Lateral basal
8. Posterior basal

Features

- Supplied by segmental bronchi.
- Surgically independent.

7. Medial surface of left lung

Features

- Concave mediastinal surface.
- Large cardiac impression.
- Hilum present.

Impressions

- Arch of aorta
- Descending thoracic aorta
- Left subclavian artery
- Esophagus
- Cardiac impression

Hilum contents

- Pulmonary artery
- Bronchi
- Pulmonary veins
- Bronchial vessels
- Lymphatics

8. Pleura- parts, innervations and applied aspects

Parts

1. Visceral pleura
2. Parietal pleura
 - Costal
 - Diaphragmatic
 - Mediastinal
 - Cervical

Innervation

- Visceral: autonomic fibers
- Parietal: intercostal and phrenic nerves

Applied aspects

- Pleurisy
- Pleural effusion
- Pneumothorax
- Thoracocentesis

9. Pleural recesses

Types

1. Costodiaphragmatic recess
2. Costomediastinal recess

Importance

- Sites of fluid collection.
- Important for pleural tapping.

10. Mediastinal surface of right lung

Features

- Concave surface facing mediastinum.
- Hilum present centrally.

Impressions

- Superior vena cava
- Inferior vena cava
- Arch of azygos vein
- Esophagus
- Right atrium

Hilum contents

- Bronchus
- Pulmonary artery
- Pulmonary veins

SHORT NOTES

1. Parietal pleura

Definition

Outer layer of pleura lining thoracic cavity.

Parts

1. Costal
2. Mediastinal
3. Diaphragmatic
4. Cervical

Blood supply

- Intercostal arteries

- Pericardiophrenic artery

Nerve supply

- Intercostal nerves
- Phrenic nerve

Applied anatomy

- Pain sensitive.

2. Pleura

Definition

Serous membrane enclosing lungs.

Layers

- Visceral pleura
- Parietal pleura

Functions

- Reduces friction.
- Maintains negative pressure.

Applied anatomy

- Pleurisy
- Pleural effusion

3. Left lung

Features

- Smaller and narrower.
- Two lobes.
- Oblique fissure.
- Cardiac notch and lingula present.

Surfaces

- Costal
- Mediastinal
- Diaphragmatic

Hilum contents

- Bronchus
- Pulmonary artery
- Pulmonary veins

DRAW AND LABEL

4. Mediastinal surface of right lung

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels:

- Apex
- Base
- Hilum
- Superior vena cava impression
- Arch of azygos vein
- Esophageal groove
- Cardiac impression
- Oblique fissure
- Horizontal fissure

5. Mediastinal surface of left lung

Labels:

- Apex
- Base
- Cardiac notch
- Hilum
- Aortic arch impression
- Descending aorta groove
- Cardiac impression
- Oblique fissure
- Lingula

6. Medial surface of right lung

Labels:

- Hilum
- Superior vena cava groove
- Arch of azygos vein
- Cardiac impression

- Esophageal groove
- Oblique fissure
- Horizontal fissure

POSTERIOR MEDIASTINUM

SHORT ESSAYS

1. What are the boundaries and Contents of Posterior Mediastinum

Boundaries

Anterior

- Pericardium and diaphragm

Posterior

- T5–T12 vertebrae

Superior

- Transverse thoracic plane

Inferior

- Diaphragm

Lateral

- Mediastinal pleura

Contents

1. Descending thoracic aorta
2. Esophagus
3. Thoracic duct
4. Azygos vein
5. Hemiazygos vein
6. Sympathetic trunks
7. Splanchnic nerves
8. Lymph nodes

2. Azygos vein

Formation

Union of right ascending lumbar vein and right subcostal vein.

Course

Ascends through posterior mediastinum and arches over root of right lung.

Termination

Opens into superior vena cava.

Tributaries

- Right posterior intercostal veins
- Hemiazygos vein
- Accessory hemiazygos vein
- Esophageal veins
- Bronchial veins

Importance

Provides collateral circulation.

3. Thoracic part of oesophagus

Extent

From T4 to T10 vertebral levels.

Relations

Anterior

- Trachea
- Left bronchus
- Pericardium

Posterior

- Vertebral column
- Thoracic duct
- Azygos vein

Right

- Azygos vein

Left

- Aortic arch
- Descending thoracic aorta

Blood supply

- Esophageal branches of aorta.

Applied anatomy

- Esophageal varices.

4. Cervical and Thoracic part of oesophagus**Cervical part****Extent**

From C6 to thoracic inlet.

Relations

- Trachea anteriorly
- Vertebral column posteriorly
- Recurrent laryngeal nerves laterally

5. Esophagus – vertebral extent, constrictions, relations in thoracic cavity and applied aspects**Vertebral extent**

- C6 to T11.

Constrictions

1. At commencement – 15 cm
2. Crossed by aortic arch – 22.5 cm
3. Crossed by left bronchus – 27.5 cm

4. At diaphragm – 40 cm**Applied aspects**

- Foreign body impaction
- Varices
- Carcinoma
- Achalasia cardia

ABDOMEN AND PELVIS**ANTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL AND INGUINAL CANAL****LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 65-year-old man with chronic history of cough and constipation complained he noticed a gradually increasing swelling in the right groin and feels a dragging sensation at that site. On examination, it was noticed a globular swelling above the pubic tubercle which increased in size on coughing. The patient was diagnosed to have Inguinal hernia.

a) Based on the anatomical knowledge, what are the reasons for swellings in the groin region

Causes of groin swelling

1. Inguinal hernia
2. Femoral hernia
3. Enlarged inguinal lymph nodes
4. Saphena varix
5. Undescended testis
6. Lipoma of spermatic cord
7. Femoral artery aneurysm

b) What are the boundaries of Inguinal canal

Inguinal canal

An oblique intermuscular passage in lower anterior abdominal wall.

Extent

- Deep inguinal ring to superficial inguinal ring.

Boundaries

Anterior wall

- External oblique aponeurosis
- Internal oblique laterally

Posterior wall

- Transversalis fascia
- Conjoint tendon medially

Roof

- Arching fibers of internal oblique and transversus abdominis

Floor

- Inguinal ligament
- Lacunar ligament medially

c) What are the contents of Inguinal canal

Contents

Male

1. Spermatic cord
2. Ilioinguinal nerve

Female

1. Round ligament of uterus
2. Ilioinguinal nerve

d) What are factors which maintain the Integrity of Inguinal canal

Factors maintaining integrity

1. Obliquity of canal
2. Shutter mechanism
3. Slit valve mechanism
4. Ball valve mechanism
5. Flap valve mechanism
6. Conjoint tendon strength

e) What is Hesselbach's triangle

Hesselbach's triangle

Boundaries

- Medial: lateral border of rectus abdominis
- Lateral: inferior epigastric vessels
- Inferior: inguinal ligament

Importance

- Site of direct inguinal hernia.

2. Describe the inguinal canal under the following headings:

•Boundaries and contents.

•Anatomical protective mechanisms for prevention of inguinal hernia.

•Anatomical basis of two types of inguinal hernia.

•What are the coverings of inguinal hernia.

Contents

Male

- Spermatic cord
- Ilioinguinal nerve

Female

- Round ligament of uterus
- Ilioinguinal nerve

Protective mechanisms

1. Oblique canal
2. Shutter mechanism
3. Slit valve mechanism
4. Ball valve mechanism
5. Flap valve mechanism

Types of inguinal hernia

Indirect inguinal hernia

- Passes through deep ring.
- Lateral to inferior epigastric vessels.
- May descend into scrotum.
- Congenital/common in young.

Direct inguinal hernia

- Through posterior wall of canal.
- Medial to inferior epigastric vessels.
- Through Hesselbach's triangle.
- Usually acquired in old age.

Coverings of inguinal hernia

1. Skin
2. Superficial fascia
3. External spermatic fascia
4. Cremasteric fascia
5. Internal spermatic fascia
6. Extraperitoneal tissue
7. Peritoneal sac

3. A 70-year-old man presented with a swelling in the inguinal region on both the sides. He had cough since two months. The swelling reduces on rest and bulges on coughing.

• Which is the canal through which swelling is appearing.

• Write about boundaries of the canal and contents of the canal

• What are the factors which presents the swelling in the normal individuals

• Write on Hesselbach's triangle

Canal involved

- Inguinal canal.

Preventive factors

1. Obliquity of canal
2. Shutter mechanism
3. Slit valve mechanism
4. Ball valve mechanism
5. Flap valve mechanism

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the muscles, nerves and vessels of anterior abdominal wall.

Muscles

Flat muscles

1. External oblique
2. Internal oblique
3. Transversus abdominis

Vertical muscles

1. Rectus abdominis
2. Pyramidalis

Nerves

- Lower six thoracic nerves
- Subcostal nerve
- Iliohypogastric nerve

- Ilioinguinal nerve

Arteries

- Superior epigastric
- Inferior epigastric
- Musculophrenic
- Deep circumflex iliac

Veins

Corresponding veins drain into systemic veins.

2. Explain the formation & contents of rectus sheath

Rectus sheath

Fibrous sheath enclosing rectus abdominis.

Formation above costal margin

- Only anterior wall by external oblique aponeurosis.

Between costal margin and arcuate line

Anterior wall

- External oblique
- Anterior lamina of internal oblique

Posterior wall

- Posterior lamina of internal oblique
- Transversus abdominis aponeurosis

Below arcuate line

- All aponeuroses pass anteriorly.
- Posterior wall absent.

Contents

1. Rectus abdominis
2. Pyramidalis
3. Superior and inferior epigastric vessels
4. Terminal parts of thoracoabdominal nerves

Applied anatomy

- Rectus sheath hematoma
- Incisions through linea alba

3. Inguinal canal - extent, boundaries, contents and applied anatomy

Extent

- Deep to superficial inguinal ring.

Applied anatomy

- Inguinal hernia.
- Hydrocele of cord.

SHORT NOTES

1. Rectus abdominis muscle

Origin

- Pubic crest and pubic symphysis.

Insertion

- Xiphoid process and 5th–7th costal cartilages.

Nerve supply

- Lower six thoracic nerves.

Actions

- Flexes trunk.

- Compresses abdominal viscera.

Applied anatomy

- Divarication of recti.

2. What is the anatomical basis of umbilical hernia

Anatomical basis

- Weakness at umbilical ring.
- Increased intra-abdominal pressure.
- Common in infants and obese adults.

Types

- Congenital
- Acquired

Applied anatomy

- Herniation of abdominal contents through umbilicus.

3. Anatomical basis of inguinal hernia

Causes

- Weakness of abdominal wall.
- Patent processus vaginalis.
- Raised intra-abdominal pressure.

Types

1. Indirect inguinal hernia
2. Direct inguinal hernia

Applied anatomy

- Common in males.

4. Extent and contents of spermatic cord.

Extent

From deep inguinal ring to testis.

Contents

1. Ductus deferens
2. Testicular artery
3. Pampiniform plexus
4. Cremasteric artery
5. Artery to vas deferens
6. Genital branch of genitofemoral nerve
7. Lymphatics
8. Remnant of processus vaginalis

5. Rectus sheath

Definition

Fibrous sheath enclosing rectus abdominis.

Contents

- Rectus abdominis
- Pyramidalis
- Epigastric vessels

PERITONEUM

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Lesser sac

Definition

Lesser sac (omental bursa) is a part of peritoneal cavity situated behind stomach and lesser omentum.

Boundaries

Anterior

- Stomach

- Lesser omentum

Posterior

- Pancreas
- Left kidney
- Left suprarenal gland

Superior

- Caudate lobe of liver

Inferior

- Greater omentum

Left

- Spleen and gastrosplenic ligament

Right

- Epiploic foramen

Communications

Communicates with greater sac through epiploic foramen.

Applied anatomy

- Internal herniation.
- Collection of fluid.

SHORT NOTES

1. Mention the boundaries of epiploic foramen and its clinical anatomy

Boundaries

Anterior

- Free margin of lesser omentum containing portal triad

Posterior

- Inferior vena cava

Superior

- Caudate lobe of liver

Inferior

- First part of duodenum

Clinical anatomy

- Entrance into lesser sac.
- Pringle maneuver compresses hepatic artery.

2. Epiploic foramen

Definition

Communication between greater and lesser sacs.

Importance

- Surgical access to lesser sac.

3. Clinical anatomy of pouch of Douglas

Pouch of Douglas

Rectouterine pouch in females.

Clinical importance

- Lowest part of peritoneal cavity in females.
- Fluid accumulates here.
- Culdocentesis performed through posterior fornix.

4. Sub diaphragmatic recesses

Types

1. Right subphrenic space
2. Left subphrenic space

Importance

- Site for collection of pus or fluid.

5. Recto uterine pouch with applied aspects**Definition**

Peritoneal pouch between rectum and uterus.

Boundaries

- Anterior: uterus
- Posterior: rectum

Applied aspects

- Fluid accumulation.
- Culdocentesis.

STOMACH, DUODENUM, SMALL INTESTINE AND LARGE INTESTINE**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 14-year-old girl was brought to the hospital with complaints of fever, vomiting and acute pain around umbilicus. On examination, the surgeon found that she was having maximum tenderness at Mc Burney's point. From the history and examination, he came to the diagnosis of acute appendicitis. Based on your anatomical knowledge, answer the following questions

a. Why is pain felt around umbilicus b. Where is Mc Burney's point c. What are the various positions of vermiform appendix d. Briefly describe the blood

supply, development and microscopy of vermiform appendix.

Answer

a. Why is pain felt around umbilicus

Appendix develops from midgut.

Visceral afferent fibers enter spinal cord at T10 segment.

Therefore pain is referred to umbilical region.

b. Where is Mc Burney's point

Junction of lateral one-third and medial two-third of line joining umbilicus and right anterior superior iliac spine.

Base of appendix lies here.

c. Various positions of vermiform appendix

Retrocecal – most common

Pelvic

Subcecal

Preileal

Postileal

Paracecal

d. Blood supply, development and microscopy of vermiform appendix

Blood Supply

Artery

Appendicular artery from ileocolic artery.

Vein

Appendicular vein drains into superior mesenteric vein.

Lymphatics

Drain into ileocolic lymph nodes.

Development

Develops from postarterial segment of midgut loop.

Appears as diverticulum from cecal bud.

Microscopy

Mucosa lined by simple columnar epithelium.

Numerous lymphoid follicles in submucosa.

Muscular coat with inner circular and outer longitudinal layers.

Serosa covers appendix completely.

2. During endoscopy, the doctor identified an ulcer in the organ situated in epigastric region, identified as stomach. Describe stomach under following headings:

a) Presenting parts and relations b) blood supply and lymphatic drainage c) applied aspects

Answer

Presenting Parts

Cardia

Fundus

Body

Pyloric part

Relations of Stomach

Anterior relations

Left lobe of liver

Diaphragm

Anterior abdominal wall

Posterior relations (stomach bed)

Diaphragm

Spleen

Left kidney

Left suprarenal gland

Pancreas

Splenic artery

Transverse mesocolon

Blood Supply

Arteries

Left gastric artery

Right gastric artery

Right gastroepiploic artery

Left gastroepiploic artery

Short gastric arteries	Parts
Veins	Base
Correspond to arteries and drain into portal vein.	Body
Lymphatic Drainage	Tip
Along gastric and gastroepiploic vessels.	Peritoneal fold
Ultimately drains to celiac lymph nodes.	Mesoappendix.
Applied Aspects	b. Positions of appendix
Peptic ulcer	Retrocecal
Carcinoma stomach	Pelvic
Hematemesis due to gastric ulcer.	Subcecal
	Preileal
	Postileal
3. A 12 year old boy was brought to the casualty with complaints of fever, vomiting and periumbilical abdominal pain. On examination, his abdomen was rigid and there was tenderness at the Mc. Burney's point.	c. Mc Burney's point
a) Name the parts and peritoneal folds of the organ likely to be affected in the boy	Junction of lateral one-third and medial two-third of spino-umbilical line.
b) What are the various positions of the organ	d. Blood supply and microscopic structure
c) Where is Mc. Burney's point	Blood supply
d) Describe the blood supply and microscopic structures of the organ affected	Appendicular artery from ileocolic artery.
Answer	Vein drains into superior mesenteric vein.
Organ affected	Microscopy
Vermiform appendix.	Simple columnar epithelium.
a. Parts and peritoneal folds	Crypts of Lieberkuhn.

Abundant lymphoid follicles.

Inner circular and outer longitudinal muscle coat.

4. A 30-year-old man came with history of upper abdominal pain and vomiting. On examination tenderness in the epigastric region was noted.

a) Which is the organ involved b) Write about the external features of the organ c) Write about the peritoneal and visceral relations of the organ d) Write on the blood supply of the organ

Answer

a. Organ involved

Stomach.

b. External features

Two surfaces – anterior and posterior

Two curvatures – greater and lesser

Two orifices – cardiac and pyloric

Parts – cardia, fundus, body and pylorus

c. Peritoneal and visceral relations

Peritoneal relations

Covered by peritoneum except along curvatures.

Lesser omentum attached to lesser curvature.

Greater omentum attached to greater curvature.

Visceral relations

Anterior

Liver

Diaphragm

Anterior abdominal wall

Posterior

Pancreas

Spleen

Left kidney

Left suprarenal gland

d. Blood supply

Left and right gastric arteries.

Left and right gastroepiploic arteries.

Short gastric arteries.

Veins drain into portal system.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Blood supply and lymphatic drainage of stomach.

Answer

Arterial Supply

Left gastric artery

Right gastric artery

Left gastroepiploic artery

Right gastroepiploic artery

Short gastric arteries**Venous Drainage**

Veins correspond to arteries.

Drain into portal vein directly or indirectly.

Lymphatic Drainage

Along lesser curvature → gastric nodes

Along greater curvature → gastroepiploic nodes

Fundus → pancreaticosplenic nodes

Ultimately drains to celiac nodes.

Applied Anatomy

Metastasis occurs through lymphatics.

2. Duodenum – parts, relations, openings, blood supply**Answer****Parts**

First part – 5 cm

Second part – 7.5 cm

Third part – 10 cm

Fourth part – 2.5 cm

Relations of Second Part**Anterior**

Liver

Transverse colon**Posterior**

Right kidney

Inferior vena cava

Medial

Head of pancreas

Openings

Major duodenal papilla

Minor duodenal papilla

Blood Supply

Superior pancreaticoduodenal artery

Inferior pancreaticoduodenal artery

3. Parts lymphatic drainage development of stomach**Answer****Parts**

Cardia

Fundus

Body

Pylorus

Lymphatic drainage

Drains to gastric, pancreaticosplenic and pyloric nodes.

Ultimately to celiac nodes.

Development**Develops from foregut.****Rotation produces greater and lesser curvatures.****4. Stomach – relations, blood supply and lymphatic drainage****Answer****Relations****Anterior****Liver****Diaphragm****Anterior abdominal wall****Posterior****Pancreas****Spleen****Left kidney****Splenic artery****Blood Supply****Left and right gastric arteries****Left and right gastroepiploic arteries****Short gastric arteries****Lymphatic Drainage****Gastric nodes****Gastroepiploic nodes****Pancreaticosplenic nodes****Celiac nodes****5. Gross anatomy, interior, blood supply and development of second part of duodenum****Answer****Gross Anatomy****Descends from L1 to L3 vertebra.****Receives bile and pancreatic ducts.****Interior****Major duodenal papilla.****Minor duodenal papilla.****Circular folds.****Blood Supply****Superior pancreaticoduodenal artery.****Inferior pancreaticoduodenal artery.****Development****Develops from foregut and midgut.****6. Second part of duodenum****Answer****Features****Vertical part of duodenum.****Extends from L1 to L3.****Related to head of pancreas.**

Openings**Major duodenal papilla.****Minor duodenal papilla.****Blood Supply****Pancreaticoduodenal arteries.****7. Duodenum****Answer****Parts****First****Second****Third****Fourth****Blood Supply****Superior and inferior
pancreaticoduodenal arteries.****Functions****Receives bile and pancreatic
secretions.****Applied Anatomy****Duodenal ulcer commonly in first
part.****8. Vermiform appendix****Answer****Features****Narrow worm-like diverticulum.****Arises from posteromedial wall of
cecum.****Average length 9 cm.****Blood Supply****Appendicular artery.****Positions****Retrocecal most common.****Applied Anatomy****Acute appendicitis.****SHORT NOTES****1. Origin, course and branches of
superior mesenteric artery****Answer****Origin****Arises from abdominal aorta at L1.****Course****Passes behind neck of pancreas.****Crosses third part of duodenum.****Enters mesentery.****Branches****Inferior pancreaticoduodenal****Jejunal branches****Ileal branches****Ileocolic artery**

Right colic artery

Middle colic artery

2. Explain the various positions of vermiform appendix and its applied anatomy

Answer

Positions

Retrocecal

Pelvic

Subcecal

Preileal

Postileal

Applied Anatomy

Site of pain depends on position.

Retrocecal appendix may produce less tenderness.

3. Lesser omentum

Answer

Definition

Double layer of peritoneum extending from liver to lesser curvature of stomach and first part of duodenum.

Parts

Hepatogastric ligament

Hepatoduodenal ligament

Contents of hepatoduodenal ligament

Portal vein

Hepatic artery

Bile duct

4. Superior mesenteric artery

Answer

Arises from abdominal aorta at L1.

Supplies midgut structures.

Gives jejunal, ileal, ileocolic, right colic and middle colic branches.

5. Transpyloric plane

Answer

Horizontal plane midway between suprasternal notch and pubic symphysis.

Lies at level of L1 vertebra.

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Structures at this level

Pylorus

Neck of pancreas

Origin of superior mesenteric artery

Fundus of gallbladder

Hilum of kidneys

6. Coeliac trunk

Answer

Origin

Arises from abdominal aorta at T12 vertebral level.

Course

Short artery about 1.25 cm long.

Divides into three terminal branches.

Branches

Left gastric artery

Splenic artery

Common hepatic artery

Distribution

Supplies foregut derivatives.

Applied Anatomy

Compression may cause abdominal angina.

7. Lymphatic drainage of stomach

Answer

Lymph Nodes

Left gastric nodes

Right gastric nodes

Left gastroepiploic nodes

Right gastroepiploic nodes

Pancreaticosplenic nodes

Pyloric nodes

Final Drainage

All drain ultimately into celiac lymph nodes.

Applied Anatomy

Spread of carcinoma stomach through lymphatics.

8. Second part of duodenum

Answer

Extent

Extends from L1 to L3 vertebra.

Relations

Anterior

Liver

Transverse colon

Posterior

Right kidney

Inferior vena cava

Medial

Head of pancreas

Interior Features

Major duodenal papilla

Minor duodenal papilla

Applied Anatomy

Common site for opening of bile duct and pancreatic duct.

9. Positions of appendix

Answer	PANCREAS, LIVER, BILIARY APPARATUS, SPLEEN AND PORTAL VEIN
Positions	
Retrocecal – most common	LONG ESSAYS
Pelvic	1. During an abdominal surgery, the doctor observed a ring of pancreatic tissue surrounding the duodenum and obstructing it. Describe pancreas under
Subcecal	
Preileal	a) Gross features b) Relations c) Development d) Microscopic structure
Postileal	
Paracecal	Answer
Applied Anatomy	Gross Features
Symptoms vary according to position.	Soft lobulated gland.
10. Vermiform appendix	Extends from duodenum to spleen.
Answer	Parts: head, neck, body and tail.
Features	Relations
Narrow worm-like diverticulum arising from cecum.	Head
Average length 9 cm.	Lies within curve of duodenum.
Base attached to posteromedial wall of cecum.	Posteriorly related to inferior vena cava and bile duct.
Blood Supply	Neck
Appendicular artery.	Portal vein formed behind neck.
Lymphatic Drainage	Body
Ileocolic lymph nodes.	Related posteriorly to aorta, left kidney and splenic vein.
Applied Anatomy	Tail
Acute appendicitis.	Lies in lienorenal ligament near spleen.

Development

Develops from dorsal and ventral pancreatic buds.

Annular pancreas due to abnormal migration of ventral bud.

Microscopic Structure

Exocrine acini lined by pyramidal cells.

Endocrine islets of Langerhans.

Alpha, beta and delta cells present.

2. Describe the pancreas under following headings:

• Situation and parts. • Relations. • Blood supply. • Duct system. • Lymphatic drainage. • Development.

Answer**Situation and Parts**

Retroperitoneal gland extending across posterior abdominal wall.

Parts: head, neck, body and tail.

Relations**Head**

Duodenum surrounds head.

Neck

Portal vein behind neck.

Body

Crossed anteriorly by stomach.

Tail

Related to spleen.

Blood Supply

Splenic artery branches.

Superior and inferior pancreaticoduodenal arteries.

Duct System

Main pancreatic duct joins bile duct.

Opens at major duodenal papilla.

Accessory duct opens at minor papilla.

Lymphatic Drainage

Pancreaticosplenic and superior mesenteric nodes.

Development

From dorsal and ventral pancreatic buds.

3. A 43-year-old fair lady reported to surgery outpatient department with a history of intense pain in the upper-right side of the abdomen, often accompanied by nausea and vomiting, that steadily increases for approximately 30 minutes to several hours. She also had pain between the shoulder blades or below the right shoulder. She could correlate the attacks often occurred after a particularly fatty meal and almost always happen at night. Other symptoms included abdominal bloating, intolerance of fatty foods, belching, gas, and indigestion. On examination, Murphy's sign was positive liver function tests were mildly abnormal.

Ultrasound revealed presence of stones in gall bladder.

• What is murphy's sign. • Gross anatomy of extrahepatic biliary apparatus with neat labelled diagram. • Arterial supply of extrahepatic biliary apparatus. • Histology of gall bladder with neat labelled diagram • Relations of the inferior surface of liver

Answer

Murphy's Sign

Pain during inspiration on palpation of gallbladder region due to acute cholecystitis.

Extrahepatic Biliary Apparatus

Components

Right hepatic duct

Left hepatic duct

Common hepatic duct

Gallbladder

Cystic duct

Bile duct

Gallbladder

Parts

Fundus

Body

Neck

Bile Duct

Formed by union of common hepatic and cystic ducts.

Opens into second part of duodenum.

Arterial Supply

Cystic artery from right hepatic artery.

Bile duct supplied by hepatic and gastroduodenal arteries.

Histology of Gallbladder

Mucosa with tall columnar epithelium.

Lamina propria present.

Muscular layer irregular.

No submucosa.

Outer serosa/adventitia.

Relations of Inferior Surface of Liver

Stomach

Duodenum

Gallbladder

Right colic flexure

Right kidney

Suprarenal gland

4. A 55-year-old male presented to the casualty with vomiting of blood. On clinical examination there was an enlarged organ in his right hypochondrium. Also dilated veins were visible in the umbilical region. With your

knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions

- Name the organ enlarged • What could be the reason for vomiting of blood and dilated veins in umbilical region. • Give the important relations of the organ • Give the blood supply of the organ • Microscopic structure of the organ

Answer

Organ enlarged

Liver.

Reason for hematemesis and dilated veins

Portal hypertension.

Esophageal varices cause hematemesis.

Dilated paraumbilical veins produce caput medusae.

Relations of Liver

Diaphragmatic surface

Diaphragm

Pleura

Lungs

Visceral surface

Stomach

Duodenum

Right kidney

Gallbladder

Blood Supply

Hepatic artery.

Portal vein.

Microscopic Structure

Classical hepatic lobules.

Central vein in center.

Hepatocytes arranged in cords.

Sinusoids between cords.

Portal triad at periphery.

5. A 50 years old man came to the casualty with complaints of pain in the abdomen. Diagnostic tests revealed abnormal liver function tests. Answer the following:

- extent and parts of liver • relations • peritoneal reflections • blood supply • applied aspects

Answer

Extent and Parts

Largest gland in body.

Occupies right hypochondrium, epigastrium and part of left hypochondrium.

Anatomical Lobes

Right lobe

Left lobe

Caudate lobe

Quadrant lobe	vague pain in the epigastric region. He also had a history of bleeding per rectum. Radiological examination revealed an abnormal growth of head and neck of pancreas. Answer the following
Relations	
Diaphragmatic surface	
Diaphragm	• Name the structure that would have been compressed by the pancreatic growth • Give formation, course, relations and termination of this structure • Name all possible sites where there could be dilated veins, giving the names of the veins involved with reasons and clinical implications • What are the other structures that are likely to be compressed by the growth • Mention the sources of development of the pancreas
Right pleura and lung	
Visceral surface	
Stomach	
Duodenum	
Kidney	
Gallbladder	Answer
Peritoneal Reflections	Structure compressed
Falciform ligament	Portal vein.
Coronary ligament	Formation
Triangular ligaments	Formed behind neck of pancreas by union of superior mesenteric and splenic veins.
Lesser omentum	
Blood Supply	Course
Hepatic artery	Passes behind first part of duodenum.
Portal vein	Runs in hepatoduodenal ligament.
Applied Aspects	Relations
Cirrhosis	Anterior
Portal hypertension	Neck of pancreas
Liver abscess	First part of duodenum
6. A 65 years old man presented with dilated veins around the umbilicus and	Posterior

Inferior vena cava**Termination**

Ends at porta hepatis by dividing into right and left branches.

Sites of Portocaval Anastomosis**Lower end of esophagus**

Left gastric with azygos veins.

Causes esophageal varices.

Around umbilicus

Paraumbilical with superficial epigastric veins.

Causes caput medusae.

Anal canal

Superior rectal with middle and inferior rectal veins.

Causes hemorrhoids.

Retroperitoneal region

Colic veins with lumbar veins.

Other Structures Compressed

Bile duct

Inferior vena cava

Duodenum

Development of Pancreas

Ventral pancreatic bud

Dorsal pancreatic bud

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the gross features and relations of components of extrahepatic biliary apparatus.

Answer**Components**

Hepatic ducts

Gallbladder

Cystic duct

Bile duct

Gallbladder**Parts**

Fundus

Body

Neck

Relations

Superiorly related to liver.

Inferiorly related to transverse colon and duodenum.

Bile duct Relations

Lies in hepatoduodenal ligament.

Passes behind first part of duodenum.

Lies in groove on pancreas.

2. Describe pancreas under the following headings: Development, blood supply and ducts of pancreas.

Answer**Development**

Develops from dorsal and ventral pancreatic buds.

Fusion forms pancreas.

Blood Supply

Splenic artery branches.

Pancreaticoduodenal arteries.

Ducts

Main pancreatic duct.

Accessory pancreatic duct.

3. Describe the development and microscopy of pancreas.

Answer**Development**

From dorsal and ventral pancreatic buds of foregut.

Ventral bud forms uncinate process and part of head.

Microscopy**Exocrine part**

Serous acini.

Endocrine part

Islets of Langerhans.

Alpha and beta cells.

4. Describe the Gall bladder under the following

a) Location b) Parts c) Applied anatomy

Answer**Location**

Gallbladder lies in fossa on inferior surface of liver.

Parts

Fundus

Body

Neck

Applied Anatomy

Cholelithiasis

Cholecystitis

Murphy's sign positive in acute inflammation.

5. Portosystemic anastomosis with clinical significance

Answer**Sites**

Esophagus

Umbilicus

Anal canal

Retroperitoneal areas

Clinical Significance

Portal hypertension causes varices.

Hematemesis from esophageal varices.

Caput medusae around umbilicus.

Hemorrhoids in anal canal.

6. Portocaval anastomosis- sites, vessels involved and applied importance

Answer

Sites and Veins

Esophagus – left gastric and azygos veins

Umbilicus – paraumbilical and superficial epigastric veins

Anal canal – superior rectal and middle/inferior rectal veins

Retroperitoneal – colic and lumbar veins

Applied Importance

Seen in portal hypertension.

7. Spleen - surfaces, relations and blood supply

Answer

Surfaces

Diaphragmatic surface

Visceral surface

Visceral Impressions

Gastric impression

Renal impression

Colic impression

Pancreatic impression

Blood Supply

Splenic artery.

Splenic vein drains blood.

Applied Anatomy

Splenic rupture causes hemorrhage.

8. Pancreas - parts, relations and blood supply

Answer

Parts

Head

Neck

Body

Tail

Relations

Head within duodenum.

Tail related to spleen.

Blood Supply

Splenic artery branches.

Pancreaticoduodenal arteries.

9. Bile duct

Answer

Formation

Union of common hepatic and cystic ducts.

Course

Lies in hepatoduodenal ligament.

Passes behind first part of duodenum.

Traverses head of pancreas.

Termination

Opens into major duodenal papilla.

Applied Anatomy

Obstructive jaundice due to gallstones.

SHORT NOTES

1. Gall bladder – gross features with relations

Answer**Features**

Pear-shaped sac.

Capacity about 50 mL.

Parts

Fundus

Body

Neck

Relations

Superiorly liver.

Inferiorly transverse colon and duodenum.

2. Explain the anatomical basis of venous engorgements of anterior abdominal wall and anal canal in portal hypertension

Answer

Portal hypertension causes opening of portosystemic channels.

Paraumbilical veins enlarge producing caput medusae.

Superior rectal veins anastomose with middle and inferior rectal veins causing hemorrhoids.

3. Porta hepatis

Answer**Definition**

Transverse fissure on visceral surface of liver.

Contents

Portal vein

Hepatic artery

Hepatic ducts

Lymphatics and nerves

4. Explain anatomical basis of hematemesis and caput medusa in portal hypertension

Answer

Esophageal varices rupture causing hematemesis.

**Dilatation of paraumbilical veins
causes caput medusae.**

Due to portal hypertension.

5. Portocaval anastomoses

Answer

Sites

Esophagus

Umbilicus

Anal canal

Retroperitoneal regions

Importance

**Become enlarged in portal
hypertension.**

6. Extra hepatic biliary apparatus

Answer

Components

Right and left hepatic ducts

Common hepatic duct

Gallbladder

Cystic duct

Bile duct

Function

Conducts and stores bile.

POSTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL

SHORT NOTES

1. Inferior vena cava

Introduction

The inferior vena cava is the largest vein of the body. It drains blood from the lower half of the body into the right atrium.

Formation

Formed by union of right and left common iliac veins.

Formation occurs at the level of L5 vertebra, slightly to the right of the midline.

Course

Ascends on the right side of abdominal aorta.

Pierces the central tendon of diaphragm at T8 vertebral level.

Opens into right atrium.

Tributaries

Common iliac veins

Lumbar veins

Right gonadal vein

Renal veins

Right suprarenal vein

Inferior phrenic veins

Hepatic veins

Relations

retroperitoneally on the posterior abdominal wall.

Anterior**Anatomical structure**

Liver

Situation

First part of duodenum

Lie on posterior abdominal wall on either side of vertebral column.

Root of mesentery

Extend from T12 to L3 vertebra.

Posterior

Vertebral column

Right kidney is slightly lower than left kidney.

Right psoas major

External features

Right renal artery

Surfaces**Applied anatomy**

Anterior surface

Obstruction produces edema of lower limbs.

Posterior surface

Collateral circulation develops in portal hypertension.

Borders

Inferior vena cava is important in radiological procedures.

Lateral border: convex

Medial border: concave and presents hilum

KIDNEYS AND SUPRARENAL GLANDS**Poles****LONG ESSAYS**

Upper pole

1. Describe the kidney under following headings

Lower pole

- anterior relations • coverings
- microscopic structure • anatomical structure

Hilum**Kidney**

Structures from anterior to posterior:

The kidneys are paired bean-shaped excretory organs situated

Renal vein

Renal artery

Renal pelvis

Interior of kidney

Covered by fibrous capsule.

Outer cortex and inner medulla.

Medulla consists of renal pyramids.

Apex of pyramid forms papilla.

Papilla opens into minor calyx.

Minor calyces join to form major calyces.

Major calyces form renal pelvis.

Coverings of kidney**From within outwards:**

Fibrous capsule

Perirenal fat

Renal fascia

Pararenal fat

Fibrous capsule

Thin fibrous covering closely attached to kidney.

Easily stripped in healthy kidney.

Perirenal fat

Fat surrounding kidney and suprarenal gland.

Protects kidney.

Renal fascia

Anterior layer: fascia of Gerota.

Posterior layer: fascia of Zuckerkindl.

Pararenal fat

Lies outside renal fascia.

Anterior relations**Right kidney**

Right suprarenal gland

Liver

Second part of duodenum

Hepatic flexure of colon

Small intestine

Left kidney

Left suprarenal gland

Stomach

Spleen

Pancreas

Jejunum

Left colic flexure

Microscopic structure**Cortex****Contains:**

Renal corpuscles

Proximal convoluted tubules

Distal convoluted tubules

Medulla

Contains loops of Henle and collecting ducts.

Arranged into renal pyramids.

Nephron

Structural and functional unit of kidney.

Parts of nephron

Renal corpuscle

Glomerulus

Bowman's capsule

Proximal convoluted tubule

Loop of Henle

Distal convoluted tubule

Collecting tubule

Juxtaglomerular apparatus

Formed by:

Juxtaglomerular cells

Macula densa

Lacis cells

Functions

Formation of urine

Regulation of water and electrolyte balance

Acid-base balance

Endocrine functions

Applied anatomy

Hydronephrosis

Polycystic kidney

Renal calculi

Renal transplantation

2. A person was brought to casualty with a deep stab injury on the left side of back with complaints of passing frank blood in urine. Answer the following questions

- **Surface marking of left kidney •**
- Mention its coverings**
- **Relations of left kidney • Arterial supply**
- **Development**

Surface marking of left kidney

Upper end: 2.5 cm from midline at level of T11 vertebra.

Lower end: 2.5 cm from midline at L2 vertebra.

Hilum lies at transpyloric plane about 5 cm from median plane.

Kidney is represented by an oval area measuring about 11 × 6 cm.

Coverings of kidney

From within outwards:

Fibrous capsule

Perirenal fat

Renal fascia

Pararenal fat	Segmental arteries
Relations of left kidney	Apical
Anterior relations	Upper
Left suprarenal gland	Middle
Stomach	Lower
Spleen	Posterior
Pancreas	Development
Jejunum	Kidney develops from intermediate mesoderm.
Left colic flexure	Permanent kidney is metanephros.
Posterior relations	Appears in 5th week of intrauterine life.
Diaphragm	Develops from:
Psoas major	Ureteric bud
Quadratus lumborum	Metanephric blastema
Transversus abdominis	Derivatives of ureteric bud
Subcostal vessels	Ureter
Subcostal nerve	Renal pelvis
Iliohypogastric nerve	Major and minor calyces
Ilioinguinal nerve	Collecting tubules
11th and 12th ribs	Derivatives of metanephric blastema
Arterial supply	Nephrons
Supplied by renal arteries arising from abdominal aorta at L1 level.	Ascent of kidney
Left renal artery is shorter than right.	Initially pelvic in position.
Segmental arteries are end arteries.	

Ascends to lumbar region.

Applied anatomy

Congenital polycystic kidney

Horseshoe kidney

Ectopic kidney

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Right kidney - external features, vertebral extent, coverings, relations and development

External features

Surfaces

Anterior surface

Posterior surface

Borders

Lateral border convex

Medial border concave with hilum

Poles

Upper pole related to suprarenal gland

Lower pole rounded

Vertebral extent

Extends from T12 to L3 vertebra.

Right kidney lies slightly lower than left kidney.

Coverings

From within outwards:

Fibrous capsule

Perirenal fat

Renal fascia

Pararenal fat

Relations

Anterior relations

Right suprarenal gland

Liver

Second part of duodenum

Hepatic flexure of colon

Small intestine

Posterior relations

Diaphragm

Psoas major

Quadratus lumborum

Transversus abdominis

Subcostal vessels and nerve

Iliohypogastric nerve

Ilioinguinal nerve

12th rib

Development

Develops from intermediate mesoderm.

Permanent kidney is metanephros.

Derived from ureteric bud and metanephric blastema.

Ascends from pelvis to lumbar region.

Applied anatomy

Horseshoe kidney

Renal agenesis

Ectopic kidney

SHORT NOTES

1. Anterior and posterior relations of right kidney

Anterior relations

Right suprarenal gland

Liver

Second part of duodenum

Hepatic flexure of colon

Small intestine

Posterior relations

Diaphragm

Psoas major

Quadratus lumborum

Transversus abdominis

12th rib

Subcostal vessels and nerve

Iliohypogastric nerve

Ilioinguinal nerve

Applied anatomy

Right kidney is approached surgically from posterior aspect.

2. Right suprarenal gland

Introduction

Right suprarenal gland is an endocrine gland situated on upper pole of right kidney.

Shape

Pyramidal in shape.

Relations

Anterior

Liver

Inferior vena cava

Posterior

Diaphragm

Inferior

Upper pole of right kidney

Blood supply

Arterial supply

Superior suprarenal arteries from inferior phrenic artery

Middle suprarenal artery from abdominal aorta

Inferior suprarenal artery from renal artery

Venous drainage

Right suprarenal vein drains into inferior vena cava.

Nerve supply

Sympathetic fibers from celiac plexus.

Applied anatomy

Pheochromocytoma

Addison disease

3. Blood supply of supra renal glands

Arterial supply

Each suprarenal gland receives arteries from three sources:

Superior suprarenal arteries

Branches of inferior phrenic artery

Middle suprarenal artery

Branch from abdominal aorta

Inferior suprarenal artery

Branch from renal artery

Venous drainage

Right suprarenal vein drains into inferior vena cava.

Left suprarenal vein drains into left renal vein.

Lymphatic drainage

Drains into lateral aortic lymph nodes.

Applied anatomy

Excess bleeding may occur during adrenal surgery.

4. Coverings of kidney

From within outwards:

Fibrous capsule

Perirenal fat

Renal fascia

Pararenal fat

Fibrous capsule

Thin membrane closely attached to kidney.

Protects kidney.

Perirenal fat

Surrounds kidney and suprarenal gland.

Acts as cushion.

Renal fascia

Consists of anterior and posterior layers.

Anchors kidney.

Pararenal fat

Lies outside renal fascia.

Functions**Protection****Fixation of kidney****Applied anatomy****Loss of perirenal fat may cause nephroptosis.****DRAW AND LABEL****1. Draw a neat labelled diagram of relations of anterior surface of right and left kidneys****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels for right kidney****Right suprarenal gland****Liver****Second part of duodenum****Hepatic flexure****Small intestine****Labels for left kidney****Left suprarenal gland****Stomach****Spleen****Pancreas****Jejunum****Left colic flexure****2. Draw a neat labelled diagram of anterior relations of right and left kidneys****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels****Right kidney****Suprarenal gland****Liver****Duodenum****Hepatic flexure****Small intestine****Left kidney****Suprarenal gland****Stomach****Spleen****Pancreas****Jejunum****Left colic flexure****3. Anterior surface of right kidney showing its relations****REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels****Right suprarenal gland****Liver****Second part of duodenum**

Hepatic flexure

Small intestine

4. Anterior surface of left kidney showing relations

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

Left suprarenal gland

Stomach

Spleen

Pancreas

Jejunum

Left colic flexure

5. Anterior relations of right and left kidney

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Right kidney

Right suprarenal gland

Liver

Duodenum

Hepatic flexure

Small intestine

Left kidney

Left suprarenal gland

Stomach

Spleen

Pancreas

Jejunum

Left colic flexure

6. Posterior surface of left kidney showing relations

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Labels

Diaphragm

Psoas major

Quadratus lumborum

Transversus abdominis

11th rib

12th rib

Subcostal nerve

Iliohypogastric nerve

Ilioinguinal nerve

PELVIS

SHORT NOTES

1. Branches of internal iliac artery

The internal iliac artery divides into anterior and posterior divisions.

Branches of posterior division

Iliolumbar artery

Lateral sacral arteries	Functions
Superior gluteal artery	Supports pelvic viscera
Branches of anterior division	Maintains continence
Umbilical artery	Resists increase in intra-abdominal pressure
Superior vesical artery	Nerve supply
Obturator artery	Pudendal nerve
Inferior vesical artery in male / vaginal artery in female	Nerve to levator ani
Middle rectal artery	Applied anatomy
Internal pudendal artery	Weakness may lead to prolapse of pelvic organs.
Inferior gluteal artery	DRAW AND LABEL
Uterine artery in female	3. Median section of male pelvis
Applied anatomy	REFER DIAGRAM SECTION
Internal iliac artery ligation is done to control pelvic hemorrhage.	Labels
2. Components of pelvic diaphragm	Urinary bladder
Pelvic diaphragm forms the muscular floor of pelvis.	Prostate
Components	Rectum
Levator ani	Pubic symphysis
Coccygeus	Penis
Parts of levator ani	Urethra
Puborectalis	Seminal vesicle
Pubococcygeus	Vas deferens
Iliococcygeus	Anal canal

4. Median section of female pelvis**REFER DIAGRAM SECTION****Labels****Urinary bladder****Uterus****Vagina****Rectum****Pubic symphysis****Urethra****Anal canal****URINARY SYSTEM - URINARY
BLADDER AND URETHRA****SHORT ESSAYS****1. Describe the presenting parts, interior,
microscopic structure of urinary bladder.****Urinary bladder****The urinary bladder is a muscular
reservoir for storage of urine.****Presenting parts****Apex****Base or fundus****Superior surface****Two inferolateral surfaces****Neck****Apex****Directed forwards behind pubic
symphysis.****Connected to umbilicus by median
umbilical ligament.****Base****Triangular posterior surface.****In males related to rectum.****In females related to vagina.****Neck****Lowest and fixed part.****Continuous with urethra.****Interior of urinary bladder****Features****Mucosa shows folds called rugae.****Trigone is smooth triangular area.****Boundaries of trigone****Two ureteric openings****Internal urethral opening****Interureteric ridge****Ridge connecting ureteric openings.****Microscopic structure****Layers****Mucosa****Transitional epithelium**

Submucosa	Apex
Muscular coat	Base
Detrusor muscle	Superior surface
Serous/adventitial coat	Inferolateral surfaces
Detrusor muscle	Neck
Smooth muscle fibers arranged in layers.	Supports
Helps in micturition.	Pelvic diaphragm
Blood supply	Puboprostatic/pubovesical ligaments
Superior and inferior vesical arteries.	Blood supply
Nerve supply	Superior vesical artery
Sympathetic fibers from T11–L2.	Inferior vesical artery
Parasympathetic fibers from S2–S4.	Venous drainage
Applied anatomy	Vesical venous plexus
Cystitis	Lymphatic drainage
Urinary retention	Internal and external iliac nodes
Rupture of bladder	Nerve supply
2. Urinary bladder	Sympathetic and parasympathetic fibers
Situation	Applied anatomy
Situated in pelvis behind pubic symphysis.	Cystitis
Capacity	Neurogenic bladder
Average capacity is 300–500 mL.	Catheterization
Parts	SHORT NOTES
	1. Interior of urinary bladder

The interior of urinary bladder shows the following features:

1. **Mucosa** – Lined by transitional epithelium except over trigone.
2. **Rugae** – Mucosal folds present when bladder is empty.
3. **Trigone** – Smooth triangular area on posterior wall.
4. **Ureteric orifices** – Two openings at superolateral angles of trigone.
5. **Internal urethral orifice** – Situated at inferior angle of trigone.
6. **Interureteric ridge (Bar of Mercier)** – Ridge joining ureteric orifices.
7. **Uvula vesicae** – Elevation behind internal urethral orifice due to median lobe of prostate in males.

Applied anatomy

- Cystitis causes painful micturition.
- Enlargement of prostate elevates uvula vesicae causing urinary obstruction.
- Trigone is sensitive to stretch and pain.

2. Ligaments of urinary bladder

The ligaments of urinary bladder are:

True ligaments

1. **Puboprostatic ligaments** in males / **Pubovesical ligaments** in females.
2. **Lateral ligaments** of bladder.
3. **Median umbilical ligament (urachus)**.

False ligaments (Peritoneal folds)

1. **Median umbilical fold.**
2. **Medial umbilical folds.**

3. **Lateral false ligaments** formed by peritoneum.

Functions

- Support bladder.
- Maintain position of bladder.
- Prevent downward displacement.

Applied anatomy

- Weakening of supports may lead to cystocele.

3. Internal trigone of urinary bladder

Trigone is a smooth triangular area on the posterior wall of urinary bladder.

Boundaries

- **Superolateral angles** – Ureteric orifices.
- **Inferior angle** – Internal urethral orifice.

Features

- Smooth mucosa.
- Firmly adherent mucosa.
- Derived embryologically from mesonephric ducts.
- Highly sensitive to stretch.

Interureteric ridge

A ridge connecting the ureteric openings.

Applied anatomy

- Common site for infection.
- Trigonal irritation causes frequent micturition.

4. Clinical and microscopic anatomy of uterine tube

Microscopic anatomy

The wall of uterine tube has three layers:

1. **Mucosa**
 - Highly folded.
 - Lined by ciliated columnar epithelium.
 - Contains secretory cells.
2. **Muscular coat**
 - Inner circular and outer longitudinal smooth muscle.
3. **Serosa**
 - Peritoneal covering.

Clinical anatomy

- Site of fertilization is ampulla.
- Tubal pregnancy commonly occurs in ampulla.
- Salpingitis may cause infertility.
- Tubectomy is done for sterilization.

5. Ureter

Ureter is a muscular tube transmitting urine from kidney to urinary bladder.

Length

- About 25 cm.

Parts

1. Abdominal part.
2. Pelvic part.
3. Intramural part.

Constrictions

1. Pelviureteric junction.
2. Crossing iliac vessels.
3. Vesicoureteric junction.

Blood supply

- Renal, gonadal, common iliac, internal iliac and vesical arteries.

Nerve supply

- Sympathetic: T11–L2.
- Parasympathetic: S2–S4.

Applied anatomy

- Ureteric calculi commonly lodge at constrictions.
- Pain radiates from loin to groin.

6. Male urethra

Male urethra extends from internal urethral orifice to external urethral meatus.

Length

- About 18–20 cm.

Parts

1. Preprostatic part.
2. Prostatic part.
3. Membranous part.
4. Spongy part.

Features

- Prostatic urethra is widest.
- Membranous urethra is narrow and least distensible.
- Spongy urethra lies within corpus spongiosum.

Curvatures

1. Infrapubic curve.
2. Prepubic curve.

Applied anatomy

- Common site of urethral rupture – membranous urethra.
- Catheterization should be done carefully.

7. Trigone of urinary bladder

Trigone is a triangular smooth area on posterior wall of bladder.

Boundaries

- Two ureteric orifices.
- Internal urethral orifice.

Features

- Smooth mucosa.
- Sensitive to stretch.
- Derived from mesonephric ducts.

Functions

- Funnel urine towards urethra.
- Prevents reflux of urine.

Applied anatomy

- Common site of infection.
- Trigonal edema causes urinary frequency.

MALE GENITAL ORGANS

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the coverings and lobes of prostate. Add a note on microscopic structure of prostate.

Prostate

Prostate is a fibromusculoglandular organ surrounding the prostatic urethra.

Coverings of prostate

1. True capsule
 - Formed by condensation of fibrous stroma.
2. False capsule
 - Derived from visceral pelvic fascia.
 - Contains prostatic venous plexus.
3. Prostatic sheath
 - Formed by pelvic fascia.

Lobes of prostate

Classically five lobes:

1. Anterior lobe.
2. Median lobe.
3. Posterior lobe.
4. Right lateral lobe.
5. Left lateral lobe.

Importance of lobes

- Median lobe commonly enlarges in benign hypertrophy.
- Posterior lobe commonly affected by carcinoma.

Microscopic structure

- Compound tubuloalveolar gland.
- Stroma contains fibrous tissue and smooth muscle.
- Glands lined by columnar epithelium.
- Prostatic concretions (corpora amylacea) present.

Applied anatomy

- Benign prostatic hypertrophy causes urinary obstruction.
- Prostate examined by digital rectal examination.

2. Prostate gland

Situation

Located below urinary bladder around prostatic urethra.

Shape and size

- Chestnut shaped.
- Weight about 20 g.

Surfaces

1. Base.
2. Apex.
3. Anterior surface.
4. Posterior surface.
5. Inferolateral surfaces.

Lobes

- Anterior.
- Median.
- Posterior.
- Two lateral lobes.

Blood supply

- Inferior vesical, middle rectal and internal pudendal arteries.

Venous drainage

- Prostatic venous plexus.

Lymphatic drainage

- Internal iliac lymph nodes.

Applied anatomy

- Benign enlargement causes urinary retention.
- Carcinoma spreads to vertebral column through vertebral venous plexus.

3. Describe the internal features, lobes and clinical importance of prostate**Internal features**

- Traversed by prostatic urethra.
- Ejaculatory ducts open into prostatic urethra.
- Prostatic sinuses present.
- Seminal colliculus present.

Lobes

1. Anterior lobe.
2. Median lobe.
3. Posterior lobe.
4. Right and left lateral lobes.

Clinical importance

- Median lobe enlarges in benign hypertrophy.
- Posterior lobe is common site for carcinoma.
- Enlargement compresses urethra causing retention of urine.
- Digital rectal examination used for examination.

SHORT NOTES**1. Descent of testes**

Testes develop in posterior abdominal wall and descend into scrotum.

Stages

1. Abdominal stage.
2. Inguinoscrotal stage.

Factors responsible

- Gubernaculum.
- Differential growth.
- Intra-abdominal pressure.

- **Hormones.**

Applied anatomy

- **Undescended testis – cryptorchidism.**
- **Ectopic testis.**
- **Congenital inguinal hernia.**

2. Coverings of testis

Coverings from superficial to deep

1. **Skin.**
2. **Dartos fascia.**
3. **External spermatic fascia.**
4. **Cremasteric fascia and muscle.**
5. **Internal spermatic fascia.**
6. **Tunica vaginalis.**
7. **Tunica albuginea.**

Applied anatomy

- **Hydrocele occurs in tunica vaginalis.**

3. Layers of scrotum

Layers from superficial to deep:

1. **Skin.**
2. **Dartos muscle and fascia.**
3. **External spermatic fascia.**
4. **Cremasteric fascia and muscle.**
5. **Internal spermatic fascia.**
6. **Parietal layer of tunica vaginalis.**

Functions

- **Protect testes.**
- **Maintain temperature for spermatogenesis.**

4. Vas deferens

Vas deferens is a thick muscular tube conveying sperm from epididymis to ejaculatory duct.

Length

- **About 45 cm.**

Parts

1. **Scrotal part.**
2. **Inguinal part.**
3. **Pelvic part.**

Features

- **Thick muscular wall.**
- **Ampulla near termination.**

Blood supply

- **Artery to vas deferens.**

Applied anatomy

- **Vasectomy done for sterilization.**

FEMALE GENITAL ORGANS

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 60 years old multiparous woman came to hospital with complaints of mass descending per vaginum. With your knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions.

- **Name the clinical condition.**
- **Describe the parts, normal position, relations,**
- **Blood supply and lymphatic drainage of uterus.**
- **Describe the supports of uterus.**

Clinical condition

- Prolapse of uterus.

Uterus

A hollow pear-shaped muscular organ situated in pelvis between bladder and rectum.

Parts of uterus

1. Fundus.
2. Body.
3. Isthmus.
4. Cervix.

Normal position

- Anteverted.
- Anteflexed.

Relations

Anterior

- Urinary bladder.
- Uterovesical pouch.

Posterior

- Rectouterine pouch.
- Sigmoid colon.
- Rectum.

Lateral

- Broad ligament.
- Uterine vessels.
- Ureter.

Blood supply

Arterial supply

- Uterine artery (main).
- Ovarian artery.
- Vaginal artery.

Venous drainage

- Uterine venous plexus.

Lymphatic drainage

- Fundus → Para-aortic and superficial inguinal nodes.
- Body → External iliac nodes.
- Cervix → Internal iliac and sacral nodes.

Supports of uterus

Primary supports

1. Pelvic diaphragm.
2. Perineal body.
3. Urogenital diaphragm.
4. Transverse cervical ligaments.
5. Pubocervical ligaments.
6. Uterosacral ligaments.

Secondary supports

1. Round ligament.
2. Broad ligament.
3. Uterovesical fold.
4. Rectovaginal fold.

Applied anatomy

- Weakening of supports causes prolapse.

2. A 50 years old woman came to the casualty with complaints of pain in the pelvic region. A pelvic scan revealed a mass on the uterus. Answer the following:

- Parts of uterus
- Supports
- Applied aspects
- Relations
- Blood supply

Parts of uterus

1. Fundus.
2. Body.
3. Isthmus.
4. Cervix.

Relations**Anterior**

- Bladder.

Posterior

- Rectouterine pouch.
- Rectum.

Lateral

- Broad ligament and uterine vessels.

Supports**Primary supports**

- Pelvic diaphragm.
- Perineal body.
- Transverse cervical ligament.
- Uterosacral ligament.
- Pubocervical ligament.

Secondary supports

- Round ligament.
- Broad ligament.

Blood supply

- Uterine artery.
- Ovarian artery.
- Vaginal artery.

Applied aspects

- Fibroid uterus.
- Prolapse uterus.
- Carcinoma cervix.
- Hysterectomy may injure ureter.

3. 35 year old woman with four living children and history of all vaginal deliveries attended gynaecological out-patient department with complaints of pelvic heaviness, a dragging sensation in the vagina, protrusion of a mass coming down from the vagina and backache. On examination the condition was diagnosed as prolapse of uterus. With your knowledge of anatomy answer the following questions

- Anatomical position of non-gravid uterus
- Peritoneal supports of uterus
- Supports of uterus
- Arterial supply of uterus
- Lymphatics drainage of uterus

Anatomical position of non-gravid uterus

- Anteverted.
- Anteflexed.

Peritoneal supports

1. Broad ligament.
2. Uterovesical fold.
3. Rectouterine fold.

Supports of uterus**Primary supports**

- Pelvic diaphragm.
- Perineal body.
- Urogenital diaphragm.
- Transverse cervical ligament.
- Pubocervical ligament.
- Uterosacral ligament.

Secondary supports

- Round ligament.
- Broad ligament.

Arterial supply

- Uterine artery.
- Ovarian artery.
- Vaginal artery.

Lymphatic drainage

- Fundus → Para-aortic and superficial inguinal nodes.
- Body → External iliac nodes.
- Cervix → Internal iliac and sacral nodes.

Applied anatomy

- Multiparity weakens pelvic supports causing prolapse.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the supports of uterus and their clinical significance.

Supports of uterus**Primary supports**

1. Pelvic diaphragm.
2. Perineal body.
3. Urogenital diaphragm.
4. Pubocervical ligaments.
5. Transverse cervical (cardinal) ligaments.
6. Uterosacral ligaments.

Secondary supports

1. Round ligament of uterus.
2. Broad ligament.
3. Uterovesical fold.

4. Rectouterine fold.**Clinical significance**

- Weakening causes prolapse uterus.
- Damage during childbirth predisposes prolapse.
- Cardinal ligament supports cervix.
- Round ligament maintains anteversion.

2. Describe the supports of uterus**Primary supports**

1. Pelvic diaphragm.
2. Perineal body.
3. Urogenital diaphragm.
4. Pubocervical ligament.
5. Transverse cervical ligament.
6. Uterosacral ligament.

Secondary supports

1. Round ligament.
2. Broad ligament.
3. Uterovesical fold.
4. Rectouterine fold.

Functions

- Maintain normal position.
- Prevent prolapse.

3. Supports of uterus and its applied anatomy**Supports****Primary supports**

- Pelvic diaphragm.
- Perineal body.
- Urogenital diaphragm.
- Cardinal ligament.
- Uterosacral ligament.

- Pubocervical ligament.

Secondary supports

- Round ligament.
- Broad ligament.

Applied anatomy

- Uterine prolapse due to weakened supports.
- Multiparity predisposes prolapse.
- Episiotomy prevents excessive tearing of perineal body.

SHORT NOTES

1. Supports of uterus

Supports of uterus are:

Primary supports

1. Pelvic diaphragm.
2. Perineal body.
3. Urogenital diaphragm.
4. Pubocervical ligament.
5. Transverse cervical ligament.
6. Uterosacral ligament.

Secondary supports

1. Broad ligament.
2. Round ligament.

Functions

- Maintain anteverted and anteflexed position.

2. True ligaments of uterus

True ligaments are fibromuscular supports of uterus.

1. Round ligament.

2. Pubocervical ligament.
3. Transverse cervical ligament.
4. Uterosacral ligament.

Functions

- Maintain position of uterus.
- Prevent prolapse.

3. Broad ligament of uterus

Broad ligament is a double layer of peritoneum extending from sides of uterus to lateral pelvic wall.

Parts

1. Mesometrium.
2. Mesosalpinx.
3. Mesovarium.

Contents

- Uterine tube.
- Round ligament.
- Ovarian ligament.
- Uterine vessels.
- Nerves and lymphatics.

Functions

- Supports uterus.

4. Fallopian tube

Fallopian tube extends from uterus to ovary.

Length

- About 10 cm.

Parts

1. Infundibulum.
2. Ampulla.

3. Isthmus.
4. Intramural part.

Blood supply

- Uterine and ovarian arteries.

Applied anatomy

- Fertilization occurs in ampulla.
- Tubal pregnancy common in ampulla.

PERINEUM

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Perineal pouches

Perineal pouches are spaces in urogenital triangle.

Types

1. Superficial perineal pouch.
2. Deep perineal pouch.

Superficial perineal pouch

Boundaries

- Superficial fascia below.
- Perineal membrane above.

Contents in male

- Root of penis.
- Muscles: Ischiocavernosus, bulbospongiosus, superficial transverse perineal.
- Branches of pudendal vessels and nerves.

Contents in female

- Crura of clitoris.

- Bulbs of vestibule.
- Greater vestibular glands.

Deep perineal pouch

Boundaries

- Perineal membrane below.
- Superior fascia above.

Contents

- Membranous urethra.
- External urethral sphincter.
- Deep transverse perineal muscles.

Applied anatomy

- Urine extravasation in urethral rupture.

2. Describe the boundaries and contents of perineal pouches

Superficial perineal pouch

Boundaries

- Roof – Perineal membrane.
- Floor – Membranous layer of superficial fascia.
- Lateral – Ischiopubic rami.

Contents in male

- Root of penis.
- Superficial transverse perineal muscle.
- Ischiocavernosus.
- Bulbospongiosus.

Contents in female

- Clitoris.
- Bulbs of vestibule.
- Greater vestibular glands.

Deep perineal pouch**Boundaries**

- Inferior – Perineal membrane.
- Superior – Superior fascia.

Contents

- Membranous urethra.
- External urethral sphincter.
- Deep transverse perineal muscle.

3. Describe the boundaries, contents and applied anatomy of ischiorectal fossa**Ischiorectal fossa**

A wedge-shaped fat-filled space on either side of anal canal.

Boundaries**Lateral**

- Obturator internus muscle.

Medial

- External anal sphincter and levator ani.

Base

- Skin.

Apex

- Junction of obturator internus and levator ani.

Contents

1. Ischioanal fat pad.
2. Inferior rectal vessels.
3. Inferior rectal nerve.

4. Pudendal canal on lateral wall.**Applied anatomy**

- Ischiorectal abscess.
- Spread of infection across deep postanal space.

4. Boundaries and contents of ischiorectal fossa**Boundaries**

- Lateral – Obturator internus.
- Medial – Levator ani and anal canal.
- Base – Skin.
- Apex – Junction of muscles.

Contents

- Fat.
- Inferior rectal vessels and nerve.
- Pudendal canal.

5. Describe ischio rectal fossa with clinical significance.**Definition**

Fat-filled wedge-shaped space beside anal canal.

Boundaries

- Lateral – Obturator internus.
- Medial – Levator ani and external anal sphincter.
- Base – Skin.
- Apex – Junction of obturator internus and levator ani.

Contents

- Fat.
- Inferior rectal vessels and nerves.

- Pudendal canal.

Clinical significance

- Ischiorectal abscess common.
- Infection spreads through deep postanal space.

6. Ischiorectal fossa

Boundaries

- Lateral – Obturator internus.
- Medial – Levator ani and anal canal.
- Base – Skin.
- Apex – Junction of muscles.

Contents

- Fat.
- Inferior rectal nerve and vessels.
- Pudendal canal.

Applied anatomy

- Abscess formation.

7. With the help of a neat diagram, describe ischio-rectal fossa. Give its clinical importance

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Definition

A wedge-shaped fat-filled space on either side of anal canal.

Boundaries

- Lateral – Obturator internus.
- Medial – Levator ani and external anal sphincter.
- Base – Skin.

- Apex – Junction of obturator internus and levator ani.

Contents

1. Fat pad.
2. Inferior rectal vessels.
3. Inferior rectal nerve.
4. Pudendal canal.

Clinical importance

- Ischiorectal abscess.
- Spread of infection through deep postanal space.
- Pudendal nerve block performed near pudendal canal.

SHORT NOTES

1. Draw a neat labelled diagram showing contents of superficial perineal pouch in males

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

Contents of superficial perineal pouch in males

1. Root of penis.
2. Bulb of penis.
3. Crura of penis.
4. Ischiocavernosus muscle.
5. Bulbospongiosus muscle.
6. Superficial transverse perineal muscle.
7. Perineal branches of pudendal vessels and nerves.

2. Perineal membrane in males

Perineal membrane is a triangular fibrous sheet in urogenital triangle.

Attachments

- Sides attached to ischiopubic rami.
- Posterior border fused with perineal body.

Structures piercing it

- Urethra.
- Ducts of bulbourethral glands.
- Arteries and nerves.

Functions

- Supports pelvic viscera.

3. Superficial perineal pouch

Boundaries

- Floor – Membranous superficial fascia.
- Roof – Perineal membrane.

Contents in male

- Root of penis.
- Ischiocavernosus.
- Bulbospongiosus.
- Superficial transverse perineal.

Applied anatomy

- Extravasation of urine.

4. Ischiorectal fossa

Ischiorectal fossa is a wedge-shaped fat-filled space lateral to anal canal.

Boundaries

- Medial – Anal canal.
- Lateral – Obturator internus.

Contents

- Fat.

- Inferior rectal vessels and nerve.

Applied anatomy

- Ischiorectal abscess.

5. Boundaries and contents of superficial perineal pouch

Boundaries

- Roof – Perineal membrane.
- Floor – Colles fascia.
- Lateral – Ischiopubic rami.

Contents in male

- Root of penis.
- Muscles of root.
- Pudendal vessels and nerves.

6. Urogenital diaphragm

Urogenital diaphragm consists of muscles and fascia in anterior perineum.

Components

1. Deep transverse perineal muscle.
2. External urethral sphincter.
3. Superior and inferior fascia.

Functions

- Supports pelvic viscera.
- Maintains urinary continence.

7. Structures piercing perineal membrane in females

1. Urethra.
2. Vagina.
3. Arteries.
4. Nerves.

8. Perineal body

Perineal body is a fibromuscular mass between anal canal and vagina.

Muscles attached

- **Bulbospongiosus.**
- **External anal sphincter.**
- **Superficial and deep transverse perineal muscles.**
- **Levator ani.**

Importance

- **Maintains pelvic floor integrity.**

Applied anatomy

- **Damage during childbirth causes prolapse.**

9. Pudendal canal

Pudendal canal is a fascial tunnel in lateral wall of ischiorectal fossa.

Contents

1. **Pudendal nerve.**
2. **Internal pudendal vessels.**

Clinical anatomy

- **Pudendal nerve block.**

10. Deep perineal pouch and its contents

Boundaries

- **Inferior – Perineal membrane.**
- **Superior – Superior fascia.**

Contents

1. **Membranous urethra.**
2. **External urethral sphincter.**
3. **Deep transverse perineal muscles.**

4. Bulbourethral glands in males.

RECTUM AND ANAL CANAL

LONG ESSAYS

1. Describe the Anal canal under the following Headings

- a) **Extent of the Canal**
- b) **Interior features of the Anal canal**
- c) **Blood and Nerve supply of the Anal canal**
- d) **Anatomical basis of haemorrhoids**

Anal canal

Terminal part of large intestine situated below pelvic diaphragm.

a) Extent of the canal

- **Length – About 4 cm.**
- **Extends from anorectal junction to anal verge.**

b) Interior features of anal canal

1. **Anal columns.**
2. **Anal valves.**
3. **Anal sinuses.**
4. **Pectinate line.**
5. **White line of Hilton.**

c) Blood supply

Arterial supply

- **Superior rectal artery.**
- **Middle rectal artery.**
- **Inferior rectal artery.**

Venous drainage

- **Internal rectal venous plexus.**
- **External rectal venous plexus.**

Nerve supply**Above pectinate line**

- Autonomic nerves.

Below pectinate line

- Inferior rectal nerve.

d) Anatomical basis of haemorrhoids

- Internal hemorrhoids occur due to dilatation of internal rectal venous plexus above pectinate line.
- External hemorrhoids occur below pectinate line.
- Common sites are 3, 7 and 11 o'clock positions.

2. A middle aged man visited the surgical OPD with history of bleeding per anum since three months. On clinical examination, he was found to have internal haemorrhoids. From your knowledge of anatomy describe the anal canal under the following headings

- Mucosal anatomy
- Blood supply
- Sphincteric muscles
- Clinical aspects

Mucosal anatomy

1. Anal columns.
2. Anal valves.
3. Anal sinuses.
4. Pectinate line.
5. White line of Hilton.

Blood supply**Arterial**

- Superior rectal artery.

- Middle rectal artery.
- Inferior rectal artery.

Venous

- Internal and external rectal venous plexuses.

Sphincteric muscles

1. Internal anal sphincter – involuntary.
2. External anal sphincter – voluntary.

Clinical aspects

- Internal hemorrhoids above pectinate line are painless.
- External hemorrhoids are painful.
- Fissure in ano commonly occurs in posterior midline.

3. A 62 year old man with progressive weight loss complains of pain and bleeding near the anal orifice. His condition is diagnosed as carcinoma of anal canal. At this stage of the disease, the neoplasm is located entirely below the pectinate line. Based on your anatomical knowledge, answer the following.

- To which group of lymph nodes, cancer from this part of anal canal is likely to spread?
- Name the nerve carrying pain sensation from this part of the anal canal.
- Describe briefly the interior of anal canal with the help of a diagram
- How the development, arterial supply, venous drainage and the nature of epithelial lining of the anal canal differ from each other above and below pectinate line?
- What is the significance of knowing the venous drainage of the anal canal?

Lymphatic drainage

- Superficial inguinal lymph nodes.

Nerve carrying pain sensation

- Inferior rectal nerve.

Interior of anal canal

1. Anal columns.
2. Anal valves.
3. Anal sinuses.
4. Pectinate line.
5. White line of Hilton.

Differences above and below pectinate line

Feature	Above pectinate line	Below pectinate line
Development	Endoderm	Ectoderm
Epithelium	Columnar	Stratified squamous
Arterial supply	Superior rectal artery	Inferior rectal artery
Venous drainage	Portal system	Systemic system
Nerve supply	Autonomic	Somatic
Lymphatics	Internal iliac nodes	Superficial inguinal nodes

Significance of venous drainage

- Site of porto-systemic anastomosis.
- Internal hemorrhoids occur due to portal hypertension.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Briefly describe the internal features of the anal canal.

Internal features

1. Anal columns.
2. Anal valves.
3. Anal sinuses.
4. Pectinate line.
5. White line of Hilton.

Pectinate line

Divides upper and lower parts differing in development, blood supply and nerve supply.

Applied anatomy

- Internal hemorrhoids occur above pectinate line.

2. Anal canal**Extent**

- About 4 cm long.

Interior features

- Anal columns.
- Anal valves.
- Anal sinuses.
- Pectinate line.

Blood supply

- Superior, middle and inferior rectal arteries.

Nerve supply

- Above pectinate line – autonomic.
- Below pectinate line – inferior rectal nerve.

Applied anatomy

- Hemorrhoids.

- Fissure in ano.

SHORT NOTES

1. Interior of anal canal

1. Anal columns.
2. Anal valves.
3. Anal sinuses.
4. Pectinate line.
5. White line of Hilton.

Importance of pectinate line

- Divides visceral and somatic parts.

LOWER LIMB

BONES

SHORT NOTES

1. Head of femur

Features

- Two-thirds of a sphere.
- Directed medially, upward and forward.
- Articulates with acetabulum.
- Fovea present for ligament of head.

Blood supply

- Retinacular arteries.
- Artery to head of femur.

Applied anatomy

- Fracture neck femur may cause avascular necrosis.

2. Linea aspera

Linea aspera is a rough ridge on posterior surface of femur.

Lips

1. Medial lip.
2. Lateral lip.

Attachments

- Adductor muscles.
- Vastus medialis.
- Vastus lateralis.
- Short head of biceps femoris.

Functions

- Provides attachment to muscles.

GLUTEAL REGION

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 15-year-old boy came with Altered Gait to the OPD after intramuscular Injection in the right buttock. On examination, he was found to be having Foot drop on the right side.

a) Based on the above case what is the Anatomical reason for the Boy's condition

b) Describe the origin, insertion and Nerve supply of Gluteus maximus

c) What are structures under the cover of Gluteus maximus

d) Anatomical basis of Trendelenburg sign

a) Anatomical reason

- Sciatic nerve injury due to improper intramuscular injection.
- Common peroneal component affected causing foot drop.

b) Gluteus maximus**Origin**

- Ilium behind posterior gluteal line.
- Dorsal surface of sacrum and coccyx.
- Sacrotuberous ligament.

Insertion

- Iliotibial tract.
- Gluteal tuberosity.

Nerve supply

- Inferior gluteal nerve.

Actions

- Powerful extensor of hip.
- Lateral rotator of thigh.

c) Structures under cover of gluteus maximus

1. Gluteus medius.
2. Piriformis.
3. Superior gemellus.
4. Obturator internus.
5. Inferior gemellus.
6. Quadratus femoris.
7. Sciatic nerve.
8. Posterior cutaneous nerve of thigh.
9. Superior and inferior gluteal vessels and nerves.
10. Pudendal nerve.
11. Internal pudendal vessels.
12. Trochanteric bursa.

d) Anatomical basis of Trendelenburg sign

- Due to paralysis of gluteus medius and minimus.

- Pelvis drops on opposite side during standing on affected limb.
- Superior gluteal nerve injury is responsible.

2. A 12 year old boy following an inadvertent intra-muscular injection in the gluteal region developed certain neurological deficits including difficulty to dorsiflex the foot. Answer the following questions

- Mention structures under cover of gluteus maximus
- Name the structure which is affected in this case.
- Give its origin, course and distribution in thigh
- Give the cutaneous innervations of lower limb below knee
- Name the muscles responsible for dorsiflexion and eversion of foot

Structures under cover of gluteus maximus

1. Gluteus medius.
2. Piriformis.
3. Obturator internus.
4. Gemelli.
5. Quadratus femoris.
6. Sciatic nerve.
7. Pudendal nerve.
8. Internal pudendal vessels.
9. Posterior femoral cutaneous nerve.

Structure affected

- Sciatic nerve.

Origin, course and distribution of sciatic nerve**Origin**

- Ventral rami of L4, L5, S1, S2, S3.

Course	Dorsal surface of sacrum and coccyx
- Leaves pelvis through greater sciatic foramen below piriformis. - Descends deep to gluteus maximus. - Runs in posterior compartment of thigh. - Divides into tibial and common peroneal nerves.	Sacrotuberous ligament Thoracolumbar fascia
Distribution in thigh	Insertion
- Supplies hamstring muscles. - Articular branches to hip joint.	Iliotibial tract
Cutaneous innervation below knee	Gluteal tuberosity of femur
- Saphenous nerve. - Superficial peroneal nerve. - Deep peroneal nerve. - Sural nerve. - Tibial nerve branches.	Nerve supply
Muscles responsible for dorsiflexion and eversion	Inferior gluteal nerve (L5, S1, S2)
Dorsiflexion	Actions
- Tibialis anterior. - Extensor hallucis longus. - Extensor digitorum longus. - Peroneus tertius.	Powerful extensor of hip joint
Eversion	Lateral rotation of thigh
- Peroneus longus. - Peroneus brevis.	Helps in rising from sitting position
SHORT NOTES	Stabilizes knee through iliotibial tract
1. Gluteus maximus	Applied anatomy
Origin	Intramuscular injections are given in superolateral quadrant to avoid sciatic nerve injury.
Outer surface of ilium behind posterior gluteal line	2. Piriformis
	Origin
	Pelvic surface of sacrum
	Insertion
	Upper border of greater trochanter
	Nerve supply
	Nerve to piriformis (S1, S2)

Actions**Lateral rotation of extended thigh****Abduction of flexed thigh****Stabilizes hip joint****Relations/Importance****Divides greater sciatic foramen into suprapiriform and infrapiriform compartments.****Sciatic nerve usually emerges below piriformis.****Applied anatomy****Piriformis syndrome may compress sciatic nerve.****3. Structures under cover of gluteus maximus****Muscles****Gluteus medius****Piriformis****Superior gemellus****Obturator internus****Inferior gemellus****Quadratus femoris****Upper hamstring muscles****Bones and bursae****Greater trochanter****Ischial tuberosity****Trochanteric bursa****Ischial bursa****Nerves****Sciatic nerve****Posterior cutaneous nerve of thigh****Inferior gluteal nerve****Pudendal nerve****Vessels****Inferior gluteal vessels****Internal pudendal vessels****4. Greater sciatic notch****Definition****Large notch on posterior border of hip bone.****Boundaries****Above: Posterior inferior iliac spine****Below: Ischial spine****Converted into greater sciatic foramen by****Sacrospinous ligament****Sacrotuberous ligament****Structures passing through****Piriformis****Sciatic nerve**

Superior and inferior gluteal vessels and nerves

Pudendal nerve

Internal pudendal vessels

Posterior cutaneous nerve of thigh

Applied anatomy

Important route for neurovascular structures entering gluteal region.

FRONT OF THIGH

LONG ESSAYS

1. Describe the boundaries, contents and applied anatomy of femoral triangle.

Definition

Femoral triangle is a triangular depression present in the upper one-third of front of thigh below inguinal ligament.

Boundaries

Base (Superior)

Inguinal ligament

Medial boundary

Medial border of adductor longus

Lateral boundary

Medial border of sartorius

Apex

Junction of sartorius and adductor longus

Floor

Iliopsoas laterally

Pectineus medially

Adductor longus medially

Roof

Skin

Superficial fascia

Deep fascia (fascia lata)

Contents

From lateral to medial (NAVEL):

Femoral nerve and branches

Femoral artery and branches

Femoral vein and tributaries

Femoral canal with deep inguinal lymph node

Other contents

Femoral sheath

Lateral cutaneous nerve of thigh

Femoral branch of genitofemoral nerve

Femoral sheath

A funnel-shaped fascial sleeve enclosing:

Femoral artery

Femoral vein

Femoral canal	Compartments
Femoral canal	Lateral compartment – Femoral artery
Medial compartment of femoral sheath	Intermediate compartment – Femoral vein
Contains lymphatics and Cloquet's node	Medial compartment – Femoral canal
Applied anatomy	Functions
Femoral artery can be palpated at midinguinal point.	Allows free movement of femoral vessels.
Site for femoral arterial catheterization.	Applied anatomy
Femoral hernia occurs through femoral canal.	Femoral hernia occurs through femoral canal.
Femoral vein is used for venous access.	2. Inguinal lymph nodes
Enlargement of inguinal lymph nodes may occur in infections.	Superficial inguinal lymph nodes
SHORT ESSAYS	Arranged in:
1. Femoral sheath	Horizontal group
Definition	Vertical group
Funnel-shaped fascial sleeve enclosing femoral vessels below inguinal ligament.	Drainage
Formation	Lower limb
Anterior wall: Transversalis fascia	External genitalia
Posterior wall: Iliac fascia	Lower anal canal
Extent	Lower anterior abdominal wall
Extends 3–4 cm below inguinal ligament.	Deep inguinal lymph nodes
	Located medial to femoral vein
	Includes Cloquet's node

Applied anatomy

Enlarged in infections and malignancy.

3. Femoral triangle**Boundaries**

Base: Inguinal ligament

Medial: Adductor longus

Lateral: Sartorius

Floor

Iliopsoas and pectineus

Roof

Fascia lata

Contents**NAVEL:**

Femoral nerve

Femoral artery

Femoral vein

Femoral canal

Applied anatomy

Femoral pulse palpation

Femoral hernia

4. Femoral canal and its applied anatomy**Definition**

Medial compartment of femoral sheath.

Boundaries

Anterior – Inguinal ligament

Posterior – Pectineal ligament

Medial – Lacunar ligament

Lateral – Femoral vein

Contents

Fat

Lymphatics

Cloquet's node

Functions

Allows expansion of femoral vein.

Applied anatomy

Femoral hernia passes through femoral canal.

More common in females.

Strangulation may occur at femoral ring.

5. Femoral artery**Origin**

Continuation of external iliac artery behind inguinal ligament.

Course

Passes through femoral triangle and adductor canal.

Ends as popliteal artery at adductor hiatus.

Branches

Superficial epigastric

Superficial circumflex iliac

External pudendal

Profunda femoris

Descending genicular

Relations

Femoral vein medial in upper part.

Applied anatomy

Femoral pulse palpation.

Arterial cannulation.

6. Adductor canal- boundaries and contents

Definition

Intermuscular passage extending from apex of femoral triangle to adductor hiatus.

Boundaries

Anteromedial wall – Sartorius

Lateral wall – Vastus medialis

Posterior wall – Adductor longus and magnus

Contents

Femoral artery

Femoral vein

Saphenous nerve

Nerve to vastus medialis

Applied anatomy

Compression of vessels may occur.

7. Femoral sheath and applied aspects

Femoral sheath

Fascial sleeve enclosing femoral vessels.

Compartments

Lateral – artery

Intermediate – vein

Medial – femoral canal

Applied aspects

Femoral hernia

Femoral vein cannulation

Spread of infection along sheath

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the origin, insertion, nerve supply and action of rectus femoris muscle.

Origin

Straight head from anterior inferior iliac spine

Reflected head from ilium above acetabulum

Insertion

Base of patella and tibial tuberosity through patellar ligament

Nerve supply**Femoral nerve (L2, L3, L4)****Actions****Extension of knee****Flexion of hip****2. Describe the anatomical basis of femoral hernia.****Femoral hernia protrudes through femoral ring into femoral canal.****More common in females due to wider pelvis.****Hernial sac may emerge through saphenous opening.****Strangulation common because of rigid boundaries.****3. Adductor canal****Extent****Apex of femoral triangle to adductor hiatus.****Boundaries****Sartorius****Vastus medialis****Adductor longus and magnus****Contents****Femoral artery****Femoral vein****Saphenous nerve****4. Femoral sheath****Formation****Transversalis fascia and iliac fascia.****Compartments****Artery****Vein****Femoral canal****Applied anatomy****Femoral hernia.****5. Superficial inguinal lymph nodes****Groups****Horizontal group****Vertical group****Drainage****Lower limb****External genitalia****Lower abdominal wall****Applied anatomy****Enlarged in infections.****6. Femoral artery****Origin****Continuation of external iliac artery.**

Course	Biceps femoris – head of fibula
Femoral triangle and adductor canal.	2. Hamstring muscles
Branches	Muscles
Profunda femoris	Semitendinosus
Superficial branches	Semimembranosus
Applied anatomy	Biceps femoris
Femoral pulse.	Nerve supply
BACK OF THIGH	Tibial division of sciatic nerve
SHORT NOTES	Actions
1. Briefly describe the attachments and innervation of hamstring muscles.	Extension of hip
Hamstring muscles	Flexion of knee
Semitendinosus	Applied anatomy
Semimembranosus	Hamstring strain common in athletes.
Long head of biceps femoris	POPLITEAL FOSSA
Hamstring part of adductor magnus	SHORT ESSAYS
Common features	1. Popliteal fossa
Arise from ischial tuberosity	Definition
Cross hip and knee joints	Diamond-shaped space behind knee joint.
Supplied by tibial division of sciatic nerve	Boundaries
Insertions	Superolateral – Biceps femoris
Semitendinosus – upper medial tibia	Superomedial – Semimembranosus and semitendinosus
Semimembranosus – medial condyle of tibia	Inferolateral – Lateral head of gastrocnemius and plantaris
	Inferomedial – Medial head of gastrocnemius

Roof	Posterior surface of head and upper shaft of fibula
Skin	Soleal line of tibia
Superficial fascia	Insertion
Deep fascia	Calcaneus through tendo calcaneus
Floor	Nerve supply
Popliteal surface of femur	Tibial nerve (S1, S2)
Capsule of knee joint	Actions
Popliteus muscle	Plantar flexion of foot
Contents	Maintains posture
From superficial to deep:	Applied anatomy
Tibial nerve	Called peripheral heart due to venous pumping action.
Popliteal vein	2. Extensor retinaculum of lower limb
Popliteal artery	Superior extensor retinaculum
Also:	Thickening of deep fascia above ankle.
Common peroneal nerve	Inferior extensor retinaculum
Lymph nodes	Y-shaped band on dorsum of foot.
Applied anatomy	Structures passing deep to it
Popliteal pulse palpation.	From medial to lateral:
Baker cyst may occur.	Tibialis anterior tendon
LEG	Extensor hallucis longus tendon
SHORT ESSAYS	Anterior tibial vessels
1. Soleus muscle	Deep peroneal nerve
Origin	

Extensor digitorum longus tendon

Peroneus tertius tendon

Functions

Prevent bow-stringing of tendons.

SHORT NOTES

1. Structures passing beneath the extensor retinaculum of the foot

From medial to lateral:

Tibialis anterior tendon

Extensor hallucis longus tendon

Anterior tibial artery/dorsalis pedis artery

Deep peroneal nerve

Extensor digitorum longus tendon

Peroneus tertius tendon

Mnemonic: Tom Has A Dirty Nasty Dog.

FOOT

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 20-year-old male had applied for selection into defence academy in India. His application was rejected during physical examination on the grounds of Bilateral Flat Foot.

a) What is the anatomical basis of flat foot.

b) Classify arches of foot.

c) What are the components and features of each type of arches of foot.

d) What are the factors that maintain the arches of foot

Answer

Anatomical basis of flat foot

Flat foot (pes planus) occurs due to collapse of medial longitudinal arch.

Common causes:

Weakening of plantar ligaments

Tibialis posterior dysfunction

Weak plantar muscles

Obesity and prolonged standing

Classification of arches of foot

Longitudinal arches

Medial longitudinal arch

Lateral longitudinal arch

Transverse arches

Anterior transverse arch

Posterior transverse arch

Components and features

Medial longitudinal arch

Bones

Calcaneus	Plantar aponeurosis
Talus	Spring ligament
Navicular	Long plantar ligament
Three cuneiforms	Short plantar ligament
First three metatarsals	Active factors
Characteristics	Tibialis anterior
Higher and more elastic	Tibialis posterior
Talus acts as keystone	Peroneus longus
Lateral longitudinal arch	Flexor hallucis longus
Bones	Intrinsic muscles of sole
Calcaneus	Functions of arches
Cuboid	Weight transmission
Fourth and fifth metatarsals	Shock absorption
Characteristics	Provide elasticity during walking
Lower and more rigid	2. Describe the arches of foot under following headings:
Transverse arch	• Classification
Bones	• Formation
Cuboid	• Factors responsible for maintenance of arches
Cuneiforms	• Functions
Bases of metatarsals	Answer
Factors maintaining arches	Classification
Passive factors	Longitudinal arches
Shape of bones	

Medial	Propulsion during walking
Lateral	SHORT ESSAYS
Transverse arches	1. Describe the longitudinal arches of foot and their clinical anatomy.
Formation	Medial longitudinal arch
Medial longitudinal arch	Bones
Calcaneus, talus, navicular, cuneiforms and medial metatarsals.	Calcaneus
Lateral longitudinal arch	Talus
Calcaneus, cuboid and lateral metatarsals.	Navicular
Transverse arch	Cuneiforms
Cuboid, cuneiforms and metatarsal bases.	First three metatarsals
Factors maintaining arches	Keystone
Static factors	Talus
Shape of bones	Lateral longitudinal arch
Ligaments	Bones
Plantar aponeurosis	Calcaneus
Dynamic factors	Cuboid
Muscles and tendons	Fourth and fifth metatarsals
Functions	Maintenance
Shock absorption	Plantar ligaments
Weight distribution	Plantar aponeurosis
Adaptation to uneven surfaces	Muscles
	Clinical anatomy

Flat foot due to collapse of medial arch.

Pes cavus due to exaggerated arch.

2. Arches of foot

Types

Longitudinal arches

Transverse arches

Functions

Shock absorption

Weight transmission

Maintenance

Ligaments

Muscles

SHORT NOTES

1. Inversion and eversion

Inversion

Sole turns medially.

Muscles: Tibialis anterior and tibialis posterior.

Eversion

Sole turns laterally.

Muscles: Peroneus longus and brevis.

Joints involved

Subtalar joint

Transverse tarsal joint

2. Explain the course, branches and clinical importance of dorsalis pedis artery

Course

Continuation of anterior tibial artery.

Runs on dorsum of foot.

Ends in first intermetatarsal space.

Branches

Lateral tarsal

Arcuate artery

First dorsal metatarsal artery

Deep plantar artery

Clinical importance

Dorsalis pedis pulse palpated lateral to extensor hallucis longus tendon.

Absent pulse indicates peripheral vascular disease.

3. Medial longitudinal arch of foot

Bones

Calcaneus

Talus

Navicular

Cuneiforms

First three metatarsals

Keystone**Talus****Maintenance****Spring ligament****Tibialis posterior****Plantar aponeurosis****Applied anatomy****Flat foot.****4. Plantar aponeurosis****Definition****Strong deep fascial thickening in sole.****Attachments****Calcaneus proximally****Divides into slips distally****Functions****Supports longitudinal arch****Protects deeper structures****Applied anatomy****Plantar fasciitis.****5. Dorsalis pedis artery****Origin****Continuation of anterior tibial artery.****Course****Between extensor hallucis longus and
extensor digitorum longus.****Branches****Arcuate artery****Deep plantar artery****Applied anatomy****Pulse palpation.****6. Longitudinal arches foot****Types****Medial longitudinal arch****Lateral longitudinal arch****Functions****Weight bearing****Shock absorption****NERVES****LONG ESSAYS****1. Describe sciatic nerve under following
headings: root value, course and
relations, branches and clinical anatomy.****Root value****L4, L5, S1, S2, S3****Formation****Largest branch of sacral plexus.****Course and relations**

Leaves pelvis through greater sciatic foramen below piriformis.

Enters gluteal region deep to gluteus maximus.

Descends in posterior compartment of thigh.

Lies on adductor magnus.

Divides into tibial and common peroneal nerves near upper angle of popliteal fossa.

Relations

Crossed superficially by long head of biceps femoris.

Accompanied by posterior cutaneous nerve of thigh.

Branches

Muscular branches

Semitendinosus

Semimembranosus

Biceps femoris

Hamstring part of adductor magnus

Terminal branches

Tibial nerve

Common peroneal nerve

Clinical anatomy

Sciatica due to compression of nerve roots.

Injury during intramuscular injection.

Foot drop in common peroneal nerve injury.

Posterior dislocation of hip may injure sciatic nerve.

2. 60 year old lady was brought to the casualty following a history of fall at her residence. On clinical examination, the anatomical orientation of her right lower limb was disturbed. X-ray showed posterior dislocation of her right hip joint. With your anatomical knowledge answer the following questions.

- **Name the nerve which can be injured in this patient.**
- **Give the root value of the nerve.**
- **Name one clinical procedure that can cause injury to this nerve.**
- **Describe the course of this nerve.**
- **Name the branches of this nerve and the muscles supplied by those branches.**

Answer

Nerve injured

Sciatic nerve

Root value

L4, L5, S1, S2, S3

Clinical procedure causing injury

Improper intramuscular injection in gluteal region.

Course	Answer
Leaves pelvis through greater sciatic foramen below piriformis.	Root value
Descends deep to gluteus maximus.	L4, L5, S1, S2, S3
Passes through posterior thigh.	Formation
Divides into tibial and common peroneal nerves.	From sacral plexus.
Branches and muscles supplied	Course
Tibial division	Through greater sciatic foramen below piriformis.
Semitendinosus	Descends in posterior thigh.
Semimembranosus	Divides into tibial and common peroneal nerves.
Long head of biceps femoris	Functional groups supplied
Hamstring part of adductor magnus	In thigh
Common peroneal division	Hamstring muscles
Short head of biceps femoris	In leg by tibial nerve
3.A middle aged male patient complained of low back pain radiating to leg on right side and numbness and weakness in various parts of leg and foot. The condition was diagnosed as sciatica. With your knowledge of anatomy answer the following questions.	Posterior compartment muscles
• Describe the root value, formation and course of sciatic nerve	In leg by common peroneal nerve
• Name the functional groups of muscles innervated by this nerve and its branches at various levels.	Anterior and lateral compartment muscles
• Name the cutaneous branches of this nerve at various levels along its course	In foot
	Intrinsic muscles of sole and dorsum
	Cutaneous branches
	Tibial nerve branches
	Medial sural cutaneous nerve
	Medial calcaneal branches

Plantar nerves

Common peroneal branches

Lateral sural cutaneous nerve

Superficial peroneal nerve

Deep peroneal nerve

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Femoral nerve

Root value

L2, L3, L4

Course

Emerges from lateral border of psoas major.

Passes below inguinal ligament.

Divides in femoral triangle.

Branches

Muscular

Cutaneous

Saphenous nerve

Muscles supplied

Quadriceps femoris

Sartorius

Pectineus

Applied anatomy

Loss of knee jerk in femoral nerve injury.

2. Sciatic nerve

Root value

L4 to S3

Course

Below piriformis.

Posterior thigh.

Branches

Tibial nerve

Common peroneal nerve

Applied anatomy

Sciatica.

3. Common peroneal nerve

Root value

L4, L5, S1, S2

Course

Along medial border of biceps femoris.

Winds around neck of fibula.

Branches

Superficial peroneal nerve

Deep peroneal nerve

Applied anatomy

Injury causes foot drop.

4. Cutaneous innervation of lower limb below knee

Medial side

Saphenous nerve

Lateral side

Sural nerve

Dorsum of foot

Superficial peroneal nerve

First web space

Deep peroneal nerve

Sole

Medial and lateral plantar nerves

SHORT NOTES

1. Obturator nerve

Root value

L2, L3, L4

Course

Emerges from medial border of psoas major.

Passes through obturator canal.

Supply

Adductor muscles of thigh.

Applied anatomy

Injury causes weakened adduction.

2. Anatomical basics of foot drop

Definition

Inability to dorsiflex foot.

Cause

Common peroneal nerve injury.

Features

High stepping gait.

3. Common peroneal nerve

Course

Winds around neck of fibula.

Branches

Superficial and deep peroneal nerves.

Applied anatomy

Injury causes foot drop.

4. Sciatic nerve

Root value

L4–S3

Course

Through gluteal region and posterior thigh.

Branches

Tibial and common peroneal nerves.

5. Saphenous nerve

Origin	Tibial condyles
Branch of femoral nerve.	Posterior surface of patella
Course	Capsule
Through adductor canal.	Thin and fibrous.
Along medial side of leg.	Deficient anteriorly.
Supply	Intracapsular structures
Skin of medial leg and foot.	Anterior cruciate ligament
6. Cutaneous innervation of lower limb below knee	Posterior cruciate ligament
Nerves involved	Medial meniscus
Saphenous	Lateral meniscus
Sural	Movements
Superficial peroneal	Flexion
Deep peroneal	Muscles:
Plantar nerves	Hamstrings
JOINTS	Gastrocnemius
LONG ESSAYS	Extension
1. Describe knee joint under the following headings: Articular surfaces, Capsule and intracapsular structures, Movements and muscles causing each movement.	Muscles:
Type	Quadriceps femoris
Modified hinge synovial joint.	Medial rotation
Articular surfaces	Semitendinosus
Femoral condyles	Semimembranosus
	Lateral rotation
	Biceps femoris

Applied anatomy**Meniscal injuries****Cruciate ligament tears**

2. Describe the type and articular surfaces, ligaments, movements of Hip joint. Add a note on blood supply to head and neck of femur and its related clinical anatomy.

Type**Ball and socket synovial joint.****Articular surfaces****Head of femur****Acetabulum****Ligaments****Iliofemoral ligament****Pubofemoral ligament****Ischiofemoral ligament****Ligament of head of femur****Movements****Flexion****Extension****Abduction****Adduction****Medial and lateral rotation****Circumduction****Blood supply to head and neck of femur****Retinacular branches of medial circumflex femoral artery****Lateral circumflex femoral artery****Artery through ligamentum teres****Clinical anatomy****Fracture neck of femur may cause avascular necrosis.****Posterior dislocation may injure sciatic nerve.**

3. A football player fell down while playing football and injured his knee.

Describe the knee joint under following headings:

a) Bones articulating**b) Capsule and intracapsular structures****c) Movements and muscles causing each of the movement****Answer****Bones articulating****Femur****Tibia****Patella****Capsule and intracapsular structures****Fibrous capsule****ACL**

PCL	Ligaments
Medial and lateral menisci	Iliofemoral
Movements and muscles	Pubofemoral
Flexion	Ischiofemoral
Hamstrings	Ligament of head of femur
Extension	Movements and muscles
Quadriceps femoris	Flexion
Rotation	Iliopsoas
Semimembranosus and biceps femoris	Extension
Applied anatomy	Gluteus maximus
Sports injuries commonly involve menisci and cruciate ligaments.	Abduction
4. There was a posterior dislocation of hip joint in a 30-year old man injuring his sciatic nerve. Answer the following regarding hip joint.	Gluteus medius and minimus
a) Name the bones articulating	Adduction
b) Ligaments	Adductor group
c) Movements & muscles causing them	Medial rotation
d) Nerve supply	Gluteus medius and minimus
e) Applied aspects	Lateral rotation
Answer	Piriformis and obturator internus
Bones articulating	Nerve supply
Head of femur	Femoral nerve
Acetabulum of hip bone	Obturator nerve
	Sciatic nerve
	Superior gluteal nerve

Applied aspects

Posterior dislocation of hip joint may injure sciatic nerve.

Fracture neck of femur can lead to avascular necrosis of head of femur due to interruption of retinacular arteries.

Congenital dislocation of hip may occur due to shallow acetabulum.

Osteoarthritis commonly affects hip joint causing pain and restricted movements.

Trendelenburg gait occurs due to paralysis of gluteus medius and minimus.

Hip joint replacement is done in severe arthritis and fractures of neck of femur.

5. Describe the intracapsular structures of knee joint. Explain the clinical importance of any two of them.

Intracapsular Structures of Knee Joint

The intracapsular structures of the knee joint are:

Medial meniscus

Lateral meniscus

Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL)

Posterior cruciate ligament (PCL)

Transverse ligament of knee

Menisiofemoral ligaments

Infrapatellar synovial fold and alar folds

Menisci**Medial Meniscus**

C-shaped fibrocartilage.

Attached to tibial collateral ligament and capsule.

Peripheral border thick, inner border thin.

Less mobile.

Anterior horn attached to anterior intercondylar area.

Posterior horn attached to posterior intercondylar area.

Lateral Meniscus

Nearly circular.

More mobile.

Not attached to fibular collateral ligament.

Related to tendon of popliteus.

Horns attached to intercondylar area.

Functions of Menisci

Deepen articular surfaces.

Shock absorption.

Improve stability.

Aid lubrication.

Distribute body weight.

Cruciate Ligaments

Anterior Cruciate Ligament (ACL)

Extends from anterior intercondylar area of tibia to posterior part of medial surface of lateral femoral condyle.

Prevents anterior displacement of tibia on femur.

Taut in extension.

Posterior Cruciate Ligament (PCL)

Extends from posterior intercondylar area of tibia to lateral surface of medial femoral condyle.

Prevents posterior displacement of tibia.

Stronger than ACL.

Transverse Ligament

Connects anterior ends of medial and lateral menisci.

Meniscomfemoral Ligaments

Connect posterior horn of lateral meniscus to medial femoral condyle.

Two ligaments:

Ligament of Humphrey

Ligament of Wrisberg

Clinical Importance (Any Two)

1. Injury to Medial Meniscus

Commonly injured because it is less mobile and attached to tibial collateral ligament.

Twisting movements in semiflexed knee may tear it.

Produces pain, locking and swelling.

2. Anterior Cruciate Ligament Tear

Common sports injury.

Causes instability of knee.

Positive anterior drawer and Lachman tests.

Tibia moves anteriorly on femur.

3. Posterior Cruciate Ligament Tear

Occurs in dashboard injury.

Positive posterior drawer test.

Posterior displacement of tibia occurs.

6. An 18-year-old boy was hit down by car while walking on the road and sustained injury to his right knee joint. He visited to orthopaedic clinic with complaints of pain, swelling and while walking his right knee is giving out (instability). On examination, soft tissue swelling and tenderness present around right knee joint. Lachman test was performed and shows abnormal forward & backward movement of right tibia. With your anatomical knowledge, answer the following questions related to knee joint.

Describe the articular surfaces of knee joint.

The knee joint is formed by:

Lower end of femur

Upper end of tibia

Posterior surface of patella

Femoral Articular Surfaces

Medial and lateral femoral condyles.

Covered with hyaline cartilage.

Separated posteriorly by intercondylar notch.

Patellar surface present anteriorly.

Tibial Articular Surfaces

Superior surfaces of medial and lateral tibial condyles.

Medial surface oval and larger.

Lateral surface circular.

Intercondylar area lies between them.

Patellar Articular Surface

Posterior surface divided into medial and lateral facets.

Articulates with patellar surface of femur.

Describe the ligaments of knee joint.

Extracapsular Ligaments

Patellar ligament

Tibial collateral ligament

Fibular collateral ligament

Oblique popliteal ligament

Arcuate popliteal ligament

Intracapsular Ligaments

Anterior cruciate ligament

Posterior cruciate ligament

Menisci

Transverse ligament

Meniscomfemoral ligaments

Name the structure(s) that maintain the anteroposterior stability of knee joint.

Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL)

Posterior cruciate ligament (PCL)

What is locking and unlocking of knee joint.

Locking of Knee Joint

Occurs during terminal extension.

Medial rotation of femur on tibia in weight-bearing limb.

Produces maximum stability.

Called screw-home mechanism.

Unlocking of Knee Joint

Initiated by popliteus muscle.

Causes lateral rotation of femur on tibia.

Flexion becomes possible.

Nerves that supply knee joint

Femoral nerve

Tibial nerve

Common peroneal nerve

Obturator nerve

7. 35 years male patient was brought to the casualty with a swollen right knee and a history of a fall during mountain climbing. There was severe pain and restricted mobility at the joint. Answer the following.

Describe the attachments and relations of ligaments of this joint

Tibial Collateral Ligament

Attachments

Medial femoral condyle to medial surface of tibia.

Attached to medial meniscus.

Relations

Tendons of sartorius, gracilis and semitendinosus superficial.

Medial meniscus deep.

Fibular Collateral Ligament

Attachments

Lateral femoral condyle to head of fibula.

Relations

Tendon of popliteus deep.

Biceps femoris tendon superficial.

Common peroneal nerve related.

Anterior Cruciate Ligament

Attachments

Anterior intercondylar area of tibia to medial surface of lateral femoral condyle.

Relation

Covered by synovial membrane.

Posterior Cruciate Ligament

Attachments

Posterior intercondylar area of tibia to lateral surface of medial femoral condyle.

Relation

Strongest ligament of knee.

What are the movements at this joint and which muscles are involved?

Flexion

Muscles:

Hamstrings

Sartorius

Gracilis**Gastrocnemius****Popliteus****Extension****Muscle:****Quadriceps femoris****Medial Rotation****Muscles:****Semimembranosus****Semitendinosus****Sartorius****Gracilis****Popliteus****Lateral Rotation****Muscle:****Biceps femoris**

8. A 50 year old man came to the casualty with complaint of pain in the hip joint. Answer the following questions

Bones forming hip joint**Head of femur****Acetabulum of hip bone****Movements and muscles causing them****Flexion****Iliopsoas****Rectus femoris****Sartorius****Extension****Gluteus maximus****Hamstrings****Abduction****Gluteus medius****Gluteus minimus****Adduction****Adductor longus****Adductor brevis****Adductor magnus****Gracilis****Medial Rotation****Anterior fibers of gluteus medius and minimus****Lateral Rotation****Piriformis****Obturator****Gemelli****Quadratus femoris****Gluteus maximus****Blood supply**

Medial circumflex femoral artery

Lateral circumflex femoral artery

Acetabular branch of obturator artery

Superior and inferior gluteal arteries

Ligaments

Iliofemoral ligament

Pubofemoral ligament

Ischiofemoral ligament

Ligament of head of femur

Transverse acetabular ligament

Nerve supply

Femoral nerve

Obturator nerve

Nerve to quadratus femoris

Superior gluteal nerve

Applied aspects

Congenital dislocation of hip

Fracture neck of femur

Osteoarthritis

Posterior dislocation of hip

Avascular necrosis of femoral head

9. A 30-years old man was brought to the casualty following a road traffic accident. On examination, his right lower limb was shorted, flexed and internally rotated. X-

ray of his right hip showed posterior displacement of head of femur. Following surgical correction of dislocation of hip, the patient was not able to dorsiflex his right foot. Based on your knowledge in anatomy answer the following questions.

Injury to which nerve in posterior dislocation of hip, can produce inability to dorsiflex the foot.

Sciatic nerve, especially common peroneal division.

Briefly describe the articular surfaces, capsule and ligaments, blood supply and nerve supply of the hip joint.

Articular Surfaces

Head of femur except fovea.

Lunate surface of acetabulum.

Capsule

Proximal Attachment

Margin of acetabulum and transverse acetabular ligament.

Distal Attachment

Intertrochanteric line anteriorly.

Neck of femur posteriorly.

Ligaments

Iliofemoral ligament

Pubofemoral ligament

Ischiofemoral ligament

Ligament of head of femur

Blood Supply

Medial circumflex femoral artery
Lateral circumflex femoral artery
Acetabular branch of obturator artery

Nerve Supply

Femoral nerve
Obturator nerve
Nerve to quadratus femoris
Superior gluteal nerve

Name the muscles acting at the hip joint and mention the appropriate movements produced by them

Flexors

Iliopsoas
Rectus femoris
Sartorius

Extensors

Gluteus maximus
Hamstrings

Abductors

Gluteus medius
Gluteus minimus

Adductors

Adductor group

Gracilis**Medial Rotators**

Gluteus medius and minimus

Lateral Rotators

Piriformis

Obturator

Gemelli

Quadratus femoris

Mention the anatomical features render this joint prone to dislocation.

Weak posterior capsule.

Hip flexion reduces stability.

Posterior dislocation common in dashboard injury.

Femoral head partly uncovered inferiorly.

10. A footballer is suffering from sustained injury to his right knee while kicking. His leg got forcefully abducted in a slightly flexed position.

Which is the likely meniscus has injured in this case.

Medial meniscus.

Why this meniscus is more prone to injury as compared to the other one.

Firmly attached to tibial collateral ligament and capsule.

Less mobile.

Gets trapped during twisting injuries.

Enumerate the other intra capsular structures of the knee joint

Lateral meniscus

ACL

PCL

Transverse ligament

Meniscomfemoral ligaments

Infrapatellar synovial fold

Briefly describe the process of locking and unlocking at the knee joint

Locking

Occurs during terminal extension.

Medial rotation of femur on tibia.

Provides stability.

Unlocking

Initiated by popliteus.

Lateral rotation of femur.

Flexion starts.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the cruciate ligaments and menisci of knee joint and their clinical importance

Cruciate Ligaments

Anterior Cruciate Ligament

Extends from anterior intercondylar area of tibia to medial surface of lateral femoral condyle.

Prevents anterior displacement of tibia.

Taut in extension.

Posterior Cruciate Ligament

Extends from posterior intercondylar area of tibia to lateral surface of medial femoral condyle.

Prevents posterior displacement of tibia.

Strongest ligament.

Menisci

Medial Meniscus

C-shaped.

Attached to tibial collateral ligament.

Less mobile.

Lateral Meniscus

Circular.

More mobile.

Related to tendon of popliteus.

Functions

Shock absorption.

Stability.

Lubrication.

Weight distribution.

Clinical Importance

ACL tear causes instability.

Medial meniscus frequently injured.

PCL injury in dashboard accidents.

Locking of knee may occur.

2. Ligaments of knee joint

Extracapsular Ligaments

Patellar ligament

Tibial collateral ligament

Fibular collateral ligament

Oblique popliteal ligament

Arcuate popliteal ligament

Intracapsular Ligaments

ACL

PCL

Menisci

Transverse ligament

Meniscomfemoral ligaments

Functions

Stabilize knee joint.

Prevent abnormal movements.

Maintain anteroposterior stability.

3. Movements at knee joint

Flexion

Muscles:

Hamstrings

Sartorius

Gracilis

Gastrocnemius

Extension

Muscle:

Quadriceps femoris

Medial Rotation

Semitendinosus

Semimembranosus

Sartorius

Gracilis

Lateral Rotation

Biceps femoris

Locking

Medial rotation during terminal extension.

Unlocking

Popliteus initiates flexion.

4. Hip joint

Type

Synovial ball and socket joint.

Articular Surfaces

Head of femur.

Acetabulum.

Ligaments

Iliofemoral

Pubofemoral

Ischiofemoral

Ligament of head of femur

Movements

Flexion

Extension

Abduction

Adduction

Rotation

Circumduction

Blood Supply

Circumflex femoral arteries.

Nerve Supply

Femoral

Obturator

Nerve to quadratus femoris

Applied Anatomy

Congenital dislocation.

Fracture neck femur.

Osteoarthritis.

SHORT NOTES

1. Describe the factors stabilizing the ankle joint.

Shape of trochlea of talus.

Strong collateral ligaments.

Tibia and fibula forming mortise.

Tendons around joint.

Muscle tone.

2. Ankle joint

Type

Synovial hinge joint.

Bones

Tibia

Fibula

Talus

Ligaments

Medial

Deltoid ligament.

Lateral

Anterior talofibular

Calcaneofibular

Posterior talofibular**Movements****Dorsiflexion****Plantar flexion****Nerve Supply****Deep peroneal nerve****Tibial nerve****3. Lateral rotators of hip joint.****Piriformis****Obturator internus****Obturator externus****Superior gemellus****Inferior gemellus****Quadratus femoris****Gluteus maximus****Functions:****Lateral rotation and stabilization of hip.****4. Deltoid ligament of ankle****Attachments****From medial malleolus to talus, calcaneus and navicular.****Parts****Tibionavicular****Tibiocalcaneal****Anterior tibiotalar****Posterior tibiotalar****Functions****Prevents eversion.****Stabilizes ankle.****5. Ligamentum patella****Continuation of quadriceps tendon.****Extends from apex of patella to tibial tuberosity.****Provides anterior support.****Patellar reflex tested through it.****6. Tibial collateral ligament****Strong flat band.****Extends from medial femoral condyle to medial tibia.****Attached to medial meniscus.****Prevents abduction.****Commonly injured.****7. Medial collateral ligament of knee joint****Same as tibial collateral ligament.****Attached to medial meniscus.****Prevents valgus stress.****Injury associated with medial meniscus tear.**

8. Cruciate ligaments**ACL**

Prevents anterior displacement of tibia.

PCL

Prevents posterior displacement.

Functions

Maintain stability.

Guide movements.

Applied Anatomy

Sports injuries.

Drawer tests positive.

9. Intra articular structures of knee joint

Medial meniscus

Lateral meniscus

ACL

PCL

Transverse ligament

Meniscomfemoral ligaments

Infrapatellar synovial fold

Functions:

Stability and shock absorption.

10. Locking and unlocking**Locking**

Medial rotation during terminal extension.

Provides stability.

Unlocking

Popliteus muscle initiates flexion.

Lateral rotation occurs.

VEINS**LONG ESSAYS**

1. A 50 year old traffic police man came to a surgeon with a complaint of swollen vessels in the leg which appears prominent on standing for long periods. On examination it was found to be superficial veins of lower limb involved

What is the name of this condition and which are the vessels involved.

Varicose veins.

Mainly great saphenous vein and tributaries.

What is the test performed in this condition

Trendelenburg test

Perthes test

Schwartz test

Describe the origin course and termination of these vessels

Great Saphenous Vein

Origin

Continuation of medial marginal vein of foot.

Course

Passes anterior to medial malleolus.

Ascends along medial side of leg and thigh.

Pierces cribriform fascia.

Termination

Opens into femoral vein.

Small Saphenous Vein

Origin

Continuation of lateral marginal vein.

Course

Passes behind lateral malleolus.

Ascends posteriorly in leg.

Termination

Opens into popliteal vein.

Describe the communication between superficial and deep veins and their role in venous drainage of lower limb

Perforating Veins

Connect superficial and deep veins.

Valves direct blood from superficial to deep veins.

Role

Aid venous return.

Calf muscle pump assists drainage.

Prevent venous stasis.

2. A 40 year old shopkeeper whose job requires standing up to 15 hours per day developed abnormally swollen (Varicose) veins in left leg leading to non-healing ulcers above left medial malleolus. The condition was diagnosed by a surgeon as dilated and incompetent saphenous vein and associated incompetent perforators. Based on your basic knowledge of anatomy answer the following questions.

Describe the course and relations of great saphenous vein

Course

Begins at medial end of dorsal venous arch.

Passes anterior to medial malleolus.

Ascends medial side of leg.

Passes behind medial condyle.

Ascends medial thigh.

Pierces cribriform fascia.

Terminates into femoral vein.

Relations

Accompanied by saphenous nerve in leg.

Name the tributaries of great saphenous vein

Superficial epigastric vein

Superficial circumflex iliac vein

Superficial external pudendal vein

Anterior accessory vein

Posterior accessory vein

What are perforating veins and what is its function.

Veins connecting superficial and deep veins.

Valves direct blood towards deep veins.

Help venous return.

Describe the various perforating veins in lower limb.

Cockett perforators

Boyd perforator

Dodd perforator

Name the tests performed for observing competence of superficial veins

Trendelenburg test

Perthes test

Schwartz test

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Anatomical basis of varicose veins and deep vein thrombosis in lower limbs.

Varicose Veins

Dilated tortuous superficial veins.

Due to valve incompetence.

Common in great saphenous vein.

Causes

Prolonged standing.

Pregnancy.

Obesity.

Applied Anatomy

Venous ulcers near medial malleolus.

Deep Vein Thrombosis

Clot formation in deep veins.

Common in deep veins of leg.

Predisposing Factors

Immobilization.

Surgery.

Hypercoagulable states.

Complication

Pulmonary embolism.

2. Formation, course, tributaries and termination of great saphenous vein. Give its applied importance.

Formation

Continuation of medial marginal vein.

Course

Anterior to medial malleolus.

Medial side of leg and thigh.

Pierces cribriform fascia.

Tributaries

Superficial epigastric

Superficial circumflex iliac

External pudendal veins

Termination

Femoral vein.

Applied Importance

Varicose veins.

Venous cut down.

Used for grafts in bypass surgery.

3. Venous drainage of lower limb

Superficial Veins

Great saphenous vein

Small saphenous vein

Deep Veins

Accompany arteries.

Perforators

Connect superficial and deep systems.

Mechanism of Venous Return

Muscle pump.

Venous valves.

SHORT NOTES

1. Clinical importance of venous drainage of lower limb

Varicose veins.

Deep vein thrombosis.

Venous ulcers.

Pulmonary embolism.

Venous cut down.

2. Great saphenous vein

Longest vein in body.

Origin from medial marginal vein.

Ends in femoral vein.

Accompanied by saphenous nerve.

Applied:

Varicose veins.

Coronary bypass graft.

3. Anatomical basis of dilated veins of lower limb.

Valve incompetence.

Increased venous pressure.

Failure of muscle pump.

Common in prolonged standing.

SYSTEMIC EMBRYOLOGY RELATED TO THORAX, ABDOMEN & PELVIS, LOWER LIMB

LONG ESSAYS

1. A 2-month old male child was brought to the hospital since the mother noticed the left scrotum of the boy was empty. On examination it was noticed that the right testis was in the scrotum. A swelling of 1.5 cm diameter was noted in the left inguinal region. On ultrasound examination it was confirmed that the left testis was in inguinal canal.

Mention any two conditions resulting in empty scrotum in newborn.

Undescended testis (cryptorchidism)

Ectopic testis

Describe the development and descent of testis.

Development of Testis

Develops from genital ridge.

Primordial germ cells migrate into ridge.

Testis cords form seminiferous tubules.

Interstitial cells form Leydig cells.

Descent of Testis

Governed by gubernaculum.

Testis descends from posterior abdominal wall.

Passes through inguinal canal.

Reaches scrotum before birth.

Coverings of testis

Skin

Dartos fascia

External spermatic fascia

Cremasteric fascia and muscle

Internal spermatic fascia

Tunica vaginalis

Tunica albuginea

Microscopic structure of testis

Covered by tunica albuginea.

Divided into lobules.

Seminiferous tubules lined by germinal epithelium.

Sertoli cells support spermatogenesis.

Interstitial Leydig cells produce testosterone.

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the development of kidney and its associated anomalies.

Development

Kidney develops from intermediate mesoderm.

Three stages:

Pronephros

Mesonephros

Metanephros

Metanephros forms permanent kidney.

Ureteric bud forms collecting system.

Metanephric blastema forms nephrons.

Anomalies

Horseshoe kidney

Pelvic kidney

Polycystic kidney

Renal agenesis

Duplex ureter

2. Midgut – Derivatives, Rotation and Associated anomalies

Derivatives

Distal duodenum.

Jejunum.

Ileum.

Cecum.

Appendix.

Ascending colon.

Proximal two-thirds transverse colon.

Rotation

Physiological herniation occurs.

Midgut rotates 270° anticlockwise around superior mesenteric artery.

Anomalies

Nonrotation

Malrotation

Volvulus

Meckel diverticulum

SHORT NOTES

1. Development and congenital anomalies of hindgut.

Development

Hindgut forms distal one-third transverse colon, descending colon, sigmoid colon, rectum and upper anal canal.

Cloaca divided by urorectal septum.

Congenital Anomalies

Imperforate anus

Rectourethral fistula

Hirschsprung disease

2. Briefly explain the fetal circulation and changes taking place in newborn after birth

Fetal Circulation

Oxygenated blood from placenta through umbilical vein.

Ductus venosus bypasses liver.

Foramen ovale allows right to left atrial shunt.

Ductus arteriosus connects pulmonary trunk to aorta.

Changes After Birth

Closure of umbilical vessels.

Closure of foramen ovale.

Closure of ductus arteriosus.

Pulmonary circulation established.

3. Development of interatrial septum

Septum primum grows downward.

Ostium primum closes.

Ostium secundum forms.

Septum secundum develops.

Foramen ovale persists in fetus.

Closes after birth.

4. Para mesonephric duct

Also called Müllerian duct.

Forms uterine tube, uterus and upper vagina in females.

Regresses in males.

5. Formation and fate of the para mesonephric duct

Formation

Invagination of coelomic epithelium.

Fate

Female

Forms uterine tubes, uterus and upper vagina.

Male

Mostly regresses.

6. Development of pancreas

Develops from dorsal and ventral pancreatic buds.

Ventral bud rotates posteriorly.

Buds fuse.

Derivatives

Ventral bud forms uncinate process and part of head.

Dorsal bud forms remaining pancreas.

Anomalies

Annular pancreas.

Pancreas divisum.

7. Inter ventricular septum

Muscular part develops upward from ventricular floor.

Membranous part forms from endocardial cushions.

Defect causes ventricular septal defect.

8. List the derivatives of mesonephric duct in males

Epididymis

Ductus deferens

Seminal vesicle

Ejaculatory duct

Appendix epididymis**9. Right atrial development**

Primitive atrium forms trabeculated part.

Right horn of sinus venosus forms smooth part.

Crista terminalis separates two parts.

10. Meckel's diverticulum

Persistence of vitellointestinal duct.

Located on ileum.

May contain ectopic gastric mucosa.

Causes bleeding and inflammation.

11. Development of portal vein

Develops from vitelline veins.

Anastomosis between vitelline veins forms portal vein.

12. Development of lungs

Respiratory diverticulum arises from foregut.

Bronchial buds form lungs.

Branching forms bronchial tree.

Stages

Pseudoglandular

Canalicular

Saccular

Alveolar**13. Developmental descent of testis**

Testis develops on posterior abdominal wall.

Guided by gubernaculum.

Passes through inguinal canal.

Reaches scrotum before birth.

Applied Anatomy

Cryptorchidism.

Inguinal hernia.

14. Derivatives of midgut

Distal duodenum

Jejunum

Ileum

Cecum

Appendix

Ascending colon

Proximal two-thirds transverse colon

15. Derivatives of pre-arterial segment of midgut loop

The midgut loop is supplied by the superior mesenteric artery. The artery divides the loop into:

Pre-arterial (cranial) segment

Post-arterial (caudal) segment

Derivatives of Pre-arterial Segment**The pre-arterial segment gives rise to:****Distal part of duodenum****Jejunum****Part of ileum****Features****Forms upper part of intestinal loops****Develops rapidly during physiological herniation****Forms most of the small intestine****Blood Supply****Superior mesenteric artery****Applied Anatomy****Malrotation of midgut may produce intestinal obstruction.****Failure of return of midgut loop causes congenital umbilical hernia.****16. Development of anal canal****The anal canal develops from two embryological sources:****Upper part from hindgut endoderm****Lower part from proctodeum (ectoderm)****Development****Upper Two-Thirds****Develops from dorsal part of cloaca****Endodermal in origin****Lined by columnar epithelium****Lower One-Third****Develops from proctodeum****Ectodermal in origin****Lined by stratified squamous epithelium****Pectinate Line****Junction between endoderm and ectoderm****Represents site of anal membrane****Anal Membrane****Initially separates hindgut from proctodeum****Ruptures during development to establish communication****Differences Above and Below Pectinate Line****Above Pectinate Line****Endodermal origin****Columnar epithelium****Superior rectal artery supply****Portal venous drainage****Autonomic nerve supply****Below Pectinate Line****Ectodermal origin****Stratified squamous epithelium****Inferior rectal artery supply****Systemic venous drainage****Somatic nerve supply****Applied Anatomy**

Internal hemorrhoids occur above pectinate line.

External hemorrhoids occur below pectinate line.

SYSTEMIC HISTOLOGY related to THORAX, ABDOMEN & PELVIS, LOWER LIMB

SHORT ESSAYS

1. Describe the microanatomy of the kidney. What are the components of the juxtaglomerular apparatus

Microanatomy of Kidney

The kidney is composed of an outer cortex and inner medulla.

1. Renal Cortex

It contains:

Renal corpuscles

Proximal convoluted tubules

Distal convoluted tubules

Medullary rays

Renal Corpuscle

It consists of:

Glomerulus – tuft of capillaries

Bowman's capsule

Parietal layer – simple squamous epithelium

Visceral layer – podocytes

Bowman's space

Proximal Convoluted Tubule

Lined by simple cuboidal epithelium with brush border

Cells are eosinophilic

Lumen appears narrow

Site of maximum reabsorption

Distal Convoluted Tubule

Lined by simple cuboidal epithelium without brush border

Wider lumen

Less eosinophilic

Involved in ion exchange

2. Renal Medulla

Contains:

Loops of Henle

Collecting tubules and ducts

Vasa recta

Loop of Henle

Thin segment lined by simple squamous epithelium

Thick segment lined by cuboidal epithelium

Collecting Ducts

Lined by cuboidal to columnar epithelium

Unite to form ducts of Bellini

Blood Supply

Renal artery → Interlobar arteries → Arcuate arteries → Interlobular arteries → Afferent arterioles → Glomerular capillaries → Efferent arterioles → Peritubular capillaries/vasa recta.

Functions

Formation of urine

Regulation of electrolyte balance

Maintenance of acid-base balance

Endocrine function (renin, erythropoietin)

Components of Juxtaglomerular Apparatus

Juxtaglomerular apparatus is located near the vascular pole of renal corpuscle.

It consists of:

Juxtaglomerular cells

Modified smooth muscle cells of afferent arteriole

Secrete renin

Macula densa

Specialized cells of distal convoluted tubule

Detect sodium concentration

Extraglomerular mesangial cells (Lacis cells)

Present between afferent and efferent arterioles

Provide support and communication

Functions of Juxtaglomerular Apparatus

Regulation of blood pressure

Regulation of glomerular filtration rate

Secretion of renin

2. Describe the microscopic features of fundus and pyloric part of stomach

General Structure of Stomach

Wall of stomach consists of:

Mucosa

Submucosa

Muscularis externa

Serosa

Fundus of Stomach

Mucosa

Lined by simple columnar mucus secreting epithelium

Gastric pits are short

Gastric glands are long, straight and branched tubular glands

Cells of Fundic Glands

Mucous neck cells

Secrete mucus	Pyloric glands are short, branched and coiled	
Chief cells	Cells	
Basophilic cells	Mucous cells	
Secrete pepsinogen	Predominant	
Parietal cells	Secrete mucus	
Large eosinophilic cells	Enteroendocrine cells	
Secrete hydrochloric acid and intrinsic factor	G cells secrete gastrin	
Enteroendocrine cells	Features Differentiating Fundus and Pylorus	
Secrete hormones	Fundus	Pylorus
Submucosa	Short pits	Deep pits
Dense connective tissue	Long straight glands	Short coiled glands
Contains blood vessels and Meissner's plexus	Numerous parietal and chief cells	Predominantly mucous cells
	Acid secretion	Mucus secretion
Muscularis Externa	3. Explain the microscopic structure of small intestine	
Three layers:	Layers of Small Intestine	
Inner oblique	Mucosa	
Middle circular	Submucosa	
Outer longitudinal	Muscularis externa	
Serosa	Serosa/adventitia	
Thin connective tissue covered by mesothelium	Mucosa	
Pyloric Part of Stomach	Epithelium	
Mucosa	Simple columnar epithelium	
Gastric pits are deep		

Contains absorptive cells with microvilli

Goblet cells present

Intestinal Villi

Finger-like projections

Covered by epithelium

Core contains lamina propria and lacteal

Crypts of Lieberkuhn

Tubular glands present between villi.

Cells present:

Absorptive cells

Goblet cells

Paneth cells

Enteroendocrine cells

Stem cells

Lamina Propria

Loose connective tissue

Contains blood vessels, lymphatics and lymphoid tissue

Muscularis Mucosa

Thin smooth muscle layer

Submucosa

Dense connective tissue

Contains Meissner's plexus

Duodenum contains Brunner's glands

Muscularis Externa

Inner circular layer

Outer longitudinal layer

Myenteric plexus present between layers

Serosa

Outer covering of mesothelium

Regional Differences

Duodenum

Broad villi

Brunner's glands present

Jejunum

Long villi

No Brunner's glands or Peyer's patches

Ileum

Short villi

Peyer's patches present

More goblet cells

Functions

Digestion

Absorption

Secretion

4. Microscopic structure of stomach with neat labelled diagram

Microscopic Structure of Stomach

The wall of stomach has four layers:

Mucosa

Submucosa

Muscularis externa

Serosa

1. Mucosa

Epithelium

Simple columnar mucus secreting epithelium

Gastric Pits

Invaginations of surface epithelium

Open into gastric glands

Gastric Glands

Contain:

Mucous neck cells

Chief cells

Parietal cells

Enteroendocrine cells

Lamina Propria

Loose connective tissue between glands

Muscularis Mucosa

Thin smooth muscle layer

2. Submucosa

Dense irregular connective tissue

Contains blood vessels and Meissner's plexus

3. Muscularis Externa

Three layers:

Inner oblique

Middle circular

Outer longitudinal

Auerbach's plexus lies between muscle layers.

4. Serosa

Connective tissue covered by mesothelium

Functions

Digestion of food

Secretion of hydrochloric acid and enzymes

Protection by mucus

Diagram

REFER DIAGRAM SECTION

5. Uterus - Microscopic anatomy and changes in different phases of uterine cycle

Microscopic Anatomy of Uterus**Wall of uterus consists of:****Endometrium****Myometrium****Perimetrium****1. Endometrium****Consists of:****Surface epithelium****Lamina propria****Uterine glands****Epithelium****Simple columnar epithelium****Ciliated and secretory cells present****Uterine Glands****Simple tubular glands****Layers****Stratum functionalis****Stratum basalis****2. Myometrium****Thick smooth muscle layer****Contains blood vessels****3. Perimetrium****Outer serous covering****Changes During Uterine Cycle****1. Menstrual Phase****Shedding of stratum functionalis****Rupture of blood vessels****Hemorrhage occurs****2. Proliferative Phase****Under estrogen influence****Regeneration of endometrium****Glands are straight and narrow****Spiral arteries lengthen****3. Secretory Phase****Under progesterone influence****Endometrium thickens****Glands become tortuous and secrete glycogen****Spiral arteries become coiled****Functions of Uterus****Implantation****Nourishment of embryo****Menstruation****6. Histology of ovary****Coverings of Ovary****Germinal epithelium****Simple cuboidal epithelium**

Tunica albuginea	Fibrous scar tissue
Dense connective tissue	Medulla
Regions of Ovary	Loose connective tissue
Cortex	Blood vessels, nerves and lymphatics present
Medulla	Functions
Cortex	Oogenesis
Contains ovarian follicles in different stages.	Hormone secretion
Primordial Follicle	7. Histology of pancreas
Primary oocyte surrounded by flattened follicular cells	Pancreas is a mixed gland with exocrine and endocrine parts.
Primary Follicle	Capsule
Cuboidal granulosa cells	Thin connective tissue capsule
Zona pellucida appears	Septa divide gland into lobules
Secondary Follicle	Exocrine Part
Multiple granulosa cell layers	Composed of serous acini.
Theca interna and externa develop	Acinar Cells
Mature Graafian Follicle	Pyramidal cells
Large antrum present	Basal basophilia
Oocyte attached by cumulus oophorus	Apical zymogen granules
Corpus Luteum	Centroacinar Cells
Formed after ovulation	Present within acini
Secretes progesterone	Beginning of intercalated ducts
Corpus Albicans	Duct System

**Intercalated ducts → Intralobular ducts
→ Interlobular ducts.**

Pancreas does not contain striated ducts.

Endocrine Part

Represented by Islets of Langerhans.

Types of Cells

Alpha cells – glucagon

Beta cells – insulin

Delta cells – somatostatin

PP cells – pancreatic polypeptide

Functions

**Exocrine secretion of digestive
enzymes**

Endocrine regulation of blood glucose

SHORT NOTES

1. Histology of suprarenal gland

Suprarenal gland consists of:

Capsule

Cortex

Medulla

Cortex

Has three zones:

Zona Glomerulosa

Cells arranged in arches

Secretes mineralocorticoids

Zona Fasciculata

Largest zone

Cells arranged in cords

Secretes glucocorticoids

Zona Reticularis

Cells form network

Secretes sex hormones

Medulla

Contains chromaffin cells

Secretes adrenaline and noradrenaline

2. Histology of Testes

Testis is covered by tunica albuginea.

Seminiferous Tubules

Lined by germinal epithelium containing:

Spermatogenic cells

Sertoli cells

Spermatogenic Cells

Spermatogonia

Primary spermatocytes

Secondary spermatocytes

Spermatids

Spermatozoa

Sertoli Cells**Functions:****Support and nourishment****Blood-testis barrier****Interstitial Cells of Leydig****Present between tubules****Secrete testosterone****3. Describe the microscopic structure of liver****Liver is covered by thin connective tissue capsule.****Classical Hepatic Lobule****Hexagonal structure****Central vein in center****Portal triads at corners****Hepatocytes****Arranged in cords****Polygonal cells with central nucleus****Sinusoids****Present between hepatic cords****Lined by endothelial and Kupffer cells****Portal Triad****Contains:****Branch of portal vein****Branch of hepatic artery****Bile ductule****Bile Canaliculi****Present between hepatocytes****Functions:****Bile secretion****Metabolism****Detoxification****4. Histology of kidney****Kidney consists of cortex and medulla.****Cortex****Contains:****Renal corpuscles****Proximal convoluted tubules****Distal convoluted tubules****Renal Corpuscle****Consists of glomerulus and Bowman's capsule.****Proximal Convoluted Tubule****Cuboidal cells with brush border****Distal Convoluted Tubule****Cuboidal cells without brush border****Medulla****Contains:**

Loops of Henle

Collecting ducts

Functions:

Urine formation

Electrolyte balance

5. Microscopic structure of spleen

Spleen is surrounded by fibroelastic capsule.

Components

White pulp

Red pulp

White Pulp

Lymphoid tissue around central artery

Contains Malpighian corpuscles

Red Pulp

Contains:

Splenic cords of Billroth

Venous sinusoids

Functions

Filtration of blood

Destruction of old red blood cells

Immune function

6. Histology of appendix

Appendix resembles large intestine.

Mucosa

Simple columnar epithelium

Numerous goblet cells

Crypts of Lieberkuhn present

Lamina Propria

Extensive lymphoid tissue present

Submucosa

Contains lymphoid follicles

Muscularis Externa

Inner circular and outer longitudinal layers

Characteristic Feature

Abundant lymphoid tissue

7. Histology of ureter

Wall of ureter consists of:

Mucosa

Muscularis

Adventitia

Mucosa

Lined by transitional epithelium

Mucosa forms folds

Lamina Propria

Fibroelastic connective tissue

Muscularis

Upper two-thirds: inner longitudinal and outer circular layers

Lower one-third: additional outer longitudinal layer

Adventitia

Connective tissue with vessels and nerves

Function:

Transport of urine

8. Histology of pancreas

Pancreas is a mixed gland.

Exocrine Part

Serous acini present

Acinar cells contain zymogen granules

Centroacinar cells present

Endocrine Part

Islets of Langerhans present

Types of Cells

Alpha cells

Beta cells

Delta cells

Function:

Digestive enzyme secretion

Hormone secretion

9. Microscopic structure of prostate

Prostate is a fibromusculoglandular organ.

Capsule

Fibrous capsule present

Glands

Compound tubuloalveolar glands

Lined by columnar epithelium

Stroma

Fibromuscular tissue

Corpora Amylacea

Rounded eosinophilic bodies in lumen

Function:

Secretion of prostatic fluid

10. Microscopic structure of supra renal gland**Suprarenal gland has:**

Capsule

Cortex

Medulla

Cortex**Zona Glomerulosa**

Mineralocorticoid secretion

Zona Fasciculata

Glucocorticoid secretion**Zona Reticularis****Sex hormone secretion****Medulla****Chromaffin cells present****Secretes catecholamines****11. Histology of hepatic and portal lobule****Classical Hepatic Lobule****Hexagonal unit****Central vein at center****Portal triads at corners****Blood flows from periphery to center****Portal Lobule****Triangular unit****Bile duct at center****Central veins at corners****Represents bile secretion unit****Difference**

Hepatic Lobule	Portal Lobule
Functional unit for blood flow	Functional unit for bile secretion
Central vein at center	Portal triad at center
Hexagonal	Triangular

GENERAL QUESTIONS**SHORT NOTES****1. Reflect on the following scenarios in the dissection hall:****i) Placing anatomy books and dissection instruments on the cadaver****ii) Taking pictures of tablemates around the cadaver table and uploading them on social media****i) Placing anatomy books and dissection instruments on the cadaver****Cadaver should be treated with dignity and respect.****Cadaver is considered the first teacher in anatomy.****Keeping books or instruments on cadaver is unethical and disrespectful.****It may damage the cadaver and reflects poor professional attitude.****Proper discipline and decorum should be maintained in dissection hall.****ii) Taking pictures of tablemates around the cadaver table and uploading them on social media****Taking photographs in dissection hall is unethical unless officially permitted.****Uploading cadaver images on social media violates confidentiality and dignity of donor.****It may hurt sentiments of family members and society.**

Medical students should maintain professionalism and ethical conduct.

Respect for body donors should always be maintained.

2. How should a medical practitioner communicate to patients.

A medical practitioner should communicate effectively and compassionately with patients.

Principles of Good Communication

Listen attentively to patient complaints.

Use simple and understandable language.

Maintain eye contact and empathy.

Respect patient privacy and confidentiality.

Explain diagnosis and treatment clearly.

Encourage patient questions.

Obtain informed consent before procedures.

Avoid rude or judgmental behavior.

Maintain professional attitude.

Provide emotional support and reassurance.

Importance

Builds trust between doctor and patient

Improves treatment compliance

Reduces anxiety and misunderstandings

Enhances doctor-patient relationship

3. Describe the importance of communication skill in medical profession

Importance of Communication Skills

Establishes good doctor-patient relationship.

Helps in accurate history taking.

Improves patient satisfaction.

Increases treatment compliance.

Helps in counseling patients and relatives.

Reduces medical errors and misunderstandings.

Essential for teamwork among healthcare workers.

Important in obtaining informed consent.

Improves professional ethics and empathy.

Enhances overall quality of healthcare.

Conclusion

Good communication is an essential clinical skill for every doctor and improves patient care.

4. Reflect on the statement “Respect for Cadaver in the dissection hall”.

Cadaver is regarded as the first teacher of medical students.

Importance of Respect for Cadaver

Cadaver donation is a noble act for medical education.

Students learn anatomy through dissection.

Respectful behavior reflects professional ethics.

Proper handling preserves dignity of donor.

Silence and discipline should be maintained in dissection hall.

Photography and disrespectful acts should be avoided.

Cadaver should be covered properly after dissection.

Gratitude towards body donors should be maintained.

Conclusion

Respect for cadaver develops professionalism, ethics and empathy in future doctors.