

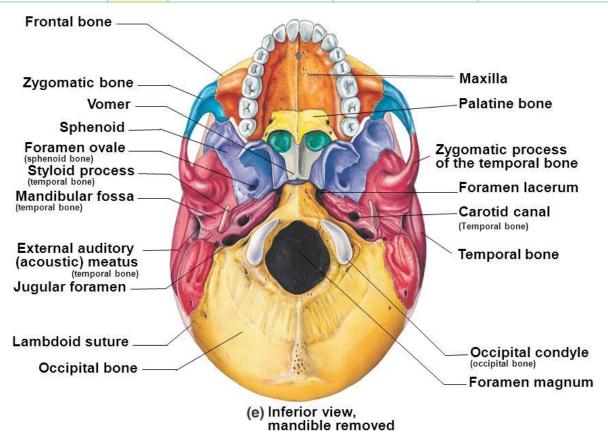


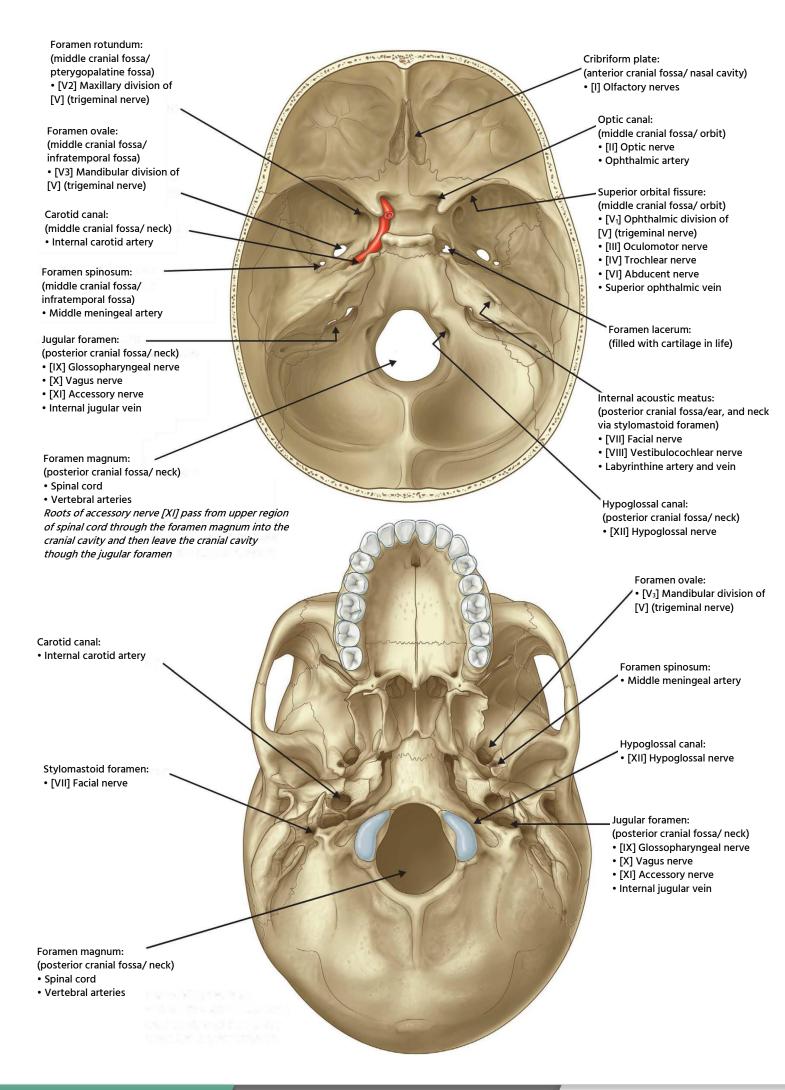
Foramina of the Base of the Skull	2
Visual Field Defects	4
Cranial Venous Sinuses	6
Cavernous Sinus	7
Sternocleidomastoid	8
Scalene Muscles	9
Anterior Triangle of the Neck	10
Posterior Triangle of the Neck	11
Parathyroid Glands - Anatomy	12
Thyroid Gland	13
Parotid Gland	14
The Tongue	15
Submandibular Gland	16
Brachiocephalic Artery	18
Subclavian Artery	19
Vertebral Artery	19
Common Carotid Artery	20
Circle of Willis	21
Internal Carotid Artery	22
External Carotid Artery	23
Middle Meningeal Artery	24
Internal Jugular Vein	25
Cranial Nerves	26
Trigeminal Nerve	28
Facial Nerve	30
Vagus Nerve	34
Recurrent Laryngeal Nerve	36
Ansa Cervicalis	37
Ear Anatomy	38
Lacrimal System	40
Tonsil	41
Surface Anatomy	42

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Foramina of the Base of the Skull

Foramen	Location		Contents	
Foramen ovale "OVALE"		 Otic ganglion V₃ (Mandibular nerve: 3rd of trigeminal) 	 Accessory meningeal artery Lesser petrosal nerve Emissary veins 	
Foramen spinosum		Middle meningeal arteryMeningeal branch of the	У	
Foramen rotundum		 Maxillary nerve (V₂) 		
Foramen lacerum	Sphenoid bone	oid bone		uperior surface but does not traverse it) canal (Vidian n.) <i>(deep petrosal + superficial greater</i> canal
Optic canal		 Optic nerve + 3 layers of Ophthalmic artery (end a Sympathetic nerves 	f dura $ ightarrow$ infection of meninges is seen as papilledema artery)	
Superior orbital fissure "Live Free Son To See No Ignorant-Ass Individuals" (nerves: 3, 4, 51, 6)		 Lacrimal branch of ophthe Frontal branch of ophthe Superior ophthalmic <i>veir</i> Trochlear (IV) Superior division of oculo 	 Inferior Division of oculomotor (III) Abducens (VI) Inferior ophthalmic veins 	
Carotid canal "SIDE"	ē	Sympathetic plexus arouInternal carotid artery	Deep petrosal nerveEmissary veins	
Jugular foramen	nastoid Imen Leading 1997	Posterior: sigmoid sinus (meningeal branches fron	ral sinus aryngeal, vagus, and accessory nerves. <i>(9, 10, 11)</i> (becoming the internal jugular vein) and some m the occipital and ascending pharyngeal arteries.	
Stylomastoid foramen		Stylomastoid arteryFacial nerve		
Foramen magnum		VesselsVertebral arteriesAnterior spinal arteryPosterior spinal artery	 Nerves Spinal root of XI Lower end of medulla Tissues Tectorial membranes Apical ligament of the dens 	





Visual Field Defects

- Left homonymous hemianopia means visual field defect to the left, i.e. Lesion of right optic tract
- Homonymous quadrantanopias: PITS (Parietal-Inferior, Temporal-Superior)
- Incongruous defects = optic tract lesion; congruous defects = optic radiation lesion or occipital cortex

Homonymous hemianopia

- Incongruous defects: lesion of optic tract
- Congruous defects: lesion of optic radiation or occipital cortex
- Macula sparing: lesion of occipital cortex

Homonymous quadrantanopia

- Superior: lesion of temporal lobe
- Inferior: lesion of parietal lobe
- Mnemonic = *PITS* (Parietal-Inferior, Temporal-Superior)

Lesions before optic chiasm:

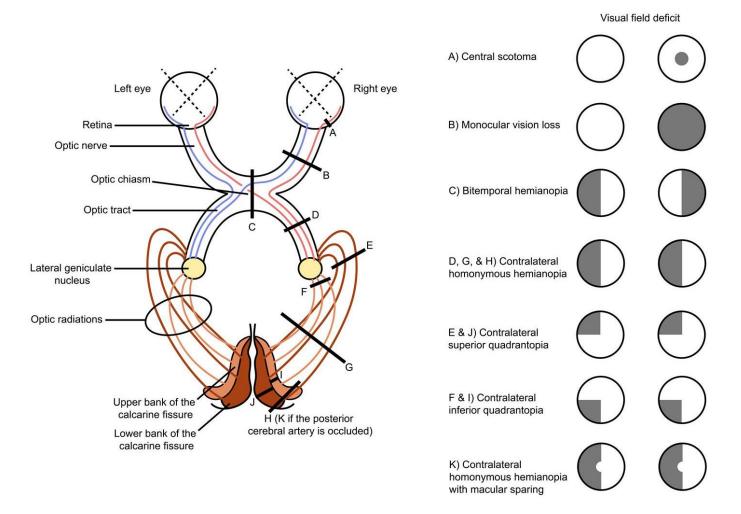
Monocular vision loss = Optic nerve lesion Bitemporal hemianopia = Optic chiasm lesion

Lesions after the optic chiasm:

Homonymous hemianopia = Optic tract lesion Upper quadrantanopia = Temporal lobe lesion Lower quadrantanopia = Parietal lobe lesion

Bitemporal hemianopia

- Lesion of optic chiasm
- Upper quadrant defect > Lower quadrant defect = inf. chiasmal compression, commonly a pituitary tumour
- Lower quadrant defect > Upper quadrant defect = sup. chiasmal compression, commonly a craniopharyngioma



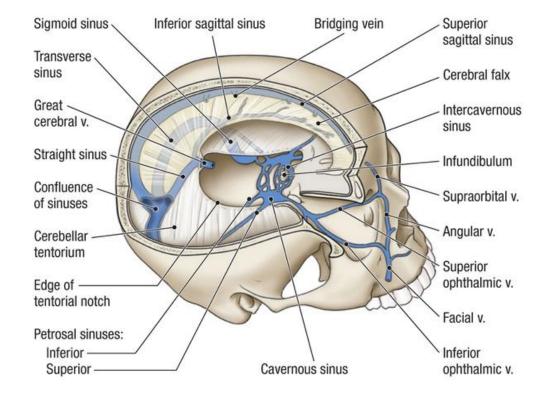
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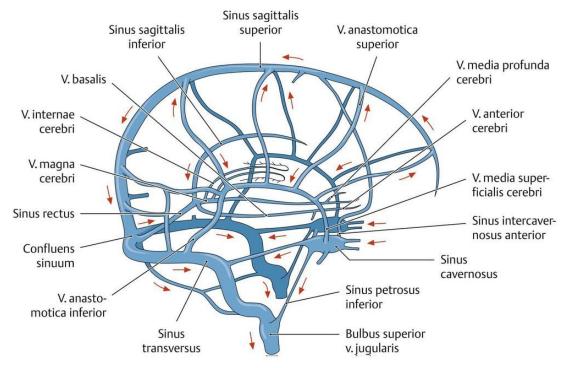


Cranial Venous Sinuses

The cranial venous sinuses are located within the dura mater. They have no valves which is important in the potential for spreading sepsis. They eventually drain into the internal jugular vein. **They are:**

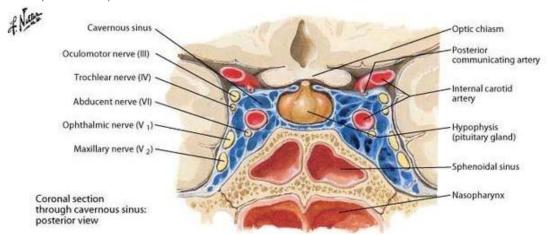
- Superior sagittal sinus
- Inferior sagittal sinus
- Straight sinus
- Transverse sinus
- Sigmoid sinus
- Confluence of sinuses
- Occipital sinus
- Cavernous sinus





Cavernous Sinus

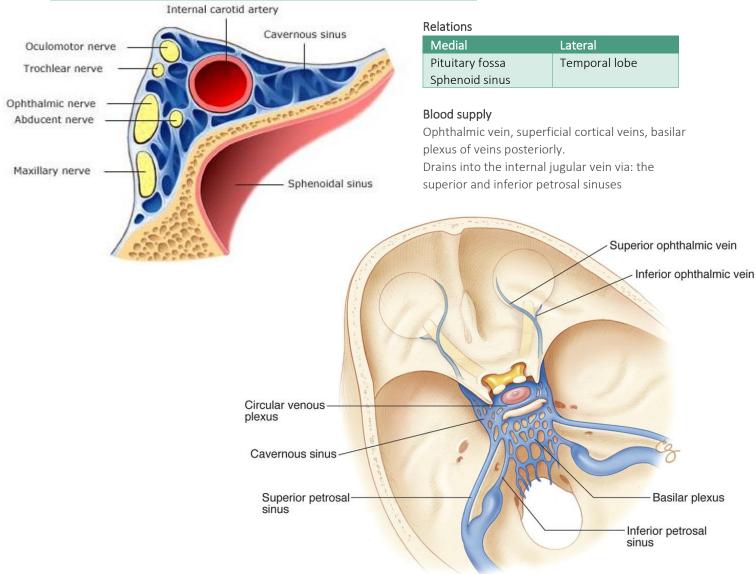
The cavernous sinuses are paired and are situated on the body of the sphenoid bone. It runs from the superior orbital fissure to the petrous temporal bone.



Contents: "O TOM CAT"

Lateral wall components	(from top to bottom:)
	Oculomotor nerve (III)
	Trochlear nerve (IV)
	Ophthalmic nerve (V ₁)
	M axillary nerve (V ₂₎
Contents of the sinus	(from medial to lateral:)
	Internal Carotid artery (and sympathetic plexus)
	Abducens nerve (VI)

Cavernous sinus syndrome is most commonly caused by cavernous sinus tumours. Diagnosis is based on signs of pain, ophthalmoplegia, proptosis, trigeminal nerve lesion (ophthalmic branch) and Horner's syndrome.



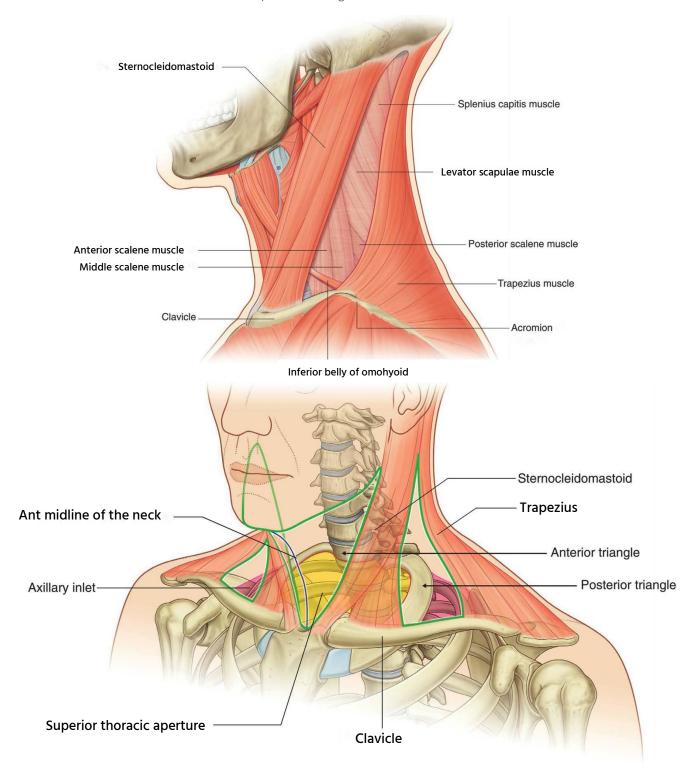
Sternocleidomastoid

Anatomy

Origin	Rounded tendon attached to upper manubrium sterni and muscular head attached to medial third of the clavicle	
Insertion	Mastoid process of the temporal bone and lateral area of the superior nuchal line of the occipital bone	
Innervation	Spinal part of accessory nerve and anterior rami of C2 and C3 (proprioception)*	
Action	 Both: extend the head at atlanto-occipital joint and flex the cervical vertebral column. Accessory muscles of inspiration. Single: lateral flexion of neck, rotates head so face looks upward to the opposite side 	

^{*}The motor supply to the sternocleidomastoid is from the accessory nerve. The ansa cervicalis supplies sensory information from the muscle.

Sternocleidomastoid divides the anterior and posterior triangles of the neck.

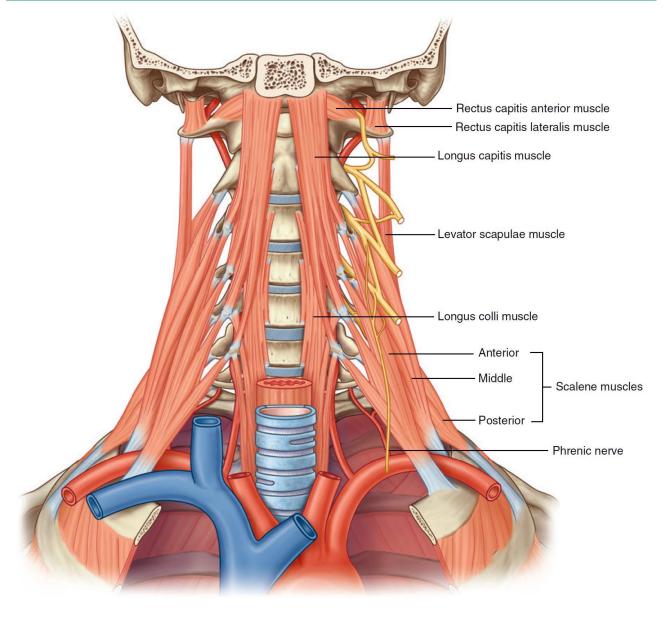


Scalene Muscles

The 3 paired muscles are:

- Scalenus anterior: Elevate 1st rib and laterally flex the neck to same side
- Scalenus medius: Same action as scalenus anterior
- Scalenus posterior: Elevate 2nd rib and tilt neck to opposite side

Innervation	Spinal nerves C4-6
Origin	Transverse processes C2 to C7
Insertion	First and second ribs
Important relations	The brachial plexus and subclavian artery pass between the anterior and middle scalenes through a space called the scalene hiatus/fissure.
	• The subclavian vein and phrenic nerve pass anteriorly to the anterior scalene as it crosses over the first rib.



Thoracic outlet syndrome

The scalenes are at risk of adhering to the fascia surrounding the brachial plexus or shortening causing compression of the brachial plexus when it passes between the clavicle and 1st rib causing thoracic outlet syndrome.

9

Anterior Triangle of the Neck

	<u>~</u>		
jes	Posterior	Anterior border of sternocleidomastoid	
ındar	Ant	Midline of the neck	
Superior Lower border of the mandible		Lower border of the mandible	

Sub triangles (divided by Digastric above and Omohyoid)

Submandibular Triangle (Digastric)

Muscular triangle: Neck strap muscles

Carotid triangle: Carotid sheath

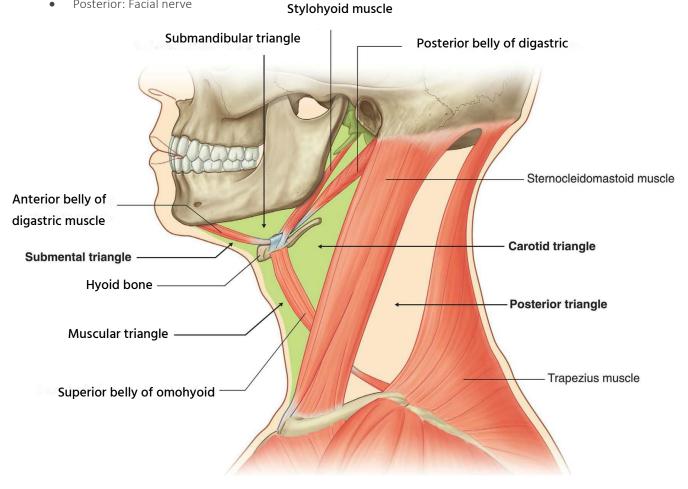
Contents of the anterior triangle

Digastric triangle	Submandibular gland
(submandibular)	Submandibular nodes
	Facial vessels
	Hypoglossal nerve
Muscular	Strap muscles
triangle	External jugular vein
Carotid triangle	Carotid sheath (Common carotid, Vagus and IJV)
	Ansa cervicalis

Nerve supply to digastric muscle

Anterior: Mylohyoid nerve

Posterior: Facial nerve

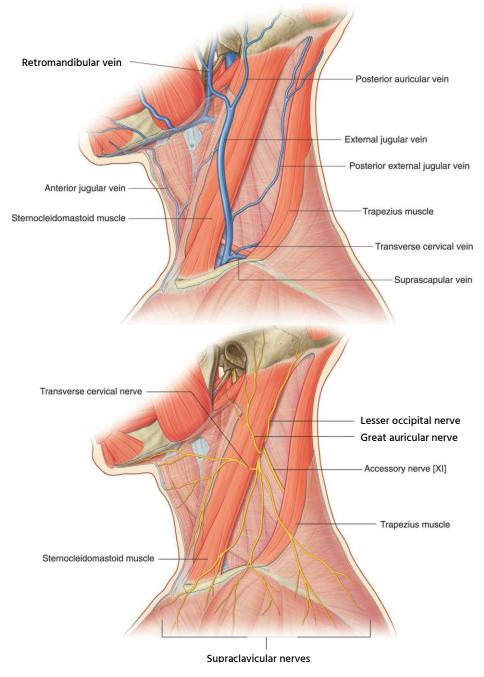


Posterior Triangle of the Neck

	<u> </u>		
Boundaries	Apex	Sternocleidomastoid and the Trapezius muscles at the Occipital bone	
	Anterior	Posterior border of the Sternocleidomastoid	
	Posterior	Anterior border of the Trapezius	
	Base	Middle third of the clavicle	

	Nerves	Accessory nerve
		• Phrenic nerve
		Three trunks of the brachial plexus
		Branches of the cervical plexus: Supraclavicular nerve, transverse cervical
nts		nerve, great auricular nerve, lesser occipital nerve
Contents	Vessels	External jugular vein
S		Subclavian artery (3 rd part)
	Muscles	Inferior belly of omohyoid
		• Scalene
	Lymph nodes	Supraclavicular
		Occipital

The IJV does not lie in the posterior triangle. However, the terminal branches of the external jugular vein do.



Parathyroid Glands - Anatomy

- Four parathyroid glands
- Located posterior to the thyroid gland
- They lie within the pretracheal fascia

Embryology

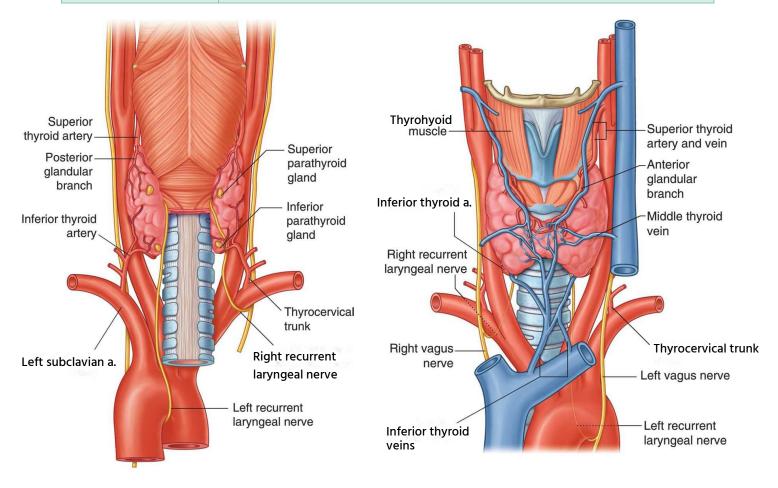
The parathyroids develop from the extremities of the third and fourth pharyngeal pouches. The parathyroids derived from the fourth pharyngeal pouch are located more superiorly and are associated with the thyroid gland. Those derived from the third pharyngeal pouch lie more inferiorly and may become associated with the thymus.

Blood supply

The blood supply to the parathyroid glands is derived from the inferior and superior thyroid arteries (*Thyrocervical trunk* and the ECA respectively). There is a rich anastomosis between the two vessels. Venous drainage is into the thyroid veins.

Relations

Laterally	Common carotid
Medially	Recurrent laryngeal nerve, trachea
Anterior	Thyroid
Posterior	Pretracheal fascia



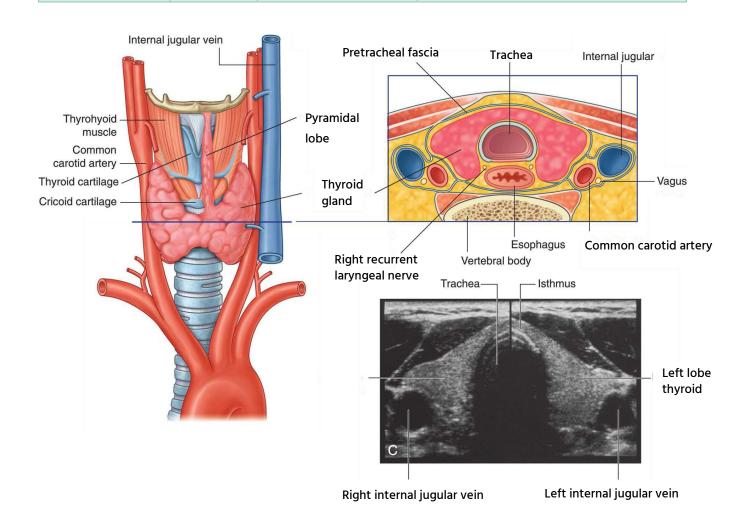


Thyroid Gland

- Right and left lobes connected by isthmus
- Surrounded by sheath from pretracheal layer of deep fascia
- Apex: Lamina of thyroid cartilage. Base: 4th-5th tracheal ring
- Pyramidal lobe: from isthmus. Mnemonic "Rings 2,3,4 make the isthmus floor"
- May be attached to foramen caecum at the base of the tongue

Relations	Anteromedially	Sternothyroid Sternohyoid		
		Superior belly of omohyoid Anterior aspect of sternocleidomastoid		
	Posterolaterally	Carotid sheath (CCA, IJV, X)		
	Medially	 Larynx Oesophagus External laryngeal nerve (near superior thyroid a.) Trachea Cricothyroid Recurrent laryngeal nerve (near inferior thyroid a.) Pharynx 		
	Posterior	Parathyroid glands Anastomosis of superior and inferior thyroid arteries		
	Isthmus	 Anteriorly: Sternothyroid, sternohyoid, anterior jugular veins Posteriorly: 2nd, 3rd, 4th tracheal rings (attached via Ligament of Berry) 		
Blood Supply				
Arterial		 Superior thyroid artery (1st branch of external carotid) Inferior thyroid artery (from thyrocervical trunk from subclavian a. 1st part) Thyroidea ima (in 10% of population -from brachiocephalic artery or aorta) 		

Superior and middle thyroid veins - into the IJV Inferior thyroid vein - into the brachiocephalic veins



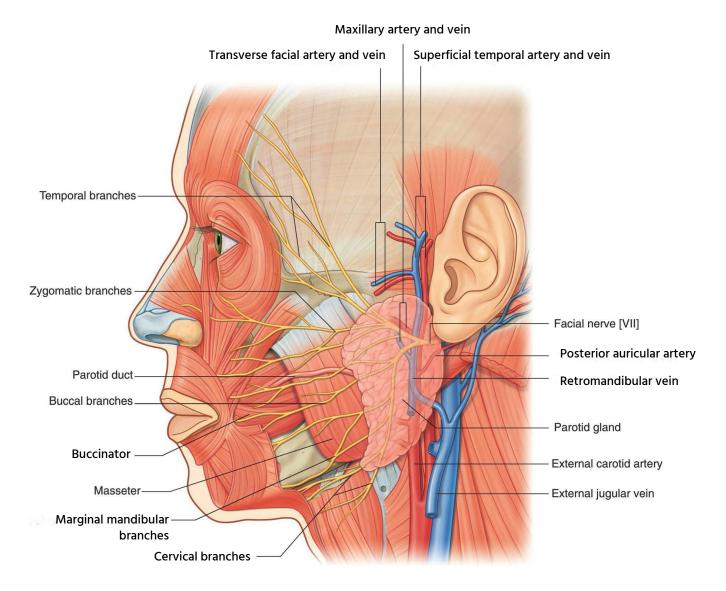
Venous

Parotid Gland

Anatomy of the parotid gland

Location	Overlying the mandibular ramus; anterior and inferior to the ear.	
Salivary duct	Crosses the masseter, pierces the buccinator and drains adjacent to the 2nd upper molar tooth (Stensen's duct).	
Structures passing through the gland	 Facial nerve (most superficial structure) ("The Zebra Buggered My Cat" Temporal Zygomatic, Buccal, Mandibular, Cervical) External carotid artery Retromandibular vein Auriculotemporal nerve (from post. trunk of V₃) 	
Relations	 <u>Anterior</u>: masseter, medial pterygoid, superficial temporal and maxillary artery, facial nerve, stylomandibular ligament <u>Posterior</u>: posterior belly digastric muscle, sternocleidomastoid, stylohyoid, internal carotid artery, mastoid process, styloid process 	
Arterial supply	Branches of external carotid artery	
Venous drainage	Retromandibular vein (union of the superficial temporal and maxillary veins)	
Lymphatic drainage	Deep cervical nodes	
Nerve innervation	 Parasympathetic: Secretomotor (from otic ganglion) Sympathetic: Superior cervical ganglion Sensory: Greater auricular nerve 	

Parasympathetic stimulation produces a water-rich, serous saliva. Sympathetic stimulation leads to the production of a low volume, enzyme-rich saliva.



The Tongue

Lymphatic Drainage

- The lymphatic drainage of the anterior two thirds of the tongue shows only minimal communication of lymphatics across the midline, so metastasis to the ipsilateral nodes is usual.
- The lymphatic drainage of the **posterior third** of the tongue have communicating networks, as a result early **bilateral nodal metastases** are more common in this area.
- Lymphatics from the **tip** of the tongue usually pass to the **sub mental nodes** and from there to the deep cervical nodes.
- Lymphatics from the **mid portion** of the tongue usually drain to the **submandibular** nodes and then to the deep cervical nodes. Mid tongue tumours that are laterally located will usually drain to the ipsilateral deep cervical nodes, those from more central regions may have bilateral deep cervical nodal involvement.

Motor Innervation

All of the motor innervation is provided by **Hypoglossal (XII)** except for the palatoglossus muscle which is provided by Vagus (X).

Sensory and taste Innervation

Area	Sensory Innervation	Gustatory (taste) Innervation
Posterior part of the root of tongue	Vagu	ıs (X)
Posterior 1/3	Glossophar	yngeal (IX)*
Anterior 2/3	Mandibular (V₃) via Lingual	Facial (VII) via Chorda tympani

^{*}Supplies general sensation to the posterior third of the tongue and contributes to the gag reflex.

Sensory

Anterior two-thirds (oral)

tympani

Motor Hypoglossal nerve [XII]

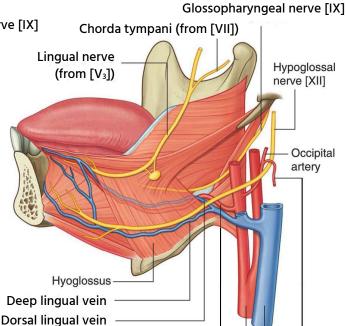
 General sensation mandibular nerve [V₃] via lingual nerve

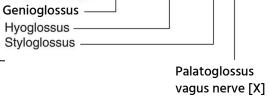
Special sensation (taste) facial nerve [VII] via chorda

Intrinsic muscle

Posterior one-third (pharyngeal)

 General and special (taste) sensation via glossopharyngeal nerve [IX]





Sternocleidomastoid branch of occipital artery

Common carotid artery

Internal jugular vein

Lingual artery

Submandibular Gland

Relations of the submandibular gland

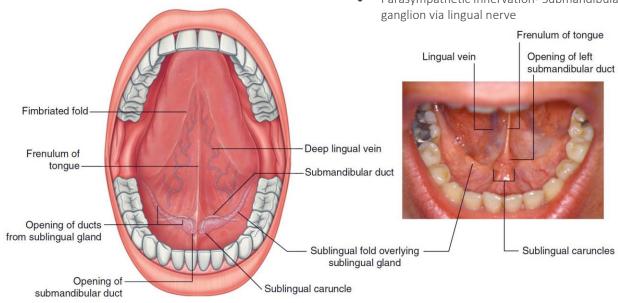
Platysma, deep fascia and mandible Superficial Submandibular lymph nodes Facial vein (facial artery near mandible) Marginal mandibular nerve (of facial n.) Cervical branch of the facial nerve Facial artery (inferior to the mandible) Mylohyoid muscle Sub mandibular duct Deep Hyoglossus muscle Lingual nerve Submandibular ganglion Hypoglossal nerve

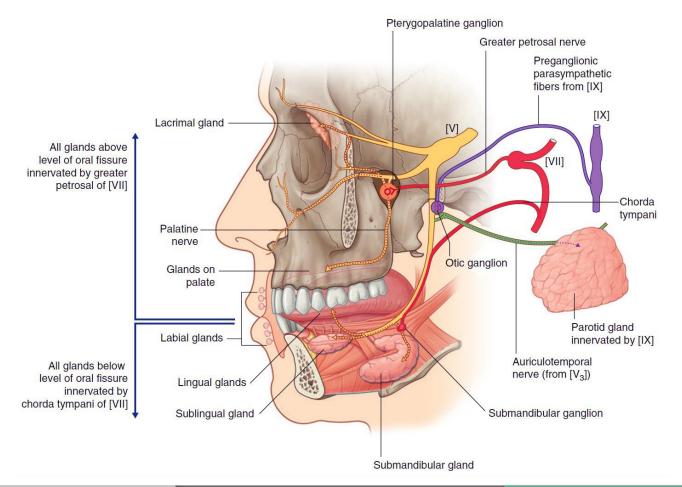
Submandibular duct (Wharton's duct)

- Opens lateral to the lingual frenulum on the anterior floor of mouth.
- 5 cm length
- Lingual nerve wraps around Wharton's duct. As the duct passes forwards it crosses medial to the nerve to lie above it and then crosses back, lateral to it, to reach a position below the nerve.

Innervation

- Sympathetic innervation- Derived from superior cervical ganglion
- Parasympathetic innervation- Submandibular





Arterial supply

Branch of the facial artery. The facial artery passes through the gland to groove its deep surface. It then emerges onto the face by passing between the gland and the mandible.

Venous drainage

Anterior facial vein (lies deep to the Marginal Mandibular nerve)

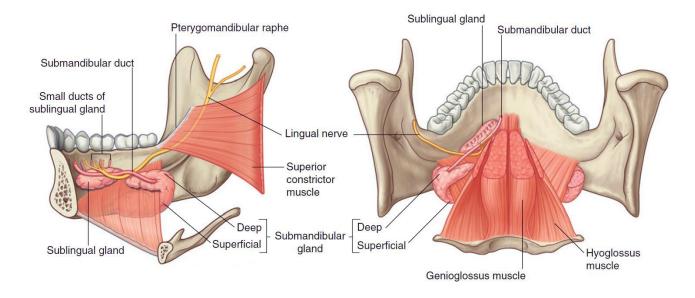
Lymphatic drainage

Deep cervical and jugular chains of nodes

Three cranial nerves may be injured during submandibular gland excision.

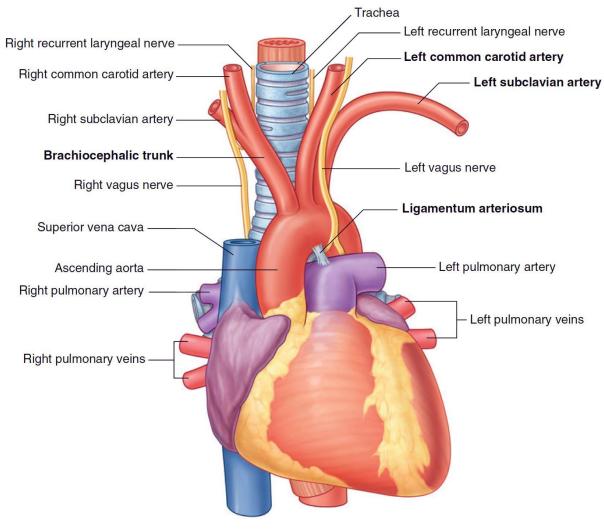
- Marginal mandibular branch of the facial nerve
- Lingual nerve
- Hypoglossal nerve

Hypoglossal nerve damage may result in paralysis of the ipsilateral aspect of the tongue. The nerve itself lies deep to the capsule surrounding the gland and should not be injured during an intracapsular dissection. The lingual nerve is probably at greater risk of injury. However, the effects of lingual nerve injury are sensory rather than motor.



Brachiocephalic Artery

The brachiocephalic artery is the largest branch of the aortic arch. From its aortic origin it ascends superiorly, it initially lies anterior to the trachea and then on its right hand side. It branches into the common carotid and right subclavian arteries at the level of the sternoclavicular joint.



Path

Origin: apex of the midline of the aortic arch
Passes superiorly and posteriorly to the right
Divides into the right subclavian and right common carotid artery

Relations

Neiations	
Anterior	Sternohyoid
	Sternothyroid
	Thymic remnants
	Left brachiocephalic vein
	Right inferior thyroid veins
Posterior	Trachea
	Right pleura
Right lateral	Right brachiocephalic vein
	Superior part of SVC
Left lateral	Thymic remnants
	Origin of left common carotid
	Inferior thyroid veins
	Trachea (higher level)

Branches

Normally none but may have the thyroidea ima artery



Subclavian Artery

Path

- The left subclavian comes directly off the arch of aorta
- The right subclavian arises from the brachiocephalic artery (trunk) when it bifurcates into the subclavian and the right common carotid artery.
- From its origin, the subclavian artery travels laterally, passing between anterior and middle scalene muscles, deep to scalenus anterior and anterior to scalenus medius. As the subclavian artery crosses the lateral border of the first rib, it becomes the axillary artery. At this point it is superficial and within the subclavian triangle.

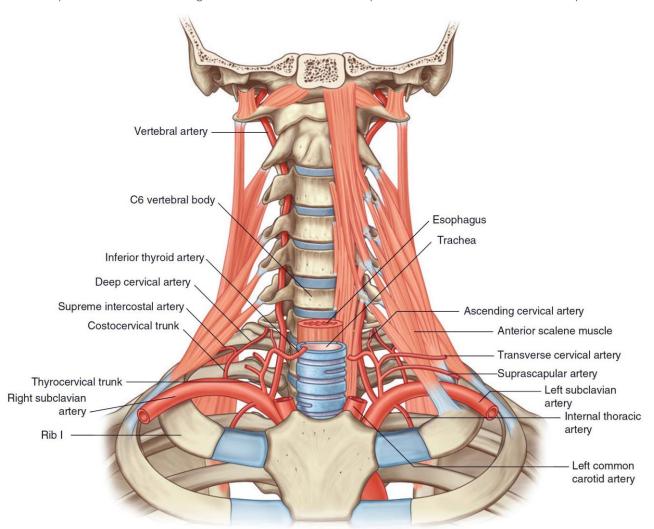
Branches "VIT C & D"

- Vertebral artery
- Internal thoracic artery
 - Inf thyroid
 - o Suprascapular
 - o Transverse cervical
 - Ascending cervical
- Thyrocervical trunk
- Costocervical trunk
- Dorsal scapular artery

Vertebral Artery

The vertebral artery is the first branch of the subclavian artery. Anatomically it is divisible into 4 regions:

- The first part runs to the foramen in the transverse process of C6. Anterior to this part lies the vertebral and internal jugular veins. On the left side the thoracic duct is also an anterior relation.
- The second part runs superiorly **through the foramina** of the transverse processes of the upper 6 cervical vertebrae. Once it has passed through the transverse process of the axis it then turns superolaterally to the atlas. It is accompanied by a venous plexus and the inferior cervical sympathetic ganglion.
- The third part runs posteromedially on the lateral mass of the atlas. It enters the sub occipital triangle, in the groove of the upper surface of the posterior arch of the atlas. It then passes anterior to the edge of the posterior atlanto-occipital membrane to enter the vertebral canal.
- The fourth part passes through the spinal dura and arachnoid, running superiorly and anteriorly at the lateral aspect of the medulla oblongata. At the lower border of the pons it unites to form the basilar artery.



Common Carotid Artery

The *right* common carotid artery arises at the bifurcation of the brachiocephalic trunk. The *left* common carotid arises from the arch of the aorta. Both terminate at the level of the upper border of the thyroid cartilage C4/C3 (the lower border of the third cervical vertebra) by dividing into the internal and external carotid arteries.

Left common carotid artery

This vessel arises immediately to the left and slightly behind the origin of the brachiocephalic trunk. Its thoracic portion is 2.5-3.5 cm in length and runs superolaterally to the sternoclavicular joint.

In the thorax

The vessel is in contact, from below upwards, with the trachea, left recurrent laryngeal nerve, left margin of the oesophagus. Anteriorly the left brachiocephalic vein runs across the artery, and the cardiac branches from the left vagus descend in front of it. These structures together with the thymus and the anterior margins of the left lung and pleura separate the artery from the manubrium.

In the neck

The artery runs superiorly deep to sternocleidomastoid and then enters the anterior triangle. At this point it lies within the carotid sheath with the vagus nerve and the internal jugular vein. Posteriorly the sympathetic trunk lies between the vessel and the prevertebral fascia. At the level of C7 the vertebral artery and thoracic duct lie behind it. The anterior tubercle of C6 transverse process is prominent and the artery can be compressed against this structure (it corresponds to the level of the cricoid).

Anteriorly at C6 the omohyoid muscle passes superficial to the artery.

Within the carotid sheath the jugular vein lies lateral to the artery.

Right common carotid artery

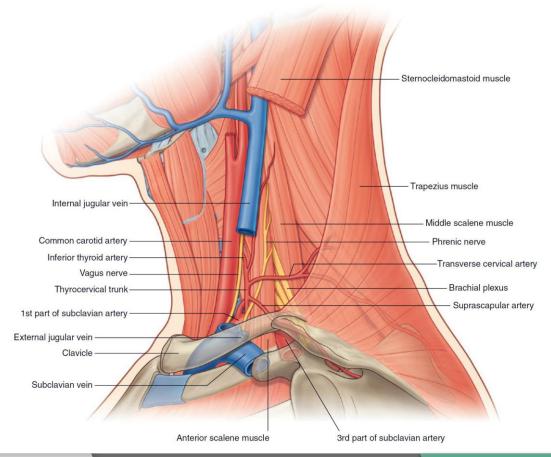
The right common carotid arises from the brachiocephalic artery. The right common carotid artery corresponds with the cervical portion of the left common carotid, except that there is no thoracic duct on the right. The oesophagus is less closely related to the right carotid than the left.

Path

Passes behind the sternoclavicular joint (12% patients above this level) to the upper border of the thyroid cartilage, to divide into the external (ECA) and internal carotid arteries (ICA).

Relations

- Level of 6th cervical vertebra crossed by omohyoid
- Then passes deep to the thyrohyoid, sternohyoid, sternomastoid muscles.
- Passes ant. to the carotid tubercle (transverse process 6th cervical vertebra). NB: compression here stops hge.
- The inferior thyroid artery passes posterior to the common carotid artery. Then:
 - o Left common carotid artery crosses the thoracic duct
 - o Right common carotid artery crossed by recurrent laryngeal nerve



Circle of Willis

The two internal carotid arteries and two vertebral arteries form an anastomosis known as the Circle of Willis on the inferior surface of the brain. Each half of the circle is formed by:

- 1. Anterior communicating artery
- 2. Anterior cerebral artery
- 3. Internal carotid artery
- 4. Posterior communicating artery
- 5. Posterior cerebral arteries and the termination of the basilar artery

The circle and its branches supply; the corpus striatum, internal capsule, diencephalon and midbrain.

Vertebral arteries

- Enter the cranial cavity via foramen magnum
- Lie in the subarachnoid space
- Ascend on anterior surface of medulla oblongata
- Unite to form the basilar artery at the base of the pons

Branches:

- Posterior spinal artery
- Anterior spinal artery
- Posterior inferior cerebellar artery

Basilar artery

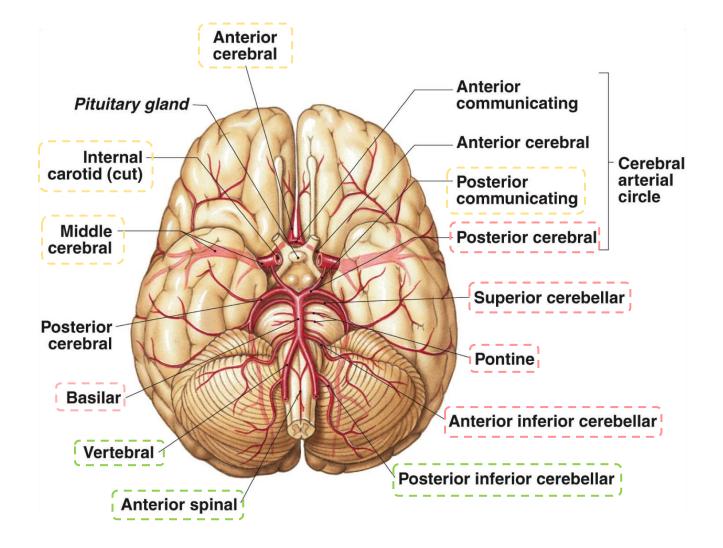
Branches:

- Anterior inferior cerebellar artery
- Labyrinthine artery
- Pontine arteries
- Superior cerebellar artery
- Posterior cerebral artery

Internal carotid arteries

Branches:

- Posterior communicating artery
- Anterior cerebral artery
- Middle cerebral artery
- Anterior choroid artery



Internal Carotid Artery

The internal carotid artery is formed from the common carotid opposite the upper border of the thyroid cartilage. It extends superiorly to enter the skull via the carotid canal. From the carotid canal it then passes through the cavernous sinus, above which it divides into the anterior and middle cerebral arteries.

Posterior		 Longus capitis
		Pre-vertebral fascia
V		Sympathetic chain
in the neck		 Superior laryngeal nerve
စ္ Medially		• External carotid (near origin)
n t		Wall of pharynx
		 Ascending pharyngeal artery
Relations	Laterally	 IJV (moves posteriorly at entrance to skull)
Sela		 Vagus nerve (most posterolaterally)
_	Anteriorly	 Sternocleidomastoid
		Lingual and facial veins
		Hypoglossal nerve

Mnemonic for branches of the cerebral portion of the internal carotid artery 'Only Press Carotid Arteries Momentarily'

- Ophthalmic
- Posterior communicating
- Choroidal
- Anterior cerebral
- Middle cerebral

Relations in the carotid canal

- Internal carotid plexus
- Cochlea and middle ear cavity
- Trigeminal ganglion (superiorly)
- Leaves canal lies above the foramen lacerum

Path and relations in the cranial cavity

The artery bends sharply forwards in the cavernous sinus, the adducent nerve lies close to its inferolateral aspect. The oculomotor, trochlear, ophthalmic and, usually, the maxillary nerves lie in the lateral wall of the sinus. Near the superior orbital fissure, it turns posteriorly and passes postero-medially to pierce the roof of the cavernous sinus inferior to the optic nerve. It then passes between the optic and oculomotor nerves to terminate below the anterior perforated substance by dividing into the anterior and middle cerebral arteries.

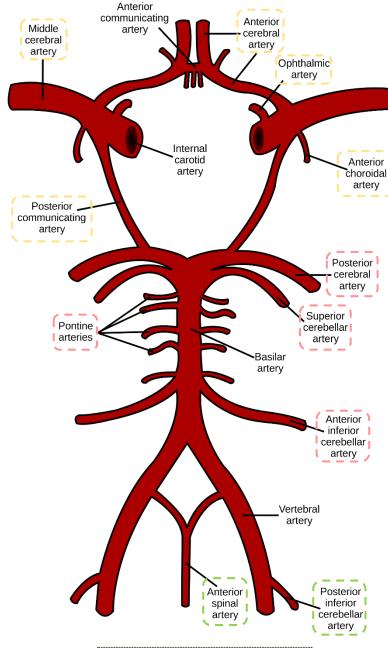
Branches

- Anterior and middle cerebral artery
- Ophthalmic artery
- Posterior communicating artery
- Anterior choroid artery
- Meningeal arteries
- Hypophyseal arteries

The internal carotid **does not** have any branches in the neck.

Nerves at risk during carotid endarterectomy

- Hypoglossal
- Greater auricular
- Superior laryngeal
- Vagus



Vertebral arteries branches

Basilar artery branches

Internal carotid arteries branches

External Carotid Artery

The external carotid commences immediately lateral to the pharyngeal side wall. It ascends and lies anterior to the internal carotid and posterior to the posterior belly of digastric and stylohyoid. More inferiorly it is covered by sternocleidomastoid, passed by hypoglossal nerves, lingual and facial veins.

It then pierces the fascia of the parotid gland finally dividing into its terminal branches within the gland itself.

Surface marking of the carotid

This is an imaginary line drawn from the bifurcation of the common carotid passing behind the angle of the jaw to a point

immediately anterior to the tragus of the ear.

Branches of the external carotid artery

It has six main branches, three in front, two behind and one deep.

Three in front	Superior thyroid
	Lingual
	Facial
Two behind	Occipital
	Posterior auricular
Deep	Ascending pharyngeal

'Some Angry Lady Figured Out PMS' (in order)

Superior thyroid (superior laryngeal artery branch)

Ascending pharyngeal

Lingual

Facial (tonsillar and labial artery)

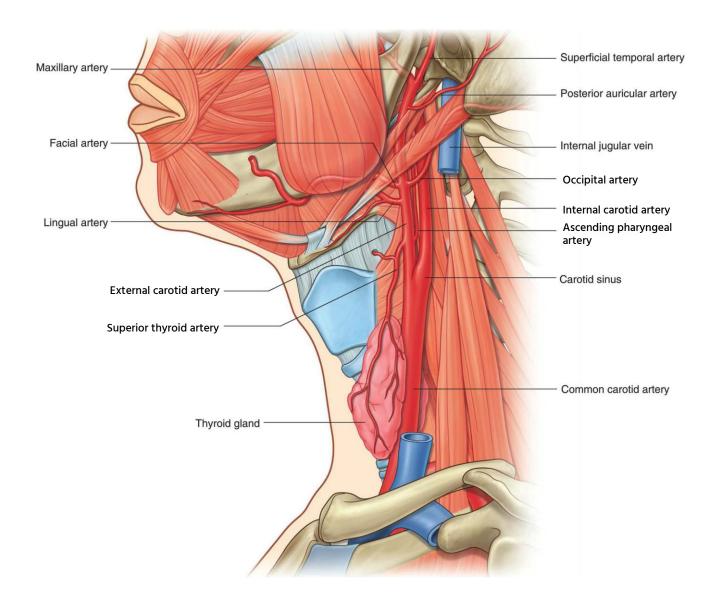
Occipital

Posterior auricular

Maxillary (inferior alveolar artery, middle meningeal a.)

Superficial temporal

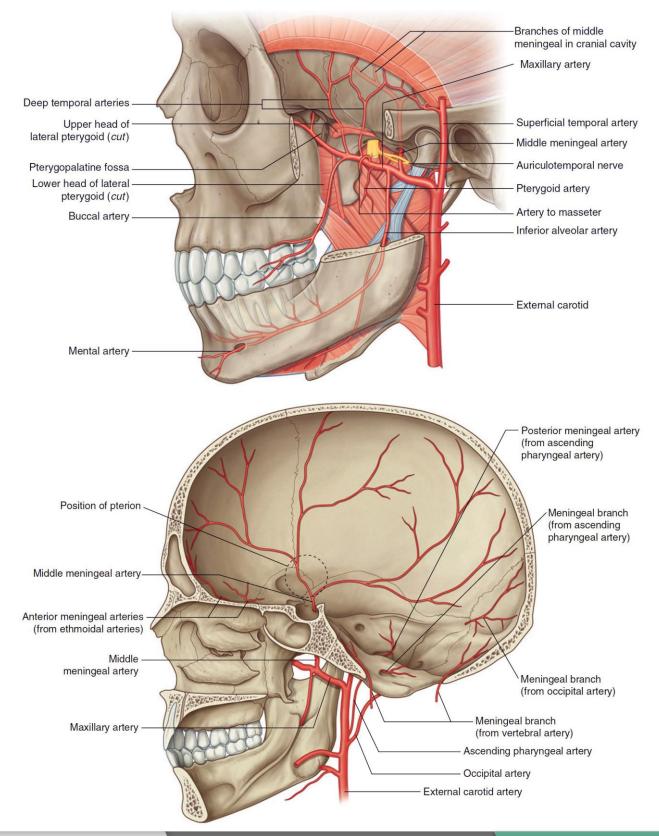
It terminates by dividing into the superficial temporal and maxillary arteries in the parotid gland.



23

Middle Meningeal Artery

- Middle meningeal artery is typically the third branch of the first part of the maxillary artery, one of the two terminal branches of the external carotid artery. After branching off the maxillary artery in the infratemporal fossa, it runs through the foramen spinosum to supply the dura mater (the outermost meninges).
- The middle meningeal artery is the largest of the three (paired) arteries which supply the meninges, the others being the anterior meningeal artery and the posterior meningeal artery.
- The middle meningeal artery runs beneath the pterion. It is vulnerable to injury at this point, where the skull is thin. Rupture of the artery may give rise to an extra dural hematoma.
- In the dry cranium, the middle meningeal, which runs within the dura mater surrounding the brain, makes a deep indention in the calvarium.
- The middle meningeal artery is intimately associated with the auriculotemporal nerve which wraps around the artery making the two easily identifiable in the dissection of human cadavers and also easily damaged in surgery.



Internal Jugular Vein

Each jugular vein begins in the jugular foramen, where they are the continuation of the sigmoid sinus. They terminate at the medial end of the clavicle where they unite with the subclavian v.

Hyoid bone

Thyrohyoid membrane

Median cricothyroid ligament

Thyroid gland

Inferior thyroid vein

Right internal jugular vein

Superior thyroid vein

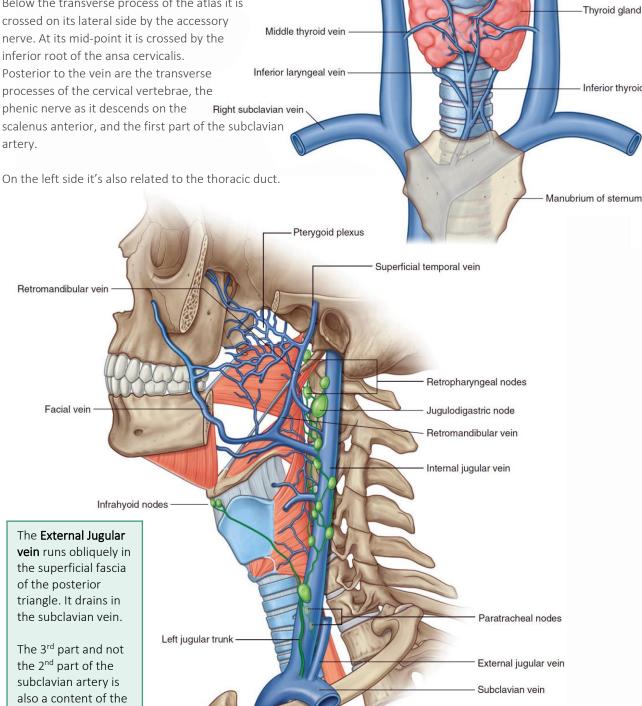
Superior laryngeal vein

The vein lies within the carotid sheath throughout its course. Below the skull the internal carotid artery and last four cranial nerves are anteromedial to the vein. Thereafter it is in contact medially with the internal (then common) carotid artery. The vagus lies posteromedially.

At its superior aspect, the vein is overlapped by sternocleidomastoid and covered by it at the inferior aspect of the vein.

Below the transverse process of the atlas it is crossed on its lateral side by the accessory nerve. At its mid-point it is crossed by the inferior root of the ansa cervicalis. Posterior to the vein are the transverse processes of the cervical vertebrae, the phenic nerve as it descends on the

artery.



MO's MRCS A NOTES (Previously called Reda's Notes)

vein runs obliquely in the superficial fascia of the posterior triangle. It drains in the subclavian vein.

the 2nd part of the subclavian artery is posterior triangle.

Cranial Nerves

Cranial nerve lesions

Cranial nerve lesions	
Olfactory nerve	May be injured in basal skull fractures or involved in frontal lobe tumour extension. Loss of olfactory nerve function in relation to major CNS pathology is seldom an isolated event and thus it is poor localiser of CNS pathology.
Optic nerve	Problems with visual acuity may result from intra ocular disorders. Problems with the blood supply such as amaurosis fugax may produce temporary visual distortion. More important surgically is the pupillary response to light. The pupillary size may be altered in a number of disorders. Nerves involved in the resizing of the pupil connect to the pretectal nucleus of the high midbrain, bypassing the lateral geniculate nucleus and the primary visual cortex. From the pretectal nucleus neurones pass to the Edinger - Westphal nucleus, motor axons from here pass along with the oculomotor nerve. They synapse with ciliary ganglion neurones; the parasympathetic axons from this then innervate the iris and produce miosis. The miotic pupil is seen in disorders such as Horner's syndrome or opiate overdose. Mydriasis is the dilatation of the pupil in response to disease, trauma, drugs (or the dark!). It is pathological when light fails to induce miosis. The radial muscle is innervated by the sympathetic nervous system. Because the parasympathetic fibres travel with the oculomotor nerve they will be damaged by lesions affecting this nerve (e.g. cranial trauma). The response to light shone in one eye is usually a constriction of both pupils. This indicates intact direct and consensual light reflexes. When the optic nerve has an afferent defect the light shining on the affected eye will produce a diminished pupillary response in both eyes. Whereas light shone on the unaffected eye will produce a normal pupillary response in both eyes. This is referred to as the Marcus Gunn pupil and is seen in conditions such as optic neuritis. In a total CN II lesion shining the light in the affected eye will produce no response.
Oculomotor	The pupillary effects are described above. In addition, it supplies all ocular muscles apart from
nerve	lateral rectus and superior oblique. Thus the affected eye will be deviated inferolaterally. Levator palpebrae superioris may also be impaired resulting in impaired ability to open the eye.
Trochlear nerve	The eye will not be able to look down.
	mandibular. Only the mandibular branch has both sensory and motor fibres. Branches converge to form the trigeminal ganglion (located in Meckels cave). It supplies the muscles of mastication and also tensor veli palatine, mylohyoid, anterior belly of digastric and tensor tympani. Check textbook for detailed descriptions of the various sensory functions. The corneal reflex is important and is elicited by applying a small tip of cotton wool to the cornea, a reflex blink should occur if it is intact. It is mediated by: the naso ciliary branch of the ophthalmic branch of the trigeminal (sensory component) and the facial nerve producing the motor response. Lesions of the afferent arc will produce bilateral absent blink and lesions of the efferent arc will result in a unilateral absent blink.
Abducens nerve	The affected eye will have a deficit of abduction. This cranial nerve exits the brainstem between the pons and medulla. It thus has a relatively long intra cranial course which renders it susceptible to damage in raised intra cranial pressure.
Facial nerve	Emerges from brainstem between pons and medulla. It controls muscles of facial expression and taste from the anterior 2/3 of the tongue. The nerve passes into the petrous temporal bone and into the internal auditory meatus. It then passes through the facial canal and exits at the stylomastoid foramen. It passes through the parotid gland and divides at this point. It does not innervate the parotid gland. Its divisions are considered in other parts of the website. Its motor fibres innervate orbicularis oculi to produce the efferent arm of the corneal reflex. In surgical practice it may be injured during parotid gland surgery or invaded by malignancies of the gland and a lower motor neurone on the ipsilateral side will result.
Vestibulo- cochlear nerve	Exits from the pons and then passes through the internal auditory meatus. It is implicated in sensorineural hearing loss. Individuals with sensorineural hearing loss will localise the sound in webers test to the normal ear. Rinnes test will be reduced on the affected side but should still work. These two tests will distinguish sensorineural hearing loss from conductive deafness. In the latter condition webers test will localise to the affected ear and Rinnes test will be impaired on the affected side. Surgical lesions affecting this nerve include CNS tumours and basal skull fractures. It may also be damaged by the administration of ototoxic drugs (of which gentamicin is the most commonly used in surgical practice).
Glossopharyngeal nerve	Exits the pons just above the vagus. Receives sensory fibres from posterior 1/3 tongue, tonsils, pharynx and middle ear (otalgia may occur following tonsillectomy). It receives visceral afferents from the carotid bodies. It supplies parasympathetic fibres to the parotid gland via the otic ganglion and motor function to stylopharyngeaus muscle. The sensory function of the nerve is tested using the gag reflex.

Vagus nerve	Leaves the medulla between the olivary nucleus and the inferior cerebellar peduncle. Passes through the jugular foramen and into the carotid sheath. Details of the functions of the vagus nerve are covered in the website under relevant organ sub headings.
Accessory nerve	Exists from the caudal aspect of the brainstem (multiple branches) supplies trapezius and sternocleidomastoid muscles. The distal portion of this nerve is most prone to injury during surgical procedures.
Hypoglossal nerve	Emerges from the medulla at the preolivary sulcus, passes through the hypoglossal canal. It lies on the carotid sheath and passes deep to the posterior belly of digastric to supply muscles of the tongue (except palatoglossus). Its location near the carotid sheath makes it vulnerable during carotid endarterectomy surgery and damage will produce ipsilateral defect in muscle function.

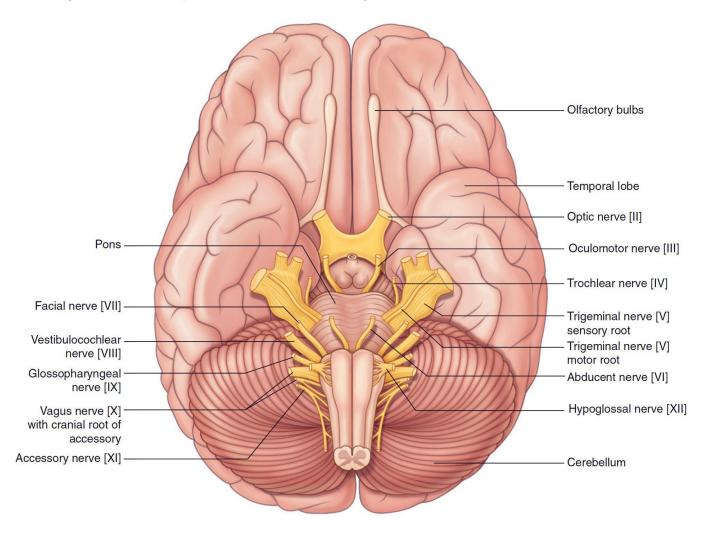
Cranial nerves carrying parasympathetic fibres X IX VII III (1973)

The parasympathetic functions served by the cranial nerves include:

III (oculomotor)	Pupillary constriction and accommodation
VII (facial)	Lacrimal gland, submandibular and sublingual glands
IX (glossopharyngeal)	Parotid
X (vagus)	Heart and abdominal viscera

The optic nerve carries no parasympathetic fibres.

The cranial preganglionic parasympathetic nerves arise from specific nuclei in the CNS. These synapse at one of four parasympathetic ganglia; otic, pterygopalatine, ciliary and submandibular. From these ganglia the parasympathetic nerves complete their journey to their target tissues via CN V (trigeminal) branches (ophthalmic nerve CNV branch 1, Maxillary nerve CN V branch2, mandibular nerve CN V branch 3)

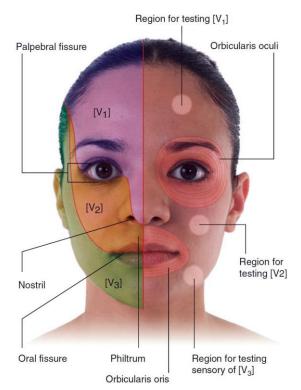


Trigeminal Nerve

The trigeminal nerve is the main sensory nerve of the head. In addition to its major sensory role, it also innervates the muscles of mastication.

Distribution of the trigeminal nerve

Distribution of the trigenmannerve	
Sensory	• Scalp
	• Face
	 Oral cavity (and teeth)
	 Nose and sinuses
	Dura mater
Motor	 Muscles of mastication
	 Mylohyoid
	 Anterior belly of digastric
	Tensor tympani
	Tensor palati
Autonomic	• Ciliary
connections	 Sphenopalatine
(ganglia)	• Otic
	• Submandibular



Path

- Originates at the pons
- Sensory root forms the large, crescentic trigeminal ganglion within Meckel's cave, and contains the cell bodies of incoming sensory nerve fibres. Here the 3 branches exit.
- The motor root cell bodies are in the pons and the motor fibres are distributed via the mandibular nerve. The motor root is not part of the trigeminal ganglion.

Branches of the trigeminal nerve

Ophthalmic nerve	Sensory only
Maxillary nerve	Sensory only
Mandibular nerve	Sensory and motor

Exit of branches of trigeminal nerve from the skull "Standing Room Only"

V1 - Superior orbital fissure

V₂ - foramen **R**otundum

V₃ - foramen **O**vale

Sensory

Ophthalmic	Exits skull via the superior orbital fissure
	Sensation of: scalp and forehead, the upper eyelid, the conjunctiva and cornea of the eye, the nose (via
	anterior ethmoidal from nasociliary, including the tip of the nose, except alae nasi), the nasal mucosa,
	the frontal sinuses, and parts of the meninges (the dura and blood vessels).
Maxillary	Exit skull via the foramen rotundum
nerve	Sensation: lower eyelid and cheek, the nares and upper lip, the upper teeth and gums, the nasal
	mucosa, the palate and roof of the pharynx, the maxillary, ethmoid and sphenoid sinuses, and parts of
	the meninges.
Mandibular	Exit skull via the foramen ovale
nerve	Sensation: lower lip, the lower teeth and gums, the chin and jaw (except the angle of the jaw), parts of
	the external ear, and parts of the meninges.

Motor (Distributed via the mandibular nerve.)

The following muscles of mastication are innervated:

- Masseter
- Temporalis
- Medial pterygoid
- Lateral pterygoid

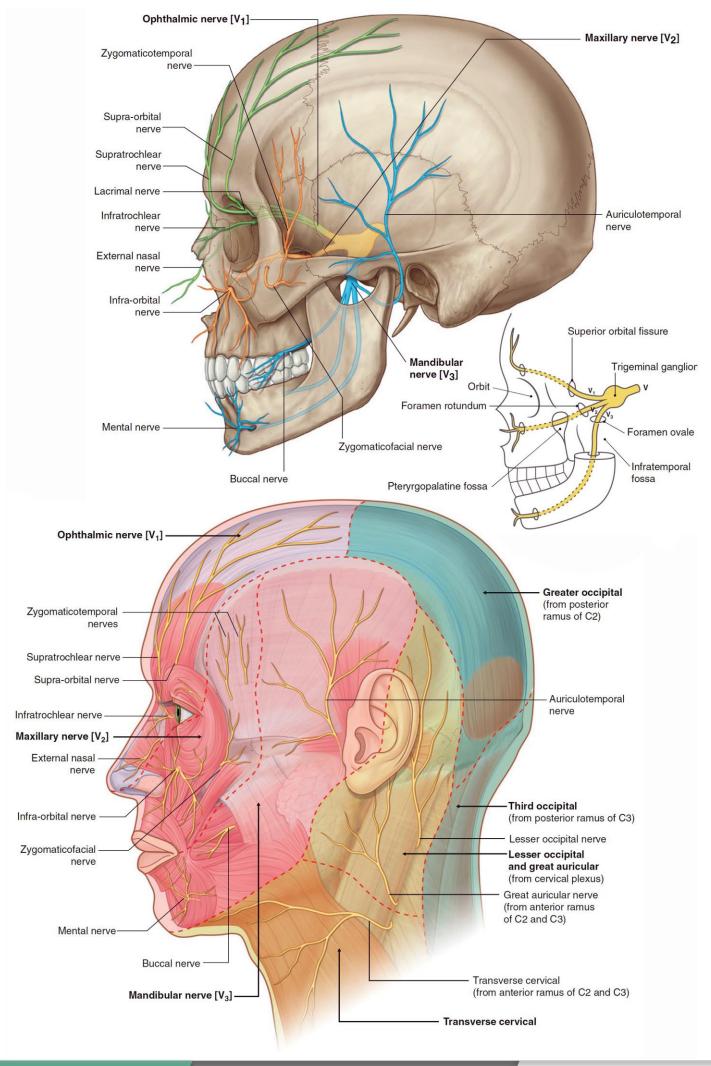
Other muscles innervated include:

- Tensor veli palatini
- Mylohyoid
- Anterior belly of digastric
- Tensor tympani

The trigeminal nerve is the major sensory nerve to the face *except* over the angle of the jaw which is supplied by the greater auricular nerve.

The lateral aspect of the external nose is innervated by lateral nasal branches of the anterior ethmoidal nerve. The ethmoidal nerve is a branch of the nasociliary nerve (V_1) .





29

Facial Nerve

The facial nerve is the main nerve supplying the structures of the second embryonic branchial arch. It is predominantly an efferent nerve to the muscles of facial expression, digastric muscle and also to many glandular structures. It contains a few afferent fibres which originate in the cells of its genicular ganglion and are concerned with taste.

Supply - 'Face, Ear, Taste, Tear'

- Face: muscles of facial expression
- Ear: nerve to stapedius
- Taste: supplies anterior two-thirds of tongue
- Tear: parasympathetic fibres to lacrimal glands, also salivary glands

Path

Subarachnoid path

- Origin: motor- pons, sensory- nervus intermedius
- Pass through the petrous temporal bone into the internal auditory meatus with the vestibulocochlear nerve. Here they combine to become the facial nerve.

Facial canal path

- The canal passes superior to the vestibule of the inner ear
- At the medial aspect of the middle ear, it becomes wider and contains the geniculate ganglion.

3 branches:

- 1. Greater (superficial) petrosal nerve
- 2. Nerve to stapedius
- 3. Chorda tympani

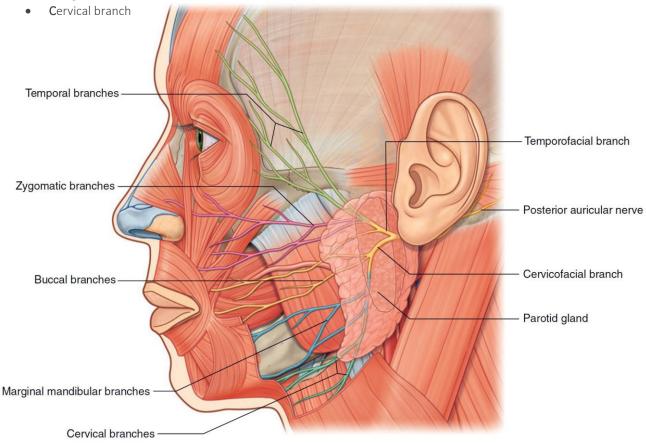
Stylomastoid foramen

- Passes through the stylomastoid foramen (tympanic cavity anterior and mastoid antrum posteriorly)
- Posterior auricular nerve and branch to posterior belly of digastric and stylohyoid muscle

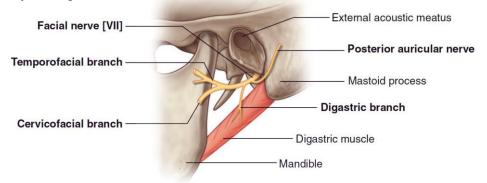
Face

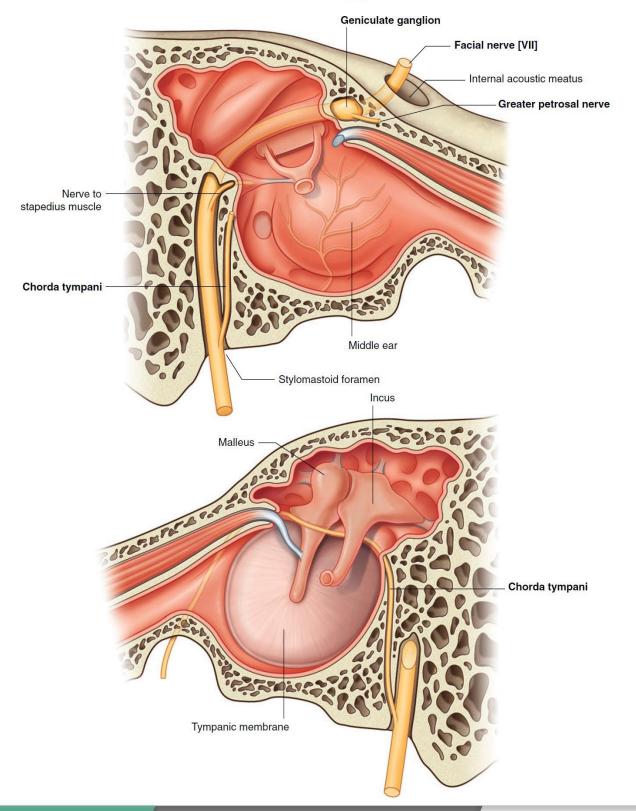
Enters parotid gland and divides into 5 branches: "The Zebra Buggered My Cat"

- Temporal branch
- Zygomatic branch
- Buccal branch
- Marginal mandibular branch

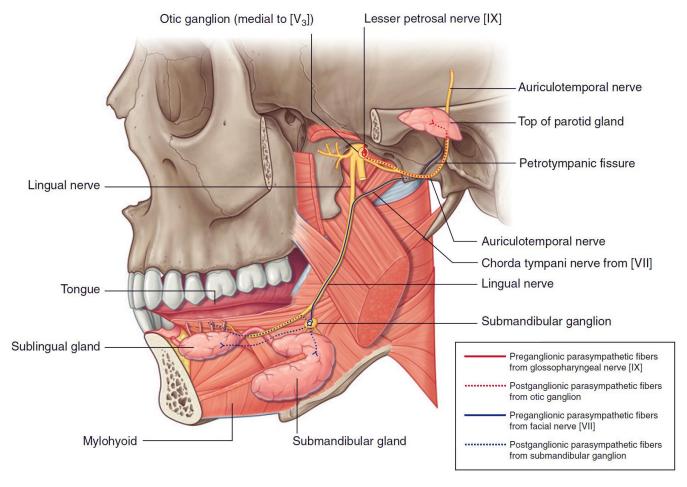


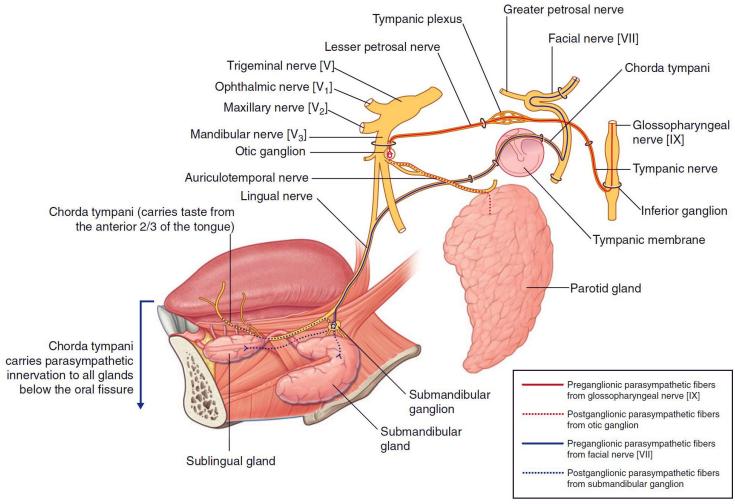
The chorda tympani branch of the facial nerve passes forwards through itrs canaliculus into the middle ear, and crosses the medial aspect of the tympanic membrane. It then passes antero-inferiorly in the infratemporal fossa. It distributes taste fibres to the anterior two thirds of the tongue.





31





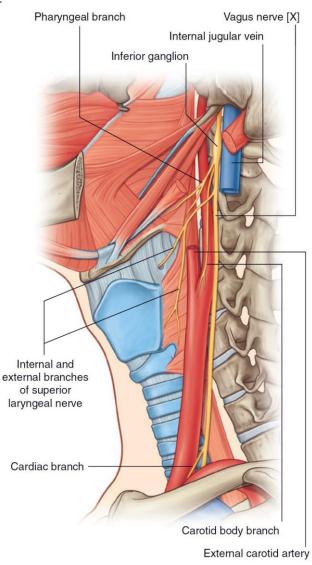


Vagus Nerve

The vagus nerve has mixed functions and supplies the structures from the fourth and sixth pharyngeal arches. It also supplies the fore and midgut sections of the embryonic gut tube. It carries afferent fibres from these areas (viz; pharynx, larynx, oesophagus, stomach, lungs, heart and great vessels). The efferent fibres of the vagus are of two main types. The first are preganglionic parasympathetic fibres distributed to the parasympathetic ganglia that innervate smooth muscle of the innervated organs (such as gut). The second type of efferent fibres have direct skeletal muscle innervation, these are largely to the muscles of the larynx and pharynx.

Origin and course

The vagus arises from the lateral surface of the medulla oblongata by a series of rootlets. It is related to the glossopharyngeal nerve cranially and the accessory nerve caudally. It exits through the jugular foramen and is contained within its own dural sheath alongside the accessory nerve. In the neck it descends vertically in the carotid sheath where it is closely related to the internal and common carotid arteries. It leaves the neck and enters the mediastinum. On the right it passes anterior to the first part of the subclavian artery, on the left it lies in the interval between the common carotid and subclavian arteries. In the mediastinum both nerves pass postero-inferiorly and reach the posterior surface of the corresponding lung root. These then branch into both lungs. At the inferior end of the mediastinum these plexuses reunite to form the formal vagal trunks that pass through the oesophageal hiatus and into the abdomen. The anterior and posterior vagal trunks are formal nerve fibres these then splay out once again sending fibres over the stomach and posteriorly to the coeliac plexus. Branches pass to the liver, spleen and kidney.



Communications and branches

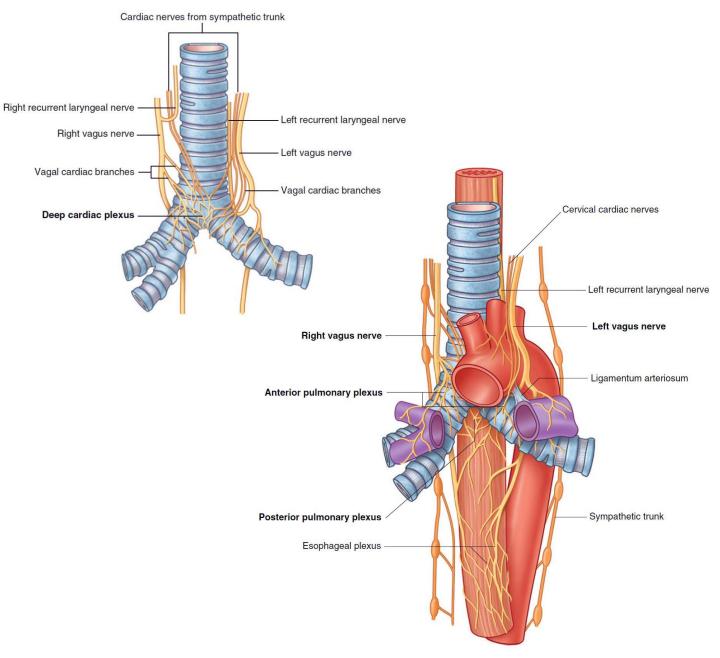
Communication	Details
Superior ganglion	Located in jugular foramen Communicates with the superior cervical sympathetic ganglion, accessory nerve
	Two branches; meningeal and auricular (the latter may give rise to vagal stimulation
	following instrumentation of the external auditory meatus)
Inferior ganglion	Communicates with the superior cervical sympathetic ganglion, hypoglossal nerve and
	loop between first and second cervical ventral rami
	Two branches; pharyngeal (supplies pharyngeal muscles) and superior laryngeal nerve
	(inferomedially- deep to both carotid arteries)

Branches in the neck (see before / parathyroid for pics)

Branch	Detail
Superior and inferior	Arise at various points and descend into thorax
cervical cardiac branches	On the right these pass posterior to the subclavian artery
	On the left the superior branch passes between the arch of the aorta and the trachea to connect with the deep cardiac plexus. The inferior branch descends with the vagus itself.
Right recurrent laryngeal nerve	Arises from vagus anterior to the first part of the subclavian artery, hooks under it, and ascends superomedially. It passes close to the common carotid and finally the inferior thyroid artery to insert into the larynx

Branches in the thorax (see before for pics)

Branch	Details
Left recurrent laryngeal nerve	Arises from the vagus on the aortic arch. It hooks around the inferior surface of the arch, posterior to the ligamentum arteriosum and passes upwards through the superior mediastinum and lower part of the neck. It lies in the groove between oesophagus and trachea (supplies both). It passes with the inferior thyroid artery and inserts into the larynx.
Thoracic and cardiac branches	There are extensive branches to both the heart and lung roots. These pass throughout both these viscera. The fibres reunite distally prior to passing into the abdomen.



Abdominal branches

ANATOMY HEAD & NECK

After entry into the abdominal cavity the nerves branch extensively. In previous years the extensive network of the distal branches (nerves of Laterjet) over the surface of the distal stomach were important for the operation of highly selective vagotomy. The use of modern PPI's has reduced the need for such highly selective procedures. Branches pass to the coeliac axis and alongside the vessels to supply the spleen, liver and kidney.

Recurrent Laryngeal Nerve

Branch of the vagus nerve

Right

- Arises anterior to the subclavian artery and ascends obliquely next to the trachea, behind the common carotid artery
- It is either anterior or posterior to the inferior thyroid artery

Left

- Arises left to the arch of the aorta
- Winds below the aorta
- Ascends along the side of the trachea

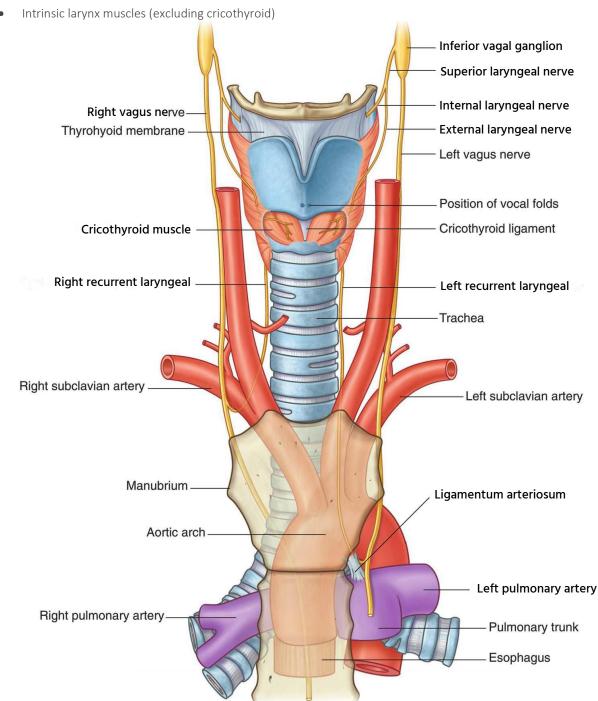
Then both

- Pass in a groove between the trachea and oesophagus
- Enters the larynx behind the articulation between the thyroid cartilage and cricoid
- Distributed to larynx muscles

Branches to

- Cardiac plexus
- Mucous membrane and muscular coat of the oesophagus and trachea

Innervates



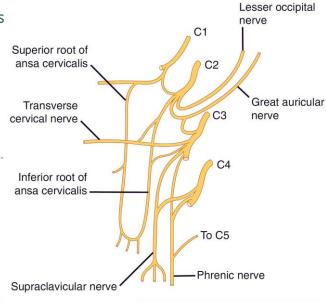
Ansa Cervicalis Branch of C1 anterolateral to carotid sheath Superior root Derived from C2 and C3 roots, passes Inferior root posterolateral to the internal jugular vein (may lie either deep or superficial to it) Innervation Sternohyoid Sternothyroid

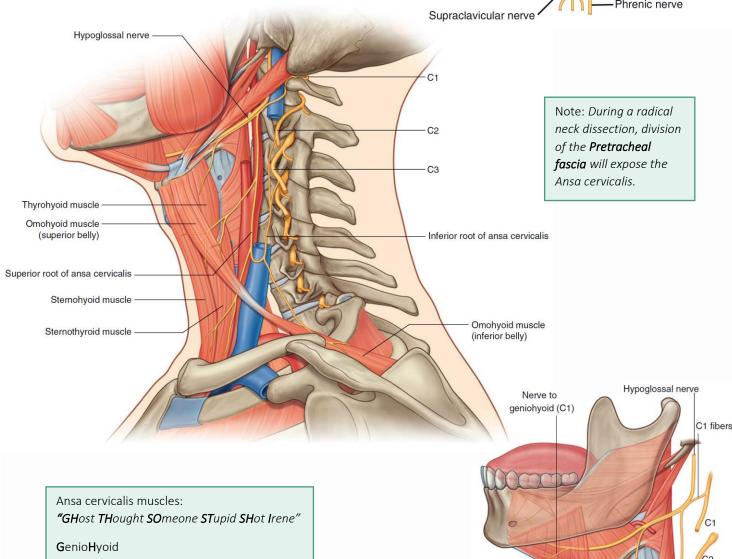
The ansa cervicalis lies anterior to the carotid sheath in the **anterior** Δ .

The nerve supply to the inferior strap muscles enters at their inferior aspect.

Omohyoid

Therefore, when dividing these muscles to expose a large goitre, the muscles should be divided in their upper half.





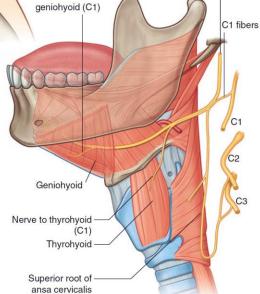
Thyroid**H**yoid

Superior Omohyoid

Sterno**T**hyroid

Sterno**H**yoid

Inferior Omohyoid



Ear Anatomy

The ear is composed of three anatomically distinct regions.

1. External ear

- Auricle is composed of elastic cartilage covered by skin. The lobule has no cartilage and contains fat and fibrous tissue.
- External auditory meatus is approximately 2.5cm long.
- Lateral third of the external auditory meatus is cartilaginous and the medial two thirds is bony.
- The region is innervated by the greater auricular nerve.
- The auriculotemporal branch of V₃ supplies most the of external auditory meatus and the lateral surface of the auricle.

2. Middle ear

Space between the tympanic membrane and cochlea. The aditus leads to the mastoid air cells is the route through which middle ear infections may cause mastoiditis. Anteriorly the eustacian tube connects the middle ear to the naso pharynx.

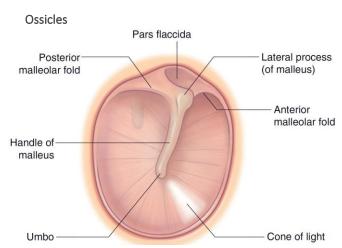
The tympanic membrane consists of:

- Outer layer of stratified squamous epithelium.
- Middle layer of fibrous tissue.
- Inner layer of mucous membrane continuous with the middle ear.

The tympanic membrane is approximately 1cm in diameter.

The chorda tympani nerve passes on the medial side of the pars flaccida.

The middle ear is innervated by the glossopharyngeal nerve and pain may radiate to the middle ear following tonsillectomy.

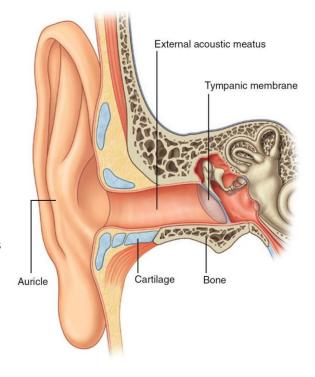


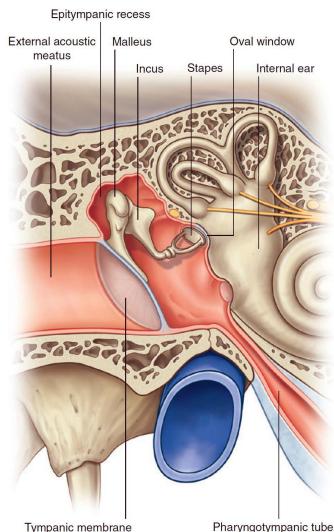
Malleus attaches to the tympanic membrane (the Umbo).

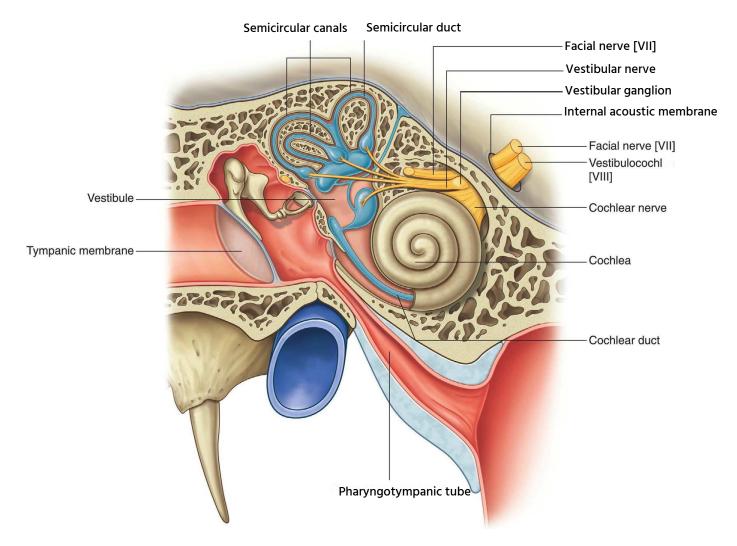
Malleus articulates with the incus (synovial joint). Incus attaches to stapes (another synovial joint).

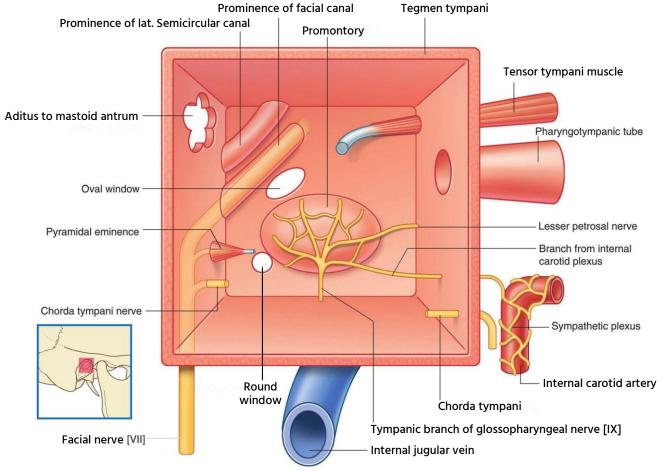
3. Internal ear

- Cochlea, semicircular canals and vestibule
- Organ of corti is the sense organ of hearing and is located on the inside of the cochlear duct on the basilar membrane.
- Vestibule accommodates the utricule and the saccule. These structures contain endolymph and are surrounded by perilymph within the vestibule.
- The semicircular canals lie at various angles to the petrous temporal bone. All share a common opening into the vestibule.









39

Lacrimal System

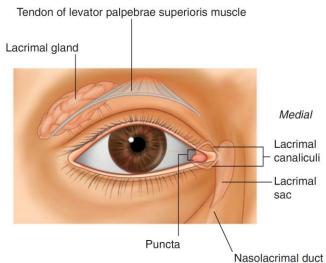
Lacrimal gland

Consists of an orbital part and a palpebral part. They are continuous posterolaterally around the concave lateral edge of the levator palpebrae superioris muscle.

The ducts of the lacrimal gland open into the superior fornix. Those from the orbital part penetrate the aponeurosis of levator palpebrae superioris to join those from the palpebral part. Therefore, excision of the palpebral part is functionally similar to excision of the entire gland.

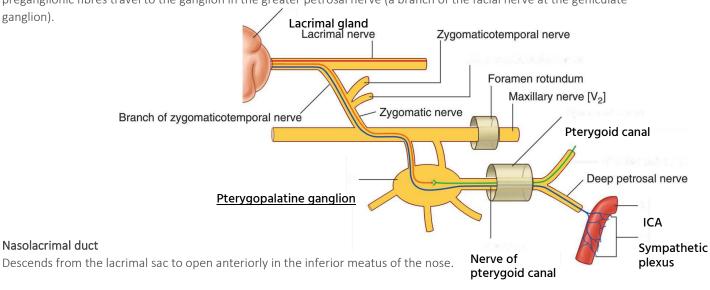
Blood supply

Lacrimal branch of the **ophthalmic artery** (from ICA). Venous drainage is to the superior **ophthalmic vein**.



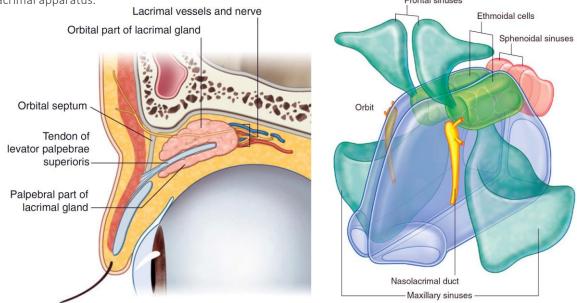
Innervation

The gland is innervated by the secretomotor parasympathetic fibres from the **pterygopalatine ganglion** which in turn may reach the gland via the zygomatic or lacrimal branches of the maxillary nerve or pass directly to the gland. The preganglionic fibres travel to the ganglion in the greater petrosal nerve (a branch of the facial nerve at the geniculate



Lacrimation reflex

Occurs in response to conjunctival irritation (or emotional events). The conjunctiva will send signals via the ophthalmic nerve. These then pass to the superior salivary centre. The efferent signals pass via the **greater petrosal nerve** (parasympathetic preganglionic fibres) and the deep petrosal nerve which carries the post ganglionic sympathetic fibres. The parasympathetic fibres will relay in the **pterygopalatine ganglion**, the sympathetic fibres do not synapse. They in turn will relay to the lacrimal apparatus.



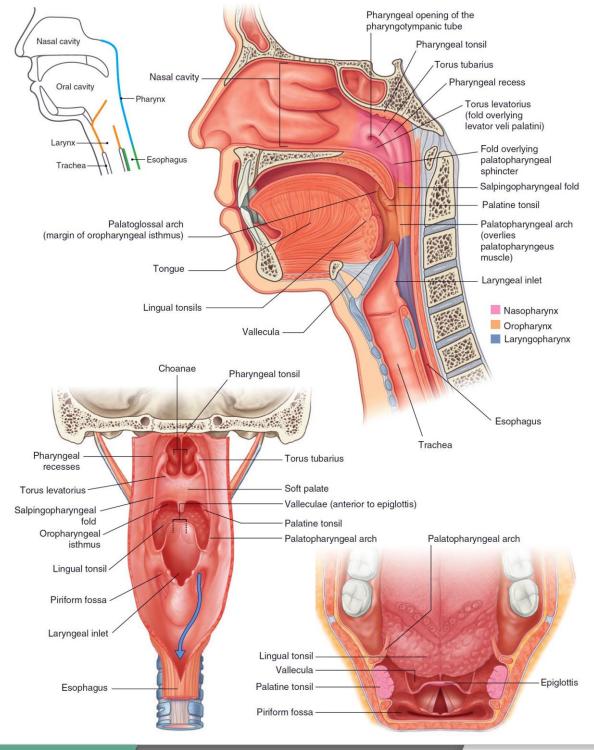
Tonsil

Anatomy

- Each palatine tonsil has two surfaces, a medial surface which projects into the pharynx and a lateral surface that is embedded in the wall of the pharynx.
- They are usually 25mm tall by 15mm wide, although this varies according to age and may be almost completely atrophied in the elderly.
- Their arterial supply is from the **tonsillar artery**, a branch of the facial artery.
- Its veins pierce the constrictor muscle to join the **external palatine** or facial veins. The external palatine vein is immediately lateral to the tonsil, which **may result in haemorrhage during tonsillectomy**.
- Lymphatic drainage is the jugulodigastric node and the deep cervical nodes.

Tonsillitis

- Usually bacterial (50%) group A Streptococcus. Remainder viral.
- May be complicated by development of abscess (quinsy). This may distort the uvula.
- Indications for tonsillectomy include recurrent acute tonsillitis, suspected mlg, enlargement causing sleep apnoea.
- Dissection tonsillectomy is the preferred technique with haemorrhage being the commonest complication. Delayed otalgia may occur owing to irritation of the glossopharyngeal nerve.



Surface Anatomy

