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Veterinary Anatomy of Domestic Mammals

Textbook and Colour Atlas

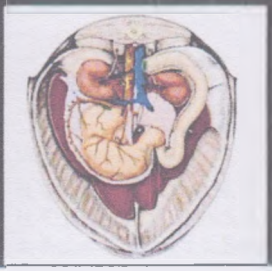
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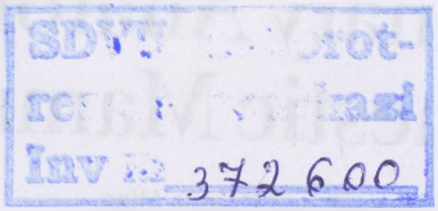
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H. E. König
H.-G. Liebich (Editors)

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Textbook and Colour Atlas

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Horst Erich König
Hans-Georg Liebich (Editors)

Veterinary Anatomy of Domestic Mammals

Textbook and Colour Atlas

3rd Edition

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Preface

The First Edition of "Veterinary Anatomy of Domestic Mammals", published almost two years ago, has proven the success of presenting teaching material in the field of veterinary anatomy as an integrative textbook-colour atlas combination for students and practitioners. The worldwide demand for this veterinary anatomy textbook has therefore prompted us to publish another edition after such a short time. Many suggestions by colleagues and students were integrated into this revised and updated English edition in addition to our own new concept of contents and design. The basis for this Third Edition in the English language was the Third German Edition which was published in 2005.

This new English edition not only includes up-to-date scientific results, especially the most modern imaging techniques as well as section images. The context to other preclinical subjects such as histology, embryology and physiology, as well as to clinical practice was emphasised. We are thus hoping to aid students in integrative, interdisciplinary learning and deepening their knowledge. Furthermore, the extended revision of the material should enhance the pleasure of recognising and understanding anatomical structures as well as the awareness of being able to apply what has been learnt in practice later on.

The basic concept of "Veterinary Anatomy of Domestic Mammals" includes therefore the essential structural and functional facts on the locomotive apparatus, plus the internal organs of domestic animals, showing their close connection to the circulatory and the nervous system. Emphasis is also placed on the lymphatic and endocrine system, as well as the sensory organs, the skin and cutaneous appendages. In this way the facts are presented in a concise form, and by linking the content, connection to veterinary practice is made. In so doing the use of detailed facts was avoided in favour of a reader-friendly and illustrative text. The well-considered combination of a large number of semi-schematic illustrations and colour photographs from a didactic perspective should also contribute to enjoying the morphology. A glossary of special anatomical terms and a comprehensive subject index with relevant cross references to passages as well as a large number of tables facilitate the use of this book.

In this Third Edition, the scope was significantly broadened by adding chapters on "The History of Veterinary Anatomy", "General Anatomy" and "Topographical Anatomy". Prof. Dr. Gerhard Forstenpointner, Vienna, President of the World Federation for the History of Veterinary Medicine, as well as Ass. Professor Dr. Alexander Probst, Vienna, were gained as co-authors for this edition. We would like to thank them for their valuable contributions.

In the chapter "Topographical Anatomy", in particular those passages relevant to clinical practice and exams were highlighted. Numerous new, original, anatomical preparations served as the basis for drawings, which will further aid in recognising and understanding anatomical structures and facilitate the approach to the dense subject of applied and clinical veterinary anatomy. Again, we thank Mag. vet. med. Eva Polsterer, Vienna, who has once more created something extraordinary through her well-founded scientific knowledge and her exceptional artistic skills.

This is the first English textbook in veterinary anatomy that is exclusively illustrated in colour. The large number of original colour photographs is supplemented with schematic drawings, which were all digitally "aquallised" by computer and mousepen. In this way, important anatomical structures were highlighted and clarified by combining established drawing techniques with modern computer technology. Thus, the didactic value of this Third Edition was further improved, and the reader can grasp thematic connections even better than in the previous edition. We would like to thank Mrs. Christel Schura, Munich, for creating these "digital watercolours" and further developing this computer technique for special anatomical problems, thereby lending her invaluable skills to colouring this Third Edition.

This consistent presentation of imaging techniques in anatomical teaching, furthered by the basic knowledge of sectional anatomy, is meant to introduce students and colleagues in practice alike to the modern digital techniques used in diagnostics today.

Therefore, numerous radiographic images in this Third Edition were replaced or expanded with new digital images. We cordially thank Univ.-Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis (Head of the Clinic of Veterinary Surgery, University of Munich) and O. Univ.-Prof. Dr. Christian Stanek (Head of the Clinic for Orthopaedics in Ungulates, University of Veterinary Medicine Vienna). Furthermore, we owe the inclusion of magnetic resonance images to Dr. Isa Foltin, Heidelberg.

For the numerous new section images which were prepared with modern plastination techniques we thank Ass. Prof. Dr. Mircea Constantin Sora, President of the International

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Society for Plastination (Institute for Anatomy of the Medical University Vienna). A special thanks also goes to Mr. Hermann Obermayer, preparator at the Institute of Veterinary Anatomy, Munich, for the preparation of further sections. Images of these anatomical preparations aid students in the approach to anatomical sections and bridge the gap to clinically used imaging techniques. We would also like to give a special thank you to the students of veterinary medicine who contributed to this edition by preparing new anatomical preparations under the guidance of Dr. Jutta Friker, Munich.

A special thanks goes to Mrs. Lee Hui Yi Megan, Singapore, who patiently provided valuable comments, especially to Chapter 19.

Moreover, we would like to thank again all of the initial co-workers who already contributed to the First Edition and are named there.

As in the previous edition, this edition purposely does not have an extensive list of literature references. A complete index with references to text passages and a great number of tables aid in the use of this book.

Our exceptional thanks goes to the translators of the First Edition of this book into English: Renate Weller, D.V.M. (The Royal Veterinary College, London, England), Mark Bowen, D.V.M. (The Royal Veterinary College, London, England) and Mark Dickomeit, D.V.M. (Nottingham, England) who, through their special anatomical knowledge, comprehensive experience, as well as their bilingual language talent have earned themselves special merit in the making of this book. In particular, we thank Ms. Kerida Shook, veterinarian, Frankfurt, Germany, for her excellent and professionally competent translation of the new chapters in this anatomy book, as well as Mrs. Judith McAlister-Hermann, Ronnenberg, Germany, for her valuable and very thorough corrections of the complete English manuscript. For revision of the preface and back cover text, a thank you goes to Dr. Elinor Switzer.

Last but not least, our special and heartfelt thank you goes to Publisher Dieter Bergemann who promoted with personal insistence and great commitment the generous design and high-quality printing of this Third Edition. Furthermore, we thank the colleagues at Schattauer GmbH, Ms. Heidrun Rieble and Ms. Eva Wallstein for their constructive, competent and very successful cooperation. We very much enjoyed working together with them on this new edition.

Vienna and Munich
Autumn 2006

Horst Erich König
Hans-Georg Liebich

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Contents

Introduction and general anatomy 1
H.-G. Liebich, G. Forstenpointner and H. E. König

History of veterinary anatomy 1

Directional terms and planes of the animal body 6

Division of the animal body in organs and organ systems 6

Locomotor apparatus (apparatus locomotorius) 8
Skeletal system (systema skeletale) 8
Osteology (osteologia) 8
Skeletal design 8
Forms of bony tissues 9
Architecture of bone 10
Endosteum, periosteum 11
Bone regeneration 12
Supply of blood vessels and nerves to the bone 12
Bone as an organ 13
Osteogenesis 13
Ossification 14
Types of bone tissues 16
Bone functions 17
Arthrology (arthrologia) 17
Synarthroses 20
True joints (articulationes synoviales) 20
Muscular system (systema musculare) 25
Myology (myologia) 25
Development, degeneration, regeneration and adaptation of muscle fibres 25
Architecture of skeletal musculature and the tendons 27
Forms of muscles 29
Locomotion 29
Accessory structures of muscles 32
Functions of the synovial membrane 33

General anatomy of angiology (angiologia) 33
Organisation of the cardiovascular system 34
Heart (cor) 34
Pulmonary and systemic circulation 34
Portal circulation 35
Peripheral circulation 35
Collateral arteries, terminal arteries and rete mirabile 35
Anastomoses, barrier arteries and sphincter veins 36
Vessels (vasa) 36
Structure of the blood vessels (vasa sanguinea) 36
Arteries (arteriae) 37
Arterioles 37
Blood capillaries (vasa capillaria) 38
Venules 38
Veins (venae) 39
Lymphatic system (vasa lymphatica) 39
Lymphatic organs 39
Functions of the lymphatic system 40
Architecture of the lymphatic vessels (vasa lymphatica) 40

General anatomy of the nervous system (systema nervosum) 40
Functions of the nervous system 41
Architecture and structure of the nervous system 41
Nerve tissue (textus nervosus) 42
Neurons 43
Glial cells (gliocytes, neuroglia) 43
Central nervous system (systema nervosum centrale, CNS) 43
Grey matter (substantia grisea) 44
White matter (substantia alba) 45
Peripheral nervous system (systema nervosum periphericum, PNS) 45
Nerves (nervi, neurons) 45
Motor and sensory roots 45
Ganglions (ganglia) 45
Somatic (voluntary) nervous system 46
Vegetative (autonomic) nervous system 46
Nerve transmission of information 47
Synapses 47
Barriers in the nervous system 48

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

1 Axial skeleton (skeleton axiale) 49
H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

Skull 49
Vertebral column or spine 49
Thorax 50

Skeleton of the head 50
Skull, neural part (cranium, neurocranium) 50
Occipital bone (os occipitale) 51
Sphenoid bone (os sphenoidale) 54
Presphenoid (os praesphenoidale) 54
Basisphenoid (os basisphenoidale) 54
Temporal bone (os temporale) 55
Frontal bone (os frontale) 57
Parietal bone (os parietale) 61
Interparietal bone (os interparietale) 61
Ethmoid bone (os ethmoidale) 61
Skull, facial part (facies, viscerocranium) 63
Nasal bone (os nasale) 63
Lacrimal bone (os lacrimale) 64
Zygomatic bone (os zygomaticum) 64
Maxilla 65
Incisive bone (os incisivum) 69
Palatine bone (os palatinum) 69
Vomer 69
Pterygoid bone (os pterygoideum) 69
Mandible (mandibula) 69
Hyoid bone, hyoid apparatus (os hyoideum, apparatus hyoideus) 71
Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales) 73

The skull as a whole 73
The skull of carnivores 73
Hyoid bone (os hyoideum) 77
Cavities of the skull of carnivores 77
Cranial cavity (cavum cranii) 77
Nasal cavity (cavum nasi) 78
Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales) 78
The skull of the horse 79
Hyoid bone (os hyoideum) 85
Cavities of the equine skull 85
Cranial cavity (cavum cranii) 85
Nasal cavity (cavum nasi) 85
Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales) 85

Vertebral column or spine (columna vertebralis) 86
Cervical vertebrae (vertebrae cervicales) 87
Thoracic vertebrae (vertebrae thoracicae) 92
Lumbar vertebrae (vertebrae lumbales) 93
Sacral vertebrae (vertebrae sacrales) 97
Caudal or coccygeal vertebrae (vertebrae caudales) 101

Thoracic skeleton (skeleton thoracis) 101
Ribs (costae) 101
Sternum 104

Joints of the skull and trunk (suturae capitis, articulationes columnae vertebralis et thoracis) 105
Joints of the skull (synchondroses cranii) 105
Joints of the vertebral column, the thorax and the skull (articulationes columnae vertebralis, thoracis et cranii) 106
Intervertebral articulations (articulationes columnae vertebralis) 108
Ligaments of the vertebral column 109
Articulations of the ribs with the vertebral column (articulationes costovertebrales) 111
Joints of the thoracic wall (articulationes thoracis) 112
The vertebral column as a whole 112

2 Fasciae and muscles of the head, neck and trunk 113
H.-G. Liebich, J. Maierl and H. E. König

Fasciae 113
Superficial fasciae of the head, neck and trunk 113
Deep fasciae of the head, neck and trunk 113

Cutaneous muscles (musculi cutanei) 114
Cutaneous muscles of the head (musculi cutanei capitis) 114
Cutaneous muscles of the neck (musculi cutanei colli) 114
Cutaneous muscles of the trunk (musculi cutanei trunci) 115

Muscles of the head (musculi capitis) 115
Facial muscles (musculi faciales) 115
Muscles of the lips and cheeks (musculi labiorum et buccarum) 115
Muscles of the nose (musculi nasi) 118
Extraorbital muscles of the eyelids (musculi extraorbitales) 118
Muscles of the external ear (musculi auriculares) 119
Mandibular muscles 119
Muscles of mastication 120
Superficial muscles of the mandibular space 122
Specific muscles of the head 123

Muscles of the trunk (musculi trunci) 124
Muscles of the neck (musculi colli) 125
Muscles of the back (musculi dorsi) 129
Long muscles of the neck and back 130
Short muscles of the neck and back 134
Muscles of the thoracic wall (musculi thoracis) 135
Respiratory muscles 135
Muscles of the abdominal wall (musculi abdominis) 138
Rectus sheath (vagina m. recti abdominis) 141
Inguinal canal (canalis inguinalis) 141
Muscles of the tail (musculi caudae) 142

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

3 Forelimb or thoracic limb (membra thoracica) 145
H.-G. Liebich, H. E. König and J. Maierl

Skeleton of the thoracic limb (ossa membri thoracici) 145
Pectoral girdle (cingulum membri thoracici) 145
Shoulder blade (scapula) 145
Skeleton of the arm (brachium) 149
Skeleton of the forearm (skeleton antebrachii) 153
Radius 154
Ulna 154
Skeleton of the manus (skeleton manus) 155
Carpal bones (ossa carpi) 155
Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia) 155
Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus) 157
Skeleton of the manus (forepaw) in carnivores 157
Carpal bones (ossa carpi) 157
Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia) 158
Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus) 158
Skeleton of the manus in the horse 159
Carpal bones (ossa carpi) 159
Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia) 159
Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus) 160

Joints of the thoracic limb (articulationes membri thoracici) 164
Articulation of the thoracic limb to the trunk 164
Shoulder or humeral joint (articulatio humeri) 160
Elbow joint (articulatio cubiti) 165
Radioulnar articulations (articulatio radioulnaris proximalis et articulatio radioulnaris distalis) 167
Articulations of the manus (articulationes manus) 167
Carpal joints (articulationes carpeae) 167
Intermetacarpal joints (articulationes intermetacarpeae) 170
Phalangeal joints 170
Phalangeal joints of the carnivores 170
Metacarpophalangeal joints 170
Proximal interphalangeal joints 171
Distal interphalangeal joints 171
Interdigital ligaments 171
Phalangeal joints of the ruminants 171
Metacarpophalangeal joints or fetlock joints 171
Proximal interphalangeal joints or pastern joints 173
Distal interphalangeal joints or coffin joints 174
Support of the dewclaws 175
Phalangeal joints of the horse 175
Metacarpophalangeal joint or fetlock joint 175
Proximal interphalangeal joint or pastern joint 177
Distal interphalangeal joint or coffin joint 178
Ligaments of the cartilages of the distal phalanx 179

Muscles of the thoracic limb (musculi membri thoracici) 182
Deep fasciae of the thoracic limb 182
Girdle or extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb 182
Superficial layer of the extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb 182
Deep layer of the extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb 187
Intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb 189
Muscles of the shoulder joint 190
Lateral shoulder muscles 190
Medial shoulder muscles 192
Muscles of the elbow joint 192
Muscles of the radioulnar joints 195
Muscles of the carpal joint 198
Muscles of the digits 200
Short digital muscles 213
Special muscles of the digits of carnivores 214

4 Hindlimb or pelvic limb (membra pelvina) 215
H.-G. Liebich, H. E. König and J. Maierl

Skeleton of the pelvic limb (ossa membri pelvini) 215
Pelvic girdle (cingulum membri pelvini) 215
Ilium (os ilium) 215
Pubis (os pubis) 218
Ischium (os ischii) 218
Acetabulum 219
Pelvis 220
Pelvic cavity 222
Skeleton of the thigh (skeleton femoris) 225
Kneecap (patella) 227
Skeleton of the leg (skeleton cruris) 227
Tibia 228
Fibula 229
Skeleton of the hindfoot (skeleton pedis) 232
Tarsal bones (ossa tarsi) 232
Talus (os tarsi tibiale) 232
Calcaneus (os calcis, os tarsi fibulare) 234
Metatarsal and digital skeleton (ossa metatarsalia et ossa digiti pedis) 236

Joints of the pelvic limb (articulationes membri pelvini) 236
Sacroiliac joint (articulatio sacroiliaca) 236
Coxofemoral or hip joint (articulatio coxae) 237
Stifle joint (articulatio genus) 238
Femorotibial joint (articulatio femorotibialis) 238
Femoropatellar joint (articulatio femoropatellaris) 242
Tibiofibular joints 243
Pedal joints (articulationes pedis) 244
Tarsal joint or hock (articulatio tarsi) 244
Metatarsal and phalangeal joints 247

Muscles of the pelvic limb (musculi membri pelvini) 247
Fasciae of the pelvis and the pelvic limb 247

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Girdle or extrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb 247
Intrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb 250
Rump muscles 251
Caudal muscles of the thigh 256
Medial muscles of the thigh 258
Inner pelvic muscles 260
Muscles of the stifle 264
Muscles of the crus 265
Craniolateral muscles of the crus 266
Caudal muscles of the crus 269
Short digital muscles 276

5 Statics and dynamics 277
J. Maierl, H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Architecture of the trunk 277

Thoracic limb 277

Pelvic limb 280

Gaits 281

6 Body cavities and viscera 283
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Visceral mucosa 283
Epithelium 283
Connective tissue layer of the epithelium 284
Muscle layer of the epithelium 284

Visceral connective tissue 284

Visceral motility 285

Body cavities and their serous lining 285
Thoracic cavity (cavum pectoris) 287
Mediastinum (mediastinum) 288
Lymph nodes of the mediastinum 292
Abdominal and pelvic cavity (cavum abdominalis et pelvis) 293
Peritoneal cavity (cavum peritonei) 294
Pelvic cavity (cavum pelvis) 299

7 Digestive system (apparatus digestorius) 301
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Mouth and pharynx 301
Oral cavity (cavum oris) 301
Palate (palatum) 302
Tongue (lingua, glossa) 303
Sublingual floor of the oral cavity 307
Salivary glands (glandulae salivariae) 308
Parotid salivary gland (glandula parotis) 309
Mandibular salivary gland (glandula mandibularis) 309
Sublingual salivary glands (glandulae sublinguales) 310
Masticatory apparatus 310
Teeth (dentes) 310
Structure of the teeth 310
Dentition of the horse 314
Dentition of the dog 317
Dentition of the cat 320
Dentition of the ox 320
Dentition of the pig 320
Temporomandibular joint (articulatio temporomandibularis) 321
Muscles of mastication 321
Pharynx (cavum pharyngis) 321
Deglutition (swallowing) 323
Lymphatic structures of the pharynx (tonsils) 323
Muscles of the hyoid apparatus 324
Upper muscles of the hyoid apparatus 324
Lower muscles of the hyoid apparatus 325

Cranial part of the alimentary canal (oesophagus and stomach) 326
Oesophagus 326
Structure of the oesophagus 326
Stomach (gaster, ventriculus) 327
Simple stomach 327
Structure of the gastric wall 327
Species-specific variations of the simple stomach 329
Blood supply and innervation 332
Position of the stomach and omenta 333
Complex stomach 335
Rumen 336
Reticulum 338
Omasum 339
Abomasum 340
Gastric groove (sulcus ventriculi) 340
Omenta 341
Blood supply 342
Innervation 342
Lymph nodes 343

Intestine 343
Structure of the intestinal wall 343
Innervation of the intestine 345
Blood supply of the intestine 345
Small intestine (intestinum tenue) 346
Duodenum 347
Jejunum 350
Ileum 351
Large intestine (intestinum crassum) 351
Caecum 352
Caecum of the horse 352
Caecum of the pig and ruminants 353

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Colon 353
Colon of the horse 354
Colon of the pig 354
Colon of the ruminants 355
Rectum 356
Anal canal and adjacent structures 356

Glands associated with the alimentary canal 356
Liver (hepar) 356
Weight 357
Form, position and species-specific variations 357
Structure 360
Blood supply 361
Innervation 363
Lymphatics 363
Ligaments 363
Bile ducts 364
Gall bladder (vesica fellea) 364
Pancreas 364
Pancreatic duct system of the different species 368

8 Respiratory system (apparatus respiratorius) 369
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Functions of the respiratory system 369

Upper respiratory tract 369
Nose (rhin, nasus) 369
Apex of the nose 369
Nasal cartilages (cartilagines nasi) 371
Nasal vestibule (vestibulum nasi) 371
Nasal cavities (cava nasi) 374
Nasal conchae (conchae nasales) 374
Nasal meatuses (meatus nasi) 374
Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales) 375

Lower respiratory tract 376
Larynx 376
Cartilages of the larynx (cartilagines laryngis) 377
Epiglottis (epiglottis) 379
Thyroid cartilage (cartilago thyroidea) 379
Arytenoid cartilages (cartilagines arytaenoideae) 379
Cricoid cartilage (cartilago cricoidea) 379
Laryngeal cavity (cavum laryngis) 379
Articulations and ligaments of the larynx 380
Muscles of the larynx 380
Functions of the larynx 382
Blood supply and innervation of the larynx 382
Trachea (trachea) 384
Lung (pulmo) 384
Structure of the lungs 385
Bronchial tree (arbor bronchialis) 385
Lobes of the lung (lobi pulmonis) 388
Blood vessels 390
Lymph nodes 390
Innervation 390

9 Urinary system (organa urinaria) 391
H. E. König, J. Maierl and H.-G. Liebich

Kidney (nephros, ren) 391
Location of the kidneys 393
Shape of the kidneys 393
Structure of the kidney 393
Functional units of the kidney 395
Blood supply 397
Lymphatics 399
Innervation 399

Renal pelvis (pelvis renalis) 399

Ureter (ureter) 401

Urinary bladder (vesica urinaria) 403

Urethra (urethra) 405

10 Male genital organs (organa genitalia masculina) 407
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Testis (orchis) 407
Structure of the testis 409

Epididymis 411

Deferent duct (ductus deferens) 411

Investments of the testis 412

Vaginal process (processus vaginalis) and spermatic cord (funiculus spermaticus) 413

Position of the scrotum 414

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation of the testis and its investments 414

Urethra 415

Accessory genital glands (glandulae genitales accessoriae) 415
Vesicular gland (glandula vesicularis) 417
Prostate gland (prostata) 417
Bulbourethral gland (glandula bulbourethralis) 417

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Penis 418
Prepuce (praeputium) 420
Muscles of the penis 421
Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation of the urethra and the penis 422
Erection and ejaculation 422

11 Female genital organs (organa genitalia feminina) 423
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Ovary (ovarium) 423
Position, form and size of the ovaries 425
Structure of the ovaries 425
Ovarian follicles 425
Corpus luteum 427

Uterine tube (tuba uterina) 429
Mesovarium, mesosalpinx and ovarian bursa 429

Uterus (metra, hystera) 430
Structure of the uterine wall 432

Vagina 433
Vestibule of the vagina (vestibulum vaginae) 434

Vulva 435

Ligaments (adnexa) 437

Muscles 439

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation 439

12 Organs of the cardiovascular system (systema cardiovasculare) 441
H. E. König, J. Ruberte and H.-G. Liebich

Heart (cor) 441
Pericardium 442
Position and size of the heart 443
Shape and surface topography of the heart 443
Compartments of the heart 444
Atria of the heart (atria cordis) 444
Right atrium (atrium dextrum) 444
Left atrium (atrium sinistrum) 445
Ventricles of the heart (ventriculi cordis) 445
Right ventricle (ventriculus dexter) 445
Left ventricle (ventriculus sinister) 446
Structure of the cardiac wall 447
Blood vessels of the heart 450
Conducting system of the heart 451
Innervation of the heart 452
Lymphatics of the heart 452
Functions of the heart 452

Vessels (vasa) 453
Arteries of the pulmonary circulation 454
Arteries of the systemic circulation 454
Cranial branches of the aortic arch 455
Brachiocephalic trunk 455
Thoracic aorta and abdominal aorta 462
External iliac artery 463
Internal iliac artery 466
Veins (venae) 468
Cranial vena cava (v. cava cranialis) and its tributaries 469
Veins of the head and neck 469
Azygous vein (v. azygos) 470
Veins of the thoracic limb 470
Veins of the pelvic limb 472
Caudal vena cava (v. cava caudalis) 472
Portal vein (v. portae) 473
Arteries and veins of the digit 474

13 Immune system and lymphatic organs (organa lymphopoetica) 475
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Lymph vessels (vasa lymphatica) 475

Lymph nodes (lymphonodi, nodi lymphatici) 476
Lymph nodes of the head 477
Parotid lymph centre 477
Mandibular lymph centre 478
Retropharyngeal lymph centre 478
Lymph nodes of the neck 478
Superficial cervical lymph centre 478
Deep cervical lymph centre 478
Lymph nodes of the thoracic limb 478
Axillary lymph centre 479
Lymph nodes of the thorax 479
Dorsal thoracic lymph centre 479
Ventral thoracic lymph centre 479
Mediastinal lymph centre 479
Bronchial lymph centre 480
Lymph nodes of the abdomen 480
Lumbar lymph centre 481
Coeliac lymph centre 481
Cranial mesenteric lymph centre 481
Caudal mesenteric lymph centre 481
Lymph nodes of the pelvic cavity and the pelvic limb 482
Iliosacral lymph centre 482
Iliofemoral lymph centre 482

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Inguinofemoral lymph centre (lymphocentrum inguinofemorale) 482
Ischial lymph centre (lymphocentrum ischiadicum) 483
Popliteal lymph centre (lymphocentrum popliteum) 483
Lymph collecting ducts 483

Thymus (thymus) 484

Spleen (lien, splen) 485

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation of the spleen 488
Function 488

14 Nervous system (systema nervosum) 489
H. E. König and H. G. Liebich

Central nervous system (systema nervosum centrale) 489
Spinal cord (medulla spinalis) 490
Shape and position 490
Structure 491
Grey matter (substantia grisea) 491
White matter (substantia alba) 493
Reflex arcs of the spinal cord 494
Brain (encephalon) 494
Rhombencephalon 495
Myelencephalon 495
Medulla oblongata 495
Metencephalon 496
Pons 496
Cerebellum 497
Medullary vela (vela medullaria) and rhomboid fossa (fossa rhomboidea) 497
Mesencephalon 498
Prosencephalon 499
Diencephalon 499
Functions of the prosencephalon 502
Telencephalon 502
Rhinencephalon 503
Limbic system 503
Neopallium and cerebral hemispheres 504
Internal organisation of the hemispheres 504
Functions of the telencephalon 507
Pathways of the central nervous system 508
Ascending pathways 508
General somatic afferent pathways 508
Afferent pathways of the sense organs 509
Descending pathways 511
Somatic motor pathways 511
Pyramidal system 512
Extrapyramidal system 513
Central autonomic nervous system 513
Visceral pathways 514
Meninges of the central nervous system 514
Spinal dura mater (dura mater spinalis) 515
Cranial dura mater (dura mater encephali) 515
Arachnoid membrane (arachnoidea) 515
Cerebral and spinal pia mater (pia mater encephali et spinalis) 518
Ventricles and cerebrospinal fluid 519
Blood vessels of the central nervous system 519
Blood vessels of the spinal cord 519
Blood vessels of the brain 520

Peripheral nervous system (systema nervosum peripherícum) 522
Cerebrospinal nerves and ganglia 521
Cranial nerves (nervi craniales) 523
Olfactory nerve (I) (nervus olfactorius) 525
Optic nerve (II) (fasciculus opticus) 525
Oculomotor nerve (III) (nervus oculomotorius) 525
Trochlear nerve (IV) (nervus trochlearis) 525
Trigeminal nerve (V) (nervus trigeminus) 526
Ophthalmic nerve (V_1) (nervus ophthalmicus) 526
Maxillary nerve (V_2) (nervus maxillaris) 527
Mandibular nerve (V_3) (nervus mandibularis) 528
Abducent nerve (VI) (nervus abducens) 530
Facial nerve (VII) (nervus facialis) 530
Vestibulocochlear nerve (VIII) (nervus vestibulocochlearis) 532
Glossopharyngeal nerve (IX) (nervus glossopharyngeus) 532
Vagus nerve (X) (nervus vagus) 533
Accessory nerve (XI) (nervus accessorius) 536
Hypoglossal nerve (XII) (nervus hypoglossus) 537
Spinal nerves (nervi spinales) 537
Cervical nerves (nervi cervicales) 537
Brachial plexus (plexus brachialis) and nerves of the thoracic limb 538
Suprascapular nerve (nervus suprascapularis) 540
Musculocutaneous nerve (nervus musculocutaneus) 540
Axillary nerve (nervus axillaris) 544
Radial nerve (nervus radialis) 544
Median nerve (nervus medianus) 545
Ulnar nerve (nervus ulnaris) 546
Innervation of the distal limb 546
Ventral branches of the thoracic nerves 547
Lumbar nerves (nervi lumbales) 547
Iliohypogastric nerve (nervus iliohypogastricus) 547
Ilioinguinal nerve (nervus inguinalis) 547
Genitofemoral nerve (nervus genitofemoralis) 548
Lateral cutaneous femoral nerve (nervus cutaneus femoris lateralis) 548
Femoral nerve (nervus femoralis) 548
Obturator nerve (nervus obturatorius) 552
Sacral nerves (nervi sacrales) 552
Lumbosacral plexus (plexus lumbosacralis) 552
Cranial gluteal nerve (nervus glutaeus cranialis) 552
Caudal gluteal nerve (nervus glutaeus caudalis) 552
Caudal femoral cutaneous nerve (nervus cutaneus femoris caudalis) 552
Pudendal nerve (nervus pudendus) 553
Caudal rectal nerves (nervi rectales caudales) 554

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Sciatic nerve (nervus ischiadicus) 554
Common fibular nerve (nervus fibularis communis) 554
Tibial nerve (nervus tibialis) 555

Peripheral autonomic nervous system (systemo nervosum autonomicum) 556
Structure of the autonomic nervous system 556
Sympathetic system 557
Sympathetic trunk (truncus sympathicus) 557
Parasympathetic system 560
Intramural system 560

15 Endocrine glands (glandulae endocrinae) 561
H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Pituitary gland (hypophysis seu glandula pituitaria) 561

Pineal gland (epiphysis cerebri seu corpus pineale, glandula pinealis) 562

Thyroid gland (glandula thyroidea) 563
Position and form of the thyroid gland 563
Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation 564

Parathyroid glands (glandulae parathyroideae) 565
Species specific variations 565
Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation 566

Adrenal glands (glandulae adrenales seu suprarenales) 566
Function 567
Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation 567

Paraganglia 568

Pancreatic islets (insulae pancreatici) 570

Gonads as endocrine glands 570

16 Eye (organum visus) 571
H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

Eyeball (bulbus oculi) 571
Shape and size of the eyeball 571
Directional terms and planes of the eyeball 572
Structure of the eyeball 572
Fibrous layer of eyeball (tunica fibrosa bulbi) 572
Sclera 572
Cornea 573
Vascular layer of eyeball (tunica vasculosa seu media bulbi, uvea) 574
Choroid (choroidea, uvea) 574
Ciliary body (corpus ciliare) 575
Iris 576
Innervation of the iris and of the ciliary body 577
Inner layer of the eyeball (tunica interna bulbi, retina) 577
Pigmented layer (stratum pigmentosum retinae) 579
Neural layer (stratum nervosum retinae) 579
Central area of the retina (area centralis retinae) 581
Central striaeform area of the retina (area centralis striaeformis retinae) 581
Nutrition of the retina 581
Optic nerve (nervus opticus) 582
Structures of the inner eye 583
Lens (lens) 583
Chambers of the eyeball (cameae bulbi) and aqueous humour (humor aqueus) 584
Vitreous body (corpus vitreum) 584

Adnexa of the eye (organa oculi accessoria) 586
Orbit (orbita) 586
Fasciae and extrinsic muscles of the eyeball 586
Eyelids (palpebrae) 587
Lacrimal apparatus (apparatus lacrimalis) 588

Blood supply and innervation 589
Blood vessels of the eye 589
Innervation of the eye and its adnexa 590

Visual pathways and optic reflexes 591

17 Vestibulocochlear organ (organum vestibulocochleare) 593
H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

External ear (auris externa) 593
Auricle (auricula) 594
External acoustic meatus (meatus acusticus externus) 595
Tympanic membrane (membrana tympani) 595

Middle ear (auris media) 596
Tympanic cavity (cavum tympani) 596
Auditory ossicles (ossicula auditus) 599
Auditory tube (tuba auditiva, Eustachian tube) 601

Internal ear (auris interna) 605
Vestibular labyrinth (pars statica labyrinthi) 605
Saccule (sacculus) and utricle (utriculus) 606

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Semicircular ducts (ductus semicirculares) 606
Cochlear labyrinth (pars auditiva labyrinthi) 607
Cochlear duct (ductus cochlearis) 607
Organ of Corti (organum spirale) 608

18 Common integument (integumentum commune) 609
S. Reese, K. D. Budras, Chr. Mülling, H. Bragulla and H. E. König

Subcutaneous layer (subcutis, tela subcutanea) 610

Skin (cutis) 610
Dermis (corium) 611
Epidermis (epidermis) 611
Blood supply of the skin 613
Nerves and sense organs of the skin 614

Hairs (pili) 615
Hair types 615
Patterns of hair 617
Shedding 617

Skin glands (glandulae cutis) 618
Specialised forms of skin glands 618

Mammary gland (mamma, uber, mastos) 619
Suspensory apparatus of the mammary glands 619
Structure of the mammary glands 619
Blood supply 620
Arteries 621
Veins 621
Lymphatic system 621
Innervation 621
Neurohormonal reflex arc 622
Development of the mammary gland 622
Lactation 623
Mammary glands (mamma) of carnivores 624
Mammary glands (mamma) of the pig 624
Udder (uber) of small ruminants 625
Bovine udder (uber) 625
Equine udder (uber) 626

Foot pads (tori) 627

Digit (organum digitale) 627
Function 627
Segmentation 628
Horny enclosure of the distal phalanx (capsula ungularis) 628
Wall (paries corneus, lamina) 628
Base surface (facies solearis) 628
Deciduous horn shoe (capsula ungulae decidua) 630
Modification of the different segments 630
Subcutis (tela subcutanea) 630
Dermis (corium) 630
Epidermis (epidermis) 631
Vital layers of the epidermis 631
Horn (stratum corneum) 631
Structure of the horn-cell junction 632
Tubular horn 632
Functions of the horn 632
Claw (unguicula) 632
Canine claw 632
Form of the claw 633
Segments of the claw 633
Blood supply 635
Lymphatic drainage 636
Innervation 636
Feline claw 636
Blood supply 636
Lymphatic drainage 637
Innervation 637
Hooves (ungula) of ruminants and pigs 637
Definition 637
Bovine hooves (ungula) 637
Form of the hooves 638
Functions 638
Segments of the hoof 638
Blood supply 642
Lymphatic drainage 645
Innervation of the hooves 645
Hoof (ungula) of the small ruminants 645
Blood supply and innervation 647
Hoof (ungula) of the pig 647
Blood supply and innervation 647
Equine hoof (ungula) 647
Definition 647
Shape of the hoof 649
Wall (paries corneus, lamina) 649
Base surface (facies solearis) 649
Segments of the hoof 650
Perioplic segment (limbus) 651
Coronary segment (corona) 651
Wall segment (paries) 653
Sole segment (solea) 654
Foot pad (torus digitalis) 655
Frog (cuneus ungulae) 655
Heel bulbs (torus ungulae) 655
Suspension of the distal phalanx 655
Blood supply 656
Arteries 656
Veins 656
Lymphatic drainage 656
Innervation 657
Thoracic limb 657
Pelvic limb 657
Hoof biomechanics 657
Horn production 657

Horn (cornu) 657
Bovine horn (cornu) 658
Development of the horn 658

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Cornual process (processus cornualis) 658
Pneumatisation of the cornual process 658
Horn sheath 658
Cornual subcutis (tela subcutanea) 658
Cornual dermis (dermis cornus) 658
Cornual epidermis (epidermis cornus) 658
Blood supply 659
Lymphatic drainage 659
Innervation 659
Horn (cornu) of the small ruminants 660
Cornual process (processus cornualis) 660
Horn sheath 660
Blood supply and innervation 660

19 Topographical-clinical anatomy 661
H. E. König, J. Maierl, A. Probst and H.-G. Liebich

Head (caput) 661
Stratigraphy 661
Regions 661
Nasal region 661
Oral region and chin region 661
Buccal region 662
Infraorbital region 662
Masseteric region 663
Orbital region 663
Intermandibular region 665
Temporal region 665
Clinical applications 666
Digestive organs of the head 666
Oral cavity 666
Teeth 666
Nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses 667
Pharynx 668
Larynx 668
Cranial nerves 669
Guttural pouch of the horse 674
Eye 675
Ear 675
Brain 676

Neck (collum) 677
Stratigraphy 677
Regions 677
Parotid region 677
Ventral region of the neck 678
Jugular groove (sulcus jugularis) 678
Prescapular region 679
Dorsal region of the neck 679
Stratigraphy (in the median plane) 679
Synovial bursae 679
Clinical applications 679
Injections 680
Spinal puncture 680
Thyroid gland 680
Trachea 680
Larynx 680
Oesophagus 680
Intervertebral disc 681

Thorax 681
Visible and palpable bony structures 681
Superficial thoracic and muscular grooves 681
Stratigraphy 681
Regions 681
Organs of the thoracic cavity 681
Lungs 682
Position of the dome of the diaphragm 682
Heart 682
Clinical applications 683
Cardiac region 683
Blood vessel supply to the heart 683
Persistent right aortic arc 683
Persistent ductus arteriosus in the dog 683

Abdomen 683
Visible and palpable bony structures 686
Visible blood vessels 686
Deep blood vessels 686
Innervation 687
Lymph nodes 687
Stratigraphy 687
Regions 687
Cranial abdominal region 687
Hypochondriac region 687
Xiphoid region 692
Middle abdominal region 692
Lateral abdominal region 692
Umbilical region 692
Caudal abdominal region 693
Pubic region 693
Inguinal region 693
Clinical applications 693
Abdominal hernia 693
Laparoscopy 693
Laparotomy 693
Castration 695
Surgery of the copulatory organ 696
Examination of the udder 696

Forelimb or thoracic limb (membra thoracica) 696
Regions 696
Scapular region 697
Shoulder joint and axillary regions 697
Lateral brachial region 698
Medial brachial region 702
Elbow region 702
Forearm region 702
Cranial forearm region 702
Medial forearm region 702
Caudal forearm region 706
Carpal region 706

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Metacarpal region and the digital regions ____ 706
Clinical applications ____ 707

Hindlimb or pelvic limb (membra pelvina) ____ 709
Regions ____ 709
Gluteal region and hip joint region ____ 710
Perineal region ____ 710
Femoral region ____ 710
Knee or stifle regions ____ 711
Crural regions ____ 713
Tarsal region ____ 713
Metatarsal region ____ 718
Phalangeal regions ____ 718
Clinical applications ____ 718
Palpable bony structures ____ 720

Projection of the organs onto the body surface ____ 722
Organs of the abdominal cavity ____ 722
Right lateral body wall of the dog ____ 722
Left lateral body wall of the dog ____ 722
Right lateral body wall of the pig ____ 723
Left lateral body wall of the pig ____ 723
Right lateral body wall of the ox ____ 724
Left lateral body wall of the ox ____ 724
Right lateral body wall of the horse ____ 725
Left lateral body wall of the horse ____ 725

Literature ____ 727

Glossary of Terms ____ 731

Index ____ 739

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Introduction and general anatomy

H.-G. Liebich, G. Forstenpointner and H.E. König

History of veterinary anatomy

The doctrine of morphology as the scientific study of the form and structure of organisms was founded by **Aristotle**. He defined morphology as the search for a common construction plan for all structures, while adhering to a strict methodological process. Where similarities can be found, the relation between form and function requires further clarification. This scientific approach set Plato's best student apart from the early Greek natural philosophers and to this day is the principle method employed in all areas of basic research.

Presumably Aristotle performed anatomical research through dissections. References found in his work **Historia Animalium** indicate that he published another treatise, Parts of Animals, which sadly did not survive. This work dealt mainly with the digestive and reproductive systems. Here Aristotle recorded his impressions with schematic illustrations. Many of his observations were naturally incomplete, which often led him to erroneous conclusions. However, many of his thoughts on function remain worth reading: for example, his explanation of quadruped locomotion recorded in The Gait of Animals. Being a teacher, Aristotle's greatest motivation for research was gaining knowledge for knowledge's sake. This motivation was carried on by his student, **Theophrastos of Eresus**, and by Roman researchers in natural science such as **Plinius** and **Aelian**.

Almost two thousand years passed before the humanists of the 15th and 16th centuries renewed the Aristotelian access to comparative morphology. Especially in Italy, the study of animal and human bodies led to many new discoveries in this field. These findings were meticulously recorded in a demandingly artistic manner and are today famous works of art.

Leonardo de Vinci, by far the most famous artist of this period, embodied this new quest for knowledge and understanding, as is evidenced in his multifaceted research.

Other excellent researchers were **Fabrizio d'Acquapendente**, who completed the first work in comparative embryology (De formatu foetu, 1600), and **Marcello Malpighi**, who studied the development of the chick embryo (Opera omnia, 1687). Even though initial progress was impeded by an unstable political situation as well as by the religious establishment, these scientists were forerunners in their fields and heralded in a golden age of comparative anatomy. This trend continued until the end of the 19th century and was characterised by a period of extraordinary productivity of many notable naturalists.

Richard Owen, a renowned English anatomist, and the Germans **Johann Friedrich Meckel** and **Caspar Friedrich Wolff** played dominant roles in the resurgence of comparative anatomy as a discipline in Europe. Since the turn of the 20th century, the field of zoological research has been subject to constant redirection. This has led to the development of new disciplines which abandoned the orginal intentions of comparative anatomy as intended by its founders.

Anatomical knowledge is not achied for its own sake, but is a prerequisite for successful medical practice. Throughout the ages, due to religious and ethical boundaries, human dis-


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cognomento Pythagoræ
MERYCO-
LOGIA
SIVE DE
RVMINANTIBVS
ET
RVMINATIONE
COMMENTARIVS.
Quo primum exponuntur
RVMINANTIVM SPECIES ET DIFFE
BASILEÆ
Apud JOH. LUDOVICUM KŒNIG
& JOH. BRANDMYLLERVM.

Fig. 1-1. Cover of Merycologia by Johann Konrad Peyer, Basel, 1685

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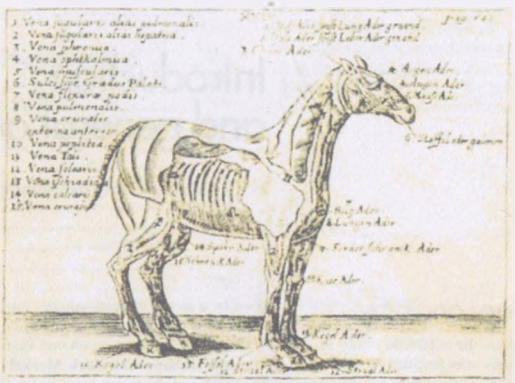


Fig. I-2. Early illustration of the blood vessels of the horse, Seifert von Tennecker, pseudonym Valentin Trichter, 1757

sections were highly restricted or forbidden outright. Recorded exceptions were seldom, one being from the Hellenic school of Alexandria under the leadership of Herophilus and Erasistratos. These vivisections on criminal convicted contributed to a greater understanding of neuroanatomy. Furthermore, Aristotle's singular work on human anatomy was drawn from the dissection of a miscarried fetus.



Fig. I-3. Illustration of the equine musculature from Dell'Anatomia e dell' Infirmita del Cavallo, Carlo Ruini, Venice, 1598

Since animal dissections were the only possibilty of studying the principles of form and function, these findings were extrapolated to human anatomy. **Claudius Galenus**, who served under the Emperors Marcus Aurelius and Commodus, became the most famous and influential doctor in Rome.

The results and interpretation which he gained through consequent research laid the unchallenged foundation of anatomical knowledge that lasted throughout the following 1500 years. Galen considered himself a physician by trade, however his understanding of anatomy and physiology was based upon Aristotle's publications, such as The nature of Things. He ardently pursued research in these two disciplines Aristotle's methodology. Because Galen's teachings were intelligible and rational, they endured as the unchallenged foundation of anatomical and physiological knowledge for over 1500 years.

Even though his anatomical conclusions were sound, Galen's interpretations of some systems, such as the heart and large vessels, were erroneous. Due to the lack of human autopsies, Galen's extrapolations of animal dissection results were often misguided. For example, he suspected that the Rete mirabile epidurale would also be found in humans even though now we know it is a typical structure of ruminants. Further, he concluded that humans must have a caecum built like that of herbivores or a uterus with cotyledons.

In the tradition of Galen, an anatomical atlas of the pig (Anatomia porci, written by Copho or Kopho) was published in Salerno around 1100–1150. This was not the first anatomy book in veterinary medicine, but rather was meant as an anatomical teaching tool for students of human medicine. The generally accepted myth then and today – that the pig resembles the human more than any other animal – relies greatly on the similar eating habits and the availability of subject material in those days.

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Fig. 1-4. Original drawing showing the body regions of the horse from the lecture notes of Ludwig Scotti, School of Horse Cures and Operations, Vienna, 1770

During the Renaissance, anatomical studies on human corpses were no longer taboo. With his monumental work on human anatomy (De humani corporis fabrica, 1543), **Andreas Vesalius** marked the hesitant beginning of a revolutionary new attitude toward the human body. Early anatomists still considered themselves naturalists, compiling many fundamental discoveries of morphology through continuing studies of animal anatomy. Vesalius was the first to realize that the Rete mirabile epidurale represented a typical structure of ruminants. Studies of ruminant digestion were advanced by **Johann Conrad Peyer** through his magnificent publication in 1685, Merycologia sive de ruminantibus et ruminatione commentarius (Fig. 1-1). His discovery of lymphatic tissue (Lymphonoduli aggregati) in the intestinal mucosa resulted in the name Peyer's patches. From the beginning, the study of comparative anatomy has remained a domain for research institutes specialising in human anatomy, even more so as zoological research turned away from the study of morphology.

In the last decades of the 20th century, the use of laboratory animals led to the optimizing of therapeutic approaches. The implementation of experimental concepts has been possible only through the application of necessary basic animal morphology, which has largely been provided by physicians. Interestingly, still today animals are chosen as models, not because of their morphological comparability, but rather for their availability.

Veterinary anatomy as a prerequisite for practicing veterinary medicine has developed only in the last few centuries as an independent teaching and research subject. It is evident through ancient and medieval texts for animal caretakers that the anatomical knowledge, especially of horses, was more or less precise. However, the systematic portrayal of the basic morphological associations was nonexistent.

Equerry handbooks created in the tradition of **Jordanus Ruffus** in the late middle ages and early modern age were not systematically organised. They did contain information on equine anatomy, which was often accompanied by ineffectual illustrations. In 1598, **Carlo Ruini** published an at that time exceptional handbook, Dell' Anatomia e dell'Infirmita del Cavallo (Fig. 1-3). Seeming to appear without a forerunner, this textbook was undoubtedly inspired by Vesalius.

Ruini was born into a prosperous family from Bologna and neither worked as an equerry nor was a member of the university. Through excellent private tutors, he developed a passionate interest in the natural sciences and was an enthusiastic equestrian. Although incomplete and sometimes flawed, his seminal work was nevertheless the first comprehensive and systematic portrayal of equine anatomy. The second half of the book concerning equine diseases was largely an indiscriminate recapitulation of much older literature. The magnificence of this publication lies in its illustrative quality, which rivals that of **Leonardo da Vinci** or **Vesalius**. Ruini's textbook was to be republished, plagiarised and translated many times (Fig. 1-5).

At the beginning of the 17th century, veterinary anatomy was slowly beginning to enter a renaissance. However, it was not to be until about 150 years later that a veterinary academy was created where Ruini's textbook could be used to train animal doctors.



Fig. 1-5. Topography of the horse abdomen, William Gibson, London, 1754

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Fig. 1-6. Title page of the first german language Anatomy Textbook of Domestic Animals, Konrad Ludwig Schwab, Munich, 1821.



Fig. 1-7. First edition title page of Handbook of Comparative Anatomy of Domestic Mammals, Ernst Friedrich Gurlt, Berlin, 1822.

Considered to be the father of veterinary anatomy, **Philippe Etienne Lafosse** opened at his own expense a private veterinary school in Paris in 1767. This endeavour proved unsuccessful, and the school was closed in 1770. Two years later, he published his most successful work, Cours d'Hippiatrique (A Course on Hippiatry or A Complete Treatise on the Medicine of the Horse.) This work was organised according to organ systems, fundamentally resembling the form used today in modern anatomy textbooks. The clinical relevance of a topographical approach was soon integrated into the teaching of anatomy.

One of the earliest topographical illustrations of the horse (Fig. 1-4) is found in the lecture notes recorded and published in 1770 by **Ludwig Scotti**, the first director of the School for Horse Cures and Operations in Vienna. The development of anatomy as an independent discipline at the newly founded European veterinary schools was tentative at best. Consequently, it was not until 1822 that the first comprehensive anatomy text- or handbook was published. The first german comprehensive veterinary anatomy reference was **Konrad Ludwig Schwab's** Anatomy Textbook of Domestic Animals of 1821, followed closely by **Ernst Friedrich Gurlt's** Hand-

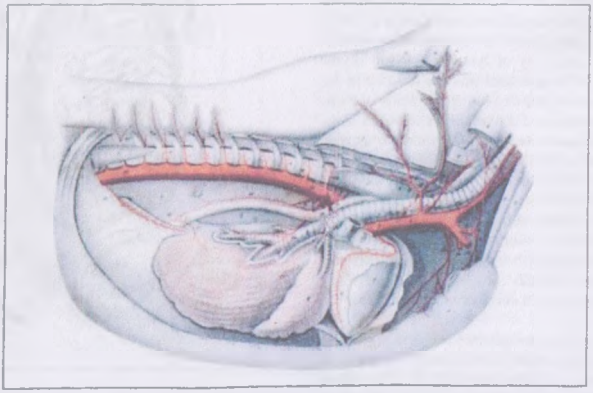


Fig. 1-8. Coloured illustration of the horse thorax from the Atlas to the Handbook of Comparative Anatomy of Domestic Mammals, Ernst Friedrich Gurlt, Berlin, 1860.

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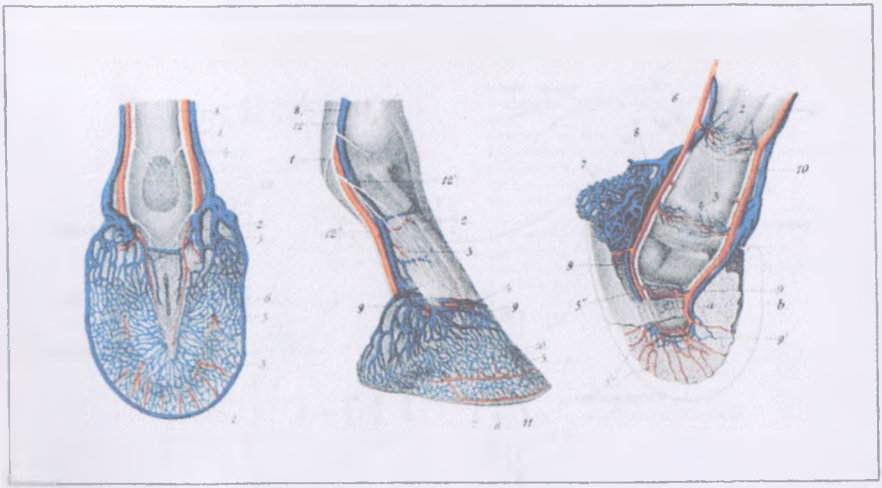


Fig. 1-9. Vascularization of the equine hoof from Leisering's Atlas on the Anatomy of Horses and other Domestic Animals, Wilhelm Ellenberger in cooperation with Hermann Baum, Leipzig, 1899

book of Comparative Anatomy of Domestic Mammals in 1872. These works represented the beginning of a long German tradition of veterinary anatomical research that quickly gained international recognition and lasted far into the 20th century. Eighteen editions of Gurlt's work were published, with each new edition being revised and improved until the final one was print in 1943. **Wilhelm Ellenberger** and **Hermann Baum** were responsible for the 9th to the 17th editions, creating the style that can still be observed today in this widely available book (Fig. 1-8 and 9). The sheer volume of publications in veterinary anatomy originating from Germany, Switzerland and Austria in the middle and late 19th century was overwhelming. This reflects the field's significance and the high esteem in which veterinary anatomy was held in those days.

A landmark decision during the modern era of veterinary anatomy was the establishment of the International Committee for Nomenclature in Veterinary Anatomy. Emulating the human medical publication, Nomina Anatomica, the first edition of Nomina Anatomica Veterinaria was published in 1968. This work standardises worldwide anatomical terminology in veterinary medicine, thus providing a useful instrument to maintain the importance of anatomy in a steadily changing medical landscape.

Anatomy is the **branch of morphology** dealing with the form, structure, topography and the functional interaction of the tissues and organs that comprise the body. The dissection of dead animals is still the most important and efficient method to study and comprehend anatomy. With the advancement of classical anatomy, **histology** including **microscopic anatomy** and **embryology** developed into independent disciplines. Although inseparable as a whole, this division facilitates a more structured and thus easier approach to gaining anatomical knowledge.

Systematic anatomy has to do with "sytems", in other words with structures and organs that fulfil a common function. The respiratory system for example is responsible for the gaseous exchange, whereas the nervous system receives, translates, transmits and responds to stimuli. Differences between the individual species can be compared, so that from an anatomical point of view "**systematic anatomy**" in teaching also represents a **comparative anatomy**, preferably limited to the domestic animals and poultry.

It is of great importance that students acquire a profound knowledge of systematic anatomy, from which they can then derive the overall connection of the structure and function of the animal body. Knowledge of **systematic anatomy** is the essential foundation for **topographic anatomy**, which describes the relative position and functional interaction of organs and structures of the various regions of the body. It presupposes a thorough working knowledge of systematic anatomy. Both systematic and topographic anatomy constitute the foundations of clinical practice.

Modern technologies, such as X-ray, ultrasound, computer tomography or magnetic resonance tomography, demand from the clinician greater knowledge of topographic anatomy, which is gained through studying sectional views of the body. **Sectional anatomy** represents a new direction in teaching and research in veterinary anatomy; a modern textbook would be incomplete without it.

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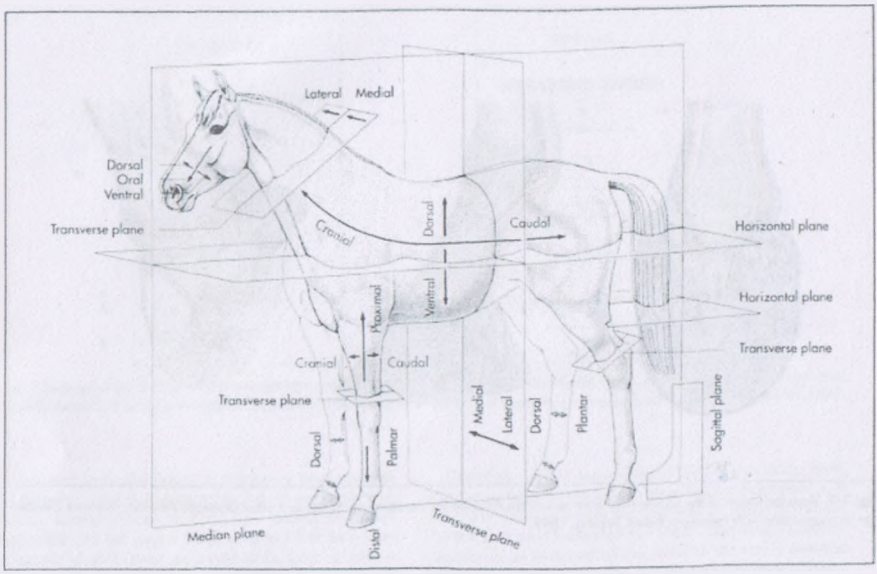


Fig. I-10. Directional terms and planes of the animal body (schematic); after Dyce, Sack and Wensing, 2002

Directional terms and planes of the animal body

Certain descriptive terms are employed to indicate precisely and unambiguously the position or direction of body parts. The most important anatomical terms are illustrated in Fig. I-10 and the organ systems are listed with a short explanation in Table I-1.

The body of an animal has major divisions which are clearly distinguishable externally: the head (caput), the neck (collum), the trunk (truncus), the tail (cauda) and the limbs (membra). Each one of these sections is in turn divided into regions, which function as descriptive motifs for the topographic anatomy (For more information see Chapter 19).

Division of the animal body in organs and organ systems

Cells and tissues similar in structure and function are joined together to form individual organs or organ systems. These act synergistically to fulfill functions that define the organism and ensure survival. The individual organ systems are composed of different types of tissue. An individual organ is made up of two types of tissue:

- parenchyma and
- interstitial tissue

The **cells of the parenchyma** are responsible for the function of the organ (e.g. hepatic cells of the liver, renal cells of the kidneys, glandular cells of the salivary glands). The **interstitial tissue** builds the connective tissue that, for example, either encloses a small functional unit or separates larger areas of an organ into lobules (lobuli) or lobes (lobi). Connective tissue also supports metabolic transport to and from the organs, enclosing not only blood and lymph vessels but also peripheral nerves from the nervous system, all of which supply the organ. Together these structures form an overriding system that greatly influences the structural and functional character of an organ. **Systematic anatomy** examines in detail individual organ systems of the body, which are listed in Table I-2.

Veterinary anatomy deals mainly with **domestic mammals**. These are taxonomically classified as Canis lupus f. familiaris (dog), Felis sylvestris f. catus (cat), Sus scrofa f. domestica (pig), Bos primigenius f. taurus (cattle), Ovis ammon f. aries (sheep), Capra aegagrus f. hircus (goat) and Equus przewalskii f. caballus (horse). Also included in the study of veterinary anatomy is poultry, whereby Gallus gallus f. domestica (chicken) is the most common specimen. Poultry is an important field in veterinary medicine and is therefore extensively

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Tab. 1-1. Directional terms and virtual planes of the animal body

Term	Meaning	Usage
Cranial	towards the head, trunk and tail	trunk and tail, limbs proximal to the carpus and tarsus
Rostral	towards the tip of the nose	head
Caudal	towards the tail	head and trunk, limbs proximal to the carpus and tarsus
Dorsal	towards the back	trunk, head and the front of the limbs distal of carpus and tarsus
Ventral	towards the belly	underside of the trunk, head
Medial	towards the centre	head, trunk and limbs
Lateral	towards the side	head, trunk and limbs
Median	in the middle	trunk, head and limbs
Proximal	towards the trunk	limbs and other body parts located close to the trunk or projecting away from the trunk
Distal	away from the trunk	limbs and other body parts located at a distance form the trunk or projecting away from the trunk
Palmar	towards the palm of the hand	forelimbs distal of the carpal joint
Plantar	towards the sole of the foot	hindlimbs distal of the tarsal joint
Axial	towards the axis of the digits	digits
Abaxial	away from the axis of the digits	digits
External	located outside	body parts and organs
Internal	located inside	body parts and organs
Superficial	located near the surface	body parts and organs
Deep	located in the depth	body parts and organs of the head and trunk
Temporal	towards the temporal bone	eye
Nasal	towards the nose	eye
Superior	above	eyelid
Inferior	below	eyelid
Apical	towards the tip	nose, digits and tail
Oral	towards the mouth	head
Virtual planes of the animal body		
Median plane	plane dividing the body in two equal parts	
Paramedian plane	any plane parallel and close to the median plane	
Sagittal plane	any plane parallel to the median plane but located further lateral	
Dorsal plane	any plane parallel to the dorsal surface	
Transverse plane	any plane perpendicular to the long axis	

Tab. 1-2. Organ systems

Name	Primary function
Outer skin	Protective covering of the animal body
Skeleton and joints	Supporting framework of the body
Musculature of the skeleton	Locomotion
Digestive system	Food intake, mastication, chemical digestion, excretion and absorption
Respiratory system	Oxygen supply, elimination of carbon dioxide and production of sound
Urogenital system	Excretion and reproduction
Circulatory system	Transport and exchange of substances
Nervous system	Regulation, transmission, reaction in response to external stimuli
Organs of sense	Reception of external stimuli
Endocrine glands	Regulation of cell functions by hormones
Immune system	Response to infection

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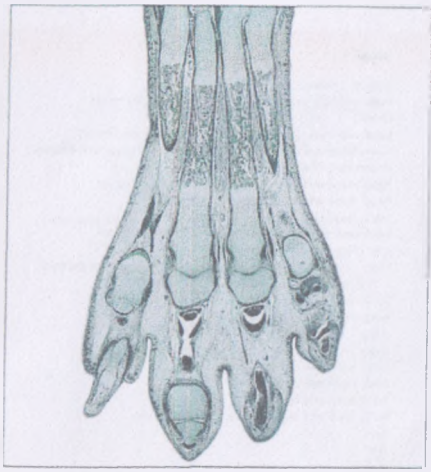


Fig. 1-11. Distal limb of a young cat during chondral ossification (histological section, Goldner staining)

covered in a separate textbook containing a revised and updated introduction to poultry clinical medicine. (Anatomie und Propädeutik des Geflügels; König and Liebich, 2001)

Locomotor apparatus (apparatus locomotorius)

The locomotor apparatus is a **complex organ system** whose primary function is mechanical. The skeleton and the muscles are the major elements comprising this system, forming and maintaining the individual body shape and providing for the locomotion of body parts or the whole organism.

The **skeleton** is composed of individual elements: the **bones** (ossa), **cartilage** (cartilagines), **ligaments** (ligamenta) and the **joints** (articulationes) that together create the body's framework, the **skeletal system** (systema skeletale).

The **skeletal system** constitutes the **passive part of the locomotor system**, whereas the **musculature** (systema musculare) represents the **active part**. Both parts form a functional unit that is integrated into the body's circulatory, lymphatic and nervous systems.

The system performs many metabolic functions at a cellular level. Hormones regulate a constant process of growth, modification and breakdown. The term **"locomotor system"** does not do justice to this many-facetted system; therefore this system is more appropriately referred to as the system of motion, stability and support.

Malfunctions and diseases of this system are among the most common diagnoses made in clinical veterinary medicine. The importance of basic anatomical knowledge is often greatly underestimated.

Skeletal system (systema skeletale)

Osteology (osteologia)

Osteology is the study of bones (ossa) that combine to form the skeletons of diverse animal species. Bones are composed of:

- **bone tissue**, which is sheathed inside and outside by the
- **endosteum** and **periosteum**, respectively, and the
- **bone marrow** (medulla ossium), as well as the
- **blood vessels** and **nerves** supplying these structures.

These components classify bone as an **organ**.

The individual form of each bone is genetically determined and remains even though forces of traction and compression subject the bone to continual adaptation processes. Because of their high **mineral content** (60%–70%), bones do not undergo post-mortem changes and are thus useful objects of archaeological study. **Maceration of bone** is the process of removing **organic components** through the use of weak lye. Bones used as teaching objects have usually undergone such treatment. Treating the bones with an **acid** removes the **inorganic** or **mineralised** components.

Skeletal design

Connective tissue precursor of bone

All components of the skeletal system develop from the **middle embryonic germ layer (mesoderm)**. Early in embryonic development, the mesoderm differentiates into three types of connective tissue: embryonic, reticular and fibrous. These tissues consist of:

- **cells** (e.g. fibrocytes),
- **fluid-filled intercellular spaces** and
- **fibrous components** (collagen and elastin).

These tissues become more abundant as development progresses, and at genetically determined locations these tissues transform into tendons, ligaments and fasciae. Developmental processes in the embryonic regions of the trunk and limbs begin early in development and lead to structural and functional specialisation of the embryonic tissue. The two elements of support tissue, **cartilage** and **bone**, develop from this primordial **loose connective tissue** (textus connectivus collagenosus laxus).

Both bone and cartilage originate from **mesenchymal precursor cells**, the **chondroblasts** and **osteoblasts**, respectively, which mature into the **chondrocytes** and **osteocytes**. These cells synthesise a matrix of collagen fibres and matrix.

Development and growth of cartilage

Cartilage is characterised by the structure of its **formless matrix**, the **intercellular substance**, which consists primarily of glycosaminoglycans. Embedded in the intercellular substance are **collagenous fibres**, the structural element of cartilage. This unique construction lends cartilage strength and flexibility. Due to their chemical structure, **glycosamino-**

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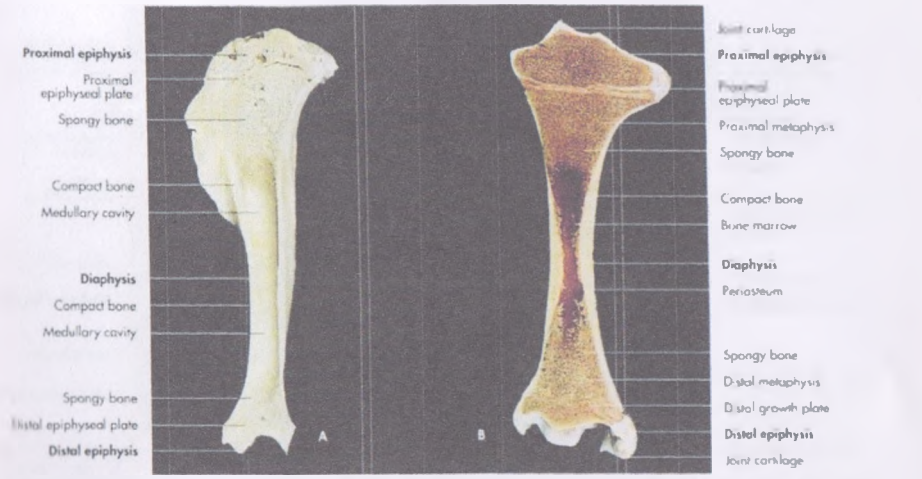


Fig. 1-12. Sagittal section of a long bone after maceration (A), and sagittal section of an untreated long bone including joint cartilage and red bone marrow (B)

glycosans are able to bind water, resulting in the increased elasticity and pliability of cartilage.

Blood vessels and nerves are absent in cartilage. Nutrients must diffuse through the matrix from blood vessels located in surrounding connective tissue, synovia or subchondral bone.

There are three types of cartilage classified according to the quality of the embedded fibres: **hyaline**, **elastic** or **fibrous cartilage**.

In adults, **hyaline cartilage** persists at the articular ends of long bones (cartilagines articulares), at the tips of the ribs (cartilago costae), and in parts of the laryngeal (cartilago laryngis), tracheal (cartilago trachealis), and bronchial (cartilago bronchialis) walls. **Elastic cartilage** forms the internal support for the epiglottis and the ear. **Fibrocartilage** forms the intervertebral discs, the menisci and the articular disc in the jaw joint. With increasing age, cartilage may ossify, to become invested with calcium salts. This occurs frequently in cats, for example, in the costal cartilage or the menisci.

The **formation of cartilage** (chondrogenesis) originates in the **mesenchymal** (embryonal) connective tissue (see above), remains of which still surround the cartilage in later stages of development. These remnants are the **perichondrium**, cells of which the **fibroblasts** differentiate into **chondroblasts**, which produce the cartilage matrix containing water, ions, collagenous or elastic fibres and glycosamnioglycans.

Cartilage growth occurs through proliferation of chondroblasts in the perichondrium. This continual process leads to the **appositional expansion** of cartilage where new cartilage is created on the bone perimeter, directly beneath the surrounding perichondrium. Conversely, **interstitial growth** involves the proliferation of differentiated chondroblasts within the cartilage matrix, which continue to divide and form new matrix substance from the inside.

Forms of bony tissues

Bones differ greatly in form, size and strength, not only between species but also within the same individual. These characteristics of bone are determined greatly through genetics, but also static-dynamic influences and structural changes due to nutrition during the juvenile and adult phases play an important role. Broad muscles or cordlike tendons create mechanical influences at their insertion points on the bone, leading to the development of a process, depression, tuberosity/protuberance, unevenness, ridge, or an edge. Blood vessels, nerves or organs (i.e. the brain, the eye, the cochlea of the inner ear) can also influence the surface structure of bone.

Despite the great variety of bones, they can be grouped according to common structural characteristics. These are as follows:

- long bones (ossa longa),
- short bones (ossa brevia),
- flat bones (ossa plana),
- pneumatic bones (ossa pneumatica) and
- irregular bones (ossa irregularia).

Long bones are characterised by a **shaft** or **diaphysis**, formed from a thick, **outer layer of compact bone** (substantia compacta), and an **inner medullary cavity** (cavum medullare, Fig. 1-12). Long bones have two ends, the **proxi-**

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Fig. 1-13. Architecture of the wall of a long bone showing compact and trabecular bone.



Fig. 1-14. Cross section of lamellar bone.

mal epiphysis and the **distal epiphysis**, which are covered by a thin layer of **cortical substance** (substantia corticalis). Both extremities contain **spongy bone**, which, as the name implies, resembles an ossified sponge with delicate pores (substantia spongiosa, Fig. 1-13 and 14). Long bones form the basis of the limbs, i.e. upper arm (humerus), shin bone (tibia), or the metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia).

Short bones can have different forms: cylindrical, cubic or round. Such bones contain an extensive latticework of spongiosa in which haemoreticular tissue is present. Examples of short bones are those of the vertebral column and the hock joint.

Flat and **wide bones** consist of two layers of compact bone (tabulae) surrounding either spongy bone (diploe) or air (sinus). This group contains for example the scapula, the iliac bone or the ribs. Some bones of the skull are flat bones surrounding **cavities of air** (ossa pneumatica). These bones have formed through the subsequent resorption of bone substance and are lined with mucosa. Examples are the maxilla or the ethmoid bone.

Examples of irregular bones are the wedge-shaped bones of the skull: the sphenoid, presphenoid and basisphenoid bones. **Sesamoid bones** (ossa sesamoidea) are found close to the joints (i.e. the foot joints) and either lie beneath or are embedded in (i.e. patella) a tendon (Fig. 1-35).

An **apophysis** is a bony protuberance that developed from an independent ossification center. These structures provide attachment sites for muscles and ligaments. An example is a vertebral spinous process or the trochanter major on the femur. **Bones of the organs** are not related to the locomotor system. Such bones are found in the penis of male cats and dogs or in the bovine heart.

Figures 1-25 to 29 schematically show the skeletons of the domestic animals covered in this textbook: cat, dog, pig, ox and horse. These illustrations provide a general overview of the topography of the bones, enabling a comparison between the species. The individual bones are described in detail in later chapters.

Architecture of bone

The high stability of bone is created through the bone tissue. Bone tissue is not massive and homogenous, but rather each individual bone has a specific architecture which is influenced by the:

- structure of the **compact bone** (substantia compacta),
- arrangement of the **spongy bone** (substantia spongiosa),
- form of the **central medullary cavity** (cavum medullare),
- **principles of tensile** (traction) and **compressive stress** (pressure),
- formation of **stress trajectories** and
- **flexure** (shear stress) demands on the entire bone.

The bone surface is constructed of **compact lamellae** which form the basis of the compact substance of bone. This solid layer surrounds the spongiosa, a delicate latticework of bone trabeculae and lamellae. Trabeculae and lamellae are arranged in a **pattern of stress lines** that have formed in response to external mechanical factors, the maximal tensile and compressive forces acting on the bone. The stress lines are either tensile

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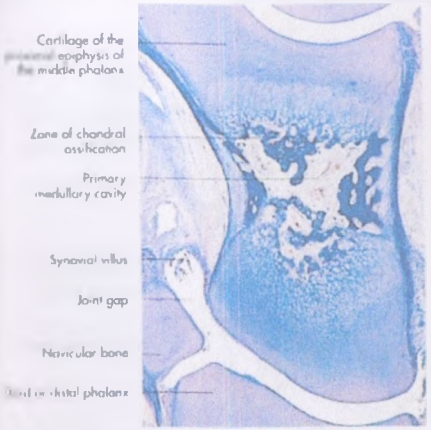


Fig. 1-15. Middle phalanx of a horse embryo (histological section, Azan staining).

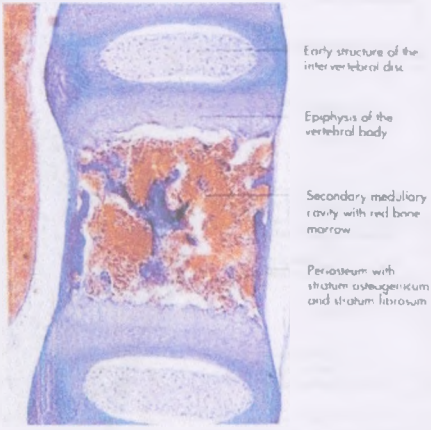


Fig. 1-16. Embryonic vertebrae (histological section, Azan staining)

to compressive trajectories. The family of curves that are tensile trajectories run parallel to one another just as the compressive trajectories run parallel to each other. These two types of stress trajectories always cross at right angles to each other (**trajectorial construction**). One can distinguish between:

- tubules of bone (substantia tubulosa),
- trabeculae of bone (substantia trabeculosa) and
- lamellae of bone (substantia lamellosa, Fig. 1-13 and 14).

Stress occurring in the diaphysis of long bones does not affect stability but leads to tensile forces on the convex side of the bone and compressive forces on the concave side of the bone. In the center these two forces cancel out one another, and the net force is negligible. Thus the bone does not have to contain force-bearing structures in its center; the ideal shape of bone is a long, hollow tube with reinforced walls, such as the diaphysis.

Instead of spongiosa as in the epiphyses, the diaphysis encloses the **medullary cavity** (cavum medullare). Here the compact substance is reinforced through thickened layers of lamellar bone (Fig. 1-12). The medullary cavity is filled with **red bone marrow** where blood cells are produced (**haematopoiesis**), thus classifying bone as a **haemopoietic organ**.

Bone is built to maximise strength and stability while structurally minimizing material and weight. The architecture of bone creates the optimal prerequisites: the hollow tube creates strong resistance to stress, and the spongiosa resembles material and is very light. The thickness of the diaphysis adapts to the maximal strain exercised on the bone. The medial walls of the limb bones carry a greater load and thus are thicker than the outer walls. Flat bones such as the scapula are denser on the edges and therefore thinner in the center. Inorganic substances account for approximately two-thirds of a bone's dry weight. The remaining one-third is the organic substance of the bone, comprised mainly of collagen structural proteins and lipids (5% - 10%). Bone decalcification with acid removes the inorganic substances in bone, leaving the treated bone soft and pliable. Burning a bone destroys the organic substances; what remains are the bone ashes.

Endosteum, periosteum

Bones are sheathed on the inside and outside surfaces by a connective tissue membrane called the **endosteum** and **periosteum**, respectively. The endosteum lines the medullary cavity and covers the spongiosa, thus creating a border between bone or spongiosa and bone marrow (Fig. 1-17). The periosteum covers the external surface of bone, but is absent from the articular surfaces and where tendons and ligaments attach. Close to the joints, the periosteum detaches from the surface of the bone and consolidates with the **joint capsule**. On the opposite side of the joint, the periosteum leaves the capsule and attaches again to the surface of the adjacent bone. At bone/cartilage intersections, for example on the ribs, the periosteum continues over the cartilage as the perichondrium.

The **periosteum** is necessary not only for the blood supply, growth, regeneration, and fracture repair of bones, but also for the transfer of muscle power to the bone. The periosteum is composed of two layers, the:

- **inner cellular, osteogenic layer** (stratum osteogenicum, previously stratum cambium),
- **outer protective fibrous layer** (stratum fibrosum).

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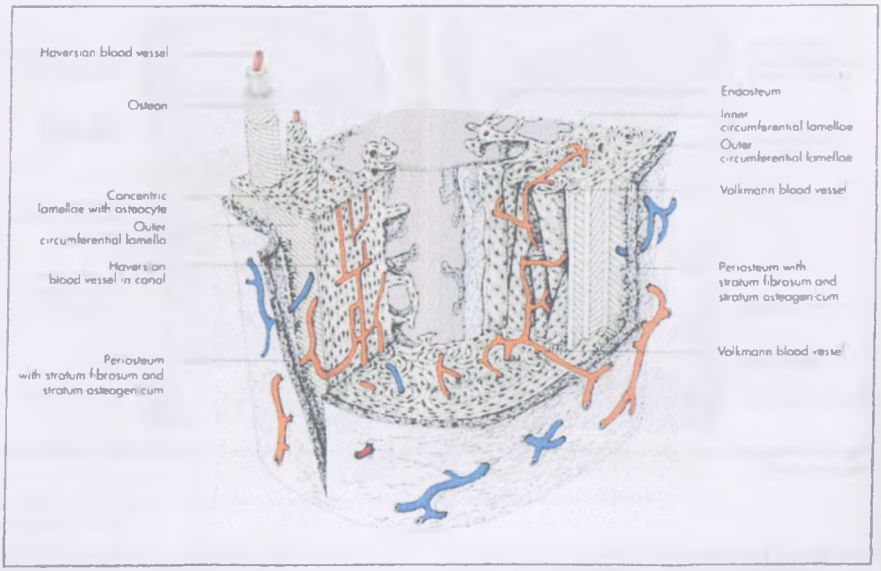


Fig. I-17. Section of compact bone from the diaphysis (schematic). Liebich, 2004

The **stratum osteogenicum** (Fig. I-16 and 17) lies directly on the bone and **produces bone tissue** (i.e. is osteogenic). A great number of sensory nerve fibres as well as a network of blood and lymphatic vessels supplying the bone are enclosed in this layer. This layer also contains **progenitor cells**, the **preosteoblasts**, which can differentiate into osteoblasts, which produce bone and are responsible for **appositional growth**. This layer retains lifelong the ability to build bone tissue, which is important for physiological bone remodeling and fracture healing. The stratum osteogenicum forms the **cartilage callus** and **bone callus**, and prolonged mechanical stimulus of the periosteum can lead to the formation of **osseous bulges** (exostoses or splints).

Dense connective tissue interwoven with elastic fibers makes up the outer layer, the **stratum fibrosum** (Fig. I-16 and I-17), which is very resistant to tensile forces. Collagen fibre bundles originating in this layer **(perforating fibres)** bind it to the surface lamella of the bone matrix **(Sharpey fibres)**. These fibres firmly anchor the periosteum to the bone surface. The **stratum fibrosum** is also responsible for the attachment of muscles, tendons and ligaments to bone. At the site of attachment, fibres from the tendon or ligament branch out into the stratum fibrosum and, continuing as Sharpey fibres, strongly attach to the bone.

The **endosteum** (Fig. I-17) consists of a single layer of flattened, inactive osteoprogenitor (bone-lining) cells. They can differentiate into either **bone-forming cells** (osteoblasts) or **bone-resorbing cells** (osteoclasts). The endosteum borders the capillary network of the bone marrow and, like the periosteum, is **capable of producing bone tissue (osteogenic potential)**.

Bone regeneration

Osteoprogenitor cells in the periosteum and endosteum are responsible for regeneration processes of the bone tissue. Regeneration is only possible when two conditions are met: 1. **mesenchyme cells** are available and 2. **osteoblast precursor cells** can proliferate. New tissue bridges the gap in the bone resulting from fracture.

Primary fracture healing occurs when motion between the two fracture pieces is negligible and they are separated by only small gaps. Lamellar bone forms directly in the fracture gap, reuniting the two ends of the bone. When the edges are too far apart, then **secondary fracture healing** occurs. Fibrous connective tissue initially bridges the fracture gap forming a soft callus. The **callus ossifies** through mineralisation until, after a long reorganisation process, compact bone is formed.

Supply of blood vessels and nerves to the bone

Bone is an extremely well vascularised tissue, and this underscores its metabolic importance. A dense network of blood vessels supplies not only bone tissue, but also bone marrow, the periosteum and the endosteum. Bone trauma or fracture

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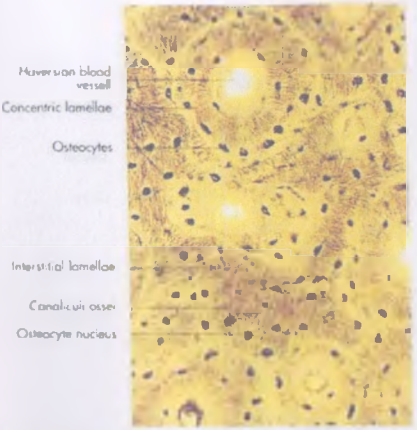


Fig. I-18. Substantia compacta from a long bone (histological cross section, Schmorl staining).

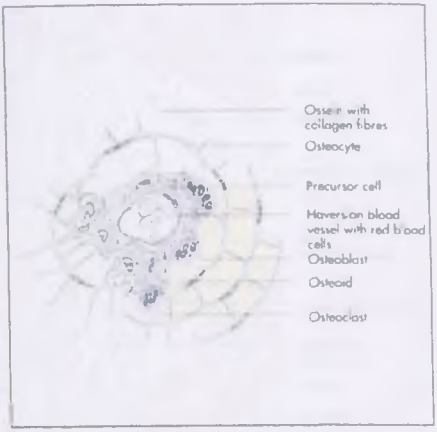


Fig. I-19. Cross section through a developing osteon (schematic), Liebich, 2004.

can interrupt the vascularisation, leading in extreme cases to tissue death (**bone necrosis**).

The vascularisation of bone is achieved through a unique, systematic distribution of blood vessels. **Nutrient arteries** (aa. nutriciae) branch off from the larger limb arteries and enter the long bones through openings (**foramina nutritia**) in the diaphysis. These vessels reach the medullary cavity after passing through the stratum compactum. Here they divide into several ascending and descending branches supplying the proximal and distal epi- and metaphyses (Fig. I-23). At the epiphyseals, the vessels form **looped-ending arteries** that reach through the epiphyseal subchondral bone to supply the calcified zone of the joint cartilage. From the medullary cavity, the blood vessels supply the compact substance of bone through the Volkmann's canals (see below). The spongy bone does not contain blood vessels but is supplied through diffusion from the bone marrow. The venous return occurs through the axial system of the bone marrow.

Bone tissue does not contain lymphatic vessels. A dense network of lymphatic vessels is present only in the periosteum. Bone tissue itself is not sensitive to pain. Alone vegetative nerve fibres follow the path of the blood vessels within the Haversian canals.

Bone as an organ

Bone constitutes an organ-like system composed of:

- osseous elements,
- joint cartilage (when present),
- periosteum and endosteum,
- bone marrow and
- nerve tracts.

Bone architecture and its extracellular matrix (organic and inorganic material) provide the stabilising components of the passive system of motion, stability and support. The organization of collagen I fibres, the mineralised interfibrillary matrix and the structure of bone tissue all play a large role in stabilisation.

A bone can withstand the application of mechanical stress, body weight, muscle strength or acceleration. These forces work as compression, traction, loading, torque and shear, and do not result in fracture when they are within certain limits. As opposed to the intermittent application of force, bone that experiences a continuous loading force atrophies. On the other hand, bone experiencing constant tensile force hypertrophies.

The architecture of bone tissue is governed lifelong by functional demand. Compact and spongy bone structures are continuously adapting to changes in biomechanical forces. The endosteum is responsible for inducing these structural changes which occur following the physiological principles of bone formation and resorption (see osteogenesis).

Osteogenesis

During foetal development, a **precursor skeleton of cartilage** is formed, providing support and shape (**primordial skeleton**) for the growing foetus. Until ossification, this primordial skeleton undergoes quick successions of mitotic division, eventually determining the growth and form of the entire organism. In most cases, each piece of the primordial skeleton acts as a space saver for the bone tissue that will eventually replace the cartilage. Positively influencing bone tissue formation are **inductive mediators** (i.e. bone morphogenetic protein, mitogenic factors). At a certain developmental stage, the cartilage of the primordial skeleton slowly under-

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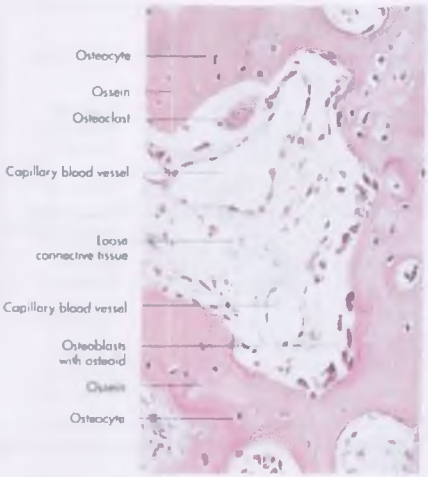


Fig. 1-20. Intramembraneous ossification with central capillary in loose connective tissue including osteoblasts and osteocytes (histological section, hematoxylin and eosin staining).

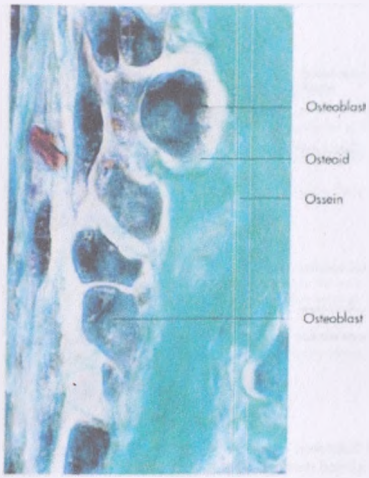


Fig. 1-21. Intramembraneous ossification with osteoblasts, osteoid and ossein (histological section, Goldner staining)

goes remodelling. The cartilage is slowly resorbed and eventually **replaced by bone**. This process is **chondral** or **indirect ossification**. New, foetal bone is referred to as **immature** or **woven bone** due to the random honeycomb architecture of the trabeculae. Eventually, resorbed and woven bone is replaced with **mature lamellar bone**. The majority of adult bones (i.e. the vertebrae and limb bones) are formed through **chondral ossification**.

The replacement of cartilage through bone begins during the middle foetal period at sites referred to as **primary ossification centres**. In some bones this process is completed only when the animal has reached physical maturation. Radiographs of adolescent animals often show remaining cartilage that has not yet ossified, which can lead to false diagnoses should this fact be disregarded.

Ossification

Bone can also form directly from mesenchymal tissue without a cartilage precursor; this process is referred to as intramembraneous or direct ossification. The dermal bones of the skull, the periosteal collar of long bones and fracture healing are created through this process. There are two forms:

- **intramembraneous** or **direct ossification** and
- **chondral** or **indirect ossification**, which can be further divided into
  - **perichondral ossification** and
  - **endochondral ossification**.

Bones developing through intramembranous ossification are referred to as "**membrane bones**". Dermal bones are membrane bones arising directly from the mesenchyme tissues of the skin (i.e. most of the skull bones). Intramembraneous bone development occurs when **mesenchyme cells** differentiate **directly** into cells responsible for producing bone. These cells are various and appear in many different forms (Fig. 1-20 and 21). Non-differentiated mesenchyme cells differentiate into **osteniblast precursor cells**, which develop into **osteniblasts**, cells that build **bone**. During ossification, the osteoblasts produce an **organic, mineral-free matrix** called the **osteoid**, which completely encloses the cells.

The osteoid is mainly composed of **type-I collagen fibres** (95%). The remaining 5% consists of glycosaminoglycans, proteoglycans, chondroitin-4-sulphate, chondroitin-6-sulphate, keratan sulphate and two bone proteins, osteonectin and osteocalcin. Vitamin C is required for the production of osteoid. During the subsequent mineralisation process, the collagen fibres act as scaffolding for the successive appositional deposition of **inorganic calcium** and **phosphate compounds**.

Within 8–10 days the osteoid transforms through mineralisation into a bony matrix called **ossein**. This conversion is controlled by growth hormones and vitamin D metabolites. The **inorganic bone** compounds such as calcium phosphate (85%–95%), calcium carbonate (8%–10%), magnesium phosphate (1.5%) and calcium fluoride (0.3%) are delivered by blood vessels of the circulatory system and deposited in the osteoid. Through this process, the non-calcified osteoid is transformed to **calcified ossein** (Fig. 1-20 and 21). As the min-

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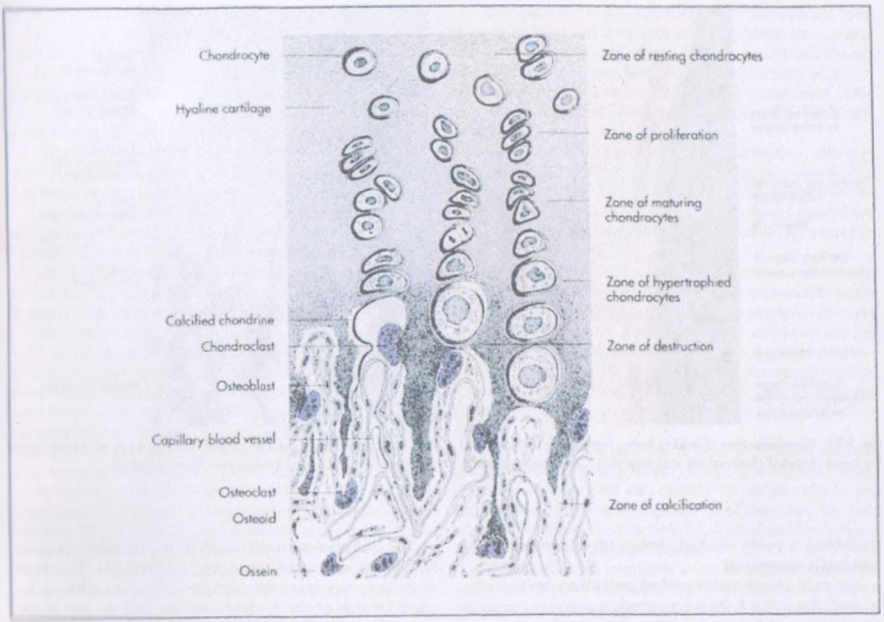


Fig. I-22. Structural remodelling during chondral ossification in a long bone (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

ossification continues, the osteoblasts become isolated in a growing field of calcified bone tissue and differentiate into osteocytes.

Different functional forces begin to affect the bone, leading to resorption and remodeling of the new bone tissue even as the mineralisation process continues. Cells that break down bone are called **osteoclasts** (Fig. I-20 and 21).

Chondral ossification

Chondral ossification involves **hyaline cartilage**, which serves as a space holder and provides the basis for the longitudinal growth of bone. The primordial skeleton consists of hyaline cartilage, until chondral ossification begins through the gradual resorption of the cartilage and its replacement with permanent bone (**replacement bone**). In this manner the vertebrae, the ribs, the sternum, the limbs and the base of the skull are formed. This process of building new bone from a hyaline cartilage precursor is the **chondral osteogenesis**. During this process one distinguishes between a perichondral and an endochondral ossification (Fig. I-15, 21 and 24).

Perichondral ossification

The perichondral ossification is similar to intramembraneous ossification in that osteoid is formed and slowly mineralised. **Osteoprogenitor cells**, cells with the potential to build new bone, are located in the **stratum chondrogenicum of the perichondrium** and differentiate into **osteoblasts (primary ossification)**. This transformation of soft tissue into bony tissue begins in the middle of the diaphysis and results in the formation of a bony sheath, the **periosteal collar**. The ossification of the perichondrium progresses towards each bone extremity, the **epiphyses**. Thus, the perichondrium becomes the **periosteum**. Perichondral ossification leads to the development of the periosteum of the long bones.

The formation of the periosteum mechanically inhibits the metabolism of the hyaline cartilage, essentially forcing **calcification of the cartilage matrix**. At the same time, blood vessels burrow through the periosteal collar and invade the calcified cartilage. Cells that remove existing cartilage, the **chondroclasts**, enter the calcified matrix through the proliferating blood vessels, and resorption of the remaining cartilage follows. The chondroclasts leave behind empty spaces that soon become filled with connective tissue and capillaries, which deliver not only nutrients but also substances necessary to build new bone tissue. **Osteoblasts** also reach the medulla cavity through these blood vessels and begin from the inside to build bony tissue (**endochondral ossification**). The continuous process of bone resorption and replacement of the matrix results in the development of the primary medullary cavity, which is filled with a fine latticework

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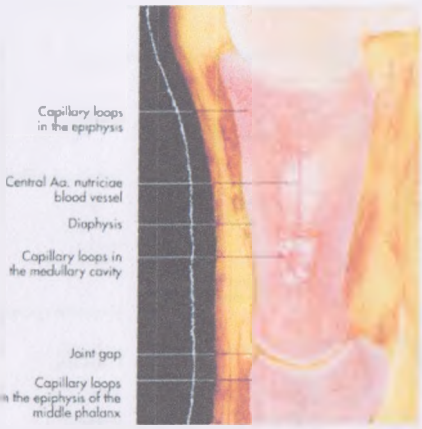


Fig. I-23. Vascularisation of a long bone, here the first phalanx of the horse (injected plastination), courtesy of H. Obermayer, Munich.

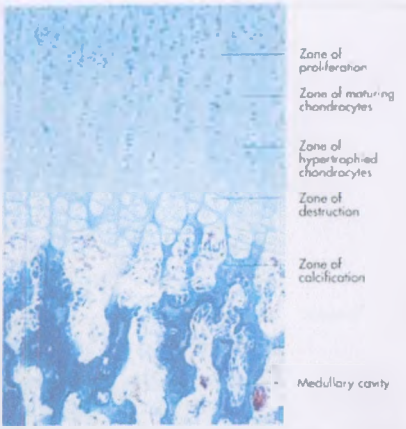


Fig. I-24. Histological section through the epiphysis of a long bone demonstrating chondral ossification (Azan staining).

resembling a partly ossified sponge **(development of the substantia spongiosa)**.

The multi-chambered **secondary medullary cavity** (cellulae medullares, Fig. I-16) is formed when connective tissue in the primary medullary cavity differentiates into haemo-reticular tissue responsible for the production of blood cells **(haematopoiesis)**. This occurs during the later stages of foetal development, and the newly formed haemoreticular tissue is called **red bone marrow** (medulla ossium rubra).

The **bone marrow** (medulla ossium) located in the medullary cavities of both epiphyses and between the spongiosa trabeculae remains lifelong a **haemopoietic organ** (Fig. I-12B). In adults the red bone marrow of the diaphysis is gradually replaced by **fat** (medulla ossium flava), which is again transformed into **gelatinous marrow** (medulla ossium gelatinosa) in senile animals or can prematurely form in diseased animals.

Endochondral ossification

Between the diaphysis and each epiphysis of a long bone, an area of calcified cartilage persists as the **proximal** and **distal metaphyses**. The two metaphyses border on each end of the bone an area of distinct endochondral ossification called the **epiphyseal growth plates** (cartilago epiphysialis) (Fig. I-12B). The epiphyseal plates are of great importance because they are responsible for the **longitudinal growth of a bone**.

The periosteal collar encloses the bone and, in the area of the **metaphysis**, inhibits radial growth of the cartilage. The chondrocytes proliferate through mitotic division and hypertrophy, organising themselves in columns reflecting their **progressive development** (Fig. I-22 and 24). This organisation is the basis for the **longitudinal growth of cartilage**, which is necessary for bone growth.

The endochondral ossification of the metaphyseal cartilage occurs in **several zones** (Fig. I-22 and 24). The chondrocytes juxtaposed to the epiphyseal plates are diffusely located throughout the hyaline cartilage and do not divide **(zone of resting chondrocytes)** (Fig. I-22). Neighboring this zone, in the direction of the medullary cavity, is the wide **zone of proliferation**, where the chondrocytes actively divide. Mechanical influence of the periosteal collar forces the maturing chondrocytes in the following zone **(zone of maturing chondrocytes)** to form obvious columns. The chondrocytes begin to degenerate. This is a process characterised by an increase in volume due to water uptake and the calcification of the intercellular substance **(zone of hypertrophied chondrocytes)**.

As calcification continues, chondroclasts enzymatically erode the remaining calcified cartilage **(zone of destruction)**, (Fig. I-22 and 24). The chondroclasts enter this zone through capillaries and connective tissue from the medullary cavity, reaching as far as the zone of calcification. At the demarcation between the zones of destruction and calcification, the process of cartilage resorption is complete. In the final zone, the intercellular matrix becomes saturated with minerals and ossification is complete **(zone of calcification)**.

Invading blood vessels also allow secondary osteoblasts to enter the zone of destruction. These cells produce new **matrix** (osteoid) through intramembranous ossification. Eventually, the young woven bone is replaced by mature lamellar bone (see below).

Types of bone tissues

There are two types of bone tissue: **woven bone** (os membranaceum reticulofibrosum) and **lamellar bone** (os mem-

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lamellosum) From an evolutionary point of view, woven (fibrous, immature) bone is regarded as the first and therefore phylogenetically oldest form of bone, often being classified as ossified connective tissue. During foetal development, each bone initially consists of woven bone, and only after birth this is bone slowly replaced by the more complex lamellar bone. However, some woven bone persists throughout life. For example the osseus labyrinth of the ear, the external acoustic meatus, and muscle attachment sites on long bones remain as woven bone.

Lamellar (mature) bone is characterised by the arrangement of strictly parallel or concentric layers of collagen fibres, called lamellae. Most bones of the adult animal consist of lamellar bone, which forms the long bones as well as the short and flat bones. The structural unit of lamellar bone is the **osteon (Haversian system)**.

Each **osteon** (Fig. I-17) is a series of concentric rings made up of layers of bone matrix around a **central canal** (Haversian canal) through which a **blood vessel** (Haversian blood vessel), **lymphatic vessels** and **nerves** travel. The collagen fibres in the matrix of each layer are helically arranged and orientated at the opposite angle to those of the previous layer. Osteons are connected through transverse bony structures, creating a construction which enables bone to resist tensile and compression forces (Fig. I-17 to 19). Bone cells (osteocytes) lie between the **concentric lamellae** (Haversian lamellae) (Fig. I-18) surrounding the Haversian canal. Cell-to-cell contact is preserved through long, radiating processes of the cell plasma that anastomose within **bony channels** (canaliculi ossei) with processes of neighbouring cells (Fig. I-18).

This system allows the transport of substances between the blood vessels of the Haversian canal and the bone matrix, essential for the nutrition of the osteocytes. The central blood vessels in the osteons communicate with the periosteum, the endosteum and the medullary cavity through transverse **Volkmann vessels** (Fig. I-17). By means of this dense network of blood vessels, bone becomes a heavily vascularised tissue.

Bone reacts to changes in static and mechanical forces through adaptation of its internal architecture. Superfluous osteons are destroyed and their remaining fragments form interstitial bone or lamellae (Fig. 17).

Layers of lamellae form the outer circumference of the bone directly beneath the periosteum **(outer circumferential lamellae)**. The **inner circumferential lamellae** border the medullary cavity, and the endosteum covers the innermost layer (Fig. I-17). **Collagen fibres (Sharpey fibres, fibrae perforantes)** anchor the periosteum to the outer circumferential lamellae. These collagenous fibres originate in tendons attaching muscle to bone and are essential for transmitting forces generated by the muscle to the bone.

Bone functions

Bone and cartilage form the supporting and protective framework of the body. Not only do they ensure locomotion, but also protect the soft tissue organs of the thoracic and pelvic regions and the central nervous system. Bone contains the red bone marrow responsible for building blood components **(haematopoiesis)** and stores **calcium** and **phosphate** (Fig. I-12). Thus the three major functions of the skeleton are **support, protection** and **metabolism**. These functions together influence the structure of every skeletal bone and thus the **architecture of the entire body**. The bone structure adapts to mechanical demands through changes in metabolism. This adaptation process involves the continuous resorption and deposition of osseous material.

Every bone is subjected to these **adaptive changes throughout life**. Changes in the physiological compressive, tensile and shear forces lead quickly to remodelling processes. The limbs, the vertebrae or the pelvic bones experience more intensive structural changes compared to, for example, the bones of the skull.

Compact bone develops in a direct relation to the amount of physiological stress it must endure. The cortex (Substantia corticalis) of long bones is thickest at the diaphysis because here the greatest forces are effective. The epiphyses are not subjected to great force and here the cortex becomes progressively thinner (Fig. I-12). Physiologically, permanent traction forces lead to thickening of the bone where they are most experienced, for example, at the point where tendons attach to bone.

Another important function of bone is to **store calcium** and **phosphate**. Spongy bone (substantia spongiosa) stores depots of calcium that can quickly be mobilised into the blood stream to maintain necessary vital functions. The metabolism of calcium and phosphorus is regulated by **endogenous** and **exogenous mechanisms**.

The **parathyroid hormone** excreted by the parathyroid gland **activates the osteoclasts**, thus increasing the amount of calcium in the blood while at the same time reducing calcium excretion by the kidneys. Together with **vitamin D_3 (1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol)**, the parathyroid hormone enhances the **resorption of calcium** in the intestines. The **C cells of the thyroid gland** produce a hormone, **calcitonin**, that activates the osteoblasts and **antagonises parathyroid hormone**. The osteoblasts form bone, thus automatically storing calcium and reducing the amount circulating in the body. The **growth of bone** is also positively influenced by the somatotrophic hormone (STH), the adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) and the thyreotropic hormone (TSH), as well as by male and female sex hormones.

Arthrology (arthrologia)

The degree of mobility between two bones or cartilage structures depends entirely on the form of the gap between them. A **synarthrosis** is a continuous structure bridging two adjacent bones. It can be formed by **connective tissue**, which builds either a **fibrous union** (junctura fibrosa) or a **fibrous joint** (articulatio fibrosa). Similarly, a synarthrosis can be formed from **cartilage**, creating a **cartilagineous union** or **joint** (articulatio cartilaginea). The range of motion between two skeletal structures can be greatly increased when a joint containing a gap **(diarthrosis)** exists between them. A **true** or **synovial joint** (juncturae seu articulationes synoviales) is characterised by a **joint gap** and a **joint cavity** (cavum articulare) filled with **joint fluid** (synovia).

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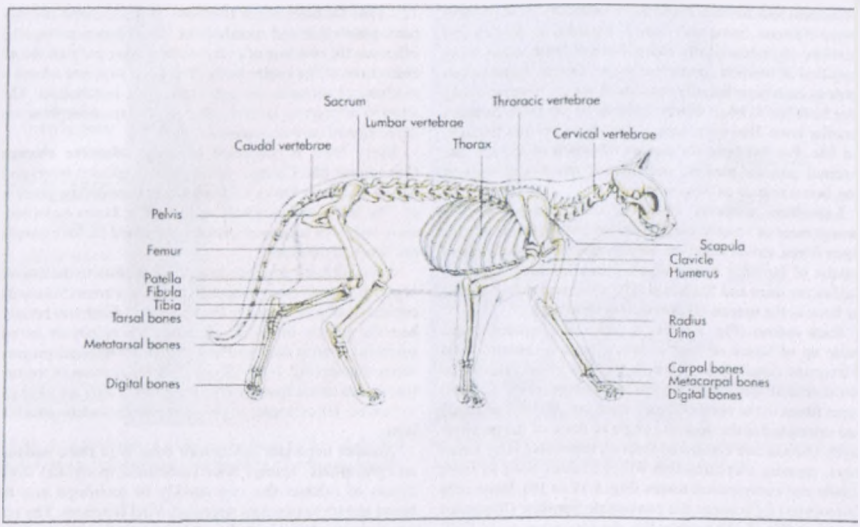


Fig. 1-25. Skeleton of the cat (schematic).

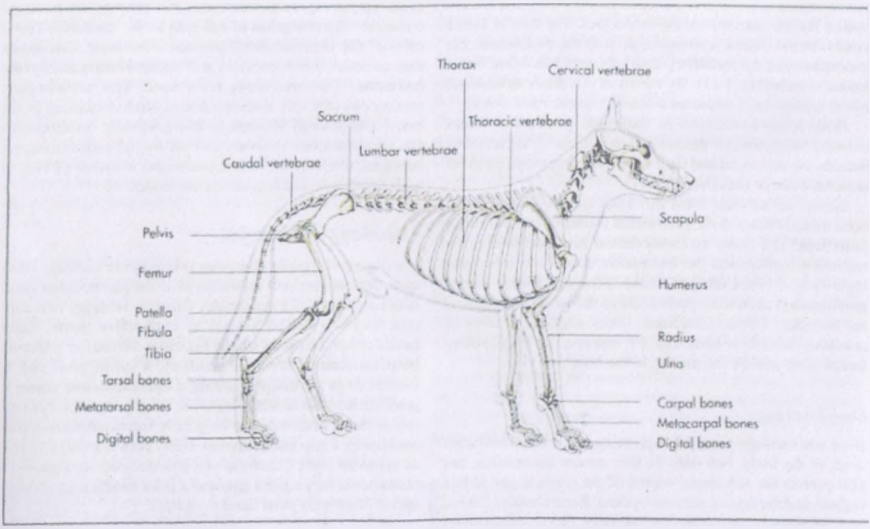


Fig. 1-26. Skeleton of the dog (schematic).

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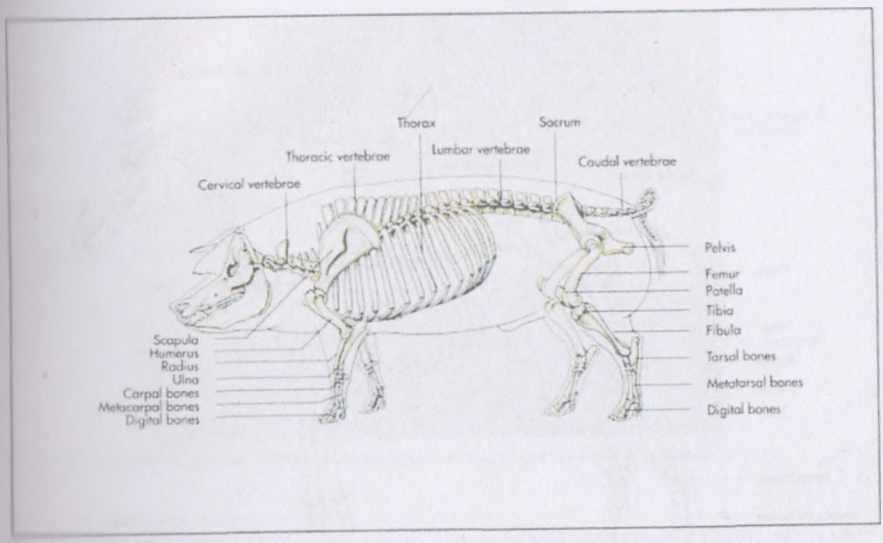


Fig. 1-27. Skeleton of the pig (schematic).

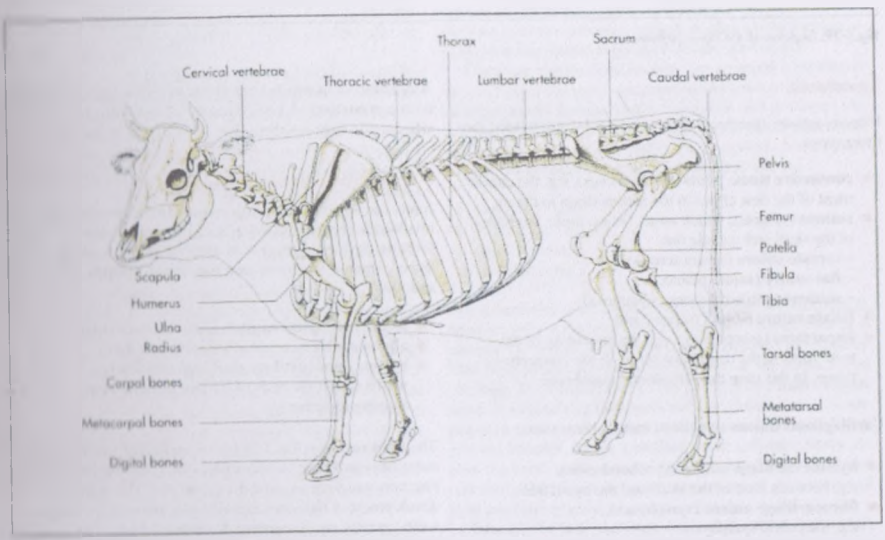


Fig. 1-28. Skeleton of the ox (schematic).

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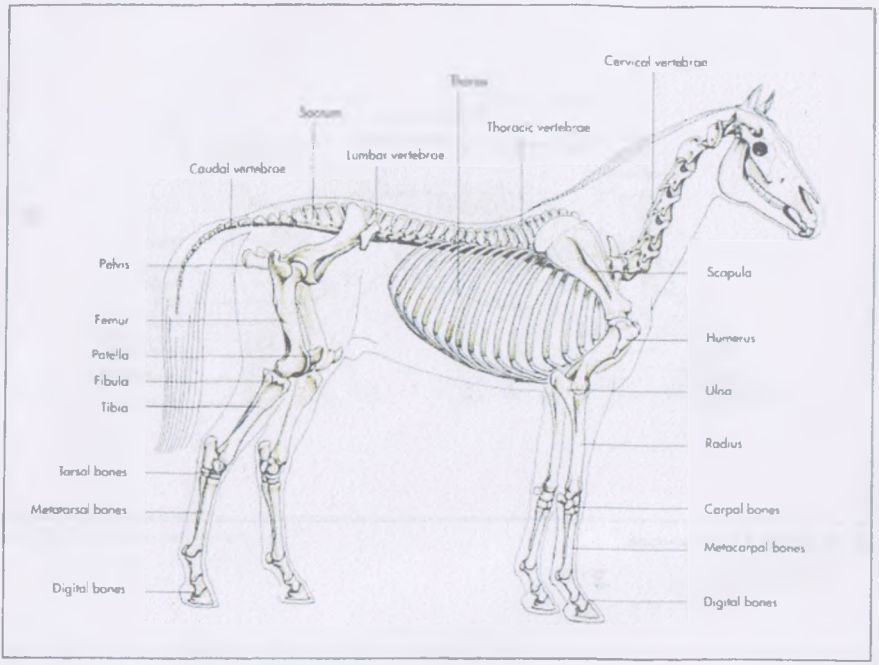


Fig. I·29. Skeleton of the horse (schematic).

Synarthroses

Fibrous unions (junctura fibrosae) can be subdivided into three types:

- **connective tissue joints** (syndesmoses), e.g. the attachment of the dew claws to the metapodium in the ox,
- **sutures** (suturae), which unite, for example, the bones of the skull and include the:
  - **serrate suture** (sutura serrata),
  - **flat suture** (sutura plana),
  - **squamous suture** (sutura squamosa),
- **foliate suture** (sutura foliata), and
- **impactions** (gomphoses), e.g. the anchoring of the teeth roots in the dental alveoli by dense connective tissue, in this case the periodontal membrane.

Cartilaginous unions (junctura cartilagineae) are:

- **hyaline cartilage unions** (synchondroses), e.g. between base of the skull and the hyoid bone.
- **fibrocartilage unions** (symphyses), e.g. the pelvic symphysis.

A synarthrose in which bone unites two structures is referred to as a **synostosis**. A good example of a synostosis is the ossified union between the radius and the ulna in the horse.

True joints (articulationes synoviales)

Joints can be differentiated according to the number of bones involved in the joint, the degree of movement possible or the form of the joint surfaces. In spite of such variation, joints share common structural and functional features (Fig. I·30 and 35):

- an extensive **joint capsule** (capsula articularis),
- a **joint cavity** (cavum articulare) as well as
- hyaline **joint cartilage** (cartilago articularis), which covers the ends of the two or more bones forming the joint.

The **joint capsule** (Fig. I·35) is comprised of two layers: the outer **fibrous layer** (stratum fibrosum) and the **inner layer** (stratum synoviale, synovial membrane). The thickness and development of the outer capsule layer, the stratum fibrosum, varies greatly and is mainly determined by the mechanical load placed on the area in question. This layer may also con-

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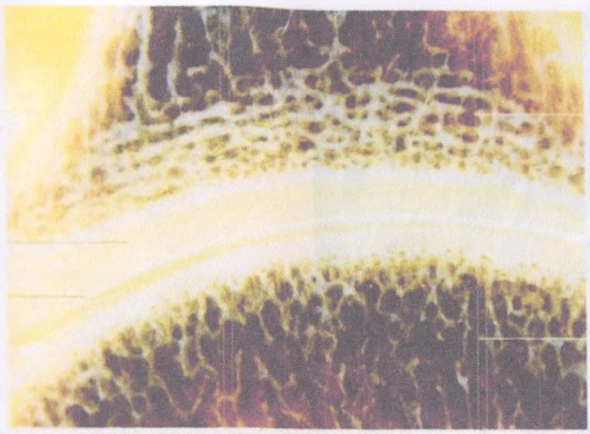


Fig. 1.30. Joint gap formed by the ends of the scapula and humerus in the dog (longitudinal section, plastination).

into capsule ligaments (see below), which strengthen the capsule on the outside of the joint. The fibres of the **stratum fibrosum** continue into the bordering periost or perichondrium (Fig. 1.31). Since the blood supply to this layer is limited, injuries require a long time to heal. However, an abundance of sensory nerve fibres innervate the stratum fibrosum, which explains the pain experienced after injury to the capsule itself or through stretching of the capsule due to swelling within the joint.

The **synovial membrane** (stratum synoviale) lines the joint cavity and is replete with cells, blood vessels and nerves. The synovial membrane appears ivory in color with a slight yellow tinge and forms both **synovial villi** (villi synoviales) and **synovial folds** (plicae synoviales). Even within the same joint, these structures can differ greatly in number, size, form and location. This membrane can be further divided into the inner synoviocytes layer (intima synovialis) comprised of cover cells, the synoviocytes, and a subsynovial layer (stratum subsynoviale) (Fig. 1.31 and 32) of tissue. Two types of synoviocytes are present in the intima synovialis: type A synoviocytes are responsible for phagocytosis, whereas type B synoviocytes produce and secrete proteins.

Joints are filled with a pale yellow, viscuous fluid, the synovial fluid, whose primary purpose is to lubricate the joint, thus reducing friction between articular surfaces. Synovial fluid is excreted by the synovial membrane into the joint cavity, but also fills the tendon sheaths and is found in synovial bursae (see "Accessory structures of muscles" p. 32). Synovial fluid is composed of hyaluronic acid, sugar, electrolytes and enzymes involved in the nutrient supply of cartilage. Hydrarthrosis occurs due to increased production of synovia.

Free joint bodies, or **"joint mice"**, are free-swimming intracapsular pieces of cartilage or bone resulting from a chip-fracture or ossification of synovial villi. Depending on their location they can be very painful.

The **joint cartilage** is firmly attached to a thin, subchondral bone layer adjacent to the epiphysis. It is not covered by perichondrium and the surface facing the joint is very smooth (Fig. 1.30 and 35). Joint cartilage is thin in the centre of a concave surface but thick in the centre of a convex one. Some areas of the joint cartilage in hoofed animals display a reduction in cartilage, forming **synovial grooves** (fossae synoviales).

Cartilage matrix fibre bundles are arranged according to the mechanical forces of compression and tension. The hyaline cartilage matrix absorbs shock, is flexible and possesses viscoelastic properties. Similar to other types of cartilage, joint cartilage lacks nerves and, with a few exceptions, is not vascularised. The articular cartilage can be divided into the

- superficial zone,
- intermediate zone,
- radial zone and
- calcified zone.

The **superficial zone** is comprised of tightly woven collagen fibres near the surface of the joint cartilage. These fibres arch towards the surface, where they run parallel to one another. This fibre pattern increases the stability of the surface joint cartilage. The middle layer of the cartilage, the **intermediate zone**, is structurally homogenous. The **radial zone** is comprised of cartilage fibres that partly unite to form radially organised bundles. In the **calcified zone**, collagen fibres anchor the joint cartilage to the bone and are for the most part calcified. This structure guarantees a strong attachment of joint cartilage to bone.

Beneath the joint cartilage is a **subchondral bone plate** that includes parts of the calcified joint cartilage as well as a

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Fig. 1-31. Filament-like synovial villi free-floating in the synovia, courtesy of Dr. M. Teufel, Vienna.



Fig. 1-32. Synovial villi within the joint cavity with injected capillaries, courtesy of Dr. F. Teufel, Vienna.



Fig. 1-33. Scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of synovial villi from the shoulder joint of a horse, courtesy of Dr. R. Böhmisch, Munich.



Fig. 1-34. Scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of synovial villi from the shoulder joint of a horse, courtesy of Dr. R. Böhmisch, Munich.

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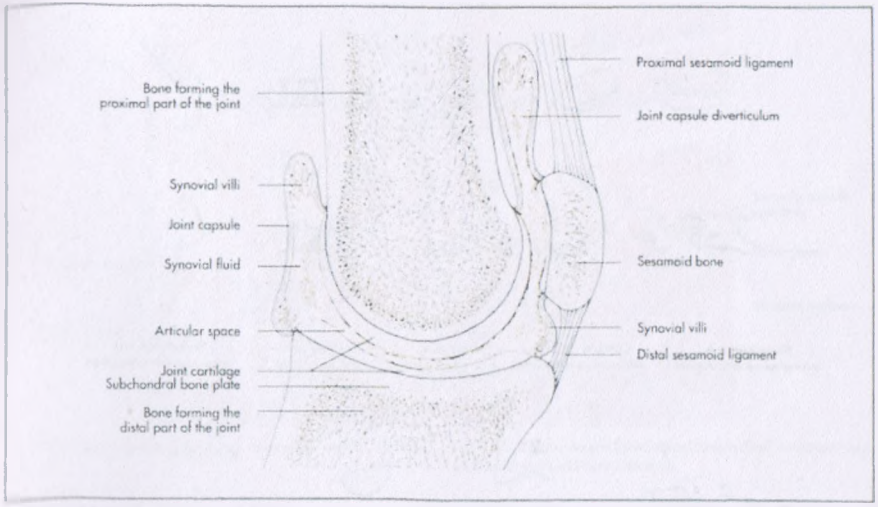


Fig. I-35. A joint including the sesamoid bones and the suspensory apparatus (schematic)

layer of lamellar bone (Fig. I-35). This plate (corticalis) supports dynamic functions of the joint, acts as a cushion protecting the cartilage from axial forces and promotes the metabolic supply of the deeper layers of cartilage.

The metabolism of joint cartilage is **anaerobic**. The cartilage is supplied with nutrients, for the most part, **bradytrophically** through diffusion. To a lesser degree, nutrients can also reach the cartilage from the joint synovia or through the blood vessels of the bone marrow. The high proteoglycan content binds a high capacity for binding water molecules, which facilitates the intrachondral transport of metabolites.

Joints are strengthened by intracapsular, capsular or extracapsular joint **ligaments** (ligamenta articularia). Some joints contain **fibrocartilaginous structures** (menisci articulares in the knee joint, discі articulares in the jaw joint) that serve to stabilise the joint or to compensate for **incongruent joint surfaces**. Fat tissue can also build intra-articular depots providing additional cushioning. Synovial joints can be classified according to different characteristics:

I. Number of bones forming the joint:

- **simple joints** (articulatio simplex), involving only two bones (e.g. shoulder joint),
- **compositе joints** (articulatio composita), involving more than two bones (e.g. the wrist joint).

II. Type of movement allowed by the joint (Fig. I-36):

- **uniaxial joints**
  - hinge joint (ginglymus): the joint axis is perpendicular to the long axis of the bones (e.g. elbow or tibiotarsal joint),
  - pivot joint (articulatio trochoidea): the joint axis is parallel to the long axis of the bones (e.g. atlantoaxial joint between the 1st and 2nd cervical vertebrae).
- **biaxial joints**
  - saddle joint (articulatio sellaris): e.g. between the interphalangeal joints,
  - ellipsoidal joint (articulatio ellipsoidea): e.g. atlanto-occipital joint between the occipital bone and the 1st cervical vertebra.
- **multiaxial joints**
  - spheroidal or ball-and-socket joint (articulatio sphaeroidea): e.g. shoulder joint or hip joint.
- **tight joints** (amphiarthroses): e.g. sacroiliac joint.

III. Form of the articular surfaces

- **spheroidal or ball-and-socket joint** (articulatio sphaeroidea): e.g. shoulder joint or hip joint,
- **cotyloid joint** (articulatio cotylica): a spheroidal joint where the glenoid cavity (socket) covers more than half of the joint sphere (ball), e.g. the aviary hip joint,
- **ellipsoidal joint** (articulatio ellipsoidea), e.g. between the occipital bone and the 1st cervical vertebra,
- **saddle joint** (articulatio sellaris): e.g. the interphalangeal joints and
- **condylar joint** (articulatio condylaris), e.g. the femorotibial joint.

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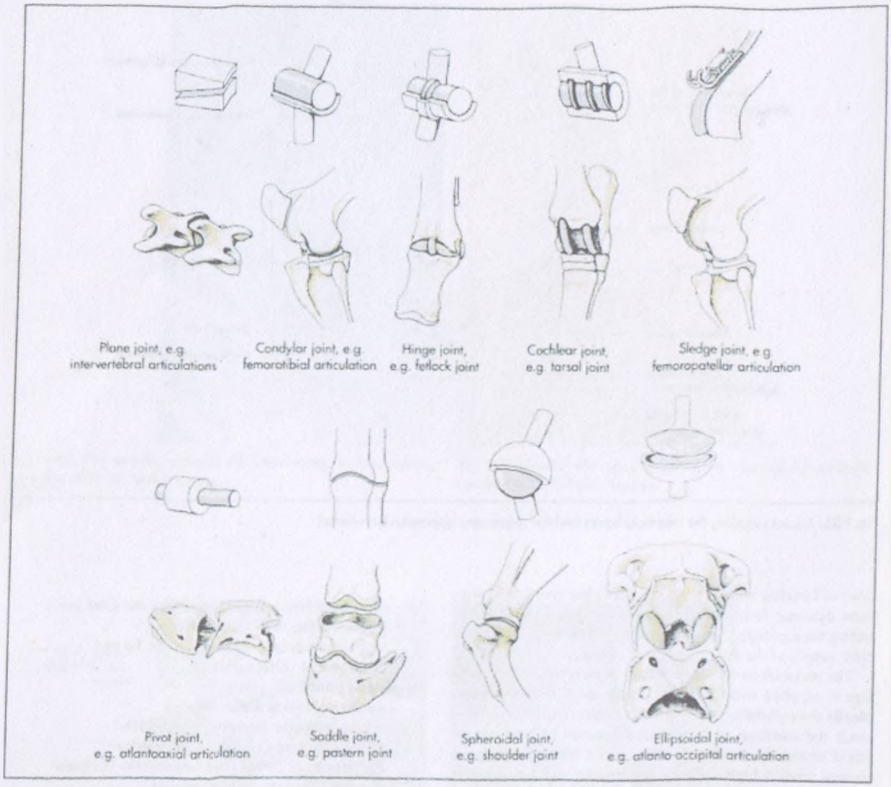


Fig. I-36. Types of synovial joints (schematic).

Joints are also classified according to their **functional characteristics**:

- **hinge joint** (ginglymus): e.g. fetlock joint.
- **cochlear joint** (articulatio cochlearis): e.g. hock joint of the horse.
- **spring** or **snap joint**: a suspension joint as well as a hinge and cochlear joint, where the collateral ligaments attach eccentrically to the axis of rotation and proximal to the joint axis (in the neutral position of the joint, the collateral ligaments are under the greatest amount of tension; during extension or flexion, the tension in the ligaments decreases, causing the joint to spring into a position other than the neutral position, e.g. the elbow joint of the horse).
- **sledge** or **gliding joint** (articulatio delabens): e.g. femoropatellar joint.
- **spiral joint** (articulatio spiralis): the collateral ligaments attach eccentrically, distal to the axis of rotation (the ligaments are shortest in the neutral position; during extension or flexion, the tension in the ligaments increases, slowly braking the motion, e.g. the stifle joint of the horse).
- **plane joints** (articulationes planae): a gliding joint, e.g. the joints between the articular processes of the vertebrae.
- **incongruent joints**: joints where the articular surfaces do not correspond, as seen in the femorotibial joint or in the temporomandibular joint; the joint surfaces are rendered congruent through fibrous discs, the menisci in the femorotibial joint and the articular disc in the temporomandibular joint.

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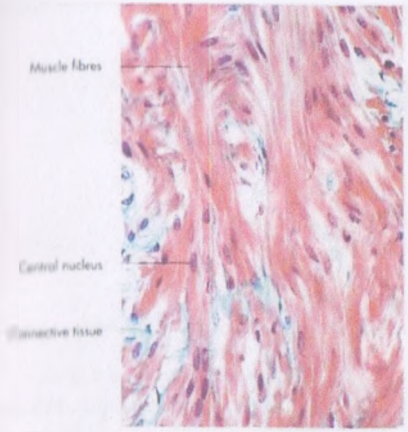


Fig. I-37. Smooth muscle (histological longitudinal section, Goldner modified)

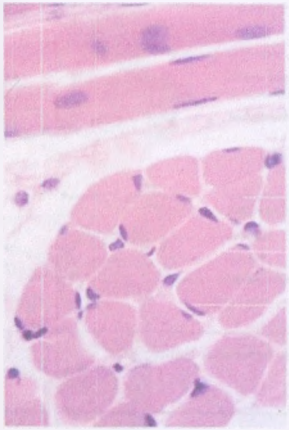


Fig. I-38. Skeletal muscle (histological longitudinal and cross section, hematoxylin and eosin staining)

Muscular system (systema musculare)

Myology (myologia)

In phylogenetically advanced organisms, the cells of the middle **germ layer (mesoderm)** develop into cells capable of contracting (somites) and their derivatives. This cell population differentiates into muscle tissue, which transforms chemical energy into mechanical energy or heat. **Two types of muscle** tissue are distinguished according to morphology and function (Fig. I-39 and 40):

- **smooth muscle tissue**, responsible for the contractile functions of the internal organs, lines the excretory ducts of glands, forms the blood and lymphatic vessel walls, and
- **striated muscle**, can be further divided into the skeletal and the heart musculature (see Histology textbook for further information).

The **skeletal musculature** is the active part of the locomotor system. It is generally referred to as the **musculature** or **muscles** (singular). Skeletal muscles are highly vascularised and innervated by **cerebrospinal (sensible** and **motoric)** and **vegetative autonome (sympathetic** and **parasympathetic)** nerves, which together build a functional unit. Expansive sheets of connective tissue, the fasciae or aponeuroses, as well as synovial structures, such as tendon sheaths and bursae, support and protect the muscles in all of their various functions.

The muscles provide power to move the skeletal frame, the ends of the muscle always insert in bone or cartilage. They act as levers, resulting in movement of individual body parts or the entire organism (see also Chapter 5, Statics and Dynamics). Muscles also carry part of the body weight, help form the walls of the thoracic and abdominal cavities, and support the activity of the internal organs (e.g. respiratory muscles, diaphragm).

Development, degeneration, regeneration and adaptation of muscle fibres

Somite cells of the middle germ layer differentiate into **mesenchymal stem cells**, thus marking the embryonal beginnings of muscle cells. The mesenchymal stem cells differentiate further into **premyoblasts** and then into **contractile myoblasts**. Myoblasts contain proteins, the **myosin** and **actin filaments**, responsible for the contractility of the cell. These proteins are specifically arranged in the cytoplasm according to muscle cell type, creating a typical striation. Neighbouring cells tend to fuse together, forming long, cylindrical, multinucleated cells, also called muscle fibres, which in the adult animal can reach up to 10 cm in length and 100 µm in diameter.

A certain number of stem cells remain lifelong **satellite cells** and play an important role in **muscle regeneration**. Various factors such as local ischemia, neural atrophy, pressure damage, or toxins can cause a local degeneration of muscle. The regeneration is dependent on the activity and the number of undamaged satellite cells. The strength of an individual muscle and the percentage or bulk of muscle tissue depends almost entirely on training level. Immobility, lack of exercise, and interruption of the nerve supply cause a muscle to atrophy. Muscles gain mass (hyperplasia) through strengthening of the connective tissue sheaths, expansion of fibre

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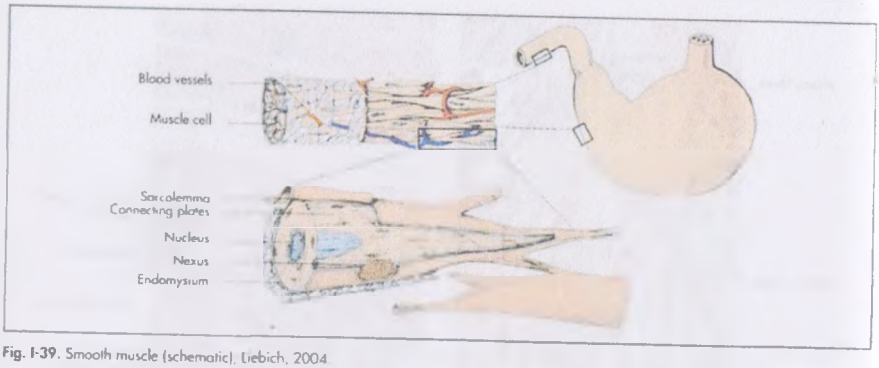


Fig. I-39. Smooth muscle (schematic). Liebich, 2004

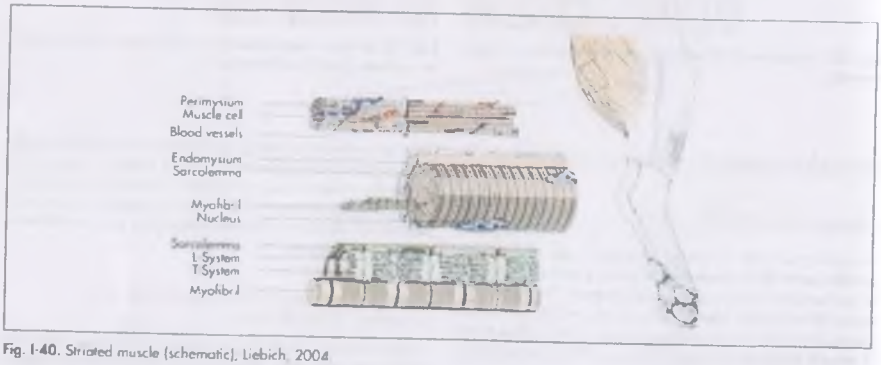


Fig. I-40. Striated muscle (schematic). Liebich, 2004

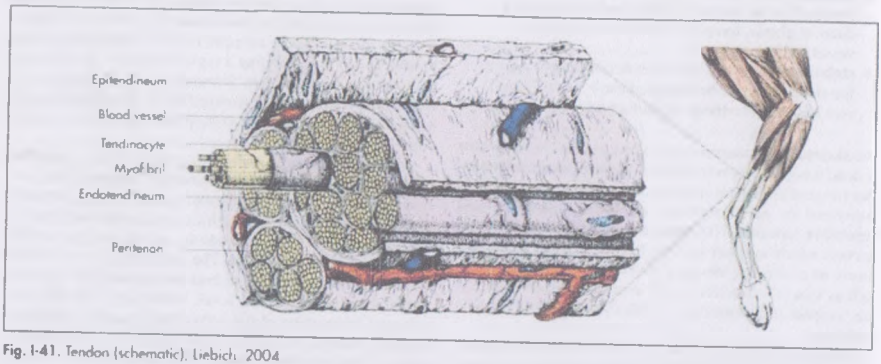


Fig. I-41. Tendon (schematic). Liebich, 2004

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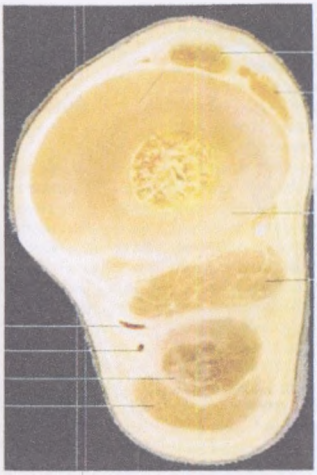


Fig. 1-41 Cross section of the middle third section of the canon bone in the metacarpal region (plastination)

thickness and increased blood flow, all of which can be accomplished with regular exercise.

Architecture of skeletal musculature and the tendons

A skeletal muscle can be divided into three general parts: the contractile **muscle belly** and the **tendons of origin** and **insertion**. The tendons attach to each end of the muscle belly and transfer the force generated by contraction of the belly to the skeleton (Fig. 1-41 and 42). Viewed through a microscope, skeletal muscle appears to have **cross bands** or **striations** that result from the parallel and regular arrangement of the actin and myosin filaments. The actin and myosin filaments, along with the connective tissue sheaths and stored fat, form the **muscle tissue**.

The **muscle cells** differ according to the number and thickness of their cytoplasmic contractile myofilaments. When the cytoplasm of the muscle cell, the sarcoplasma, contains predominantly more myofilaments, then the muscle stores less myoglobin and appears pale (**white muscle type**). This type of muscle uses quickly, but its contractile strength is great. The second type of muscle (**red muscle type**) contains less myofilaments and therefore can store more myoglobin in the sarcoplasma (i.e. in older domesticated and wild animals). More explicit details of muscle contraction can be found in standard physiology and histology textbooks.

The **innervation** of the muscle occurs through neuromuscular connections. The muscle and nerve together create a functional unit. Every muscle fibre is innervated by at least one **motor nerve axon of the central nervous system** (cerebrospinal nerve). The contact between muscle and nerve is achieved through the ***motor end-plate***, a special form of **synapse**. The nerve impulse is passed on to the muscle fibre by a **neurotransmitter (acetylcholin)**.

Also located in the muscle are the **sensory nerve endings**, which are grouped as **muscle spindles** and surrounded by a capsule. These **mechanoreceptors** provide information about muscle tonus and the degree of tension in the tendons and joint capsules. In addition, the muscle spindles are responsible for **coordinating movement** and perceiving the **position of body parts** relative to each other in space. Tendon organs are similar to muscle spindles and function as receptors for the tension within the muscle-tendon system.

The walls of intramuscular blood and lymphatic vessels are innervated by **sympathetic** and/or **parasympathetic branches** of the autonomic nervous system. This autonomic system ensures adequate blood supply and lymph drainage required to maintain function.

Every individual muscle belly is surrounded by an outer sheath of taut, fibrous connective tissue, the **epimysium**, which continues to sheathe the tendons as the **epitendineum**. The epimysium or epitendineum is visible with the naked eye and separates adjacent muscles from each other, creating a smooth surface allowing frictionless movement. The large vessels and nerves supplying the muscles find their way along the epimysium. A **hilus** is where vessels and nerves together enter or leave a muscle. Within a single muscle, groups of muscle cells are wrapped together in the **perimysium** composed of intramuscular connective tissue, forming more or less a network of smaller functional units (Fig. 1-40). This network of collagen fibres forms a plexus, remaining in contact with one another to coordinate muscle contractions and to provide a path for smaller blood vessels and nerves. Each individual muscle cell is lightly wrapped in a delicate

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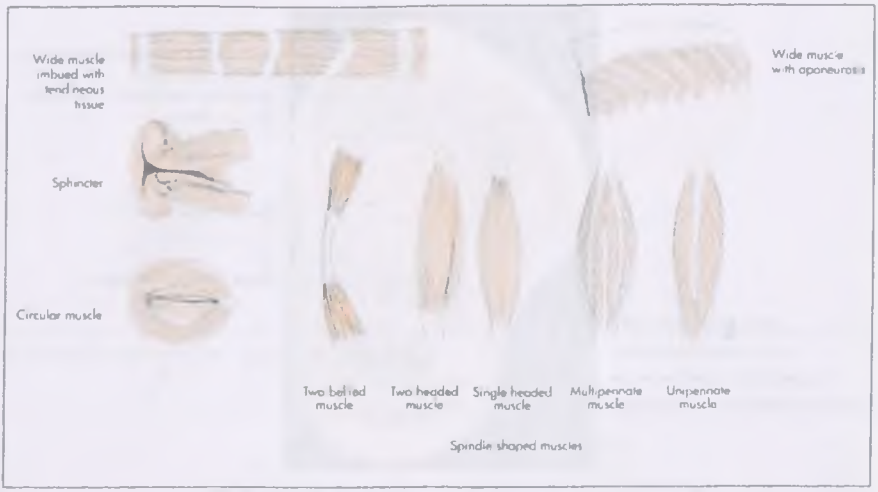


Fig. I-43. Categories of skeletal muscles according to the arrangement of their fibers (schematic), after Putz and Pabst, 1993.

network of collagen fibrils, the **endomysium**. The endomysium forms a lattice enclosing connective tissue cells, the smallest blood vessels and nerve plexus (Fig. I-40). These aforementioned sheaths are classified according to the size of the bundles they enclose, into primary, secondary and tertiary bundles. They build a functional unit and combine at each end of the muscle belly, continuing into the **tendon**.

The various sheaths of connective tissue in the muscle extend beyond the ends of the muscle and unite to form the **tendon** (tendo), a white, cordlike attachment to the bone. The transfer of muscle power to the tendon occurs at the end of the muscle fibres, where small finger-like processes from the muscle fibres interlock with those of the collagenous fibrils from the tendons. This construction greatly strengthens the connection between tendon and muscle. Tendon fibres run parallel to one another and differ in radius and length (Fig. I-41 and 42).

They are also grouped into **bundles (primary, secondary** and **tertiary)** through the continuation of the muscle sheaths that are, here, referred to as the **epitendineum** and **peritendineum**. Expansive muscle plates that, because of their flat and wide form do not have a belly, attach through thin, flat sheets of connective tissue **(aponeuroses)**. The fibres of both cordlike tendons and aponeuroses are oriented in the same direction as the mechanical forces they are subjected to. Compared to muscle tissue, tendons exhibit a much greater **tensile strength** due to their high collagen and low elastic content.

The long tendons of the limb distal regions exhibit a great elasticity throughout their entire length. During movement, the elastic quality of the tendons store energy, absorb shock and function as a suspension mechanism. A good example of this elasticity is given by the middle interosseus muscle (M. interosseus medius) of the horse. This muscle is a long, fibrous cord greatly resembling a tendon. In fact, it hardly contains muscle tissue and functions as a tendon. When a horse is moving, this tendon is stretched by the load applied to the leg, storing energy as elastic strain energy. During the second half of the step, the body weight load on the leg decreases, and the tendon, which has stretched and shortened, releases the stored energy. When an extreme load is placed on this structure, it can stretch to the point where the fetlock joint touches the ground with each step.

At their attachment sites, the tendon fibres continue into the **periosteum** or **perichondrium** as **Sharpey fibres**. The attachment can encompass a large surface area of the bone or it can be limited to a single point, forming either a sharp or wide angle. Tendons that continue into the skin or tongue musculature contain a higher percentage of elastic fibres, thereby increasing the tension in these organs.

Macroscopically, muscle fibres appear staggered attaching to the aponeurose at varying angle widths or to the bone with tendons of various lengths. The tendon can divide and radiate into the muscle, so that the muscle becomes imbued with tendinous tissue. The spreading of the tendon tissue in the muscles results in a pattern **(tendon sheet)** similar to a feather or a leaf. Muscles are classified according to their **structure** and **fibre orientation** (Fig. I-43):

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- **unipennate muscles** (m. unipennatus) with two parallel tendon sheets,
- **bipennate muscles** (m. bipennatus) with double tendon sheets and
- **multipennate muscles** (m. multipennatus) with multiple tendon sheets.

A pennate muscle has fibres that lie oblique to the line of force generated by the muscle. The maximum force produced by a muscle is proportional to the total cross-sectional area of all its fibres. The morphological cross section is the cross-sectional area of a muscle perpendicular to its belly axis at its thickest part. The physiological cross section of a muscle represents the cross sectional area of all muscle fibres perpendicular to longitudinal axis of each fibre. Muscle strength is dependent on the number of fibres apparent on the physiological cross section. The more fibres present, the greater is the tension and the maximum force produced. The **tension** required of a muscle is dependent on the cross-section of the fibres and the distance the muscle shortens during contraction. This distance is proportional to the change in the insertion angle and the length of the muscle fibre bundles. Muscle work is the **speed of the contraction**.

Within a strong muscle belly, the muscle fibres attach to the tendon or to the bone surface at a sharp angle, allowing space for the muscle to expand when it contracts. During contraction, the attachment angle widens. This unique structural characteristic increases blood flow, thus supporting metabolism. The contraction and relaxation of muscles play an important role in the body's entire circulatory system.

Forms of muscles

Muscle vary in form, location and size. On spindle-shaped muscles, one can distinguish a passive **head** (caput) at the origin, the active muscle **belly** (venter) in the middle and the passive **tail** (cauda) at the insertion. As a result, each muscle has a designated **origin** (origo) and **insertion** (insertio). The origin and insertion are assigned by convention. Normally, the origin is the proximal end of the muscle, or the end closest to the body centre or axis. The distal end of the muscle is the insertion. There are many different **forms of muscle** (Fig. 1-43):

- spindle-shaped muscles (m. fusiformis),
- wide muscles (m. planus, whose tendon builds an aponeurosis),
- two headed muscles (m. biceps),
- three headed muscles (m. triceps),
- four headed muscles (m. quadriceps),
- two bellied muscles (m. diventer or m. digastricus),
- circular muscles (m. orbicularis) and
- sphincter muscles (m. sphincter).

Locomotion

Typical movements involve many muscles working simultaneously or one after the other. When two muscles act together, they are said to be **synergistic**. If they work against each other, they are **antagonists**. During movement, one part is the **fixed point** (punctum fixum) and the other the **moving point** (punctum mobile). The punctum fixum is every part that remains immobile due to its attachment to the trunk. The punctum mobile must be smaller and lighter than the punctum fixum. The function of a muscle can be derived on the one hand from its origin, placement and insertion and on the other hand, from its **point of rotation** (hypomochlion).

Most all natural movements, for example, breathing, walking, trotting, or gallopping, are a rhythmic cycle of contractions and relaxations of antagonistic muscle groups. Even during relaxation, every muscle is under a certain amount of minimal tension, the **muscle tonus**. This state is caused by a reflectory and constant excitatory stimulus originating from the muscle spindles. Anasthesia invokes a **hypotonus**, a reduction in muscle tonus. Many muscles serve to hold a certain body part in position and therefore display a constant minimal muscle tonus. These muscles are sometimes passively supported by tendon-like tissue embedded in the muscle belly.

In order for movement to begin, both the muscle tonus of the antagonizing muscle(s) and the force of gravity must be overcome. Muscle contractions are categorised based on what happens to the length of the active muscle during movement. A continual increase in the intrinsic muscle tension without a change in muscle length is an **isometric contraction**. At a certain grade of tension, the muscle slowly begins to contract and shortens (**isotonic contraction**), resulting in movement.

A muscle exerts force on a joint according to the laws of lever systems. Depending on the **number of joints** a muscle acts upon, it can be classified as a:

- uniarticular muscle,
- biarticular muscle or
- polyarticular muscle.

From this classification scheme, it is obvious that some joints are always moved together when one muscle contracts (obligatorily linked joints). Other joints move together only under unique circumstances (facultatively linked joints).

Muscles can also be classified according to their **functional effect** on a joint:

- extensor (m. extensor),
- flexor (m. flexor),
- adductor (m. adductor),
- abductor (m. abductor),
- sphincter (m. sphincter),
- dilatator (m. dilatator),
- levator (m. levator),
- depressor (m. depressor),
- rotator (m. rotator),
  - supinator (m. supinator) and
  - pronator (m. pronator).

Figures 44 to 48 present the superficial musculature of the domestic animals, which provide an introduction to myology. Topography, form and function of the individual muscles are described in detail in later chapters.

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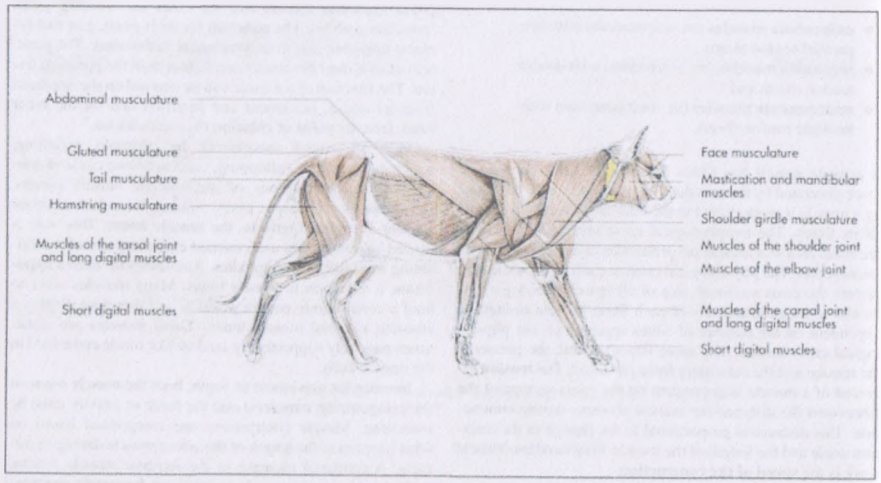


Fig. I-44. Superficial muscle groups of the cat (schematic).

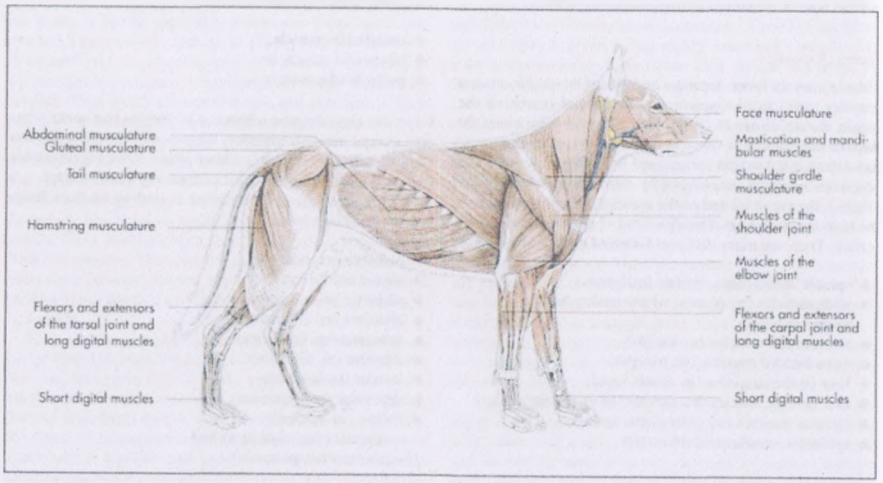


Fig. I-45. Superficial muscle groups of the dog (schematic).

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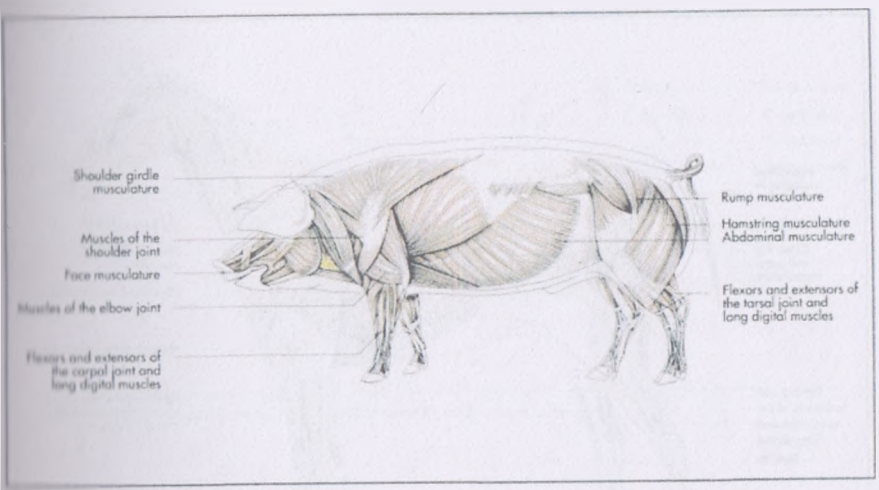


Fig. 1.46. Superficial muscle groups of the pig (schematic).

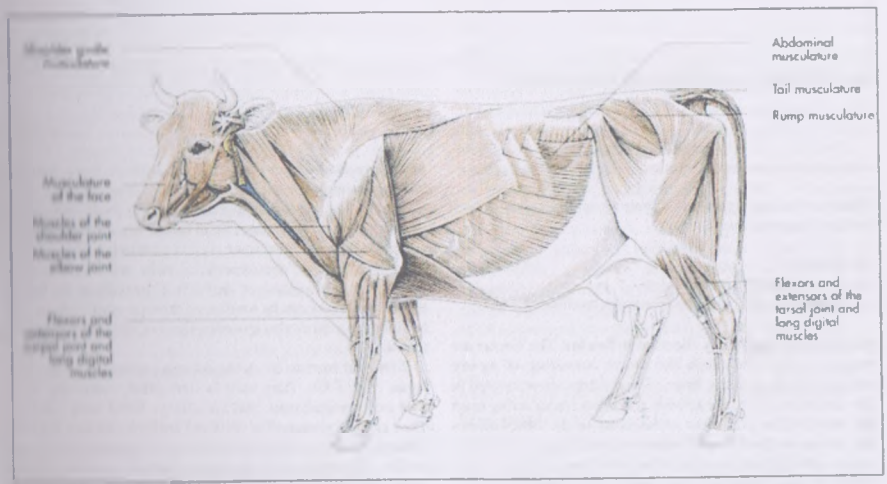


Fig. 1.47. Superficial muscle groups of the ox (schematic).

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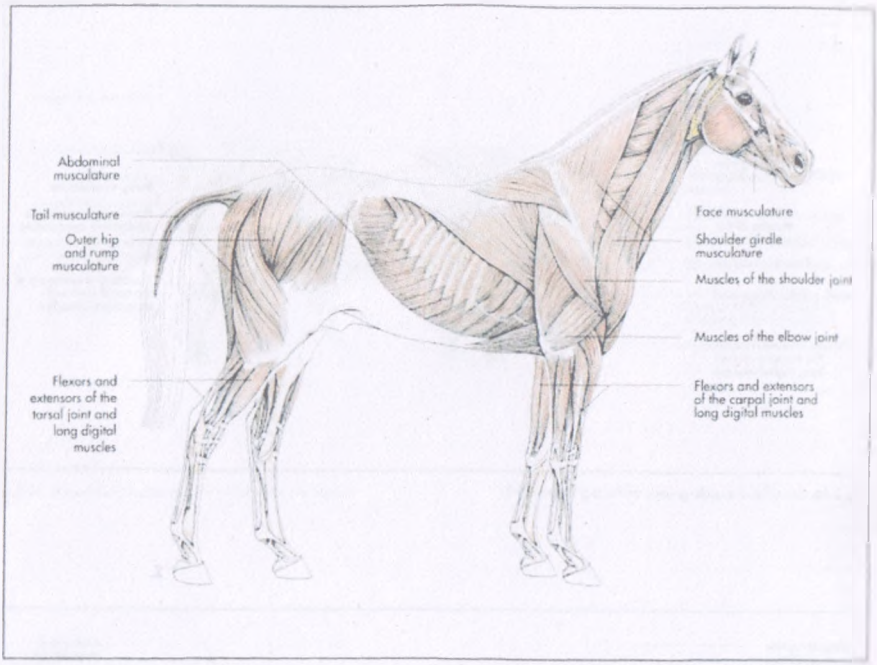


Fig. I-48. Superficial musculature of the horse (schematic).

Accessory structures of muscles

The muscles are supported in their many functions through passive structures such as the:

- fasciae,
- bursae (bursae synovialis) or
- tendon sheaths (vaginae synovialis tendinum).

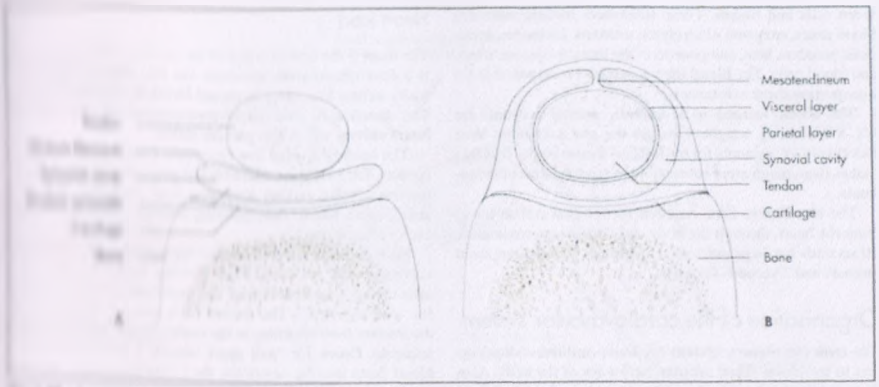
Muscles are individually sheathed in **fasciae**. The fasciae are expansive, thin and mesh-like sheets consisting of mostly collagen but also elastic fibres. These fibres are orientated in the same direction as the tension and stress forces acting upon the muscle. The mesh-like architecture of the fibres allows the fasciae to functionally adapt to changing muscle thickness resulting from muscle contraction. Fascia often serve as origin or attachment sites for muscles. By sheathing a muscle, fasciae provide a frictionless surface, allowing freedom of movement between individual muscles situated next to each other. A unique form are the **septa intermuscularia**, independent fasciae that lie between muscles and are anchored to the periosteum. Fascia also form ringlike structures of connective tissue on extensor or flexor joint surfaces, thereby strenghthening the joint itself (retinacula tendineum).

Fasciae are located throughout the entire body and can be divided into a thinner, **superficial fascia** (fascia superficialis) and a stronger, **deeper layer** (fascia profunda). The superficial fascia enclose the superficial **skin muscles** (musculi cutanei) in most regions of the body. Especially in the horse, the deeper layers can be reinforced through elastic fibres that lend them a yellow sheen (tunica flava of the ventral abdominal wall).

Synovial bursae are enclosed in a capsule of connective tissue (Fig. I-49). They vary in size, often containing more than one compartment, and are always filled with synovia. They can be compated to small gel cushions located beneath tendons, evenly distributing pressure originating from the tendon. The structure of the bursae walls is similar to that of joints. Like the joints, the wall is comprised of two layers: the inner **stratum synoviale** and the external **stratum fibrosum**.

The synovial bursae are found everywhere in the body where muscles, tendons or ligaments glide over bone. Inconsistent or facultative bursae may develop subcutaneously at various sites subjected to constant mechanical pressure.

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Accessory structures of muscles. (A) synovial bursa and (B) tendon sheath (schematic).

...according to their **location**.

...(bursae synoviales subtendinosae),
...(bursae synoviales submusculares),
...bursae
...(bursae synoviales subligamentosae) and
...(bursae synoviales subcutaneae).

...(Fig. 1.49) are similar to the bursae. ...the tendons like a tube. ...from pressure exerted by the ...during movement. Tendon ...the synovial membrane of a joint ..., which then surrounds the tendon.

...sheaths have **cavities** (cavum synoviale) ...filled with **synovial fluid**. The **synovial membrane** is formed from two layers, the **visceral** and ...layer. The internal surface facing the tendon is ...sheath. At some point, this ...the outer or parietal layer ...are connected by a thin double mesentery, ..., which provides passage for blood vessels ... places the mesotendineum is ...(**mesotendineum**).

...diffusion and active macromolecule ...through the synovial membrane ...the folds and villi are micropores ...which substances can diffuse. Hydrostatic ...regulate diffusion processes between ...and the surrounding connective tissue. ...connective tissue are numerous ...that considerably affect the function of the tendon sheaths. A physiological equilibrium exists when the amount of fluid entering the synovial cavity is the same as that which is reabsorbed from the cavity.

When this equilibrium is disturbed, fluid accumulates in the cavity. Clinically, this results in swelling of the tendon sheath and possibly in inflammation of the synovial membrane. The lymphatic drainage plays an important role in regulating hydrostatic pressure within the cavity. With every rhythmic contraction of the surrounding musculature, excessive fluid is drained into the lymph vessels and removed.

The following are **clinical expressions** related to anatomical terms: osteopathy, ostetis, osteomyelitis, periostitis, osteosynthesis, osteoclastoma, osteoplastic, osteolysis, osteomyelography, osteoma, osteomyelofibrosis, osteonecrosis, osteoperiostitis ossificans, osteopetrosis, osteoporosis, osteochondrosis, spina bifida, osteosarcoma, abductor fracture, adductor paralysis, arthropathy, arthritis, arthrosis, arthro-scopy, arthrolysis, nucleus pulposus prolapse, hip dysplasia (HD), myopathy, myodistrophy, myofibrosis, myometritis, myocarditis, myoma, myospasm, tendopathy, tendinitis, bursitis, synovitis, synovia hernia, achillobursitis, achillotenotomie, insertion tendinosis, and many more.

General anatomy of angiology (angiologia)

The cardiovascular system can be compared to a closed system of connecting tubes, where the heart functions as the central driving pump. The heart continuously circulates blood through the arteries, capillaries, and veins, supplying the organs and peripheral body parts. This system, which also includes the lymphatic system, integrates all the various parts of the body, transporting substances to, from and bet-

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ween cells and tissues. These substances include nutrients, blood gases, enzymes, electrolytes, vitamins, hormones, metabolic products, heat, components of the immune system, water, and blood cells. The **blood** (hema, sanguis) is responsible for transporting these substances.

The **blood volume** in a domestic animal accounts for 6%–8% of body weight. Cats are the one exception: their blood volume accounts for only 4% of their weight. This fact makes them much more susceptible to anaemia than other animals.

The **circulation time** required for a blood cell to travel from the heart, through the body and back, is approximately 30 seconds for large animals, 15 seconds for medium sized animals and 7 seconds for a cat.

Organisation of the cardiovascular system

The term **circulatory system** (systema cardiovasculare) refers to the **blood-filled tubular pathways** of the body. Also included is the **lymphatic system** (systema lymphaticum) that functions as a **drainage system**, draining fluid in the form of **lymph** from the interstitial tissue and returning it to the circulating blood. The red bone marrow and the spleen are also components of this system. The red bone marrow is a **haemopoetic organ** that produces various blood cells (**haematopoiesis**), and the spleen acts as a filter for these cells.

Since all types of organs and tissues are supplied by blood through vessels, these vessels must be organised to accommodate very different requirements. These requirements include, for example, the digestion processes of the intestines, muscle work, and the blood supply to the heart and brain.

The **heart functions** as the **central pump of the cardiovascular system**. Blood pumped from the heart enters a **high pressure dispersion system** consisting of the large arteries and, in the periphery, the smaller arterioles. Arteries and arterioles carry **oxygen-rich (oxygenated) blood** away from the heart to the periphery of the body. The arteries branch into arterioles, which further branch into ever smaller and more abundant vessels, the **capillaries** (vasa capillaria).

Capillaries have very small diameters and extremely thin walls, both of which facilitate gas exchange and the transportation of small molecules and water between the blood and surrounding tissues. The thin capillary walls also allow some types of blood cells to exit the vessel and enter surrounding tissues.

As blood flows away from the heart, pressure within the vessels declines. This drop in pressure is the result of two factors, friction, as the blood encounters resistance from the luminal walls of vessels, and an increase in the total cross-sectional area of blood vessels. The capillaries are mainly responsible for this effect; since their lumina are small, resistance is increased. Due to the overall abundance of the capillaries, the total cross-sectional area is also increased.

Blood returning to the heart through the **veins** retains very little pressure. Veins and venules form a **low pressure collecting system**. This system carries blood containing very little **oxygen (deoxygenated)** and can also serve as a reservoir for blood (e.g. in the integument, subcutis, lungs, spleen), returning blood to the circulation when needed. The veins carry the blood back into the heart (see Chapter 12).

Heart (cor)

The heart is the central organ of the cardiovascular system. It is a **four-chambered**, muscular sac that rhythmically contracts, acting as a pump to propel blood through the vessels. The direction of flow is pre-programmed through built-in **heart valves**, which also prevent reflux.

The heart is divided into **two main chambers** (ventriculi cordis). Each of these chambers is preceded by an **atrium** (atrium cordis), making altogether four chambers. The two atria collect blood, thus ensuring enough is present to fill each ventricle quickly.

Both ventricles have a valve located at each end. One valve prevents the blood from flowing backwards into the atria during a **contraction of the ventricles** (systole, Greek for "pull together"). The second valve prevents the blood in the arteries from returning to the ventricles during **relaxation** (diastole, Greek for "pull apart, stretch"). During diastole, blood flows into the ventricles, the following systolic and diastolic phases quickly alternate, creating a pump-like action.

Functionally, the heart is divided into a **right** and **left side**. The **right side** of the heart pumps the blood into the **capillaries of the lungs** and is referred to as the **small or pulmonary circulation**.

The **left side** pumps blood to the rest of the body and is called the **large or systemic circulation**. The right and left sides of the heart are completely separated by an **internal wall**, but both, outwardly and anatomically, the heart appears a single organ. (For more details see Chapter 12.)

Pulmonary and systemic circulation

The pulmonary and systemic circulations are two parts of a common circulation, where one lies ahead of the other (Fig. 1-50). Both sides of the heart pump the same volume of blood, even though the path between the right side of the heart and the lungs is much shorter than that between the left side of the heart and the peripheral body parts.

The **pulmonary** or **small circulation** begins in the **right atrium**, from which deoxygenated blood flows into the **right ventricle**. During ventricle contraction, this blood is pressed into the **pulmonary trunk** (truncus pulmonalis) and the following lung arteries until it arrives in the **capillary beds of the lungs**. Here the blood becomes oxygenated and returns through the **veins of the lungs** (venae pulmonales) to the heart, flowing into the **left atrium**.

The **systemic** or **large circulation** begins in the **left atrium** of the heart. Oxygenated blood flows from the **left atrium** into the **left ventricle**. When the ventricles contract, the blood is forced into the **aorta** and is systematically dispersed throughout the **periphery of the body**, first through the arteries, then through the arterioles, until finally reaching the **capillary beds** of the tissues and organs. Deoxygenated blood returns from the hind limbs and the caudal half of the trunk through the **caudal vena cava** (v. cava caudalis) and returns from the head, front limbs and the cranial trunk through the **cranial vena cava** (v. cava cranialis). Both the cranial and caudal vena cava empty into the **right atrium**.

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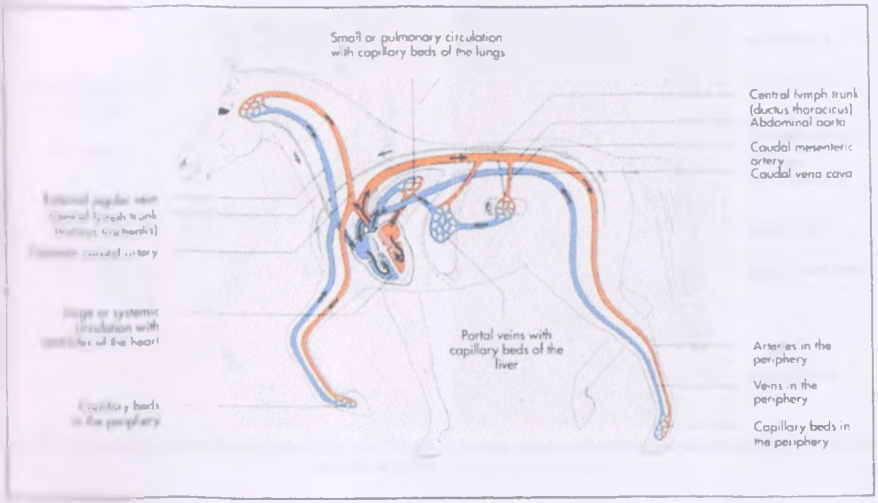


Fig. 1.8b. Adult circulatory system (schematic)

Portal circulation

The portal vein and its tributaries form a bypass system that begins and ends as capillary beds. The **portal vein** (v. portae) collects deoxygenated blood from the first capillary beds in the gastrointestinal tract and other unpaired organs within the abdominal cavity (spleen and pancreas). The capillaries in the abdominal viscera become confluent, eventually merging to form the portal vein. The wall of the portal vein is strengthened by smooth fibers, which rhythmically contract, increasing the portal pressure and propelling the blood towards the liver.

Within the liver, the portal vein repeatedly branches, eventually forming **capillary beds a second time**. When the blood passes through the liver and arrives in the liver's central side, it is collected by veins and transported into the caudal vena cava. Here the blood joins the remaining blood from the periphery to flow into the right atrium of the heart.

Another portal system of the body is located in the **pituitary** gland (hypothalamic pituitary axis).

Peripheral circulation

The peripheral circulatory system is governed by functional adaptations, which are reflected in the structures of the various vessel walls. As a rule, the organs and tissues are supplied by vascular-nerve bundles, in which arteries, veins (accompanying or concomitant veins*), lymphatic vessels and nerves mutually wind through connective tissue paths. For protection, the main vessel and nerve stems supplying the limbs are always located on the flexion surface of a joint.

Collateral arteries, terminal arteries and rete mirabile

By means of constant and continuous branching, collateral arteries break off from the main arteries and continue to accompany them, eventually reaching the same organs. Most of the collateral arteries connect to neighboring vessels, forming **peripheral anastomoses** (see below) and flow together into a common **net of blood vessels** (rete arteriosum). When this double arterial supply is missing, the single arteries are referred to as **terminal** or **end arteries**.

The occlusion of a terminal artery results in tissue ischemia and death (**necrosis**). Terminal arteries are common in the brain, heart, lungs, liver, kidneys, retina and spleen. When a terminal artery in these organs can no longer supply its area of tissue, this can result in a stroke (brain) or pulmonary embolism (lungs).

A highly modified arterial structure is the **rete mirabile**. An arterial rete mirabile forms when an artery branches into a series of parallel vessels, only to reunite into one artery again after a certain distance. These arterial structures are found mainly in the arteries at the base of the skull and on a smaller scale in the renal glomerula.

The purpose of these structures has not yet been fully clarified. Since they are tightly associated with their corresponding veins, they most likely play a role in promoting the venous return (**arteriovenous junctions**). It has also been hypothesised that they slightly decrease the temperature of blood flowing to the brain. Another purpose may be to reduce pulsation of the arteries in the brain.

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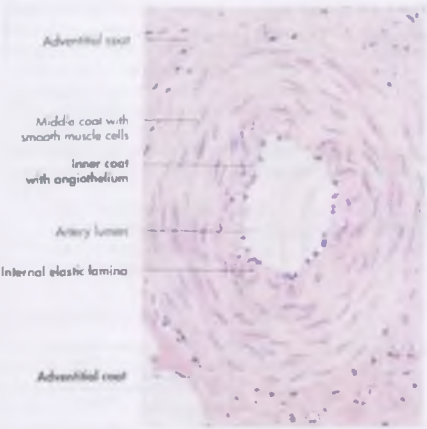


Fig. I-51. Artery (histological section, hematoxylin and eosin staining).

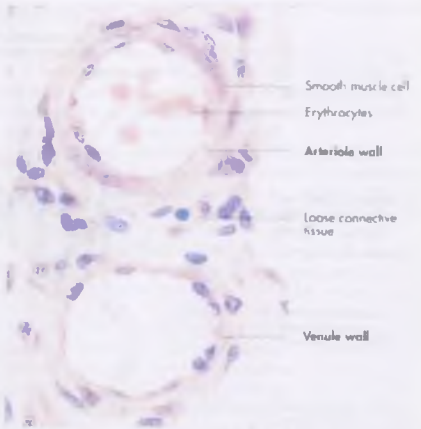


Fig. I-52. An arteriole and a venule (histological section, hematoxylin and eosin staining).

Anastomoses, barrier arteries and sphincter veins

Arteriovenous anastomoses are formed when a vessel branches from the arterioles before the capillary bed is reached. This vessel connects directly to venules, thus completely bypassing the capillary bed. **Precapillary sphincters** are located at the transition of arterioles to capillary beds. These structures regulate blood flow to the capillary beds, thus controlling the peripheral circulation to the organs (e.g. integument, intestines, nasal mucosa). The arteriovenous anastomoses are the principal means of regulating temperature in the various organs. **Barrier arteries** contract to temporarily interrupt blood flow to a capillary bed. This results in an increased blood flow to the neighboring capillary bed. Veins are also equipped with **sphincters** (sphincter veins) capable of regulating the amount of blood flowing through the capillary bed located behind it. These structures are mostly found in veins of the genital organs.

Vessels (vasa)

A complete understanding of **angiology** (angiologia, from the Greek "angion" for vessel) can only be achieved through knowledge of structure, function, and clinical importance of different blood vessels. For the student and clinician, a basic understanding of the vessels as well as a general knowledge of the topography is more important than a comparative and detailed topographical knowledge of each vessel and their smallest branches (rami). The exact topography of every vessel down to minute detail is only of academic interest and is comprehensively portrayed in many anatomy textbooks. This textbook provides the student and practitioner with a working knowledge of the clinically important blood vessels and their paths. (For more details see Chapter 12.)

Structure of the blood vessels (vasa sanguinea)

The blood vessels build a **strongly branched, closed system of tubes**. In humans, were this system to be laid out in a long row, it would reach over 30000 kilometers. The vessels are all built according to a similar design (Fig. I-51 to 56). The structure varies, in part greatly, according to the local functional demands. In general, the following vessel types exist, listed in the direction of blood flow:

- **arteries**, large vessels carrying blood away from the heart, without any capability of exchange with the surrounding tissues,
- **arterioles**, smaller arteries (diameter 20–100 µm),
- **capillaries**, with very thin walls participating in exchange with surrounding tissues,
- **venules**, **small veins** and
- **veins**, large vessels carrying blood to the heart.

The lumen of large vessels is lined with a **tunica intima**. The tunica intima consists of a single layer of **endothelial cells** (angiothelium) resting on a **stratum subendotheliale** of connective tissue with an underlying **basement membrane**. This layer is responsible for the exchange of molecules with the surrounding tissues, allows blood cells to exit the vessel lumen and promotes the flow velocity of blood or lymph. The middle layer, the **tunica media**, consists mainly of smooth muscle cells and elastic nets. This layer contracts the vessel wall, determining the hemodynamics. The outer layer, the **tunica adventitia**, is mostly composed of loose connective tissue, which anchors the vessel to the surrounding tissue. The **vegetative nerve** supply to the vessels is also found in this layer, as well as in the **vasa vasorum**, which supplies nutri-

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Fig. 1-53. Artery wall with elastic fibers (histological section, elastica



Fig. 1-54. Common carotid artery with the vasa vasorum and nerve network (corrosion cast)

adventitia, consists of connective tissue and elastic fibres. This layer anchors the blood vessels in the surrounding tissues.

Blood and nerve supply to the vessels

Blood vessel walls are partly supplied with nutrients that diffuse from the blood flowing in the lumen (transendothelial). The thick tunica media in large vessels prohibits transendothelial diffusion. Larger blood vessels require their own supply, which is provided by small blood vessels (**vessels of the vasculature, vasa vasorum**) which form capillary beds in the vessel walls.

The vessel wall is abundant in **vegetative nerve networks**. These nerves signal the smooth muscles to constrict (**vasoconstriction, adrenergic**) or to dilate (**vasodilation, cholinergic**). Located in specific vessel sections are **pressoreceptors**, unique nerve structures that measure the pressure in the vessel wall and acting on the vessel wall (i.e. in the carotid sinus). Such sensors have a **regulatory function on the blood pressure**.

A cat's blood pressure is measured on the upper arm and a dog's on his forearm or shank. The blood pressure in dogs can also be measured at the base of the tail.

Arterioles

Arterioles play an important role in regulating not only **arterial blood pressure** but also **blood flow velocity** in the periphery. Compared to the arteries, arterioles have a much thinner muscle layer and a smaller lumen diameter. The precapillary sphincters, the **metarterioles**, are also functionally important in **regulating blood pressure** (Fig. 1-52). Through contraction of the ring muscle, the lumen of the arteriole can be completely occluded. These sphincters are usually located at the

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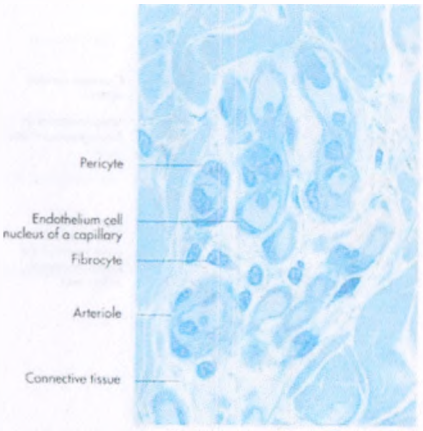


Fig. I-55. Capillary bed with surrounding connective tissue (histological section, methylene blue staining)

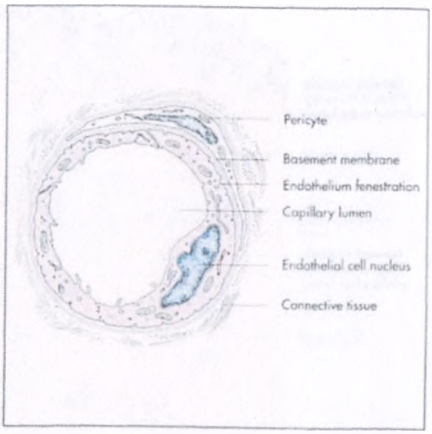


Fig. I-56. Ultrastructure of a capillary (schematic); Liebich, 2004

transition of arterioles to capillary beds, thus reducing the blood flow into the capillary beds. **Arteriovenous anastomoses** exist in the precapillary region to restrict blood transport to the capillary region in order to, for example, avoid the breakdown of a metabolic product.

Blood capillaries (vasa capillaria)

Capillaries (hair vessels) are responsible for the **gas** and **molecule exchange** between the blood and the tissues. For this to occur, **blood flow velocity** is reduced from 400-900 mm/sec in the aorta to approx. 0.3 mm/sec in the capillaries. **Blood pressure** is also greatly reduced in the capillaries. A capillary has an average diameter of 5–15 µm. Capillaries result from the **repeated divisions of the arterioles** and build three-dimensional nets before their transition into venules. Some structures do not contain capillaries, such as the cornea, the lens, cartilage, and dentin.

The **capillary wall** consists of only two layers, an **endothelial layer** lining the lumen and an outer **basement membrane** (Fig. I-55 and 56). The endothelium is usually continuous, however, the endothelium of some capillaries contains pores between the cells. Similarly, pores are also sometimes found in the basement membrane.

Sinusoid capillaries (vasa capillaria sinusoidea) are found in the liver, in red bone marrow, and in the spleen. These capillaries are characterised by a large diameter (approx. 40 µm), intercellular pores, and a discontinuous basement membrane. The cells of the lumen wall are capable of phagocytosis. Capillaries exhibit structural characteristics that are specific to the organ they supply. Organs and tissues may differ in the number of capillaries, or the amount of vascularisation, or in the rate of blood flow. For example, the heart muscle and the brain are very dependent on oxygen and are therefore vascularised quite extensively. On the other hand, a large percentage of cartilage or of the cornea remains free of vessels (bradytrophic tissue).

Capillaries are biologically effective for transport and barrier, for example, in the lungs, the kidneys, and the brain (blood-brain barrier). They play a role in filtration and reabsorption, or they can build a blood-clot-inhibiting layer. Tissues vascularised by arteries with anastomoses are not endangered by the occlusion of a single artery. Tissues vascularised by a single **terminal artery** are destined to become necrotic if the artery occludes. This process is called an **infarction**. The capillary density is very high in some organs like the heart muscle, in the grey substance of the central nervous system and in the endocrine glands. In other organs, the capillary density is dependent on the activity level. For example, in the ovaries, capillary beds develop during functional phases and are resorbed during resting phases.

Venules

Venules are the smallest veins, and differ from veins in that they have a minuscule lumen, a thinner wall and no elastic fibres (Fig. I-49). Venules connect the capillary beds with the veins and can be divided into three types. The **postcapillary venules** are similar to the capillaries with their pores in the vessel walls. These pores allow blood cells to diffuse into the tissues (**diapedesis**). Next are the collection venules, followed by the muscular venules, which are characterised by a muscle layer reaching up to 100 µm in thickness. A **venous sinus** (sinus venosus) is a **postcapillary vessel** that is present, for example, in the spleen.

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Veins (venae)

From the capillary beds, blood returns to the heart by way of the postcapillary venules, then the smaller veins and finally, by way of the veins (Greek "phleb", Latin "vena"). After the blood passes through the capillaries, the blood pressure in the veins measures approximately one/eight of the pressure measured in the precapillary arteries. This dramatic decrease in blood pressure results from the maximal increase of the total cross-sectional area of the capillaries and from the presence of unique **venous structures**. These structures (sinus venosi) are located mainly in the liver and spleen and together can store up to three times more blood than that which is present at any one time in the entire arterial system. Structural distinctions between the arteries and veins reflect an adaptation of the vessels to blood pressure: veins have a much larger diameter than arteries, and their walls are much thinner.

Vein architecture

Veins are built similarly to arteries except that the tunica media is much thinner, due to the **low pressure in the venous system**. Most often the tunica adventitia, the outer layer of the vessel, is the thickest. Collagen fibre nets located in the wall of the veins anchor them in the surrounding tissues, and strengthen the wall, preventing its collapse. In the limbs, each artery is located in a fold of connective tissue and is usually accompanied by two veins. The pulsation of the artery, in addition to muscle contractions, helps pump the venous blood back to the heart (see below). The distal limb veins are equipped with a much thicker tunica media in relation to the hydrostatic pressure.

Venous return of blood

Unique pump mechanisms are required to carry venous blood over long distances back to the heart.

Valves of the veins

The tunica interna forms **valves** to prevent blood flowing backwards into the capillary beds when circulation stagnates. These passive valves normally lie flat on the lumen wall when blood flows towards the heart. When blood flows backwards, the valves extend into the lumen, thus closing the vessel. The valves are double-sided endothelial extensions of the tunica interna and are normally found in groups of two to three. Their purpose is to ensure unidirectional blood flow.

The veins of the skull and veins in the vertebral canal **do not have valves**. Blood flows into duplicates of the dura mater tissue **dura matris**, which are not independent vessels but rather empty spaces lined with endothelial cells.

Muscle pumps

The walls of veins contain few muscle fibres, and the pressure present in the venous system is very low. For these reasons, veins require pressure from the surrounding tissues to aid them in conveying blood back to the heart. The lack of pressure in the veins is compensated for by contractions in the surrounding muscles. The term **muscle pump** summarises the function of the skeletal muscles and their contribution to venous blood flow. During muscle contraction, the veins in and around the muscle are pressed flat. When the muscle relaxes, the veins open again, creating a vacuum, and blood from the periphery is pulled in the direction of the heart. The valves prevent the backward flow of blood. Every body movement affects the return flow of venous blood to the heart. With each step, the terminal vessels in the toes undergo this functional process. Through the pulse, the arteries of the limbs also compress the neighboring veins. The heart itself also acts as a **pressure pump**.

Composition of venous blood

The composition of the venous blood depends upon where the **main root of the vein** in question originates. Venous blood from the intestines carries energy-rich molecules, white blood cells from the spleen, and hormones from the endocrine glands. Blood returning from the kidneys contains very little metabolic products. Veins transport tissue hormones such as prostaglandins, which in the female animal are produced in the uterus. In the cow, prostaglandins are delivered transmurrally to the ovaries via arteriovenous coupling between the vein draining the uterus and the artery supplying the ovaries (a. ovarica). Thus, the prostaglandins are delivered by the shortest and quickest path to the ovaries, where they induce luteolysis of the corpus luteum. The veins of the muscles and the liver carry blood that has been warmed, thus contributing to a constant body temperature.

Nomenclature of veins

Veins are normally named after the artery that they accompany. **Retrograde** (against the direction of blood flow) names are found in the older literature and tend to be misleading. Veins have **root origins**, combine to form larger veins, and eventually open into the **right atrium of the heart**. The retrograde description of veins makes its impossible to understand correctly the functions of blood flow, arteriovenous coupling, the orientation of the valves, and the effect of an intravenous injection.

Other organs beside the liver and the hypophysis are supplied not only from arteries, but also from veins. Therefore, veins contribute to the **supply of the organism**, similar to arteries. This fact is often not recognised in many textbooks.

Lymphatic system (vasa lymphatica)

A second vessel system exists in the body, which is designated the lymphatic system since its vessels carry lymph instead of blood. These **lymph vessels** are responsible for the integrity of the body. It functions within the **non-specific** and **specific immune systems**. (For more information see Chapter 13.)

Lymphatic organs

The lymphatic organs are responsible for many functions, most of which are executed by the cells of the lymphatic system. There are two classes of cells: the specific immune cells and the non-specific immune cells.

The **lymphocytes** (**T** and **B lymphocytes**) are the most important functional cells. They are produced in the bone marrow and in the lymphatic organs and travel with the lymph through the lymphatic vessels into the blood. Lym-

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phocytes have surface receptors enabling them to recognise foreign material (antigens) in the body and, by triggering a **specific chain reaction**, to induce an **immune response**. The macrophages support this immune response but are non-specific in their function. They possess the ability to incorporate (phagocytise) antigens, break them down (histocompatibility reaction) and display the antigens (antigen presentation) on their cell surface (for more information, see physiology and immunology textbooks).

The nonspecific immunity cells belong to the extensive mononuclear phagocytosis system (MPS), previously termed the reticuloendothelial system (RES). Included in this system are the tissue macrophages, the endothelium of the liver, the spleen and marrow sinusoids, the alveolar macrophages in the lungs, the Langerhans cells in the skin, and the microglia. Lymphatic tissue is found in the body as:

- single cells (diffuse lymphatic tissue, lymph nodules),
- aggregates of cells (tonsils) or
- complex organs (thymus, lymph nodes and spleen).

Collections of **lymph nodules** (not lymph nodes) are found for example, in the intestinal wall as gut-associated lymphatic tissue (GALT). Similar to GALT are the reaction centers of the lungs (BALT: bronchus-associated lymphatic tissue). Such lymph nodules found in the mucosa are referred to as MALT (mucosa-associated lymphatic tissue).

The **thymus** consists of primary lymphatic tissue necessary for the development of cellular immunity. This organ coordinates the active immunity and the the growth of secondary lymphatic organs (lymph nodes, tonsils) during development.

Functions of the lymphatic system

The lymphatic system transports substances to the local lymph nodes that require filtration, before they can enter the blood stream. Among such substances are particles, especially dust (lungs) and bacteria (skin, intestinal system, respiratory system). Lymph is also responsible for transporting fats absorbed through the intestines. In all cases, the lymph functions as the carrier.

Lymph is comprised mainly of **proteins** and similar in composition to the blood plasma. Also present in lymph are the **lymphatic cells** that are picked up in the lymph nodes. The lymph originating in the intestines shows a milky-white color due to its high fat content (**intestinal lymph or chylus**). Of great physiological importance is the fact that some of the body fluids cannot be transported by the blood vessels and are removed instead by the drainage system of the lymphatic vessels. This drainage system is very flexible and is capable of quickly increasing the amount of transported body fluid as much as ten fold. Interruptions in this drainage system can lead to lymphatic oedema.

Architecture of the lymphatic vessels (vasa lymphatica)

The lymphatic vessels begin in the body's periphery as a system of blind ending, capillary-like tubes that opens in the so called venous angle to the venous circulation.

The following vessels are distinguishable:

- lymphatic capillaries (vasa lymphocapillaria),
- lymphatic vessels,
- transport vessels,
- central lymph trunks and
- lymphatic ducts.

The **lymphatic capillaries** are similar in structure to the blood capillaries. However, the wall of the lymphatic capillaries is much thinner and they do not possess valves. Close to the blood capillaries, the lymph capillaries form vessel nets (**retia lymphocapillaria**) within most body tissues. The capillaries merge to form the **lymphatic vessels** that collect the lymph from the plexuses. The lymphatic vessels have valves (valvulae lymphaticae) and thin walls, and they can build plexuses (plexus lymphaticus).

Transport vessels are able to contract due to the presence of a middle muscular layer. The contractions occur in the vessel segments between the valves, transporting the lymph in the proximal direction. The transport vessels run parallel to the veins and carry the lymph to the nearest **tributary (regional) lymph node**, thus referred to as the afferent lymph vessels (vas afferens). The lymph enters the cortex of the lymph node through the afferent vessels, flows through the organ, and exits at the hilus through the efferent lymph vessel (vas efferens). One exception to this flow direction is found in the pig, where the vasa afferentia reach the lymph node at the hilus, and the vasa efferentia leave the cortex. Usually a second lymph node is found directly after the first to provide additional filtration and collection of lymph from numerous vessels. Multiple lymph nodes filtering lymph from the same area or tributary territory form **lymph centres**. **Central lymph vessels** collect the lymph from lymph centres in the abdomen and thorax. Lymph from the abdominal region initially flows through the **chyle cistern** (cisterna chyli) and finally into the **thoracic duct** (ductus thoracicus), where it is further transported.

The **ductus thoracicus** passes through the diaphragm alongside the aorta and continues dorsally through the thorax, entering the venous system at the left venous angle. The venous angle is formed by the convergence of the internal jugular and the left subclavian veins. The lymph drainage from the head and throat occurs through the two branches of the **tracheal trunc**, which unite and empty into the venous angle as well. Lymph vessels are not present in epithelial tissue, in the central nervous system, in the dental pulp, in bone, in cartilage or in the placenta.

General anatomy of the nervous system (systema nervosum)

The nervous system, along with the endocrine and immune systems and the sensory organs, is responsible for receiving various stimuli and coordinating the reactions of the organism. The nervous system receives stimuli that affect the body surface and/or the insides. The stimuli cause impulses that are registered, transmitted, processed and answered in the

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form of passive or active reactions. Thus, the nervous system enables the body to interact, adapt and react to the environment.

In single organisms, this function is completely realised by individual sensory cells. These cells are stimulated by the environment and send the resulting impulse through a cell process directly to a muscle or gland cell. Sensory cells with processes that are responsible only for impulse transmission can still be found in domestic animals, – for example in the olfactory epithelium. In the rest of the body, **neurons** and their accompanying **glial structures** (glia cells, gliocytes) transmit the impulse, sometimes over quite a distance, from the **sensory cell (receptor cell)** to an **organ of response** (e.g. muscle cell or gland cell).

A **network of nerves** connects all organs of the body. This network is comprised of nerve tissue, which can be classified according to function or morphology. This classification is purely didactic, in fact the nervous system builds a **single functional unit**.

Morphological classification divides the nervous system according to location into a **central** (systema nervosum centrale) and a **peripheral system** (systema nervosum periphericum). The **central nervous system** (CNS) includes the brain (encephalon) and the spinal cord (medulla spinalis). The spinal cord connects the CNS to the remaining parts of the organism in the **peripheral nervous system** (PNS).

Functional classification differentiates between the **somatic (cerebrospinal) nervous system**, which innervates structures under conscious control (e.g. locomotor system), and the **autonomic (vegetative) nervous system**. The autonomic nervous system functions involuntarily and remains beyond the conscious control of the organism. This system innervates the internal organs, the blood vessels, and the glands. This system governs the control and coordination of the internal organs. (For more details see Chapter 14.)

Functions of the nervous system

The functions of the nervous system are divided as follows:

sensory functions:
- **exteroceptive sensibility** (exteroceptors register stimuli from the environment as in hearing, sight, taste, heat, cold, pressure, pains, etc.),
- **proprioceptive sensibility** (proprioceptors are concerned with stance and position of the joints and muscles),
- **interoceptors** react to stretch stimuli in hollow organs, blood pressure (baroreceptors) or the blood pH (chemoreceptors),
- **vegetative (visceral) sensibility** and

motor functions:
- **somatomotorics** (body motorics) and
- **visceromotorics** (motorics of the internal organs).

The **sensory functions** of the nervous system register and react to various types of stimuli. Sensory receptors monitor the external and internal environments. **Exteroceptive sensibility** involves stimuli from the surrounding environment that are registered through the skin, mucosa or sense organs. Information on the stance and position of the body is elicited by the **proprioceptive sensibility**. The organs responsible for receiving and transmitting this information are receptors found in the tendons and muscles. In this case, the receptor and effector organs are identical, for example the stretch mechanism of the muscle spindle. The system that transmits stimuli originating in the blood vessels or the internal organs to vegetative centers is referred to as the **vegetative (visceral) sensibility**.

The **motoric functions** of the nervous system are responsible for coordinating movement. **Somatomotorics** include all movements of the striated muscles that are under **conscious control**, and these movements are usually the result of environmental stimuli. Conversely, **visceromotorics** include all movements of the smooth muscles that are controlled **autonomously (subconciously)**.

These **functions of the nervous system** are intricately linked. For example, a stimulus from the environment (exteroceptive stimulus) is translated by a **sensory receptor** into a nerve impulse. This impulse is carried by afferent sensory nerves to the central nervous system (CNS) and coordinated in the central nuclei. The stimulus is processed and answered in the form of a nerve impulse, which travels over **efferent motor nerves** to the musculature. The muscular reaction is controlled and regulated through feedback **(proprioceptive stimulus)** to the CNS in the form of a nerve impulse carried by sensory nerves.

The individual not only reacts to the environment but also interacts spontaneously with it. A spontaneous movement originating as an idea in the CNS is sent as a nerve impulse through efferent nerves and is registered by sensory organs. The sensory organs send a feedback signal to the CNS reporting if the movement was successfully completed or not. This feedback is referred to as a **reference**. If the movement was accomplished, then the CNS sends inhibiting impulses stopping the movement. If the reference is unsatisfactory, the CNS sends signals to enhance the movement. Countless excitatory circuits in the body build the foundation of the nervous system.

Architecture and structure of the nervous system

Understanding the architecture of the nervous system is difficult without the knowledge of some basic terminology. Further detailed information can be found in histology, neurophysiology, or neuroanatomy textbooks.

The nervous system follows a common structural design, which can be classified functionally and structurally into different sections:

- signal registration (sensory receptors),
- signal transmission (afferent nerve fibres),
- central processing of information,
- stimulus response (efferent nerve fibres) and
- reaction of the effector organ (muscle, gland).

Sensory receptors are macromolecules on the surface of receptor cells. Sensory receptor excitation occurs through mechanical, chemical, or thermal stimuli, as well as light and

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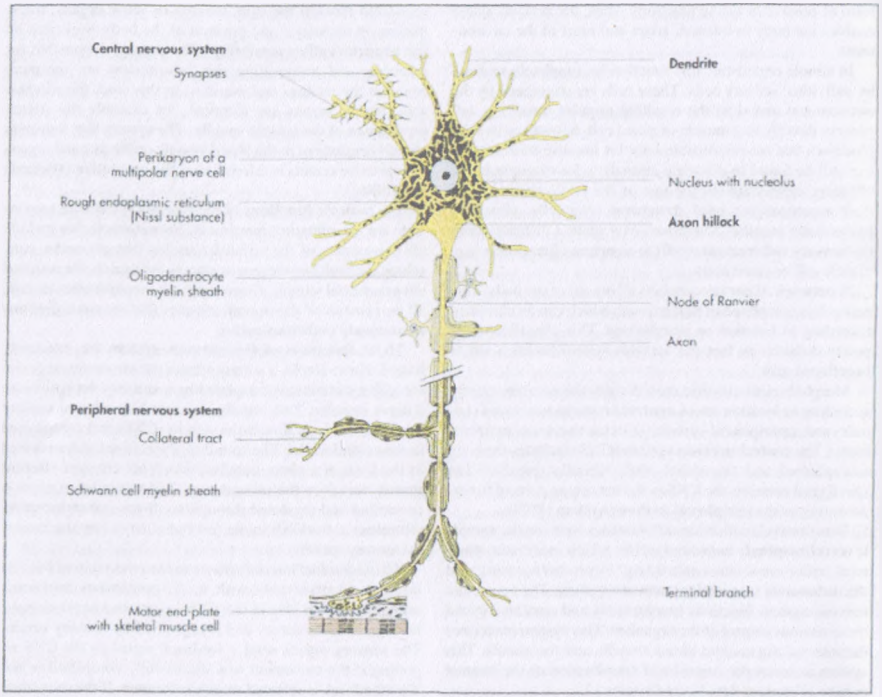


Fig. I-57. Motor neuron (Nissl staining) with the central perikaryon, a peripheral nerve fibre and a motor end-plate on a muscle cell (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

electrochemical stimuli (**receptorpotential**). The receptors are classified as **mechano-**, **chemo-**, **or photoreceptors**. Stimuli occur in countless forms and qualities and are received by a wide **spectrum of sensory cells**. Two types of sensory cells can be distinguished:

- **primary sensory cells**: the receptor is located on the surface of the **nerve cell**, and
- **secondary sensory cells**: the receptor is located on **modified epithelial cells** (e.g. hair cells of the inner ear and sensory cells in the taste buds).

Primary cells are found in the olfactory epithelium, as rods and cones in the retina, and as free nerve endings. Other examples of primary sensory cells are the encapsulated nerve endings, which are ends of sensory processes enclosed in specialised structures. For example, Meissner's corpuscle is a nerve ending wrapped in mesodermal cells located in the dermis of the skin. It responds to touch. The corpuscle of Ruffini, responsive to warmth, and the end bulb of Krause, responsive to cold, are other encapsulated receptors located in the dermis. Pacinian corpuscles (corpuscles of Vater-Pacini) are located in the skin, joints, and deep tissues of the body. They respond to pressure.

Receptors of deep sensibility, located in the tendons, the muscles or ligaments, and the internal organs are always primary sensory cells. Receptor or sensory cells can combine with other such cells to form an **organ**, in this case, a sensory organ (e.g. eye, ear, vestibular apparatus for balance, taste and olfactory organs).

Nerve tissue (textus nervosus)

The nerve tissue is the basic element that forms the various parts of the nerve system previously mentioned. Nerve tissue originates from the **neuroectodermis**. Cells found in nerve tissue are:

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- **nerve cells (ganglion cells, neurocytes, neurons)** as sensory or receptor cells and
- **glial cells (gliocytes)** as protectors and suppliers of nerve cells.

Neurons

Neurons vary greatly in function and structure. There is a distinction between:

- **multipolar neurons**, which send impulses to non-neuronal effector cells (muscle or gland cells) and induce activity **(efferent, motor neurons)**,
- **pseudo-unipolar neurons**, which receive stimuli and send them on to higher centers, **(afferent, sensible neurons)** and
- **unipolar neurons**, which form a network to connect neurons over short and long distances **(interneurons)**.

The **neuron** is the smallest functional unit of the nerve system. Structurally, it contains a **cell body** (neuroplasma, soma, perikaryon) and **various numbers of processes** (dendrites and axons) of different lengths and degrees of branching. Dendrites conduct a nerve impulse towards the cell body (afferent stimuli transmission), and **axons** conduct the nerve impulse towards the periphery (efferent stimuli transmission) (Fig. 1-57 and 58). In the central nervous system, **interneurons** make up a large percentage of the total nervous tissue. The brain consists of a great variety of nerve cells. One example is the **Purkinje cells** of the cerebellum. A greater distance separates the neurons in the brain than those in the periphery due to the intricate neuron network. The **neuropil** is the area between the perikaryons of the neurons containing the dendrites and axons.

Neurons are seldom individually found; rather, they usually form branched networks of many cells. A **ganglion** is such a network of neurons located in the periphery. Each ganglion is responsible for innervating a certain section of the periphery and for communicating with higher centres of nerve control. Phylogenetically, vertebrates developed a **complex centralization of ganglions**, which led to the formation of the central nervous system as the conduction and coordination system of the body.

Glial cells (gliocytes, neuroglia)

Neurons require other cells for nourishment, support and insulation. All types of **glial cells** or **neuroglia** bind together nervous tissue, but are usually specialized for certain functions. Glial cells do not transmit impulses, but rather assume protective functions in the central nervous system for the neurons. They form the blood-brain barrier and are situated between the capillaries and the neurons.

In the brain, **macroglia cells (astrocytes)** (Fig. 1-59) nourish the neurons by exchanging metabolic substances between capillaries and neurons. These cells also aid nerve impulse conduction by building an insulating layer around the neurons. Other glial cells, the microglia, engulf foreign material. They provide a non-specific cellular immune defence mechanism to protect the neurons. Specialised **microglia cells** in the spinal cord, the **oligodendroglia**, compose the myelin sheath that provides insulation for the neurons. The **ependymal cells** line the ventricles of the brain and the central canal (canalis centralis) of the spinal cord.

The **Schwann cells** assume the functions of the oligodendrogha cells in the peripheral nervous system. Peripheral nerve fibres are metabolically supported by the Schwann cells and are protected by connective tissue sheaths.

Central nervous system (systema nervosum centrale, CNS)

The central nervous system primarily coordinates voluntary and autonomic functions of the organs that enable an organism to survive in its environment. It includes the **spinal cord** (medulla spinalis) and the **brain** (encephalon). Both structures arise from the embryonic neural tube (see Chapter 14).

Within the anterior neural tube, three embryonic regions of the brain differentiate into the **prosencephalon, mesencephalon** and **rhombencephalon**.

These give rise to three regions of the adult brain, the forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain. In further embryonic development, the **prosencephalon** differentiates to form the rostral **endbrain** (telencephalon) with two rostrolateral ventricles and the caudal diencephalon. The **rhombencephalon** differentiates into the **myelencephalon** (medulla oblongata) and the **metencephalon**, which includes the cerebellum. The brain is bilaterally symmetric and is protected by a bony skeleton, namely the skull and the vertebrae.

The brain encloses a system of connected cavities consisting of **four ventricles** and a **central canal**. These cavities within the brain are filled with cerebrospinal fluid (liquor cerebrospinalis).

Approximately 100 billion neurons are present in the CNS, including the interneurons and the perikaryons of the motor neurons from the body's cerebrospinal (somatic) nerve system. The neurons are highly specialised structurally and functionally and have **lost their ability to divide**. New neurons develop from precursor cells, the neuroblasts. Once a neuron is no longer functional, it cannot be replaced. With intensive training, the loss of neuronal function due to small injuries can partly be regained by the neogenesis of neuron network.

The **interneurons** synapse partly with the perikaryon (soma) of a neuron and partly with dendrites. It is estimated that one neuron can have as many as 10 000 interneuronal connections with other neurons. The interneurons form a net, connecting practically all regions of the brain to one another. The assumption that each part of the brain (nucleus) is solely responsible for a single function has been revised in light of the extreme interconnectivity of the neurons. These parts of the brain or nuclei are also controlled by higher functional circuits.

The central nervous system is comprised of **various types of nerve tissue**.

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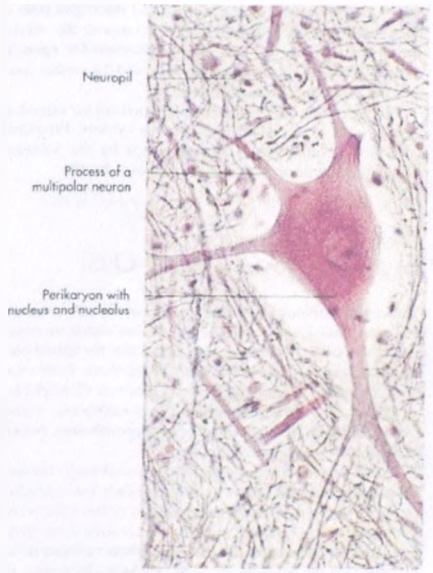


Fig. I-58. Multipolar neuron in the spinal cord with neurofibrillary inclusions (histological section, Bodian staining).

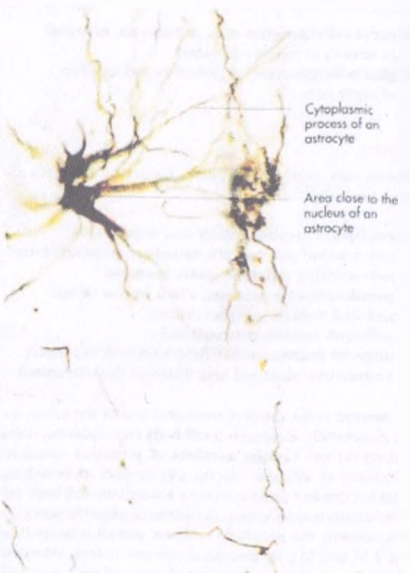


Fig. I-59. Microglia of the spinal cord (histological section, silver staining). Liebich, 2004

- all **interneurons**,
- the **motor neurons** of the cerebrospinal, voluntary nerve system,
- the central part of the **axons of sensory neurons** and
- **preganglionic motor neurons** of the autonomic, vegetative nervous system).

Clusters of perikaryons with similar functions are grouped in **complexes called nuclei**, where the perikaryons are connected to afferent dendrites through many synapses. These clusters are seen as grey-rose coloured areas in a cross section of the freshly prepared brain or spinal cord. For this reason, this type of nerve tissue is referred to as **grey matter** (substantia grisea). Between these centres in the CNS axons are communicating that are sheathed in **myelin** (myelinated nerves). The myelin tends to be white and this type of nervous tissue is referred to as the **white matter** (substantia alba).

Grey matter (substantia grisea)

The grey matter forms the nuclei in the brain, as well as the cortex of the cerebrum and cerebellum, where it is connected to the ventricles through an expansive layer of ependymal cells. It is also located in the middle of the spinal cord, where in cross section it resembles the form of a butterfly or an "H".

The nuclei in the grey matter can be classified according to the:

- **form of the neurons** (e.g. multipolar pyramidal cells or granular cells and Purkinje cells in the cerebellum),
- **intrinsic neurons** (short, unmyelinated axons within a nucleus),
- **projection neurons** (long, myelinated axons of the white substance tracts),
- **type of nerve impulse** (excitatory or inhibitory neurons) and
- **type of neurotransmitter** or **neuromodulator** (e.g. cholinergic neurons, noradrenergic neurons).

The term nucleus for a cluster of neurons with similar function can be replaced by other terms such as **substantia** (e.g. substantia nigra), **formatio** (e.g. formatio reticularis) and **corpus** (e.g. corpus mammillare). The CNS is comprised of far more glial cells than neurons. It is estimated that glial cells are ten times more abundant, so they are the dominant cell type in the CNS, also making them the most common cell in the CNS. Glial cells retain their ability to divide lifelong, making them the most likely cell type to form tumours.

Protoplasmatic astrocytes are star-like in appearance due to their many filament-like, branched processes. They form cytoplasmic connections between neurons and capillar

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[illegible] transporting metabolic substrates to the neurons. Additionally, they store transmitter precursors and control the extracellular ion concentrations. Astrocytes also build the outer limiting layer of the cortex (glia limitans).

White matter (substantia alba)

The white matter includes nerve tracts that not only connect cortical nuclei within the CNS, but also connect parts of the CNS with the periphery. It consists mostly of interneuronal axons, but also sensory nerves. The **white appearance** is due to the presence of the **myelin sheaths** around the nerve processes formed from the **oligodendroglia**. Also found in the white matter are the **fibrillary astrocytes** that not only form supportive tissue in the CNS but also connect neurons and capillaries with their multiple, mostly unbranched processes. The forms of various central nerve fibres are described as follows:

- **tract**, a central nerve fibre with a definite beginning and end (tractus corticospinalis),
- **fasciculus**, a compact tract,
- **fasciculus**, a narrow tract,
- **commissura**, a tract connecting the right and left sides of the CNS,
- **lemniscus**, a tract following a spinal course,
- **decussatio (crossing)**, a tract that switches to the other side of the body and a
- **radiation**, a tract spreading a radially.

The white matter surrounds the grey matter in the spinal cord and is made up of tracts from and to the brain.

Peripheral nervous system (systema nervosum periphericum, PNS)

The peripheral nervous system connects the CNS to the organs of the body. It includes the **paired cranial** and **spinal nerves**. The spinal nerves sequentially arise from the spinal cord and are named according to their association with regions of the vertebral column (cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral). The PNS is comprised of neurons and ganglions. Like the nuclei in the CNS, ganglions are clusters of perikarya. The tracts of the **peripheral nervous system are the nerves**.

Nerves (nervi, neurons)

The nerves are the nerve processes or fibres of the neurons whose perikarya (somata) lie in the CNS (brain or spinal cord) or in the spinal ganglions (see Chapter 14). Nerve fibres differ in diameter, in the thickness of the myelin sheath, and in the internal length of the nodes of Ranvier. Bundles of nerve fibres are enclosed in connective tissue sheaths (endo-, peri- and epineurium) that also provide scaffolding for the blood vessels (vasa nervorum) (Fig. 1-60 and 61).

Every nerve fibre is in its entirety the process of a **single** neuron. With the process, a neuron can reach up to 2 meters in length (e.g. the left n. laryngeus recurrens of the horse).

Nerves connect the organs and the CNS to one another. The term peripheral nerves comprises of:

- efferent (axonal, motor) nerves,
- afferent (dendritic, sensory) nerves and
- peripheral glial cells (Schwann cells), which form the myelin sheaths.

The nerve fibres always transmit an impulse in **only one direction**. An **efferent** (Latin: carrying away) **nerve** conducts impulses from the CNS to the PNS (centrifugal direction, towards the periphery). These neurons are also referred to as **motor neurons**, because they carry the impulse to an effector organ, namely the muscles. The motor neuron nuclei of the peripheral nerves lie in the ventral horn of the grey matter in the spinal cord (spinal nerve) and in the grey matter within the brain stem (cranial nerves). Each muscle fibre (cell) is innervated by a single motor neuron.

Afferent (Latin: carrying towards) **nerves** conduct impulses from the **nerve endings** or **sensory cells** (receptor cells) of the PNS to the CNS (in a centripetal direction or towards the center). As in the central nervous system the impulse or nerve stimulus is registered as a conscious perception or sensation, the neuron is classified as a **sensory neuron**.

Most nerves are so-called **mixed nerves** because they include not only motor and sensory fibre qualities, but also nerve fibres of the vegetative, autonomic (sympathetic and parasympathetic) nervous system.

Motor and sensory roots

The motor output roots are the efferent nerve fibres that leave the spinal cord through the ventral roots of the spinal cord grey matter. Their nerve stimuli are carried to the skeletal musculature. Conversely, sensory input originating on the body surface or from the organs enters the CNS through the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves. These nerve bundles always pass through a sensory, dorsal root ganglion (ganglion spinale) and enter the CNS as a sensory root.

In a reflex arc, the impulse is directly transmitted from a sensory neuron to a motor neuron without first travelling to the brain. Reflex arcs exist as mono- or polysynaptic loops.

Ganglions (ganglia)

A ganglion is a cluster of nerve cell bodies (perikaryons) with similar functions located outside of the CNS. There are two types of ganglions:

- **sensory ganglia**, which include the perikaryon of the sensory nerves, and
- **vegetative ganglia**, which include the postganglionic motor neurons of the vegetative nervous system.

All **spinal ganglia** contain only **sensory neurons** and can be located as a swelling within the **sensory dorsal roots** (radices dorsales). These sensory ganglia are found on both sides of the spinal cord close to the intervertebral foramen.

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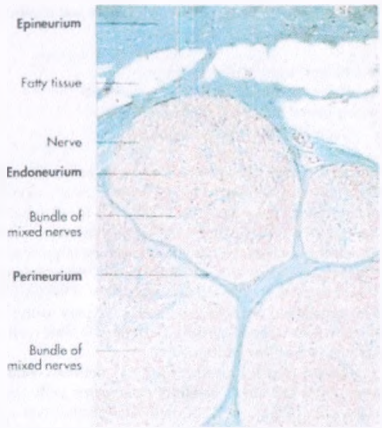


Fig. I-60. Bundles of mixed nerves enclosed in connective tissue sheaths (endo-, peri- and epineurium) (histological section, Goldner staining). Liebich, 2004.

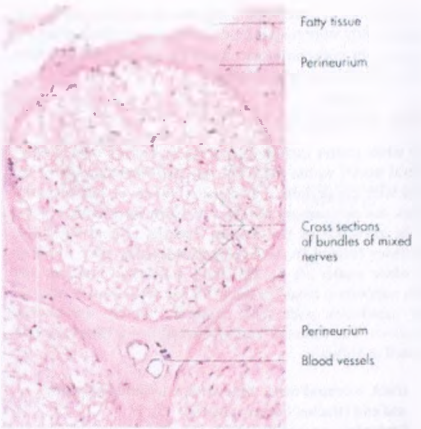


Fig. I-61. Bundles of mixed nerves enclosed in the peri- and epineurium, fatty tissue and blood vessels (histological section, hematoxylin and eosin staining). Liebich, 2004.

The cranial nerves (V and VII–X) also contain sensory ganglia that are equivalent to the spinal ganglia. Most of the neurons tend to be pseudounipolar and are sheathed in myelin by Schwann cells.

Vegetative ganglia are part of the autonomic nervous system and are postganglionic motor neurons. They can be classified as:

- **sympathetic chain ganglia** (truncus sympathicus),
- **prevertebral ganglia** (2nd neuron of the sympathetic tract for the abdominal organs),
- **parasympathetic ganglia** in the area of the head and
- **intramural ganglia** in the wall of the alimentary canal (plexus nervorum submucosus, plexus nervorum myentericus).

The vegetative ganglia are nerve networks whose multipolar neurons synapse with motor neurons or collateral tracts of the afferent fibres and the internal organs. The motor neurons of the vegetative ganglia innervate the smooth muscle cells of the organs, blood vessels, and organ-specific glands.

Somatic (voluntary) nervous system

The somatic nervous system is also referred to as the voluntary or animalistic nervous system. This system transmits nerve impulses over sensory neurons from the body surface or from the locomotor system to the CNS. The responses to these stimuli can vary greatly in type or quality and include the:

- innate reflex and
- acquired reflex.

A **reflex** exhibits the simplest level of control within the nervous system. The nerve impulse of an **innate reflex** is triggered by a stimulus (e.g. muscle or tendon stretching) and carried by an afferent, sensory nerve fibre. The response to this stimulus occurs through a simple reflex arc (stretch or tendon reflex) ending in an efferent motor neuron. This type of reflex is a **monosynaptic reflex** which occurs unconsciously and quickly, and the response is always the same (e.g. patellar reflex, achilles tendon reflex). **Polysynaptic reflex arcs** occur when more than two neurons are involved in the response to the stimulus, meaning the impulse is transmitted over more than two synapses. **Acquired reflexes** are learned reflexes, such as the salivation reflex in Pavlov's dogs.

Vegetative (autonomic) nervous system

The vegetative nervous system regulates the internal environment of the body. It presides over the visceral activity of the organs – for example, respiration, digestion, circulation of the blood and sexual functions. In addition, pressure or temperature changes as well as oxygen levels in the blood are registered by the viscerosensory ganglia (glomus caroticum, glomus aorticum). (For further information see Chapter 14.) The vegetative nervous system is divided into the:

- sympathetic nervous system (pars sympathica, sympathicus),
- parasympathetic nervous system (pars parasympathica, parasympathicus) and
- enteric nervous system.

The sympathicus and parasympathicus are two contrasting, **antagonistic systems** of control over visceral activity.

The **nuclei of the sympathicus** are present only in the thoracic and lumbar regions of the **spinal cord** (thoracolumbar outflow). The sympathic axons leave the ventral horn of

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spinal cord together with motor neurons and continue to sympathetic chain. The **sympathetic chain** (truncus sympathicus, paired paravertebral sympathetic chain ganglia) is a series of linked sympathetic ganglia adjacent and parallel to each side of the **vertebral column in the thoracolumbar** region. From here, the sympathetic nerve fibre bundles pass through separated ganglions to the organs.

It is often said that the sympathicus prepares the individual for fight or flight. The **sympathicus activates vital functions** (catabolic function):

- increases blood pressure,
- increases heart and respiratory rates,
- constricts the blood vessels (vasoconstriction),
- mobilises glucose (glycolysis),
- increases perspiration, raises hair, dilates the pupils and
- reduces activity of the alimentary canal.

The sympathicus is said to be adrenergic because the neurotransmitters released during stimulation are noradrenaline and neuropeptide Y. Pharmacologically, the sympathicus can be stimulated by sympathomimetic drugs and inhibited by sympatholytic drugs; β-blockers decrease the heart rate and lower blood pressure through vasodilation.

The **parasympathicus** antagonises the sympathicus in that it restores the body to a restful or idle state. It contains cranial organic nuclei: cranial nuclei in the **brain stem** (cranial parasympathicus) and caudal nuclei in the **sacral region of** the spinal cord (pelvic parasympathicus). The majority of parasympathetic nerve fibres are contained in the **cranial** nerve X (n. vagus).

The preganglionic neurons are located in the parasympathetic ganglia in the head region as well as in the prevertebral and terminal ganglia of the organs. The **parasympathicus** increases the body's use of energy (**trophotropic functions**) by:

- decreasing heart and respiratory rates to their basal values,
- constricting the bronchies,
- constricting the pupils,
- stimulating digestion and
- increasing metabolism.

The parasympathicus is said to be cholinergic because the most important transmitter released is acetylcholine. One cotransmitter is vasoactive intestinal peptide, or VIP. The most commonly known parasympatholytic agent, an inhibitor of the parasympathicus, is atropin. Locally applied to the eyes, atropin causes dilatation of the pupils. The **enteric system** is located in the wall of the alimentary canal. It is independent of but can be modified by the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. This system contains two nerve networks:

- submucosal nerve plexus (plexus nervorum submucosus, Meissner plexus) in the tela submucosa and
- myenteric nerve plexus (plexus nervorum myentericus, Auerbach plexus) in the tunica muscularis.

In these nerve networks, the multipolar neurons interconnect and couple to form woven patches of nerve processes, termed plexuses (plexus entericus). The Meissner plexus controls resorption and secretion in the wall of the alimentary canal along with the sympathetic and parasympathetic plexus. The Auerbach plexus regulates intestinal motility. The nonmyelinated nerve fibres synapse with as many as 107 or 108 interneurons. The neurotransmitters of the enteric system are the substances noradrenaline, serotonin and acetylcholin.

Nerve transmission of information

Synapses

Complex systems of neurons are dependent on junctions capable of transmitting nerve impulses between neurons, muscle cells and glandular cells. These gaps between the various cells involved in nerve signalling are termed **synapses** and play an extremely important role in the transmission of impulses. One neuron can be equipped with only a few hundred synapses or with far more than a thousand. Synapses break up a network of neurons into functional units responsible for processing information. Without synapses, a nerve impulse could spread throughout an entire network of interconnected neurons, inevitably causing an overload of information or signals. Neighboring cells exchange information through synapses functioning as inhibitors or enhancers (inhibitory/excitatory synapses).

Information travelling through the nervous system is transmitted in the form of electrical and chemical signals. An electrical signal is propagated by decreasing the membrane potential in the neurons (electrical synapse). A chemical signal is propagated through the release of neurotransmitters at the synapse (e.g. acetylcholin, noradrenalin, dopamin, serotonin). A synapse is comprised of the following structures:

- **presynaptic neuron** (with the bulbous corpuscle) with the presynaptic membrane,
- **synaptic gap** and
- **postsynaptic neuron** with the postsynaptic membrane.

The synaptic bulbous corpuscle varies according to the type of tissue in which it is found:

- neurosensory synapses (e.g. sensory nerves of the ears or tongue),
- neuroglandular synapses (e.g. endocrine and exocrine organs),
- interneuronal synapses between the perikarya, dendrites or axons of neurons and
- neuromuscular synapses (motor end plate).

Neuroglandular synapses are also called neuroepithelial synapses. Together with hormones, these synapses enhance or inhibit glandular secretion. For example, parasympathetic nerve fibres promote salivation, whereas sympathetic fibres inhibit it.

Neuromuscular synapses are responsible for the transmission of nerve impulses to skeletal muscle. Acetylcholin functions as the neurotransmitter, which binds to postsynaptic receptors, causing depolarisation of the cell membrane

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(**excitatory synapse**). The axon of the motor neuron diverges into many smaller, collateral branches, forming bulbous corpuscles or **boutons at their ends**. The neurotransmitter is stored in vesicles located at the ends of the presynaptic neurons. Upon arrival of an electrical nerve impulse, the neurotransmitter is released into the synapse through exocytosis. The transport vesicle fuses with the postsynaptic membrane of the muscle cell. This reaction is high dependent on the presence of calcium. Specific toxins inhibit this specific interaction (e.g. tetanus toxin and botulin neurotoxin).

The most important **neurotransmitters** are **acetylcholin (cholinergic receptors)** and **noradrenalin (adrenergic receptors)**. **Cholinergic receptors** are found in the motor endplates, in all parasympathetic synapses, in the postganglionic synapses of the sweat glands, in the arteriovenous anastomoses and in the CNS. Blocking the cholinergic receptors, for example with curare, causes total relaxation of the skeletal muscle. This mechanism is taken advantage of in anaesthetics.

Adrenergic receptors are divided into α- and β-receptors. The stimulation of α_1-receptors leads to vasoconstriction and the stimulation of α_2-receptors to vasodilatation. Activation of β_1-receptors increases heart rate and intestinal motility, whereas activation of β_2-receptors inhibits the bronchus and smooth muscle. It is possible to block receptors with a substance (receptor blockers) that renders the neurotransmitters ineffective. So called β-receptor blockers inhibit the positive chronotropic effect of β_1-receptors on the heart and are prescribed to treat high blood pressure.

Neuromodulators (cotransmitters, e.g. substance P, endorphine, neuropeptide Y, and somatostatin) influence the excitability of nerves over a longer time period. After stimulation, the neurotransmitter must be inactivated as quickly as possible to prevent an uncontrolled, permanent depolarisation of the postsynaptic neuron. Otherwise, the neurotransmitter accumulates in the synapse, and, in the case of a neuromuscular end plate, paralysis of the musculature can result. Inactivation of synaptic excitation occurs through one of three mechanisms: enzymes (e.g. acetylcholinase) break down the neurotransmitter in the synaptic gap; the transport vesicle is recycled; or the neighboring glial cells break down or inactivate the transmitter.

Barriers in the nervous system

Biological barriers exist in the nervous system to control the access of blood components to nerve tissue. Nerve tissue functions only within a well-controlled environment separate from the milieu of the periphery. However, a selective exchange of substances serving nutritional and detoxification purposes is indispensable to maintain nerve function. The barriers of the nervous system include the:

- blood-brain barrier,
- blood-liquor barrier and
- blood-nerve barrier.

The mechanisms that control the unique environment of the brain are collectively referred to as the **blood-brain barrier**. The blood-brain barrier strictly limits transport into the brain with both physical (tight junctions) and metabolic (enzymes) barriers. This barrier consists of endothelial cells of the capillaries, which allow the unhindered passage of certain (e.g. fat-soluble) substances only. Other substances are actively carried through this barrier by receptor-mediated transport (e.g. glucose or amino acids).

The **blood-liquor barrier** is formed by the epithelial cells of the choroid plexus (plexus choroideus) in the ventricles of the brain (ventriculi cerebri) and functions much like the blood-brain barrier. The ependymal cells, which line the ventricles, form a continuous sheet around the choroid plexus. The ependymal cells fold over onto themselves, forming the double-layered arachnoid membrane. Within this double layer is the subarachnoid space, which participates in liquor drainage.

A barrier present in the peripheral nervous system is referred to as the **blood-nerve barrier**. It is a semipermeable, diffusion barrier between the endoneurium and the capillaries of the vasa nervorum, whose endothelial cells form tight junctions that establish the barrier. This barrier has been found to be relatively less effective within nerve roots, dorsal root ganglia, and autonomic ganglia than along the rest of the nerve.

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1 Axial skeleton (skeleton axiale)

H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

The axial skeleton comprises the:

- skeleton of the head,
  - skull,
  - cranial part (cranium, neurocranium),
  - facial part (facies, viscerocranium),
  - mandible,
  - hyoid apparatus,
  - ossicles of the middle ear,
- vertebral column and
- skeleton of the thorax.

Skull

The skull forms a rigid construction composed of many bones, which are mostly paired. It encompasses and protects the brain and the sensory organs of sight, smell, sound, balance and taste. It also forms part of the upper respiratory and alimentary tracts. Many projections form attachments for the facial and masticatory musculature.

The individual bones of the skull are firmly united by sutures (suturae), whereas the **lower jaw** (mandible) and the **hyoid apparatus** (apparatus hyoideus) are attached to the skull by articular joints (Fig. 1-1, 2, 26 to 29 and 31 to 33).

Few bones of the head have their embryological origins in the **axial skeleton**, the majority are ossified structures of a **dermal skeleton**. The bones derived from the dermal skeleton develop by membranous ossification and cover the lateral and dorsal aspects of the brain, whereas the bones of the cranial skeleton develop by endochondral ossification and form the base of the skull and parts of the facial skull.

The **individual bones** develop from **separate centres** of ossification. In young animals they are divided by strips of fibrous, or less often, cartilagenous tissue. This form of development provides the adaptability of the skull for postnatal growth. In the newborn, the facial part of the skull is comparatively small, due to the disproportionate small size of the masticatory apparatus, the nasal cavities and the paranasal sinuses. In the postnatal period, the proportions of the skull change.

This is due to the species specific development of the roof of the skull and the individual bones and also the enlargement of the skull as a whole, which is significantly influenced by the growth of the teeth, the formation of the paranasal sinuses and the elongation of the base of the skull. This remodelling is a long process, which continues for some structures of the skull throughout the whole life.

Vertebral column or spine

The bony components of the vertebral bodies are derived from the axial, perichondral mesenchymal of the sclerotomes. The **intervertebral discs** (disci intervertebrales) are considered to be remnants of this original tissue. The embryological precursor of the vertebral body forms a bony arch dorsally, thus completing the central **foramen of the vertebra** (foramen vertebrae), which encloses the spinal cord.

The individual vertebrae are joined together by articular processes and ligaments. The vertebral column as a whole consists of a series of separate bones, the vertebrae, which extend from the skull to the tip of the tail. Starting with the **foramen magnum** at the skull and ending with the **sacral canal** (canalis sacralis), the vertebral foramina of the single vertebrae sum up to constitute the **vertebral canal** (canalis vertebralis), which encompasses the spinal cord (medulla spinalis), its meninges, the spinal nerves (nervi spinales), blood vessels and connective tissue. The separate vertebrae are not joined rigidly together, but have spaces between them (spatia intervertebralia) for the passage of the spinal nerves.

Along the long axis of the vertebral column **three major curvatures** are recognised:

- dorsal convex curvature between the head and neck,
- dorsal-concave curvature between the cervical and thoracic spine,
- dorsal-convex curvature between the thoracic lumbar spine.

The vertebral column serves to support the body and takes over a central function as part of the locomotor system by forming a bridge between the thoracic and pelvic limbs. The cranial thoracic vertebrae of the vertebral column are supported by the ribs, which are linked to the thorax by muscles and tendons. This anatomical arrangement provides stability and mobility for the vertebral column. In the region of the pelvis the vertebral column is firmly joined to the pelvic limb by the articulation of the **sacral wings** to the **ilia**. Thus the propel-

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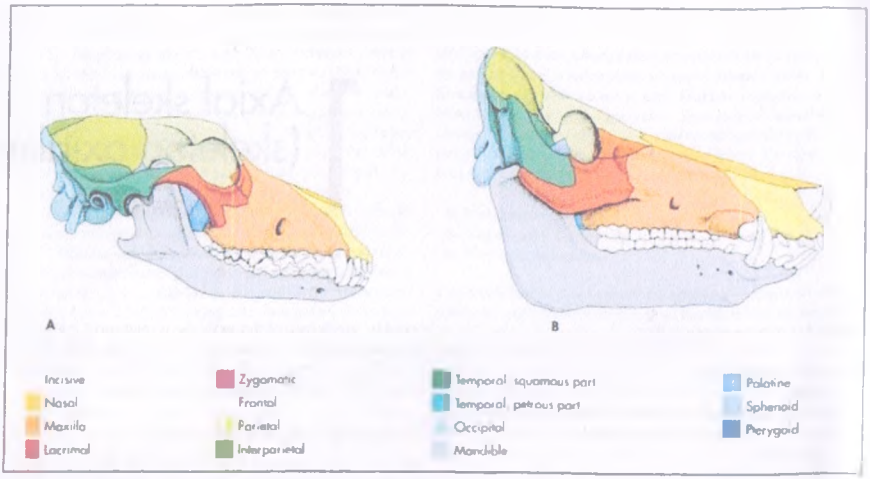


Fig. 1-1. Bones of the skull and mandible of the dog (A) and pig (B), (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

ling force of the hindlimb, generated by the muscles and the hip joint, is transmitted directly to the rest of the body.

The vertebral column fulfills various additional functions. As movement between the individual vertebrae is limited, it contributes to the maintenance of posture. However, the degree of movability of the individual vertebrae forms the basis for dynamic functions, including the transmission and reduction of forces during walking, running and jumping. The smallest functional unit consists of two successive vertebrae, the intervertebral disc, their articulations, ligaments and muscles. Even small anatomical changes of one of the components will result in a significant disturbance of the locomotory system. The movability of the vertebral column varies in the different segments; for example, it is very rigid in the region of the sacrum, while the caudal vertebrae remain quite flexible.

The vertebral column in the thoracic and lumbar region allows movement in three directions. Small movements of the individual intervertebral joints cause dorsal, ventral and lateral flexion of the whole column. Considerable lateral, dorsal and ventral movements are possible in the neck.

Thorax

The rib cage is composed of the **thoracic vertebrae** (vertebrae thoracicae) dorsally, the **ribs** (costae) laterally and the **sternum** ventrally. They form the bony components of the thoracic wall and are joined functionally by a variety of ligaments, chondral junctions and true articulations. The rib cage encloses the **thoracic cavity** (cavum thoracis) and is kept under tension by its surrounding muscles. The thorax of the domestic mammals has the shape of a laterally compressed, truncated cone, with its apex pointing cranially and its base caudally. It has a **cranial** and a **caudal aperture** (apertura thoracis cranialis et caudalis).

Skeleton of the head

Skull, neural part (cranium, neurocranium)

The bones of the neural or cranial part of the skull enclose the **cranial cavity** (cavum cranii), including the brain, its meninges and blood vessels. The structure of the cranium is a collection of many smaller bones, that fit together in a species specific construction. Skulls differ largely, not only between different species and breeds, but also between individuals of the same breed, age and sex. The basic anatomical architecture of the neural part of the skull will be described, with species specific variations emphasised. The cranium is formed by the same bones in all domestic mammals:

- **the floor is composed of the**
  - unpaired basioccipital bone (pars basilaris ossis occipitalis),
  - unpaired basisphenoid and presphenoid bones (os basisphenoidale et os presphenoidale),
- **the nuchal wall is composed of the**
  - unpaired supraoccipital bone (squamous part, squama occipitalis),
  - unpaired exoccipital bones (lateral parts, partes laterales),

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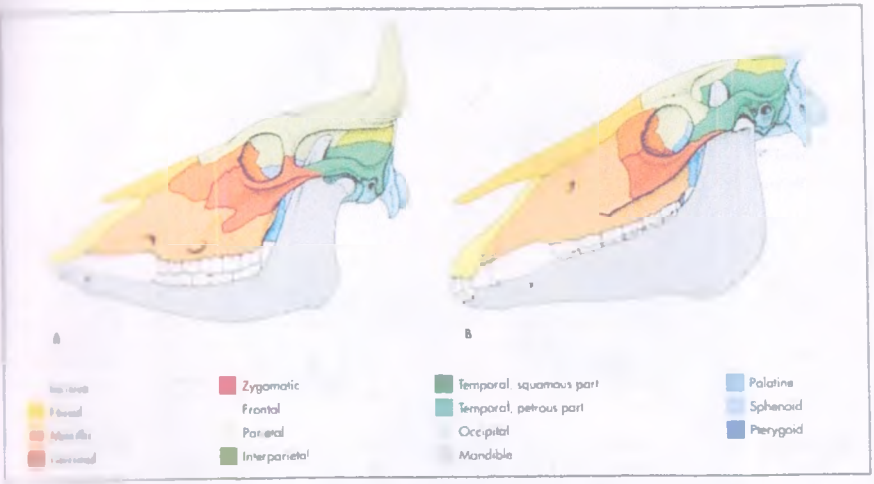


Fig. 1-5. Bones of the skull and mandible of the ox (A) and horse (B), (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

- **The lateral walls are composed of the**
  - paired temporal bone (os temporale),
- **The roof is composed of the**
  - paired frontal bone (os frontale),
  - paired parietal bone (os parietale),
  - unpaired interparietal bone (os interparietale),
- **The nasal wall is composed of the**
  - unpaired ethmoid bone (os ethmoidale).

Occipital bone (os occipitale)

The occipital bone forms the nuchal wall of the skull and can be divided into the **basilar part**, the **squamous part** and the lateral parts (Fig. 1-1 to 4). These bones form a ring surrounding the spinal canal, the **foramen magnum**.

The **basilar part** (pars basilaris, basiocipital bone) constitutes the caudal part of the base of the cranium. It is situated ventral to the foramen magnum, where it is joined to the basisphenoid by a cartilagenous suture (Fig. 1-4). On the ventral surface are the paired **muscular tubercles** (tuberculi musculares) for the attachment of the flexors of the head and neck. The surface of the cranium is concave, forming the **caudal cranial fossa** (fossa cranii caudalis) (Fig. 1-5), which is subdivided into rostral and caudal depressions. The rostral depression encompasses the pons (impressio pontina) and the caudal depression encompasses the medulla oblongata (impressio medullaris).

The **jugular foramen** (foramen jugulare) is located either side of the basilar part, adjacent to the tympanic bullae (Fig. 1-3, 5, 8, 9, 13 and 14). In the pig and the horse the deep and thin lateral borders of the basilar part form the deep **petro-occipital fissure** (fissura petro-occipitalis) together with the petrosal part (pars petrosa) of the temporal bone where the foramen lacerum is built (Fig. 1-43 and 44).

The **squamous part** (pars squamosa, supraoccipital bone) is situated dorsal to the **lateral parts** (partes laterales ossis occipitalis) and the **occipital condyles** (condyli occipitales), completing the foramen magnum dorsally (Fig. 1-3 and 4). Its **external surface** (lamina externa) is demarcated by a sharp-edged ridge, the **nuchal crest** (crista nuchae) (Fig. 1-4, 11 and 12). In ruminants, the nuchal crest is reduced to the prominant **nuchal line** (linea nuchae). The nuchal crest is easily palpable and can be used as a landmark, together with the wings of the atlas, for the collection of cerebrospinal fluid.

The well-defined median ridge, the **external sagittal crest** (crista sagittalis externa), arises from the nuchal crest in carnivores and the horse (Fig. 1-4, 11 and 12). The **external occipital protuberances** (protuberantia occipitalis externa) (Fig. 1-15) are median triangular projections with the base pointing towards the base of the cranium, and provide attachments for the **nuchal ligament** (ligamentum nuchae). In carnivores, the poorly defined external occipital crest extends from the external occipital protuberance to the foramen magnum (Fig. 1-4).

The **internal surface of the cranium** (lamina interna) has many shallow depressions, which conform to the surface of the cerebellum (impressiones vermiales) and the basal blood vessels (sulci sinus transversi). The internal surface is marked by the **internal occipital protuberance** (protuberantia occipitalis interna). Carnivores and horses have an additional process, the tentorial process (processus tentoricus), which forms the Tentorium cerebelli osseum (Fig. 1-5 and 13), together with like-named processes of the parietal and interparietal bones.

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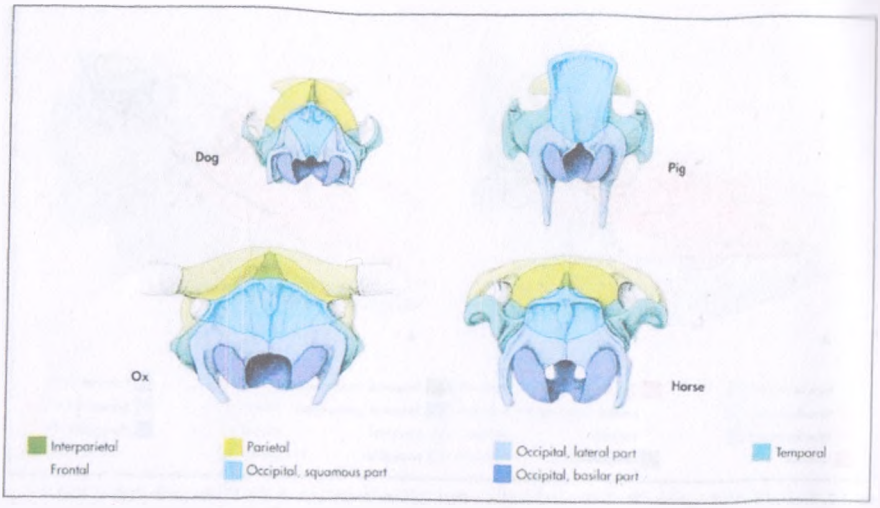


Fig. 1-3. Nuchal aspect of the canine, porcine, bovine and equine skull (schematic); after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

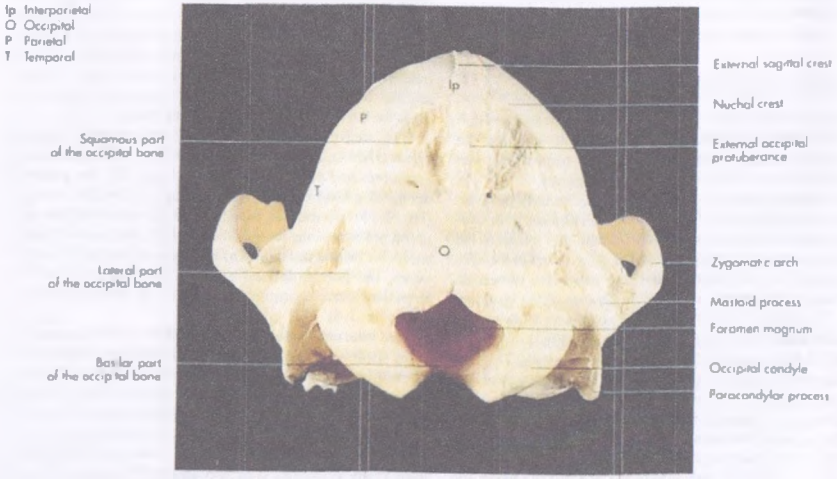
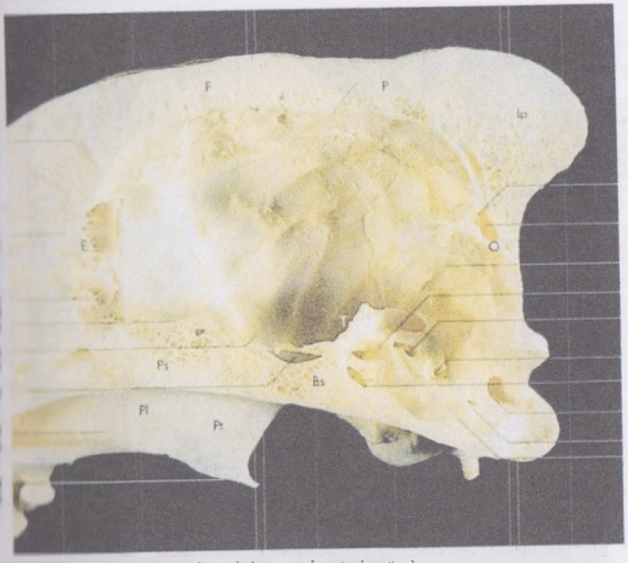


Fig. 1-4. Nuchal aspect of a canine skull

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Bs Basisphenoid
E Ethmoidal
F Frontal
Ip Interparietal
O Occipital
P Parietal
Pl Palatine
Ps Presphenoid
Pt Pterygoid
T Temporal

Tentorial process

Transverse sinus canal

Tentorium cerebelli osseum
Petrous part of temporal
Internal acoustic meatus

Jugular foramen

Carotid canal

Condyloid canal

Hypoglossal canal
Caudal cranial fossa

Fig. 1.8 Bones of the cranial part of a canine skull (medial aspect of sagittal section)



Intercondyloid incisure

Ventral condyloid fossa

Hypoglossal canal

Basi-occipital

Muscular process

Retroarticular process

Carotid canal
Caudal alar foramen
Rostral alar foramen

Orbital fissure
Optic canal

Ethmoid foramen

Bs Basisphenoid
F Frontal
M Maxilla
O Occipital
Pl Palatine
Ps Presphenoid
Pt Pterygoid
T Temporal
Z Zygomatic

Fig. 1.9 Bones of the cranial part of a canine skull (ventral aspect)

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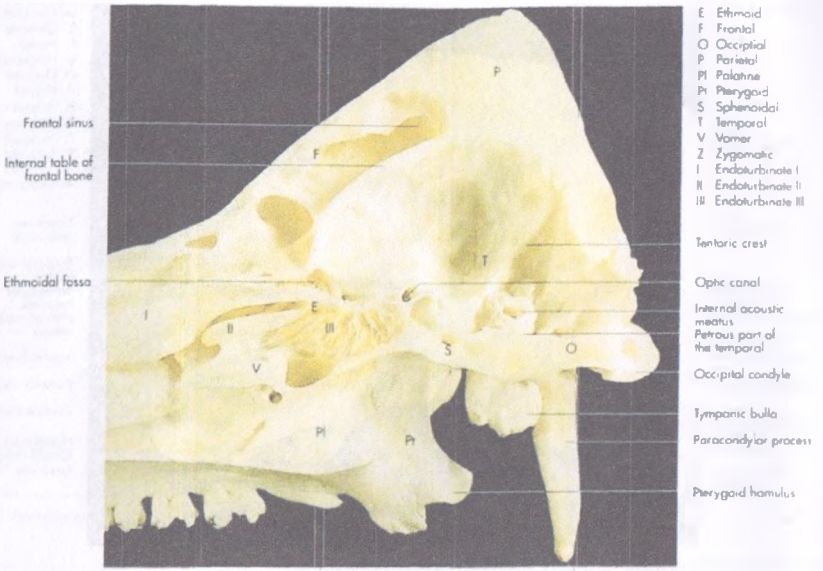


Fig. 1-7. Bones of the cranial part of a porcine skull (medial aspect of sagittal section)

The **lateral parts of the occipital bone** (partes laterales, exoccipital bones) form the lateral borders of the foramen magnum. They include the **occipital condyles** (condyli occipitales), which articulate with the atlas to form the atlantooccipital joint (Fig. 1-4 and 6 to 9). Lateral to the condylar process, the **paracondylar processes** (processus paracondylares), provide attachment to the specific muscles of the head (as described in Chapter 2).

These processes are elongated in the pig, shorter in ruminants and the horse and bulb-shaped in carnivores (Fig. 1-4, 6, 7 and 9). They are thought to be rudimentary transverse processes analogous with those of the cervical vertebrae. The ventral **condyloid fossa** (fossa condylaris ventralis) (Fig. 1-8), which forms the end of the **hypoglossal canal** (canalis nervi hypoglossi), through which the hypoglossal nerve passes, is located between the paracondylar and the condylar process (Fig. 1-6, 8 and 14). This fossa is continuous with the **dorsal condylar fossa** (fossa condylaris dorsalis).

Sphenoid bone (os sphenoidale)

The **sphenoid bone** forms the rostral part of the base of the neurocranium and consists of two similar segments, the **presphenoid** (os praesphenoidale) rostrally and the **basisphenoid** (os basisphenoidale) caudally (Fig. 1-1, 2, 5 to 10).

Each bone is composed of a **median body** (corpus ossis sphenoidalis) and **wings** (alae ossis sphenoidalis) laterally. In humans these bones fuse firmly in early life, while in adolescent domestic mammals they are separated by a cartilagenous suture, which ossifies in the adult. Therefore they are considered as individual bones in veterinary anatomy.

Presphenoid (os praesphenoidale)

The **body** and **wings of the presphenoid** (corpus et alae ossis praesphenoidalis) constitute the bony parts of the **rostral cranial fossa** (fossa cranii rostralis) and articulate with the basisphenoid caudally (Fig. 1-9). The body of the presphenoid is hollow and encloses the paired **sphenoid sinuses** (sinus sphenoidales), which are separated by an incomplete septum (Fig. 1-13). The beak-shaped **sphenoidal rostrum** (rostrum sphenoidale) projects from the body rostrally towards the ethmoid. Just caudal to this, there is a transverse depression (sulcus chiasmatis) on which the **optic chiasma** (chiasma opticum) rests. The bony **optic canal** (canalis opticus) extends from each end of this groove over the wings of the presphenoid through which the optic nerve passes (Fig. 1-7 and 9).

The external surface of the **wings of the presphenoid** (alae ossis praesphenoidales) contribute to the formation of the orbit and the optic canal, whereas the internal surface forms part of the cranial cavity.

Basisphenoid (os basisphenoidale)

The **body** and **wings of the basisphenoid** (corpus et alae ossis basisphenoidalis) consitute the bony parts of the **medial**

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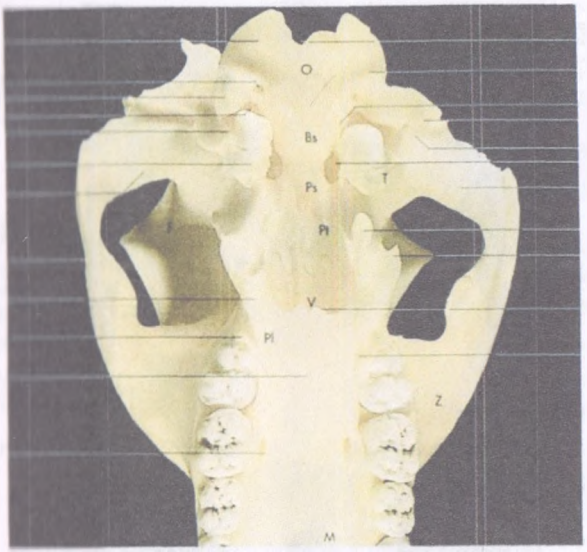


Fig. 1-1 Bones of the cranial part of a porcine skull (ventral aspect)

is perforated by the **alar canal** (canalis alaris), through which the maxillary artery passes. It originates with the **caudal alar foramen** (foramen alare caudale) and terminates with the **rostral alar foramen** (foramen alare rostrale) (Fig. 1-6).

Temporal bone (os temporale)

The temporal bone of the newborn animal consists of three distinct parts (Fig. 1-1 and 2), which unite later in life:

- squamous part (pars squamosa; squama temporalis, squamosa),
- petrosal part (pars petrosa, petrosum) with its mastoid process (processus mastoideus) and
- tympanic part (pars tympanica).

The petrosal and tympanic parts are sometimes also called the pyramid and are firmly fused to the squamous part in carnivores and in the ox, but remain separated in the other domestic mammals.

The **cerebral surface** (facies cerebralis) of the **squamous part** (pars squamosa, squama temporalis, squamosum) contributes to the formation of the lateral wall of the cranial cavity. It unites with the frontal, parietal and sphenoid bones in firm osseous sutures.

The long **zygomatic process** (processus zygomaticus) arises from the temporal surface (facies temporalis) of the squamous part. It extends rostrolaterally to unite with the **temporal**

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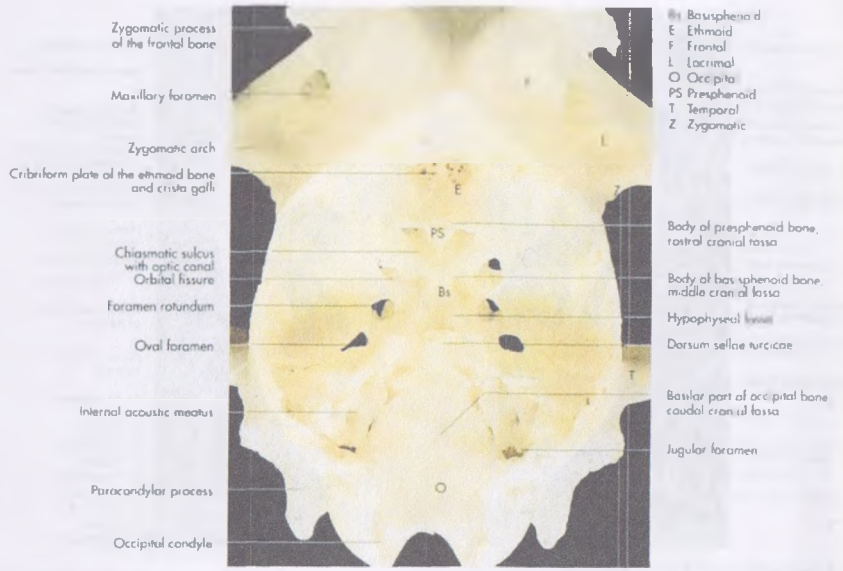


Fig. 1-9. Cranial cavity of a dog with calvaria removed (dorsocaudal aspect).

process of the zygomatic bone, forming the **zygomatic arch** (arcus zygomaticus) (Fig. 1-4, 6 and 8). The base of the zygomatic process expands to form the articulating surface of the **temporomandibular joint** (articulatio temporomandibularis). This articulating surface consists of a transversely elongated **articular tubercle** (tuberculum articulare) rostrally and the **mandibular fossa** (fossa mandibularis) caudal to it (Fig. 1-8).

The mandibular fossa is delimited caudally by the **retroarticular process** (processus retroarticularis) (Fig. 1-8). While the articular tubercle is missing in carnivores, these species have an especially well-developed **retroarticular process** (Fig. 1-6 and 8).

The caudal part of the squamous part forms the **occipital process** (processus occipitalis); the ventral surface forms the **retrotympanic process** (processus retrotympanicus), which surrounds the **external acoustic meatus** (meatus acusticus externus) caudally. The **retroarticular foramen** (foramen retroarticulare) exits caudal to the latter process and forms the end of the **temporal canal** (meatus temporalis) (Fig. 1-11). The temporal canal is rudimentary in the cat and pig.

The **petrosal part** (pars petrosa, petrosum) is the caudoventral portion of the temporal bone and is bordered by the squamous and the **tympanic parts** (Fig. 1-5 and 7). It encloses the **inner ear** with the **cochlea**, the **vestibule** (vestibulum) and the **semicircular canals** (canales semicirculares). Its medial surface (facies medialis) is perforated by the entrance (porus acusticus internus) of the **internal acoustic meatus** (meatus acusticus internus) (Fig. 1-15), through which the cranial nerves of the face, the **facial nerve** (n. facialis) and of hearing and balance, the **vestibulocochlear nerve** (n. vestibulocochlearis) pass (Fig. 1-5 and 7). The rostral and medial surfaces of the petrosal part are separated by the sharp-edged **petrosal crest** (crista partis petrosae) in carnivores and the horse (Fig. 1-13).

Caudally, the petrosal part extends beyond the skull, forming the **mastoid process** (processus mastoideus) ventrally (Fig. 1-6 and 41). The mastoid process is a strong, bulb-shaped projection in the horse, whereas it is smaller in the other domestic mammals. Attachment for the **hyoid apparatus** (apparatus hyoideus) is provided by the cylindrical **styloid process** (processus styloideus) in horses and ruminants, which is positioned rostroventral to the external acoustic meatus of the petrosal part (Fig. 1-14 and 16). The styloid process is absent in carnivores and the pig and therefore the hyoid apparatus articulates with the mastoid process of the petrosal part in carnivores (Fig. 1-6) and the nuchal process (processus nuchalis) of the squamous part, which is located close to the base of the paracondylar process in the pig. The external opening of the facial canal, where the facial nerve emerges, the **stylomastoid foramen** (foramen stylomastoideum) is situated between the styloid and mastoid process in ruminants, the pig and the horse and between the mastoid process and the tympanic part in carnivores (Fig. 1-41 and 43).

The **tympanic part** (pars tympanica, tympanicum) is the ventral portion of the temporal bone. Its bullous enlargement, the **tympanic bulla** (bulla tympanica) encloses the tympanic

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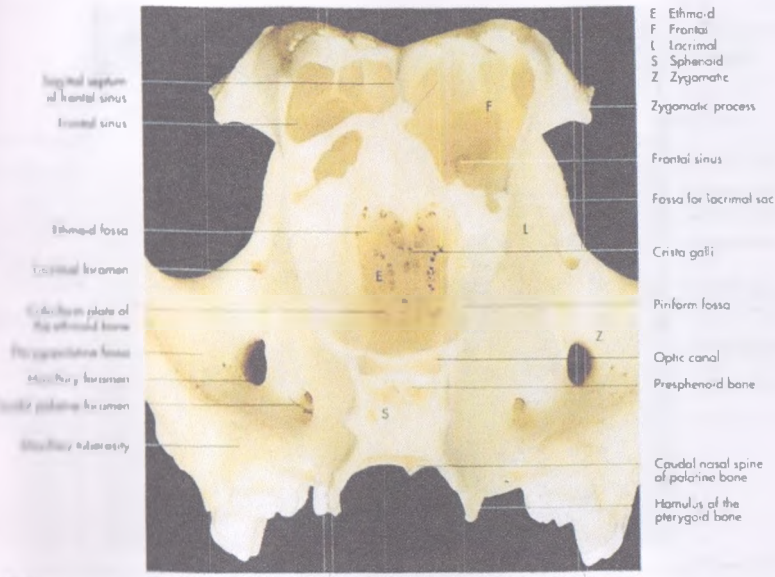


Fig. 1-10 Transverse section of a canine cranial cavity caudal to the zygomatic process of the frontal bone.

- **frontal squama** (squama frontalis),
- **orbital part** (pars orbitalis),
- **temporal surface** (facies temporalis) and
- **nasal part** (pars nasalis).

The **frontal squama** is bordered by the nasal and lacrimal bone in large animals and is limited to the wall of the orbital cavity in carnivores. It extends to form the **zygomatic process** (processus zygomaticus) laterally (Fig. 1-10, 11 and 12), which forms part of the **dorsal margin of the orbit** (margo supraorbitalis) (Fig. 1-11). The zygomatic process articulates in a species-specific way. In ruminants it forms an osseous union with the frontal process of the zygomatic bone (processus frontalis ossis zygomatici), in horses with the zygomatic process of the temporal bone (processus zygomaticus ossis temporalis) (Fig. 1-11). In carnivores the dorsal margin of the orbit is formed by the **orbital ligament** (ligamentum orbitale). This ligament is often ossified in the cat. The osseous orbit is indented by the lacrimal gland (fossa glandulae lacrimalis), which lies under the zygomatic process (Fig. 1-11) or the orbital ligament, respectively.

The frontal squama is separated from the temporal surface by the **temporal line** (linea temporalis), which extends caudally as the **external sagittal crest** (crista sagittalis externa) (Fig. 1-11 and 12). While it is a prominent structure in the dog, horse and ox, it is insignificant in the other domestic mammals. In horned ruminants the caudal end of the frontal

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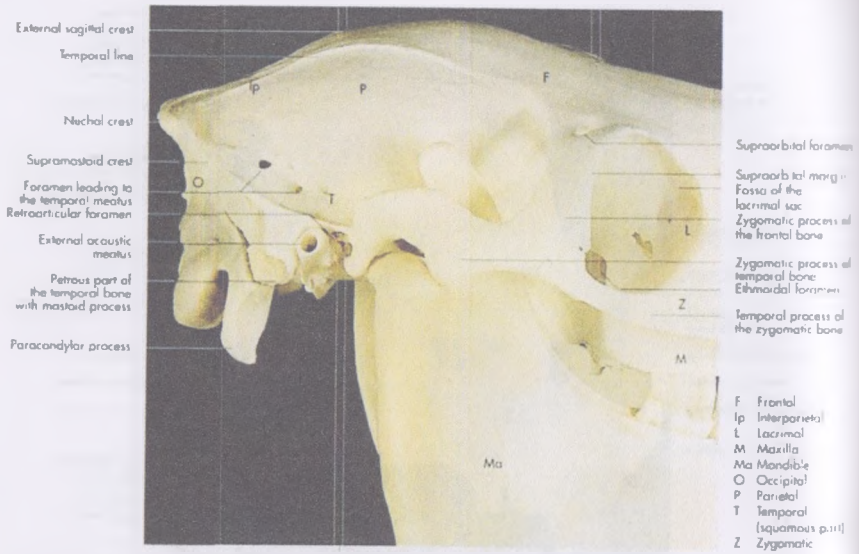


Fig. 1-11. Bones of the cranial part of an equine skull (lateral aspect)

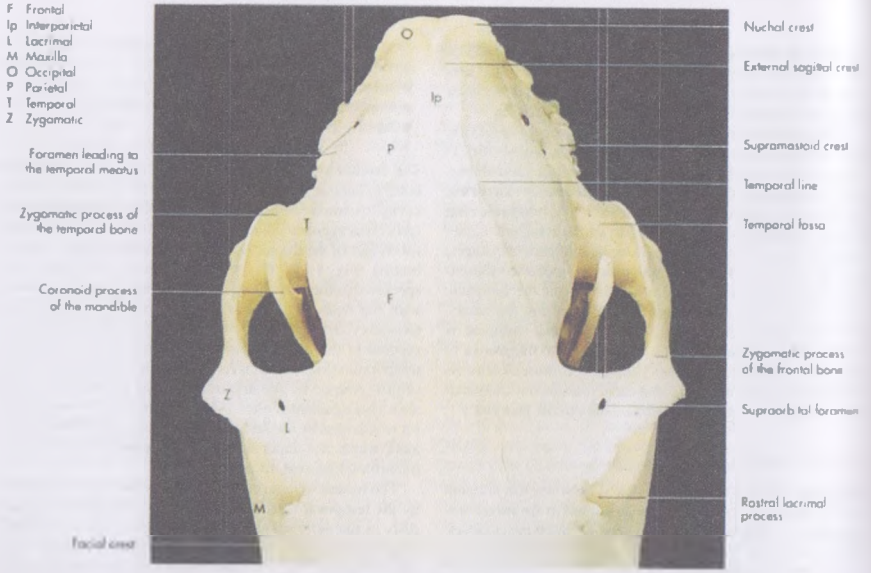
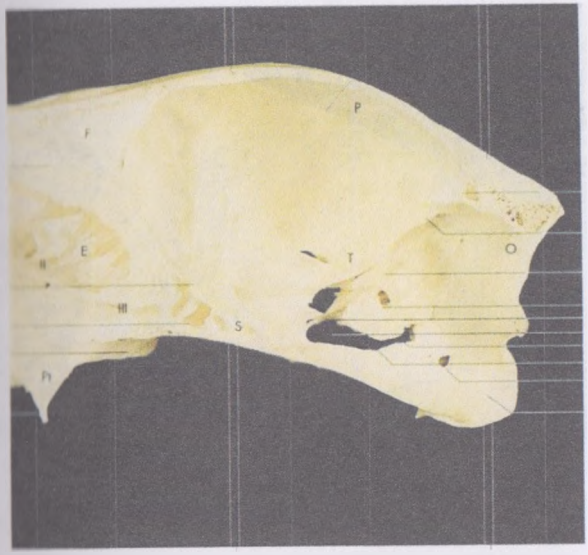


Fig. 1-12. Bones of the cranial part of an equine skull (dorsal aspect)

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F Frontal
E Ethmoid
O Occipital
P Parietal
Pt Pterygoid
S Sphenoid
T Temporal

II Endoturbinate II
III Endoturbinate III

Tentorium cerebelli osseum

Petrosal crest

Petrous part of the temporal bone

Internal acoustic meatus
Muscular process
Foramen lacerum
Jugular foramen
Petro occipital fissure

Hypoglossal canal

Occipital condyle

Fig. 1.18. Bones of the cranial part of an equine skull (medial aspect of sagittal section)



Squamous part of the occipital bone

Occipital condyle

Ventral condylar fossa

Paracondylar process

Jugular foramen
Petro occipital fissure

Petrous part of the temporal bone

Foramen lacerum

Muscular tubercle

Hamulus of the pterygoid bone

Fig. 1.19. Bones of the cranial part of an equine skull (ventral aspect)

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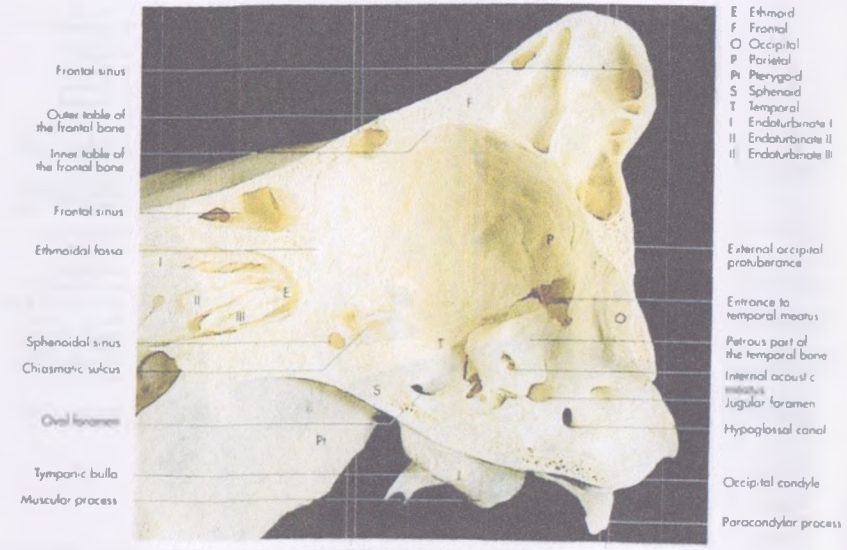


Fig. 1-15. Bones of the cranial part of a bovine skull (medial aspect of sagittal section).

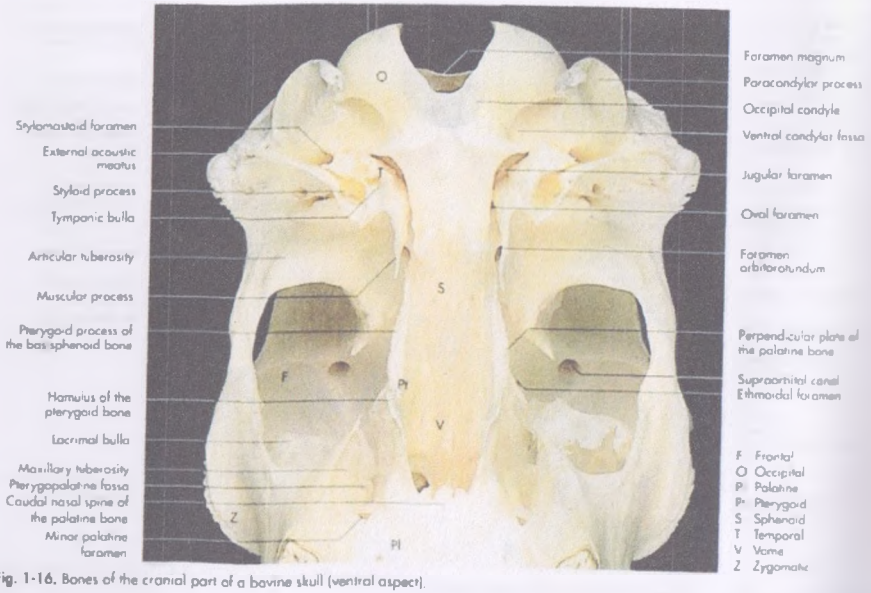


Fig. 1-16. Bones of the cranial part of a bovine skull (ventral aspect).

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Fig. 1-11 Transverse section of the nasal cavity of a dog

paired **cornual processes** (processus cornuales), each supporting the horn.

The **nasal part** (pars nasalis) is the rostral extension of the frontal bone and is neighboured by the nasal bone rostrally and the lacrimal bone laterally. The **orbital part** (pars orbitalis) forms the major part of the medial wall of the orbital cavity, and is perforated ventrally by the **ethmoidal foramen** (foramen ethmoidale) (Fig. 1-6, 11 and 16). In the horse the ethmoidal foramen opens on the border between the frontal and lacrimal bone. Medial to the base of the zygomatic process of the orbital part is indented by a shallow groove for the attachment of the dorsal oblique muscle of the eyeball.

Caudal to the orbital part is the small, concave temporal surface (facies temporalis). It forms the rostral part of the temporal fossa (fossa temporalis), which provides attachment for the temporal muscle (Fig. 1-12).

Parietal bone (os parietale)

The parietal is paired and forms most of the dorsolateral part of the cranial wall. It is bordered by the occipital bone caudally and the frontal bone rostrally (Fig. 1-1 and 2). The external surface (facies externa) can be divided into a **parietal plane** (planum parietale) forming the dorsal wall of the neurocranium and a **temporal plane** (planum temporale) forming the lateral wall. The latter has an additional **nuchal plane** (planum nuchale), which contributes to the formation of the nuchal aspect of the skull (Fig. 1-4).

The cranial surface (facies interna) is characterised by vascular grooves and numerous depressions and ridges, which correspond to the sulci and gyri of the brain. In the dog and pig the internal surface is marked by the median **internal sagittal crest** (crista sagittalis interna), which is accompanied by the groove of the dorsal sagittal sinus (sulcus sinus sagittalis dorsalis). The caudal aspect of the internal surface of the parietal bone has a medial projection (processus tentoricus), which forms part of the **osseous tentorium cerebelli** (tentorium cerebelli osseum) in carnivores and horses (Fig. 1-5 and 13).

Interparietal bone (os interparietale)

The **interparietal** is centrally placed between the occipital bone and the parietal bone, with which it fuses during adult life, with the exception of the cat, where the sutures are still visible in the adult (Fig. 1-1 and 2).

The processes tentorius on the cerebral surface, fuses with the like-named processes of the parietal and occipital bones, forming the **osseous tentorium cerebelli** (tentorium cerebelli osseum) (Fig. 1-5 and 13).

Ethmoid bone (os ethmoidale)

The **ethmoid bone** is situated deep in the walls of the orbit and contributes to the formation of the cranial and facial parts of the skull (Fig. 1-1, 2, 13, 15, 17 and 18). The **external lamina** (lamina externa) of the tube-like ethmoid bone consists of the **roof plate** (lamina tectoria) cranially, the **floor plate** (lamina basalis) ventrally and the extremely thin paired **orbital plates** (laminae basales) to each side. The **cribriform plate** (lamina cribrosa) separates the ethmoid bone from the cranial cavity. A median sheet of bone, the **perpendicular plate** (lamina perpendicularis), divides the ethmoid into two tubes. The paired **ethmoidal labyrinth** (labyrinthus ethmoidalis) pro-

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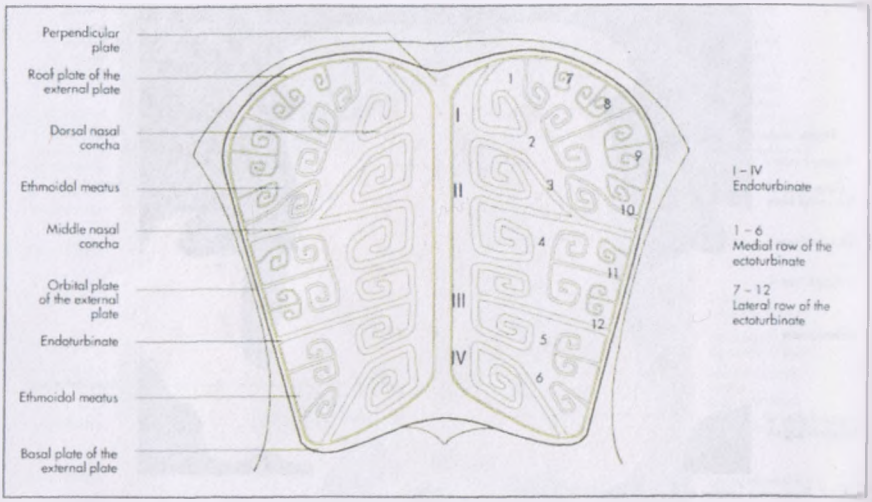


Fig. 1-18. Transverse section of the ethmoturbinates of the horse (schematic), after Nickel, Schummer and Seiferle, 1992

trudes from the dorsal and lateral walls of these tubes. The ethmoidal labyrinth is composed of delicate bony scrolls, the **ethmoturbinates** (ethmoturbinalia), with the **air-filled ethmoidal meatus** (meatus ethmoidales) between them (Fig. 1-18).

The **cribriform plate** (lamina cribrosa) is a sieve-like partition between the nasal and cranial cavities (Fig. 1-5, 9 and 10). The cribriform plate is perforated by numerous foramina through which the **olfactory nerve bundles** pass. These nerves pass from the olfactory cortices of the brain to the olfactory bulbs. The cerebral surface is divided into two parts by a median ridge, the **crista galli**, which is considered to be the intracranial continuation of the perpendicular plate (Fig. 1-9 and 10). Each half is deeply concave, forming the **ethmoidal fossae** (fossae ethmoidales), which enclose the olfactory bulbs (Fig. 1-10, 13 and 15).

The **ethmoturbinates** (ethmoturbinalia) arise from the dorsal and lateral walls of the ethmoidal bone. They are arranged in two rows, except in the horse, where there are three (Fig. 1-18). Each ethmoturbinate possesses a basal leaf, which attaches to the walls of the ethmoid or the cribriform plate, and a spiral leaf, which projects into the nasal cavity. The majority of the ethmoturbinates have a single scroll and turn ventrally, but some divide into a dorsal and a ventral scroll. Additional secondary turbinates can be found in all the domestic mammals, but are especially common in the dog.

The **ethmoturbinates** can be divided into long, deeply lying **endoturbinates** (endoturbinalia), which extend far into the nasal cavity, and shorter, more superficial **ectoturbinates** (ectoturbinalia). Ectoturbinates are normally arranged in a single row, with the exception of the horse, where they form a double row. The number of the turbinates on each side varies in the different species. Four endoturbinates and six ectoturbinates are found in the dog (Fig. 1-17), seven endoturbinates and 20 ectoturbinates in the pig, four endoturbinates and 18 ectoturbinates in ruminants, six endoturbinates and 25 ectoturbinates in the horse (Fig. 1-18 and 19).

The **first endoturbinate** (endoturbinale I) is the longest and most dorsal turbinate and extends far into the nasal cavity. It forms the osseous base of the **dorsal nasal conchae** (concha nasalis dorsalis) and attaches to the ethmoidal crest of the nasal bone (Fig. 1-7, 15, 19 and 47).

The **second endoturbinate** (endoturbinale II) is second in the row next to the first and forms the bony part of the **middle nasal conchae** (concha nasalis media) (Fig. 1-18). The following turbinates diminish in size, with the exception of the dog, in which the second to fourth endoturbinates are especially well-developed. While the dorsal and middle nasal concha are formed by the endoturbinates, the **ventral nasal concha** (concha nasalis ventralis) is part of the **upper jaw** (maxilla) (= Maxilloturbinate) (Fig. 1-19 and 22ff.).

The osseous structure of the **conchal bones** (ossa conchae) are described in the following summary:

- **endoturbinate I** (concha nasalis dorsalis) forms the dorsal nasal concha
- **endoturbinate II** (concha nasalis media) forms the middle nasal concha and
- **maxilla** forms the ventral nasal concha (concha nasalis ventralis = maxilloturbinate).

The endoturbinates protrude into the nasal cavities and form part of the nasal meatus. There are three nasal meatuses:

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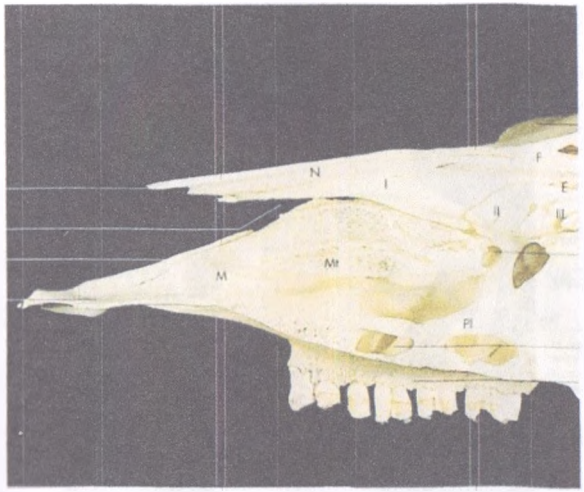


Fig. 1-19 Bones of the facial part of a bovine skull (medial aspect of sagittal section)

- **dorsal nasal meatus** between the roof of the nasal cavity and the dorsal nasal concha,
- **middle nasal meatus** between the two nasal conchae,
- **ventral nasal meatus** between the ventral nasal concha and the floor of the nasal cavity.

Skull, facial part (facies, viscerocranium)

The bones of the **facial part of the skull** (ossa faciei) form the walls of the nasal cavities, the floors of which form the roof of the oral cavity. The floor and the lateral walls are completed by the **lower jaw** (**mandible**) supported by the **hyoid bone** (os hyoideum) ventrally. The walls of the facial part of the skull are composed of the following segments in all domestic mammals:

- the **lateral walls of the nasal cavity**, formed by
  - paired lacrimal bones (os lacrimale),
  - paired zygomatic bones (os zygomaticum),
  - paired upper jaw (maxilla),
  - paired incisive bones (os incisivum).
- the **floor of the nasal cavity** (**the roof of the oral cavity**), formed by the
  - paired palatine bones (os palatinum),
  - paired upper jaw (maxilla),
  - paired incisive bones (os incisivum).
- **the roof of the nasal cavity** (**dorsum nasi**), formed by
  - paired frontal bones (os frontale),
  - paired nasal bones (os nasale) and
- **the roof or lateral walls of the pharyngeal cavity**, formed by the
  - paired pterygoid bones (os pterygoideum),
  - parts of the unpaired vomer,
  - paired palatine bones (os palatinum),
  - paired sphenoid bones (os sphenoidale).

The **ethmoid bone** separates the nasal and cranial cavities. The dorsal and middle nasal conchae, formed by the first and second endoturbinate, and the ventral nasal concha, formed by the maxilla, extend far into the nasal cavity. The nasal cavity is divided vertically into two equal halves by the median **nasal septum** (septum nasi) (Fig. 1-17).

Nasal bone (os nasale)

The **nasal bone** forms the roof of the nasal cavity and has a concave external surface (facies externa), except in some breeds of cat, pig and horse which have a convex nose. The **ethmoidal crest** (crista ethmoidalis) is on the internal surface (facies interna) and forms the attachment for the **dorsal nasal conchae** (endoturbinale I) (Fig. 1-22 to 24). The paired nasal bones present a blunt margin towards each other, articulating in a plane suture (sutura plana). The **rostral processes** (processus rostrales) form the apex of the nasal bone (Fig. 1-19 and 23). This ends centrally in the pig, sheep and horse, later-

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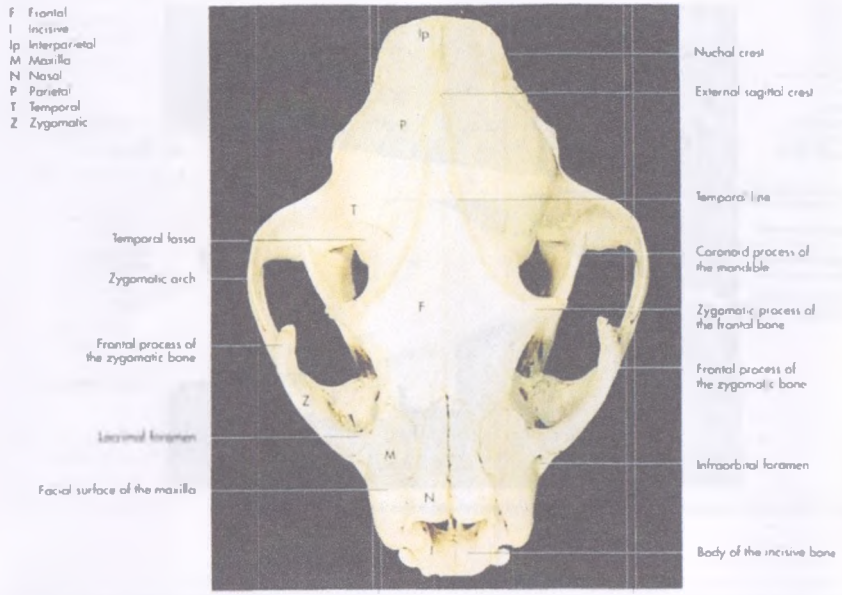


Fig. 1-20. Skull of a puma (dorsal aspect)

ally in carnivores and has separate apices for each nasal bone in the ox. There is an additional process on the internal surface of the nasal bone of carnivores, which forms part of the nasal septum (processus septalis). The rostral process reaches beyond the bones located ventrally to it, thus forming the **nasoincisive notch** (incisura nasoincisiva) between the nasal and the incisive bone (Fig. 1-19).

Lacrimal bone (os lacrimale)

The **lacrimal bone** is a small bone situated near the medial canthus of the eye forming parts of the orbit and the lateral wall of the face (Fig. 1-1 and 2). It articulates with the frontal bone, the zygomatic bone and the maxilla in all domestic mammals and in ruminants and the horse; it also articulates with the nasal bone and in carnivores with the palatine bone. The **lateral surface** (facies lateralis) of the lacrimal bone can be divided into an **orbital part** (facies orbitalis) and a **facial part** (facies facialis), which are separated by the **supra-** and **infraorbital margins** (margo supraorbitalis, margo infraorbitalis), respectively. Near the margin of the orbital surface there is a funnel-shaped fossa, which is occupied by the dilated origin of the nasolacrimal duct (fossa sacci lacrimalis) (Fig. 1-11). Caudal to it is a depression for the origin of the ventral oblique muscle of the eye (fossa muscularis).

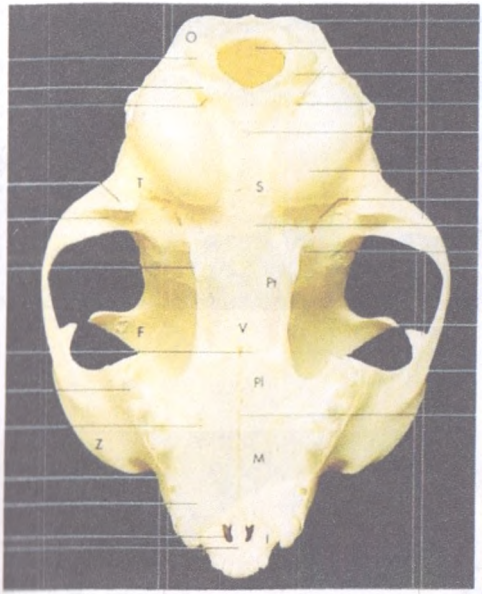
In ruminants the orbital part is large and bears the expanded thin-walled **lacrimal bulla** (bulla lacrimalis) ventrally, which contains an extension of the maxillary sinus (Fig. 1-16). The nasal surface (facies nasalis) forms the rostral limits of the frontal and maxillary sinuses and is crossed almost horizontally by the **nasolacrimal canal** (Fig. 1-12).

Zygomatic bone (os zygomaticum)

The **zygomatic bone** lies ventrolateral to the lacrimal bone (Fig. 1-1 and 2) and forms parts of the bony orbit and the zygomatic arch (Fig. 1-4, 6, 8 and 20). The **zygomatic arch** (arcus zygomaticus) is formed by the union of the **temporal process** (processus temporalis) of the **zygomatic bone** and the **zygomatic process** (processus zygomaticus) of the temporal bone (Fig. 1-11). It extends towards the frontal bone as the frontal process (processus frontalis), in all species except the horse. The frontal process articulates with the zygomatic process of the frontal bone in ruminants to form the **supraorbital margin** (margo supraorbitalis) (Fig. 1-11).

The supraorbital margin of the horse is formed by the zygomatic processes of the frontal and temporal bones. In carnivores and the pig the frontal process of the zygomatic bone is joined to the zygomatic process of the frontal bone by

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- **body** (corpus maxillae) with
  - external surface (facies facialis),
  - internal surface (facies nasalis),
  - pterygopalatine surface (facies pterygopalatina),
  - orbital surface (facies orbitalis) in the cat and horse,
- **alveolar process** (processus alveolaris),
- **palatine process** (processus palatinus),
- **frontal process** (processus frontalis) in carnivores and
- **zygomatic process** (processus zygomaticus).

The **body of the maxilla** encloses an air-filled cavity (except in carnivores), which constitutes the major part of the **maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris). This paranasal sinus extends also into the zygomatic and lacrimal bones. The pterygopalatine process of ruminants accomodates parts of the **palatine sinus** (sinus palatinus), which is continuous with the sinus cavity enclosed by the horizontal plate of the palatine bone.

The lateral wall of the maxillary body forms the **external surface of the face** (Fig. 1-20 and 25). It is characterized by a horizontal ridge, the **facial crest** (crista facialis), which is especially prominent in the horse, less distinct in ruminants (Fig. 1-30) and the pig and insignificant in carnivores. In ruminants the facial crest begins with the **facial tubercle** (tuber

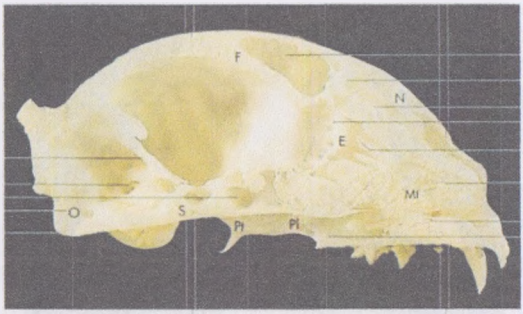
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E Ethmoid
F Frontal
N Nasal
Mt Maxilloturbinate
O Occipital
Pl Palatine
Pt Pterygoid
S Sphenoid

Tentorium cerebelli osseum

Internal acoustic meatus
Sphenoidal sinus
Foramen magnum

Occipital condyle



Frontal sinus

Ectoturbinate II

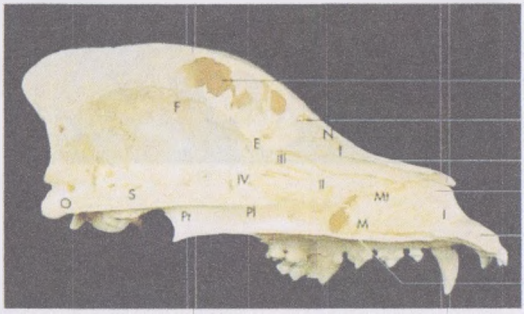
Dorsal nasal concha
Cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone
Middle nasal concha

Ventral nasal concha

Vomer
Nasopharyngeal meatus

Fig. 1-22. Skull of a cat (medial aspect of sagittal section)

E Ethmoid
F Frontal
I Incisive
M Maxilla
Mt Maxilloturbinate
N Nasal
O Occipital
Pl Palatine
Pt Pterygoid
S Sphenoid
I Endoturbinate I
II Endoturbinate II
III Endoturbinate III
IV Endoturbinate IV



Frontal sinus

Septal process of the nasal bone

Rostral process of the nasal bone
Nasal process of the incisive bone

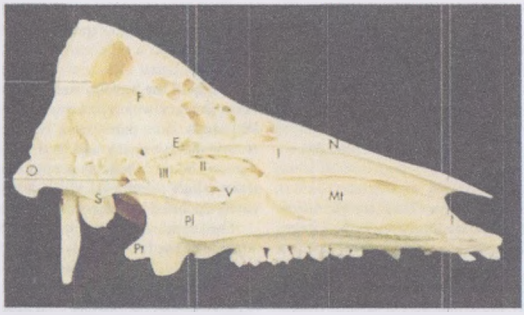
Palatine process of the incisive bone

Palatine process of the maxilla

Fig. 1-23. Skull of a dog (medial aspect of sagittal section)

Frontal sinus

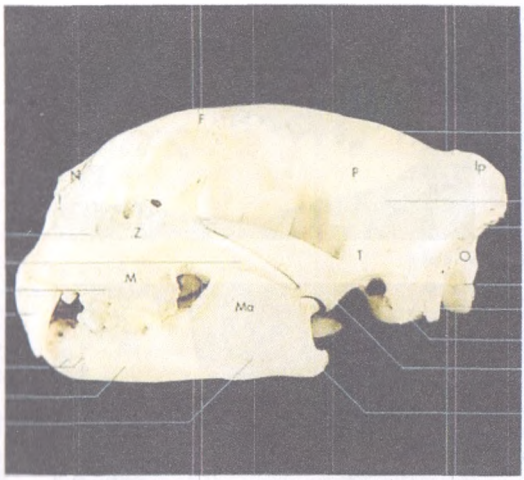
Sphenoid sinus



E Ethmoid
F Frontal
I Incisive
Mt Maxilloturbinate
N Nasal
O Occipital
Pl Palatine
Pt Pterygoid
S Sphenoid
V Vomer
I Endoturbinate I
II Endoturbinate II
III Endoturbinate III

Fig. 1-24. Skull of a pig (medial aspect of sagittal section)

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Skull of a puma (lateral aspect).

[illegible] placed dorsal to the fourth cheek tooth [illegible] as a rough line. There is a distinct facial [illegible] ends at the **canine fossa** (fossa canina).

Infraorbital foramen (foramen infraorbitale) [illegible] and rostral to the rostral end of the facial crest (Fig. 1-30, 31 and 45). This is the external opening of the **infraorbital canal** (canalis infraorbitalis), which passes through the **maxillary foramen** (foramen maxillare) in the pterygopalatine fossa (fossa pterygopalatina) ventral to the orbital cavity. The infraorbital artery, vein and nerve, which is a derivative of the maxillary nerve, pass through this canal (Fig. 1-10).

The infraorbital foramen can be used as a palpable landmark for anesthesia of the infraorbital nerve. The foramen is palpable and is situated on an imaginary line from the concavity notch to the rostral end of the facial crest. It is found 3 cm dorsal to the first maxillary tooth or the root and 1 cm dorsal to the third cheek tooth. The canal, through the infraorbital foramen, divides into an additional canal system through which the nerves and blood vessels pass.

The nasal surface has a distinct ridge, the **conchal crest**, where the **ventral nasal concha (= Maxilloturbinate** ventralis) attaches (Fig. 1-19). The rostral part of the ventral nasal concha projects into the middle nasal meatus in the horse and forms a tunnel-shaped paranasal sinus, which communicates with the **maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris) rostralist and thus with the nasal cavity (Fig. 1-48 and 49). The ventral nasal concha of the other domestic mammals divides into a dorsal spiral leaf towards the middle nasal meatus and a ventral one towards the ventral nasal meatus. The bony part of the **lacrimal canal** (canalis lacrimalis) opens on the nasal surface of the maxillary bone in the **lacrimal foramen** (foramen lacrimale), which is situated dorsal to the facial crest in horses and ventral to it in the other domestic mammals.

The **pterygopalatine surface** (facies pterygopalatina) forms the caudal part of the maxilla extending to the **maxillary tuberosity** (tuber maxillae) (Fig. 1-10, 30 and 45) and demarcates the medially located pterygopalatine fossa, in which the **maxillary** (foramen maxillare), the **sphenopalatine** (foramen sphenopalatinum) and the **caudal palatine foramen** (foramen palatinum caudale) open (Fig. 1-41). The **alveolar process** (processus alveolaris) encloses the cavities for the teeth, the **dental alveoli** (alveoli dentales) and on its free border, the **alveolar margin** (margo alveolaris). The alveoli are separated by transverse **interalveolar septa** (septa interalveolaria). The **interalveolar margin** (margo interalveolaris) extends between the canine and first cheek tooth (Fig. 1-30). The lower facial surface of the maxilla presents smooth elevations (juga alveolaria) caused by the roots of the teeth.

The **palatine process** (processus palatinus) is a transverse plate of bone which arises from the alveolar process and meets its contralateral pair in the **median palatine suture** (sutura palatina mediana) (Fig. 1-21 and 23). It forms the osseous hard palate together with the palatine bone, with which it articulates caudally. Rostrally it articulates with parts of the incisive bone

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Fig. 1-26. Mandible of the dog (lateral aspect)

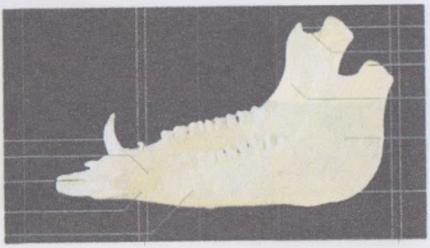


Fig. 1-27. Mandible of a pig (lateral aspect)

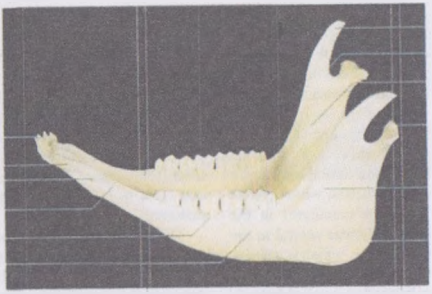


Fig. 1-28. Mandible of an ox (lateral aspect)

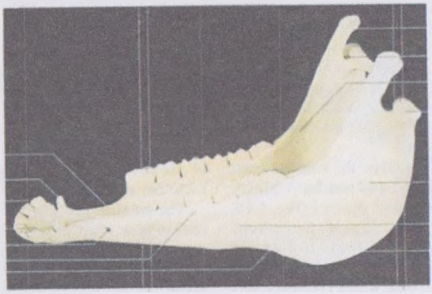


Fig. 1-29. Mandible of a stallion (lateral aspect)

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the formation of the bony **palatine fissure** (fissura palatina) (Fig. 1-11). These paired horizontal plates of bone, together with the incisive bone, form the floor of the nasal cavity, which constitutes the roof of the oral cavity. The nasal surface of the palatine process forms the **nasal crest** (crista nasalis) to which the vomer attaches. The oral surface is perforated by the **major palatine foramen** (foramen palatinum majus), the location of which varies among the different domestic species (Fig. 1-9, 9' and 11). The palatine process encloses parts of the palatine sinus (sinus palatinus) (Fig. 1-19).

Incisive bone (os incisivum)

The paired **incisive bones** consist of the **body** (corpus ossis incisivi) (Fig. 1-1, 2 and 20), **nasal** (processus nasalis) (Fig. 1-1), palatine (processus palatinus) and **alveolar process** (processus alveolaris) (Fig. 1-21, 40 and 45). The incisive bones form the rostral portion of the facial part of the skull and the rostral part of the opening to the nasal cavity and the roof of the hard palate.

The body of the incisive bone presents two surfaces, the **palatine surface** (facies palatina) and the convex labial surface (facies labialis). It extends rostrally to form the incisive process. The **alveolar process** forms conical sockets, the **dental alveoli** for the three incisor teeth of each side. Since there are neither upper incisor teeth, nor a canine tooth in ruminants, the dental alveoli for these teeth are lacking in these species. The alveolar process of the incisive bone joins the maxilla caudally forming the **interalveolar margin**, which is relatively long in horses, but short in pigs and carnivores. The palatine process of the incisive bone meets its contralateral pair in the mid line; they are either firmly fused in adult animals (carnivores and pig) or leave a narrow **incisive fissure** (pig and ruminants).

In humans the incisive bone (also called Goethe's bone) remains separate until four years of age, after which it is firmly joined with the maxilla.

Palatine bone (os palatinum)

The paired **palatine bones** are located between the maxilla, the vomer and the pterygoid bones (Fig. 1-1 and 2). They consist of a **horizontal plate** (lamina horizontalis), which forms part of the hard palate (Fig. 1-17) and a **perpendicular plate** (lamina perpendicularis), which forms part of the lateral and dorsal walls of the **nasopharyngeal meatus** (nasopharyngeus) and the **choanae**, the openings, which lead from the nasal cavities to the nasopharynx (Fig. 1-17, 21 and 46).

The caudal border (margo liber) of the horizontal plate is free and directed towards the nasopharyngeal meatus. It forms the caudal part of the hard palate to which the soft palate attaches. The nasal surface of the horizontal plate, adjacent to the median palatine suture, is marked by the **nasal crest** (crista nasalis), which ends caudally in the mostly unpaired spina nasalis caudalis (Fig. 1-21, 46 and 47). The horizontal plate encloses part of the **palatine sinus** (sinus palatinus), which also extends into the palatine process of the maxilla (Fig. 1-19). The **palatine canal** (canalis palatinus) runs through the horizontal plate and allows the passage of the major palatine artery, vein and nerve. The **perpendicular plate** joins the horizontal plate at a right angle and extends to the sphenoid and pterygoid bones caudally and the walls of the orbit rostrally. It extends medially to form the **sphenoethmoidal plate** (lamina sphenoethmoidalis), which articulates with the base of the ethmoid and the vomer. Its free margin completes the border of the choanae laterally. In the horse the perpendicular plate encloses the palatine sinus.

Vomer

The **vomer** is an unpaired bone that extends from the choanal region into the nasal cavity, where it attaches to the median nasal crest (crista nasalis) on the floor of the nasal cavity (Fig. 1-16, 17, 21 and 24). Its basal part extends to the nasal crest of the horizontal plate of the palatine bone in carnivores, whereas in ruminants, it joins the palatine process of the maxilla. The two lateral plates extend from each side of the base dorsally, thus forming a narrow groove, the **septal sulcus** (sulcus septalis), which surrounds the nasal septum.

Pterygoid bone (os pterygoideum)

The **paired pterygoid bone** is a thin bony plate, bordered by the sphenoid bone and the horizontal plate of the palatine bone. It forms part of the dorsal and lateral walls of the nasopharyngeal cavity. Its free margin forms a small hook-shaped process, the **pterygoid hamulus** (hamulus pterygoideus), which projects beyond the margin of the choanae. It is well developed in the horse (Fig. 1-1, 2, 13, 14, 21 and 47).

Mandible (mandibula)

The two halves of the **mandible** develop in the cranial mesoderm of the first branchial arch and articulate firmly at the **mental angle** (angulus mentalis), forming the median **mandibular synchondrosis** (synchondrosis intermandibularis) rostrally. This fibrous union is normally completed during the first year post partum in the pig and the horse but may occur later in life, or remains bipartite in carnivores and ruminants. Each half can be divided into (Fig. 1-26 to 29):

- **body of the mandible** (corpus mandibulae), supporting the teeth and
- **mandibular ramus** (ramus mandibulae).

From the synchondrosis the two halves diverge, enclosing the **mandibular space** (spatium mandibulae) between them.

The body of the mandible can be subdivided into a **rostral part** (pars incisiva), that contains the incisor teeth and a **caudal part** (pars molaris), that contains the cheek teeth. The incisive part consists of a horizontal plate with a convex surface towards the lips (facies labialis) and a concave surface towards the tongue (facies lingualis), which meet at the **alveolar border** (arcus alveolaris). The alveolar border is indented by six conical cavities for the roots of the incisor teeth (alveoli dentales). The dental alveolus for the canine tooth is situated directly caudal to it in carnivores and ruminants and some space apart in the horse and the pig. The molar part has

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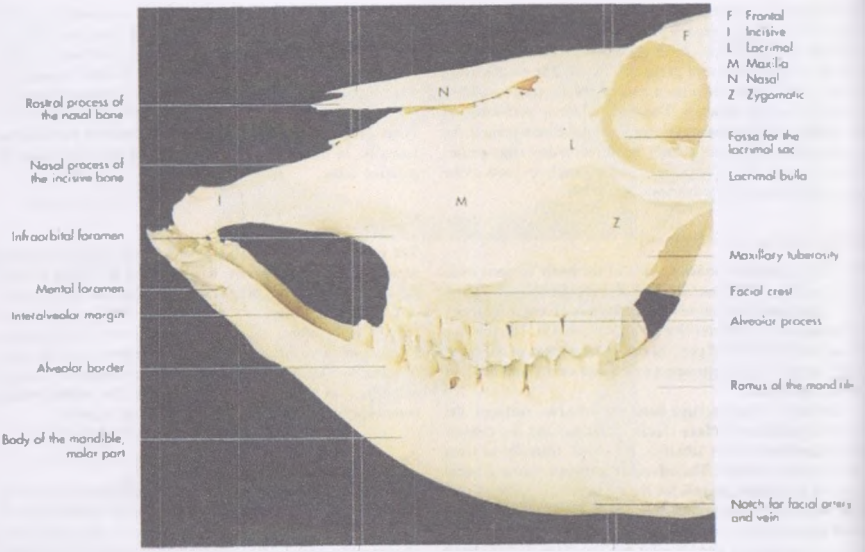


Fig. 1-30. Bones of the facial part of a bovine skull (lateral aspect).

a lateral **buccal surface** (facies buccalis) and a medial **lingual surface** (facies lingualis), which are separated by the **ventral margin** (margo ventralis). The caudal part of the **dorsal border** (margo alveolaris) forms the sockets, which contain the roots of the cheek teeth. There are three cheek teeth in the cat, seven in the dog and the pig, six in ruminants and six or seven in the horse.

The tooth-free rostral part of the dorsal margin between the canine and the first cheek tooth is termed the **interalveolar margin** (margo interalveolaris) or **diastema**, which is longest in horses and ruminants (Fig. 1-26 and 27).

The body of the mandible contains the **mandibular canal** (canalis mandibularis), through which the mandibular artery and vein and the mandibular alveolar nerve (n. alveolaris mandibularis) pass. The mandibular canal has its caudal opening in the **mandibular foramen** (foramen mandibulae) on the medial surface of the mandible; it passes rostrally, ventral to the dental alveoli and ends in the **mental foramen** (foramen mentale) on the lateral surface of the **interalveolar margin** (margo interalveolaris) (Fig. 1-27 to 30). The mental foramen consists of a single opening in ruminants and the horse and of two or three openings in carnivores and up to five openings in the pig. The mandibular canal continues rostrally to the dental alveoli of the incisor and canine teeth as the alveolar canal (canalis alveolaris). The ventral border of the mandibular body is marked by a smooth indentation, the **facial notch** (incisura vasorum facialium), where the facial vessels and the parotid duct curve around the bone. In the horse the pulse is commonly palpated at this site (Fig. 1-45).

The mental and mandibular foramen can be used as landmarks for perineural anaesthesia (Fig. 1-26 to 29):

- **mental foramen** (foramen mentale)
  - horse: on the lateral surface of the interalveolar margin 1 cm below the dorsal border at the level of the rostral end of the intermandibular space,
  - ox: on the lateral surface 1 cm ventral and caudal to the canine,
  - dog: in the middle of the lateral surface ventral to the first cheek tooth and
- **mandibular foramen** (foramen mandibulae):
  - horse and ox: on the medial surface on the center of an imaginary line, drawn from the condylar process to the facial notch (incisura vasorum facialium),
  - dog: on the medial surface 2 cm caudal to the last cheek tooth.

The **ramus of the mandible** (ramus mandibulae) is a vertical bone plate which extends from the mandibular body towards the zygomatic arch (Fig. 1-26 to 29). Its lateral surface is characterized by the **masseteric fossa** (fossa masseterica), which is the site of attachment of the masseter muscle (m. masseter); its medial surface, of the **pterygoid fossa** (fossa pterygoidea), which is the site of attachment of the medial pterygoid muscle (m. pterygoideus medialis). The caudoventral part of the mandibular ramus forms the **angle of the mandible** (angulus mandibulae), which extends a hooked process in carnivores, the **angular process** (processus angularis).

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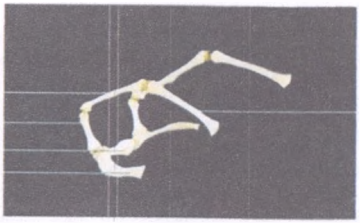


Fig. 1-30. Hyoid bone of a cat (caudolateral aspect).

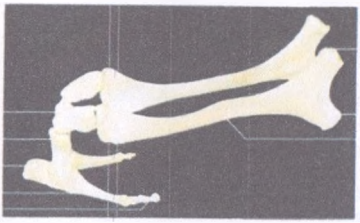


Fig. 1-31. Hyoid bone of an ox (caudolateral aspect).



Fig. 1-32. Hyoid bone of a horse (caudolateral aspect).

The body of the mandibular ramus consists of the **condylar process** (processus condylaris) and the transversely compressed **mandibular head** (caput mandibulae) for the formation of the temporomandibular joint caudally. Rostrally it tapers to form the long **coronoid process** (processus coronoideus), where the temporal muscle (m. temporalis) inserts. These two processes are separated by the **mandibular notch** (incisura mandibulae) (Fig. 1-26 to 29).

Hyoid bone, hyoid apparatus (os hyoideum, apparatus hyoideus)

The hyoid bone develops from parts of the second and third pharyngeal arches as separate cartilagenous components ossify in the adult animal forming firm synchondroses. The hyoid lies in the tissue between the rami of the mandible at the base of the tongue and acts as a **suspensory mechanism for the tongue and larynx**. It can be divided into two parts. The first part connects to the tongue and larynx and is regarded as the hyoid apparatus, equivalent to that of man. The second is directed dorsally, articulating with the temporal bone and is termed the suspensory apparatus.

The major part of hyoid corresponds to that of man and consists of three components (Fig. 1-31 to 33):

- basihyoid or body (corpus ossis hyoidei, basihyoideum),
- thyrohyoid (thyrohyoideum) and
- ceratohyoid (ceratohyoideum).

The **basihyoid** is a short transverse unpaired bone lying in the musculature of the base of the tongue. Its rostral border carries medially the **lingual process** (processus lingualis), which is long in the horse and shorter in ruminants.

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Tab. 1-1. Openings of the skull and transmitted structures

Openings	Bones	Transmitted structures	Particulars
Hypoglossal canal	Occipital	Hypoglossus nerve (XII) Condylar vein and artery	Often double in the ox Foramen in the horse
Optic canal	Presphenoid	Optic nerve (II)	Lies above the sphenoidal sinus
Orbital fissure	Presphenoid	Ophthalmic nerve (V.1) III, IV and VI cranial nerve	In carnivores and in the horse
Foramen rotundum	Presphenoid	Maxillary nerve (V.2)	Foramen orbitorotundum in ruminants and in the pig
Caudal alar foramen	Basisphenoid	Maxillary artery	In the dog and in the horse
Rostral alar foramen	Basisphenoid	Maxillary artery	In the dog also the maxillary nerve (V.2)
Small alar foramen	Basisphenoid	Rostral deep temporal artery	Only in the horse
Foramen lacerum	Basioccipital Temporal Basisphenoid	Internal carotid artery Mandibular nerve (V.3) Middle meningeal artery	In the horse and in the pig
Jugular foramen	basioccipital temporal	IX, X and XI cranial nerve Dog: internal carotid artery	Foramen lacerum as the caudal part
Oval foramen	basisphenoid	Mandibular nerve (V.3)	In the horse the oval opening in the foramen lacerum
Carotid canal	Basisphenoid	Internal carotid artery (exit: dog) internal carotid nerve	In the horse carotid notch and foramen lacerum
Spinous foramen	Basisphenoid	Trochlear nerve (IV) Middle meningeal artery	In the horse spinous notch lies in the foramen lacerum
Supraorbital foramen	Frontal	Frontal nerve (V.1) Frontal vein and artery	Lacking in carnivores

The **thyrohyoid** projects caudally from the basihyoid, with which it is firmly fused in ruminants and horses, towards the thyroid cartilage of the larynx, with which it forms a movable joint.

The **ceratohyoid** articulates with the basihyoid and the thyrohyoid caudally and the epihyoid proximally, thus connecting the hyoid with the suspensory apparatus.

The suspensory apparatus joins the hyoid bones to the skull in a species specific way: In ruminants and the horse the hyoid articulates with the **styloid process** (processus styloideus) of the tympanic part of the temporal bone, in carnivores with the **mastoid process** (processus mastoideus) of the petrous temporal bone and in the pig with the **nuchal process** (processus nuchalis) of the squamous temporal bone.

It consists of three parts:

- the proximal part or tympanohyoid (tympanohyoideum),
- the middle part or stylohyoid (stylohyoideum) and
- the distal part or epihyoid (epihyoideum).

The **tympanohyoid** is a short cartilagenous bar in most animals and composed of fibrous tissue in carnivores. It is a continuation of the proximal end of the stylohyoid and is fused to the temporal bone. The **stylohyoid** is a laterally flattened cylinder in ruminants and the horse; the distal part remains cartilagenous in pigs and carnivores. The **epihyoid** is interposed between the stylohyoid and the ceratohyoid. It is cylindrical in carnivores, fused with the stylohyoid in horse and replaced by the **epihyoid ligament** (ligamentum epihyoideum) in pigs.

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Table 1.1 Openings of the skull and transmitted structures (continued).

Opening	Bones	Transmitted structures	Particulars
[illegible] foramen	Frontal	Ethmoidal nerve (V_1) Ethmoidal vein and external ethmoidal artery	
[illegible] canal foramen	Temporal/ Occipital	Greater petrosal nerve (VII) Chorda tympani (VII)	
[illegible] foramen	Squamous temporal	Emissary veins for the temporal sinus	
[illegible]	Petrous part	Facial nerve (VII)	Internal acoustic meatus
[illegible] area	Temporal	Cochlear nerve ((VIII)	Internal acoustic meatus
[illegible] vestibular area	Temporal	Vestibular nerve (VIII)	Internal acoustic meatus
[illegible] vestibular area	Temporal	Vestibular nerve (VIII)	Internal acoustic meatus
[illegible] foramen	Petrous part/ Tympanic part	Facial nerve (VII)	
[illegible] foramen	Maxilla	Infraorbital nerve (V_2), vein and artery	Pterygopalatine fossa
[illegible] palatine foramen	Maxilla	Greater palatine nerve (V_2), vein and artery	Pterygopalatine fossa
[illegible] foramen	Maxilla	Caudal nasal nerve (V_2), Sphenopalatine vein and artery	Pterygopalatine fossa
[illegible] foramen	Maxilla	Infraorbital nerve (V_2), vein and artery	
[illegible] canal	Incisive	Greater palatine artery	
[illegible] foramen	Mandible	Mandibular nerve (V_3), vein and artery	
[illegible] foramen	Mandible	Mental nerve (V_3), vein and artery	
[illegible] palatine foramen	Palatine	Greater palatine nerve (V_2) and artery	Greater palatine vein only in small ruminants

Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales)

The paranasal sinuses are air-filled cavities between the external and internal lamina of the bones of the skull, which are lined by the nasal cavity (Figs. 1-7, 10, 15, 19, 22 to 24, 31, 39). Since the paranasal sinuses vary greatly in different domestic mammals, they are described separately for the different species.

The following paranasal sinuses can be found in the [illegible] domestic mammals:

- maxillary sinus (sinus maxillaris),
- frontal sinus (sinus frontalis),
- palatine sinus (sinus palatinus),
- sphenoidal sinus (sinus sphenoidalis),
- lacrimal sinus (sinus lacrimalis) in pigs and ruminants,
- dorsal conchal sinus (sinus conchae dorsalis),
- ventral conchal sinus (sinus conchae ventralis) in the pig, ruminants and the horse and
- cellulae ethmoidales in the pig and ruminants.

The skull as a whole

The skull of carnivores

There are many variations in the shape of the skull, not only between the different carnivore species, but also amongst the different breeds, especially in the dog. Based on the form of the skull, the canine breeds can be grouped in **dolichocephalic**

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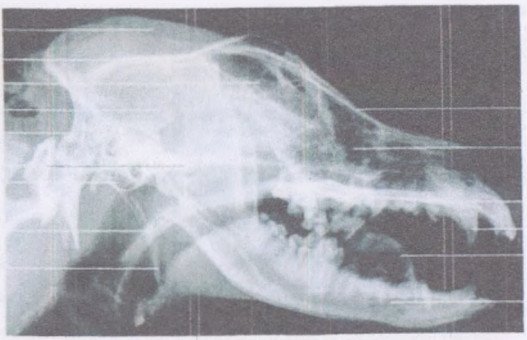


Fig. 1-34. Radiograph of a canine skull (laterolateral projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

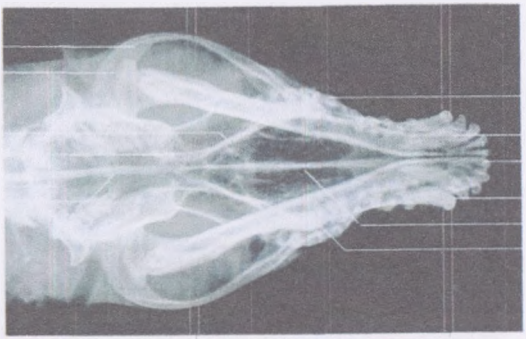


Fig. 1-35. Radiograph of a canine skull (ventrodorsal projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

(meaning long, narrow-headed), **brachycephalic** (meaning short, wide-headed) and **mesocephalic** (meaning a head of medium proportions) breeds. Dolichocephalic breeds have an elongated facial skeleton and a narrow cranial part with a distinct **external sagittal crest** (crista sagittalis externa) for the attachment of the temporal muscle (Fig. 1-34). The frontal and nasal part is flatly concave and the zygomatic arches protrude less laterally than in the other groups. Some breed examples are: Border Collie, Irish Wolfhound, Greyhounds.

In brachiocephalic breeds the cranial part of the skull is relatively large compared to the facial part, which is shortened and broadened. The external sagittal crest is reduced or missing altogether. In some breeds the fontanelles remain open throughout life. This group includes: Pekingeses, Pugs, Pomeranian and some Spaniels. In some brachycephalic breeds the lower jaw protrudes rostral to the upper jaw, producing the condition known as **prognathism of the mandible**.

In mesocephalic breeds, such as Beagles or Dachshounds, the facial and cranial part of the skull are well proportioned, resulting in an average conformation between the two other groups. In spite of these breed-specific variations, which are complemented by age- and gender-specific characteristics, the basic architecture of the canine skull remains the same. It is generally stated that the skull of the dog is relatively large, which is thought to be of life-saving importance in predatory animals, since the skull hosts the sense organs (e.g. sight, hearing and smell) and the brain.

Therefore this type of skull is characterised by a well developed facial part, dominant orbital cavities with incomplete, fibrous orbits, distinct temporal fossae and large tympanic bullae.

Compared to the mesocephalic dog the face of the cat is shorter, the orbital cavities larger and positioned more frontally, thus enlarging the field of binocular vision.

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Fig. 1.38. Skull and mandible of a five-year-old Husky (lateral aspect).

The cranial surface of the skull of carnivores is formed by the occipital and lateral parts of the occipital bone and by the caudal part of the petrous temporal bone in the ... is separated from the roof of the skull by the **external occipital protuberance** (protuberantia occipitalis externa) ... nuchal crest (crista nuchae), both of which provide ... to the basal and neck musculature. Laterally it is ... by the **zygomaticoid crest** (crista supramastoidea). ... part of the nuchal surface is perforated by the **foramen magnum**, through which the spinal cord and associated ... from the skull. Lateral to the foramen magnum are ... condyles (condyli occipitales), which articulate ... fossa forming the **atlanto-occipital joint** (articulatio atlanto-occipitalis). The **paracondylar process** (processus paracondylaris) and the **nuchal tubercle** (tuberculum nuchale) are well developed in the dog and ... to the basal and neck musculature.

The roof of the skull can be divided into cranial and facial ... The cranial surface of the cranial part of the skull is ... by the paired external lamina of the narrow parietal ... the squamous occipital bone, the interparietal bone ... is continued in front and is continued rostrally by the paired ... A distinct external sagittal crest is found only ... dolichocephalic breeds of dog, in which it continues as the temporal line (linea temporalis), which reaches the dorsal surface at the ... where the **orbital ligament** (ligamentum orbitale) ... the bilobed supraorbital margin of the ... (margo supraorbitalis) and attaches to the zygomatic process (processus zygomaticus) of the frontal bone.

The facial part of the skull is variable, ... The nasal bone is formed mainly by the paired nasal ... and rostrally by the rostral part of the ... of the incisive bone. The concave roof of the nasal surface of the nose is formed by ... nasal bones.

The form of the cranial part of the skull varies ... in the different breeds. Its prominent features are the zygomatic arches, the temporal fossa, the tympanic bulla, the orbital cavity and the pterygopalatine fossa.

The **zygomatic arch** (arcus zygomaticus) is the most prominent lateral projection in the cat and brachycephalic breeds of dog, whereas it is less prominent in dolichocephalic breeds. It extends as a convex arch rostrally towards the facial part of the skull below the orbit. It is formed by the **zygomatic bone** and the zygomatic process of the **squamous temporal bone**, which meet in an overlapping suture.

The transverse surface of the base of the zygomatic process articulates with the **temporomandibular joint**. The corresponding articulating surface of the mandible has two parts, the mandibular fossa and the distinct retroarticular process.

The concave **temporal fossa** (fossa temporalis), which forms the attachment of the temporal muscle, is formed by the temporal and parietal bones and the pterygoid plate of the basisphenoid bone. The frontal process of the zygomatic bone does not extend to the zygomatic process of the frontal bone. This leaves an opening in the dorsal orbital margin, which is closed by the orbital ligament.

The lateral surface forms structures of the **external auditory apparatus**. The **external acoustic meatus** is a short bony tube to which the external ear is attached and is closed by the **tympanic membrane**, which separates the canal of the external ear from the cavity of the middle ear. It is missing in the cat. Ventral and medial to the external acoustic meatus is the **tympanic bulla**, which encloses part of the cavity of the middle ear. Caudal to it, the **auditory canal**, through which the facial and stylomastoid nerves and the stylomastoid artery pass, exits through the **stylomastoid foramen**. The **otic notch** (incisura otica) is indistinct.

The bony **orbit** is the most prominent structure of the dorsal and lateral aspect of the skull, situated between its cranial and facial parts. The orbit is situated more laterally in the dog (79° angle between the orbital axis and the median plane) and more frontally towards the median plane in the cat (49° angle).

While the bony orbit is closed dorsally (margo supraorbitalis) by the **orbital ligament** (ligamentum orbitale), which

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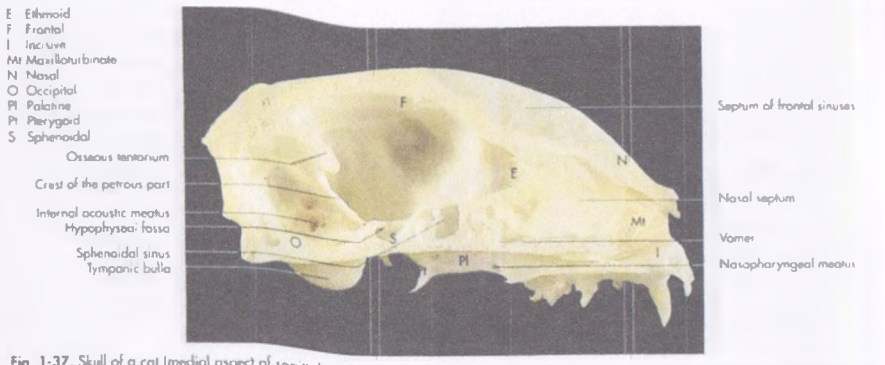


Fig. 1-37. Skull of a cat (medial aspect of sagittal section)

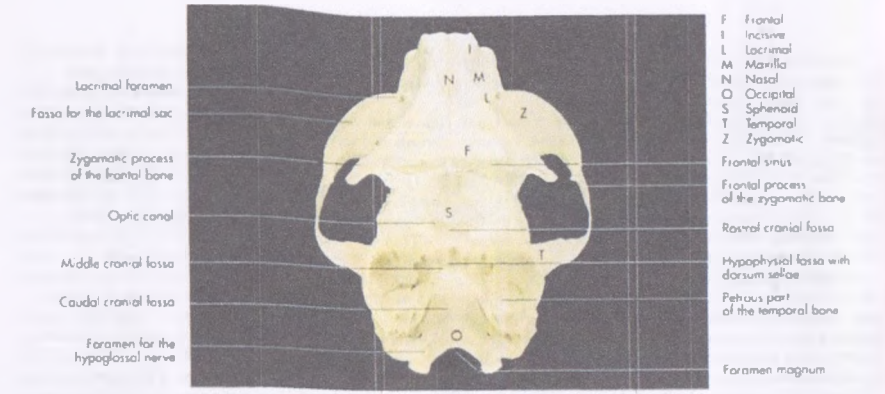


Fig. 1-38. Skull of a cat with calvaria removed (dorsal aspect)

ossifies in most cats, the osseous infraorbital margin is part of the zygomatic arch. The rostromedial wall of the orbital cavity is formed by the lacrimal bone and contains the **lacrimal fossa** which partially encloses the lacrimal sac. The **nasolacrimal duct** originates within the lacrimal fossa. The dorsomedial wall is excavated to form the distinct **trochlear fovea** (fovea trochlearis). The medial orbital wall is marked by three large openings: the **optic canal** (canalis opticus), the **orbital fissure** (fissura orbitalis) and the **rostral alar foramen** (foramen alare rostrale).

The optic opening is the portal of entry for the optic nerve and the internal ophthalmic artery. The external ophthalmic vein, the ophthalmic, oculomotor, trochlear and abducent nerves, which innervate the muscles of the eye, pass through the orbital fissure. The maxillary nerve and artery pass, from the cranial cavity, through the rostral alar foramen and along the alar canal of the sphenoid bone. The artery and nerve then pass through the **pterygopalatine fossa** (fossa pterygopalatina), which forms the caudal opening to the infraorbital canal, just ventral to the orbital cavity (Fig. 1-91).

The **sphenopalatine foramen** is located caudal and ventral to the pterygopalatine fossa which communicates with the nasal cavity and the caudal palatine foramen, the opening of the palatine canal.

The lateral surface of the facial part of the skull is formed by the maxilla and the incisive bone, complemented in dogs by parts of the zygomatic and lacrimal bones. The most prominent feature of the lateral facial surface is the **infraorbital foramen**, through which the infraorbital nerve leaves the infraorbital canal. The infraorbital canal is remarkably

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The extraorbital foramen is easily palpable in the dog and is located 1 cm dorsal to the third cheek tooth. In the cat, palpation is not possible, it is situated in the bone formed by the zygomatic arch and the maxilla.

The ventral surface of the skull has three distinct regions: the base of the **cranium**, the **hard palate** and the **choanal** region between the nasal cavities and the pharynx.

The base of the **cranium** (basis cranii externa) is made up of the occipital condyles and the basilar part of the occipital bone, the bullae of the sphenoid bones and the wings and processes of the pterygoid bone. These are arranged into a horizontal plane, whereas the paracondylar processes extend from the base of the cranium ventrally and further caudally in the dog than in the cat. Rostral to these, the base of the cranium is flat, with the site of insertion of the flexors of the head ventral. It is perforated by various openings, through which cranial nerves and vessels pass. The **canal of the hypoglossal nerve** (canalis nervi hypoglossi) opens caudal to the occipital condyles, and forms the exit for the hypoglossal nerve (XII). The **jugular foramen** (foramen jugulare), through which the glossopharyngeal (IX), vagus (X) and accessory (XI) nerves pass, together with the internal jugular vein, is situated between the occipital bone and the tympanic bulla. The **oval foramen** (foramen ovale), through which the mandibular nerve (nervus mandibularis) emerges, is in the junction between the occipital bone and the basisphenoid bone.

The **hard palate** (palatum osseum) is broad caudally and becomes narrow rostrally. It is bordered by the dental arcades, which are embedded in the alveolar processes of the maxilla and the incisive bone. The hard palate is formed caudally by the horizontal part of the palatine bone and continued by those of the incisive bone. The **major palatine foramen**, through which the like-named nerve and arteries pass, is situated at the junction of the palatine bone with the maxilla. The **choanae** are the openings that lead from the nasal cavities to the pharynx. They are especially long and narrow in dolichocephalic dogs. The choanal region is bounded by the perpendicular parts of the palatine and pterygoid bones laterally, which join the vomer bone and the vomer dorsally to form the choanal septum. The horizontal hard palate extends a fine process at its caudal margin, the caudal nasal spine (spina nasalis caudalis). The hook-shaped **hamulus** projects rostrally from the pterygoid process (hamulus pterygoideus).

The **mandible** is a paired bone, which is firmly united rostrally to the mandible of the other side at the **mandibular symphysis** (articulatio intermandibularis). The body of each mandible extends caudally into the angular process caudally. Its ventral margin is strongly indented by the **facial notch** (incisura vasorum facialium), which is typical for domestic mammals and carnivores. The alveolar margin of the mandible contains the dental alveoli for the cheek teeth (seven in the dog, six in the cat), the canine tooth and the three incisors. The **interalveolar margin** (diastema) is comparatively short.

The lateral surface of the mandibular ramus is concave. The **mandibular fossa**, which is bordered by the rostral and mandibular crests (crista mandibularis rostralis and crista mandibularis caudalis), is deep. The short condylar process carries the transversely elongated **head of the mandible** (caput mandibulae), which forms the **temporomandibular joint** by articulating with the temporal bone. The coronoid process extends beyond the condylar process dorsally and gives attachment to the temporal muscle.

The **ramus of the mandible** is perforated by the **mandibular canal**, through which the mandibular alveolar nerve passes. The mandibular canal begins caudally with the mandibular foramen on the medial surface of the ramus of the mandibular and emerges rostrally on the lateral surface of the interalveolar margin by means of the mental foramen. The latter foramen consists of two to three openings in carnivores. The mandibular canal continues rostrally to the dental alveoli of the incisor and canine teeth as the alveolar canal. In the dog the mental foramen can be located in the middle of the lateral surface ventral to the first cheek tooth; the mandibular foramen is found 2 cm caudal of the last mandibular cheek tooth.

Hyoid bone (os hyoideum)

The **hyoid bone** comprises the transverse, unpaired **basihyoid** (basihyoideum), each end of which articulates rostrodorsally with the paired **ceratohyoids** thus connecting to the suspensory part of the hyoid apparatus and caudally with the paired **thyrohyoid**. The thyrohyoid extends dorsocaudally to the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. The suspensory apparatus consists of the bony **epihyoid** and **stylohyoid** and the cartilagenous tympanohyoid joined together by cartilagenous tissue. The **tympanohyoid** joins the hyoid apparatus to the skull, by articulating with the **mastoid process of the petrosal part of the temporal bone**, which is situated caudal to the external acoustic meatus, forming a syndesmosis. This system of uniting the component parts by synchondroses provides the anatomical structure of the hyoid apparatus, which acts as a flexible suspensory mechanism between the base of the tongue, the skull and the larynx. The various elements of the bone can be visualised radiographically, but one has to remember that it takes at least two to three months post partum for the bones of the major part of the hyoid apparatus to ossify.

Cavities of the skull of carnivores

Cranial cavity (cavum cranii)

The **cranial cavity** is divided into a **larger rostral cavity**, which encloses the cerebrum and a **smaller caudal part** for the cerebellum. The separation of the two compartments is marked by the tentorium cerebelli osseum dorsally, the paired petrosal crests laterally and the dorsum sellae furcicae ventrally. The roof of the skull, the **calvaria**, consists of an external and an internal lamina, which enclose the frontal sinus in its rostral two thirds (Fig. 1-23). The internal surface of the cranial cavity has smooth **impressions** (impressiones digitatae) and irregular **elevations** (jugae cerebrales), which correspond to the sulci and gyri of the brain.

The **median internal sagittal crest**, to which the falx cerebri attaches, is low and smooth. It is accompanied on both sides by the groove for the dorsal sagittal sinus (sulcus sinus sagittalis dorsalis). These blood sinuses enter the osseous tentorium cerebelli (foramen sinus sagittalis) and pass through

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the canal of the transverse sinus (canalis sinus transversi), which leads, via the temporal canal, to the retroarticular foramen next to the external acoustic meatus. The temporal canal is absent in the cat.

The rostral wall is formed by the transversely orientated cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone and parts of the internal lamina of the frontal bone. The median crista galli is only present in the dorsal part of the cribriform plate, thus leaving a single ethmoidal fossa ventrally for the passage of the olfactory nerve bundles and blood vessels through the cribriform plate. The ethmoidal foramen, through which the ethmoidal nerve and external ethmoidal artery and vein emerge, is found either side of the cribriform plate. While these foramina are paired in the dog, there is only a single ethmoidal foramen in the cat.

The internal surface of the **base of the cranium** (basis cranii interna) is divided into three distinct fossae (Fig. 1-9). The relatively long **rostral cranial fossa** (fossa cranii rostralis) is formed mostly by the presphenoid bone and extends from the cribriform plate to the orbitosphenoidal crest (crista orbitosphenoidalis). It covers the **chiasmatic groove** (sulcus chiasmatis) of the optic chiasma and includes the paired optic canal, through which the optic nerves pass.

The **middle cranial fossa** (fossa cranii medialis) is separated from the **caudal cranial fossa** (fossa cranii caudalis) by the prominent dorsum sellae turcicae. The **hypophyseal fossa**, in which the **hypophysis** lies, is rostral to this. Either side of it are two deep fossae, which protect the piriform lobes (lobi piriformes) of the cerebrum. The middle cranial fossa is perforated by several different-shaped openings through which nerves and vessels pass (Fig. 1-9). These are, from rostral to caudal:

- **orbital fissure** (fissura orbitalis), through which the oculomotor, trochlear and abducent nerves, and the anastomotic branch of the internal carotid artery pass,
- **round foramen** (foramen rotundum), through which the maxillary nerve passes and
- **oval foramen** (foramen ovale), through which the mandibular nerve and the middle meningeal artery pass.

The osseous structure of the **caudal fossa of the cranium** (fossa cranii caudalis) is formed by the basilar part of the occipital bone, bound laterally by the petrosal part of the temporal bone and extends caudally to the foramen magnum (Fig. 1-9). The internal surface has two concave impressions (impressio pontina and impressio medullaris). The **jugular foramen** (foramen jugulare), through which the glossopharyngeal, vagus and accessory nerves, and in the dog, the internal carotid artery pass, is located close to the occipitotympanic suture.

Nasal cavity (cavum nasi)

The **nasal cavity** is the facial part of the respiratory tract and extends from the osseous **nasal opening** (apertura nasi ossea) to the **cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone**. It is separated longitudinally into two symmetric halves by the median nasal septum, which continues caudally in the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid bone and rostrally in the cartilagenous, flexible part of the nasal septum (pars mobilis septi nasi).

Each half of the nasal cavity contains the **nasal conchae** (conchae nasales) rostrally and the **ethmoturbinates** (ethmoturbinalia) caudally. The nasal cavity ends in the nasopharyngeal meatus, which leads to the nasal part of the pharynx.

The **dorsal nasal concha** (concha nasalis dorsalis) is formed by the single basal leaf of the first endoturbinate; the **middle nasal concha** (concha nasalis media) is formed by the two spiral leaves of the second endoturbinate and the **ventral nasal concha** (concha nasalis ventralis) is formed by the maxillary turbinate.

The **endoturbinates** are attached to the dorsal and lateral walls and the cribriform ethmoidal plate. The dog usually has four larger endoturbinates and six smaller ectoturbinates. The **first endoturbinate** is the most dorsal and provides the osseous structure of the dorsal nasal concha. It arises from the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid, attaches to the ethmoid crest (crista ethmoidalis) of the nasal bone and extends into the nasal cavity. The dorsal and ventral spiral leaf of the long second endoturbinate forms the middle nasal concha. The **third** and **fourth endoturbinates** are extremely well developed with the third being longer than the fourth.

The **ventral nasal concha** arises from the internal surface of the maxilla beginning at the level of the third cheek tooth reaching up to the nasal process of the incisive bone. The basal leaf divides into a ventral and a dorsal spiral leaf, each of which extend secondary smaller leaves, which results in the extremely complex ethmoidal system.

The protruding nasal conchae divide the nasal cavity into the **dorsal nasal meatus** (meatus nasi dorsalis) between the dorsal nasal concha and the nasal roof, the **middle nasal meatus** (meatus nasi medius) between the dorsal nasal concha and the middle and ventral nasal conchae, which are arranged behind each other, and the **ventral nasal meatus (meatus nasi ventralis)** between the middle and ventral nasal conchae and the nasal floor. The **common nasal meatus** (meatus nasi communis) is a slit-like space between the conchae and the nasal septum.

Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales)

The maxillary sinus of carnivores is better termed the **maxillary recess** (recessus maxillaris), since it is a large diverticulum of the nasal cavity at the level of the medial nasal conchae and not, like in the other domestic mammals, an air-filled cavity between the internal and external laminae of the bones of the skull. In the dog it is bound by the maxilla, the lacrimal bone, the palatine bone and the ethmoidal bone. The broad **nasomaxillary opening** (aditus nasomaxillaris) leads from the middle nasal meatus into the maxillary sinus.

In the dog the **frontal sinus** (sinus frontalis) is located in the rostral two thirds of the frontal bone and is divided into a rostral, lateral and medial compartment. They communicate with the nasal cavity via the space between the second and third ectoturbinate. The cat possesses an undivided frontal sinus and a palatine sinus on each side.

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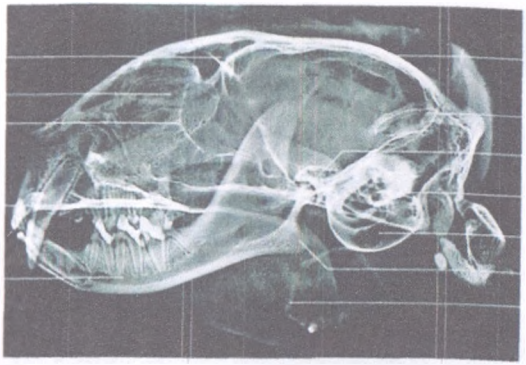


Fig. 1.98 Radiograph of a feline skull (lateralateral projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Cordula Poulsen Nautrup, Munich.

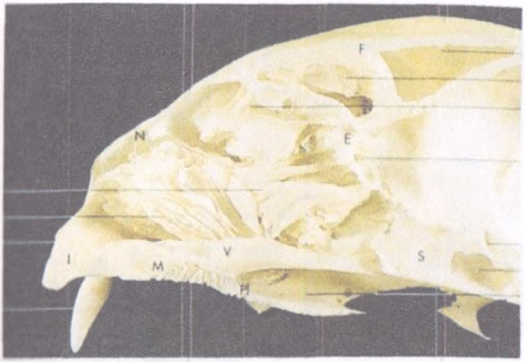


Fig. 1.99 Skull of a cat (medial aspect of paramedian section).

The skull of the horse

The general shape of the equine skull is determined by the size of the head of the animal. In foals the roof of the cranium is domed to match the contours of the brain, the face part of the skull is short and shallow. The conformation of the adult skull develops as the facial part of the skull grows and deepens to accommodate the full set of teeth and to accommodate paranasal sinuses. The enlargement of the facial bones largely influences the dorsal profile of the head, which is the breed-specific appearance: A **convex profile** (ram's head) is typical for certain draft and warmblood breeds, a **concave profile** (dished head) typical for Arabians. Crossbreeds with a mixture of Arab blood, which also show breed specific characteristics become more pronounced in these horses.

The nuchal surface of the equine skull is formed by the squamous and the lateral parts of the occipital bone. It is separated from the dorsal surface by the **nuchal crest** (crista nuchae) and the **external occipital protuberance** (protuberantia occipitalis externa), both of which form the sites of attachment to the head and neck musculature. The external occipital protuberance continues laterally as the supramastoid crest (crista supramastoidea), bordering the nuchal surface.

The **foramen magnum**, through which the spinal cord passes, opens between the two occipital condyles, on the midline. The dorsal surface of the skull of the horse can be divided into a cranial and a facial region. The cranial part is formed by the squamous part of the occipital bone, the parietal and the interparietal bone, which are firmly fused with each other. The frontal bone lies rostral to these and is firmly fused to them by an osseous suture. The unpaired external

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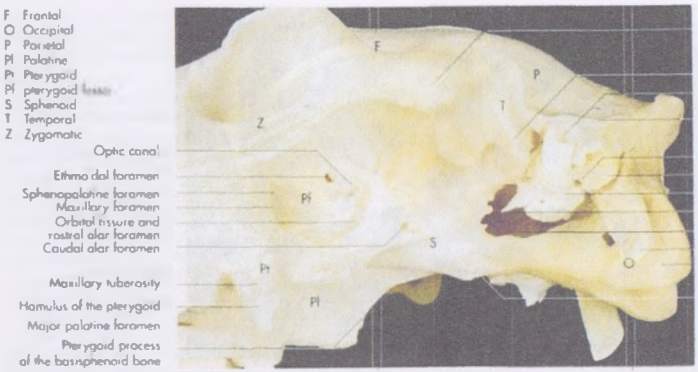


Fig. 1-41. Base of an equine skull (ventrolateral aspect)



Fig. 1-42. Caudal part of an equine skull (lateral aspect)

sagittal crest, medial to the dorsal surface, bifurcates rostrally and then continues as the temporal line, forming part of the wall of the orbit. The roof of the skull is widest at the level of the supraorbital foramen, which is located at the base of the zygomatic process of the frontal bone. This process unites with the frontal process of the zygomatic bone, thus completing the bony supraorbital margin.

The major part of the facial region of the skull is formed by the paired nasal bones, complemented laterally by the maxilla and the nasal processes of the incisive bone. The rostral end of the dorsal surface of the nose is formed by the two apices of the paired nasal bones (processus rostrales).

Like the dorsal surface, the lateral surface is also divisible in a cranial and facial region. The cranial part has the following features:

- zygomatic arch (arcus zygomaticus),
- temporal fossa (fossa temporalis),
- orbit (orbita) and
- pterygopalatine fossa (fossa pterygopalatina).

The **zygomatic arch** (Fig. 1-41 and 42) is strong and passes in a slight lateral bow, rostrally, to the facial part of the skull, covering the lateral aspect of the ventral part of the temporal fossa and the orbit. It is composed of the temporal process of the zygomatic bone and the zygomatic process of the temporal bone. The base of the latter forms the transverse articular surface of the **temporomandibular joint** (articulatio temporomandibularis). The articular area of this joint consists of the articular tubercle (tuberculum articulare) rostrally, the mandibular fossa

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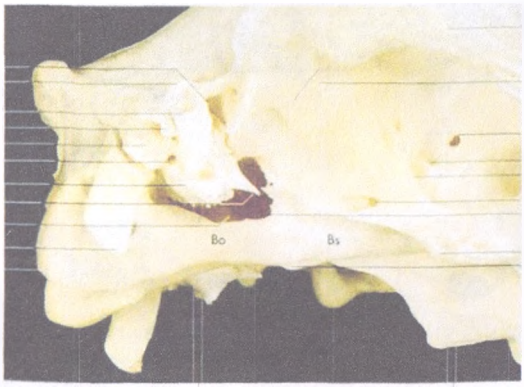


Fig. 1-43. Caudal part of an equine skull (ventrolateral aspect).



Fig. 1-44. Cranial cavity of a horse (medial aspect).

the middle and the **retroarticular** (retroarticularis) caudally (Fig. 1-42).

The temporal fossa has a semicircular outline curving from the laterobasal to the caudal aspects adjacent to the zygomatic arch, the supramastoid and the nuchal crest. It forms the attachment to the temporal muscle. The caudal aspect of the lateral surface is characterized by the **external part of the ear** (auris) (Fig. 1-41 and 42). The short, funnel shaped external acoustic canal (meatus acusticus externus), which attaches to the tube opening (porus acusticus externus), lies ventral to the temporomandibular joint. The **retroarticular fossa** lies ventral to the otic notch, and forms the opening of the **styloid canal** (meatus temporalis). The **styloid process** (stylohyoideus), with which the hyoid bone articulates, is located ventral to the retroarticular foramen. The canal through which the facial nerve passes (canalis nervi facialis) opens in the stylomastoid foramen, which is located caudal to the styloid process and through which the stylomastoid artery and vein and the facial nerve run after their passage through the middle ear. The walls of the **orbital cavity** (Fig. 1-45) are composed of the frontal, lacrimal and zygomatic bones, the basisphenoid and the zygomatic process of the temporal bone. The orbits project almost laterally, resulting in an angle of 115° between the orbital axis and the median plane. The osseous supraorbital margin has a fine edge and extends to the rostral and caudal lacrimal processes. At the medial canthus, the orbital wall is indented by the fossa for the lacrimal sac and the fossa for the ventral oblique muscle of the eye. The trochlear fovea and the fossa for the lacrimal gland are caudomedial to this, at the base of the zygomatic process of

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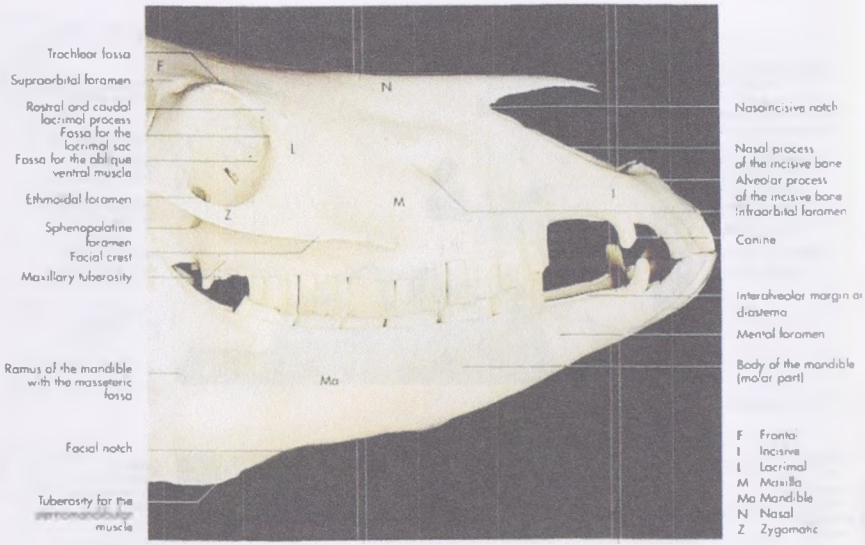


Fig. 1-45. Facial part of a stallion (lateral aspect)

the frontal bone. There are several openings between the medial orbital wall rostral to the pterygoid crest and the cranial cavity (Fig. 1-41).

These are, from dorsal to ventral:

- **ethmoidal foramen** (foramen ethmoidale) close to the osseous suture formed by the frontal bone and the wing of the presphenoid, through which the ethmoidal nerve and external ethmoidal vessel pass,
- **optic canal** (canalis opticus) through which the optic nerve passes,
- **orbital fissure** (fissura orbitalis) for the passage of the ophthalmic, trochlear, oculomotor and abducent nerves, which innervate the muscles of the eye, and the external ophthalmic vein,
- **round foramen** (foramen rotundum) for the maxillary nerve,
- **rostral alar foramen** (foramen alare rostrale) through which the maxillary artery leaves the alar canal and reaches the pterygopalatine fossa and
- **caudal alar foramen** (foramen alare caudale) through which the maxillary artery enters.

Ventral to the orbital cavity is the **pterygopalatine fossa** (fossa pterygopalatina) (Fig. 1-41), where the large **maxillary foramen** (foramen maxillare) is located rostrally, through which the maxillary artery and nerve enter the infraorbital canal. Dorsomedially to it lie the **sphenopalatine foramen** (foramen sphenopalatinum), which leads into the nasal cavity, and the **caudal palatine foramen** (foramen palatinum caudale), the opening of the palatine canal. Both these foramen enclose branches of the maxillary artery, vein and nerve. The **pterygopalatine fossa** is formed by the maxillary tuberosity laterally and the perpendicular part of the palatine bone medially.

The **lateral surface** of the facial part of the skull is composed of the maxilla, the incisive, the nasal, the zygomatic and the lacrimal bones. The most prominent features of the lateral facial surface are the **infraorbital foramen** (foramen infraorbitale) and the **facial crest** (crista facialis) (Fig. 1-45). The infraorbital foramen is the opening through which the infraorbital nerve and vessels leave the infraorbital canal. It is easily palpable through the overlying skin, the levator of the upper lip and nasolabial levator muscle (m. levator labii superficialis, m. levator nasolabialis) in the live animal 3 cm dorsal to the facial crest and 2 cm rostral to the rostral end of it. The facial crest is a prominent bony ridge on the lateral surface of the maxilla, which is continuous caudally with the zygomatic arch.

The **basal surface** of the skull consists of a cranial, choanal and palatine region, which are arranged behind each other in a horizontal plane.

The **external surface** of the base of the skull is limited caudally by the occipital condyles, which are separated by

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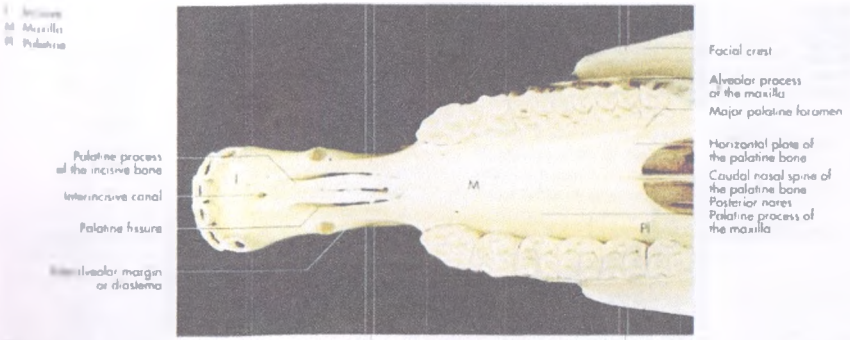


Fig. 1-44. Bones of the hard palate of a horse (ventral aspect).

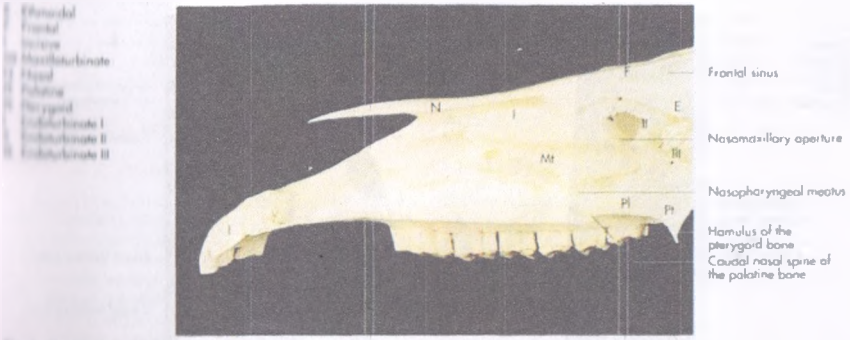


Fig. 1-45. Facial part of an equine skull (medial aspect of paramedian section).

intercondylar notch (incisura intercondylaris). Rostrolateral to the occipital condyles and separated from them by the [illegible] condylar fossa are the hook-shaped, laterally compressed paracondylar processes. The medial wall of the condylar fossa bears the hypoglossal canal, through which the hypoglossal nerve passes. The median muscular tubercle to which the head and neck musculature attaches is situated on the border between the base of the occipital bone and the basisphenoid.

The **base of the skull** is characterised by several openings through which cranial nerves and vessels pass. The **jugular foramen** (open between the base of the occipital bone and the temporal bone, caudal to the petro-occipital fissure. Rostrolateral to it is the **foramen lacerum**, through which caudal extent of the nasopharyngeal (IX), the vagus (X), and the accessory nerve exit (Fig. 1-44).

The rostral part of the foramen lacerum is sharply bordered by the [illegible] wing of the basisphenoid and is subdivided in several notches (incisura carotica, ovalis and spinosa) that allow the passage for the internal carotid artery, the mandibular nerve (V3) and the middle meningeal artery, respectively (Fig. 1-44).

The **hard palate** (palatum osseum) is relatively long and narrow (Fig. 1-46). It is bordered by the dental alveoli for the six (or seven) upper cheek teeth, which are part of the alveolar processes of the maxilla and the incisive bone. The interalveolar margin carries the socket for the canine tooth and rostral to it are the dental alveoli for incisor teeth. A minor part of the hard palate is formed by the horizontal plates of the palatine bones, the rest is formed by the horizontal parts of the incisive bone and the maxilla. The palatine canal opens in the paired major palatine foramen, where the narrow palatine bone joins the maxilla. The major palatine nerve and vessel exit at this foramen.

The **choanae** are the openings which lead from the nasal cavities to the nasopharynx. The choanal region is bordered

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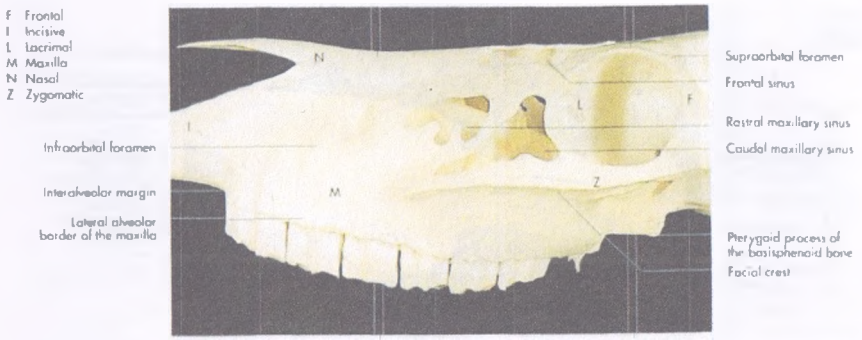


Fig. 1-48. Frontal and maxillary sinuses of a horse (lateral aspect)

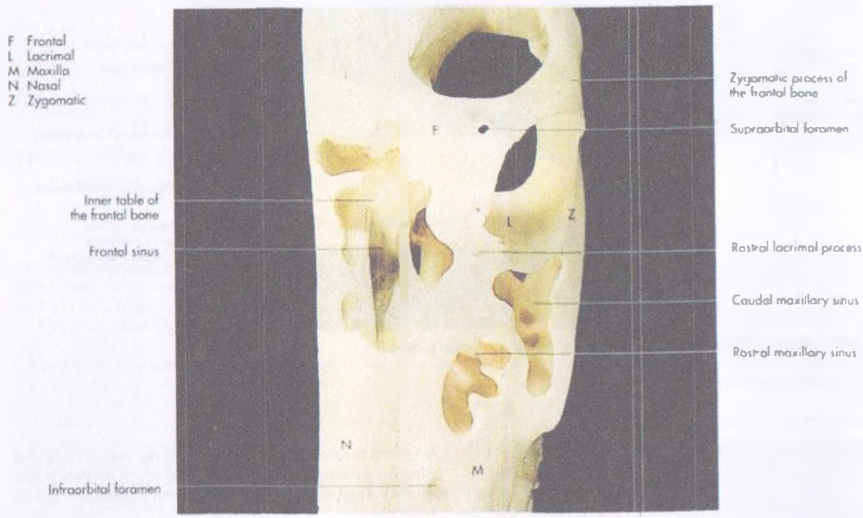


Fig. 1-49. Frontal and maxillary sinuses of a horse (dorsal aspect)

laterally by the perpendicular plates of the palatine and pterygoid bones, and dorsally by parts of the sphenoid bone and the vomer caudally. The prominent **pterygoid hamulus**, a hook-shaped process, projects from the pterygoid bone, while the caudal nasal spine is an extension of the choanal margin of the horizontal palatine plate.

The two mandibles (Fig. 1-29) are firmly fused at the **mental angle** (angulus mentalis), forming the mandibular symphysis, which becomes undetectable at two years of age. The body of the mandible has a roughening for the attachment of the sternomandibular muscle (tuberositas sternomandibularis) caudodorsal to the mandibular angle. Its alveolar border carries the sockets for the six cheek teeth, its interalveolar border, the socket for the canine tooth and its incisive part, for the three incisor teeth. A prominent vascular notch, the **facial notch** (incisura vasorum facialium), marks the ventral border, where the

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facial vessels pass onto the lateral surface of the face. The condylar process ends dorsally in the transversely orientated mandibular head, and the coronoid process projects far into the temporal fossa. The mandibular canal can be entered via the mandibular foramen on the lateral aspect of the mandibular ramus by drawing an imaginary line from the condylar process to the rostral border of the facial notch (Fig. 1-45). The mandibular nerve leaves the mandibular canal through the mental foramen as the mental nerve, which can be palpated on the lateral surface 1 cm ventral to the interalveolar margin at the level of the labial commissure. The mental nerve is accompanied by the mental vessels.

Hyoid bone (os hyoideum)

A substantial median **lingual process** (processus lingualis) projects from the transverse basihyoid into the root of the tongue (Fig. 1-43). From each end of the basihyoid extend the **hyoid arches** caudally to the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. The paired ceratohyoid articulates with the osseous epihyoid, which itself is firmly fused to the osseous stylohyoid and the cartilaginous tympanohyoid in the adult horse. The latter joins the hyoid apparatus to the head by forming a syndesmosis with the styloid process of the tympanic part of the temporal bone.

Cavities of the equine skull

Cranial cavity (cavum cranii)

The cranial cavity is divided into a larger compartment rostrally, which encloses the cerebrum and a smaller compartment caudally for the cerebellum. The limits of these two cavities are indicated dorsally by the osseous tentorium cerebelli and laterally by the petrous crests of the petrous temporal bone. The rostral third of the **roof of the skull** (calvaria) (Fig. 1-44) encloses the frontal sinus between its internal and external plates. The internal surface is marked by various **depressions** (impressiones digitatae, juga cerebralia), which match the sulci and gyri of the brain. These grooves lead to the transverse sinus groove, which itself ends in the temporal meatus, and finally also at the mastoid foramen, close to the external occipital protuberance. The rostral wall of the cranial cavity is formed by the cribriform plate of the ethmoidal bone and parts of the orbital plate of the frontal bone. The **cribriform plate** and two smaller **deep ethmoidal fossae** by a well developed sagittal ridge, the crista galli. They are peforated to allow the passage of the olfactory nerve bundles and also present the foramina for the ethmoidal nerve and the external ethmoidal artery and vein.

The internal surface of the **base of the cranium** (basis cranii interna) (Fig. 1-44) is divided into three regions. The rostral cranial fossa (fossa cranialis rostralis) lies at a more ventral level than the following middle fossa and extends from the cribriform plate to the orbitosphenoidal crest; it forms a shallow groove which covers the optic canal at the **optic chiasm** (optic crossing). The demarcation between the middle cranial fossa (fossa cranialis media) and caudal cranial fossa (fossa cranialis caudalis) is indistinct. The middle cranial fossa is concave, forming the hypophyseal fossa, which encloses the hypophysis, and the piriform fossa, which encloses the piriform lobes. On either side there are two grooves extending to the orbital fissure, through which the ophthalmic, oculomotor and abducent nerves pass. The inner surface of the base of the cranium is marked by the following, through which nerves and vessels pass:

- **orbital fissure** (fissura orbitalis) medially for the passage of the ophthalmic, oculomotor and abducent nerve,
- **round foramen** (foramen rotundum) laterally for the maxillary nerve,
- **trochlear foramen** (foramen trochleare) for the trochlear nerve.

The basioccipital and the petrosal part of the temporal bone form the caudal cranial fossa (fossa cranii caudalis) (Fig. 1-44). It extends to the foramen magnum and its internal surface has several shallow depressions. The laterobasal wall is perforated by the foramen lacerum and its caudal part by the jugular foramen. Rostrally the foramen lacerum is provided with three notches (mediolaterally): the carotid (for the internal carotid artery), the oval (for the mandibular nerve, V_3), and the spinous (for the middle meningeal artery). The glossopharyngeal (IX), vagus (X) and accessory (XI) nerves exit through the jugular foramen. Its base presents the entrance to the canal for the hypoglossal nerve.

Nasal cavity (cavum nasi)

The **nasal conchae** of the equine skull differ widely from those of the other domestic mammals (Fig. 1-48 and 47). The spiral leaf of the first endoturbinate forms two compartments: the rostral part scrolls ventrally and demarcates the dorsal conchal recess, whereas the caudal part encloses the dorsal conchal sinus. This sinus is continuous with the frontal sinus; the combined sinuses are termed **conchofrontal sinus** (sinus conchofrontalis). There is no direct communication between this sinus and the nasal cavity, but they communicate indirectly via the caudal maxillary sinus.

The maxilla provides the osseous border for the **ventral nasal concha** (os conchae nasalis ventralis). It scrolls dorsally, forming the ventral conchal recess rostrally and the ventral conchal sinus caudally. The latter communicates with the rostral maxillary sinus. The entire ethmoidal labyrinth comprises **six endoturbinates** and **25 ectoturbinates** in the horse. The first endoturbinate extends further rostrally than the other, more ventrally located turbinates. The second endoturbinate is short and contains the middle conchal sinus, which communictaes with the caudal maxillary sinus. The ectoturbinates are arranged in two rows, a lateral row with smaller and a medial row with larger turbinates.

Paranasal sinuses (sinus paranasales)

The following paranasal sinuses are present in the adult horse (Fig. 1-44, 47 to 49).

- **caudal maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris caudalis),
- **rostral maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris rostralis),

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- **conchofrontal sinus** (sinus conchofrontalis), which is subdivided into a **dorsal conchal sinus** (sinus conchae dorsalis) and a **frontal sinus** (sinus frontalis),
- **sphenopalatine sinus** (sinus sphenopalatinus) and
- **ventral conchal sinus** (sinus conchae ventralis).

The larger **caudal maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris caudalis) is accommodated within the caudal part of the maxilla, the lacrimal bone and the zygomatic bone. The smaller **rostral maxillary sinus** (sinus maxillaris rostralis) lies entirely within the rostral part of the maxilla. The two maxillary sinuses are separated from each other by a bony septum. This **septum** (septum sinuum maxillarium) is commonly situated about 4 to 6 cm from the rostral end of the facial crest. The floor of the maxillary sinuses is indented by the dental alveoli for the last three cheek teeth.

Further medially a sagittally orientated bony plate, which includes the infraorbital canal at its free margin, projects into the maxillary sinuses and divides them into a medial and a lateral compartment. Both sinuses share a slit-like opening towards the middle nasal meatus, the **nasomaxillary aperture** (apertura nasomaxillaris), which is located at the level of the fifth cheek tooth in the adult horse (Fig. 1-47). The caudal maxillary sinus communicates directly or indirectly with all the other paranasal sinuses.

This anatomical arrangement accounts for the spread of infection throughout the paranasal sinuses. The caudal maxillary sinus communicates with the conchofrontal sinus through the **frontomaxillary opening** (apertura frontomaxillaris) at the level of the lacrimal duct. The conchofrontal sinus consists of the dorsal conchal sinus and the frontal sinus. The union of the palatine and the sphenoidal sinus results in the combined sphenopalatine sinus. The rostral maxillary sinus communicates with the ventral conchal sinus through the conchomaxillary opening (apertura conchomaxillaris), which can be entered via the infraorbital canal.

Vertebral column or spine (columna vertebralis)

The **vertebral column** is composed of a series of unpaired bones, the vertebrae, the number of which varies between domestic mammals. Although the vertebrae of the different regions (cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral and caudal vertebrae) have to fulfil different functions and therefore have individual characteristics, all vertebrae share a common basic structure (Fig. 1-50). The vertebrae are classified as **short bones** (ossa brevia) with spongy substance (substantia spongiosa) in the center and compact bone (substantia compacta) around it. Each vertebra consists of:

- **body** (corpus vertebrae),
- **arch** (arcus vertebrae),
- **processes** (processus vertebrae).

The **body** is the prismatic or cylindrical ventral part of a vertebra on which the other parts are constructed. Each vertebral body has a convex **cranial** (extremitas cranialis) and a concave **caudal** (extremitas caudalis) **extremity**, which are covered by a plate of hyaline cartilage, forming the unossified part of the epiphysis of the vertebral body (Fig. 1-50).

Intervertebral fibrocartilagenous discs (disci intervertebrales) are interposed between adjacent vertebrae. The dorsal surface of the body of the vertebrae is marked by longitudinal grooves, nutritional foramina and a median ridge for ligamentous attachment. The ventral surface carries the **ventral crest** (crista ventralis), which varies in size in the different regions of the vertebral column.

The **vertebral arch** or **neural arch** forms over the dorsal surface of the vertebral body, thus completing the enclosure of a **vertebral foramen** (foramen vertebrale) (Fig. 1-50). Each vertebral arch is made up of two lateral pedicles (pediculus arcus vertebrae) and a dorsal plate (lamina arcus vertebrae). The vertebral foramina correspond with that of adjacent vertebrae to form the **vertebral canal** (canalis vertebralis), which surrounds the spinal cord, its meninges, spinal nerves, blood vessels, ligaments, fat and connective tissue.

The diameter of the vertebral canal is greatest at the level of the first and second cervical vertebrae. It is reduced in width throughout the cervical spine, increases again in the cranial thoracic region and becomes narrower in the caudal thoracic region. The diameter widens again in the lumbar region and gradually becomes narrower at the level of the first caudal vertebra.

Remnants of a **ventral arch** are found on the caudal vertebrae of cats, dogs and ruminants (Fig. 1-87).

The bases of the pedicles are notched (incisura vertebralis cranialis and caudalis). When successive vertebrae articulate, the notches on either side of adjacent vertebrae outline the intervertebral foramina (foramina intervertebralia), through which the spinal nerves pass (Fig. 1-52 and 53).

Dorsally most of the vertebral arches fit closely without leaving a space. Yet there are three sites in the vertebral column where an **interarcual space** (spatium interarcuale) is formed between the arches of adjacent vertebrae (Fig. 1-51 and 53). These are of clinical importance, since they can be used to enter the vertebral canal for injections or obtaining samples of cerebrospinal fluid:

- **atlanto-occipital space** (spatium atlanto-occipitale) between the occipital bone and the first vertebra (atlas),
- **atlantoaxial space** (spatium atlantoaxiale) between the first (atlas) and the second vertebra (axis),
- **lumbosacral space** (spatium lumbosacrale) between the last lumbar vertebra and the sacrum.

Each vertebra carries a number of **processes** (processus vertebrae) for the attachment of muscles and ligaments and for the articulation with adjacent vertebrae. The following processes can be present (Fig. 1-50):

- one **dorsal** or **spinous process** (processus spinosus) at the mid-dorsal line of the vertebral arch,
- two **transverse processes** (processus transversi), projecting laterally from the base of the vertebral arch.

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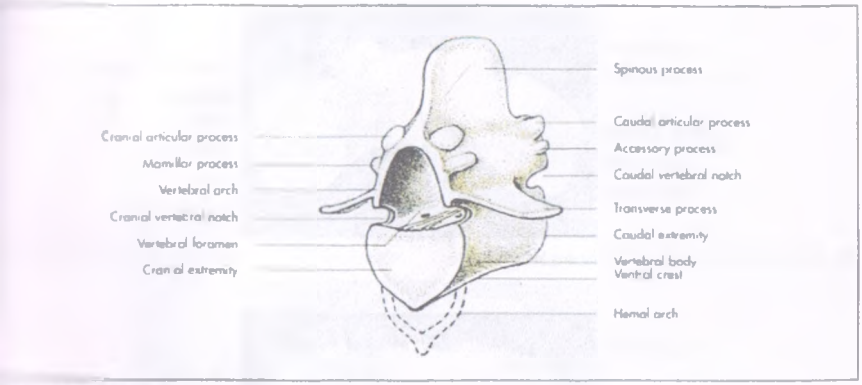


Fig. 1-48 Cervical vertebra (schematic, cranial aspect)

articular processes (processus articulares cranialis et caudales), positioned cranial and caudal to the base of the spinous process,

mamillary processes (processus mamillares) between the transverse and cranial articular processes of the thoracic and lumbar vertebrae;

additional processes are found in some species:

accessory processes (processus accessorii) between the transverse and the caudal articular processes of the last thoracic vertebrae (carnivores and pigs) and the lumbar vertebrae (carnivores).

The numbers of vertebrae that compose each region is characteristic for the different species (Tab. 1-2, p. 93).

Cervical vertebrae (vertebrae cervicales)

The first (atlas) and **second** (axis) **cervical vertebrae** are specialised to allow free movement of the head (Fig. 1-48). The atlas apparently possesses no body, but consists of two lateral masses (massae laterales) joined by dorsal and ventral arches (arcus dorsalis et ventralis), which constitute a ring. The **dorsal tubercle** (tuberculum dorsale) is located on the dorsal end of the dorsal arch and the **ventral tubercle** (tuberculum ventrale) on the caudal end of the ventral arch. An elongated **transverse process** (processus transversus) projects from each mass (massa lateralis); these shell-like processes are called the **wings of the atlas** (alae atlantis) (Fig. 1-51 and 52).

The ventral aspect of the wing is hollowed to form the **alar fossa**. Its base is perforated by the **alar foramen** (foramen alare), or in carnivores by the **alar notch** (incisura alaris). The **lateral vertebral foramen** (foramen vertebrale laterale) in the craniodorsal part of the vertebral canal and the **transverse foramen** (foramen transversarium) is a short canal passing through the caudal part of the wing of the atlas (Fig. 1-51, 52 and 54). It is not present in ruminants.

The cranial aspect of the ventral arch of the atlas is excavated (fovea articularis cranialis) to articulate with the occipital condyles (condyli occipitales) of the occipital bone. The dorsal surface of the ventral arch has a caudal transverse concave articular surface, the **fovea dentis**, which articulates with the **dens** of the second cervical vertebra. The fovea dentis blends with the shallow articular areas on the caudal surface of the lateral masses (fovea articulares caudales), that articulate with the cranial articular processes of the second cervical vertebra (Fig. 1-53 and 54).

The atlas is modified in form and structure to match its functions. The extended transverse processes, the **wings** (alae atlantis), provide attachment to the dorsal and ventral musculature, which is responsible for up-and-down movement of the head and constitutes the muscular connection between the spine and the nuchal aspect of the occipital bone. The caudal articular surface of the atlas articulates with the second cervical vertebra. The lateral free margin of the wings of the atlas furnish attachment to those head and neck muscles which are primarily responsible for rotary movements of the head. The wide joint spaces of the atlanto-occipital and the atlantoaxial joint support relatively free vertical and rotational movements.

The **second cervical vertebra** (axis) constitutes the pivot around which the atlas, and thus the head rotates (Fig. 1-55 to 58). Its **cylindrical body** (corpus vertebrae) carries a well-developed **ventral crest** (crista ventralis). The cranial extremity of the body is characterised by the centrally located **dens**, which is regarded as the displaced body of the atlas based on its development. It is rodlike in carnivores and more spoutlike in other species, matching the fovea dentis of the atlas. The **ventral articular surface of the dens** (facies articularis ventralis dentis) is confluent with the **cranial articular surfaces** (facies articularis cranialis) in the horse and ox, but

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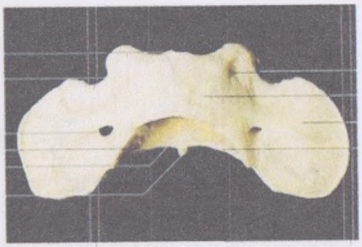


Fig. 1-51. First cervical vertebra (atlas) of a dog (dorsal aspect).



Fig. 1-52. First cervical vertebra (atlas) of a pig (dorsal aspect)



Fig. 1-53. First cervical vertebra (atlas) of an ox (dorsal aspect)

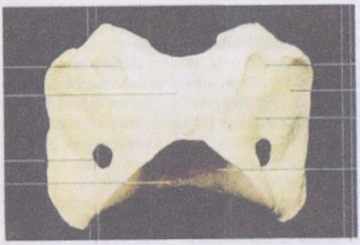


Fig. 1-54. First cervical vertebra (atlas) of a horse (dorsal aspect)

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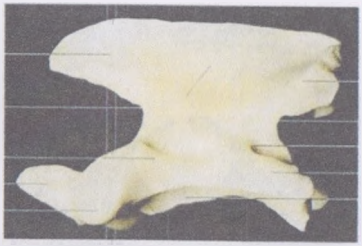


Fig. 1.88. Second cervical vertebra (axis) of a dog (lateral aspect).

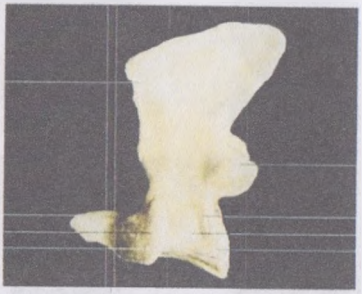


Fig. 1.86. Second cervical vertebra (axis) of a pig (lateral aspect).

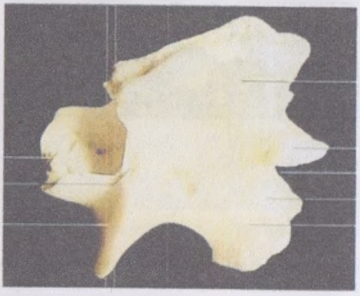


Fig. 1.87. Second cervical vertebra (axis) of an ox (lateral aspect).



Fig. 1.88. Second cervical vertebra (axis) of a horse (lateral aspect).

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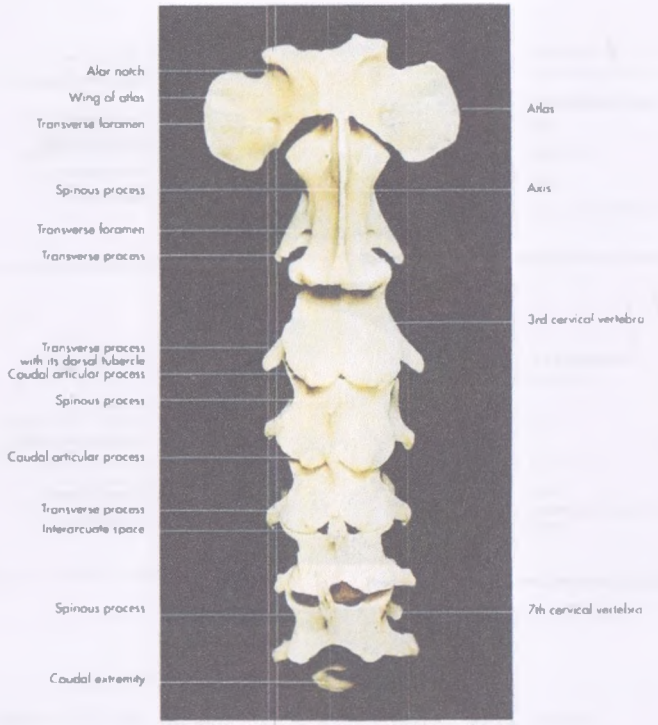


Fig. 1-59. Cervical spine of a dog (dorsal aspect)

separate in the other domestic mammals. The **caudal articular surface** (facies articularis caudalis) is smooth and concave and faces towards the intervertebral disc.

The **arch** (arcus vertebrae) of the axis carries the elongated, expanded **spinous process** (processus spinosus), which overhangs the cranial and caudal end of the vertebral body in carnivores and only the caudal end in the pig. It is a rectangular bony plate in ruminants and bifurcates caudally in the horse. Corresponding to the spinous process the caudal vertebral notch (incisura vertebralis caudalis) is large. The spinous process is confluent with the caudal articular processes in carnivores and horses, but remains separate in ruminants and the pig (Fig. 1-55 to 58).

The paired **transverse processes** (processus transversi) are perforated toward their base by the **transverse foramen** (foramen transversarium). The **cranial vertebral notch** (incisura vertebralis cranialis), present in carnivores is replaced by a **lateral vertebral foramen** (foramen vertebrale laterale) in the other domestic mammals, completed by a narrow bony bridge. Like the atlas the axis is modelled according to its functions. The dens of the axis forms together with the corresponding articular fovea of the atlas, a pivot joint around which the atlas and the head rotate. The articular surface on each side of the spinous process form the insertion of ligaments (especially the nuchal ligament) and muscles.

The **bodies of the remaining cervical vertebrae** become progressively shorter from cranial to caudal. The ventral surfaces of the third to fifth cervical vertebrae carry a stout ventral crest, which becomes indistinct or is absent in the sixth and seventh vertebrae (Fig. 1-59, 62 and 63). The cranial extremity is convex and the caudal extremity correspondingly concave, except in carnivores and the pig.

The **spinous processes** (processus spinosi) are comparatively short in most domestic mammals, but gradually in-

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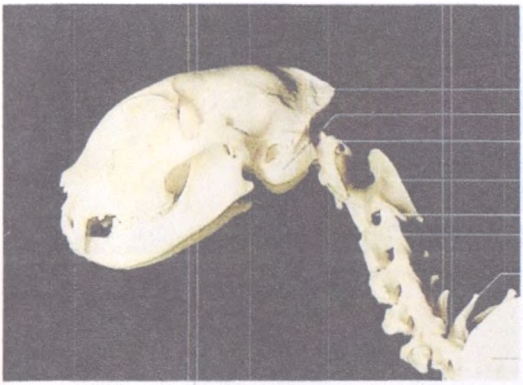


Fig. 1.66 Skull and cervical spine of a cat (lateral aspect)

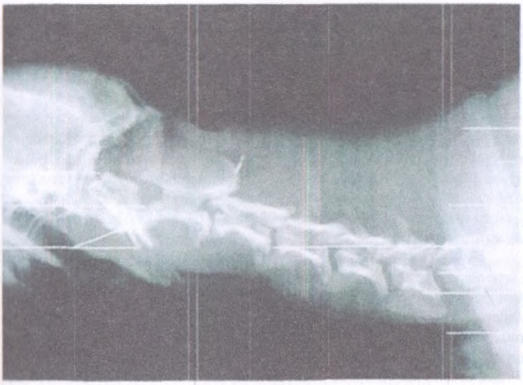


Fig. 1.67 Radiograph of the cervical spine of a dog (laterolateral projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

vertebra. The ventral tubercle of the sixth cervical vertebra is enlarged to form a characteristic **plate-like extension** (lamina ventralis).

The **articular processes** (processus articulares) are large, horizontally orientated and carry flat articular surfaces. The cranial and caudal ends of the vertebral arches are deeply notched on both sides (incisura vertebrales craniales et caudales), thus forming large intervertebral foramen (foramina intervertebralia) between adjacent vertebrae. The seventh cervical vertebra is easily distinguished from the others. It is characterised by a high spinous process and small transverse processes, the absence of a ventral crest (with the exception of the dog) and a transverse foramen. The caudal extremity of the vertebral body presents paired **articular fovea** (fovea

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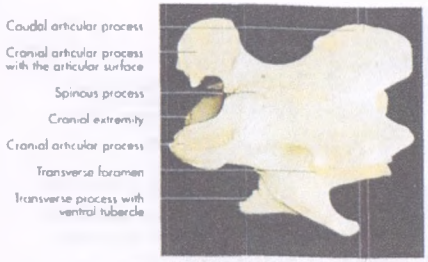


Fig. 1-62. Third cervical vertebra of a horse (dorsolateral aspect)

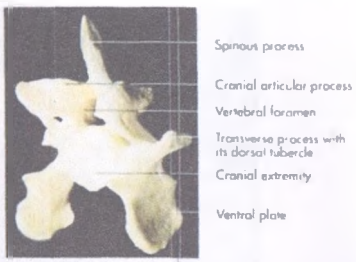


Fig. 1-63. Sixth cervical vertebra of a pig (craniolateral aspect)

costalis caudalis), which form a common articular surface for the head of the first rib together with the cranial articular surface of the first thoracic vertebra.

Thoracic vertebrae (vertebrae thoracicae)

The **thoracic spine** is composed of a chain of thoracic vertebrae. They form, partly overlapping, a slightly dorsoconvex bony rod, which is characterised by its limited flexibility. Adapted to their function the thoracic vertebrae are equipped with special anatomical features: the long spinous processes for the attachment of the strong head and neck musculature in pigs and herbivores. The cranial thoracic vertebrae fulfil an additional function as part of the entire vertebral column by transmitting the body weight to the thoracic limbs and, together with the ribs, provide attachment to the muscles of the ribs, thorax and shoulder.

The thoracic vertebrae articulate with the ribs and correspond with these in number. Minor numeric variations are common among different species and breeds and are often compensated for by reciprocal changes in the number of the lumbar vertebrae. All thoracic vertebrae share the following common features (Fig. 1-64 and 65):

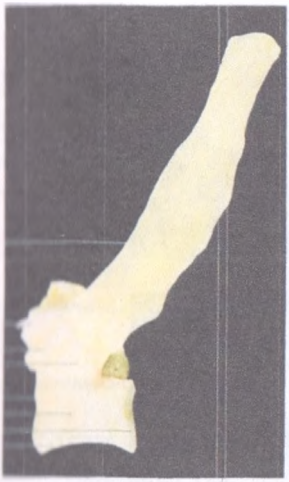
- short **bodies with flattened extremities** (extremitates),
- short **articular processes** (processus articulares),
- closely fitting **vertebral arches** (arcus vertebrae),
- very long **spinous processes** (processus spinosi) and
- **costal facets** on both extremities for the rib heads (foveae costales) and on the **transverse processes** for the rib tubercles.

The **vertebral bodies** are short in the cranial thoracic region, but gradually increase in length further caudal, where a ventral crest is also present. The cranial and caudal extremities of the caudal thoracic vertebrae are flattened conform to the intervertebral discs, which leads to a limited range of movement between two neighbouring vertebrae. The **articular processes** of the cranial thoracic vertebrae are represented by oval facets. The **cranial facets** (foveae articulares craniales) are situated craniodorsal on the base of the spinous process and are orientated tangentially to the vertebral arch. The **caudal facets** (foveae articulares caudales) are on the caudal aspect of the base of the spinous process, but orientate sagittally towards the arch. This arrangement of the articular facets is responsible for the relatively free rotational movement of the cranial thoracic region compared to the restriction of dorsoventral movements of the caudal thoracic and lumbar regions. While the **cranial vertebral notches** (incisura vertebrales craniales) are shallow, the **caudal notches** (incisura vertebrales caudales) are much deeper. The **intervertebral foramen** is comparatively large to allow passage of the spinal nerves and vessels. It is often divided into two by a bony bridge in ruminants.

The **spinous processes** (processus spinosi) are very prominent and extend from the dorsal surface of the vertebral arch (Fig. 1-64 and 65). In carnivores, the spinous processes gradually decrease in length throughout the whole thoracic region; in the pig and ruminants they increase in height in the first three vertebrae, become progressively shorter up to the 11th vertebra in the pig and 12th or 13th in ruminants and stay at the same length for the remainder of the thoracic spine. In the horse, the spinous processes of the first four thoracic vertebrae increase in height and become shorter up to the 13th or 14th vertebra. The high spinous processes of the first three or four thoracic vertebrae constitute the osseous base for the withers.

The **spinous processes** of the cranial thoracic vertebrae are directed caudodorsally, whereas the caudal thoracic and the lumbar vertebrae are inclined cranially (Fig. 1-66 and 69). The thoracic vertebra, whose spinous process are nearly perpendicular to the long axis of that bone, is termed the **diaphragmatic** or **anticlinal vertebra** (vertebra anticlinalis); it is the 10th thoracic vertebra in the dog (Fig. 1-71), the 12th in the pig and goat, the 13th in the ox and the 16th in the horse. The **mamillary processes** (processus mamillares) are only present in the thoracic and lumbar vertebrae. They are located just cranial to the transverse processes in those vertebrae located cranial to the anticlinal vertebra, and are fused with the articular processes to form the combined **mamilloarticular processes** (processus mamilloarticulares) in those vertebrae caudal to the anticlinal vertebra. The body of each thoracic vertebra possesses a **cranial** and **caudal costal facet** (foveae costalis craniales and caudales) lateral to the base of the vertebral

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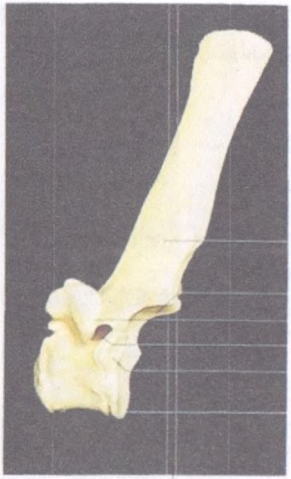


Fig. 1-65. Thoracic vertebra of an ox (left lateral aspect)

...of adjacent vertebrae, complemented by the ... form sockets for the heads of the ribs. ... **transverse processes** (processus transversi) ... **facets** for the articulation with the **costal** ... processus transversi). The two cos... ... and located further apart in the cranial ... shallower and progressively closer. ... higher stability of the cranial ribs, but a in ... caudally.

... vertebrae (vertebrae lumbales)

... **vertebrae** differ from the thoracic vertebrae in ... and have a more uniform shape to their ... The costal facets are absent, the spinous processes are shorter and directed craniodorsally, the transverse processes are long, flattened and project far laterally. The cranial and caudal extremities (extremitates craniales et caudales) of the bodies present flat articular surfaces. The vertebral arches form a widened vertebral canal to accommodate the swelling of the spinal cord in the lumbar region, the **caudal intumescence** (intumescentia lumbalis).

The **spinous processes** are usually about equal in height and inclined cranially. In carnivores the first four or five lumbar vertebrae become progressively longer. In the ox, they show a caudal inclination, whereas in small ruminants they are orientated perpendicular to the long axis of the vertebrae.

The expanded **transverse processes** are the characteristic feature of the lumbar vertebrae. They represent rudimentary

... of the domestic mammals

	Carnivores	Pig	Ox	Small ruminants	Horse
	7	7	7	7	7
	12 - 14	13 - 16	13	13	18
	(6) 7	5 - 7	6	6	5 - 7
	3	4	5	(3) 4 - 5	5
	20 - 23	20 - 23	18 - 20	13 - 14	15 - 21

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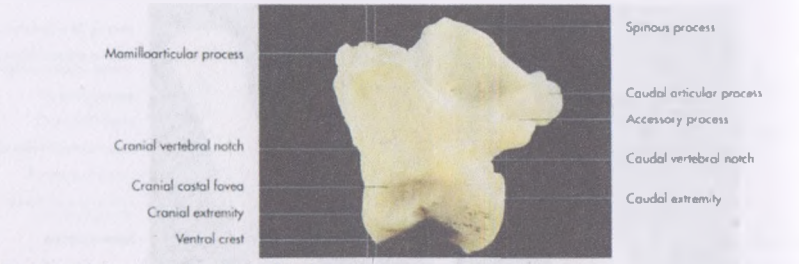


Fig. 1-66. 13th thoracic vertebra of a dog (lateral aspect).

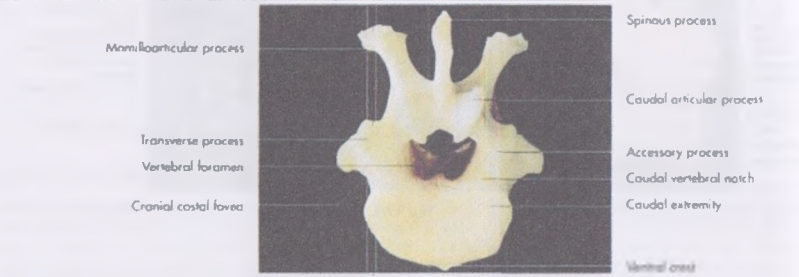


Fig. 1-67. 13th thoracic vertebra of a dog (caudal aspect).

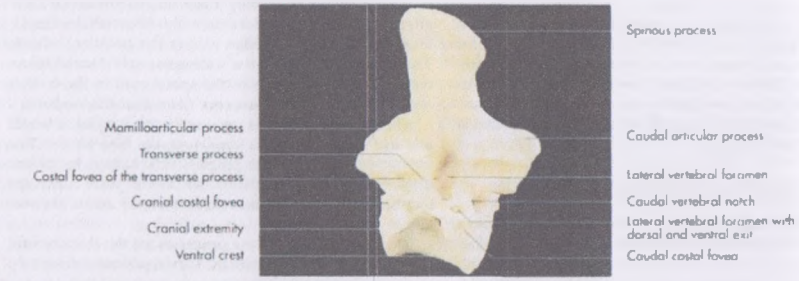


Fig. 1-68. 13th thoracic vertebra of a pig (lateral aspect).

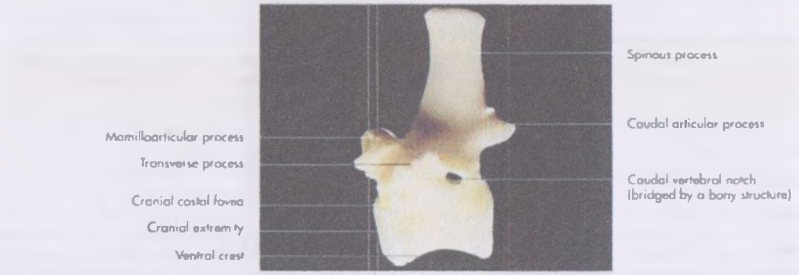


Fig. 1-69. 13th thoracic vertebra of an ox (lateral aspect).

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Fig. 1 F8: Radiograph of the thoracic spine of a dog (laterolateral projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich.

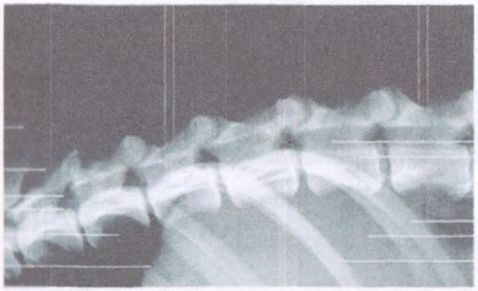


Fig. 1 F9: Radiograph of the thoracic-lumbar region of the spine of a dog (laterolateral projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

...called **costal processes** (processus costales). In carnivores and the pig they have a cranioventral direction, while in ruminants and the horse they are orientated horizontally (Fig. 1-76 to 79).

The first lumbar vertebra has the shortest transverse process. The longest lumbar vertebra is usually the third or fourth in most domestic mammals, except in carnivores, in which the last or sixth lumbar vertebra carries the longest transverse process. In the horse, the transverse processes of the first lumbar vertebra and those of the last lumbar and sacral vertebrae articulate with each other. This results in the formation of the intervertebral foramen in a dorsal and a ventral opening. The **transverse** and **spinous processes** as well as the dorsal crest provide large surfaces for the attachment of the inner lumbar muscles and the abdominal, axial and pelvic musculature.

The sagittal orientation of the **articular processes** permits movement only in a ventral and dorsal direction, and lateral movements are nearly impossible. The articular processes fuse with the mamillary processes to form the club-shaped **mamilloarticular process**.

The **interarcuate spaces** (spatia interarcualia) are narrow in the lumbar region, but wide between the last lumbar and the first sacral vertebra, forming the **lumbosacral interarcuate space** (spatium interarcuale lumbosacrale), which can be used to access the vertebral canal. In the cat, the interarcuate space between the last two lumbar vertebrae is also wide enough to allow injections into the vertebral canal.

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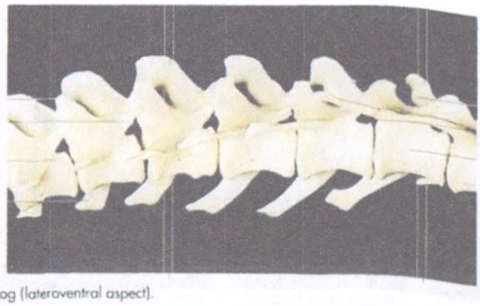


Fig. 1-72. Lumbar spine of a dog (lateroventral aspect).

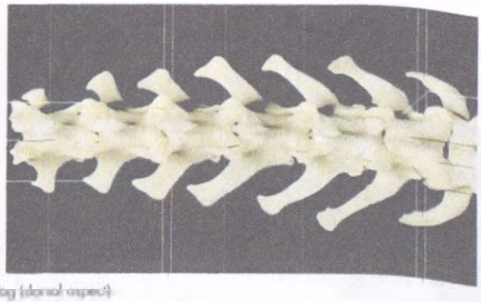


Fig. 1-73. Lumbar spine of a dog (dorsal aspect).

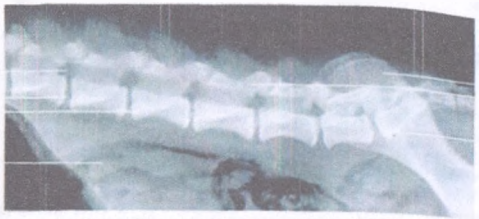


Fig. 1-74. Radiograph of the lumbar spine of a dog (laterolateral projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich.

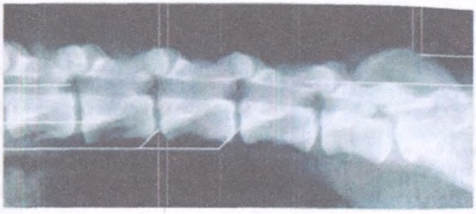
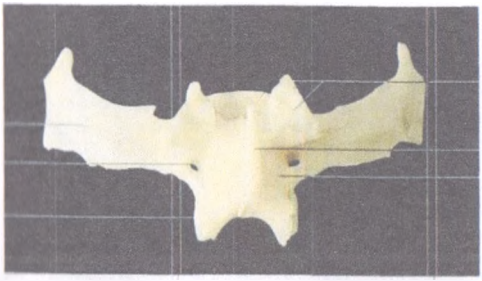
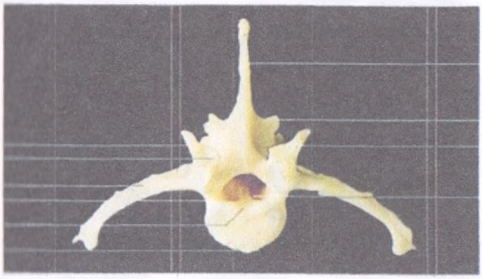


Fig. 1-75. Radiograph of the lumbar spine of a dog (laterolateral projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich.

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[illegible] (dorsal aspect)



[illegible] (cranial aspect)



[illegible] of a horse (dorsal aspect)

[illegible] (vertebrae sacrales)

[illegible] and their ossified intervertebral discs [illegible] form a single bone, the **sacrum** (os [illegible]). In domestic species (Fig. 1-79 to 86), the fusion [illegible] is usually completed by 1.5 years of [illegible] and the pig, 3-4 years in ruminants and 4-5 [illegible]. The ossification of the vertebral articula- [illegible] of the sacral vertebral column. This increases the effectiveness of the transmission of the forward impetus in locomotion from the hindlimbs to the vertebral column.

The **first sacral vertebra** with its expanded wings forms a firm articulation with the pelvic girdle through which the thrust of the hindlimbs is transmitted to the trunk. The more caudal parts of the sacrum do not directly participate in this articulation, but constitute the major part of the roof of the pelvic cavity. The limited variety of function of the sacral

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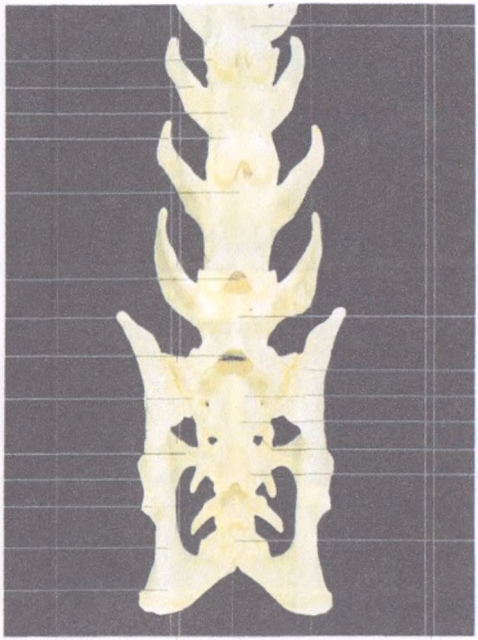


Fig. 1-79. Last lumbar vertebrae, sacrum and pelvis of a cat (dorsal aspect).

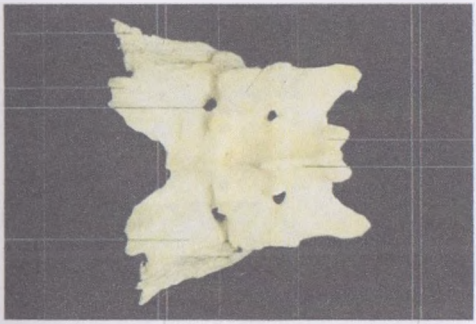
vertebrae is reflected in the simplified architecture of the sacrum.

The **sacrum** (os sacrum) is quadrilateral in form in carnivores, but triangular in the other domestic mammals (Fig. 1-79, 80 and 81). It is divided into an expanded **base** (basis ossis sacri) cranially, two **lateral parts** (partes laterales), enlarged by the **sacral wings** (alae ossis sacri) and a **caudal extremity** (apex ossis sacri). Its **dorsal surface** (facies dorsalis) has spinous processes, which may be present only as remnants in some species, and various ridges. The ventral surface, which faces towards the **pelvic cavity** (facies pelvina), is marked by **transverse lines** (lineae transversae), which indicate the former limits of the individual vertebrae.

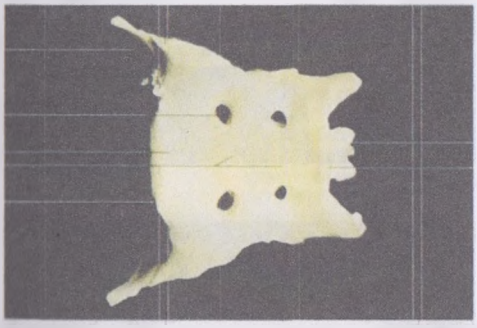
The **dorsal surface** gives attachment to the hip, rump and hamstring musculature and provides openings for the passage of the dorsal spinal nerves of the **lumbosacral plexus** (plexus lumbosacralis). The ventral surface of the sacrum is smooth and slightly concave and is perforated by the openings for the ventral branches of the spinal nerves. The vertebral canal is much narrower in the sacral region (canalis sacralis) than in the lumbar region and its diameter diminishes even further to about half its size at the sacral apex. The cranial extremity articulates with the last lumbar vertebra and is notched to form the **cranial vertebral notch** (incisura vertebralis cranialis). Its ventral margin extends a cranioventral projection, the **promontory** (promontorium); dorsally it presents cranial articular processes (Fig. 1-81 to 84). The **lateral parts** are formed by the fused transverse processes of the sacral vertebrae and are enlarged by the expanded sacral wings, which project laterally and originate from the first sacral vertebra (Fig. 1-79, 80, 82). The second sacral vertebra contributes to the formation of the sacral wings in carnivores, pigs and small ruminants. On the dorsal surface of each wing is an oval area (facies auricularis), which is covered with cartilage for the articulation with the wing of the ilium with which it forms a rigid joint. The dorsal margin of the sacral wing is roughened for the attachment of the sacroiliac ligaments (tuberositas sacralis).

The dorsal surface carries the caudally inclined **spinous processes**. These differ widely in the domestic species (Fig. 1-79, 80 and 83ff.). In carnivores and the horse, the free ends of the spinous processes remain separate, while their bases are fused. In ruminants the dorsal spines are fused to form the **median sacral crest** (crista sacralis mediana). In the pig the spinous processes are replaced by an indistinct crest. The **transverse processes** are united to form a **lateral sacral**

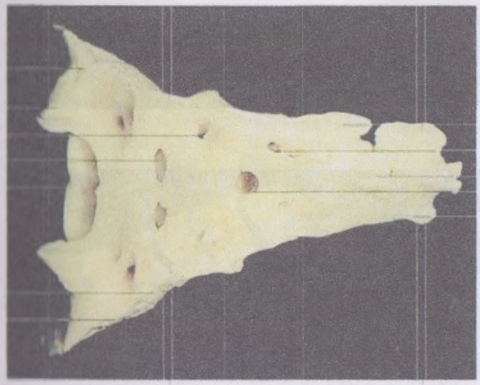
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of a dog (dorsal aspect).



(ventral aspect).



of an elderly pig (dorsal aspect).

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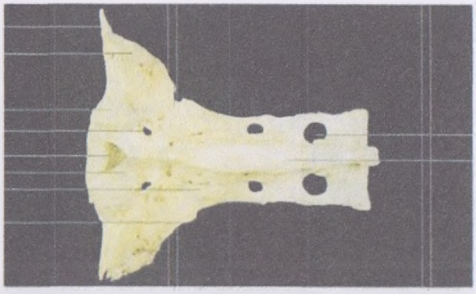


Fig. 1-83. Sacrum of an ox (dorsal aspect)



Fig. 1-84. Sacrum of an ox (lateral aspect)

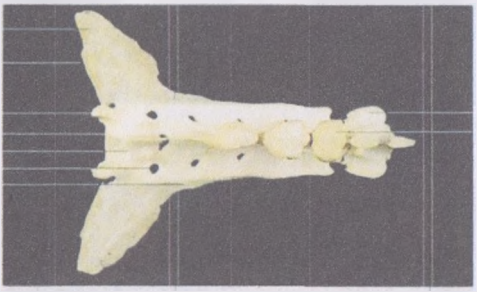


Fig. 1-85. Sacrum of a horse (dorsal aspect)



Fig. 1-86. Sacrum of a horse (lateral aspect)

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Fig. 1-87. Fifth caudal vertebra of a dog (ventral aspect)

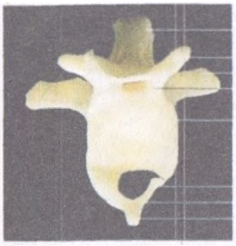


Fig. 1-88. Fifth caudal vertebra of a dog (cranial aspect)

lateralis), which is distinct in the pig and ... significant in the other domestic mammals. An ... **sacral crest** (crista sacralis intermedia) is ... and represents the fused rudiments of the ... In the other domestic mammals this crest ... by small tubercles. The nerves of the lumbosacral ... the vertebral canal through the ventral and dor... (foramina sacralia ventralia et dorsalia).

... or coccygeal vertebrae (... caudales)

... vertebrae gradually reduce in size from first to ... show a progressive simplification in their ... characteristic vertebral features, such as arch... The last caudal vertebrae resemble cylindri... decreasing size.

... of the caudal spine conform most ... the common anatomical architecture of the rep... vertebra, but the more caudal ones are gradually ... by losing the characteristic features. ... the horse the spinous processes of ... caudal vertebra is bifurcated and the arch of the ... already incomplete, thus the vertebral ... The transverse processes are reduced ... and from the seventh caudal vertebra on... are missing, their former position only ... small bony ridges.

... the caudal (coccygeal) vessels the ven... a few caudal vertebrae (first to 8th caudal verte... 5th to 15th caudal vertebra in carnivores) ... the **hemal processes** (processus ... These hemal processes form **ventral arches** (arcus ... caudal vertebrae (second and third in the ... in carnivores) (Fig. 87 and 88). The interarcu... the sacrum and the first caudal vertebra ... the first few caudal vertebrae are widened and ... for the vertebral canal.

Thoracic skeleton (skeleton thoracis)

The **thoracic skeleton** comprises the **thoracic vertebrae** (vertebrae thoracicae), the **ribs** (costae) and the **sternum** (Fig. 1-93 and 94). The thorax encloses the **thoracic cavity** (cavum thoracis), which is accessible cranially through the cranial aperture or thoracic inlet between the first ribs (apertura thoracis cranialis). The caudal aperture (apertura thoracis caudalis) is framed on both sides by the costal arches. The thoracic wall is composed of the **costal arch** (arcus costalis), the **intercostal spaces** (spatia intercostalia) and the angle between the left and right costal arches (angulus arcuum costalium). The bony thorax is compressed laterally in its cranial part and widens caudally in herbivores, but is stouter and deeper ventrally in carnivores.

Ribs (costae)

The **ribs** form the skeleton of the lateral thoracic walls. They are arranged serially in pairs and are interspersed by the intercostal spaces. Each rib consists of a bony dorsal part, the **osseous part** (os costale) (Fig. 1-89ff.) and a cartilagenous ventral part, the **costal cartilage** (cartilago costalis) (Fig. 1-93), which meet in the **costochondral junction**.

The dorsal parts of all ribs articulate with the thoracic vertebrae, while the costal cartilages differ in their articulation with the sternum. The first seven to nine ribs articulate directly with the sternum and are therefore termed **sternal** or "**true ribs**" (costae verae seu sternales). The remaining caudal ribs articulate indirectly with the sternum by uniting with the cartilage of the rib in front to form the costal arch. These ribs are called **asternal** or "**false ribs**" (costae spuriae seu asternales). Ribs at the end of the series, whose cartilage ends free in the musculature without attachment to an adjacent cartilage are named "**floating ribs**" (costae fluctuantes). In the dog and cat the last pair of ribs are always floating (Fig. 1-93).

The pair of ribs correspond in number to the thoracic vertebrae. Accordingly carnivores possess 12 to 14 pairs of ribs, the pig 13 to 16, ruminants 13 and the horse 18. The ratio of sternal to asternal ribs is 9:4 in carnivores, 7:7 (8) in the pig, 8:5 in ruminants and 8:10 in the horse, but may vary with the number of the thoracic vertebrae.

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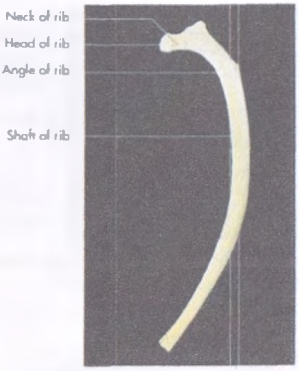


Fig. 1-89. Rib of a dog (caudal aspect)

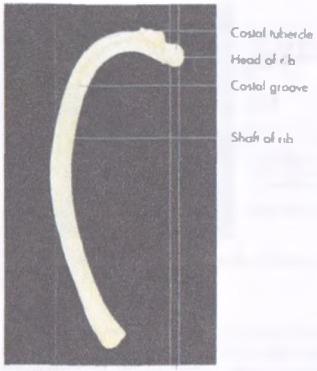


Fig. 1-90. Rib of a pig (caudal aspect)

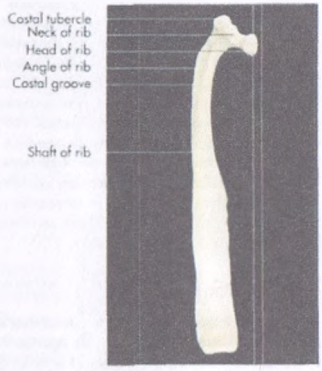


Fig. 1-91. Rib of an ox (caudal aspect).

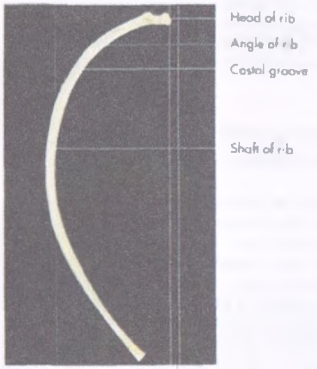


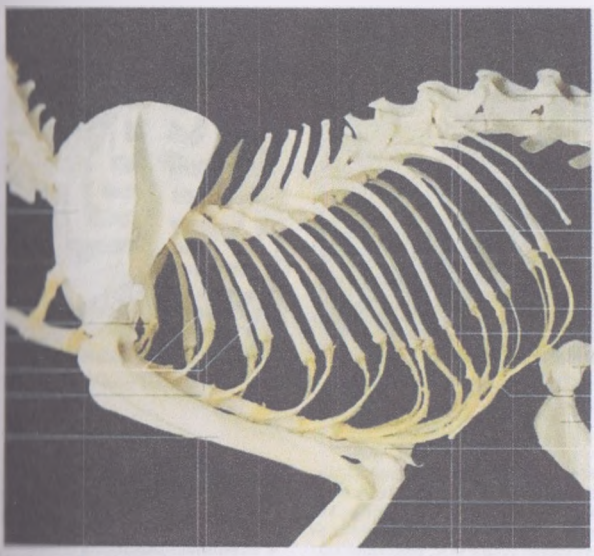
Fig. 1-92. Rib of a horse (caudal aspect)

All ribs share a common basic architecture (Fig. 1-89 to 92) and consist of:

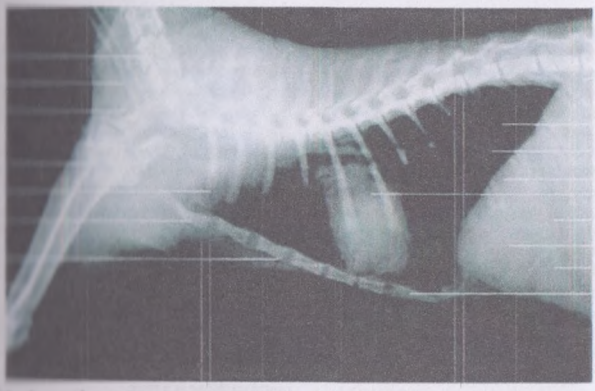
- **head** (caput costae) with its articulating surfaces (facies articulares capitis costae),
- **neck** (collum costae),
- **tubercle** (tuberculum costae) with its articulating surface (facies articularis tuberculi costae),
- **body** or **shaft** (corpus costae) and
- **sternal extremity**.

The vertebral extremity carries a rounded **head** (caput costae) that has a cranial and a caudal facet (facies articularis capitis costae) for the articulation with the socket, formed by the cranial and caudal costal fovea on the bodies of two adjacent vertebrae. The two articulating surfaces are separated by a groove for the attachment of the intraarticular ligament of the head of a rib. The head is joined to the costal body by a distinct **neck** (collum costae), which carries a **tubercle** (tuberculum costae) at the junction of the body. The costal tubercle bears a facet (facies articularis tuberculi costae) for articulation with the transverse process of the same vertebra. Since the necks of the ribs become gradually shorter caudally (except in the ox), the articular facets of the head and the tubercle grow closer until they become confluent. This results in an increased movability of the last few pairs of ribs. The **body** or **shaft** of the rib is curved. At the costal tubercle (corpus costae). The region where the costal body is most strongly bent is termed the **costal angle** (angulus costae). Its surfaces and borders provide attachment for the muscles of the trunk, especially to the respiratory musculature. Its caudal margin is grooved (sulci costae) to give protection to the intercostal vessels and the spinal nerves.

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Skeleton of the thorax of a cat (lateral aspect).



Skeleton of the thorax of a cat (lateral aspect); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis.

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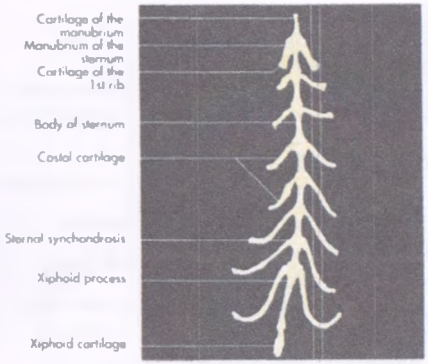


Fig. 1-95. Sternum of a cat (dorsal aspect)

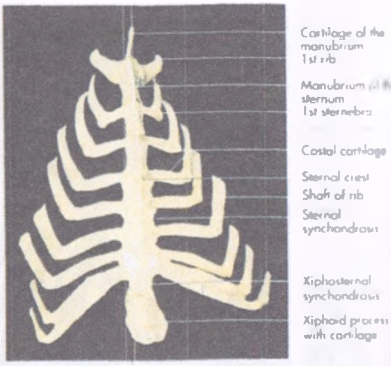


Fig. 1-96. Sternum of a horse (ventral aspect)

The shape and size of the costal bodies vary greatly in the different species (Fig. 1-89 to 92). The ribs of the dog are more curved than the ribs of the other domestic mammals. The length of the ribs gradually increases in the first 10 ribs to become progressively shorter caudal to it. The cranial surface is flattened, the caudal one rounded. In the pig the second to fourth costal bodies are conspicuously broad and flat, becoming more slender caudally. The costal cartilage of the first rib is very short and joins the corresponding cartilage of the other side to form a common articulating surface towards the sternum. The ribs of ruminants are flat with sharply defined margins and expand towards the sternum. The first six or eight ribs are the widest, the seventh to tenth ribs the longest. In the horse the curvature of the ribs increases up to the 11th rib. The ribs caudal to the 11th are less curved but show an increase in angulation. While the width gradually decreases from cranial to caudal, the thickness increases.

The distal end of the body unites with the **costal cartilage** (cartilago costalis) forming a **symphysis**, the costochondral junction. The ribs are steeply angled to the sternum at the level of the **costochondral junction** (genu costae) (Fig. 1-93). In carnivores this angle is formed only by the costal cartilages. The cylindrical end of the costal cartilage of the sternal ribs articulate with the sternum. Each pair of ribs joins the sternum between successive sternal segments (Fig. 1-93), with the exception of the first pair, which articulates with the first sternebra (manubrium sterni). The costal cartilages of the asternal ribs are attached to their neighbours by connective tissue to form the costal arch. The articulation of the costal arches of each side form an angle, into which the **xiphoid cartilage** projects.

Sternum

The **sternum** consists of an unpaired, segmental series of bones (sternebrae) which are joined together by the **intersternal cartilages** (synchondroses sternales). The individual segments fuse, with ossification of the intersternal cartilages in older animals (Fig. 1-95 to 97). The sternum can be divided into three parts:

- **manubrium** (manubrium sterni),
- **body** (corpus sterni) and
- **xiphoid** process (processus xiphoideus).

The **manubrium** constitutes the most cranial part of the sternum and projects in front of the second intercostal pair. Since the **clavicle** is rudimentary in all domestic mammals the manubrium is poorly developed in all of these species. It carries the articular facets for the first pair of ribs and may be palpated at the root of the neck in some animals. Its cranial end is prolonged by **cartilage** (cartilago manubrii), which is the shape of a short, blunt cylinder in carnivores, while it is long, dorsally convex and laterally compressed projection in the horse. In ruminants this cartilage is represented by a thin layer only or is missing altogether.

The **body of the sternum** (corpus sterni) is cylindrical in carnivores, wide and flat in ruminants, and carries a ventral keel in the horse (crista sterni) (Fig. 1-95 to 97). It is composed of four to six segments, depending on the species (dog 5-6, ruminant and horse 7 (8), pig 6). It is a uniform cylinder in carnivores but in the dog it is rectangular, being higher than it is wide. In ruminants and the pig it is dorsoventrally compressed, whereas in the horse it is laterally compressed and extended ventrally. The dorsolateral margin is marked by a series of notches (incisurae costales), which receive the costal cartilages of the sternal ribs for articulation. The more caudal of these depressions are situated closely together and may articulate with more than one costal cartilage at a time.

The **xiphoid process** (processus xiphoideus) is the last sternebra, which extends into a **cartilagenous process** (cartilago xiphoidea) caudally. It projects between the ventral parts of the costal arches (regio xiphoidea). While the xiphoid cartilage is broad and expanded in ruminants and horses, it

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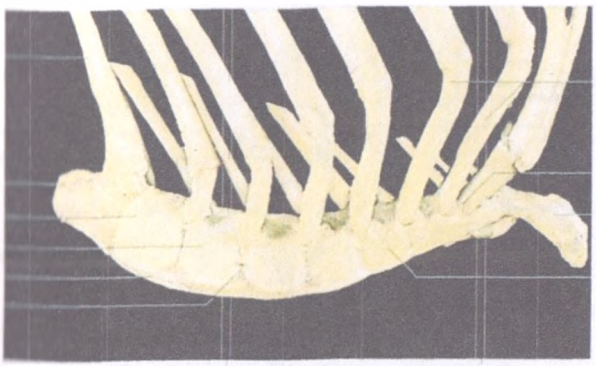


Fig. 1.89 Thorax of a horse (lateral aspect).

the other domestic mammals. It supports ventral abdominal wall and forms the linea alba.

of the skull and trunk
capitis, articulationes vertebralis et thoracis)

of the skull (synchondroses cranii)

the bones of the skull are united by **cartilaginous joints** (synchondroses), which ossify with advancing age to become **sutures** (suturae capitis). Some cartilages at the base of the skull remain cartilaginous throughout life and are radiographically visible throughout life between the bones of the bone which participate in the formation (e.g. synchondrosis sphenooccipitalis, synchondrosis intersphenoidalis, synchondrosis petrooccipitalis). The majority of the junctions are immobile articulations. In some cases the frontal, parietal and occipital bones stay separated by persistent fontanelles. Apart from the above there are three other **joints of the head**:

joint (articulatio intermandibularis),
joint (articulatio temporohyoidea) and
joint.

joint is the median osseous junction of the left and right mandibular bodies (sutura interincisiva). Only in the pig does it form a synostosis in the pig the area remains cartilagenous, forming

The **temporohyoid joint** joins the suspensory part of the hyoid apparatus, which is composed of the epihyoid, stylohyoid and tympanohyoid to the base of the skull. The tympanohyoid articulates with the styloid process in ruminants and the horse, the mastoid process in carnivores and the nuchal process of the temporal bone in the pig, forming a syndesmosis or synchondrosis, respectively. The articulations between the individual parts of the hyoid apparatus are described earlier in this chapter.

The **temporomandibular joint** is the synovial joint between the mandibular ramus and the squamous part of the temporal bone. It is a condylar joint (articulatio condylaris), whose articulating surfaces do not entirely correspond to each other. To compensate for this incongruency a **fibrocartilagenous disc** (discus articularis) is interposed between the articulating surfaces. In the cat and in the dog this joint is nearly congruent.

The temporomandibular joint is formed by the **head of the condyloid process of the mandible** (caput mandibulae) and the **articular area of the temporal bone**, which consists of the **articular tubercle** rostrally, the **mandibular fossa** (fossa mandibularis) with its transverse articular surface in the middle and the **retroarticular process** (processus retroarticularis) caudally. The joint capsule extends from the free margins of the articular surfaces and attaches to the entire edge of the disc. Thus the joint cavity is completely divided into a larger dorsal and a smaller ventral compartment by the inner synovial layer (membrana synovialis) of the joint capsule. The outer fibrous layer of the joint capsule (membrana fibrosa) is strengthened by the right **lateral** (ligamentum laterale) and the **caudal ligaments** (ligamentum caudale), which extend between the retroarticular process and the base of the coronoid process. The caudal ligament is not present in carnivores and the pig. The main movements of the temporomandibular joint are up and down, to open and close the mouth. A limited degree of lateral grinding and forward and backward movements of the manbible are also possible. The spe-

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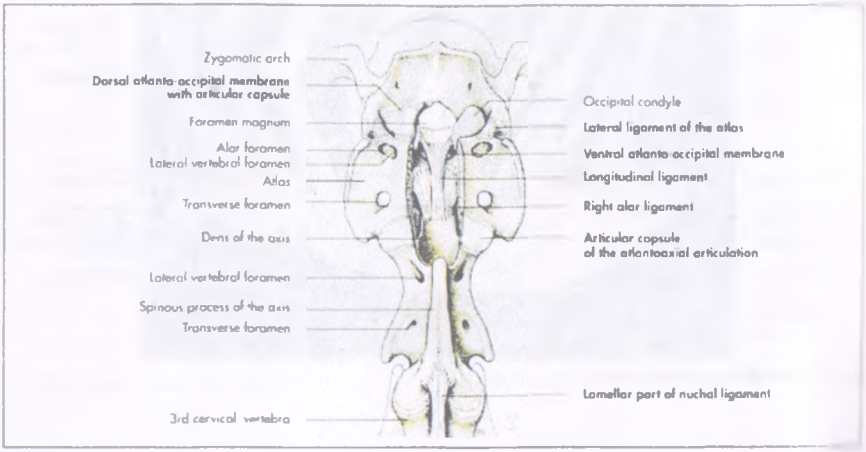


Fig. 1-98. Ligaments and joint capsule of the atlanto-occipital and atlantoaxial joints of the horse (schematic, dorsal aspect), after [illegible] ger and Baum, 1943.

cies specific variations are based on the pattern of mastication and are influenced by the masticatory muscles.

Joints of the vertebral column, the thorax and the skull (articulationes columnae vertebralis, thoracis et cranii)

The articulations between the vertebrae, the thorax and the skull can be grouped into:

- **articulations between the skull and the vertebral column**
  - atlanto-occipital joint (articulatio atlanto-occipitalis) between the skull and the first cervical vertebra,
  - atlantoaxial joint (articulatio atlantoaxialis) between the first and second cervical vertebra,
- **articulations between adjacent vertebrae** (symphysis intervertebralis),
- **articulations between the thoracic vertebrae and the ribs** (articulationes costovertebrales):
  - articulations between the head of the ribs with the appropriate vertebra (articulationes capitis costae),
  - articulations between the tubercle of the ribs and the appropriate vertebrae (articulationes costotransversaria),
- **articulations of the thorax** (articulationes thoracis):
  - articulations between the sternum and the costal cartilages (articulationes sternocostales),
  - articulations between the ribs and the costal cartilages (articulationes costochondrales),
  - articulations between the costal cartilages (articulationes intrachondrales) and
  - articulations between the individual sternebrae (synchondroses sternales).

The joints between the skull and the vertebral column are responsible for the movement of the head. They comprise the cranial **atlanto-occipital joint** between the occiput and the first cervical vertebra and the **atlantoaxial joint** between the first and the second cervical vertebra (Fig. 1-98). The movements of these two joints have to be considered together, since they form a functional unit between the skull and the rest of the vertebral column.

The **atlanto-occipital joint** is composed of **two ellipsoidal joints** (articulationes ellipsoideae) formed between the **occipital condyles** (condyli occipitales) and the **corresponding concavities of the atlas** (foveae articulares craniales) (Fig. 1-98 to 100). Each joint has its own joint capsule (capsula articularis), which attaches around the articular surfaces. The two joint cavities remain separated dorsally, but communicate ventrally in carnivores and ruminants and in the adult pig and horse. In carnivores the atlanto-occipital joint shares a common joint cavity with the atlantoaxial joint.

Several ligaments (ligamenta articularia) support this joint functionally: **lateral ligaments** bridge the joint space between the medial aspect of the paracondylar processes of the occiput and the root of the **wing of the atlas** (alae atlantis). The dorsal and ventral sides of the joint capsule are reinforced by individual, expansive sheets of fibrous tissue.

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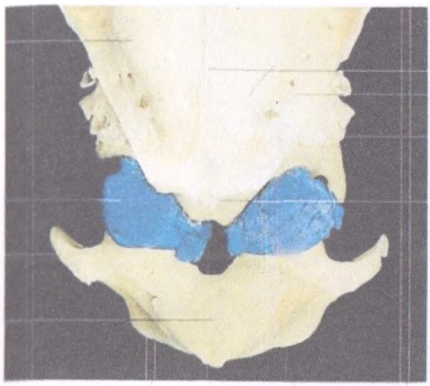


Fig. 1.97 Equine skull with acrylic cast of the atlanto-occipital joint (dorsal aspect)

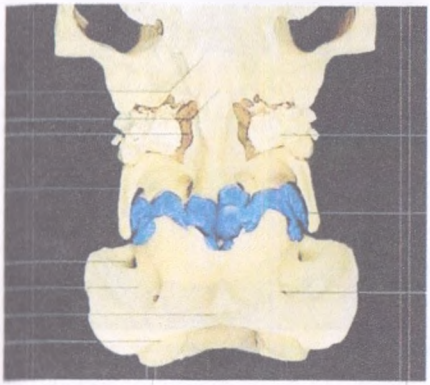


Fig. 1.98 Equine skull with acrylic cast of the atlanto-occipital joint (ventral aspect).

occipital membranes (membranae atlantooccipitales dorsalis et ventralis). They cover the existing gaps between the occiput and the atlas (spatium interarcuale). The shape of the articular surface restricts movements between the atlas and the skull to flexion and extension in the sagittal plane only.

The joint between the atlas and the axis is a **trochoid** or **pivot joint** (articulatio atlantoaxialis) formed by the **dens of the axis** and the corresponding dental fovea of the atlas (Fig. 1.98). The dens is entrapped by the **caudal articular ligament** between the ventral arch of the atlas and the **cranial articular surface of the axis** (ligg. articulares craniales). All three joints are enclosed in a common joint capsule, thus forming a single synovial cavity. The peculiar anatomy of the articular surfaces allows rotational movements along the longitudinal axis of the dens. Ligaments brace the joint in a species-specific way.

The joint capsule is strengthened externally by the **dorsal atlantoaxial membrane** (membrana atlantoaxialis dorsalis) extending between the vertebral arches of the first and second cervical vertebra. The **elastic dorsal axial ligament** (ligamentum atlantoaxiale dorsale) extends between the dorsal tubercle of the atlas and the spinous processes of the axis. The dens of the axis is secured by additional ligaments (ligamenta alaria), which arise from the dens and attach to the inner surface of the ventral arch of the atlas in ruminants and the

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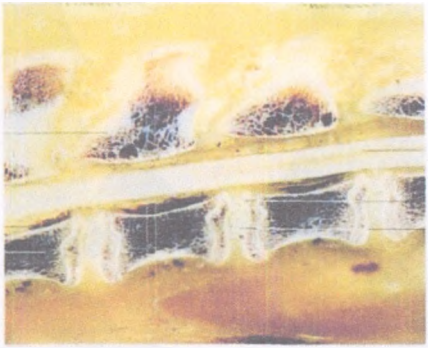


Fig. 1-101. Lumbar intervertebral discs of a dog (median section)

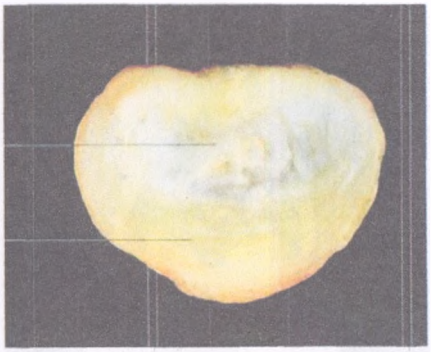


Fig. 1-102. Lumbar intervertebral disc of a dog.

horse, to the medial surface of the condyles in carnivores and to the rim of the foramen magnum in the pig.

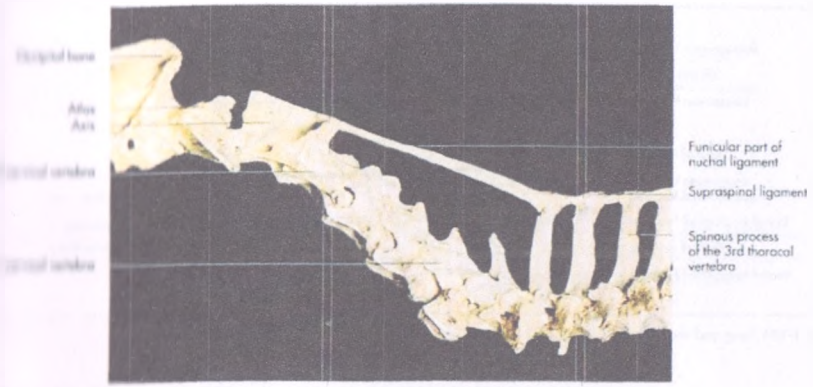
In ruminants and the horse, the joint capsule is reinforced ventrally by the **ventral atlantoaxial ligament** (ligamentum atlantoaxiale ventrale), extending between the ventral tubercle of the atlas and the ventral spine of the axis. In the same domestic species the vertebral canal contains the longitudinal ligaments which fan out from the dorsal surface of the dens to insert on the basilar part of the occiput and the occipital condyles.

In pigs and carnivores the **transverse ligament of the atlas** (ligamentum transversum atlantis) straps the dens to the atlas. This prevents undue movement of the dens in relation to the vertebral canal and at the same time protects the medulla oblongata from fatal mechanical insults.

Intervertebral articulations (articulationes columnae vertebralis)

The **vertebral column** with its multicomposite structure (soft tissue, cartilagenous and osseous tissue) has to fulfil a variety of functions. Two adjacent vertebrae with the interposed cartilagenous disc, the articulations between them and the bracing ligaments form a **functional unit** which is responsible for conveying the thrust from the limbs to the trunk during locomotion. These functional units are complemented by the nerves and blood vessels leaving the vertebral canal through the intervertebral foramina and the covering muscles of the cervical, thoracic, lumbar and sacral regions. The **intervertebral articulations** (articulationes columnae vertebralis) combine symphyses between the vertebral bodies (symphyses intervertebrales) and synovial joints between the

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184 Nuchal and supraspinous ligament of a dog (lateral aspect).

articulationes processuum articularium), **caudal extremities** (extremitates craniales of the adjacent vertebra are connected by **intervertebrales**) (Fig. 1-101 and 102). between the cranial and caudal articular fa- and **plane joints** (articulationes planae). are linked together by short and as well as the continuous nuchal ligament, ex- and pigs, and the supraspinous ligament in all are described in detail later.

and length of the intervertebral discs make an contribution to the structure and shape of the The thickness of the discs decreases through- and lumbar region to reach their minimum the lumbar column. The cervical intervertebral dorsally than ventrally.

intervertebral disc consists of two parts, the **pulpy** (nucleus pulposus) and the **fibrous ring** (anulus fi- Fig. 1-101 and 103). The latter is covered by fibrous intervertebral discs are supplied by vessels degenerate in later life and the by diffusion from adjacent tissues (brad- The connecting fiber bundles of the fibrous from one vertebra to the other, merging that cover the vertebral extremities (syn-

are arranged in several spiral layers (laminae) the longitudinal axis of the vertebrae and alternation between successive laminae. This results in stability of the intervertebral mobility between adjacent vertebrae. of the discs of the equine thoracic ver- 3 to 5 mm, with the exception of the and second thoracic vertebrae, which is than the successive vertebrae. The pulpy nucleus is situated in the functional center of the axis of the vertebral column. It is maintained under pressure and spreads the compressive forces to which the vertebral column is subjected over a wider part of the vertebra. This results in a tensioning of the surrounding fibrous ring and the ventral and dorsal ligaments.

The thickness of the intervertebral disc is largely responsible for the flexibility of the spine. With advancing age, however, the discs tend to show degenerative changes. Most commonly the pulpy nucleus, which itself is under continuous pressure, presses against the weakened fibrous ring, resulting in protrusion or herniation of the disc towards the vertebral canal. If the fibrous ring fragments, then the pulpy nucleus prolapses into the vertebral canal, where it may impinge upon the spinal cord or compress nerves and blood vessels.

Ligaments of the vertebral column

The ligaments of the vertebral column can be grouped into short ligaments, bridging successive vertebrae and long ligaments spanning several vertebrae forming functional units (Fig. 1-103 to 105).

Short ligaments

- **interarcuate ligaments** (ligamenta flava) are elastic sheets filling the interarcuate spaces. They help to support the weight of the trunk and the rump musculature and assist the back musculature.
- **intertransverse ligaments** (ligamenta intertransversaria) extend between the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and are tensed during lateral flexion and rotation.

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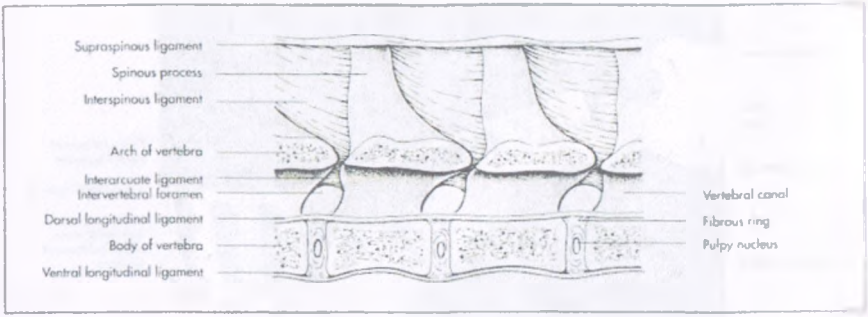


Fig. 1-104. Long and short ligaments of the lumbar spine (schematic, paramedian section), after Ghetie, 1954

- **interspinous ligaments** (ligamenta interspinalia) extend between the spinous processes of the vertebrae. These are elastic ligaments in the cranial part of the equine spine and the caudal part of the bovine spine, but are muscular in the thoracic and lumbar spine of carnivores. They prevent the vertebrae from sliding dorsally and at the same time limit ventral flexion of the spine.

Long ligaments:

- **dorsal longitudinal ligament** (ligamentum longitudinale dorsale) passes along the floor of the vertebral canal from the dens of the axis to the sacrum and is attached to each of the intervertebral discs.
- **ventral longitudinal ligament** (ligamentum longitudinale ventrale) follows the ventral aspect of the vertebrae from the eighth thoracic vertebra to the sacrum and attaches to each of the intervertebral discs.

The **nuchal ligament** supports much of the weight of the head when the head is held high, thus relieving load from the head and neck musculature. The powerful development of this ligament and the nuchal musculature has induced an enlargement of the spinous processes of the thoracic vertebrae to which they attach. It arises from the axis in the dog and from the occiput in ruminants and the horse and continues caudally as the **supraspinous ligament** (ligamentum supraspinale) (Fig. 1-104 to 106). The nuchal ligament is not present in the cat or the pig; however, these species do possess a supraspinous ligament. The **nuchal ligament** (ligamentum nuchae) can be subdivided into:

- nuchal funiculus (funiculus nuchae),
- nuchal lamina (lamina nuchae).

In the dog the nuchal ligament is represented by the paired **funiculus nuchae**, which arises from the caudal aspect of the spinal process of the axis and inserts to the spinous process of the first thoracic vertebra from which it continues caudally as the supraspinous ligament. The supraspinous ligament attaches to the free ends of the spinal processes of the vertebrae up to the third sacral vertebra.

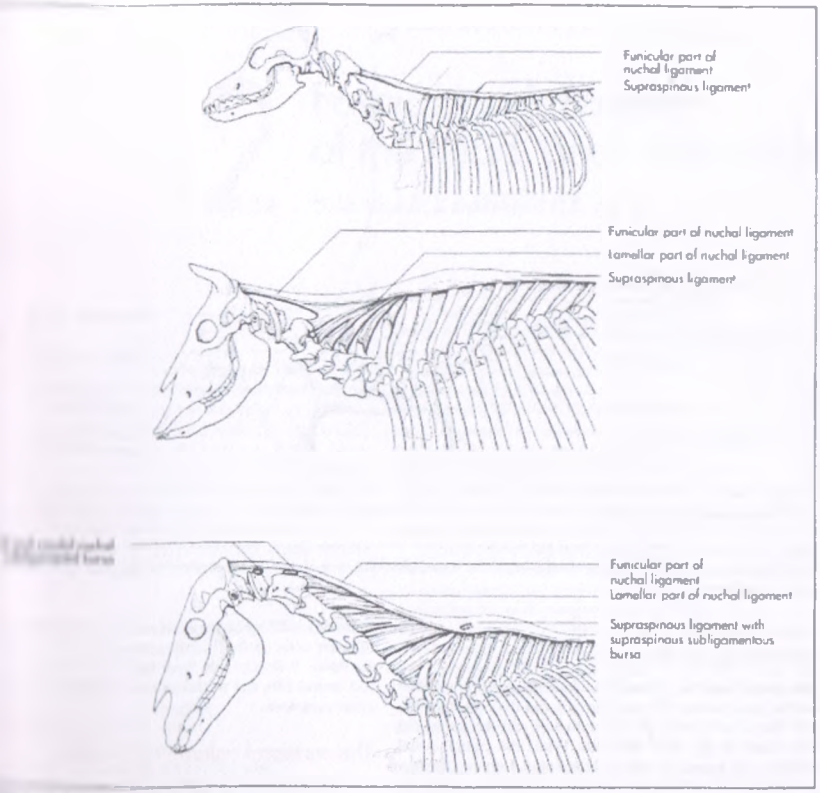
In ruminants the nuchal ligament consists of two parts: the cord-like **nuchal funiculus** and the **nuchal lamina**. The paired funiculus originates from the external occipital protuberances and fans out caudal to the axis to form a paired plate, which attaches to both sides of the spinous processes of the cranial thoracic vertebrae, thus forming the base of the withers. It continues caudally as the supraspinous ligament. The paired cranial part of the nuchal lamina arises from the spinous processes of the second to fourth cervical vertebrae and radiates into the nuchal funiculus ventrally. The caudal part is unpaired and extends from the spinous processes of the fifth to seventh cervical vertebrae under the nuchal funiculus to the spinous process of the first thoracic vertebra.

In the horse the nuchal ligament consists of a **nuchal funiculus** and a **laminar part**, both of which are paired. The nuchal funiculus arises from the external occipital protuberance, receives the nuchal lamina at the level of the third cervical vertebra and inserts to the spinous process of the fourth thoracic vertebra. It broadens in the withers region and continues caudally as the supraspinous ligament to the sacrum.

The **nuchal lamina** originates from the spinous process of the axis, the dorsal tubercle of the successive cervical vertebrae and the spinous process of the last cervical vertebra. It radiates caudally into the nuchal funiculus to finally end at the spinous process of the first thoracic vertebra.

A bursa is interposed between the nuchal ligament and the second or third thoracic vertebra, the **supraspinous bursa** (bursa subligamentosa supraspinalis). It can be located in the live animal on a vertical line above the tuber of the spine of the scapula. Additional bursae may be found in some horses between the nuchal ligament and the atlas (bursa subligamentosa nuchalis cranialis) or the axis (bursa subligamentosa nuchalis caudalis) (Fig. 1-105).

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...nuchal and supraspinous ligament of the dog, ox and horse (schematic, lateral aspect); after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

...of the ribs with the vertebral ... (articulationes costovertebrales)

... articulations with the corresponding ver... as hinge joints. These joints assist in ... of the thorax. The closer these ... the greater the mobility, with the highest ... the caudal ribs.

... joint (articulatio capitis costae) is a ... the two articular surfaces of the head ... with the socket formed by two articular ... thoracic vertebrae (the socket for the ... last cervical and the first thoracic ... intervertebral disc articulates ... of the costal head. Each articu... capsule, which is reinforced by **liga-mentous fibers** (ligamentum capitis costae radiatum), forming two separate joint cavities (Fig. 1-106). The **intercapital ligament** (ligamentum intercapitale) runs from the head of one rib, over the dorsal part of the disc, but under the dorsal longitudinal ligament to the head of the opposite rib. It is considered to play an important role in the pathogenesis of disc prolapses. The ligament connecting the most caudal ribs is smaller than the others and it is not as well developed in chondrodystrophic breeds. This is thought to account for the higher incidence of disc problems in those breeds. The ligament is joined to the intervertebral disc by a synovial membrane. A bursa is interposed between the intercapital ligament and the overlying dorsal longitudinal ligament.

The **costotransverse joint** (articulatio costotransversaria) is a sliding joint formed by the articular surfaces of the costal tubercle and the transverse process of the corresponding vertebra.

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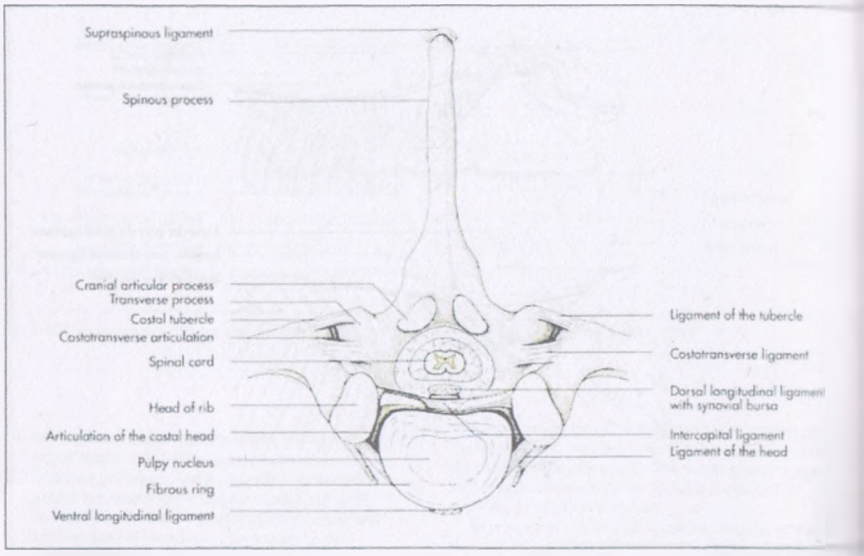


Fig. 1-106. Ligaments of the costovertebral joints of the horse (schematic, cranial aspect), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit and Prof. W. Künzel, Vienna.

Joints of the thoracic wall (articulationes thoracis)

The **costochondral joints** (articulationes costochondrales) are the articulations between the ribs and the costal cartilages. These are symphyses in carnivores and the horse, but firm joints in pigs and ruminants. While the cranial costal cartilages are joined directly to the sternum, forming the **sternocostal joints** (articulationes sternocostales), the costal cartilages of the asternal ribs are joined together by elastic soft tissue forming the **costal arch** (arcus costalis).

The **sternocostal joints** (articulationes sternocostales) are condylar joints, functioning as hinge joints. They are formed by the condylar sternal extremity of the sternal costal cartilage and the matching articular cavities of the sternum. In the pig and the horse, the first rib of both sides have a common articular cavity on the manubrium of the sternum, whereas the articular surfaces (incisurae costales) of the other sternal ribs are placed laterally at the junction of the sternebrae, enclosed in tight joint capsules.

In juvenile subjects the individual sternebrae are joined together by the **intersternebral cartilages** (synchondroses sternales), which ossify later in life. The sternal cartilagenous joints comprise the intersternal synchondroses, the manubriosternal synchondrosis and the xiphosternal synchondrosis (Fig. 1-95 to 97). In ruminants and the pig, the manubrium is joined to the body of the sternum by a synovial joint (articulatio synovialis manubriosternalis). The **sternal ligament** (ligamentum sterni) lies on the dorsal surface of the sternum. It arises caudal to the first pair of ribs and broadens [illegible] to insert to the xiphoid cartilage in ruminants and the pig. In the horse, it divides into three branches, which insert to the last sternal ribs and to the xiphoid cartilage. It is also [illegible] some carnivores.

The vertebral column as a whole

The mobility of the vertebral column varies with the region. It is most free in the cervical spine, where the articular surfaces are large and orientated horizontally and the joint capsules are loose, which allows a larger degree of lateral, ventral, dorsal and rotational movements. In the thoracic and lumbar regions of the spine, mobility decreases from cranial to caudal. While in the cranial thoracic region rotation is possible, in the caudal region movement is more or less restricted to dorsal and ventral flexion (kyphosis and lordosis). A limited degree of lateral movement is still possible due to the intervertebral articulations of the lumbar vertebrae in the horse.

The **lumbosacral joint** (articulatio lumbosacralis) is formed by the last lumbar vertebra and the sacrum completed by the intervertebral disc and supported by the iliolumbar ligament.

The processes of the individual sacral vertebrae are reduced and their bodies and the intervertebral discs are fully fused to form a single bone, the sacrum, which transmits the thrust of the hindlimbs to the rump more efficiently. The caudal spine is mobile and the single vertebrae are joined together by intervertebral discs.

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2 Fasciae and muscles of the head, neck and trunk

H.-G. Liebich, J. Maierl and H.E. König

Fasciae

The head and trunk are enclosed by extensive sheets of connective tissue. These sheets of fasciae are interposed between [illegible] and the skin or they cover and pass between muscles. They form attachments for muscles and [illegible] arrangement of muscles across each other. Many [illegible] structures are also surrounded by fasciae, like [illegible] the trachea or the salivary glands. They also [illegible] muscles (mm. cutanei) and provide routes [illegible] of blood vessels, lymphatics and nerves.

The fascial system comprises a superficial and [illegible]. They are further subdivided according to their [illegible]

Superficial fasciae of the head, neck and trunk:

- [illegible] fascia of the head (fascia capitis superficialis),
- [illegible] fascia of the neck (fascia cervicalis superficialis),
- [illegible] fascia of the trunk (fascia trunci superficialis).

Deep fasciae of the head, neck and trunk:

- [illegible] of the head (fascia capitis profunda),
- [illegible] of the neck (fascia cervicalis profunda),
- [illegible] of the trunk (fascia trunci profunda),
- [illegible] fascia (fascia thoracolumbalis),
- [illegible] transversal fascia (fascia spinocostotransversalis) and
- [illegible] of the tail (fascia caudae profunda).

Superficial fasciae of the head, neck and trunk

The **superficial fascia of the head** forms a mask-like cover[illegible] and continues on the neck like a cyl[illegible] beneath the skin and can be manually [illegible] in ruminants and the horse it [illegible] where it is fused with the skin [illegible] and frontal bones. It covers the pa[illegible] the masseter muscle (m. masseter) and [illegible] (m. temporalis). It encloses the cutaneous muscles of the head and parts of the auricular muscles. Rostrally it blends with the muscles of the cheek and nose, ventrally it covers the mandibular and laryngeal region.

The **superficial fascia of the neck** forms two layers. The **superficial** layer covers the superficial muscles of the neck (cervical part of the cutaneous muscle, brachiocephalic muscle, trapezius muscle), the **deep** layer covers the thoracic portions of the ventral serrated muscle and the splenius muscle and also encloses the **common carotid artery** (a. carotis communis). The fascia inserts in the nuchal ligament dorsally and continues caudally as the fasciae of the shoulder and trunk.

The **superficial fascia of the trunk** is very extensive and includes the cutaneous muscle of the trunk (m. cutaneus trunci). In the thoracic and lumbar regions it radiates into the thoracolumbar fascia. In ruminants and the horse it attaches to the dorsal spinous processes of the vertebrae. In carnivores it unites dorsally with the fascia of the opposite side, where in well-nourished animals large subfascial fat deposits can be found. Ventrally it blends with the musculature of the thorax and the linea alba and continues distally as the fascia of the thoracic and pelvic limbs.

Deep fasciae of the head, neck and trunk

The **deep fascia of the head** extends over the major part of the mandible, partly fused to the superficial fascia, as the **buccopharyngeal fascia** (fascia buccopharyngealis). A deep layer attached to the buccal wall and a more superficial layer passes under the masseter muscle and over the facial musculature to insert on the facial crest. Some muscles are ensheathed individually by the deep fascia of the head, such as the buccinator muscle (m. buccinator) and the canine muscle (m. caninus). Caudally it becomes the **temporal fascia** (fascia temporalis), which covers the temporal muscle and attaches to the orbita and the zygomatic arch and the **pharyngobasilar fascia** (fascia pharyngobasilaris), which extends between the pterygoid, the dorsal border of the mandible and the hyoid apparatus. In the region of the dorsum of the nose the deep and superficial fascia of the head are united, and in carnivores the deep fascia fuses with the periosteum of the external surface of the parietal bone. The deep fascia of the head always lies beneath the large superficial blood vessels.

The **deep fascia of the neck** is two-layered. The superficial layer attaches to the wing of the atlas, the long muscle of

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the head (m. longus capitis) and scalene muscle (m. scalenus). Passing ventrally it encloses the esophagus, the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the vagosympathetic trunk and the common carotid artery. It attaches to the hyoid apparatus and the pharyngobasilaris fascia cranially, the first ribs and the sternum caudally. The deep layer originates from the intertransversal muscles and encloses the long muscles of the neck. In the horse it detaches a septum between the guttural pouches.

The **deep fascia of the trunk** is relatively strong and in most parts enforced by tendinous tissue. Many muscles of the trunk arise from this fascia by means of an aponeurosis. The portion covering the thoracic and lumbar region is termed the **thoracolumbar fascia** and attaches to the spinous processes of the thoracic, lumbar and sacral vertebrae, the supraspinous ligament, the sacral tuberosity, the iliac crest and the coxal tuberosity. A strong part of this fascia forms the aponeurosis of the broadest muscle of the back (m. latissimus dorsi) and the caudal portion of the dorsal serrated muscle (m. serratus dorsalis caudalis). Craniventrally, it continues as the **axillar fascia** (fascia axillaris) and caudally as the **gluteal fascia** (fascia glutea). Ventrally, it forms the **abdominal tunic** (tunica flava abdominis), which mainly consists of elastic fibers in the large herbivores. In the inguinal region, several fibers branch to form the **suspensory ligament of the penis** (ligamentum suspensorium penis) and the **mammary glands** (apparatus suspensorius mammarius).

The deep fascia of the trunk becomes the **spinocostotransversal fascia** (fascia spinocostotransversalis) as it passes over the scapular region. This fascia forms three layers in the horse. It originates from the spinous processes of the first five thoracic vertebrae (spinal portion), the first eight ribs and the transverse processes of the corresponding vertebrae (costotransversal portion). The **superficial** layer of this fascia suspends the rump between the thoracic limbs and attaches to the ventral serrate muscle. The **middle** layer encloses and separates the lateral muscles of the back (longissimus muscle, iliocostal muscle); the **deep** layer, the medial muscles (semispinal muscle), to which it also gives attachment.

The deep fascia of the trunk also forms the **internal fascia of the trunk**. This fascia lies on the deep surfaces of the muscles of the body wall and blends with the serosal linings of the body cavities. It is termed the **endothoracic fascia** (fascia endothoracica) in the thoracic cavity, the **transversal fascia** (fascia transversalis) in the abdominal cavity and the **pelvic fascia** (fascia pelvis) in the pelvic cavity. The **iliac fascia** (fascia iliaca) covers the deep lumbar muscles.

The **deep fascia of the tail** originates from the gluteal fascia and fuses distally with the superficial fascia. It extends between the muscles of the tail and attaches to the caudal vertebrae.

Cutaneous muscles (musculi cutanei)

The cutaneous muscles are thin muscular layers which are intimately adherent to the fasciae, with which they form a contractile extensive sheath covering most of the body. Its chief function is to tense and twitch the skin. In carnivores it also enables mimic movements of the lips, nose and ears. These muscles can be divided into cutaneous muscles of the head, the neck and of the trunk.

Cutaneous muscles of the head (musculi cutanei capitis)

The cutaneous muscles of the head are contained within the superficial fascia of the head. They are part of the superficial facial musculature and are innervated by the facial nerve. They include the:

- superficial sphincter muscle of the neck (m. sphincter colli superficialis),
- cutaneous muscle of the face (m. cutaneus faciei),
- deep sphincter muscle of the neck (m. sphincter colli profundus) and
- frontal muscle (m. frontalis).

The **superficial sphincter muscle of the neck** is a thin transverse muscular band, which, in carnivores, extends along the ventral aspect of the laryngeal region, at the junction of the head and neck. It tenses the fascia of this region. The **cutaneous muscle of the face** is an extensive muscular sheet, covering the masseter muscle. It tenses and moves the skin of the head and draws the commissure of the lips caudally. The **deep sphincter muscle of the neck** lies beneath the platysma and cutaneous muscles of the face on the lateral aspect of head and neck. It tenses the superficial fascia in the laryngeal region. The **frontal muscle** (m. frontalis) is present in carnivores, ruminants and pigs, and is responsible for moving the skin on the forehead.

Cutaneous muscles of the neck (musculi cutanei colli)

The cutaneous muscles of the neck are innervated by the cervical branch (ramus colli) of the facial nerve. They are named according to their location and function:

- superficial sphincter muscle of the neck (m. sphincter colli superficialis),
- platysma muscle (platysma),
- deep sphincter muscle of the neck (m. sphincter colli profundus) (described above) and
- cutaneous muscle of the neck (m. cutaneus colli).

The **cervical superficial sphincter muscle** is only present in carnivores and is a direct continuation of the sphincter colli superficialis of the head and, as such, covers the ventral aspect of the neck from the head to the chest. The **platysma** is a well-developed muscular sheet in carnivores and pigs, which radiates into the facial cutaneous muscle. It tenses and moves the skin on the dorsal and lateral side of the neck. The **cervical cutaneous muscle** is situated at the ventral aspect of the neck. It originates from the manubrium of the sternum and covers the jugular groove. It is not present in carnivores.

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muscles of the trunk
(musculi trunci)

muscles of the trunk comprise the:

part of the cutaneous muscle
(musculus trunci),
brachial muscle
(musculus brachialis),
muscles (mm. preputiales) and
muscles (mm. supramammarii).

part of the cutaneous muscle is an exten-
which covers the lateral, ventral and dorsal
thorax and abdomen. In carnivores the muscles
meet dorsally. It covers the latissimus dorsi cra-
with which it forms the muscular axillary arch.
converges ventrally towards the manubrium of the
and joins with the fibers of the opposite side. This
branches which cover the prepuce in
the preputial muscles and in female dogs to the
in the supramammary muscles. In large an-
muscle of the abdomen is confined to the
of the trunk and does not extend beyond the
fold of the flank, which it forms. The ab-
of the cutaneous muscle tenses and twitches the
by the superficial fascia of the trunk.
muscle is the extension of
part of the cutaneous muscle on the forelimb.
lateral aspect of the shoulder and arm in rumi-
and senses the skin in that region.
muscles are present in carnivores, pigs and
to a small extent in the bull. They can be divided
penis, which protracts the prepuce, and a cau-
which retracts the prepuce.
muscles are a paired muscle in
extending between the xiphoid to the pu-
the mammary glands. They tense and
the region.

of the head
(musculi capitis)

can be grouped based on their embry-
or their function. The system
on the embryologic origin of the
branchial arches and their innerva-
branchial nerves. The facial and
develop from the first and second
lateral and ventral walls of the laryngeal
and their organs, from the third and
The accompanying branchial nerves,
and tenth cranial nerves, innervate
the following description, the facial, masti-
musculatures are described as groups,
specific organs, such as the larynx and
with their related organs.

Facial muscles (musculi faciales)

The facial musculature can be subdivided into **superficial** and **deep layers**, which are both supplied by the facial nerve (Fig. 2-1 and 2, Table 2-1). The superficial layer includes the cutaneous muscles of the head and neck and a multitude of smaller muscles, which are responsible for the posture of the lips, nostrils, cheeks, the external ears and eyelids. Since they are responsible for the facial expression they are also termed **mimic musculature**. The **deep facial muscles** include the muscles attached to the hyoid bone, those considered to be part of the digastric muscle or extend into the middle ear (stapedial muscle). They are innervated by deep branches of the facial nerve. The facial musculature can be divided into:

- **muscles of the lips and cheeks**
  - orbicular muscle of the mouth (m. orbicularis oris),
  - incisive muscles (mm. incisivi),
  - nasolabial levator muscle (m. levator nasolabialis),
  - levator muscle of the upper lip (m. levator labii superioris),
  - canine muscle (m. caninus),
  - depressor muscle of the upper lip (m. depressor labii superioris),
  - depressor muscle of the lower lip (m. depressor labii inferioris),
  - levator muscle of the chin (m. mentalis),
  - zygomatic muscle (m. zygomaticus) and
  - buccinator muscle (m. buccinator).
- **muscles of the nose**
  - apical dilator muscle of the nostril (m. dilatator naris apicalis),
  - medial dilator muscle of the nostril (m. dilatator naris medialis),
  - lateral muscle of the nose (m. lateralis nasi) and
  - transverse muscle of the nose (m. transversus nasi).
- **extraorbital muscles of the eyelids**
  - orbicular muscle of the eye (m. orbicularis oculi),
  - levator muscle of the medial angle of the eye (m. levator anguli oculi medialis),
  - levator muscle of the lateral angle of the eye (m. levator anguli oculi lateralis) and
  - malar muscle (m. malaris).
- **muscles of the external ear**
  - scutular muscle (m. scutularis),
  - parotidoauricular muscle (m. parotidoauricularis),
  - caudal auricular muscles (mm. auriculares caudales),
  - dorsal auricular muscles (mm. auriculares dorsales),
  - rostral auricular muscles (mm. auriculares rostrales),
  - deep auricular muscles (mm. auriculares profundi),
  - styloauricular muscle (m. styloauricularis).

Muscles of the lips and cheeks
(musculi labiorum et buccarum)

The **orbicular muscle of the mouth** is the sphincter muscle of the mouth. It surrounds the opening of the mouth and forms the principal component of the lips (Fig. 2-1). It is

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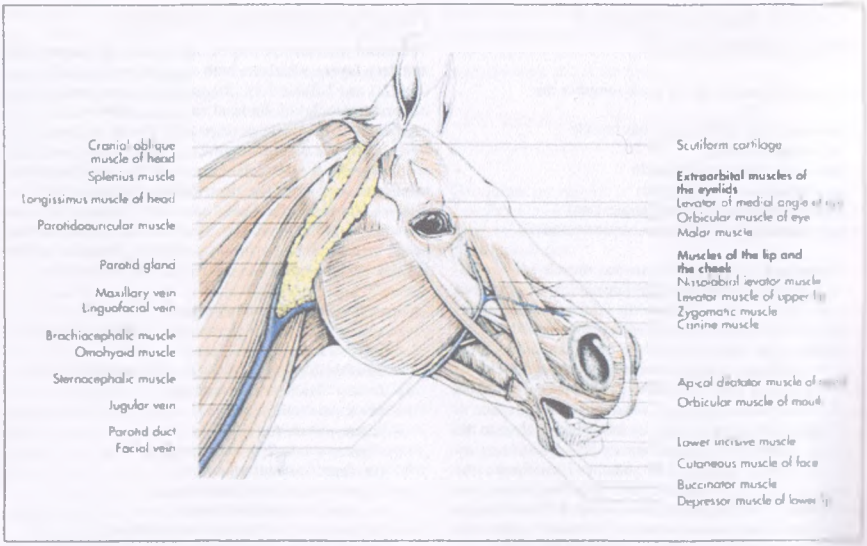


Fig. 2-1. Superficial muscles of the head of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ghetie, 1954

made up of multiple muscle bundles, which are intimately connected to the skin and the mucosa/submucosa. Fibers of the other muscles of the lips and cheeks radiate into the orbicularis oris.

In the dog this muscle is stronger in the upper lip than in the lower, where it is interrupted in the median segment. The orbicular muscle of the mouth shows a similar interruption in the upper lip of ruminants, which accounts for the limited degree of motion possible to this segment. The roots of the tactile hairs are embedded within the muscular tissue of the orbicular muscle of the mouth.

The **incisive muscles** lie directly beneath the submucosa of the lips. They arise as small muscle plates from the alveolar borders of the incisive bone and the mandible and radiate into the orbicular muscle of the mouth (Fig. 2-1). They raise the upper lip and pull the lower lip downward.

The **nasolabial levator muscle** originates from the fascia of the nasal and frontal region (Fig. 2-1). It spreads out to form a flat, band-shaped muscle in all domestic animals. In ruminants and the horse it divides into two branches, through which the caninus muscle passes. It inserts in the superior portion of the orbicularis oris and in the lateral wall of the nares and elevates the upper lip and dilates the nostril.

The **levator muscle of the upper lip** is the strongest muscle of the facial group. It originates from the medial angle of the eye, although its exact origin varies in the different domestic species (Fig. 2-1). It inserts, with several small tendons of insertion, on the lateral wall of the nostrils and the upper lip (carnivores, pigs, ruminants). In the horse it forms a broad common tendon with the corresponding muscle of the opposite side with which it inserts in the median segment of the upper lip. In carnivores this usually small muscle originates from the facial surface of the maxilla, caudoventral to the infraorbital foramen and radiates with delicate tendons into the lateral wall of the nostrils and the upper lip. In the pig it fills the canine fossa (fossa canina) and inserts on the ventral part of the rostral bone.

The levator muscle of the upper lip of ruminants has several thin tendons of insertion, with which it inserts on the dorsolateral wall of the nostril and the upper lip. In the horse the long flat belly of this muscle covers the maxilla and part of the lacrimal and zygomatic bones.

The **canine muscle** lies deep to the levator muscle of the upper lip in most domestic species. In carnivores it radiates into the upper lip at the level of the canine teeth. In ruminants it originates ventral to the levator muscle of the upper lip from the facial tuberosity, passes under the nasolabial levator muscle and inserts on the lateral wall of the nostril and the adjacent parts of the upper lip.

In the horse the canine muscle is a thin muscular plate which extends between the rostral end of the facial crest and the lateral wall of the nostril (Fig. 2-1).

The **depressor muscle of the upper lip** is present only in ruminants and pigs. It originates rostral to the facial tuberosity and ventral to the canine muscle. In the pig, it forms a long tendon, which unites with the tendon of insertion of the corresponding muscle of the opposite side and inserts on the ventral part of the rostral bone. In ruminants it splits into

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Muscles of the lips and cheeks

	Origin	Insertion	Action
	Circular muscle		Closes the opening of the mouth
	Alveolar arch Alveolar arch	Orbicular muscle of the mouth Orbicular muscle of the mouth	Raises the upper lip Pull's lower lip down
	Forehead, lateral surface of the nasal and maxillary bones	Orbicular muscle of the mouth near the nasal aperture	Raises the upper lip and widens external naris
	Variably on the maxillary bones	Upper lip	Raises and draws back upper lip and nasal plane
	Rostrally on the facial crest and on the facial tuberosity	Upper lip near the nasal aperture	Widens external naris and draws back upper lip
	Facial tuberosity	Upper lip	Pulls upper lip down
	Maxillary tuberosity	Lower lip	Pulls lower lip down
	On the lateral surface of the alveolar border of the mandible	Radiates into chin	Movement of the chin
	Zygomatic bone	Orbicular muscle of the mouth	Draws back the angle of the mouth
	Maxilla and mandible	Middle tendon	Narrows cheek pouch

forms a network of fibers in the upper lip

of the lower lip is present in all except carnivores. In ruminants it is a

of the molar part of the buccinator

and the **lower lip** on the lateral aspect

In the horse this muscle originates from the

and the buccinator muscle, extends ros-

orbicularis oris muscle of the face and lips,

of the molar part of the mandible and radi-

(Fig. 2-11).

of the chin is a weak muscle, infil-

and connective tissue, which appears to be a de-

It forms the principal component

in the dog and equal in the horse, but less dis-

is a thin muscle plate, which origi-

on the horse and from the fascia

in ruminants (Fig. 2-11). It inserts

of the mouth at the commissure of

from the scutiform cartilage

but not to end on the corner of

and the fascia of the neck ventrally.

The **buccinator muscle** forms the muscular wall of the oral cavity. It extends between the alveolar processes of the maxilla and mandible as a flat muscular plate (Fig. 2-11). It can compress the vestibule of the mouth, thus returning food to the masticatory surface of the teeth. In ruminants and the horse it can be divided into a **buccal part** (pars buccalis) rostrally and a deep **molar part** (pars molaris) caudally. In carnivores it is divided into maxillary and mandibular parts (Fig. 2-11).

In carnivores both portions originate from the alveoli of the last maxillary and mandibular molars as a thin muscular plate. The stronger **maxillary portion** passes along the rostral border of the masseter muscle, curves beneath the superficial part of the mandibular portion rostrodorsally and inserts rostral to the infraorbital foramen on the maxilla. The fibers of the weaker **mandibular portion** are directed in the opposite direction. They extend from the lower lip and the alveolar border of the first three premolars caudodorsally, where they insert on the maxilla.

In ruminants and the horse the **buccal** and **molar portions** are easily dissected from each other. The buccal portion forms the superficial part of the cheek. It is incompletely pennate with a longitudinal raphe on which most of the muscle fibers converge. It has a stronger dorsal and a weaker ventral

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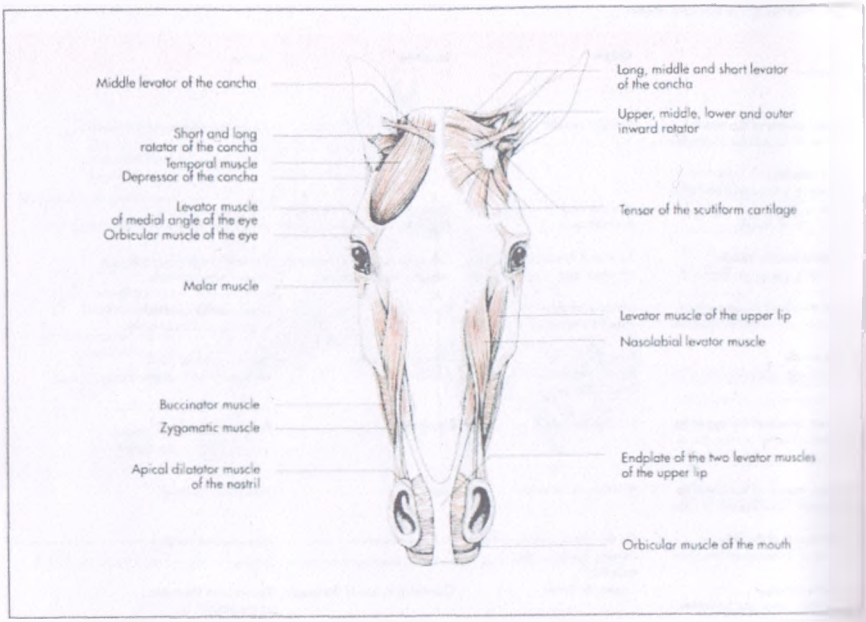


Fig. 2-2. Superficial muscles of the head of the horse (schematic, frontal aspect), after Ghetie, 1971

part. The **molar portion** originates from the alveolar border of the caudal cheek teeth and from the coronoid process of the mandible and blends with the orbicular muscle of the mouth rostrally. It is closely attached to the mucous membranes of the mouth and the buccal glands.

Muscles of the nose (musculi nasi)

Muscles of the nose are rudimentary in carnivores and in the pig, but better developed in ruminants and the horse. Their main function is the dilatation of the nostrils (Fig. 2-1 and 2-2). In the horse this group comprises:

- apical dilatator muscle of the nostril (m. dilatator naris apicalis),
- lateral muscle of the nose (m. lateralis nasi) and
- medial dilatator muscle of the nostril (m. dilatator naris medialis).

Extraorbital muscles of the eyelids (musculi extraorbitales)

The **orbicular muscle of the eye** is the sphincter muscle of the palpebral fissure (Fig. 2-1, 2-2, Table 2-2). The stronger deep portion (pars orbitalis) lies directly on the orbital [illegible] whereas the smaller superficial portion (pars palpebralis) radiates into the lids. It closes the palpebral fissure.

The **levator muscle of the medial angle of the eye** is a thin, small muscular plate in all domestic mammals. In carnivores, in which it is a strong muscular band. It originates from the frontal fascia and extends into the upper lid somedially (Fig. 2-2). It lifts the medial portion of the upper lid.

The **levator muscle of the lateral angle of the eye** is present in carnivores only. It extends from the temporal fascia to the lateral palpebral angle, which it draws caudally.

The **malar muscle** is a weak muscle in domestic animals, except ruminants. It is thought to be the palpebral attachment of the deep sphincter muscle of the neck (Fig. [illegible]). In the dog it consists of a few isolated muscle bundles covered by the platysma muscle, which extend from the mandible dorsoventrally to the orbicular muscle of the mouth and the maxilla. In ruminants its fibers are orientated at a right angle to the fibers of the zygomatic muscle and fan out to attach to the lacrimal bone at the medial canthus of the eye. It is a very weak muscle in the horse, and originates from the deep facial fascia in the region of the facial crest and combines with the palpebral portion of the orbicular muscle of the eye.

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Extraocular muscles of the eyelids

	Origin	Insertion	Action
Circular muscle of the eye	Circular muscle of the eye		Closes the palpebral fissure
Muscle of the medial angle	Nasofrontal fascia	Medial canthus of the eyelid	Levator of the medial part of the eyelid
Muscle of the lateral angle	Temporal fascia	Lateral palpebral angle	Retractor of the lateral palpebral angle
	Facial fascia	Lower eyelid	Draws lower eyelid downward

...s of the external ear (musculi auriculares)

...mammals is moved by numer... which originate either from the scutiform ... from the skull. Their fibers converge to... all directions (Fig. 2-3). They can be ... and function into muscles which draw ... upward, outward or inward, tense the scu... and rotate the ear. There are several small ... in addition to the muscles described below: ... the scutiform cartilage and narrow or ... the conchal canal.

... is a thin muscular plate which con... cartilage to the skull and can change the ... (Fig. 2-3). This muscle can be subdivided into ... scutular and cervicoscutular muscles; ... their location.

...auricular muscle is a long muscular band, ... from the cranial cervical and the parotid re... angle of the scutiform cartilage. It draws ... ventrally (Fig. 2-1 and 3).

...auricular muscles consist of a long portion, ... auricular muscle (m. cervicoauricularis ... deep portion, the deep cervicoauricular muscle ... profundus). Both portions arise from ... and end on the lateral aspect of the ... They draw the external ear outward and ...

...auricular muscles comprise three separate ... on the dorsal aspect of the external ear. ... auricular muscle (m. cervicoauricula... ... from the region of the cranial ... muscle (m. parietoauricularis), ... part of the temporal bone, and the accesso... ... muscle (m. cervicoauricularis ... the scutiform cartilage. They ... and draw it backward or forward.

...ntal auricular muscles include four ... named according to their location (Fig. 2-3): dorsal superficial scutuloauricular, middle superficial scutuloauricular, ventral superficial scutuloauricular and zygomaticoauricular muscles. They share a common insertion on the rostromedial aspect of the external ear and raise the ear. The zygomaticoauricular muscle also rotates the base of the ear forward.

The **deep auricular muscles** extend between the ventral aspect of the scutiform cartilage and the base of the ear (Fig. 2-3). They include a long portion (m. scutuloauricularis profundus major) and a short portion (m. scutuloauricularis profundus minor) and rotate the external ear.

The **stylohyoauricular muscle** is a narrow muscular band, which goes to the medial aspect of the scutiform cartilage and shortens the conchal canal (Fig. 2-3).

The muscles of the external ear are innervated by two branches of the facial nerve. These branches separate from the main nerve after it has passed through the stylomastoideum foramen and extend to the dorsal part of the ear rostral and caudal to the scutiform cartilage (n. auriculopalpebralis, n. auricularis caudalis).

Mandibular muscles

The mandibular muscles comprise the muscles of mastication and the superficial muscles of the mandibular space. They are innervated by the mandibular nerve, which is the third main branch of the first branchial nerve, the trigeminal nerve (cranial nerve V). This group is responsible for the movements of the jaw, which are necessary for mastication. It also covers the mandibular space and the hyoid apparatus ventrally.

The mandibular muscles include:

- **muscles of mastication**
  - masseter muscle (m. masseter)
  - medial and lateral pterygoid muscles (mm. pterygoidei medialis et lateralis),
  - temporal muscle (m. temporalis).
- **superficial muscles of the mandibular space**
  - digastric muscle (m. digastricus) and
  - mylohyoid muscle (m. mylohyoideus).

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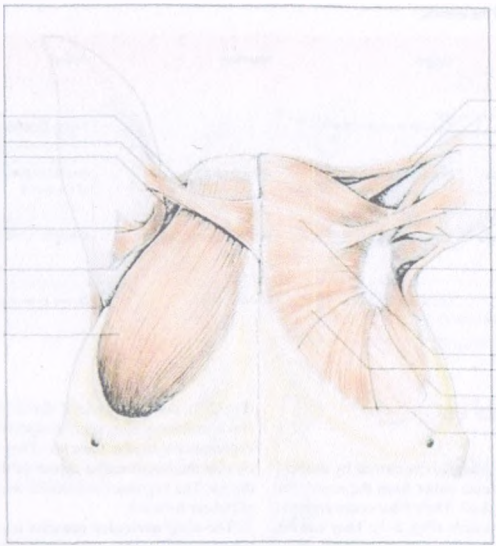


Fig. 2-3. Muscles of the external ear of the horse (schematic, frontal aspect), after Ghetie, 1971

Muscles of mastication

The muscles that are responsible for mastication are in general strong and show marked species-specific variations due to the different anatomy of the whole masticatory apparatus, including the skeletal components, the teeth and the temporomandibular joint (Fig. 2-4 to 7, Table 2-3).

The **masseter muscle** is a broad multipennate muscle with multiple tendinous intersections. It originates from the ventral border of the zygomatic arch and the facial crest and inserts on the lateral aspect of the mandible, extending from the facial notch to the temporomandibular joint.

The masseter muscle of carnivores is separated into **three layers** (superficial, middle, deep) by tendinous sheets (Fig. 2-4). The **superficial portion** is the strongest and originates from the rostral half of the zygomatic arch, passes over the ramus of the mandible caudoventrally and partly inserts on the ventrolateral surface of the mandible. The rest of the muscle passes around the ventral border of the mandible and the angular process to inserts on the ventromedial side, where it covers the digastric muscle. The **middle layer**, the weakest part of the masseter muscle, originates from the ventral border of the zygomatic arch, medial to the superficial layer and inserts on the lateral surface of the mandible. It is not possible to isolate the rostral origin of the **deep layer**, since it is fused to the temporalis muscle; caudally it originates from the medial surface of the zygomatic arch.

In the pig the three layers are firmly fused and difficult to dissect. In the ox the tendinous intersections are pronounced, forming five distinct parts. The change of fibre direction between each portion increases the masticatory force of this muscle. The superficial portion extends from the facial tuberosity to the caudal border of the mandible. The deep layer originates from the facial crest and the zygomatic arch, passes caudoventrally and inserts on the lateral surface of the mandibular ramus.

The masseter muscle of the horse shows up to fifteen tendinous intermuscular strands, which are orientated [illegible] and divide the muscle into multiple layers. The superficial layers arise from the facial crest, pass caudoventrally and insert on the ventral and caudal borders of the mandible. The deeper layers originate from the zygomatic arch, pass over the ramus of the mandible in a horizontal direction and fuse with the superficial portions, with which they insert on the lateral surface of the ramus of the mandible. If the masseter muscles of both sides act together, they force the upper and lower jaw together; if acting singly, they move the mandible to the side of the contracting muscle, which is important in the grinding process of herbivores.

The **pterygoid muscles** pass from the palatine, pterygoid and sphenoid bones to the medial aspect of the mandible (Fig. 2-5). The **lateral pterygoid muscle** (m. pterygoideus lateralis) is smaller of the two. It originates from the pterygoid process of the basisphenoid bone, passes caudoventrally and inserts on the medial surface of the ramus of the mandible near the [illegible]

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Table 3.3 Muscles of mastication

	Origin	Insertion	Action
[illegible]	Facial crest and zygomatic arch	Lateral surface of the mandible and intermandibular region	Raises and draws mandible sideways
[illegible]	Pterygoid process of the sphenoid bone	Medial surface of the mandible and the condylar process	Raises, pushes and draws the mandible forward
[illegible]	Pterygoid process of the sphenoid and pterygoid bones and the perpendicular plate	Medial surface of the mandible	Raises mandible
[illegible]	Temporal fossa	Coronoid process of the mandible	Raises mandible in order to close the mouth

[illegible] **medial pterygoid muscle** (m. pterygoideus medialis) occupies a position on the medial surface [illegible] to that of the masseter laterally. It extends from the basisphenoid and palatine bones to the ventral [illegible] of the mandible and the medial surface of the ramus of the mandible. [illegible] both parts are fused at their origin. They [illegible] from the lateral surface of the pterygoid, [illegible] and palatine bones. Their fibres insert on the medial [illegible] of the mandible, ventral to the mandibular foramen [illegible] through which passes between the insertion of [illegible] masseter.

[illegible] the medial pterygoid muscle is covered by the [illegible]. The mandibular nerve passes across the [illegible] of the medial pterygoid muscle, thus separating [illegible] muscles. The stronger medial pterygoid muscle originates from the vertical part of the pterygoid, sphenoid and palatine bones and fans out to forms an extensive insertion on the medial surface of the ramus of the mandible. The pterygoid muscles complement the masseter in its action. If contracting bilaterally they raise the mandible, if acting unilaterally they draw the mandible to the side of the contracting muscle. The lateral portion is also able to move the mandible rostrally, especially when the mouth is opened.

The **temporal muscle** occupies the temporal fossa, its size varying in the different species depending on the size of the fossa (Fig. 2-2 and 3). It originates from the temporal crest, which forms the edge of the temporal fossa, and from the temporal fascia. From there it extends downward, covered by the auricular muscles, and inserts on the coronoid process of the mandible. It is the strongest muscle of the head in carnivores. The margins of its origin are the temporal line, the

Table 3.4 Muscles of the mandibular space

	Origin	Insertion	Action
[illegible]	[illegible] process	Medial on the body of the mandible	Draws mandible downwards opens the mouth
[illegible]	[illegible] process	Angle of the mandible	Opens the mouth
[illegible]	[illegible] line	Med on raphe	Supports and lifts the tongue

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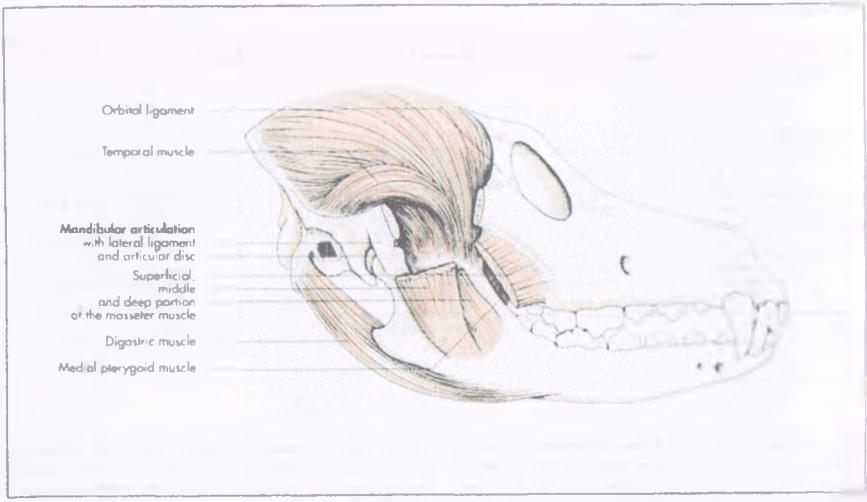


Fig. 2-4. Mandibular muscles of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect, zygomatic arch removed).

nuchal crest, the temporal crest, the zygomatic process of the temporal bone and the medial surface of the temporal fossa (Fig. 2-4). From its extensive origin the large muscle bundles curve cranioventrally beneath the zygomatic arch and the orbital ligament and pass around the coronoid process of the mandible, to which they insert. A tendinous branch fuses with the deep layer of the masseter muscle. In dolichocephalic dogs the temporal muscle meets the corresponding muscle of the opposite side in the midline and forms a midline sulcus. In brachycephalic dogs the two muscles do not meet and therefore no sulcus is visible, except for a small indentation between the interparietal bones in some breeds of dog.

While the temporal muscle is indistinct in ruminants it is visible under the skin in the horse. However, even in the horse the temporal muscle is not well developed compared to the other masticatory muscles. It originates from the borders of the temporal fossa, the temporal line, external sagittal crest, the nuchal crest and the pterygoid crest and the surface of the temporal fossa, which it occupies completely. It partly fuses with the masseter and inserts to the coronoid process of the mandible. It raises the mandible, acting together with the other masticatory muscles.

Superficial muscles of the mandibular space

The superficial muscles of the mandibular space assist the muscles of mastication. They cover the ventral side of the lingual muscles in the mandibular space (Fig. 2-4 to 7, Table 2-4).

Although named the **digastric muscles** it is a single-bellied muscle in domestic animals, except in the horse, where it has a caudal and a rostral belly. In the other domestic animals its evolutionary bipartite structure is indicated by a fibrous intersection.

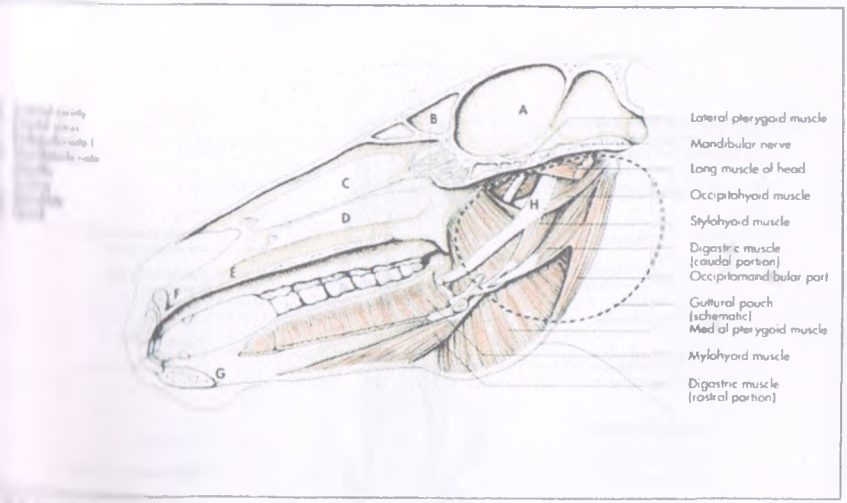
The rostral part is innervated by the mylohyoid nerve (n. mylohyoideus), which is a branch of the mandibular nerve (n. mandibularis), the caudal part by the digastric branch (ramus digastricus) of the facial nerve (n. facialis) (cranial nerve VII). It extends between the paracondylar process of the occiput and the medial surface of the mandible (Fig. 2-4).

In carnivores the digastric muscle is a strong single-bellied muscle, with delicate tendinous strands marking the division between the rostral and caudal portion. Unlike in other domestic animals this muscle inserts on the medial surface of the ventral border of the mandible at the level of the canine tooth. In ruminants the tendinous intersection between the two bellies is indistinct. It originates from the paracondylar process of the occiput and inserts on the medial surface of the mandible. A transverse muscular band extends between the two corresponding muscles of each side.

In the horse the caudal belly branches to form a lateral portion (pars occipitomandibularis) which inserts on the angle of the mandible (Fig. 2-5). The rest of the caudal belly passes ventrally and rostrally on the medial surface of the medial pterygoid muscle. It continues as an intermediate round tendon, which perforates the tendon of insertion of the stylohyoid muscle.

After passing beneath the basihyoid bone it forms the central belly, which attaches to the medial surface of the ventral border of the body of the mandible. It depresses the mandible and opens the mouth.

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...ular muscles of the horse (schematic, medial aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

...chal muscle forms a sling between the inner surface of the mandible. Based on its innervation by ... a branch of the mandibular nerve it is assigned to the ... group. According to its function it can ... a lingual muscle. Its fibres originate from the ... to the medial surface of the mandibular body ... of the opposite side in the midline of the ... forming a median fibrous raphe. It supports ... and raises it towards the palate (Fig. 2-5 and 6).

...muscles of the head

... of the head represent the functional ... of the muscles of the neck onto the head thus ... corresponding to the muscles of the trunk (Fig. ... Since their main function is the coordi... movements of the head, especially of the atlanto-occipital joints, they are described as a ... They are responsible for shaking, tilting, ... the head. This group is especially well developed in the pig, which enables it to dig the ground for food, ... also use their horns as weapons. Depending ... they are innervated by the dorsal and ... of the first and second cervical nerves, with ... exception of the head, which is innervated ... cervical nerves.

... dorsal straight muscle of the head (m. rectus ... extends between the spine of the axis ... part of the occiput. It can be divided into a ... portion in all domestic mammals. In carnivores and the pig the muscles of either side meet in the midline, whereas in ruminants and the horse they lie lateral to the nuchal ligament (Fig. 2-12). In carnivores it is covered by the semispinal muscle of the head from the atlas to the nuchal crest.

The **minor dorsal straight muscle of the head** (m. rectus capitis dorsalis minor) lies directly over the dorsal atlanto-occipital membrane, deep to the long muscle of the head, and extends between the occiput and the atlas. In carnivores and the horse it attaches to the dorsal arch of the atlas caudally and to the occiput dorsally over the foramen magnum.

Both dorsal straight muscles of the head act as extensors of the atlanto-occipital joint, thus raising the head.

The **lateral straight muscle of the head** (m. rectus capitis lateralis) is a small muscular band which occupies the alar fossa of the atlas and extends from the ventral arch to the paracondylar process of the occiput (Fig. 2-7). It flexes the atlanto-occipital joint and tilts the head.

The **ventral straight muscle of the head** (m. rectus capitis ventralis) runs between the ventral arch of the atlas and the basioccipital bone, to which it inserts between the muscular tubercle and the tympanic bulla (Fig. 2-7). It flexes the atlanto-occipital joint.

The **cranial oblique muscle of the head** (m. obliquus capitis cranialis) is a short muscle which extends obliquely craniolaterally over the atlanto-occipital joint, covered by the splenius and parts of the brachiocephalic muscle (Fig. 2-7 and 12). In carnivores it is divided into two portions. The main portion originates from the lateral and ventral portion of the wing of the atlas and inserts on the mastoid process of the

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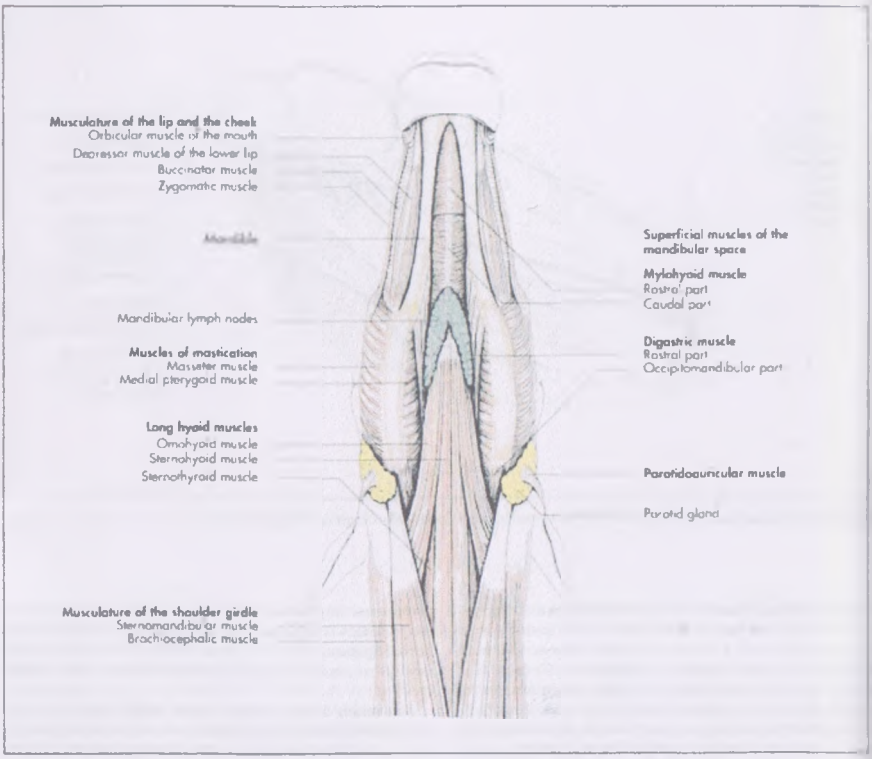


Fig. 2-6. Superficial muscles of the head and cranial neck region of the horse (schematic, ventral aspect); after Popesko, 1979

temporal bone and to the nuchal crest. It extends the atlanto-occipital joint and bends the head to the contracting side, when contracting unilaterally.

The caudal oblique muscle of the head (m. obliquus capitis caudalis) covers the atlas and axis dorsally. It originates from the spinous process of the axis, passes obliquely craniolaterally to its insertion on the wing of the atlas (Fig. 2-9 and 12). If contracting unilaterally it rotates the atlas and thus the head on the dens of the axis. Contracting bilaterally, they act as fixators of the head.

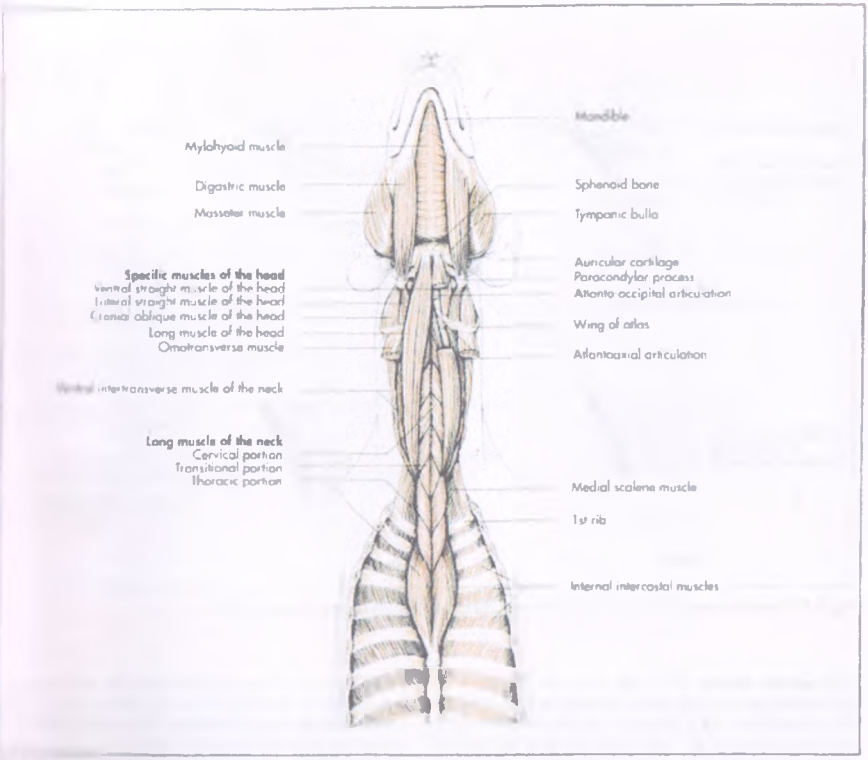
The **long muscle of the head** (m. longus capitis) represents the cranial continuation of the long muscle of the neck. It flexes the atlanto-occipital joint and draws the head sideways and the neck downward (Fig. 2-7). It is a strong muscle, which lies on the lateral and ventral sides of the second to sixth cervical vertebrae. It originates from the caudal branches of the transverse processes and inserts on the muscular tubercle of the basioccipital bone. In the horse it is slightly shorter than in carnivores, originating from the second to fourth cervical vertebrae. Before its insertion it unites with the corresponding muscle of the opposite side in the midline between the guttural pouches. It is supplied by the ventral branches of the first to fourth cervical nerves in the horse and the first to sixth cervical nerves in other domestic species.

Muscles of the trunk (musculi trunci)

The trunk of an animal comprises the neck, the thorax, the abdomen, the rump and the tail. The head is attached to it cranially, the limbs on either side; the muscles of the trunk extend onto the head and the limbs, thus joining them to the trunk. In addition these muscles play an important role in the standing animal as well as during locomotion.

The muscles of the trunk can be grouped based on their topography as follows:

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Deep cervical muscle of the head and deep muscles of the neck of the dog (schematic, ventral aspect)

- muscles of the neck (mm. colli),
- muscles of the back (mm. dorsi),
- muscles of the thoracic wall (mm. thoracis),
- muscles of the abdominal wall (mm. abdominis) and
- muscles of the tail (mm. caudae).

Muscles of the neck (musculi colli)

The muscles of the neck are situated on the dorsal and lateral surface of the cervical column. Some of the muscles of the neck are associated with the hyoid apparatus. The most important muscles of this group are the **brachiocephalic muscle** with its cervical components and the **sternocephalic muscle**. Because of the important role they play in the movements of the thoracic limb, both muscles are described in connection with the muscles of the shoulder girdle musculature. In addition, this group includes the following muscles:

- **splenius muscle** (m. splenius):
  - cervical portion (m. splenius cervicis),
  - capital portion (m. splenius capitis).
- **long muscle of the neck** (m. longus colli),
- **scalene muscles** (mm. scaleni):
  - ventral scalene muscle (m. scalenus ventralis),
  - middle scalene muscle (m. scalenus medius),
  - dorsal scalene muscle (m. scalenus dorsalis),
- **muscles of the hyoid apparatus** (mm. hyoidei):
  - specific muscles of the hyoid apparatus,
  - long muscles of the hyoid apparatus,
    - sternohyoid muscle (m. sternohyoideus),
    - sternothyroid muscle (m. sternothyroideus) and
    - omohyoid muscle (m. omohyoideus).

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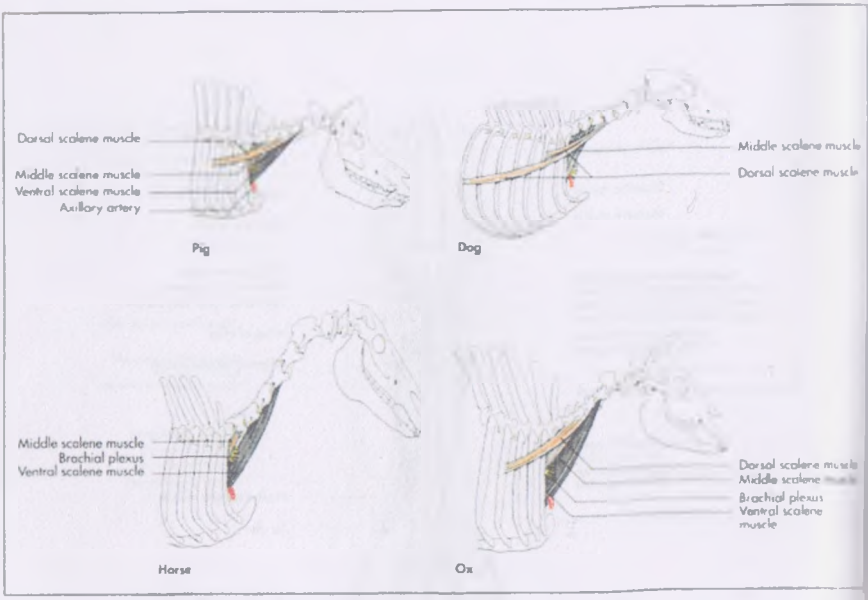


Fig. 2-8. The scalene muscles of the domestic mammals (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

The **splenius muscle** is a strong, elongated muscle on the dorsolateral aspect of the neck, extending from the withers to the occiput (Fig. 2-9). It lies below the superficial muscles of the neck and covers the longissimus muscle of the head, the semispinal muscle of the head and parts of the dorsal spinal muscle. It originates from the spinocostotransverse fascia and the nuchal ligament, and in ruminants, directly from the spinous processes of the first four thoracic vertebrae as well. It is divided into a **capital** and a **cervical portion** (m. splenius capitis et cervicis), with the exception of carnivores, in which the latter portion is absent. The cervical portion inserts on the transverse processes of the third to fifth cervical vertebrae, while the capital portion continues to the nuchal crest of the occiput or, in the horse, the mastoid process of the temporal bone. This muscle is especially well developed in the horse, in which it can be easily identified under the skin. It extends and raises the head and neck. Unilateral contraction draws the head and neck laterally. It plays an important role in maintaing balance during gallop.

The **long muscle of the neck** and the **scalene muscles** belong to a group of muscles, which depress and flex the neck downward. Some muscles of the shoulder girdle fulfil the same function and are described in Chapter 3.

The **long muscle of the neck** lies on the ventral aspect of the cervical and first few thoracic vertebrae. It extends from the first thoracic vertebrae to the atlas and finds its cranial continuation in the long muscle of the head. The thoracic portion attaches to the bodies of the last two cervical vertebrae up to the sixth thoracic vertebra. The cervical part originates, with separate muscle bundles, from the transverse processes of the third to seventh cervical vertebrae and runs craniomedially to insert on the bodies of the more cranial cervical vertebrae near the midline. It draws the neck downward.

The **scalene muscles** comprise two or three separate muscles, depending on the species. While all three muscles, the dorsal, ventral and middle scalene muscles, are present in the pig and ruminants, the dorsal muscle is absent in the horse and the ventral muscle is absent in carnivores. All three portions extend from the transverse processes of the third to seventh cervical vertebrae to the lateral surface of the first and the third to the eighth ribs, again varying among the different species (Fig. 2-8).

The **ventral** and **middle scalene muscles** originate on the first rib and are divided by the brachial plexus (plexus brachialis). This division does not exist in carnivores due to the more ventral location of the brachial plexus in these animals.

The **dorsal scalene muscle** originates from the third rib in the pig, the fourth or fifth rib in ruminants and with two heads from the third to fifth or from the ninth to the eighth rib in carnivores. It inserts to the third to sixth cervical vertebrae in domestic mammals, except in the horse, in which this muscle is absent.

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Tab. 3.9 Specific muscles of the head.

Name [illegible]	Origin	Insertion	Action
[illegible] **dorsal straight muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 1st cervical nerve	Spinous process of the axis	Nuchal crest	Extends of the atlanto-occipital joint
[illegible] **dorsal straight muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 1st cervical nerve	Dorsally on the atlas	Dorsally of the magnum foramen	Extends of the atlanto-occipital joint
[illegible] **straight muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 1st cervical nerve	Ventrally on the atlas	Paracondylar process	Flexes of the atlanto-occipital joint
[illegible] **straight muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 1st cervical nerve	Ventrally on the atlas	Base of the skull	Flexes of the atlanto-occipital joint
[illegible] **oblique muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 1st cervical nerve	Wings of the atlas	Nuchal crest	Extends and draws head to the side
[illegible] **oblique muscle of the head** [illegible] branch of 2nd cervical nerve	Spinous process of the axis	Wings of the atlas	Rotates the head and the the atlanto occipital joint
[illegible] **muscle of the head** [illegible] branches of cervical nerves	Transverse processes of the 2nd – 6th cervical vertebrae	Base of the skull	Flexes and draws head and cranial parts of the neck to the side

Tab. 3.10 Superficial muscles of the neck.

[illegible] [illegible]	Origin	Insertion	Action
[illegible]			
[illegible]	Spinocostotransverse fascia, nuchal ligament, spinous processes of the thoracic vertebrae	Transverse processes of the 3rd – 5th cervical vertebrae Occipital bone, mastoid process	Extends and draws head and neck to the side
[illegible]	5th – 6th thoracic vertebrae	1st cervical vertebra	Flexes of the neck
[illegible]	1st rib	Transverse processes of the 7th – 3rd cervical vertebrae	Fixes the neck, draws neck downwards and bends it sideways, supports inspiration
[illegible]	1st rib	7th cervical vertebra	Fixes the neck, draws neck downwards and bends it sideways, supports inspiration
[illegible]	3rd – 8th ribs	Transverse processes of the 6th – 3rd cervical vertebrae	Fixes the neck, draws neck downwards and bends it sideways, supports inspiration

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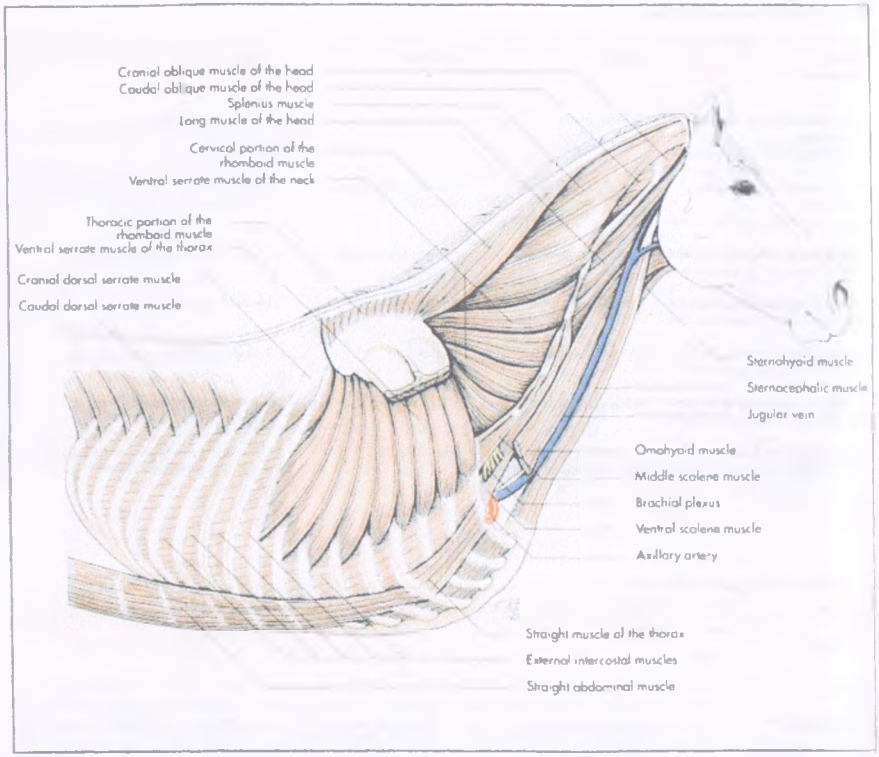


Fig. 2-9. Superficial muscles of the trunk of the horse (schematic), after Ghetie, 1954

The **hyoid muscles** comprise all the muscles which are associated with the hyoid apparatus. The specific muscles of the hyoid apparatus include the **stylohyoid muscle** (m. stylohyoideus) of the basihyoid bone, the **mylohyoid muscle** (m. mylohyoideus), which is described earlier in this chapter as part of the mandibular muscles, the **geniohyoid muscle** (m. geniohyoideus), extending between the mandible and the hyoid bone, and several other muscles, such as the **thyrohyoid muscle** (m. thyrohyoideus), the **occipitohyoid muscle** (m. occipitohyoideus), **ceratohyoid muscle** (m. ceratohyoideus) and the **transverse hyoid muscle** (m. hyoideus transversus).

These muscles are described in detail together with the rest of the hyoid apparatus in Chapter 7.

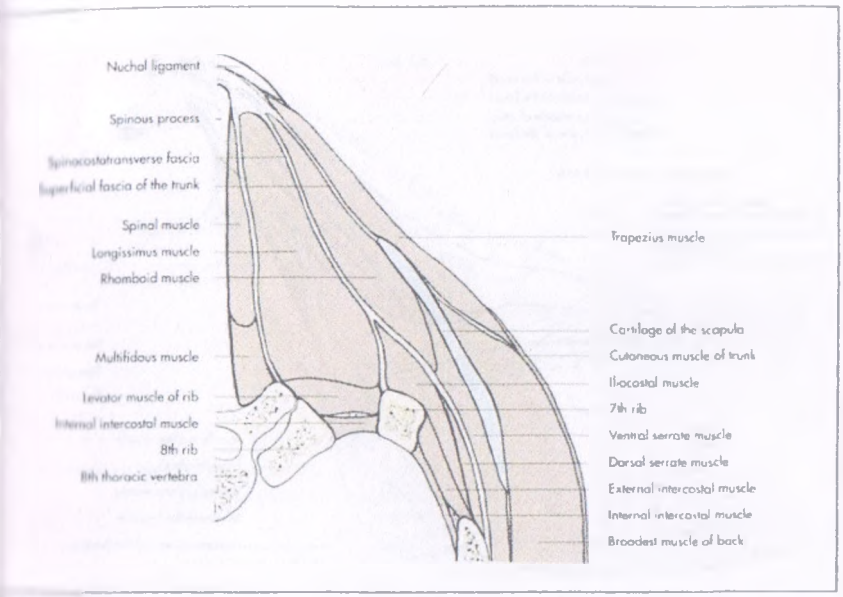
The **long hyoid muscles** lie ventral and lateral to the trachea and are therefore topographically part of the musculature of the neck. Functionally, however, they act as auxiliary muscles of the tongue, since they insert on the basihyoid and the larynx. They originate from the manubrium of the sternum and are covered to a large extent by the brachiocephalic and sternocephalic muscles. They draw the hyoid bone and thus the tongue caudally.

The **sternohyoid muscle** is a strong strap-like muscle which originates from the manubrium of the sternum and the first rib (carnivores) and inserts on the basihyoid bone (Fig. 2-6). It meets its contralateral partner on the midline of the neck and they extend cranially, covering the ventral surface of the trachea. Its caudal half is fused to the **sternothyroid muscle**.

The **sternothyroid muscle** separates from the sternohyoideus in the middle of the neck and inserts on the thyroid cartilage of the larynx (Fig. 2-6).

The **omohyoid muscle** is most developed in the horse and is absent in carnivores (Fig. 2-6). It originates from the subscapular fascia, close to the shoulder joint in the horse and from the deep fascia of the neck in ruminants and inserts on the basihyoid bone. In the horse, the omohyoid muscle unites with the corresponding muscle of the opposite side midway up the neck and inserts together with the sternohyoid muscle

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Muscles of the back, cross-section at the level of the eight thoracic vertebra (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

... process of the hyoid bone. In the cranial half of ... is superficial to the external jugular vein and ... carotid artery, thus providing some protection ... during intravenous injection.

...les of the back (musculi dorsi)

... of the back include all muscles which are situated ... the cervical, thoracic and lumbar vertebral column. ... from the bodies or processes of the vertebrae ... fascia. From a topographic point of view, the muscles ... back are arranged in two layers; functionally these ... complement each other.

... of the **superficial layer** lie on the lateral side of ... and are innervated by the ventral branches of the ... nerves. This layer also includes part of the shoulder girdle, which joins the thoracic limb to the rump:

- ... muscle (m. trapezius),
- ... brachiomastoid muscle (m. sternocleidomastoideus),
- ... cephalic muscle (m. sternocephalicus),
- ... brachiocephalic muscle (m. brachiocephalicus),
- ... transversarius muscle (m. omotransversarius),
- ... broadest muscle of the back (m. latissimus dorsi) and
- ... superficial pectoral muscle (m. pectoralis superficialis).

These muscles extend from the rump, the ribs or regional fasciae to the skeleton of the shoulder girdle and are described in detail in Chapter 3.

Based on their embryologic origin and their innervation by the ventral branches of the spinal nerves, some muscles of the thoracic wall (mm. serrati dorsales) are classified in this group, but are described according to their function as part of the respiratory muscles later in this chapter (Fig. 2-91).

The **deep layer** of the muscles of the back are dorsal to the transverse processes of the vertebrae and supplied by the dorsal branches of the spinal nerves. Some muscles of this group are elongated individual muscles (**long muscles of the back**) which extend along the vertebral column, other muscles are short and small (**short muscles of the back**), extending from one segement to the next. Functionally these muscles elevate, rotate and dorsally, ventrally and laterally flex the vertebral column. Cranially the muscles of these group are rather delicate muscle bundles, thus increasing the mobility of the head and neck region, especially in carnivores, whereas in the lumbar region this group comprises rather strong muscles, which provide stabilization of this part of the vertebral column.

The **deep layer** of the muscles of the back can be further divided into a **lateral** and **medial system**. Both groups form two strong muscular columns, which occupy the space between the spinous and transverse processes of the cervical, thoracic and lumbar vertebrae. Large parts of these groups

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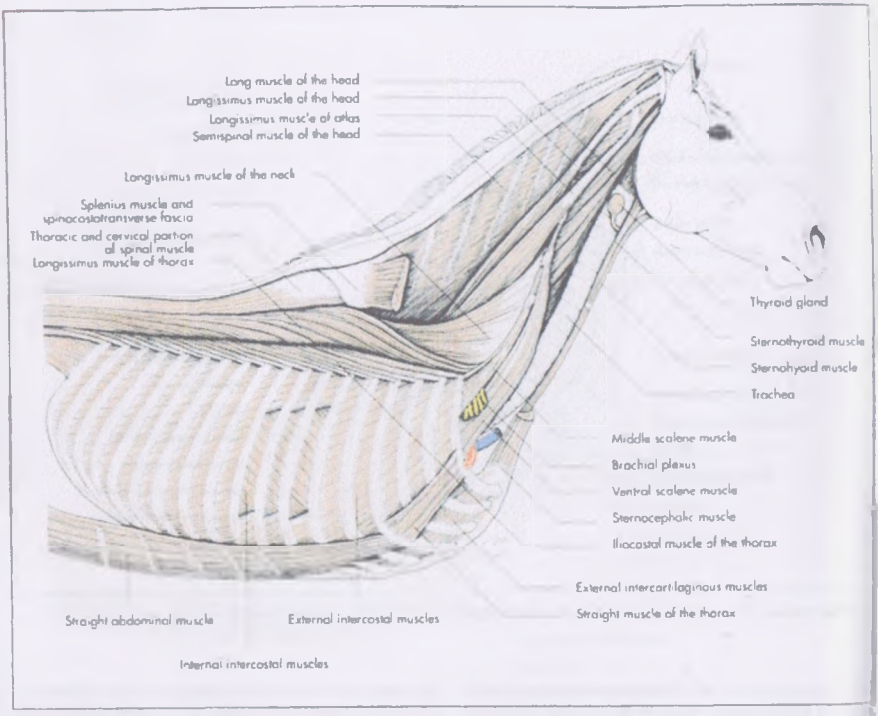


Fig. 2-11. Superficial and middle layers of the trunk musculature of the horse (schematic); after Ghetie, 1954.

can be summarized as erector muscles of the spine (mm. erectores spinae), a term which is much more appropriate in the cat and dog than in ruminants and the horse, in which the vertebral column is somewhat more rigid. Since the erector spinae muscles vary considerably in location and function it is difficult to group them systematically.

This system is complemented by the **transversospinal muscles** (mm. transversospinales), **interspinal muscles** (mm. interspinales) and the **intertransverse muscles** (mm. intertransversarii), which represent the short muscles of the back.

Long muscles of the neck and back

The **lateral group of muscles** consists of longitudinal muscle masses, which cross several consecutive vertebrae. These elongated muscle bellies are the result of various fusions of the primary segmental muscles of the neck and back. Their original segmental pattern is still present in that the different segments are innervated by the dorsal branches of the corresponding segmental nerves. They originate from the sacrum, the ilium and by means of tendons or small muscular digitations from the vertebrae of the trunk and insert on the ribs or the head (**sacrospinal system**).

In the neck region, extending from the withers to the occiput, the muscles of the lateral group are covered superficially by the muscles of the neck. The following muscles of the trunk are assigned to the **lateral system** (Fig. 2-11, Table 2-1):

- **iliocostal muscle** (m. iliocostalis):
  - lumbar portion (m. iliocostalis lumborum),
  - thoracic portion (m. iliocostalis thoracis),
  - cervical portion (m. iliocostalis cervicis).
- **longissimus muscle** (m. longissimus):
  - lumbar portion (m. longissimus lumborum),
  - thoracic portion (m. longissimus thoracis),
  - cervical portion (m. longissimus cervicis),
  - atlas portion (m. longissimus atlantis) and
  - capital portion (m. longissimus capitis).

The **iliocostal muscle** is a slim, elongated muscle, which is composed of a series of overlapping fascicles (Fig. 2-11). Its fibres are orientated in a cranioventral direction and span several vertebral segments. It originates from the crest of the

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Tab. 2-7. Long muscles of the neck and back: lateral system.

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Iliocostal muscle Dorsal branches of the cervical and lumbar nerves			
Lumbar portion	Iliac crest and transverse processes of the lumbar column	Caudal border of the last rib	Fixes the loin and ribs
Thoracic portion	Upper end of the cranial edge of the ribs	Caudal borders of the ribs and transverses processes of the last cervical vertebra	Bends the vertebral column sideways
Cervical portion	Transverse processes of the cranial thoracic vertebrae	Transverse processes of the 7th cervical vertebra	Bends the vertebral column sideways
Longissimus muscle Dorsal branches of the cervical, thoracic and lumbar nerves			
Lumbar and thoracic portions	Spinous processes of the sacral, lumbar and thoracic vertebrae, ilium	Articular, mamillary and transverse processes of the thoracic column and proximal on the ribs	Fixes and extends the vertebral column, raises cranial part of the body
Cervical portion	Transverse processes of the first 5 - 8 thoracic vertebrae	Transverse processes of the 3rd – 7th cervical vertebrae	Raises and bends the neck laterally
Capital and atlas portions	Transverse processes of the first thoracic and last cervical vertebrae	Wing of the atlas and mastoid part of the temporal bone	Raises and bends the head sideways, turns the head

processes of the lumbar vertebrae and the [illegible] ("Hogenzky tendon"), which separates the iliocostalis from the longissimus. It extends cranially as the cervical vertebral column and lies next to the brachiocephalic muscle of the back on the dorsal side of the angle of the [illegible] with one common tendon of insertion on the last rib and vertebra. Topographically the iliocostal muscle can be divided into a **lumbar** and **thoracic portion**.

The **lumbar portion** of the iliocostal muscle is well distinguishable as an independent muscle in carnivores only. In the pig and the horse it is fused with the lumbar portion of the longissimus muscle of the back. In carnivores it attaches to the ends of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and inserts with fleshy serrations on the 11th to 13th ribs. In ruminants the tendon of insertion attaches to the 12th rib, in the horse a very short lumbar portion inserts on the transverse processes of the middle lumbar vertebrae.

The **thoracic portion** (Fig. 2-11) lies lateral to the brachiocephalic muscle of the back and forms the cranial continuation of the lumbar portion of the iliocostal muscle. Its individual [illegible] originate with glistening tendons from the lumbar portion and extend craniolaterally spanning, two to four intercostal spaces each.

After forming a common muscle belly it inserts, with terminal serrations, on the caudal side of the first (tuberositas musculi iliocostalis) to the 12th ribs and to the transverse process of the seventh cervical vertebra (carnivores). In the horse they insert on the caudal surface of the first to 15th ribs, with medial, deeper tendons of insertion to the cranial surface of the fourth to 18th ribs and to the transverse process of the seventh cervical vertebra (cervical portion).

The iliocostalis stabilises the lumbar and thoracic parts of the vertebral column. In carnivores it assists in the forward propulsion of the body when running. It also aids in expiration by pulling the ribs caudally.

The **longissimus muscle** forms a major part of the paraxial musculature of the trunk (Fig. 2-11). It extends over the entire length of the back and neck from the pelvis to the head, thus forming the longest muscle of the body. Its original segmental arrangement is still reflected in the numerous individual attachments of its segmental muscle bundles. Its overlapping fascicles arise from the sacrum, ilium, the mamillary

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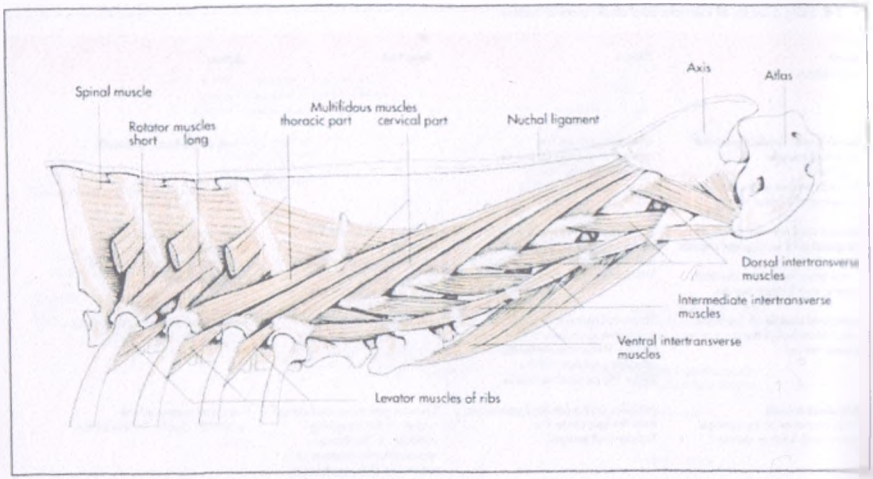


Fig. 2-13. Deep musculature of the neck of the dog (schematic).

For this reason it is designated by a compound name, **thoracic and cervical spinal and semispinal muscle**. This muscle consist of numerous individual muscle bundles, which lie in the region of the lumbar, thoracic and cervical vertebrae. The thoracic and lumbar spinal and semispinal muscles stabilise the back and elevate the neck, when acting together. Contracting unilaterally they flex the back and neck laterally.

These muscles find a direct continuation to the neck and head in the **semispinal muscle of the head**. This strong muscle plate occupies the space between the occiput, the cervical vertebrae and the nuchal ligament, covered on its lateral aspect by the longissimus and the splenius muscles. It can be divided in the dorsomedially, located **biventer muscle of the neck** and the ventrolateral **complexus muscle**.

The semispinal muscle of the head raises the head, when acting bilaterally and flexes the head and neck laterally, when acting unilaterally.

The **multifidous muscles** represent the deepest layer of the medial system of the long muscles of the neck and back (Fig. 2-13). It is composed of numerous individual portions and arranged in overlapping segments, which extend from the articular and mamillary processes, and in the thoracic region from the transverse processes, to the spinous processes of the preceding vertebrae. They extend from the lumbar vertebrae to the cervical vertebral column and can include up to five segments in the thoracic region. Cranially it unites with the oblique muscle of the head and caudally with the musculature of the tail. It is responsible for the coordination of the long muscles of the neck and back.

The **rotator muscles** are only present in parts of the thoracic vertebral column to which rotational movements are possible (first to tenth thoracic vertebrae in carnivores and pigs, first to 12th in ruminants and 16th in horses). They comprise short muscle bundles, which unite the transverse processes with the spinous process of the adjacent vertebra (carnivores) and long muscles, which pass over two segments in all domestic animals (Fig. 2-13).

Short muscles of the neck and back

The lateral and medial systems of the long muscles of the neck and back is complemented by short intersegmental muscle bands. They are divided into two groups:

- interspinal muscles (mm. interspinales) and
- intertransverse muscles (mm. intertransversarii).

The muscles of the **intertransversal system** extend between the transverse processes and the muscles of the spinal system between the spinous processes of the vertebrae (Table 2-6).

The **interspinal muscles** consist of short muscular (carnivores) or tendinous (ungulates) bands (ligamenta interspinalia) between adjacent spinous processes of the caudal cervical, thoracic and first few lumbar vertebrae. They support the ventroflexion of the vertebral column.

The **intertransversal muscles** extend between the transverse processes, or between the transverse and articular processes or between the mamillary and accessory processes. In the dog and horse they are separated into a **lumbar group** (mm. intertransversarii lumborum) and a **thoracic group** (mm. intertransversarii thoracis), which run between the mamillary and transverse processes of the lumbar and thoracic vertebrae, and a **cervical group** (mm. intertransversarii dorsales et ventrales cervicis) between the transverse

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Table 2-9 Short muscles of the neck and back

Name and description	Origin	Insertion	Action
Intersegmental muscles	Spinous processes	Spinous processes	Fixation and flexibility of the thoracic and lumbar vertebrae
Transverse muscles	Transverse processes, mamillary processes	Transverse processes, articular processes	Fixation and lateral flexion of the cervical and lumbar vertebral column

of the cervical vertebrae (Fig. 2-13). The intertransver- is most in coordinating the movements of the verte- It also stabilises and flexes it laterally.

...cles of the thoracic wall ...culi thoracis)

...s of the thoracic wall comprise two groups, the ... of the **deep** and **superficial layers of the shoulder** ... and **muscles of respiration**. The shoulder girdle mus- ... includes the superficial and deep pectoral muscles ... capit., m. pectoralis prof.), the subclavian mus- ... and the thoracic portion of the ventral ser- ... ser. serratus ventr.), which cover the muscles of ... the lateral aspect of the thorax. Functionally they ... of the shoulder girdle and are therefore presented in ... Chapter 3 as part of the thoracic limb.

...ratory muscles

...ratory muscles are attached to the **skeleton of the** ... of the ribs or the costal cartilages. They con- ... which occupy the spaces between the ribs ... and small muscles, which lie on the later- ... of the ribs (Tab. 2-10). The most important respir- ... is the **diaphragm** (diaphragma), which sepa- ... and abdominal cavities.

... the respiratory muscles can be divided into ... **muscles**, which enlarge the thoracic cavity, al- ... into the lungs, and **expiratory muscles**, ... the volume of the thoracic cavity, expelling ... lungs and airways. The inspiratory muscles ro- ... laterally, whereas the expiratory muscles ... ventrally. Similar to the muscles of the ... **muscles** have an embryologically seg- ... which is reflected by their nerve supply ... intercostal nerves. This group comprises

- ... (mm. serrati dorsales):
  - ... serrate muscle
  - ... (m. serratus ventralis),
  - ... muscle (m. serratus dors. caudalis),
- **intercostal muscles** (mm. intercostales):
  - external intercostal muscles (mm. intercostales externi),
  - internal intercostal muscles (mm. intercostales interni),
  - subcostal muscles (mm. subcostales),
  - retractor muscle of the ribs (m. retractor costae),
- **levator muscles of the ribs** (mm. levatores costarum),
- **transverse thoracic muscle** (m. transversus thoracis),
- **straight thoracic muscle** (m. rectus thoracis),
- **diaphragm** (diaphragma):
  - lumbar portion (pars lumbalis),
  - costal portion (pars costalis),
  - sternal portion (pars sternalis) and
  - central tendon (centrum tendineum).

The **dorsal serrate muscles** originate with an aponeurosis from the spinoosteotransversal fascia, the supraspinal ligament and from the thoracolumbar fascia caudally. They attach by a series of individual digitations to the ribs lateral to the thoracic muscles. Based on the direction of their fibres they can be divided into a **cranial portion** and a **caudal portion** (Fig. 2-9).

The cranial portion pulls the ribs caudoventrally and rotates them outward during contraction, thus acting as an inspiratory muscle. In carnivores it originates from the first six to eight thoracic vertebrae and the thoracolumbar fascia and inserts with single slips to the cranial and lateral aspect of the third to 10th ribs; in the horse to the third to 12th ribs.

The fibres of the caudal portion slope cranioventrally, showing an antagonistic direction to the ones of the cranial portion. The slips of the caudal portion rotate the ribs backward and inward, thus assisting expiration.

In the dog and cat the caudal portion originates from the thoracolumbar fascia and inserts on the 9th to 13th ribs in all species except the horse, where the insertions are on the caudal side of the 12th to 18th ribs.

The **intercostal muscles** occupy the spaces between the ribs and comprise a minimum of two layers, the **deeper internal intercostal muscles** and the more superficial **external intercostal muscles** (Fig. 2-12). The fibres of the internal intercostal muscles run from the cranial aspect of one rib to the caudal aspect of the preceding rib in a craniventral direction. These muscles lie lateral to the intercostal nerve and as-

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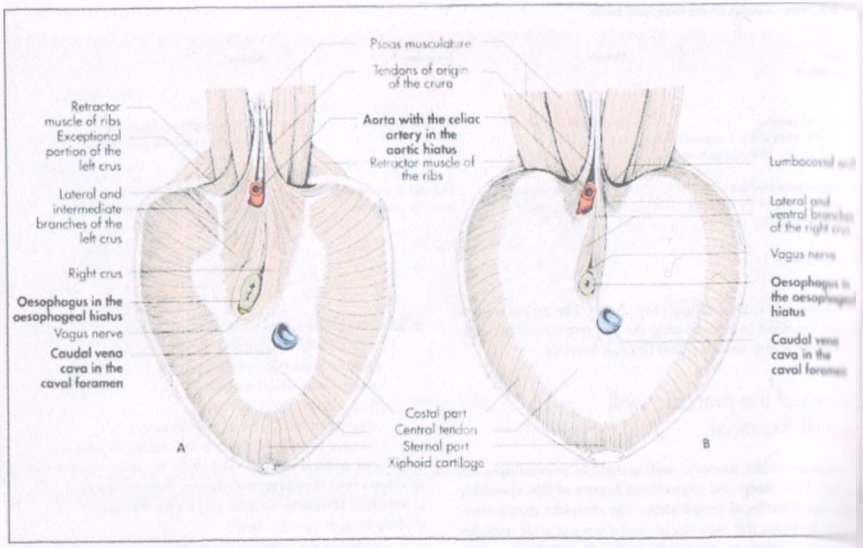


Fig. 2-14. Diaphragm of the dog (A) and horse (B) (schematic, caudal aspect).

sist expiration. The fibres of the external intercostal muscles are orientated perpendicular to the ones of the internal layer, thus bridging the individual intercostal spaces in a caudoventral direction, and acting as inspiratory muscles. The external intercostal muscles occupy the intercostal spaces from the vertebral column to the costochondral junctions, but do not extend as far as the sternum.

The **intercartilaginous muscles** are direct continuations of the intercostal muscles into the interchondral spaces.

The **subcostal muscles** are located deep to the internal intercostal muscles, medial to the intercostal nerves at the vertebral end of the last rib. They form two to three distinct muscle bundles in carnivores. These muscles and the retractor muscles of the ribs, which extend from the transverse processes of the cranial lumbar vertebrae and the thoracolumbar fascia to the last rib, act as expiratory muscles.

The **levator muscles of the ribs** constitute a series of small muscles, which are hardly distinguishable from the external intercostal muscle (Fig. 2-13). They originate from the transverse and mammilary processes of all but the last thoracic vertebrae and pass caudoventrally to the angle of the adjacent ribs to insert on the cranial border of the second to the last rib. They are covered by the iliocostal and longissimus muscles of the back and are innervated by the dorsal branches of the thoracic nerves. The muscles of this group act as inspirators.

The **transverse muscle of the thorax** is a triangular sheet, lying on the inside of the sternum and the sternal costal cartilages. It originates from the **sternal ligament** (ligamentum sterni) and inserts to the costochondral junctions of the second to the eighth ribs. It pulls the ribs inward when expiring, thus assisting expiration.

The **straight muscle of the thorax** is a flat rectangular muscle covering the lateral aspect of the first three to four ribs (Fig. 2-11). It runs caudoventrally from its origin on the first rib to end in a broad tendon of insertion which blends with the aponeurosis of the straight abdominal muscle. It acts as an inspiratory muscle.

The **diaphragm** is a dome-shaped musculotendinous plate, which separates the thoracic and abdominal cavities (Fig. 2-14) and is present in all mammals. Its convex cranial side projects far into the thoracic cavity, so that the abdominal cavity has a large **intrathoracic part**. The point of maximum convexity is named the **vertex** or **cupula of the diaphragm** (cupula diaphragmatis).

On the thoracic side the diaphragm is covered by the **thoracic fascia** (fascia endothoracica) and the **pleura**, on the abdominal side by the **transversal fascia** (fascia transversalis) and the **peritoneum**. A double layer of serosa extends between the thoracic surface and the heart and lungs. The abdominal surface is closely related to the liver and connected to it by ligaments. Its muscular part extends to the lumbar vertebral column dorsally.

There are **three openings in the diaphragm**. Just ventral to the vertebral column, almost in the median plane, it is perforated by the **aorta** (aorta), the **azygos vein** (v. azygos)

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Muscles of the thoracic wall

	Origin	Insertion	Action
	Spinocostotransverse fascia	Serrations of 2nd to 4th ribs	Draws ribs forwards, extends the thorax
	Thoracolumbar fascia	From 9th to 12th ribs	Draws ribs backwards, contracts the thorax
	Caudal border of the ribs	Cranial border of the preceeding rib	Draws ribs forwards, extends the thorax
	Cranial border of the ribs	Caudal border of the foregoing rib	Draws ribs backwards, contracts the thorax
	Transverse and mamillary processes of the 1st until the next to last thoracic vertebra	Cranial border of the proximal part of the preceeding rib	Draws ribs forwards, extends the thorax
	Thin bundle of muscle fibres between the proximal ends of the ribs		Supports the internal intercostal muscles
	Thoracolumbal fascia	Final rib	Draws ribs backwards
	1st rib	2nd – 4th rib cartilage	Draws first three ribs forwards, extends the thorax
	Sternal ligament	Costochondral articulations	Contracts the thorax

thoracicus). More ventrally and to **hiatus** (hiatus esophageus), through and the paired vagal nerves pass. The **foramen** (foramen venae cavae), lies to the right of the median plane, and caudal vena cava. The diaphragm is in- nerves of the ventral branches of the (Fig. 2-14).

of a **central tendon** (centrum ten- **part**, which surrounds the tendi- The fibres of the muscular part arise wall and pass into the central part

part can be subdivided into

and

).

of the diaphragmatic musculature is **diaphragmatic crura** (crus dex- They originate from the ventral lumbar vertebra and extend in a As the aortic hiatus they enclose the the oesophageal duct. The lumbar part in carnivores.

The **right crus** (crus dexter) is larger than the left and fans out to divide into a lateral portion, which extends on the right side of the diaphragm to the central tendon and two ventral portions. The latter are strong muscular strands, which run cranioventrally and radiate deep into the central tendon. They form a slit through which the esophagus and the vagus nerves pass (hiatus oesophageus). In carnivores the division of the right crus is more complex and comprises dorsal, lateral, ventral and intermediate portions.

The **left crus** (crus sinister) is undivided in all domestic species, except in carnivores, where it consists of a lateral and an intermediate branch. The left crus extends from the dorsal border of the diaphragm on the left side to join the central tendon.

The lumbar part is in direct contact to the peritoneum and the pleura on the dorsolateral border of the diaphragm just ventral to the psoas muscles. This area is called the **lumbocostal arch** (arcus lumbocostalis).

The **costal part** (pars costalis) originates as a series of muscle bundles from the inner surfaces of the last three or four ribs on both sides of the thorax and curves ventrally following the costochondral junctions to the eight rib and the xiphoid. It joins the central tendon in a radial pattern.

The fibres of the **sternal part** (pars sternalis) arise from the xiphoid cartilage, extend dorsally to meet the central tendon (Fig. 2-14). The part of the central tendon, which projects

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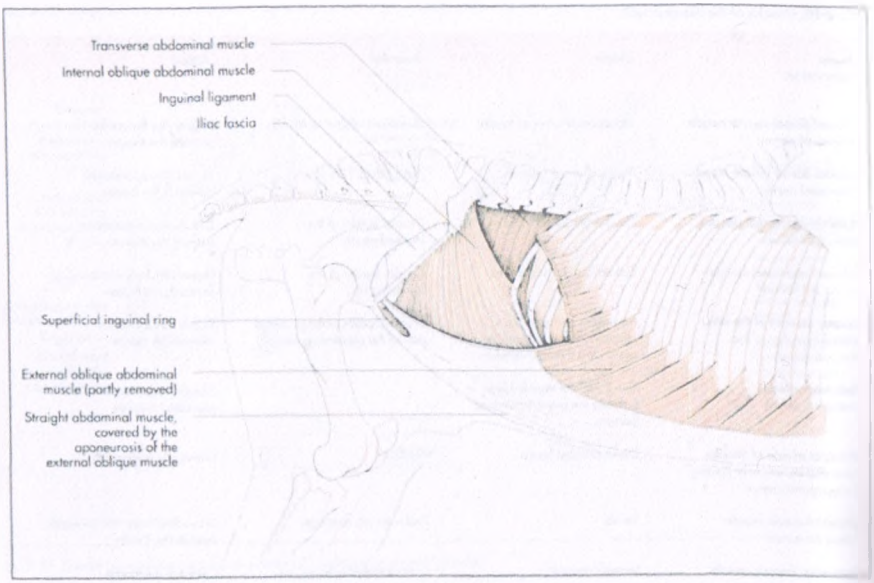


Fig. 2-15. Muscles of the thoracic wall of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect).

the furthest cranially forms the vertex of the diaphragm and is also called **cupula** (cupula diaphragmatis).

The central tendon consists of two layers of tendon fibres, which arise from the muscular part of the diaphragm. Whereas the tendon fibres of the abdominal layer are arranged in a radial pattern, the fibres of the thoracic layer are orientated in a circular fashion, forming a mesh. Both layers are united by an intermediate layer of unorganised tendinous tissue. The central tendon is Y-shaped in carnivores due to the elongated extensions and resembles the sole of a horse's hoof in ungulates. It can be divided into a ventral body and two extensions, which run dorsally parallel to the crura. They reach the dorsal border of the diaphragm, where they separate the sternal and lumbar muscular portion. This division is incomplete in carnivores, in which the two portions stay united.

The apex of the cupula is formed by the caval foramen to which the caudal vena cava is firmly fused. Thus the position of the caval foramen is relatively constant. In the "neutral position" between full **inspiration** and full **expiration** the cupula extends into the thorax as far as the ventral part of the sixth rib and in the dog, the sixth intercostal space. This corresponds in the standing animal to the transverse plane through the olecranon. It is displaced one intercostal space caudoventrally during inspiration and one intercostal space craniodorsally during expiration. Consequently the apex of the cupula remains at the level of the seventh intercostal space in ruminants and the pig and between the seventh and eight intercostal space in carnivores and in the horse.

The diaphragm is orientated obliquely in the horse, more vertically in the other domestic species. It drops off ventrally towards the sternum and extends as flat arches laterally and dorsally to attach to the thoracic wall and the vertebral column. During **inspiration** the central tendon is tightened by the contraction of the surrounding muscles, which causes the diaphragm to become more conical. The lateral abdominal wall is moved outward and the abdominal viscera are displaced caudally. Thus the thoracic cavity enlarges and the lungs expand passively.

During **expiration** the muscles of the diaphragm relax and the abdominal viscera move cranially, assisted by the abdominal muscles. The thoracic cavity is reduced and the lungs are compressed.

Muscles of the abdominal wall (musculi abdominis)

The muscles of the abdominal wall are extensive, relatively thin, muscular sheets, which constitute, together with the aponeuroses, the muscular and tendinous base of the abdominal wall. This group comprises several individual muscles arranged in **three layers**, superimposed upon each other

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contrasting orientation of their fibres. The muscles of this group arise from the cranial border of the pelvis, the lumbar region and the caudal part of the thorax and form the lateral and ventral wall of the body.

These broad fleshy sheets insert by means of an aponeurosis in tendinous structures, such as the linea alba in the midline and the **prepubic tendon** (tendo praepubicus) and the **inguinal ligament** (ligamentum inguinale) caudally (Fig. 2-15 and 16). They are innervated by the ventral branches of the thoracic and lumbar nerves.

The **linea alba** is a tendinous cord, which extends between the xiphoid cartilage and the cranial border of the pelvis, where it inserts to the prepubic tendon (Fig. 2-16). It is covered by a strong muscle, the straight abdominal muscle, which possesses a sagittal course within the abdominal floor on both sides of the linea alba and is marked by tendinous intersections.

The **inguinal ligament**, which runs from the iliopubic eminence to the coxal tuberosity strengthens the iliac fascia on either side of the prepubic tendon (Fig. 2-15 and 16). There is a passage between the inguinal ligament, the iliac fascia and the cranial border of the pubis, which allows passage to the femoral vessels and iliac muscles and, with the exception of the sartorius muscle **(lacuna musculorum)**. Ventrally, it forms a passage for the external iliac artery and vein, the deep femoral artery and vein, the saphenous nerve and lymphatic vessels **(lacuna vasorum)**.

The **linea alba** is the ventromedian suture, where the bilateral anlagen of the lateral mesoderm unite during development (Fig. 2-16). It forms the **umbilical opening** (anulus umbilicalis) for the urachus and the umbilical vessels in the fetus. It becomes the scar-like umbilicus post partum. The linea alba reinforces the ventral abdominal wall together with the fascia of the trunk, with which it unites in the midline. In large animals the ventral part of the deep fascia of the trunk is interwoven by a mesh of elastic fibres. Due to the yellow colour of these fibres this part of the deep fascia is also called the **yellow abdominal tunic** (tunica flava abdominis).

The **abdominal muscles** fulfil a multitude of **functions**. They are an important part of the static-dynamic construction of the trunk, which supports the abdominal viscera. They also assist the end-phase of expiration, especially during forced respiration, by pushing the viscera cranially.

When the abdominal muscles contract against a fixed diaphragm, the animal is said to "strain". This results in an increase in the intra-abdominal pressure, which reinforces the contraction of the visceral muscles necessary during defecation, micturition and parturition.

These muscles play an important role during locomotion. In the horse they assist in supporting the ventral viscera during progression. Contracting bilaterally they assist in arching the back, which is of great importance in jumping gaits. This is most obvious in carnivores, in which the abdominal muscles are far more fleshy than tendinous.

The four **abdominal muscles**, which derive their name from their position and structure (Fig. 2-15 and 16, Table 1):

- external oblique abdominal muscle (m. obliquus externus abdominis),
- internal oblique abdominal muscle (m. obliquus internus abdominis),
- transverse abdominal muscle (m. transversus abdominis) and
- straight abdominal muscle (m. rectus abdominis).

The **external oblique abdominal muscle** is the most superficial abdominal muscle and is only covered by the deep and superficial fasciae of the trunk and the abdominal part of the cutaneous muscle (Fig. 2-15 and 2-16). It has an extensive origin by a series of digitations from the lateral surfaces of the ribs caudal to the fourth or fifth rib. The more cranial digitations alternate with those of the ventral serrate muscles. Its origin curves caudodorsally until it reaches the end of the last rib, where it fuses with the thoracolumbar fascia. Based on position and course the external oblique abdominal muscle can be divided in a larger **thoracic portion**, which arises from the lateral surface of the thorax and a smaller **lumbar portion**, which originates from the last rib and the thoracolumbar fascia. In the horse it arises also from the coxal tuberosity.

The bulk of the muscle fibres fan out caudoventrally, but the dorsal bundles follow a more horizontal course. The fleshy part of the muscle is continued as a broad aponeurosis at the ventral quarter of the abdominal wall in carnivores and in the horse at the level of an imaginary line between the coxal tuberosity and the costochondral junction of the fifth rib. This extensive aponeurosis fuses ventrally with the aponeurosis of the internal oblique abdominal muscle, forming the external leaf of the **sheath of the straight abdominal muscle** (rectus sheath, vagina m. recti abdominis). It inserts to the linea alba and the prepubic ligament with the abdominal tendon and to the inguinal ligament with the pelvic tendon.

In the inguinal region the aponeurosis divides into two main portions, which forms a slit-like opening, the **superficial inguinal ring** (anulus inguinalis superficialis) (Fig. 2-15 and 2-16).

The abdominal tendon forms the caudomedial wall (also called medial crus) of the superficial inguinal ring, the pelvic tendon, the caudolateral wall (also called lateral crus). Corresponding to the course of the muscle fibres, the long axis of the superficial inguinal opening is directed from craniolateral to caudomedial. The superficial inguinal ring is the **external orifice of the inguinal canal** (canalis inguinalis seu spatium inguinale). Before or shortly after birth it allows the descent of the testis toward the scrotum.

In the adult male the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis) (Fig. 2-16), covered by the cremaster muscle and containing the spermatic cord, blood vessels and nerves, passes through the inguinal canal. The medial crus detaches the **femoral lamina** (lamina femoralis), which passes onto the medial surface of the thigh, where it blends with the medial femoral fascia.

In carnivores, the abdominal tendon is fused with the deep fascia of the trunk on the outside and with the aponeurosis of the internal oblique abdominal muscle on the inside, forming the external leaf of the rectus sheath. The sheath itself blends

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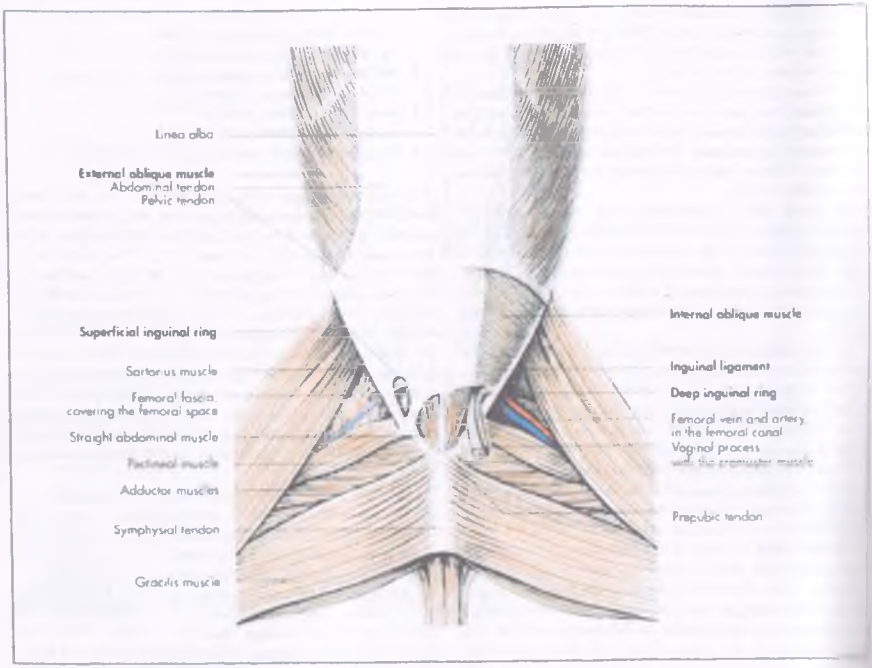


Fig. 2-16. Muscles of the abdominal wall and the medial side of the thigh (schematic, ventral aspect)

with the transverse **tendinous intersections** (intersectiones tendineae) of the straight abdominal muscle. The lateral crus of the pelvic tendon unites with the medial crus in the caudal angle (angulus caudalis) of the superficial inguinal ring.

In the horse, the **strong abdominal tendon** is strengthened by the ventral part of the deep fascia of the trunk, the **yellow abdominal tunic**, and inserts along the linea alba and by means of the medial crus of the superficial inguinal ring to the prepubic tendon. The superficial inguinal ring is well defined and about 10 to 15 cm long. It lies about 2 cm lateral to the linea alba and the same distance cranial to the prepubic ligament. The smaller pelvic tendon forms the tendinous inguinal ligament (ligamentum inguinale), which extends from the coxal tuberosity to the iliopubic eminence and the prepubic tendon (Fig. 2-16).

The **internal oblique abdominal muscle** lies deep to the external oblique abdominal muscle. It originates from the tuber coxae, the proximal part of the inguinal ligament and, with the exception of the horse, from the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and the thoracolumbar fascia (Fig. 2-15 and 2-16). It fans out in a craniоventral direction and its fibres are orientated at a right angle to the ones of the external oblique abdominal muscle. Its muscular part becomes a broad aponeurosis at the level of the lateral border of the straight abdominal muscle. It unites with the aponeurosis of the external oblique abdominal muscle to form the external leaf of the rectus sheath, which blends at the linea alba with that of the opposite side.

Proximally there is a separate portion, the **costoinguinal** (tensor costocoxalis), which attaches to the last rib and the angle of the ribs. The caudal part of the internal oblique abdominal muscle forms the cranial wall of the deep inguinal ring (anulus inguinalis profundus), the caudal wall of which is formed by the inguinal ligament. The deep inguinal ring is the slit-like internal opening of the inguinal canal with its long axis orientated in a transverse direction.

In male animals the internal oblique abdominal muscle detaches a narrow muscular band caudally, the **cremaster**, which covers the vaginal process on its lateral surface and passes with the latter through the inguinal ring.

The **transverse abdominis** is the smallest of the three abdominal muscles and lies deep to the others (Fig. 2-15). It is a muscular sheet of parallel bundles of fibres, which originates cranially from the inside of the costal cartilages of the

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Table 2-11 Muscles of the abdominal wall

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
External oblique muscle External branches of the thoracic and lumbar nerves	Digitations from the lateral surface of the ribs 8 to 10 and the thoracolumbar fascia	Linea alba and inguinal ligament	Abdominal press and expiration, compression of the abdominal viscera
Internal oblique muscle Internal branches of the thoracic and lumbar nerves	Coxal tuberosity, transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae, thoracolumbar fascia	Linea alba and final rib, costal arch	Abdominal press and expiration, compression of the abdominal viscera
Transversus abdominal muscle Ventral branches of the thoracic and lumbar nerves	Transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae, rib cartilage	Linea alba	Abdominal press and expiration, compression of the abdominal viscera
Straight abdominal muscle Ventral branches of the thoracic and lumbar nerves	Sternum, sternal rib cartilage from the 4th rib	Prepubic tendon and pecten of pubic bone	Abdominal press and expiration, compression of the abdominal viscera

the horse and the 12th and 13th ribs in the dog from the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae. Its caudal border reaches the level of the coxal tuberosity. Its muscular part continues as an aponeurosis from the lateral border of the rectus abdominis muscle. This constitutes the internal leaf of the rectus sheath. The transversus abdominis muscle does not reach the level of the tuber coxae; the **internal leaf of the sheath** is absent in the pelvic region. The aponeurosis does not extend as far as the inguinal canal. Well-fed animals deposit a large amount of fat between the transversus and the transverse abdominal muscle (panniculus adiposus). In carnivores the aponeurosis extends as far as the external sheath of the straight abdominal muscle to the umbilicus.

The **straight abdominal muscle** is confined to the ventral part of the abdominal wall and does not form an aponeurosis like the other abdominal muscles (Fig. 2-15 and 2-16). The muscle lies within a sheath, the **rectus sheath**, formed by the aponeuroses of the other abdominal muscles in a specific way (**vagina musculi recti abdominis**). The straight abdominal muscle arises from the costal cartilages of the 4th ribs and the adjacent parts of the sternum and runs to the prepubic tendon. The fibres of the muscle run longitudinally on both sides of the linea alba. Bands of fibrous tissue, called tendinous intersections, cross the muscle. In the horse the tendon of the straight abdominal muscle detaches to form a ligament of the femoral head, which runs to the fovea capitis, where it inserts together with the ligament of the femur to the head of the femur.

Rectus sheath (vagina m. recti abdominis)

The straight abdominal muscle is completely surrounded by the rectus sheath, which is composed of the aponeuroses of the three other abdominal muscles and the deep fascia of the trunk (Fig. 2-17). If species-specific variations are neglected the rectus sheath shows the following architecture. The aponeuroses of the two oblique abdominal muscles form the **external leaf of the sheath** (lamina externa), which covers the ventral aspect of the rectus abdominis. Dorsally the rectus abdominis is covered by the **internal leaf of the sheath** (lamina interna), which is formed by the aponeurosis of the transversus abdominis. Both leaves unite in the linea alba. The described anatomical plan is found in ruminants and horses and is limited to the region of the umbilicus in pigs and carnivores.

In the pre-umbilical region of carnivores the aponeurosis of the internal oblique abdominal muscle divides to form the tendinous sheet of the internal leaf of the rectus sheath. In the region caudal to the umbilicus, the aponeurosis of the transverse abdominal passes gradually over to the lateral side, where it unites with the aponeuroses of the oblique muscles and the transverse fascia to form the external leaf of the rectus sheath. Thus the straight abdominal muscle lacks an internal aponeurotic covering at its pelvic end, being covered here by the transverse fascia and the peritoneum only.

Inguinal canal (canalis inguinalis)

The inguinal canal is a connective tissue-filled cleft between the abdominal muscles and their aponeuroses in both sexes. It serves as a passageway for the vaginal process and for the descent of the testis before or shortly after birth in male animals.

The external opening of the inguinal canal is called **superficial inguinal ring** (angulus inguinalis superficialis). In the horse it is situated 4 to 5 cm lateral to the linea alba and 2 fingers width cranial to the cranial border of the pelvis (Fig. 2-15 and 16).

In a middle-sized horse the superficial inguinal ring is a well-defined slit-like opening, about 10 to 12 cm long, with

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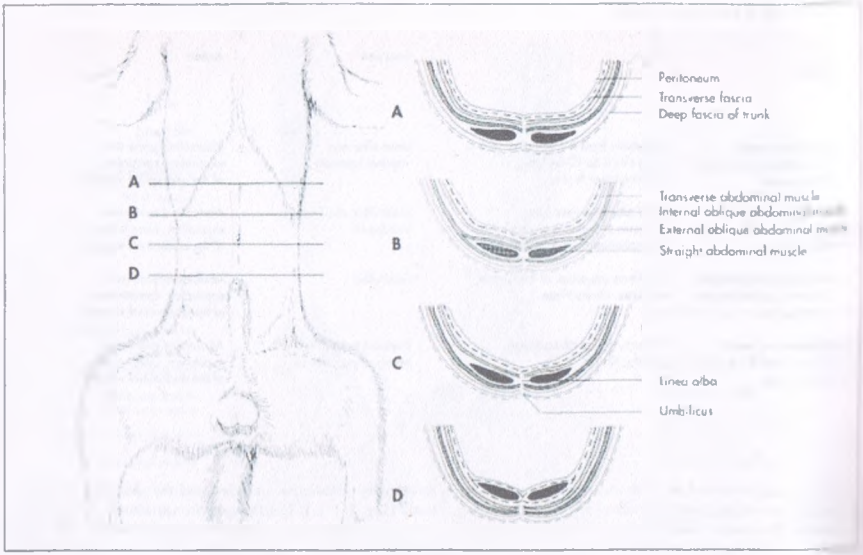


Fig. 2-17. Rectus sheath of the dog with cross sections through the ventral abdominal wall at four levels (schematic). after Budras 1996

its long axis directed from craniolateral to caudomedial. Its ventromedial wall, is formed by the medial crus of the abdominal tendon of the external oblique abdominal muscle, its dorsolateral wall by the lateral crus of the pelvic tendon of the latter muscle. The ventromedial wall of the superficial inguinal ring is palpable through the skin between the abdominal wall and the thigh. The dorsolateral wall cannot be palpated since it is covered by the femoral lamina.

The internal opening of the inguinal canal, the **deep inguinal ring** (anulus inguinalis profundus) is orientated transversally to the long axis of the body (Fig. 2-16). The deep inguinal ring is formed by the caudal border of the internal oblique abdominal muscle and the lateral border of the straight abdominal muscle craniomedially and the inguinal ligament caudolaterally. The inguinal ligament is the thickened caudal end of the pelvic tendon of the external oblique abdominal muscle and is closely related to the transverse fascia. It extends between the iliopubic eminence and the prepubic tendon.

In the adult male the inguinal canal contains the vaginal process, which includes the spermatic cord and the cremaster muscle (m. cremaster) on the lateral aspect. In the horse, the spermatic cord can be palpated through the skin and the wall of the vaginal process.

The caudomedial angle of the superficial inguinal ring leaves room for the passage of blood and lymphatic vessels (a. et v. pudenda externa, vasa efferentia of the superficial inguinal lymph nodes) and the genitofemoral nerve (n. genitofemoralis) through the inguinal canal. In the females of the domestic mammals the inguinal canal is very narrow and allows passage to the same vessels and nerves as in males. Only the bitch possesses a vaginal process, which contains the round ligament of the uterus.

The inguinal region is of clinical relevance in connection with castration, inguinal hernias and cryptorchidism.

Muscles of the tail (musculi caudae)

The tail of the domestic mammals has a variety of functions for which its versatile attachment to the trunk is very important. It can influence movements of the whole body considerably. The tail expresses a wide range of emotions and serves as a means of communication especially in carnivores. The muscles of the tail are arranged in a circular order around the caudal vertebrae.

They are direct continuations of muscles which arise from the vertebral column or the pelvis.

- **Levators of the tail are:**
  - medial dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle (m. sacrococcygeus dorsalis medialis),
  - lateral dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle (m. sacrococcygeus dorsalis lateralis),

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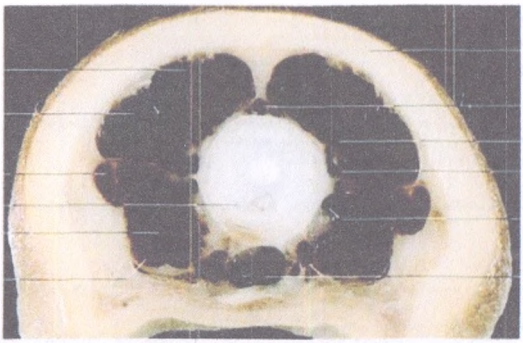


Fig. 2-18 Muscles of the tail of the dog, cross section (schematic), courtesy of L. Hnilitza, Vienna.

Depressors of the tail are:

- medial ventral sacrococcygeal muscle (m. sacrococcygeus ventralis medialis),
- lateral ventral sacrococcygeal muscle (m. sacrococcygeus ventralis lateralis);

Lateral flexors of the tail are:

- intertransverse muscles of the tail (mm. intertransversarii caudae);

Muscles of the pelvis and tail are:

- coccygeal muscle (m. coccygeus),
- iliocaudal muscle (m. iliocaudalis) and
- pubocaudal muscle (m. pubocaudalis).

Muscles of the tail, which arise from the vertebral column, lateral, ventral and dorsal sides and cover the caudal vertebrae and the intervertebral discs (Fig. 2-18 and Table 2-10). The levators of the tail are situated on the dorsal aspect of the caudal vertebrae and extend from the last sacral vertebra (in carnivores from the last lumbar vertebra) to the tip of the caudal vertebrae.

The **medial dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle** is also called the levator of the tail and is composed of short, individual segments which extend between the spinal and mammillary processes (Fig. 2-18). In carnivores it lies to both sides of the median plane on the dorsal side of the sixth or seventh lumbar vertebra to the last caudal vertebra. It has short deep muscle fibres which originate from the spinous process, the intervertebral space and insert on the mammillary process of the vertebra caudal to it, and long superficial portions which span four or five caudal vertebrae. The muscle becomes smaller towards the tip of the tail.

The **lateral dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle**, also called the levator of the tail is considered to be the direct continuation of the longissimus muscle of the back on the tail (Fig. 7-14). In the dog it has a muscular origin from the aponeurosis of the longissimus and a tendinous origin from the mammillary processes of the second to seventh lumbar vertebrae, the articular processes of the sacrum and the rudiments of the mammillary processes of the first eight caudal vertebrae. It is composed of individual segments, which extend from the second sacral to the 14th caudal vertebra. These muscular segments continue as 16 thin, delicate tendons, embedded in the deep fascia of the tail, which taper towards the tip of the tail. In ruminants and horses there are additional tendons originating from the lateral part of the sacrum.

The **medial ventral sacrococcygeal muscle**, or short depressor of the tail, covers the ventral side of the vertebral column, starting with the last sacral vertebra throughout the length of the tail (Fig. 2-18). It is a cord-like muscle, which forms, with the muscle of the opposite side, a deep furrow for the coccygeal vessels (a. et v. coccygea mediana). Its tendons of insertion unite with the tendon of the long depressor of the tail.

The **lateral ventral sacrococcygeal muscle**, or long depressor of the tail, consists of numerous individual parts, which originate lateral and ventral to the short depressor of the tail from the last lumbar vertebra, the sacrum and on the ventral aspect and the basis of the transverse processes of the first 11 caudal vertebrae in carnivores (Fig. 2-18). The single segments insert on the ventrolateral tubercles on the cranial end of the sixth caudal vertebra. In ungulates it is a strong muscular cord, which originates from the second, third or last sacral vertebra and the transverse process of the first caudal vertebra.

The **intertransverse muscles of the tail** flex the tail laterally. They are situated on the lateral side of the caudal vertebrae between the long levator and the long depressor of the tail (Fig. 2-18). They occupy the spaces between the transverse processes of the caudal vertebrae and are especially well developed in ruminants and the horse. In carnivores the intertransversarii caudae muscles exhibit ventral and dorsal muscle bundles.

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Tab. 2-12. Muscles of the tail

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Lateral dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle Sacral and caudal nerves	Sacrum	Middle and last caudal vertebrae	Levator of the tail
Medial dorsal sacrococcygeal muscle Sacral and caudal nerves	Sacrum	Middle and last caudal vertebrae	Levator of the tail
Lateral ventral sacrococcygeal muscle Sacral and caudal nerves	Ventral on the sacrum	Middle and last caudal vertebrae	Depressor of the tail
Medial ventral sacrococcygeal muscle Sacral and caudal nerves	Ventral on the sacrum	Middle and last caudal vertebrae	Depressor of the tail
Intertransverse muscles of the tail Sacral and caudal nerves	Transverse processes of the caudal vertebrae	Middle and last caudal vertebrae	Draws tail sideways
Coccygeal muscle Sacral and caudal nerves	Ischial spine and sacrotuberal ligament	Transverse processes of the first caudal vertebra	Draws tail sideways
Iliocaudal muscle (only carnivores) Sacral and caudal nerves	Medial on the shaft of the ilium	Haemal processes of the first caudal vertebra	Depressor of the tail
Pubocaudal muscle (only carnivores) Sacral and caudal nerves	Pelvic symphysis	Haemal processes of the first caudal vertebra	Depressor of the tail

The **dorsal parts** originate from the dorsal sacroiliac ligament (ligamentum sacroiliacum dorsale) and from the caudal part of the sacrum. The single portions form a large round muscle belly which insert on the transverse process of the fifth caudal vertebra. It receives supplementary fibres from the transverse processes of the first few caudal vertebrae.

The **ventral intertransverse muscle of the tail** extends from the third to the last caudal vertebra.

The **muscles of the pelvis and tail** are individual muscles, which extends from the pelvis to the transverse or haemeal processes of the first caudal vertebrae. They insert between the levators and depressors of the tail.

The **iliocaudal muscle** and the **pubocaudal muscle** are present only in carnivores and are part of the levator muscles of the anus. The iliocaudal muscle constitutes the ilial portion of the levator muscle of the anus, originating from the medial aspect of the ilial shaft. The pubocaudal muscle [illegible] the pubic portion, arising from the floor of the pelvis [illegible] the pelvic symphysis. The obturator nerve (n. obturatorius) passes between the two parts. The fibres of both parts [illegible] into the fascia of the tail or end on the haemal processes of the first to third (cat) or fourth to seven (dog) caudal vertebrae.

The **coccygeal muscle** takes its origin from the [illegible] the broad sacrotuberous ligament in ruminants, pigs and [illegible] horse. In carnivores it originates cranial to the internal obturator muscle from the ischial spine and inserts on the [illegible] verse processes of the first caudal vertebra between the [illegible] tions of the intertransverse muscles of the tail. Acting [illegible] ally it presses the tail against the anus and genitalia [illegible] the tail between the hindlimbs. Acting unilaterally it [illegible] the tail laterally.

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3 Forelimb or thoracic limb (membra thoracica)

H.-G. Liebich, H. E. König and J. Maierl

...n of the thoracic limb ...membri thoracici)

...girdle ...membri thoracici)

...shoulder girdle comprises the **coracoid**, the ...bone (clavicula) and the **shoulder blade** ...and unites the forelimb to the trunk.

...mammals, the **coracoid** is reduced to a cylin... process (processus coracoideus) ...of the scapula. The **clavicle** is either ...sediment embedded in the brachiocephalic ...to the well-developed functional bone of ... 3-11 a) it forms a flat, slightly bent bone. ...reduced in the dog it is only 1cm in length ...to the skeleton. These rudimentary bones ...in the brachiocephalic muscle.

...blade (scapula)

...triangular in outline and lies flat against the cra... thoracic wall in a craniоventral direction. ...by muscles (**synsarcosis**) without form... The **dorsal border** (margo dorsalis) ...vertebral column and extends into the cres...



...with clavicle of a cat (radiograph); courtesy ...Munich.

cent-shaped **scapular cartilage** (cartilago scapulae), which enlarges the area of attachment for the muscles of the scapula and acts as a shock absorber. This cartilage becomes increasingly calcified and thus more brittle with age. In the horse the scapular cartilage extends over the caudal angle and reaches the level of the withers, in carnivores it is only a small band. Table 3-1 shows the times when the separate ossification centers appear and the times of their fusion.

The **lateral surface** (facies lateralis) of the scapula carries prominent bony structures, whereas the **medial** or **costal surface** is hollowed by a shallow **fossa** (fossa subscapularis) for muscular attachment. The lateral surface is divided by the prominent **spine of the scapula** (spina scapulae) into the smaller cranial **supraspinous fossa** (fossa supraspinata) and the larger **infraspinous fossa** (fossa infraspinata) caudally (Fig. 3-4, 6 and 7). The muscle bellies of the like-named muscles are found within these fossae. The scapular spine extends from the dorsal border to the ventral angle, increasing in height (distance from the scapula) dorsoventrally.

The spine ends with a well-defined prominence (**acromion**) close to the ventral angle, in carnivores and ruminants, but in the horse and pig it subsides distally. This prominence is extended to form a distinct process in the dog (processus hamatus) and cat (processus suprahamatus). The **tuberosity of the spine of the scapula** (tuber spinae scapulae) is present dorsal to its middle in all domestic mammals with the exception of the carnivores.

The **costal surface of the scapula** (facies costalis seu medialis) is hollowed by the shallow **subscapular fossa** (fossa subscapularis), which is occupied by the origin of the subscapularis muscle (Fig. 3-6 and 7). The proximal border contains a closely defined roughened area (facies serrata), where the ventral serrate muscle attaches. This area is surrounded by a bony rim. The **outline of the scapula** can be defined by different features, which are described below in a counterclockwise direction:

- cranial angle (angulus cranialis),
- cranial border (margo cranialis),
- ventral angle (angulus ventralis),
- caudal border (margo caudalis),
- caudal angle (angulus caudalis) and
- dorsal border (margo dorsalis).

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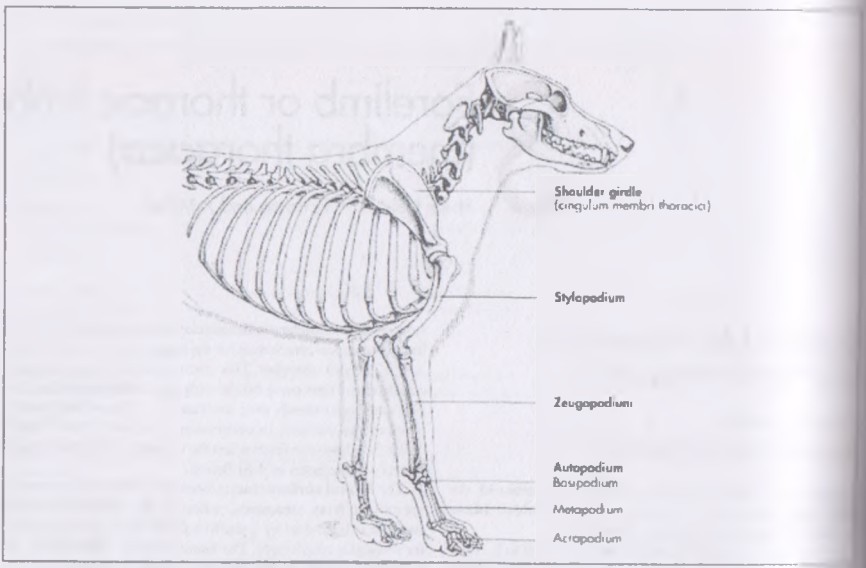


Fig. 3-2. Skeleton of the thoracic limb of the dog: parts (schematic)

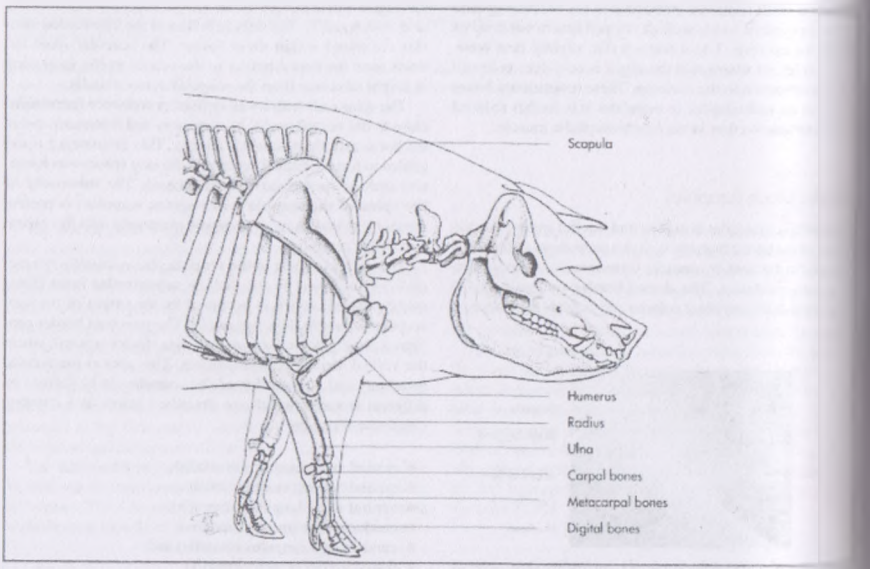
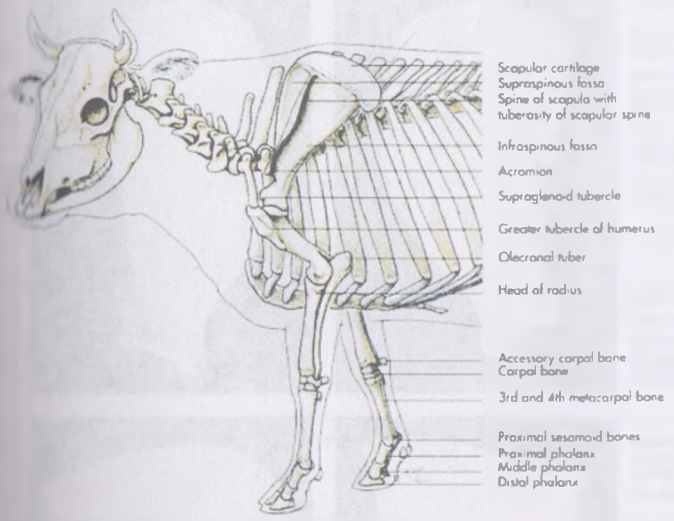
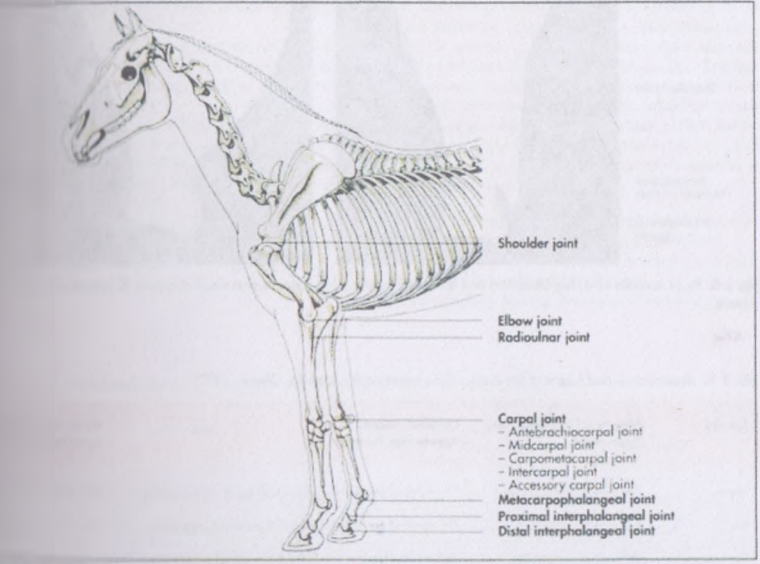


Fig. 3-3. Skeleton of the thoracic limb of the pig: bones (schematic)

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The skeleton of the thoracic limb of the ox: osseous structures (schematic)



The thoracic limb of the horse: joints (schematic)

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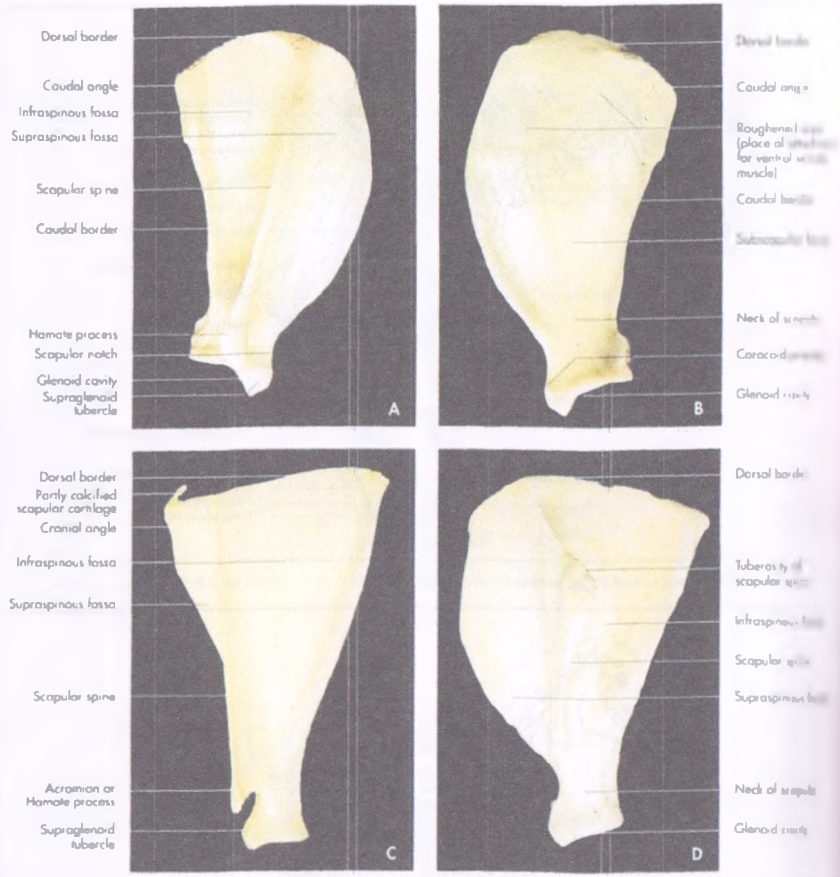
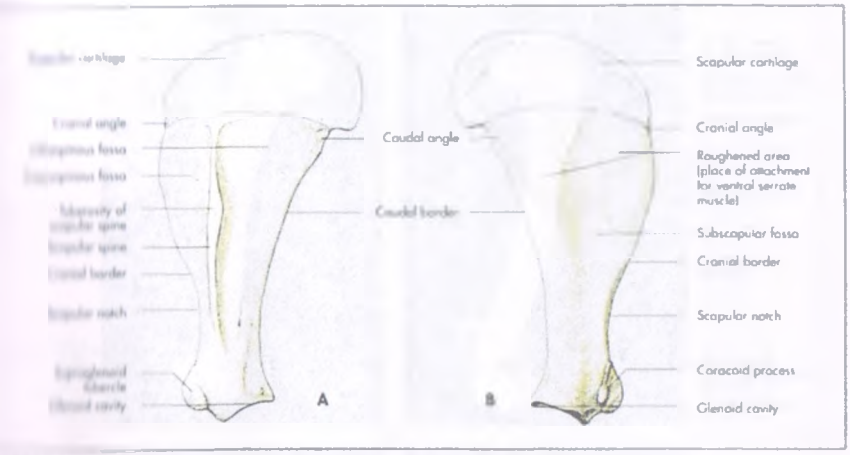


Fig. 3-6. Right scapula of a dog (**A** lateral and **B** medial aspects), left scapula of a small ruminant (**C** lateral aspect) and a pig (**D** lateral aspect)

Tab. 3-1. Appearance and fusion of the ossification centres on the scapula; Ghetie, 1971

Species	Primary ossification centre: Appearance	Coracoid process: Appearance / Fusion	Tuberosity of the spine Appearance / Fusion
Horse	2nd month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy / 10th – 12th month of pregnancy	after birth / 4th year
Ox	2nd month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy / 7th – 10th month of pregnancy	after birth / 4th year
Carnivores	4th week of pregnancy	2nd month of pregnancy / 5th – 8th month of pregnancy	

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... of the horse (schematic, A lateral and B medial aspect).

... joins the thin and slightly concave **cranial** ... at a right angle. The cranial border ... **notch** (incisura scapulae) at the level of ... of the **scapula** (collum scapulae), where the supra- ... angle (tuberculus ventralis) carries the shallow ... (cavitas glenoidalis) for the articulation of the ... (glenohumeral joint, shoulder joint. ... the glenoid cavity is a large prominence, the ... tubercle (tuberculum supraglenoidale), which ... biceps muscle of the forearm. The **coracoid** (processus coracoideus) projects from the medial ... supraglenoid tubercle.

The **caudal border** is marked by several ridges for ... of the triceps muscle of the forearm. The **caudal angle** ... and palpable through the skin.

Skeleton of the arm (brachium)

The skeleton of the proximal part (stylopodium) (Fig. 3-2) of the free appendage of the forelimb is formed by a single bone, the **humerus** (Fig. 3-8 and 9). The appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centers of the humerus are summarised for the different species in Tab. 3-2. The humerus has a central function in the movement of the thoracic limb. Its surface is characteristically modelled by the attachment of strong muscles and their tendons, which led to the development of prominent bony protuberances and grooves. In spite of species-specific modifications the humerus can be divided into three basic segments (Fig. 3-8 and 9):

- proximal extremity bearing the head (caput humeri) and the tubercles (tuberculum majus and minus),
- shaft of humerus (corpus humeri) bearing the deltoid tuberosity (tuberositas deltoidea) and
- distal extremity bearing the humeral condyle.

... and fusion of the ossification centres on the epiphysis of the humerus, Ghetie, 1971

	Appearance	Fusion	
		Distal	Proximal
	... of 2nd month of pregnancy	15th – 18th month	3 ... years
	... of 2nd month of pregnancy	15th – 18th month	3 ... years
	4th week of pregnancy	6th – 8th month	1 – 1 ... years

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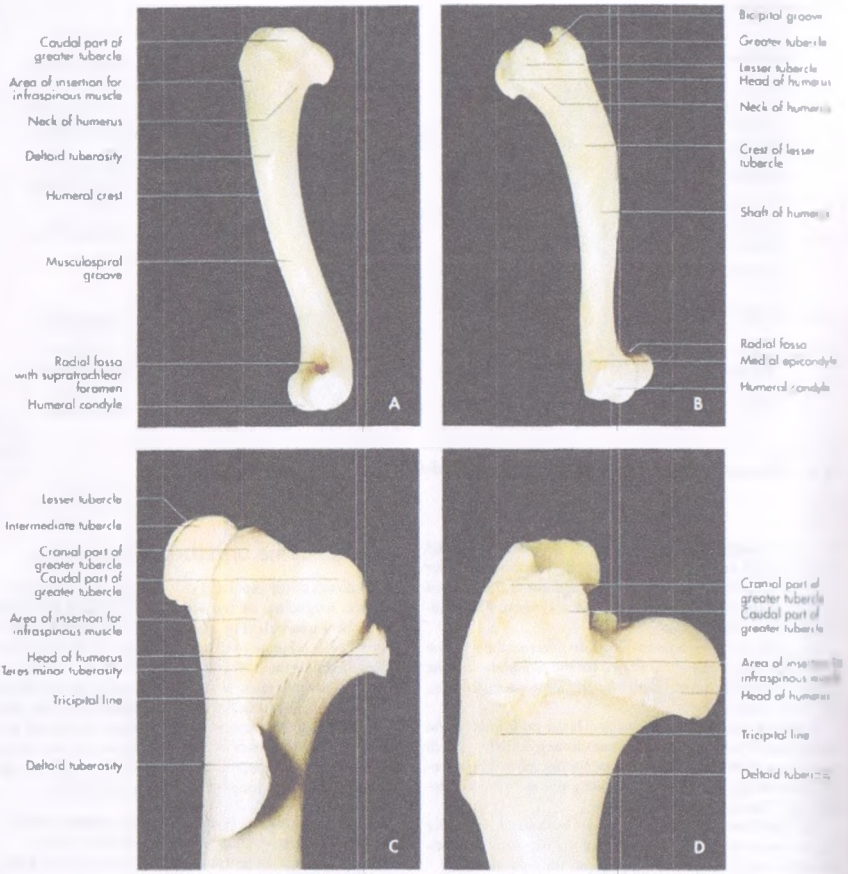


Fig. 3-8. Left humerus of a dog (A lateral, B medial aspect) and proximal extremity of the left humerus of a horse (C lateral aspect) and [illegible] (D lateral aspect)

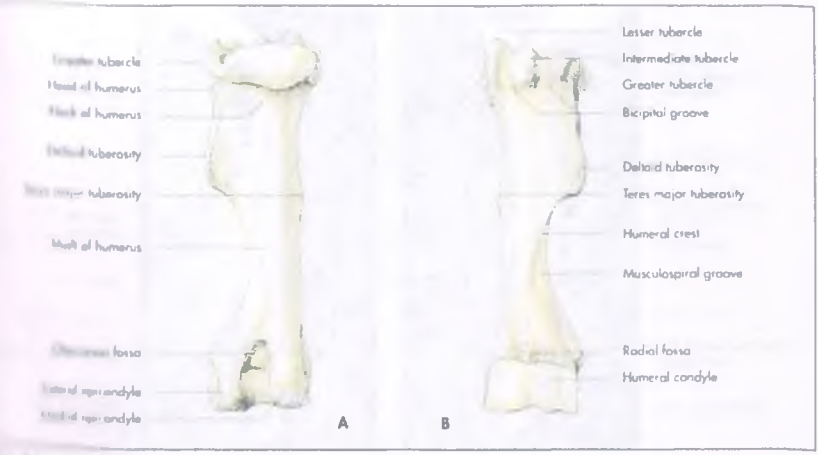
The caudal part of the **proximal extremity** (extremitas seu epiphysis proximalis) carries the **head of the humerus**, which forms a circular convex articular surface for the articulation with the considerably smaller glenoid cavity of the scapula (Fig. 3-8, 9 and 10).

The **humeral head** (caput humeri) is separated from the shaft of the humerus by a well-defined **neck** (collum humeri), which is most pronounced in the dog and cat. The **greater tubercle** (tuberculum majus) is placed on the craniolateral side of the humeral head and the **lesser tubercle** (tuberculum minus) craniomedially. They are separated by the **bicipital groove** (sulcus intertubercularis), through which the [illegible] of origin of the biceps muscle of the forearm runs. The bicipital groove is subdivided by a flat protuberance in ruminants and a prominent ridge (intermediate tubercle, tuberculum intermedium) in the horse (Fig. 3-9).

The greater tubercle consists of a cranial and a caudal [illegible] in all species except the cat. In ruminants and in the horse the lesser tubercle is also divided into two parts.

The greater and lesser tubercles give insertion to the [illegible] of the shoulder blade (infraspinous and supraspinous muscles), which brace and support the shoulder joint (Fig. 3-5 and 6).

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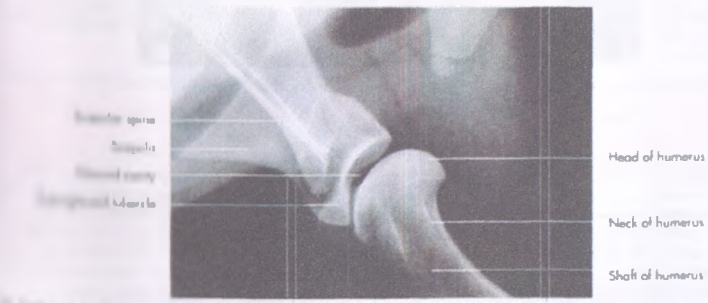
...al of the horse (schematic, A caudal and B cranial aspect).

...shaft or body is the **middle part** (diaphysis) ... broad musculospiral groove (sulcus musculospiralis), which spirals over the lateral aspect of the shaft, ... appearance to the humeral body around ... muscle and radial nerve pass.

Deltoid tuberosity (tuberositas deltoidea) is located ... of the humeral shaft, just proximal to its ... distally as the **humeral crest** (crista humeri) ... insertion of the deltoid muscle. A rough ... (tuberositas), which gives attachment to the ... arises from the deltoid tuberosity proximally ... of the **teres minor muscle** (teres minor tuberosity, ... teres minor) (Fig. 3-8C) distally. In ruminants, the **teres major tuberosity** (tuberositas teres major) is located on the medial surface of the humeral shaft, just proximal to its middle; in carnivores the tuberosity is replaced by the **crest of the tubercle** (crista tuberculi minoris).

The **distal extremity** (extremitas seu epiphysis distalis) bears the **humeral condyle** (condylus humeri), which is set at a right angle to the axis of the humeral shaft (Fig. 3-9). The condyle articulates with the bones of the forearm: the **radius** and **ulna**, forming the **elbow joint** (articulatio cubiti) (Fig. 3-5 and 13). In the dog and the cat the condyle is divided into a more extensive medial part (trochlea humeri), which articulates with the ulna, and a **capitulum** (capitulum humeri) laterally for the articulation with the radius. The articular surface is further divided by sagittal ridges in ungulates.

To both sides of the condyle are thick protuberances, the **epicondyles**, which give origin to the musculature of the distal



...graph of the shoulder joint of a dog (lateromedial projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich.

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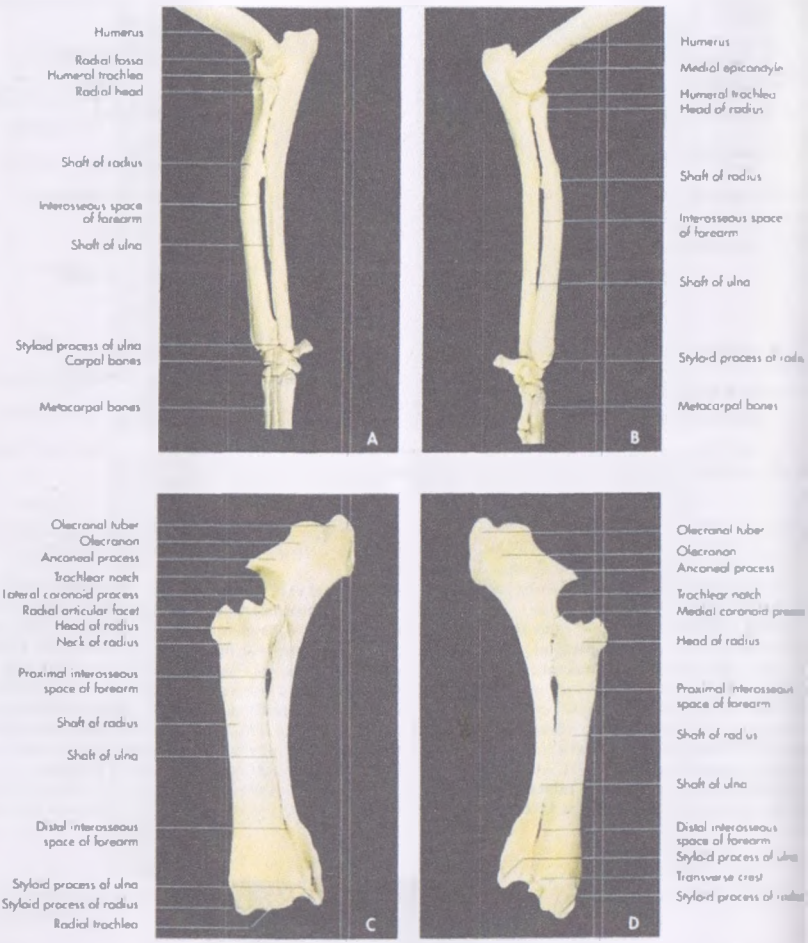
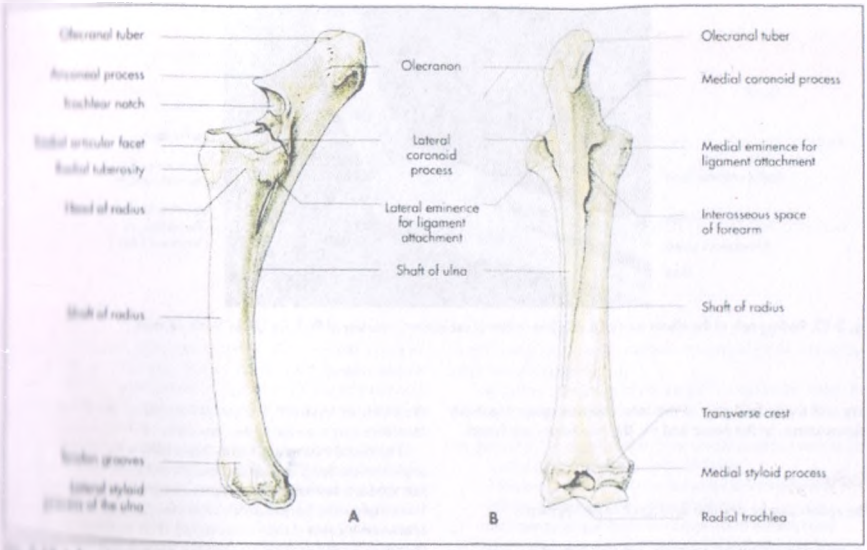


Fig. 3-11. Skeleton of the left forearm (radius and ulna) of a dog (A lateral, B medial aspect) and an ox (C lateral, D medial aspect).

part of the forelimb. The smaller **lateral epicondyle** (epicondylus lateralis) projects caudolaterally, and the more prominent **medial epicondyle** (epicondylus medialis), caudomedially. The former gives origin to the extensor muscles, the latter to the flexor muscles of the carpus and digit (Fig. 3-11); both provide attachment for the corresponding **collateral ligaments**, (ligamenta collateralia) of the elbow joint. The epicondyles are separated by a deep groove, the **olecranon fossa** (fossa olecrani), which contacts with a part of the ole... The **radial fossa** (fossa radialis) is situated on the cr... pect of the condyle. In the dog, the olecranon fossa ... radial fossa communicate through a **supratrochlear f... men** (foramen supratrochleare) (Fig. 3-8). In the cat the ... dial aspect of the distal extremity of the humerus is p... ed by the **supracondylar foramen** (foramen supra... lare).

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Left radius and left ulna of the horse (schematic, **A** lateral and **B** caudal aspect).

Bones of the forearm (ossa antebrachii)

The distal part (zeugopodium) of the free forelimb consists of two bones, the **radius** (Fig. 3.2, 3.11 and 12).

The ulna is placed caudal / caudolateral to the radius in the proximal part of the forearm and lateral in the distal part. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossicles of the radius and ulna.

In the horse these bones have undergone a species-specific development. In man the capacity of rotational movement is well developed if the palm of the hand is turned backward (**pronation**), the bones of the forearm are in a crossed over position, if the palm of the hand is turned forward (**supination**), radius and ulna are placed parallel to each other. While there is still a limited capacity of movement in carnivores with the dog having a greater limitation to rotation than the cat, no movement is possible in the horse, in which the distal part of the ulna is completely reduced.

During rotation the proximal extremity of the radius is lodged within the **radial notch of the ulna** (incisura radialis ulnae), while the distal extremity rotates around the **articular circumference of the ulna** (circumferentia radialis ulnae). The bones of the forearm allow a 45-degree supination to the dog, which is substantially increased by the rotational capacity of the carpus. In the pig, rotational movement is prevented by

Fusion of the ossification centres on the radius, Ghetie, 1971

Primary ossification centres	Additional ossification centres			
	Proximal		Distal	
Appearance	Appearance	Fusion	Appearance	Fusion
3rd month of pregnancy	8th – 9th month of pregnancy	5th – 18th month	8th month	3 years
3rd month of pregnancy	7th – 8th month of pregnancy	12th – 18th month	7th month	3 – 4 years
3rd month of pregnancy	end of 1st month	8th – 9th month	end of 1st month	1 – 1 years

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Fig. 3-13. Radiograph of the elbow joint of a dog (mediolateral projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich.

firm soft tissue bridging of the **interosseous space** (spatium interosseum), in the horse and ox, the two bones are fused.

Radius

The radius can be divided into three main segments:

- proximal extremity carrying the radial head (caput radii),
- shaft of the radius (corpus radii) and
- distal extremity bearing the radial trochlea (trochlea radii).

The radius is a rod-shaped bone that is relatively stronger in ungulates than in carnivores (Fig. 3-11 and 12). The proximal extremity bears the **radial head**, which is transversely widened to present the **radial articular facet** (fovea capitis radii). The articular facet of the radius and the **trochlear notch of the ulna** (incisura trochlearis) articulate with the **condyle of the humerus** (condylus humeri) forming the **elbow joint** (articulatio cubiti) in a species specific way (Fig. 3-5 and 13): in ungulates the radius alone articulates with the humerus, whereas in carnivores the radius is complemented medially by the ulna.

Two eminences protrude lateral and medial to the articular facet of the radial head to give attachment to the ligaments of the joint. At the dorsomedial aspect of the radial head is the **radial tuberosity** (tuberositas radii), to which the biceps muscle tendon inserts. The caudal aspect of the proximal radius presents the **articular circumference** (circumferentia articularis) for the articulation with the ulna to facilitate supination in carnivores. This articular circumference is without function in the horse and ox.

The **shaft of the radius** is compressed in a craniocaudal direction and slightly curved in its length. Its **cranial surface** (facies cranialis) is smooth, its **caudal surface** (facies caudalis) is either roughened (dog and pig) or fused to the ulna. The medial aspect is not covered by musculature and is easily palpable through the skin. The cranial aspect of the distal part of the radial body is grooved for the passage of the extensor tendons. The caudal aspect of the distal radius furnishes origin to the flexor muscles.

The **distal extremity** forms a **trochlea** which is set at right angles to the long axis of the radius and presents the **articular surface towards the carpus** (facies articularis carpea). Proximal to the carpal articular surface of the radius runs a **transverse crest** (crista transversa). The radius extends on the medial side to form the **radial styloid process** (processus styloideus radii) for the insertion of ligaments, in the dog and pig there is a **ulnar notch** (incisura ulnaris radii) on the lateral side. In the ox the distal part of the ulna is completely fused with the radius, in the horse the distal part of the ulna is incorporated within the radius to become the **lateral styloid process** (processus styloideus ulnae).

Ulna

The ulna consists of three main segments:

- proximal extremity carrying the olecranon (olecranon),
- shaft of the ulna (corpus ulnae) and
- distal extremity with the head of the ulna (caput ulnae).

The **olecranon** and its **tuber** (tuber olecrani) extend the ulna beyond the distal extremity of the humerus (Fig. 3-11). It forms the very prominent point of the elbow and furnishes insertion to the strong triceps muscle of the forearm.

At the base of the olecranon lies the **trochlear notch** (incisura trochlearis), which supports articulation with the humerus. Overhanging the trochlear notch cranially is the beak-shaped **anconeal process** (processus anconeus), which fits into the **olecranon fossa** (fossa olecrani) of the humerus. To both sides of the anconeal process project the **lateral** and **medial coronoid processes** (processus coronoidei), divided by the **radial notch** (incisura radialis ulnae), which articulates with the **articular circumference of the radius** (circumferentia articularis radii).

The **shaft** is three sided and smaller than the radial shaft. It runs caudal to the radius and is either attached to it by soft

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Tab. 3-4: Appearance and fusion of the ossification centres on the ulna; Ghetie, 1971.

	Primary ossification centres	Additional ossification centres			
		Proximal		Distal	
	Appearance	Appearance	Fusion	Appearance	Fusion
[illegible]	2nd month of pregnancy	shortly before birth	3 [illegible] years	8th – 9th month of pregnancy	2nd – 3rd month incl. radius
[illegible]	2nd month of pregnancy	7th – 8th month of pregnancy	3 [illegible] 4 years	7th month of pregnancy	3 [illegible] 4 years
[illegible]	4th week of pregnancy	2nd month after birth	10th [illegible] 14th month	2nd month after birth	12th [illegible] 15th month

[illegible] membranes or by bony fusion. Between the shafts of [illegible] there are one or more **interosseous spaces** [illegible] interossea antebrachii). The fusion of the two bones is [illegible] complete in the horse and the interosseous space is [illegible] extremely small.

The **distal extremity** (caput ulnae) continues as the prom[illegible] **lateral styloid process** (processus styloideus lateralis), [illegible] articulates with the proximal row of the carpal bones. [illegible] carnivores and pigs it carries the articular circumference [illegible] the articulation with the radius (Fig. 3-11). In the horse, [illegible] distal extremity is fused to the radius to form the lateral [illegible] process (Fig. 3-12).

Skeleton of the manus (skeleton manus)

The skeleton of the manus forms the osseous part of the [illegible]podium of the thoracic limbs. The autopodium con[illegible] from proximal to distal, of three segments:

- **[illegible]podium** carpal bones (ossa carpi),
- **[illegible]podium** metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia),
- **[illegible]podium** phalanges (ossa digitorum manus).

[illegible] changes of the zeugopodium find their con[illegible] in the species specific modifications of the autopo[illegible]. This specialisation involves a raising of the manus [illegible] from the plantigrade posture of humans over the [illegible] posture of carnivores to the unguligrade posture [illegible] of horse. As the number of the bones are dimin[illegible] the [illegible] of the remaining bones increases. In domes[illegible] animals only the carnivores show the original pattern [illegible] rays, which is typical for humans; in the pig the rays [illegible] to four (2–5), in the ox two rays (3 and 4) are left [illegible] the horse only the third ray remains (Fig. 3-14).

Carpal bones (ossa carpi)

In domestic mammals the carpal bones are arranged in two [illegible] **proximal** and **distal**, each of which typically contains [illegible] (Fig. 3-14). The proximal row articulates with the [illegible] and ulna in the **antebrachiocarpal joint** (articulatio [illegible] the distal row articulates with the meta-carpal bones to form the **carpometacarpal joint** (articulatio carpometacarpea) (Fig. 3-5).

The primitive pattern of the carpus contains the following bones:

- **proximal (antebrachial) row** (mediolateral sequence):
  - radial carpal bone (os carpi radiale),
  - intermediate carpal bone (os carpi intermedium),
  - ulnar carpal bone (os carpi ulnare),
  - accessory carpal bone (os carpi accessorium) and
- **distal (metacarpal) row** (mediolateral sequence):
  - first carpal bone (os carpale primum, I),
  - second carpal bone (os carpale secundum, II),
  - third carpal bone (os carpale tertium, III) and
  - fourth carpal bone (os carpale quartum, IV).

Fig. 3-14 illustrates the carpal bones present in the different species. In **humans** and **pigs** the original number of **eight carpal bones** is maintained; the **horse** has **seven or eight carpal bones**, depending on the presence or absence of the first carpal bone. In **carnivores** the radial and intermediate carpal bones are fused, so that the total numbers of carpal bones is reduced to **seven**, although one or two sesamoid bones can be present. **Ruminants** have **six carpal bones**, the first carpal bone is missing and the second and third carpal bones are fused.

Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia)

The original pattern of the skeleton of the metacarpus displays five separate rays. Typically the metacarpus consists of five long bones, the metacarpal bones one (Mc I) to five (Mc V) in mediolateral sequence (Fig. 3-14). All metacarpal bones have the same segments:

- **proximal extremity** (base, basis) bearing an articular surface for the distal row of the carpal bones and additional facets towards its neighbours and
- a long and species specific **shaft** (body, corpus),
- **distal extremity** (head, caput) bearing a trochlea for the articulation with the proximal phalanx and various roughenings for ligamentous attachments on both ends.

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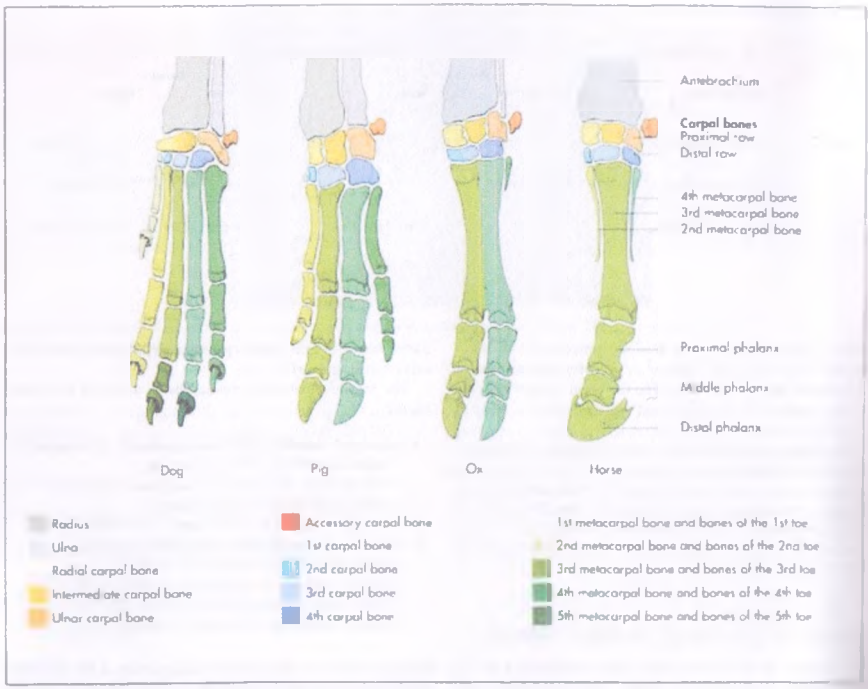


Fig. 3-14. Skeleton of the manus in the domestic mammals (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

The phylogenetic reduction in the number of the metacarpal bones is compensated for by an increase in stoutness of the remaining bones. This process culminates in the horse, where only the third ray remains functional. Its axis coincides with the axis of the limb and supports the weight of the horse (mesaxonic, perissodactyl form). The second and fourth metacarpal bones of the horse are much reduced and do not bear any weight. These bones are commonly called **splint bones** and are situated on either side of the third metacarpal bone (cannon bone).

In the dog, where the weight is supported by the digits only, all five rays are developed. The third and fourth metacarpal bones are the longest and stoutest bones, whereas the first ray is retained as a non-functional dewclaw. The metacarpal bones are opposed closely together and carry flat articular facets facing towards each other on the proximal extremity. The third and fourth are quadrangular, the second and fifth, triangular in cross-section.

The metacarpal bones are modified differently in the various domestic mammals:

- in **carnivores** the two middle metacarpal bones (Mc III and Mc IV) are the longest, Mc II and Mc V are shorter and Mc I is most reduced (Fig. 3-15 and
- in the **pig** Mc III and IV are welldeveloped (artiodactyl form), Mc II and V are reduced and Mc I is missing;
- in **ruminants** Mc III and IV are united on the proximal and middle part to form the large metacarpal bone, the distal extremities articulate separately with the proximal phalanges. Mc V is reduced to become the small metacarpal bone, and Mc I and Mc II are lacking and
- in the **horse** only Mc III (cannon bone) is fully developed and carries the single digit (perissodactyl form); only remnants of Mc II and Mc IV survive as the splint bones. Mc I and Mc V are missing.

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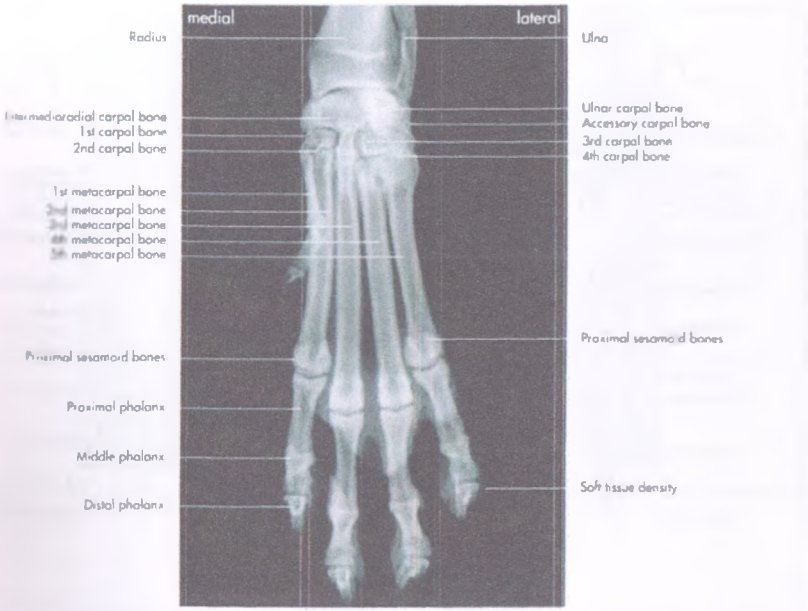


Fig. 3-13 Radiograph of the left front foot of a dog (dorsopalmar projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus)

The original pattern of the phalanges comprises five rays (2–5). This pattern has been modified to some extent in all domestic species during evolution. They are numbered numerically in mediolateral sequence as first, second, third, fourth and fifth digit. In carnivores all five rays are present, in the pig four rays (2–5), in ruminants two (3 and 4) and in the horse two non-functional rays (2 and 5) and in the latter the distal ray remains.

The skeleton of a fully developed digit consists of

- three **phalanges** with a proximal (base), a middle (corpus) and a distal (head) end, a shaft (body, corpus) and a neck (collum), both extremities exhibit articular facets and prominences for ligamentous attachment;
- the **proximal phalanx** shorter, but very similar to the proximal phalanx;
- the **distal phalanx** modified to conform to the claw that is enclosed within; exhibits a proximal articular surface (facies articularis), a parietal surface (facies extensoria) and a solar surface (facies solaris).

A number of **sesamoid bones** (ossa sesamoidea) are embedded in the tissues on the palmar aspect of the metacarpophalangeal joint and the distal interphalangeal joint.

Skeleton of the manus (forepaw) in carnivores

Carpal bones (ossa carpi)

The carpal bones are arranged in a proximal and a distal row. The proximal row includes the fused radial and intermediate bone, the intermedioradial bone (os carpi intermedioradiale), the ulnar carpal bone and the accessory carpal bone. The intermedioradial bone articulates with the distal end of the radius (Fig. 3-14 and 16). It has three separate ossification centers, which fuse three to four months after birth. The ulnar carpal bone (os carpi ulnare) is irregular in outline due to a large process, protruding distally. On a dorsopalmar radiograph it becomes superimposed over the accessory carpal bone (Fig. 3-15). The accessory carpal bone is located on the palmar aspect of the carpus and articulates with the radius, the ulna and the ulnar carpal bone. The epiphysis of the accessory carpal bone closes at 4–5 months of age.

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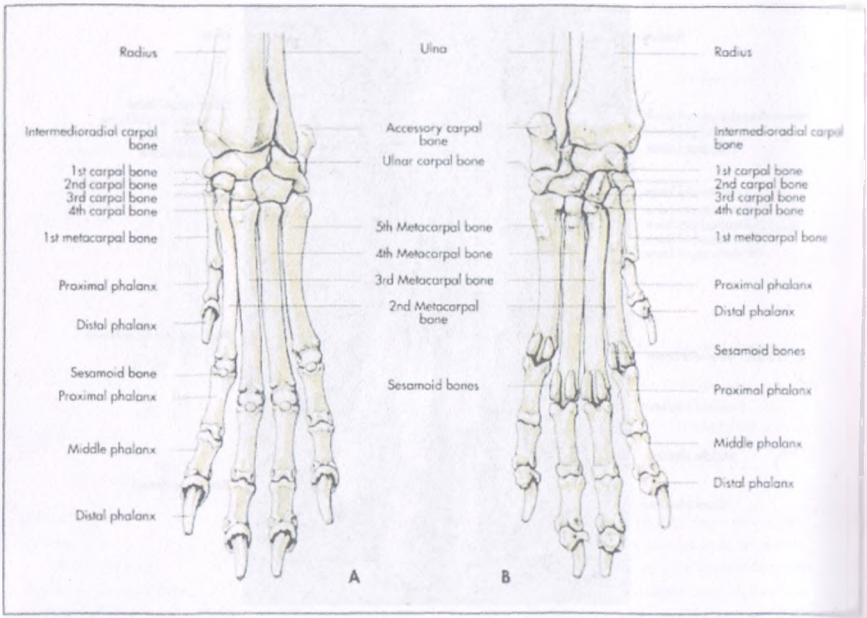


Fig. 3-16. Skeleton of the left forepaw of the dog (schematic, **A** dorsal and **B** palmar aspect).

The distal row is composed of four carpal bones. They increase in size from the medial to the lateral side and articulate with each other as well as proximally and distally. A sesamoid bone, which can be seen radiographically, is embedded in the tendon of the abductor pollicis longus muscle palmar to the first carpal bone (C I). Another two sesamoid bones may be visible on the palmar aspect between the proximal and distal carpal row.

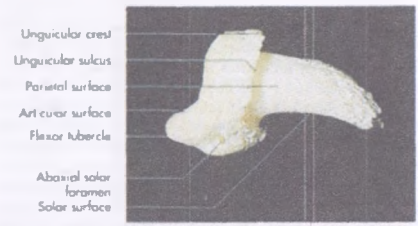


Fig. 3-17. Distal phalanx of a dog (lateral aspect).

Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia)

The metacarpus consists of five bones, each of which bears phalanges (Fig. 3-16).

The first metacarpal bone (os metacarpale I) is the shortest, and is relatively stronger in the cat than in the dog. The third and fourth are the longest metacarpal bones and are rounded in the cat and four-sided in the dog. The base of the second and third metacarpal bones (McII and III) bear prominences for ligamentous attachment laterally and all metacarpal bones have these prominences on their distal end bilaterally. The distal extremities bear trochleas, which possess sharp sagittal crests caudally for the articulation with the sesamoid bones.

Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus)

Five digits are present in carnivores, with the third and fourth one being the longest and the first digit the shortest (Fig. 3-16). Each digit consists of three phalanges, except the first which has only two, the proximal and distal phalanx.

The **distal phalanx** shows a hook-like appearance, is laterally compressed and drawn out to a sharp point, which is covered by the horny claw (Fig. 3-17). It has a parietal

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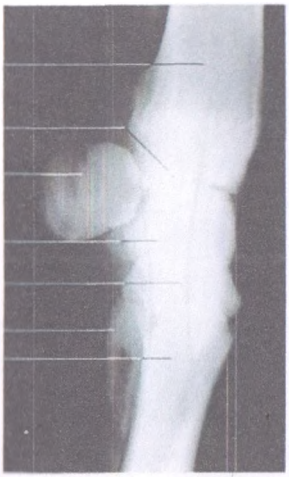


Fig. 3-18. Radiograph of the left carpus of a horse (lateromedial projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. W. Künzel, Vienna.

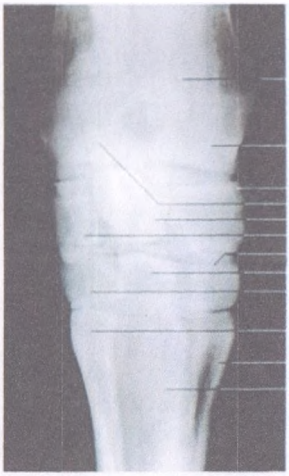


Fig. 3-19. Radiograph of the left carpus of a horse (dorsopalmar projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. W. Künzel, Vienna.

partialis), which can be subdivided later- surface and a **solar surface** (facies solearis). tubercle (tuberculum flexorium) protrudes on the laterally. Dorsally there is a **unguicular crest** and distally the bone is grooved by the ramus unguicularis).

phalanx is fenestrated on each side of the **flexor** (foramen soleare axiale et abaxiale). On the palmar each digit, except the first, at the level of the meta- joints are two sesamoid bones, which can

the manus in the horse

bones (ossa carpi)

the original pattern of four carpal bones in the with the radial carpal bone (os carpi radiale) being the largest bone of this row (Fig. 3-14 carpal bones articulate in a complex fashion with with neighbouring bones. The distal row is in- the first carpal bone (os carpale primum) is absence of horses. If the first carpal bone is usually isolated from the rest of the skeleton and the palmar carpal ligament next to the second os carpale secundum). The third carpal bone (os a large articular surface towards the third os metacarpale tertium), which distributes the weight of the horse along the long axis of the limb. The second and fourth carpal bones (os carpale secundum, os carpale quartum) articulate with the proximal extremities of the splint bones.

Metacarpal bones (ossa metacarpalia)

The metacarpus of the horse is composed of the fully developed third metacarpal bone (os metacarpale tertium) and the second and fourth metacarpal bones (os metacarpale secundum, os metacarpale quartum). The third metacarpal bone (cannon bone) is the only one which carries a digit, whereas the second and fourth metacarpal bones (splint bones) are much reduced. The first and the fifth metacarpal bones are absent (Fig. 3-20).

The **cannon bone** (os metacarpale tertium) is the only weightbearing metacarpal bone. The shaft of the cannon bone is stronger along its medial and dorsal aspects. It is oval in cross section in the forelimbs, with a dorsal and palmar part, and rounded in the hindlimb.

The **proximal extremity** bears an articular surface for the articulation with the distal row of the carpal bones (facies articularis carpea). Most of this articulation is in the middle part with the third carpal bone, but with smaller amounts of articulation with the second and fourth carpal bones. On each side are two articular facets, which articulate with the proximal ends of the splint bones. The **metacarpal tuberosity** (tuberositas ossis metacarpalis), which forms the insertion for the extensor carpi radialis muscle, is located dorsomedian on the prox-

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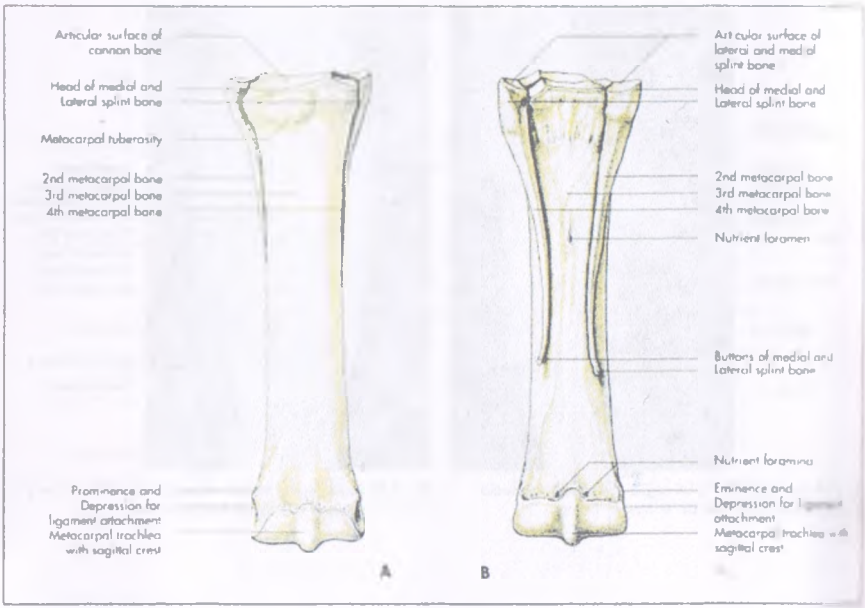


Fig. 3-20. Left metacarpal bones of the horse (schematic, A dorsal and B palmar aspect).

imal end of the cannon bone. The **distal extremity** carries a trochlea, which is subdivided into a slightly larger medial condyle and a smaller lateral one by the sagittal crest.

The **splint bones** (ossa metacarpalia secundum and quartum) extend to the distal third of the cannon bone. The proximal extremities are enlarged and articulate with the distal row of the carpal bones and the cannon bone. The tapering shafts end distally in the easily palpable buttons (Fig. 3-20).

Digital skeleton (ossa digitorum manus)

The digital skeleton of the horse is reduced to **one ray**, the **third digit** (Fig. 3-21II.). It consists of three phalanges and the sesamoid bones:

- proximal (first) phalanx (os compedale, phalanx proximalis),
- middle (second) phalanx (os coronale, phalanx media),
- distal (third) phalanx (os ungulare, phalanx distalis),
- proximal and distal sesamoid bones (ossa sesamoidea proximalis et distalis).

The **proximal phalanx** is shaped like a dorsopalmarly compressed cylinder. The proximal end (basis) is wider than its distal end (caput) (Fig. 3-21). The palmar surface shows a rough triangular area (trigonum phalangis proximalis), which is bounded by bony ridges.

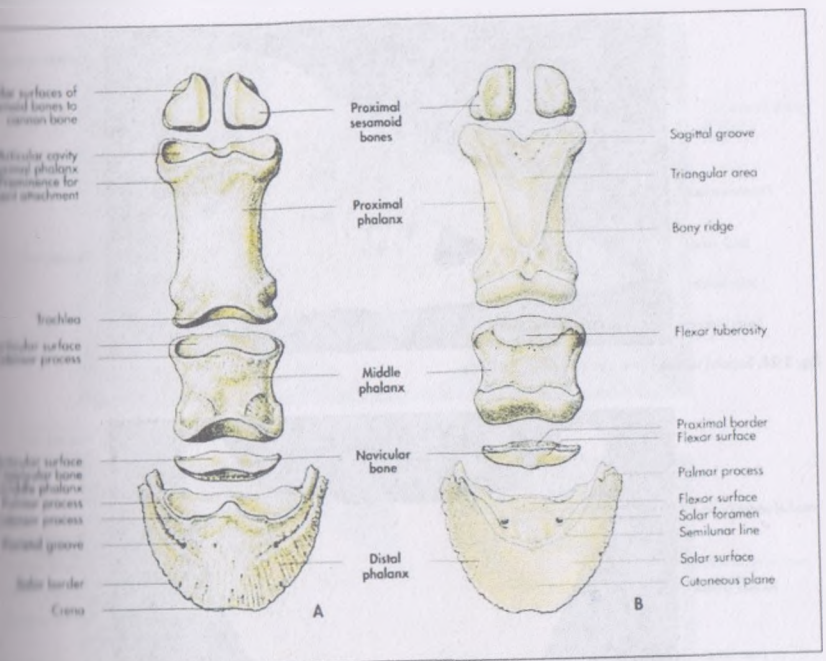
The proximal extremity (base) bears an articular surface (fovea articularis), which is subdivided into a larger medial cavity and a smaller lateral one by a sagittal groove. The distal trochlea is adapted for articulation with the proximal articular surface of the middle phalanx.

The **middle phalanx** is very similar to the proximal phalanx (Fig. 3-21). The dorsal articular cavity is divided by a sagittal ridge and corresponds to the distal trochlea of the proximal phalanx. Its dorsal border is elevated to form the extensor process (processus extensorius) and the palmar border thickened to a transverse prominence (flexor tuberosity (tuberositas flexoria).

The **distal phalanx** is accompanied by the **lateral** and **medial cartilage** on each side (cartilago ungularis medialis et lateralis) and the **distal sesamoid bone** (os sesamoideum distale) (Fig. 3-21II.).

It presents three surfaces and two borders. The solar border (margo solearis) separates the **parietal (dorsal) surface** from the **solar (palmar) surface** and the **coronary (proximal) border** (margo coronalis) separates the articular surface from the parietal surface. The coronary border forms a small eminence, the **extensor process** (processus extensorius) (Fig. 3-24). The solar border is notched dorsally (crena marginis solearis).

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...t. Left digital skeleton of the horse (schematic, **A** dorsal and **B** palmar aspect).



...of the left digit of a horse (lateromedial ... courtesy of Prof. Dr. C. Stanek, Vienna.

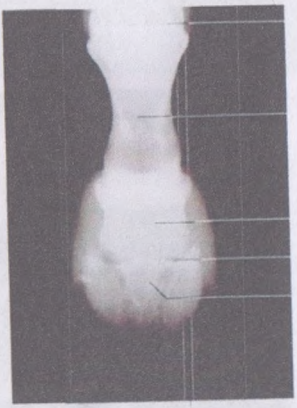


Fig. 3-23. Radiograph of the left digit of a horse (dorsopalmar projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna.

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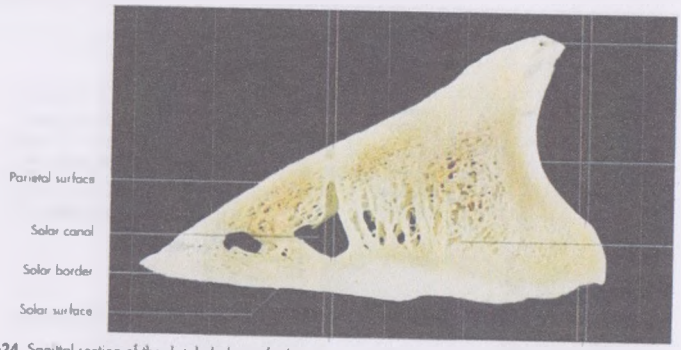


Fig. 3-24. Sagittal section of the distal phalanx of a horse

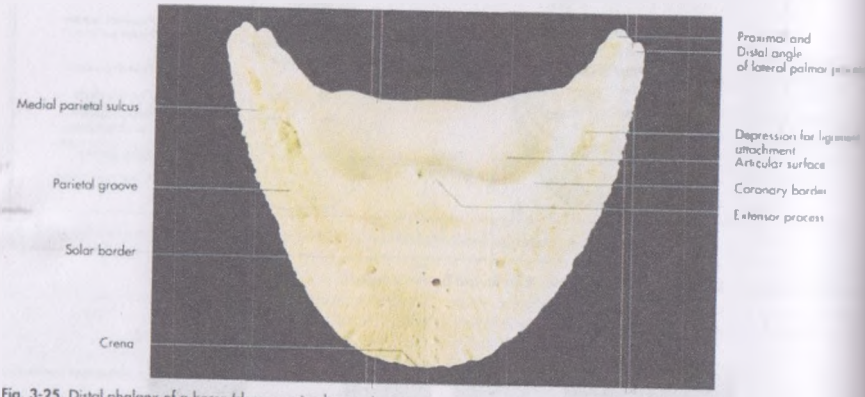


Fig. 3-25. Distal phalanx of a horse (dorsoproximal aspect)

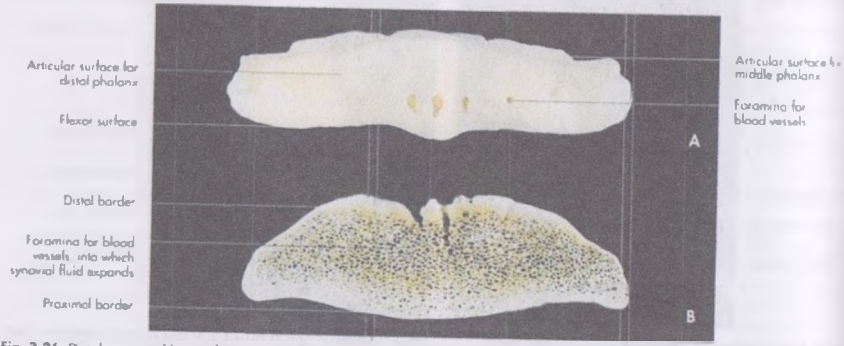


Fig. 3-26. Distal sesamoid bone of a horse (A distal aspect and B horizontal section)

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3-37. Distal phalanx of a horse (dorsoproximal aspect).



3-38. Distal phalanx and cartilages of a horse (palmarolateral aspect).

aspect of the third phalanx is extended bilaterally into **axial and lateral palmar processes** (processus [illegible] et lateralis). Each process is divided into axial and distal angles by a notch (incisura processus palmaris). The parietal surface is convex from side to side and is perforated or notched by numerous foramina and vascular vessels and nerves.

Axial and medial parietal grooves (sulcus parietalis [illegible] also encompass blood vessels. A rough line (linea semilunaris) separates the solar surface (planum cutaneum) and a palmar **flexor surface** for the insertion of the deep digital flexor tendon. On either side of the flexor surface is a solar groove to the **solar canal** (canalis solearis). The articular surface (facies articularis) articulates with the distal end of the second phalanx proximally and the distal sesamoid bone palmarly.

Two **sesamoid bones** (ossa sesamoidea proximalia) are located just proximal to the fetlock joint on the palmar aspect. They are shaped like a three-sided pyramid with their apex pointing proximally. They are firmly attached to each other and the first phalanx by strong ligaments (Fig. 3-21). The dorsal surface is concave and articulates with the distal end of the cannon bone. The abaxial surfaces give attachment to part of the suspensory ligament (m. interosseus medius). The palmar surface is marked by a smooth groove covered by a layer of cartilage (scutum proximale) for the flexor tendons.

The **distal sesamoid bone** (navicular bone) is boat-shaped with a straight **proximal border** (margo proximalis) and a convex **distal border** (margo distalis) (Fig. 3-21 and 26). The

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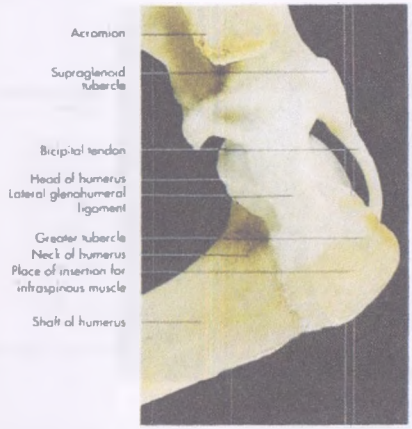


Fig. 3-29. Right shoulder joint of a dog (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

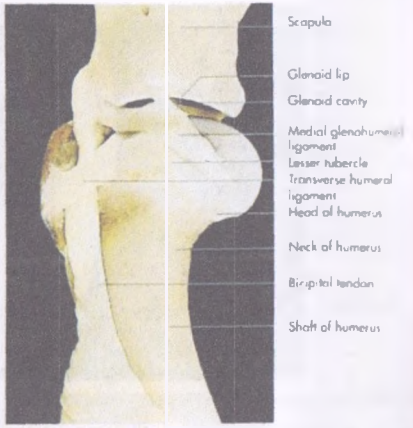


Fig. 3-30. Right shoulder joint of a dog (medial aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

distal border is attached to the third phalanx by a strong ligament. The palmar part of the dorsal navicular articular surface complements the distal surface of the third phalanx. The passage of the deep digital flexor tendon over the palmar surface of the navicular bone is facilitated by fibrous cartilage (scutum distale).

The **cartilages of the third phalanx** (cartilago ungulae medialis et lateralis) are fibrocartilagenous plates, which continue the palmar processes bilaterally (Fig. 3-27 and 28). The abaxial surface is convex and the axial surface is concave. The distal halves are enclosed in the hoof, but the proximal borders extend to the middle of the pastern.

Joints of the thoracic limb (articulationes membri thoracici)

Articulation of the thoracic limb to the trunk

The forelimb is joined to the axial skeleton by an arrangement of muscles, tendons and fascia (**synsarcosis**), without forming a conventional joint.

Shoulder or humeral joint (articulatio humeri)

The shoulder joint links the considerably smaller **glenoid cavity** (cavitas glenoidalis) of the scapula to the larger **humeral head** (caput humeri) (Fig. 3-29 and 30). The edge of the glenoid cavity is extended by the fibrocartilagenous **glenoid lip** (labrum glenoidale), which deepens the otherwise shallow glenoid cavity.

While the shoulder joint is a typical **spheroidal** joint (articulatio spheroidea) in structure and should theoretically have a considerable versatility of movement, its actual range of movement is limited by the surrounding muscles, and it therefore functions as a **hinge joint** with the primary movements being flexion and extension. Rotation, adduction and abduction are restricted, but possible especially in carnivores, in which abduction of 60°, pronation of 35° and supination of 45° is possible. In the horse, lateral and medial movements are almost impossible due to the cylindrical shape of the humeral head. Due to the absence of collateral ligaments of the shoulder, tendons and muscles act as ligaments and support the joint. The tendon of the subscapular muscle acts as the medial collateral ligament and the tendon of the infraspinous muscle acts as the lateral collateral ligament.

The **joint capsule** (capsula articularis) is spacious and blends, in some areas, with the tendons of the surrounding muscles, particularly the subscapular muscle. The joint consists of three cranial and two caudolateral pouches in the horse and ox and two cranial pouches and one caudolateral pouch in carnivores (Fig. 3-31 and 32).

The joint capsule obtains its strength internally by fibrous and collagenous bands: the **medial** and **lateral glenohumeral ligaments** (ligamenta glenohumerale lateralis et mediale) (Fig. 3-29). In ungulates there is an additional band, the **coracohumeral ligament** (ligamentum coracohumerale) incorporated in the joint capsule between the supraglenoid tubercle and the greater tubercle. In carnivores the transverse humeral ligament (ligamentum transversum humeri) bridges the bicipital groove and holds the like-named tendon in place (Fig. 3-30). Part of the joint capsule surrounds the bicipital tendon in the intertubercular groove and forms a synovial

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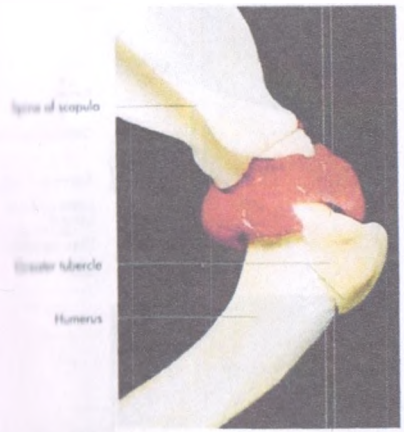


Fig. 3-31. Acrylic cast of the right shoulder joint of a dog (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. K. Ganzberger, Vienna.



Fig. 3-32. Acrylic cast of the right shoulder joint of a dog (medial aspect); courtesy of Dr. K. Ganzberger, Vienna.

synovialis intertubercularis) in carnivores, the ... the sheep.

... the horse and ox the tendon sheath is replaced by the **intertubercular bursa** (bursa intertubercularis), which does ... communicate with the cavity of the shoulder joint.

Injection sites

1. Cat: the cat is in lateral recumbency with the joint ... flexed; the needle is inserted directly caudal ... proximal to the greater tubercle, it is advanced ... a horizontal plane in a mediocaudal direction.
2. Dog: the dog is put in lateral recumbency with the joint ... flexed; the needle is inserted directly caudal ... proximal to the greater tubercle. It is advanced in ... horizontal plane in a mediocaudal direction.
3. Ox: the ox is in lateral recumbency with the joint ... flexed; the needle is inserted on the cranial ... of the tendon of the infraspinous muscle at the ... of the greater tubercle and advanced in a medio- ... and slightly distal direction.
4. Horse and ox: a 10 cm needle is inserted into the ... depression between the cranial and caudal ... of the greater tubercle of the humerus; the ... is directed in a frontal plane in a caudal and ... distal direction.

Elbow joint (articulatio cubiti)

The elbow joint (humeroulnar joint, articulatio humeroulnaris) is a **complex joint**, formed by the humeral condyle (condylus humeri) with the trochlear notch of the ulna (incisura trochlearis ulnae) and the radial head (caput radialis).

The elbow joint is a typical **hinge joint** or **ginglymus**, with the range of movements restricted to flexion and extension in a sagittal plane. Prominent ridges and grooves on the trochlear surface and the protrusion of the olecranon into the olecranon fossa of the humerus prevent lateral or rotational movements. In the cat the range of movement in the sagittal plane is limited to 140°. In the dog between 100° and 140° of extension is possible, depending on the breed. In the horse, and to a lesser degree in carnivores and cattle the elbow joint acts as a **snap joint**. This is caused by the eccentric proximal insertion of the collateral ligaments in relation to the axis of movement of the joint.

Strong collateral ligaments extend from the lateral and medial humeral epicondyle to the radius and ulna (Fig. 3-33, 34 and 37):

- **lateral (radial) collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale cubiti laterale) is attached proximally to the lateral epicondyle of the humerus and divides further distally into a stronger cranial part, inserting on the radius and a more slender caudal part, inserting on the ulna; the caudal (ulnar) part is absent in the horse;
- **medial (ulnar) collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale cubiti mediale) is attached proximally to the medial epicondyle of the humerus and inserts with two parts on the ulna and radius; in horses and cattle the cranial part of this ligament represents the remnant of the pronator teres muscle;
- **olecranon ligament** (ligamentum olecrani) extends between the medial epicondyle of the humerus and the anconeal process and reinforces the joint capsule on its flexor aspect in the cat and dog (Fig. 3-34).

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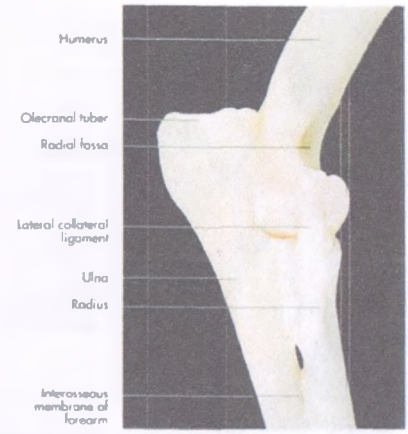


Fig. 3-33. Right elbow joint of a dog (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

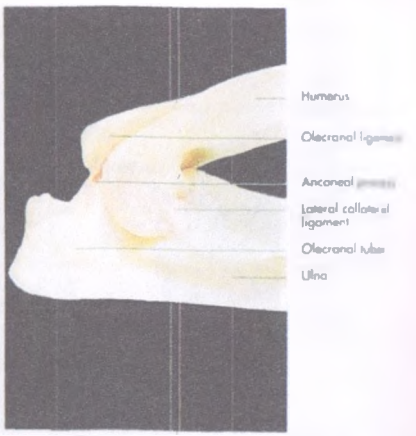


Fig. 3-34. Right elbow joint of a dog, maximally flexed (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

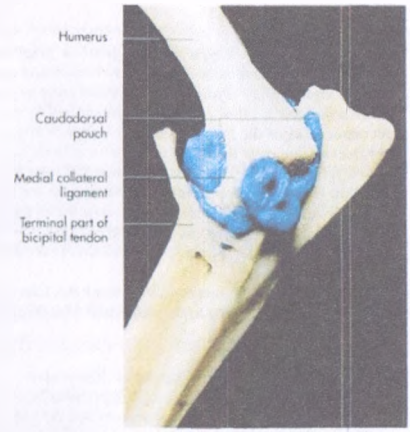


Fig. 3-35. Acrylic cast of the right elbow joint of a dog, (medial aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

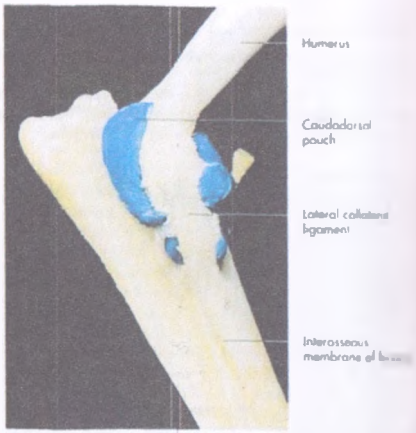


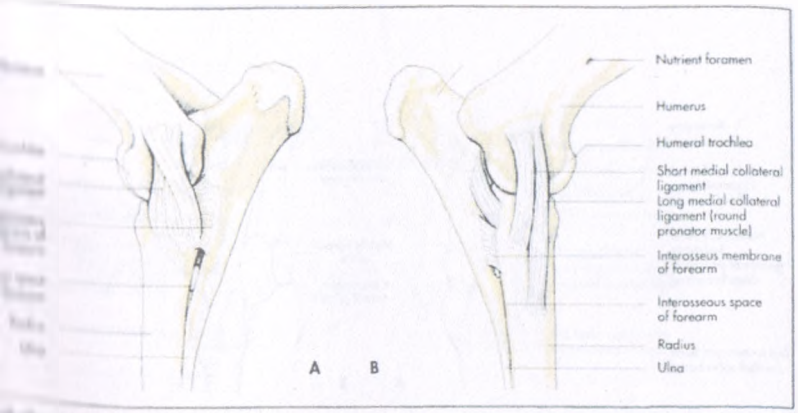
Fig. 3-36. Acrylic cast of the right elbow joint of a dog, (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

The humeroulnar, humeroradial and the proximal radioulnar joint (articulatio radioulnaris proximalis) share a common joint capsule (capsula articularis) (Fig. 3-35 and 36). On the caudal aspect, the capsule inserts along the proximal border of the olecranon fossa. On the cranial aspect one pouch extends medially under the biceps muscle and one laterally under the common digital extensor muscle.

Injection sites

- **dog** and **cat**: the animal is in lateral recumbency with the joint flexed at 90°; the needle is inserted between the lateral epicondyle and the olecranon and advanced in a craniomedial direction;
- **pig**: the needle is inserted into the palpable depression just caudal to the lateral epicondyle in a craniomedial direction.

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...joint of the horse (schematic, A lateral and B medial aspect).

...is inserted between the lateral ... and the tendon of origin of the ... muscle of the carpus and advanced ...

...is inserted from the lateral side ... caudal to the lateral collateral ligament ... halfway between the lateral humeral ... and lateral tuberosity of the proximal ... radius. The needle is advanced in a ... slightly proximomedial direction.

...ulations (articulatio radioulnaris / ...ticulatio radioulnaris distalis)

...rotational movements of the two forearm ... large animals and reduced in carnivores ... specific reduction of the ulna. About ... is allowed to the cat and 50° to the dog. In ... cattle the proximal parts of the radius and ... fibrous and elastic tissues which undergo ... advancing age (synchondrosis). The radius ... articulate firmly proximally and distally ... carnivores there are two separate synov... articulations.

...ulnar joint (articulatio radioulnaris ... is formed by the articular ... of the radius (circumferentia articularis ...) and the radial notch of the ulna ... ulnae).

...joint (articulatio radioulnaris distalis) ... by the articular circumference of the ... (circumferentia articularis proximalis ulnae) and ... of the radius (incisura ulnaris radii).

The proximal radioulnar joint is supported by several ligaments:

- **annular ligament of the radius** (ligamentum anulare radii) passes around the radial head on the flexor aspect of the elbow joint, lying under the collateral ligaments, and attaches distally to the radial notch of the ulna.
- **interosseous ligament of the antebrachium** (ligamentum interosseum antebrachii) bridges the proximal half of the interosseous space in the dog and strengthens the interosseous membrane laterally.
- **interosseous membrane of the antebrachium** (membrana interossea antebrachii) is a soft tissue membrane. It joins the radius to the ulna in carnivores and juvenile large animals. This membrane becomes ossified in adult ungulates (Fig. 3.37).

The single ligament of the distal radioulnar joint, the **radioulnar ligament** (ligamentum radioulnare) extends between the radial trochlea and the styloid process of the ulna. It is a distinct ligament in dogs, whereas in cats it consists of fibres embedded in the joint capsule. The proximal radioulnar joint communicates freely with the main elbow joint; the distal radioulnar joint is a proximal extension of the antebrachiocarpal joint in carnivores and in the pig.

Articulations of the manus (articulationes manus)

Carpal joints (articulationes carpeae)

The carpal joints are **composite articulations** that include the following joints (Fig. 3.38):

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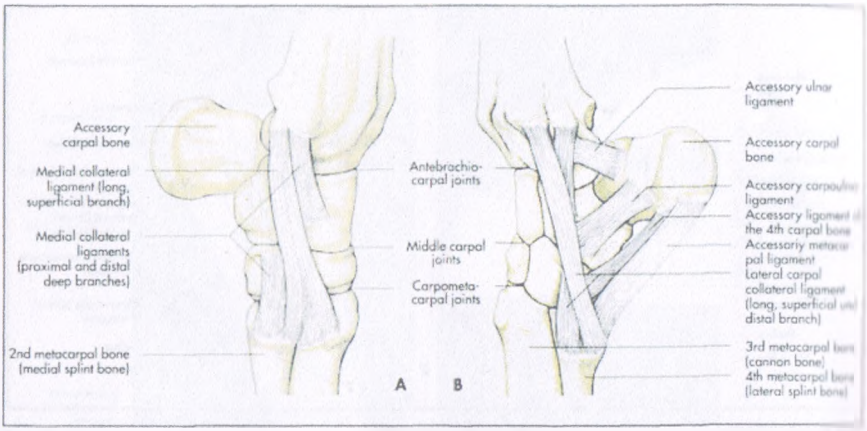


Fig. 3-38. Long collateral ligaments and ligaments of the accessory carpal bone of the left carpus of the horse (schematic. **A** medial and **B** lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. Susanne Wagner, Vienna, 1996

- **ulnarcarpal and radiocarpal joint** (articulationes antebrachiocarpeae), between the radius and ulna and the proximal carpal bones,
- **middle carpal joint** (articulationes metacarpeae), between the proximal and distal carpal bones,
- **intercarpal joint** (articulationes intercarpeae), between the individual carpal bones of each row and
- **carpometacarpal joints** (articulationes carpometacarpeae), between the distal carpal bones and the metacarpal bones.

Although the three levels of articulation share a common fibrous capsule, the synovial compartments are separate except for a communication between the middle and the distal joints. The joint capsule is loose at the level of the proximal joints and becomes narrower distally.

While the carpus as a whole acts as a **hinge joint**, the single joint surfaces allow different ranges of movement. Most movement occurs at the proximal articulation, considerable movement is possible at the middle articulation, but virtually no movement takes place at the distal articulation.

The **antebrachiocarpal joint** consists of the **radiocarpal joint** (articulatio radiocarpea) and the **ulnocarpal joint** (articulatio ulnocarpea) (Fig. 3-38).

This joint can be regarded as a hinge joint in the horse, a cochlear joint in ruminants and a ellipsoidal joint in carnivores, where, in addition to the hinge movement, abduction and adduction are possible.

Less movement takes place in the **middle carpal joint**, which is also a **complex hinge joint**. It is formed between the proximal (ulnar, intermediate and radial carpal bone) and distal row (carpal bones I to IV) of the carpal bones. It also includes the accessory carpal joints. The intercarpal joints are firm articulations formed by the adjacent articulating surfaces of the same row and have a very limited range of movement.

The **carpometacarpal joints**, located between the distal carpal bones and the metacarpal bones, are **plane joints** which do not allow any significant movement. Many distinct **ligaments** and several **fibrous bands** of the joint capsule support the carpus. The ligaments can be divided into two major groups (Fig. 3-38):

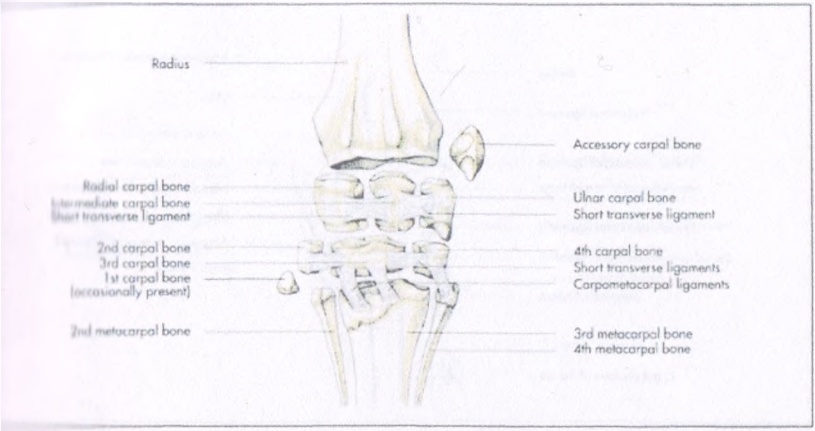
- **long lateral and medial collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia carpi), extending between the forearm and the metacarpus, and
- **short ligaments**, joining neighbouring bones of the same row or adjacent rows.

The **lateral collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale carpi laterale) attaches proximally to the lateral styloid process of the radius and divides into a superficial branch, which inserts at the proximal extremity of the lateral metacarpal bone and two deep branches, which insert at the ulnar carpal bone and the fourth carpal bone (Fig. 3-38).

The **medial collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale carpi mediale) extends between the medial styloid process of the radius and the proximal extremity of the medial metacarpal bone. A deep branch is detached to the second carpal bone.

In carnivores, the long continuous collateral ligaments are absent, and only the antebrachiocarpal joint is bridged by medial and lateral collateral ligaments. The anatomy of the short carpal ligaments is rather complex and will not be described in detail (Fig. 3-39 to 41). The **short ligaments** can be subdivided into three groups:

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Short ligaments of the left carpus of the horse, with the joint spaces extended (schematic, dorsal aspect); courtesy of Dr. Susanne Vienna, 1996.

Ligaments bridging the chief joints.
ligaments, which join the neighbouring
the same row and
ligaments connecting the accessory carpal
the ulnar carpal bone, the fourth
and the fourth and fifth metacarpal bones.

the joint capsule is strengthened dorsally
retinaculum (retinaculum extensorum),
the extensor tendons. The **flexor retinacu-**
(flexorum) enforces the carpus on the pal-
80, 83, 85 to 88). It attaches to the base of
just passes medially to become part of the

is formed superficially by the flexor retinac-
by the joint capsule of the carpus. It contains
arteries, veins and nerves.

The complex anatomy of the carpal skeleton com-
by the numerous ligaments of the carpus, the pri-
of the carpal joints are flexion and exten-
extension the carpus forms a single axis
and in full flexion the carpus enables the
the forearm. Slight lateral and medial move-
particularly in carnivores (up to 30°). In
joint acts as a **shock absorber**.

Injection sites

- **dog** and **cat**: antebrachiocarpal joint and midcarpal joint; the animal is in lateral recumbency, the joint flexed in a 90° angle, the needle is inserted from the dorsolateral side in the proximal pouch between the common digital extensor tendon and the radial extensor muscle at the level of the joints; separate injection of the carpometacarpal joint is unnecessary due to its communication with the midcarpal joint;
- **pig**: the pig is put in lateral recumbency and the joint flexed; for the injection of the antebrachiocarpal joint the needle is inserted into the dorsal pouch of the joint capsule lateral to the radial extensor muscle in a horizontal plane and palmar direction, the midcarpal and carpometacarpal joint is injected just dorsal to the medial collateral ligament into the palpable joint space;
- **ox**: a 4 cm needle is inserted on the dorsolateral aspect between the lateral collateral ligament and the radial extensor muscle with the carpus flexed, the needle is advanced horizontally;
- **horse**: antebrachiocarpal joint and midcarpal joint: the carpus is flexed and the joint is entere horizontally with a 3 cm needle in the palpable depressions between the radial extensor muscle and the common digital extensor tendons on the dorsal aspect of the joint at the level of the articulation; separate injection of the carpometacarpal joint is unnecessary due to its communication with the midcarpal joint.

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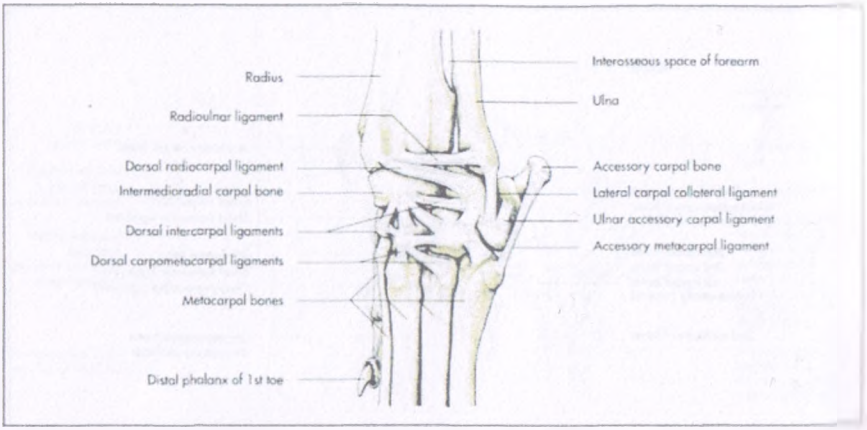


Fig. 3-40. Ligaments of the left carpus of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ghetie, 1954.

Intermetacarpal joints (articulationes intermetacarpeae)

The **metacarpal bones** articulate with each other at their proximal ends in carnivores and in the pig. In ruminants the remaining third and fourth metacarpal bones are fused and no movement is possible. Although there are small joints between the proximal ends of the splint bones and the cannon bone in the horse, movement is very limited, due to the interosseous ligament between the shaft of the metacarpal bones, which undergoes ossification.

Phalangeal joints

Each digit has **three articulations**:

- **metacarpophalangeal joints** or **fetlock joint** (articulationes metacarpophalangeae),
- **proximal interphalangeal joints** or **pastern joint** (articulationes interphalangeae proximales manus) and
- **distal interphalangeal joints** or **coffin joint** (articulationes interphalangeae distales manus).

The **metacarpophalangeal joints** are hinge joints between the distal end of the metacarpal bones and the proximal ends of the first phalanges and the proximal sesamoid bones. The joint capsules form **dorsal** and **palmar pouches** (recessus dorsales et recessus palmares) (Fig. 3-42 and 91). Ligaments exist in the form of collateral ligaments, sesamoidean ligaments and interdigital ligaments in animals with more than one ray. The sesamoidean ligaments can be subdivided into proximal, middle and distal ligaments. The proximal ligament is replaced by the interosseous muscles or in the case of ruminants and horses by the suspensory ligament, the tendinous remnant of the medial interosseous muscle.

The **proximal interphalangeal joints** are formed by the distal ends of the first phalanges and the proximal ends of the middle phalanges. They are classified as saddle joints due to the concavo-convex shape of the joint surfaces and as hinge joints, allowing a limited range of lateral movement. Each joint has a capsule with dorsal and palmar pouches, collateral ligaments (horse) or palmar ligaments (pig and ruminants) or both (carnivores).

The **distal interphalangeal joints** are very similar to the proximal interphalangeal joints.

Phalangeal joints of the carnivores

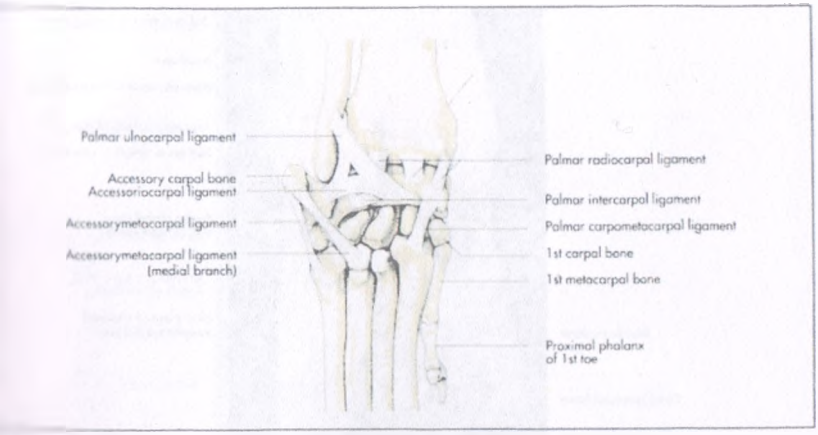
Metacarpophalangeal joints

Carnivores have five **metacarpophalangeal** joints corresponding to the number of digits. They are formed by the distal trochlea of the metacarpal bones I to V and the proximal articular surface of the first phalanges together with two proximal sesamoid bones for each joint. In addition to flexion and extension, these joints allow a considerable degree of abduction and adduction. Each joint has a spacious joint capsule with a dorsal and palmar pouch. The dorsal pouches are thickened by a band of cartilage. The proximal sesamoid bones are interspersed in the palmar part of the joint capsule.

The **ligaments** can be divided into:

- **collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia mediale et laterale) between the distal ends of the metacarpal bones and the first phalanges,
- **ligaments of the proximal sesamoidean bones**
  - **proximal ligaments**: replaced by the interosseous muscle,

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Ligaments of the left carpus of the dog (schematic, palmar aspect), after Ghetie, 1954

...ligaments: intersesamoidean ligaments, ...the palmar surfaces of the paired sesamoid ... of one digit and the lateral and medial ...sesamoidean ligaments between the sesamoid ... and the metacarpal bones and the proximal ..., and

...ligaments: the short distal sesamoidean ... and the cruciate ligaments of the ...sesamoidean bones between the proximal ...sesamoidean bones and the proximal phalanges.

... interphalangeal joints

... interphalangeal joints are formed by the distal ... the proximal phalanges and the proximal articular ... of the middle phalanges II to V. The first digit does not ... interphalangeal joint. These are **saddle joints** ... extension of 90° and a maximal flexion of ... **capsules** are similar to the ones of metacar- ... with dorsal and palmar pouches and a car- ... dorsally. Collateral ligaments (liga- ... laterale et mediale) are the only ligaments ... vertically on the lateral and medial aspects ...

... phalangeal joints

... interphalangeal joints are **saddle joints**, formed by ... of the medial phalanges and the articulat- ... of the distal phalanges.

... capsules extend dorsal and palmar pouches ... et palmares). The palmar pouches are en- ... cartilage. Each joint has a medial and a ... ligament and elastic ligaments dorsally. The ... elastic cord-like ligaments (ligamenta dor- ...

...salia longa) extending from the second phalanx to the lateral aspect of the third phalanx. In the cat, in addition to the two long dorsal ligaments, there is a short single dorsal ligament (ligamentum dorsale breve), which extends from the side of the second phalanx to the extensor process of the third phalanx. This anatomical location allows the flexion of the distal interphalangeal joint and therefore the protrusion of the claw by simultaneous contraction of the deep digital flexor tendon and relaxation of the elastic dorsal ligaments.

Unlike the dog, the cat can fully retract its claws into the fur of the paw. While the claws are contracted the claw is under maximal dorsal flexion and in contact with the corresponding metacarpal bone.

Interdigital ligaments

Annular ligaments (ligamenta anularia palmaria) brace the superficial and deep digital flexor tendons at the level of the proximal sesamoid bones of the metacarpophalangeal joints of the second to fifth digits. These palmar annular ligaments furnish insertion to the deep interdigital ligaments, which hold the digits together and support the carpal and digital pads.

A superficial interdigital ligament runs transversely from the palmar surface of the distal end of the second metacarpal bone to the same location on the fifth metacarpal bone.

Phalangeal joints of the ruminants

Metacarpophalangeal joints or fetlock joints

The two metacarpophalangeal joints are **hinge joints** formed by the trochlea, which consists of the separate distal ends of the third and fourth metacarpal bones, the articular surface of the first phalanx and two proximal sesamoid bones on the palmar aspect (Fig. 3-42 and 43). Each joint has its own joint capsule

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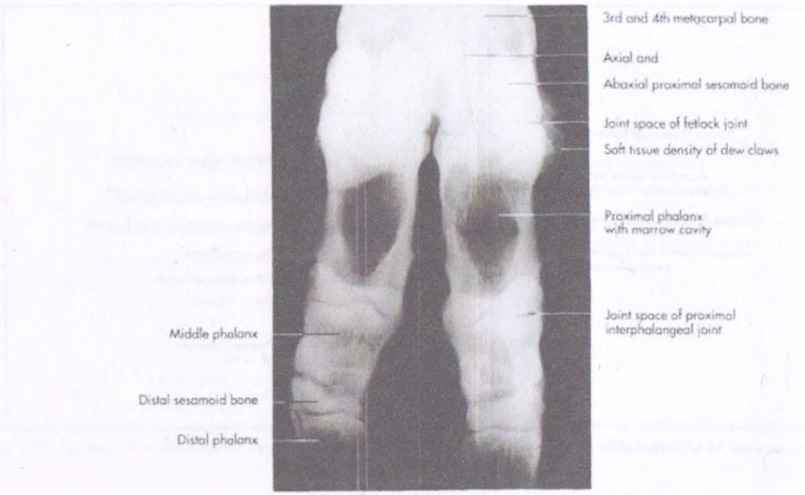


Fig. 3-42. Radiograph of the foot of an ox (dorsopalmar projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna.

with a dorsal and a palmar pouch each (recessus dorsales et palmares).

The **dorsal pouch** (recessus dorsalis) extends proximally between the metacarpal bones and the tendons of the common and lateral digital extensor muscles. The dorsal joint capsules are thickened by fibrocartilage. The tendons are each surrounded by a synovial sheath and subtendinous bursae, which facilitates their passage over the dorsal joint pouch.

The **palmar pouch** (recessus palmaris) extends proximally between the metacarpal bones, the interosseous muscle and the deep and superficial digital flexor tendons. The flexor tendons share a common synovial sheath at this level.

The axial part of the joint capsules are fused. Their palmar pouches communicate with each other proximal to the interdigital branch of the interosseous muscle.

Injection site

- both fetlock joints can be reached with one injection. the needle is inserted into the dorsal pouch at the border of the lateral or medial extensor tendon and advanced horizontally.

Ligaments of the fetlock joint (Fig. 3-45 and 3-46) can be divided into:

- **proximal interdigital ligament** (ligamentum interdigitale proximale), which joins the proximal phalanges of the weightbearing digits to their axial sesamoid bones,
- **axial** and **abaxial collateral ligaments**, which bridge each fetlock joint and
- **proximal**, **middle** and **distal sesamoidean ligaments**.

The tendinous **middle interosseous muscle** (m. interosseus medius) or suspensory ligament supports the fetlock proximally. It originates from the distal carpal bones, extends distally on the palmar surface of the metacarpal bones and divides into four branches at the distal third of the metacarpus. The four branches are divided into:

- **middle part**, which subdivides further into two branches for the axial proximal sesamoid bones and one interdigital branch for each digit. the interdigital branch for the third digit joins the medial tendon of the common digital extensor tendon and the interdigital branch to the fourth digit the lateral digital extensor tendon,
- **lateral and medial branch**, which insert with a deep branch on the abaxial proximal sesamoid bones and extend a superficial branch to the extensor tendons and
- **strong branch**, which subdivides into a medial and a lateral branch. both branches unite more distally with the superficial digital flexor tendon thus forming a sheath around the deep digital flexor tendon.

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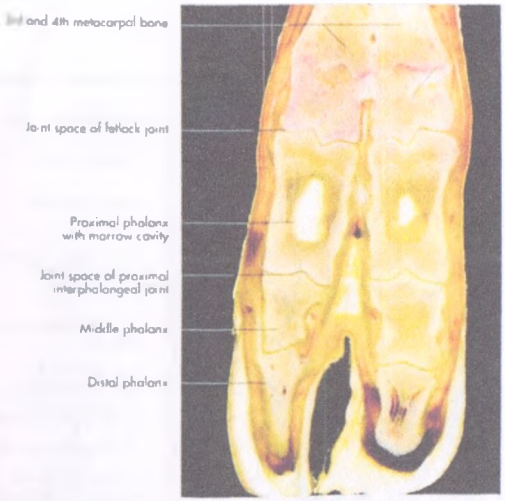


Fig. 3-44 Frontal ox (E 12 plastinate section), courtesy of H. Obermayer, Munich

Collateral ligaments of the fetlock (Fig. 3-45 and 46) comprise

- dorsal and **lateral palmar ligaments** (ligamenta palmaria mediale et laterale), which connect the proximal sesamoid bones of the third digit to those of the fourth digit,
- **interdigital intersesamoid ligament** connecting the two axial sesamoid bones, and
- **collateral sesamoid ligaments** (ligamenta sesamoidea collateralia), which connect the axial proximal sesamoids with the first phalanx.

Distal support of the fetlock is provided by (Fig. 3-46):

- **cruciate sesamoid ligaments** (ligamenta sesamoidea cruciata), which extend from the base of each proximal sesamoid to the distal aspect of the corresponding first phalanx,
- **interdigital phalangosesamoidean ligaments** (ligamenta phalangosesamoidea interdigitales), which connect the axial proximal sesamoids with the proximal end of the opposite first phalanx, and
- **oblique sesamoid ligaments** (ligamenta sesamoidea obliqua), which connect the distal proximal sesamoids to the first phalanx.

Proximal interphalangeal joints or pastern joints

The pastern joints are **saddle joints**, formed by the distal trochlea of the first phalanx and the proximal articular surface of the second phalanx. The two joints have separate capsules. Each forms dorsal and palmar pouches (recessus dorsales et palmares).

The **dorsal pouch** (recessus dorsalis) is indented by the extensor tendons and extends distally and proximally on the axial and abaxial aspect.

The **palmar pouch** (recessus palmaris) is smaller and covered by the flexor tendons.

Each joint is supported by axial and abaxial collateral ligaments (ligamenta collateralia). An additional axial ligament bridges both the pastern and the coffin joint dorsally. Three **palmar ligaments**, a central, an axial and an abaxial palmar ligament provide further support to each pastern joint (Fig. 3-46). Additional bands arise from the digital fascia and insert on to the first phalanges. These support the flexor tendons on the palmar aspect (Fig. 3-44 to 46):

- palmar annular ligament (ligamentum anulare palmare),
- proximal and distal annular digital ligament (ligamentum anulare digiti) and
- distal interdigital ligament (ligamentum interdigitale distale).

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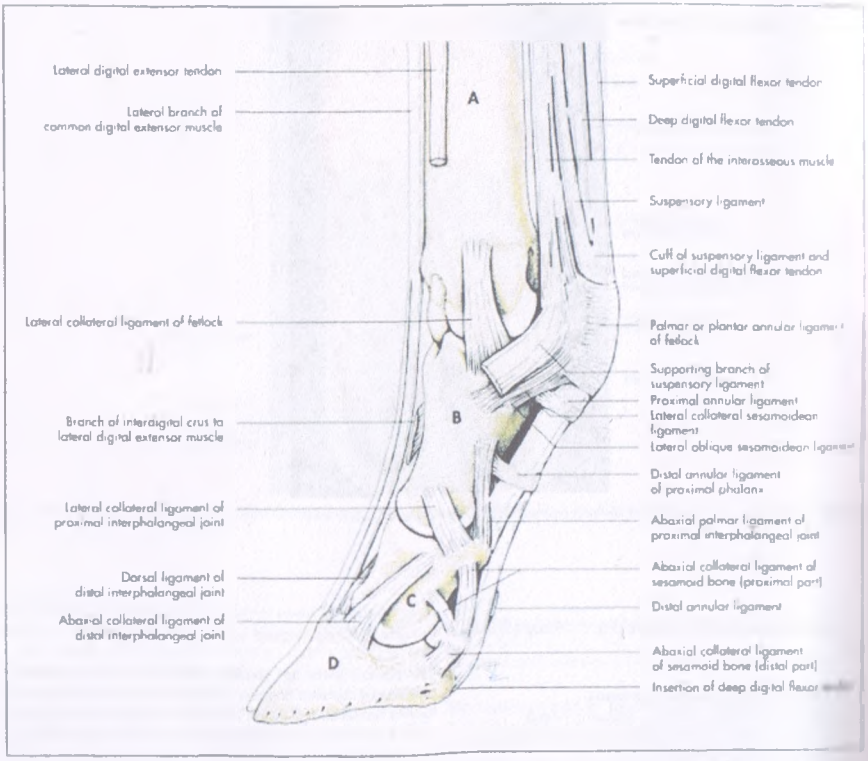


Fig. 3-44. Ligaments and tendons of the left lateral front foot of the ox (schematic, lateral aspect, **A** metacarpus, **B** first phalanx, **C** second phalanx, **D** third phalanx); after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

Distal interphalangeal joints or coffin joints

The **coffin joints** are **saddle joints** formed by the distal trochlea of the second phalanges, the articular surfaces of the third phalanges and the distal sesamoid or navicular bone on the palmar aspect.

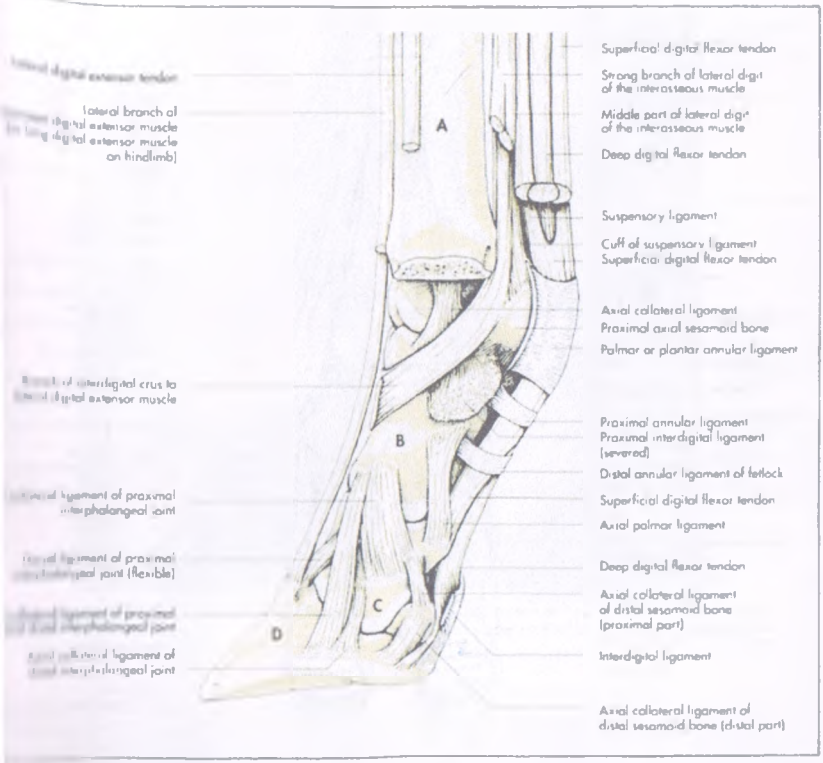
The **joint capsules** are completely separated and have dorsal and palmar pouches (recessus dorsales et palmares).

- **dorsal pouches** (recessus dorsales) reach about 1 cm beyond the coronet under the extensor tendons.
- **palmar pouches** (recessus palmares) extend proximally up to the middle of the second phalanges and are covered by the deep digital flexor tendons.

Each joint is supported by the following ligaments (Fig. 3-44 and 46):

- **distal interdigital ligaments** (ligamentum interdigitale distale), which are two cruciate ligaments between the main digits,
- **dorsal ligament of the coffin joints** (ligamentum dorsale), which is an elastic band extending from the distal end of the second phalanx axially to the extensor process of the third phalanx,
- **axial** and **abaxial collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia) and
- **ligaments of the distal sesamoid bone**, which can be divided into elastic axial and abaxial ligaments connecting the distal sesamoid to the second phalanx and collateral ligaments connecting the sesamoid to the third phalanx.

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ligaments and tendons of the left medial front foot of the ox (schematic, axial aspect). A metacarpus, B first phalanx, phalanx, D third phalanx), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

of the dewclaws

and fifth digits are joined to the cannon bone and to the main digits distally by fasciae, which and transverse bands.

joints of the horse

phalangeal joint or fetlock joint

is a **composite joint** formed by the trochlea bone, the proximal articular surface of the first and the proximal sesamoid bones (Fig. 3-47ff.).

a hinge joint with the major movements being flex- allowing only limited lateral movement. In position the joint is in partial flexion.

ligaments form a dorsal and a palmar pouch:

- **dorsal pouch** (recessus dorsalis), which extends about 2 cm proximally between the cannon bone and the extensor tendon; a bursa is interposed between the joint capsule and the extensor tendon, and
- **palmar pouch** (recessus palmaris), which lies between the cannon bone and the suspensory ligament (Fig. 3-51, 52, 91 and 92).

The **ligamentous support of the fetlock** consists of

- **collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia), which arise from each side of the distal end of the cannon bone and insert on the eminences on each side of the proximal end of the first phalanx, and
- **proximal, middle** and **distal ligaments** of the proximal sesamoid bones (Fig. 3-49 and 50).

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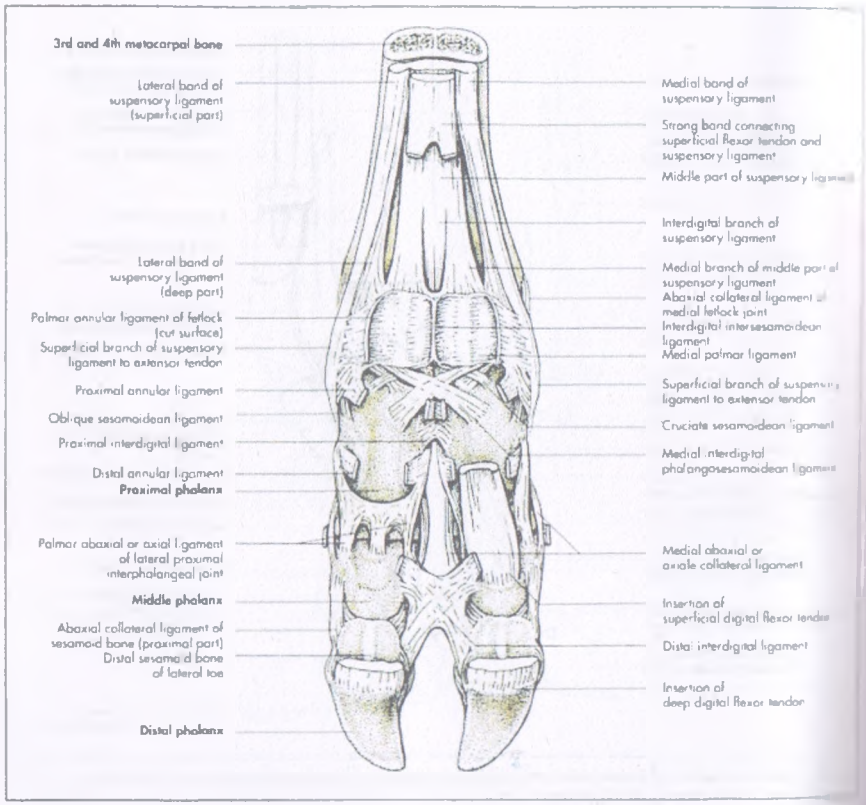


Fig. 3-46. Ligaments and tendons of the left front foot of the ox (schematic, palmar aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

The tendinous interosseous muscle or suspensory ligament provides the **proximal support for the proximal sesamoid bones** (Fig. 3-49 and 50). It is attached proximally to the distal row of the carpal bones and to the proximal part of the cannon bone. It passes between the lateral and medial splint bone in the metacarpal groove on the palmar surface of the cannon bone. Above the fetlock it divides into two diverging branches, which insert on the proximal sesamoid bones. The **metacarpo-intersesamoidean ligament** (ligamentum metacarpointersesamoideum) extends between the distal end of the metacarpus and the palmar ligament. It provides additional support to the fetlock on the palmar aspect. The **middle ligaments of the proximal sesamoids** comprise:

- **palmar ligament** (ligamentum palmare): a broad fibrocartilagenous ligament, which unites the two proximal sesamoids and enables, together with the sesamoid bones, the frictionless movement of the flexor tendons over the fetlock joint (scutum proximale),
- **medial** and **lateral collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia), which connect the proximal sesamoids to the metacarpal bone proximally and to the first phalanx distally (Fig. 3-49 and 50).

There are several **distal sesamoid ligaments** (Fig. 3-

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...ittal section of the digit of a horse (S10 plastinate); ...t. Vienna).



Fig. 3-48. Radiograph of the digit of a horse (lateromedial projection); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna.

...**sesamoidean ligament** (ligamentum ...) originates proximal to the ... sesamoid bones and inserts with two ... strong branch on the second phalanx ... branch on the first phalanx.

...sesamoidean ligaments (ligamenta sesamoidea ...) accompany the straight one on each side and ... the palmar surface of the first phalanx.

...sesamoidean ligaments (ligamenta ... run deep to the other distal ... ligaments, they arise on the base of ... cross each other and insert ... palmar side of the first phalanx.

...sesamoidean ligaments (ligamenta ...) extend from the base of the ... the palmar margin of the first phalanx.

...ligament extends a medial and a ... ...ally and distally, where they join ... digital extensor tendon, these branches ... support to the sesamoids, the suspensory ... ligament and the straight ... sesamoidean ligaments, together with the ... ...ligaments, form the **stay apparatus** ... the fetlock.

Injection sites

- the fetlock joint is injected in the weightbearing horse into the dorsoproximal pouch of the joint, the joint space is palpated and a 2 cm needle inserted medial to the common extensor tendon and directed distomedially.

Proximal interphalangeal joint or pastern joint

The **pastern joint** is formed by the junction of the trochlea of the first phalanx and the proximal end of the second phalanx. It is a **saddle joint** with a limited range of movement. There are two collateral and several palmar ligaments (Fig. 49 and 50):

- **collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia) extend between the first and second phalanx and
- **palmar ligaments** (ligamenta palmaria) consist of a central pair, the axial and abaxial ligaments, which run parallel to the straight sesamoidean ligament, and the lateral and medial palmar ligaments.

The ligaments form, together with the straight sesamoidean ligament and the second phalanx, the **medial scutum** over which the deep digital flexor tendon runs. Additional **lateral palmar ligaments** extend between the second and third phalanges. The **joint capsule** blends with the common digital

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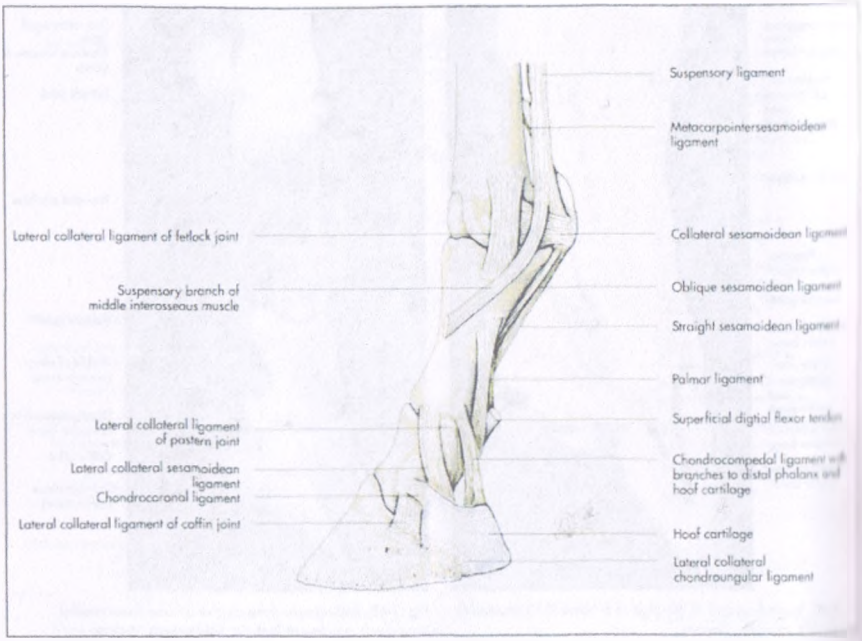


Fig. 3-49. Phalangeal joints of the left digit of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ghetie, 1954

extensor tendon dorsally, the collateral ligaments on the lateral and medial side and the straight sesamoidean ligament palmarly. A small dorsal recess pouches proximally.

Distal interphalangeal joint or coffin joint

The coffin joint is a **composite joint** formed by the distal trochlea of the second phalanx, the third phalanx and the **distal sesamoid bone (navicular bone)**. It is a **saddle joint** with the chief movements being flexion and extension and a very limited range of lateral and rotational movements. The joint capsule extends a small dorsal and a more spacious palmar pouch (Fig. 3-53 to 59):

- **dorsal pouch** (recessus dorsalis), which extends under the common extensor tendon about 1 cm proximal to the coronet,
- **palmar pouch** (recessus palmaris), which extends under the deep digital flexor tendon up to the middle of the second phalanx.

The palmar aspect of the navicular bone is covered by a layer of cartilage (scutum distale), which facilitates passage of the deep digital flexor tendon over the navicular bone (Fig. 3-50).

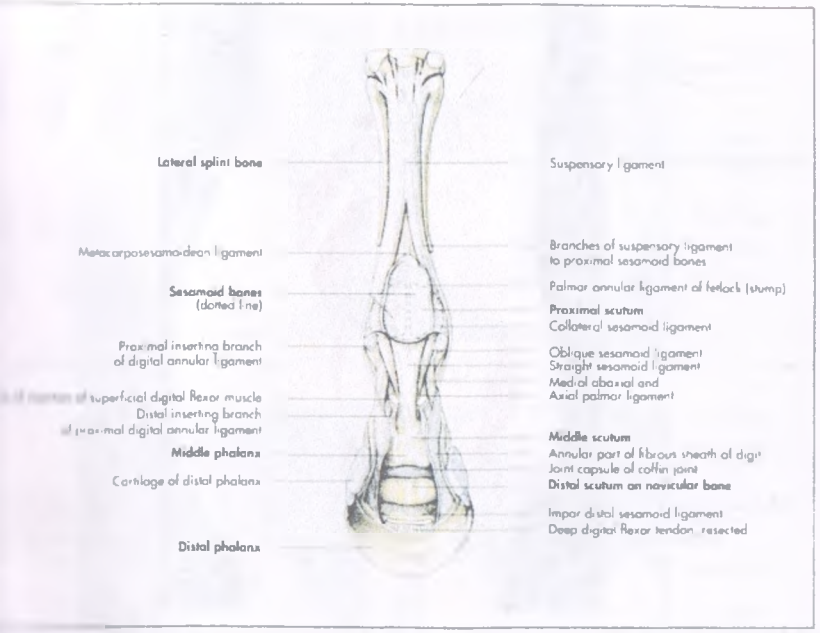
A synovial bursa (podotrochlear bursa, bursa podotrochlearis) is interposed between the navicular bone and the deep digital flexor tendon (Fig. 3-55 and 56). **The ligaments of the coffin joint** can be divided into:

- **medial** and **lateral collateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia) between the second and third phalanx; they blend with the lateral and medial part of the joint capsule and send fibres to the cartilages and to the ligaments between the second phalanx and the cartilages.

The ligaments of the distal sesamoid bone can be divided into:

- **impar distal sesamoidean ligament** (ligamentum sesamoideum distale impar), which extends from the distal rim of the navicular bone to the palmar border of the articular surface of the coffin bone (Fig. 3-50),
- **collateral sesamoidean ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia sesamoidea) are elastic bands which are attached proximal to the depressions on each side of

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Ligaments of the phalangeal joints of the horse (schematic, palmar aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

of the first phalanx and are directed ... they insert on the coffin bone, the ... and the navicular bone.

... of the cartilages of the distal phalanx

... of these cartilages can be divided into:

- **...sesamoidopedal ligaments** (ligamenta ...sesamoidopedalia) extend between the ... of the first phalanx and the proximopalmar ... of the coffin bone and the cartilages.
- **...dial chondrocoronal ligaments** (... chondrocoronalia medialis et lateralis) ... the coronal extremity of the cartilages to the ... and the collateral ligaments of the ...
- **...dial chondrosesamoidean collateral ligaments** (ligamenta chondrosesamoidea mediale et laterale) extend between the cartilages and the corresponding side of the navicular bone.
- **cruciate chondroungular ligaments** (ligamenta chondroungularia cruciata) extend between the axial aspect of the cartilages to the palmar end of the opposite angle of the distal phalanx and
- **chondropulvinal ligament** (ligamentum chondropulvinale) consists of fibres between the axial aspect of the cartilages and the digital cushion (Fig. 3.49 and 50).

Injection site

- **coffin joint**: the injection is performed in the weightbearing horse with a 2 cm needle, the needle is inserted into the dorsoproximal pouch 1 cm proximal to the coronary band and 1 cm medial or lateral to the midline, the needle is directed distal and toward midline.

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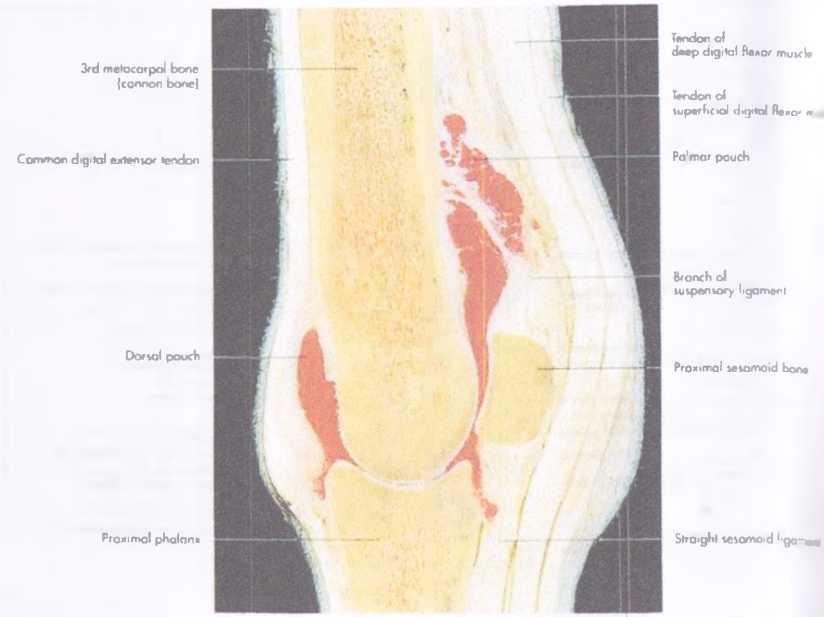


Fig. 3-51. Acrylic cast of the fetlock joint of a horse (paramedian section), courtesy of Dr. Astrid Stiglhuber, Vienna.

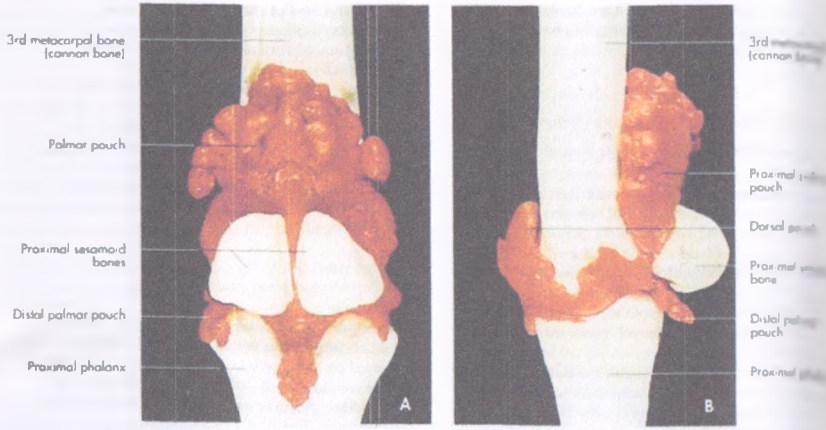


Fig. 3-52. Acrylic cast of the fetlock joint of a horse (A palmar and B lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. Astrid Stiglhuber, Vienna.

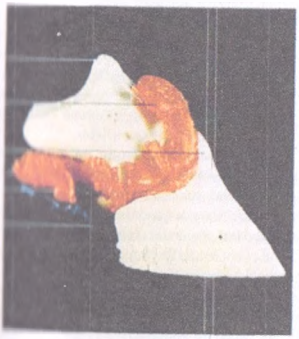
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...of the coffin joint of a horse (dorsal aspect), ... Sabine Breit, Vienna.



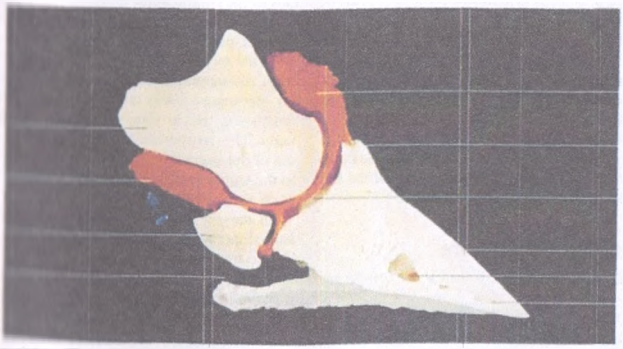
Fig. 3·54 Acrylic cast of the coffin joint of a horse (palmar aspect), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna



...coffin joint (red) and the navicular ... aspect); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine



Fig. 3·56. Acrylic cast of the coffin joint (red) and the navicular bursa (blue) of a horse (palmar aspect); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna



...coffin joint (red) and the navicular bursa (blue) of a horse (paramedian section), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine

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Muscles of the thoracic limb (musculi membri thoracici)

The reduction of the rays of the limb and the functional specialisation of the locomotor system in the different species are reflected in the musculature. Parts of the body which are essential for fast forward movement are heavily muscled, such as the gluteal area, whereas other regions of the limbs, which are submitted to stress and strain, are strengthened by tendinous structures.

The muscles of the thoracic limb comprise the **girdle** or **extrinsic musculature**, between the forelimb and the trunk and the **intrinsic musculature of the limb**, which bridges one or more joints of the same limb (Fig. 3-58 to 61).

The strong girdle muscles join the limb to the trunk **(syn-sarcosis)** without forming a conventional articular joint. They form a dynamic sling which suspends the body between the forelimbs in the standing animal and controls the swing of the limb during progression.

Deep fasciae of the thoracic limb

As in other parts of the body the musculature of the forelimb is supported by fasciae. The **deep fascia of the neck** (fascia cervicalis profunda) and the **deep fascia of the trunk** (fascia trunci profunda) extend onto the leg to form the deep fasciae of the thoracic limb. The fasciae ensheath the muscles of the thoracic limbs and are named after their position.

The deep fascia on the medial surface of the shoulder is called the **axillary fascia** (fascia axillaris). It runs over the medial musculature of the shoulder and under the broadest muscle of the back. It continues distally as the **brachial fascia** (fascia brachii) on the lateral surface of the brachium surrounding the deltoid, brachial, triceps and the biceps muscles. It extends intermuscular septa between those muscles and attaches to the scapula and the humerus.

The strong **antebrachial fascia** (fascia antebrachii) covers the extensor and flexor muscles of the elbow and digit in the forearm region. It is firmly fused to the periostium of the humerus and the olecranon and also to the collateral ligaments of the elbow joint and the accessory ligament of the deep digital flexor tendon. At the level of the carpus it becomes the fascia of the manus, which is divisible into a dorsal and palmar part.

The **dorsal deep fascia** (fascia dorsalis manus) contributes to the extensor retinaculum, which supports the extensor tendons. The **palmar deep fascia** (fascia palmaris manus) does the same for the flexor retinaculum, which bridges the flexor tendons on the palmar aspect of the carpus. In the horse the palmar deep fascia forms the annular ligament of the fetlock and other supportive structures of the fetlock.

Girdle or extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb

The muscles of the shoulder girdle originate on the neck, back and thoracic regions and attach to the scapula or humerus. They lie superficial to the intrinsic muscles of the cranial trunk and can be divided into a **superficial** and a **deep layer**.

Superficial layer of the extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb

The superficial layer of the girdle musculature joins the limb to the trunk and is responsible for coordinating the movements of the limb, trunk, head and neck (Fig. 3-58 and Table 3-5 and 6). The superficial layer consists of the following muscles:

- **trapezius muscle** (m. trapezius),
- **sternocleidomastoid muscle** (m. sternocleidomastoideus),
  - **sternocephalic muscle** (m. sternocephalicus),
  - **brachiocephalic muscle** (m. brachiocephalicus),
- **omotransverse muscle** (m. omotransversarius),
- **broadest muscle of the back** (m. latissimus dorsi),
- **superficial pectoral muscle** (m. pectoralis superficialis).

The **trapezius muscle** is a broad, thin triangular muscle that lies superficially and consists of a **cervical** (pars cervicalis) and a **thoracic portion** (pars thoracica), divided by a tendinous band. The cervical portion arises on the mid dorsal raphe of the neck and the thoracic portion on the supraspinous ligament and the dorsal spinous processes, extending from the third cervical vertebra to the ninth thoracic vertebra. Both portions end on the spine of the scapula, the thoracic part unites with the thoracolumbar fascia and the cervical part with the omotransverse muscle.

The **sternocleidomastoid muscle** can be divided into two parts, the **sternocephalic muscle**, which extends between the sternum and the head, and the **brachiocephalic muscle** between the humerus and the head. The latter can be further divided into the distal **cleidobrachial muscle** between the cutaneous clavicle and the humerus and the proximal **cleidocephalic muscle** between the clavicular intersection and the head. The attachment of the separate parts of this muscle varies among species, and the different units are named accordingly.

In carnivores the sternocephalic muscle has two parts, the **sternomastoid** and the **sterno-occipital muscle** (m. sternomastoideus and m. sternooccipitalis). Both arise from the manubrium of the sternum together with the like-named muscles of the contralateral limb and insert on the mastoid process of the temporal bone and the nuchal crest of the occipital bone, respectively (Fig. 3-62).

In the ox and goat the sternocephalic muscle has two parts, the **sternomastoid** and the **sternomandibular muscle** (m. sternomastoideus and m. sternomandibularis). The sternomastoid muscle shows the same attachment as in carnivores. The sternomandibular muscle arises from the manubrium of the sternum and the first rib, extends cranially close to the jugular groove and attaches to the mandible by means of an aponeurosis.

In the pig the sternocephalic muscle is a single muscle named **sterno-occipital muscle** (m. sterno-occipitalis) and similar to the same muscle in carnivores.

In the horse, the **sternomandibular muscle** (m. sternomandibularis) originates from the manubrium of the sternum, borders the trachea and the jugular groove ventrally and laterally and inserts with a thin tendon to the mandible (Fig. [illegible]).

The proximal portion of the **brachiocephalic muscle**, **cleidocephalic muscle**, passes from the clavicular inter-

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Brachiocephalic muscle, innervation by accessory nerve, cervical nerves and axillary nerve

Name and Origin	Insertion	Action
Cleidomastoid muscle Mastoid process of the temporal bone and nuchal crest	On the deltoid tuberosity, humeral crest, shoulder fascia as **cleidobrachialis muscle**	Draws neck and head down and backwards, when acting bilaterally, and when the shoulder is fixed, draws head, upper arm fascia and neck to one side
Cleido occipital muscle Occipital bone, nuchal ligament	On the humeral crest as **cleidobrachialis muscle**	See above
Cleidomastoid muscle Mastoid process, mandible		See above
Cleidocervical muscle Median line of nuchal ligament and occipital bone	Clavicular intersection as **cleidobrachialis muscle**	See above
Cleidomastoid muscle Mastoid process of the temporal bone		See above

ventral attachments on the head and neck. The **cleidomastoid muscle** exists in all domestic mammals; carnivores have an additional **cleidocervical muscle** (m. cleidocervicalis) and the pig, a **cleido-occipital muscle** (m. cleidooccipitalis).

The **cleidocervical muscle** is a superficial muscle which extends from the midline of the neck and unites with the brachiocephalic muscle (Fig. 3-62). The **cleidomastoid muscle** also extends between the temporal bone and unites also with the brachiocephalic muscle. It is fused to the splenius and longissimus of the head and omotransverse muscles. It forms the ventral border of the jugular groove and covers the craniolateral aspect of the shoulder joint.

The **cleidobrachial muscle** (m. cleidobrachialis) extends between the vestigial clavicle and the humeral crest, bridging the shoulder joint (Fig. 3-62).

The **omotransverse muscle** is a strong cord-like muscle between the wing of the atlas, the transverse process of the axis and the fascia covering the lateral aspect of the shoulder joint and the spine of the scapula (Fig. 3-62). Its ventral border is fused to the cervical part of the trapezius muscle and in the horse it unites with the cleidomastoid muscle (Fig. 3-66).

The flat, extended **broadest muscle of the back** has a broad origin from the thoracolumbar fascia and lies caudal to the scapula on the lateral aspect of the thorax and trunk (Fig. 3-58ff.). Its fibres are orientated in a craniоventral direc-

Sternocephalic muscle, innervation by ventral branch of accessory nerve

Name	Origin	Insertion	Action
Sternomandibular muscle	Manubrium	Neck facing border of the mandible	Flexor of head and neck when acting bilaterally, draws head and neck to the side when acting unilaterally, fixes the head during swallowing
Sternomandibular muscle	Manubrium and 1st rib	Rostral border of the masseter muscle, buccal fascia	See above
Sternomastoid muscle	Manubrium	Temporal bone	See above
Sterno-occipital muscle	Manubrium	Nuchal crest	See above
Sternomastoid muscle	Manubrium	Mastoid process	See above

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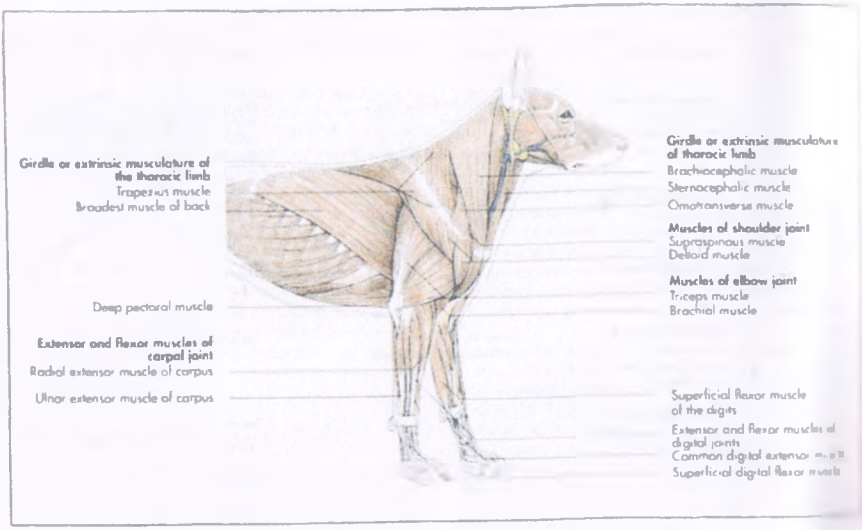


Fig. 3-58. Superficial layers of the extrinsic and intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb of the dog (schematic)

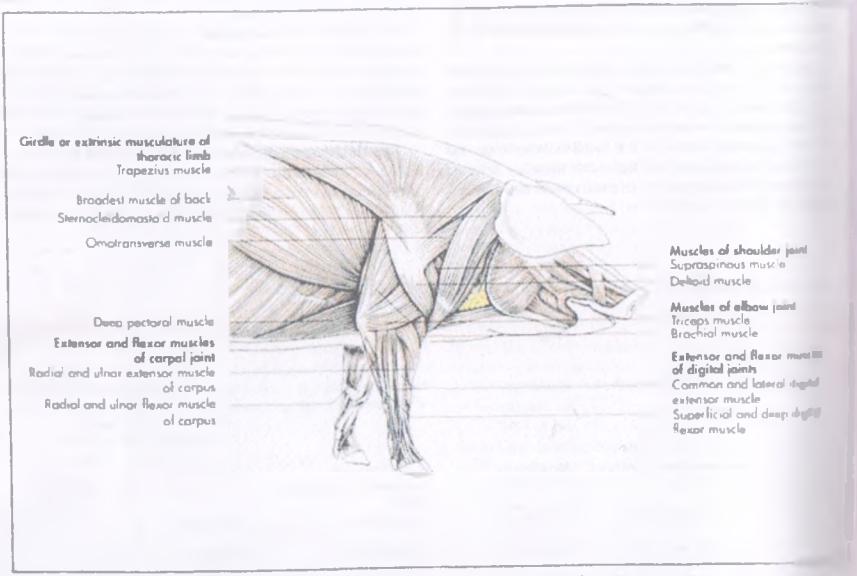
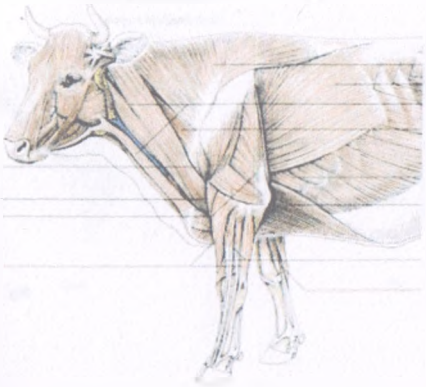


Fig. 3-59. Superficial layers of the extrinsic and intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb of the pig (schematic)

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Deltoid muscle
Biceps muscle
Ulnar extensor muscle of carpus

Girdle or extrinsic musculature of thoracic limb
Trapezius muscle
Broadest muscle of back
Sternocleidomastoid muscle
Omotransverse muscle
Ventral serrate muscle
Deep pectoral muscle

Extensor and flexor of digital joints
Common and lateral digital extensor muscle
Superficial and deep digital flexor muscle

...ayers of the extrinsic and intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb of the ox (schematic)



Deltoid muscle
Biceps muscle
Tensor muscle of antebrachial fascia
Ulnar extensor muscle of carpus
Ulnar flexor muscle of carpus
Common digital extensor tendon

Girdle or extrinsic musculature of thoracic limb
Trapezius muscle
Brachiocephalic muscle
Cervical portion of ventral serrate muscle
Sternocephalic muscle
Subclavian muscle
Supraspinous muscle
Broadest muscle of back
Thoracic portion of the ventral serrate muscle
Superficial pectoral muscle
Deep pectoral muscle

Flexor muscles of carpal joint
Ulnar flexor muscle of carpus
Radial flexor muscle of carpus

...layers of the extrinsic and intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb of the horse (schematic)

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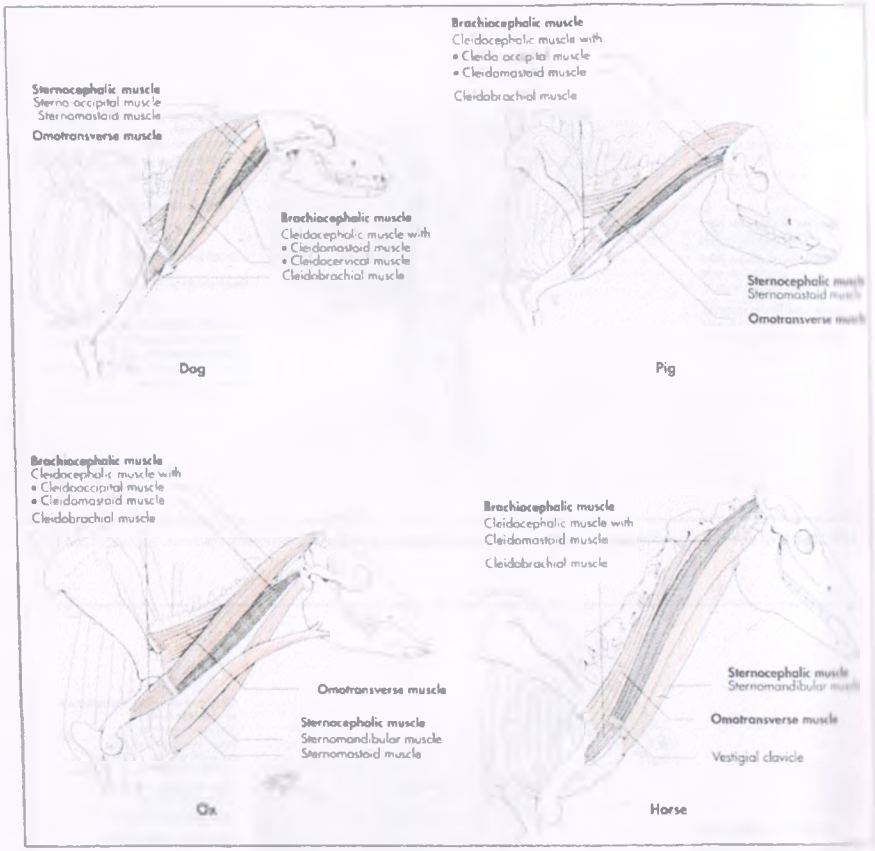


Fig. 3-62. Sternocleidomastoid muscle of the domestic mammals (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

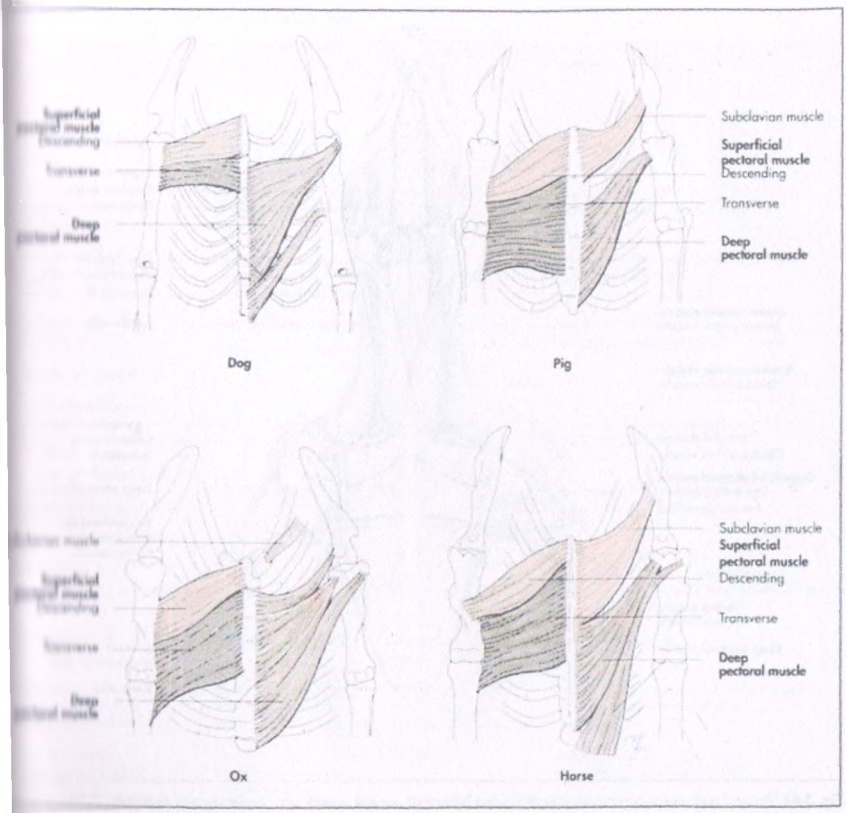
tion and converge towards its insertion on the major teres tubercle of the humerus.

In carnivores the broadest muscle of the back has additional attachments on the last thoracic vertebrae, the lumbar vertebrae and the ribs. Its craniоventral fibres pass under the triceps muscle of the forearm and end with an aponeurosis, which partly blends with the tendon of the teres major muscle to insert on the teres major tuberosity. Since it gives off a branch to the deep pectoral muscle it also attaches to the crest of the greater tubercle.

In the horse the broadest muscle of the back is a very strong muscle, which originates from the supraspinous ligament of the thoracic and lumbar vertebrae and from the thoracolumbar fascia. Its cranial border covers the caudal [illegible] and the cartilage of the scapula. Its tendon inserts [illegible] tensor muscle of the antibrachial fascia and the teres [illegible] muscle on the medial aspect of the proximal humerus.

The **superficial pectoral muscles** occupy the [illegible] tween the ventral part of the thoracic wall and the [illegible] part of the thoracic limb, forming the ventral aspect [illegible] axilla (Fig. 3-63 to 66). They comprise two muscle [illegible] **descending** (m. pectoralis descendens) and **transverse** [illegible] **toral muscle** (m. pectoralis transversus). The **descending pectoral muscle** originates from the manubrium of the [illegible] num and terminates on the crest of the greater tubercle [illegible] humerus. The transverse muscle arises caudal to the [illegible]

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Pectoral muscles of the domestic mammals (schematic); after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

from the ventral aspect of the sternum with the fascia of the forearm.

the narrow, band-shaped descending pecto- is hardly discernable from the thicker transverse . Both cover the biceps muscle of the forearm on the crest of the greater tubercle of the hu-

the descending pectoral muscle forms a dis- cranial to the sternum, which is visible un- in the living animal. It extends between the man- and the humeral crest. The **transverse** originates from the first six costal cartilages and blends with the fascia of the forearm on of the elbow.

Deep layer of the extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb

The deep layer of the girdle musculature of the thoracic limb provides the muscular suspension of the thorax between the limbs and plays a major role in the movement of the neck and limbs. It comprises:

- deep pectoral muscle (m. pectoralis profundus),
- subclavian muscle (m. subclavius),
- rhomboid muscle (m. rhomboideus) and
- ventral serrate muscle (m. serratus ventralis).

The **deep pectoral muscle** is a strong muscle which originates from the sternum, the xiphoid cartilage and the costal

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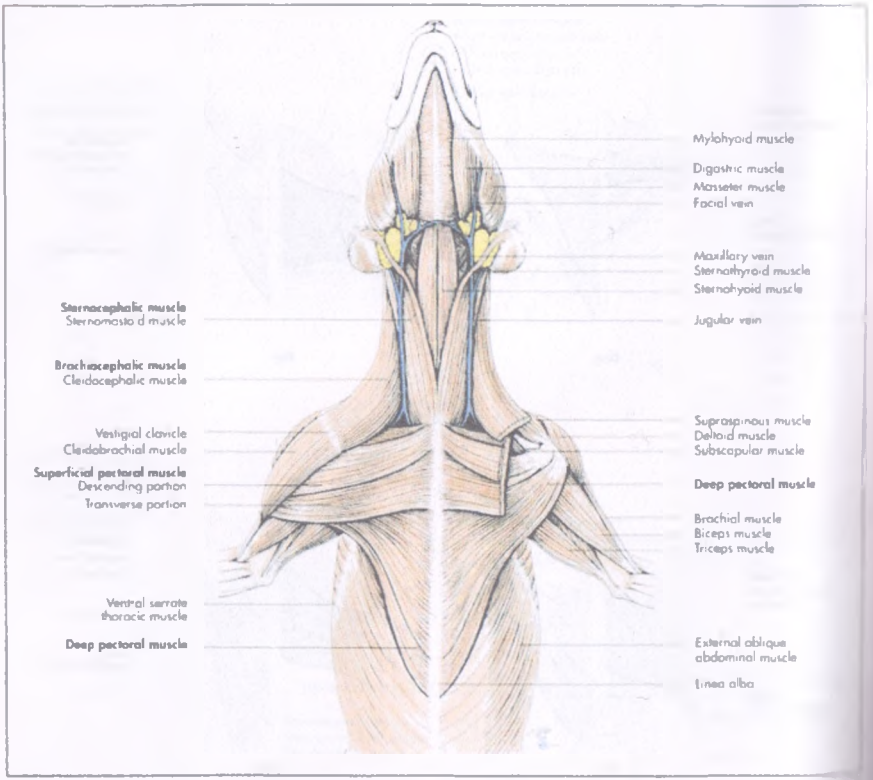


Fig. 3-64. Pectoral and ventral cervical muscles of the dog (schematic, ventral aspect), after Anderson and Anderson, 1994.

cartilages and inserts on the medial or lateral aspect of the proximal humerus (Fig. 3-63) in the different species.

In carnivores, it can be divided into a major deep portion and a minor superficial portion. Both portions arise from the sternum and the deep fascia of the trunk. Its fibres run craniolaterally and terminate on the minor tubercle on the medial side of the humerus deep to the transverse pectoral muscle. A lateral detachment joins the aponeurosis of the biceps muscle of the forearm to insert on the major tubercle. The superficial portion radiates into the medial fascia of the arm.

The deep pectoral muscle is the largest pectoral muscle in the horse and arises from the abdominal tunic, the lateral aspect of the sternum, the costal cartilages and the ribs. It inserts with two branches to the lesser and greater tubercles of the humerus and the supraglenoid tubercle of the scapula.

In ruminants the **subclavian muscle** is a narrow band which takes origin from the first costal cartilage and blends with the tendon of insertion of the **brachiocephalic** [illegible]. In the pig and horse it arises from the second to fourth [illegible] cartilage, passes over the shoulder joint and unites with [illegible] aponeurosis of the supraspinous muscle. The subclavian muscle is not present in carnivores (Fig. 3-63).

The **rhomboid muscle** lies deep to the trapezius [illegible] and inserts on the medial aspect of the dorsal part of the scapula. It has two parts, a **cervical part** (m. rhomboideus cervicalis), which originates from the spinous processes of the [illegible] vertebra, and a **thoracic part** (m. rhomboideus [illegible]), which originates from the spinous processes of the cranial thoracic vertebrae.

In carnivores a third part exists, the capital part (m. rhomboideus capitis), arising from the tendinous raphe of the [illegible]. In the horse, the cervical part of the rhomboid muscle takes origin from the nuchal ligament at the level of the [illegible] and unites with the trapezius muscle to insert on the medial [illegible]

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Tab. 3.1 Girdle or extrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Superficial layer of shoulder musculature:			
Trapezius muscle cranial branch of accessory nerve	Nuchal ligament, supraspinous ligament	Spine of scapula	Fixes of the shoulder, lifts, abducts and draws limb forward
Brachiocephalic muscle accessory nerve	Wing of atlas or transverse process of 2nd cervical vertebra	Distal end of spine of scapula	Draws neck downward and sideward, draws scapula forward
Latissimus muscle of the back thoracodorsal nerve	Thoracolumbar fascia	Major teres tuberosity of the humerus	Draws limb backward, antagonist to the brachiocephalic muscle
Superficial pectoral muscle with			
Descendens superficial pectoral muscle cranial and caudal thoracic nerves	Sternum from 1st – 6th rib cartilage	Lower arm fascia	Draws limb forward and backward, draws trunk sideward
Transversus superficial pectoral muscle cranial and caudal thoracic nerves	Manubrium sterni	Humeral crest	See above
Deep layer of shoulder musculature:			
Deep pectoral muscle cranial and caudal thoracic nerves	Sternum from 4th rib cartilage	Lesser tubercle of humerus	Draws limb backward, supports the trunk and moves trunk cranially over advanced limb, extensor of the shoulder joint
Subclavian muscle subclavian nerve	1st – 4th rib cartilage	Epimysium of supraspinous	Fixes of the scapula
Rhomboid muscle cranial dorsal branches of cranial and thoracic nerves	Nuchal ligament from 2nd – 6th cervical to the 7th thoracic vertebra	Medial surface of the base of scapula and shoulderblade cartilage	Draws limb forward and fixes scapula against the trunk, elevates limb and neck
Serrate ventral muscle cranial dorsal branches of cranial and thoracic nerves, long thoracic nerve	1st – 7th rib and transverse processes of cervical vertebrae	Serrate surface	Supports the trunk, carries scapula and trunk backward and forward

cartilage of the scapula (Fig. 2-91. The rhomboid forms the withers region of the animal.

The **ventral serrate muscle** constitutes the most important of the muscular suspension of the thorax between the scapula. It is a large fan-shaped muscle and can be divided into a **cranial cervical part** (m. serratus ventralis cervicis) and a **caudal thoracic part** (m. serratus ventralis thoracis). The cervical part takes an extensive origin from the transverse processes of the cervical vertebrae and the thoracic portion the first seven ribs. The muscle bellies are very and have numerous tendinous intersections. The muscle converge to insert on the medial aspect of the scapular base and the scapular cartilage (Fig. 2-91).

Intrinsic musculature of the thoracic limb

The intrinsic muscles of the forelimb are responsible for the movements of the separate parts of the limb, together with the joints and ligaments. Their major function is extension and flexion of the joints, but abduction, adduction and rotation are also possible, depending on the structure of the joint which they influence. They can be divided into:

- muscles of the shoulder joint,
- muscles of the elbow joint,
- muscles of the radioulnar joints,
- muscles of the carpal joints and
- muscles of the digits.

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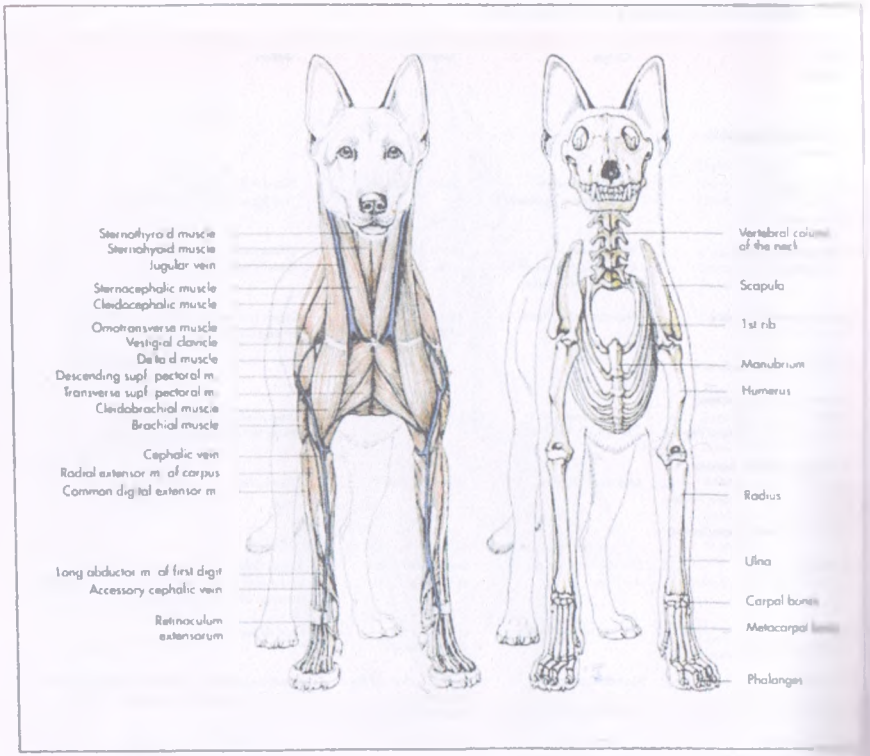


Fig. 3-65. Superficial cervical, thoracic and intrinsic musculature of the shoulder and skeleton of the dog (schematic, frontal aspect).

Muscles of the shoulder joint

The muscles of the shoulder joint take their origin from the scapula and end on the humerus. They either flex or extend or act as ligaments to brace this hinge joint (Table. 3-8). The muscles can be grouped by their location.

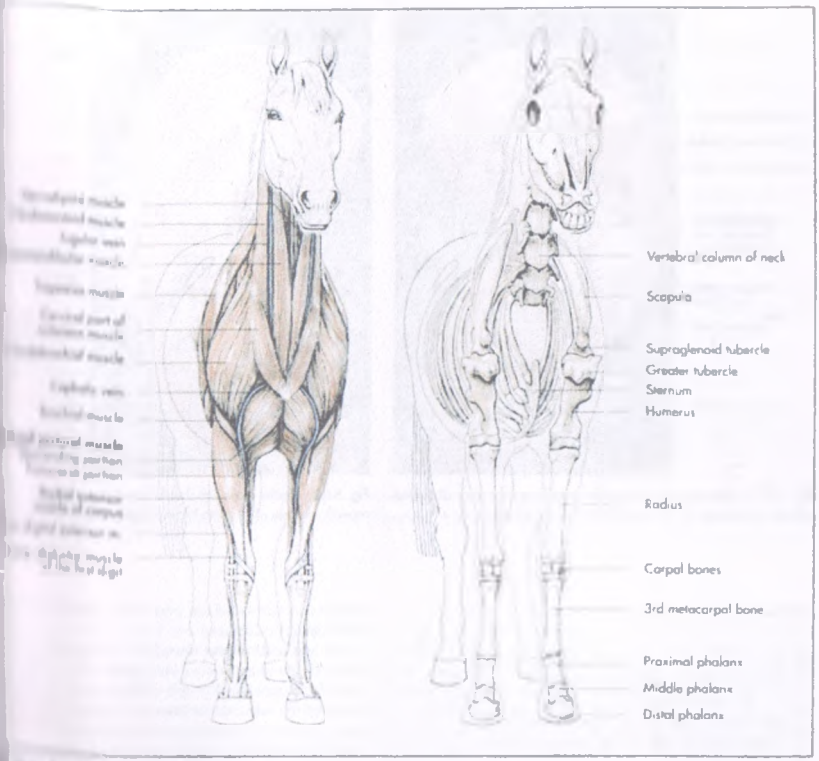
Lateral shoulder muscles

- Supraspinous muscle (m. supraspinatus)
- Infraspinous muscle (m. infraspinatus)
- Deltoid muscle (m. deltoideus)
- Minor teres muscle (m. teres minor)

The supraspinous muscle arises from and fills the supraspinous fossa of the scapula, beyond which it extends cranially (Fig. 3-67, 69 and 72). Distally it curves over the extensor side of the shoulder joint and terminates with one strong tendon on the greater tubercle of the humerus in carnivores and with tendons on the lesser and greater tubercles in the other domestic mammals. Between the two tendons runs the tendon of origin of the biceps muscle of the forearm in the intertubercular groove. The muscle partly blends with the joint capsule of the shoulder joint. The supraspinous muscle extends and flexes the shoulder joint.

The infraspinous muscle lies in the infraspinous fossa and extends caudally beyond it. It arises from the fossa and the scapular spine and passes over the lateral aspect of the shoulder joint, where it becomes a strong tendon (Fig. 67 and 72). In carnivores it terminates with one tendon on the greater tubercle, where a **synovial bursa** is interposed between the site of insertion and the bone (bursa subtendinea musculi infraspinati). In ruminants and the horse the infraspinous muscle splits into a deep part, which inserts on the greater tubercle of the humerus, and a stronger superficial part, which inserts on the greater tubercle on the lateral aspect of the humerus.

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...thoracic and intrinsic musculature of the shoulder and skeleton of the horse (schematic, frontal aspect)

...of insertion pass over a synovial bursa. ...only the superficial tendon has one. In the ...muscle is a strong, tendinous muscle ...aponeurosis of the deltoid muscle. The bursa ...the superficial part of the tendon of inser... ...is injected on the cranial border of this ...

...muscle functions as a lateral collateral ...shoulder joint and supports either flexion or ...depending on the position of the joint. ...and rotator and abductor of the shoulder ...carnivores.

...is a flat muscle, which lies directly ...) and 721) and extends between the ...tuberosity of the humerus.

...in the horse and pig, arising from ...seams of an aponeurosis. In rumi... ...two heads, arising from the spine of the scapula with an aponeurosis (pars scapularis) and from the acromion (pars acromialis). Both insert on the deltoid tuberosity of the humerus after passing over the caudolateral aspect of the shoulder joint.

In the horse the aponeurosis of the deltoid muscle is partly fused to the infraspinous muscle. The deltoid muscle is a flexor of the shoulder joint and supports abduction and rotation, especially in carnivores.

The **minor teres muscle** is a round muscle in carnivores and triangular shaped in the other domestic mammals. It lies deep to the deltoid muscle on the caudolateral aspect of the shoulder (Fig. 3-69 and 711). It originates from the distal third of the caudal margin of the scapula and crosses over the flexor side of the shoulder joint to insert on the teres minor tuberosity. In the cat it is covered by the infraspinous muscle and the triceps muscle of the forearm and takes its origin from the caudal margin of the scapula and the infraglenoid tubercle. The teres minor muscle flexes the shoulder joint.

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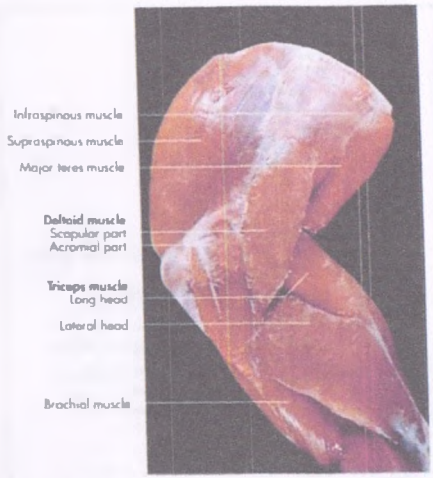


Fig. 3-67. Muscles of the left shoulder and elbow joint of a cat (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. Jutta Klawitter-Pommer, Munich.

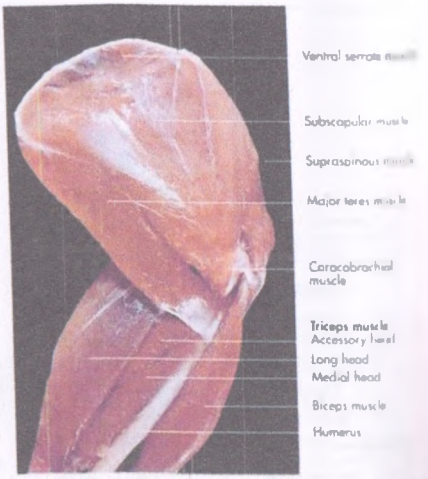


Fig. 3-68. Muscles of the left shoulder and elbow joint of a cat (medial aspect); courtesy of Dr. Jutta Klawitter-Pommer, Munich.

Medial shoulder muscles

- Major teres muscle (m. teres major)
- Articular muscle of the shoulder joint (m. articularis humeri)
- Subscapular muscle (m. subscapularis)
- Coracobrachial muscle (m. coracobrachialis)

The **major teres muscle** is a long, flat muscle which arises from the caudal angle and margin of the scapula, passes over the flexor side of the shoulder joint and terminates on the teres major tuberosity (Fig. 3-67, 68, 69 and 72). In the cat it is relatively stronger than in the dog, due to its fusion with the tendon of insertion of the broadest muscle of the back. It is a flexor of the shoulder joint and supports adduction of the limb.

The **articular muscle of the shoulder joint** is a small muscle which is present in the horse, inconsistantly present in the pig and lacking in the rest of the domestic mammals. It lies on the flexor surface of the shoulder joint directly adjacent to the joint capsule. It extends between the distal scapula and the proximal humerus. The articular muscle of the shoulder joint tenses the joint capsule.

The **subscapular muscle** is a flat extensive muscle which occupies the like-named fossa, beyond which it extends cranially and caudally (Fig. 3-69). It arises from the fossa, crosses the shoulder joint on the medial aspect and inserts, deep to the coracobrachial muscle, on the lesser tubercle of the humerus. It is divided into several portions by tendinous bands. It functions as a medial collateral ligament of the shoulder joint. It primarily acts as an extensor of the joint, but it can also contribute to maintaining flexion.

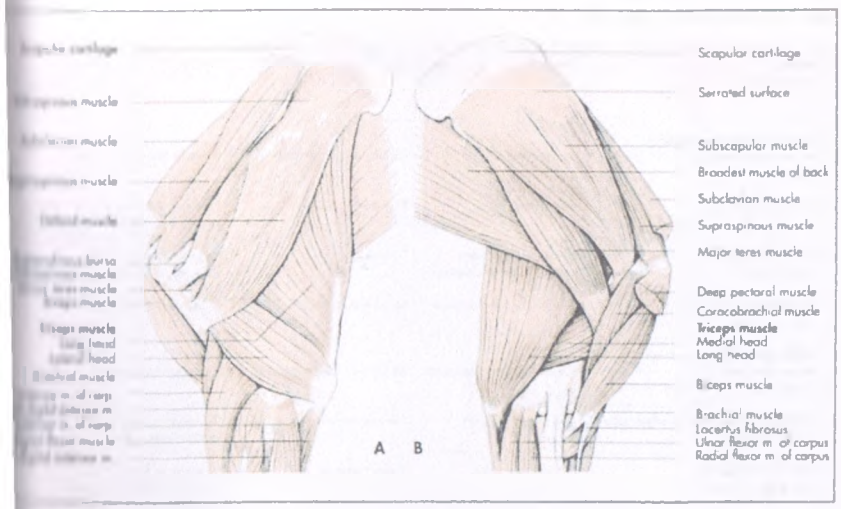
The **coracobrachial muscle** is a flat muscle which arises on the coracoid process of the scapula (Fig. 3-68, 69, 76 and 77). Its tendon of origin emerges between the supraspinous and the subscapular muscles, where it is protected by a synovial bursa. It extends caudodistally over the medial aspect of the shoulder joint and ends on the teres major tuberosity of the humerus as well as further distal on the medial aspect of the humeral shaft. It adducts the arm and rotates the shoulder joint outward.

Muscles of the elbow joint

The muscles of this group arise either from the scapula or the humerus and insert on the proximal part of the ulna or radius. They either bridge both the shoulder and the elbow joint or only the elbow joint. They are primarily responsible for flexion or extension of the elbow joint, but also stabilize the limb during the stance phase of locomotion. The muscles of the elbow joint comprise:

- brachial muscle (m. brachialis),
- biceps muscle of the forearm (m. biceps brachii),
- triceps muscle of the forearm (m. triceps brachii),
- anconeus muscle (m. anconeus) and
- tensor muscle of the antebrachial fascia (m. tensor fasciae antebrachii).

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... of the left shoulder and elbow joint of the horse (schematic, A lateral and B medial aspect).

... the caudal surface of the proximal humerus, ... the humeral neck the **brachial muscle** winds ... surface in the spiral groove of the humerus, ... the medial side, where it inserts on the radi... tuberosities (Fig. 3-67, 69, 71 and 72). In the ... muscle ends with one tendon on the medi... the radius, just distal to the biceps muscle of the ... branch passes under the medial collateral ... on the interosseous membrane of the elbow ... muscle acts as a flexor of the elbow joint.

... **of the forearm** is a strong biarticular ... the shoulder and the elbow joint. In contrast to ... possesses one tendon of origin in domestic ... which it begins on the supraglenoid tubercle of ... (Fig. 3-68). It passes over the extensor side of the ... through the intertuberal groove and runs distally ... cranial aspect of the humerus.

... the elbow joint the muscle splits into two ... that two inserts on the radial tuberosity ... proximal ulna. Some fibres (**lacertus fibro...** ... distally to radiate into the extensor carpi ra... fascia of the forearm.

... the biceps muscle of the forearm invaginates ... shoulder joint cranially, thus forming a syn... the region of the intertuberal groove. A **trans...** (transversum humeri) between the ... tubercles holds the muscle in place ... one tendon inserts at the medial coro... and the other tendon, which is weak... tuberosity.

In ruminants an **intertuberal bursa** (bursa intertubercularis) is interposed between the tendon of origin of the biceps muscle and the intertuberal groove. Its two tendons of insertion terminate on the radial tuberosity, the medial collateral ligament and the cranial aspect of the proximal radius.

In the horse it is a strong muscle with several tendinous intersections. Its passage through the intertuberal groove is facilitated by the large **bicipital bursa** (bursa intertubercularis). This bursa is about 10 cm long and extends beyond the borders of the biceps muscles. It is flanked by the supraspinous and the deep pectoral muscle. Synoviocentesis can be performed by inserting a needle at the level of the deltoid tuberosity at the border of the biceps tendon in a proximal direction.

The muscle is divided distally in a lateral and medial portion. The medial portion terminates on the radial tuberosity, the lateral portion inserts on the proximal end of the radius and ulna. It also detaches fibres (**lacertus fibrosus**) to the fascia of the forearm and the radial extensor muscle of the carpus (Fig. 3-69 and 87). A synovial bursa can be present on the proximal part of the radius, below the lateral tendon of insertion. The biceps muscle of the forearm flexes the elbow joint and extends the shoulder joint. It also stabilises the shoulder joint during standing or the stance phase of locomotion, which is especially important in the horse.

The **triceps muscle of the forearm** fills the triangle between the caudal border of the scapula, the humerus and the olecranon (Fig. 3-67 to 69, 72, 74, 80, 82 and 83). Its caudal border (margo tricipitalis) extends from the olecranon into the direction of the withers and is clearly visible under the skin in the live animal.

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Tab. 3-8. Muscles of the shoulder joint

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Lateral shoulder musculature: **Supraspinous muscle** Suprascapular nerve	Supraspinous fossa	Greater and lesser tubercle	Extensor of shoulder joint
Infraspinous muscle Suprascapular nerve	Infraspinous fossa	Proximal on humerus	Flexor of shoulder joint, its tendon functions as a lateral collateral ligament
Deltoid muscle Axillary nerve	Spine of scapula and caudal border of scapular	Deltoid tuberosity	Flexor of shoulder joint abductor of the upper arm
Minor teres muscle Axillary nerve	Caudal border of scapula	Minor teres tuberosity	Flexor of shoulder joint
Medial shoulder musculature: **Major teres muscle** Axillary nerve	Caudal border of scapula	Major teres tuberosity	Flexor of shoulder joint
Articular muscle of the shoulder joint Axillary nerve	Rim of glenoid cavity	Neck of humerus	Tensor of the joint capsule of the shoulder joint
Subscapular muscle Subscapular nerves	Subscapular fossa	Lesser tubercule	Extensor or flexor of shoulder joint, its tendon functions as a medial collateral ligament
Coracobrachial muscle Musculocutaneous nerve	Coracoid process	Medial surface of humerus	Draws the upper arm inward and extends

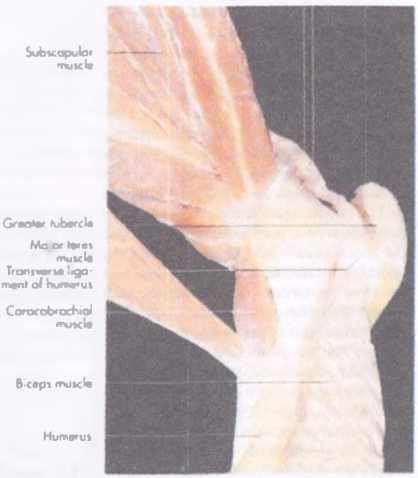


Fig. 3-70. Muscles of the left shoulder joint of a dog (medial aspect)

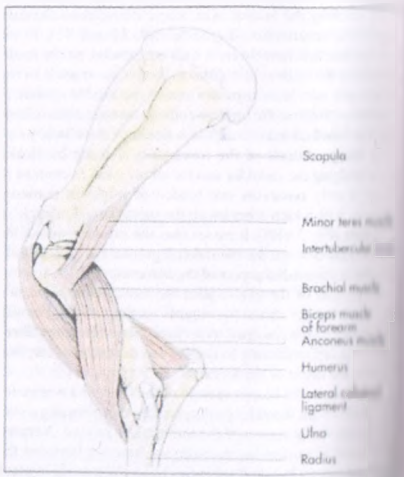


Fig. 3-71. Muscles of the shoulder and elbow joint of the [illegible] layer (schematic, left lateral aspect); after Ellenberger and [illegible] 1943

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Muscles of the elbow joint.

	Origin	Insertion	Action
	Caudal on neck of humerus	Medial on radius and ulna	Flexor of elbow joint
	Supraglenoid tubercle	Radial tuberosity	Flexor of elbow joint extensor of shoulder joint stabiliser of the shoulder and carpal joint
			Stabiliser of the elbow joint extensor of shoulder joint when limb is elevated
	Caudal border of scapula	Olecranon	Extensor of elbow and flexor of shoulder joint
	Lateral on humerus	Olecranon	Extensor of elbow joint
	Medial on humerus	Olecranon	Extensor of elbow joint
	Distal on humerus olecranal fossa	Lateral on olecranon	Extensor of elbow joint
	Caudal border of scapula	Antebrachial fascia	Tensor of antebrachial fascia, extensor of elbow joint

muscle of the forearm possesses three heads of a long, a lateral and a medial head, and in the dog, an accessory head. The **long head** (caput longum) the caudal margin of the scapula, the **lateral** (caput laterale) from the lateral aspect of the shaft of and the **medial head** (caput mediale) from the medial to the shaft of the humerus. In the dog the **accessory** (caput accessorius) takes its origin from the caudal part of the humerus and blends with the long and lateral The triceps muscle is a powerful muscle with the long being the largest and longest of the three heads, the medial head the smallest. The lateral head is a strong muscle, which originates from the deltoid tuberosity, the fascia of the arm and the tricipital ligament extends from the deltoid tuberosity to the neck of It blends with the long head and inserts on the of the olecranon. The medial head arises close and ends on the medial aspect of the In the dog all heads terminate with a common tendon on the olecranon. A **synovial bursa** (bursa subtendinea musculi brachii) is interposed between the tendon and the olecranon.

The triceps brachii flexes and stabilises the elbow joint. The long head of the triceps brachii muscle spans two joints: it flexes of the shoulder joint during the swing and as an extensor of the elbow joint.

The **anconeus muscle** is a short, but strong muscle, situated deep to the triceps muscle of the forearm on the caudal aspect of the distal end of the humerus (Fig. 3-71 and 83). It arises from the distal surfaces of the humerus and the humeral epicondyles, bridges the olecranon fossa and inserts on the lateral aspect of the olecranon. It blends with the lateral head of the triceps muscle in the horse and ox, but remains a separate muscle in the rest of the domestic mammals. The anconeus muscle extends the elbow joint.

The **tensor muscle of the antebrachial fascia** is a flat muscle, which lies on the medial surface of the triceps muscle (Fig. 3-74). The origin consists of a broad aponeurosis from the broadest muscle of the back (carnivores) and the caudal border of the scapula (ruminants and horse) and radiates into the fascia of the forearm. It is the chief tensor of this fascia and acts as an extensor of the elbow joint.

Muscles of the radioulnar joints

The primary function of the muscles of the radioulnar joints are supination and pronation. They are well developed and functional only in carnivores. In other domestic animals they are vestigial or missing due to the reduced or lost capability for these movements (Fig. 3-76 and 77). In carnivores they can be divided into:

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Fig. 3-72. Muscles of the antebrachium (lateral aspect, proximal portion); courtesy of Andrea Kollensperger, Munich.



Fig. 3-73. Muscles of the antebrachium (lateral aspect, distal portion), courtesy of Andrea Kollensperger, Munich.

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[illegible] of the antebrachium (medial aspect, proximal portion), courtesy of Andrea Köllensperger, Munich



[illegible] of the antebrachium (medial aspect, distal portion), courtesy of Andrea Köllensperger, Munich

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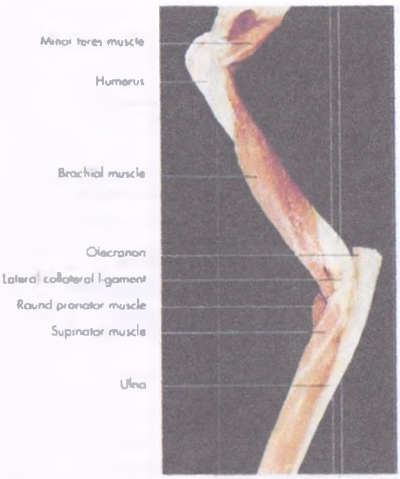


Fig. 3-76. Muscles of the shoulder and elbow joint of a cat (deep layer, lateral aspect), courtesy Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

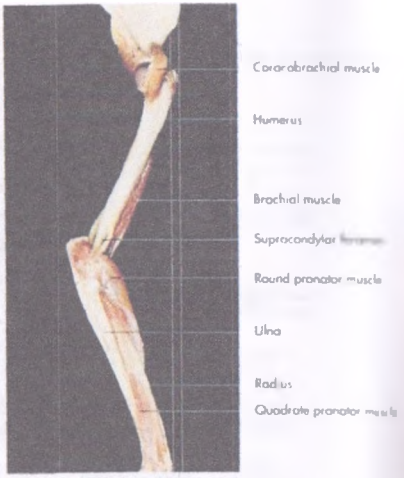


Fig. 3-77. Muscles of the shoulder and elbow joint of a cat (deep layer, medial aspect), courtesy Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

supinators of the forearm
- brachioradial muscle (m. brachioradialis),
- supinator muscle (m. supinator),

pronators of the forearm
- round pronator muscle (m. pronator teres),
- quadrate pronator muscle (m. pronator quadratus).

The **brachioradial muscle** is a thin, flat muscle which extends from the lateral supracondylar crest over the flexor side of the elbow joint, superficial to the radial extensor muscle of the carpus to the radial styloid process (Fig. 3-73, 78 and 80).

The **supinator muscle** (Fig. 3-76) is present in carnivores and the pig. It is a flat muscle which lies on the flexor side of the elbow joint directly on the joint capsule, covered by the radial extensor muscle of the carpus and the common digital extensor muscle. It arises from the lateral epicondyle of the humerus, spirals mediodistally and inserts on the medial aspect of the radius.

The **round pronator muscle** is consistently present in carnivores (Fig. 3-76, 77 and 81), but inconsistant in ruminants and the pig. In the horse it is reduced to a small band. It extends between the medial epicondyle of the humerus and the craniomedial side of the radius.

The **quadrate pronator muscle** is found only in carnivores. It bridges the medial aspect of the interosseous space of the forearm. Its fibres pass from the caudal and medial aspect of the shaft of the radius to the medial aspect of the ulna (Fig. 3-77).

Muscles of the carpal joint

The muscles of the carpal joint have long extended muscle [illegible] lies and cover the antebrachial skeleton. They are [illegible] arising proximal to the elbow joint from the humerus and [illegible] ing distal to the carpal joint to the carpus or metacarpus. [illegible] the reduced range of movement of the carpal joints in the [illegible] te mammals, these muscle act as either flexors or extensors.

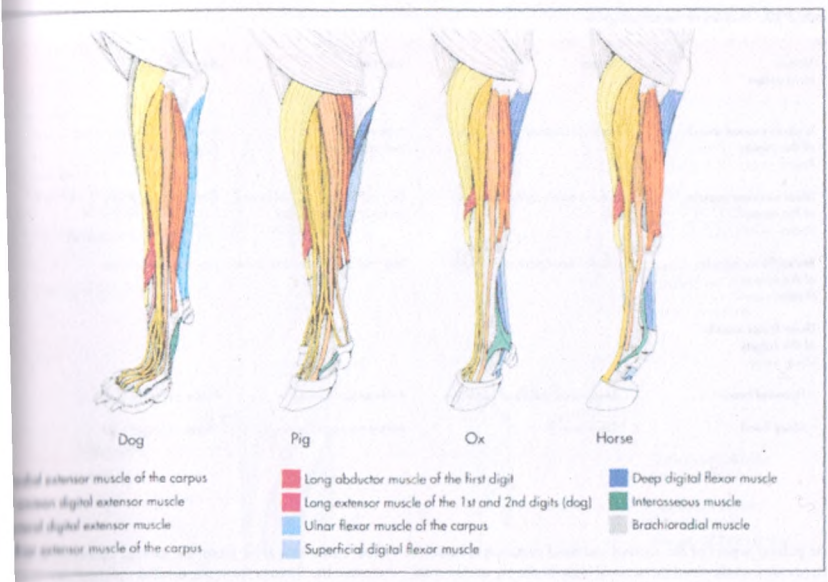
The **extensor muscles of the carpal joint and digits** [illegible] located on the craniodorsolateral side, whereas the flexors are situated on the caudal (palmar) side (Fig. 3-78). They [illegible] covered by the antebrachial fascia. The extensors of the [illegible] pus and digits arise from the lateral epicondyle of the [illegible] the flexors from the medial epicondyle.

The **muscles of the carpus** comprise the (Fig. [illegible] 80ff., 85ff. and Tab. 3-10):

- radial extensor muscle of the carpus (m. extensor carpi radialis),
- ulnar extensor muscle of the carpus (m. extensor carpi ulnaris),
- radial flexor muscle of the carpus (m. flexor carpi radialis) and
- ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus (m. flexor carpi ulnaris).

The **radial extensor muscle of the carpus** is the [illegible] the extensor muscles of the carpal joints. It arises [illegible] lateral humeral epicondyle and the lateral epicondylar [illegible] and is situated directly cranial to the subcutaneous [illegible]

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Muscles of the antebrachium (schematic, lateral aspect); after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

It inserts on the proximal extremity of the second metacarpal bones.

The muscle splits into two muscle bellies, a long portion, which form two flat tendons at the middle [illegible]. The long portion (m. extensor carpi radialis longus) on the proximal end of the second metacarpal bone, the short portion (m. extensor carpi radialis brevis) lies [illegible] long portion and attaches to the third metacarpal bone. Thus, the muscle belly of the radial extensor muscle lies medial to the common digital extensor muscle. [illegible] two tendons of insertion at the distal third of the forearm. Both tendons cross the middle groove of the radius [illegible] side of the carpus to insert separately on the [illegible] metacarpal bones (Fig. 78, 80 and 81).

The tendon of insertion is enclosed by a synovial sheath [illegible] the middle of the radius to the carpal joints [illegible] of insertion on the distal carpal bones or on the proximal end of the metacarpal bone(s) (Fig. 3-38ff.). In [illegible] tendon is joined by the **lacertus fibrosus**, a [illegible] of the biceps muscle of the forearm (Fig. 3-86). [illegible] the middle groove of the carpus, adherent to [illegible] and inserts on the proximal tuberosity of the [illegible] bone, where a synovial bursa is interposed. [illegible] muscle of the carpus extends and fixes [illegible] and flexes the elbow joint (Fig. 3-78, 79, 85

[illegible] **muscle of the carpus** lies on the caudal [illegible] forearm. It extends between the lateral epicondyle of the humerus and the lateral carpal and metacarpal bones, depending on the species (Fig. 3-78, 79, 80, 81, 83 and 85).

In carnivores it arises caudal to the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow from the lateral humeral epicondyle, passes laterally over the carpus and ends on the proximal end of the fifth metacarpal bone. By means of fibres from the antebrachial fascia arising from the accessory carpal bone, the tendon of insertion takes over the function of the missing lateral collateral ligament of the carpus. Two weak bands are detached to blend with the extensor and the flexor retinaculum.

In ruminants and in the horse the terminal tendon is split into a main portion, which attaches to the accessory carpal bone, and a weaker portion for the fifth metacarpal bone in ruminants and for the lateral splint bone in the horse (Fig. 3-38l).

In carnivores the ulnar extensor muscle flexes the carpus, when it is already in a flexed position and supports extension, when already in an extended position due to the anatomical insertion, which is close to the axis of the joint. It also abducts the forearm.

In the other domestic mammals it acts as a flexor of the carpal joints, since the insertion is shifted caudal to the axis of the carpus onto the accessory carpal bone.

The **radial flexor muscle of the carpus** lies on the medial side of the forearm, caudal to the border of the radius, directly under the skin (Fig. 3-75, 82 and 87). It arises from the medial epicondyle of the humerus, passes over the flexor side of the carpus, where it is enclosed in a synovial sheath, and inserts on

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Tab. 3-10. Muscles of the carpal joint

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Radial extensor muscle of the carpus Radial nerve	Lateral epicondyle of humerus	Proximal on 3rd metacarpal bone	Extensor and flexor of carpal joint
Ulnar extensor muscle of the carpus Radial nerve	Lateral epicondyle of humerus	5th and 4th metacarpal bones, accessory carpal bone	Flexor of carpal joint
Radial flexor muscle of the carpus Median nerve	Medial epicondyle of humerus	2nd and 3rd metacarpal bones	Flexor of carpal joint
Ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus Ulnar nerve			
– Humeral head	Medial epicondyle of humerus	Accessory carpal bone	Flexor of carpal joint
– Ulnar head	Olecranon	Accessory carpal bone	Flexor of carpal joint

the palmar aspect of the second and third metacarpal bones in carnivores, on the third metacarpal bone in the pig and in ruminants and on the second metacarpal bone in the horse (Fig. 3-79, 82, 83, 87 and 88). It is a flexor of the carpal joints.

The **ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus** lies on the mediocaudal side of the forearm, superficial to the flexor muscles of the digit. It is marked by several tendinous intersections. It arises by two heads, with the stronger **humeral head** (caput humerale) from the medial epicondyle of the humerus and with the smaller **ulnar head** (caput ulnare) from the olecranon (Fig. 3-78 to 80). Both portions end with a common tendon of insertion on the accessory carpal bone. In the horse a synovial bursa can be found under the humeral head, which communicates with the elbow joint and extends under the deep digital flexor tendon. The flexor carpi ulnaris is a flexor of the carpus and in carnivores it is a supinator of the limb.

Muscles of the digits

The muscles of the digits are strong tendinous muscles, which cover the antebrachial skeleton and span several joints. They arise proximal to the elbow joint from the humerus or the forearm and run with long tendons over the carpus to insert on different parts of the digits.

The species-specific evolution of the limbs resulted in a limited range of movement of the phalanges. In the domestic mammals most of the phalangeal joints are uniaxial hinge joints, a few are biaxial saddle joints, with the major movement being extension and flexion and allowing a very limited degree of abduction and adduction. The **extensor muscles** of the digits are located on the **craniodorsolateral** side of the antebrachium, whereas the **flexor muscles** are found on the **caudal (palmar)** side, covered by the antebrachial fascia.

The **extensors** arise from the **lateral epicondyle** of the humerus, the **flexors** from the **medial epicondyle**.

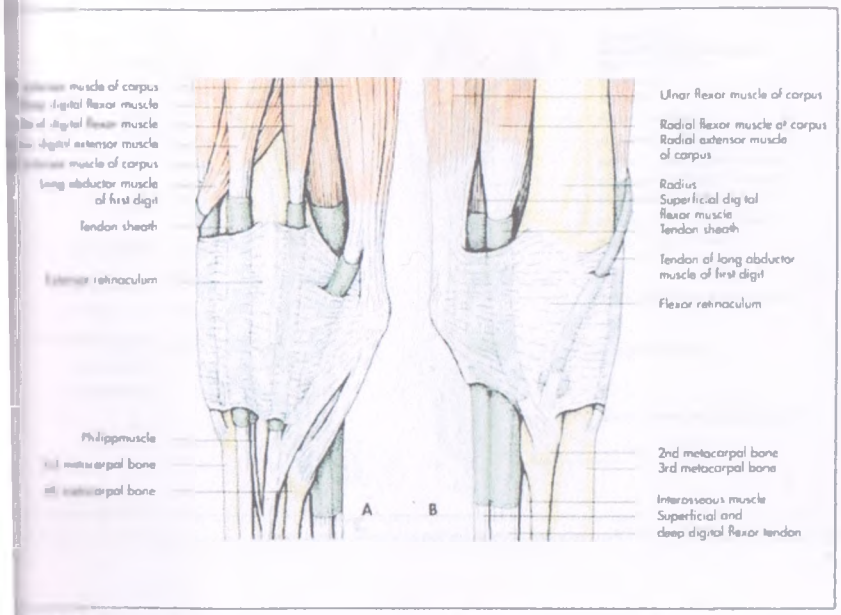
extensors
- common digital extensor muscle (m. extensor digitorum communis),
- lateral digital extensor muscle (m. extensor digitorum lateralis),
- long abductor muscle of the first digit (m. abductor pollicis longus) muscle and
- extensor muscle of the first and second digit (m. extensor digiti I et II).

The **common digital extensor muscle** is a strong muscle [illegible] several tendinous intersections, which lies lateral to the [illegible] extensor muscle of the carpus (Fig. 3-69, 73, 78ff and 3[illegible]), arises with several poorly defined heads (four in carnivores, three in pigs, two in ruminants and one in the horse) from the lateral epicondyle of the humerus, the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow joint, the radius and the ulna. It ends with a long tendon of insertion on the extensor process of the distal phalanx of each functional digit (Fig. 3-69, 80, 81 and [illegible]). Therefore the tendon of insertion is split according to the number of functional digits in the different species and is [illegible] branched in the horse.

In carnivores, the common digital extensor muscle originates from the lateral humeral epicondyle. It also originates together with the extensor carpi radialis muscle, from the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow joint.

The muscle belly divides into four tendons distally which run, enclosed in a common synovial sheath and covered by the extensor retinaculum, over the dorsolateral side of the carpus (Fig. 3-81).

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...and their synovial sheaths of the left carpus of the horse (schematic, A dorsal and B medial aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum,

...tendons separate when passing over the ... of the corresponding metacarpal bones and ter... the distal phalanx of the four main digits. In the ... insert on the middle phalanx. Thin tendinous ... from the interosseous muscles fuse bilaterally ... The tendons of the lateral digital extensor ... tendons of the common digital extensor mus... ... of the proximal phalanx on the third, fourth and ...

... digital extensor muscle of the pig is divided ... The medial portion is the strongest and ends ... phalanx of the third digit. The tendon of the ... into two branches for the insertion to the ... of the third and fourth digits. The tendons of in... ... small branches to the second and fifth digits.

... the common digital extensor muscle con... bellies, which continue distally as two sep... The lateral belly arises with a superficial head ... epicondyle of the humerus and with a deep ... Both heads converge and run over the dor... of the carpus. The resultant tendon splits into ... at the level of the metacarpophalangeal ... on the extensor process of the distal phalanx ... fourth digits (Fig. 3-84). The medial belly also originates from the lateral epicondyle of the humerus, and terminates with one tendon of insertion on the dorsomedial aspect of the second phalanx of the third digit, reinforced by abaxial and axial branches of the interosseous muscle.

In the horse, the common digital extensor muscle is marked by several strong tendinous intersections and lies deep to the extensor carpi radialis and the lateral digital extensor muscle (Fig. 3-85 and 86). It originates proximal to the lateral humeral condyle between the radial fossa and the lateral epicondyle of the humerus, from the lateral tuberosity of the proximal extremity of the radius and the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow. The strong tendon passes distally through the lateral groove on the distal end of the radius and over the dorsolateral aspect of the carpus, bound by the extensor retinaculum and protected by a synovial sheath. The tendon sheath starts about 10 cm proximal to the carpus and extends distally to the metacarpus (Fig. 3-79). The common digital extensor tendon continues distally over the dorsal surface of the metacarpus and is joined by branches of the interosseous muscle before it inserts with a broad tendon on the extensor process of the distal phalanx. A second branch inserts on the second phalanx, and some fibres on the hoof cartilages.

Lateral to the common digital extensor muscle arises a small muscle which can be divided into a deep portion from

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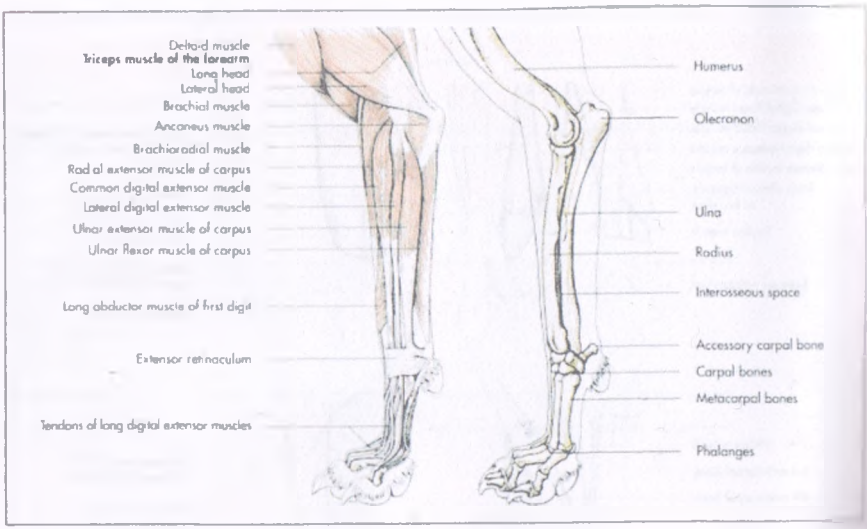


Fig. 3-80. Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digits of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect)

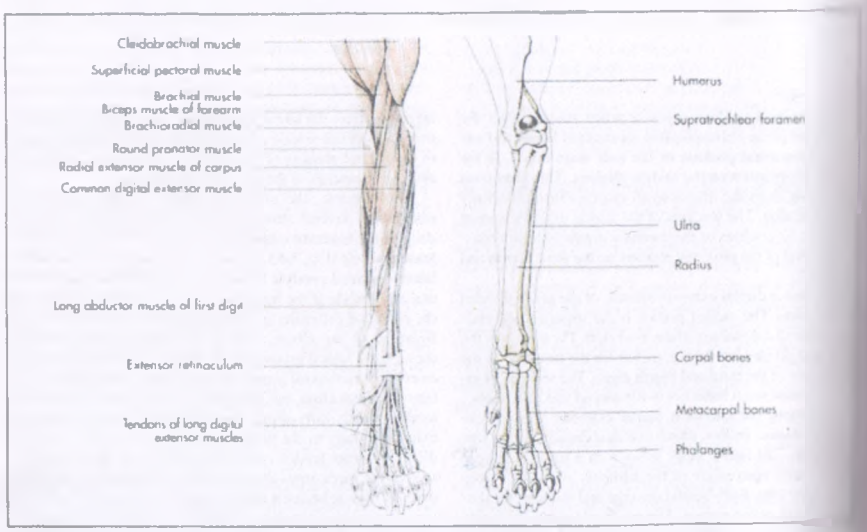
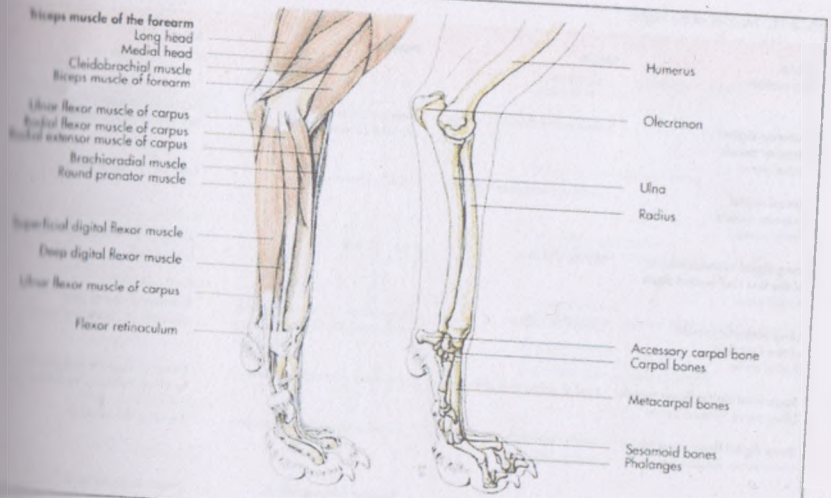
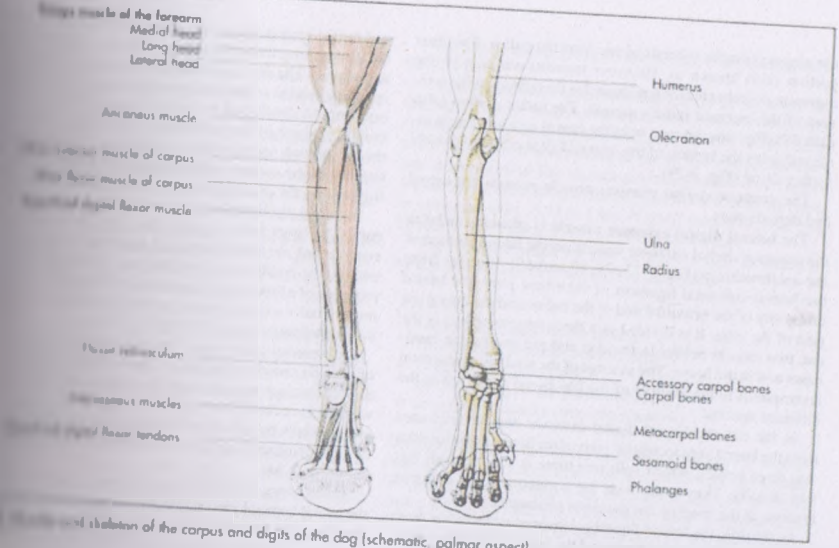


Fig. 3-81. Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digits of the dog (schematic, dorsal aspect)

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Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digits of the dog (schematic, medial aspect).



Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digits of the dog (schematic, palmar aspect)

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Tab. 3-11. Muscles of the digits

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Common digital extensor muscle Radial nerve	Lateral epicondyle of humerus	Extensor process of distal phalanx	Extensor of carpal joint, extensor of digital joints
Lateral digital extensor muscle Radial nerve	Lateral epicondyle of humerus	Middle phalanx	Extensor of digital joints
Long digital extensor muscle of the first and second digits Radial nerve	Mid third of ulna	1st, 2nd toe	Extensor of 1st and 2nd toes (carnivores)
Long abductor muscle of the first digit Radial nerve	Lateral on radius	Carnivores 1st, horse/pig 2nd ruminants 3rd metacarpal bone	Extensor of carpal joint, abductor of 1st toe (carnivores)
Superficial digital flexor muscle Ulnar nerve, median nerve	Medial epicondyle of humerus	Proximal on middle phalanx	Flexor of supporting digits, flexor of the forefoot, stabilises the fetlock joint
Deep digital flexor muscle Ulnar nerve, median nerve	Medial epicondyle of humerus radius, ulna	Flexor surface of distal phalanx	Flexor of the forefoot
Proximal and distal interflexor muscles Ulnar nerve, median nerve	Distal on antebrachium	Together with superficial digital flexor tendon	Flexor of digital joints

the ulna and a more superficial one from the radius. The ulnar portion (also known as Thierness muscle) unites with the common digital extensor tendon and is thought to be the remnant of the extensor indicis muscle. The radial portion (also called Phillip muscle) runs over the carpus as a separate muscle and joins the tendon of the lateral digital extensor muscle further distal (Fig. 3-79).

The common digital extensor muscle extends the carpal and digital joints.

The **lateral digital extensor muscle** is situated caudal to the common digital extensor muscle on the lateral surface of the antebrachium (Fig. 3-73, 78, 80 and 85). It arises from the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow joint, the lateral tuberosity of the proximal end of the radius and the lateral aspect of the ulna. It is divided into three muscle bellies in the cat, two muscle bellies in the dog and pig and one in ruminants and in the horse. The number of the tendons of insertion corresponds to the number of the functional digits left in the different species.

In the cat, the lateral digital extensor muscle originates from the lateral supracondylar crest of the humerus and divides into three bellies, which split into three or four tendons further distally. They unite with the common digital extensor tendons at the level of the proximal phalanges.

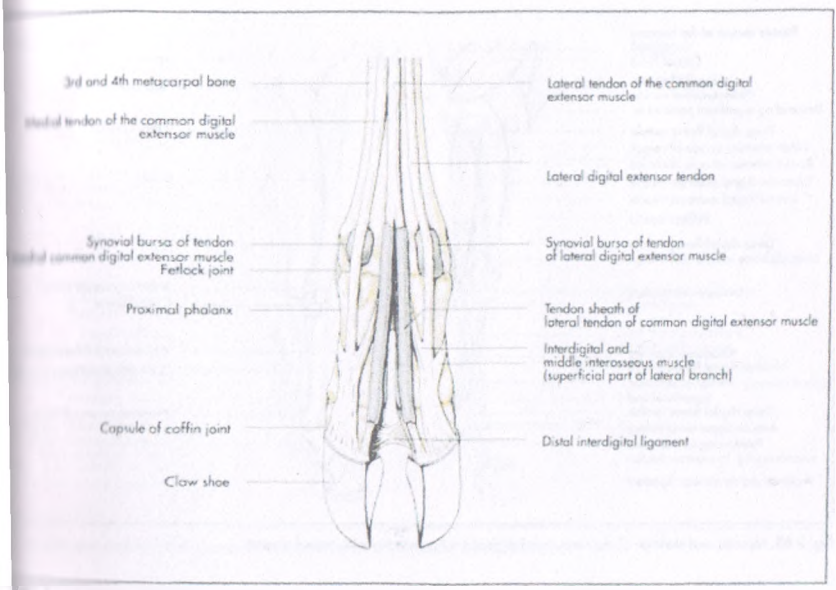
In the dog, the lateral digital extensor muscles arises from the lateral collateral ligament and the lateral tuberosity of the proximal radius (Fig. 3-78 and 80). It divides into a lateral and medial tendon, which are enclosed in a common [illegible] sheath reaching from the carpus to the proximal third of the metacarpus. The stronger lateral tendon unites with the corresponding tendon of the common digital extensor muscle and ends on the distal phalanx as well as on the proximal middle phalanx of the fifth digit. The tendon of the [illegible] medial portion splits into two and joins the corresponding tendons of the common digital extensor muscle, with which they end on the distal phalanx of the third and fourth digit.

In the pig, the lateral digital extensor muscle has two parts. The larger belly originates from the lateral humeral condyle and the lateral collateral ligament of the elbow, ends on the middle and distal phalanx of the fourth digit after reception of a branch from the interosseous muscle. The [illegible] muscle belly extends between the ulna and the [illegible] distal phalanges of the fifth digit.

In ruminants, the lateral digital extensor muscle [illegible] of a single muscle belly which passes, lateral to the common digital extensor muscle, over the lateral side of the [illegible] where it is enclosed in a synovial sheath. It is enfolded [illegible] and abaxially by slips from the interosseous muscle [illegible] on the dorsolateral aspect of the middle phalanx of the [illegible] digit (Fig. 3-84).

In the horse, the lateral digital extensor muscle arises [illegible] the lateral humeral epicondyle, the lateral collateral ligament [illegible] the elbow and the lateral tuberosities of the proximal [illegible] ulna. It passes distally through the groove on the lateral [illegible]

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and synovial structures of the left digit of the ox (schematic, dorsal aspect)

where it is covered by the deep fascia and the lateral side of the carpus, where it is enveloped in (Fig. 3-79). The tendon of insertion is strengthened by the deep fascia and unites with the tendon at the level of the metacarpus before its insertion on the dorsal aspect of the proximal phalanx.

The digital extensor muscle extends the carpal and digital joints of the lateral digits in carnivores and the coffin, coffin and pastern joints of the fourth digit in the ox, carpus and fetlock joint in the horse.

The muscle **of the first and second digits** is a separate muscle in carnivores only (Fig. 3-78). In ruminants it is fused to the common digital extensor; in the horse, the Thiernesse muscle is the remnant of this muscle.

The muscle arises from the craniolateral border of the radius and is covered distally by the lateral digital extensor. It divides into three tendons, which run deep to the common digital extensor tendon medially. They insert to the lateral digits.

The muscle is covered by the extensors of the carpus and digits. It arises from the craniolateral border of the ulna. It crosses obliquely to the common digital extensor tendon on the medial side. It splits into two tendons of insertion, which ends on the first metacarpal bone; the tendon of the common digital extensor tendon for the second digit.

The muscle extends the first and second digits and adducts the first one.

The **long abductor of the first digit** arises from the middle third of the lateral border of the radius and ulna and covers the craniolateral aspect of the antebrachium. Its tendon runs deep to the digital extensor tendons to the medial side of the carpus. It inserts to the first metacarpal bone in carnivores, to the second metacarpal bone in the pig and horse and to the third in ruminants (Fig. 3-73 and 86). A small sesamoid bone can be found in the tendon of insertion in carnivores.

The muscle extends the carpus and the digit to which it inserts and abducts the first digit in carnivores.

Flexors:

- superficial digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum superficialis),
- deep digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum profundus) and
- interflexor muscles (mm. interflexorii).

The **superficial digital flexor muscle** arises from the medial epicondyle of the humerus and divides into a branch for each functional digit that inserts on the middle phalanx of these digits. Before its insertion each branch splits into two slips that diverge either side of the tendons of the deep digital flexor muscle, which inserts more distally (Fig. 3-75, 78, 79, 82, 83, 87, 88, 90 and 91).

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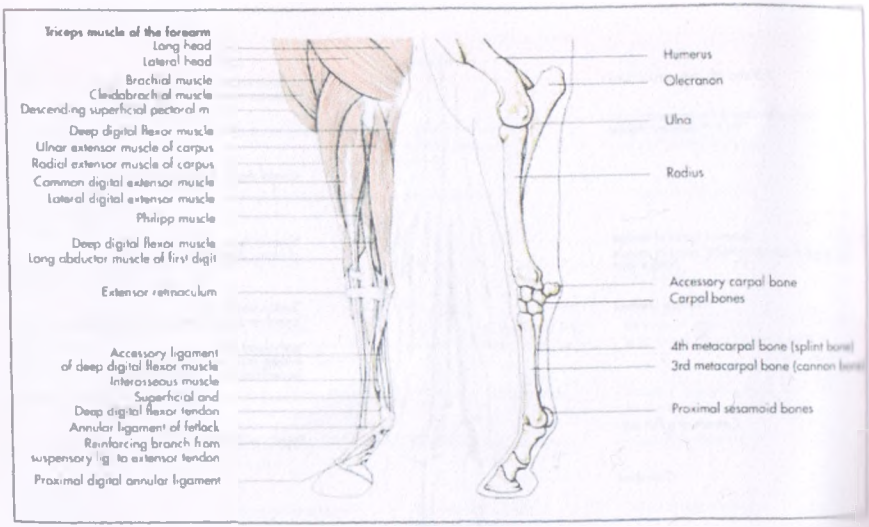


Fig. 3-85. Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digit of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect).

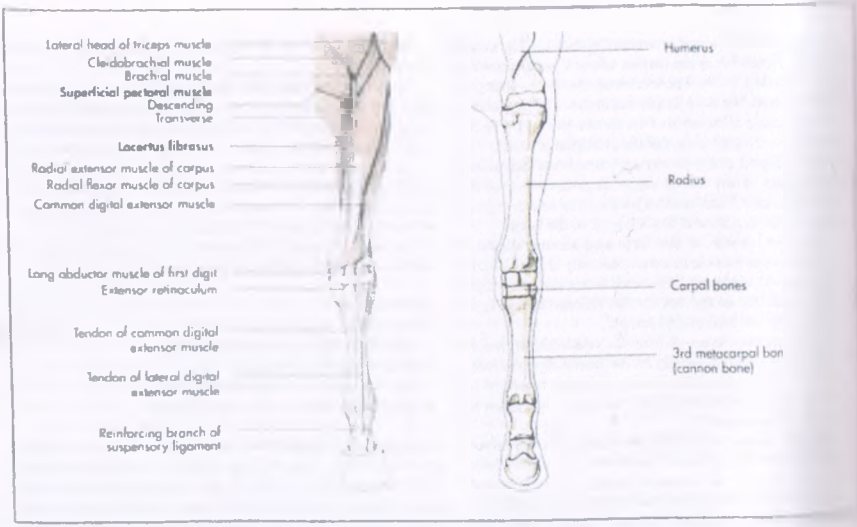
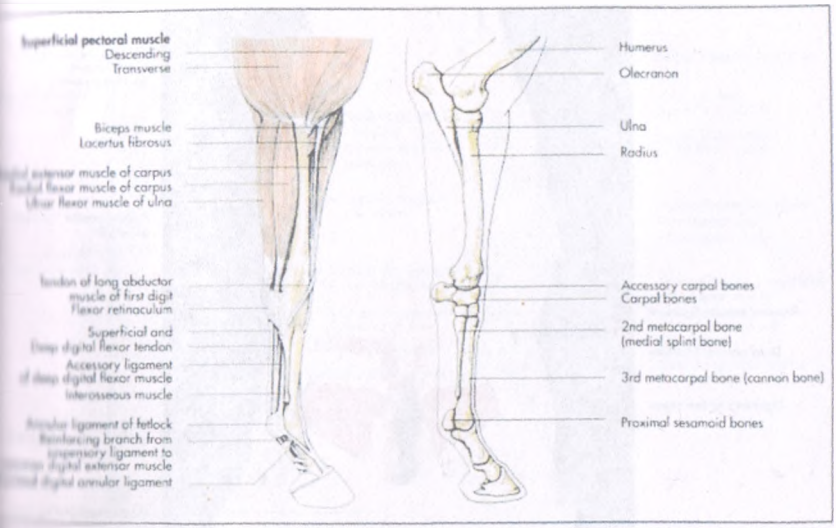
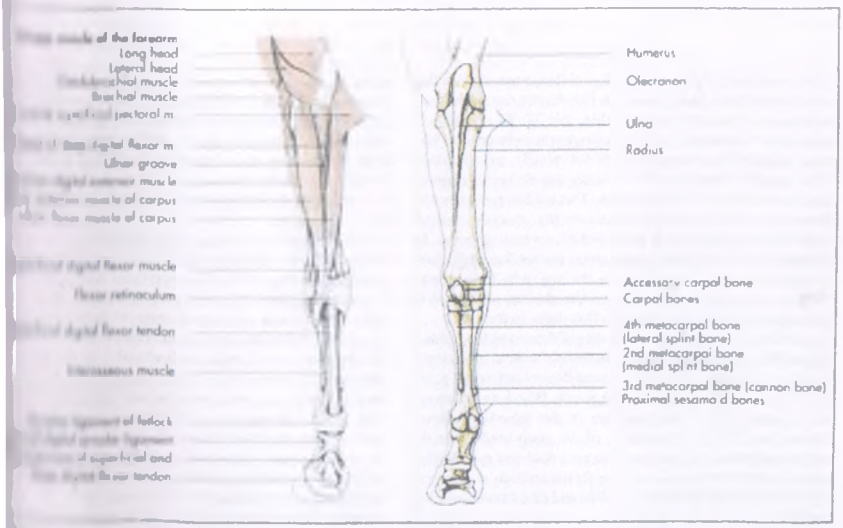


Fig. 3-86. Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digit of the horse (schematic, cranial aspect).

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Muscles and skeleton of the carpus and digit of the horse (schematic, medial aspect).



skeleton of the carpus and digit of the horse (schematic, caudal aspect).

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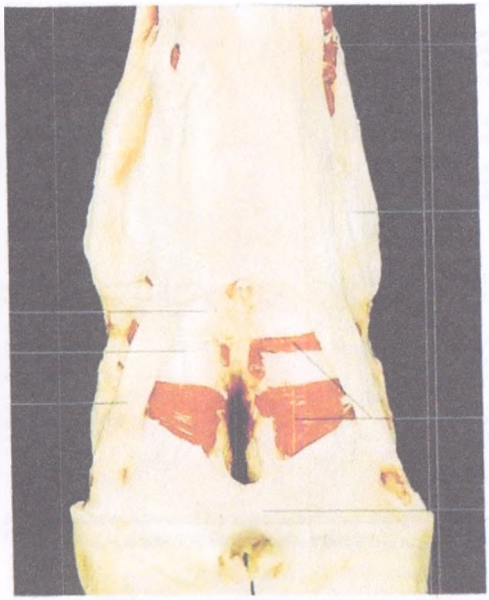


Fig. 3-89. Acrylic cast of the digital synovial sheath of an ox (palmar aspect).

In carnivores, the superficial digital flexor muscle is a flat muscle which lies directly beneath the skin on the mediocaudal aspect of the antebrachium (Fig. 75, 78, 82 and 83). It arises from the medial humeral epicondyle between the humeral heads of the deep digital flexor muscle and the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus. The fleshy muscle belly becomes tendinous at the level of the carpus. This tendon runs over the flexor surface of the carpus medial to the accessory carpal bone, where its passage is facilitated by a synovial bursa. In the proximal third of the metacarpus the tendon splits into five portions in the cat and four in the dog, which diverge to reach the proximal border of the middle phalanx of the first to fifth digits in the cat and second to fifth digits in the dog.

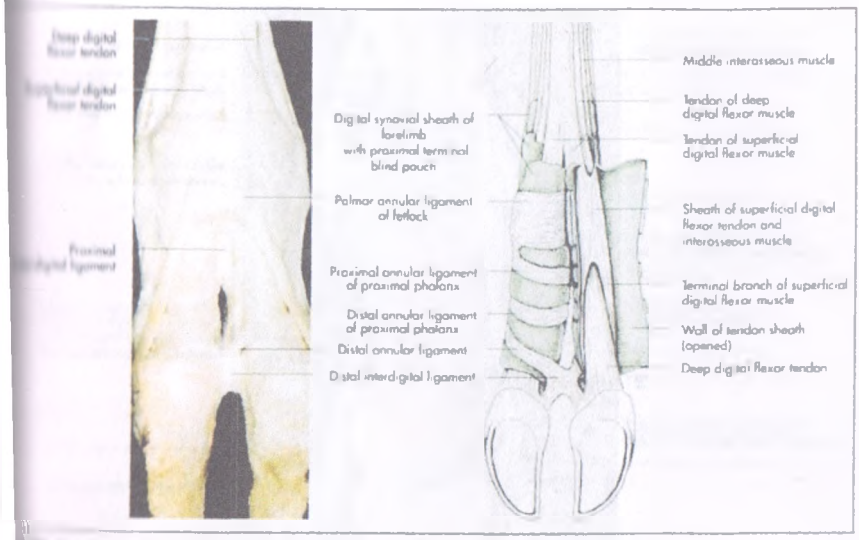
Each branch of the superficial digital flexor tendon forms a sleeve-like enclosure (**manica flexoria**) around the corresponding branches of the deep digital flexor tendon just proximal to the metacarpophalangeal joints. Distal to the proximal sesamoid bones the branches of the superficial flexor tendon are split for the passage of the deep tendon. At the metacarpophalangeal joint and the proximal and middle phalangeal joints the branches of the flexor tendons are bridged by three bands, the proximal, middle and distal transverse ligaments.

In the pig, the superficial digital flexor muscle arises from the medial epicondyle of the humerus and consists of two parts. The tendon of the smaller superficial head crosses the flexor retinaculum superficially and forms a tube around the deep digital flexor tendon at the metacarpophalangeal joint, ends with two branches on the middle phalanx of the third digit. The tendon of the stronger deep head passes through bound by the flexor retinaculum and ends on the medial phalanx of the third digit after being perforated by the deep digital flexor tendon.

The proximal part of the superficial digital flexor muscle of ruminants is similar to that of the pig. It is divided into a superficial and deep belly. The superficial part passes over the flexor retinaculum, the deep part beneath it. Both bellies unite in the middle of the metacarpus to form a common tendon, which bifurcates into a medial and lateral branch distally. Each branch unites with a band from the interosseous muscle and forms a ring for the corresponding branch of the deep digital flexor tendon near the metacarpophalangeal joint (Fig. 3-90). The stronger medial branch inserts on the flexor surface of the middle phalanx, the smaller lateral branch on the palmar aspect of the middle phalanx close to the proximal surface. The tendons are enclosed in a common digital sheath at the metacarpophalangeal joint and held in place by the **annular ligament** of the fetlock (Fig. 3-89 and 90).

In the horse the superficial digital flexor muscle arises from the medial humeral epicondyle and covers the deep digital flexor

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...Digital synovial sheath of the ox (schematic, palmar aspect).

...which it is partly fused (Fig. 3-87 and 88). Its ... belly forms a strong tendon at the level of the ... it combines with a strong fibrous band, the ... ligament (also termed the radial or superior check ... which originates from the caudal radius. The ten... distally through the carpal canal to the palmar as... metacarpus. It is enveloped by the carpal synovial ... common with the deep digital flexor tendon reach... ...10 cm proximal to the carpus to the middle of ... (Fig. 3-79).

...superficial flexor tendon forms a tubelike enclosure ... deep digital flexor tendon just proximal to the met... joint (**manica flexoria**). A second synovial ... digital synovial sheath, partly encloses both ten... ...distal metacarpus to the middle of the middle ... ...distal end of the proximal phalanx the super... ...divides into branches through which the ... tendon continues distally (Fig. 3-91, 93 ... ...branches insert to the lateral and medial em... ...proximal extremity of the middle phalanx and ... ...lateral aspect of the proximal phalanx.

...superficial digital flexor tendon flexes the proximal ... phalangeal joints of the main digits and thereby ... ...it also stabilises the fetlock joint.

...digital flexor muscle runs deep to the superficial ... muscle and the flexor muscles of the carpus on ... ...of the antebrachium (Fig. 3-75, 78, 82, 85, 88, ...). The deep digital flexor muscle arises with three ... ...**humeral head** (caput humeralis), the **radial head** (caput radiale) and the **ulnar head** (caput ulnare). The humeral head originates from the medial epicondyle of the humerus and consists of three bellies.

The resultant five bellies of the deep digital flexor muscle fuse at the distal end of the forearm to form the **deep digital flexor tendon**. This tendon passes through the carpal canal medial to the accessory carpal bone and divides into a branch for each functional digit at the metacarpus, thus resulting in five tendons in carnivores, four tendons in the pig, two tendons in ruminants and one tendon in the horse. Each tendon of insertion passes through the corresponding branch of the superficial flexor tendon at the level of the proximal phalanx and continues to its insertion on the palmar aspect of the distal phalanx.

In carnivores the three heads of the muscle are completely separated. The humeral head consists of three isolated bellies in the cat, whereas in the dog the bellies are difficult to separate. It arises from the medial epicondyle of the humerus deep to the radial flexor muscle of the carpus (Fig. 3-75, 78 and 82). The muscle is marked by multiple tendinous sheaths and bands and lies on the caudomedial side of the forearm, accompanied by the radial head on the medial side and the ulnar head laterally. The radial head arises on the caudomedial aspect of the proximal radius, the ulnar head, from the caudal border of the ulna, extending from the olecranon to the distal third. The tendons converge to form the deep digital flexor tendon just proximal to the carpus. This tendon crosses the flexor side of the carpus in the carpal canal, covered by the flexor retinaculum. At the proximal end of the metacarpus the radial head splits away on the medial side to insert on the first

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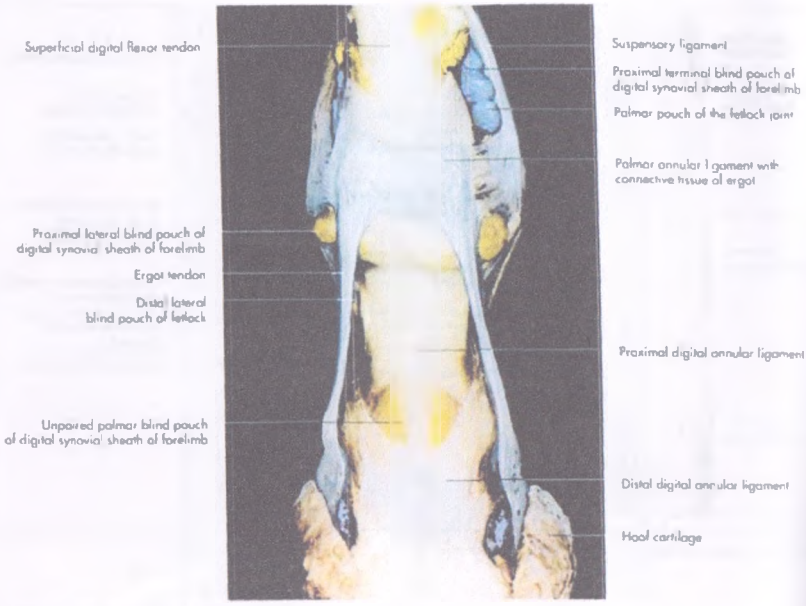


Fig. 3-91. Acrylic cast of the digital synovial sheath of a horse (palmar aspect); courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna.

digit. The principal tendon divides into four round branches which insert on the second to fourth digits at the metacarpus. At the level of the proximal sesamoid bones they pass through tubular sheaths (manica flexoria) formed by the branches of the superficial digital flexor tendon. They end on the flexor tuberosities of the distal phalanges of the second to fifth digits. The branches of the deep and superficial digital flexor tendons are held in place by three transverse ligaments:

- annular palmar ligament, (ligamentum anulare palmare),
- proximal digital annular ligament, (ligamentum anulare digitale proximale) and
- distal digital annular ligament (ligamentum anulare digitale distale).

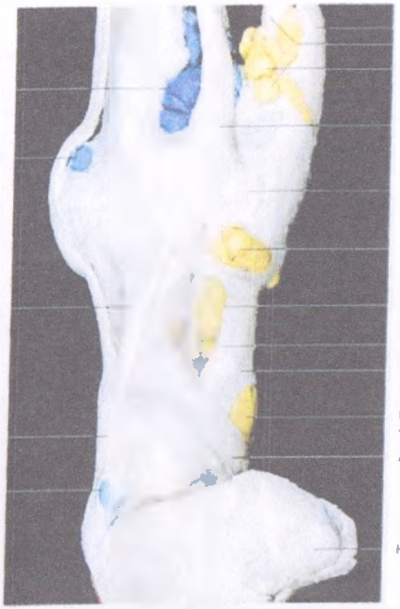
The **proximal ligament** lies at the level of the metacarpophalangeal joint, the **middle one** at the **middle of the first phalanx** and **the distal one** just distal to the proximal interphalangeal joint.

The distal branch inserting on the first digit has its own tendon sheath, extending from the metacarpus to its insertion. The branches of the main digits share their tendon sheaths with the corresponding branches of the superficial digital flexor tendon.

In ruminants, the humeral head shows numerous [illegible] nous intersections and can be divided into three [illegible] which arise from the medial epicondyle of the humerus, joins the radial and ulnar heads to form the deep digital or tendon. After crossing the flexor side of the carpus [illegible] into two tendons at the distal end of the metacarpus. At level of the metacarpophalangeal joint the deep digital tendon is flanked by the superficial flexor tendons and middle interosseous muscle. The tendons of insertion over the distal sesamoid bones, where their passage is [illegible] ated by the podotrochlear bursae and insert at the flexor bercle of the distal phalanx of the third and fourth digits. Each branch of the deep digital flexor tendon is held down by the proximal and distal annular ligaments and distal interdigital ligament.

A **synovial sheath** (vagina synovialis tendinum [illegible] rum manus) surrounds the two flexor tendons of the third fourth digits from the distal third of the metacarpus to the insertion (Fig. 3-89 and 90). This digital sheath has proximal and distal pouches. The proximal pouches lie between the branches of the interosseous muscle to the third of the metacarpus. The sheaths of the medial and branches communicate through their proximal extremities eral pouches extend distally between the annular ligaments and the two branches of the distal interdigital ligament to distal phalanges. The sheath can be punctured from the

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...al sheath of the flexor tendons in a horse (dorsolateral aspect), courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna

...border of the flexor tendons, about 2 cm ... claws. The needle is advanced in a horn... lateromedial direction.

... the humeral head of the deep digital flexor ... tendinous intersections and can be divid... which arise together from the medial hu... and continue distally on the caudal side of ... they fuse to form a common tendon just ... carpus. The small radial head originates from ... caudal surface of the radius and joins the ... carpus. The ulnar head arises from the ... olecranon and runs distally as a small ... flexor and ulnar extensor muscles of the ... where it unites with the tendons of the ... The conjoined tendon passes over the ... through the carpal canal, enclosed in ... together with the superficial digital ... at about the middle of the metacar... tunnel, the **accessory** or **inferior check** ... accessorium), which is a continuation ... ligament. At the fetlock it passes through ... superficial digital flexor tendon (**man...**) and over the sesamoid groove (scu... the middle of the proximal phalanx the ... emerges between the two branches ... tendon and passes over the flexor surface of the distal sesamoid bone to its insertion on the flexor surface of the distal phalanx (Fig. 3-95).

The **navicular bursa** (bursa podotrochlearis) is interposed between the tendon and the distal sesamoid bone. It extends beyond the borders of this bone proximally, distally and laterally (Fig. 3-55 to 57 and 93).

The distal parts of the digital flexor tendons are held in place by annular ligaments, which are thickenings of the deep fascia (Fig. 3-91 to 93). It can be divided into:

The **palmar annular ligament** is about 3 cm long, arises from the abaxial borders of the proximal sesamoid bones and is adherent to the superficial flexor tendon. Narrow bands of the palmar annular ligament extend distally on the medial and lateral sides and unite with the proximal extensions of the proximal annular ligament.

The **proximal digital annular ligament** is arranged in a cruciate pattern and arises with two proximal branches from the medial and lateral aspects of the proximal phalanx and inserts with two distal branches on the lateral and medial aspects of the distal end of the proximal phalanx. The middle part is firmly fused with the superficial digital flexor tendon.

The **distal digital annular ligament** covers the expanded tendon of insertion of the deep digital flexor tendon. It attaches proximally with two branches to the proximal phalanx together with the distal branches of the proximal digital annular ligament. Its superficial aspect is largely covered by the digital

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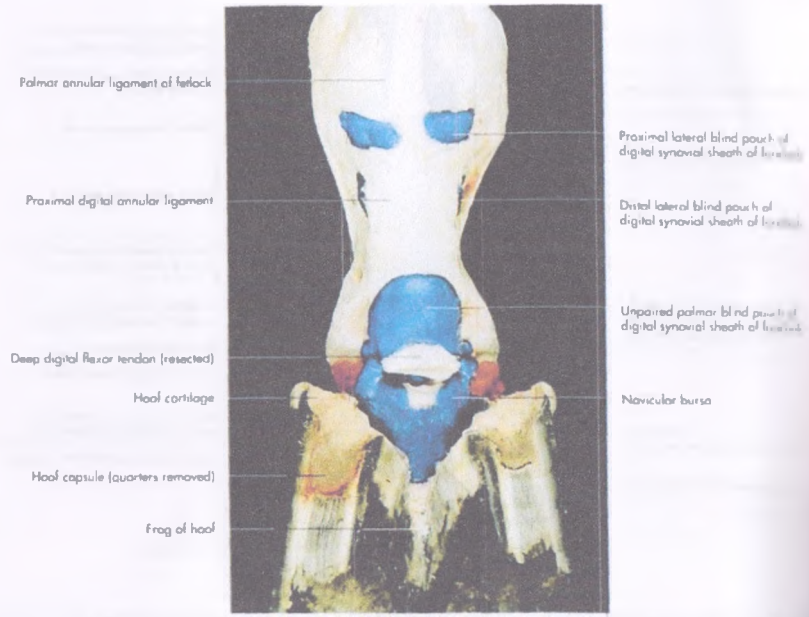


Fig. 3-93. Acrylic cast of the digital synovial sheath and the navicular bursa of a horse (palmar aspect), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Vienna.

cushion, and its deep surface is adherent to the deep digital flexor tendon; thus the distal digital annular ligament separates the digital cushion from the deep digital flexor tendon.

The digital flexor tendons are protected by two synovial sheaths: the **proximal carpal synovial sheath** (vagina synovialis communis musculorum flexorum) and the **distal digital synovial sheath** (vagina synovialis tendineum digitorum manus).

The **carpal synovial sheath** extends from a level 10 to 12 cm proximal to the carpus distal to the middle of the metacarpus, where the accessory ligament joins the deep digital flexor tendon. Synoviocentesis can be performed by inserting a needle at the proximal third of the metacarpus from the lateral side.

The **digital synovial sheath** begins at the distal end of the metacarpus 5 to 8 cm proximal to the fetlock joint and extends to the middle of the second phalanx. In its larger part it enfolds the deep digital flexor tendon only, the superficial digital flexor tendon forming its palmar wall together with the deep fascia. Only in the region of the palmar annular ligament is the deep digital flexor tendon surrounded by palmar pouches of the digital synovial sheath (Fig. 3-95).

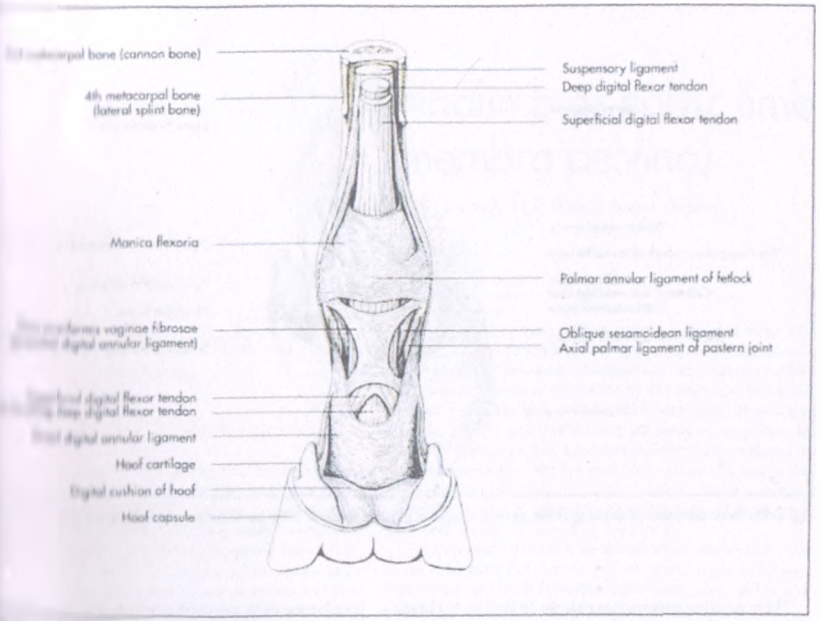
The **palmar wall** follows the palmar aspect of the cannon bone proximally, passes over the sesamoid bones and the distal sesamoidean ligaments and follows distally on the palmar side of the middle phalanx. Although the sheath [illegible] the metacarpophalangeal joint, distal interphalangeal [illegible] and the navicular bursa, these cavities do not [illegible]

The **digital synovial sheath** extends three paired [illegible] pouches and one distal pouch, where it is not [illegible] annular ligaments (Fig. 3-91, 93 and 95). One [illegible] proximal pouches lies proximal to the palmar [illegible] ment palmar to the branches of the interosseous [illegible] second pair lies between the palmar annular ligament [illegible] proximal digital annular ligament and the third [illegible] between the proximal and distal branches of the [illegible] digital annular ligament. The distal pouch is found [illegible] the distal branches of the palmar digital annular [illegible] the proximal border of the distal digital annular [illegible] When distended in cases of inflammation they [illegible] ticably. The digital sheath can be punctured [illegible] imal to the proximal sesamoid bones between the [illegible] ous muscle and the deep digital flexor tendon.

The deep digital flexor tendon flexes the distal [illegible] the main digits and thereby the whole foot.

The **interflexor muscles** are small muscles [illegible] between the deep and superficial digital flexor [illegible] are thought to assist these muscles. Whereas [illegible]

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of the distal forelimb in the horse (schematic, palmar aspect).

and distal interflexor muscles, only exists in carnivores, and they are

distal interflexor muscle arises from the deep digital flexor muscle at the distal tendons in the cat over the flexor the flexor tendons. It further splits the metacarpus, which insert with the of the superficial digital flexor tendons digits.

flexor muscles have two or three bel- flexor tendons distally.

of the interflexor muscle run dis- flexor tendons and radiate into the tendons superficial digital flexor muscle.

these marked species differences in carnivores and the pig they single digits, whereas in large an- part of the passive stay apparatus. competing.

- interosseous muscles (mm. interossei),
- lumbrical muscles (mm. lumbricales) and
- short digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum brevis).

The **interosseous muscles** lie directly on the palmar side of the metacarpus. They originate from the proximal end of the metacarpal bones and the joint capsule of the carpus and insert on the proximal sesamoid bones. They are fleshy muscles in the carnivores and pig and tendinous in the adult ruminant and the horse.

In carnivores there are four interosseous muscles. They arise from the proximal ends of the second to fifth carpal bones and cover the entire palmar surface of these bones. Each muscle divides into two branches that attach to the proximal sesamoid bones. A portion of each tendon joins the corresponding branch of the common digital extensor muscle. In ruminants the interosseous muscle has a single origin, but divides into five branches at the distal metacarpus. The abaxial branches attach to the proximal sesamoid bones of the main digits, while the middle branch passes through the intertrochlear notch at the distal extremity of the metacarpus and bifurcates, each branch fusing with the corresponding extensor tendon.

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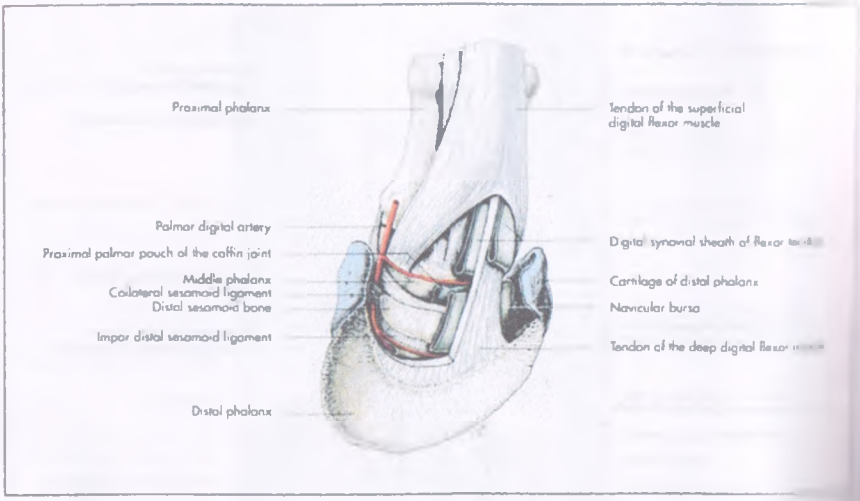


Fig. 3-95. Three-dimensional drawing of the synovial structures of distal forelimb in the horse (schematic, palmar aspect)

There are three interosseous muscles in the horse. The medial and lateral interosseous muscles are very small muscles and of no functional importance. The **middle interosseous muscle** is also termed the **suspensory ligament**. It is a strong tendinous band, which arises from the proximal end of the cannon bone and the distal row of the carpal bones. It lies in the metacarpal groove between the splint bones, deep to the flexor tendons and divides into two diverging branches, which insert on the proximal sesamoid bones. Each branch extends a band medially and laterally to the common digital extensor tendon. The primary function of the suspensory ligament is to provide the proximal support of the fetlock. Its functional continuation distal to the sesamoid bones is provided by the cruciate, oblique and straight sesamoidean ligaments.

This **stay apparatus** prevents excessive dorsal flexion of the fetlock, it also limits palmar flexion by means of the extensor branches to the common digital extensor tendon and diminishes concussion.

The **lumbrical muscles** are small muscles, which lie on the palmar aspect of the metacarpus between the digital flexors. They are not present in ruminants. There are three lumbrical muscles in carnivores, which arise from the [illegible] of the deep digital flexor tendon and insert to the [illegible] phalanx of the second to fifth digit. In the horse they [illegible] slender muscles, which lie on either side of the digit [illegible] tendons proximal to the fetlock. They arise from [illegible] digital flexor tendon and radiate into the tissue [illegible] ergot. They assist the digital flexor tendons and [illegible] ergot in the horse.

The **short digital flexor muscle** exists only in [illegible] It is a delicate muscle, which arises from the [illegible] tal flexor tendon at the level of the carpus and [illegible] transverse ligament of the metacarpophalangeal [illegible] fifth digit.

Special muscles of the digits of carnivores

In carnivores a number of small digital muscles [illegible] extension, flexion, abduction, adduction and [illegible] digits. They are well developed in the cat and [illegible] for the coordination of the movement of the paw. [illegible] the scope of this book to describe them in detail.

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4 Hindlimb or pelvic limb (membra pelvina)

H.-G. Liebich, H. E. König and J. Maierl

...n of the pelvic limb ...membri pelvini)

...lle (cingulum membri pelvini)

...consists of two symmetrical **hip bones ossa** ... ventrally at the **pelvic symphysis (sym-** ... articulate firmly with the sacrum dorsally. ... **sacrum** and the **first caudal vertebrae, pelvis**, encircling the pelvic cavity (Fig. ... fulfils several different functions, requiring a ... construction. It encompasses and pro- ... including the reproductive organs, ... physiological influence during pregnancy ... also has an essential role in posture and ... ensures an effective transmission of for- ... to the trunk.

... composed of three parts with separate ... In juvenile animals the single bones are ... borders, which allow for growth. ... are completely fused and their bod- ... the articulation with the femur, the ... is composed of:

... hip unite ventrally in the car- ... **(symphysis pelvina)**, which is ... allowing the two halves to move ... to enlarge the birth canal in ... The symphysis can be divided into ... (pubicus) and a caudal **ischial** ...

... a hip bone will be described sep- ...

... cranial part of the hip bone and ex- ... to the sacrum (Fig. 4-1 to 8). It can be divided into the cranial expanded **wing** (ala ossis ischii) and the columnar **body** (corpus ossis ilii) caudally. The body of the ilium contributes to the formation of the **acetabulum**, which is completed by the bodies of the ischium and pubis. The orientation of the **ileal wings** is species-specific, significantly influencing the form of the pelvis. In the horse and the ox they are orientated vertically, whereas in the small ruminants they are rotated dorsolaterally and in the pig and carnivores they are almost sagittal. Various marked prominences, crests and notches give the wing of the ilium a characteristic appearance (Fig. 4-5 and 6).

An important landmark in all domestic mammals is the **coxal tuberosity** (tuber coxae) at the lateral angle of the hip, which forms the point of the hip visible in the horse and ox and palpable in the dog. In carnivores the coxal tuberosity has two prominences, the **cranial** and **caudal ventral iliac spines** (spinae iliacae ventrales craniales et caudales). The mediodorsal angle of the iliac wing is thickened forming the **sacral tuber** (tuber sacrale). In carnivores and cattle the sacral tuber also has two eminences, the cranial and caudal dorsal iliac spines (spinae iliacae ventrales craniales et caudales). The **iliac crest** (crista iliaca) connects the coxal tuberosity and sacral tuber. It is convex and thick in carnivores and in the pig, thin and concave in large animals (Fig. 4-7 and 8).

The ilium presents a **lateral** (dorsolateral) or **gluteal surface** (facies glutea) and a **medial (medioventral) surface** (facies sacropelvina). The concave lateral surface is crossed by three **gluteal lines** (lineae gluteae) in carnivores and one gluteal line in the rest of the domestic mammals giving origin to the gluteal muscles.

The medial surface is divided into two parts. The latero-ventral part of the **medial surface** (facies iliaca) gives rise to the insertions of several pelvic muscles. The mediodorsal part of the medial surface is formed by the roughened **auricular portion** (facies auricularis) and the **iliac tuberosity** (tuberositas iliaca), which articulate with the sacrum to form the **tight sacroiliac joint**.

The dorsomedial border of the iliac wing is deeply concave to form the **greater sciatic notch** (incisura ischiadica major) at the junction with the iliac body over which the sciatic nerve runs. The ventral border of the body of the ilium is marked by the **arcuate line** (linea arcuata), which carries the psoas tubercle for the attachment of the smaller psoas muscle.

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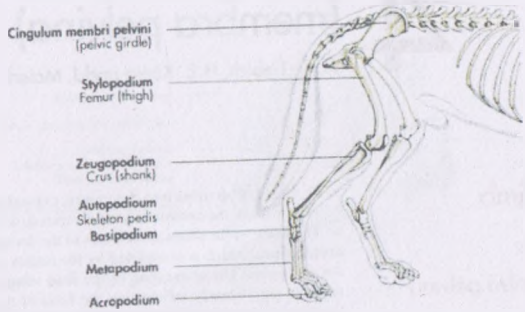


Fig. 4-1. Skeleton of the pelvic limb of the dog: parts (schematic)

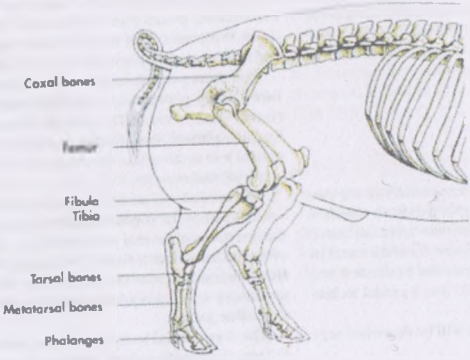
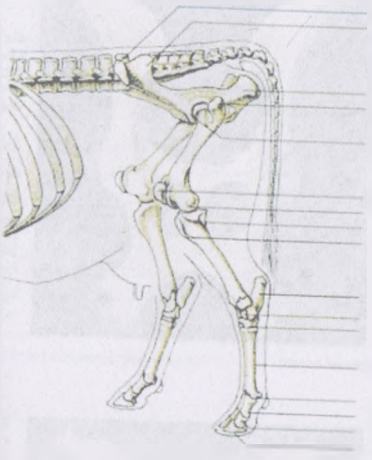
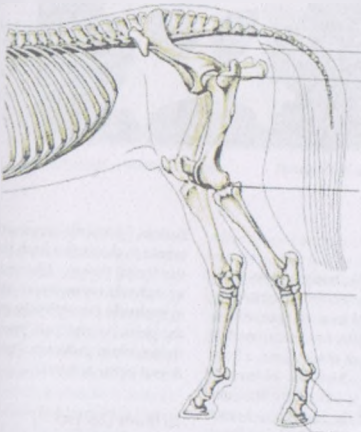


Fig. 4-2. Skeleton of the pelvic limb of the pig: bones (schematic)

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...pelvic limb of the cow, osseous structures (schematic).



...pelvic limb of the horse, joints (schematic).

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Fig. 4-5. Hip bones (ossa coxae) of a pig (dorsal aspect)



Fig. 4-6. Hip bones (ossa coxae) of a pig (ventral aspect)

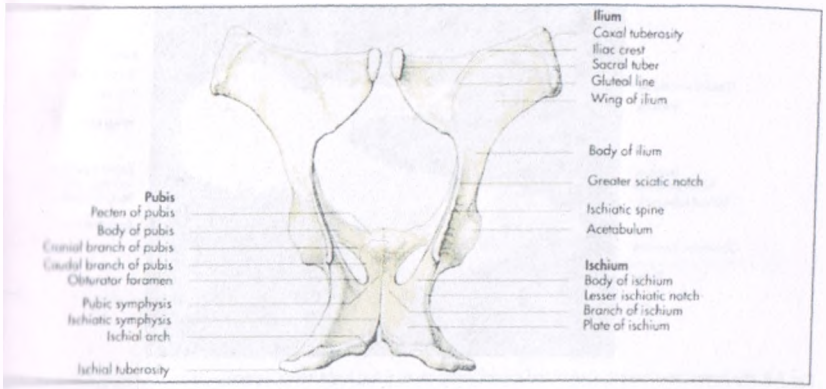
Pubis (os pubis)

The pubis is L-shaped and consists of the **body** (corpus ossis pubis), the transverse **acetabular branch** (ramus cranialis ossis pubis) and the sagittal **symphysial branch** (ramus caudalis ossis pubis) (Fig. 4-5 to 8). The pubis borders more than half of the **obturator foramen** (foramen obturatum), a large opening in the pelvic floor through which the **obturator nerve** (nervus obturatorius) passes. It is closed by musculature and soft tissue. The cranial edge of the acetabular branch is termed **pecten of the pubis** (pecten ossis pubis) and forms the **iliopubic eminence** (eminentia iliopubica) for the attachment of abdominal muscles. In the horse the ventral surface of the iliopubic eminence is crossed by the **pubic groove** (sulcus ligamenti accessorii ossis femoris) leading to the acetabulum, through which the accessory ligament of the femur passes. The pubis of each side fuses in the **pubic symphysis** (symphysis pubica), the cranial part of the **pelvic symphysis** (symphysis pelvina). On the ventral surface the pubic symphysis protrudes the **ventral pubic tubercle** (tuberculum pubicum ventrale). In the stallion there is a dorsal pubic tubercle.

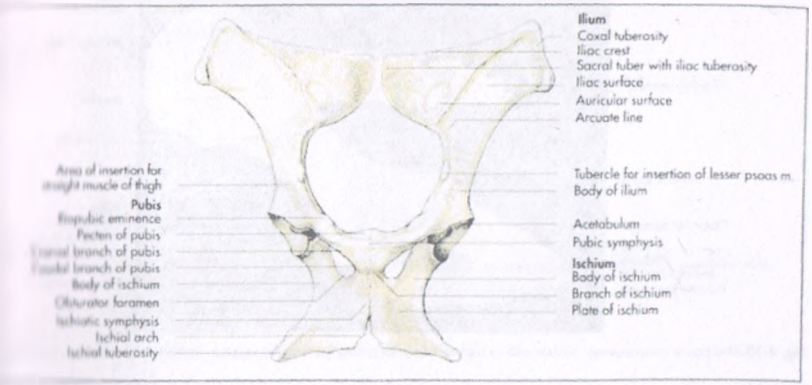
Ischium (os ischii)

The ischium can be divided into the **body** (corpus ischii), the **caudal plate** (tabula ossis ischii) and the **ventral branch** (ramus ossis ischii) (Fig. 4-5 to 8). The

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...ne bones (ossa coxae) of the horse (schematic, dorsal aspect).



...bones (ossa coxae) of the horse (schematic, ventral aspect).

...ally into two branches, a symphysial branch and ..., which form the caudal circumference ... ventrum. The medial branches of the ischia ... (symphysis ischiadica) of the pelvic ... **body of the ischium** (corpus ossis ischii ... the acetabulum, while its dorsal border contin... ... border of the ilium to form the **ischiatic** ... ischiadica). The ischiatic spine tapers to... ... **notch** (incisura ischiadica minor), ... between the **ischial tuberosity** (tuber ... the caudal rim of the acetabulum.

... part of the caudal ischiatic plate is thick... **ischial tuberosity** (tuber ischiadicum), ... forming in the dog and horse and a trian... gular shaped eminence in the ox and pig. The ischial tuberosity is a visible landmark in most domestic mammals.

The caudal borders of the ischiatic tables meet in the concave **ischial arch** (arcus ischiadicus). This notch is usually broad and deep, except in the horse, where it is rather shallow and irregular.

Acetabulum

The acetabulum is a deep cotyloid cavity to which all three pelvic bones contribute (Fig. 4-5ff.). An additional fourth bone in the centre of the cavity, the **small acetabular bone** (os acetabuli), is present in carnivores. It is composed of the body of the ilium craniolaterally, the body of the ischium

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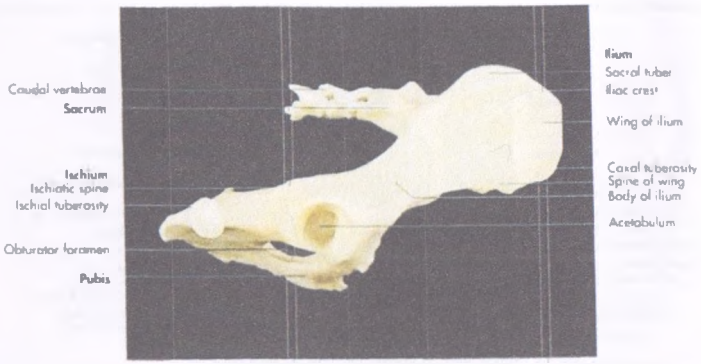


Fig. 4-9. Hip bones (ossa coxae), sacrum and caudal vertebrae of a dog (right lateral aspect)

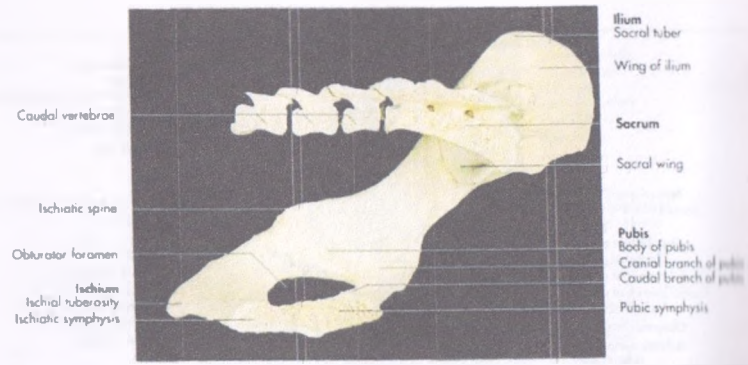


Fig. 4-10. Hip bones (ossa coxae), sacrum and caudal vertebrae of a dog, paramedian section of the left hip bone (medial aspect)

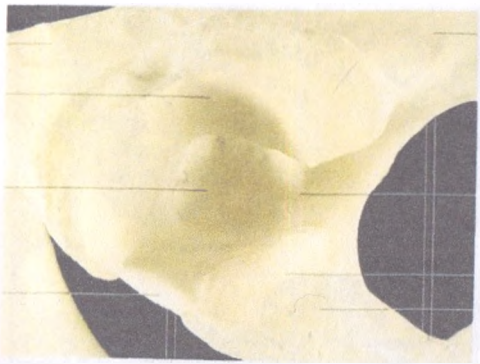
caudolaterally and the body of the pubis medially. The acetabulum is reciprocal to the head of the femur with which it forms a spheroidal joint, the hip joint. The cavity of the acetabulum consists of the peripheral **articular lunate surface** (facies lunata) and the non-articular acetabular fossa (fossa acetabuli) in the centre. The lunate surface is crescentic and indented medially by the deep acetabular notch (incisura acetabuli). The articular surface is enlarged by a fibrocartilagenous **articular labrum** (labrum acetabulare). The **intracapsular ligament of the femoral head** (ligamentum capitis ossis femoris) emerges through the acetabular notch and joins the femoral head to the acetabular fossa. In the horse a second (accessory) ligament inserts at the acetabular fossa.

The lunate surface of the ox is divided by a craniocentral notch into a larger craniodorsal (pars major) and smaller caudoventral part (pars minor).

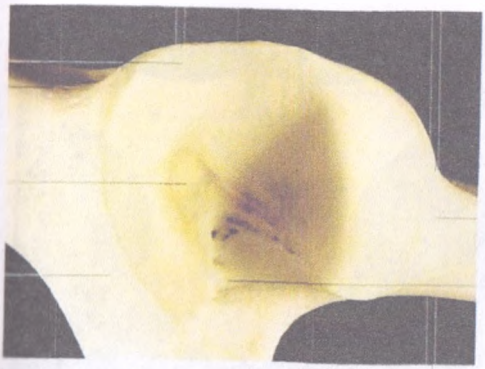
Pelvis

The **bony pelvis** is a broad ring around the pelvic [illegible] conformation reflects the multiple functions the pelvis has to fulfil. Species-specific differences in the general [illegible] pelvis are very pronounced. It gives attachment to a [illegible] tude of muscles, tendons and ligaments and its [illegible] modelled accordingly. Its roof is formed by the [illegible] the first few caudal vertebrae, its floor (solum pelvis) [illegible] by the pubic and ischial bones and its lateral walls [illegible] and ischia. The broad sacrotuberous ligament closes [illegible] defect in the lateral wall in all domestic mammals [illegible] carnivores. The **cranial pelvic aperture** or **inlet of the pelvis** (apertura pelvis cranialis) is bounded by the terminal line (linea terminalis). The terminal line passes along the promontory of the sacrum dorsally, the wings of the ilia laterally [illegible]

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Left acetabulum of an ox (lateral aspect)



Left acetabulum of a horse (lateral aspect).

It is almost circular in female ... pear shaped in male animals, with the apex ... **aperture** or **outlet** (apertura pelvis cau... the first three or four caudal vertebrae dor... ... and the ischial tuberosities ventrally ... sacrotuberous ligament laterally. The sacrotuber... ... is oblique in dogs and is absent in the cat. ... pelvis (cochlea pelvis ossea) is of consid... ... importance. In ruminants the pelvic floor is ... ventrally in the transverse direction and in ... the caudal part; in carnivores the floor is al... ... and in the horse it is flat and vertical. ... pelvic cavity can be defined extending ... ... of the pelvis. The following measurements are used in obstetrics:

- **Pelvic axis** (axis pelvis): the imaginary line drawn in a cranial to caudal direction through the middle of all lines between the sacrum and the pelvic symphysis.
- **Conjugate diameter** (diameter conjugata): distance from the sacral promontory to the cranial border of the pelvic symphysis. It measures the diameter of the pelvic inlet.
- **Diagonal conjugate diameter** (conjugata diagonalis): distance from the sacral promontory to the caudal border of the pelvic symphysis.
- **Vertical diameter** (diameter verticalis): diameter between the sacrum or caudal vertebra and the cranial border of the pelvic symphysis, orthogonal to the pelvic symphysis.

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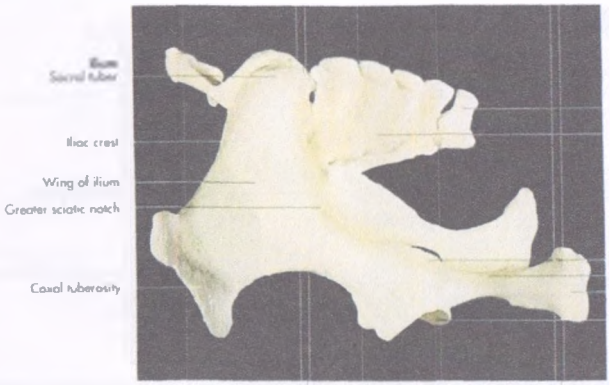


Fig. 4-13. Hip bones (ossa coxae) and sacrum of a horse (left lateral aspect)

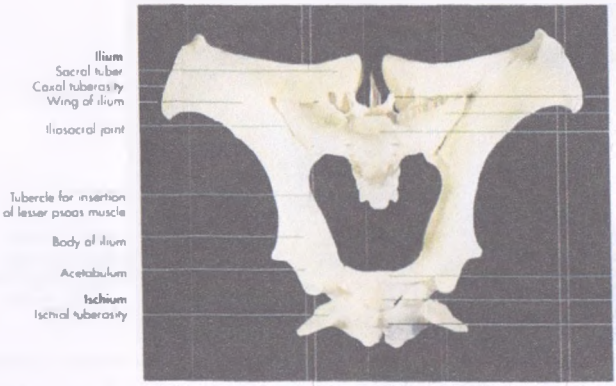


Fig. 4-14. Hip bones (ossa coxae) and sacrum of a horse (ventrocranial aspect)

The last diameter measures the **diameter of the pelvic cavity** in a dorsoventral direction and is of considerable practical importance. In ruminants, horses and in the adult pig the vertical diameter extends between the sacrum and the pelvic symphysis, which makes an expansion of the pelvis impossible. In carnivores the sacrum is very short and the vertical diameter extends between the caudal vertebrae and the pelvic symphysis.

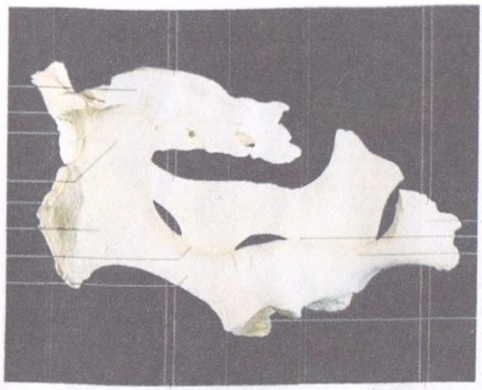
In these animals and in the juvenile pig, in which the sacral vertebrae are not yet fused, some enlargement of the birth canal is possible. The angle between the vertical and conjugated diameter measures the **inclination of the pelvis** (inclinatio pelvis). The **transverse diameter** (diameter t... defined as the maximum transverse measurement ... minal line. Other transverse measurements are the ... between the middle of the **ischial spine** of each ... ter spina transversa) and the distance between the ... **tuberosities** (diameter transversa tuber ischiadici).

Pelvic cavity

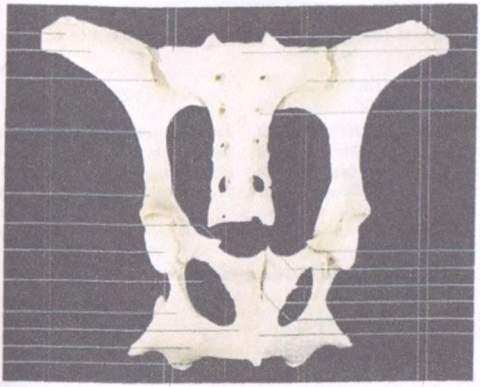
Species-specific differences in the form of the pelvis ... very pronounced and the dimensions of the pelvic ... considerable obstetric importance (Fig. 4-5, 10 and ...

In the dog the pelvic inlet is very oblique with the ... the pubis level with or behind the sacrum. The ...

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The bones (ossa coxae) and sacrum of an ox (left lateral aspect)



The bones (ossa coxae) and sacrum of an ox (ventrocranial aspect)

The pelvic inlet is widest in its middle and narrowest [illegible] outlet is rather wide and can be enlarged by [illegible]. The pelvic cavity as a whole is straight and [illegible] problems during parturition in the dog.

[illegible] sacrum is slightly bent and the pelvic floor is [illegible] central inclination caudally. The pelvic [illegible] and almost in the dorsal plane, resulting in [illegible]. The diameter between the ischiatic [illegible] their inward orientation. The bony birth [illegible] measures about 8 to 9 cm in all directions. [illegible] fat and muscles the coxal tuberosity and [illegible] are still palpable. The ischial tuberosity re[illegible] from the rest of the skeleton for years, which [illegible] problems.

In the ox, the pelvic roof narrows from cranial to caudal (Fig. 4-15). The sacrum, which contributes most to the pelvic roof, is concave throughout its length. The lateral wall is formed by the iliac wings cranially and the pronounced ischiatic spine further caudally. The oblique orientation of the pelvic inlet places the pecten of the pubis beneath the second intersacral joint, which causes the pelvic inlet to be comparatively narrow. The rigidity of the sacrum makes an enlargement of the vertical diameter impossible. The pelvic outlet is narrower than the inlet. The diameter of the birth canal is diminished by the inward deviation of the ischial spines and the ischial tuberosities, which project dorsally from the pelvic floor. Another complicating factor regarding the passage of the foetus during parturition is the broken axis of the birth canal.

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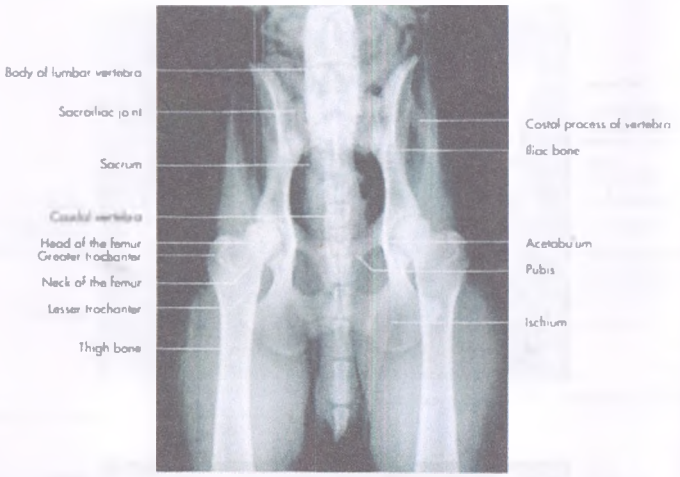


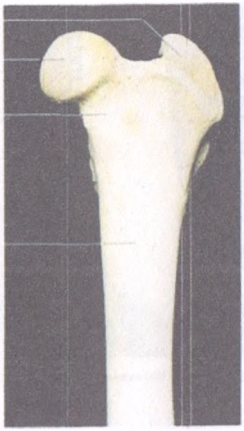
Fig. 4-17. Radiograph of the pelvic region of a dog (ventrodorsal projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

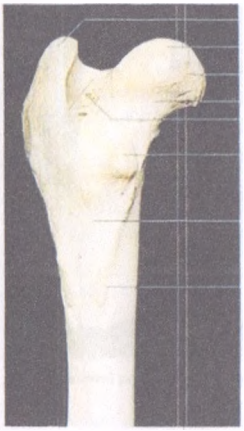
In the horse the pelvic roof is formed by the sacrum and the first two caudal vertebrae and slopes slightly downward caudally. Compared to pigs and cattle the ischiatic spine and tuberosity are less pronounced and therefore the sacrosciatic ligament contributes a greater part to the lateral wall of the pelvic cavity (Fig. 4-13). The pelvic floor is vertically flattened. Young horses show a swelling in the median plane, the os cribis, which disappears in adult mares. The terminal line [illegible]

Tab. 4-1. Times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centres of the pelvis. Ghetie, 1971

Species	Primary ossification centres				Additional ossification centres (iliac crest, iliac spine ventrocranial, ischial tuberosity, border of the epiphysis of the ischium)		
	Appearance			Fusion	Appearance		Fusion
	Ilium	Ischium	Pubis		Ilium	Ischium	
Horse	2nd month of pregnancy	3rd month of pregnancy	5th – 6th month of pregnancy	10 – 12 months after birth	5 – 8 months after birth	3 – 5 months after birth	4 – [illegible] years
Ox	2nd month of pregnancy	3rd month of pregnancy	4th – 5th month pregnancy	7 – 10 months after birth	6 – 8 months after birth	3 – 5 months after birth	5 years
Pig	7th week of pregnancy	2nd month of pregnancy	2nd month of pregnancy	one year after birth	6 – 8 months after birth	3 – 5 months after birth	6 – 7 years
Dog	4th week of pregnancy	5th week of pregnancy	5th week of pregnancy	6 months after birth	4 – 6 months after birth	4 – 6 months after birth	1 – 2 years
Cat	4th week of pregnancy	5th week of pregnancy	5th week of pregnancy	6 months after birth	4 – 6 months after birth	4 – 6 months after birth	

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...proximal extremity of the left femur of a dog (cranial

Fig. 4-19. Proximal extremity of the left femur of a dog (caudal aspect).

...at the pubis at the level of the third or fourth sacral ... the mare and the second sacral vertebra in the stal... pelvic inlet is wide and circular in the mare and ... especially ventrally in the stallion. The pelvic ... is more favorably formed for giving birth ... the cow. The inlet is wide, the outlet not dimin... protuberances, the axis straight and the cav... more spacious.

...ance and fusion of the separate ossification ... pelvic bones are shown in Table 4-1.

...of the thigh (skeleton femoris)

... of the proximal part (stylopodium) of the free ... of the hindlimb is formed by a single bone, the ... femur (Fig. 4-1 to 4). The femur is the strongest ... bones. Up to **four sesamoid bones** can be found ... the soft tissues of the thigh. The largest sesamoid ... **patella** or kneecap, which is embedded in the ten... of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh. In car... additional sesamoid bones are embedded in the ... gastrocnemius muscle and one in the head of the ... (Fig. 4-25 and 51).

... has a central function for posture and locomo... is characteristically modelled, similar to the ... for the origin and attachment of strong muscles and ... numerous bony protuberances and grooves ... In spite of species-specific modifications ... can be divided into three basic segments:

- ... extremity bearing the head ... femoris),
- shaft of femur (corpus ossis femoris),
- distal extremity bearing the medial and lateral condyle (condylus lateralis et medialis).

The **proximal extremity** curves medially and bears the prominent **femoral head**, which is offset from the long axis of the bone. The femoral head has a hemispherical articular surface for the articulation with the acetabulum, which is interrupted by a **notch** (fovea capitis) in which the intracapsular ligament of the femoral head (ligamentum capitis ossis femoris) attaches. This notch is circular and located in the centre in the dog and wedge-shaped and open to the periphery medially in the horse. The femoral head is separated from the shaft of the femur by a distinct **neck** (collum ossis femoris) in carnivores and in the pig. Lateral to the head projects a large process, the **greater trochanter** (trochanter major), which extends beyond the dorsal limit of the head of the femur in large animals, but stays level with the head in small animals and in the pig. The greater trochanter gives attachment to the gluteal muscles, acting as a lever arm for these extensors of the hip joint.

The greater trochanter and the neck of the femur are separated by the **trochanteric fossa** (fossa trochanterica) in which the deep muscles of the hip insert. It is divided into a cranial and a caudal part (pars cranialis et caudalis) in the horse. A smaller process, the **lesser trochanter** (trochanter minor), is present on the medial side and provides attachment to the iliopsoas muscle. In the horse, an additional process, the **third trochanter** (trochanter tertius), is located on the lateral aspect of the proximal third of the shaft and gives insertion to the superficial gluteal muscle (Fig. 3-18, 19 and 22).

The **diaphysis** is formed by the **shaft**. Its caudal surface is marked by a roughened area proximally (facies aspera), which is framed by the medial and **lateral lips** (labium media-

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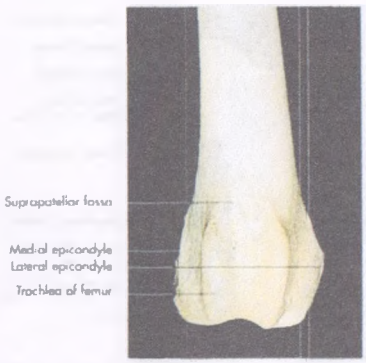


Fig. 4-20. Distal extremity of the left femur of a dog (cranial aspect)

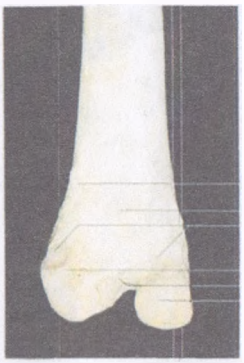


Fig. 4-21. Distal extremity of the left femur of a dog (caudal aspect)

le et lateralе) to which the adductor muscles attach. These lips continue distally and enclose the **popliteal surface** (facies poplitea). In the horse the caudodistal aspect is followed by the **supracondylar fossa** (fossa supracondylaris), which increases the area of origin of the superficial digital flexor muscle. The lateral and medial supracondylar tuberosities which give origin to the gastrocnemius muscle are situated on the distal third of the shaft (Fig. 4-20 to 22).

The **distal extremity** carries **medial** and **lateral** condyles (condylus lateralis et medialis) caudally and a trochlea cranially (Fig. 4-22 to 29). The condyles articulate with the proximal end of the tibia and the menisci to form the **femorotibial joint** (articulatio femorotibialis). Between the medial and lateral condyle is the deep **intercondylar fossa** (fossa intercondylaris), which is separated from the **popliteal surface** (facies poplitea) by the horizontal **intercondylar line** (linea

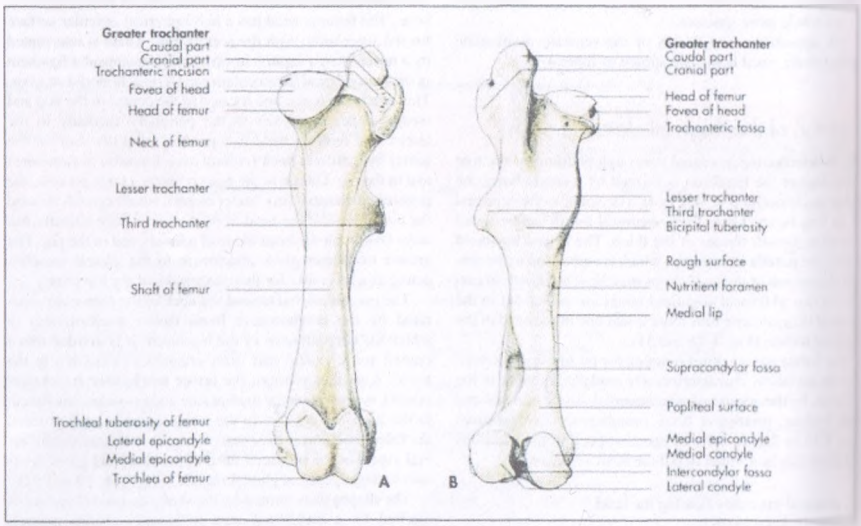


Fig. 4-22. Left femur of the horse (schematic, A cranial and B caudal aspect).

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Fig. 4-33. Distal extremity of the right femur of a horse (distolateral aspect).

...articular). The abaxial surfaces of both condyles are roughened for the attachment of the collateral ligaments of the stifle joint (epicondylus lateralis et medialis). The lateral condyle exhibits two depressions: the cranial pit is the **extensor fossa** (fossa extensoria) from which the long digital extensor muscle and the third fibular muscle arise; the caudal pit (fossa muscli poplitei) gives origin to the popliteal muscle. On the caudal surface of each condyle are small facets for the articulation with the **fabellae** (ossa sesamoidea musculi gastrocnemii), the two sesamoid bones embedded in the tendons of origin of the gastrocnemius muscle (Fig. 4-25, 28 and 29). The **femoral trochlea** (trochlea ossis femoris) consists of two ridges, separated by a groove, which articulate with the patella to form the **femoropatellar joint** (articulatio femoropatellaris). These ridges are markedly asymmetrical in large animals, with the medial trochlear ridge being the larger. In the horse the medial ridge carries a protuberance (tuberculum trochleae ossis femoris) that projects proximally. Table 4-2 shows the times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centres.

Kneecap (patella)

The patella is a large **sesamoid bone** located in the tendon of insertion of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh. Its **articular surface** (facies articularis) faces caudally towards the femur; the free surface faces cranially (facies cranialis) and is palpable under the skin. The base of the patella is directed proximally and is roughened for muscular attachment; the apex faces distally. In the horse and the ox the patella is extended medially by the **fibrocartilage of the patella** (fibrocartilago parapatellaris medialis) (Fig. 4-26, 27, 29, 50, 54 and 57).

Skeleton of the leg (skeleton cruris)

The skeleton of the distal part (zeugopodium) of the free appendage of the hindlimb consists of two bones, the **tibia** and **fibula** (Fig. 4-1 to 3, 30 to 36 and 38ff.). These bones are very dissimilar in strength, like their analogous elements in the forelimb, with the medial bone, the tibia, being by far the stronger of the two. The fibula runs along the lateral border of the tibia and does not articulate with the femur proximally. Thus, only the tibia supports the weight of the animal, which is reflected in an increase in stoutness of this bone. The reduction of the fibula is further progressed than the reduction of the ulna in the forelimb. In cattle the fibula is almost completely reduced; in the horse the proximal part is still a separate bone, whereas the distal part is incorporated in the tibia. In carnivores the fibula is reduced in diameter but not in length.

Table 4-1. Times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centres of the femur, Ghetie, 1971

Species	Appearance of the diaphysis nucleus	Appearance in the epiphysis				Fusion in the epiphysis	
		Proximal			Distal	Proximal	Distal
		Head of femur	Greater trochanter	Lesser trochanter			
Horse	2nd month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy	9th month of pregnancy	12 months after birth	6th month of pregnancy	3 years	3½ years
Ox	2nd month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy	8th month of pregnancy	11 – 12th month of pregnancy	6th month of pregnancy	3 years	3½ years
Pig	8th week of pregnancy	10th week pregnancy	Shortly before birth	Shortly before birth	Shortly before birth	3 years	3½ years
Carnivores	4th week of pregnancy	3 – 4 weeks after birth	5 weeks after birth	5 weeks after birth	3 weeks after birth	1 – 1½ years	1 – 1½ years

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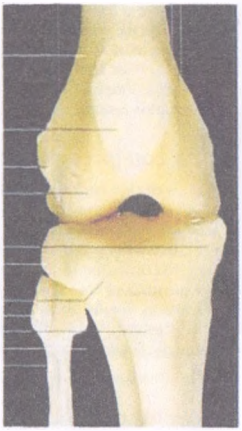


Fig. 4·24. Skeleton of the right stifle joint of a dog (cranial aspect).

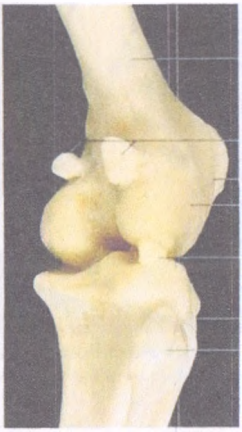


Fig. 4·25. Skeleton of the right stifle joint of a dog (caudolateral aspect).

Tibia

The tibia contributes a major part to the formation of the stifle joint (Fig. 4-24 to 29), which is reflected in the expanded proximal extremity of this bone.

The proximal extremity of the tibia presents articular surfaces for the corresponding femoral condyles and the menisci and various roughenings for ligamentous attachment (Fig. 4-26, 27, 30, 31 and 34 to 36). The tibia can be divided into three segments:

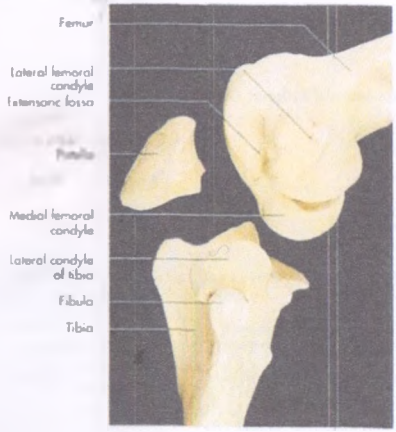


Fig. 4·26. Distal extremity of the left femur, patella and proximal extremity of the tibia of a horse (lateral aspect).



Fig. 4·27. Distal extremity of the left femur, patella and proximal extremity of the tibia of a horse (medial aspect).

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Fig. 4-28. Radiograph of the right stifle joint of a dog (craniocaudal [illegible] courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ullrike Matis, Munich



Fig. 4-29. Radiograph of the right stifle joint of a juvenile dog (mediolateral projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ullrike Matis, Munich

[illegible] extremity presenting the articular surface [illegible] **articularis**) for the formation of the [illegible] joint,
[illegible] shaft (**corpus tibiae**) and
[illegible] extremity bearing the cochlea [illegible] **tibiae**) for the articulation with the talus.

Proximal extremity (extremitas proximalis) is three sided [illegible] two condyles (**condylus lateralis** et **medialis**), [illegible] separated caudally by the **popliteal notch** (incisura [illegible] where the like-named muscle is found. Each con[illegible] an articular surface for the articulation with the [illegible] femoral condyle or the distal fibrocartilagen[illegible] of the meniscus (Fig. 4-34 and 4-35). Between [illegible] surfaces of the condyles projects the **intercon[illegible]** (eminentia intercondylaris), which is subdi[illegible] a higher medial part (**tuberculum intercondylare me[illegible]**) and a lower lateral part (**tuberculum intercondylare la[illegible]**). The **central intercondylar area** (area intercondyla[illegible] (Fig. 4-30, 34 to 36). Cranial and caudal to the [illegible] eminence are depressions for ligamentous at[illegible] (**areae intercondylares craniales et caudales**). The [illegible] of the condyle exhibits an **articular facet** (**facies [illegible]**) for the articulation with the proximal end [illegible] fibula. In ruminants the remnants of the fibula are [illegible] articular surface. A deep notch on the craniola[illegible] the **extensor groove** (sulcus extensorius), gives [illegible] long digital extensor muscle.

The **shaft of the tibia** is craniocaudally compressed and [illegible] prominent osseous structures. The **tibial tuberos[illegible]** (**tuberositas tibiae**) is a large process projecting from the [illegible] aspect of the proximal part of the tibial shaft and [illegible] important landmark. Extending distally from the tibial tuberosity is the **cranial border of the tibia** (margo cranialis). It is palpable in the live animal and divides the surface of the shaft into a lateral part, which is covered by muscles, and a medial part, which is subcutaneous. In the horse the caudal surface of the shaft is marked by several grooves for the attachments of the popliteal muscle (**lineae musculi poplitei**) and the flexor muscles of the digit (**lineae musculares**).

The distal extremity (extremitas distalis) carries the **cochlea**, which consists of an intermediate ridge and two flanking grooves. The central ridge is orientated in a sagittal direction in most domestic species, but in the horse it is orientated craniolaterally. The cochlea receives the trochlear ridges of the talus for articulation (Fig. 4-32 to 34). The medial side of the cochlea is enlarged by a bony protuberance, the **medial malleolus** (malleolus medialis) (Fig. 4-32 and 34). The lateral aspect of the cochlea shows species-specific variations. In carnivores and the pig the cochlea is notched laterally (**incisura fibularis**) for the articulation with the distal end of the fibula. In cattle the lateral aspect of the cochlea bears an articular facet for the articulation with the remnant of the distal fibula, the isolated **malleolar bone** (os malleolare). In the horse the lateral malleolus is formed by the fusion of the distal end of the fibula to the tibia.

Fibula

The fibula can be divided into a **proximal head** (caput fibulae), a **neck** (collum fibulae), a **shaft** (corpus fibulae) and a distal extremity or **lateral malleolus** (malleolus lateralis) (Fig. 4-30 to 34). The fibula has undergone remarked reduction during evolution, the degree of which varies among the species. The fibula of the pig and the carnivores has retained its whole length, but is reduced in strength and function. The fibula is separated from the tibia by a long **interosseous space** (spatium

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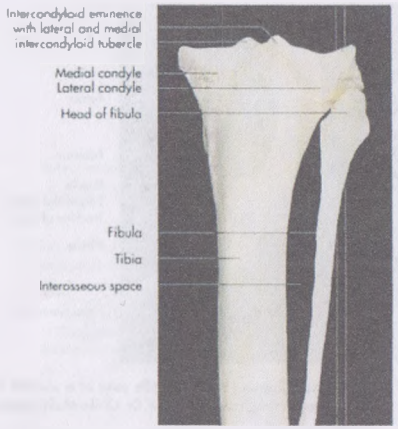


Fig. 4-30. Proximal extremity of the right tibia and fibula of a dog (caudal aspect)

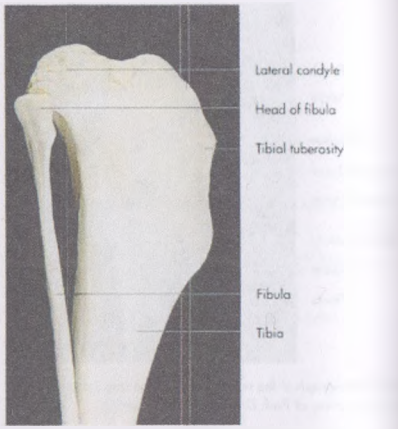


Fig. 4-31. Proximal extremity of the right tibia and fibula of a [illegible] (craniolateral aspect)

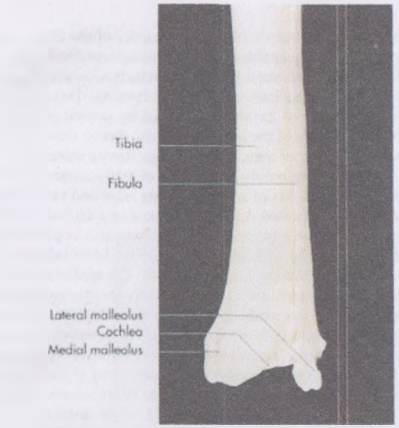


Fig. 4-32. Distal extremity of the right tibia and fibula of a dog (caudal aspect)

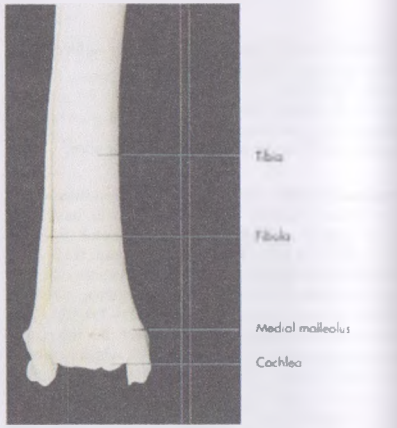


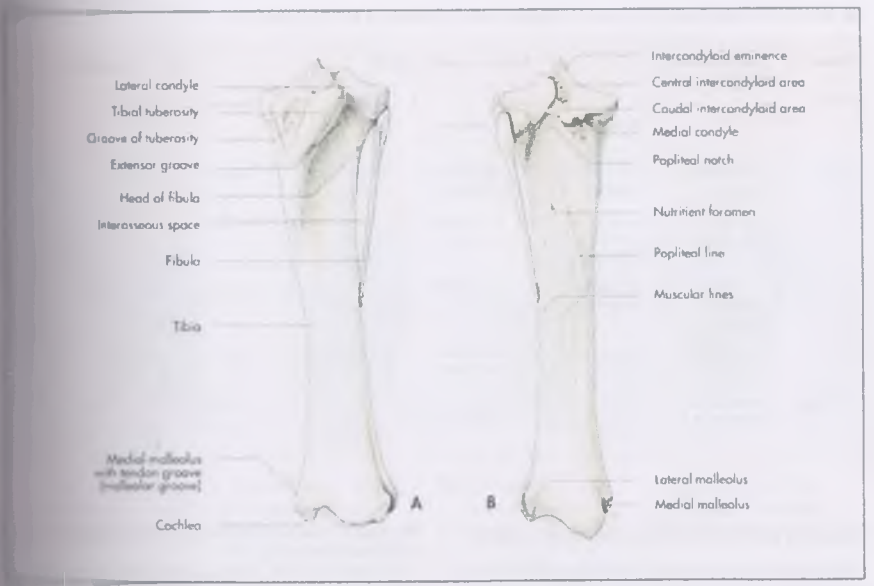
Fig. 4-33. Distal extremity of the right tibia and fibula of a [illegible] (cranial aspect)

interosseum cruris), which is bridged by soft tissue. While the interosseous space extends the whole length of the leg in the pig, it is limited to the proximal part in carnivores. The fibula runs lateral to the tibia and divides the muscles of the leg into a cranial and a caudal group. It can be palpated over its whole length in thin dogs, whereas in heavily muscled dogs only the proximal extremity is palpable. The head of the fibula articulates with the lateral condyle of the tibia.

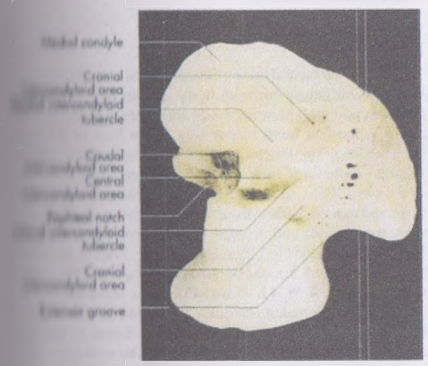
In ruminants the shaft of the fibula is completely reduced. The proximal extremity is fused to the tibia, and the distal part persists as an isolated bone (os malleolare), which articulates with the distal extremity of the tibia. In the horse only the proximal part of the fibula remains isolated (Fig. 4.41).

The head articulates with the tibia and the shaft tapers towards the middle of the leg. The distal extremity is completely incorporated into the tibia and forms the lateral malleolus, which has a separate ossification centre, visible radiographically in the juvenile horse.

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[illegible] Left tibia and fibula of the horse (schematic, A cranial and B caudal aspect).



[illegible] extremity of the right tibia of a horse (end view).

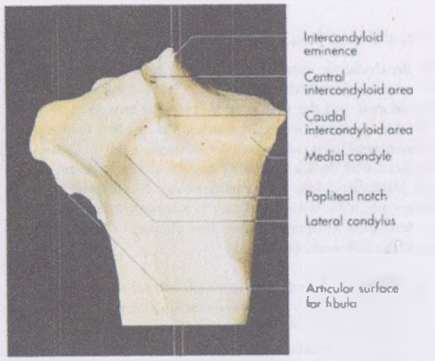


Fig. 4-36. Proximal extremity of the left tibia of a horse (caudal aspect)

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Tab. 4-3. Times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centres of the tibia. Ghetie, 1971

Species	Appearance of the diaphysis nucleus	Appearance in the epiphysis			Fusion in the epiphysis	
Tibia		Proximal		Distal	Proximal	Distal
		Condyle	Tuberosity			
Horse	2nd month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy	9th month of pregnancy	9th month of pregnancy	3 years	2 years
Ox	2nd month of pregnancy	Middle of 6th - 7th month of pregnancy	9th month of pregnancy	Middle of 7th - 8th month of pregnancy	3 - 4 years	2 - 2 years
Sheep	6th - 8th week of pregnancy	4th month of pregnancy	Around birth	3rd month of pregnancy	3 - years	15 - 20 months
Pig	2nd month of pregnancy	Shortly before birth	A few weeks after birth	Shortly before birth	3 - years	2 years
Carnivores	4th week of pregnancy	End of 1st month after birth	A few weeks after birth	End of 1st month after birth	12 months	12 - 13 months

Skeleton of the hindfoot (skeleton pedis)

The skeleton of the pes forms the osseous part of the autopodium and consists from proximal to distal of three segments:

- **basipodium:** tarsal bones (ossa tarsi),
- **metapodium:** metatarsal bones (ossa metatarsalia) and
- **acropodium:** phalanges (ossa digitorum pedis).

Tarsal bones (ossa tarsi)

In the domestic mammals the tarsal bones are arranged in three rows, the **proximal or crural row**, the **middle or intertarsal row** and the **distal or metatarsal row** (Fig. 4-37 to 45). The proximal row articulates with the tibia, forming the **tarsocrural joint** (articulatio tarsocruralis), the distal row articulates with the metatarsal bones to form the **tarsometatarsal joint** (articulatio tarsometatarsea). Neighbouring tarsal bones articulate with each other in a complex fashion, which is described in detail later in this chapter. The tarsus contains the following bones:

proximal or crural row (in mediolateral sequence)
- tibial tarsal bone or talus (os tarsi tibiale),
- fibular tarsal bone or calcaneus (os tarsi fibulare),
- middle or intertarsal row (os tarsi centrale), and
- central tarsal bone (os tarsi centrale), and

distal or metatarsal row (in mediolateral sequence)
- first tarsal bone (os tarsale primum),
- second tarsal bone (os tarsale secundum),
- third tarsal bone (os tarsale tertium) and
- fourth tarsal bone (os tarsale quartum).

The pattern of the tarsal bones varies in the different species and is illustrated in Fig. 4-37.

In carnivores and pigs the original number of **seven tarsal bones** is maintained. The tarsus of the ruminants consists of **five tarsal bones**: the central and fourth and the second and third tarsal bones are fused. In the horse the first and second tarsal bones are fused, so that the total numbers of **tarsal bones** is reduced to **six**.

Talus (os tarsi tibiale)

The talus is the medial bone of the proximal row of the tarsus. It is divisible into a compact **body** (corpus tali), a **trochlea** (trochlea tali) with prominent sagittal ridges dorsoproximally and a cylindrical **head** (caput tali) as the base of the bone (Fig. 4-37ff.). The **trochlea of the talus** articulates with the sagittal grooves and the intermediate ridge of the distal end of the tibia. The sagittal ridges of the trochlea are less prominent and extend further distal in the carnivores than in other domestic animals and account for the increased mobility of the tarsus compared to other species. The sides of the trochlea articulate with the distal end of the fibula and the medial malleolus (Fig. 4-39, 41, 43 and 45). In the horse the trochlear ridges are orientated obliquely in a mediolateral direction, thus causing a forward and outward movement of the digit during flexion of the tarsus (Fig. 4-42). The trochlear ridges of the ruminants are directed sagittally. The trochlea of the talus articulates with the malleolar bone laterally and with the medial malleolus of the tibia medially.

The **head of the talus** forms a smaller distal trochlea for the articulation with the central tarsal bone in all domestic species but the horse, which exhibits a more or less flat articular surface towards the central tarsal bone. In carnivores the head of the talus is separated from the body by a distinct neck

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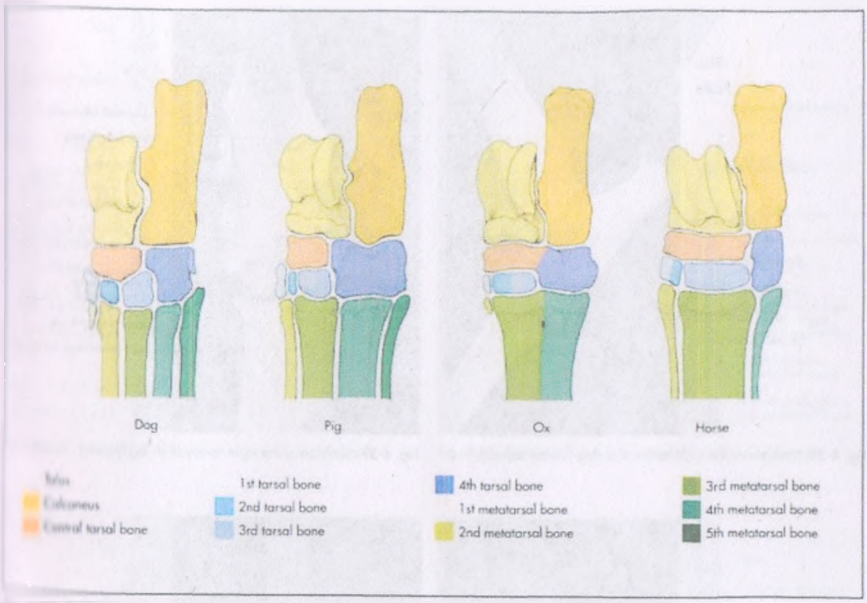


Fig. 5.11. Skeleton of the tarsus in the domestic mammals (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

Table 5.11. Times of appearance and fusion of the separate ossification centres of the tarsal bones. Ghetie, 1971

Bones	Appearance of the ossification centres						
	Proximal row		Central tarsal bone	Distal row			
	Calcaneus	Talus		4th tarsal bone	3rd	2nd	1st
Ox	4th month of pregnancy	4th month of pregnancy	6th month of pregnancy	End of 5th month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy	10th month of pregnancy fusion of 1st and 2nd tarsal bones	
Pig	4th month of pregnancy	4th month of pregnancy	6th month of pregnancy	End of 5th month of pregnancy	7th month of pregnancy fusion of 2nd and 3rd		8th month of pregnancy
			Shortly after birth fusion of central tarsal bone and 4th tarsal bone				
Dog		Shortly before birth		Around the time of birth		Shortly after birth	
Carnivores	Around the time of birth	At the end of the first month after birth					

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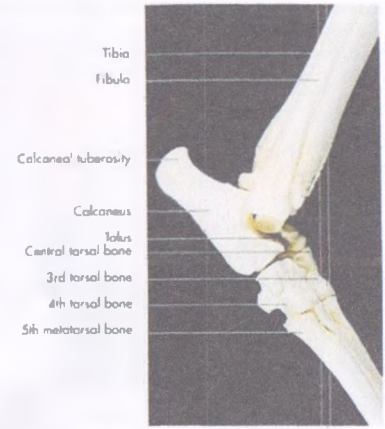


Fig. 4-38. Skeleton of the right tarsus of a dog (lateral aspect)

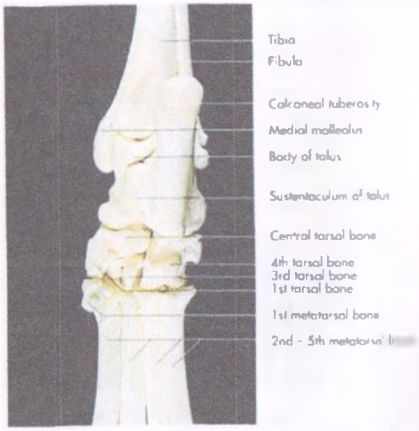


Fig. 4-39. Skeleton of the right tarsus of a dog (plantar aspect)

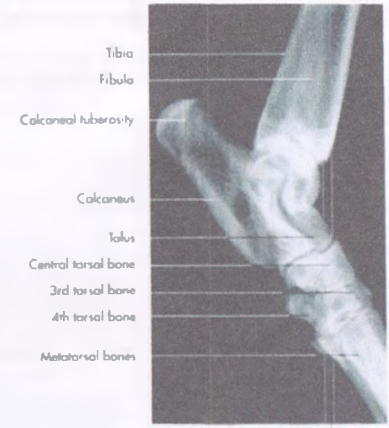


Fig. 4-40. Skeleton of the right tarsus of a dog (lateral aspect); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

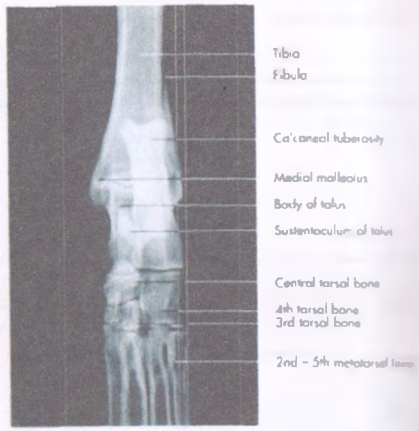


Fig. 4-41. Skeleton of the right tarsus of a dog (plantar aspect); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

(collum tali). The distal trochlea is well defined in ruminants and articulates with the combined central and fourth tarsal bones (os centroquartale). The distal trochlea is less distinct than in ruminants and results in a decreased range of movement in this joint. The plantar and lateral aspects of the talus articulate with the calcaneus.

Calcaneus (os calcis, os tarsi fibulare)

The calcaneus lies lateral and plantar to the talus and provides the osseous base of the **point of the hock** (calx). It presents articulating surfaces towards the talus medially and dorsally and towards the fourth tarsal bone distally. The **calcaneal tuberosity** (tuber calcanei) (Fig. 4-38 to 45) extends the calcaneus

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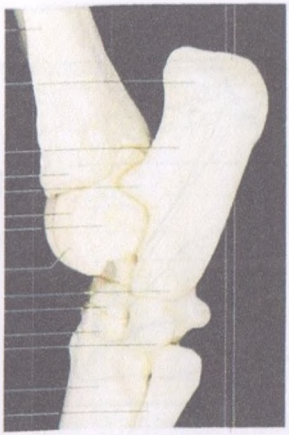


Fig. 4-43. Skeleton of the left tarsus of a horse (lateral aspect)

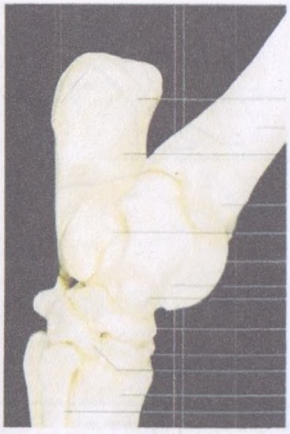


Fig. 4-44. Radiograph of the left tarsus of a horse (lateromedial projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. C. Stanek, Vienna



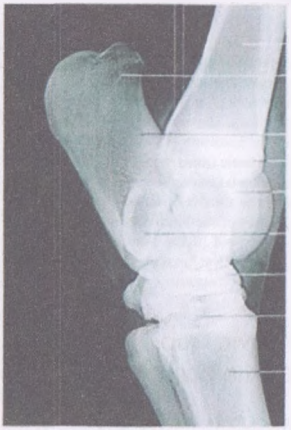


Fig. 4-45. Radiograph of the right tarsus of a horse (mediolateral projection), courtesy of Prof. Dr. C. Stanek, Vienna

and the talus to form the prominent point of the ... an important landmark in live animals. It serves ... the muscles which extend the **hock** (tarsus). A ... the **sustentaculum of talus** (sustentacu- ... present on the medial side of the distal part of the ... (Fig. 30, 41, 43 and 45). It overlaps the talus on its ... and supports the deep digital flexor tendon. In ruminants the calcaneal tuberosity is expanded and the proximal aspect is roughend and hollowed by a shallow groove. In the horse, the calcaneal tuberosity is very pronounced and its proximal surface is marked by a groove. A pointed **coracoid process** (processus coracoideus) is situated at the base of the calcaneus (Fig. 4-42 and 44).

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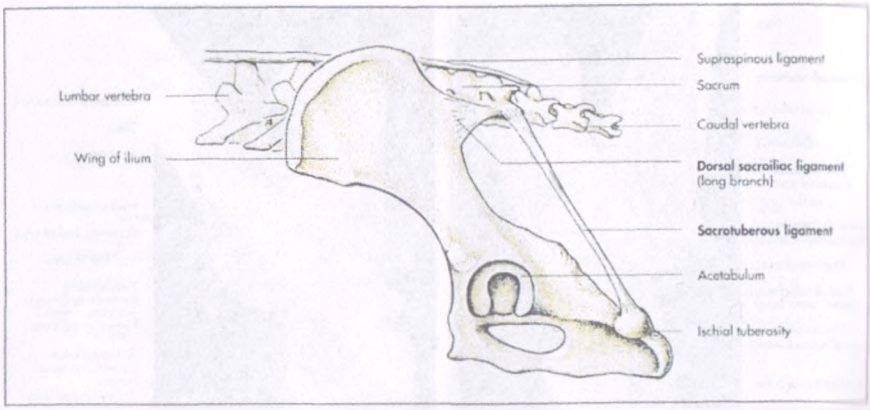


Fig. 4-46. Sacrotuberous ligament of the dog (schematic).

Metatarsal and digital skeleton (ossa metatarsalia et ossa digiti pedis)

The skeleton of the metatarsus and phalanges closely resembles those of the forelimb. The metatarsal bones tend to be longer and more slender with a stronger cortex than the corresponding metacarpal bones. The **cannon bone** (third metatarsal bone) of the equine hindlimb is circular in cross section, whereas the **cannon bone** (third metacarpal bone) of the forelimb is oval. In cattle an additional sesamoid bone can be present just proximal to the third metatarsal bone. The phalangeal and sesamoid bones of the hindlimb are almost identical to the forelimb. The hoof of the hindfoot is narrower than that of the front foot, the toe longer and the angle of the hoofwall steeper.

Joints of the pelvic limb (articulationes membri pelvini)

The pelvic limb is joined to the trunk by the **pelvic girdle** (cingulum membri pelvini), which is formed from the combined ilium, ischium and pubis (Fig. 4-1). The **hip bones** (ossa coxae) are united midventrally by fibrous cartilage to form the **pelvic symphysis** (symphysis pelvina). The cranial pubic symphysis ossifies with advancing age, whereas the caudal ischial symphysis remains unossified in most species. The ilium articulates dorsally with the sacrum forming the sacroiliac joint. The two hip bones, the sacrum and the first caudal vertebra constitute the bony pelvis. The cranial pubic ligament (ligamentum pubicum craniale) connects the free borders of the pubic bones. The **obturator membrane** (membrana obturatoria) is a thin layer of fibrous tissue, which covers the obturator foramen (Fig. 4-47 to 49).

Sacroiliac joint (articulatio sacroiliaca)

The sacroiliac joint is a tightly apposed **synovial joint** formed by the auricular surfaces (facies auriculares) of the wing of the ilium and the wing of the sacrum. The articular surfaces are covered by cartilage. The joint capsule fits closely to the joint and is enforced by the **ventral sacroiliac ligaments** (ligamenta sacroiliaca ventralia). Another **sacroiliac ligaments** (ligamenta sacroiliaca) are the:

- **Interosseous sacroiliac ligaments** (ligamenta sacroiliaca interossea) extending between the iliac tuberosity of the wing of the ilium and the dorsal surface of the wing of the sacrum.
- **dorsal sacroiliac ligaments** (ligamenta sacroiliaca dorsalia), which are divided into two branches, the short branch (pars brevis) extends between the sacral tuber and the mammillary processes (carnivora and pig) or the spinous processes (ruminants and horse) of the sacrum; the long branch (pars longa) extends between the sacral tuber and the lateral part of the sacrum (Fig. 4-47 and 48).

The **sacrotuberous ligament** (ligamentum sacrotuberale) is a other fibrous cord in the dog extending between the transverse process of the last sacral vertebrae and the ischial tuberosity (Fig. 4-46). It is absent in the cat. In ungulates it is expanded to a broad sheet extending between the lateral part of the sacrum, the ox or the transverse processes of the first caudal vertebra, the horse and pig, and the dorsal border of the ilium and ischium (Fig. 4-47 and 48). It is therefore named the **broad sacrotuberous ligament** (ligamentum sacrotuberale latum).

The lesser and the greater ischiatic foramina (foramen ischiadicus majus et minus) remain uncovered to allow the passage of vessels, nerves and tendons. The caudal border of this

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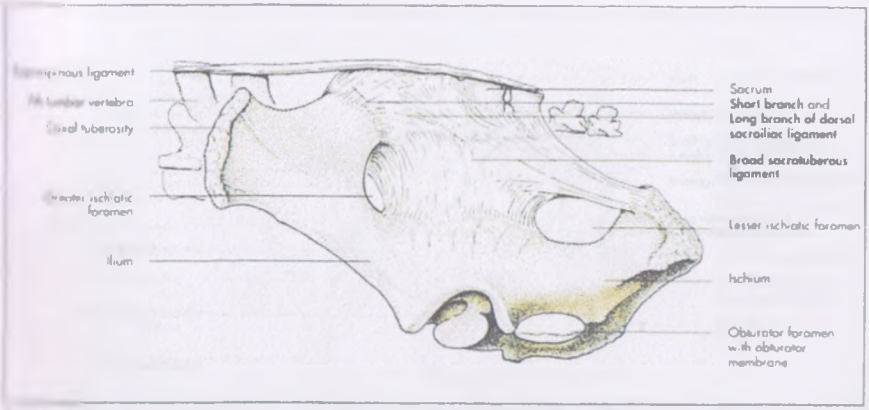


Fig. 4.47. Ligaments of the pelvis of the ox (schematic); after Červeny, 1980.

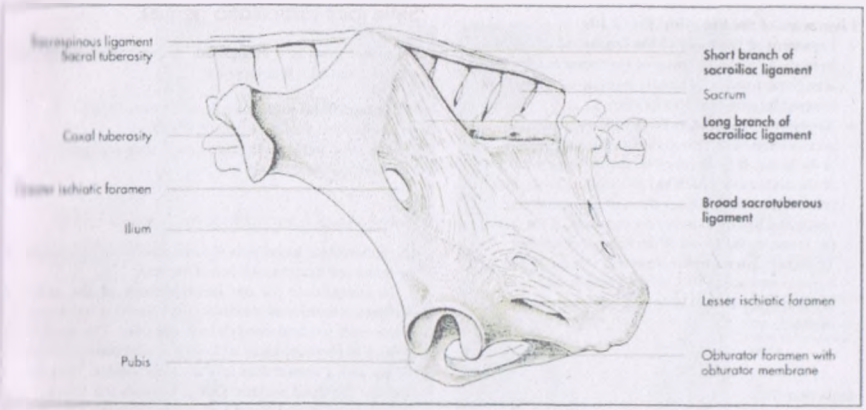


Fig. 4.48. Ligaments of the pelvis of the horse (schematic); after Ghetie, Pastea and Riga, 1955.

Coxofemoral or hip joint (articulatio coxae)

The hip joint is a **spheroidal joint** formed by the head of the femur articulating with the acetabulum. The acetabulum is deepened by a band of fibrocartilage, the **acetabular lip** (labrum acetabulare), which is applied to the acetabular rim.

The joint capsule is spacious and attaches to the acetabular lip. It is indented by the ligament of the **head of the femur** (ligamentum capitis ossis femoris). In ungulates the range of movement is largely restricted to flexion and extension with a limited capacity of rotation, adduction and abduction. This restriction of movement in the spheroidal hip joint is due to the shape of the femoral head (Fig. 4.49), the intra-articular ligaments and the massive muscles of the thigh. These structures allow a greater range of movement in the dog and the cat compared to the other domestic species.

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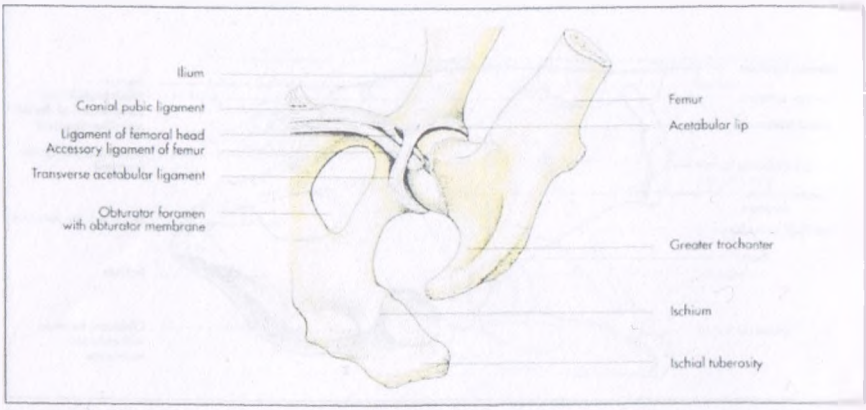


Fig. 4-49. Left hip joint of the horse (schematic); after Ghetie, 1967.

Ligaments of the hip joint (Fig. 4-49):

- **Ligament of the head of the femur**, which extends from the fovea in the head of the femur to the acetabular fossa; it is largely intracapsular and covered by synovial membrane.
- **Accessory ligament of the femur** (ligamentum accessorium ossis femoris), which is only present in the horse. It is detached from the straight muscle of the abdomen, which has its origin at the cranial pubic ligament. It passes through the acetabular notch and inserts close to the ligament of the head of the femur in the fovea of the head of the femur.
- **Transverse acetabular ligament** (ligamentum transversum acetabuli), which bridges the acetabular notch and keeps the other two ligaments in place.

Injection sites:

- **Dog**: the dog is put in lateral recumbency; the femur should be at a 90° angle to the vertebral column; the needle is inserted at the craniodorsal border of the greater trochanter, and is directed caudally and advanced parallel to the neck of the femur.
- **Ox**: the animal should stand squarely. A 20 cm needle is inserted just cranial to the greater trochanter and advanced in a slightly caudoventral direction.
- **Horse**: the horse should stand squarely and restrained within stocks. The greater trochanter should be palpated and a 15 cm needle inserted just caudal to it, into the trochanteric notch. The needle is directed in a horizontal plane craniomedially at a 45° angle to the long axis of the horse.

Stifle joint (articulatio genus)

The stifle joint is a **composite, incongruent hinge joint** (Fig. 4-50 to 61). It comprises:

- **femorotibial joint** (articulatio femorotibialis) formed by the femur and tibia and
- **femoropatellar joint** (articulatio femoropatellaris) formed by the femur and patella.

Femorotibial joint (articulatio femorotibialis)

The femorotibial articulation is formed between the condyles of the femur and the proximal end of the tibia.

To compensate for the **incongruency of the articular surfaces**, a **meniscus** (meniscus articularis) is interposed between each femoral condyle and the tibia. The menisci are semilunar fibrocartilages with a thick and convex peripheral border and a central thin and concave border. They have a concave proximal surface facing towards the femoral condyle and a flattened distal surface towards the tibia (Fig. 4-54, 55 and 60).

Although a **condylar joint** with the chief movements being **flexion** and **extension**, the mobility of the menisci allows a limited degree of rotational movement to the stifle joint. The spiral configuration of the femoral condyles and the eccentric insertion of the collateral ligaments in relation to the axis of the joint movement tightens the ligaments and slows down the movement when the joint moves toward the extended position.

The **joint capsule** is spacious and its **fibrous layer** (membrana fibrosa) is attached to the margin of the articular surfaces and the menisci, thus completely enclosing the femoral condyles.

The **synovial layer** (membrana synovialis) of the joint capsule covers the cruciate ligaments and forms a partition, complete only in horses, between the medial and lateral fos-

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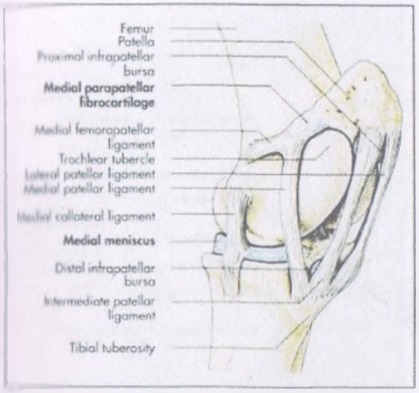


Fig. 4-50. Ligaments of the left stifle joint of the horse (schematic, cranial aspect), after Ghetie, Pastea and Riga, 1955.

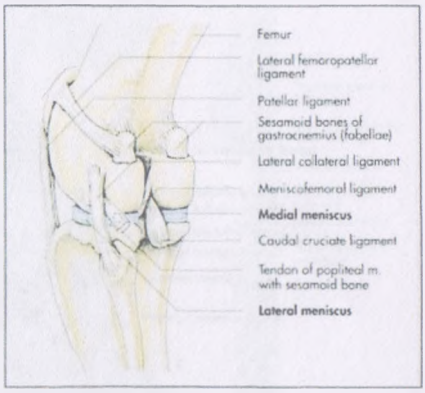


Fig. 4-51. Left stifle joint of the dog (schematic, caudolateral aspect).

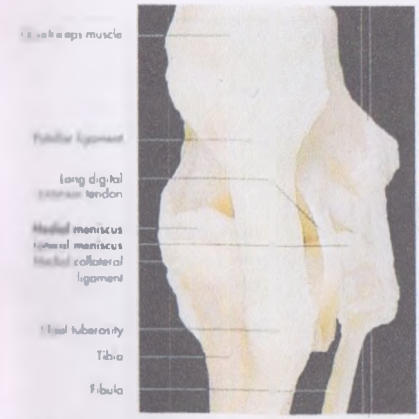


Fig. 4-52. Ligaments of the left stifle joint of a dog (cranial aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

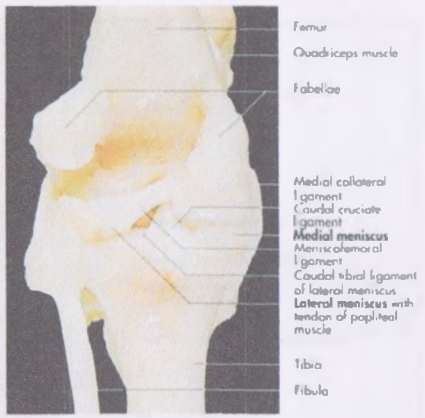


Fig. 4-53. Ligaments of the left stifle joint of a dog (caudal aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

...tibial joint. The two femorotibial joint sacs are further separated by the menisci into two freely communicating compartments, a proximal and distal one.

The lateral femorotibial joint has two pouches. One pouch invests the tendon of the long digital extensor muscle at its origin from the extensor fossa; the other invests the tendon of origin of the popliteal muscle (Fig. 4-58 and 59).

Ligaments of the femorotibial joints can be divided into the:

- ligaments of the menisci and
- ligaments of the femorotibial joints.

Each meniscus is attached to the proximal tibia by cranial and caudal ligaments. The lateral meniscus has an additional ligament to the distal femur.

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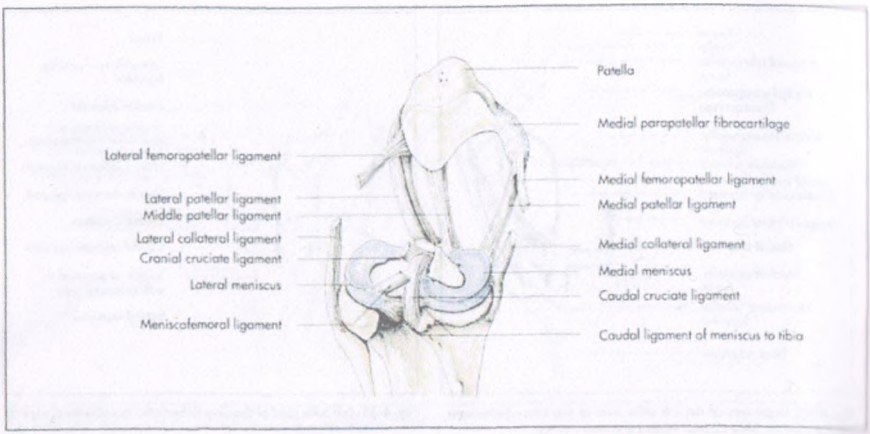


Fig. 4-54. Ligaments of the left stifle joint of the horse after removal of the distal end of the femur (schematic, caudal aspect); after [illegible] 1967

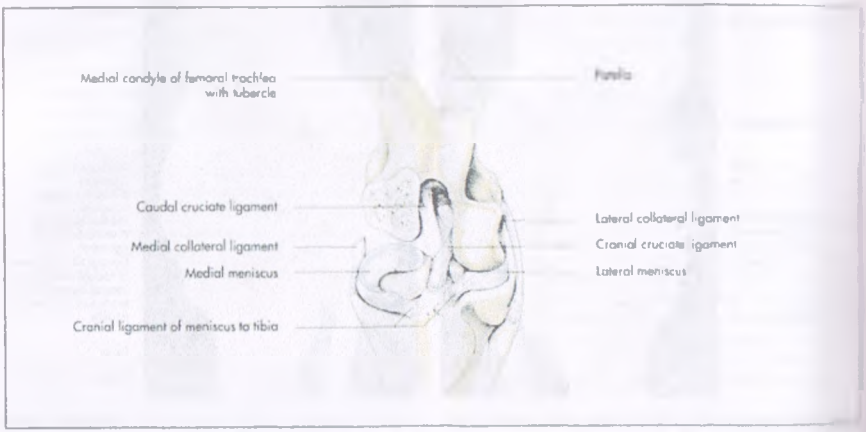


Fig. 4-55. Ligaments of the left stifle joint of the horse after removal of the medial femoral condyle (schematic, cranial aspect); after [illegible] 1980

Meniscal ligaments (Fig. 4-54, 55, 60 and 61)

- **Cranial tibial ligaments of the menisci** (ligamentum tibiale craniale menisci lateralis et medialis): The lateral and medial ligaments extend from the cranial part of each meniscus to the lateral and medial cranial intercondyloid area of the tibia.
- **Caudal tibial ligaments of the menisci** (ligamentum tibiale caudale menisci lateralis et medialis): The lateral ligament extends from the caudal angle of the lateral meniscus to the popliteal notch of the tibia. The medial ligament extends from the caudal angle of the medial meniscus to the caudal intercondyloid area of the tibia.

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Fig. 4-56 Right stifle joint of a horse (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. [illegible] Vienna.

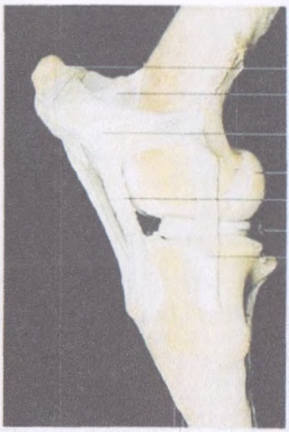


Fig. 4-57 Right stifle joint of a horse (medial aspect), courtesy of Dr. F. Teufel, Vienna.



Fig. 4-58. Acrylic cast of the left stifle joint of a horse (medial aspect); courtesy of Dr. F. Teufel, Vienna.



Fig. 4-59. Acrylic cast of the left stifle joint of a horse (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. F. Teufel, Vienna.

[illegible] ligament of the lateral meniscus ([illegible]ligamentum meniscofemorale caudale): It passes from the caudal angle of the lateral meniscus to the [illegible] of the medial femoral condyle

- Transverse ligament (ligamentum transversum genus): It connects the cranial angles of the two menisci in [illegible] and in some bovine individuals

Femorotibial ligaments (Fig. 4-50 to 57):

- **Lateral** and **medial collateral ligaments** (ligamentum collaterale laterale et mediale): The lateral or fibular collateral ligament arises from the lateral epicondyle of the femur and ends with one branch on the lateral condyle of the tibia and with a stronger branch on the head of the fibula

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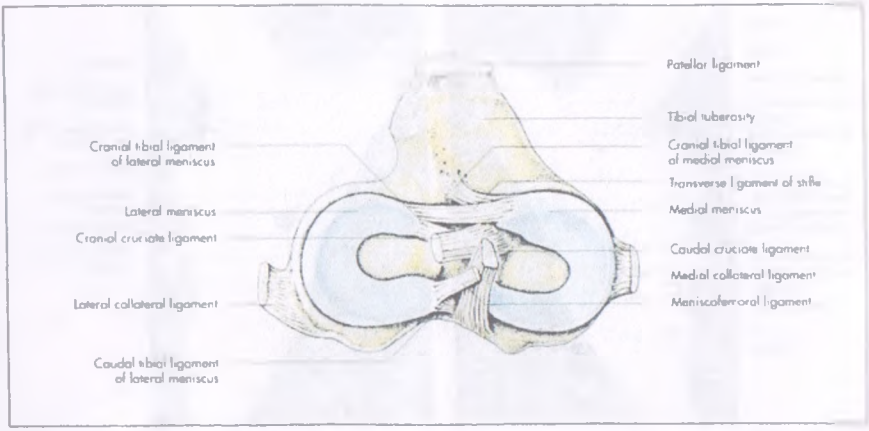


Fig. 4-60. Proximal end of the left tibia with menisci of the dog (schematic), after Červeny, 1980

The medial or tibial collateral ligament extends between the medial epicondyle of the femur and a roughened area distal to the margin of the medial condyle of the tibia. It fuses with the joint capsule and the medial meniscus.

- **Cranial and caudal cruciate ligaments of the stifle** (ligamenta cruciata genus). The cruciate ligaments are mainly situated in the intercondyloid fossa of the femur between the two synovial sacs of the femorotibial joints. The cranial cruciate ligament arises in the intercondylar area of the lateral femoral condyle, extends craniodistally and inserts on the central intercondylar area of the tibia. The caudal cruciate ligament is attached to the intercondylar area of the medial femoral condyle, is directed caudodistally and ends on the popliteal notch of the tibia.
- **Oblique popliteal ligament** (ligamentum popliteum obliquum) consists of fibrous strands embedded within the joint capsule running in a lateroproximal to mediodistal orientation.

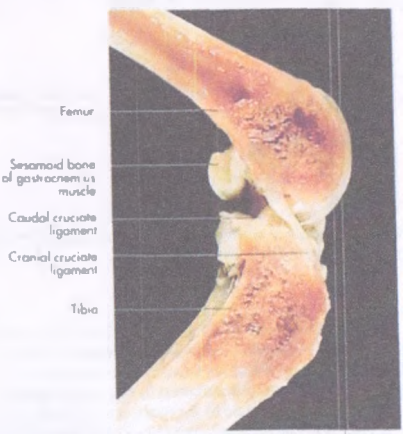


Fig. 4-61. Cruciate ligaments of a cat (paramedian section), courtesy of Dr. Sabine Langer, Vienna.

Femoropatellar joint (articulatio femoropatellaris)

The femoropatellar joint is formed by the articular surface of the patella and the femur. Since the patella resembles a sesamoid bone sliding on the trochlea of the femur, it is classified as a ginglymus joint. The **ligaments of the femoropatellar joint** (Fig. 4-53, 4-54 and 4-56) can be divided into:

- patellar retinacula (retinacula patellae),
- femoropatellar ligaments (ligamentum femoropatellare laterale et mediale) and
- patellar ligament (ligamentum patellae).

The **patellar retinacula** are strands of connective tissue attached from the regional fascia between the tendon of the quadriceps muscle, the patella, the femoral condyles and the trochlea of the tibia. The medial and lateral femoropatellar ligaments are bands of loose fibres, partially blended with the overlying retinacula. They extend between the epicondyles of the femur and the same side of the patella.

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The patella is joined to the tibial tuberosity by a single patellar ligament in carnivores, the pig and small ruminants and by three patellar ligaments in cattle and the horse. The **single patellar ligament** of carnivores, the pig and small ruminants is identical to the **middle patellar ligament** (ligamentum patellae intermedium) in the other species and is formed by the distal portion of the tendon of insertion of the quadriceps femoris muscle. The patellar ligament is separated from the joint capsule by a large quantity of fat, the **infrapatellar fat pad** (corpus adiposum infrapatellare). A small synovial bursa is frequently located between the distal part of the ligament and the tuberosity of the tibia (bursa infrapatellaris).

The **lateral and medial patellar ligaments** (ligamentum patellae mediale et laterale) of the ox and the horse are ligamentous thickenings of the fibrous retinaculum. The lateral patellar ligament extends from the lateral part of the cranial surface of the patella to the lateral part of the tuberosity of the tibia. It is joined to the strong tendon of the biceps muscle of the thigh.

The medial patellar ligament is attached proximally to the patella (a fibrocartilage) and ends on the medial aspect of the tibial tuberosity. The middle patellar ligament extends from the middle part of the apex of the patella to the tuberosity of the tibia.

A bursa is interposed between the ligament and the groove on the tuberosity of the tibia (bursa infrapatellaris distalis). A similar bursa is present in the horse between the proximal part of the ligament and the apex of the patella (bursa infrapatellaris proximalis). The middle patellar ligament can be palpated just proximal to the tibial plateau.

In the horse the arrangement of the stifle joint provides a **locking mechanism**, which is an important part of the passive support apparatus, by which one hindlimb may support a significant part of the body weight while the other limb is rested. The patella and the middle and medial patellar ligaments constitute a binding loop. Thus the patella can be hooked over the trochlea of the femur by contraction of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh in the resting position.

The joint capsule is very spacious with pouches under the tendon of insertion of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh (Fig. 4.51). Distally it communicates with the femorotibial joint cavity. The femoropatellar and the femorotibial joints have a common joint capsule with three sacs, one for the femoropatellar joint, one for the medial and one for the lateral femorotibial joint, all of which intercommunicate in the cattle and the pig. In ruminants the two femorotibial sacs communicate with each other and the medial femorotibial sac communicates with the femoropatellar joint.

In the horse the femoropatellar joint cavity communicates with the lateral femorotibial joint and sometimes with the medial joint, there is no communication between the two femorotibial joints.

In cattle the cavities of the femorotibial joints also include the **tibialis' sesamoid bones** within the tendon of origin of the gastrocnemius muscle (Fig. 4.51 and 61). The lateral femorotibial joint capsule extends a pouch to form the proximal tibiofibular joint capsule.

Injection sites

- **Dog**
  The dog is placed in lateral recumbency with the joint of interest closest to the table in a slightly flexed position. The needle is inserted on the medial border of the patellar ligament, halfway between the patella and the tibial tuberosity. The needle is advanced in a proximocaudal direction.
- **Pig**
  The pig is placed in lateral recumbency. The needle is inserted just distal to the patella on the lateral border of the patellar ligament. The needle is advanced in the horizontal plane directed caudomedially.
- **Ox**
  Femoropatellar joint: A 12 cm needle is inserted between the medial and middle patellar ligament, 3 cm proximal to the tibial tuberosity and advanced proximally.
  Femorotibial joint: A 6 cm needle is inserted into the lateral pouch at the cranial or caudal border of the long digital extensor muscle between the tibial tuberosity and the lateral condyle and advanced proximally.
- **Horse**
  To ensure anaesthesia of **all three joint compartments** each joint should be injected separately.
  The **femoropatellar joint** is injected with a 3 cm long needle in the weightbearing horse just distal to the apex of the patella between the middle and medial patellar ligaments in a horizontal plane in a craniocaudal direction.
  The **medial femorotibial joint** is injected with a 3 cm long needle in the weightbearing horse 2 cm proximal to the medial condyle of the tibia, between the medial patellar and the medial collateral ligaments in a horizontal plane in a lateral direction.
  The **lateral femorotibial joint** is injected with an 8 cm long needle in the weightbearing horse just proximal to the tibial tuberosity cranial or caudal to the long digital extensor tendon in a medioproximal direction.

Tibiofibular joints

Due to the species-specific reduction of the fibula, the tibiofibular joints vary accordingly. In carnivores the fibula articulates with the tibia at each end by small and tight synovial joints, the **proximal and distal tibiofibular joints** (articulationes tibiofibularis proximalis et distalis) and forms a **syndesmosis** between the shafts of the two bones (membrana interossea cruris). The proximal joint cavity communicates with the lateral **femorotibial joint** in all domestic mammals, except the horse; the distal one, with the tarsocrural joint. In ruminants the head of the fibula is fused to the lateral condyle of the tibia and no proximal tibiofibular joint exists. The **distal tibiofibular joint** is formed by the distal end of the fibula and the lateral malleolus.

In horses only the **proximal tibiofibular joint** exists, since the distal end of the fibula is fused to the tibia to form the lateral malleolus.

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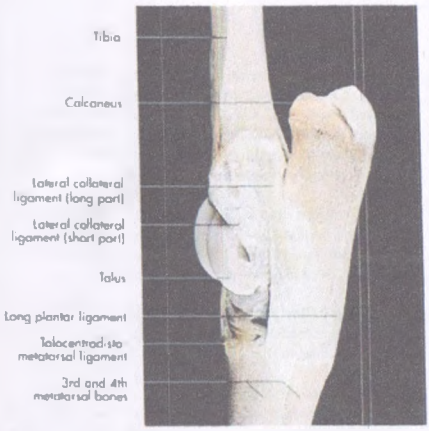


Fig. 4-62. Ligaments of the left tarsus of a horse (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

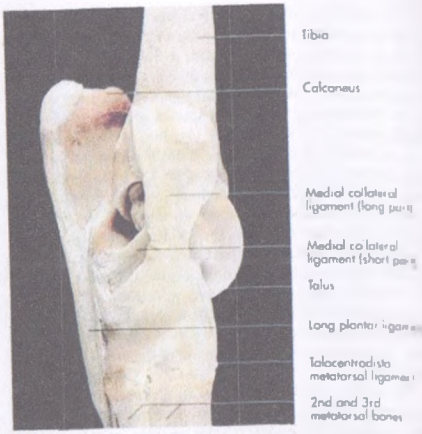


Fig. 4-63. Ligaments of the left tarsus of a horse (medial aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

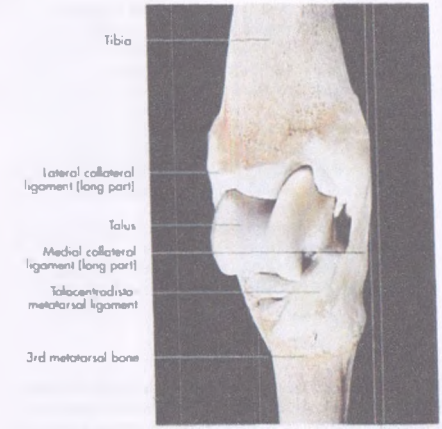


Fig. 4-64. Ligaments of the right tarsus of a horse (dorsal aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

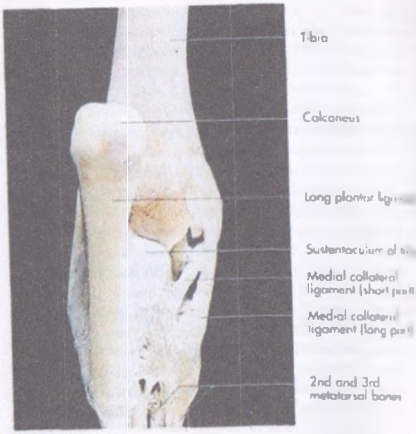


Fig. 4-65. Ligaments of the left tarsus of a horse (plantar aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

Pedal joints (articulationes pedis)

Tarsal joint or hock (articulatio tarsi)

The tarsal joint is a **composite joint** formed between the tibia and fibula, the tarsal bones and the metatarsal bones with four levels of articulation.

The **fibrous layer** (membrana fibrosa) of the joint capsule extends from the distal end of the crus to the proximal part of the metatarsus, covering the whole tarsus.

The **synovial layer** (membrana synovialis) forms four synovial sacs for the four levels of articulation:

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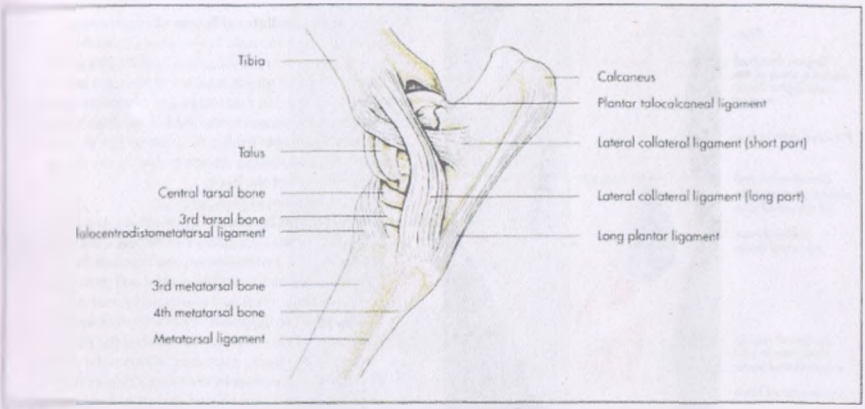


Fig. 4.66 Ligaments of the left tarsus of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect); after Červeny, 1980.

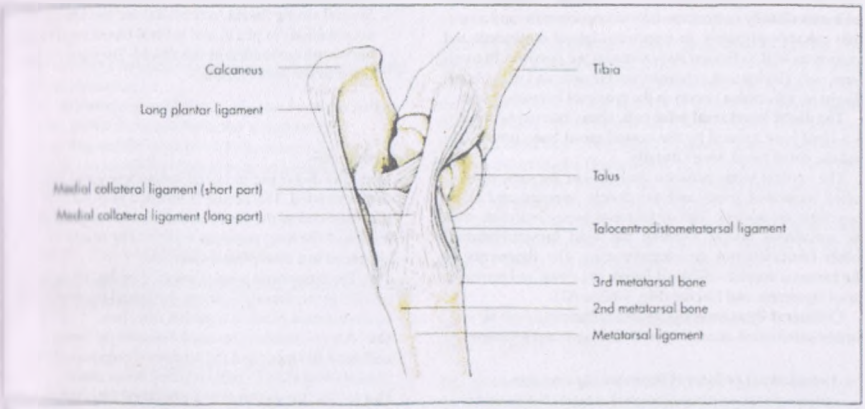


Fig. 4.67 Ligaments of the left tarsus of the horse (schematic, medial aspect); after Červeny, 1980.

- [illegible] joint (articulatio tarsocruralis),
- [illegible] intertarsal joints
  [illegible] (articulationes intertarseae proximales),
- [illegible] joint (articulatio centrodistalis),
- [illegible] intertarsal joints
  [illegible] (articulationes intertarseae distales) and
- [illegible] tarsal joints (articulationes tarsometatarseae).

[illegible] joint is a cochlear joint formed between the [illegible] of the talus and the distal end of the tibia and between the calcaneus and the distal end of the fibula or the lateral malleolus (ruminants). Since the distal end of the fibula is incorporated within the tibia in the horse, the tarsocrural joint is only formed between the tibia and the talus.

The joint capsule is spacious and communicates with the proximal intertarsal joint. It has three pouches: two plantar pouches, which extend proximal to the medial and lateral malleoli, and a dorsal pouch, which extends under the medial tendon of the cranial tibial muscle (m. tibialis cranialis) (Fig. 4.68).

The proximal intertarsal joint (articulatio intertarsea proximalis) can be subdivided into the articulation between the talus

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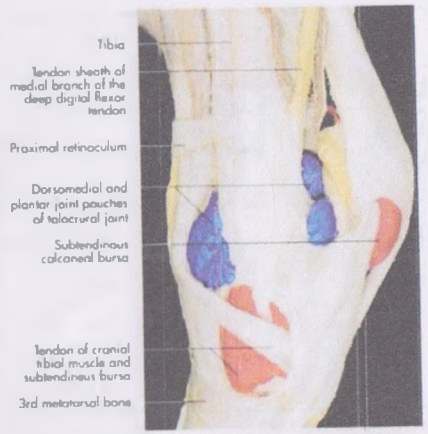


Fig. 4-68. Acrylic cast of the right tarsus of a horse (medial aspect), courtesy of Dr. Margit Teufel, Vienna

and the calcaneus proximally and the **central** and **fourth tarsal bones distally** (articulatio talocalcaneocentralis and articulatio calcaneoquartalis). In carnivores lateral movement and rotation as well as flexion and extension are possible. In ruminants only flexion and extension are possible and in the horse almost no movement occurs in the proximal intertarsal joint.

The **distal intertarsal joint** (articulatio intertarsea distalis) is a rigid joint formed by the central tarsal bone proximally and the small tarsal bones distally.

The vertical joints between the bones of the same row are called intratarsal joints and are closely opposed and allow very little movement. The distal tarsal bones articulate with the metatarsal bones, forming the rigid **tarsometatarsal joints** (articulationes tarsometatarseae). The **ligaments of the tarsus** comprise collateral ligaments, distal and proximal tarsal ligaments and fasciae (Fig. 4-62 to 67).

Collateral ligaments (ligamenta collateralia) can be further subdivided according to their length and location:

- **Long lateral collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale tarsi laterale longum) extends between the lateral malleolus and the base of the lateral metatarsal bones, attaching also to the lateral tarsal bones along its course.
- **Short lateral collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale tarsi laterale breve) runs deep to the long lateral collateral ligament. It arises from the lateral malleolus and attaches with one branch to the calcaneus and one branch to the talus.
- **Long medial collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale tarsi mediale longum) extends between the medial malleolus and the base of the medial metatarsal bones, attaching also to the medial tarsal bones along its course.
- **Short medial collateral ligament** (ligamentum collaterale tarsi mediale breve) arises from the medial malleolus, deep to the long one, and divides into two branches, one of which attaches to the talus and one to the calcaneus. In carnivores and ruminants an additional branch extends to the medial metatarsal bone.
- **Various ligaments** bridge the joint spaces in vertical, horizontal and oblique directions on the dorsal and plantar aspects of the hock.

The more prominent ones are:

– **Dorsal tarsal ligament** (ligamentum tarsi dorsale or ligamentum talocentrodistotarsale). A triangular sheath, which spreads out between the medial aspect of the talus and the central and third tarsal bones and the third and fourth metatarsal bones.

– **Long plantar ligament** (ligamentum plantare longum). A very strong, flat band on the plantar aspect of the hock, extending between the distal calcaneus in carnivores or the tuber calcanei in the other domestic species and the central and fourth tarsal bones and the proximal end of the third and fourth metatarsal bones.

– Various **short ligaments** bridge the joint spaces between the adjacent bones of the same level or the neighbouring level (ligamenta tarsi interossea).

Several strong **fasciae** (retinacula) are formed to keep tendons in place, and several blood vessels and nerves are embedded in this fascia. They are partly fused to the joint capsule.

Injection sites

- **Dog**: The dog is put in lateral recumbency and the hock extended. The needle is inserted just distal to the distal end of the fibula and dorsal to the palpable tendon of the long peroneal muscle. The needle is advanced in a distoplantar direction.
- **Pig**: The tarsocrural joint is injected by inserting the needle on the dorsal border of the lateral malleolus in a horizontal plane in a medial direction.
- **Ox**: A 6 cm needle is inserted between the lateral collateral ligament and the tendon of insertion of the cranial tibial muscle and advanced horizontally.
- **Horse**: The **tarsocrural** and **proximal intertarsal joints** are injected from the mediodorsal aspect with a 3 cm needle in the weightbearing horse. The needle is inserted into the palpable depression just distal to the medial malleolus in a horizontal plane in a lateral direction. Care has to be taken not to puncture the cranial branch of the medial saphenous vein.

The **distal intertarsal joint** is injected from the medial aspect with a 3 cm needle in the weightbearing horse. A small depression is often palpable at the level of the distal part of the cunean tendon and along an imaginary line between the palpable distal tubercle of the talus and the proximal ends of the second and third metatarsal bones.

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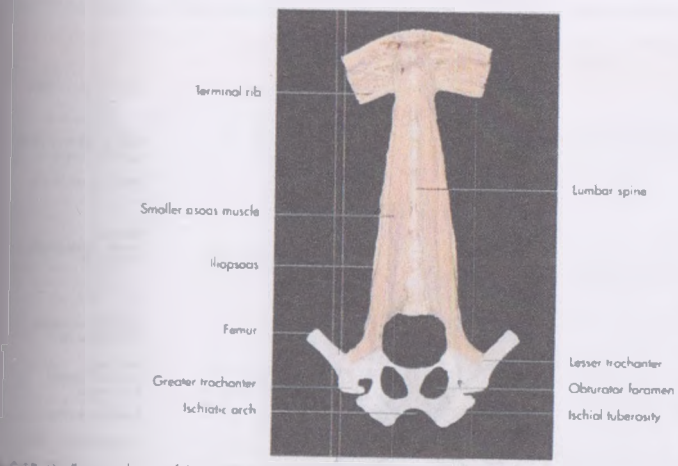


Fig. 4-69. Girdle musculature of the pelvic limb of a dog (ventral aspect)

The needle is inserted in a horizontal plane in a slightly caudal direction.

The **tarsometatarsal joint** is injected from the lateral aspect with a 2 cm needle in the weightbearing horse. The needle is inserted 1 cm proximal to the head of the fourth metatarsal bone in a dorsal and slightly distomedial direction.

Metatarsal and phalangeal joints

The joints of the metatarsus and digits are similar to the corresponding joints of the thoracic limb.

Muscles of the pelvic limb (musculi membri pelvini)

The pelvic limb musculature includes the **fasciae** and both the **girdle musculature** and the **intrinsic muscules of the limb**.

Fasciae of the pelvis and the pelvic limb

The fascia of the trunk, which is termed the **transverse fascia** (fascia transversalis) in the abdomen, is continuous with the **iliac fascia** (fascia iliaca) of the pelvis. The iliac fascia forms a portion of the **muscular lacuna** (lacuna musculorum) for passage of the iliopsoas muscle and, craniomedial to it, the **vascular lacuna** (lacuna vasorum), through which the femoral artery and vein and the saphenous nerve pass (Fig. 4-70). The fascia is continuous with the inguinal ligament and the fascia of the **pelvic diaphragm** (fascia diaphragmatis pelvis). The muscles of the hindlimb are superficially covered by several layers of extensive fascia, which send multiple septa between the muscles. In the gluteal region it is termed the **gluteal fascia** (fascia glutaea), on the medial side of the femur it is termed the **femoral fascia** (fascia femoralis) and on the lateral aspect of the femur it is termed the **fascia lata** (Fig. 4-71). Distally these fasciae continue as the **fascia of the stifle joint** (fascia genus) and the **crural fascia** (fascia cruris) (Fig. 4-72 and 75). These fascia, divided in superficial and deep laminae, are strengthened to form the retinacula of the stifle. The crural fascia of the tarsus holds the tendons as they pass over these joints.

Girdle or extrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb

The girdle muscles arise from the ventral aspect of the lumbar vertebrae and insert on the pelvis or the femur. The musculature of the pelvic girdle, also termed the sublumbar muscles, comprises:

- smaller psoas muscle (m. psoas minor),
- iliopsoas muscle (m. iliopsoas) and
- quadrate lumbar muscle (m. quadratus lumborum).

These muscles control dorsiflexion and ventriflexion of the spine and stabilise the vertebral column and the pelvis during progression. Because of the limited mobility of the sacroiliac articulation, these muscles are weaker than their equivalent muscles of the thoracic limb (Fig. 4-69, 70 and Tab. 4-5).

The **smaller psoas muscle** arises from the ventral aspect of the second or third caudal thoracic vertebra and the fourth

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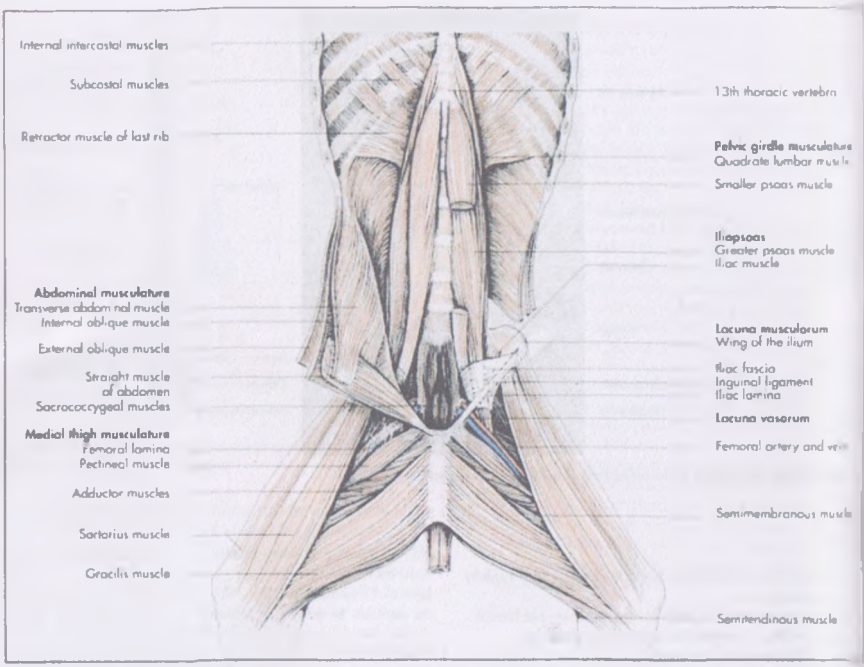


Fig. 4-70. Girdle musculature, medial muscles of the thigh of the pelvic limb and abdominal muscles of the dog (schematic, ventral aspect, after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

or fifth cranial lumbar vertebra and inserts by means of a strong tendon to the psoas tubercle of the femoral shaft (Fig. 4-70). In carnivores the smaller psoas muscle is, like the other sublumbar muscles, a strong fleshy muscle. The muscle bellies of each side border the tendons of origin of the diaphragmatic crura. The flat tendon of insertion is fused to the iliac fascia and ends on the arcuate line of the ilium extending to the iliopubic eminence. In ruminants and the horse the muscle is marked by multiple tendinous intersections.

The smaller psoas muscle steepens the pelvis when the vertebral column is fixed and flexes the vertebral column during the stance phase of movement.

The **iliopsoas muscle** is the strongest muscle of the pelvic girdle. It can be divided into the lumbar and iliac parts in all domestic mammals except in carnivores, where both portions are firmly fused.

- greater psoas muscle (m. psoas major) representing the lumbar portion and
- iliac muscle (m. iliacus) representing the iliac portion.

The **greater psoas muscle** originates from the bodies and transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae, the last two thoracic vertebrae and the ribs and is lateral to the small lumbar muscles (Fig. 4-70). It lies ventral to the quadrate lumbar muscle and dorsal to the smaller psoas muscles. It inserts on the lesser trochanter of the femur after its incorporation with the iliac muscle.

The **iliac muscle** originates on the wing and the shaft of the ilium and inserts on the lesser trochanter of the femur by the common tendon of the iliopsoas muscle. Before inserting, the iliopsoas muscle passes through the **muscular lacuna** (lacuna musculorum). This opening is formed caudal to the abdominal wall by the os coxae laterally and caudally, the rectus abdominis muscle medially and the iliac fascia cranially.

In ruminants and the horse the iliac muscle is a strong fleshy muscle, which is flat in cross section cranially, but more rounded caudally. It arises with two heads, the strong lateral head originates from the wing of the ilium, the smaller medial one from its shaft. The two parts enclose the greater psoas muscle, with which they unite to form the common tendon of insertion on the lesser trochanter of the femur.

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Tab. 6.6. Girdle musculature of the pelvic limb

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Smaller psoas muscle ventral branches of 1st - 5th lumbar nerves lumbosacral nerves cranial branches of lumbar genitofemoral nerve femoral nerve	Last 3 thoracic vertebrae 1st - 4th lumbar vertebrae	Arcuate line of ilium	Flexor and flexor of the lumbar vertebral column
Psoas muscle **Greater psoas muscle** ventral branches of 1st - 5th lumbar nerves lumbosacral nerves femoral nerve	Last thoracic vertebra lumbar vertebrae	Lesser trochanter of femur	Flexor of the hip joint draws hindlimb forwards
Iliac muscle lumbar nerves genitofemoral nerve femoral nerve	Iliac fascia, wing of ilium	Lesser trochanter of femur	
Quadrate lumbar muscle ventral branches of 1st - 5th lumbar nerves lumbosacral nerves cranial branches of lumbar genitofemoral nerve femoral nerve	Ventral on the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae	Transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae wing of sacrum wing of ilum	Flexor of the lumbar vertebral column

Tab. 6.6. Rump muscles

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Superficial gluteal muscle cranial gluteal nerve	Gluteal fascia and sacrum	Greater and third trochanters	Extensor and flexor of the hip joint
Biceps femoral muscle caudal gluteal nerve	2nd - 4th caudal vertebrae	Fascia lata patella	Draws limb outwards and backwards draws the tail to the side
Middle gluteal muscle cranial gluteal nerve	Iliac wing, sacrum and 1st lumbar vertebra	Greater trochanter	Extensor of the hip joint draws limb outwards and backwards
Deep gluteal muscle cranial gluteal nerve	Last sacral vertebra and sacrotuberous ligament	Greater trochanter	Extensor of the hip joint draws limb outwards and backwards
Deep gluteal muscle caudal gluteal nerve	Ischiatic spine	Greater trochanter	Draws limb outwards and backwards
Tensor muscle of fascia lata cranial gluteal nerve	Coxal tuberosity	Fascia lata	Draws limb forwards tensor of the fascia

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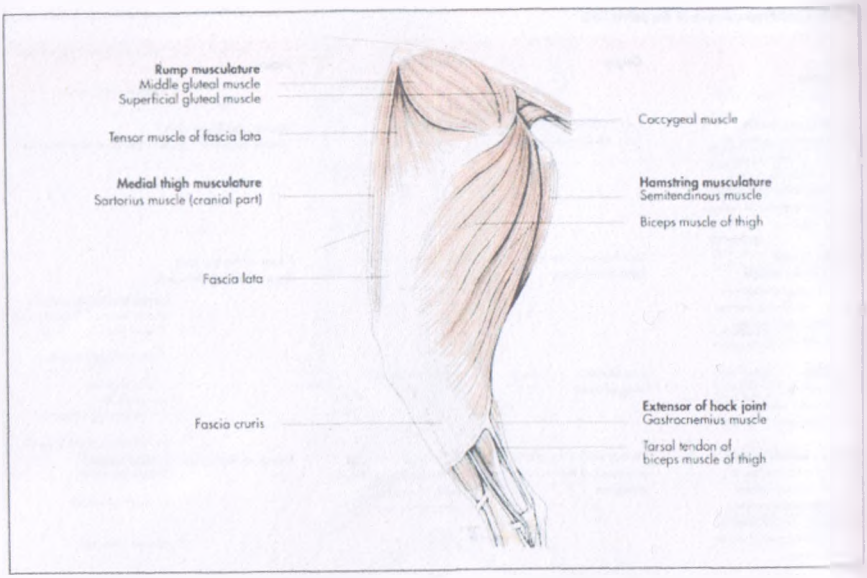


Fig. 4-71. Superficial muscles of the pelvic limb of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect), after Schaller 1992.

The iliopsoas muscles advance the pelvic limb by flexing the hip joint and by outward rotation of the stifle joint. When the limb is fixed, in the stance phase of movement, the iliopsoas muscles flex the vertebral column. When the limb is extended the muscle causes the trunk to be drawn caudally.

The **quadrate lumbar muscle** originates from the ventral surfaces of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and the proximal ends of the ribs and inserts on the ventral surface of the wings of the sacrum and ilium (Fig. 4-70).

In carnivores this muscle is stronger than in the other domestic species and has a thoracic part and a lumbar part. The thoracic part has several origins arising from each of the bodies of the last three thoracic vertebrae and inserts on the transverse processes of the cranial lumbar vertebrae. The lumbar part extends to and inserts on the ventral border of the sacrum and iliac wing.

In ruminants and the horse, the quadrate lumbar muscle is a thin, tendinous muscle, which originates from the proximal end of the last rib and the transverse processes of the cranial lumbar vertebrae, and inserts on the transverse processes of the caudal lumbar vertebrae and the wing of the sacrum.

The quadrate lumbar muscle stabilizes the lumbar vertebral column. In animals where ventriflexion and dorsiflexion are possible, such as carnivores and the pig, it also causes ventriflexion of the sacroiliac joint.

Intrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb

The intrinsic muscles of the hindlimb provide the [illegible] impetus to locomotion. The power developed by these muscles is transferred to the trunk through the coxofemoral and sacroiliac joints, which are supported by the muscles of the hindlimb.

Thus, the intrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb is further developed and shows more complex structure than the corresponding musculature of the thoracic limb. The muscle bellies of the proximal muscles are large and model the contour of the croup and thigh. The long tendinous muscles of the distal limb, similar to the forelimb, cause flexion and extension of the tarsal and digital joints (Fig. 4-71f).

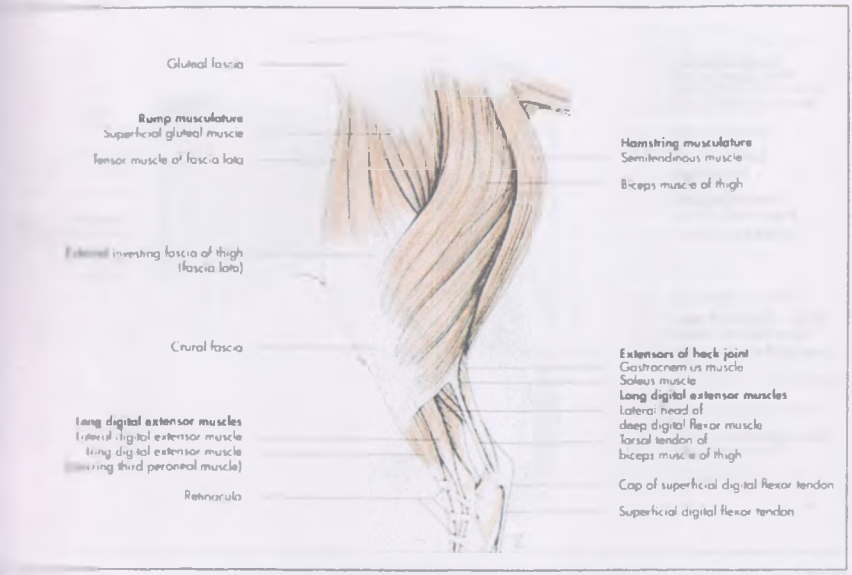
The **intrinsic musculature** comprises:

- muscles of the hip,
- muscles of the stifle,
- muscles of the tarsus and
- muscles of the digits.

The muscles of the hip are particularly large in the [illegible] where they round the contours of the croup in a distinctive fashion.

Their primary function is to extend the hip joint, but they also act as extensors of the stifle and the tarsus. These muscles are grouped according to their position.

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Superficial muscles of the pelvic limb of the horse (lateral aspect, schematic), after Ghetie, 1955.

hip muscles comprises:

hump muscles,
caudal muscles of the thigh,
medial muscles of the thigh and
inner pelvic muscles.

hip muscles

muscles of the rump lie over the lateral and caudal parts of the pelvic wall. They extend between the ilium and the sacrum and are arranged in several layers (Fig. 4-71 to 76 and Fig. 4-81). This group comprises:

superficial gluteal muscle (m. gluteus superficialis),
gluteofemoral muscle (m. gluteofemoralis),
middle gluteal muscle (m. gluteus medius),
piriform muscle (m. piriformis),
deep gluteal muscle (m. gluteus profundus) and
tensor muscle of the fascia lata (m. tensor fasciae latae).

superficial gluteal muscle shows species-specific variations. The muscle is only present as an isolated muscle in the dog, whereas in other domestic species it is fused to neighbouring muscles (Fig. 4-71 ff.).

In ruminants the superficial gluteal muscle is a rectangular muscle plate extending between the sacrum, the first caudal vertebra and the ilium proximally and the major trochanter distally. It originates from the gluteal fascia, the lateral part of the sacrum, the sacral tuber of the ilium, the first caudal vertebra and the sacrotuberous ligament. Its fibres converge to form a tendon, which runs caudodistally over the greater trochanter and inserts distal to it (Fig. 4-72).

In the pig the superficial gluteal muscle has two portions, a smaller superficial and a larger deep portion. The superficial part is further subdivided into a cranial portion, which takes origin from the gluteal fascia and fuses with the tensor muscle of the fascia lata, and a caudal portion, which originates cranial to the biceps muscle of the thigh and radiates into the fascia lata. The deep portion takes its origin from the sacrum and the first caudal vertebra and joins the biceps muscle to form the **gluteobiceps muscle**. In small ruminants the superficial gluteal muscle is partly fused with the biceps muscle of the thigh and in the ox it is completely fused and is therefore termed the **gluteobiceps muscle** (Fig. 4-75).

In the horse the superficial gluteal muscle originates from the gluteal fascia and covers the middle gluteal muscle. It unites with the tensor muscle of the fascia lata distal to the hip. Having passed over the greater trochanter, their common tendon of insertion attaches on the third trochanter and radiates into the femoral fascia (Fig. 4-72 and 76). A synovial bursa is interposed between its tendon of insertion and the third trochanter. The superficial gluteal muscle extends the hip joint. It also retracts the limb and supports outward rotation.

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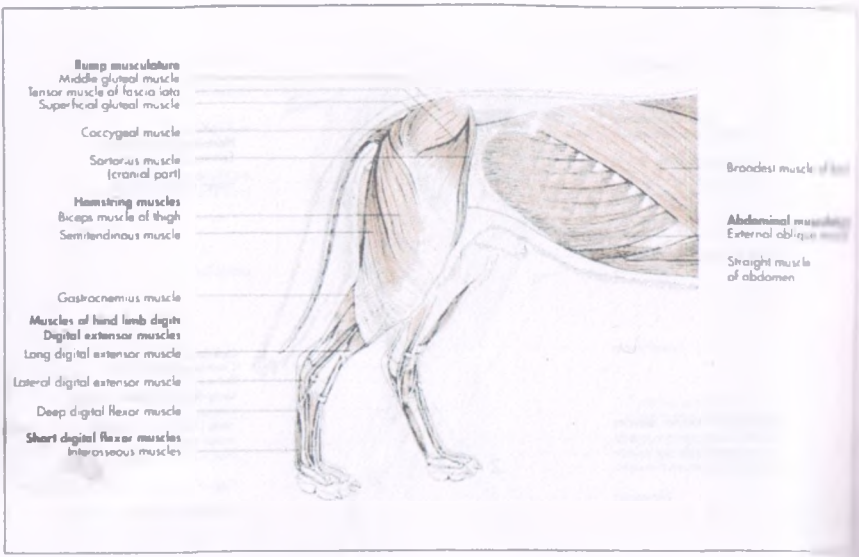


Fig. 4-73. Abdominal muscles and superficial musculature of the pelvic limb of the dog (schematic)

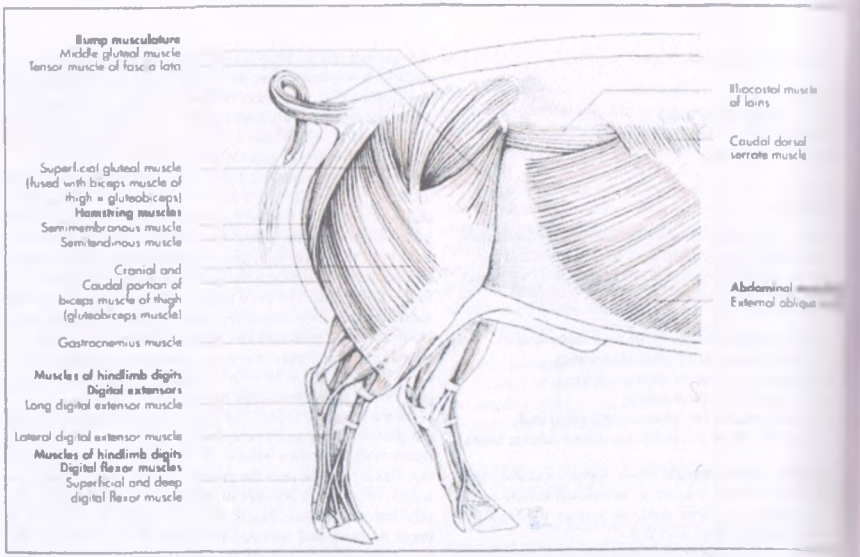


Fig. 4-74. Abdominal muscles and superficial musculature of the pelvic limb of the pig (schematic).

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Rump musculature
Lumbar portion of gluteal muscle
Middle gluteal muscle
Tensor muscle of fascia lata
Superficial gluteal muscle
(as cranial portion
of gluteobiceps muscle)

Hamstring muscles
Semitendinous muscle

Cranial and
Caudal portion of
biceps muscle of thigh

Flexors of the hock joint
Cranial tibial muscle
Long fibular muscle
Third fibular muscle

Extensors of the hock joint
Gastrocnemius muscle
Digital extensor muscles
Lateral digital extensor muscle
Long digital extensor muscle

Digital flexor muscles
Deep digital flexor tendon

Superficial digital flexor tendon

...nal muscles and superficial musculature of the pelvic limb of the ox (schematic).



Rump musculature
Tensor muscle of fascia lata
Superficial gluteal muscle
Caudal musculature
Sacrococcygeal muscle
Coccygeal muscle

Hamstring musculature
Biceps muscle of thigh

Semitendinous muscle

Extensors of hock joint
Gastrocnemius muscle
Soleus muscle

Digital extensor muscles
Long digital extensor muscle
Lateral digital extensor muscle
Digital flexor muscles
Lateral head of
deep digital flexor muscle
Cap of superficial digital
flexor tendon

Superficial and
Deep digital flexor tendon

Extensor tendon

...les and superficial musculature of the pelvic limb of the horse (schematic).

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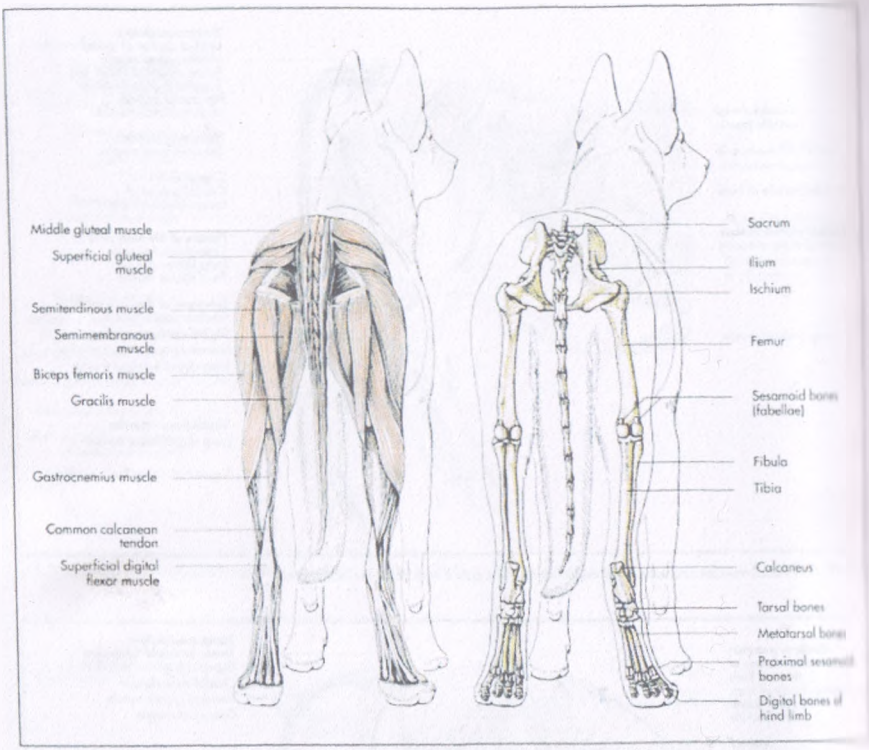


Fig. 4-77. Superficial muscles and skeleton of the pelvic limb of the dog (schematic, caudal aspect).

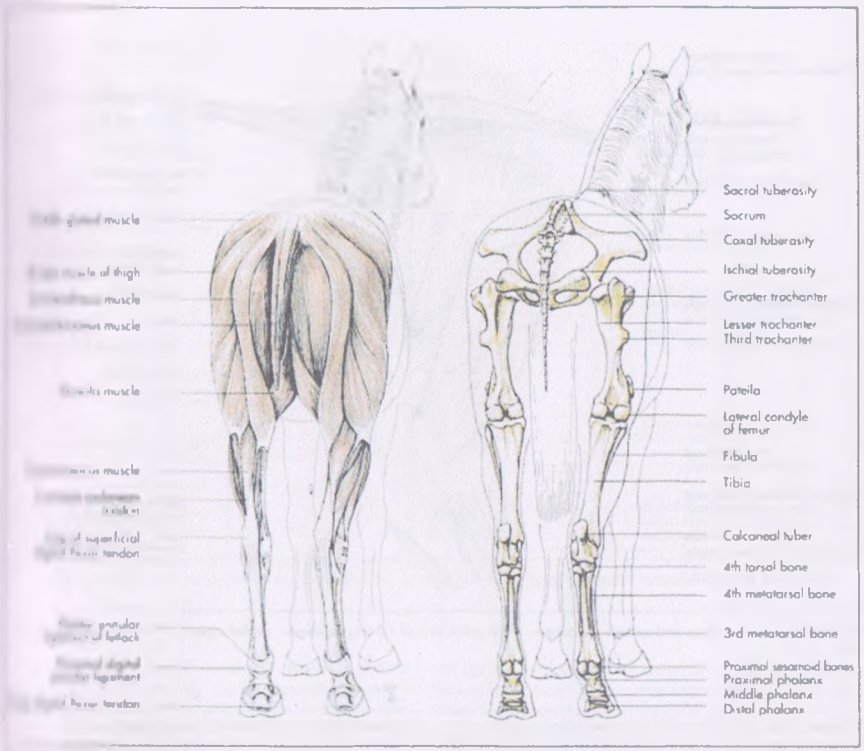
The **gluteofemoral muscle** exists only in the cat. It is located as a narrow muscle band between the superficial gluteal muscle and the biceps muscle of the thigh. It originates from the second to fourth caudal vertebrae and inserts on the lateral aspect of the patella and the fascia lata by means of an aponeurosis. Its function is retraction and abduction of the limb and extension of the hip. It is also responsible for lateral movements of the tail when the limb is in a fixed position.

The **middle gluteal muscle** is the largest muscle of this group except in the ox, where it is a flat muscle, responsible for the contour of the croup in this species (Fig. 4-75). It lies on the lateral surface of the ilium and is covered by the superficial gluteal muscle, the gluteal fascia and partly by the thoracolumbar fascia.

In the dog, this muscle takes origin from the gluteal surface of the ilium between the iliac crest and the gluteal line (Fig. 4-71). In the horse and the pig it also originates from the first lumbar vertebra, the aponeurosis of the longissimus muscle of the loins, the sacrum and the broad sacrotuberous ligament. In the ox the muscle is flat at its origin, thus the iliac crest is palpable. In ungulates the middle gluteal muscle fuses with the piriformis muscle.

The middle gluteal muscle is divided into a deep and superficial part by a tendinous sheet. The superficial portion ends with a short tendon on the greater trochanter, its tendon. The deep portion inserts with one tendon on the greater trochanter and a second tendon passes further distally beneath the lateral vastus muscle and ends distal and medial to the greater trochanter in the ox and on the intertrochanteric crest in the horse. Both tendons are protected by a synovial bursa at the site of their insertion. The deep portion is termed the accessory **gluteal muscle**. The middle gluteal muscle is the most powerful extensor of the hip and retractor and abductor of the limb. In the horse the strong lumbar portion delivers the power of the hindlimb directly to the trunk, and thus has a special role when the horse rears up.

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Superficial muscles and skeleton of the pelvic limb of the horse (schematic, caudal aspect).

...us muscle is fused to the middle gluteal mus... domestic species except the carnivores. In carni... ...us muscle lies caudal and medial to the mid... ...eal muscle and is covered by the superficial gluteal ... It arises from the last sacral vertebra and the sacrotu... ligament, passes over the greater trochanter and in... ...ed to it on the lateral surface of the femur. In the ... ...ed to the middle gluteal muscle proximally, but ... the greater trochanter with a separate tendon and ... the caudal aspect of the femur. It is an extensor of ... and an abductor of the limb.

...gluteal muscle is a short, strong muscle, marked ...eous intersections. It is the deepest muscle of ... group and lies directly over the hip joint (Fig. 4-... ...originates from the lateral surface of the iliac shaft, ...spine, and, in ruminants, the broad sacrotuber... ...It inserts with a short strong tendon on the ... ...ter or, in ruminants, distal to it on the cranio-lateral aspect of the femur. It supports the middle gluteal muscle in abduction of the limb.

The tensor muscle of the fascia lata is the most cranial of the rump muscles. It fills the triangle between the lateral angle of the ilium and the stifle joint and models the cranial border of the thigh. In carnivores it originates from the ventral part of the iliac spine and the aponeurosis of the middle gluteal muscle. It fans out and radiates with three moderately distinct parts into the fascia lata with which it continues distally to the patella (Fig. 4-71). It is bordered cranially by the sartorius muscle and dorsally by the middle gluteal muscle.

In ruminants and the horse the tensor muscle of the fascia lata originates from the coxal tuberosity and extends distally on the cranial border of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh. It combines with the fascia lata and thus indirectly inserts to the patella, the lateral patellar ligament and the cranial border of the tibia. A caudodorsal detachment joins the superficial gluteal muscle, which in turn attaches to the greater trochanter of

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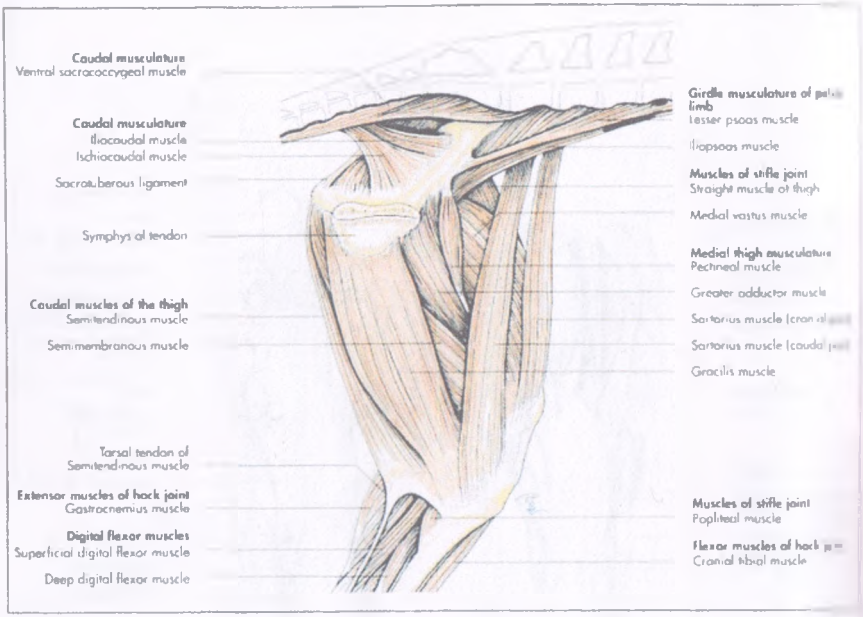


Fig. 4-79. Girdle musculature and intrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb of the dog (schematic, medial aspect), after Ellenberger and
1943

the femur (Fig. 4-72, 75 and 76). It tenses the fascia lata, thus flexing the hip and extending the stifle. It also advances the limb during the swing phase of locomotion.

Caudal muscles of the thigh

The caudal muscles of the thigh, the hamstring group of muscles, cover the caudal part of the thigh. They extend from the ischium to the tibia, and their tendinous components continue as part of the **common calcanean tendon** (tendo calcaneus communis) to the calcaneus (Fig. 4-77, 78 and Table 4-7). These muscles are multiarticular, spanning the hip and the stifle joints, and some the tarsus. In ungulates some of the hamstring muscles have vertebral heads, which arise from the sacral and caudal vertebrae in addition to those heads arising from the pelvis. These vertebral heads are best developed in the horse and account for the species-specific rounded appearance of the rump. This group of muscles (Tab. 4-7) comprises:

- biceps muscle of the thigh (m. biceps femoris),
- abductor muscle of the thigh (m. abductor cruris caudalis),
- semitendinous muscle (m. semitendinosus) and
- semimembranous muscle (m. semimembranosus).

The **biceps muscle of the thigh** is the largest and most lateral of the caudal muscles of the thigh. It is superficial, covered only by the fascia and skin. It consists of a strong cranial part which arises from the sacrum and the sacrotuberous ligament **(vertebral head)**, and a smaller caudal part, which arises from the ischium **(pelvic head)**. In ruminants and the pig the vertebral head is firmly fused to the superficial gluteal muscle, forming the **gluteobiceps muscle** (Fig. 4-75).

The united muscle belly splits into two tendons of insertion in carnivores, the pig and ruminants and three tendons of insertion in the horse. These tendons radiate into the fascia lata, the fascia of the stifle and the crural fascia with which they are united to the patella, ligaments of the stifle and the tibia. An additional **tarsal tendon** is detached for insertion on the calcaneus.

In the dog the biceps muscle of the thigh originates with a cranial superficial head from the sacrotuberous ligament and with a smaller caudal head from the lateral angle of the ischial tuberosity (Fig. 4-73 and 77). The superficial head covers the cranial part of the muscle, the smaller deep portion emerges on the caudal aspect of the buttock.

Both muscle bellies broaden distally and unite by means of an aponeurosis with the crural fascia and the fascia of the stifle. Through this fascia they insert to the patella, the patellar ligament and the tuberosity of the tibia. A distinct distal

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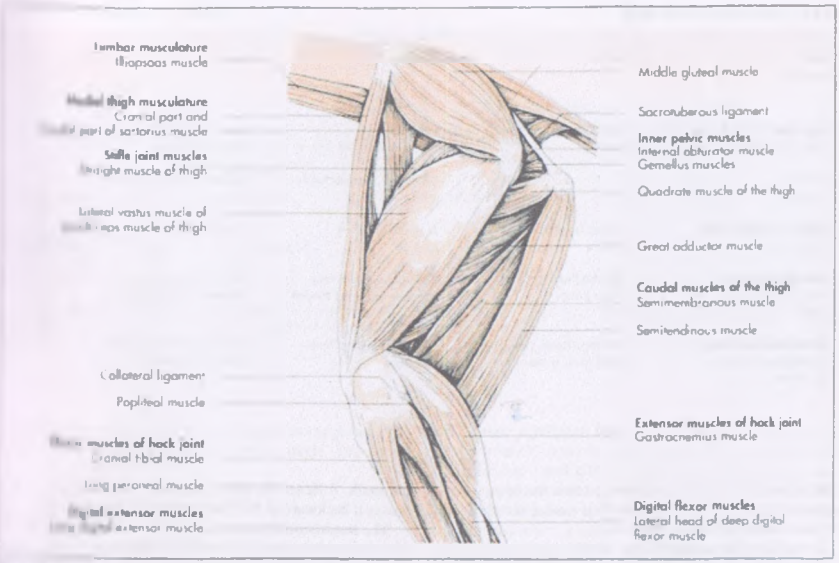


Fig. 1-60. Deep muscles of the pelvic limb of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect) after Anderson and Anderson, 1994

muscle belly passes distally under the abductor of the thigh and along the gastrocnemius muscle. It of the main part of the calcaneal tendon to insert calcaneal tuberosity after combining with a similar tendon from the semitendinous muscle.

heads of the biceps muscle of the thigh are less developed in ruminants and pigs than in the other domestic species. cranial head arises from the caudal sacral vertebrae 1 and 2 (S1, 2), the broad sacrotuberous ligament and the tuberosity and is fused with the superficial gluteal forming the **gluteobiceps muscle**. The caudal pelvic originates from the ventrolateral aspect of the ischium extending from the ischiatic tuberosity to the obturator foramen. Distally it divides into two insertions, the cranial of which reaches by way of the fascia lata and crural fascia to the lateral patellar ligament and the tibial tuberosity. The caudal part forms the tarsal tendon, which inserts on the calcaneal tuberosity. A synovial bursa is interposed between the tendon and the lateral femoral condyle, which is often of significance when inflamed.

The two heads of origin are well defined (Fig. 4-73 H). The vertebral head arises from the spinous and transverse processes of the three sacral vertebrae, from the caudal edge of the broad sacrotuberous ligament and the ischial spine. The smaller pelvic head originates from the ventral surface and the caudal rim of the ischium. They unite and divide distally into three parts, a cranial, middle and caudal branch, which form extensive aponeuroses. The cranial branch inserts on the caudal surface of the femur, just distal to the third trochanter and on the patella and lateral patellar ligament. The middle branch attaches on the crural fascia, the lateral patellar ligament and the cranial aspect of the tibia. The caudal branch radiates into the crural fascia and forms the strong tarsal tendon, which runs distally beneath the common calcaneal tendon and inserts to the calcaneus after it has combined with a similar detachment from the semitendinosus muscle.

Since the muscle is composed of several parts and has several points of insertion, the action is somewhat complex. The general action is to extend and abduct the limb. The cranial vertebral part extends the hip and the stifle, whereas the caudal pelvic head also extends the hip, but flexes the stifle. Through its attachment as the tarsal tendon it also assists in extending the tarsus.

The strap like **abductor muscle of the thigh** is only present in carnivores. It originates from the sacrotuberous ligaments, extends distally under the caudal edge of the biceps muscle of the thigh and inserts on the crural fascia. It assists the biceps muscle of the thigh in the abduction of the limb.

The **semitendinous muscle** is a large fleshy muscle, which forms a large part of the caudal contour of the thigh (Fig. 4-73 H and 84). It originates from the ventral surface of the ischial tuberosity (**pelvic head**) and inserts together with the tendons of the gracilis and sartorius muscles on the cranial margin of the tibia and with a separate tendon of insertion on the calcaneal tuberosity. There is an additional **vertebral**

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Tab. 4-7. Caudal muscles of the thigh

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Biceps muscle of the thigh Caudal gluteal nerve	Sacrum and pelvis	Patella, deep fascia of leg	Flexor of stifle joint extensor of tarsus
Pelvic head Tibial nerve		Common calcaneal tendon	Abductor of the hind limb
Abductor muscle of thigh Fibular nerve	Sacrotuberal ligament	Deep fascia of leg	Draws the limb outward
Semitendinous muscle Caudal gluteal nerve, tibial nerve	Vertebral and pelvic heads	Cranial border of tibia, common calcaneal tendon	Flexor of the stifle joint extensor of the hip joint
Semimembranous muscle Caudal gluteal nerve, tibial nerve	Vertebral head, pelvic head (only in the horse)	Medial condyle of femur and tibia	Extensor of the stifle joint draws limb inwards

head in horses and pigs, originating from the spinous and transverse processes of the sacrum, first caudal vertebrae and the broad sacrotuberous ligament.

In carnivores the semitendinous muscle originates from the caudal and ventrolateral parts of the ischial tuberosity between the pelvic heads of the biceps muscle of the thigh and the semimembranous muscle. It extends distally along the caudal edge of the biceps muscle of the thigh and divides from it at the popliteal space to the medial side of the leg (Fig. 4-73, 77, 79 and 80). The semitendinous muscle detaches a strong tendon which extends along the medial surface of the gastrocnemius muscle to the calcaneal tendon. It forms a conjoined accessory tendon of insertion together with the tarsal tendon of the biceps muscle of the thigh and the crural fascia, which inserts on the calcaneal tuberosity.

In ruminants the semitendinous is a flat muscle, which has a single head, and orginates from the caudoventral surface of the ischial tuberosity (Fig. 4-75). It extends distally between the pelvic portions of the biceps muscle of the thigh and the semimembranous muscle to the popliteal space. The muscle inserts by a flat aponeurotic tendon which passes over the medial head of the gastrocnemius muscle and inserts on the cranial border of the proximal end of the tibia, the crural fascia and the tendon of insertion of the gracilis muscle. An additional tendon inserts on the calcaneal tuberosity.

In the horse and the pig the semitendinous muscle has two heads of origin. In addition to the pelvic head, which originates on the ventral surface of the ischial tuberosity, it posses a vertebral head originating from the sacrum, the first caudal vertebra and the broad sacrotuberous ligament. Both heads unite and continue as a flat tendon to the medial aspect of the leg, where it partly radiates into the crural fascia and partly inserts to the cranial border of the tibia (Fig. 4-81 and 82). The remainder of the tendon joins the tarsal tendon of the biceps muscle of the thigh, with which it inserts on the calcaneal tuberosity.

The semitendinosus muscle extends the hip, stifle and tarsal joints when the foot is placed on the ground, thus propulsing the trunk. It flexes the stifle and rotates the leg outward and moves it backward in the free non-weightbearing limb.

The **semimembranous muscle** is the most medial muscle of the hamstring group and, unlike in humans, is entirely fleshy (Fig. 4-79, 81 and 82). It arises with two heads, a vertebral and a pelvic head in the horse, and with a pelvic head only in other domestic mammals. The pelvic head originates from the ventral aspect of the ischium. The muscle belly splits distally into two parts, one of which inserts with a short tendon on the medial condyle of the femur, the other with a longer tendon on the medial condyle of the tibia. In carnivores the cranial part of the semimembranous muscle runs along the caudal border of the greater adductor muscle, largely covered by the gracilis muscle. It inserts with a short tendon on the aponeurosis of the gastrocnemius muscle and also inserts to the medial fascia of the crural condyle (Fig. 4-79 and 80).

In the horse the semimembranous muscle is a very large muscle forming, together with the semitendinous muscle, the caudal contour of the croup and thigh (Fig. 4-81). It has two heads of origin. The vertebral head takes its origin from the broad sacrotuberous ligament and the first caudal vertebra. The stronger pelvic head arises from the ventral surface of the ischial tuberosity. The united muscle belly passes distally, covered in part by the gracilis muscle. It inserts as a short tendon on the medial femoral condyle and the medial collateral ligament of the femorotibial joint and by means of an aponeurosis at the medial condyle of the tibia.

The semimembranous muscle extends the hip and stifle joints in the weightbearing position, thus supporting progression of the trunk, but adducts and retracts the limb in the non-weight bearing position.

Medial muscles of the thigh

The muscles of this group are primarily responsible for adduction of the limb. This function also embraces the protra-

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Medial muscles of the thigh

	Origin	Insertion	Action
	Caudal tuberosity, shaft of ilium or tendon of lesser psoas muscle	Deep fascia of the leg	Adducts and draws hind limb forwards
	Aponeurosis on the symphysis	Deep fascia of the leg	Adduction
	Iliopubic eminence of femur	Medial border of the femur	Adduction
	On the ventral surface of the pelvis and on the tendon of the gracilis	Medial border of the femur	Adduction

abduction. They extend between the pelvic floor on the medial side of the thigh. This group comprises:

muscle (m. sartorius),
muscle (m. gracilis),
muscle (m. pectineus) and
muscles (mm. adductores).

muscle is a narrow, strap-like muscle, which cranioventrally on the craniomedial contour of the thigh 81 and 86).

dog the sartorius muscle consists of two parts. The originates on the iliac crest, passes distally in tensor fascia latae muscle and turns to the medial of the thigh, where it unites with the femoral fascia of the stifle. The caudal portion originates from spine and passes distally, parallel and medial belly. It blends with the aponeurosis of the gra- and ends on the cranial border of the tibia. In cat, sartorius muscle does not cover the femoral trian- it is a favourable site for taking the pulse.

this muscle is divided at its origin into two passage of the femoral vessels. In the horse it orig- a single head by the iliac fascia and the tendon of the muscle (Fig. 4-81). It passes together with the through the muscular lacuna, continues distally on the of the femur close to the gracilis and medial vastus unites with the medial patellar ligament and the thereby inserting to the tuberosity of the tibia.

muscle flexes the hip and advances and ad- limb. It also extends the stifle through its union with fascia and the fascia of the stifle.

gracilis muscle forms an extensive, broad muscular covers the greater part of the caudal part of the surface of the thigh (Fig. 4-77 to 79). It takes an apo- origin from the region along the pelvic symphysis, insertion of the straight muscle of the abdomen the horse, from the accessory ligament of the head of the femur. Tendinous fibres of this aponeurosis unite with fibres from the opposite side in the pelvic symphysis, forming a median unpaired tendinous plate (tendo symphysialis). This plate also serves as the origin for the adductor muscles.

Its insertion, also aponeurotic, merges with the crural fascia through which it attaches to the tibial crest.

The gracilis muscle is a strong adductor of the limb. It can also move the whole rump sideways, when the foot is placed firmly on the ground. It assists extension of the stifle.

The **pectineal muscle** is a small fusiform muscle, which extends between the pecten of the pubis, the iliopubic eminence of the pelvic floor and the middle of the medial border of the femur (Fig. 4-81 and 86). In the dog it is situated cranial to the greater adductor muscle. A tendinous origin arises from the prepubic tendon and a fleshy origin from the iliopubic eminence. It passes distally between the vastus medialis and the greater adductor muscle to form a tendinous attachment on the popliteal surface of the femur.

The pectineal muscle functions as a flexor of the hip and adductor and supinator of the limb. A common surgical procedure in dogs suffering from hip dysplasia is to dissect the pectineal muscle to prevent adduction of the limb.

The **adductor muscles** arise on the ventral aspect of the pelvic floor and the aponeurosis of origin of the gracilis muscle. They insert on the medial aspect of the femur and to the fascia and ligaments of the medial aspect of the stifle. This group is divided into several individually named parts in the different domestic species.

Carnivores have a strong **greater adductor muscle** (m. adductor magnus), which originates from the entire pelvic symphysis and symphysal tendon. It runs distally, covered by the gracilis muscle close to the medial vastus muscle, and inserts on the lateral supracondylar tuberosity and the popliteal fossa (Fig. 4-79 and 84).

A small **short adductor muscle** (m. adductor brevis) extends between the pubic tubercle and the caudal surface of the femur. The **long adductor muscle** (m. adductor longus) is fused to the pectineal muscle in the dog, but remains a separate muscle in cats.

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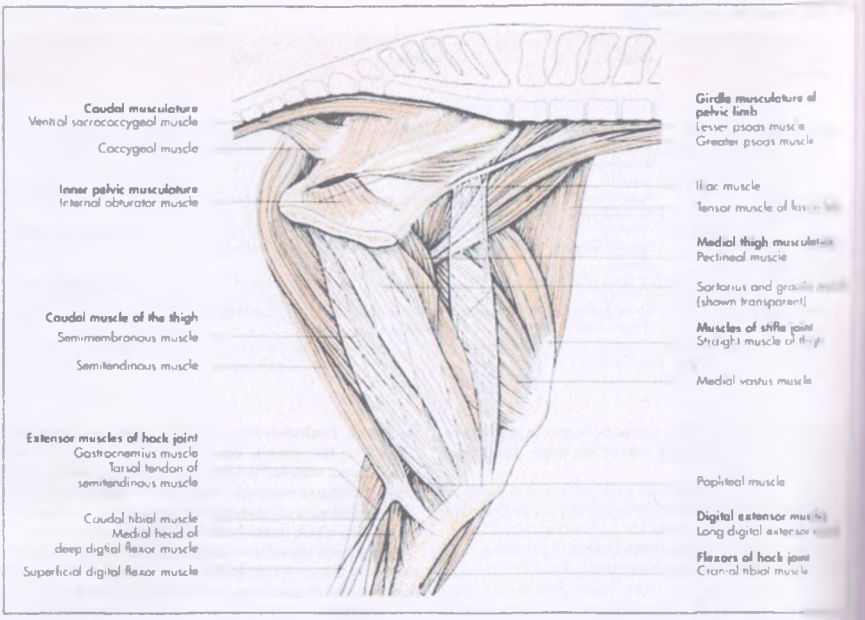


Fig. 4-81. Girdle musculature and intrinsic musculature of the pelvic limb of the horse (schematic, medial aspect), after Ellenberger and
1943

In the pig the **greater** and **short adductor muscles** are fused to form a strong united muscle. At their origin they are gender specific in cross section, being oval in females, and triangular in males. This is occasionally used to identify the sex of pigs in the slaughter house.

In the horse the adductor group comprises a cranial short adductor muscle and a caudal greater adductor muscle. They are situated between the pectineal and the semimembranous muscles, covered by the gracilis muscle. They insert along the whole medial aspect of the femur, extending from the lesser trochanter to the medial condylus and to the medial collateral ligament of the stifle.

Their major function is the adduction of the limb, but they also retract the limb and move the rump forward and sideways.

Inner pelvic muscles

The inner pelvic muscles form a rather heterogenous group of small muscles, which are situated close to the hip joint. They have minor function in coordinating the movements of the hindlimb. These muscles, with the exception of the articular muscle of the hip joints are also called the small pelvic association. They extend between the pelvis and the trochanteric fossa of the femur.

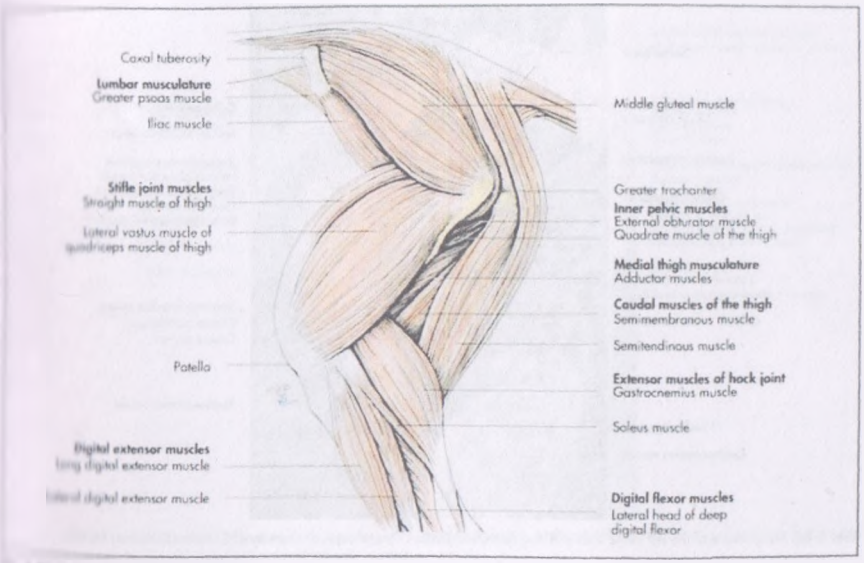
This group (Tab. 4-9) comprises:

- internal obturator muscle (m. obturatorius internus)
- external obturator muscle (m. obturatorius externus)
- gemellus muscles (mm. gemelli),
- quadrate muscle of the thigh (m. quadratus femoris)
- articular muscle of the hip joint (m. articularis coxae)

The internal obturator muscle exists in carnivores and horse (Fig. 4-83, 84 and 88). In carnivores, it arises on the ischium, pubis and the ischiatic arch and covers the obturator foramen internally. It passes over the lesser sciatic notch and forms a strong tendon, which extends distally between the gemellus and the quadrate muscles of the thigh to insert in the trochanteric fossa. In the horse the internal obturator muscle originates with a small tendinous pubic head from the cranial and medial borders of the obturator foramen, the pelvic symphysis and the ischium and with a larger fleshy head from the pelvic surface of the body of the ilium. The tendon passes through the lesser sciatic notch and inserts together with the gemellus muscles in the trochanteric fossa. This muscle rotates the femur laterally and assists in extending the hip.

The external obturator muscle is a pyramidal muscle which arises close to the obturator foramen from the external pelvic surface and terminates in the trochanteric fossa (Fig. 4-

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Deep muscles of the pelvic limb of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect). after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943



Deep pelvic muscles of a dog (dorsolateral aspect)

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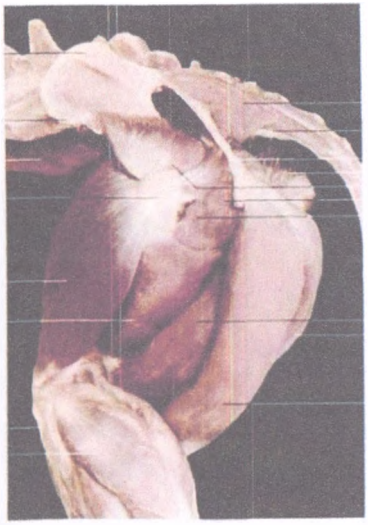


Abb. 4-84. Musculature of the left pelvic limb of a dog (proximal portion, lateral aspect), courtesy of Christine Bretscher, Munich



Abb. 4-85. Musculature of the left pelvic limb of a dog (distal portion, lateral aspect), courtesy of Insa Biedermann and M. Heiden, Mu

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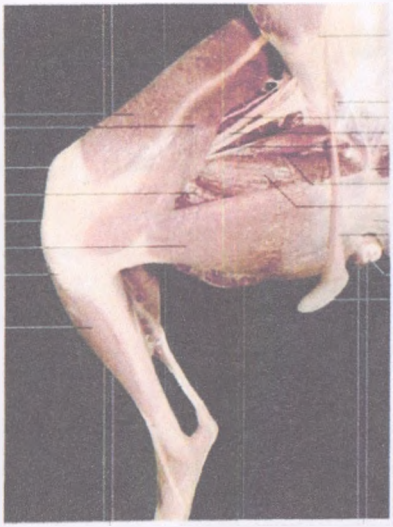


Fig. 4.86. Musculature of the left pelvic limb of a dog with superficial vessels and vaginal process (proximal portion, medial aspect) courtesy of Sandra Draaisma and Caroline Hofbeck, Munich

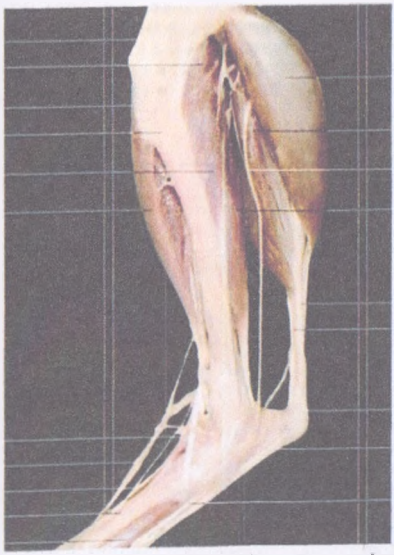


Fig. 4.87. Musculature of the left pelvic limb of a dog (distal portion, medial aspect) courtesy of Insa Biedermann and M. Heiden, Munich

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Tab. 4-9. Inner pelvic muscles

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Internal obturator muscle Sciatic nerve	Inner surface of the obturator foramen	Trochanteric fossa	Draws hindlimb outwards
External obturator muscle Obturator nerve	Outer surface of the obturator foramen	Trochanteric fossa	Draws hindlimb outwards
Gemellus muscles Sciatic nerve	Ischium	Trochanteric fossa	Draws hindlimb outwards
Quadrate muscle of thigh Sciatic nerve	Ischium	Trochanteric fossa	Draws hindlimb outwards
Articular muscle of the hip joint Sciatic nerve	Hip joint capsule		Tensor of the joint capsule

and 88). Ruminants and the pig have an additional intrapelvic part, which arises from the body of the ilium, the pubis and the ischium. The external obturator muscle acts as a supinator of the femur and adductor of the limb.

The **gemellus muscles** are two small muscle bundles that extend from the ischiatic spine to the trochanteric fossa. While they remain separated in the cat, in the other domestic species they are fused to form a single muscle, which unites partly with the internal obturator muscle. It assists in rotating the limb laterally (Fig. 4-83, 84 and 88).

The **quadrate muscle of the thigh** is a narrow, small muscle, which passes from the ventral aspect of the pelvis to end on the caudal side of the femoral shaft, close to the trochanteric fossa (Fig. 4-83 and 88). It assists in extending the hip and retracting the limb.

The **articular muscle of the hip joint** is a thin muscle [illegible] directly on the craniolateral aspect of the hip joint in carnivores and the horse (Fig. 4-83). It tenses the joint capsule and thus prevents damage to the peri-articular structures of this joint.

Muscles of the stifle

Most of the hip muscles, especially the hamstring group [illegible] the stifle joint since they insert either on structures which [illegible] of the joint or which are located distal to this joint. There [illegible] ly two muscles acting primarily on the stifle joint:

- quadriceps muscle of thigh (m. quadriceps femoris)
- popliteal muscle (m. popliteus).

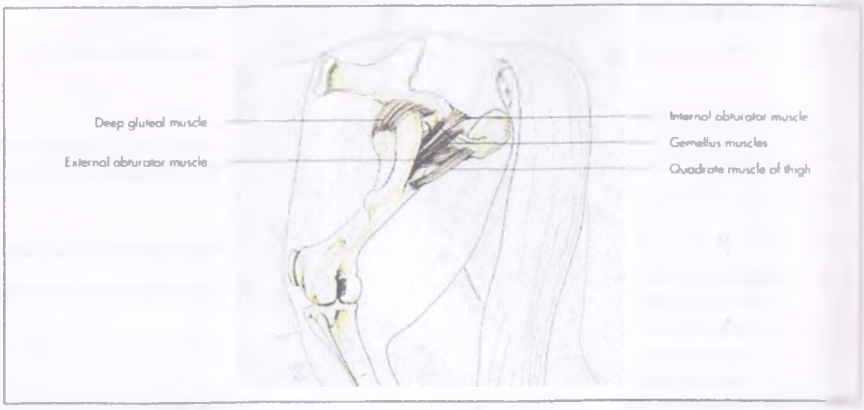


Fig. 4-88. Inner pelvic muscles of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ghetie 1967.

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Tab. 4-10. Muscles of the stifle

Name femoral nerve	Origin	Insertion	Action
Quadriceps muscle of the thigh			
Straight muscle of the thigh	Shaft of ilium	Patella, tibial tuberosity	Extensor of the stifle joint flexor of the hip joint
Lateral vastus muscle	Lateral surface of femur	Patella, tibial tuberosity	Extensor of the stifle joint
Medial vastus muscle	Medial surface of femur	Patella, tibial tuberosity	Extensor of the stifle joint
Intermediate vastus muscle	Cranial surface of femur	Patella, tibial tuberosity	Extensor of the stifle joint
Popliteal muscle tibial nerve	Lateral condyle of femur	Medial border of tibia	Flexor of the stifle joint draws limb inwards

The **quadriceps muscle of the thigh** forms the bulk of muscle cranial to the femur (Fig. 4-79 to 82 and 84 and Table 4-10). It is covered by the tensor muscle of the fascia lata, the sartorius muscle, the fascia lata and the medial femoral fascia. It consists of four portions, which are separate at their origins, but converge to form a single tendon that includes the **patella as a sesamoid bone** within it and ends at the tibial tuberosity as the straight ligament of the patella. The origins of the **four heads** are the same in all domestic mammals: the straight muscle of the thigh originates on the shaft of the ilium, whereas the other three originate on the femur. In the dog the division in four portions is less distinct than in the other species. The quadriceps muscle can be further subdivided in:

1. lateral vastus muscle (m. vastus lateralis),
2. medial vastus muscle (m. vastus medialis),
3. intermediate vastus muscle (m. vastus intermedius),
4. straight muscle of thigh (m. rectus femoris).

The **lateral vastus muscle** lies on the craniolateral side of the femur, arising from the lateral aspect of the proximal end of the femur.

The **medial vastus muscle** resembles the preceding muscle on the craniomedial side of the femur.

The **intermediate vastus muscle** is the weakest portion of the quadriceps muscle of the thigh, situated on the cranial surface of the femur, entirely covered by the other heads of the quadriceps muscle.

The **straight muscle of the thigh** originates from the shaft of the ilium, just cranial to the acetabulum. It passes distally on the cranial side of the femur flanked by the medial vastus muscle on the medial side and the lateral vastus muscle on the lateral side.

In the horse the straight muscle of the thigh is the largest portion of the quadriceps muscle covering the cranial and lateral aspects of the femur. It originates with two strong tendons on the cranial rim of the acetabulum and passes distally enclosed between the lateral and medial vastus muscles, covering the intermediate muscle. A strong tendinous layer covers its surface. Its fibres converge to form the strong tendon of insertion, together with the fascia of the stifle and distal end of the muscle. The tendon of insertions is joined by the tendons of the other portions of the quadriceps muscle to attach to the tibial tuberosity as the middle patellar ligament. A **synovial bursa** is interposed between the ligament and the tibial tuberosity (Fig. 4-50 and 58). The quadriceps muscle of the thigh is the strongest extensor of the stifle joint. It propulses the rump and stabilises the stifle. The straight muscle of the thigh assists in flexing the hip.

The small **popliteal muscle** lies directly over the caudal aspect of the stifle joint (Fig. 4-89). It has a tendinous origin arising from the lateral condyle of the femur. It passes underneath the lateral collateral ligament and extends between this and the lateral meniscus of the stifle. It inserts as a broad tendon on the caudal and medial surfaces of the proximal end of the tibia. Its tendon of origin contains a sesamoid bone in carnivores. It is a flat triangular muscle in the horse, covered by the gastrocnemius muscle and the superficial flexor tendon. Its tendon of origin is invested by a reflection of the synovial membrane of the femorotibial joint capsule, which functions as a tendon sheath. It acts as a flexor of the stifle and pronator of the leg.

Muscles of the crus

The muscles of the crus comprise **extensors and flexors of the tarsus** and **extensor and flexors of the digit**. They are grouped in two masses according to the location of their bellies, one on the craniolateral aspect of the tibia, the other one on the caudal aspect of the tibia, whereas the medial surface is left free of muscular bellies (planum cutaneum). Unlike the carpal joints of the forelimb, the tarsal joints are set at an angle opposite to that of the digital joints. The flexor side of the tarsal joints is dorsal, whereas the flexor side of the digital joints is plantar. The muscles on the craniolateral side of the crus are flexors of the tarsus and extensors of the digits, whereas the muscles on the caudal side acts as flexors of the digits and extensor of the tarsus.

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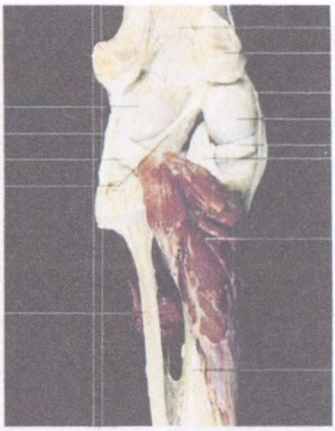


Fig. 4-89. Left stifle joint and popliteus of a dog (caudal aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

Craniolateral muscles of the crus

The craniolateral crural muscles have long, extended fleshy bellies and arise either from the distal end of the femur or from the proximal end of the tibia or fibula (Fig. 4-90). Their tendons of insertion are multiarticular and divide into a branch for each functional digit that inserts either to the metatarsus or the phalanges. They are innervated by the fibular nerve (n. fibularis). This group (Tab. 4-11) can be divided into:

flexors of the tarsus
- cranial tibial muscle (m. tibialis cranialis),
- long fibular muscle (m. fibularis longus),
- short fibular muscle (m. fibularis brevis),
- third fibular muscle (m. fibularis tertius).

extensors of the digits
- long digital extensor muscle (m. extensor digitorum longus),
- lateral digital extensor muscle (m. extensor digitorum lateralis),
- long extensor muscle of first digit (m. extensor hallucis longus).

The **cranial tibial muscle** is the most medial muscle on the cranial aspect of the tibia and is partly covered by the third fibular muscle and the long digital extensor muscle (Fig. 4-87, 90, 91 and Tab. 4-11). It originates from the lateral condyle of the tibia and the proximal end of the fibula and inserts on the medial aspect of the tarsus or proximal metatarsus.

In carnivores the cranial tibial muscle is a superficial, strong muscle, which is covered proximally by the skin and the crural fascia only. It becomes a flat tendon at the distal third of the tibia. This tendon extends obliquely over the flexor side of the tarsus, passes under the extensor retinaculum of the crus and inserts on the rudiment of the first metatarsal bone, the first tarsal bone and to the proximal end of the second metatarsal bone. The tendon of insertion of the cranial tibial muscle and the long extensor muscle of the first digit are surrounded by a synovial sheath at the level of the tarsus (Fig. 4-94).

In the horse the cranial tibial muscle is united by tendinous and fleshy fibres with the third fibular muscle proximal to the tarsus. At the level of the tarsus the cranial tibial muscle continues as a strong tendon, which emerges between the middle and medial branches of the third fibular muscle and bifurcates into a medial and lateral branch. The lateral branch inserts to the proximal end of the metatarsus. The medial, stronger branch passes mediodistally over the medial branch of the third fibular muscle and inserts at the fused first and second tarsal bone, where a synovial bursa is interposed. This branch is also called the cranial tendon and its resection is recommended by some clinicians for the relief of spavin (Fig. 4-90, 91, 101 and 102).

The **long fibular muscle** is a weak muscle on the lateral surface of the crus arising from the proximal end of the fibula, the lateral condyles of the tibia and the lateral collateral ligament of the stifle joint (Fig. 4-90 and 94). Its long tendon of insertion passes over the lateral aspect of the flexor side of the tarsus and runs over a groove between the fourth tarsal and fourth metatarsal bones to the plantar surface of the metatarsus, where it inserts on the proximal parts of the medial metatarsal bone. It is not present in the horse.

In the dog the long fibular muscle is the strongest of the fibular group of muscles (Fig. 4-94 to 97). Its thin tendon of insertion crosses the tendons of insertion of the lateral digital extensor and the short fibular muscle at the lateral side of the tarsus superficially. It passes in a sharp curve medially to the plantar surface of the metatarsus to insert to the proximal end of the medial metatarsal bone.

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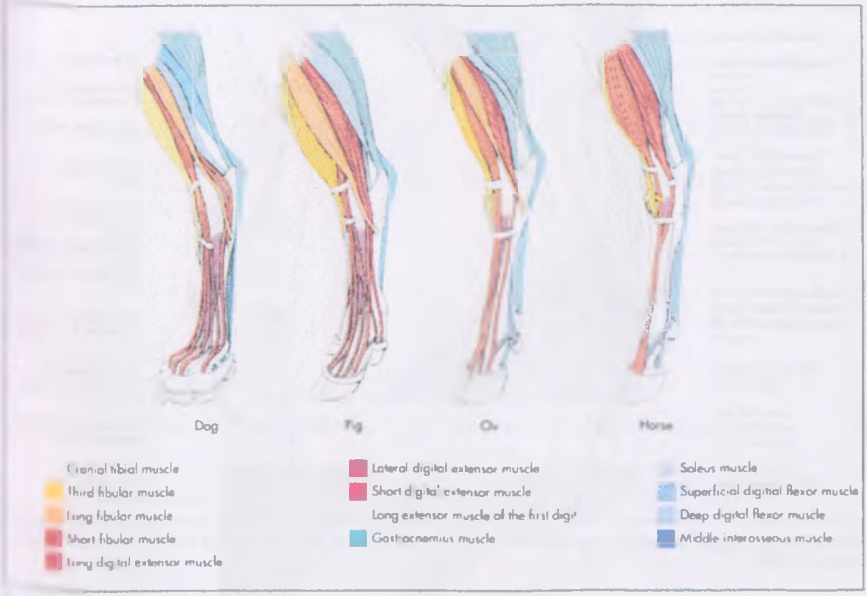


Fig. 4-91. Muscles of the crus (schematic, lateral aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

In ruminants the long fibular muscle tapers to a long flat tendon at the proximal half of the tibia and runs distally between the lateral and common digital extensor tendon. It passes over the lateral digital extensor tendon and under the lateral collateral ligament of the tarsus to the medial surface of the tarsus, where it inserts on the first tarsal bone.

The **short fibular muscle** is only present in carnivores. It is the deepest muscle of the fibular group of muscles. It originates, covered by the long fibular muscle, on the distal half of the fibula and tibia. Its tendon passes distally deep to the lateral collateral ligament of the tarsus and the tendon of the long fibular muscle to insert on the proximal end of the fifth metatarsal bone (Fig. 4-90).

The **third fibular muscle** is an exclusively tendinous muscle in the horse and a strong fleshy muscle in ruminants. Often it is fused to the long digital extensor muscle at its origin (Fig. 4-90 and 101). It is not present in carnivores. It originates from the extensor fossa of the lateral femoral condyle and inserts on the distal tarsus or the proximal metatarsus. The third fibular muscle is important in the horse, where it constitutes an essential component of the **reciprocal apparatus** (see Chapter 5). The tendon links the action of the stifle and hock joints; thus it is not possible to flex or extend one of these joints without the other. It originates by the means of a strong tendon with the long digital extensor tendon from the extensor fossa of the lateral femoral condyle, where a pouch of the femorotibial joint capsule passes beneath the tendon. It is bound, together with the long digital extensor tendon, by the extensor retinaculum at the dorsal aspect of the tarsus. The tendon passes distally under the long digital extensor tendon in the extensor groove of the tibia, partly fused to the cranial tibial muscle, and divides into three branches. The lateral branch inserts on the calcaneus and the fourth tarsal bone. The broad middle branch passes parallel to the lateral branch of the cranial tibial muscle and inserts on the third tarsal bone, the central tarsal bone and the cannon bone. The medial branch fans out to insert also to the third tarsal bone, the central tarsal bone and the third metatarsal bone.

The **long digital extensor muscle** arises together with the third fibular muscle from the extensor fossa of the lateral femoral condyle and inserts on the flexor side of the tarsus (Fig. 4-90, 91, 94, 95 and 101). The tendon of insertion divides into a branch for each functional digit further distally to end on the extensor process of the distal phalanx.

In carnivores the muscle belly of the long digital extensor muscle usually lies superficially between the cranial tibial and the long fibular muscle. An outpouching of the femorotibial joint capsule extends between the tibia and the long

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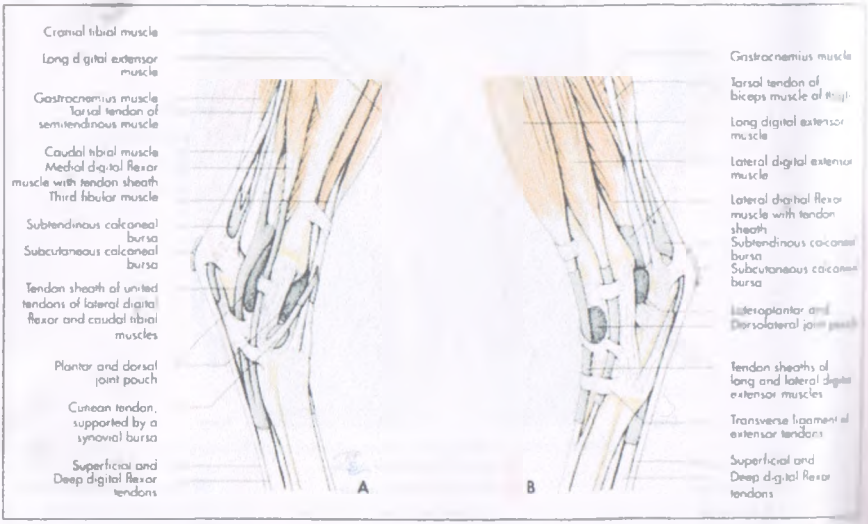


Fig. 4-91. Tendon sheaths and synovial bursae of the left tarsus of the horse (schematic. A medial aspect. B lateral aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

digital extensor tendon at its origin. It divides into four tendons of insertion at the level of the tarsus, where they are bound by two transverse fibrous bands, the proximal and distal extensor retinaculum, and enclosed in a common synovial sheath. The tendons of insertion extend distally along the dorsal surfaces of the metatarsal bones and digits. They attach to the distal phalanx of the second to fifth digits after they have received a branch from the interosseous muscle.

In ruminants the long digital extensor muscle has a common origin with the cranial tibial muscle, which covers it. It divides into two bellies, which continue distally as the lateral and medial tendons of insertion. The medial tendon inserts to the middle phalanx of the medial digit after fusing with a branch from the interosseous muscle. The lateral tendon bifurcates at the level of the fetlock joint to insert on the distal phalanx of the two main digits. Theses tendons are enclosed by synovial sheaths.

In the horse the long digital extensor muscle shares a common tendon of origin with the third fibular muscle under which an outpouching of the femorotibial joint extends 12 to 15 cm distally (Fig. 4-91 and 100 to 102). The long tendon of insertion is held in place at the level of the tarsus by proximal, middle and distal transverse bands and is surrounded by a synovial sheath from the midtarsus to 3 – 4 cm beyond the tarsus distally. It is joined by the tendon of the lateral digital extensor muscle in the middle of the third metatarsal bone and receives two branches from the interosseous muscle before it inserts on the extensor process of the distal phalanx.

The long digital extensor extends the digits and assists in flexing the tarsus.

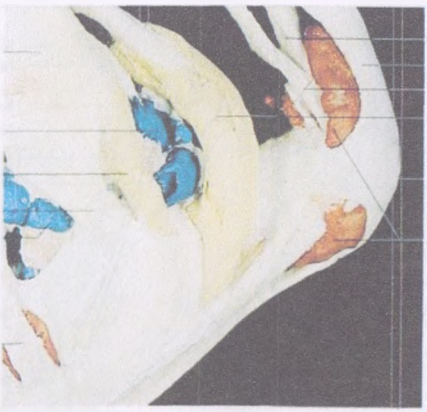
The **lateral digital extensor muscle** originates from the proximal part of the fibula and the lateral collateral ligament of the stifle. It lies deep to the long fibular muscle in carnivores, but superficially in the other domestic mammals.

In carnivores its small belly continues distally as a thin tendon, which crosses over the lateral malleolus, passes deep to the lateral collateral ligament over the lateral surface of the tarsus and passes distally on the dorsolateral side of the metatarsus and digits to join the tendon of the long digital extensor muscle, with which it inserts to the distal phalanx of the fifth digit. In the pig the tendon splits into two branches, one for each principal digit (Fig. 4-90).

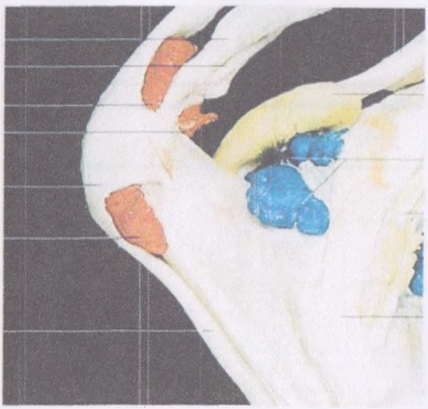
In ruminants the lateral digital extensor muscle takes its origin from the lateral collateral ligament of the stifle and from the lateral condyle of the tibia. Its strong tendon passes under the long fibular muscle to the lateral side of the tarsus and extends on the dorsolateral aspect of the metatarsus and inserts on the middle phalanx of the fourth digit after receiving a branch from the interosseous muscle (Fig. 4-90).

In the horse the lateral digital extensor muscle lies superficially between the long digital extensor muscle and the long flexor muscle of the first digit. Its round tendon passes from the lateral malleolus to the lateral aspect of the hock, where it is held in place by the proximal and distal retinacula and protected by a synovial sheath. It inserts by joining the tendon of the long digital extensor muscle (Fig. 90, 100 and 101).

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Acrylic cast of the synovial structures of the tarsus of a horse (medial aspect); courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna



Acrylic cast of the synovial structures of the tarsus of a horse (lateral aspect); courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna

The lateral digital extensor muscle extends the digits and [illegible] flexing the hock.

The long extensor muscle of the first digit forms a separate muscle in carnivores, sheep and pigs, while in cattle and the horse it is fused to the cranial tibial [illegible]. In carnivores it lies directly over the tibia, covered by the long tibialar muscle. It originates from the proximal part of the tibia and the interosseous membrane. Its thin tendon, which occasionally broadens into an aponeurosis, passes over the dorsal surface of the tarsus and the second metatarsal bone to the metatarsophalangeal joint of the second and if present of the first digit. It extends the second and also the first digit, if it attaches to it and assists in flexing the tarsus.

Caudal muscles of the crus

The extensors of the tarsus and flexors of the digits lie on the caudal side of the crus. They arise from the distal ends of the femur and/or from the proximal end of the tibia and fibula. The extensors of the tarsus insert on the calcaneus; the flexors of the digits continue to the middle and distal phalanges. All muscles of this group are innervated by the tibial nerve (Tab. 4-12).

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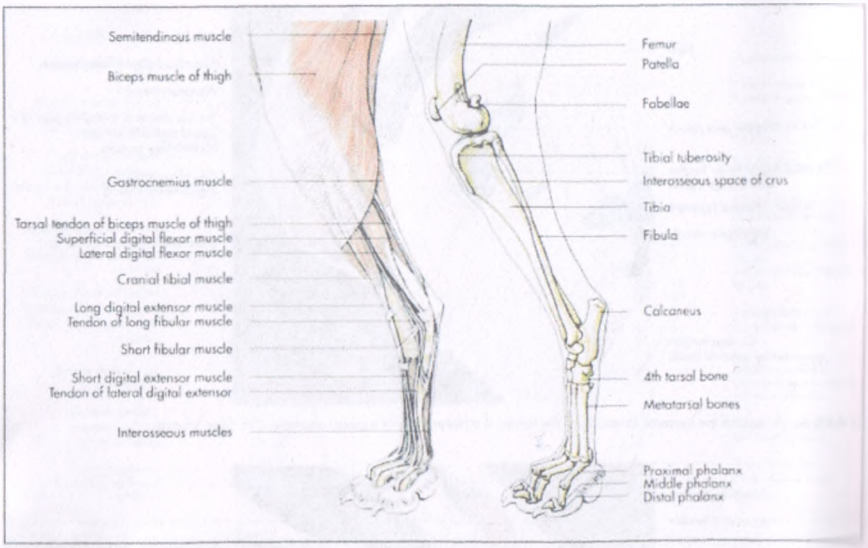


Fig. 4-94. Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the dog (schematic, lateral aspect).

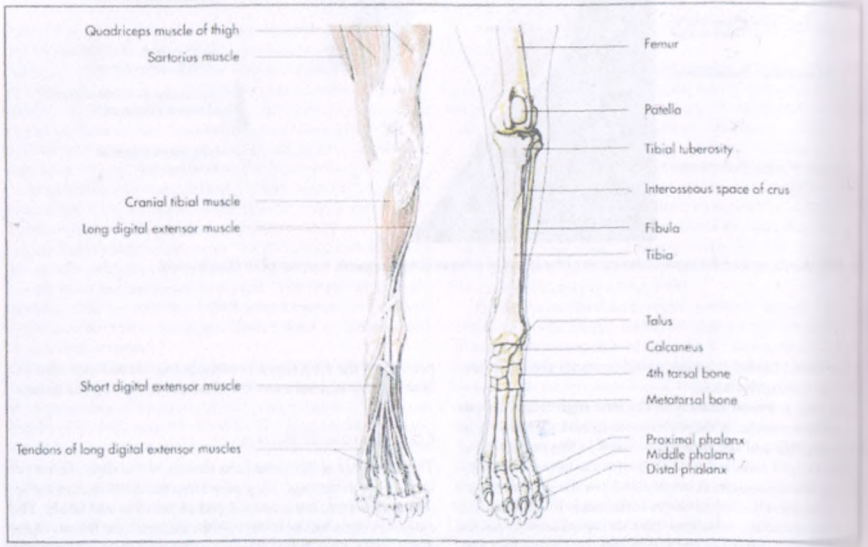
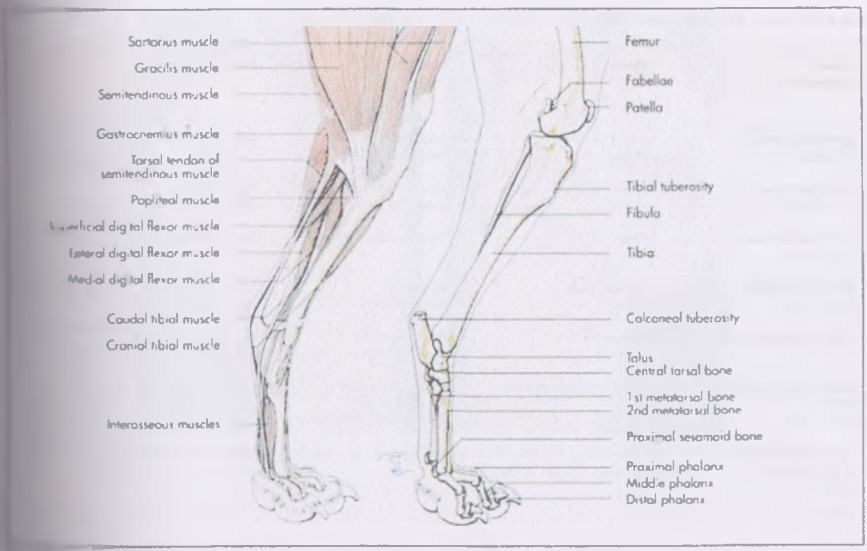
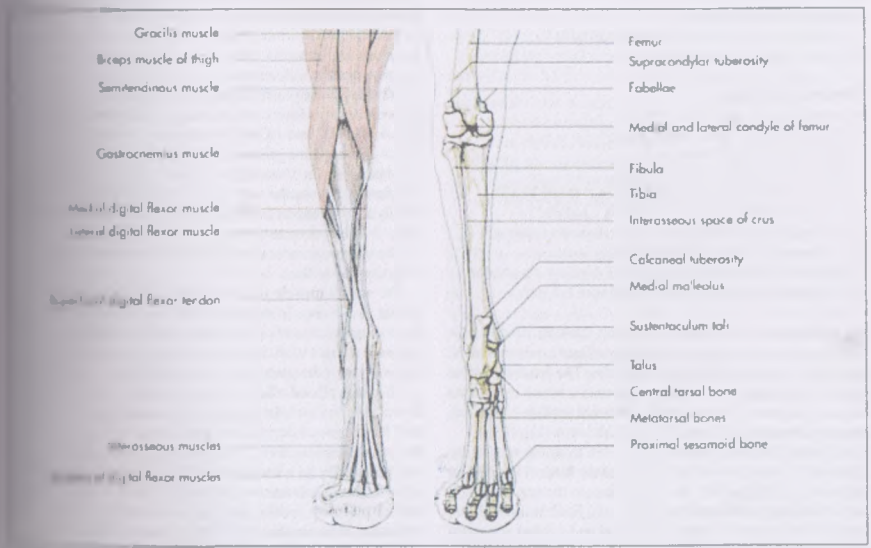


Fig. 4-95. Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the dog (schematic, cranial aspect).

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Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the dog (schematic, medial aspect)



Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the dog (schematic, caudal aspect)

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Tab. 4-11. Flexors of the tarsus and extensors of the digits.

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Cranial tibial muscle Fibular nerve	Lateral condyle of tibia	Tarsal and metatarsal bones	Flexor of tarsus
Long fibular muscle Fibular nerve	Fibula and lateral condyle of tibia	Tarsal (T1) or metatarsal bones (Mt 1)	Flexor of tarsus draws limb inwards
Short fibular muscle Fibular nerve	Fibula	Metatarsal bone (Mt 5)	Flexor of tarsus
Third fibular muscle Fibular nerve	Extensor fossa of femur	Tarsal and metatarsal bones	Flexor of tarsus extensor of stifle joint
Long digital extensor muscle Fibular nerve	Extensor fossa of femur	Extensor process of distal phalanx	Extensor of the digits extensor of stifle joint
Lateral digital extensor muscle Fibular nerve	Fibula and lateral condyle of tibia	Middle phalanx of 5th or 4th digit distal phalanx in the horse	Extensor of the digits
Long extensor muscle of the first digit Fibular nerve	Fibula	2nd digit	Extensor of the 2nd digit

This group (Tab. 4-12) comprises:

extensors of the tarsus
- gastrocnemius muscle (m. gastrocnemius),
- soleus muscle (m. soleus),

flexors of the digits
- superficial digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum superficialis),
- deep digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum profundus), which can be further subdivided into **three heads**:
  - caudal tibial muscle (m. tibialis caudalis),
  - lateral digital flexor (m. flexor digitorum lateralis, formerly called m. flexor hallucis longus),
  - medial digital flexor (m. flexor digitorum medialis, formerly called m. flexor digitorum longus).

The **gastrocnemius muscle** is a strong muscle, which originates with two heads from the caudolateral and caudomedial aspect of the femur proximal to the condyles. The heads terminate in a **common tendon** (tendo gastrocnemius), which constitutes the principal part of the **common calcaneal tendon** (tendo calcaneus communis) and inserts on the calcaneus (Fig. 4-90).

In carnivores the **medial head** arises from the medial lip of the distal extremity of the femur and the **lateral head** from the lateral lip (Fig. 4-94, 96, 97). In the cat the muscle originates from the patella and the fascia lata. Each head encloses a prominent sesamoid bone, the lateral and medial sesamoid bones of the gastrocnemius muscle, also called fabellae. The two heads run distally in close relationship to the superficial digital flexor tendon and are united by a strong tendinous plate before they combine further distally to form a common tendon. The tendon of insertion passes under the superficial flexor tendon and inserts beneath the latter to the calcaneus. A **synovial bursa** is interposed between the tendon of insertion and the calcaneus.

In the horse the gastrocnemius muscle arises with two strong fusiform heads, which contain multiple tendinous intersections (Fig. 4-100, 102 and 103). They originate, covered by the muscles of the hamstring group, from the lateral and medial sides of the supracondylar fossa of the femur. The two heads almost completely enclose the superficial flexor tendon and continue distally to continue as a single strong tendon to the calcaneus, where it inserts deep to the superficial flexor tendon.

The gastrocnemius muscle extends the tarsus and assists in flexing the stifle.

The **soleus muscle** is a weak muscular band, which is not present in the dog. In ruminants and horses it originates from the proximal rudiment of the fibula, fans out in a distocaudal direction and fuses with the lateral head of the gastrocnemius to become part of the gastrocnemius tendon (Fig. 4-90 and 100).

The **superficial digital flexor muscle** takes its origin from the supracondylar fossa on the caudal aspect of the femur. It first passes deeply, enclosed between the two heads of the gastrocnemius (Fig. 4-90). At the middle of the crus it winds medially to a more superficial position on the caudal surface. At the calcaneus it broadens to form a **cap**, which is held in place by medial and lateral retinacula. A synovial **bursa** lies between the cap and the calcaneal tuberosity (bursa subtendinea calcanei). The superficial digital flexor tendon continues distally and divides into a branch for each fourth

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Fig. 4-98. Lateral paramedian section of the tarsus of a horse; courtesy of Dr. Margit Teufel, Vienna.

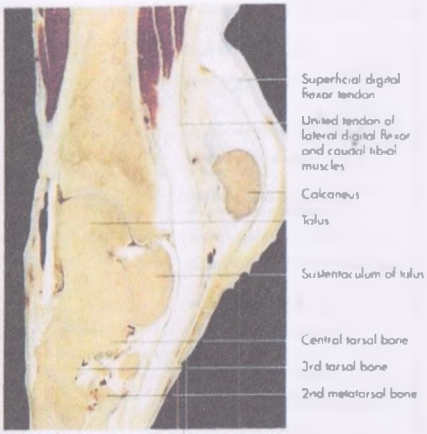


Fig. 4-99. Medial paramedian section of the tarsus of a horse; courtesy of Dr. Margit Teufel, Vienna.

...t the distal tarsus which inserts on the middle pha... At the level of the metatarsophalangeal joints, the ten... of insertion form cylinders (**manica flexoria**) as on the ... limb, which surround the corresponding branches of ... deep digital flexor tendon. The distal part of the deep dig... flexor tendon basically corresponds to the forelimb.

In carnivores the deep digital flexor muscle arises, firmly ... with the lateral head of the gastrocnemius muscle, on ... lateral supracondylar tuberosity of the femur (Fig. 4-87, 90 ... 96). At the middle of the tibia the tendinous fibres of the ... muscle belly converge to form a strong tendon, which ... medially around the gastrocnemius tendon to the caudal ... of the point of the hock, where it forms a broad cap. ... tendon continues over the plantar aspect of the hock and ... at the distal row of the tarsal bones. The resulting ... branches extend distally over the second to fifth metatar... and insert to the middle phalanx of these digits.

In ruminants and pigs the terminal tendons insert to the ... phalanx of the principal digits.

In the horse the superficial digital flexor muscle is almost entirely tendinous and constitutes a major component (tendo ... of the common calcaneal tendon (tendo calcaneus ...), the caudal part of the **reciprocal apparatus**. The ... digital flexor muscle arises from the supracondy... ... of the femur, where it is intimately attached to the ... head of the gastrocnemius muscle. At the distal third ... passes around the medial surface of the gastroc... tendon to occupy a position caudal to it. It widens out ... the hock to form a cap over the calcaneal tuber. ... it ditches a band on either side. A large synovial ... (bursa subtendinea calcanei) is interposed between the ... and the superficial digital flexor tendon. ... can be injected from the medial side, about three cm ... dorsal to the calcaneus. Further distally it is arranged as in the thoracic limb and attaches to the middle phalanx.

The superficial digital flexor muscle extends the digits it inserts to, but also assists in extending the hock and flexing the stifle. In the horse it is a major component of the caudal part of the reciprocal apparatus (Fig. 4-90, 98 and 99).

The **deep digital flexor muscle** (Fig. 4-87, 90, 91, 96, 97 and 4-100 to 102) consists of **three separate heads**:

- caudal tibial muscle (m. tibialis caudalis),
- lateral digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum lateralis),
- medial digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum medialis).

The three heads lie on the caudal surface of the tibia and fibula from which they take origin. They unite to form a strong tendon, the **deep digital flexor tendon**, either at the middle of the crus or distal to the tarsus in different species. The common tendon continues distally on the plantar aspect of the metatarsus and inserts with a branch for each functional digit on the flexor surface of the distal phalanges, thus resulting in four tendons of insertion in carnivores and pigs, two in ruminants and one in the horse. The individual branches are surrounded by synovial sheaths at the level of the tarsus.

In carnivores, the lateral digital flexor muscle occupies the caudolateral side of the crus. Its strong tendon fuses with the weaker tendon of the medial digital flexor muscle on the plantar surface of the tarsus to form the deep flexor tendon. It divides into four branches which insert on the second to fifth digit at the middle of the metatarsus. These tendons of insertion are similar to the branches of the deep digital flexor tendon of the thoracic limb.

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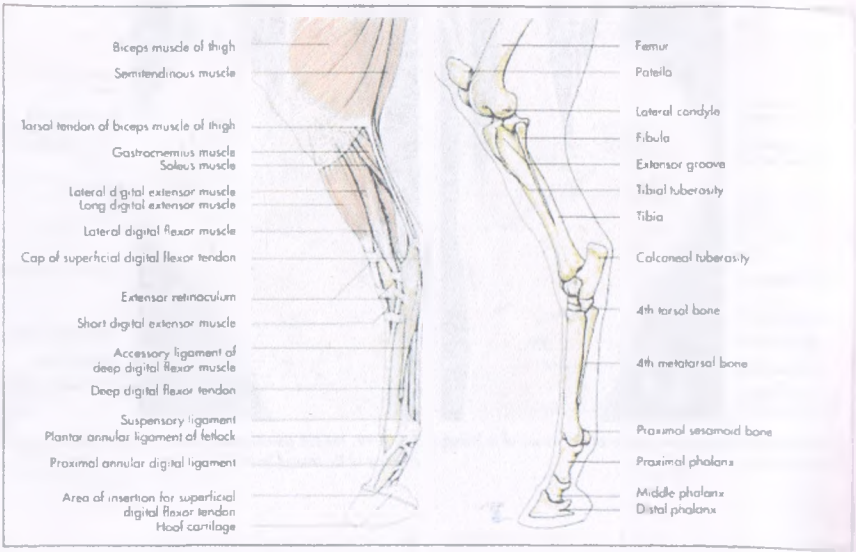


Fig. 4·100. Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect).

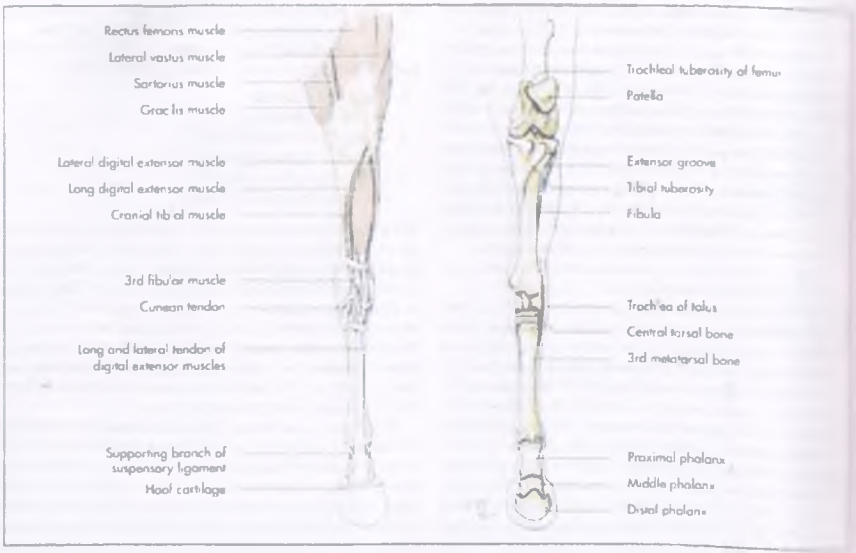
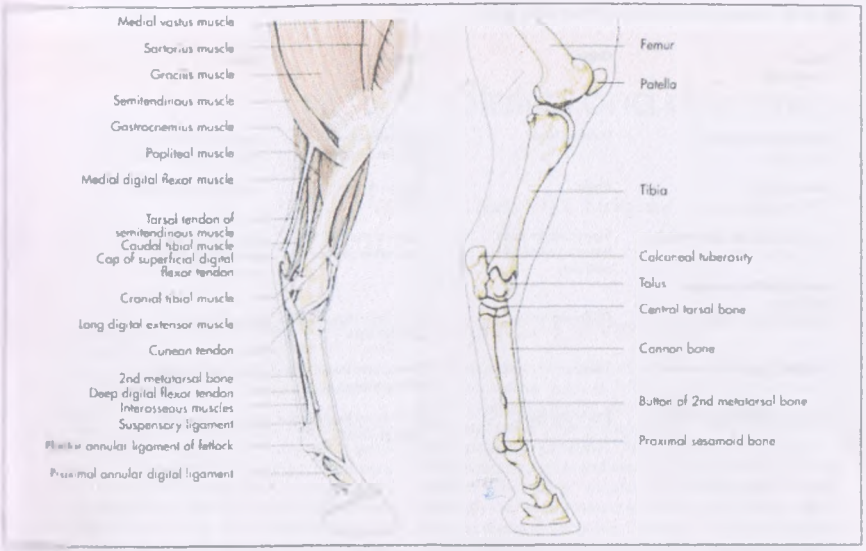
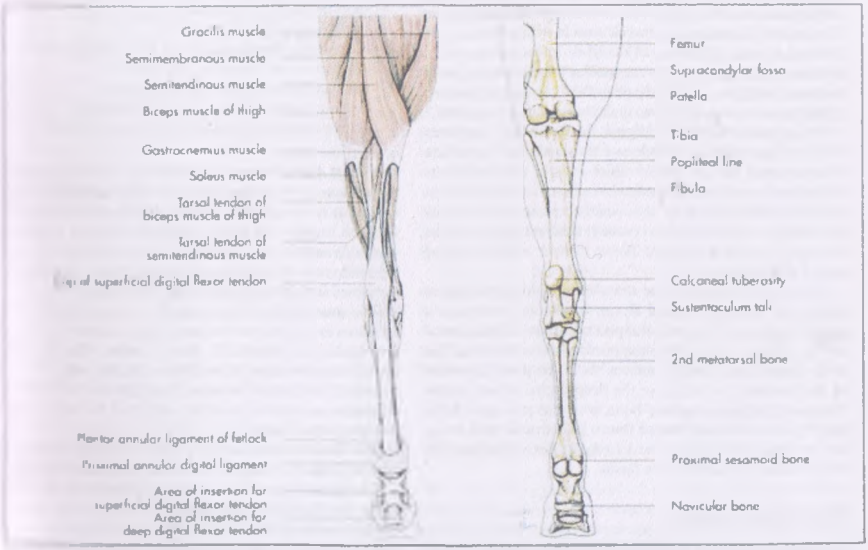


Fig. 4·101. Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the horse (schematic, cranial aspect).

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Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the horse (schematic, medial aspect)



Muscles and skeleton of the hindlimb of the horse (schematic, caudal aspect)

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Tab. 4·12. Extensors of the tarsus and flexors of the digits

Name Innervation	Origin	Insertion	Action
Gastrocnemius muscle Tibial nerve	Distal on femur	Calcaneal tuber (Achilles tendon)	Extensor of the tarsus Flexor of the stifle joint
Soleus muscle Tibial nerve	Fibula	Achilles tendon	Extensor of the tarsus
Superficial digital flexor muscle Tibial nerve	Supracondylar fossa, lateral supracondylar tuberosity	Proximal phalanx and middle phalanx	Flexor of the stifle joint Flexor of the digits Extensor of the tarsus
Deep digital flexor muscle Tibial nerve			
- Caudal tibial muscle	Fibula and tibia	Deep digital flexor tendon, distal phalanx	Flexor of the digits
- Medial digital flexor muscle	Tibia	Deep digital flexor tendon, distal phalanx	Flexor of the digits
- Lateral digital flexor muscle	Fibula and tibia	Deep digital flexor tendon, distal phalanx	Flexor of the digits

The medial digital flexor muscle lies medial to the lateral digital flexor muscle and originates on the head of the fibula and the popliteal line of the tibia. Its fine tendon passes distally along the tendon of the caudal tibial muscle to the tarsus, where it unites with tendon of the lateral digital flexor muscle. The caudal tibial muscle is a weak muscle, which lies directly on the caudomedial surface of the tibia. In the carnivores its delicate tendon radiates into the medial ligamentous mass of the tarsus and does not participate in the formation of the deep digital flexor tendon as it does in the other domestic species.

In ungulates the lateral digital flexor muscle originates from the lateral tibial condyle and the caudal surface of the tibia, covered by the caudal tibial muscle proximally. Its strong tendon unites with the tendon of the caudal tibial muscle at the distal third of the crus and then passes over the sustentaculum of the talus. The common tendon is joined by the tendon of the medial digital flexor muscle at the proximal part of the metatarsus.

The medial digital flexor muscle runs along the medial surface of the lateral digital flexor muscle and passes, as a round tendon, over the medial aspect of the tarsus to the metatarsus, where it joins the common deep flexor tendon. The deep digital flexor tendon ends as the corresponding tendon of the forelimb. In the horse the deep digital flexor tendon runs over the distal sesamoid bone, where its passage is facilitated by the **navicular bursa** (bursa podotrochlearis), to insert on the distal phalanx. The deep digital flexor flexes the digits and assists in extending the tarsus.

Short digital muscles

The short digital muscles are similar to the like-named muscle in the thoracic limb. In general these muscles are well-developed in carnivores, but rudimentary or missing in the other domestic mammals, with the exception of the interosseous muscles. The short digital muscles comprise:

- short digital extensor muscle (m. extensor digitorum brevis),
- short digital flexor muscle (m. flexor digitorum brevis),
- interflexor muscles (mm. interflexorii),
- interosseous muscles (mm. interossei),
- lumbrical muscles (mm. lumbricales) and
- plantar quadrate muscle (m. quadratus plantae).

The **short digital extensor muscle** lies on the dorsal side of the metatarsal bones and lateral to the long digital extensor tendon. It is a weak muscular band in ruminants and horses, stronger in pigs and carnivores. In carnivores it splits into several branches, which insert together with the corresponding tendons of the common extensor tendon after they have combined with branches from the interosseous muscles.

The **short digital flexor muscle** consists of some muscular fibres in the dog, but a more extensive muscle plate in the cat within the superficial flexor tendon. The **interflexor muscles** are two muscle bundles in the dog and three in the cat, which are located between the deep and superficial flexor tendons, extending from the middle of the tarsus to the tarsophalangeal joints.

The **interosseous muscles** and **lumbrical muscles** are similar to the corresponding muscles in the thoracic limb.

The **plantar quadrate muscle** is stronger in the cat than in the dog. It arises from the lateral aspect of the calcaneus, extends mediodistally to the deep digital flexor tendon and radiates into the medial digital flexor tendon.

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5 Statics and dynamics

J. Maierl, H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Animals are subject to the same physical laws as inanimate objects. **Statics** describes the principles of construction necessary to maintain the **equilibrium of the body** in a state of rest or in motion. **Dynamics** analyses the **movement** of the body during locomotion.

There is a great **adaptive variety** in the construction of the body between different species, reflecting the requirements set forth by their natural surroundings. Carnivores, being predators, must develop considerable speed over a short distance in order to catch their prey, while the herbivore's body is specialised to support large stores of poorly digestible food and to enable continuous movement over long distances. These differences are exemplified by the horse, which is characterised by passive support mechanisms that allow the animal to carry heavy loads for a long period of time without the muscles fatiguing. These support mechanisms are not developed in the dog, which has a lower body weight and whose food is highly digestible and of a higher energy density.

Furthermore limb proportions – especially those of the distal parts – are much more elongated in unguligrade herbivores in comparison to digitigrade carnivores. This allows for a longer **distance per stride**. This effect is brought forward by the important fact that tendons of insertion are typically attached to the skeleton in the immediate vicinity of joints. As an example we take the biceps and the triceps muscles (Fig. 5-1). In both cases the tendons of insertion are attached to the skeleton very close to the elbow joint. Thus the lever arms of a force are very short: the one reaches from the axis of rotation through the humeral condyle to the radial tuberosity, the other, to the olecranal tuber. The work arm, however, is much longer, as it includes the whole distal limb. As a muscle can only contract about 30% of its length this anatomical arrangement extremely magnifies the lever action of the distal part of the limb. The respective parts move further and faster.

The **protraction of the limbs** is facilitated by the arrangement of muscle bellies in the proximal half of the limb. As a consequence the distal part of the limb is relatively light and can easily be accelerated in the swing phase of the stride.

This compactness of the limb and magnification of motion are achieved at the cost of high forces in the muscles, across the joint surfaces, and within the bones.

Architecture of the trunk

Previous authors have compared the construction of the body axis with various types of bridges. Recent studies indicate that this concept is flawed and now refer to the more accurate **"bow and string"** theory (Fig. 5-11). The "bow" is formed by **thoracolumbar vertebrae**, their articulations and the accompanying ligaments and muscles, which provide a flexible structure. The "string" consists of the **abdominal muscles**, especially the straight muscle of the abdomen, which reaches from the thorax to the pelvis. The bow is indirectly attached to the string by interposition of the thoracic skeleton cranially and the pelvic bones caudally.

Contraction of the abdominal muscle causes **flexion of the bow**, while contraction of the epaxial muscles **straightens the bow**. Furthermore the weight of the viscera attached to the vertebral column tends to straighten out the bow, while at the same time the weight of the viscera on the abdominal muscles bends the bow. Flexion of the bow is assisted by the **protractor muscles of the forelimb** and **retractor muscles of the hindlimb**, while their opposing muscles have the opposite effect. The intrinsic elasticity of the trunk construction is complemented by active contraction of other muscles. This is evident in the horse, when its back does not sag under the rider, but rather is curved in a dorsal direction as a result of the increasing tension in the string. The caudal part of the bow and string construction, the last lumbar vertebra, is joined to the **sacrum**.

It is possible to extend the "bow and string" theory to the cervical region, where the curve is in the opposite direction to that of the thoracolumbar region. The **cervical vertebrae** and their articulations constitute the bow, while the nuchal ligament acts as the string. The weight and active lowering of the head straightens the "bow", while the **nuchal ligament** flexes it.

Thoracic limb

The major role of the forelimbs is to support the weight of the body; this is reflected by a reduction in the skeletal structure of the shoulder girdle, where only the scapula, and in some species a much reduced clavicle, remain. The scapula is attached to the trunk at the cranial end of the bow and string

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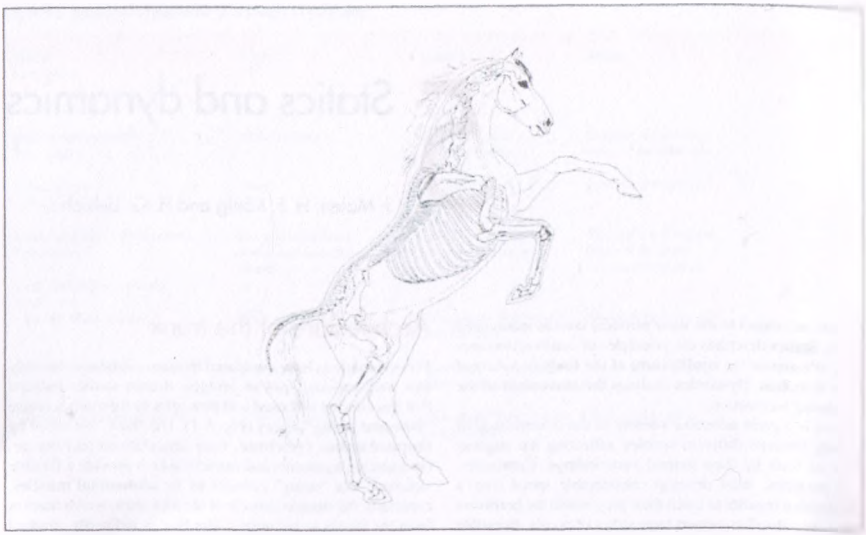


Fig. 5-1. "Bow and string" construction in the rearing horse (schematic, the muscles are coloured red), after Komarek, 1993.

construction by a synsarcosis, with muscles and tendons forming a sling-like suspension for the trunk. The ventral serrate muscles form a cradle between the two scapulae, which allows the thorax to rise and fall between the shoulders and for the animal to lean over to one side without any corresponding deviation of either forelimb from the perpendicular. The thoracic portion of the ventral serrate muscle, with its high content of tendinous tissue, is well adapted to carry the considerable weight with a minimum of muscular effort. This anatomical arrangement enables the considerable forces which occur during standing and locomotion to be sustained. The forces that the thoracic limbs are subjected to increase considerably when the animal contacts the ground after jumping (Fig. 5-2 and 3).

Even when an animal is standing still the muscles on either side of each joint are finely adjusting to maintain balance. In large animals this would result in considerable stress in the muscle tissues, thus an increase in fibrous tissue can be found within the muscles of the larger animals, which resists these forces. The movement of the joints is also restricted by the arrangement of fascia and ligaments and the design of the articular surfaces. These structures limit the range of movement of the joints of larger animals to flexion and extension, with the exception of the shoulder and hip joints. In some joints, such as the elbow joint, the collateral ligaments insert eccentrically and thus present a force which has to be overcome before a joint can be moved. This arrangement prevents flexion caused by depression of the joint from the animal's weight.

The horse has developed tendinous-ligamentous support mechanisms, the **stay apparatus** present in both the forelimbs and hindlimbs, allowing this species to carry its body weight with a minimum of muscular effort and reducing muscle fatigue (Fig. 5-2 and 3). The efficient use of this apparatus enables the horse to stand for very long periods whilst resting. True sleep must be accompanied by lying down to remove the weight from the limbs.

The weight of the body tends to flex the shoulder joint through the insertion of the ventral serrate muscle. This arrangement exists to prevent shoulder flexion, involving isometric contraction of the supraspinous muscle of the forearm and more importantly, of the biceps brachii muscles, in which tension increases as the shoulder tends to flex. This can only occur if the biceps brachii muscle is prevented from flexing the elbow joint; this is achieved by two mechanisms. The superficial and deep digital flexor muscles are tensed by the dorsoflexion of the fetlock joint in the normal standing position, thus resulting in an increase of passive tension of the inelastic components to maintain elbow extension through their humeral heads. Another key factor in the shoulder-elbow fixation mechanism is the isometric contraction of the triceps (Fig. 5-2 and 3).

The carpus is predisposed to effortless weight bearing since the long axis of the radius and the cannon bone are approximately in the same vertical line. It is prevented from buckling forwards by the lacertus fibrosus, an inelastic band arising from the biceps tendon of origin. It continues within the muscle belly just proximal to the elbow joint, where it separates

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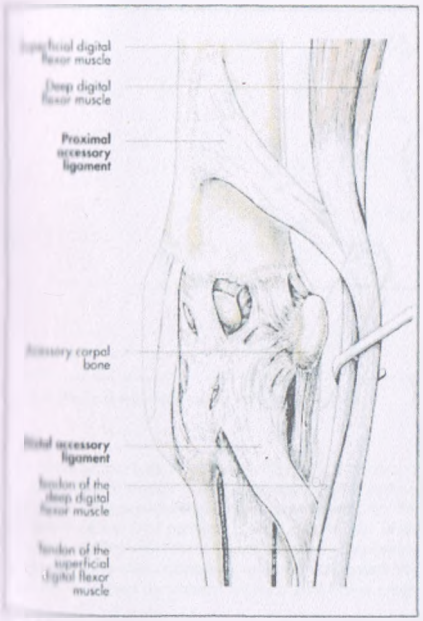


Fig. 5-2. Accessory ligaments of the superficial and deep digital flexor muscles in the thoracic limb of a horse (schematic).

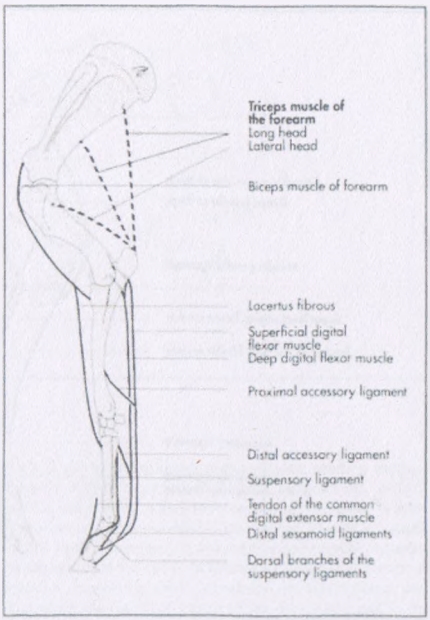


Fig. 5-3. Stay apparatus in the thoracic limb of a horse (schematic).

the biceps muscle and blends with the antebrachial fascia and the radial extensor muscle of the carpus. By inserting on the cannon bone it assists in stabilising the carpal joint. Power in the biceps is transmitted through this system to assist in the normal extension of the carpus (Fig. 5-2 and 3). Overextension of the carpus is prevented by the ligaments on the palmar aspect of the carpus, the ligaments of the accessory bone and the check ligaments (accessory ligaments of the superficial and deep digital flexor tendons). Both check ligaments are kept under tension by the overextended "neutral" position of the metacarpophalangeal joint.

One of the most essential anatomical features of the stay apparatus is the suspensory ligament on the palmar and plantar aspects of the third metacarpus/metatarsus. It serves as the main support for the fetlock, preventing excessive overextension and reducing concussion of the fetlock during locomotion. The branches of the suspensory ligament which extend distally on the medial and lateral side of the digit insert on the extensor process of the distal phalanx and prevent the pastern and coffin joints from buckling forward. The superficial and deep digital flexor tendons supplement the suspensory ligament in this function. They are restricted by the accessory ligament between the distal end of the radius and the superficial flexor tendon (proximal check ligament), and by the accessory ligament between the carpus and the deep digital flexor tendon (distal check ligament). The suspensory ligament and the two digital flexor tendons operate in series. As the fetlock joint is extended by the body weight, the suspensory ligament tightens, followed by the superficial and then the deep digital flexor tendon.

During locomotion, the thoracic limb is raised off the ground by the shoulder girdle musculature and the flexion of all joints through their flexor muscles. The flexed limb is protracted by the brachiocephalic muscle. This action is complemented by the trapezius and omotransverse muscles, which rotate the distal end of the scapula craniodorsally and the caudal angle caudoventrally, resulting in the swing phase of locomotion. At the end of the swing phase the joints are extended again through the action of the triceps muscle of the forearm, the radial extensor muscle of the carpus and digital extensor muscles. This straightens the limb, reaching forward from its starting point, inducing the stance phase of the stride, thus the limb thus becomes longer and reaches the ground further forward to its starting point. This induces the stance phase of the stride, during which the weight of the body is transported over the extended limb. The scapula is rotated in the reverse direction by the broadest muscle of the back, the rhomboid and the deep pectoral muscle. The triceps is res-

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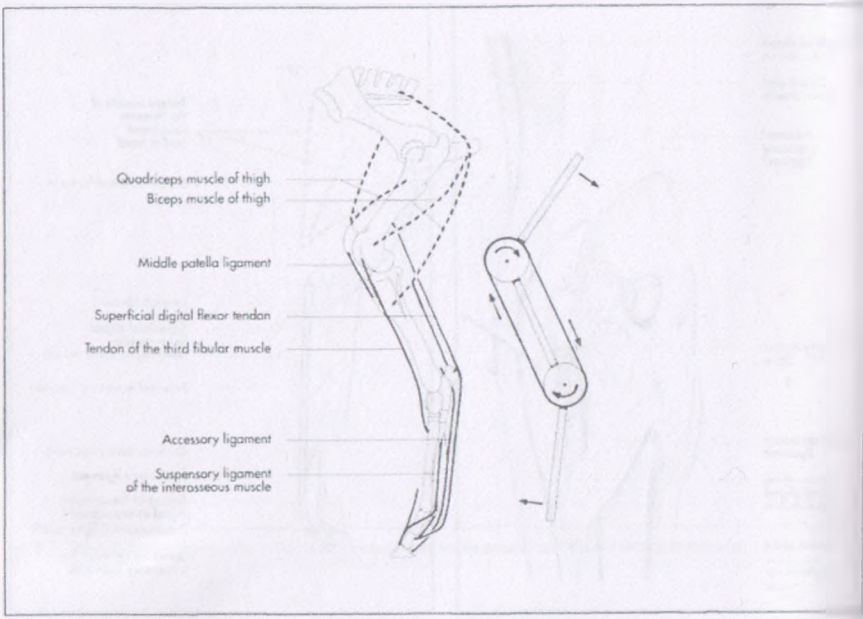


Fig. 5-4. Reciprocal apparatus of the equine hind limb (schematic).

ponsible for extending the elbow joint, while the biceps muscle extends the shoulder and through the lacertus fibrosus the carpus. The fetlock joint is extended beyond its normal position. Shortly before the limb is lifted off the ground again, the superficial digital flexor tendon and the suspensory ligament are relaxed, while the coffin joint is maximally extended; the deep digital flexor tendon and its check ligament are thus tensed. This causes the phalangeal joints to flex immediately when the foot is lifted off the ground.

Pelvic limb

The sacrum and the pelvis are rigidly attached through the sacroiliac joint, with the sacrum suspended on the inner surface of the ilial wings. This ensures an effective transmission of the thrust of the hindlimb onto the trunk. Since the pelvic limb is responsible for delivering the forward impetus for progression, the musculature of the hindlimb is better developed than the musculature of the forelimb. In the horse many modifications involving **collagenous bands** derived from **muscular tissue** and **skeletal adaptations** serve to reduce the muscular effort associated with weight bearing and link movement of the hock and stifle joints: the patellar locking mechanism and the reciprocal apparatus, respectively. The former is brought about by the arrangement of the patellar ligaments and the bones, which can result in locking of the patella and immobilisation of the stifle and thus the hock. In normal flexion and extension of the stifle joint, the patella glides in the trochlear groove. Extension beyond the proximal extremity of the groove, together with a medial twist of the patella, results in the medial ridge of the femur protruding between the medial and the middle patellar ligaments. The parapatellar cartilage becomes hooked over the tuberosity of the trochlea, thus locking the stifle in an extended position. This mechanism enables the horse to rest its weight on the hindlimb with a minimum of muscular effort. According to recent studies this locking mechanism is not completely passive. The vastus medialis muscle actively keeps in position the medial loop formed by the middle and medial patellar ligament as well as the patella and parapatellar cartilage. To release the mechanism, the weight is shifted to the other limb and the quadriceps muscle of the thigh draws the patella proximally. By a slight lateral twist the patella returns to the trochlear groove. If the patella cannot be unlocked, or locking occurs during progression, the stifle and hock remain locked in extension while the fetlock, pastern and coffin joints are flexed and the horse drags the toe.

Horses with a straight conformation of the hindlimbs, Shetland Ponies are thought to be predisposed to upward fixation of the patella. Another modification unique to the equine hindlimb is known as the reciprocal apparatus.

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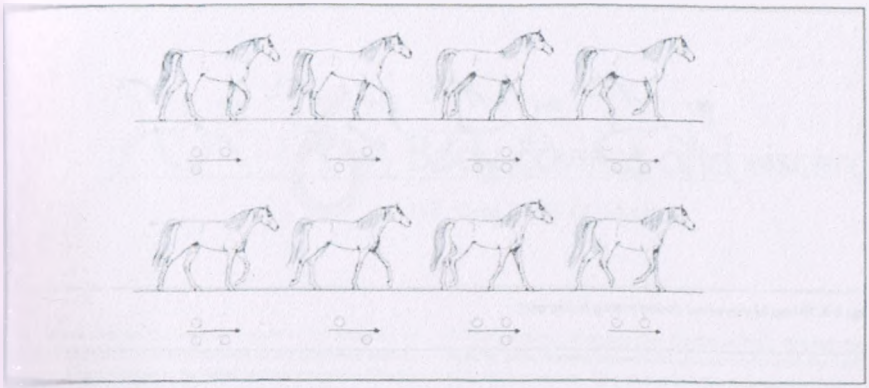


Fig. 5-5. Phases of movement during walking (schematic).

the stifle and hock movements (Fig. 5-3). It consists of the third peroneal muscle cranially, opposed by the gastrocnemius and the superficial digital flexor muscle caudally. The arrangement of the third peroneal muscle ensures that in the normal animal flexion of the stifle joint must be accompanied by flexion of the hock, while the caudal muscles ensure that when the stifle joint is extended the hock joint is also extended.

Unlike the carpus, the tarsus is always maintained at an angle. Therefore the superficial flexor tendon requires strong fascial insertions to stabilise the tarsus in its 'neutral' position. This task is accomplished by the tendinous cap the superficial flexor tendon forms at the level of the calcaneal tuberosity and its retinacular attachments.

The fixation and stabilisation of the fetlock joint and the phalangeal joints is similar to that of the thoracic limb.

The principle of muscle contraction in the hindlimb during locomotion is similar to that of the thoracic limb. At the beginning of the swing phase the joints of the limb are flexed and the limb moved forward through the contraction of the iliac muscle of the fascia lata, the superficial gluteal muscle, the sartorius muscle and the iliopsoas muscle. The abductory effect of the iliopsoas muscle is counteracted by muscles on the medial side of the thigh (sartorius, pectineus, adductor).

At the end of the swing phase, the joints are extended again. The quadriceps plays an important role, since it stabilises the stifle. During the stance phase the body is propelled forward through the contraction of the extensors of the hip joint (gluteal muscle), the stifle (quadriceps muscle) and the hock (gastrocnemius muscle), assisted by the hamstring muscles, which hold the stifle caudally relative to the forward moving body.

Movements of the whole body of an animal are the result of the coordinated movements of individual body parts. This can either result in forward, sideward or backward locomotion of the animal or in movements without change in location, such as sitting, lying down, rolling, rising, rearing. Equines have developed a variety of defence mechanisms, such as rearing and kicking, which involve shifting the centre of gravity to free one or two limbs off the ground. During locomotion the limbs are moved in a repetitive and regular sequence as the result of the cyclic activation of functional groups of muscles. Each stride can be divided in the stance phase, during which the foot is in contact with the ground and in the swing phase, during which the foot is off the ground.

Gaits

Natural gaits include the walk, trot and gallop. Some animals show additional gaits such as pace, amble or rack. In horses each gait can be classified as ordinary, collected or extended. The canter is a collected gallop.

The walk is a four-beat gait. The sequence of hoof beats can be described according to the following pattern: 1. left hind, 2. left fore, 3. right hind, 4. right fore. During the walk two feet are always in contact with the ground, there is no suspension period.

The trot is a two-beat gait in which opposite fore and hind feet hit the ground together. The right forelimb and the left hindlimb move together as do the left fore and the right hind.

The extended gallop is a four-beat gait, while the collected gallop, the canter, has a three-time pattern. The gallop can be performed with either the left or the right forelimb leading. An animal normally changes leads periodically. Some animal, however, especially dogs, change lead in front without changing behind immediately, so that it lands on the hindlimb of the same side as the leading forefoot instead of the opposite hind foot. In a horse with the rightfore leading, the sequence is as follows: 1. right fore (suspension), 2. left hind, 3. right hind, 4. left fore. The canter is a three-time gait, which is very similar to the gallop, except that the two paired, non-leading diagonal limbs land together. The single beat of the paired

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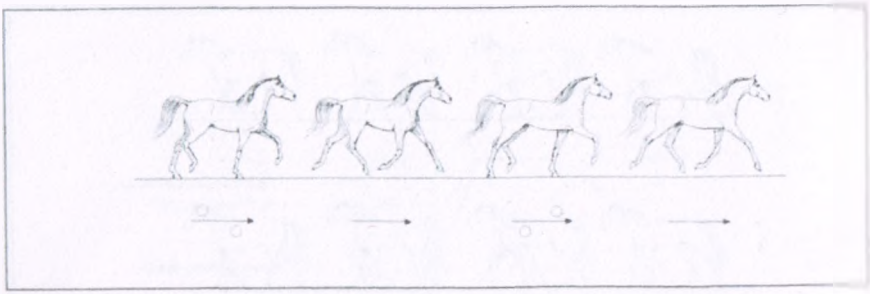


Fig. 5-6. Phases of movement during trotting (schematic).

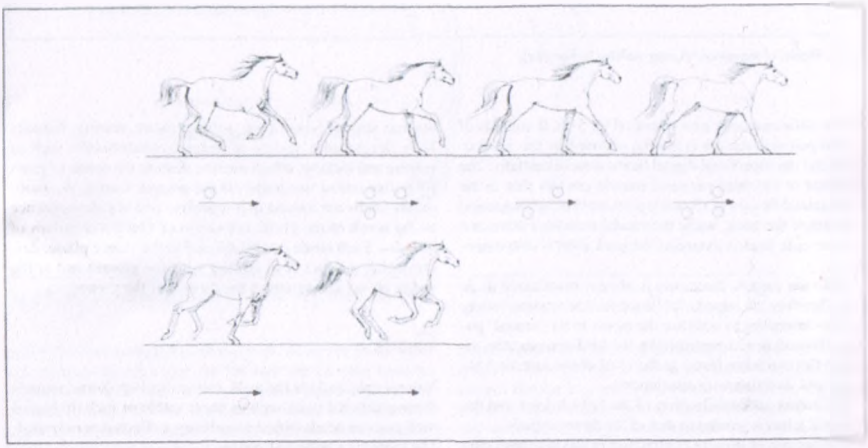


Fig. 5-7. Phases of movement during galloping (schematic).

limbs fall between successive beats of the unpaired lead limbs. The sequence in a right-fore lead is the following: 1. right fore (suspension), 2. left hind, 3. right hind and left fore together. Movement backwards is performed at the two-beat diagonal gait of the trot. Left hind and right fore move together as do right hind and left fore.

Biomechanically the action of the limbs during locomotion can be compared to a pendulum, which show a spring-like compression, when the limb contacts the ground. Latest research has proved that the pendular movements of the limbs during the walk resemble the oscillation of a pendulum, with the same mass distribution. This resonance phenomenon results in a considerable reduction of muscular effort necessary for moving the limb forward. The oscillation time of the limbs becomes shorter with increasing speed. Increased muscular effort would be necessary to achieve faster oscillation. At a certain speed the animal changes to trot, since this gait uses spring-like mechanisms which achieve faster resonance oscillation with a minimum muscular effort. When the foot hits the ground the flexor muscles of the digit are put under tension and are relaxed again; when the foot leaves the ground these muscles act like paired axial springs. During gallop the resonance oscillation of the limbs become even shorter. Up to three legs can be at the ground on the same time, acting as axial springs, similar to the trot. When the animal changes to a faster gait, the duration of a stride becomes shorter and its length increases. This is a result of the described resonance phenomenon, which helps the animal to achieve a certain speed with the least muscular effort.

In addition to the spring mechanisms of the limbs, the rhythmic flexion and extension of the thoracic and lumbar spine assist locomotion.

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6 Body cavities and viscera

H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The **viscera** denotes the internal organs of the thoracic, abdominal and pelvic cavities, as well as the digestive and respiratory organs located in the head and neck regions. The visceral can be divided into the organs of the head (caput), neck (collum), thorax, abdomen and pelvis. **Splanchnology** (Greek: "splanchnologia") is the study of the internal organs and is usually taught according to organ system. In contrast, topographical anatomy is concerned with a body region and the relations and interactions of the organs within that region. Fundamental knowledge is the basis for clinical anatomy. (For more information see Chapter 19.)

The digestive, respiratory and urogenital organs are basically canal systems that are referred to in the body as tracts (e.g. digestive tract). These organs are open to the body's surface through the mouth, nose, anus, vagina or urethra. These openings provide the possibility of non-invasive examinations of internal organs (endoscopy). The individual organs differ in their location and structure and are responsible for a multitude of various functions. Despite these differences, the organs all display structural and functional similarities that justifies a general overview of the different systems. In this respect, basic **anatomical terms** must be clarified, such as:

- visceral mucosa (tunica mucosa),
- visceral connective tissue (interstitium),
- visceral motility (tunica muscularis) and
- the body cavities and their serous lining (tunica serosa).

Visceral mucosa

The lumen of most hollow organs is in one way or another connected to the external environment. The internal lining of such organs is a layer of mucosa (tunica mucosa, Latin "tunica" = coat) that normally produces mucus (mucus). The linings of the circulatory and nervous systems are two exceptions, in that they do not produce mucus. Every mucosa is comprised of two layers:

- an epithelial lining on the internal surface of the organ (**epithelium**, epithelium mucosae) and
- an underlying layer of **loose connective tissue** (lamina propria mucosae, Latin "lamina" = sheet, plate and "proprius" = own).

Certain sections of organs also display a third, thin **layer of muscle cells** (lamina muscularis mucosae) beneath the lamina propria mucosae. One example is the alimentary canal.

Epithelium

Functions of the mucosa epithelium are protection and the absorption, resorption and secretion of substances. The **protective functions** include:

- protection against mechanical, chemical, thermal, or osmotic influences (e.g. in the digestive or urinary systems),
- protection against inhaled dust particles or suspended particles in the air,
- protection against infectious agents (e.g. viruses, bacteria, parasites) and immune defense.

The mucosa is responsible for the **absorption** of substances. To increase the surface area capable of absorption, the mucosa forms villi, crypts, folds, or crests (e.g. longitudinal and tranverse folds of the intestinal mucosa, intestinal villi, ruminal papilla, reticulum crests). In addition to these structures, the apical cells on the free surface facing the lumen contain tiny, finger-like projections, the microvilli (e.g. in the small intestine and in the gall bladder). The microvilli are responsible for the resorption of water, small molecules, and ions.

The mucosa epithelium also secretes substances. It builds, stores, and secretes, for example, mucus and digestive enzymes into the lumen of the gastrointestinal tract. The epithelium is to a degree specialised, in that it contains organ-specific, differentiated, single epithelial cells called goblet cells, and gastric (glandulae gastricae) or intestinal (glandulae intestinales) glands. Multicellular glands (buccal, labial, pharyngeal, nasal, or tracheal glands) can produce large amounts of mucus when necessary, for example, for predigestion in the oral cavity. These glands are always located in connective tissue outside of the epithelium (exoepithelial), but are connected to the organ lumen through single or branched excretory ducts.

Exocrine secretion is the **release of substances** into an organ lumen or onto the surface of the body (Greek: "exo" = outside, "krinein" = to excrete). If the substance is secreted into a capillary network or locally into the surrounding con-

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nective tissue, then it is an **endocrine** (Greek "endon" = inside) **secretion**. The substance internally secreted is a hormone (Greek, "horman" = to stimulate).

The gland cells are categorised on the basis of their structure, method of substance release, or the **composition of their secretion**. Different structures include:

- **tubular glands**
  - simple tubular glands (e.g. intestinal glands),
  - simple, coiled, tubular glands (e.g. sweat glands),
  - simple, branched glands with secretion ducts (e.g. stomach glands),
  - composite, tubular glands with secretion ducts (e.g. glands of the small intestines).
- **acinous glands** (grapelike glands with a small lumen; Latin "acinus" = grape):
  - simple, branched acinous glands (e.g. sebaceous glands),
  - composite acinous glands (e.g. pancreas, parotid salivary gland).
- **alveolar glands** (round glands with a wide lumen):
  - composite tubuloalveolar glands (e.g. mammary glands, accessory sex glands).

Glands are also grouped according to secretion composition:

- **mucous glands** produce a mucous substance (e.g. buccal glands),
- **serous glands** produce a watery substance (e.g. parotid salivary gland, lacrimal glands) and
- **mixed glands** contain both serous and mucous secretory units (e.g. sublingual glands).

Transport of the secreted substance is achieved through hydrostatic pressure, through the contractile myoepithelial (basket) cells, and through neighbouring smooth muscle cells, as well as through the mechanical power of the skeletal muscle (e.g. mastication muscles for transport of saliva).

Connective tissue layer of the epithelium

Every glandular epithelium rests upon a layer of connective tissue, the **mucous membrane proper** (lamina propria mucosae), which basically has three functions:

- transport of substances,
- mechanical protection,
- specific and non-specific immune defense.

The mucous membrane proper contains vessels supplying the mucosa (blood and lymphatic vessels) as well as the nerve tracts innervating the mucosa (sensory and vegetative nerves). This layer is comprised of loose connective tissue containing delicate fibres of collagen bundles with elastic properties. Between the fibres, the spaces are filled with formless intercellular substance. The epithelium is free of blood vessels (except parts of the inner ear wall), so the capillaries of the mucous membrane proper are responsible for the metabolic supply of the epithelial cells. The capillaries also transport substances resorbed in the intestines (amino acids, carbohydrates). The lymphatic capillaries transfer the long-chain fatty acids resorbed in the intestines. Sensory nerve receptors are located in this layer and are responsible for touch and taste sensations. The mucous membrane proper anchors the epithelium to underlying structures, for example on the palate or the tongue.

This layer can also contains immune cells (lymphocytes, macrophages), which play an important role in the non-specific and specific immune defence mechanisms (MALT, mucosa associated lymphatic tissue). The immune cells are found as diffused single cells or as collections of cells that form solitary lymph nodules. Aggregates of such cells form the tonsils in the pharynx or the **Peyer's patches** in the intestine.

Muscle layer of the epithelium

In certain sections of the organ walls (e.g. in the alimentary canal), the epithelium (epithelium mucosae and lamina propria mucosae) includes a third layer, the **lamina muscularis mucosae**. This layer is comprised of smooth muscle cells responsible for the motility of the epithelium.

Visceral connective tissue

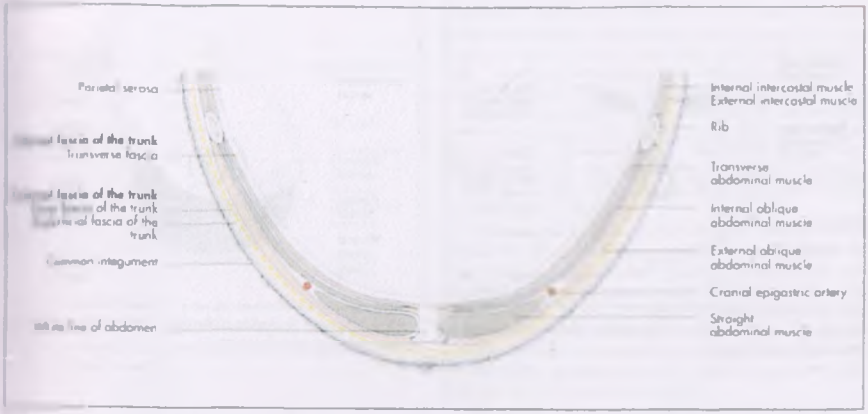
The connective tissue of the viscera fulfills a wide spectrum of functions. It forms an outer capsule that surrounds the organ, stabilises the form of the organs, and provides connective tissue paths for vessels and nerves. The high degree of flexibility provided by the connective tissue allows organs to adapt to changing amounts of content and permits frictionless movement between the organs. The sheer amount of connective tissue present in the viscera underscores its important functional and structural role. Usually, the importance of the connective tissue is first realised when function is reduced due to weakness or sickness. Two types of connective tissue can be found in one organ:

- the **non-specific connective tissue**, also referred to as the **stroma** (organ stroma) or **interstitial connective tissue** (interstitium), and
- the **organ-specific tissue**, called the **parenchyme** (organ parenchyme), which defines the function of an organ (liver parenchyme, kidney parenchyme).
  Such organs are also referred to as **parenchymatous organs**.

The **stroma** surrounds the parenchymal parts of the organ (single cells, cell clusters, epithelial bundles or cords, cell groups, cell trabeculae or cell plates, etc.) and encloses the vessels and nerves. It builds the lamina propria mucosae of the epithelium, the tunica adventitia on the outside of the organ as well as the **organ capsule** (kidney capsule, testicular capsule, liver and spleen capsule). The capsule is taut and often contains elastic fibres. Connecting tissue fibres originating in the capsule enter the parenchyme of the organs (e.g. spleen trabeculae, connective tissue septum in the testicles).

Vessels and nerve tracts enter an organ together at a certain point (**hilus**). At this point, the stroma of the organ becomes the **mesenterium**, which provides support for the continuation of the vessels and nerves.

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1 Transverse cross section of the abdominal wall layers (schematic).

Visceral motility

Visceral motility is responsible for transporting the contents of the different organs. Thus, it controls the amount of contents found in the organ at any one time. Through contraction and filtration mechanisms, the food bolus passes through the intestinal tract, the gall bladder secrets bile, urine is excreted, sperm is transported and the uterus wall contracts during birth.

This motility is also responsible for the closing of sphincters, for example at the stomach exit (pylorus) or in the bladder. The diastole and systole of the heart can be understood as motility of the circulatory system.

The muscle of the internal organs is usually smooth muscle tissue (visceral musculature). This musculature is innervated by sympathetic and parasympathetic (vegetative, autonomous) nerves. The motility of the internal organs is peristaltic motion, which is controlled by vegetative autonomous nerve impulses. These nerve impulses can have stimulatory or inhibitory effects on the motility. Two exceptions are the heart muscle and the tongue, both of which are composed of striated muscle. The smooth muscle of the hollow, visceral organs is characteristically arranged as the:

- **tunica muscularis** with
  - an inner, circular layer of muscle cells (stratum circulare) and
  - an outer, longitudinal layer of muscle cells (stratum longitudinale).

Body cavities and their serous lining

The majority of the internal organs (viscera) are situated in the body cavities, in which very little free space remains. The flexible mesenteries and small, fluid-filled spaces between the organs reduce friction to a minimum, thus allowing the organs to glide freely against each other, for example, during breathing or the digestive process. The mesenteries secure the integrity of cavities, define spaces in which active organs operate more freely, and help sequester organs with conflicting activities. The freedom of movement of the visceral organs is essential for their function.

The body cavities are contained in the body trunk and, similar to the vertebrae, can be divided into three **different zones**:

- thorax,
- abdomen and
- pelvis.

At an early embryonic stage, the diaphragm develops from the perpendicular **septum transversum** and the neighboring, predisposed, **mesenchymal muscle**. The diaphragm separates the primary, single body cavity into the:

- thoracic cavity (cavum pectoris) and
- abdominal cavity (cavum abdominis), which remains connected to the pelvic cavity (cavum pelvis).

The thoracic and abdominal cavities communicate through **three openings**, the **caval foramen** (foramen venae cavae), the **oesophagal hiatus** (hiatus oesophageus), through which the oesophagus, the vagal nerve trunks and the oesophagal vessels pass, and the **aortic hiatus** (hiatus aorticus), through which the aorta, the thoracic duct and the azygos and hemiazygos veins pass. Between the dorsal edge of the diaphragmatic crus muscles and the psoas musculature, a small area remains filled with connective tissue, the **lumbocostal arch** (arcus lumbocostalis), through which the sympathetic trunk and splanchnic nerves pass on each side.

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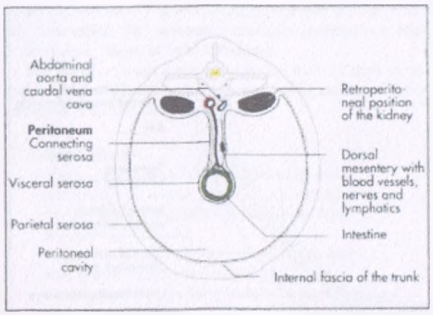


Fig. 6-2. Schematic illustration of the serous membranes as exemplified in the perineal cavity

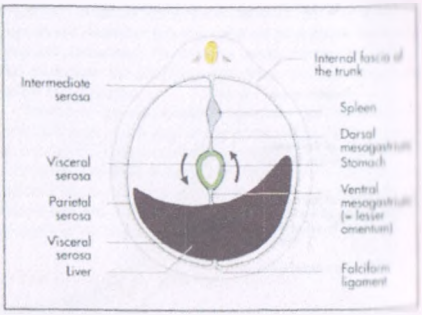


Fig. 6-3. Schematic illustration of the dorsal and ventral mesentery in early embryonic development

This area is a weak spot between the thoracic and abdominal cavities (Fig. 2-14).

The **pelvic cavity** (cavum pelvis) is the caudal continuation of the abdominal cavity. Dividing these two cavities is the terminal line of the pelvis (linea terminalis), which extends from the sacral promontory, runs laterally through both arcuate lines of the ilia to unite on the cranial edge of the pubis.

The internal walls of the body cavities are structurally similar even though modifications occur according to region. The **layers of the walls** are as follows, beginning externally:

- common integument (integumentum commune),
- superficial trunk fascia (fascia trunci externa),
- skeletal muscles,
- internal trunk fascia (fascia trunci interna) and the
- serous membrane (tunica serosa with tela subserosa).

Serous membranes line almost completely the body or serous cavities. There are **four serosal cavities**:

- the left and right pleural cavities (cavum pleurae sinistrum et dextrum),
- the peritoneal cavity (cavum peritonei), and
- the pericardial cavity (cavum pericardii) with the pericardium.

A serous membrane (tunica serosa) is comprised of a single layer of pavement epithelium (mesothelium = lamina epithelialis serosae) and an underlying (subepithelial) layer of connective tissue, the lamina propria serosae. The serous membrane is capable of **excreting** and **resorbing watery-serous fluids** and of **resorbing air** or **gaseous substances** (e.g. carbon dioxide after a laparoscopy). The serous membrane covers the outside of the organs and lines the inner walls of the body cavities (Fig. 6-2 to 6 and 10), physiologically appearing **transparent**, **moist**, **smooth** and **shiny**.

The serous fluids contain not only a physiological buffer system, but also mesothelial cells and non-specific immune cells (pleural or peritoneal macrophages) that engulf foreign particles. The serous fluids, together with the mesothelial cells of the inner wall of the body cavities, function as a barrier. This function is extremely important clinically.

The **tela subserosa**, a layer of loose connective tissue, underlies the tunica serosa. This layer contains fat, blood and lymphatic vessels. A delicate network of nerve plexuses in the subepithelial layer (serosa parietalis) is sensitive to tactile, mechanical, thermal and chemical stimuli acting on the serous surfaces.

Between the serous membranes and the wall of the body cavities are narrow, fissure-like spaces formed by the tela subserosa. At the dorsal abdominal wall and at the floor of the pelvic cavity, this **retroserosal space** widens into the **retroperitoneal space**. Located in this space are the kidneys and both ureters (Fig. 6-2). **Retroperitoneal** (behind the peritoneum) describes the location of organs situated in the retroperitoneal space and, therefore, covered only on one side with peritoneum. These organs can be surgically reached without opening the peritoneal cavity. **Peritoneal** organs that are completely covered by serous membranes are termed intraperitoneally. The visceral organs located in the thorax that are covered by serous membranes on all sides are described as **intrapleural**.

The wall of the **serous cavities** (Fig. 6-2 to 6 and 10) are divided into **three general sections**:

- parietal serosa (serosa or lamina parietalis) (= serosa of the wall),
- connecting serosa (serosa or lamina intermedia) (= mesentery, intermediate serosa),
- visceral serosa (serosa or lamina visceralis) (= serosa of the organs).

The **parietal serosa** is the section of serous membrane that lines the inner wall of the body cavities. Sections covering the organs are named with the prefix "peri" and the organ name of the organ, for example pericardium or perioneum. In contrast to the other serous membranes, the parietal serosa is extremely sensitive to pain. For surgical procedures, local

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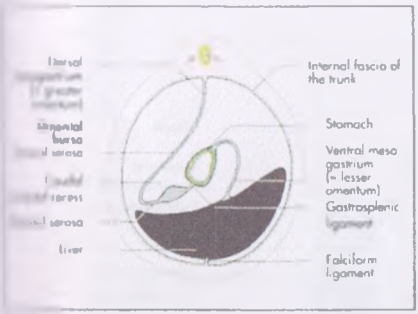


Fig. 6-4. Schematic illustration of the dorsal and ventral gastric mesentery at an early embryonic stage with the development of the greater and lesser omentum.

parietalis must be applied to the body wall to render the latter insensitive to pain. The parietal serosa is divided into sections and named depending on location:

- parietal pleura in the thorax,
- parietal peritoneum in the abdomen and pelvis.

The parietal serosa rests upon and is strongly attached to the **internal fascia** (fascia trunci interna) of the body trunk. The portion of this fascia located in the thorax wall is the **endothoracic fascia** (fascia endothoracica, Fig. 6-5 and 6); in the lateral and ventral abdominal walls it is called the **transversal fascia** (fascia transversalis, Fig. 6-1), and in the wall of the processus vaginalis it is the **internal spermatic fascia** (fascia spermatica interna) (Fig. 10-14).

The **intermediate serosa** (serosa intermedia) are the serous membranes which form the **mesenteries** (Fig. 6-2 and 3). The serosa intermedia is a continuation of the serosa parietalis from the left and right sides in each body cavity. These two sides unite and form a double-layered serosa stemming from the wall of the cavity. This occurs both at the top and bottom of the body cavity, creating dorsal and ventral mesenteries. In some cases, the mesentery is referred to as a **ligament** or **plica**. The individual mesentery sections are named with the prefix "**meso**" and the Greek name of the organ it reaches, for example mesogastrium (Fig. 6-3). The mesogastrium is the mesentery which leads to the stomach and suspends it in the abdominal cavity.

The **primary mesenteries** also provide a way for the arteries, veins, nerves and lymphatic vessels to reach the organs they supply. The lymph nodes are often located in the mesentery of the organ. The secondary mesenteries support and stabilize the **positions of the organs** (e.g. plica duodenocolica, ligamentum triangulare). A mesentery consists of connective tissue and fat deposits. The mesenteries of cats additionally contain **mechanoreceptors**, most often corpuscles of Vater-Pacini, which respond to pressure.

Mesenteries begin dorsally as double-layered sheets and continue ventrally, where the sheets separate to surround a specific organ of the thoracic, abdominal or pelvic cavity. The part of the mesentery covering the organ is referred to as the visceral serosa (Fig. 6-3). They are more aptly named with the prefix "**epi**" in combination with the Greek name of the organ, for example epicardium or epoophoron (Fig. 6-6 and 10-16).

Once the other side of the organ is reached, the **visceral serosa** unite again to form a double sheet which attaches to the ventral thoracic wall or to the cranial section of the ventral abdominal wall. The middle and caudal sections of the intestines **do not have a ventral mesentery** due to the embryonic developmental process.

The dorsal and ventral mesenteries of the stomach and the cranial section of the duodenum build a unique structure in respect to their involvement of the liver (Fig. 6-3 and 4). The **greater omentum** (omentum majus) develops from the **dorsal mesentery of the stomach** (mesogastrium dorsale), which extends and doubles back, thus forming the pouch-like **omental bursa** (bursa omentalis). The deep, visceral part and the superficial, parietal part of the omental bursa form a **recess**, the recessus caudalis omentalis.

The **greater omentum** originates from the dorsal abdominal wall and extends caudally, in carnivores and ruminants as far as the pelvic inlet, and reverses direction, continuing cranially until attaching to the major curvature of the stomach. Extension folds of the greater omentum bind to other organs, constricting their mobility but also forming niches where displaced organs can become trapped, such as in the nephrosplenic space in the horse. (For more information see Chapter 7, "Digestive system", page 333.)

The **ventral mesogastrium** (Fig. 6-3 and 4) is divided into two sections by one of the associated glands of digestion, the **liver**. The proximal section of the mesogastrium ventrale, the **hepatogastric ligament**, extends between the minor curvature of the stomach and the portal fissure. On the parietal facies of the liver, the mesogastrium ventrale continues as the **falciform ligament**, eventually attaching to the linea alba of the ventral abdominal wall. Together, the **hepatogastric ligament** and the only ventral intestinal mesentery, the **hepatoduodenal ligament**, form the **lesser omentum**. (For further information, see Chapter 7, "Digestive system", page 334.)

Organs located close to the dorsal wall of the body cavities are only covered on one side by the serous membrane. This position is described in general as "**retroserous**". In the abdominal cavity, the organs would be located "**retroperitoneal**" (e.g. the location of the kidneys and the ureters) and in the thoracic cavity "**retropleural**" (e.g. the location of the sympathetic trunk). The organs of the caudal pelvic cavity lie "**extraperitoneal**".

Thoracic cavity (cavum pectoris)

The thoracic cavity lies within the **thoracic cage**. It begins at the cranial opening of the chest (apertura thoracis cranialis) and ends at the thoracic outlet (apertura thoracis caudalis). The **pectoral cavity** (cavum pectoris) is the section of the thoracic cavity cranial to the diaphragm. The section of thoracic cavity caudal of the diaphragm is the **intrathoracic part** of the abdominal cavity (Fig. 6-12 to 15).

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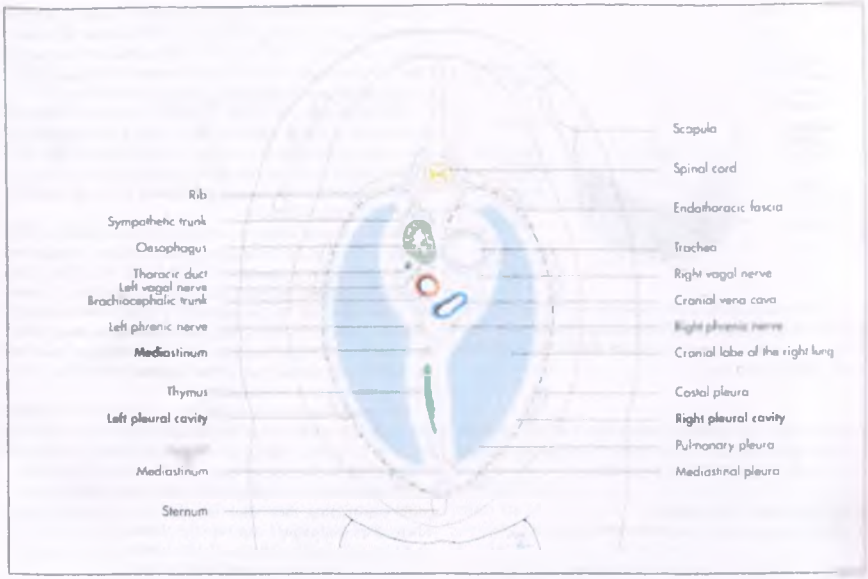


Fig. 6-5. Transverse section of the canine pleural cavity at the level of the cranial mediastinum (schematic, caudal aspect, serous space enlarged)

The thoracic cavity contains **two pleural cavities** (cava pleurae), which are located to the right and left of the mediastinum. Each cavity surrounds each lung (Fig. 6-5, 6 to 10) and is lined with **serous membrane (pleura)**. Beginning at the hilus pulmonis and through the ligamentum pulmonale, the pleura extends from the thoracic wall to cover the lungs. The diaphragm and the mediastinum are also covered with pleura. The fascia endothoracica lies under the pleura and also extends into the **mediastinum**. The pleura is divided into sections according to location:

- **parietal pleura** (pleura parietalis):
  - costal pleura (pleura costalis) which lines the area formed by the ribs,
  - mediastinal pleura (pleura mediastinalis) with the precardial, pericardial and postcardial pleura,
  - diaphragmatic pleura (pleura diaphragmatica) and
- **visceral pleura** (pleura visceralis):
  - pulmonary pleura (pleura pulmonalis).

The thoracic cavity contains the following niches or spaces:

- mediastinal recess (recessus mediastini),
- costodiaphragmatic recess (recessus costodiaphragmaticus) and
- pleural cupula (cupula pleurae).

The **mediastinal recess** (recessus mediastini) is bordered cranially by the pericardium, caudally by the diaphragm, on the right side by the caudal vena cava and its mesentery, and on the left side, by the mediastinum (Fig. 6-10). At the border between the pleura costalis and the pleura diaphragmatica is the **costodiaphragmatic recess** (recessus costodiaphragmaticus). This space is filled by the lungs during inspiration. Each pleura from the right and left sides ends cranially in a dome-shaped sac, the **pleural cupula** (cupula pleurae), which in carnivores and ruminants extends about 1–2 finger widths further cranial than the cranial thoracic aperture.

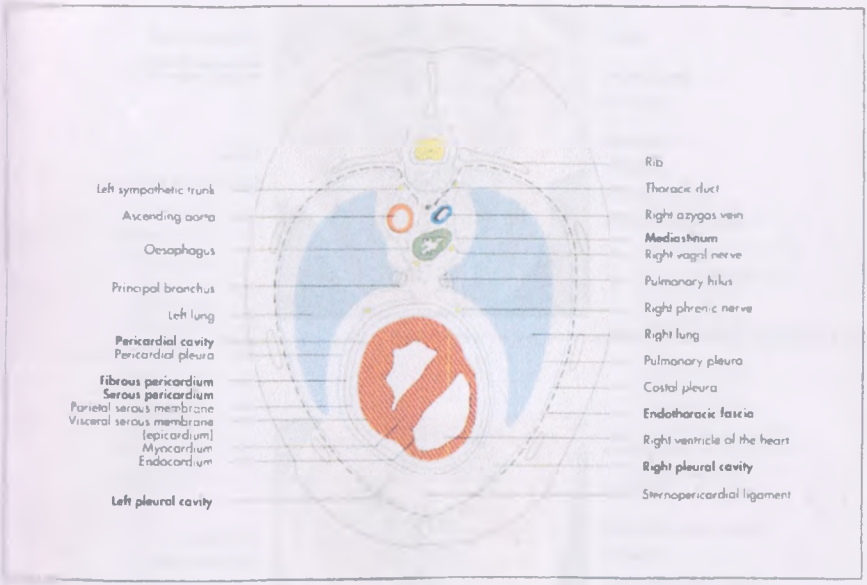
Mediastinum (mediastinum)

The mediastinum is the space between the left and right layer of the pleura mediastinalis (Fig. 6-5, 6 and 10). It can be divided into three parts:

- cranial or precardial mediastinum,
- middle or cardial mediastinum and
- caudal or postcardial mediastinum.

The **cranial mediastinum** (mediastinum craniale) begins at the cranial aperture of the thorax (apertura thoracis cranialis) (Fig. 6-5 and 7). The supply vessels and nerve tracts run through the cranial mediastinum from the thoracic cavity to the head and cranial limbs as well as to the cranial wall of the cavity.

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6.6 Transverse section of the canine pleural cavity at the level of the middle mediastinum (schematic, caudal aspect, serous spaces in green).

- brachiocephalic trunk (truncus brachiocephalicus),
- left and right subclavian artery and vein (a. et v. subclavia sinistra et dextra),
- left and right costocervical trunk (truncus costocervicalis sinister et dexter),
- cranial section of the vertebral arteries (aa. vertebrales),
- bicervical trunk (truncus bicaroticus),
- left and right internal thoracic artery and vein (a. et v. thoracica interna sinistra et dextra),
- cranial vena cava (v. cava cranialis),
- left and right sympathetic trunk (truncus sympathicus sinister et dexter),
- stellate ganglia (ganglion stellatum seu cervicothoracicum sinistrum et dextrum),
- left and right vagal nerve (n. vagus sinister et dexter),
- left and right phrenic nerve (n. phrenicus sinister et dexter),
- left and right recurrent laryngeal nerve (n. laryngeus caudalis or recurrens sinister et dexter),
- thoracic duct (ductus thoracicus, which may also open on the left side) and
- ends of the jugular trunks (trunci jugulares).

In the cranial mediastinum, the long muscle of the neck (m. longus colli) runs along the ventral surfaces of the first five to six thoracic vertebrae. Also located here are nerves, lymphatic vessels, veins, the **trachea** and the **oesophagus**. In juvenile animals, the **thymus gland** is also found in the cranial mediastinum.

The **middle** or **cardial mediastinum** (mediastinum medium seu cardiale) contains the heart in the **pericardium**, the large blood vessels at the **base of the heart**, the **thoracic duct**, the **oesophagus** and the **trachea** (Fig. 6-6, 8 and 10). At the fifth intercostal space, the trachea bifurcates into the **two main bronchi** (bifurcatio tracheae). Only in pigs and ruminants does an extra bronchus, the **tracheal bronchus**, fork from the right side of the trachea before the bifurcation. As mentioned above, the **thymus** is located here in juvenile animals. The following supply vessels and nerve tracts run through the **middle mediastinum**:

- ascending aorta (aorta ascendens) with the aortic arch (arcus aortae),
- pulmonary trunk (truncus pulmonalis),
- pulmonary veins (vv. pulmonales),
- stem of the azygos vein (v. azygos),
- ends of the cranial and caudal vena cava (v. cava cranialis et caudalis),
- broncho-oesophageal trunk (truncus bronchooesophageus),

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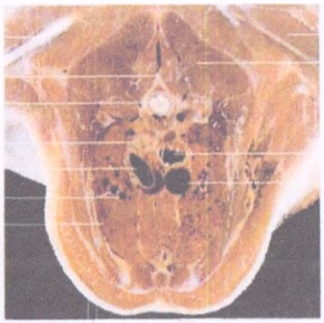


Fig. 6-7. Transverse section of a feline thorax at the level of the cranial mediastinum (caudal aspect). König, 1992.

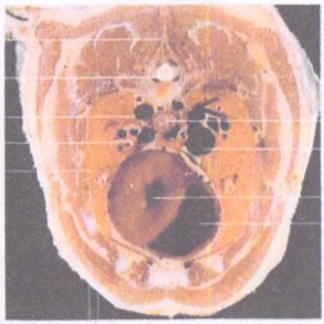


Fig. 6-8. Transverse section of a feline thorax at the level of the middle mediastinum (caudal aspect). König, 1992.

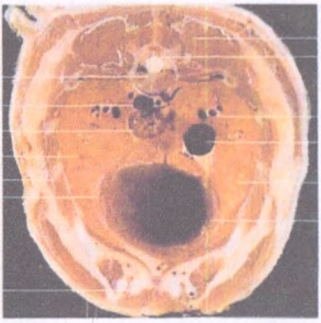
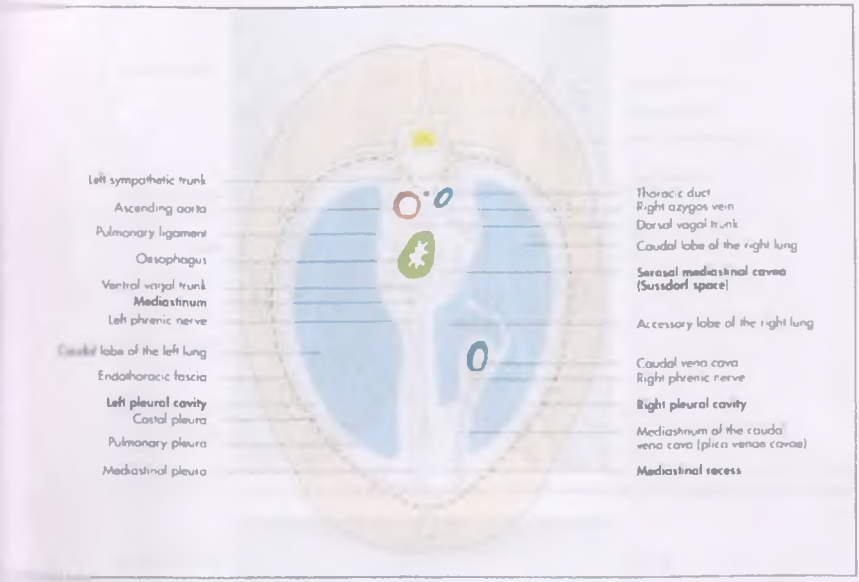


Fig. 6-9. Transverse section of a feline thorax at the level of the caudal mediastinum (caudal aspect). König, 1992.

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Transverse section of the canine pleural cavity at the level of the caudal mediastinum (schematic, caudal aspect, serous spaces

...and left internal thoracic artery and vein
...thoracica interna dextra et sinistra),
...duct (ductus thoracicus),
...and left sympathetic trunk
...sympathicus dexter et sinister),
...and left vagal nerve (n. vagus dexter et sinister),
...current laryngeal nerve
...caudalis seu recurrens sinister) and
...and left phrenic nerve
...phrenicus dexter et sinister).

...caudal or **postcardial mediastinum** (mediastinum cau...) lies between the heart and the diaphragm (Fig. 6-9 ...). The aorta runs through the dorsal section of the cau...mediastinum on its way to the diaphragm. Ventral to the ... the oesophagus, accompanied by the **dorsal** and **ven...trunk of the vagal nerve**. The **left phrenic nerve** pass... to the mediastinum on the way to the diaphragm.

...caudal lung lobes are attached to the caudal medi... and to the diaphragm through the **pulmonary liga...mentum pulmonale**) (Fig. 6-8 and 10). In horses ... cattle, dogs, the caudal mediastinum is fenestrated.

In the right ligamentum pulmonale is a **serosal mediastinal cavea**, called the **cavum mediastini serosum** (Sussdorf space) (Fig. 6-10), which develops during the foetal differentiation from the cranial pneumatoenteric recess in the primary, united thoracoabdominal cavity. With the development of the diaphragm from the perpendicular septum transversum and the following growth towards the dorsal cavity wall, the cranial part of the Sussdorf space is separated from the abdominal cavity. The cranial section of this space remains in the thoracic cavity lifelong and is lined with peritoneum (cavum mediastini serosum = Sussdorf space). This space is spacious in the cat, the dog and the pig.

The **caudal vena cava** runs to the right of the caudal mediastinum suspended in its own mesenetery, the **plica venae cavae**, accompanied by the **right phrenic nerve** (Fig. 6-10). The plica venae cavae helps to form a serous-lined recess, the **mediastinal recess** (recessus mediastini), which is occupied by the accessory lobe of the right lung. In carnivores and pigs, only a part of the accessory lobe is contained in this recess, whereas in ruminants and in the horse, the entire accessory lobe occupies the recess.

The following vessels and nerves pass through the **caudal mediastinum**:

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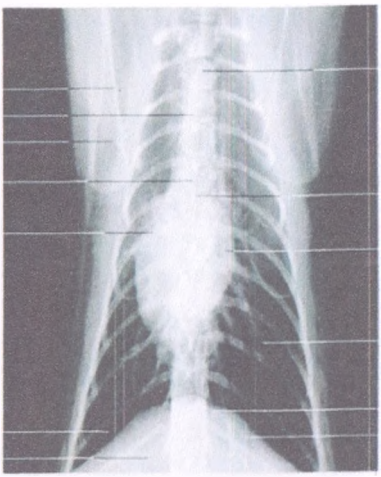


Fig. 6-11. Thoracic radiograph of a cat (dorsoventral view), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

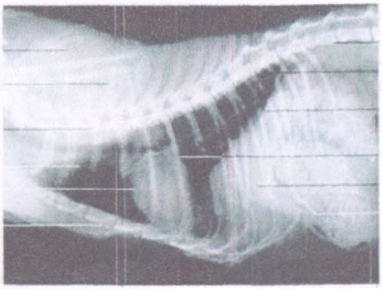


Fig. 6-12. Thoracic radiograph of a cat (laterolateral view), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

- thoracic aorta (aorta thoracica),
- azygos vein (v. azygos),
- left and right sympathetic trunk (truncus sympathicus sinister et dexter),
- left and right major and minor splanchnic nerve (n. splanchnicus major et minor sinister et dexter),
- thoracic duct (ductus thoracicus),
- dorsal and ventral vagal trunk (truncus vagalis dorsalis et ventralis),
- left phrenic nerve (n. phrenicus sinister), (the right phrenic nerve runs within the plica venae cavae),
- caudal vena cava to the right of the mediastinum and
- left and right internal thoracic artery (a. thoracica interna sinistra et dextra).

Lymph nodes of the mediastinum

The lymph nodes of the mediastinum belong to the **mediastinal lymph centre**. The lymph nodes include the **cranial mediastinal lymph nodes** (lymphonodi mediastinales craniales), the **middle mediastinal lymph nodes** (lymphonodi mediastinales medii) above the heart base and the **caudal mediastinal lymph nodes** (lymphonodi mediastinales caudales). The caudal mediastinal lymph nodes are absent in the dog and cat. In the ox, these lymph nodes form substantial structures located between the aorta and the oesophagus. Swelling of these lymph nodes can compress the left side of the oesophagus. The **bronchial lymph centre** lies at the hilus of the lung and consists of the right, left and common bronchobronchial lymph nodes (lymphonodi tracheobronchales).

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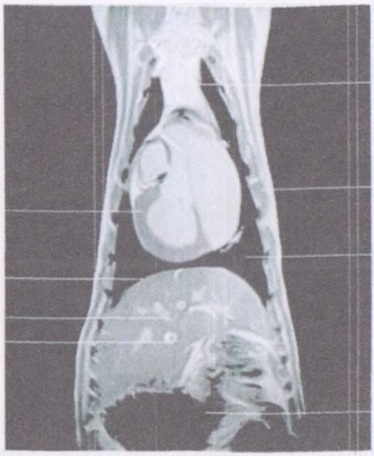


Fig. 6-13 Magnetic resonance imaging of the thorax including the intrathoracic segment of the abdominal cavity of a dog (coronal view). Courtesy of Dr. Isa Foltin, Heidelberg.

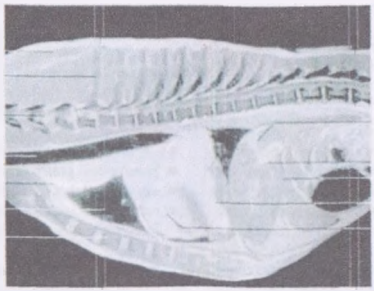


Fig. 6-14 Magnetic resonance image of the thorax including the cranial abdominal cavity of a dog (sagittal view), courtesy of Dr. Isa Foltin, Hamburg.

...and medii). Species with the additional tra... the ruminants and pigs, also have the **cra...tracheobronchial lymph nodes** (lymphonodi tracheo... craniales) adjacent to this bronchus. (For more ... see Chapter 8, "Respiratory system".)

...dominal and pelvic cavity (cavum abdominalis et pelvis)

...cavity and the cranial part of the pelvic cavity ... **peritoneum**. The peritoneum forms a sac, creating the **peritoneal cavity** (cavum peritonei). Outside of the ... is the extensive **internal fascia of the trunk** (fas... The abdominal and pelvic cavities are connected by a wide opening (Fig. 6-15). The border between the two is defined by the subtle **terminal line of the pelvis** (linea terminalis). The cranial border of the abdominal cavity is the **diaphragm**, although the intrathoracic part of the abdominal cavity reaches far into the cavity formed by the thoracic cage (cavum thoracis). The peritoneal cavity communicates with the pleural cavity through three openings in the diaphragm:

- **aortic hiatus** (hiatus aorticus), located ventral to the vertebrae between the right and left diaphragmatic crus,
- **oesophageal hiatus** (hiatus oesophageus) between the branches of the right diaphragmatic crus, where the vagal nerve trunks also pass through the diaphragm.

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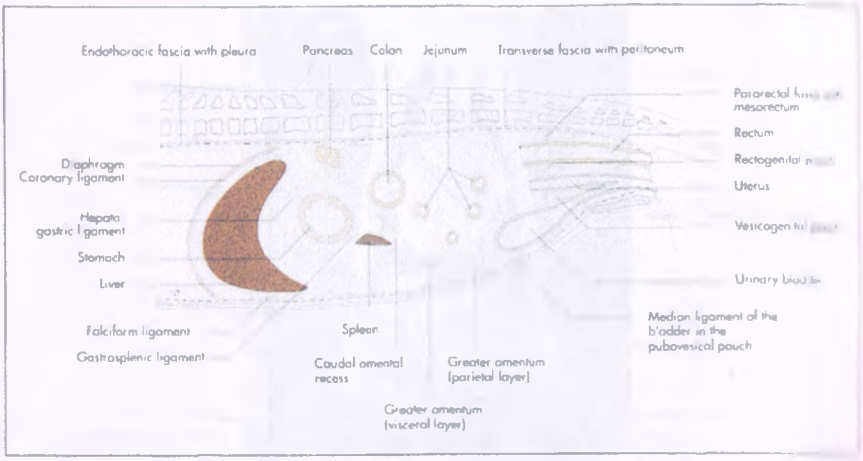


Fig. 6-15. Illustration of the peritoneum in the abdominal and pelvic cavity in the cat (schematic, median section)

- **vena caval foramen** (foramen venae cavae) in the dome of the diaphragm in the central tendon (centrum tendineum) (Fig. 2-14).

The part of the caudal vena cava passing through the diaphragm is firmly attached to the central tendon. In contrast, the aorta and the esophagus pass through the diaphragm surrounded by loose connective tissue. The central lymph vessel of the abdominal and pelvic cavities, the **thoracic duct** (ductus thoracicus), accompanies the aorta through the diaphragm. At the beginning of the ductus thoracicus, the **chyle cistern** (cisterna chyli) is located between both diaphragmatic crura. The **right** and **left truncus sympathicus**, accompanied by the **n. splanchnicus major** and the **n. splanchnicus minor**, pass from the thoracic into the abdominal cavity through the arcus lumbocostalis, which lies dorsal to both crura.

In the foetus, the ventral abdominal wall is perforated in the median by the **umbilical cord**. During foetal development, it is possible that a **physiological umbilical hernia** occurs in which ventral sections of intestines enter the umbilical ring, thus shortly leaving the foetal body cavity (coelom cavity). The umbilical ring closes in the first few days post partum to form the **navel** (umbilicus or omphalos). During the time when the umbilicus remains open, the newborn is susceptible to ascending infections via the umbilical artery, umbilical vein or the urachus.

In male animals and often in female dogs, the peritoneum and the fascia trunci interna extend through the inguinal canal, forming a pouch, the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis). The vaginal process surrounds the testicles in male animals and the round ligament of the uterus (lig. teres uteri) in female dogs. The ligamentum teres uteri is the embryonic equivalent of the gubernaculum testis. The peritoneal [illegible] is completely closed in male animals. In female animals, the cavity communicates through the fallopian tube openings with the genital tract with the outside environment. The [illegible] cavity contains many pouches (Fig. 6-15 and 28):

- vaginal process (processus vaginalis peritonei),
- pubovesical pouch (excavatio pubovesicalis),
- vesicogenital pouch (excavatio vesicogenitalis) and
- rectogenital pouch (excavatio rectogenitalis) with the left and right pararectal fossa.

The Sussdorf space (cavum mediastini serosum) is a [illegible] lined with peritoneum located in the mediastinum that is separated from the peritoneum when the diaphragm forms.

Peritoneal cavity (cavum peritonei)

The **peritoneal cavity** contains the entire gastrointestinal tract (stomach, small and large intestines), except for the retroperitoneal sections of the rectum and the anus. This cavity also includes the liver, the pancreas, the spleen and a large part of the urogenital tract (Fig. 6-18 to 26). The organs are covered with peritoneum (**visceral layer**) which is connected by a double-layered serous membrane to the lining of the cavity, the **parietal layer of the peritoneum**. The double-layered serous membrane is the dorsal mesentery containing blood vessels, nerves, lymphatic structures as well as fat and connective tissues (see below). According to their location in the peritoneal cavity, the organs are classified as:

- intraperitoneal (e.g. stomach, intestines, liver),
- retroperitoneal (e.g. kidneys, adrenal glands).

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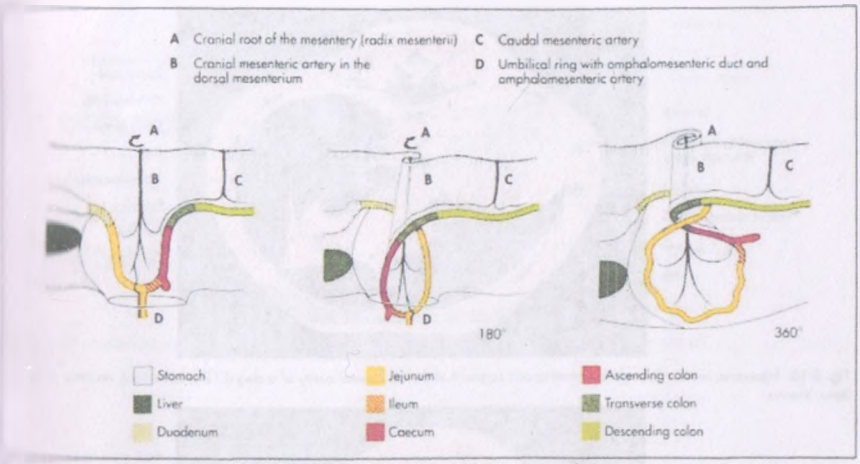


Fig. 1.16. Rotation of the intestine during foetal development (schematic).

As mentioned above, the doubled-layered serous membranes attach the organs to the wall of the peritoneal cavity as parietal **mesenteries**. They convey blood vessels, lymph vessels, and nerves to the organs. The mesenteries, ligaments, and serous plicae of the organs are described here together with the individual organ. Individual sections of mesenteries aid orientation within the peritoneal cavity and in identification of certain organs. The organisation of the gastrointestinal tract mesenteries can be inferred from their embryonic development. During development, the early gut is a straight tube attached along its entire length by the **dorsal mesentery** (mesenterium dorsale) to the roof of the embryonic trunk. A **ventral mesentery** (mesenterium ventrale) is present only on the stomach and on the first section of the

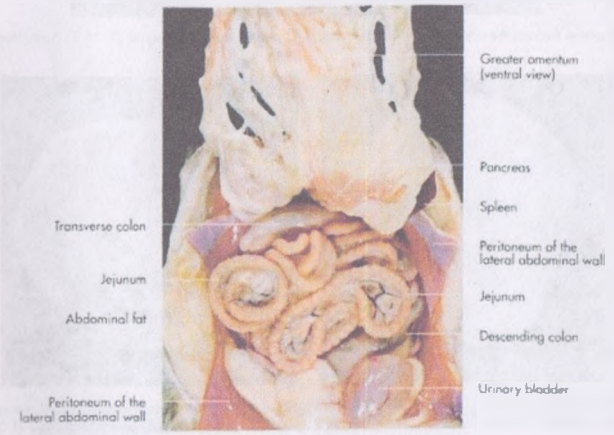


Fig. 1.17. Abdominal cavity of a cat, König, 1992.

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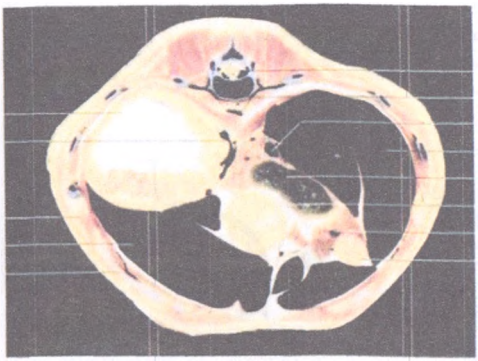


Fig. 6-18. Transverse section through the intrathoracic segment of the abdominal cavity of a dog (E12 plastination), courtesy of Dr M. C. Sora, Vienna.

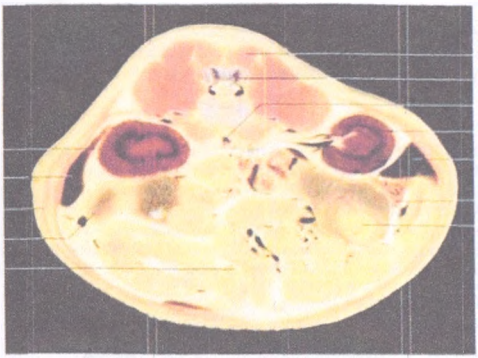


Fig. 6-19. Transverse section through the abdominal cavity of a dog (E12 plastination); courtesy of Dr. M. C. Sora, Vienna.

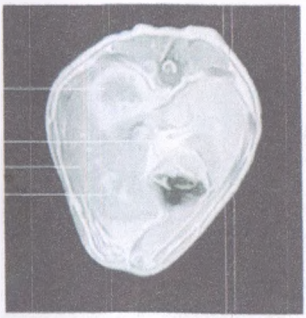


Fig. 6-20. Magnetic resonance image of the cranial abdominal cavity of a dog (transverse section), courtesy of Dr. Isa Foltin, Heidelberg.

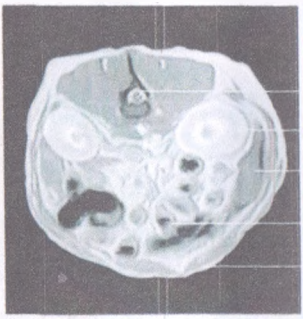


Fig. 6-21. Magnetic resonance image of the caudal abdominal cavity of a dog (transverse section); courtesy of Dr. Isa Foltin, Heidelberg.

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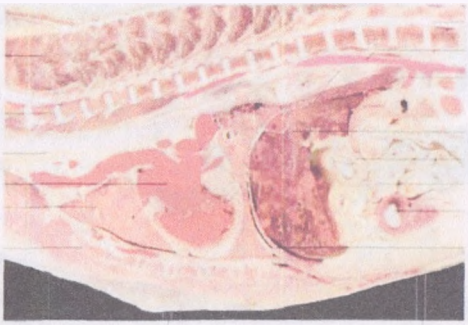


Fig. 1.33. Paramedian section of the thorax of a piglet (blood vessels injected), courtesy of H. Obermayer, Munich.

...times, ending at the level of the common **bile duct** (...choledochus). The embryonic gut grows in length, ...elongation of the dorsal mesentery, in whose cen... **cranial mesenteric artery** (Fig. 6-16) is located. The ... the gut is accompanied by a 360-degree rotation of ... around the cranial mesenteric artery (a. mesen... cranialis). The organs at the ends of the gastrointestinal tract attain their final positions in the abdominal cavity (Fig. 6-16) and the cranial mesenteric artery becomes the cranial **root of the mesentery** (radix mesenterii). (For a detailed description of this process, see an Embryology textbook.)

In large herbivores, voluminous and especially heavy sections of the digestive system (e.g. a equine's large intestine) are supported by shortened mesenteries that are partly fused

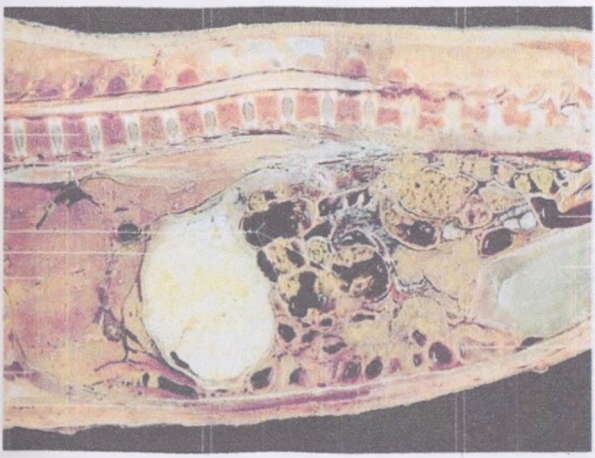


Fig. 1.34. Paramedian section of the abdominal cavity of a piglet

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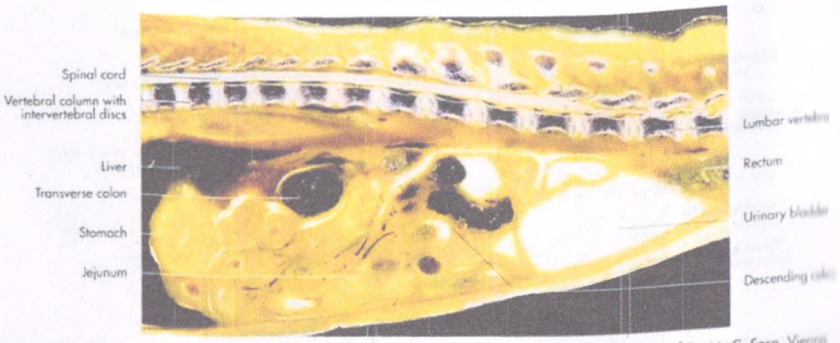


Fig. 6-24. Sagittal section through the abdominal and pelvic cavities of a dog (E12 plastination); courtesy of Dr. M.-C. Sora, Vienna

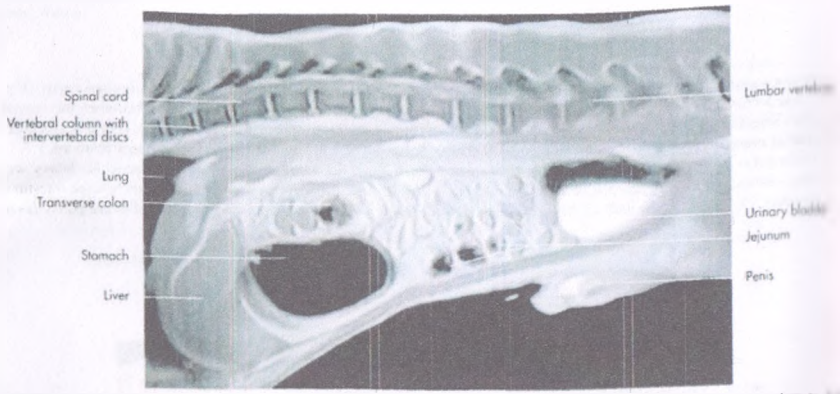


Fig. 6-25. Magnetic resonance image of a sagittal section through the abdominal and pelvic cavities of a dog; courtesy of Dr. Ina Pohl, Heidelberg

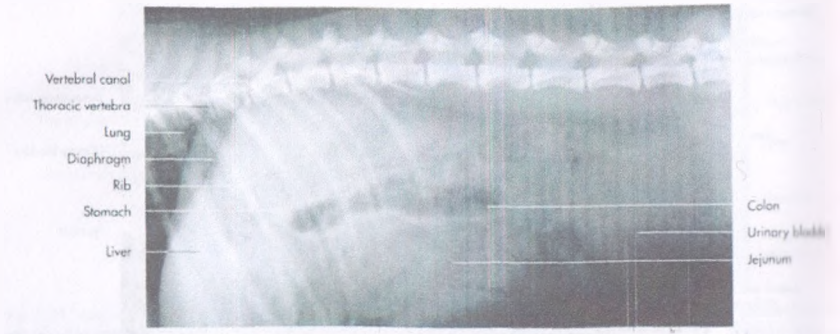


Fig. 6-26. Image of the abdominal and pelvic cavities of a cat (radiograph, laterolateral view); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

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Retroperitoneal muscles, organs, vessels and nerve tracts on the dorsal wall of the abdominal and pelvic cavities of a female dog (specimen courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna).

dorsal abdominal wall through dense connective tissue ... the considerable weight of the filled intestinal ... that would otherwise rest upon the ventral abdomin... The weight of the dorsal rumen sack and of the rumi... is also reduced through connective tissue fusions ... dorsal abdominal wall.

...vity (cavum pelvis)

...ity is bordered by the sacrum, a species-depen... of caudal vertebrae, and the two pelvic bones, ... ventrally in the pelvic symphysis. These struc... a bony ring, which is in turn surrounded by the ... of the hip and rump. The muscles of the pelvic girdle ... dorsal and lateral into the pelvic cavity.

...elvic inlet (apertura pelvis cranialis) is bordered by ... line (linea terminalis) in all domestic animal ... The pelvic cavity ends ventrally in all domestic ... at the **ischiatic arch** (arcus ischiadicus), but ends ... with a species-dependent number of caudal verte... The **pelvic diaphragm** (diaphragma pelvis) closes the ... outlet (apertura pelvis caudalis). In carnivores, pigs ... ruminants, the girth of the pelvic outlet can be in... through the motility of the caudal vertebrae, which is important for female animals during parturition. The rectum and anus (Fig. 6-15, 24, 25 to 27), along with the urinary bladder and parts of the urogenital tract located caudal of the bladder, are all located in the **pelvic cavity**. In females, the urethra, the uterine body, the cervix, the vagina and its vestibule are all located here, whereas in the male animal the pelvic section of the urethra, the ductus deferens and the accessory sex glands are found in the pelvic cavity.

The cranial section of the pelvic cavity is lined with **peritoneum** and is therefore referred to as the peritoneal segment of the pelvic cavity. Here, the peritoneum builds multiple caudal pouches, the **pouches** (excavationes) (Fig. 6-15 and 28).

The urinary bladder has **two lateral ligaments**, the ligamenta vesicae lateralia, each of which contains the remnants of an **umbilical artery** (ligamentum teres vesicae). The bladder is attached to the ventral wall by the median vesical ligament. The mesenteries of the female genital tract suspending the two ovaries and the uterus are parts of the **genital plica**, from which the **broad uterine ligament** (ligamentum latum uteri) develops. The organs caudal to the peritoneal pouches are said to be located in the retroperitoneal part of the pelvic cavity. This section ends caudally at the **pelvic diaphragm**, which is comprised of muscles and fasciae and closes the pelvic outlet. The pelvic diaphragm is built through the:

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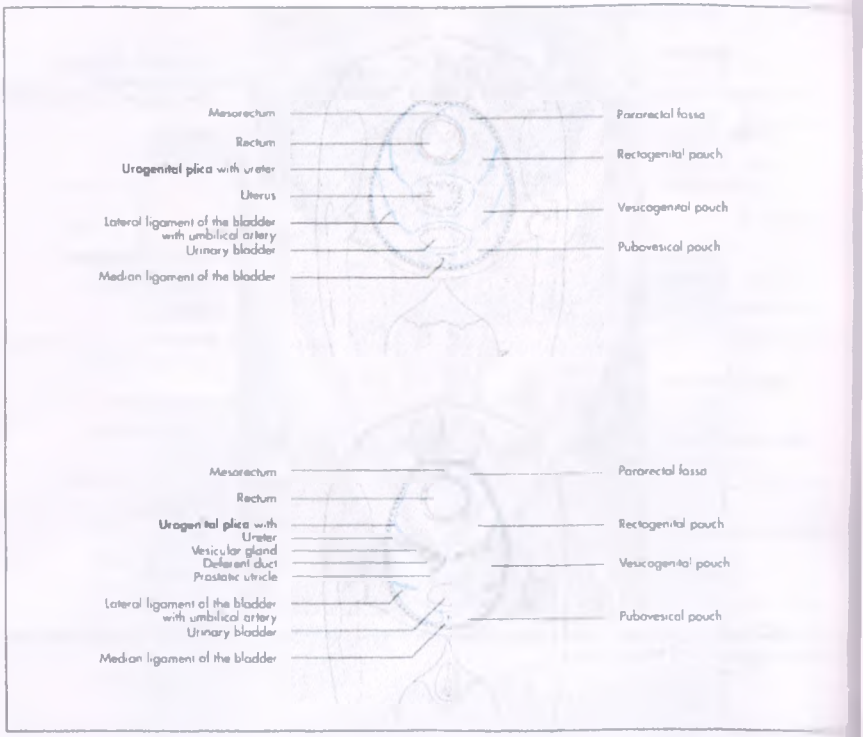


Fig. 6-28. Schematic illustration of the pelvic peritoneal pouches (excavationes) in a female (above) and male (bellow) animal

- paired coccygeal muscles and the paired levator ani muscles (mm. coccygei et levatores ani).
- external and internal fasciae (fascia externa et interna) of the pelvic diaphragm,
- external anal sphincter muscle (m. sphincter ani externus),
- bulbospongious muscle (m. bulbospongiosus),
- ischiocavernous muscle (m. ischiocavernosus), and the
- urethral sphincter muscle (m. sphincter urethrae).

The anus and the end of the urogenital canal perforate the pelvic diaphragm and are bordered by the paired levator ani muscles.

The region between the tail base and the scrotum in male animals and between the tail base and the vulva in female animals is the perineal region (regio perinealis). Located here is the perineum, which is a fibrillary muscular section of skin between the anus and the vulva. The abrupt reversal in the [illegible] tion of the peritoneum at the border to the retroperitoneal [illegible] leads to the development of the aforementioned, bulk[illegible] pouches (excavationes) (Fig. 6-15 and 28).

- rectogenital pouch (excavatio rectogenitalis),
- vesicogenital pouch (excavatio vesicogenitalis) and
- pubovesical pouch (excavatio pubovesicalis).

The pubovesical pouch (excavatio pubovesicalis) is [illegible] into two niches by the median ligament of the bladder [illegible] mentum vesicae medianum). The remnant of the [illegible] contained in the median ligament of the bladder. In male animals, the rectogenital pouch is connected through a [illegible] ing to the vesicogenital pouch. Located dorsolaterally to the rectum are the two pararectal niches (fossae pararectales) on each side of the rectal mesentery (mesorectum).

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7 Digestive system (apparatus digestorius)

H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The digestive system is responsible for the breakdown of [illegible] smaller portions, so that it can be utilised for energy and cellular renewal. The organs belonging to this [illegible] are capable of receiving food, mechanically and [illegible] breaking it down into its constituent molecules [illegible] absorbing them. Finally it has to eliminate unabsorbed and excreted residues. Cells of the digestive tract are [illegible] for this process and may possess hormonal functions. Nervous tissue, blood vessels and lymphatics all play [illegible] role in digestion.

The digestive system consists of the alimentary canal, [illegible] extends from the mouth to the anus and also includes [illegible] glands, the salivary glands and the liver and the [illegible] which secrete digestive products into the alimentary [illegible].

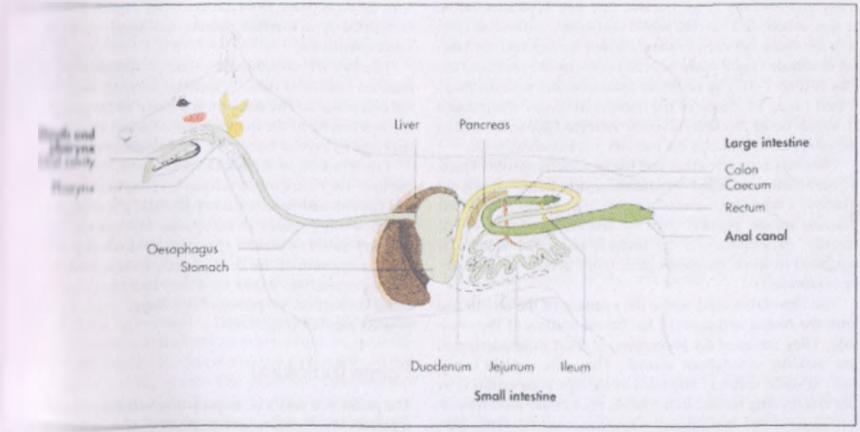
The alimentary canal can be divided into five segments [illegible]:

- mouth and pharynx,
- oesophagus and stomach,
- small intestine,
- large intestine and
- anal canal.

Mouth and pharynx

Oral cavity (cavum oris)

The main functions of the oral cavity are the procuring and mastication of food. Furthermore, saliva is secreted onto the ingested material for chemical digestion. The mouth (os) includes the lips, the oral cavity and its walls as well as the accessory structures that are located within (tongue and teeth) and those that drain into the oral cavity (salivary glands) (Fig. 7-2).



[illegible]intestinal tract of the dog (schematic); after Dyce, Sack and Wensing, 2002.

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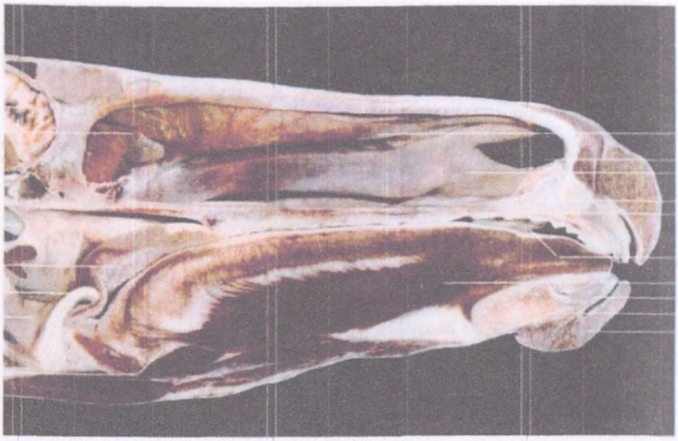


Fig. 7-2. Sagittal section of the rostral part of the head of a horse

The degree to which the mouth opens varies between species, depending on feeding habits. In animals that use their teeth to capture prey, much of the mouth opens, while in herbivores and rodents a smaller orifice suffices.

The **oral cavity** is divided into the **vestibule** (vestibulum oris) and the **proper oral cavity** (cavum oris proprium). The proper oral cavity is the space within the dental arcades. It is bound by the palate dorsally, by the tongue and reflected mucosa ventrally and by the teeth, dental arches and the gum laterally and rostrally (Fig. 7-2 and 13). The vestibule can be further subdivided into the **labial vestibule** (vestibulum labiale), the space between to the teeth and the lips and the **buccal vestibule** (vestibulum buccale) between the teeth and the cheeks (Fig. 7-3). The vestibule communicates with the proper oral cavity by means of the interdental spaces, the greatest of which being the **interalveolar margin** (diastema, margo interalveolaris) between the incisors and the cheek teeth.

The oral cavity has a mucosal lining, which consists of partly **cornified**, **stratified squamous epithelium**, underlying which is a layer of connective tissue, the submucosa, which contains **mixed glands**. Over the alveolar processes of the maxilla, mandibula and the incisive bone, the mucosa is modified to form the **gums**. (For more details see histology textbooks.)

The **lips** (labia oris) frame the opening of the mouth and form the rostral and parts of the lateral borders of the vestibule. They are used for prehension of food, communication and suckling in newborn animals. They also contain tactile hairs in some species. The form of the lips is determined by diet and feeding habits. In the horse, the lips are used for collecting food and introducing it into the mouth; for this purpose the lips must be both sensitive and mobile. In the cat, where the teeth and tongue are more important for prehension, the lips are less mobile and much reduced in size. The lips of the dog can be drawn back from the teeth to aid aggression and form an important factor in communication. They are incapable of food intake. In the ox and the pig the upper lip is modified to form the extensive moist and glandular **olabial plate** of the ox and the **rostral disc** of the pig. The sensitive lips of the ox, together with the backward directed papillae on the palate and tongue, are thought to explain why the ox is prone to swallow foreign bodies. The upper lip is divided by a **median groove** (philtrum) in the dog and small ruminants.

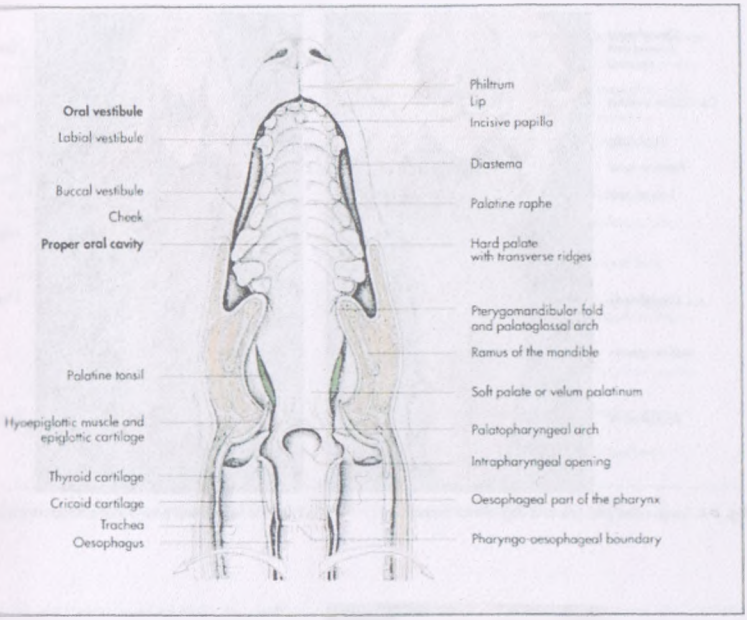
The lips are composed of skin, an intermediate layer of muscles (orbicular muscle, incisive muscles and others) and the oral mucosa. The muscles that make up the greater part of the lips belong to the mimetic musculature; thus they are innervated by cranial nerve VII, the **facial nerve**.

The structure of the **cheeks** (buccae) is similar to that of the lips. They are formed primarily of the buccinator muscle and contain additional **salivary glands** (glandulae buccales), which are aggregated in carnivores to form the **molar salivary gland** (glandula zygomatica). A small papilla identifies the opening of the duct of the parotid gland in the cheek. In ruminants, whose food may be coarse and dry, additional protection is provided by large, caudally directed pointed papillae (Fig. 7-9).

Palate (palatum)

The palate is a partly osseous, partly soft tissue partition that separates the digestive and respiratory passages of the head. The bony hard palate lies rostral to the the mucosal

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...tion through the oral cavity and pharynx of the dog (schematic, ventral aspect, trachea parted and opened); after Dyce ..., 2002

The **hard palate** (palatum durum) is formed by the ... of the maxilla and incisive bones and the ... of the palatine bone. The oral side of the hard ... by a thick, cornified mucosa, which is ... **...ries of transverse ridges** (rugae palatinae) ... remnants these ridges carry **papillae**, which ... caudally to guide food backwards (Fig. 7-6). A ... swelling, the incisive papilla, is located just ... incisors and is flanked on each side by the orifi... ducts, which perforate the palate. These ... nasal and lead to the nasal cavity and to the ... **organ**, which is a blind canal lined by olfac... In the horse the incisive ducts do not connect ... the oral cavity, but are without outlet. In ru... dental pad replaces the upper incisors of the ... species (Fig. 7-6). The pad acts as a counter... lower incisors during food intake.

...ibly vascularised tissue underlying the palatine ... both as the lamina propria of the mucosa ... periosteum of the bone, thus forming a very tight at... Peripherally the mucosa of the hard palate blends ... of the gums. The gums are composed of ... tissue and the heavily vascularised mucosa. It ... the necks of the teeth and down into the alveoli, ... with the alveolar periosteum.

The **soft palate** (palatum molle or velum palatinum) continues caudally from the hard palate to the intrapharyngeal opening, the rostral border of which is formed by the caudal rim of the soft palate (arcus palatopharyngeus) (Fig. 7-3). The ventral surface of the soft palate is covered by oral mucosa, which forms many longitudinal and a few larger transverse folds. The dorsal surface is covered by respiratory mucosa. The intermediate layer consists of closely packed salivary glands and muscles and their aponeuroses. These muscles are responsible for active movement of the soft palate: the **palatinus muscle** shortens the palate, the tensor muscle tenses and the **levator** raises the soft palate. The mucous membranes of the pharynx, as well as the soft palate and the muscles, with the exception of the tensor muscle of the soft palate, are innervated by a plexus formed mainly by the vagus nerve, and to a lesser extent by the glossopharyngeal nerve. **The tensor muscle of the soft palate** is innervated by the mandibular nerve.

Tongue (lingua, glossa)

The tongue is composed primarily of skeletal muscle. It occupies the greater part of the oral cavity proper and extends into the oropharynx. The tongue is responsible for lapping water, prehension of food, manipulating the food within the

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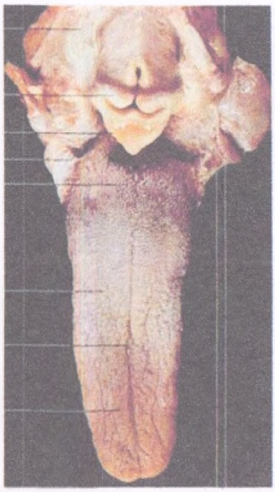


Fig. 7-4. Tongue and pharynx of a dog (dorsal aspect).



Fig. 7-5. Tongue and pharynx of a cat (dorsal aspect).

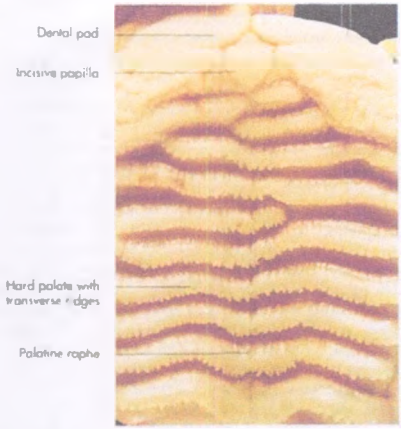


Fig. 7-6. Roof of the oral cavity of an ox.

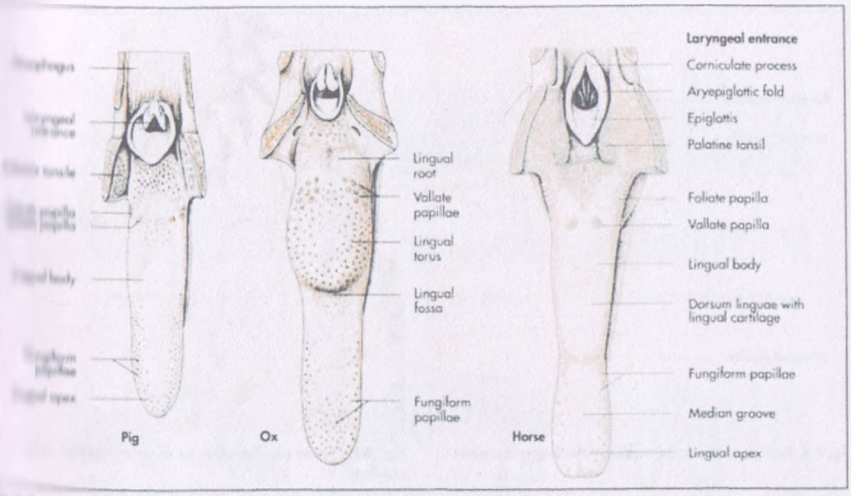
mouth and swallowing. It possesses receptors for taste, temperature and pain. In the dog it is used to enhance heat loss by panting, facilitated by the generous blood supply and numerous arteriovenous anastomoses together with dead-space (larynx, trachea and mainstem bronchi) ventilation.

The tongue has an **apex** (apex linguae), **body** (corpus linguae) and **root** (radix linguae). The body of the tongue is joined to the oral floor by a mucosal fold, the **frenulum** (frenulum linguae). The dorsal aspect of the canine tongue is marked longitudinally by a **median groove** (sulcus medianus) from which a septum extends into the tongue (Fig. 7-5). In carnivores the ventral part of the tongue contains a rod-shaped fibrous body, the **lyssa**, which lies in the median plane, beneath the ventral mucosa. It extends from about the tip of the tongue to root of the tongue, but does not reach the hyoid bone. It is encapsulated in a dense sheath of connective tissue, which is filled with adipose tissue, striated muscle and, occasionally, islands of cartilage.

In cattle, the caudal part of the **dorsal surface of the tongue** (dorsum linguae) is raised to form a large prominence that is defined by the transverse lingual fossa, in which food has a tendancy to collect. This is a potential portal for infection since the epithelium within the fossa is easily damaged by sharp food particles (Fig. 7-7). The tongue of the bovine is strengthened by cartilage (cartilago dorsi linguae) within the dorsal part of the tongue (Fig. 7-7).

The **lingual mucosa** is tough and tightly adherent to the underlying muscularis on the dorsal and lateral aspects, looser and less heavily keratinised ventrally. Much of the surface is covered by a variety of papillae, which are local specifications of the lingual mucosa. Their distribution, number and form are characteristic for each species. Based on their function they are grouped into **mechanical papillae** (papillae mechanicae), which are cornified and aid in feeding while protecting the deeper structures from injury and

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Tongue, pharynx and oesophagus (sectioned in the median plane) of pig, ox and horse (schematic, dorsal aspect).

papillae, which are covered in **tasted buds** (papillae gustatoriae). The **papillae** (Fig. 7-7 to 12) are grouped into:

mechanical papillae (papillae mechanicae):
filiform papillae (papillae filiformes),
conical papillae (papillae conicae),
marginal papillae (papillae marginales) and
gustatory papillae (papillae gustatoriae):
fungiform papillae (papillae fungiformes),
vallate papillae (papillae vallatae),
foliate papillae (papillae foliatae).

conical papillae are more numerous than the gustatory papillae. The **filiform papillae** are the smallest and most numerous of all papillae. The **conical papillae** are larger, but less numerous. They are scattered widely over the dorsal surface of the feline tongue and the base of the tongue in the ox, accounts for the rasp-like surface typical of these species.

Marginal papillae are present in newborn carnivores and aids suckling.

The epithelium of the **gustatory papillae** contains **taste buds** which are sensitive to taste. Their names indicate their shape: fungiform, vallate and foliate papillae. A few salivary glands are situated in close proximity to these papillae. These glands wash food particles from the papillae, making them receptive for new food material entering the mouth. A more detailed description of the lingual papillae can be found in the textbooks. The extensive mobility of the tongue, making a wide range of complex, precise movements, is achieved by a special muscular architecture. The **musculature of the tongue** (mm. linguae) is divided into intrinsic and extrinsic groups.

The **intrinsic muscle of the tongue** (m. lingualis proprius) is composed of numerous bundles that run longitudinally, transversely and vertically without attaching to the hyoid apparatus (Fig. 7-13). They are classified according to their orientation:

- **superficial and deep longitudinal fibres (fibrae longitudinales superficiales et profundae),**
- **transverse fibres (fibrae transversae),**
- **perpendicular fibres (fibrae perpendiculares).**

There are three pairs of extrinsic muscles which have an osseous origin and radiate into the tongue (Fig. 7-13). The first part of the name indicates the bone they originate from. They are arranged parallel to each other from lateral to medial in the following order:

- **styloglossal muscle (m. styloglossus),**
- **hyoglossal muscle (m. hyoglossus),**
- **genioglossal muscle (m. genioglossus).**

The **mylohyoid muscle** (m. mylohyoideus) suspends the tongue between the mandibular bodies and is important for the induction of deglutition. Some textbooks include the geniohyoid muscle in this group of muscles, since it moves the hyoid bone and thus the tongue rostrally (Fig. 7-13).

The **vascular supply** to the tongue is primarily through the paired lingual artery, complemented by the paired sublin-

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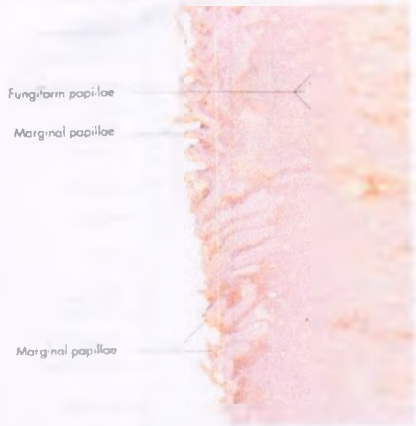


Fig. 7-8. Papillae on the dorsal surface of the tongue in a piglet



Fig. 7-9. Conical papillae of an ox as an example of mechanical papillae

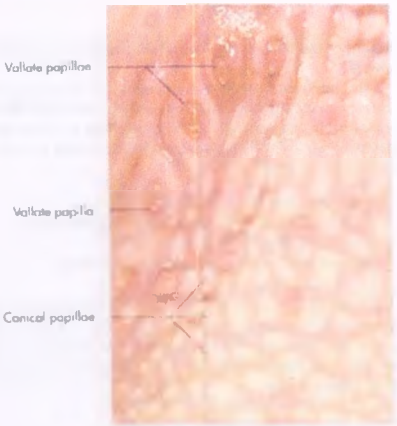


Fig. 7-10. Papillae at the base of the tongue in an ox



Fig. 7-11. Section of the tongue of a goat, centered on a vallate papilla

gual artery, both of which arise from the linguofacial trunk. They extend numerous branches towards the dorsal surface of the tongue, and subdivide into several smaller branches within the mucosa. The sublingual vein is of practical importance, since it is easily visible on the ventral side of the tongue, and can be used for venipuncture in the clinical setting.

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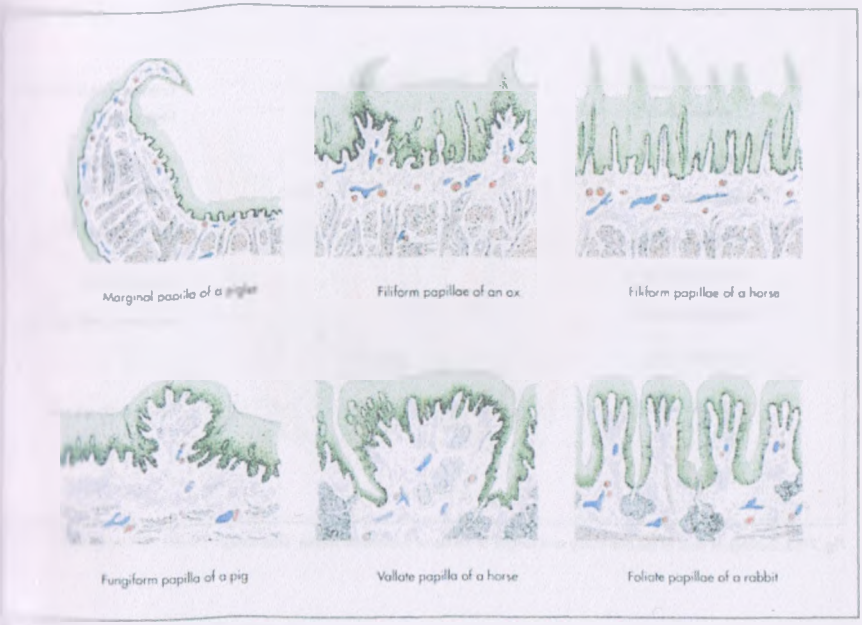


Fig. 7.11 Lingual papillae (schematic). Liebich, 2004

The **innervation** of the tongue is complex, involving five cranial nerves:

- lingual branch of the mandibular nerve (branch of the trigeminal nerve),
- chorda tympani of the intermediofacial nerve,
- glossopharyngeal nerve,
- vagal nerve and
- hypoglossal nerve.

The **lingual nerve**, a branch of the trigeminal nerve, provides general and thermal innervation from the rostral two-thirds of the tongue. The **chorda tympani**, a branch of the facial nerve, supplies mechanical and chemoreceptor fibre input to the whole tongue as well as some taste fibers. The **parasympathetic fibres** of the latter form synapses in the **mandibular ganglion**. The caudal third of the tongue is innervated by the lingual branch of the **glossopharyngeal nerve** supplying taste fibres for this area. The root of the tongue receives additional innervation from branches of the vagal nerve. The **hypoglossal nerve** contains the general somatic motor fibres, which innervate the musculature of the tongue. Damage of this nerve results in **paralysis of the tongue**. This clinical sign is seen after trauma to the head or in association after **guttural pouch disease** in the horse.

Sublingual floor of the oral cavity

With the exception of the attachment of the tongue, the sublingual area is relatively featureless. The largest area extends rostral to the frenulum, behind the incisor teeth, and is called the **prefrenular part** of the sublingual floor. The **two sublingual recesses** (recessus sublinguales laterales) extend between the tongue and the mandible on each side. Just in front of the frenulum lie two protuberances, the **sublingual caruncles** (caruncula sublingualis). These carry the common openings of the mandibular duct, which drains the mandibular salivary gland and the major sublingual salivary duct, which drains the major sublingual salivary gland. The latter is not present in the horse. The caruncles are relatively large in ruminants, well-developed in the horse, small in carnivores and sometimes absent in the pig. They are especially expansive in cattle, where they have a characteristically serrated border. In the horse and goat there may be a small **gland** adjacent to the caruncles (glandula paracaruncularis).

Lymphoreticular tissue can be found in all species in this area. Just caudal to the incisors are the paired **orobasal organs**, which are thought to be the remnants of the rostral sublingual gland, which are still present in reptiles.

The **lateral sublingual recesses** are marked by a longitudinal fold (plica sublingualis), which carries the openings of

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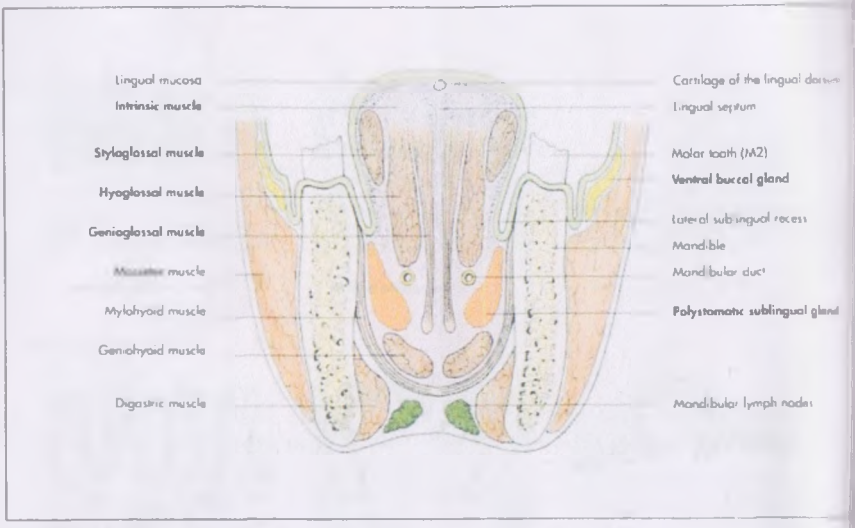


Fig. 7-13. Sublingual floor of the oral cavity and tongue of the horse (transverse section, schematic).

the minor sublingual salivary gland (glandula sublingualis minoris seu polystomatica). In cattle these openings are found on top of a series of conical papillae, whereas in the horse the minor sublingual salivary gland protrudes visibly.

Salivary glands (glandulae salivariae)

The salivary glands are paired organs that secrete saliva via their ducts into the oral cavity. Saliva keeps the mucosa of the mouth moist and is mixed with the food during mastication to lubricate the passage of the food bolus during swallowing and initiate chemical digestion of food.

The salivary glands are grouped into:

- minor salivary glands (gll. salivariae minores),
- major salivary glands (gll. salivariae majores).

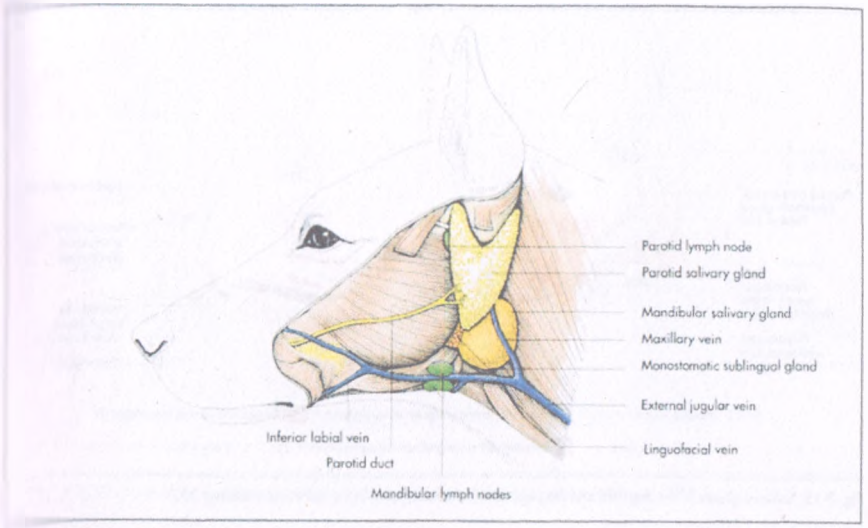
Small or minor salivary glands are present in the mucosa of the lips, cheeks, tongue, palate and the sublingual oral floor. These glands produce a mucous secretion. The buccal minor salivary glands form larger aggregates ventrally and dorsally. In canines the latter is referred to as the zygomatic gland, based on its position. Ruminants have an additional middle group of buccal glands.

Most saliva is produced by the major salivary glands. These are located at a distance from the oral cavity and drain through ducts. These glands produce a more watery (serous) fluid, some of them a serous-mucous secretion containing [illegible] enzyme amylase, which initiates carbohydrate digestion. Saliva consists principally of water, as well as mucin, amylase and salts, especially sodium bicarbonate. The daily production of saliva in the horse is about 40 l, in the ox 110–[illegible] in the pig 15 l.

Although the flow of saliva is normally continuous, its [illegible] of secretion is controlled by sympathetic and parasympathetic innervation. Parasympathetic innervation is provided by cranial nerves V, VII and IX and is brought about by olfactory and taste, leading to an increase in saliva secretion and dilatation of blood vessels. The sympathetic fibres originate in the caudal thoracic segments of the spinal cord, form synapses in the cranial cervical ganglion and reach the salivary glands in the tunica adventitia of the arteries. Stimulation, followed by vasoconstriction, which slows the rate of production. Anxiety, stress or fear leads to a depression of saliva production, but also to dehydration, which leads to the sensation of thirst. Pavlov has shown in his experiments that the flow rate of saliva can be increased by conditioning the animal to react to other stimuli, such as a bell.

In addition to its cleansing, lubricant and digestive functions, saliva serves as a route for excretion of certain substances, some of which may accumulate as a deposit (tartar) on the teeth, especially in dogs and cats. The major salivary glands are:

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7-14. Topography of the salivary glands of the dog (schematic).

arotid salivary gland (glandula parotis),
andibular salivary gland (gl. mandibularis),
ublingual salivary glands (gll. sublinguales),
monostomatic sublingual salivary gland
(gl. sublingualis monostomatica) and
polystomatic sublingual salivary gland
(gl. sublingualis polystomatica).

arotid salivary gland (glandula parotis)

The parotid salivary gland is a paired organ, which lies at the ventral aspect of the head and neck, ventral to the **auricular cartilage** in the **retromandibular fossa** (Fig. 7-14ff). It is especially well developed in herbivores. The parotid salivary gland is a pure **serous-mucous, tubuloacinous gland**. It is in close proximity to the external carotid artery, the maxillary vein and branches of the facial and trigeminal nerves. In the horse it partially overlays the lateral wall of the **guttural pouch**, which has to be taken into consideration when using an external surgical approach to the guttural pouch.

The parotid salivary gland is enclosed within a facial covering that projects trabeculae inwards to divide the gland into several **lobules**. The **major collecting ducts** pass within these trabeculae to eventually join, forming a single duct that exits at the rostral aspect of the gland. In carnivores and small ruminants this duct passes over the **lateral surface of the masseter muscle**. In the horse, ox and pig it passes medial to the angle of the jaw rostrally and winds around the ventral margin of the mandible to emerge at the **rostral border of the masseter muscle**. In the horse it lies here just caudal to the linguofacial artery. The parotid duct opens into the oral vestibule at the top of a small papilla opposite the third to fifth cheek tooth depending on the species.

The parotid gland is vascularised by branches of the maxillary artery and vein. It is innervated by branches of the glossopharyngeal nerve, the parasympathetic fibers of which run with the minor petrosal nerve to the otic ganglion.

Mandibular salivary gland (glandula mandibularis)

The mandibular salivary gland is located close to the **angle of the jaw** and is partially covered by the parotid salivary gland (Fig. 7-14ff). It is slightly bigger than the parotid salivary gland in most dogs and cats, but considerably larger in ruminants. In carnivores it is oval in shape, situated subcutaneously, caudal to the monostomatic salivary gland between the linguofacial and maxillary veins. Both the mandibular and the monostomatic salivary glands are of practical importance in the dog, since they can undergo **cystic changes** (ranula) which require their removal.

The mandibular salivary gland produces a **mixed mucous** and **serous secretion**, but can also alternate between the two. It drains by a single large duct, which passes ventral to the

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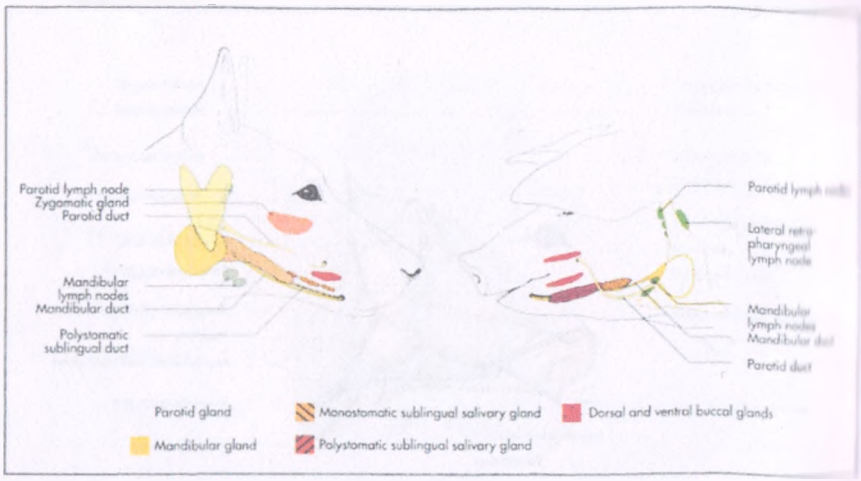


Fig. 7-15. Salivary glands of the dog (left) and the pig (right) (schematic), after Dyce, Sack and Wensing, 2002

mucosa of the **floor of the oral cavity**, close to the lingual frenulum to open with the major sublingual duct on the **sublingual caruncle**. The linguofacial artery and vein provide vascular supply to the mandibular salivary gland. Parasympathetic innervation is provided by fibres arising from the facial nerve. These fibers first run in the chorda tympani to the mandibular branch of the trigeminal nerve and continue in the lingual branch of the latter to the mandibular ganglion, where they synapse with postganglionic neurones.

Sublingual salivary glands (glandulae sublinguales)

The sublingual salivary glands consist of two glands on either side except the horse, in which the major (monostomatic) sublingual salivary gland is absent (Fig. 7-14). The **major (monostomatic) salivary gland** is situated more caudally and is a compact gland with a single draining duct. The major sublingual salivary duct shares a common opening with the mandibular salivary duct on top of the sublingual caruncle protruding from the prefrenular part of the floor of the oral cavity.

The diffuse **minor (polystomatic) salivary gland** is located more rostrally and opens through several smaller ducts. These openings are located on a longitudinal fold in the lateral sublingual recesses, in cattle on top of the conical papillae located on the fold.

Both sublingual salivary glands produce a serous-mucoid secretion in which the mucous part dominates. Blood supply and venous drainage is achieved by the lingual artery and vein. Innervation is similar to that of the mandibular salivary gland.

Masticatory apparatus

The masticatory apparatus includes:

- the teeth and gums,
- the temporomandibular joint,
- the masticatory muscles.

Teeth (dentes)

Each species has its own characteristic dentition, [illegible] form and number of teeth. The teeth develop differently in each region of the mouth according to their use and are grouped into **incisors**, **canines**, **premolars** and **molars**. The characteristic feature is termed **heterodonty** (derived from the Greek "heteros", different and "odont", tooth). The dentition of the domestic mammals is **diphyodont**, [illegible] first erupted teeth are replaced by a single set of teeth in other animals. The first set of the teeth, the **deciduous** teeth (dentes decidues), is either present at birth or erupts shortly afterwards. These teeth are replaced by the second permanent teeth, to adapt to the larger jaws and provide more vigorous mastication of the adult animal. The timing of replacement of the teeth is characteristic of each species. Other vertebrates have a **polyphyodont dentition (multiple successions)** whereby multiple sets of teeth erupt throughout the animal's life.

Structure of the teeth

Although all teeth are highly specialised structures [illegible] according to the special needs of each species, they [illegible]

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Salivary glands of the ox (left) and the horse (right) (schematic), after Dyce, Sack and Wensing, 2002

architecture (Fig. 7-17ff.). Each tooth is divided

corona dentis),
collum dentis),
radix dentis).

is the exposed part of the tooth, which protrudes the gums and is covered by **enamel**. The **neck** is the constriction located at the gum line, where the enamel The root is the portion below the gum, which is embedded by bony alveolus for the most part. Each surface of the is denoted by an unambiguous descriptive term which is especially important under clinical circumstances. The surfaces of the teeth that are directed towards the vestibule of the cheek are the **vestibular surfaces**, which can be indicated precisely with the terms labial meaning towards the lips and buccal meaning towards the cheeks. The surface that is directed to the tongue is the **lingual surface**.

The **contact surface** (facies contactus) adjacent to the next tooth in the dental arch is referred to as the mesial one, and the surface adjacent to the next caudal tooth as distal. The surface which contacts the adjacent arcade is termed the **masticatory** or **occlusal surface** (facies occlusalis).

Each tooth is composed of three different mineralised tissues which enclose the **dental cavity** (cavum dentis). The dental cavity branches into each major elevation of the crown and each root. It is filled with the **pulp** (pulpa dentis), which is composed of connective tissue, nerves, arteries and veins. A small **apical foramen** opens at the end of each root and allows free passage of the vessels and nerves in and out of the tooth through the **root canal** (canalis radicis dentis) (Fig. 7-19). Most of the nerves within the pulp are **sensory** and possess nerve endings that can be stimulated in various ways resulting in pain sensation. As the pulp is surrounded by non-expansive tissue, even slight inflammation can elicit pain responses.

The three mineralised substances of the tooth are:

- enamel (enamelum),
- dentin (dentinum),
- cement (cementum).

Their chemical composition is similar to that of bone, being composed mainly of hydroxylapatite. **Enamel** is produced by **adamantoblasts**, which are of ectodermal origin. It is acellular and therefore cannot regenerate. It has a typical slightly opalescent, pearly-white colour and is the hardest substance in the body (Fig. 7-20). Based on the distribution of enamel, teeth can be divided into **brachyodont teeth** and **hypselodont teeth**. In the relatively simple, brachyodont teeth (e.g. teeth of man, dog, pig, the canines of all domestic mammals), enamel envelops the short exposed crown. Brachyodont teeth erupt fully prior to maturity and are normally long and hard enough to survive for the life of the individual. Hypselodont teeth are high-crowned teeth, in which a large portion of the crown is initially held in reserve to be extruded gradually to compensate for attrition (e.g. the cheek teeth of herbivores, equine incisors).

For this reason, it is useful to distinguish between the clinical crown (exposed crown) and the anatomical crown (covered by enamel) as well as the clinical root (below gum line) and anatomical root (not covered by enamel and in hypselodont teeth relatively short). Hypselodont teeth have a com-

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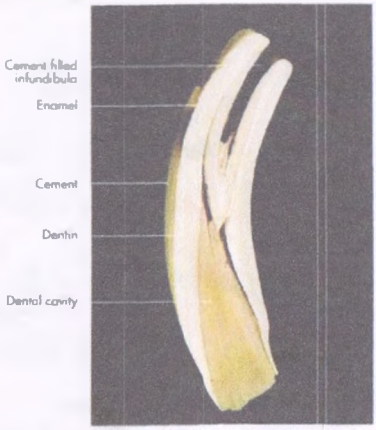


Fig. 7-17. Section of an equine incisor

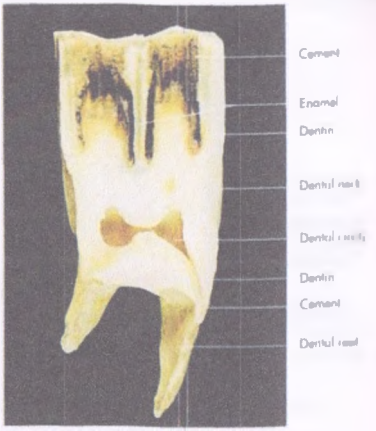


Fig. 7-18 Section of an equine cheek tooth

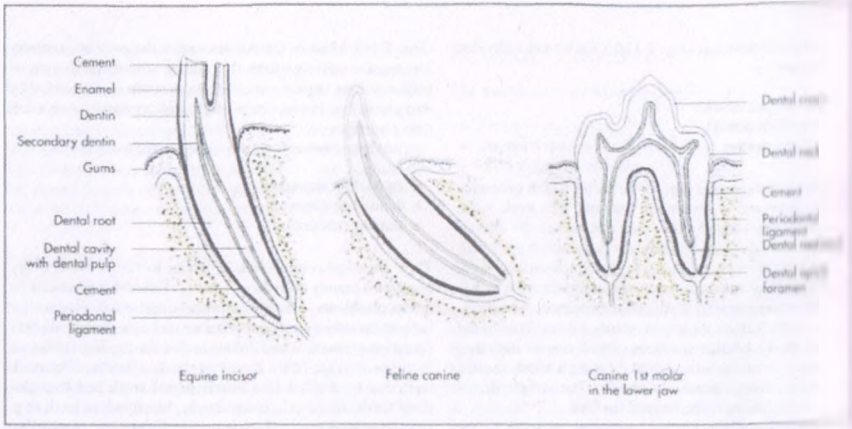


Fig. 7-19. Hypselodont (left) and brachyodont (centre, right) teeth (schematic)

plex architecture, in which the mineralised layers of the tooth are arranged in **folds** and the whole of the crown above and below the gum line is covered by **enamel**. This special architecture, where layers of the harder, but more brittle enamel come to lie next to the less hard, but more plastic **dentine**, provides maximum resistance to the abrasive food of herbivores and provides a rasp-like occlusal surface. Both brachyodont and hypselodont teeth have a **limited growth** and thus are termed **anelodont teeth**. Teeth that grow throughout life are called **elodont teeth** and

in some rodents.

Dentin forms the bulk of the tooth, enclosing the **cavity**, and is yellowish-white in colour (Fig. 7-20). It is produced by **odontoblasts**, which recede from the newly

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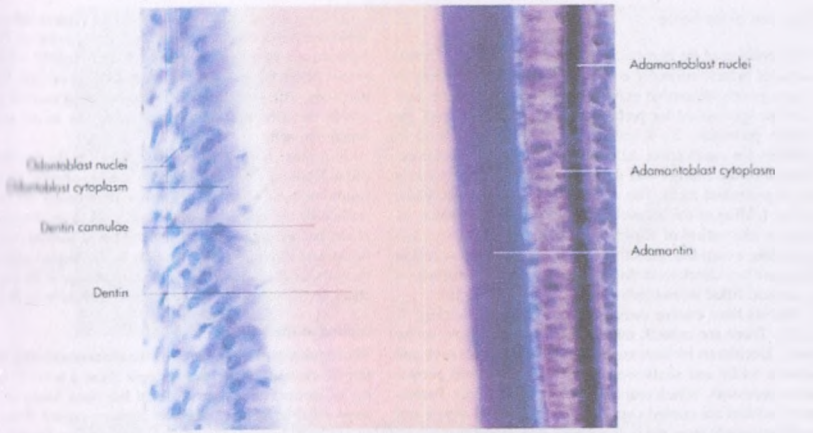


Fig. 7-18. Section of the tooth wall.

as a continuous layer lining the pulp cavity. retain their productive capacity throughout production of secondary dentin, which gradual- pulp cavity, continues into old age. Secondary den- distinguished from primary dentin by its darker older horses, the pulp cavity is filled with second- at the occlusal surface of the incisors, forming the used to estimate the animal's age. In the dog the of the pulp cavity by secondary dentin can be as- graphically and is also an indicator of age.

the least hard of the calcified tissues of the similar to bone (Fig. 7-19). It is the outermost to the alveolar bone (alveolus dentalis) in all tooth and fills the infundibula of the hypselodont tooth is attached to its alveolar socket by the **peri-** **ligament** or **membrane** (periodontium). This con- fibres, which are continuous with both the ce- and the bone. These fibers are orientated so that the suspended in a sling, thus enabling the tooth to with- movements and the considerable forces gener- during mastication.

Similar to bone in structure, **cement** is more re- to erosion from pressure. This is of orthodontic use in tooth is manipulated by instruments that lever against the alveolar wall. The resulting pressure of the bone, but leaves the tooth itself unaf- more detailed description can be found in ortho- textbooks.)

(gingivae) are composed of dense fibrous tissue with a smooth, heavily vascularised mucosa. They ex- the neck of the teeth, but may recede with ad- exposing the neck of the root.

The number and classification of dentition can be described by the **dental formula** of a species. The abbreviation representing the particular teeth (I = incisor, C = canine, P = premolar, M = molar) is followed by the number of such teeth on one side of the upper and lower arcades. A "d" behind the abbreviation indicates a deciduous tooth (e.g. Id 3 for the deciduous incisor 3).

Dental formulae

	Deciduous dentition	Permanent dentition
Horse	3 1 3 3 1 3	3 1 3 (4) 3 3 1 3 3
Ruminant	– – 3 3 1 3	– – 3 3 3 1 3 3
Pig	3 1 3 3 1 3	3 1 4 3 3 1 4 3
Dog	3 1 3 3 1 3	3 1 4 2 3 1 4 3
Cat	3 1 3 3 1 2	3 1 3 1 3 1 2 1

Since the time of tooth eruption is characteristic and consistant in the different species, it can be used to estimate the age of individuals, although individual factors must be taken into consideration and are dependent on breed, feeding habits and medical history of the individual animal.

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Dentition of the horse

The dentition of the horse is welladapted to its feeding habits and diet, which normally consists of continuous grazing of rough, poorly-digestible grass (Fig. 7-21ff.). While the incisors are specialised for prehension and cutting of food, the equine premolars 2 – 4 and the three molars function as grinders for mastication. All teeth of the horse, with the exception of the canines and the first premolar, when present, are hypselodont teeth. The masticatory surface is increased by the folding of the enamel during development, which results in alternation of harder and softer mineralised tissues providing a rasp-like grinding surface. In the incisors and in the maxillary cheek teeth this folding results in the formation of cement-filled infundibula (Fig. 7-17, 18 and 24-31).

Horses have twelve incisors, six in each arcade (Fig. 7-21ff.). There are central, middle and corner incisors in the horse. Deciduous incisors are whiter, have a distinct neck and contain wider and shallower infundibula than their permanent successors, which erupt on their lingual aspect. Permanent incisors are curved convexly on their labial aspect and taper uniformly from the occlusal surface towards their apex. With advancing age, spaces develop between the permanent incisors. The infundibula of the incisors are referred to as cups and are an important indicator of the age of the horse (see below).

The **deciduous canine teeth** are vestigial spicule-like structures that do not erupt. Male horses normally have two maxillary and two mandibular permanent canine teeth, which erupt at around 5 years of age in the interdental space (Fig. 7-21 and 23ff.). They are **brachyodont teeth** and are pointed with a caudal facing curve. The upper canines are more caudally positioned than the lower, so there is no occlusal contact between them. This is alleged to be the reason why canine teeth are prone to develop calculus. Canine teeth are usually absent or rudimentary in female horses, but do occur in some mares, with a higher incidence reported in some breeds.

An **adult equine** mouth normally contains 24 cheek teeth (premolars 2 – 4 and three molars) (Fig. 7-21ff.). The premolars have deciduous predecessors, which have a distinct neck between the crown and the roots, unlike their permanent successors. Later the deciduous premolars erupt into the oral cavity due to pressure from the underlying tooth. They are simultaneously resorbed at their apices until just a thin plate ("cap") remains on the temporary tooth (Fig. 7-22 and 23).

On **transverse section** equine cheek teeth are rectangular except the first and last which are triangular. The maxillary cheek teeth are wider and squarer compared to the more rectangular and narrower mandibular ones. At the time of eruption the permanent cheek teeth possess long crowns, most of which is unerupted reserve crown that remains embedded in the alveoli.

Eruption of the reserve crown proceeds throughout life and normally the eruption rate corresponds with tooth wear (about 2 – 3 mm a year). At eruption hypselodont teeth have no true roots, but develop roots later. Fully developed upper cheek teeth have three roots (occasionally four) and the lower cheek teeth have two roots (except the last lower molar, which has three).

The maxillary cheek teeth have two cement-filled [illegible] dibula each, which make those teeth prone to caries. [illegible] between the first and caudal cheek teeth tightly [illegible] the six cheek teeth together at their occlusal surface. This [illegible] tor along with the continuous deposition of coronal [illegible] within the alveolus only causes each row to act as [illegible] functional unit.

In normal horses the distance between the maxillary [illegible] cades is wider than that between the mandibular [illegible] condition known as anisognathia. Additionally the [illegible] surface of the cheek teeth are not level in the buccal [illegible] plane, but are angled at 10 – 15 degrees. This leads to the [illegible] velopment of sharp enamel points at the lingual edge of [illegible] mandibular cheek teeth and at the buccal edge of the [illegible] cheek teeth, which should be removed regularly by [illegible]

Ageing of the horse

The regularity of eruption, growth, attrition and other characteristic changes of the equine teeth allow a horse to be aged by its incisors. Eruption of teeth has been found to be the most reliable feature, whereas attrition-caused changes are more dependent on individual factors, such as feeding habits. Ageing is most exact in horses up to six years of age when the mandibular incisors are used; this method becomes increasingly inaccurate with advancing age.

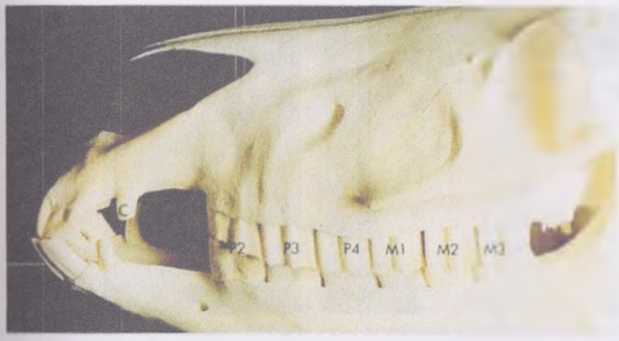
As a result of wear, the occlusal surface of the teeth changes: the cup gets smaller and finally disappears, the dental star appears and changes from a line to a longitudinal spot (Fig. 7-24ff.). Attrition erodes the incisor teeth by 1 mm each year. Since the cups of the mandibular incisors are 10 mm deep, they disappear three years after the tooth has come into wear. The cups of the maxillary teeth are 12 mm deep and disappear six years after the tooth has come into wear. After eruption it takes about six months for an incisor to come into wear. The following shows **approximate eruption times and the time of disappearance of the cups**:

	Eruption	Disappearance of cup
Id1	6 days	10 months
Id2	6 weeks	12 months
Id3	6 months	18 – 24 months
Mandibular I1	2.5 years	6 years
Mandibular I2	3.5 years	7 years
Mandibular I3	4.5 years	8 years
Maxillary I1	2.5 years	9 years
Maxillary I2	3.5 years	10 years
Maxillary I3	4.5 years	11 years

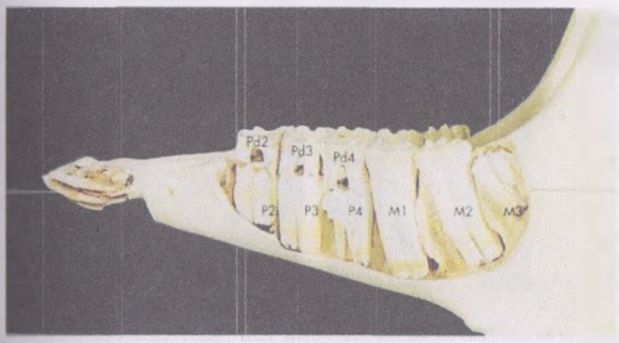
The initially oval occlusal surface (6 – 12 years) of the incisors becomes rounded (12 – 17 years), then triangular (18 – 24 years) and finally forms a longitudinal oval (25 – 30 years) (Fig. 7-24ff.).

Additional, but not very reliable criteria are the [illegible] upper I3, which is present in 7 to 8-year-old horses, [illegible] reappear at 13 years, and Galvayne's groove, which [illegible] the labial surface of the same tooth:

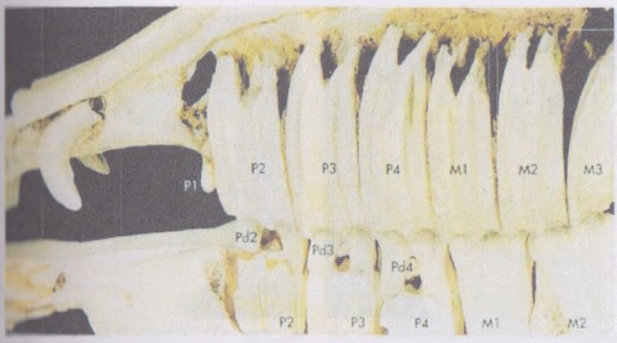
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dentition of a stallion



arcade of a horse during eruption (tooth roots exposed)



mandibular arcade of a horse during eruption (tooth roots exposed)

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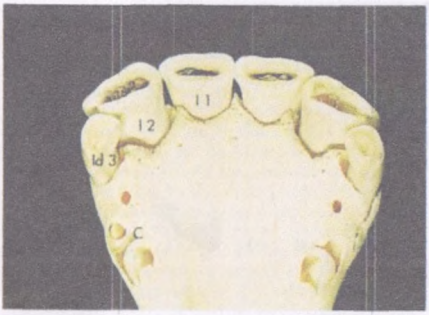


Fig. 7-24. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 3.5-year-old horse (lingual aspect)

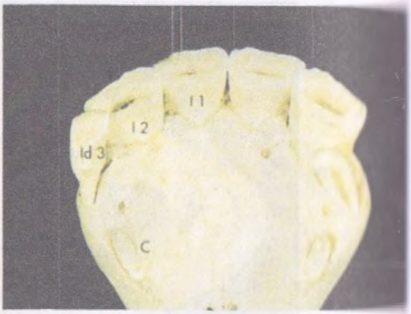


Fig. 7-25. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a [illegible] old horse (lingual aspect)



Fig. 7-26. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 6-year-old horse (lingual aspect)

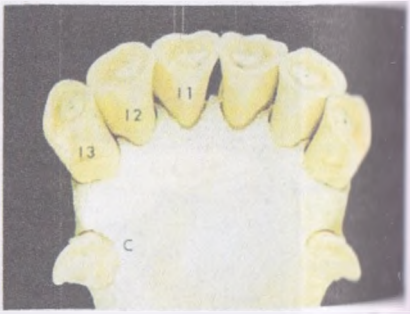


Fig. 7-27. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a [illegible] old horse (lingual aspect)



Fig. 7-28. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 12-year-old horse (lingual aspect)

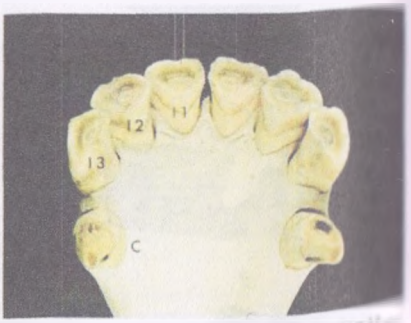
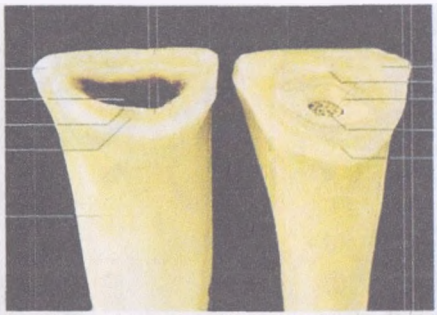
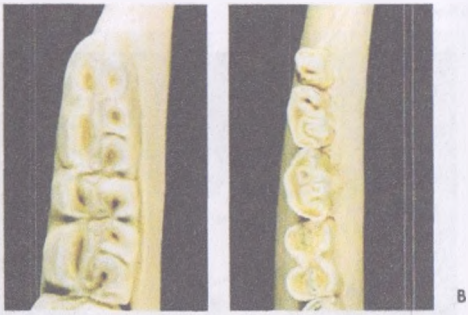


Fig. 7-29. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a [illegible] old horse (lingual aspect)

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Occlusal surface of a younger horse (A) with a visible cup and of an older horse (B), where the cup has disappeared, but the star is visible.



Occlusal surface of a horse (A) and an ox (B), (superior aspect).

Apical third of maxillary I3: 10 years.
Apical half of maxillary I3: 15 years.
Whole length of maxillary I3: 20 years.
Coronal half of maxillary I3: 25 years.
Coronal third of maxillary I3: 30 years.

In horses with dental anomalies, such as **brachygnathia** or **prognathia** of the mandible, or in horses with vices such as cribbing, ageing by incisors is impossible. In those horses radiographic assessment of eruption times of cheek teeth and appearance of the reserve crown may be used as indicators of age.

Approximate eruption times of cheek teeth are:

P2: 2.5 years.
P3: 3 years.
P4: 4 years.
M1: 1 year.
M2: 2 years and
M3: 3.5 years.

Dentition of the dog

The **small permanent incisors** are loosely embedded in their alveolar sockets and are mainly used for nibbling. The upper incisors present a central tubercle, flanked by two smaller ones. The lower incisors are similar to the upper ones, but lack the mesial cusp. These features may be lost as wear reduces the incisors to simple prismatic pegs. This process is accelerated in dogs which have the habit of biting into stones. The canines are by far the longest teeth of the dog, having large roots that are longer than their crowns (Fig. 7-34).

The **four premolars increase** in size and complexity from first to last in both jaws.

The **upper fourth premolars** are the largest cutting teeth of the maxilla. They are called **carnassial** or **sectorial teeth** and are sometimes referred to as shearing teeth. Each has three stout, diverging, conical roots. The upper fourth premolar is the tooth most commonly involved with root abscesses, which usually result in the formation of a discharging sinus tract ros

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Fig. 7-32. Dentition of a puma (frontal aspect).

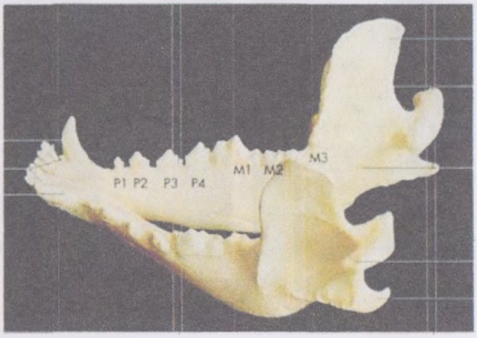


Fig. 7-33. Mandibular teeth of a dog (caudolateral aspect)

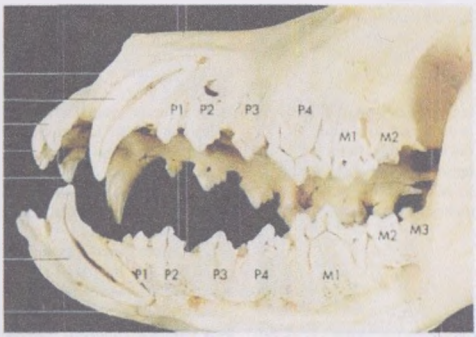


Fig. 7-34. Sagittal section of the maxillary and mandibular teeth of a dog (lateral aspect).

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...Occlusal surface of the deciduous mandibular incisors in ... old ox (lingual aspect).



Fig. 7-36. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 1.5-year-old ox (lingual aspect).



...surface of the mandibular incisors in a 2.5 year... ...aspect).

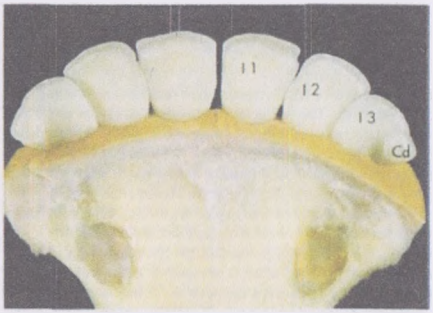


Fig. 7-38. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 3.5 year-old ox (lingual aspect).



...surface of the mandibular incisors in a 4.5-year-... ...aspect).



Fig. 7-40. Occlusal surface of the mandibular incisors in a 5.5-year-old ox (lingual aspect).

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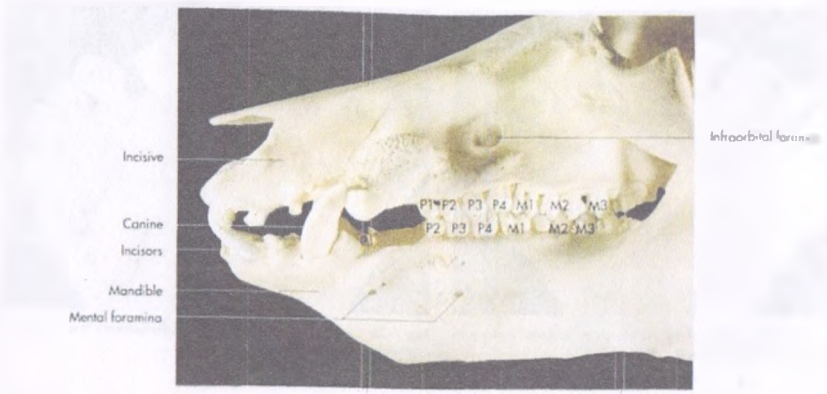


Fig. 7-41. Dentition of a pig (lateral aspect); courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich

troventral to the eye. Permanent cure requires extraction of the affected tooth. The molar teeth have no deciduous predecessors and decrease in size from first to last. The first of the lower molars is the largest tooth in the mandible. It is also called the sectorial or carnassial tooth of the mandibular arcade and is very well-adapted to shearing action. It has two roots.

Eruption times of the canine teeth are: deciduous incisors, between 4 – 6 weeks of age; deciduous canines, 3 – 5 weeks; and deciduous premolars, 5 – 6 weeks of age. Thus a complete first set of teeth is present in a 6-month-old dog. Permanent incisors erupt between 3 – 5 months of age, the permanent canines, at about 5 – 7 months and the cheek teeth, between 4 – 7 months of age. Ageing a dog by teeth is not reliable due to individual and breed variations in eruption times, diet and chewing habits.

Dentition of the cat

The domestic cat has only 30 teeth, due to the absence of P1, M2 and M3 in the upper jaw and P1, P2, M2 and M3 in the lower jaw (Fig. 7-32). Thus the cat lacks the flat crowned crushing teeth, leaving an exclusively shearing bite. Similar to the dog, the upper P4 and the lower M1 are the largest teeth, referred to as carnassial, sectorial or shearing teeth. Due to this characteristic feature the dog and cat have a secodont dentition. The deciduous incisors are all present 15 days post partum, the canines erupt around day 18, the premolars, between the 24th and 32nd after birth. Replacement of the deciduous teeth by the permanent set starts at 3.5 months and is completed after the 7th month.

Dentition of the ox

In the ox the upper incisors and canines are replaced by the dental pad, and the lower canines are assimilated to the incisors. The incisors are simple, brachyodont teeth, which are designated from medial to lateral as central (I1), first intermediate (I2), second intermediate (I3) and corner incisor (I4) (Fig. 7-35ff.). They are relatively loose within their molar sockets and fall easily out in older animals, when only roots remain in the jaw. A wide diastema separates the incisors from the cheek teeth and makes it easy to grasp the tongue for examination of the mouth.

The deciduous incisors and premolars are either present at birth or erupt within the first two weeks.

Eruption times of permanent bovine incisors are:

- I1: 1 1/2 years,
- I2: 2 1/4 years,
- I3: 3 years and
- I4: 3 3/4 years.

The cheek teeth increase in size from front to back. These teeth are hypselodont teeth. Attrition of the crowns is compensated for by their continuing growth. When growth ceases, the roots are formed and the height of the clinical exposed crown is maintained by gradual extrusion of the embedded part until the tooth is eventually consumed in old animals.

Dentition of the pig

The large, curved canine teeth or tusks are the most striking feature of the porcine dentition, which grow continuously throughout life (Fig. 7-41). The occlusal surface of the cheek teeth is made irregular by numerous tubercles and is ideal for crushing food.

Many farmers cut off the deciduous incisors and canines shortly after birth, which often results in medical problems

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Temporomandibular joint
(Articulatio temporomandibularis)

The **temporomandibular** joint is the synovial joint between the mandibular ramus and the squamous part of the temporal bone. It is a **condylar joint** (articulatio condylaris), whose articular surfaces do not entirely correspond with each other. To compensate for this incongruency a **fibrocartilagenous disc** (discus articularis) is interposed between the articulating surfaces. It is relatively thick in herbivores, thin in the dog and reduced to a very thin membrane or absent in the cat. (For more detailed description see Chapter 1.)

The temporomandibular joint is formed by the head of the condylar process of the **mandible** (caput mandibulae) and the articular area of the temporal bone; the articular area is rostrally, the **mandibular fossa** (fossa mandibularis) with a transverse articular surface in the middle and the caudal **retroarticular process** (processus retroarticularis) caudally. The **joint capsule** extends from the free margins of the articular surfaces and attaches to the entire edge of the disc. Thus the joint cavity is completely divided into a larger dorsal and a smaller ventral compartment. The **outer fibrous** layer of the joint capsule (stratum fibrosum) is strengthened by the **right lateral** (ligamentum laterale) in all species and **caudal ligament** (ligamentum caudale), which extends from the retroarticular process and the base of the coronoid process. The caudal ligament is not present in carnivores and the pig. The main movements of the temporomandibular joint are up and down, to open and close the mouth. A limited amount of lateral grinding and forward and backward movement of the mandible is possible in herbivores. The species-specific variations are based on the pattern of mastication and are influenced by the masticatory muscles.

The **intermandibular joint** (articulatio intermandibularis) is a median osseous junction, uniting the right and left mandibular bodies (sutura intermandibularis); it takes the form of a synostosis in the pig and horse, but has a certain mobility in ruminants and in the dog.

Muscles of mastication

The muscles that are responsible for mastication are strong and show marked species-specific variations due to the different anatomy of the whole masticatory apparatus, including the dental components, the teeth and the temporomandibular joint. The masticatory muscles comprise those muscles which elevate the mandible, thus closing the mouth:

- masseter muscle (m. masseter),
- medial pterygoid muscle (m. pterygoideus medialis),
- lateral pterygoid muscle (m. pterygoideus lateralis),
- temporal muscle (m. temporalis).

These muscles are derived form the first branchial arch and receive their nerve supply by the mandibular branch of the trigeminal nerve.

The **masseter muscle** is a broad multipennate muscle with numerous tendinous intersections. It originates from the ventral border of the zygomatic arch and the facial crest, and inserts on the lateral aspect of the mandible, extending from the angle to the temporomandibular joint. If the masseter muscles of both sides act together, they force the upper and lower jaw together; if acting singly, it carries the mandible to the side of the contracting muscle, which is essential for the grinding process of herbivores. In canines, where the chief jaw movement is scissor-like, the masseter muscle is relatively weak.

The **pterygoid muscles** pass from the base of the skull to the medial aspect of the mandible. They complement the masseter in its action. If contracting bilaterally, they raise the mandible; if acting unilaterally, they draw the mandible to the side of the contracting muscle. The lateral portion is also able to move the mandible rostrally, especially when the mouth is opened.

The **temporal muscle** occupies the temporal fossa, its size varying in the different species depending on the size of the fossa. It originates from the temporal crest, which forms the border of the temporal fossa, and from the temporal fascia and inserts on the coronoid process of the mandible. It is the strongest muscle of the head of carnivores. It raises the mandible, acting together with the other masticatory muscles.

Another muscle that plays some part in jaw movements, particularly in opening the mouth, is the **digastric muscle**, which is not normally included under the term "muscle of mastication". Although named the **digastric muscle** (m. digastricus), it is a single-bellied muscle in domestic animals, except in the horse, which has a caudal and a rostral belly. In the other domestic mammals its evolutionary bipartite structure is indicated by a fibrous intersection.

The rostral part is innervated by a branch of the **mandibular nerve** (n. mandibularis), the caudal part, by the digastric branch **facial nerve** (n. facialis). It extends between the paracondylar process of the occiput and the medial surface of the mandible. In the horse the caudal belly branches to form a **lateral portion** (pars occipitomandibularis), which inserts on the angle of the mandibular and pulls the mandible backward. It has an intermediate round tendon, which perforates the tendon of insertion of the stylohyoid muscle. After passing beneath the hyoid bone it forms the rostral belly, which attaches to the medial surface of the ventral border of the body of the mandible. The digastric muscle depresses the mandible and opens the mouth.

Pharynx (cavum pharyngis)

The pharynx is the common cavity through which both air and ingested material pass. It connects the oral cavity with the oesophagus and the nasal cavity with the larnyx. It is bordered by the base of the skull and the two cranial cervical vertebrae dorsally, the larynx ventrally and by the mandible, the pterygoid muscles and the suspensory part of the hyoid apparatus laterally (Fig. 7.43 and 47).

It can be divided into three parts:

- nasopharynx (pars nasalis pharyngis seu pars respiratoria pharyngis),
- oropharynx (pars oralis pharyngis),
- laryngopharynx (pars laryngea pharyngis).

The **soft palate** (palatinum molle, velum palatinum) separates the rostral part of the pharnyx into a dorsal and ventral portion. The part above the soft palate is referred to as the **naso-**

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Fig. 7-42. Paramedian section of the neck and head of a cat, Konig, 1992

pharnx (Fig. 7-3 and 47), the ventral compartment, as the oropharynx. The two portions meet in the **intrapharyngeal opening** (ostium intrapharyngeum), which is formed by the free border of the **soft palate** (arcus veli palatini) and the **palatopharyngeal arches**, which connect the soft palate to adjacent structures caudally.

The caudal continuation, common to both the nasopharynx and the oropharynx, is known as the **laryngopharynx**.

The **nasopharynx** extends dorsal to the soft palate from the choanae to the intrapharyngeal opening. It is lined by respiratory mucosa and does not take part in the swallowing process, but forms the passive pathway for airflow (Fig. 7-47). In ungulates the nasopharynx extends caudodorsally to form the pharyngeal recess. In the pig a blind mucosal pouch, the pharyngeal diverticulum, arises from the pharyngeal wall dorsal to the entrance of the oesophagus.

The **isthmus of the faucium** extends ventral to the soft palate from the oral cavity to the intrapharyngeal opening (Fig. 7-47). It is bordered dorsally by the soft palate, ventrally by the root of the tongue and laterally by the palatoglossal arches, a pair of folds from the soft palate to the adjacent tissue. It is lined by the stratified squamous epithelium of the oral mucosa.

The **laryngopharynx** extends from the intrapharyngeal opening to the entrance of the oesophagus and the larynx (Fig. 7-47). The epiglottis protrudes into the laryngopharynx and is flanked by the **piriform recesses** on either side, which serve as gutters for fluids. The caudal part of the laryngopharynx, which ends with the entrance into the oesophagus, is referred to as the oesophageal part of the pharynx. In the dog the pharyngoesophageal junction is marked by an **annular mucosal boundary** (limen pharyngo-oesophageum). Several openings form into the pharyngeal cavity:

- paired choanae between the nasal cavity and the nasopharynx,
- isthmus of the fauces (isthmus faucium) between the oral cavity and the oropharynx,
- entrance into the auditory (Eustachian) tubes, connecting the nasopharynx and the middle ear,
- entrance into the larynx (aditus laryngis) and
- entrance into the oesophagus (aditus oesophageus).

The wall of the pharynx is formed by striated muscles (**muscles of the pharynx**), which can be grouped into three categories based on their action: constriction, dilatation and shortening the pharynx. The constrictor muscles arise from certain fixed points to each side of the pharynx, run over the root of the pharynx and form a series of arches that enclose the lumen dorsally and laterally.

The constrictor muscles can be subdivided into:

- **rostral constrictor muscles**:
  - pterygopharyngeal muscles (mm. pterygopharyngei) originating from the pterygoid,
  - palatopharyngeal muscle (m. palatopharyngeus) originating from the aponeurosis of the soft palate.

The rostral constrictor muscles have many fibres, which are orientated in a longitudinal direction, and thus assist in shortening the pharynx.

- **middle constrictor muscle**:
  - hyopharyngeal muscle (m. hyopharyngeus), originating from the hyoid bone.

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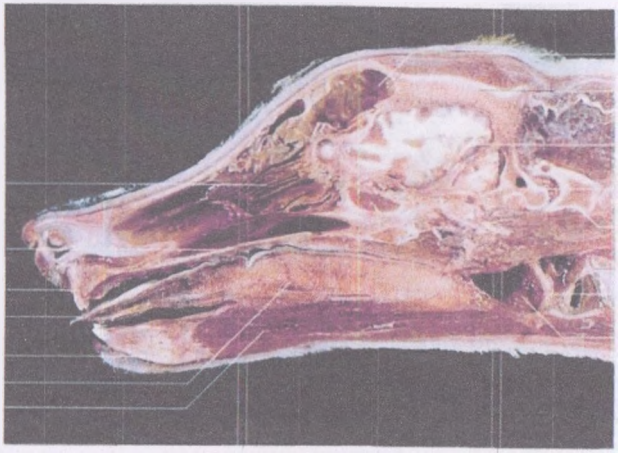


Fig. 7·43. Paramedian section of the neck and head of a dog

- **caudal constrictor muscles**
  - **thyropharyngeal muscle** (m. thyropharyngeus), originating from the thyroid cartilage,
  - **cricopharyngeal muscle** (m. cricopharyngeus), originating from the cricoid cartilage.

In contrast to the group of constrictor muscles, there is only a single muscle responsible for dilating the pharynx: the caudal stylopharyngeal muscle, which arises from the hyoid bone to fan out in the pharyngeal wall.

Deglutition (swallowing)

Deglutition describes the process by which a bolus of food is transfered from the oral cavity through the pharynx into the oesophagus and finally into the stomach. It can be divided into two stages. The first stage is the voluntary act of mastication and the passage of the bolus of food into the oropharynx. This action involves a wave-like motion of the tongue against the palate, caused by the contraction of the mylohoid, hyoglossal and styloglossal muscles while the jaws are closed. The second stage is initiated when the food bolus touches the pharyngeal mucosa, initiating reflexes of swallowing. The soft palate is elevated against the roof of the nasopharynx and its muscle bundles inside the palatopharyngeal arches contract, thus closing the intrapharyngeal opening. The tongue is raised, pressing against the soft palate to prevent food from re-entering the oral cavity. At the same time the hyoid apparatus and the larynx are simultaneously drawn forward and the epiglottis is drawn back, protecting the laryngeal entrance. At this stage breathing is inhibited and the food passes over the epiglottis or in the case of fluids to each side of it. The ingested material is propelled into the oesophagus by the successive contractions of the three contractors of the pharynx.

Lymphatic structures of the pharynx (tonsils)

The pharyngeal walls contain a large amount of lymphoreticular tissue, which aggregates to form **lymph nodules** or **tonsils**. Tonsils consist of a multitude of subepithelial lymph nodules surrounded by a common soft tissue capsule and have efferent lymphatics only. They form a ring of lymphatic tissue around the pharynx, which provides an immunological barrier to protect the respiratory and alimentary systems. The pharyngeal tonsils can be grouped into palatine, pharyngeal, lingual, choanal and tubal tonsils based upon their location (Fig. 7·47ff.).

The **lingual tonsil** (tonsilla lingualis) is located on either side of the root of the tongue and is especially well developed in the horse and the ox.

The **palatine tonsil** (tonsilla palatina) is situated in the lateral wall of the oropharynx. In carnivores it is located within a tonsillar fossa, the medial wall of which is formed by a lid-eiform fold from the soft palate, the tonsillar fold. Surgical removal of the palatine tonsil is indicated in some animals (**tonsillectomy**). It is not present in the pig. Another tonsil lies within the mucosa on the ventral surface of the soft palate and is especially well developed in the horse and the pig. The pharyngeal tonsil is located on the roof of the nasopharynx. The tubal tonsil is situated close to the entrance of the auditory tube in ruminants and the pig.

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Fig. 7-44. External musculature of the pharynx of an ox (lateral aspect); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

Muscles of the hyoid apparatus

The muscles of the hyoid apparatus have a close functional relationship to the muscles of the tongue and pharynx. They assist deglutition by pulling the larynx first rostrally and then caudally. They can be divided into the **upper** and **lower muscles** of the hyoid apparatus.

Upper muscles of the hyoid apparatus

The upper muscles of the hyoid apparatus comprise:

- mylohyoid muscle (m. mylohyoideus),
- geniohyoid muscle (m. geniohyoideus),
- stylohyoid muscle (m. stylohyoideus),
- occipitohyoid muscle (m. occipitohyoideus),
- ceratohyoid muscle (m. ceratohyoideus) and
- transverse hyoid muscle (m. hyoideus transversus).

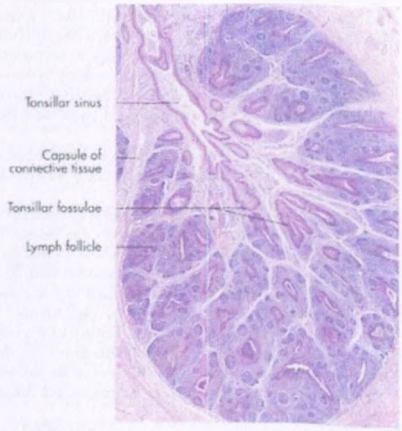


Fig. 7-45. Histological section of the palatine tonsil of an ox; Liebich, 2004.

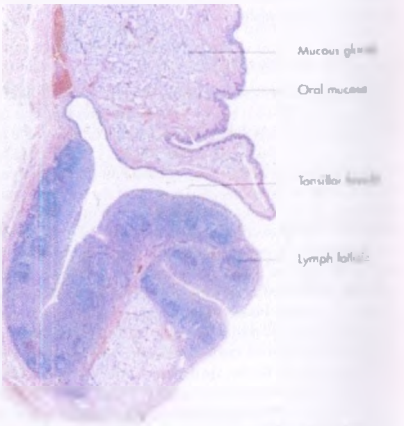


Fig. 7-46. Histological section of a tonsillar fossa in a dog; Liebich, 2004

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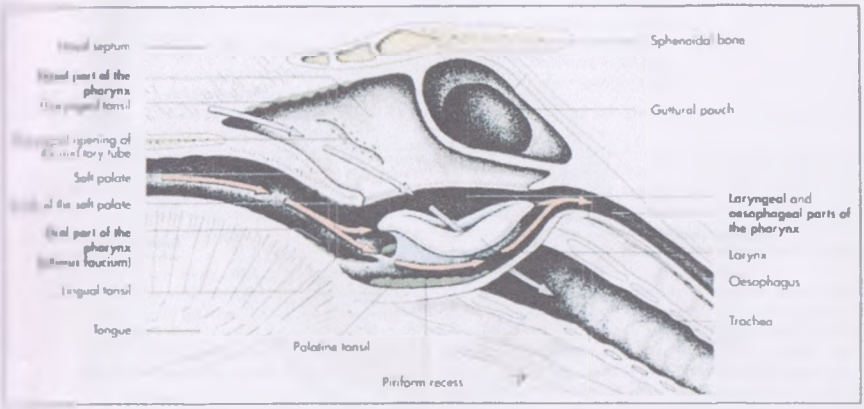


Fig. 7-47. Lymphatic tissue of the pharynx of the horse, illustrating the crossing of the nasal and oral passages (schematic, longitudinal

The **mylohyoid muscle** extends subcutaneously from the ventral line on the medial aspect of the mandible to meet its contralateral counterpart in a median raphe and attaches to the body and the lingual process of the hyoid bone. The two muscles suspend and elevate the tongue (Fig. 7-13). It is innervated by the mandibular branch of the trigeminal nerve.

The spindle-shaped **geniohyoid muscle** passes dorsal to the mylohyoid muscle from the incisive part of the mandible to the body and the lingual process of the mandible. It draws the hyoid and thus the tongue and larynx forward (Fig. 7-13).

The **stylohyoid muscle** originates from the caudal third of the stylohyoid and in the cat and dog from the temporal bone. It inserts on the thyrohyoid and is able to move the hyoid bone and the larynx caudodorsally. In the horse its tendon of origin forms a sling through which the intermediate tendon of the digastricus muscle passes.

The **occipitohyoid muscle** is a flat muscle, which originates from the paracondylar process of the occipital bone and inserts on the caudal end of the stylohyoid. It moves the rostral end of the stylohyoid and thus the larynx ventrally.

The **ceratohyoid muscle** is a thin triangular muscular band, which arises from the rostral margin of the thyrohyoid and inserts on the caudal margin of the ceratohyoid. It elevates the thyrohyoid and draws the larynx rostrodorsally.

The **transverse hyoid muscle** arises from the ceratohyoid and meets its contralateral counterpart in an indistinct median raphe. It is a rather weak muscle and is absent in the dog, cat and pig. The nerve supply of the upper muscles of the hyoid apparatus, with the exception of the mylohyoid muscle, is provided by the ventral branches of the first two cervical nerves and the hypoglossal nerve.

Lower muscles of the hyoid apparatus

The lower hyoid muscles can be regarded as the cranial continuation of the rectus abdominis muscle and are described in detail in Chapter 2. This group comprises three pairs of muscles:

- **sternohyoid muscle** (m. sternohyoideus),
- **sternothyroid muscle** (m. sternothyroideus),
- **omohyoid muscle** (m. omohyoideus).

The **sternohyoid muscle** is a strong straplike muscle, which originates from the manubrium of the sternum and the first rib (carnivores) and inserts on the basihyoid bone. It meets its contralateral pair on the midline of the neck, and these muscles extend cranially, covering the ventral surface of the trachea. Its caudal half is fused to the sternothyroid muscle.

The **sternothyroid muscle** separates from the sternohyoid in the middle of the neck and inserts on the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. Both muscle pairs pull the hyoid bone, the larynx and the tongue caudally during deglutition.

The **omohyoid muscle** is developed most in the horse and is absent in carnivores. It originates from the subscapular fascia, close to the shoulder joint in the horse, and from the deep fascia of the neck in ruminants and inserts on the basihyoid bone. In the horse, the omohyoid muscle unites with the corresponding muscle of the opposite side midway up the neck and inserts together with the sternohyoid muscle on the lingual process of the hyoid bone. In the cranial half of the neck it is positioned between the external jugular vein and the common carotid artery, thus providing some protection for the latter during intravenous injection in that part of the neck.

The upper hyoid muscles dilate the pharynx by pulling the hyoid bone, the tongue and the larynx caudally. If these muscles are passively tensed by elevating head and neck to administer intraoral medication, deglutition cannot be performed properly and medication may pass into the trachea or the nasal cavity. These muscles are also innervated by the ventral branches of the first two cervical nerves.

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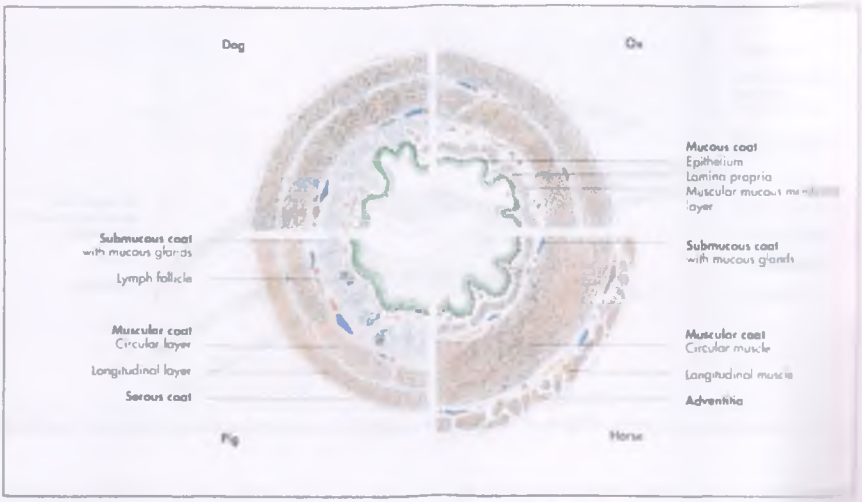


Fig. 7-48. Transverse section of the oesophagus of the dog, pig, ox and horse (schematic), Liebich, 2004

Cranial part of the alimentary canal (oesophagus and stomach)

Oesophagus

The oesophagus or gullet is the tube between the pharynx and the stomach. It begins dorsal to the cricoid cartilage of the larynx and ends at the cardia of the stomach. At its origin it passes to the left of the trachea, so that at the thoracic inlet it comes to lie on the left lateral aspect of the trachea.

Within the thoracic cavity it is located dorsal to the trachea and runs in the mediastinum, continuing beyond the tracheal bifurcation and over the base of the heart. It continues ventral to the ascending aorta with a slight dorsal inclination and enters the abdominal cavity through the oesophageal hiatus of the diaphragm, flanked by the ventral and dorsal trunk of the vagus. It passes over the dorsal border of the liver to join the stomach at the cardia.

Since it traverses most of the neck, all of the thorax and ends on entering the abdomen, it is divided into cervical, thoracic and abdominal portions. In ruminants and the horse, the lumen of the oesophagus narrows at the thoracic inlet and the oesophageal hiatus of the diaphragm, which predisposes these species to choke at those sites. Carnivores, however, are prone to mega-oesophagus or dilatation of the oesophagus before it enters the abdomen.

Structure of the oesophagus

The structure of the oesophagus conforms to a general [illegible] common to the remainder of the alimentary canal.

The oesophagus has four layers (Fig. 7-48) [illegible] (from the inside to the outside):

- **mucosa** (tunica mucosa):
  - epithelium (epithelium mucosae),
  - lamina propria (lamina propria mucosae),
  - muscular layer of mucous membrane (lamina muscularis mucosae),
- **submucosa** (tela submucosa),
- **muscular layer** (tunica muscularis):
  - circular muscle layer (stratum circulare),
  - longitudinal muscle layer (stratum longitudinale)
- **adventitia** (tunica adventitia) in the cervical portion, **serosa** (tunica serosa) in the thoracic portion (pleura) and abdominal portion (peritoneum).

The **superficial layer of the mucosa** is composed of [illegible] lically cornified, stratified squamous epithelium, [illegible] degree of keratinisation varying between species [illegible] to the coarseness of their diet. The submucosa [illegible] nects the mucosa with the muscular layers, thus allowing the mucosa to be thrown into longitudinal folds when the oesophagus contracts. These folds can be visualised with [illegible] radiography and endoscopy. The submucosa contains [illegible] cous glands on its entire length in the dog, in the [illegible]

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...t in the pig and at the beginning of the oesophagus only in ... other domestic mammals.

The **muscular layers** consists of two muscle strata, an outer ... longitudinal layer and an inner circular layer. Both layers ... spiral and they wind in opposite directions in the first part ... the oesophagus, but closer to the stomach the outer layer ... more longitudinal and the inner one more circular.

The muscular layers consist of striated muscle over the ... length of the oesophagus in ruminants and in the dog, ... pig the most caudal part of the oesophagus is smooth ... and in the horse and the cat only the first two thirds ... the oesophagus is striated muscle, while the caudal third is ... muscle.

The **muscular layer** forms the cardiac sphincter (m. ... cardiae), where the oesophagus joins the stomach. ... contractions of the muscular layers cause peristal... waves, which propel food from the pharynx to the stom... Antiperistaltic contractions are responsible for regurgita... in ruminants and vomiting in the other domestic mam...

The **outer layer of the cervical portion** of the oesopha... is adventitia, loose connective tissue, which connects the ... organs with adjacent tissue in a mobile fashion. The ad... is replaced by serosa in the thorax and in the abdo... A more detailed description can be found in histology ...

The oesophagus receives its innervation from the sympa... and vagus nerves.

Lymphatics drain into the deep cervical lymph nodes (... stomach cervicales profundi) and into the mediastinal ... nodes (lymphonodi mediastinales).

...mach (gaster, ventriculus)

The stomach is interposed between the oesophagus and small ... In the domestic mammals the stomachs vary con... in form and distribution of the different types of ... lining the stomach. Considering their form they can ... divided into simple stomachs, which have only one com... and complex stomachs with several compartments ...

The mucosal lining of glandular stomachs are lined by ... mucosa with a simple columnar epithelium. Com... stomachs have an area of glandular mucosa, and an... lined by a non-glandular mucosa covered by a stratified ... epithelium.

Cat and dogs have simple, glandular stomachs. The horse ... pig have simple, composite stomachs, whereby the ... of the stomach is lined by glandular mucosa and a ... cranial part by non-glandular mucosa. Ruminants have ... complex, composite stomach, which comprises four com... three of which (rumen, reticulum, omasum) are ... non-glandular mucosa and one (abomasum) lined by ... mucosa.

...e stomach

The simple stomach is a sac-shaped dilatation of the alimen... canal (Fig. 7-49 and Fig. 5-41L). The major divisions of ... stomach are the

- cardiac portion (pars cardiaca),
- fundus (fundus ventriculi),
- body (corpus ventriculi) and
- pyloric portion (pars pylorica).

It possesses visceral and parietal surfaces and greater and lesser curvatures.

The inlet of the stomach is called the **cardia** and the outlet, the **pylorus**, both of which are controlled by **sphincters**. The cardia, where the oesophagus joins the stomach, lies to the right of the median plane of the abdomen; the pylorus, which continues into the duodenum, lies more to the left. The exact shape and position of the stomach depends on the degree of filling.

The **body** is the large middle portion of the stomach, which extends from the fundus on the left to the pylorus on the right. The **pyloric** part can be divided into the expanded **pyloric antrum** (antrum pyloricum) and the **pyloric canal** (canalis pyloricus) towards the duodenum. The fundus is a blind outpocketing rising above the body and the cardia. It has the form of a rather **large sac** (saccus caecus) in the horse and forms the ventricular **diverticulum** in the pig.

The **parietal surface** (facies parietalis) of the stomach lies against the diaphragm and the liver, whereas the **visceral surface** (facies visceralis) is in contact with the adjacent abdominal organs caudal to it.

The **greater curvature** (curvatura ventriculi major) is the convex, ventral border of the stomach extending from the cardia to the pylorus, which gives attachment to the greater omentum. The **lesser curvature** is the concave dorsal border of the stomach and also runs from the cardia to the pylorus (Fig. 7-54 and 57). It is connected to the liver by the lesser omentum. The lesser curvature is not evenly concave, but marked by the **angular notch** (incisura angularis). In some individuals, especially cats, this notch is rather pronounced and might cause difficulties during gastroscopy.

Structure of the gastric wall

The general architecture of the gastric wall corresponds to that of the oesophagus. It is composed of the following layers from the inside to the outside:

- mucosa (tunica mucosa),
- submucosa (tela submucosa),
- muscular layer (tunica muscularis) and
- peritoneum (serosa seu lamina visceralis).

The **mucosa** close to where the oesophagus joins the stomach is non-glandular, whereas glandular mucosa lines the rest of the stomach. The non-glandular mucosa is whitish and often slightly folded; its surface consists of a cornified stratified squamous epithelium. In the horse the junction between the non-glandular and the glandular mucosa is marked by a ridge, the **plicate border** (margo plicatus) (Fig. 7-60). The **glandular mucosa** forms folds and is marked by a multitude of grooves and pits, which can only be seen under the microscope (foveolae gastricae). The stomach can be divided into three regions based on the species-specific distribution of different types of **gastric glands** (glandulae gastricae) (Fig. 7-49 f).

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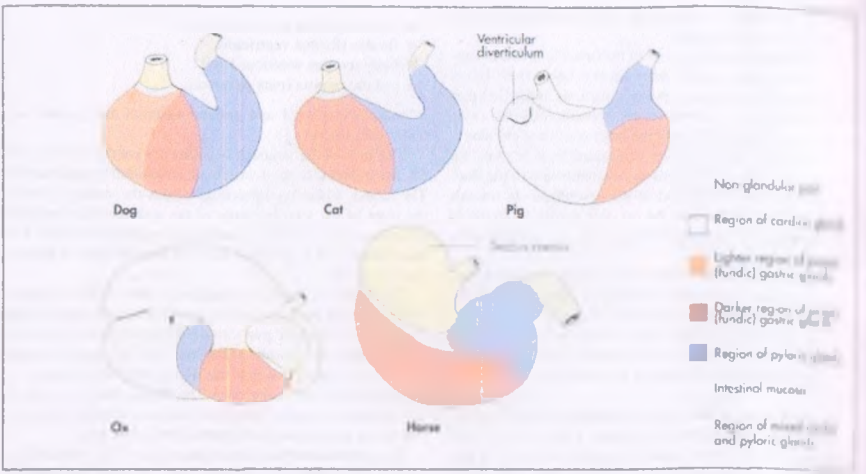


Fig. 7-49. Distribution of the gastric mucosa in the domestic mammals (schematic). Liebich, 2004

- region of the cardiac glands (gll. cardiacae),
- region of the proper (fundic) gastric glands (gll. gastricae propriae),
- region of the pyloric glands (gll. pyloricae).

The **region of the cardiac glands** is a narrow zone around the cardia on most animals except the pig, in which it is rather extensive (Fig. 7-49 and 50).

Pyloric glands (Fig. 7-49 and 52) are found in the mucosa of the pyloric part of the stomach, the proper or fundic glands (Fig. 7-49 and 51) in the fundus and body.

The **gastric glands** differ in the nature of secretion they produce: the cardiac and pyloric glands function mainly to produce mucus, which provides a protective barrier for the mucosa against the gastric juice by lining the inner surface of the stomach and by buffering the acid gastric juice.

Three different types of cells are found in the region of the proper (fundic) gastric glands. **Neck cells**, which are located in the neck of the glands, produce mucus and serve as reserve cells to replace epithelial cells. **Chief cells** produce pepsinogen, the precursor for pepsin. **Parietal cells** are the source of chloride and hydrogen ions and an intrinsic factor which is essential for the resorption of vitamin B12 in the ileum. (A more detailed description can be found in histology and physiology textbooks.)

The **submucosa** consists of a strong, but thin layer of areolar tissue. It is separated from the mucosa proper by a plexiform muscularis mucosae. It contains gastric arteries, veins and nerves, fat, lymphatic tissue and collagenous and elastic fibres. The latter assist the muscularis mucosae to form folds characteristic of the empty organ. These folds are predominantly longitudinal in orientation and start to disappear when the stomach is distended.

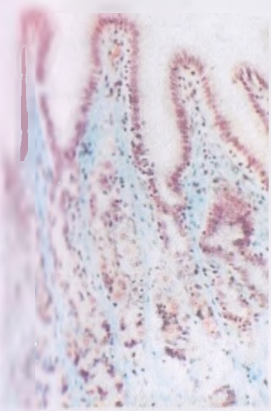
Since the **muscular layer** of the stomach plays an important role in mixing the food with the gastric juice and then transferring it to the small intestine, its structure varies in different parts of the stomach. It essentially consists of two layers of smooth muscle:

- **inner circular layer** (stratum circulare), which forms the
  - cardiac sphincter (m. sphincter cardiae) and
  - pyloric sphincter (m. sphincter pylori), and the
- **outer longitudinal layer** (stratum longitudinale) with
  - longitudinal fibres (fibrae longitudinales),
  - external oblique fibres (fibrae obliquae externae) and
  - internal oblique fibres (fibrae obliquae internae).

The **outer longitudinal layer** is continuous with the longitudinal layer of both the oesophagus and duodenum (Fig. 7-53) and is concentrated along the curvatures of the stomach.

The **inner circular layer** is more complete than the longitudinal layer. At the cardia it is thickened to form the **cardiac sphincter**. The circular layer is well developed and surrounds the pyloric canal, especially in the pig, where it protrudes into the lumen to form the **torus pyloricus**. The pylorus is also surrounded by a circular muscle termed the **pyloric sphincter** (Fig. 7-61). The innermost oblique fibres do not form a complete layer (Fig. 7-53), but compensate for the

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Section of the cardic gland region of the stomach of a dog, showing cardiac glands in the proper lamina and foveolae

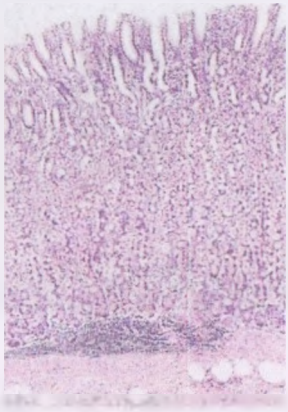


Fig. 7-51. Section of the fundic gland region in the stomach of a dog showing the long tubular proper gastric glands in the proper lamina

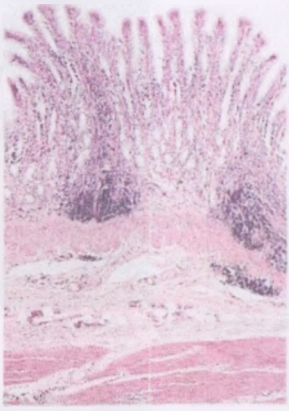


Fig. 7-52. Section of the pyloric gland region in the stomach of a dog showing pyloric glands in the proper lamina

of the circular layer. Particularly strong bundles arch over the cardia of the horse, which is one of the reasons, why horses cannot vomit easily.

The **visceral serosa** (serosa seu lamina visceralis peritonei) covers the entire organ, adhering to the underlying tissue except along the curvatures where it is reflected to form into the omenta. The greater and lesser omenta are also derivatives of the **connecting serosa** (serosa intermedia), which consists of double sheets of serosal membranes extending from the stomach to the **parietal serosa** (lamina parietalis peritonei).

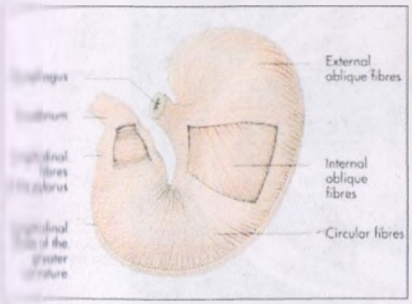


Fig. 7-53. Muscular coat of the stomach of a horse, illustrating its muscle layers (schematic), after Schaller, 1992

Species-specific variations of the simple stomach

Dog: The empty or partly filled stomach is shaped like a "C" with its convex surface facing caudoventrally and to the left (Fig. 7-49, 57 and 58). The funnel-shaped cardia is rather wide, which may be related to the ease with which dogs vomit. Gastric volvulus is relatively common, especially in large breeds. The non-glandular region and the cardiac gland region are limited to a circular zone around the entrance of the oesophagus (Fig. 7-49).

Cat: The stomach of the cat is also C-shaped, but has a narrower lumen than that of the dog (Fig. 7-54). The angular notch is comparatively deep. The distribution of the gastric glands is similar to that of the dog (Fig. 7-49).

Pig: The stomach of the pig is characterised by the presence of a diverticulum surmounting the fundus. The non-glandular area surrounds the cardiac opening and extends to the diverticulum of which it lines a small part. The major part of the diverticulum is lined by glandular mucosa. The region of the cardiac glands is relatively large (Fig. 7-49 and 59). The pylorus is accentuated by a fleshy protuberance, the torus pyloricus.

Horse: The stomach of the horse is small in relation to the animal compared to other species. Its capacity is between 5 and 15 litres, which has to taken into account when administering fluids via a nasogastric tube to avoid overdistension. The fundus is extended to form the saccus caecus. A fused edge, the plicate border, divides the interior in a rather large non-glandular region, which occupies the fundus and part of the body and a glandular region (Fig. 7-49, 60 and 61). In some horses, the non-glandular region is marked by scars from the larvae

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Fig. 7-54. Stomach of a cat (caudal aspect).



Fig. 7-55. Stomach of a cat (interior), König, 1992

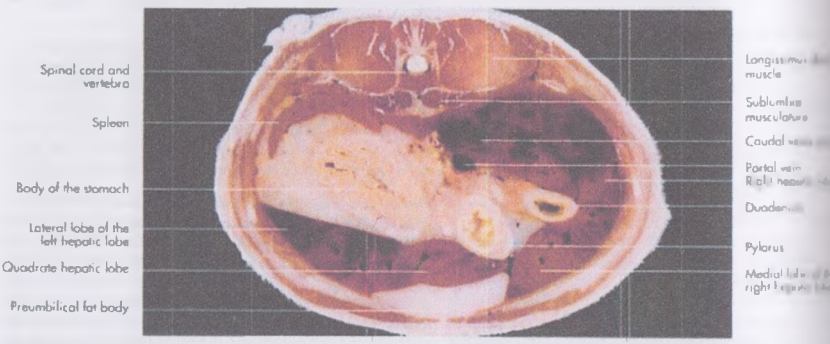
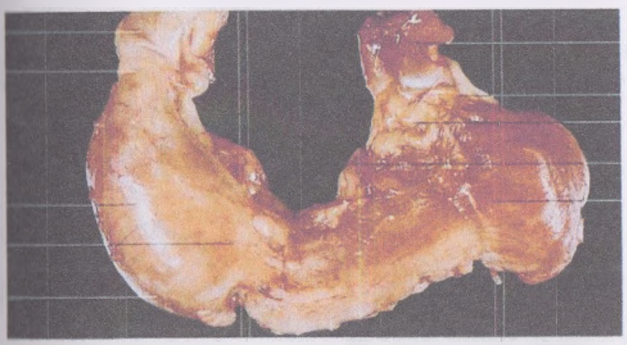


Fig. 7-56. Transverse section of the abdomen of a cat at the level of the stomach (caudal aspect), Konig, 1992.

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of a dog (caudal aspect)



of a dog (interior)



of a pig (cardiac region, interior)

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Fig. 7-60. Stomach of a horse (cardiac region, interior)

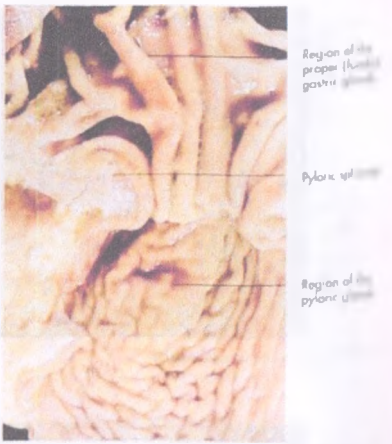


Fig. 7-61. Stomach of a horse (pyloric region, interior)

of *Gastrophilus intestinalis*. The cardiac sphincter is especially well developed and this, together with the oblique entrance of the oesophagus, is thought to be responsible for the horse's reputed inability to vomit. However, vomiting and regurgitation, although rare, are possible.

Blood supply and innervation

The blood supply of the simple stomach comes from all three main branches of the **coeliac artery** (a. coeliaca) (Fig. 7-62 and Fig. 12-27 and 28):

- **left gastric artery** (a. gastrica sinistra),
- **hepatic artery** (a. hepatica),
  - right gastric artery (a. gastrica dextra),
  - right gastric gastroepiploic artery (a. gastroepiploica dextra),
- **splenic artery** (a. lienalis),
  - left gastric gastroepiploic artery (a. gastroepiploica sinistra)

The **left** and **right gastric arteries** run along the lesser curvature; the left and right gastroepiploic arteries run along the greater curvature. Thus the blood supply is particularly generous along the two curvatures, while it is less so in the middle of the parietal and visceral surface. This should be taken into accounties, when performing gastrotomy.

The **left gastric artery** is a direct branch of the coeliac artery and is the largest of the arteries supplying the stomach. On reaching the lesser curvature it divides into a branch for each gastric surface and vascularises the major part of the stomach. It forms anastomoses with the right gastric artery and with the oesophageal artery.

The second branch of the coeliac artery is the hepatic artery, which provides blood supply to the liver, and extends the right gastric and the right gastroepiploic arteries to the stomach. The third main branch of the coeliac artery is the **splenic artery**, which supplies the spleen, continues as the left gastroepiploic artery to the greater curvature, where the epiploic vessels anastomose with each other.

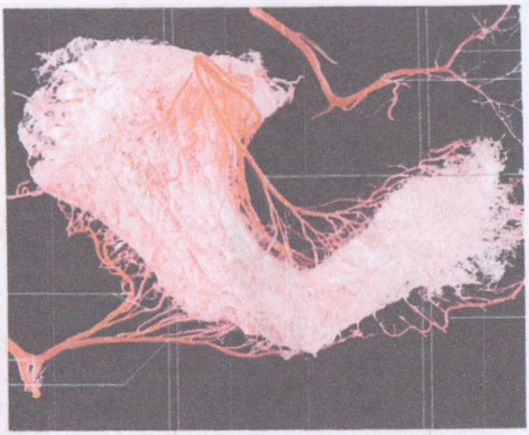
In addition to these arteries two or more branches (the tricae breves) leave the terminal part of the splenic artery to supply a portion of the fundus of the stomach. In cases where surgical removal of the spleen is indicated (splenectomy) the splenic artery should not be ligated completely to prevent impairment of the blood supply to the stomach. Because of the anastomoses of the gastric arteries with each other and the gastroepiploic arteries, which also anastomose with each other, a perigastric arterial ring is formed which includes the whole stomach except the left part of the fundus.

The **veins** have a similar arrangement to that of the arteries and ultimately join the **portal vein** (v. portae) to the liver. Anastomoses between the **oesophageal vein** (v. oesophagea) and the **left gastric vein** (v. gastrica sinistra) function as portocaval shunts. Numerous arteriovenous anastomoses are thought to be responsible for regulating the blood supply to the gastric mucosa: in the empty stomach the blood is diverted away from the capillary bed.

Lymph vessels are present in profusion, especially in the submucosa. They eventually drain into several gastric lymph nodes, each receiving the lymphatics of a particular region.

The stomach is innervated by **parasympathetic fibres** from the vagal trunks and by **sympathetic fibres** that reach it with the arteries. The vagal part stimulates gastric secretion.

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7.63 Arteries of the stomach of a dog (corrosion cast); König, 1992.

...e of the stomach and omenta

...of the stomach is closely related to the develop... the **greater omentum** (omentum majus) and the ...entum (omentum minus). This particular situation ...ility permits the connection of the stomach to ad... ...n. In principle the following structures can be ...ished:

...gastrium

...entum (omentum majus),
...portion enclosing the omental bursa ...entalis),
...ligament (lig. gastrophrenicum),
...splenic ligament (lig. phrenicolienale),
...ligament (lig. gastrolienale),
...fold (velum omentale) in carnivores,
...ligament (lig. lienorenale) in the horse.

...gastrium

...entum (omentum minus),
...ligament (lig. hepatogastricum),
...duodenal ligament (lig. hepatoduodenale),
...ligament (lig. falciforme),
...ligament (lig. coronarium hepatis),
...triangular ligament (lig. triangulare dextrum) and
...triangular ligament (lig. triangulare sinistrum).

...entum develops from the dorsal mesentery of ...gastrium dorsale), while the **lesser omen...** ...from the ventral mesogastrium. In addition to ...there are several double-layered peritoneal folds extending between neighbouring organs, which are also derived from the dorsal and ventral mesogastrium.

The **greater omentum**, also referred to as **epiploon**, originates from the dorsal wall of the abdomen and attaches to the greater curvature of the stomach. It is drawn out caudally and folded on itself forming a pouch, the **omental bursa**, which encloses the **caudal omental recess** (recessus caudalis omentalis). The greater omentum has a lace-like appearance, due to the streaks of fat around the arteries that run through an otherwise transparent serous membrane. Its walls are described as **parietal** (also called superficial or ventral) and **visceral** (also called deep or dorsal) because of their relationship to abdominal wall and viscera. The parietal wall extends from the origin to the pelvic inlet, where it reflects back to reach the greater curvature of the stomach as the visceral wall. In carnivores it includes the left crus of the pancreas in its origin. The visceral wall encloses the spleen.

The adult arrangement of the greater omentum is determined by the longitudinal growth of the mesentery and the rotation of the gastrointestinal tract during development. This results in considerable variations between species with regard to size, position and capacity of the greater omentum. In carnivores and ruminants it runs caudally between the viscera and the abdominal floor to the pelvic inlet and back to the stomach. It is liable to be shifted around between organs and the ventral and lateral abdominal walls, and has an important role in controlling inflammation, thus protecting the abdominal organs. In the horse and pig it lies irregularly between loops of intestine, but can also reach the pelvic inlet.

The **omental bursa**, the part of the peritoneal cavity enclosed in the greater omentum, is a flat pouch that has the following compartments:

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Fig. 7-63. Position of the epiploic (omental) foramen in the dog (arrow) (schematic).

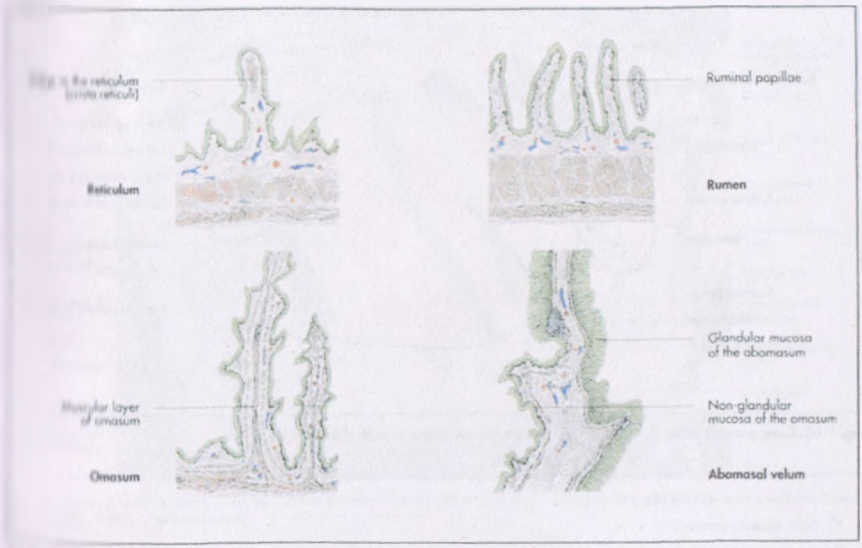
- vestibule of the omental bursa (vestibulum bursae omentalis),
- dorsal and caudal omental recess (recessus dorsalis and recessus caudalis omentalis) and
- entrance of the omental bursa (aditus ad recessum caudalem).

Access to the interior of the vestibule of the omental bursa is reduced to the narrow **epiploic (omental) foramen**, through which the cavity of the omental bursa remains in open communication with the major part of the peritoneal cavity. Vestibule and caudal recess communicate freely over the lesser curvature of the stomach. The **epiploic foramen** is bounded ventrally by the peritoneum covering the portal vein and dorsally by that covering the caudal vena cava (Fig. 7-63). Entrapment of intestine in the epiploic foramen can cause colic in the horse. In addition to the **greater omentum** there are several double-layered peritoneal folds extending between neighbouring organs, which are also derived from the **dorsal mesogastrium**:

- **gastrophrenic ligament** (lig. gastrophrenicum),
- **phrenicosplenic ligament** (lig. phrenicolienale) between the left crus of the diaphragm and the stomach and spleen,
- **gastrosplenic ligament** (lig. gastrolienale) between the spleen and stomach,
- **omental veil** (velum omentale), which is present in carnivores only, is a rectangular portion of the dorsal mesentery extending on the left side of the abdomen between the spleen and the mesentery of the duodenum, and
- **nephrosplenic ligament** (lig. lienorenale), which in the horse is the caudal extension of the phrenicosplenic ligament; displacement of intestines over this ligament is a common cause of colic.

The **lesser omentum** is the largest derivative of the ventral **mesogastrium**, but is not nearly as large as the greater omentum, which it resembles in structure. It loosely spans the distance from the lesser curvature of the stomach to the porta of the liver and attaches to the abdominal floor, the line of attachment extending from the diaphragm to the umbilicus. It is continuous with the cranial mesoduodenum and attaches to the margin of the oesophageal hiatus of the diaphragm between the cardia of the stomach and the liver. The lesser **omentum** is divided into a proximal and distal portion by the liver. The proximal portion reaches from the diaphragm to the liver and is referred to as the **hepatogastric ligament** (lig. hepatogastricum). The distal portion continues as the **falciform ligament** (lig. falciforme) to the abdominal floor. The portion of the lesser omentum which expands from the duodenum to the liver is known as the **hepatoduodenal ligament** (lig. hepatoduodenale).

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Walls of the different stomach compartments in the ox (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

the hepatoduodenal ligament the **common bile duct** ...duodenum, thus indicating the ontogenetic origin of ... gland of the digestive system. The duodenal ... is the only remnant of the ventral mesentery present ... embryonic development.

...stomach

... of the domestic ruminants is composed of four ...

- ...
- ...
- ... and
- ...

... reticulum and omasum are collectively referred to as ... (proventriculus), which has a **non-glandular** ... and is responsible for the enzymatic destruction of ... carbohydrates, especially cellulose, which form ... part of the normal diet of ruminants, and the produc... short-chained fatty acids (propionate, butyrate and ... with the help of microbes.

... last chamber, the **abomasum**, has a glandular mucosa ... comparable to the simple stomach of the other domes... ruminants. A more detailed description of the function of ... chambers can be found in textbooks of veteri... physiology and nutrition.

All four chambers are derived from the **gastric spindle** during embryonic development without a contribution of the oesophagus, which was hypothesised earlier due to the non-glandular lining of the proventriculus. The different chambers can be identified as expansions of the gastric spindle in the early embryo. They increase at unequal rates during embryonic and foetal development. At the time of birth the abomasum is the **largest part of the stomach**, which is appropriate since it is the only part which has an immediate function to perform in receiving and digesting milk, which bypasses the forestomach.

Although its form and structure is similar to that of an adult's and its capacity already reaches 60% of an adult abomasum, it still takes a few days after birth for the mucosa to mature and function properly. This window of time is very important to guarantee the resorption of colostral antibodies in the first 24 hours postpartum. After about three weeks, when the calf starts to eat solid food, the rumen and reticulum begin to show rapid growth; by the eighth week they have almost overtaken the abomasum and by the twelfth week they are more than twice as large. At the same time the interior of the stomach changes: the reticulate pattern of the lining of the reticulum appears as well as the ruminal pillars. The definitive proportions and topography are established at 3–12 months of age, depending on the diet.

The large stomach dominates the abdominal topography of ruminants by occupying almost the **whole of the left half of the abdomen** and a substantial part of the right

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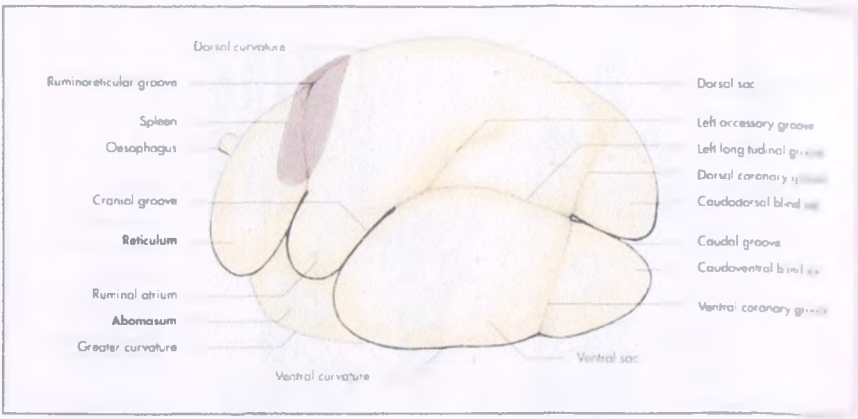


Fig. 7-65. Compartments of the stomach of the ox (schematic, left lateral aspect), after Schaller, 1992

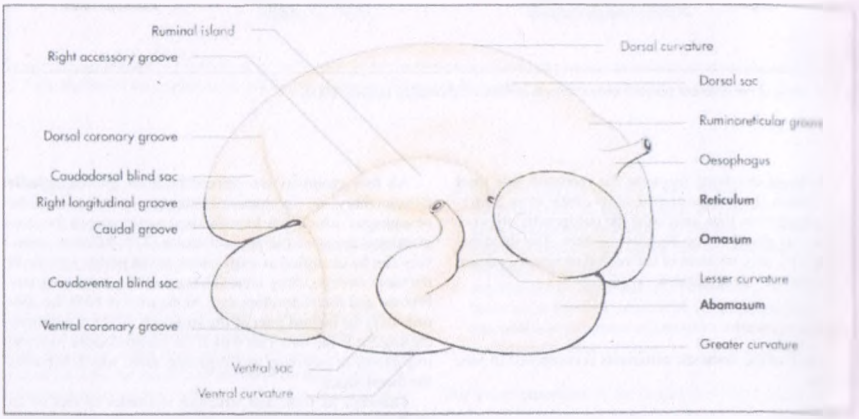


Fig. 7-66. Compartments of the stomach of the ox (schematic, right lateral aspect), after Schaller, 1992

half. The rumen is situated in the **left half of the abdomen**, the reticulum in the cranial part, and the omasum in the right half.

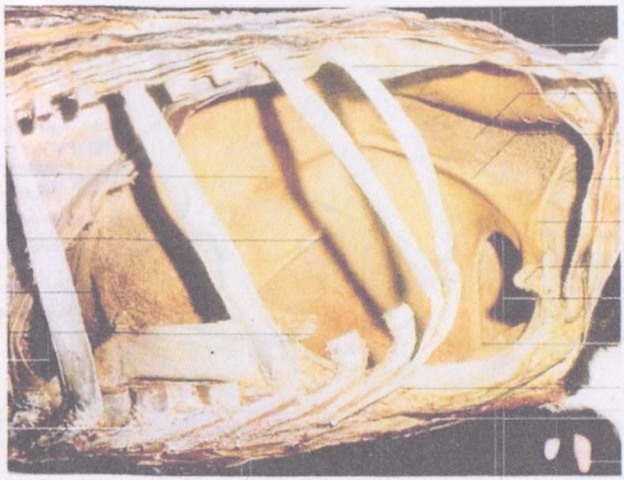
Depending on the size of the animal, the total capacity of the adult bovine stomach is 60 – 100 l, 80% of which is the rumen.

Rumen and reticulum are so intimately related in structure and function that it is also referred to as **ruminoreticular compartment**. The division of the two is marked by an inflection of the wall, that projects internally, the **ruminoreticular fold** (plica ruminoreticularis).

Rumen

The rumen resembles a large, laterally compressed [illegible] which fills almost the entire left half of the abdomen [illegible] crosses the midline into the right half with its caudal [illegible] portion. It extends from the diaphragm cranially to the pelvic inlet caudally. The rumen has a **parietal surface** (facies parietalis), adjacent to the diaphragm and the left lateral and ventral abdominal wall, and a **visceral surface**, against the [illegible] the intestines, the omasum and the abomasum. These surfaces meet in the dorsal curvature, against the roof of the

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Topography of the rumen in an ox. Parts of the lateral body wall, several ribs and the lateral ruminal wall are removed (left lateral view). Nickel, Schummer, Seiferle, Wilkens, Wille, Frewein, Vollerthun, 1983

cavity and in the ventral curvature towards the floor of the abdominal cavity.

The rumen is divided into several portions by inflections of the wall, the **pillars of the rumen** (pilae ruminis), which also form the lumen. The ruminal portions (Fig. 7-65 ff.)

- ventral sac (saccus ventralis)
- with the ruminal recess (recessus ruminis),
- dorsal sac (saccus dorsalis),
- cranial sac (saccus cranialis, atrium ruminis),
- caudodorsal blind sac (saccus caecus caudodorsalis),
- caudoventral blind sac (saccus caecus caudoventralis).

subdivisions are visible on the external surface as grooves that correspond to the position of all these folds. The **ventral ruminal pillars** (pila longitudinalis dextra et sinistra) divide the whole organ, dividing it into dorsal and ventral sacs. These are marked externally by the **left and right longitudinal grooves** (sulcus longitudinalis dexter et sinister) (Fig. 7-65, 66 and 68). The right longitudinal pillar (and corresponding groove) splits into **two branches** (pilae dextrae), which encircle an area of the wall of the rumen, which is referred to as the **ruminal island** (insula ruminis) (Fig. 7-66). The two longitudinal grooves are connected cranially and caudally by deep **transverse grooves** (sulcus cranialis et caudalis). Lesser coronary grooves (sulci coronarii dorsalis et ventralis) mark the **caudal** sacs and are visible as grooves on the external surface (sulcus coronarius dorsalis et ventralis).

The most cranial part of the dorsal sac forms the **cranial sac** of the rumen, also called the **atrium** of the rumen, which has a wide communication with the reticulum, through which food passes from the rumen into the reticulum and vice versa, thus playing an important role in remastication.

The division of the rumen from the reticulum is achieved by the **ruminoreticular fold** (plica ruminoreticularis) and is an inflection of the wall similar to the subdivisions of the rumen. The ventral ruminal sac is extended cranially to form the **ruminal recess** (Fig. 7-68).

The relative proportions of the compartments vary among the domestic ruminants. In the goat and sheep the dorsal sac is smaller than the ventral one, which has an extensive caudal projection.

The **non-glandular mucosa** of the rumen consists superficially of stratified, squamous epithelium and forms papillae, giving the ruminal mucosa its characteristic appearance. The **ruminal papillae** are soft-tissue formations of the lamina propria and submucosa are thought to increase the epithelial surface area by a factor of seven. This is important for the resorption of the volatile fatty acids produced by microbial fermentation, and for the resorption of water, vitamins K and B. This function is facilitated by a very rich subepithelial vascular plexus.

The ruminal papillae are not developed over the centre of the roof or the free margins of the pillars. Individual papillae show a great variation in form and size; they vary from low round elevations through conical and tongue-like forms to flattened leaves. Prominence, form and density largely depend on the diet the animal is fed. Increasing the amount of

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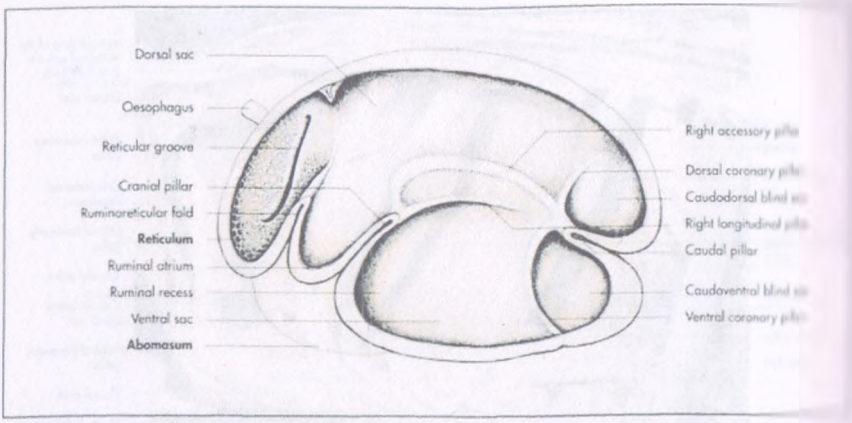


Fig. 7-68. Interior of the rumen of the ox (schematic, left aspect); after Schaller, 1992.

roughage results in shortening of the papillae, whereas increasing the energy content of the diet causes the papillae to become longer as seen in cows during lactation. Similar adaptive mechanisms are also seen in wild ruminants, in which proliferation and regression of the papillae depend on the season (winter versus summer, rainy season versus drought).

Reticulum

The reticulum is intimately related to the rumen in structure and function and many authors prefer to describe a combined ruminoreticular compartment (Fig. 7-65, 66, 68). The spherical reticulum is much smaller than the [illegible] is located just cranial to the latter in contact with the [illegible] surface of the diaphragm. It lies just ventral to the [illegible] phageal-gastric junction and above the xiphoid [illegible] the sternum. This position allows the application of [illegible] pressure to elicit pain if the reticulum is diseased. [illegible] non-selective feeders and often ingest foreign bodies [illegible] nails or pieces of wires with their forage. Due to their [illegible] these bodies tend to collect within the reticulum and [illegible] driven through the reticular wall by the contractions [illegible]

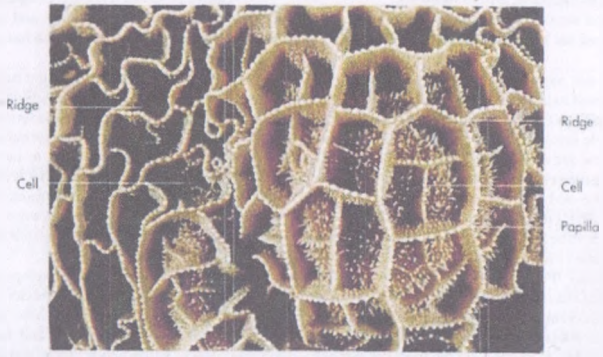


Fig. 7-69. Interior of a bovine reticulum.

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...an section of the cranial part of a bovine trunk, demonstrating the close relationship between the heart and the reticu... Prof. Dr. J. Soutet, Toulouse

...reticulitis or "hardware disease"). Com... include purulent pericarditis after penetration ... or abscessation of the liver and other adja... (Fig. 7-72).

...ular mucosa is non-glandular and is lined by a ... epithelium, similar to the ruminal mucosa. It has a ... honeycomb pattern formed by **ridges** (crista reti... ...4-, 5- and 6-sided **cells** (cellulae reticuli) ... These ridges and the cell floors between ... bear papillae. The smooth muscle of the rumi... wall is arranged in two layers, an outer thinner layer and a thicker inner layer, the fibres of which are orientated in a more or less perpendicular angle to each other. The regular sequence of ruminoreticular contractions mixes and redistributes the stomach contents and plays an important role in regurgitation of the food for remastication.

Omasum

The omasum lies within the intrathoracic part of the abdomen to the right of the ruminoreticular compartment (Fig. 7-66). It has the shape of a bilaterally flattened sphere in cattle and is



...al a sheep abomasum with adjacent rumen, oma... ...omasum



Fig. 7-72. Gastric groove of an ox with opened reticulum and rumen

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Fig. 7-73. Bovine omasum.



Fig. 7-74. Section of a bovine omasum.



Fig. 7-75. Histological section of a [illegible] omasum.

bean-shaped in the goat and sheep. It communicates with the reticulum through the **reticulo-omasal opening** (ostium reticulo-omasicum) and with the abomasum through the large, oval omaso-abomasal opening. The **omasoabomasal opening** is flanked by two mucosal **folds** (vela abomasica), which are thought to be able to close this opening to prevent reflux of the ingesta from the abomasum into the omasum.

The two openings are connected by the **omasal groove** (sulcus omasi). The interior is occupied by a multitude of **parallel laminae** (laminae omasi) that arise from the roof and the sides and project towards the floor, leaving room for the omasal canal, the floor of which is the omasal groove. The crescentic laminae are of different lengths and sizes and divide the lumen into a series of narrow recesses (Fig. 7-73, 74 and 75). The laminae are thin muscular sheets covered with a non-glandular mucosa, which forms short papillae. Omasal contractions are biphasic. The first phase presses food from the omasal canal into the omasal recesses, where resorption of water takes place. The second phase discharges the now dryer contents of the omasal recesses into the abomasum.

An unbalanced diet can result in impaction of the omasum, which is fatal in most cases. On postmortem examination the characteristic findings include a very hard omasum, packed with dry contents.

Abomasum

The abomasum corresponds to the simple stomach of the other domestic mammals (Fig. 7-66, 71 and 77) and analogous to that it can be divided into **fundus**, **body** and **pylorus**. It has a greater curvature facing ventrally and a lessor curvature facing dorsally. It is lined by a glandular mucosa, which contains the **gastric glands proper** and **pyloric glands**. During the suckling period rennet is produced, which [illegible] the digestion of milk. The mucosal surface [illegible] by the presence of large **folds** (plicae spirales), which have a spiral orientation and do not disappear when the [illegible] tends. The musculature comprises an outer longitudinal and an inner circular layer.

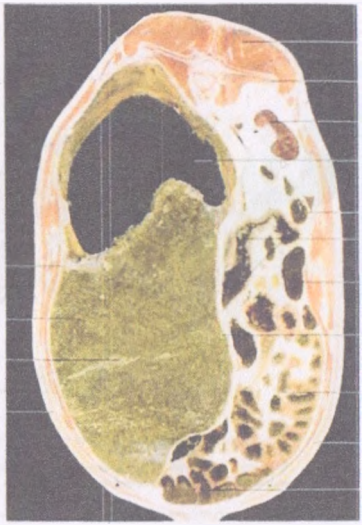
The position and relationship of the abomasum [illegible] variable and depend upon the fullness of the forestomach, their activities. Age and pregnancy are other factors affecting its topography, although there are limits to the variations beyond which deviations produce [illegible] turbance and may endanger life. Abomasal displacement, the left or right, is a well-recognised disorder [illegible] dairy cows.

Gastric groove (sulcus ventriculi)

The gastric groove consists of the reticular groove [illegible] the ruminoreticular compartment, the omasal groove in the omasum and the abomasal groove in the abomasum. The reticular groove extends from the oesophagus (Fig. 7-66) [illegible] which joins the forestomach at the junction of the reticulum, to the omasum, where it continues [illegible] nal to the abomasum. It is bounded by spiral [illegible] which reflexively contract in unweaned animals during suckling the teat to convert the groove into a [illegible] which channels the milk directly into the abomasum.

With continuing growth and change of diet [illegible] gimes this bypass is used less frequently. The [illegible] groove can be stimulated by certain chemicals, [illegible]

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Transverse section of a bovine abdomen at the level of the third lumbar vertebra (caudal aspect), courtesy of Prof. Dr. J. Soulet.

groove is desirable. A fold free hand along the lesser curvature of the abomasum is considered to be the third gastric groove.

The simple stomach of the other domestic mammals are derivatives of the **dorsal** and **ventral** mesogastrium. To understand the rather complex topography it is helpful to remember that the three compartments of the forestomach and the abomasum develop as outpocketings of the gastric spindle in the early embryo. The rumen is suspended from the roof of the abdominal cavity by the dorsal mesogastrium and is attached to the floor of the abdominal cavity by the ventral mesogastrium. The reticulum and most of the abomasum are attached to the **greater curvature**, the omasum and a part of the abomasum, from the **lesser curvature**. The **greater omentum** attaches to the rumen, omasum and to the abomasum (Fig. 7-77). The attachment to the oesophagus, passes caudally along the ventral groove through the caudal groove and then along the left longitudinal groove. It crosses the midline and widens to form a broad attachment to the rumen, bending sharply to the right, ventral to the cranial sac, to reach the greater curvature of the abomasum, follows the greater curvature to the pylorus, and then the mesoduodenum. The dorsal sac of the rumen lies in direct contact with the dorsal abdominal wall and the diaphragmatic crura. Thus it has a retroperitoneal position and does not have a dorsal mesentery.

The **lesser omentum** arises from the visceral surface of the liver, between the portal vein and the oesophageal impression, passes onto the right surface of the omasum, the lesser curvature of the abomasum and onto the duodenum. Similar to the lesser omentum in the other domestic mammals it can be divided into the hepatogastric and the hepatoduodenal ligament.

The omental sheets enclose the **omental bursa**, a capillary cleft, which is completely divided from the rest of the abdominal cavity, except at the epiploic foramen. The **epiploic foramen** is situated between the liver and the duodenum, between the caudal vena cava dorsally and the portal vein ventrally. The walls of the bursa are formed by the visceral and parietal sheets of the omenta similarly to as in the dog, with the exception that the right lateral border blends with the mesoduodenum, whereas on the left there is no direct communication between the two layers, but the rumen is interposed. Thus the deep sheet attaches to the right longitudinal groove and the superficial sheet to the left longitudinal groove of the rumen; the two meet in the caudal ruminal groove. The omasum, abomasum and lesser omentum form most of the cranial bursal wall.

The intestines are located in the space above the omental bursa and to the right of the rumen, which is known as the **supraomental recess** (recessus supraomentalis). It is open caudally and is often entered by the pregnant uterus (Fig. 7-76).

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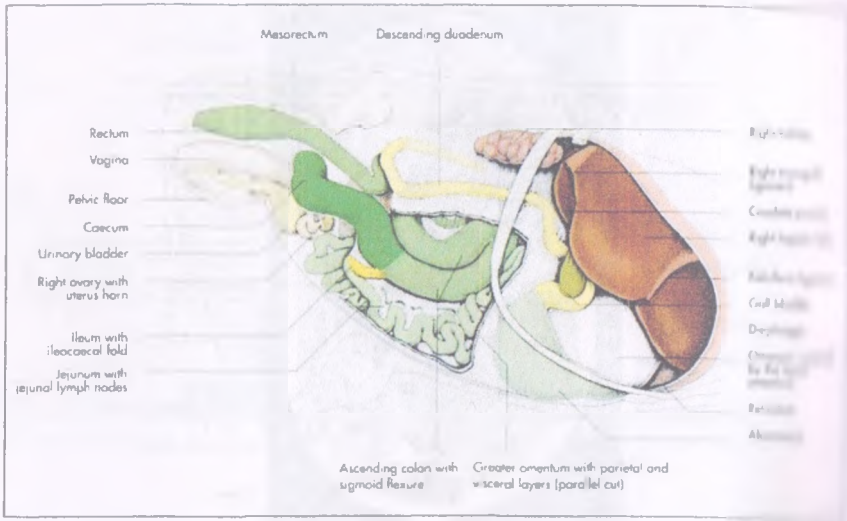


Fig. 7-77. Topography of the abdominal and pelvic organs of the ox (schematic, right lateral aspect, abdominal wall and greater omentum removed)

If the abdominal cavity is entered through an incision on the right flank, the descending duodenum is usually the only part of the gastrointestinal tract visible. The rest is covered by the mesoduodenum and the superficial wall of the greater omentum. Incising the latter leads into the omental bursa and exposes the deep wall of the greater omentum, which covers the intestines within the supraomental recess.

The **greater omentum** is an important store of fat, which usually renders the omentum opaque.

Blood supply

Similar to the simple stomach of the other domestic mammals, the **stomach of ruminants** is supplied by several branches of the **coeliac artery**. In addition to the three main branches of the coeliac artery present in animals with a simple stomach (a. lienalis, a. gastrica sinistra, a. hepatica), there is a **left** and **right ruminal artery** (a. ruminalis dextra et sinistra). The large right ruminal artery runs caudally in the right longitudinal groove and continues into the left longitudinal groove by passing between the dorsal and ventral blind sacs. It ends in an anastomosis with the left ruminal artery, which follows the cranial groove between the atrium and the ventral sac and caudally in the left longitudinal groove. Shortly after its origin the left ruminal artery extends the reticular artery to supply the reticulum.

The **omasum** and **abomasum** are supplied by the **gastric** and **gastroepiploic arteries**. The left gastric artery is a direct branch of the coeliac artery and passes on the right side of the rumen to the lesser curvature of the abomasum, where it eventually unites with the right gastric artery, which is a branch of the hepatic artery. The left gastroepiploic artery branches off the left gastric artery at the level of the omasum and runs along the greater curvature of the abomasum. Here it anastomoses with the right gastroepiploic artery coming from the hepatic artery.

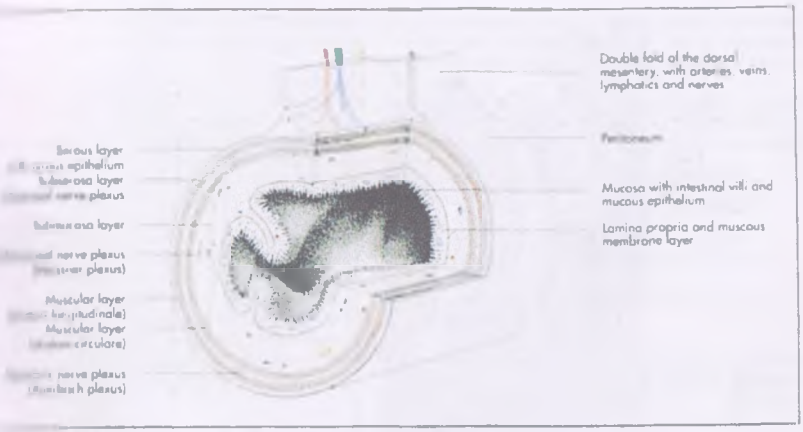
Thus, the abomasum is supplied by a **double ring of arteries**, which provide a direct connection between the hepatic and the left gastric arteries. The gastric arteries also extends branches to the omasum. The **veins** run parallel to the arteries and ultimately join the portal vein.

Innervation

Gastric innervation is achieved by **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic nerves**. The sympathetic fibres arise from the coeliac plexus and form the gastric plexus and the left ruminal plexus. The latter also detaches fibres to the reticulum and the spleen.

Parasympathetic fibres arise from the vagus nerve. The dorsal vagal trunk is extensively connected with the ruminal plexus, but also supplies direct branches to the omasum and right ruminal branches (ramus ruminalis dexter et sinister). Additional branches innervate the reticulum, the saccus ruminis, the omasum, the abomasum and the omasal groove. The ventral vagal trunk detaches branches to the saccus ruminis, reticulum, gastric groove, the lesser curvature of the abomasum and the pylorus. Additional branches innervate the liver and the duodenum.

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Schematic section through the intestine with dorsal mesentery (schematic)

drainage of the ruminal stomach is achieved by lymph nodes, which are scattered over the rumen particularly in the ruminal grooves and omasal structures. They belong to the **coeliac group of** (**hepatocentre**)

through these lymph nodes, the lymph leads large atrial (splenic) lymph nodes between the coeliac. The lymph nodes along the curvature direct their efferent vessels to the hepatic

groups of lymph nodes can be distin-

ruminal lymph nodes (lnn. ruminales in the left and right longitudinal groups,

ruminal lymph nodes (lnn. ruminales in the cranial ruminal groove,

lymph nodes (lnn. reticulares) on the dorsal surfaces of the reticulum,

lymph nodes (lnn. omasiales) on the of the omasum,

Ruminoatrial lymph nodes (lnn. ruminobetween the atrium

reticulum and abomasum,

Abomasial lymph nodes (lnn. abomasiales of the lesser curvature of the abomasum,

Abomasial lymph nodes (lnn. abomasiales not always present but may occur on the of the abomasum.

Intestine

The intestine is the caudal part of the alimentary canal. It commences at the pylorus and continues to the anus. It is divided into the **small intestine** (intestinum tenue) from the pylorus to the caecum and the **large intestine** (intestinum crassum) from the caecum to the anus. The diameter of these different parts do not always differ, as their names would suggest (Fig. 7-78ff.).

The **small intestine** comprises three parts:
- the duodenum,
- the jejunum and
- the ileum.

The **large intestine** consists of:
- the blind caecum,
- the colon and
- the rectum.

The total length of the intestine differs between species, breeds and even individuals. It is rather difficult to assess intestinal length in the living animal. Post mortem and after cessation of peristaltic contractions, the intestine increases in length. As a result of gastrointestinal adaption to the different diets and feeding habits, the intestinal tract of carnivores is rather short compared to the long intestines in herbivores. Generally the length of the intestine is considered to be five times the body length in carnivores, ten times the body length in the horse and 20 to 25 times the body length in ruminants.

Structure of the intestinal wall

The intestine like the other parts of the alimentary canal is composed of several layers (from the inside to the outside) (Fig. 7-78ff.):

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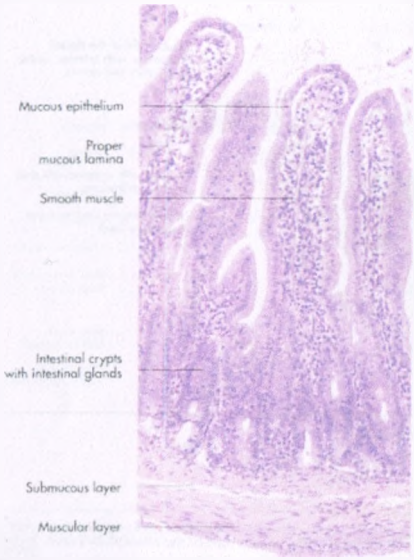


Fig. 7-79. Histological section of the jejunal wall of a cat, demonstrating intestinal villi and crypts.

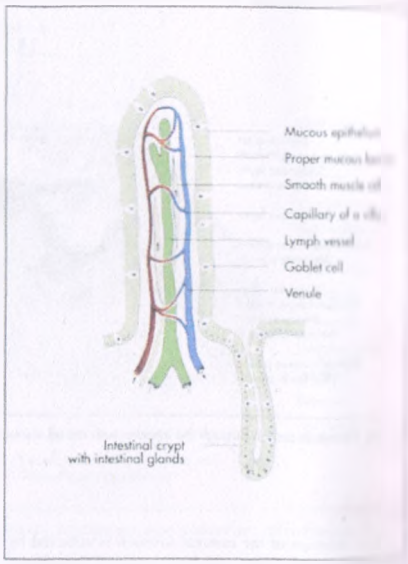


Fig. 7-80. Intestinal villi and crypts (schematic).

- mucosa (tunica mucosa),
- submucosa (tela submucosa),
- muscular layer (tunica muscularis) and
- peritoneum (serosa seu lamina visceralis).

The single-layered **epithelium of the mucosa** consists of **columnar cells**, which function in absorption and interspersed goblet cells that produce mucous. Throughout the alimentary canal the propria mucosa is occupied largely by the straight, tubular **intestinal glands** (glandulae intestinales) (Fig. 7-78, 79 and 80). In the small intestine the surface of the mucosa is considerably increased by the presence of innumerable **intestinal villi** (villi intestinales). These densely packed, finger-like projections give the luminal surface of the small intestine its characteristic velvety look. The increase in surface area that this provides is essential for the absorptive functions of this part of the gastrointestinal tract.

Microscopic **intestinal glands** (crypts) open to the surface between the bases of villi. Absorption is facilitated by the fact that each villus has its own arteriole which resolves in a capillary net at the free end of the villus, which in turn drains into a venule at the base of the villus. This microsystem is complemented by lymphatic capillaries, which drain the products of fat digestion.

The **mucosa of the large intestine** differs from that of the small intestine in that there are **no intestinal villi**. The intestinal glands of the large intestine are longer, straighter, richer in goblet cells, which produce the mucus necessary to ensure a smooth passage of the gut contents. Its most important function is the re-absorption of water and thus the dehydration of its faecal contents. In the horse, however, most absorption mechanisms are located in the large bowel. Further details can be found in histology and physiology textbooks. Similar to the stomach the capillaries are arranged in a subepithelial honeycomb-shaped network.

The **lymphatic tissue** of the intestinal wall is the first line of defence against microorganisms, which may penetrate into the body from the intestines. It is present as scattered lymphocytes in the mucosa, forms **single follicles** (lymphonodi solitarii) or may aggregate to form **Peyer patches**.

Peyer's patches are visible on the free surface of the gut as irregularly raised plaques or bands, ranging in length from a few millimetres to more than 25 cm in the ox. They are particularly well developed in the ileum and extend into the large bowel of the horse and ruminants. In the pig they are found in the jejunum and in the ileum. In the dog single follicles are especially numerous in the apex of the caecum.

The **submucosa** consists of loose connective tissue containing smaller blood vessels, lymphatics, lymph follicles and a nerve plexus located in it. In addition to the intestinal glands of the mucosa, tubular duodenal glands are found in the submucosa of the proximal part of the small intestine. The

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plexus are also known collectively as Meissner plexus ... supply the intramural glands, smooth muscle fibres and ... cells.

muscular layer (tunica muscularis) consists of a rela... thin outer longitudinal layer and a thicker inner circular ... At the anus the circular layer is modified to form the **in...nal anal sphincter** (m. sphincter ani internus). In the horse ... the outer muscular layer is mainly concentrated in ... of bands (**taeniae**). Shortening of these taeniae re... in the formation of linear sacculations (**haustra**).

dorsal layer of the intestine is provided by the vis... part of the peritoneum. Extending from the dorsal body ... double sheets of the **connecting serosa (mesentery)** ... to cover the intestine. The mesentery serves as a ... for blood vessels and nerves and contains lymph nodes.

Lymph vessels from the intestines drain into the fol... lymph nodes: portal lymph nodes, pancreaticoduode... nodes, cranial mesenteric lymph nodes, caecal ... nodes, jejunal lymph nodes, colic lymph nodes, ano... lymph nodes.

...ervation of the intestine

... receives both sympathetic and parasympathetic ... The nervous system of the intestine comprises a com... plexus of intramural ganglia, which form plexus in the ... layers of the intestinal wall. The submucosa con... the **submucosal nerve plexus (Meissner plexus)** and ... plexus is located between the two layers of the **mus...** layer, the **myenteric plexus (Auerbach plexus)** (Fig. ... Both plexi are connected to the prevertebral ganglia of ... abdominal cavity by a fine subserous network of nerve fi... These plexi are under the control of the parasympathet... and sympathetic systems, but they are independently ... responsible for the apparently spontaneous muscular ... activity of the gut.

...d supply of the intestine

... blood supply to the intestines is mainly provided by the ... and **caudal mesenteric arteries** (a. mesenterica crani... a. caudalis) (Fig. 7-85ff. and Fig. 12-29), with the excep... of the proximal part of the duodenum, which is supplied by ... cranial branch of the **coeliac artery** (a. coeliaca) and the ... last part of the rectum, which is supplied by the rectal ... of the internal pudendal artery (a. pudenda interna). ... the details of branching vary between species and ... individuals, the cranial mesenteric artery divides into ... main branches:

- ... artery (a. jejunalis),
- ... artery (a. ileocolica),
- ... colic artery (a. colica media).

... of the **jejunal artery** passes to the left and di... into numerous jejunal arteries, which run in the mesen... to the jejunum. Shortly before reaching the jeju... they anastomose with each other forming arcades. From ... arcades branches are detached to the mesenteric surface ... intestinal wall. The richness of anastomoses ensures that ... tissue will normally survive the complete obstruction of one of the jejunal vessel. The first jejunal artery detaches the caudal pancreaticoduodenal artery; the last of the jejunal arteries anastomoses with the mesenterial ileal branch of the ileocolic artery.

After originating from the cranial mesenteric artery the **ileocolic artery** passes to the right and supplies the ileum, caecum and the ascending colon with the following branches:

- mesenteric and antimesenteric ileal branch (ramus ilei mesenterialis et antimesenterialis) of the ileum,
- lateral and medial caecal artery (a. caecalis lateralis et medialis) of the caecum,
- colic branch (ramus colicus) of the proximal part of the ascending colon and
- right colic artery (a. colica dextra) of the distal part of the ascending colon.

In the horse the right colic artery supplies the dorsal part of the colon and is therefore referred to as **dorsal colic artery** (a. colica dorsalis), while the blood supply of the ventral colon is provided by the colic branch, which is referred to as **ventral colic artery** (a. colica ventralis). The two colic arteries form an anastomosis at the pelvic flexure of the colon.

The middle colic artery is the third branch of the cranial mesenteric artery and provides the blood supply for the transverse colon. It anastomoses with the ileocolic artery via the right colic artery and with the caudal mesenteric artery via the left colic artery.

Not only does the cranial mesenteric artery provide the blood supply for a large part of the intestine, it also has an important function in supporting the intestine. The soft-tissue connection of the aorta to the spine by the adventitia provides a form of suspension from the dorsal body wall to the cranial mesenteric artery. At the same time the blood pressure within the intestinal arteries render these quite inflexible, similar to a garden hose under pressure, which provides an additional means of fixation for the abdominal organs. This is a particularly important mechanism in the horse, in which the intestine is very mobile due to its relatively long mesentery. It is hypothesised that a change in blood pressure, e.g. by parasitic infestation of the arterial walls, can lead to intestinal displacement and thus cause colic in the horse.

The smaller **caudal mesenteric artery** originates from the abdominal aorta shortly before it reaches its terminal branch. Its distribution is restricted to the descending colon and the proximal part of the rectum. It divides into the **left colic artery** (a. colica sinistra) and the **cranial rectal artery** (a. rectalis cranialis). The left colic artery passes cranially within the mesentery of the descending colon and detaches small branches to the mesenterial surface of the descending colon. The cranial rectal artery supplies the cranial part of the rectum.

The **veins** are mainly parallel to the arteries and join to form the **cranial** and **caudal mesenteric veins**. These veins are two of the main supplies of the **portal vein**, with the splenic vein being the third. The veins of the caudal part of the rectum and the anal region join the **caudal vena cava**. The **portal vein** receives the venous blood from the distribution of the coeliac, cranial and caudal mesenteric arteries. Thus, it collects the venous blood from all **unpaired abdominal organs** except for the terminal rectum.

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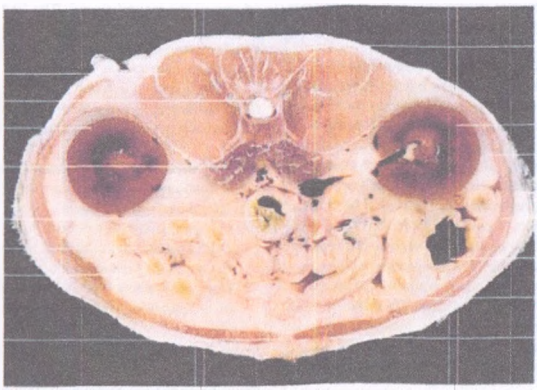


Fig. 7-81. Transverse section of a feline abdomen (caudal aspect). Konig, 1992



Fig. 7-82. Luminal surface of the duodenal mucosa of a horse

Small intestine (intestinum tenue)

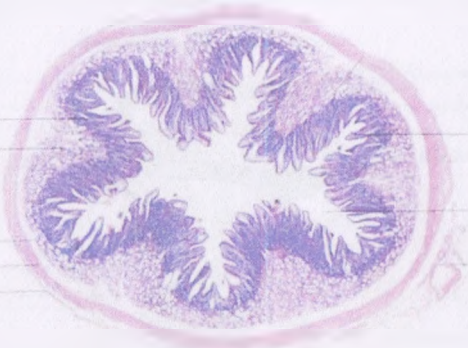
The main functions of the small intestine are digestion and absorption. Digestion is defined as the enzymatic destruction of ingested material into particles ready for absorption. Both the pancreatic and the bile ducts open into the small intestine: pancreas secretion is the major source of the enzymes, and the bile is responsible for the emulsification of fat essential for digestion.

The **mucosal epithelium** consists mainly of columnar cells, which function in absorption, mucus production and endocrine function, and control pancreatic secretion and muscular function of the gall bladder and the intestinal walls (Fig. 7-79 and 80). The mucosa is rich in lymphoid follicles, which aggregate to form **Peyer patches** (Fig. 7-80). The small intestine begins at the pylorus and ends at the [illegible] junction. It consists of three main parts (Fig. 7-80):

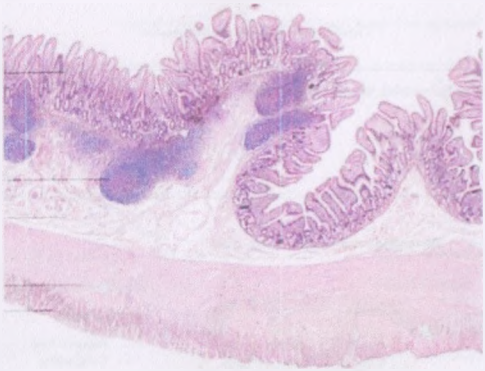
- duodenum,
- jejunum,
- ileum.

The **small intestine** is connected to the dorsal [illegible] wall by the **dorsal mesentery** over its whole length. The mesentery is **relatively long** for the most part and gives a great degree of mobility to the small intestine. However, in the horse and in ruminants the duodenum is fixed in position by a **short mesoduodenum**.

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84 Histological section of the duodenum of a cat; Liebich, 2004



83 Histological section of the ileum of a dog

...um is the proximal part of the small intestine. ...from the pyloric part of the stomach to the jeju... (Fig. 7-85ff.). The duodenum can be subdivided into:

- ...nial portion (pars cranialis duodeni),
- ...duodenal flexure (flexura duodeni cranialis),
- ...ending portion (pars descendens duodeni),
- ...odenal flexure (flexura duodeni caudalis),
- ...known as transverse portion (pars transversa),
- ...ding portion (pars ascendens) and
- ...enojejunal flexure (flexura duodenojejunalis).

The initial portion continues from the pylorus of the stomach and passes toward the right abdominal wall before deflecting caudally to descend to the pelvic inlet. It then passes medially around the cranial root of the mesentery before ascending cranially for a short distance. It ends by bending ventrally, where it is continued as the jejunum.

Unlike in humans where the extent of the duodenum is defined over the presence of the duodenal glands, the caudal end of the duodenum is marked by the cranial border of the **duodenocolic fold** (plica duodenocolica) (Fig. 7-85ff.). The duodenum is attached to the abdominal roof by the mesoduodenum, the cranial part of the mesentery, which is relatively short in the horse and in ruminants, but longer in carnivores and the pig (Fig. 7-85ff.). The long mesoduodenum together

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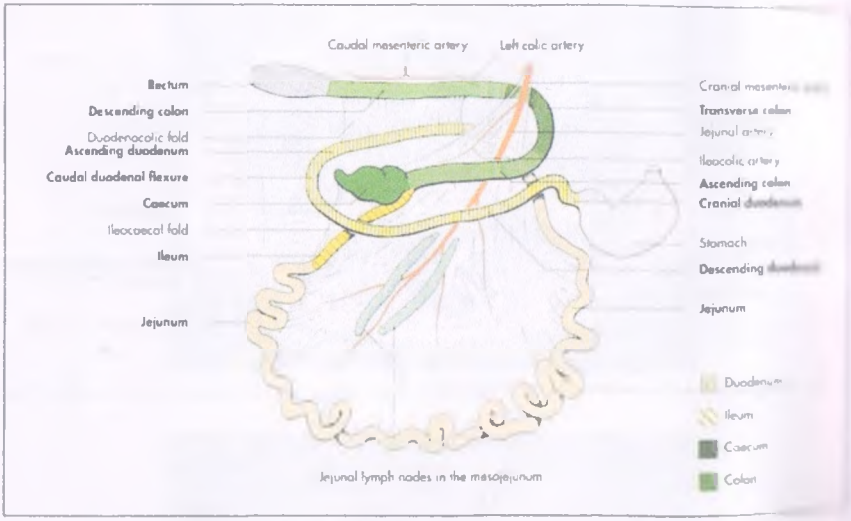


Fig. 7-85. Intestinal tract of the dog (schematic), after Ghetie, 1958

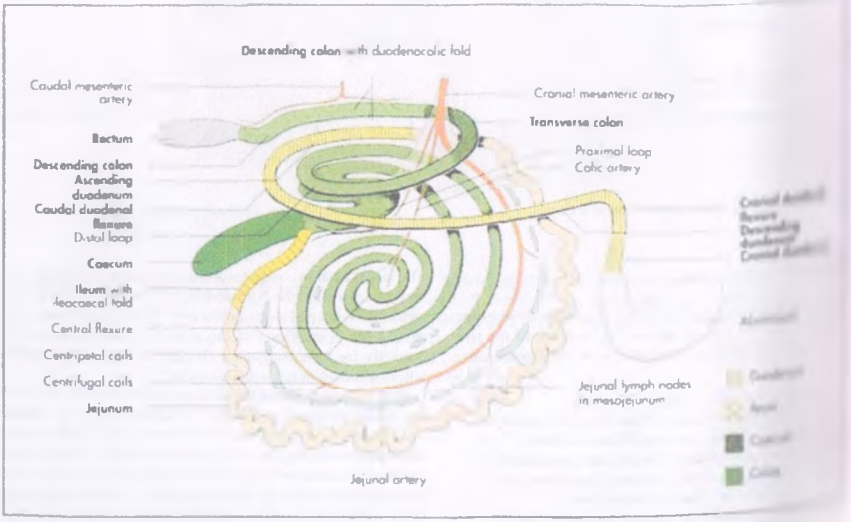
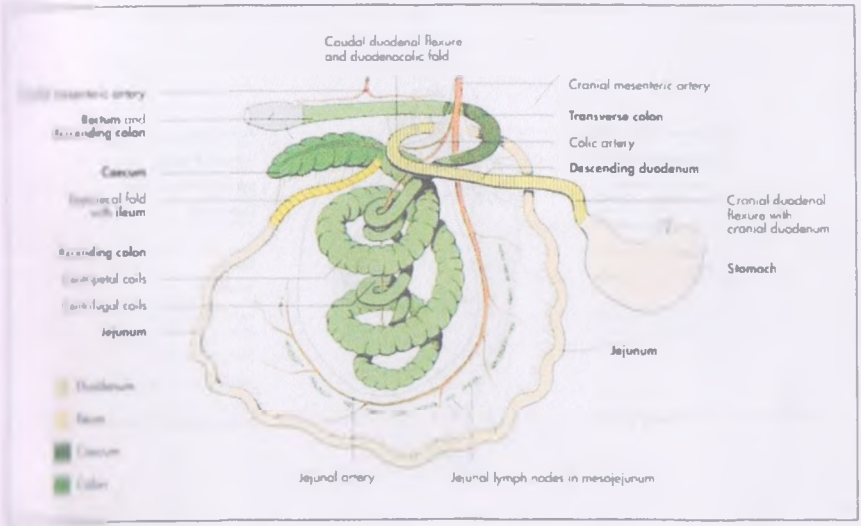
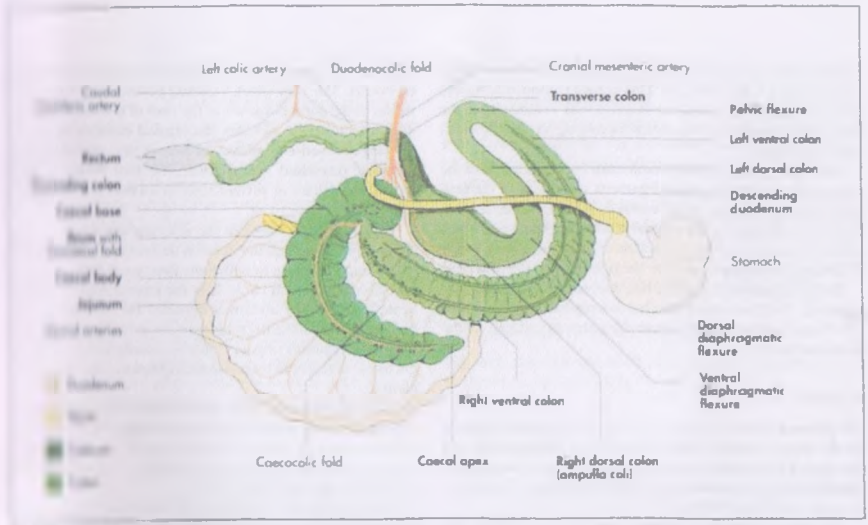


Fig. 7-86. Intestinal tract of the ox (schematic), after Ghetie, 1958

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87 Intestinal tract of the pig (schematic); after Ghetie, 1958.



88 Intestinal tract of the horse (schematic); after Ghetie, 1958.

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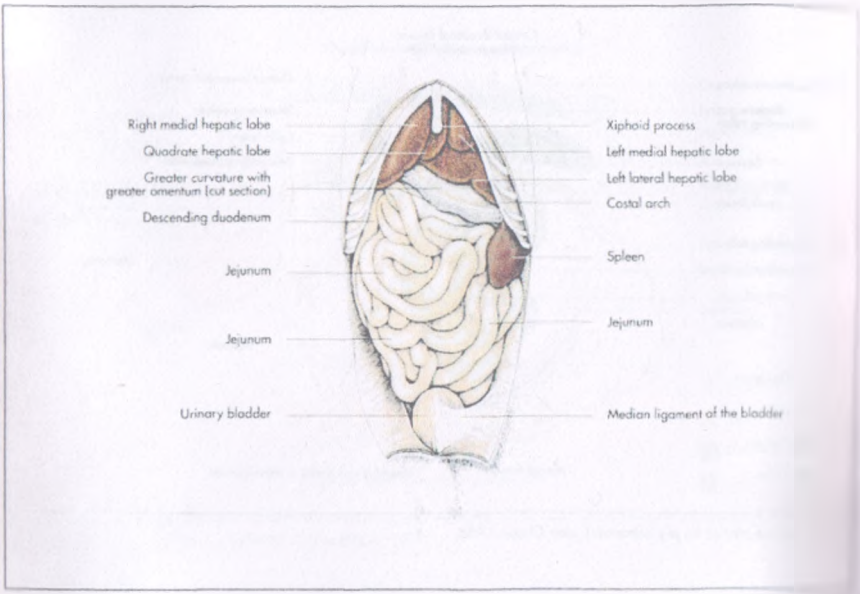


Fig. 7-89. Abdominal organs of the dog in situ (schematic, ventral aspect, greater omentum removed)

with the rather extensive lesser omentum allows a great range of movement to the stomach. This is held responsible for the high prevalence of gastric torsions (torsio ventriculi) in the dog, a life-threatening condition occurring in middle sized and large breeds.

The **cranial part of the duodenum** is connected with the liver by the **hepatoduodenal ligament**, a remnant of the ventral mesentery present in the embryo. Within the hepatoduodenal ligament passes the **common bile duct** (ductus choledochus) from the liver to the duodenum. The mesentery of the descending duodenum includes the right lobe of the pancreas.

Both the pancreatic and the bile ducts open into the duodenum (Fig. 7-82). (A more detailed description is given within this chapter in the section about the accessory glands of the intestinal tract.)

Jejunum

The jejunum is the longest part of the small intestine between the duodenum and the ileum. It is also the **most mobile** and free part of the entire alimentary canal, due to the **long mesojejunum** which suspends the jejunum and ileum from the abdominal roof (Fig. 7-85ff.).

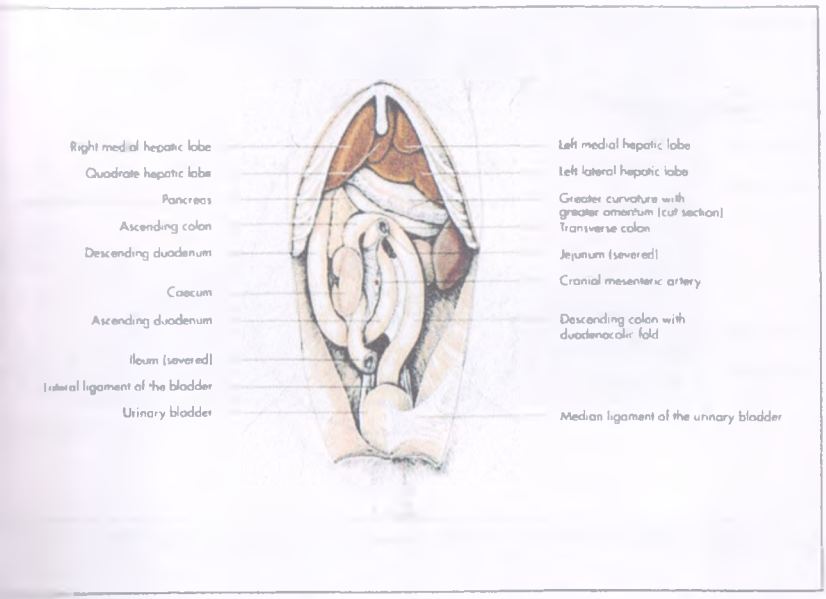
The **mesojejunum** is continuous with the mesoileum and has the form of a large fan hanging from the abdominal roof with the convoluted jejunum and ileum located [illegible] tal border. The very short, bunched portion with [illegible] taches to the aorta is known as the **root of the** [illegible] dix mesenterii). It includes the **cranial mesenteric** [illegible] the **large mesenteric plexus of nerves** that [illegible] tery and **intestinal lymphatics**. The free [illegible] longer and folded or ruffled since it follows the [illegible] intestine.

The distinction between the jejunum and [illegible] arbitrarily chosen and the ileum is defined at the [illegible] of the small intestine to which the **ileocaecal fold** [illegible] caecahs) attaches. In carnivores the jejunal [illegible] ventral part of the abdomen between the [illegible] bladder, lying on the deep layer of the greater [illegible] long mesojejunum imposes little restraint [illegible] gut to move freely in response to respiratory [illegible] ments.

In the pig the jejunum is also suspended by [illegible] tery and its coils share the caudoventral part [illegible] with the mass of the ascending colon. Since [illegible] largely in the left half of the abdominal [illegible] lies more to the right (Fig. 7-87).

In ruminants the large rumen occupies the [illegible] abdomen, thus pushing the intestines to the right (Fig. [illegible] 77). The position of the jejunal coils depends on [illegible]

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Abdominal organs of the dog in situ (schematic, ventral aspect, greater omentum and jejunal coils removed); after Dyce, Sack and [illegible]

[illegible] and the size of the uterus. Usually it lies, together [illegible] ending colon, within the supraorbital recess, but [illegible] may also be found behind the rumen against the [illegible]. In ruminants and the pig the ascending colon is [illegible] to the right surface of the mesojejunum. [illegible] is generously spread throughout the mucosa, [illegible] solitary and aggregated nodules occur. Aggregated [illegible] form large (up to 25 cm long) **Peyer's patches** and [illegible] identified by their irregular surface. Usually one of [illegible] extends through the ileum into the large intes-

[illegible] most of the jejunum is found within the left [illegible] of the abdomen. A considerable degree of mobility [illegible] the jejunum by its long mesentery (Fig. 7-88), [illegible] responsible for the high prevalence of displace- [illegible] through the **epiploic foramen** into the [illegible] and for other conditions, such as invaginations [illegible] which can lead to colic.

[illegible] rather short terminal part of the small intes- [illegible] between the jejunum and the ileum is de- [illegible] ileal extent of the **Brocaecal fold** (plica ileo- [illegible] 7-88 f.). It ends at the ileocaecocolic junction with the **ileal opening** on the **ileal papilla**, the exact location varying between the different domestic mammals (Fig. 7-92).

It is more muscular and hence firmer than the jejunum and the mucosa is rich in lymphoid tissue, which aggregate to form **Peyer's patches**. The well-developed muscular layer is responsible for the uni-directional transportation of the ingesta into the caecum.

In the horse, dysfunction of the nervous supply to the ileum leads to a permanent contraction of the muscular coat of the ileum, which can result in impaction and thus colic. On rectal palpation a characteristic finding is the firm ileum passing from the left-ventral part of the abdomen right-dorsally.

Large intestine (intestinum crassum)

The large intestine can be divided into the following parts in all domestic mammals (Fig. 7-85ff.):

- **caecum**,
- **colon**, which is further subdivided into:
  - ascending colon (colon ascendens),
  - transverse colon (colon transversum),
  - descending colon (colon descendens) and
- **rectum**.

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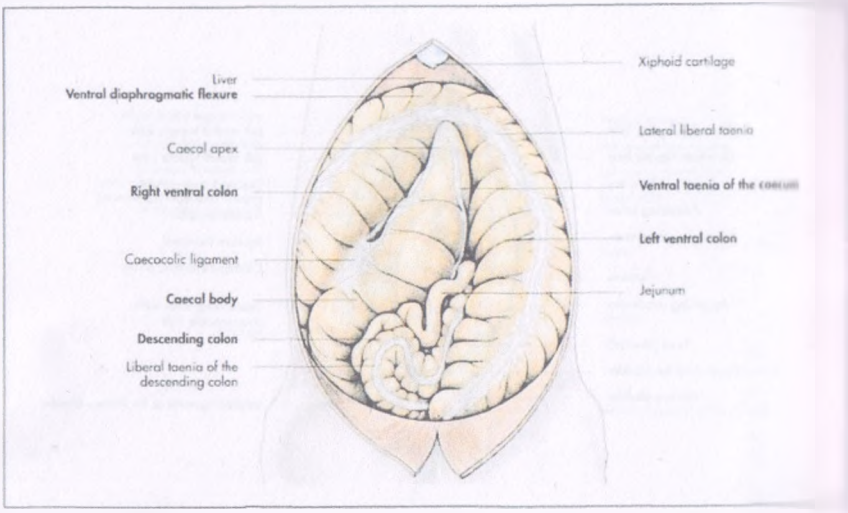


Fig. 7-91. Caecum and colon of the horse in situ, ventral aspect (schematic), after Ghetie, Postea and Riga, 1955

Caecum

The caecum is usually described as the first part of the large intestine. It is a blind tube, which is demarcated from the colon by the entrance of the ileum (Fig. 7-85II , 90 and 91). It communicates with the ileum through the **ileal orifice** (ostium ileale) and with the colon through the **caecocolic orifice** (ostium caecocolicum).

The vermiform apex of man is **not present** in the domestic mammals.

In carnivores, ruminants and in the horse the caecum lies in the right half of the abdomen, in the pig it is on the left. It is attached to the ileum by the **ileocaecal fold** (plica ileocaecalis), which defines the proximal extent of the ileum. In the dog the caecum is short and is drawn into a spiral. Unlike the other domestic mammals, it does not have a direct communication with the ileum, but joins the colon, which forms a continuous tube with the ileum, to one side.

In the cat the caecum is even shorter and has the shape of a comma.

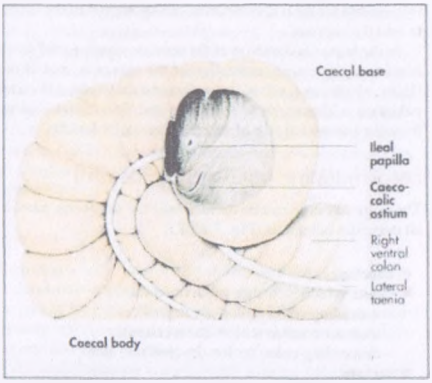


Fig. 7-92. Ileal papilla and caecocolic ostium in the horse (schematic)

Caecum of the horse

The caecum of the horse has an enormous capacity of 30 l and is on average about 1 m long. It consists of a base (caput caeci) dorsally, a curved tapering **body** (corpus caeci) and a blind-ending **apex** (apex caeci) (Fig. 7-88 and 91II.).

The **base** lies in the right dorsal part of the abdomen in contact with the abdominal roof in the lumbar region, where it forms a retroperitoneal attachment. The caecocolic orifice is a transverse slit formed by a constriction of the caecum and colon. In the dead specimen it admits only couple of fingers, while in the living animal it will generally allow the passage of a hand.

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Large intestine of a horse

...opens on the **ileal papilla** (papilla ilealis) (Fig. ... a conical projection including the **ileal sphincter** (m. ... fibers) and a **venous plexus**, which control the ileal ... Based on its embryologic development the base of ... is actually the initial part of the ascending colon. ... the term **ileal orifice** (ostium ileale) is used in the ... even though the ileum leads directly into the caecum ... does not open on the the border to the ascending colon, as ... in the other domestic animals (except in the dog). The ... junction is marked by the **caecocolic orifice** (ostium ... coli).

... the body of the caecum lies against the **right** ... but as it runs cranioventrally it also passes more medi... to the ventral parts of the ascending colon. It ter... with the apex close to the xiphoid cartilage on the ... abdominal floor.

The **longitudinal layer** of the muscular layer is concentrated into bands visible on the external surface as **taenia**, between which the cecal wall is ruffled into four **rows of sacculations** (haustra). There are **four taenia** over most of the caecum: a medial, lateral, dorsal and ventral band, but the number decreases towards the apex (Fig. 7-91 and 94).

Blood vessels and **lymph nodes** are located along the medial and lateral taenia. The dorsal band provides attachment for the **ileocaecal fold** (plica ileocaecalis), which extends between the caecum and the ileum; the lateral band to the **caecocolic fold** (plica caecocolica) extending between the caecum and the ascending colon. The ventral band remains free. The ... character of each taenia provides important anatomic ... as do the varying numbers of taenia of the co... during surgery. The interior is marked by numerous folds, ... to the external divisions of the haustra.

... the caecum is responsible for the digestion of ... carbohydrates such as cellulose. The ingesta are transported into the colon, while reflux into the ileum is prevented by the ileal papilla. The regular transportation of ingesta from the ileum into the caecum can be heard on auscultation of the right dorsal quadrant of the caudal abdomen, which is done in the assessment of colic. Disorders of caecal function may result in impaction or gas distension, which are a common cause of colic in the horse.

Caecum of the pig and ruminants

The caecum of the pig is a cylindrical blind sac, which lies in the left half of the abdomen with its apex pointing caudoventrally. It has **three longitudinal muscle bands** (taeniae) with **three rows of sacculations** (haustra) between them. The ventral band provides attachment to the ileocaecal fold; the lateral and medial bands remains free. The relatively small caecum of ruminants is rather featureless and has neither taenia nor haustra (Fig. 7-77 and 86). It is located in the right half of the abdomen within the supraomental recess with its blind apex pointing caudally.

Colon

Following human anatomic nomenclature the colon (Fig. 7-85ff.) is divided into three parts:

- ascending colon (colon ascendens),
- transverse colon (colon transversum),
- descending colon (colon descendens).

The anatomical arrangement which forms the base of this division is only found in dogs and cats. In these species the short ascending colon passes cranially on the right; the transverse colon runs from right to left, cranial to the root of the

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mesentery. The long descending colon passes left of the mesenteric root caudally, where on reaching the pelvic cavity it continues as the rectum. In the other domestic mammals the form and topography of the colon is more complex, with the ascending colon showing the greatest modifications.

Colon of the horse

The colon of the horse consists of a large ascending colon, which is arranged in two U-shaped loops laying on top of each other, a short transverse colon and a long descending colon. Due to the considerable difference in diameter the first two portions are also referred to as the "large colon", the third as the "small colon" (Fig. 7-88, 91, 93 and 90).

Ascending colon (colon ascendens)

The ascending colon can be subdivided into four parallel limbs connected by three flexures with the following proximo-distal sequence:

- right ventral colon (colon ventrale dextrum),
- sternal flexure (flexura diaphragmatica ventralis),
- left ventral colon (colon ventrale sinistrum),
- pelvic flexure (flexura pelvina),
- left dorsal colon (colon dorsale sinistrum),
- diaphragmatic flexure (flexura diaphragmatica dorsalis),
- right dorsal colon (colon dorsale dextrum)

The ascending colon begins with the **right ventral colon** at the **caecocolic orifice**. The right ventral colon continues cranioventrally almost parallel to the right costal angle. On reaching the xiphoid region it is deflected across the midline as the **sternal flexure** and passes caudally as the **left ventral colon** on the abdominal floor towards the pelvis. Just cranial to the pelvic inlet it forms the **pelvic flexure** by turning about 360 degree dorsally, after which it continues as the **left dorsal colon**. The left dorsal colon runs cranially again on top of the left dorsal colon towards the diaphragm, where it joins the right dorsal colon at the **diaphragmatic flexure**. The **right dorsal colon** is the shortest, but widest part of the ascending colon and runs first caudally until it is deflected medially to become the transverse colon.

The different portions of the ascending colon can not only be distinguished by their topography, but have other characteristic features, which are important for the identification of the different parts during laparotomy. The right and the left ventral colon are characterised by **four bands** (taeniae) with **four rows of sacculations** (haustra) between them (Fig. 7-94). The lateral and medial mesocolic bands (taenia mesocolica lateralis et medialis) run on the dorsal surface and provide attachment to the mesocolon.

The medial band also conveys blood vessels, nerves and lymphatics. Numerous lymph nodes are located along this band and at the caudal part of the right ventral colon the caecocolic fold attaches to it. The other two bands are found on the ventral surface and are mainly composed of soft tissue rich in elastic fibres. It is hypothesised that the ventral bands have mainly a supporting function, while the dorsal ones, being rich in muscle fibres and nervous tissue, are responsible for contraction.

At the junction to the pelvic flexure three of the four bands disappear and the **pelvic flexure** and the following left dorsal colon have only **one mesocolic longitudinal band**. The pelvic flexure is also distinguished by a marked reduction in diameter and it marks the boundary between two functional units of the colon (Fig. 7-88 and 94).

In the **ventral parts of the colon** many important digestion and absorption mechanisms take place, while the dorsal parts of the colon play only a minor role in digestion but are mainly responsible for transportation of the ingesta. The reduction in diameter together with the sudden change in direction and the decrease in the fluidity of the ingesta render the location predisposed for impaction. The left dorsal part is narrow, but widens gradually. Close to the diaphragmatic flexure two additional bands appear on the dorsal surface. Thus the **diaphragmatic flexure** and the right dorsal colon are marked by **three bands**, two on the dorsal and one on the ventral surface with relatively indistinct rows of sacculations between them (Fig. 7-91). These taeniae are responsible for the transportation of the ingesta into the transverse colon.

The **right dorsal colon** is by far the widest part of the colon and is therefore also referred to as the **ampulla coli**. It is a common site for enteroliths, which can reach football size and may lead to obstruction of the transverse colon, causing colic.

The **dorsal attachment** of the ascending colon is formed to the right dorsal colon, which is adherent to the abdominal roof, the base of the caecum, the root of the mesentery and the pancreas. This anatomical arrangement allows the left ascending colon to twist around its common axis (**colonic torsion**), which causes severe colic symptoms and requires immediate surgical correction.

The **ventral parts of the colon** are connected to the dorsal parts by the mesocolon, which includes blood vessels, nerves and lymph nodes (lnn. colici).

Transverse colon (colon transversum)

The short transverse colon passes from the right to the left cranial to the root of the mesentery. It is marked by two taeniae and rapidly funnels to the diameter of the descending colon (Fig. 7-88), which succeeds the transverse colon at the hilus of the left kidney. The transverse colon is involved in the dorsal attachment of the right dorsal colon.

Descending colon (colon descendens)

The descending colon is similar to the jejunum in diameter and between 2 – 4 m long. It is also suspended by a long mesentery (mesocolon descendens), but can be distinguished from the mesojejunum by its higher content of fat. The descending colon carries two bands, the antimesenterial taenia and the mesenterial taenia, to which the mesocolon attaches. The two prominent bands draw the descending colon into four rows of distinct sacculations, which are occupied by the characteristic faecal balls of this species (Fig. 7-88).

Colon of the pig

The colon of the pig is divided into the usual three parts with the transverse and descending colon being similar to the simple arrangement found in dogs (Fig. 7-87). The ascending colon however is greatly elongated and coiled in form

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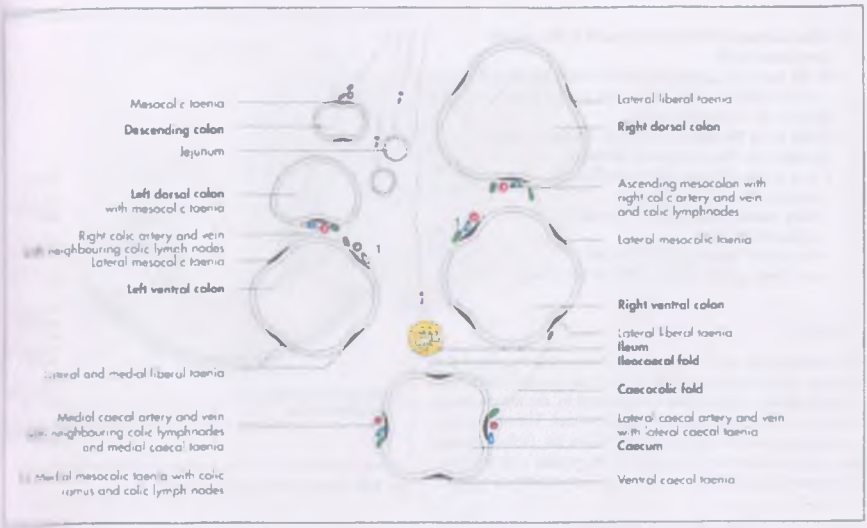


Fig. 7.84. Transverse sections of the colon in the horse (schematic, caudal aspect), after Habel, 1978

...-shaped organ. The base of this cone is attached to the ... root in the left half of the abdomen and the apex ... ventrally, its exact position is dependant on the degree of filling of the stomach.

After originating from the caecum ventral to the left kidney, the ascending colon forms **centripetal turns** passing ... (viewed from above) to the apex of the cone. It ... reverses forming the **central flexure** (flexura centralis), ... returns to the base in tight counterclockwise turns. The ... turns are located on the outside of the cone, the **centrifugal turns** are located inside the cone covered by ... ones. The centripetal ones are marked by two bands ... rows of sacculations between them, which are not ... in the centrifugal turns.

Colon of the ruminants

The colon is divided into the usual ascending, transverse and ... parts (Fig. 7.86). The ascending colon is by far ... part and has a characteristic spiral arrangement.

After leaving the caecum the ascending colon forms a **... flexure** (ansa proximalis coli), the first part being ... convex, the second caudally convex. It then narrows ... ventrally to form a double **spiral** (ansa spiralis). ... is in contact with the left side of the mesentery (Fig. 7-... **Two centripetal turns** (gyri) are reversed in the **central** ... of the spiral and succeeded by **two centrifugal turns** ... There are three centripetal turns in the sheep and ... the goat, followed by the same number of centrifugal ... The centrifugal turns of small ruminants have a pearl-string appearance due to the segmented contents characteristic of the faeces of these species. In small ruminants the last centrifugal turn spirals away from the coil to come close to the jejunum, surrounding the jejunal lymph nodes. While the whole spiral has the form of a flat disk in the ox, it is arranged to form a low cone in the small ruminants.

After the last centrifugal loop of the spiral the ascending colon continues into a **distal loop** (ansa distalis coli) which carries it first towards and then away from the pelvis to join the transverse colon. The **short transverse colon** crosses the midline cranial to the mesenteric root and continues caudally as the descending colon. This part of the colon is usually embedded in fat and fused to adjacent parts of the intestine. Before joining the rectum at the pelvic inlet it forms a sigmoid flexure, the looseness of which allows a considerable range of movement to the hand of the examiner during rectal palpation.

Intestinal landmarks

- The mesentery of the descending duodenum always includes the right part of the pancreas.
- The caudal flexure of the duodenum surrounds the cranial mesenteric root caudally.
- The duodenocolic fold (plica duodenocolica) marks the distal end of the duodenum and extends to the descending colon.
- The ileocaecal fold marks the length of the ileum and extends to the caecum (in the horse it attaches to the dorsal band).

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- The transverse colon passes cranial to the cranial mesenteric root;
- In the horse the caecocolic fold extends between the caecum and the caudal part of the medial mesocolic band of the left ventral colon.
- In the horse the different parts of the colon can be identified by the numbers of taenia:
  - four bands: left and right ventral colon, sternal flexure,
  - three bands: diaphragmatic flexure, right dorsal colon,
  - two bands: descending colon and
  - one band: pelvic flexure, left dorsal colon.

Rectum

By entering the pelvis the descending colon becomes the rectum, which passes caudally as the most dorsal of the pelvic viscera. Most of the rectum is suspended by the mesorectum, but the terminal part is wholly retroperitoneal. The retroperitoneal space is filled with soft tissue rich in fat. Before joining the short anal canal, which opens to the outside with the anus, it becomes dilatated to form the rectal ampulla (Fig. 7-85 L).

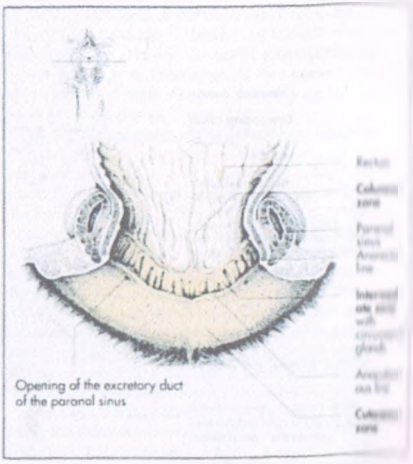


Fig. 7-95. Anal canal in a dog (schematic)

Anal canal and adjacent structures

The short anal canal is the terminal part of the alimentary canal, which opens to the outside with the anus. The anus is controlled by the internal and external anal sphincters. The internal sphincter consists of smooth muscle and is a modification of the circular layer of the muscle coat of the rectum; the external sphincter is striated muscle arising from the caudal vertebrae. At the anus the columnar intestinal epithelium is replaced by the stratified cutaneous epithelium of the skin.

In **carnivores** the mucosa of the anal canal is divided into three consecutive annular zones (Fig. 7-95). These are from cranial to caudal:

- columnar zone (zona columnaris),
- intermediate zone (zona intermedia),
- cutaneous zone (zona cutanea).

The **columnar zone** is the first zone following the rectum, the division of the two marked by the indistinct anorectal line. Its mucosa has a stratified squamous epithelium and is rich in lymphoid tissue. It is arranged in **longitudinal folds** (columnae anales) with grooves (sinus anales) between them.

The **intermediate zone** has the form of a sharp-edged scalloped fold, which is divided into four arcs. It ends at the anocutaneous line. The anal glands are tubuloalveolar glands, which produce a fatty secretion and open to the outside in the columnar and intermediate zones.

The **cutaneous zone** surrounds the anus and its extent varies with the size of the underlying circumanal glands, which grow throughout life. The excretory ducts of anal sacs open on the surface of the cutaneous zone.

The **anal sacs** (sinus paranales) are pea-to-marble-sized sacs located between the inner smooth and the outer striated sphincter muscle of the anus. Their walls contain the glands of the **anal sac** (glandulae sacci paranales), which are composed of large, coiled apocrine tubules. These glands discharge their foul-smelling, serous-to-pasty secretion into the anal sacs, which functions in territorial scent marking.

The anal sacs are of considerable clinical importance since they are commonly diseased in the dog. They frequently become enlarged, due to accumulated secretion or may become abscessed and painful, causing constipation.

Glands associated with the alimentary canal

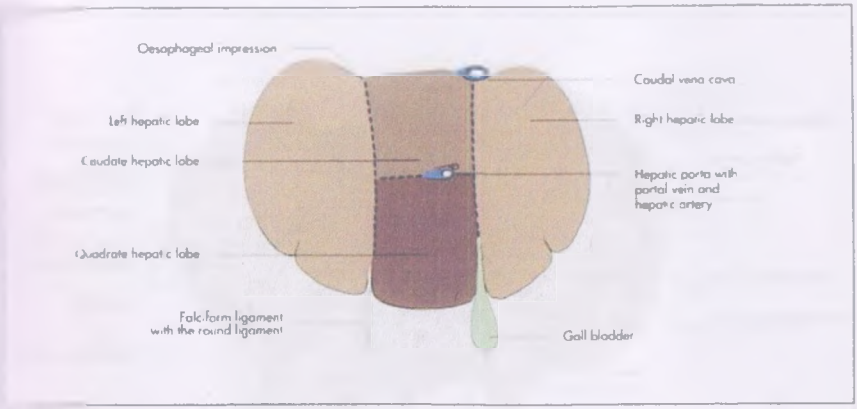
The **liver** and **pancreas** are the two glands closely associated with the alimentary canal. Among many other important functions both organs produce substances which play a central role in gastrointestinal digestion.

Liver (hepar)

The liver is the largest gland in the body and is both **exocrine** and **endocrine** in function. Its exocrine product, bile, is stored and concentrated in the gall bladder before being drained into the duodenum. However, a gall bladder is not essential, and is lacking in several species, including the horse. The bile is responsible for emulsifying the fatty constituents prior to absorption. It also contains the endproducts of the haemoglobin metabolism and by-products of certain metabolised drugs.

Its endocrine substances are released into the blood stream and play an important role in the fat, carbohydrate and protein metabolism. The anatomical arrangement of the

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lobation pattern of the liver (schematic).

of the gastrointestinal tract ensures that all products of which are conveyed in the blood stream after ab- pass the liver before entering the general circula- serves as a storage of glycogen and in juvenile ani- functions as an haematopoetic organ. (A more de- description of the function of the liver can be found in textbooks.)

great variation in size between the different species between individuals of the same species, largely de- body weight and age. Average values are: 2% of weight in the cat, 3% – 4% in the dog, 2% – 3% in the pig 1.5% in herbivores. In the embryo it is substantially and fills most of the abdominal cavity. In the juvenile is still relatively larger than in adults due to its function regresses. It often shows considerable atrophy in old

position and species specific variations

is located in the thoracic part of the abdomen, im- behind the diaphragm. The bulk of the liver lies to of the median plane; in ruminants the development pushes the liver entirely into the right half of the In the live animal the liver adapts to the form of ad- organs (Fig. 7-112); when fixed in situ it retains the and impressions these impose.

has a strongly convex surface towards the diaphragm (facies diaphragmatica) and a concave surface facing towards abdominal organs (facies visceralis). These two sur- faces are mediolaterally in a **sharp-edged border** (margo acutus) and dorsally in a **blunt border** (margo obtusus). The visceral surface is marked by the **hepatic porta** (porta hepatis) through which the portal vein, the bile duct and the hepatic vessels enter or leave the organ, which is closely related to the gall bladder.

In most species the liver is grossly divided into four main lobes by fissures that extend into the organ from the ventral border (Fig. 7-97ff.):

- left hepatic lobe (lobus hepatis sinister),
- right hepatic lobe (lobus hepatis dexter),
- caudate lobe (lobus hepatis caudatus) and
- quadrate lobe (lobus hepatis quadratus).

The **lobation patterns** differ greatly among species. Species, in which the spine is very mobile, such as the dog and the cat, have more subdivisions than species with a more rigid spine (herbivores). It is hypothesised that the hepatic lobes easily glide over each other, when the spine is maximally flexed or extended. In those species where no fissures indicate lobation, a theoretical pattern is still applied by virtual lines extending from certain landmarks to divide the liver into the four main lobes listed above (Fig. 7-96).

In carnivores the liver has **four lobes** and **four sublobes** as well as **two processes**: both the left and right hepatic lobe are subdivided into medial and lateral lobes (lobus hepatis sinister (dexter) lateralis et medialis), and the caudate lobe is subdivided into the caudate (processus caudatus) and the papillar process (processus papillaris) (Fig. 7-97, 101 and 102). The liver of the pig resembles that of the dog, but does not have a papillar process (Fig. 7-98, 103 and 104). In the horse the **left lobe** only is subdivided into **medial** and **lateral lobes**, while the right lobe remains undivided. The

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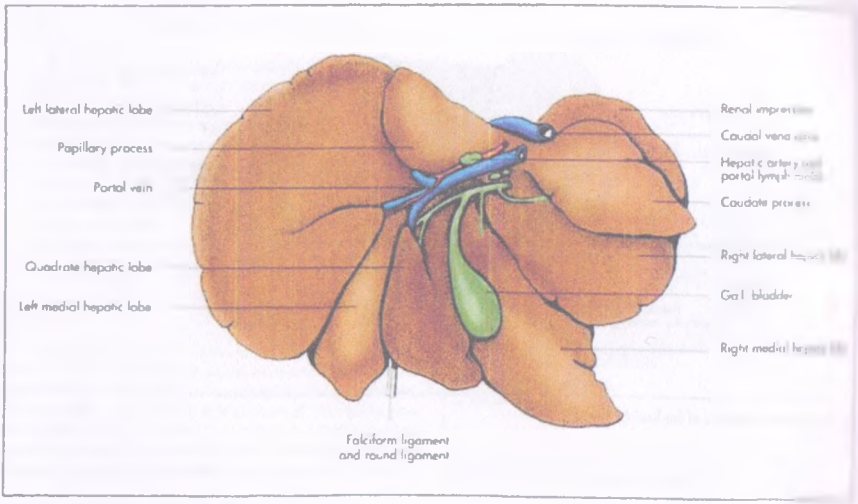


Fig. 7-97. Liver of the dog (schematic, visceral surface)

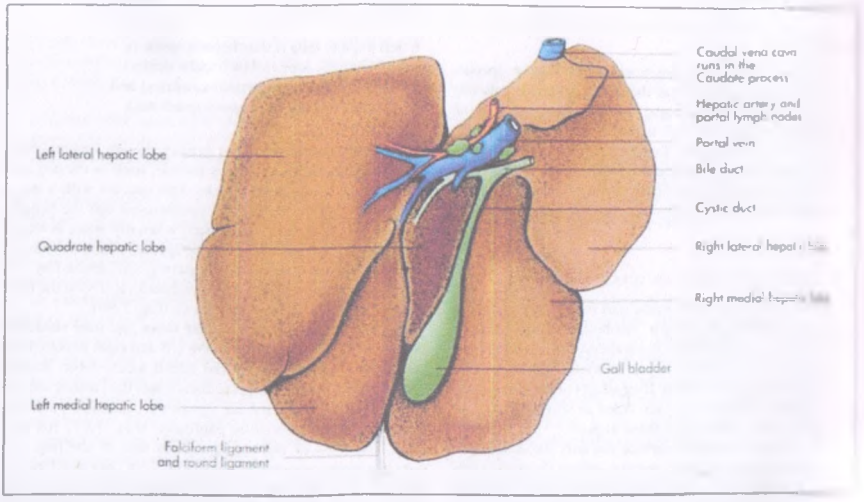
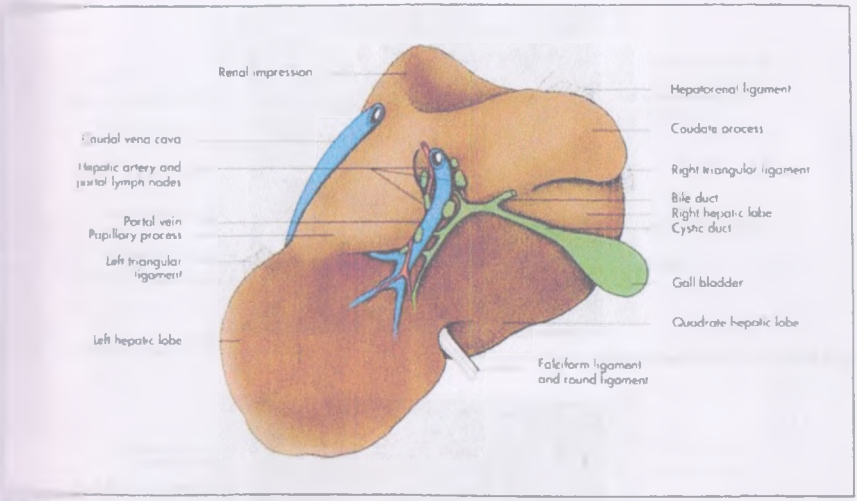
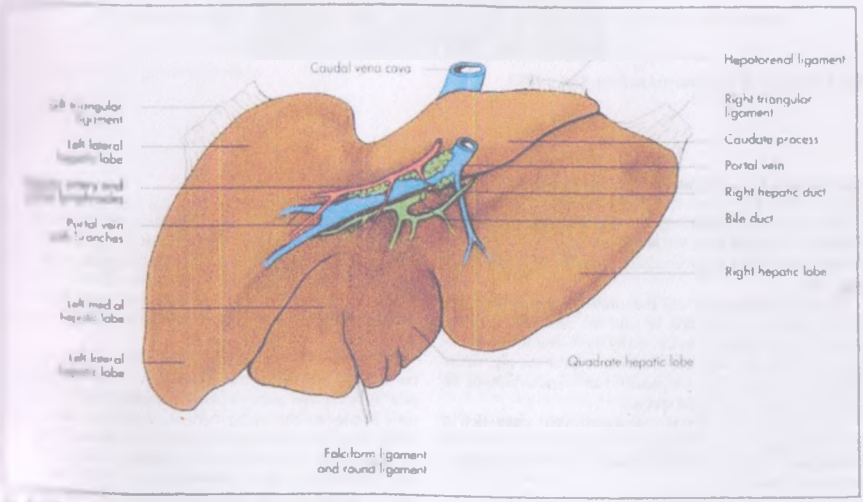


Fig. 7-98. Liver of the pig (schematic, visceral surface)

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Liver of the ox (schematic, visceral surface)



Liver of the horse (schematic, visceral surface)

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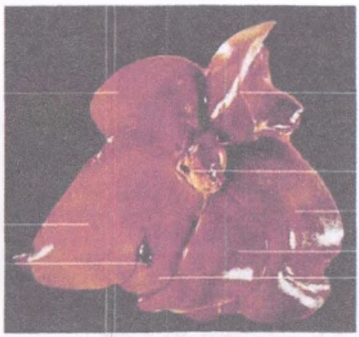


Fig. 7-101. Liver of a cat (diaphragmatic surface), König, 1992



Fig. 7-102. Liver of a cat (visceral surface), König, 1992

caudate lobe has a **caudate process**, but no papillary process (Fig. 7-100). The liver of ruminants has **no fissures** (Fig. 7-99). It consists of a **left** and **right hepatic lobe**, a **quadrate lobe** and a **caudate lobe**, the borders of which are defined by virtual lines drawn from anatomical landmarks illustrated in Fig. 7-96.

Several impressions and **indentations** can be identified on the specimen hardened in situ: the visceral surface is marked by the impressions caused by the stomach, the duodenum, the pancreas, the right kidney (except in the pig, where the kidney is located too far caudally) and various parts of the intestine, depending on the species.

The left part of the dorsal margin carries the impression of the oesophagus; the right part is excavated to receive the cranial pole of the right kidney. A sulcus medial to it transmits the caudal vena cava.

Structure

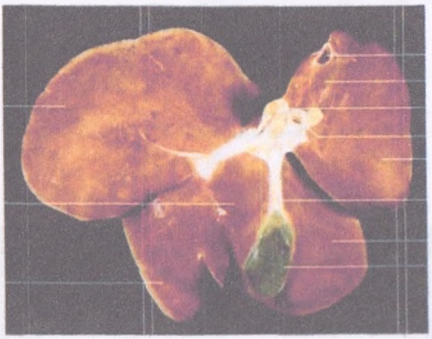
The free surface of the liver is almost completely covered by peritoneum, which forms its serous coat. It is fused to the underlying fibrous capsule that encloses the whole organ. The interlobular connective tissue conveys blood vessels into the organ. The finer trabeculae divide the liver parenchyma into innumerable small units, **the hepatic lobules** (Fig. 7-105).

These lobules are particularly marked in the pig, but are also grossly visible in carnivores, in which they appear as hexagonal areas of about 1mm in diameter. The hepatic lobules are the smallest grossly visible functional units of the liver and are composed of curved sheets of hepatocytes (laminae hepaticae) that surround blood capillaries, known as the **liver sinusoids** (Fig. 7-105). Based on their vascular architecture the hepatic lobules can be grouped as follow

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Liver of a pig (diaphragmatic surface)



Liver of a pig (visceral surface)

hepatal hepatic lobule with the single central vein
the centre and
hepatal hepatic lobules with hepatic artery, vein
bile canaliculus in the centre.

Blood supply

The liver receives a generous blood supply through the **hepatic artery** (a. hepatica) and the **portal vein** (v. portae) (Fig. 7.96). The **hepatic artery**, a branch of the **coeliac artery** (truncus coeliacus), furnishes the nutritional supply of the liver. The hepatic artery enters the liver together with the portal vein in the hepatic porta on the visceral surface of the organ. It sends branches out along the fibrous septa together with branches of the hepatic duct. The hepatic arteries supply the framework, the capsule, the intrahepatic biliary duct system, the walls of the blood vessels and the nerves before they finally drain together with the branches of the portal vein into the liver sinusoids. Thus the parenchymal cells are bathed by mixed blood from the hepatic artery and the portal vein, so that they actually receive nutrition from both.

The **portal vein** (Fig. 7.97ff., 112 and 113) has three branches which drain into it, the splenic vein, the cranial and the caudal mesenteric veins, which collect the blood from **all unpaired organs of the abdomen** (stomach, pancreas, intestines, spleen). It thus transports the functional blood to the liver. The contributing veins of the portal vein are connected with veins of the cardio-oesophageal region and of the recto-anal region. These constitute alternative routes the blood can take when intrahepatic circulation is impaired, e.g. in the case of liver cirrhosis.

In the foetus the **ductus venosus**, a direct continuation of the umbilical trunk, tunnels through the liver, bypassing the

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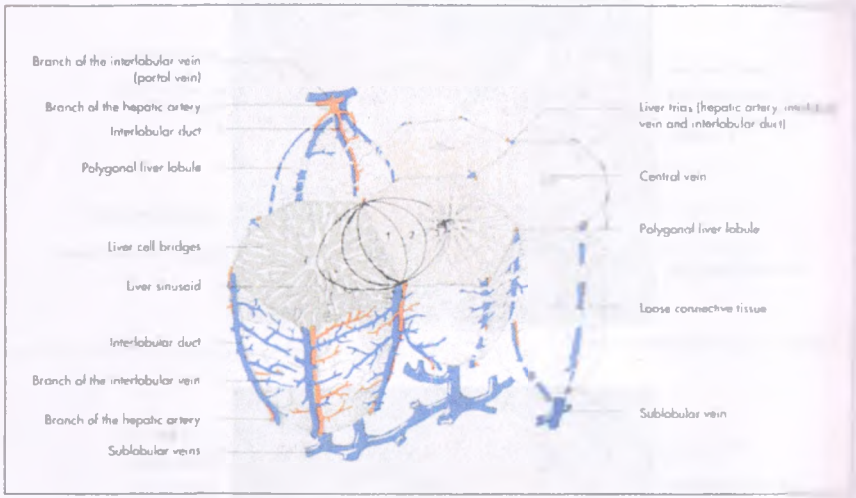


Fig. 7-105. Hepatic lobules in relation to afferent and efferent vessels (schematic, three-dimensional); Liebich 2004

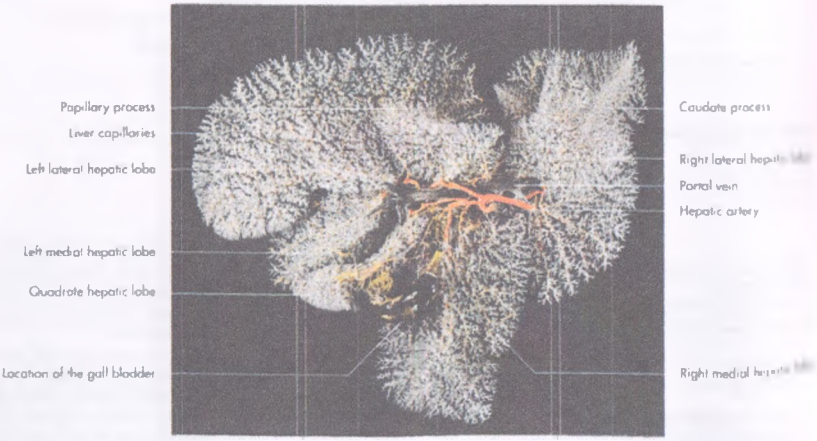


Fig. 7-106. Corrosion cast of the liver of a dog after injection of the hepatic artery, the portal vein and the gall bladder

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Fig. 7-107 Corrosion cast of the liver of a pig after injection of the hepatic artery (red), the portal vein (blue) and the gall bladder (yellow).

circulation to join the caudal vena cava. This porto-
persists in some individuals (especially in the dog
after birth and requires surgical intervention.

drainage of the liver starts with the single central
middle of each hepatic lobule. These veins col-
blood of the hepatic artery and the portal vein
mixed in the liver sinusoids and been into
the hepatocytes. Adjacent **central veins** fuse to
sublobular veins, which unite with each other to
hepatic veins (Fig. 7-105). These leave the organ on
surface to finally empty into the **caudal**
. Detailed knowledge of the internal ramification
vessels is essential for hepatic surgery in man,
as important in veterinary medicine.

is innervated by both **sympathetic** and **parasym-**
nerves. It receives afferent and efferent fibres from
vagal trunk and sympathetic fibres from the
ganglion.

of the liver drain into the **portal lymph**
which are located within the lesser omentum close to
porta.

is closely related to the ventral mesentery present
embryonic development. It has no supportive func-
conveys blood vessels, nerves and lymphatics
three distinct parts:

- falciform ligament (lig. falciforme hepatis),
- hepatoduodenal ligament (lig. hepatoduodenale),
- hepatogastric ligament (lig. hepatogastricum).

The **falciform ligament** of the liver is a remnant of the ventral mesentery, which extends between the liver and the diaphragm and the ventral body wall. It includes the **umbilical vein** (v. umbilicalis) in its free border during its foetal life, and obliterates after birth to form the **round ligament** (ligamentum teres hepatis) (Fig. 7-97ff., 112 and 113).

The **hepatoduodenal** and the **hepatogastric ligament** extend from the **hepatic porta** to the **duodenum** and **stomach**, respectively. They constitute the **lesser omentum** and convey the bile duct to the duodenum and the portal vein and the hepatic artery to the liver. It also contains the left and right gastric arteries, where it attaches to the lesser curvature of the stomach. Fixation of the liver is achieved by the blood vessels entering the organ and by continuations of its serous and fibrous coats onto the diaphragm. There are three ligaments that provide mechanical support to the liver:

- left triangular ligament (lig. triangulare sinistrum),
- right triangular ligament (lig. triangulare dextrum),
- coronary ligament (lig. coronarium hepatis).

The **coronary ligament** surrounds the caudal vena cava during its short passage from the liver to the diaphragm. It is irregular in outline and its border gives rise to the triangular ligaments. The **triangular ligaments** extend between the dorsal part of the liver on each side and the diaphragm (Fig. 7-99, 100, 112 and 113).

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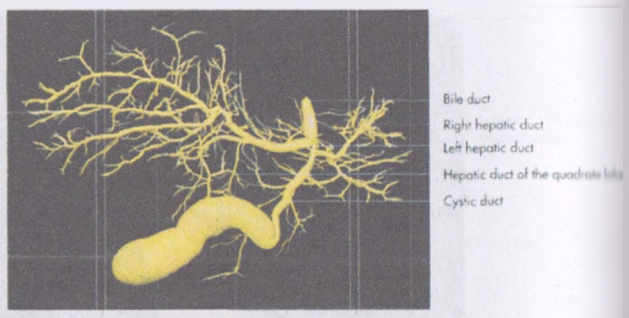


Fig. 7-108. Bile drainage system of a sheep (corrosion cast); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ana Carretero, Barcelona.

Bile ducts

The bile is produced by the sheets of hepatocytes and discharged into the **bile canaliculi**, also termed **bile capillaries**, that lie between these cells without having a wall of their own. These capillaries unite to form the **interlobular ducts** (ductuli interlobulares), which lie in the interstitial tissue between the lobules together with the branches of the hepatic artery and the portal vein. The interlobular ducts unite to form the **lobar ducts** (ductus biliferi). (A more detailed description can be found in histology textbooks.)

The **extrahepatic bile ducts** consist of the **hepatic ducts** from the liver (ductus hepatici), the **cystic duct** (ductus cysticus) to the gall bladder and the **bile duct** (ductus choledochus) to the duodenum (Fig. 7-108).

In the horse and in ruminants the lobar ducts unite to form a **left** and a **right hepatic duct** (ductus hepaticus sinister et dexter), which again unite to form the **common hepatic duct** (ductus hepaticus communis). In the pig the lobar ducts of the left hepatic lobes unite to form the left hepatic duct, while the ducts of the right lobes drain separately into the common hepatic duct.

In carnivores each hepatic sublobe has its own lobar duct, which drains into the cystic duct. These species do not have left, right or common hepatic ducts. The beginning of the bile duct is marked by the junction of the common hepatic duct or the last lobar duct with the cystic duct. The bile duct opens into the proximal part of the duodenum on the **major duodenal papilla**.

Gall bladder (vesica fellea)

The sac-like gall bladder lies in a fossa on the visceral surface of the liver close to the hepatic porta. In the cat it is also visible on the diaphragmatic surface (Fig. 7-97ff. and 108). It stores the bile and discharges it into the duodenum when necessary. It also concentrates the bile by absorption through the folded mucosa. A gall bladder is **not present in the horse** (Fig. 7-100).

Pancreas

Like the liver the pancreas has both an **exocrine** and **endocrine** function. Its exocrine product, the pancreatic juice, is conveyed to the duodenum by one or more ducts, depending on the species. It contains three enzymes: one for the digestion of proteins, one for carbohydrates and one for fats. The endocrine part of the pancreas produces insulin, glucagon and somatostatin. (A more detailed description of the function of the pancreas can be found in physiology textbooks.)

The pancreas is located in the dorsal part of the abdominal cavity in close relationship to the proximal part of the duodenum (Fig. 7-109). It can be divided into three parts:

- body of the pancreas (corpus pancreatis),
- right lobe of the pancreas (lobus pancreatis dexter),
- left lobe of the pancreas (lobus pancreatis sinister).

When hardened in situ it has the shape of a caudally open [illegible] and is either notched by the **portal vein** (incisura pancreatis) as it is in carnivores and ruminants, or perforated (foramen pancreatis) as in the horse and pig (Fig. 7-109 and 111).

In carnivores the slender pancreas has the [illegible]-shaped form consisting of **two limbs** that emerge from the body (Fig. 7-110). The **left limb** is shorter, but thicker, than the right limb and runs within the origin of the greater omentum on the dorsal abdominal wall. The longer **right limb** follows the descending duodenum within the mesoduodenum (Fig. 7-109).

In the pig the pancreas consists of a large body and a left lobe and a small right lobe, which surround the portal vein.

In the horse the pancreas is **triangular** in outline with a large, compact body to which the short right lobe and longer left lobe attach. It is perforated by the portal vein (**pancreatic ring**) (Fig. 7-109 and 111). The pancreas of ruminants consists of a short body and right and left lobes. The right lobe is larger and follows the mesentery of the ascending part of the duodenum. The portal vein passes over the dorsal border of the organ in the **pancreatic notch** (incisura pancreatis).

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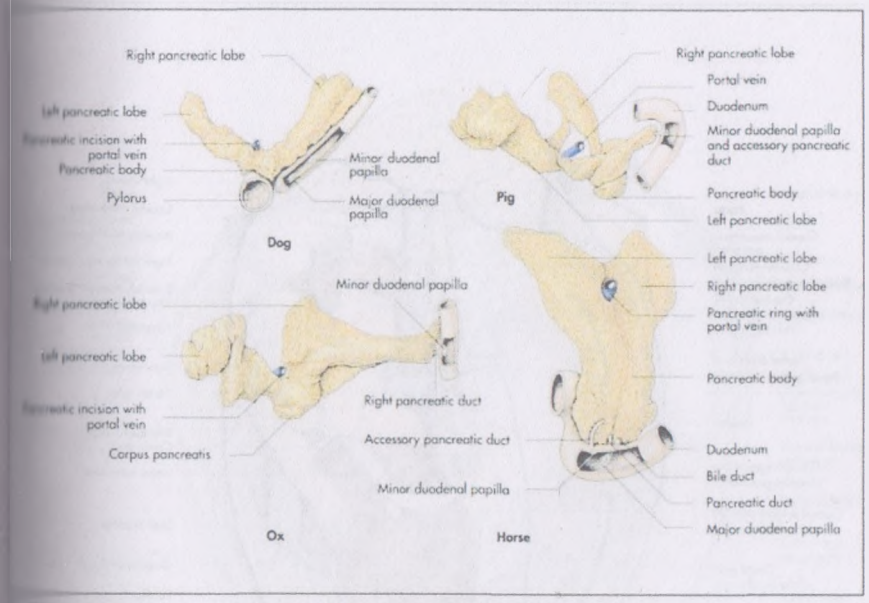


Fig. 7-109. Pancreas of different domestic mammals (schematic); after Nickel, Schummer, Seiferle, 1995.

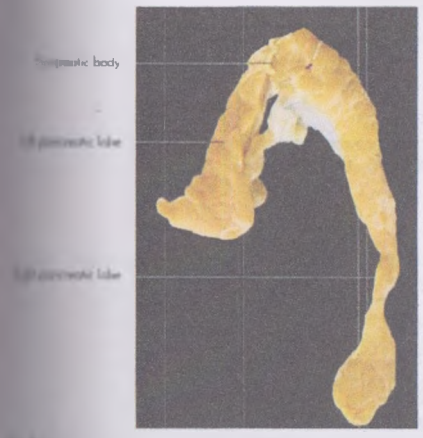


Fig. 7-110. Pancreas of a dog (dorsal aspect).

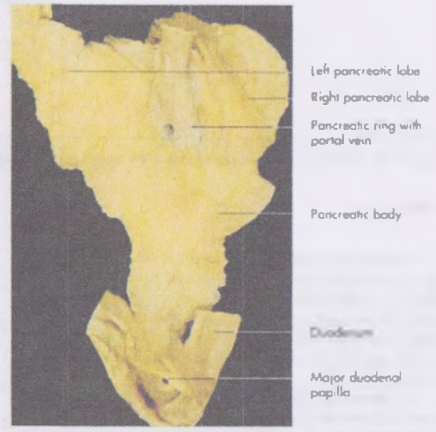


Fig. 7-111. Pancreas of a horse (dorsal aspect).

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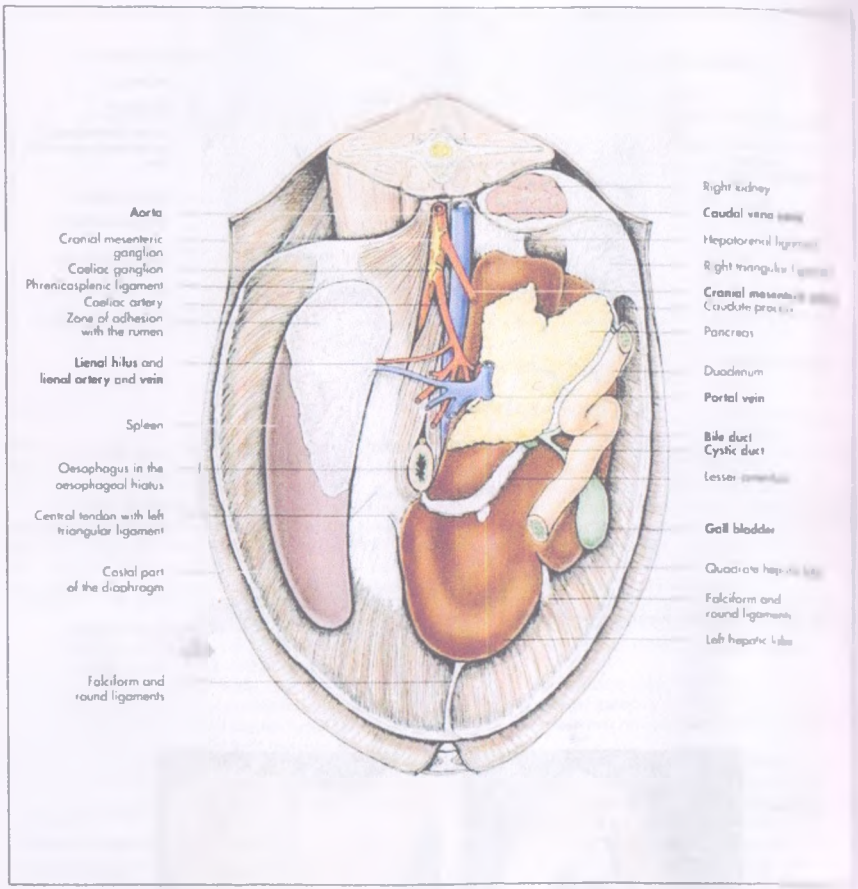


Fig. 7·112. Intrathoracic abdominal organs of the ox (schematic, caudal aspect)

In conformity with the dual origin of the gland from dorsal and ventral primordia, some species have two pancreatic ducts. A **pancreatic duct** (ductus pancreaticus) commonly drains the part of the gland that arises from the ventral primordium and opens into the duodenum together with or close to the bile duct on the **major duodenal papilla** (papilla duodeni major).

An **accessory duct** (ductus pancreaticus accessorius) emerges from the part of the pancreas that is formed by the dorsal primordium and opens on the opposite aspect of the duodenum on the **minor duodenal papilla** (papilla duodeni minor).

This anatomical arrangement is usually found in the [illegible] and in the horse (Fig. 7.109 and 114). In the other domestic mammals this excretory system is reduced to a single duct. The pancreatic duct usually survives in the cat and [illegible] small ruminants, while the accessory duct is still present in the pig and ox. Since the two parts communicate within the gland, the absence of one of the duct, is of no significance. The pancreas is composed of **lobules** loosely united by [illegible]

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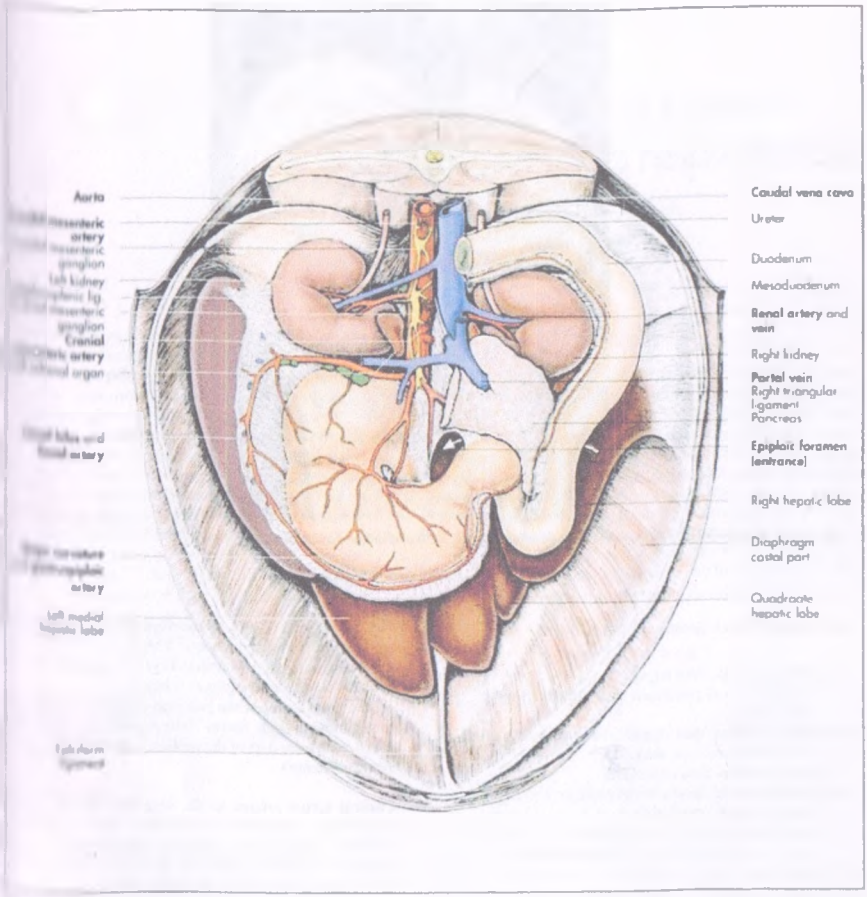


Fig. 7.11 Intrathoracic abdominal organs of the horse (schematic, caudal aspect).

of interlobular connective tissue, which produce a surface with irregularly crenated margins.

The exocrine component is by far the larger and the endocrine component consists of the **pancreatic islets**, cell accumulations that are scattered between the exocrine acini. (A detailed description can be found in Histology textbooks.)

The **blood supply** of the pancreas is provided by the coeliac and cranial mesenteric arteries. The right lobe of the pancreas receives its blood supply from the **cranial pancreaticoduodenal artery**, which is a branch of the **hepatic artery**. The left lobe and the body are vascularised by the **splenic artery** and the **caudal pancreaticoduodenal artery**, a branch of the cranial mesenteric artery. The veins are satellites to the arteries and eventually drain into the portal vein.

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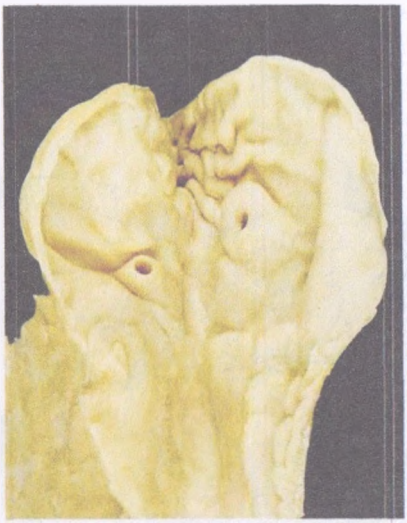


Fig. 7-114. Duodenum of a horse with minor duodenal papilla (left) and major duodenal papilla (right)

Pancreatic duct system of the different species

- **cat**: pancreatic duct large.
  small accessory pancreatic duct present in some individuals.
- **dog**: pancreatic duct small, missing in some individuals.
  accessory pancreatic duct large.
- **pig**: accessory pancreatic duct.
- **ox**: pancreatic duct extremely rare.
  accessory pancreatic duct.
- **small ruminants**: pancreatic duct.
  some sheep with accessory pancreatic duct and
- **horse**: pancreatic duct large.
  accessory pancreatic duct small.

The pancreas receives a **parasympathetic** and **nerve** supply. Parasympathetic fibres come from the **vagal trunk** (truncus vagalis dorsalis), sympathetic from the **solar plexus** (plexus solaris).

The **lymphatics** of the pancreas drain into the **coduodenal lymph nodes** (lymphonodi pancreaticoduodenales), which are part of the **coeliac lymphatics** (truncus coeliacum).

Clinical terms related to the digestive system: parodontitis, parodontosis, parotiditis, pulpitis, tonsillitis, oesophagitis, gastritis, ruminotomy, traumatic reticulitis, enteritis, duodenitis, jejunitis, ileus, colitis, enterocolitis, hepatitis, pancreatitis

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8 Respiratory system (apparatus respiratorius)

H.E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The respiratory system is essential for gaseous exchange between air and blood. Respiration comprises both the transport of gases **to the cells** and the oxidative processes **within the cells**. The latter cannot be visualised with anatomical methods and is described in physiology.

Inspired air is filtered of small dust particles, moistened and warmed in the respiratory passages, which transfer air to and from the lungs. In the lungs, oxygen diffuses from the inspired air into the blood and carbon dioxide from the blood into the air. Inspired air consists of 20.9% oxygen, 0.03% carbon dioxide and 79.4% nitrogen. By contrast, expired air consists of 16% oxygen, 4% carbon dioxide and 80% nitrogen. The transport of these gases from the lungs to the cells and back is carried out by the **circulatory system**.

The respiratory system can be divided into the **respiratory passages** and sites of **gaseous exchange**.

The respiratory passages comprise the following organs:

- external nose (nasus externus),
- nasal cavity (cavum nasi),
- nasopharynx (pars nasalis pharyngis),
- larynx,
- trachea,
- bronchi and
- lungs.

Sites of gaseous exchange within the lungs are:

- respiratory bronchioli (bronchioli respiratorii),
- alveolar ducts (ductus alveolares),
- alveolar sacs (sacculi alveolares) and
- alveoli (alveoli pulmonis).

The respiratory organs located within the head (nose, paranasal sinuses, nasopharynx) are termed the **"upper respiratory tract"**, whereas the **"lower respiratory tract"** consists of the larynx, the trachea and the lungs.

Most of the **respiratory system** is lined by **respiratory epithelium** with a mucous-producing, pseudostratified epithelium. Some regions, which need to be more resistant, such as the nasal vestibule, the larynx and the epiglottis, have a stratified squamous epithelium. The **olfactory region** in the caudal part of the nasal cavity has an **olfactory mucosa**. The sites of gaseous exchange have a single layer of squamous epithelial cells.

Functions of the respiratory system

The respiratory system fulfils a variety of functions. The nose includes olfactory receptors, which provide environmental information which can be used for orientation and to protect from harmful substances. The nasal cavity and conchae warm and moisten the air and filter foreign material. The larynx protects the entrance to the trachea and regulates the inspiration and expiration of air, and plays a major role in vocalisation assisted by other organs such as the tongue. All of the respiratory passages facilitate water and heat exchange, which is especially important in the dog. The trachea divides into the main stem bronchi, which then subdivide until the terminal divisions, the alveoli, the major site of gaseous exchange.

Upper respiratory tract

Nose (rhin, nasus)

The nose (Greek: "rhin", Latin: "nasus") (Fig. 8-1ff.) consists of:

- the external nares and their associated nasal cartilages,
- the nasal cavity with the nasal meatus and conchae,
- the paranasal sinuses.

The nose is formed by the nasal bones dorsally, the maxillae laterally and the palatine processes of the incisive bones, the maxillae and the palatine bones ventrally. Caudally it is limited by the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone. Ventrally it is continuous with the nasopharynx. The median septum is the rostral continuation of the crista galli of the ethmoid bone and consists of hyaline cartilage, which divides the nasal cavity into the left and right sides; the caudal part of this cartilage ossifies with age.

Apex of the nose

The apex of the nose and the rostral portion of the mandible and maxilla form the muzzle. The form and size of the muzzle and the nature of the integument show considerable species differences. The integument around the nostrils is hairless and sharply demarcated from the unmodified skin in all domestic

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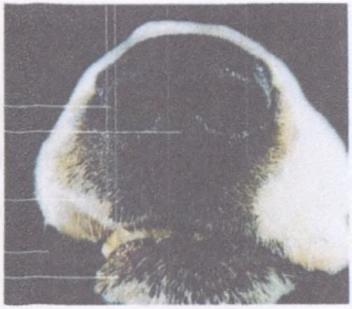


Fig. 8-1. External nose of a dog (frontal aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.



Fig. 8-2. External nose of a dog with exposed right nasal cartilages (frontal aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.



Fig. 8-3. Nasal cartilages of a horse (frontal aspect).

mammals other than the horse, where some tactile hairs surrounds the nostrils. gument of the rostral region is modified hairless **nasolabial plate** (planum nasolabiale) covered by a stratified, cornified epithelium tened by serous glands within the mucosa. the dog and the cat, the skin around the

The **nasal plate** (planum nasale) is divided groove, the philtrum, which continues upper lip (Fig. 8-1). The surface of the vores is moistened by secretion of the lateral situated within the **maxillary recess** and some smaller glands within the mucosa.

In the pig the disc-like movable part of called the **rostrum** or **snout**. The snout rostral bone and covered by modified skin, **rostral plate** (planum rostrale) and includes mucosal glands, which moisten the surface.

The surface of the nasal plate has the pattern of which is thought to be individual ful as means of identification, similar to fingerprints.

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...of a dog (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr R. Mocher, Vienna)



...of a horse (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr R. Mocher, Vienna

...rtilagines nasi)

...supported by the nasal cartilages, ...form, size and number depending on the ... The lateral nasal cartilages are attached ... of the nasal septum from which they extend ... (cartilago nasi lateralis dorsalis et ventralis). They determine the form of the ... The dorsal and ventral lateral nasal cartilages ... with each other in all domestic species ... Depending on the species several accessory ... arise from the lateral nasal cartilages.

... nasal cartilage does not project far ... cartilage is either indistinct or absent. ... cartilages (cartilagines alares), which are ... (cornua) dorsally and a **horn** (cornu) ... and widely spaced nostrils. The lateral walls ... supported by cartilage, thus the margins ... very mobile and allow the opening to ... The **alar cartilages** account for ... shape, which divides the nostril into the ventral, so-called true nostril leading to the nasal cavity, and the dorsal or **false nostril** leading to a skin-lined **diverticulum** (diverticulum nasi) occupying the **nasoincisive notch** (incisura nasoincisiva). Therefore it is essential when passing a nasogastric tube to guide it ventrally.

In antiquity, foals had their false nostrils cut open, since it was thought that this would result in better performance, especially in military horses. This method is still practised today in the southeastern parts of Asia (Pakistan, Iran, Northern India). In the western world, nasal implants and cohesive skin strips are used to maintain the alar cartilages in full abduction in competition horses.

Nasal vestibule (vestibulum nasi)

The nostril forms the opening of the nasal cavity and surrounds the nasal vestibule. In the horse and donkey, the integument continues within the nasal cavity, and forms a sharp demarcation with the nasal mucosa. In the horse, the **nasal puncta** of the **nasolacrimal duct** is located on the ventral floor of the vestibule, near to this mucosal transition. In oth-

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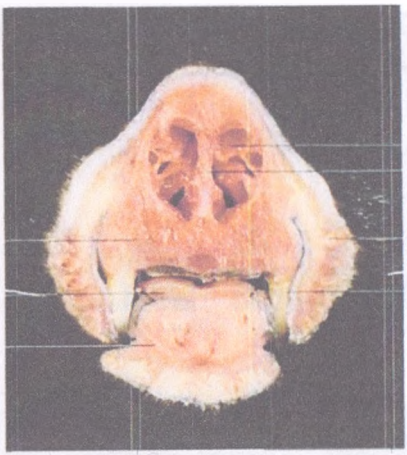


Fig. 8-6. Transverse section of the head of a dog at the level of the canine tooth (frontal aspect); courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

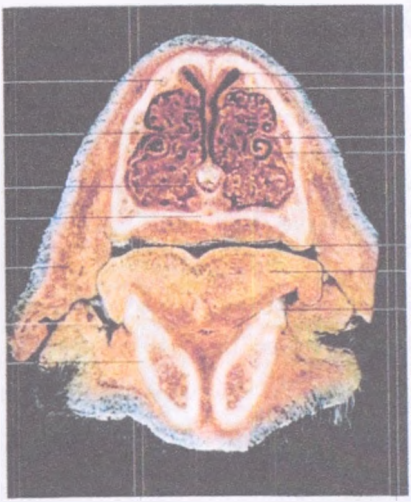
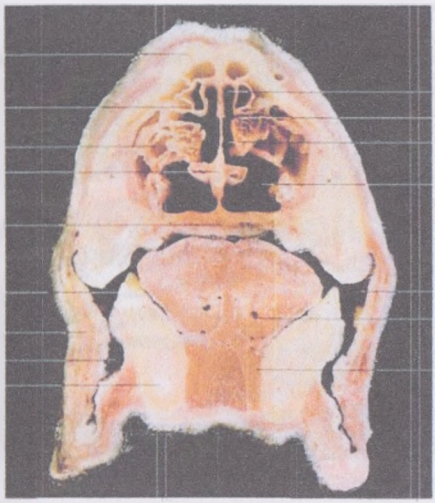


Fig. 8-7. Transverse section of the head of a dog at the level of the second premolar (frontal aspect); courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

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Transverse section of the head of a dog at the level of the third premolar (frontal aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich



Transverse section of the head of a dog at the level of the second molar (frontal aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

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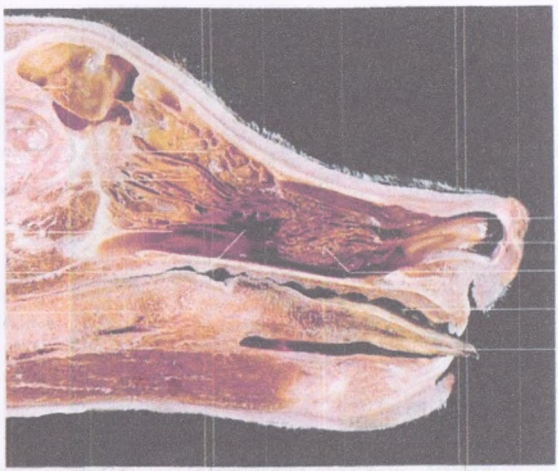


Fig. 8-10. Paramedian section of the head of a dog (medial aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

er species it is located more caudally, occasionally with more than one opening. In the dog the much smaller and less distinct openings of the serous lateral nasal glands also discharge in this region.

Nasal cavities (cava nasi)

The nasal cavity extends from the nostrils to the **cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone**, and is divided by the **nasal septum** into right and left sides. The **nasal conchae** (conchae nasales) project into the interior of the nasal cavity and serve to increase the respiratory surface area (Fig. 8-6ff.). In animals with highly developed olfactory senses, such as the dog, the nasal conchae are more complex further increasing the olfactory surface area. This increase in surface area, together with a higher number of olfactory receptor cells, accounts for the excellent olfactory sense of the dog compared to humans. Vascular plexi underlie the mucosa and are formed by multiple anastomsing vessels.

Caudoventrally the nasal cavity communicates with the nasopharynx through the choanae.

Nasal conchae (conchae nasales)

The nasal conchae are cartilagenous or ossified scrolls covered with nasal mucosa that occupy most of the nasal cavity (Fig. 8-6ff.). They have a complicated and species-specific arrangement.

The **first endoturbinate** (endoturbinale I) is the longest and most dorsal turbinate and extends furthest into the nasal cavity. It forms the osseous base of the **dorsal nasal conchae** (concha nasalis dorsalis). The **second endoturbinate** (endoturbinale II) is adjacent to the first and forms the [illegible] the **middle nasal concha** (concha nasalis media). Subsequent turbinates are reduced in size, with the exception of the dog, in which the second to fourth endoturbinates are [illegible] ially well-developed. While the dorsal and middle nasal concha are formed by the endoturbinates, the ventral nasal **concha** (concha nasalis ventralis) is part of the maxilla.

The osseous structures of the conchal bones (conchae) are described in detail in Chapter 1.

Nasal meatuses (meatus nasi)

The major conchae divide the nasal cavity into [illegible] clefts and meatuses which branch out from a common [illegible] near the nasal septum. There are **three nasal meatuses** in domestic mammals (Fig. 8-8 and 9):

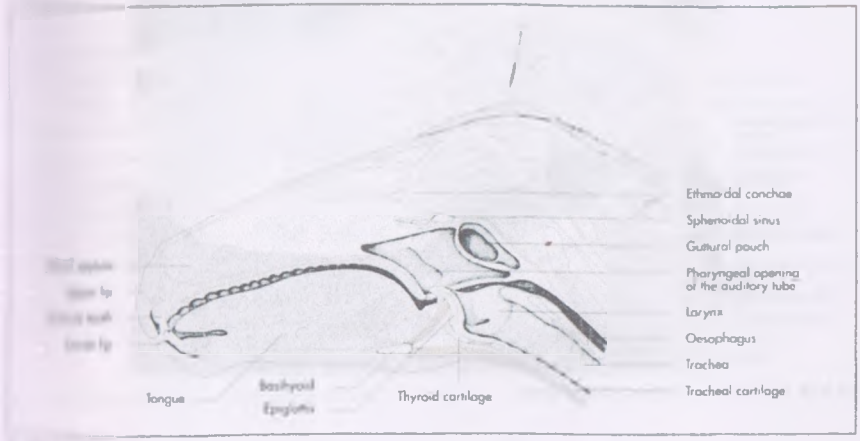
- **dorsal nasal meatus** (meatus nasi dorsalis),
- **middle nasal meatus** (meatus nasi medius),
- **ventral nasal meatus** (meatus nasi ventralis).

The **dorsal nasal meatus** is the passage between the [illegible] the nasal cavity and the dorsal nasal concha. It leads [illegible] the fundus of the nasal cavity and channels air to the olfactory mucosa.

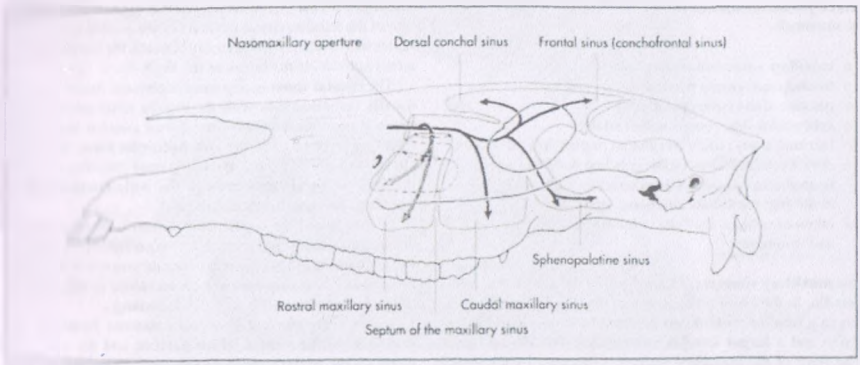
The **middle nasal meatus** is between the dorsal and ventral nasal conchae and communicates with the paranasal sinuses.

The **ventral nasal meatus** is the main pathway for air leading to the pharynx and is situated between the ventral nasal concha and the floor of the nasal cavity.

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Median section of the head of the horse, illustrating the pharynx and larynx (schematic).



Paranasal sinuses of the horse (schematic).

nasal meatus (meatus nasi communis) is ...space on either side of the nasal septum. It is ...with all the other nasal meatus. ...can be accessed by the passage of nasogastric ...tubes through the widest point, between the ...common meatus.

...nasal sinuses (sinus paranasales)

...nasal sinuses are diverticula of the nasal cavity, ...filled cavities between the external and internal ...of the skull. The osseous structure of the ...are described in detail in Chapter 1.

They undergo significant expansion after birth and continue to increase in size with advancing age. They are particularly well-developed in the ox and the horse and account for the conformation of the head in these species. The paranasal sinuses are hypothesised to provide thermal and mechanical protection to the orbit, nasal cavity and cranial cavities; they also enlarge the areas for muscular attachment without considerably increasing the weight of the skull.

The paranasal sinuses are lined by **respiratory mucosa**, which is extremely thin and poorly vascularised. This is thought to account for the poor healing capacity of this area. Treatment is complicated due to the narrowness and locations of the openings, which make them prone to blockage when

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Fig. 8-13. Skull of a horse with hyoid bone and larynx.

the mucosa is thickened by inflammation. The following paired paranasal sinuses can be found in the skull of domestic mammals:

- maxillary sinus (sinus maxillaris),
- frontal sinus (sinus frontalis),
- palatine sinus (sinus palatinus),
- sphenoidal sinus (sinus sphenoidalis),
- lacrimal sinus (sinus lacrimalis) in pigs and ruminants,
- dorsal conchal sinus (sinus conchae dorsalis) and ventral conchal sinus (sinus conchae ventralis) in the pig, ruminants and horse, and
- ethmoid cellules (cellulae ethmoidales) in pigs and ruminants.

The **maxillary sinus** is contained within the caudal part of the maxilla. In the horse a bony septum divides the maxillary sinus in a **smaller rostral compartment** (sinus maxillaris rostralis) and a **larger caudal one** (sinus maxillaris caudalis). The floor of the maxillary sinuses is indented by the dental alveoli of the last three cheek teeth. Since only a thin bone plate separates the tooth roots from the paranasal sinus, periapical infection can easily penetrate the bone and cause sinusitis. On the other hand an entry into the sinus by trepanation allows access to the teeth for treatment of dental diseases.

The sagittally orientated infraorbital canal projects into the maxillary sinuses and divides them into a medial and a lateral compartment. Both compartments share a slit-like opening towards the middle nasal meatus, the **nasomaxillary aperture** (apertura nasomaxillaris). The rostral maxillary sinus communicates with the ventral conchal sinus through the **conchomaxillary opening** (apertura conchomaxillaris). The caudal maxillary sinus communicates directly or indirectly with all the other paranasal sinuses. This anatomical arrangement accounts for the spread of infection throughout the paranasal sinuses in the horse.

The maxillary sinus of carnivores is [illegible] **maxillary recess** (recessus maxillaris), [illegible] lum of the nasal cavity at the level of the meatus rather than a real air-filled cavity between the [illegible] ternal laminae of the bones of the skull.

The **frontal sinus** is contained within the [illegible] usually communicates with the middle nasal [illegible] horse it is continuous with the dorsal conchal [illegible] therefore referred to as the **conchofrontal** [illegible] chofrontalis). The caudal maxillary sinus [illegible] the conchofrontal sinus through the wide **frontomaxillary opening** (apertura frontomaxillaris).

In the pig and the ox the frontal sinus is [illegible] eral compartments and extends to the nuchal [illegible] In ruminants it extends into the cornual process [illegible] bone, which accounts for the high incidence [illegible] of the frontal sinus after surgical dehorning.

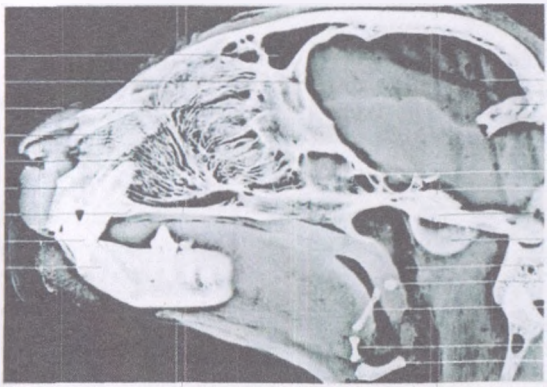
In the horse the **palatine** and **sphenoid** [illegible] pneumatised. The union of the palatine [illegible] sinus results in the combined **sphenopalatine** [illegible] communicates with the caudal maxillary [illegible] The optical chiasma is located just dorsal to the [illegible] sinus, separated from the latter only by [illegible] plate. Sinusitis can thus easily spread to [illegible] nerve, resulting in impaired vision.

Lower respiratory tract

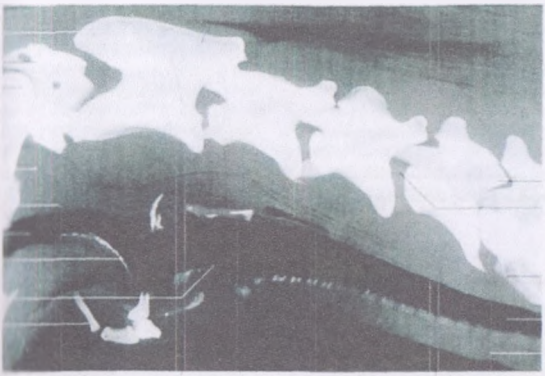
Larynx

The larynx is a bilaterally symmetrical, [illegible] fibrocartilagenous organ that connects the pharynx [illegible] chea. (Fig. 8-11 and 15ff.). It protects the [illegible] chea thus preventing aspiration of foreign [illegible] lower respiratory tract. It is also important [illegible]

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Radiograph of the head of a cat; courtesy of Prof. Dr. Cordula Poulsen Nautrup, Munich.



Radiograph of the larynx and the cervical spine of a cat; courtesy of Prof. Dr. Cordula Poulsen Nautrup, Munich.

Cartilages of the larynx (cartilagines laryngis)

The skeleton of the larynx is composed of the following bilaterally symmetrical laryngeal cartilages (Fig. 8-161f.):

- epiglottic cartilage (cartilago epiglottica) forming the base of the epiglottis,
- thyroid cartilage (cartilago thyroidea),
- arytenoid cartilages (cartilagines arytenoideae) and
- cricoid cartilage (cartilago cricoidea).

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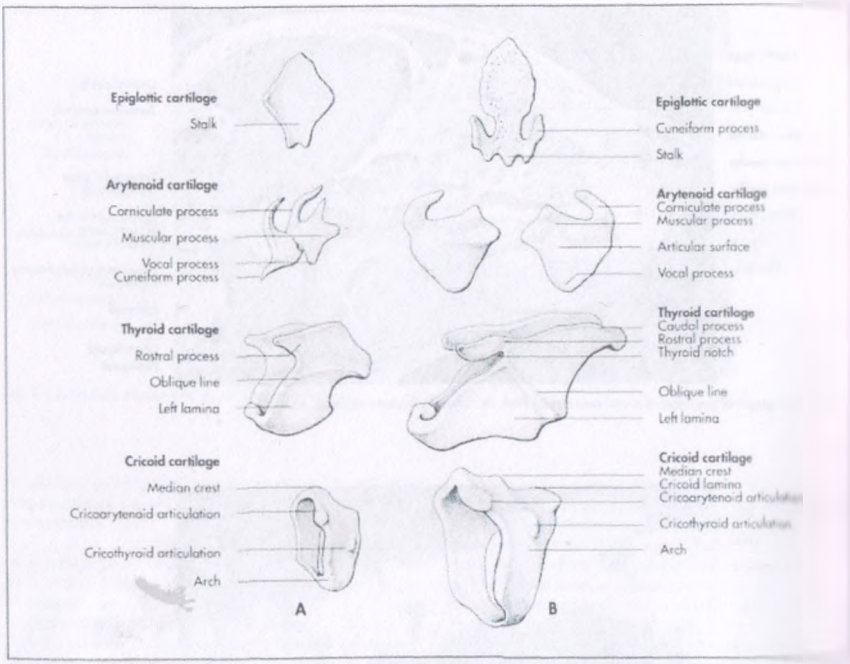


Fig. 8-16. Laryngeal cartilages of the dog (A) and the horse (B) (schematic).

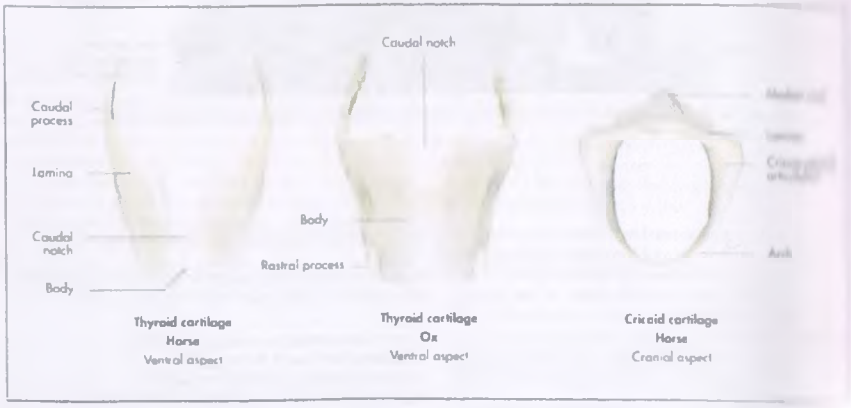
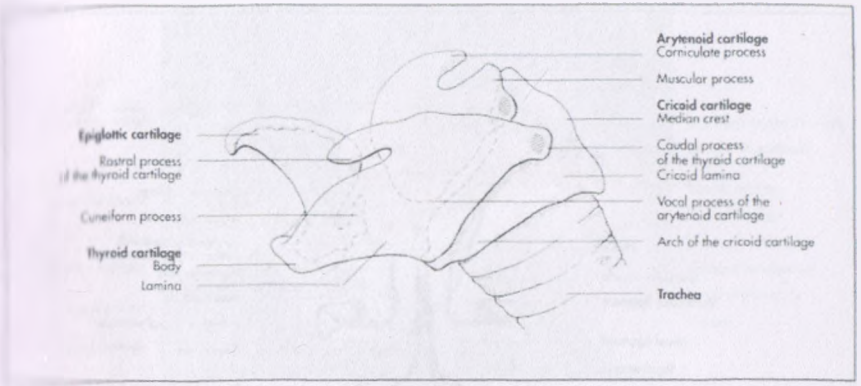


Fig. 8-17. Thyroid and cricoid cartilages of a horse and an ox

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Laryngeal cartilages of the horse (schematic).

[illegible] (epiglottis)

[illegible] cartilage forms the base of the epiglottis (Fig. [illegible]). The epiglottis resembles a leaf with a small [illegible] and a **large blade**. Its free apex points rostrally, [illegible] pointed in carnivores and the horse and more [illegible] ruminants and the pig. The stalk is connected to [illegible] cartilage, and the blade projects dorsorostrally behind the palate at rest (retrovelar position). During swallowing it [illegible] caudally to cover the entrance to the laryngeal [illegible]. The epiglottic cartilage consists of **elastic cartilage**. [illegible] **processes** (processus cuneiformes) are present in [illegible] on each side of the base of the epiglottis, protruding laterally. They may be free or fused with the epiglottis [illegible] cartilages.

[illegible] cartilage (cartilago thyroidea)

[illegible] cartilage contains **hyaline cartilage**, which may [illegible] increasing age, and forms the lateral walls and the [illegible] larynx (Fig. 8-16f). It has two lateral **plates** (lamina dextra and sinistra) and a ventral **body** (corpus). [illegible] is expanded dorsally to form rostral and caudal [illegible] (cornua rostralis et caudalis). The rostral process articulates with the hyoid bone, the caudal process with the cricoid. In the horse the rostral process is separated [illegible] by a **notch** (fissura thyroidea) (Fig. 8-16). [illegible] the ventral part of the thyroid cartilage is replaced by a **fibrous bridge** rostrally to which the stalk of the epiglottis attaches. This leaves a large notch caudal to it in the [illegible] larynx, which is covered by soft tissues only, thus [illegible] convenient access for laryngeal surgery.

[illegible] cartilages (cartilagines arytaenoideae)

[illegible] cartilages are formed of **hyaline cartilage** and [illegible] paired **laryngeal cartilages**, which meet dorsally to cover the notch left open by the lamina of the thyroid cartilage, thus forming the major part of the roof of the larynx. A small hyaline **interarytenoid cartilage** (cartilago interarytenoidea) may be found between the arytenoid cartilages dorsally.

The arytenoid cartilages have the form of a triangle from which three processes radiate: the corniculate process, which extends dorsomedially from the rostral angle of the triangle; a vocal process, to which the vocal fold attaches projects ventrally into the laryngeal cavity; and a muscular process, which extends laterally and provides attachment to the dorsal cricoarytenoid muscle. A caudal facet articulates with the arytenoid plate.

Cricoid cartilage (cartilago cricoidea)

The cricoid cartilage forms a complete ring at the caudal end of the larynx (Fig. 8-16). It has the shape of a signet ring with an expanded dorsal **plate** (lamina) and a narrower ventral arch. The dorsal plate articulates with the arytenoid cartilages, while the ventral arch articulates with the caudal processes of the thyroid cartilage. The ventral arch is very similar to the caudally succeeding tracheal cartilages. Like the thyroid cartilage it is formed of **hyaline cartilage**, which may also ossify with age.

Laryngeal cavity (cavum laryngis)

The inlet to the **laryngeal cavity** (aditus laryngis) is bound by the epiglottis, the **aryepiglottic fold** (plica aryepiglottica) and the arytenoid cartilages (Fig. 8-19). The laryngeal inlet leads into the wide antechamber or **vestibule of the larynx** (vestibulum laryngis).

The middle portion is known as the glottis and consists of the paired arytenoid cartilages dorsally (pars intercartilaginea) and the paired vocal folds ventrally (pars intermembranacea) that form a narrow passageway into the pharynx called the **glottic cleft** (rima glottis) (Fig. 8-23). Caudal to the

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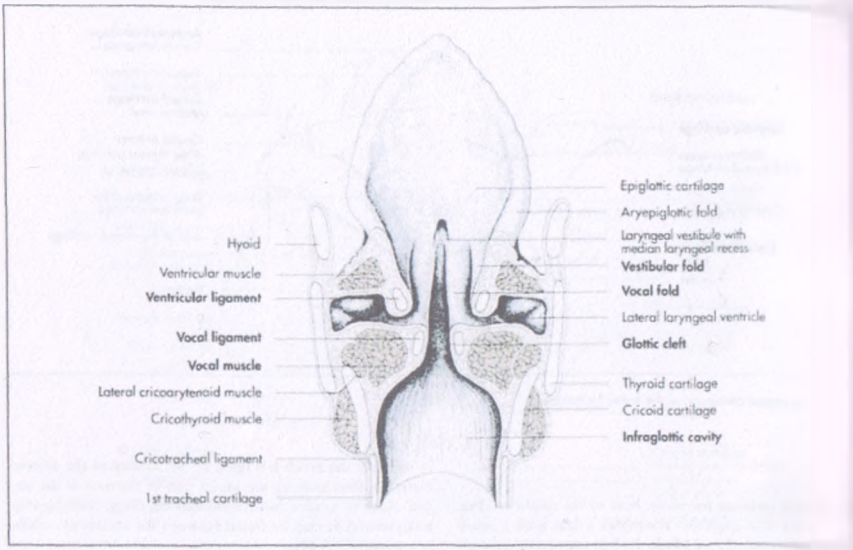


Fig. 8-19. Dorsal section of the larynx of the horse (schematic); after Budras and Röck, 1994.

glottis the lumen becomes wider to form the **infraglottic cavity** (cavum infraglotticum), which extends to the trachea.

In the horse and the dog, a **lateral laryngeal ventricle** (ventriculus laryngis lateralis) is formed on each side by an outpouching of the laryngeal mucosa. The entrance to the lateral ventricles is located between the vestibular fold rostrally and the vocal fold caudally (Fig. 8-19). In the pig and horse an unpaired **median outpouching** (recessus laryngis medianus) of the floor of the laryngeal vestibule is present caudal to the epiglottis (Fig. 8-19).

In the pig the vocal fold is split into two portions with a small lateral laryngeal ventricle between them.

Articulations and ligaments of the larynx

All articulations between the different laryngeal cartilages are synovial joints with the exception of the articulation between the epiglottis and the rest of the larynx. There is also a synovial articulation between the thyroid and thyrohyoid cartilages. The epiglottis is joined to the thyroid cartilage by **elastic fibres** and to the arytenoid cartilages by **elastic membranes**.

The synovial articulations between the cricoid cartilage and the arytenoid cartilages (articulatio cricoarytaenoidea) allow abduction and adduction to the arytenoid cartilages, which results in expansion of the glottic cleft during inspiration and narrowing of the glottic cleft during expiration (Fig. 8-23).

In some horses, hemiplegia of the **left recurrent [illegible] nerve** results in incomplete abduction of the [illegible] cartilage and thus the left vocal fold does not abduct [illegible] ciently, thus producing a **"roaring"** sound during [illegible] (Fig. 8-24). The aetiopathogenesis of this condition [illegible] known and results in palpable atrophy of the dorsal [illegible] tenoid muscle, the abductor of the arytenoid cartilage.

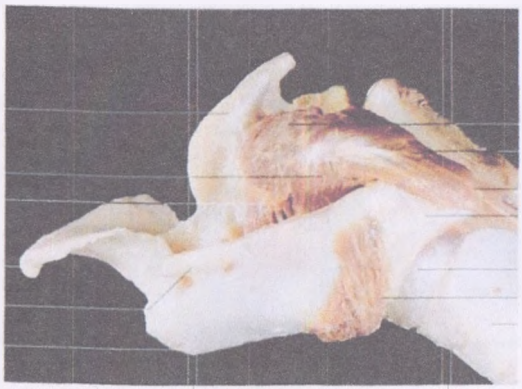
dorsocaudal angle of the thyroid cartilage articulates [illegible] lamina of the cricoid cartilage (articulatio cricoarytaenoidea) (Fig. 8-20 and 21), the ventrocaudal part of the thyroid cartilage is connected to the ventral arch of the cricoid cartilage by the cricothyroid ligament. In the horse the cricothyroid ligament covers the wide caudal thyroid notch and has to be resected to permit access to the laryngeal cavity during [illegible].

The **vocal ligament** (ligamentum vocale) [illegible] tween the vocal process of the arytenoid cartilage and the body of the thyroid cartilage on either side. It forms the core of the **vocal fold** (plica vocalis) (Fig. 8-19). In addition to the vestibular fold a vestibular ligament is present [illegible] vocal ligament. The larynx is joined to the hyoid bone rostrally by the thyrohyoid membrane and to the first tracheal cartilage caudally by the cricotracheal ligament.

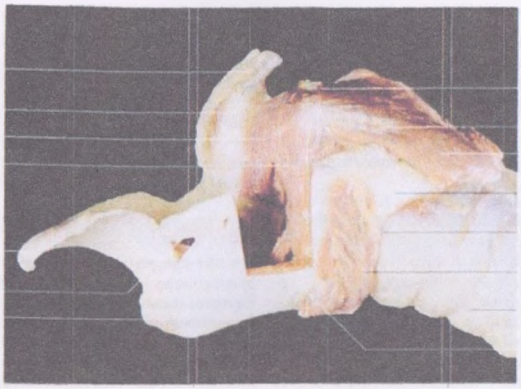
Muscles of the larynx

There are several groups of muscles (Fig. 8-20 and [illegible]) which are related to the larynx:

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Larynx of a horse, demonstrating the laryngeal muscles, courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna



Larynx of a horse (thyroid cartilage partly removed); courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna

muscles that pass between the external
of the larynx and the pharynx,
hyoid bone, sternum and tongue, and
muscles that pass between the
cartilages.

laryngeal muscles comprise the long muscles of
which originate from the sternum and draw
cranially, and the muscles which originate from the
and draw the larynx rostrally. These muscles
in detail in Chapter 2. The intrinsic laryngeal
consists of a set of small paired muscles that join
cartilages (Fig. 8-20f). They widen and nar-
glottic cleft and tense and relax the vocal folds (Fig.
intrinsic laryngeal musculature are the:

- cricothyroid muscle (m. cricothyroideus),
- dorsal cricoarytenoid muscle (m. cricoarytenoideus dorsalis),
- lateral cricoarytenoid muscle (m. cricoarytenoideus lateralis),
- transverse arytenoid muscle (m. arytenoideus transversus) and
- thyroarytenoid muscle (m. thyroarytenoideus).

The **cricothyroid muscle** extends between the lateral surface of the thyroid lamina and the cricoid arch. It is the only laryngeal muscle which is innervated by the **cranial laryngeal nerve**, while all the other muscles of this group are innervated by branches of the **caudal (recurrent) laryngeal nerve**. On contraction, it tenses the vocal folds.

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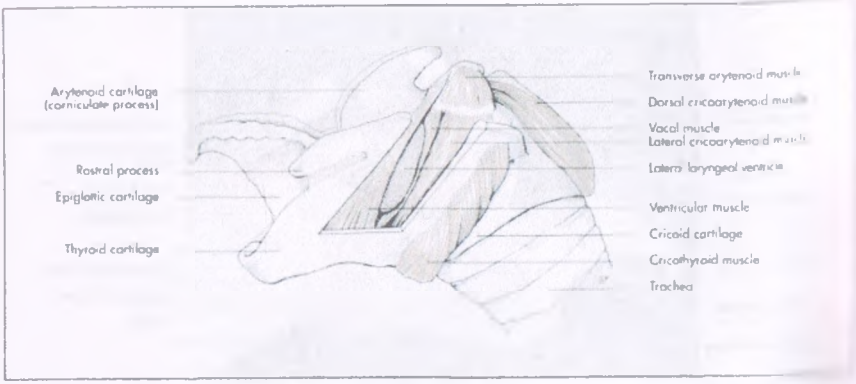


Fig. 8-22. Larynx of the horse (schematic, thyroid cartilage partly removed).

The **dorsal cricoarytenoid muscle** is the main abductor of the vocal folds, which widens the glottic cleft. It arises from the dorsal surface of the cricoid lamina, and its fibres converge rostrally to insert on the muscular process of the arytenoid cartilages. The lateral cricoarytenoid muscle extends between the cricoid arch and the muscular process of the arytenoid cartilages. Contraction of this muscle narrows the glottic cleft.

The **transverse arytenoid muscle** is a relatively weak muscle that connects the muscular processes of one arytenoid cartilage with its contralateral counterpart. It is interrupted by a median tendineous intersection. It adducts the two arytenoid cartilages, thus narrowing the glottic cleft.

The **thyroarytenoid muscle** arises from the base of the epiglottis and the thyroid cartilage and passes caudodorsally to insert on the muscular and vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages. In the horse and the dog it is divided into the ventricular and the vocal muscles, which run with the like-named folds. They increase the tension of the vocal folds and narrow the glottic cleft.

Functions of the larynx

During swallowing the epiglottis protects the lower respiratory tract against aspiration of foreign material. (For a detailed description of the swallowing mechanism see Chapter 7.1.)

The glottis closes **(expiration)** and opens **(inspiration)** rhythmically during respiration. Widening of the glottis is mainly a result of the contraction of the dorsal cricoarytenoid muscles; narrowing is achieved by contraction of the lateral cricoarytenoid muscles, both of which are innervated by the caudal (recurrent) laryngeal nerves. These movements can be visualised by performing laryngoscopy. Abduction of the left side is reduced in a horse with paralysis of the left recurrent laryngeal nerve.

Closure of the glottis also occurs during coughing and sneezing: built-up pressure against a closed glottis allows for forceful expulsion when the air is released. Sustained [illegible] with elevation of the intrathoracic pressure is [illegible] straining during defecation, micturition and parturition.

Another important function of the larynx is [illegible]. Purring sounds in the cat are produced by the rapid [illegible] tions (20–30 per second) of the vocal muscles [illegible] fast twitching of the diaphragm. This causes [illegible] vocal folds during inspiration and expiration.

Blood supply and innervation of the larynx

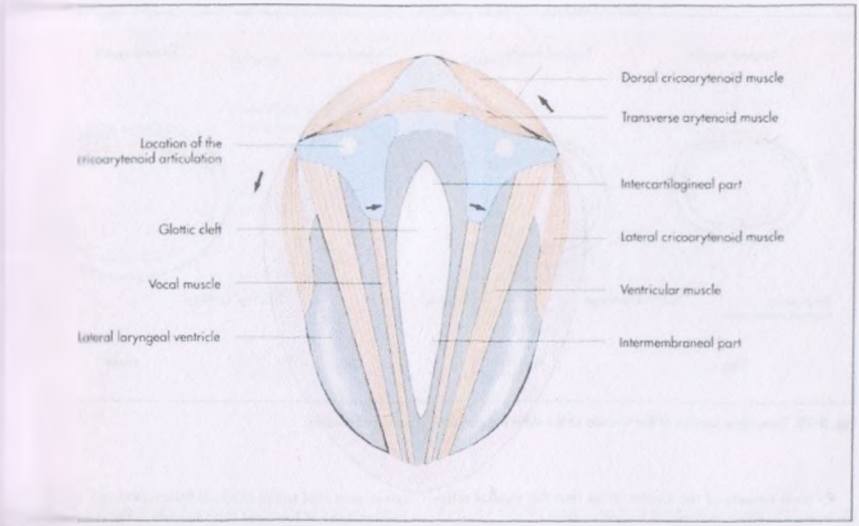
The blood supply of the larynx is provided by the [illegible] branch (ramus laryngeus) of the **cranial thyroid** [illegible] thyroidea cranialis), which extends from the cranial [illegible] the **common carotid artery** (a. carotis communis). [illegible] ryngeal branch of the cranial thyroid artery bran[illegible] a muscular branch which supplies the laryngeal [illegible] continues through the thyroid notch to supply the [illegible] vestibular muscles and the laryngeal mucosa.

The larynx is innervated by branches of the [illegible]. The **cranial laryngeal nerve** (n. laryngeus cranialis) [illegible] es from the vagus nerve caudal to the pharyngeal [illegible] the level of the **distal ganglion of the vagus** (ganglion [illegible] nervi vagi, formerly called the nodose ganglion). This [illegible] on is not visible macroscopically in all individuals, [illegible] found histologically.

The **cranial laryngeal nerve** divides into an [illegible] internal branch. The external branch innervates the [illegible] tors of the pharynx and the cricothyroid muscle. [illegible] inals, it communicates with the caudal laryngeal [illegible] internal branch passes over the thyroid notch to the [illegible] the larynx, where it innervates the mucosa. The [illegible] branch usually anastomoses (ramus communicans) [illegible] caudal laryngeal nerve.

The **caudal laryngeal nerves** (n. laryngeus caudalis) [illegible] ply motor innervation to all of the intrinsic muscles of the [illegible] ynx except the cricothyroid muscle. It originates in the [illegible]

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Cross section of the larynx of the horse (schematic, arrows indicating the narrowing and expansion of the glottic cleft), after [illegible], 1994.

off from the vagus. During embryonic develop- the heart the left and right caudal laryngeal nerves caudally to pass around the aorta on the left and the costocervical artery on the right before running to the larynx as the **recurrent nerves** (nn. laryngei Hemiplegia of the left recurrent laryngeal nerve may relate to mechanical damage as this nerve crossed the aorta.

caudal (recurrent) laryngeal nerve is of clinical im- in the horse, since **paralysis** (most commonly) of recurrent laryngeal nerve results in a stertorous sound heard at inspiration in affected animal. The term "roar- applied to this condition, and affected animals are **roarers**". The sound is caused by the air flow pas- causing a lax, adducted vocal fold. The laxity results paralysis of the dorsal cricoarytenoid muscle, the ab- of the arytenoid cartilage and vocal fold, although other may also be involved, especially in more advanced of the disease. Several theories regarding the actio- of the disease have been advanced. The asym- incidence directs attention to the differences in the and arborization of the left versus the right recurrent laryn- The left nerve loops around the aortic arch, which mechanical damage to the nerve by the pulsing The close proximity of the tracheobronchial lymph may also be involved in the aetiopathogenesis of this whereby inflammation may result in a distal av- (Fig. 8-24).



Fig. 8-24. Larynx of a horse suffering from hemiplegia of the left recurrent laryngeal nerve (rostral aspect), courtesy of Dr. Susanne Vrba, Vienna.

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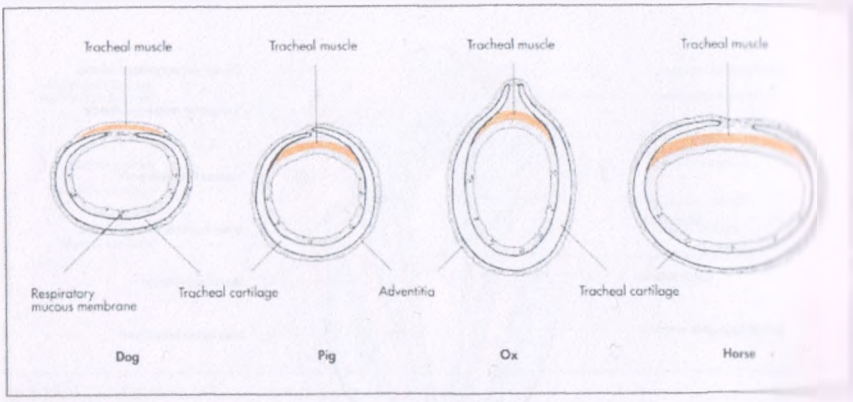


Fig. 8-25. Transverse section of the trachea of the different domestic species (schematic).

Lymph vessels of the larynx drain into the medial retropharyngeal and deep cervical lymph nodes.

Trachea (trachea)

The trachea extends from the cricoid cartilage of the larynx to its bifurcation. It consists of a series of C-shaped hyaline cartilages connected by ligaments. The **number of the tracheal cartilages** varies among individuals:

- horse: 48 – 60
- ox: 48 – 60
- sheep: 48 – 60
- goat: 48 – 60
- pig: 29 – 36
- dog: 42 – 46
- cat: 38 – 43

The **tracheal cartilages** are open dorsally and have different shapes in the different domestic species (Fig. 8-25). The space left by failure of these cartilages to meet dorsally is bridged by the transverse **tracheal muscle** and connective tissue. The resulting rings are united in a longitudinal direction by bands of **fibroelastic tissue**.

The trachea is lined by **respiratory mucosa** with a pseudostratified, ciliated epithelium and has mucus-secreting glands over its entire length. The outer layer is composed of adventitia in the neck and of serosa in the thorax. The adventitia consists of loose connective tissue, which connects the trachea to adjacent organs. The caudal laryngeal nerves pass within the tracheal adventitia.

The trachea passes from the larynx, through the visceral space of the neck ventral to the cervical spine and the longus colli muscle to the thoracic inlet. It continues to its bifurcation dorsal to the base of the heart at the level of the fifth intercostal space. In ruminants and pigs a separate tracheal bronchus arises proximal to the tracheal bifurcation and [illegible] cessory lobe of the right lung present in these species.

The **cervical portion of the trachea** maintains a [illegible] position in relationship to the oesophagus deposition. Ventrally it is connected to the long hyoid [illegible] common carotid artery and the vagosympathetic [illegible] on its lateral sides.

Lung (pulmo)

The **right** and the **left lung** are grossly alike [illegible] ed with each other at the bifurcation of the tra[illegible] elastic, air-filled organs with a soft, spongy texture. [illegible] our depends on the blood content: it is pale pink [illegible] animals which have been exsanguinated, but [illegible] filled with blood. The lungs occupy most of the [illegible] ity, and each lung is invaginated in the corresponding [illegible] sac. A thin fluid-filled cleft is present between the [illegible] **pleura (pleura pulmonalis)** and the **parietal** pleura serves to reduce friction during respiration. [illegible] tailed description of the pleura see Chapter 6.)

Each lung has a convex **costal surface** (facies [illegible] jacent to the thoracic wall, a **mediastinal surface** [illegible] diastinalis) towards the mediastinum, and a slightly [illegible] **surface** (facies diaphragmatica), which lies [illegible] face of the diaphragm.

Dorsally the mediastinal and the costal surfaces [illegible] thick, rounded **dorsal border** (margo dorsalis) [illegible] which occupies the gutter-shaped space between [illegible] the vertebrae. Ventrally these surfaces meet in the [illegible] **border** (margo ventralis seu acutus), which [illegible] the heart to form the **cardiac notch** (incisura cardiaca) [illegible] allows the pericardium to contact the lateral thoracic wall.

The diaphragmatic surface meets the costal surface [illegible] **basal border** (margo basalis), and the mediastinal [illegible] the **mediastinal border** (margo mediastinalis).

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Summary of the pulmonary lobes of the different animales, after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

Left lung	Right lung
Cranial lobe (divided) Caudal lobe	Cranial lobe Middle lobe Caudal lobe Accessory lobe
Cranial lobe (divided) Caudal lobe	Cranial lobe Middle lobe Caudal lobe Accessory lobe
Cranial lobe (divided) Caudal lobe	Cranial lobe (divided) Middle lobe Caudal lobe Accessory lobe
Cranial lobe Caudal lobe	Cranial lobe Caudal lobe Accessory lobe

...ends cranially, together with the pleural cupula, ... thoracic inlet into the visceral part of the neck. ... of each lung that receives the main bronchus, ... by the **pulmonary vessels** (pulmonary artery ... bronchial artery and vein, lymph vessels) and **nerves** ... the **root of the lung** (radix pulmonis).

... are fixed in place by their attachment to the ... vessels, the mediastinum and the pleura. ... the pulmonary ligament dorsomedially to ... lungs with the mediastinum and the diaphragm.

... of the lungs

... are composed of **parenchyma** and **interstitium**. ... pulmonary parenchyma is the organ where ox... the atmosphere and carbon dioxide from the blood ... It comprises the bronchioles and their branch... terminating pulmonary alveoli. The interstitium ... elastic and collagenous soft tissue, which includes ... smooth muscle fibres, nerve fibres, blood and ...

... of the lungs are covered by the pulmonary ... the pleura a fibrous capsule encloses the or... septa between the lobules, which are more ... distinct depending on the species. The ... of the interstitial tissue is responsible for the capa... of the lung to expand on inspiration and collapse on ex... Loss of this elasticity, which occurs naturally with ... also in certain pathological conditions, reduces ... efficiency. In the horse for example, **chronic ob... pulmonary disease (COPD)** causes pulmonary ... where the fibres of the interstitium are torn.

... affected animals strain on expiration ("heav... ... to be assisted by contraction of the abdomi... In advanced cases this leads to the forma... tion of a visible groove between the aponeurosis and the muscular part of the external oblique abdominal muscle.

Bronchial tree (arbor bronchialis)

The bronchi divide within the lungs **dichotomously** or **trichotomously**, with each new generation being smaller in diameter, thus forming the bronchial tree (Fig. 8.30). Based on function, the bronchial tree can be divided into two parts:

- **respiratory passageways**
  - principal bronchi (bronchi principales),
  - lobar bronchi (bronchi lobares),
  - segmental bronchi (bronchi segmentales),
  - subsegmental bronchi (bronchi subsegmentales),
  - true and terminal bronchioli (bronchioli veri et bronchioli terminales) and
- **sites of gaseous exchange within the lungs**
  - respiratory bronchioli (bronchioli respiratorii),
  - alveolar ducts (ductus alveolares),
  - alveolar sacs (sacculi alveolares) and
  - pulmonary alveoles (alveoli pulmonis).

The bronchial tree begins with the bifurcation of the trachea by the formation of the **right** and **left principal bronchi** (bronchus principalis dexter et sinister). Each principal bronchus divides into **lobar bronchi** (bronchi lobares), which supply the various lobes of the lungs and are named according to the lobe supplied. Within the lobe, the lobar bronchi divide in... to **segmental bronchi** (bronchi segmentales).

The segmental bronchi and the lung tissue they ventilate are referred to as **bronchopulmonary segments** (segmenta bronchopulmonalia). These segments are cone-shaped, with the apex of the cone pointing towards the pulmonary root and

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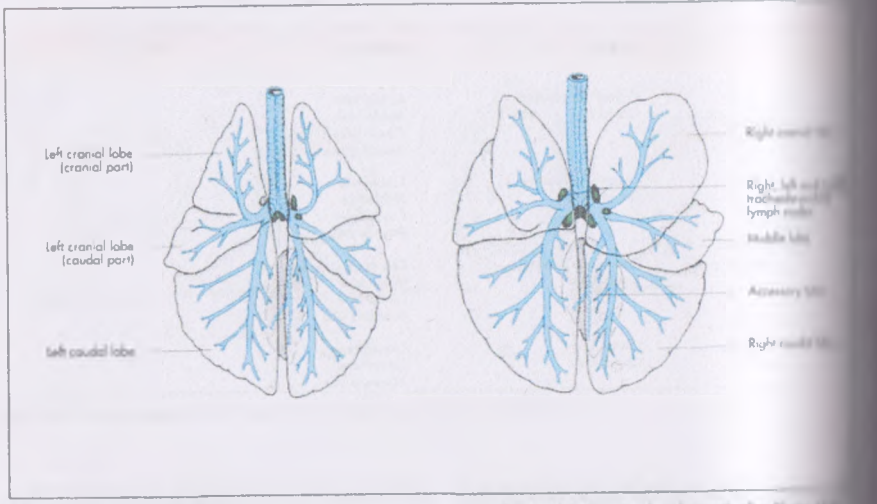


Fig. 8-26. Lung lobes, bronchial tree and lymph nodes of the cat (left) and the dog (right) (schematic, dorsal aspect; after Ghetie, 1958).

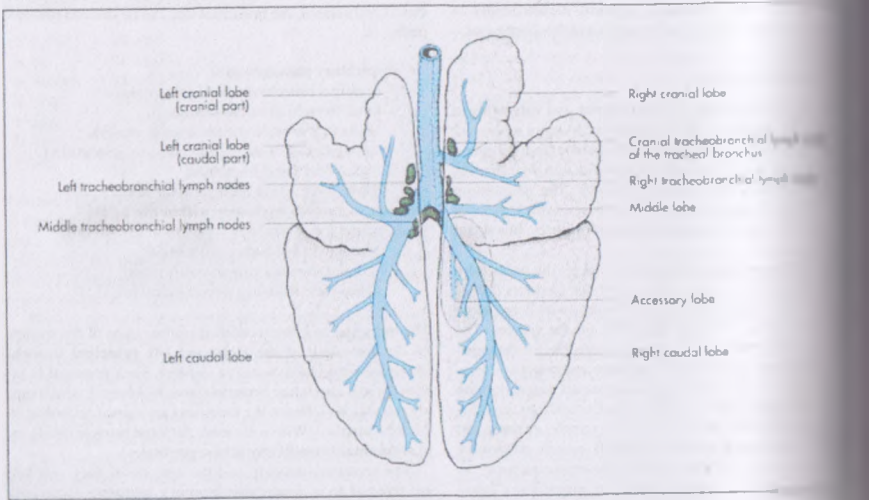
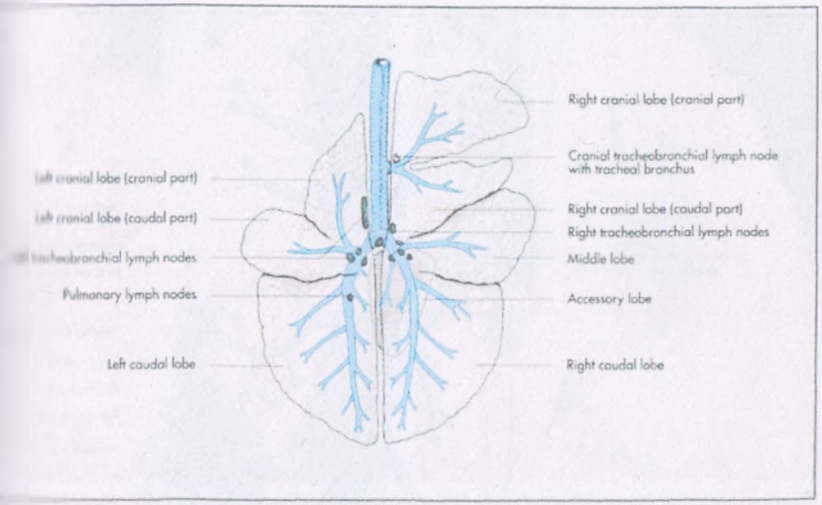
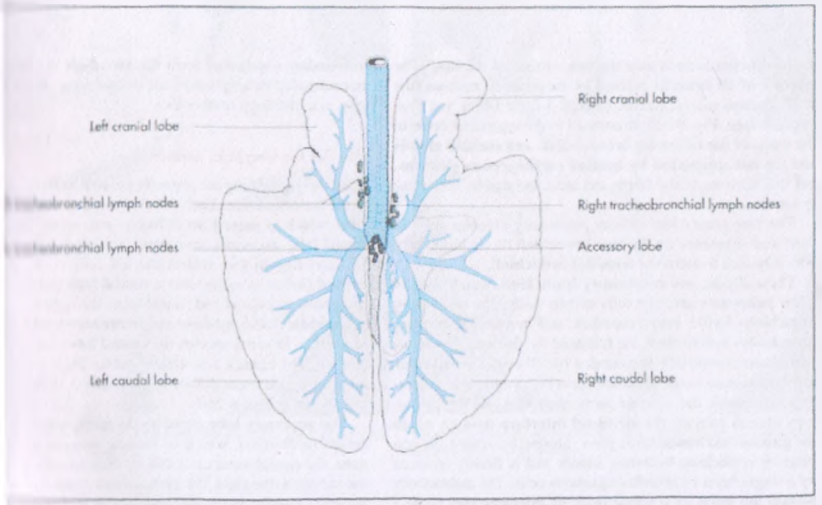


Fig. 8-27. Lung lobes, bronchial tree and lymph nodes of the pig (schematic, dorsal aspect; after Ghetie, 1958).

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lobes, bronchial tree and lymph nodes of the ox (schematic, dorsal aspect); after Ghetie, 1958.



lobes, bronchial tree and lymph nodes of the horse (schematic, dorsal aspect); after Ghetie, 1958.

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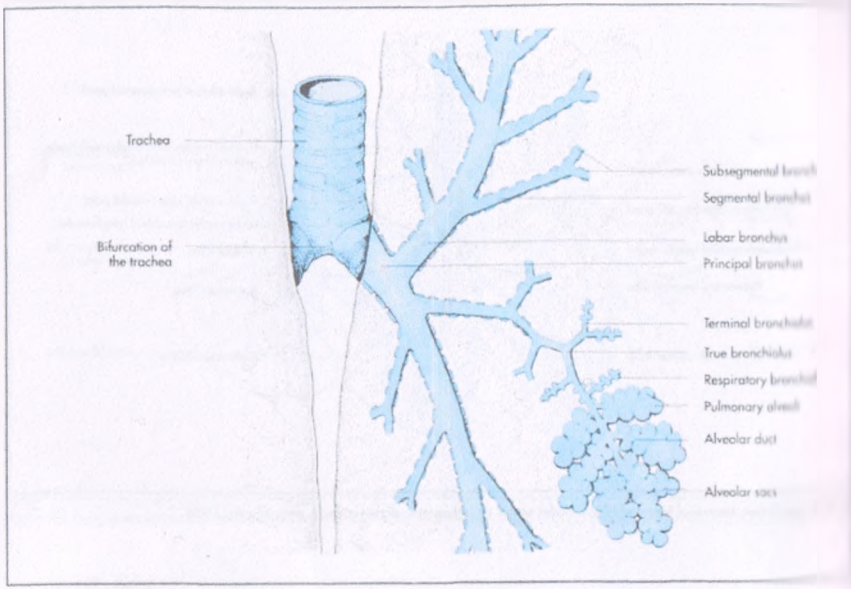


Abb. 8-30. Bronchial tree (schematic).

the base being located near the free surface of the lung. The **interior of all bronchi** is lined by **respiratory mucosa**; the wall contains mixed glands, smooth muscle fibres and hyaline cartilage (Fig. 8-35). In contrast to the segmental bronchi the walls of the following bronchioli do **not contain glands** and are **not supported by hyaline cartilagenous** elements, but still have muscular fibres and are also lined by respiratory mucosa.

The last generation without pulmonary alveolar cells in their wall segments are the **true bronchioli** (bronchioli veri), which branch to form the **terminal bronchioli**.

These divide into **respiratory bronchioli**, which contain a few pulmonary alveolar cells in their walls. The respiratory bronchioli divide into secondary and tertiary respiratory bronchioles before they are followed by the alveolar ducts, which are completely surrounded by alveoli. The **alveolar ducts** terminate in the **alveolar sacs** (Fig. 8-36). The respiratory bronchioli, the alveolar ducts, their sacs and the pulmonary alveoli provide the **air-blood interface** through which the **gaseous exchange** takes place. During branching the respiratory epithelium becomes thinner and is finally replaced by a single layer of alveolar squamous cells. The **pulmonary alveoli** are lined by a single layer of **pneumocytes (type I and II)**, with an underlying basal membrane and are surrounded by a dense capillary network. The alveoli and the surrounding capillaries form the **blood-air barrier**. (For more detailed description of the microscopic structure of the lung, see histology textbooks.)

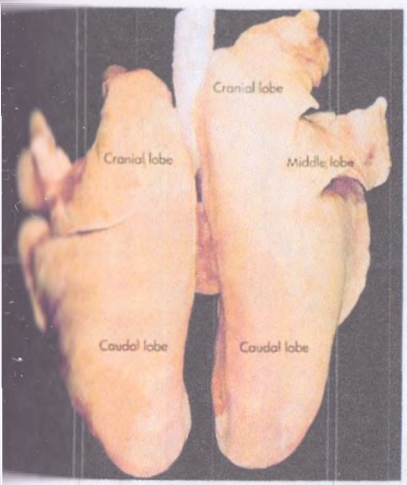
Lobes of the lung (lobi pulmonis)

The lobes of the lung are properly defined by the [illegible] of the bronchial tree. Each lobar **bronchus** supplies a **lobe**, which is named accordingly: e.g. cranial bronchus – cranial lobe, accessory bronchus – accessory lobe.

According to this system the left lung is divided into a **cranial** (lobus cranialis) and a **caudal lobe** (lobus caudalis). In addition to cranial and caudal lobes the right lung possesses a **middle** (lobus medius) and an **accessory lobe** (lobus accessorius). In some species the cranial lobes are further divided into cranial and caudal parts. The lobation of the lungs of the different domestic mammals is listed in Table 8.2 and shown in Fig. 8.26ff.

The **accessory lobe** occupies the **mediastinal** [illegible] cessus mediastini), which is located between the [illegible] num, the caudal vena cava and its mesovascular [illegible] nae cavae) to the right, the pericardium cranially and the phragm caudally. In the dog and the cat, part of the [illegible] lobe is outside the mediastinal recess. In ruminants the right cranial lobe is ventilated by the **tracheal** [illegible]

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[illegible] of a pig (dorsal aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl.

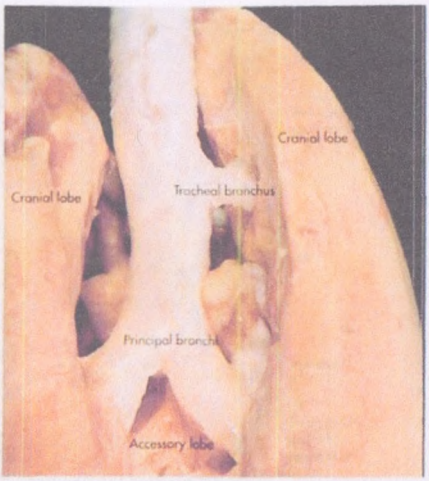
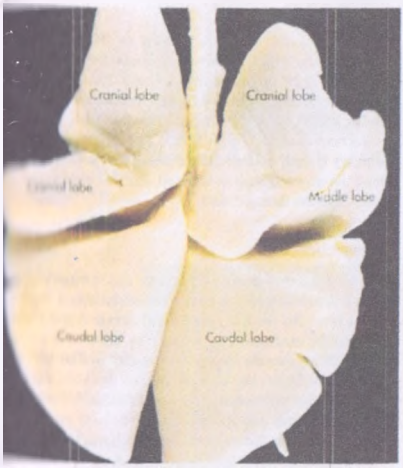


Fig. 8-32. Lungs of a pig demonstrating the tracheal bronchus (dorsal aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich.



[illegible] and lung of a cat (dorsal aspect, S10 plastinate), [illegible] of H. Dyer, Vienna.

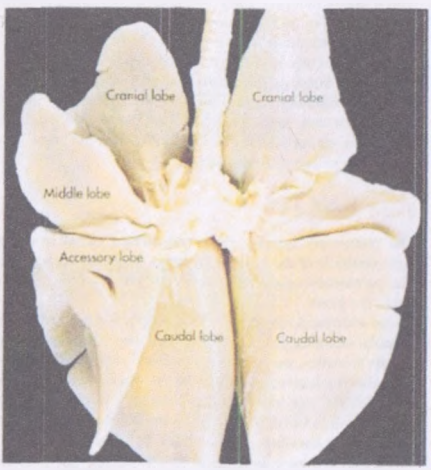


Fig. 8-34. Trachea and lung of a cat (ventral aspect, S10 plastinate), courtesy of H. Dyer, Vienna.

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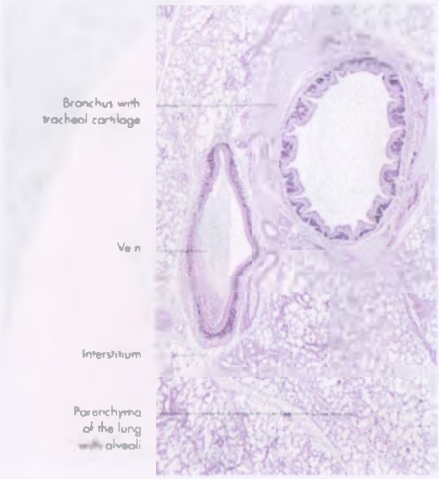


Fig. 8-35. Histologic section of the lung demonstrating bronchus, vein, parenchyma and interstitium.

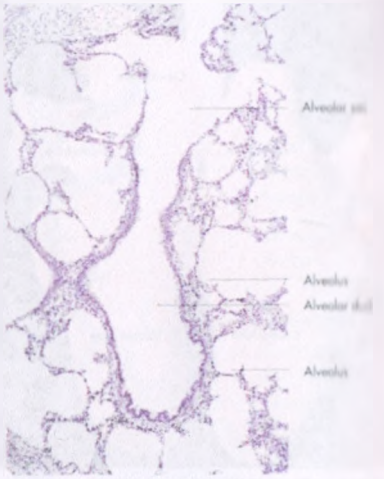


Fig. 8-36. Histologic section of the lung demonstrating [illegible] alveoli.

which arises independently from the trachea cranial to its bifurcation (Fig. 8-27, 28 and 32).

The identification of the lungs of individual species is most conveniently based on the degree of lobation and lobulation. The lungs of ruminants and pigs are conspicuously lobated and lobulated. The lung of the horse shows almost no lobation and very faint lobulation externally. Those of carnivores are very deeply fissured into lobes, but show little external evidence of lobulation.

Blood vessels

The pulmonary arteries carry non-aerated blood from the right ventricle of the heart to the lungs for gaseous exchange. The pulmonary veins return aerated blood from the left atrium to the heart.

An additional nutritional blood supply is provided by the broncho-oesophageal artery and vein. The pulmonary trunk and its branches, the pulmonary arteries, are the only arteries in the body which carry venous blood. Their branches follow the bronchial tree into the organ until they reach the pulmonary alveoli, around which they form a dense capillary network. Each alveolus is surrounded by about ten capillary loops. Part of these capillaries are permanently perfused, while others are only perfused when oxygen demand increases.

The branches of the pulmonary veins do not always follow the bronchial tree, but sometimes run separately.

Lymph nodes

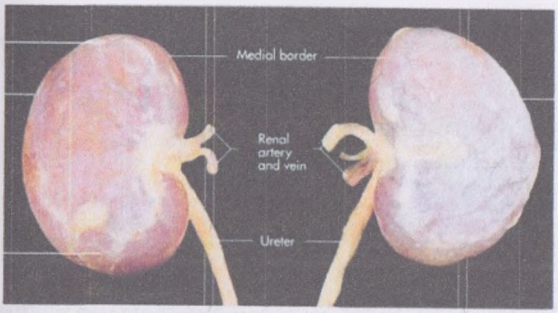
Lymph from the lungs is drained to the tracheobronchial lymph nodes, which are situated around the tracheal bifurcation (Fig. 8-26ff.). According to their location they are grouped into **left, right and middle tracheobronchial nodes**. In species with a tracheal bronchus there are additional tracheobronchial lymph nodes. The ox has additional **pulmonary lymph nodes** situated along the main bronchi. From these locations lymph is drained via the mediastinal lymph nodes into the thoracic duct.

Innervation

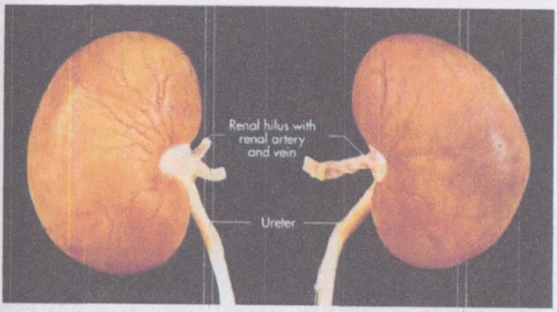
The lung receives **parasympathetic** and sympathetic [illegible] from a pulmonary plexus within the mediastinum. Sympathetic fibres from the medial and **caudal cervical ganglia** [illegible] ate into the mediastinum, where they unite with parasympathetic fibres from the vagus to form the **cardiac plexus** at the base of the heart. The cardiac plexus delivers the [illegible] bres for the pulmonary plexus. Efferent fibres supply bronchial glands and muscles and the blood vessels. Afferent fibres come from the mucosa and stretch receptors.

Clinical terms related to the respiratory system: rhinitis, laryngitis, laryngoscopy, laryngotomy, tracheitis, bronchitis, bronchoscopy, bronchography, pneumonia, pleurisy.

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Left and right kidneys of a dog with renal capsule (dorsal aspect)



Left and right kidneys of a dog, renal capsule removed (dorsal aspect)



Equatorial section of the smooth, unilobar kidney of a dog.

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called **primary urine**. The **ultrafiltrate** is iso-osmotic and isotonic and essentially contains the same substances as plasma with the exception of the high molecular weight protein molecules. The ultrafiltrate is subjected to further processing by which useful substances (e.g. water, glucose, electrolytes and amino acids) are selectively reabsorbed and waste substances concentrated for elimination. The end product of these processes is the **secondary urine**, which has only 1%–2% of the volume of the primary urine. In large dogs 1000 to 2000 litres of blood perfuse the kidneys daily from which 200 to 300 litres are filtered as the primary urine, which is then reduced by reabsorption processes to the 1–2 litres which are eliminated.

The kidneys also have **endocrine functions**. They produce the hormone renin, which converts the plasma protein angiotensinogen into angiotensin I. In the liver the angiotensin converting enzyme converts angiotensin I into angiotensin II, which causes arterial constriction, thus increasing the blood pressure. Bradykinin is another hormone produced by the kidneys, which causes dilatation of blood vessels. Erythropoetin, produced by the kidneys, enhances erythropoesis.

Location of the kidneys

The kidneys are paired structures lying retroperitoneally pressed against the dorsal abdominal wall on either side of the vertebral column. They are predominantly located in the lumbar region, but extend cranially under the last ribs into the intrathoracic part of the abdomen. Their position changes by half the length of a vertebra with the movement of the diaphragm.

In domestic mammals other than the pig, the **right kidney** is located further cranial than the left and its cranial extremity lies in contact with the caudate process of the liver and the right hepatic lobe. It lies in a **fossa of the liver** (impressio renalis), which helps to limit its movement. The **left kidney** is more mobile, as an equivalent impression is not present in the liver. In ruminants, the considerable size of the rumen pushes the left kidney towards the right half of the abdomen, where it is suspended by the long and mobile mesonephros caudal to the right kidney. Each kidney is embedded in fat, which protects against distorting pressure from the adjacent organs.

Shape of the kidneys

The kidneys are reddish-brown organs, the shape of which varies considerably among the domestic mammals (Fig. 9-10). The basic form is **bean-shaped** as found in the dog, cat, sheep and goat. The kidneys of the pig are more flattened, the right kidney of the horse has a **valentine heart shape**, while the left has a bean to **pyramidal shape**. The bovine kidney has an **irregular oval shape** and its surface is fissured to divide the organ into many lobes. The kidneys of the other domestic mammals have a smooth surface. A complete separation of the different renal lobes is found in certain marine species, whose kidneys resemble a bunch of grapes.

The kidney can be described in terms of its dorsal and ventral surfaces, lateral and medial borders and cranial and caudal extremities or poles. The medial border of the kidney is indented to form the **renal hilus** (hilus renalis), through which the dilatated origin of the ureter, the **renal pelvis** (pelvis renalis) exits and the renal vessels and nerves (Fig. 9-11) enter the kidney.

Structure of the kidney

The renal parenchyma is enclosed within a tough fibrous **capsule**, which passes inward at the medial aspect of the hilus to line the walls of the renal sinus. This capsule can be easily removed from a healthy kidney during post-mortem examination, but adheres after the tissue is scarred by disease.

The parenchyma of the kidney is visible (Fig. 9-10 and 11) divided into:

- **renal cortex** (cortex renis),
  - peripheral zone (zona peripherica),
  - juxtamedullar zone (zona juxtamedullaris),
- **renal medulla** (medulla renis),
  - external zone and
  - internal zone.

The **renal cortex** is reddish-brown in colour and has a fine granular appearance. The cortex is delineated into small **lobules** (lobuli corticales) by radial lines, which identify the path of the **radiate arteries** (aa. radiatae).

The **renal medulla** consists of a dark **outer zone** and a paler **inner zone**, which is radially striated and extends into the **renal sinus** (Fig. 9-7 and 9).

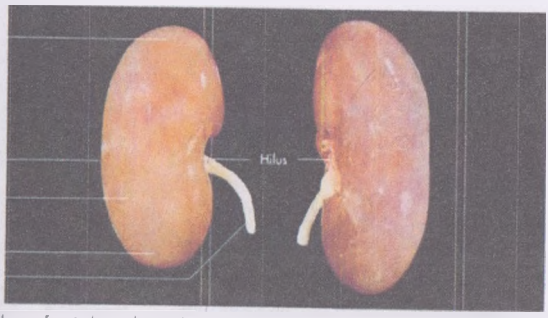
During embryonic development, all mammalians pass through a stage, in which the kidneys have a multilobar structure, although in most species the number of lobes is considerably reduced by fusion of the separate lobes. The degree of fusion varies among species.

In the ox and the pig, the medulla and its associated cortex are divided into **pyramidal shaped lobes**. The apex of each lobe is directed towards the renal sinus and forms a papilla, which fits into a **cup-like expansion** (calix) of the renal pelvis or ureter. Kidneys that retain this architecture are referred to as **multilobar** or **multipyramidal**. While the kidney of the pig has a smooth surface, in the ox the multilobar organization of the kidney is revealed by the fissures that penetrate the organ between the different lobes from the surface.

In the dog, horse and sheep all the lobes fuse finally to form a single medullary mass surrounded by a continuous cortical shell. The fusion joins the papillae in a common **renal crest** (crista renalis) (Fig. 9-21). Even in this **unilobar type** of kidney some evidence of its complex origin is maintained: in the dog and cat pseudopapillae project dorsal and ventral to the papillary crest, separated by recesses of the **renal pelvis** (recessus pelvis) (Fig. 9-19). These recesses are divided into two parts by the interlobar arteries and veins. The following types of kidney can be distinguished based on the degree of fusion:

- **unilobar kidneys** with a smooth surface and a single renal papilla: cat, dog, horse, small ruminants;
- **multilobar kidneys** with a smooth surface and multiple papillae: pig;
- **multilobar kidneys** with a lobated surface and multiple papillae: ox.

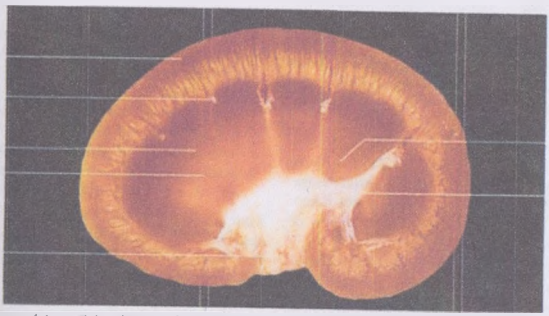
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Left and right kidneys of a pig (ventral aspect)



Kidney of a pig, demonstrating a smooth surface and an internal multilobar structure



Paramedian section of the unilobar kidney of a dog

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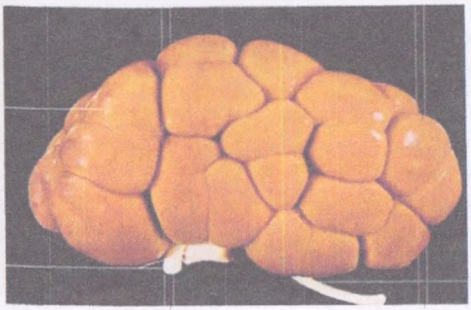


Fig. 9-8. Multilobar kidney of an ox.

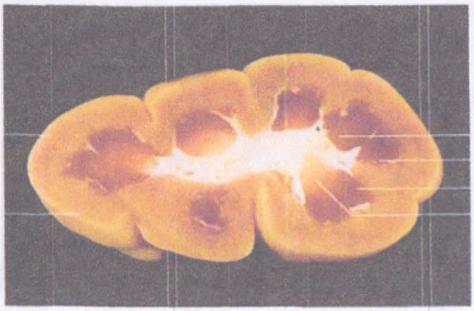


Fig. 9-9. Section of the multilobar kidney of an ox.

Functional units of the kidney

The functional units of the kidney are the **nephrons** or **renal tubules**. The nephrons are responsible for urine production, while the subsequent collecting tubules convey the urine to the renal pelvis.

They form a system of continuous convoluted tubules within the kidney, the number of which varies among the different domestic mammals. There are up to 400000 nephrons in the kidney of a dog, 500000 in the cat, 1 million in the pig, 4 million in the ox and up to 2.7 million nephrons in the kidney of a horse.

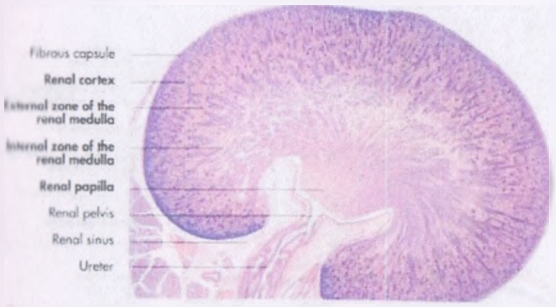
The renal tubules are supported by a connective tissue interstitium, through which blood vessels and nerves pass.

Each nephron is composed of several segments, which have the same embryological origin from the metanephron tissue:

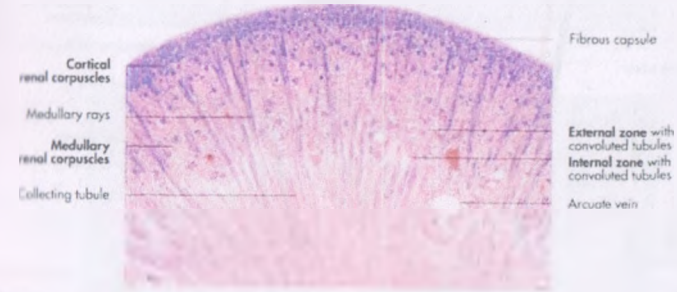
- glomerular capsule (capsula glomeruli),
- proximal convoluted tubule (tubulus contortus proximalis),
- loop of Henle (ansa nephroni),
  - descending limb (tubulus rectus proximalis),
  - U-turn (tubulus attenuatus),
  - ascending limb (tubulus rectus distalis) and
- distal convoluted tubule (tubulus contortus distalis).

Each nephron begins proximally with a blind expan... double-layered **glomerular capsule** (capsula g... Bowman capsule), that is invaginated by a sphe... of blood capillaries, the **glomerulus** (Fig. 9-10 and ... parietal layer of cells forms the outer wall of the g... capsule; the visceral layer, the inner wall towards the ... capillaries of the glomerulus. The inner wall is comp...

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Histological section of the kidney of a dog. Liebich, 2004



Histological section of the renal cortex and medulla of a dog. Liebich, 2004

Blood supply

About 20% of the arterial blood which is pumped from the heart into the arteries pass through the kidneys. There is significant variation in the exact vascular architecture between the different species and a detailed description is found in specialised literature. Knowledge of the basic principles of renal vascularisation is necessary in order to understand the functional mechanisms of the kidney.

The kidney is supplied by a **renal artery** (a. renalis), a branch of the abdominal aorta (Fig. 9-21f.). The renal artery divides into **several interlobar arteries** at the hilus of the kidney. These follow the divisions between the different renal lobes to the **corticomedullary junction** (Fig. 9-13, 14 and 16) where they branch into **arcuate arteries** (aa. arcuatae). The arcuate arteries curve over the bases of the **medullary cones** and give rise to the **interlobular arteries** (aa. interlobulares), which radiate into the cortex to supply the lobules (Fig. 9-14, 15 and 17). Afferent arterioles leave the interlobular arteries to enter the renal corpuscles, where it forms the **capillary loops of the glomerulus**.

Following the blood stream, the blood vessels of the kidney can be divided into the following principal pattern:

- **abdominal aorta** (aorta abdominalis)
  - **renal artery** (a. renalis),
    - interlobar artery (a. interlobaris),
    - arcuate artery (a. arcuata),
    - interlobular artery (a. interlobularis),
      - afferent glomerular artery (arteriola glomerularis afferens),
        glomerulus,
        efferent glomerular artery (arteriola glomerularis efferens),
      - capsular branch (ramus capsularis),
      - **capillary plexus around the renal tubules**,
    - interlobular vein (v. interlobularis),
    - arcuate vein (v. arcuata),
    - interlobar vein (v. interlobaris)
  - **renal vein** (v. renalis) and
- **caudal vena cava** (v. cava caudalis)

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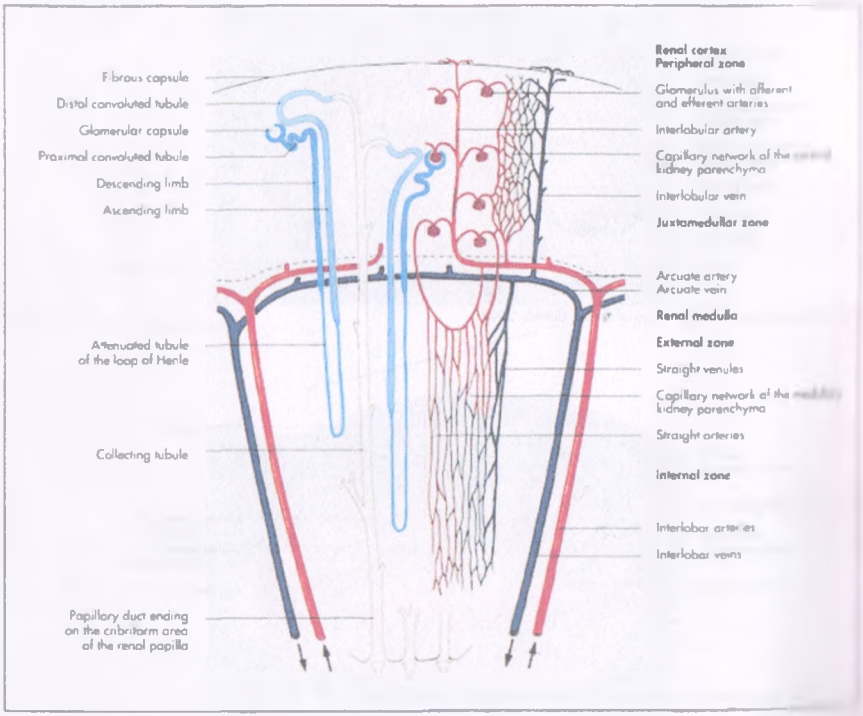


Fig. 9-15. Vascularisation of the kidney (schematic)

From the efferent arterioles of corpuscles, near to the corticomedullary junction, small arteries radiate straight into the medulla (arteriolae rectae). The blood drains from the capillaries into **straight venules** (venulae rectae) and then into the arcuate veins (Fig. 9-15). While the glomeruli are located within the glomerular capsule in the renal cortex, the straight blood vessels are located in the medulla.

The **renal corpuscles** are responsible for the production of the primary urine or ultrafiltrate, while the tubular part of the nephron and the straight blood vessels are responsible for the reabsorption of water and dissolved components from the primary urine.

Lymphatics

The lymphatics are satellites to the blood vessels and terminate in the **lumbar lymph nodes** (lymphonodi lumbales aortici). The lymph nodes of this series located closest to the kidneys are the **renal lymph nodes** (lymphonodi renales).

Innervation

The kidneys receive **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic** fibres from the **solar plexus**, which reach the organ along the renal arteries. Sympathetic fibres form synapses in the **coeliac ganglion** (ganglion coeliacum), in the **cranial mesenteric ganglion** (ganglion mesentericum craniale), and in the ganglia of the **renal plexus**. The dorsal branch of the vagus contributes the parasympathetic fibres.

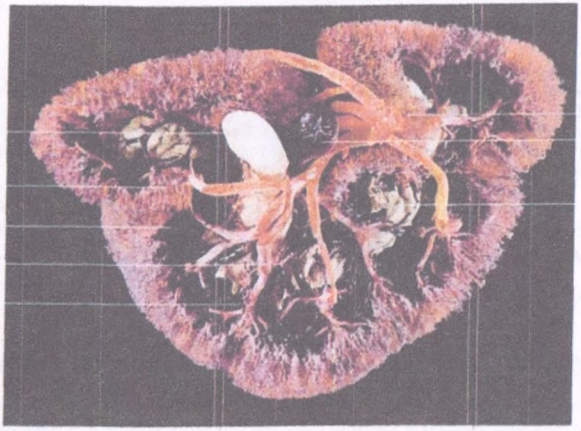
Renal pelvis (pelvis renalis)

In the domestic mammals other than the ox, the proximal ureter begins with a common expansion, the **renal pelvis**, into which all the **papillary ducts** open (Fig. 9-22). The renal pelvis is located within the **renal sinus**, but is found only in the renal tissue around the papillae only. In the dog and cat the renal pelvis can be assessed radiographically in contrast studies. In these species the renal pelvis is moulded around the

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9.18 Superficial blood vessels of the right kidney of a horse (corrosion cast, blue = stellate veins)



9.17 Deep blood vessels of the left kidney of a horse (corrosion cast).

and extends ventrally and dorsally to form the pelvic which are separated from each other by projections (pseudopapillae) (Fig. 9.18 and 19). Neigh- are also separated by the interlobular ves-

renal pelvis of the pig has a number of **short-** **calyces**, which embrace an equal number of renal that protrude into the renal pelvis.

is no renal pelvis in the ox. Instead the papilla of papillary lobe fits into a **calyx** formed by the terminal branches of the ureter. These branches unite into two major channels, which converge from both poles of the kidney to form a single ureter (Fig. 9.20).

The **renal pelvis** of the horse consists of a **central cavity** and two large **recesses** (recessus terminales) that are directed towards the poles of the kidney (Fig. 9.21). Most of the papillary ducts open into the recesses. The mucosa of the renal pelvis produces a mucous secretion, which accounts for the proteins normally present in the equine urine (physiological albuminuria).

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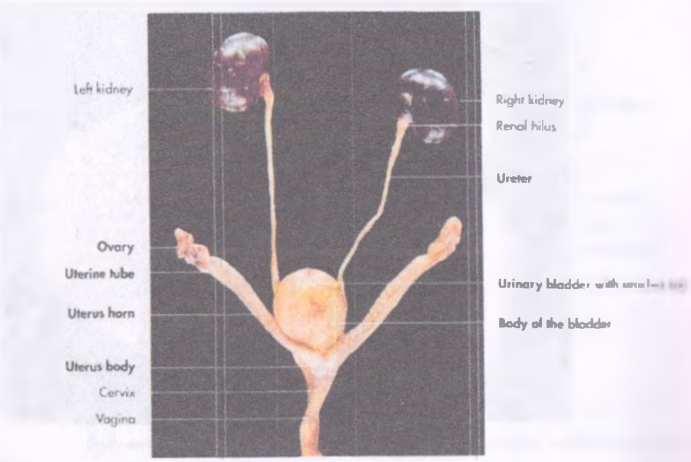


Fig. 9-24. Urogenital system of a cat (dorsal aspect) Konig 1992

parasympathetic innervation Sympathetic fibres arise from the **hypogastric nerves**, which radiate from the caudal mesenteric ganglion into the **pelvic plexus**. Parasympathetic pelvic nerves are derived from the **pudendal nerve**, the ventral branch of the third sacral segment, and radiate in to the **pelvic plexus**. Parasympathetic fibres supply somatic innervation to the bladder muscle, sensory [illegible] routed through the pudendal nerve.

The bladder can be tapp in the dog and the [illegible] to the rim of the pelvis. The needle should be [illegible] caudodorsal direction to avoid injuries which the [illegible] tracts.

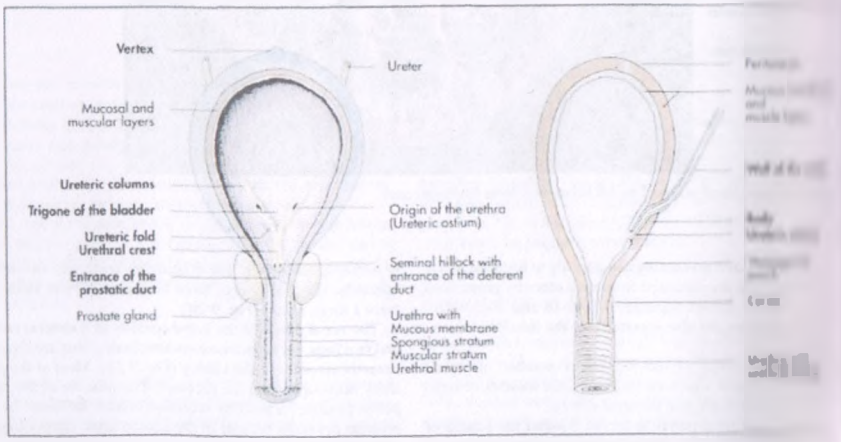


Fig. 9-25. Interior of the urinary bladder of the dog, ventral aspect (left), ureterovesical junction (right) (schematic)

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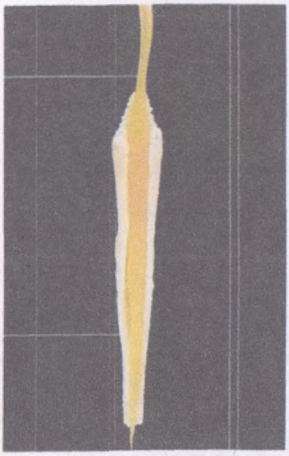


Fig. 9·26. Urethra of a dog within the penis with the penile bone (ventral aspect, corrosion cast)



Fig. 9·27. Urinary bladder and origin of the urethra (corrosion cast)

Urethra (urethra)

In the female animal the urethra exclusively serves to convey urine; in the male animal it carries urine, semen and semi- [illegible]. The female urethra extends caudally on the ventral to the reproductive tract. It passes oblique- [illegible] the wall of the vagina and opens with the **external urethral opening** (ostium urethrae externum) ventrally at between vagina and vestibule. The length and di- [illegible] of the urethra varies considerably between the domes- [illegible]. It is short and wide in the horse and compara- [illegible] in the dog, where it opens on a small elevation [illegible] two grooves. In the cow and sow the urethralis [illegible] encloses the suburethral diverticulum, which opens [illegible] with the urethra into the vagina. This arrangement [illegible] difficulties during catheterisation. The structure of [illegible] urethra is continuous with that of the bladder.

The **male urethra** extends from an internal opening at the [illegible] neck to an external opening at the end of the penis. It [illegible]

- [illegible] part (pars pelvina),
- [illegible]static portion (pars praeprostatica),
- [illegible] portion (pars prostatica) and
- [illegible] part (pars penina).

The **pelvic part** of the urethra begins at the internal opening at the bladder neck. Its **preprostatic portion** extends from the internal opening to the **seminal hillock** (colliculus seminalis), an oval enlargement of the urethral crest, which protrudes into the lumen of the urethra. It is flanked by the slit-like openings of the deferent ducts.

The **prostatic portion** is joined by the **deferent** and **vesicular ducts** and passes through the **prostate gland**.

The **penile portion** of the urethra begins at the ischial arch and is described with the penis in the following chapter.

The **urethral wall** contains a **venous plexus** in its submucosa, which has erectile properties that aid continence. The urethra is surrounded by the **striated urethral muscle** over most of its length. Caudally the muscle fibres are present on the ventral and lateral surface. Contraction of these muscle bundles closes the external opening of the urethra. Voluntary control of the urethral muscle is provided by somatic fibres of the **pudendal nerve** which also contains **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic fibres**.

Clinical terms related to the urinary system: nephritis, pyelonephritis, pyelography, cystoscopy, urography, urolithiasis, urethritis, urethrography, urethrostomy, urethrocystography.

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10 Male genital organs (organa genitalia masculina)

H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The male genital system comprises the organs that are involved in the development, maturation, transport and deposition of the **male gametes** (spermatozoa). It consists of the paired **testes**, the convoluted duct of the **epididymis** (ductus epididymidis), the **deferent duct** (ductus deferens), the **urethra** (pars pelvina urethrae) and the **accessory glands** (glandulae genitales accessoriae). The testes produce both sperm and hormones. The epididymis, stores spermatozoa during maturation before they pass to the deferent duct and the urethra. The accessory glands also drain into the urethra and contribute to the volume of semen. The distal part of the urethra forms the combined path for the passage of both urine and semen. The penis is the male copulatory organ and deposits the semen within the female reproductive tract (Fig. 10-1f).

Testis (orchis)

The testis, or male gonads (Greek "orchis", Latin "testis"), are paired organs, which take their embryological origin from the gonadal primordium on the medial aspect of the mesonephros in the lumbar region, in a similar manner to the ovaries of females. At a later stage of embryological development, the male gonads migrate from their developmental position within the abdominal cavity into the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis), covered by the **scrotum**. This process is termed the **descent of the testes** (descensus testis) and is dependent on the gubernaculum testis. This is a mesenchymal cord enfolded in peritoneum and, which extends from the scrotum through the inguinal canal into the preformed vaginal process.

In the first phase of **testicular descent**, the gubernaculum increases in length and diameter, expanding beyond the inguinal canal, thus dilatating it. During the second phase, it regresses, thus accommodating the testis within the **vaginal process**. The process of migration of the testes is the result of increased intra-abdominal pressure and the pull of the gubernaculum, thus drawing the testes toward the inguinal region. In the stallion and boar, fibres of the gubernaculum extend from to the **deep layer** (tunica dartos) of the scrotum. This is of clinical importance since pulling on the scrotum can help to expose a retained testis from the inguinal canal.

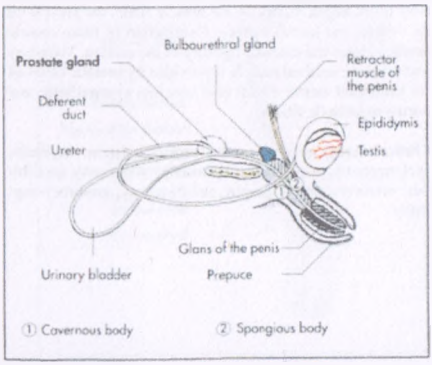


Fig. 10-1. Genital organs of the male cat (schematic)

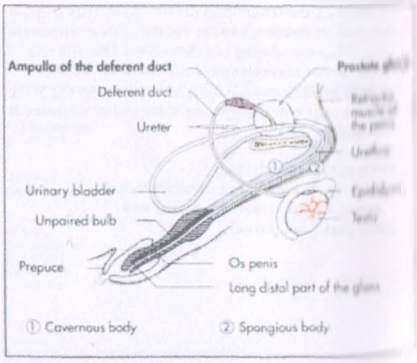
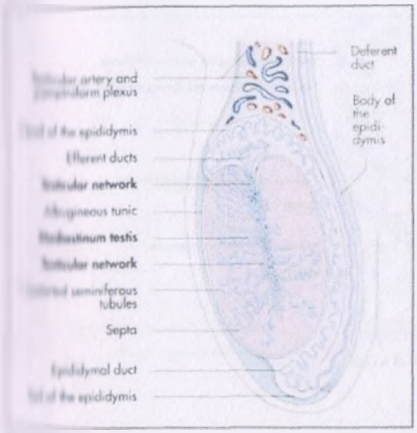


Fig. 10-2. Genital organs of the male dog (schematic)

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(B.8. Testis, epididymis and deferent duct of the bull (schematic, [illegible] hen)



Fig. 10-7. Testis and epididymis of a bull (median section, testicular artery injected)

[illegible] descent is vital for the production of the **male** [illegible] (spermatogenesis) in the domestic mammals, since [illegible] position decreases the temperature of the testes [illegible] to the body temperature. Failure of one or both testes to descend is termed **cryptorchidism** and is thought to [illegible] hereditary basis. Therefore, cryptorchids should not be [illegible] breeding.

[illegible] species, such as the elephant, the testes remain [illegible] the abdomen throughout life and spermatogenesis [illegible] this temperature. Many smaller mammals such as [illegible] exhibit periodic changes in which the testes descend [illegible] scrotum during the breeding season, after which they [illegible] to the abdomen.

[illegible] of the testis

[illegible] of the testis is invested by a dense **fibrous capsule** [illegible] thick (albugineous tunic, tunica albuginea) [illegible] and 11), which is composed of collagenous fibres [illegible] larger blood vessels (a. testicularis, v. testicularis). [illegible] are visible on the surface of the testes in a pattern [illegible] of each species. The **visceral vaginal** tunic is [illegible] membrane continuous with the peritoneum that covers [illegible] **fibrous capsule** and gives a smooth appearance to the [illegible] of the testis.

[illegible] parenchyma of the testis is normally under pressure. [illegible] any significant expansion raises the intratesticular [illegible] pressure and produces severe pain as seen with inflammation (orchitis). The connective tissue components of [illegible] are arranged as follows, from the outside to the inside:

- fibrous capsule (albugineous tunic, tunica albuginea),
- septa (septula testis),
- mediastinum (mediastinum testis).

The capsule detaches **septa** (septula testis), which radiate into the testis, dividing the parenchyma in pyramid-shaped **lobules** (lobuli testis) (Fig. 10-6 and 11). These septa converge centrally to form the **mediastinum of the testis**. The mediastinum may be axial or slightly displaced toward the epididymis. The **parenchyma** of the testis is composed of:

- contorted seminiferous tubules (tubuli seminiferi contorti),
- straight seminiferous tubules (tubuli seminiferi recti),
- testicular network (rete testis) and
- efferent ducts (ductuli efferentes).

Each testicular lobule includes between two and five **contorted tubules**, which are the site of spermatogenesis. The wall of these tubules contains **spermatogenic cells** and **sustentacular** (Sertoli) cells, which have supporting and hormone-producing properties. They are responsible for the regulation of spermatogenesis, supplying the nutrients to spermatogenic cells during the different stages of development and the release of spermatozoa into the lumen of the tubule (Fig. 10-8 and 9). (A more detailed description can be found in histology and embryology textbooks.)

Each **contorted seminiferous tubule** is looped, so that it opens into a network of confluent tubules within the mediastinum, called the **rete testis** (Fig. 10-6 and 11). Before entering the rete testis, the ends of the seminiferous tubules

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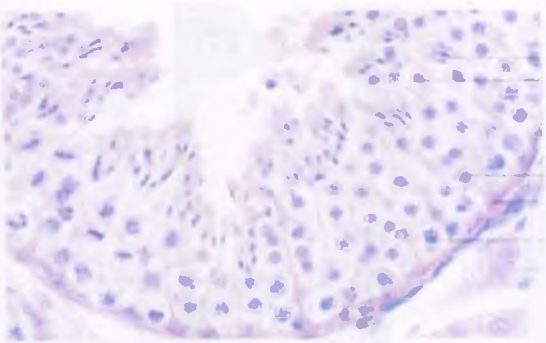


Fig. 10-8. Histologic section of the wall of a contorted seminiferous tubule of a bull.

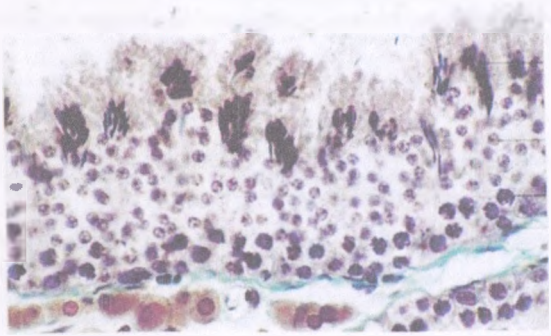


Fig. 10-9. Histologic section of the wall of a contorted seminiferous tubule of a bull.

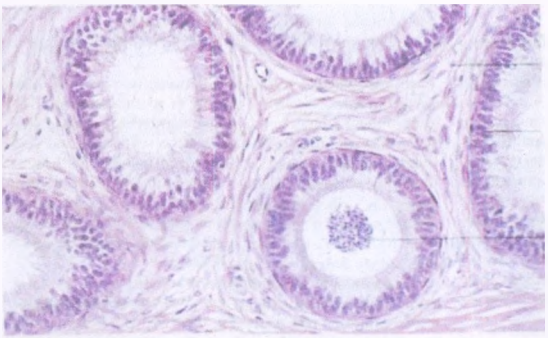


Fig. 10-10. Histologic section of the epididymal duct of a bull.

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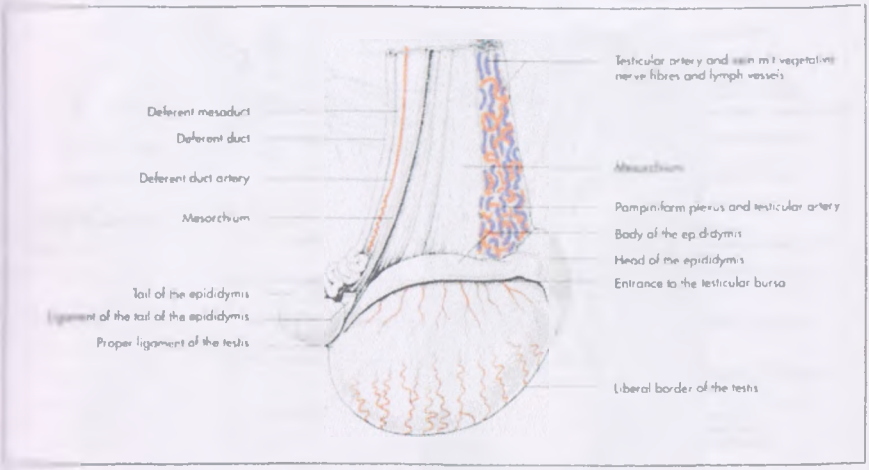


Fig. 10-13. Right testis, epididymis and spermatic cord of a stallion (lateral aspect, schematic).

...to the proximal part of the urethra at the **seminal hillock** (colliculus seminalis) (Fig. 9-25). The terminal part of the deferent duct is thickened to form the **ampulla of the deferent duct** by the ampullary gland. In the boar, no distinct ampulla is obvious, but there is a glandular part at the end of the deferent duct.

In the horse and in ruminants the deferent duct is joined by the **excretory duct** (ductus excretorius) of the vesicular gland before its termination. The shared passage of these two ducts is known as the **ejaculatory duct** (ductus ejaculatorius).

Investments of the testis

The investments of the testis not only cover the testis, the epididymis and parts of the spermatic cord, they also are extended around these organs (Fig. 10-14). The different layers of the testicular investments correspond to the layers of the abdominal wall. They are the following layers:

Scrotum:
- external skin,
- subcutaneous subcutaneous layer (tunica dartos),
- double-layered external spermatic fascia (fascia spermatica externa), detachments of the abdominal fasciae,
- cremaster muscle, a detachment of the internal oblique muscle of the abdomen, along with its fascia.

Vaginal process:
- internal spermatic fascia (fascia spermatica interna),
- parietal layer (lamina parietalis) of the vaginal tunic (tunica vaginalis).

The **external skin**, the **subcutaneous tunica dartos** and the **external spermatic fascia** form the **scrotum**. The internal spermatic fascia and the parietal layer of the vaginal tunic form the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis), an expansion of the peritoneal cavity within the scrotum. The vaginal process extends into the right and left compartments of the scrotum, which are divided by a septum formed by the skin and the subcutaneous layer of the scrotum. The **scrotal septum** (septum scroti) encloses the testes separately and is marked externally as a **groove** (raphe scroti) (Fig. 10-14).

The **scrotal skin** is usually hairless, except in the cat and certain breeds of sheep, where it is covered in hair. It has a generous supply of both sweat and sebaceous glands and adheres firmly to the underlying **tunica dartos**. Internal to the tunica dartos is a thin layer of **soft tissue** (fascia subdartoica). The tunica dartos has several smooth muscle fibres, which contract to tighten and retract the scrotum, thereby contributing to the temperature regulation of the testis. The tunica dartos is especially well developed in the ox, where it can be up to 10 mm thick.

The **external spermatic fascia** is detached from the **deep** and the **superficial fascia of the abdomen** at the scrotum and is divided into a deep and a superficial layer. The two layers of the external spermatic fascia and the internal spermatic fascia and the vaginal tunic are connected by loose connective tissue. This loose intermediate stratum allows movement of the vaginal process within the scrotum. It is of clinical significance, since it facilitates castration by a closed technique, whereby the vaginal tunic is ligated with the blood vessels and ductus deferens.

The **cremaster muscle** is the detachment of the **internal oblique muscle of the abdomen** at the level of the deep inguinal ring (Fig. 10-14). It covers part of the vaginal process

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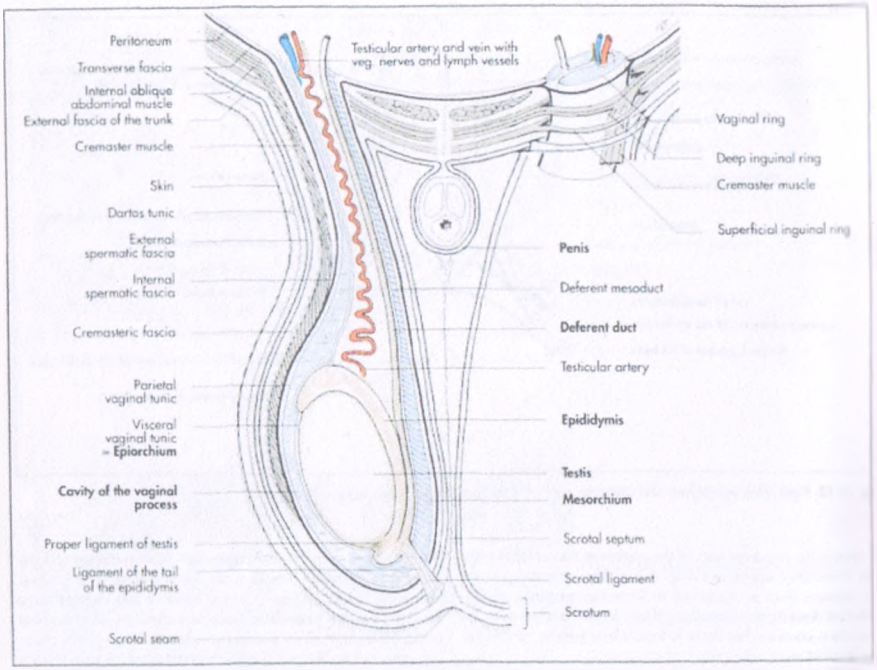


Fig. 10-14. Investments of the testis and spermatic cord of the bull (schematic)

and is covered by a thin layer of loose connective tissue (fascia cremasterica) (Fig. 10-14 and 18). On contraction, it retracts the scrotum with its contents toward the inguinal region. In rodents it embraces the vaginal process in a spoon-like fashion and thus the testes can be withdraw into the abdomen through the large inguinal canal.

Vaginal process (processus vaginalis) and spermatic cord (funiculus spermaticus)

The vaginal process is formed by the **transverse fascia** and the **peritoneum** as an evagination of the abdominal cavity through the **inguinal canal**. It encloses the **vaginal cavity** (cavum vaginale) and is formed before the embryological descent of the testes (Fig. 10-14). The shape of the vaginal process resembles a bottle with a narrow proximal part, the length of which depends on the position of the scrotum, and a wider distal part, which moulds to the organs it encloses.

The **vaginal cavity** communicates with the abdominal cavity through the **vaginal opening** (ostium vaginale) located within the internal opening of the inguinal canal. Normally it contains a very small amount of peritoneal fluid, which helps to reduce friction between the wall and the enclosed organs. Occasionally a loop of intestine or part of the omentum herniates into the vaginal process. This condition (hernia **inguinalis**) is more common in species with a wide vaginal ring, such as the horse and the pig. Since it appears to be hereditary in the pig, animals that develop this condition should not be used for breeding.

The narrow proximal part of the vaginal process surrounds the **spermatic cord** (funiculus spermaticus), which is composed of the deferent duct and the testicular vessels and nerves, along with their serous membranes. The spermatic cord is attached by the mesofuniculus, which is continuous distally with the mesorchium (Fig. 10-14 and 18). The deferent duct is enclosed within a fold of the **mesofuniculus**. The vascular plica, also termed proximal mesorchium, attaches to the epididymis and continues from there onto the testis as the distal mesorchium.

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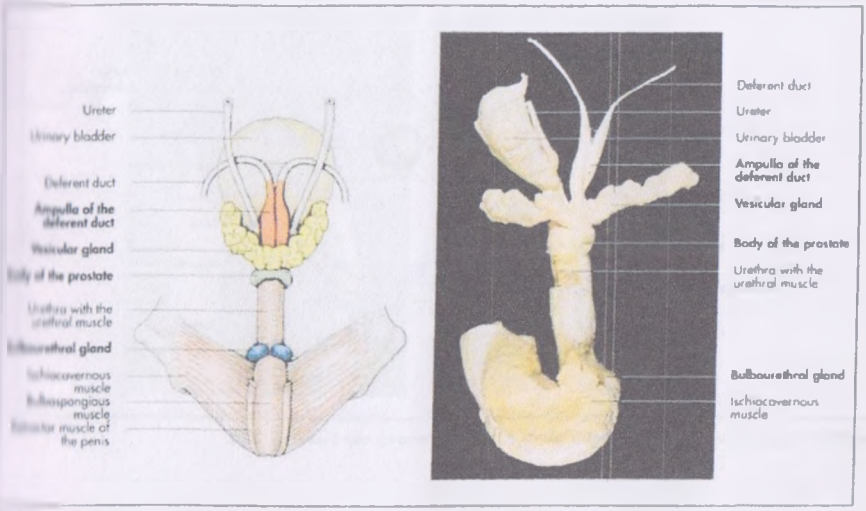


Fig. 10-31. Accessory genital glands of the bull.

- ampullary gland (gl. ampullae),
- vesicular gland (gl. vesicularis),
- prostate gland (prostata) and
- bulbourethral gland (gl. bulbourethralis).

The bull and stallion possess the **full set of accessory glands**, the boar has **vesicular**, **prostate** and **bulbourethral glands**, the cat, the **ampullary**, **prostate** and the **bulbourethral glands** are present, while only the **ampullary** and the **prostate glands** are present in the dog.

The ampullary gland surrounds the terminal part of the deferent duct and is described earlier in this chapter.

Vesicular gland (glandula vesicularis)

The paired vesicular glands are present in all domestic mammals except the dog and the cat (Fig. 10-30, and 20ff.). In ruminants and the horse, its **excretory duct** (ductus excretorius) joins the deferent duct shortly before its termination, and this joint common passage is referred to as the **ejaculatory duct** (ductus ejaculatorius). In the boar, the vesicular glands open separately into the urethra next to the **seminal colliculus**.

The vesicular gland of the horse is a relatively large, lobulated organ with a thick muscular wall and a smooth surface. In the bull and the boar, the surface is irregular. The vesicular gland is especially well developed in the boar, in which it has a characteristic pyramidal shape. In the bull, this gland can be palpated rectally.

Prostate gland (prostata)

The prostate is present in all domestic mammals (Fig. 10-31f. and 19ff.). In some it consists of two parts, one diffusely spread within the wall of the **pelvic urethra** (pars disseminata), the other a compact **body** (corpus prostatae) located external to the urethra.

The horse has only the compact part, the small ruminants, only the disseminated part. The bull has both parts, but the compact part is rather small and flat. In the dog and cat, the disseminated part is vestigial, but the compact part is large and globular. It is so extensive in these species that it entirely surrounds the urethra in the dog and almost so in the cat.

Hypertrophy of the prostate gland is relatively common in older dogs and can lead to obstipation due to pressure from the enlarged prostate onto the rectum.

Bulbourethral gland (glandula bulbourethralis)

The paired bulbourethral gland (Fig. 10-2ff. and 19ff.) is found in all domestic mammals other than the dog. It lies on the dorsal aspect of the pelvic urethra close to its pelvic exit. It has the size of a walnut in the stallion and that of a cherry in the bull. In the cat, it is very small and spherical. It is very substantial in the boar, where it is cylindrical and extends along the whole of the pelvic portion of the urethra. In castrated boars it is considerably smaller, so that its size can be used an indicator of recent castration.

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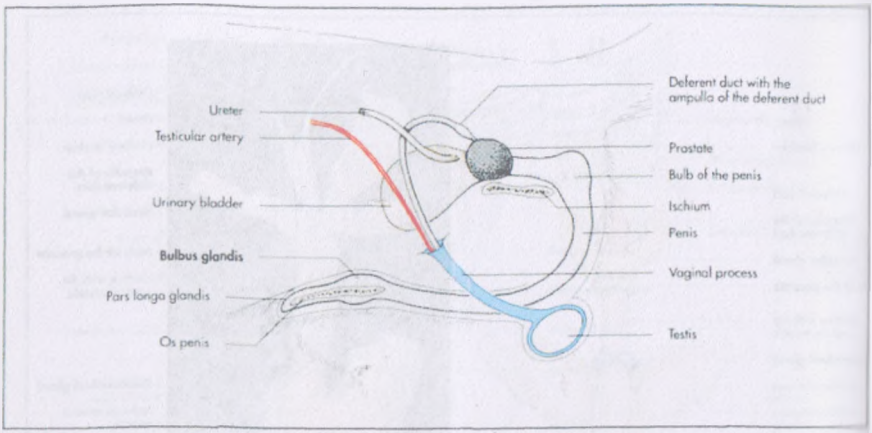


Fig. 10-25. Genital organs and accessory genital glands of the dog (schematic); after Dyce et al., 2002.

(Fig. 10-33) in all domestic mammals except in small ruminants, where a free **urethral process** prolongs the urethra well beyond the glans (Fig. 10-28).

There are **two different types of penis** in the domestic mammals, in regard to the structure of the cavernous body.

The **fibroelastic type of penis** of ruminants and pigs has small blood spaces divided by substantial amounts of tough fibroelastic tissue and is enclosed by a thick albugineous tunic surrounding both the cavernous body and the spongy body. In these animals, the non-erect penis exhibits a **sigmoid flexure** (flexura sigmoidea penis) between the thighs. Relatively little additional blood is needed in order to make this type of penis become erect, and elongation of the penis is mainly achieved by straightening of the sigmoid flexure.

In the other, **musculocavernous type of penis**, the blood spaces are larger and the tunic and intervening septa more delicate and more muscular. This musculocavernous type is found in the stallion and in carnivores. A relatively larger volume of blood is required to achieve erection, which is marked by a significant increase in both diameter and length of the penis.

The **glans of the penis** shows species-specific modifications (Fig. 10-26f). In the stallion, the glans resembles a mushroom with the **corona** (corona glandis) being the widest part. Towards the body of the penis and behind the corona the glans is constricted to form the **neck of the glans** (collum glandis). The free end of the corona is marked by a central **fossa** (fossa glandis) into which the terminal part of the urethra protrudes (Fig. 10-33). The fossa glandis tends to accumulate smegma, which may cause discomfort when inspissated.

In the dog, the distal end of the cavernous body is modified to form the **penile bone** (os penis) (Fig. 10-25 and 30), which is grooved ventrally to accommodate the urethra within the spongy body. The partial enclosure of the urethra within the groove of the os penis impedes the passage of urethral calculi, which may become lodged at the proximal end of the bone.

The glans of the penis is rather substantial and is divided into a **long distal part** (pars longa glandis) and an **expanded proximal part**, the **bulbus glandis**. The characteristic form of the two portions of the glans matches the shape of the female vestibular bulbus. Forceful separation of male and female dogs during coitus can cause severe injuries to both animals.

The penis of the cat is unique among domestic mammals, being directed caudally in the quiescent state (Fig. 10-1). In the cat the os penis is 5–8 mm long and has no ventral groove. The glans carries **keratinised papillae**, which are directed proximally in the non-erect state and radiate in all directions when erect. These papillae regress in size after castration. During erection, the direction of the penis is reversed with the help of the ligament of the apex of the penis. Obstruction of the urethra by calculi is quite common in the cat.

In the pig the free end of the penis is **twisted around its longitudinal axis**, similar to a corkscrew, and is capped by a small glans (Fig. 10-26). Although gross anatomy groups the penis of the pig into the fibroelastic type, there is some histological evidence that support the opinion of some authors that the penis of the pig is of the musculocavernous type.

In the bull, the free extremity of the penis is capped by a small glans, which is **asymmetrical** and **slightly spiral** (Fig. 10-29). The urethra ends in a low projection with a slit-like, narrow opening at its tip.

The apex of the penis is very characteristic in small ruminants, in which the urethral process is continued (about 1 cm in the sheep and 2.5 cm in the goat) beyond the substance of the glans. The urethral process contains erectile tissue.

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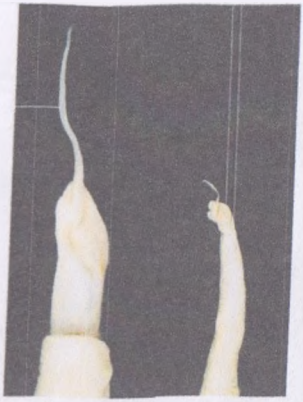


Fig. 10-28. Apex of the penis of a sheep (left) and a goat (right).



Fig. 10-29. Apex of the penis of a bull.

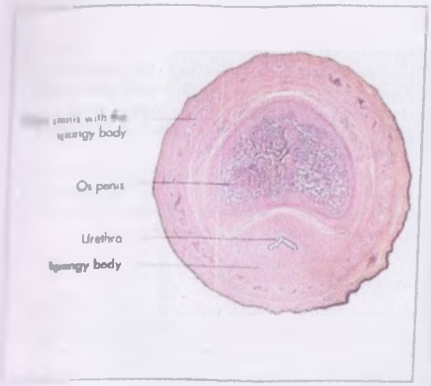


Fig. 10-30. Transverse section of the penis of a dog.

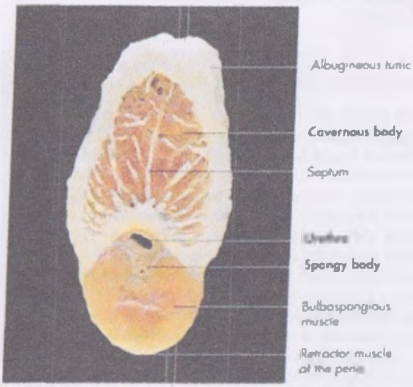


Fig. 10-31. Transverse section of the penis of a stallion.

compartments by a median septum (Fig. 10-26). It has a capacity of about 135 ml and contains foul-smelling fluid made up of cell debris and urine, which is responsible for its characteristic odour.

Muscles of the penis

The muscles of the penis (Fig. 10-19B) comprise of:

- paired ischiocavernous muscle (m. ischiocavernosus),
- bulbospongious muscle (m. bulbospongiosus),
- paired retractor penis muscle (m. retractor penis).

The **paired ischiocavernous muscles** are powerful muscles, which arise from the ischial arch and enclose the crura to the level of their fusion at the root of the penis. The **bulbospongious muscle** is the extrapelvic continuation of the striated urethralis muscle, which surrounds the pelvic part of the urethra. It extends distally on the surface of the spongy body at a variable distance depending on the type of the penis. In animals with a fibroelastic type of penis, it is limited to the proximal third of the penis; in the stallion it continues to the apex of the penis.

The **retractor of the penis** is also a paired muscle, which arises from the caudal vertebrae and descends through the perineum around the anus to reach the penis. In species with

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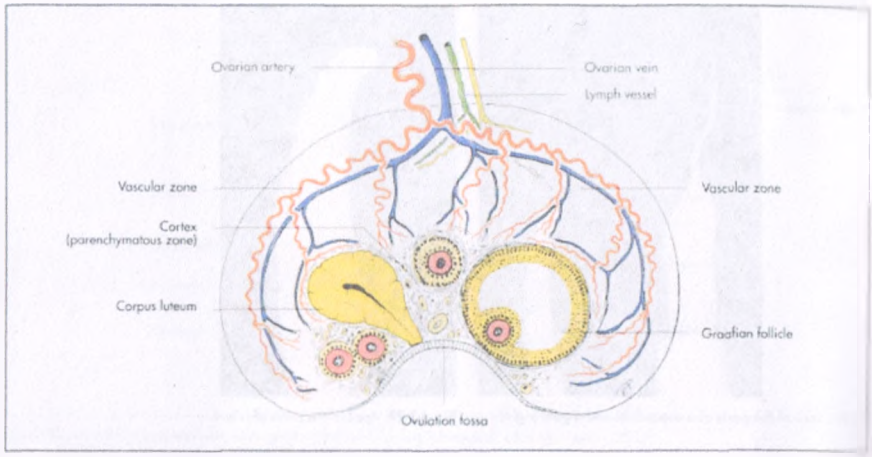


Fig. 11-5. Section of the ovary of the mare (schematic)

Position, form and size of the ovaries

In the dog and cat, the ovaries do not change in location from their place of development, remaining in the **dorsal part of the abdomen** caudal to the kidneys. In the other domestic species the ovaries undergo some degree of migration (descensus ovarii), with the greatest migration occurring in ruminants, in which the ovaries come to lie close to the ventral abdominal wall, cranial to the pelvic inlet. In the pig they descend to the middle of the abdomen, in the mare they are located about 8 – 10 cm ventral to the dorsal wall of the abdomen (Fig. 11-2, 3 and 4).

In all domestic species other than the horse, the ovaries are basically ellipsoidal in shape, while their surface is characterised by large follicles and corpora lutea.

The ovaries of the mare have the shape of a kidney and their surface is relatively regular. They are about 4 – 6 cm in length in the cow, 1.5 – 2 cm in small ruminants, 8 – 12 cm in the mare, 1 – 1.5 cm in the dog and 1.8 – 1 cm in the cat during reproductively active stages of the animal's life.

Structure of the ovaries

A section through the ovary of a mature animal, with the exception of the mare, shows that it consists of a looser and more **vascular zone** in the centre, the **medulla** (zona medullaris seu vasculosa), and a surrounding denser shell, the **parenchymatous zone** (zona parenchymatosa) (Fig. 11-2f.). The parenchymatous zone is bounded by the albuginous tunic directly below the peritoneum.

In the mare, the structure of the ovary is **reversed**. The parenchymatous zone with its follicles form the centre of the organ, which is enclosed within a dense, richly vascularised connective tissue layer that corresponds to the medulla of the other domestic mammals. The parenchymatous zone reaches the surface of the ovary at the **ovulation fossa** (fossa ovulationis), a deep indentation at the free margin of the organ, where all mature follicles rupture (Fig. 11-5).

The medulla contains blood vessels, nerves, lymphatics, smooth muscle fibres and connective tissue. The parenchymatous zone contains many follicles and corpora lutea in various stages of development and regression.

Ovarian follicles

In the mature animal, ovarian follicles develop within the parenchymatous zone. Each follicle contains a single ovum. Based on the size of the oocyte and its degree of differentiation, the following stages of development are recognised in ovarian follicles (Fig. 11-2, 6 and 7):

- primordial follicle,
- primary follicle,
- secondary follicle,
- tertiary follicle and
- Graafian follicle.

Primordial follicles are formed by a single-layered follicular epithelium, the **granulosa cells** which are flat and later differentiate, into **inner thecal cells** which enclose the oocyte. After transformation of the flat granulosa cells into cuboidal cells, the follicle becomes a **primary follicle**. Following further maturation (**secondary follicle**), several layers of granulosa cells are formed around the oocyte with fluid filled gaps within the **granulosa cell mass**. Eventually these become confluent to form a cavity filled with follicular fluid. At this stage the follicle is termed the **tertiary follicle**. At one end of

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Fig. 11-6. Histological section of the parenchymatous zone of the ovary of a cow.

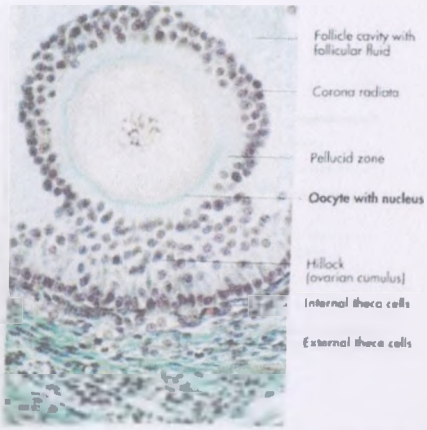


Fig. 11-7. Histological section of a tertiary follicle of a bovine ovary.

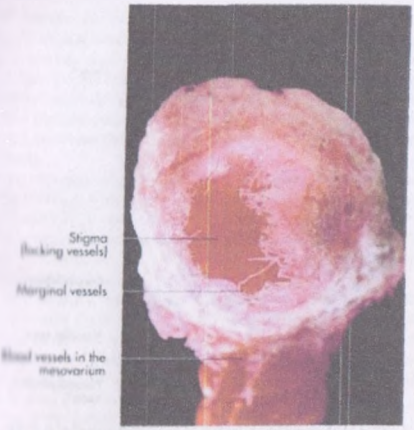


Fig. 11-8. Blood vessels of a bovine ovary prior to ovulation (corrosion cast).

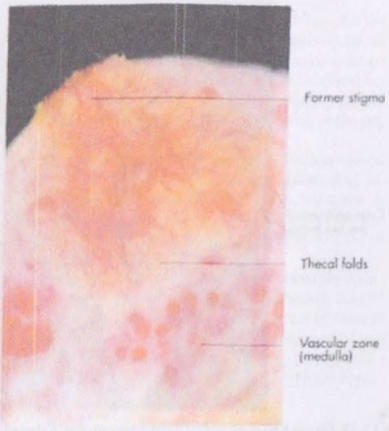


Fig. 11-9. Blood vessels of a bovine ovary after ovulation.

the follicular cavity, there is a **hillock** (cumulus oophorus), which contains the maturing oocyte. In intimate contact with the oocyte is a clear membrane, the **zona pellucida**, which is surrounded by a layer of radially arranged granulosa cells, the **corona radiata** (Fig. 11-7).

On further maturation, the **tertiary follicle** becomes the **Graafian follicle**, which finally ruptures to release the oocyte. In the cow the Graafian follicle measures about 2 cm in diameter (Fig. 11-2 and 3), in the horse 3–6 cm (Fig. 11-5).

Complex vascular and endocrine processes prior to ovulation lead to the formation of a preformed **site on the surface of the ovary (stigma)** (Fig. 11-8 and 9), which finally ruptures under the influence of **Luteinising hormone (LH)**, a hormone formed by the pituitary gland. Following ovulation, the oocyte and surrounding cells are flushed from the ovary into the infundibulum of the uterine tube. While ovulation occurs spontaneously in most of the domestic species, it is induced by copulation in the cat. Only a **very small number of folli-**

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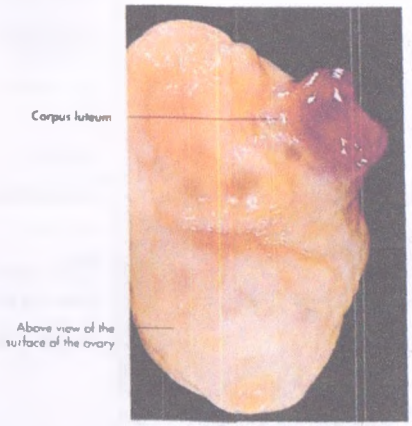


Fig. 11-10. Corpus luteum of a cow two days after ovulation

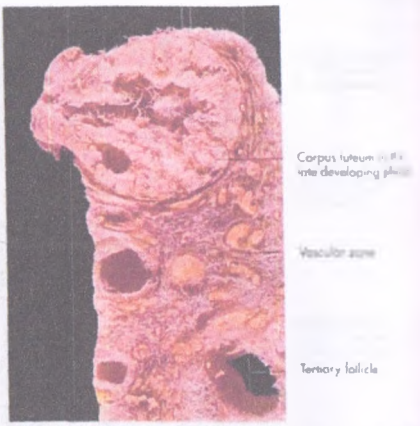


Fig. 11-11. Blood vessels of a bovine ovary (corrosion cast). Kanagawa et al., 1987



Fig. 11-12. Corpus luteum graviditatis in a pregnant cow (dissected in halves).

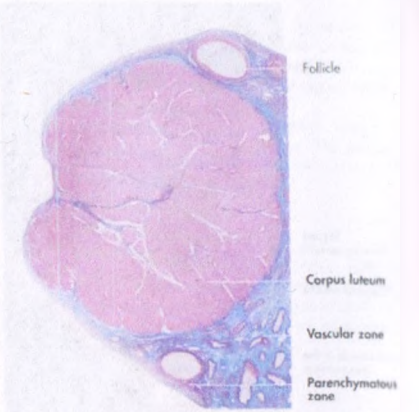


Fig. 11-13. Histological section of the corpus luteum of a sheep

cles and thus oocytes, actually mature to the end stage and become a Graafian follicle, the vast majority undergo regression and finally degenerate. (For a more detailed description see histology textbooks.)

As the follicle matures, the contained **oocyte** undergoes **meiotic division** and **maturation**. The first phase of **meiotic division** takes place prior to ovulation, except in the dog and horse, in which this process takes place after ovulation. The second maturation division occurs in the **uterine tube** and requires the **fertilisation of the ovum** by a **penetrating spermatozoon**.

Corpus luteum

After ovulation, the wall of the ruptured follicular cavity folds in. **Slight haemorrhage** occurs at the site of ovulation and fills the former follicular cavity, which is then referred to as **corpus haemorrhagicum**. As the blood is resorbed, it will

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Fig. 11-18. Ovary and uterine tube of a cow.



Fig. 11-19. Ovary, uterine tube and ovarian bursa of a cow.

follicles are the source of oestrogen. Alternation in levels of progesterone and oestrogen determine changes in sexual behaviour and in the structure and activity of the genital tract. Higher levels of oestrogen produced by a Graafian follicle causes the animal to show signs of oestrus behaviour, thus signalling that it is ready to mate. Progesterone prepares and maintains the uterus for **implantation of the fertilised ovum**.

In the non-pregnant animal, the uterus produces **prostaglandin** ($PGF_{2\alpha}$), which causes the corpus luteum to regress. Progesterone (P_4) is transported in the cow directly from the ovarian vein into the adjacent ovarian artery through the vessel walls. (A more detailed description can be found in embryology and reproduction physiology textbooks.)

In large animals, **rectal examination** is used to assess the stage of oestrus cycle, which is important information with regard to timing of breeding. In the cow, follicles and corpora lutea may project from any part of the surface and can be relatively easily identified on rectal palpation. In the horse examination of the ovary is more difficult due to its different location. While follicles can be identified, corpora lutea cannot be palpated and have to be assessed with the aid of ultrasonography.

Uterine tube (tuba uterina)

The paired **uterine tubes** (also termed oviducts or salpinx) receive and transport the oocytes to the uterus. They also contribute to the sperm in their ascent. Fertilisation normally occurs within the tubes. Each tube is suspended by the **mesosalpinx** (Fig. 11-19) and connects the peritoneal cavity with the uterine cavity and thus with the external environment (Fig. 11-18). The **ovarian extremity of the uterine tube** which receives the oocyte after ovulation, takes the form of a funnel and is termed the **infundibulum**. The free edges of the infundibulum are bordered by numerous diverging processes, called **fimbria**, which contact and sometimes adhere to the surface of the ovary. The inside of the funnel is marked by folds, which converge to border a small opening in the depths of the funnel, the **abdominal ostium**.

The abdominal ostium leads to the **ampulla** (ampulla tubae uterinae), where **fertilisation usually takes place** (Fig. 11-18 and 23). The oocyte remains in the ampulla for a few days before it is transported to the apex of the horn of the uterus through the narrower, more convoluted distal part of the tube, the **isthmus** (Fig. 11-23).

The uterine tube opens into the uterine horn through the **uterine ostium** (ostium uterinum tubae) and marks the site of the uterotubal junction. The junction is gradual in ruminants and pigs but shows an abrupt junction in the horse and in carnivores, in which the uterine ostium is located on top of a papilla, thus forming a barrier against ascending infections.

Mesovarium, mesosalpinx and ovarian bursa

The ovaries and uterine tubes are suspended within the mesovarium and mesosalpinx, respectively, which are the cranial parts of the **broad ligament** (ligamentum latum uteri), the common suspension of the female genital tract (Fig. 11-11). Blood vessels and nerves reach the organs within this ligament. In the dog, cat and pig, each ovary has two other ligamentous attachments in addition to the mesovarium. The **suspensory ligament of the ovary** (ligamentum suspensorium ovarii) forms the cranial portion of the free border of the broad ligament (Tab. 11-1). In the cat, this ligament conveys

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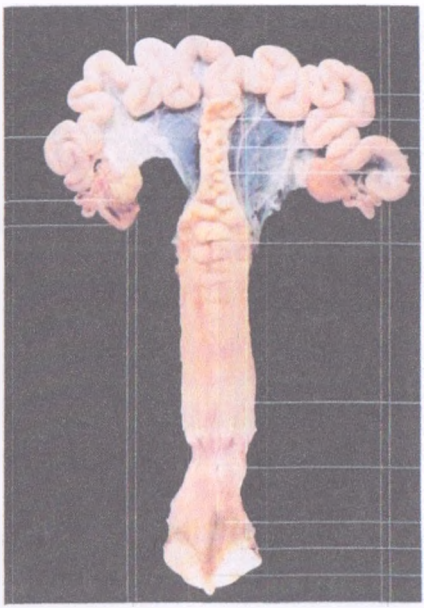


Fig. 11-25. Genital organs of a sow (dorsal aspect, partially opened on midline), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

attachment sites of the embryonic membranes (**cotyledons**) during pregnancy (Fig. 11-26ff.). While they are low, smooth-surfaced elevations in the non-pregnant cow, they become converted into large, sessile swellings with a pitted surface in the pregnant state. Each uterine caruncle and its foetal counterpart, the cotyledon, constitutes a single unit known as the placentome. Underlying the endometrium is a two-layered muscular layer, the **myometrium** (Fig. 11-29). The myometrium consists of an **external longitudinal** and a thicker **internal circular layer** separated by a highly vascular stratum of connective tissue.

The uterus is covered by a serous membrane (**perimetrium**) which is continuous with the broad ligament. Numerous blood vessels and nerve fibres are located at the **parametrium**, the site where the double layer of the broad ligament separates to enclose the uterus. The tissues of the uterine coats, especially the external muscle layer, extend into the ligaments at the paranetrium (Fig. 11-29).

Vagina

The vagina constitutes the cranial part of the female copulatory organ. It extends from the **external ostium of the uterus** to the **entrance of the urethra** (ostium urethrae [illegible] (Fig. 11-22, 25, 33 and 35). Thus, it is part of only the [illegible] ductive tract. A transverse fold cranial to the opening of the urethra represents the remains of the hymen present in [illegible] beings. Although variable, this fold is generally more prominent in the horse and pig than in the other domestic species.

The relatively long and thin-walled vagina is located in a median position within the pelvic cavity between the rectum dorsally and the bladder ventrally. It is mostly **retroperitoneal**, although its cranial parts are covered by peritoneum. Incision of the dorsal wall of this part of the vagina provides a relatively convenient means of access to the peritoneal cavity in large animals. This approach can be used for removal of the ovaries (**ovariectomy**) in the mare. A ventral incision is possible due to the presence of an extensive plexus of [illegible].

In the cow and the mare, the protruding cervix creates a lumen of the cranial part of the vagina to a ring fold known as the fornix. In the dog, the vaginal epithelium corresponds to changes in hormonal levels in a more pronounced way than in the other domestic species, and smears taken from the vagina provide evidence of the stage within the [illegible] cle.

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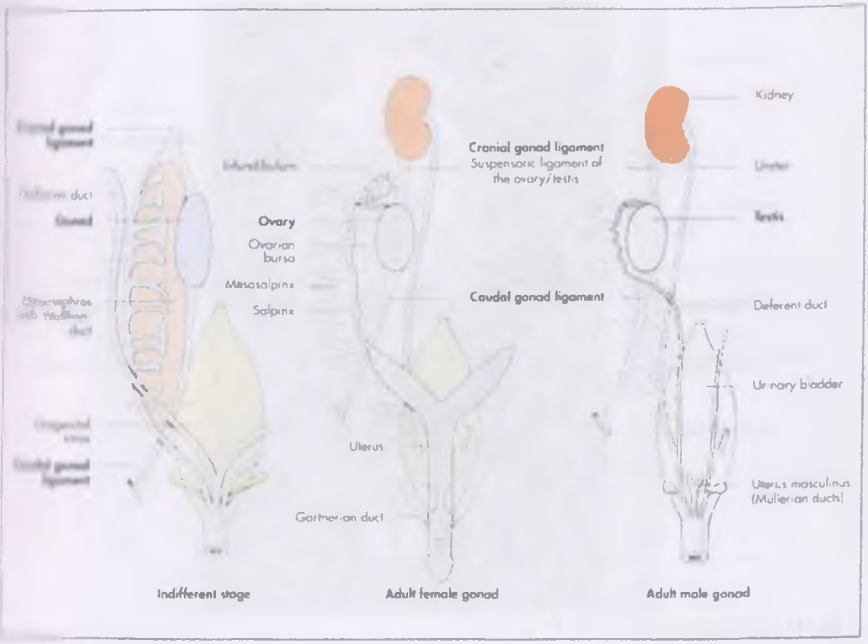


Fig. 11-17. Comparison of analogous gonad organs during foetal development and adult female and male stages (schematic). (see also Fig. 11-1)

and the pelvic walls. Based upon the organ it suspends, the broad ligament can be divided into three parts, the mesometrium, the mesosalpinx and the mesometrium (Fig. 11-23 and 11-24). Unlike most peritoneal folds, the serosal membranes of the broad ligament are separated by considerable amounts of tissue, mainly smooth muscle from the longitudinal layer of the myometrium (Fig. 11-38). This arrangement enables the broad ligaments to play an active role in the support of the uterus, which is of particular importance in large animals.

The **mesovarium** is the cranial part of the broad ligament that attaches the ovary to the dorsolateral region of the abdominal wall. The mesovarium contains the ovarian artery and vein. The mesosalpinx extends laterally from the mesovarium, thus dividing the mesovarium in a proximal and a distal

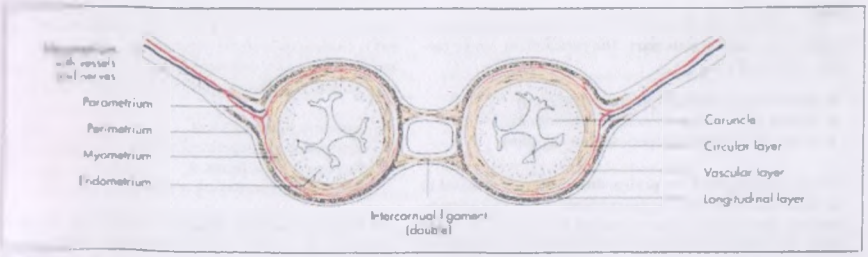


Fig. 11-18. Uterine horns of a cow, dissected at the level of the intercornual ligament (schematic).

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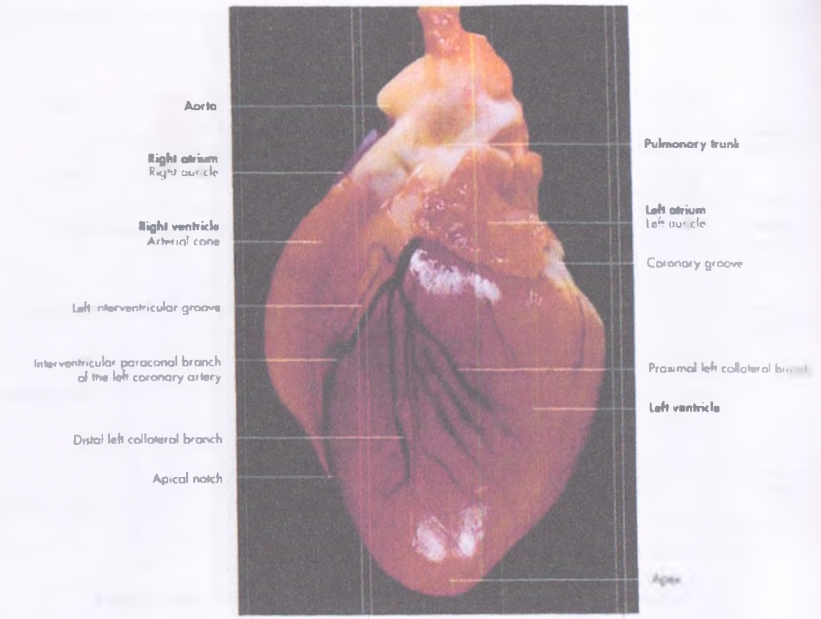


Fig. 12-1. Heart of a cat (auricular surface). Konig, 1992

Pericardium

The pericardium, or **heart sac**, is the fibroserous covering of the heart. It is essentially a deeply invaginated sac, with its lumen, the **pericardial cavity** (cavum pericardii), being reduced to a capillary cleft. This cleft contains a small amount of **serous fluid** (liquor pericardii) which facilitates movement of the heart against the pericardium.

Inflammation of the pericardium results in an increase in pericardial fluid and thickness of the sac. In these cases, the pericardial fluid can be visualised ultrasonographically as an anechoic region.

The pericardium can be divided into a central **fibrous** and an outer and inner **serous part**. The pericardium can be further subdivided into:

- pleura of pericardium (pleura pericardiaca),
- fibrous pericardium (pericardium fibrosum),
- serosa of pericardium (pericardium serosum).

The **visceral layer of the pericardium** is firmly attached to the heart wall, forming the **epicardium**. It covers the myocardium, the coronary vessels and fat on the surface of the heart. The visceral and parietal layers of the pericardium are continuous with each other, forming a complicated reflection that passes over the atria and the roots of the great [illegible]. The roots of the large blood vessels are also covered [illegible] epicardium, as part of the pericardial cavity curves [illegible] versely across the base of the heart. This is the **transverse sinus of the pericardium** (sinus transversus pericardii), [illegible] U-shaped cleft between the right and left sides of the [illegible] dial cavity.

The **oblique sinus of the pericardium** (sinus [illegible] pericardii) is an invagination formed by the reflection of [illegible] two layers of the serous pericardium between the [illegible]

The **parietal layer of the serous pericardium** is [illegible] fused to the fibrous pericardium, which is composed of [illegible] lacing collagenous fibres. The base of the **fibrous pericardium** is continuous with the great arteries and veins [illegible] and enter the heart, uniting with the adventitia of these [illegible] sels. Ventrally it continues into the following ligaments:

- sternopericardiac ligament (ligamentum sternopericardiacum),
- phrenopericardiac ligament (ligamentum phrenicopericardiacum).

The **sternopericardiac ligament** attaches the fibrous [illegible] cardium to the sternum. The **phrenopericardiac** ligament [illegible] present only in the dog; it joins the fibrous pericardium [illegible]

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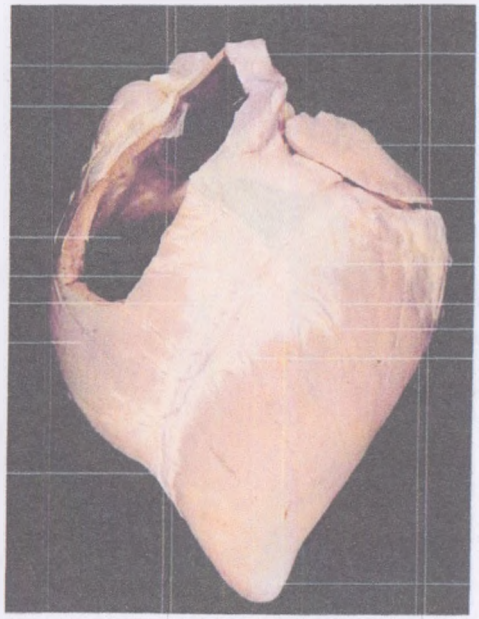


Fig. 12-1. Heart of a horse (auricular surface), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

border (margo cranialis dexter) and caudally in the **left ventricular border** (margo ventricularis sinister).

The **auricles of the atria** (auricula cordis, atrial appendages) are visible on the left side, surrounding the root of the aorta and the pulmonary trunk, while the main parts of the atria and the large veins are located on the right side.

The divisions of the internal structure of the heart are visible as grooves on the surface of the heart. The right or atrial surface of the heart is marked by the right **interventricular groove** (sulcus interventricularis dexter seu subsinosus), which extends from the coronary groove to the apex of the heart (Fig. 12-2 and 4). The **left interventricular groove** (sulcus interventricularis sinister seu paraconalis) runs over the left surface of the heart from the coronary groove to the apical third of the cranial margin (Fig. 12-1 and 3). The **coronary groove** (sulcus coronarius) marks the separation of the atria and ventricles. It contains large amounts of fat, which surrounds the coronary blood vessels. The coronary groove also marks the separation of the thinner muscle of the atria from the much thicker muscle of the ventricle by a **fibrous** or cardiac **skeleton**. The cardiac skeleton is formed by the rings that encircle the four **heart orifices** (anuli fibrosi). The skeleton contains islands of fibrocartilage in which nodules of heart (ossa cordis) may develop.

Although these bones occur most commonly in cattle, they are not confined to this species and may be found in other domestic mammals. The fibrous skeleton is perforated close to the entrance of the coronary sinus to allow passage to the atrioventricular bundle, the special neuromuscular tissue which conducts the impulse necessary for the organised contraction of the heart.

Compartments of the heart

The heart is divided internally by a longitudinal **interventricular septum** (septum interventriculare) into **left** and **right sides** (Fig. 12-5, 6 and 12). These in turn are incompletely divided by a transverse septum into the blood-receiving **atria** (atrium cordis) and the blood-pumping **ventricles** (ventriculus cordis) (Fig. 12-10, 1).

Atria of the heart (atria cordis)

Right atrium (atrium dextrum)

The right atrium forms the right, dorsocranial part of the base of the heart. It receives the blood from the **cranial** and **caudal** vena cava and the **coronary sinus** (sinus coronarius).

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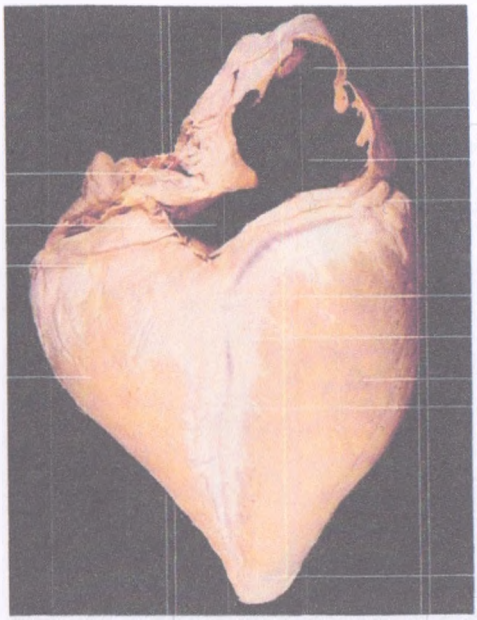


Fig. 12-4. Heart of a horse (atrial surface), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich.

which collects the venous blood from most of the heart itself. It is divided into a main part, the **sinus of the venae cavae** (sinus venarum cavarum), and a blind-ending part, the **right auricle** (auricula dextra). It is separated from the left atrium by the **interatrial septum** (septum interatriale) (Fig. 12-12).

The **intervenous tubercle** (tuberculum intervenosum), a transverse ridge of tissue between the openings of the two vena cavae, protrudes into the interior of the right atrium and directs the inflow of blood through the **atrioventricular opening** (ostium atrioventriculare dextrum). Just caudal to this tubercle, on the interatrial septum, is a depressed area, the oval fossa, which is the remnant of the foramen ovale of foetal development. The internal surface of the wall of the right auricle is strengthened by interlacing **muscular bands** (musculi pectinati) forming irregular ridges on the surface.

Left atrium (atrium sinistrum)

The left atrium forms the left, dorsocaudal part of the **base of the heart**. It receives the oxygenated blood from the pulmonary veins. It is similar to the right atrium in shape and structure (Fig. 12-5 and 6). It opens into the left ventricle by the left atrioventricular opening. Several openings mark the entrance of the pulmonary veins into the left atrium.

Ventricles of the heart (ventriculi cordis)

The ventricles constitute the **majority of the mass** of the heart. They are separated from the atria by a transverse, incomplete septum, which is indicated on the surface by the coronary groove (Fig. 12-1ff.).

Right ventricle (ventriculus dexter)

The right ventricle is crescentshaped in cross section and moulded on the surface of the cone-shaped left ventricle. It does not extend as far the apex of the heart, which is usually formed by the left ventricle alone (Fig. 12-5ff.). The right ventricle receives the **deoxygenated blood** from the right **atrium** and pumps it through the **conus arteriosus** into the **pulmonary trunk** (truncus pulmonalis), which conveys the blood to the **lung**.

The **conus arteriosus** is the funnel-shaped part of the right ventricle, which is separated from the main chamber by the **supraventricular crest** (crista supraventricularis) and embraced by the right auricle externally. The supraventricular crest is a blunt, obliquely positioned ridge of muscle that projects ventrally between the origin of the conus arteriosus and the atrioventricular opening.

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Fig. 12-6. Interior of the heart of a horse (longitudinal section); courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

The **left atrioventricular opening** (ostium atrioventriculare sinistrum) is occupied by the **left atrioventricular valve** (valva atrioventricularis sinistra), also known as the **mitral valve** (Fig. 12-7f,i). Its structure is similar to the right atrioventricular valve in form but consists of two cusps. Correspondingly, there are only two papillary muscles in the left ventricle.

The **aortic orifice** (ostium aortae) is the opening from the left ventricle into the ascending aorta. It is closed by the **aortic valve** (valva aortae) during **diastole**. The aortic valve is similar to the pulmonary valve, but the nodular thickenings in the free margins of the aortic cusps are generally more conspicuous. Peripheral to each of the semilunar cusps of the aortic valve, the wall of the aorta is dilated to form the three **aortic sinuses** (sinus aortae). The widening of the base of the ascending aorta formed by the aortic sinuses, is the **aortic bulb** (bulbus aortae). The right and left coronary arteries originate in the right and left aortic sinuses.

Structure of the cardiac wall

The wall of the heart consists of three layers (Fig. 12-6):

- [illegible]cardium,
- [illegible]cardium,
- [illegible]cardium.

The **endocardium** is a thin, smooth layer that lines the cardiac chambers, covers the atrial auricles and is continuous with the lining of the blood vessels. The **epicardium** is part of the pericardium and described earlier in this chapter.

The **myocardium**, or **heart muscles** makes up the majority of the cardiac wall. It consists of **modified striated muscle** fibres, which are characterised by central nuclei. They form end-to-end anastomoses with each other, resulting in an interlacing pattern with lighter **stripes** (disci intercalares) marking the junction between cells.

In contrast to conventional striated muscle, cardiac myocytes do not fatigue and are regulated by the **autonomic nervous system**. The myocardium of the atria is thin and generally arranged in arches, and forms loops around the vena cavae and pulmonary veins as they empty into the atria. The atrial musculature is attached to the fibrous base of the heart.

The **musculature of the ventricles**, like that of other hollow organs, is divided into deep longitudinal, middle circular and superficial longitudinal layers. All muscle fibres originate and insert on the fibrous base of the heart. The muscle bundles of the superficial layer run toward the apex, with a clockwise twist.

At the **apex of the heart** they turn around and pass towards the base in such a manner that they are perpendicular to the descending superficial fibres. Some of the superficial fibres passing toward the base, end at the papillary muscles.

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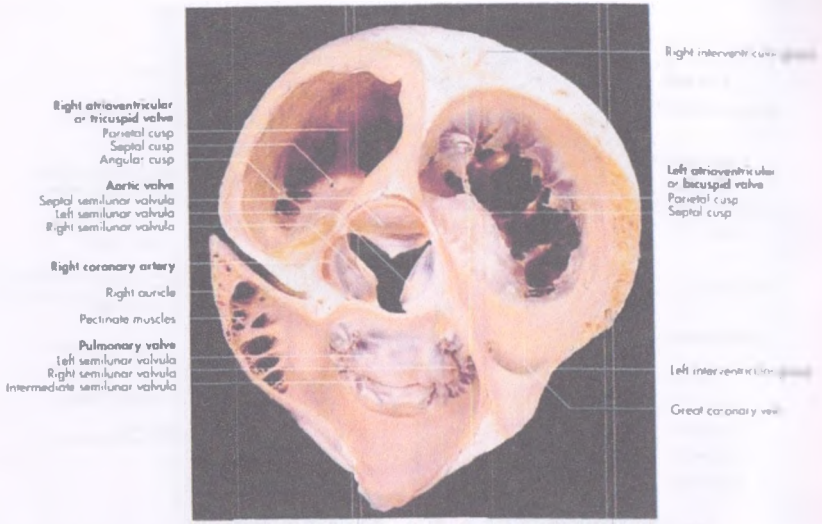


Fig. 12-7. Interior of the heart of a horse (transverse section through the atria), courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich

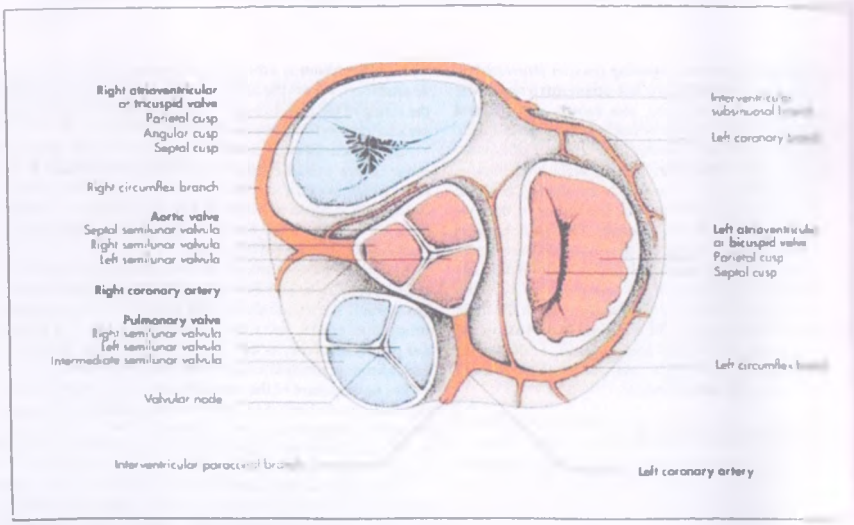


Fig. 12-8. Interior of the heart of a horse (schematic, transverse section through the atria)

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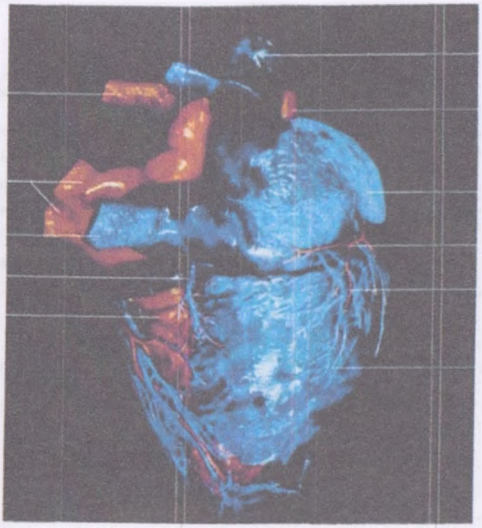


Fig. 10.9 Cardiac vessels of the heart of a dog (corrosion cast, right aspect), courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna



Fig. 10.10 Cardiac vessels of the heart of a dog (corrosion cast, left aspect), courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna

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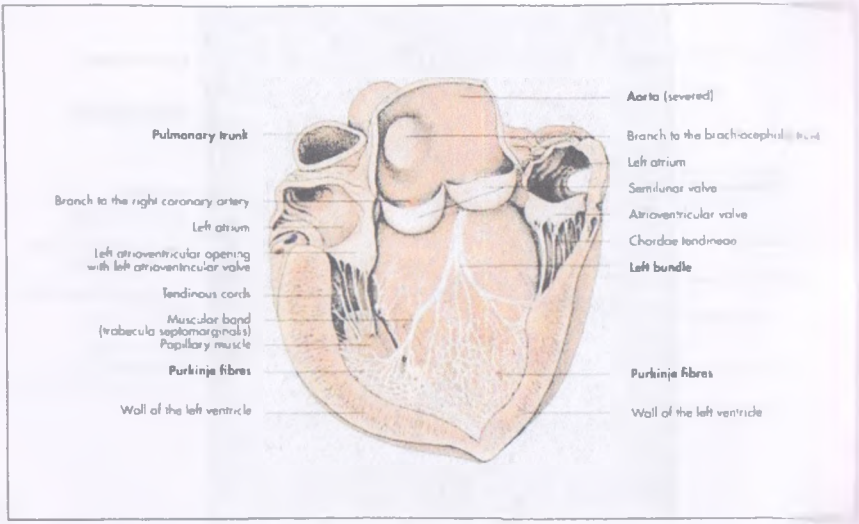


Fig. 12-11. Conducting system of the left atrium and ventricle (schematic).

Some fibres penetrate and join with fibres of the middle layer. The middle layer constitutes the majority of the bulk of the ventricular walls. They are spiral or circular muscles that interdigitate between the two chambers.

The thickness and structure of the cardiac walls mirror the load to which each specific part of the heart is subjected. The walls of the atria, as blood receiving compartments with little contractile function, are thin. The walls of the ventricles, the main pumping chamber, are thick with the wall of the right ventricle (**pulmonary circulation**) being thinner than that of the left (**systemic circulation**). The heart muscle can **hypertrophy** and/or **dilate** following a variety of disease states, including valvular stenosis or insufficiency and in dilated cardiomyopathy. Ventricular enlargement can be visualised radiographically or ultrasonographically.

Blood vessels of the heart

The heart is well vascularised, receiving about 5% of the output of the left ventricle in man and even a higher percentage in animals, depending on the animal's condition. Blood supply to the heart is provided the coronary arteries and their branches. They originate from two of the three sinuses above the semilunar valves at the root of the aorta (Fig. 12-6ft.).

There are the

- left coronary artery (a. coronaria sinistra),
- right coronary artery (a. coronaria dextra).

The **left coronary artery** is usually the larger and arises from the left sinus of the **aortic bulb** (Fig. 12-6). It passes between the left auricle and the pulmonary trunk to the coronary groove, where it divides into the **interventricular** [illegible] **branch** (ramus interventricularis paraconalis) and the **cumflex branch** (ramus circumflexus). The interventricular paraconal branch follows the like-named groove toward the apex of the heart and supplies the walls of the left ventricle and most of the septum. The circumflex branch continues in the coronary groove toward the caudal aspect of the heart (Fig. 12-8), where it terminates close to the right interventricular groove (horse and pig) or continues into the apex of the heart (carnivores and ruminants).

The **right coronary artery** arises from the right sinus of the aortic bulb and passes between the right auricle and the pulmonary trunk to the coronary groove. It continues around the cranial aspect of the base of the heart and either [illegible] toward the origin of the right interventricular groove (carnivores and ruminants) or turns into this groove. It extends to the apex of the heart in those species where the left coronary artery does not supply this area (horse and pig).

There is a **great deal of variation** in the pattern of coronary arteries in individuals, which is not clinically significant in veterinary medicine. In contrast, this is of great clinical importance in human medicine with regards to infarction. The coronary arteries are so-called end arteries in that they do not form anastomoses. Thus vascular occlusion of a branch cannot be tolerated and leads to local infarction of cardiac muscle. The clinical phenomenon of acute [illegible]

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Fig. 12.12 Interior of the heart of a dog (longitudinal section, plastinate)

...penetrates the cardiac skeleton before dividing into ... (ramus dexter) and **left bundles** (crus sinister) (Fig. 12-...). These branches lie closely under the endocardium of the ... septum. The right branch crosses the cavity ... right ventricle in the septomarginal trabecula of this ... It ends in the outer ventricular wall of the right ventricle. The left branch is more diffuse and ramifies in the outer ... of the left ventricle. The final branches of these bundles ... known as **subendocardial branches** or **Purkinje fibres** (Fig. 12-12).

Innervation of the heart

Innervation of the heart is provided by the **autonomic nervous system**. Sympathetic fibres are supplied by the cervical ... nerves and the **caudal thoracic nerves**, (also called ... **splanchnantes** according to their function), which originate ... the **stellate ganglion** and the **middle cervical ganglion**. ... number of these nerves varies among species and even ... individuals. **Parasympathetic fibres** arise as branches of the ... **nerve** either directly or from the recurrent laryngeal ... These nerve fibres are summarised under the term ... **nerve** (n. depressor). For a more detailed description ... Chapter 14, "Nervous system".

All nerve fibres form the **cardiac plexus** (plexus cardiacus) within the cranial mediastinum. Most of the sympathetic fibres are postganglionic fibres, whereas the parasympathetic fibres are **preganglionic**. These form synapses in small ganglia which are located beneath the epicardium in the ... of the atria, mostly adjacent to the large blood vessels. ... of the fibres innervate the conducting tissue, especially the sinoatrial and the atrioventricular nodes. Efferent fibres of both the parasympathetic and the sympathetic system leave the heart. Sympathetic efferent fibres are responsible for pain receptors, while parasympathetic efferent nerves respond to increases in distension.

Cardiac function is not dependent on afferent nerves, but these influence both rate and force of contractions to match cardiac output to the body's need for oxygen. Sympathetic stimuli accelerate the **pacemaker rate (chronotropy)** and increase **contractility (lonotropy)**, while parasympathetic innervation slows the pacemaker rate. The heart both responds to circulating hormones, such as **adrenaline**, and has endocrine actions; for example, the atrial cells produce **atrial natriuretic peptide**, a peptide hormone which plays a role in the regulation of blood pressure.

Lymphatics of the heart

The heart tissue is drained by **lymph capillaries**, which become confluent in small lymph vessels beneath the epicardium. These run toward the base of the heart, where they form bigger lymph vessels close to the junction between the coronary groove and the left interventricular groove. These finally drain into the cranial and caudal **mediastinal lymph nodes** and the **tracheobronchial lymph nodes**.

Functions of the heart

Alternating between contraction and relaxation results in a pumping action that makes the blood circulate through the body. The phase of contraction is called **systole**; relaxation is

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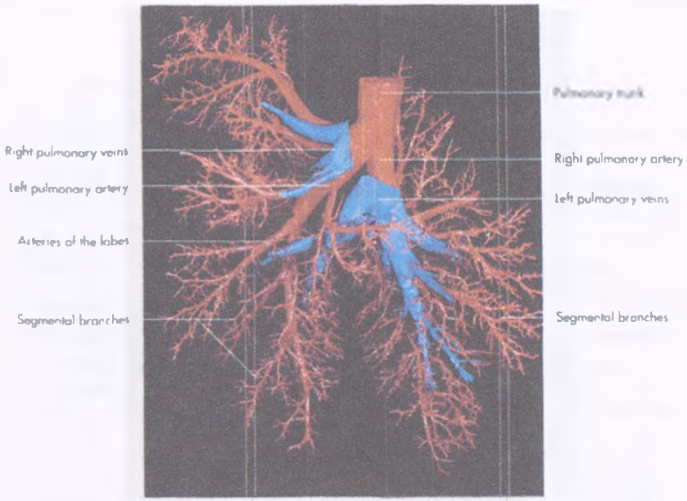


Fig. 12-14. Pulmonary vessels of a sheep (ventral aspect, corrosion cast), courtesy of Prof. Dr. M. Navarro and A. Olives, Barcelona

called **diastole**. During systole the atria of the heart contract first, followed by a contraction of the ventricles, which takes about double the time of the former. The atrioventricular node is of vital importance for the delay between atrial and ventricular contraction, ensuring complete ventricular filling. The walls of the ventricle contract almost simultaneously with the papillary muscles, preventing the prolapse of the valve cusps into the atria. The longitudinal layers of the myocardium shorten the ventricles so that the apex is pulled toward the base of the heart. The circular muscle fibres of the left ventricle and the septum contract like a sphincter. Only contraction of the right ventricular free wall plays a part in right ventricular outflow.

The **volume of blood** pumped by the heart during systole is termed stroke volume. In a 20-kg dog this is approximately 11 ml, which amounts to 1.5 tons of blood pumped in a day. **Cardiac output** is the product of stroke volume and heart rate, and is measured in litres of blood per minute. **Cardiac index** is the cardiac output corrected for body weight.

During **diastole** the myocardium relaxes and the heart chambers fill passively. The return of the blood to the heart is assisted by several factors such as ventilation and contraction of the diaphragm. The atrioventricular valves are open and the semilunar valves are closed during diastole. Backflow of blood against the coronary sinus is responsible for the coronary blood flow. Since blood flow relies on pressure differences, coronary flow is affected by both diastolic blood pressure and right atrial pressure.

The heart can be clinically evaluated by assessing heart rate and rhythm, palpation of pulse pressure, measurement of blood pressure and central venous pressure, and by auscultation of the heart. Closure of the heart valves produces distinctive sounds which are audible with a **stethoscope**. There are **four heart sounds**, referred to as S4 (atrial sound), S1, S2 and S3. Usually it is possible to hear all four sounds only in some large dogs, whereas S1 and S2 should be audible in all domestic animals.

The **first heart sound (S1)** is produced by the simultaneous closure of the atrioventricular valves at the beginning of systole. The **second heart sound (S2)** is produced by the simultaneous closure of the aortic and pulmonic valves, marking the beginning of diastole. The **third heart sound (S3)** is produced by passive ventricular filling, while the **fourth**, or **atrial sound (S4)** is produced by atrial contraction.

The area where the sounds are most clearly heard is called the **point of maximal intensity**, in the horse these are:

- **left thorax**, at the level of a horizontal line drawn through the shoulder joint:
  - 3rd intercostal space: pulmonary valve,
  - 4th intercostal space: aortic valve,
  - 5th intercostal space: bicuspid valve,
- **right thorax**:
  - 4th intercostal space: tricuspid valve.

Vessels (vasa)

Angiology (angiologia) is the study of the form, structure, topography and function of vessels. Under clinical circumstances, it is more useful to have a basic general knowledge of angiology than to know the exact topography of each vessel in minute detail, which in the authors' opinion is only of

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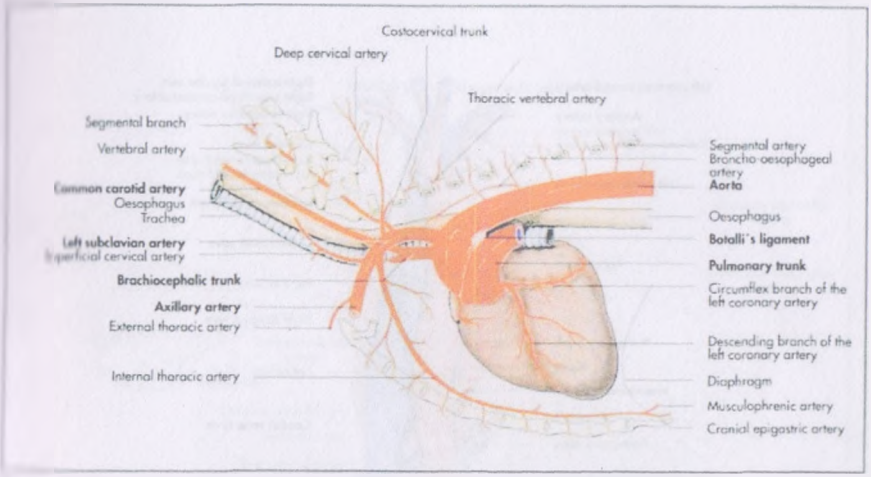


Fig. 12-13. Arteries of the base of the heart and the cranial mediastinum of the dog (schematic, left lateral aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum 1943

interest. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to provide students and practitioners a sound working knowledge of topology. For a more detailed description see also "Introduction and general anatomy".

Arteries of the pulmonary circulation

Deoxygenated blood is transported from the right ventricle to the lung by the **arteries of the pulmonary circulation**, which comprises the pulmonary trunk and the left and right pulmonary arteries (Fig. 12-14). The **pulmonary trunk** (truncus pulmonalis) arises from the right ventricle, from which it is separated by the **semilunar cusps** (valvulae semilunares) of the **pulmonary valve** (valva trunci pulmonalis). It passes between the two auricles and continues caudally to the left of the aorta. Close to its bifurcation it is attached to the aorta by the ligamentum arteriosum, a connective tissue remnant of the ductus arteriosus, which conveys blood directly into the aorta without passing through the lung in the fetal circulation. For a more detailed description see also "Introduction and general anatomy".

Ventral to the bifurcation of the trachea the pulmonary trunk divides into **right** and **left pulmonary arteries** (a. pulmonalis dextra et sinistra). Each artery passes to the corresponding lung, where their branches follow the bronchi until they terminate in the basket-shaped capillary beds surrounding the alveoli. From these capillary beds arise the **pulmonary veins**, which convey the oxygenated blood to the left atrium. The **pulmonary arteries** are the only arteries in the body that carry deoxygenated blood.

Arteries of the systemic circulation

Since species differences are too numerous for the scope of this book, the horse will be used as a model, but the most significant comparative features will be mentioned.

The arteries of the systemic circulation comprise the arteries, which **transport the oxygenated blood** from the left ventricle of the heart to the organs and body tissues. The systemic circulation starts with the aorta, which is separated from the left ventricle by the aortic valve. The initial portion of the aorta is enlarged to form the aortic bulb, from which the coronary arteries arise.

The **aorta ascends** (aorta ascendens) on the right side of the **pulmonary trunk**, before it makes a U-turn dorsocaudally and to the left as the **aortic arch** (arcus aortae). The ascending aorta passes caudally and reaches the vertebral column at the level of the sixth thoracic vertebra slightly to the left of the median plane and continues from there as the **descending aorta** (aorta descendens) (Fig. 12-30ff.).

The descending aorta can be further subdivided into a **thoracic portion** (aorta thoracica) and an **abdominal portion** (aorta abdominalis). It passes from the thoracic cavity into the abdominal cavity through an opening in the diaphragm (**hiatus aorticus**). At the level of the caudal lumbar vertebrae it divides into its terminal branches (Fig. 12-30ff.).

The **aortic arch** is joined to the pulmonary trunk by the **ligamentum arteriosum**, the remnant of the **foetal ductus arteriosus**. Immediately after birth, when the newborn starts to breathe, the tunica media of the ductus arteriosus contracts, and the inner tunic starts to transform. Normally the

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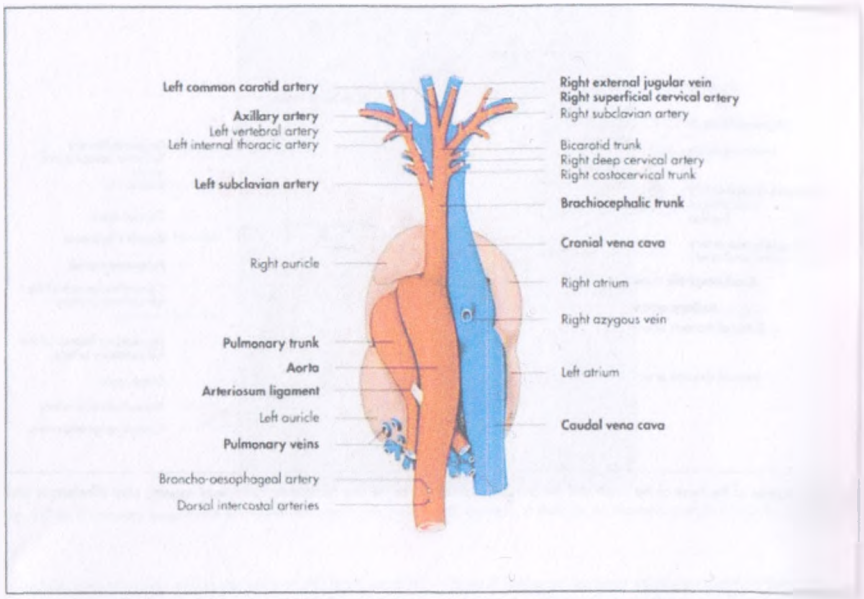


Fig. 12-16. Blood vessels at the base of the heart of the horse (dorsal aspect, schematic); after Ghetie, 1967.

lumen of the vessel is obliterated within the first week postpartum (Fig. 12-16).

A **persistent ductus arteriosus** results in a characteristic continuous murmur audible by auscultation on the right and the left hemithorax. The condition can cause hypoxaemia, due to mixing of oxygenated and deoxygenated blood within the peripheral arterial blood supply.

The **ascending aorta** originates from the left portion of the 4th aortic arch during embryonic development; the pulmonary trunk, from the 6th. (A more detailed description can be found in embryology textbooks.) In some animals, such as the German Shepherd dogs, the ascending aorta has reportedly developed from the right portion of the 4th aortic arch, resulting in a condition termed "persistent right aortic arch".

In affected animals, the ligamentum arteriosum crosses the dorsal aspect of the oesophagus, causing a partial obstruction that can lead to the formation of a diverticulum. Affected animals develop regurgitation of food material as they begin to eat solid food after weaning. Surgical dissection of the impinging ligament will correct the defect, although many animals can be managed without the need for surgery.

Cranial branches of the aortic arch

Brachiocephalic trunk

The brachiocephalic trunk arises from the aortic [illegible] branches cranially (Fig. 12-16, 17 and 18). It provides [illegible] blood supply for the thoracic limbs, the neck, the [illegible] ventral portion of the thorax.

The brachiocephalic trunk gives origin to the

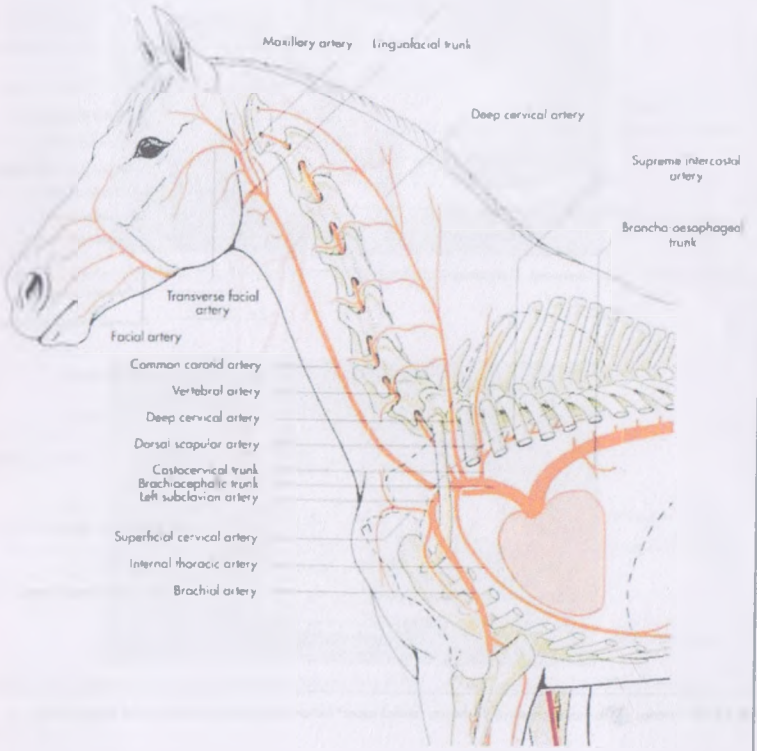
- left subclavian artery (a. subclavia sinistra),
- right subclavian artery (a. subclavia dextra),
- bicarotid trunk (truncus bicaroticus).

In the pig, cat and dog, the left subclavian artery [illegible] arate, more distal origin from the aortic arch.

Subclavian artery

The subclavian arteries supplies blood to the [illegible] neck and cranial and ventral parts of the thorax.

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1 (8) Brachiocephalic trunk and its branches in the horse (schematic)

artery, which supplies the diaphragm and the cra- artery, which passes to the stomach, where it anastomosis with the caudal epigastric artery.

anastomoses are formed between the **deep cervi-** — the **vertebral artery**, as well as between the plexus and the occipital artery.

Following the above branches, the subclavian artery the cranial border of the first rib to enter the where its name changes to the **axillary artery** (Fig.

ches of the **axillary artery** (a. axillaris) (and struc- they supply are:

- suprascapular artery (a. suprascapularis): supraspinous muscle,
- subscapular artery (a. subscapularis)
  - caudal circumflex humeral artery (a. circumflexa humeri caudalis): triceps muscle,
  - circumflex scapular artery (a. circumflexa scapulae): infraspinous and subscapular muscles,
- thoracodorsal artery (a. thoracodorsalis): major teres and latissimus dorsi muscles.

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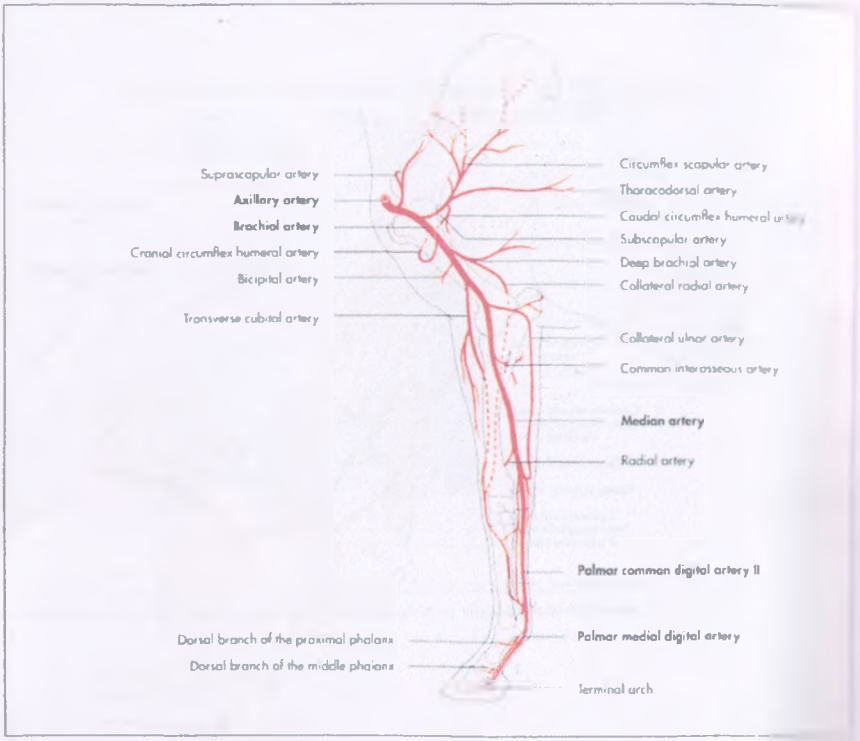
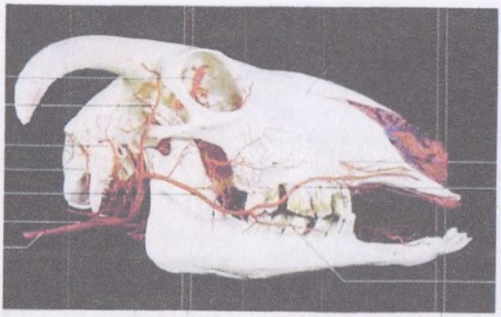


Fig. 12-19. Arteries of the thoracic limb of the horse, medial aspect (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

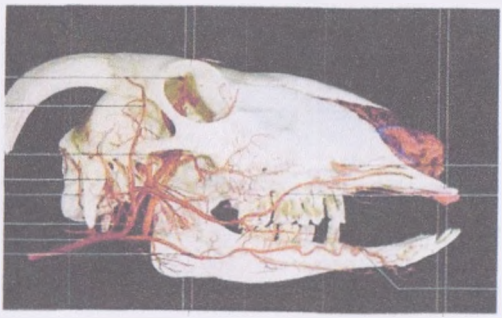
Continuation as **brachial artery** (a. brachialis):
- cranial circumflex humeral artery (a. circumflexa humeri cranialis): proximal biceps, coracobrachial, major teres and latissimus dorsi muscles.
- deep brachial artery (a. profunda brachii): triceps muscle.
  - collateral radial artery (a. collateralis radialis).
- bicipital artery (a. bicipitalis): biceps muscle.
- transverse cubital artery (a. transversa cubiti): radial extensor muscle.
- collateral ulnar artery (a. collateralis ulnaris).
- common interosseous artery (a. interossea communis).
- median artery (a. mediana)
  - radial artery (a. radialis): carpal joint.
  - palmar carpal rete (rete carpi palmare).
  - dorsal carpal rete (rete carpi dorsale).
- medial palmar artery (a. digitalis palmaris [illegible])
  - medial and lateral digital palmar artery (a. digitalis palmaris medialis et lateralis).

The original part of the **axillary artery** is closely [illegible] the **axillary plexus**. After the detachment of the [illegible] lar, the subscapular and the thoracodorsal arteries, it [illegible] changes again at the level of the axillary lymph [illegible] it becomes the brachial artery. The **brachial artery** [illegible] distally into the thoracic limb as its main blood supply. It [illegible] parallel to its corresponding vein and the median, [illegible] musculocutaneous nerves. In the cat, the brachial [illegible] the median nerve pass through the **supracondylar** [illegible] at the proximal end of the radius, while the [illegible] around the shaft of the humerus and detaches several [illegible] es into the surrounding muscles. In the dog, the [illegible] brachial artery leaves the brachial artery at the [illegible]

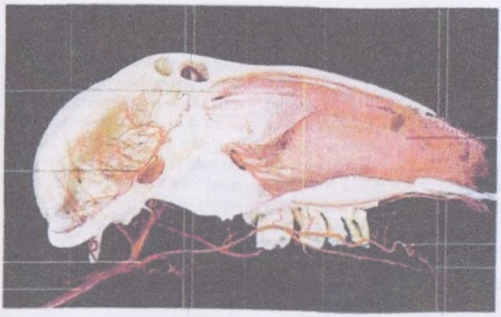
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Superficial arteries of the head of a sheep (corrosion cast), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ana Carretero and A. Oliver, Barcelona



Deep arteries of the head of a sheep (corrosion cast), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ana Carretero and A. Oliver, Barcelona



Arteries of the cranial and nasal cavities of a sheep (median section, corrosion cast), courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ana Carretero and
Barcelona

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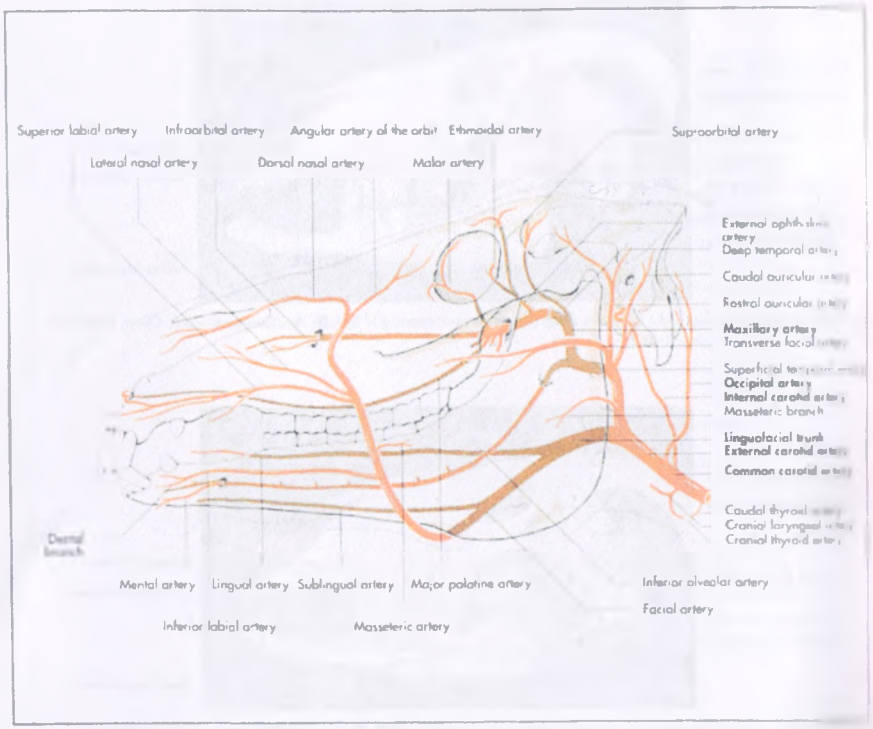


Fig. 12-25. Main arteries of the head of the horse (schematic), after Dyce et al., 2002

adjacent muscles, the only significant branches are detached close to its termination. These are the **caudal** and **cranial thyroid arteries** (Fig. 12-25), both of which provide the blood supply for the thyroid gland.

The **cranial thyroid artery** gives origin to the cranial laryngeal artery for the larynx and the ascending pharyngeal artery for the pharynx. In the horse the **common carotid artery** ends by dividing into the **external** and **internal carotid arteries** and the **occipital artery** (Fig. 12-25 and 26). Close to this division lies the **carotid body** (glomus caroticum), a chemoreceptor, which responds to changes in blood pressure. The **occipital artery** provides blood supply to the muscles of the nuchal region, the caudal meninges, the middle and internal ear before it anastomoses with the vertebral artery, thus taking part in the supply to the brain.

The **internal carotid artery** enters the cranial cavity after forming a characteristic S-shaped flexure at the base of the skull in the horse and dog. In the horse the internal carotid artery passes through the guttural pouch, a diverticulum of the auditory tube peculiar to the horse. Erosion of the [illegible] wall in horses with guttural pouch mycosis causes bleeding which can be fatal. In the horse and the dog, the internal carotid artery is responsible for vascularisation of the brain.

In the other domestic mammals this is achieved by branches of the maxillary artery that form retia mirabilia at the base of the brain, which reunite to form the cerebral [illegible] artery (see Chapter 14, "Nervous system"). The arterial blood supply of the brain is closely related to the **cavernous sinus** (sinus cavernosus), which provides venous drainage of the cranial cavity.

The **external carotid artery** is the largest of the [illegible] branches of the common carotid artery and appears as the direct continuation of the parent trunk. It continues as the **maxillary artery** and detaches several branches to [illegible] the blood supply to the muscles, bones and organs of the head, other than the brain (Fig. 12-22E).

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Branches of the **common carotid artery** and their vascularised structures:

- **caudal thyroid artery**
  (a. glandularis caudalis): thyroid gland.
- **cranial thyroid artery**
  (a. glandularis cranialis): thyroid gland.
  - cranial laryngeal artery
    (a. laryngea cranialis): larynx.
  - ascending pharyngeal artery
    (a. pharyngea ascendens): pharynx.
- **occipital artery** (a. occipitalis): nuchal musculature.
  - caudal meningeal artery
    (a. meningea caudalis): meninges.
- **internal carotid artery** (a. carotis interna): brain.
- **external carotid artery** (a. carotis externa):
  head without brain.
  - linguofacial trunk (a. linguofacialis).
    - ascending palatine artery
      (a. palatina ascendens): pharynx.
    - lingual artery (a. lingualis): tongue.
    - sublingual artery (a. sublingualis): tongue.
    - facial artery (a. facialis)
      - inferior labial artery
        (a. labialis inferior): face, lower lip.
      - superior labial artery
        (a. labialis superior): face, upper lip.
      - lateral nasal artery (a. lateralis nasi): face, nose.
      - dorsal nasal artery (a. dorsalis nasi): face, nose.
      - angular artery of the orbit
        (a. angularis oculi): face, eye lids.
    - masseteric branch
      (ramus masstericus): masseter muscle.
    - superficial temporal artery
      - transverse facial artery
        (a. transversa faciei): masseter muscle.
      - rostral auricular artery
        (a. auricularis rostralis): external ear.
  - caudal auricular artery
    (a. auricularis caudalis): external ear.

Branches of the **maxillary artery** and their vascularised structures:

- **inferior alveolar artery** (a. alveolaris inferior)
  - alveolar branches (rami alveolares): lower teeth.
  - mental artery (a. mentalis): mental angle.
- **caudal deep temporal artery**
  (a. temporalis profunda caudalis): temporal muscle.
- **rostral deep temporal artery**
  (a. temporalis profunda rostralis): temporal muscle.
- **middle meningeal artery**
  (a. meningea media): meninges.
- **malar artery** (a. malaris): orbit.
- **sphenopalatine artery** (a. sphenopalatina): nasal cavity.
- **greater palatine artery** (a. palatina major): hard palate.
- **lesser palatine artery** (a. palatina minor): soft palate.
- **infraorbital artery**
  (a. infraorbitalis): teeth, maxilla, nose.
- **external ophthalmic artery** (a. ophthalmica externa)
  - supraorbital artery (a. supraorbitalis): frontal region.
  - ethmoid artery (a. ethmoidalis): ethmoid, orbit.
  - lacrimal artery (a. lacrimalis): lacrimal gland.
  - internal ophthalmic artery
    (a. ophthalmica interna): retina.
  - rostral meningeal artery
    (a. meningea rostralis): meninges.
- buccal artery (a. buccalis): cheek.

The numerous smaller branches of the arteries of the head are demonstrated in Fig. 12-22 and Fig. 12-24 for the sheep. In this species the transverse facial and the infraorbital artery provides the blood supply to the face. Branches of the maxillary artery form a large rete mirabile at the base of the skull.

Clinically important landmarks

- **pulse palpation in the horse**: facial artery at the facial notch on the ventral border of the mandible.
- **arterial blood sampling**: linguofacial artery at the facial notch on the ventral border of the mandible, common carotid artery at the base of the neck, transverse facial artery ventral to the temporomandibular joint.

Thoracic aorta and abdominal aorta

The thoracic artery passes caudally below the spine to enter the abdomen by the **aortic hiatus** of the diaphragm, from which it continues caudally as the **abdominal aorta**. Both detach segmental arteries, which are called dorsal **intercostal arteries** (aa. intercostales dorsales) in the thorax (Fig. 12-26) and **lumbar arteries** (aa. lumbales) in the abdomen. These arteries supply the wall of the thorax and abdomen and send branches (**rami spinales**) to the spinal cord. The spinal branches enter the spinal canal through the corresponding intervertebral foramen (see Chapter 14, "Nervous system").

They vascularise the spinal ganglia and the meninges and end in the ventral spinal artery that runs in the central groove on the ventral aspect of the spine along its whole length. In the cervical region, the ventral spinal artery forms anastomoses with the vertebral and occipital arteries. In the sacral and caudal region, the spinal cord is supplied by the **median sacral** and the **coccygeal arteries**. Branches and vascularised structures of the **thoracic aorta** (Fig. 12-26):

- **dorsal intercostal arteries** (aa. intercostales dorsales): thoracic and abdominal wall, spinal cord.
- **broncho-oesophageal artery** (a. broncho-oesophagea)
  - bronchial branches (rami bronchiales): bronchial tree.
  - oesophageal branches (rami oesophagei, oesophagei): oesophagus.
- **costoabdominal artery**
  (a. costoabdominalis): abdominal wall.
- **cranial phrenic artery** (a. phrenica cranialis), present in the horse only: diaphragm.

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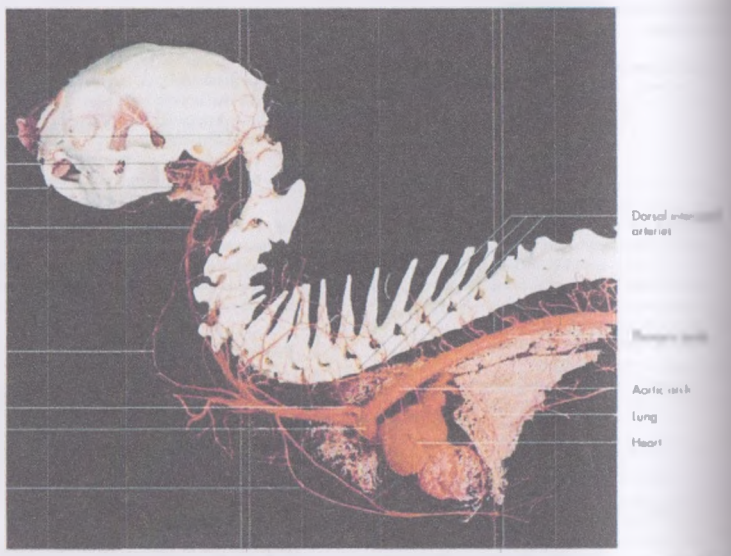


Fig. 12-26. Arteries of the thoracic cavity and the cervical region of a cat (corrosion cast), courtesy of Prof. Dr. M. Navarro and A. [illegible], Barcelona

Branches and vascularises structures of the **abdominal aorta** (Fig. 12-27f.):

- **caudal phrenic artery** (a. phrenica caudalis), present in all the domestic mammals, other than the horse: diaphragm.
- **lumbar arteries** (aa. lumbales): lumbar region.
- **coeliac artery** (a. coeliaca): for the vascularised structures see Chapter 7.
  - left gastric artery (a. gastrica sinistra),
  - hepatic artery (a. hepatica),
    - right gastric artery (a. gastrica dextra),
    - gastroduodenal artery (a. gastroduodenalis dextra),
      - right gastroepiploic artery (a. gastroepiploica dextra),
      - cranial pancreaticoduodenal artery (a. pancreaticoduodenalis cranialis),
  - splenic artery (a. lienalis),
    - left gastroepiploic artery (a. gastroepiploica sinistra).
- **cranial mesenteric artery** (a. mesenterica cranialis): for the vascularised structures see Chapter 7,
  - caudal pancreaticoduodenal artery (a. pancreaticoduodenalis caudalis),
  - jejunal arteries (aa. jejunales),
  - ileocolic artery (a. ileocolica),
    - caecal arteries (aa. caecales),
    - ileal arteries (aa. ilei),
    - colic branch (ramus colicus),
    - right colic artery (a. colica dextra),
    - middle colic artery (a. colica media),
- **renal arteries** (aa. renales),
- **testicular/ovarian arteries** (aa. testiculares/aa. ovaricae),
- **caudal mesenteric artery** (a. mesenterica caudalis),
  - left colic artery (a. colica sinistra),
  - cranial rectal artery (a. rectalis cranialis).

Termination of the **abdominal aorta** (Fig. 12-31):

- **right** and **left external iliac artery** (a. iliaca externa dextra et sinistra),
- **right** and **left internal iliac artery** (a. iliaca interna dextra et sinistra),
- **median sacral artery** (a. sacralis media).

External iliac artery

The external iliac artery is the **principal artery** of the [illegible] **limb**. After arising as one of the terminal branches of the [illegible] (a. it runs along the body of the ilium, accompanied by the [illegible] like-named vein and the genitofemoral nerve, and [illegible] the deep circumflex iliac artery in large animals. In the [illegible] the first branch of the external iliac artery is the [illegible] **tery** (Fig. 11-39). In carnivores, the deep circumflex [illegible]

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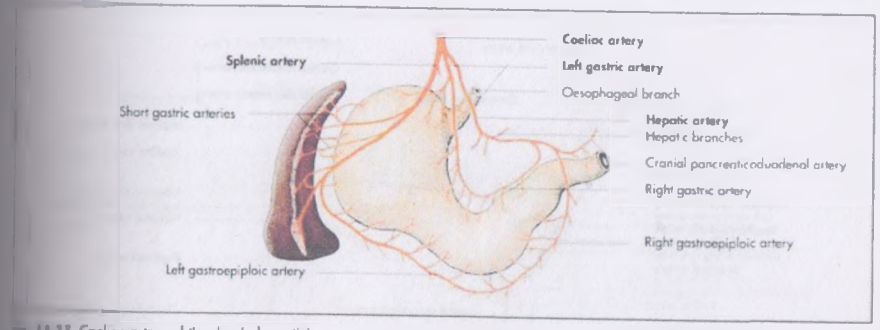


Fig. 12-27. Coeliac artery of the dog (schematic).

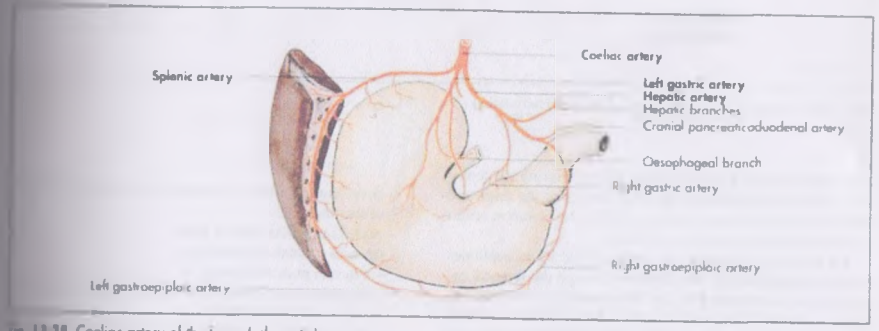


Fig. 12-28. Coeliac artery of the horse (schematic).

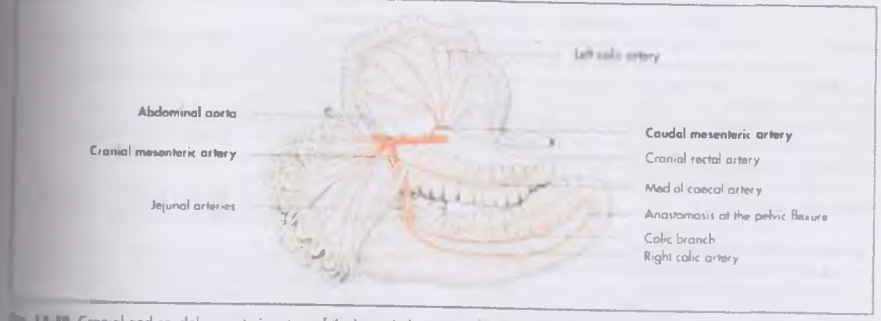


Fig. 12-29. Cranial and caudal mesenteric artery of the horse (schematic), after Ghetie, 1955

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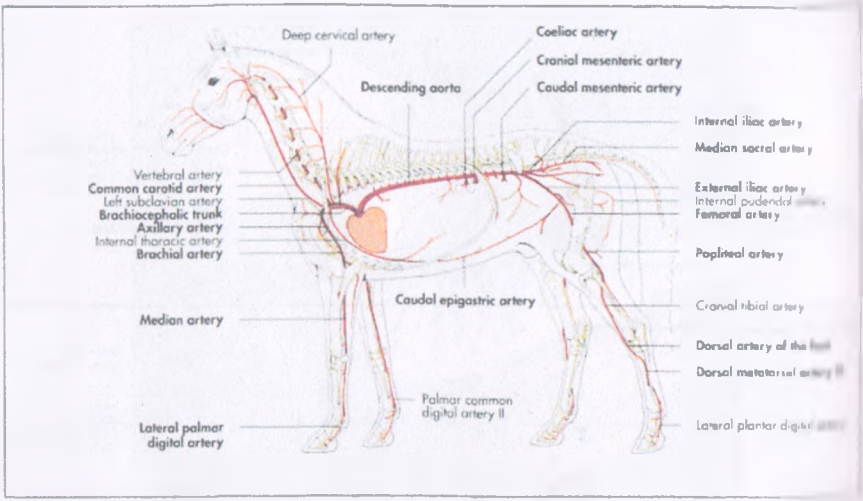


Fig. 12-30. Main branches of the aorta of the horse (schematic)

tery arises directly from the aorta. Before entering the femoral canal, it sends branches into the muscles of the thigh and detaches the deep femoral artery, which is the common origin of the pudendoepigastric arterial trunk.

On leaving the abdomen the external iliac artery continues as the **femoral artery**, which passes through the femoral canal and is accompanied by the like named vein and the saphenous nerve. The femoral canal is bound by the sartorius muscle cranially and the gracilis and pectineal muscles caudally (see Chapter 2, Fig. 2-161). The femoral artery then passes between the adductor muscles on the medial side of the femur to reach the caudal aspect of the stifle, where it continues as the **popliteal artery**. The femoral artery has many branches to the muscles of the thigh.

The popliteal artery divides into **cranial** and **caudal tibial arteries** at the proximal part of the interosseous space. The larger cranial tibial artery passes distally on the craniolateral aspect of the tibia to reach the dorsal aspect of the hock as the **dorsal pedal artery**. It continues between the third and fourth metatarsal bones as the **dorsal metatarsal artery III**, the main vessel to the foot. It ends proximal to the fetlock by dividing into **medial** and **lateral digital arteries**.

Branches and vascularised structures of the **external iliac artery** (Fig. 12-31H.):

- **external iliac artery** (a. iliaca externa):
  - uterine artery (a. uterina) (only in the mare),
  - deep circumflex iliac artery (a. circumflexa ilium profunda),
  - cremasteric artery (a. cremasterica),
  - deep femoral artery (a. profunda femoris): muscles of the thigh,
  - pudendoepigastric arterial trunk (truncus pudendoepigastricus)
    - external pudendal artery (a. pudenda externa): scrotum, mammary gland,
    - caudal epigastric artery (a. epigastrica caudalis): abdominal muscles,
    - medical circumflex femoral artery (a. circumflexa femoris medialis),
- **femoral artery** (a. femoralis):
  - lateral circumflex iliac artery (a. circumflexa femoris lateralis): muscles of the thigh,
  - saphenous artery (a. saphena): skin, muscles of the thigh and leg, digits,
  - caudal femoral arteries (aa. caudales femoris): muscles of the thigh,
- **popliteal artery** (a. poplitea):
  - genicular arteries (aa. genus): caudal stifle joint,
  - middle genicular artery (a. genus media): interior of stifle joint,
  - caudal tibial artery (a. tibialis caudalis): caudal leg,
- **cranial tibial artery** (a. tibialis cranialis): caudal leg,
- **dorsal pedal artery** (a. dorsalis pedis): tarsal joint,
- **dorsal metatarsal artery III** (a. metatarsea dorsalis III)
  - lateral and medial plantar digital arteries (aa. digitales plantaris lateralis et medialis): digit

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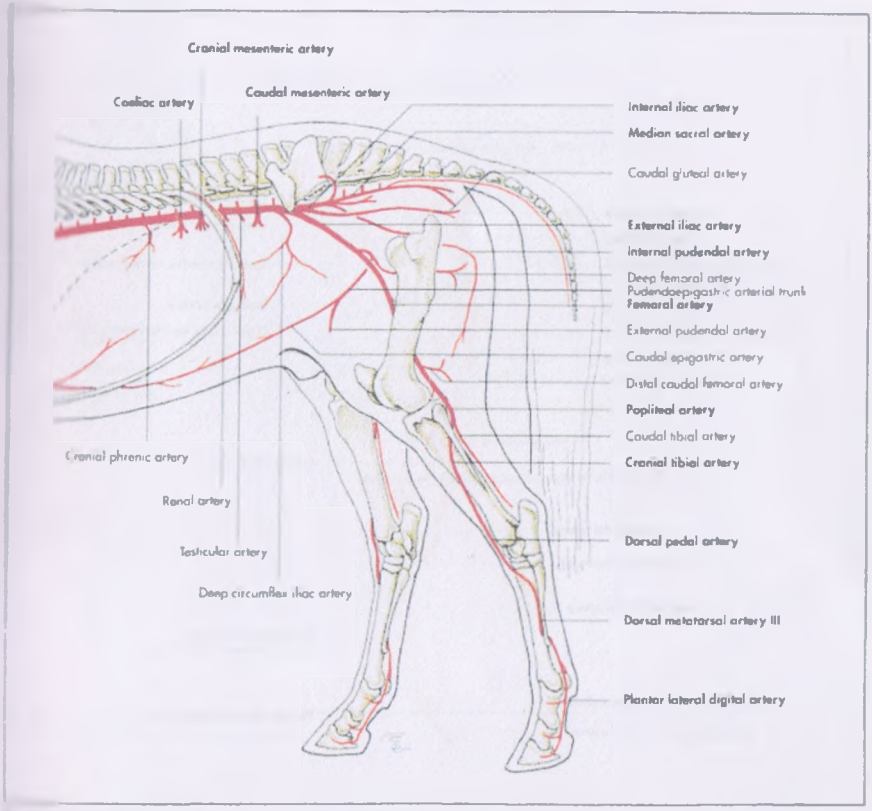


Fig. 12-31 Abdominal aorta and its larger branches of the horse (schematic).

branches: the caudal epigastric artery anastomoses with the cranial epigastric vein, the deep femoral artery with the distal caudal femoral artery, the lateral circumflex femoral artery with the medial circumflex femoral artery, and the descending genicular artery with the middle genicular artery.

Clinically important landmarks:

- **pulse**: in the cat and dog the pulse can be taken at the femoral artery in its first part, where it superficializes on the inside of the thigh.
- **arterial blood sampling**: the dorsal metatarsal artery, between the third and fourth metatarsal bones.

Internal iliac artery

The internal iliac artery provides blood supply to the **pelvic viscera** and the **walls of the pelvic cavity**, including the lumbar muscles and the overlying muscles of the gluteal region. It is one of the terminal branches of the aorta, and in the horse the **median sacral artery** can arise either from the left or the right internal iliac artery. The median sacral artery gives origin to **segmental branches** (Fig. 12-31). The internal iliac artery continues as the **internal pudendal artery** which provides the blood supply for the **pelvic viscera** (Fig. 12-31 and 331). Its branches are differently named and disposed in the two sexes. It supplies the urinary bladder, ureters, urethra and the male and female genital organs. Branches and supplied structures of the **internal iliac artery**:

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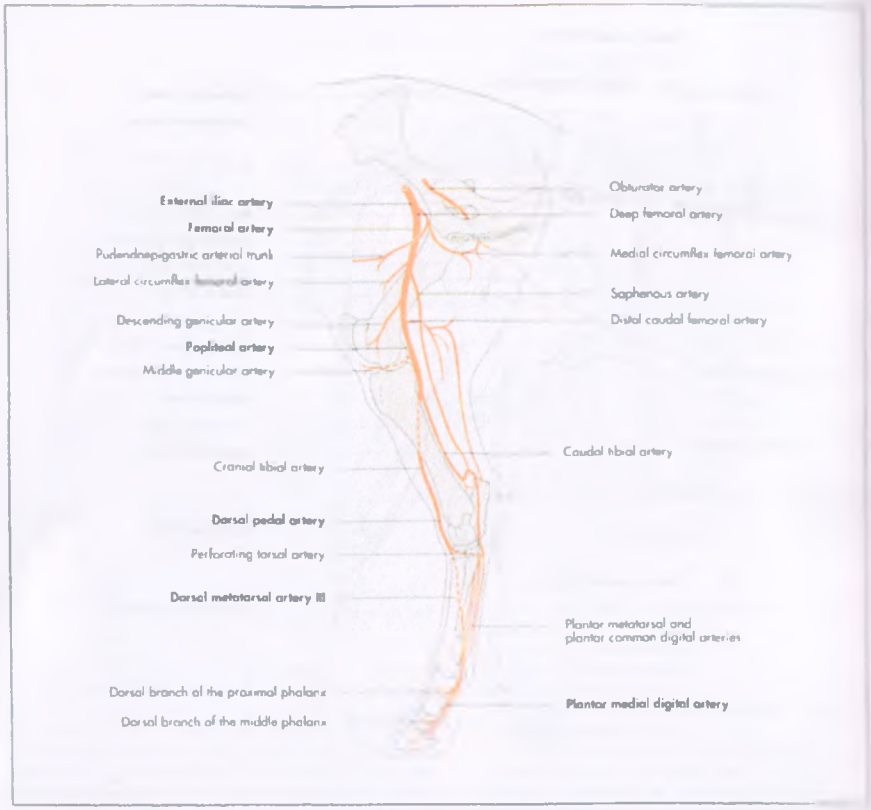
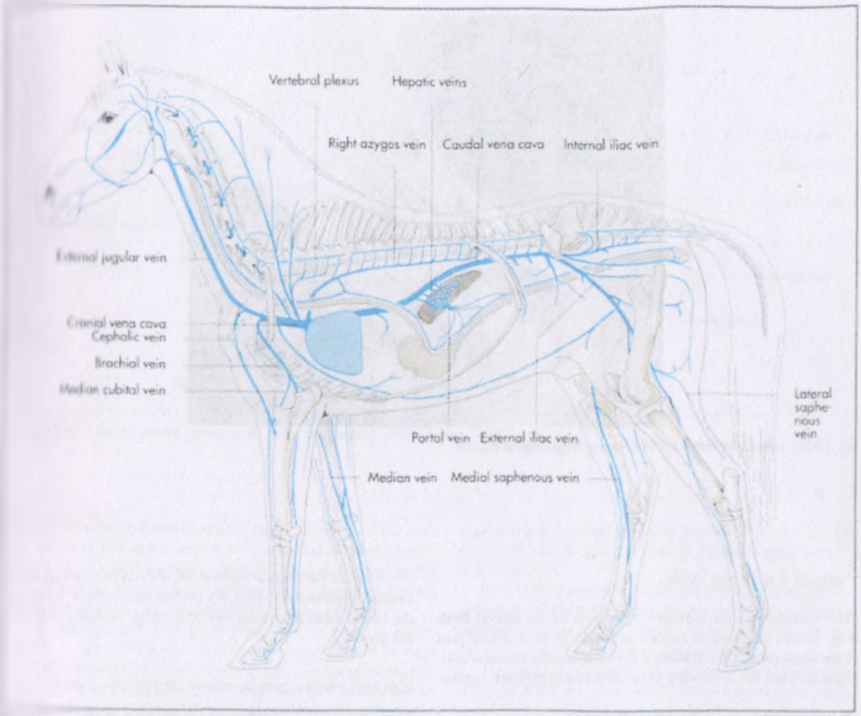


Fig. 12-32. Arteries of the pelvic limb of the horse (schematic), after Dyce et al., 2002

- **internal iliac artery** (a. iliaca interna)
  - median sacral artery (a. sacralis mediana),
  - caudal gluteal artery (a. glutea caudalis),
    - obturator artery (a. obturatoria),
    - cranial gluteal artery (a. glutea cranialis): gluteal muscles,
    - iliolumbar artery (a. iliolumbalis): deep lumbar muscles.
- **internal pudendal artery** (a. pudenda interna)
  - umbilical artery (a. umbilicalis),
  - uterine artery (a. uterina) (not in the mare), remnant of foetal blood supply,
  - vaginal artery (a. vaginalis): urinary bladder, urethra, uterus, vagina, rectum or prostatic artery (a. prostatica): urinary bladder, urethra, accessory genital glands,
    - median rectal artery (a. rectalis media),
  - caudal rectal artery (a. rectalis caudalis): rectum and anus,
  - ventral perineal artery (a. perinealis ventralis): perineum,
  - vestibular artery (a. vestibularis): vestibule or artery of the penis,
  - artery of bulb of vestibule (a. bulbi vestibuli),
  - dorsal artery of the penis (a. dorsalis penis).

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Venous system of the horse (schematic).

...nial vena cava (v. cava cranialis) ...d its tributaries

...ibutaries branches of the cranial vena cava drain the ... neck, thorax and the thoracic limbs (Fig. 12-34 and 361). ...ranial vena cava is formed, at the level of ... inlet, by the convergence of the **jugular veins**. It ...ined by the **right** and **left subclavian veins**, the trib... of which are satellites to the corresponding arteries. ...ronchoesophageal vein. In the horse, dog and cat, ...ined by the right azygous vein near to its termina...

...end of the cranial vena cava receives the **lymph** from ... **duct** which conveys the lymph from the body ... into the blood circulation.

...cranial vena cava passes through the cranial mediasti... to the right of the brachiocephalic trunk and opens into ...right atrium.

Veins of the head and neck

The veins of the head can be divided into veins that lie within the cranial cavity and veins that are outside the cranial cavity. The **valveless veins** within the cranial cavity are described in Chapter 14, "Nervous system". The veins of the head outside the cranial cavity usually run as satellites to the corresponding arteries. In the horse, tributaries of the facial vein are locally dilated to form **three venous sinuses** running along the facial crest and below the masticatory musculature. They promote blood flow toward the heart during mastication. Blood can be sampled from one of these sinuses by drawing a virtual line from the nasal canthus of the eye to the facial crest and advancing a needle off its ventral rim in a medial direction.

The **external jugular vein** is formed near the angle of the jaw by the union of the linguofacial and the maxillary veins (Fig. 12-361). It runs along the neck, occupying the **jugular groove** (sulcus jugularis) between the brachiocephalic mus-

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Fig. 12-37. Lateral saphenous vein of a dog (right lateral aspect)

Veins of the pelvic limb

Corresponding to the forelimb, the veins of the **pelvic limb** (Fig. 12-38) originate in venous networks in the terminal part of the digit (**arcus terminalis**). These networks become confluent to form the following veins in distal to proximal order:

- medial and lateral plantar digital veins (vv. digitales plantares mediales et laterales),
- metatarsal veins (vv. metatarseae),
- dorsal pedal vein (v. dorsalis pedis),
- cranial tibial vein (v. tibialis cranialis),
  - medial saphenous vein (v. saphena medialis),
  - lateral saphenous vein (v. saphena lateralis),
- popliteal vein (v. poplitea),
- femoral vein (v. femoralis),
- external iliac vein (v. iliaca externa),
- internal iliac vein (v. iliaca interna) and
- caudal vena cava (v. cava caudalis).

The deep veins are largely satellites to the arteries. As in the forelimb, certain superficial veins, including the **lateral saphenous vein**, run alone (Fig. 12-37 and 38). Each saphenous vein originates from a cranial and caudal branch from the tarsus, and unites in the middle of the leg. At the level of the tarsus, they communicate with the deep **metatarsal veins**. Within the leg, the saphenous veins run medially and laterally between the calcaneal tendon and the caudal muscle mass. The medial vein is the larger of the two in all domestic animals other than the dog and crosses the medial aspect of the thigh to open into the **femoral vein**. The lateral vein joins the deep femoral vein at the stifle.

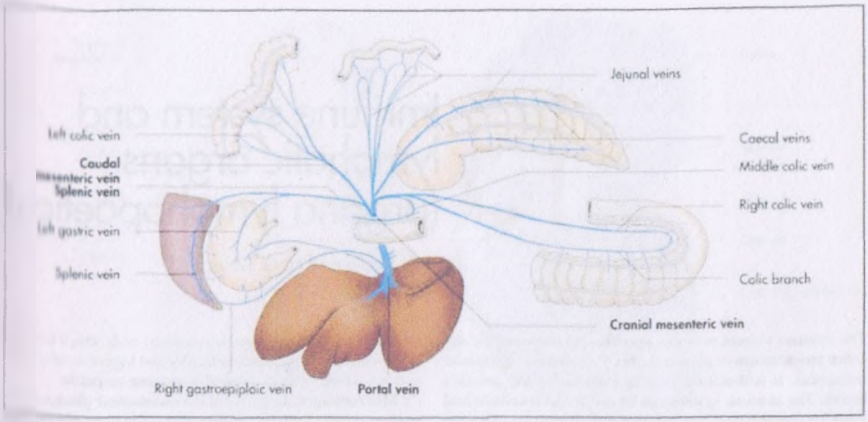
In the cat the medial saphenous vein can be used for **venous injections**, especially during anaesthesia. In the dog the lateral saphenous vein can be used for venipuncture at the tarsus.

Caudal vena cava (v. cava caudalis)

The caudal vena cava begins on the roof of the abdomen at the level of the **last lumbar vertebra** by convergence of the **median sacral vein** and the **common iliac veins** which in turn are formed by the union of the external and internal iliac arteries (Fig. 12-38). The **external iliac veins** and their tributaries are satellites to arteries and drain the legs. The **internal iliac veins** drain the pelvic walls and of the pelvic viscera. They communicate with the plexus and the venous system of the intestines through median sacral vein. The **caudal vena cava** passes along the roof of the abdomen to the **right of the aorta** intra-abdominal course, it is joined by the renal segmental veins of the lumbar spine before it tween the lobe of the liver. Here it is joined by veins and the receiving the veins of the diaphragm the thorax by passing through the diaphragm at **ramen** and pursues a course within the free edge pleural fold, the **plica venae cavae**, on the caudal mediastinum, accompanied by the ends by opening into the **right atrium**. Veins tal organs and the adrenal glands convey hormones nial vena cava, through which they are distributed without having to pass the liver first.

Space-occupying lesions, such as tumours, obstructions within the venous system that lead to

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11.19 Hepatic portal system of the horse (schematic); after Ghetie, 1955

that they receive nutrition from both. Branches of the portal vein and the hepatic veins can be assessed ultrasonographically or with contrast radiography. The portal vein brings the intestinal blood to the liver; it receives nutritional molecules from the intestines and hormones from the pancreas.

In the foetus the **umbilical vein** from the placenta enters the liver and is shunted into the posterior vena cava through the **ductus venosus**. This duct becomes obliterated shortly after birth. However, in some animals, most commonly in dogs, this duct persists, forming a direct connection between the portal vein and the caudal vena cava and requiring surgical intervention.

Arteries and veins of the digit

The digits receive their main blood supply on their palmar (plantar) aspect, where the palmar artery splits into several digital arteries according to the number of digits. The paw of dogs and cats receives additional blood supply from dorsal digital arteries.

Within the distal phalanges the **palmar (plantar) digital arteries anastomose** with each other, thus forming the **terminal arches**. In the middle of each phalanx, the arteries detach branches which surround the phalanx.

The veins of the digits are largely satellites of the arteries, although there are veins on the dorsal aspect of the digit.

Clinical terms related to the cardiovascular system: arteritis, angiography, persistent ductus arteriosus, thrombophlebitis, angiopathy, pericarditis, endocarditis, arteriosclerosis, vasculitis, coronary infarct.

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13 Immune system and lymphatic organs (organa lymphopoetica)

H.E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The immune system provides **specific** and **non-specific defence mechanisms** to protect the body against environmental influences. It is therefore vital in maintaining the animal's health. The immune system can be divided into cellular and vascular components. The **cellular component** includes the lymphatic tissue found as single cells, which are diffusely dispersed within tissues, as aggregations of lymphatic cells (tonsils) or in lymphatic organs (thymus, lymph nodes and spleen). **Circulating components** include lymphocytes, monocytes, and plasma cells, which are found in lymphatic organs, blood, tissue spaces and the lymph stream. The lymphatic vascular system includes **lymph capillaries**, **lymph vessels** and **lymph collecting ducts**.

The thymus plays an essential role in the development of the lymphatic cellular components by controlling growth of the lymphatic organs in immature animals.

Lymphocytes are the predominant cell type of the immune system, and can be divided into **B** and **T lymphocytes**. They are formed within the bone marrow and lymphatic organs and are distributed within the lymphatics and in blood. Their cell surface is marked by specific receptors, with which they are able to recognise and bind molecules and trigger a chain of actions, which leads to a **specific immune response**.

Macrophages are part of the **mononuclear phagocyte system (MPS)**, which is responsible for the non-specific immune response. This system also comprises the alveolar macrophages of the lung, Langerhans cells of the skin, microglia in the central nervous system, and the endothelium of the liver, spleen and bone marrow sinusoids. Formerly the MPS was referred to as the reticuloendothelial system (RES).

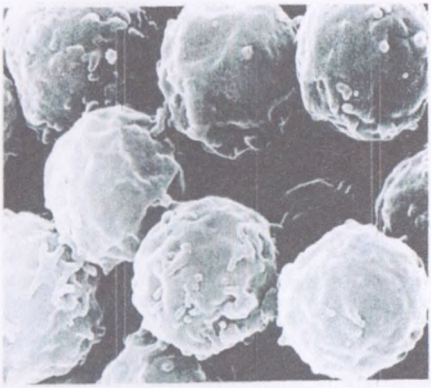


Fig. 13-1. Scanning electron microscopic image of lymphocytes

Lymph vessels (vasa lymphatica)

During the circulation of blood from arteries to veins, proteins are able to pass through the capillary walls into the interstitial fluid spaces. This clear, colourless transudate is called lymph and is taken up by the blind-ending lymphatic capillaries. The lymphatic capillaries form plexuses in almost body tissues from which larger lymph vessels take their origin. Lymph vessels open into lymph ducts, which eventually drain into the jugular vein or the cranial vena cava. Lymph vessels are interrupted by lymph nodes, which function as filters and germinative centres for lymphocytes. No lymph vessels are found within the central nervous system.

The **lymph capillaries** are lined by a continuous single-layered endothelium with an underlying incomplete basement membrane. Unlike the lymph vessels, they have no **valves**. Openings appear at intervals between adjacent endothelial cells and allow fluids or emulsified fats (e.g. from the intestines) to pass through the wall into the lumen of the capillaries.

The **lymphatic vessels** have thinner walls than those of comparably sized veins, but contain more valves. Contractions of the relatively thin middle muscular tunic are responsible for the flow of lymph towards the thoracic duct. The high number of successive valves gives the lymph vessels their characteristic appearance, resembling a string of beads when distended. This appearance can be demonstrated in the live animal with the use of contrast radiography.

Lymph vessels that transport the lymph from the periphery region to a lymph node are termed **afferent lymph vessels**. **Efferent lymph vessels** leave the lymph node containing lymph that is filtered and enriched with lymphocytes.

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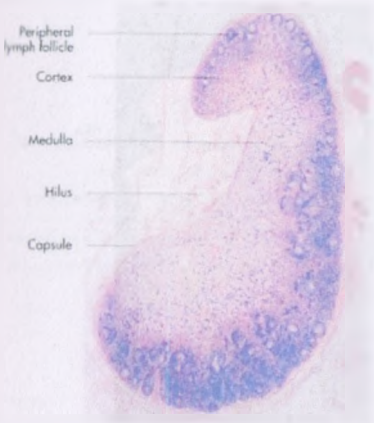


Fig. 13-2. Histological section of a lymph node of a sheep

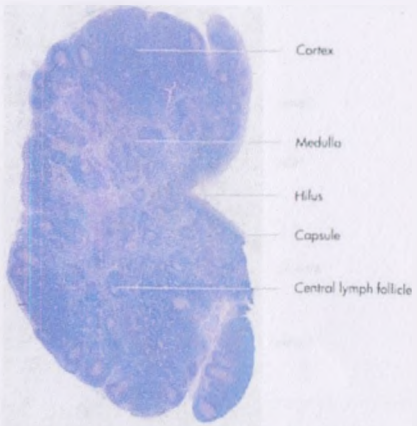


Fig. 13-3. Histological section of a lymph node of a pig.

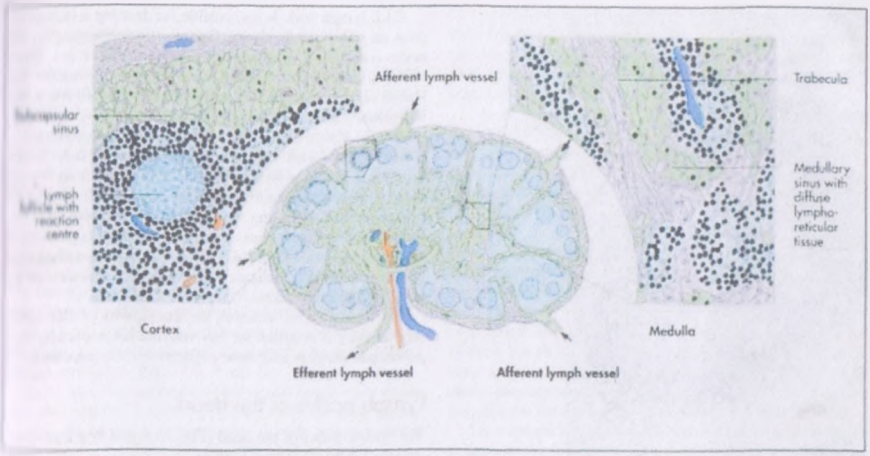


Fig. 13-4. Internal structure of the bovine lymph node (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

Lymph nodes (lymphonodi, nodi lymphatici)

Lymph nodes are firm, smooth-surfaced, generally ovoid or bean-shaped with a large convex surface and a smaller concave area, the **hilus**.

Internally the lymph node is divided into a **cortex** and a **medulla**. The cortex contains the **germinal centres** in which lymphocytes are continually produced. The medulla consists of **anastomosing cords** of lymphocytes (Fig. 13-4). Each lymph node is enclosed by a soft tissue capsule, from which septa and trabeculae extend into the organ, forming an internal framework (Fig. 13-2L). Afferent lymph vessels open into

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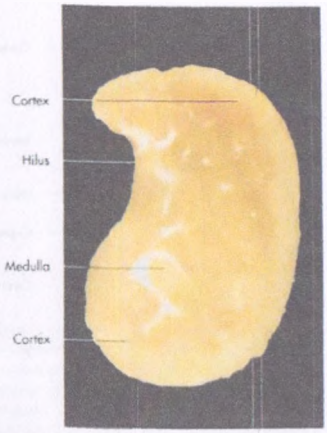


Fig. 13-5. Lymph node of a pig (transverse section); courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.



Fig. 13-6. Lymph node of a pig; courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.

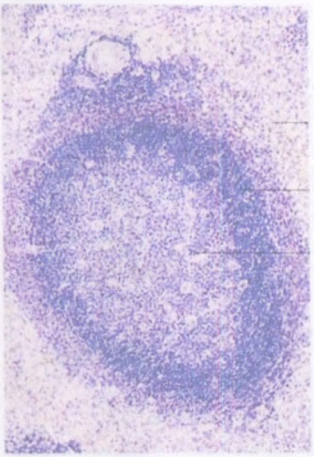


Fig. 13-7. Histological section of a lymph follicle.

the **subcapsular sinus** (sinus marginalis). Branches from the subcapsular sinus form a **medullary sinus**, close to the hilus, where the efferent lymph vessels emerge. In the pig, this organisational order is reversed: afferent vessels enter the lymph node at the hilus, and efferent vessels leave the lymph node via the subcapsular sinus. Lymph nodes are well vascularised by blood vessels that enter the organ at the hilus.

Each lymph node is responsible for draining a certain region, its **tributary territory**. Groups of neighbouring lymph nodes constitute **lymph centres** (lymphocentrum, lc.). There are species-specific differences in the lymph centres: the lymph centres of carnivores and ruminants contain fewer, but individually large lymph nodes, while those of pigs and horses contain a large number of relatively small lymph nodes.

All lymph, with very few, disputed exceptions, passes through at least one lymph node on its passage from the tissues to the blood stream. Within the lymph nodes most particulate matter, including microorganisms and tumour cells, is removed and destroyed. Thus the lymph node provides a barrier to the spread of infection and tumours. Swelling of a lymph node usually indicates the presence of a disease process in its tributary territory.

Knowledge of the location, the accessibility and the tributary territory is essential for any veterinarian, especially surgeons, pathologists and those engaged in meat inspection.

Lymph nodes of the head

The lymph nodes of the head (Fig. 13-8 and 9) are grouped into the following lymph centres:

- parotid lymph centre (lc. parotideum),
- mandibular lymph centre (lc. mandibulare),
- retropharyngeal lymph centre (lc. retropharyngeum).

Parotid lymph centre

The parotid lymph centre consists of one or more parotid lymph nodes at the base of the ear close to the temporomandibular joint and covered by the parotid gland or the auricularis

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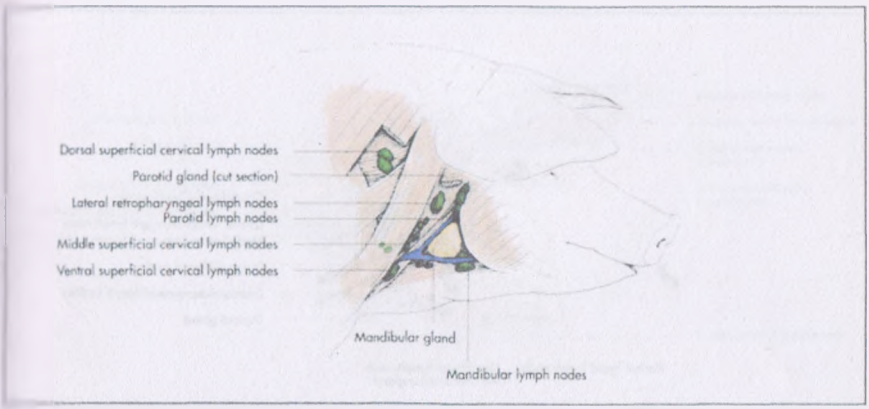


Fig. 13-8. Lymph nodes of the head and the cranial part of the neck of the pig (schematic), after Nickel, 1982

muscle. The afferent lymphatics drain the dorsal half of the head, the orbit and the masticatory muscles (Fig. 13-8 and 12).

Mandibular lymph centre

The mandibular lymph centre comprises a number of lymph nodes located between the hemimandibles, in close proximity to the greater sublingual salivary gland and the mandibular salivary gland. They can be easily identified on palpation. The afferent lymphatics to the mandibular lymph centre drain the oral cavity, including the tongue and teeth, the salivary glands, the intermandibular space and the masticatory muscles (Fig. 13-8, 9 and 12).

Retropharyngeal lymph centre

The retropharyngeal lymph centre is divided into a medial and a lateral group (lnn. retropharyngei mediales et laterales). These afferent lymph vessels drain the deep parts of the head, including the pharynx, larynx, the cranial part of the trachea and the oesophagus (Fig. 13-8, 9 and 12).

In the horse the lateral retropharyngeal lymph node drains from the guttural pouch. All lymph from the head passes through the medial retropharyngeal lymph nodes before it passes into the **tracheal (jugular) trunk** (Fig. 13-12).

Lymph nodes of the neck

The lymph nodes of the neck are organised in two groups:

1. superficial cervical lymph centre (lnn. cervicale superficiale),
2. deep cervical lymph centre (lnn. cervicale profundum).

Superficial cervical lymph centre

The superficial cervical lymph centre is located cranial to the shoulder joint, covered by the brachiocephalic and the omotransversarius muscles. The lymph nodes of the superficial cervical lymph centre include the dorsal, middle and ventral superficial cervical lymph nodes, with species specific variations.

These lymph nodes have a relatively extended tributary territory, including the skin and underlying structures of the cervical region, the thorax and the proximal part of the thoracic limb (Fig. 13-8 and 12). Efferent lymph vessels of these lymph nodes pass to the caudal **deep cervical lymph nodes**.

Deep cervical lymph centre

The deep cervical lymph centre comprises several groups of lymph nodes which are located along the trachea (Fig. 13-9 and 12). They consist of cranial, middle and caudal deep cervical lymph nodes. There is great variation in the distribution of these lymph nodes, and the middle one may be absent in some species. The tributary territory of this lymph centre includes the deep structures of the cervical region, including the oesophagus, the trachea, the thymus and the thyroid gland.

The efferent lymph vessels from the deep cervical lymph nodes join the lymphatic duct, which passes caudally along the trachea parallel to the common carotid artery to open into the cranial vena cava or, as sometimes seen in the **left lymphatic duct** into the **thoracic duct**.

Lymph nodes of the thoracic limb

Lymph from the superficial and proximal parts of the forelimb drains to the superficial cervical lymph centre; lymph from the rest of the limb drains to the axillary lymph centre (Fig. 13-12).

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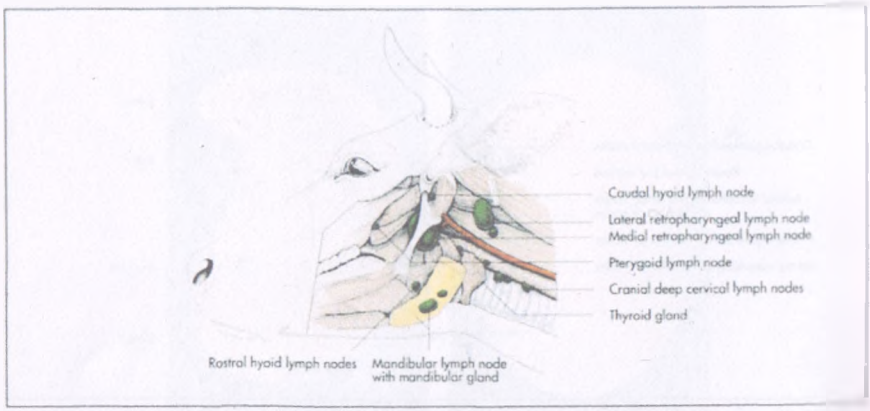


Fig. 13-9. Deep lymph nodes of the head and the cranial part of the neck of the ox (schematic); after Najbrt, 1982.

Axillary lymph centre

The axillary lymph centre lies within the axilla, medial to the shoulder joint, where the axillary artery bifurcates to form the subscapular and the brachial arteries. In addition to the **proper axillary lymph node** (ln. axillaris proprius), there may be an **accessory axillary lymph node** (ln. axillaris accessorius) caudal to it and the **lymph node of the first rib** (ln. axillaris primae costae) cranial to it. In the horse and the sheep a more distal group may be located on the medial aspect of the **elbow joint** (lnn. cubiti).

The **axillary centre** drains the deeper structures of the entire limb and the superficial structures of the distal part of the limb. Its tributary territory also extends on the lateroventral aspect of the thorax, including the cranial mammary glands located in this region. This has to be considered when mammary tumours are removed surgically. The efferent lymph vessels of the axillary lymph centre open into the terminal part of the lymphatic duct or directly into the veins at the thoracic inlet.

Lymph nodes of the thorax

The **walls of the thorax** are drained by the:
- dorsal thoracic lymph centre (lc. thoracicum dorsale),
- ventral thoracic lymph centre (lc. thoracicum ventrale).

The **organs within the thoracic cavity** are drained by the:
- mediastinal lymph centre (lc. mediastinale),
- bronchial lymph centre (lc. bronchiale),
- dorsal thoracic lymph centre (lc. thoracicum dorsale) and
- ventral thoracic lymph centre (lc. thoracicum ventrale).

Dorsal thoracic lymph centre

The dorsal thoracic lymph centre comprises two groups of lymph nodes, the **intercostal lymph nodes** (lnn. intercostales) and the **thoracic aortic lymph nodes** (lnn. thoracales aortici) (Fig. 13-10 and 12). As indicated by their names, the intercostal lymph nodes are located within the upper part of some of the intercostal spaces, and nodes of the thoracic aortic are dispersed along the aorta. They are inconsistent in number between species.

Ruminants often have **hemal nodes** in this region. Hemal nodes (lymphonodus hemalis) have a similar architecture to lymph nodes, but differ from lymph nodes in that their sinuses do not contain lymph, but **blood** and are connected to blood vessels instead of lymph vessels.

The dorsal thoracic lymph centre drains the roof of the thorax and sends its efferent vessels to the thoracic duct.

Ventral thoracic lymph centre

The lymph nodes of the ventral thoracic lymph centre are located dorsal to the sternum and lateral to the transverse thoracic muscle. They are grouped in a cranial set in all domestic species, with ruminants and some cats having a second caudal set of ventral thoracic lymph nodes (Fig. 13-10 and 12).

The ventral thoracic lymph centre drains the ventral part of the thoracic wall and sends its efferent lymph vessels either directly to the thoracic duct or to the mediastinal lymph nodes.

Mediastinal lymph centre

The mediastinal lymph centre comprises cranial, middle and caudal mediastinal lymph nodes, which are located in the like-named part of the mediastinum. The caudal set is also

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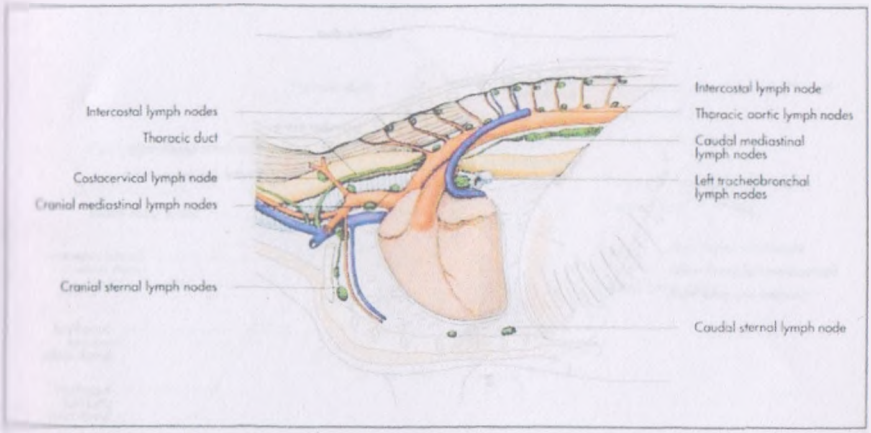


Fig. 13-10. Lymph nodes of the thorax of the ox (schematic); after Najbrt, 1982.

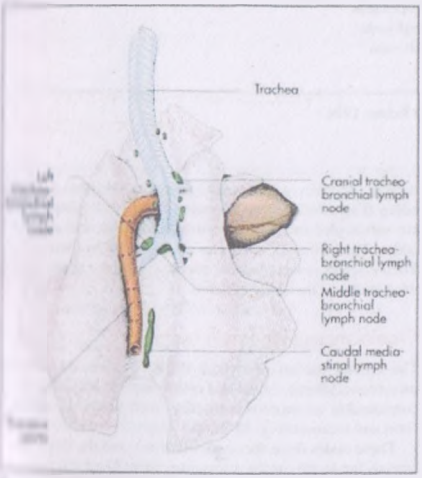


Fig. 13-11. Tracheobronchial lymph nodes of the lung of the ox (dorsal aspect), after Najbrt, 1982

in the dog and cat, although in 25% of cats a phrenic lymph node is present next to the caval foramen. In ruminants the caudal mediastinal lymph nodes form a relatively large mass on the dorsal aspect of the oesophagus (Fig. 13-10L). Enlargement of these lymph nodes can cause obstruction of the oesophagus in these species. The tributary territory of the mediastinal lymph centre comprises the organs within the mediastinum, including the heart, the trachea, the oesophagus and the thymus. It receives efferent lymph vessels from other thoracic lymph nodes, the diaphragm and abdominal organs located just caudal to the diaphragm.

Bronchial lymph centre

The bronchial lymph centre consists of the **tracheobronchial** (sometimes called bifurcational) **lymph nodes** (lnn. tracheobronchales seu bifurcationis) located above the bifurcation of the trachea (Fig. 13-10H). These are grouped into a right, middle and left set of lymph nodes. In ruminants and pigs, which have a tracheal bronchus, there is an additional cranial tracheobronchial group. Small **pulmonary lymph nodes** (lnn. pulmonales) may be present within the lung tissue along the main bronchi (Fig. 8-26H). These lymph nodes are important for lymphatic drainage of the lungs.

In the horse the **left tracheobronchial group** is of special importance with regards to the pathogenesis of the **paralysis** of the **left recurrent laryngeal nerve**. It is hypothesised that inflammation of these lymph nodes could spread to the adjacent nerve or that enlargement of the lymph nodes could mechanically damage the nerve, thus leading to the clinical condition of **laryngeal hemiplegia (roaring)**.

Lymph nodes of the abdomen

The abdominal cavity and its organs are drained by several groups of lymph nodes along the abdominal aorta, located in the lumbar region and at the origin of the intestinal arteries. Additional lymph nodes are found close to the organs they drain and are described together with these organs, in Chapter 7.

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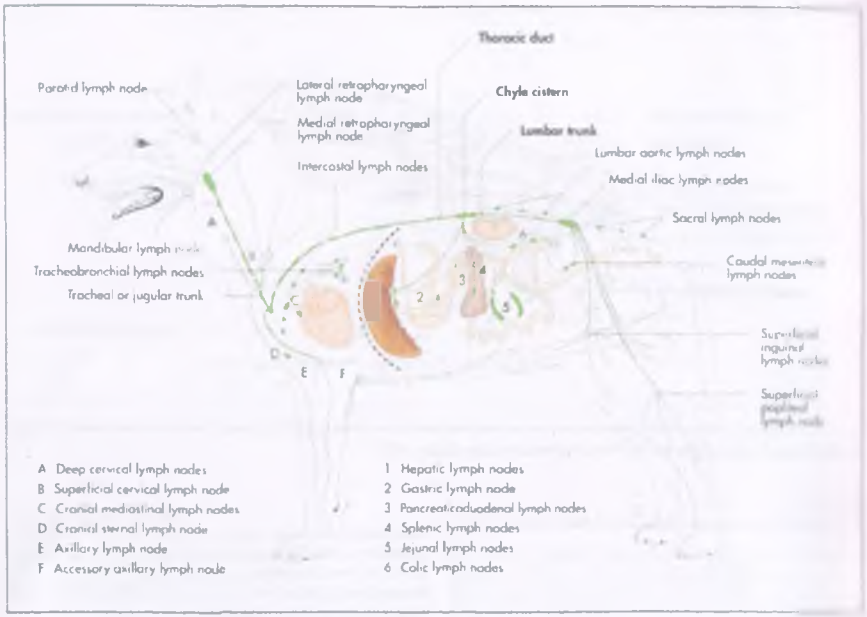


Fig. 13-12. Lymphatic system of the dog (schematic). Budras, Fricke and Richter, 1996

The **three lymph centres** associated with the drainage of the abdominal viscera have tributary territories broadly corresponding to those of the coeliac, cranial mesenteric and caudal mesenteric arteries. The efferent vessels of these centres converge to form the chyle cistern.

Lumbar lymph centre

The lumbar lymph centre consists of the **lumbar aortic** and **renal lymph nodes**. The lumbar aortic lymph nodes lie either side of the aorta, between the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae (Fig. 13-12). Haemal nodes may also be present in the same location in ruminants.

The lumbar lymph nodes receive afferent lymph vessels from the abdominal roof and from efferent vessels of more caudally located lymph nodes. The lymph drainage from the lumbar lymph centre is received by the **chyle cistern** (cisterna chyli).

Renal lymph nodes are associated with the renal vessels and drain the kidneys.

Coeliac lymph centre

The celiac lymph centre includes the lymph nodes located within the region supplied by the coeliac artery. These are the coeliac, splenic, gastric and pancreaticoduodenal lymph nodes (Fig. 13-12ff.). In ruminants the gastric lymph nodes are subdivided in ruminal, reticular, omasal and abomasal nodes. Their tributary territories are indicated by their names. Their efferent vessel form the coeliac lymphatic trunk, one of the radicles of the **chyle cistern**.

Cranial mesenteric lymph centre

The cranial mesenteric lymph centre includes the cranial mesenteric, jejunal, caecal and colic lymph nodes. They show considerable interspecies variations with regard to number, form and location (Fig. 13-12 and 13).

These nodes drain the small intestines and the large intestines as far distally as the transverse colon. Their efferent vessels converge to form the cranial mesenteric trunk, which unites with the caudal mesenteric trunk in the **intestinal trunk** before it joins the chyle cistern.

Caudal mesenteric lymph centre

The caudal mesenteric lymph centre consists of the caudal mesenteric lymph nodes, which receive the lymph from the descending colon (Fig. 13-12). Its efferent vessels form the caudal mesenteric trunk, which opens into the chyle cistern.

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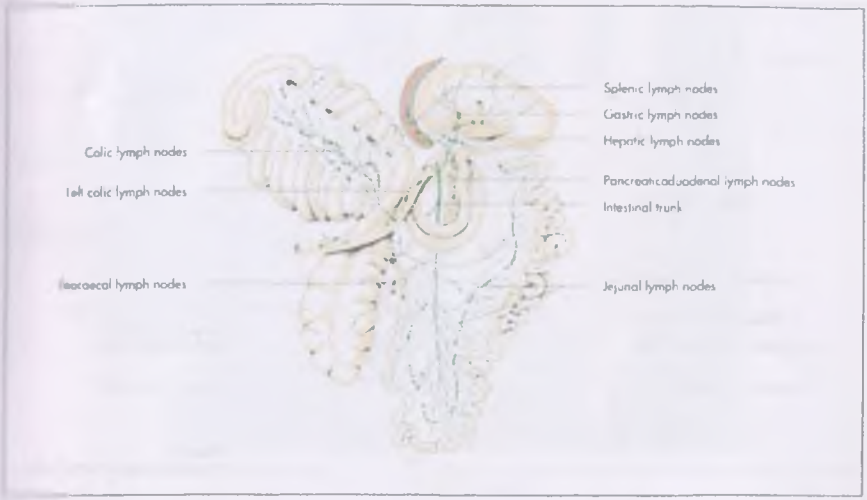


Fig. 13-13 Lymph nodes and lymph vessels of the intestine of the pig (schematic), after Nickel, 1982

Lymph nodes of the pelvic cavity and the pelvic limb

The tributary territories of the lymph nodes of the pelvis often overlap with those associated with the abdominal wall (Fig. 13-14). This is of clinical importance with regards to the spread of tumours of the mammary glands in dogs.

Iliosacral lymph centre

The iliosacral lymph centre comprises the:

- medial iliac lymph nodes (lnn. iliaci mediales),
- lateral iliac lymph nodes (lnn. iliaci laterales),
- internal iliac lymph nodes (lnn. iliaci interni),
- sacral lymph nodes (lnn. sacrales) and
- anorectal lymph nodes (lnn. anorectales).

The **medial iliac lymph nodes** are the main group of the iliosacral lymph centre and are located at the quadrification of the aorta (Fig. 13-14). These nodes are the secondary filtration centres through which flows the efferent lymph from the deep lymph nodes of the pelvic viscera and the hind limbs. This is of special clinical relevance when tumours occur in this region, e.g. in cancer of the testicles, as cancerous cells are transported directly to the medial iliac lymph nodes without passing through another lymph node. The medial iliac lymph nodes give origin to the **lumbar trunks**, which open into the **chyle cistern** (Fig. 13-12).

The **lateral iliac lymph nodes** are lacking in the dog and cat and are not consistently present in the other domestic mammals. When present they are found at the bifurcation of the deep circumflex iliac artery.

Other lymph nodes belonging to the iliosacral centre are found **ventral to the sacrum** (sacral lymph nodes), lateral to the **rectum** (anorectal lymph nodes) and at the **internal iliac artery** (internal iliac lymph nodes). These various lymph nodes drain the adjacent structures (Fig. 13-14).

Iliofemoral lymph centre

The iliofemoral lymph centre comprises nodes located along the course of the external iliac artery or its femoral continuation (in the cat and horse) (Fig. 13-14).

Their tributary territory includes the adjacent body wall and the thigh. They also receive efferent lymph vessels from the superficial inguinal nodes in the cat and from the popliteal nodes in the horse. Their efferent vessels drain to the medial iliac nodes.

Inguinofemoral lymph centre (lymphocentrum inguinofemorale)

The inguinofemoral lymph centre comprises the following lymph nodes:

- superficial inguinal lymph nodes (lnn. inguinales superficiales, also called scrotal or mammary lymph nodes).

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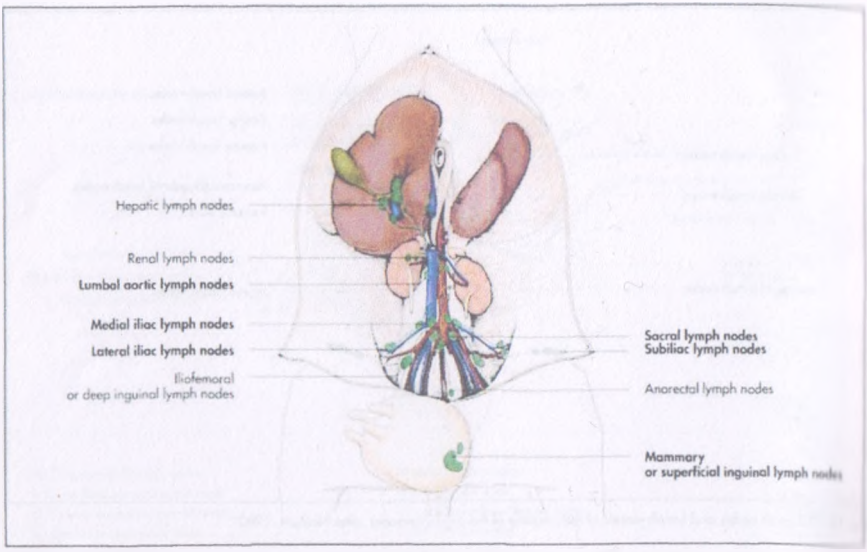


Fig. 13-14. Lymph nodes and lymph collecting ducts of the abdominal cavity of the ox (ventral aspect), after Baum, 1912

- subiliac lymph node (missing in the dog, rare in the cat),
- coxal lymph node (ln. coxalis),
- lymph node of the paralumbar fossa (ln. fossae paralumbalis) and
- epigastric lymph nodes (lnn. epigastrici).

The **inguinofemoral lymph centre** drains the flank, the caudoventral part of the abdominal wall, the scrotum and the mammary glands (Fig. 13-14). Hence the superficial inguinal lymph nodes should be examined and may have to be removed when mammary tumours are excised. The efferent vessels of these lymph nodes drains into the medial iliac lymph nodes.

Ischial lymph centre (lymphocentrum ischiadicum)

The ischial lymph centre consists of the ischial lymph node, which is located on the lateral aspect of the sacrosciatic ligament close to the ischial tuberosity. It receives the lymph from the caudal part of the rump and thigh and in the cat from the efferent lymph vessels from the popliteal node. Its efferent vessels drain into the iliosacral lymph node. This lymph node is not present in the dog.

Popliteal lymph centre (lymphocentrum popliteum)

The popliteal lymph centre is the most distal centre of the pelvic limb and comprises superficial and deep popliteal lymph nodes, which are located within the popliteal fossa caudal to the stifle. In the dog and cat the superficial popliteal nodes are easily palpable through the skin.

The popliteal centre drains the distal part of the limb and directs its efferent flow to the medial iliac centre, except in the horse, in which it passes to the deep inguinal nodes (Fig. 13-12).

Lymph-collecting ducts

The major lymph collecting channel is the **thoracic duct** (ductus thoracicus). Its lymph, also called chyle, appears milky due to the emulsified fat it receives from the intestinal tract. The thoracic duct begins between the crura of the diaphragm as a cranial continuation of the **chyle cistern**. It bifurcates or trifurcates dorsal to the aorta, and the branches are connected by a network of branches, forming a wide-meshed plexus, through which the intercostal arteries pass.

The thoracic duct passes through the **aortic hiatus** into the mediastinum and continues as a single duct cranially and ventrally over the left side of the aorta. Before it opens into the **jugular vein** or the **cranial vena cava** it may split again into several terminal branches. Normally the lymph vessel joins the venous system at the **jugular venous angle**, the point of

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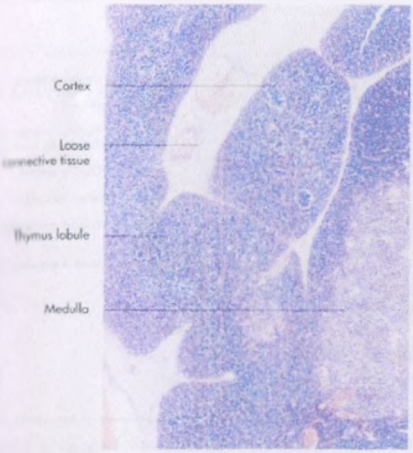


Fig. 13-15. Histological section of the thymus of a cat.

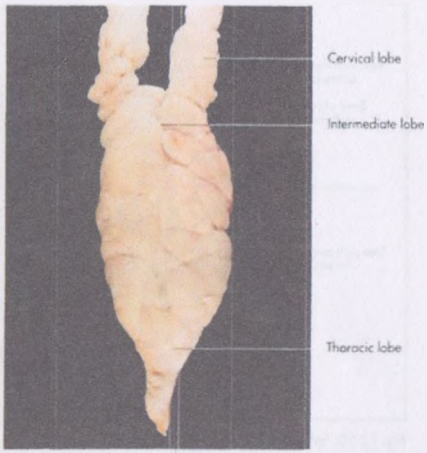


Fig. 13-16. Thymus of a calf (dorsal aspect), courtesy of PD Dr. S Reese, Munich).

of the external and internal jugular veins, or at the junc- of the jugular and subclavian veins (see Chapter 12).

The thoracic duct receives the lymph from the left side of the head and neck via the **left jugular** (tracheal) lymph duct and from the left forelimb by the lymph-collecting duct which is formed by the convergence of the efferent vessels of the axillary and superficial cervical lymph nodes. Lymph from the right side of the **head** and **neck** (right jugular or tracheal lymph duct) and the right thoracic limb is returned via the right lymphatic duct to the venous system at the venous angle.

The **chyle cistern** has the shape of a spindle or sac and lies anatomically dorsal to the aorta extending from the diaphragmatic crura to the origin of the renal arteries (Fig. 13-12). The flow of the lymph is assisted by the respiratory movements of the diaphragm and the pulsation of the aorta. The chyle cistern receives afferent vessels at its caudal aspect from the lumbar lymph trunks, which are continuous with the lymph trunks of the pelvic area.

The **chyle cistern** also receives afferent vessels from the intestinal trunk, from the abdominal organs, which is formed by the convergence of the coeliac, cranial and caudal mesenteric trunks. In some species these open into the chyle cistern individually. The cranial and caudal mesenteric trunks may unite to form an intestinal lymph trunk before converging with the coeliac trunk.

Thymus (thymus)

The thymus is the control organ of the immune and lymphatic systems (Fig. 13-15ff.). Its importance is greatest in the juvenile animal and accordingly it reaches its maximum development three weeks after birth in dogs, nine months after birth in pigs and one year after birth in the horse. After this time it begins gradually to **involute** until the animal reaches sexual maturity. Regression starts at the cranial, cervical part of the organ, so that the thoracic part remains longest. As it decreases in size and loses its lymphoid structure, it is replaced by fat. However, evidence of the thymus can be seen in most animals regardless of age.

The thymus has a **paired origin** from the third pharyngeal pouches, and the buds grow down the neck beside the trachea

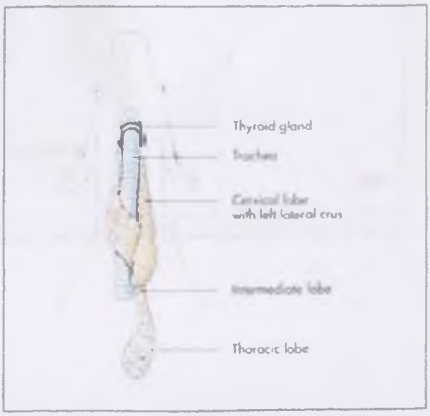


Fig. 13-17. Topography of the thymus of the calf (schematic).

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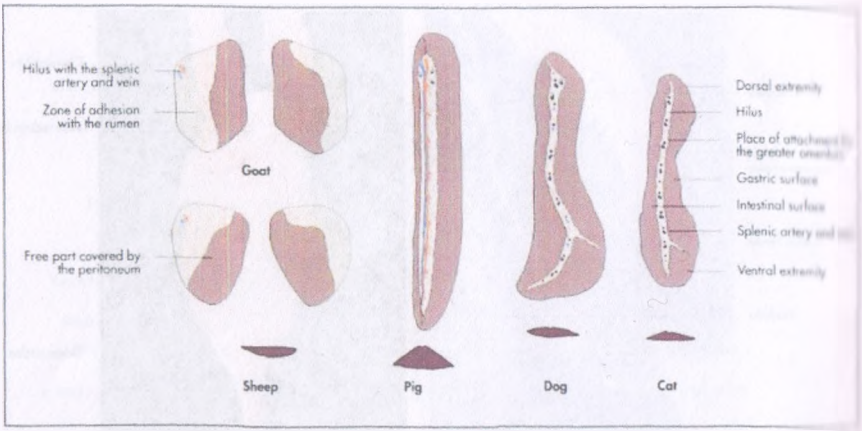


Fig. 13-20. Spleen of the small ruminants, pig, dog and cat (schematic, medial aspect and cross section)

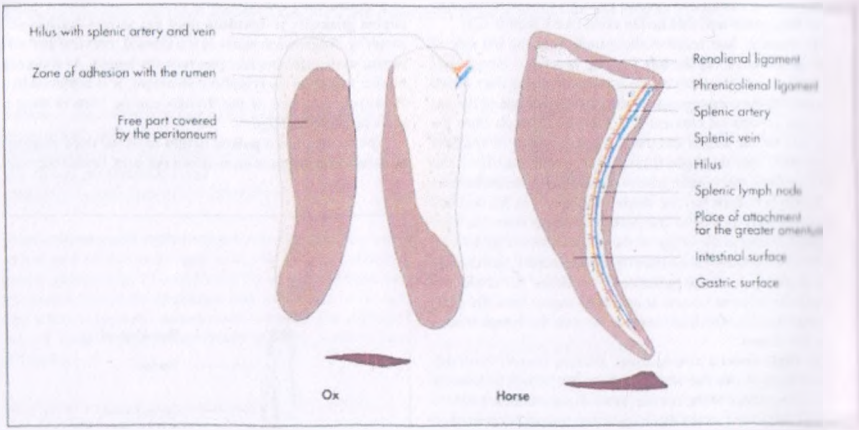
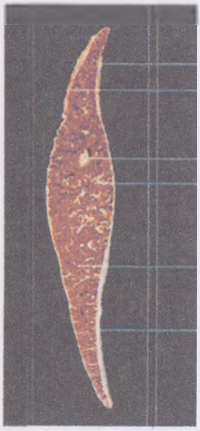


Fig. 13-21. Spleen of the ox (schematic, medial and lateral aspects and cross section) and horse (schematic, medial aspect and

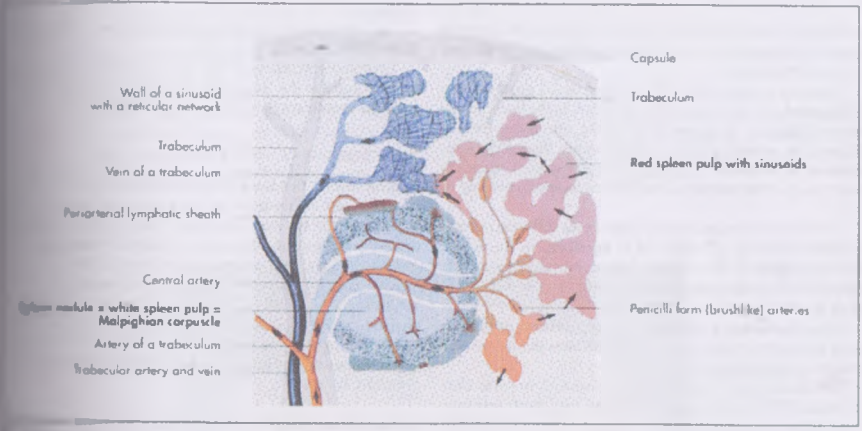
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Spleen of an ox (proximal end, cross section); courtesy R Rease, Munich

Fig. 13-23. Spleen of an ox (distal end, cross section); courtesy of PD Dr S Rease, Munich.



Microvascularisation of the spleen; Liebich 2004

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Fig. 13-25. Histological section of the spleen of a cat, Liebich, 2004

ruminants, where half of the spleen extends into the retroperitoneal attachment zone between the diaphragm and the dorsal sac of the rumen.

The spleen is attached to the stomach by the **gastrosplenic ligament**, which is part of the omentum. In the horse an additional ligament is present between the spleen and the left kidney, the **nephrosplenic** or **renosplenic ligament** (ligamentum lienorenale), creating the nephrosplenic space, in which parts of the intestines can become trapped, resulting in colic.

The basic form of the spleen varies in the different domestic mammals (Fig. 13-18ff.): it is **falciform** in the horse, **tongue-shaped** in pigs, **boot-shaped** in carnivores, **leaf-shaped** in small ruminants and resembling a wide strap in the ox (Fig. 13-22 and 23).

It has two surfaces, the diaphragmatic surface and the visceral surface; the latter is marked by the hilus in all domestic mammals other than the ruminants.

Several accessory spleens may be present, close to the hilus or embedded in the greater omentum, and these originate from dispersed primordial cells during embryonic development.

The spleen is enclosed by a **soft tissue capsule** which is rich in smooth muscle fibres and extends trabeculae into the organ. The **parenchyma** of the spleen consists of the **white splenic pulp** (Fig. 13-24 and 25). The **red pulp** is composed of the venous sinuses, which are lined by an endothelium. The white pulp, which accounts for about [illegible] of the splenic volume, consists of diffuse and follicular lymphoid tissue. (A more detailed description can be found in histology textbooks.)

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation of the spleen

The blood vessels of the spleen are the splenic artery (a. lienalis) and the coeliac artery (a. coeliaca). The [illegible] drains into the portal vein. The blood vessels pass through the **hilus** and course in the **trabeculae**, branching repeatedly as they become smaller in diameter. They finally leave the trabeculae and become surrounded by lymphoid tissue, forming **central arteries** within the white pulp. The central arteries enter the red pulp, where they branch into about 30 straight arterioles that open into **capillary** beds.

The venous side of the vascular pathway through the spleen begins in the **venous sinuses** which communicate with each other. The wall of these sinuses is composed of endothelial and reticular cells with an incomplete basal membrane. These sinuses coalesce into veins of the red pulp which finally merge to become the **trabecular vein**. (A more detailed description can be found in histology textbooks.)

The spleen receives **parasympathetic** and sympathetic **nerve fibres** from the solar plexus.

Lymphatic drainage of the spleen is to the splenic lymph nodes located at the hilus of the organ. Their efferent vessel joins the coeliac trunk to drain into the chyle cistern.

Function

Several diverse functions have been attributed to the spleen. It stores and concentrates erythrocytes and releases them when needed. It filters the blood and removes senescent erythrocytes from the circulation. From the haemoglobin it extracts iron and releases it again for reuse. It produces lymphocytes and monocytes and has an important function in the production of antibodies. However, the spleen is not essential to life, as most of its functions are taken over by other organs in its absence. Dogs and cats can lead a healthy life after splenectomy, but animal athletes do not return to their former performance levels.

Clinical terms related to the immune system and lymphatic organs: lymphangitis, lymphadenitis, lymphangiography, thymectomy, thymopathy, splenitis, splenectomy, splenomegaly.

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14 Nervous system (systema nervosum)

H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

The nervous system is responsible for the stimulus-response reaction between the environment and the organism and regulation and co-ordination of other body systems. It acts and so controlled by the endocrine, immune and sen organs. An environmental change provides a stimulus is recognised by the appropriate receptor organ. The neural stimulus causes a reaction by an effector organ. In simple organisms, the receptor cell itself is connected direct the effector cell. In higher organisms, the receptor and organs lie separate and are connected by neurons, transmit the information from cell to cell. For a more detailed description see the "General introduction".

Although the **nervous system** actually forms a single, integrated system, it is convenient for descriptive purposes to divide it **into parts**. The division can be made on topographical grounds, distinguishing the **central nervous system** (systema nervosum centrale), consisting of the **brain** (encephalon) and **spinal cord** (medulla spinalis) from the **peripheral nervous system** (systema nervosum periphericum) consisting of **cranial** and **spinal nerves**. An alternative division distinguishes the somatic system that is concerned with locomotion from the **visceral** or **autonomic system**, concerned with functions related to the inner organs, such as heart and respiratory rate. The latter includes the **sympathetic** and the **parasympathetic nervous systems**.

Central nervous system (systema nervosum centrale)

The central nervous system consists of the **spinal cord** and the **brain**. The spinal cord runs within the vertebral column. The brain is housed within the cranial cavity and surrounded by an osseous capsule. Both are surrounded by several meningeal layers, which enclose a fluid-filled space. Thus, the central nervous system is protected by its surrounding bones and the shock-absorbing properties of the cerebrospinal fluid. Without any distinct anatomical division, the brain continues as the spinal cord between the occipital bone and the atlas; the exact limit is drawn between the last pair of cranial nerves and the first pair of cervical nerves.

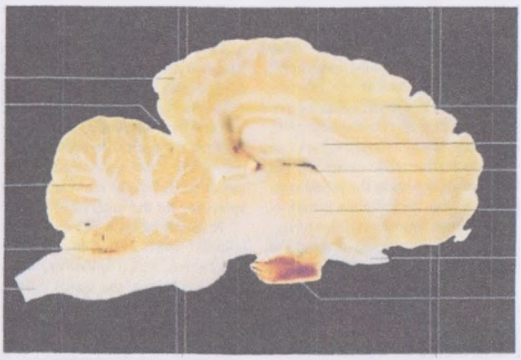


Fig. 14.1: Paramedian section of the brain of a horse (P 35 plastinate), courtesy of Dr. M.-C. Sora, Vienna

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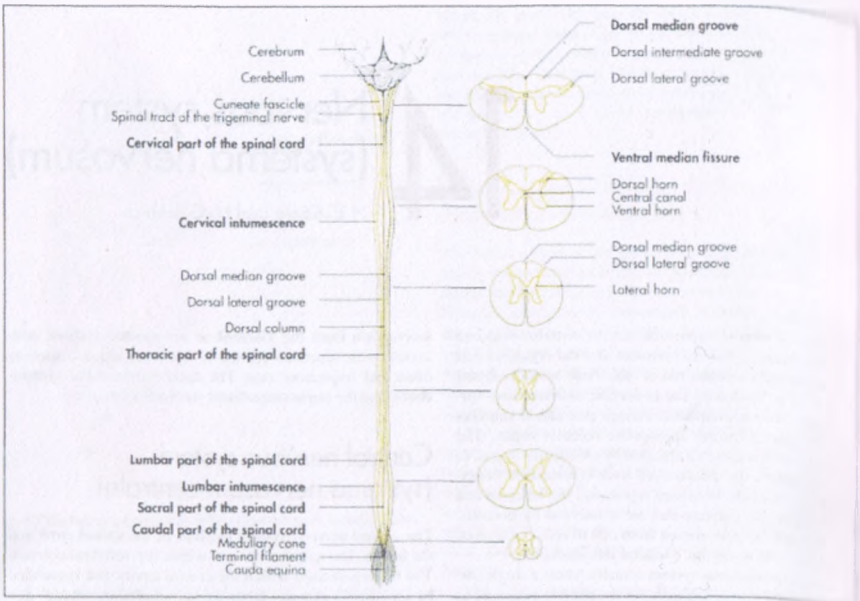


Fig. 14-2. Spinal cord (schematic, dorsal aspect and transverse sections); after Najbrt, 1982.

Spinal cord (medulla spinalis)

Shape and position

The spinal cord is a **whitish, elongated cylinder** with a slight dorsoventral flattening. It has certain regional variations in form and diameter: at two locations, where nerves to the limbs arise, the relative diameter of the spinal cord is increased. The **cervical enlargement** or **intumescence** (intumescentia cervicalis) involves the caudal part of the cervical spine and the initial part of the thoracic spine and gives rise to the spinal nerves that form the **brachial plexus** that innervates the thoracic limb. The **lumbar enlargement** (intumescentia lumbalis) gives rise to the spinal nerves, which innervate the pelvic cavity and the pelvic limb. Caudal to the lumbar enlargement the spinal cord tapers into an **elongated cone** (conus medullaris), which is finally reduced to form the **terminal filament** (filum terminale) (Fig. 14-5 and 6). Corresponding to the divisions of the vertebral column the spinal cord can be divided into the:

- cervical spinal cord (pars cervicalis),
- thoracic spinal cord (pars thoracica),
- lumbar spinal cord (pars lumbalis),
- sacral spinal cord (pars sacralis) and
- coccygeal or caudal spinal cord (pars coccygea).

The **spinal cord** is divided into two symmetric halves by the **dorsal groove** (sulcus medianus dorsalis) and the **ventral median fissure** (fissura mediana ventralis).

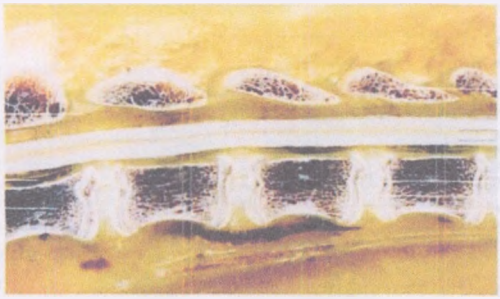
On the dorsolateral aspect of each side, nerve fibres enter the spinal cord, forming the **dorsal spinal root** (radix dorsalis), while on the ventrolateral aspect, nerve fibres leave the spinal cord, forming the **ventral root** (radix ventralis) (Fig. 14-7).

The nerve fibres of each root are bound together at the **intervertebral foramen**, where dorsal and ventral roots unite to form the **spinal nerve** (n. spinalis). Although the spinal cord itself is not segmented, it can be divided into segments based on the spinal nerves. Each pair of spinal nerves is responsible for the innervation of a body segment.

A **spinal ganglia** is located within each dorsal root and contains sensory neurons, with the exception of the first cervical nerve, which has no or only a rudimentary ganglion.

In the **foetus**, the spinal cord and vertebral column are the same length, and each spinal nerve leaves the vertebral canal through the intervertebral foramen at the level of its origin. During development, however, the vertebral column increases more in length than the spinal cord, and the

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14.3 Vertebral column with the spinal cord of a dog (median section, plastinate), courtesy of Dr. M.-S. Sora, Vienna



14.4 Cauda equina of a pig (horizontal section, dorsal aspect), courtesy of R. Herbener and D. Friedrich, Munich

...f the spinal cord is cranial to the caudal end of the ver... column. Instead of leaving the vertebral canal at the ... their origin, the spinal nerves have to pass caudally ... the vertebral canal until they can leave through their ... intervertebral foramina. **Sacral** and **caudal spi...** ... stream caudally beyond the conus medullaris to ex... their respective intervertebral foramina. Collectively ... are designated **cauda equina**, due to their shape, ... resembles the tail of a horse (Fig. 14-6).

A transverse section of the spinal cord shows a **central grey matter** (substantia grisea) perforated in the ... by the **central canal** (canalis centralis). The central ... the caudal continuation of the ventricles of the brain ... through the whole of the spinal cord. It is lined by **ependymal cells**, a subgroup of glial cells, and filled with **cerebrospinal fluid** (liquor cerebrospinalis).

The grey matter is surrounded by the **white matter** (substantia alba). The spinal cord and the spinal roots are surrounded by protective, soft tissue layers termed **meninges**. All parts of the spinal cord are well vascularised by a dense capillary network. Vascular supply is also provided within the vertebral canal by large veins embedded in soft tissue rich in fat, which is not enclosed by the meninges. The soft tissue layers and the cerebrospinal fluid provide the spinal cord with protection against the mechanical forces it is submitted to.

Structure

The spinal cord is a **bilaterally symmetrical** structure, which is divided by different grooves of varying depths (Fig. 14-7). Dorsally there is the **dorsal median sulcus** (sulcus medianus dorsalis) at the surface and a **dorsal median septum** (septum medianum dorsale) that extends from the sulcus into the spinal cord. On the ventral surface, the spinal cord is marked by the deep **ventral median fissure** (fissura mediana ventralis).

A dorsolateral sulcus is visible on each side, where **dorsal nerve roots** (radices dorsales) enter the spinal cord. A corresponding ventrolateral sulcus, where **ventral nerve roots** (radices ventrales) leave the spinal cord, is reduced to a shallow groove.

Grey matter (substantia grisea)

The **grey matter** is composed of cell bodies and processes of neurons and glial cells. In transverse section, the grey matter appears butterfly or **H-shaped** (Fig. 14-7 f). This characteristic shape is due to the two-dimensional appearance of the dorsal, ventral and lateral columns of the grey matter on transverse section, where they appear as **dorsal** (cornu dorsale) and **ventral horns** (cornu ventrale). The dorsal and the more pronounced ventral horns are connected by the lateral inter-

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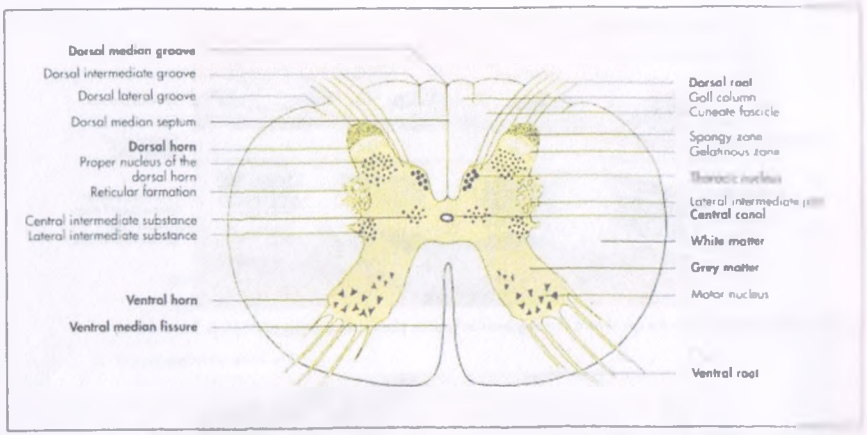


Fig. 14-5. Cervical spinal cord (schematic, transverse section) (dark yellow = gray matter, light yellow = white matter)

mediate substance, which extends to form an additional lateral horn in the thoracolumbar region. The bilateral symmetrical columns of the grey matter are the:

- **dorsal column** (columna dorsalis), appearing as the dorsal horn (cornu dorsale) in transverse sections,
- **lateral column** (columna lateralis), appearing as the lateral horn (cornu laterale) in transverse sections, and
- **ventral column** (columna ventralis) appearing as the ventral horn (cornu ventrale) in transverse sections.

The **dorsal column** consists mainly of somatic and visceral neurons, which tend to have their cell bodies

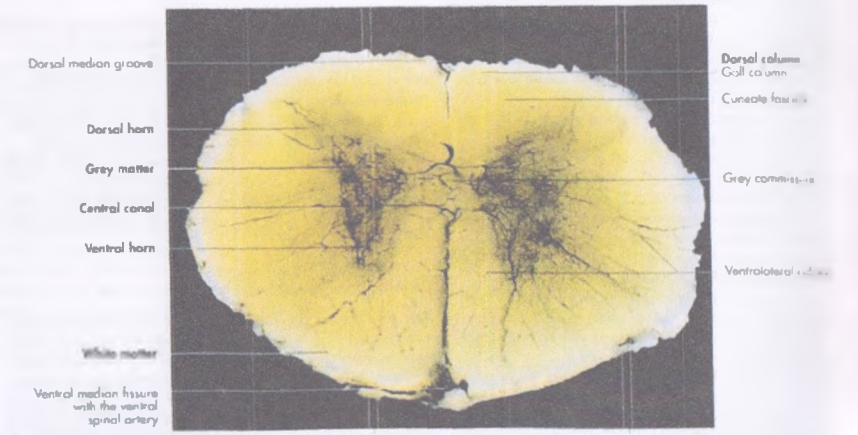
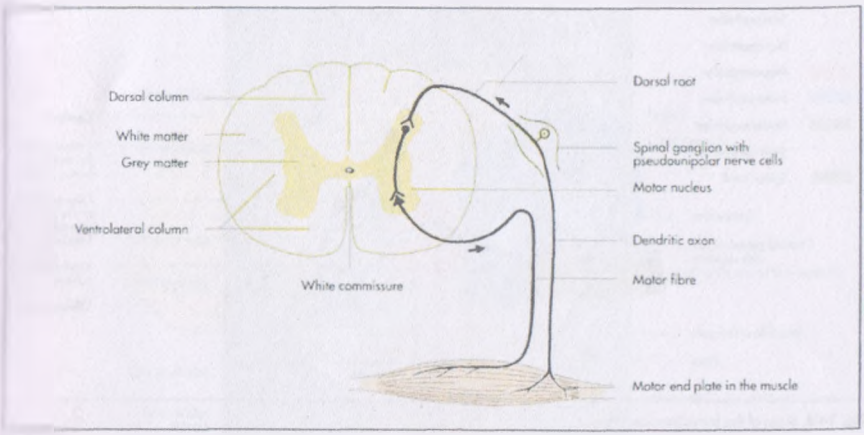


Fig. 14-6. Spinal cord of a sheep after injection of the blood vessels (transverse section)

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14-7 Illustration of a monosynaptic spinal reflex arc (schematic)

grouped together. Clusters of cell bodies with similar functions are termed nuclei, e.g. the nucleus proprius of the dorsal horn. These nuclei may extend the entire length of the spinal cord or may be restricted to certain segments.

The **lateral columns** of the thoracolumbar spine contain the preganglionic neurons. The intermediolateral (sympathetic) nucleus is located within the lateral intermediate substance and contains **sympathetic neurons**. The sacral **parasympathetic** (intermediomedial) nucleus is found in the lateral column of the sacral spinal cord segments and is closely related to the ventral column.

The **ventral column** is mainly composed of **motor neurons**. Motor neurons of related skeletal muscles are grouped into motor nuclei.

Spinal cord neurons can be categorised as **interneurons** or **efferent neurons**. Spinal interneurons are interposed between particular input and the resulting output of the spinal cord. Interneurons may be activated either by synaptic input which can arrive from afferent neurons, from descending pathways coming from the brain, from other interneurons or from collaterals branches of efferent neurons. Spinal efferent neurons project into the white matter generally to form ascending pathways to the brain. They are activated by afferent neurons, which become excited in response to stimulation of viscera, vessels, joints or skin.

Spinal efferent neurons send axons through ventral roots to skeletal muscles and glands. They may be classified as somatic or autonomic (visceral).

White matter (substantia alba)

The white matter is positioned superficially in the spinal cord surrounding the grey matter (Fig. 14-7). It is composed mainly of **myelinated ascending** and **descending nerve fibres**. The myelin sheaths are formed by **oligodendrocytes** and are responsible for the white colour of the unstained white matter.

The white matter of each half of the spinal cord is divided into **columns** or **funiculi**, which are composed of bundles (fasciculi or tracts) of nerve fibres of common origin, destination and function. There are the:

- dorsal column (funiculus dorsalis),
- ventrolateral column (funiculus ventrolateralis).

The **dorsal column** includes all of the white matter located between the dorsal median sulcus and the line of origin of the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves. The **ventrolateral column** is contained between the dorsal and ventral spinal roots and continues to the ventral median fissure (Fig. 14-9). The ventral fissure penetrates into the white matter, leaving a considerable **commissure** (commissura alba) that consists of myelinated axons crossing from one half of the spinal cord to the other, ventral to the grey matter. The **dorsal column** almost exclusively consists of **ascending spinal tracts** that convey information about superficial and deep sensation to the brain. The **ventrolateral column** consists of ascending sensory as well as descending **motor nerve tracts**.

Intersegmental fibres that arise and terminate within the spinal cord are known collectively as the proper fascicle of the spinal cord (fasciculus proprius) and are found bordering the grey matter in all funiculi.

Ascending and descending tracts cannot be distinguished anatomically or histologically, but are determined experimentally by the stimuli-response reaction. For clinical purposes it is important to know that damage to the dorsal column will

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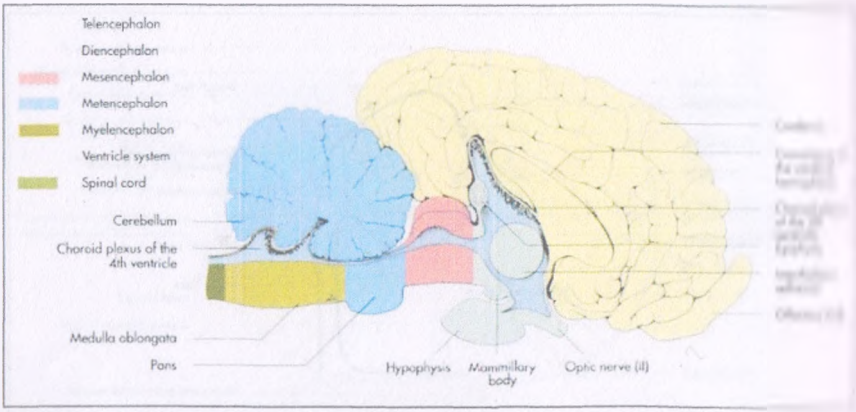


Fig. 14-8. Brain of the horse (median section).

result in **sensory deficits**, while damage to the ventrolateral column may result in **sensory** and **motor deficits** as well as in paralysis of certain muscles, as for example seen in animals with disc prolapse. Due to the segmental nature of the spinal cord, the extent of the clinical symptoms can provide information regarding the location of the spinal cord lesion.

Reflex arcs of the spinal cord

A reflex is a subconscious, relatively consistent response to a particular stimulus. A typical reflex arc consists of a receptor organ that responds to a **particular stimulus** (touch, sound, etc.), an afferent neuron that conveys the initiated impulse to the central nervous system, a synapse that in the simplest version connects the afferent neuron with an efferent neuron and conveys the impulse from the centre to the effector organ (muscle, gland, etc.) in the periphery.

There are **three typical categories** of spinal reflexes which are of clinical importance:

- **myotactic reflex,**
- **withdrawal reflex** and
- **cutaneous trunci reflex.**

The **myotactic reflex**, also called **muscle stretch reflex**, can be demonstrated by tapping the tendon of a muscle, thus abruptly stretching the muscle and observing its immediate contraction. This type of reflex has a monosynaptic component with primary afferent neurons synapsing directly on efferent neurons; this reflex is thus the fastest and relatively resistant to fatigue.

The **withdrawal reflex** is clinically tested by applying a noxious stimulus to a part of the limb and observing withdrawal of the entire limb. It is a multisynaptic reflex, which is ed by free nerve endings in the periphery. These solateral fascicle, where they extend over several and synapse with interneurons and efferent ly stimulate the afferent neurons of several

The **cutaneous trunci** reflex is elicited by skin and observing it twitch, owing to the cutaneous trunci muscle. It is an intersegmental a number of segments intervene between the the efferent output.

Brain (encephalon)

The brain is the control organ of the body, and for the regulation, co-ordination and integra the nervous system. Its abilities are resembled logical features. Based on its ontogenetic and development from the rostral part of the neural can be subdivided into five major parts:

- **rhombencephalon**, **hindbrain**,
  - myelencephalon, medulla oblongata
  - metencephalon, pons and cerebellum
- **mesencephalon**, **midbrain**,
- **prosencephalon**, **forebrain**,
  - diencephalon and
  - telencephalon.

These divisions will be used in the following brain. However, sometimes a simpler division gross anatomy. Grossly the brain may be divided

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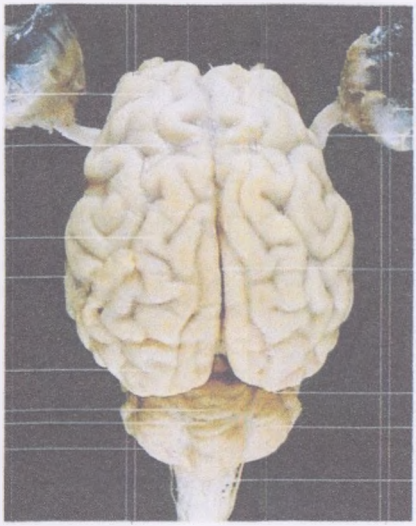


Fig. 14-11 Brain of a goat (dorsal aspect). Schabel, 1984

The **trochlear nerve** leaves the midbrain dorsally, caudal to the tectal plate.

Functions of the midbrain are determined by the nuclei of the **third** and **fourth cranial nerves** and the reflex centres for hearing and vision. It plays an important role in co-ordination of **voluntary motor function** controlled by higher centres. The red nucleus is important for **muscle tone**, **body posture** and **locomotion**. The substantia nigra is essential for the performance of fast movement.

Diencephalon

Diencephalon

The diencephalon (Fig. 14-10) is only visible on the ventral surface of the brain, where parts of it protrude between the cerebral peduncles. Some textbooks classify the diencephalon as being the most rostral part of the brainstem. It can be subdivided into the following parts in dorsoventral sequence:

- epithalamus,
- hypothalamus,
- subthalamus and
- thalamus.

Epithalamus comprises the **pineal gland** (glandula pinealis, epiphysis cerebri) (Fig. 14-10 and 23) and the **habenula** with associated tracts. The pineal gland is a small median body that projects dorsally. It is an **endocrine gland** that secretes **melatonin** and other compounds which affect sexual activity.

The **habenula** consists of habenular nuclei, which receive fibres from the telencephalon and send fibres to the mesencephalon. It is an important part of the **olfactory pathway**. The habenula of the left and right sides are connected by the habenular commissure.

The **thalamus** is the largest part of the diencephalon and can be further subdivided into the **dorsal thalamus** and the **subthalamus**. The dorsal thalamus is composed of a large number of nuclei through which input to the cerebral cortex is channelled, including sensory information from afferent tracts from **gustatory**, **optic**, **acoustic** and **vestibular organs** (except olfaction) (Fig. 14-18 and 19).

The **subthalamus** is the rostral continuation of the tegmentum of the mesencephalon. It contains the subthalamic nuclei that act as relay stations in the **extrapyramidal motor** pathway. The **left** and **right thalamus** is connected by the **interthalamic adhesion**, which is encircled by the **annular third ventricle** (Fig. 14-18, 19, 21 and 23). The **hypothalamus** (Fig. 14-22) forms the floor and the wall of the **third ventricle**. It consists of the **optic chiasm** rostrally, the **mammillary body** (Fig. 14-14) caudally and the grey tuber of the third ventricle (**tuber cinereum**) in between. The grey tuber gives rise to the infundibulum, which suspends the **hypophysis** (pituitary gland) (Fig. 14-23). The hypophysis consists of the **neurohypophysis**, the **adenohypophysis** and an **intermediate part**.

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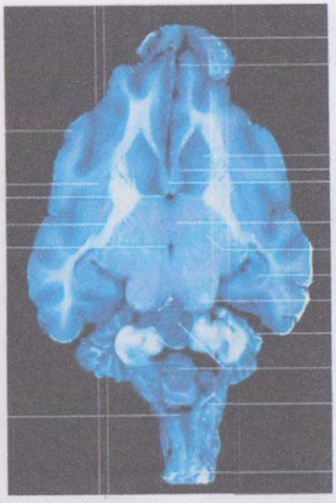


Fig. 14-14. Horizontal section of the brain of a dog at the level of the interventricular foramen (blue stain)

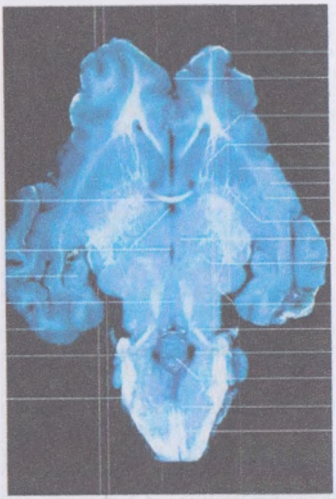


Fig. 14-15. Horizontal section of the brain of a dog at the level of the rostral commissure (blue stain)

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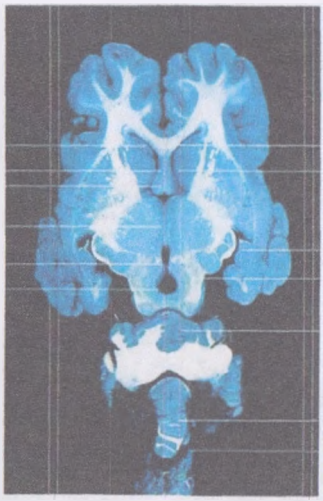


Fig. 14·16. Horizontal section of the brain of a horse at the level of the interthalamic adhesion (blue stain)

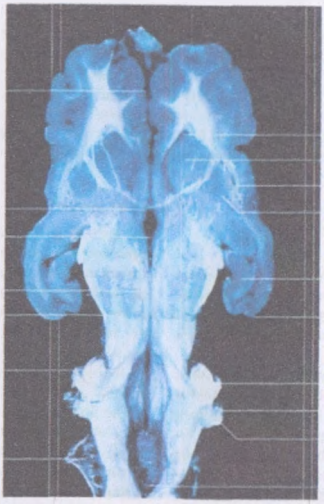


Fig. 14·17. Horizontal section of the brain of a horse at the level of the mesencephalic aqueduct (blue stain)

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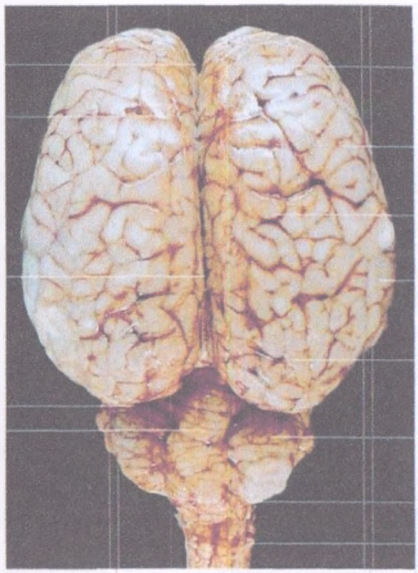


Fig. 14-19. Brain of a horse (dorsal aspect)

The **neopallium** is the youngest part and constitutes the predominant part of the cerebrum.

Today it is hypothesised that the cortex is organised into **vertical columns** that extend vertically through all the cortical layers with a diameter of 200–300 µm. Each column is related to a specific group of receptor cells in the periphery. Repeated stimuli to receptor cells results, in the response of the same cortical cell. The human brain consists of about four million of these columns with 2500 nerve cells each. However, these are functional units and cannot be distinguished histologically.

Rhinencephalon

The olfactory pathway begins with special afferent neurons in the olfactory mucosa. Bundles of nonmyelinated axons of these neurons constitute the **olfactory nerves**, and pass through the cribriform plate to terminate in the **olfactory bulb** (Fig. 14-25).

The **olfactory bulb** (bulbus olfactorius) forms the most rostral part of the rhinencephalon, located in the **ethmoidal fossa** (Fig. 14-14, 16 and 21). The rhinencephalon continues caudally with the **olfactory peduncle** (pedunculus olfactorius), which extends from the olfactory bulb to bifurcate into the medial and lateral olfactory tract. The olfactory tracts border a **triangular area** (trigonum olfactorium) that together with the **rostral perforate substance** (substantia perforata rostralis) constitutes the olfactory area. The rostral perforated area is located caudal to the olfactory trigone and is perforated by numerous blood vessels.

The larger lateral olfactory tract continues caudally as the **piriform lobe** (lobus piriformis) and forms a massive bulge situated lateral to the hypothalamus (Fig. 14-21). Medially this lobe is continuous with the hippocampus. Underlying the piriform lobe is the **amygdaloid body** (corpus amygdaloideum) (Fig. 14-21 and 24), which is composed of several nuclei.

Limbic system

The term limbic system is applied to a collection of brain structures involved in **emotional behaviour**. It consists of cortical and subcortical components (Fig. 14-24). The **cortical part** comprises interconnected telencephalic structures on the medial and basal aspects of the hemispheres, namely the cingulate gyrus, the piriform lobe and the hippocampus. The **subcortical part** includes components of the diencephalon (habenula, hypothalamus, thalamus), midbrain (mesencephalic and tegmental nuclei) and the amygdaloid body.

The limbic system receives olfactory input from the piriform lobe, which initiates mostly visceral motor activity but also triggers emotional behaviour, such as fear, aggression and apparent pleasure. The limbic system has great influence on thirst, hunger and sexual behaviour and is closely related to the **reticular formation**.

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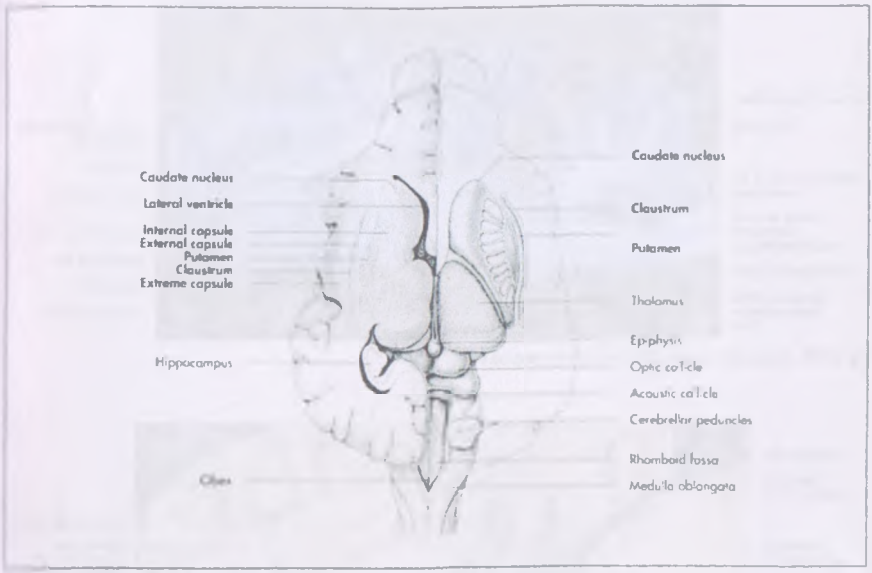


Fig. 14-23. Striate body (schematic, left = horizontal section, right = three dimensional reconstruction)

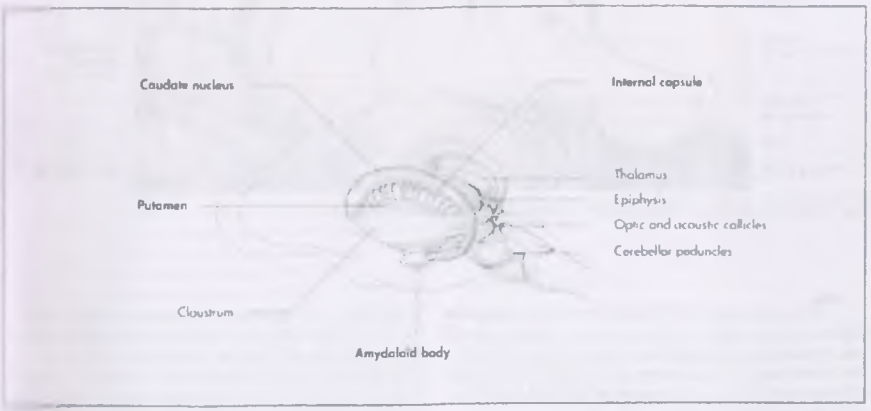


Fig. 14-24. Internal organisation of the striate body (schematic)

Commissural fibres connect corresponding regions of the two hemispheres. The bulk of these fibres decussate in the **corpus callosum** (Fig. 14-20, 22 and 23). The rostral commissure connects the two rhinal lobes and the amygdaloid body.

The **caudal commissure** (commissura fornicis seu hippocampi) is situated ventral to the splenium of the corpus callosum. The **corpus callosum** enables the two hemispheres to function coherently as a single cognitive centre.

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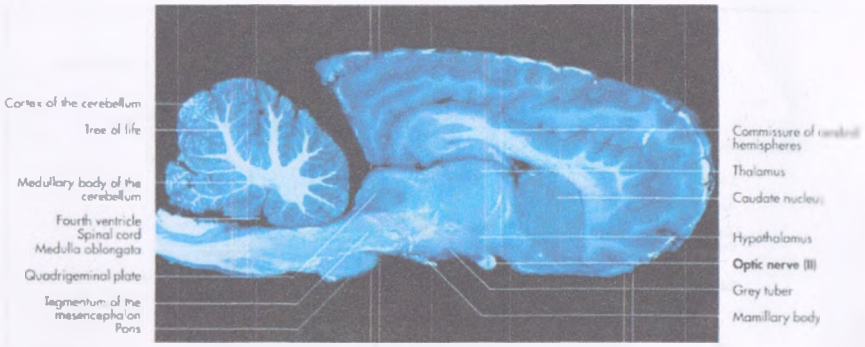


Fig. 14-25. Paramedian section of the brain of a horse (blue stain)

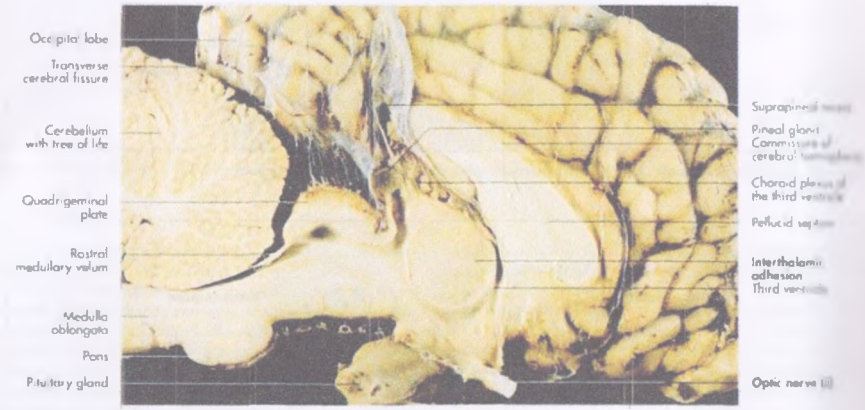


Fig. 14-26. Brain of a horse (median section); courtesy of Prof. Dr. Sabine Breit, Vienna

On dissection, the callosal body consists of an **elongated region** (truncus corpori callosi), that has a **rounded caudal end** (splenium) and **rostral end** (genu corporis callosi). A thin membrane extends between and ventral to the corpus callosum and the fornix, the **septum pellucidum**, which separates the two lateral ventricles (Fig. 14-23).

Functions of the telencephalon

The **cerebral cortex** can be divided into areas based on their function, which in turn are determined by their neural connections. The **somataesthetic area** receives tactile and kinaesthetic input from the skin. It is located in the caudal half of the postcruciate gyrus and the rostral suprasylvian gyrus. This area can be subdivided into the parts that receive information from the contralateral half of the body only (area somatica contralateralis) and parts that receive information from both body halves (area sensorica bilateralis). The latter are located in the ectosylvian gyrus. Adjacent to the somataesthetic area is the gustatory area for the tongue and pharynx.

The **olfactory area** is located within the rhinencephalon and is described earlier in this chapter. The **visual area** (area optica) extends over the medial surface and part of the dorsolateral surface of the occipital lobe. The **auditory area** is located predominantly in the rostral sylvian gyrus; the **vestibular area** is adjacent to it.

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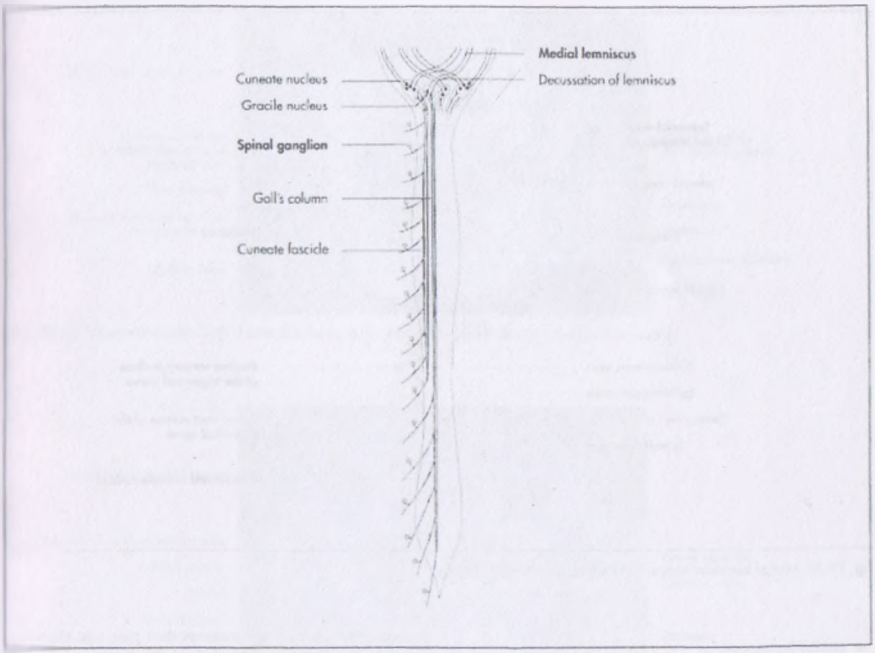


Fig. 14-27. Ascending pathways (schematic), after Najbrt, 1982.

The **motor area** of the cerebral cortex (area motorica) is located rostral to the somataesthetic area. It is located in the rostral half of the posterciate gyrus, in the coronal gyrus, and in the ventrolateral part of the praecruciate gyrus up to the praesylvian sulcus. The motor area gives rise to corticospinal, corticonuclear and corticoreticular projection fibres for the control of voluntary posture and movement.

The motor area of humans contains so-called Betz giant pyramid cells, which form the longest and thickest axons extending from the cortex to the sacral spinal cord.

The **association cortex** has connections only within the cerebral cortex and is thought to be responsible for **intelligence**. It receives input from the sensory areas it surrounds and functions to interpret the information provided. The hippocampus, a gyrus of the archipallium folded inward deep to the piriform lobe, influences endocrine, visceral and emotional activity via its connections to the hypothalamus, the septum pellucidum and the gyrus cinguli. In humans, it plays an important role in the process of learning and memory.

Pathways of the central nervous system

Pathways of the central nervous system cannot be visualised anatomically, but are **functional units** that consist of ascending or descending axons travelling together and conveying information from one location to another. Their function and location have been determined by assessing the results of experimentally induced damage to certain parts of the central nervous system. The following section will deal only with fundamental, relatively discrete structured pathways. (For a more detailed description see textbooks of neurophysiology and neuropathology.)

Ascending pathways

General somatic afferent pathways

General somatic afferent pathways convey information from various types of receptors within the skin and deeper somatic tissues to the brain. This information includes a variety of sensory modalities: touch, pressure, vibratory sensation, thermal sensation, pain and kinaesthetic sensation relating to joint angulation and muscle tension.

The primary neurons concerned with these senses are located within the dorsal root ganglia of the spinal nerves and the corresponding ganglion of the trigeminal nerve for the head. The ascending pathways of this group can be divided into the:

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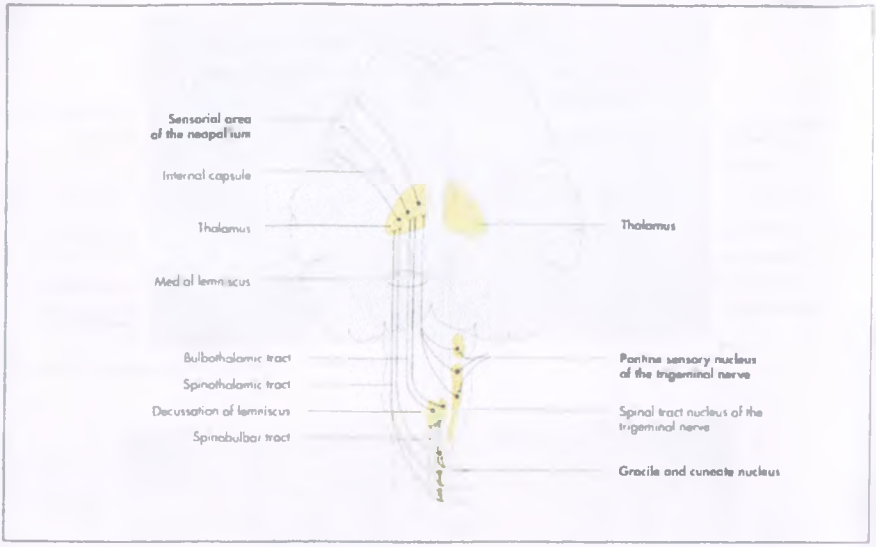


Fig. 14-28. Medial lemniscal system (schematic), after Nojbrt, 1982

- medial lemniscus,
- extralemniscal system.

The **medial lemniscus** includes the most important ascending tracts (Fig. 14-28). It can be subdivided into the **spinal lemniscus** for the trunk and limbs and the **trigeminal lemniscus** for the sensory nerve fibres from the head. The sensory neurons of the spinal lemniscus run in the dorsal funiculus of the spinal cord. Those arising from the lumbosacral plexus and the more caudal part of the trunk occupy the **medial positions** (Goll's column, fasciculus gracilis). Those from the brachial plexus and the cranial part of the trunk assume more **lateral positions** (cuneate fascicle, fasciculus cuneatus).

Both tracts end in the like-named nuclei (**nucleus cuneatus, nucleus gracilis**) of the dorsal part of the medulla oblongata. After synapsing, the axons of the second-stage neurons decussate to the opposite side to reach the caudoventral nuclear complex of the thalamus, where they again synapse. The tertiary axons project to the somataesthetic area of the cerebral cortex. In its course through the brainstem, the medial lemniscus is joined by fibres from the sensory nucleus of the trigeminal nerve following decussation within the pons.

The **extralemniscal system** forms a second, **spinothalamic tract** which conveys impulses that are characterised by slower propagation and less precise localisation of the originating stimuli compared to the medial lemniscus. The primary axons terminate in neurons of the dorsal horns close to their spinal root. After forming synapses with several interneurons, the second-stage neurons then pass into the white matter, where they travel cranially in the ventrolateral funiculi of the white matter to synapse in the thalamus. The tertiary neurons project from the thalamus upon a cortical area rostral to that of the lemniscal system.

Information of **proprioceptive nature** from receptors within tendons and muscles do not reach conscious perception. The primary axons terminate on dorsal horn cells and reach the cerebellum via the dorsal and ventral spinocerebellar tracts.

Afferent pathways of the sense organs

Visual pathways

The retina contains the receptors for **visual information**. The information is then conveyed to the brain by the optic nerve. The optic nerve of each eye converges to meet in the **optic chiasm** on the ventral surface of the brain, where some of the fibres decussate (Fig. 14-29). The proportion of fibres that are exchanged with the opposing optic nerve is correlated with the degree of binocular vision enjoyed by the species. In most birds, in which vision is essentially monocular, all fibres decussate.

In the dog and cat, which have a better binocular vision, approximately 75% of the optic nerve fibres decussate to join the contralateral optic tract, caudal to the optic chiasm. In primates, in which binocular vision is best developed, approximately 50% of the fibres decussate.

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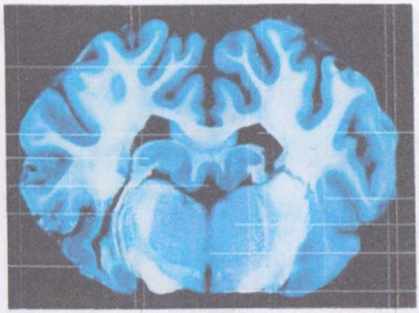


Fig. 14-32. Transverse section of the brain of a horse at the level of the interthalamic adhesion (blue stain).

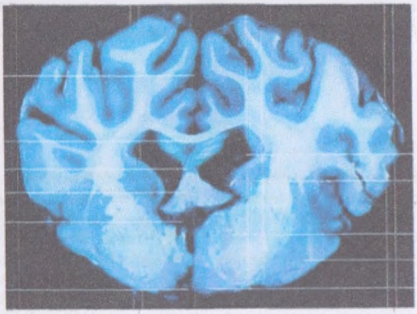


Fig. 14-33. Transverse section of the brain of an ox at the level of the rostral part of the diencephalon (blue stain).

located within the **neopallium**, some in the **red nucleus** of the mesencephalon and some in the reticular formation.

The **upper motor neurons** do not project directly upon muscle fibres, but regulate the activity of lower motor neurons by **excitation** or **inhibition**. The connections of the upper with the lower motor neurons are grouped in two descending pathways: the **pyramidal** and the **extrapyramidal systems**. The pyramidal system is concerned with finely adjusted movements, while the extrapyramidal system controls coarser and stereotype movements, although the two work in close collaboration.

Pyramidal system

The development and organisation of the pyramidal system varies considerably among species. It is most developed in primates, in which severe damage results in permanent paralysis of the skeletal musculature of the contralateral side. In general, domestic mammals recover at least partially from similar injuries.

The **fibres of the pyramidal system** take origin from the giant Betz pyramidal cells of the **motor cortex of the neopallium**. They form an important fraction of the internal capsule on the lateral aspect of the thalamus before they traverse the ventral portion of the pons and enter the crus cerebri, on the ventral surface of the brain. They reappear on the surface as the **pyramids of the medulla oblongata**. The pyramidal system comprises three types of fibres:

- **corticospinal fibres** that extend from the cerebral cortex into the spinal cord,
- **corticobulbar fibres** that terminate in various nuclei of contralateral cranial nerves and
- **corticopontine fibres** that pass to nuclei in the pons.

While some corticospinal fibres decussate within the medulla oblongata, others continue on their side of origin and cross over to the other side close to their terminations.

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Fig. 14-34. Paramedian section of the brain of a calf with meninges and the beginning of the spinal cord.

The fraction of fibres that decussate within the medulla oblongata varies among species. Almost all fibres decussate in the dog and cat, compared to 50% in ungulates. The extent of the fibres also varies. In carnivores, pyramidal fibres reach all levels of the spinal cord, while in ungulates the pyramidal system has terminated by the level of origin of the brachial plexus.

Extrapyramidal system

In contrast to the pyramidal system, the extrapyramidal system comprises various **multisynaptic pathways** which originate from the corpus striatum, subthalamic nuclei, the substantia nigra, the red nucleus and the reticular formation. Interconnected with these nuclei are several motor centres, such as the thalamic nuclei, the vestibular nuclei, the reticular formation and the cerebellum, to which all of the nuclei of the system project.

The **extrapyramidal system** is concerned with the maintenance of posture and with the execution of intended **movements**, by ensuring co-ordinated **muscle activity**. Numerous feedback circuits maintain the necessary balance between the inhibitory and excitatory parts of the extrapyramidal system. The **cerebellum** controls both the extrapyramidal and pyramidal systems. This is modified by afferent information from these two systems, as well as by the vestibular apparatus. The information is utilised to control red and thalamic nuclei, the reticular formation and the vestibular nuclei.

Central autonomic nervous system

The autonomic (also called **visceral**, **vegetative** or idiotropic) nervous system is concerned with the co-ordination of function of the **inner organs** essential for life. It regulates respiration, circulation, digestion, metabolism, body temperature, water and electrolyte balance, reproduction and many more body functions. Most of the mechanisms that fulfil these functions also occur in the unconscious animal, e.g. during sleep or under general anaesthesia. Hence the term "**autonomic**".

The chief integration centre of the **autonomic nervous system** is the **hypothalamus**. It regulates activity through both neural and endocrine mechanisms. The neural pathways extend, either directly or via multisynaptic pathways through the **reticular formation**, from the hypothalamus to the autonomic nuclei of the brainstem or spinal cord. The **hypothalamus** receives information about visceral functions from almost all parts of the body via the mesencephalic nuclei, the reticular formation and the telencephalic parts of the limbic system. The **endocrine pathways** operate through neurosecretory cells, whose products are transported with the blood stream to the effector organs, where they act directly or are conveyed to the hypophysis by portal vessels, where they initiate the release of hormones.

The **hypophysis** or **pituitary gland** is suspended below the hypothalamus by the infundibulum. Its caudal part, the neurohypophysis, stores and releases hormones that are produced by neurosecretory cells within the **supraoptic** and **paraventricular nuclei** of the hypothalamus (Fig. 14-35) and transported along the axons of the cells.

The **adenohypophysis** receives neurosecretions from the hypothalamus via **hypophyseal portal vessels**. Feedback circuits regulate the interaction between the hypothalamus and the hypophysis. For a more detailed description see Chapter 15, "Endocrine organs".

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Fig. 14-35. Paramedian section of the brainstem and spinal medulla of a horse; courtesy of Dr. E. Gollab Kammerer, Vienna.

Visceral pathways

The visceral pathways can be divided into **afferent** and **efferent pathways** and the latter can be further subdivided into **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic pathways**.

The receptor system of the **visceral afferent pathways** consists of mechanoreceptors and chemoreceptors, which are located within the inner organs and blood vessels. The cell bodies of the primary neurons are found within the dorsal ganglia of the spinal nerves and the corresponding ganglia of certain cranial nerves. Ascending autonomic pathways follow the lemniscal and the extralemniscal system to terminate within the thalamus.

Although most visceral activity occurs without conscious awareness, some projections to the cerebral cortex give rise to conscious perception, such as hunger and the sense of fullness of the rectum or the bladder. Pain arising from diseased inner organs may be confused with pain arising from the surface of the body, due to the exchange of information between the afferent visceral pathway and the cutaneous somatic pathway. Each organ has its **own reflection area**, called **head zone**, on the body surface, which in turn can be used to relieve pain of visceral origin (massage, acupuncture). Similar reflex points on the skin exist for the skeletal system (joints, spine).

The **efferent visceral pathways** can be grouped anatomically, pharmacologically and functionally in two systems: the **parasympathetic** and **sympathetic systems**. Both systems have two neurons per pathway, meaning that two successive neurons link the central nervous system to the structure innervated.

The **body of the first neuron** of each pair is located within the central nervous system and sends its myelinated axon out as part of the peripheral nervous system. The axon of this **preganglionic neuron** terminates in a peripheral ganglion, where it synapses with the postganglionic neuron of the chain that end on the structure innervated (e.g. glandular, cardiac or smooth muscle cells). The preganglionic neurons of the sympathetic division are situated within the lateral column of the spinal cord between the first thoracic and the middle lumbar segments. Their axons synapse with the **postganglionic neurons** relatively close to the spinal cord in the **paravertebral ganglia** of the **sympathetic chain** or in the subvertebral ganglia on the aorta. Stimulation of the sympathetic pathways results in an increase in blood pressure, heart rate and respiratory rate and dilatation of the pupils, while at the same time gut motility and intestinal gland activity are decreased.

The **preganglionic neurons of the parasympathetic** division are located within nuclei of the oculomotor, intermediofacial, glossopharyngeal and vagus nerves within the brainstem and within the lateral columns of the sacral spinal cord. The bodies of the **postganglionic neurons** are found in smaller ganglia close to or actually incorporated within the organ innervated. The **ganglia of the head** usually have names indicating their location (ciliary ganglion, pterygopalatine ganglion, otic ganglion, mandibular ganglion). Parasympathetic activity causes stimulation of gut motility, intestinal secretion, defecation and micturition, depression of heart and respiratory rate and constriction of the pupils.

The chief control centre of the visceral efferent pathways is the **hypothalamus** (Fig. 14-33). The rostral part of the hypothalamus is responsible for the parasympathetic division, while the caudal part controls the sympathetic division.

Meninges of the central nervous system

The central nervous system is enclosed by soft tissue membranes, termed meninges, which can be differentiated into three different layers:

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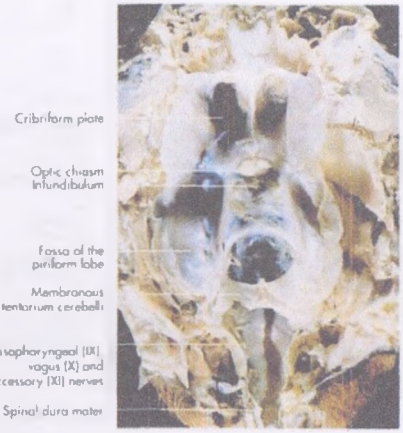


Fig. 14-36. Dura mater at the base of the cranium of a goat (dorsal aspect). Schabel, 1984

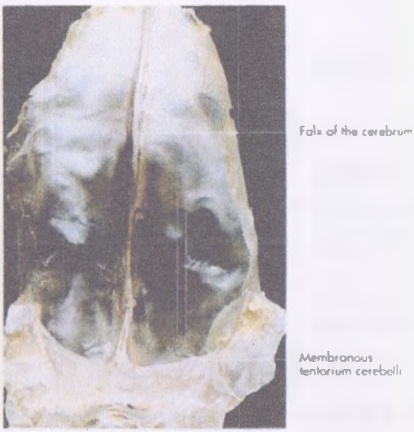


Fig. 14-37. Dorsal dura mater of the brain of a goat (ventral aspect). Schabel, 1984

- dura mater,
- arachnoid membrane,
- pia mater.

Arachnoid membrane and **pia mater** are collectively designated the **leptomeninges** because they are relatively delicate compared to the thick and fibrous dura mater. The **dura mater** is the most superficial layer, followed by the arachnoid membrane and the pia mater as the deepest layer.

The meninges exhibit certain topographical differences and are therefore described separately for their cranial and vertebral parts (Fig. 14-341.). The **meninges** are richly innervated and very sensitive with regards to pain, unlike the neural tissue they surround (brain tumours are normally not painful).

Spinal dura mater (dura mater spinalis)

The spinal dura mater is separated from the periosteum lining the vertebral canal **tendorrhachis**) by the **epidural space** (cavum epidurale) (Fig. 14-38). The epidural space is filled with fat and contains a large venous plexus. As spinal roots traverse the vertebral canal, they are enclosed by meningeal sheaths. **Regional anaesthesia** can be performed by injecting an anaesthetic into the epidural space between the last lumbar and the **first sacral vertebra** (spatium lumbosacrale) or between the **last sacral vertebra** and the **first caudal vertebra**. The caudal end of the dura mater forms a blind-ending sac and unites with the other meningeal layers to form a **fibrous cord** (filum terminale durae matris) that fuses with the dorsal surface of the caudal vertebrae. It is continuous with the cranial dura mater at the foramen magnum. The spinal dura mater is vascularised by spinal arteries.

Cranial dura mater (dura mater encephali)

The cranial dura mater is fused with the inner periosteum of the skull bones (Fig. 14-38). In addition to lining the cavity, the dura mater forms partitions that project inward. The **cerebral falx** (falx cerebri) extends from the crista galli to the internal occipital protuberance and projects into the longitudinal fissure between the two hemispheres. Caudally the cerebral falx meets the **transverse tentorium cerebelli**, which separates the cerebellum from the cerebrum (Fig. 14-37). The median part of the tentorium cerebelli is osseous, but the dura mater encloses the bone and extends beyond it. The free edge of the **membranous tentorium cerebelli** borders the tentorial notch through which the brain stem passes. A third partition, the **diaphragma sellae**, forms the roof of the hypophyseal fossa in which the hypophysis is located, forming a diaphragm around the infundibular stalk (Fig. 14-36). **Large venous sinuses** (sinus durae matris) are present within these dural projections (Fig. 14-36 and 38).

Like the spinal nerves, the **cranial nerves** are surrounded by dural sheaths until they leave the cranial cavity. Together with the leptomeninges they form cuffs that are surrounded by **cerebrospinal fluid**. At these sites, cerebrospinal fluid can enter perineural lymph vessels, and diseases can spread from the lymphatic system into the meninges and neural tissue. The cranial dura mater is vascularised by the meningeal arteries.

Arachnoid membrane (arachnoidea)

The outer part of the arachnoid membrane consists of a continuous membrane moulded against the **dura mater**. Some authors describe a capillary space, the subdural space, be-

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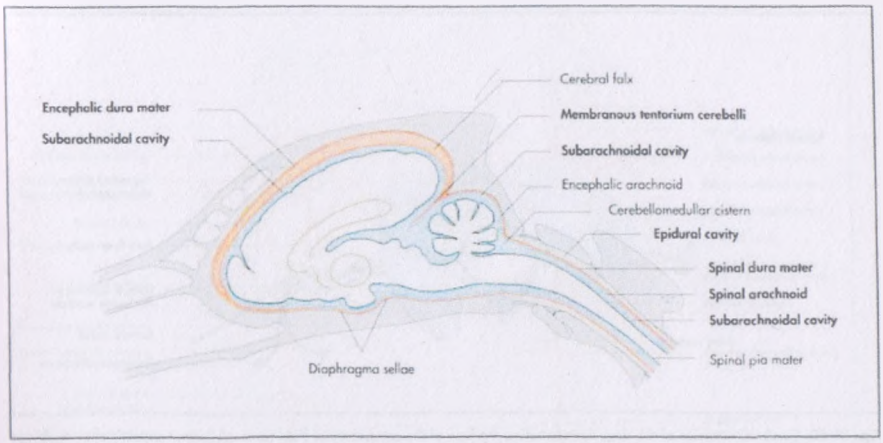


Fig. 14-38. Meninges of the cranium and the cranial part of the cervical spine of the dog (schematic) (red = pachymeninx, blue = leptomeninx).

tween the dura mater and the arachnoid membrane, while others believe it to be an artefact not present in the living animal.

The second continuous cell layer of the arachnoid membrane is moulded against the **pia mater**. Between the two membranes, numerous trabeculae and filaments extend, which form a network of communicating chambers. This space is termed the **subarachnoid space** (cavum subarachnoideale) and is filled with **cerebrospinal fluid**. The depth of the subarachnoid space is variable, since the arachnoid mem-

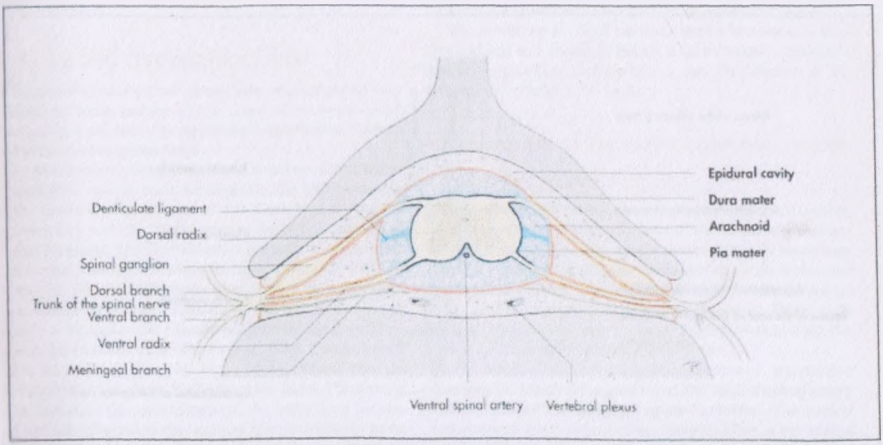


Fig. 14-39. Spinal meninges of the dog (schematic) (red = pachymeninx, blue = leptomeninx).

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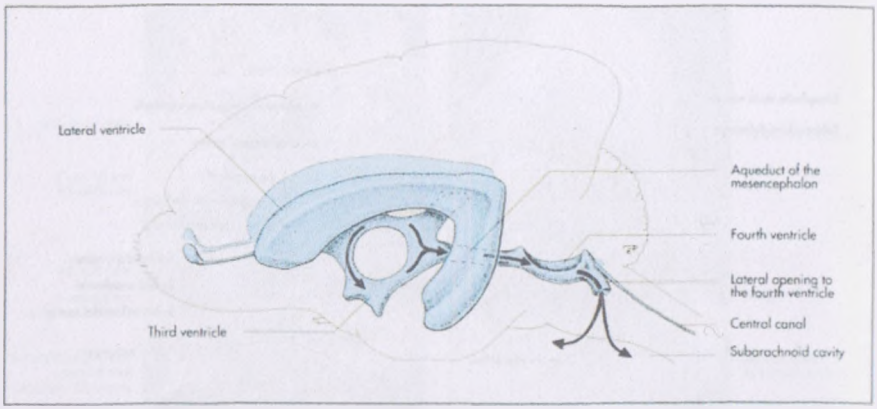


Fig. 14-40. Cerebral ventricles of the dog, demonstrating the flow of the cerebrospinal fluid (arrows) (lateral aspect), after Anderson and Anderson, 1994.

brane stays in close contact with the dura mater, while the pia mater follows the surface of the brain.

At certain sites the subarachnoid space is enlarged to form so-called **cisternae**, which can be used for the extraction of cerebrospinal fluid or for injection. Of great importance is the cerebellomedullary cistern, which is located where the caudal surface of the cerebellum meets the dorsal surface of the medulla oblongata. It is a common site for obtaining cerebrospinal fluid and can be reached by passing a needle between the atlas and the skull. An alternative site is the lumbosacral

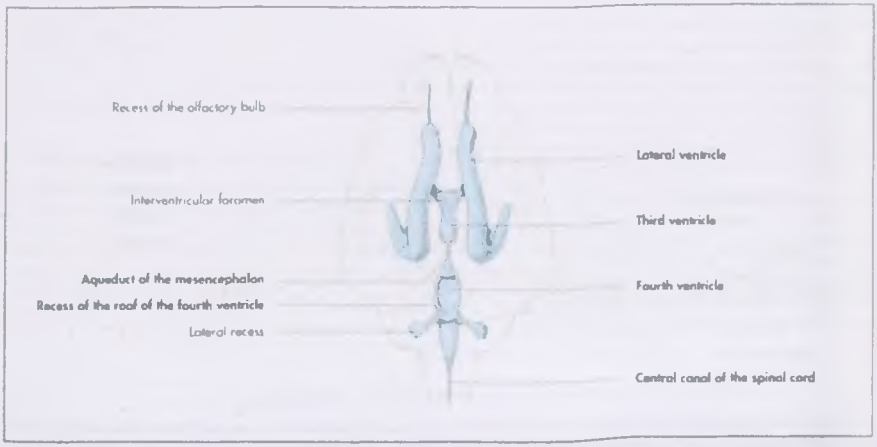


Fig. 14-41. Cerebral ventricles of the dog (dorsal aspect), after Anderson and Anderson, 1994.

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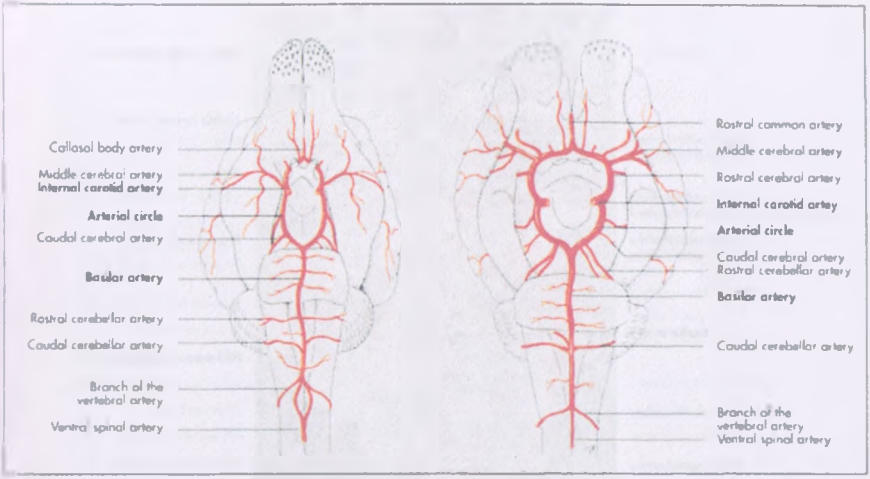


Fig. 14-44. Basal arteries of the brain of the dog (ventral aspect) (left), after Budras, 1996, and of the horse (right), after Rosslein, 1987

tissue. The pia mater is bilaterally thickened along the lateral surface of the spinal cord, forming the denticulate ligament (Fig. 14-39 and 63). Extensions of the denticulate ligament traverse the subarachnoid space and attach to the dura mater, thus suspending the spinal cord in cerebrospinal fluid within the subarachnoid space. Cranial vessels are surrounded by the pia mater for a short distance after entering the brain. Cerebrospinal fluid is thought to be able to enter the veins at these pial sleeves.

Ventricles and cerebrospinal fluid

The lumen of the embryonic neural tube persists as the ventricles of the brain and the central canal of the spinal cord. These cavities are lined by **ependymal epithelium** and are filled with **cerebrospinal fluid**.

The ventricular system of the brain consists of **two lateral ventricles**, one in each hemisphere, the **third** and the **fourth ventricle** (Fig. 14-42 and 43). Each lateral ventricle communicates with the third ventricle through an **interventricular foramen**. The third ventricle is a narrow, midsagittal chamber that surrounds the interthalamic adhesion of the diencephalon. The **mesencephalic aqueduct** of the midbrain is a canal that joins the third ventricle to the fourth. The fourth ventricle is located in the **rhombencephalon** and is continuous with the **central canal of the spinal cord**. Cerebrospinal fluid is normally a clear, colourless liquid formed from the blood plasma by the **choroid plexus** of the brain. The choroid plexus consists of an epithelium and the underlying pia mater. They are adherent to the walls of the ventricle by an attachment of the pia mater. The attachment line is termed the taenia choroidea.

One choroid plexus is located in **each lateral ventricle** and two choroid plexus are present in the **third** and the **fourth ventricle**. Cerebrospinal fluid flows within the ventricular system and into the central canal. It flows into the subarachnoid space from the fourth ventricle through bilateral recesses and apertures. In humans and carnivores a third, median aperture is present. Two major drainage roots for the return of cerebrospinal fluid to the blood are the arachnoid villi and the lymphatics associated with peripheral nerves.

The cerebrospinal fluid cushions the central nervous system and acts as a chemical buffer. It also transports nutrients and waste products, thereby taking over the function of the lymphatics lacking in the brain.

Blood vessels of the central nervous system

Blood vessels of the spinal cord

The cervical spinal cord is vascularised by segmental arteries from the **vertebral artery**, a branch of the **subclavian artery**. The remainder of the spinal cord receives its blood supply from **segmental arteries** from the cervical, intercostal and lumbar arteries. The segmental arteries enter the vertebral canal through the intervertebral foramina. There, each divides into a dorsal and a ventral branch, which reach the spinal cord together with the spinal nerves.

The branches unite to form three continuous arteries that run along the length of the spinal cord: the **ventral spinal artery** and the **paired dorsolateral spinal arteries**. The ventral spinal artery is the largest of the three and lies at the ventral median fissure. The smaller dorsolateral arteries extend along the lateral dorsal sulci, where the dorsal roots emerge

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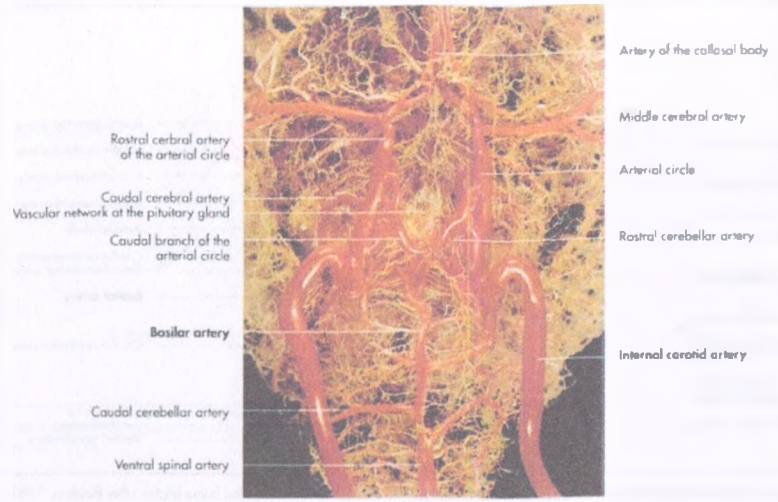


Fig. 14-45. Arteries at the base of the brain of a horse (corrosion cast), Rosslein, 1987

(Fig. 14-39 and 44). These arteries form plexuses at the surface of the spinal cord, from which deeper parts of the cord are supplied. The grey matter receives a far more generous blood supply than the white matter (Fig. 14-8).

The **spinal veins** form a **network** similar to the arterial plexus. The draining veins also follow the spinal nerves before they open into the **epidural venous plexus**. The epidural venous plexus consists of two channels within the epidural space on the ventral aspect of the spinal cord that are composed of segments extending between successive intervertebral foramina. The two channels are regularly connected by transverse branches, producing a ladder-like pattern of vessels. The veins composing the plexus are thin-walled and have **no valves**, so that blood can pass **in either direction**. The epidural venous plexuses are connected with venous plexuses outside the vertebral column, which drain into the vertebral vein, the cranial vena cava, the azygous vein or the caudal vena cava.

Since the epidural venous system provides alternative channels to the major systemic veins it may serve as an alternative route, when obstruction of either the jugular vein or the caudal vena cava occurs. However, blood flow is comparatively slow or sometimes even stops in the epidural veins. The slow venous flow facilitates the spread of septic or neoplastic diseases, allowing tumour cells or microorganisms to invade this area.

Another point of clinical importance is the risk of haemorrhage from the epidural venous plexus during epidural puncture or surgery (e.g. laminectomy).

Blood vessels of the brain

In the horse and dog, the blood supply to the brain comes mainly from the paired **internal carotid arteries**. In the cat and in ruminants, in which the internal carotid closes shortly after birth, the main blood supply to the brain is provided by branches of the **maxillary artery**. These branches form a complicated **arterial network** at the base of the brain, which consists of the rostral and caudal **epidural rete mirabile**, which reunite in the **cerebral carotid artery**. The internal carotid artery of the pig also forms a rostral rete mirabile.

The **internal carotid artery** in the horse and dog and the cerebral carotid artery in the other domestic mammals penetrate the dura mater at the **diaphragma sellae** forming a ring around the infundibular stalk ventral to the hypothalamus. The **cerebral arterial circle** (circulus arteriosus cerebri), formerly known as the **circle of Willis**, is only complete in the dog, while it remains open rostrally in the other domestic mammals (Fig. 14-44 and 45). The arterial circle is joined caudally by the **basilar** and the **vertebral arteries**. In the ox, the vertebral artery contributes a considerable proportion to the circle of Willis. The arterial cerebral circle and the basilar artery give rise to all other cerebral arteries (Fig. 14-44B.).

The main branches are the:

- rostral cerebral artery (a. cerebri rostralis),
- middle cerebral artery (a. cerebri media),
- caudal cerebral artery (a. cerebri caudalis),
- rostral cerebellar artery (a. cerebelli rostralis) and
- caudal cerebellar artery (a. cerebelli caudalis).

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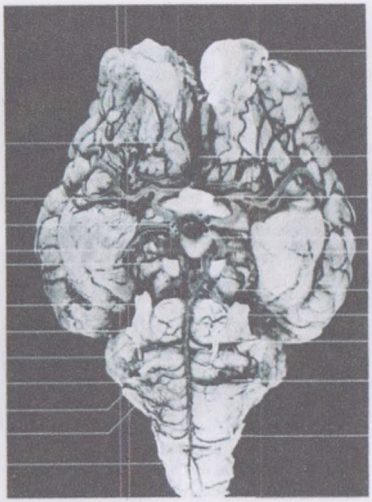


Fig. 14-46. Arteries at the base of the brain of an ox; Konig, 1979



Fig. 14-47. Dorsal blood vessels of the brain of a young pig (corrosion cast)

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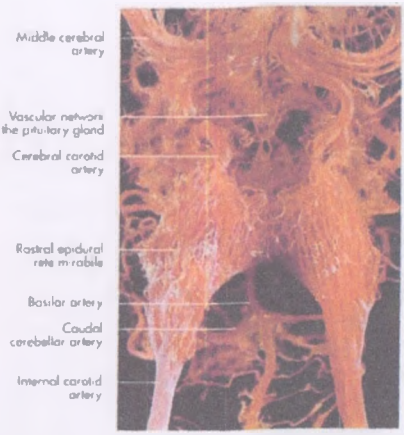


Fig. 14-49. Arteries of the cranial base of a pig (corrosion cast). Engelkraut, 1987

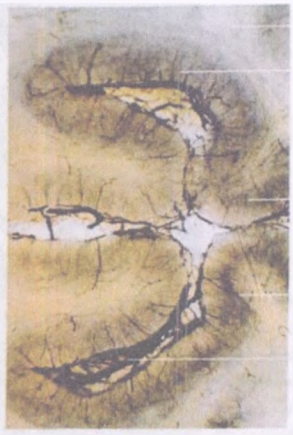


Fig. 14-50. Microvascularisation of the cerebral cortex, Konig, 1979

The **autonomous (idiotropic) nerves** and **ganglia** connect the central nervous system with the **viscera** and components of the **circulatory system**. This system is responsible for the regulation and coordination of the inner organs. Depending on the function, it can be further subdivided into a sympathetic and parasympathetic division.

Cerebrospinal nerves and ganglia

The cerebrospinal nerves are divided into:

- cranial nerves (nn. craniales),
- spinal nerves (nn. spinales).

The cell bodies of the **cerebrospinal nerves** are either located in nuclei within the **central nervous system** or in **ganglia** close to the central nervous system. Their axons connect the effector organ directly to the central nervous system without forming synapses.

Cranial nerves can be classified as sensory, motor or mixed. Some of them have autonomous fibres which often show an unusual pattern with regard to their course.

Spinal nerves are of the mixed type, consisting of both sensory and motor fibres, which are joined in most cases by autonomous fibres as well (Fig. 14-51 and 52).

Cranial nerves (nervi craniales)

Classic anatomy describes 12 paired cranial nerves, although the first two are not peripheral nerves.

- olfactory nerve (I) (n. olfactorius),
- optic nerve (II) (tractus opticus),
- oculomotor nerve (III) (n. oculomotorius),
- trochlear nerve (IV) (n. trochlearis),
- trigeminal nerve (V) (n. trigeminus),
- abducent nerve (VI) (n. abducens),
- facial nerve (VII) (n. facialis),
- vestibulocochlear nerve (VIII) (n. vestibulocochlearis),
- glossopharyngeal nerve (IX) (n. glossopharyngeus),
- vagus nerve (X) (n. vagus),
- accessory nerve (XI) (n. accessorius) and
- hypoglossal nerve (XII) (n. hypoglossus).

Based on function and embryonic development the cranial nerves can be arranged in the following groups:

- The **sensory group** comprises the nerves that are only concerned with sensory organs; these are the olfactory, optic and vestibulocochlear nerves.
- The second group includes the nerves that innervate the **ocular muscles**; this group comprises the oculomotor, trochlear and abducent nerves.
- The third group comprises the so-called **branchial nerves** that innervate structures that take their embryological origin from the branchial arches; these are the trigeminal, facial, glossopharyngeal, vagal and accessory nerves.
- Based on its embryological development the hypoglossal nerve can be classified as the remnant of a **cervical spinal nerve**.

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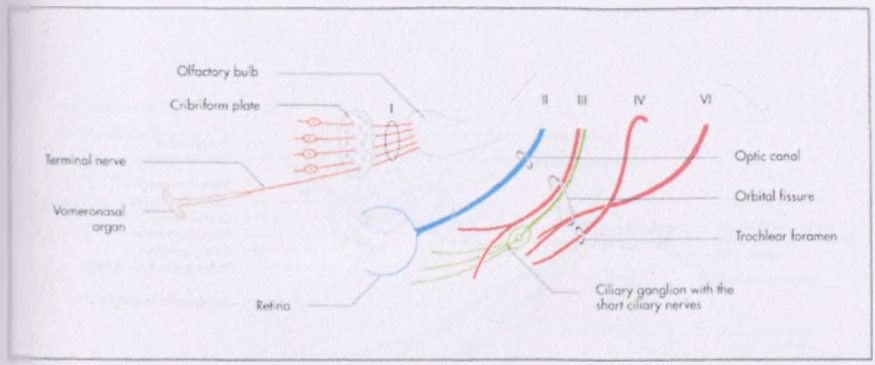


Fig. 14-52. Schematic illustration of the olfactory (light red), optic (blue), oculomotor, trochlear and abducent (red) nerves, and the parasympathetic fibres (green), after Budras and Rock, 1997

The **cranial nerves** have certain characteristic features that distinguishes them from the spinal nerves: they do not have a segmental embryonic precursor and their root is not divided into afferent and efferent tracts, but has a single combined outflow. Unlike spinal nerves, which have both sensory and motor functions, cranial nerves can be solely motor, solely sensory or mixed. Cranial nerves I, II and VIII are sensory, III, IV, VI, XI and XII are motor, while V, VII, IX and X are sensory and motor.

Olfactory nerve (I) (nervus olfactorius)

The olfactory nerve is not a single nerve, but consists of numerous **nonmyelinated axons**, whose cell bodies are located within the **olfactory epithelium**. These axons pass through the cribriform plate of the ethmoid to reach the olfactory bulbs, where they synapse. The **terminal nerve** (n. terminalis) from the vomeronasal organ is combined within the olfactory nerve. This relatively thin nerve ends in the rostral part of the **rhinencephalon** (Fig. 14-52 and Table 14-1). Some authors describe this nerve separately as a cranial nerve.

Optic nerve (II) (fasciculus opticus)

The optic nerve is not a true peripheral nerve, but a tract of the brain. The fibres of the optic nerve originate from the **retina**, which develops from the **diencephalon**. The optic nerve is also enclosed by extensions of the **meninges**, the dura, which blend with the sclera where the nerve leaves the globe. The axons of the optic nerve accumulate at the **optic disc of the retina**. The optic nerve leaves the eyeball on its caudal aspect and enters the cranial cavity by passing through the **optic canal** (Fig. 14-29, 52 and Table 14-1).

After nerve fibres decussate to the opposite side at the **optic chiasm**, they form the optic tracts at the base of the brain. The optic fibres terminate in the **lateral geniculate nucleus**, the rostral colliculi of the **quadrigeminal plate** and the **thalamic nuclei**, where they synapse with fibres which project onto the **visual cerebral cortex** in the **occipital lobe**.

Oculomotor nerve (III) (nervus oculomotorius)

The oculomotor nerve consists of **somatic efferent fibres** from the **motor nucleus** and **visceral efferent neurons** from the **parasympathetic nucleus**. Both nuclei are located within the **tegmentum** of the midbrain. The motor nucleus is the principal nucleus of this nerve.

The **oculomotor nerve** exits the brain stem on the ventral aspect of the **cerebral peduncles**. It passes rostrally, sharing a common dural sheath with the ophthalmic and abducent nerves, before it leaves the cranial cavity through the **round foramen** (foramen rotundum) or through the combined **orbital fissure** and **round foramen** (foramen orbitorotundum), respectively. On entering the orbit, the oculomotor nerve divides into a dorsal and a ventral branch (Fig. 14-52 and Table 14-1).

The **dorsal branch** innervates the levator palpebrae muscle and ends in the dorsal rectus muscle. The **ventral branch** terminates in a number of branches which innervate the medial rectus, the ventral rectus and the ventral oblique muscles. The parasympathetic fibres travel within the ventral branch and synapse with postganglionic neurons in the **ciliary ganglion** located at the origin of the branch of the ventral oblique muscle. The postganglionic fibres innervate the ciliary muscle and the sphincter pupillary muscle, responsible for constriction of the pupil.

The oculomotor nerve includes some **sensory fibres** which join the ophthalmic branch of the trigeminal nerve and extend to the **trigeminal ganglion**.

Trochlear nerve (IV) (nervus trochlearis)

The trochlear nerve consists of **motor fibres** that arise from the **trochlear nuclei** in the tegmentum of the midbrain and

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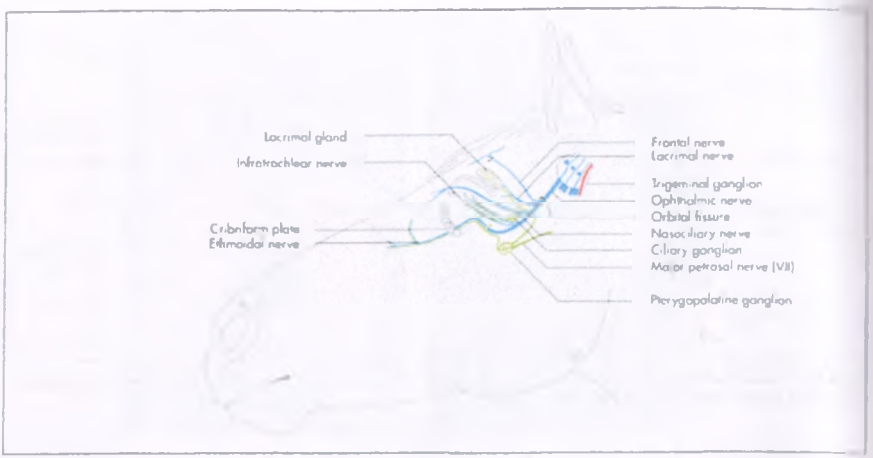


Fig. 14-53. Schematic illustration of the primary branches of the ophthalmic nerve in the horse (blue = sensory, red = motor, green = para-sympathetic fibres)

innervate the dorsal oblique muscle of the eye. It is the only nerve that emerges from the dorsal aspect of the brainstem after crossing to the contralateral side at the trochlear decussation (decussation nervorum trochlearium) (Fig. 14-52 and Table 14-1).

The **trochlear nerve** penetrates the dura mater at the ventral fold of the tentorium cerebelli and passes rostrally, lateral to the maxillary nerve. It leaves the cranial cavity through the round foramen, except in the horse, where there is a separate opening (foramen trochleare). The oculomotor nerve comprises few **sensory fibres**.

Trigeminal nerve (V) (nervus trigeminus)

The trigeminal nerve is a complex nerve of the mixed type. It is the **largest sensory nerve of the head**. It is composed of sensory fibres from the skin and deeper tissues of the head and **motor fibres** to the masticatory musculature, the mylohyoid muscle, the rostral portion of the digastric muscle, the tensor muscle of the soft palate and the tensor tympani muscle (Fig. 14-46 and 53ff. and Table 14-1).

The **motor nucleus of the trigeminal nerve** (nucleus motorius n. trigemini) is found in the **metencephalon**, deep to the locus caeruleus of the rhomboid fossa. The **sensory fibres** arise from the pseudounipolar neurons of the **trigeminal ganglion** and pass to the sensory trigeminal nuclei in the mesencephalon, pons and spine.

The **nuclei of the mesencephalic tracts** (tractus mesencephali) of the trigeminal nerve consist of pseudo-unipolar neurons, whose fibres pass through the trigeminal ganglion without synapsing. Thus, this nucleus takes over the role of a sensory ganglion within the brain.

The **trigeminal nerve** emerges on the lateral aspect of the motor root (radix motoria). The **trigeminal ganglion** is located in a dural fold within the petrosal bone. As the nerve leaves the trigeminal ganglion, it divides into three main branches:

- ophthalmic nerve (n. **ophthalmicus**, V_1),
- maxillary nerve (n. maxillaris, V_2),
- mandibular nerve (n. mandibularis, V_3).

Ophthalmic nerve (V_1) (nervus ophthalmicus)

The ophthalmic nerve passes rostrally, lateral to the hypophysis within a common dural sheath with the maxillary, trochlear and abducent nerves. The nerves leave the cranial cavity and enter the orbit through the round foramen or the orbital fissure, respectively (Fig. 14-54 and Table 14-1). It is closely related to the cavernous sinus and in ruminants, pigs and cats, to the **epidural rete mirabile**. After entering the orbit the ophthalmic nerve divides into the:

- lacrimal nerve (n. lacrimalis),
- frontal nerve (n. frontalis),
- nasociliary nerve (n. nasociliaris),
  - ethmoidal nerve (n. ethmoidalis) and
  - infratrochlear nerve (n. infratrochlearis).

Covered by the periorbita, the **lacrimal nerve** runs along the lateral straight muscle of the eyeball to supply the lacrimal gland, the skin and conjunctiva of the temporal canthus of the eye. In the ox it contributes the majority of the fibres (together with the zygomatic nerve) to the cornual branch. The **secretory fibres** for the innervation of the lacrimal gland come

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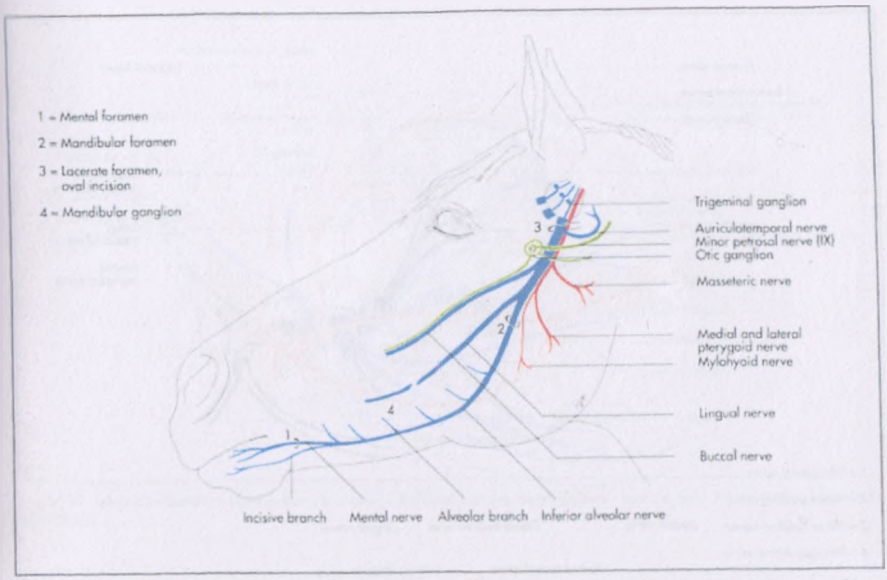


Fig. 14-55. Schematic illustration of the primary branches of the mandibular nerve in the horse without the deep temporal nerves (blue = sensory, red = motor, green = parasympathetic fibres)

- caudal nasal nerve (n. nasalis caudalis),
- major palatine nerve (n. palatinus major),
- minor palatine nerve (n. palatinus minor).

The **caudal nasal nerve** leaves the pterygopalatine fossa through the sphenopalatine foramen to enter the nasal cavity. It divides into medial and lateral branches, which provide sensory innervation to the nasal septum and to the nasal mucosa of the ventral nasal conchae and the ventral and middle meatus.

The **major palatine nerve** enters the palatine canal through the major palatine foramen and innervates the mucosa of the hard palate. The thin, **minor palatine nerve** provides sensory innervation to the soft palate.

The **infraorbital nerve** is the direct continuation of the maxillary nerve. It enters the infraorbital canal at the maxillary foramen and reappears rostrally on the face through the infraorbital foramen. It gives off **alveolar branches** (rami alveolares) to the maxillary cheek teeth and innervates the skin on the nose, the skin and mucosa of the muzzle, and the upper lip.

Branches of the maxillary nerve convey secretory parasympathetic fibres from the pterygopalatine ganglion to the lacrimal gland and to various glands of the nose and palate.

Mandibular nerve (V_3) (nervus mandibularis)

The mandibular nerve is as strong as the maxillary nerve, but in contrast to the other branches of the trigeminal nerve it is both **sensory** and **motor** (Fig. 14-55 and 56 and Table 14-1). It provides motor innervation to the muscles concerned with prehension and mastication. It provides sensory innervation to the buccal cavity, tongue, mandibular teeth, lower lip and parts of the facial skin. After detaching a meningeal branch, the mandibular nerve leaves the cranial cavity via the oval foramen (oval incisura in the horse). It detaches the following primary branches:

- masticator nerve (n. masticatorius),
  - masseteric nerve (n. massetericus),
  - deep temporal nerves (nn. temporales profundi),
- medial and lateral pterygoid nerves (n. pterygoideus medialis et lateralis),
- buccal nerve (n. buccalis),
- auriculotemporal nerve (n. auriculotemporalis), formerly termed superficial temporal nerve (n. temporalis superficialis),
- inferior alveolar nerve (n. alveolaris inferior) and
- lingual nerve (n. lingualis).

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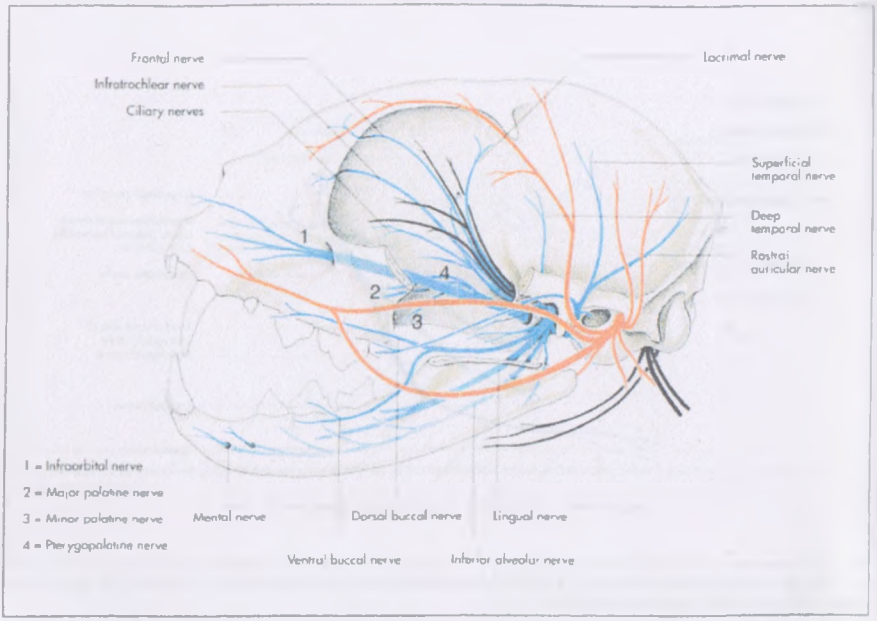


Fig. 14-56. Schematic illustration of the primary branches of the trigeminal nerve in the cat (blue = sensory fibres, red and black: see Fig 14-58). Schlaip, 1992.

Just after its passage through the oval foramen, the mandibular nerve detaches the **masticator nerve**, which divides into the **masseteric nerve** and the **deep temporal nerves**. The masseteric nerve passes through the mandibular notch between the condylar and the coronoid processes of the mandible to enter the masseter muscle on its lateral side. The deep temporal nerves provide motor innervation to the temporal muscle.

The **medial** and **lateral pterygoid nerves** arise from the mandibular nerve ventromedially and innervate the like-named masticatory muscle. Close to the origins of masticatory nerves lies the **otic ganglion**. Motor nerves for the tensor muscle of the soft plate and tensor tympani muscle leave the mandibular nerve at the level of the otic ganglion.

The **buccal nerve** passes rostrally between the lateral pterygoid muscle and the temporal muscle to reach the cheeks. It is sensory to the mucosa and the skin of the cheek and conveys secretory fibres from the otic ganglion to the buccal glands. (The term buccal branches, rami buccales, designates the motor branches of the facial nerves to the cheeks.)

The **auriculotemporal nerve** arises from the caudal border of the mandibular nerve. It is covered by the parotid salivary gland and bends around the caudal border of the mandible to reach the face just ventral to the temporomandibular joint. It divides into an auricular branch and a temporal branch. The auricular branch runs along the rostral margin of the external acoustic meatus to the base of the external ear, and innervates the skin in this area, together with the rostral auricular branch of the intermediofacial nerve. The temporal branch detaches smaller nerves which innervate the external acoustic meatus, the parotid gland and the skin of the cheeks.

The **mandibular nerve** terminates by bifurcating into the **lingual** and **the inferior alveolar nerves**. The inferior alveolar nerve passes between the lateral and medial pterygoid muscles. Before entering the mandibular canal at the mandibular foramen, it detaches its last motor branch, the **mylohyoid nerve**, which innervates the mylohyoideus muscle and the rostral belly of the digastric muscle. It passes through the mandibular canal supplying alveolar sensory nerves to the teeth and reappears at the mental foramen as the **mental nerve**, which innervates the skin and mucosa of the lower lip and chin.

The **lingual nerve** passes lateral to the stylohyoid, then medial along the mylohyoideus to reach the tongue, where it divides into **deep** and **superficial branches**. It is sensory to the mucosa of the rostral two-thirds of the tongue and the floor of the oral cavity. It is joined by the **chorda tympani**, a branch of the facial nerve, which introduces sensory and par-

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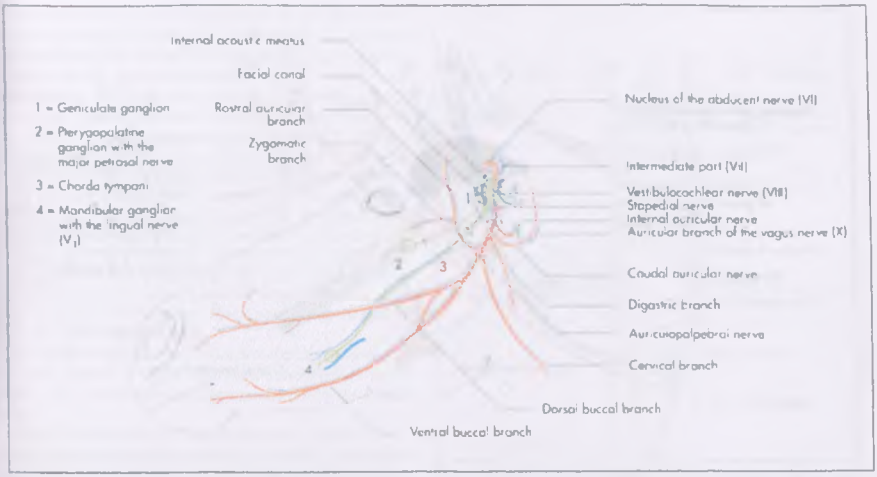


Fig. 14-57. Schematic illustration of the primary branches of the facial nerve in the horse (blue = sensory, red = motor, green = parasympathetic fibres).

asympathetic fibres from the mandibular ganglion. These supply secretory innervation to the sublingual and mandibular glands.

Damage to the trigeminal nerve causes paralysis of the masticatory muscles characterised by a dropped jaw. This condition is most common in the dogs, in which it may be an idiopathic condition. In many cases it occurs concurrently with paralysis of the hypoglossal nerve, which causes the tongue to hang out of the mouth in affected animals. Most common aetiologies include brain abscesses, brain trauma and rabies.

Abducent nerve (VI) (nervus abducens)

The abducent nerve provides motor innervation to the lateral rectus bulbi muscle and the lateral quarter of the retractor bulbi muscle of the eyeball. Its fibres originate in the motor nucleus of this nerve in the dorsal part of the pons, where motor fibres of the facial nerve arch around it (Fig. 14-12, 18, 51 and Table 14-1).

The abducent nerve emerges on the rostral end of the lateral ventral groove of the medulla oblongata and leaves the cranial cavity together with the maxillary, oculomotor and trochlear nerves, through the round opening or the orbital fissure, respectively.

Facial nerve (VII) (nervus facialis)

The axons of the facial nerve arise from two separate nuclei in the **medulla oblongata**. The motor nucleus is located in the ventral part of the rostral medulla oblongata close to the pons. The fibres from this nucleus run dorsally, around the abducent nucleus to curve ventrally again. The **preganglionic parasympathetic fibres** of the facial nerve originate in the parasympathetic nucleus, which is located caudal to the motor nucleus. The motor and parasympathetic fibres unite just distal to their emergence of the brainstem, lateral to the trapezoid body, to form the roots of the facial nerve. They are joined by sensory fibres from the **geniculate ganglion** (ganglion geniculi) (Fig. 14-57). An intermediate portion constitutes the sensory and parasympathetic portions of the facial nerve, while the facial component provides motor innervation to the mimetic musculature.

The **facial nerve** passes to the internal acoustic meatus, accompanied by the vestibulocochlear nerve. It enters the facial canal, a passage within the petrous temporal bone, with a sharp caudal convexity, the genu of the facial nerve, where the nerve is enlarged to form the geniculate ganglion at the summit of the bend.

The bony walls of the facial canal have slit-like openings towards the tympanic cavity. In this location, the facial nerve is separated from the middle ear only by the mucosa lining the tympanic cavity. Thus, facial nerve paralysis may be associated with infections of the middle ear.

The **facial nerve** gives off the:

- major petrosal nerve (n. petrosus major),
- stapedial nerve (n. stapedius) and
- chorda tympani within the facial canal.

The **major petrosal nerve** is mainly composed of parasympathetic fibres, which form synapses in the pterygopalatine

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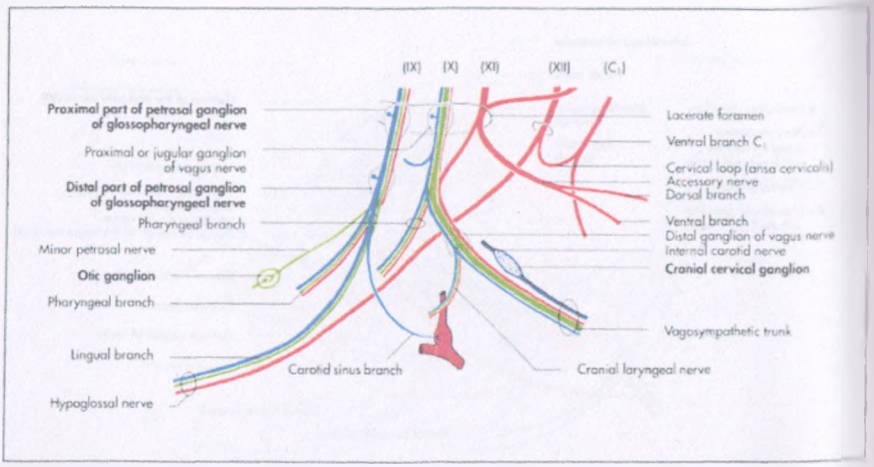


Fig. 14-59. Schematic illustration of the original parts of the vagus group (glossopharyngeal, vagus and accessory nerves) and the hypoglossal nerve, including major ganglia, after Budras and Röck, 1997.

from the auriculotemporal and infraorbital branches of the trigeminal nerve.

The **clinical signs of facial nerve paralysis** clearly depend on the site of the lesion. Lesions involving central parts of the nerve affect the whole facial field, including paralysis of the muscles of the ear, eyelids, nose and lips, and lead to loss or reduction of the secretory activity of the lacrimal and salivary glands. More peripheral lesions, that occur in the middle ear or outside the skull lead to unilateral paralysis of the mimetic musculature. This condition is characterised by asymmetrical drooping of the muzzle and inability to close the eye. Humans show an increased sensitivity to noise (hyperakusis). In horses, the subcutaneous part of the nerve is sometimes damaged by pressure exerted from a tight halter and may paralyse the muscles of the lips and cheeks.

Vestibulocochlear nerve (VIII) (nervus vestibulocochlearis)

The vestibulocochlear nerve provides sensory innervation only and is composed of the vestibular nerve which is concerned with balance and the cochlear nerve, which is concerned with hearing (Fig. 14-30, 46, 59, Chapter 17 and Table 14-11).

The **vestibular nerve** connects the vestibular apparatus of the inner ear with the brain. The cell bodies of its bipolar neurons are located in the vestibular ganglion, and the peripheral fibres arise from the **cristae** (cristae ampullares) and **maculae** (maculae utriculi et sacculi) of the membranous labyrinth. The **vestibular ganglion** is located within the fundus of the internal acoustic meatus and consists of a superior and an inferior part. The afferent fibres of the vestibular component form the vestibular root, which enters the medulla at the trapezoid body, where it passes to the vestibular area with its terminating nuclei (nucleus vestibularis rostralis, spinalis, medialis, lateralis). Part of the fibres pass directly to the cerebellum.

The **cochlear nerve** transmits impulses from the ear to the brain which are perceived as hearing. It is composed of fibres whose cell bodies are located within the band-shaped **spiral ganglion** within the osseous modiolus of the cochlea. The peripheral processes of these cells end by synapsing with hair cells of the **organ of Corti** in the cochlear duct. The central fibres conjoin to form bundles that pass through the perforated cochlear area of the internal acoustic meatus and unite to form the cochlear root of the vestibulocochlear nerve.

The cochlear root combines with the vestibular root and enters the trapezoid body to terminate within the **medulla oblongata** in the ventral and dorsal cochlear nuclei. The two cochlear nuclei are the starting point for the central auditory pathways. After decussating, the fibres pass to the medial geniculate body and the caudal colliculi of the quadrigeminal plate. They ascend with the lateral lemniscus to reach the **cerebral cortex**, where they project onto the **acoustic area of the temporal lobes**.

Glossopharyngeal nerve (IX) (nervus glossopharyngeus)

The glossopharyngeal nerve is a mixed nerve, being both **sensory** and **motor**. Its motor fibres originate in the rostral part of the nucleus ambiguus of the **medulla oblongata**. The **nucleus ambiguus** constitutes a common site of origin for glossopharyngeal and vagal fibres. The parasympathetic fibres arise from the **parasympathetic nucleus of the glossophar-**

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lingeal nerve (Fig. 14-46, 59 and Table 14-1). The glossopharyngeal nerve arises from the ventrolateral aspect of the **medulla oblongata** in close relation to the vagus and the accessory nerves. Some authors refer to these nerves as the **vagus group**. The glossopharyngeal nerve provides sensory innervation to the middle ear, the caudal third of the tongue and, together with the vagus nerve, the pharynx. It provides motor innervation to the dilator of the pharynx (m. stylopharyngeus caudalis) and probably to the muscles of the soft palate.

The **sensory neurons** have their cell bodies located in the **petrosal ganglion**, which is divided into a **proximal part**, located intracranially, and a **distal part**. At the level of the distal ganglion the minor petrosal nerve arises and gives off small branches to the tympanic plexus and the auditory tube. It leaves the tympanic cavity to end in the **otic ganglion** from which postganglionic secretory fibres continue to the parotid and buccal glands (Fig. 14-60).

The **main trunk** detaches a branch to the carotid sinus (ramus sinus carotici), which innervates baroreceptors in the wall of the carotid bulb and chemoreceptors in the carotid body.

The **glossopharyngeal nerve** terminates by dividing into **lingual** and **pharyngeal branches** (Fig. 14-60). The pharyngeal branches divide within the pharyngeal plexus, to which the vagus also contributes. The lingual branch innervates sensory and parasympathetic fibres leading to the mucosa of the caudal third of the tongue. There are microscopically small parasympathetic ganglia dispersed along the branches of the glossopharyngeal nerve, especially within the lingual branch. The glossopharyngeal nerve receives sympathetic fibres from the **cranial cervical ganglion**.

In the horse, the glossopharyngeal nerve passes through the medial compartment of the guttural pouch, in a common fold with the hypoglossal nerve. Inflammation of the guttural pouch may cause damage to these nerves, which is characterised by difficulties in swallowing.

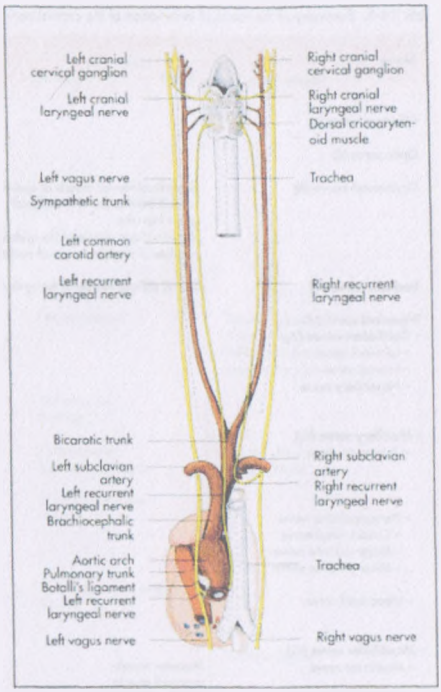


Fig. 14-60. Schematic illustration of the caudal (recurrent) laryngeal nerves of the horse, after Grau,1974.

Vagus nerve (X) (nervus vagus)

The vagus nerve is not restricted to the **head**, like the other cranial nerves, but has a widespread distribution to innervate the **viscera of the thoracic** and **abdominal cavities**. It is the largest parasympathetic nerve of the autonomous nervous system (Fig. 14-46 and 59 and Table 14-1).

The vagus is a **mixed nerve**, conveying motor, sensory and parasympathetic fibres. The motor fibres arise in the **caudal part of the nucleus ambiguus** of the medulla oblongata and are joined by additional motor fibres from the accessory nerve. The **cell bodies** of the **pseudounipolar sensory neurons** are located in the **proximal ganglion of the vagus nerve** (formerly called jugular ganglion). Their receptors are located in the viscera, and their afferent fibres extend to sensory nuclei in the medulla oblongata.

The **parasympathetic preganglionic cell bodies** are located in the **parasympathetic nucleus of the vagus**, which lies immediately caudal to that of the glossopharyngeal nerve in the **medulla oblongata**. The long preganglionic parasympathetic fibres of this nucleus terminate in the intramural ganglia of the thoracic and abdominal viscera. The parasympathetic branches of the head synapse in the **distal ganglion** (formerly called ganglion nodosum), which is located at the detachment of the cranial laryngeal nerve (Fig. 14-60).

The vagus nerve emerges on the ventrolateral aspect of the medulla oblongata between the glossopharyngeal and the accessory nerves with which it passes through the jugular foramen. The proximal ganglion of the vagus lies within the **jugular foramen** (Fig. 14-60).

The vagus nerve detaches a small **meningeal branch** (ramus meningeus) and the auricular branch close to the jugular foramen. The **auricular branch** joins a branch of the facial nerve to innervate the skin on the inside of the external ear. It is the only branch of the vagus that innervates the skin. It is hypothesised that this branch plays a major role in auricular acupuncture.

The next branch to arise is the strong **pharyngeal branch** (Fig. 14-60), which joins the glossopharyngeal nerve in the formation of the **pharyngeal plexus**. This plexus forms a fine network with numerous dispersed groups of nervous cells on the surface of the muscles and in the tela submucosa of the pharynx. These vagus fibres provide sensory innerva-

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Tab. 14-1. Summary of the areas of innervation of the cranial nerves

Nerve	Innervation		
	Motor	Sensory	Parasympathetic
Olfactory nerve (I)		Sense of smell	
Optic nerve (II)		Sight	
Oculomotor nerve (III)	Superficial levator muscle of eyelid and all the muscles of the eyeball apart from the dorsal oblique muscle of the eyeball and lateral straight muscle of eyeball		Ciliary muscle and pupillary sphincter muscle
Trochlear nerve (IV)	Dorsal oblique muscle of the eyeball		
Trigeminal nerve (V)			
– **Ophthalmic nerve (V_1)**		Eyeball, conjunctiva, skin in the eye region, olfactory mucosa, parts of the frontal sinus	By the facial nerve for the lacrimal gland
– Lacrimal nerve			
– Frontal nerve			
– Nasociliary nerve			
– **Maxillary nerve (V_2)**			
– Zygomatic nerve		Skin of the temporal and parietal region, lower eyelid	
– Pterygopalatine nerve		Mucosa of the nasal cavity, maxillary cavity, hard and soft palate	Fibres from the facial nerve for the lacrimal gland
– Caudal nasal nerve			
– Major palatine nerve			
– Minor palatine nerve			
– Infraorbital nerve		Teeth of the upper jaw, skin of the nose and upper lip	
– **Mandibular nerve (V_3)**			
– Masticator nerve	Masseter muscle, temporal muscle, lateral and medial pterygoid muscle, tensor tympani muscle		
– Medial and lateral pterygoideus nerve			
– Buccal nerve		Buccal mucosa	Fibres from the glossopharyngeal nerve for the buccal glands, parotid gland
– Auriculotemporal nerve		Skin in the facial region	
– Inferior alveolar nerve	Mylohyoid muscle and rostral part of the digastric muscle	Teeth in the lower jaw, lower lip	
– Lingual nerve		First two thirds of the lingual mucosa	Fibres from the facial nerve (chorda tympani) for the sublingual glands and mandibular gland
Abducent nerve (VI)	Lateral straight muscle of the eyeball, lateral quarter of the retractor muscle of the eyeball		

Sensible = conducting information about all types of stimuli from the peripheral (PNS) to the central nervous system (CNS), sensory = innervation of the senses (smell, sight, sound, touch, taste and balance)

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Tab. 14·1. (Continued)

Nerve	Innervation		
	Motor	Sensory	Parasympathetic
Facial nerve (VII)			
- Stapedius nerve	Stapedius muscle		
- Caudal auricular nerve	Muscles for the pinna of the ear	Skin of the pinna of the ear	
- Auriculopalpebral nerve	Muscles for the eyelids		
- Cervical branch	Muscles for the skin on the neck		
- Digastric branch	Caudal part of the digastric muscle		
- Buccal branches	Facial muscles (mimic)		
- Intermediate part (chorda tympani and major petrosal nerve)		Lingual mucosa	Lacrimal gland, glands of nasal and palate mucosa, sublingual gland and mandibular gland
Vestibulocochlear nerve (VIII)		Balance and hearing	
Glossopharyngeal nerve (IX)		Carotid body (glomus caroticum)	Parotid gland and Buccal glands
- Pharyngeal branch	Caudal stylopharyngeal muscle, pharynx		
- Lingual branch	Levator muscle and tensor muscle of soft palate	Caudal third of the tongue	
Vagus nerve (X):			
Cranial part			
- Auricular branch		Skin inside of the pinna of the ear	
- Cranial laryngeal branch	Cricothyroid muscle, larynx		
- Depressor nerve			Cardiac plexus
Cervical part connected to the sympathetic trunk			
Thoracic part			
- Right caudal laryngeal nerve around the right costocervical trunk	All laryngeal muscles apart from the cricothyroid muscle		Organs in the pectoral cavity
- Left caudal laryngeal nerve around the aorta			
- Dorsal vagal trunk			
- Ventral vagal trunk			
Abdominal part			Organs in the abdominal cavity
Accessory nerve (XI)			
- Dorsal branch	Brachiocephalic muscle, trapezius muscle, omotransverse muscle		
- Ventral branch	Sternocephalic muscle		
Hypoglossal nerve (XII)	Lingual musculature		

The sympathetic innervation of several cranial organs is achieved via the cranial cervical ganglion

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nerve passes through the **lateral vertebral foramen of the atlas**, while the succeeding cervical nerves exit in front of the corresponding vertebra, and the last cervical nerve exits between the seventh cervical vertebra and the first thoracic vertebra, hence there are eight cervical spinal nerves for seven cervical vertebrae. In the coccygeal region, there are fewer nerves than vertebrae.

Each spinal nerve originates from the **spinal cord** with a **dorsal** and a **ventral root**. The two roots unite within the vertebral canal to form the spinal nerve. Close to the union of the two roots the dorsal root carries the spindle-shaped **spinal ganglion** which consists of the cell bodies of afferent, **pseudounipolar neurons** (Fig. 14-64).

The **dorsal root** is composed of **afferent fibres**, while the **ventral root** is composed of **efferent motor** and **autonomous fibres**. The resulting mixed spinal nerve exits through the intervertebral foramen and divides almost at once into dorsal and ventral branches.

The **dorsal branch** (Fig. 14-64) further divides into a **medial branch** for the innervation of the muscles of the back, that are located dorsal to the transverse vertebral processes and a **lateral branch** for the skin of the back. Cutaneous segments, which are innervated by a particular spinal nerve, are designated dermatomes. The **autonomous component** of their innervation is responsible for so-called **Head's zones**, where certain inner organs are projected onto the skin. The dermatomes of the more caudal spinal nerves extend further ventrally, while the extent of the cranial ones is restricted to the more dorsal parts of the body wall.

The **larger ventral branch** (Fig. 14-64) innervates the muscles ventral to the transverse processes and the remaining skin, including the limbs. It usually divides into **two primary branches**, the first one arising in the middle of the abdomen and the second close to the linea alba. The ventral branches of the last three cervical vertebrae and the first two thoracic nerves form the **brachial plexus** that gives rise to the nerves of the forelimb. The last three lumbar nerves and the first two sacral nerves form the **lumbosacral plexus** of the hindlimb.

Cervical nerves (nervi cervicales)

The dorsal and the ventral branches of the cervical [illegible] communicate with each other to form the dorsal and [illegible] cervical plexus, respectively (Fig. 14-64).

The **ventral branch of the first cervical nerve** [illegible] hypoglossal nerve in the **cervical loop** (ansa cervicalis), [illegible] which branches arise for the innervation of the long muscle [illegible] of the hyoid apparatus: the sternohyoid, the sternothyroid [illegible] the omohyoid muscles.

The **ventral branch of the second cervical nerve** [illegible] es the great auricular nerve (n. auricularis magnus), which joins the caudal auricular branch of the facial nerve in the innervation of the caudal part of the external ear.

The **ventral roots of the fifth** (cat: fourth) **to seventh cervical nerves** form the **phrenic nerve**, which runs [illegible] within the mediastinum to innervate the diaphragm.

The **suprascapular branches** also arise from [illegible] branches and innervate the skin over the shoulder joint.

Brachial plexus (plexus brachialis) and nerves of the thoracic limb

The brachial plexus is usually formed by the ventral branches of the **sixth, seventh** and **eight cervical** and the first and **second thoracic spinal nerves**. It gives origin to the nerves that innervate the muscles and skin of the thoracic limb, [illegible] of the shoulder girdle musculature and the lateral wall of the thorax and abdomen (Fig. 14-64B, and Table 14-2B).

Exceptions are the brachiocephalic, the omotransversarius, the rhomboid, and the trapezius muscles and the skin over the upper shoulder region. These structures are supplied by the dorsal and ventral branches of the cervical and thoracic spinal nerves.

The **branches of the brachial plexus** are usually mixed, since the cerebrospinal fibres are joined by autonomous fibres from the stellate ganglion.

The plexus is located **cranial to the first rib** between the long muscle of the neck and the scaleni muscles. The roots of

Tab. 14-2. Composition of the most important nerves of the brachial plexus, after Habel, 1978

Ventral branch of the segmental nerves	Nerve
C_6	Suprascapular nerve
	Musculocutaneous nerve
C_7	Axillary nerve
C_8	Radial nerve
Th_1	Median nerve
	Ulnar nerve

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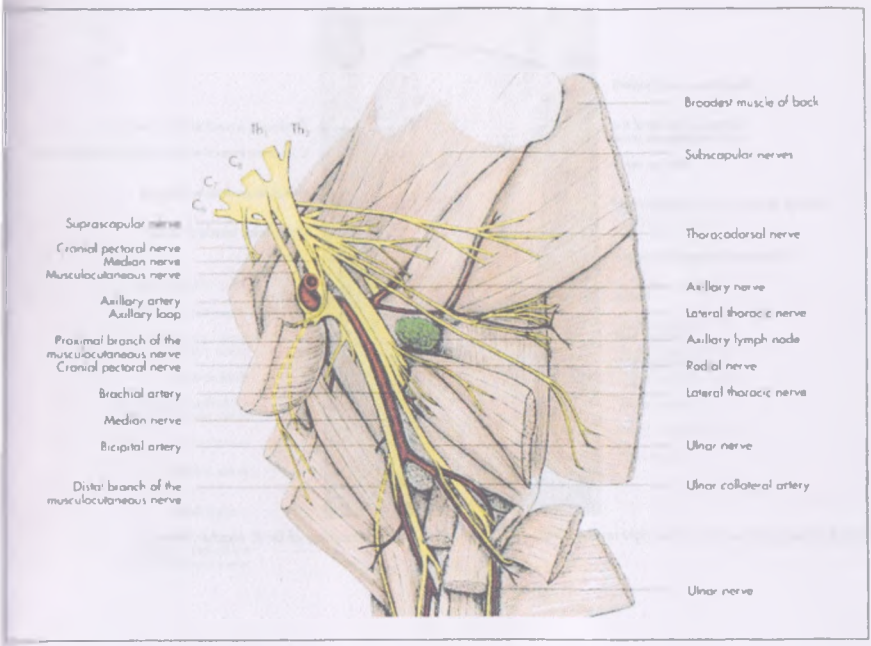


Fig. 14-64. Brachial plexus of the right thoracic limb of the horse (schematic, medial aspect)

The plexus reach the medial aspect of the shoulder by passing between the middle and ventral portions of the scalenus (Fig. 14-2ff.). In carnivores the roots pass ventral to the middle scalene muscle. Several branches of the plexus have very restricted local distributions on the wall of the thorax and are of no clinical importance. These nerves will only be described briefly (Fig. 14-64 and 65, Table 14-3):

- long thoracic nerve (n. thoracicus longus),
- thoracodorsal nerve (n. thoracodorsalis),
- lateral thoracic nerve (n. thoracicus lateralis),
- cranial and caudal pectoral nerves (nn. pectorales craniales et caudales) and
- subscapular nerves (nn. subscapulares).

The **long thoracic nerve** passes caudally on the lateral surface of the thoracic part of the ventral serrate muscle, which it innervates. The cervical portion of this muscle is supplied by cervical spinal nerves.

The **thoracodorsal nerve** arises from the last cervical spinal nerve, runs caudally, crosses the major teres muscle and branches out on the medial surface of the broadest muscle of the back, which it innervates.

The **lateral thoracic nerve** arises from caudal parts of the plexus (C_8 and Th_1) and passes along the broadest muscle of the back to innervate the abdominal part of the cutaneous muscle. Some of its branches unite with adjacent intercostal nerves to form the intercostobrachial nerve, which innervates the skin caudal to the triceps and over the ventral thorax and abdomen. Sensory fibres are contributed by the intercostal nerves.

The **cranial** and **caudal pectoral nerves** arise from the cranial part of the plexus and innervate the pectoral muscles. The cranial pectoral nerves innervate the superficial pectoral muscle and m. ungulates the subclavian muscle. The caudal pectoral nerves pass caudoventrally to the deep pectoral muscle.

The **subscapular nerves** arise either as individual nerves or as a plexus from the cranial part of the brachial plexus. They innervate the cranial and middle part of the subscapular muscle.

The following three nerves have a relatively limited distribution, but are of considerable functional importance (Fig. 14-64, 68 and Table 14-2ff.):

- suprascapular nerve (n. suprascapularis),
- musculocutaneous nerve (n. musculocutaneus),
- axillary nerve (n. axillaris).

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Fig. 14-66. Cutaneous branches of the right antebrachium of a horse (medial aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.



Fig. 14-67. Cutaneous branches of the right antebrachium of a horse (lateral aspect), courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

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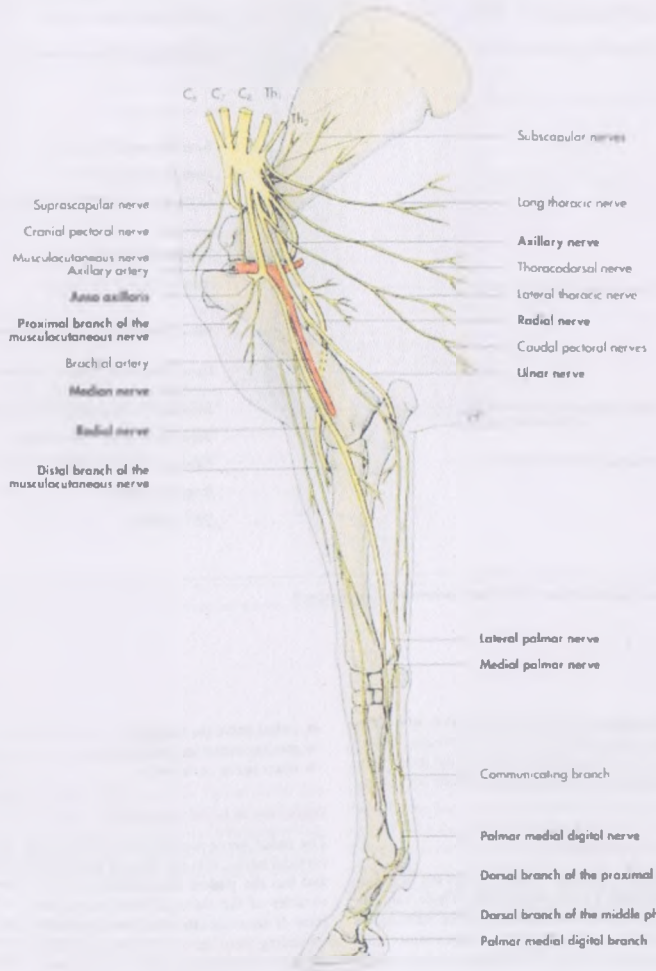


Fig. 14-68. Brachial plexus and its branches of the right thoracic limb of the horse (schematic, medial aspect), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

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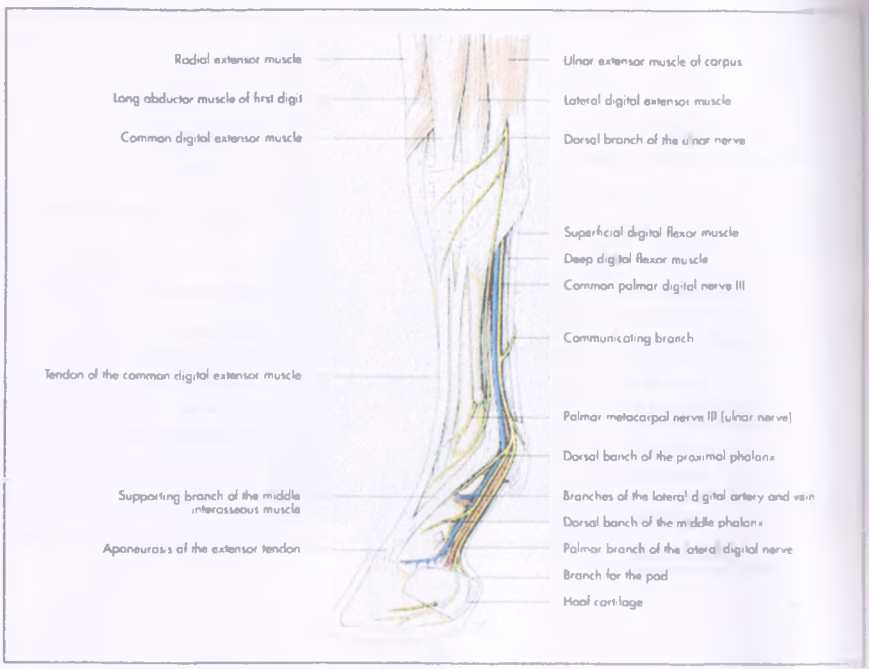


Fig. 14-69. Nerves of the left forefoot of the horse (schematic, lateral aspect)

this could be compensated for by the radial nerve, which also contributes to the innervation of the brachial muscle. Loss of sensation of the skin on the medial aspect of the antebrachium will aid in the diagnosis of musculocutaneous nerve damage.

Axillary nerve (nervus axillaris)

The axillary nerve passes to the lateral aspect of the limb caudal to the shoulder joint. On the medial side, it innervates the teres major muscle and the caudal third of the subscapular muscle. It also innervates the capsular and teres minor muscles. It branches to innervate the deltoid muscle and gives off a branch to the cleidobrachial muscle. Its cutaneous branch reaches a subcutaneous position on the ventral border of the deltoid muscle and innervates the skin on the cranial aspect of the arm and antebrachium (Fig. 14-68).

The remaining three nerves of the thoracic limb extend from the brachial plexus all the way to the apex of the limb (Fig. 14-64, 68 and Table 14-21):

- radial nerve (n. radialis),
- median nerve (n. medianus),
- ulnar nerve (n. ulnaris).

Radial nerve (nervus radialis)

The radial nerve receives most of its fibres from the eighth cervical nerve. It is the **largest nerve** of the brachial plexus and has the **widest distribution**. It innervates all extensor muscles of the thoracic limb except those of the shoulder joint. It innervates the skin over the lateral aspect of the limb, extending from the antebrachium to the apex of the limb in all domestic mammals other than the horse, where it ends distal to the carpus (Fig. 14-69).

The **radial nerve** runs distally, caudal and parallel to the brachial artery, before passing between the long and medial heads of the triceps muscle to follow the spiral groove of the humerus to the craniolateral aspect of the limb. On its course it innervates branches to the extensor muscles of the elbow joint (triceps of the forelimb, anconeus, tensor of the antebra-

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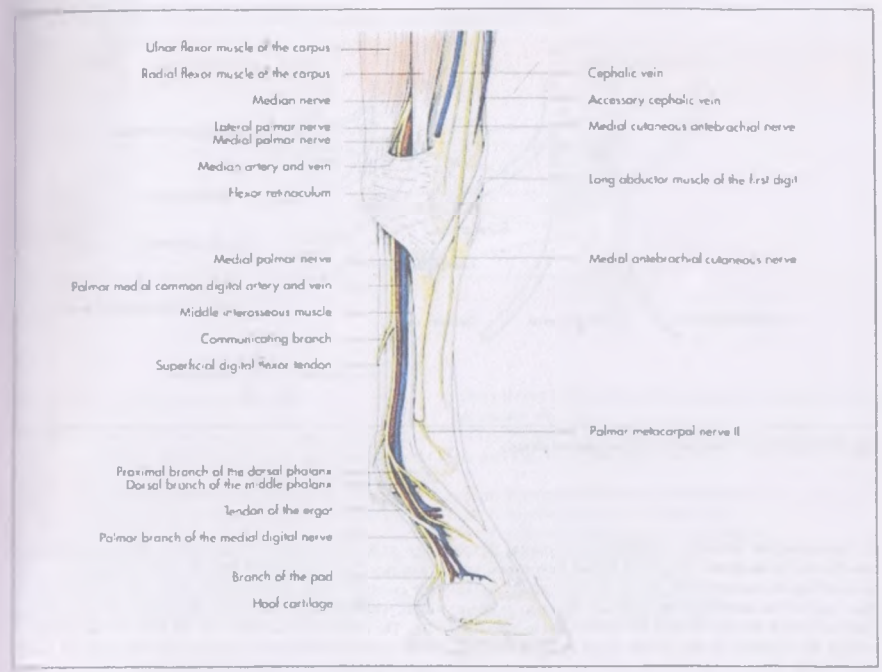


Fig. 14-70. Nerves of the left forefoot of the horse (schematic, medial aspect)

...fascial fascia). In the distal third of the humerus, it detaches its cutaneous branch (ramus cutaneus antebrachii) to the skin of the antebrachium.

Clinical signs of radial nerve paralysis depend on the site of injury. The more proximal the damage, the more severe the syndrome and the more grave the prognosis. **Avulsion of the brachial plexus**, seen in animals after car accidents, results in numerous neurological deficits, which rarely resolve.

Tab. 14-6. Innervation of the joints of the forelimb

Joint	Nerve
Shoulder joint	Axillary nerve Suprascapular nerve
Elbow joint and carpal joint	Median nerve Ulnar nerve
Fetlock joint and further digital joints	Palmar nerves Digital nerves

Damage to the radial nerve proximal to the middle of the arm usually results in paralysis of the extensors of the elbow, paralysis of the carpal and digital extensors and anaesthesia of the skin territory. The affected animal cannot fix its elbow joint, thus displaying a non-weightbearing lameness with dragging of the toes. Injury to the radial nerve in the distal part of the radius results in paralysis of the carpal and digital extensors (radial carpi extensor, ulnar carpi extensor, common digital extensor), and the affected animal knuckles over and tries to stand on the dorsal aspect of the toe.

Median nerve (nervus medianus)

After its origin from the brachial plexus, the median nerve runs down the medial surface of the antebrachium. It combines with the musculocutaneous nerve to form a loop around the axillary artery (Fig. 14-64). At the cranial aspect of the elbow joint, the median nerve passes laterally under the round pronator muscle to innervate the large caudal group of flexor muscles of the antebrachium. In the cat, it passes through

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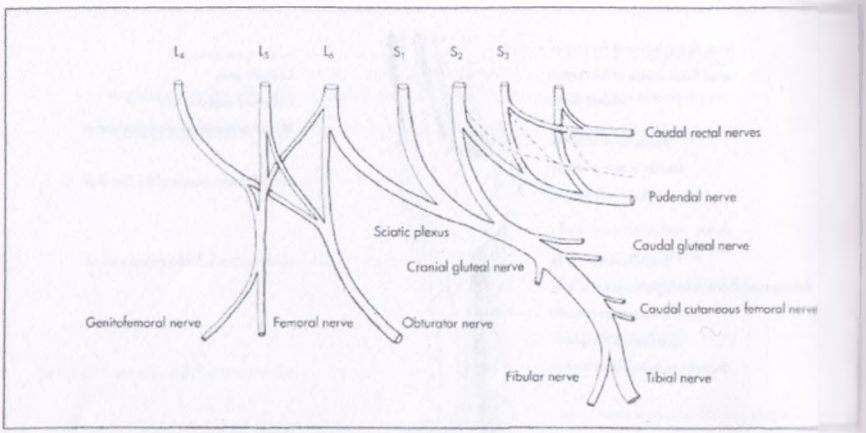


Fig. 14-71. Schematic illustration of the lumbosacral plexus.

the supracondylar foramen. It innervates the radial flexor muscle and the deep and superficial digital flexor muscles. Its distribution overlaps with that of the ulnar nerve. In the distal part of the antebrachium it divides into two or more branches, which descend through the carpal canal to innervate most of the structures on the palmar aspect of the distal limb (Fig. 14-70).

Ulnar nerve (nervus ulnaris)

The ulnar nerve runs distally on the medial aspect of the antebrachium in close relation to the median nerve and caudal to the brachial artery. It passes caudally at the level of the elbow joint, running under the ulnar head of the ulnar flexor muscle to the ulnar groove on the caudal aspect of the antebrachium (Fig. 14-65 and 66).

Within the antebrachium, it detaches the caudal cutaneous antebrachial nerve to the skin on its caudal aspect. In the proximal part of the antebrachium, it branches to innervate the ulnar flexor muscle and the deep and superficial digital flexor muscles.

A **dorsal branch** arises proximal to the accessory carpal bone and passes dorsally to innervate the skin on the lateral surface of the distal limb. The narrow continuation of the ulnar nerve passes through the carpal canal and innervates muscles, skin and deeper structures of the digit. The distribution within the foot is closely related to that of the median nerve, with which it partly combines (Fig. 14-69 and 70).

Innervation of the distal limb

With the exception of the horse, each digit is supplied by four nerves, two dorsal and two palmar digital (see Chapter 18).

The axial and abaxial dorsal digital nerves are terminal branches of the superficial branch of the radial nerve, with the exception of the dorsal digital nerves of the most lateral digit, which are branches of the ulnar nerve (Fig. 14-69 and 70). The palmar digital nerves of the first, second and third digits arise from the median nerve, while those for the fourth and fifth digit to arise from the ulnar nerve.

Innervation of the distal limb of the horse

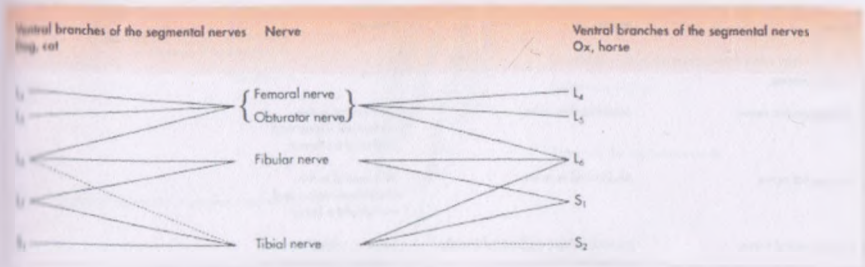
Most of the structures distal of the carpus are supplied by the **medial** and **lateral palmar nerves**, both of which are branches of the **median nerve**, and the **dorsal** and **palmar branches of the ulnar nerve**. The median nerve divides into medial and lateral nerves proximal to the carpus (Fig. 14-69 and 70). The lateral palmar nerve detaches a deep branch to the suspensory ligament at the level of the carpus.

The **palmar branches** lie palmar to the metacarpal bones between the suspensory ligament and the digital flexor tendons. In the mid-metacarpal region the medial palmar nerve detaches a communicating branch that crosses over the superficial digital flexor tendon, where it is usually palpable, to join the lateral palmar nerve.

Just proximal to the metacarpophalangeal joint, the palmar nerves become the **medial** and **lateral digital nerves**, which pass distally, caudal to the like-named artery over the abaxial aspect of the proximal sesamoid bones. Both nerves detach **dorsal branches** at the level of the proximal and middle phalanges. Variations in their distribution pattern are common. **Local anaesthesia of these nerves** plays a major role in the diagnosis of lameness. The nerves are sequentially blocked at different levels from distal to proximal to determine the location of the lesion.

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Fig. 14-7. Composition of the most important nerves of the hindlimb, after Habel (1978)



Ventral branches of the thoracic nerves

The first two ventral branches of the thoracic spinal nerves contribute to the brachial plexus (Fig. 14-64). Generally, the thoracic ventral branches form the intercostal nerves, which run ventrally on the caudal aspect of the corresponding rib. The intercostal nerves innervate the intercostal muscles, the transversus thoracis muscle and the rectus thoracis muscle. The last five to ten ventral thoracic branches innervate the abdominal muscles. The ventral branch of the last thoracic nerve is referred to as the costoabdominal nerve. The ventral branches also detach branches to the mammary glands.

Lumbar nerves (nervi lumbales)

The number of lumbar spinal nerve pairs corresponds to the number of lumbar vertebrae: six in the horse, pig and ruminants and seven in the dog and cat. Similar to the other spinal nerves, they divide into **dorsal** and **ventral branches** shortly after their passage through the intervertebral foramen.

Each dorsal branch typically divides into **medial** and **lateral branches**. The medial branches innervate the muscles of the back dorsal to the spine, and the lateral branches arborize in the skin over the lumbar and rump region. The branches that innervate the rump are termed the **cranial clunial nerves** (nn. clunium craniales).

The **ventral branches** of the **lumbar spinal nerves** interconnect to form the lumbar plexus. Some authors describe the lumbar plexus as being formed by the ventral branches of all lumbar spinal nerves. However, the first three ventral lumbar branches exchange relatively few fibres and are described as individual nerves. The remaining ventral lumbar branches form the **lumbar plexus proper** (plexus lumbalis), which unites with the first and second sacral nerves in the **lumbosacral plexus** (plexus lumbosacralis) (Fig. 14-72) and Table 14-7).

The **ventral branches** of the **lumbar spinal nerves** are of considerable clinical importance, since they are often anaesthetised locally to facilitate abdominal and pelvic surgery. These nerves can be identified for injection by palpating the ends of the transverse processes and anaesthetising the nerve where it runs between the transverse and the internal oblique abdominal muscles.

The following individual nerves arise from the lumbar plexus (Fig. 14-72 and Table 14-7II):

- **iliohypogastric nerve** (n. iliohypogastricus),
- **ilioinguinal nerve** (n. ilioinguinalis),
- **genitofemoral nerve** (n. genitofemoralis),
- **lateral cutaneous femoral nerve** (n. cutaneus femoris lateralis),
- **femoral nerve** (n. femoralis) and
- **obturator nerve** (n. obturatorius).

Iliohypogastric nerve (nervus iliohypogastricus)

The iliohypogastric nerve represents the primary ventral branch of the **first lumbar nerve** (Fig. 14-72). It extends in a retroperitoneal position between the tip of the transverse processes of the first two lumbar vertebrae. In the cat and the dog, in which there are seven lumbar vertebrae, the first two ventral branches are known as the cranial and caudal iliohypogastric nerves.

Ventral to the transverse processes, the iliohypogastric nerve divides into lateral and medial branches. The **medial branch** passes to the inguinal region. The **lateral branch** passes between the abdominal muscles, which it innervates, and detaches two branches to the skin: the lateral cutaneous branch, which innervates a narrow band of skin caudal to the ribs, and the medial cutaneous branch, which innervates the skin over the ventral abdomen, the inguinal mammary glands and the medial side of the thigh, where it combines with the ilioinguinal nerve.

Ilioinguinal nerve (nervus inguinalis)

The ilioinguinal nerve is the primary ventral branch of the **second (third in carnivores) lumbar spinal nerve** (Fig. 14-72). Its branching pattern is similar to that of the iliohypogastric nerve. Its lateral cutaneous branch innervates a territory caudal to that of the iliohypogastric nerve, with which it overlaps.

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Tab. 14-8. Summary of the areas of innervation of the lumbar plexus

Nerve	Motor	Sensory
Lumbar nerves		
Iliohypogastric nerve	Abdominal muscles	Skin ventral in the abdominal region and medial of the femur
Ilioinguinal nerve	Abdominal muscles	Skin ventral in the abdominal region and medial of the femur
Genitofemoral nerve	Internal oblique abdominal muscle Cremaster muscle	Scrotum, udder, preputium, skin medial of the femur
Lateral cutaneous nerve of the femur	Greater psoas muscle	Skin craniomedial of the femur and the knee joint
Femoral nerve	Inner lumbar muscles Quadriceps muscle	
Saphenous nerve	Sartorius muscle (in part) Pectineal muscle (in part) Gracilis muscle (in part)	Skin medial of the knee joint and medial of the crural region
Obturator nerve	Pectineal muscle (in part) Gracilis muscle (in part) Adductor muscles External obturator muscle (ox and pig) Internal obturator muscle	

Genitofemoral nerve (nervus genitofemoralis)

The genitofemoral nerve arises from the **third** and **fourth ventral lumbar branches**, the root of the third being larger than that of the fourth (Fig. 14-72). It runs caudally between the inner lumbar muscles and reaches the inner inguinal ring together with the external iliac artery. Before leaving the abdomen, it detaches a branch to the internal oblique abdominal muscle. It passes through the inguinal canal with the external pudendal artery and vein.

It innervates the skin over the medial aspect of the thigh. It sends branches to the inguinal mammary glands and in the female cat and dog to the skin surrounding the vulva. It also conveys autonomic fibres that regulate milk flow during suckling. In the male, it innervates the prepuce and the scrotum.

Lateral cutaneous femoral nerve (nervus cutaneus femoris lateralis)

The lateral cutaneous femoral nerve is formed primarily by the ventral branch of the **fourth lumbar nerve** (Fig. 14-72). It detaches branches to the inner lumbar muscles and accompanies the caudal branch of the deep circumflex iliac artery through the abdominal wall. It innervates the skin over the lateral aspect of the distal thigh and the stifle joint.

Femoral nerve (nervus femoralis)

The femoral nerve is a very large nerve which detaches branches to the inner lumbar muscles in its proximal portion (Fig. 14-72). It continues caudally along the iliopsoas and greater psoas muscles and branches to form the saphenous nerve, which enters the femoral canal. The femoral nerve innervates all four heads of the quadriceps muscle. It passes adjacent to the pecten of the os pubis, where it is prone to mechanical damage. Over-extension of the quadriceps muscle, e.g. during recovery from anaesthesia or pelvic fracture, are the most common causes of femoral nerve injuries. Damage to this nerve leads to paralysis of the quadriceps, which prevents fixation of the stifle joint and renders the whole limb incapable of supporting weight.

The **saphenous nerve** (n. saphenus) forms muscular branches which innervate the sartorius, pectineal and gracilis muscles (Fig. 14-72 and 75). It passes through the femoral canal cranial to the femoral artery. In the middle of the thigh, it reaches a subcutaneous position. At the level of the stifle, a small branch accompanies the descending genicular vessels to the stifle joint. The saphenous nerve continues distally, parallel to the like-named artery and the medial saphenous vein to innervate the skin over the medial aspect of the leg extending from the thigh to the tarsus.

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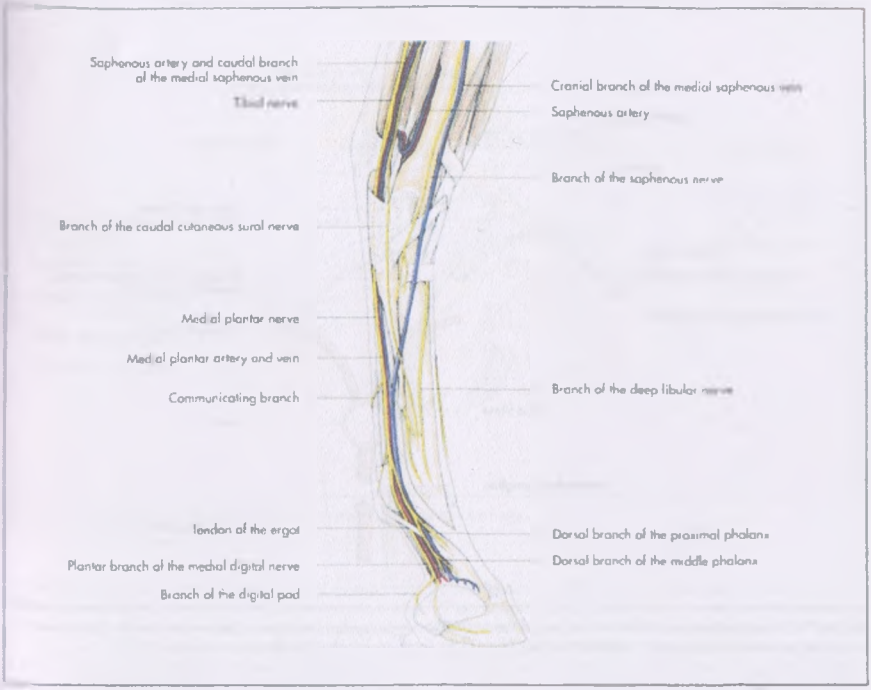


Fig. 14-78. Nerves of the left hindfoot of the horse (schematic, medial aspect)

the lateral aspect of the stifle and proximal leg. The **superficial fibular nerve** runs distally along the lateral margin of the long digital extensor muscle and sends branches to the lateral digital extensor muscle. It innervates the skin on the dorsal aspect of the leg. On the flexor side of the tarsus it terminates by dividing into medial and lateral branches that subdivide into the dorsal nerves of the digits (Fig. 14-72).

The **deep fibular nerve** runs deep between the muscles of the leg, accompanied by the cranial tibial artery. In the proximal third of the leg, it detaches branches to the flexor muscles of the tarsal and phalangeal joints (cranial tibial, long fibular, third fibular, short fibular, long digital extensor, lateral digital extensor and extensor hallucis longus muscles). Similar to the superficial branch it divides into **lateral** and **medial branches** on the dorsal aspect of the tarsus. The lateral branch detaches fibres to the short digital extensor tendon. The two branches of the deep fibular nerve join the corresponding branches of the superficial fibular nerve at the level of the proximal phalangeal joint to innervate the dorsal aspect of the digits (Fig. 14-72 and 77ff.).

Tibial nerve (nervus tibialis)

The tibial nerve is the **larger of the terminal branches** of the sciatic nerve. Shortly after separating from the common fibular nerve, the tibial nerve detaches the strong proximal muscular branches to the pelvic heads of the hamstring muscles (biceps femoris, semitendinous and semimembranous muscles) in the proximal third of the thigh (Fig. 14-72 and 73 ff.).

In the midfemoral region it gives off the **caudal sural nerve** (n. cutaneus surae caudalis), which passes caudally, together with the lateral saphenous vein, to reach a subcutaneous position along the caudal aspect of the crus. At the caudal aspect of the stifle, it passes deep between the two heads of the gastrocnemius muscle. At this level, it detaches the distal muscular branches to the gastrocnemius, the deep digital flexor, the superficial digital flexor and the popliteal muscles. It continues to the medial side of the tarsus between the common calcanean tendon and the heads of the deep digital flexor muscle, where it is palpable in large animals. When level with the calcaneus, the tibial nerve divides into the **medial**

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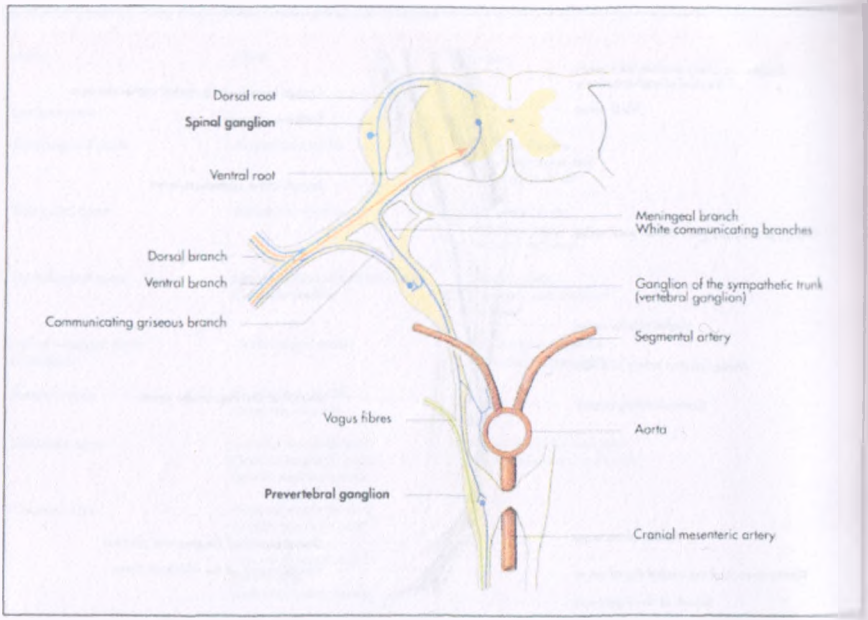


Fig. 14-79. Schematic illustration of the visceral part of the autonomic nervous system (red = motor, blue = sensory, lilac = pre- and post-ganglionic sympathetic fibres, green = parasympathetic fibres of the vagal nerve), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943

and **lateral plantar nerves** (Fig. 14-77 and 78). At the level of the proximal phalanx, they divide again into **lateral** and **medial plantar digital nerves**, which resemble those of the forelimb.

Damage to the sciatic nerve or its terminal branches may be caused by fractures of the femoral neck, by misdirected intramuscular injections or as complication of hip surgery. Depending on the level of injury it is usually manifested by a non-weightbearing lameness, which will result in rapid atrophy of the deprived muscles, and considerable sensory deficits.

Peripheral autonomic nervous system (systema nervosum autonomicum)

The **autonomic** (also called **visceral** or **vegetative**) nervous system forms the **idiotropic part** of the peripheral nervous system and is closely linked to the central nervous system by cranial and spinal nerves. It is composed of a multitude of small nerves, plexuses and ganglia, and co-ordinates the function of the internal organs essential for life. It regulates respiration, circulation, digestion, metabolism, body temperature, water balance, reproduction and many other bodily functions. Most of the mechanisms that fulfil these functions also occur in the unconscious animal, e.g. during sleep or under general anaesthesia; hence the term "autonomic". However, this system is still regulated by cerebrospinal mechanisms. For example optic stimuli and aggressive or depressive emotions influence respiration, cardiac activity and gastrointestinal function.

The autonomic nervous system is concerned with the motor innervation of smooth muscles of the internal organs and blood vessels, as well as the regulation of the endocrine and exocrine function of glands. There is a close interaction between the nervous system, the endocrine system and the immune system. (For more details see neurophysiology and immunology textbooks.)

Structure of the autonomic nervous system

The afferent component of the autonomic nervous system can be divided into **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic portions** on the basis of anatomical, pharmacological and physiological criteria. Both systems consist of pairs of neurons that link the central nervous system to the innervated structure.

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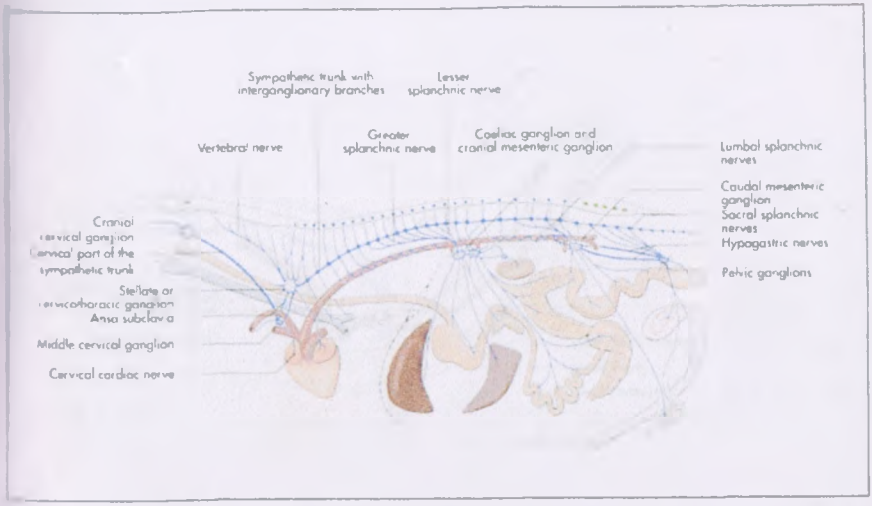


Fig. 14-80. Schematic illustration of the sympathetic nerves and ganglia of the horse.

The first multipolar neuron of each pair has its cell body within the central nervous system and sends its axon out as part of the peripheral system. This myelinated, **preganglionic neuron** synapses with the second neuron of the chain and the non-myelinated axon of the postganglionic neuron terminates on the cells of the effector organ (Fig. 14-79). The cell bodies of the preganglionic neurons of the sympathetic division are located within the lateral column of the thoracic and lumbar spinal cord. Those of the parasympathetic division are located in the nuclei of origin of certain cranial nerves within the brainstem and the lateral columns of sacral segments of the spinal cord.

The **postganglionic neurons** ordinarily occur in clusters referred to as ganglia. The sympathetic postganglionic neurons are located in vertebral ganglia of the sympathetic trunk or in more peripheral prevertebral ganglia. The parasympathetic postganglionic neurons are found within small ganglia in close proximity to, or within the walls of the organ they innervate.

The two systems can be distinguished on the base of their **transmitter substance**. The transmitter at the last sympathetic synapse is **noradrenaline**, while that of the **parasympathetic portion** is **acetylcholine**. Both divisions have a similar distribution and have stimulating or inhibiting influences on an organ depending on the overall activity of these systems. It is generally true that sympathetic stimulation results in an overall increase in body activity, while parasympathetic stimulation has a restorative effect.

Sympathetic system

The cell bodies of the **preganglionic neurons** of the sympathetic system are located in the lateral column of the spinal cord between the first thoracic and the third lumbar segments. Their axons join the ventral roots to reach the spinal nerves from which they pass to the vertebral ganglia of the sympathetic trunk as the **white communicating branches** (rami communicantes albi) (Fig. 14-80). After entering the sympathetic trunk there are several courses that preganglionic fibres follow; some fibres synapse immediately within the local ganglia; others run cranially or caudally within the trunk to synapse in other vertebral ganglia. The majority passes uninterrupted through the trunk to synapse in prevertebral ganglia located at the origins of the visceral branches of the abdominal aorta. This last group constitutes the **splanchnic nerves**.

Sympathetic trunk (truncus sympathicus)

The sympathetic trunk consists of two chains of vertebral ganglia that have a segmental arrangement and are interconnected both longitudinally and transversely. It can be divided into several parts:

- cephalic and cervical part (pars cephalica et cervicalis),
- thoracic part (pars thoracica),
- abdominal part (pars abdominalis) and
- sacral and coccygeal part (pars sacralis et coccygea).

Cephalic and cervical part of the sympathetic trunk

The cephalic and cranial part of the sympathetic trunk is the cranial continuation of the thoracic part, without directly contacting the vertebral column. In the cervical region each chain runs in a common sheath with the vagus nerve, forming

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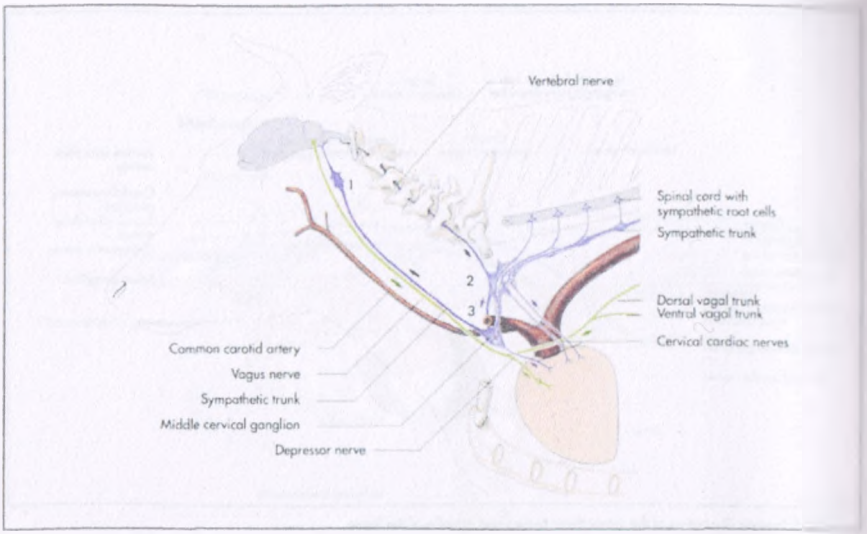


Fig. 14-81. Schematic illustration of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves in the cervical and thoracic region of the ox (1 = cranial cervical ganglion, 2 = cervicothoracic ganglion, 3 = ansa subclavia)

the **vagosympathetic trunk** (truncus vagosympathicus), dorsal to the common carotid artery (Fig. 14-81ff.).

The cervical part starts at the **cervicothoracic ganglion** (stellate ganglion, ganglion cervicothoracicum seu stellatum), which is connected to the **middle cervical ganglion** (ganglion cervicale medium) craniowentral to it via the ansa subclavia. The cervical part passes cranially from the middle cervical ganglion to combine with the vagus nerve in a common sheath (Fig. 14-81). At the atlas, the sympathetic part separates from the vagus to then terminate in the large **cranial cervical ganglion** (ganglion cervicale craniale).

In the horse, this ganglion runs along the internal carotid artery in a caudal fold in the medial compartment of the guttural pouch. This ganglion provides sympathetic innervation for the head. Postganglionic fibres from the cranial cervical ganglion join the ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth cranial nerves and extend to the adventitia of all cranial arteries. Only postganglionic fibres leave the ganglion.

The **internal carotid nerve** (n. caroticus internus) arises from the apex of the cranial cervical ganglion, is directed towards the brain and passes to the lacerated foramen with the internal carotid artery. It innervates the blood vessels within the cranial cavity and detaches fibres which combine with the trigeminal and other cranial nerves. The **middle cervical ganglion** is connected to the cervicothoracic ganglion by the ansa subclavia which divides to pass around the subclavian artery. Most of its neurons innervate the cardiac plexus.

The **cervicothoracic ganglion** lies medial to the first rib. It marks the end of the cervical sympathetic trunk and the start of the thoracic part of the sympathetic trunk. As indicated by its name it is formed by the fusion of the caudal cervical ganglion with one or more thoracic ganglia. The following branches arise from the cervicothoracic ganglion:

- **communicating branches** (rami communicantes) to the first two thoracic nerves,
- **vertebral nerve** (n. vertebralis), which accompanies the like-named vessels through the transverse canal and provides the cervical spinal nerves with sympathetic fibres,
- **cervical cardiac nerves** (nn. cardiaci cervicales), which innervate the cardiac plexus,
- **perivascular branches**, which accompany the subclavian artery and
- **thoracic part of the sympathetic trunk** as its caudodorsal continuation.

Thoracic part of the sympathetic trunk

The thoracic part of the sympathetic trunk shows a segmental arrangement of ganglia, the number of which roughly corresponds to the number of thoracic vertebrae. Cranial thoracic ganglia fuse with caudal cervical ganglia to form the **cervicothoracic ganglion**. Branches to the cardiac, oesophageal and

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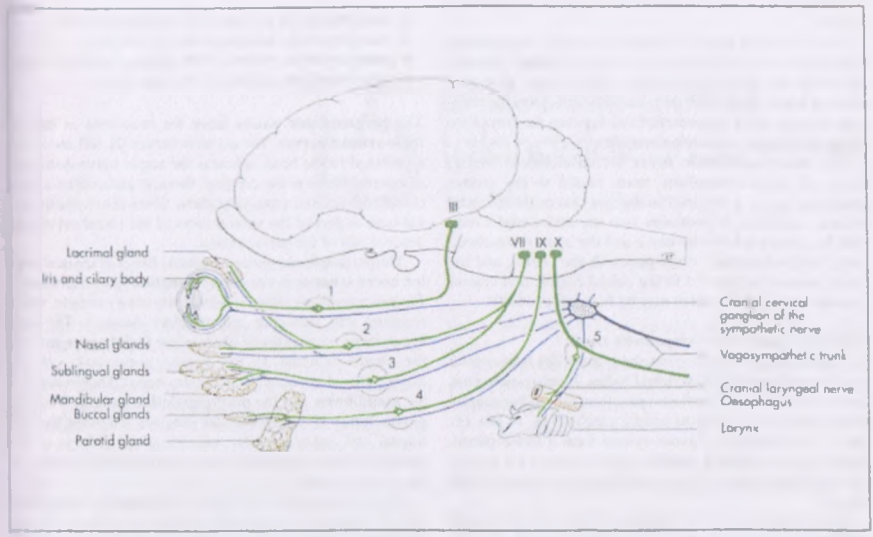


Fig. 14-82. Schematic illustration of the sympathetic (lilac) and parasympathetic (green) nerves of the head. 1 = ciliar ganglion, 2 = pterygopalatine ganglion, 3 = mandibular ganglion, 4 = otic ganglion, 5 = distal ganglion of the vagus nerve. Parasympathetic nuclei of cranial nerves: III = oculomotor nerve, VII = intermediofacial nerve, IX = glossopharyngeal nerve, X = vagus nerve. after Dyce, Sack and Wensing 2002

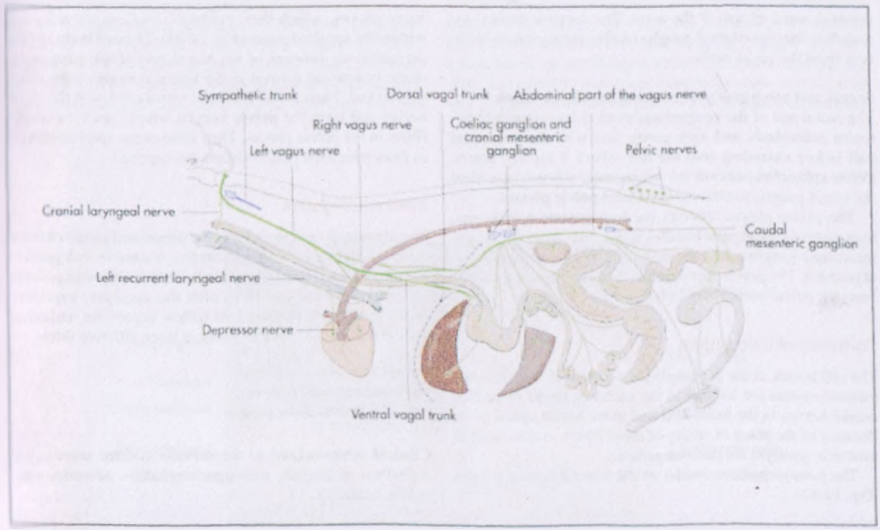


Fig. 14-83. Schematic illustration of the parasympathetic nerves of the neck, thorax, abdomen and pelvis.

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tracheal plexuses arise from the cranial thoracic ganglia (Fig. 14-81).

From the sixth thoracic ganglion caudally, preganglionic neurons pass through the ganglia to reach the **greater splanchnic nerve** (n. splanchnicus major). The greater splanchnic nerve increases in diameter more caudally and enters the abdomen along the main sympathetic trunk between the crus of the diaphragm and the psoas minor muscle.

The **lesser splanchnic nerve** (n. splanchnicus minor) leaves the main sympathetic trunk caudal to the greater splanchnic nerve at the level of the last two or three caudal thoracic vertebrae. It continues into the abdominal cavity with the greater splanchnic nerve and the main sympathetic trunk. Both splanchnic nerves pass with the coeliac and the cranial mesenteric arteries to the paired coeliac and cranial mesenteric ganglions, which may be fused (Fig. 14-80).

Abdominal part of the sympathetic trunk

The abdominal part of the sympathetic trunk lies between the psoas musculature and the vertebral bodies. Lumbar splanchnic nerves (nn. splanchnici lumbales) pass from the lumbar ganglia to the coeliac and cranial mesenteric ganglia (Fig. 14-80). Fibres of the autonomic nervous system form a dense plexus around the **prevertebral ganglia** and the roots of the coeliac and cranial mesenteric arteries, called the **solar plexus** (plexus solaris).

This is continuous with the plexuses which are distributed with the branches of the two arteries and are named after the organs they innervate, e.g. the **enteric** and the **hepatic plexus**. A large, unpaired, prevertebral sympathetic ganglion is found at the caudal mesenteric root.

The **prevertebral ganglia** are connected with each other by the splanchnic nerves, the sympathetic trunk, and the abdominal aortic plexus at the aorta. The nervous plexus surrounding the prevertebral ganglia receive parasympathetic fibres from the vagus nerve.

Sacral and coccygeal part of the sympathetic trunk

The sacral part of the sympathetic trunk is less consistent between individuals and may partly fuse with the coccygeal part before extending into the tail, where it rapidly tapers. **Pelvic splanchnic nerves** (nn. splanchnici pelvini) pass from the sacral ganglia to the retroperitoneal **pelvic plexus**.

The pelvic plexus receives the **hypogastric nerves** (nn. hypogastrici), two nerve bundles which pass from the caudal mesenteric ganglion into the pelvic cavity in a retroperitoneal position. The pelvic plexus receives parasympathetic fibres from the pelvic nerves (nn. pelvini) (Fig. 14-80).

Parasympathetic system

The cell bodies of the preganglionic neurons of the parasympathetic system are located in the nuclei of origin of certain cranial nerves in the brainstem and in the sacral spinal cord. Because of the place of origin of these fibres, craniosacral is used as a synonym for parasympathetic.

The parasympathetic nuclei of the cranial nerves are the (Fig. 14-82):

- parasympathetic nucleus of the oculomotor nerve,
- parasympathetic nucleus of the facial nerve,
- parasympathetic nucleus of the glossopharyngeal nerve,
- parasympathetic nucleus of the vagus nerve.

The **preganglionic axons** leave the brainstem as **part of these cranial nerves**. The axons in nerves III, VII and IX are distributed to the head, whereas the vagus nerve distributes autonomic fibres to the cervical, thoracic and abdominal viscera. Preganglionic parasympathetic fibres also leave the spinal cord as part of the ventral roots of the sacral nerves and become part of the pelvic plexus.

The preganglionic parasympathetic fibres of the oculomotor nerve **synapse** in the **ciliary ganglion** (ganglion ciliare). The postganglionic fibres innervate the ciliary muscle, which regulates lens curvature and pupillary diameter. The parasympathetic preganglionic fibres of the **facial nerve** run with the chorda tympani to the lingual nerve and with the major petrosal nerve to the maxillary nerve. They synapse in the **mandibular** and the **pterygopalatine ganglia**. Postganglionic fibres of the mandibular ganglion innervate the sublingual and submandibular salivary glands, those of the **pterygopalatine ganglion** innervate the lacrimal, nasal and the palatine glands.

The preganglionic portion of the **glossopharyngeal nerve** joins the minor pterygopalatine nerve to synapse in the **otic ganglion**, near the origin of the mandibular branch of the trigeminal nerve. Postganglionic fibres innervate the buccal glands and the parotid gland. The axons of the largest parasympathetic nucleus leave the brain with the **vagus nerve**, with which they are distributed, to the organs of the thoracic and abdominal cavity. Synapses occur in ganglia along the nerve plexus, which they innervate, and are often located within the supplied organ (Fig. 14-83). The cell bodies of the preganglionic neurons of the sacral part of the parasympathetic system are located in the lateral column of the sacral spinal cord. Their axons leave the spinal cord with the sacral nerves and form the **pelvic nerves**, which join sympathetic fibres in the pelvic plexus. They form organ specific plexuses from which the pelvic viscera are supplied.

Intramural system

The intramural system includes the plexus and ganglia that are located within the tissues of organs. It ensures independent function of the viscera with central control, e.g. when peristalsis of the intestine continues after the supplying vegetative nerves have been sectioned. In hollow organs the intramural system consists of nerve plexuses at three different levels:

- subserosal nerve plexus,
- myenteric nerve plexus,
- submucosal nerve plexus.

Clinical terms related to the nervous system: neuritis, encephalitis, meningitis, meningoencephalitis, neuroma, radiculitis, neuralgia.

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15 Endocrine glands (glandulae endocrinae)

H. E. König and H.-G. Liebich

Endocrine glands are ductless organs that produce substances, termed hormones, which are released into the circulatory system and transported to distant receptor organs. Some hormones diffuse directly to their target cells via the interstitial fluid (e.g. the gastroenteropancreatic system). Most endocrine glands release their hormones into postcapillary veins that do not drain into the portal vein, but circulate around the whole organism before reaching the liver.

Hormones bind to **specific receptors** found in their target cells, either to enhance or suppress the activity of the target organs, tissues or cells. Endocrine organs supplement and augment the function of the autonomic nervous system, and both are collectively described as the "neurohormonal system".

Hormones are produced by **parenchymal cells** which are found **singly** (e.g. in the epithelium of the gastrointestinal tract, in the wall of bronchi and the urethra, in the kidneys and in the myocardium), as **aggregates** (e.g. the Langerhans cells in the pancreas, Leydig cells in the testes and corpus luteum) or are organised in **endocrine organs** (pituitary gland, thyroid gland, pineal gland, adrenal gland). Some organs have both exocrine and endocrine functions (testis, ovary, pancreas, placenta) and some have an endocrine function that is secondary to their principle function (kidney, liver, thymus).

The function of the endocrine tissues is regulated by simple or complex feedback mechanisms, many of which involve the pituitary gland.

Pituitary gland (hypophysis seu glandula pituitaria)

The pituitary gland plays a **major regulatory role** in the entire endocrine system. It is sometimes referred to as the "master gland" of the body. It is a small **unpaired organ** that is suspended below the diencephalon in the hypophyseal fossa of the sphenoid bone between the optic chiasm and the mamillary body. The hypophyseal fossa is bound by the tuberculum sellae rostrally and the dorsum sellae caudally. The dura mater forms the diaphragma sellae around the hypophyseal stalk and contains prominent **cavernous sinuses**. The pituitary gland consists of **two parts** which are derived from dif-



Fig. 15-1. Pituitary gland of a horse and adjacent structure (paramedian section); courtesy of PD Dr. J. Maierl, Munich.

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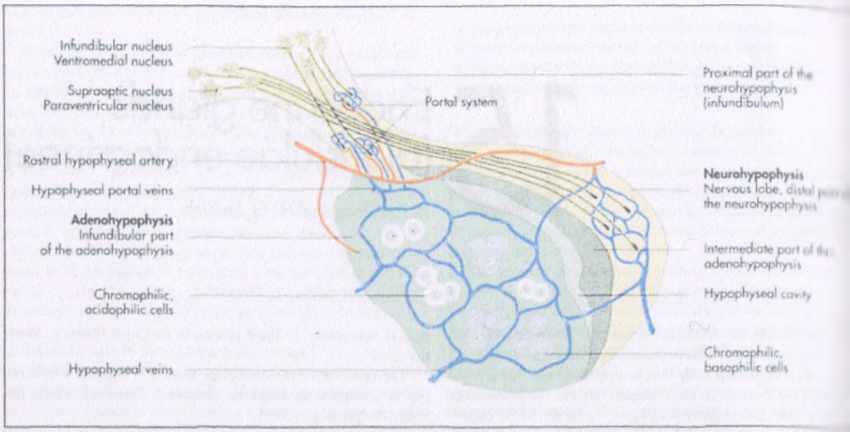


Fig. 15-2. The hypothalamus-hypophysis system (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

ferent embryological origins and have separate functions: the **neurohypophysis** and the **adenohypophysis** (Fig. 15-1ff.).

The **neurohypophysis** is located caudal to the adenohypophysis and is a neural outgrowth of the **hypothalamus**. It consists of the stalk which connects the pituitary gland to the **tuber cinereum** of the hypothalamus (infundibulum seu pars proximalis), and the distal, major portion of the neurohypophysis (pars distalis). The third ventricle extends into the neurohypophysis through the cylindrical stalk as the neurohypophyseal recess. The neurohypophysis stores and releases hormones that are produced by the neurosecretory cells of the **supraoptic** and **paraventricular nuclei** of the hypothalamus. These hormones, oxytocin, vasopressin and antidiuretic hormone (ADH), are conveyed along axons and released into the neurohypophyseal capillary bed.

The **adenohypophysis** arises from the epithelium of the dorsal pharyngeal roof and becomes the **anterior lobe of the pituitary gland**. Most of the adenohypophysis lies distal to the neurohypophysis and continues onto the stalk as **infundibular part of the adenohypophysis** (pars infundibularis). The portion of the adenohypophysis in direct contact with the distal part of the neurohypophysis is termed the **intermediate lobe** (pars intermedia adenohypophysis) owing to its location between the two major parts of the pituitary gland.

In the cat, dog and horse the intermediate lobe extends around the neurohypophysis. The anterior lobe is separated from the intermediate lobe by the **hypophyseal cleft** (cavum hypophysis), a remnant of development that is not present in the horse.

The hypophysis has its **own portal system** which is responsible for the **transportation of hormones** (releasing and inhibiting factors) from nuclei in the hypothalamus to the adenohypophysis. The **anterior lobe** of the adenohypophysis produces several hormones: growth hormone (GH), gonadotrophic hormones (follicle-stimulating and luteinizing hormones), adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) and prolactin. The **intermediate lobe** produces melanocyte-stimulating hormone and other hormones.

Because of the close anatomical and functional relationship between the hypothalamus and hypophysis, the two are collectively described as the hypothalamic pituitary unit.

Secondary pituitary glands may develop within the mesenchymal mater between the pituitary gland and the pharynx, especially in cats and ruminants.

Pineal gland (epiphysis cerebri seu corpus pineale, glandula pinealis)

The pineal gland is part of the **diencephalon**. It is an endocrine organ, located in the epithalamus and structurally resembles a pine cone. The size of the pineal gland varies greatly between species and between individuals. It is connected to the roof of the diencephalon by the habenulae and the short pineal stalk.

The pineal gland is innervated by **postganglionic sympathetic fibres** from the **cranial cervical ganglion** that run to the organ within the adventitia of small blood vessels. The endocrine cells of the pineal gland produce melatonin, serotonin and other peptide hormones. The activity of these cells is influenced by a chain of neurons that pass from the eyes via the hypothalamus, thoracic spinal cord and the cranial cervical ganglia to the pineal gland. Melatonin has antigonadotrophic effects which are important in seasonality of reproductive cycles in certain species, such as the horse and sheep. As such, the pineal gland functions as a "**biological clock**"

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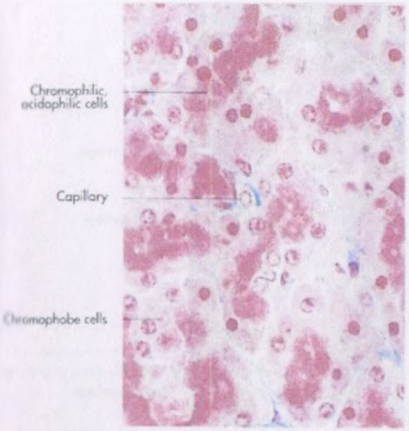


Fig. 15-3. Histological section of the adenohypophysis of an ox.

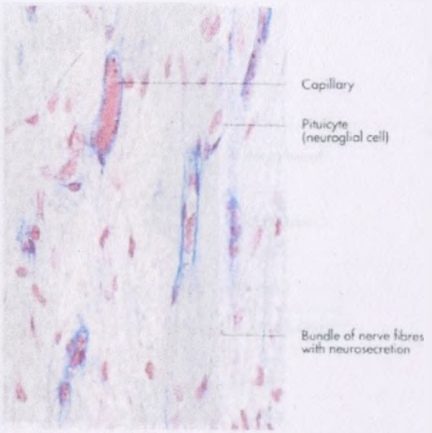


Fig. 15-4. Histological section of the neurohypophysis of an ox.

regulating seasonal and diurnal variation in gonadal activity. In the horse, where melatonin has antigonadotrophic effects, melatonin production is inhibited by light stimuli, so that as day length increases in the spring, melatonin production decreases and its inhibitory effect on gonad activity is reduced (long day breeding).

In sheep, melatonin is also suppressed by daylight, so that as night length increases, melatonin release increases. However, in sheep, melatonin enhances gonadotrophic function, so that breeding occurs in the autumn. This is of clinical importance, since administration of melatonin in sheep can be used to advance the breeding period.

Thyroid gland (glandula thyroidea)

The hormones produced by the thyroid gland control metabolic rate, growth, body temperature, carbohydrate metabolism and blood calcium levels. Secretory activity of the thyroid gland is regulated by thyreotropin (TSH), a hormone of the adenohypophysis.

Thyroxine (T3) and tetra-iodothyronine (T4) are produced by **follicular cells** and are stored in follicular fluid prior to their release into the blood stream. The iodine content of the diet is essential to the production of thyroid hormones, so that iodine deficiency may cause enlargement of the thyroid gland (goitre). **Hyperthyroidism** leads to an increase in metabolism and the animals appear restless and nervous, sometimes even aggressive. Hypothyroidism causes the organism to run down metabolism, growth and activity. Congenital hypothyroidism results in stunted growth and mental retardation.

Paralollicular, or C cells produce calcitonin, a hormone that lowers blood calcium concentrations and thus acts as an antagonist to the parathyroid hormone.

Position and form of the thyroid gland

The thyroid gland is located to either side of and **ventral to the trachea** at its most cranial part, sometimes overlapping the larynx. In all domestic mammals other than the pig, it consists of **left** and **right lobes** that are connected caudally by a connective tissue strand (**isthmus**) extending on the ventral side of the trachea (Fig. 15-5ff., 10 and 11).

In the cat, the flat, **spindle-shaped lobes** lay on the dorsolateral aspect of the trachea extending over the first seven to ten tracheal rings. Their caudal poles are connected by a thin isthmus of about 1–2 mm.

In the dog, the thyroid gland consists of two **elongated, oval lobes** on the dorsolateral aspect of the trachea that extend from the fifth to the eighth tracheal ring. The isthmus is often formed of glandular parenchyma, especially in large breed dogs (Fig. 15-5).

Unlike in the other domestic mammals, in the pig the thyroid gland is an **unpaired, compact organ** on the ventral aspect of the trachea. Its cranial pole lies at the thyroid cartilage, while the pointed caudal end reaches the thoracic inlet. Its surface has a granular appearance.

In the ox the **two lobes** are irregularly shaped with a granular appearance that roughly resembles pyramids. They are situated dorsally on the lateral side of the cricopharyngeal and cricothyroid muscles (Fig. 15-7). The lobes are connected by a substantial isthmus that crosses the ventral aspect of the second tracheal ring.

In small ruminants the lobes are **spindle to cylindrical shaped** and lie on the dorsolateral aspect of the cranial tra-

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Fig. 15-5. Thyroid gland of a dog, with trachea and larynx (ventral aspect)



Fig. 15-6. Thyroid gland of a goat, with trachea and larynx (ventral aspect)



Fig. 15-7. Thyroid gland of an ox, with trachea and larynx (ventral aspect)

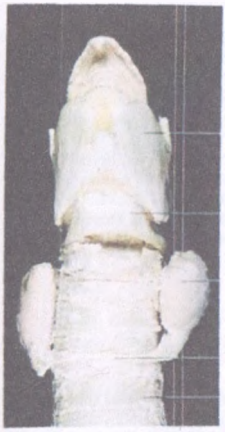


Fig. 15-8. Thyroid gland of a horse, with trachea and larynx (ventral aspect)

cheal rings. The isthmus is not present in all animals. In the horse the lobes of the thyroid are **oval** and about the size of a plumb. They are situated dorsolateral to the second and third tracheal rings and are joined ventrally by a **narrow strand** of connective tissue (Fig. 15-8 and 12).

Accessory thyroid glands are usually located close to the main organ. However, they may also be found around the hyoid apparatus, along the whole of the trachea, in the mediastinum and in the lingual mucosa of the cat.

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation

Blood supply of the thyroid gland is provided by branches of the **common carotid artery**. The main branch is the cranial thyroid artery, which branches to parts of the larynx. Additional vascular supply is provided by the caudal thyroid artery, which is frequently absent in the ox and goat, but contributes the main supply in the pig. Variations regarding the

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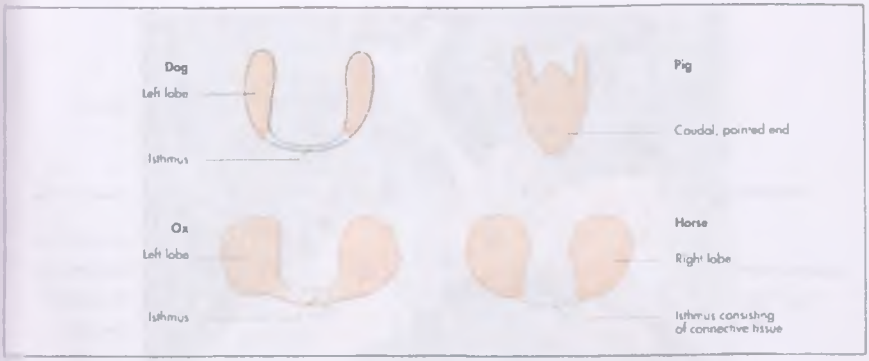


Fig. 15-9. The thyroid gland of the different domestic species (schematic). Ghetie, 1967

origin and course of the thyroid vessels are common. **Venous drainage** is achieved by the cranial and middle thyroid veins that drain into the internal jugular vein in all domestic mammals other than the horse, where no internal jugular vein is present. In the horse they drain into the **external jugular vein**. In the dog and cat, the cranial thyroid veins are connected by the caudal laryngeal arch in which the unpaired, **medium caudal thyroid vein opens**. The thyroid veins also vary greatly between species and individuals.

Lymphatic drainage of the thyroid gland is to the deep cervical lymph nodes or directly to the tracheal trunk.

The thyroid gland is innervated by both the **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic nervous systems**. Sympathetic fibres originate in the cranial cervical ganglion, while parasympathetic fibres supply the organ from branches of the caudal and cranial laryngeal nerves, both of which are branches of the vagus nerve.

Parathyroid glands (glandulae parathyroideae)

The parathyroid glands are **bilaterally paired**, small epithelial structures that are located both embedded within the thyroid gland and also close to its capsule.

These glands develop from the epithelium of the **third** and **fourth pharyngeal pouches**. The **internal parathyroid glands** are also named parathyroid IV, indicating their origin, and the external glands are named parathyroid III.

The parathyroid glands produce parathyroid hormone, which regulates serum concentrations of calcium and phosphorous by regulating metabolism within bone, absorption from the gastro-intestinal tract and excretion in the urine.

Incidental extirpation of all parathyroid glands during bilateral thyroidectomy in cats results in severe hypocalcaemia, which can be fatal. Due to lack of calcium necessary for proper muscular function, tetany then precedes death.

Species-specific variations

Cat
- internal parathyroids are located within the thyroid parenchyma, close to the medial surface of each lobe;
- external parathyroids are found close to the cranial pole of the thyroid gland.

Dog
- internal parathyroids are embedded within the middle portion of each lobe;
- external parathyroids are found close to the cranial pole or the cranial half of the thyroid gland.

Pig
- internal parathyroids are not present;
- external parathyroids are pea-like structures at the bifurcation of the common carotid artery.

Small ruminants
- internal parathyroids are found at the cranial pole of each lobe;
- external parathyroids are located at the caudodorsal margin of the mandibular salivary gland ventral to the wing of the atlas, close to the bifurcation of the common carotid artery.

Ox
- internal parathyroids are located either at the dorsal margin, the medial aspect or within the parenchyma of each lobe;
- external parathyroids are found medial to the bifurcation of the common carotid artery, close to the origin of the cranial laryngeal nerve from the vagus nerve.

Horse
- internal parathyroids are located around the cranial half of each lobe;
- external parathyroids are found along the trachea close to the caudal deep cervical lymph nodes.

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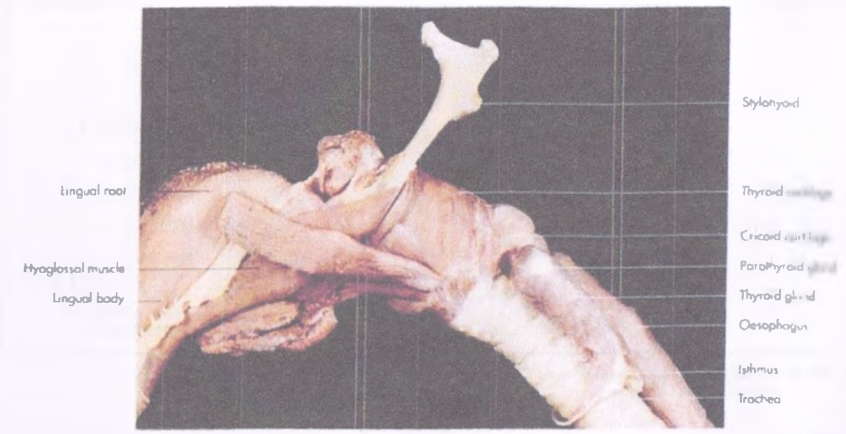


Fig. 15-10. Topography of the thyroid gland and the parathyroid gland of a sheep with adjacent structures, courtesy of H. Dier, Vienna

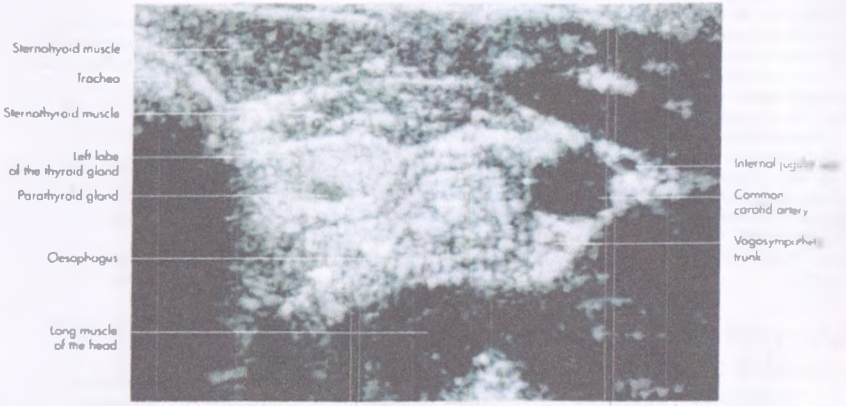


Fig. 15-11. Ultrasonogram of a thyroid gland of a dog, showing the internal parathyroids, courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich

Blood supply, lymphatic drainage and innervation

The parathyroid glands are surrounded by a dense capillary network. They are supplied by small branches of the common carotid artery. Veins open into the jugular vein. Lymphatics drain to the deep cervical lymph nodes.

Sympathetic fibres arise in the cranial cervical ganglion and reach the organs within the adventitia of the supplying arteries. Parasympathetic fibres reach the organ with branches of the caudal laryngeal nerve.

Adrenal glands (glandulae adrenales seu suprarenales)

The paired adrenal glands are located craniomedial to the corresponding kidney in a retroperitoneal position at the [illegible] of the abdomen. They derive their name from this position only and have no functional relationship with the kidney. Each adrenal gland is composed of two structurally and functionally different endocrine tissues of different embryological origin:

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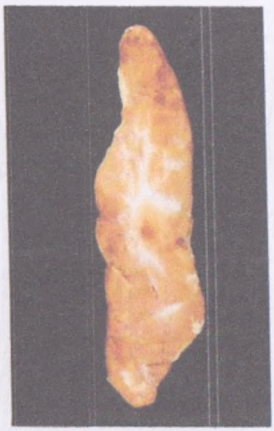


Fig. 15-15. Left adrenal gland of a pig (paramedian section), courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.

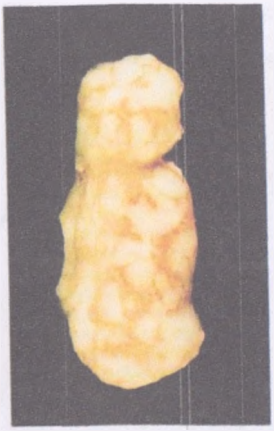


Fig. 15-16. Left adrenal gland of a pig, courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.

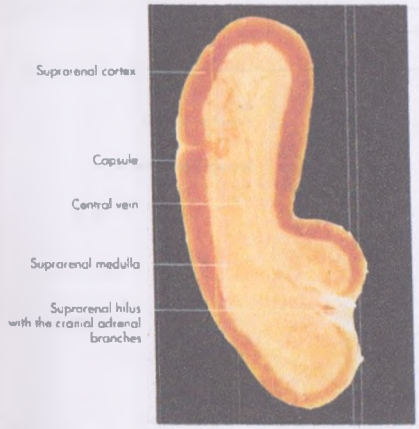


Fig. 15-17. Right adrenal gland of an ox (paramedian section), courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.



Fig. 15-18. Right adrenal gland of an ox, courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich.

Lymphatics form a capillary network within the parenchyma of the adrenal gland and drain into the lumbar aortic lymph nodes.

The parenchyma of the adrenal medulla is actually a modified **sympathetic ganglion**, specialised for **neurohormonal release**. It is innervated by preganglionic sympathetic fibres from the **splanchnic nerve**. The cortical cells are modified **postganglionic neurons**.

Paraganglia

Paraganglia are small, nodular masses of **epithelial cells**, which take their embryological origin from the **neural crest** and contain **adrenaline** and **noradrenaline**. The adrenal medulla is the largest aggregation of these neural crest cells in the body. Other paraganglia are well innervated and are found close to larger arteries. They function as chemoreceptors for the regulation of respiration.

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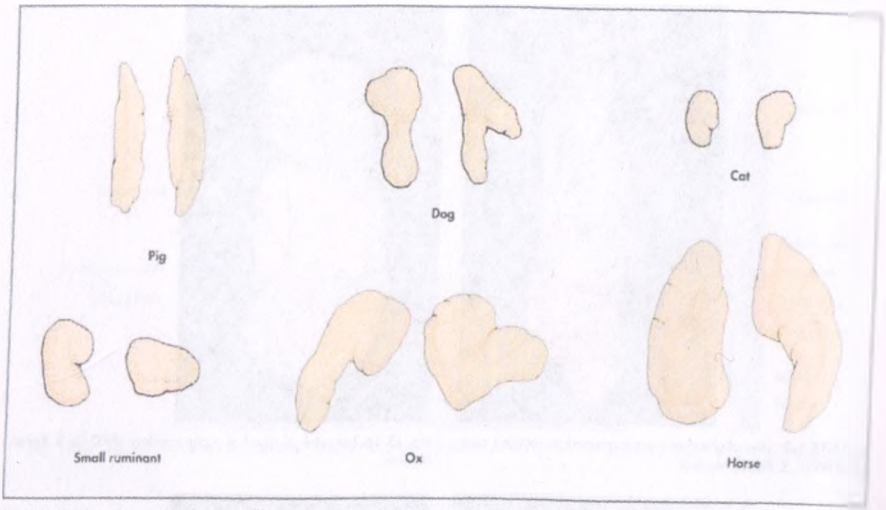


Fig. 15-19. The adrenal glands of the different domestic species (schematic); after Ghetie, 1967.

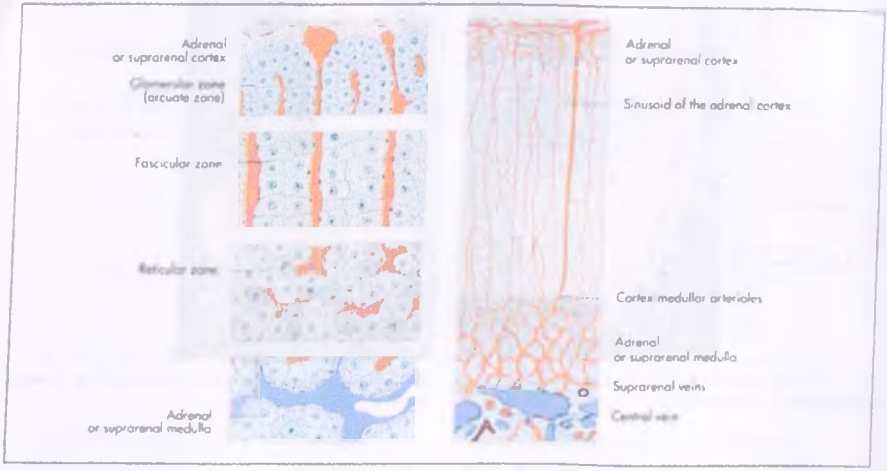


Fig. 15-20. The different zones of the adrenal gland with vascularisation (schematic); Liebich, 2004

The **carotid body** (glomus caroticum), lies at the bifurcation of the carotid arteries or sometimes within the wall of the **carotid sinus**. It has an irregular shape and varies in size from 1 to 3 mm. It is innervated by a branch (ramus sinus carotici) of the **glossopharyngeal nerve**, but receives additional branches from the cranial cervical ganglion and the vagus nerve. The **aortic body** (glomus aorticum) lies on the **aortic arch**, close to the origin of the brachiocephalic trunk. It is smaller than the carotid body and innervated by the depressor branch of the vagus nerve.

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The **para-aortic bodies** consist of several paraganglionic masses along the abdominal aorta. Their exact location varies among the different species and individuals. Most sympathetic ganglia also include groups of paraganglionic cells.

Pancreatic islets (insulae pancreatici)

The pancreatic islets, also known as the **"Islets of Langerhans"**, constitute the endocrine component of the pancreas. There are 0.5 to 1.5 million islets in man and several thousand islets in the cat and dog, which are supposed to be more numerous in the left pancreatic lobe, than in the right.

The islet cells are of several types: **alpha cells** produce **glucagon** and **beta cells** produce **insulin**, both of which affect carbohydrate metabolism. Insufficient insulin production results in diabetes mellitus. The endocrine pancreas of the dog served as the classic model for the exploration of insulin deficiency diabetes by Bantin and Best in 1922. Other cells synthesise somatostatin, which inhibits growth.

The pancreatic islets receive a generous **blood supply** and contain large-diameter capillaries. They are the only endocrine glands that are drained by veins which open into the portal vein.

These islets receive **autonomic innervation**: sympathetic fibres stimulate the production of glucagon and inhibit that of insulin; parasympathetic fibres stimulate the secretion of insulin.

Gonads as endocrine glands

The testis and the ovary have both an **exocrine** and an **endocrine function**, which are under the control of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis.

The **internal** and **external thecal cells** of the ovary, which enclose a maturing follicle, produce oestrogens. After ovulation the corpus luteum forms and produces **progesterone**. The corpus luteum is a transient endocrine structure which regresses with each oestrous cycle, but persists during gestation for a variable proportion of pregnancy. It is vital for maintenance of pregnancy.

The **interstitial cells**, within the connective tissue between the seminiferous tubules of the testes produce **androgens**. They are responsible for the maturation of spermatozoa and the development of the male genital organs.

The endocrine components of other organs are less distinct and include the renin-producing cell clusters of the kidney and the variety of enteroendocrine cells scattered within the gastrointestinal epithelia.

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16 Eye (organum visus)

H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

The eye, the organ of vision, consists of various parts, which are able to receive light stimuli from the environment, register the stimulus and convert it into an electrical signal, which is conveyed to the brain. The receptor neurons contain photosensitive molecules that are chemically transformed by light impulses and react with neural activity of surrounding cells. The resulting signal travels along neurone chains to reach cognitive centres in the brain, where the final image is formed.

Vision is based on a very complex system that involves all parts of the eye, including its accessory structures (adnexa), as well as various parts of the brain (see Chapter 14):

- eyeball: fibrous, vascular and inner layers of the eyeball (sclera, cornea, choroid, ciliary body, iris, retina),
- adnexa: ocular muscles, eyelids, lacrimal apparatus,
- optic nerve and
- visual area of the cerebral cortex.

Eyeball (bulbus oculi)

Shape and size of the eyeball

There is considerable **variation between species** in regard to the form and the size of the eyeball between species and individuals. It is roughly spherical in carnivores (20–24 mm in diameter), while in the horse, its width (50 mm) exceeds its height (42 mm) and length (45 mm). The eye of an ox is comparatively smaller than that of a comparably sized horse (40–43 cm). Corrected for body size, the cat has the largest eyeball, followed by the dog, the horse and the ox, with the pig having the smallest.

The **outline of the eyeball** is not evenly rounded, but displays a larger curvature in its posterior part than in its anterior part, where the cornea bulges forward. The division of the two segments is marked by a visible groove, the scleral groove (sulcus sclerae) (Fig. 16-1).

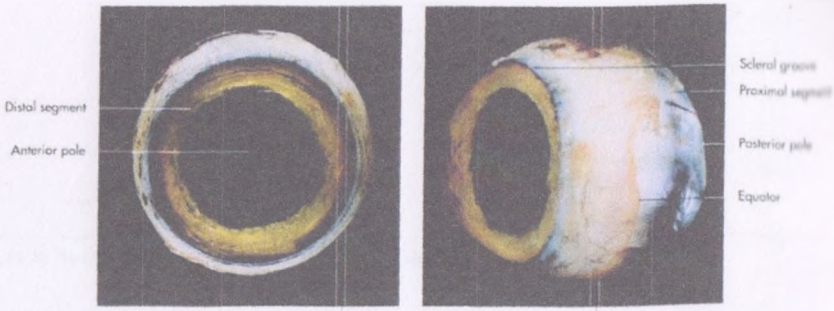


Fig. 16-1. Eyeball of a cat (left image anterior aspect and right image anterior-oblique aspect); König, 1992.

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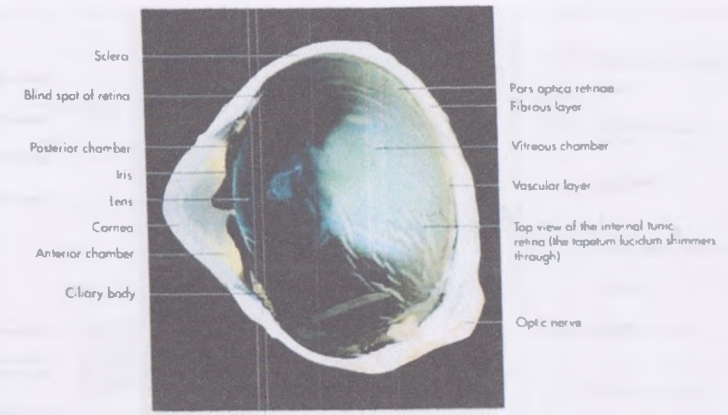


Fig. 16-2. Eyeball of an ox (vertical section, vitreous body removed)

Directional terms and planes of the eyeball

The **vertex of the cornea** is designated the **anterior pole** of the eye (polus anterior), and the point directly opposite to it is the **posterior pole** (polus posterior) (Fig. 16-1).

The line connecting the anterior and posterior poles and passing through the centre of the lens is the **external axis** of the eyeball (axis bulbi externus), also referred to as the **optic axis** (axis opticus). The **internal axis** of the eyeball (axis bulbi internus) extends from the posterior side of the cornea to the internal surface of the retina.

The **equator of the globe** has its maximum circumference located midway between the poles. Lines connecting the poles on the surface of the globe are called **meridians**. For descriptive purposes, main vertical and horizontal meridians are used to divide the globe into four quadrants.

The **optic axis forms** an angle of approximately 20° with the median plane in the cat, 30° to 50° in the dog, 10° to 40° in the ox and 90° in the horse. In general, predatory species have eyes set well forward, while hunted species carry their eyes more laterally. The lower the degree of divergence, the larger the field of **binocular vision**. In the horse the right and left fields of vision hardly overlap, so that it is able to constantly visualise a large segment of its surroundings, with only little binocular vision.

When referring to the eye, anterior (in front) and posterior (behind) are used to describe location instead of rostral and caudal, and temporal and nasal are used instead of lateral and medial.

Structure of the eyeball

The wall of the eyeball is formed by **three concentric layers** (tunicae), which enclose the interior of the eyeball, thus enclosing its other structures (Fig. 16-2, 3 and 5). The interior of the eyeball is divided into three chambers (camerae bulbi):

- **anterior chamber** (camera anterior) between the cornea and iris,
- **posterior chamber** (camera posterior) between iris, ciliary body and lens, and
- **vitreous chamber** (camera vitrea) behind the lens, surrounded by the retina.

The **layers of the eyeball** (Fig. 16-3) are the

- **fibrous layer of the eyeball** (tunica fibrosa bulbi): sclera and cornea,
- **vascular layer of the eyeball** (tunica vasculosa bulbi): choroid (choroidea), ciliary body (corpus ciliare) and iris, and
- **inner layer of the eyeball** (tunica interna bulbi): nonvisual retina (pars caeca retinae) and optic part of the retina (pars optica retinae).

Fibrous layer of eyeball (tunica fibrosa bulbi)

The fibrous outer layer is composed of very dense collagenous tissue, which is large responsible for the shape of the eye. It is composed of two parts: the opaque, whitish sclera, which encloses approximately the posterior three-quarters of the globe, and the transparent cornea, which covers the anterior part of the globe (Fig. 16-2 and 3). The two components meet at the corneoscleral junction, also referred to as the corneal limbus.

Sclera

The **substantia propria** of the sclera consists of a dense network of collagen fibres in parallel orientation. Some elastic fi-

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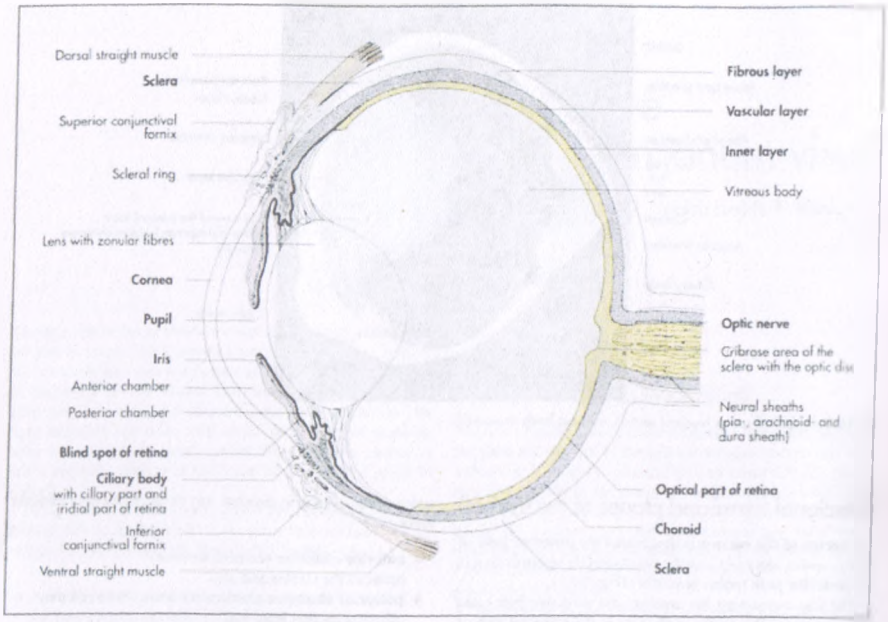


Fig. 16-3. Eyeball in section (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

bres are dispersed within this collagenous network, helping to resist the internal pressure of the eye as well as the considerable forces it is subjected to by the extraocular muscles (Fig. 16-3).

The sclera varies in **thickness**, being thinnest near to the equator (up to 0,5 mm) and gaining in thickness towards the posterior pole of the eye (up to 2 mm). Ventrotemporally the sclera has many fenestrations, through which the optic nerve and blood vessels pass (area cribrosa sclerae). The trabeculae of the cribrose area continue caudally as the connective tissue septae of the optic nerve.

At the **corneoscleral junction**, the inner surface of the sclera is marked by a **small ridge** (anulus sclerae), where the **ciliary muscle** attaches. The outer surface is marked by the **scleral groove** (sulcus sclerae), which is especially prominent in carnivores.

The **scleral venous plexus**, through which the **aqueous humour** drains, is located between these two structures and is important for the regulation of the **ocular pressure**. An impediment of the aqueous outflow leads to an increase in ocular pressure, and affected animals may develop **glaucoma**.

The sclera is covered by conjunctiva close to the corneoscleral junction, which reflects onto the surface of the globe as the bulbar conjunctiva.

Cornea

The cornea forms the anterior, **transparent segment** of the fibrous layer of the eyeball and bulges forward. Its proper substance consists of parallel fibres of **collagen** that are arranged in a lamellar form. The highest point of the cornea is called the **vertex**, its periphery, the **limbus**. The cornea of carnivores is rounded, while it is oval in ungulates, with an obtuse nasal canthus and an acute temporal canthus.

The cornea is composed of five layers:

- anterior epithelium (epithelium anterius),
- anterior limiting lamina or Bowman layer (lamina limitans anterior),
- substantia propria,
- posterior limiting lamina or Descemet membrane (lamina limitans posterior) and
- posterior epithelium (epithelium posterius) or endothelium of the anterior chamber (epithelium camerae anterioris).

The **anterior epithelium** consists of several layers of squamous cells and is continuous with the bulbar conjunctiva. Its outer surface is kept moist by the precorneal tear film, which provides protection to these cells. This precorneal film [illegible]

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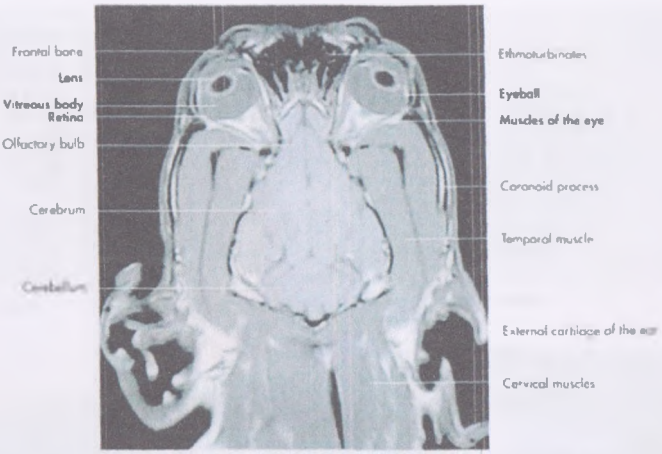


Fig. 16-4. Magnetic resonance tomography (MRT) of the head of a dog at the level of the eyes, courtesy Prof. Dr. Ulrike Matis, Munich

sists of serous, mucoid and fatty components. The anterior epithelium forms a barrier, that reduces water diffusion into the proper substance of the cornea (Fig. 16-6).

The **substantia propria** consists of collagen fibres, keratocytes, arranged in distinct lamellae, which are flattened between these lamellae, and a watery matrix. A dense network of non-myelinated, sensory and autonomic nerve fibres extends between the collagenous fibres. The cornea is normally avascular and is nourished by diffusion of molecules from the capillary loops at the corneoscleral junction, the precorneal tear film and the aqueous humour.

The **posterior limiting membrane** is the exaggerated basement membrane of the posterior epithelium. The posterior epithelium is composed of a simple squamous epithelium, which also constitutes the endothelium of the anterior chamber of the eye. It enhances the selective diffusion of water to maintain the transparency of the cornea and excretes proteins for the construction of the posterior limiting layer of the cornea.

Vascular layer of eyeball (tunica vasculosa seu media bulbi, uvea)

The vascular layer of the eyeball is interposed between the sclera and the retina. It is composed of connective tissue, which contains pigment cells, elastic fibres, a nervous plexus and a dense network of blood vessels. The vascular layer consists of three parts:

- choroid (choroidea),
- ciliary body (corpus ciliare),
- iris.

This layer has numerous functions: blood supply, suspension and regulation of the shape of the lens, regulation of the size of the pupil, and production of the aqueous humour.

Choroid (choroidea, uvea)

The choroid is a pigmented, highly vascular layer that envelops the posterior part of the eyeball (Fig. 16-24).

It is further divided into layers, which are from the **outermost layer** inwards:

- suprachoroid layer (lamina suprachoroidea),
- vascular layer (lamina vasculosa),
- choroidocapillary layer (lamina choroidocapillaris) and
- basal lamina (lamina vitrea).

The **suprachoroid layer** is a network of delicate fibrils with pigment cells embedded within, which forms a loose connection between the choroid and the sclera.

The **vascular layer** is the thickest part of the choroid and consists of pigmented, lamellar connective tissue. Blood vessels pass within this layer providing vascular support for the inner neuronal layers of the retina. These vessels are the **ciliary arteries** and the **vorticose veins** (aa. ciliares, vv. vorticosae). These send branches into the **choroidocapillary layer**, where they form the inner capillary bed of the choroidea. The dense capillary network of the choroidocapillary layer is responsible for the nutrition of the outer layers of the retina.

Dorsal to the optic papillae is a half-moon-shaped area that has an additional reflective layer between the vascular and the choroidocapillary layer, the **tapetum lucidum** (Fig. 16-20 and 22ff.).

The tapetum lucidum is present in all domestic mammals other than the pig. It is **cellular in carnivores** (tapetum cellulosum) and **fibrous in herbivores** (tapetum fibrosum). The retina underlying the tapetum is usually **pigment-free**.

The **tapetal cells** contain crystalline rods (zinc and cysteine), which are highly reflective, resulting in multiplication

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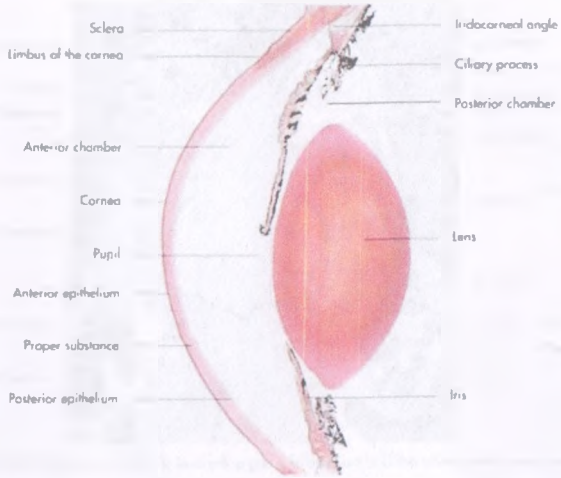


Fig. 16-5. Histological section of the anterior part of the eye of a cat.

of the light stimulus to the light-sensitive receptor cells of the retina. Thus, the tapetum lucidum aids vision during dawn and night. It has a distinctive colour in the different species and breeds (yellow in the cat, green in the dog, blue-green in the ox and horse) and accounts for the iridescent appearance of an animal's eye.

Ciliary body (corpus ciliare)

The ciliary body is the thickened middle segment of the vascular tunic, between the choroid and the iris (Fig. 16-18). This is an elevated ring from which ridges, the **ciliary processes** (processus ciliares), radiate towards the lens in the centre. Zonular fibres extend from the ciliary processes to the equator of the lens to suspend it around its periphery. The ciliary body is in contact with the vitreous body and forms the lateral borders of the posterior chamber. Its outer surface is covered by the sclera, its inner surface, by the **non-visual part of the retina** (pars caeca retinae).

The ciliary body can be subdivided into the

- ciliary ring (orbiculus ciliaris, pars plana),
- crown of ciliary body (corona ciliaris, pars plicata),
- post- and prelenticular parts.

The **ciliary ring** (orbiculus ciliaris) constitutes the posterior portion of the ciliary body that is relatively flat, with the exception of a few fine **radiating folds** (plicae ciliares). It is covered by fibres of the ciliary zonule. The boundary between the pars ciliaris retinae and the pars optica retinae is demarcated by a slightly undulating line, the **ora serrata**. The boundary towards the corona ciliaris is indistinct (Fig. 16-12, 14 and 15).

The **corona ciliaris** is the more prominent anterior portion that contains the **ciliary processes** (Fig. 16-12, 14 and 15). The **ciliary body** is elevated into numerous small, flat, parallel processes, which increase rapidly in height to form tall, thin folds. These lose their outer attachment to the sclera and extend from the base of the ciliary body centrally towards the lens as the ciliary processes. There are approximately 70 – 80 ciliary processes in the dog and more than 100 in the ox and horse.

The **lens** is fixed in position by the **ciliary zonule** (zonula ciliaris), a delicate suspensory apparatus, which is composed of a highly ordered array of zonular fibres. The zonule lies posterior to the iris and ciliary body and separates the posterior

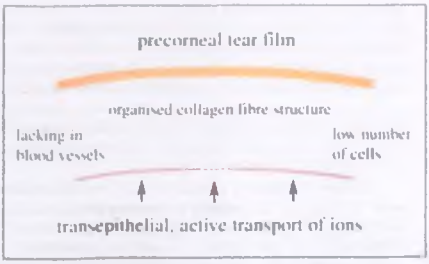


Fig. 16-6. Schematic illustration of the structural and physiological factors, that account for the transparency of the cornea.

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Fig. 16-7. Right eye of a cat.



Fig. 16-8. Left eye of a dog.

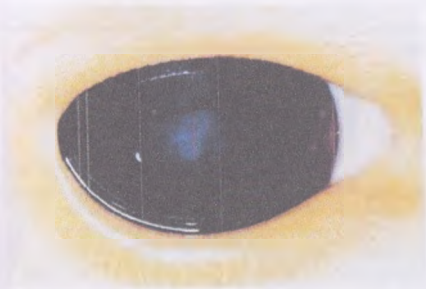


Fig. 16-9. Right eye of an ox.



Fig. 16-10. Left eye of a horse.

chamber from the vitreous body. These fibres anchor the lens to the postlenticular part of the ciliary body, while no zonular fibres insert to the short prelenticular part (Fig. 16-11 and 18). The ciliary processes of the prelenticular part show plump folds on their surface (Fig. 16-19).

The **ciliary epithelium** produces the aqueous humour, which is secreted into the posterior chamber. It flows into the anterior chamber through the pupil and drains through the venous plexus of the sclera at the iridocorneal angle (Fig. 16-11).

The **ciliary body** forms a symmetrical ring in carnivores, but is asymmetrical in ruminants and the horse, in which the visual part of the retina extends further forward. Elastic fibres, pigment cells, blood vessels and the ciliary muscle fibres are embedded in the connective tissue of the ciliary body.

The **ciliary muscle** (m. ciliaris) is a smooth muscle, which enables the lens to change its shape to focus on near or distant objects (**accommodation**). It is comparably weak in the horse, but stronger in carnivores. It receives **parasympathetic innervation** from the **ciliary ganglion** and sympathetic innervation. Parasympathetic innervation causes the ciliary muscle to contract, thus the lens becomes more rounded and focuses on near objects. **Sympathetic impulses** cause relaxation of the ciliary muscle, flattening of the lens and permit focussing on distant objects.

Iris

The iris is the continuation of the ciliary body and constitutes the most anterior part of the vascular layer. It is a thin ring of highly vascular tissue that rests against the anterior surface of the lens. The **free margin of the iris** (margo pupillaris) borders the **pupil**, through which light enters the posterior part of the eye. The **periphery of the iris** (margo ciliaris) is continuous with the ciliary body and the iridocorneal angle. The iris separates the space between cornea and lens into **anterior** (camera anterior bulbi) and **posterior chambers** (camera posterior) of the eye, which communicate through the pupil (Fig. 16-2 and 11).

The **anterior surface of the iris** is covered by a discontinuous layer of epithelial cells. The underlying stroma consists of delicate bundles of collagen fibres with blood vessels, smooth muscle fibres, pigmented cells and nerve fibres.

The **collagen fibres** are able to adapt to the **dilatation** (mydriasis) or **constriction** (miosis) of the pupil. There is a dense network of blood **vessels within the stroma** (circulus arteriosus iridis major et minor) that fulfil nutritive as well as stabilising functions. Basket-like networks of collagen fibres are formed around the blood vessels to protect microcirculation during contraction or dilatation of the pupil. The **stroma**

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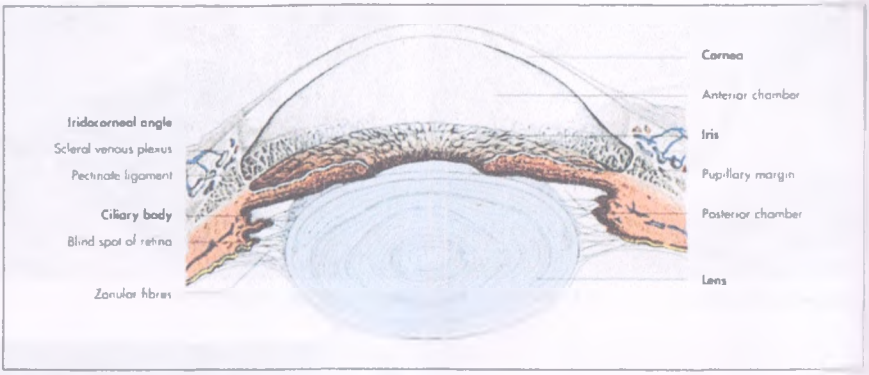


Fig. 16-11. Anterior part of the eye in section (schematic). Liebich, 2004

contains **two smooth muscles**, the sphincter and dilator of the pupil, which regulate the size of the pupil and consequently the amount of light that reaches the retina. The **sphincter muscle** (m. sphincter pupillae) consists of circular smooth muscle fibres near the pupillary margin of the iris. In animals with an oval pupil (cat, sheep, ox) the muscle is enforced by additional fibres, which have a grid-like arrangement and result in a horizontal or vertical slit-like pupil during miosis (Fig. 16-7ff. and 14ff.). The sphincter muscle receives **parasympathetic innervation**.

The **dilator of the pupil** (m. dilatator pupillae) is composed of radially arranged muscle fibres, forming a meshwork that fills the posterior part of the iris almost completely. It is derived from the neuroepithelium of the pars iridica retinae. The dilator muscle is innervated by sympathetic fibres.

The **pigmented cells of the iris** contain **melanin**, which protects the retina from intense light. The number and size of the pigments determines the **colour of the eye** which is genetically determined by several codominant genes. If the collagen fibres are densely packed and there is a paucity of pigmented cells within the iris stroma, the eye appears to be blue or grey (pig and goat). If there are many pigmented cells within a thin network of collagen fibres, the iris is coloured dark brown (ox, horse). Fewer pigmented cells result in a lighter, yellow colour of the iris (dog, pig, small ruminants). In albinos, the iris is completely devoid of pigment. Their eyes appear red, due to the blood supply in this area, which is not obscured by pigment (Fig. 16-7ff., 16 and 17).

The **posterior surface of the iris** (facies posterior) is lined by the pigmented inner layer of the iridial retina and the **pigmented epithelium** (epithelium pigmentosum). The upper and lower pupillary margins of the iris of ruminants and horses show irregular outgrowths that contain coils of capillaries, the **granula iridica** (corpora nigrans). In small ruminants and in the horse the granula iridica may enclose cystic structures. It is hypothesised that the granula iridica secrete aqueous humour.

Innervation of the iris and of the ciliary body

Muscles and vessels of the iris and the ciliary body receive **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic fibres** from the ciliary ganglion, with the **short ciliary nerves** (nn. ciliares breves). The **postganglionic sympathetic** fibres supply the dilator pupillae muscle, the blood vessels of the iris and the ciliary processes. The parasympathetic fibres arise from the **oculomotor nerve** and supply the sphincter pupillae muscle and the ciliary muscle, forming a reflex arc.

Drugs with a parasympathetic or cholinergic action, such as **pilocarpine** or **carbachol**, stimulate the constriction of the pupil and contraction of the ciliary muscle. Parasympathetic action on the eye can be blocked by topical administration of natural alkaloids, such as atropine and hyoscine, resulting in passive mydriasis and paralysis of accommodation. Sympathetic action can be induced by **phenylephrine** and **adrenaline**.

Inner layer of the eyeball (tunica interna bulbi, retina)

The inner layer of the eyeball is the retina. It develops from an outgrowth of the diencephalon, the optic vesicle, to which it remains connected by the optic nerve. The optic nerve, therefore, is actually a tract of the central nervous system. Further details on the embryological development of the eye can be found in standard embryology textbooks.

The retina can be divided into the following parts:

- non-visual retina (pars caeca retinae),
  - ciliary part of the retina (pars ciliaris retinae),
  - iridial part of the retina (pars iridica retinae) and
- optic part of the retina (pars optica retinae).

The **nonvisual part of the retina** lines the anterior part of the eye and covers the posterior surface of the iris. It consists of an inner and outer epithelium that are both single-layered

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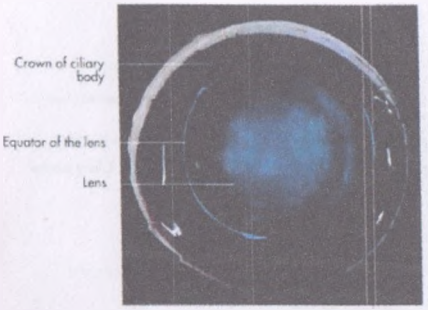


Fig. 16-12. Posterior aspect of the eye of a cat, showing ciliary body and lens (equatorial section)

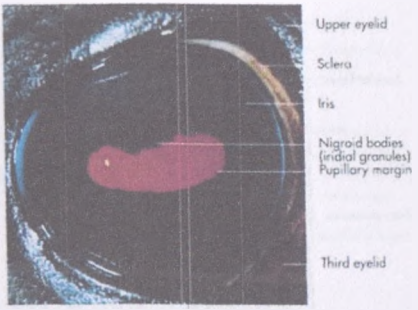


Fig. 16-13. Anterior aspect of the eye of a horse, showing iris, pupil and iridial granules, courtesy of Prof. Dr. H. Gerhards, Munich

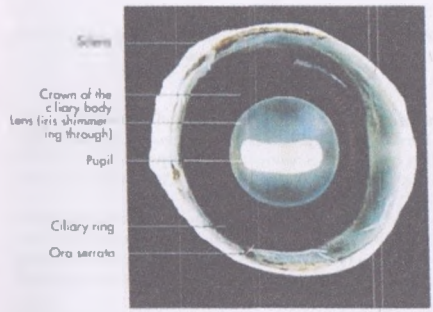


Fig. 16-14. Posterior aspect of the eye of an ox, showing ciliary body and lens (equatorial section), mydriasis.

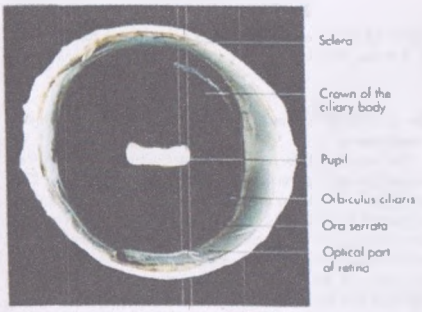


Fig. 16-15. Posterior aspect of the eye of an ox, showing ciliary body, lens removed (equatorial section), miosis

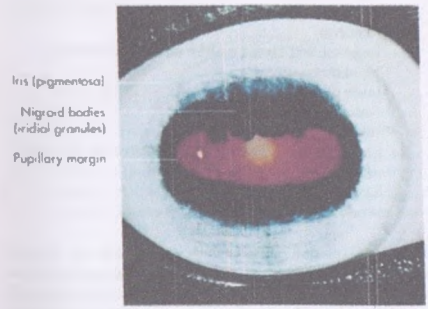


Fig. 16-16. Anterior aspect of the eye of a horse, showing iris, pupil and iridial granules, courtesy of Prof. Dr. H. Gerhards, Munich

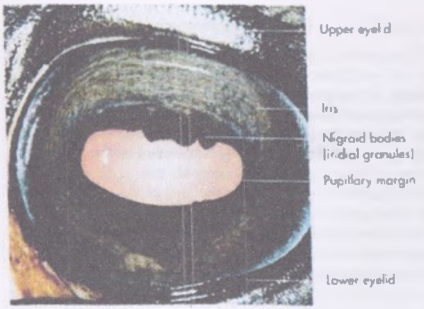


Fig. 16-17. Anterior aspect of the eye of a horse with heterochromia of the iris, showing iris, pupil and iridial granules, courtesy of Prof. Dr. H. Gerhards, Munich

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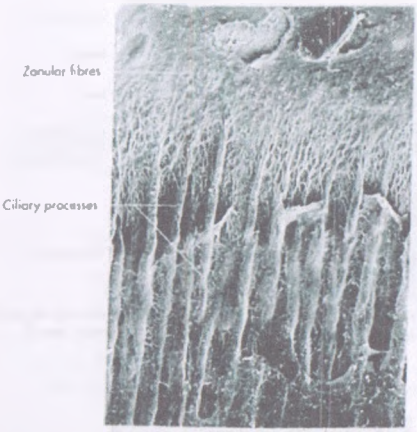


Fig. 16-18. SEM image of the ciliary corona of an ox, courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich



Fig. 16-19. SEM image of the prelenticular ciliary processes of an ox, courtesy of PD Dr. S. Reese, Munich

The **outer layer** is heavily **pigmented**, while the **inner layer** is **unpigmented**.

The **ora serrata** is the demarcation between the **non-visual** and the **optic parts of the retina** (Fig. 16-14 and 15). The optic part lies posterior to the ora serrata and lines the posterior part of the eye. It is responsible for the transduction of photic energy into chemical energy and finally into electrical impulses that are transmitted along the optic nerve to the visual centres of the brain. It is considerably thicker than the nonvisual part and consists of the

- outer pigmented layer (stratum pigmentosum),
- inner neural layer (stratum nervosum), including photoreceptor and synapsing layers.

Pigmented layer (stratum pigmentosum retinae)

The pigmented layer develops from the outer wall of the optic cup and forms the **outermost layer of the retina**, immediately adjacent to the choroid. It consists of a single layered, cuboidal epithelium that is heavily pigmented and surrounds the photoreceptor cells (**rods** and **cones**). Light passing through the photoreceptor cells is absorbed by the pigmented layers of the retina and the choroid, thus reducing scatter, thereby enhancing contrast. In the area of the tapetum lucidum, the pigmented layer of the retina **lacks pigment** (Fig. 16-24) and the light is reflected back through the photoreceptor layer. This is thought to be an adaptation for improved vision in low levels of illumination.

Neural layer (stratum nervosum retinae)

The neural layer of the retina develops from the **inner wall of the optic cup** and includes **photoreceptors**, **interneurons**, **ganglion cells** and **associated stromal cells** (Müller cells). The Müller cells are **glial cells** that provide nutritional support for the retinal neurons. Their extensions form inner and outer membranes between neurons. (For a more detailed description see histology textbooks.)

The **retinal neurons** form chains of three successively interconnected neurons that can be easily distinguished histologically (Fig. 16-24). The following layers can be distinguished within the neural layer of the retina from the outside to the inside:

- **1st neuron**
  - neuroepithelial layer (stratum neuroepitheliale): rods and cones,
  - outer nuclear layer (stratum nucleare externum),
  - outer plexiform layer (stratum plexiforme externum).
- **2nd neuron**
  - inner nuclear layer (stratum nucleare internum): bipolar neurons,
  - inner plexiform layer (stratum plexiforme internum).
- **3rd neuron**
  - ganglionic layer (stratum ganglionare): multipolar neurons, and
  - layer of nerve fibres (stratum neurofibrarum).

The **photosensitive receptor cells** of the retina are the rods and cones. The **rods** are highly sensitive receptors for **black and white** (night), while the **cones** are concerned with **colour vision** (day). The photoreceptor segments of the rods and cones are situated outward, adjacent to the pigmented epithelium. The **rods** contain membranous discs filled with **rhodopsin**, which is responsible for the transduction of light energy to

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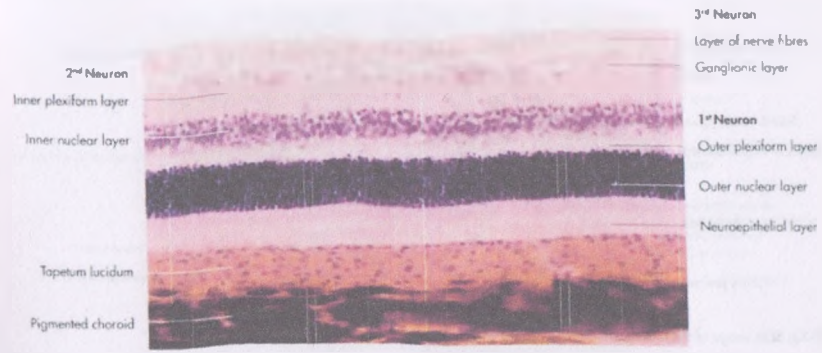


Fig. 16-24. Histological section of the optic part of the retina of a horse from the area of the tapetum lucidum. Liebich, 2004

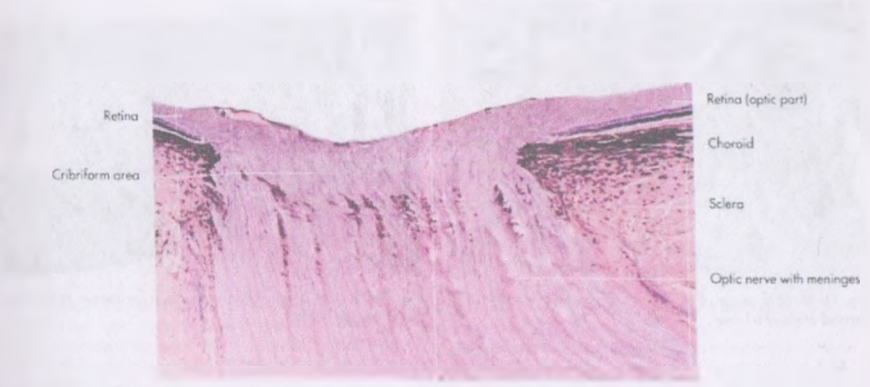


Fig. 16-25. The optic disc of a goat. Liebich, 2004

Central area of the retina (area centralis retinae)

Located a short distance dorsotemporal to the optic disc is an area of maximum optical resolution, the macula. In humans it has a distinct yellow colour, which is not present in animals. In this area the number of photoreceptor and neural cells is increased and in humans it consists predominantly of cones.

Central striateform area of the retina (area centralis striaeformis retinae)

The retina of the horse, the pig and ruminants shows strip-shaped areas of lighter colour dorsal to the optic disc. These areas include a high number of cones and neural cells. It is hypothesised that they play an important role in the recognition of movement. The part of the retina and all associated structures that can be visualised with the ophthalmoscope are referred to as the ocular fundus.

Nutrition of the retina

The photoreceptor cells of the retina are nourished by **diffusion** from the capillary network of the choroid. To diffuse to the photoreceptor cells the molecules must pass through the pigmented layer. The outer membrane of the **Müller cells** form a diffusion barrier towards the inner layers of the retina.

In cases of retinal detachment the retina usually separates along the line of the embryonic intraretinal space between the pigment epithelium and the neural layers of the retina. Thereby

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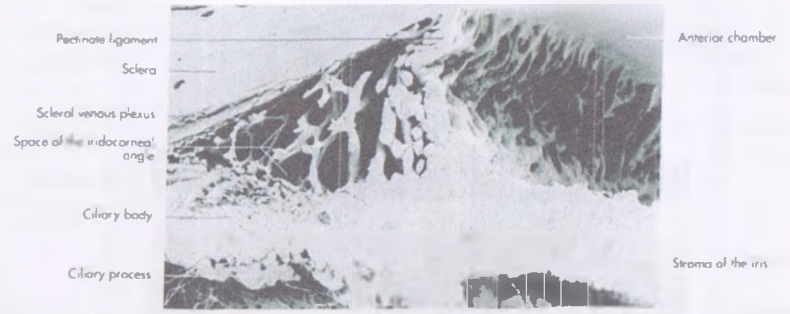


Fig. 16-33. SEM image of the iridocorneal angle of a horse.

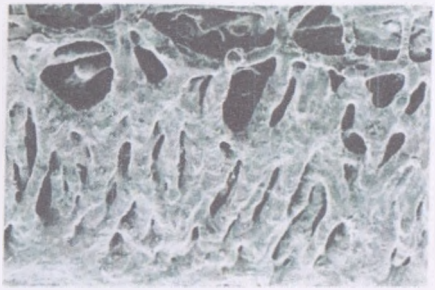


Fig. 16-34. SEM image of the ligamentum pectinatum at the iridocorneal angle of a horse.



Fig. 16-35. SEM image of the ligamentum pectinatum at the iridocorneal angle of a cat.

body. The retina encloses the remainder (Fig. 16-2). The vitreous chamber is occupied by the vitreous body, a soft, clear gel, that conforms to the shape of its surroundings. It is mainly composed of the **vitreous humour**, a solution of mucopolysaccharides rich in hylaruronic acid (99% water, 1% solids). It is almost acellular, except for a few hyalocytes that produce protein fibres. These fibres reinforce the structure of the vitreous body and are essential to its gel characteristics. The cells are especially numerous towards the surface, where they condense to form the **membrana vitrea**. However, they do not provide sufficient rigidity to maintain the shape of the vitreous body after its removal from the eye.

The **hyaloid canal** (canalis hyaloideus) traverses the vitreous body from the posterior surface of the lens to the optic disc. It is the remnant of the **hyaloid artery**, a branch of the retinal arteries, which supply the lens during embryological development. This artery usually degenerates after birth, and the lens is then nourished by diffusion. The hyaloid canal is present in the ox, pig and carnivores. While in the ox, sheep and pig the vitreous body is a relatively dense structure, in the horse it has a low optic density, and in carnivores it has a dense core, but a low density in the periphery.

The eye is considered to consist of **several optical surfaces**, which together accurately focus images onto the retina. The optical components through which the light travels to reach the retina are the cornea, aqueous humor, lens and vitreous body. For proper image formation, these components must remain transparent.

The **refractive power** of an optical component is determined by its **refractive index**, **thickness** and **surface curvature**. Refractive power is largely influenced by the difference in refractive indices between it and the surrounding media. This difference is greatest at the air-cornea interface; the cornea is thus the most powerful refractive component of the eye. While the lens has the highest refractive index, it is surrounded by media with similar indices. The lens is the only refractive component that is capable of changing its refractive index.

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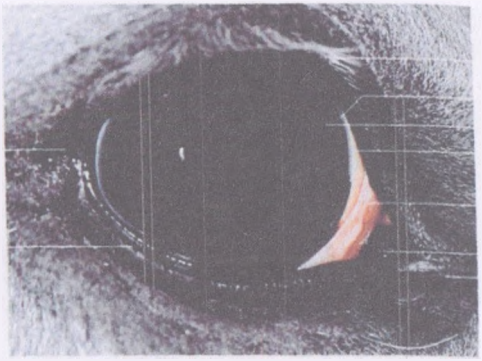


Fig. 16-37. Right eye with eyelids of a horse, courtesy of Prof. Dr. H. Gerhards, Munich.

The **ventral oblique muscle** (m. obliquus ventralis) of the eyeball arises from a small depression (foramen muscularis) in the palatine bone. It courses dorsolaterally to insert on the temporal aspect of the eyeball below the insertion of the lateral rectus muscle.

The **dorsal oblique muscle** (m. obliquus dorsalis) arises close to the ethmoidal foramen and runs anteriorly between the dorsal and medial rectus muscles. It is deflected around the trochlea to insert on the dorsotemporal surface of the eyeball deep to the insertion of the dorsal rectus muscle. The trochlea is a small, oval plate of hyaline cartilage in the periorbita that is firmly attached to medial orbital wall by ligaments.

The **retractor muscle of the eyeball** (m. retractor bulbi) arises close to the optic foramen and forms a nearly complete muscular cone around the optic nerve. It inserts posterior to the equator with numerous broad and thin fascicles. It is not present in man.

The **extrinsic muscles** of the eyeball rotate the globe around three perpendicular axes. The complex movements of the eye require the fine coordination of all of these muscles and they never act alone. Principally, the dorsal and ventral straight muscles rotate the globe around a medial to lateral axis, the medial and lateral straight muscles around a dorsoventral axis and the oblique muscles rotate the eyeball around the axis of the eyeball. In addition the eyeball can be retracted into the orbit along the optic axis by the retractor muscle of the eyeball.

The **extrinsic muscles** of the eyeball are mainly innervated by the **oculomotor nerve (III)**, with the exception of the dorsal oblique muscle, which is innervated by the trochlear (IV) nerve and the lateral straight and the lateral parts of the retractor muscle of the eyeball, which are innervated by the abducent nerve (VI).

Eyelids (palpebrae)

The eyelids are musculofibrous folds that can be drawn over the anterior surface of the eyeball to occlude light, protect the cornea and assist in keeping the cornea moist.

There are three eyelids in the domestic mammals: the **upper lid** (palpebra superior), **lower lid** (palpebra inferior) and the **third eyelid** (palpebra tertia, membrana nictitans) (Fig. 16-37 and 38).

The opening between the upper and lower **lids** (rima palpebralis) is variable in size and is controlled by the palpebral muscles. The **free margins** (margo palpebrae) of the upper and lower lid meet at the **nasal** and **temporal angles** (canthi) of the eye (angulus oculi temporalis et nasalis).

A mucosal prominence, the **lacrimal caruncle** (caruncula lacrimalis), is present in the nasal angle of the eye (Fig. 16-40). Small fine hairs project from the caruncle and, in the dog, a pea-sized lacrimal gland lies beneath it. The lacrimal puncta, through which the tear film drains, open onto the lid margins close to the nasal angle.

The eyelids consist of three layers: **skin**, a **middle musculofibrous layer** and the **mucous membrane** (the palpebral conjunctiva). The skin of the face continues onto the **anterior surface of the lids** (facies anterior palpebrarum) with little alteration. It is covered with hairs and includes glandular structures. Long hairs (cilia) project from the upper lid margins. The eyelids contain **several glands**.

Sebaceous glands open into the follicles of the cilia. **Ciliary glands** are coiled, tubular, apocrine sweat glands that secrete into hair follicles, whilst sebaceous glands secrete directly onto the lid margin. **Tarsal glands** are specially modified sebaceous glands that are present in both eyelids and produce the oily superficial layer of the tear film (Fig. 16-6).

The **middle layer of the eyelid** is formed by the fibres of the lid fascia and the orbicular muscle of the eyeball. The orbicular muscle of the eyeball is a striated muscle, the fibres of

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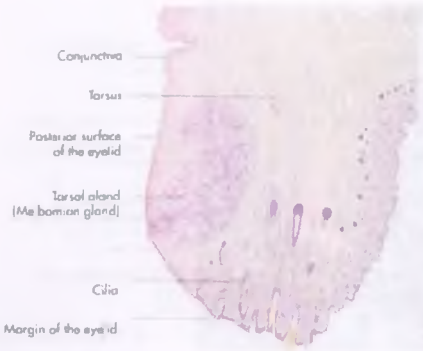


Fig. 16-38. Histological section of the upper eyelid of a calf.



Fig. 16-39. Histological section of the third eyelid of a horse.

which radiate into the eyelids, where they form a circular arrangement and join the tarsal plate and the smooth tarsal muscle of the upper lid. Toward the free margin these structures are succeeded by the tarsal plate, a fibrous condensation that stabilises the free margin of the lid. The levator muscle of the upper eyelid (m. levator palpebrae superioris), innervated from the oculomotor nerve (III), extends from the ethmoidal foramen to the upper lid of the eye.

The **posterior surface of the eyelids** are lined by a mucous membrane, the **palpebral conjunctiva**. At the level of the orbital rim the conjunctiva reflects onto the surface of the globe to become the **bulbar conjunctiva**. The point of reflection is the **conjunctival fornix**. Multiple small folds are formed in the fornix when the eye is open. The **conjunctival sac** is the potential space between the lower lid and the eyeball that normally contains mucus and tears. The conjunctiva consists of a stratified epithelium with goblet cells in its palpebral part. It overlies a loose connective tissue stroma that is rich in lymphatic tissue. The bulbar conjunctiva is thin and continuous with the anterior epithelium of the cornea.

The **third eyelid** (palpebra tertia, membrana nictitans) or **semilunar fold of the conjunctiva** (plica semilunaris conjunctivae) is a dorsoventrally orientated conjunctival fold, that extends from the nasal canthus between the lacrimal caruncle and the eyeball (Fig. 16-39). It is supported by a T-shaped piece of cartilage, which consists of elastic cartilage in the horse, pig and the cat, and of hyaline cartilage in the dog and in ruminants. Numerous **lymphatic nodules** (noduli lymphatici conjunctivales) are found within the third eyelid, which are enlarged in chronically infected eyes and may cause further irritation.

The base of the cartilage is surrounded by the **superficial gland of the third eyelid** (glandula palpebrae tertiae superficialis). It is a mixed seromucous gland in the ox, sheep and dog, serous in the cat and horse and mucoid in the pig. It contributes considerably to the production of the precorneal tear film. Pigs also have a **second, deeper gland** (glandula palpebrae tertiae profunda).

Lacrimal apparatus (apparatus lacrimalis)

The precorneal tear film protects the eye by washing away foreign material and is essential in maintaining the transparency of the cornea. Insufficient tear production results in opacification.

The **tear film** (Fig. 16-6) consists of a superficial, oily layer, a central aqueous layer and a thin glycoprotein layer covering the cornea. The superficial oily layer is produced by the tarsal glands and provides lubrication, prevents overflow of tears from the lid margin and retards evaporation of the underlying aqueous layer. The aqueous layer is the major component of the tear film and is produced by the lacrimal gland and the gland of the third eyelid. It moistens and nourishes the cornea. The innermost layer is produced by the goblet cells of the conjunctival epithelium and assists in adherence of the precorneal film to the corneal surface.

The lacrimal apparatus includes the structures that are responsible for the production, dispersal and disposal of the tears (Fig. 16-40).

- lacrimal gland (glandula lacrimalis),
- glands of the third eyelid (glandulae palpebrae tertiae),
- lacrimal canaliculi (canaliculi lacrimales),
- lacrimal sac (saccus lacrimalis) and
- nasolacrimal duct (ductus nasolacrimalis).

The **lacrimal gland** is a tubulo-alveolar gland that is situated between the eyeball and the dorsotemporal wall of the orbit. Its secretion is serous in all domestic mammals other than the pig, in which it is mucoid. In carnivores, it lies beneath the orbital ligament, whereas in the horse it occupies the lacrimal fossa.

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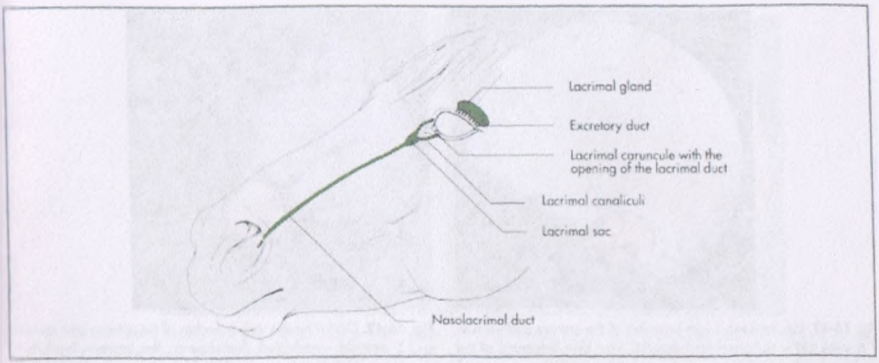


Fig. 16-40. The lacrimal apparatus of the horse (schematic).

Its secretion is drained by many **minute ducts** (ductuli excretorii) that open at the dorsotemporal margin of the upper lid into the conjunctival sac (Fig. 16-40). Blinking movements distribute the tear fluid over the anterior surface of the eye.

The drainage of lacrimal secretions begins with the **lacrimal puncta** (puncta lacrimalia), small slits located close to the lacrimal caruncle at the nasal angle of the eye. Each lacrimal punctum leads to a short narrow canaliculus, which opens in the dilatated lacrimal sac. The lacrimal sac marks the beginning of the nasolacrimal duct, which occupies a funnel-shaped fossa within the lacrimal bone. The walls of the lacrimal sac contain large amounts of lymphoreticular tissue.

The **nasolacrimal duct** is a soft tissue tube that passes through the lacrimal bone and the maxilla. Rostrally it emerges from its bony canal and continues deep to the nasal mucosa on the nasal aspect of the maxilla. It ends by opening into the **nares**.

Lacrimal drainage varies among the species and between individuals. In the dog the lacrimal puncta are relatively large and are easily cannulated. Rostrally the nasolacrimal duct passes medial to the ventral lateral nasal cartilage and ends by opening onto the ventrolateral floor of the nasal vestibule below the alar fold. The rostral opening cannot be visualised without a speculum. In about a third of dogs, the duct opens in the ventral nasal meatus.

In the horse the **lacrimal puncta** are relatively small. The lacrimal sac lies beneath the **lacrimal caruncle**, covered by the palpebral portion of the orbicularis oculi muscle. The nasolacrimal duct passes rostrally within the lacrimal sulcus of the maxilla to the infraorbital foramen. Its narrow middle part continues in the mucosa of the middle nasal meatus. The nasolacrimal duct opens on the floor of the **nares**, near the **mucocutaneous junction**. Occasionally the duct has more than one opening and blind-ending openings may be present in some horses. The nasal opening can be conveniently used for examining and flushing the duct.

Blood supply and innervation

Blood vessels of the eye

The principal blood supply to the eyeball is provided by the **external ophthalmic artery** (a. ophthalmica externa), a branch of the **maxillary artery**.

The external ophthalmic artery enters the eyeball at the area cribrosa, where it detaches the short **posterior ciliary arteries** (aa. ciliares posteriores breves). These vessels form the vascular circle of the optic nerve. The central retinal artery, consistently forming in human being, does not exist in domestic mammals. They also form the episcleral blood vessels and the **long posterior ciliary arteries** (aa. ciliares posteriores longae), which pass through the sclera near the equator to join the corresponding vein in forming an elaborate plexus within the choroid. These are complemented anteriorly by the **anterior ciliary arteries** (aa. ciliares anteriores), which penetrate the sclera near the limbus and supply the anterior portion of the choroid, the ciliary body and the iris. These arteries anastomose to form the **major vascular circle** of the iris, from which numerous branches pass to the anterior structures of the eyeball, including **posterior and anterior conjunctival branches** (aa. conjunctivales posteriores and anteriores) to the conjunctiva.

Veins are in general parallel to the arteries. Venous return from the choroid is achieved by the four **vorticose veins** (vv. vorticosae) that drain into the **external ophthalmic vein**. The scleral venous plexus, through which the aqueous humor drains, opens into the anterior ciliary veins (vv. ciliares anteriores). **Arterioles** and **venules** emerge from the optic disc and spread out in various patterns to nourish and drain the retina. For clinical purposes it is important to know that the blood vessels of the optic fundus are characteristic for each species and change with advancing age in the individual.

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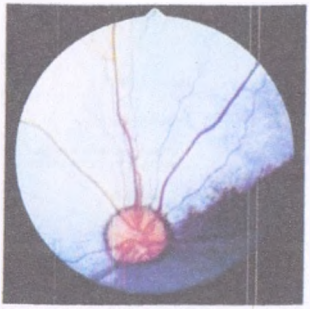


Fig. 16-41. Ocular fundus with branches of the arteries and veins in a 6-week-old wire-haired dachshound. Azur blue lightening of the tapetum lucidum and venous arch around the optic disc; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Köstlin, Munich.

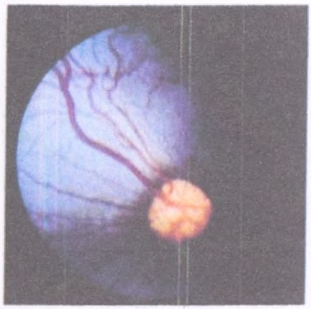


Fig. 16-42. Ocular fundus with branches of the arteries and veins in a 3.5 year old wire-haired dachshound. The tapetum lucidum is poorly pigmented and appears light blue, the surrounding area is heavily pigmented and dark blue. The venous trunks arch around the optic disc; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Köstlin, Munich.

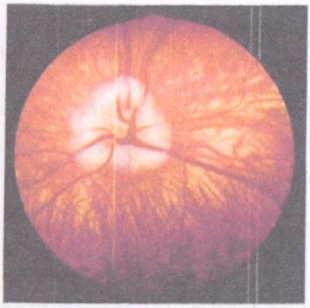


Fig. 16-43. Ocular fundus with branches of the arteries and veins in a husky with a pigment defect; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Köstlin, Munich.

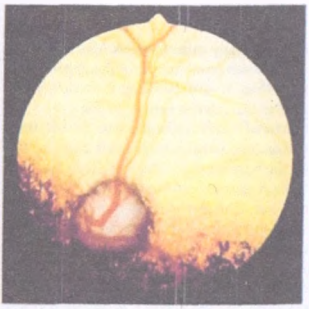


Fig. 16-44. Ocular fundus with branches of the arteries and veins in a toy poodle. The tapetum lucidum is extensive and the pigmented area forms a ring around the optic disc; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Köstlin, Munich.

Innervation of the eye and its adnexa

The eye and its adnexa are innervated by cranial nerves II, III, IV, V, VI and VII (see Chapter 14, "Nervous System").

The optic nerve (n. opticus) or cranial nerve II is a central nervous system tract which is sensory only and is concerned with vision.

The **oculomotor** (n. oculomotorius, III), the **trochlear** (n. trochlearis, IV) and the **abducent nerve** (n. abducens, VI) control movement of the eyeball by innervating its extrinsic muscles. The **facial nerve** (n. facialis, VII) is motor to the orbicularis oculi muscle and also provides parasympathetic fibres for the petrosus major nerve that innervates the lacrimal glands.

The eye is richly supplied by branches of the **trigeminal nerve** (n. trigeminus, V). The **ophthalmic** nerve is the principal sensory innervation of the eye and orbit. The **frontal nerve** innervates the upper eyelid; the **lacrimal** nerve, the skin and conjunctiva at the temporal canthus; the **infratrochlear** nerve, the nasal canthus of the eye, and the **nasociliary nerve** the cornea and the choroid. The **zygomatic branch** of the maxillary nerve is sensor to the lower eyelid. The branches of the trigeminal nerve are responsible for the afferent pathways of the corneal and palpebral reflexes.

Parasympathetic presynaptic nerve fibres innervate the **ciliary ganglion** with the oculomotor nerve. There they synapse, and their postsynaptic fibres form the **short ciliary nerves** (nn. ciliares breves). They also receive **sympathetic** and **sensory fibres** and are responsible for the autonomic regulation of the pupillary reflex and accommodation of the lens. Parasympathetic stimulus causes contraction of the pupillary sphincter muscle; sympathetic stimulus, contraction of the pupillary dilator muscle.

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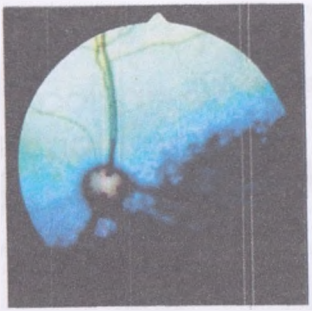


Fig. 16-45. Ocular fundus of a juvenile cat with strongly reflecting tapetum lucidum, dense fundus and distinct optical disc; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Kostlin, Munich.



Fig. 16-46. Ocular fundus of a one-year-old cat with pigment defect, showing a transparent sklera; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Kostlin, Munich.

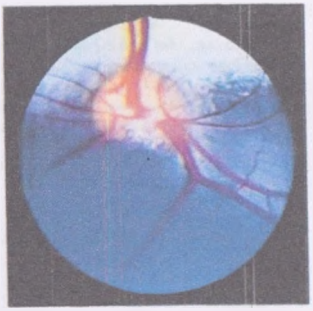


Fig. 16-47. Ocular fundus of a Merino sheep; courtesy of Prof. Dr. R. Kostlin, Munich).

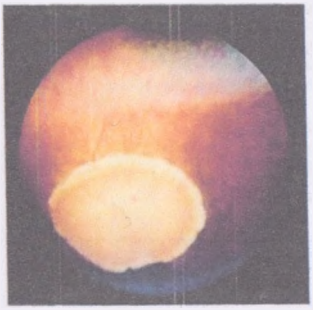


Abb. 16-48. Ocular fundus of a horse with distinc optic disc and normal fundus albinism; courtesy of Prof. Dr. H. Gerhards, Munich.

Visual pathways and optic reflexes

The visual pathways comprise **central** and **peripheral segments**. The peripheral part includes the retinal neurons, the optic nerve, the optic chiasm, the optic tracts, the thalamus and the lateral geniculate bodies. The **central part** consists of the optic radiation, the rostral colliculi, the geniculo-occipital tract and the optic area of the cerebral cortex.

The retina contains the **receptors for visual information**. The received information is then conveyed to the brain by the **optic nerve**. The optic nerve of each eye converge to meet in the optic chiasm on the ventral surface of the brain, where part of the **fibres decussate** (Fig. 14-29).

The proportion of fibres that are exchanged with the opposing optic nerve is correlates with the degree of binocular vision enjoyed by the species. After the optic chiasm, the fibres continue as the **optic tract** (tractus opticus), which terminates in the **lateral geniculate nucleus** and in the **optic thalamus**.

From the thalamus, second stage neurons project, via the **optic radiation** (radiatio optica) of the **internal capsule**, on the visual cortex located within the **occipital lobe of each hemisphere**. This is the area of **conscious visual perception**.

Some fibres leave the optic tract to terminate in the rostral colliculi of the midbrain, in nuclei of the **reticular formation** and the **caudate nucleus**. These are responsible for optic reflexes, such as the pupillary reflex and accommodation.

Clinical terms related to the eye: conjunctivitis, corneal ulcer, retinopathy, uveitis, keratitis, glaucoma, cataract.

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17 Vestibulocochlear organ (organum vestibulocochleare)

H.-G. Liebich and H. E. König

The ear is appropriately termed the vestibulocochlear organ since it includes both the organs of balance and of hearing. Sound waves provide mechanic stimuli, which are received and transformed into electrical signals by the cochlea, while neuroreceptors within the vestibular organ provide the animal with a perception of position and movement with respect to gravity. The receptors of both organs are part of the inner ear, which is located in the petrous temporal bone. The two organs are linked anatomically and functionally by the vestibulocochlear nerve.

The ear has three subdivisions (Fig. 17-1):

- external ear (auris externa),
- middle ear (auris media),
- internal ear (auris interna).

The organ of balance (vestibular system) is restricted to the internal ear.

External ear (auris externa)

The external ear consists of the:

- auricle (auricula) with the auricular cartilage (cartilago auriculae), the scutiform cartilage and the auricular muscles (mm. auriculares),
- external acoustic meatus (meatus acusticus externus),
- tympanic membrane (membrana tympani).

The external ear helps to direct and transmit sound waves to the middle ear.

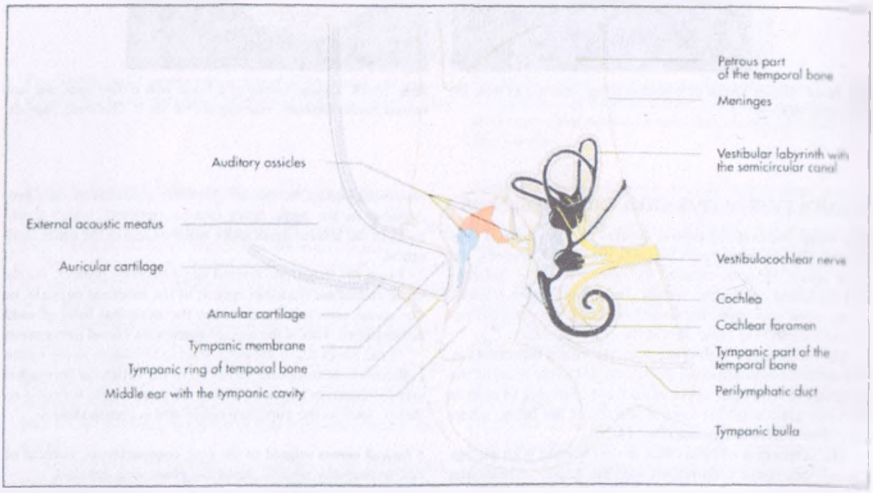


Fig. 17-1. The external acoustic meatus, the middle and internal ear of the dog (schematic).

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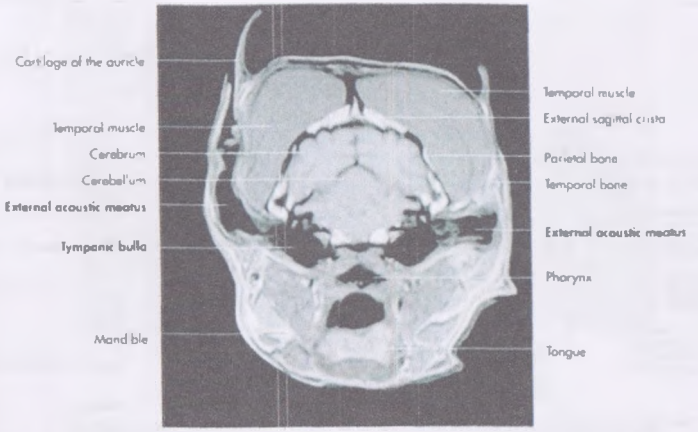


Fig. 17-8. Magnetic resonance tomography of the vestibulocochlear organ of a cat; courtesy of Prof. Dr. Ulrike Mahs, Munich.

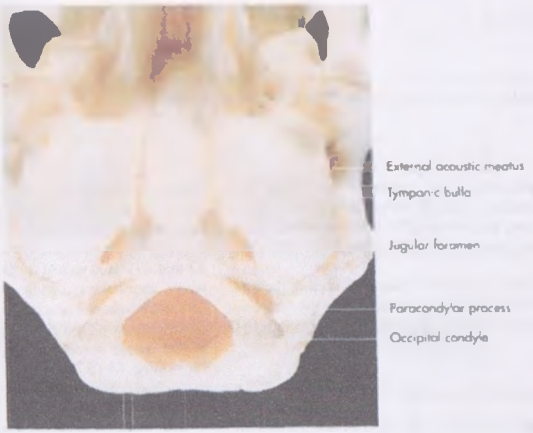


Fig. 17-9. External osseous parts of the vestibulocochlear organ of a cat (ventral aspect).

The dorsal part, the **epitympanicum**, contains the auricular muscle. The middle part, or **mesotympanicum**, includes the tympanic membrane in its lateral wall and opens rostrally into the nasopharynx via the auditory tube. The ventral **hypotympanicum**, or **tympanic bulla** (bulla tympanica), is an enlarged bulbous expansion of the temporal bone that is subdivided into numerous cells area in some species (Fig. 17-7, 10 and 13). The tympanic bulla forms the floor and a large part of the lateral walls of the tympanic cavity (for a more detailed description see Chapter 1). The lateral wall of the tympanic cavity incorporates the tympanic membrane, the medial wall contains two windows.

The **oval vestibular window** (fenestra vestibuli) is located rostrodorsally and is occupied by the base of the stapes and connects the tympanic cavity with the internal ear. The **cochlear window** (foramen cochleae), situated more caudally, is

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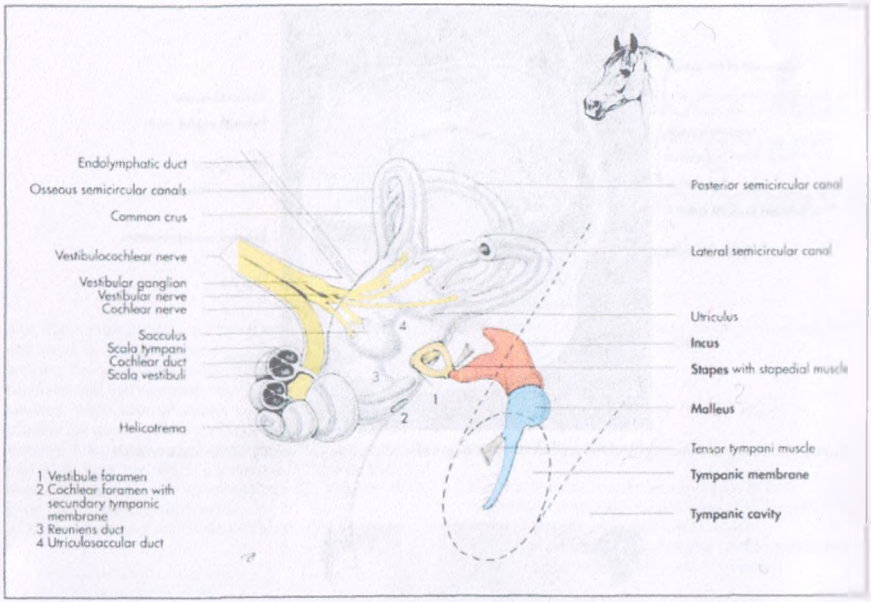


Fig. 17-13. The middle and internal ear of the horse (schematic, aspect as in the insert).

round in shape and leads to the cavity of the cochlea. It is closed by the secondary tympanic membrane. The cochlea is located within a bony prominence, the **promontorium** which protrudes from the medial wall of the tympanic cavity (Fig. 17-13ff.).

The tympanic cavity is lined by a single-layered epithelium, which continues onto the auricular ossicles and the tympanic membrane. The underlying soft tissue has a rich vascular and nervous supply.

Auditory ossicles (ossicula auditus)

The transmission of vibrations from the tympanic membrane across the tympanic cavity to the inner ear is mediated by the three auditory ossicles:

- hammer (malleus),
- anvil (incus),
- stirrup (stapes).

These are small lamellar bones that are joined to each other by **syndesmoses** to form a chain, which extends from the tympanic membrane to the vestibular window.

In juvenile animals, there may be a small separate bone, the **lenticular bone** (os lenticulare), interposed between the incus and stapes, which fuses to the incus in later life. The most lateral of the auditory ossicles is the **malleus**, which consists of the **head**, **neck** and **manubrium**. The manubrium is embedded within the tympanic membrane (Fig. 17-4, 10, 13 and 17). It is joined to the head by the neck, which protrudes above the tympanic membrane by a few millimetres. The saddle-shaped articular surface of the head of the malleus articulates with the body of the stapes.

The **incus** is divided into a body and short and long limbs (Fig. 17-13, 16 and 17). The long limb joins with the lenticular bone, which articulates with the head of the stapes (os stapedis).

The **stapes** consists of a head, a neck, two limbs, a base and a muscular process (Fig. 17-13, 16 and 17). The base articulates with the fibrocartilagenous ring that surrounds the vestibular window.

Several **ligaments** and **mucosal folds** attach the auditory ossicles to the wall of the tympanic cavity. The manubrium of the malleus is attached to the tympanic ring by the **lateral ligament** of the malleus and to the wall of the epitympanicum by the **rostral ligament** of the malleus. The head of the malleus is attached to the dorsal wall of the epitympanicum by the **superficial ligament** of the malleus and is further stabilised by two mucosal folds, through which the chorda tympani passes.

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Fig. 17-20. Auditory tube of the horse, courtesy of Dr. R. Macher, Vienna.

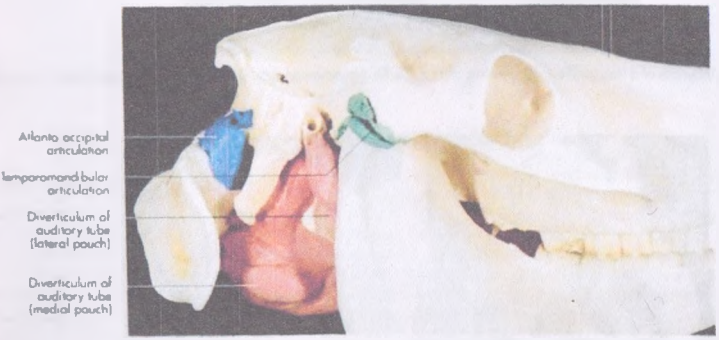


Fig. 17-21. Guttural pouch with atlanto occipital and temporomandibular articulation (acrylic cast, lateral aspect). Wolf, 1999

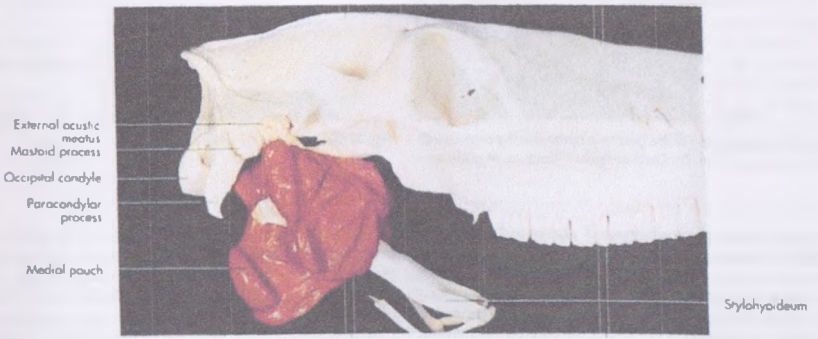


Fig. 17-22. Guttural pouches (acrylic cast, lateral aspect).

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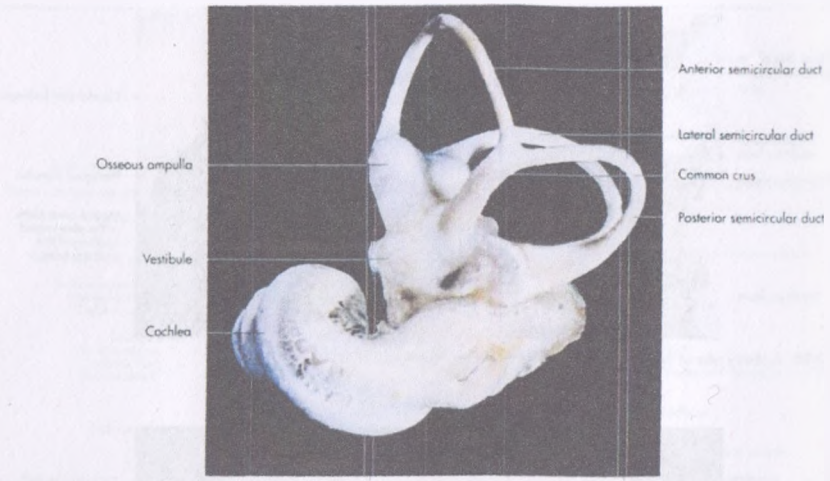


Fig. 17-25. Osseous labyrinth of a dog (arylic cast); courtesy of Prof. Dr. M. Navarro and Prof. Dr. Ana Carretero, Barcelona.

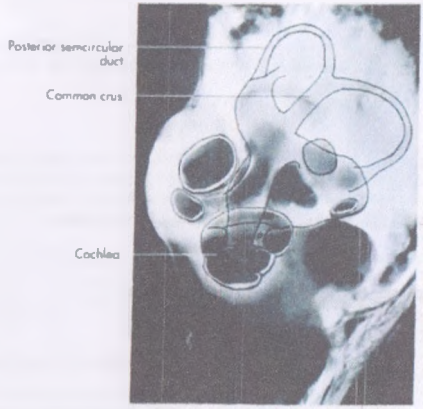


Fig. 17-26. Radiograph of the tympanic cavity and the osseous labyrinth, courtesy of Prof. Dr. Cordula Poulsen Nautrup, Munich

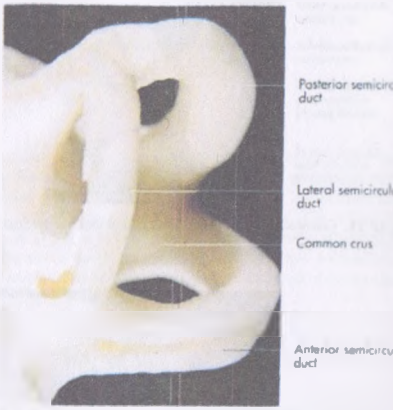


Fig. 17-27. Semicircular canals

the **vagus** and the **glossopharyngeal nerves** and the **cranial cervical ganglion**. The glossopharyngeal and hypoglossal nerves pass along a more ventrally located fold in the wall of the medial compartment. The guttural pouches are in contact with the medial and lateral **retropharyngeal lymph nodes** and are lined by respiratory mucosa with ciliated epithelium, goblet cells and lymphoid tissue.

Guttural pouch disorders are relatively common in the horse and include guttural pouch tympany in foals, guttural pouch empyema and guttural pouch mycosis. Infection may spread onto related structures and lead to further complications

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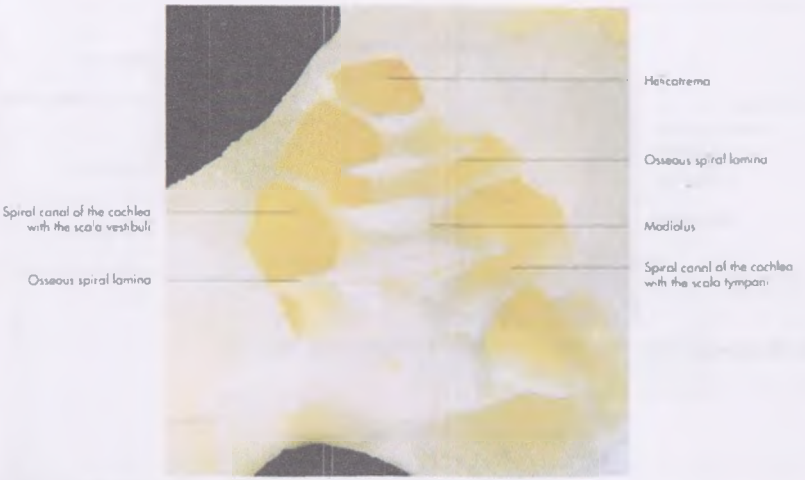


Fig. 17-28. Sectioned cochlea of a cat in dorsal recumbency, Hartmann, 1992

Internal ear (auris interna)

The internal ear is a composite organ that consists of an interconnected series of membranous fluid-filled ducts and chambers, the **membranous labyrinth** (labyrinthus membranaceus) (Fig. 17-13 and 22ff.). The fluid within this labyrinth is called **endolymph** and its movements stimulate sensory cells within the membranous wall.

The membranous labyrinth comprises the:

- vestibular labyrinth (labyrinthus vestibularis) containing the receptor organ for balance,
- cochlear labyrinth (labyrinthus cochlearis) with the organ of hearing,
- ductus reuniens, through which both systems communicate (Fig. 17-13).

The **membranous labyrinth** is surrounded by the **osseous labyrinth** (labyrinthus osseus), a complex structure within the petrous temporal bone. Its shape and partitions are similar to those of the membranous labyrinth, but it is slightly larger. (A more detailed description can be found in histology textbooks.) The bony labyrinth consists of the:

- vestibule (vestibulum),
- semicircular canals (canales semicirculares ossei),
- cochlea.

The **vestibule** is the central chamber of the osseous labyrinth. It communicates with the **cochlea** rostrally and with the **semicircular canals** caudally. The lateral wall of the vestibule has two windows: the **vestibular window**, occluded by the stapes, and ventral to it the **cochlear window**, which is covered by the secondary tympanic membrane. The semicircular canals house the semicircular duct of the vestibular labyrinth.

The **cochlea** is very similar in shape to a snail's shell. It forms a spiral around a central hollow core of bone, the **modiolus**, which contains the **cochlear nerve** (Fig. 17-25 and 26). The spiral consists of three turns in carnivores, 2.5 turns in the horse, four in the pig and 3.5 turns in ruminants. Projecting into the spiral canal from the modiolus is an osseous shelf, the **spiral lamina**, which incompletely bisects the lumen into two portions, called the **scala tympani** and **scala vestibuli** (Fig. 17-25 and 26). The **spiral ganglion** of the **cochlear nerve** lies within the spiral lamina. The cochlea houses three membranous ducts, which wind around the modiolus.

Between the osseous and the membranous labyrinths are **fluid-filled clefts** (spatia perilymphatica), which are connected to the **subarachnoid space** of the meninges by the vestibular and cochlear aqueducts (Fig. 17-13). These clefts are lined by a squamous epithelium and contain perilymph, which has a composition similar to cerebrospinal fluid.

Vestibular labyrinth (pars statica labyrinthi)

The vestibular labyrinth comprises the **saccule** (sacculus), the **utricule** (utriculus) and the **semicircular ducts** (ductus semicirculares). There are sensory maculae within the wall of the sacculus and utriculus and a sensory crista within each ampulla of the semicircular ducts (Fig. 17-13 and 22ff.). These sense and conduct impulses of balance via the **vestibular nerve**.

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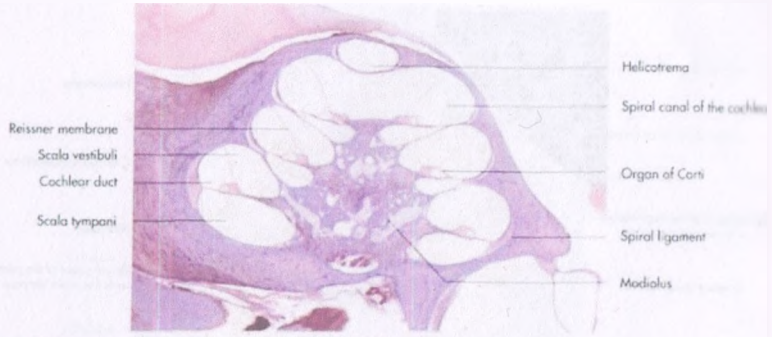


Fig. 17-29. Histological section of the cochlea of a pig in dorsal recumbency; Liebich, 2004.

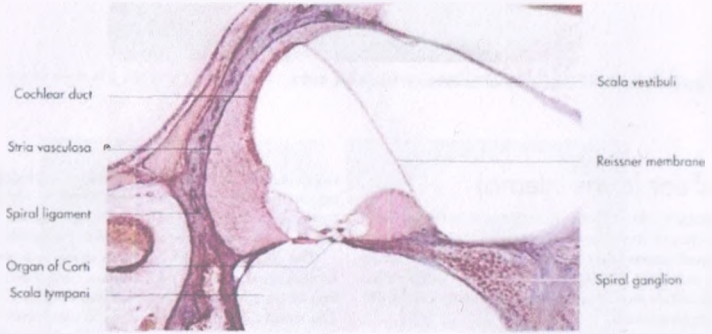


Fig. 17-30. Histological section of the scala tympani, scala vestibuli and the cochlear duct of a pig in dorsal recumbency; Liebich, 2004.

Saccule (sacculus) and utricle (utriculus)

The saccule and utricule are two enlargements within the osseous vestibule. From the utricule arise the **three semicircular ducts** concerned with balances and from the saccule arise, the **spiral cochlear duct**, which is concerned with hearing.

The **wall** of the **saccule** and **utricule** is covered by a single-layered squamous epithelium with an underlying loose connective tissue. The medial wall is thickened to form the elevated and oval-shaped **maculae** of the **saccule** and the **utricule** (macula sacculi, macula utriculi) (Fig. 17-13). The sensory macula consists of modified epithelial cells that act as receptors and are innervated by vestibular nerve fibres. The basal part of the epithelial cells surrounded by a fine network of non-myelinated nerve fibres, that converge to finally form the vestibular nerve. The luminal part of these receptor cells has a gelatinous layer, in which surrounds sensory hairs. Adhering to the gelatinous layer are small, calcium carbonate crystals, called otoliths. A change in the direction of the membrane exerts pressure and stimulates the receptor cells. The initiated impulse is then transmitted to the brain by efferent fibres of the vestibular nerve. The maculae thus record changes in the vertical or horizontal plane (linear acceleration).

Semicircular ducts (ductus semicirculares)

The **three semicircular ducts** are housed within the semicircular canals of the **osseous labyrinth**. Each duct arises from the utricle and is semicircular, forming two-thirds of a circle in a single plane before it returns to the saccule. Thus each duct has **two crura**, but the anterior and posterior ducts unite to form a common crus.

One crus of each duct has a dilatation, the **ampulla**, near the junction with the utricle.

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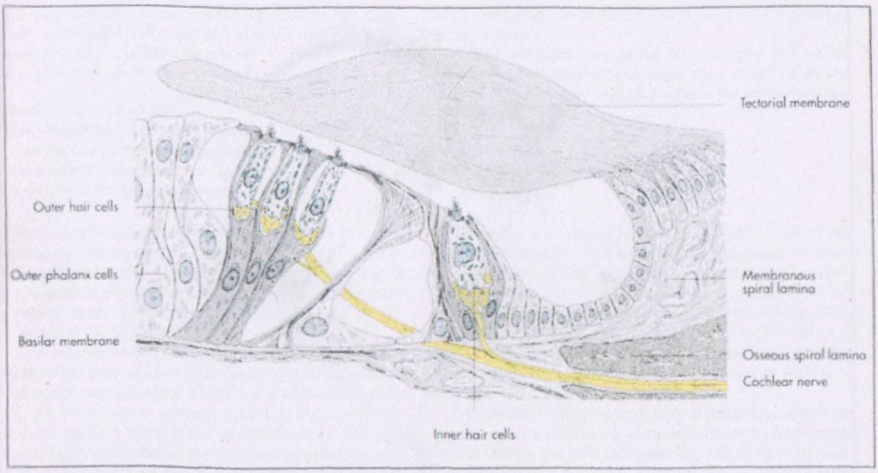


Fig. 17-31. The organ of Corti in an animal in dorsal recumbency (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

The semicircular ducts stand roughly at right angles to each other. The anterior duct is orientated in a transverse plane, the posterior in a sagittal plane and the lateral duct in a horizontal plane.

The **structure of the wall** of the ducts is similar to those of the saccule and utricle (Fig. 17-13 and 22). Within each ampulla protrudes a ridge-shaped thickening that marks the sensory **ampullary crest** (crista ampullaris). Sensory hairs project from the receptor cells, which are stimulated by the movement of the glycoprotein layer **(cupula)** surrounding it. Rotation induces movement of the endolymph deforming the cupula and stimulating the receptor cells. (A more detailed description can be found in histology and physiology textbooks.)

The **receptor cells of the vestibular labyrinth** receive their sensory nerve supply from the vestibular portion of the **vestibulocochlear nerve**. The related vestibular ganglion is located within the internal acoustic meatus and extends direct branches to the vestibular receptor cells.

Cochlear labyrinth (pars auditiva labyrinthi)

The organ of hearing is located in the wall of the membranous cochlear labyrinth and consists of the **organ of Corti** (organum spirale) within the **cochlear duct** (ductus cochlearis) (Fig. 17-13 and 26ff.).

The spiral canal of the cochlea is divided into **three membranous ducts**, which spiral around the modiolus to the apex of the cochlea (Fig. 17-13 and 25ff.):

- scala vestibuli,
- cochlear duct, also called the scala media,
- scala tympani.

The upper channel is the **scala vestibuli**, the middle the **cochlear duct** and the lower the **scala tympani**. The two scalae communicate at the apex of the cochlea **(helicotrema)** around the blind end of the cochlear duct. At the base of the cochlea the scala vestibuli begins at the **vestibular window**, and the scala tympani at the secondary tympanic membrane, which covers the **cochlear window**. Both scalae are lined with a single-layered epithelium and filled with perilymph.

The cochlear duct begins blind and passes up inside the spiral canal of the osseous cochlea and ends blind at the apex of the modiolus. It is filled with endolymph and is in communication with the vestibular labyrinth via the ductus reuniens.

Cochlear duct (ductus cochlearis)

The cochlear duct winds around the modiolus between the two scalae. It appears wedge-shaped in cross section with the apex pointing towards the modiolus. Within it lies the organ of Corti immersed in endolymphatic fluid (Fig. 17-28). The walls of the cochlear duct have **three distinct segments**: **tympanic membrane**, **vestibular membrane** and **lateral membrane** (Fig. 17-26 and 27). The very thin vestibular membrane forms the roof of the cochlear duct, separating it from the scala vestibuli of the cochlea. The **lateral wall of the cochlear duct** is formed by the **spiral ligament** (ligamentum spirale),

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Fig. 18-2. Head of a billy goat with species-characteristic modifications of the common integument: tassels, long beard hairs and horns

Subcutaneous layer (subcutis, tela subcutanea)

The subcutis is the loose connective tissue layer between the skin and the superficial fascia. The **superficial fascia** is regarded to be part of the external fascia of the trunk, but also constitutes the **fibrous layer** (stratum fibrosum) of the subcutis. The **subcutis** consists of loose connective tissue interspersed with white fat. The fat serves as protection against cold, energy reservoir and padding (e.g. footpads).

More substantial **accumulations of fat** (panniculus adiposus) are found in the subcutis of the pig, and in the nuchal region of the horse. The composition of the subcutaneous fat is typical for each species: it is yellowish and oily in the horse, white and dry in the ox and greyish-white and firm in the pig. Brown fat is only temporarily present in the domestic mammals during the perinatal phase. It is found in the nuchal and shoulder region and makes possible thermogenesis without shivering in the newborn.

Distinct soft tissue bundles pass through the subcutis, attaching it to the underlying tissue. **Cutaneous muscles** between the two layers of the superficial fascia extend minute tendons into the subcutis and provide the means for active movement of the skin. The **subcutis** of the sheep, dog and cat includes large amounts of loose connective tissue, while the subcutis of the horse, ox and goat is more tightly adherent to the trunk. Local thickening of the subcutis enables the skin to form **folds** (plicae cutis) (Fig. 18-1). Excessive subcutis occurs for example in the brisket of the ox, the neck of the sheep, the popliteal region, and the intermandibular region between the cervical appendages. Several goat breeds and some pigs and sheep have paired cylindrical appendices hanging from the ventral aspect of the neck that consist of loose connective tissue around a central rod of cartilage.

Where movement of the skin is undesirable the subcutis is either very thin or even absent, e.g. over the lips, cheeks, eyelids, auricles and around the anus. A synovial bursa may be present against bony protuberances to prevent damage to soft tissues or skin (bursa synovialis subcutanea).

Skin (cutis)

The skin encloses the body and blends with the mucous membranes at the various openings of the digestive, respiratory, urinary and genital systems.

The **surface of the skin** is marked by a network of fine **grooves** (sulci cutis) and **ridges** (cristae cutis). These contours are most distinct in areas where no hairs are present, such as the nose or the muzzle (Fig. 18-3). Such contours are permanent and individually distinct and provide a means of identification widely used in man (fingerprints), less commonly in dogs and cattle (nose printing). Additionally, small, knob-like projections are found in all species and serve as tactile receptors.

Specialised **skin pouches** (sinus cutanei) are present in the sheep, cat and dog, in which the secretion of skin glands and sloughed surface cells combine to form a pungent mixture, which is used for marking. In sheep these are the suborbital pouch (sinus infraorbitalis), the inguinal pouch (sinus

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non-hairy skin (e.g. planum nasale). The thickest epidermis is found in the digital pads and the hoof, where cornification of the epidermis results in **horn formation**.

The epidermis can be divided into five layers:

- basal layer (stratum basale),
- prickle-cell layer (stratum spinosum),
- granular layer (stratum granulosum),
- clear layer (stratum lucidum) and
- horny layer (stratum corneum).

The most superficial layer, the **horny layer**, from which cells are sloughed continuously, is sometimes referred to as a **disjunction layer** (stratum disjunctum). The **clear layer** is in fact a remnant of young horn cells. In the domestic mammals it is present in the epidermis of the digital pads and the planum nasale of the dog and cat.

The main component (85%) of the epidermis are the **keratinocytes**. The deepest layer is the basal layer, which rests on a basement membrane under which lie the dermis lies. In this layer, the keratinocytes undergo mitotic cell division, followed by migration towards the surface. On their way from the basal layer to the surface the keratinocytes undergo a sequence of differentiation processes (**keratinisation** and **cornification**), the end product of which is the dead cornified cell. The continuous process of proliferation, migration, keratinization, cornification and the final sloughing of the cells are regulated by feed-back mechanisms, a more detailed description of which can be found in histology textbooks. Disturbance of the regulatory mechanisms, as often seen with skin diseases, typically results in **hyperkeratosis**.

A complete cycle from the fresh cell to its desquamation usually takes between 20 and 30 days, depending on the species. The quality of keratinization and cornification is largely dependent on the nutrition the cells receive. The surface available for diffusion between the dermis and epidermis is larger on the sides of the papillae (**peripapillary**) than on the tip (**suprapapillary**) or between the papillae (**interpapillary**).

Thus peripapillary horn differs from suprapapillary and interpapillary horn in structure and has better mechanical properties. In skin modifications with especially well-developed papillary body this leads to the formation of specific horn types, such as the horn tubules in the hoof.

In general two different types of cornification can be distinguished: so-called **soft** and **hard cornification**. Soft cornification takes place in association with the granular layer and is the typical process for the skin. The hard type is a modification of the cornification process and is characteristic for the epidermis of the distal phalanx, such as the hoof and claw, where no granular layer is present.

Completely cornified keratinocytes, the horn cells, are held together by **membrane coating material (MCM)**; thus the structure of horn can be compared with a brick wall: the cells being the brick, the MCM the mortar. MCM includes lipids, such as ceramide, which accounts for the semi-permeable properties of the stratum corneum with regards to water and water-soluble molecules, while fat-soluble molecules easily penetrate the epidermis.

The water-resistant characteristic of the horny layer is essential for terrestrial mammals and birds and was a preliminary requisite for the movement of animals from aquatic to terrestrial life.

Several cell types account for the remaining 15% of the epidermis. Although small in number, these cells have an important part in the multitude of functions the integument has to fulfil. These cells are:

- melanocytes,
- Langerhans cells,
- Merkel cells.

Melanocytes are responsible for the pigmentation of the skin. They produce yellowish to black pigment granules (melanosomes) that are taken over by neighbouring keratinocytes. These melanosomes group around the nuclei of the keratinocytes, thus protecting them from the mutagenic effect of UV radiation. The melanosomes account for the colour of skin, providing camouflage and the colouring of specific skin regions that express signals to fellow animals as well as to enemies.

Langerhans cells are part of the cellular component of the immune system and belong to the mononuclear phagocytosis system (MPS). They play an important role in the body's defence against viral infections, skin tumours and contact allergies.

Merkel cells are especially numerous around the tactile elevations (toruli tactiles) and function as receptors to touch. They are epithelial neuroendocrine cells that respond to mechanical stimulation and convey the received information to free nerve endings within the epithelium.

Blood supply of the skin

Blood vessels to the skin and subcutis arise from a **(sub)fascial arterial network**. Arcuate arteries extend into the dermis, where they form a cutaneous network (rete arteriosum dermidis) close to the subcutis. A second, denser network (rete arteriosum subpapillare) is located between the papillary and the reticular layer of the dermis and extends capillary loops into the papillae (Fig. 18-9).

Venous drainage is achieved by three distinct plexuses, all lying parallel to the surface (plexus venosus subpapillaris superficialis et profundus, plexus venosus dermidis profundus) (Fig. 18-8). These plexuses are extensive and are responsible for the ability of the skin to store blood. The blood can bypass the capillary beds of the skin by means of autonomic regulatory mechanisms.

Blood flow to the skin is responsible for the loss of heat and is thus an important factor in the thermoregulation of the body. Changes in skin colour brought about by blood flow to the skin is part of the social interaction and communication system (e.g. blushing in people or changing of the colour of the wattle and comb in poultry).

Lymphatic drainage starts in the epidermis with minute sinusoids (sinus lymphatici initiales), which drain into modified lymph capillaries. These lymph capillaries form a **deep capillary network** (rete lymphocapillare cutis profundum). The vessels arising from this network drain into a **subcutaneous lymphatic plexus** (rete lymphocapillare subcutaneum) (Fig. 18-8). From this plexus drainage is achieved via local

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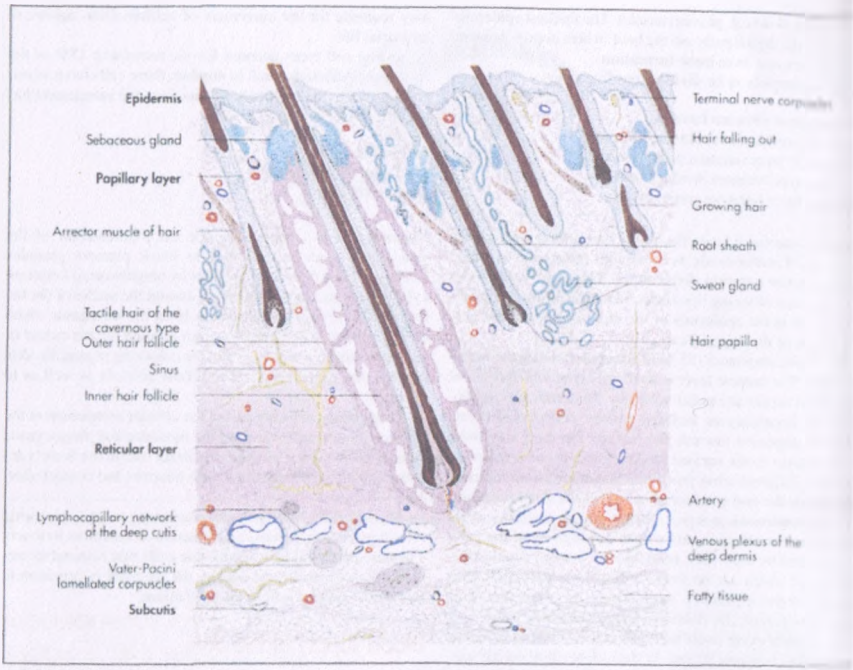


Fig. 18-8. Skin with sinus hair (schematic); Liebich, 2004.

lymph nodes, which are located mostly superficially and are thus palpable in most cases (e.g. axillary lymph node, superficial inguinal lymph node, popliteal lymph node).

Nerves and sense organs of the skin

Both the dermis and the subcutis contain an ample **autonomic** and **sensory innervation**. The autonomic nerve fibres form perivascular plexuses in order to provide sympathetic innervation of the blood vessels, skin glands and the smooth musculature of the skin (mm. arrectores pilorum) (Fig. 18-18). There is no parasympathetic supply to the skin.

Sensory nerve fibres form plexuses within the subcutis and dermis (plexus nervorum subcutaneous, dermidis et subepidermidis). They terminate either in free endings or in end corpuscles (Fig. 18-8). A part of the **free nerve endings** extend into the epidermis after loss of their glial sheaths. Based on their function one can distinguish three different types of nerve endings: type one is sensitive to mechanical pressure, the second is sensitive to temperature and the third acts as a pain receptor.

Interspersed within the integument are hair follicle receptors, which are sensitive to pressure and touch. Apart from the free nerve endings, there are Merkel's cells within the epi- mis, Meissner's corpuscles in the papillary layer and Vater-Pacinian corpuscles within the subcutis (Fig. 18-8 and 10).

The following structures act as **thermal receptors**: bulbs of Krause in the papillary layer, which respond to cold and Ruffini corpuscles in the reticular layer, which respond to warmth (Fig. 18-8).

Pain is registered by convoluted free nerve endings without glial sheaths. A more detailed description can be found in histology textbooks.

Small nerve branches are generally distributed in a segmental pattern in all areas of the body. On the head they originate from the cutaneous components of cranial nerves. Along the body, the cutaneous nerves are branches of the spinal nerves.

The various segments of the spinal cord are responsible for innervation of certain inner organs as well as the skin. Disease of a certain organ can cause changes in the corresponding skin region (**head zone**). This phenomenon is described as a viscerocutaneous reflex. A classic example of this is the hypersensitivity of the region of the withers in cows suffering from traumatic reticulitis caused by a foreign body.

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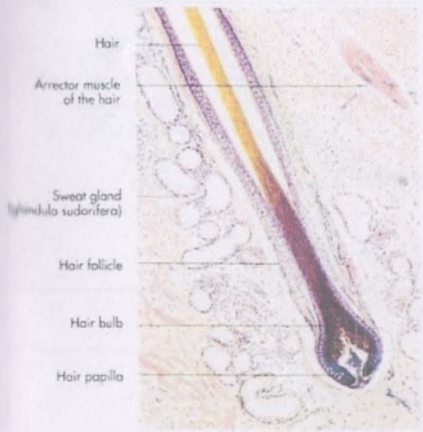


Fig. 18-14. Histological section of a hair follicle; Liebich, 2004.



Fig. 18-15. Histological section of hair with hair shaft; Liebich, 2004

the hairs of the **vestibule of the nose** (vibrissae), the **hairs of tragus** around the ear (tragi) and the **eyelashes** (cilia).

Tactile hairs are a modification of the guard hairs (Fig. 18-16 and 17). They are found on the head with the exception of the tactile hair at the carpus of the cat (pili tactiles carpales). They are substantially thicker and generally protrude beyond the neighbouring guard hairs. Their roots reach deep into the subcutis and each is surrounded by a venous sinus within whose walls there are nerve endings responsive to touch.

The following survey presents tactile hairs, and their names indicating their location:

- supraorbital tactile hairs,
- infraorbital tactile hairs,
- zygomatic tactile hairs,
- buccal tactile hairs,
- mental tactile hairs,
- tactile hairs of the upper lip (vibrissae of the cat) and lower lip.

Patterns of hair

Guard hairs mostly lie close to the skin and sweep uniformly in broad tracts, giving the coat a smooth appearance. The general directions taken by these bundles are referred to as **hair streams** (flumina pilorum). The regular pattern of the hair stream is interrupted where different bundles converge, diverge or combine and **whorls** (vortices), **crests** (lineae pilorum convergens), **crosses** (cruces) and **partings** (lineae pilorum divergens) are formed (Fig. 18-18 and 19).

Generally the length and the diameter of the single hair decreases from dorsum to ventrum, while the density increases. However, in some breeds mutant arrangements are seen as attributes of the particular breed, particularly in dogs, cats and rabbits.

In dogs and cats, several hairs share a single follicle opening. The central (primary) hair is longest and of the guard type, while the surrounding secondary hairs are shorter and softer and of the wool type. The hair shafts that share a common opening in the skin are enclosed in a common follicle down to the level of the sebaceous glands. Below this point the hair shafts have their own individual hair follicle and bulb.

Shedding

Guard and wool hairs have a limited life-span, and the coat undergoes gradual shedding with seasonal peak times in spring and autumn, when many hairs are shed together. However, the coat of one season merges into that of the next, so the animal is normally never without a protective covering. The shedding process is regulated by the pineal gland and is mainly conditioned by day length and temperature.

The **hair follicle cycle** can be divided into **three stages**: the **anagenetic**, **catagenetic** and **telogenetic** stages. The anagenetic stage constitutes the active growth phase and is characterised by a well-developed dermal papilla that is completely capped by the epidermal hair matrix, forming the bulb of the hair. In the next, catagenetic stage, growth slows, and the hair matrix and the covering papilla both atrophy. The dermal bulb and the entire follicle become smaller. Hair follicles in the telogenetic stage have small dermal papillae, which are separated from the bulb and are no longer covered by matrix cells. The hair follicle is very short, which causes a larger part of the hair to project above the skin. When growth resumes, the reactivated follicle lengthens and extends away

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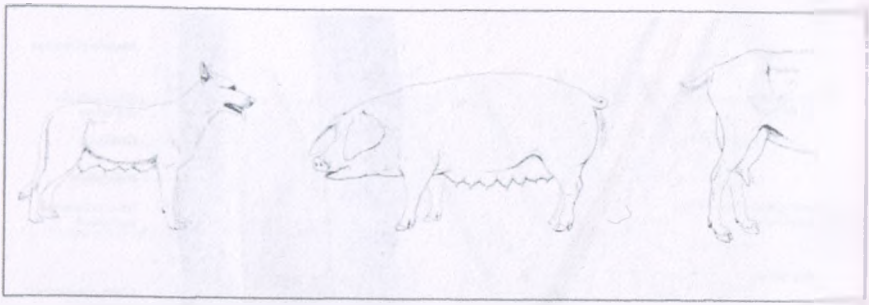


Fig. 18-20. Mamma of the bitch and sow, udder of a she-goat (schematic)



Fig. 18-21. Udder of the cow and mare (schematic).

thelial **glandular tissue** (glandula mammaria) and interstitial **connective tissue** (interstitium) with nerves, blood and lymph vessels (Fig. 18-22, 25 and 26). The mammary unit ends with a system of ducts, which show a species-specific arrangement and end at the **tip of the teat** (papilla mammae). The **duct system** of each mammary unit can be subdivided into the following segments (Fig. 18-23):

- terminal parts of the glands (glandular alveolus), place of milk production,
- lactiferous duct (ductus lactiferi), system of ducts for the transport of milk and
- lactiferous sinus (sinus lactiferi), sinus for the bulk of milk.

The glandular tissue is arranged in **lobules** (lobuli glandulae mammariae), which comprise a multitude of **alveoli**, the actual sites of milk production and secretion. These alveoli are lined by a single-layered cuboidal epithelium and are separated from each other by interstitial septa that convey nerves and blood vessels. Several lobules are enclosed by thicker interstitial septa to form **mammary lobes** (lobi glandulae mammariae) (Fig. 18-23 and 24). (For a more detailed description see histology textbooks.)

The milk drains to an **intralobular duct** that joins others to form a larger **interlobular duct**. Interlobular ducts lead to a system of lactiferous ducts that ultimately convey the milk to the relatively large **lactiferous sinus**. Each lactiferous duct is responsible for the drainage of a mammary lobe, each intralobular duct drains one lobule.

The **lactiferous sinus** extends into the teat and is incompletely divided into the **gland** (pars glandularis sinus lactiferi) and the **teat sinus** (pars papillaris sinus lactiferi) by a constriction. The glandular part of the sinus has several chambers and a wide diameter. The transition between the gland part and the teat part is marked by a mucosal fold, containing a venous plexus, which has to be taken into consideration when amputating a teat to avoid excessive blood loss. The **teat sinus** is continuous with the **papillary duct** or **teat canal**, which opens at the tip of the teat where the orifice is surrounded by a **smooth muscle sphincter**.

Blood supply

The mammary glands receive their blood supply from the superficial blood vessels of the ventral body wall (Fig. 18-29, 30 and 31).

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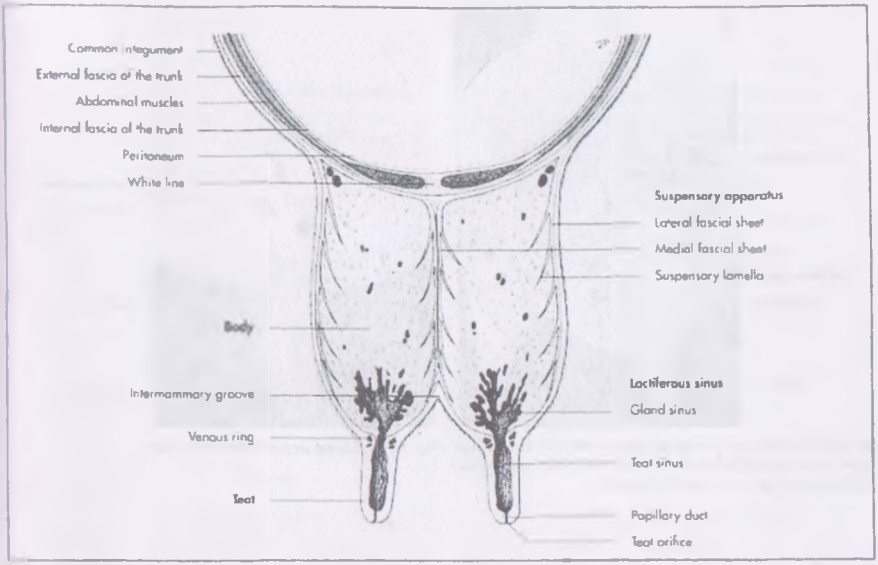


Fig. 18-22. Suspensory apparatus of the udder (schematic). Dyce, Sack and Wensing, 2002.

Arteries

The thoracic and the cranial abdominal mammary complexes receive their arterial blood supply from the mammary branches of the **cranial superficial epigastric artery** (Fig. 12-15), a perforating branch of the **internal thoracic artery**. Segmental ventral intercostal branches of the internal thoracic artery may also contribute blood to the thoracic glands.

The caudal abdominal and inguinal mammary complexes are supplied by mammary branches of the **caudal superficial epigastric artery** that arises from the **external pudendal artery** (Fig. 12-31 and 18-29).

Veins

The thoracic mammary complexes drain into the **cranial superficial epigastric veins**, which opens into the **cranial epigastric vein** (Fig. 18-31), which in turn drains into the internal thoracic vein. The abdominal and inguinal mammary complexes drain into the **caudal superficial epigastric veins**, which open into the **external pudendal vein**. Of functional importance is the presence of anastomoses between the cranial and caudal superficial arteries between the like-named veins. The species-specific differences concerning the blood supply of the mammary glands will be discussed in detail when the gland of each species is described.

Lymphatic system

The lymphatics of the thoracic and cranial abdominal mammary complexes drain to the **axillary lymph node**. The lymphatics of the caudal abdominal and the inguinal mammary complexes drain to the **superficial inguinal lymph node**, which is also called the **mammary lymph node** (Fig. 18-29). This lymph node is located at the base of the inguinal mammary gland and is usually palpable under the skin. Since mammary tumours may metastasise to the draining lymph nodes, removal of these is routinely performed when mammary tumours are surgically removed (**mastectomy**).

Innervation

The mammary glands receive **sensory, sympathetic and parasympathetic innervation**. The thoracic mammary glands are innervated by lateral and medial mammary branches of the cutaneous part of the intercostal nerves, which are also referred to as ventral branches of the thoracic nerves. The abdominal and inguinal complexes are supplied by the cutaneous branches of the **iliohypogastric**, **ilioinguinal** and **genitofemoral nerves**. The inguinal mammary glands receive additional innervation from the mammary branch of the distal cutaneous branch of the **pudendal nerve** and the **genitofemoral nerve**. In addition to being subject to nervous control, secretion of the mammary glands is influenced by **hormones** from the hypophysis and other endocrine organs.

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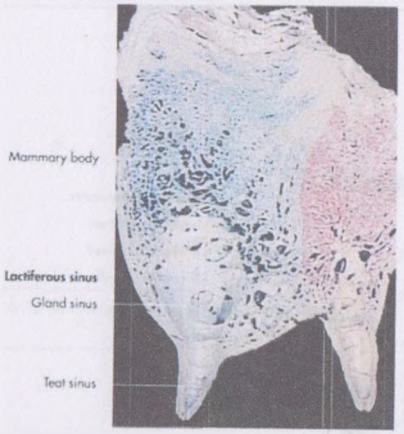


Fig. 18-25. Sagittal section of the glandular tissue of the cranial and caudal quarters of a bovine udder. The different colours indicate the complete separation of the individual quarter.

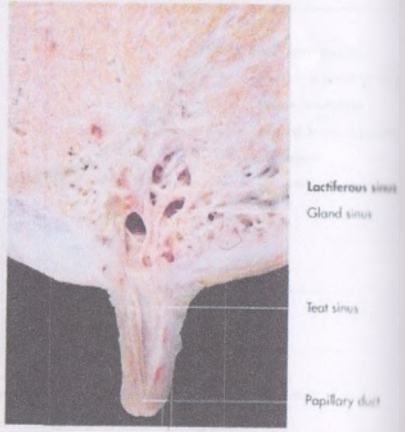


Fig. 18-26. Sagittal section of the teat of a cow.

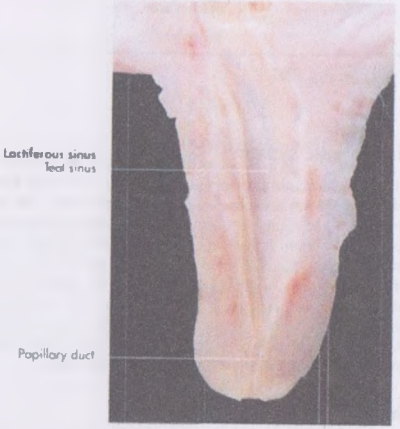


Fig. 18-27. Sagittal section of the teat and papillary duct of a bovine udder.

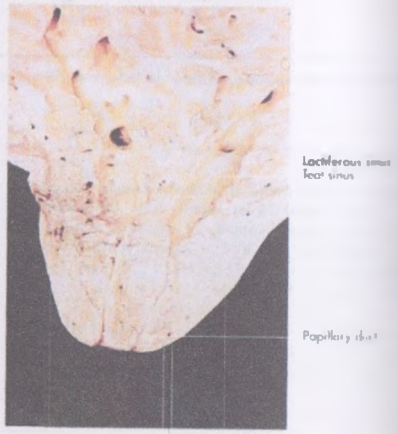


Fig. 18-28. Sagittal section of the teat of an equine udder with teat papillary ducts.

Lactation

Milk secretion may start hours or even days before parturition and is used as an indicator of impending parturition. Postnatal production and secretion of milk are continued only by those mammary complexes which are stimulated by suckling of the newborn. Suckling at the teat and massage of the mammary body with paws or tongue initiate the **neurohormonal reflex arc**, that leads to the letting down of the milk. Mammary complexes that are not stimulated soon undergo involution. Mammary glands are fully developed and fully functional only at the height of lactation. They are then large and show a predominance of glandular tissue over the connective tissue stroma.

When the dam weans her young or stimulation of the mammary glands is stopped, involution commences and the milk-producing tissue regresses. Glandular tissue is thus replaced by connective and fatty tissue. However, the gland never reverts to its prelactation size.

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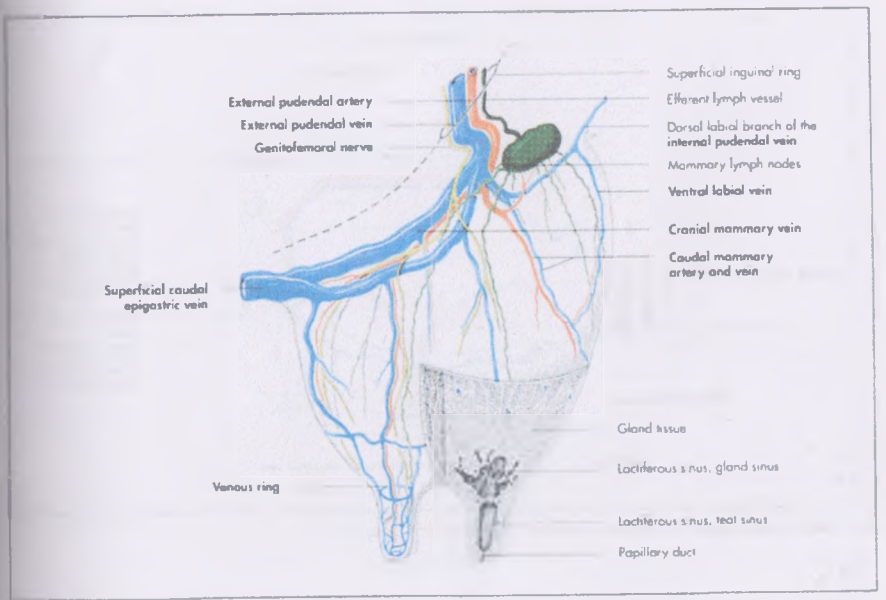


Fig. 18-29. Innervation and blood supply of the bovine udder (schematic), after Ellenberger and Baum, 1943.

Mammary glands (mamma) of carnivores

In the bitch the mammary gland typically comprises **ten mammary complexes**, arranged in two bilaterally symmetrical rows that extend from the ventral thoracic to the inguinal region (Fig. 18-20). However the formation of the mammary gland is not always symmetrical and the number of complexes varies from eight to twelve. The mammary complexes are termed according to their position: **thoracic**, **cranial abdominal**, **caudal abdominal** and **inguinal complexes**.

The cat commonly has **eight mammary complexes**, also arranged in two symmetric rows extending from the ventral thorax to the abdomen.

Each mammary complex consists of between **five** and **twenty mammary units** with a corresponding number of papillary ducts that open on the tip of the teat with a separate opening (ostium papillare).

The juvenile, non-lactating mammary complexes are inconspicuous with short teats, while during lactation the single mammary complex increases considerably in size and then has a semi-spherical form. Its size varies among breeds and even among individuals. Shallow grooves indicate the border between the complexes. A distinct **intermammary sulcus** divides the right from the left row.

The changes characteristic for the sexual cycle of the bitch include growth and proliferation of the mammary gland with each cycle, even when the bitch does not conceive. Frequent proliferation and subsequent involution of the mammary gland is thought to be a predisposing factor for the high incidence of mammary tumours in the bitch.

The mammary glands of carnivores receive additional blood supply from the mammary branches of the **lateral thoracic artery**. Lymph from the cranial thoracic mammary complex not only drains to the **axillary lymph node**, but may also drain to the **superficial cervical lymph node**. Lymph from the cranial abdominal mammary complex can either drain to the axillary or the superficial inguinal lymph node, while lymph from the caudal abdominal complex may also drain to the medial iliac lymph nodes. Instances of **interconnection** of the left and right superficial inguinal lymph nodes have been reported. A good understanding of the lymphatic flow is of clinical importance with regard to metastases in the case of mammary tumours.

Mammary glands (mamma) of the pig

The mammary gland of the pig usually comprises **14 mammary complexes**, arranged in two rows on the ventral side of the thorax and abdomen (Fig. 18-20). In most animals the left and right complexes are not at the same transverse plane, but are arranged in an alternating manner. This arrangement facilitates access of the piglets when the sow is lying on its

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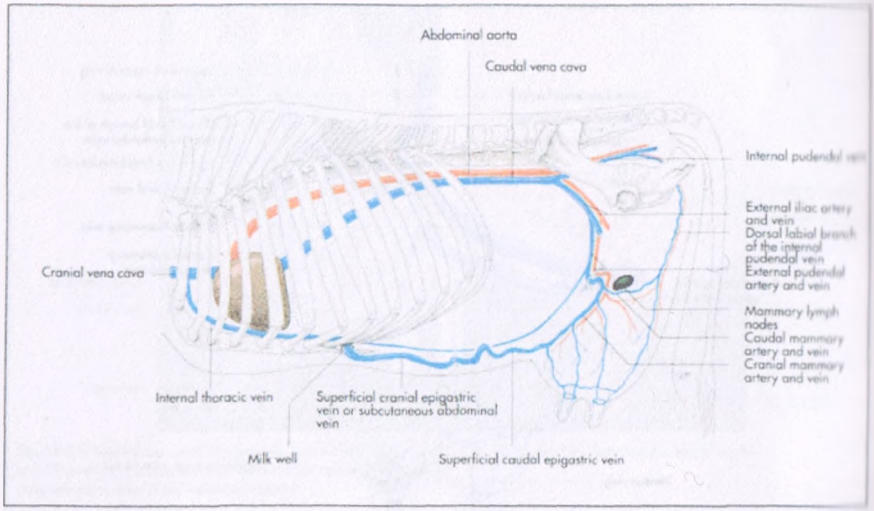


Fig. 18-30. The most important blood vessels supplying the bovine udder (schematic).

side. Each complex consists of **two** or **three mammary units**. Each unit opens with a separate orifice at the tip of the teat in a shallow depression. If the depression is too deep, the suckling piglet compresses the opening and interrupts the flow of milk.

At the height of lactation the mammary gland of the sow is quite conspicuous and the single hemispherical complex is the size of a fist with relatively short teats. Complexes that are not used by the piglets are much smaller than lactating units giving the mammary gland an irregular appearance.

The thoracic mammary complexes receive additional blood supply from the mammary branches of the **lateral thoracic artery**. Sufficient milk production at the height of lactation is essential for proper weight gain in the piglets in the first few weeks of life, thus posing an important economic factor in the pig industry.

Udder (uber) of small ruminants

In the ewe and she-goat the mammary gland is restricted to the inguinal region and comprises **two mammary complexes**, one on each side of the ventral midline (Fig. 18-20). Each complex consists of a **single mammary unit**, the duct system of which opens in a single orifice on the tip of the teats.

In the ewe lymph may drain directly into the iliotemoral and the medial iliac lymph nodes.

Bovine udder (uber)

The mammary gland of the cow comprises **four mammary complexes**, with a single unit each that are consolidated to a single mass, the udder. The udder is suspended from the inguinal region by its suspensory apparatus (Fig. 18-21). It is divided into quarters that correspond to the **four units**, each of which bears one of the principal teats with a **single opening**. Accessory teats, sometimes associated with functional glandular tissue, are very common, but are undesirable, since they may complicate milking when they are fused or too close to the principal teats. Inflammation of superfluous glandular tissue can spread to the main quarters and lead to decrease in milk production.

A prominent median **intermammary groove** marks the division of the udder into **right** and **left halves**. The boundary between the **fore-** and **hindquarters** of the one side is less distinct. It is of clinical importance that the **four mammary glands** are **separate units**. Thus, inflammatory processes can be restricted to one quarter. Local antibiotics must be administered in each teat separately.

The **appearance of the udder** varies greatly, depending on breed, maturity and functional status. In many dairy cows the udder is extremely large with very long and thick teats (Fig. 18-27). However, size is not a reliable indicator of productivity, but certain features of conformation are of practical importance with regards to milking. Size, shape, position of the teats and the form of the teat extremity are especially important factors. Open teat canals predispose the quarter to

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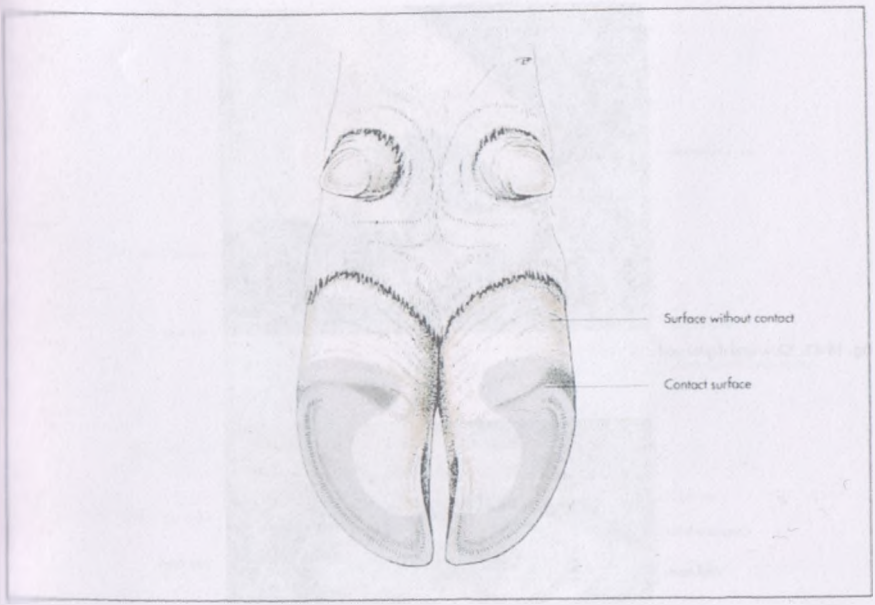


Fig. 18-39. Base surface (facies solearis) of the hoof of the cattle, with weight bearing and non weight bearing parts (schematic), after Nickel et al. 1979.

The surface of the papillary layer is characteristic of each segment. In all segments other than the wall segment, the papillary layer forms **dermal papillae** (papillae dermales), which either protrude directly from a plane underlying surface or are elevated on low-profile laminae (Fig. 18-41). The length of the papillae varies in the different segments and among species. In the horse, for example, the papillae of the coronary segments can reach a length of 8 mm. In the wall segment the surface of the papillary layer is marked by **parallel lamellae** (lamellae dermales), extending from proximal to distal in the hoof and arranged in a curve in the claw. Small papillae extend from the tip of the laminae.

Epidermis (epidermis)

The epidermis can be divided into a thin part formed by living, cornified cells and a thicker part of cornified cells. The vital layers comprise the basal layer (stratum basale), spinous layer (stratum spinosum) and granular layer (stratum granulosum), while the horn consists of the **horny layer** (stratum corneum) only.

Vital layers of the epidermis

The cells in the vital layers of the epidermis undergo the same changes as in the skin, gradually leading to their **keratinisation** and **cornification**. Keratin proteins and membrane coating material are synthesised within all cells, but the composition varies between the different segments. Cornification of the soft type takes place in the perioplic segment, the foot pads and the terminal epidermis of the wall segment, where a granular layer is present. In the remaining segments, there is no granular layer and the cells undergo the hard type of cornification, resulting in a mechanically resilient horn.

Horn (stratum corneum)

The **stratum corneum** consists of densely packed completely **keratinised cells**. During the process of keratinisation and cornification, the epidermal cells undergo a series of internal changes that gradually bring about their death and when reaching the horny layer they are incapable of further division or growth. Horn cells are moved distally by cells from deeper layers moving towards the surface. The horn cells are held together by membrane coating material, so the structure of horn can be compared with a brick wall: the cells being the brick, the membrane coating material the mortar.

Horn quality and **fastness** are characteristic of each segment and depend on the amount and composition of the keratin and the membrane coating material. Desquamation of the horn starts with loss of function of the membrane coating material, followed by the disintegration of the cell aggregates.

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Fig. 18-42. Claw and digital pad of a dog.



Fig. 18-43. Ground surface of the claw of a dog.



Fig. 18-44. Sagittal section of the claw of a dog

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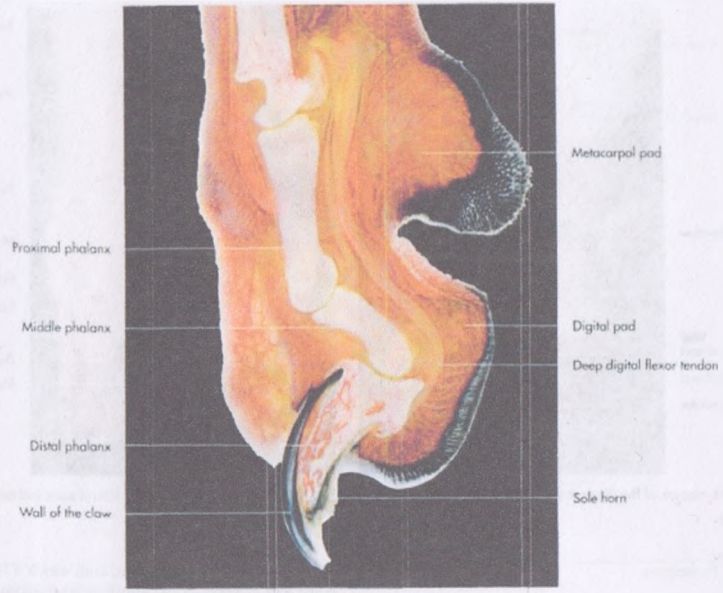


Fig. 18-45. Digit of a dog (transverse section, plastinate); courtesy of H. Obermaier, Munich.

Wall (paries)

The wall segment is in direct contact with the **unguicular process of the distal phalanx**. Its dermis is arranged in lamellae, the height of which ranges from 5 µm proximally to 0.1 mm distally. The epidermis of the wall segments interdigitate with the dermal lamellae, but does not cornify centrally. Thus, the horn formed by the wall segment does not have tubular form, but in fact has a tubular structure, produced by the terminal papillae.

Cornification is of the soft type and includes a granular layer. The resulting tubular horn is rubber-like, lighter in color than the coronary horn and disintegrates distal to the papillae (Fig. 18-43).

Sole (solea)

The narrow sole segment is adjacent to the palmar/plantar aspect of the ground surface (facies solearis) of the unguicular process extending from the flexor tuberosity to the apex. Its dermal papillae are directed apically and increase in length and number from proximal to distal. Unlike the sole epidermis of the hoof, the sole epidermis of the claw forms a non-tubular, soft, crumbly horn by **soft cornification** (Fig. 18-44). It disintegrates, when the claw is removed and the isolated claw is typically open between the walls.

Digital pad (torus digitalis)

The digital pad is located proximal to the sole segment of the claw, but is not integrated within the claw itself as it lies in the hoof. It is described in detail earlier in this chapter.

Blood supply

Claw and digital pad receive a **generous blood supply**, which accounts for the fact that wounds in this region tend to bleed heavily (Fig. 18-46 and 47). Arterial blood supply is provided by four arteries, which run dorsoaxial, dorsoabaxial, palmoplantoaxial and palmoplantoabaxial on each digit. They are termed according to the same principle on all four digits. For the fourth digit of the thoracic limb their names are:

- axial proper dorsal digital artery IV (a. digitalis dorsalis propria IV axialis),
- abaxial proper dorsal digital artery IV (a. digitalis dorsalis propria IV abaxialis),
- axial proper palmar digital artery IV (a. digitalis palmaris propria IV axialis) and
- abaxial proper palmar digital artery IV (a. digitalis palmaris propria IV abaxialis).

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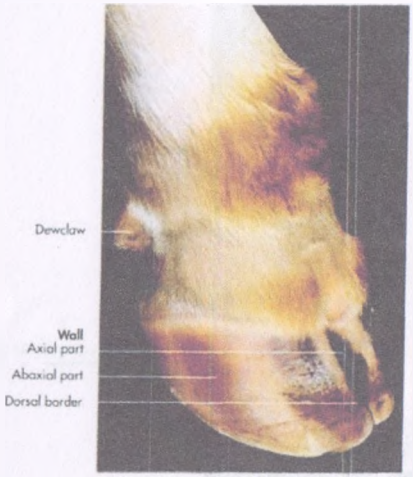


Fig. 18-49. Hooves of the thoracic limb of an ox

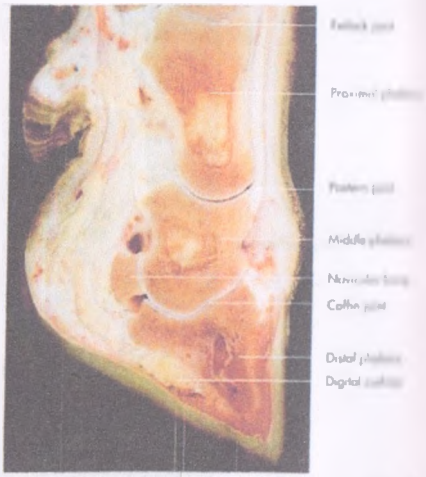


Fig. 18-50. Sagittal section of the lateral principal and dewclaw of the thoracic limb of an ox

Form of the hooves

The **hooves of the thoracic limb** are more rounded than those of the pelvic limb and have a wider interdigital space. The angle of the dorsal wall is about 50° to 55° in the front and 45° to 50° in the back. The lateral hoof carries the greater share of the weight and is usually larger than the medial one, although this is not always the case in the hindlimb.

The **wall of the hoof** follows the shape of the distal phalanx and forms a **concave axial part** towards the interdigital space (pars axialis), a **convex abaxial part** (pars abaxialis) and the rounded **dorsal roof** (margo dorsalis) (Fig. 18-49). The sole or ground surface of the hoof (facies solearis) is relatively flat, with a concave area axially that does not make ground contact. It is bordered by the inflected angle of the wall and blends with the apex of the bulb centrally (Fig. 18-39). The hooves grow continuously and require regular trimming if not worn off.

Functions

The horny enclosure protects the digit from **mechanical, chemical** and **biological influences** of the environment. Its resistance against chemical and biological agents is of special importance when many animals are confined to a relatively small area, the flooring is not ideal and aggressive substances are constantly in direct contact with the hoof.

The hoof acts as **shock absorber** during locomotion. The forces to which limb is subjected are cushioned and diverted. The digital pads are incorporated within the hoof, and their thick subcutis form the bulb of the hoof. The pads act as **cushions** on which the animal walks. The hoof is complemented by the elastic epidermis, with which it forms a functional unit. Another shock-absorbing mechanism is the possibility of the hooves of the same limb to **move apart** when the foot contacts the ground.

However, the **distal interdigital ligament** limits the movement to a physiological degree. The attachments of the epidermis of the hoof to the distal phalanx divert the forces onto the skeletal structures. This is similar to the hoof mechanism in horses, but not as effective. In cattle 40% to 60% of the sole and bulb contact the ground, while in the horse only the rim of the sole, the frog and the bulbs contact the ground. In non-domestic animals, hooves are also used for digging and scraping and as weapons.

Segments of the hoof

Corresponding to the claw of carnivores and the hoof of the horse, the hoof of artiodactyles can be divided into several segments. Segmentation is based on the architecture and organisation of the modification of the layers of the cornified integument. The following **five segments** can be distinguished (Fig. 18-51 and 52):

- periopic segment (limbus),
- coronary segment (corona),
- wall segment (paries),
- sole segment (solea) and
- digital pad or bulb (torus ungulae).

Macroscopically the different segments can be separated most easily by looking at the surface of the dermis after removal of the epidermal horny hoof capsule.

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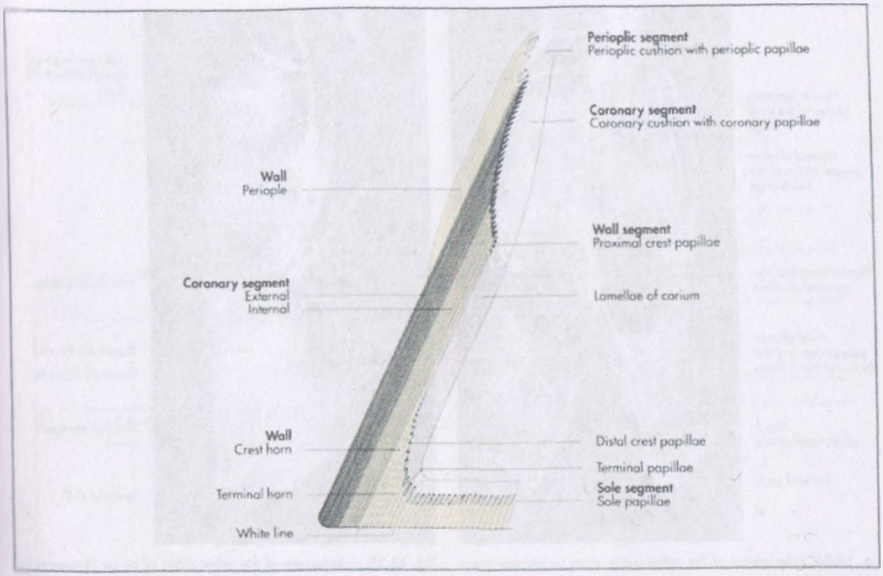


Fig. 18-51. Perioplic, coronary, wall and sole segments of the principal bovine hoof (schematic).

Perioplic segment

Abaxially the periople is directly adjacent to the hairy skin, while axially it merges with the periople of the other principal hoof. It provides a narrow strip (about 1 cm) dorsally that widens palmarly and plantarly.

The **underlying subcutis** (tela subcutanea limbi) of the periople is thickened to form the slightly protruding perioplic cushion (pulvinus limbi) dorsally and axially. This thickening broadens palmarly and plantarly, where it merges with the bulb (Fig. 18-51 and 52).

The **perioplic dermis** (dermis limbi) is divided abaxially from the hairy skin by a shallow groove, while the border towards the coronary segment is marked by a crest, which is especially distinct abaxially. This crest is characteristic for the bovine hoof. The surface of the perioplic dermis carries 1 to 2-mm-long, narrow papillae that are directed distally.

The **perioplic epidermis** (epidermis limbi) has a tubular structure. The soft, crumbly horn produced by the epidermis slides distally over the coronary segment and is worn off rapidly and covers only the proximal third of the hoof wall (Fig. 18-50). It is thought to have a function in the regulation of the water content of the proximal hoof segments.

Coronary segment

The coronary segment extends from the perioplic segment distally to about the middle of the hoof wall. It is about 2.5 cm wide dorsally and narrows to about 1 to 1.5 cm axially and to about 0.5 cm abaxially (Fig. 18-51). The coronary subcutis is modified to form the slightly protruding **coronary cushion** (pulvinus coronae).

The **coronary dermis** (dermis coronae) carries delicate papillae with conical endings. They are orientated perpendicular to the surface of the dermis at their origin, but have a distal orientation later.

The **coronary epidermis** (epidermis coronae) corresponds to the surface of the coronary dermis by forming delicate horn tubules. They are longest in diameter is largest in the middle part of the coronary segment, smaller to the outside and very small or with no horn tubules in the innermost layer.

The extremely hard and resistant coronary horn constitutes the middle layer of the wall of the hoof, thus comprising the largest part of the hoof (Fig. 18-51 and 53). The distal part of the coronary horn help form the outer part of the sole (margo solearis).

The **coronary horn** is marked by prominent ridges that run parallel with the coronary border. On the palmar/plantar aspect of the hoot the coronary horn is covered by the bulb horn (Fig. 18-52). The coronary horn has distinct grooves towards the interdigital space.

The **coronary epidermis** forms the **hardest horn** of the bovine hoof, which is twice as hard as the coronary horn of the equine hoof. The coronary grows about 4 to 8 mm per month, depending on breed, age and nutrition.

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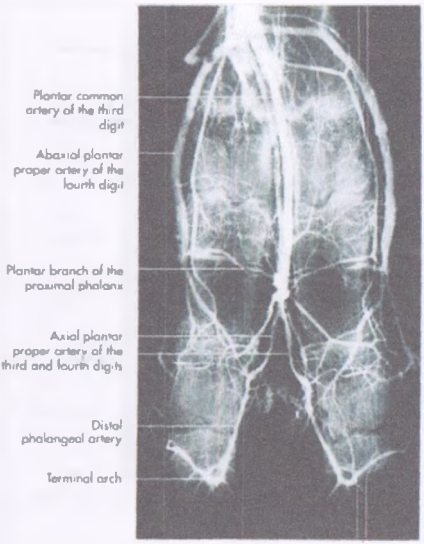


Fig. 18-54. Arteriogram of the pelvic digits of an ox (dorsoplantar projection).

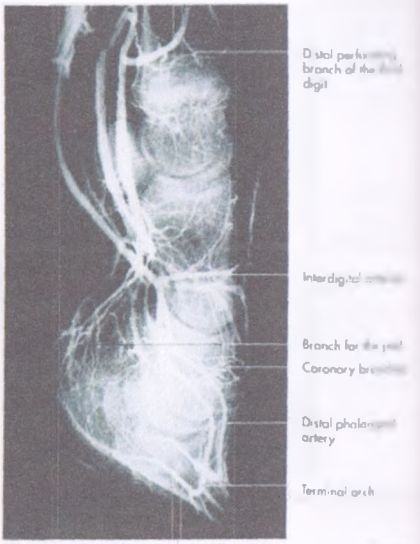


Fig. 18-55. Arteriogram of the pelvic digits of an ox (lateromedial projection).

differ in form, diameter, arrangement and inclination. In the proximal part cornification follows the soft type and the resulting horn has an elastic, rubber-like consistency.

The **surface of the horn** is marked by fissures which are especially distinct in animals in which hoof care is neglected. **Bulbar horn grows** in layers and tends to flake when allowed to build up. The multiple layered structure continues onto the interdigital wall and the coronary horn axially and the perioplic horn abaxially. The proximal part shows a considerable growth rate of up to 12 mm per month. If not worn off as in animals kept on a soft surface, the horn grows over the distal part of the bulb (sole horn overgrowth) and can lead to severe deformities.

The deformed hoof leads to an overload of certain structures such as the flexor tendons and to an increase in the load of the dermis, which is a predisposing factor in the aetiopathogenesis of pododermatitis.

The **cornification of the horn** of the distal part of the bulb follows the hard type and the resulting horn is considerably harder than that of the proximal part. The axial margin of the distal bulb does not contribute to the weight-bearing surface because of its slight concavity. The abaxial part is flat and contacts the ground over its whole length. In this area the parallel arrangement of the horn layers is indistinct.

Predisposed locations for diseases of the bovine hoof
Even in the well tended hoof, there are certain locations, which are predisposed to diseases. Before deeper structures become affected, infectious agents must penetrate the horn layers. One of these predisposed sites is the border between the proximal and the distal parts of the bulb, where horn of different resistance merge. Due to the different characteristics of the material, loading causes the formation of minute tears, which may act as starting points for larger fissures and provide access to infection which may then destroy the dermis and deeper structures.

The white line is another point of weakness in the horny hoof. The heterogeneity of the horn components and the wide tubular medulla predispose the white line to ascending infections (e.g. white line disease).

Blood supply

Arteries

The main supply to the hooves is provided by the palmar/plantar digital arteries of the two principal digits (aa. digitales palmares/plantares propriae axiales et abaxiales III et IV). They are complemented by the dorsal digital arteries (aa. digitales dorsales propriae axiales et abaxiales III et IV). The palmar digital arteries of the thoracic limb arise from the palmar common digital artery III (a. digitalis palmaris communis III), the continuation of the median artery. In the pelvic limb, the plantar digital arteries arise from the plantar common digital artery III and receive blood from a branch (ramus perforans distalis III) of the dorsal metatarsal artery III (a. metatarsea dorsalis III) (Fig. 18-56).

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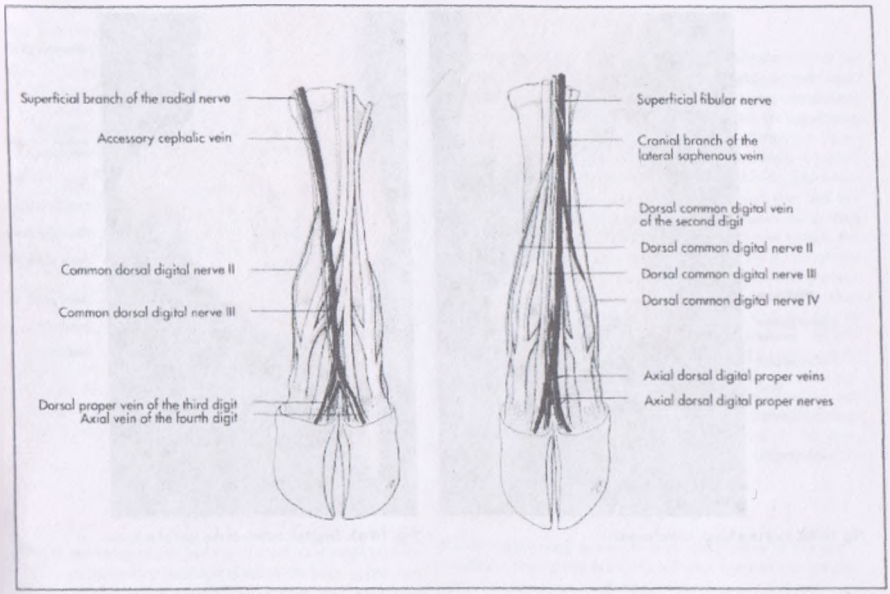


Fig. 18-57. Dorsal digital veins and nerves of the left thoracic and pelvic foot of an ox (schematic).

face. It extends almost to the apex of the distal phalanx, where it changes direction and turns back to the palmar/plantar end of the distal phalanx, and exits from the bone through the sole foramen. Within the bone the palmar/plantar abaxial and axial arteries anastomose to form the **terminal arch** (arcus terminalis), from which numerous branches are released. These branches form multiple anastomoses and leave the bone to provide the dermis of the wall and sole as well as parts of the coronary and bulbar dermis. From the terminal arch extends a stronger dorsal branch which anastomoses with the coronary artery. Several arteries pass to the apex of the hoof and the margin of the sole, where they form arc-like **anastomoses** (a. marginis solearis).

This extensive arterial network guarantees an optimal supply to the dermis of the hoof, from which the avascular dermis is supplied by diffusion.

Veins

Blood drains from the capillary beds into the **venous network** of the wall and sole dermis or into a separate superficial network. These networks are drained by a multitude of smaller veins that open in the dorsal digital vein (v. digitalis dorsalis propria axialis) or in the **axial or abaxial palmar/plantar digital veins** (v. digitalis palmaris/plantaris propria III et IV axiales et abaxiales). The venous networks within the wall and sole dermis are drained via the abaxial and axial veins (Fig. 18-56 and 57).

The blood of the **superficial** and **deep networks** of the coronary region is drained by all three digital veins. The blood from the well-developed bulbar network is drained by numerous veins, which open into the abaxial digital palmar/plantar vein. One of the venous branches of the bulbar segment anastomoses with the corresponding branch of the other hoof in the interdigital space. The rather indistinct venous network of the distal phalanx drains into the axial digital palmar/plantar vein. The veins of these networks are equipped with numerous valves.

The **complex venous system** of the hooves is of functional importance to maintain a well-balanced perfusion through the entire hoof. Venous valves and changing pressure promote backflow of the blood. Another important factor is the large number of anastomoses between the arterial and the venous sides of the blood flow. **Venous drainage of the coronary border** is brought about by the axial and abaxial superficial coronary veins, which drain into the dorsal branch of the middle phalanx. This branch opens into the dorsal axial digital vein, which in turn drains into the common dorsal digital vein III.

The palmar digital axial veins III and IV open into the interdigital vein, an anastomosis between the common dorsal and palmar/plantar digital veins III.

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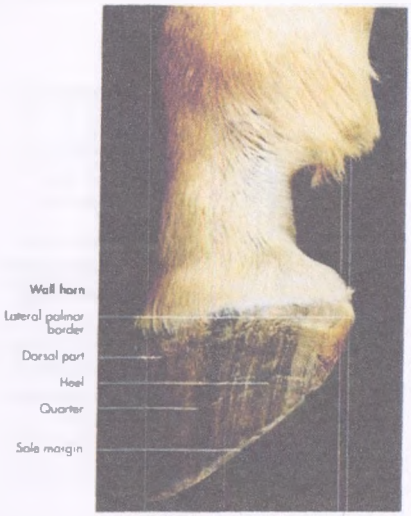


Fig. 18-60. Foot of a horse, lateral aspect.

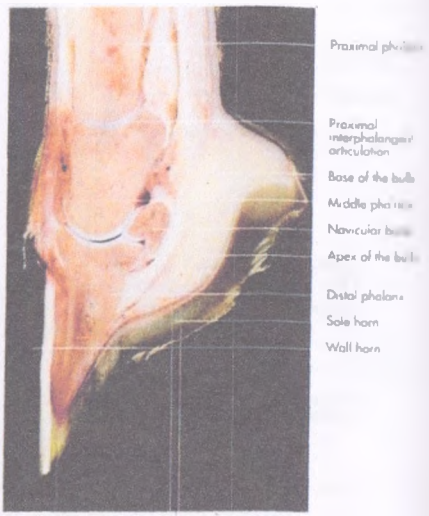


Fig. 18-61. Sagittal section of the foot of a horse.

Dorsal nerves:
- dorsal common digital nerve II
  (n. digitalis dorsalis communis II),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve II
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius II axialis),
- abaxial dorsal proper digital nerve II
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius II abaxialis),
- dorsal common digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis dorsalis communis III),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius III axialis),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius IV axialis,
- dorsal common digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis dorsalis communis IV),
- abaxial dorsal proper digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius IV abaxialis) for the coronary and bulb segments of the lateral principal digit,
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve V
  (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius V axialis) for the lateral dewclaw.

Pelvic limb

The plantar nerves of the hind feet are branches of the **tibial nerve**; the dorsal nerves are provided by the **superficial** and **deep fibular nerves** (Fig. 18-57). Corresponding to the bovine thoracic limb there are three dorsal and three plantar common digital nerves, which bifurcate proximal to the fetlock joint.

Plantar nerves:
- plantar common digital nerve II
  (n. digitalis plantaris communis II),
- axial plantar proper digital nerve II
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius II axialis) for the medial dewclaw,
- abaxial plantar proper digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius III abaxialis) for the medial hoof and bulb of the third digit,
- plantar common digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis plantaris communis III),
- axial plantar proper digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius III axialis) for the interdigital space and the bulb of the third digit,
- plantar common digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis plantaris communis III),
- axial plantar proper digital nerve III
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius III axialis) for the interdigital space and the bulb of the third digit,
- axial plantar proper digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius IV axialis) for the interdigital space and the bulb of the fourth digit,
- plantar common digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis plantaris communis IV),
- abaxial plantar proper digital nerve IV
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius IV abaxialis) and
- axial plantar proper digital nerve V
  (n. digitalis plantaris proprius V axialis).

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Dorsal nerves:

- dorsal common digital nerve II (n. digitalis dorsalis communis II),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve II (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius II axialis),
- abaxial plantar proper digital nerve II (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius II abaxialis),
- dorsal common digital nerve III (n. digitalis dorsalis communis III),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve III (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius III axialis),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve IV (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius IV axialis),
- dorsal common digital nerve IV (n. digitalis dorsalis communis IV),
- axial dorsal proper digital nerve V (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius V axialis) and
- abaxial dorsal proper digital nerve IV (n. digitalis dorsalis proprius IV abaxialis) for the dorsolateral part of coronary and bulb segments of the fourth digit.

Hoof (ungula) of the small ruminants

The **basic anatomy of the hooves** of small ruminants is similar to that of the bovine hoof and features the same segments. There are some species-specific differences with regard to the shape and structure of the hoof (Fig. 18-58).

The **angle of the wall** is steeper in small ruminants compared to cattle and measures about 50° to 70° in sheep and 60° to 70° in goats, depending on the breed. In relation to the length of the wall, the whole hoof is narrower. The wall is very thin, laterally compressed and sharply flexed upon itself, forming a very narrow dorsal back of the hoof. The tip of the toe is bent inward towards the interdigital space, creating a concave axial and a convex abaxial surface. In animals in which hoof care is neglected, the horn of the wall overgrows the sole distally and turns back to grow over the ground surface.

The **horn of the wall**, especially in some goat breeds, is of a harder consistency than that of cattle, resulting in very resistant hooves. The **subcutis of the perioplic** and **coronary segments** is modified to form a distinct pad on the abaxial side, especially in the goat.

The major part of the ground surface is formed by the soft, elastic horn of the proximal part of the bulb and thus predominates over the harder horn of the distal bulb and the sole segment. The **dewclaws** of the small ruminants do not have skeletal components and are connected to the main digits only by soft tissue.

Blood supply and innervation

Blood supply and innervation of the hooves of small ruminants is similar to that of the bovine hoof with some minor species-specific variations with regard to the exact course and branches of the vessels and nerves.

Hoof (ungula) of the pig

The **anatomy of the hooves** of the pig is similar to that of ruminants (Fig. 18-59). However, the phylogenetic reduction of the digits is not quite as advanced in the pig as in ruminants. The accessory digits are caudal to the principal ones and have a full complement of bones, unlike the rudimentary dewclaws of ruminants. The **skeleton of the dewclaws** is joined to the principal hooves by formation of a real joint. The lateral dewclaw is usually longer than the medial one and the dewclaws in the hind limb are located more proximally than those of the fore limb. Due to their reduction in length, the dewclaws do not have contact to the ground while the animal is standing on a hard surface, but bear weight on soft ground.

The **hooves** are straight and have a bulb that is set apart from the wall and sole. The bulb protrudes distally, so that the soft horn of its palmar/plantar part takes over the palmar/plantar half of the ground surface. The dorsal half of the ground surface is formed by the distal part of the bulb segment and the sole segment. The junction between the soft horn of the palmar/plantar part and the hard horn of the distal part of the bulb is predisposed to fissures within the horn. This problem usually occurs in animals kept on concrete and can lead to severe hoof problems.

Blood supply and innervation

Blood supply and innervation of the hooves of the pig is similar to that of the bovine hoof with some minor species-specific variations with regard to the exact course and branches of the vessels and nerves.

Equine hoof (ungula)

The **digital skeleton** of the horse is reduced to one ray, the **third digit**, which carries the hoof. Some individuals may be born with an additional second or fourth digit (**polydactylism**), which is usually shorter then the principal digit and does not contact the ground. Reduction of the skeleton to one weight-bearing structure puts the third digit under considerable mechanical force. The integrity and condition of the hoof is essential to the horse.

Definition

The **term hoof** is sometimes used for the horny enclosure of the distal phalanx only, while in other contexts it includes the horny appendage as well as the following enclosed musculoskeletal structures (Fig. 18-61):

- distal part of the middle phalanx (os coronale),
- the distal interphalangeal joint (articulatio interphalangea distalis),
- distal phalanx (os ungulare),
- lateral and medial hoof cartilage (cartilago ungularis medialis et lateralis),
- distal sesamoid (navicular) bone (os sesamoideum distale) with the terminal portion of the deep digital flexor tendon and
- navicular bursa (bursa podotrochlearis).

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Fig. 18-62. Transverse section of the hoof of a horse at the level of the angles of the sole



Fig. 18-63. Dermis of the hoof after removal of the hoof shoe (lateral aspect).



Fig. 18-64. Dermis of the hoof after removal of the hoof shoe (ground surface)

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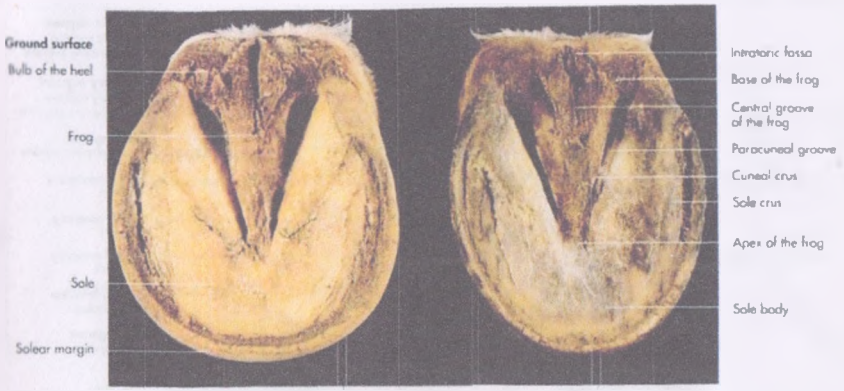


Fig. 18-65. Round ground surface of a front foot (left) and oval ground surface of a hind foot (right)

Shape of the hoof

In the **newborn foal** the hooves are **bilaterally symmetrical** and have the same shape in all four feet. The typical differences in hoof form present in the **adult horse**, are the result of the forces exerted on the hoof during locomotion. This process starts immediately after birth, and after a few months it is possible to distinguish left from right and front from hind feet in the isolated specimen. Confinement of young horses usually results in the development of hoof deformities.

The **angle the toe** makes with the ground is about 45° to 50° in the forelimb and slightly more (about 50° to 55°) in the hind. Correspondingly the ratio between the length of the wall to the height of the heels is about 3:1 in the front and 2:1 in the back. The **quarters** (lateral and medial walls of the hoof) descend toward the ground more steeply on the **medial side**, which can be used to identify left and right hoof specimens. The shape of the ground surface differs between the front and hind feet: the **sole of front hooves** are more **circular**, while the ground surface of the **hind hooves** are oval with the apex at the toe (Fig. 18-65).

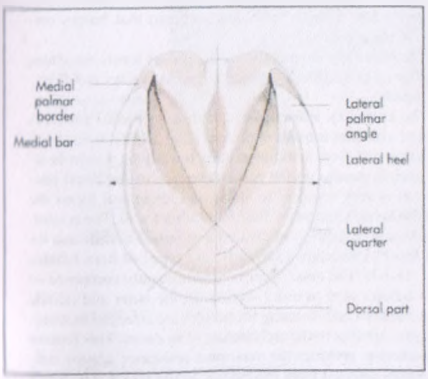


Fig. 18-66. Division of the hoof wall (schematic).

Wall (paries corneus, lamina)

The wall can be divided into **several parts** (Fig. 18-60 and 66):

- dorsal part or toe (pars dorsalis),
- sides of quarters (pars lateralis et medialis),
- heels (pars mobilis lateralis et medialis) and
- bars (pars inflexa lateralis et medialis).

The toe is the most dorsal point of the hoof and its limit is described by two imaginary lines drawn from the apex of the frog at a 45° angle to the sole margin (Fig. 18-66). The quarters are the part of wall following the toe palmarly/plantarly to the widest part of the hoof. The rounded back of the hoof is termed the heels, which reflect upon themselves to continue forward for a short distance at the side of the frog as the bars. The bars provide stabilisation to the relatively thin and mobile horn of the heels.

Base surface (facies solearis)

The **ground surface** of the hoof (Fig. 18-65) consists of the:

- solear margin (margo solearis),
- sole (solea cornea),
- frog (cuneus corneus) and
- bulb of the heels (torus corneus).

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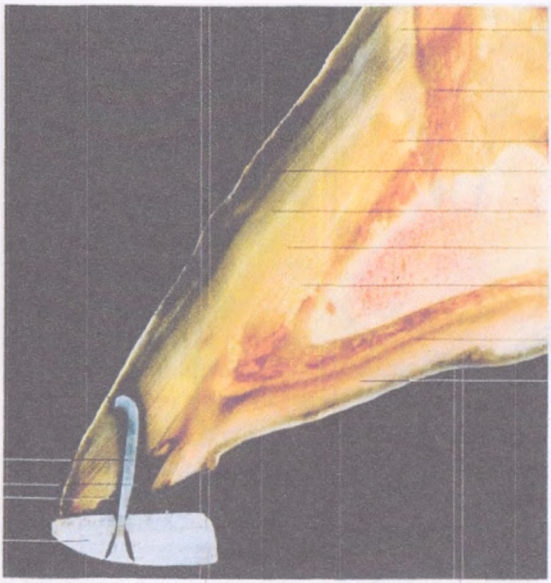


Fig. 18-68. Paramedian section of the dorsal part of the hoof of a horse, showing horn tubules and the horseshoe with a hoofnail (plastinate); courtesy of H. Obermaier, Munich

Periopic segment (limbus)

The periopic segment forms a band a few millimetres thick just distal to the hairy skin and extends onto the heel bulbs palmarly/plantarly.

The **subcutis of the periople** (tela subcutanea limbi) is modified to form the bulging periopic cushion, which joins the heel bulbs on the back.

The **dermis of the periopic segment** (dermis limbi) is studded with slender papillae (papillae dermales) a few millimetre long (Fig. 18-67).

The **epidermis of the periopic segment** comprise the external layer (stratum externum) of the wall. It forms a band of soft, rubbery horn a few millimetres thick near the coronet, but dries to a glossy thin layer distally (Fig. 18-68). The periople consists of an admixture of tubular and intertubular horn, which loses its tubular structure more distally. The periople horn is usually worn off when it reaches the middle of the hoof wall.

The **horn cells** and the **membrane binding material** are able to bind water, so that the periopic horn acts as a fluid reservoir to keep the underlying coronary horn moist and thus elastic. The lipid component of the membrane binding material prevents the horn from both soaking up and losing too much water.

Coronary segment (corona)

The coronary segment constitutes a band up to 15 mm in width distal to the periopic segment (Fig. 18-67). The underlying **subcutis** (tela subcutanea coronae) is thickened to form the **coronary cushion** (pulvinus coronae) that bulges outward at the coronet.

The **coronary dermis** (dermis coronae) forms numerous papillae up to 8 mmin length and arranged in rows and directed distally.

The **coronary epidermis** (epidermis coronae) produces horn of a distinct **tubular structure** (Fig. 18-68). It reaches a thickness of 1.2 cm and runs distally toward the weight-bearing margin parallel to the parietal surface of the distal phalanx. It is very resistant to stress and strain and forms the **middle layer** (stratum medium) of the hoof wall. The coronary horn can be further subdivided into **outer**, **middle** and **inner layers** characterised by different types of horn tubules (Fig. 18-67). The outer layer is predominantly composed of horn tubules oval in cross section. In the outer and middle layer the horn cells forming the tubules are arranged in several layers, similar to the architecture of an onion. This form of construction provides the maximum resistance against radiate forces directed from the outside to the inside. The **inner layer** of the coronary horn consists of round horn tubules

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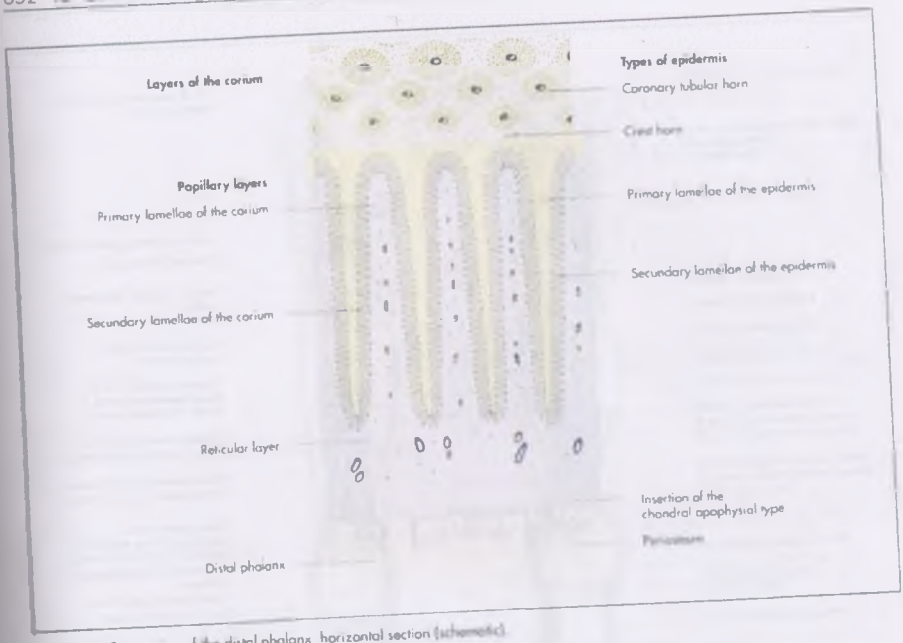


Fig. 18-69. Suspension of the distal phalanx, horizontal section (schematic).

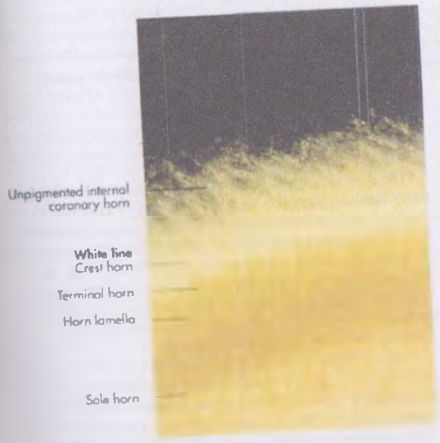


Fig. 18-70. White line of an equine hoof.

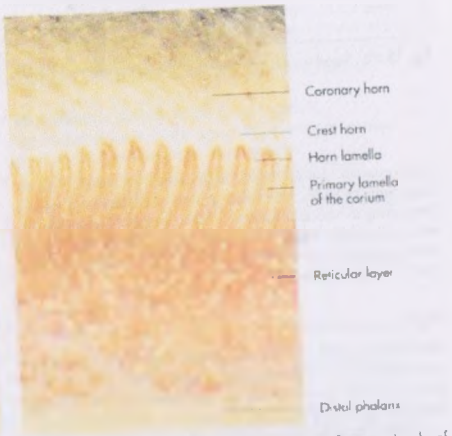


Fig. 18-71. Suspension of the distal phalanx of an equine hoof (horizontal section).

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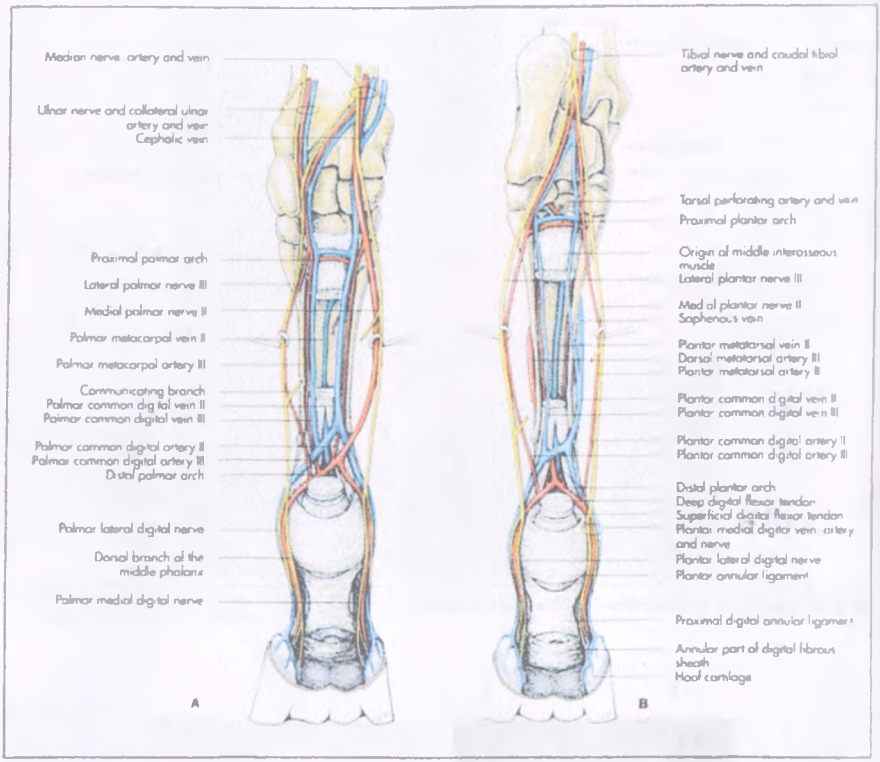


Fig. 18-72. Blood vessels and nerves of the autopodium of the fore- and hind limbs of the horse (A palmar aspect, B plantar aspect).

which contain spindle-shaped horn cells in its cortex. This arrangement provides resistance against proximodistal forces, thus acting as shock absorbers. The boundary between the inner and middle layer, where the two different horn types come together, is predisposed for fissures which can lead to cracks in the hoof wall.

Wall segment (paries)

The wall segment forms the **internal segment** (segmentum internum), which lies beneath the coronary horn (Fig. 18-67). It becomes visible only on the surface of the sole as the **white line** (zona alba), the junction between the sole and the wall.

There is **no subcutis** underlying the wall segment. The reticular layer of the wall dermis (**dermis parietis**) is directly adjacent to the parietal surface of the distal phalanx.

The dermis of the wall segment consists of about 600 **primary laminae** (lamellae dermales) that run in a proximodistal direction and are on average 3.5 mm long in the warmblood horse. The primary laminae bear about 110 secondary laminae each, which are also orientated proximodistally (Fig. 18-69). They also carry some papillae on the crest at their proximal origin and at their distal ending. The distal crest papillae are continuous with the finger-shaped terminal papillae, which form the end of each lamina (Fig. 18-67).

Corresponding to the structure of the dermis, the epidermis of the wall segment also forms primary and **secondary lamellae** (lamellae epidermales) that interdigitate with the dermal laminae. Only the primary laminae possess a horny layer. They slide gradually toward the ground, pushed by continuous proliferation, and appear on the ground surface as the white line. The epidermis over the crest papillae forms horn tubules, which

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19 Topographical-clinical anatomy

H.E. König, J. Maierl, A. Probst and H.-G. Liebich

Head (caput)

Stratigraphy

The external covering of the head comprises the following layers:

- cutis,
- subcutis,
- superficial fascia of the head and
- deep fascia of the head.

The facial cutaneous muscle, the frontal muscle (in the ox), and the zygomatic muscle are found in the **superficial fascia of the head**. The **deep fascia of the head** is connected to the muscles, vessels, nerves and glands. It is anchored at the **facial crest** or the **facial tuber**, and is also partly connected to the superficial fascia. The following muscles are located in the deep fascia: the nasolabial levator muscle, the canine muscle, the levator muscle of the upper lip, (in the ox also the depressor muscle of the upper lip), the buccinator muscle, the depressor muscle of the lower lip and the masseter muscle.

Most of the large blood vessels and nerves of the head lie protected beneath the muscles and within the deep fascia. The facial nerve is the one exception; it crosses the surface of the masseter muscle. In carnivores, the large blood vessels of the head are located beneath the deep fascia.

Regions

The most important regions of the head include the (Fig. 19-1 and 2):

- nasal region,
- oral region,
- chin region,
- buccal region,
- infraorbital region,
- masseteric region,
- orbital region,
- intermandibular region and
- temporal region.

The structure of the head and the structures within the cavities of the head (skull, orbital cavity, nasal cavity, oral cavity and pharyngeal cavity) are discussed in detail in the systematic anatomy chapters. For more information, see Chapters 1, 7, 8, 12, 14, 17 and 18.

Nasal region

The nasal region contains the nostrils and the surrounding area, including the nasolabial plane of the ox, the muzzle of carnivores, the snout of pigs, and the wide rostrum of the horse.

The **nostrils** of the **horse** are wide due to two alar cartilages. The ventral nasal commissure is curved and much wider than the dorsal commissure. The nostrils lead to the nasal vestibule, in which the **nasal diverticulum** – also called the false nostril – is dorsally situated. To reach the true nasal cavity with a naso-oesophageal tube, the tube must be inserted ventrally to the alar fold; otherwise one enters the blind ending false nostril.

At the border between the skin and the mucosa in the nasal vestibule is the **orifice** of the **nasolacrimal duct**. In the horse, the slit-like opening of the vomeronasal organ is found on the floor of the ventral nasal meatus in the mucosa and next to the nasal septum. Structures within the nasal region include:

- **musculature**: the nasolabial levator muscle, the levator muscle of the upper lip, (common aponeurosis, in the horse) and the nasal muscles,
- **blood vessels**: superior labial artery, lateral nasal artery, dorsal nasal artery; the palatine artery, which reaches the surface through the interincisive canal, and
- **nerves**: infraorbital nerve (sensory) and facial nerve (motor).

Oral region and chin region

These regions include the upper and lower lips. The skin covering the lips is extremely thin and cannot be separated from the underlying musculature, the orbicular muscle of the mouth. The cutaneous muscle of the face merges with the oral orbicular muscle at the commissure of the lips. The levator muscle of the upper lip and the depressor muscle of the lower lip combine with the upper and lower lip, respectively.

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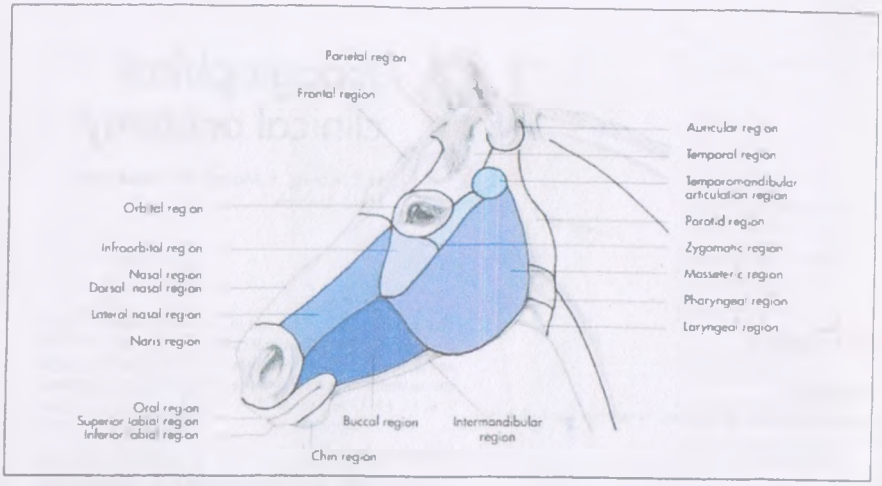


Fig. 19-2. The head regions in the horse (schematic)

level of the bony septum, the maxillary sinus septum. The best way to locate the septum is to imagine a line connecting the rostral end of the facial crest to the medial canthus. The level of the septum is at the halfway point on this line.

Masseteric region

This name is derived from one the mastication muscle, the masseter muscle, which defines this region. Neighbouring this region rostrally and dorsally are the buccal region and the infraorbital region, respectively. The edge of the mandible forms the caudal and ventral borders (intermandibular region), whereas the facial crest and the zygomatic arch form the dorsal border.

The facial artery (pulse measurement in the horse), the transverse facial vein (sinus) and the transverse facial branch of the auriculotemporal nerve pass through this region. The facial nerve crosses the masseter muscle and divides at this point into the dorsal buccal branch and the ventral buccal branch (**plexus buccalis**).

The parotid duct passes over the masseter muscle in carnivores (Fig. 19-6), but also in small ruminants. The deep facial vein (sinus) is situated beneath the masseter muscle on the maxilla just ventral of the facial crest. Further ventral towards the cheek are the buccal artery, buccal vein (sinus), and buccal nerve. Other structures in this region:

- **arteries**: the masseteric branch originating from the external carotid artery and the masseteric branch originating from the transverse facial and the facial arteries.
- **innervation of the masseter muscle**: the masseteric nerve branching from the mandibular nerve (V_3); this nerve travels through the mandibular notch and enters the masseter muscle along a path approximating a line connecting the jaw joint with the facial notch.

Orbital region

The orbital region lies between the supraorbital margin of the frontal bone and the infraorbital margin formed by the lacrimal and zygomatic bone respectively. The eyeball and its organs are found here. The upper and lower eyelids are covered on the outside with skin and on the inside with conjunctiva. A connective tissue plate, the tarsus, provides support and shape for the eyelids. The free edge of the eyelids containing the lashes is kept moist by the tarsal gland (Meibomian gland) located in the tarsus.

The muscle that **lifts the upper eyelid** is the levator muscle of the upper eyelid and is innervated by the **oculomotor nerve (III)**. Paralysis of the facial nerve does not affect this nerve. The remaining muscles of the eyelids – the orbicular muscle, the malar muscle and the levator of the medial angle of the eye – are all innervated by the **facial nerve (VII)**. The sensory innervation of the skin and cornea is provided by branches of the **ophthalmic nerve (V_1)** and the **zygomatic nerve (V_2)**. The frontal nerve innervates the middle part of the upper eyelid, the lacrimal nerve innervates the temporal corner of the eyelids, the infratrochlear nerve innervates the area of the medial canthus, and the zygomatic nerve innervates the lower eyelid.

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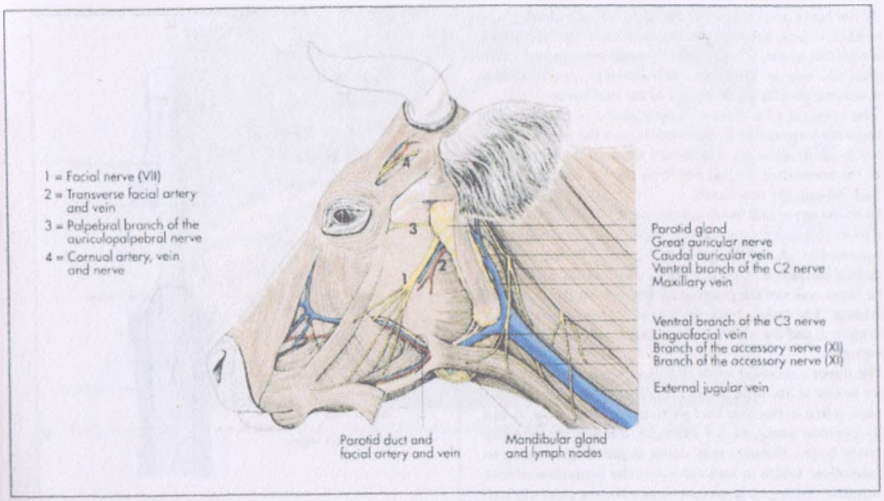


Fig. 19-5. Topography of the superficial organs and structures of the head in the ox (schematic).

mestic species except the horse to the interior of the optical nerve and combine to form the **blood vessels of the retina**. This central artery divides at the optical nerve disc and branches into the retina in species-dependent patterns (Fig. 14-41 to 48 and Fig. 19-16). The retinal arteries and their accompanying veins can be examined at the fundus of the eye. In horses, the central artery does not exist. Instead, the ciliary arteries form a circular artery around the optical nerve disc. The conjunctival arteries arise from the rostral ciliary arteries and the nasal and temporal eyelid arteries.

The four vorticose veins – one dorsal, one ventral, one nasal and one temporal – break through the sclera at the level of the equator of the eyeball. These vessels drain either into the ophthalmic plexus or into the external ophthalmic vein.

Intermandibular region

The intermandibular region is situated between the two mandibles and reaches from the tip of the chin to the transition between the head and neck. After removal of the skin, the facial cutaneous muscle appears. Beneath this muscle are the mandibular lymph nodes. The linguofacial trunk and the parotid duct (except in carnivores and small ruminants) run lateral to these lymph nodes. The tendon of the sternomandibular muscle can be found in the caudal area of this region in the ox and the horse. The mylohyoid muscle (with the mylohyoid nerve, V_3), the digastric muscle (rostral part of the belly), the omohyoid muscle, and the sternohyoid muscle are found in the deeper parts of this section. The geniohyoid muscle, the sublingual artery and vein, the mandibular duct, and the lingual nerve (V_3) run through the even deeper layers of this region. In addition, the major sublingual salivary gland (not in the horse, however), the minor sublingual salivary gland, and the medial pterygoid muscle are situated here. The tongue musculature (the genioglossus, the hyoglossus and the styloglossus muscles) and the hypoglossus nerve, as well as the mucosa of the rostral oral cavity floor or the lateral sublingual recess, are found dorsal to the geniohyoid muscle.

Temporal region

The temporal region in combination with the cornual region of horned ruminants is clinically important. The temporal region lies between the dorsal temporal line and the ventral zygomatic arch. The region of the horns, the cornual region, is located caudodorsal of these structures (Fig. 19-3 and 4).

The powerful frontal muscle, embedded in the superficial fascia of the head, is the first structure to appear after removal of the skin. Beneath this muscle and running parallel to the temporal line is the **cornual branch** (a branch of the zygomaticotemporal branch of the zygomatic nerve V_2). This nerve is laterally accompanied by the cornual artery and vein (branches of the superficial temporal artery and vein). The temporal muscle forms the deeper layers of this region. In the goat, the horn cores are additionally innervated by the cornual branch of the infratrochlear nerve (V_1). The infratrochlear nerve crosses the frontal region at the level of the supraorbital foramen and reaches the medial and dorsal side of the horn cores (see also Chapter 18).

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In the horse and the ox, the interdental space (diastema) is a toothless area between the incisors and the premolars. Through this space, it is possible to reach into the oral cavity to grasp the tongue. This forces the animal to open its mouth, thus making possible examination of the oral cavity.

The removal of a diseased upper molar is possible only through the trepanation of the maxilla over the molar. Access to the tooth in question is achieved through the trepanation hole, the tooth then tapped out from above, and finally extracted through the oral cavity.

Both the upper and lower canine teeth in dogs have extensive roots that reach far caudal, beneath the roots of the first two premolars. A radiograph of the canines in the dog can serve to estimate the dog's age. Dentin is continuously added to the inner walls of the pulp cavity throughout the life of the individual. The pulp cavity progressively narrows with advancing age, and the width of this canal can be measured in a radiograph.

The upper carnassial tooth (P4) is of special clinical relevance in that it has three roots. This fact must be taken into account when extracting this particular tooth. Also, it can easily become damaged, for example, through the grinding of strong bones. Fissures may occur in the tooth, leading to inflammation, which in turn can cause the formation of root granulomas. The granuloma can form a fistula, draining into the infraorbital region.

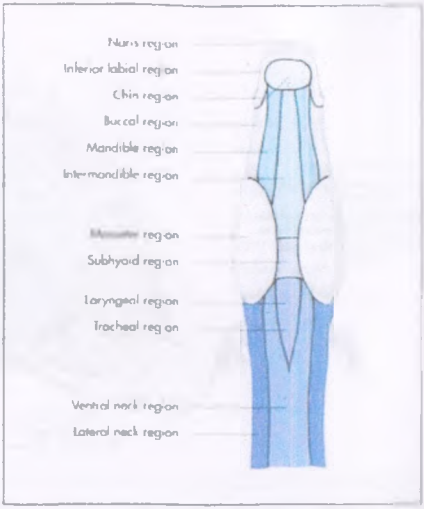


Fig. 19-7. The head and neck regions in the horse (ventral view, schematic).

Nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses

The nasolacrimal canal (canalis nasolacrimalis) opens onto the **floor of the nasal vestibule** (vestibulum nasi). The opening is visible, especially in the horse, at the transition of the skin to the mucosa. The conjunctiva is reached by flushing this canal (see Chapter 16). The nasal vestibule continues dorsally to form the nasal diverticulum in the horse. When inserting a nasopharyngeal tube, it is important to avoid entering the diverticulum. A nasopharyngeal tube is inserted through the **ventral nasal passage** (meatus nasi ventralis) and is slowly advanced in the caudal direction. The laryngoscope is also inserted through the ventral nasal passage to allow visualisation of the pharynx and the guttural pouch. The external distance measured from the nostril to the lateral canthus is approximately equal to the distance from the nostril opening to the point in the nasopharynx (pars nasalis pharyngis) where the **pharyngeal opening of the auditory tube** is located. The pharyngeal opening of the auditory tube is covered on the medial side by a cartilage plate overlaid with a layer of mucosa. This plate conceals the cranial end of the auditory tube, which opens ventrally.

The dorsal nasal passage is narrow and ends at the olfactory mucosa and is referred to as the dorsal nasal meatus. The olfactory mucosa, as well as the respiratory mucosa lining the remaining nasal cavity, are highly vascularised. Surgical procedures in this region are accompanied by excessive haemorrhaging.

The paranasal sinuses open up into the **middle nasal passage**, which is also referred to as the **sinus passage**. These openings cannot be taken advantage of clinically in veterinary medicine as in human medicine. In animals, the openings to the paranasal sinuses are not accessible from the sinus passage. Access to the paranasal sinuses is achieved through **trepanation**. The maxillary sinus in the horse is separated into two compartments by a bony septum. Both compartments are accessible when the opening of the trepanation is located directly above this wall. The location of the septum can be found approximately at the midpoint of a line connecting the medial canthus with the rostral end of the facial crest in the infraorbital region.

The **premolars** and **molars** of the horse cannot be extracted from within the oral cavity, except when they are quite loose. These teeth must be tapped out from the roots, which can only be reached through the **maxillary sinus**.

The **frontal sinus** in the ox plays an important role clinically because this sinus continues into the horn core. This fact should not be forgotten when dehorning an ox (Fig. 19-3 and 4). The frontal sinus in the horse is connected to the sinus of the dorsal turbinate, forming the **conchofrontal sinus**. A line from the lateral canthus to the median line of the head reveals the location of this sinus. Trepanation should occur at the midpoint of this line. The middle of a similar line, but beginning at the medial canthus, reveals the point of trepanation to open the **dorsal conchal sinus**.

Drugs to treat disease of the nasal sinuses are best applied locally since the mucosa of the nasal sinuses, unlike the respiratory and olfactory mucosa, is poorly vascularised. Intramuscular or intravenous application of drugs is ineffective because a high concentration of the active substance cannot be achieved at the diseased location by means of the blood supply. In the horse, squamous-cell carcinoma can occur in the mandibular sinuses, in the nasal sinuses, in the pharynx and in

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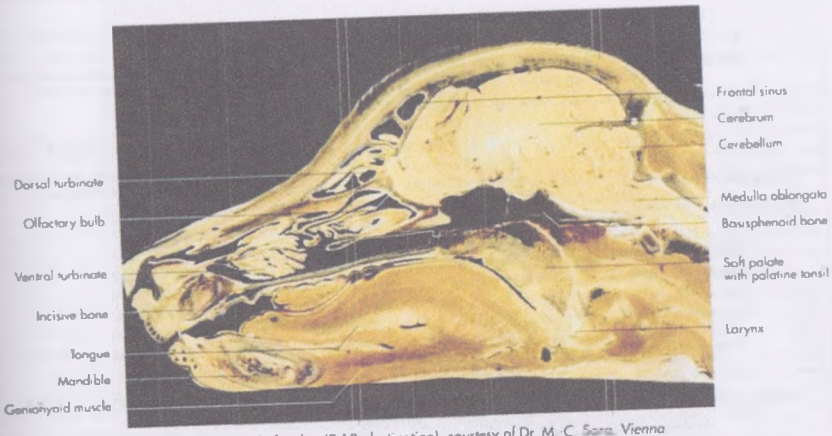


Fig. 19-12. Paramedian section of the head of a dog (E 12 plastination), courtesy of Dr. M. C. Sora, Vienna

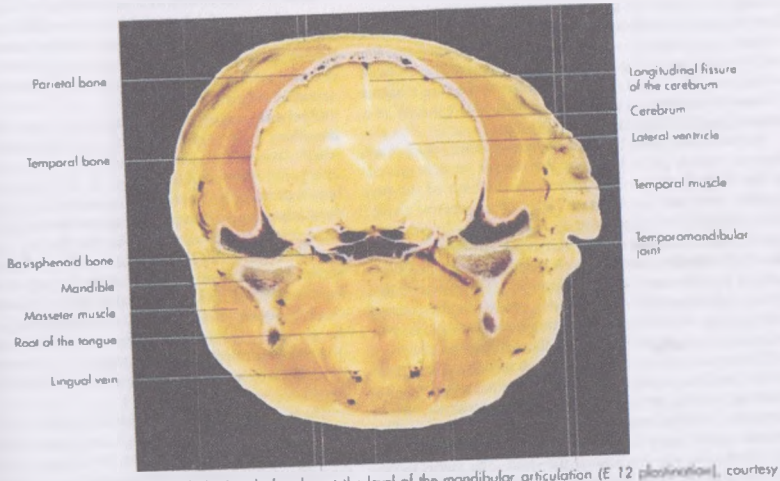


Fig. 19-13. Transverse section through the head of a dog at the level of the mandibular articulation (E 12 plastination), courtesy of Dr. M. C. Sora, Vienna

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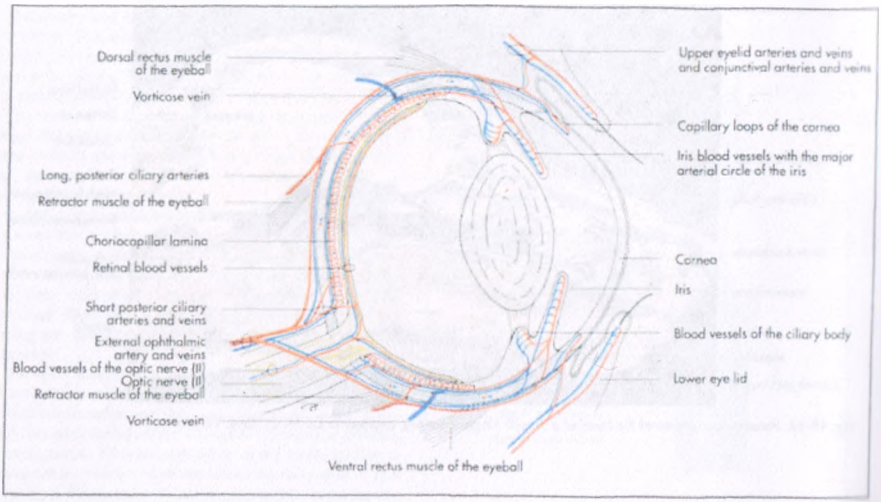


Fig. 19-16. Blood vessels of the eye in the dog (median section, schematic).

Guttural pouch of the horse

Unique to equines, the **guttural pouch** forms from the cartilage section of the auditory tubes, the ventral part of which remains open through a slit-like fissure. The mucosa of the auditory tubes covering this fissure expands to form a blind-ending sac (Fig. 19-11). For more information, see Chapter 17, and the section on the parotid region. The capacity of a guttural pouch is approximately 500 ml.

In the dorsal region between the two guttural pouches are the long muscle of the head and the ventral, straight muscle of the head. In the ventral region, the mucosa of the two pouches meet and are separated only by connective tissue. Each guttural pouch lies loosely over the stylohyoid bone, which partially divides each pouch into a **larger, medial recess** and a **smaller, lateral recess**. In close contact with the guttural pouches are the retropharyngeal lymph nodes. Abscesses forming in the lymph nodes can affect the guttural pouches (e.g., in young horses during infection with streptococcus equi, the causative agent of the disease strangles).

The guttural pouch is in contact with many important cranial tracts. Close to the caudal edge of the medial recess, the **common carotid artery** branches into the external carotid artery, the occipital artery and the internal carotid artery. The internal carotid artery follows the caudal guttural pouch wall as it climbs towards the base of the skull. The **vagus nerve (X)** runs parallel to the internal carotid artery. Rostral to the vagus nerve is the approximately 2-cm-long, spindle-shaped sympathetic **cranial cervical ganglion**, which continues towards the cranial cavity as the **internal carotid nerve**.

Together, the paths of the **internal carotid artery**, the **vagus nerve**, and the **cranial cervical ganglion** cause an indention in the caudal wall of the guttural pouch, which can be observed as a mucosal fold from the inside of the pouch. Also located here are the **hypoglossus nerve (XII)** and the **glossopharyngeal nerve (IX)**. These two structures run in a craniventral direction along the ventral wall of the medial recess and are also visible as a fold during endoscopic examination of the guttural pouch.

The **external carotid artery** and its continuation, the **maxillary artery**, run along the wall of the lateral guttural pouch recess. The pulsation of both the external carotid artery and the maxillary artery can be observed from the lumen of the guttural pouch. Diseases of the guttural pouch, most importantly the aspergillosis, can damage these arteries through erosion, causing fatal haemorrhaging characterised by severe epistaxis. The disease process can also affect the nerve. An iatrogenic paralysis of the hypoglossus nerve is conceivable after an inexpert endoscopic examination.

The guttural pouch contacts the mandibular articulation, the external acoustic meatus and the atlanto-occipital joint (for more information, see Chapter 17). This topography should kept in mind when diseases of the guttural pouch occur.

The guttural pouch is accessible through the **Viborg triangle**. The borders of this triangle are formed by the tendon of the sternomandibular muscle, the linguofacial vein, and the angle of the mandible in the ventral area of the parotid region. The guttural pouch is found here only when it is filled with a pathological substance, for example pus, which weighs it down. A second incision is required dorsally in the retromandibular fossa between the mandible and the wing of the atlas at the level of the occipitohyoid muscle in order to allow the pathological contents to drain.

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Use of ultrasound make possible differentiation of structures of the upper cervical region in the horse.

Eye

The eye includes the **eyeball** (light receptor) and the **auxiliary organs of the eye**, comprised of the lacrimal apparatus, the muscles of the eye, and the eyelids. The eyeball consists of three hollow spheres situated within each other. The outer **cornea** is the easiest to examine and the most accessible of the three layers. The tunica mucosa of the cornea is not vascularised, but is intensely **innervated** by the **sensory ophthalmic nerve**. The **corneal reflex** follows connections of the sensory cells in the trigeminus nucleus with the motor nucleus of the intermediofacial nerve over the reticular formation in the medulla oblongata. The inner epithelium lining the anterior chamber of the eye sits on a basement membrane (Descemet membrane).

The depth of injuries to the cornea must be estimated for prognostic purposes. Penetration of the cornea and the strong Descemet membrane opens the anterior chamber of the eye, causing loss of the aqueous humour. This is a serious injury that must be treated quickly or else the eyeball could be irreversibly damaged. **Chronic irritation of the cornea** stimulates the **growth of blood vessels** in the cornea itself, which can lead to permanent opacity.

The **middle layer** of the eyeball is the **uvea** (tunica media bulbi), and from the outside, only the iris can be seen. A reflective layer, the **tapetum lucidum**, reflects light shone on it at night in all domestic animals except the pig. Pigment in the iris determines the **colour of the eyes**.

Albino animals do not have pigment in their iris, which shine red because of the numerous blood vessels located in the iris. The lens is attached to the ciliary processes with the help of the zonula fibres (Zinn fibres). Attempts to remove the lens in an anatomical preparation always result in the partial tearing of the ciliary processes.

The uvea is not only **heavily vascularised**, but also contains a large amount of pigment which blocks light. Light is allowed into this layer only through the pupil. Four large veins, the vorticose veins, pass through the uvea. At the level of the globe equator, these vessels leave the proximal part of the uvea, the chorioidea, and break through the tunica externa, or sclera. It is assumed that strictures around the **vorticose veins** at their exit points indirectly lead to **increased pressure** in the eyeball, contributing to the development of **glaucoma**. Conversely, not enough pressure in the eyeball can result in the detachment of the retina (**ablatio retinae**).

The **retina** can be viewed at the fundus of the eye through an ophthalmoscope, chiefly for examination of the blood vessels of the retina and their branches (Fig. 14-14 to 18). The central retinal artery, which is consistently found in human beings, does not exists in domestic mammals. The pattern created by the branching of the **arteries of the retina** is species-specific. Instead, the artery of the retina is replaced by collateral vessels from the short ciliary arteries which form a vascular wreath around the optic nerve disc (**circulus vasculosus n. optici**).

Indicative of high blood pressure (hypertension) is the tightly coiled appearance of the fundus arteries. Diabetes mellitus also causes visible changes in the retinal vessels. For example, the vessels appear coiled, and haemorrhaging is observed. In the dog, diabetes mellitus can lead to opacity of the lens (diabetic cataracts).

The **optical nerve** does not directly transverse the orbita, but rather runs in a wide arc towards the optic foramen. This path increases the length of the nerve and prevents excessive injury in the case of a trauma-induced exophthalmus and allows the eye to be replaced in the orbita. This does not affect sight and avoids enucleation of the eye.

The **conjunctiva** can be seen on the underside of the eyelids and covers the visible parts of the sclera (white). In disease, the conjunctiva can change its appearance, providing the clinician with evidence of a pathological condition. An icterus can be identified by yellow-tinged conjunctiva, just as fever or allergies cause reddening of the conjunctiva. In the case of anaemia or shock, the conjunctiva appear pale. Medications for the eye can be locally administered in the conjunctival sac.

The **nictitating membrane**, or third eyelid, is supported by a cartilage core and contains small lymph nodules (moduli lymphatici conjunctivales). These lymphatic structures may become chronically inflamed in canines, requiring curettage, or in extreme cases, surgical removal of the third eyelid.

The **lacrimal gland** lies over the dorsotemporal part of the globe. Lacrimal secretions produce the tear film, which moistens the cornea and provides a medium for the transport of nutrients to and from the cornea. A reduction, malfunction or cessation of the lacrimal secretion causes the cornea to dry out, which leads to opacity and eventual blindness. A surgical procedure, parotid duct transposition, has been described in canines. This procedure involves transferring the parotid duct and papilla to the dorsal conjunctival sac to provide substitute lubrication in the form of the basal secretion from the parotid salivary gland.

If retrobulbar disorders are suspected, use of ultrasound (use of a 10-MHz probe) as well as CT and MRI will aid in the diagnosis of such conditions.

Ear

The ear is a sensory organ for both **hearing** and **balance**. The **outer ear** consists of the pinna or ear flap and the auditory canal. It is separated from the inner ear by the tympanic membrane. Cartilage provides the internal support for the **pinnae** and influences their form. The delicate skin covering the cartilage is bound to it through a layer of loose connective tissue. **Blood vessels** supplying the cartilage are found in this layer. Injuries to the vessels cause the skin to separate from the cartilage, leading to extensive aural haematoma.

The auditory canal (meatus acusticus) consists of an outer, cartilaginous section and an inner, bony section. In dogs and cats, the outer, auditory canal does not lead straight to the tympanic membrane, but makes a sharp bend, much like the angle of a hockey stick. This fact is not only important for the insertion of an otoscope, but also when cleaning the ear.

The heavily **vascularised tympanic membrane** with the tympanic membrane navel (umbo membranae tympani) can be viewed with an otoscope. Severe disease or inflammation of the inner ear is often accompanied by secretion accumulation.

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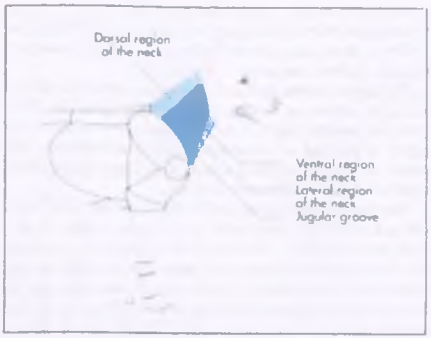


Fig. 19-17. The neck region in the dog (lateral view, schematic)

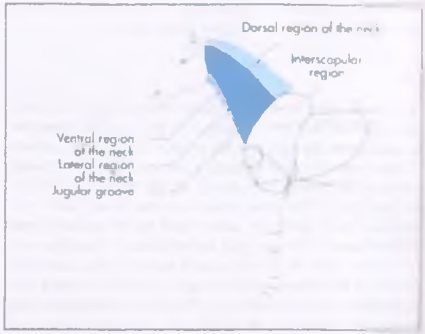


Fig. 19-18. The neck region in the horse (lateral view, schematic)

In such cases, the tympanic membrane is perforated (myringotomy) to allow the pathological secretion to drain. This defect in the tympanic membrane closes after a short time.

The bulla tympanica can also be opened ventrally (osteotomy of the bulla tympanica). In this case, care must be taken not to injure neighbouring structures such as the hypoglossus nerve (XII) and the internal carotid artery.

The **auditory ossicles** form a chain located in the upper levels of the **middle ear**, in the epitympanicum. The intermediofacial nerve runs close to the epitympanicum. Diseases of the middle ear can also affect the facial nerves. The auditory tubes (Eustachian tubes) connect the pharynx to the tympanic cavity. Pharyngeal infection can ascend the auditory tubes to reach the middle ear. The ventral, slit-like auditory tubes serve as the opening for the **guttural pouch** in horses (for further information, see Chapter 17). For this reason, an ascending infection seldom occurs in horses, because the inflammation process usually weighs down the guttural pouch.

Disease of the middle ear can lead to facial nerve paralysis and affect the inner ear as well, causing balance disorders. **Congenital hearing disorders** occur in some dog breeds, such as Dalmatians. The genetic disposition for deafness appears to be connected to coat colour. Histological examinations of the organ of Corti from affected animals have revealed the absence of sensory cells.

During a post mortem examination, it is sometimes necessary to remove the **vestibular ganglion** located in the internal auditory meatus in order to examine the inner ear. An incision must be made through the central pillar of the cochlea so that a tissue sample may be collected from the **spiral ganglion** and the organ of Corti. The angle of the incision in relation to the base of the skull is specific to each species.

Brain

Injuries to the brain manifest themselves as behavioural changes or functional deficits in the areas innervated by the cranial nerves. Central facial nerve paralysis, diplegia [illegible] been previously described (see the section "Cranial nerves" in this chapter). In older animals, stenosis or occlusion of the brain blood vessels can occur, resulting in a stroke accompanied by symptoms of paralysis. Injuries to the brain cortex can also lead to paralysis. The symptoms are not as apparent as in humans, since the cortex in animals is not as highly developed. For this reason, it is assumed that animals do not possess a similarly highly developed consciousness.

Tumours of the brain can also cause **abnormal behaviour**, depending on the location of the process (e.g. limbic system, in the amygdala). Circulatory disorders of the cerebrospinal fluid in the brain ventricles, e.g. in the aqueduct of the mesencephalon, can induce a **hydrocephalus** in animals.

Either the cranial nerves involved or the descending and ascending spinal tracts are affected by injuries to the brain stem, the latter resulting in **loss of sensitivity** or **paralysis**. Reflexes that originate in the brain stem, such as the swallowing reflex or the eyelid reflex, are disturbed. Balance disorders occur through lesions in the **cerebellum**. Today, imaging techniques such as CT and MRI are available to achieve a definite diagnosis of disease processes in the head. It is important to know the exact **location of the brain**, especially in commercial livestock species, since most are stunned before slaughter with a captive-bolt pistol. In cattle and horses, the brain is located **between two transverse planes**:

- the **caudal transverse plane** begins at the rear edge of either the intercornual protuberance (ox) or the external occipital protuberance (horse);
- the **rostral transverse plane** lies on the caudal end of the zygomatic process of the frontal bone (the caudal edge of the orbita); in small ruminants and pigs, the rostral part of the brain, the frontal lobe and the olfactory bulb are further rostral, located between the eyes; the rostral transverse is therefore located in the middle of the dorsal edge of the orbita;

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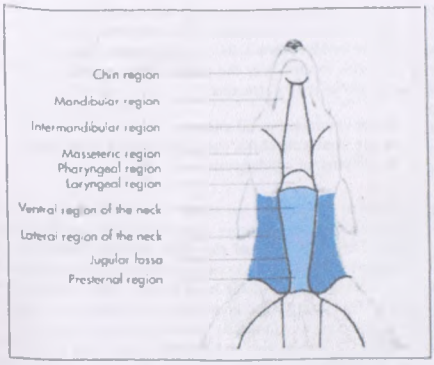


Fig. 19-19. The neck region in the dog (ventral view, schematic).

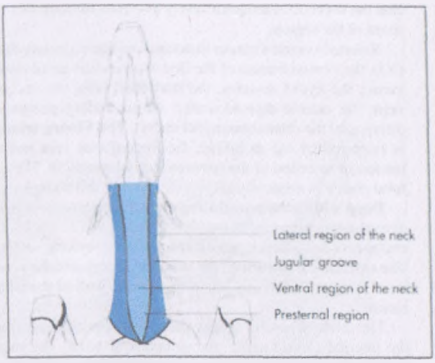


Fig. 19-20. The neck region in the horse (ventral view, schematic)

- the captive-bolt pistol is placed on the point of intersection between two lines connecting the temporal canthus with the base of the opposing ear.

In the ox and the pig, the frontal sinus is situated between the surface of the head and the brain. The distance between the outer and inner tables of the frontal bone can measure up to 8 cm or more.

Neck (collum)

Stratigraphy

The layers of the neck comprise

- the cutis and subcutis,
- the parotid fascia,
- the parotid gland,
- the outer auditory canal, the cleidomastoid muscle, the cranial oblique muscle of the head, the occipitohyoid muscle, the occipitomandibular segment of the digastric and sternomandibular muscles,
- the mandibular salivary gland, pharynx, cranial deep cervical lymph nodes, thyroid gland, and
- the guttural pouch.

The **parotid fascia** is a part of the superficial fascia of the head. The cervical part of the cutaneous muscle is situated ventrally within this fascia. The parotido-auricular muscle lies in this fascia as well and covers the parotid gland. The transverse nerve of the neck (ventral branch of the second cervical nerve), the great caudal auricular vein and the great auricular nerve (ventral branch of the second cervical nerve) pass through the parotid gland.

The maxillary vein, the internal auricular nerve (branch of cranial nerves VII and X), the transverse nerve of the neck (second cervical nerve), the superficial temporal vein as well as the masseteric artery and vein also run through the parotid gland. The parotid lymph nodes are found on the rostral edge of the parotid gland. After removal of the parotid gland, the outer auditory canal, the cleidomastoid muscle, the cranial straight muscle of the head, the occipitohyoid muscle, occipitomandibular part of the digastric muscle and the sternomandibular muscle (aponeurosis) are visible as are the mandibular salivary gland, the pharynx, the cranial, deep cervical lymph nodes, and the thyroid gland.

Regions

The important regions of the neck are (Fig. 19-17 to 20):

- the parotid region,
- the ventral region of the neck,
- the prescapular region and
- the dorsal region of the neck.

Parotid region

The region of the parotid gland is a transitional region from the head to the neck. Bordering this region dorsally are the auricular region and the dorsal region of the neck, ventrally, the ventral region of the neck and cranially, the branch of the mandible. The parotid region is particularly important in equines and is often referred to as the **retromandibular fossa**.

The facial nerve exits the stylomastoid foramen in the **dorsal segment of this region**. Arising from the facial nerve at this point are the caudal auricular nerve, the internal auricular branch, the auriculopalpebral nerve, the digastric branch, the connecting branch to the transverse nerve of the neck and the branch innervating the cervical part of the cutaneous muscle. The auriculotemporal nerve (V_3), the external carotid artery

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and the superficial temporal artery also pass through this segment of the region.

Situated ventral to these structures are the accessory nerve (XI), the ventral branch of the first two cervical nerves innervating the hyoid muscles, the maxillary vein, the occipital vein, the cranial thyroid artery, the ascending pharyngeal artery, and the cranial laryngeal artery. The **Viborg triangle** is bordered by the mandible, the linguofacial vein and the tendon of insertion of the sternomandibular muscle. The guttural pouch is surgically accessible through this triangle.

Deep within the parotid region is the guttural pouch, the diverticulum tubae auditivae. It is divided into a smaller, lateral recess and a larger, medial recess by the stylohyoid bone. The external carotid artery, the maxillary artery and the superficial temporal artery run along the outside wall of the lateral recess.

The internal carotid artery, the cranial cervical ganglion, the internal carotid nerve, the sympathetic trunk, the **vagus nerve**, the accessory nerve and the occipital artery run along the caudal wall of the medial recess of the guttural pouch. The **hypoglossal nerve (XII)** and the **glossopharyngeal nerve (IX)** can be found in a caudoventral fold in the mucosa of the guttural pouch. The hypoglossal nerve passes laterally to the external carotid artery, while the glossopharyngeal nerve crosses medially to this vessel. The retropharyngeal lymph nodes and the deep cranial cervical lymph nodes become visible after the removal of the guttural pouch mucosa. Ventrally apparent are the branching of the common carotid artery into the external carotid artery, the internal carotid artery and the occipital artery.

Ventral region of the neck

The ventral neck region includes only the surface area that outwardly covers the trachea. However, the **laryngeal region**, the **jugular groove** and the **jugular fossa** are also included in this region. The sternohyoid muscle, the omohyoid muscle (the latter not in dogs and cats), and the muscles lying lateral to these two, the sternothyroid muscle, appear after the removal of the skin and the superficial cervical fascia. In the horse, the muscles of the hyoid bone combine in their caudal segment to form a single, broad muscle.

The caudal thyroid vein runs parallel to the ventral side of the trachea almost exactly in the midline. The thin isthmus of the canine thyroid usually appears between the 5th and 8th tracheal cartilages, but it may not be present in small breeds of dogs. In horses, the isthmus is formed from connective tissue and begins at the 3rd tracheal cartilage, whereas in the ox, it begins at the 2nd tracheal cartilage.

The **superficial cervical fascia** (fascia cervicalis superficialis) branches into a superficial and a deep layer. The superficial layer attaches to the nuchal ligament. Laterally, this layer splits again and merges with the cervical part of the cutaneous muscle. Ventrally and medially, this layer forms a seam along the midline of the neck. The deep layer covers the jugular groove.

The **deep cervical fascia** (fascia cervicalis profunda) also divides into a superficial and a deep layer. The superficial layer of the deep cervical fascia, also called the **lamina praetrachealis fasciae cervicalis**, forms the caudal continuation of the midline seam begun by the superficial layer of the superficial cervical fascia. This structure formed by both fasciae builds a sheath, the so-called **carotid sheath** (vagina carotica), located near the trachea. The carotid sheath contains the following structures:

- the common carotid artery,
- the vagosympathetic trunk and, except in the horse,
- the internal jugular vein.

Dorsal to the cervical vertebrae, the superficial layer of the deep cervical fascia forms septa between the cervical muscles. The **deep layer of the deep cervical fascia** (lamina praevertebralis fasciae cervicalis) covers the ventral surfaces of the long muscle of the head and the long muscle of the neck. This layer is also connected to the superficial layer of the deep cervical fascia by loose connective tissue. It surrounds the oesophagus, and contributes not only to the lamina praetrachealis fasciae cervicalis but also to the carotid sheath. In addition, this layer contains the recurrent laryngeal nerve and the tracheal trunk.

The various layers of the cervical fasciae provide routes for vessels and nerves, and build spaces containing various glands (parotid gland, thyroid gland) and lymph nodes (retropharyngeal lymph nodes and deep cervical lymph nodes).

Jugular groove (sulcus jugularis)

The brachiocephalic muscle and the sternocephalic muscle border the jugular groove dorsally and ventrally, respectively (in the horse and the ox, only the sternomandibular muscle is present). The jugular groove ends caudally with the jugular fossa. In this area, the **cutaneous muscles** lie directly beneath the skin. In dogs, the platysma is found here cranially, whereas the sphincter muscle of the neck is found caudally. In the horse and the ox, the caudal section of the jugular groove is concealed by the cutaneous muscle of the neck. This muscle is innervated by the transverse nerve of the neck, a ventral branch originating from the 2nd cervical nerve.

In the cranial segment of the jugular groove, the transverse nerve of the neck merges with the branch of the facial nerve which innervates the cutaneous muscle of the neck. This branch of the facial nerve is not present in the ox. The connection is often referred to as the **superficial cervical loop** (ansa cervicalis superficialis), although this name is not listed in the NAV. The deep cervical loop is the connection between the ventral branch of the first two cervical nerves and the hypoglossal nerve.

The ventral branch of the 2nd cervical nerve, the great auricular nerve, passes subcutaneously over the atlas wing to reach the caudal surface of the ear pinna. The long hyoid muscles are innervated by the ventral branches of the first two cervical nerves, which pass through the ventral region of the neck.

The omohyoid muscle is situated beneath the cranial and middle segments of the **external jugular vein** in the horse and the ox. This muscle is replaced by the sternomastoid muscle in dogs, since they do not possess an omohyoid muscle. The cephalic vein is located in the pectoral sulcus. Both the cephalic vein and the superficial cervical vein from the

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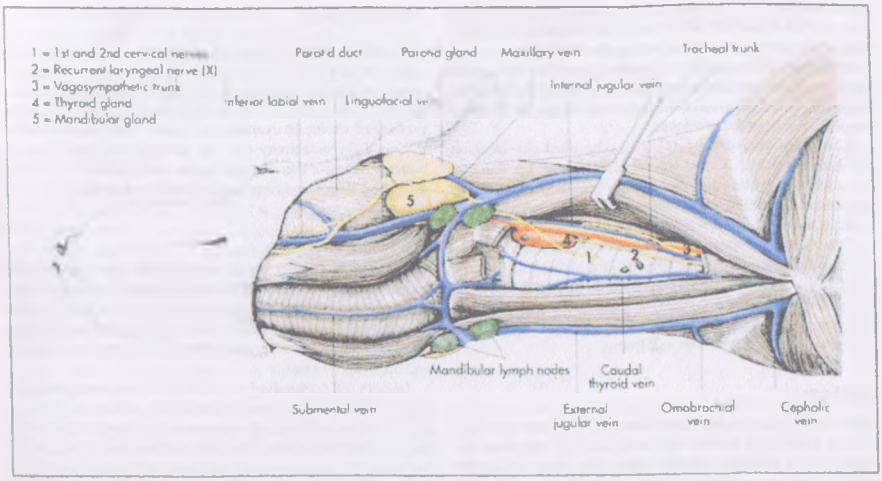


Fig. 19-21. Schematic illustration of the superficial structures of the neck in the dog (ventral view).

prescapular region empty into the external jugular vein in the jugular fossa.

Further cranial, the omobrachial vein in dogs also drains into the external jugular vein. This vessel indirectly connects the jugular vein and the axillary vein. The skin covering the jugular fossa is innervated by the 6th cervical nerve, the supraclavicular nerve.

Prescapular region

This region is situated cranial to the scapula and is part of the lateral neck region. The skin of this area is innervated by the supraclavicular nerve. The superficial cervical lymph nodes are located beneath the omotransverse muscle (in the horse beneath the brachiocephalic muscle) cranial to the shoulder joint. At the level of these lymph nodes, the superficial cervical artery divides into its two terminal branches. The accessory nerve (XI) passes through the dorsal corner formed by the brachiocephalic, omotransverse, and the trapezius muscles.

Dorsal region of the neck

Stratigraphy (in the median plane)

The neck contains the following layers:

- cutis,
- subcutis,
- superficial cervical fascia,
- aponeuroses of the cleidocephalic muscle and the splenius muscle,
- nuchal ligament, and lateral to this structure, the spinal muscle of the head and the longissimus muscle of the head,
- the major and minor dorsal straight muscles of the head, and lateral to these muscles, the cranial oblique muscle of the head,
- atlanto-occipital articulation, joint capsule (atlanto-occipital membrane),
- periosteum,
- epidural space and the spinal dura mater,
- the outer layer of the spinal arachnoid, and
- cerebellomedullary cistern.

Synovial bursae

Two facultative synovial bursae are present in the dorsal region of the neck: **the cranial** and **caudal nuchal subligamental bursae**. In this region, these bursae lie beneath the **funicular part of the nuchal ligament**. The cranial bursa is situated beneath the origin of the nuchal ligament and is prone to inflammatory (bursitis) and disease processes, especially in horses and cattle (fistulous withers, nuchal bursitis).

Clinical applications

The neck connects the head to the chest and reaches from the transverse plane between the atlas and occipital bone to the shoulder (prescapular groove). The wings of the atlas and the transverse processes of the 3rd to 6th cervical vertebrae can be palpated. In the neck region are the trachea, the oesophagus, and in young animals, the thymus. The thyroid gland is

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situated close to the beginning of the trachea. Important structures of this region are: the common carotid artery, the vertebral artery, the deep cervical artery, the vagus nerve, which combines with the sympathetic trunk to form the vagosympathetic trunk, the recurrent laryngeal nerve and the lymphatic tracheal trunk. The spinal cord is located within the vertebral canal, sheathed in the meninges.

Computed tomography (CT) can be used for imaging the three lymphatic centers (lc. mandibulare, lc. parotideum, lc. retropharyngeale) and the salivary glands in the dog. In particular pathologically enlarged retropharyngeal lymph nodes can be identified with the use of CT.

In horses, a deformity or trauma of the cervical vertebrae can cause a narrowing of the vertebral canal, leading to incoordination. Such horses display a stumbling gait and problems in the hindquarters when completing sharp turns. These symptoms are summarised by the clinical term spinal ataxia, otherwise known as wobbler syndrome.

Injections

Both subcutaneous and intramuscular injections are performed in the neck region. The subcutaneous injections are applied in the **brachiocephalic region** (the region above the brachiocephalic muscle). Intramuscular injections are given in the middle of a triangle formed by the nuchal ligament, the cervical vertebrae and the subclavian muscle. The injection site must be carefully cleaned and disinfected, since the neck fasciae can hinder the drainage of pathological secretions in the case of complications.

The jugular groove is located in the ventral portion of the lateral side of the neck. The **external jugular vein** is located in this groove and is the vessel of choice for intravenous injections. In large animals, it is important to realise that in the cranial and middle portions of the jugular groove, the external jugular vein is separated from the common carotid artery by the omohyoid muscle. The muscle protects the artery and other deeper structures, so that all intravenous injections should be performed only in the cranial or middle region of the neck. The external jugular vein is concealed by the thick cervical part of the cutaneous muscle in the caudal third of the neck. When this muscle contracts, it prevents the puncturing of the vein or changes the direction of the needle. In this region, injury to the common carotid artery with the needle is easily possible.

In dogs and cats, blood can be taken from the **external jugular vein**. It should be noted that both jugular veins are indirectly connected with one another by an anastomosis, the hyoid arc, which runs between the lingual veins. Due to the anastomosis, both jugular veins must be compressed.

Spinal puncture

Spinal puncture is performed at the nape of the neck. The needle is inserted into the cerebellomedullary cistern of the subarachnoid space. In horses, the needle is advanced approximately 8 cm, in foals approximately 1.5 cm and in dogs (e.g. German Shepherd) approximately 4.8 cm to reach the subarachnoid space. In dogs, the atlanto-occipital space is very narrow and the cerebellomedullary cistern may contain very little cerebrospinal fluid.

Thyroid gland

The thyroid gland is located dorsolateral to the trachea between the 2nd and 3rd tracheal cartilages in horses and between the 5th and 9th tracheal cartilages in carnivores. Enlargement of the thyroid gland can be palpated. Ultrasound is the method of choice to examine this gland. Care must be taken during a thyroidectomy that the parathyroid glands remain intact; otherwise the serum calcium concentration is greatly disrupted, which can cause tetany leading to death.

Trachea

Older dogs of smaller breeds may exhibit chronic coughing or even dyspnoea. These symptoms are often caused by a tracheal collapse, where the lumen of the trachea narrows, increasing resistance to air flow. Endoscopic examination reveals the flattening of the dorsal segment of the trachea (muscle and tracheal muscle).

In dogs not responding to medical therapy, a tracheotomy in the cranial segment may be necessary. Access to the trachea is in the median, approximately 2 – 3 cm caudal of the larynx. After the incision of the skin, the sphincter muscle of the neck and then the superficial layer of the cervical fascia appear. The incision cannot be enlarged in the cranial direction, for otherwise the venous hyoid arc could be severed. The next layer is comprised of the white line of the neck, a delicate, light-colored strip of connective tissue between the two sternohyoid muscles. Beneath the white line in the middle of the ventral surface of the trachea is the caudal thyroid vein. Injury to this vessel is often unavoidable.

The deepest layer is formed by the pretracheal layer of the deep cervical fascia and the tracheal adventitia. This surgical process also allows access to the thyroid glands in the case of a thyroidectomy. After incision in the pretracheal layer, the thyroid gland on the laterodorsal surface of the trachea is bluntly excised. As enlargement of the thyroid gland is usually accompanied by an enlargement of the supplying arteries, the arteries should therefore be individually ligated.

Larynx

The standard surgery for laryngeal hemiplegia begins with an incision at the cranial end of the trachea. The long hyoid muscles are exposed and retracted laterally. Access to the laryngeal cavity is achieved by a median incision through the cricothyroid membrane, of necessary also through the cricoid cartilage. The laryngeal ventricle on the affected side is surgically removed. The resulting scar tissue formation creates a permanent traction on the corresponding vocal cord, displacing it laterally onto the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. This reduces the interruption of air flow, stop the symptoms of roaring.

Oesophagus

In the case of an **oesophageal obstruction**, the oesophagus is surgically accessible in the middle third of the neck. After insert on a stomach tube, an incision is made on the left side through the skin, the superficial cervical fascia and the cervi

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cal part of the cutaneous muscle. Finally, an incision is made in the pretracheal layer of the deep cervical fascia. Care must be taken to avoid injury of the external jugular vein. Neighbouring structures of the oesophagus, such as the carotid artery and the vagosympathetic trunk, must also be located and protected during surgery.

Intervertebral disc

Intervertebral disc prolapse can occur in the cervical section of the vertebral column, especially in small dog breeds. In this case, the vertebral column is approached from the **ventral region of the neck**. The **nucleus pulposus** prolapses either laterally or dorsally. A lateral prolapse affects the spinal nerve roots and is very painful. The dorsal prolapse presses upon the spinal cord from ventral. The descending motor tracts are located in the ventral section of the spinal cord. Symptoms include pain and muscular paresis or paralysis. Fenestration is performed from ventral in the cervical area.

The access to the cervical vertebrae begins similar to a tracheotomy. The organs and various structural tracts are identified and digitally retracted laterally. The long muscle of the neck is elevated to expose the cervical vertebrae. Not only is the prolapsed nucleus pulposus removed, but also the intervertebral discs of the remaining cervical vertebrae (discs C 2/3, C 3/4 and C 5/6) are removed as a preventative measure.

Thorax

The thorax is the cranial segment of the trunk and the caudal continuation of the neck. The **cranial aperture** of the thorax forms the cranial opening to the chest. The following structures are found within the aperture: the oesophagus, the trachea, the cranial branches of the aortic arch (bicarotid trunk, right and left subclavian artery), the cranial vena cava, the jugular veins, lymph nodes, the vagus nerve, the sympathetic trunk with the stellate and cervical ganglia, the long muscle of the neck, and in young animals, the cervicothoracic segment of the thymus.

The bony frame surrounding the thoracic cavity (cavum thoracis) is formed by the cervical vertebrae, the ribs and the sternum. The diaphragm arches cranially into the thoracic cavity and separates the pectoral cavity (cavum pectoris) from the abdominal cavity.

Caudal to the diaphragm is the intrathoracic section of the abdominal cavity, which is discussed in the section on the abdominal cavity. The thoracic cavity is divided into two pleural cavities (cava pleurae). Between the two pleural cavities is the mediastinum, in which many organs and tracts are found.

Many organs and tracts pass through the **diaphragm**: the aorta, the thoracic duct, the caudal vena cava, the oesophagus accompanied by the dorsal and ventral vagal trunks, both sympathetic trunks, and the splanchnic nerves. The lateral walls of the thoracic cavity are, for the most part, concealed by the forelimbs. The forelimbs are attached to the thorax via the pectoral girdle, which consists only of muscle and fasciae.

Visible and palpable bony structures

Depending on the nutritional state of an animal, the ribs, except those usually concealed by the forelimbs, are visible and palpable. In small animals, the forelimbs can be brought forward, allowing more ribs and intercostal spaces to be palpated.

Superficial thoracic and muscular grooves

The superficial muscle grooves are:

- the lateral thoracic groove (sulcus pectoralis lateralis),
- the middle thoracic groove (sulcus pectoralis medianus) and
- the anconeal groove (sulcus musculi tricipitis), also called the margo tricipitalis, which is located caudal to the similarly named muscle.

Stratigraphy

The area of the thoracic cavity that is not covered by the forelimbs is comprised of the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial fascia of the trunk (with the superficial and deeper layers enclosing the cutaneous muscle of the trunk),
- the deep fascia of the trunk,
- the skeletal muscle layer (rib muscles and the muscles of the intercostal spaces, and the segmental blood vessels and nerves),
- the endothoracic fascia and
- the costal pleura.

Regions

The most important regions of the thoracic cavity are the (Fig. 19-22 to 25):

- presternal region,
- sternal region,
- cardiac region and the
- costal region.

Organs of the thoracic cavity

Useful orientation lines

The following virtual horizontal lines are useful as aids to orientation in the thoracic cavity:

- coxal tuberosity line (CL, a craniocaudal line through each coxal tuberosity parallel to the ground),
- elbow joint line or central thorax line (SL, a craniocaudal line through the shoulder joint parallel to the ground), and
- olecranon line or lateral line from the sternum (OL, a craniocaudal line through each olecranon parallel to the ground).

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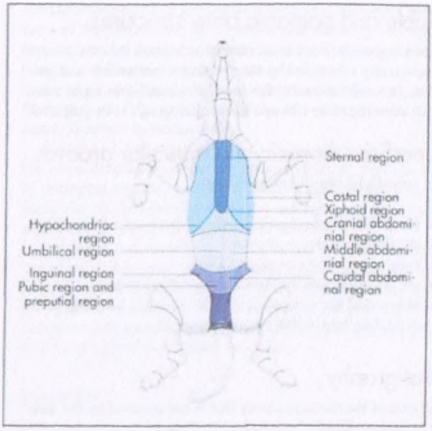


Fig. 19-24. Schematic illustration of the trunk regions of the dog (ventral view)

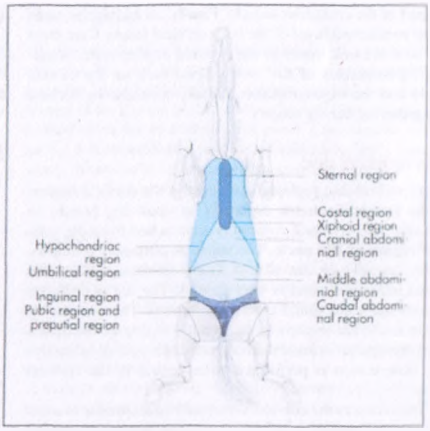


Fig. 19-25. Schematic illustration of the trunk regions of the horse (ventral view)

Maximum audibility of the heart valve sounds:

	Dog	Ox	Horse
● **left side**			
left AV-valve	5th Is	4th Is	5th Is
aortic valve	4th Is	4th Is	4th Is
pulmonary valve	3rd Is	3rd Is	3rd Is
● **right side**			
right AV-valve	4th Is	4th Is	4th Is

Clinical applications

Cardiac region

Blood vessel supply to the heart

It has been shown that dogs possess preformed anastomoses between the coronary arteries, which can develop into vessels with wide lumina when necessary. This ability becomes vital when larger vessels occlude. In pigs, however, these vessels are barely formed. This fact has led to the establishment of the dog as the experimental animal of choice in researching infarction.

Persistent right aortic arc

A congenital defect in German Shepherd puppies is a blood vessel anomaly, the so-called persistent right aortic arch. The aorta normally is normaly situated on the left side of the body. Shortly after the ostium of the left subclavian artery, at the level of the 4th rib, is the ductus arteriosus (Botalli). In the case of a right aorta, the left subclavian artery lies on the right side of the oesophagus. The ductus arteriosus remains at the level of the 4th rib, but originates now from the right side and must cross over the oesophagus to reach the pulmonary trunk. The oesophagus is partially obstructed by the ductus, which causes an oesophageal stricture, leading to the formation of an extensive oesophageal diverticulum. The ductus arteriosus is exposed and transected using a lateral thoracotomy at the left 4th intercostal space.

Persistent ductus arteriosus in the dog

The embryonal blood vessel, the ductus arteriosus, connects the pulmonary trunk and the descending aorta and usually closes shortly after birth. Continued patency of the ductus arteriosus causes a left-to-right shunt, allowing oxygen-rich blood from the aorta to mix with oxygen-poor blood in the pulmonary artery. Depending on the size of the ductus, the left ventricle is continuously overloaded, eventually causing left ventricular dilation. In the case of a persistent ductus arteriosus, auscultation of the heart with a stethoscope reveals the presence of a pathological heart sound, a continuous (mechanical) murmur. This sound occurs through the entire cardiac cycle and is best auscultated in the area of the 3rd intercostal space. Affected animals show exercise intolerance and shortness of breath, or sometimes even extreme dyspnoea. The only curative treatment is closure of the ductus arteriosus.

Abdomen

The abdomen is caudal to the thorax. The abdominal cavity begins cranially with the diaphragm and ends caudally at the terminal line, which marks the transition to the pelvic cavity. The space caudal of the diaphragm, but still located within the rib cage, is referred to as the intrathoracic section of the abdominal cavity.

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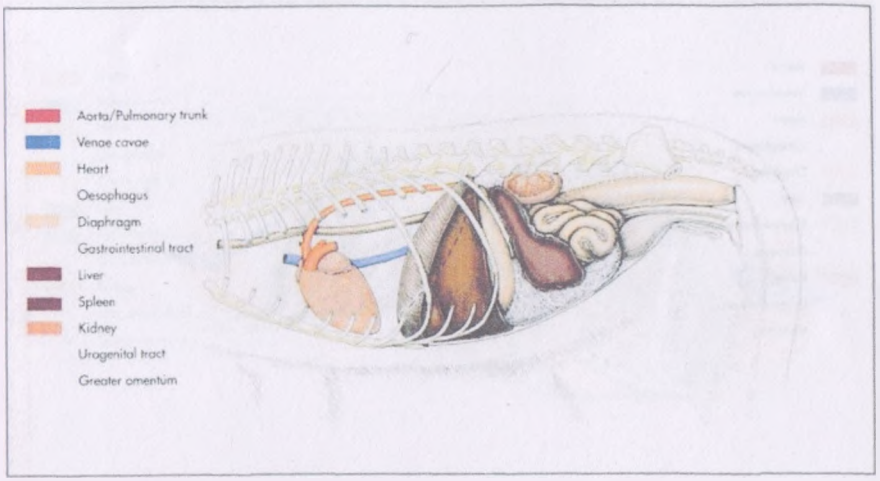


Fig. 19-31. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the cat after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the left)

reaches the cranial vena cava. When necessary, intravenous injections can be performed on the subcutaneous abdominal vein. Especially in recumbent (downer) cows, this vein is more accessible than the external jugular vein. However, blood and medication can leak into the surrounding paravenous connective tissue, causing a thrombophlebitis, especially when locally irritating drugs are applied.

Innervation

The abdominal wall is innervated in segments. The cranial segment of the abdominal wall is innervated by continuations of the intercostal nerves. In the caudal segment, the ventral lumbar nerves take over the innervation of the body wall: the iliohypogastric nerve (in canines, the cranial and caudal iliohypogastric nerves), the ilioinguinal nerve, the genitofemoral nerve and the lateral cutaneous nerve of the thigh.

Lymph nodes

The lymph nodes responsible for the drainage of the abdominal wall are the axillary lymph nodes, the sternal lymph nodes, the subiliac lymph nodes and the superficial inguinal lymph nodes. In female dogs with mammary gland tumours, the affected and unaffected lymph nodes on both sides must be surgically removed along with the tumour.

Stratigraphy

Many different surgeries are performed on various regions of the abdominal wall. For this reason, the stratigraphy is discussed separately for each region.

Regions

The lateral and ventral abdominal walls are separated into regions:

- cranial abdominal region,
- middle abdominal region and the
- caudal abdominal region.

Cranial abdominal region

This region extends from the diaphragm to the transverse plane through the last pair of ribs and is divided into three regions:

- right hypochondriac region,
- left hypochondriac and the
- xiphoid region.

Hypochondriac region

This region contains the section of the cranial abdominal region that is supported by the ribs, the rib cartilage and the costal arch.

Stratigraphy

The hypochondriac region comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- the two layers of the superficial fascia of the trunk and the cutaneous muscle of the trunk,
- deep fascia of the trunk and,
- the external oblique muscle of the abdomen.

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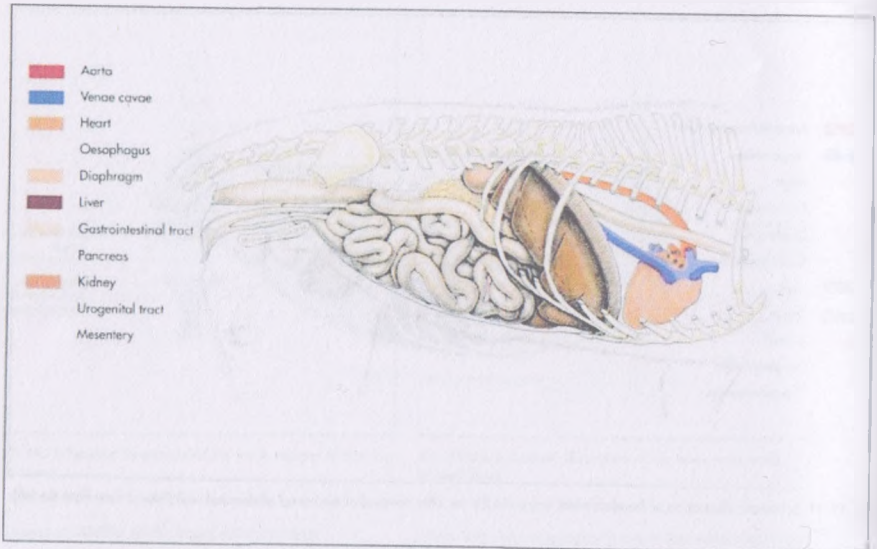


Fig. 19-32. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the dog after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the right).

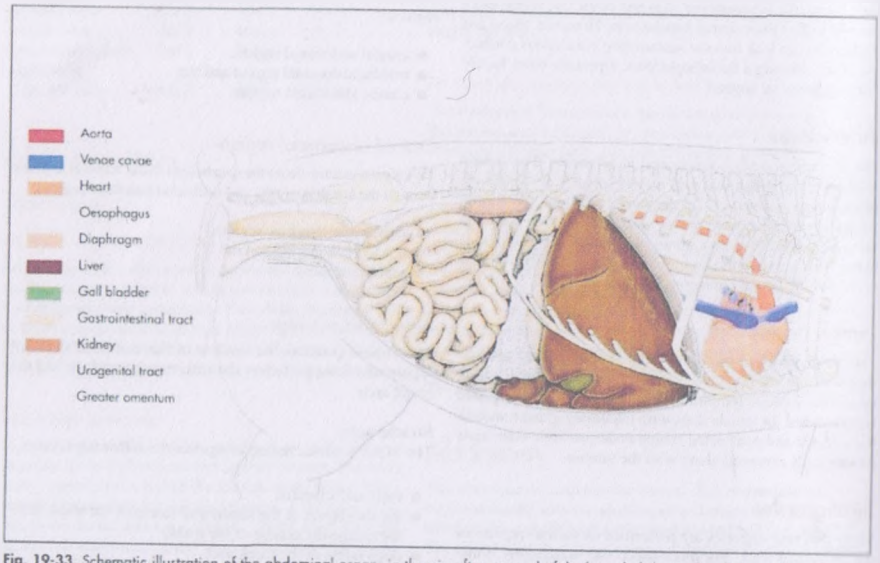


Fig. 19-33. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the pig after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the right).

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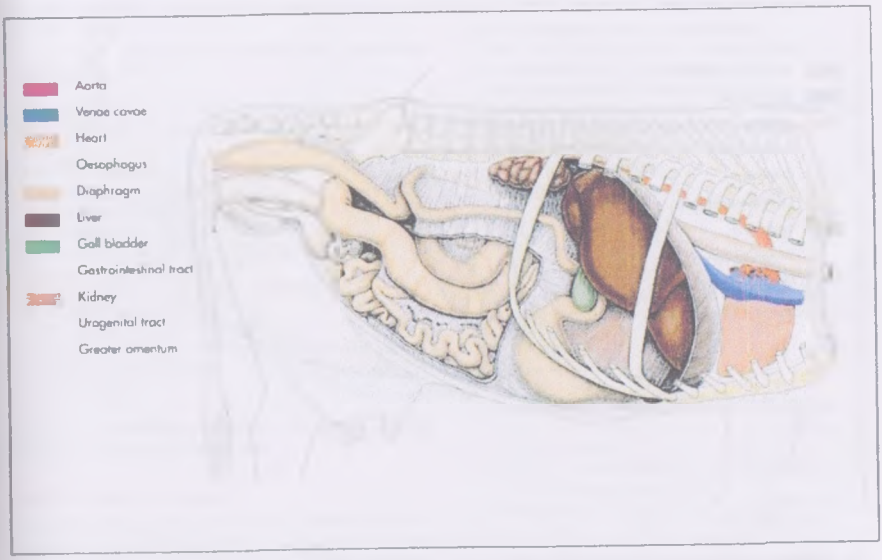


Fig. 19-36. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the ox after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the right)

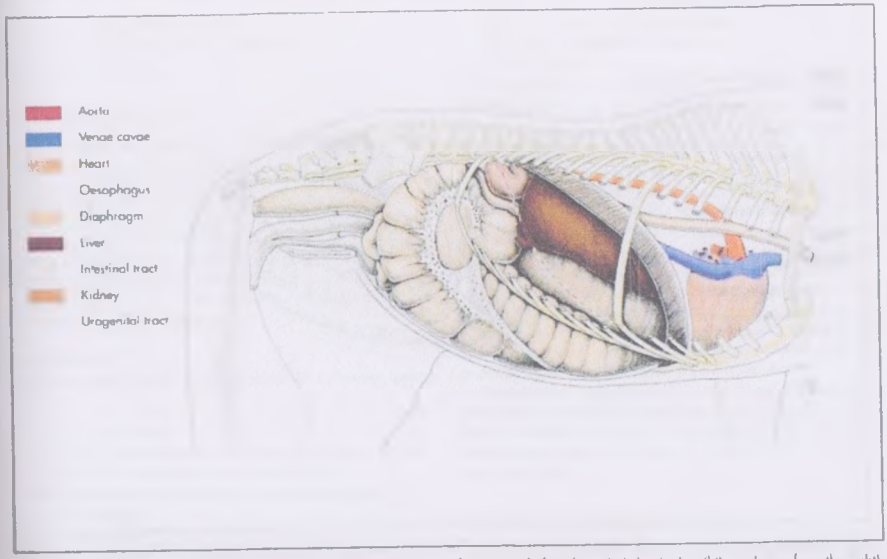


Fig. 19-37. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the horse after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the right)

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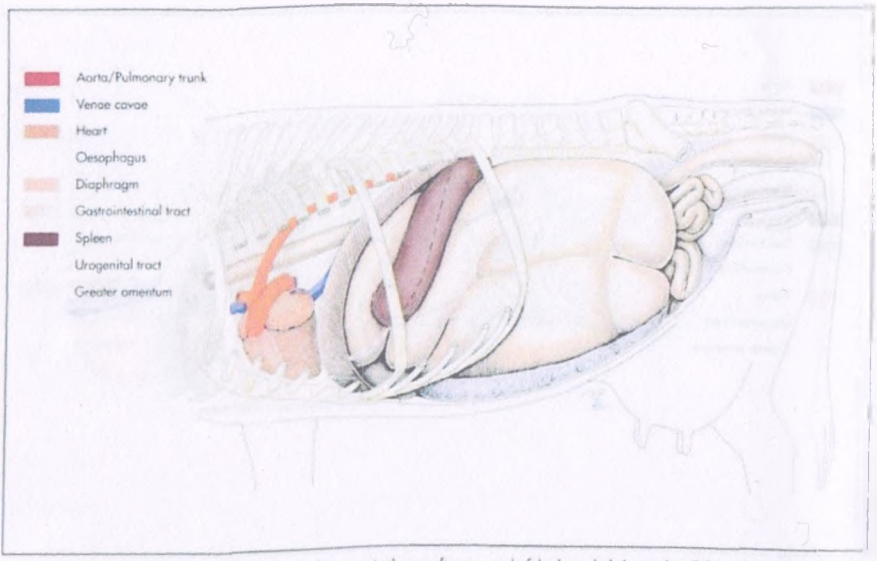


Fig. 19-38. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the ox after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the left).

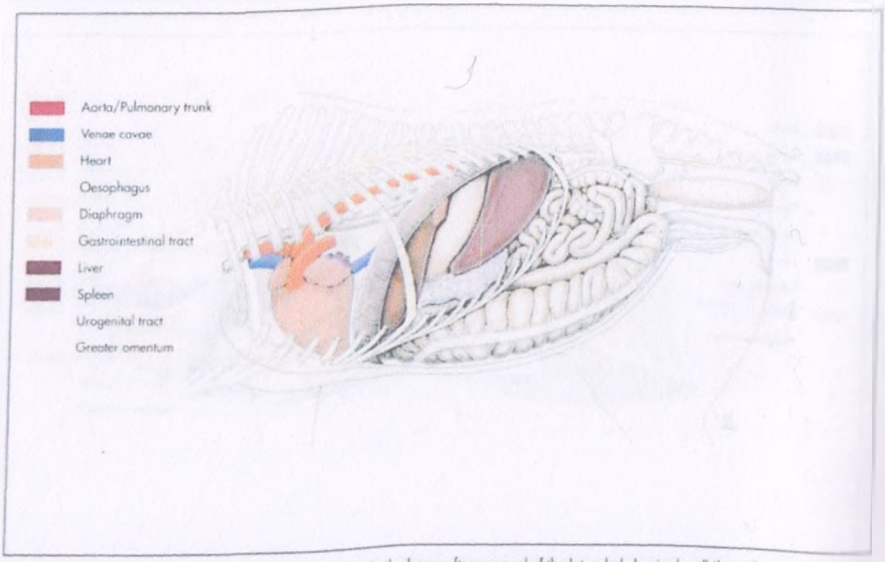


Fig. 19-39. Schematic illustration of the abdominal organs in the horse after removal of the lateral abdominal wall (lateral view from the left).

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Xiphoid region

This region includes the area surrounding the xiphoid cartilage of the sternum.

Stratigraphy
The xiphoid region comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial and deep fascia of the trunk,
- deep pectoral muscle and the subcutaneous abdominal vein,
- external oblique muscle of the abdomen with the aponeurosis of the deeper internal oblique muscle of the abdomen,
- straight muscle of the abdomen (the milk well is located here in cows),
- aponeurosis of the transverse muscle of the abdomen,
- transverse fascia, and the
- peritoneum.

In this area, the following procedures are carried out: liver biopsy, gastrotomy and splenectomy.

Middle abdominal region

The middle abdominal region follows caudal to the cranial abdominal region. The cranial border is a transverse, cross-sectional line through the last pair of ribs. This region ends caudally at the transverse plane through the tuber coxae. This region is divided into the

- right lateral abdominal region,
- left lateral abdominal region and the
- umbilical region.

Lateral abdominal region

Both the right and left lateral regions are referred to as flanks in large animals. The dorsal border is formed by the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae. The ventral border is a horizontal line through the patella. The **paralumbal fossa** (fossa paralumbalis) is found in the dorsal section of this area. The borders of the fossa are formed cranially by the last pair of ribs, dorsally by the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and caudoventrally by the dorsal edge of the internal oblique muscle of the abdomen. This edge forms the so-called **costocoxal peduncle**.

Stratigraphy
The lateral abdominal region comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial fascia of the trunk, the two layers of which enclose the cutaneous muscle of the trunk,
- deep fascia of the trunk (in the horse and the ox: yellow tunic),
- external oblique muscle of the abdomen (fibres run from craniodorsal to caudoventral),
- internal oblique muscle of the abdomen (fibres run from caudodorsal to craniоventral),
- transverse muscle of the abdomen (fibres run vertically), iliohypogastric nerve (carnivores: cranial and caudal iliohypogastric nerves), ilioinguinal nerve, genitofemoral nerve and the deep iliac circumflex artery and vein,
- transverse fascia, and the
- peritoneum.

Umbilical region

The umbilical region lies ventrally to the lateral abdominal walls and includes the area around the navel. This region ends dorsally on both sides at horizontal lines drawn through each patella.

Stratigraphy
The umbilical region comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial fascia of the trunk, the two layers of which enclose the cutaneous muscle of the trunk (in dogs and cattle: the cranial praeputial muscles),
- deep fascia of the trunk (in the horse and the ox: yellow tunic),
- aponeuroses of the external and internal oblique muscles of the abdomen, which form the outer sheath of the abdominal straight muscle,
- straight muscle of the abdomen with the cranial and caudal epigastric vein and artery,
- transverse muscle of the abdomen (fibres run vertically),
- transversal fascia, and the
- peritoneum.

In the umbilical region, a deposit of fat is located on the inside of the abdominal wall. It is covered by the peritoneum. In dogs and cats, the fat deposit is in the **falciform ligament**. In well-nourished animals, the fat deposit can be very large. It is cumbersome to many surgeons and is usually removed during laparotomy. In this case, extra care must be taken to identify and exactly adapt the edges of the peritoneum.

As mentioned before, this region is clinically relevant because many surgeries are performed here: laparotomies, for example, to castrate/sterilise female animals (queens and bitches); caesarean sections; and surgical procedures on the gastrointestinal tract, the kidneys or the spleen.

Paravertebral anaesthesia is a nerve block for this region where the entire nerve segment, beginning at its exit through the intervertebral foramen, is anaesthetised. The paralumbal anaesthesia results in blocking the ventral branch of the segment nerve only.

Caudal abdominal region

This region lies caudally to the middle abdominal region and extends to the terminal line. It is divided into two subregions.

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- pubic region, which is cranial to the pecten of the pubis, and the
- paired inguinal regions, which are located to the right and left between the thighs.

Pubic region

The stratigraphy of the pubic region is similar to that of the abdominal region. The aponeuroses of the abdominal muscles are found here and merge with the white line. These aponeuroses and the white line attach as the prepubic tendon to the pecten of the pubis. Occasionally this tendon can tear, for example, towards the end of a pregnancy in the cow. In such cases, there is no tension on the abdominal wall and the entire region sags. No surgical treatment is possible.

The mammary complexes extend into the pubic region, and the penis and prepuce are located here.

Inguinal region

The inguinal region is clinically important. In female large animals, sheep and goats, the udder occupies this region. In sows, queens and bitches, the inguinal mammary glands are located here. The testicles and their membranes are all located in this region. In every male mammal, except the elephant, the vaginal process of the peritoneum exits the abdominal cavity through the **deep** and then the **superficial inguinal ring**.

Approximately 80% of female dogs also have a peritoneal vaginal process. The round ligament of the uterus passes through the inguinal canal and is contained within the vaginal process. The inguinal canal in the other female domestic animals is filled with connective tissue. Just as in male animals, the external pudendal artery and vein, lymphatic vessels, and the genitofemoral nerve are found here.

The inguinal region also contains the superficial inguinal lymph nodes, which are named the mammary lymph nodes in species with an udder and the scrotal lymph nodes in male animals.

Stratigraphy of the inguinal region
The inguinal region comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial fascia of the trunk,
- deep fascia of the trunk (in the horse and the ox: yellow tunic of the abdomen),
- aponeurosis of the external oblique muscle of the abdomen, which attaches here to the inguinal ligament,
- internal oblique muscle of the abdomen,
- transverse fascia, and the peritoneum.

Especially in male animals, the inguinal region is clinically relevant in connection with castration and surgeries on the male copulatory organ.

Stratigraphy of the testicular membranes
The testicular membranes comprises the following layers:

- scrotal skin,
- scrotum
  - subcutis, fibromuscular subcutaneous layer,
  - double-layered external spermatic fascia,
  - cremaster fascia and cremaster muscle,
- vaginal process,
  - internal spermatic fascia,
  - parietal layer of the vaginal tunic.

Stratigraphy of the mammary gland complex
The mammary gland complex comprises the following layers:

- cutis and subcutis,
- superficial trunk fascia containing the supramammary muscle,
- glandular tissue and
- deep fascia of the trunk.

Clinical applications

Abdominal hernia

Abdominal hernia can occur at any point in the abdominal wall. Included are not only the umbilical and inguinal hernias, but all hernia occuring through the abdominal wall. The following lists the most common types of **hernias** according to species:

- in the **horse**: caudal to the last rib on the left side of the abdominal wall, and also cranial to the inguinal region in the flank area,
- in the **ox**: in the area of the right flank,
- in the **sheep**: most often on the right side, but hernias can also occur on the left; hernias occur more often in gravid animals.

Laparoscopy

A laparoscopy is a procedure used not only for diagnostics and biopsies, but also in what is termed **minimally invasive surgery**. The greatest advantages of this type of surgery are minimal trauma to the abdominal wall and quick patient recovery. The disadvantage is the high cost of the equipment required for such surgery. With every laparoscopy, there is always a chance that a laparotomy is required.

Laparotomy

Laparotomy in the abdominal white line is most often performed in small animals to gain access to the abdominal cavity.

Laparotomy in the horse
Laparotomy is the method of choice for the **exploration of the abdominal cavity**. The advantage to this approach is that the incision can be extended either cranially or caudally or both, when required. An incision of the required length is made through the cutis and the subcutis. A small incision is

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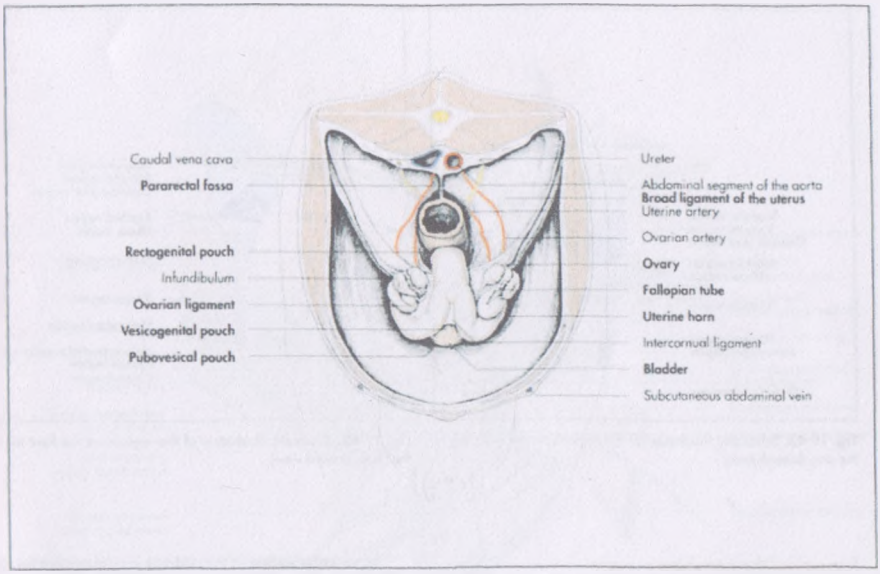


Fig. 19-40. Schematic illustration of the reproductive organs in the pelvic cavity of a female cow (cranial view)

made in the middle of the abdominal white line, so that the index finger just passes through. The finger is held in the retroperitoneal space and the abdominal wall is slightly lifted, or tented. The peritoneum and the transversal fascia are identified, as are the falciform ligament located cranial to the navel and the median ligament of the bladder located caudal to the navel. Of these two ligaments, the former contained the foetal umbilical vein leading to the liver, and the latter enclosed the urachus and ultimately the bladder. These two ligaments are separated in the middle and help after closure of the abdominal cavity to strengthen the peritoneal stitches.

Laparotomy in the ox

Laparotomy in the ox takes place in the flank under local anaesthesia of the standing animal. Every incision through each layer of the abdominal wall should be slightly shorter than the previous incision. The only organ accessible from the left flank is the rumen. Here, a vertical incision is made through the layers of the abdominal wall. The incision of the skin begins just ventral to the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae. The following incisions through the external and internal oblique muscles are also vertical. Bleeding from branches of the deep iliac circumflex artery must be stopped. The next incision through the transverse abdominal muscle should be performed with care, so that the underlying transversal fascia and the peritoneum are not injured. The last incision involves grasping these remaining two layers with dissecting forceps and making a point incision with a scalpel. This opening is enlarged to the desired length with scissors. Rumenotomy is performed in the dorsal segment of the left flank.

The right flank allows access to the underlying organs, namely the caecum and other sections of the intestines. Here, the incisions of the different layers are carried out in different directions. The cut through the cutis and subcutis is vertical. The external oblique muscle is cut in the same direction as its fibres (caudoventrally). Finally, an incision is made through the internal oblique muscle in the direction of its fibres (craniodorsally).

The transverse abdominal muscle of the transverse fascia and the peritoneum on the right abdominal wall are incised with the same procedure as described for the left wall. To reach sections of the digestive tract, an incision is made in the superficial and deep layers of the greater omentum.

In the ox, a dilation or torsion of the caecum and of the proximal loop of the colon are indications for a laparotomy in the right flank. Surgical correction of an abomasal displacement is also performed in the right flank beginning one hand's width caudal to the last rib. An abomasal displacement to the left is surgically corrected through an omentopexy either from the left or the right abdominal wall in the flank region.

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Fig. 19-42. Schematic illustration of the regions on the front leg in the dog (lateral view).

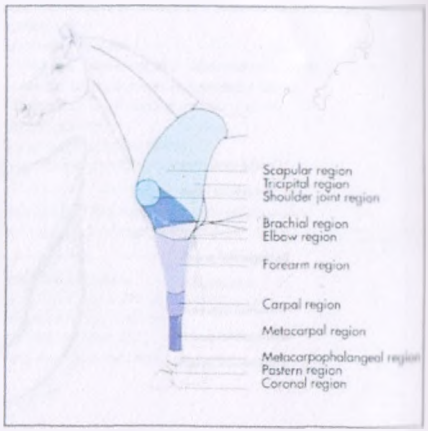


Fig. 19-43. Schematic illustration of the regions on the front leg in the horse (lateral view).

Surgery of the copulatory organ

Surgical procedures on the copulatory organ require not only **anaesthesia of the penis**, but also of the **prepuce**. To accomplish this, a nerve block is performed on the pudendal nerve and the first four ventral branches of the lumbar nerves. A nerve block of the left and right pudendal nerves allows the penis to be extruded. In the ox, this nerve block is carried out in the perineal region, approximately a hand's width ventral to the anus and left and right in the middle between the ischial tuberosity and the perineum.

In male cats, the penis is directed caudally. In the case of urolithiasis, a perineal urethrostomy is performed. The urethra is exposed and incised, and the distal part of the penis transected.

Examination of the udder

The **udder** is clinically important in large female animals, especially in the cow, for economic reasons. In examining the udder, it is important to determine the location and size of the superficial inguinal (mammary) lymph nodes. In carnivores and pigs, the lymph nodes of the cranial mammary complexes belong to the axillary lymphocentre, and those of the caudal mammary complexes belong to the superficial inguinal lymphocentre. In cows, the superficial inguinal lymphocentre includes the superficial and the deep inguinal lymph nodes. The **superficial inguinal lymph node** is approximately 7 cm long, 5 cm wide and 2 cm thick, and is easily palpated. Palpation of this lymph node is possible by standing behind the cow and palpating with both hands between the base of the udder and the inside of the thigh dorsal as far as possible.

The **vascularisation** of the udder is very important for the **milk production**. The main artery, the external pudendal artery, reaches the udder basis through the inguinal canal. Before it reaches the udder basis, it builds a siphon like, S-shaped flexure. The voluminous external pudendal vein accompanies the artery. Cranial to the udder basis is the abdominal subcutaneous vein. A branch of the internal pudendal vein, the caudal labial or mammary vein, caudally approaches the udder basis. Because of the direction of the vein valves, this vessel apparently does not carry venous blood away from the udder, but towards it. In the sow, the butch and the queen, the mammary complexes extend from the thoracic to the inguinal regions. Two symmetrical, bilateral rows are separated in the midline by the intermammary zone. During the suckling period, the mammary glands have increased so much in size so that they touch across the intermammary zone. In female dogs, often the entire mammary chain must be removed due to mammary neoplasia.

Forelimb or thoracic limb (membra thoracica)

Regions

The regions of the forelimbs are (Fig. 19-42 to 45):

- the scapular region,
- the shoulder joint region and the axillary region,
- the lateral brachial region,
- the medial brachial region,

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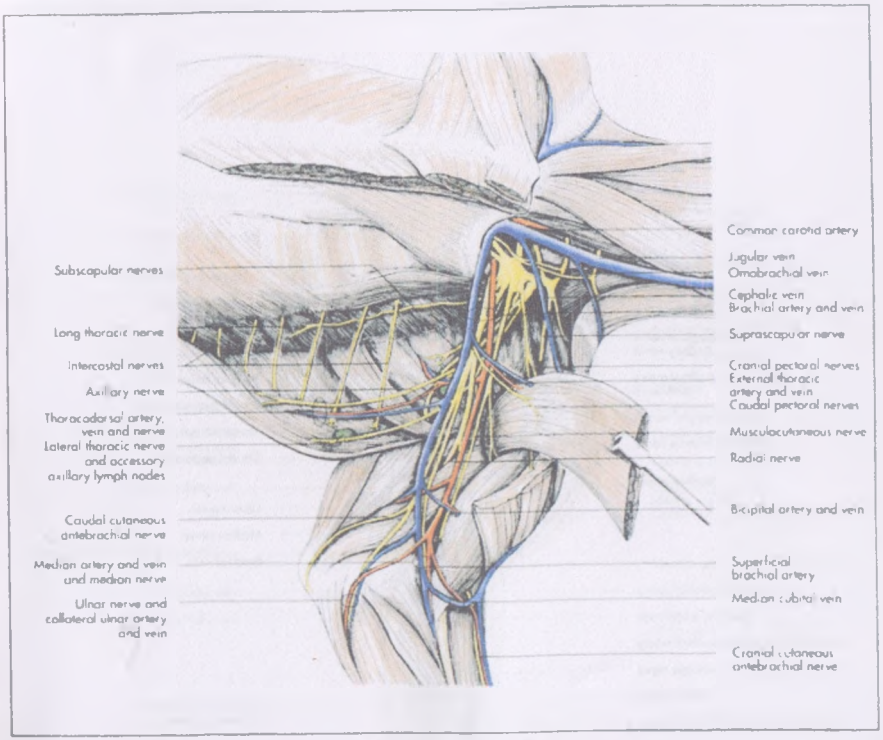


Fig. 19-46. Schematic illustration of the brachial plexus in the dog (ventrolateral view).

The axillary region can be accessed medially to the shoulder joint. This region is covered by the pectoral muscles. Both muscles of the superficial pectoral muscles are subcutaneously found here (cranially, the descending pectoral muscle and caudally, the transverse pectoral muscle). The superficial pectoral muscles cover the underlying deep pectoral muscle.

Blood vessels

The following blood vessels are present in this region: the axillary artery, the cranial and caudal circumflex arteries of the humerus and the suprascapular artery.

Nerves

The following nerves are also found in this region: suprascapular nerve, cranial pectoral nerves, the subscapular nerve, the caudal pectoral nerves, the thoracodorsal nerve, the long thoracic nerve, the lateral thoracic nerve and the axillary nerve.

Brachial plexus

The nerves forming the brachial plexus innervate the forelimbs and part of the wall of the trunk. These nerves originate from the ventral branches of both the last three cervical spinal nerves and the first two thoracic spinal nerves. Fibres from the sympathetic trunk and the stellate ganglion also contribute to the plexus. The roots of the plexus reach the medial surface of the scapula cranially to the first rib through the middle and ventral portions of the scalenus muscle. The axillary artery and vein leave the thoracic cavity cranially to the first rib as well. The axillary lymph nodes are found at the point where the axillary artery divides into the brachial and subscapular arteries.

Lateral brachial region

The region of the upper arm is equivalent to the humerus; i.e., it reaches from the greater tuberosity to the lateral epicondyle

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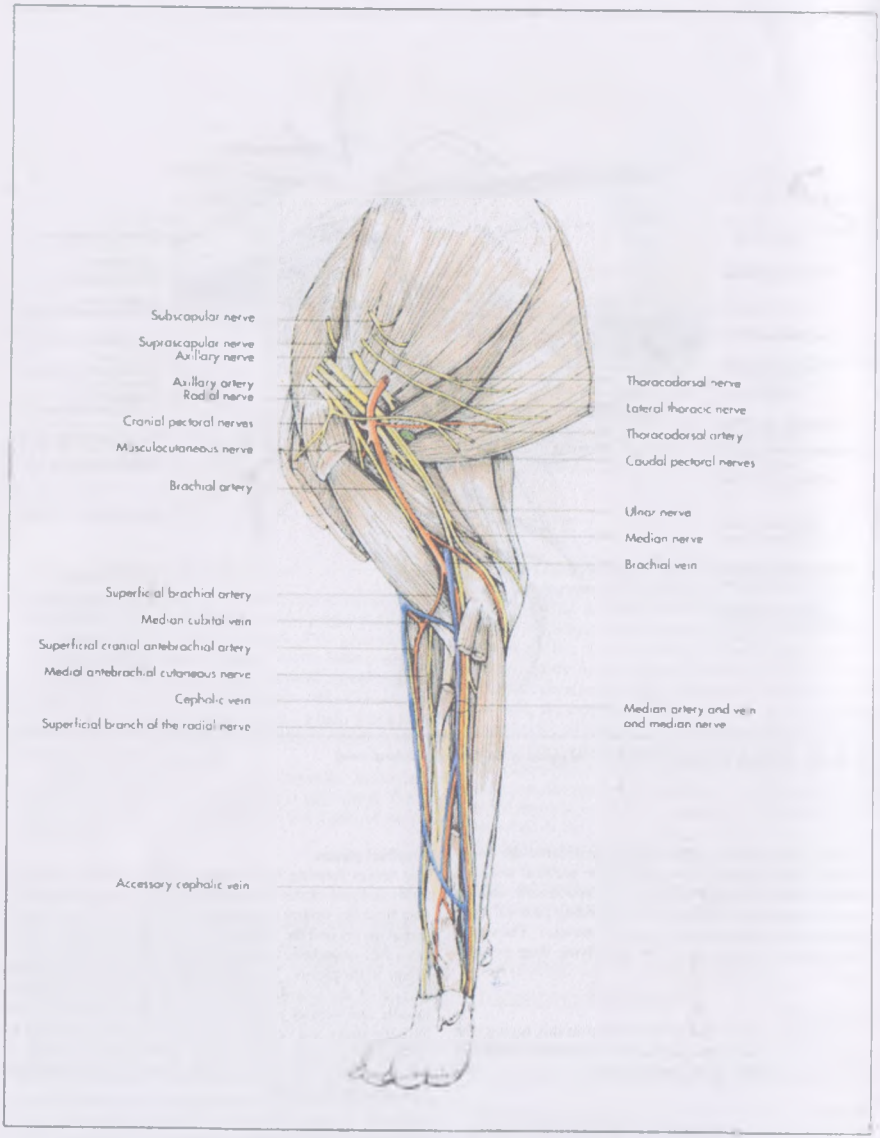


Fig. 19-47. Topography of the blood vessels and nerve tracts of the thoracic limb in the dog (medial view, schematic)

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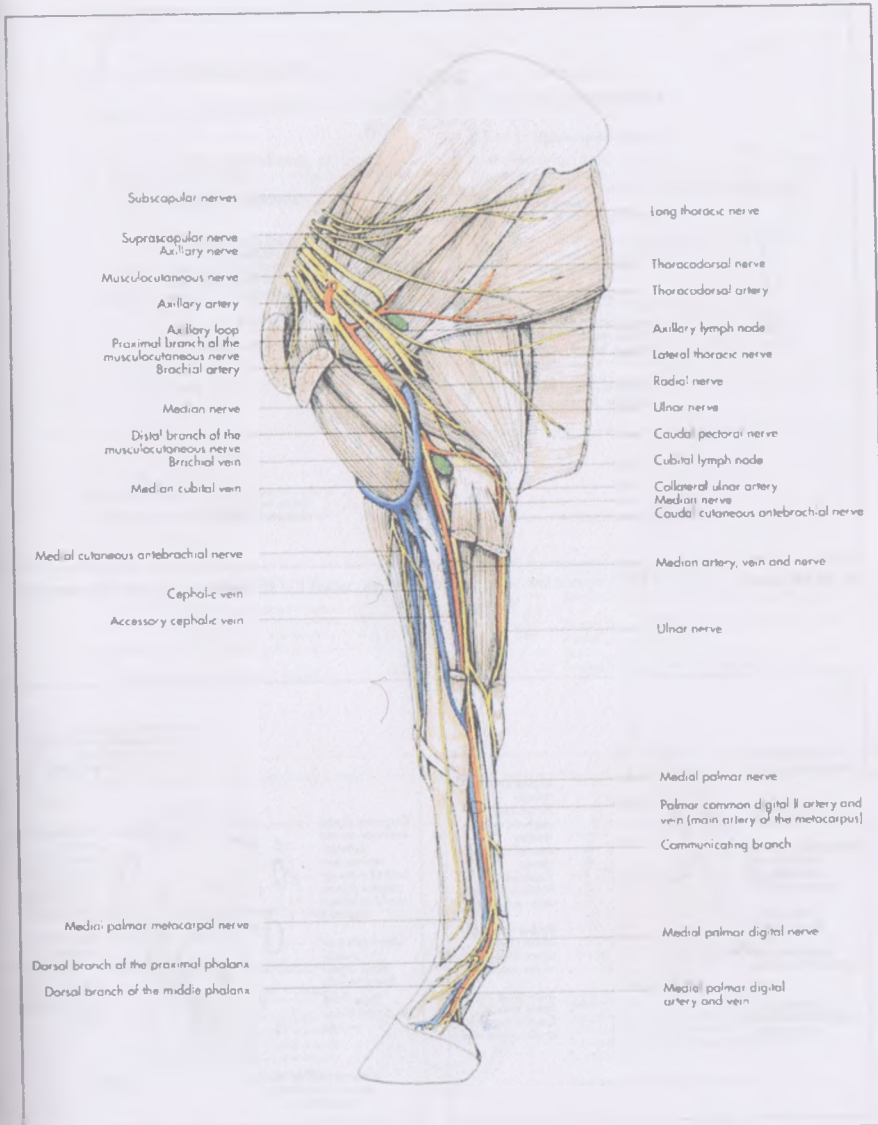


Fig. 19-54. Topography of the blood vessels, lymphatic structures, and nerve tracts of the thoracic limb in the horse (medial view, schematic).

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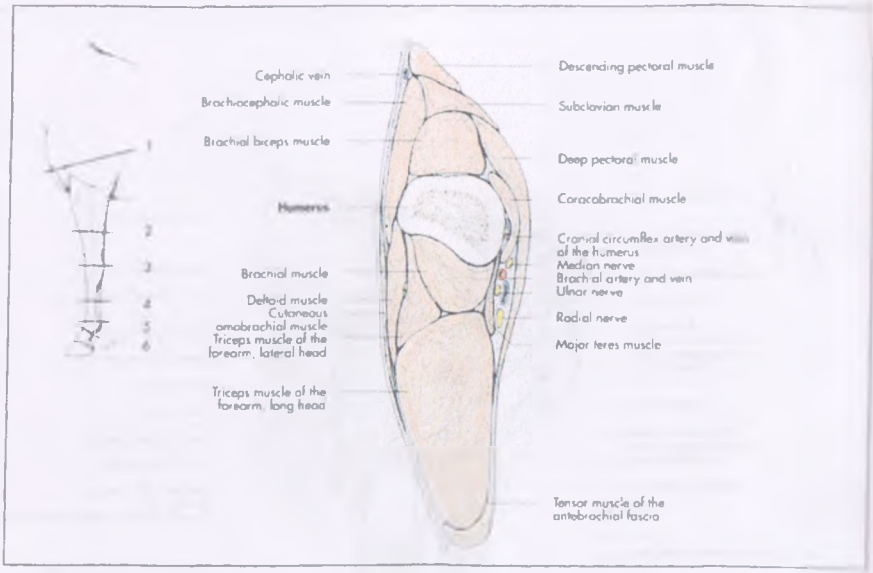


Fig. 19-55. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb of the horse (level of cross section 1 of the brachial region, see insert, schematic)

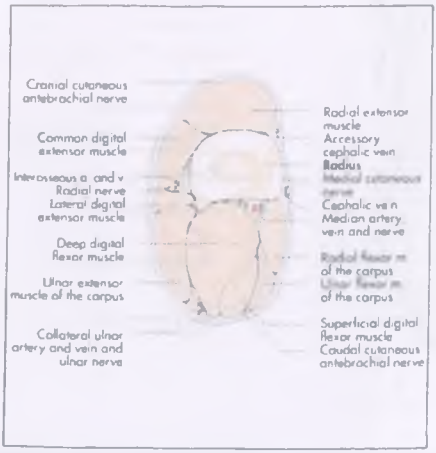


Fig. 19-56. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb in the horse (level of cross section 2 of the forelimb region, see insert Fig. 19-55, schematic)

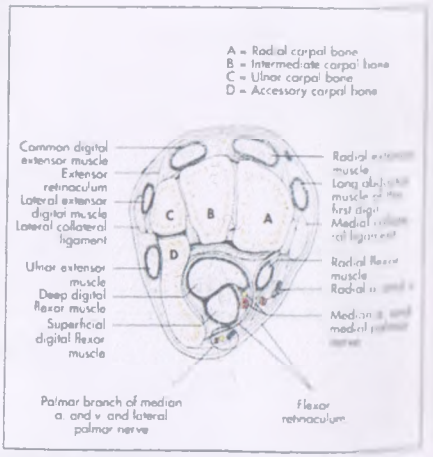


Fig. 19-57. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb in the [illegible] (level of cross section 3 of the carpal region, see insert Fig. 19-55, schematic)

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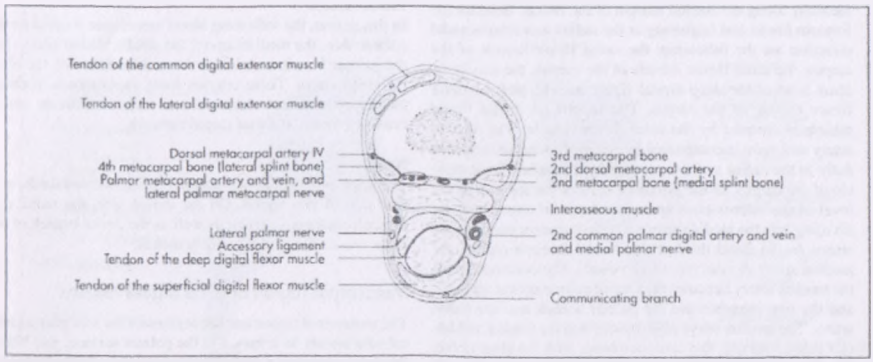


Fig. 19-58. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb in the horse (level of cross section 4 of the metacarpal region, see insert Fig. 19-55, schematic).

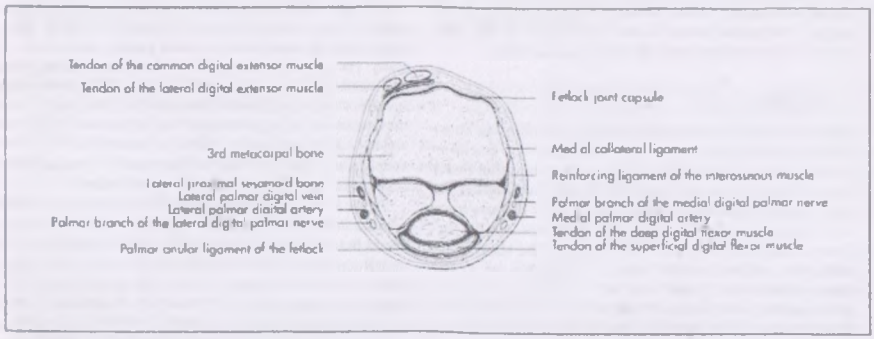


Fig. 19-59. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb in the horse (level of cross section 5 of the phalanx region, see insert Fig. 19-55, schematic).

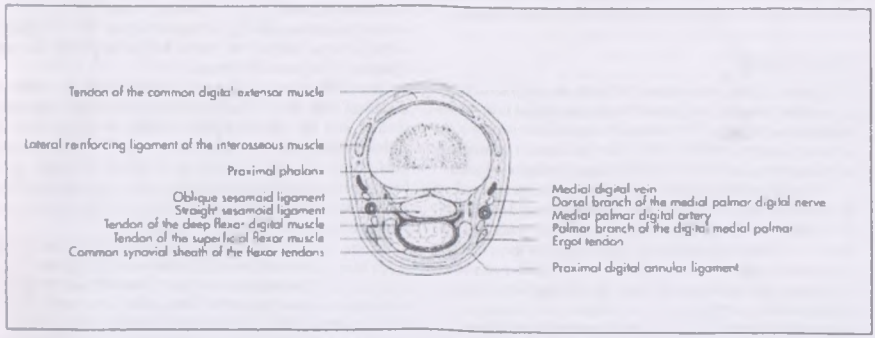


Fig. 19-60. Sectional anatomy of the left thoracic limb in the horse (level of cross section 6 of the phalanx region, see insert Fig. 19-55, schematic).

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medially along the medial margin of the radius. Beneath the forearm fascia and beginning at the radius in a craniocaudal direction are the following: the radial flexor muscle of the carpus, the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus, the tendinous ulnar head of the deep digital flexor muscle, and the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus. The superficial digital flexor muscle is covered by the ulnar flexor muscle. The median artery and vein, accompanied by the median nerve, run caudally to the radius and are covered by the radial flexor muscle of the carpus. In the proximal third of the forearm at the level of the interosseous space, the brachial artery ends by dividing into the median artery and the common interosseous artery. In the distal third of the medial forearm region, the median artery divides into three vessels. The continuation of the median artery becomes the (main) palmar digital artery II, and the two branches are the palmar branch and the radial artery. The median nerve also divides into the medial and lateral palmar nerves. The latter combines with the ulnar nerve. The ulnar groove contains the collateral ulnar artery and vein as well as the ulnar nerve. In the distal third of this region, a part of the ulnar nerve branches and forms the dorsal branch, which runs laterally over the ulnar extensor muscle of the carpus. The palmar branch is the continuation of the ulnar nerve, which combines with the lateral palmar nerve.

Caudal forearm region

After removal of the skin and subcutis, the following structures are found in the caudal forearm region in a cranial to caudal direction, beginning with the radius: the radial flexor muscle of the carpus, the superficial digital flexor muscle, the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus, and the ulnar extensor muscle of the carpus. Medial to the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus and on the medial side of this region are the small radial artery, the median artery and vein, and the median nerve. The ulnar collateral artery and vein and the ulnar nerve run together in the groove formed by the humerus head of the ulnar flexor muscle of the carpus and the ulnar extensor muscle of the carpus. The ulnar nerve divides in the proximal third of this region into the thick palmar branch and the thinner dorsal branch, which runs laterodorsally. The caudal interosseous artery is covered by the quadrate pronator muscle.

Carpal region

The carpal region covers the carpal joint, the articulatio carpi. The greatest range of movement in the carpal joint is in the antebrachiocarpal joint. The accessory carpal bone supports the ulna only in dogs and cats. This joint functions in hoofed animals as a hinge joint, and in carnivores as a ellipsoidal joint.

The tendons that pass over the carpal joint are covered on the dorsal surface by the extensor retinaculum and on the palmar surface by the flexor retinaculum. Each tendon is enclosed in its own tendon sheath. The largest of these sheaths is the **common synovial sheath of the flexor muscles**, which surrounds the tendons of the deep digital flexor and superficial flexor tendons. In the horse, this sheath is approached from the lateral side in the proximal third metacarpus. The needle is proximally inserted parallel to the deep digital flexor tendon.

Blood vessels

In this region, the following blood vessels are located on the palmar side: the median artery, the smaller radial artery, and the palmar branch as well as the end branches of the ulnar collateral artery. These arteries form anastomoses, forming the superficial and deep palmar arches. Delicate artery branches form the dorsal carpal network.

Nerves

The ulnar and median (palmar) nerves are located on the palmar side of this region. On the dorsal side, the radial and musculocutaneous nerves, as well as the dorsal branch of the ulnar nerve, divide into many branches.

Metacarpal region and the digital regions

The metacarpal region and the regions of the toes play a clinical role mainly in horses. On the palmar surface, just below the skin is the palmar metacarpal fascia. The lateral and medial palmar nerves are located beneath this fascia on the lateral and medial sides of the flexor tendons, respectively. In the middle of this region, the communicating branch crosses over the superficial flexor tendon. This nerve branches from the palmar nerve medially and joins the lateral palmar nerve further distally. The lateral palmar nerve, which merges with the palmar branch of the ulnar nerve, innervates the middle interosseous muscle with its deep branch. Beneath the middle interosseous muscle and at an angle between the cannon and splint bones are the lateral and medial palmar metacarpal nerves. These deeply situated nerves innervate the proximal, palmar joint recess of the fetlock joint and the sesamoid bones.

At the level of the fetlock joint, each digital nerve releases a dorsal branch to the proximal phalanx and, further distal, a dorsal branch to the middle phalanx. The continuation of the digital nerve becomes the medial and lateral palmar digital nerves, which are crossed on each side by the tendon of the ergot. The topography of the blood vessels and nerves on the medial and lateral side of the toes is as follows: located parallel and palmar to the supporting branch of the middle interosseous muscle is the dorsal branch of the proximal phalanx; caudal to this is the palmar digital vein; next is the dorsal branch of the middle phalanx; then the palmar digital artery and further palmar, the digital palmar nerve. This topography is the same as that of the pelvic limb, except that the term "palmar" is replaced by "plantar."

The main artery, the common digital artery II, supplying the distal limb, runs medial to the flexor tendons. This artery divides into the palmar digital arteries at the level of the splint bone buttons. In the metatarsal region, the common digital artery II is the continuation of the dorsal artery of the foot and runs dorsally between the canon bone and the lateral splint bone. This artery continues distally to the lateral splint bone on the plantar side of the metacarpus.

At the level of the metacarpus between the cannon and splint bones are small arteries that are named after their location: the dorsal metacarpal arteries II and III and the palmar metacarpal arteries II and III. Proximal to the fetlock joint these small arteries join with the common digital artery II. Small branches originate from each palmar digital artery and form a ring around the proximal and middle phalanges. These

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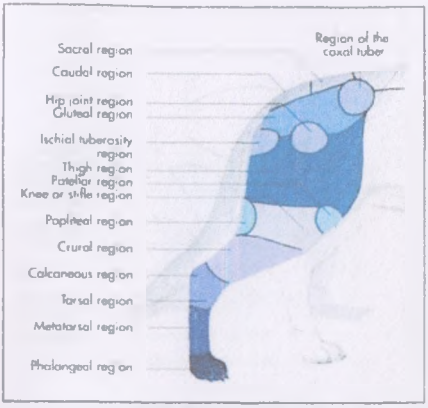


Fig. 19-61. Schematic illustration of the pelvic limb regions in the dog (lateral view)

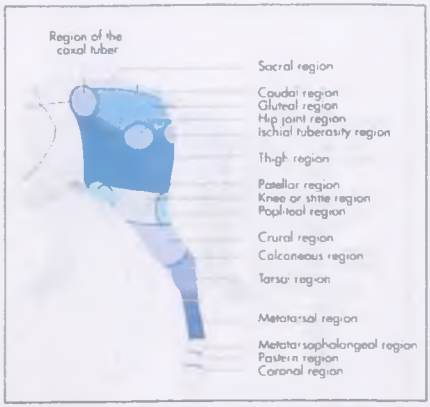


Fig. 19-62. Schematic illustration of the pelvic limb regions in the horse (lateral view)

palpable in the horse, just as the acromion is palpable in dogs and cats. Further distal, the following bony structures of the forelimb are palpable: the greater tubercle of the humerus, the deltoid tuberosity, the olecranon, the medial surface of the radius, and the accessory bone of the carpus. In the horse, the splint bone buttons and the first phalanx are easily palpable in the distal region of the metacarpal bone.

In small animals (dogs and cats), it is not uncommon that the acromion or the neck of the scapula fractures as a result of blunt trauma. In the shoulder joint, damage to the cartilage may occur, causing a cartilage fragment to loosen or even separate (**osteochondrosis dissecans**). The separated fragment produces pain, resulting in lameness, especially when the fragment becomes wedged under the tendon of the subscapular muscle or within the synovial sheath of the biceps muscle of the arm. Most of the time, this type of damage is not visible in a radiograph. Diagnosis is possible only by opening the shoulder joint, whereupon a simultaneous therapy may be possible.

A similar problem occurs in rapidly growing and rambunctious foals. Other diseases of horses affecting the forelimb include: **bursitis** in the **intertubercular bursa** or the subtendinous bursa of the infraspinous muscle and the paralysis of the suprascapular nerve.

In dogs, traumatic rupture of muscle or tendon fibres leads to extensive haematoma. During healing of such an injury, for example, to the infraspinous muscle, scar tissue is formed, causing permanent muscle contracture and severe atrophy. Extension, flexion, supination and pronation can become limited or even impossible.

A rupture of the biceps muscle of the arm is easily diagnosed when the affected limb is extended cranially and caudally, while maximally flexing the shoulder joint. Simultaneously, it is possible to maximally extend the elbow joint in the affected limb. Pain expressed when the forelimb is lifted is a typical symptom of **bursitis of the intertubercular bursa**, which in the horse and the ox does not communicate with the joint cavity. When the animal is forced to walk backwards, it drags its toes on the ground to lessen pressure on the synovial bursa. The exaggerated, arched pronation of the forelimb during locomotion is a typical sympton of inflammation in the subtendinous bursa, which cushions the infraspinous muscle. By turning the limb outwards, the animal attempts to reduce the pain caused by the bursitis.

Paralysis of the suprascapular nerve causes a condition called "loose shoulder" or "sweeney", where the scapula is held away from the body. Loss of the infraspinous muscle (lateral contractile ligament) causes the lateral displacement of the scapula. Both muscles supplied by the suprascapular nerve atrophy and the spine of the scapula becomes readily visible. In dogs, the **separation of the anconeal process** can occur in the elbow joint. The process must be surgically removed when this occurs. In young horses until 36 months of age, the olecranon can fracture due to excessive traction from the triceps muscle.

In the forelimb, the accessory ligament of the superficial digital flexor muscle (also called the tendinous head) can be clinically important. This ligament originates on the caudomedial surface of the radius. When growth in the distal epiphysis of the radius occurs too quickly, knuckling of the pastern joint occurs. This can be corrected through a desmotomy of the accessory ligament, which is found just beneath the skin on the medial side of the distal forelimb, caudal to the radius and just distal to the carpal pad. Care must be taken not to sever the cephalic vein or the cutaneous branch of the musculocutaneous nerve (medial cutaneous antebrachial nerve).

The distal segment of the ulna (styloid process) fractures easily in dogs with growth disorders and must be surgically corrected. The carpal joint in horses, just as in humans, can be affected by the so-called carpal tunnel syndrome. In this case, a desmotomy of the anular ligament is performed. **Hyperextension injuries** can occur after extensive jumping and

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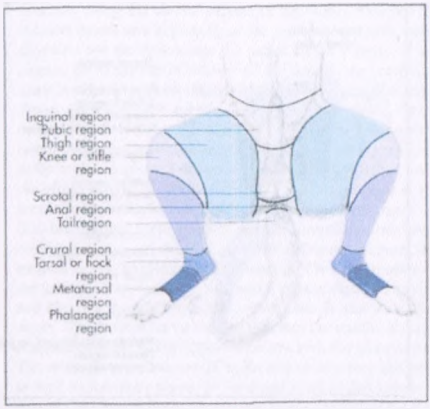


Fig. 19-63. Schematic illustration of the pelvic limb regions in the dog (medial view).

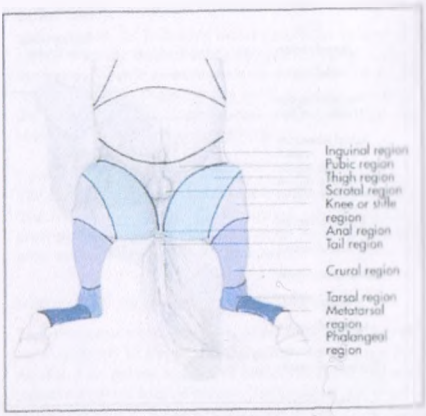


Fig. 19-64. Schematic illustration of the pelvic limb regions in the horse (medial view).

romping, especially in dogs, and such injuries are often accompanied by the rupture of a collateral ligament. Usually the rupture occurs on the palmar side of the carpal joint ligament apparatus. When not corrected, congenital anomalies in the carpal region (valgus and varus deviations) in the horse lead to degenerative disease in the distal joints (fetlock and digital joints).

Certain structures in the metacarpal region are important, especially in the horse. The splint bones have only a reduced supportive function. Fractures occur most often in the distal segments of the splint bones. In such a case, the now unattached splint bone button must be surgically removed. Also in the metacarpal region is the accessory ligament of the deep digital flexor muscle. Rapidly growing foals can develop so-called "club foot". Treatment in this case is a desmotomy of the accessory ligament. At the level of the fetlock joint, a stricture of the palmar anular ligament can occur due to disease of the flexor tendons. The palmar anular ligament of the carpal joint must be cut in a procedure similar to that for the anular ligament of the fetlock joint.

Mechanical forces acting on the distal structures of the forelimbs can lead to **fractures of the third phalanx**. Most fractures occur through the wings of the phalanx, especially the lateral wing.

Sidebone is the **ossification of the alar cartilages** of the third phalanx and occurs most often in hunters and jumpers. Lameness is usually not observed but digital palpation reveals decreased flexibility of one or both alar cartilages.

Disorders of the podotrochlea can be managed with desmotomy of the suspensory navicular ligament = collateral sesamoidean ligament (lig. sesamoideum collaterale). Today imaging modalities such as ultrasound, CT and MRI aid in further diagnostics, in particular with the distal part of the digit.

Diseases of the corium result in disorders of the suspensory apparatus of the coffin bone, which can rupture in the case of chronic laminitis, leading to the rotation of the coffin bone. Diagnosis of acute laminitis can be confirmed by an abnormally increased pulsation of the digital common arteries.

On the other hand, pathological changes in the navicular bursa are a common cause of forelimb lameness. The navicular bursa is a component of the podotrochlea. An **intrabursal injection** is performed from the palmar side. The position of the needle is monitored radiographically or sonographically. The site of injection is in the digital axis at the transition point from the middle to the distal third of the groove below the chestnut. The injection direction is parallel to the sole of the hoof. To reach the bursa, the needle must first pass through the digital cushion, the distal digital anular ligament, and the aponeurosis of the deep digital flexor tendon.

Hindlimb or pelvic limb (membra pelvina)

Regions

The regions of the pelvic limbs include the following (Fig. 19-61 to 78):

- gluteal region and hip joint region,
- perineal region,
- thigh region,
- knee or stifle region,
- crural region,
- tarsal region,
- metatarsal region and
- phalangeal region.

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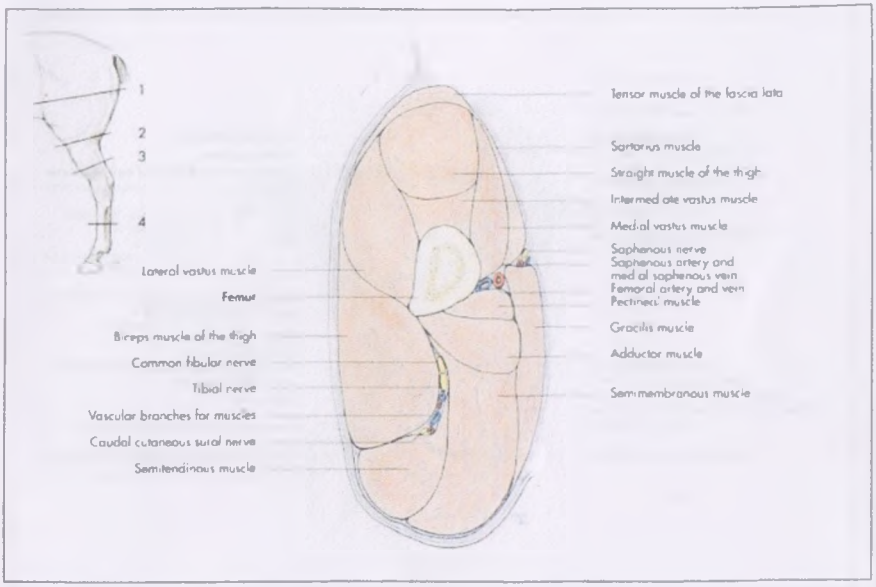


Fig. 19-72. Sectional anatomy of the left pelvic limb in a horse (level of cross section 1 of the thigh region, see insert)

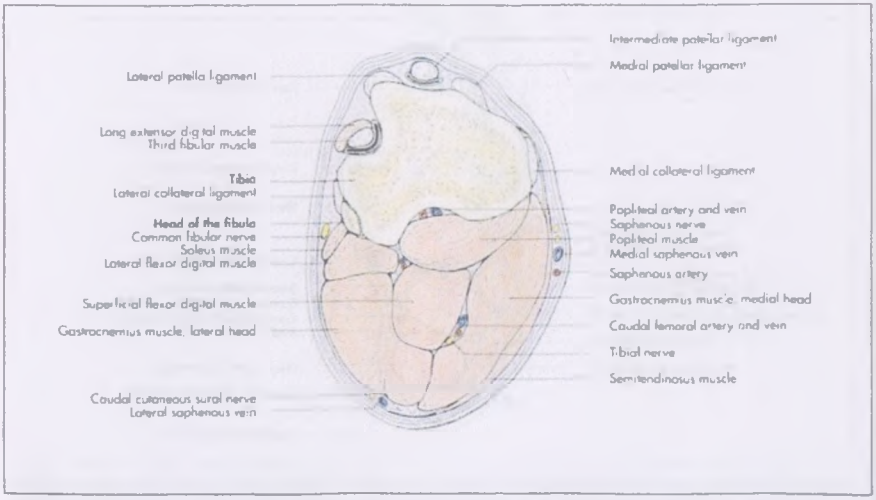


Fig. 19-73. Sectional anatomy of the left pelvic limb in a horse (level of cross section 2 of the crural region, see insert Fig. 19-72)

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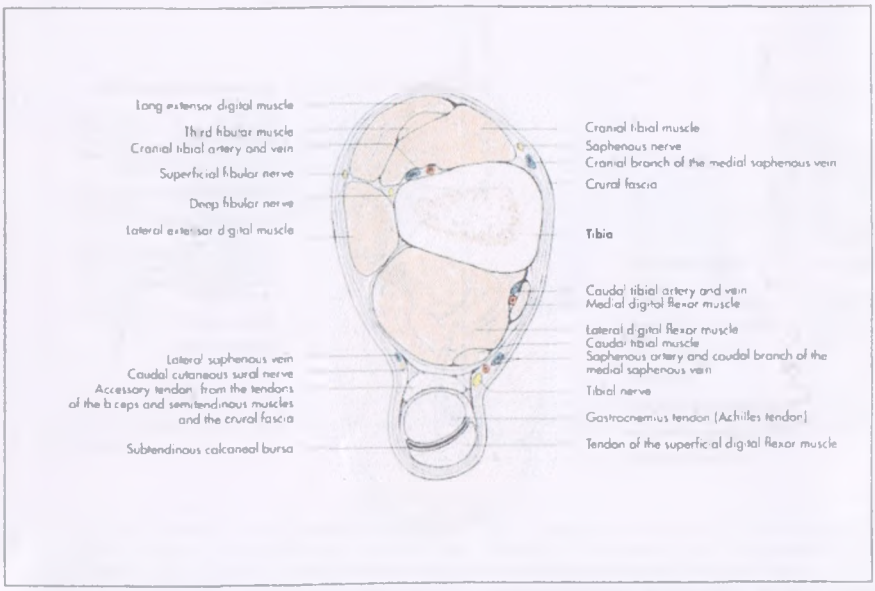


Fig. 19-74. Sectional anatomy of the left pelvic limb in a horse (level of cross section 3 of the crural region, see insert Fig. 19-72).

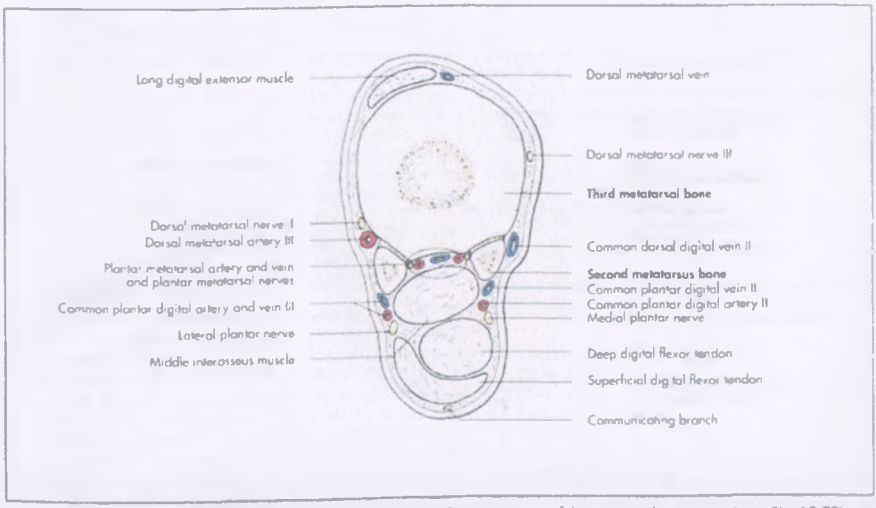


Fig. 19-75. Sectional anatomy of the left pelvic limb in a horse (level of cross section 4 of the metatarsal region, see insert Fig. 19-72).

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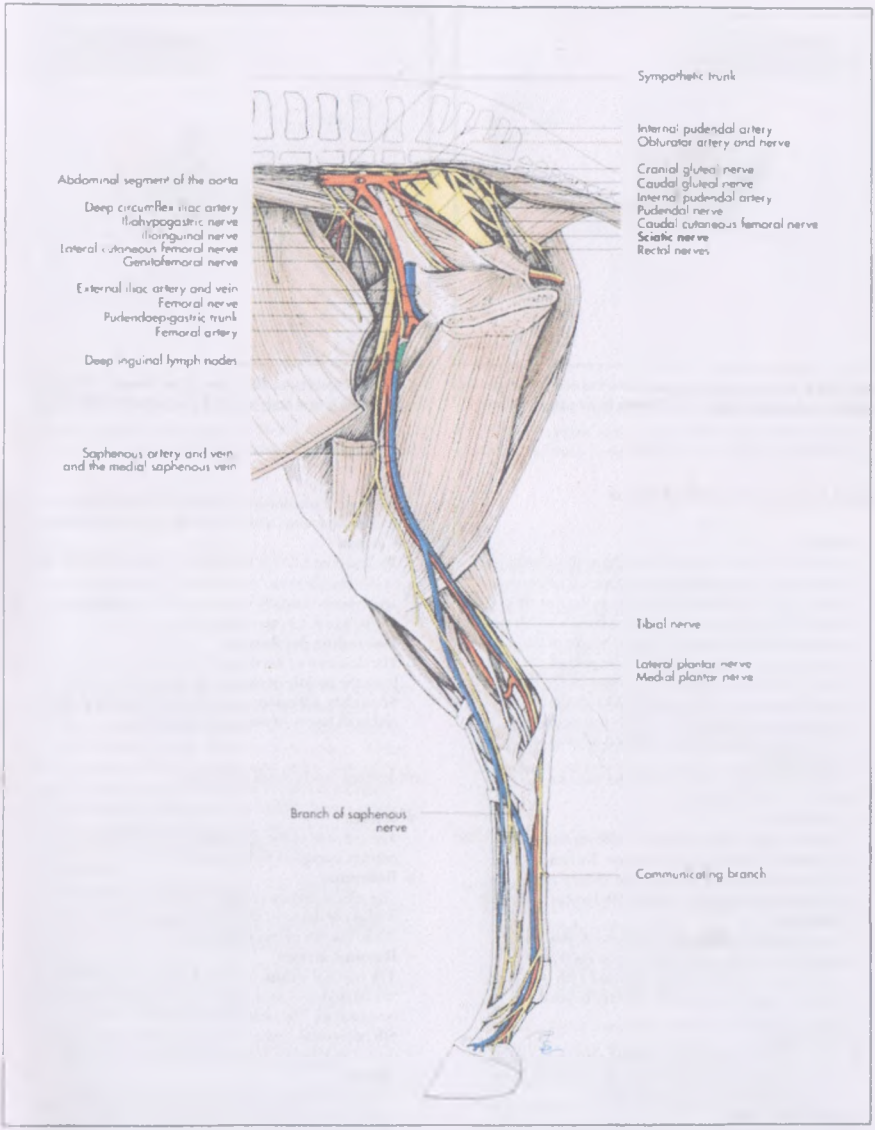


Fig. 19-76. Topography of the blood vessels, nerve tracts, and lymphatic structures of the pelvic limb of the horse (medial view, schematic)

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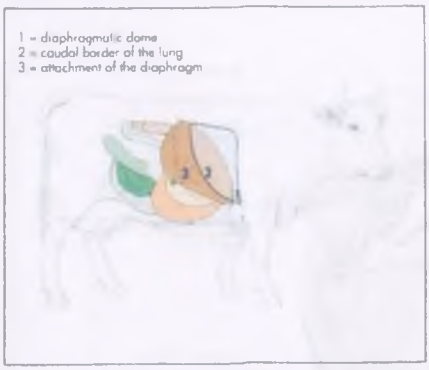


Fig. 19-83. Projection of the organs of the thoracic and abdominal cavities on the lateral body wall of the ox (right side of the body)

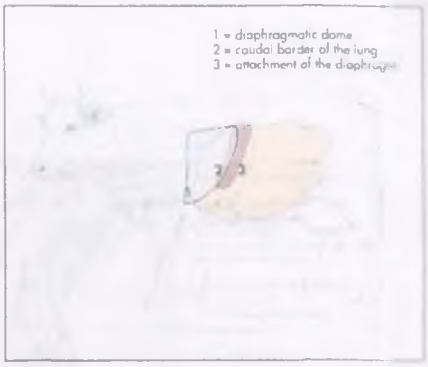


Fig. 19-84. Projection of the organs of the thoracic and abdominal cavities on the lateral body wall of the ox (left side of the body)

Right lateral body wall of the ox

- **Liver**
  The liver is located directly caudal to the diaphragm on the right side within the intrathoracic abdominal cavity and reaches dorsally as far as the last rib. The sharp-edged border reaches a hand's width caudal to the last rib and cranially to the height of the 6th intrachondral articulation. The pole of the right kidney impresses the dorsal segment of the liver (renal impression). The gall bladder extends over the sharp-edged ventral border to rest upon the abdominal wall within the 10th intercostal space.
- **Right kidney**
  The right kidney extends from the liver to the 3rd lumbar vertebra.
- **Left kidney**
  The left kidney lies centrally, in the median plane, suspended by the renal mesentery. Its cranial pole rests minimally beneath the right kidney and is located between the 2nd and 5th lumbar vertebrae.
- **Omasum**
  The omasum is situated in the ventral, intrathoracic abdominal cavity and comes to rest on the ventral abdominal wall between the 6th and 11th intercostal spaces. Ventrally, it extends slightly beyond the costal arch.
- **Abomasum**
  The abomasum sits on the ventral abdominal wall in the umbilical region and fills the space between the xiphoid cartilage and the last rib.
- **Ascending colon**
  The colon disc lies ventral to the cecum and caudoventral to the costal arch. The jejunum surrounds the edge of the colon disc like a wreath. Between the intestinal convolutions and the abdominal wall is the greater omentum with its superficial and deep layers.
- **Caecum**
  The caecum reaches from the costochondral junction of the last rib to the pelvic inlet. The blind ending apex points caudally and can reach into the pelvic cavity when it is maximally filled.
- **Descending duodenum**
  The descending duodenum lies above the caecum from the middle of the last rib to the pelvic inlet. Secondary adhesion occurs between the duodenum and both layers of the greater omentum.

Left lateral body wall of the ox

- **Rumen**
  The left side of the abdominal cavity is almost entirely occupied by the rumen.
- **Reticulum**
  The reticulum lies ventrally on the sternum within the dome of the diaphragm from the 5th to the 6th intercostal space.
- **Ruminal atrium**
  The ruminal atrium is located at the level of the 9th intercostal space, caudal to the opening of the oesophagus. The oesophageal opening is in the 8th intercostal space at the transition between the dorsal and middle third of the lateral thorax wall.
- **Spleen**
  The spleen reaches from the dorsal end of the last rib to the costochondral junction of the 7th or 8th rib. The dorsal edge adheres to the dorsal diaphragm wall and the rumen through connective tissue.

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Fig. 19-85. Projection of the organs of the thoracic and abdominal cavities on the lateral body wall of the horse (right side of the body).



Fig. 19-86. Projection of the organs of the thoracic and abdominal cavities on the lateral body wall of the horse (left side of the body).

Right lateral body wall of the horse

- **Right Kidney**
  The right kidney is situated just caudal to the liver and occupies the last three intercostal spaces.
- **Liver**
  The liver lies completely within the intrathoracic part of the abdominal cavity and is for the most part covered laterally by both lungs. The caudal margin of the liver reaches the 15th intercostal space. At the level of the costochondral junction of the 15th rib, the liver forms a right angle and continues cranially to the 6th intercostal space. In healthy horses, relative percussion of the dullness of the lines is not present at all or is found only on the right side.
- **Duodenum**
  The duodenum is approximately 1 m long and ascends along the visceral surface of the right liver lobe. It turns caudally between the liver and the ampulla of the dorsal colon, where it has contact with the diaphragm and continues past the right kidney and the base of the caecum. The duodenum turns to the left at the level of the 3rd to 4th lumbar vertebrae.
- **Caecum**
  The caecum fills the entire right flank region, from the last intercostal space to the coxal tuberosity. The greater curvature of the caecal body is caudally convex and disappears cranially beneath the right ventral colon. The apex of the caecum lies between the right and left ventral segments of the colon and points towards the left olecranon of the elbow.
- **Right ventral colon**
  The right ventral colon projects onto the right ventral abdominal wall from the costochondral junction of the 18th rib (caecocolic opening) to the 9th costal cartilage. Here, the sternal or ventral diaphragmatic flexure begins over the sternum.
- **Right dorsal colon**
  The right dorsal colon begins at the 16th intercostal space from the pelvic flexure, which is covered by the caecum. The colon extends cranially to the 6th costal cartilage where the transverse colon begins.

Left lateral body wall of the horse

- **Stomach**
  The stomach of the horse is comparatively small and lies completely within the rib cage. The saccus caecus rises above the cardia and extends far in a caudal direction. It is located at the level of the 14th to 15th intercostal space.
- **Spleen**
  The location of the spleen is only slightly dependent on the amount of stomach content. The lateral surface of the spleen is in contact with the 10th to the 18th ribs. The base lies parallel to a line connecting the coxal tuberosity with the olecranon. The caudal, convex margin lies within the intrathoracic abdominal cavity approximately at a hand's width cranial and dorsal to the costal arch. The ventral extremity

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I

Ikterus	jaundice
Ileum	ileum
Ileus	ileus
ileacus	belonging to the ileum
impar	dissimilar
Impressio	impression
Incisura	notch
Incontinentia	incontinence, inability
Incus	anvil
intra-	below
infraspinatus	lying below the spine of the shoulder blade
Infundibulum	infundibulum, funnel
inguen	groin
inguinalis	belonging to the inguen
Inspiratio	inhalation
Insufficientia	insufficiency, inability
Insula	island
insultus	injured
Integumentum	integument
inter-	between
intermedius	lying in the middle between others
internus	inner
Intersectio	intersection, incision
Interstitium	interstitial space, connective tissue
intestinalis	belonging to the intestines
Intestinum	intestine(s)
intimus	innermost
intra	within
Intumescentia	intumescence
Involution	involution
Iris	iris
ischiadicus	belonging to the ischium
Ischium	ischial bone, ischium
Isthmus	isthmus, narrow passage
-itis	ending for the marking of inflammation diseases

J

Jejunus	sober, empty
Jejunum	jejunum
jugularis	belonging to the front side of the neck
Jugum	yoke
Junctura	junction
juvenilis	youthful
juxta-	near (to)

K

Kneme	calf
Kopros	mud
-kranein	cut off
krypto-	hidden
-klasi (klasein)	break in pieces
Kyphosis	convex dorsal bending of the vertebral column

L

Labialis	belonging to the lip
Labium	labium, lips in pairs
Labrum	lips unpaired, flews
Labyrinthus	labyrinth
Lac	milk
lacrimalis	belonging to the tears
lactiferus	milk bearing
Lacuna	lacuna, depression
Lamella	lamella
Lamina	lamina, plate
laryngeus	belonging to the larynx
Larynx	larynx
lateralis	lateral
latissimus	very broad
Latus	flank
latus	broad
Lemma	cover
Lemniscus	lemniscus, ribbon
Lens	lens
lentiformis	lentiform
lepto-	thin, soft
Levator	elevator (muscle)
liber	free
Lien	spleen
lienalis	belonging to the spleen
Ligamentum	ligament
Limbus	limbus, border(line)
Linea	line
Lingua	tongue
lingualis	belonging to the tongue
Lingula	lingula, small tongue
Liquor	fluid
Lobulus	lobule
Lobus	lobe
longissimus	longest
longitudinalis	longitudinally
longus	long
lucidus	bright shining
lumbalis	belonging to the loin
Lumbus	loins
lumbricalis	earthworm-like
lunatus	lunifom, curved
luteus	yellow
Luxatio	luxation
Lympha	lymph
lymphaticus	lymphatic
Lymphonodulus	lymphatic nodule
Lymphonodus	lymph node
Lysis	lysis, dissolution
Lyssa	rabies, lyssa of tongue

M

macro-	macro, small
Macula	macula, spot
magnus	great
major	major
malaris	belonging to the cheek
Malleolus	malleolus
Malleus	hammer
Mamma	mamma, mammary gland
mammillaris	nipple-like
Mandare	masticate, grind or chew
Mandibula	mandible
Manubrium	handle
Manus	hand
Margo	margin, edge, border
masculinus	male
Masseter	masticatory muscle
masticatorius	serving the mastication
mastoideus	nipple shaped
Mastos	udder
Mater	sheath, mother
maturus	mature
Maxilla	upper jawbone
maximus	greatest
Meatus	passage
medialis	closer to the plane of symmetry
medianus	in the middle
medius	lying in the middle
Medulla	medulla
Membrana	membrane, fine skin
membranaceus	membranous
Membrum	limb
Meninx	menins
Meniscus	meniscus, half moon
mentalis	belonging to the chin
Mentum	chin
Meros	part, piece
Mesencephalon	mesencephalon

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Mesenchym	mesenchyme, embryonic connective tissue
Mesenterium	mesentery
meso-	in the middle, between
meta-	after, later
Metacarpus	metacarpus
Metaplasie	metaplasia, transformation of tissue
Metastasis	migration
Metra	uterus
micro-	small, slight
Mictio	urination
minor	smaller
Miosis	contraction of the pupil
mirabilis	miraculous
mobilis	mobile
Modiolus	central pillar of cochlea
molaris	suitable for chomping, grinding
mollis	mellow
monos-	alone
Mons	mount
Morbus	disease
mortalis	mortal
motoricus	motile
mucosus	mucous
multi-	many
Musculus	muscle, little mouse
Mydriasis	dilatation of the pupil
Myelos	medulla
myenthricus	belonging to the muscles of the intestines
Mylae	molars
Mylo	mandible
Myo	muscle
Myokard	myocardium, cardiac muscle
Myometrium	myometrium, uterine muscle

N

Nares	nostrils
nasalis	belonging to the nose
Nasus	nose
natalis	concerning birth
[illegible]	[illegible]
Necrosis	necrosis
Nephros	kidney
Nervus	nerve
Neurocranium	cerebral cranium
Neuron	nerve cell
niger	black
nodosus	nodular
Nodulus	nodule
Nodus	node
non-	not
Nucha	nape of neck
Nucleus	nucleus
nudus	naked
nutritius	serving the nutrition

O

Obliquus	oblique
obliterans	no longer in use
oblongatus	extended
obturatorius	obturating
obtusus	obtuse, blunt
occipitalis	belonging to the occiput
Occiput	occiput, back of the head
occludens	closing
occlusalis	suitable for closing
Oculus	eye
Odus	tooth
Olecranon	olecranon, elbow
olfactorius	serving the smelling
oligo	small, little, few
Oliva	olive
Omentum	omentum
Omos	shoulder
Omphalos	umbilicus
ophthalmicus	belonging to the eye
Ophthalmos	eye
opponens	comparing, to be opposite
opticus	serving the vision
Ora	margin, border
oralis	belonging to the mouth
orbicularis	circular
Orbita	orbit(al cavity)
orbitalis	belonging to the orbital cavity
Orchis	orchides, testicle, testis
Organum	organ
Orificium	orifice, mouth
Origio	origin
Os	mouth
Os	bone
osseus	osseous
Ossificatio	ossification
Osteogenesis	bone formation
Osteon	osteon, bone
Ostium	orifice, opening, entrance
oticus	belonging to the ear
ovalis	oval
Ovarium	ovary
Ovulation	ovulation
Ovum	egg

P

pachy-	thick, strong
Palatum	palate
pallidus	pale
Pallium	pallium, mantle
Palma	cupped hand
palmaris	belonging to the palm
palpate	palpitate
Palpebra	eyelid
pampiniformis	tendril shaped
Pancreas	pancreas, salivary gland of the abdomen
pancreaticus	belonging to the pancreas
Panniculus	panniculus, lobule
Papilla	papilla, wart
papillaris	tubercle-like
para-	alongside
Parasit	parasite
Parasympathicus	parasympathetic, part of autonomic nervous system
Parathyroidea	parathyroid gland
Paries	wall
parietalis	belonging to the wall
Parotis	parotid gland
Pars	part
parvus	small
Patella	knee-cap
Pecten	pecten
pectoralis	belonging to the pectus
Pectus	chest, breast
Pediculus	pedicle, peduncle, small foot
Pedunculus	stalk
pellucidus	transparent
Pelvis	pelvis
Penis	penis
pennatus	pennate
perforans	penetrating
Pericardium	pericardium, heart sac
Perineum	perineum
Periosteum	periosteum
permanens	permanent
peronaeus	belonging to the calf bone
perpendicularis	perpendicular
persistere	remain
Pes	foot
petrosus	rocky

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phago-	food
Phalanx	phalanx, finger or toe bone
pharyngeus	belonging to the pharynx
Pharynx	pharynx, throat
Philtrum	philtrum, labial groove
phlebo-	vein
Phren	diaphragm
phrenicus	belonging to the diaphragm
Phylogenesis	phylogeny of living beings
Pilus	hair
piriformis	pear-shaped
pisiformis	pea-shaped
pius	soft, tender
Placenta	placenta
Planta	sole (of foot)
Planum	plane
Platysma	plate
Pleura	pleura
Plexus	plexus
Plica	fold
Pneuma	breath, air
pneumaticus	aeriferous
podo-	foot
Pollex	thumb
Pons	pons
Popies	back of knee
popliteus	belonging to the popliteal space
Porta	portal
Portio	portion
Porus	pore, passage
posterior	behind
prae-	before
praeputialis	belonging to the prepuce
Praeputium	prepuce
primordialis	original
princeps	most important
principalis	first
procerus	slender
Processus	process
profundus	deep
prominens	prominent
Promontorium	promontory, foothills
proprius	own
Prosencephalon	forebrain
Prostata	prostate
proximalis	towards the trunk
Psoas	loin
pterygoideus	wing-shaped
Pterya	wing
Ptosis	sinking of the eyelid
Pubes	pubic region
pubicus	belonging to the pubic region
pudendus	belonging to the genitals
Pulmo	lung
pulmonalis	belonging to the lung
Pulpa	pulp, soft tissue
pulposus	pulp-shaped, made of soft tissue
Pulvinar	cushion
Punctum	point
Pupilla	pupil
Putamen	putamen, dish
Pyelos	renal pelvis
pyloricus	belonging to the pylorus
Pylorus	pylorus
Pyramis	pyramid

Q

Quadratus	quadrangular
quadriceps	four-headed
quartus	fourth

R

Radialis	belonging to the radius
Radiatio	radiation
radicularis	belonging to the radical
Radius	radius, spoke
Radix	root
Ramus	ramus, branch
Raphe	seam
rectalis	belonging to the rectum
Rectum	rectum
rectus	straight
recurrens	running back
Regio	region, position
Ren	kidney
renalis	belonging to the kidney
resurgere	resorb
respiratorius	serving the respiration
Rete	network
reticularis	reticular
Retina	retina
Retractor	retractor
retro	back
Rhis, Rhinos	nose
rhombodeus	rhombic
Rima	cleft, fissure
rostralis	rostral
Rotator	turner
rotundus	round
ruber	red
Ruga	wrinkle, ridge
Ruptura	rupture, crack

S

Sacculus	saccule, small bag
Saccus	sac
sacer-	sacred
sacralis	belonging to the sacrum
Saliva	saliva, spittle
Salpinx	uterine tube
sanguineus	bloody
Saphena	saphenous vein
saphenus	hidden
sarko-	flesh
Sartor	tailor
sartorius	belonging to Laykw, a muscle that crosses the front of the thigh
Scala	scala, stairs
scalenus	oblique
Scapula	shoulder-blade
Scapus	shaft
Sclera	sclera, hard tunic of the eyeball
Scrotum	scrotum, bag
Scutulum	small shield
sebaceus	sebaceous
Sebum	sebum
segmentalis	subdivided
Segmentum	segment, section
Sella	armchair
Semen	semen
semi-	half
semicircularis	semicircular
semilunaris	semi-lunar
seminalis	connected with the semen
seminifer	semen-bearing
sensibilis	sensitive
septalis	belonging to the septum
septicus	affected by germs
Septum	septum, diaphragm
serratus	serrated
serosus	abounding in serum
sesamoideus	sesame-like
sexualis	sexual
siccus	dry

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Uterus	uterus
Utriculus	utricle
Uvea	(bunch of) grapes
Uvula	uvula

V

Vagina	sheath
vagus	wandering nerve
Valgus	knock-kneed
vallatus	cloaked
Valva	valve
Valvula	valvule, small valve
varus	bow-legged
Vas	vessel
vasculosus	abounding in vessels
vastus	vast
Velum	velum, sail
Vena	vein
Venter	belly
Ventriculus	ventricle, big-bellied room
ventricularis	belonging to the belly
Vermis	vermis, worm
Vertebra	vertebra
vertebralis	belonging to the vertebra
Vertex	crown
verticalis	vertical
Vesica	bladder
Vesicula	vesicle
vesicularis	vesicular
vestibularis	belonging to an anteroom
Vestibulum	vestibule
Villus	villus
Vinculum	band
Vita	life
Vitellus	yolk
vitreus	vitreous
Viscera	viscera
Visus	vision
Vocalis	sounding
Volvulus	torsion
Vortex	vortex

X

Xiphoideus	ensiform, sword shaped

Z

Zele	rupture
Zona	zone
Zonula	zonule, small zone
zonularis	striated)
zygomaticus	belonging to the cheek-bone

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Index

Page numbers in **bold** indicate main discussions.

A
Abaxial 7
Abdomen 285, **683**
– blood vessels 686
– lymph nodes 480
Ablatio retinae 675
Aboutarsum 335, 339, 340
– blood supply 342
– projection on the lateral body wall 724
Absorption 283
Accommodation 576
Acetabulum 98, **218**, 223, 236
Acetylcholin 27, 48, 557
Achilles tendon 269, 717
Acromion 145, **147**, 196
Actopodium 146, 155, 216
Actin filaments 25
Adamantin 513
Adenohypophysis 513, **562**
– histological section 563
Adhesion, interthalamic 494, **500**, 507, 512
Aditus
– laryngis 379
– nasomaxillaris 78
Adnexa 437
– of the eye 586
Adrenaline 452, **568**, 577, 622
Air-blood interface 388
Alae
– atlantis **87**, 106
– ossis presphenoidalis 54
Alveoli, pulmonary 388
Amnion 434
Ampulla 606
– coli 349
– of the deferent duct 307, **412**, **416**
– osseous 604
– tubae uterinae 429, 432
– of the uterine tube 429, 432
Anaesthesia
– local, of the distal thoracic limb of the horse 546
– regional 515
Anastomoses
– arterial, intracerebral 522
– arteriovenous 35
– peripheral 35
Anatomy
– comparative 5
– sectional 5
– systematic 5
– topographic 5
Androgens 570
Angiology 33, 453
Angiothelium 36
Angle
– iridocorneal 575, 577, 584
– of the mandible 78
– – Viborg triangle 674
– mental 68, 84
– of rib 102
– styloid 71
– venous, jugular 483
Angulus
– costae 102
– iridocornealis 575, 577, 584
– mandibulae 70
– mentalis 68, 84
Ansa
– axillaris 543
– cervicalis superficialis 677
– distalis coli 355
– duodenum 396
– proximalis coli 355
– spiralis coli 355
– subclavia 557
Antebrix 594
Antitragus 594
Antrum, pyloric 337
Anulus
– fibrosus 108, 112
– sclerae 573
– tympanicus 57, 593, 595
– umbilicalis 139
Aorta 34, 37, 136, 449
– abdominal 286, 454, 463, 466
– ascending 454
– descending 454, 465
– – main branches 465
– thoracic 297, 454, 462
Apertura conchomaxillaris 376
Aperture
– caudal, of the thorax 50
– cranial, of the thorax 50
– nasomaxillary 83, 86, 375, 376
– pelvic
– – caudal 221, 299
– – cranial 220, 299
Apex
– of the auricle 594
– – heart of the heart 682
– of the bulb 641
– caecal 348, 352
– cordis 433, **447**, 682
– of the heart 433, **447**, 682
– of the nose 369
– of the penis 421
– tori 641
Apical 2
Aponeuroses 28
Aponeurosis of the external oblique muscle 138
Apophyse 10
Apparatus
– auditory, external 75
– digestorius 301
– hyoid 56, 71
– – muscles 324
– lacrimal 588
– locomotor 8
– masticatory 310
– reciprocal 267, 273, 280
– respiratorius 369
– suspensory, of the joint 23
– urogenitalis 391
Aqueduct, mesencephalic 501, **517**, **519**
Arachnoid membrane 515
– spinal 516
Arachnoidea 515
– spinalis 516
Arbor bronchialis 385
Arch
– aortic 454
– – cranial branches 455
– – persistent right 683
– of cervical vertebra 90
– costal 101, 103, 112, 132, 686
– dorsal, of the atlas 88
– hemal 87, 101
– ischiatic 218, 299
– lumbocostalis 132, 285
– palatoglossal 303
– palatopharyngeal 303
– terminal 474, 654
– ventral, of the atlas 88
– vertebral 86
– – cervical 87
– – lumbar 97
– – zygomatic 52, 55, 56, 64, 75, 80
Archipallium 502
Arcus
– alveolaris 69
– costalis 101, 112
– hemalis 101
– ischiaticus 218, 299
– lumbocostalis 137, 285
– palatoglossus 303
– palatopharyngeus 303
– terminalis 470, 472, 474, 654
– vertebrae 86
– zygomaticus 52, 55, 56, 64, 75, 80
Area
– centralis
– – retinae 581
– – striaeformis 581
– cochlear, transmitted structure 73
– cribriformis
– – of the renal papilla 396, 403
– – of the retina 580
– facial, transmitted structure 73
– intercondylar, central 229, 231
– motor, of the neopallium 508, 511
– olfactory 507
– sensorial, of the neopallium 509
– somatoaesthetic 507
– vestibular
– – dorsal and ventral, transmitted structure 73
Arm
– skeleton 139
– upper 10
Arteria
– alveolaris inferior 461
– arcuata 397
– axillaris 454, **457**, 459
– basilaris 519
– brachialis 458, 459, 698, 703
– bronchoesophagea 454, 462
– buccalis 669
– carotis
– – communis 35, 37, 113, 382, 454, 456, 459, 564, 669, 674, 678, 698
– – externa 462, 674
– – interna 673

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Arteria
- cerebelli
- - caudalis 520
- - rostralis 520
- cerebri
- - caudalis 520
- - media 520
- - rostralis 520
- cervicalis
- - profunda 456
- - superficialis 455, 456
- cochlaea 299, 332, 342, 361, 363
- colica
- - media 345
- - sinistra 345, 348
- coronaria
- - dextra 445, 448, 450
- - sinistra 446, 448, 450, 454
- digitalis
- - lateralis
- - - palmaris 656
- - - plantaris 466, 656
- - medialis
- - - palmaris 656
- - - plantaris 467, 653, 656
- - palmaris 214
- epigastrica
- - caudalis 440, 465
- - cranialis 454
- - superficialis
- - - caudalis 621, 712
- - - cranialis 621
- facialis 461, 662, 665
- - transversa 457, 460, 665, 669
- gastrica
- - dextra 332
- - sinistra 332
- gastroepiploica 332, 342, 367
- glutea
- - caudalis 468
- - cranialis 468
- hepatica 332, 357, 361, 362, 367, 463
- hyaloidea 585
- ileocolica 345
- iliaca
- - externa 299, 463, 465
- - interna 463, 466, 710
- iliolumbalis 468
- infraorbitalis 460, 662
- intercostalis suprema 456
- interlobaris 397, 400
- interlobularis 397, 400
- interossea communis 459
- jejunalis 345, 348
- lingualis 305, 460
- marginis solearis 655
- maxillaris 461, 461, 520, 589
- mesenterica
- - caudalis 299, 345, 463
- - cranialis 295, 297, 299, 345, 348, 350, 366, 463
- metatarsalis 466
- musculophrenica 454
- nasalis, dorsalis 461
- occipitalis 461, 462
- ophthalmica, externa 461, 462, 589, 664
- ovarica 424, 439
- pancreaticoduodenalis
- - caudalis 367
- - cranialis 367
- phrenica
- - caudalis 463
- - cranialis 462
- poplitea 465, 711
- pudenda
- - externa 415, 621
- - interna 415, 440, 467, 468, 710
- pulmonalis
- - dextra 454
- - sinistra 454
- rectalis
- - caudalis 440
- - cranialis 345
- renalis 299, 367, 391, 397, 400, 402, 463
- sacralis mediana 299, 440, 463, 466
- splenica 332, 464, 486
- subclavia 454, 455, 519
- sublingualis 305
- subscapularis 457
- supraorbitalis 461
- temporalis superficialis 660, 664, 669
- thoracica
- - externa 454, 698
- - interna 456, 621, 684
- thoracodorsalis 698
- thyroidea
- - caudalis 461, 584
- - cranialis 382, 461, 462, 564
- tibialis
- - caudalis 465, 653
- - cranialis 465
- umbilicalis 299, 440
- uterina 432, 440
- vaginalis 440
- vertebralis 454, 456, 519
Arteriae 36, 441
- ciliares
- - anteriores 589
- - posteriores
- - - breves 589
- - - longae 589
- cornuales 639
- gastricae breves 333
- nutritiae 13, 16
Arteries 35, 441
- arcuate 397
- basal, of the brain 519
- central, of the spleen 488
- ciliary 571, 664
- - anterior 589
- - posterior
- - - long 589
- - - short 589
- collateral 35
- conjunctival 665
- cornual 639
- deep, of the head 461
- digital 459, 465
- - anastomose 474
- - palmar 642
- - plantar 642
- elastic type 37
- function 34
- gastric, short 333
- interlobar 392
- - several 397
- interlobulary 397
- muscular type 37
- nutrient 13
- palmar 636
- plantar 636
- region
- - buccal 662
- - masseteric 662
- of the renal pelvis 402
- retinal 664, 675
- segmental 486
- superficial, of the head 460
- terminal 35
Arteriogram
- foot of the horse 654
- paw of the dog 636
- pelvic digits of an ox 642
Arteriola glomerularis
- afferens 397
- efferens 397, 398
Arteriole wall 36
Arterioles 36, 441
- function 34
Artery
- adventitial coat 36
- alveolar, inferior 461
- angular, of the eye 668
- antebrachial, cranial, superficial 692
- arcuate 398, 401
- auricular, rostral 664
- axillary 454, 457
- - blood sampling site 459
- - branches 457
- basilar 519
- bicipital 698
- brachial 458, 459, 698, 703
- - pulse palpation 459
- - superficial 698
- bronchoesophageal 453, 462
- buccal 669
- carotid
- - common 35, 37, 113, 382, 454, 456, 459, 564, 669, 674, 678, 698
- - - branches 462
- - external 461, 462, 674
- - internal 461, 519, 674
- cerebellar
- - caudal 520
- - rostral 520
- cerebral
- - caudal 520
- - middle 520
- - rostral 520
- cervical
- - deep 456
- - superficial 455, 456
- coccygeal
- - dorsal 143
- - dorsolateral 143
- - middle 143
- cochlear 136, 299, 332, 342, 361, 363
- colic
- - left 345, 348
- - middle 345
- collateral, ulnar 653
- cornual 664
- coronary
- - left 448, 450
- - - circumflex branch 446
- - - descending branch 454
- - - - paraventricular interventricular branch 449
- - right 445, 448, 450
- - - circumflex branch 447
- of deferent duct 412
- digital
- - lateral
- - - palmar 656
- - - plantar 466, 656
- - medial
- - - palmar 656
- - - plantar 467, 653, 656
- - palmar 214
- epigastric
- - caudal 440, 465
- - cranial 454
- - superficial
- - - caudal 621, 712
- - - cranial 621
- facial 461, 662, 665
- - transverse 457, 460, 665, 669
- femoral 299, 465, 468, 711
- - circumflex
- - - lateral 710
- - - medial 710
- - deep 468, 711
- - pulse palpation 466
- gastric, left 332, 464
- gastroepiploic 332, 342, 367
- genicular, descending 468
- gluteal
- - caudal 468
- - cranial 468
- hepatic 332, 357, 361, 362, 464
- - histological section 36
- hyaloid 585
- hypophyseal, rostral 562
- ileocolic 345
- iliac
- - external 299, 463, 465
- - internal 463, 466, 710
- iliolumbal 468
- infraorbital 460, 662
- intercostal, supreme 456
- interlobar 398, 400
- interlobular 398, 400
- interosseous, common 459
- jejunal 345, 348
- labial, inferior 668
- lienal 366
- lingual 305, 460
- linguofacial, blood sampling 462
- malar 662
- mammillary 674
- maxillary 461, 461, 520, 589
- median 458, 653, 698, 703
- mesenteric
- - caudal 299, 345, 463
- - cranial 295, 297, 299, 345, 348, 350, 366, 463
- metatarsal
- - blood sampling 466
- - dorsal 467
- musculophrenic 454
- nasal, dorsal 461
- occipital 461, 462
- omphalomesenteric 295
- ophthalmic
- - external 460, 462, 589, 664
- - - branches 664
- ovarian 424, 439
- palmar, medial 459
- pancreaticoduodenal
- - caudal 367
- - cranial 367
- pedal, dorsal 465, 467
- perforating, tarsal 653
- phrenic

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– – caudal 464
– – cranial 462
– popliteal 465, 711
– pudendal
– – external 415, 621
– – internal 415, 440, 467, 468, 710
– pulmonary
– – left 454
– – right 454
– rectal
– – caudal 440
– – cranial 445
– renal 299, 367, 391, 397, 400, 402, 463
– ruminal 342
– sacral median 299, 440, 463, 466
– saphenous 468, 715, 719
– of the sole margin 695
– spinal
– – dorsolateral 519
– – median 496
– – ventral 519, 521
– splenic 332, 464, 486
– subclavian 454, 455, 519
– – branches 456
– sublingual 305
– supraorbital 461
– temporal, superficial 660, 663, 669
– terminal 38
– testicular 412, 414, 419
– thoracic
– – external 454, 698
– – internal 456, 621, 684
– thoracodorsal 698
– thyroid
– – caudal 461, 564
– – cranial 382, 461, 462, 561
– tibial
– – caudal 465, 653
– – cranial 465
– ulnar, collateral 698
– umbilical 299, 440
– uterine 432, 440
– vaginal 440
– vertebral 454, 456, 519
Artery lumen 36
Artery wall, elastic fibers 37
Arthrology 17, 20
Articulatio
– atlantoaxialis 23, 106
– atlanto-occipitalis 23, 75, 106
– capitis costae 111
– cartilaginea 17
– centrodistalis 245
– composita 23
– condylaris 23
– costotransversaria 111
– coxylica 23
– coxae 237
– cubiti 23, 147, 151, 154, 165
– ellipsoidea 23, 106
– femoropatellaris 23, 227, 242
– femorotibialis 23, 226, 229, 238
– fibrosa 20
– genus 238
– humeri 21, 23, 103, 147, 151, 164
– intermandibularis 22, 105, 321
– humeroradialis 152
– radiocarpea 168
– radioulnaris 142
– – distalis 167
– – proximalis 167
– sacroiliaca 215, 217, 222, 223, 236
– sellaris 23
– simplex 23
– sphaeroidea 23, 164, 237
– tarsi 30, 244
– tarsometatalis 232, 245
– temporohyoidea 105
– temporomandibularis 56, 75, 77, 79, 105, 122, 321
– tibiofibularis
– – distalis 243
– – proximalis 243
– trochoidea 23, 107
– ulnocarpea 168
Articulation
– of the costal head 111
– cricoarytenoid 378, 383
– cricothyroid 378
– femoropatellar 24
– sacroiliac, dislocation 218
Articulationes
– amphiarthrodiales 168
– capitis costae 106
– carpeae 167
– carpometacarpeae 168
– columnae vertebralis 24, 106, 108
– – cervicalis 106
– costochondrales 106, 112
– costotransversaria 106
– costovertebrales 106, 111
– ellipsoideae 106
– intercarpeae 168
– intertarsales 106
– interphalangeae
– – distales manus 170
– – proximales manus 170
– manus 167
– membri
– – pelvini 236
– – thoracici 164
– metacarpeae 168
– metacarpophalangeae 170
– sternocostales 112
– synoviales 17
– tarsometatarseae 232
– thoracis 106, 106
Articulations
– intervertebral 24, 106, 108
– – cervical 106
– of the larynx 380
– of the ribs 111
– of the thorax 106
Association cortex 508
Astrocytes 43
– fibrillary 45
– protoplasmatic 44
Atlas 87, 90, 106, 134, 377
Atria of the heart 34, 444
Atrial natriuretic peptide 452
Atrium
– cordis 34, 444
– dextrum 34, 442, 444, 449, 468, 472
– left 34, 442, 445
– right 34, 442, 444, 449, 468, 472
– ruminal, projection on the lateral body wall 723
– sinistrum 34, 442, 445
Auerbach plexus 47, 343
Auricle 394
– of the atrium 443
– – left 444
– – right 443, 445, 445
Auris
– externa 593
– interna 593, 605
– media 506, 591
Autopodium 146, 216
Axial 7
Axis 87, 89, 106, 134, 377
– bulbi internus 572
– hypothalamic-pituitary 35
– optic 572
– pelvic 221
Axon of sensory neuron 44

B

Back, palpable body structures 721
Balance 675
Ball and socked joint 23
BALT (bronchus-associated lymphatic tissue) 40
Band
– longitudinal, mesocolic 354
– muscular 446, 450
Bands
– collagenous 280
– muscular, of the right auricle of the atrium 445
Baroreceptors, carotid, innervation 533
Barrier arteries 36
Barriers in the nervous system 48
Base
– of the brain, blood vessels 519
– sacral 349, 352
– of the cranium 72
– – dura mater 515
– – internal surface 78
– of the heart 443, 445
– – arteries 454
– of the sacrum 98
– of the skull 83
– – external surface 82
– of the stapes 600, 601
– surface of horn capsule 628
Basement membrane 36, 38
Basihyoid 71, 77, 325, 377, 603
Basipodium 146, 155, 216
Basis
– cranii interna 78
– ossis sacri 98
Basisphenoid 107, 377
Beard hairs 615
– long 611
Behaviour, abnormal 626
Belly of the muscle 29
Bifurcation of the trachea 289, 388
Bile
– canaliculi 364
– capillaries 364
– drainage system 364
– duct 364, 366
– – common 350
– ducts 364
– – extrahepatic 364
– – hepatic 364
– – interlobular 364
– – lobar 364
Biological clock 562
Black and white vision 579
Bladder, urinary 297, 299, 403, 693
– blood supply 403
– innervation 404
– lymphatics 403
– projection on the lateral body wall 722
Bladder muscle 403
Bladder neck 405
Blood
– deoxygenated 34
– oxygenated 34, 454
– venous 39, 468
Blood capillaries 34, 38
– ultrastructure 38
Blood flow velocity 37
Blood pressure
– arterial 37
– regulation 37
Blood returning 34
Blood vessels 8, 36, 441
– of bone 14
– net 35
Blood–air barrier 388
Blood–brain barrier 48
Blood–liquor barrier 48
Blood–nerve barrier 48
Blood–urine barrier 396
B-lymphocytes 39, 475
Boar
– genital organs 408
– testis 414
Bodies
– of the cervical vertebrae 90
– nigricans 577, 578
Body
– of abomasum 340
– amygdaloid 503
– aortic 569
– of the basisphenoid 54, 56
– caecal 352
– callosal 504, 506
– carotid 461, 569
– cavernous 408, 418, 421
– ciliary 571, 575, 584
– – innervation 559, 577
– of the clitoris 435
– directional terms 6
– of the epididymis 409, 411
– of ilium 215, 218
– of the incisive bone 61, 69
– of ischium 219
– mammary 619
– mammillary 494, 504, 561
– of mandible 67
– of the maxilla 65
– pancreatic 365
– papillary 611
– of the penis 418
– of presphenoid bone 56
– of the prostate 416
– of pubis 220
– spongy 408, 418, 421
– of sternum 104
– striate 504, 506, 511
– of the tales 232, 234
– trapezoid 495, 510
– of the urinary bladder 403
– of the uterus 430, 431, 436
– vertebral 86, 92
– – epiphysis 11
– vitreous 573, 584
Body cavities 285

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Beds plates 6
Beds temperature 468
Bone
- acetabular, small 219
- basihyoid 71, 77
- basioccipital 50, 53
- basisphenoid 50, 53, 65
- blood vessels 12, 14
- carpal
  - accessory 147, 156, 168, 202, 206, 206
  - - ligaments 168
  - intermediate 156
  - intermedioradial 157, 169
  - radial 156
  - ulnar 156
- centroquartal 217
- ceratohyoid 71, 77
- collar 145
- compact 9
- compressive stress 10, 13
- digital 18
- epihyoid 71, 77
- ethmoidal 53, 56, 61
- exoccipital 50, 54
- flexure 10
- frontal 50, 53
  - internal table 54, 60
  - nasal part 57, 61
  - orbital part 52, 61
  - outer table 60
  - temporal surface 57
- function 12
- hyoid 63, 71, 77, 85, 326
- immature 14
- incisive 50, 69, 171
  - labial surface 69
  - palatine surface 69
- inorganic components 8, 13
- interparietal 50, 53, 61
- lacrimal 50, 56, 64
  - facial part 64
- - lateral surface 64
  - orbital part 64
- lamellar 10, 14, 16
- lenticular 509
- long, vascularization 16
- maceration 8
- malleolar 229
- mature 14, 17
- metatarsal 18
- - second 217
- - third 217
- mineral content 8
- nasal 50, 63
- navicular 11, 178, 181, 275
  - of the horse 161
- occipital 50, 53
  - basilar part 51, 56, 65, 327
  - external surface 51
  - internal surface 51
  - lateral part 51, 54
  - squamous part 51, 59
- organic components 8, 13
- palatine 50, 53, 69
- parietal 50, 53, 61
- penile 305, 307, 319
- petrous temporal part 600
- precursor cells 8
- presphenoidal 50, 53, 55, 561
- pterygoid 50, 53, 69
- regeneration 15
- replacement 15
- sesamoid 23
  - abaxial 122
  - axial 122
  - distal 122, 178, 181
  - - collateral ligaments 175
  - - of the horse 162
  - - - ligaments 174
  - of the popliteal muscle 328
  - proximal 175, 180, 275
  - - lateral 217
  - - ligaments 175
  - - proximal support 176, 178
- shear stress 10, 13
- sphenoidal 50, 53, 561
- spongy 9
- stress 10, 13
- stylohyoid 71, 77
- suboccipital 50
- tarsal 18
- - central 212, 244, 273
- - fibular 232
- - tibial 232
- temporal 53, 55
  - articular area 105
  - petrous part 50, 53, 58, 76, 107, 593
- - squamous part 50, 55, 75
- - cerebral surface 55
- - tympanic part 55, 593
- tensile stress 10, 13
- thyrohyoid 71, 77
- trajectorial construction 11
- tympanohyoid 77
- woven 16
- zygomatic 50, 53, 64, 75
Bone callus 12
Bone growth 12
- appositional 12
- longitudinal 16
Bone marrow 8, 11, 16
- gelatinous 16
- red 11, 16, 34
Bone morphogenetic protein 13
Bone nervous 13
Bone plate, subchondral 21, 23
Bone tissue 8
- forms 9
- types 16
Bones
- carpal 18, 146, 152, 155, 190, 202, 206
  - in carnivores 157
- - distal row 155
- - of horse 156, 159
  - proximal row 155
  - conchal 62
  - coxal 215
  - digital 146
  - flat 9
- - irregular 9
- - long 9
  - metacarpal 10, 18, 146, 152, 155, 168, 190, 202
- - in carnivores 158
- - metatarsal 216
- - of the organs 10
- - pneumatic 9
  - sesamoid 10, 157, 203, 225
  - - to cannon bone 161
- - - distal, ligaments 178
  - - of gastrocnemius 239, 245
  - - of the horse 163
- - - proximal 147, 206
  - - - ligaments 170, 176
- - short 9, 86
- of the skull 50
- tarsal 216, 232
- - distal row 232
- - middle row 232
- - ossification centres 243
- - proximal row 232
Bones union
- cartilaginous 17, 20
- fibrocartilage 20
- fibrous 17, 20
- hyaline cartilage 20
Bony structures, palpable 720
Border
- alveolar 69
- - lateral, of the maxilla 83
- solar 161, 181
Box primigenius f. taurus 6
Boxall's ligament 454
Boundary, mucosal, annular 335
Bow and string construction 277, 278
Bowman layer 573
Brachium 149
Brachycephalic breeds 74
Brachycnathia 317
Brain 43, 389, 494, 676
- blood vessels 520
- - occlusion 676
- location, transverse planes 676
- paramedian section 489
Brain stem 47
Bronchi 385
Bronchial tree 385, 388
Bronchioli
- respiratory 388
- terminal 388
- true 385
Bronchus
- tracheal 289, 388
Buccae 302
Buds, tasted 305
Bulb
- aortic 447
- olfactory 494, 503
- of the penis 418
- urethral 418
Bulbs
- beet 655
- vestibular 435
Bulbus
- aortae 447
- glandis 419
- oculi 521
- olfactorius 494, 503
Bulges, osseous 12
Bull
- genital organs 408
- gland
- - ampullary 418
- - vesicular 418
- testis 414
Bulla
- lacrimal 60, 64
- tympanic 53, 56, 59, 65, 67, 75, 91, 377, 593, 597
Bundle
- atrioventricular 461
- of His 459
- - left 459
- - right 461
Bundles 28
Bursa
- bicipital 193
- calcaneal
  - subcutaneous 268
  - subtendinous 268, 717
- infrapatellar
  - distal 243, 243
  - proximal 240, 243
- infrapatellaris
  - distalis 243, 243
  - proximalis 240, 243
- intertuberal 165, 193
- intertubercular 165, 193, 607, 708
  - bursitis 708
- navicular 212, 214, 276
  - intrabursal injection 709
- omental 387, 433, 441
- ovarian 430, 432, 439
- podotrochlear 178, 181, 276, 707
- subligamental, nuchal 629
- subtendinea
  - musculi infraspinati 190, 193
  - tricipitis brachii 195
- subtendinous
  - of infraspinatus muscle 190, 193, 697
  - of triceps muscle of the forearm 195
- supraspinous, subligamentous 130
- of tendon of medial common digital extensor muscle 305
- testicular 412, 414, 439
Bursae
- synovial 21, 32, 190, 195
- - in the dorsal neck region 629
- - stratum
  - - fibrosum 32
  - - synoviale 32
  - subcutaneous 33
  - subligamentous 33
  - submuscular 33
  - subtendinous 33
  - of the tarsus 268
  - synoviales
  - - subcutaneae 33
  - - subligamentosae 33
  - - submusculares 33
  - - subtendinosae 33
Bursitis 708

C

Caecum 348, 352
- of the horse 352
- lymph nodes 353
- of the pig 353
- projection on the lateral body wall 722
- of the ruminants 353
- vessels 353
Calcaneus 212, 232, 234, 241, 273
Calcitonin 12
Calcium 14, 17
Calcium resorption 17
Calf, thymus 484
Callus 12
- ossifies 12
Calvaria 77
Calx 234
Calyx, renal 480, 492
Camerae bulbi 584
Canal
- alar 55
- alimentary 311

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

- anal 301, 356
- - in a dog 356
- axillary 75
- carotid 53
- - transmitted structures 72
- central 43, 490, 491, 517, 519
- cervical 431
- condyloid 53
- facial 530
- femoral 140, 551, 711
- hyaloid 585
- hypoglossal 53, 59, 65
- - transmitted structures 72
- incisive, transmitted structure 73
- infraorbital 67, 662
- inguinal 139, 141, 413, 439
- lacrimal 67
- mandibular 70, 77
- nasolacrimal 68
- optic 53, 56, 80, 82, 535, 582
- - transmitted structure 72
- palatine, major 77
- pyloric 327, 330
- sacral 89
- solar 167
- spiral, of the cochlea 605
- supraorbital 59
- temporal 56, 81
- of transverse sinus 53
- vertebral 89, 90, 92
Canales semicirculares ossei 593, 600, 603, 605
Canaliculi ossei 17
Canalis
- alaris 55
- alveolaris 67
- centralis 43, 491
- infraorbitalis 62
- inguinalis 139, 141
- lacrimalis 62
- nervi hypoglossi 53, 59, 65, 72
- opticus 53, 56, 72, 80, 82, 535, 582
- sacralis 89
- vertebralis 49, 86, 95
Canals, semicircular 593, 600, 603, 605
Canine 68, 310, 372
- feline 312
Cannon bone 159, 180, 236
Canus lupus f. familiaris 6
Cap of superficial digital flexor tendon 255, 269, 273
Capillaries 38, 441
- lymphatic 301, 384, 441, 475
- - of the heart 452
- sinusoid 38
Capillary
- bed 34, 38
- lumen 38
- wall 38
Capitulum humeri 151
Capsa sagittalis f. buccalis 6
Capsula
- articularis 20
- - articulationis
- - - atlantoaxialis 106
- - - atlantooccipitalis 106
- - - humeri 163
- - - interphalangealis proximalis 177
- - stratum fibrosum 20
- - - synoviale 21
- - synoviale 20
- externa 504
- interna 504
- lentis 582
- ungularis 628
Capsule
- articular 20
- - of atlantoaxial joint 106
- - of atlantooccipital joint 106
- - of coffin joint 206
- - of the proximal interphalangeal joint 177
- external 504
- fibrous
- - of the kidney 397
- - of the testis 409
- glenoidal 395
- internal 504
- of the lens 582
- of the spleen 488
Caput 661
- epididymidis 411
- humeri 149, 161
- mandibulae 71, 105
- ossis femoris 225
- tali 232
- ulnae 154
Carbachol 527
Cardia 327
Cardiac index 453
Cardiovascular system 33, 441
- high pressure dispersion system 33
- low pressure collecting system 34
Carnivores
- bones
- - carpal 155
- - metacarpal 156
- joints, phalangeal 170
- mammary gland 624
- mucosa of the anal canal 356
- muscles of the digits 214
- skeleton of the forepaw 152
- skull 73
- vertebral formula 93
Carpus, ligaments, short 169
Cartilage 8
- alar 371
- - horn 371
- - plate 371
- annular 523, 594
- appositional expansion 9
- articular, zones 21
- arytenoid 376, 378
- of the auditory tube 602
- auricular 593, 594, 597
- callus 17
- costal 101, 103
- cricoid 303, 377, 566
- development 8
- of distal phalanx 179
- - of the horse 163
- elastic 9
- epiglottic 303, 378, 379
- fibrous 9
- formation 9
- hormless matrix 8
- growth 9
- - longitudinal 16
- hyaline 9, 15
- intercellular substance 8
- interstemal 104
- mandibular 104
- matrix 21
- - ossification 15
- nasal
- - accessory, lateral 370
- - lateral
- - - dorsal 370
- - - ventral 371
- precursor cells 8
- scapular 129, 148, 147, 149, 193
- semilunar 594
- thyroid 375, 378, 379, 566
- tracheal 375
- xiphoid 104
Cartilages
- alar, of the third phalanx, ossification 240
- interstemebral 112
- of the larynx 377
- nasal 370, 371
- tracheal, number 384
Cartilagines laryngis 377
Cartilago
- alaris 371
- anularis 594
- arytenoidea 378, 379
- cricoidea 101, 104
- cricoidea 303, 377, 566
- epiglottica 378
- nasi 370, 371
- thyroidea 378, 379
- xiphoidea 104
Caruncle, lacrimal 587, 589, 664
Caruncles
- sublingual 307
- uterine 432, 434, 438
Castration 695
Cat 6
- abdominal organs 686
- adrenal glands 502
- claw 636
- dentition 320
- ear 596, 598
- eye 576, 578
- eyeball 571
- genital organs 407
- head 327
- heart 442
- humerus 156
- hyoid bone 21
- injection sites
- - of the elbow joint 166
- - of the shoulder joint 165
- iris 583
- kidney 404
- lens 583
- liver 360
- muscles
- - of the elbow joint 198
- - of the shoulder joint 198
- - superficial 30
- olecranon 198
- ovary 404, 430, 434
- pancreatic duct system 368
- parathyroid glands 565
- pregnant 434
- pulmonary lobes 385, 389
- pulse palpation 466
- radius 156
- skeleton 18
- - thoracic 103
- skull 65, 76, 79, 91
- spine 91
- spleen 486
- sternum 104
- stomach 330
- tapetum lucidum 580
- thoracic radiograph 392
- tongue 303
- ulna 198
- urogenital system 403
- uterine tube 430
- uterus 404, 430
- vestibulocochlear organ 597
- vitreous body 583
Cattle 6
Cauda
- epididymidis 411
- equina 490
Caudal 6
Cavea mediastinal serosal 503
Cavitas
- glenoidalis 164
- laryngis 377
Cavities, nasal 374
Cavity
- abdominal 285, 293, 683
- - caudal 286
- - cranial 286
- - intrathoracic segment 286
- cranial 50, 77, 495
- - arteries 499
- - caudal 77, 495
- - of horse 85
- - internal surface
- - - elevations 77
- - - impressions 77
- - rostral 77, 495
- dental 311
- epidural 516
- glenoid 148, 151, 164
- hypophyseal 502
- infraglenic 380
- laryngeal 377, 379
- medullary 9, 11
- - capillary loops 16
- - primary 11
- - secondary 11, 16
- of the middle ear 57, 596, 593
- nasal 61, 78, 667
- - arteries 360
- - floor 63
- - of the horse 85
- - lateral wall 63
- - roof 63
- oral 301, 666
- - mucosal lining 302
- - proper 302
- - wall 117
- orbital 61
- pelvic 93, 222, 285, 286, 293, 298, 299
- - arteries 468
- pericardial 289, 442
- peritoneal 286, 293
- pharyngeal, roof 63
- pleural 288
- - canine 291
- preputial 429
- synovial 33
- thoracic 50, 285, 287, 297
- - arteries 463
- - organs 681
- - regions 681
- tympanic 57, 596, 593
- of the vaginal process 413, 415

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Cavum
– abdominis 285, 293, 296
– articulare 17
– cranii 50, 85
– laryngis 329
– mediastini serosum 291, 293
– medullare 9, 11
– nasi 78
– oris 301
– – proprium 302
– pectoris 285, 287, 297
– pelvis 285, 293, 298
– peritonei 294
– pharyngis 321
– synoviale
– – bursae synoviales 33
– – vaginae tendinis 33
– thoracis 50
– tympani 57, 506, 593
– vaginale 413
C-cells 17
Cells
– bone-forming 12
– bone-resorbing 12
– chromophilic, hypophyseal 562
– chromophobe, hypophyseal 563
– cuboidal 425
– endothelial 36, 38
– ependymal 43, 491
– follicular, thyroid 563
– glial, retinal 579
– lymphatic 30
– neurosecretory 513
– parietal 328
– photoreceptor 579
– pigmented, of the iris 577
– receptor 45
– sensory 42, 45
– spermatogenic 409
– sustentacular 409
– thecal 425, 570
– tympanic 600
Cellulae ethmoidales 73
Cement 311, 313, 317
Central
– intermediate substance 492
– mass of the gray matter of the spinal cord 491
– tendon of diaphragm 135
Centrum tendineum diaphragmatis 135
Ceratohyoid 71, 327
Cerebellum 494, 513
Cerebrum 493
Cerumen 595
Cervix
– of the bladder 405
– uteri 423, 430, 431, 436
– uterine 423, 430, 431, 436
Chain, sympathetic 47
Chamber
– anterior, of the eyeball 572, 584
– posterior, of the eyeball 572, 584
– vitreous 572, 584
Channels, bony 17
Check ligament, inferior 211
Cheek mucosa 662
Cheeks 302
Chemoreceptors 41
– carotid, innervation 533
Chiasm, optic 54, 85, 502, 509, 525, 563, 582
Chief cells 328
Chin region 661, 627
Chiasmae 69, 77, 83
Chondroblasts 8
Chondroclasts 15
Chondrocytes 8, 15
– hypertrophied 15
– maturing 16
Chondrogenesis 9
Chorda tympani 307, 529, 530, 671
Chordae tendineae 446, 450
Chordoi 572, 584
Chordoidea 572, 574
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease 385
Chyle cistern 293, 481, 483
Chylus 40
Cingulum membri
– pelvini 215, 236
– thoracici 145
Circle
– arterial 519
– vascular, major, of the iris 589
– venous 473
– of Willis 519
Circulation
– large 34
– peripheral 35
– portal 35
– pulmonary 34, 468
– – arteries 454
– small 34, 468
– systemic 34
– – arteries 454
– time 441
Circulatory system 7
Circulus
– arteriosus
– – cerebri 519
– – iridis
– – – major 576
– – – minor 576
– vasculosus nervi optici 675
Circumference, articular
– of the radius 154, 167
– of the ulna 153, 167
Circumferentia
– articularis
– – humeralis
– – – radii 167
– – – ulnae 167
– – radii 154
– radialis ulnae 153
Cistern, cerebellomedullary, puncture 680
Cisterna
– cerebellomedullaris 680
– chyli 293, 481, 483
Claustrum 504
Clavicle 18, 103, 145
– vestigial 186, 188
Claw 627, 629, 632
– blood supply 635
– canine 632
– – coronary segment 633
– feline 636
– lymphatic drainage 636
– perioplic segment 633
– shoe 216
Cleft
– glottic 329, 383
– hypophyseal 562
Clitoris 435
Cochlea 510, 593, 603, 605
– histological section 606
– of the tibia 229
– tibiae 229
Coffin bone 177
Coffin joint 170, 174, 177, 181, 217
– injection site 179
– ligaments 178
– recess, dorsal 211
Collar, perivascular 15
Colliculus
– caudal 498, 510
– rostral 498, 510
– seminalis 394, 405, 412
Collum 677
– costae 102
– ossis femoris 225
– humeri 150, 164
– tali 234
Colon 351, 353
ascending 348, 354, 726
– – left ventral segment 726
– – projection on the lateral body wall 723
– descending 295, 348, 354, 722
– – projection on the lateral body wall 722
– distal loop 348, 355
– of the horse, transverse sections 355
– of the pig 354
– proximal loop 348
– right
– – dorsal 349
– – – projection on the lateral body wall 725
– – ventral 349
– – – projection on the lateral body wall 725
– of the ruminants 355
– transverse 295, 348, 354
Colostrum 619
– immunoglobuline 622
Colour
– of the eye 577, 675
– of the hair 615
Colour vision 579
Column
– dorsal
– – of the gray matter of the spinal cord 492
– – of the white matter of the spinal cord 493
– lateral, of the grey matter of the spinal cord 492
– ventral, of the grey matter of the spinal cord 492, 511
– ventrolateral, of the white matter of the spinal cord 493
– vertebral 49, 86, 108, 297, 491
– – cervical 90
– – curvatures 49
– – fauna 106
– – ligaments 109
– – of the neck 190
Columna
– dorsalis substantiae
– – albae 493
– – griseae 492
– lateralis substantiae griseae 492
– ventralis substantiae griseae 492, 511
Commissure 45
– of the cerebral hemispheres 494
– rostral 500
Complexes, mammary 619
Concha
– of the auricle 594
– nasal
– – dorsal 62, 66, 78, 302, 372, 377
– – middle 62, 66, 78, 373, 377
– – ventral 62, 66, 78, 302, 374, 377
Conchae
– ethmoidal 332, 375
– nasal 78, 374
– – of horse 85
Condyle
– humeral 149
– lateral
– – of the femur 217, 225, 228
– – of the tibia 228
– medial
– – of the femur 225, 228
– – of the tibia 228
– occipital 52, 56, 59, 65, 67, 37
Condyles, occipital, articulation with the atlas 106
Cone, medullary 490
Cones 579, 580
Conjugata diagonalis 221
Conjunctiva 583, 675
– bulbar 588
– palpebral 588
Connective tissue joint 17, 20
Conus arteriosus 445, 449
COPD (Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) 385
Cor 34, 441
Coracoid 145, 148
Cord
– fibrous 515
– spermatic 411, 413
– spinal 43, 109, 112, 296, 489
– – blood vessels 519
– – caudal 490
– – cervical 490, 492
– – fascus 490
– – lumbar 490
– – neurons 493
– – nuclei of the sympathicus
– – reflex arcs 494
– – sacral 490
– – thoracal 490
– umbilical 294
Cornu 611
Cornea 572, 573, 584
– chronic irritation 675
– epithelium
– – anterior 573, 575
– – posterior 573, 575
– growth of blood vessels 675
– innervation 675
– lamina, limiting, anterior 573
– transparency 575
Cornification 613, 631, 642
Cornu 657
– dorsale substantiae griseae medullae spinalis 491
– ventrale substantiae griseae medullae spinalis 491
Cornua uteri 430, 431
Corona 633, 638, 651
– ciliaris 575
– ciliary 575, 579
– radiata 426
Corpora nigricantia 527

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Corpus 44
- adiposum
- - intrapatellare 243
- - orbitae 586
- albicans 428
- callosum 502, 506
- cavernosum 408, 418, 421
- ciliare 559, 573, 575, 577, 584
- - pars
- - - plana 575
- - - plicata 575
- clitoridis 435
- epididymidis 409, 411
- haemorrhagicum 427
- humeri 149
- luteum 424, 427
- - graviditatis 428
- mammae 619
- maxillae 65
- ossis
- - femoris 225
- - praephemoidalis 54
- pineale 562
- radii 152
- spongiosum 408, 418, 421
- sterni 104
- striatum 504, 506, 511
- tali 232, 234
- tibiae 229
- trapezoideum 495, 510
- ulnae 152
- uteri 430, 431
- vertebrae 86
- vesicae 403
- vitreum 573, 584
Corpuscle
- bulboid, synaptic 47
- renal 396
- - afferent arteriole 397
- - efferent arteriole 397
- - second capillary plexus 398
Corpuscles, renal
- cortical 397
- function 399
- medullary 397
Cortex
- adrenal 567
- cerebral 502, 507
- - acoustic 510, 532
- - visual 507, 510, 525, 582, 591
- of the lymph node 476
- of the ovary 424
- renal 392, 397
Cortical substance 10
Costae 50, 101
- asternales 101, 103
- fluctuantes 101
- spuriae 101, 103
- sternales 103
- verae 101, 103
Cotyledon 433, 435
Cow
- genital organs 431, 436
- perineum 711
- pregnant 434
- proximal regions of the pelvic limb 711
- reproductive organs 693
- skeleton of the pelvic limb 212
- uterine cervix 436
Cranial 6
Crest
- ampullary 607
- conchal 62
- ethmoidal 63
- facial 58, 65
- - of the horse 82, 84
- humeral 150
- iliac 215, 218, 222
- of the lesser tubercle 150
- nasal 69
- nuchal 52, 58, 64, 67, 75
- - of horse 79
- petrosal 59
- of the petrous part of temporal bone 76
- renal 392, 393
- sacral
- - intermediate 100
- - lateral 98, 101
- - median 98
- sagittal
- - external 51, 57, 64, 74
- - internal 61, 77
- sternal 104
- supramastoid 58, 75
- supraventricular 445
- tentorii 54
- unguicular 158, 633
- urethral 403, 415
- ventral, of vertebra 86, 93, 97
Crista
- ampullaris 607
- conchalis 62
- ethmoidalis 63
- facialis 65
- galli 56, 62
- iliaca 215, 218
- nasalis 69
- nuchae 52, 58, 64, 67, 75
- renalis 393
- reticuli 335
- sacralis
- - intermedia 100
- - - lateralis 98, 101
- - - mediana 98
- sagittalis externa 51, 57
- supramastoidea 75
- supraventricularis 445
- tuberculi minoris 150
- urethralis 403, 415
- ventralis vertebrae 86, 93, 97
Crown of ciliary body 575, 578
Crura of the penis 418
Crus
- cerebri 511
- dexter diaphragmatis 137
- diaphragmatis
- - left 137
- - right 137
- sinister diaphragmatis 137
Cryptorchism 409
Crypts, intestinal 344
Cuff of suspensory ligament and superficial digital flexor tendon 171
Cumulus oophorus 426
Cuneus inguinalis 655
Cupula 602
- of the diaphragm 136, 138
- diaphragmatis 136, 138
- pleurae 288
- pleural 288
Curvatura ventriculi
- major 327, 330, 336, 341, 350
- minor 327, 330, 341
Curvature
- greater 327, 330, 336, 341, 350
- lesser 327, 330, 341
- ventral and dorsal 336
Cushion
- coronary 651
- digital 627, 655
Cusps, semilunar 446
Cutaneous trunci reflex 494
Cutis 609

D

Decussation 45
- of lemniscus 508
- pyramidal 495
Deglutition 323
Deboning, anaesthesia 659
Dendrite 42
Dens of axis 87, 89, 106
Dentes 310
Dentin 311, 313, 317
Dentition 314
Dermis 611
- of the bulb segment 641
- cornual 658
- cornis 658
- coronary 639, 651
- cunei 655
- of the frog 655
- perioplic 639, 651
- of the sole segment 641
- tori 655
Descemet membrane 573, 574, 675
Descensus testis 407
Descent, testicular 407
Detachment of the retina 675
Dewclaws 637
Diameter
- conjugate 221
- - diagonal 221
- vertical 221
Diapedesis 38
Diaphragm 95, 135, 265, 293, 297, 683
- muscular part 135, 137
- openings 136
- pelvis 247, 299
Diaphragma 135, 265, 293, 297, 683
- sellae 515, 570
Diaphysis 9
- of the femur 225
- humeri 151
Diarthrosis 17
Diastema 68, 70, 77, 83, 302, 667
Diastole 17, 446, 453
Diencephalon 493
Digestive system 7, 301
Digit 627
- of a dog 635
- of a horse 172
- of the ox
- - synovial structures 205
- - tendons 205
- vessels 474
Digits
- of the pelvic limb
- - innervation 636
- - lymphatic drainage 636
- of the thoracic limb
- - innervation 636
- - lymphatic drainage 636
1,25-Dihydroxycholecalciferol (Vitamin D3) 17
Dilatation of the larynx 669
Disc
- fibrocartilaginous 86, 105, 321
- intervertebral 49, 86, 95, 108, 143, 681
- - cervical prolapse 681
- - early structure 11
- - lumbar 108
- - synovial 112
- rostral 302
Disci articulares 23
Discus
- articularis 105, 321
- intervertebralis 49, 86, 95, 108, 143, 681
Distal 6
Diverticulum
- of the auditory tube 506, 602
- of the joint capsule 23
- nasi 371
- preputial 408, 420
- tubae auditivae 506, 602
- ventricular 332
Dog 6
- abdominal organs 390, 688
- adrenal glands 569
- anal canal 356
- apex beat of the heart 682
- atlas 88, 134
- axis 89, 134
- bones
- - carpal 190
- - metacarpal 190
- - of the skull 50
- brachial plexus 698
- claw 634
- coeliac artery 464
- dentition 312
- diaphragm 136
- digit 635
- eye 576
- genital organs
- - female 423, 431
- - male 407, 419
- girdle musculature of the pelvic limb 247
- glands, salivary 309
- head
- - paramedian section 324, 673
- - regions 662
- - superficial structures 666
- - transverse section 327, 672
- hip bones 230
- hip dysplasia 718
- humerus 150, 190
- injection sites of the
- - elbow joint 166
- - femoropatellar joint 243
- - hip joint 236
- - shoulder joint 165
- - tarsal joint 236
- intestinal tract 348
- kidney 391, 392
- ligament
- - nuchal 109, 111, 134
- - sacrotuberous 236
- - supraspinous 109, 111
- limb
- - pelvic 216, 252, 254, 262, 270, 708, 712, 715
- - thoracic 146, 184, 191, 696
- liver 358

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Dog
– lumbar intervertebral disc 108
– mandible 50, 68
– mandibular foramen 70
– manubrium 190
– maxilla 53
– mental foramen 70
– muscle, sternocleidomastoid 186
– muscles
– – of the carpus 202
– – cervical
– – – superficial 190
– – – ventral 188
– – deep, of the neck 134
– – of the digits 202
– – extrinsic, of the thoracic limb 184
– – of the hindlimb 270
– – intrinsic
– – – of the shoulder 190
– – – of the thoracic limb 184
– – mandibular 122
– – pectoral 187
– – of the pelvic limb 262
– – scalene 126
– – superficial 30
– – – of the pelvic limb 252
– – of the tail 143
– – thoracic 190
– nasal cavity 61
– neck region 676
– nose, external 370
– organs of the thoracic cavity 684
– palpable bony structures 720
– pancreas 365
– pancreatic duct system 368
– parathyroid glands 566
– penis 405
– phalanges 190
– phalanx, distal 157
– position of the dome of the diaphragm 682
– projection of the organs on the lateral body wall 722
– prostate 418
– pulmonary lobes 385
– pulse palpation 466
– radius 152, 190
– rectus sheath 142
– regions
– – of the pelvic limb 708
– – of the thoracic limb 696
– sacrum 220
– salivary glands 310
– scapula 148, 190
– shoulder joint 151, 164, 164
– skeleton 18, 190
– – of the carpus 202
– – of the digits 202
– – of the forepaw 158
– – of the manus 156
– – of the pelvic limb 216, 234, 270
– – of the thoracic limb 146, 190
– skull 50, 52, 66
– spine
– – cervical 90
– – lumbar 96
– – thoracic 95
– stifle joint, ligaments 239
– stomach 329, 331
– superficial structures of the neck 679
– tactile hairs 618
– thyroid gland 564
– tongue 304
– trachea 384
– trunk regions 682
– tympanic membrane 598
– ulna 152
– urethra 405
– vertebra
– – caudal, fourth 101
– – thoracic 93
– vertebrae, caudal 220
– vertebral column of the neck 190
– vessels of the base of the heart 456
Dolichocephalic breeds 73
Dome of diaphragm 95
– position 682
Dorsal 6
Dorsum
– linguae 304
– sellae turcicae 55, 76, 78
Drainage, lacrimal 589
Duct
– cochlear 606, 607
– cystic 364, 366
– deferent 407, 411, 419
– – entrance 414
– ejaculatory 412
– epididymal 409, 410
– excretory 412
– hepatic 364
– – common 364
– interlobular 362, 364
– lacrimal 664
– nasolacrimal 76, 589
– – nasal puncta 371
– omphalomesenteric 295
– pancreatic 366
– – accessory 366
– papillary 403
– parotid 116, 309, 665, 668
– perilymphatic 593
– semicircular
– – anterior 603
– – lateral 603
– – posterior 603
– thoracic 40, 289, 294, 469, 480, 483
Ducts
– alveolar 388
– lymph-collecting 475, 483
– papillary 392
– prostatic 415
– semicircular 605
Ductuli interlobulares 362, 364
Ductus
– arteriosus
– – fetal 454
– – persistent 455
– – – in the dog 683
– biliferi 364
– choledochus 364
– cysticus 364
– deferens 403, 407, 411, 419
– ejaculatorius 412
– hepatici 364
– hepaticus communis 364
– lymphaticus 476, 371, 589
– pancreaticus 366
– – accessorius 366
– parotideus 116, 309, 665, 668
– semicirculares 604
– thoracicus 40, 289, 294, 469, 480, 483
– venosus 361, 424
– – persistent 424
Duodenum 296, 347
– ascending 348
– descending 348
– – projection on the lateral body wall 722
– histological section 347
– of the horse 368
Dura mater
– cranial 515
– encephali 515
– optic nerve 525
– spinal 515

E

Ear 675
– blood vessels 675
– breed specific forms 593
– external 81, 593
– internal 593, 599, 605
– – middle 596, 593, 599
Eardrum 57, 595
Earway 595
Ectoturbinate 61, 373
– lateral rostral 62
– medial rostral 62
Ectoturbinates of horse 85
Ejaculation 422
Elasticity of the lung 385
Elbow joint 23, 147, 151, 154, 165
– collateral ligaments 165
– injection sites 166
– innervation 548
– muscles 30, 184, 192, 198
Elbow region 702
Eminence
– iliopubic 218, 223
– intercondylar 228
– olivary 496
Enamel 311, 317
Encephalon 494
Enclosure, horny, of the distal phalanx 628
Endbrain 43
Endocardium 442
Endolymph 605, 607
Endometrium 432, 435, 438
Endomysium 26, 28
Endosteum 8, 11
– osteogenic potential 12
Endotendineum 26
Endothelium 38
Endothelium fenestration 38
Endoturbinate 373
– I 54, 60, 66, 78, 83, 374
– II 54, 59, 66, 83, 373
– III 54, 59, 66, 78, 83, 373
– IV 61, 66, 78, 373
Endoturbinates 78
– of horse 85
End-plate, motor 27, 42, 47
Enterocystoma 41
Epicardium 442, 447
Epicondyle
– humeral
– – lateral 151
– – medial 150, 152
– lateral of the femur 226, 228
– medial of the femur 226, 228
Epidermis 611
– of the bulb 641, 655
– cornual 658
– cornus 658
– coronary 630, 651
– layers 613
– perioplic 639, 651
– of the sole segment 641, 654
– tori 655
Epididymis 407, 411
Epiglottis 393, 377, 379
Epihyoid 377
Epinephrium 46
Epionychium 413
Epiphysis 15, 494
– capillary loops 16
– caudal, of thoracic vertebra 93
– cerebri 562
– distal 9
– distalis humeri 151
– histological section 16
– of the humerus, fusion of the ossification centres 149
– proximal 9
– proximalis humeri 150
– of the vertebral body 11
Epitendineum 26
Epithelium 283
– anterior, of the cornea 573, 575
– ciliary 576
– ependymal 519
– muscle layer 284
– pigmented, of the iris 577
– posterior, of the cornea 573, 575
– protective function 283
– transitional
– – of the bladder 403
– – of the ureter 402, 403
Epitympanicum 597
Equator of the lens 578
Equus przewalskii f. caballus 6
Erection 422
Ergot tendon 210
Ethmoturbinates 62, 78
Eustachian tube 601, 674, 676
– pharyngeal opening 325, 375, 607, 667, 671
Excavatio
– pubovesicalis 293, 300
– rectogenitalis 293, 300
– vesicogenitalis 293, 300
Exchange, gaseous 388
Expiration
– function of larynx 382
– position of the cupula of diaphragm 138
Extensor of hock joint 250
Extensor retinaculum 169, 190, 196, 201, 206, 706
External 7
Extrapyramidal system 513
Extremitas
– caudalis vertebrae 86
– cranialis vertebrae 86
Extremity
– caudal of the
– – axis 89
– – vertebra 86, 94, 109
– cranial of the
– – sacrum 222
– – vertebra 86, 94, 109

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– distal of the
– – femur 225
– – humerus 149
– – radius 154
– – tibia 229
– – ulna 154
– proximal of the
– – femur 225
– – humerus 149
– – radius 154
– – tibia 228
– – ulna 154
Eye 571, 675
– adnexa 586
– blood supply 589, 674
– colour 577, 675
– inner 582
– innervation 590
– posterior aspect 578
Eyeball 571, 675
– anterior pole 571
– axis, internal 572
– chamber
– – anterior 572, 577, 584
– – posterior 572, 576, 577, 584
– – vitreous 572
– layer
– – inner 572, 577
– – vascular 572, 574
– layers 572
– posterior pole 571
Eyelashes 616
Eyelid 587
– lower 587
– third 587, 588, 664, 675
– upper 587

F

Fabella 227, 239, 243, 254
Face
– external surface 65
– musculature 30
Facet
– articular, radial 154
– costal
– – caudal, of thoracic vertebra 92
– – cranial, of thoracic vertebra 92
Facets, articular
– caudal, of the atlas 107
– cranial, of the axis 107
Facies
– articularis
– – carpea 154
– – fibularis 229
– costalis pulmonis 384
– diaphragmatica pulmonis 384
– lunata 220
– mediastinalis pulmonis 384
– poplitea 226
– pterygopalatina maxillae 67
Fallopian tube 429, 432, 694
Falx
– cerebral 515
– cerebri 515
Fascia 32
– axillar 114
– buccopharyngeal 113
– capitis
– – profunda 113
– – superficialis 113
– caudae profunda 113
– cervical
– – deep 113, 678
– – superficial 113, 678
– cervicalis
– – profunda 113, 678
– – superficialis 113, 678
– coccygeal superficial 143
– cremasteric 415
– crural 247, 250, 717
– cruris 247, 250, 717
– deep 32
– – of the head 113
– – of the neck 113
– – of the tail 113
– – of the trunk 113, 142
– diaphragmatis pelvis 247, 299
– endothoracic 113, 136, 287, 289
– femoral 140, 247
– genus 247
– glutaei 114, 247
– iliac 114, 138
– internal, of the trunk 114, 286
– lata 247, 250
– parotid 677
– pelvic 114
– pharyngobasilar 113
– profunda 32
– spermatic
– – external 412, 415
– – internal 287, 415, 712
– spinocostotransversal 113, 129
– of the stifle joint 247
– superficial 32
– – of the head 113
– – of the neck 113
– – of the trunk 113, 129
– temporal 113
– thoracolumbar 113
– transversal 114, 136, 142, 247, 413
– trunci
– – profunda 113
– – superficialis 113
Fasciae 32, 113
– deep, of the thoracic limb 182
– of the distal thoracic limb 213
– orbital 586
– of the pelvic limb 247
– of the pelvis 247
Fasciculi, cuneate 490, 508
Fasciculus 48
– atrioventricularis 451
– cuneatus 490, 508
– gracilis 508
– opticus 523
Fat accumulation 610
Fat body, orbital 586
Fat pad, infrapatellar 243
Felis sylvestris f. catus 6
Femur 18, 216, 225
– ossification centres 227
Fenestra
– cochleae 597
– vestibuli 597
Fetlock
– joint 24, 170, 175, 205
– – distal support 173, 176
– – dorsal recess 211
– – injection sites 172, 177
– – innervation 545
– – ligament, annular, palmar 176
– – ligamentous support 175
– – ligaments 172, 174
– – – collateral 172, 174
– – – middle 173
– joints of the ruminants 171
– tufts 615
Foetus 434
Fibrae perforantes 17
Fibres
– collagenous 8
– elastic, of the artery wall 37
– intersegmental 493
– zonulae 583
Fibroblasts 9
Fibrocartilage
– parapatellar, medial 227, 240, 241
– of the patella 227, 239, 241
Fibula 18, 216, 227
Filament, terminal 490, 515
Filum terminale durae matris 490, 515
Fimbriae 429
Fissura
– longitudinalis cerebri 503
– mediana ventralis medullae spinalis 490
– orbitalis 53, 56, 78, 82, 85, 525
– palatina 65, 69
– petro-occipitalis 51, 59
– transversa cerebri 495
Fissure
– cerebral
– – longitudinal 503
– – transverse 495
– median, ventral of the spinal cord 490
– orbital 53, 56, 78, 82, 85, 525
– – transmitted structures 72
– palatine 65, 69
– petro-occipital 51, 59
– – transmitted structure 73
Flexor retinaculum 201, 203, 545
Flexura
– centralis 355
– duodeni
– – caudalis 347
– – cranialis 347
– duodenojejunalis 347
Flexure
– central 355
– diaphragmatic 354
– – dorsal 349, 353
– – ventral 349, 352
– duodenal
– – caudal 347
– – cranial 347
– jejunal 347
– pelvic 349, 353, 354
– sigmoid 355
Floor
– of the claw 633
– of the pelvis 221
– of skull 50
– sublingual 307
Floor plate of the ethmoid bone 61
Fluid
– cerebrospinal 491, 515, 519
– synovial 21, 23
– – of the bursa 33
– – of the tendon sheat 33
Fold
– alar 374
– aryepiglottic 304, 370
– basal 374
– caecocolic 349
– duodenocolic 347, 351
– ileocaecal 346
– preputial 408
– pterygomandibular 303
– ruminoreticular 336, 337
Folds
– synovial 21
– thecal 426
– ural 377
Follicle
– atretic 424
– ovulating 424
– primary 424, 425
– primordial 425
– secondary 424, 425
– tertiary 424, 425
Follicles, ovarian 425
Foot
– of a horse 646
– of the horse, arteriogram 654
– of an ox 172
– of the ox 174
Footpad 627, 655
– of a cat, histological section 612
– of a dog, epidermal layers 612
Foramen
– alar 87, 106
– – caudal 53, 55, 80, 82
– – rostral 53, 55, 82
– – – transmitted structure 72
– – small, transmitted structure 72
– caval 136, 285, 294, 422
– cochleae 593
– epiploic 341, 351, 367
– – position 334
– ethmoidal 53, 58, 61, 80, 82
– – transmitted structure 73
– for the hypoglossal nerve 76
– infraorbital 64, 67, 76, 662
– – of the horse 82, 84
– – transmitted structures 73
– intervertebrale 500
– intervertebral 377, 490
– – cervical 91
– – lumbar 96
– – thoracic 92
– ischiatic
– – greater 246
– – lesser 246, 247
– jugular 51, 53, 55, 59, 65, 77, 83, 533
– – transmitted structures 72
– lacerate 55, 59, 83, 532
– – transmitted structures 72
– lacrimal 67, 64, 67, 76
– magnum 49, 52, 55, 59, 65, 106
– – of horse 79
– mandibulae 70
– mandibular 68, 70, 670
– – transmitted structures 73
– maxillary 56, 67, 82
– – transmitted structures 73
– mental 67, 70, 73
– – transmitted structures 73
– obturator 218, 223, 247
– optic 582, 675
– orbital 65
– orbitorotundum 60, 525
– oval 53, 55, 60, 65, 78
– – transmitted structure 72
– palatine
– – caudal 57, 67, 82

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Foramen, palatine, caudal
– – – transmitted structures 73
– – major 53, 55, 65, 69, 77
– – – transmitted structures 73
– – minor 53, 55
– palatinum majus 53, 55, 65, 69, 77
– retroarticular 53, 56, 58, 80
– – transmitted structures 73
– rotundum 56, 65
– – transmitted structure 72
– round 53, 78, 82, 525
– sacral
– – dorsal 98
– – ventral 99, 233
– sinus sagittalis 77
– solar 161, 181
– sphenopalatine 67, 76, 82
– – transmitted structures 73
– spinous 53, 55
– – transmitted structures 72
– stylomastoid 58, 60, 75, 80, 671
– – transmitted structure 73
– supracondylar 152, 458
– supraorbital 58
– – transmitted structures 72
– supratrochlear 150, 152, 202
– transversarium 87
– – vertebrae cervicalis 90
– transverse 87
– – of the atlas 88, 90, 106
– – of the axis 89, 106
– – of cervical vertebra 90
– trochlear 85
– venae cavae 136
– of the vertebra 49
– vertebrae 49
– vertebral 86
– – lateral
– – – atlas 88, 106
– – – axis 89, 106
– – – cervical 87, 90
– – – lumbar 97
– – – thoracic 93
Foramina
– nutrient 13
– – nutrient 161
Forearm
– region 702
– – caudal 706
– – cranial 702
– – medial 702
– skeleton 152
Forebrain 494
Forefoot, nerves 544
Forelimb 145
Forestomach 335
Formatio 44
Formation, reticular 495, 498, 513, 591
Formula
– dental 313
– vertebral 93
Fornix, conjunctival 588
– inferior 573
– superior 573
Fossa
– acetabular 221
– atlantis 87
– canine 67
– clinical 437
– condylar
– – dorsal 54
– – ventral 53, 65
– cranial
– – caudal 51, 53, 56, 76, 78
– – middle 53, 56, 76, 78
– – rostral 53, 56, 76, 78
– cranii
– – caudalis 51, 53, 56, 76, 78
– – medialis 53, 56, 76, 78
– – rostralis 53, 56, 76, 78
– ethmoidal 53, 57, 59, 62
– – of horse 85
– extensor 227
– glandulae lacrimalis 57
– hypophyseal 53, 56, 76, 78, 561
– infraspinata 145, 147
– infraspinous 145, 147
– intercondylar 226
– jugular 677, 678
– lacrimal 64, 70, 76
– mandibular 53, 55, 56, 65, 105, 331
– masseteric 65, 70, 77
– muscularis 64
– paralumbal 692
– pararectal 294, 300, 681
– piriform 57
– popliteal 227
– pterygoid 70
– pterygopalatine 57, 60, 67, 76, 82
– – of horse 82
– radial 150, 166
– of rectus femoris 223
– retromandibular 666, 677
– rhomboid 497, 518
– sacci lacrimalis 64, 70, 76
– subscapular 145, 148
– supracondylar 226
– supraspinata 145, 147, 148
– supraspinous 145, 147, 148
– temporal 58, 64, 75
– – of horse 81
– tonsillar, histological section 324
– trochanteric 225
Fossae
– articular
– – caudal, of atlas 88
– – of vertebra 91
– capitis
– – femoris 225
– – radii 154
– costal, cranial 94
– for the dens 87, 107
– of head of the femur 225
– trochlear 76
Fossae
– articulares
– – caudales 92
– – – axis 107
– – – craniales 92
– – – atlantis 106
– costales processus transversi 93
Fovea(e) gastricae 327
Fracture healing
– primary 12
– secondary 12
Frenulum 304
Frog 655
– of hoof 212
Fundus
– of abomasum 340
– ocular 580, 590
Funiculus 45
– dorsalis 493
– nuchal 110
– spermaticus 411, 413
– ventrolateralis 493

G

Goats 281
Gall bladder 357, 363, 364, 366
GALT (gut-associated lymphatic tissue) 40
Gametes, male 409
Ganglia 45
– cerebrospinal 522
– prevertebral 560
– spinal 490
– sympathetic 552
Ganglion
– cells 43
– cervical
– – caudal 390
– – cranial 532, 557, 562, 604, 624
– – middle 552, 557
– cervicothoracic 452, 557
– ciliary 525, 559, 560, 576
– coeliac 399, 399, 557
– distal, of the vagus nerve 382, 559
– geniculate 524, 530, 671
– mandibular 302, 559, 560
– mesenteric
– – caudal 299, 399, 557
– – cranial 299, 399, 557
– otic 526, 532, 559, 560
– petrosal 524
– prevertebral 537, 556
– proximal, of the vagus nerve 524, 532
– pterygopalatine 527, 559, 560
– spinal 45, 508, 516, 556
– spiral 532, 605
– stellate 452, 557
– sympathetic, adrenal medulla 568
– of the sympathetic trunk 556
– trigeminal 524, 526
– vestibular 511, 532, 676
Ganglions 45
– intramural 46
– parasympathetic 46
– pelvic 557
– sensory 45
– spinal 45
– sympathetic 46
– vegetative 45
Gap, synaptic 42
Gartnerian duct 438
Gaster 327
Genital organs
– female 423
– lymph vessels 422
– male 407
Germ layer, embryonic, middle 8
Gingivae 313
Ginglymus 23, 165
Girdle
– musculature
– – of the pelvic limb 247, 719
– – of the thoracic limb 184
– pectoral 145
– pelvic 215, 236
Gland
– ampullary 418
– buccal, ventral 308
– bulbourethral 408, 416, 417
– gustatory, serous 306
– lacrimal 57, 588, 675
– – innervation 559
– mammary 619
– – arteries 621
– – blood supply 624
– – of carnivores 623
– – development 622
– – duct system 620
– – glandular tissue 620
– – histological section 622
– – innervation 621, 624
– – lymphatic system 621
– – neurohormonal reflex arc 6
– – of the pig 624
– – suspensory apparatus 619, 621
– – veins 621
– mandibular 309, 665
– – innervation 559
– nasal, lateral 370
– parotid 176, 123, 309, 664
– – innervation 559
– pineal 489, 502, 562
– pituitary 493, 499, 510, 513, 561
– – portal system 35
– – secondary 562
– prostate 403, 407, 417
– salivary, zygomatic 302
– sublingual 308, 310
– – major 666
– – monostomatic 309
– – polystomatic 308
– thyroid 130, 563, 566, 680
– – accessory 564
– – blood supply 564
– – innervation 565
– – position 563
– – venous drainage 565
– vesicular 398, 416, 417
Glands
– acinous 284
– adrenal 566
– – blood supply 567
– – different zones 569
– – ultrasonogram 567
– – vascularisation 569
– alveolar 284
– of the anal sac 356
– buccal 559
– cardiac 328, 330
– ciliary, of the eyelids 587
– endocrine 7, 561
– gastric 283, 327, 330, 340
– genital, accessory 415
– intestinal 283, 344
– mixed 284
– – of oral cavity 302
– mucous 284
– – of the ureter 402
– nasal, innervation 559
– parathyroid 565
– pyloric 328, 330, 340
– salivary 302, 308
– – major 308
– – minor 308
– sebaceous 611, 618
– – of the eyelids 587
– serous 284
– sublingual, innervation 559
– tarsal 587

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

- tubular 284
- uterine 435
- vestibular 434
- - minor 435
Glandula
- bulbourethralis 408, 416, **417**
- mammaria 619
- mandibularis 309, 665
- odoritera 618
- paracanicularis 307
- praeanalis 499, **502**, **562**
- pituitaria 35, 494, 499, 510, **513**, **561**
- sublingualis 308, **310**, 666
- thyroidea 130, **563**, 566, **680**
- vesicularis 408, 416, **417**
Glandulae
- adrenales 566
- gastricae 283, 327
- genitales accessoriae 415
- intestinales 283
- parathyroideae 565
- sacci paranales 356
- salivariae 302, **308**
- - majores 308
- - minores 308
- suprarenales 566
- toti 655
- urethrae 402
Glans
- clitoridis 435
- of the clitoris 435
- penis 407, 418, **419**
- of the penis 407, 418, **419**
Glaucoma 675
Glia cells 43
Gliocytes 41, 43
Glomerulus 395, 399
- afferent arteriole **396**
- efferent arteriole 397, **398**
Glomus
- aorticum 569
- caroticum 461, 569
Glossa 303
Glottis, closure 382
Glucagon 570
Glycosaminoglycans 8
Goat
- pulmonary lobes 385
- thyroid gland 564
Golf's column 508
Gomphoses 20
Gonad 438
- female, adult 438
- male, adult 438
Gonads, endocrine function 570
Graafian follicle 424, 426
Granula indica 577
Granulationes arachnoideales 518
Granulosa cells 425
Grey matter 44
- cerebral 502
- nuclei 44
- of the spinal cord 491
Groove
- anconeal 681
- bicipital 150
- cerebral, transverse 503
- chiasmatic 78
- coronary 443
- costal 102
- cruciate 503
- dorsal, of the penis 418
- extensor **228**, 231
- gastric 330
- intermediate, dorsal, of the spinal cord 490
- interventricular
- - left 444
- - right 443, **444**
- jugular 469, 637, **678**
- lateral, dorsal, of the spinal cord 490
- malleolar 231
- medial, of upper lip 302
- median
- - of the canine tongue 304
- - dorsal, of the spinal cord 490
- musculospiral 150
- omasal 340
- parietal 163, 181
- pubic 218
- ruminoreticular 336
- scleral 673
- solar 161
- thoracic
- - lateral 681
- - middle 681
- ulnar 702
- ventral, of the penis 418
Grooves
- muscular, superficial 681
- thoracic, superficial 681
Growth plate 9, 16
Guard hairs 615
Gums 313
Guttural pouch disease 307

H

Habenula 499
Haematoma, aural 675
Hair 614
- anagenetic 617
- catagenetic 617
- cells
- - inner 607
- - outer 607
- crest **617**, 619
- histological section 617
- papilla 614
- shedding 617
- tactile 614, **617**
- telogenetic 617
- types 615
- whorl **617**, 619
Hair follicle 615
- histological section 617
Hair follicle cycle 617
Hairs 614
Hamstring musculature 30, 250, 252
Hamulus
- of the pterygoid bone **53**, 55, 57, 59, 65, 69, **77**, 84, 602
- pterygoideus **53**, 55, 57, 59, 65, 69, **77**, 84, 602
Havsall bodies 485
Haustra 345, 353
Haversian
- blood vessel 12, 17
- canal 12, 17
Haversian system 17
Head 377, **661**
- arteries
- - deep 460
- - superficial 460
- of the condylar process of the mandible 68, 105
- digestive organs 666
- dished, of horse 79
- of the dog
- - paramedian section 672
- - superficial structures 666
- - transverse section 672
- of the epididymis 409, **411**
- - histological section 411
- fascia
- - deep 113
- - superficial 113
- of the femur 224, 237
- of the fibula **228**, 712
- of the horse
- - deeper structures 669
- - superficial structures 668
- of the humerus **149**, 164
- lymph nodes 477
- main arteries 461
- of the mandible 71, 77, 321
- of the muscle 29
- muscles 115
- - cutaneous 124
- of the ox, superficial structures 665
- palpable bony structures 720
- of radius 147, **152**
- regions 661
- - of the dog 662
- - of the horse 663
- of the rib 102, 112
- stratigraphy 661
- of the talus 232
- of the ulna 154
- veins **469**, 471
- zone 614
Head's zones 538
Hearing 675
- disorder, congenital 676
- receptor cells 608
Heart 34, **441**, **682**
- absolute dullness 682
- blood vessels **450**, 683
- compartments 444
- function 34
- innervation 452
- lymphatics 452
- pacemaker rate 452
- position 682
- size 443
- sounds 453
- valve sounds, maximal audibility 683
Heart muscle 441, **447**
Heart sac 442
Heart valves 34
Helicotrema 600, **607**
Haematopoiesis 11, 16, 34
Hemiplegia laryngis 668
Hemispheres, cerebral 502
Hepar 356
Hepatocytes 360
Hernia
- abdominal 693
- inguinalis 413
- umbilical, physiological 294
Hiatus
- aortic 136, 285, **293**, 454, 470, 483
- oesophageus 136, 285, **293**
Hillock 426
- seminal 404, 405, 412
Hilus 284
- of the heart 443
- renal 366, 486
- of the lymph node 476
- renal 392
- of the spleen 366, 486
Hindlimb 218, 250, 280, 547, 553, 636, 653, 709, **715**
Hinge joint 23, 164, 168, 171
Hip
- bones 215, 223, 236
- joint 23, 217, **237**
- - blood supply 710
- - - injection sites 238
- - innervation 553
- - ligaments 238
- - muscles 32, 251, 710
Hip dysplasia 718
Hip joint region 708, **710**
Hippocampus 504, 518
Hock 235, **244**
- innervation 553
Hoof 627, **629**, 637
- biomechanics 637
- blood supply 642, 656
- bovine 629, 637
- - diseases 642
- - of the pelvic limb 638
- - of the thoracic limb 638
- bulb segment 641
- capsule 212
- cartilage 210
- of the cattle, base surface 631
- coronary segment 639, 651
- equine 629, **647**
- - ground surface 649
- - vascularization 5
- horn production 637
- innervation 645, 657
- lymphatic drainage 645, 655
- of the pig 647
- perioplic segment 639, 651
- segments 638, 651, 653
- of the small ruminants 647
- sole segment 639, 651, 654
- venous system 644
- wall 649
- wall segment 639, 651, 653
Hoofcrust 651
Hooves 637
- diseases 637
Hormone
- luteinising 426
- parathyroid 17, 565
Hormones
- of the adrenal glands 567
- of the anterior lobe of the adenohypophysis 562
- of the thyroid gland 563
Horn 610, **631**, **657**
- of the alar cartilage 371
- blood supply 659
- bovine 658
- of a bull 657
- capsule 628
- coronary 633, 639
- dorsal, of the gray matter of the spinal cord 491
- formation 613
- function 632
- innervation 659
- interpapillary 613
- lymphatic drainage 659
- peripapillary 613

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Horn
- quality 631
- of the small ruminants 644
- suprapapillary 643
- tubular 632
- - development 633
- uterine **430**, 431, 433, 436, 438, 644
- - pregnant 434
- ventral, of the gray matter of the spinal cord 391
Horn cell junction 632
Horn cells 651
Horn tines 658
Horn sheath 608, 660
Horn shoe
- deciduous 630
- of a horse 630
- mature equine foetus 632
- of an ox 641, **643**
Horse 6
- abdominal hernia 693
- acetabulum 221
- apex beat of the heart 682
- artery
- - coeliac 464
- - mesenteric
- - - caudal 464
- - - cranial 464
- atlas 88
- audition tube 692
- axis 89
- bone, metatarsal
- - second 717
- - third 717
- bones
- - carpal **155**, 159, 191
- - metacarpal 156, **159**, 191
- brain 494
- - parasagittal section 489
- bursa, navicular 212, 214
- caecum 452
- carpus 159
- cartilage
- - cricoid 378
- - thyroid 378
- cartilages
- - laryngeal 378
- - nasal 370
- circulatory system 35
- colon 452
- costal arch 142
- deep muscles of the pelvic limb 261
- dentition 314
- digit 177
- digital synovial sheath 210
- dislocation of sacroiliac articulation 718
- duodenum 368
- elbow joint 167
- - injection sites 167
- ethmoturbinates 62
- eye 576, 578
- eyelids 582
- fasciae of the distal forelimb 213
- fibula 231
- foot 646
- - arteriogram 654
- ganglia, sympathetic 557
- genital organs, female 431
- head
- - deeper structures 569
- - median section 375
- - regions 664
- - nasal part 402
- - superficial structures 668
- hepatic portal system 474
- hoof 629, **647**
- - ground surface 649
- - vascularization 5, 654, 655
- horn shoe 630
- humerus 150, 191, **206**
- hyoid bone 71
- injection sites of the
- - elbow joint 167
- - femoropatellar joint 243
- - hip joint 238
- - lateral femorotibial joint 243
- - medial femorotibial joint 243
- - shoulder joint 166
- - tarsal joint 246
- innervation of the distal thoracic limb 536
- internal ear 599
- intestinal tract 339
- intestine, large 353
- intrathoracic abdominal organs 467
- joint
- - atlantoaxial 106
- - atlanto-occipital 106
- - interphalangeal 217
- - metacarpophalangeal 174
- joints
- - carpal, injection sites 169
- - phalangeal 175
- kidney 391
- knee joint 217
- laparotomy 693
- larynx 383
- ligament
- - nuchal 111
- - supraspinous 111
- ligaments of the pelvis 237
- limb
- - pelvic 730
- - - blood vessels 719
- - - nerve tracts 719
- - thoracic
- - - sectional anatomy 704
- - - synovial structures 214
- - - topography 703
- liver 359
- main arteries of the head 461
- mandible 51, 68, **124**
- mandibular foramen 70
- manubrium 132
- maxillary sinus 662
- mental foramen 70
- middle ear 599
- molars 667
- muscle, sternocleidomastoid 186
- muscles
- - of the carpus 206
- - cervical, superficial 191
- - deep, of the trunk 132
- - of the digit 206
- - of the external ear 120
- - extrinsic, of the thoracic limb 185
- - intrinsic
- - - of the shoulder 191
- - - of the thoracic limb 185
- - mandibular 123
- - pectoral 181
- - scalene 126, 132
- - superficial 41
- - - of the cranial region of the neck 124
- - - of the head 116, 118, 124
- - - of the pelvic limb 251, 253
- - - of the trunk 140
- - thoracic 191
- - of the thoracic wall 138
- neck region 670
- nerves, sympathetic 557
- ulceration 206
- organs
- - abdominal 698
- - of the thoracic cavity 684
- palpable bony structures 721
- pancreas 365
- pancreatic duct system 368
- parathyroid glands 565
- phalanges 191
- phalanx, middle, embryonal 11
- phases of movement during
- - galloping 282
- - trotting 282
- - walking 281
- position of the dome of the diaphragm 682
- premolars 667
- projection of the organs on the lateral body wall 725
- proximal extremity of tibia 231
- pulmonary lobes 385, 387
- pulse palpation 462
- radius 153, 191, **206**
- recurrent laryngeal nerve 568
- regions
- - of the pelvic limb 708
- - of the thoracic limb 696
- rib 102
- salivary glands 311
- scapula 149, 191
- skeleton 19, 191
- - of the carpus 206
- - of the digit 156, **160**, **206**
- - of the manus 156, **159**
- - of the pelvic limb 217, 255
- - of the thoracic limb 147
- skull 51, **58**, **79**, 326
- small, adrenal glands 569
- sternum **104**, 142, 191
- stifle joint ligaments 239
- stomach 329, 332
- sublingual floor 308
- synovial structures of the distal forelimb 214
- tarsus 246
- thickness of the discs of thoracic vertebrae 189
- third cervical vertebra 92
- thyroid gland 140, 564, 567
- tibia 231
- tongue 305, 306
- trachea 130, 384
- trunk regions 682
- tubercle
- - greater 191
- - supraglenoid 191
- ulna 153, **206**
- venous system 469
- vertebra
- - cervical 92
- - lumbar 97
- vertebral column of the neck 191
- - vertebral formula 93
- - vessels of the base of the heart 456
- - xiphoid process 132
- Horseshoe 651
- Humerus 10, **18**, 103, 146, **149**, **190**, 198, **202**, **206**
- Humor
- - aqueous 584
- - aqueous 584
- - vitreous 585
- Husky
- - mandible 75
- - skull 75
- Hydrocephalus 626
- Hyperkeratosis 643
- Hyperthyroidism 563
- Hypomochlion 20
- Hypophysis 78, 494, 499, **502**, **513**, **561**
- Hypothalamus **502**, 507, 514
- Hypothalamus-hypophysis system 562
- Hypothyroidism 563
- Hypotonus of the muscles 29
- Hypoxyphenicum 597
- Hysiera 430

I

- Ileum 348, **351**
- - histological section 347
- Ilium 39, 98, 215, **217**, 222
- - auricular portion 219
- - ossification centres 224
- - surface
- - - gluteal 214
- - - iliac 215, 219
- Immune system 7, 39, **475**
- - cellular component 475
- - circulating components 475
- Implantation 20
- Impressiones digitatae 77, 85
- Incisor 310
- - equine 312, 315
- Incisors, mandibular, occlusal surface 316, 319
- Incisura
- - alaris 87
- - cardiaca 384
- - caroticа 55
- - intercondylaris 53, 83
- - ischiadica
- - - major 215, **218**
- - - minor 218
- - mandibular 71
- - ovalis 55
- - pancreatis 364
- - popliteа 229
- - radialis ulnae 153, 167
- - spinosa 55
- - trochlearis 151
- - ulnaris radii 154, 167
- - vasorum facialium 70, 77
- - vertebralis cranialis 90
- Incisure, intercondyloid 53, 83
- Incus 599, 600
- Index
- - cardiac 383
- - refractive 585
- Infarction 38
- Inferior 7
- Inflammation of the inner ear 602

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Information
- proprioceptive 509
- visual 509
- - receptors 591
Infundibulum of the uterine tube 429
Inhibiting factors 562
Injection
- intrathecal 709
- intravenous, medial saphenous vein 472
Inlet, pelvic 299
Inspiration
- function of larynx 382
- position of the cupula of diaphragm 138
Insula ruminis 337
Insulae pancreaticae 570
Insulin 570
Integument, common 669
Internal 2
Interneuron 44, 493
Interstitium 283, 284
- of the lung 385
Intestine 343
- blood supply 345
- innervation 345
- landmarks 355
- large 301, 343, 351
- - of the horse 353
- lymph nodes 487
- rotation 295
- small 301, 343, 346
Intestinum
- crassum 301, 343, 351, 353
- tenue 301, 343, 346
Intima synovialis 21
Intumescence
- caudal 93
- cervical 93
- lumbar 490
Iris 572, 576, 584
- blood vessels 576
- innervation 559, 577
Ischial tuberosity region 706, 711
Ischium 96, 217, 223
- medial branch 218
- ossification centres 224
Island, ruminal 337
Islets
- of Langerhans 367, 570
- pancreatic 367, 570
Isthmus
- of the fauces 322, 325
- fauclum 322, 325
- glandulae thyroideae 563, 565
- of the thyroid gland 563, 565
- tubae uterinae 429, 432
- of the uterine tube 429, 432

J

Jaw, lower 63
Jejunum 348, 350
- projection on the lateral body wall 722
Joint 23
- antebrachiocarpal 155
- atlantoaxial 23, 106
- - joint capsule 106
- - ligaments 106
- atlanto-occipital 23, 75, 106
- - - joint capsule 106
- - - ligaments 106
- biaxial 23
- carpal 142
- - innervation 545
- - middle 168
- - muscles 30
- - - extensor 30, 184
- - - flexor 30, 184
- - ligaments
- - - collateral 168
- - - - long 168
- - - - short 168, 169
- - - - vertical 169
- carpometacarpal 155, 168
- centrodistal 245
- cochlear 24
- composite 23, 165, 167, 178
- condylar 23, 238
- costochondral 112
- costotransverse 111
- costovertebral 111
- cotyloid 23
- craniomandibular 23, 32, 217, 237, 241, 553, 710
- ellipsoidal 23, 106
- femoropatellar 227, 242
- - injection sites 243
- - joint pouch 241
- femorotibial 23, 226, 229, 238
- - joint pouch, medial 241
- - ligaments 239
- fibrous 20
- gliding 24
- hip 23, 32, 217, 237, 251, 553, 710
- humeral 21, 23, 103, 147, 151, 164
- incongruent 24
- intercarpal 168
- intermandibular 77, 105, 321
- interphalangeal 23
- - distal 147
- - - of the manus 170, 174, 177, 181, 217
- - - injection site 178
- - proximal 147, 177, 217
- - - ligament, collateral, lateral 174
- lumbosacral 112
- metacarpophalangeal 147
- - of the horse 175
- metatarsophalangeal 217
- multiaxial 23
- plane 24, 109, 168
- radiocarpal 168
- radioulnar 147
- - distal 162
- - proximal 162
- - - ligaments 162
- sacroiliac 215, 217, 222, 223, 236
- simple 23
- space
- - of fetlock joint 172
- - of proximal interphalangeal joint 173
- spheroidal 23, 164, 237
- spiral 24
- stifle 212, 238, 266
- - locking mechanism 243
- suspensory apparatus 23
- synovial 17, 20, 23, 236
- tarsal 244
- - injection sites 246
- - muscles 30
- - - extensor 30
- - - flexor 30
- tarsocrural 232, 245
- temporohyoid 105
- temporomandibular 56, 75, 77, 79, 105, 122, 321
- - of horse 80
- tibiofibular
- - distal 243
- - proximal 243
- tibiotarsal 23
- trochoid 23, 107
- ulnocarpal 168
- uniaxial 23
Joint bodies, free 21
Joint capsule 11, 20
- atlantoaxial joint 106
- atlanto-occipital joint 106
- costovertebral joint 111
- diverticulum 23
- femorotibial joint 238
- fibrous layer 20, 236, 244
- - inner layer 20
- - subsynovial layer 21
- - shoulder joint 164
- synovial layer 236, 244
- tarsal joint 244
- temporomandibular joint 105, 321
Joint cartilage 9, 21
- metabolism 23
Joint cavity 17, 20
- of the atlanto-occipital joint 107
Joint fluid 17
Joint gap 11, 16, 21
Joint mice 21
Joint pouch
- dorsal 269
- - of the atlanto-occipital joint 107
- femoropatellar joint 241
- lateral
- - of the femoropatellar joint 241
- - of the femorotibial joint 241
- lateroplantar 269
- medial, of the femorotibial joint 241
- plantar 269
Joint surfaces 23
Jonats 2
- carpal 167
- - injection sites 169
- - ligaments 168
- costochondral 112
- digital
- - of the hindlimb, innervation 553
- - innervation 545, 553
- - muscles
- - - extensor 184
- - - flexor 184
- interphalangeal
- - distal 170, 174, 177, 181, 217
- - - of the carnivores 171
- - proximal 24, 170, 173, 177
- - - of the carnivores 171
- - - of the ruminants 173
- intertarsal
- - distal 245
- - proximal 245
- of the manus 167
- metacarpophalangeal 24, 170, 175, 305
- - of the carnivores 170
- - dorsal recess 211
- - injection sites 172, 177
- - ligaments 172, 174
- - - collateral 172, 174
- - - middle 173
- - of the ruminants 171
- metatarsal 247
- pedal 244
- of the pelvic limb 236
- - innervation 553
- phalangeal 170, 247
- - of the carnivores 170
- - of the horse 175
- - of the ruminants 171
- radioulnar 162
- - muscles 195, 198
- of the skull 105
- sternocostal 112
- tarsometatarsal 232, 245
- of the thoracic limb 164
- - innervation 545
- of the thorax 106, 112
- of the vertebral column 106
Jugular cerebellin 77, 85
Junction
- corneoscleral 573
- corticomedullary 397
- costochondral 103
Junctions, cartilaginous, of the skull 105
Juncturae
- cartilagineae 20
- fibrosae 17, 20
- synoviales 17

K

Keratinisation 613, 633
Keratinocytes 613
Kidney 298, 299, 391
- blood supply 397, 400
- endocrine function 393
- functional unit 395
- histological section 397
- innervation 399
- location 393
- lymph nodes 399
- multilobar 393
- projection on the lateral body wall 722
- retroperitoneal position 286
- shape 391, 393
- structure 393
- unilobar 392, 393
Knee joint 23, 217, 226, 229, 238
- innervation 553
Knee region 708, 711
- innervation of the skin 712
- lymph nodes 712
- palpable bony structures 712
Kneecap 18, 217, 225, 227, 241, 265, 710, 712

L

Labrum
- acetabulare 220
- articular 220
- glenoidale 164
Labyrinth
- cochlear 602
- ethmoidal 61
- membranous 605

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Labyrinth
– osseous 603, 605
– vestibular 593, 603, 605
– – receptor cells 602
Labyrinthus
– vestibularis 593, 603, 605
– – pars
– – – auditiva 602
– – – statica 605
Lacertus
– fibrosus 193, 199, 206, 370
Lactation 623
Lacuna
– muscular 139, 247, 248, 280
– vascular 139, 247, 311
Lamella
– basal 332
– circumferentia
– – inner 12, 17
– – outer 12, 17
– concentric 12, 17
– spiral 372
Lamellae of bone 10
Lamina
– arcus vertebrae 80
– basalis ossis ethmoidalis 61
– cribrosa 61
– limitans
– – anterior corneae 573
– – posterior corneae 573, 574
– nuchal 110
– perpendicularis 61, 69
– practrachealis fasciae cervicalis 628
– prevertebralis fasciae cervicalis 628
– propria mucosae 284
– tectoria 61
Laminae, nasal 530
Laminitis of the horse 656
Langerhans' cells 613
Laparoscopy 693
Laparotomy, sagittal 695
Laryngopharynx 322, 335
Larynx 376, 668, 680
– blood supply 382
– function 382
– innervation 382
– lymph vessels 384
– muscles 380
– – extrinsic 381
– – intrinsic 381
Lateral 6
Lateral intermediate substance 392
Layer
– chorioidocapillary 574
– fibrous, of periosteum 11
– muscular, of uterus 432
– muscular of
– – oesophagus 326
– – stomach 327
– – uterus 433
– osteogenic, of periosteum 11
– serosal, of uterus 433
Lemniscus 45
– lateral 510
– medial 508
– spinal 509
– trigeminal 509
Lens 373, 575, 577, 582
– epithelium 582
– fibres 583
– – extracellular matrix 583
– lamellar architecture 583
– sutures 583
Lens capsule 582
Leydig cells 411
Lien 386, 396, 485
– function 488
– histological section 488
– lymphatic drainage 488
– nervous salarination 482
– nodule 487
– projection on the lateral body wall 722
Ligament 23
– accessory 211, 291
– – carpal 171
– – of deep digital flexor muscle 296
– – distal 279
– – of the femur 238
– – metacarpal 170
– – proximal 279
– acetabular, transverse 238
– alar 106
– annular
– – digital 173
– – – distal 174, 176, 208, 210, 213, 707
– – – proximal 206, 210, 255
– – – four-cornered 707
– – – of proximal phalanx 174
– – of fetlock 174, 176, 206, 208
– – palmar 123, 210, 707
– – – of the fetlock 174, 176, 208, 212
– – plantar 653
– – – of the fetlock 174, 255, 235
– – proximal 174, 176
– – of the radius 167
– atlantoaxial, ventral 108
– axial dorsal, elastic 107
– broad, of the uterus 299, 429, 436, 437, 694
– caecocolic 352
– carpometacarpal, palmar 171
– caudal
– – of meniscus tibiae 240
– – of the ovary 439
– – temporomandibular joint 105
– – of the testis 439
– chondrocostal
– – lateral 179
– – medial 179
– chondrosternoidean
– – lateral 179
– – medial 179
– collateral
– – abaxial 172
– – axial 172
– – chondroangular
– – – lateral 179
– – – medial 179
– – lateral
– – – of the elbow joint 185, 193
– – – of femorotibial joint 239, 241
– – – long 246
– – – short 246
– – – of the tarsus 244
– – long
– – – lateral, of the carpus 168
– – – medial, of the carpus 168
– – medial
– – – of the elbow joint 185
– – – of femorotibial joint 239, 241
– – – long 246
– – – short 246
– – – of the tarsus 244
– coracohumeral 164
– coronary 294, 363
– costotransverse 112
– cranial
– – of the ovary 439
– – of the testis 439
– cruciate
– – caudal 239, 242, 266
– – cranial 240, 242
– digital, annular, proximal 275
– dorsal, of the coffin joint 174
– epiploon 22
– falciform 286, 294, 334, 357, 363, 692
– femoral, of the lateral meniscus 241
– femoropatellar
– – lateral 239, 242
– – medial 239, 242
– gastrophrenic 334
– gastrosplenic 287, 294, 334, 488
– glenohumeral
– – lateral 164
– – medial 164
– gonad
– – caudal 438
– – cranial 438
– of the head
– – of rib 112
– – of femur 220, 238
– hepatoduodenal 287, 334, 360, 363
– hepatogastric 287, 294, 334, 363
– hepatorenal 359
– humeral, transverse 164
– inguinal 138
– – of the ovary 439
– – of the testis 439
– intercapital 111
– intercarpal
– – dorsal 170
– – palmar 171
– intercornual 430, 431, 438, 694
– interdigital 173
– – distal 173, 176, 205, 208
– – proximal 173, 209
– interosseous, of the antebrachium 167
– intersesamoid, interdigital 173
– interspinous 110
– intracapsular, of the femoral head 220
– lateral of the
– – atlas 106
– – bladder 351, 403
– – malleus 509
– – temporomandibular joint 105
– longitudinal 109
– – dorsal 110, 112
– – ventral 110, 112
– medial, of the bladder 350
– median, of the bladder 403
– meniscotibial 239
– metacarpometacarpoidean 176
– metatarsal 245
– nephrosplenic 334
– nuchal 51, 109, 129, 134, 277
– – funicular part 109, 110, 132, 679
– – lamellar part 106, 110, 132
– – lamina, nuchal 110
– odontal 313
– orbital 57, 65, 75, 122
– ovarian 694
– palmar
– – axial 175
– – – of pastern joint 213
– – lateral 177
– – medial 176
– patellar 239, 242
– – intermediate 241, 243, 291
– – lateral 239, 241, 243
– – medial 239, 241, 243
– – middle 241, 243, 280
– pectinate 577, 584
– phalangeosesamoidean, interdigital, medial 176
– phrenicocolonal 334, 356
– phrenicosplenic 334
– phrenopericardiac 442
– plantar, long 244, 246, 273
– popliteal, oblique 242
– proper
– – of the ovary 430, 432, 439
– – of the testis 411
– pubic, cranial 236, 238
– pulmonary 291
– radiocarpal
– – dorsal 170
– – palmar 171
– radioulnar 167, 170
– renolienal 486
– renosplenic 488
– rostral, of the malleus 509
– round
– – of liver 357, 363
– – of uterus 439
– sacroiliac 237
– sacrotuberous 236
– – broad 236
– sesamoid 23
– – collateral 173, 214
– – oblique 213
– – straight 190
– sesamoidean
– – cruciate 176
– – distal, impar 178, 214
– – oblique, lateral 178
– – short 177
– spiral 606
– sternal 442
– sternopericardial 289, 442
– superficial, of the malleus 509
– suspensory 109, 236
– suspensory 175, 178, 180, 210, 213, 274, 279
– – of the ovary 429, 439
– – of the penis 414
– – supporting branch 174
– – of the testis 439
– of the tail of epididymis 411, 439
– talocentrodistotarsal 244
– tarsal, dorsal 246
– tibial, cranial, of lateral meniscus 242
– transverse 241
– – of atlas 108
– – of humerus 193, 692
– – short 169
– triangular 359, 363

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– of the tubercle 112
– ulnocarpal, palmar 171
– uterine, broad 299
– vocal 380
Ligamenta
– articularia 23
– – articulationis atlanto-occipitalis 106
– chondropulvinale 179
– chondrounguiculare cruciata 179
– chondrounguiculocompedalia 179
– cruciata genus 242
– flava 109
– interspinalia 110
– intertransversaria 109
– palmaria 177
– sacroiliaca
– – dorsalia 236
– – interossea 236
– – ventralia 236
– sesamoidea
– – brevia 177
– – cruciata 173
– – obliqua 177
Ligamenta
– annular, of the carnivores 171
– carpometacarpal 169
– – dorsal 170
– of the carpus 168
– of the cartilages of distal phalanx 179
– chondropulvinal 179
– chondrounguicular, cruciate 179
– chondrounguiculocompedal 179
– of the claw 208
– collateral of the
– – coffin joint 174
– – distal sesamoid bone 175
– – elbow joint 152
– – fetlock joint 172, 175
– of the distal sesamoid bone 174
– femoropatellar 242
– femorotibial 241
– of the fetlock joint 172, 175
– interarcuate 109
– interdigital
– – dorsal, of the manus 174
– – of the manus of carnivores 171
– interspinous 110
– intertransverse 109
– of the larynx 380
– middle, of the fetlock joint 173
– palmar 173, **177**
– – lateral 173
– – medial 173
– of the pelvis 237
– phalangosesamoidean, interdigital 173
– of the proximal sesamoid bones **170**, 175
– sacroiliac
– – dorsal 236
– – interosseous 236
– – ventral 236
– sesamoid 172
– – cruciate 173
– – oblique 173
– sesamoidean 172
– – distal 176
– – oblique 177
– short
– – of the carpus 169
– – of tarsal joint 246
– stifle joint 239
– of the tarsus 243
– tibial
– – caudal, of the meniscus 240
– – cranial, of the meniscus 240
– various, of tarsal joint 246
– of the vertebral column 109
Ligamentum
– anulare
– – digitale 173
– – – distale 174, 176, **208**, **210**, 213, 707
– – – proximale **206**, **210**, 255
– – digiti 173
– – palmare 173, **210**, **212**, **707**
– – plantare 653
– – radii 167
– arteriosum 454
– atlantoaxiale ventrale 105
– capitis
– – costae radialium 111
– – ossis femoris 230, **238**
– chondrocoronale
– – laterale 179
– – mediale 179
– chondrosesamoideum
– – laterale 179
– – mediale 179
– chondrounguilare
– – collaterale
– – – laterale 179
– – – mediale 179
– collateriale
– – carpi
– – – laterale 168
– – – mediale 168
– – cubiti
– – – laterale 165
– – – mediale 165
– – laterale articulationis femorotibialis 239, **241**
– – mediale articulationis femorotibialis 239, **241**
– coracohumerale 164
– coronarium hepatis 363
– ephyseideum 72
– falciforme **286**, 294, 334, 357, **363**, 692
– femoropatellare
– – laterale 239, 242
– – mediale 239, 242
– gastrolienale 287, 294, 334, **488**
– gastrophrenicum 334
– hepatoduodenale 287, 334, 350, **363**
– hepatogastricum 287, 294, 334, **363**
– interdigitale
– – distale 173, 176, 205, **208**
– – proximale 172, 209
– interosseum antebrachii 162
– latum uteri 298, 429, 436, **437**, 694
– lienorenale 334, **488**
– mesocolonicum 241
– nuchae 51, **109**, 129, 132, 134, 277, 679
– olecrani 165
– orbitale 57, 65, **75**, 122
– ovarii proprium 430, 432, 439
– palmare 176
– patellae 239, **242**
– – intermedium 241, 243
– – laterale 239, 241, 243
– – mediale 239, 241, 243, 280
– pectinatum 577, **585**
– phrenicolienale 334, 486
– phrenicopericardiacum 442
– pubicum craniale 236, 238
– pulmonale 291
– radioulnare 167, 170
– sacrotuberale 236
– – latum 236
– sesamoideum rectum 177, 180
– sterni 112
– sternopericardiacum 289, 442
– suprarbitale 75
– suspensorium ovarii 429, 439
– teres hepatis 363
– transversum
– – atlantis 105
– – – genus 241
– – humeri **193**, 697
– vesicae
– – laterale 403
– – medianum 403
– vocale 380
Limb
– distal 8
– pelvic 215, 280, 709
– – arteriogram of the digits of an ox 632
– – blood supply of the
– – – autopodium 653
– – – digits **635**, 715
– – fascine 247
– – – bovine, bovine 635
– – innervation of the
– – – digits 636
– – – hoof 657
– – – joints 553
– – lymph drainage of the digits 636
– – musculature 247, 250
– – nerves 547, 715
– – – of the autopodium 653
– – – digital
– – – – dorsal 642
– – – – plantar 646
– – palpable bony structures 721
– – regions 708
– – sectional anatomy 714, 716
– – veins 472
– thoracic 145, 227, 696
– – arteries 454
– – blood supply of the
– – – autopodium 653
– – – digits 635, 699, 703
– – deep fascine 182
– – distal, innervation 546
– – – bovine 638
– – hyperextension injuries 708
– – innervation of the
– – – digits 636
– – – hoof 657
– – joints 164
– – – innervation 545
– – lymph drainage of the digits 636
– – lymphatic structures 478, 703
– – muscles 182
– – – extrinsic 182, 184
– – – – deep layer 187
– – – – superficial layer 182
– – – intrinsic 184, 189
– – nerves 539, 699, 703
– – – of the autopodium 653
– – – digital
– – – – dorsal 646
– – – – palmar 648
– – palpable bony structures 721
– – regions 696
– – sectional anatomy 700, 704
– – skeleton 145
– – veins 470
Limbic system 503
Limbus 633, 630, 651
– conical 573, 575, 587
Lumen pharyngo-oesophageum 332
Line
– arcuate 215, **218**
– glutcal 215, **218**
– intermuscular 226
– semilunar 161
– temporal 57, 64, 664
– terminal 293, 300
– tricipital 150
– white, of the hoof 640, 652
Linea
– alba 139, 188
Lineae musculi poplitei 229
Lines, transverse, of sacrum 95
Lingua 303
Lip
– acetabular 237
– glenoid 164
– of a horse, epidermal layers 612
Lips 302
Liver 296, 356
– blood supply 361
– capillary beds 34
– of the cat 360
– cell bridges 362
– corrosion cast 362
– of the dog 358
– of the horse 359
– impressions 360
– indentations 360
– innervation 363
– lobation pattern 357
– lymph nodes 363
– of the ox 359
– of the pig 358
– projection on the lateral body wall 722
– of the ruminants 360
– sinusoids 360, **362**
– structure 360
– tritus 362
– venous system 363, 473
Lobe
– anterior, of the infundibulopophysis 562
– hepatic
– – caudate 357
– – left 357
– – quadrate 350, 357
– – right 357
– occipital 525, 591
– piriform 496, 503
– pulmonary, accessory 386, 389
– temporal 511
Lobes
– mammary 620
– pulmonary 385, 388
– of thyroid gland 563
Lobi glandulae mammariae 620
Lobules
– hepatic 360, **362**
– – afferent vessels 362
– – efferent vessels 362

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Lobules
– mammary 620
Lobuli glandulae mammariae 620
Lobus
– hepatis
– – caudatus 357
– – dexter 357
– – quadratus 350, 357
– – sinister 357
– pulmonis 503
Locking mechanism of stifle joint in the horse 243
Locomotion 29
Loop
– axillary 702
– cervical, superficial 677
– of Henle 396
Looped end arteries 13
Loss of sensitivity 676
Lung 384, 683
– blood vessels 390
– capillary beds 34
– caudal border 682
– cranial border 682
– dorsal border 682
– facies
– – costal 384
– – diaphragmatic 384
– – mediastinal 384
– histological section 390
– innervation 390
– lymph nodes 390
– structure 385
Lymph 34, 40
– intestinal 40
Lymph centre 477
– axillary 479
– bronchial 292, 480
– cervical
– – deep 478
– – superficial 478
– coeliac 481
– duodenojejunal 482
– ileocaecal 482
– ileocolic 482
– inguinal, superficial 622, 687
– – examination 696
– internal structure 476
– mammary 621
– mediastinal 452
– parotid 650
– popliteal 686
– – deep 645, 655
– splenic 486
– tracheobronchial 452
– tributary territory 477
Lymph nodes 30, 476
– abomasal
– – dorsal 343
– – ventral 343
– aortic, lumbar 415, 440
– axillary 687, 698
– cervical 478
– – deep 478
– – superficial 478, 700
– coeliac group 343
– colic 482
– gastric 482
– hepatic 482
– ileocaecal 482
– iliac, medial 402, 415, 422, 440
– inguinal, superficial 422, 687
– intercostal 479
– jejunal 482
– – in mesojejunum 346
– lumbar aortic 481
– of the lung 390
– mammary 625
– mandibular 124
– mediastinal 292
– – caudal 480
– – cranial 480
– omasal 343
– pancreaticoduodenal 368, 482
– portal 363
– pulmonary 387, 480
– renal 399, 481
– reticular 343
– retropharyngeal 478, 686
– – lateral 478
– – medial 478
– ruminal 343
– ruminoabomasal 343
– sacral 422
– scrotal 422
– splenic 482
– sternal 687
– – caudal 480
– – cranial 480
– sublliac 687
– thoracic aortic 479
– tracheobronchial 386, 480
– uterine 440
Lymph trunk, central 35
Lymph vessels 30, 431, 475
– afferent 475
– central 40
– efferent 475
– intestinal 335
– in the mesometrium 432
– superficial, of the testis 514
Lymphatic system 34, 39
Lymphatic organs 30
Lymphocentrum 477
– bronchiale 480
– cervicale
– – profundum 478
– – superficiale 478
– inguinodemoinale 482
– ischiadicum 483
– mandibulare 478
– mediastinale 479
– parotideum 477
– popliteum 483
– retropharyngeum 478
– thoracicum
– – dorsale 479
– – ventrale 479
Lymphocytes 30, 475
Lymphomuli
– intercostales 482
– axillares 687
– bifurcationis 480
– cervicales superficiales 645
– colon 479, 655
– epigastrici 483
– iliaci
– – interni 482
– – laterales 482
– – mediales 482
– inguinales superficiales 482
– intercostales 479
– poplitei 637, 645, 655
– pulmonales 480
– renales 399
– retropharyngei
– – laterales 478
– – mediales 478
– sacrales 482
– thoracici aortici 479
– tracheobronchiales 480
Lymphonodus 476
– axillaris
– – accessorius 479
– – pectoralis costalis 479
– – proprius 479
– coxalis 483
– fossae paralumbalis 483
– hepatis 479
– parotideus 650
Lyssa 304

M

Macula of the sacculus 606
Malleolus
– lateral 229, 235, 243
– medial 229, 235
Malleus 595, 599, 601
Malpighian corpuscle 396, 487
MALT (mucosa associated lymphatic tissue) 40, 284
Mamma 619
Mammary complex 693
– stratigraphy 693
Mandible 50, 64, 68, 77, 124
– buccal surface 70
– lingual surface 70
Mandibula 50, 63, 68, 70, 77, 124
Mane, hair 615
Manica flexoria 208, 211, 213, 273
Manubrium 190
– of malleus 601
– of sternum 103
Manus, skeleton 155
Mare
– genital organs 431
– perineum 211
– perineal regions of the pelvic limb 711
– reproductive organs 664
Margin
– dorsal, of the scapula 707
– infraorbital 64
– interalveolar 68, 77, 83, 30
– supraorbital 64
– ventral of the mandible 70
Marrow cavity 122
Mastectomy 621
Mastitis 619
Mastos 619
Maxilla 50, 53, 55, 65
– pterygopalatine surface 67
Maxillointermaxillare 62, 67
MCM (Membrane coating material) 613
Meatus
– acoustic
– – external 55, 75, 593, 595, 597
– – internal 53, 56, 66, 76
– ethmoidal 62
– nasal 374
– – common 78, 374
– – dorsal 63, 78, 372, 374
– – middle 63, 78, 373, 374
– – ventral 63, 78, 373, 374, 6
– nasopharyngeal 53, 61, 66, 76, 79
– temporal 56
– – entrance 60
Mechanoreceptor 27, 42
Medial 6
Median 6
Mediastinum 288
– cardial 289
– caudal 288, 291
– cranial 288
– – arteries 454
– middle 289
– pericardial 288, 291
– testis 499
Medulla
– adrenal 567
– of the lymph node 476
– oblongata 594
– ossium 8, 11, 16
– – flava 16
– – gelatinosa 16
– – rubra 11, 16, 34
– of the ovary 424
– renal 392, 397
– spinalis 590
Meibomian glands 588, 615
Meissner plexus 47, 333
Melanin 527
Melanocytes 613
Melanoma 199
Melteris 666
Membra
– pelvina 235, 240, 709
– thoracica 145, 277, 696
Membrana
– atlantoaxialis dorsalis 107
– atlantooccipitalis
– – dorsalis 106
– – ventralis 106
– fibrosa 238, 243
– interossea antebrachii 167
– nictitans 587, 663, 675
– obturatoria 236
– synovialis 238, 243
– tectoria 607, 608
– tympani 593, 595, 607, 675
– vitrea 585

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Membrane
– arachnoid 515
– – spinal 516
– atlantoaxial, dorsal 107
– atlanto occipital
– – dorsal 106
– – – ventral 106
– bones 14
– coating maternal 613
– foetal 434
– interosseous of the antebrachium 162
– mucous, proper 281
– nictitating 581, 664, 675
– obturator 236
– synovial 20, 33
– – functions 33
– – – inflammation 33
– tectorial 607, 608
– tympanic 57, 503, 595, 607
– – external aspect 595
– – vascularised 675
Membranes, testicular, stratigraphy 693
Meninges 491, 514, 593
Meniscus
– articularis 23, 238
– lateral 239, 242
– medial 239, 242, 266
Merkel' cells 613
Mesencephalon 43, 493, 498
Mesenteries 295
– primary 282
Mesenterium 283, 345
Mesentery 283, 295, 345
– dorsal 286, 295
– ventral 286, 295
Mesepididymidis 439
Mesocephalic breeds 74
Mesoderm 8
Mesoduct, deferent 411, 412, 415
Mesoduodenum, short 346
Mesofumiculus 413, 415, 712
Mesogastrium
– dorsal 286, 333, 341
– ventral 286, 333, 341
Mesojejunum 350
– lymph nodes 348
Mesometrium 433, 438, 439
– lymph vessels 442
Mesonephros 438
Mesorchium 412
– distal 439
– proximal 415, 439
Mesorectum 301
Mesosalpinx 429, 442, 439
Mesotendineum 33
Mesotympanicum 597
Mesovarium 432, 438
– distal 439
– proximal 439
Metaphysis 9, 16
Metapodium 146, 155, 216
Metatteroides 37
Metathalamus 502
Metencephalon 43, 493, 496
Metra 430
Microtibial 26
Microglia 44
Microglia cells 43
Midbrain 494, 496
Milk 619
Milk production 606
Milk vein 626
Milk well 625, 686
Minimally invasive surgery 693
Mitral valve 447
Modiolus 605, 606
Molar 310
Molars of the horse 667
Motility, visceral 283, 285
Mucosa
– cervical 431
– duodenal 346
– glandular 327
– lingual 304
– oesophagus 326
– olfactory 302
– respiratory 369, 375, 388
– reticular 319
– stomach 327
– superficial layer 326
– visceral 283
Muller cells 579, 581
Mullerian duct 438
Muscle
– abdominal
– – oblique
– – – external 138, 141, 188
– – – internal 138, 142
– – straight 138, 141
– – – tendinous intersections 140
– – transverse 138, 142
– abductor
– – of the first digit 205
– – long, of first digit 190, 199, 201, 206
– – of the thigh 257
– adductor 140, 259, 714
– – greater 259
– – long 259
– – short 259
– anconeus 192, 194, 196, 202
– arrector, of the hair 614
– articular
– – of the hip joint 264
– – of the shoulder joint 192, 193
– biarticular 29
– biceps
– – of the forearm 188, 192, 196, 202, 279
– – of thigh 254, 256, 270, 273, 280
– – – pelvic head 256
– – – vertebral head 256
– bipennate 29
– biventer, of the neck 133
– brachial 184, 188, 190, 192, 195, 202, 206
– brachiocephalic 116, 124, 129, 182, 184, 186, 200
– brachioradial 196, 198, 202
– broadest
– – of back 129, 182, 184, 189, 193, 200
– buccinator 115, 124
– bulbospongiosus 421
– canine 116
– cervicohyoid 128, 325
– cervicoauricular
– – deep 120
– – – medial 120
– – – superficial 120
– cervicoscutular 130
– ciliary 573, 576
– circular 28
– cleidobrachial 182, 186, 188, 190, 202, 206
– cleidocephalic 182, 186, 188, 190
– cleidocervical 186
– cleidomastoid 186
– cleidoocipital 186
– coccygeal 143, 250, 262
– complexus 133
– constrictor
– – of the vestibule 439
– – of the vulva 439
– coracobrachial 182, 412, 415, 712
– coracoradialis
– – dorsal 381, 382, 383, 669
– – lateral 383
– – transverse 381, 382, 383
– cricothyroid 381
– cutaneous
– – abdominal part 135
– – of face 114, 116
– – of neck 114, 191
– – of trunk 129
– deltoid 184, 188, 190, 202, 700
– – acromial part 191, 196
– – scapular part 191
– – subscapular portion 196
– depressor
– – of the concha 118
– – of the lower lip 116, 124
– – of the upper lip 116
– digastric 121, 123, 124, 188, 321
– – occipitomandibular part 121
– dilatator
– – apical, of nostril 116, 118
– – of pupil 577
– of the elbow joint 192
– extensor
– – digital
– – – common 184, 190, 193, 199, 202, 206
– – – lateral 174, 185, 193, 199, 202, 206, 266, 268, 272, 274
– – – long 266, 267, 270, 272, 274
– – – short 276
– – of the first and second digits 205
– – long, of the first digit 269, 272
– – radial, of carpus 184, 190, 193, 198, 202, 206
– – ulnar, of the carpus 184, 198, 202, 206
– – ulnar, of the carpus 196
– extrinsic, of the tongue 305
– fibular
– – long 262, 266, 272
– – short 267, 272
– – third 267, 272, 274
– flexor
– – digital
– – – deep 185, 193, 197, 199, 203, 205, 209, 273, 276
– – – lateral 201, 273, 276
– – – medial 273, 276
– – – short 213, 276
– – – superficial 184, 197, 199, 203, 205, 272, 276
– – radial of carpus 184, 198, 203, 206
– – ulnar, of carpus 184, 196, 198, 202
– forms 29
– four headed 29
– frontal 114
– frontoscutular 120, 664
– functional effect on a joint 29
– gastrocnemius 254, 270, 272, 276
– – lateral head 272
– – medial head 272
– gemellus 261, 264
– genioglossal 305, 308
– geniohyoid 128, 305, 322, 325, 373
– gluteal
– – accessory 254, 710
– – deep 249, 255, 264, 710
– – middle 249, 254, 710
– – superficial 249, 251, 710
– gluteobiceps 251, 256, 257, 710
– gluteofemoral 254, 710
– gracilis 140, 254, 259, 271, 714
– hyoepiglottic 303
– hyoglossal 305, 308
– hyoid, transverse 128, 325
– iliac 248
– iliocaudal 143
– iliocostal 129, 130
– – cervical portion 131
– – lumbar portion 130
– – thoracic portion 130
– iliopsoas 248, 211
– infraspinous 190, 192, 196, 700
– – insertion 190
– – subtendinous synovial bursa 607
– innervation 25, 27
– insertion 29
– intercostal, of the thorax 130
– interfacer
– – distal 204
– – proximal 204
– interosseous 199, 201, 205, 206
– – middle 122, 211
– intersegmental 130
– intertransverse
– – of the neck 132
– – ventral, of the neck 125
– intrinsic, of the tongue 305, 308
– ischiocavernosus 421, 439
– levator
– – of anus 262
– – of the chin 117
– – of the lateral angle of the eye 118
– – of the medial angle of the eye 116, 118
– – middle, of the concha 118
– – nasolabial 116
– – of the rib 129
– – of the upper eyelid 580, 663
– – of the upper lip 116
– long
– – of the head 123, 127, 130
– – of the neck 125
– longissimus 129
– – atlas portion 130
– – capital portion 116, 130
– – cervical portion 130
– – lumbar portion 130
– – thoracic portion 130
– lumbar, quadrate 249
– malar 117
– masseter 120, 124, 188, 308, 321

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Muscle, masseter
– – innervation 661
– multifidus 129, 132
– – cervical part 132, 134
– – thoracic part 132, 134
– multipennate 26
– mylohyoid 121, 123, 128, 188, 308, 308, 325
– oblique
– – caudal, of the head 124, 127, 132
– – cranial, of the head 116, 123, 125, 127, 132
– – dorsal 586, 587
– – ventral 586, 587
– obturator
– – external 260, 264
– – internal 260, 261, 264
– occipitohyoid 123, 128, 325
– omobrachial, cutaneous 115
– omohyoid 116, 128, 325
omotransverse 125, 129, 182, 184, 186, 189, 700
– orbicular
– – of the eye 116, 118
– – of the mouth 115, 124
– origin 29
– palatinus 303
– papillary 446, 450
– parotidoauricular 116, 119, 124
– pectineal 140, 259
– pectoral
– – deep 184, 193
– – superficial 129, 182, 185, 202, 698
– – – descending 186, 188, 190, 206
– – – transverse 186, 188, 190, 206
– penniform 249, 255, 710
– polyarticular 29
– popliteal 265, 266, 275
– preputial 115
– pronator
– – quadrate 198
– – teres 247, 202
– psoas
– – greater 248
– – lesser 247, 249
– – – insertion 219
– pterygoid 321
– – lateral 120, 123
– – medial 121, 123
– pubocaudal 143
– quadrate
– – lumbar 249, 250
– – of the thigh 261, 264
– quadriceps of the thigh 265, 280
– regeneration 25
– retractor
– – of the eyeball 586, 587
– – of the lateral angle of the eye 119
– – of the penis 407, 421
– – of the ribs 132, 135, 137
– rhomboid 128, 188
– – cervical part 128, 188
– – thoracic part 128, 188
– rotator 133
– round, large 700
– sacrocaudal
– – dorsal
– – – lateral 142
– – – medial 142
– – ventral
– – – lateral 143
– – – medial 143
– sartorius 140, 250, 259, 271, 714
– scalene
– – dorsal 125
– – medial 125
– – middle 125, 128, 130, 132
– – ventral 125, 128, 130, 132
– scutular 119
– scutulosauricular 120
– – deep
– – – major 120
– – – minor 120
– – superficial
– – – accessory 120
– – – medial 120
– – – ventral 120
– semimembranous 248, 258, 714
– – caudal portion 262
– – cranial portion 262
– semispinal
– – cervical 133
– – of the head 130, 133
– – thoracic 133
– semitendinosus 254, 257, 270, 714
– – pelvic head 257
– – vertebral head 258
– serrate
– – dorsal 129
– – – caudal 128
– – – cranial 128
– – ventral 129, 185, 189
– – – cervical part 128, 189
– – – thoracic part 128, 185, 188
– single headed 28
– skeletal 28
– smooth 25
– soleus 272, 276
– sphincter, of pupil 577
spinal 129, 133
cervical part 132
thoracic part 132
– spindle-shaped 28
– splenius 116, 126, 130
– stapedial 601
– sternocephalic 116, 125, 128, 182, 184, 186, 188, 190
– sternocleidomastoid 129, 182, 184
– sternohyoid 124, 128, 130, 188, 190, 325
– sternomandibular 122, 186, 191
– – tendon, Viborg triangle 674
– sternomastoid 182, 186, 188
– sterno-occipital 182, 186
– sternothyroid 124, 128, 130, 188, 190, 325
– straight
– – abdominal 128, 130
– – dorsal 586
– – – major, of the head 123, 127, 132
– – – minor, of the head 123, 127
– – lateral 586
– – – of the head 123, 125, 127
– – medial 586
– – of the thigh 265, 714
– – – insertion 219
– – of the thorax 128, 130, 135
– – ventral 586
– – – of the head 123, 125, 127
– striated 25
– styloauricular 119
– styloglossal 305, 308
– stylohyoid 123, 128, 325
– subclavian 187, 193
– subscapular 188, 192, 194, 197, 700
– supinator 198
– supraspinous 184, 188, 190, 192, 196, 200
– temporal 118, 120, 321
– tensor
– – of antebrachial fascia 192, 195, 197
– – of fascia lata 249, 255
– – of scutiform cartilage 118
– – of soft palate 303
– teres
– – major 192, 196
– – minor 191, 193, 198
– – – insertion 151
– three-headed 29
– thyroarytenoid 382
thyrohyoid 128
– tibial
– – caudal 273, 276, 712
– – cranial 262, 270, 272, 275, 712
– tracheal 384
– transverse, thoracic 135
– trapezius 129, 182, 184, 189, 191
– – cervical portion 196
– – thoracic portion 196
– triceps
– – of the arm 700
– – of the forearm 184, 188, 192, 195, 202, 206, 279
– – – accessory head 197
– – – lateral head 192, 196, 202, 206
– – – long head 192, 195, 202, 206
– – – medial head 193, 195, 203
– two-bellied 28
– two-headed 28
– uniarticular 29
– unipennate 28
– vastus
– – intermedius 265, 714
– – lateral 265, 274, 714
– – medial 265, 275, 714
– ventricular 381, 383
– vocal 381, 382
– wide 28
– zygomatic 116, 124
– zygomaticoauricular 120
Muscle cells 26
– smooth
– – of the arteriole 36
– – of the artery 36
Muscle contraction
– isometric 29
– isotonic 29
Muscle fibers 25
Muscle pumps 39
Muscle spindles 27
Muscle stretch reflex 494
Muscle tension 29
Muscle tone 29
Muscle type
– red 27
– white 27
Muscles
– abdominal 30, 139, 248, 25
– of the abdominal wall 138
– accessory structures 32
antagonists 29
– of the antebrachium 196, 19
auricular 119, 593
– of the back 129
– – medial system 132
– – spinal system 133
– – transversospinal system
– of the carpal joint 30, 198
– of the carpus 206
– caudal
– – of the crus 269
– – of the thigh 256, 258
– cervical
– – superficial 190
– – ventral 188
– of the cheek 115, 124
– constrictor
– – caudal, of pharynx 323
– – middle, of pharynx 322
– – rostral, of pharynx 322
– craniolateral, of the crus 269
– of the crus 265
– cutaneous 114, 610, 627
– – of head 114
– – of neck 114
– – of trunk 114
– deep
– – of neck 134
– – of pelvic limb 257
– – of trunk 132
– depressor, of the tail 143
– of the digit of horse 206
– digital
– – long 30
– – short 30, 213, 253, 276
– of the digits 280
– of the elbow joint 30, 184, 19
– expiratory 135
extensor
– – of carpal joint 184
– – of the carpus 198
– – digital 198, 252, 261, 266
– – – long 251
– – of distal joint 184
– – of hock joint 253, 261
– – of tarsal joint 30
– – of tarsus 272
– of external ear 115, 119
– external, of pharynx 324
extrawithal, of eyelids 115,
– extrinsic
– – of eyeball 586
– – – innervation 587
– – of thoracic limb 182, 184, 253
– of the face 30
facial 115
flexor
– – of carpal joint 184
– – digital 252, 261
– – of the digits 272
– – of digital joint 184
– – of hock joint 253
– – of tarsal joint 30
– – of tarsus 266
– gluteal 30
– hamstring 240, 242
– of the head 115
– of hindlimb digits 252

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– of the hyoid apparatus 125, 128, 324
– hyoid, long 124, 128
– incisive 116
– inspiratory 135
– intercartilaginous, external 130
– intercostal 135
– – external 129
– – internal 125, 129, 135, 137
– interfascicular 205, 212
– interosseous 201, 213, 270, 276
– interspinal 134
– intertransverse 134
– – dorsal 134
– – intermediate 134
– – of the tail 142
– – ventral 134
– intrinsic of the
– – pelvic limb 256
– – shoulder 190
– – thoracic limb 184, 189
– inward rotator, of the concha 118, 120
– of the larynx 360
– lateral flexor, of the tail 143
– levator of the
– – concha 120
– – rib 132, 134
– – tail 142
– – upper lip, endplate 118
– of the lips 115, 124
– long, of the
– – back 129
– – neck 130
– lumbar 261
– lumbrical 213, 276
– mandibular 30, 119
– of mastication 30, 119, 124, 321
– medial, of the thigh 256, 258
– of the nose 115, 118
– ocular, external 586
– outward rotator, of the concha 120
– palpebral 586
– pectoral 186, 698
– of pelvic girdle 248
– pelvic, inner 260, 264
– of the pelvic limb 247, 270
– of the pelvis and tail 143
– of the pharynx 322
– preputial 712
– – caudal 420
– – cranial 420
– pronator, of the forearm 198
– protractor, of the toe/limb 277
– quadrate, plantar 276
– of the radioulnar joints 195, 198
– retractor, of the hind/limb 277
– retroperitoneal 299
– rotator, of the concha 118, 120
– scalene 125
– serrate dorsal 135
– – caudal 135, 137
– – cranial 135, 137
– short, of the
– – back 129, 134
– – neck 134
– of the shoulder girdle 30, 124
– of the shoulder joint 30, 184, 190, 198
– skeletal 7, 25
– of stifle joint 261, 264
– subcostal 135
– superficial 30
– – of mandibular space 119, 122, 124
– – of pelvic limb 253
– – of trunk 130
– supinator, of forearm 198
– supramammary 115
– of the tail 30, 142
– of the tarsal joint 30
– tensor, of scutiform cartilage 120
– thoracic 130
– of the thoracic limb 182
– of the thoracic wall 135
– of the tongue 305
– – innervation 669
– transversospinal 133
– of the trunk 124
Musculi
– anculares 115, 119
– buccarum 115
– capitis 115
– colli 125
– cutanei 114
– – capitis 114
– – colli 114
– – trunci 115
– dorsi 129
– extraobturatales 115, 118
– incisivi 115
– intercostales 135
– – externi 129, 135
– – interni 125, 129, 135, 137
– interossei 213
– intertransversarii caudae 143
– labiorum 115
– lumbricales 213
– membri
– – pelvini 247, 270
– – thoracici 182
– pectinati 435
– respiratory 135
– subcostales 135
– supramammarii 115
– thoracis 135
– trunci 124
Musculus
– adductorius 140, 247, 270
– anconeus 192, 194, 196, 202
– articularis humeri 192, 194
– arytenoideus transversus 361
– biceps brachii 188, 192, 196, 202, 279
– bipennatus 29
– buccinator cervicis 133
– brachialis 184, 188, 190, 192, 195, 202, 206
– brachiocephalicus 116, 124, 129, 182, 184, 186, 700
– brachioradialis 196, 198, 202
– buccinator 115, 124
– caninus 115
– cerabohyoideus 128, 325
– ciliaris 573, 576
– cleidobrachialis 182, 186, 188, 190, 202, 206
– cleidocephalicus 182, 186, 188, 190
– cleidocervicalis 186
– cleidomastoideus 186
– cleido-occipitalis 186
– coccygeus 143, 250, 262
– complexus 133
– coracobrachialis 192
– cremaster 140
– cricoarytenoideus
– – dorsalis 361, 382, 669
– – lateralis 361, 383
– – transversus 361, 382, 383
– cricothyroideus 361, 382
– cutaneus
– – colli 114, 191
– – faciei 114, 116
– – omobrachialis 115
– – trunci 115, 129
– deltoideus 184, 188, 190, 202, 700
– – pars
– – – acromialis 191, 196
– – – scapularis 191
– depressor labii
– – inferioris 115, 124
– – superioris 115
– detrusor 303
– digastricus 121, 123, 124, 188, 321
– – pars occipitomandibularis 121
– dilatator papillae 577
– extensor carpi
– – radialis 184, 190, 193, 198, 202, 206
– – ulnaris 184, 198, 202, 206
– flexor
– – carpi
– – – radialis 184, 198, 203, 206
– – – ulnaris 184, 196, 198, 202
– – digitorum
– – – brevis 213
– – – lateralis 201, 273, 276
– – – medialis 273, 276
– frontalis 114
– gastrocnemius 254, 270, 272, 276
– genioglossus 305, 308
– geniohyoideus 128, 308, 322, 325, 373
– glutealis profundus 254, 710
– glutaeus
– – accessorius 253, 710
– – medius 249, 254, 710
– – profundus 249, 255, 264, 710
– – superficialis 249, 251, 710
– gracilis 140, 254, 259, 271, 714
– hyoglossus 305, 308
– hyoideus transversus 128, 325
– iliacus 248
– iliocostalis 143
– iliocostalis 129, 130
– iliopsoas 248, 711
– infraspinatus 190, 192, 196, 700
– latissimus dorsi 129, 182, 184, 189, 193, 700
– levator
– – labii superioris 115
– – nasolabialis 115
– linguales proprius 305
– longissimus 130
– – atlantis 130
– – capitis 116, 130
– – cervicis 130
– – lumborum 130
– – thoracis 130
– longus
– – capitis 123
– – colli 125
– masseter 119, 124, 188, 309, 321
– mentalis 115
– multipennatus 29
– mylohyoideus 121, 123, 128, 188, 305, 308, 325
– obliquus
– – capitis
– – – caudalis 124, 127, 132
– – – cranialis 116, 123, 125, 127, 132
– – externus abdominis 139
– – internus abdominis 139
– obturatorius
– – externus 260, 264
– – internus 260, 261, 264
– occipitohyoideus 123, 128, 325
– omohyoideus 116, 128, 325
– omotransversarius 125, 129, 182, 184, 186, 189, 700
– orbicularis
– – oculi 116, 118
– – oris 115, 124
– pectineus 140, 259
– pectoralis
– – descendens 186, 188, 190, 206
– – profundus 184, 193
– – superficialis 129, 182, 185, 202, 698
– – transversus 186, 188, 190, 206
– perforatus 249, 255, 710
– pronator
– – quadratus 198
– – teres 195, 202
– psoas
– – major 248
– – minor 249, 247, 249
– pterygoideus 321
– – lateralis 119, 123
– – medialis 119, 121, 123
– puboischiofemoralis 143
– quadratus
– – femoris 261, 264
– – lumborum 249
– quadriceps femoris 265, 280
– rectus
– – abdominis 139
– – capitis
– – – dorsalis
– – – – major 123
– – – – minor 123
– – – lateralis 123, 125
– – – ventralis 123, 125
– retractor
– – costae 132, 135, 137
– – penis 307, 421
– sacrococcygeus
– – dorsalis
– – – lateralis 142
– – – medialis 142
– – ventralis
– – – lateralis 143
– – – medialis 143
– salpingo 180, 250, 259, 271, 714
– scalenus
– – dorsalis 129
– – medius 125, 128, 130, 132
– – ventralis 125, 128, 130, 132
– semimembranosus 248, 258, 262, 714
– semispinalis
– – capitis 130, 133
– – cervicis 133
– – thoracis 133

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Musculus
- semitendinosus 254, 257, 270, 714
- serratus
  - dorsalis 128
  - ventralis 129, 185, 189
- sidicus 272, 276
- sphincter
  - cardiae 327
  - coli
- - - profundus 114
- - - superficialis 114
- - ilei 352
- - papillae 577
- splenius 116, 126, 130
- - capitis 125
- - cervicis 125
- stapedius 601
- sternocephalicus 116, 125, 128, 182, 184, 186, 188, 190
- sternocleidomastoideus 129, 182, 184
- sternohyoideus 124, 128, 130, 188, 190, 325
- sternomandibularis 124, 182, 186, 191
- sternomastoideus 182, 186, 188
- sterno-occipitalis 182, 186
- sternothyroideus 124, 128, 130, 188, 190, 325
- styloglossus 305
- stylohyoideus 128
- subclavius 187
- subscapularis 192, 193
- supraspinatus 190, 192
- temporalis 119
- tensor tympani 601
- teres
  - major 192
- - minor 191, 194
- thomboideus 188
- - cervicalis 188
- - thoracalis 188
- thyroarytenoideus 381, 382
- thyrohyoideus 128
- tibialis caudalis 273
- transversus abdominis 139
- trapezius 129, 182, 184
- - pars
- - - cervicalis 182
- - - thoracalis 182
- triceps
- - brachii 192
- - - caput
- - - - lateralе 192, 195
- - - - longum 192, 195
- - - - mediale 195
- triceps brachii 184
- unipennatus 29
- zygomaticus 115
Myelencephalon 43, 493
Myelin 44, 493
Myelin sheath 45
Myoblasts 25
Myocardium 441, 447
Myofibril 26
Myology 25
Myometrium 433, 435, 438
Myosin 25
Myotomy, pectineal 718

N
Nail 627
Nares, posterior 373
Nasal 7
Nasopharynx 322, 325
Nasus 369
Navel 293
- of the tympanic membrane 675
Neck 677
- of bladder 403
- of femur 224
- of humerus 150, 164
- injections 680
- lymph nodes 428
- - deep 428
- - superficial 428, 700
- muscles, cutaneous 114
- palpable bony structures 721
- of radius 152
- region 676
- - dorsal 677, 679
- - lateral 667, 676
- - ventral 667, 676, 678
- of rib 107
- of scapula 148
- spinal punction 680
- stratigraphy 627
- superficial structures 679
- of talus 232
- veins 469, 471
Neck cells of proper gastric glands 328
Neck fascia
- deep 113, 628
- superficial 113, 678
Necrosis 35
Neopallium 503
Nephron 395
- ascending limb 396
- descending limb 396
- juxtamedullar 396
Nephros 391
Nerve
- abducent 496, 523, 530, 590
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - accessory 183, 496, 523, 532, 536
- - - areas of innervation 535
- - - branches 665
- - - spinal root 536
- - alveolar, inferior 528, 670
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - auricular
- - - caudal 530
- - - - internal 530
- - - greater 666, 668
- - - rostral 530, 663
- - auriculopalpebral 530
- - auriculotemporal 528, 668
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - axillary 180, 538, 544, 698
- - - cutaneous branch 543
- - - innervation areas 542
- - buccal 528
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - carotid, internal 558
- - cochlear 605, 607
- - coronal 664
- - cutaneous
- - - antebrachial
- - - - caudal 698
- - - - cranial 698
- - - - medial 545, 699
- - - caudal, of femur 546, 552
- - - lateral, of femur 548
- - - depressor 452, 558
- - - digital
- - - - lateral
- - - - - palmar 653
- - - - - plantar 653
- - - - medial
- - - - - palmar 543, 653
- - - - - plantar 653
- - - plantar, common 549
- - ethmoidal 526
- - facial 56, 302, 496, 523, 590, 663, 665, 668, 671
- - - areas of innervation 535
- - - course 660
- - - dorsal buccolabial branch 666
- - - motor nucleus 671
- - - paralysis 532, 671
- - - - central 671
- - - parasympathetic nucleus 560
- - - primary branches 530
- - - ventral buccolabial branch 666
- - femoral 546, 548, 715, 719
- - fibular 546
- - - common 549, 553, 711
- - - - areas of innervation 553
- - - deep 549, 555
- - - innervation of the digits 636
- - - superficial 549, 555
- - frontal 526, 590
- - genitofemoral 546, 548, 712
- - - areas of innervation 548
- - glossopharyngeal 307, 496, 523, 532, 569, 604, 674, 678
- - - carotid sinus branch 532
- - - areas of innervation 535
- - - parasympathetic nucleus 560
- - gluteal
- - - caudal 546, 549, 552
- - - cranial 546, 549, 552
- - hypogastric 299, 404
- - hypoglossal 77, 307, 496, 523, 532, 597, 669, 674, 678
- - - areas of innervation 535
- - iliohypogastric 547
- - - areas of innervation 548
- - ilioinguinal 547
- - - areas of innervation 548
- - infraorbital 527, 663
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - perineural anaesthesia 67
- - infratrochlear 526, 590
- - intercostobrachial 546
- - intermediofacial 307
- - laryngeal
- - - caudal 381, 533, 536, 559
- - - cranial 381, 535, 559
- - - recurrent 381, 533, 536, 559
- - - - functional loss 668
- - - - in the horse 668
- - - - left 380
- - - - paralyse 383, 480
- - lingual 528, 669
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - mandibular 321, 526, 528, 670
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - lingual branch 307
- - - primary branches 527
- - masseteric 528
- - masticator 528, 663
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - maxillary 526, 670
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - meningeal branch 527
- - - primary branches 527
- - - zygomatic branch 590
- - median 380, 704, 538, 545, 683, 698, 702
- - - innervation areas 542
- - - - of the digits 636
- - - - of the hoof 635
- - mental 528
- - metacarpal, palmar 545
- - motor 41
- - musculocutaneous 538, 698, 703
- - - cutaneous branch 543
- - - distal branch 543
- - - innervation areas 542
- - - proximal branch 543
- - nasal, caudal 527
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - nasociliary 526, 590
- - obturator 218, 546, 549, 552
- - - areas of innervation 548
- - oculomotor 496, 523, 527, 589, 663
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - parasympathetic nucleus 560
- - olfactory 62, 523
- - ophthalmic 590, 663
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - - primary branches 526
- - optic 494, 510, 523, 572, 580, 582, 590, 675
- - - dura mater 525
- - - vascular wreath 675
- - palatine
- - - major 527
- - - - areas of innervation 534
- - - minor 527
- - - - areas of innervation 534
- - palmar
- - - lateral 543, 545
- - - medial 543, 545
- - perineal, major 550, 671
- - phrenic 292, 538, 683
- - - right 291
- - plantar
- - - lateral 715, 719
- - - medial 715, 719
- - pterygoid
- - - lateral 528
- - - medial 528
- - pterygopalatine 527
- - - areas of innervation 534
- - pudendal 301, 546, 549, 553
- - - areas of innervation 552
- - - nerve block 686
- - radial 380, 704, 538, 544, 698
- - - cutaneous branch 543
- - - innervation areas 542
- - - - of the digits 636
- - - paralysis 545
- - saphenous 548, 551, 714
- - - innervation of the digits 636
- - sciatic 549, 553, 711, 714, 719
- - - areas of innervation 553
- - spinal 490, 516, 537
- - - communicating gresious branch 556
- - - communicating white branch 556
- - - dorsal branch 537
- - - meningeal branch 537
- - - ventral branch 537
- - splanchnic 568
- - - greater 557, 560

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– – lesser 557, 560
– stapedial 530
– supracapsular 538, 698, 703
– – innervation areas 542
– – paralysis 705
– sural 711
– – caudal 553, 555
– – cutaneous
– – – caudal 550
– – – lateral 550
– – lateral 554
– temporal
– – deep 528
– – superficial 528
– terminal 525
– thoracic
– – lateral 539, 698
– – long 539, 698
– thoracodorsal 539, 698
– tibial 546, 549, 555, 653, 711
– – areas of innervation 553
– – – of the digits 636
– transformation of information 47
– trigeminal 496, 523, 526, 580, 650
– – areas of innervation 534
– – damage 530
– – primary branches 526
– – spinal tract 490
– trochlear 523
– – areas of innervation 534
– ulnar 203, 204, 538, 546, 653, 702
– – cutaneous branch 543
– – innervation areas 542
– – – of the digits 636
– – – of the hoof 645
– vagus 47, 307, 342, 382, 452, 496, 523, 532, 558, 560, 674
– – abdominal part 559
– – areas of innervation 535
– – dorsal trunk 291
– – parasympathetic nucleus 560
– – ventral trunk 291
– vegetative, of the vessels 37
– vestibular 605
– vestibulocochlear 56, 496, 510, 523, 532, 593, 607
– zygomatic 527, 663
– zygomaticotemporal, cutnal branch 659, 665
Nerve cells 43
Nerve ending 45
– free 614
Nerve fibres 45
– myelinated
– – ascending 493
– – descending 493
– sensory 614
Nerve plexus
– myenteric 47, 560
– submucosal 47, 560
– subserosal 560
Nerve tissue 42
Nerve tracts, retroperitoneal 299
Nerves 8
– afferent 45
– autonomous 523
– buccal region 662
– cardiac, cervical 558
– cerebrospinal 522
– cervical 183
– ciliary, short 577, 590
– clunial
– – caudal 710
– – cranial 547, 710
– – middle 710
– cranial 523, 669
– – areas of innervation 534
– – of the eye muscles 669
– – mainly motor 669
– – purely sensory 669
– – vagus group 532, 669
– digital 707
– – dorsal 646
– – palmar 645
– – plantar 646
– – – lateral 556
– – – medial 556
– hypogastric 557
– mixed 46
– myelinated 44
– nhotropic 522
– olfactory 503
– parasympathetic 559
– – of the head 559
– pectoral
– – caudal 539, 698
– – cranial 539, 698
– pelvic 554, 559, 560
– plantar, lateral 556
– rectal, caudal 546, 549, 554
– – areas of innervation 552
– of the skin 614
– spinal 537
– – cervical 538
– – lumbar 547
– – sacral 552
– – thoracic 547
– splanchnic 557
– – hypogastric 554
– – lumbar 557, 560
– – pelvic 560
– – sacral 554, 557
– subscapular 539, 698, 703
– – innervation areas 542
– sympathetic 557
– – of the head 559
– thoracic, caudal 452
Nervi
– accelerantes 452
– ciliares breves 577, 590
– craniales 523
– lumbales 547
– pelvini 554
– rectales caudales 546, 549, 552, 554
– sacrales 552
– spinales 537
– – cervicales 538
– – lumbales 547
– – sacrales 552
– – thoracici 547
– splanchnici 557
– – hypogastrici 554
– – lumbales 557, 560
– – pelvici 560
– – sacrales 554, 557
– subscapulares 539
Nervous system 7, 30, 489
– autonomic 41, 44, 513
– – intramural 560
– – parasympathetic part 47, 556
– – peripheral 556
– – sympathetic part 46, 556
– – transmitter substance 557
– – visceral part 556
– barriers 48
– blood vessels 519
– central 41, 43, 489
– – autonomic 514
– – – parasympathetic pathways 514
– – – sympathetic pathways 514
– – – visceral pathways 514
– – pathways 508
– – – ascending 508
– – – auditory 510, 511
– – – descending 511
– – – general somatic afferent 508
– – – olfactory 505
– – – somatic motor 511
– – – vestibular 510, 511
– – – visual 508, 593
– cerebrospinal 41
– enteric 47
– extrapyramidal system 513
– function 41
– – motor 41
– – sensory 41
– – somatomotoric 41
– – visceromotoric 41
– peripheral 41, 45, 522
– pyramidal system 512
– somatic 41, 46
– vegetative 46
Nervus
– abducens 496, 523, 530, 534, 590
– accessorius 184, 496, 523, 532, 536
– alveolaris inferior 528, 670
– auricularis caudalis 530
– – internus 530
– auriculotemporalis 528, 534, 668
– axillaris 183, 538, 541, 544, 698
– buccalis 528, 534
– caroticus internus 558
– cutaneus
– – femoris
– – – caudalis 546
– – – lateralis 548
– – surae
– – – caudalis 555
– – – lateralis 554
– depressor 452, 558
– ethmoidalis 526
– facialis 56, 302, 496, 523, 590, 663, 665, 668, 671
– femoralis 546, 548, 715, 719
– fibularis 546, 636
– – communis 549, 553, 711
– – profundus 549, 555
– – superficialis 549, 555
– frontalis 526, 590
– genitofemoralis 546, 548, 712
– glossopharyngeus 307, 496, 523, 532, 560, 674, 678
– glutaeus
– – caudalis 546, 549, 552
– – cranialis 546, 549, 552
– hypogastricus 299, 304
– hypoglossus 77, 307, 496, 523, 532, 537, 669, 674, 678
– iliohypogastricus 547
– ilioinguinalis 547
– infraorbitalis 67, 527, 534, 662
– infratrochlearis 526, 590
– intercostobrachialis 540
– intermediofacialis 302
– ischiadicus 553
– lacrimalis 526, 590, 668
– laryngeus
– – caudalis 380, 533, 536, 559
– – cranialis 381, 535, 559
– – recurrens 380, 533, 536, 559, 668
– – – paralysis 383, 480
– lingualis 528, 534, 669
– mandibularis 307, 321, 526, 528, 534, 670
– massetericus 528
– masticatorius 528, 663
– maxillaris 526, 670
– – Ramus
– – – meningeus 527
– – – zygomaticus 590
– medianus 200, 201, 538, 542, 545, 636, 645, 653, 698, 702
– mentalis 528
– musculocutaneus 538, 541, 698, 703
– nasalis caudalis 527, 534
– nasociliaris 526, 590
– obturatorius 218, 546, 548, 552
– oculomotorius 496, 523, 534, 560, 577, 587, 590, 663
– olfactorius 62, 523
– ophthalmicus 526, 534, 590, 663
– opticus 494, 510, 523, 525, 572, 580, 582, 590, 675
– palatinus 534
– – major 527
– – minor 527
– petrosus major 530, 671
– phrenicus 292, 538, 684
– – dexter 291
– pterygoideus
– – lateralis 528
– – medialis 528
– pterygopalatinus 527, 534
– pudendus 304, 546, 549, 553, 696
– radialis 200, 204, 538, 542, 544, 636, 698
– – paralysis 545
– saphenus 548, 551, 714
– spinalis 490, 516, 537
– – Ramus
– – – communicans albus 556
– – – communicans griseus 556
– – – dorsalis 537
– – – meningeus 537
– – – ventralis 537
– splanchnicus
– – major 294, 557, 560
– – minor 294, 557, 560
– stapedius 530
– suprascapularis 538, 542, 698, 703
– temporalis
– – profundus 528
– – superficialis 528
– terminalis 525
– thoracicus
– – lateralis 539, 698
– – longus 539, 698
– thoracodorsalis 539, 698
– tibialis 546, 549, 553, 555, 636, 653, 711
– trigeminalis 590, 649

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Nervus
- trigeminus 481, 496, **523**, **526**, 530, 534, 598, 654
- trochlearis **523**, 534, 590
- ulnaris 200, 204, **538**, 542, **546**, 636, 645, 653, 702
- vagus 47, 307, 342, 382, 452, **496**, **523**, **532**, 558, **560**, 674
- vestibulocochlearis 56, 496, **510**, **523**, **532**, 593, 607
- zygomaticotemporalis, Ramus cutaneus 659, 665
- zygomaticus **527**, 663

Net of blood vessels 35

Network
- arterial, subfascial **613**, 615
- capillary, deep, of the skin 613
- of nerves 41
- testicular 409, 411
- venous, terminal 470

Neurocytes 43

Neurectodermis 42

Neuroglia 43

Neurohypophysis 562

Neuromodulator 48

Neuron 41
- motor 42, **44**
- multipolar 42
- postganglionic **514**, 557
- postsynaptic 47
- preganglionic 514, 557
- presynaptic 47

Neurons 43
- efferent 493
- motor 42, **44**
- - lower 511
- - preganglion 44
- - upper 511
- postganglionic 42
- retinal 579
- sensory 44
- of the spinal cord 493
- sympathetic 493
- visceromotor 493

Neutrophil 43

Neurotransmitter 48

Nexus 26

Nissl substance 42

Node
- atrioventricular 451
- sinuatrial 451

Nodi lymphatici
- - intercostales 479
- - thoracici aortici 479

Nodule of the semilunar cusp 446

Nodulus valvulae semilunaris 446

Nodus
- atrioventricularis 451
- sinuatrialis 451

Noradrenaline 48, 557, **568**

Nose 369

Nostril 370
- region 662

Notch
- alar 87, 90
- angular **327**, 330
- cardiac 384, 443
- carotid 55
- facial **70**, 77, 84, 662
- intervertebral 83
- mandibular 68, 71
- nasolacrimal 371
- otic 75
- oval 55
- pancreatic 364
- popliteal 229, 231
- radial, of the ulna 153, 162
- scapular 138
- sciatic
- - greater 215, **218**, 222
- - lesser **218**, 222
- spinous 55
- trochlear 152
- ulnar, of the radius 153, 162
- vertebral
- - caudal 87, 92, 94, 97
- - - axis 89
- - cranial 87, 91, 92, 94
- - - axis 89

Nuclei
- cochlear 524
- of the mesencephalic tract of the trigeminal nerve 526
- motor
- - of the medulla oblongata 511
- - of the spinal cord 511
- oculomotor 511
- parasympathetic
- - corresponding 495
- - of cranial nerves 495, 559
- parasympathetic 495
- paraventricular 513
- supraoptic 513
- thalamic 525
- trochlear 526
- vestibular 524
- vestibulocochlear 510

Nucleus
- of the accessory nerve 537
- ambiguus 524, 532, **537**
- caudate **504**, 518, 591
- cuneate 508, **509**
- of the endothelial cells 38
- geniculate, lateral 525, 582, 591
- gracile 508, **509**
- infundibular 562
- of the lens 583
- motor
- - of the facial nerve 671
- - of the trigeminal nerve 526
- parasympathetic
- - of the glossopharyngeal nerve 532
- - intermediolateral 493
- paraventricular 562, 582
- pulpy **108**, 112, 683
- red 498, 511
- sensory, pontine, of the trigeminal nerve 509
- supraoptic 562
- sympathetic, intermediolateral 493
- ventromedial 562

O

Obex 500

Obiculus ciliaris 582

Obstruction, oesophageal 680

Odontoblasts 312

Oesophagus 294, 301, 326, 336, 680, 684
- surgically accessibility 680

Oestrus cycle, rectal examination 429

Olecranon **152**, 154, **196**, 198, **202**, **206**

Olecranon fossa 151

Olecranon ligament 165

Olecranon tuber 152, 154

Oligodendrocyte myelin sheat 42

Oligodendrocytes 493

Oligodendroglia 43, 45

Omasum 335, **339**
- blood supply 342
- bovine 340
- projection on the lateral body wall 724

Omentum
- greater 287, 294, 333, **341**
- lesser 286, 333, **341**, **363**

Omphalos 294

Oocyte 424, 426, **427**

Opening
- atrioventricular
- - left 447
- - right 445
- conchomaxillary 376
- frontomaxillary 86
- nasal 78
- nasomaxillary 78
- nasosaccomasal 340
- pharyngeal, of the auditory tube 602, **667**, 671
- reticulo-omasal 340
- umbilical 139
- urethral
- - external 405, 415
- - internal 415

Optic disc of the retina 575

Ora serrata 575, 578, **579**

Oral 2

Orbicularis ciliaris 575, 578

Orbit 75, **586**
- dorsal margin 57
- of horse 81

Orbita 586

Orchis 402

Organ
- capsule 284
- cochlear 510
- copulatory, surgery 696
- of Corti 532, 606
- intraperitoneal 293
- retroperitoneal 294
- vestibular 510

Organ systems 2

Organa
- genitalia
- - feminina 423
- - masculina 402
- lymphopoietica 475
- oculi accessoria 586
- urinaria 391

Organs
- abdominal 342, 686
- - intrathoracic
- - - of the horse 367
- - - of the ox 366
- - projection on the lateral body wall 722
- digestive, of the head 666
- genital
- - female 423
- - - blood supply 439
- - - innervation 440
- - - lymph nodes 440
- - - muscles 439
- - male 402
- gonad, foetal development 438
- lymphatic 39, **475**
- parenchymatous 284
- pelvic 342
- perineal 286
- reproductive 693
- retroperitoneal 286, 299
- of sense 7
- of the thoracic cavity 681
- - projection on the lateral body wall 722
- - topography 684

Organum
- digitale 627
- vestibulocochleare 593
- visus 571

Orifice
- aortic 447
- caecocolic **352**, **354**

Oropharynx 321, 325

Os
- basisphenoidale 50, **53**, 65
- competale 160
- coronale 160
- costale 101
- ethmoidale 61
- frontale 50, **53**, **57**, 63
- hyoideum 63, **71**, 77, 85, 376
- ilium 215, **217**
- incisivum 50, 63, **69**, 371
- interparietale 50, **53**, 61
- ischii 217
- lacrimale 50, **56**, **63**
- lenticulare 599
- malleolare 229
- membranaceum
- - lamellosum 17
- - reticulofibrosum 16
- metacarpale tertium 159
- metatarsale 18
- - secundum 217
- - tertium 217
- nasale 50, **63**
- occipitale 50, **53**
- - pars basilaris 50, 56, 65, 87
- - pars lateralis 51, 54
- palatinum 50, **53**, 63, 68
- parietale 50, **53**, 61
- penis 405, 407, **419**
- praesphenoidale 50, 53, 55, 56
- pterygoideum 50, **53**, 63, 69
- pubis 217
- - ramus
- - - caudalis 218
- - - cranialis 218
- sacrum 97
- sphenoidale 50, 54, 61, 561
- tarsi
- - centrale 232, 234, 245, 273
- - fibulare 232
- - tibiale 232
- temporale 53, **55**
- - pars
- - - petrosa 50, 53, **55**, 58, 76, 107, 593
- - squamosa 50, **55**, 75
- - tympanica **55**, 593
- unguilare 160
- zygomaticum 50, 53, 64, 75

Ossa
- brevia 9
- carpi 18, **146**, 152, **155**, **190**, **202**, **206**
- coxae 215, 236
- digitorum manus 157, **158**, 160
- irregularia 9
- longa 9

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

- membri
  - pelvini 215
  - - thoracici 149
- metacarpalia 10, **18**, **146**, 152, **155**, **168**, 190, **202**
- metatarsalia 216
- pluma 9
- pneumatica 9
- sesamoidea 10, **157**, 203, 225
  - - of the manus 157
  - - musculi gastrocnemii 227
- tarsi 216, 232

Ossein 14
- calcified 15

Ossicles auditory 593, 598, **599**, 626

Ossicula auditory 593, 598, **599**, 626

Ossification 14
- of the alar cartilages of the third phalanx 709
- of the cartilage matrix 15
- chondral 8, 11, **14**
- – endochondral 14, 16
- – indirect 14
- – intramembranous 14
- perichondral 14
- primary 15

Ossification centres
- of the pelvis 224
- – primary 14

Osteoblast precursor cells 14

Osteoblasts 8, 12, 14

Osteochondrosis dissecans 708

Osteoclasts 12, 14, 17

Osteocytes 8, 12, 14

Osteogenesis 13
- – chondral 15

Osteoid 14

Osteology 8

Osteon 12, 17

Osteoprogenitor cells 15

Ostium
- abdominal, of the uterine tube 429
- aortae 447
- atrioventriculare
- – – dextrum 445
- – – sinistrum 447
- caecocolicic 452
- external, of the urethra 418, 431, 433
- ileale 453
- pharyngeum tubae auditivae 602, **667**, 671
- preputial 420
- ureteric **401**, 404
- urethrae externum 409, 431, 433
- uterine
- – – external **431**, 433
- – – internal **431**, 433

Outlet, pelvic 292

Outpouching, median, of the larynx 380

Output, cardiac 453

Ovariectomy 433

Ovaries, projection on the lateral body wall 723

Ovarium 399, 404, **423**, 434, 436

Ovary 399, 404, **423**, 434, 436
- functional stages 424
- size 425
- structure 425

Oviduct 429

Ovis ammon f. aries 6

Ovulation fossa 425, 428

Ox
- abdominal hernia 693
- abdominal organs 342, **690**
- acetabulum 221
- adrenal gland 568
- atlas 88
- axis 89
- dentition 320
- digit
- – synovial structures 205
- – tendons 205
- eye 576, 578
- eyeball 572
- foot 172, **174**
- genital organs, female **431**, 436
- head, superficial structures 665
- hip bones 223
- horn shoe 641, **643**
- hyoid bone 71
- injection sites of the
- – – carpal joints 169
- – – elbow joint 167
- – – femoropatellar joint 243
- – – femorotibial joint 243
- – – hip joint 238
- – – shoulder joint 165
- – – tarsal joint 246
- intestinal tract 348
- – intrathoracic abdominal organs 366
- kidney 391, **395**
- laparotomy 693
- ligament
- – nuchal 111
- – – supraspinous 111
- ligaments of the pelvis 237
- liver 359
- mandible 51, 68
- mandibular foramen 70
- mental foramen 70
- muscle, sternocleidomastoid 196
- muscles
- – extrinsic, of the thoracic limb 185
- – – intrinsic, of the thoracic limb 185
- – pectoral 187
- – – scalene 126
- – – superficial 31
- – – – of the pelvic limb 253
- ocular fundus 580
- pancreas 365
- pancreatic duct system 368
- parathyroid glands 565
- pelvic organs 342
- projection of the organs on the lateral body wall 724
- pulmonary lobes 385, 387
- radius 152
- rib 102
- roof of the oral cavity 304
- rumen 338
- salivary glands 311
- sheath, synovial, digital 208
- skeleton 19
- – – of the manus 156
- – – of the thoracic limb 147
- skull 51, 63
- spleen 486
- thyroid cartilage 378
- thyroid gland 564
- tongue 305
- trachea 384
- ulna 152
- vertebra
- – – lumbar 97
- – – thoracic 93
- vertebral formula 93
- vessels of the base of the heart 456

Oxytocin 622

P

Pacchionian granulations 518

Pace, intermuscular, of the leg 228

Pad
- dental 304
- digital **635**, 641

Palate 302
- – hard 77, 83, **302**, 322, 372
- – soft 302, **303**, 321

Paleopallium 502

Pallium 502

Palmar 6

Palpebra
- inferior 587
- superior 587
- tertia 587, 664

Pancreas 296, 301, 351, **364**
- – blood supply 367
- – innervation 368

Pancreatic duct system 368

Panniculus adiposus 610

Papilla
- dermal 633
- duodenal
- – – major 364
- – – minor 365
- fungiform 307
- ileal 351, **352**
- incisive 304
- mammae 619
- marginal 307
- – renal 397
- – – cribriform area **396**, 403

Papillae
- conical 305
- filiform 305
- gustatory 305
- marginal 305
- – mechanical 304, **305**, 666
- – ruminal 335, 337
- – vallata 305

Paraganglia 568

Paralysis 676
- of the facial nerve 532, 671
- of the radial nerve 545
- – of the recurrent laryngeal nerve 383, 480
- of the supracapular nerve 708
- of the tongue 307

Parametrium 433, 438

Parasympathicus 47, **560**
- – cranial 47
- – – function 47
- – – pelvic 47

Parathyroid hormone 17

Parenchyme 6, 284
- of the lung 385

Passage, nasal
- – middle 667
- – ventral 667

Passageways, respiratory 385

Pastern bone 147, **177**, 181

Pastern joint 24, **170**, 173, 177

Pastern region 708

Patella **18**, 217, 225, **227**, 241, 265, 710, 712

Paw of the dog, arteriogram 636

Pecten
- – ossis pubis **218**, 222
- – of pubis **218**, 222

Pedicellus arcus vertebrae 86

Peduncle
- – cerebral 692
- – olfactory 503

Peduncles, cerebral 498

Pelvis **18**, 220, 285
- – bony 215
- – renal 391, **393**, 398, **399**, 403
- – – cribriform area 396

Penis 418
- – blood supply 422
- – of the dog 405
- – fibroelastic type 419, 422
- – innervation 422
- – lymphatic drainage 422
- – musculocavernous type 419, 422

Pericardium 289, **442**
- – fibrosum 442
- – serosum 442

Perichondrium 9, 28
- – stratum chondrogenitum 15

Pericyte 38

Perikaryon 42, 44

Perimetrium **433**, 435, 438

Perimysium 26

Perineum 439, 711

Perineurium 46

Periodontium 313

Periorbita 662

Periost 28

Periosteum 8, **11**, 15
- – stratum
- – – fibrosum 11
- – – osteogenicum 11

Perisplenium 28

Peritenon 26

Peritoneum 136, 142, 294
- – parietal layer 294
- – stomach 327
- – urinary bladder **403**, 404
- – visceral layer 294

Petrosum 55

Peyer's patches 284, 344, 346, 351

Phalanges 190, 202, 216
- – of manus 155

Phalanx
- – distal 147, **156**, 177, 179, 181
- – – of the horse 156, **161**
- – – – blood vessels 655
- – – of the manus 172
- – marrow cavity 172
- – middle 147, 177, 181
- – – of the manus 172
- – proximal 147
- – – of the manus 172
- – third, fracture 709

Pharynx 121, 668
- – laryngeal part 321
- – lymphatic structures 323
- – nasal part 321, 377
- – oral part 321
- – pars
- – – laryngea 321

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Pharynx, pars
– – nasalis 321, 377
– – oralis 321
Phenylephrine 577
Philippi muscle 201, 206
Philtrum 302, 370
Phosphate 14, 17
Photoreceptor 12
Photoreceptor cells 529
Pia mater 515
– cerebral 515
– encephali 518
– spinal 518
– spinalis 518
Pig 6
– abdominal organs 688
– adrenal gland 568
– atlas 86
– axis 89
– bones
– – carpal 155
– – of the skull 50
– caecum 353
– colon 354
– dentition 320, 320
– genital organs, female 431, 433
– humerus 150
– injection sites of the
– – carpal joints 169
– – elbow joint 166
– – femoropatellar joint 243
– – shoulder joint 165
– – tarsal joint 246
– intestinal tract 349
– kidney 391, 394
– liver 358
– lymph nodes 476
– mammary gland 624
– mandible 50, 68
– muscle, sternocleidomastoid 186
– muscles
– – extrinsic, of the thoracic limb 184
– – intrinsic, of the thoracic limb 184
– – pectoral 187
– – scalene 126
– – superficial 31
– – – of the pelvic limb 252
– pancreas 365
– pancreatic duct system 368
– parathyroid glands 565
– position of the dome of the diaphragm 682
– projection of the organs on the lateral body wall 723
– pulmonary lobes 385, 389
– salivary glands 310
– sixth cervical vertebra 92
– skeleton 19
– – of the manus 156
– – of the pelvic limb 216
– – of the thoracic limb 146
– skull 50, 54, 66
– stomach 329, 331
– thyroid gland 565, 567
– tongue 305
– trachea 384
– vertebra
– – cervical 92
– – thoracic 93
– vertebral formula 93
– vessels of the base of the heart 456
Pillars of the rumen 337
Pilocarpine 577
Pivot joint 23
Plane
– dorsal 7
– horizontal 6
– median 6
– nuchal 61
– paramedian 7
– parietal 61
– sagittal 6
– transverse 6
– trochanteric 226
Plantar 6
Planum
– nasale 370
– nuchale 61
– parietale 61
– frontale 370
Plate
– of the alar cartilage 371
– cribriform, of the ethmoid bone 53, 56, 61, 66, 78, 85
– dental 666
– epiphyseal 16
– – distal 9
– – proximal 9
– horizontal, of palatine bone 61, 69
– of ischium 218, 221
– nasolabial 302, 370
– perpendicular
– – of the ethmoid bone 53, 61
– – of the palatine bone 60, 69
– quadrigeminal 495, 507, 525
– rostral 370
– sphenoethmoidal, of palatine bone 69
– tectal 498
Platysma 114, 677
Pleura 136
– parietalis 288, 384
– of pericardium 442
– pulmonalis 288, 384
– visceral 288, 384
Plexus
– auricular, rostral 668
– axillary 458
– brachial 126, 140, 390, 538, 698
– – innervation areas 540
– buccal 531, 663, 671
– cardiac 390, 452
– choroid 294, 519
– – of the fourth ventricle 494
– – of the third ventricle 494
– coccygeal
– – dorsal 143
– – ventral 143
– intermesenteric 299
– lumbar 547, 552, 710
– lumbosacral 98, 101, 538, 546, 549, 552
– lymphatic, subcutaneous 613
– mesenteric, large 350
– myenteric 47, 537, 560
– nervorum
– – myentericus 47, 537, 560
– – submucosus 47, 537, 560
– pampiniformis 412, 414, 415
– pelvic 304
– pharyngeal 533
– renal 390
– sacral 552, 710
– sciatic 546, 552, 710
– solar 390, 560
– submucosal 47, 537, 560
– subserosal 560
– venous
– – epidural 520
– – scleral 577, 584
– – urethral 405
– – vertebral 471, 473
Plica
– aryepiglottica 329
– duodenocolica 347
– genital 290
– semilunaris 668
– urogenital 300
– venae cavae 291, 472
– vocalis 377, 380
Plicae
– cutis 610
– synoviales 21
– ureterica 403
Pneumocytes 388
Podocytes 396
Pododerma 630
Point
– of the hock 234
– of rotation 29
Pons 494, 524
Porta hepatis 296, 357
Portal
– hepatic 296, 357
Portal system 35
– hepatic 474
– of the pituitary gland 35, 562
Portio
– of the vagina 431, 436
Pouch
– blind, lateral, distal, of fetlock 210
– caudodorsal 166
– dorsal of the
– – coffin joint 174, 178, 181
– – fetlock joint 180
– – interphalangeal joint 174, 178
– – metacarpophalangeal joint 170, 172, 175, 180
– – proximal interphalangeal joint 173
– guttural 123, 302, 376, 546, 601, 602, 674, 676, 678
– – medial recess 670
– – topography 671
– interdigital 611
– palmar of the
– – coffin joint 174, 178, 181, 214
– – fetlock joint 180
– – interphalangeal joint 174, 178
– – metacarpophalangeal joint 170, 172, 175, 180
– – proximal interphalangeal joint 173
– pubovesical 294, 300, 423, 693
– rectogenital 294, 300, 423, 693
– vesicogenital 300, 423, 693
Pouches, peritoneal, pelvic 300
Premolar 310
Premolars of the horse 667
Premyoblasts 25
Preosteoblasts 12
Prepuce 407, 420
Presphenoid 107
Process
– accessory, of vertebra 82
– alveolar 63, 65
– – of incisive bone 69
– – of the maxilla 83
– anconeal 152, 166
– – separation 708
– angular 68, 70
– – of the mandible 67
– articular
– – caudal
– – – axis 89
– – – of vertebra 87, 92
– – cranial
– – – axis 89
– – – of sacrum 99, 222
– – – of vertebra 87, 92
– – of lumbar vertebra 95
– – of sacrum 223
– caudate, of the liver 357
– ciliary 584
– condylar, of mandible 68, 71
– coracoid, of calcaneus 235
– corniculate 304
– cornual 657, 660
– – pneumatisation 658
– coronoid
– – lateral 152
– – of the mandible 58, 61, 68, 71, 80
– – medial 152
– costal 95, 98
– dorsal, of vertebra 86
– extensor 160
– – of distal phalanx 181
– frontal
– – of the maxilla 65
– – of the zygomatic bone 61
– hamate 145, 148
– lacrimal, rostral 58
– lingual 71, 85
– mamillary 87
– – of cervical vertebra 87
– – of thoracic vertebra 92
– mamillocostal
– – of lumbar vertebra 95
– – of thoracic vertebra 92, 94
– mastoid 52, 65, 77
– muscular 53, 57
– nasal of the incisive bone 66, 69
– occipital 56
– palatine 65
– – of the incisive bone 63, 65, 69, 83
– – of the maxilla 65
– palmar 181
– – lateral 163
– – medial 163
– papillar, of the liver 357
– paracondylar 52, 56, 58, 65, 67, 102
– pterygoid 55, 60, 84
– retroarticular 56, 65, 80, 105
– retromuscular 321
– retrotympanic 56
– rostral, of the nasal bone 63, 66
– septal, of the nasal bone 66
– sphenoidal, of the palatine bone 55, 59
– spinous 86
– – of axis 89, 106
– – of cervical vertebra 90
– – of first thoracic vertebra 91

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

– – of lumbar vertebra 93, 95, 95
– – of sacrum 98
– – of thoracic vertebra 92
– styloid 56, 59, 81
– – of radius 152
– – of ulna 152
– temporal, of zygomatic bone 56, 58, 65
– tentorial 51, 53
– transverse
– – axis 89
– – of cervical vertebra 90
– – of lumbar vertebra 93, 95
– – of thoracic vertebra 93
– – of vertebra 86
– unguicular, of the distal phalanx 635
– urethral 408, 419
– vaginal 1.99, 294, 407, 412, 419, 439, 712
– – proximal part 415
– – stratigraphy 693
– xiphoid 103, 132
– zygomatic 80
– – of frontal bone 56, 64
– – of maxilla 65
– – of temporal bone 58, 64, 67
Processes
– ciliary 525, 529
– hemal 101
Processus
– alveolaris 65
– – oris incisivi 69
– angularis 70
– articularis 91
– – caudalis 87
– – cranialis 87
– – vertebrae thoracicae 92, 93
– caudatus hepatis 357
– ciliares 525, 529
– coracoideus calcanei 235
– cornualis 657, 660
– coronoideus
– – lateralis 152
– – mandibulae 58, 64, 68, 71, 80
– – medialis 152
– extensorius 160
– frontalis maxillae 65
– hemales 101
– lingualis 71
– mamillaris vertebrae thoracicae 92
– mastoideus 52, 55
– muscularis 87
– occipitalis 56
– palatinus 65
– – maxillae 65
– – oris incisivi 63, 65, 69, 83
– papillaris hepatis 357
– paracondylaris 54
– pterygoideus 55
– retroarticularis 56, 105
– retrotympanicus 56
– rostrales 63
– spinosus 86
– – vertebrae thoracicae 92
– styloideus 56
– tentorius 51
– transversus vertebrae 86
– – cervicalis 90
– – thoracalis 93
– vaginalis 139, 294, 407, 413
– vertebrae 86
– zygomaticus
– – maxillae 65
– – ossis
– – frontalis 56
– – temporalis 55, 58
Profundus 2
Progesterone 428, 570
Prognathia 317
Prognathism of the mandible 74
Projection of the organs on the lateral body wall 722
Promontory 98, 222
– of the tympanic cavity 599, 600
Pronation 153
Proprioceptive stimulus 41
Prosencephalon 43, 494, 499, 502
Prostaglandin 429
Prostata 304, 407, 417
Proteoglycan 23
Protuberance, occipital
– external 51, 60, 75, 91, 107
– – of horse 79
– internal 51
Proximal 6
Pubis 98, 217, 222, 223
– branch
– – acetabular 218, 223
– – symphysial 218, 223
– ossification centres 224
Pulmo 384
Pulp 311
– splenic, red 487, 488
Pulvinar cervicales 436
Pulvinus
– coronae 651
– digitalis, pars
– – cunealis 655
– – ionica 655
Puma, dentition 318
Puncta
– lacrimal 589
– nasal, of the nasolacrimal duct 371
Punctum
– fixum 29
– mobile 29
Pupil 523, 526
– margin 527
Purkinje cells 43
Purkinje fibres 450, 452
Putamen 504
Pylorus 327, 340
Pyramid of vermis 496
Pyramidal system 511
Pyramids 495
– of the medulla oblongata 512
– medullary 397

R

Radiation 45
– acoustic 510
– optic 510, 591
Radius 18, 146, 152, 167, 170, 190, 198, 202, 206
– ossification centres 151
Radix
– linguae 304
– mesenterii 295, 297
– pulmonis 385
– spinal
– – dorsal 490, 516
– – ventral 490, 516
Ramis head of horse 79
Ramus
– of mandible 67, 70, 77
– ossis ischii 218
Ranula 309, 660
Raphe, palatine 303
Reaction centre of the lymph follicle 426
Receptor, sensory 41
Receptor cells 41
– photosensitive 579
Receptorpotential 42
Receptors
– adrenergic 48
– cholinergic 48
– of deep sensibility 42
– thermal 613
Recess
– costodiaphragmatic 288
– dorsal, of the
– – coffin joint 211
– – fetlock joint 211
– lateral, of the fourth ventricle 517
– maxillary 78, 370, 376
– – entrance 374
– mediastinal 288, 388
– of the olfactory bulb 517
– omental, caudal 287, 294, 333
– perform 304, 322, 325
– of the renal pelvis 400, 401
– of the roof of the fourth ventricle 517
– supraomental 341
– suprapineal 495
Recesses, sublingual, lateral 307
Recessus
– caudalis omentalis 333
– costodiaphragmaticus 288
– dorsalis articulationis
– – interphalangeae 174, 178, 181
– – – metacarpophalangeae 170, 172, 175, 180
– laryngis medianus 380
– maxillaris 370, 376
– mediastini 288, 388
– palmaris articulationis
– – – interphalangeae 174, 178, 181
– – – metacarpophalangeae 170, 172, 175, 180
– pelvis 393
– sublinguales laterales 307
– supraomentalis 341
Rectum 300, 348, 356
Rectus sheath 139, 141
– external leaf 141
– internal leaf 141
Reflex 36
– acquired 46
– cortical 675
– cutaneous trunci 494
– innate 46
– intersegmental 494
– monosynaptic 46
– motoractic 493
– polysynaptic 46
– withdrawal 493
Reflex arcs 494
Reflexes, optic 591
Refractive index 585
Region
– abdominal
– – caudal 687, 692
– – cranial 682, 687
– – lateral 692
– – middle 682, 692
– anal 711
– auricular 662
– axillary 697
– – blood vessels 698
– – nerves 698
– brachial
– – lateral 698
– – – musculature 702
– – medial 702
– buccal 662
– calcaneous 708
– cardiac 683
– carpal 706
– caudal 708
– coronal 708
– costal 682
– of the coxal tuber 708
– crural 708
– femoral 708, 710, 711
– frontal 662
– gluteal 708, 710
– hypochondriac 683, 687
– infraorbital 662
– inguinal 683, 693
– intermandibular 662, 665, 677
– laryngeal 662, 667, 677
– lumbar 682
– mandibular 677
– masseteric 662, 663, 677
– maxillary 662
– mental 664, 677
– metacarpal 706
– – blood vessels 707
– – tendons 707
– metatarsal 708, 718
– metatarsophalangeal 708
– nasal 661
– oral 661
– orbital 662, 663
– parietal 662
– parotid 662, 677
– patellar 708
– pelvic, radiograph 224
– perineal 710
– phalangeal 708
– pharyngeal 662, 677
– popliteal 708, 711
– preputial 683
– prescapular 677, 679
– presternal 677
– pubic 683, 693
– sacral 708
– scapular 697
– sternal 682
– subhyoid 667
– supramammary 711
– tarsal 708, 713
– temporal 662, 665
– – deeper structures 664
– – superficial structures 664
– of temporomandibula articulation 662
– thoracic-lumbar 95
– tracheal 667
– umbilical 683, 692
– urogenital 711
– vertebral, of the thorax 682
– xiphoid 683, 692
– zygomatic 662
Regions
– crural 713

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Regions
– digital 306
– phalangeal 718
Reissner-membrane 606
Relaxing factors 562
Ren 391
Respiratory system 7, 369
Respiratory tract
– lower 369, 376
– upper 369
Rete
– arteriosum 35
– carpal 459
– lymphoscapulare
– – cutis profundum 613
– – subcutaneum 613
– mirabile 35
– – epidural 520, 522, 526
– – – rostral 460
– testis 409, 411
Retia lymphocapillaria 40
Reticulum 335, 336
– bovine 338
– projection on the lateral body wall 724
Retina 510, 572, 577
– ciliary part 577
– detachment 675
– iridial part 577
– layer
– – neural 579
– – pigmented 579
– nonvisual part 572, 575, 577, 579
– nutrition 583
– optic part 572, 579
– – histological section 581
– pars
– – caeca 572, 575, 577, 579
– – ciliaris 577
– – iridica 577
– – optica 572, 579, 581
Retinacula, patellar 242
Retinaculum
– extensor 169, 190, 196, 201, 206, 706
– flexor 169, 197, 201, 203, 545, 706
Rhin 369
Rhinencephalon 503, 525
Rhodopsin 579
Rhombencephalon 43, 494
Rib 95
– osseous part 101
Ribs 50, 101
– asternal 101, 103
– false 101, 103
– floating 101
– sternal 101, 103
– true 101, 103
Ridge in the reticulum 335
Ridges
– mammary 622
– transverse, of the hard palate 302, 303, 801
Rima glottis 379, 668
Ring
– ciliary 575, 576, 578
– fibrous 108, 112
– inguinal
– – deep 140, 142, 693
– – superficial 138, 139, 141, 693, 711
– pancreatic 364
– perigastric, of arteries 342
– preputial 420
– scleral 573
– tympanic 57, 593, 595, 600
Rinderpest 380, 353, 536, 668
Riods 579
Riodl
– plate of the ethmoid bone 61
– of the skull 51
– – of horse 85
Root
– dorsal, of the spinal ganglion 547
– of the lung 385
– of the mesentery 295, 297, 350
– of the penis 418
– spinal
– – caudal 491
– – dorsal 490
– – sacral 491
– – ventral 490
– of the tongue 301
Roots
– of cervical spinal nerve 536
– motor 45
– sensory 45
Rostral 7
Rostrum 370
– sphenoidal 54
Rotation of the intestine 295
Rough endoplasmatic reticulum 42
Rows of sacculations 353
Rugae palatinae 302, 303
Rumen 335, 336
– projection on the lateral body wall 724
Ruminants
– apex beat of the heart 682
– bones
– – carpal 155
– – metacarpal 156
– caecum 353
– colon 355
– joints, phalangeal 171
– liver 360
– position of the dome of diaphragm 682
– small
– – adrenal glands 569
– – kidney 391
– – pancreatic duct system 368
– – parathyroid glands 565
– – udder 625
– – vertebral formula 93
Rump musculature 31, 240, 251

S

Sac
– conjunctival 588
– large 327
Saccule 605
Saccus caecus 327
Sacrum 18, 97, 112, 215, 220, 222, 223, 237
– extremity
– – caudal 98
– – cranial 99
– surface
– – dorsal 98
– – pelvic 98
Sacs
– alveolar 388
– anal 356
Saddle joint 23, 171, 177
Salpinx 429, 432, 694
Sanctuarium 26
Satellite cells 25
Scala
– tympani 605, 606, 607
– vestibuli 605, 606, 607
Scapha 594
Scapula 18, 103, 145, 148, 190
– fusion of the ossification centres 148
Schwann cell myelin sheat 42
Sclera 572, 584
– transparent 591
Scrotum 407, 412
– position 414
– stratigraphy 693
Scutum
– distal 179
– medial 177
– middle 179
– proximal 179
Sebum 618
Secretion, exterine 283
Segmenta bronchopulmonalia 385
Segments, bronchopulmonary 385
Sella turcica 55, 515, 520
Sense organs of the skin 614
Sensibility
– deep, receptors 42
– exteroceptive 41
– proprioceptive 41
– vegetative 41
– visceral 41
Sensitivity loss 676
Septa
– intermuscularia 32
– of the testis 409, 412
Septula testis 409
Septum
– of frontal sinuses 53, 57, 59, 76
– interatrial 445
– interventricular 446
– of the maxillary sinus 375
– median, dorsal 491
– nasal 61, 63, 76, 371, 375
– pellucid 495, 507
– scrotal 409, 412
Serosa
– connecting 286
– oesophagus 326
– parietal 286
– of pericardium 442
– visceral 286
Sertoli cells 409
Shaft of
– femur 225
– fibula 229
– humerus 149, 164
– radius 152
– rib 102
– tibia 229
– ulna 152
Sharpey fibres 12, 17, 28
Sheath
– carotid 678
– fibrous, digital, annular part 211
– of the straight abdominal muscle 139, 141
– synovial
– – carpal 212
– – common, of the flexor muscles 706
– – digital 208, 212
Sheep 6
– abdominal hernia 693
– pulmonary lobes 385
Shin bone 10
Shoulder girdle 145
– musculature 30, 124
Shoulder joint 21, 23, 103, 147, 151, 164
– injection sites 165
– innervation 545
– muscles 30, 184, 190, 198, 694
Shoulder muscles 30, 184, 190, 198, 647
– lateral 190
– medial 192
Shoulder slip 640
Shoulderblade 145
Sinus
– basilar 522
– carotid 569
– cavernous 522
– clitoral 437
– conchal
– – dorsal 73, 375, 667
– – ventral 73
– conchofrontal 85, 375, 376, 66
– coronary 444, 470
– cutanei 610
– durae matris 39
– frontal 52, 57, 60, 66, 73, 78, 173, 175, 376, 667
– – of the horse 84
– intercavernous
– – caudal 522
– – rostral 522
– interdigitalis 611
– lacrimal 73
– lactiferous 620, 622
– marginalis 477
– maxillary 65, 67, 73, 376, 662, 662
– – caudal 84, 376
– – of the horse 84
– – rostral 84, 375
– medullary, of the lymph node 476
– oblique, of the pericardium 44
– palatine 65, 69, 73
– – opening 64
– paranasales 73, 356
– petrosal
– – dorsal 522
– – ventral 522
– renal 399, 403
– sagittal, dorsal 521
– sphenoidal 54, 59, 66, 73, 76
– sphenopalatine 375, 376
– of the spleen 488
– subscapular, of the lymph node 476
– temporal 521
– transverse of the pericardium 442
– transversus pericardii 442
– urogenital 438
– of the venae cavae 445
– venous 38, 668, 669
– – facial, deep 669
Sinus hair 614
Sinus passage 667
Sinus system, basal, of the brain 522
Sinus transverse canal 53

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Sinuses
– frontal, septum 53, 57, 59, 76
– paranasal 73, 78, **375**, **662**
– – of horse 85
– sphenoid 54
– venous
– – large 515
– – of the spleen 492
Sinusitis, horse 662
Sinusoids, hepatic 473
Skeletal system 6
Skeleton 7, **18**
– antebrachial 152
– of the arm 149
– axial 49
– of the carpus 206
– cauris 227
– dermal 49
– design 8
– digital 157
– – in carnivores 158
– – of horse 160, 206
– – of pes 236
– of the dog 1501
– femoris 225
– of the forearm 152
– of the forepaws in carnivores 157
– function 17
– of the head 50
– of the horse 190
– of the leg 227
– of the manus 155
– – of horse 156, **159**
– metatarsal 236
– pedis 232
– of the pelvic limb **215**, 254, 270
– of the pes 232
– primordial 13
– of the thigh 225
– thoracic 101
– of the thoracic limb 145
– thoracis 101
Skin 609
– blood supply 613
– folds 610
– lymphatic drainage 613
– nerves 614
– pouches 610
– scrotal 412
– sense organs 614
– venous drainage 613
Skin glands 618
Skull **49**, 376
– bones 50
– bovine **51**, 63
– canine 50, **52**, 66, 74
– of carnivores 73
– of a cat **65**, 91
– cavities 77
– cranial part 58
– equine 51, 58, **79**
– – base 80
– – caudal part 80
– – cavities 85
– – facial part 82
– facial part 63
– feline 79
– of a goat 660
– neural part 50
– nuchal aspect 52
– porcine 50, 52, **54**, 66
– of a puma 64, 67
Sledge joint 24
Snap joint 24, 165
Sole **635**, 654
– epidermis 654
– horn 634
Solea **635**, 654
Sow
– genital organs 431
– uterine cervix **431**, 436
– vagina **431**, 436
Space
– articular 23
– atlantoaxial 86, 91
– atlanto-occipital 86, 91
– femoral 140, 299
– – interarcuate 86, 95, 98
– – – lumbar region 95
– – – lumbosacral 95, 98
– – interosseous
– – – of forearm **152**, 167, 202
– – – of the leg 228, 230
– – lumbosacral 86
– – retroperitoneal 286
– – retroversal 286
– – subarachnoid 516
Spaces, intercostal 101
Spatium
– atlantoaxiale 86, 91
– atlanto-occipitale 86, 91
– – interarcuale 86, **95**, 98
– – – lumbosacrale 86, **95**, 98, 515
Sphincter
– cardiac 327, **328**
– ileal 352
– pyloric 327, **328**
Sphincter muscle 28
– deep, of the neck 114
– superficial, of the neck 114
Sphincter vein 36
Sphincters, precapillary 36
Spina
– iliaca ventralis
– – caudalis 215
– – cranialis 215
– nasalis caudalis 69
– scapulae 145, **147**, 196
Spindle, gastric 335
Spine 86
– cervical 90
– – iliac, ventral
– – – caudal 215
– – – cranial 215
– – ischiatic 98, **218**, 222
– – lumbar 96
– – nasal 69
– – – caudal, of palatine bone **53**, 55, 57, 65, 83
– – of the scapula 145, **147**, 196
– – thoracic 92, 95
– – of the wing of ilium 220
Splanchnology 283
Spleen 296, 366, **485**
– function 488
– histological section 488
– lymphatic drainage 488
– microvascularisation 487
– projection on the lateral body wall 722
Spleen nodule 487
Splen 485
Splint bone 156, 159
– Lateral 179
Split lines 611
Spot, blind, of retina 572, 577, 580
Spring joint 24
Squama
– frontal 57
– – frontalis 57
– – occipitalis 50
– – temporalis 55
Squamosal 55
Stallion
– apex of the penis 422
– genital organs 408
Stapes 599
Statics 277
Stay apparatus 278, **279**
Stenochia 105
Sternebrae, articulations 106
Sternum 50, 101, **104**, 191
Stifle joint **238**, 266
Stifle region 708, **711**
Stigma 424, 426
Stomach 296, 301, **327**
– blood supply 332, 342
– – complex 335
– – innervation 332, 342
– – lymph nodes 343
– – lymph vessels 332
– – position 333
– – projection on the lateral body wall 722
– – simple 327
Stone
– calcium 17
– – phosphorous 17
Stratum
– corneum 631
– – nervosum retinae 579
– – pigmentosum retinae 579
– – subendotheliale 36
Stress trajectories 10
Stria vascularis 606
Striae, medullary, of the fourth ventricle 510
Stroke 676
Stroma 284
– of the iris 585
Stylohyoid **376**, 566, **602**
Styloid process 146, 216
Subcutis **609**, 614
Submucosa
– oesophagus 326
– stomach 327
Substantia 44
– alba 44
– – medullae spinalis 491
– compacta 9
– corticalis 10
– grisea 44
– – cerebri 502
– – medullae spinalis 491
– lamellosa 10
– nigra 498
– spongiosa 10, 16
– trabecularis 10
– tubulosa 10
Subtalarmus 499
Sulcus
– chiasmatis 56, 60
– extensorius 229
– intertuberalis 150
– interventricularis
– – dexter 443, **444**
– – paraconalis 444
– – sinister 444
– – subsinuosus 443, **444**
– jugularis 677, **678**
– ligamenti accessorii ossis femoris 218
– medianus, dorsal, of the spinal cord 490
– musculi tricipitis 681
– pectoralis
– – lateralis 681
– – medianus 681
– sclerae 573
– septal 69
– septalis 69
– unguicularis 158
– ventricularis 340
Superficialis 7
Superior 7
Supination 153
Surface
– articular
– – of cannon bone 160
– – of splint bone 160
– – ventral, of the dens of axis 87
– auricular, of the wing of
– – ilium 236
– – – sacrum 236
– external, of the face 65
– flexor 181
– labial, of incisive bone 69
– lunate, articular 220
– – craniodorsal notch 220
– palatine, of incisive bone 69
– parietal 181
– popliteal 226
– pterygopalatine of maxilla 67
– serrate 193
– solar 181
Surgery, minimally invasive 693
Sus scrofa f. domestica 6
Suvsdorf space 291, 294
Sustentaculum of talus **234**, 244, 273
Sutura
– foliata 20
– frontalis 57
– palatina mediana 65, 67
– plana 20
– serrata 20
– squamosa 20
Suturae 20
Suture
– flat 20
– foliate 20
– interfrontal 57
– palatine
– – median 65, 67
– – – middle 55
– serrate 20
– squamous 20
Sutures 20
Swallowing 323
Sweat glands 611, 614, **618**
Sweeny 540
Sympathetic chain ganglions 46
Sympathicus 46, 557
– function 47
– nuclei 46
Symphyses intervertebrales 108
Symphysis 20
– ischiatic 215, **218**, 222
– mandibularis 77
– pelvic 20, 215, **218**, 236
– pubic 215, **218**, 222
Synapse 42, 47
– excitatory 48
– intermeural 47

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Synapse
– neuroglandular 47
– neuromuscular 47
– neurosensory 47
Synarthrose 17, 20
Synchondroses 20
– cranii 105
sternales 104, 106
Synchondrosis
– intermandibularis 69
– sternal 104
– xiphisternal 104
Syndesmosis 20
Synovia 17, 21, 23
Synoviocytes 21
Synsarcosis 145
System
– cardiovascular 33
– circulatory 7
– digestive 7
extraleminiscal 509
– extrapyramidal 513
– immune 7, 39
– leminiscal, medial 509
– lymphatic 34, 39
– parasympathetic 514, 560
– pyramidal 511
– respiratory 7
– sympathetic 514, 557
– urogenital 7
Systema
– cardiovasculare 33, 441
– lymphaticum 34, 39
– nervosum 40, 489
– – autonomicum 556
– – centrale 43, 489
– – periphericum 522
– skeletale 8
Systole 37, 446, 452

T

Taenia 345, 352
– liberi 352
– lateral 352
– medial 353
– ventral, of the caecum 352
Tail
– of the epididymis 408, 411, 414
– fascia, deep 113
– of the muscle 29
– muscles of the tail 30, 142
Tail hair 615
Tail region 711
Talus 217, 232, 244, 273
Tapetum lucidum 574, 580, 591, 675
– colours 575
Tarsus 235, 246
– ligaments 244
– synovial structures 269
Tassels 610
Taste buds 305
Tear film 588
Tear sinus 620
Teeth 310, 666
– anelodont 312
– brachyodont 311, 312
– elodont 312
– hypselodont 311, 312
– incisive 68
Tegmentum 488
– of the pons 496
Tela subcutanea 609
Telencephalon 43, 494
Temporal 7
Tendinocyte 26
Tendon 26
– abdominal 139
– – strong 140
– of biceps muscle of thigh 274
– – – bicipital 164
– calcanean, common 254, 256
– central, of diaphragm 135
– of common digital extensor muscle 180, 205
– – lateral 205
– – medial 205
– cuncan 268, 275
– of deep digital flexor muscle 180
– of the ergot 548
– flexor
– – digital
– – – deep 174, 185, 201, 206, 209, 211, 213, 273
– – – superficial 185, 201, 206, 210, 213, 280
– – recesses of the synovial sheat 211
– gastrocnemius 269, 717
– of lateral digital extensor muscle 206
– of long abduction muscle of first digit 201
– of popliteal muscle 241
– prepubic 139
– of superficial digital flexor muscle 180
– tarsal 256
– – of semitendinosus muscle 271
Tendon sheat 28, 201
– of lateral tendon of common digital extensor muscle 205
– swelling 33
– synovial 33
– sheaths of the tarsus 268
Tendons of long digital extensor muscles 202
Tentoriums, pectineal 718
Tentorium cerebelli 515
– osseous 53, 59, 61, 66, 76
Teres
– major tuberosity 151
– minor tuberosity 151
Testis 407
– blood supply 414
– histological section 411
– innervation 415
– investments 412
– lymph vessels 414
– structure 409
Textus
– connectivus collagenosus laxus 8
– nervosus 42
Thalamus 499, 507, 509, 582
– optic 510, 591
Thigh 18, 216, 225
– muscles
– – caudal 256, 258
– – medial 248, 256, 258
– ossification centres 227
Thigh region 708, 710, 711
Thorax 18, 50, 285, 681
– articulations 106
– feline 290
– joints 106
– lymph nodes 479
– palpable bony structures 681, 721
– stratigraphy 681
– visible bony structures 681
Thymus 40, 484
– gland 289
– histological section 484
Thyrohyoideum 71, 603
Tibia 10, 18, 216, 227
– ossification centres 232
– proximal end 242
Tissue
– connective 6, 38
– – loose 8, 14
– – – mesenchymal 8
– – – precursor of bone 8
– – – visceral 283, 284
– – fibroelastic 384
– – interstitial 6
– – lymphatic
– – – of the intestinal wall 333
– – – mucosa-associated 284
– – – of the pharynx 325
– – lymphoreticular, of the sublingual floor 307
– – organ-specific 284
– – subcutaneous 609
Lymphocytes 39, 478, 485
Tongue 303
– dorsal surface 304
– innervation 307
– vascular supply 305
Tonsil
– lingual 323
– palatine 303, 323, 668
– – chronic disease 668
Tonsillectomy 323, 668
Tonsils 323
Torulitactiles 613
Torus 627
– digitalis 635, 655
– pyloricus 328
– unguiae 655
Total hip replacement 718
Trabecula septomarginalis 446, 450
Trabeculae
– of bone 10
– carneae 446
– of the spleen 487, 488
Trachea 130, 289, 384, 680
Tracheotomy 681
Tract 45
– bulbothalamic 509
– corticobulbar 512
– corticonuclear 511
– corticopontine 512
– corticorubral 511
– corticospinal 512
– corticostriate 511
– gastrointestinal 301
– intestinal 348
– olfactory, medial 496
– optic 502, 510, 591
– reticulohypothalamic 582
– spinal, of the trigeminal nerve 490
– spinobulbar 509
– spinothalamic 509
Tracts, spinal
– ascending 493
– descending 493
Tragus 594
Transmitter substance, autonomous nervous system 557
Trigone
– of the bladder 403, 404
– leminiscal 510
– olfactory 496
Trigonum vesicae 403, 404
Trochanter
– greater 217, 224, 238
– lesser 225
– third 225
Trochlea
– dorsal oblique muscle 586, 587
– femoral 227
– humeral 152, 167
– metacarpal 160
– ossis femoris 227
– radial 152, 159
– of the talus 232, 235
Truncus
– corporis callosi 507
– costocervicalis 456
– brachiocephalicus 4
– pulmonalis 34, 445
– sympathicus 47, 294, 557
– – abdominal part 560
– – – cephalic part 557
– – – cervical part 557
– – coccygeal part 560
– – – pars
– – – – abdominalis 560
– – – – cephalica 557
– – – – cervicalis 557
– – – – coccygea 560
– – – – sacralis 560
– – – – thoracica 558
– – – sacral part 560
– – thoracic part 558
– trachealis 35, 40
Trunk
– architecture 277
– bicarotic 456
– bicarotid 459
– bovine 339
– brachiocephalic 449, 455, 45
– – branches 457
– bronchoesophageal 457
– costocervical 456
– fascia
– – deep 113
– – – internal 114
– – – superficial 113
– intestinal 481
– lingual-facial 306, 457, 462, 6
– lumbar 481
– muscles, cutaneous 115
– pulmonary 34, 442, 445, 449, 454, 456
– regions 682
– of the spinal nerves 537
– sympathetic 557, 684
– – vagal
– – – dorsal 558, 684
– – – ventral 558, 684
– vagosympathetic 558, 678
Tube
– auditory 601, 674, 676
– – pharyngeal opening 325, 6 602, 667, 671
– uterine 429, 432, 694
Tuber
– calcanei 234
– cinereum 499, 562
– coxae 98

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

- facíale 65, 67
- ischiadicum 219
- maxillae 67, 70
- olecranal 147, 152, 154, 166
- sacral 215, 219, 222
- spinae scapulae 145, 147

Tubercle
- articular 56, 80, 105
- costal 93, 102, 112
- dorsal 87
- – of the atlas 88, 102
- facial 65
- greater 150, 164, 191, 194, 196
- – of humerus 147
- for insertion of lesser psoas muscle 219, 222
- intercondyloid
- – lateral 231
- – medial 231
- intermediate 150
- intervenous 445
- lesser 150, 164, 197
- muscular 59
- – of the occipital bone 51
- pubic
- – dorsal 218
- – ventral 218
- supraglenoid 147, 151, 164, 191
- trochlear 226
- ventral 87

Tubercles, nuchal 75
Tuberculata nuchalis 75
Tuberculum
- articulare 56
- dorsale 87
- intercondylare laterale 229
- majus 150
- minus 150
- pubicum ventrale 218
- sellae 55
- trochleae ossis femoris 227
- ventrale 87

Tuberosilas
- deltoidea 149
- iliaca 215, 219
- ossis metacarpalis 159
- radii 154
- teres
- – major 151
- – minor 151
- tibiae 217, 228, 712

Tuberosity
- articular 55
- bicipital 226
- calcaneal 234, 235
- costal 215, 218, 222, 237
- deltoid 149, 196
- flexor 161
- iliac 215, 219
- ischial 218, 222, 236, 238
- maxillary 55, 57, 60, 67, 70
- metacarpal 159
- radial 154
- of scapular spine 145, 147, 707
- tibial 217, 228, 712

Tubule, epidermal 633
Tubules
- of bone 10
- renal 395
- seminiferous
- – contorted 409, 410
- – straight 411

Tubuli seminiferi
- contorti 409, 410
- recti 411

Tumours of the brain 676
Tunic
- abdominal 114
- – yellow 139
- albuginecus
- – of penis 421
- – of testis 409, 411
- dartos 412
- vaginal
- – parietal 415
- – visceral 415

Tunica
- adventitia 36
- albuginea
- – penis 421
- – testis 409, 411
- dartos 412
- fibrosa bulbi oculi 572
- flava abdominis 114
- interna bulbi oculi 572, 577
- intima 36
- media 36
- – bulbi 625
- mucosa 283
- muscularis 283, 285
- vasculosa bulbi oculi 572, 574

Two main bronchi 289
Tympanohyoid 72, 602
Type-I collagen fibres 14

U

Uber 619, 625
Udder 619, 625
- bovine 620, 623, 625
- – blood vessels 625
- – – venous drainage 626
- equine 620, 623, 626
- examination 696
- region 711
- of small ruminants 625
- vascularisation 696

Ulna 18, 146, 152, 167, 170, 198, 202, 206
- ossification centres 155

Umbilicus 142, 294
Umbo membranae tympani 675
Unguicula 627, 632
Unguis 627
Ungula 627, 647
Ureter 299, 391, 401
- abdominal part 403
- histological section 403
- pelvic part 403

Urethra 404, 405, 415
- female 405
- male 405
- pelvic portion 415
- penile portion 415
- preprostatic portion 405
- prostatic portion 405

Urethrostomy, perineal 686
Urinary system 391
Urine
- primary 393, 399
- secondary 393

Urogenital system 7, 391, 393
Uterus 404, 430
- bicornis 430
- duplex 430
- masculinus 438
- projection on the lateral body wall 723
- simplex 430

Uterus bovis 299
Utricle 615
Uvea 572, 574, 675

V

Vagina 423, 433, 436
- carotica 678
- musculi recti abdominis 139, 141
- synovialis tendinis 33

Valve
- aortic 446, 447
- atrioventricular
- – left 447
- – right 445
- bicuspid 445, 446
- mitral 447
- pulmonary 446, 448, 453
- tricuspid 445

Valves of the veins 39, 468
Vasa 36, 453
- capillaria 34, 38
- lymphatica 39, 475
- sanguinea 36
- vasorum 36

Vasoconstriction 37
Vasodilatation 37
Vater-Pacini lamellated corpuscles 614
Veil, omental 331
Vein
- angular, of the eye 668
- archeocture 39
- arcuate 397
- auricular
- – caudal 665
- – rostral 664
- axillary 471
- azygous 470
- – left 456, 470
- – right 449, 470, 684
- bicipital 668
- brachial 668
- buccal 669
- capsular 398
- cephalic 190, 471, 653, 668
- – accessory 190, 471, 669
- cervical, deep 471
- coccygeal
- – dorsal 143
- – dorsolateral 143
- – middle 143
- colic
- – left 474
- – middle 474
- collateral, ulnar 653
- coronal 664
- coronary
- – great 444, 451
- – middle 449, 451
- – smaller 451
- corpuscular 398
- cubital, median 698, 703
- digital
- – lateral, plantar 473
- – medial, plantar 473, 653
- epigastric
- – caudal 473
- – – superficial 686, 712
- – cranial 471
- – – superficial 686
- – superficial, caudal 621
- facial 116, 471, 665
- – deep 471
- – transverse 471, 663, 665
- femoral 299, 472, 715
- – caudal, proximal 715
- – deep 473
- gastric, left 332, 474
- gastroepiploic, right 474
- hypophyseal 562
- iliac
- – circumflex, deep 473
- – external 473
- – internal 473
- intraorbital 662
- interlobar 398, 400
- interlobular 362, 398, 400
- jugular 116, 188, 190, 469, 483, 608
- – external 35, 455, 469, 471, 565, 664, 627
- – – blood sampling 470
- – – injection 470
- – internal 470, 678
- labial, inferior 668
- lienal 366, 474, 486
- lingual 116, 668
- – Vilsing triangle 674
- maxillary 116, 471, 665, 669
- median 471, 653, 698, 703
- mesenteric
- – caudal 145, 474
- – cranial 145, 474
- metacarpal 471
- nasal
- – dorsal 668
- – lateral 668
- obturator 473
- occipital 471
- omobrachial 668
- ophthalmic, external 589
- ovarian 424, 440
- perforating, tarsal 653
- portal 35, 332, 345, 357, 361, 362, 366, 468, 473
- – – hypophyseal 562
- pudendal
- – external 473, 621
- – internal 473
- pudendoepigastric 473
- renal 367, 393, 397, 398, 401
- sacral, median 472
- saphenous 719
- – lateral 472
- – medial 473, 715, 719
- of the sole margin 655
- splenic 366, 474, 486
- subclavian 469
- sublobular 362
- temporal, superficial 664
- testicular 442
- thoracic
- – external 668
- – internal 471, 684, 686
- thoracodorsal 668
- tibial
- – caudal 653
- – cranial 473
- ulnar, collateral 668
- umbilical 363, 474
- uterine 440
- vertebral 471

Veins 36, 39, 441, 468
- of the brain 522
- cerebral, dorsal 521

http://www.vet4arab.co.cc/

Veins
- ciliary, anterior 589
- cystic 474
- emissary 471
- epigastric 659
- digital, dorsal 644
- facial 34
- hepatic 296, 473
- interlobular 473
- jejunal 474
- metatarsal 672
- nomenclature 39
- pulmonary 454
- segmental 686
- spinal 520
- stellate 398, 400
- thyroid 505
- trabecular, of the spleen 488
- valveless 469
- vorticose 574, 589, 675

Velum
- abomasal 335
- medullary
  - caudal 407
  - rostral 497, 507
- omentale 334

Vena
- azygos 449, 456, 470, 684
- brachialis 698
- buccalis 669
- cava
  - caudal 34, 136, 286, 291, 299, 345, 352, 366, 397, 444, 449, 455, 471, 684
  - - cranial 34, 444, 449, 455, 469, 471, 473, 483, 684
  - - fold 684
- cephalica 190, 471, 693, 698
  - - accessoria 190, 471, 699
- cervicalis profunda 471
- circumflexa ilium profunda 473
- collateralis ulnaris 698
- cordis
  - magna 444, 451
  - - media 449, 451
- facialis 116, 471, 665
  - - profunda 471
- - transversa 471, 663, 665
- femoralis 299, 472, 715
  - - caudalis, proximalis 715
- gastrica sinistra 332, 474
- iliaca
- - externa 472
- - interna 472
- jugularis 116, 188, 190, 469, 483, 698
  - - externa 35, 455, 469, 471, 565, 665, 677
  - - interna 470, 678
- marginis solearis 655
- maxillaris 116, 471, 665, 669
- mesentrica
  - caudalis 345, 474
- - cranialis 345, 474
- omotrachealis 698
- ophthalmica externa 589
- ovarica 424, 440
- paritalis 472
- portae 35, 332, 345, 357, 361, 362, 366, 468, 473
- profunda femoris 473
- pudenda
  - externa 473, 621
  - interna 473
- renalis 367, 391, 397, 398, 400
- saphena 719
  - - lateralis 473
- - medialis 473, 715, 719
- splenic 366, 474, 486
- subclavia 469
- temporalis superficialis 664
- testicularis 412
- thoracica
  - externa 698
  - interna 471, 684, 696
- thoracodorsalis 698
- tibialis
  - - caudalis 653
- - cranialis 472
- umbilicalis 363, 474
- uterina 440

Venae 39, 468
- ciliares anteriores 589
- cornuales 659
- hepaticae 296, 473
- jejunales 474
- pulmonales 454
- vorticosae 574, 589, 675

Venous system 469
- deep 471

Ventral 6

Ventricle
- fourth 495, 517, 519
- - lateral opening 517
- laryngeal, lateral 380, 383
- lateral 504, 512, 517, 519
- left 34, 442, 446, 449
- right 34, 442, 445
- third 517, 519

Ventricle system 43, 494

Ventricles
- of the brain 43, 494, 517
- of the heart 34, 445

Ventricular cords 34, 445

Ventriculus 327
- dexter 31, 442, 445
- laryngis lateralis 380
- sinister 34, 442, 446, 449

Venulae stellatae 398

Venule wall 36

Venules 36, 38, 468
- postcapillary 38
- straight 399

Vertebra
- antichinal 92
- caudal 98, 100
  - - first 215
  - - fourth 101
- cervical 87
- - first 87, 90, 106, 134, 177
  - - second 87, 89, 106, 134, 177
  - - sixth 91, 109
  - - third 90, 106, 109
- diaphragmatic 92
- lumbar, first 95
- sacral, first 97

Vertebrae 86
- caudal 18, 93, 101, 220
- cervical 18, 87, 91, 222
- coccygeal 101
- embryonic 11
- functional unit 108
- lumbar 18, 93, 93, 95
- sacral 93, 97
- thoracic 18, 50, 92, 93, 101
- - articulations 106
- - equine, thickness of the discs 109

Vertex
- of the cornea 572, 573
- cranial, of the urinary bladder 403, 404
- of the diaphragm 136, 138
- vesicae 403, 404

Vesica
- fellea 361
- urinaria 403

Vessel, postcapillary 38

Vessels 36, 453
- cardiac 449
- lymphatic 35
- - architecture 40
- portal, hypophyseal 513
- pulmonary 385, 398
- retroperitoneal 299

Vestibule 604, 605
- buccal 302
- labial 302
- of the larynx 379
- nasal 371, 667
- oral 302
- of the vagina 421, 433, 434

Vestibulocochlear organ 593

Viborg triangle 674

Villi
- intestinal 344
- synovial 11, 21
- - filiform 22
- - foliate 22

Vincula tendinum 33

Viscera 283

Viscerocranium 63

Vision, binocular 572

Vitamin D 12

Vocalisation 382

Volkmann blood vessel 12, 17

Vomer 54, 60, 69, 373

Vulva 423, 435

W

Wall
- abdominal 682
- alveolar 315
- of the claw 634
- of the hoof 639
- of horn capsule 628, 630
- intestinal 343
- jejunal 344
- lateral, of the skull 51
- nasal, of the skull 51
- nuchal, of the skull 50
- of the stomach compartments 335
- thoracic joints 112
- urethral 405
- uterine 432

Wall horn 646

Wall layers, abdominal 285

White line of the hoof 630, 652

White matter 44
- of the spinal cord 491

Window
- cochlear 597, 605, 607
- oval, vestibular 597
- vestibular 605, 617

Wing of ilium 96, 215, 218, 222, 236

Wings
- of the atlas 87, 90, 106
- of the basisphenoid 54
- of the presphenoid 54
- of sacrum 49, 98, 220, 222

Wolffian duct 438

Wool hairs 615

Wrist joint 23

Z

Zeugopodium 146, 216

Zona alba 640

Zonule, ciliary 575, 577

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