



# ANATOMICAL AND CLINICAL FEATURES OF BRAINSTEM DAMAGE IN DEMYELINATING DISEASES (USING MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS AS AN EXAMPLE)

**Petrova Yurita Yurevna**

*Senior lecturer of the department of Medical biological sciences, EMU University  
address: Uzbekistan, Tashkent  
Chilanzar, Bunyodkor 42*

**Abstract.** *This thesis summarizes the essential topographic anatomy of the midbrain, pons, and medulla that explains why certain symptom clusters occur, then links those anatomical “targets” to typical MS lesion behavior and MRI appearance. It also highlights practical red flags that should raise suspicion for alternative demyelinating disorders such as NMOSD or MOGAD when brainstem lesions are unusually extensive, centrally located, or follow characteristic patterns.*

**Keywords:** *multiple sclerosis, demyelination, brainstem, midbrain, pons, medulla, internuclear ophthalmoplegia.*

## INTRODUCTION

Demyelinating diseases are often introduced as “white matter disorders,” but the brainstem quickly corrects that simplification. Here, demyelination is not only a matter of conduction slowing; it is a matter of losing timing and coordination inside networks that were designed to run with millisecond precision. A plaque in the medial longitudinal fasciculus can turn smooth conjugate gaze into diplopia and disorientation; a lesion involving vestibular pathways can create vertigo severe enough to mimic stroke; a small focus near trigeminal root entry zones can produce facial pain so intense that patients describe it as electrical shocks. MS is particularly instructive because brainstem lesions frequently map onto consistent clinical-radiological syndromes, allowing clinicians to “read” symptoms through anatomy and to verify hypotheses with MRI. [3].

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

The brainstem is a compact integration hub. The midbrain contains nuclei and pathways that coordinate vertical gaze, pupillary reflexes, and key parts of the oculomotor system; it also carries major ascending sensory tracts and descending corticospinal fibers. The pons is densely populated with cranial nerve nuclei (notably for eye movements, facial sensation, and facial motor function), pontocerebellar connections, and vestibular pathways that stabilize gaze and balance. The medulla hosts swallowing and airway-protective circuitry, autonomic centers, and the decussation of critical pathways; it also contains the dorsal vagal complex and nuclei that can make demyelination clinically resemble gastrointestinal disease through nausea, vomiting, or dysphagia. The key topographic message is that brainstem damage rarely presents as a single isolated deficit; it presents as symptom “constellations” because a plaque.



can simultaneously touch a tract, a nucleus, and a nearby connecting bundle. MS leverages this anatomy in a recognizable way: the disease tends to produce localized syndromes where clinical findings and lesion position align with high reliability, which is one reason functional localization remains a central skill in MS practice. [3].

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

MS lesions are inflammatory demyelinating plaques that often follow perivenular organization, and in the brainstem this vascular architecture contributes to recurring lesion topographies that clinicians can learn to anticipate. A practical clinical observation emphasized in recent integrative reviews is that brainstem MS lesions are frequently symptomatic, often producing “irritative” or network-disruptive phenomena rather than complete loss of function, and visible lesions usually persist on MRI even when the acute clinical episode resolves, leaving behind a silent structural footprint. [3]. This matters because a patient’s current examination may underestimate cumulative brainstem burden, while imaging can reveal prior episodes that still shape vulnerability to dizziness, imbalance, dysarthria, and ocular motor fatigue. It also matters for differential diagnosis: inflammatory disorders such as NMOSD and MOGAD can cause more aggressive or extensive brainstem dysfunction, and the overall pattern (size, symmetry, centrality, proximity to the floor of the fourth ventricle, and longitudinal extension) becomes part of the diagnostic reasoning rather than a mere descriptive note. [2], [3].

In MS, midbrain and pontine lesions are classic for ocular motor syndromes. Internuclear ophthalmoplegia (INO) is the emblematic example: a lesion affecting the medial longitudinal fasciculus disrupts coordination between abduction in one eye and adduction in the other, causing diplopia and gaze-evoked imbalance. While the full range of ocular motor phenomena is broad, the practical point is that eye movement complaints in a young adult with other demyelinating clues are not “minor symptoms”; they are high-yield localization signs pointing to brainstem circuitry. Brainstem lesions can also cause nystagmus, impaired vestibulo-ocular reflex adaptation, and gaze palsies that generate disabling vertigo and unsteady gait—symptoms that many patients initially interpret as an “ear problem,” delaying neurological evaluation. Recent brainstem-focused MS reviews emphasize that integrating these localized syndromes with lesion topography improves diagnostic accuracy and helps clinicians distinguish MS from other neuroinflammatory disorders that may preferentially involve different brainstem zones. [3].

Pontine involvement has an additional hallmark: trigeminal pathway symptoms. MS can cause facial numbness, dysesthetic pain, and trigeminal neuralgia (TN). TN secondary to MS is not only a pain syndrome; it is a clinical signature of brainstem pathway involvement, often related to demyelinating plaques affecting the trigeminal root entry zone or intrapontine trigeminal fibers, sometimes with a “double-crush” interaction where neurovascular compression and demyelination act together. A detailed review emphasizes that MS-related TN can be difficult to treat medically due to limited tolerability of sodium-channel blockers



and may require neurosurgical options (percutaneous procedures, radiosurgery, or microvascular decompression in selected contexts).

### CONCLUSION

Brainstem damage in demyelinating diseases is clinically distinctive because of topographic density: cranial nerve nuclei, long tracts, and oculomotor and vestibular networks coexist in a compact space where small plaques can create large functional consequences. Multiple sclerosis provides a particularly useful model because brainstem lesion locations tend to generate consistent clinical syndromes, allowing clinicians to localize lesions through symptoms and confirm through imaging. Recent integrative work emphasizes that MS brainstem lesions are often symptomatic and leave persistent imaging footprints even when acute deficits resolve, reinforcing the need to interpret MRI as a record of accumulated network injury rather than only as a snapshot of today's complaints. [3].

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