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Review paper

Advances in the anatomy, histology, and embryology of the dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*) brain and spinal cord

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Abstract

The dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*) represents a remarkable model of physiological and anatomical adaptation to extreme environments. While many researchers have focused on its unique metabolic and water-conserving abilities, the neuroscience underlying these adaptations are noticeable unexplored. This study reviews the latest findings in the anatomy, histology, and embryology of the dromedary nervous system. It highlights the gross and comparative neuroanatomy, emphasizing distinctive features of the central, peripheral and autonomic nervous systems, including the complex cerebral vasculature. Histological studies demonstrate a diverse array of neuronal and glial cell types in the caudate nucleus, cerebellum and spinal trigeminal nucleus, reflecting advanced neural processing. Furthermore, embryological investigations trace the development of the nervous system from neurulation and the formation of brain vesicles. Finally, this review connects these neurobiological features to the camel's unique adaptations, such as thermoregulation and pain perception, and discusses the implications of emerging technologies such as nanobody-based therapies derived from camelids for treating neurological disorders. This comprehensive overview underscores the camel as a vital subject for neuroscientific research, offering novel perspectives on neural structure, function and evolution in response to environmental pressures.

Keywords: nervous system, dromedary camel, neuroanatomy, neurophysiology



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Introduction

The *Camelini* tribe (Old World camels), which includes the dromedary (one-humped, *Camelus dromedarius*) and the Bactrian camel (two-humped, *Camelus bactrianus*), and the wild camel (*Camelus ferus*), has attracted the attention of scientists for its ability to adapt to the harshest environments (Jararr 2015, Gebreselassie et al. 2019, Cartiaux et al. 2023). This review will focus primarily on the dromedary. Their physiological adaptations for water conservation (Alim et al. 2019), thermoregulation (Faraz et al. 2025) and efficient digestion (Fesseha et al. 2020) are well-documented. However, the limited data on the neuroanatomy and histology of camels has restricted our understanding of how the brain of this animal and its peripheral nerves are organized to meet its physiological requirements (Metwally et al. 2019, Al-Hussain et al. 2022). Recently, detailed studies have identified a deeper level for studying camel neuroscience. Comparative neuroanatomy, in particular, provides a strong framework for understanding evolutionary adaptations by comparing the neural structures of camels with those of other mammals, including ruminants and humans (Al-Hussain et al. 2021, Almasaad et al. 2025). These studies have demonstrated that the camel brain possesses distinctive features in its overall structure, cellular composition and development (Xie et al. 2006, Al Aiyan et al. 2024).

This review aims to synthesize the latest research on the anatomy, histology, and embryology of the dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*) nervous system. It will explore the macroscopic and microscopic organization of the central nervous system (CNS) and peripheral nervous systems, detailing the unique diversity of neurons and glial cells in the main brain regions. Furthermore, it examines the developmental processes, from early neural tube formation to the migration of neural crest cells, that lead to the origin of this specialized system. It also discusses how these neurobiological characteristics help explain the camel's remarkable adaptations to its environment, such as its high pain tolerance and sophisticated ability to regulate body temperature (Mensah-Brown et al. 2006, Pastrana et al. 2024). Finally, this review addresses the emerging clinical and therapeutic implications of camel-derived neurobiology, including the development of novel nanobody-based therapies for human neurological disorders (Lafon et al. 2025, Oosterlaken et al. 2025). By integrating this diverse evidence, this review seeks to establish a comprehensive and up-to-date understanding of the camel nervous system, highlighting its importance as a model for evolutionary and adaptive neuroscience.

Gross and comparative neuroanatomy

The anatomical organization of the camel's nervous system provides the structural basis of its unique physiological capabilities. Recent studies using gross anatomy, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) have begun to map this complex system, revealing both mammalian conserved features and distinct camelid specializations (Ben Khalifa et al. 2019, Cartiaux et al. 2023). Foundational anatomical texts, such as those by Smuts and Bezuidenhout (1987), have provided the essential baseline for these modern comparative studies.

Central nervous system (CNS): brain and spinal cord

The camel's CNS consists of the brain and spinal cord, surrounded by three layers of connective tissue known as the meninges (Jararr 2015). The cerebral meninges in the dromedary were studied by El-Hagri et al. (1976), who detailed the protective layers of the brain. The brain of the dromedary is characterized by a complexly folded cortical surface, with numerous gyri and sulci which, while similar in general pattern to other ungulates such as horses, exhibit unique features (Xie et al. 2006, Al Aiyan et al. 2024). Recently, detailed studies of the dromedary cerebrum identified specific sulci, such as the caudal rhinal sulcus, not previously reported in camel brain research (Al Aiyan et al. 2024). The cerebrum of the dromedary measures approximately 11.23 cm in length, 8.67 cm in width and 5.77 cm in height (Attaai et al. 2020). The brain's external architecture is most similar to that of horses; however, it displays comparatively less overall folding (Al Aiyan et al. 2024).

Major brain structures such as the cerebellum, responsible for motor control and balance, and the hypothalamus, a vital center for homeostasis, show remarkable specializations. The camel cerebellum has a conserved three-layered cortex (molecular, Purkinje, and granular layers) but it also contains large, atypical neurons such as Lugaro and synaromatic cells (Ghaji 1985, Attaai et al. 2020). The suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the hypothalamus, the master circadian clock, is unusually large and elongated in the camel, measuring about 9.55 mm, which is significantly longer than in sheep (2.8–3.1 mm) or humans (1.47 mm) (El Allali et al. 2013). This extensive SCN is subdivided into rostral, main and caudal divisions, a complexity that may be related to the camel's need to integrate environmental cues such as temperature and photoperiod in its challenging desert habitat (Jain et al. 2007, El Allali et al. 2013). Furthermore, recent studies by Lin et al. (2022) have elucidated the hypothalamic osmoregulatory con-

trol center of the Arabian dromedary, revealing specialized neural circuits that govern water retention and thirst in response to severe dehydration. The camel's spinal cord is the longest among domesticated animals, extending from the foramen magnum to the level of the second sacral vertebra (Elmonem et al. 2007). Its internal structure consists of gray matter arranged in Rexed laminae and surrounding white matter organized into funiculi, a pattern consistent with other mammals (Waxenbaum et al. 2023). Elmonem et al. (2007) provided extensive histological findings on the lumbar spinal cord, focusing on its cellular organization and developmental progression.

Peripheral nervous system (PNS): cranial and spinal nerves

The peripheral nervous system (PNS) connects the CNS to the limbs and organs. It consists of 12 pairs of cranial nerves originating from the brain and 31 pairs of spinal nerves emerging from the spinal cord segments (Waxenbaum et al. 2023). The cranial nerves in the dromedary follow the general mammalian pattern, with specific nerves dedicated to sensory functions such as the olfactory and optic nerve, motor functions such as the oculomotor and hypoglossal nerve, or mixed functions such as the trigeminal, facial and vagus nerve (Huff et al. 2024). The trigeminal nerve is particularly important, providing sensory innervation to the face and motor control for mastication (Adam et al. 2016). Its branches, such as the ethmoidal, infraorbital, and mental nerves, are crucial for perceiving stimuli from the environment, including the thorny plants that form part of the camel's diet.

A unique structure in dromedaries, known as the "nasal septal island," has been identified, which is innervated by the ethmoidal branch of the trigeminal nerve. This structure is a specialized patch of sensory epithelium located in the nasal septum. While its exact function remains to be definitively established, it is hypothesized to be a nociceptive organ involved in trigeminal chemosensitivity, particularly pain perception (nociception), which may represent adaptations to inhaling dust and irritants (Abo-Ahmed et al. 2021). The facial nerve innervates the muscles of facial expression, including those that allow the camel to voluntarily close their nostrils, a key adaptation to prevent sand inhalation (Abo-Ahmed et al. 2021). Studies on the distal hindlimb of the dromedary have detailed the distribution of the superficial fibular and tibial nerves, providing an anatomical basis for clinical procedures such as nerve blocks (Allouch et al. 2023).

Autonomic nervous system (ANS)

The autonomic nervous system (ANS) regulates involuntary bodily functions and is divided into the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems (Waxenbaum et al. 2023). Detailed anatomical studies by Nourinezhad et al. (2015) have mapped the cranial cervical ganglion in the dromedary, while Abdel-Magied (1995) investigated the fine structure of its nerve endings and junctions at the ultrastructural level. In camels, the ANS is crucial for regulating homeostatic responses to heat stress and dehydration. During heat stress, the sympathetic nervous system is modulated to reduce peripheral blood flow to non-essential organs while maximizing heat dissipation mechanisms. Conversely, during dehydration, sympathetic activation increases renal vascular resistance to minimize water loss, while parasympathetic tone is adjusted to lower the basal metabolic rate, thereby conserving energy and reducing endogenous heat production (Bouâouda et al. 2014). The sympathetic division originates from the thoracic and lumbar spinal cord segments, with fibers projecting to the sympathetic chain ganglia and prevertebral ganglia (such as celiac and mesenteric) to innervate visceral organs (Purves et al. 2001, Nourinezhad et al. 2015). The cranial cervical ganglion (CCG) is a major sympathetic structure in the neck, providing innervation to the head and communicating with cranial and cervical spinal nerves. The parasympathetic division is primarily mediated by the vagus nerve, which provides about 75% of all parasympathetic outflow to the thoracic and abdominal viscera, including the heart, lungs and digestive tract (Al Aiyan et al. 2024). Other cranial nerves (oculomotor, facial and glossopharyngeal nerve) and sacral spinal nerves also contribute to parasympathetic function. The intricate balance between sympathetic and parasympathetic tone allows the camel to precisely regulate heart rate, digestion and other vital functions in response to environmental challenges (Al Aiyan et al. 2024).

Neurovascular anatomy

The brain's high metabolic demand requires a constant and reliable blood supply. In the camel, this is achieved through a complex and unique cerebrovascular architecture. The main arterial supply comes from the carotid and vertebrobasilar systems, which converge at the base of the brain to form the cerebral arterial circle (CAC), or circle of Willis (Elkhawad 1992, Jessen 1998). A distinctive feature in camels, as in many artiodactyls, is the rostral epidural rete mirabile (RERM), a complex network of arteries located at the

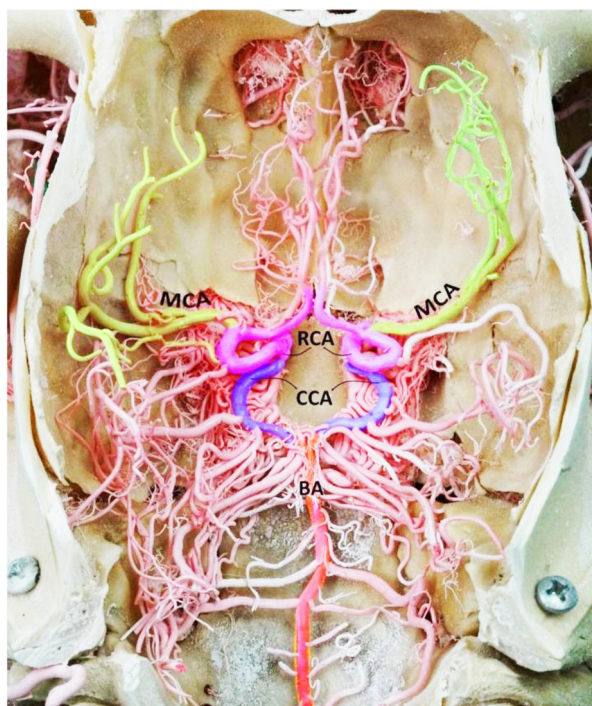


Fig. 1. Dorsal view of the rostral epidural rete mirabile (RERM) with the cerebral arterial circle (CAC) beneath it in the dromedary brain. The CAC is formed by the basilar artery (1), caudal communicating artery (2), rostral cerebral artery (3) and rostral communicating artery (4). Major branches such as the caudal cerebral (5), choroidal (6, 7), and middle cerebral (8) arteries arise from this circle. The RERM (9) is a key structure for cerebral blood supply in camels. Reproduced from Al Aiyan and Balan, *Frontiers in Veterinary Science*, (2024), licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (CC BY 4.0).

base of the skull. Blood from the carotid system passes through the RERM before entering the CAC (Fig. 1). This structure is believed to play a role in selective brain cooling, a vital mechanism that allows the brain to remain cooler than the body core during hyperthermia, thus protecting it from heat damage (Elkhawad 1992, Jessen 1998, Al Aiyan et al. 2023).

Recent studies using vascular casting and imaging have provided detailed maps of the camel's cerebral arteries. The middle cerebral artery (MCA) in dromedaries is characterized by a number of cortical branches different from that observed in other species, supplying extensive regions of both cerebral hemispheres (Jerbi et al. 2019, Al Aiyan et al. 2023). Additionally, previously unreported branches, including the middle frontal and middle parietal arteries, have also been identified, indicating a more complex vascular network supplying the frontal and parietal lobes. The cerebellum receives its arterial supply from the anterior and posterior cerebellar arteries, which arise from the basilar artery (Jerbi et al. 2019). Such detailed anatomical knowledge is essential for accurate veterinary diagnosis and contributes to a broader understanding of the evolutionary development of cerebral vascular systems in mammals.

Neurohistology and cellular diversity

Using histologic techniques in the camel such as Golgi staining, immunohistochemistry and electron microscopy, a series of studies has characterized the diverse populations of neurons and glial cells in the camel brain, uncovering features that may be linked to its evolutionary specializations (Beheiry 2016, Bataineh 2020, Al-Hussain et al. 2022, El-Dwairi et al. 2023).

Neuronal diversity and morphology

The camel brain exhibits remarkable diversity of neuronal cell types, with distinct morphologies observed across different functional regions. Recent comparative studies, particularly those comparing camels and humans, have identified both distinctive species-specific features and shared organizational patterns (Almasaad et al. 2025).

Caudate nucleus

The caudate nucleus (CN), an important part of the basal ganglia that helps control movement and learning, has been studied across species (Foster et al. 2024, Ramu et al. 2025). In both camels and humans, neurons

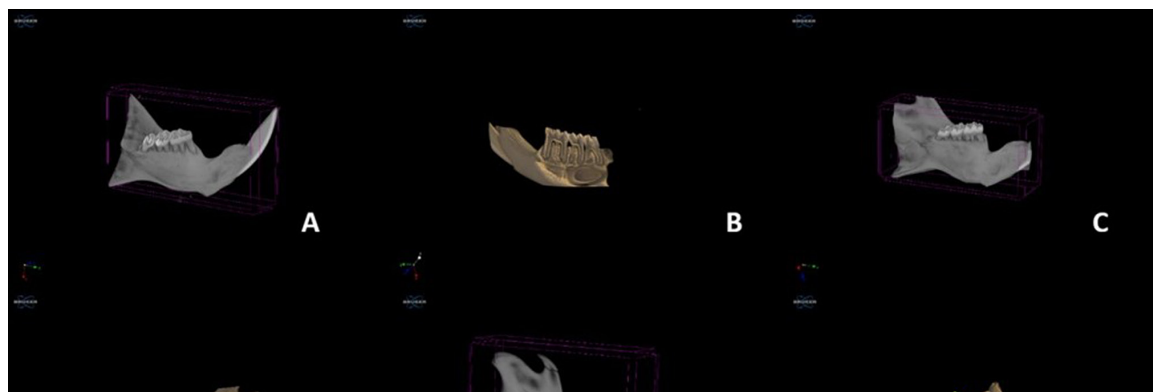


Fig. 2. Histochemical staining illustrates the general architecture of the camel cerebellum. (a) Cresyl violet combined with Luxol fast blue staining. (b) Silver staining demonstrating the cerebellar medullary white matter (W) and the three cortical layers: molecular layer (M), Purkinje cell layer (P), and granular layer (G). Reproduced from Attaai et al., *Scientific Reports*, (2020), licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (CC BY 4.0).

in the CN fall into three main types based on how densely their dendrites are covered with spines: rich-spiny (Type I), sparsely spiny (Type II) and aspiny (Type III) neurons (Almasaad et al. 2025). However, there are clear differences between the two species. Camel CN neurons tend to have smaller cell bodies and simpler branching of dendrites compared to humans. For example, medium-sized rich-spiny neurons in camels usually have 3-5 main dendrites branching up to four times, while in humans they have 4-8 dendrites branching up to six times. Interestingly, camel neurons have a much higher density of dendritic spines (about 20 spines/10 μm) compared to humans (8.3 spines/10 μm), suggesting that each dendrite in camels may support a more complex network of connections. These differences may reflect how CN has evolved to meet the unique functional needs of each species.

Spinal trigeminal nucleus (STN)

The spinal trigeminal nucleus (STN) is a sensory nucleus in the brainstem that processes pain and temperature information from the face (Patel et al. 2025). In camels, which routinely face harsh environmental challenges such as dust and thorny plants, the STN is particularly relevant from an adaptive neurobiology perspective (El-Dwairi et al. 2023). Golgi staining studies have identified at least twelve distinct morphological types of neurons in the camel STN (Bataineh 2020). These include common types such as stalked, islet, pyramidal and multipolar neurons, but also unique forms described as octopus-like, boat-like and lobulated forms that are different from those reported in other species. A striking feature of many camel STN neurons is the abundance of appendages (spines, grape-like appendages) on both their dendrites and somata, indicating highly complex synaptic activity. Further-

more, some neurons exhibit unique dendritic dilations, or swellings, particularly at branching points, which may represent areas of low electrical resistance to facilitate signal processing. Together, these features indicate that the camel STN is more than a simple relay station; it is a sophisticated processor of sensory information, particularly noxious stimuli (Bataineh 2020, El-Dwairi et al. 2023).

Cerebellum

The cerebellum plays a central role in coordinating movement and maintaining balance (Kim et al. 2024, Melka et al. 2024). Histological studies of the dromedary cerebellum confirm the conserved three-layered cortical architecture seen in all mammals: an outer molecular layer, a central Purkinje cell layer and an inner granular layer (Attaai et al. 2020). Purkinje cells, the sole output neurons of the cerebellar cortex, are large, pear-shaped cells with expansive, planar dendritic trees (Salouci et al. 2012). In camels, their somata measure between 19.5 and 36.5 μm in diameter (Al-Hussain et al. 2022; Fig. 2). These dendritic arbors extend throughout the molecular layer and are densely covered with spines, receiving input from tens of thousands of parallel fibers (Attaai et al. 2020, Al-Hussain et al. 2022). Immunohistochemical studies have revealed the distribution of calcium-binding proteins (CaBPs) such as calbindin (CB), parvalbumin (PV) and calretinin (CR) in the camel cerebellum. Calbindin is strongly expressed in nearly all Purkinje cells, highlighting their full morphology, but is also present in other cortical neurons, underscoring its broad role in cerebellar function (Attaai et al. 2020). The presence of other interneurons, such as Golgi cells, basket cells and Lugaro cells, further contributes to the complex circuitry that refines motor output (Abdel-Magied et al. 1995, Attaai et al. 2020, Al-Hussain et al. 2022).

Glial cells: astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and microglia

Glial cells are the most abundant cell type in the CNS, providing essential support to neurons through metabolic regulation, myelination and immune surveillance (Metwally et al. 2019, Busch et al. 2025). Metwally et al. (2019) used immunohistochemistry to characterize the expression of glial cell molecules in the optic nerve, identifying a high density of astrocytes supporting neural transmission. In the camel optic nerve, immunohistochemical studies have identified three major glial subtypes: astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and microglia (Metwally et al. 2019). Astrocytes, identified by the expression of glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP), were found to be the most abundant glial cell type, forming a rich network that supports neuronal function (Salouci et al. 2014). In contrast, oligodendrocytes (expressing myelin basic protein, MBP) and microglia (expressing Iba1) were present at lower levels (Ohsawa et al. 2004, Metwally et al. 2019, Floriddia 2022). This differential distribution suggests a coordinated functional organization, with astrocytes playing a central structural and homeostatic role within the visual pathway (Salouci et al. 2016). In the supraoptic nucleus, glial processes form a dense network between magnocellular neurons and capillaries, a relationship that undergoes seasonal plasticity, likely to facilitate hormone synthesis and secretion in response to environmental demands (Baumann et al. 2001).

Myelination and ultrastructural features of neuronal and synaptic cellular components

Myelination, the process by which axons are wrapped in a fatty sheath, is essential for rapid nerve impulse conduction. In the CNS, this role is performed by oligodendrocytes, whereas Schwann cells carry out myelination in the PNS (Stadelmann et al. 2019). Histological studies of the camel optic nerve confirm that axons are aggregated into fascicles and are myelinated, a feature essential for the high-speed transmission of visual information to the brain (El-Zoghby et al. 2010, Metwally et al. 2019). However, not all nerves in the camel are myelinated; for example, the autonomic nerves in the testis and epididymis are predominantly unmyelinated (Saleh et al. 2002).

Ultrastructural studies using electron microscopy have provided even finer details. These finer details include the specific arrangement of synaptic vesicles, the density of mitochondria within presynaptic terminals, and the structural modifications of the synaptic

cleft during different seasons. In the supraoptic nucleus, synapses show seasonal changes; the length of synaptic membrane apposition is greater in summer than in winter, indicating increased synaptic activity and remodeling in response to seasonal demand (Baumann et al. 2001, Calligaro et al. 2023). In the retina, six types of neurons have been characterized at the ultrastructural level, with detailed descriptions of their synaptic connections (Hahn et al. 2023). A unique finding in the neuroepithelium of the camel's nasal septal island is the presence of cell-to-cell communication networks featuring spine synapses, supporting its proposed role in complex sensory processing (Abo-Ahmed et al. 2021). These ultrastructural insights are vital for understanding the fine-tuned mechanisms of synaptic transmission and plasticity that underline the camel's neural function.

Embryology and development of the nervous system

The development of the camel's complex nervous system follows a series of highly orchestrated embryological events, from the initial formation of the neural tube to the migration and differentiation of specialized cell populations (Farouk et al. 2019). While comprehensive molecular studies on camelid embryology are still emerging, morphological investigations have clarified the key developmental stages. Embryological development in the dromedary follows conserved vertebrate mechanisms such as neurulation and the formation of the five secondary brain vesicles. However, these processes occur along a specific structural timeline adapted to the species' long gestation period of approximately 13 months (360–440 days), allowing for significant prenatal maturation. Early embryonic development of the lumbar spinal cord was specifically detailed by Elmonem et al. (2007), providing a benchmark for neurodevelopmental studies in camelids. These findings highlight a combination of conserved vertebrate mechanisms and specific structural timelines adapted to the camel's long gestation period.

Neurulation and early brain vesicle formation

The formation of the central nervous system begins with neurulation, a process where the neural plate, a thickened region of the embryonic ectoderm, folds and fuses to form the hollow neural tube (Gong 2014). In vertebrates, this process typically occurs between the third and fourth week of gestation (Singh et al. 2023). In the dromedary, early embryonic observations at the

9-mm crown–vertebral rump length stage reveal a pronounced expansion of the cephalic portion of the neural tube (Farouk et al. 2019). This expansion gives rise to the three primary brain vesicles: the prosencephalon (forebrain), mesencephalon (midbrain), and rhombencephalon (hindbrain). These vesicles are shaped by the formation of key flexures, including the ventral cephalic flexure and the dorsal pontine flexure, which contribute to the overall organization of the developing brain. As development progresses, the primary brain vesicles further subdivide into five secondary vesicles. The prosencephalon differentiates into the telencephalon, which will give rise to the cerebral hemispheres, and the diencephalon. The mesencephalon remains undivided, while the rhombencephalon separates into the metencephalon, forming the pons and cerebellum, and the myelencephalon, which develops into the medulla oblongata. In a camel embryo measuring approximately 3 cm crown – vertebral rump length, proliferation of the alar plate within the metencephalon leads to the formation of the cerebellar plate, the precursor of the cerebellum (Farouk et al. 2019). Throughout this stage, neurons are generated in the ventricular zone lining the neural tube cavities and migrate outward to populate emerging brain regions, ultimately establishing the characteristic layered organization of the cerebral cortex.

Neuroanatomical adaptations to the environment

The camel's nervous system is not simply a product of its evolutionary heritage but is finely adapted to the extreme demands of desert life. During intense heat, prolonged periods of dehydration, navigation across vast and often featureless landscapes, and the consumption of thorny vegetation all require a suite of highly specialized neurobiological adaptations that are essential for survival in such harsh environments (Gebreselassie et al. 2019).

Thermoregulation and the hypothalamus

One of the camel's most well-known adaptations is its ability to tolerate wide fluctuations in body temperature, a strategy termed adaptive heterothermy (Gaughan 2011). By allowing core body temperature to rise to approximately 41°C during the day and fall to around 34°C at night, camels minimize water loss through evaporative cooling and reduce heat gain from the surrounding environment (Grigg et al. 2009). This finely regulated process is controlled by the hypothalamus, the brain's principal center for thermoregulation

and homeostatic balance (Mitchell et al. 1987). The hypothalamo-neurohypophyseal system (HNS), which includes supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei (SON), plays a central role in this regulation. Recent investigations by Lin et al. (2022) have further mapped the hypothalamic osmoregulatory control center, demonstrating how specific neural populations integrate thermal and osmotic signals to maintain homeostasis.

These nuclei produce the antidiuretic hormone arginine vasopressin (AVP), which is critical for water reabsorption in the kidneys (Dimicco et al. 2007, Alim et al. 2019). In camels, the HNS exhibits pronounced seasonal plasticity. During the hot, arid summer months, the system shifts into an “activated” state in anticipation of dehydration. Ultrastructural studies have demonstrated increased synaptic contacts and modifications in capillary architecture within the SON during summer, changes that enhance the efficiency of hormone synthesis and release (Mitchell et al. 1987). These structural adaptations are supported by transcriptomic and peptidomic findings showing elevated AVP mRNA levels in summer, along with seasonal modulation of other neuropeptides such as pro-melanin-concentrating hormone (PMCH) and secretogranin-2 (SCG2) (Wu et al. 1990). Together, this proactive seasonal remodeling of the hypothalamus highlights a remarkable neuroadaptive strategy that enables camels to survive in extreme desert conditions (Gebreselassie et al. 2019). Furthermore, camels possess a rostral epidural rete mirabile (RERM), a specialized vascular network located at the base of the brain that functions as an efficient heat exchanger. Through a mechanism known as selective brain cooling, the RERM enables the brain to be maintained at a lower temperature than the rest of the body during periods of hyperthermia, thereby protecting sensitive neural tissue from thermal damage (Strauss et al. 2017).

Sensory processing and pain perception

Life in the desert exposes camels to constant physical challenges, from abrasive sand to a diet of thorny plants. This has likely driven adaptations in their sensory and pain processing pathways. The spinal trigeminal nucleus (STN), which processes facial sensation, shows remarkable neuronal complexity in camels (El-Dwairi et al. 2023). At least twelve distinct neuronal types have been identified, including unique octopus-like and boat-like cells, alongside an abundance of somatic and dendritic spines (Bataineh 2020). These features suggest that the STN functions as a major center for sophisticated sensory integration, rather than merely serving

as a simple relay station. These features may represent an evolutionary adaptation to better process and perhaps modulate the painful stimuli frequently encountered in their environment (Bataineh 2020, El-Dwairi et al. 2023).

Further evidence for a specialized pain-modulation system comes from the superior colliculus, a midbrain structure involved in orienting movements (Gharai et al. 2020). In camels, this region contains a substantial population of neurons immunoreactive for methionine-enkephalin (met-enk), an endogenous opioid peptide critical for pain suppression (Mensah-Brown et al. 2006). These met-enk projections are thought to form the initial components of a descending pain-inhibitory pathway, providing an analgesic system that likely allows camels to endure injury and discomfort while navigating their extreme environment. Camel sensory systems are also finely tuned for navigation and social communication. The nasal cavity is anatomically complex, enhancing olfactory sensitivity, a vital adaptation for locating scarce resources and facilitating social interactions (Ben Khalifa et al. 2019). Notably, the discovery of the “nasal septal island,” a specialized neuroepithelium innervated by the trigeminal nerve, suggests potential integration of olfactory and trigeminal (somatosensory) inputs (Abo-Ahmed et al. 2021). This multisensory processing could provide camels with an enhanced perception of their environment, improving both survival and social behavior.

Future directions and emerging technologies

The study of camel neurobiology is a rapidly advancing field, with emerging technologies providing unprecedented opportunities to investigate the relationships between genes, neural circuits and behavior. Despite considerable progress, many aspects of camelid neural biology remain unexplored, and their unique physiological and anatomical traits are proving to be a valuable source of innovative biomedical tools (Al Aiyani et al. 2019, Oosterlaken et al. 2025).

Genomics and neurodegenerative diseases

The sequencing of the dromedary and Bactrian camel genomes (Jirimutu et al. 2012, Wu et al. 2014, Elbers et al. 2019, Lado et al. 2020, Ming et al. 2020) has provided a powerful resource for understanding the genetic basis of their specialized features (Almathen et al. 2025, Bahbahani et al. 2025). Future research should focus on linking genomic data to specific phenotypic traits of the nervous system. This involves creat-

ing comprehensive databases that integrate genomic information with detailed anatomical, histological and physiological data, an effort that could be advanced through international collaborations such as the Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes (FAANG) consortium (Almathen et al. 2025).

Camels are also emerging as a model for studying neurodegenerative diseases. A novel prion disease, Camel Prion Disease (CPrD), was identified in dromedaries in Algeria (Babelhadj et al. 2018). Affected animals show neurological signs such as nervousness and aggression, with histopathological analysis revealing spongiform changes, gliosis, and neuronal loss in the brain, particularly in subcortical areas such as the striatum and thalamus (Babelhadj et al. 2018). The prion protein (PrP^{Sc}) deposits show unique molecular characteristics compared to scrapie in sheep or BSE in cattle, suggesting a distinct prion strain (Wright et al. 2024). Additionally, another neurological condition, “Dubduba syndrome”, characterized by non-suppurative meningoencephalomyelitis, has been reported, though its viral etiology remains unidentified (Al-Dubaib et al. 2008, Al-Ghamdi et al. 2009). Studying these naturally occurring neurodegenerative diseases in camels offers a valuable opportunity to advance our understanding of prion biology and other neuropathological processes.

Advanced imaging and tractography

Non-invasive imaging techniques are revolutionizing neuroanatomical research. Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) and Computed Tomography (CT) have been used to visualize the gross anatomy of the camel brain (Arencibia et al. 2004, Ben Khalifa et al. 2019). More recently, Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI) tractography has been applied to the camel brain to reconstruct major white matter tracts, such as the corpus callosum, cingulum and internal capsule (Cartiaux et al. 2023). This approach allows for the virtual dissection of neural pathways, providing insights into the brain’s structural connectivity.

Camelid-derived nanobodies for neurological therapy

One of the most promising frontiers in biomedical research is the development of therapeutic agents derived from camelids. Camels, llamas and alpacas produce unique single-domain antibodies, known as nanobodies (VHHs), which are small, highly stable and remarkably specific (Lafon et al. 2025, Oosterlaken et al. 2025). These properties give nanobodies distinct

advantages over conventional antibodies, particularly in overcoming the blood–brain barrier (BBB) a major obstacle in treating central nervous system disorders, as most large molecules cannot reach their targets in the brain (Al-Numair et al. 2022, Zheng et al. 2022). Studies demonstrate that engineered nanobodies can cross the BBB and effectively modulate brain receptors (Oosterlaken et al. 2025). This study demonstrated that a bivalent nanobody targeting the metabotropic glutamate receptor 2 (mGlu2), when administered peripherally to mice, reached the brain and corrected cognitive deficits in models of NMDA receptor hypofunction, which is relevant to schizophrenia. This landmark proof-of-concept highlights the potential of nanobody-based therapies for a wide range of neurological and psychiatric disorders, from schizophrenia to Alzheimer's disease (Zheng et al. 2022, Oosterlaken et al. 2025).

Conclusion

The camel's nervous system is remarkably well-adapted to the harsh challenges of the desert. It is unique among ungulates in its anatomy, cellular architecture and developmental pathways. The camel brain is highly folded, with specialized vascular structures such as the rete mirabile that cool the brain, and a large suprachiasmatic nucleus that likely helps the animal keep time with the extreme arid cycles of the desert. Microscopically, its neurons are very diverse, with unusual shapes and dense, complex connections in areas responsible for sensing and processing the environment, allowing camels to detect, interpret and respond to pain, heat and other challenges with remarkable precision. Developmentally, comparisons with humans and other mammals reveal both shared evolutionary patterns and innovations unique to camelids. Today, advances in genomics, imaging, and molecular tools are opening new windows into this remarkable system. Nanobody-based therapies, derived from camelid antibodies and capable of crossing the blood – brain barrier, are just one example of how studying the camel nervous system could lead to treatments for human neurological disorders.

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Author Declarations

Ethics approval

Not applicable.

Use of generative artificial intelligence

The authors declare that no Generative AI was used in the creation of this manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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