

CHAPTER 2B

GLOSSARY

BONE SCAN

What: A bone scan is a nuclear scan used to examine the skeleton for evidence of abnormalities.

Why: This procedure is much more sensitive than routine x-ray films, but is not very specific; fractures, infection, tumors, and arthritis all appear similar. However, a bone scan can detect these problems before an ordinary x-ray.

How: To start the procedure, the patient receives an IV injection of a radioactive isotope. The isotope is allowed to be absorbed by the body for a period of time, (approximately 2 hours), before the start of the test. Your child should drink several glasses of water while he/she is waiting. During the bone scan, the patient is positioned on his back on a table. An encircling camera moves along the body and records the amount of radiation emitted by the skeleton. The patient is then repositioned on his stomach and sides and the test is repeated. After this procedure is completed, the patient is again encouraged to drink fluids to help excrete radioactive substances. The amount is very small and no precautions need to be taken. The length of the procedure will vary with each child, (1 1/2 to 2 hours). This procedure is painless.

Where: This procedure is done by the Department of Radiology located on the 3rd floor.

Parent's role: Parents can be present during this test. Talking to your child may help pass the time. However, some children are so relaxed that they fall asleep during this test.

BONE MARROW ASPIRATE AND BIOPSY (BM)

What: A bone marrow aspirate and biopsy, (BM), is the procedure used to extract bone marrow tissue for examination. Samples are either aspirated, (pulled back), from the marrow cavity by a large bore needle or surgically removed. The sample of tissue is placed under a microscope and reveals the number, size and shape of blood cells.

Why: This examination evaluates the growth and development of the patient's cells in the bone marrow. This examination also determines the presence of abnormal cells.

How: The patient is placed on a table on his/her stomach with hips slightly elevated or on their side. The site is selected. A preferred site is the "posterior iliac crest" or backside of the hips above the buttocks. A local anaesthetic called lidocaine may be used to numb the area before the procedure begins. This is given as an injection under the skin and does sting. Next, the skin over the bone is cleaned and kept sterile. A large needle is inserted into the bone and the specimen is removed.

Pain during the procedure is usually due to the injection of local anaesthetic. The patient may also feel some pressure and pain as the instrument is inserted into the bone and again as the bone marrow is pulled back into a syringe.

Immediately after the procedure is finished, pressure is applied to the area to reduce any bleeding. A bandage is placed over the puncture site and checked frequently over the next several hours. Mild analgesics such as tylenol should help relieve any complaints of pain.

Where: This procedure is usually done in the 4th floor clinic treatment room.

Parent's role: If a parent is comfortable being present during this treatment, they can encourage their child to lie still for this procedure. This is a good time to use imagery or relaxation techniques if you have practiced these techniques with your child.

CHEST X-RAY

What: A Chest x-ray, (CXR), is a procedure used to produce a photographic image of the inside of the chest.

Why: The x-ray is used to evaluate the heart, lungs, chest wall and chest bone structure of the patient for any abnormalities. Problems such as swelling, irritation, air and fluid accumulation may also be diagnosed.

How: An x-ray machine is used to take front and side view pictures. The technician instructs the patient to take a deep breath and hold it during the procedure. The patient must hold still during the x-ray. This may be difficult for a small child and they may need to be restrained.

Where: Most CXRs are done by the hospital's Department of Radiology located on the first floor behind the emergency room.

Parent's role: Parent's will be asked to step out of the room while the x-ray machine is turned on.

CT SCAN

What: A CT scan is a very accurate computerized x-ray procedure. A CT scan image results from passing x-rays through a specific body area at many angles. This image can be enhanced when a patient is given an oral or intravenous dye containing iodine called contrast. Also, contrast helps distinguish the internal organs on film.

Why: A CT scan is used to diagnose a variety of abnormal conditions such as tumors, cysts, abscesses, inflammation, trauma, bleeding and aneurysms.

How: The patient must lie completely still on the scanner table. The table then moves through an encircling camera, (body scanner), that takes the pictures. Any motion will cause a blurred picture, so sedation may be administered if the child is unable to lie still. Any patient who has received sedation will be monitored closely. Sometimes a second set of pictures will be taken after contrast has been given to the child. The procedure takes between 30 minutes to 1 hour.

Where: A CT scan is performed by the Department of Radiology located on the 2nd floor.

Parent's role: Parents, if they are not pregnant, can be in the room while their child is having a scan. Imagery or visualization can be used during the scan to help your child stay still. Also, it is important to encourage your child to drink plenty of fluids after this procedure in order to excrete the contrast dye.

Caution: Report any allergy to iodine to the radiologist.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAM (EKG, ECG)

What: An electrocardiogram, (EKG), is a test that shows heart rate, cardiac rhythm, and cardiac wave flow. The heart generates electrical impulses during the cardiac cycle. An EKG is a graphic representation of these electrical impulses as they are conducted to the skin.

Why: The EKG is used primarily to confirm normal heart rhythms or to identify abnormal heart rhythms and diagnose defects.

How: Special patches called electrodes or EKG leads are placed on the patient's chest, arms and legs and hooked up to an EKG machine for monitoring. These detect the electrical activity from a variety of perspectives. The patient must lie still without talking while the EKG is being recorded. The procedure lasts less than 5 minutes and is not painful.

Where: Most EKG's are done in the Department of Cardiology located on the 5th floor.

Parent's role: A parent can be present during this procedure to offer support to their child.

ECHOCARDIOGRAM (ECHO)

What: An echocardiogram, (ECHO), is an image of the heart produced by the reflection of sound waves by the heart. This test shows the position, size, and movement of the heart, its valves, and muscle wall. An echo also shows the directional flow of blood within the heart's chambers and great vessels.

Why: An echo, in general, is used to help diagnose any congenital heart disease and defects, clots, pericardial effusion, and changes in cardiac function.

How: An echo works by bouncing sound waves off the heart and creating a moving picture on videotape. This is a painless procedure. The patient must lie still in a darkened room as the ultrasound tech places gel on the chest and moves a probe across the chest. The gel allows for better transmission of sound waves as the test is done. The entire procedure usually takes 20-30 minutes. The gel is cold and may be somewhat uncomfortable but this test is usually not painful.

Where: Echo's are usually done in the Department of Cardiology located on the 5th floor.

Parent's role: Parents can be present during this procedure and can offer support to their child.

LUMBAR PUNCTURE (SPINAL TAP)

What: A lumbar puncture or spinal tap, (LP), is a diagnostic test used to evaluate cerebral spinal fluid, (CSF). After a needle is placed into the spinal column, CSF pressure can be measured and fluid obtained for examination.

Why: An LP is used to aid in the diagnosing and staging of disease. An LP may be used therapeutically to relieve intracranial pressure, to inject therapeutic agents such as chemotherapy, and to administer spinal anesthetics,(for pain control).

How: The patient will lie on his/her side with head tucked down and knees brought up to the chest. However, sometimes a child will have this procedure done while they are sitting on the treatment table. A local anaesthetic may be injected into the skin after the area has been cleaned. A special pressure device enables the anaesthetic to be administered without the use of a needle. Then the spinal needle, a thin needle with a middle core, is inserted into the spinal column. When the needle is placed, the middle core of the spinal needle is removed and CSF is allowed to slowly drip out. This is collected in specimen tubes. It is important to be very still during this procedure. Your child will be encouraged to relax and take deep, slow breaths. Some patients complain of feeling pressure from the needle and are very uncomfortable.

Where: The spinal tap is usually done in the treatment room, in the 4th floor clinic area.

Parent's role: If a parent is comfortable being present during this treatment, they can encourage their child to lie still for the procedure. This is a good time to use imagery or visualization if you have practiced these techniques with your child. After the LP is completed, some children benefit from lying still with their head down for approximately 1/2 hour to prevent a headache. However, some children prefer walking.

MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING (MRI):

What: Magnetic Resonance Imaging, (MRI), is a diagnostic imaging technique that provides information about the body's soft tissues by placing the patient in a magnetic field and creating a picture.

Why: A MRI has the advantage over a CT scan because it provides better contrast between normal and diseased tissue. MRI scanning can also be repeated frequently without any known risk. This allows for serial scanning to access such situations as cancer response to radiation and chemotherapy.

How: The patient is instructed to lie on a table that passes through the magnetic field. The machine is very large and makes noise but does not cause any pain. It is important for the patient to lie still during the procedure. If the patient is unable to lie still, sedation may be given. An IV contrast called gadolinium may be administered during the procedure to help enhance the picture. Gadolinium is especially useful for distinguishing tumors. When the patient is ready to begin, the machine is started, making loud, thumping sounds as it scans. This procedure usually lasts between 30-90 minutes.

There is no special care required for an MRI other than monitoring patients who have received sedation.

Where: The MRI is located in the sub-basement of the hospital.

Parent's role: Parents can be in room while child is having procedure. All metal objects (change, pens belts, jewelry) must be removed before entering room. The MRI room is very noisy and cold. Ask for earplugs and a blanket.

Caution: Cardiac patients with pacemakers may not receive MRIs.

Glossary Terms

13-cis retinoic acid

A drug that is used in the treatment of acne and psoriasis and is being studied in cancer prevention. It belongs to the family of drugs called retinoids. Also called isotretinoin.

abdomen (AB-do-men)

The area of the body that contains the pancreas, stomach, intestines, liver, gallbladder, and other organs.

abnormal

Not normal. An abnormal lesion or growth may be cancerous, premalignant (likely to become cancer), or benign.

adrenal gland (uh-DREE-nul...)

A small gland that makes steroid hormones, adrenaline, and noradrenaline. These hormones help control heart rate, blood pressure, and other important body functions. There are two adrenal glands, one on top of each kidney. Also called suprarenal gland.

antibody (AN-tih-BAH-dee)

A type of protein made by plasma cells (a type of white blood cell) in response to an antigen (foreign substance). Each antibody can bind to only one specific antigen. The purpose of this binding is to help destroy the antigen. Antibodies can work in several ways, depending on the nature of the antigen. Some antibodies destroy antigens directly. Others make it easier for white blood cells to destroy the antigen.

antigen

A substance that causes the immune system to make a specific immune response.

biopsy (BY-op-see)

The removal of cells or tissues for examination by a pathologist. The pathologist may study the tissue under a microscope or perform other tests on the cells or tissue. When only a sample of tissue is removed, the procedure is called an incisional biopsy. When an entire lump or suspicious area is removed, the procedure is called an excisional biopsy. When a sample of tissue or fluid is removed with a needle, the procedure is called a needle biopsy, core biopsy, or fine-needle aspiration.

blood

A tissue with red blood cells, white blood cells, platelets, and other substances suspended in fluid called plasma. Blood takes oxygen and nutrients to the tissues, and carries away wastes.

blood chemistry study

A procedure in which a sample of blood is examined to measure the amounts of certain substances made in the body. An abnormal amount of a substance can be a sign of disease in the organ or tissue that produces it.

bone marrow

The soft, sponge-like tissue in the center of most bones. It produces white blood cells, red blood cells, and platelets.

bone marrow aspiration (as-per-AY-shun)

The removal of a small sample of bone marrow (usually from the hip) through a needle for examination under a microscope.

bone marrow biopsy (BY-op-see)

The removal of a sample of tissue from the bone marrow with a needle for examination under a microscope.

bone marrow transplantation (trans-plan-TAY-shun)

A procedure to replace bone marrow that has been destroyed by treatment with high doses of anticancer drugs or radiation. Transplantation may be autologous (an individual's own marrow saved before treatment), allogeneic (marrow donated by someone else), or syngeneic (marrow donated by an identical twin).

cancer

A term for diseases in which abnormal cells divide without control. Cancer cells can invade nearby tissues and can spread through the bloodstream and lymphatic system to other parts of the body. There are several main types of cancer. Carcinoma is cancer that begins in the skin or in tissues that line or cover internal organs. Sarcoma is cancer that begins in bone, cartilage, fat, muscle, blood vessels, or other connective or supportive tissue. Leukemia is cancer that starts in blood-forming tissue such as the bone marrow, and causes large numbers of abnormal blood cells to be produced and enter the bloodstream. Lymphoma and multiple myeloma are cancers that begin in the cells of the immune system.

catheter (KATH-i-ter)

A flexible tube used to deliver fluids into or withdraw fluids from the body.

cell

The individual unit that makes up the tissues of the body. All living things are made up of one or more cells.

chemotherapy (kee-moh-THAYR-uh-pee)

Treatment with drugs that kill cancer cells.

chromosome (KRO-mo-some)

Part of a cell that contains genetic information. Except for sperm and eggs, all human cells contain 46 chromosomes.

clinical trial

A type of research study that tests how well new medical approaches work in people. These studies test new methods of screening, prevention, diagnosis, or treatment of a disease. Also called a clinical study.

combination chemotherapy

Treatment using more than one anticancer drug.

core biopsy

The removal of a tissue sample with a needle for examination under a microscope.

CT scan

Computed tomography scan. A series of detailed pictures of areas inside the body taken from different angles; the pictures are created by a computer linked to an x-ray machine. Also called computerized tomography and computerized axial tomography (CAT) scan.

cure

To heal or restore health; a treatment to restore health.

cytogenetics (SITE-o-juh-NET-iks)

The study of chromosomes and chromosomal abnormalities.

diagnosis

The process of identifying a disease by the signs and symptoms.

diarrhea

Frequent and watery bowel movements.

dose

The amount of medicine taken, or radiation given, at one time.

drug

Any substance, other than food, that is used to prevent, diagnose, treat or relieve symptoms of a disease or abnormal condition. Also refers to a substance that alters mood or body function, or that can be habit-forming or addictive, especially a narcotic.

endocrinologist (en-do-krih-NAH-lo-jist)

A doctor who specializes in diagnosing and treating hormone disorders.

enzyme

A protein that speeds up chemical reactions in the body.

excisional biopsy (ek-SI-zhun-al BY-op-see)

A surgical procedure in which an entire lump or suspicious area is removed for diagnosis. The tissue is then examined under a microscope.

external radiation (ray-dee-AY-shun)

Radiation therapy that uses a machine to aim high-energy rays at the cancer. Also called external-beam radiation.

fine-needle aspiration (as-per-AY-shun)

The removal of tissue or fluid with a needle for examination under a microscope. Also called needle biopsy.

fluid

Liquid.

gene

The functional and physical unit of heredity passed from parent to offspring. Genes are pieces of DNA, and most genes contain the information for making a specific protein.

hematologist (hee-muh-TOL-o-jist)

A doctor who specializes in treating blood disorders.

high-dose chemotherapy

An intensive drug treatment to kill cancer cells, but that also destroys the bone marrow and can cause other severe side effects. High-dose chemotherapy is usually followed by bone marrow or stem cell transplantation to rebuild the bone marrow.

histology

The study of tissues and cells under a microscope.

hormone

A chemical made by glands in the body. Hormones circulate in the bloodstream and control the actions of certain cells or organs. Some hormones can also be made in a laboratory.

immune response

The activity of the immune system against foreign substances (antigens).

immune system (im-YOON)

The complex group of organs and cells that defends the body against infections and other diseases.

incisional biopsy (in-SIH-zhun-al BY-op-see)

A surgical procedure in which a portion of a lump or suspicious area is removed for diagnosis. The tissue is then examined under a microscope.

infusion

A method of putting fluids, including drugs, into the bloodstream. Also called intravenous infusion.

injection

Use of a syringe and needle to push fluids or drugs into the body; often called a "shot."

internal radiation (ray-dee-AY-shun)

A procedure in which radioactive material sealed in needles, seeds, wires, or catheters is placed directly into or near a tumor. Also called brachytherapy, implant radiation, or interstitial radiation therapy.

kidney (KID-nee)

One of a pair of organs in the abdomen. Kidneys remove waste from the blood (as urine), produce erythropoietin (a substance that stimulates red blood cell production), and play a role in blood pressure regulation.

liver

A large organ located in the upper abdomen. The liver cleanses the blood and aids in digestion by secreting bile.

lymph node (limf node)

A rounded mass of lymphatic tissue that is surrounded by a capsule of connective tissue. Lymph nodes filter lymph (lymphatic fluid), and they store lymphocytes (white blood cells). They are located along lymphatic vessels. Also called a lymph gland.

medical oncologist (MEH-dih-kul on-KOL-oh-jist)

A doctor who specializes in diagnosing and treating cancer using chemotherapy, hormonal therapy, and biological therapy. A medical oncologist often is the main health care provider for someone who has cancer. A medical oncologist also gives supportive care and may coordinate treatment given by other specialists.

metastasize (meh-TAS-ta-size)

To spread from one part of the body to another. When cancer cells metastasize and form secondary tumors, the cells in the metastatic tumor are like those in the original (primary) tumor.

monoclonal antibody (MAH-no-KLO-nul AN-tih-BAH-dee)

A laboratory-produced substance that can locate and bind to cancer cells wherever they are in the body. Many monoclonal antibodies are used in cancer detection or therapy; each one recognizes a different protein on certain cancer cells. Monoclonal antibodies can be used alone, or they can be used to deliver drugs, toxins, or radioactive material directly to a tumor.

MRI

Magnetic resonance imaging (mag-NET-ik REZ-o-nans IM-a-jing). A procedure in which radio waves and a powerful magnet linked to a computer are used to create detailed pictures of areas inside the body. These pictures can show the difference between normal and diseased tissue. MRI makes better images of organs and soft tissue than other scanning techniques, such as CT or x-ray. MRI is especially useful for imaging the brain, spine, the soft tissue of joints, and the inside of bones. Also called nuclear magnetic resonance imaging (NMRI).

needle biopsy

The removal of tissue or fluid with a needle for examination under a microscope. Also called fine-needle aspiration.

nerve

A bundle of fibers that receives and sends messages between the body and the brain. The messages are sent by chemical and electrical changes in the cells that make up the nerves.

neuroblastoma

Cancer that arises in immature nerve cells and affects mostly infants and children.

neurological exam

A series of questions and tests to check brain, spinal cord, and nerve function. The exam checks a person's mental status, coordination, ability to walk, and how well the muscles, sensory systems, and deep tendon reflexes work.

neurologist (noo-ROL-o-jist)

A doctor who specializes in the diagnosis and treatment of disorders of the nervous system.

oncologist (on-KOL-o-jist)

A doctor who specializes in treating cancer. Some oncologists specialize in a particular type of cancer treatment. For example, a radiation oncologist specializes in treating cancer with radiation.

organ

A part of the body that performs a specific function. For example, the heart is an organ.

paralysis (puh-RAL-ih-siss)

Loss of ability to move all or part of the body.

pathologist (pa-THOL-o-jist)

A doctor who identifies diseases by studying cells and tissues under a microscope.

PDQ

Physician Data Query. PDQ is an online database developed and maintained by the National Cancer Institute. Designed to make the most current, credible, and accurate cancer information available to health professionals and the public, PDQ contains peer-reviewed summaries on cancer treatment, screening, prevention, genetics, complementary and alternative medicine, and supportive care; a registry of cancer clinical trials from around the world; and directories of physicians, professionals who provide genetics services, and organizations that provide cancer care. Most of this information, and more specific information about PDQ, can be found on the NCI's Web site at <http://www.cancer.gov/cancertopics/pdq>.

pediatric (pee-dee-AT-rik)

Having to do with children.

pediatric nurse specialist

A registered nurse with an advanced degree in nursing who specializes in the care of children.

pediatric surgeon

A surgeon who specializes in the treatment of children. A surgeon removes or repairs a part of the body by operating on the patient.

petechiae (peh-TEH-kee-a)

Pinpoint, unraised, round red spots under the skin caused by bleeding.

physical examination

An exam of the body to check for general signs of disease.

prognosis (prog-NO-sis)

The likely outcome or course of a disease; the chance of recovery or recurrence.

progressive disease

Cancer that is growing, spreading, or getting worse.

protein (PRO-teen)

A molecule made up of amino acids that are needed for the body to function properly. Proteins are the basis of body structures such as skin and hair and of substances such as enzymes, cytokines, and antibodies.

radiation (ray-dee-AY-shun)

Energy released in the form of particles or electromagnetic waves. Common sources of radiation include radon gas, cosmic rays from outer space, and medical x-rays.

radiation oncologist (ray-dee-AY-shun on-KOL-o-jist)

A doctor who specializes in using radiation to treat cancer.

radiation therapy (ray-dee-AY-shun THER-ah-pee)

The use of high-energy radiation from x-rays, gamma rays, neutrons, and other sources to kill cancer cells and shrink tumors. Radiation may come from a machine outside the body (external-beam radiation therapy), or it may come from radioactive material placed in the body near cancer cells (internal radiation therapy, implant radiation, or brachytherapy). Systemic radiation therapy uses a radioactive substance, such as a radiolabeled monoclonal antibody, that circulates throughout the body. Also called radiotherapy.

radioactive (RAY-dee-o-AK-tiv)

Giving off radiation.

radioactive iodine (RAY-dee-o-AK-tiv EYE-uh-dine)

A radioactive form of iodine, often used for imaging tests or as a treatment for thyroid cancer and certain other cancers. For imaging tests, the patient takes a small dose of radioactive iodine that collects in thyroid cells and certain kinds of tumors and can be detected by a scanner. For treatment of thyroid cancer, the patient takes a large dose of radioactive iodine, which kills thyroid cells. Radioactive iodine is also used in internal radiation therapy for prostate cancer, intraocular (eye) melanoma, and carcinoid tumors. The radioactive iodine is given by infusion or sealed in seeds, which are placed in or near the tumor to kill cancer cells.

radioactive seed

A small, radioactive pellet that is placed in or near a tumor. Cancer cells are killed by the energy given off as the radioactive material decays (breaks down).

radionuclide scanning (RAY-dee-oh-NOO-klide)

A test that produces pictures (scans) of internal parts of the body. The person is given an injection or swallows a small amount of radioactive material; a machine called a scanner then measures the radioactivity in certain organs.

recurrence

Cancer that has returned after a period of time during which the cancer could not be detected. The cancer may come back to the same place as the original (primary) tumor or to another place in the body. Also called recurrent cancer.

recurrent cancer

Cancer that has returned after a period of time during which the cancer could not be detected. The cancer may come back to the same place as the original (primary) tumor or to another place in the body. Also called recurrence.

regional chemotherapy (REE-juh-nul KEE-moh-THAYR-uh-pee)

Treatment with anticancer drugs directed to a specific area of the body.

rehabilitation specialist

A healthcare professional who helps people recover from an illness or injury and return to daily life. Examples of rehabilitation specialists are physical therapists and occupational therapists.

scrotum (SKRO-tum)

In males, the external sac that contains the testicles.

social worker

A professional trained to talk with people and their families about emotional or physical needs, and to find them support services.

sonogram (SON-o-gram)

A computer picture of areas inside the body created by bouncing high-energy sound waves (ultrasound) off internal tissues or organs. Also called an ultrasonogram.

spinal cord

A column of nerve tissue that runs from the base of the skull down the back. It is surrounded by three protective membranes, and is enclosed within the vertebrae (back bones). The spinal cord and the brain make up the central nervous system, and spinal cord nerves carry most messages between the brain and the rest of the body.

stage

The extent of a cancer in the body. Staging is usually based on the size of the tumor, whether lymph nodes contain cancer, and whether the cancer has spread from the original site to other parts of the body.

staging (STAY-jing)

Performing exams and tests to learn the extent of the cancer within the body, especially whether the disease has spread from the original site to other parts of the body. It is important to know the stage of the disease in order to plan the best treatment.

standard therapy

In medicine, treatment that experts agree is appropriate, accepted, and widely used. Health care providers are obligated to provide patients with standard therapy. Also called standard of care or best practice.

stem cell

A cell from which other types of cells develop. Blood cells develop from blood-forming stem cells.

stem cell transplantation

A method of replacing immature blood-forming cells that were destroyed by cancer treatment. The stem cells are given to the person after treatment to help the bone marrow recover and continue producing healthy blood cells.

stomach

An organ that is part of the digestive system. The stomach helps digest food by mixing it with digestive juices and churning it into a thin liquid.

surgery (SER-juh-ree)

A procedure to remove or repair a part of the body or to find out whether disease is present. An operation.

symptom

An indication that a person has a condition or disease. Some examples of symptoms are headache, fever, fatigue, nausea, vomiting, and pain.

systemic chemotherapy (sis-TEH-mik kee-moh-THAYR-uh-pee)

Treatment with anticancer drugs that travel through the blood to cells all over the body.

therapy

Treatment.

tissue (TISH-oo)

A group or layer of cells that work together to perform a specific function.

toxin

A poison produced by certain animals, plants, or bacteria.

tumor (TOO-mer)

An abnormal mass of tissue that results when cells divide more than they should or do not die when they should. Tumors may be benign (not cancerous), or malignant (cancerous). Also called neoplasm.

ultrasound

A procedure in which high-energy sound waves (ultrasound) are bounced off internal tissues or organs and make echoes. The echo patterns are shown on the screen of an ultrasound machine, forming a picture of body tissues called a sonogram. Also called ultrasonography.

urine (YOOR-in)