جامعة الفرات الاوسط التقنية

المعهد التقني المسيب

قسم تقنيات التمريض

المصطلحات الطبية

Medical Terminology

FIRST STAGE

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"Understanding the language of medicine is the first step to mastering it."

L1

Introduction to Medical Terminology

Learning objectives

- Define “medical terminology” and explain why standard terms are essential in healthcare.
- Describe the historical roots (Latin & Greek) of many medical terms.
- Identify the basic parts of medical words (root, prefix, suffix, combining vowel).

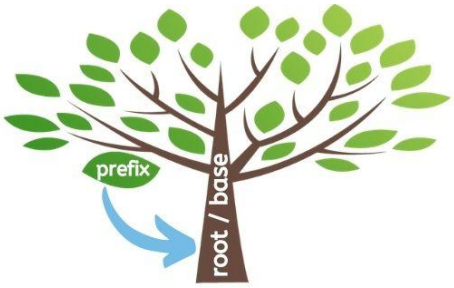
Medical terminology is the specialized language used by health professionals to describe the human body, its functions, conditions, and procedures with clarity and precision.

Many terms in medicine come from Greek and Latin because those languages provided a stable vocabulary over centuries. Understanding the origins helps students decode unfamiliar words: if you know that “cardi-” relates to the heart and “-itis” means inflammation, you can interpret “carditis” as inflammation of the heart.

Medical words are built from **parts**: a word root (core meaning, often an organ or tissue), prefixes (modify or add information such as location, number, or time), suffixes (indicate procedure, condition, or disease), and combining vowels (usually “o”) that join parts smoothly. Mastery of these building blocks dramatically reduces memorization and improves communication, documentation, and patient safety.

Key terms

root, prefix, suffix, combining form, combining vowel, eponym, abbreviation.



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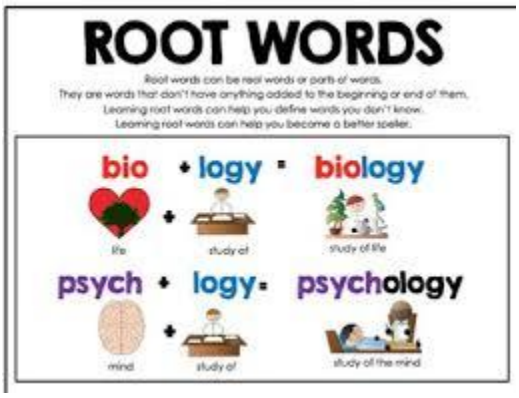


What are some examples of Greek and Latin roots?

Greek Root Words

Root	Meaning	Examples
chrome	color	monochromatic, phytochrome
chrono	time	chronic, synchronize, chronicle
dyna	power	dynasty, dynamic, dynamite
geo	earth	geography, geology, geometry

GREEK ROOT	MEANING	ENGLISH WORD
biblio	books, of books	bibliography
gram	writing	grammar
ideo	idea	ideology

LATIN ROOT	MEANING	ENGLISH WORD
amic	friendly	amicable
lingu	language	linguistics
not	note, paper	notable

YOUR

Quick review questions

1. Break down “gastroenteritis.”
2. What does the suffix “-ectomy” mean?
3. Why are Greek/Latin roots helpful?
4. Give an example of a combining form.

L2

Basic Elements of a Medical Word

(Word Root & Combining Form)

Learning objectives

- Identify common word roots for body systems and organs.
- Explain combining forms and the role of the combining vowel.
- Apply rules for joining word parts.

A word root contains the essential meaning of a medical term and usually refers to an anatomical structure (e.g., “gastr-” = stomach). A combining form is the word root plus a combining vowel (commonly “o”) used when attaching suffixes or other roots, e.g., “gastr/o.”

The combining vowel is used according to pronunciation rules: if a suffix begins with a consonant, keep the “o” (gastro + -logy → gastroenterology). If the suffix starts with a vowel, the combining vowel may be dropped (cardi + -itis → carditis is uncommon; usually cardi + o + itis → cardi/o/itis → carditis spelled as myocarditis — accept irregularities).

Plural forms follow Latin/Greek rules (e.g., “vertebra”→“vertebrae”, “bacterium”→“bacteria”) — students should learn common irregulars.

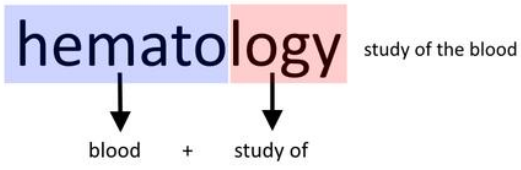
Practicing decomposition of terms into roots and combining forms improves reading efficiency.

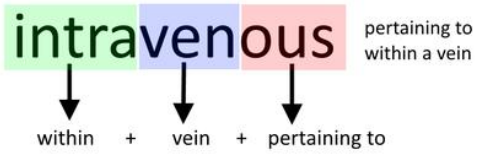
Key terms

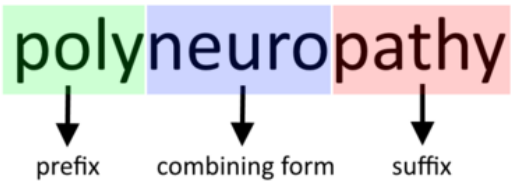
gastro-,
cardi-,
neur-,
hepat-,
arthr-,
-ology,
combining vowel.

TABLE 1-1 COMMON ROOTS OF MEDICAL TERMS

Root	Refers to
card/i/o	heart
derm/o, dermat/o	skin
ger/o, geront/o	aged
hem/o, hemat/o	blood
neur/o	a nerve cell, the nervous system
oste/o	bone
path/o	disease
psych/o	mind







Quick review questions

1. What is the combining form of “liver”?
2. Form a term for “inflammation of the liver.”
3. Give plural of “ovum.”
4. When do you keep the combining vowel?

L3

Common Prefixes and Suffixes

Learning objectives

- Recognize common prefixes that indicate position, number, direction, and negation.
- Recognize common suffixes that indicate disease, procedure, or condition.
- Be able to parse terms using prefixes and suffixes.

Prefixes add detail to a medical word describing location (e.g., “epi-” above), number (“bi-” two), direction (“retro-” backward), color or condition, and negation (“a-/an-”, meaning without).

Suffixes generally indicate a condition, disease, procedure, or specialty: “-itis” (inflammation), “-ectomy” (surgical removal), “-plasty” (surgical repair), “-ology” (study of). Knowing common prefixes and suffixes allows you to interpret many terms quickly.

For example, “tachycardia” (tachy- = fast, cardi- = heart, -ia = condition) means a fast heart rate. Students should practice creating and deconstructing words using prefix + root + suffix patterns and learn groups of suffixes used for surgical procedures, diagnostic procedures, and pathological conditions.

Key terms (examples)

Prefixes: a-/an-, hypo-, hyper-, tachy-, brady-, peri-, intra-, inter-, sub-, supra-

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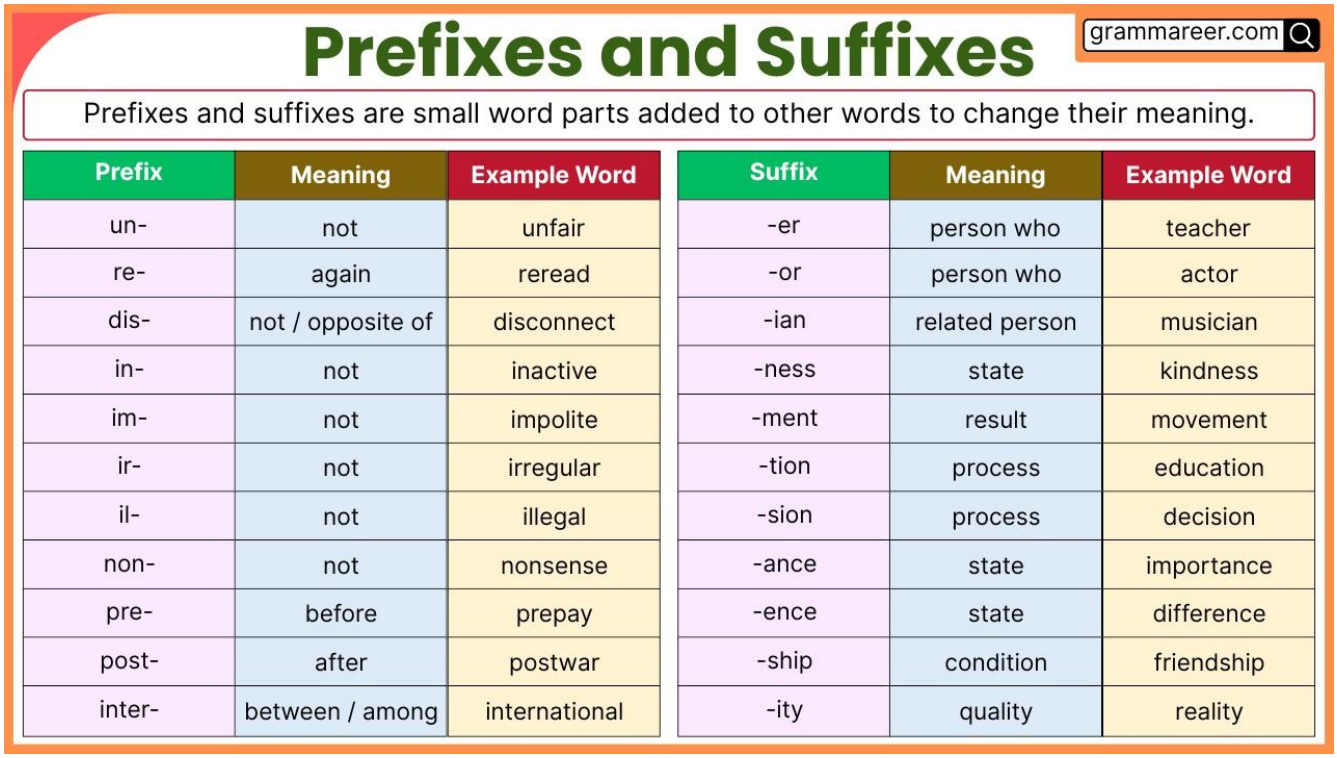
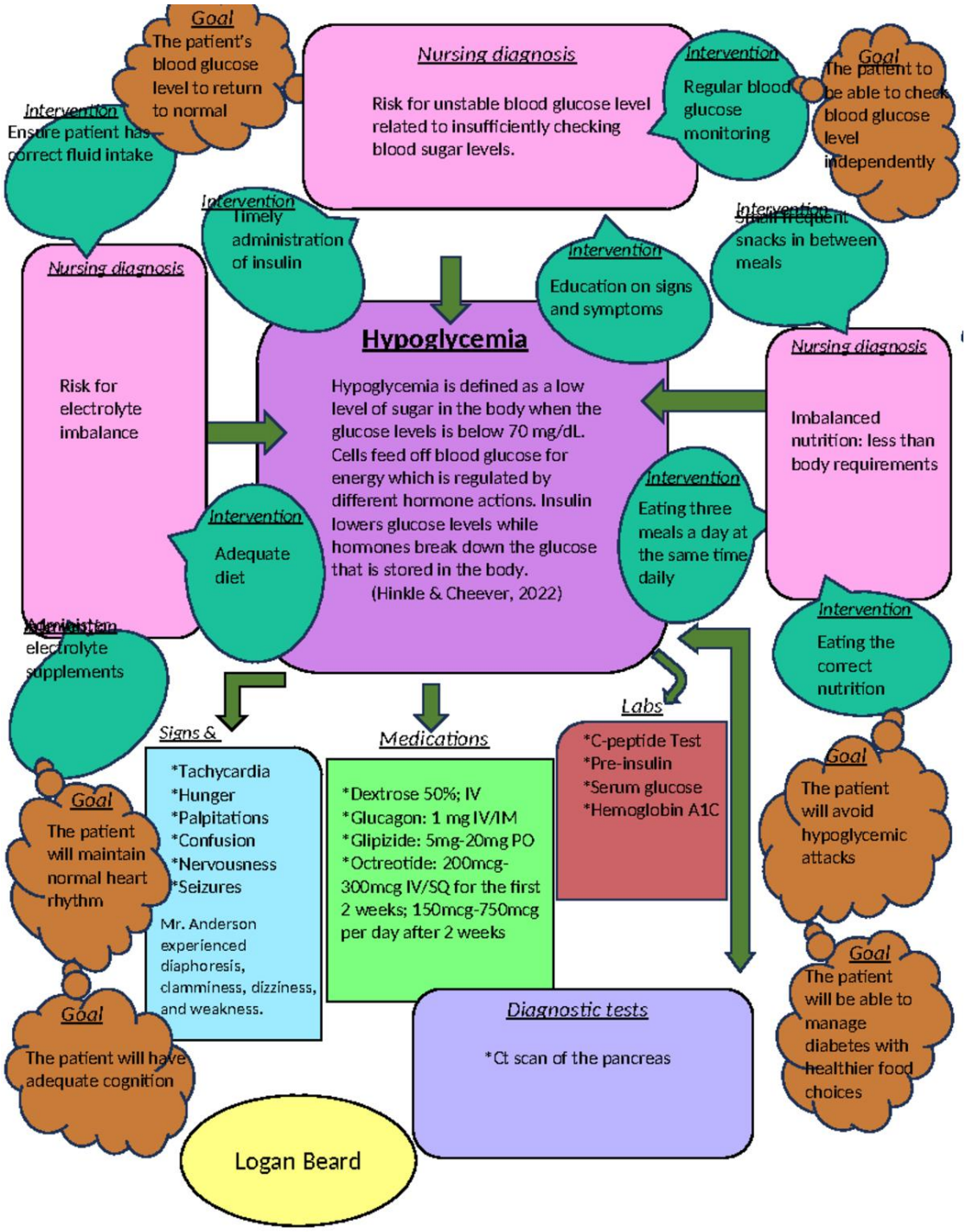
Suffixes: -itis, -osis, -oma, -ectomy, -otomy, -plasty, -graphy, -gram, -algia.



Prefix	Meaning	Example Word
un-	not	unfair
re-	again	reread
dis-	not / opposite of	disconnect
in-	not	inactive
im-	not	impolite
ir-	not	irregular
il-	not	illegal
non-	not	nonsense
pre-	before	prepay
post-	after	postwar
inter-	between / among	international

Suffix	Meaning	Example Word
-er	person who	teacher
-or	person who	actor
-ian	related person	musician
-ness	state	kindness
-ment	result	movement
-tion	process	education
-sion	process	decision
-ance	state	importance
-ence	state	difference
-ship	condition	friendship
-ity	quality	reality


Goal
The patient's blood glucose level to return to normal
Nursing diagnosis
Risk for unstable blood glucose level related to insufficiently checking blood sugar levels.
Intervention
Regular blood glucose monitoring
Goal
The patient to be able to check blood glucose level independently
Intervention
Ensure patient has correct fluid intake
Intervention
Timely administration of insulin
Intervention
Education on signs and symptoms
Intervention
Small frequent snacks in between meals
Nursing diagnosis
Risk for electrolyte imbalance
Hypoglycemia
Hypoglycemia is defined as a low level of sugar in the body when the glucose levels is below 70 mg/dL. Cells feed off blood glucose for energy which is regulated by different hormone actions. Insulin lowers glucose levels while hormones break down the glucose that is stored in the body.
(Hinkle & Cheever, 2022)
Nursing diagnosis
Imbalanced nutrition: less than body requirements
Intervention
Adequate diet
Intervention
Eating three meals a day at the same time daily
Intervention
Eating the correct nutrition
Administer electrolyte supplements
Signs &
*Tachycardia
*Hunger
*Palpitations
*Confusion
*Nervousness
*Seizures
Mr. Anderson experienced diaphoresis, clamminess, dizziness, and weakness.
Medications
*Dextrose 50%; IV
*Glucagon: 1 mg IV/IM
*Glipizide: 5mg-20mg PO
*Octreotide: 200mcg-300mcg IV/SQ for the first 2 weeks; 150mcg-750mcg per day after 2 weeks
Labs
*C-peptide Test
*Pre-insulin
*Serum glucose
*Hemoglobin A1C
Goal
The patient will maintain normal heart rhythm
Goal
The patient will avoid hypoglycemic attacks
Goal
The patient will have adequate cognition
Diagnostic tests
*Ct scan of the pancreas
Goal
The patient will be able to manage diabetes with healthier food choices
Logan Beard

Quick review questions

1. What does “hypo-” mean in “hypoglycemia”?
2. Break down “appendectomy.”
3. Which suffix indicates “pain”?
4. Give a word meaning “enlargement of the liver.”

L4

Overview of Anatomy and Physiology

Learning objectives

- Describe the levels of organization from cells to systems.
- Distinguish anatomy (structure) from physiology (function).
- Relate basic physiological processes to medical terminology.

Anatomy studies the structure of body parts and their relationships; physiology studies how these parts function.

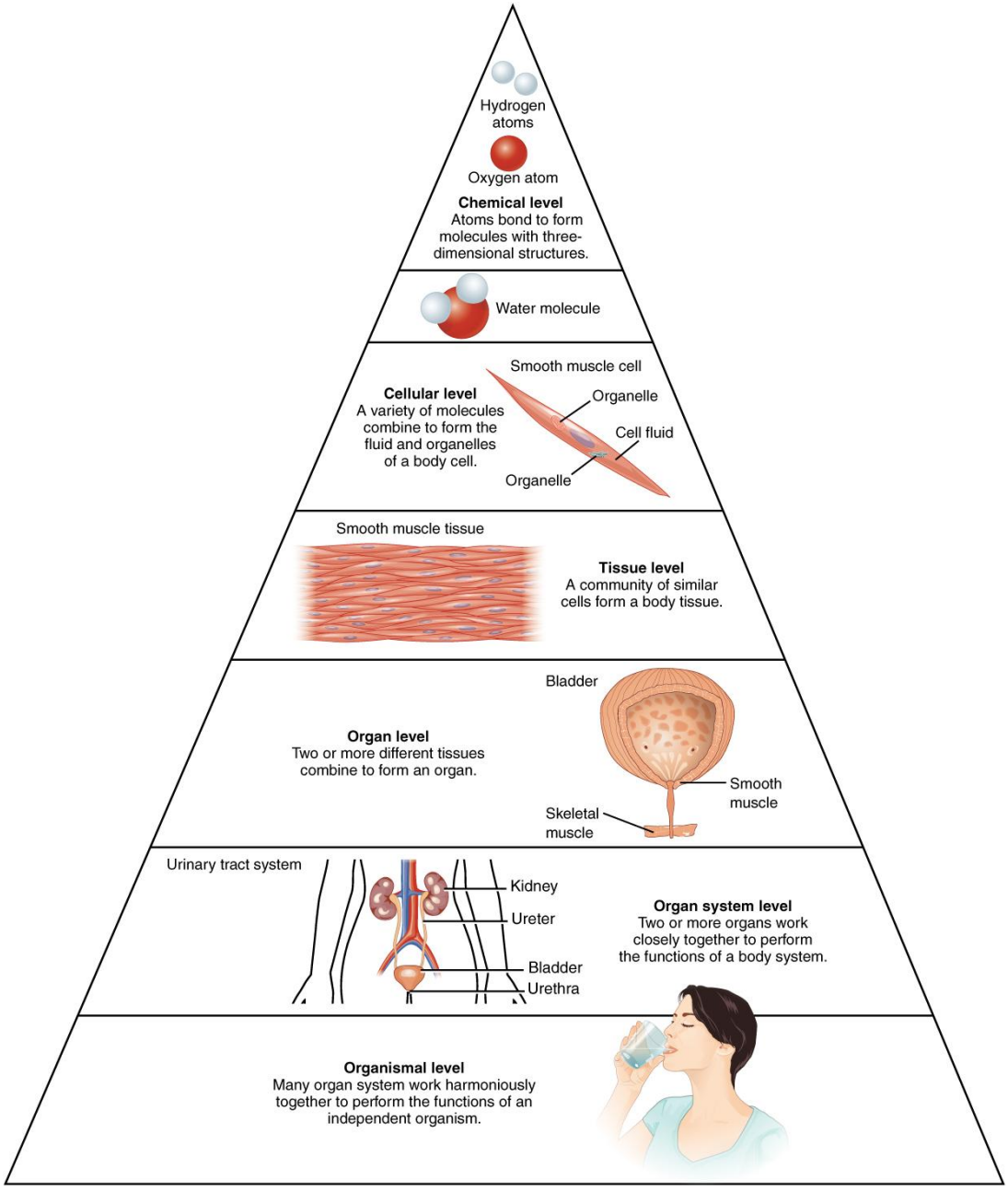
The body is organized into levels: chemical → cellular → tissue → organ → organ system → organism.

Tissues are grouped into four major types: epithelial, connective, muscle, and nervous. Understanding the anatomy (e.g., the structure of the nephron) and the physiological role (e.g., filtration, reabsorption) helps students understand why particular terms exist and how conditions affect function.

For instance, “ischemia” refers to reduced blood flow (physiological consequence) and is often tied to structural blockage in vessels (anatomical cause). Emphasize homeostasis — the body’s dynamic equilibrium — and how many clinical terms describe disruptions to homeostasis.

Key terms

cell, tissue, organ, organ system, homeostasis, epithelium, connective tissue.

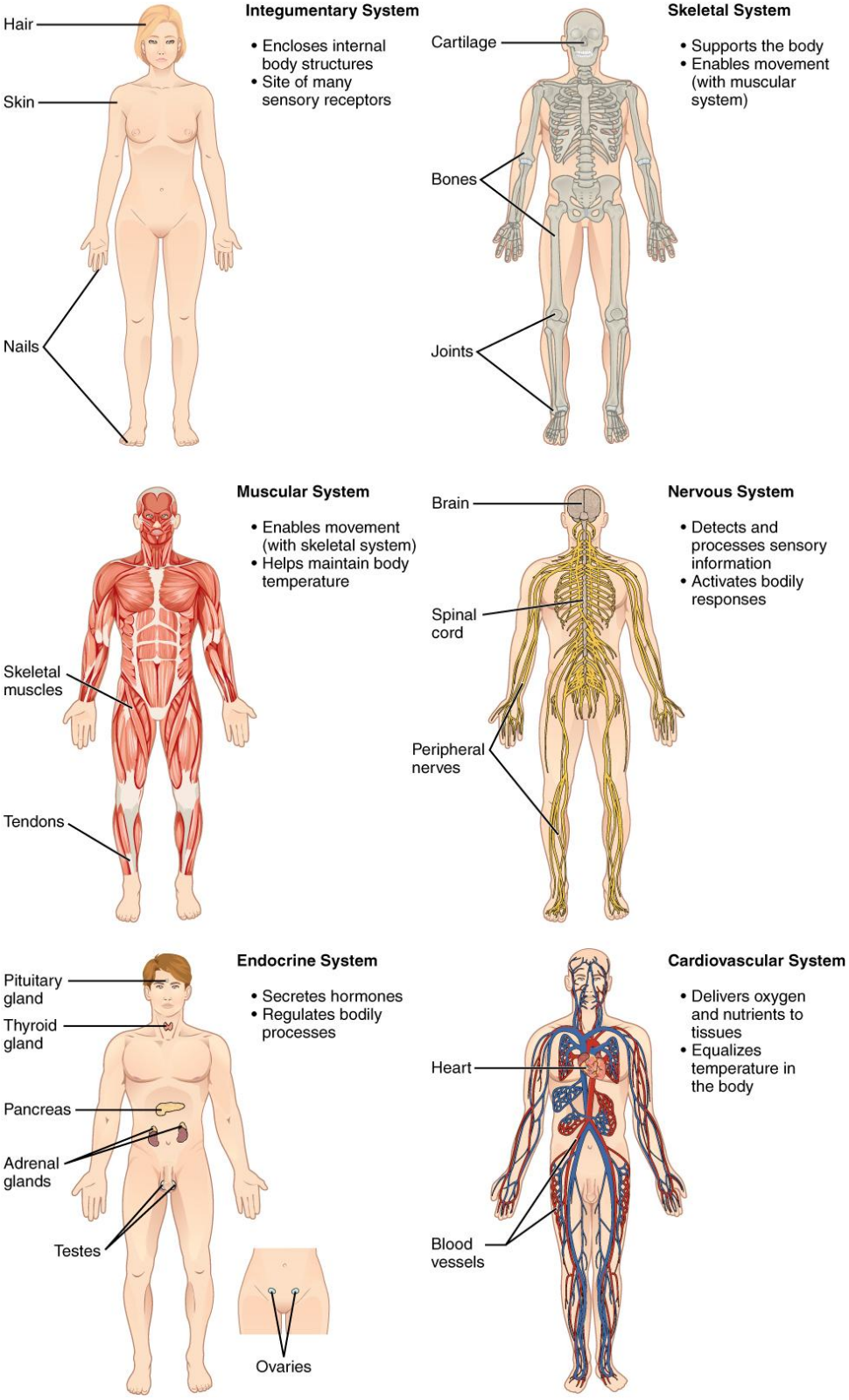


Levels of Structural Organization of the Human Body

The Levels of Organization

To study the chemical level of organization, scientists consider the simplest building blocks of matter: subatomic particles, atoms and molecules. The smallest unit of any of these pure substances (elements) is an atom. Atoms are made up of subatomic particles such as the proton, electron and neutron. Two or more atoms combine to form a molecule, such as the water molecules, proteins, and sugars found in living things. Molecules are the chemical building blocks of all body structures.

A cell is the smallest independently functioning unit of a living organism. Even bacteria, which are extremely small, independently-living organisms, have a cellular structure. Each bacterium is a single cell. All living structures of human anatomy contain cells, and almost all functions of human physiology are performed in cells or are initiated by cells.



Organ Systems of the Human Body

Organs that work together are grouped into organ systems.

The **lymphatic system** returns fluid to the blood and defends against pathogens. The lymphatic system includes the thymus in the chest, the spleen in the abdomen, the lymphatic vessels that spread throughout the body, and the lymph nodes distributed along the lymphatic vessels.

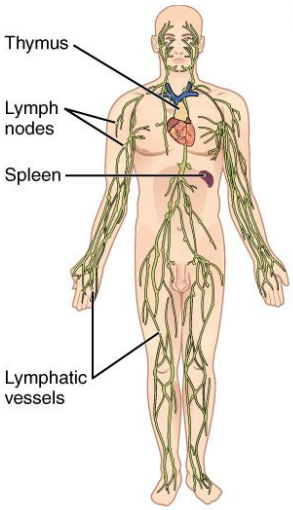
The **respiratory system** removes carbon dioxide from the body and delivers oxygen to the blood. The respiratory system includes the nasal passages, the trachea, and the lungs.

The **digestive system** processes food for use by the body and removes wastes from undigested food. The digestive system includes the stomach, the liver, the gall bladder (connected to the liver), the large intestine, and the small intestine.

The **urinary system** controls water balance in the body and removes and excretes waste from the blood. The urinary system includes the kidneys and the urinary bladder.

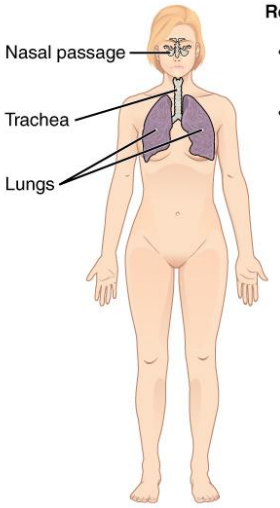
The **reproductive system** of males and females produce sex hormones and gametes. The male reproductive system is specialized to deliver gametes to the female while the female reproductive system is

specialized to support the embryo and fetus until birth and produce milk for the infant after birth. The male reproductive system includes the two testes within the scrotum as well as the epididymis which wraps around each testis. The female reproductive system includes the mammary glands within the breasts and the ovaries and uterus within the pelvic cavity.



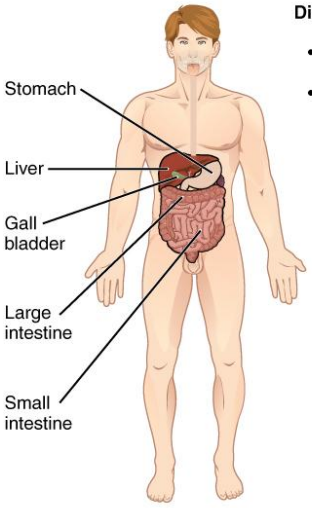
Lymphatic System

- Returns fluid to blood
- Defends against pathogens



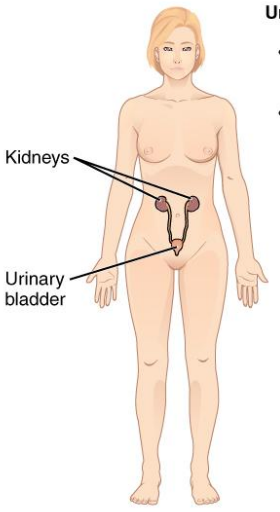
Respiratory System

- Removes carbon dioxide from the body
- Delivers oxygen to blood



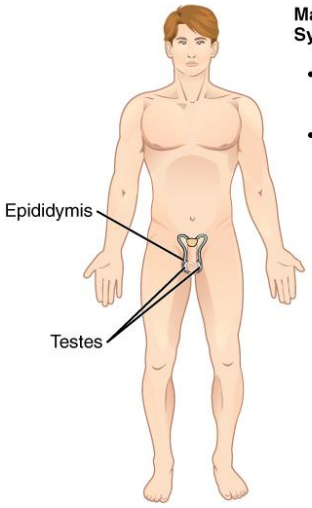
Digestive System

- Processes food for use by the body
- Removes wastes from undigested food



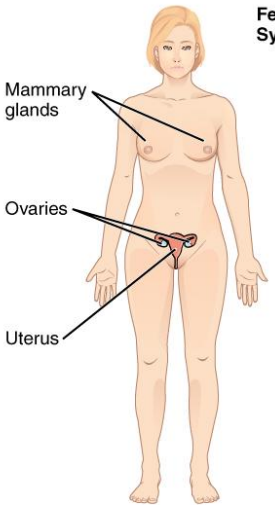
Urinary System

- Controls water balance in the body
- Removes wastes from blood and excretes them



Male Reproductive System

- Produces sex hormones and gametes
- Delivers gametes to female



Female Reproductive System

- Produces sex hormones and gametes
- Supports embryo/fetus until birth
- Produces milk for infant

Quick review questions

1. Name the four tissue types.
2. Give an example linking structure to function.
3. Define homeostasis.
4. What level comes after cell?

L5

Anatomical Position, Body Planes and Body Cavities

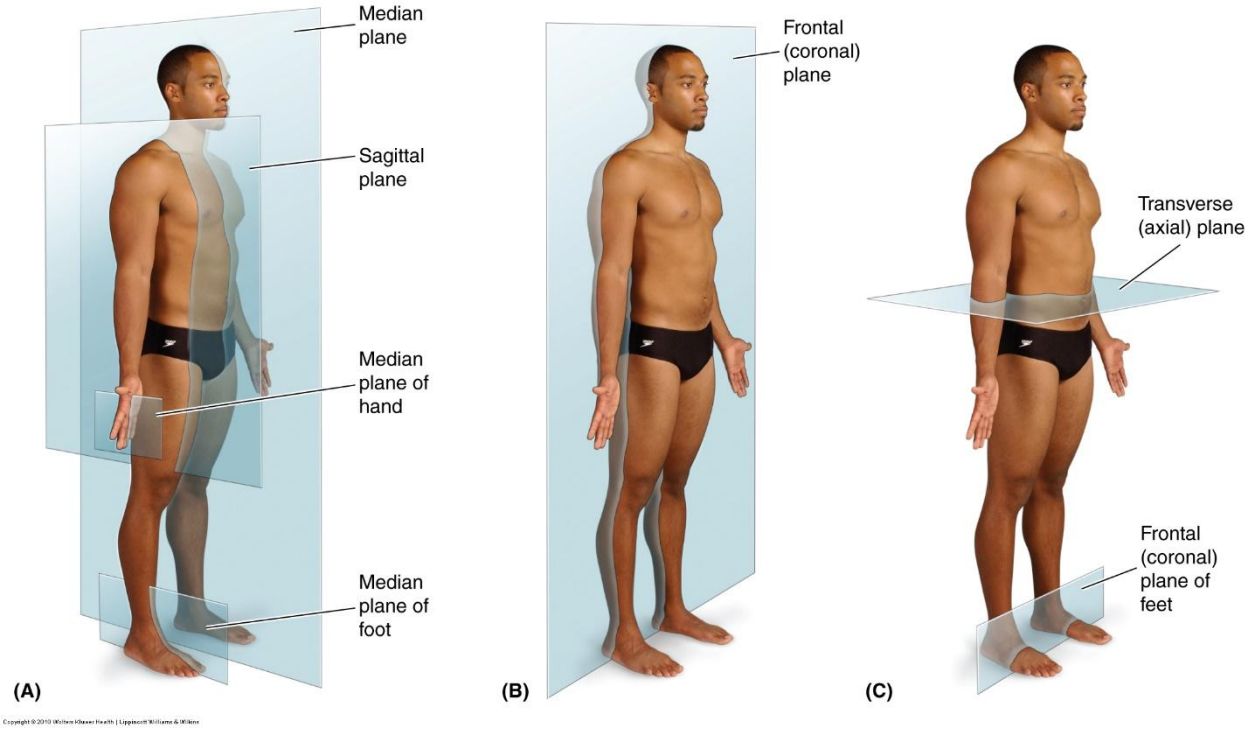
Learning objectives

- State the anatomical position and common directional terms.
- Identify body planes (sagittal, coronal, transverse).
- Locate major body cavities and major organs within them.

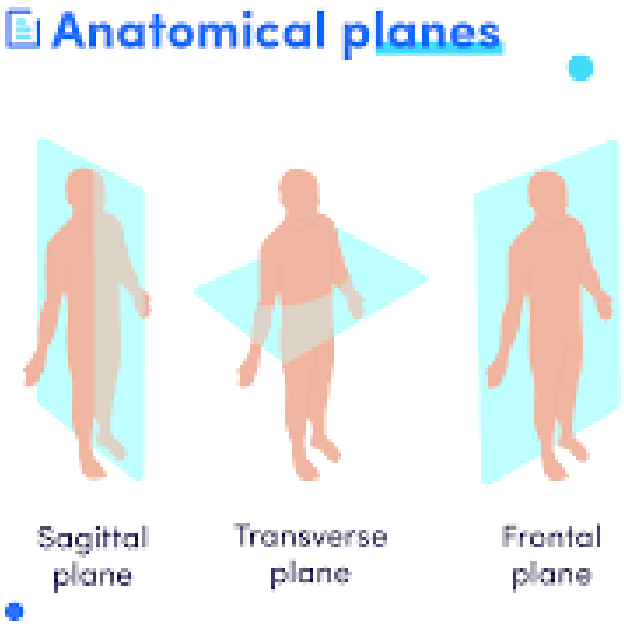
The anatomical position is the standard reference: standing upright, facing forward, arms at sides with palms facing forward. Directional terms (anterior/ventral, posterior/dorsal, superior/cranial, inferior/caudal, medial, lateral, proximal, distal) are used relative to this position.

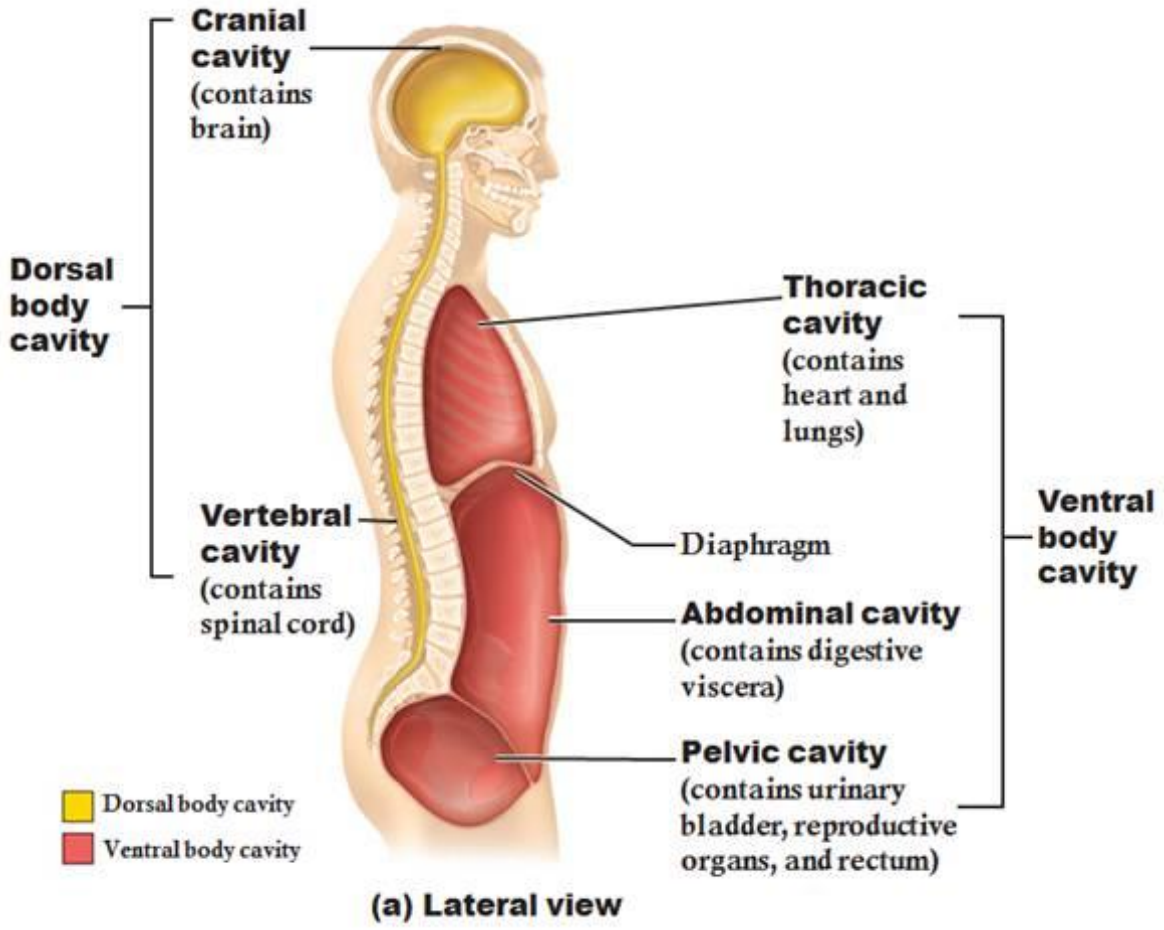
Body planes divide the body: sagittal (left/right), coronal or frontal (front/back), and transverse (top/bottom). Cavities house organs and provide protection: dorsal cavity (cranial and spinal) and ventral cavity (thoracic — pleural and pericardial; abdominopelvic — abdominal and pelvic). Correct use of these terms is critical in describing injury locations, surgical approaches, and imaging results.

Key terms



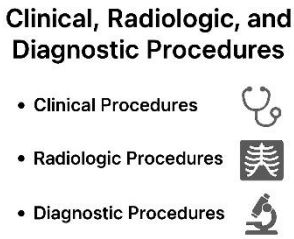
anatomical position, anterior, posterior, medial, lateral, sagittal, coronal, transverse, thoracic cavity, pericardial.





Quick review questions

1. What does “proximal” mean?
2. Which plane divides left and right?
3. Name the cavity that contains the lungs.
4. Describe anatomical position briefly.



L6

Clinical, Radiologic, and Diagnostic Procedures

Learning objectives

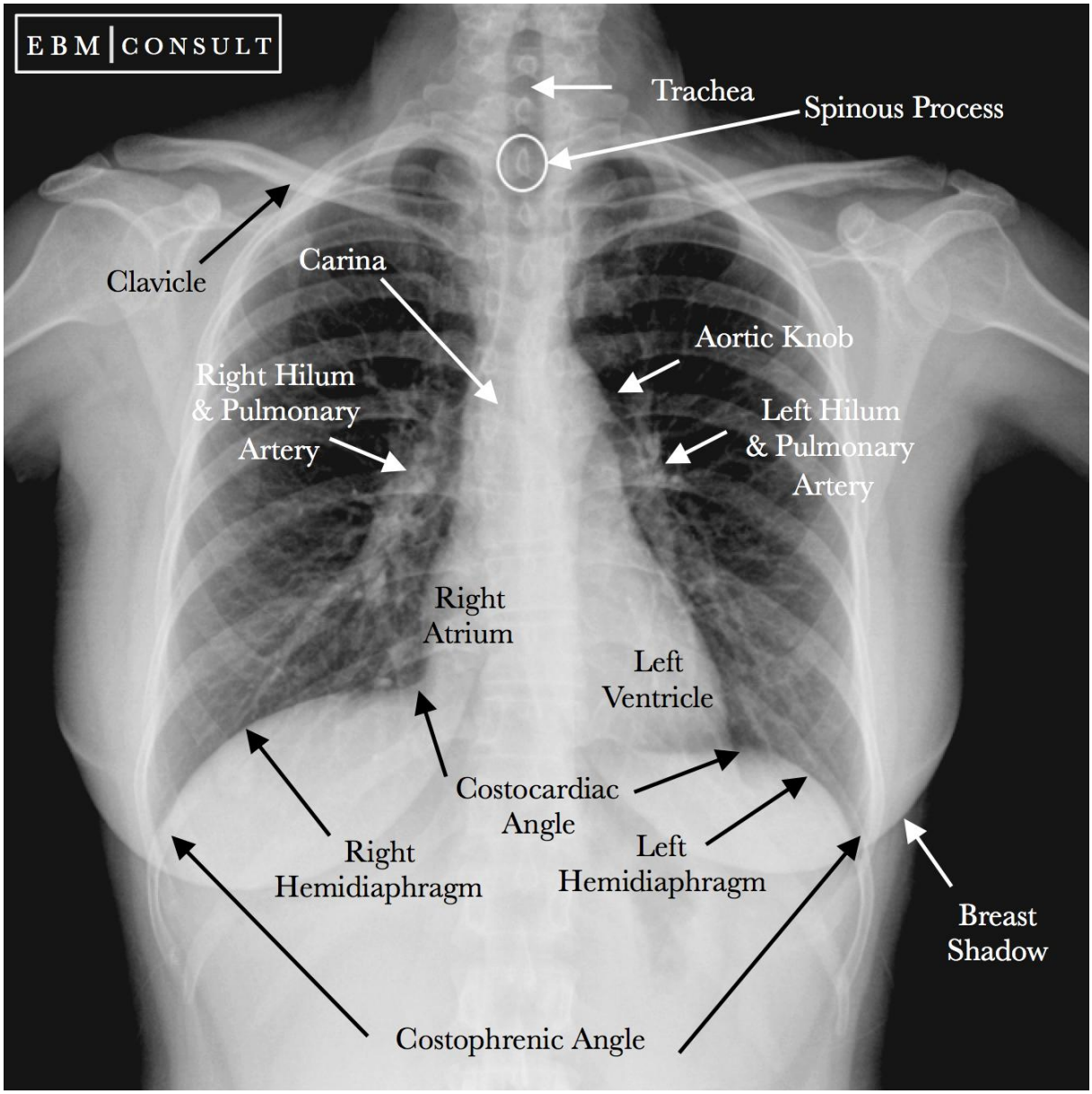
- Recognize terminology for common diagnostic tests and imaging modalities.
- Understand basic indications for tests such as X-ray, CT, MRI, ultrasound, ECG.
- Learn common report terms used in diagnostic results.

Diagnostic procedures generate objective data to confirm diagnoses and guide treatment. Imaging modalities differ in mechanism and best uses: X-ray (radiography) shows dense structures like bones; CT (computed tomography) provides cross-sectional images with excellent bone and soft tissue detail; MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) excels at soft tissue contrast (brain, spinal cord, joints); ultrasound uses sound waves for real-time imaging (abdomen, obstetrics).

ECG (electrocardiogram) records electrical cardiac activity. Laboratory diagnostics (CBC, electrolytes, cultures) provide biochemical and cellular data; biopsies provide tissue diagnosis. Learn common report terms (e.g., “no acute osseous abnormality,” “infiltrate,” “edema”) and abbreviations (e.g., CXR = chest X-ray). Proper interpretation requires correlating imaging with clinical context.

Key terms

X-ray, CT, MRI, ultrasound, ECG, CBC, biopsy, contrast, radiolucent, radiopaque.



Quick review questions

1. Which imaging modality is best for soft tissue contrast?
2. What does CBC measure?
3. Define “biopsy.”
4. What is a common indication for ultrasound?

L7

Digestive System

Learning objectives

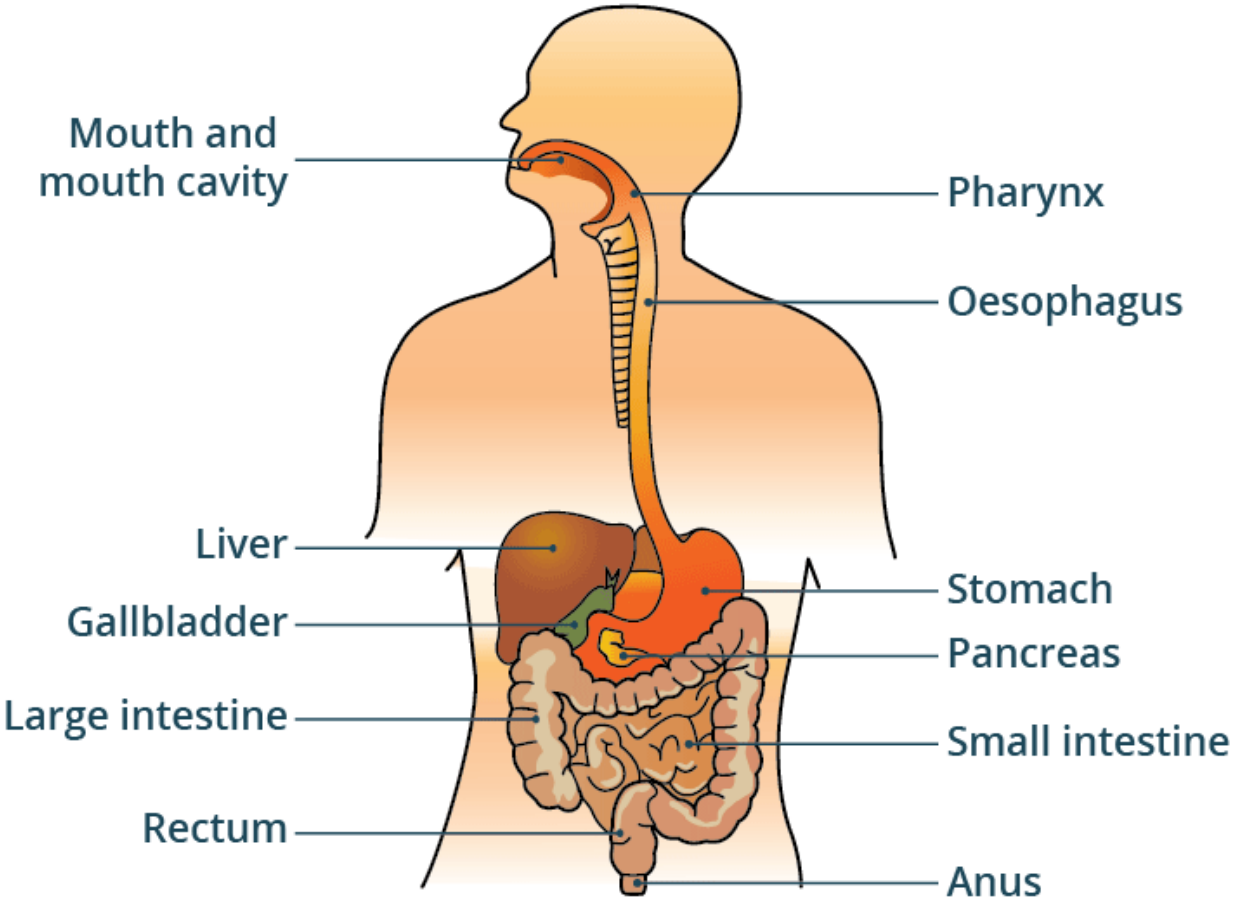
- Name the major organs of the digestive tract and accessory organs.
- Explain mechanical and chemical digestion and absorption sites.
- Recognize common digestive system pathologies and terms.

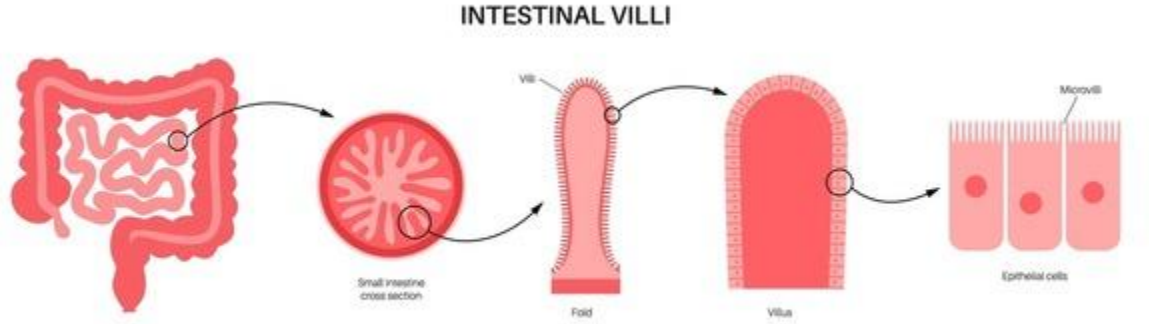
The digestive system breaks down food, absorbs nutrients, and eliminates waste. It starts at the mouth (mastication, salivary enzymes) and continues through the pharynx, esophagus, stomach (acid and pepsin for protein digestion), small intestine (duodenum—chemical digestion, jejunum/ileum—absorption), and large intestine (water absorption, feces formation).

Accessory organs — liver (bile production), gallbladder (bile storage), and pancreas (digestive enzymes and bicarbonate) — are essential for digestion. Key clinical terms include dysphagia (difficulty swallowing), gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), peptic ulcer, hepatitis (inflammation of the liver), cholecystitis (gallbladder inflammation), and pancreatitis. Understanding normal physiology (where digestion occurs) helps interpret symptoms and tests.

Key terms

esophagus, stomach, duodenum, jejunum, ileum, liver, pancreas, bile, peristalsis, dyspepsia.





Quick review questions

1. Where does most nutrient absorption occur?
2. What organ produces bile?
3. Define “hepatitis.”
4. What is dysphagia?

L8

Integumentary System

Learning objectives

- Describe the layers of the skin and main appendages.
- Explain skin functions (barrier, thermoregulation, sensation).
- Identify common dermatological lesion types and terminology.

The integumentary system includes skin, hair, nails, and glands. Skin layers are the epidermis (protective outer layer, keratinocytes, melanocytes for pigment), dermis (connective tissue, blood vessels, nerves), and hypodermis/subcutaneous tissue (fat storage). Appendages include sweat and sebaceous glands, hair follicles, and nails. Skin functions include barrier protection, thermoregulation via sweat and blood flow, sensation through nerve endings, vitamin D synthesis, and immune defense. Dermatological vocabulary describes lesion morphology: macule (flat discoloration), papule (small raised lesion), vesicle (small fluid-filled), pustule (pus), ulcer (loss of epidermis) — learning these terms aids clinical description and referral.

Key terms

epidermis, dermis, keratinocyte, melanocyte, macule, papule, pustule, sebaceous gland.

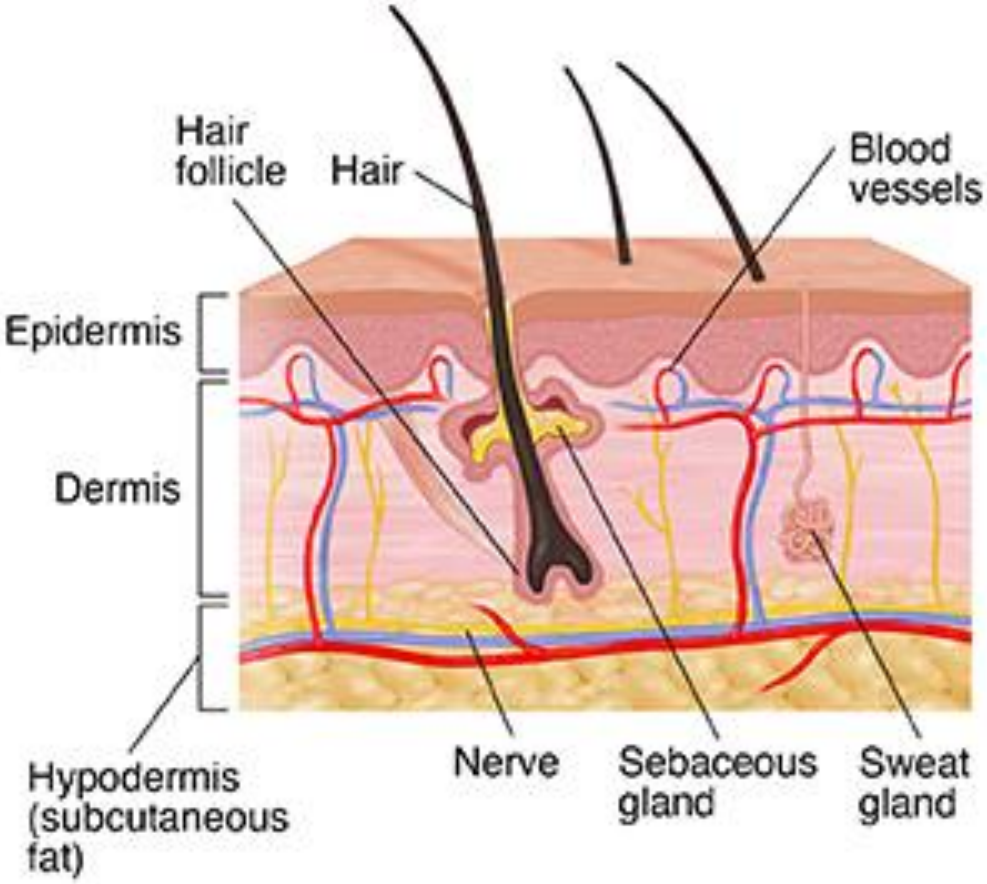
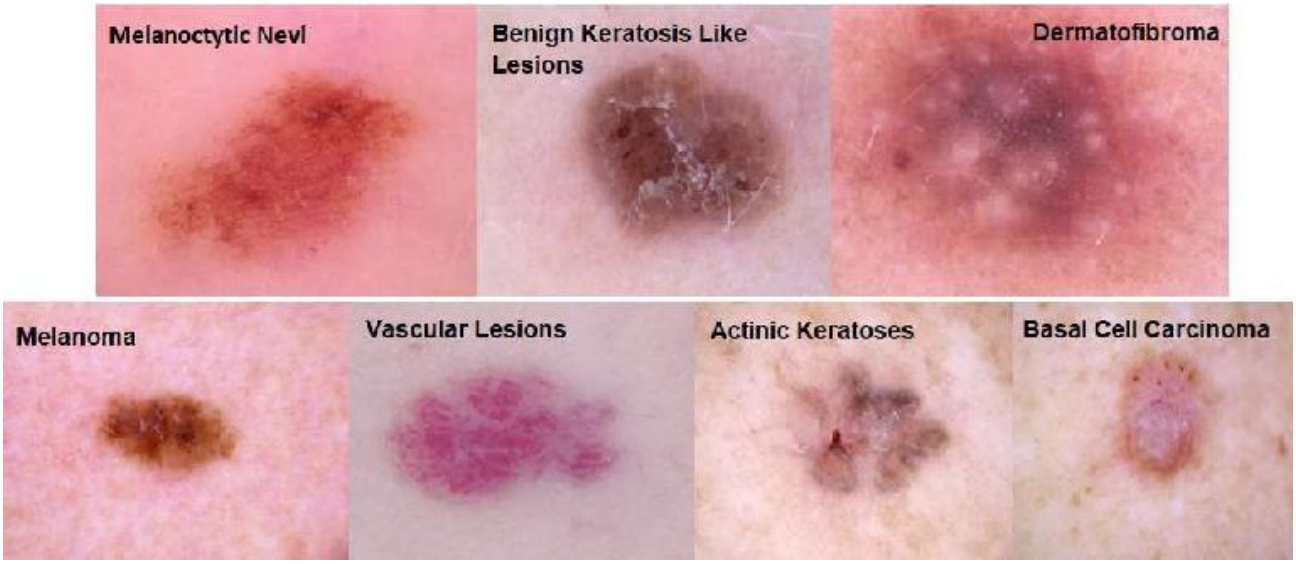


Photo examples (clinical photos) of basic lesion types



Quick review questions

1. What is the main pigment-producing cell?
2. Define “vesicle.”
3. Which layer contains blood vessels?
4. Name two skin functions.

L9

Musculoskeletal System

learning objectives

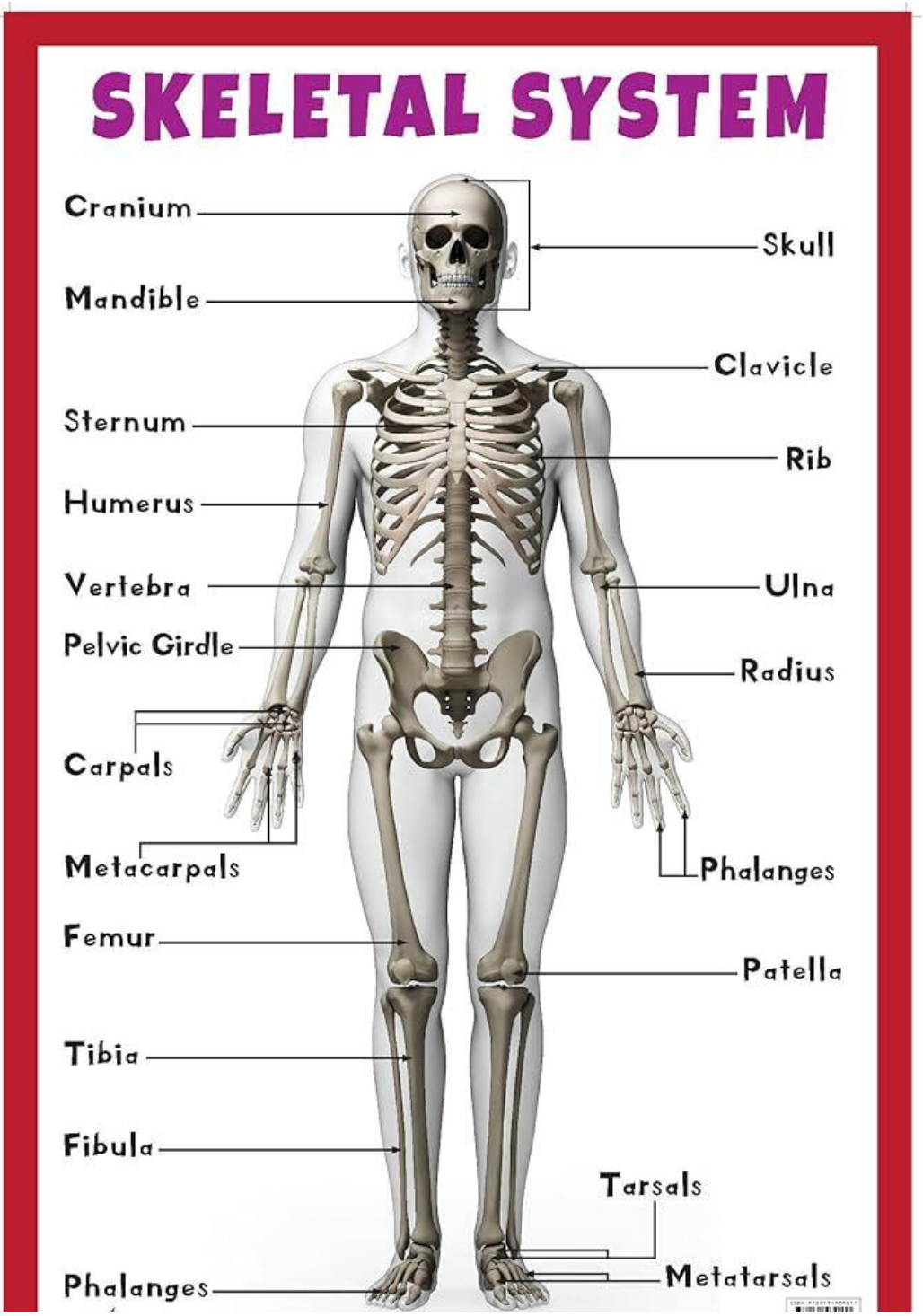
- List major bone groups and muscle types.
- Describe joint classification and basic biomechanics.
- Recognize key musculoskeletal pathologies and terminology.

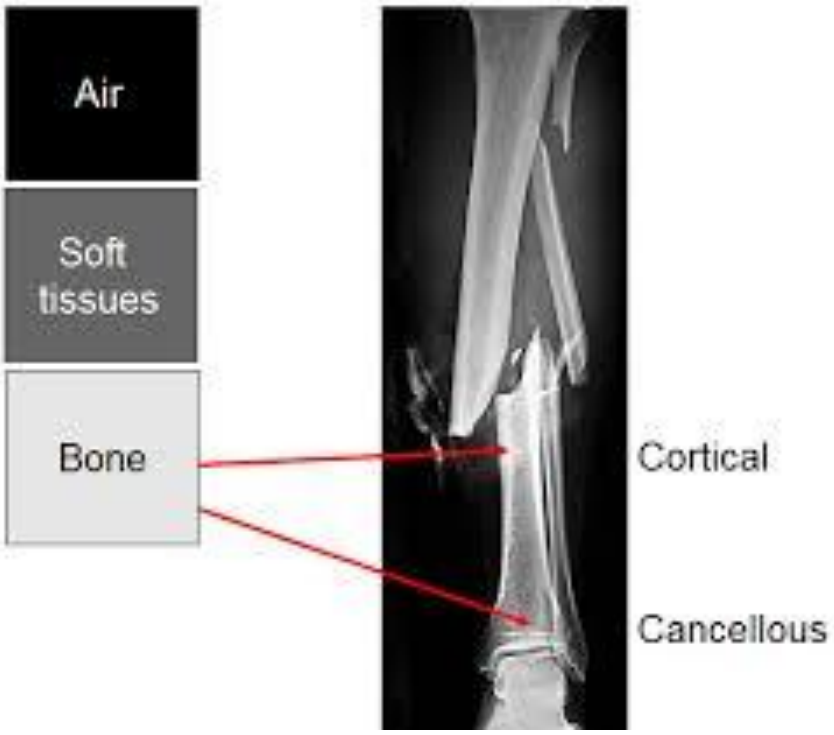
The musculoskeletal system provides structure, support, movement, and protection. Bones (compact and cancellous), cartilage, joints, ligaments, and muscles work together. Muscles are classified as skeletal (voluntary), cardiac (heart), and smooth (in organs). Joints may be fibrous (little movement), cartilaginous (limited movement), or synovial (freely movable) with types such as hinge and ball-and-socket. Understand terms relating to bone/connective tissue: osteo- (bone), arthro- (joint), myo- (muscle).

Common pathologies include fractures, osteoporosis (reduced bone density), osteoarthritis (degenerative joint disease), rheumatoid arthritis (autoimmune), and muscular strains. Recognize surgical terms: arthroscopy, arthroplasty, internal fixation.

Key terms

oste/o, arthr/o, my/o, ligament, tendon, synovial, fracture, osteoporosis, arthritis.





Quick review questions

1. Name the three muscle types.
2. What is osteoporosis?
3. Give an example of a synovial joint.
4. What does “arthroplasty” mean?

L10

Reproductive System

Learning objectives

- Identify male and female reproductive organs and their functions.
- Summarize basic processes of gametogenesis and the menstrual cycle.
- Recognize common reproductive system disorders and terminology.

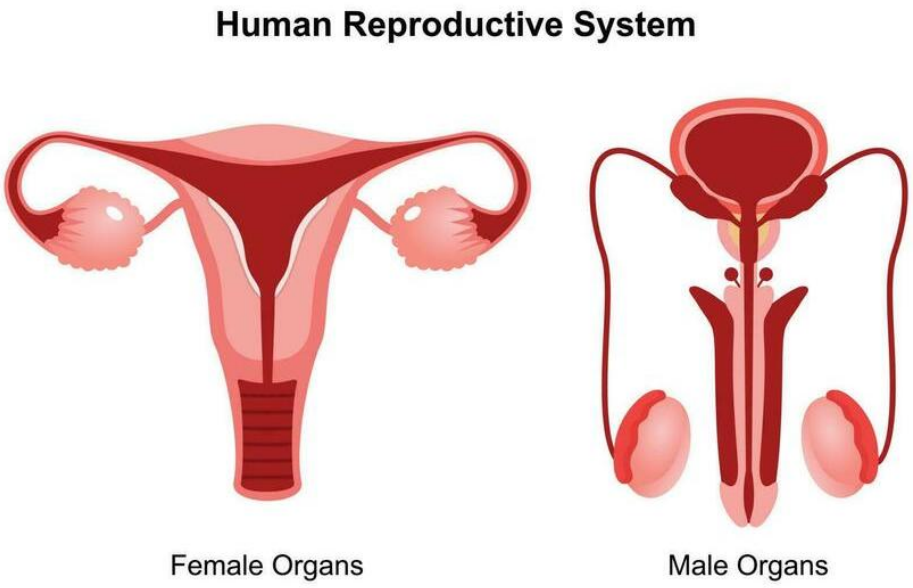
The reproductive system enables reproduction and sexual function. Male structures include testes (sperm production), epididymis, vas deferens, prostate, and penis. Female structures include ovaries (ova production), fallopian tubes (site of fertilization), uterus (implantation and fetal development), cervix, and vagina; mammary glands are accessory organs for lactation. Gametogenesis (spermatogenesis and oogenesis) produces haploid gametes. The menstrual cycle (with phases follicular, ovulation, luteal, and menstruation) is regulated by hormones (FSH, LH, estrogen, progesterone).

Common disorders: pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), endometriosis, benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), ovarian cysts, and sexually

transmitted infections. Obstetric terms (prenatal, labor, delivery) are clinically important.

Key terms

testes, ovary, fallopian tube, uterus, ovulation, fertilization, PID, endometriosis, BPH.



Quick review questions

1. Where does fertilization usually occur?

2. What hormone surge triggers ovulation?

3. Define “BPH.”

4. Name a common screening test for cervical cancer.

L11

Respiratory System

Learning objectives

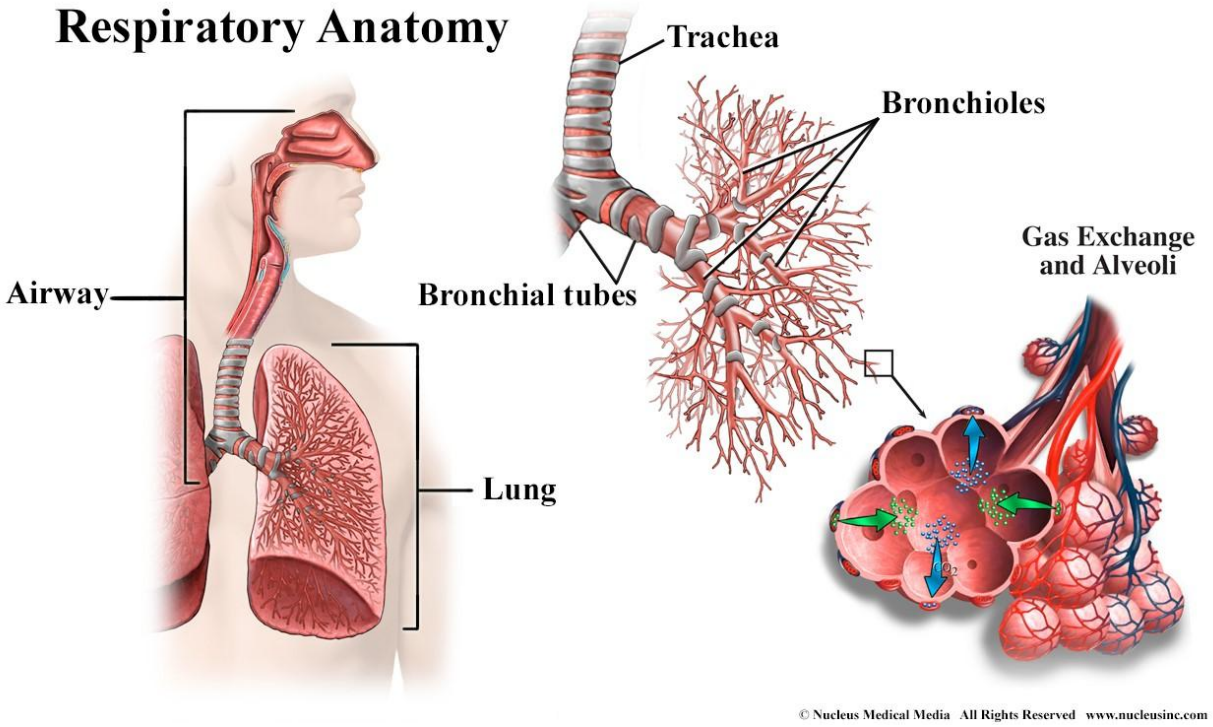
- Describe the anatomy of the airways and alveoli.
- Explain the basic physiology of ventilation and gas exchange.
- Recognize common respiratory conditions and diagnostic terms.

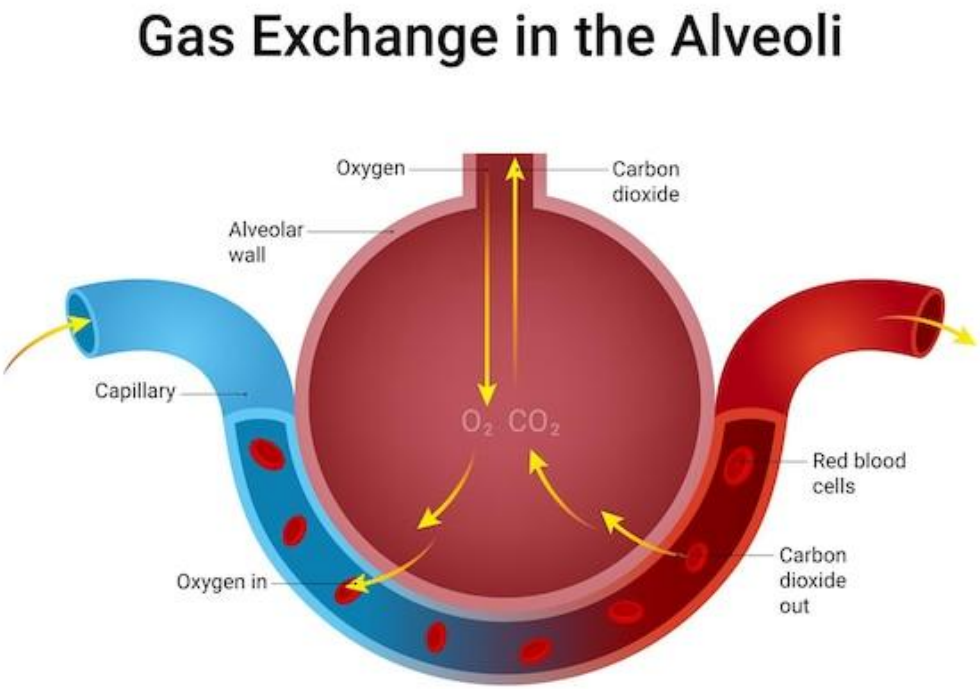
The respiratory system brings oxygen into the body and removes carbon dioxide. Airway structures include nose, pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, bronchioles, culminating in alveoli where gas exchange occurs across thin alveolar-capillary membranes. Ventilation is the mechanical movement of air; diffusion moves gases across membranes; transport of O_2 in blood depends on hemoglobin.

Terms like hypoxia (low oxygen in tissues), dyspnea (shortness of breath), cyanosis (bluish discoloration), and apnea (temporary cessation of breathing) are central. Common diseases: asthma (airway hyperreactivity), COPD (chronic bronchitis/emphysema), pneumonia (infection of lung parenchyma), pulmonary embolism, and pneumothorax. Pulmonary function tests, chest x-ray, and arterial blood gases (ABG) inform diagnosis.

Key terms

alveoli, bronchi, trachea, ventilation, diffusion, hypoxia, dyspnea, pneumonia, COPD.





Quick review questions

1. Where does gas exchange occur?
2. Define “dyspnea.”
3. What is a common cause of COPD?
4. Name a test used to measure oxygenation.

L12

Urinary System

Learning objectives

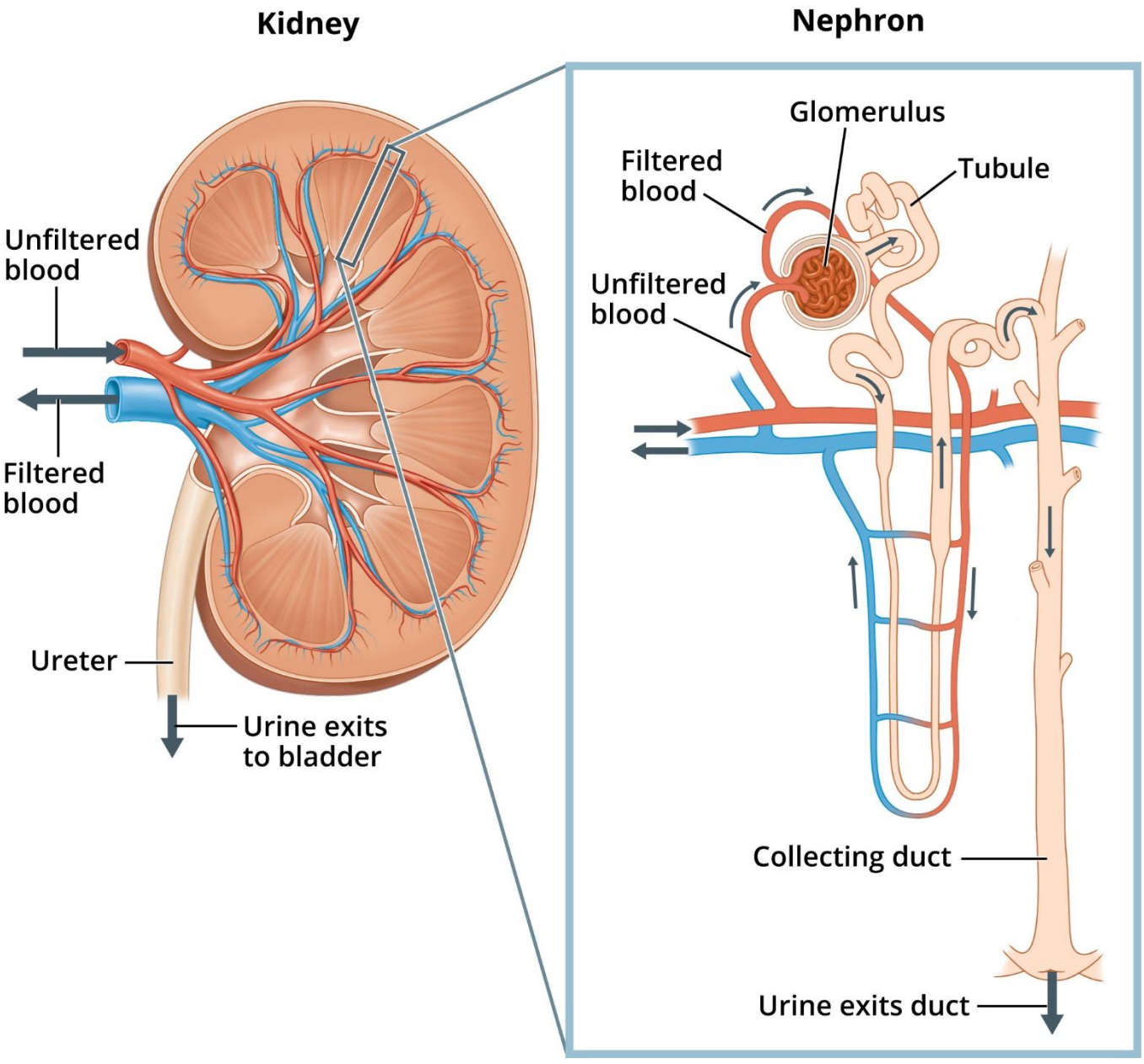
- Identify kidney structure and the nephron's role.
- Explain urine formation (filtration, reabsorption, secretion).
- Recognize common renal disorders and terminology.

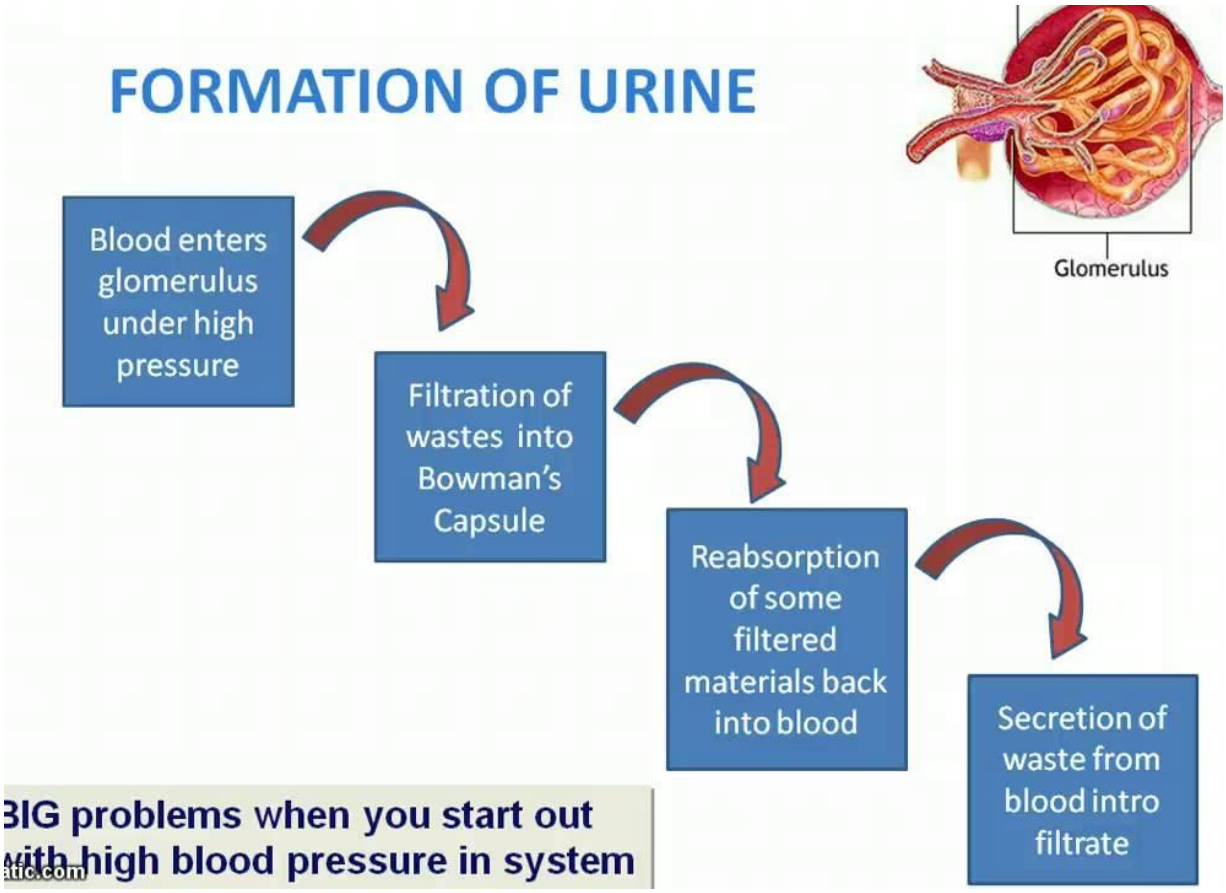
The urinary system filters blood to remove waste and regulate fluid, electrolyte, and acid-base balance. Kidneys contain functional units called nephrons; each nephron filters plasma in the glomerulus, processes filtrate along tubules (proximal tubule, loop of Henle, distal tubule), and concentrates urine in the collecting duct.

Urine flows via ureters to the bladder, and out the urethra. Terms: nephro- (kidney), azotemia (elevated nitrogen compounds), oliguria (low urine output), anuria (no urine), proteinuria (protein in urine). Common problems include urinary tract infection (UTI), glomerulonephritis, kidney stones (nephrolithiasis), acute kidney injury, and chronic kidney disease. Diagnostics: urinalysis, renal ultrasound, serum creatinine.

Key terms

nephron, glomerulus, filtration, reabsorption, ureter, bladder, creatinine, UTI.





Quick review questions

1. What is the functional unit of the kidney?
2. Name one lab test for kidney function.
3. What does "proteinuria" mean?
4. Where does urine go after the kidneys?

113

Cardiovascular System

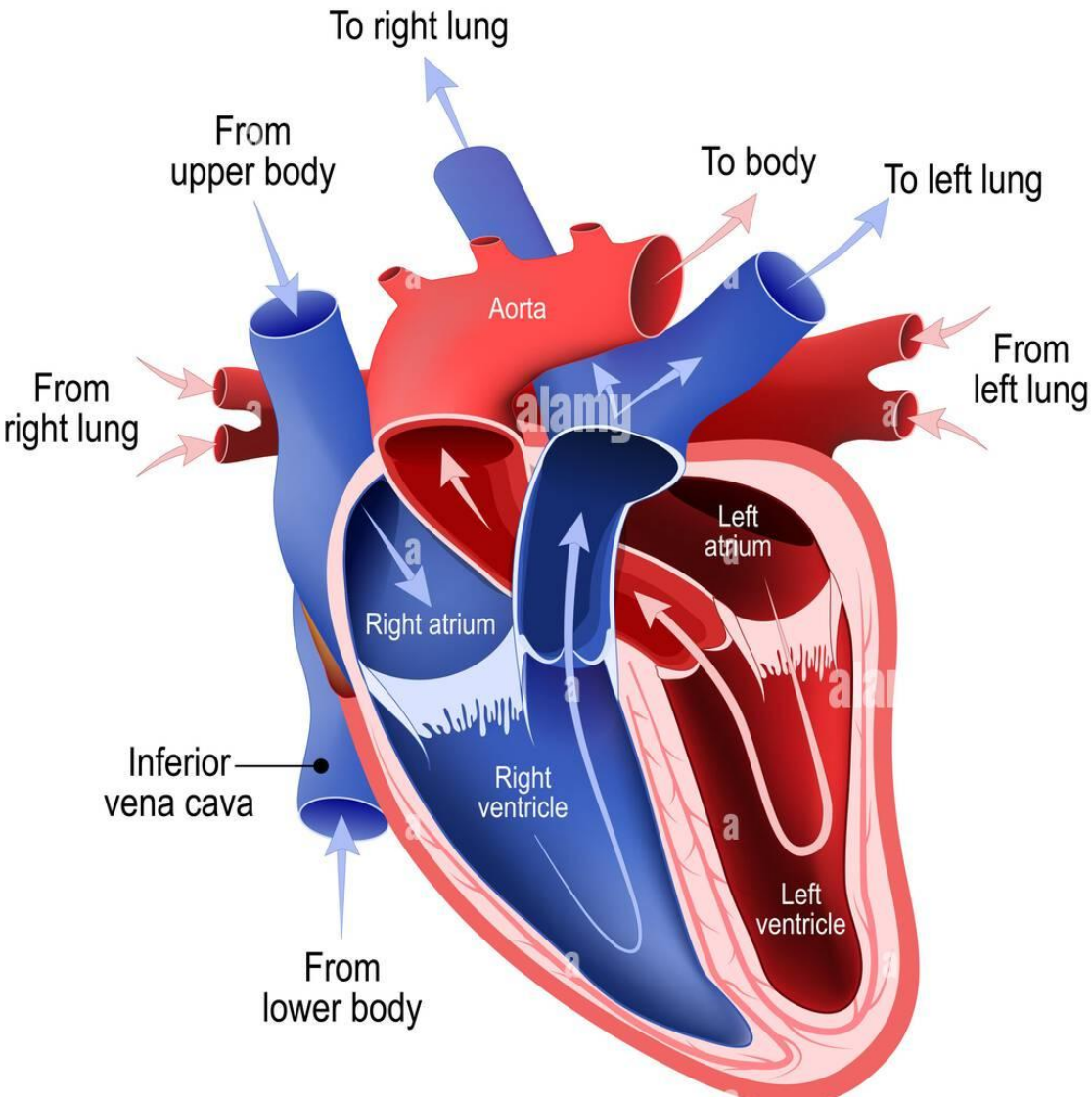
Learning objectives

- Describe the heart's chambers and major vessels and the direction of blood flow.
- Explain basic cardiac conduction and the cardiac cycle.
- Identify common cardiovascular conditions and diagnostic terms.

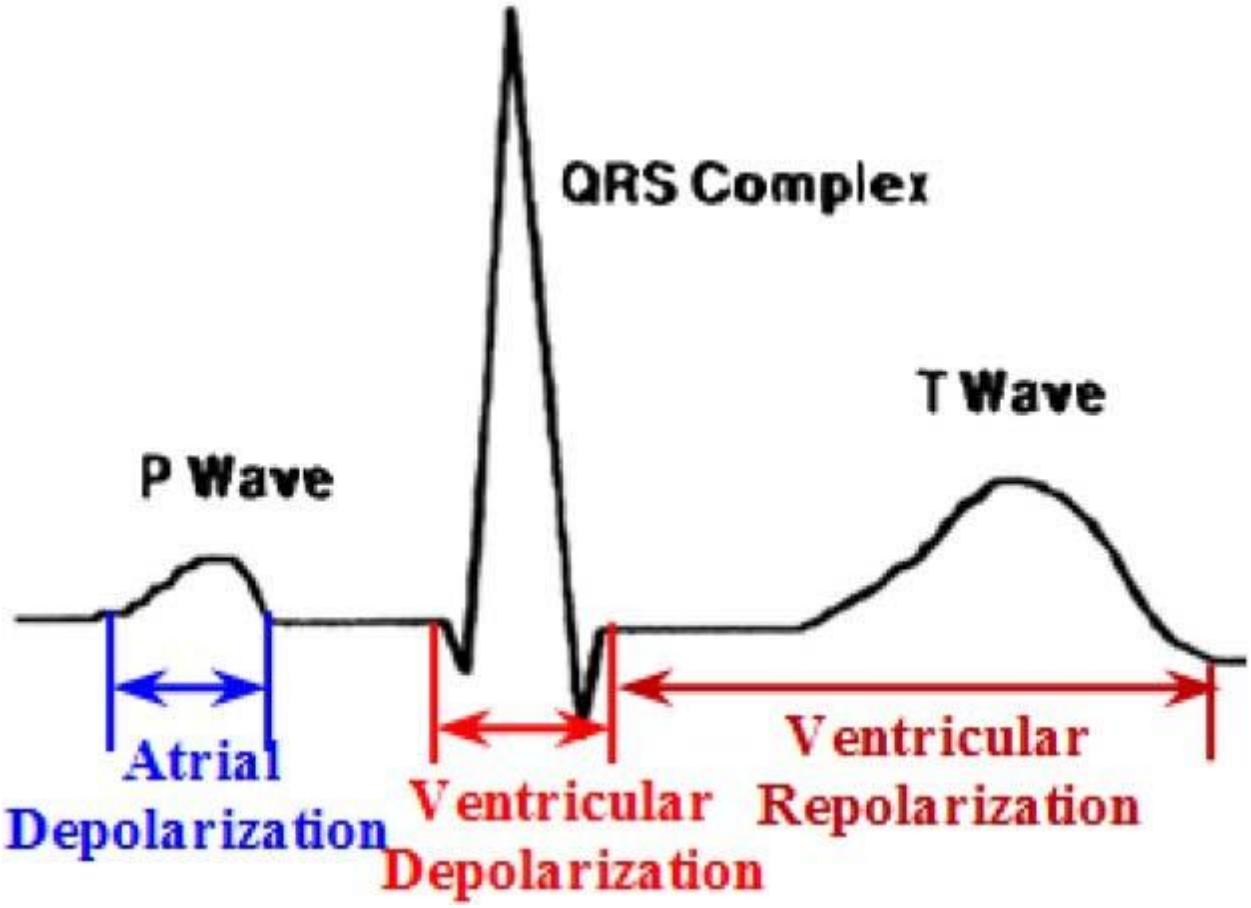
The cardiovascular system circulates blood to transport oxygen, nutrients, and remove waste. The heart has four chambers: right atrium → right ventricle → lungs (pulmonary circulation) → left atrium → left ventricle → systemic circulation. Valves ensure one-way flow. The conduction system (SA node → AV node → bundle branches → Purkinje fibers) coordinates contraction; electrical activity is recorded on ECG. Cardiac output is stroke volume × heart rate. Key pathologies include ischemic heart disease (angina, myocardial infarction), arrhythmias, heart failure, valvular disease, and hypertension. Diagnostics include ECG, echocardiography, cardiac enzymes (troponin), and angiography.

Key terms

Blood flow through the heart



atria, ventricles, valves, systole, diastole, ECG, ischemia, infarction, hypertension, angina.



Quick review questions

1. Which chamber pumps blood to the systemic circulation?
2. What does ECG record?
3. Define “myocardial infarction.”
4. What is cardiac output formula?

L14

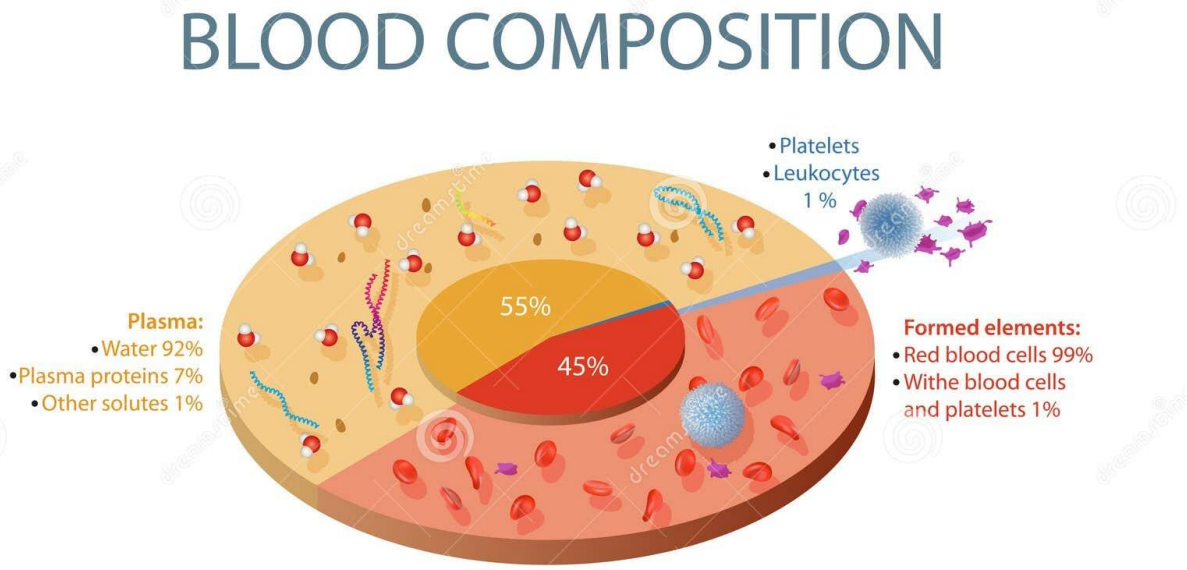
Blood, Lymph and Immune Systems

Learning objectives

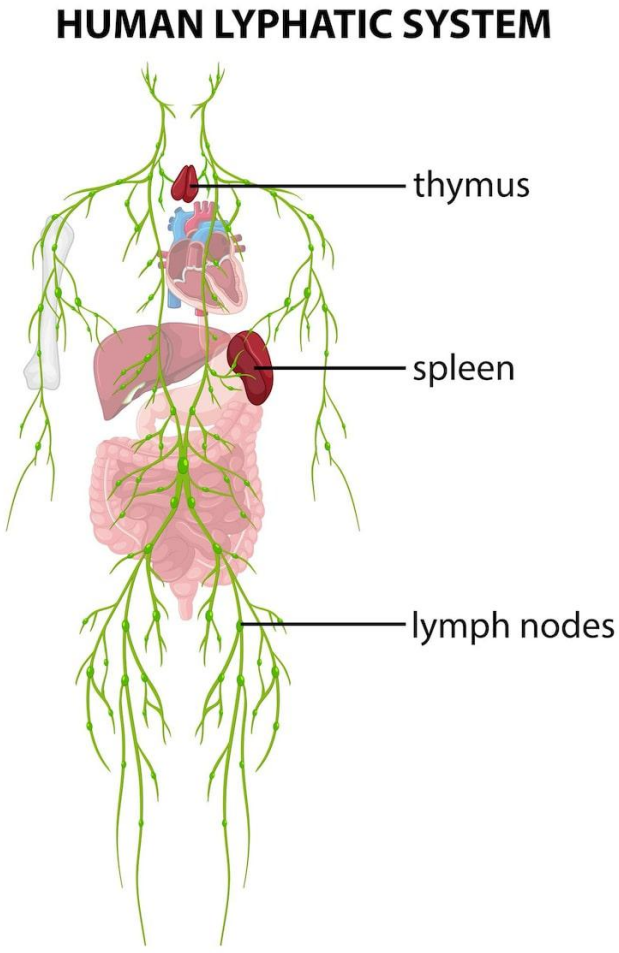
- List the components of blood and basic functions.
- Explain innate vs adaptive immunity and the role of lymphatic structures.
- Recognize common hematologic and immune terminology.

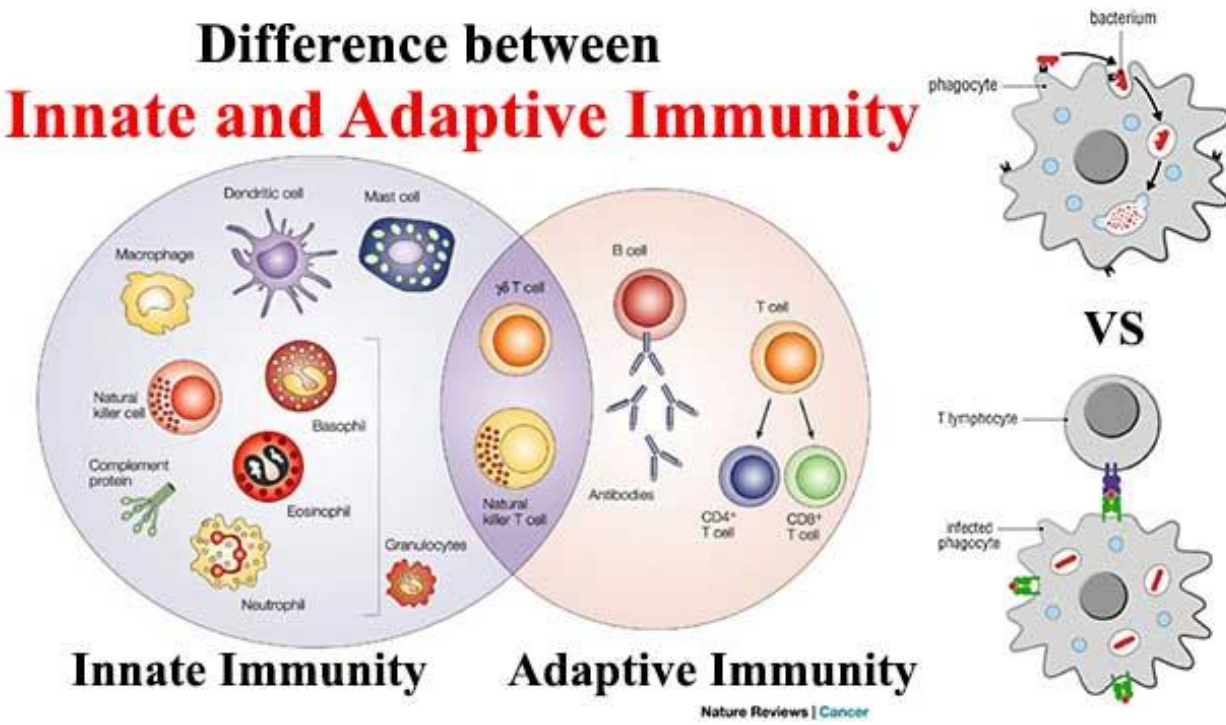
Blood consists of plasma (liquid) and formed elements: red blood cells (carry oxygen via hemoglobin), white blood cells (leukocytes — immune defenders), and platelets (clotting). Hemostasis and immune responses protect against bleeding and infection. The lymphatic system drains interstitial fluid, transports fats, and houses immune cells in lymph nodes and spleen. Innate immunity (physical barriers, phagocytes) provides immediate non-specific defense; adaptive immunity (T and B lymphocytes) generates targeted, memory responses. Hematologic terms include anemia (low RBC/hemoglobin), leukocytosis/leukopenia (high/low WBC), thrombocytopenia (low platelets). Immunology terms include antigen, antibody, hypersensitivity, autoimmunity, and immunodeficiency.

Key terms



erythrocyte, leukocyte, platelet, hemoglobin, antigen, antibody, lymph node, spleen, anemia.





Quick review questions

1. What cell carries oxygen?
2. Name one organ of the lymphatic system.
3. What is an antibody?
4. Define “anemia.”

L15

Nervous System

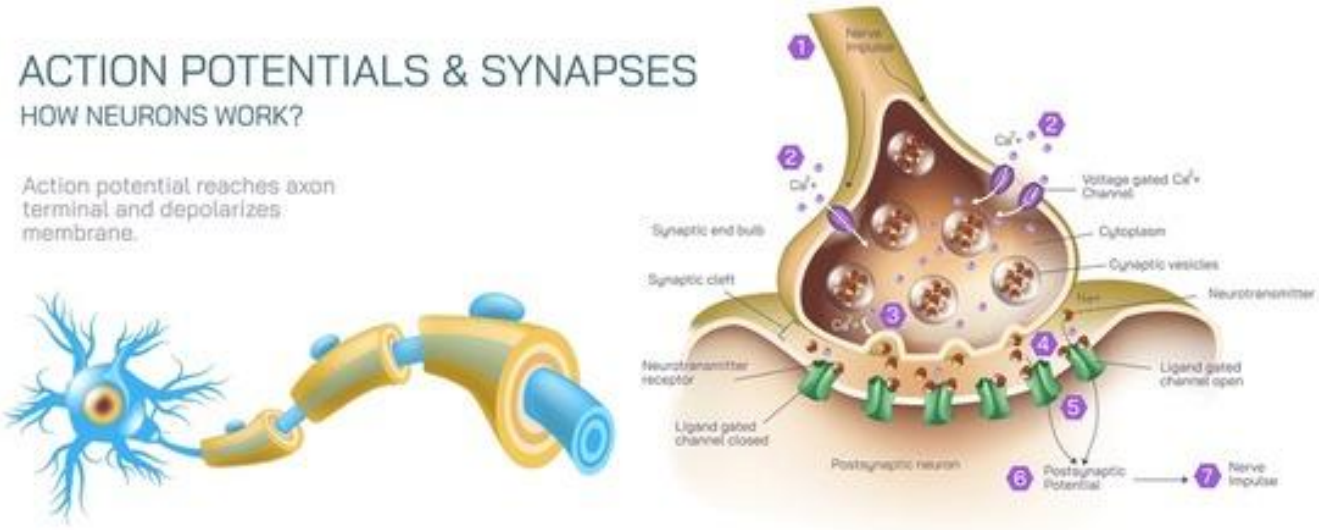
Learning objectives

- Distinguish central vs peripheral nervous systems and main brain regions.
- Describe the structure of a neuron and how signals are transmitted.
- Recognize common neurological conditions and relevant terminology.

The nervous system controls sensation, movement, cognition, and homeostasis. The central nervous system (CNS) includes the brain and spinal cord; the peripheral nervous system (PNS) includes cranial and spinal nerves. Neurons (cell body, dendrites, axon) transmit electrical impulses; synapses and neurotransmitters mediate communication.

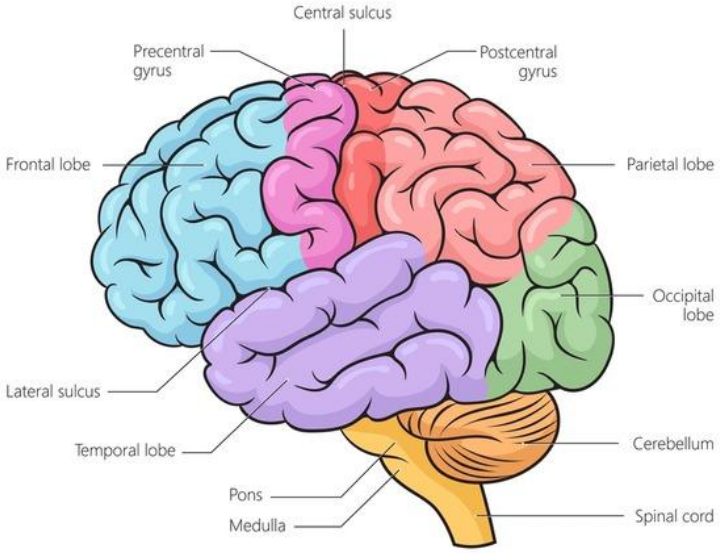
Major brain regions (cerebrum for higher functions, cerebellum for coordination, brainstem for vital functions) and spinal cord tracts are important for localization of lesions. Terms include stroke (cerebrovascular accident), transient ischemic attack (TIA), seizure, neuropathy, synapse, and myelin. Neurological exams, imaging (CT/MRI), and electrodiagnostics (EEG, nerve conduction studies) assist diagnosis.

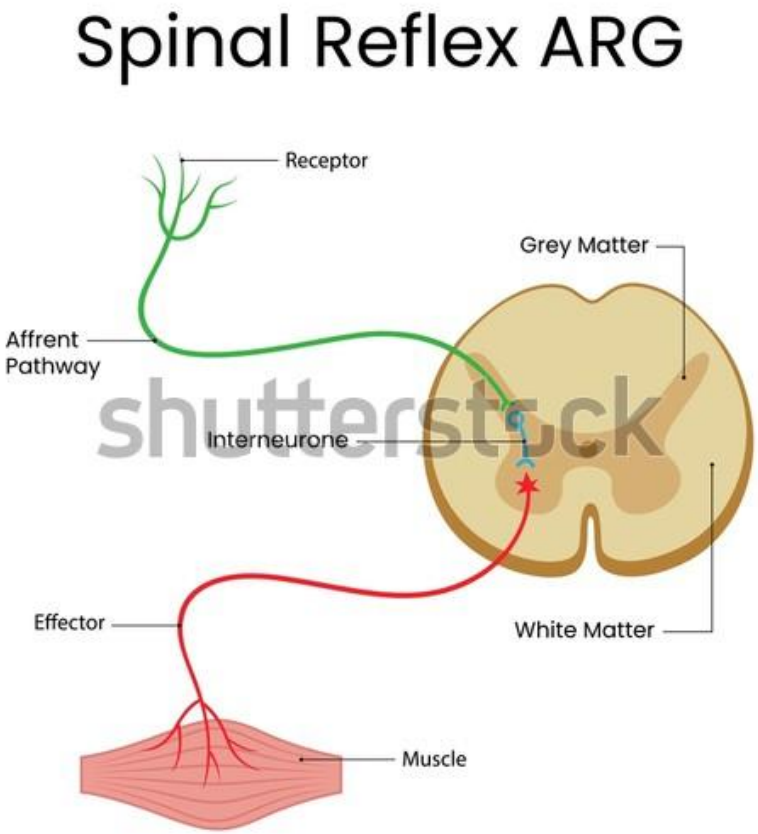
Key terms



neuron, dendrite, axon, synapse, neurotransmitter, CNS, PNS, stroke, seizure.

Human brain
(Lateral view)





Quick review questions

1. What are the two main divisions of the nervous system?
2. Name the part of the neuron that receives signals.
3. What is a TIA?
4. Which brain area coordinates movement?