

Structured Notes According to PSM

Revision friendly **Fully Colored Book/Structured Notes**

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(Author)

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CONTENTS



PSM VOLUME I

UNIT 1 - EPIDEMIOLOGY

1.	Definitions , Components and Tools of Epidemiology	5
2.	Need, Classification, Unit & Approach to Study Designs	11
3.	Descriptive Study Disease Distribution	15
4.	Cohort Study	24
5.	Case Control Study	34
6.	Nested Case Control	39
7.	Cross-Sectional, Ecological and Longitudinal Study Designs	40
8.	Bias	45
9.	Confounders	50
10.	Experimental Studies, Randomized and Non-Randomized Control-Trials	55
11.	Clinical Trials	66
12.	Systematic Review, Meta-Analysis and Evidence-Based Studies	67
13.	Hills Criteria	71

UNIT 2 - CONCEPT OF HEALTH AND DISEASE

14.	Concept of Disease	75
15.	Concept of Well Being	82
16.	Disease Control, Elimination and Eradication of Disease	89
17.	Levels of Prevention	91
18.	Health Indicators	99
19.	Monitoring, Evaluation and Surveillance	105

UNIT 3 - VACCINES AND COLD CHAIN

20.	Vaccines	111
21.	National Immunization & Schedule Delayed Immunization	119
22.	Open Vial Policy Mission Indradhanush	124
23.	Cold Chain	131

UNIT 4 - SCREENING OF DISEASES

24.	Screening Test	138
25.	Properties of Screening Test	143
26.	Tests in Combination	149

UNIT 5 - DEMOGRAPHY AND HEALTH

27.	Demography	158
28.	Indicators of Demography	162
29.	Fertility Indicators	166
30.	Sources of Health Information	171

UNIT 6 - FAMILY PLANNING AND CONTRACEPTIVES

31.	Family Planning Definition Concept	179
32.	Classification of Contraceptives and Barrier Methods of Contraceptives	183
33.	Intra Uterine Devices	189
34.	Hormonal Contraceptives	196
35.	Physiological Methods of Contraception	205
36.	National Family planning Welfare Program	212

UNIT 7 - PREVENTIVE MEDICINE IN OBSTETRICS, PEDIATRICS AND GERIATRICS

37.	Preventive Obstetrics , Maternal Health Indicators	222
38.	Preventive Pediatrics Child Health Indicators	229
39.	Growth and Development, School Health Services	236

UNIT 8 - NUTRITION AND HEALTH

40.	Macronutrients and Micronutrients (Minerals)	251
41.	Micronutrients : Vitamins	264
42.	Food Adulteration and Food Fortification	275
43.	Nutrition Health Programmes and Food Logos	281
44.	Recommended Dietary Allowance	289

UNIT 9 - SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HEALTH

45.	Sociology	293
46.	Family and Socioeconomic Scales	299
47.	Health Economics Doctor Patient Relationship Right of an Individuals Social Security	304

UNIT 10 - ENVIRONMENT AND HEALTH

48.	Water : Introduction	311
49.	Purification of Water	321
50.	Air Pollution	328
51.	Waste Disposal	336
52.	Noise, Light, Housing & Radiation	346
53.	Entomology	352



EPIDEMIOLOGY

Definitions, Components and Tools of Epidemiology

1. Components Studied in Epidemiology

- 2. Tools of Measurement in Epidemiology**

Must Know

- 3. Incidence**

Must Know

- 4. Prevalance**

Must Know

- 4.1 Difference between the Incidence and Prevalence
- 4.2 Relationship between the Prevalence and Incidence
- 4.3 Use of Prevalence

Need, Classification, Unit & Approach to Study Designs

1. Need of Study designs
 - 1.1 The purpose of study designs
2. Classification of Epidemiology Study Designs
 - 2.1 Difference between Descriptive and Analytical Study
 - 2.2 Difference between Case Report and Case Series
3. Unit of Study
 - 3.1 Summary of Types of Epidemiological Studies
4. Basic Approach to Identify Study Designs

Descriptive Study Disease Distribution

1. Descriptive Epidemiology: Definition & concept
 - 1.1 Definition of Descriptive Epidemiology
 - 1.2 Salient Features
 - 1.3 Steps in Descriptive Study Design
2. Time Distribution of Disease

- 2.1 Short-term fluctuation**

Must Know

- 2.2 Periodic fluctuation of disease

- 2.3 Long-term fluctuation**

Must Know

- 2.4 Place Distribution

- 2.5 Person Distribution

- 2.6 Use of descriptive epidemiology

- 2.7 Steps of investigation of an epidemic

Cohort Study

1. Cohort	Must Know
1.1 Prospective Cohort Study	Must Know
1.2 Retrospective Cohort Study	
1.3 Mixed Cohort Study	
2. Steps of a Cohort Study	Good to Know
3. Measure of Strength of Association of Cohort Study	
3.1 Relative Risk	Must Know
3.2 Attributable Risk	Good to Know
3.3 Population Attributable Risk	Good to Know
4. Indications of Cohort Study	

Case Control Study

1. Case-control Study	Must Know
1.1 Basic Design	
1.2 Steps of a Case-control Study	
1.3 Selection of cases and controls	
1.4 Matching	
1.5 Measurement of Exposure	
1.6 Analysis and interpretation	Must Know

Nested Case Control

1. Nature of Case Control
2. Case Control Study Initiated within Cohort Study

Cross-Sectional, Ecological and Longitudinal Study Designs

1. Cross-Sectional Study Design
 - 1.1 Comparison Cross-Sectional Study V/s Longitudinal Study
- 2. Ecological Study**
- 2.1 Comparison Cross-Sectional Study Vs. Ecological Study
3. Synonyms

Bias

1. Errors in Epidemiology
2. Types of Bias

- 2.1 Subject Bias
- 2.2 Investigator Bias

3. Methods to Eliminate Bias

Good to Know

Confounders

1. What is a Confounder?

Good to Know

- 1.1 Examples of Confounders
- 1.2 Disadvantages of Confounders
- 1.3 Techniques to Eliminate Confounders
- 4. Types of Association
 - 4.1 Spurious Association
 - 4.2 Indirect Association
 - 4.3 Direct (Causal) Association

Experimental Studies, Randomized and Non-Randomized Control-Trials

- 1. Key point: Clinical trial vs Field trial vs Community trial
- 2. Experimental Studies
- 3. Randomized Control Trial (RCT) Concept
 - 3.1 Basic design of RCT
 - 3.2 Importance of RCT
 - 3.3 Steps of RCT
 - 3.4 Bias in a RCT
 - 3.5 Study design of controlled trial
 - 3.6 Types of RCT
- 4. Non-randomized controlled trial
- 5. Before and after comparison studies
 - 5.1 Before and after comparison studies without control
 - 5.2 Before and after comparison studies with control
- 6. Interpretation of Experimental Designs: (Analysis and Results)
- 7. Expressing results of experimental study design

7.1 Absolute risk reduction

Good to Know

- 7.2 Relative risk reduction
- 7.3 Number needed for treatment
- 7.4 Number needed to harm

8. Reporting results: CONSORT

Good to Know

- 9. Migration study
- 10. Natural Experiment

Clinical Trials

1. Phases of Clinical Trials

Good to Know

Systematic Review, Meta-Analysis and Evidence-Based Studies

1. Systematic Review

1.1 Steps of Systematic review

2. Meta-Analysis

Must Know

2.1 Steps of Meta-Analysis

3. Funnel Plot

4. Forest Plot

4.1 Interpretation of a Forest Plot

5. Reporting formats used in Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

6. Evidence-based medicine

Hills Criteria

1

DEFINITIONS, COMPONENTS AND TOOLS OF EPIDEMIOLOGY



Definition of Epidemiology

- Study of distribution and determinants of health – related states / events or disease in population groups and application of the study to control health problems

- Definition of epidemiology – Given by John M Last



Components Studied in Epidemiology

00:04:59

Disease Frequency

- Talks about the incidence (No. of new cases) and prevalence (No. of Existing cases) of a disease
- Disease frequency is expressed in the form of 3 tools – Rate, Proportion and Ratio

Disease Distribution

- How disease is distributed according to time, place and person.
 - E.g. in the early stage of the incidence of COVID – 19 epidemiologists described it as pneumonia of unknown origin affecting during the winter months (Time) in Wuhan China (Place), in the male population (Person) working in bird markets in China.
- Descriptive Epidemiology – Study of disease and its distribution according to time, place and person.

Disease Determinants

- Answer the 'why' and 'how' of the disease
- Covered in Analytical epidemiology

Tools of Measurement in Epidemiology

00:10:14

Frequency of the cases is expressed in the form

- Rate = Numerator / Denominator × 1000 or 10,000 or 1,00,000
 - N is a part of D

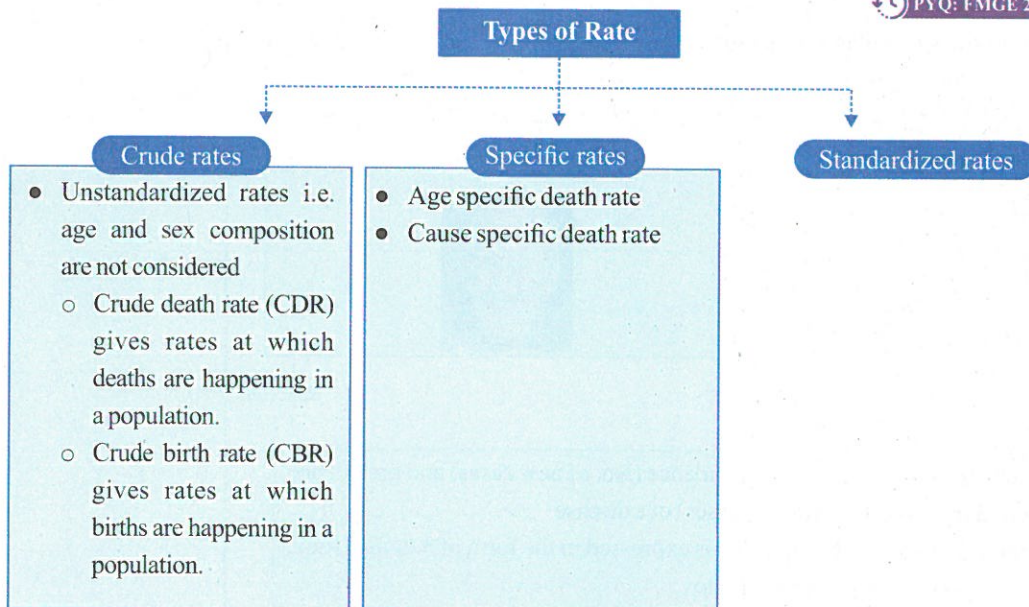
- Proportion = Numerator / Denominator × 100
 - N is a part of D

- Ratio = Numerator / Denominator
 - N is not part of D

Rate

- It measures the occurrence of the event (disease or death) in a defined population in a defined time period.
- Rate** = Numerator/Denominator × 1000 or 10,000 or 1,00,000

PYQ: FMGE 2020



Proportion

- Proportion** = Numerator/Denominator × 100
- For example,

$$\text{Prevalence} = \frac{\text{Total no. of cases (old and new)}}{\text{Total population}} \times 100$$

PYQ: INICET 2021

Ratio

- Ratio** = $\frac{\text{Numerator}}{\text{Denominator}}$
- N is Not part of D.

PYQ: NEET PG 2018

Example of ratio	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\text{Sex Ratio} = \frac{\text{No. of females}}{\text{No. of males}} \times 1000$ $\text{Relative risk} = \frac{\text{Incidence of exposed}}{\text{Incidence of non exposed}}$
Example of rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\text{Incidence rate} = \frac{\text{Total no. of new cases}}{\text{Total population at risk}} \times 1000$
Example of proportion	$\text{Case fatality rate (CFR)} = \frac{\text{Total no. of deaths due to disease}}{\text{Total cases of a disease}} \times 100$

Incidence

00:23:12

PYQ: FMGE 2023

PYQ: AIIMS 2020

Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No. of new cases of the disease or new spells or episodes of sickness occurring in a defined population during a specified time period. <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Incidence rate</i></p> $= \frac{\text{No. of new cases of a disease in a defined population during a specified time period}}{\text{Total population at risk}} \times 1000$
-------------------	--

High Yield Points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Incidence measures the rate at which New cases occur. ● Independent of the duration of the disease. ● More important for a disease of acute onset ● The primary level of prevention focuses on reducing the incidence of the disease ● Cohort study calculates the incidence of a disease
MCQ	<p>Q. Incidence of a disease in a population of 30,000 and 300 new cases is</p> <p>A. 0.1 per 1000 B. 10 per 1000 C. 100 per 1000 D. 1 per 1000</p> <p>Explanation Incidence = new cases/ total population at risk multiplied by 1000 = 300/ 30000 × 1000 = 10/ 1000 population</p>
Special Incidence Rates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Attack Rate used in an epidemic or outbreak of disease ● Secondary attack Rate is used to measure the communicability or transmissibility of a disease.
Uses of the Incidence Rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Control of disease ● Etiology, Pathogenesis and distribution of a disease. ● Efficacy of preventive and therapeutic measures ● Effectiveness of health services provided

Prelavance

00:30:27

 PYQ: FMGE 2019, 2020

 PYQ: INICET 2021

Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● It is the total number of all individuals who suffer from a disease. $\frac{\text{Total no. of cases in a community at a point of time}}{\text{Total population of the community at the same point}} \times 100$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Prevalence is actually a proportion
MCQ	<p>Q. In a population of 5000, the number of new cases of TB is 500; old cases in the same population are 150. What is the prevalence of TB?</p> <p>A. 9% B. 12% C. 13% D. 18%</p> <p>Explanation: Prevalence = Total cases/ Total population x 100 = 500+150/ 5000 × 100 = 650/5000 multiplied by 100 = 13%</p>

Measurement of Prevalence	Point prevalence $\frac{\text{Total number of diseased persons in a defined population at one point of time}}{\text{Total number of population at the same point of time}} \times 100$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> E.g. On April 30th, 2022 community A has a population of 10000 1000 current cases of hypertension so prevalence is $1000/10000 \times 100 = 10\%$
	Period prevalence $\frac{\text{Number of persons with an episode of illness over a defined period of time}}{\text{Number of persons in the population over the same period}} \times 100$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Period prevalence = Number of existing cases/ total population E.g. During a particular time period (Jan 1 - June 30th, 2022) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Include existing cases on Jan 1st and those newly diagnosed until June 30th.

Difference between the Incidence and Prevalence

00:36:48

Incidence	Prevalence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Probability or chances of developing a disease 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Probability or chances of already having a disease
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Includes only new cases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Includes both old and new cases
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow up is required of the individuals in a population to identify new cases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No follow up required
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independent of the duration of illness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depends on the duration of the disease (P= I x D)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suited measure when studying cause and effect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suited measure in estimating the burden of a disease or attribute
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Calculated from cohort study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Calculated from cross-sectional study

Relationship between the Prevalence and Incidence

Prevalence (P) = Incidence (I) X Duration (D)

Examples

- Effect on incidence and prevalence
 - New preventive modality launched – **Incidence decreased**
 - New treatment modality launched – **Incidence same**
 - Improvement in treatment – Cures the person, **duration decreased, prevalence decreased**
 - If a new drug is effective in reducing deaths from the disease but not curing – **duration increased, prevalence increased**
 - If a new drug is effective in curing a disease – **duration decreased, prevalence decreased**

Use of Prevalence :

1. Burden of a disease can be assessed.
2. Resources can be directed for management of a disease.
3. Control the disease.

MCQs

Q. Following is true about incidence and prevalence

- A. Both are rates
- B. Prevalence is a rate but Incidence is not
- C. **Incidence is a rate but Prevalence is not**
- D. Both are not rates

Explanation: Since the multiplier is 100 so prevalence is a proportion.

Q. If the prevalence is very low as compared to the incidence for a disease, it implies?

- A. **Disease is very fatal and/or easily curable**
- B. The disease is nonfatal
- C. Calculation of prevalence and incidence is wrong
- D. Nothing can be said as they are independent

Explanation

- $P = I \times D$
- Duration decreased thus prevalence decreased

Q. All the statements are true about the disease except?

- A. Incidence is the probability that a healthy individual will develop the disease during the specified period of time
- B. **The incidence will decrease if the new drug is effective in reducing deaths from the disease**
- C. Incidence measures the absolute risk of developing disease
- D. The incidence decreases if a particular prevention program is effective

Explanation

- If a new drug is effective in reducing deaths from the disease but not curing people who continue to suffer from disease and continue transmitting it, **the incidence will remain the same and the prevalence will increase.**
- If a new drug is effective in curing a disease both incidence and prevalence will decrease.

Q. If a new effective treatment is initiated and other factors remain the same which of the following is most likely to happen

- A. **Incidence will not change**
- B. Prevalence will not change
- C. Neither incidence or prevalence will change
- D. Incidence and prevalence will change

Explanation:

- A new effective treatment is initiated and all other factors remain same, thus new cases will keep on occurring at the same rate therefore incidence will not change, however effective treatment will cure more cases so old cases will reduce therefore prevalence will reduce, however over long period of time incidence may also reduce if it is an infectious disease (as total case load in the community is decreasing).

Q. Improved prevention of acute, and nonfatal disease are likely to?

- A. Decrease the prevalence of disease
- B. Increase the prevalence of disease
- C. Decrease the incidence of disease**
- D. Increase the incidence of disease

Explanation: As it is targeting the risk factor thus decreases the incidence of disease.

2

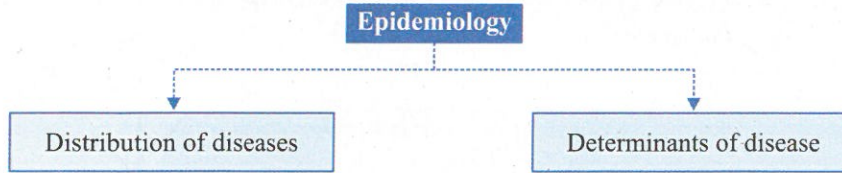
NEED, CLASSIFICATION, UNIT & APPROACH TO STUDY DESIGNS



Need of Study designs

00:01:20

- Epidemiology: Study of diseases.



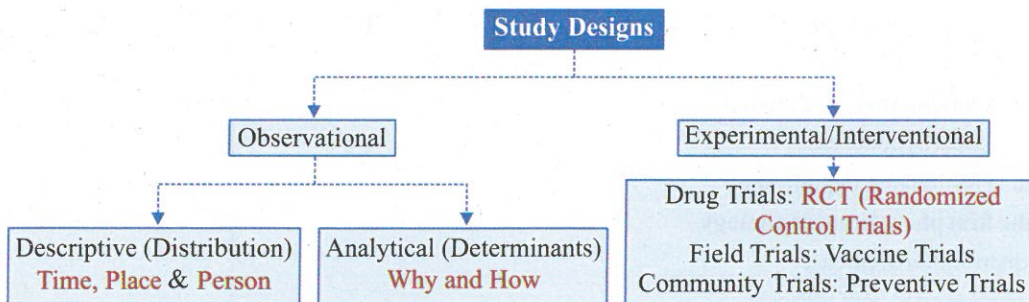
- **Hypothesis: An assumption yet to be verified**

The purpose of study designs

Formulate a Hypothesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A hypothesis is formulated when nothing is known about a new type of disease. • Done by Descriptive Epidemiology – Describing the disease in terms of Time, Place and Person when nothing is known. • For eg: In the case of COVID-19, in its initial stages, a hypothesis was formulated by terming it as a form of pneumonia.
Test a Hypothesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers the question: Why and How (a disease took place). • Deals with Analytical Epidemiology. • For eg: The people who suffered from COVID-19 were compared to people who did not suffer from COVID-19.
Confirm a Hypothesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The disease is confirmed by means of Experimental or Interventional Epidemiology. • For eg: After the confirmation of the COVID-19 virus, vaccines and drugs manufacturing took place.

Classification of Epidemiology Study Designs

00:07:38



Difference between Descriptive and Analytical Study

Descriptive Epidemiology	Analytical Epidemiology
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No Comparison Group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A comparison group is always present
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examples: Case Report & Case Series 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examples: Case-Control study design, Cohort study design, Cross-Sectional study design, and Ecological study design.

Difference between Case Report and Case Series

Case Report	Case Series
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Case report pertains to a single individual. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A Case Series is an aggregation or a collection of case reports.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is an individual case with a finding. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is an aggregation/collection of case reports that have similar findings.

Important Information

- Formulation of hypothesis: Descriptive epidemiology
- Testing of hypothesis: Analytical epidemiology
- Confirming of hypothesis: Experimental epidemiology

Q. Interventional Study is used for:

- Hypothesis formation
- Hypothesis testing
- Hypothesis confirmation**
- Hypothesis manipulation

Q. Case series is a type of:

- Descriptive study**
- Observational study
- Analytical study
- Interventional study

Q. Ecological study is a type of:

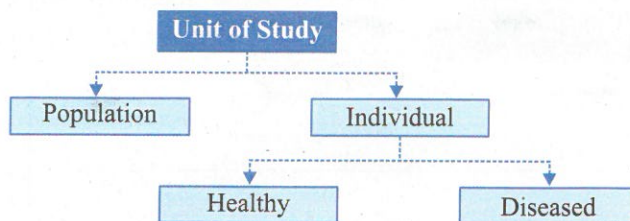
- Descriptive study
- Observational study
- Analytical study**
- Interventional study

Q. The difference between Descriptive and Analytical studies.

- Descriptive studies are used to test hypothesis.
- Analytical studies are used to formulate a hypothesis.
- Descriptive studies are the first phase in epidemiology.**
- Analytic studies observe distribution of disease.
- Descriptive studies answer why and how of a disease.

Important Information

Correlational	Ecological Study
Prevalence	Cross Sectional Study
Case Reference	Case Control Study
Incidence/follow up	Cohort Study



Important Information

- All study designs have individuals as the unit of study except ecological study (unit of population: population)
- All study designs (case control/cohort/cross-sectional): Have individual as unit of study.
- Unit of study in RCT: Diseased individuals.

Q. The analytical study where the population is the unit of study is:

- A. Cross-sectional
- B. Ecological**
- C. Case-control
- D. Cohort

Q. The best study of first choice for assessment of Unknown or New Disease with no etiological hypothesis

- A. Cohort study
- B. Case-control
- C. Cross-sectional
- D. Descriptive Epidemiology**

Summary of Types of Epidemiological Studies

Observational Studies

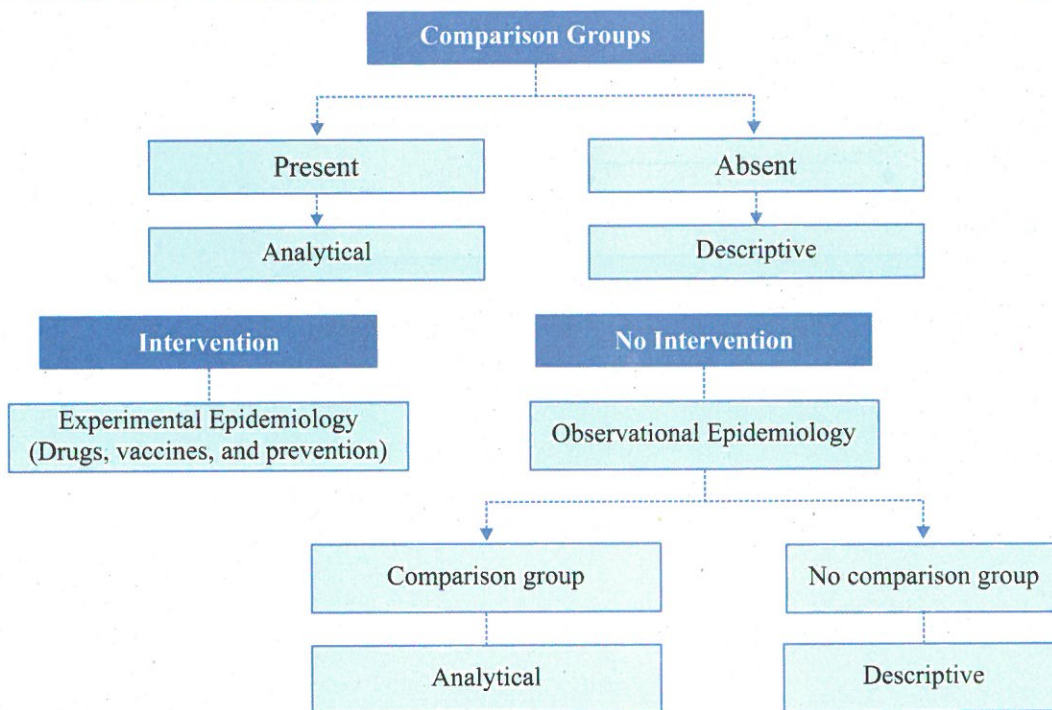
Types of studies	Alternative name	Unit of study
Descriptive studies Analytical studies	Case report, Case series	Individuals
Ecological	Correlation	Populations
Cross-sectional	Prevalence	Individuals
Cohort	Follow-up	Individuals

Experimental Studies

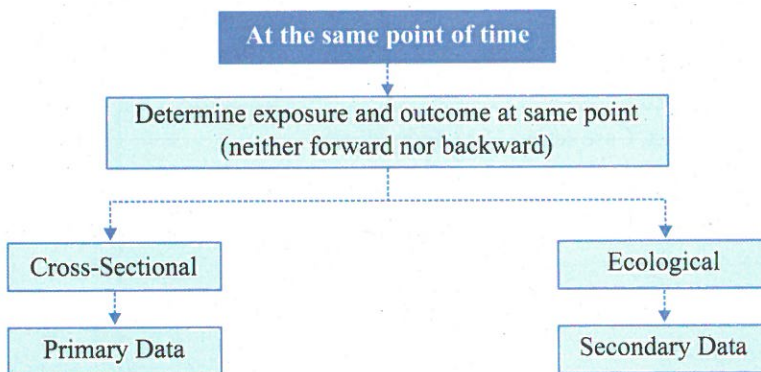
Types of studies	Alternative name	Unit of Study
Randomized Control Trials	• Clinical Trials	• Patients/Diseased Individuals
Field Trials (Vaccine Trials)	–	• Healthy People
Community Trials	• Community Studies	• Communities

Basic Approach to Identify Study Designs

00:29:21



- In case of Analytical Epidemiology, keep the following point in mind.
 - Start of the Study
 - Comparison: Exposed vs Non-Exposed (Cohort) or Diseased vs Non-diseased (Case-Control).
 - The direction of Arrow:
 - Forward → Cohort
 - Backwards → Case Control



Q. A total of 5000 patients of glaucoma are identified and surveyed by patient interviews regarding family history of glaucoma. Such a study design is called?

- A. Case Series Report**
- B. Case-Control Study
- C. Clinical Trial
- D. Cohort Study

3

DESCRIPTIVE STUDY DISEASE DISTRIBUTION



Descriptive Epidemiology: Definition & concept

- Epidemiology: Study of distribution & determinants

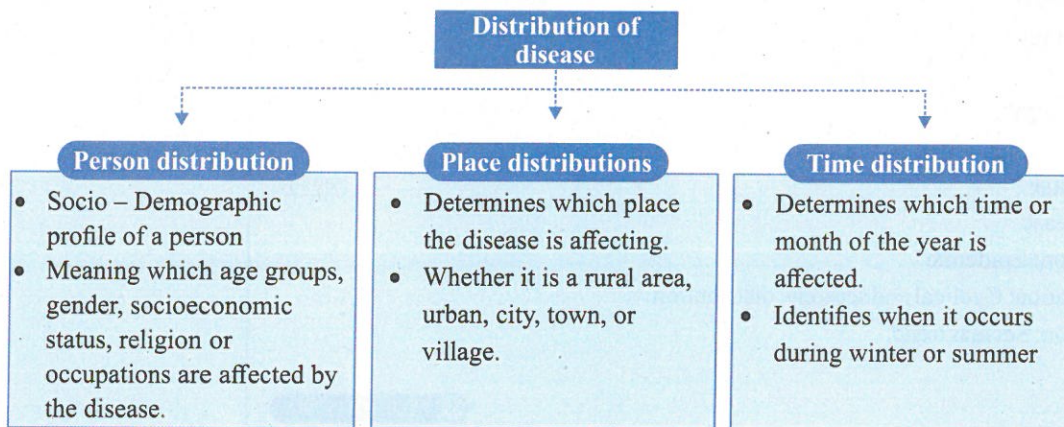
Definition of Descriptive Epidemiology

- Study of distribution of disease/health-related events & identification of characteristics associated with the disease.

Salient Features

00:04:00

- 1st phase of epidemiological investigation
- Helps in formulation of hypothesis: when the disease is new, or nothing is known about it.
- Helps in study distribution of disease: in terms of time (when), place (where), and person (whom).



Steps in Descriptive Study Design

00:08:32

Defining the population to be studied	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sociodemographic profile of the population is defined. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Age, gender, socioeconomic status etc., • Certain essentialities that we demand in population <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Should be stable ○ No migration ○ Includes community participation - people of the community should come forward. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Consider the entire population of the area or can take a sample of the population. → In the second case, the sample should be representative of the population.
Defining the disease under study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clinical definition may not be specific; it can vary. • Epidemiologists should have clear-cut definitions, which should not change throughout the study. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ All the eligibility criteria or Diagnostic criteria need to be specified.
Describing disease by	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time - when • Place – where • Person - whom

Measurement of disease	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mortality statistics • Morbidity statistics • Disability statistics
Comparing with known indices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compare what was the situation before and what is the situation now.
Formulation of an etiological hypothesis.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where the disease is happening in terms of time, place & person.

Q. Which study design helps us to formulate a hypothesis?

Ans. Descriptive Study Design

Q. Studying the distribution of disease or health-related characteristics in the human population and identifying characteristics with which disease seems to be associated is

- A. Descriptive Epidemiology
- B. Experimental epidemiology
- C. Analytical epidemiology
- D. Interventional epidemiology

Time Distribution of Disease

00:15:16

- In the occurrence of disease
 - Short-term fluctuation: Epidemic
 - Periodic term fluctuation: Cyclical and seasonal distribution
 - Long-term fluctuation: Secular trend.

Short-term fluctuation

PYQ: AIIMS 2018

- Best example: Occurrence of an epidemic.

PYQ: FMGE 2020

Epidemic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occurrence of disease clearly in excess of normal expectancy. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ E.g. think about any disease 'X.' What is the normal expectancy of disease 'X'? ○ Take an average or mean of the number of cases occurring in the previous or last 3-5 years. ○ Mean = sum of all observations/ total no of observation. ○ Can be said as: diseases occurs in frequency $>2 \text{ S.D} + \text{mean}$ or $>80\%$ of expected frequency. • Occurrence of even a single case of previously eliminated disease: Epidemic. • Occurrence of a single case of an exotic disease. E.g., Yellow fever in India.
Endemic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constant presence of disease in a population. E.g., malaria, TB, etc. • Epidemiologically link cases in terms of time, place, or person.
Endemic vs Epidemic	<p>The graph illustrates the difference between endemic and epidemic disease. The y-axis represents the 'Number of cases' and the x-axis represents 'Time'. The 'Endemic' phase is shown as a low, relatively stable line with minor fluctuations. The 'Epidemic' phase is shown as a sharp, high peak that rises significantly above the endemic level and then gradually declines back towards the endemic level.</p>