

1 Title: **Assessment of epidemiological determinants of COVID-19 pandemic related to**
2 **social and economic factors globally**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 The COVID-19 outbreak has severely affected the social and economic conditions
15 across this globe. Little is known about the relationship of COVID-19 with countries' economic
16 and socio-demographic status. Publicly available data on COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case
17 fatality rate, and recovery rate were analyzed in relation to country's economic status,
18 population density, median age, and urban population ratio. We also conducted multinomial
19 logistic regression analysis to predict the influence of countries' social and economic factors
20 on COVID-19. The results revealed that the median age had significant positive correlation
21 with attack rate ($r=0.2389$, $p=0.003$), case fatality rate ($r=0.3207$, $p=0.000$) and recovery rate
22 ($r=0.4847$, $p=0.000$). The urbanization has positive significant correlation with recovery rate
23 ($r=0.1957$, $p=0.016$). The multinomial logistic regression analysis revealed low-income
24 countries are less likely to have an increased recovery rate ($p=0.000$) and attack rate ($p=0.016$)
25 compare to high-income countries. The lower-middle-income and upper-middle-income

26 countries are less likely to have an increased recovery rate ($p=0.000$ and $p=0.001$, respectively)
27 compared to high-income countries. Based on the result of this study, these economic and
28 socio-demographic factors should consider in designing appropriate preventive measures as a
29 next step. The low and lower-middle-income countries should invest more in health care
30 services to lower the case fatality rate and increase test and recovery rates as part of pandemic
31 preparation like COVID-19. As the number of COVID-19 attacks, death and recovery rates are
32 constantly changing; however, the intensive study is required to obtain a clear picture.

33

34 **Keyword:** COVID-19, assessment, global, social and economic factors, correlation and
35 regression analysis

36

37 1. Introduction

38 Severe acute respiratory syndrome corona virus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) affected the
39 advancement of the normal lifestyle of humans, and now the whole world is fighting against
40 the invisible enemy that most of the story is unseen in most instances. In December 2019, a
41 virus emerged in Wuhan, Hubei province, China, diffusing to 215 countries with the immense
42 power of human to human transmission [1]. Initially, the Chinese CDC (Center for Disease
43 Control) isolated this novel virus belongs to coronavirus family from a patient's lower
44 respiratory tract, and then WHO declared this virus as SARS-CoV-2 on 11 February 2020 [2].
45 Still, the virus spillover point being a mystery as some studies have shown that it may originate
46 from a seafood wholesale market (local seafood and live animal market with different species
47 including wildlife being sold) of Wuhan, China, and the reservoir sources might be bats [3]
48 through utilizing an intermediate host, preferably pangolins. Atypical pneumonia, fever,
49 coughing, muscle soreness, fatigue, were seen in critical cases and sought intensive care as
50 breathing difficulty was an expected outcome [4]. Due to the lunar year celebration in China

51 the massive movement of people from and between the Asian region and other parts of the
52 world, increased the geographical spreading of contagion during the outbreak [5]. Higher
53 mortality was seen in the patients with comorbidities like cancer, diabetes, and high blood
54 pressure, which make the condition more critical. Rapidly the disease has spread throughout
55 the world, and now it is a global pandemic. The traveling from the affected area is one of the
56 main causes of spreading this disease between the countries throughout the world, but there are
57 limited research results on global risk factors of COVID-19 transmission and pattern of spread
58 [6-9]. Many countries of the globe badly affected by COVID-19 with a higher number of cases
59 and mortality, including the USA, Brazil, Russia, European countries (Spain, Italy, France,
60 Germany, UK, etc.), Iran, and India. The overcrowded areas like schools, markets, public
61 transports, workplaces are the high-risk zone for transmission as it highly contagious infection
62 [10]. Countries with high economic status or modern cities are the choice of a better workplace
63 for the people aiming for more income, better livelihood, and better facilities. An urban area
64 with high population density, which responsible for any epidemic situation. The pandemic
65 situation of COVID-19 aggravated by urbanization as people fail to maintain social distance
66 and contamination. An urban area with high population density might be a risky place as more
67 people come to contact infected persons that increase the chance of contamination [11].
68 Moreover, critical care capacity is a problem in comparatively low and lower-middle-income
69 countries [12], and only a few hospitals have isolation capacity, which can provide intensive
70 care with respiratory support. South Asia has an estimated 0.7-2.8 critical care beds per 100000
71 population [13] and the number of beds scarce in the lower and middle-income countries
72 compared to developed countries in the world. Furthermore, asymptomatic and in early-stage
73 infected persons can spread to the densely populated community. Older people more prone and
74 have shown more fatal than the younger due to the clinical and immune response [14]. The
75 government of different countries has implemented several steps to reduce the possibility of

76 spreading the ongoing pandemic coronavirus. Social distancing, the lockdown of affected
77 areas, restriction of public transport, work from home, and restriction of international flights
78 were the main steps to prevent coronavirus spread.

79 Indeed, the extensive spreads of SARS-CoV-2 virus around the globe have several
80 million confirmed cases till to-date; the gradual concerns will be not only our health but also
81 our livelihoods. The demographic determinants in the population are the key to determine the
82 contact patterns. Eventually, the nature of pandemic spreads around the world with the
83 implications of effective control measures in the near future from a government perspective
84 [15]. Population density, the age median age of the population of the individual countries are
85 the most critical issue to be assessed to measure the impact of pandemics and its spread. The
86 increased number of the median age of the population in a community becomes more
87 pronounced in decreasing disease incidence, even when pre-existing immunity levels in young
88 individuals are low [16]. Overall, the evolving nature of the pathogen, disease biology, and the
89 demographic characteristics of the population, which are the significant in identifying the type
90 and intensity of public health intervention measures required for disease control [17].
91 Furthermore, the differential prevalence of predisposing health conditions and other types of
92 health disparities increases uncertainty about how a novel virus would impact different
93 countries with distinctly different mobility patterns, economic status, social interactions and
94 health characteristics. Based on available data from online sources, we test the hypothesis of
95 countries social and economic status influences on the test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate,
96 and recovery rates of COVID-19.

97

98 **2. Materials and Methods**

99 **2.1. Data**

100 We extracted the total population of 2020 of the affected countries from the world
101 population review (WPR) and the worldometer database [18]. We extracted data about the total
102 number of tests for COVID-19, new cases, total cases, total deaths, and total recovery from the
103 World Health Organization (WHO) database [19]. We analyzed data from the WHO
104 coronavirus database from the beginning (January 2020) of the COVID-19 outbreak in China
105 until 31 May 2020. Furthermore, we extracted the social and economic status of the individual
106 country (based on GDP), population density per square kilometer, the median age of the
107 population, and percentages of the people living in the urban area from the World Bank
108 database [20]. Primarily, we collected the data mentioned above from 216 Countries and
109 Regions. Among them, we excluded some countries, as they did not disclose their data
110 officially. We also excluded countries having populations are less than 50,000. Finally, we
111 included 151 countries data in our analysis. However, there are variations in data recording and
112 disease-tracking systems in different countries, which we considered as a shortcoming of the
113 present study.

114 2.2. Assessment of test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate:

115 We calculated the test rate (in 100000 population), attack rate (in 100000 population),
116 case fatality rate (in 100 cases), and recovery rate (in 100 cases) using the formula described
117 [21].

118 2.3. Statistical analysis:

119 The extracted data analyzed using statistical data analysis software STATA-13. To test
120 the hypothesis, correlation, and multinomial logistic regression analysis performed in the study.
121 For the correlation analysis, we considered the country's economic status, population density
122 rate, urbanization rate, and median age during test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and
123 recovery rate. Further, we performed multinomial logistic regression analysis to understand the

124 relationships between explanatory variables and the outcome of the COVID-19 test rate, attack
125 rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate.

126

127 3. Result

128 3.1. Correlation analysis of social and economic factors

129 3.1.1 Population density and COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery 130 rate

131 The correlation of population density of different countries varied with COVID-19
132 outcomes (Table 1). The analysis revealed that, population density has positive relations with
133 COVID-19 test rate ($r=0.0301$), case fatality rate ($r=0.0049$) and recovery rate ($r=0.0056$) but
134 none of these were statistically significant ($p=0.7138$; $p=0.9525$ and $p=0.9459$, respectively).
135 On the other hand, the attack rate found a negatively insignificant association with the
136 population density of the study countries.

137 3.1.2 Median age and COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate

138 Overall, COVID-19 outcomes had a significant positive relationship with the median
139 age of the countries (Table 2). Specifically, the analysis revealed that the median age of the
140 population of different countries has a significant positive correlation with attack rate
141 ($r=0.2389$, $p=0.003$), case fatality rate ($r=0.3207$, $p=0.000$) and recovery rate ($r=0.4847$,
142 $p=0.000$). The test rate, however, had a positive correlation ($r=0.0732$), but the association is
143 not significant ($p=0.3719$).

144 3.1.3 Urban population rate and COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery 145 rate

146 In general, the analysis revealed that the urban population rate with COVID-19
147 outcomes has a different correlation with a different significance level (Table 3). Precisely,
148 urbanization had positive significant correlation recovery rate ($r=0.1957$, $p=0.016$). On the

149 other hand, the correlation of urbanization with test rate, attack rate and case fatality rate found
150 positive ($r= 0.0489$; $r= 0.0646$ and $r= 0.1138$, respectively) but the correlation is not significant
151 ($p= 0.551$; $p= 0.431$ and $p= 0.164$, respectively).

152 3.2.The outcome of multinomial logistic regression analysis

153 We performed multinomial logistic regression analysis to predict if the economic status
154 of different countries influences on COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and
155 recovery rate. Based on the World Bank's classification, the economic status of different
156 countries categorized as "High Income", "Low Income", "Lower Middle Income" and "Upper
157 Middle Income". In the analysis, we compared the results of Low Income, Lower Middle
158 Income, and Upper Middle Income with High-Income countries. Therefore, we considered
159 Higher Income countries as our baseline. The results of the multinomial regression analysis
160 given in table 4.

161 The multinomial logistic regression analysis revealed that the relative risk ratio (RRR)
162 for 'attack rate' indicates the 'high income' countries are less likely to have a relative risk of
163 attack to 'low income' countries and this prediction changes by a factor of 0.983 which is
164 significant ($se= 0.0070$, $p=0.016$). That means that the countries with greater risk of attack rate
165 are falling into the 'high income' countries and at lower risk of being in the 'low income'
166 countries. The RRR for 'recovery rate' indicates that the relative risk for 'low income'
167 countries, which is 0.970 times higher than high-income countries. This predictor found
168 statistically significant ($se= 0.0079$, $p=0.000$). This means that low-income countries are at a
169 greater risk of falling into the 'recovery rate' and at a lower risk of belonging to the 'high
170 income' category.

171 In the case of 'test rate' and 'case fatality rate,' there is an increased relation with
172 statistical insignificance. The RRR for 'test rate' indicates an increase in this variable, the risk
173 of falling into the 'high income' countries the relative risk of fitting to the 'low income'

174 countries are predicted to change by a factor of 1.000 but not a significant predictor ($p=0.965$).
175 The RRR for 'case fatality rate' indicates that the relative risk for 'low income', which is 0.987
176 times higher than that of high-income countries, but this predictor is not statistically significant
177 ($p=0.088$).

178 In the case of lower-income countries, the RRR for 'recovery rate' indicates that the
179 relative risk for 'lower middle income' which is 0.970 times that of higher-income countries,
180 which is a significant predictor ($se= 0.0066$, $p=0.000$). The 'test rate' and 'case fatality rate'
181 have an increased risk for the 'lower middle income' countries compared to 'high income', but
182 these are not significantly associated ($p=0.120$ and $p=0.409$ respectively). Similarly, the RRR
183 for 'attack rate' indicates increase on this variable, the risk of falling into the 'lower middle
184 income' countries relative to the risk of belonging to the 'high income' countries by a factor of
185 0.992 which is not a significant predictor ($se= 0.0059$, $p=0.0204$). Likewise, while analyzing
186 upper-middle-income countries, the RRR for 'recovery rate' in 'upper middle income'
187 countries indicate increased risk compared to 'higher income' countries by a factor of 0.983,
188 which is significant ($se= 0.0053$, $p=0.001$). Upper middle-income countries are at higher risk in
189 case of 'attack rate,' 'case fatality rate', and 'recovery rate' compared to higher-income
190 countries. On the other hand, the 'test rate' indicates that one-unit increase on this value, the
191 relative risk of being in the 'upper middle income' changes by a factor of 1.0000, which is not
192 a significant predictor ($p=0.989$).

193

194 4. Discussion

195 4.1. Possible effects of social and economic factors on COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case
196 fatality rate and recovery rate

197 We have analysed the impact of population density of the countries being affected by
198 COVID-19 by examining the correlations with defined selected outcomes like social and

199 economic factors in this study. However, population density produces a positive impact
200 through it was an insignificant relationship with the COVID-19 test rate and case fatality rate
201 while negative but insignificant relations found with attack rate and recovery rate. The
202 outcomes of this statistical model demonstrated that the population density of the particular
203 countries does not have any significant relations with COVID-19 outcomes. In infectious
204 disease epidemiology, the population density is the communication mode is likely to follow an
205 initial sub-linear density-dependent form until the saturation of transmission rate evolutions
206 [22]. The proven principles indicate that an epidemic of transmissible disease spread more
207 rapidly and intensely in densely populated areas [23] than in lightly populated because of the
208 lower chances of interpersonal contacts or mixing in less human population density countries
209 or areas. These opposing findings might be because COVID-19 is currently anticipated to
210 transmit only through person-to-person contact, and contact with contaminated surfaces might
211 not be correct. Other means of virus spread need to be explored. Travelers, social events like
212 marriage ceremony, birthday, etc. and different religious congregation might be some other
213 factors increasing disease burden even in places where population density is not too high. The
214 rapidly growing population force the creation of megacities of China and India and produce
215 fast track international connectivity seeking the importance of more research on this aspect of
216 COVID-19 impact in the densely populated country. The mega country like China, India,
217 Brazil, could be the place where the pandemic is posing significant public health threats. A
218 positive relationship between mortality rates and population densities in the USA perspective
219 for influenza pandemics were recognized [24]. Once cities introduced into the equation,
220 normalizing the mortality rate of the cities with those of the states also showed a positive
221 relationship with population density. The opposite scenario also identified a link between
222 population density and mortality for the 1918 pandemic; in rural areas of Wales and England
223 [25], the low population density was positively associated with mortality. On a larger county

224 scale, however, they found no connection between population density or residential crowding
225 and mortality or transmissibility.

226 The median age has significant positive relations with attack rate, case fatality rate, and
227 recovery rate while insignificant positive association observed in the case of test rate. The
228 median age positively influences on COVID-19 attack rate, recovery rate, and case fatality rate.
229 Previous research indicated that the increasing median age had increased the chance of
230 infection [26] and death as recent findings suggested patients with age ≥ 60 years are at higher
231 risk [27] than children who might be less likely to become infected or if so, may show milder
232 symptoms or even asymptomatic infection [28]. In this globalization of one village concept,
233 the population demographic feature being changed through an increase in life expectancy and
234 decrease fertility led to the establishment of the older people living in smaller households. The
235 drivers of these demographics include public health improvement and social and economic
236 transformation associated with the growth of urbanization [29]. Similar trends are occurring,
237 at differing rates and dimensions, among less developed countries of the world. Understanding
238 how changes in the demographic structure of a population affect disease transmission is a
239 necessity step towards the design of more effective strategies for disease control. Though, the
240 case fatality rate of COVID-19 infections has been lower (12th March, 6.22% versus
241 23rd March, 9.26%) [30], than recently occurred other outbreaks; as it was 9.6% in the SARS-
242 CoV outbreak [31] and 34.4% in the MERS-CoV outbreak [32].

243 The ratio of the urban population has a positive significant relation recovery rate. On
244 the other hand, relation with test rate found negative but insignificant while association with
245 case fatality rate and attack rate found positive but insignificant. That means urban people are
246 more likely to recover from COVID-19. Urban areas considered as the center of any country.
247 Like many other public services, most of the improved health care facilities established in urban
248 areas. Both government and private sectors invest more in health care facilities. As a result,

249 health and health service provisions are improved and intensive in urban areas than in rural
250 areas. Urbanization plays the emergence of zoonotic diseases as the rapid intensification of
251 agriculture, socioeconomic change, and ecological fragmentation, which can have profound
252 impacts on the epidemiology of infectious disease [33]. Urban planning and appropriate
253 surveillance system can be powerful tools to improve global health and decrease the burden,
254 especially highly transmissible diseases [34]. However, the shift of populations from rural
255 areas to the urban landscape, pose the risk of the concentration of a succession of epidemics
256 and pandemics in cities has become stronger [35]. Urban activities provide the space of people
257 to come together. This goes against the rules of social distancing. The other factor within a city
258 in which the urban poor people live and where many public amenities such as toilets and
259 collection of water shared among themselves. Avoiding crowding in this situation becomes
260 almost impossible. The consequence of this city deficit is borne out by a vast number of cases
261 among slums and the urban poor. They also attract travelers and tourists from across the world.
262 Throughout while, they have especially crafted their policies and city services to assist and
263 facilitate these visitors. One of the reasons why European countries suffered so badly was due
264 to the ingress of Chinese and other tourists that helped, more substantial, and quicker spread of
265 the virus.

266 Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the indicator for the status of the individual country,
267 and World Bank categorized the countries as high-income, upper middle income, lower
268 middle-income, and low-income [20]. Low-income countries are less likely to have an
269 increased recovery rate, and attack rate compares to high-income countries. This might be due
270 to the lack of proper healthcare facilities in low-income countries. Usually, the health care
271 sector received little attention from the international public health community; these problems
272 are not restricted to high-income countries but are becoming increasingly crucial in middle-
273 income and, to a lesser extent, some low-income countries [36]. Lower middle-income and

274 upper-middle-income countries are less likely to have an increased recovery rate compare to
275 high-income countries. Individuals in low and middle-income countries have to fight mainly
276 against infectious and contagious diseases, while in the high-income countries' battles are
277 mostly against lifestyle diseases [37] as the healthcare system provided significant facilities.

278 Person to person contact, using public transports during travel, and exposure to public
279 gathering, social and religious events are the primary sources of spreading this virus massively.
280 Therefore, in following with the World Health Organization's guidelines, countries are taking
281 different initiatives to stop the spreading. Maintaining social distancing, isolation, quarantine,
282 and lockdown are the key measures. Countries have failed to control the extent of COVID-19
283 due to people's denying attitudes and misunderstanding of following social distancing for
284 control of an epidemic [38, 39]. However, if we consider the recent trend of COVID-19 attack,
285 recovery, and death rates, then it can be said that these measures fail to stop the spreading virus
286 due to not considering the economic and demographic factors. In this context, our study offers
287 some key social and economic factors, which have a positive correlation with COVID-19.
288 These factors should consider designing an effective spreading control mechanism. We can
289 understand that it may be challenging to maintain a universal system in data reporting and
290 sharing. Considering this, we excluded several countries from our study. Finally, we analysed
291 a data set, as the number of COVID-19 cases, death rate and recovery rate, and countries'
292 capacity are increasing in testing day by day, we considered data as of 31st May 2020. The
293 trend on the test, attack, case fatality, and recovery rate may change after this time. In this
294 regard, this study may not represent the whole COVID-19 scenario.

295 4.2. Limitation of the study

296 Nevertheless, we must acknowledge the limitations of our present rear arch work. First, we
297 used data until 31 May 2020 and the status might be changed over the time. Besides,
298 asymptomatic cases of COVID-19 were not considered in the study since the WHO or other

299 authentic organization or authority did not report the number of asymptomatic COVID-19. Up
300 to now, globally, nobody has known the accurate data of asymptomatic COVID-19 cases.
301 Second, data of social and economic factors were extracted from open sources like WHO,
302 World Bank, Worldometer etc. We did not consider the country those has not reported their
303 COVID-19 information publicly and country has the population less than 50000. Third,
304 heterogeneity of the diagnosis, and data reporting among the different countries were not
305 considered in this study. It might effect in the deviation of the associations between social and
306 economic factors and COVID-19 spread. Furthermore, we need to review the up-to-date
307 COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate and include missing data
308 on social and economic factors during the ongoing COVID-19 outbreak.

309

310 **5. Conclusion:**

311 By analysing COVID-19 data, economic status, and population data of 151 countries,
312 we found that economic status, the median age of the population, and urban population ratio
313 significantly influence on COVID-19 attack rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate. Based on
314 the result of this study, these detail economic and socio-demographic factors should consider
315 designing appropriate control mechanisms as a next step. The low and lower-middle-income
316 countries should invest more in health care services to lower the case fatality rate and increase
317 test and recovery rates as part of pandemic preparation like COVID-19.

318

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332 Not required

333

334 **Authors contribution:**

335 Conceived and designed the research: MMH, AI and SAK. Data collection: MMH,
336 MKR and MRKN. Data analysis: AK, MMH and AI. Wrote the paper and made comments:
337 MMH, AK, SS, MRKN, MKR, SAK and AI.

338

339 **Conflict of interest:**

340 Not exist

341

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454 **Figures**

455 Figure 1: Correlation between Median age and attack rate (in one hundred thousand

456 Figure 2: Correlation between median age and case fatality

457 Figure 3: Correlation between median age and recovery rate

458 Figure 4: Correlation between urban population rate and recovery rate

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474 Table 1: Correlation analysis between population density rate and COVID-19 test rate, attack
 475 rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate

Variables	Population density (sq. km)	Test rate in one hundred thousand	Attack rate in one hundred thousand	Case fatality rate	Recovery rate
Population density (sq.km)	-				
Test rate in one hundred thousand	0.0301				
Attack rate in one hundred thousand	-0.0426	0.0451			
Case fatality rate	0.0049	-0.0818	0.0216		
Recovery rate	0.0056	0.0416	0.0938	0.2321*	-

476 *p value <0.05

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487 Table 2: Correlation analysis between median age and COVID-19 test rate, attack rate, case
 488 fatality rate, and recovery rate

Variables	Median age	Test rate in one hundred thousand	Attack rate in one hundred thousand	Case fatality rate	Recovery rate
Median age	-				
Test rate in one hundred thousand	0.0732	-			
Attack rate in one hundred thousand	0.2389*	0.0451	-		
Case fatality rate	0.3207*	-0.0818	0.0216	-	
Recovery rate	0.4847*	0.0416	0.0938	0.2321	-

489 *p value <0.05

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502 Table 3: Correlation analysis between urban population rate and COVID-19 test rate, attack
 503 rate, case fatality rate, and recovery rate

Variables	Urban population rate	Test rate in one hundred thousand	Attack rate in one hundred thousand	Case fatality rate	Recovery rate
Urban population rate	-				
Test rate in one hundred thousand	0.0489	-			
Attack rate in one hundred thousand	0.0646	0.0451	-		
Case fatality rate	0.1138	-0.0818	0.0216	-	
Recovery rate	0.1957*	0.0416	0.0938	0.2321*	-

504 *p value <0.05

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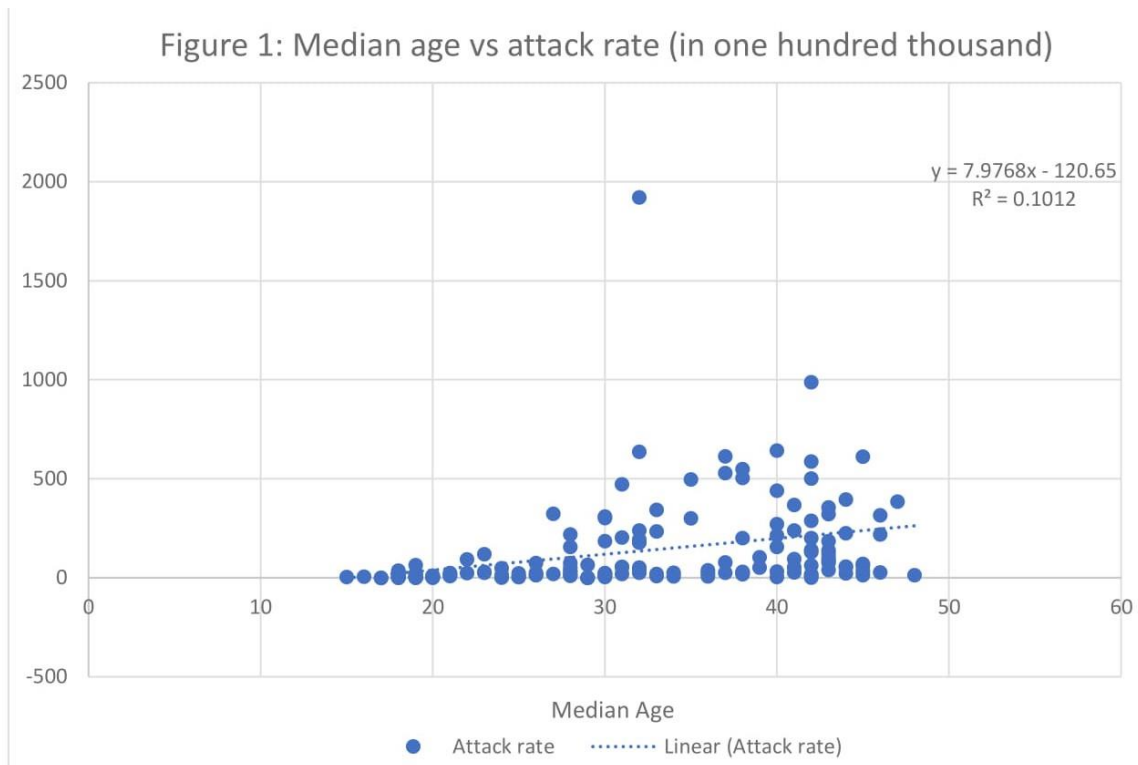
516 Table 4: Multinomial logistic regression analysis on factors predicting the likelihood with
 517 relevant risk ratio

Economic status	RRR	S. E.	p-value	95% CI
High Income	(base outcome)			
Low Income				
Test rate in one hundred thousand	1.000304	0.0070161	0.965	0.9866465 - 1.01415
Attack rate in one hundred thousand	0.9827875	0.0070803	0.016	0.969008 - 0.996763
Case fatality rate	0.9874364	0.0073279	0.088	0.9731779 - 1.001904
Recovery rate	0.9699087	0.0078576	0.000	0.9546298 - 0.9854322
_cons	16.42125	26.7279	0.003	2.876348 - 208.1591
Lower Middle income				
Test rate in one hundred thousand	0.9884432	0.0060143	0.056	0.9767254 - 1.000302
Attack rate in one hundred thousand	0.9924396	0.0059309	0.204	0.980883 - 1.004132
Case fatality rate	0.9977505	0.0059797	0.707	0.986099 - 1.00954
Recovery rate	0.9700615	0.0066459	0.000	0.9571229 - 0.983175
_cons	24.74972	23.56084	0.001	3.830514 - 159.9128
Upper Middle Income				

Test rate in one hundred thousand	1.000068	0.0048382	0.989	0.9906303 - 1.009596
attack rate in one hundred thousand	0.9950287	0.004893	0.311	0.9854846 - 1.004665
Case fatality rate	0.9993682	0.0049592	0.899	0.9896954 - 1.009135
Recovery rate	0.9827827	0.0053308	0.001	0.9723899 - 0.9932866
_cons	5.316753	4.296089	0.039	1.091066 - 25.90847

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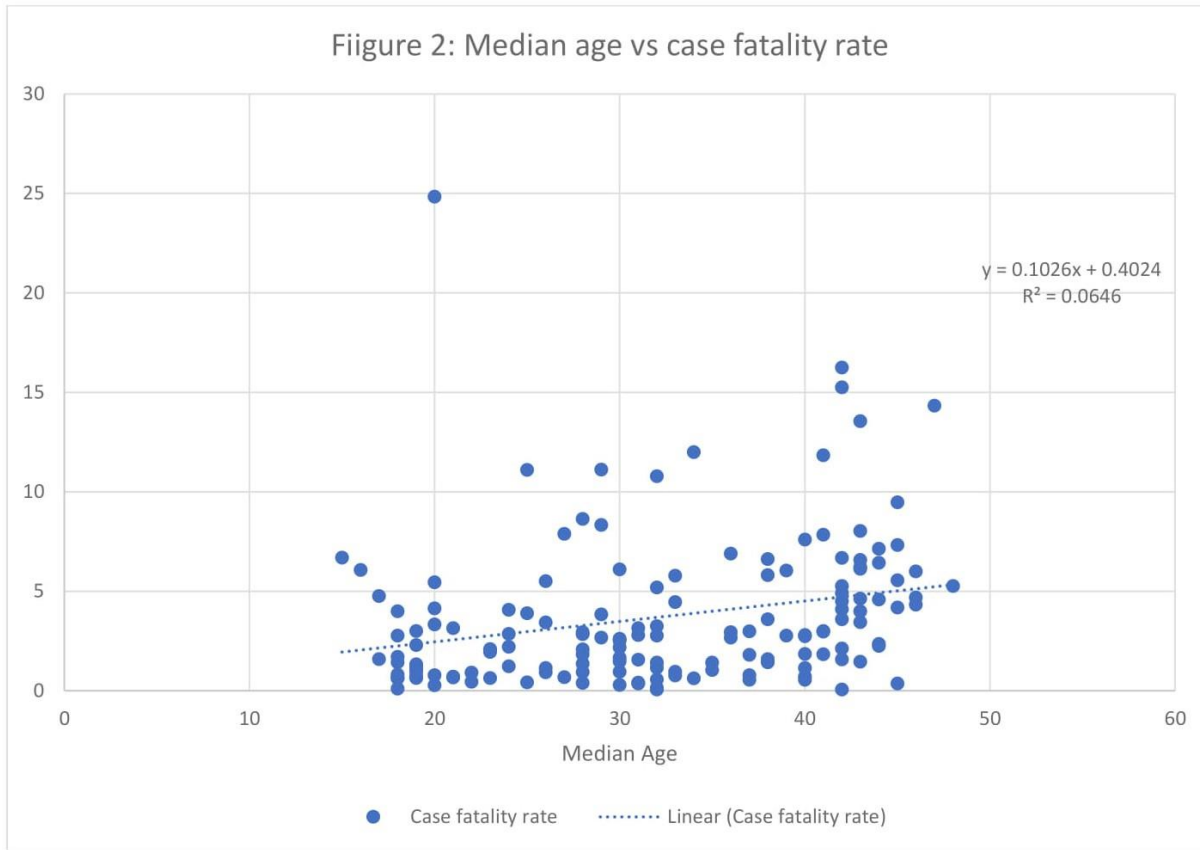
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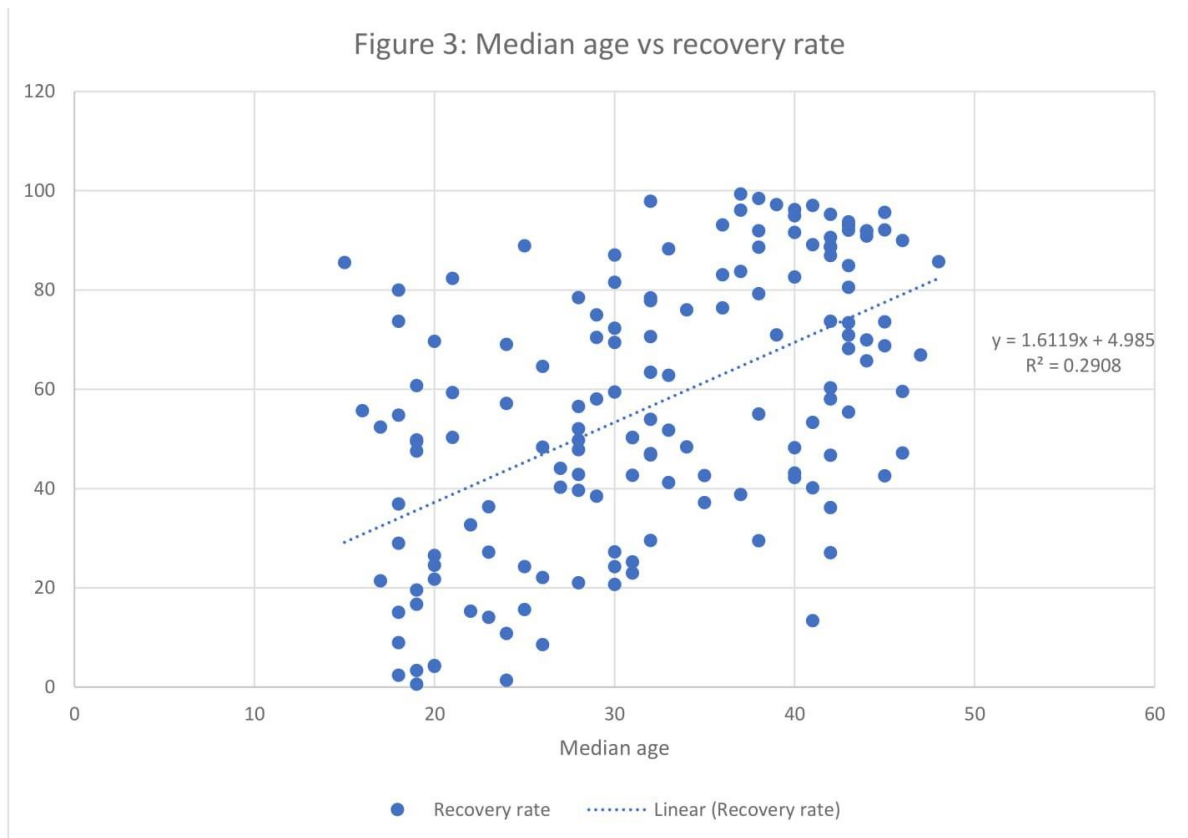
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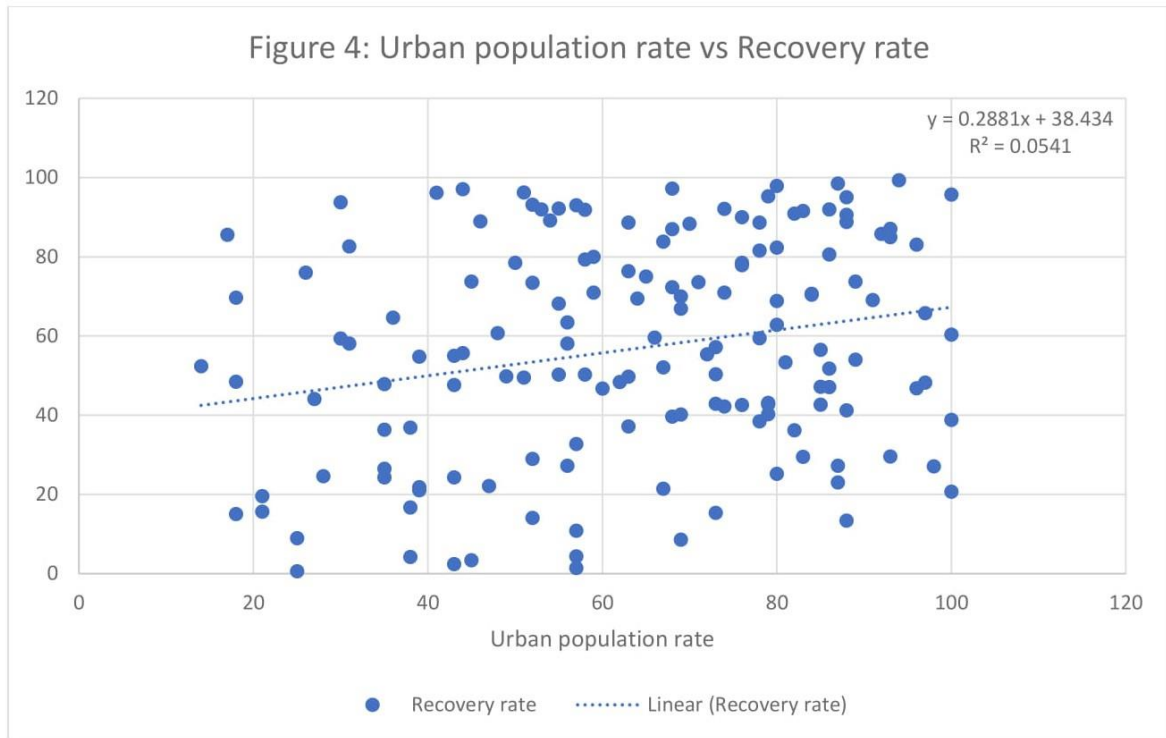


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