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## Association of age, gender, deprivation, urbanicity, ethnicity, and smoking with a positive test for COVID-19 in an English primary care surveillance network: cross sectional study of the first 500 cases

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p><b>Background</b> There are few epidemiological studies of community cases in the current coronavirus-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. We report on the first 500 COVID-19 cases identified through United Kingdom primary care surveillance and describe risk factors for testing COVID-19 positive.</p> <p><b>Methods</b> The Oxford-Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) Research and Surveillance</p>

Centre (RSC), is a nationally representative primary care sentinel network sharing pseudonymised data, including virological test data for COVID-19. We used multivariable logistic regression models with multiple imputation to identify risk factors for positive COVID-19 tests within this surveillance programme.

#### Findings

We identified 3,802 COVID-19 results between 28/01/20 and 04/04/2020, 587 were positive. Greater odds of testing COVID-19 positive included: working-age people (40-64 years) and older age, ( $\geq 75$  years) versus 0-17 year olds (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 5.26, 95%CI:3.26-8.49 and 5.17, 95%CI:2.99-8.92, respectively); male gender (aOR 1.56, 95%CI:1.28-1.90); black and mixed ethnicity compared with white (aOR 4.55, 95%CI:2.55-8.10 and 1.84 95%CI:1.1-3.14, respectively); urban compared with rural areas (aOR 4.58, 95%CI:3.57-5.88); people with chronic kidney disease (CKD) (aOR 1.88, 95%CI:1.29-2.75) and increasing body mass index (aOR 1.02, 95%CI:1.00-1.03). People in the least deprived deprivation quintile had lower odds of a positive test (aOR 0.49 95%CI:0.36-0.65) as did current smokers (aOR 0.53, 95%CI:0.38-0.74).

#### Interpretation

A positive COVID-19 test result in primary care was associated with similar risk factors for severe outcomes seen in hospital settings, with the exception of smoking. We provide early evidence of potential sociodemographic factors associated with a positive test, including ethnicity, deprivation, population density, and CKD.

#### Funding

Public Health England, Wellcome Trust.

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# Abstract

## Background

There are few epidemiological studies of community cases in the current coronavirus-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. We report on the first 500 COVID-19 cases identified through United Kingdom primary care surveillance and describe risk factors for testing COVID-19 positive.

## Methods

The Oxford-Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) Research and Surveillance Centre (RSC), is a nationally representative primary care sentinel network sharing pseudonymised data, including virological test data for COVID-19. We used multivariable logistic regression models with multiple imputation to identify risk factors for positive COVID-19 tests within this surveillance programme.

## Findings

We identified 3,802 COVID-19 results between 28/01/20 and 04/04/2020, 587 were positive. Greater odds of testing COVID-19 positive included: working-age people (40-64years) and older age, ( $\geq 75$  years) versus 0-17 year olds (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 5.26, 95%CI:3.26-8.49 and 5.17, 95%CI:2.99-8.92, respectively); male gender (aOR 1.56, 95%CI:1.28-1.90); black and mixed ethnicity compared with white (aOR 4.55, 95%CI:2.55-8.10 and 1.84 95%CO:1.1-3.14, respectively)); urban compared with rural areas (aOR 4.58, 95%CI:3.57-5.88); people with chronic kidney disease (CKD) (aOR 1.88, 95%CI:1.29-2.75) and increasing body mass index (aOR 1.02, 95%CI:1.00-1.03). People in the least deprived deprivation quintile had lower odds of a positive test (aOR 0.49 95%CI:0.36-0.65) as did current smokers (aOR 0.53, 95%CI:0.38-0.74).

## Interpretation

A positive COVID-19 test result in primary care was associated with similar risk factors for severe outcomes seen in hospital settings, with the exception of smoking. We provide early evidence of potential sociodemographic factors associated with a positive test, including ethnicity, deprivation, population density, and CKD.

## Funding

Public Health England, Wellcome Trust.

## Introduction

The world is in the grip of a pandemic caused by the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) virus, which causes coronavirus-2019 (COVID-19) disease.<sup>1</sup> The first imported cases were detected in the United Kingdom (UK) in late January, and community transmission began at the end of that month.<sup>2</sup> Initial reports from China, Italy and Spain have described clinical characteristics of people diagnosed with COVID-19 and risk factors for hospitalisation and death.<sup>3</sup> These studies report age, male gender, cardiovascular disease, hypertension and diabetes as being associated with an increased risk of severe disease.<sup>4</sup> However, most research to date has been conducted in hospital settings and the generalisability of these initial results to the much larger population of people who develop COVID-19 in community settings is uncertain. There is an urgent need to establish risk factors for COVID-19 in the broader community population to inform primary care management, public health measures and more personalised advice to patient groups.<sup>5</sup>

The Oxford-Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) Research and Surveillance Centre (RSC) is one of the longest established primary care sentinel networks globally. It is recruited to be nationally representative and includes over 500 urban and non-urban participating general practices, covering a population of over 4 million people.<sup>6,7,8</sup> The RCGP RSC works in close collaboration with Public Health England (PHE) on national surveillance of communicable diseases such as influenza<sup>9</sup> and assessing vaccine effectiveness,<sup>10,11</sup> including during the 2009 pandemic.<sup>12</sup> The network has adapted for COVID-19 surveillance by enlarging threefold to provide better coverage and introducing self-swabbing at home to reduce risks of disease transmission.<sup>13,14</sup>

We aimed to identify demographic and clinical risk factors for testing positive for COVID-19 within this primary care surveillance programme.

## Methods

### Study design and participants

We performed a cross-sectional study of patients in the Ox-RCGP RSC network who were tested for COVID-19 between 24<sup>th</sup> January and 4<sup>h</sup> April 2020. Since January 2020, RSC practices have submitted nasopharyngeal swabs to PHE for COVID-19 testing from patients presenting with symptoms of influenza or respiratory infections. Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT PCR) testing for the SARS-CoV-2 virus was performed at the PHE Colindale Laboratory. The RCGP RSC also extracts pseudonymized sociodemographic and clinical data from computerised medical records, including laboratory test results, and allows estimation of household size,<sup>15</sup> deprivation and rural-urban classification.<sup>16</sup> We included cases either from this PHE surveillance testing, through contact tracing, or primary care and hospital testing through routine NHS services.

### Eligibility Criteria

We included patients who were registered at an RCGP RSC practice on the 30<sup>th</sup> September 2019, and with an entry in their medical record reporting a positive or negative test for COVID-19. We have developed a COVID-19 surveillance ontology to ensure consistency of case-definition and only included people with a coded positive test, not people with suspected disease.<sup>17</sup> Patients with codes

in their medical records suggesting they have declined any form of data sharing were excluded (approximately 2.2% of the registered population).

#### Study variables

We included the following independent demographic variables: age, sex and ethnicity using an ontology to maximise case identification;<sup>18</sup> practice level deprivation using the English Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) quintiles (we combined the two most deprived quintiles because there was a low frequency of testing leading to sparse data in the most deprived quintile);<sup>19</sup> household size; and rural-urban classification. We included the following clinical variables, modified from those associated with increased vulnerability to influenza: body mass index (BMI); smoking status; pregnancy; hypertension; chronic kidney disease (CKD); coronary heart disease (CHD); chronic respiratory disease, asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; and diabetes type 1 and type 2. We grouped together malignancy and immunocompromised into a single group because of small numbers tested. Malignancy was identified from disease codes and we used records of prescriptions for prednisolone, and prescriptions of disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drugs (DMARDs) as surrogates for immunosuppression. The outcome variable was testing COVID-19 positive.

#### Statistical analysis

We used descriptive statistics and reported counts and proportions for categorical data, and measures of distribution for continuous data. We used a multivariate logistic regression to identify variables that were associated with a positive test of COVID-19 after multiple imputation of missing values. We included all variables in the multivariable model. We imputed missing data using the multiple imputation by chained equations method, with five imputed datasets and ten iterations<sup>20</sup>. For each variable, we specified a predictive mean matching model. Missing ethnicity observations were imputed using census data:<sup>21</sup> For each person with missing ethnicity in a given Lower Super Output Area (LSOA)<sup>22</sup> we randomly assigned an ethnic group, matching proportions of the ethnic group based on the census proportions. All analysis results were aggregated with Rubin's rule after appropriate transformation.<sup>23</sup> We checked the acceptability of the imputations by comparison of plots of the distribution of recorded and imputed values for all measurements. We used this method under the assumption that the missing observations for covariates were missing at random (MAR). All covariates in the logistic regression model (other than ethnicity) had fractions of missing data given in Table 1. We checked collinearity by measuring the variance inflationary factor (vif) for each covariate: all were deemed within acceptable bounds (the maximum vif was less than 2.0).

For all statistical analyses we used the open source software, R-version 3.5.3; we used the R library mice 3.4.0 for the multiple imputation routine.

#### Ethics

The data used for the analysis were pseudonymised at the point of extraction and encrypted prior to uploading to the Clinical Informatics Research Group secure server. Personal data were not identifiable during the analysis. The data extract was conducted as part of our surveillance work commissioned by PHE and approved under Regulation 3 of The Health Service (Control of Patient

Information) Regulations 2002. This study was approved by the RCGP RSC study approval committee and was classified as a study of “usual practice”.<sup>24</sup> Therefore, no further ethical approval was required.

## Results

### Demographic characteristics

Between 24th January and 4<sup>th</sup> April 2020, we observed 587 patients with COVID-19 positive results and 3215 negative results in our surveillance programme. The first positive case presented on 30<sup>th</sup> January 2020, and the first 100 cases were passed on 17<sup>th</sup> March 2020. Overall, 2190 (57.6%) were male and 3456 (90.9) were of white ethnicity (Table 1). The median age of patients who had a test was 58.5 years for men (IQR 45-75) and 53 years old (IQR: 31-70) for women. Just over half (1986, 52.2%) lived in rural areas, and 1855 (48.8%) were ranked as least deprived in the IMD quintile 5. The most common clinical conditions were hypertension (1094, 28.8%) and chronic heart disease (600, 15.8%).

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Cohort (n, %), including missingness, N=3802

Variable	Level	N (%)
COVID-19 Test Result	Negative	3215 (84.6)
	Positive	587 (15.4)
	Missing	0
Age, years	0-17	499 (13.1)
	18-39	666 (17.5)
	40-64	1316 (34.6)
	65-74	557 (14.7)
	75+	764 (20.1)
	Missing	0
Sex	Male	2190 (57.6)
	Female	1612 (42.4)
	Missing	0
Ethnicity	White	3456 (90.9)
	Asian	184 (4.8)
	Black	64 (1.68)
	Mixed, Other	98 (2.6)
	Missing	1014 (26.7)*
SES – Index of multiple Deprivation	1&2 (most deprived)	668 (17.5)
	3	646 (17.0)
	4	633 (16.7)
	5 (least deprived)	1855 (48.8)
	Missing	0

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Level</b>	<b>N (%)</b>
<i>Household Size</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>824 (21.7)</i>
	<i>2</i>	<i>1087 (28.6)</i>
	<i>3</i>	<i>660 (17.4)</i>
	<i>4</i>	<i>594 (15.6)</i>
	<i>5-8</i>	<i>408 (10.7)</i>
	<i>9+</i>	<i>135 (3.55)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>94 (2.47)</i>
<i>Urban/Rural</i>	<i>Rural</i>	<i>1986 (52.2)</i>
	<i>Urban</i>	<i>1816 (47.8)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Smoking Status</i>	<i>Never smoked</i>	<i>1326 (34.9)</i>
	<i>Active smoker</i>	<i>501 (13.2)</i>
	<i>Ex-smoker</i>	<i>1469 (38.6)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>506 (13.3)</i>
<i>Pregnancy</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3742 (98.4)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>60 (1.6)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Hypertension</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>2708 (71.2)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>1094 (28.8)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>CKD</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3595 (94.6)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>207 (5.4)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Diabetes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3299 (86.8)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>503 (13.2)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>CHD</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3202 (84.2)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>600 (15.8)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>CRD</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3544 (3.2)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>258 (6.8)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Malignancy and Immuno-compromised</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>3448 (90.7)</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>354 (9.3)</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>BMI (continuous)</i>	<i>Mean 27.2</i>	
	<i>(median 26.4)</i>	
	<i>IQR: 23.0-30.1</i>	
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>586(15.4)</i>

\* Missing variables imputed by census data and inputted into table

### Risk factors for testing COVID-19 positive

In univariable analysis the odds of testing positive for COVID-19 were higher amongst older people, and people of Black, Asian or Mixed/Other Ethnicity (Table 2). A higher odds of a positive test were also seen for people living in more deprived areas, urban areas and single households or households including nine or more people. Among clinical factors in the univariable analysis, CKD, malignancy or immunocompromise, diabetes, respiratory disease and hypertension were all associated with increased odds of a positive test for COVID-19 (Table 3). Active smoking was associated with decreased odds of a positive test.

In multivariable analysis, adjusted for all other variables in Tables 2 and 3, male gender remained independently associated with testing COVID-19 positive (adjusted OR [aOR] 1.46, 95%CI:1.17 to 1.81). Adults were at increased risk compared to children, but people in the age group 40 to 64 years were at greatest risk (aOR 5.26, 95%CI 3.26-8.49). Compared to people of white ethnicity, the adjusted odds of a positive test were over four times greater in people of black ethnicity (aOR 4.55, 95% 2.55-8.1) and remained high in people of Mixed/Other Ethnicity. Urban areas (aOR 4.58, 95%CI:3.57-5.88) were associated with an increased risk of a positive COVID-19 test, whereas those living in the least deprived areas (quintile 5) had a lower risk (aOR 0.49, 95%CI:0.36-0.65). The association with household size was no longer statistically significant.

Active smoking was linked to decreased odds of a positive COVID-19 test result (aOR 0.53, 95%CI 0.38-0.74). People with CKD were more likely to test positive for COVID-19 in the adjusted analysis (aOR 1.88, 95%CI:1.29-2.75) but there was no longer a statistically significant association between other chronic conditions and risk of a positive COVID-19 test in the multivariable analysis (Table 3). For every increase in one BMI unit, there was an increased aOR of 1.03 (95%CI:1.01-1.04) of having a positive test.

Table 2. Univariable and multivariable analysis of demographic risk factors for testing COVID-19 positive using logistic regression.

Variable	Level	COVID-19 Positivity n/N	(%)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	P-value	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	P-value
Age (years)	0-17	23/499	(4.6)	1		1	
	18-39	84/666	(12.6)	2.99 (1.85-4.81)	<0.0001	2.86 (1.71-4.76)	0.0001
	40-64	243/1316	(18.4)	4.69 (3.02-7.28)	<0.0001	5.26 (3.26-8.49)	<0.0001
	65-74	88/557	(15.8)	3.88 (2.41-6.25)	<0.0001	4.35 (2.51-7.54)	<0.0001
	75+	149/764	(19.5)	5.01 (3.18-7.90)	<0.0001	5.16 (2.99-8.92)	<0.0001
Sex	Female	291/2190	(13.3)	1		1	
	Male	296/1612	(18.4)	1.47 (1.23-1.75)	<0.0001	1.56 (1.28-1.90)	<0.0001
SES – Index of Multiple Deprivation Quintile	1&2 (most deprived)	197/668	(29.5)	1		1	
	3	135/646	(26.4)	0.63 (0.49-0.81)	0.0004	1.13 (0.85-1.51)	0.4
	4	112/633	(17.7)	0.51 (0.39-0.67)	<0.0001	0.72 (0.54-0.97)	0.0325
	5 (least deprived)	143/1855	(7.7)	0.20 (0.16-0.25)	<0.0001	0.49 (0.36-0.65)	<0.0001
Settlement / population density	Rural	111/1986	(5.6)	1		1	
	Urban	476/1816	(26.2)	6.0 (4.82-7.46)	<0.0001	4.58 (3.57-5.88)	<0.0001
Ethnicity	White	475/3456	(13.7)	1		1	
	Asian	53/184	(28.8)	2.54 (1.82-3.54)	<0.0001	1.38 (0.95-2.0)	0.094
	Black	36/64	(56.3)	8.07 (4.88-13.35)	<0.0001	4.55 (2.55-8.1)	<0.0001
	Mixed, Other	23/98	(23.5)	1.92 (1.2-3.1)	0.0007	1.84 (1.1-3.14)	0.0257
Household Size	1	163/824	(19.7)	1		1	
	2	158/1087	(14.5)	0.69 (0.54-0.88)	0.002	0.92 (0.7-1.22)	0.57
	3	92/660	(13.9)	0.66 (0.5-0.87)	0.003	1.06 (0.77-1.47)	0.7
	4	70/594	(11.8)	0.54 (0.4-0.73)	<0.0001	1.0 (0.7-1.42)	0.99
	5-8	53/408	(12.9)	0.61 (0.43-0.85)	0.004	0.89 (0.6-1.31)	0.54
	9-+	35/135	(25.9)	1.42 (0.93-2.16)	0.1	1.23 (0.76-2.0)	0.4

Table 3. Univariable and multivariable analysis of clinical risk factors for testing COVID-19 positive using logistic regression.

<i>Smoking Status</i>	<i>Never smoked</i>	219/1326	(16.5)	1		1	
	<i>Active smoker</i>	58/501	(11.6)	0.66 (0.49-0.90)	0.009	0.53 (0.38-0.74)	0.0002
	<i>Ex-smoker</i>	274/1469	(18.7)	1.56 (0.95-1.41)	0.14	0.92 (0.73-1.15)	0.46
<i>Pregnancy</i>	<i>No</i>	583/3742	(15.6)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	4/60	(6.7)	0.39 (0.14-1.1)	0.07	0.67 (0.23-1.97)	0.47
<i>Hypertension</i>	<i>No</i>	378/2708	(14.0)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	209/1094	(19.1)	1.46 (1.21-1.75)	<0.0001	0.90 (0.70-1.15)	0.4
<i>CKD</i>	<i>No</i>	519/3595	(14.4)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	68/207	(32.9)	2.9 (2.14-3.93)	<0.0001	1.88 (1.29-2.75)	0.001
<i>Diabetes</i>	<i>No</i>	473/3299	(14.3)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	114/503	(22.6)	1.75 (1.39-2.2)	<0.0001	1.02 (0.78-1.35)	0.86
<i>CHD</i>	<i>No</i>	451/3202	(14.1)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	136/600	(22.7)	1.79 (1.44-2.2)	<0.0001	1.21 (0.92-1.6)	0.18
<i>CRD</i>	<i>No</i>	529/3544	(14.9)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	58/258	(22.5)	1.65 (1.22-2.25)	0.001	0.99 (0.69-1.44)	0.97
<i>Malignancy and Immunocompromised</i>	<i>No</i>	504/3448	(14.6)	1		1	
	<i>Yes</i>	83/354	(23.4)	1.79 (1.37-2.33)	<0.0001	1.12 (0.82-1.52)	0.48
<i>BMI (continuous)</i>				1.03 (1.01-1.04)	<0.0001	1.02 (1.0-1.03)	0.04

## Discussion

We report one of the first and largest cross-sectional analysis of a community sample of people tested for COVID-19. We found increasing age, male sex, deprivation, urban location, black and mixed/other ethnicity were associated with an increased risk of a positive COVID-19 test. Current smoking was linked to decreased odds of a positive test. CKD and increased BMI were the only clinical factors independently associated with a positive test.

### Evidence before this study

A literature review suggests that COVID-19 has affected more men than women, and principally those in the 30 to 65 year-old age band, with roughly half of cases over 50 years old.<sup>25</sup> We found a similar increased risk of a positive COVID-19 test in men, and in people above 40 years old, particularly among those in the second half of their working life (40 to 65 years) and those aged 75 years or older.

COVID-19 transmission is known to be associated with high population density due to increased social mixing,<sup>26</sup> which is consistent with the higher odds of a positive test in urban areas in our primary care surveillance network. While social deprivation has been associated with increased risk of other respiratory infections,<sup>27</sup> we are not aware of evidence demonstrating this for COVID-19. We found a dose response relationship between decreasing deprivation and decreased odds of a positive test, independent of household size, urban location and smoking. Other factors which we did not measure, such as employment, may have contributed to this effect and should be explored.

Some ethnic differences have been reported, that suggest Asian and Black ethnicities may be associated with higher risk of disease or more severe infection, or both.<sup>28</sup> For example, among 3370 people admitted to intensive care in the UK with confirmed COVID-19 and ethnicity data, 402 (11.9%) were black, 486 Asian (14.4%) and 2236 (66.4%) white, compared to respective national figures of 3.4%, 6.8% and 80%.<sup>29</sup> These results did not adjust for potential sociodemographic or clinical confounders. While overall numbers of Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic people were small in our study, we found an association between black or mixed/other ethnicity and the odds of a positive COVID-19 test result, which remained significant after adjusting for important comorbidities such as hypertension and diabetes, the prevalence of which is increased in Black and Asian ethnic groups.<sup>30</sup>

Systematic reviews have shown that people with COVID-19, who have chronic co-morbidities such as hypertension, diabetes and cardiovascular disease are at a higher risk of progressing to severe COVID-19 disease.<sup>31,32</sup> There is little evidence regarding the impact of these conditions on risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection, and we found that chronic kidney disease and increased BMI were associated with testing positive for COVID-19. Risk factors for infection and progression to severe disease may be different. There has been controversy over smoking and COVID-19, with most of the data focussing on the impact of smoking on disease severity and progression, rather than risk of testing COVID-19 positive. We found that active smoking was associated with lower odds of having a positive test result. We speculate whether active smoking might have an impact on the viral test results rather than on disease process. The association between smoking and COVID-19 merits further investigation, particularly as there is a risk our data might encourage people to smoke. This would be unwarranted given the well documented harms to overall health from smoking, the potential for smoking to increase COVID-19 disease severity,<sup>33</sup> and the preliminary nature of our findings.

## Strengths and limitations

To our knowledge, this is the first study to report risk factors for testing positive for COVID-19 among a well described cohort of patients in a community setting. The RCGP RSC is an established network of sentinel practices, meaning clinicians are experienced in undertaking surveillance research. The same approach to sample collection and analysis was used in all patients. Practices have been provided with coding ontologies in order to standardise reporting.

This study is based on a cohort of symptomatic people who self-presented to a primary care sentinel practice. Although health care is free at the point of access in the UK, results may in part reflect which groups of patients were more likely to present for assessment. Our study population contained a high proportion of people living in rural and least deprived areas, suggesting there may be some disparities in testing based on socioeconomic status. This could bias our results, as if people living in more deprived areas were only likely to present to practices when more severely unwell, those who did present could be more likely to be COVID-positive. In less deprived areas, there may be less barriers to presenting, meaning people may present with less severe symptoms, and therefore be more likely to test negative. Population-based surveys are therefore required to ensure consistent levels of testing across sub-groups.

Whilst RT PCR testing is the current gold standard for SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis, reports suggest these assays are approximately 75% sensitive, meaning some COVID-19 cases would have been missed. Also, the sentinel network changed from in-practice nasopharyngeal to self-swabbing, using a previously tested approach.<sup>34</sup> Testing, coding and the likelihood of infection being travel-related have all changed over time and are potential confounders. It was not possible to assess the impact of these factors on positive tests in this cross-sectional analysis. Missing data for smoking, ethnicity, and BMI may also have impacted our results, although we corrected for this with multiple imputation techniques.

## Implications for practice and future research

Further data are needed to establish the epidemiology of COVID-19, particularly in relation to emerging factors such as ethnicity, deprivation and population density. Population-based surveys could help to reduce selection bias and ensure adequate inclusion of different population sub-groups. Our data from primary care may be able to help inform the impact of social distancing and lockdown on particular groups; it should also be able to inform about rates of hospitalisation and death as the pandemic unfolds.

## Conclusions

Sentinel network data provides some insights into the epidemiology of COVID-19. Notwithstanding the limitations of the scale of this study and that it is based on routine data; primary care provides insights into which groups are more likely to test positive for COVID-19. Our finding about cigarette smoking should not be taken as permission to carry on. Increasing age, male gender, black and mixed ethnicity, and increased population density are all associated with an increased risk of a positive test.

## Research in context

### Evidence before this study

We conducted a focused search of PubMed, Medline and Trip database from inception to 14.4.20 to look for community-based studies describing the epidemiology of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) virus or the associated illness, coronavirus-2019 (COVID-19), using the terms “(COVID-19 or 2019-nCoV or SARS-CoV-2) AND (primary care or general practice or family practice or community)”. We found no relevant studies.

Hospital-based studies have reported increasing age, male gender and certain co-morbidities, such as hypertension and diabetes, are associated with an increased risk of COVID-19 and with more severe disease. The generalisability of these initial results to the much larger population of people who develop COVID-19 in community settings is currently uncertain.

### Added value of this study

We performed a cross-sectional study of patients with a positive COVID-19 test code in the Oxford Royal College of General Practitioners Research Surveillance Centre network between 24<sup>th</sup> January and 4<sup>h</sup> April 2020. We observed 587 patients with positive and 3215 with negative results.

Increasing age, population density, male sex and black ethnicity were associated with an increased risk of a positive COVID-19 test. Chronic kidney disease and increasing body mass index were the only clinical factors associated with a positive test. Current smokers have a lower rate of positive tests.

People in the least deprived socioeconomic group, those of white ethnicity and people living in rural areas were more likely to have a negative test result than their comparative subgroups, suggesting there may currently be disparities in testing.

### Implications of all the available evidence

Our findings suggest risk factors for developing COVID-19 in the community are similar to those which lead to hospital admission, with males, people aged over 40 years and those living in urban areas most at risk. Research is needed into reasons for potential disparities in testing, ethnic variations in COVID-19 incidence and the risk to smokers.

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## Contributors:

SdeL conceived the study with MZ and wrote the first full draft and led subsequent revisions. AC did the first analysis with input and help from MJ and wrote an initial draft manuscript. JS with input from RB created the first and revised data output from the database. MJ conducted the final statistical analysis. JD and NJ and other authors helped interpret the analysis, and contributed substantially to the write up. CO additionally assisted with the data presentation. All other authors contributed substantially to ensuring the effective availability of data to support this paper, interpretation and analysis of this data to the manuscript and its revisions.

## Declaration of interests:

The authors have no competing interests. SdeL is the Director of the Oxford RCGP RSC, RB, JS, FF, EK and GH are part funded by PHE; and CO and AC by a Wellcome Biomedical resources grant (212763/Z/18/Z). JD is funded by Wellcome Trust (216421/Z/19/Z)

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## Data sharing statement:

The RCGP RSC data set can be accessed by researchers, approval is on a project-by-project basis ([www.rcgp.org.uk/rsc](http://www.rcgp.org.uk/rsc)). Ethical approval by an NHS Research Ethics Committee is needed before any data release/other appropriate approval. Researchers wishing to directly analyse the patient-level pseudonymised data will be required to complete information governance training and work on the data from the secure servers at the University of Surrey. Patient-level data cannot be taken out of the secure network. We encourage interested researchers to attend the short courses on how to analyse primary-care data/RCGP RSC data offered twice a year.

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