

Socioeconomic, Health, and Demographic Predictors of Life Expectancy

Ema, Eileen, Elsie

Introduction

Life expectancy is consistently regarded as one of the main indicators of the overall health of a population (Health Status | US EPA, 2025). Life expectancy reflects the combined influence of economic development, healthcare access, disease burden, education, and demographic conditions, making it a powerful indicator of population well-being (Irandoost et al., 2025; Mondal & Shitan, 2013). A major part of evaluating life expectancy is understanding which factors have an association with it, and examining how life expectancy varies in relation to a range of social and health measures. Understanding what drives differences in life expectancy across countries is a central question in global health research. Global life expectancy has increased steadily over the past several decades across the world, although large disparities persist between regions, income groups, and levels of healthcare access (Dattani et al., 2023). Public health research has consistently identified major determinants of life expectancy, including economic development, education, infectious disease burden, vaccination coverage, nutrition, and child and adult mortality rates as key contributors to differences in population survival (Irandoost et al., 2025). Understanding how these determinants vary across countries and over time is important for informing conversations about where improvements in health systems might be prioritized.

Previous research has identified several variables strongly associated with life expectancy. Economic factors such as GDP per capita, social determinants like education and living conditions, and access to healthcare (e.g., physician density, hospital resources) influence longevity (Irandoost et al., 2025; Mondal & Shitan, 2013). Nutrition, vaccination coverage, and sanitation also shape population health (Dattani et al., 2023). Our study uses a dataset containing several of these variables to examine their association with life expectancy, building on prior evidence of how social and health factors drive differences in population survival (Daniel et al., 2018).

The primary goal of this project is to address the research question: Which health, economic, and demographic factors are significantly associated with life expectancy? To answer this, we employ a reproducible statistical analysis along with appropriate regression modeling. Rather

than conducting individual analyses of every variable, we focus on a targeted set of meaningful predictors, such as income level, region, vaccination rates, nutritional indicators, and schooling, to evaluate their associations with life expectancy in a clear and interpretable way.

I. Dataset

To address this question, we use an updated global health dataset covering 179 countries from 2000 to 2015 to investigate which factors most strongly predict life expectancy worldwide. The dataset includes measures of vaccination coverage, HIV incidence, BMI, alcohol consumption, mortality rates, schooling, population, GDP, and Gross National Income (GNI) classifications, with missing values carefully addressed through regional and temporal imputation methods, such as filling in missing country-year values with the average of the surrounding three years or, if a country had missing values across all years, using the average of its region. Countries with excessive missingness were removed to ensure high data quality, and economic categories were aligned with World Bank standards for comparability. The dataset used in this project came originally from Kaggle, and was initially compiled from WHO, World Bank, and Our World in Data sources. Each source collects its data as follows: The World Bank collects population, GDP, life expectancy, and GNI per capita data from national statistical agencies and international reporting systems; WHO collects health-related data, such as vaccination coverage, HIV incidence, BMI, alcohol consumption, mortality rates, and thinness, from national health reports and surveillance systems across countries; Our World in Data, a University of Oxford project, compiles schooling data from national and international educational statistics. Each row represents a country and all the data collected from one year in that country across all the other variables. Even though the dataset comes from multiple sources, they are all said to be adjusted and standardized. The observational unit was a country-year. All the dataset variables are listed below:

Response Variable:

Life_expectancy: The average life expectancy for both genders across different years, from 2000 to 2015.

Predictor Variables:

Economic and Demographic –

1. GDP_per_capita: Gross Domestic Product per capita in current US Dollars.
2. Population_mln: Total population of a country in millions.
3. Schooling: Average years individuals aged 25 and over have spent in formal education.
4. Economy_status_Developed: A binary indicator (0 or 1) denoting whether a country is classified as ‘Developed’.
5. Economy_status_Developing: A binary indicator (0 or 1) denoting whether a country is classified as ‘Developing’.

Lifestyle –

6. Alcohol_consumption: Records alcohol consumption in litres of pure alcohol per capita for individuals aged 15 years and over.
7. BMI: Body Mass Index, a measure of nutritional status in adults (defined as a person's weight in kilograms divided by the square of that person's height in meters).
8. Thinness_ten_nineteen_years: Prevalence of thinness among adolescents aged 10-19 years (specifically, $BMI < -2$ standard deviations below the median).
9. Thinness_five_nine_years: Prevalence of thinness among children aged 5-9 years (specifically, $BMI < -2$ standard deviations below the median).

Mortality and Disease –

10. Infant_deaths: Represents the number of infant deaths per 1,000 population.
11. Under_five_deaths: Represents the number of deaths of children under five years old per 1,000 population.
12. Adult_mortality: Represents the number of deaths of adults per 1,000 population.
13. Hepatitis_B: Represents the percentage of coverage for Hepatitis B (HepB3) immunization among 1-year-olds.
14. Measles: Represents the percentage of coverage for Measles containing vaccine first dose (MCV1) immunization among 1-year-olds.
15. Polio: Represents the percentage of coverage for Polio (Pol3) immunisation among 1-year-olds.
16. Diphtheria: Represents the percentage of coverage for Diphtheria tetanus toxoid and pertussis (DTP3) immunization among 1-year-olds.
17. Incidents_HIV: Represents the incidents of HIV per 1,000 population aged 15-49.

Observational Units –

18. Country: A list of 179 distinct countries included in the dataset.
19. Region: Categorizes the 179 countries into 9 geographical regions, such as Africa, Asia, Oceania, and the European Union.
20. Year: The observed year, ranging from 2000 to 2015.

II. Rationale

The reason for this data analysis is that it helps identify which health and economic variables are most strongly associated with differences in life expectancy. It also helps shows how different diseases / vaccinations and child and adult mortality can contribute to the overall health of a nation. This data analysis can also help us make conclusions on what types of health policy can be recommended or suggested in order to target preventable health risks in certain countries.

III. Exploratory Data Analysis

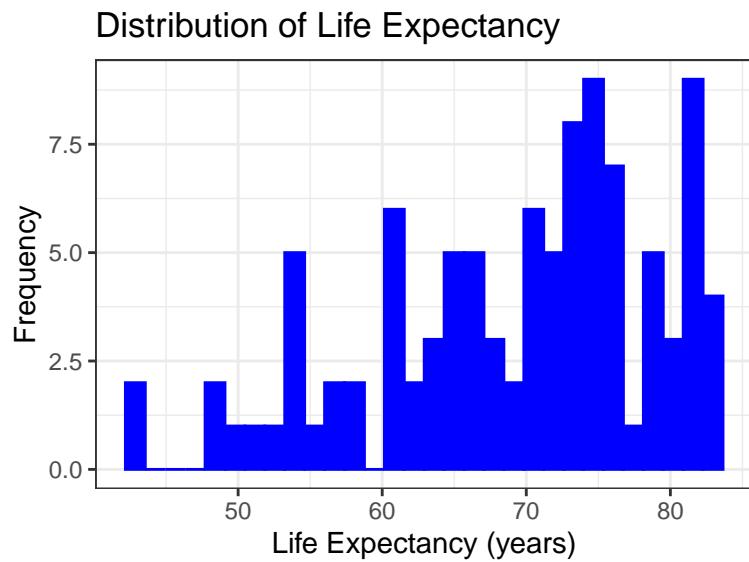


Figure 1. Distribution of Life Expectancy

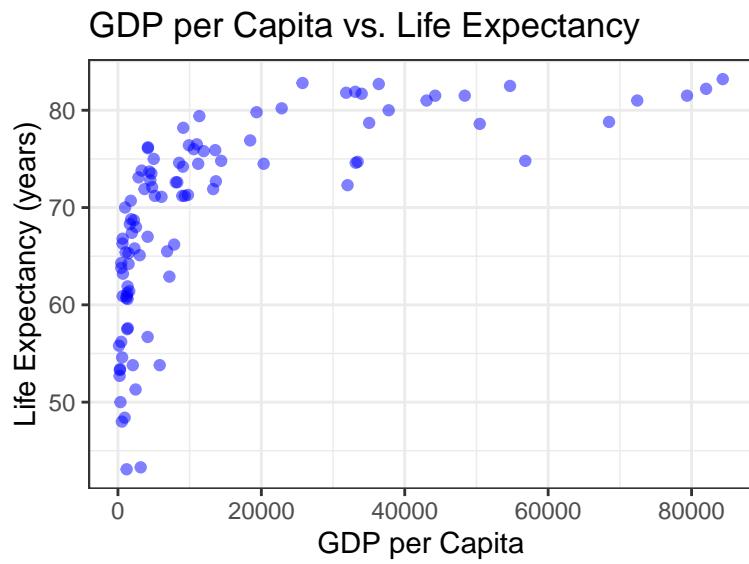


Figure 2. GDP per Capita vs. Life Expectancy

Adult Mortality Rate vs. Life Expectancy

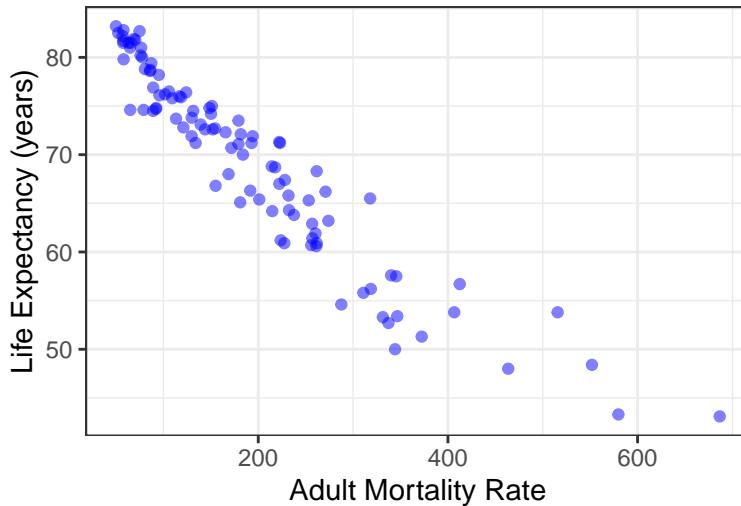


Figure 3. Adult Mortality Rate vs. Life Expectancy

The EDA helps us visualize some of the aspects of this dataset. It helps look at life expectancy as a whole across all the countries, and to help see if it is normally distributed or left skewed. The scatterplots provide an initial look at how life expectancy varies with GDP per capita and adult mortality, suggesting potential associations between economic and health indicators and life expectancy that we investigate more formally in the regression analysis. Additional exploratory figures, including visualizations of BMI and other predictors, are provided in the appendix for completeness. Additional exploratory figures, including visualizations of BMI and other predictors, are provided in Appendix A for completeness.

Methodology

The goal of this analysis was to identify how the different variables in the dataset impacted life expectancy across different countries and years. We selected a linear regression model over other models because the outcome variable (life expectancy) is continuous and the research question focuses on estimating relationships between predictors and mean life expectancy, while holding other variables constant. A multiple linear regression is appropriate for this dataset because the outcome is continuous, the predictors are a mix of numerical and categorical variables, and the goal is to estimate how each variable relates to life expectancy. Other methods such as logistic regression, ANOVA, and t-tests, were not appropriate here because they are designed for categorical outcomes or for comparing a small number of group means. Our dataset includes a continuous response and many quantitative predictors, so linear regression is the best and most efficient method that fits our research question.

For replication, the linear regression uses the equation shown below as a guide, with life expectancy as the output, and the other variables as its predictors. When replicated, it should be ensured the data is loaded into R, and that when inputting this model into R with the lm() function, that life expectancy is the output, and that all other variables are quantitative except Economy Status Developed and Region, which are factors and therefore dummy variables in this linear regression. Results are shown using the summary() function. P-values and slopes were assessed for the goals of this project.

The residual plot is symmetrically distributed around the horizontal axis, showing that our data satisfied the assumption of linearity. The residuals appear to be roughly vertically evenly spaced along the y axis, satisfying the assumption of constant variance of the errors. The histogram of the residuals also appears to be roughly symmetrical, satisfying the assumption of a normal distribution of errors. Finally, for independence in this dataset, each row represents a specific country in a specific year. Since each country operates independently with its own health system, economy, and demographic conditions, it makes sense to assume that the error for one observation doesn't directly affect the error for another. Because the same country can appear multiple times (for different years), it's possible that a country's values might be somewhat related over time. However, the model treats each country-year as its own observation, and we also included variables like Region and Economy Status, which already help capture similarities between countries that might otherwise create dependence. Because of this, even though small within-country patterns over time could exist, assuming that the errors are independent overall is still a reasonable and practical assumption for this analysis. Plots for the assumptions are shown in Appendix B.

Results

# A tibble: 25 x 3	Variable	Estimate	P_value
	<chr>	<dbl>	<dbl>
1 (Intercept)		-162.	0.032
2 Year		0.126	0.001
3 Infant_deaths		-0.127	0.03
4 Under_five_deaths		-0.014	0.702
5 Adult_mortality		-0.044	0
6 Alcohol_consumption		-0.041	0.588
7 Hepatitis_B		-0.022	0.162
8 Measles		0.01	0.315
9 BMI		-0.3	0.035
10 Polio		0.056	0.407
11 Diphtheria		-0.079	0.225
12 Incidents_HIV		-0.018	0.859
13 GDP_per_capita		0	0.346

14 Population_mln	0.001	0.597
15 Thinness_ten_nineteen_years	-0.304	0.001
16 Thinness_five_nine_years	0.21	0.009
17 Schooling	0.066	0.545
18 Economy_status_Developed1	2.59	0.003
19 RegionAsia	1.42	0.028
20 RegionCentral America and Caribbean	3.33	0
21 RegionEuropean Union	0.48	0.638
22 RegionMiddle East	1.48	0.079
23 RegionOceania	0.246	0.825
24 RegionRest of Europe	1.06	0.19
25 RegionSouth America	3.10	0.001

Table 1. Linear regression output for life expectancy and its predictors

Results were analyzed with emphasis on the p-values resulting from the T tests that were run on each individual variable, while holding others constant. The null hypothesis for each variable was that the slope, or beta, was equal to 0. The alternative hypothesis is that the slope/beta is not equal to 0. Each T test had a T distribution under the null hypothesis with 1 degree of freedom. These p values were analyzed with a significance value of alpha equals .05. The variables where the null hypothesis was rejected and we had enough evidence, based on the data sourced from Kaggle, to say that there is a relationship between said variable and life expectancy are as follows: Year, Infant_deaths, Adult_mortality, BMI, Thinness_ten_nineteen_years, Thinness_five_nine_years, Economy_status_Developed1, RegionAsia, RegionCentral America and Caribbean, and RegionSouth America.

Discussion

The results of our analysis provide clear insights into the socioeconomic, health, and demographic factors associated with life expectancy across countries, and supports the conclusion drawn from the corresponding T-tests performed. Parameters including Year, Infant_deaths, Adult_mortality, BMI, Thinness in adolescents and children, Economy_status_Developed, Regions (Asia, Central America and Caribbean, South America), all had statistically significant data supporting their association to life expectancy, which was calculated through T tests on the individual predictors while holding the other variables constant, and of which had p-values that were smaller than the significance value of alpha equals 0.05. This indicates that both health and economic factors shown by the BMI, thinness, and economic status of the country, play important roles in the life expectancy across populations in different countries. This aligns with our goal of identifying the predictors of life expectancy, and supports prior research that emphasize the role of social determinants, healthcare access, and economic health and development in shaping population health outcomes. For instance, the positive association of BMI with life expectancy may be representative of the overall nutrition and healthcare of

a country, whereas having higher adult and infant mortality rates representative of lesser well off countries, which emphasizes their impact on a population's life expectancy.

While our methodology of using a multiple linear regression model was appropriate for modeling a continuous outcome and estimating the relationship between specific parameters and the life expectancy, there are some limitations to this approach. Firstly, the assumption for independence in this scenario may be partially violated because countries are observed across time - in particular in years - which can potentially introduce some correlation across years. An alternative way of observing the countries could be observing the countries at random intercepts, which could take into account the repeated measures across similar time frames, and ultimately improve the reliability of the estimates. Secondly, although the dataset we used included many diverse parameters, some parameters, such as healthcare access, lifestyle factors beyond alcohol and BMI, or environmental exposures/status weren't available, which might limit the extensiveness of the analysis. Having data that incorporates more faceted aspects of variables that may relate to life expectancy would improve the model's usefulness and comprehensiveness. The reliability and validity of the data is relatively strong. The data incorporates many different data points that helps reduce the potential impact of outliers. Additionally, the data was obtained through reliable sources (i.e. the World Bank), which supports the reliability of the data, and data points with too many missing values (for instance, missing four rows of values) were omitted to increase the usefulness of the data. However, there were imputation methods used for the missing values, and although it's necessary for this to happen, it may also introduce bias into the dataset if it was not completely random. This reduces the validity of our dataset as the values used weren't the true ones obtained from reliable sources.

Future analyses could be strengthened by incorporating longitudinal modeling techniques, such as looking at trends specific to a specific country. In addition, finding ways to capture nonlinear relationships between predictors and life expectancy could strengthen the model and analyses as well by providing more complex insight on how different parameters relate and influence life expectancy. The inclusion of additional variables, such as access to clean water, sanitation, or disease prevalence, could all help create a more nuanced understanding of the determinants and what influences life expectancy in different countries. Furthermore, the model's performance could be tested more thoroughly to assess its ability to predict the true values, which can help improve its applicability in the real world across different countries and times.

Overall, our findings support the conclusion that both demographic, health factors, and socioeconomic factors play crucial roles in explaining the differences in life expectancy across the globe. While methodology was relatively sound for the primary research question and the dataset was reliable and fairly valid, adopting more advanced modeling styles and using more comprehensive datasets in the future would strengthen the analysis and evidence for more expansive application of the model and its result, including in areas like policy recommendations.

References

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Appendix A

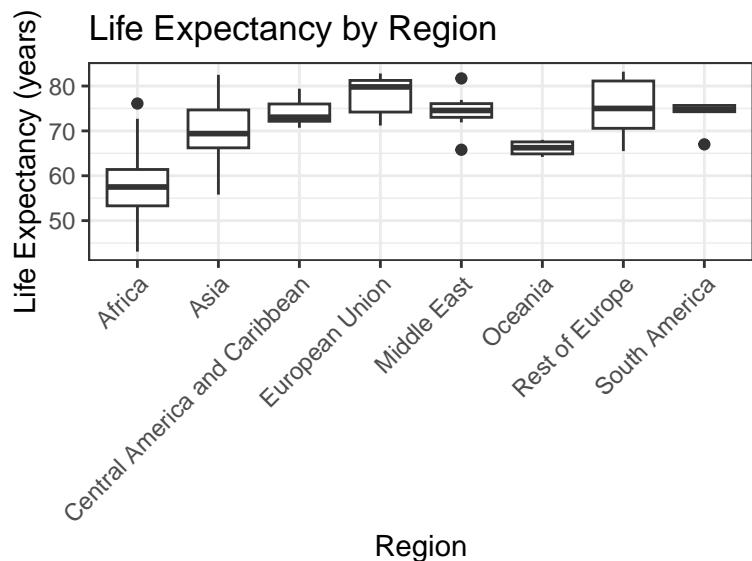


Figure 4. Life Expectancy by Region

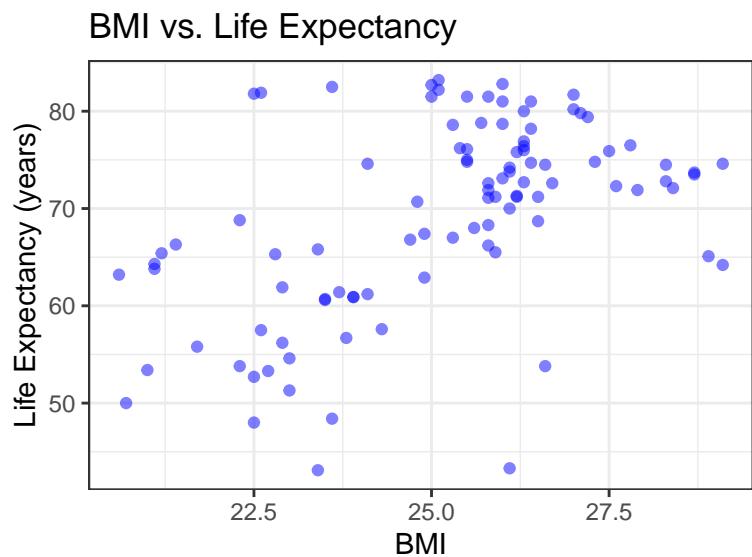


Figure 5. BMI vs. Life Expectancy

Appendix B

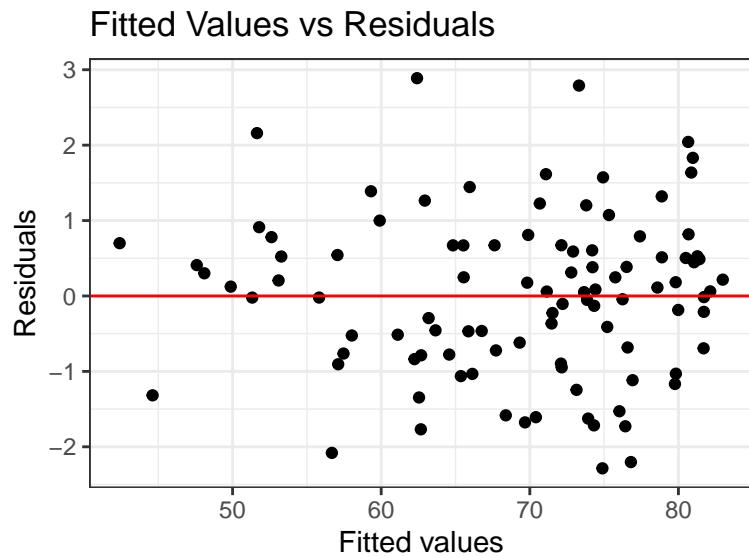


Figure 6. Residual plot

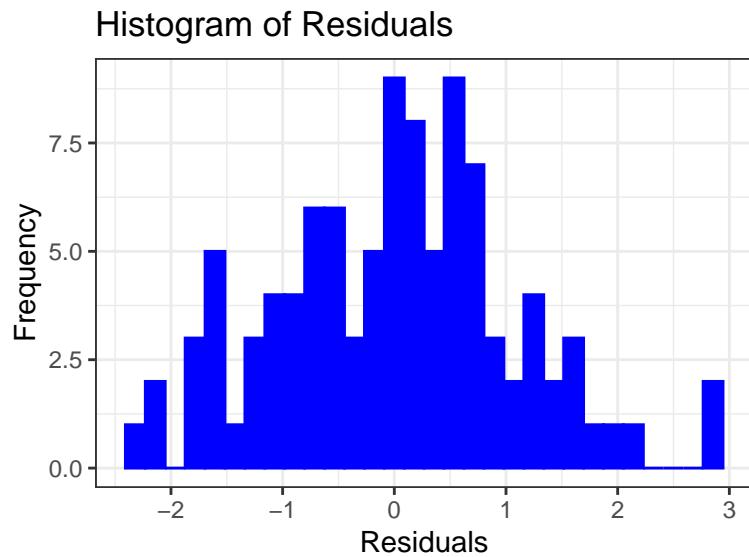


Figure 7. Histogram of residuals