

1 **Sociodemographic inequalities and excess non-COVID-19 mortality during the**
2 **COVID-19 pandemic: A data-driven analysis of 1,069,174 death certificates in Mexico**

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29 **ABSTRACT (287 WORDS)**

30 **BACKGROUND:** In 2020, Mexico experienced one of the highest rates of excess mortality
31 globally. However, the extent to which non-COVID deaths contributed to excess mortality, its
32 regional characterization, and the association between municipal- and individual-level
33 sociodemographic inequality has not been characterized.

34 **METHODS:** We conducted a retrospective municipal and individual-level study using data
35 from 1,069,174 death certificates to analyze mortality related to COVID-19 and to non-COVID-
36 19 causes using ICD-10 codes. Excess mortality was estimated as the increase in cause-
37 specific mortality in 2020 compared to the average of 2015-2019, disaggregated by primary
38 cause of death, death setting (in-hospital and out-of-hospital) and geographical location.
39 Correlates of individual and municipal non-COVID-19 mortality were assessed using mixed
40 effects logistic regression and negative binomial regression models, respectively.

41 **RESULTS:** We identified a 51% higher mortality rate (276.11 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants)
42 compared to the 2015-2019 average period, largely attributable to COVID-19 (76.1% of
43 cases). Non-COVID-19 causes comprised one-fifth of excess deaths, with acute myocardial
44 infarction (46.7 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants) and type 2 diabetes (34.84 deaths per
45 100,000 inhabitants) as the two leading non-COVID-19 causes of excess mortality. COVID-
46 19 deaths occurred primarily in-hospital, while excess non-COVID-19 deaths decreased in
47 this setting (-48.10%) and increased out-of-hospital (+80.96%) compared to the 2015-2019
48 average period. Municipal-level predictors of non-COVID-19 excess mortality included levels
49 of social security coverage, higher rates of COVID-19 hospitalization, and social
50 marginalization. At the individual level, lower educational attainment, blue collar employment,
51 and lack of medical care assistance prior to death were associated with non-COVID-19
52 mortality during 2020.

53 **CONCLUSION:** Non-COVID-19 causes of death, largely chronic cardiometabolic conditions,
54 comprised up to one-fifth of excess deaths in Mexico during 2020. Non-COVID-19 excess

55 deaths occurred disproportionately out-of-hospital and were associated with both individual-
56 and municipal-level sociodemographic inequalities.

57 **Keywords:** Excess mortality; inequalities; social lag; COVID-19; Mexico

58 **KEY MESSAGES**

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- Mexico experienced one of the highest rates of excess mortality in Latin America following onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, but the extent to which non-COVID-19 deaths contributed to excess mortality has not yet been characterized.
- We conducted a retrospective, municipal and individual-level study using data from 1,069,174 death certificates to estimate mortality related to COVID-19 and to non-COVID-19 causes using ICD-10 codes in 2020 compared to 2015-2019.
- There was a 51% higher mortality rate in 2020 compared to the 2015-2019 average, largely attributable to COVID-19 deaths (76.1% of cases), which occurred primarily in-hospital; conversely, one-fifth of excess deaths in Mexico in 2020 were attributable to non-COVID-19 causes, largely attributable to cardiometabolic conditions, which occurred primarily out-of-hospital.
- Southern regions and marginalized communities in Mexico carried a disproportionate burden of excess mortality; municipal-level correlates of these excess deaths included lower healthcare coverage, whereas individual-level factors correlated to non-COVID-19 mortality included lower educational attainment, blue collar employment, and lack of medical care assistance prior to death.
- Excess mortality in Mexico in 2020 was attributed to both COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 causes, likely reflecting a complex interplay between a fragmented and under-resourced health system, strained hospital capacity, and sociodemographic inequalities further unmasked by the pandemic.

86 **INTRODUCTION**

87 Over 6 million deaths attributable to COVID-19 have been reported globally since the onset
88 of the pandemic in early 2020 [1]. Beyond this devastating death toll, there is increasing
89 recognition of the widespread disruption of the pandemic on healthcare services, with a far-
90 reaching impact on the care of non-COVID-19 conditions [2]. Excess mortality has been
91 proposed as a key indicator that captures both deaths caused by COVID-19 and indirect
92 deaths attributed to the pandemic more broadly, due to interruption in routine care of chronic
93 conditions [3,4]. Notably, many low-and-middle-income countries (LMICs), particularly in Latin
94 America, were vulnerable to the direct and indirect effects of the COVID-19 pandemic due to
95 chronic underinvestment in public healthcare [5]. Though several reports have estimated that
96 rates of excess mortality were disproportionately higher in LMICs following the onset of the
97 COVID-19 pandemic, there is limited insight regarding non-COVID-19 deaths and their
98 contribution to the reported rates of excess mortality in Latin America [6].

99 Mexico is of particular interest given that it ranks as one of the countries with the highest rates
100 of excess mortality in the Latin American region following onset of the COVID-19 pandemic.
101 [7]. A confluence of health and sociodemographic inequalities that predated the COVID-19
102 pandemic, a high burden of chronic cardiometabolic conditions, and a fragmented healthcare
103 system all contributed to a high and disproportionate burden of excess mortality among
104 marginalized communities [5,8]. A descriptive assessment performed in Mexico showed that
105 chronic cardiometabolic conditions, which are highly prevalent among communities of low
106 socioeconomic status, were the main causes of death independently of registered COVID-19
107 deaths in Mexico during 2020 [9]. However, whether hospital saturation had ripple effects on
108 out-of-hospital excess mortality, particularly for highly prevalent chronic health conditions
109 across different vulnerable regions, has not yet been characterized. Hence, there is a need to
110 comprehensively assess the extent to which individual and municipal-wide level

111 sociodemographic inequalities impacted excess mortality to further guide health policies to
112 strengthen existing systems and mitigate ongoing health disparities.

113 In this study, we sought to: 1) estimate the age-adjusted rates of cause-specific excess
114 mortality due to COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 deaths in 2020 compared to the 2015-2019
115 period, stratified by in-hospital and out-of-hospital setting; 2) evaluate the geographical
116 distribution of cause-specific excess mortality in Mexico in 2020; and 3) characterize the
117 association between municipal- and individual-level sociodemographic inequality measures
118 and non-COVID-19- related excess mortality.

119 **METHODS**

120 ***Study design and data sources***

121 Based on the work by Lima et al, we conducted a retrospective municipal and individual-level
122 study using national mortality records from 2015-2019 compared to 2020 [10]. Death
123 certificate records of individuals living in Mexico were collected by the National Institute of
124 Statistics and Geography (INEGI). Briefly, INEGI generates annual mortality statistics from
125 death certificates and vital sociodemographic characteristics issued by the Ministry of Health,
126 which includes the primary cause of death in accordance with the 10th version of the
127 International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD-10,
128 [11]). Complete methodology of the death certification process, validation, and collected
129 variables are available in **Supplementary Material**.

130 ***Variables and definitions***

131 *Outcome variables*

132 Cause-specific excess mortality was centered on two primary outcomes: deaths due to
133 COVID-19 and deaths related to non-COVID-19 causes. Overall excess mortality was the
134 sum of excess mortality due to non-COVID-19 causes and all registered COVID-19 deaths.

135 *I. COVID-19 deaths*

136 Deaths attributable to COVID-19 were defined based on the following ICD-10 codes: U071
137 (identified SARS-CoV-2), U072 (suspected SARS-CoV-2), and deaths after April-2020
138 classified as J00-J99 (respiratory deaths). This aggregation of COVID-19 deaths considers
139 inadequate registration of COVID-19 cases across 2020, as there is an unknown number of
140 deaths which could have been classified with unspecified respiratory diseases in the early
141 stages of the pandemic due to limited SARS-CoV-2 testing capacity in Mexico [12].

142 *II. Non-COVID-19 cause-specific mortality*

143 All other causes of death were classified as non-COVID-19 related deaths and were coded
144 using the 2020 Mexican list of mortality, which includes 436 specific causes of death [13]. To
145 simplify result presentation, we only display the first 10 cause-specific deaths in the main
146 results, with the full list provided in **Supplementary material**.

147 *Excess Mortality Estimation*

148 According to the approach proposed by Karlinsky and Kobak, we estimated excess mortality
149 as the difference between average deaths during the 2015-2019 period compared to deaths
150 registered during 2020 [14]. We used average deaths for two reasons: 1) the use of average
151 deaths is a simple approach shown to be a reliable assessment based on sensitivity analyses
152 estimations, and 2) given that we are estimating 436 specific causes of death, predictive
153 methods based on generalized linear models may overestimate the standard error for low-
154 frequency causes [9]. Excess deaths were standardized to age-adjusted rates per 100,000
155 population with age structures by state, municipalities, and regions per 5-year increments
156 using population projections provided by the National Population Council (CONAPO). Percent
157 increase in 2020 compared to 2015-2019 was also used as a proxy of excess mortality.

158 *Stratification by setting of death*

159 We hypothesized that the COVID-19 pandemic posed a significant burden on in-hospital care,
160 which may have influenced increases in excess mortality, particularly for non-COVID-19
161 related deaths. To evaluate this hypothesis, we stratified excess mortality according to

162 whether the death occurred out-of-hospital or in-hospital, as registered in death certificates.
163 Out-of-hospital deaths were defined accordingly if the death was not registered in a hospital
164 setting or if they were coded as occurring at the deceased person's home or elsewhere (i.e.,
165 in the streets in some instances). Deaths with an unspecified setting were excluded across all
166 the analysis.

167 Marginalization Index

168 To quantify the impact of municipal sociodemographic inequalities on excess mortality, we
169 used the 2020 municipal social lag index (SLI) estimated by the National Council for
170 Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL, [15]). Since we intended to evaluate
171 social inequalities independently from urbanization and centralized health services, we used
172 residuals of linearly regressed mean urban population density (MUPD) and hospital beds per
173 100,000 inhabitants using data extracted from CONEVAL to fit an adjusted municipal SLI
174 (aSLI). We then categorized municipalities into four aSLI categories (Low-aSLI, Moderate-
175 aSLI, High-aSLI, and Very-High aSLI) based on the Dalenius & Hodges method
176 **(Supplementary Material)**.

177 Municipal-level correlates of excess mortality

178 We included the percentage of the population without healthcare coverage and the hospital
179 occupancy due to COVID-19 inpatients as municipal-level factors related to excess mortality.
180 Healthcare coverage was obtained from 2020 CONEVAL estimations. To estimate a
181 surrogate of hospital occupancy, we used the number of hospitalizations with confirmed
182 COVID-19 from the SINAVE dataset collected by the General Directorate of Epidemiology
183 (DGE) of the Mexican Ministry of Health, which includes reports of daily updated suspected
184 COVID-19 cases [16]. Complete methodology, the protocol of testing, and the variables
185 included are available in **Supplementary Material**.

186

187 **Statistical analysis**

188 To visualize differences in deaths over time in 2020 compared with the 2015-2019 period, we
189 first plotted excess mortality per 100,000 inhabitants by month of occurrence, stratified by
190 COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 causes. We then disaggregated excess mortality rates due to
191 COVID-19 or non-COVID-19 causes by state and municipality. Next, to visualize whether the
192 proportion of age-adjusted excess mortality in each municipality increased due to COVID-19
193 or non-COVID-19 causes we used choropleth maps classified using the quantile method with
194 the *biscale* R package. We further visualized the relationship between excess mortality and
195 aSLI using the same method. The median value for the estimated age-adjusted excess
196 mortality and the aSLI were considered as the cut-off threshold.

197 Municipal-level factors associated with excess mortality

198 Next, we evaluated the impact of municipal characteristics on increased risk of age-adjusted
199 excess mortality, using negative binomial regression models to obtain incidence rate ratios
200 (IRRs) (**Supplementary Material**). Models were adjusted for municipal male-to-female death
201 ratio, education percentage, access to medical assistance, and urbanization (to adjust for
202 residual covariance). We also calculated the ratio of out-of-hospital to in-hospital deaths,
203 which was also adjusted for the above outlined covariates [17]. IRRs were plotted using the
204 *jtools* R Package.

205 Individual-level factors related with non-COVID-19 mortality

206 To identify individual-level factors associated with the probability of death attributable to non-
207 COVID-19 causes as compared to COVID-19, we fitted hierarchical random-effects logistic
208 regression models, which included individual and municipal-level variables (**Supplementary**
209 **Material**). Individual-level variables included sex, education, self-reported indigenous identity,
210 work occupation, access to medical assistance prior to death, and social security coverage.
211 We perform a municipal-level adjustment that included living in municipalities with low-hospital
212 bed occupancy (<1 bed per 100,000 inhabitants), and municipal aSLI categories. For this
213 model, we used the municipality of death occurrence as a random intercept to account for

214 intermunicipal variability in death registration in the model and to establish a hierarchical
215 relationship between individual and municipal-level variables. All analyses were performed
216 using R software (Version 4.1.2).

217 **RESULTS**

218 Overall and cause-specific excess mortality in Mexico during 2020

219 We identified 1,069,174 deaths in Mexico during 2020, compared to 686,567 average deaths
220 in 2015-2019. We estimated an age-adjusted mortality rate of 833.5 deaths per 100,000
221 inhabitants for 2020, with an estimated age-adjusted excess mortality of 282.41 deaths per
222 100,000 inhabitants; this represents a 51% increase in mortality compared with the average
223 age-adjusted mortality rates in 2015-2019 (551.09 per 100,000 inhabitants). Peak excess
224 mortality during 2020 was observed during the May to June period. Approximately 76.1% of
225 excess deaths were attributable to confirmed or suspected COVID-19, while 23.9% were
226 attributable to non-COVID-19 causes. The main contributors of excess mortality were
227 suspected or confirmed COVID-19 deaths (199.26 per 100,000 inhabitants). The five leading
228 causes of non-COVID-19 excess mortality were acute myocardial infarction (46.7 deaths per
229 100,000 inhabitants), type 2 diabetes (34.84 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants), violent assaults
230 (3.45 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants), hypertensive heart disease (3.13 deaths per 100,000
231 inhabitants), and essential arterial hypertension (2.9 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants). All
232 excess deaths were recorded after April 2020, with a steep increase after this period for
233 COVID-19, acute myocardial infarction, and type 2 diabetes related deaths (**Figure 1**).

234 Excess mortality according to in-hospital vs. out-of-hospital death

235 When stratified by the setting of death, we estimated an in-hospital excess mortality rate of
236 112.47 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants and an out-of-hospital excess mortality rate of 162.54
237 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants; this represents an increase of 45.4% and 55.5% of in-hospital
238 and out-of-hospital deaths, respectively, compared to the average of 2015-2019. When
239 stratified by the specific cause of death, we observed that excess in-hospital mortality rates

240 were primarily attributable to COVID-19 deaths, while there was a decrease for in-hospital
241 non-COVID-19 related deaths after March 2020. An estimated 93.2% of all out-of-hospital
242 excess mortality was attributable to non-COVID-19 causes, while only 6.79% were attributable
243 to COVID-19 deaths. Excess deaths attributable to COVID-19 occurred predominantly in the
244 in-hospital setting (83.6%), while most non-COVID-19 deaths occurred largely out-of-hospital
245 (66.9%). Among the 10 leading causes of excess mortality, acute myocardial infarction and
246 type 2 diabetes decreased in-hospital but increased in out-of-hospital after April-2020 (**Figure**
247 **2**).

248 Regional state and municipal-level heterogeneity in COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 excess
249 mortality

250 When COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 excess mortality was stratified at the state level, Mexico
251 City, Baja California, and Chihuahua displayed the highest COVID-19 age-adjusted excess
252 mortality rate, whereas Chihuahua, Mexico City, and Chiapas had the highest non-COVID-19
253 excess mortality rates. There was an unequal distribution of non-COVID-19 age-adjusted
254 excess mortality at the state level, with the southern states of Chiapas, Oaxaca, and
255 Michoacan having the highest rates of non-COVID-19 related excess mortality
256 (**Supplementary Figure 1**). Further stratification revealed a geographical aggregation of non-
257 COVID-19 deaths caused by acute myocardial infarction, type 2 diabetes, essential arterial
258 hypertension, and unspecified strokes clustered in the southern states of Mexico
259 (**Supplementary Figure 2**). We also evaluated age-adjusted excess mortality at the municipal
260 level to obtain a more detailed overview of these geographical differences. Excess mortality
261 had a heterogenous geographical distribution and correlated with the social lag index in
262 municipalities in Mexico with higher excess mortality due to both COVID-19 and non-COVID-
263 19 causes (**Supplementary Figure 5**). At the state level, the highest decrease in non-COVID-
264 19 in-hospital deaths was seen in Oaxaca, Yucatán, and Veracruz, whereas the highest

265 proportion of non-COVID-19 out-of-hospital deaths were observed in Tlaxcala, Yucatan, and
266 Colima (**Supplementary Figure 4**).

267 Municipal level impact of sociodemographic inequalities in excess mortality

268 We observed marked geographic variability in age-adjusted excess mortality across
269 municipalities with higher aSLI (**Figure 3A**). After excluding COVID-19 related deaths, only
270 the southern municipalities displayed the highest combination of excess mortality and aSLI
271 (**Supplementary Figure 5**). Stratifying by aSLI categories, age-adjusted mortality rates and
272 excess mortality showed a stepwise increase with each higher marginalization level (**Figure**
273 **3B**). Municipalities with very high aSLI displayed both the higher age-adjusted mortality
274 (912.36 per 100,000 inhabitants) and excess mortality (318.12 per 100,000 inhabitants) rates
275 in Mexico.

276 Municipal-level correlates of excess mortality

277 To evaluate the hypothesis that excess mortality was correlated with social inequalities in
278 healthcare access and hospital occupancy due to COVID-19 at the municipal level, we fitted
279 negative binomial regression models for age-adjusted excess mortality rates. As observed in
280 the geographic distribution of age-adjusted excess mortality (**Supplementary Figure 5**),
281 municipalities at high and very high social lag had the highest risk for non-COVID-19 age-
282 adjusted excess mortality in 2020. Municipalities with a higher percentage of the population
283 without social security coverage (IRR 1.03, 95%CI 1.02-1.04), higher COVID-19 hospital
284 occupancy (IRR 1.03, 95%CI 1.01-1.06) and higher social lag categories were at higher risk
285 for excess mortality, after adjusting for covariates (**Figure 4**). We observed an interaction
286 effect for higher risk for non-COVID-19 age-adjusted excess mortality in municipalities with
287 very high social lag and higher COVID-19 hospital occupancy (IRR 1.08, 95%CI 1.03-1.12,
288 **Supplementary Figure 6**).

289 Individual-factors correlates of non-COVID 19 deaths

290 Finally, we explored the role of sociodemographic conditions and healthcare-related
291 inequalities for the risk for non-COVID 19 deaths using random-effects logistic regression
292 models. We observed that women, people who had lower educational attainment, and who
293 worked as craftsmen, farmers, laborers, or were unemployed had an increased odds for death
294 attributable to non-COVID-19 compared to COVID-19 causes. Regarding healthcare-related
295 factors, people without medical assistance before death, people who reported public or
296 unspecified social security coverage, or who lived in municipalities with low availability of
297 hospital beds had an increased odds of death from non-COVID-19 compared to COVID-19
298 causes. Finally, people living in municipalities with high and very-high social lag had the
299 highest odds of non-COVID-19 compared to COVID-19 death (**Figure 4**).

300 **DISCUSSION**

301 In this study of 1,069,174 deaths recorded in Mexico between 2015-2020, we report that 51%
302 of deaths in 2020 were in excess compared to the average reported between 2015-2019.
303 Although cause-specific excess mortality during 2020 was largely attributable to COVID-19
304 (76.1% of cases), non-COVID-19 causes comprised up to one-fifth of excess deaths in Mexico
305 during 2020. Moreover, we report a differential impact in excess mortality related to the setting
306 in which the deaths occurred; while COVID-19 deaths occurred primarily in-hospital, non-
307 COVID-19 deaths sharply decreased in this setting and had a concurrent increase in the out-
308 of-hospital setting. These findings contribute to the growing literature on the far-reaching
309 impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the health system and suggest both an excess in non-
310 COVID-19 mortality as well as a displacement of these deaths to the out-of-hospital setting in
311 Mexico.

312 We also observed that excess mortality exhibited marked geographical heterogeneity, which
313 was associated with higher social lag; states in the southern region of Mexico had the highest
314 social marginalization and similarly high rates of non-COVID-19 excess mortality. We showed
315 that lower prevalence of population without social security coverage and higher rates of

316 COVID-19 hospitalization, combined with social marginalization, were municipal-level
317 correlates of non-COVID-19 excess mortality. Finally, at the individual level, lower educational
318 attainment, blue collar employment (laborers, craftsmen, and farmers), unemployment, and
319 lack of medical assistance before death were significant correlates of non-COVID-19
320 compared to COVID-19 mortality during 2020. These findings suggest that excess mortality
321 from non-COVID-19 related causes, which occurred disproportionately out-of-hospital and
322 among populations with social disadvantage, may reflect a complex interplay between a
323 fragmented health system, strained hospital capacity, interruptions in chronic disease care,
324 and sociodemographic inequalities further unmasked by the pandemic. [5]. This situation is
325 applicable to Mexico, but also to countries with similar sociodemographic profiles in the region
326 or with high rates of SARS-CoV-2 infections.

327 Previous reports have documented the high burden of excess mortality caused by the COVID-
328 19 pandemic in Mexico, with excess mortality rates being estimated from 26.1 to 36.0 deaths
329 per 100,000 inhabitants [6,14,18–20]; moreover, Karlinsky et al. projected that Mexico's actual
330 toll of deaths could be twice the number of deaths registered during 2020 [21]. These reports
331 positioned Mexico as one of the leading countries in terms of excess mortality in Latin America
332 and worldwide [6,21]. However, there is limited information regarding cause-specific
333 contributors to global excess mortality rates in Mexico. Although our findings contribute to the
334 literature on COVID-19 excess mortality in Mexico, our results expand this literature by
335 showing that excess deaths were also related to cardiometabolic chronic health conditions,
336 including type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, arterial hypertension, and obesity, which
337 had a steep increase in the out-of-hospital setting [9,22]. Excess non-COVID-19 deaths could
338 be attributable to hospital reconversion policies and healthcare restructuring designed to
339 improve care for COVID-19 cases, which may have reduced access to care for people with
340 chronic health conditions who required continuous medical assistance during the COVID-19
341 pandemic. Other high-income countries have documented the association between hospital

342 occupancy and excess mortality during periods of peak COVID-19 infections [23–25].
343 Explanations related to this phenomenon rely on data on restricted access to healthcare
344 services in places that experienced hospital overload due to COVID-19, reduced out-of-
345 hospital attention due to severely restricted healthcare services and personnel availability,
346 lower insurance coverage, and lower number of healthcare personnel per-capita [26–28].
347 Other reported non-related healthcare contributors were social stigma for being treated in
348 hospitals due to potentially acquiring COVID-19 infection and reduced physical activity due to
349 pandemic restrictions on mobility, which could have exacerbated complications due to chronic
350 health conditions [29]. Overall, excess non-COVID-19 mortality could be interpreted as an
351 indirect indicator of the negative effects attributable to healthcare policies which prioritized in-
352 hospital COVID-19 attention over the care of other chronic health conditions.

353 Notably, increased rates of COVID-19 hospitalizations and mortality in Mexico were observed
354 in municipalities with high marginalization independently of urbanization, leading to increased
355 stress in their healthcare systems [30,31]. This phenomenon may explain the disproportionate
356 impact on non-COVID-19 deaths in marginalized municipalities in Mexico. Our results support
357 the hypothesis that populations with sociodemographic disadvantage experienced the highest
358 impact of excess mortality attributable to hospital saturation, with this impact having an
359 unequal distribution within Mexico. In the European region, countries with high excess
360 mortality, such as Bulgaria, Russia, and Serbia were impacted by diverse social barriers with
361 difficulties to fully adhere to social isolation policies [32,33]. Two recent reports in England
362 revealed that communities with high-density of care homes, with a high proportion of residents
363 on income support, overcrowding conditions, and ethnic minorities were at higher risk of
364 excess mortality and years of life lost due to the COVID-19 pandemic [34,35]. In Latin
365 American countries, the impact of socioeconomic disparities was sharp mainly due to
366 countries experiencing diverse social barriers to sustain lockdown mandates driven by low
367 stipend support, a high proportion of their population working in the informal economy, and

368 lack of access to health care, even among healthcare personnel [3,32,36]. Nevertheless, this
369 evidence and the comparison between countries should be interpreted with caution given the
370 variation in COVID-19 dynamics, within-country gradients of sociodemographic inequalities,
371 and different epidemiological profiles of high-risk comorbidities.

372 Our results highlight the impact of healthcare-related and individual-level social
373 inequalities in exacerbating overall and cause-specific excess mortality in Mexico. We show
374 that the main contributor to higher non-COVID-19 excess mortality rates at the municipal level
375 was a lower percentage of the population with access to social security health coverage; in
376 Mexico, social security providers condition the type of healthcare access by individuals, which
377 likely also influences received quality of care and healthcare access. Furthermore, the
378 interaction between a lower percentage of the population with access to social security health
379 coverage and social marginalization confirmed the hazardous interplay between social and
380 healthcare inequalities [37]. At the individual level, we showed that certain socially vulnerable
381 occupations experienced unequal risks for non-COVID-19 mortality. The role of individual and
382 sociodemographic determinants in the risk for adverse COVID-19 outcomes has been
383 previously reported [38,39]. Nevertheless, our findings demonstrate that sociodemographic
384 inequalities impacted individuals with preventable chronic conditions, regardless of public
385 healthcare policies aimed at mitigating the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in healthcare
386 infrastructure and provision. Overall, our results represent an urgent call to action for local
387 authorities to perform a healthcare restructuring, particularly in marginalized municipalities
388 and with special attention to vulnerable populations to prioritize full coverage of hospital bed
389 capacity, well-trained healthcare personnel, and availability of primary care services that cover
390 the management of chronic health conditions. These policies could prevent associated
391 complications in the context of future COVID-19 waves or other circumstances that increase
392 stress and reduce access to healthcare in Mexico and other LMICs.

393 Our study has some strengths and limitations. Among the strengths, we highlight the
394 use of 1,069,174 nationwide mortality registries to compare all-cause and cause-specific
395 excess mortality during the COVID-19 pandemic in Mexico in 2020. This approach allowed us
396 to estimate with higher confidence state and municipal-level excess mortality rates that helped
397 us to study the regional impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and identify vulnerable zones in
398 Mexico which were especially affected during 2020 compared to previous years. Additionally,
399 the use of sociodemographic variables at different levels gave us insights to evaluate
400 municipal and individual-level correlates of excess non-COVID-19 mortality. Nevertheless,
401 limitations to be acknowledged include the lack of specific clinical information and comorbidity
402 assessment for correlates known to be key determinants of higher risk of death for COVID-19
403 and non-COVID-19 causes, particularly regarding management of chronic cardio-metabolic
404 conditions. Second, we could not ascertain the number of non-COVID-19 deaths that occurred
405 due to exacerbation of underlying chronic conditions by current or previous SARS-CoV-2
406 infection, which could increase the risk of long-term complications, including cardiovascular
407 diseases [3]. Third, our COVID-19 death construct included cases which could have been
408 misclassified as atypical pneumonia or severe acute respiratory infections of unknown
409 etiology, registered after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic; this was done to reduce the
410 risk of underreporting or misclassified COVID-19 deaths, but could have led to overestimation
411 of COVID-19 deaths. Fourth, we used a surveillance dataset to assess COVID-19
412 hospitalization as a proxy to hospital occupancy; however, identification of COVID-19 related
413 hospitalizations may have varied according to weekly SARS-CoV-2 testing capacity and
414 adequate reporting. Therefore, the use of this proxy could be biased in municipalities with
415 higher marginalization and reduced access to testing. Finally, our municipal-level factors
416 should be interpreted as structural conditions that displayed an association with higher excess
417 mortality rates and therefore, we should avoid an ecological fallacy in determining personal
418 actions in clinical and healthcare management during the COVID-19 pandemic.

419 In conclusion, we show a high burden of excess mortality in Mexico in 2020, largely
420 attributable to in-hospital COVID-19 and out-of-hospital non-COVID-19 deaths. We observed
421 regional heterogeneity of non-COVID-19 excess mortality, with a disproportionate burden on
422 marginalized municipalities in southern Mexico. High hospital occupancy due to COVID-19
423 and higher percentage of population without social security coverage were municipal wide-
424 level correlates of excess mortality; whereas individual-level lower educational attainment,
425 vulnerable working occupations, lack of medical assistance before death, and public or
426 underspecified healthcare access were factors related to higher non-COVID-19 mortality
427 likelihood. Our findings underscore the impact of sociodemographic inequalities in excess
428 mortality related to non-COVID-19 causes in Mexico during 2020 compared to the 2015-2019
429 period. These results should prompt an urgent call to action to improve healthcare coverage
430 and access, particularly in primary care settings and among populations with social
431 disadvantage. Such policies could reduce health disparities in Mexico in circumstances that
432 increase the stress of healthcare systems, including the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic and
433 beyond.

434

435 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

436 Research idea and study design: NEAV, CAFM, OYBC; data acquisition: NEAV, CAFM; data
437 analysis/interpretation: NEAV, CAFM, JMA, LFC, JPA, AGD, AVV; statistical analysis: NEAV,
438 CAFM, OYBC; manuscript drafting: NEAV, OYBC, CAFM, JMA, LFC, JPA, AGD, AVV, JAS
439 SB, LMGR; supervision or mentorship: NEAV, OYBC. Each author contributed important
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453 **DATA AVAILABILITY:** All code, datasets and materials are available for reproducibility of
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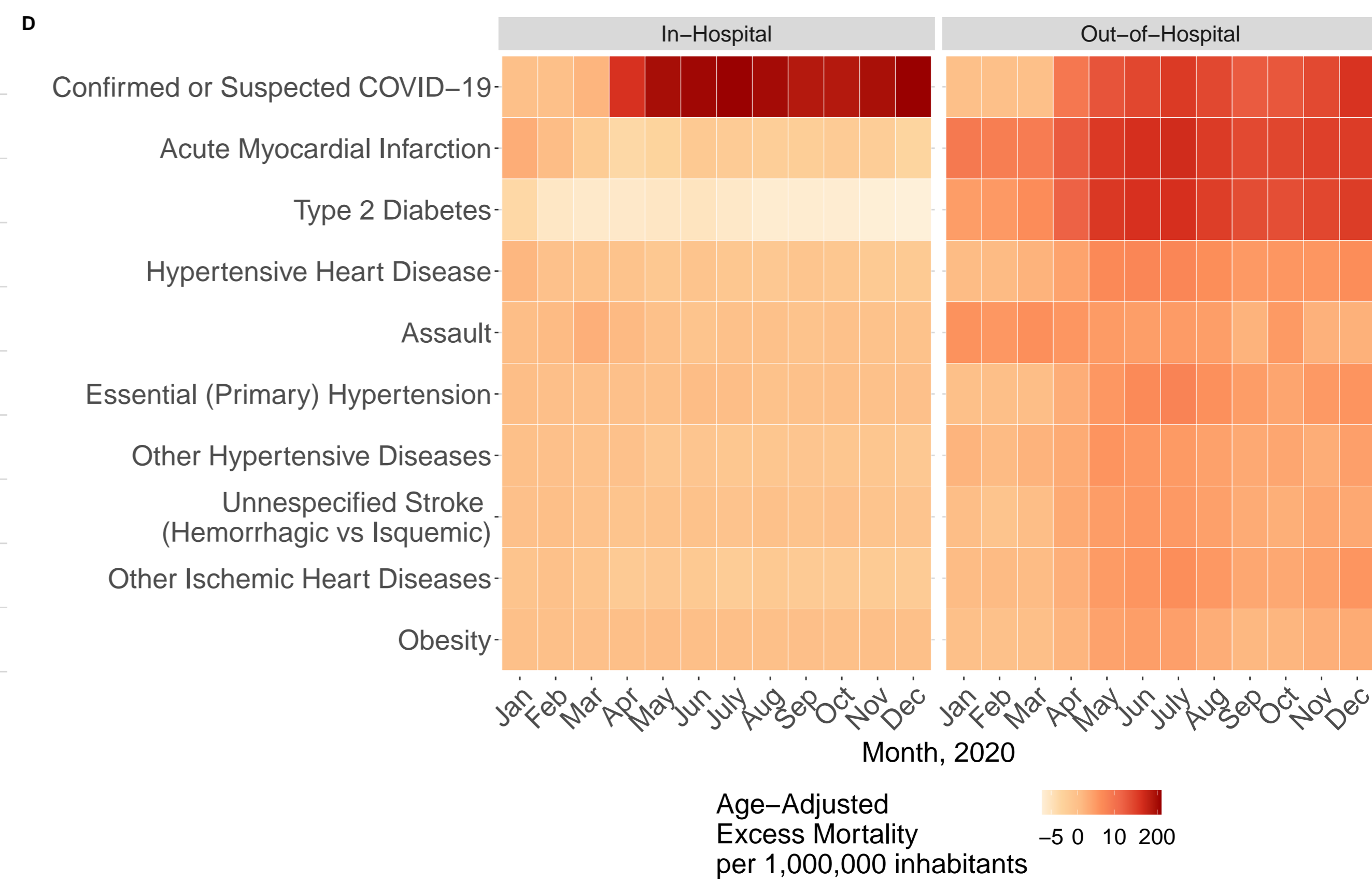
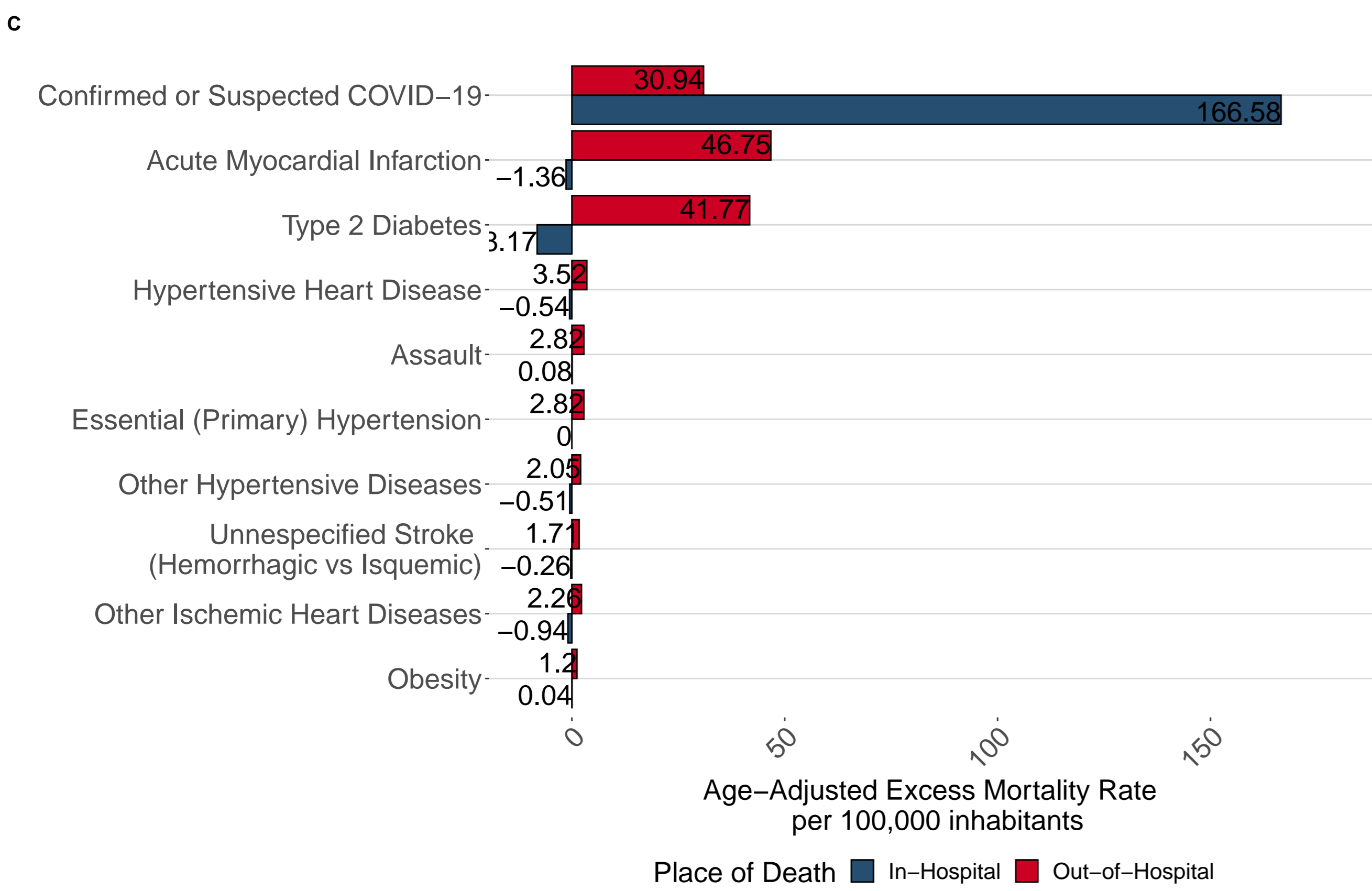
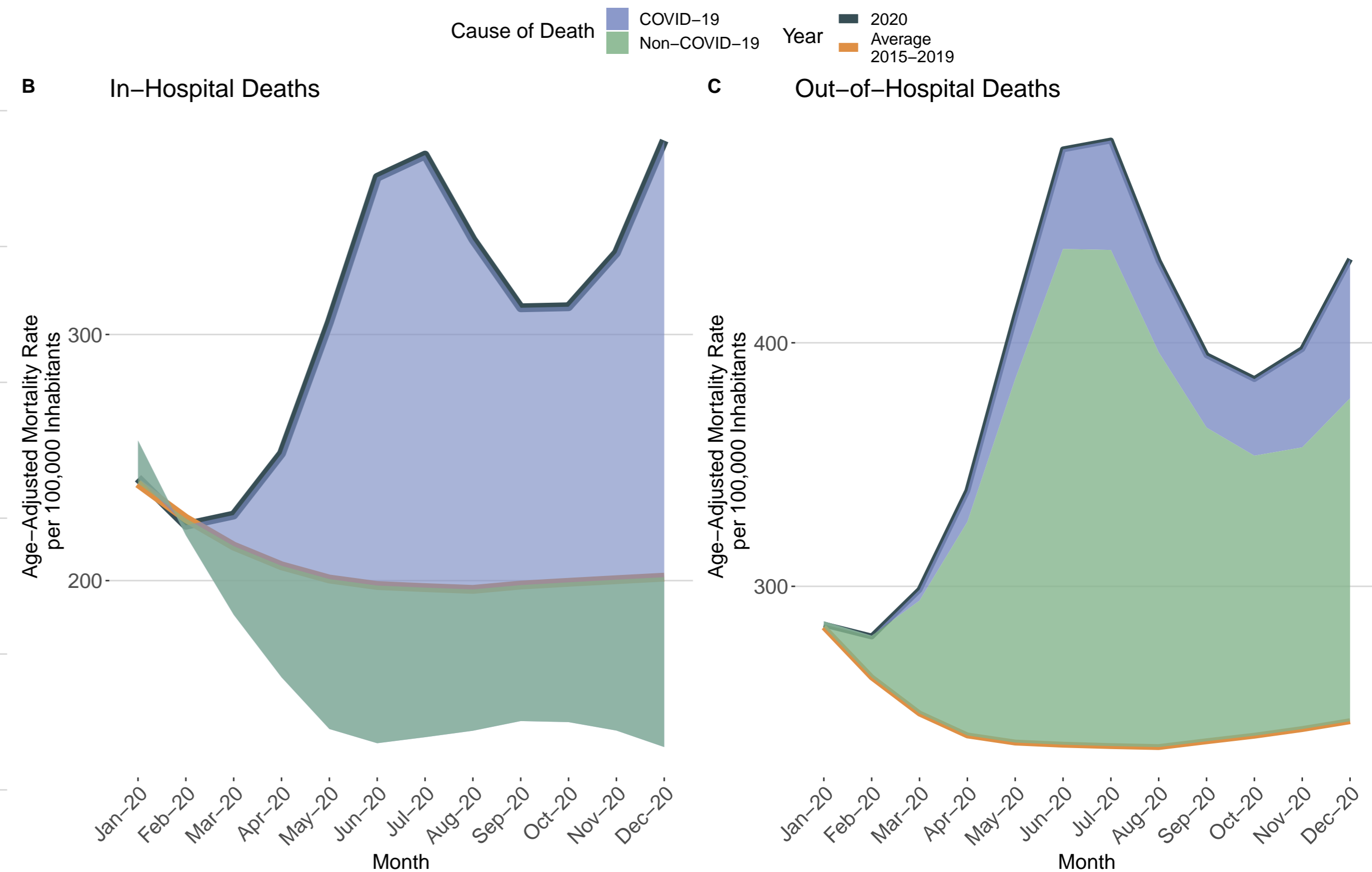
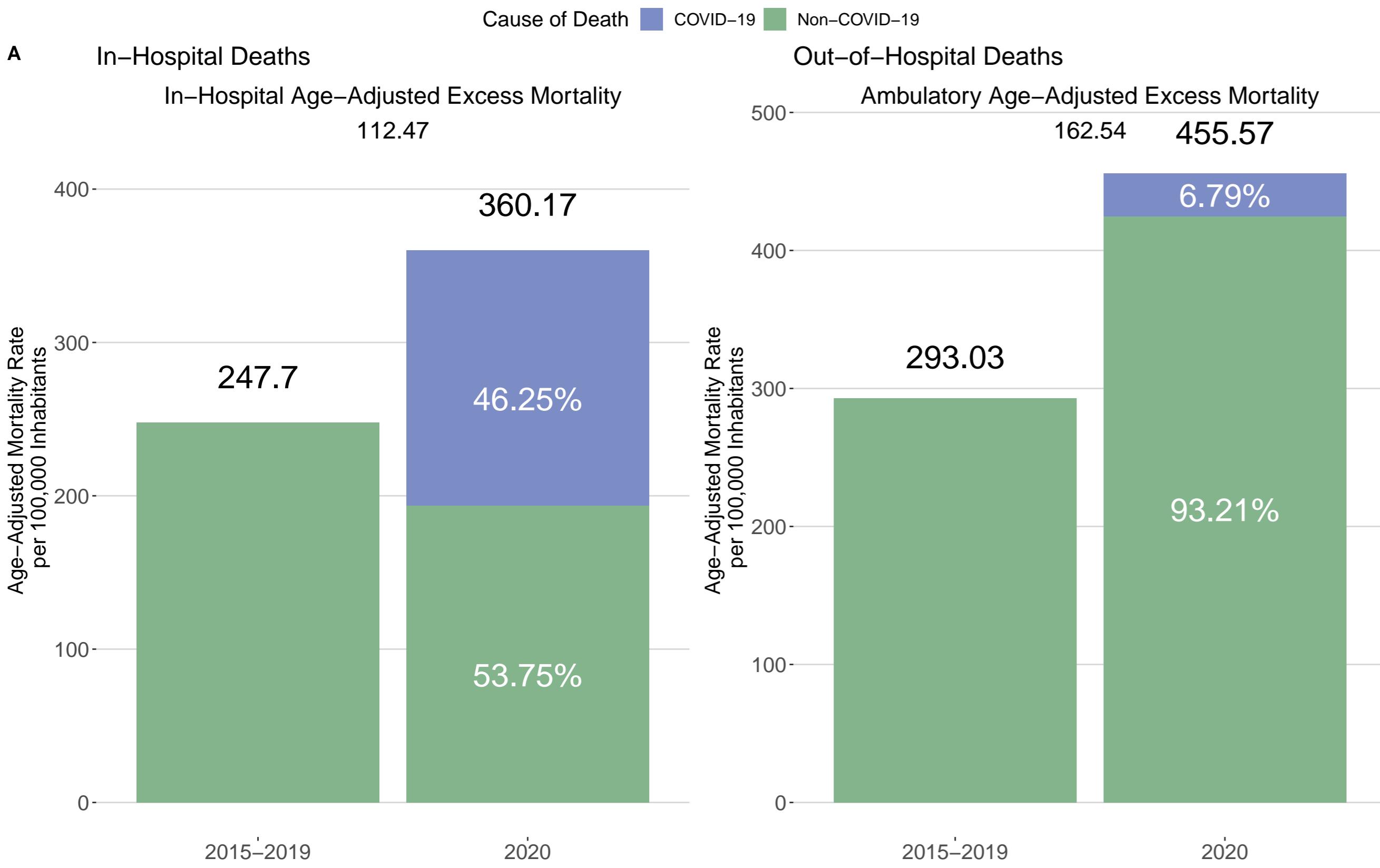
585 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

586 **Figure 1:** Age-adjusted mortality rates in 2020 compared by the average period of 2015-2019
587 (A). Distribution of excess mortality in Mexico stratified by deaths associated with COVID-19
588 and non-COVID-19 for the year 2020 (B). Main 10 causes of age-adjusted excess mortality in
589 México (C) and stratified by month of occurrence (D).

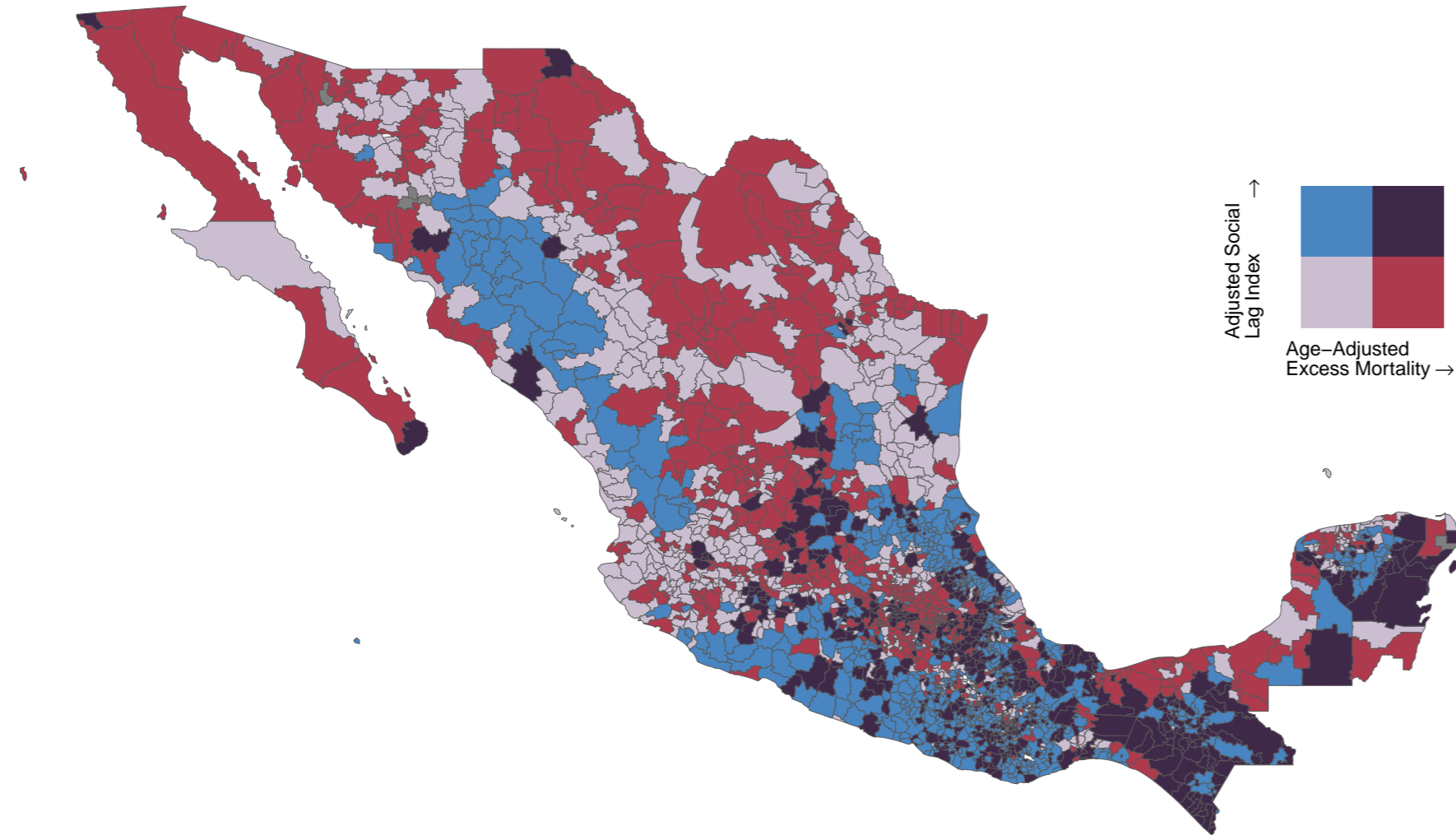
590 **Figure 2:** Stratification of in-hospital and out-of-hospital age-adjusted mortality rates in 2020
591 compared by the average period of 2015-2019 (A). Distribution of excess mortality in Mexico
592 stratified death setting and by deaths associated with COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 for the
593 year 2020 (B). Main 10 causes of age-adjusted excess mortality in México stratified by place
594 of occurrence (C) and by month and place of occurrence of death (D).

595 **Figure 3:** Choropleth map to visualize the geographical distribution of age-adjusted excess
596 mortality and adjusted social lag index by municipality of occurrence in 2020 at Mexico (A).
597 Historical and 2020 age-adjusted mortality rates and excess mortality stratified by adjusted
598 social lag categories (B).

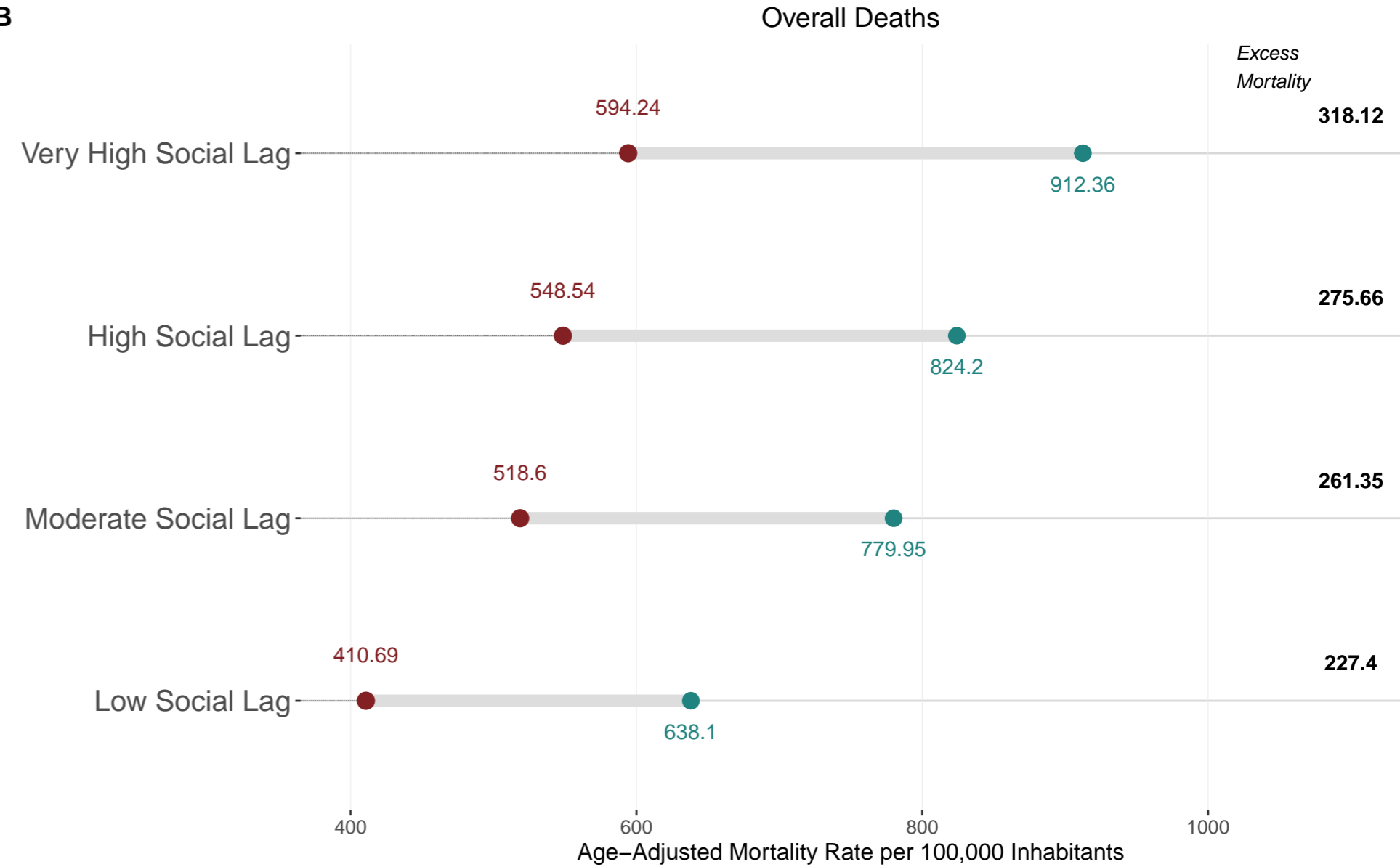
599 **Figure 4:** Negative binomial regression model to evaluate municipal-level factors related to
600 excess mortality (A). Logistic regression model to assess individual-related factors linked to
601 the probability of death for non-COVID-19 causes (B).



A Overall Age-Adjusted Excess Mortality

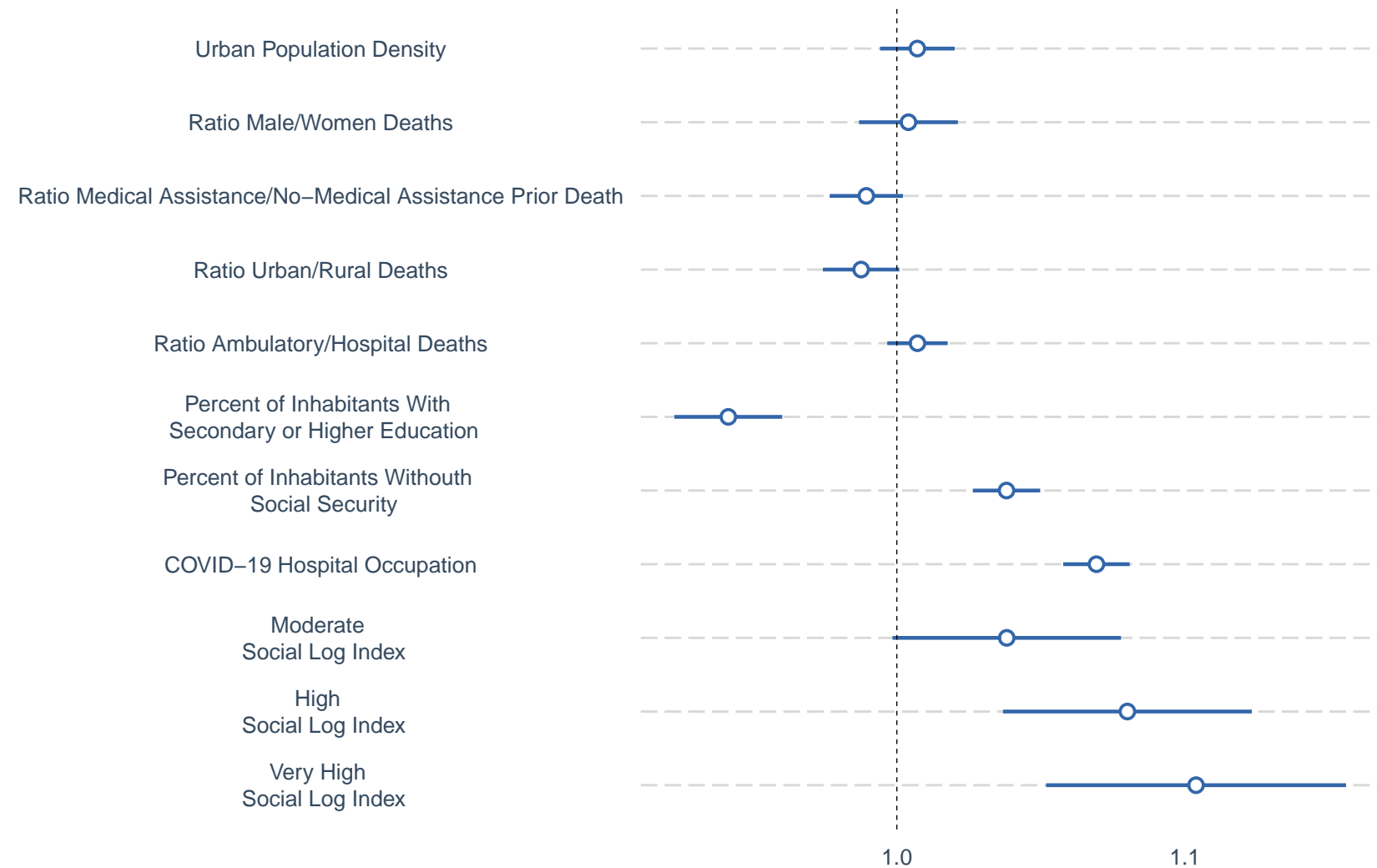


B



A

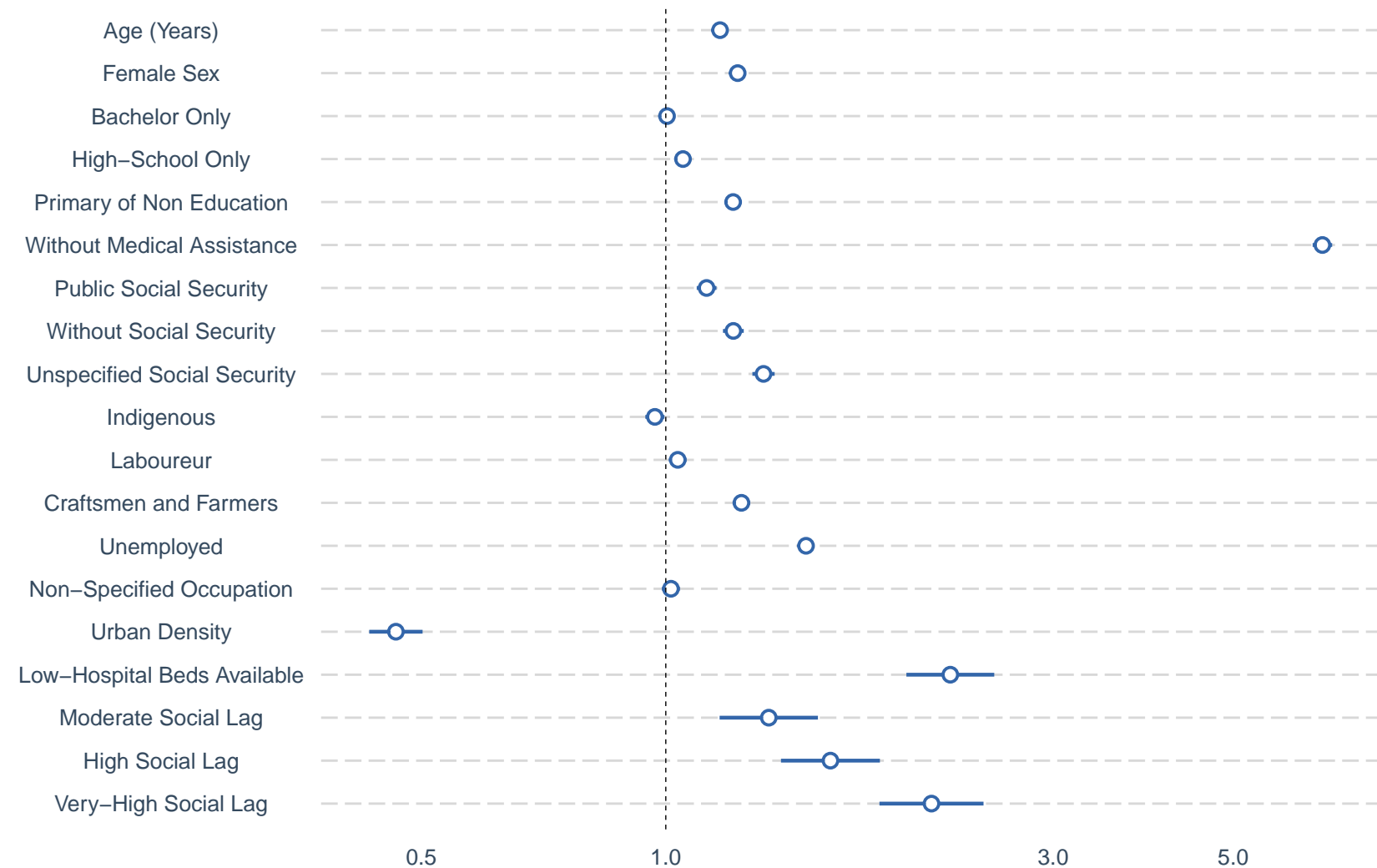
Associated Municipal Factors for Excess Mortality



**Negative Binomial Regression
(Incidence Rate Ratio: 95% C.I.)**

B

Associated Factors Related to Non-COVID-19 Mortality



**Logistic Regression Model,
(Odds Ratio: 95% C.I.)**