



**Cochrane**  
Netherlands

# Systematische literatuuranalyse en internationale vergelijking “Oversterfte”

3 april 2023

Johanna Damen  
Kim van der Braak  
Linde Huis in 't Veld  
Demy Idema  
Mike Kusters  
Pauline Heus  
Lotty Hooft



## **Samenstelling projectteam:**

### **Onderzoekers**

- Dr. J. Damen, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Drs. K. van der Braak, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Drs. L. Huis in 't Veld, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Drs. D. Idema, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Drs. M. Kusters, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Dr. P. Heus, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht
- Prof. Dr. L. Hooft, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht

### **Informatiespecialist**

- Drs. R. Spijker, Cochrane Netherlands en Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht

### **Adviseur**

- Dr. K. Luijken, Julius Centrum, UMC Utrecht

### **Contactgegevens**

Prof. dr. Lotty Hooft  
Cochrane Netherlands / Julius Centrum  
Universitair Medisch Centrum Utrecht  
Huispostnummer Str. 6.131  
Postbus 85500  
3508 GA Utrecht  
T: 088 755 9301  
E: [cochrane@umcutrecht.nl](mailto:cochrane@umcutrecht.nl)  
W: [www.cochrane.nl](http://www.cochrane.nl)

*Disclaimer: The views and opinions expressed in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of The Cochrane Collaboration.*

## Lijst met gebruikte afkortingen

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| ARIMA | Autoregressive integrated moving average       |
| BI    | Betrouwbaarheidsinterval                       |
| BMI   | Body Mass Index                                |
| CBS   | Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek             |
| COVID | Coronavirus Disease 2019                       |
| CI    | Confidence interval (betrouwbaarheidsinterval) |
| GLM   | Generalized Linear Model                       |
| ICD   | International Classification of Diseases       |
| NA    | Not applicable (niet van toepassing)           |
| NR    | Not reported (niet gerapporteerd)              |
| USA   | United States of America                       |

## Samenvatting

**Inleiding en methode:** Om de impact van de COVID-19-pandemie op de samenleving te bepalen, kan oversterfte worden gebruikt als maatstaf. In dit rapport geeft Cochrane Nederland een overzicht van de internationale wetenschappelijke onderzoeken naar oversterfte. Hiertoe werd voor de periode van januari 2020 tot september 2022 systematisch gezocht naar onderzoeken waarin 1) een inschatting werd gemaakt van oversterfte in de algemene populatie (al dan niet opgesplitst voor subgroepen) in Europa, de Verenigde Staten, Canada, Australië of Nieuw-Zeeland (65 onderzoeken), of 2) de methodologie werd beschreven om een inschatting te maken van oversterfte (22 onderzoeken), of 3) een overzicht van doodsoorzaken werd gepresenteerd (9 onderzoeken).

**Definitie:** Oversterfte werd gedefinieerd als het verschil tussen de geobserveerde en verwachte sterfte. De manier waarop de verwachte sterfte geschat werd, verschilde tussen studies. In 28 van 74 studies werd uitgegaan van de (mediane of gemiddelde) sterfte in een periode in het verleden en in de helft van de studies werd een statistisch model gebruikt. De gebruikte statistische modellen varieerden sterk tussen deze studies. Vaak werd gekozen voor een (quasi)-Poisson model (15 studies) of het *autoregressive integrated moving average* (ARIMA) model (7 studies).

**Doodsoorzaken:** Doodsoorzaken werden in alle studies gedefinieerd op basis van International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-10-codes en het aantal gerapporteerde doodsoorzaken per studie liep uiteen van zes tot 28.

**Determinanten en subgroepen:** Belangrijke determinanten van oversterfte zijn leeftijd en geslacht. De meerderheid van de studies vond hogere oversterfte onder ouderen (27 van 35 studies) en bij mannen (23 van 28 studies). Oversterfte onder kwetsbare groepen was meestal hoger dan in de algemene populatie. Hogere oversterfte werd gevonden onder latino's en mensen met een donkere huidskleur (19 van 20 studies), bewoners van institutionele instellingen (6 van 6 studies), migranten (4 van 4 studies), mensen met comorbiditeiten (14 van 15 studies), mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status (11 van 12 studies) en mensen met een laag opleidingsniveau (7 van 7 studies).

**Internationale verschillen:** Er lijkt een trend zichtbaar van een hogere oversterfte in Oost-Europa en een lagere oversterfte in Scandinavië, Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. De hoogste COVID-19-sterfte werd gezien in West-Europese landen, terwijl COVID-19-sterfte het laagst was in Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. Verklaringen voor deze internationale verschillen hadden te maken met COVID-19-interventies, organisatie van en toegang tot zorg, populatiekenmerken, gedrag, geografische locatie en verschillen tussen landen in kwaliteit van de data.

**Virusvarianten en vaccins:** Drie studies vonden een oversterftepiek tijdens de eerste COVID-19-golf, maar de resultaten van de overige drie studies liepen sterk uiteen. Een lagere oversterfte werd gevonden bij mensen die volledig gevaccineerd waren (6 van 7 studies). Er werden geen studies gevonden die keken naar de relatie tussen oversterfte en type vaccin.

**Conclusies en aanbevelingen:** Er is veel onderzoek verricht naar oversterfte, maar de gehanteerde analysemethoden zijn vaak verschillend. Over het algemeen lijkt oversterfte hoger onder ouderen, mannen, mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status, bewoners van institutionele instellingen en migranten. Vaccinaties lijken samen te hangen met lagere oversterfte. Om de wetenschappelijke literatuur te verbeteren, is het wenselijk om uniforme analysemethoden te hanteren, de rapportage van (gestandaardiseerde) oversterfte *rates* te verbeteren, en multivariabele analyses uit te voeren om beter inzicht te krijgen in de verschillende aspecten die een rol spelen bij oversterfte.

## Uitgebreide samenvatting

Om de impact van de COVID-19-pandemie op de samenleving te bepalen, kan oversterfte worden gebruikt als maatstaf. Oversterfte wordt door het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) gedefinieerd als “een tijdelijke, bijzondere stijging van het aantal overledenen die samenvalt met een bijzondere gebeurtenis, zoals een griep epidemie, hittegolf of corona-epidemie”. In de literatuur zijn verschillende artikelen verschenen die een inschatting proberen te maken van oversterfte tijdens de COVID-19-pandemie en de redenen en oorzaken hiervan onderzoeken. In dit rapport geeft Cochrane Nederland een overzicht van de internationale wetenschappelijke onderzoeken naar oversterfte. Op basis van deze literatuur werd getracht de volgende uitgangsvragen te beantwoorden:

1. Welke definities van oversterfte worden gebruikt in de nationale- en internationale literatuur?
2. Welke methodieken/modellen worden gebruikt om een schatting te kunnen maken van de oversterfte?
3. Welke doodsoorzaken zijn gemeten in de periode 2020-2021 en hoe zijn deze gedefinieerd?
4. Wat zijn determinanten van oversterfte in het algemeen in de periode van 2020-2021?
5. Zijn er internationale verschillen in de omvang van oversterfte in het algemeen en sterfte door COVID-19 in de periode 2020-2021? Hoe zijn deze verschillen te verklaren?
6. Hoe groot was de oversterfte in het algemeen en sterfte aan COVID-19 onder kwetsbare groepen, mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden, arbeidsmigranten en bewoners van institutionele instellingen?
7. In hoeverre is oversterfte te verklaren door verschillende virusvarianten, vaccinatiestatus en type vaccins?

### Methodologie

Om de uitgangsvragen te beantwoorden, werd de literatuur vanaf januari 2020 tot september 2022 systematisch doorzocht. Relevant onderzoek omvatte studies waarin 1) een inschatting werd gemaakt van oversterfte in de algemene populatie in Europa, de Verenigde Staten, Canada, Australië of Nieuw-Zeeland, of 2) de methodologie werd beschreven om een inschatting te maken van oversterfte, of 3) een overzicht van doodsoorzaken werd gepresenteerd. In totaal werden 74 relevante artikelen geïdentificeerd waarvan uitgebreide gegevens werden verzameld. In deze artikelen maakten 24 een internationale vergelijking van oversterfte in meer dan vijf landen, terwijl de overige onderzoeken werden uitgevoerd in de Verenigde Staten, Italië, het Verenigd Koninkrijk, Nederland, België, Hongarije, Zweden en Spanje. De meerderheid van de onderzoeken maakten een inschatting van oversterfte in (een deel van) 2020, terwijl in 19 onderzoeken ook recentere gegevens werden meegenomen. Veel internationaal vergelijkende studies maakten gebruik van de databronnen Our World in Data, de Human mortality Database of de World Mortality Dataset.

### Resultaten

#### *Definitie van oversterfte*

In 73 van de 74 onderzoeken werd een definitie van oversterfte gegeven en in alle gevallen werd oversterfte gedefinieerd als het verschil tussen de geobserveerde en verwachte sterfte. De manier waarop de verwachte sterfte geschat werd, verschilde tussen artikelen. In de helft van de artikelen

werd gebruik gemaakt van een statistisch model en in 28 artikelen werd uitgegaan van de (mediane of gemiddelde) sterfte in een periode in het verleden. In zes artikelen was onduidelijk hoe de verwachte sterfte werd bepaald.

#### *Methodieken om oversterfte te schatten*

Met de systematische zoekstrategie werden 22 recente artikelen gevonden die methoden beschreven om oversterfte te schatten. In de ingesloten artikelen werden ook zeven oudere artikelen en boeken geciteerd waarin methoden werden beschreven.

Het statistische model dat gekozen werd om de verwachte oversterfte te modelleren, varieerde sterk tussen de verschillende studies. Het (quasi)-Poisson model werd het meest gebruikt (15 studies), gevolgd door het *autoregressive integrated moving average* (ARIMA) model (7 studies). De overige studies maakten gebruik van allerlei verschillende modellen met diverse onderliggende verdelingen en aannames.

#### *Doodsoorzaken*

In negen onderzoeken werd een overzicht van doodsoorzaken gepresenteerd, die allemaal werden ingedeeld op basis van International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-10-codes. Het aantal verschillende doodsoorzaken varieerde tussen zes en 28. In bijna alle onderzoeken, op één na, werd COVID-19 genoemd als doodsoorzaak. Hiervoor zijn ICD-10-codes U071 (bevestigde COVID-19) en U072 (vermoedelijke COVID-19) beschikbaar.

#### *Determinanten van oversterfte*

Leeftijd is een belangrijke determinant van oversterfte. Van de artikelen die onderzochten hoe leeftijd en oversterfte gerelateerd zijn, vond de meerderheid (27 van 35) een hogere oversterfte onder ouderen. Eén onderzoek vond juist een lagere oversterfte bij ouderen. Andere studies vonden geen verschillen of juist een hogere oversterfte onder de beroepsbevolking. In 23 van de 28 studies die geslacht als factor meenamen, werd een hogere oversterfte gevonden onder mannen. De overige studies vonden geen verschil tussen mannen en vrouwen. Andere factoren die mogelijk geassocieerd zijn met oversterfte (hoewel elk slechts genoemd in één onderzoek) waren BMI, roken en (op regionaal niveau) het aantal geregistreerde medisch specialisten.

#### *Internationale verschillen*

De vergelijking van oversterfte in 24 internationale studies lijkt een trend te laten zien waarbij oversterfte hoger is in Oost-Europa en lager in Scandinavië, Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. Deze trend is te zien voor zowel mannen als vrouwen. De hoogste COVID-19-specifieke sterfte (het aantal sterftegevallen onder mensen met een COVID-19 infectie) werd juist gezien in West-Europese landen, terwijl COVID-19-sterfte het laagst was in Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. Verklaringen voor de internationale verschillen in oversterfte hadden te maken met COVID-19-interventies (striktheid en timing), organisatie van en toegang tot zorg, populatiekenmerken (bevolkingsdichtheid, demografische en sociale kenmerken), gedrag (naleving maatregelen, mobiliteit, acceptatie vaccins), geografische locatie en verschillen tussen landen in kwaliteit van de data.

#### *Oversterfte in subgroepen*

In 20 studies werd oversterfte uitgesplitst naar etnische achtergrond. In 19 van deze studies werd een hogere oversterfte gevonden onder latino's en/of mensen met een zwarte huidskleur, en een

lagere oversterfte onder mensen met een witte huidskleur en soms ook onder mensen met een Aziatische afkomst.

In zes studies werd beschreven hoe oversterfte onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen is verdeeld. Alle studies vonden een hogere oversterfte onder deze bewoners dan onder de algemene populatie of onder mensen van vergelijkbare leeftijden die niet in een institutionele instelling wonen. Ook onder migranten werd een hogere oversterfte gevonden, zoals bleek uit studies uit de Verenigde Staten, Zweden en twee studies uit België.

Vijftien studies onderzochten oversterfte onder mensen met comorbiditeiten of chronische ziekten. Hieruit bleek dat oversterfte meestal hoger was onder mensen met een chronische ziekte of met één of meerdere comorbiditeiten zoals hart- en vaatziekten, diabetes, dementie, longziekten, kanker, hypertensie. Eén studie vond geen associatie tussen verschillende comorbiditeiten en oversterfte, terwijl twee studies wel oversterfte vonden onder mensen met hart- en vaatziekten maar niet bij mensen met kanker of longziekten.

Elf studies vonden een hogere oversterfte onder mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status, terwijl één Engelse studie geen verband vond tussen oversterfte en sociaal-economische status. Ook onder mensen met een laag opleidingsniveau (meestal alleen lagere en middelbare school) werd een hogere oversterfte gevonden (7 studies). Vijf studies rapporteerden verschillen in oversterfte met betrekking tot beroepssector. Eén Engelse studie vond de hoogste oversterfte onder medewerkers in de zorg, gevolgd door andere essentiële beroepen. Een ander onderzoek uit Engeland vond juist een lagere oversterfte bij mensen werkzaam in de onderwijssector. De andere studies vonden hogere oversterfte binnen de voedsel- en landbouwsector, productie, retail, transport en logistiek.

#### *Virusvarianten en vaccinaties*

Resultaten met betrekking tot de relatie tussen oversterfte en virusvariant verschilden tussen de zes studies. Twee Italiaanse studies en één Spaanse studie vonden een oversterftepiek tijdens de eerste COVID-19-golf, terwijl een studie uit de Verenigde Staten juist een lagere piek vond tijdens de eerste golf en een hogere oversterfte tijdens de periode waarin de Delta-variant dominant was. Een andere Amerikaanse studie vond hogere oversterfte tijdens de Omicron-golf in vergelijking tot de Delta-golf. In zes studies die de relatie tussen vaccinatie en oversterfte hebben onderzocht werd lagere oversterfte gevonden bij mensen die volledig gevaccineerd waren, of in gebieden met hogere vaccinatiegraad. Eén studie vond geen verschil. Er werden geen studies gevonden die keken naar de relatie tussen oversterfte en type vaccin.

#### Beperkingen van onderzoek naar oversterfte

De gebruikte databronnen, berekeningsmethoden en rapportage van oversterfte waren erg verschillend tussen studies, waardoor het uitdagend is om studies met elkaar te vergelijken. Daarnaast waren de geanalyseerde tijdsperiodes verschillend. Aangezien oversterfte varieert over de tijd kan het onderling vergelijken van studies die een verschillende tijdsperiode analyseren een vertekend beeld geven. Bovendien rapporteerden studies vaak alleen het absolute aantal oversterftes zonder daarbij rekening te houden met de grootte van de populatie. Voor studies die nationale gegevens analyseerden, was het mogelijk te corrigeren voor populatiegrootte, maar bij studies die oversterfte in subgroepen beschreven was dit meestal niet mogelijk. Daardoor konden subgroepen alleen binnen een studie vergeleken worden, maar niet tussen studies. Tot slot wordt oversterfte beïnvloed door veel verschillende aspecten en werd in veel subgroepanalyses slechts één

aspect bestudeerd. Een hogere oversterfte onder mensen met een bepaalde etniciteit kan bijvoorbeeld ook samenhangen met sociaal-economische status, vaccinatiegraad, en prevalentie van comorbiditeiten.

### Conclusies en aanbevelingen

Er is veel onderzoek verricht naar oversterfte, maar de gehanteerde analysemethoden zijn vaak verschillend. Over het algemeen lijkt oversterfte vaker voor te komen onder ouderen, mannen, mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status, bewoners van institutionele instellingen en migranten. Vaccinaties lijken samen te hangen met lagere oversterfte, maar aangezien de hogere vaccinatiegraad gepaard ging met de opkomst van de Omicron-variant, kan er geen causaal verband worden vastgesteld. Om de wetenschappelijke literatuur te verbeteren, is het wenselijk om uniforme analysemethoden te hanteren (bijvoorbeeld door de ontwikkeling van richtlijnen met betrekking tot de meeste optimale manier om oversterfte te analyseren), de rapportage van oversterfte *rates* (gestandaardiseerd naar populatiegrootte en tijdsperiode) te verbeteren en multivariabele analyses uit te voeren om beter inzicht te krijgen in de verschillende aspecten die een rol spelen bij oversterfte.



## Inhoudsopgave

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Samenvatting .....   | 4  |
| Uitgebreide samenvatting .....   | 5  |
| 1. Inleiding .....   | 11 |
| 2. Uitgangsvragen .....  | 11 |
| 3. Methoden .....  | 11 |
| 3.1 Identificatie en selectie van relevante onderzoeken .....          | 11 |
| 3.2 Data-extractie .....   | 12 |
| 3.3 Analyses .....   | 13 |
| 4. Resultaten .....  | 13 |
| 4.1 Selectie van onderzoeken .....                                     | 13 |
| 4.2 Beschrijving geïnccludeerde onderzoeken .....                      | 14 |
| 4.3 Uitgangsvraag 1: Definitie oversterfte .....                       | 20 |
| 4.4 Uitgangsvraag 2: Methodieken oversterfte .....                     | 20 |
| 4.5 Uitgangsvraag 3: Doodsoorzaken .....                               | 22 |
| 4.6 Uitgangsvraag 4: Determinanten van oversterfte .....               | 22 |
| 4.6.1 Leeftijd .....   | 22 |
| 4.6.2 Geslacht .....   | 23 |
| 4.6.3 Overige determinanten .....                                      | 24 |
| 4.7 Uitgangsvraag 5: Internationale verschillen .....                  | 25 |
| 4.7.1 Internationale verschillen .....                                 | 25 |
| 4.7.2 Verklaringen voor internationale verschillen .....               | 30 |
| 4.8 Uitgangsvraag 6: Oversterfte in subgroepen .....                   | 32 |
| 4.8.1 Mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden .....            | 32 |
| 4.8.2 Bewoners van insitutionele instellingen .....                    | 34 |
| 4.8.3 Migranten .....  | 35 |
| 4.8.4 Mensen met comorbiditeiten .....                                 | 36 |
| 4.8.5 Sociaaleconomische status en opleiding .....                     | 36 |
| 4.9 Uitgangsvraag 7: Virusvarianten, vaccinaties en interventies ..... | 40 |
| 4.9.1 Virusvarianten .....   | 40 |
| 4.9.2 Vaccinaties .....  | 41 |
| 4.9.3 Type vaccins .....   | 42 |
| 4.9.4 COVID-19-interventies .....                                      | 42 |
| 5. Discussie .....   | 44 |

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| 6. Conclusies .....  | 45  |
| Referenties.....   | 47  |
| Bijlagen.....  | 53  |
| Bijlage 1. Zoekstrategie.....                                | 54  |
| Bijlage 2. Study flow.....                                   | 55  |
| Bijlage 3. Uitgesloten onderzoeken .....                     | 56  |
| Bijlage 4. Initieel ingesloten onderzoeken.....              | 59  |
| Bijlage 5. Statistische modellen .....                       | 79  |
| Bijlage 6. Referenties methodologische artikelen .....       | 83  |
| Bijlage 7. Doodsoorzaken .....                               | 86  |
| Bijlage 8. Determinanten .....                               | 91  |
| 8A. Leeftijd .....   | 91  |
| 8B. Geslacht .....   | 93  |
| Bijlage 9. Internationale verschillen .....                  | 96  |
| 9A. Oversterfte per land .....                               | 96  |
| 9B. COVID-19 sterfte per land .....                          | 101 |
| 9C. Lijst verklaringen internationale verschillen .....      | 103 |
| Bijlage 10. Oversterfte in subgroepen .....                  | 105 |
| 10A. Mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden .....   | 105 |
| 10B. Bewoners van institutionele instellingen .....          | 107 |
| 10C. Migranten .....   | 108 |
| 10D. Mensen met comorbiditeiten .....                        | 108 |
| 10E. Sociaaleconomische status en opleiding .....            | 111 |
| Bijlage 11. Virusvarianten, vaccinaties en interventies..... | 115 |
| 11A. Virusvarianten .....                                    | 115 |
| 11B. Vaccinaties.....  | 115 |
| 11C. COVID-19 interventies .....                             | 116 |

## 1. Inleiding

De COVID-19-pandemie heeft veel vraagstukken rondom sociale en economische problemen veroorzaakt of blootgelegd. Momenteel wordt wereldwijd kennis vergaard over het effect van COVID-19 op de maatschappij en wordt gekeken naar wat we van deze crisis kunnen leren voor de toekomst. Een van de vraagstukken is in welke mate de COVID-19-pandemie van invloed is geweest op oversterfte. Oversterfte wordt door het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) gedefinieerd als “een tijdelijke, bijzondere stijging van het aantal overledenen die samenvalt met een bijzondere gebeurtenis, zoals een griep epidemie, hittegolf of corona-epidemie”. In de literatuur zijn verschillende artikelen verschenen die een inschatting proberen te maken van (redenen en oorzaken van) oversterfte tijdens de COVID-19-pandemie in verschillende landen en in subgroepen (bijvoorbeeld per geslacht of leeftijdscategorie). Een goed overzicht van de verschillende internationale wetenschappelijke onderzoeken naar oversterfte geeft belangrijke informatie ten behoeve van verder onderzoek naar redenen en oorzaken voor oversterfte.

## 2. Uitgangsvragen

In het onderhavige rapport zullen wij de volgende uitgangsvragen proberen te beantwoorden op basis van de literatuur op het gebied van oversterfte:

1. Welke definities van oversterfte worden gebruikt in de nationale- en internationale literatuur?
2. Welke methodieken/modellen worden gebruikt om een schatting te kunnen maken van de oversterfte?
3. Welke doodsoorzaken zijn gemeten in de periode 2020-2021 en hoe zijn deze gedefinieerd?
4. Wat zijn determinanten van oversterfte in het algemeen in de periode van 2020-2021?
5. Zijn er internationale verschillen in de omvang van oversterfte in het algemeen en sterfte door COVID-19 in de periode 2020-2021? Hoe zijn deze verschillen te verklaren?
6. Hoe groot was de oversterfte in het algemeen en sterfte aan COVID-19 onder kwetsbare groepen, mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden, arbeidsmigranten en bewoners van institutionele instellingen?
7. In hoeverre is oversterfte te verklaren door verschillende virusvarianten, vaccinatiestatus en type vaccins?

## 3. Methodes

### 3.1 Identificatie en selectie van relevante onderzoeken

Aan de hand van de aldus geformuleerde uitgangsvragen werd gezocht naar relevante studies. Relevante studies waren onderzoeken waarin 1) een inschatting werd gemaakt van oversterfte in Europa, de Verenigde Staten, Canada, Australië of Nieuw-Zeeland, of 2) methodologie werd beschreven om een inschatting te maken van oversterfte, of 3) een overzicht van doodsoorzaken gepresenteerd werd. Studies waarin oversterfte ingeschat werd in populaties waarbij patiënten met COVID-19 geëxcludeerd werden, werden niet meegenomen in dit literatuuronderzoek. Ook studies waarin

oversterfte als gevolg van hittegolven of griepgolven werd bepaald, werden uitgesloten. Tenslotte werden ook studies uitgesloten waarbij een inschatting van oversterfte werd gemaakt in een specifieke patiëntenpopulatie en niet in een algemene populatie. Deze beslissing werd genomen omdat de resultaten in een dergelijke specifieke populatie niet te vergelijken zijn met resultaten in de algemene populatie.

Er werd een zoekstrategie ontwikkeld (Bijlage 1) en criteria geformuleerd voor in- en exclusie van studies die de verschillende uitgangsvragen zouden kunnen beantwoorden. Er werd gezocht naar mogelijk geschikte studies gepubliceerd tussen 1 januari 2020 en 14 september 2022. Hiertoe werden de elektronische databases MEDLINE en Embase geraadpleegd.

De selectie van studies werd uitgevoerd door twee onderzoekers onafhankelijk van elkaar, eerst op basis van titel en abstract en in tweede instantie op basis van het volledige artikel. Verschillen tussen de twee beoordelaars werden bediscussieerd. In geval geen overeenstemming kon worden bereikt, werd een derde onderzoeker ingeschakeld, wiens/wier oordeel leidend was.

### 3.2 Data-extractie

Van iedere publicatie werden beschrijvende gegevens verzameld, zoals het land en kenmerken van de populatie. Omdat er veel meer literatuur over dit onderwerp gepubliceerd bleek te zijn dan van tevoren ingeschat, werd vervolgens, na overleg met de programmacommissie Oversterfte en COVID-19 van ZonMW, een selectie gemaakt van studies. Voor uitgangsvraag 3 (doodsoorzaken) werden alleen studies geselecteerd die minstens drie verschillende doodsoorzaken rapporteerden. Voor uitgangsvraag 5 (internationale verschillen) werden alleen studies geselecteerd die gegevens van meer dan vijf landen presenteerden. Op deze manier werden met name studies uitgesloten waarin slechts een inschatting werd gemaakt van oversterfte in één of enkele landen, zonder daarbij aanvullende analyses uit te voeren om oversterfte in subpopulaties te bepalen of determinanten van oversterfte te exploreren. Voor uitgangsvraag 6 (subgroepen) werden alleen studies vergelijkende studies geselecteerd. Voor uitgangsvraag 4 (determinanten) en 7 (virusvarianten en vaccinaties) werden alle relevante studies geselecteerd. Uitgangsvraag 1 en 2 werden vervolgens

Vervolgens werd een uitgebreide data-extractie uitgevoerd bij de geselecteerde onderzoeken. Hiertoe werden gegevens geëxtraheerd met betrekking tot de definitie van oversterfte, datums, databronnen, uitgebreide kenmerken van de populatie (leeftijd, specifieke exclusies), doodsoorzaken, kenmerken van de gehanteerde methodologie, beschikbaarheid van een studieprotocol en de resultaten (oversterfte rate, aantal geobserveerde en voorspelde doden en het verschil en/of de ratio tussen deze twee, oversterfte toegeschreven aan COVID-19 en oversterfte niet toegeschreven aan COVID-19). Indien resultaten niet kwantitatief beschreven werden, werden deze als tekst geëxtraheerd.

Extractie van de studie karakteristieken en resultaten werd uitgevoerd door één onderzoeker en gecontroleerd door een tweede onderzoeker. Verschillen tussen de twee beoordelaars werden bediscussieerd. In geval geen overeenstemming bereikt kon worden, werd een derde onderzoeker ingeschakeld, wiens/wier oordeel leidend was.

### 3.3 Analyses

Kenmerken van de studies werden beschrijvend gepresenteerd in tabellen en figuren. Gegevens over oversterfte en COVID-19-mortaliteit werden geanalyseerd door de gerapporteerde oversterfte te standaardiseren op basis van populatiegrootte (bron:

<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL>) en om te rekenen naar aantal oversterftes per 100,000 inwoners op jaarbasis. Op deze manier konden verschillende landen met elkaar vergeleken worden, en werd gecorrigeerd voor verschillen in follow-upduur tussen studies.

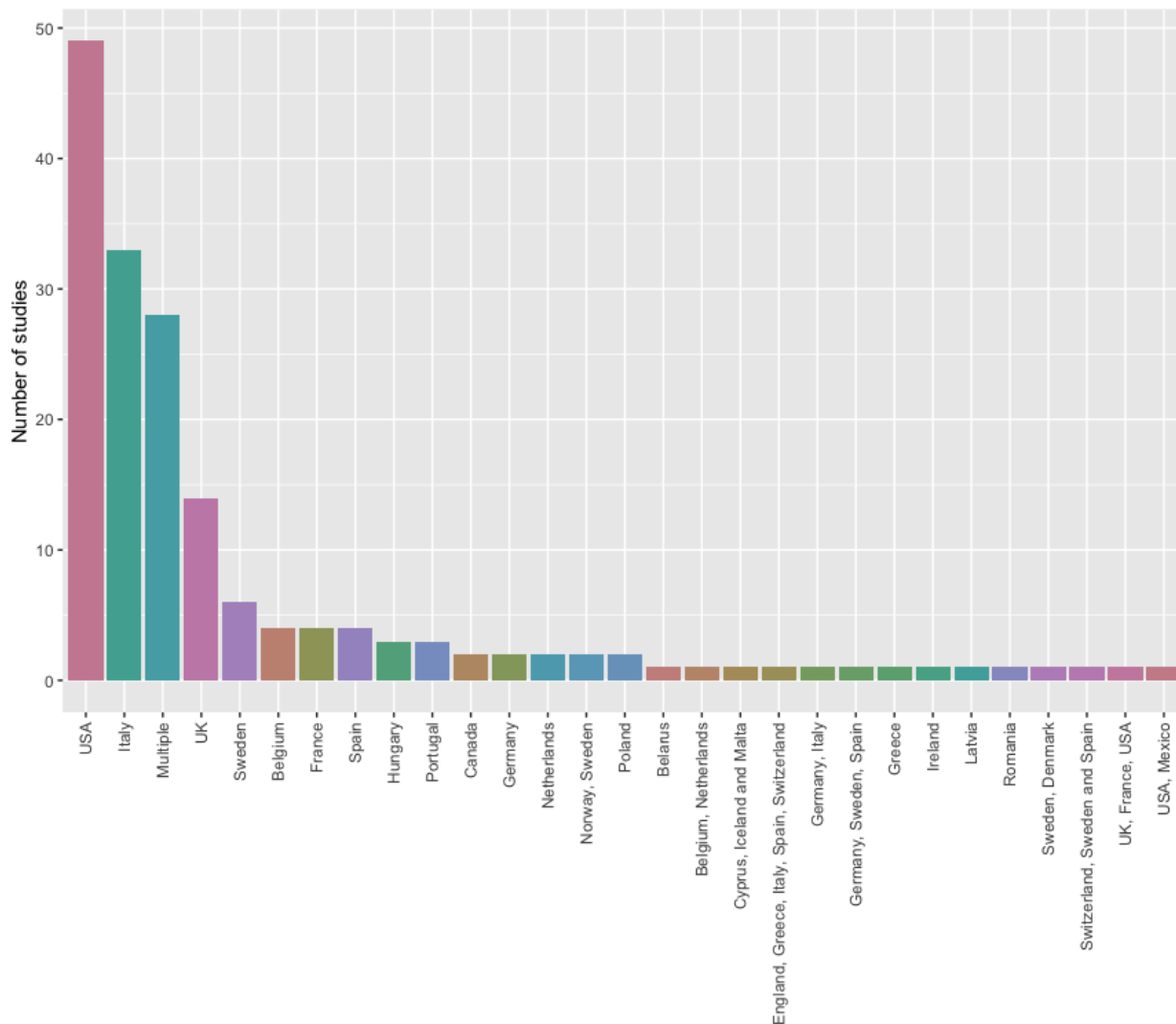
Omdat het voor de uitgangsvraag met betrekking tot oversterfte in kwetsbare (sub)groepen niet mogelijk was gegevens op een vergelijkbare manier te standaardiseren, werden subgroepen binnen een studie gerangschikt en werden deze rangschikkingen vergeleken tussen studies. De rangschikking binnen een studie werd gemaakt indien oversterfte beschreven werd als oversterfte rate (bijvoorbeeld per 10,000 personen), of indien het absolute aantal verwachte en geobserveerde sterftes beschikbaar was, op basis waarvan een ratio berekend kon worden in iedere subgroep. Indien alleen het absolute aantal oversterftes beschreven werd, kon helaas geen rangschikking gemaakt worden. In alle gevallen werd ook een narratieve beschrijving van de bevindingen verzameld en samengevat.

## 4. Resultaten

### 4.1 Selectie van onderzoeken

Er werden 2841 potentieel relevante artikelen gevonden (Bijlage 2). Na ontdebellen bleven 1664 artikelen over, waarvan er 1216 op basis van titel en/of abstract niet relevant bleken. Van de overgebleven 448 werd het volledige artikel bekeken en uiteindelijk vielen er nog 254 af. De voornaamste reden voor exclusie was dat oversterfte niet bepaald werd. 23 artikelen werden uitgesloten omdat oversterfte werd bepaald in specifieke populaties, bijvoorbeeld in verzorgingshuizen of patiëntenpopulaties. Een overzicht van deze artikelen is weergegeven in bijlage 3.

194 onderzoeken werden initieel geïncludeerd (Bijlage 4), waarvan er 22 methoden beschreven om oversterfte te bepalen. Van de overige 172 studies maakte de meerderheid een inschatting van de oversterfte in de Verenigde Staten (49 studies) of Italië (33 studies) (Figuur 1).



Figuur 1: Overzicht landen initieel ingesloten onderzoeken (n=178)

## 4.2 Beschrijving geïncludeerde onderzoeken

Voor 74 studies werd uiteindelijk volledige data geëxtraheerd. Een overzicht van deze studies is te vinden in Tabel 1. Vijf studies werden gepubliceerd in 2020, 42 studies in 2021 en 27 in 2020. In 24 van deze studies werden gegevens uit meer dan vijf landen beschreven, 22 onderzoeken werden uitgevoerd in de Verenigde Staten, negen in Italië, acht in het Verenigd Koninkrijk, vijf in Nederland en/of België, twee in Hongarije, twee in Zweden en één in Spanje. 65 onderzoeken beschreven oversterfte in de generieke populatie, vier in de beroepsbevolking, in twee onderzoeken betrof het patiënten ingeschreven bij een huisarts en drie Amerikaanse studies richtten zich op respectievelijk veteranen, de latino populatie en Medicare ontvangers. De follow-up periode verschilde sterk tussen onderzoeken (Figuur 2), maar besloeg meestal (een deel van) 2020. In 19 onderzoeken werden ook gegevens over 2021 geanalyseerd, en in twee van deze werden zelfs de eerste maanden van 2022 meegenomen.<sup>12</sup> De

meest gebruikte databronnen waren Centers for Disease Control and Prevention National Center for Health Statistics (CDC NCHS) (13 studies), Office for National Statistics (ONS) (8 studies), Istituto Nazionale di Statistica (ISTAT) (7 studies), Our World in Data (7 studies), Human Mortality Database (7 studies), en World Mortality Dataset (4 studies). Voor twee onderzoeken was een studieprotocol beschikbaar in de bijlage,<sup>3,4</sup> vier onderzoeken hadden een studieprotocol maar deze was niet beschikbaar,<sup>5-8</sup> drie beschreven dat een studieprotocol niet beschikbaar was<sup>9-11</sup> en de overige 65 zeiden niets over de beschikbaarheid van een studieprotocol.

**Tabel 1: Overzicht van ingesloten studies**

| Reference                               | Country  | Population; age                               | Data sources                                | Protocol                        | Research question* |
|---|----------|---|---|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| Achilleos (2022) <sup>12</sup>          | Multiple | General population; age not specified         | Various                                     | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Alacevich (2021) <sup>13</sup>          | Italy    | General population; all ages                  | ISTAT                                       | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Alicandro (2022) <sup>1</sup>           | Italy    | Working age population; all ages              | ISTAT                                       | NR                              | 4, 7               |
| Astengo (2021) <sup>14</sup>            | Italy    | General population; age 44 years and older    | Municipal registry databases                | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Barnard (2021) <sup>15</sup>            | England  | General population; all ages                  | ONS   | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Bartscher (2021) <sup>16</sup>          | Multiple | General population; age not specified         | Various                                     | NR                              | 5                  |
| Bell (2022) <sup>17</sup>               | Multiple | General population; age not specified         | Our World in Data                           | NR                              | 5                  |
| Bogos (2021) <sup>18</sup>              | Multiple | General population; all ages                  | EuroSTAT                                    | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Buja (2022) <sup>19</sup>               | Italy    | General population; all ages                  | ISTAT                                       | NR                              | 4                  |
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020) <sup>20</sup> | Sweden   | General population; all ages                  | Statistics Sweden (SCB)                     | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Caranci (2021) <sup>21</sup>            | Italy    | General population; adults                    | Regional system                             | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Carey (2021) <sup>9</sup>               | England  | Primary care patients; age 30 years and older | Clinical Practice Research Datalink         | No                              | 4, 6               |
| Chen (2021) <sup>a22</sup>              | USA      | Working age population; working age           | Death registry of California                | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Chen (2021) <sup>b5</sup>               | USA      | General population; all ages                  | Death registry of California                | Yes, but not publicly available | 4, 6               |
| Corrao (2021) <sup>23</sup>             | Multiple | General population; age not specified         | Human Mortality Database; Our World in Data | NR                              | 5                  |
| Cronin (2021) <sup>24</sup>             | USA      | General population; all ages                  | CDC NCHS                                    | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| De Angelis (2021) <sup>25</sup>         | Italy    | General population; all ages                  | ISTAT                                       | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| De Geyter (2022) <sup>26</sup>          | Multiple | General population; age not specified         | Human Mortality Database                    | NR                              | 5                  |
| De Lusignan (2020) <sup>27</sup>        | England  | General population; age 45 years and older    | ONS   | NR                              | 4, 6               |

| Reference                           | Country     | Population; age                            | Data sources  | Protocol                        | Research question* |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|--|---|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| Demetriou (2022) <sup>28</sup>      | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | Various   | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Dorrucchi (2021) <sup>29</sup>      | Italy       | General population; all ages               | ISTAT   | NR                              | 4, 7               |
| Faust (2022) <sup>a2</sup>          | USA         | General population; all ages               | Registry of Vital Records and Statistics, Massachusetts Department of Public Health | NR                              | 4, 7               |
| Faust (2022) <sup>b30</sup>         | USA         | General population; age 25 to 44 years     | CDC NCHS  | NR                              | 3                  |
| Fazekas-Pongor (2022) <sup>31</sup> | Hungary     | General population; all ages               | Hungarian Central Statistical Office  | NR                              | 4, 7               |
| Gadeyne (2021) <sup>32</sup>        | Belgium     | General population; age 25 years and older | Statistics Belgium (STATBEL)  | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Geeraedts (2022) <sup>33</sup>      | Netherlands | General population; all ages               | CBS; RIVM   | NR                              | NL                 |
| Gobina (2022) <sup>6</sup>          | Latvia      | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS  | Yes, but not publicly available | 3, 6               |
| Grande (2022) <sup>34</sup>         | Italy       | General population; all ages               | ISTAT   | NR                              | 3                  |
| Habibdoust (2022) <sup>35</sup>     | USA         | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS  | NR                              | 6                  |
| Hanly (2022) <sup>36</sup>          | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | EuroSTAT; Destatis  | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Huang (2022) <sup>37</sup>          | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | Our World in Data   | NR                              | 7                  |
| Islam (2021) <sup>38</sup>          | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | Human Mortality Database  | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Joy (2020) <sup>39</sup>            | England     | Primary care patients; all ages            | ONS   | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Kapitsinis (2021) <sup>40</sup>     | Multiple    | General population; age not specified      | World Mortality Dataset   | NR                              | 5                  |
| Karlinsky (2021) <sup>41</sup>      | Multiple    | General population; age not specified      | World Mortality Dataset   | NR                              | 5                  |
| Kelly (2021) <sup>42</sup>          | Multiple    | General population; age not specified      | Our World in Data   | NR                              | 5                  |
| Kontis (2020) <sup>43</sup>         | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | EuroSTAT; ECDC; ONS; National records of Scotland                                   | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Kung (2021) <sup>44</sup>           | Multiple    | General population; age not specified      | Our World in Data   | NR                              | 5                  |
| Laurencin (2021) <sup>45</sup>      | USA         | General population; all ages               | Connecticut State Department of Public Health                                       | NR                              | 6                  |
| Leon-Gomez (2021) <sup>46</sup>     | Spain       | General population; all ages               | EuroMOMO  | NR                              | 4, 7               |
| Levitt (2022) <sup>47</sup>         | Multiple    | General population; all ages               | Human Mortality Database; Our World in Data   | NR                              | 4, 5               |

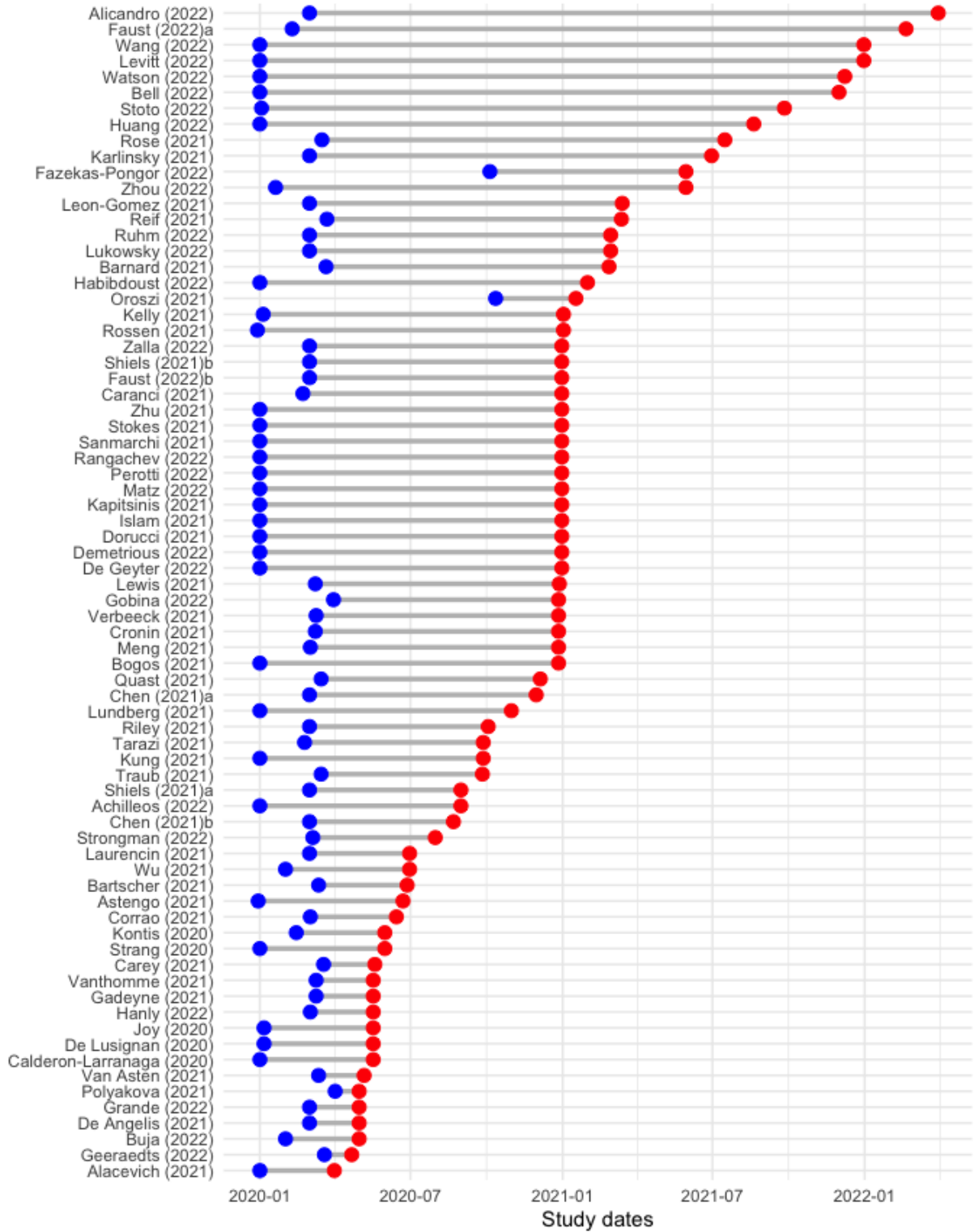


| Reference                      | Country           | Population; age                            | Data sources   | Protocol                        | Research question* |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|--|--|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| Lewis (2021) <sup>48</sup>     | England and Wales | Working age population; working age        | ONS  | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Lukowsky (2022) <sup>49</sup>  | USA               | U.S. Veterans; age 45 years and older      | Corporate Data Warehouse (CDW), U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs          | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Lundberg (2021) <sup>50</sup>  | Multiple          | General population; age not specified      | EuroMOMO   | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Matz (2022) <sup>51</sup>      | England and Wales | Working age population; working age        | ONS  | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Meng (2021) <sup>52</sup>      | Multiple          | General population; age not specified      | Human Mortality Database; Johns Hopkins CCP                                  | NR                              | 5                  |
| Oroszi (2021) <sup>53</sup>    | Hungary           | General population; all ages               | Hungarian National Electronic Civil Registration System                      | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Perotti (2022) <sup>54</sup>   | Italy             | General population; all ages               | ISTAT; Epidemiological Observatory in the Health Protection Agency of Pavia  | NR                              | 3                  |
| Polyakova (2021) <sup>55</sup> | USA               | General population; age 11 years and older | U.S. Census Bureau   | NR                              | 6                  |
| Quast (2021) <sup>56</sup>     | USA               | General population; age 20 years and older | Florida Bureau of Vital Statistics; Ohio Public Health Information Warehouse | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Rangachev (2022) <sup>57</sup> | Multiple          | General population; all ages               | EuroSTAT; Our World in Data  | NR                              | 4, 5               |
| Reif (2021) <sup>3</sup>       | USA               | General population; age 25 years and older | CDC NCHS   | Yes, in supplemental materials  | 4, 6               |
| Riley (2021) <sup>7</sup>      | USA               | Latino population; all ages                | California Department of Public Health                                       | Yes, but not publicly available | 4, 6               |
| Rose (2021) <sup>58</sup>      | Multiple          | General population; all ages               | The Economist  | NR                              | 7                  |
| Rossen (2021) <sup>59</sup>    | USA               | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS   | NR                              | 4, 6               |
| Ruhm (2022) <sup>60</sup>      | USA               | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS   | NR                              | 3, 6               |
| Sanmarchi (2021) <sup>61</sup> | Multiple          | General population; age not specified      | World Mortality Dataset  | NR                              | 5                  |
| Shiels (2021)a <sup>8</sup>    | USA               | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS   | Yes, but not publicly available | 3, 6               |
| Shiels (2021)b <sup>10</sup>   | USA               | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS   | No                              | 3, 6               |
| Stokes (2021) <sup>11</sup>    | USA               | General population; all ages               | CDC NCHS   | No                              | 4, 6               |

| Reference                      | Country              | Population; age                                  | Data sources  | Protocol                       | Research question* |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| Stoto (2022) <sup>62</sup>     | USA                  | General population; all ages                     | CDC NCHS  | NR                             | 7                  |
| Strang (2020) <sup>63</sup>    | Sweden               | General population; all ages                     | Stockholm Regional Council<br>VAL   | NR                             | 4, 6               |
| Strongman (2022) <sup>4</sup>  | UK                   | General population; age 40 years and older       | Medicines and Healthcare Regulatory Agency and the National Institute for Health Research | Yes, in supplemental materials | 4, 6               |
| Tarazi (2021) <sup>64</sup>    | USA                  | Medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries; all ages | Social Security Administration of the US government                                       | NR                             | 4, 6               |
| Traub (2021) <sup>65</sup>     | USA                  | General population; all ages                     | Los Angeles County Department of Public Health  | NR                             | 7                  |
| Van Asten (2021) <sup>66</sup> | Netherlands          | General population; all ages                     | CBS; RIVM   | NR                             | NL                 |
| Vanthomme (2021) <sup>67</sup> | Belgium              | General population; age 40 years and older       | Statistics Belgium (STATBEL)  | NR                             | 4, 6               |
| Verbeeck (2021) <sup>68</sup>  | Belgium, Netherlands | General population; age not specified            | Human Mortality Database; Statistics Belgium (STATBEL); RIVM                              | NR                             | NL                 |
| Wang (2022) <sup>69</sup>      | Multiple             | General population; all ages                     | Various   | NR                             | 5                  |
| Watson (2022) <sup>70</sup>    | Multiple             | General population; all ages                     | World Mortality Dataset; The Economist; Johns Hopkins CCP                                 | NR                             | 7                  |
| Wu (2021) <sup>71</sup>        | England and Wales    | General population; adults                       | ONS   | NR                             | 3                  |
| Zalla (2022) <sup>72</sup>     | USA                  | General population; all ages                     | CDC NCHS  | NR                             | 4, 6               |
| Zhou (2022) <sup>73</sup>      | Multiple             | General population; all ages                     | Human Mortality Database; ONS; Johns Hopkins CCP  | NR                             | 7                  |
| Zhu (2021) <sup>74</sup>       | USA                  | General population; age not specified            | CDC NCHS  | NR                             | 3, 6               |

\*All studies contribute to research question 1 (definition of excess mortality) and 2 (methods for excess mortality).

Abbreviations: CBS: Statistics Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek); CCP: Center for Communication Programs; CDC NCHS: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention National Center for Health Statistics; CDW: Corporate Data Warehouse; ECDC: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control; EuroMOMO: European Mortality Monitoring Project; EuroSTAT: European Statistics; ISTAT: Istituto Nazionale di Statistica; NL: Netherlands; NR: not reported; ONS: Office for National Statistics; RIVM: National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu); SCB: Statistics Sweden (Statistikmyndigheten); STATBEL: Statistics Belgium; UK: United Kingdom; US/U.S.: United States; USA: United States of America; VAL: Vårdanalyisdatabasen.



Figuur 2: Follow-up periodes waarvoor oversterfte berekend werd per studie

### 4.3 Uitgangsvraag 1: Definitie oversterfte

In 73 van de 74 artikelen werd een definitie van oversterfte gegeven. In alle gevallen werd oversterfte gedefinieerd als het verschil tussen de geobserveerde en verwachte sterfte. Dit kan een verschil zijn tussen de absolute getallen of tussen de sterfte *rates*. Ook werd soms een ratio berekend tussen de absolute getallen of de *rates*.

De manier waarop de verwachte sterfte geschat werd, verschilde tussen artikelen. Een overzicht is weergegeven in Tabel 2. In de helft van de artikelen werd een statistisch model gebruikt om de verwachte sterfte te modelleren (37 van 74). In 23 artikelen werd uitgegaan van de mediane of gemiddelde sterfte in een periode in het verleden (bijvoorbeeld een referentieperiode van 5 jaar). Andere opties waren de geobserveerde sterfte in één eerder jaar (5 artikelen) of er werden meerdere methoden gebruikt (3 artikelen). In zes artikelen werd wel een definitie van oversterfte beschreven, maar was onduidelijk hoe de verwachte sterfte ingeschat werd.

**Tabel 2: Overzicht van schattingsmethoden verwachte sterfte**

| Method for obtaining expected mortality                                      | N (%)    |
|--|----------|
| 1. Observed in a previous year (single reference point)                      | 5 (7%)   |
| 2. Median/average observed in previous years (e.g., 5-year reference period) | 23 (31%) |
| 3. Statistical model fit on observed in previous year(s)                     | 37 (50%) |
| 4. Multiple methods: both either 1 or 2, and 3                               | 2 (3%)   |
| 5. Unclear / not reported  | 6 (8%)   |
| 6. No definition of excess mortality reported                                | 1 (1%)   |

### 4.4 Uitgangsvraag 2: Methodieken oversterfte

In 39 studies werd een statistisch model gebruikt om de verwachte oversterfte te modelleren (Tabel 3 en Bijlage 5). Vaak werd hiervoor een statistisch model met een Poisson-verdeling gebruikt (15 studies), hoewel ook binnen de groep Poisson-modellen verschillende keuzes werden gemaakt. Meestal kozen onderzoekers voor een *overdispersed* (quasi-)Poisson-model waarbij er ruimte is voor meer variatie tussen de datapunten dan het model normaal toestaat. Een andere vaak gebruikte methode was het *autoregressive integrated moving average* (ARIMA) model of het *seasonal ARIMA* (SARIMA) model (7 studies). Dit is een methode die gebruikt wordt om voorspellingen te doen op basis van een dataset waarbij je metingen hebt op verschillende momenten in de tijd (*time series data*). Het SARIMA-model bevat daarnaast ook een seizoenscomponent. Regelmatig werd er gekozen voor lineaire regressie (6 studies) en ook andere *generalized linear models* met verschillende verdelingen werden gebruikt.

In veel van de modellen werd een parameter in het model opgenomen om seizoensvariatie te modelleren (20 van 39 studies). Ook werd soms gecorrigeerd voor leeftijd (5 studies) en/of geslacht (3

studies). De meerderheid van de analyses werd gestratificeerd gepresenteerd voor leeftijd (22 studies) en/of geslacht (15 studies). De tijdschaal waarover de analyses werden uitgevoerd, was wekelijks (34 studies), dagelijks (11 studies), maandelijks (7 studies), combinaties van deze (9 studies) of dit was onduidelijk (13 studies).

**Tabel 3: Overzicht statistische modellen om verwachte sterfte te modelleren**

| Statistical model  | Frequency |
|--|-----------|
| Overdispersed quasi-Poisson regression                   | 7         |
| Linear regression  | 6         |
| SARIMA model   | 4         |
| Overdispersed Poisson GLM                                | 3         |
| ARIMA model  | 2         |
| Negative binomial regression                             | 2         |
| Additive hazard model with Poisson distribution          | 1         |
| Boosted regression tree machine learning method          | 1         |
| Dynamic harmonic regression model with ARIMA             | 1         |
| Ensemble of multiple models                              | 1         |
| Ensemble of multiple models using a Poisson distribution | 1         |
| Generalised additive modelling (GAM)                     | 1         |
| Generalized negative binomial regression model           | 1         |
| GLM with Gaussian distribution                           | 1         |
| GLM with negative binomial error structure               | 1         |
| Karlinsky–Kobak regression model                         | 1         |
| Log-linear Poisson model                                 | 1         |
| Multiple   | 1         |
| Overdispersed log-linear model                           | 1         |
| Overdispersed Poisson GLM (Farrington)                   | 1         |
| Poisson GLM with log link                                | 1         |
| Poisson time-series GLM                                  | 1         |
| Prediction interval method                               | 1         |
| Time series analysis                                     | 1         |

Abbreviations: ARIMA: autoregressive integrated moving average; GLM: generalized linear model; SARIMA: Seasonal ARIMA

De zoekstrategie leverde 22 artikelen op waarin methodologiën beschreven werden om oversterfte te bepalen. Daarnaast werden 7 minder recente artikelen geciteerd door geïnccludeerde studies. Een overzicht van deze referenties in te vinden in Bijlage 6.

## 4.5 Uitgangsvraag 3: Doodsoorzaken

In negen onderzoeken werd een overzicht van doodsoorzaken gepresenteerd.<sup>6 8 10 30 34 54 60 71 74</sup> In alle onderzoeken werden deze ingedeeld op basis van International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-10-codes. Het aantal verschillende doodsoorzaken varieerde tussen studies. In het onderzoek van Faust (2022)<sup>b30</sup> werden slechts zes verschillende doodsoorzaken gerapporteerd terwijl Perotti (2022)<sup>54</sup> 28 verschillende doodsoorzaken rapporteerde. In alle onderzoeken, op één na,<sup>30</sup> werd COVID-19 genoemd als aparte categorie doodsoorzaak. Hiervoor zijn twee ICD-10-codes beschikbaar, namelijk U071 voor bevestigde COVID-19 en U072 voor vermoedelijke COVID-19. Een overzicht van de gerapporteerde doodsoorzaken is in weergegeven in Bijlage 7.

## 4.6 Uitgangsvraag 4: Determinanten van oversterfte

### 4.6.1 Leeftijd

In 35 studies werden uitspraken gedaan over de relatie tussen leeftijd en oversterfte. Een overzicht van deze bevindingen is te vinden in Bijlage 8A. De ruwe getallen zijn te vinden in de [Excel bijlage](#). In 27 studies werd gevonden dat oversterfte hoger was bij hogere leeftijd, 2 studies vonden de hoogste oversterfte onder de beroepsbevolking en in 1 studie werd gevonden dat ondersterfte was onder kinderen, en vergelijkbare oversterfte bij volwassenen in verschillende leeftijdscategorieën. Vier studies vonden geen verschil in oversterfte tussen de verschillende leeftijdsgroepen en één studie vond juist een lagere oversterfte bij ouderen.

#### *Wereldwijde studies*

Uit studies met geïnccludeerde data uit meerdere landen bleek dat er een toegenomen oversterfte was in de hogere leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>28 38 43 47</sup> Een studie die de bevolking onderverdeelde in twee groepen – een groep jonger en een groep ouder dan 65 jaar (of 70 jaar, afhankelijk van de beschikbaarheid van gegevens) – toonde aan dat er een aanzienlijke oversterfte was in alleen de oudere van de twee leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>28</sup> Wat betreft het aantal overlijdensgevallen, waren er twee studies die vonden dat het overgrote deel van de oversterfte (70–94%) optrad in de leeftijdsgroep van 65 jaar en ouder.<sup>43 47</sup> Bij het onderzoeken van de relatie tussen het percentage van de bevolking van een land dat 65 jaar en ouder is en de oversterfte was er geen significant verband gevonden.<sup>50</sup> Een Europese studie toonde aan dat hoewel in de meeste West-Europese landen inderdaad meer overlijdensgevallen waren in de oudere bevolking (65 jaar en ouder), dit niet het geval was in Oost-Europese landen, waar er meer overlijdensgevallen waren in de beroepsbevolking (jonger dan 65 jaar).<sup>57</sup> Wereldwijd werd ook aangetoond dat er weinig tot geen oversterfte was bij kinderen jonger dan 15 jaar.<sup>38 47</sup>

#### *Verenigde Staten*

In de Verenigde Staten was er oversterfte in alle leeftijdsgroepen, inclusief de jongere leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>2</sup> De oversterfte en oversterfte per capita nam toe met de leeftijd<sup>5 8 56 72</sup> en de oversterftcijfers waren het hoogst bij de oudere leeftijdsgroep van 65 jaar en ouder.<sup>3</sup> Dit gold ook voor Medicare-gebruikers.<sup>64</sup> Voor de ratio tussen de geobserveerde en verwachte sterfgevallen waren er meestal geen of alleen

bescheiden verschillen tussen de leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>2 60</sup> Een andere studie vond juist dat deze ratio het hoogst was voor volwassenen tussen de 20 en 49 jaar oud.<sup>56</sup> Voor personen jonger dan 25 jaar was er een lagere ratio dan voor de meeste andere leeftijden.<sup>60</sup> De COVID-19 sterftcijfers waren ook in de Verenigde Staten het hoogste in de oudere leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>3 24 72</sup> Als we kijken naar verschillen tussen gemeentes ('countries') zien we dat gemeentes met een lager percentage 65-jarigen lagere sterftcijfers hadden vergeleken met gemeentes met een hoger percentage 65-jarigen.<sup>11</sup>

#### *Italië*

In Italië was de oversterfte het hoogst bij de oudere leeftijdsgroepen, zoals de leeftijdsgroep >70 jaar<sup>13</sup> of de leeftijdsgroep >75 jaar.<sup>21</sup> In lijn met deze resultaten toonde de studie van Dorrucchi en collega's aan dat mensen van 80 jaar en ouder het meest bijdroegen aan de oversterfte gedurende het hele jaar 2020, en dat deze bijdrage zelfs hoger was tijdens de tweede golf dan de eerste golf.<sup>29</sup> Sterfte door COVID-19 nam ook toe met leeftijd,<sup>14</sup> maar het relatieve aandeel sterfgevallen dat aan COVID-19 kon worden toegeschreven was juist hoger in de leeftijdsgroep 18-74 jaar.<sup>21</sup> De gestandaardiseerde verhouding van de bevolking ouder dan 75 jaar in een gemeente was niet geassocieerd met de gestandaardiseerde mortaliteitsratio voor alle doodsoorzaken.<sup>25</sup> Een studie die de beroepsbevolking vergeleek met de algemene bevolking vond dat de oversterfte alleen hoger was in de beroepsbevolking tijdens de Delta-periode; tijdens de Omicron-golf was de oversterfte lager dan in de algemene bevolking.<sup>1</sup>

#### *Verenigd Koninkrijk*

De resultaten voor het Verenigd Koninkrijk waren tegenstrijdig. Twee Engelse studies vonden dat een hogere leeftijd geassocieerd was met meer oversterfte.<sup>4 27</sup> Dit gold ook voor mensen die werkten in het onderwijs.<sup>48</sup> Een andere studie vond dat de sterfte alleen hoger was dan verwacht voor mensen van 80 jaar en ouder.<sup>9</sup> Anderzijds vonden Barnard en collega's dat de oversterfte in de leeftijdsgroep van 75 jaar en ouder vergelijkbaar was met de totale bevolking.<sup>15</sup> Tot slot vond een overlevingsanalyse dat ouderen juist een verminderd risico op overlijden hadden.<sup>39</sup>

#### *Overige Europese landen*

In Zweden werd aangetoond dat de sterftcijfers verhoogd waren voor alle leeftijden, maar met name voor personen van 80 jaar en ouder.<sup>20</sup> Bij het onderzoeken van de oversterfte per maand bleek dat er in maart 2020 in Zweden alleen oversterfte werd gezien bij patiënten boven de 80 jaar, in april 2020 werden alle onderzochte groepen getroffen en in mei 2020 werd oversterfte vooral gevonden bij patiënten van 70 jaar en ouder.<sup>63</sup> In Spanje werd de cumulatieve oversterfte groter naarmate de leeftijd toenam.<sup>46</sup> In België werd niet alleen aangetoond dat de oversterfte hoger was in de oudere leeftijdsgroepen,<sup>32 67</sup> maar ook dat de sterfte in de oudere leeftijdsgroepen procentueel het meest gestegen was.<sup>32</sup> In Hongarije was deze verandering in oversterfteratio's het grootst in de leeftijdsgroep van 65-84 jaar tijdens de tweede golf, terwijl tijdens de derde golf de oversterfte het hoogst was in de leeftijdsgroep van 35-44 jaar.<sup>31</sup> Tijdens deze derde golf werd het laagste risico waargenomen bij de bevolking van 85 jaar en ouder.

### **4.6.2 Geslacht**

Getallen met betrekking tot verschillen in oversterfte tussen mannen en vrouwen werden verzameld uit studies die ook internationale verschillen beschreven. Daarom worden deze getallen gepresenteerd en beschreven in hoofdstuk 4.7.

### Narratieve samenvatting resultaten

In Bijlage 8B is een overzicht opgenomen van de bevindingen met betrekking tot geslacht en oversterfte. In 23 van de 28 studies werd een hogere oversterfte gevonden bij mannen dan bij vrouwen. De overige studies vonden geen verschil.

Studies die meerdere landen met elkaar vergeleken, toonden aan dat in de meeste landen mortaliteit verhoogd was voor zowel mannen als vrouwen,<sup>12</sup> en ook dat voor de meeste landen de oversterfte hoger was voor mannen dan voor vrouwen.<sup>28</sup> Dit resultaat werd gevonden voor alle leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>57</sup> Eén studie vond deze associatie tussen geslacht en (over)sterfte alleen wanneer de resultaten werden gestandaardiseerd voor leeftijd.<sup>38</sup> Bij het onderzoeken van het ruwe sterftecijfer vond één studie dat de meeste sterfgevallen voorkwamen bij mannen in vergelijking met vrouwen<sup>43</sup> en een andere studie vond dat driekwart van het totale aantal sterfgevallen mannelijke sterfgevallen waren.<sup>36</sup>

Voor de meeste landen was de ruwe mortaliteit, het mortaliteitsrisico of oversterfte hoger bij mannen dan bij vrouwen. Dit was het geval voor de landen Oekraïne,<sup>12</sup> Zweden,<sup>36</sup> Italië,<sup>21 29</sup> Engeland en Wales,<sup>9 27 39 48 51</sup> België,<sup>32 67</sup> Hongarije<sup>53</sup> en de Verenigde Staten.<sup>3 5 8 24 56</sup> Hetzelfde gold als er gekeken werd naar alle aparte leeftijdsgroepen voor Zweden,<sup>20</sup> België<sup>32</sup> en de Verenigde Staten.<sup>3</sup> Voor Hongarije, Italië, de Verenigde Staten en het Verenigd Koninkrijk was er echter per land telkens één studie die geen of alleen een bescheiden verband kon vinden tussen mannen en vrouwen.<sup>4 25 31 60</sup>

Er waren twee landen waar de resultaten lieten zien dat de oversterfte hoger was bij vrouwen. In Ierland was de mortaliteit alleen verhoogd bij vrouwen<sup>12</sup> en in Slovenië was de oversterfte hoger voor vrouwen dan bij mannen.<sup>28</sup> In Cyprus werden geen opmerkelijke verschillen in mortaliteit tussen mannen en vrouwen gevonden.<sup>28</sup>

Ten slotte waren er studies die naar het verschil in oversterfte tussen mannen en vrouwen keken in verschillende subpopulaties. In Engeland en Wales was de oversterfte hoger onder mannelijke werknemers in het onderwijs dan vrouwelijke werknemers.<sup>48</sup> Dit verschil werd ook over alle beroepsgroepen gevonden.<sup>51</sup> In de Verenigde Staten was het aandeel in oversterfte van Medicare-gebruikers vergelijkbaar tussen mannen en vrouwen.<sup>64</sup> Oversterftecijfers waren binnen alle etnische groepen in de Verenigde Staten hoger voor mannen dan voor vrouwen.<sup>3 8</sup> Een studie die specifiek naar de latino-populatie in de Verenigde Staten keek, vond ook meer oversterfte onder mannen dan vrouwen.<sup>7</sup> Een Hongaarse studie toonde aan dat er alleen verschil tussen mannen en vrouwen te zien was in de leeftijdsgroep 55-64 jaar gedurende de derde golf, en dat daar de oversterfte hoger was onder vrouwen dan mannen.<sup>31</sup>

#### 4.6.3 Overige determinanten

In het onderzoek van Buja en collega's werd de associatie tussen oversterfte en ecologische karakteristieken bestudeerd.<sup>19</sup> Er werd een statistisch significant lagere oversterfte gevonden in regio's met een hoger aantal geregistreerde medisch specialisten (uitgezonderd huisartsen) en een hogere oversterfte in regio's met een hogere COVID-19 incidentie. Er werd geen statistisch significante associatie gevonden tussen oversterfte en de beschikbaarheid van openbaar vervoer; sterfte aan AIDS, hart- en vaatziekten, kanker of longziekten; aantal personen dat langdurig opgenomen was in een



ziekenhuis; het aantal huisartsen; de armoedeindex en aantal mensen met hypertensie of een chronische ziekte.

Eén studie vond een hogere oversterfte bij mensen met ondergewicht (BMI <20) en mensen met morbide obesitas (BMI >40).<sup>9</sup> Een ander onderzoek vond juist een statistisch significant lagere oversterfte bij mensen met overgewicht of obesitas.<sup>27</sup>

Eén onderzoek vond een statistisch significant hogere oversterfte onder ex-rokers en een lagere oversterfte onder huidige rokers.

Resultaten met betrekking tot de determinanten etniciteit, opleidingsniveau, sociaal-economische status, comorbiditeiten, migranten, beroepssector, virusvarianten, vaccinaties, COVID-19-interventies en internationale verschillen zullen beschreven worden in de hoofdstukken 4.7 tot en met 4.9.

## 4.7 Uitgangsvraag 5: Internationale verschillen

### 4.7.1 Internationale verschillen

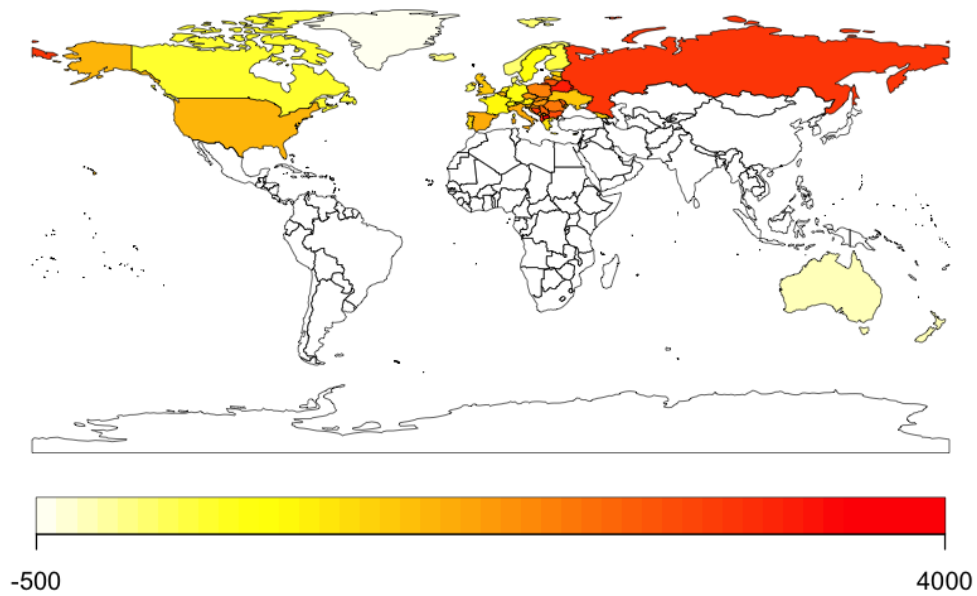
#### Oversterfte

In 28 studies werd oversterfte bepaald in meer dan vijf verschillende landen. In 20 van deze studies werden numerieke gegevens over de oversterfte per land gepresenteerd in tabellen en deze werden verzameld en geanalyseerd. Een overzicht van de mediane oversterfte per land is weergegeven in Figuur 3, wereldwijd en ingezoomd op Europa (numerieke gegevens en figuren met 25<sup>e</sup> en 75<sup>e</sup> percentielen in Bijlage 9A en in de [Excel bijlage](#)). Alle getallen in dit overzicht zijn weergegeven per 1 miljoen inwoners en per jaar. Bij de interpretatie van de figuren moet rekening gehouden worden met het volgende. Wanneer een studie oversterfte voor een kortere periode (bijvoorbeeld 3 maanden) bepaalde, dan werd de oversterfte omgerekend naar oversterfte op jaarbasis. Indien er in deze kortere periode net een piek in oversterfte was, dan zal de oversterfte op jaarbasis in deze studie dus hoger uitkomen dan een studie die oversterfte presenteerde over een periode die zowel pieken als dalen in oversterfte omvatte.

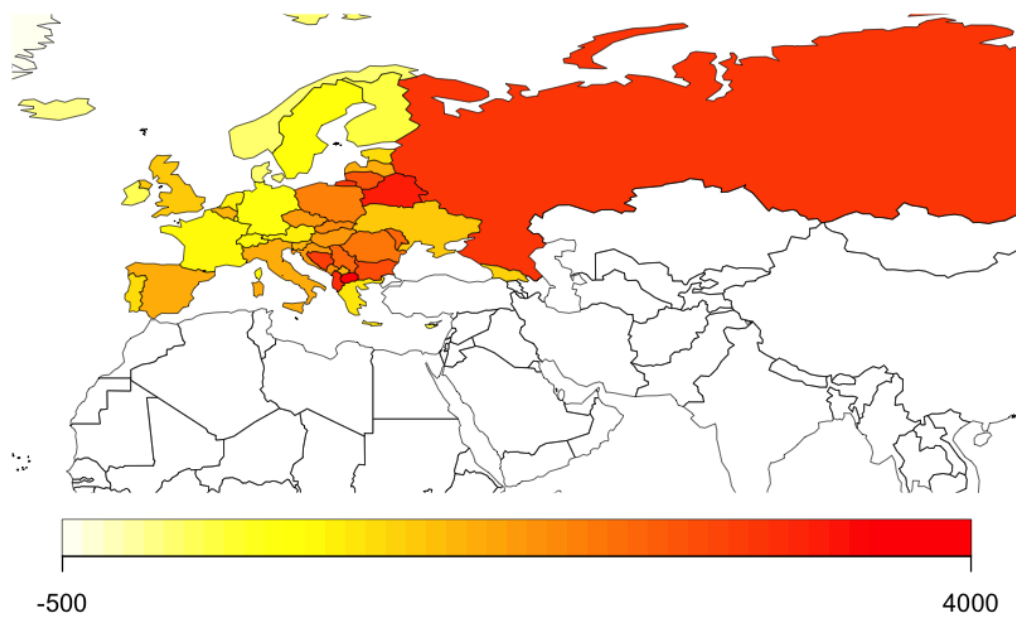
Over het algemeen lijkt er een trend zichtbaar met hogere oversterfte in Oost-Europa en lagere oversterfte in Scandinavië, Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. Deze trend is zichtbaar voor zowel mannen als vrouwen, hoewel de absolute oversterfte onder mannen hoger is dan onder vrouwen (Figuur 4).

De hoogste mediane oversterfte werd gevonden voor Noord-Macedonië (3566 oversterftes per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 3 studies) gevolgd door Wit-Rusland (3200 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 2 studies) en Albanië (3030 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 3 studies). De laagste mediane oversterfte werd gevonden in Groenland (-414 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar, 1 studie), Nieuw-Zeeland (-263 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar, 11 studies) en Australië (-214 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar, 10 studies). Ook in IJsland werd een negatieve oversterfte gevonden (met andere woorden: minder sterfte dan verwacht) (-48 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 11 studies).

**Median excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**

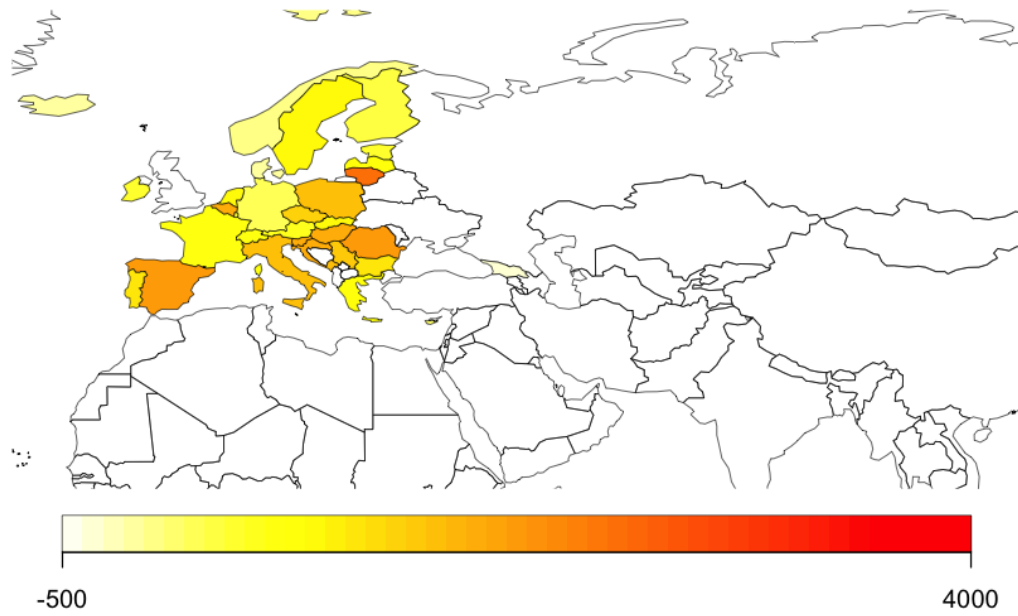


**Median excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**

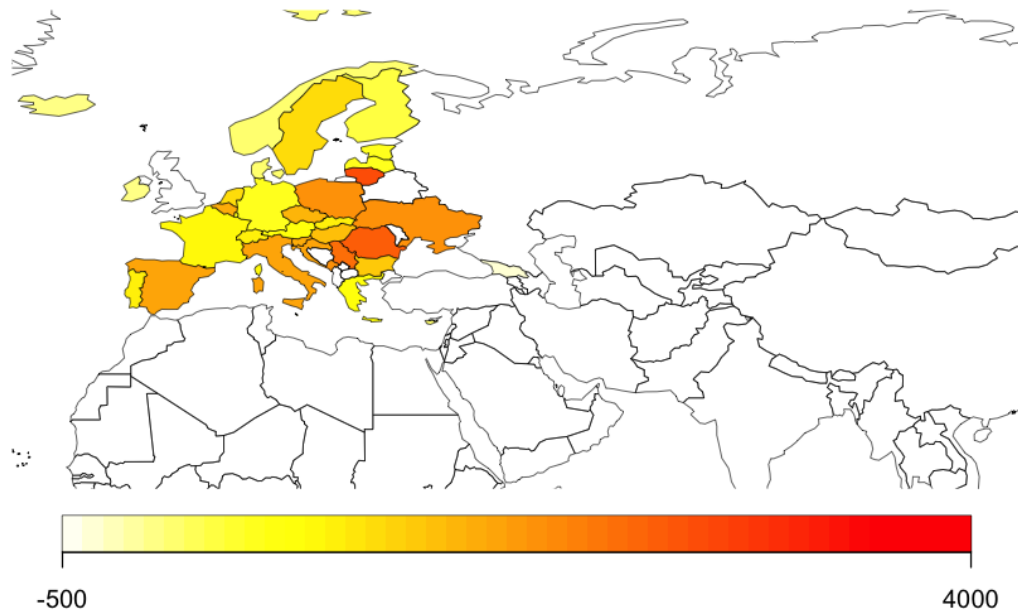


**Figuur 3: Internationale verschillen in oversterfte wereldwijd en in Europa**

**Median excess mortality per 1 million female inhabitants per year**



**Median excess mortality per 1 million male inhabitants per year**

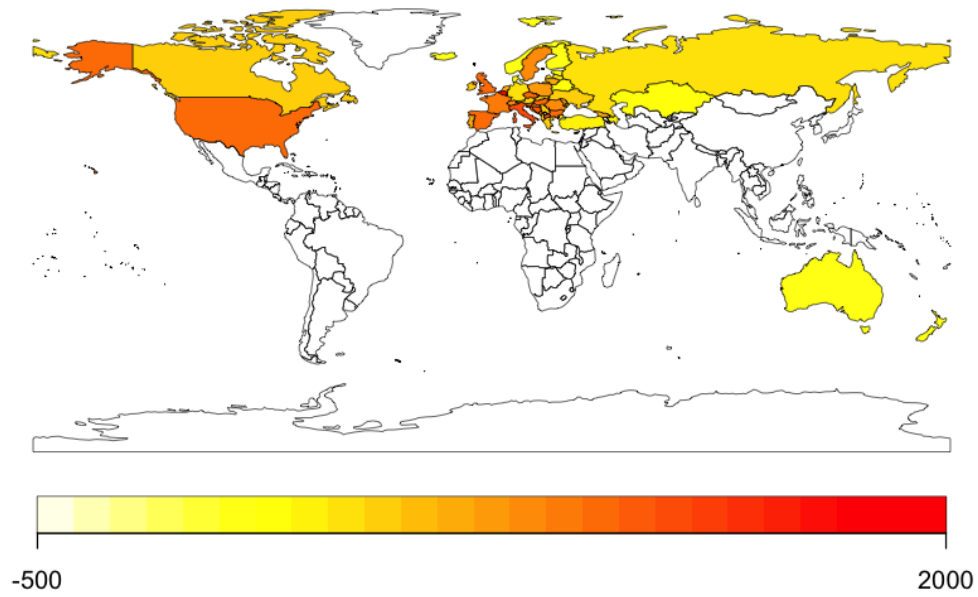


**Figuur 4: Internationale verschillen in oversterfte opgesplitst voor mannen en vrouwen**

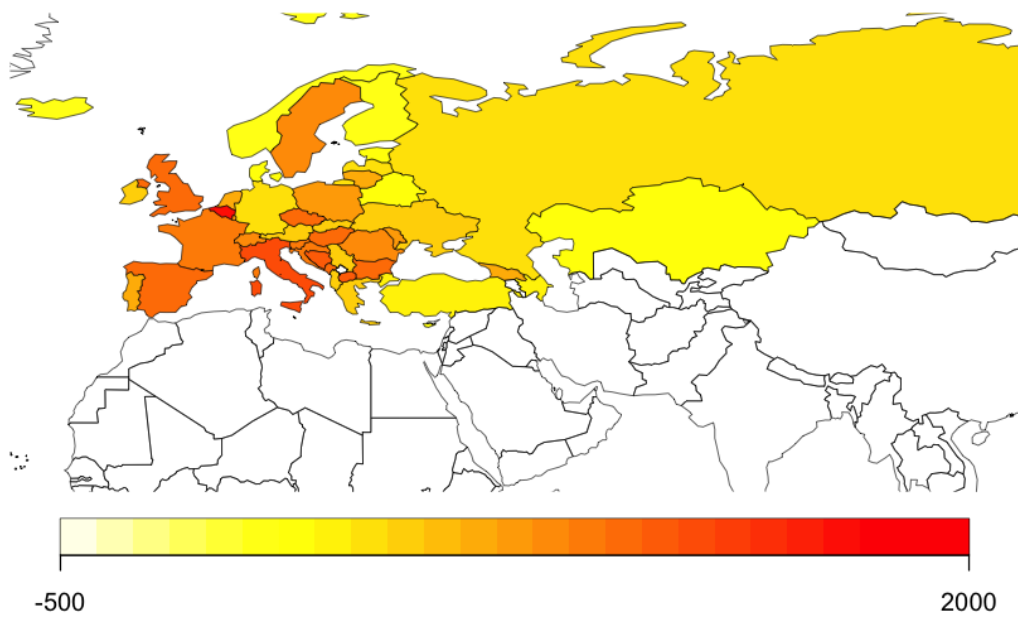
### COVID-19-sterfte

Een overzicht van internationale verschillen in sterfte aan COVID-19 is te vinden in Figuur 5. De getallen achter deze figuur zijn terug te vinden in Bijlage 9B. De hoogste COVID-19-sterfte werd gevonden voor België (1681 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 4 studies) gevolgd door Engeland en Wales (1349 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 1 studie) en Italië (1209 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 5 studies). De laagste COVID-19-sterfte werd gevonden voor Nieuw-Zeeland (5 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 3 studies) en Australië (29 per 1 miljoen inwoners per jaar; 4 studies). COVID-19-sterfte werd slechts in één onderzoek uitgesplitst voor mannen en vrouwen, en deze was meestal hoger in mannen dan in vrouwen (Bijlage 9B).

**Median COVID-19 mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**



**Median COVID-19 mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**



**Figuur 5: Internationale verschillen in COVID-19 sterfte wereldwijd en in Europa**

#### 4.7.2 Verklaringen voor internationale verschillen

In 23 studies werden mogelijke verklaringen voor internationale verschillen in oversterfte beschreven in de discussie-sectie (Bijlage 9D). Deze redenen kunnen in zes categorieën worden onderverdeeld, namelijk interventies van de overheid, organisatie van en toegang tot zorg, populatiekenmerken, gedrag van de populatie, geografische locatie en data-gerelateerd. Behalve verklaringen voor de verschillen in totale mortaliteit, gaven sommige studies specifieke verklaringen voor verschillen in COVID-19-gerelateerde mortaliteit.

##### Interventies van overheid

Meerdere studies noemden verschillen in overheidsstrategieën als mogelijke verklaring voor verschillen in oversterfte, zoals de striktheid van de maatregelen,<sup>16 50 58 69</sup> de timing van de maatregelen<sup>18 38</sup> of beide.<sup>12 28 40 42-44 57 61</sup> Eén studie noemde ook dat de duur van de maatregelen een rol speelt.<sup>28</sup> Meestal was dit in de positieve zin, namelijk dat een snellere en striktere respons geassocieerd was met minder oversterfte, maar één studie beschreef ook de negatieve impact van strikte maatregelen, zoals sociale isolatie en ontzegging van toegang tot essentiële diensten.<sup>43</sup>

Een andere overheidsstrategie die benoemd werd, was het ‘test-and-trace’ beleid,<sup>40</sup> welke afhankelijk is van de beschikbaarheid van COVID-testen,<sup>44 61 69</sup> de capaciteit voor diagnose<sup>61</sup> en rapportage.<sup>58</sup> Naast dat dit kan gelden voor symptomatische COVID-19-infecties, kon dit beleid ook gelden voor niet-symptomatische personen.<sup>23</sup> Rose en collega’s noemden daarnaast dat een verschil in epidemiologisch personeelsbestand tussen landen verschillen in oversterfte kan verklaren,<sup>58</sup> bijvoorbeeld doordat er meer werknemers beschikbaar zijn om verschillende maatregelen te initiëren en onderhouden. Hoe adequaat een overheid reageerde op deze pandemie kan ook gerelateerd zijn aan eerdere ervaringen van een land met bijvoorbeeld SARS of MERS.<sup>58</sup>

##### Organisatie van en toegang tot zorg

Studies benoemden verschillen tussen landen in de organisatie en het gebruik van het zorgstelsel,<sup>44 57</sup> zowel voor als na de pandemie<sup>40</sup> als mogelijke verklaring. De verschillen betroffen de organisatie van zorg,<sup>50</sup> zorgcapaciteit en zorguitgaven.<sup>18</sup> De studie van Kontis en collega’s benoemde specifiek de paraatheid, veerkracht en aanpassingsvermogen van zorgstelsels.<sup>43</sup> Daarnaast zijn er ook verschillen in zorggebruik tussen landen<sup>69</sup> en in de toegang tot de zorg.<sup>12 28 47</sup> Dit behelst ook de toegang tot COVID-19 vaccins.<sup>17 37 47 69 70</sup>

##### Populatiekenmerken

De betreffende studies beschreven hoofdzakelijk drie factoren gerelateerd aan de populatie van een land als mogelijke verklaring voor verschillen in oversterfte: bevolkingsdichtheid, demografische kenmerken en sociale kenmerken van een populatie. Deze factoren kunnen op hun beurt de infectiegraad van een populatie beïnvloeden.<sup>47</sup> Logischerwijs kan het virus zich sneller verspreiden wanneer mensen dichter bij elkaar wonen zoals in steden of in verzorgings- of verpleeghuizen.<sup>12 38 42 50 58</sup> Twee studies benoemden verschillen in demografische kenmerken in het algemeen als verklaring voor

verschil in oversterfte tussen landen.<sup>43 50</sup> Specifiek genoemde demografische kenmerken waren geslacht,<sup>38</sup> leeftijd,<sup>23 58</sup> comorbiditeiten of een ongunstig risicoprofiel<sup>23 28 47 57</sup> en armoede.<sup>37</sup> Daarnaast werden ook sociale kenmerken vermeld, zoals sociaal kapitaal,<sup>16</sup> geloofsovertuiging<sup>40</sup> en cultuur.<sup>50</sup> De studie van Lundberg en collega's noemde nog variaties in genetische factoren tussen populaties als mogelijke reden.<sup>50</sup>

#### Gedrag

Niet alleen de demografische kenmerken, maar ook het gedrag van een populatie kan verschillen tussen landen en daarmee verschillen in oversterfte verklaren. Voorbeelden hiervan zijn verschillen in de naleving van de overheidsmaatregelen rondom COVID-19,<sup>18</sup> zoals het gebruik van neusmondmaskers<sup>69</sup> en quarantaine/isolatiebeleid,<sup>16</sup> maar ook hoe de populatie zich gedraagt naast deze maatregelen, bijvoorbeeld mobiliteitsgedrag.<sup>16</sup> Ten slotte kunnen, naast de verschillen tussen landen qua beschikbaarheid van COVID-19-vaccins, de acceptatie van de vaccins<sup>37</sup> en de vaccinatiegraad die hierdoor behaald wordt,<sup>70</sup> verschillen per land.

#### Geografische locatie

Geografische factoren worden als vijfde mogelijke verklaring voor verschillen in oversterfte tussen landen aangehaald door de auteurs van de studies.<sup>50</sup> Dit omvat zowel de geografische locatie van het land in de wereld,<sup>12 37</sup> als ook of het land een eiland is<sup>58</sup> en in welk seizoen de verschillende virusvarianten zich verspreiden.<sup>12</sup> Of een land (wereldwijd) verbonden was met veel andere landen werd daarnaast genoemd als factor die van invloed was op de verspreiding van het virus.<sup>40</sup>

#### Data-gerelateerd

Naast de al genoemde mogelijke wezenlijke verschillen tussen landen, kan het verschil in (berekende) oversterfte ook gerelateerd zijn aan verschillen in de betrouwbaarheid van de data waarop de berekening gebaseerd is.<sup>47 52</sup> De rapportage van sterfte kan verschillen tussen landen<sup>42</sup> en kan gehinderd worden door onderrapportage,<sup>17 37 38</sup> incomplete registraties,<sup>41</sup> onnauwkeurige registraties<sup>12</sup> en/of vertragingen in rapportage.<sup>12</sup>

#### COVID-19 specifiek

Sommige studies vergeleken landen niet alleen op basis van de totale mortaliteit, maar ook op basis van de specifiek aan COVID-19 gerelateerde mortaliteit. Het verschil in COVID-19-sterfte tussen landen kan verklaard worden doordat landen verschillende criteria aanhouden om een overlijden aan te merken als gevolg van COVID-19.<sup>12 18 23</sup> Faciliterende factoren hiervoor zijn de mogelijkheid om zowel personen te testen op COVID-19<sup>40 44 57</sup> als om COVID-19-gerelateerd overlijden te rapporteren.<sup>68</sup>

## 4.8 Uitgangsvraag 6: Oversterfte in subgroepen

### 4.8.1 Mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden

In verschillende onderzoeken werden gegevens met betrekking tot oversterfte opgesplitst voor mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden. Deze studies hanteerden echter veel verschillende classificaties. Ook werd niet in alle studies de benodigde informatie gerapporteerd om een rangschikking te maken. Een overzicht van alle beschikbare informatie met betrekking tot oversterfte onder mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden is te vinden in de [Excel bijlage](#).

Voor 11 studies werden wel voldoende gegevens gepresenteerd om een rangschikking te maken (Tabel 4).<sup>3-5 15 22 35 45 49 55 56 60</sup> Op basis van deze rangschikking lijkt een trend zichtbaar waarbij hogere oversterfte wordt gezien onder mensen met een zwarte huidskleur of latino etnische achtergrond terwijl oversterfte onder mensen met een witte huidskleur en mensen van Aziatische afkomst lager lijkt te zijn.

**Tabel 4: Rangschikking oversterfte op basis van etniciteit**

| Reference         | Country          | Gender  | Age   | Ranking     |          |          |            |
|-------------------|------------------|---------|-------|-------------|----------|----------|------------|
|                   |                  |         |       | 1 (highest) | 2        | 3        | 4 (lowest) |
| Barnard (2021)    | England          | All     | <75   | Asian       | Black    | White    |            |
| Chen (2021)a      | USA (California) | All     | 18-65 | Black       | Hispanic | White    | Asian      |
| Chen (2021)b      | USA (California) | All     | >25   | Black       | Hispanic | White    | Asian      |
| Habibdoust (2022) | USA              | All     | All   | Black       | Hispanic | White    | Asian      |
| Laurencin (2021)  | USA              | All     | All   | Black       | Hispanic | White    |            |
| Lukowsky (2022)   | USA              | All     | >45   | Hispanic    | Black    | White    |            |
| Polyakova (2021)  | USA              | All     | 11-99 | Black       | Asian    | Hispanic | White      |
| Quast (2021)      | USA (Ohio)       | All     | All   | Black       | White    |          |            |
| Quast (2021)      | USA (Florida)    | All     | All   | Black       | White    |          |            |
| Reif (2021)       | USA              | Females | >65   | Black       | Hispanic | White    |            |
| Reif (2021)       | USA              | Males   | >65   | Hispanic    | Black    | White    |            |
| Reif (2021)       | USA              | Females | 25-64 | Black       | Hispanic | White    |            |
| Reif (2021)       | USA              | Males   | 25-64 | Black       | Hispanic | White    |            |
| Ruhm (2022)       | USA              | All     | All   | Hispanic    | Black    | White    |            |
| Strongman (2022)  | UK               | All     | All   | Black       | White    | Asian    |            |

Rapportage met betrekking tot COVID-19-sterfte was erg beperkt. In één onderzoek werd de COVID-19-rate gepresenteerd.<sup>35</sup> Deze COVID-19-rate was het hoogst onder mensen met een latino etnische achtergrond (174 per 100000 personen), gevolgd door mensen met een zwarte huidskleur (160 per 100000), witte huidskleur (117 per 100000) en mensen van Aziatische afkomst (113 per 100000).



### Beschrijvende resultaten

Studies die de relatie tussen oversterfte en etniciteit beschreven (Bijlage 10A), kwamen uit het Verenigd Koninkrijk (n=5) of uit de Verenigde Staten (n=15). In beide landen was de oversterfte onder niet-witte mensen groter dan die van mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>4 9 15 24 27 39 55 56</sup> Een samenvatting van de bevindingen per studie is te vinden in Bijlage 10A.

In de Verenigde Staten was de totale oversterfte hoger in alle rassen/etnische groepen gedurende de pandemie in vergelijking met de periode voor de pandemie.<sup>35 55</sup> De resultaten van Lukowsky suggereren echter dat de relatieve totale oversterfte lager was voor mensen met een witte huidskleur tijdens de pandemie in vergelijking met de periode voor de pandemie.<sup>49</sup> Dit gold niet voor de andere etnische groepen. De absolute totale oversterfte, waarbij niet gecorrigeerd werd voor de grootte van de populatie, was het hoogst voor mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>24 60</sup> In een andere studie was de absolute totale oversterfte het hoogste onder latino's, gevolgd door witte niet-latino's, mensen van Aziatische afkomst en mensen met een zwarte huidskleur.<sup>35</sup>

De meeste studies rapporteerden de relatieve oversterfte, welke uitgedrukt was in proporties of percentages van de totale populatiegrootte. Mensen met een zwarte huidskleur en latino's werden het vaakst genoemd als de groepen met de hoogste relatieve oversterfte.<sup>3 5 8 22 24 35 45 49 55 56 59 60 64 72</sup> Wanneer deze relatieve oversterfte ook nog werd uitgesplitst op geslacht en leeftijd, was de oversterfte nog steeds het hoogst voor mensen met een zwarte huidskleur en latino's van 25 jaar of ouder en in beide geslachten.<sup>3</sup> Dit suggereert dat etniciteit invloed heeft op oversterfte onafhankelijk van leeftijd of geslacht.

Ongelijkheid in oversterfte tussen mensen met een witte en zwarte huidskleur lijkt ook te kunnen verschillen per regio of staat. Eén studie liet een grotere ongelijkheid in risico op oversterfte zien tussen Florida en Ohio.<sup>56</sup>

Oversterfte onder mensen van Aziatische afkomst in de Verenigde Staten was in vijf studies vergelijkbaar met de oversterfte onder mensen met een witte huidskleur of zelfs lager.<sup>5 8 22 35 72</sup> Een studie vond daarentegen dat mensen van Aziatische afkomst de op één na hoogste relatieve oversterfte hadden.<sup>55</sup> Hoewel de inheemse Hawaïaanse bevolking en Pacifische eilandbewoners behoren tot een etnische minderheidsgroep, hadden deze groepen de laagste relatieve oversterfte. Dit gold niet voor de Amerikaanse Indianen en de inheemse bevolking van Alaska. Zij behoorden tot de groepen met hogere oversterfte.<sup>8 55 59 72</sup>

Van de studies die specifieke oversterfte ten gevolge van COVID-19 rapporteerden, vonden drie studies dat dit hoger was voor niet-witte mensen ten opzichte van mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>3 45 64</sup> Twee studies beweerden het tegenovergestelde.<sup>11 60</sup>

Eén studie vergeleek gemeentes op basis van hun verschillende proporties in rassen/etnische groepen.<sup>11</sup> Gemeentes met een hoge proportie mensen met een zwarte huidskleur hadden hogere sterftcijfers dan gemeentes met een lage proportie mensen met een zwarte huidskleur. Gemeentes met hogere proportie mensen met een witte huidskleur hadden lagere sterftcijfers ten opzichte van gemeentes

met een lage proportie mensen met een witte huidskleur. Dit bevestigt de gedachte dat de oversterfte tijdens de pandemie onder mensen met een zwarte huidskleur hoger was dan onder mensen met een witte huidskleur. De sterftcijfers van gemeentes met hoge of lage proporties latino's waren vergelijkbaar.

De studies uit het Verenigd Koninkrijk vonden de hoogste relatieve oversterfte onder mensen met een zwarte huidskleur en mensen van Aziatische afkomst.<sup>4 15</sup> Studies die etnische groepen afzetten tegen mensen met een witte huidskleur, waren het erover eens dat mensen met een zwarte huidskleur ten opzichte van mensen met een witte huidskleur een hogere oversterfte hadden.<sup>4 9 15 27 39</sup> De resultaten waren tegenstrijdig voor mensen van Aziatische afkomst. Drie studies vonden een hogere oversterfte onder mensen van Aziatische afkomst in vergelijking met mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>4 9 15</sup> Eén studie vond dat Aziatische etniciteit geassocieerd was met een lagere oversterfte ten opzichte van mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>27</sup> Een andere studie vond geen associatie tussen Aziatische etniciteit en oversterfte ten opzichte van mensen met een witte huidskleur.<sup>39</sup>

#### 4.8.2 Bewoners van insitutionele instellingen

In twee studies werden numerieke gegevens gepresenteerd met betrekking tot oversterfte onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen (zie [Excel bijlage](#)).<sup>32 63</sup> In beide studies werd meestal een hogere oversterfte gevonden onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen in vergelijking met mensen die niet in een institutionele instelling woonden (Tabel 5). Eén onderzoek splitste de resultaten op voor verschillende tijdsperiodes en vond in maart 2020 een lagere oversterfte onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen, terwijl voor april en mei 2020 juist een hogere oversterfte werd gevonden.<sup>63</sup>

**Tabel 5: Rangschikking oversterfte voor bewoners van institutionele instellingen**

| Reference      | Country | Gender  | Age   | Period     | Ranking      |              |
|----------------|---------|---------|-------|------------|--------------|--------------|
|                |         |         |       |            | 1 (highest)  | 2 (lowest)   |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | 65-84 |            | Care home    | No care home |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | 85+   |            | Care home    | No care home |
| Strang (2020)  | Sweden  | All     | All   | March 2020 | No care home | Care home    |
| Strang (2020)  | Sweden  | All     | All   | April 2020 | Care home    | No care home |
| Strang (2020)  | Sweden  | All     | All   | May 2020   | Care home    | No care home |

#### Beschrijvende resultaten

Zes studies uit Engeland, Italië, België en de Verenigde Staten vonden dat de oversterfte onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen hoger was dan in de rest van de populatie (Bijlage 10B).<sup>9 13 21 32 62</sup>

<sup>64</sup> Dit verschil was te zien onder mannelijke en vrouwelijke bewoners van zowel 64 tot 84 jaar oud als die van 85 jaar en ouder.<sup>32</sup> Een Italiaanse studie onderzocht de indirecte relatie tussen de aanwezigheid van

een verpleeg- of verzorgingshuis in een gemeente en de oversterfte in die gemeente.<sup>13</sup> Er was sprake van een significant hoger oversterftcijfer in gemeentes zonder verpleeg- of verzorgingshuis.

### 4.8.3 Migranten

In slechts één onderzoek werd oversterfte gekwantificeerd voor migranten in vergelijking tot de autochtone bevolking (Tabel 6 en [Excel bijlage](#)).<sup>32</sup> Dit onderzoek werd uitgevoerd in België. Zowel voor mannen als voor vrouwen werd de hoogste oversterfte gevonden onder eerste-generatie migranten (55.4 per 100000 voor mannen en 17.5 per 100000 voor vrouwen) en de laagste oversterfte onder autochtonen (1.6 per 100000 voor mannen en 1.3 per 100000 voor vrouwen).

Tabel 6: Oversterfte voor migranten en autochtonen<sup>32</sup>

| Subgroup                      | Males Excess mortality* | Confidence interval | Females Excess mortality* | Confidence interval |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| Belgian                       | 1.6                     | -3.9 to 7.26        | 1.3                       | -0.8 to 3.5         |
| First-generation non-Belgian  | 55.4                    | 35.8 to 74.9        | 17.5                      | 6.3 to 28.6         |
| Second-generation non-Belgian | 25.2                    | -14.7 to 65.2       | 12.7                      | -15.9 to 41.5       |

\* Excess mortality rate per 100000 inhabitants

#### Beschrijvende resultaten

In de vier studies die oversterfte onder de autochtone bevolking vergeleken met migranten, werd vrijwel consistent een hogere oversterfte onder migranten gevonden (Bijlage 10C). Riley keek specifiek naar de latino-populatie in de Verenigde Staten.<sup>7</sup> Oversterfte was hoger onder latino's die in het buitenland geboren zijn vergeleken met diegenen die in de Verenigde Staten geboren zijn. Hetzelfde effect werd gevonden in Zweden, waar demografische gebieden met de laagste proportie mensen geboren in Zweden een hogere oversterfte hadden dan gebieden waar het grootste deel van de populatie in Zweden geboren is.<sup>20</sup> Twee Belgische studies vonden een hogere oversterfte onder eerste generatie immigranten dan onder autochtone Belgen.<sup>32,67</sup> Dit effect was minder sterk bij tweede generatie immigranten. Vanthomme en collega's bestudeerden waar mensen vandaan migreerden en constateerden dat de oversterfte het hoogst was bij immigranten uit Sub-Sahara Afrika.<sup>67</sup> Dezelfde studie vond dat migranten uit EU-landen een lagere oversterfte hadden dan de autochtone Belgische bevolking van mannen boven de 65 jaar en vrouwen tussen de 40-64 jaar. Migranten uit andere Europese landen hadden een lagere oversterfte onder vrouwen van 65 jaar en ouder dan de autochtone Belgische bevolking;<sup>67</sup> dit benadrukt dat niet alle migranten een hoger risico hadden op oversterfte.

#### 4.8.4 Mensen met comorbiditeiten

In vijf studies konden getallen met betrekking tot oversterfte voor mensen met verschillende comorbiditeiten worden verzameld.<sup>4 6 32 60 64</sup> In drie studies werden getallen gepresenteerd die gebruikt kunnen worden om een rangschikking te creëren, echter waren de verschillende categorieën comorbiditeiten zo heterogeen dat deze alsnog niet in een tabel gepresenteerd konden worden. De getallen zijn terug te vinden in de [Excel bijlage](#).

##### Beschrijvende resultaten

Vijftien studies onderzochten de correlatie tussen een of meerdere comorbiditeiten en oversterfte (Bijlage 10D). Studies die alleen keken naar de aanwezigheid van een comorbiditeit in plaats van een specifieke ziekte, ontdekten dat oversterfte groter was bij mensen met een chronische ziekte dan bij mensen zonder.<sup>67</sup> Daarnaast waren de sterftcijfers hoger in gemeentes waar mensen over het algemeen in slechte tot redelijke gezondheid leven.<sup>11</sup> Daarentegen vond een Italiaanse studie geen significante correlatie tussen de aanwezigheid van ten minste één comorbiditeit en oversterfte, met zelfs een lagere oversterfte binnen deze groep in een Belgische studie.<sup>32</sup>

Kijkend naar individuele comorbiditeiten was er consensus dat oversterfte hoger is bij personen die lijden aan een chronische nierziekte,<sup>9 14 27 39</sup> een chronische cardiovasculaire ziekte,<sup>6 14 27 39 60 64 74</sup> verschillende neurologische ziekten,<sup>4 9 14 60 64</sup> diabetes,<sup>6 9 14 60 64 74</sup> hypertensie<sup>9 27 64</sup> en leerstoornissen.<sup>9 39</sup> Eén studie onderzocht osteoartritis en ernstige psychische stoornissen en ook deze werden geassocieerd met een hogere oversterfte.<sup>9</sup> Voor chronische longziekte en maligniteit/neoplasie kon geen consensus worden bereikt. Daar waar chronische longziekten in het algemeen geassocieerd werden met een hogere oversterfte, was dit niet het geval voor COPD en aandoeningen van de onderste luchtwegen.<sup>9 60</sup> Met betrekking tot kanker toonden vier studies aan dat deze ziekte gerelateerd is met een hogere oversterfte,<sup>6 14 27 39</sup> terwijl twee studies geen relatie of zelfs een afname in sterfte vonden.<sup>8 60</sup>

Binnen de COVID-19-patiëntpopulatie bleek uit twee onderzoeken dat mensen gediagnosticeerd met alle typen chronische ziekte een grotere kans hadden op overlijden,<sup>14 39</sup> met de uitzondering voor hypertensie.<sup>39</sup> Voor mensen met diabetes was er geen duidelijke consensus.<sup>14 39</sup> Het onderzoek van Joy liet zien dat mensen met leerstoornissen een grotere kans op sterfte hadden.<sup>39</sup>

#### 4.8.5 Sociaaleconomische status en opleiding

##### *Sociaaleconomische status*

In twee studies werden getallen met betrekking tot oversterfte uitgesplitst voor sociaaleconomische status en voor één studie was het mogelijk om deze te rangschikken (Tabel 7 en [Excel bijlage](#)).<sup>32</sup> Dit was een Belgische studie waarin resultaten werden opgesplitst voor mannen en vrouwen, leeftijdsgroepen en bewoners van institutionele instellingen. Binnen deze studie was geen duidelijke trend te zien waarbij oversterfte altijd hoger was in groepen met een specifieke sociaaleconomische status.

Tabel 7: Rangschikking oversterfte voor groepen met verschillende sociaaleconomische status<sup>32</sup>

| Gender         | Age   | Care home    | Ranking             |                     |                     |
|----------------|-------|--------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|                |       |              | 1 (highest)         | 2                   | 3 (lowest)          |
| <b>Males</b>   | 25-64 | All          | High income level   | Low income level    | Middle income level |
| <b>Males</b>   | 65-84 | Care home    | Middle income level | High income level   | Low income level    |
| <b>Males</b>   | 65-84 | No care home | Low income level    | Middle income level | High income level   |
| <b>Males</b>   | >85   | Care home    | Low income level    | Middle income level | High income level   |
| <b>Males</b>   | >85   | No care home | Middle income level | High income level   | Low income level    |
| <b>Females</b> | 25-64 | All          | Middle income level | High income level   | Low income level    |
| <b>Females</b> | 65-84 | Care home    | High income level   | Middle income level | Low income level    |
| <b>Females</b> | 65-84 | No care home | Middle income level | Low income level    | High income level   |
| <b>Females</b> | >85   | Care home    | Middle income level | Low income level    | High income level   |
| <b>Females</b> | >85   | No care home | High income level   | Middle income level | Low income level    |

Voor drie andere studies werd oversterfte uitgesplitst voor vijf verschillende categorieën sociale deprivatie en voor twee van deze konden resultaten worden gerangschikt (Tabel 8).<sup>4,53</sup> In beide studies werd de hoogste oversterfte gevonden in de categorie met de hoogste deprivatie.

Tabel 8: Rangschikking oversterfte voor groepen met verschillende deprivatie

| Reference               | Country | Ranking                     |                             |            |            |                              |
|-------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|------------|------------------------------|
|                         |         | 1 (highest)                 | 2                           | 3          | 4          | 5 (lowest)                   |
| <b>Oroszi (2021)</b>    | Hungary | Quintile 4                  | Quintile 5<br>Most deprived | Quintile 3 | Quintile 2 | Quintile 1<br>Least deprived |
| <b>Strongman (2022)</b> | UK      | Quintile 5<br>Most deprived | Quintile 4                  | Quintile 3 | Quintile 2 | Quintile 1<br>Least deprived |

#### Beschrijvende resultaten

Alle 13 studies die (indirect) keken naar de relatie tussen sociaaleconomische status en oversterfte in de algemene bevolking, vonden een duidelijke associatie tussen beide en vonden een hogere oversterfte in gebieden met hogere sociaaleconomische status (Bijlage 10E). Deze associatie werd gevonden voor het Verenigd Koninkrijk,<sup>4,9,15,27</sup> Hongarije,<sup>53</sup> en Zweden.<sup>63</sup> Na het stratificeren per leeftijdsgroep bleef deze duidelijke associatie bestaan in de Zweedse studie.<sup>63</sup>

Verscheidene studies gebruikten ook (huishoudelijk) inkomen als indirecte graadmeter voor sociaaleconomische status en deprivatie. Deze studies toonden aan dat er meer oversterfte was binnen bevolkingsgroepen en gebieden met een lager inkomen in België,<sup>67</sup> Zweden,<sup>20</sup> Italië<sup>25</sup> en de Verenigde

Staten.<sup>11</sup> In de Verenigde Staten werd ook een indirect verband aangetoond tussen gemeentes met een lager percentage huiseigenaren en een hoger sterftcijfer.<sup>11</sup> Een andere Italiaanse studie vond een indirect (en niet-significant) verband tussen de beschikbaarheid van openbaar vervoer en oversterfte.<sup>19</sup>

Bij het opsplitsen van de bevolking naar geslacht en leeftijdsgroep varieerde de oversterfte niet sterk met de hoogte van het inkomen onder de mannelijke bevolking van 65-84 jaar oud. Onder de mannelijke bevolking van 85 jaar en ouder werd ook geen duidelijke associatie tussen oversterfte en inkomen gevonden. Voor vrouwen (die niet in verzorgingshuizen wonen) was dit patroon er wel, en werd de hoogste oversterfte gevonden bij diegenen met een lager inkomen.<sup>32</sup>

Er was één studie, uitgevoerd in Engeland, die de relatie tussen sociaaleconomische status en oversterfte onderzocht in een populatie die positief getest is op COVID-19. Echter werd hier geen verband gevonden.<sup>39</sup>

### Opleiding

In drie studies werd oversterfte uitgesplitst naar opleidingsniveau en in alledrie was het mogelijk een rangschikking te creëren op basis van de getallen (Tabel 9 en [Excel bijlage](#)).<sup>5 7 32</sup> In deze studies lijkt een trend zichtbaar van hogere oversterfte in groepen met een lager opleidingsniveau en lagere oversterfte in groepen met het hoogste opleidingsniveau.

**Tabel 9: Rangschikking oversterfte voor groepen met verschillende opleidingsniveau's**

| Reference      | Country          | Gender  | Age   | Care home    | Ranking                   |                           |                                  |                             |
|----------------|------------------|---------|-------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
|                |                  |         |       |              | 1 (highest)               | 2                         | 3                                | 4 (lowest)                  |
| Riley (2021)   | USA (California) | All     | >25   | All          | Primary or less education | Secondary education       | Some college or associate degree | Bachelor's degree or beyond |
| Chen (2021)b   | USA (California) | All     | >25   | All          | Primary or less education | Secondary education       | Some college or associate degree | Bachelor's degree or beyond |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Males   | 25-64 | All          | Lower secondary education | Primary or less education | Higher education                 | Upper secondary education   |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Males   | 65-84 | Care home    | Upper secondary education | Lower secondary education | Primary or less education        | Higher education            |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Males   | 65-84 | No care home | Primary or less education | Lower secondary education | Upper secondary education        | Higher education            |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Males   | >85   | Care home    | Upper secondary education | Primary or less education | Lower secondary education        | Higher education            |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Males   | >85   | No care home | Upper secondary education | Primary or less education | Higher education                 | Lower secondary education   |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium          | Females | 25-64 | All          | Primary or less education | Lower secondary education | Higher education                 | Upper secondary education   |

| Reference      | Country | Gender  | Age   | Care home    | Ranking                   |                           |                           |                           |
|----------------|---------|---------|-------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
|                |         |         |       |              | 1 (highest)               | 2                         | 3                         | 4 (lowest)                |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | 65-84 | Care home    | Lower secondary education | Upper secondary education | Higher education          | Primary or less education |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | 65-84 | No care home | Primary or less education | Lower secondary education | Upper secondary education | Higher education          |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | >85   | Care home    | Primary or less education | Lower secondary education | Upper secondary education | Higher education          |
| Gadeyne (2021) | Belgium | Females | >85   | No care home | Primary or less education | Higher education          | Lower secondary education | Upper secondary education |

### Beschrijvende resultaten

Onder zeven studies uitgevoerd in meerdere landen was er een algemene consensus dat de oversterfte hoger was voor mensen (en regio's) met een lager opleidingsniveau dan voor hoger opgeleide mensen (Bijlage 10E). Deze associatie werd aangetoond voor de algemene populatie in Zweden,<sup>20</sup> Italië,<sup>25</sup> België,<sup>67</sup> en de Verenigde Staten.<sup>5,11</sup> Het onderzoek van Riley liet een vergelijkbaar patroon zien binnen de latino populatie in de Verenigde Staten.<sup>7</sup> Een Belgische studie, welke de resultaten uitsplitste op basis van geslacht en leeftijdsgroep, liet zien dat opleiding geen grote invloed heeft op de relatieve oversterfte onder mannen van 65-84 jaar oud wonend in verzorgingshuizen.<sup>32</sup> Onder vrouwen binnen dezelfde leeftijdscategorie (maar niet woonachtig in verzorgingshuizen) was de oversterfte het grootst bij diegenen van wie het opleidingsniveau onbekend of laag was.<sup>32</sup>

### Beroepssector

In vier studies werden getallen met betrekking tot oversterfte in verschillende beroepssectoren gerapporteerd (zie [Excel bijlage](#)) en in twee studies kon een rangschikking gemaakt worden op basis van deze getallen (Tabel 10).<sup>7,22</sup> Er was geen duidelijke trend zichtbaar in deze rangschikking.

**Tabel 10: Rangschikking oversterfte voor verschillende beroepssectoren**

|         |            | Chen (2021)a                | Riley (2021)                |
|---------|------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|         | Population | Working age population      | Latino population           |
|         | Country    | USA (California)            | USA (California)            |
|         | Gender     | All                         | All                         |
|         | Age        | 18-65                       | 18-65                       |
| Ranking | 1          | Transportation or logistics | Manufacturing               |
|         | 2          | Facilities                  | Transportation or logistics |
|         | 3          | Food or agriculture         | Food or agriculture         |
|         | 4          | Manufacturing               | Facilities                  |
|         | 5          | Unemployed or missing       | Not essential               |
|         | 6          | Retail                      | Health or emergency         |

|   | Chen (2021) <sup>a</sup> | Riley (2021)            |
|---|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 7 | Health or emergency      | Retail                  |
| 8 | Government or community  | Government or community |
| 9 | Not essential            | Unemployed or missing   |

### Beschrijvende resultaten

Een overzicht van vijf studies die keken naar oversterfte in verschillende beroepssectoren, is te vinden in Bijlage 10E. Eén studie keek naar het hebben van betaald werk in het algemeen in plaats van naar specifieke beroepssectoren en vond dat demografische gebieden in Zweden met de laagste proportie mensen met betaald werk de meeste oversterfte rapporteerden.<sup>20</sup> Twee studies uit de Verenigde Staten rapporteerden relatief veel oversterfte in de sectoren landbouw en voedsel, industrie en productie, faciliteiten en transport, vergeleken met andere beroepssectoren.<sup>7,22</sup> De laagste mortaliteitsratio's werden gevonden in de sector detailhandel.<sup>7</sup> In de werkzame beroepsbevolking in Engeland en Wales was de oversterfte het hoogst in de gezondheidssector, gevolgd door andere essentiële beroepen, maatschappelijke zorg en het onderwijs.<sup>51</sup> Een soortgelijke studie die naar dezelfde relatie keek tussen mannen en vrouwen, vond dat de oversterfte onder mannen die werkzaam zijn in het onderwijs gelijk was aan de oversterfte onder alle werkende mannen. Anderzijds werd bij vrouwen werkzaam in het onderwijs juist een lagere oversterfte gevonden in vergelijking met werkende vrouwen in alle beroepsgroepen.<sup>48</sup>

## 4.9 Uitgangsvraag 7: Virusvarianten, vaccinaties en interventies

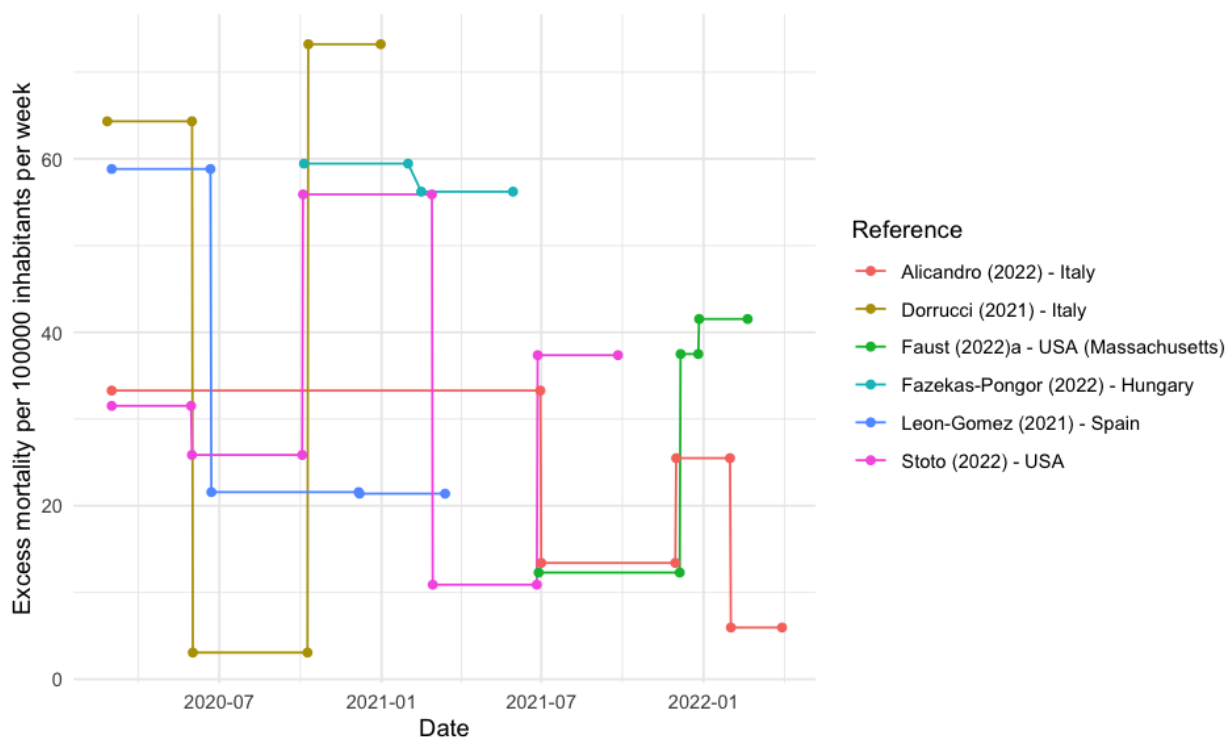
### 4.9.1 Virusvarianten

Figuur 6 en Bijlage 11A beschrijven de resultaten van de zes studies die oversterfte presenteerden voor de verschillende virusvarianten (zie ook de [Excel bijlage](#)). Het onderzoek van Dorrucchi rapporteerde twee pieken in oversterfte die gelijk liepen met de eerste en de tweede (Alpha-)golf in Italië.<sup>29</sup> Het onderzoek van Alicandro vond de hoogste oversterfte tijdens de eerste golf, de Alpha-golf en de overgang naar de Delta-variant (geanalyseerd als één periode) in Italië en een lagere piek tijdens de overgang van Delta naar Omicron en de laagste oversterfte tijdens de Omicron-periode.<sup>1</sup> Leon-Gomez vond een piek in oversterfte tijdens de eerste golf in Spanje en vervolgens een lagere maar vergelijkbare oversterfte in de overgang naar de Alpha-golf en tijdens deze Alpha-golf.<sup>46</sup> Fazekas-Pongor vond een redelijk stabiele oversterfte over de periode oktober 2020 tot mei 2021 (Alpha-golf en overgang naar Delta).<sup>31</sup> Stoto analyseerde de oversterfte in de Verenigde Staten en vond pieken in oversterfte tijdens de Alpha- en Delta-golven, met lagere oversterfte tijdens de eerste golf en de transitieperiodes.<sup>62</sup> Tot slot vond Faust een hogere oversterfte tijdens de Omicron-golf in de Amerikaanse Staat Massachusetts in vergelijking tot de Delta-golf.<sup>2</sup>

De relatie tussen oversterfte en virusvarianten hangt sterk samen met seizoensvariatie. Er waren drie studies die iets rapporteerden over de mogelijke relatie tussen het seizoen en de oversterfte in een land. Twee studies presenteerden seizoensvariatie in oversterfte in verschillende landen. Hier werd



gevonden dat landen op het noordelijk halfrond meer oversterfte hadden tijdens de lente en de herfst-winter periode.<sup>38</sup> Dit terwijl andere landen juist een vermindering zagen in oversterfte tijdens het winterseizoen, mogelijk door de destijds geldende lockdownmaatregelen die ook het verspreiden van influenza verminderden.<sup>41</sup> Eén studie keek specifiek naar de seizoensvariatie in de Verenigde Staten en vond dat de meeste sterfgevallen tijdens de herfst- en winterperiode van 2020/2021 plaatsvonden.<sup>49</sup>



Figuur 6: Oversterfte over de tijd

#### 4.9.2 Vaccinaties

Eén onderzoek presenteerde oversterfte in relatie tot vaccinatiegraad voor vier regio's in de Verenigde Staten en voor drie verschillende tijdsperiodes (Tabel 11 en [Excel bijlage](#)).<sup>62</sup> Oversterfte was voor alle regio's het hoogste in de periode met de laagste vaccinatiegraad van ongeveer 7%. De laagste oversterfte werd voor alle regio's gevonden in de periode met vaccinatiegraad 40-50%, terwijl de oversterfte in de periode met vaccinatiegraad 50-60% weer hoger lag. De analyseperiode met hoogste vaccinatiegraad (juli tot september 2021) valt samen met de piek van de Delta-variant, wat een mogelijke verklaring is voor de hogere oversterfte in deze periode.

**Tabel 11: Oversterfte uitgezet tegen percentage gevaccineerden<sup>62</sup>**

| Country         | Oct 2020 to Feb 2021 |                   | Mar to Jun 2021 |                   | Jul to Sep 2021 |                   |
|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
|                 | % vaccinated         | Excess mortality* | % vaccinated    | Excess mortality* | % vaccinated    | Excess mortality* |
| USA (Midwest)   | 7.3                  | 20.6              | 44.4            | 3.7               | 52.9            | 9.2               |
| USA (Northeast) | 6.8                  | 15.2              | 51.9            | 3.5               | 60.3            | 8.1               |
| USA (South)     | 7.5                  | 21.5              | 42.9            | 6.3               | 48.9            | 32.7              |
| USA (West)      | 7.3                  | 20.3              | 39.8            | 3.6               | 56.5            | 18.7              |

\* Excess mortality rate per 1 million inhabitants per year

### Beschrijvende resultaten

In zeven studies werd de relatie tussen oversterfte en vaccinaties beschreven. Meerdere studies lieten zien dat een verhoogde beschikbaarheid en gebruik van vaccins een correlatie hebben met een lagere oversterfte (Bijlage 11B).<sup>17 31 62 70 73</sup> Twee studies vonden echter geen significant effect van het aantal volledig gevaccineerden per 100 mensen op oversterfte.<sup>37 58</sup> Eén studie schatte in dat over de hele wereld naar schatting 63% oversterfte voorkomen is door de beschermende werking van vaccinaties.<sup>70</sup> Ook binnen een land (de Verenigde Staten), hadden regio's met een hogere vaccinatiegraad lagere oversterftcijfers en vice versa.<sup>62</sup> Een studie vergeleek vaccinatiegraad en oversterfte voor verschillende leeftijdsgroepen.<sup>31</sup> De vaccinatiegraad steeg het snelst onder 65-plussers. Dit was gecorreleerd met een grotere relatieve afname in oversterfte vergeleken met andere leeftijdsgroepen. Vaccinaties boden zelfs in periodes met minder strenge COVID-maatregelen voldoende bescherming om de oversterfte te verminderen.<sup>73</sup>

### 4.9.3 Type vaccins

Er werden geen onderzoeken geïdentificeerd die de relatie tussen type vaccin en oversterfte of sterfte aan COVID-19 beschreven.

### 4.9.4 COVID-19-interventies

Een samenvatting van de bevindingen van negen studies met betrekking tot COVID-19-interventies is te vinden in Bijlage 11C. Het was hiervoor niet mogelijk om numerieke resultaten te extraheren. Eén studie vond dat het verschil in mortaliteit tussen landen gerelateerd was aan de timing en de striktheid van de COVID-19-interventies.<sup>12</sup> In de Verenigde Staten was er meestal een vermindering van oversterfte een paar weken tot een maand nadat (lockdown) maatregelen geïntroduceerd of aangescherpt werden.<sup>65</sup> Naast de Verenigde Staten werd er ook voor Italië gedacht dat de langzamere toename van oversterfte tijdens de tweede golf van de pandemie in vergelijking met de eerste golf werd veroorzaakt door een verschil in genomen maatregelen.<sup>29</sup> Aan de andere kant kon het verschil ook veroorzaakt worden doordat mensen zelf meer afstand van elkaar gingen houden.<sup>57</sup> Eén studie vond zelfs dat, terwijl langdurige strikte maatregelen wel de hoeveelheid infecties verminderde, het juist een statistisch significant effect had op meer oversterfte.<sup>73</sup> Een andere studie vond eenzelfde effect, maar dit was niet

significant.<sup>58</sup> In de werkzame beroepsbevolking van Engeland en Wales was de oversterfte het hoogst tijdens de lockdown en het laagst post-lockdown.<sup>51</sup> Studies die specifieke regio's van de Verenigde Staten onderzochten, vonden dat oversterfte afnam tijdens de periode waarin inwoners zoveel mogelijk moesten binnenblijven, en steeg wanneer striktheid van maatregelen afnam.<sup>62</sup>

## 5. Discussie

In deze literatuurstudie hebben we een overzicht gegeven van de literatuur op het gebied van oversterfte die gepubliceerd is in de periode januari 2020 tot september 2022. Er is veel onderzoek verricht naar oversterfte, maar het bleek een uitdaging te zijn om resultaten van verschillende studies met elkaar te vergelijken. Hiervoor zijn meerdere redenen aan te wijzen.

Ten eerste worden verschillende analysetechnieken gebruikt om oversterfte in te schatten. Methodologische studies hebben aangetoond dat deze verschillende analysetechnieken daadwerkelijk leiden tot verschillende schattingen van oversterfte. Dit was zelfs het geval bij toepassen van deze verschillende analysetechnieken op dezelfde dataset.<sup>75</sup>

Ten tweede werd oversterfte op verschillende manieren uitgedrukt. Hoewel de definitie van oversterfte vergelijkbaar was tussen studies (het verschil tussen de geobserveerde en verwachte sterfte), werden verschillende maten gekozen. Sommige studies beschreven het absolute verschil tussen geobserveerde en verwachte sterfte, andere beschreven de ratio en weer andere studies beschreven de oversterfte rate (oversterfte gestandaardiseerd voor populatiegrootte en tijdsperiode). Het nadeel van het absolute verschil tussen de geobserveerde en verwacht sterfte is dat deze sterk afhankelijk is van de grootte van de populatie en de tijdsperiode waarin oversterfte bepaald werd. Voor een grote populatie en een langere tijdsperiode zal de oversterfte hoger zijn dan voor een kleine populatie of een korte tijdsperiode. De oversterfte rate heeft deze nadelen niet en kan daarom dus beter gebruikt worden om verschillen binnen een studie te onderzoeken.

Ten derde zijn er verschillen in tijdsperiode tussen studies. Sommige studies analyseerden bijvoorbeeld alleen de gegevens van de eerste COVID-19-golf, een periode waarin veel besmettingen plaatsvonden en er nog weinig bekend was over effectieve manieren om COVID-19 te behandelen. Andere studies analyseerden gegevens uit heel 2020 of namen nog recentere gegevens mee. Zelfs een maat zoals de oversterfte rate corrigeert niet voor deze pieken en dalen. Indien oversterfte in land A bijvoorbeeld hoger is dan in land B, dan kan dat zijn doordat er daadwerkelijk meer oversterfte is in land A, of doordat voor land A alleen de eerste maanden van 2020 werden geanalyseerd, terwijl voor land B heel 2020 werd geanalyseerd.

In deze literatuurstudie vonden we dat oversterfte over het algemeen hoger is onder ouderen, mannen, mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status, bewoners van institutionele instellingen en migranten. Vaccinaties lijken samen te hangen met lagere oversterfte. Op basis van de subgroepanalyses is het echter niet mogelijk om uitspraken te doen over oorzaken van oversterfte. Een hogere oversterfte onder mensen met een bepaalde etniciteit kan bijvoorbeeld ook samenhangen met sociaal-economische status, vaccinatiegraad en prevalentie van comorbiditeiten. Om inzicht te krijgen in oorzaken van oversterfte is het daarom nodig om multivariabele analyses te doen, waarbij al deze factoren meegenomen worden in een statistisch model.

## 6. Conclusies

### **Uitgangsvraag 1: Definitie van oversterfte**

- Oversterfte werd in de literatuur gedefinieerd als het verschil tussen de geobserveerde sterfte in een bepaalde periode en de verwachte sterfte in diezelfde periode. Dit is een generieke definitie, die in alle gevallen gehanteerd werd.
- De verwachte sterfte werd op verschillende manieren bepaald. In alle gevallen werd gebruik gemaakt van sterftecijfers uit een periode in het verleden. Soms werd op basis van deze cijfers een gemiddelde of mediane sterfte bepaald die gebruikt werd als verwachte sterfte. In andere gevallen werd een statistisch model gebruikt om de verwachte sterfte te modelleren.

### **Uitgangsvraag 2: Methodieken om oversterfte te schatten**

- Alleen al in de afgelopen drie jaar zijn meer dan 20 artikelen gepubliceerd die methoden beschrijven om oversterfte in te schatten.
- Het statistisch model dat gebruikt werd om de verwachte oversterfte te modelleren varieerde sterk tussen studies. Het (quasi)-Poisson model en het *autoregressive integrated moving average* (ARIMA) model werden het vaakst gebruikt.

### **Uitgangsvraag 3: Doodsoorzaken**

- Doodsoorzaken werden ingedeeld op basis van International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-10-codes. Voor COVID-19 zijn ICD-10-codes U071 (bevestigde COVID-19) en U072 (vermoedelijke COVID-19) beschikbaar.

### **Uitgangsvraag 4: Determinanten van oversterfte**

- Belangrijke determinanten van oversterfte waren leeftijd en geslacht. Oversterfte was hoger in hogere leeftijdscategorieën en bij mannen.
- Andere factoren die mogelijk geassocieerd zijn met oversterfte, waren BMI, roken en (op regionaal niveau) het aantal geregistreerde medisch specialisten.

### **Uitgangsvraag 5: Internationale verschillen**

- Er lijkt een trend zichtbaar waarbij hogere sterfte gevonden werd in Oost-Europa, lagere oversterfte in Scandinavië en ondersterfte in Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland. Dit was zowel voor mannen als vrouwen het geval.
- COVID-19-sterfte was het hoogst in West-Europese landen en het laagst in Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland.
- Verschillen in oversterfte tussen landen waren waarschijnlijk het gevolg van verschillen in COVID-19-interventies (striktheid en timing), organisatie van en toegang tot zorg, populatiekenmerken

(bevolkingsdichtheid, demografische en sociale kenmerken), gedrag (naleving maatregelen, mobiliteit, acceptatie vaccins), geografische locatie en verschillen tussen landen in kwaliteit van de data.

#### **Uitgangsvraag 6: Oversterfte in subgroepen**

- Hogere oversterfte werd gevonden onder latino's en mensen met een zwarte huidskleur, terwijl oversterfte lager was onder mensen met een witte huidskleur en mensen van Aziatische afkomst.
- Oversterfte was hoger onder bewoners van institutionele instellingen in vergelijking met mensen van vergelijkbare leeftijden die niet in een institutionele instelling wonen.
- Oversterfte was hoger onder migranten in vergelijking met autochtonen.
- Hogere oversterfte werd gezien bij mensen met comorbiditeiten.
- Oversterfte was ook hoger bij mensen met een lagere sociaal-economische status en een laag opleidingsniveau.
- Er was geen duidelijke trend zichtbaar met betrekking tot oversterfte in verschillende beroepssectoren.

#### **Uitgangsvraag 7: Virusvarianten en vaccinaties**

- Verschillen in oversterfte met betrekking tot virusvarianten waren niet eenduidig. Een aantal studies vond een hogere oversterftepiek tijdens de eerste COVID-19-golf. Andere studies vonden daarentegen lagere oversterfte in deze periode.
- Oversterfte leek lager te zijn bij mensen die volledig gevaccineerd waren.
- Er werden geen studies gevonden die keken naar de relatie tussen oversterfte en type vaccin.

#### **Beperkingen en aanbevelingen**

- Het vergelijken van resultaten tussen verschillende studies werd beperkt, omdat gebruikte databronnen en berekeningsmethoden erg verschilden tussen studies. Ook werden verschillende tijdsperiodes geanalyseerd wat op zichzelf al kan resulteren in verschillen in oversterfte tussen studies.
- Uniforme rapportage van oversterfte in de vorm van oversterfte *rates* (gestandaardiseerd naar populatiegrootte en tijdsperiode) is essentieel om resultaten van studies beter met elkaar te kunnen vergelijken.
- Multivariabele analyses kunnen helpen om beter inzicht te krijgen in de wisselwerking tussen de verschillende determinanten van oversterfte.

## Referenties

1. Alicandro G, Remuzzi G, Centanni S, et al. No excess mortality among working-age Italians during the Omicron wave of Covid-19. *La Medicina del lavoro* 2022;113(3):e2022030. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/mdl.v113i3.13092>
2. Faust JS, Du C, Liang C, et al. Excess Mortality in Massachusetts during the Delta and Omicron Waves of COVID-19. *Jama* 2022;328(1):74-76. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.8045>
3. Reif J, Heun-Johnson H, Tysinger B, et al. Measuring the COVID-19 Mortality Burden in the United States: A Microsimulation Study. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(12):1700-09. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2239>
4. Strongman H, Carreira H, De Stavola BL, et al. Factors associated with excess all-cause mortality in the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in the UK: A time series analysis using the Clinical Practice Research Datalink. *PLoS Medicine* 2022;19(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003870>
5. Chen YH, Glymour MM, Catalano R, et al. Excess Mortality in California during the Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pandemic, March to August 2020. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2021;181(5):705-07. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.7578>
6. Gobina I, Avotins A, Kojalo U, et al. Excess mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic in Latvia: a population-level analysis of all-cause and noncommunicable disease deaths in 2020. *BMC public health* 2022;22(1):1109. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13491-4>
7. Riley AR, Chen YH, Matthay EC, et al. Excess mortality among Latino people in California during the COVID-19 pandemic. *SSM - Population Health* 2021;15 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100860>
8. Shiels MS, Almeida JS, Garcia-Closas M, et al. Impact of population growth and aging on estimates of excess U.S. deaths during the COVID-19 pandemic, March to August 2020. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(4):437-43. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M20-7385>
9. Carey IM, Cook DG, Harris T, et al. Risk factors for excess all-cause mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in England: A retrospective cohort study of primary care data. *PLoS ONE [Electronic Resource]* 2021;16(12):e0260381. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0260381>
10. Shiels MS, Haque AT, Haozous EA, et al. Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Excess Deaths During the COVID-19 Pandemic, March to December 2020. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(12):1693-99. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2134>
11. Stokes AC, Lundberg DJ, Elo IT, et al. COVID-19 and excess mortality in the United States: A county-level analysis. *PLoS Medicine* 2021;18(5) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003571>
12. Achilleos S, Quattrocchi A, Gabel J, et al. Excess all-cause mortality and COVID-19-related mortality: a temporal analysis in 22 countries, from January until August 2020. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 2022;51(1):35-53. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab123>
13. Alacevich C, Cavalli N, Giuntella O, et al. The presence of care homes and excess deaths during the COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence from Italy. *Health Economics (United Kingdom)* 2021;30(7):1703-10. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hec.4277>
14. Astengo M, Tassinari F, Paganino C, et al. Weight of risk factors for mortality and short-term mortality displacement during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene* 2021;62(4):E864-E70. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2021.62.4.2269>
15. Barnard S, Fryers P, Fitzpatrick J, et al. Inequalities in excess premature mortality in England during the COVID-19 pandemic: A cross-sectional analysis of cumulative excess mortality by area

- deprivation and ethnicity. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-052646>
16. Bartscher AK, Seitz S, Sieglösch S, et al. Social capital and the spread of covid-19: Insights from european countries. *Journal of Health Economics* 2021;(no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhealeco.2021.102531>
  17. Bell E, Brassel S, Oliver E, et al. Estimates of the Global Burden of COVID-19 and the Value of Broad and Equitable Access to COVID-19 Vaccines. *Vaccines* 2022;10(8) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10081320>
  18. Bogos K, Kiss Z, Kerpel Fronius A, et al. Different Trends in Excess Mortality in a Central European Country Compared to Main European Regions in the Year of the COVID-19 Pandemic (2020): a Hungarian Analysis. *Pathology and Oncology Research* 2021;27 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/pore.2021.1609774>
  19. Buja A, Paganini M, Fusinato R, et al. Health and healthcare variables associated with Italy's excess mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic: An ecological study. *Health Policy* 2022;126(4):294-301. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2022.03.002>
  20. Calderon-Larranaga A, Vetrano DL, Rizzuto D, et al. High excess mortality in areas with young and socially vulnerable populations during the COVID-19 outbreak in Stockholm Region, Sweden. *BMJ Global Health* 2020;5(10):10. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2020-003595>
  21. Caranci N, Di Girolamo C, Bartolini L, et al. General and COVID-19-Related Mortality by Pre-Existing Chronic Conditions and Care Setting during 2020 in Emilia-Romagna Region, Italy. *International Journal of Environmental Research & Public Health [Electronic Resource]* 2021;18(24):15. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182413224>
  22. Chen YH, Glymour M, Riley A, et al. Excess mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic among Californians 18-65 years of age, by occupational sector and occupation: March through November 2020. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(6 June) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252454>
  23. Corrao G, Rea F, Blangiardo GC. Lessons from COVID-19 mortality data across countries. *Journal of hypertension* 2021;39(5):856-60. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0000000000002833>
  24. Cronin CJ, Evans WN. Excess mortality from COVID and non-COVID causes in minority populations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2021;118(39) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2101386118>
  25. De Angelis E, Renzetti S, Volta M, et al. COVID-19 incidence and mortality in Lombardy, Italy: An ecological study on the role of air pollution, meteorological factors, demographic and socioeconomic variables. *Environmental Research* 2021;195 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.110777>
  26. De Geyter C, Masciocchi M, Gobrecht-Keller U. Excess mortality caused by the COVID-19 pandemic negatively impacts birth numbers in European countries. *Human Reproduction* 2022;37(4):822-27. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/humrep/deac031>
  27. de Lusignan S, Joy M, Oke J, et al. Disparities in the excess risk of mortality in the first wave of COVID-19: Cross sectional study of the English sentinel network. *Journal of Infection* 2020;81(5):785-92. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.08.037>
  28. Demetriou CA, Achilleos S, Quattrocchi A, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on total, sex- and age-specific all-cause mortality in 20 countries worldwide during 2020: results from the C-MOR project. *International journal of epidemiology* 2022;27 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyac170>
  29. Dorrucchi M, Minelli G, Boros S, et al. Excess Mortality in Italy During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Assessing the Differences Between the First and the Second Wave, Year 2020. *Frontiers in public health* 2021;9:669209. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.669209>



30. Faust JS, Chen AJ, Nguemeni T, et al. Leading Causes of Death among Adults Aged 25 to 44 Years by Race and Ethnicity in Texas during the COVID-19 Pandemic, March to December 2020. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2022;182(1):87-90. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6734>
31. Fazekas-Pongor V, Szarvas Z, Nagy ND, et al. Different patterns of excess all-cause mortality by age and sex in Hungary during the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> waves of the COVID-19 pandemic. *GeroScience* 2022 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11357-022-00622-3>
32. Gadeyne S, Rodriguez-Loureiro L, Surkyn J, et al. Are we really all in this together? The social patterning of mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in Belgium. *International Journal for Equity in Health* 2021;20(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12939-021-01594-0>
33. Geeraedts F, Luttje M, Visschedijk J, et al. Low-Threshold Testing for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) in Long-Term Care Facilities Early in the First Pandemic Wave, the Twente Region, the Netherlands: A Possible Factor in Reducing Morbidity and Mortality. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2022;41(8):1802-11. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/07334648221093050>
34. Grande E, Fedeli U, Pappagallo M, et al. Variation in Cause-Specific Mortality Rates in Italy during the First Wave of the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Study Based on Nationwide Data. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(2) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19020805>
35. Habibdoust A, Tatar M, Wilson FA. Estimating Excess Deaths by Race/Ethnicity in the State of California During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of racial and ethnic health disparities* 2022;11 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-022-01349-9>
36. Hanly P, Ahern M, Sharp L, et al. The cost of lost productivity due to premature mortality associated with COVID-19: a Pan-European study. *European Journal of Health Economics* 2022;23(2):249-59. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10198-021-01351-8>
37. Huang C, Yang L, Pan J, et al. Correlation between vaccine coverage and the COVID-19 pandemic throughout the world: Based on real-world data. *Journal of Medical Virology* 2022;94(5):2181-87. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27609>
38. Islam N, Shkolnikov VM, Acosta RJ, et al. Excess deaths associated with covid-19 pandemic in 2020: Age and sex disaggregated time series analysis in 29 high income countries. *The BMJ* 2021;373 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n1137>
39. Joy M, Richard H, F D, et al. Excess mortality in the first COVID pandemic peak: Cross-sectional analyses of the impact of age, sex, ethnicity, household size, and long-term conditions in people of known SARS-CoV-2 status in England. *British Journal of General Practice* 2020;70(701):E890-E98. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3399/BJGP20X713393>
40. Kapitsinis N. The underlying factors of excess mortality in 2020: a cross-country analysis of pre-pandemic healthcare conditions and strategies to cope with Covid-19. *BMC health services research* 2021;21(1):1197. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12913-021-07169-7>
41. Karlinsky A, Kobak D. Tracking excess mortality across countries during the covid-19 pandemic with the world mortality dataset. *eLife* 2021;10 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.69336>
42. Kelly G, Petti S, Noah N. Covid-19, non-Covid-19 and excess mortality rates not comparable across countries. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001850>
43. Kontis V, Bennett JE, Rashid T, et al. Magnitude, demographics and dynamics of the effect of the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic on all-cause mortality in 21 industrialized countries. *Nature Medicine* 2020;26(12):1919-28. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1112-0>

44. Kung S, Doppen M, Black M, et al. Underestimation of covid-19 mortality during the pandemic. *ERJ Open Research* 2021;7(1):1-7. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00766-2020>
45. Laurencin CT, Wu ZH, McClinton A, et al. Excess Deaths Among Blacks and Latinx Compared to Whites During Covid-19. *Journal of racial and ethnic health disparities* 2021;8(3):783-89. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-021-01010-x>
46. Leon-Gomez I, Mazagatos C, Delgado-Sanz C, et al. The impact of COVID-19 on mortality in Spain: Monitoring excess mortality (MoMo) and the surveillance of confirmed COVID-19 deaths. *Viruses* 2021;13(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/v13122423>
47. Levitt M, Zonta F, Ioannidis JPA. Comparison of pandemic excess mortality in 2020-2021 across different empirical calculations. *Environmental Research* 2022;213 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2022.113754>
48. Lewis SJ, Dack K, Relton CL, et al. Was the risk of death among the population of teachers and other school workers in England and Wales due to COVID-19 and all causes higher than other occupations during the pandemic in 2020? An ecological study using routinely collected data on deaths from the Office for National Statistics. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050656>
49. Lukowsky LR, Der-Martirosian C, Dobalian A. Disparities in Excess, All-Cause Mortality among Black, Hispanic and White Veterans at the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(4) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042368>
50. Lundberg JO, Zeberg H. Longitudinal variability in mortality predicts COVID-19 deaths. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2021;36(6):599-603. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00777-x>
51. Matz M, Allemanni C, Van Tongeren M, et al. Excess mortality among essential workers in England and Wales during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2022;76(7):660-66. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2022-218786>
52. Meng Y, Wong MS, Xing H, et al. Assessing the country-level excess all-cause mortality and the impacts of air pollution and human activity during the covid-19 epidemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(13) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136883>
53. Oroszi B, Juhasz A, Nagy C, et al. Unequal burden of COVID-19 in Hungary: A geographical and socioeconomic analysis of the second wave of the pandemic. *BMJ Global Health* 2021;6(9) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-006427>
54. Perotti P, Bertuccio P, Cacitti S, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Total and Cause-Specific Mortality in Pavia, Northern Italy. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19116498>
55. Polyakova M, Udalova V, Kocks G, et al. Racial disparities in excess all-cause mortality during the early covid-19 pandemic varied substantially across states. *Health Affairs* 2021;40(2):307-16. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02142>
56. Quast T, Anzel R. Excess Mortality Associated With COVID-19 by Demographic Group: Evidence From Florida and Ohio. *Public Health Reports* 2021;136(6):782-90. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00333549211041550>
57. Rangachev A, Marinov GK, Mladenov M. The demographic and geographic impact of the COVID pandemic in Bulgaria and Eastern Europe in 2020. *Scientific reports* 2022;12(1):6333. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09790-w>
58. Rose SM, Paterra M, Isaac C, et al. Analysing COVID-19 outcomes in the context of the 2019 Global Health Security (GHS) Index. *BMJ Global Health* 2021;6(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-007581>

59. Rossen LM, Ahmad FB, Anderson RN, et al. Disparities in Excess Mortality Associated with COVID-19 - United States, 2020. *Mmwr* 2021;Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 70(33):1114-19. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7033a2>
60. Ruhm CJ. Excess deaths in the United States during the first year of COVID-19. *Preventive Medicine* 2022;162 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2022.107174>
61. Sanmarchi F, Golinelli D, Lenzi J, et al. Exploring the Gap between Excess Mortality and COVID-19 Deaths in 67 Countries. *JAMA Network Open* 2021;4(7) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.17359>
62. Stoto MA, Schlageter S, Kraemer JD. COVID-19 mortality in the United States: It's been two Americas from the start. *PLoS ONE* 2022;17(4 April) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0265053>
63. Strang P, Furst P, Schultz T. Excess deaths from COVID-19 correlate with age and socio-economic status. A database study in the Stockholm region. *Upsala journal of medical sciences* 2020;125(4):297-304. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03009734.2020.1828513>
64. Tarazi WW, Finegold K, Sheingold SH, et al. COVID-19-related deaths and excess deaths among medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries. *Health Affairs* 2021;40(6):879-85. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02521>
65. Traub E, Amoon AT, Rollin-Alamillo L, et al. Excess Mortality Associated With the COVID-19 Pandemic-Los Angeles County, March-September 2020. *Journal of public health management and practice : JPHMP* 2021;27(3):233-39. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0000000000001344>
66. Van Asten L, Harmsen CN, Stoeldraijer L, et al. Excess deaths during influenza and coronavirus disease and infection-fatality rate for severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, the Netherlands. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 2021;27(2):411-20. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3201/EID2702.202999>
67. Vanthomme K, Gadeyne S, Lusyne P, et al. A population-based study on mortality among Belgian immigrants during the first COVID-19 wave in Belgium. Can demographic and socioeconomic indicators explain differential mortality? *SSM - Population Health* 2021;14 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100797>
68. Verbeeck J, Faes C, Neyens T, et al. A linear mixed model to estimate COVID-19-induced excess mortality. *Biometrics* 2021;25 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/biom.13578>
69. Wang H, Paulson KR, Pease SA, et al. Estimating excess mortality due to the COVID-19 pandemic: a systematic analysis of COVID-19-related mortality, 2020-21. *The Lancet* 2022 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2821%2902796-3>
70. Watson OJ, Barnsley G, Toor J, et al. Global impact of the first year of COVID-19 vaccination: a mathematical modelling study. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 2022;22(9):1293-302. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2822%2900320-6>
71. Wu J, Mafham M, Mamas MA, et al. Place and Underlying Cause of Death During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Retrospective Cohort Study of 3.5 Million Deaths in England and Wales, 2014 to 2020. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* 2021;96(4):952-63. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2021.02.007>
72. Zalla LC, Mulholland GE, Filiatreau LM, et al. Racial/Ethnic and Age Differences in the Direct and Indirect Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on US Mortality. *American journal of public health* 2022;112(1):154-64. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306541>
73. Zhou F, Hu TJ, Zhang XY, et al. The association of intensity and duration of non-pharmacological interventions and implementation of vaccination with COVID-19 infection, death, and excess mortality: Natural experiment in 22 European countries. *Journal of Infection and Public Health* 2022;15(5):499-507. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2022.03.011>

74. Zhu D, Ozaki A, Virani SS. Disease-Specific Excess Mortality During the COVID-19 Pandemic: An Analysis of Weekly US Death Data for 2020. *American journal of public health* 2021;111(8):1518-22. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306315>
75. Barnard S, Chiavenna C, Fox S, et al. Methods for modelling excess mortality across England during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211046384>

## Bijlagen

- Bijlage 1. Zoekstrategieën
- Bijlage 2. Study flow
- Bijlage 3. Uitgesloten onderzoeken
- Bijlage 4. Initieel ingesloten onderzoeken
- Bijlage 5. Statistische modellen
- Bijlage 6. Referenties methodologische artikelen
- Bijlage 7. Doodsoorzaken
- Bijlage 8. Determinanten
- Bijlage 9. Internationale verschillen
- Bijlage 10. Oversterfte in subgroepen
- Bijlage 11. Virusvarianten, vaccinaties en interventies

## Bijlage 1. Zoekstrategie

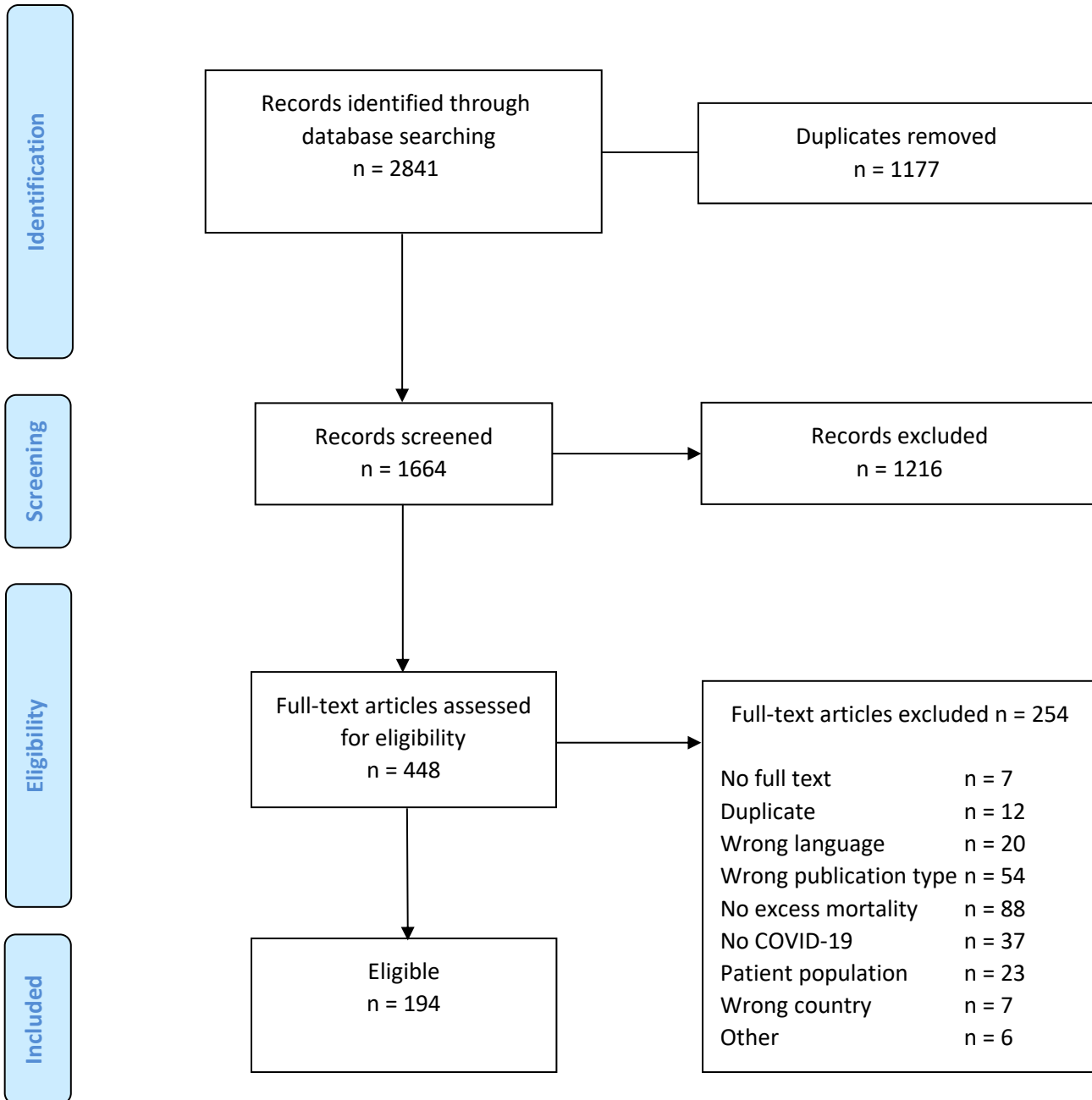
### Embase, Ovid MEDLINE(R)

**Datum zoekactie:** 14 september 2022

| # | Searches  | Results |
|---|---|---------|
| 1 | ((excess or displacement) adj (mortalit* or death*)).ti,ab.   | 17552   |
| 2 | excess mortality.hw.  | 738     |
| 3 | 1 or 2  | 17697   |
| 4 | limit 3 to yr="2020 -Current"   | 3662    |
| 5 | limit 4 to (embase or medline) [Limit not valid in Ovid MEDLINE(R),Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily Update,Ovid MEDLINE(R) PubMed not MEDLINE,Ovid MEDLINE(R) In-Process,Ovid MEDLINE(R) Publisher; records were retained] | 2841    |
| 6 | remove duplicates from 5  | 1664    |

## Bijlage 2. Study flow

Figuur. Study flow van de selectie van studies betreffende oversterfte



## Bijlage 3. Uitgesloten onderzoeken

### Uitgesloten studies betreffende oversterfte in specifieke populaties

| Reference                           | Population   |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Burton (2020) <sup>1</sup>          | Care home residents  |
| Canoui-Poitrine (2021) <sup>2</sup> | Nursing home residents   |
| Chen (2020) <sup>3</sup>            | Patients from mental health and community physical health services       |
| Clarke (2022) <sup>4</sup>          | Organ transplant recipients  |
| Costa-Font (2021) <sup>5</sup>      | Nursing home residents   |
| Dashtban (2022) <sup>6</sup>        | Patients with chronic kidney disease                                     |
| Gibertoni (2021) <sup>7</sup>       | Patients with chronic kidney disease that are not on dialysis            |
| Gulliford (2022) <sup>8</sup>       | Care home residents and community dwelling elderly                       |
| Henderson (2022) <sup>9</sup>       | Adults with intellectual disabilities                                    |
| Hua (2022) <sup>10</sup>            | Assisted living residents with Alzheimer's disease and related dementias |
| Kim (2021) <sup>11</sup>            | Patients with kidney failure   |
| Lai (2020) <sup>12</sup>            | Patients with cancer   |
| Lewis (2022) <sup>13</sup>          | Patients with amyloidosis  |
| Martinez-Lopez (2021) <sup>14</sup> | Patients with multiple myeloma   |
| Mascolo (2021) <sup>15</sup>        | Hospitalized patients  |
| Massie (2022) <sup>16</sup>         | Solid organ transplant recipients  |
| Morciano (2021) <sup>17</sup>       | Care home residents  |
| Payne (2022) <sup>18</sup>          | Patients with sickle cell disease  |
| Savage (2022) <sup>19</sup>         | Long-term care residents   |
| Silversmit (2021) <sup>20</sup>     | Patients with cancer   |
| Strang (2021) <sup>21</sup>         | Patients with cancer   |
| Thomas (2021) <sup>22</sup>         | Care home residents  |
| Voci (2022) <sup>23</sup>           | Patients with cardiovascular disease                                     |

### Referenties

1. Burton JK, Bayne G, Evans C, et al. Evolution and effects of COVID-19 outbreaks in care homes: a population analysis in 189 care homes in one geographical region of the UK. *The Lancet Healthy Longevity* 2020;1(1):e21-e31. doi: [https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2666-7568\(20\)30012-X](https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2666-7568(20)30012-X)
2. Canoui-Poitrine F, Rachas A, Thomas M, et al. Magnitude, change over time, demographic characteristics and geographic distribution of excess deaths among nursing home residents during the first wave of COVID-19 in France: A nationwide cohort study. *Age and Ageing* 2021;50(5):1473-81. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ageing/afab098>
3. Chen S, Jones PB, Underwood BR, et al. The early impact of COVID-19 on mental health and community physical health services and their patients' mortality in Cambridgeshire and



- Peterborough, UK. *Journal of Psychiatric Research* 2020;131:244-54. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2020.09.020>
4. Clarke JA, Wiemken TL, Korenblat KM. Excess Mortality Among Solid Organ Transplant Recipients in the United States During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Transplantation* 2022;31 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/TP.0000000000004341>
  5. Costa-Font J, Jimenez M, Viola A. Fatal Underfunding? Explaining COVID-19 Mortality in Spanish Nursing Homes. *Journal of aging and health* 2021;33(7-8):607-17. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/08982643211003794>
  6. Dashtban A, Mizani MA, Denaxas S, et al. A retrospective cohort study predicting and validating impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in individuals with chronic kidney disease. *Kidney International* 2022;102(3):652-60. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.kint.2022.05.015>
  7. Gibertoni D, Reno C, Rucci P, et al. COVID-19 incidence and mortality in non-dialysis chronic kidney disease patients. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(7 July) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0254525>
  8. Gulliford MC, Prevost AT, Clegg A, et al. Mortality of Care Home Residents and Community-Dwelling Controls During the COVID-19 Pandemic in 2020: Matched Cohort Study. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2022;23(6):923-29.e2. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jamda.2022.04.003>
  9. Henderson A, Fleming M, Cooper SA, et al. COVID-19 infection and outcomes in a population-based cohort of 17 203 adults with intellectual disabilities compared with the general population. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2022;76(6):550-55. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2021-218192>
  10. Hua CL, Cornell PY, Zimmerman S, et al. Excess Mortality Among Assisted Living Residents With Dementia During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2022;08 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jamda.2022.07.023>
  11. Kim D, Lee Y, Thorsness R, et al. Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Excess Deaths Among Persons With Kidney Failure During the COVID-19 Pandemic, March-July 2020. *American Journal of Kidney Diseases* 2021;77(5):827-29. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2021.02.003>
  12. Lai AG, Pasea L, Banerjee A, et al. Estimated impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on cancer services and excess 1-year mortality in people with cancer and multimorbidity: Near real-time data on cancer care, cancer deaths and a population-based cohort study. *BMJ Open* 2020;10(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-043828>
  13. Lewis E, Fine N, Miller RJH, et al. Amyloidosis and COVID-19: experience from an amyloid program in Canada. *Annals of Hematology* 2022 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00277-022-04964-y>
  14. Martinez-Lopez J, Hernandez-Ibarburu G, Alonso R, et al. Impact of COVID-19 in patients with multiple myeloma based on a global data network. *Blood Cancer Journal* 2021;11(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41408-021-00588-z>
  15. Mascolo P, Feola A, Sementa C, et al. A Descriptive Study on Causes of Death in Hospitalized Patients in an Acute General Hospital of Southern Italy during the Lockdown due to Covid-19 Outbreak. *Healthcare* 2021;9(2):1-12. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/healthcare9020119>
  16. Massie AB, Werbel WA, Avery RK, et al. Quantifying excess deaths among solid organ transplant recipients in the COVID-19 era. *American Journal of Transplantation* 2022;22(8):2077-82. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/ajt.17036>
  17. Morciano M, Stokes J, Kontopantelis E, et al. Excess mortality for care home residents during the first 23 weeks of the COVID-19 pandemic in England: a national cohort study. *BMC Medicine* 2021;19(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12916-021-01945-2>

18. Payne AB, Schieve LA, Abe K, et al. COVID-19 and Sickle Cell Disease-Related Deaths Reported in the United States. *Public Health Reports* 2022;137(2):234-38. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00333549211063518>
19. Savage RD, Rochon PA, Na Y, et al. Excess Mortality in Long-Term Care Residents With and Without Personal Contact With Family or Friends During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2022;23(3):441-43.e1. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jamda.2021.12.015>
20. Silversmit G, Verdoodt F, Van Damme N, et al. Excess mortality in a nationwide cohort of cancer patients during the initial phase of the COVID-19 pandemic in Belgium. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers and Prevention* 2021;30(9):1615-19. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-21-0230>
21. Strang P, Hedman C, Adlitzer H, et al. Dying from cancer with COVID-19: age, sex, socio-economic status, and comorbidities. *Acta Oncologica* 2021;60(8):1019-24. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0284186X.2021.1934536>
22. Thomas KS, Zhang W, Dosa DM, et al. Estimation of Excess Mortality Rates among US Assisted Living Residents during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *JAMA Network Open* 2021;(no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.13411>
23. Voci D, Fedeli U, Farmakis IT, et al. Deaths related to pulmonary embolism and cardiovascular events before and during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic: An epidemiological analysis of data from an Italian high-risk area. *Thrombosis Research* 2022;212:44-50. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.thromres.2022.02.008>

## Bijlage 4. Initieel ingesloten onderzoeken

| Reference                        | DOI   | Country  | Population  | Selection    |
|----------------------------------|---|--|---|--------------|
| Aburto (2021) <sup>1</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-215505">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-215505</a>                           | UK   | General population  | Not selected |
| Achilleos (2022) <sup>2</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab123">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab123</a>                                     | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Ackley (2022) <sup>3</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.101021">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.101021</a>                     | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Acosta (2022) <sup>4</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/ED.0000000000001445">https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/ED.0000000000001445</a>                     | USA  | General population  | Methods only |
| Akhmetzhanov (2021) <sup>5</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001527">https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001527</a>                         | USA  | General population  | Methods only |
| Alacevich (2021) <sup>6</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hecd.4277">https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hecd.4277</a>   | Italy  | General population, focus on spatial distribution of care homes | Selected     |
| Alicandro (2020) <sup>7</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i15.10786">https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i15.10786</a>                       | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Alicandro (2021) <sup>8</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i2i6.12601">https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i2i6.12601</a>                     | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Alicandro (2022) <sup>9</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i3i3.13092">https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i3i3.13092</a>                     | Italy  | Working age population  | Selected     |
| Alicandro (2022) <sup>10</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i2i2.13108">https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/midl.v11i2i2.13108</a>                     | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Antunes (2021) <sup>11</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211031615">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211031615</a>                         | NA   |   | Methods only |
| Armillei (2021) <sup>12</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jehb.2021.101018">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jehb.2021.101018</a>                       | Italy  | General population, focus on peripheral areas                   | Not selected |
| Astengo (2021) <sup>13</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2021.62.4.2269">https://dx.doi.org/10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2021.62.4.2269</a> | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| Baranski (2021) <sup>14</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18084388">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18084388</a>                               | Poland   | General population  | Not selected |
| Barnard (2021) <sup>15</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-052646">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-052646</a>                     | UK   | General population  | Selected     |
| Barnard (2021) <sup>16</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211046384">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211046384</a>                         | UK   | General population  | Methods only |
| Bartscher (2021) <sup>17</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhealeco.2021.102531">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhealeco.2021.102531</a>               | Austria, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland                     | General population  | Selected     |
| Basellini (2021) <sup>18</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100799">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100799</a>                     | UK   | General population  | Not selected |
| Bell (2022) <sup>19</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10081320">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10081320</a>                           | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Biggeri (2020) <sup>20</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.130">https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.130</a>                           | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Bjork (2021) <sup>21</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab017">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab017</a>                               | Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, UK | General population  | Not selected |
| Blangiardo (2020) <sup>22</sup>  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0240286">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0240286</a>                   | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Bogos (2021) <sup>23</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/por.2021.1609774">https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/por.2021.1609774</a>                           | Europe (specific focus on Hungary)   | General population  | Selected     |
| Bottcher (2021) <sup>24</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00748-2">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00748-2</a>                       | Worldwide  | General population  | Methods only |
| Brinks (2020) <sup>25</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13104-020-05046-w">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13104-020-05046-w</a>                       | NA   |   | Methods only |
| Brinks (2021) <sup>26</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.28023.1">https://dx.doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.28023.1</a>               | NA   |   | Methods only |

| Reference                               | DOI   | Country  | Population  | Selection    |
|---|---|--|---|--------------|
| Buja (2022) <sup>27</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2022.03.002">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2022.03.002</a>   | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| Buonanno (2020) <sup>28</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0239569">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0239569</a>         | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020) <sup>29</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2020-003595">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2020-003595</a>               | Sweden   | General population  | Selected     |
| Caranci (2021) <sup>30</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182413224">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182413224</a>                   | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| Carey (2021) <sup>31</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0260381">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0260381</a>         | UK   | General population  | Selected     |
| Chan (2021) <sup>32</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0256835">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0256835</a>         | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Checchi (2022) <sup>33</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-022-00283-6">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-022-00283-6</a>             | NA   |   | Methods only |
| Chen (2021) <sup>34</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252454">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252454</a>         | USA  | General population  | Selected     |
| Chen (2021) <sup>35</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.7578">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.7578</a>   | USA  | General population  | Selected     |
| Conti (2020) <sup>36</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00458-2020">https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00458-2020</a>           | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Corrao (2021) <sup>37</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0000000000002833">https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0000000000002833</a>         | Belgium, UK, Spain, Italy, Sweden, France, USA, Netherlands, Canada, Germany, Austria  | General population  | Selected     |
| Cronin (2021) <sup>38</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2101386118">https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2101386118</a>                   | USA  | General population  | Selected     |
| Cuong (2021) <sup>39</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdab396">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdab396</a>                     | UK, France, USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Cusack (2020) <sup>40</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2020.102072">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2020.102072</a>             | Ireland  | General population, focus on nursing home residents           | Not selected |
| Cuschieri (2022) <sup>41</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab217">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab217</a>                     | Cyprus, Iceland and Malta  | General population  | Not selected |
| Davies (2021) <sup>42</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23935-x">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23935-x</a>             | UK   | General population  | Not selected |
| De Angelis (2021) <sup>43</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.environres.2021.110777">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.environres.2021.110777</a> | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| De Geyter (2022) <sup>44</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/humrep/deac031">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/humrep/deac031</a>                     | Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Germany, Sweden, France, Austria, Portugal, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Italy, Belgium, Spain | General population  | Selected     |
| de Lusignan (2020) <sup>45</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.08.037">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.08.037</a>             | UK   | General population  | Selected     |
| de Meester (2021) <sup>46</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2020060875">https://dx.doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2020060875</a>                     | Belgium  | General population and patients on kidney replacement therapy | Not selected |
| Demetriou (2022) <sup>47</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab170">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab170</a>                           | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Dorrucchi (2021) <sup>48</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.669209">https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.669209</a>               | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| Dorrucchi (2022) <sup>49</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.4415/ANN_22_01_04">https://dx.doi.org/10.4415/ANN_22_01_04</a>                         | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Fairman (2021) <sup>50</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050361">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050361</a>           | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Faust (2021) <sup>51</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.24243">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.24243</a>                   | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Faust (2022) <sup>52</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.8045">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.8045</a>                     | USA  | General population  | Selected     |
| Faust (2022) <sup>53</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6734">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6734</a>   | USA  | General population  | Selected     |

| Reference                            | DOI   | Country  | Population          | Selection    |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|---------------------|--------------|
| Fazekas-Pongor (2022) <sup>54</sup>  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11357-022-00622-3">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11357-022-00622-3</a>                           | Hungary  | General population  | Selected     |
| Fouillet (2020) <sup>55</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.34.2001485">https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.34.2001485</a> | France   | General population  | Not selected |
| Fraser (2021) <sup>56</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114241">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114241</a>                 | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Gadeyne (2021) <sup>57</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12939-021-01594-0">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12939-021-01594-0</a>                           | Belgium  | General population  | Selected     |
| Geeraedts (2022) <sup>58</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/07334648221093050">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/07334648221093050</a>                             | Netherlands  | General population  | Selected     |
| Gianicolo (2021) <sup>59</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00717-9">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00717-9</a>                           | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Gibertoni (2021) <sup>60</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2021.102508">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2021.102508</a>             | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Gibertoni (2021) <sup>61</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mex.2021.101257">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mex.2021.101257</a>                             | NA   |                     | Methods only |
| Giraud-Gatineau (2021) <sup>62</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jcm10132942">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jcm10132942</a>   | France   | General population  | Not selected |
| Glei (2022) <sup>63</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwac055">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwac055</a>   | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Gobina (2022) <sup>64</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13491-4">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13491-4</a>                           | Latvia   | General population  | Selected     |
| Grande (2022) <sup>65</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19020805">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19020805</a>                                   | Italy  | General population  | Selected     |
| Greenwald (2022) <sup>66</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0262264">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0262264</a>                       | USA  | Medicare recipients | Not selected |
| Habibdoust (2022) <sup>67</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-022-01349-9">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-022-01349-9</a>                           | USA  | General population  | Selected     |
| Hanly (2022) <sup>68</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10198-021-01351-8">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10198-021-01351-8</a>                           | Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland | General population  | Selected     |
| Henry (2022) <sup>69</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-04993-7">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-04993-7</a>                           | Italy  | General population  | Not selected |
| Huang (2022) <sup>70</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27609">https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27609</a>   | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Islam (2021) <sup>71</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n1137">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n1137</a>   | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Jacobson (2020) <sup>72</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.juhe.2020.10.004">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.juhe.2020.10.004</a>                           | USA  | General population  | Not selected |
| Jdanov (2021) <sup>73</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-01019-1">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-01019-1</a>                           | France, Germany, The Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, Poland                           | General population  | Methods only |
| Jin (2021) <sup>74</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2021.03.110">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2021.03.110</a>               | NA   |                     | Methods only |
| Joy (2020) <sup>75</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3399/BJGP20X713393">https://dx.doi.org/10.3399/BJGP20X713393</a>                                     | UK   | General population  | Selected     |
| Joy (2021) <sup>76</sup>             | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2820%2930632-0">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2820%2930632-0</a>             | UK   | General population  | Not selected |
| Juul (2022) <sup>77</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211047137">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211047137</a>                             | Norway, Sweden   | General population  | Not selected |
| Kapitsinis (2021) <sup>78</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12913-021-07169-7">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12913-021-07169-7</a>                           | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Karlinsky (2021) <sup>79</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.69336">https://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.69336</a>   | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Kelly (2021) <sup>80</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001850">https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001850</a>                             | Worldwide  | General population  | Selected     |
| Kirpich (2022) <sup>81</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09345-z">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09345-z</a>                           | Belarus  | General population  | Not selected |
| Kondilis (2021) <sup>82</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.juhe.2021.06.025">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.juhe.2021.06.025</a>                           | Greece   | General population  | Not selected |

| Reference                            | DOI   | Country                                    | Population                 | Selection    |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|----------------------------|--------------|
| Konstantinoudis (2022) <sup>83</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28157-3">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28157-3</a>                         | England, Greece, Italy, Spain, Switzerland | General population         | Not selected |
| Kontis (2020) <sup>84</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1112-0">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1112-0</a>                           | Worldwide                                  | General population         | Selected     |
| Kontopantelis (2021) <sup>85</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-214764">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-214764</a>                             | UK   | General population         | Not selected |
| Kowalli (2021) <sup>86</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0255540">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0255540</a>                     | Germany, Sweden, Spain                     | General population         | Not selected |
| Krieger (2020) <sup>87</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2820%2931234-4">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2820%2931234-4</a>           | USA  | General population         | Not selected |
| Kung (2021) <sup>88</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00766-2020">https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00766-2020</a>                       | Worldwide                                  | General population         | Selected     |
| Lajous (2021) <sup>89</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306430">https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306430</a>                             | USA, Mexico                                | General population         | Not selected |
| Landoni (2021) <sup>90</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.22514/medrxiv.2021.149">https://dx.doi.org/10.22514/medrxiv.2021.149</a>                           | Italy                                      | General population         | Not selected |
| Laurencin (2021) <sup>91</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-021-01010-x">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-021-01010-x</a>                         | USA  | General population         | Selected     |
| Ledberg (2021) <sup>92</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.579948">https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.579948</a>                           | Sweden                                     | General population         | Not selected |
| Leon-Gomez (2021) <sup>93</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/v13122423">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/v13122423</a>   | Spain                                      | General population         | Selected     |
| Levitt (2022) <sup>94</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.environres.2022.113754">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.environres.2022.113754</a>             | Worldwide, high-income countries           | General population         | Selected     |
| Lewis (2021) <sup>95</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050656">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050656</a>                       | UK   | Working age population     | Selected     |
| Lukowsky (2022) <sup>96</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042368">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042368</a>                                 | USA  | Veterans aged 45 and older | Selected     |
| Lundberg (2021) <sup>97</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00777-x">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00777-x</a>                         | Europe                                     | General population         | Selected     |
| Lusa (2020) <sup>98</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EPJ20.5-6.S2.126">https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EPJ20.5-6.S2.126</a>                           | NA   |                            | Methods only |
| Mannucci (2020) <sup>99</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.06.077">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.06.077</a>                         | Italy                                      | General population         | Not selected |
| Marcon (2020) <sup>100</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.18632/aging.103872">https://dx.doi.org/10.18632/aging.103872</a>                                   | Italy                                      | General population         | Not selected |
| Martin (2021) <sup>101</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12911-021-01504-y">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12911-021-01504-y</a>                         | NA   |                            | Methods only |
| Maruotti (2022) <sup>102</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40520-021-02060-1">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40520-021-02060-1</a>                         | Italy                                      | General population         | Not selected |
| Matz (2022) <sup>103</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2022-218786">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2022-218786</a>                             | UK   | Essential workers          | Selected     |
| Mba (2020) <sup>104</sup>            | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-020-01139-z">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-020-01139-z</a>                         | NA   |                            | Methods only |
| McGrail (2022) <sup>105</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.220337">https://dx.doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.220337</a>                                       | Canada                                     | General population         | Not selected |
| Meng (2021) <sup>106</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136883">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136883</a>                                 | Worldwide                                  | General population         | Selected     |
| Michelozzi (2020) <sup>107</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09335-8">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09335-8</a>                         | Italy                                      | General population         | Not selected |
| Modig (2021) <sup>108</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckaa218">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckaa218</a>                                 | Sweden                                     | General population         | Not selected |
| Molenberghs (2022) <sup>109</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2022.27.7.2002060">https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2022.27.7.2002060</a> | Belgium                                    | General population         | Not selected |
| Morfeld (2021) <sup>110</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.663259">https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.663259</a>                           | Germany, Italy                             | General population         | Not selected |
| Motairek (2022) <sup>111</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2022.03.011">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2022.03.011</a>                   | USA  | General population         | Not selected |
| Nemeth (2021) <sup>112</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0246663">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0246663</a>                     | NA   |                            | Methods only |

| Reference                                     | DOI   | Country         | Population                         | Selection    |
|---|---|-----------------|------------------------------------|--------------|
| Nielsen (2021) <sup>113</sup>                 | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-00213-w">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-00213-w</a>                         | Europe          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Nogueirai (2020) <sup>114</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.20344/amp.13928">https://dx.doi.org/10.20344/amp.13928</a>   | Portugal        | General population                 | Not selected |
| Norgaard (2021) <sup>115</sup>                | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2021.26.1.2002023">https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2021.26.1.2002023</a> | Europe          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Odone (2021) <sup>116</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2020.11.016">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2020.11.016</a>                         | Italy           | General population                 | Not selected |
| Oroszi (2021) <sup>117</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-006427">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-006427</a>                           | Hungary         | General population                 | Selected     |
| Oroszi (2022) <sup>118</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jpm12030388">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jpm12030388</a>                                       | Hungary         | General population                 | Not selected |
| Pascal (2021) <sup>119</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2021.02.012">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2021.02.012</a>                         | France          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Pastor-Barriuso (2020) <sup>120</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m4509">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m4509</a>   | Spain           | General population                 | Not selected |
| Perone (2022) <sup>121</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-17215-x">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-17215-x</a>                         | Italy           | General population                 | Not selected |
| Perotti (2022) <sup>122</sup>                 | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19116498">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19116498</a>                                 | Italy           | General population                 | Selected     |
| Pilkington (2021) <sup>123</sup>              | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-12203-8">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-12203-8</a>                         | France          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Pimenoff (2021) <sup>124</sup>                | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1593">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1593</a>                                     | Sweden          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Pimenoff (2021) <sup>125</sup>                | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iji.2021.08.005">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iji.2021.08.005</a>                           | Sweden          | General population                 | Not selected |
| Polyakova (2020) <sup>126</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2014279117">https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2014279117</a>                               | USA             | General population                 | Not selected |
| Polyakova (2021) <sup>127</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02142">https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02142</a>                         | USA             | General population                 | Selected     |
| Portugal (2021) <sup>128</sup>                | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2021/5582589">https://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2021/5582589</a>                                     | Portugal        | General population                 | Not selected |
| Postill (2022) <sup>129</sup>                 | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/32426">https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/32426</a>   | USA             | General population                 | Not selected |
| Preliminary Estimate... (2020) <sup>130</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm6919e5">https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm6919e5</a>                                   | USA             | General population                 | Not selected |
| Quast (2021) <sup>131</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00333549211041550">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00333549211041550</a>                           | USA             | General population                 | Selected     |
| Rangachev (2022) <sup>132</sup>               | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09790-w">https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09790-w</a>                         | Europe          | General population                 | Selected     |
| Reif (2021) <sup>133</sup>                    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2239">https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2239</a>   | USA             | General population                 | Selected     |
| Ricco (2022) <sup>134</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.23750/abm.v93i4.13190">https://dx.doi.org/10.23750/abm.v93i4.13190</a>                             | Italy           | General population                 | Not selected |
| Ricco (2022) <sup>135</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijdr14030043">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijdr14030043</a>                                     | Italy           | General population                 | Not selected |
| Riley (2021) <sup>136</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100860">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100860</a>                       | USA             | General population (Latino people) | Selected     |
| Rivera (2020) <sup>137</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268820002617">https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268820002617</a>                           | USA             | General population                 | Not selected |
| Rizzi (2021) <sup>138</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2025324118">https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2025324118</a>                               | Denmark, Sweden | General population                 | Methods only |
| Rizzi (2022) <sup>139</sup>                   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211027818">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211027818</a>                           | Sweden, Denmark | General population                 | Not selected |
| Rose (2021) <sup>140</sup>                    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-007581">https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-007581</a>                           | Worldwide       | General population                 | Selected     |
| Rossen (2020) <sup>141</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm6942e2">https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm6942e2</a>                                   | USA             | General population                 | Not selected |
| Rossen (2021) <sup>142</sup>                  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm7033a2">https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm7033a2</a>                                   | USA             | General population                 | Selected     |

| Reference                         | DOI   | Country                       | Population                             | Selection    |
|-----------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|--|--------------|
| Rossen (2021) <sup>143</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm7015a4">https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mwr.mm7015a4</a>                                     | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Rovetta (2022) <sup>144</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/36022">https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/36022</a>   | Italy                         | General population                     | Not selected |
| Rubio (2021) <sup>145</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/biostatistics/kxz017">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/biostatistics/kxz017</a>                       | NA                            |  | Methods only |
| Ruhm (2022) <sup>146</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.yjmed.2022.107174">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.yjmed.2022.107174</a>                         | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Rypdal (2021) <sup>147</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18083913">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18083913</a>                                   | Norway, Sweden                | General population                     | Not selected |
| Saavedra (2021) <sup>148</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-021-00259-y">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-021-00259-y</a>                           | Spain                         | General population                     | Not selected |
| Sandrini (2020) <sup>149</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.124">https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.124</a>                               | Italy                         | General population                     | Not selected |
| Sanmarchi (2021) <sup>150</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.17359">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.17359</a>           | Worldwide                     | General population                     | Selected     |
| Scortichini (2020) <sup>151</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyaa169">https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyaa169</a>   | Italy                         | General population                     | Not selected |
| Shannon (2022) <sup>152</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114549">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114549</a>                 | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Shiels (2021) <sup>153</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M20-7385">https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M20-7385</a>   | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Shiels (2021) <sup>154</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2134">https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2134</a>   | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Shkolnikov (2022) <sup>155</sup>  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2022.101118">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2022.101118</a>                         | Worldwide                     | General population                     | Methods only |
| Sinnathamby (2020) <sup>156</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.28.2001239">https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.28.2001239</a> | UK                            | General population                     | Not selected |
| Solanes (2021) <sup>157</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3967/bes.2021.120">https://dx.doi.org/10.3967/bes.2021.120</a>                                       | Spain                         | General population                     | Not selected |
| Stang (2020) <sup>158</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.09.012">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.09.012</a>                           | Germany                       | General population                     | Not selected |
| Staub (2022) <sup>159</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-3824">https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-3824</a>   | Switzerland, Sweden and Spain | General population                     | Not selected |
| Stein (2021) <sup>160</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10943-021-01307-5">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10943-021-01307-5</a>                           | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Stokes (2021) <sup>161</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003571">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003571</a>                       | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Stokes (2021) <sup>162</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.25287">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.25287</a>           | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Stoto (2022) <sup>163</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0265053">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0265053</a>                       | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Strang (2020) <sup>164</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03009734.2020.1828513">https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03009734.2020.1828513</a>                     | Sweden                        | General population                     | Selected     |
| Strongman (2022) <sup>165</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003870">https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003870</a>                       | UK                            | General population                     | Selected     |
| Tarazi (2021) <sup>166</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02521">https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02521</a>                           | USA                           | Medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries | Selected     |
| Tatar (2021) <sup>167</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2020.306130">https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2020.306130</a>                               | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Tatar (2021) <sup>168</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306340">https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306340</a>                               | USA                           | General population                     | Not selected |
| Touraine (2020) <sup>169</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0962280218823234">https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0962280218823234</a>                               | NA                            |  | Methods only |
| Traub (2021) <sup>170</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0000000000001344">https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0000000000001344</a>                       | USA                           | General population                     | Selected     |
| Van Asten (2021) <sup>171</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3201/EID2702.202999">https://dx.doi.org/10.3201/EID2702.202999</a>                                   | Netherlands                   | General population                     | Selected     |
| Vanthomme (2021) <sup>172</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100797">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100797</a>                         | Belgium                       | Immigrants                             | Selected     |



| Reference                          | DOI   | Country              | Population                                | Selection    |
|------------------------------------|---|----------------------|---|--------------|
| Verbeeck (2021) <sup>173</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/biom.13578">https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/biom.13578</a>   | Belgium, Netherlands | General population                        | Selected     |
| Vestergaard (2020) <sup>174</sup>  | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.26.2001214">https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.26.2001214</a> | Europe               | General population                        | Not selected |
| Vieira (2020) <sup>175</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/jegh.k.200628.001">https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/jegh.k.200628.001</a>                             | Portugal             | General population                        | Not selected |
| Vladescu (2022) <sup>176</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.18683/germs.2022.1320">https://dx.doi.org/10.18683/germs.2022.1320</a>                               | Romania              | General population                        | Not selected |
| von Cube (2021) <sup>177</sup>     | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-021-01349-z">https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-021-01349-z</a>                           | NA                   |   | Methods only |
| Vu (2022) <sup>178</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/iid3.661">https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/iid3.661</a>   | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Walkowiak (2022) <sup>179</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063692">https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063692</a>                                   | Poland               | General population                        | Not selected |
| Wallace (2021) <sup>180</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamahealthforum.2021.2861">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamahealthforum.2021.2861</a>             | USA                  | General population, influence of medicare | Not selected |
| Wang (2022) <sup>181</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2821%2902796-3">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2821%2902796-3</a>             | Worldwide            | General population                        | Selected     |
| Watson (2022) <sup>182</sup>       | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2822%2900320-6">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2822%2900320-6</a>             | Worldwide            | General population, by vaccine status     | Selected     |
| Weinberger (2020) <sup>183</sup>   | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.3391">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.3391</a>                 | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Weitkunat (2021) <sup>184</sup>    | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.4414/smw.2021.w30030">https://dx.doi.org/10.4414/smw.2021.w30030</a>                                 | NA                   |   | Methods only |
| Wiemken (2021) <sup>185</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2021.03.013">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2021.03.013</a>                           | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Wollschlager (2022) <sup>186</sup> | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00103-021-03465-z">https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00103-021-03465-z</a>                           | Germany              | General population                        | Not selected |
| Woolf (2020) <sup>187</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.11787">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.11787</a>                                 | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Woolf (2020) <sup>188</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.19545">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.19545</a>                                 | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Woolf (2021) <sup>189</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2021.5199">https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2021.5199</a>                                   | USA                  | General population                        | Not selected |
| Wu (2021) <sup>190</sup>           | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2021.02.007">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2021.02.007</a>                       | UK                   | General population                        | Selected     |
| Yoneoka (2021) <sup>191</sup>      | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.9182">https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.9182</a>   | NA                   |   | Methods only |
| Zalla (2022) <sup>192</sup>        | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306541">https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306541</a>                               | USA                  | General population                        | Selected     |
| Zhou (2022) <sup>193</sup>         | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2022.03.011">https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2022.03.011</a>                           | Europe               | General population, focus on vaccination  | Selected     |
| Zhu (2021) <sup>194</sup>          | <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306315">https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306315</a>                               | USA                  | General population                        | Selected     |

## Referenties

1. Aburto JM, Kashyap R, Scholey J, et al. Estimating the burden of the COVID-19 pandemic on mortality, life expectancy and lifespan inequality in England and Wales: a population-level analysis. *Journal of epidemiology and community health* 2021;75(8):735-40. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-215505>
2. Achilleos S, Quattrocchi A, Gabel J, et al. Excess all-cause mortality and COVID-19-related mortality: a temporal analysis in 22 countries, from January until August 2020. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 2022;51(1):35-53. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab123>

3. Ackley CA, Lundberg DJ, Ma L, et al. County-level estimates of excess mortality associated with COVID-19 in the United States. *SSM - Population Health* 2022;17 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.101021>
4. Acosta RJ, Irizarry RA. A Flexible Statistical Framework for Estimating Excess Mortality. *Epidemiology* 2022;33(3):346-53. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/EDE.0000000000001445>
5. Akhmetzhanov AR. Estimation of delay-adjusted all-cause excess mortality in the USA: March-December 2020. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001527>
6. Alacevich C, Cavalli N, Giuntella O, et al. The presence of care homes and excess deaths during the COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence from Italy. *Health Economics (United Kingdom)* 2021;30(7):1703-10. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hec.4277>
7. Alicandro G, Remuzzi G, La Vecchia C. COVID-19 pandemic and total mortality in the first six months of 2020 in Italy. *La Medicina del lavoro* 2020;111(5):351-53. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/mdl.v111i5.10786>
8. Alicandro G, Remuzzi G, Centanni S, et al. Excess total mortality in 2021 in Italy was about one third of that observed in 2020. *La Medicina del lavoro* 2021;112(6):414-21. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/mdl.v112i6.12601>
9. Alicandro G, Remuzzi G, Centanni S, et al. No excess mortality among working-age Italians during the Omicron wave of Covid-19. *La Medicina del lavoro* 2022;113(3):e2022030. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/mdl.v113i3.13092>
10. Alicandro G, Remuzzi G, Centanni S, et al. Excess total mortality during the Covid-19 pandemic in Italy: updated estimates indicate persistent excess in recent months. *La Medicina del lavoro* 2022;113(2):e2022021. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23749/mdl.v113i2.13108>
11. Antunes L, Mendonca D, Bento MJ, et al. Dealing with missing information on covariates for excess mortality hazard regression models - Making the imputation model compatible with the substantive model. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2021;30(10):2256-68. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211031615>
12. Armillei F, Filippucci F, Fletcher T. Did Covid-19 hit harder in peripheral areas? The case of Italian municipalities. *Economics and Human Biology* 2021;42 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ehb.2021.101018>
13. Astengo M, Tassinari F, Paganino C, et al. Weight of risk factors for mortality and short-term mortality displacement during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene* 2021;62(4):E864-E70. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2021.62.4.2269>
14. Baranski K, Brozek G, Kowalska M, et al. Impact of covid-19 pandemic on total mortality in Poland. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(8) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18084388>
15. Barnard S, Fryers P, Fitzpatrick J, et al. Inequalities in excess premature mortality in England during the COVID-19 pandemic: A cross-sectional analysis of cumulative excess mortality by area deprivation and ethnicity. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-052646>
16. Barnard S, Chiavenna C, Fox S, et al. Methods for modelling excess mortality across England during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211046384>
17. Bartscher AK, Seitz S, Siegloch S, et al. Social capital and the spread of covid-19: Insights from european countries. *Journal of Health Economics* 2021;80 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhealeco.2021.102531>

18. Basellini U, Alburez-Gutierrez D, Del Fava E, et al. Linking excess mortality to mobility data during the first wave of COVID-19 in England and Wales. *SSM - Population Health* 2021;14 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100799>
19. Bell E, Brassel S, Oliver E, et al. Estimates of the Global Burden of COVID-19 and the Value of Broad and Equitable Access to COVID-19 Vaccines. *Vaccines* 2022;10(8) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10081320>
20. Biggeri A, Lagazio C, Catelan D, et al. A municipality-level analysis of excess mortality in Italy in the period January-April 2020. *Epidemiologia e Prevenzione* 2020;44(5-6 Suppl 2):297-306. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.130>
21. Bjork J, Mattisson K, Ahlbom A. Impact of winter holiday and government responses on mortality in Europe during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. *European journal of public health* 2021;31(2):272-77. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab017>
22. Blangiardo M, Cameletti M, Pirani M, et al. Estimating weekly excess mortality at sub-national level in Italy during the COVID-19 pandemic. *PLoS ONE [Electronic Resource]* 2020;15(10):e0240286. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0240286>
23. Bogos K, Kiss Z, Kerpel Fronius A, et al. Different Trends in Excess Mortality in a Central European Country Compared to Main European Regions in the Year of the COVID-19 Pandemic (2020): a Hungarian Analysis. *Pathology and Oncology Research* 2021;27 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/pore.2021.1609774>
24. Bottcher L, D'Orsogna MR, Chou T. Using excess deaths and testing statistics to determine COVID-19 mortalities. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2021;36(5):545-58. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00748-2>
25. Brinks R, Tonnie T, Hoyer A. Assessing two methods for estimating excess mortality of chronic diseases from aggregated data. *BMC research notes* 2020;13(1):216. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13104-020-05046-w>
26. Brinks R, Tonnie T, Hoyer A. Impact of diagnostic accuracy on the estimation of excess mortality from incidence and prevalence: Simulation study and application to diabetes in German men. *F1000Research* 2021;10 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.28023.1>
27. Buja A, Paganini M, Fusinato R, et al. Health and healthcare variables associated with Italy's excess mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic: An ecological study. *Health Policy* 2022;126(4):294-301. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2022.03.002>
28. Buonanno P, Galletta S, Puca M. Estimating the severity of COVID-19: Evidence from the Italian epicenter. *PLoS ONE* 2020;15(10 October) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0239569>
29. Calderon-Larranaga A, Vetrano DL, Rizzuto D, et al. High excess mortality in areas with young and socially vulnerable populations during the COVID-19 outbreak in Stockholm Region, Sweden. *BMJ Global Health* 2020;5(10):10. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2020-003595>
30. Caranci N, Di Girolamo C, Bartolini L, et al. General and COVID-19-Related Mortality by Pre-Existing Chronic Conditions and Care Setting during 2020 in Emilia-Romagna Region, Italy. *International Journal of Environmental Research & Public Health [Electronic Resource]* 2021;18(24):15. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182413224>
31. Carey IM, Cook DG, Harris T, et al. Risk factors for excess all-cause mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in England: A retrospective cohort study of primary care data. *PLoS ONE [Electronic Resource]* 2021;16(12):e0260381. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0260381>

32. Chan EYS, Cheng D, Martin J. Impact of COVID-19 on excess mortality, life expectancy, and years of life lost in the United States. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(9 September) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0256835>
33. Checchi F, Testa A, Gimma A, et al. A method for small-area estimation of population mortality in settings affected by crises. *Population Health Metrics* 2022;20(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-022-00283-6>
34. Chen YH, Glymour M, Riley A, et al. Excess mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic among Californians 18-65 years of age, by occupational sector and occupation: March through November 2020. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(6 June) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252454>
35. Chen YH, Glymour MM, Catalano R, et al. Excess Mortality in California during the Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pandemic, March to August 2020. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2021;181(5):705-07. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.7578>
36. Conti S, Ferrara P, Mazzaglia G, et al. Magnitude and time-course of excess mortality during COVID-19 outbreak: Population-based empirical evidence from highly impacted provinces in northern Italy. *ERJ Open Research* 2020;6(3):1-9. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00458-2020>
37. Corrao G, Rea F, Blangiardo GC. Lessons from COVID-19 mortality data across countries. *Journal of hypertension* 2021;39(5):856-60. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0000000000002833>
38. Cronin CJ, Evans WN. Excess mortality from COVID and non-COVID causes in minority populations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2021;118(39) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2101386118>
39. Cuong VM. Early-death weeks associated with COVID-19: a comparison among France, the UK and the USA. *Journal of public health* 2021;21 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdab396>
40. Cusack DA. COVID-19 pandemic: Coroner's database of death inquiries with clinical epidemiology and total and excess mortality analyses in the District of Kildare March to June 2020. *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine* 2020;76 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2020.102072>
41. Cuschieri S, Pallari E, Hatziyianni A, et al. A year of Covid-19: experiences and lessons learnt by small European island states-Cyprus, Iceland and Malta. *European journal of public health* 2022;32(2):316-21. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckab217>
42. Davies B, Parkes BL, Bennett J, et al. Community factors and excess mortality in first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in England. *Nature Communications* 2021;12(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23935-x>
43. De Angelis E, Renzetti S, Volta M, et al. COVID-19 incidence and mortality in Lombardy, Italy: An ecological study on the role of air pollution, meteorological factors, demographic and socioeconomic variables. *Environmental Research* 2021;195 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.110777>
44. De Geyter C, Masciocchi M, Gobrecht-Keller U. Excess mortality caused by the COVID-19 pandemic negatively impacts birth numbers in European countries. *Human Reproduction* 2022;37(4):822-27. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/humrep/deac031>
45. de Lusignan S, Joy M, Oke J, et al. Disparities in the excess risk of mortality in the first wave of COVID-19: Cross sectional study of the English sentinel network. *Journal of Infection* 2020;81(5):785-92. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.08.037>
46. de Meester J, de Bacquer D, Naesens M, et al. Incidence, characteristics, and outcome of COVID-19 in adults on kidney replacement therapy: A regionwide registry study. *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology* 2021;32(2):385-96. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2020060875>
47. Demetriou CA, Achilleos S, Quattrocchi A, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on total, sex- and age-specific all-cause mortality in 20 countries worldwide during 2020: results from the C-MOR

- project. *International journal of epidemiology* 2022;27 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyac170>
48. Dorrucchi M, Minelli G, Boros S, et al. Excess Mortality in Italy During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Assessing the Differences Between the First and the Second Wave, Year 2020. *Frontiers in public health* 2021;9:669209. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.669209>
  49. Dorrucchi M, Minelli G, Boros S, et al. A population-based cohort approach to assess excess mortality due to the spread of COVID-19 in Italy, January-May 2020. *Annali dell'Istituto superiore di sanita* 2022;58(1):25-33. doi: [https://dx.doi.org/10.4415/ANN\\_22\\_01\\_04](https://dx.doi.org/10.4415/ANN_22_01_04)
  50. Fairman KA, Goodlet KJ, Rucker JD, et al. Unexplained mortality during the US COVID-19 pandemic: retrospective analysis of death certificate data and critical assessment of excess death calculations. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050361>
  51. Faust JS, Krumholz HM, Du C, et al. All-Cause Excess Mortality and COVID-19-Related Mortality among US Adults Aged 25-44 Years, March-July 2020. *JAMA - Journal of the American Medical Association* 2021;325(8):785-87. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.24243>
  52. Faust JS, Du C, Liang C, et al. Excess Mortality in Massachusetts during the Delta and Omicron Waves of COVID-19. *Jama* 2022;328(1):74-76. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.8045>
  53. Faust JS, Chen AJ, Nguemeni T, et al. Leading Causes of Death among Adults Aged 25 to 44 Years by Race and Ethnicity in Texas during the COVID-19 Pandemic, March to December 2020. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2022;182(1):87-90. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6734>
  54. Fazekas-Pongor V, Szarvas Z, Nagy ND, et al. Different patterns of excess all-cause mortality by age and sex in Hungary during the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> waves of the COVID-19 pandemic. *GeroScience* 2022 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11357-022-00622-3>
  55. Fouillet A, Pontais I, Caserio-Schonemann C. Excess all-cause mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 epidemic in France, March to May 2020. *Euro Surveillance: Bulletin Europeen sur les Maladies Transmissibles = European Communicable Disease Bulletin* 2020;25(34):08. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.34.2001485>
  56. Fraser T, Aldrich DP, Page-Tan C. Bowling alone or distancing together? The role of social capital in excess death rates from COVID19. *Social Science and Medicine* 2021;284 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114241>
  57. Gadeyne S, Rodriguez-Loureiro L, Surkyn J, et al. Are we really all in this together? The social patterning of mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in Belgium. *International Journal for Equity in Health* 2021;20(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12939-021-01594-0>
  58. Geeraedts F, Luttje M, Visschedijk J, et al. Low-Threshold Testing for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) in Long-Term Care Facilities Early in the First Pandemic Wave, the Twente Region, the Netherlands: A Possible Factor in Reducing Morbidity and Mortality. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2022;41(8):1802-11. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/07334648221093050>
  59. Gianicolo EAL, Russo A, Buchler B, et al. Gender specific excess mortality in Italy during the COVID-19 pandemic accounting for age. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2021;36(2):213-18. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00717-9>
  60. Gibertoni D, Adja KYC, Golinelli D, et al. Patterns of COVID-19 related excess mortality in the municipalities of Northern Italy during the first wave of the pandemic. *Health and Place* 2021;67 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2021.102508>
  61. Gibertoni D, Sanmarchi F, Adja KYC, et al. Small-scale spatial distribution of COVID-19-related excess mortality. *MethodsX* 2021;8 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mex.2021.101257>

62. Giraud-Gatineau A, Gautret P, Colson P, et al. Article evaluation of strategies to fight covid-19: The french paradigm. *Journal of Clinical Medicine* 2021;10(13) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jcm10132942>
63. Gleit DA. The US Midlife Mortality Crisis Continues: Excess Cause-Specific Mortality During 2020. *American journal of epidemiology* 2022;24 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwac055>
64. Gobina I, Avotins A, Kojalo U, et al. Excess mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic in Latvia: a population-level analysis of all-cause and noncommunicable disease deaths in 2020. *BMC public health* 2022;22(1):1109. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13491-4>
65. Grande E, Fedeli U, Pappagallo M, et al. Variation in Cause-Specific Mortality Rates in Italy during the First Wave of the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Study Based on Nationwide Data. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(2) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19020805>
66. Greenwald SD, Chamoun NG, Manberg PJ, et al. Covid-19 and excess mortality in medicare beneficiaries. *PLoS ONE* 2022;17(2 February) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0262264>
67. Habibdoust A, Tatar M, Wilson FA. Estimating Excess Deaths by Race/Ethnicity in the State of California During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of racial and ethnic health disparities* 2022;11 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-022-01349-9>
68. Hanly P, Ahern M, Sharp L, et al. The cost of lost productivity due to premature mortality associated with COVID-19: a Pan-European study. *European Journal of Health Economics* 2022;23(2):249-59. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10198-021-01351-8>
69. Henry NJ, Elagali A, Nguyen M, et al. Variation in excess all-cause mortality by age, sex, and province during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in Italy. *Scientific reports* 2022;12(1):1077. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-04993-7>
70. Huang C, Yang L, Pan J, et al. Correlation between vaccine coverage and the COVID-19 pandemic throughout the world: Based on real-world data. *Journal of Medical Virology* 2022;94(5):2181-87. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27609>
71. Islam N, Shkolnikov VM, Acosta RJ, et al. Excess deaths associated with covid-19 pandemic in 2020: Age and sex disaggregated time series analysis in 29 high income countries. *The BMJ* 2021;373 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n1137>
72. Jacobson SH, Jokela JA. Non-COVID-19 excess deaths by age and gender in the United States during the first three months of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Public Health* 2020;189:101-03. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2020.10.004>
73. Jdanov DA, Galarza AA, Shkolnikov VM, et al. The short-term mortality fluctuation data series, monitoring mortality shocks across time and space. *Scientific data* 2021;8(1):235. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-01019-1>
74. Jin R, Grunkemeier GL, Furnary AP. Continuous Monitoring of Risk-Adjusted Outcomes: Excess Deaths vs Lives Saved. *Annals of Thoracic Surgery* 2021;112(2):368-72. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2021.03.110>
75. Joy M, Richard H, F D, et al. Excess mortality in the first COVID pandemic peak: Cross-sectional analyses of the impact of age, sex, ethnicity, household size, and long-term conditions in people of known SARS-CoV-2 status in England. *British Journal of General Practice* 2020;70(701):E890-E98. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3399/BJGP20X713393>
76. Joy M, Hobbs FDR, McGagh D, et al. Excess mortality from COVID-19 in an English sentinel network population. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 2021;21(4):e74. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2820%2930632-0>

77. Juul FE, Jodal HC, Barua I, et al. Mortality in Norway and Sweden during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Scandinavian journal of public health* 2022;50(1):38-45. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211047137>
78. Kapitsinis N. The underlying factors of excess mortality in 2020: a cross-country analysis of pre-pandemic healthcare conditions and strategies to cope with Covid-19. *BMC health services research* 2021;21(1):1197. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12913-021-07169-7>
79. Karlinsky A, Kobak D. Tracking excess mortality across countries during the covid-19 pandemic with the world mortality dataset. *eLife* 2021;10 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.69336>
80. Kelly G, Petti S, Noah N. Covid-19, non-Covid-19 and excess mortality rates not comparable across countries. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001850>
81. Kirpich A, Shishkin A, Weppelmann TA, et al. Excess mortality in Belarus during the COVID-19 pandemic as the case study of a country with limited non-pharmaceutical interventions and limited reporting. *Scientific reports* 2022;12(1):5475. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09345-z>
82. Kondilis E, Tarantilis F, Benos A. Essential public healthcare services utilization and excess non-COVID-19 mortality in Greece. *Public Health* 2021;198:85-88. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2021.06.025>
83. Konstantinoudis G, Cameletti M, Gomez-Rubio V, et al. Regional excess mortality during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic in five European countries. *Nat Commun* 2022;13(1):482. doi: [10.1038/s41467-022-28157-3](https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28157-3) [published Online First: 20220125]
84. Kontis V, Bennett JE, Rashid T, et al. Magnitude, demographics and dynamics of the effect of the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic on all-cause mortality in 21 industrialized countries. *Nature Medicine* 2020;26(12):1919-28. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1112-0>
85. Kontopantelis E, Mamas MA, Deanfield J, et al. Excess mortality in England and Wales during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of epidemiology and community health* 2021;75(3):213-23. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2020-214764>
86. Kowalli B, Standl F, Oesterlingi F, et al. Excess mortality due to Covid-19? A comparison of total mortality in 2020 with total mortality in 2016 to 2019 in Germany, Sweden and Spain. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(8 August) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0255540>
87. Krieger N, Chen JT, Waterman PD. Excess mortality in men and women in Massachusetts during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet* 2020;395(10240):1829. doi: [https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)32931-4](https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)32931-4)
88. Kung S, Doppen M, Black M, et al. Underestimation of covid-19 mortality during the pandemic. *ERJ Open Research* 2021;7(1):1-7. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1183/23120541.00766-2020>
89. Lajous M, Huerta-Gutierrez R, Kennedy J, et al. Excess Deaths in Mexico City and New York City During the COVID-19 Pandemic, March to August 2020. *American journal of public health* 2021;111(10):1847-50. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306430>
90. Landoni G, Faustini C, Marmiere M, et al. Estimating sars-cov-2 infection fatality rate using data from one of the most affected areas worldwide. *Signa Vitae* 2021;17(5):30-33. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.22514/sv.2021.149>
91. Laurencin CT, Wu ZH, McClinton A, et al. Excess Deaths Among Blacks and Latinx Compared to Whites During Covid-19. *Journal of racial and ethnic health disparities* 2021;8(3):783-89. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40615-021-01010-x>
92. Ledberg A. Mortality of the COVID-19 Outbreak in Sweden in Relation to Previous Severe Disease Outbreaks. *Frontiers in public health* 2021;9:579948. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.579948>

93. Leon-Gomez I, Mazagatos C, Delgado-Sanz C, et al. The impact of COVID-19 on mortality in Spain: Monitoring excess mortality (MoMo) and the surveillance of confirmed COVID-19 deaths. *Viruses* 2021;13(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/v13122423>
94. Levitt M, Zonta F, Ioannidis JPA. Comparison of pandemic excess mortality in 2020-2021 across different empirical calculations. *Environmental Research* 2022;213 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2022.113754>
95. Lewis SJ, Dack K, Relton CL, et al. Was the risk of death among the population of teachers and other school workers in England and Wales due to COVID-19 and all causes higher than other occupations during the pandemic in 2020? An ecological study using routinely collected data on deaths from the Office for National Statistics. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050656>
96. Lukowsky LR, Der-Martirosian C, Dobalian A. Disparities in Excess, All-Cause Mortality among Black, Hispanic and White Veterans at the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(4) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042368>
97. Lundberg JO, Zeberg H. Longitudinal variability in mortality predicts COVID-19 deaths. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2021;36(6):599-603. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00777-x>
98. Lusa L. Identifying the Italian provinces with increased mortality during COVID-19 epidemics using the data made available by the Italian National Institute of Statistics. A methodological challenge. *Epidemiologia e Prevenzione* 2020;44(5-6 Suppl 2):260-70. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.126>
99. Mannucci E, Nreu B, Monami M. Factors associated with increased all-cause mortality during the COVID-19 pandemic in Italy. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2020;98:121-24. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.06.077>
100. Marcon G, Tettamanti M, Capacci G, et al. COVID-19 mortality in Lombardy: the vulnerability of the oldest old and the resilience of male centenarians. *Aging* 2020;12(15):15186-95. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18632/aging.103872>
101. Martin C, McDonald S, Bale S, et al. Construction of a demand and capacity model for intensive care and hospital ward beds, and mortality from COVID-19. *BMC medical informatics and decision making* 2021;21(1):138. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12911-021-01504-y>
102. Maruotti A, Jona-Lasinio G, Divino F, et al. Estimating COVID-19-induced excess mortality in Lombardy, Italy. *Aging Clinical and Experimental Research* 2022;34(2):475-79. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40520-021-02060-1>
103. Matz M, Allemanni C, Van Tongeren M, et al. Excess mortality among essential workers in England and Wales during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2022;76(7):660-66. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech-2022-218786>
104. Mba RD, Goungounga JA, Graffeo N, et al. Correcting inaccurate background mortality in excess hazard models through breakpoints. *BMC medical research methodology* 2020;20(1):268. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-020-01139-z>
105. McGrail K. Excess mortality, COVID-19 and health care systems in Canada. *Cmaj* 2022;194(21):E741-E45. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.220337>
106. Meng Y, Wong MS, Xing H, et al. Assessing the country-level excess all-cause mortality and the impacts of air pollution and human activity during the covid-19 epidemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(13) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18136883>



107. Michelozzi P, de'Donato F, Scortichini M, et al. Temporal dynamics in total excess mortality and COVID-19 deaths in Italian cities. *BMC public health* 2020;20(1):1238. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09335-8>
108. Modig K, Ahlbom A, Ebeling M. Excess mortality from COVID-19: weekly excess death rates by age and sex for Sweden and its most affected region. *European journal of public health* 2021;31(1):17-22. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckaa218>
109. Molenberghs G, Faes C, Verbeeck J, et al. COVID-19 mortality, excess mortality, deaths per million and infection fatality ratio, Belgium, 9 March 2020 to 28 June 2020. *Eurosurveillance* 2022;27(7) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2022.27.7.2002060>
110. Morfeld P, Timmermann B, Gross JV, et al. COVID-19: Heterogeneous Excess Mortality and "Burden of Disease" in Germany and Italy and Their States and Regions, January-June 2020. *Frontiers in public health* 2021;9:663259. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.663259>
111. Motarek I, Janus SE, Hajjari J, et al. Social Vulnerability and Excess Mortality in the COVID-19 Era. *American Journal of Cardiology* 2022;172:172-74. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2022.03.011>
112. Nemeth L, Jdanov DA, Shkolnikov VM. An open-sourced, web-based application to analyze weekly excess mortality based on the short-term mortality fluctuations data series. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(2 February) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0246663>
113. Nielsen J, Norgaard SK, Lanzieri G, et al. Sex-differences in COVID-19 associated excess mortality is not exceptional for the COVID-19 pandemic. *Scientific reports* 2021;11(1):20815. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-00213-w>
114. Nogueirai PJ, De Araujo Nobre M, Nicola PJ, et al. Excess mortality estimation during the COVID-19 pandemic: Preliminary data from Portugal. *Acta Medica Portuguesa* 2020;33(6):376-83. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.20344/amp.13928>
115. Norgaard SK, Vestergaard LS, Nielsen J, et al. Real-time monitoring shows substantial excess all-cause mortality during second wave of COVID-19 in Europe, October to December 2020. *Eurosurveillance* 2021;26(2) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2021.26.1.2002023>
116. Odone A, Delmonte D, Gaetti G, et al. Doubled mortality rate during the COVID-19 pandemic in Italy: quantifying what is not captured by surveillance. *Public Health* 2021;190:108-15. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2020.11.016>
117. Oroszi B, Juhasz A, Nagy C, et al. Unequal burden of COVID-19 in Hungary: A geographical and socioeconomic analysis of the second wave of the pandemic. *BMJ Global Health* 2021;6(9) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-006427>
118. Oroszi B, Juhasz A, Nagy C, et al. Characteristics of the Third COVID-19 Pandemic Wave with Special Focus on Socioeconomic Inequalities in Morbidity, Mortality and the Uptake of COVID-19 Vaccination in Hungary. *Journal of Personalized Medicine* 2022;12(3) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jpm12030388>
119. Pascal M, Lagarrigue R, Laaidi K, et al. Have health inequities, the COVID-19 pandemic and climate change led to the deadliest heatwave in France since 2003? *Public Health* 2021;194:143-45. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2021.02.012>
120. Pastor-Barriuso R, Perez-Gomez B, Hernan MA, et al. Infection fatality risk for SARS-CoV-2 in community dwelling population of Spain: Nationwide seroepidemiological study. *The BMJ* 2020;371 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m4509>
121. Perone G. Assessing the impact of long-term exposure to nine outdoor air pollutants on COVID-19 spatial spread and related mortality in 107 Italian provinces. *Scientific reports* 2022;12(1):13317. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-17215-x>

122. Perotti P, Bertuccio P, Cacitti S, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Total and Cause-Specific Mortality in Pavia, Northern Italy. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(11) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19116498>
123. Pilkington H, Feuillet T, Rican S, et al. Spatial determinants of excess all-cause mortality during the first wave of the COVID-19 epidemic in France. *BMC public health* 2021;21(1):2157. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-12203-8>
124. Pimenoff VN, Elfstrom M, Baussano I, et al. Estimating Total Excess Mortality during a Coronavirus Disease 2019 Outbreak in Stockholm, Sweden. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2021;72(11):E890-E92. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1593>
125. Pimenoff VN, Bjornstedt M, Dillner J. Severe features during outbreak but low mortality observed immediately before and after a March-May 2020 COVID-19 outbreak in Stockholm, Sweden. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2021;110:433-35. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2021.08.005>
126. Polyakova M, Kocks G, Udalova V, et al. Initial economic damage from the COVID-19 pandemic in the United States is more widespread across ages and geographies than initial mortality impacts. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2020;117(45):27934-39. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2014279117>
127. Polyakova M, Udalova V, Kocks G, et al. Racial disparities in excess all-cause mortality during the early covid-19 pandemic varied substantially across states. *Health Affairs* 2021;40(2):307-16. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02142>
128. Portugal L. Mortality and Excess Mortality: Improving FluMOMO. *Journal of Environmental and Public Health* 2021;2021 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2021/5582589>
129. Postill G, Murray R, Wilton AS, et al. The Use of Cremation Data for Timely Mortality Surveillance During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Ontario, Canada: Validation Study. *JMIR public health and surveillance* 2022;8(2):e32426. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/32426>
130. Preliminary Estimate of Excess Mortality During the COVID-19 Outbreak - New York City, March 11-May 2, 2020. *Mmwr* 2020;Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 69(19):603-05. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6919e5>
131. Quast T, Anzel R. Excess Mortality Associated With COVID-19 by Demographic Group: Evidence From Florida and Ohio. *Public Health Reports* 2021;136(6):782-90. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00333549211041550>
132. Rangachev A, Marinov GK, Mladenov M. The demographic and geographic impact of the COVID pandemic in Bulgaria and Eastern Europe in 2020. *Scientific reports* 2022;12(1):6333. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-09790-w>
133. Reif J, Heun-Johnson H, Tysinger B, et al. Measuring the COVID-19 Mortality Burden in the United States: A Microsimulation Study. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(12):1700-09. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2239>
134. Ricco M. Excess mortality in Mountain Areas of Emilia Romagna Region during the first months of SARS-CoV-2 pandemic: a "canary in the coal mine"? *Acta Biomedica* 2022;93(4) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.23750/abm.v93i4.13190>
135. Ricco M, Ferraro P, Peruzzi S, et al. Excess Mortality on Italian Small Islands during the SARS-CoV-2 Pandemic: An Ecological Study. *Infectious Disease Reports* 2022;14(3):391-412. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/idr14030043>
136. Riley AR, Chen YH, Matthay EC, et al. Excess mortality among Latino people in California during the COVID-19 pandemic. *SSM - Population Health* 2021;15 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100860>

137. Rivera R, Rosenbaum JE, Quispe W. Excess mortality in the united states during the first three months of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2020 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268820002617>
138. Rizzi S, Vaupel JW. Short-term forecasts of expected deaths. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2021;118(15):13. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2025324118>
139. Rizzi S, Sogaard J, Vaupel JW. High excess deaths in Sweden during the first wave of COVID-19: Policy deficiencies or 'dry tinder'? *Scandinavian journal of public health* 2022;50(1):33-37. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/14034948211027818>
140. Rose SM, Paterra M, Isaac C, et al. Analysing COVID-19 outcomes in the context of the 2019 Global Health Security (GHS) Index. *BMJ Global Health* 2021;6(12) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-007581>
141. Rossen LM, Branum AM, Ahmad FB, et al. Excess Deaths Associated with COVID-19, by Age and Race and Ethnicity - United States, January 26-October 3, 2020. *Mmwr* 2020;Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 69(42):1522-27. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6942e2>
142. Rossen LM, Ahmad FB, Anderson RN, et al. Disparities in Excess Mortality Associated with COVID-19 - United States, 2020. *Mmwr* 2021;Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 70(33):1114-19. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7033a2>
143. Rossen LM, Branum AM, Ahmad FB, et al. Notes from the Field: Update on Excess Deaths Associated with the COVID-19 Pandemic - United States, January 26, 2020-February 27, 2021. *Mmwr* 2021;Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 70(15):570-71. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7015a4>
144. Rovetta A, Bhagavathula AS. The Impact of COVID-19 on Mortality in Italy: Retrospective Analysis of Epidemiological Trends. *JMIR public health and surveillance* 2022;8(4):e36022. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2196/36022>
145. Rubio FJ, Racht B, Giorgi R, et al. On models for the estimation of the excess mortality hazard in case of insufficiently stratified life tables. *Biostatistics (Oxford, England)* 2021;22(1):51-67. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/biostatistics/kxz017>
146. Ruhm CJ. Excess deaths in the United States during the first year of COVID-19. *Preventive Medicine* 2022;162 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2022.107174>
147. Rypdal M, Rypdal K, Lovsletten O, et al. Estimation of excess mortality and years of life lost to covid-19 in norway and sweden between march and november 2020. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(8) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18083913>
148. Saavedra P, Santana A, Bello L, et al. A Bayesian spatio-temporal analysis of mortality rates in Spain: application to the COVID-19 2020 outbreak. *Population Health Metrics* 2021;19(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-021-00259-y>
149. Sandrini M, Andreano A, Murtas R, et al. Assessment of the Overall Mortality during the COVID-19 Outbreak in the Provinces of Milan and Lodi (Lombardy Region, Northern Italy). *Epidemiologia e Prevenzione* 2020;44(5-6 Suppl 2):244-51. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.124>
150. Sanmarchi F, Golinelli D, Lenzi J, et al. Exploring the Gap between Excess Mortality and COVID-19 Deaths in 67 Countries. *JAMA Network Open* 2021;4(7) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.17359>
151. Scortichini M, Schneider Dos S, De D, et al. Excess mortality during the COVID-19 outbreak in Italy: A two-stage interrupted time-series analysis. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 2020;49(6):1909-17. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyaa169>

152. Shannon J, Abraham A, Bagwell A, et al. Racial disparities for COVID19 mortality in Georgia: Spatial analysis by age based on excess deaths. *Social Science and Medicine* 2022;292 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114549>
153. Shiels MS, Almeida JS, Garcia-Closas M, et al. Impact of population growth and aging on estimates of excess U.S. deaths during the COVID-19 pandemic, March to August 2020. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(4):437-43. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M20-7385>
154. Shiels MS, Haque AT, Haozous EA, et al. Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Excess Deaths During the COVID-19 Pandemic, March to December 2020. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2021;174(12):1693-99. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-2134>
155. Shkolnikov VM, Klimkin I, McKee M, et al. What should be the baseline when calculating excess mortality? New approaches suggest that we have underestimated the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and previous winter peaks. *SSM - Population Health* 2022;18 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2022.101118>
156. Sinnathambay MA, Whitaker H, Coughlan L, et al. All-cause excess mortality observed by age group and regions in the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in England. *Eurosurveillance* 2020;25(28) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.28.2001239>
157. Solanes A, Laredo C, Guasp M, et al. No Effects of Meteorological Factors on the SARS-CoV-2 Infection Fatality Rate. *Biomedical and environmental sciences : BES* 2021;34(11):871-80. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3967/bes2021.120>
158. Stang A, Standl F, Kowall B, et al. Excess mortality due to COVID-19 in Germany. *Journal of Infection* 2020;81(5):797-801. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.09.012>
159. Staub K, Panczak R, Matthes KL, et al. Historically High Excess Mortality during the COVID-19 Pandemic in Switzerland, Sweden, and Spain. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2022;175(4):523-32. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M21-3824>
160. Stein RE, Corcoran KE, Colyer CJ, et al. Closed but Not Protected: Excess Deaths Among the Amish and Mennonites During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of religion and health* 2021;60(5):3230-44. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10943-021-01307-5>
161. Stokes AC, Lundberg DJ, Elo IT, et al. COVID-19 and excess mortality in the United States: A county-level analysis. *PLoS Medicine* 2021;18(5) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003571>
162. Stokes AC, Lundberg DJ, Bor J, et al. Association of Health Care Factors with Excess Deaths Not Assigned to COVID-19 in the US. *JAMA Network Open* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.25287>
163. Stoto MA, Schlageter S, Kraemer JD. COVID-19 mortality in the United States: It's been two Americas from the start. *PLoS ONE* 2022;17(4 April) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0265053>
164. Strang P, Furst P, Schultz T. Excess deaths from COVID-19 correlate with age and socio-economic status. A database study in the Stockholm region. *Upsala journal of medical sciences* 2020;125(4):297-304. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03009734.2020.1828513>
165. Strongman H, Carreira H, De Stavola BL, et al. Factors associated with excess all-cause mortality in the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in the UK: A time series analysis using the Clinical Practice Research Datalink. *PLoS Medicine* 2022;19(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003870>
166. Tarazi WW, Finegold K, Sheingold SH, et al. COVID-19-related deaths and excess deaths among medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries. *Health Affairs* 2021;40(6):879-85. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02521>

167. Tatar M, Habibdoust A, Wilson FA. Analysis of Excess Deaths During the COVID-19 Pandemic in the State of Florida. *American journal of public health* 2021;111(4):704-07. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2020.306130>
168. Tatar M, Habibdoust A, Wilson FA. Excess Deaths Reveal the Substantial Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic on Mortality in the State of Florida. *American journal of public health* 2021;111(7):e3-e4. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306340>
169. Touraine C, Graffeo N, Giorgi R. More accurate cancer-related excess mortality through correcting background mortality for extra variables. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2020;29(1):122-36. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0962280218823234>
170. Traub E, Amoon AT, Rollin-Alamillo L, et al. Excess Mortality Associated With the COVID-19 Pandemic-Los Angeles County, March-September 2020. *Journal of public health management and practice : JPHMP* 2021;27(3):233-39. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0000000000001344>
171. Van Asten L, Harmsen CN, Stoeldraijer L, et al. Excess deaths during influenza and coronavirus disease and infection-fatality rate for severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, the Netherlands. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 2021;27(2):411-20. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3201/EID2702.202999>
172. Vanthomme K, Gadeyne S, Lusyne P, et al. A population-based study on mortality among Belgian immigrants during the first COVID-19 wave in Belgium. Can demographic and socioeconomic indicators explain differential mortality? *SSM - Population Health* 2021;14 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100797>
173. Verbeeck J, Faes C, Neyens T, et al. A linear mixed model to estimate COVID-19-induced excess mortality. *Biometrics* 2021;25 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/biom.13578>
174. Vestergaard LS, Nielsen J, Richter L, et al. Excess all-cause mortality during the COVID-19 pandemic in Europe - preliminary pooled estimates from the EuroMOMO network, March to April 2020. *Eurosurveillance* 2020;25(26) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.26.2001214>
175. Vieira A, Peixoto VR, Aguiar P, et al. Rapid estimation of excess mortality during the COVID-19 pandemic in Portugal -beyond reported deaths. *Journal of Epidemiology and Global Health* 2020;10(3):209-13. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/jegh.k.200628.001>
176. Vladescu C, Ciutan M, Rafila A. In-hospital admissions and deaths in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, in Romania. *Germes* 2022;12(2):169-79. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18683/germes.2022.1320>
177. von Cube M, Timsit JF, Kammerlander A, et al. Quantifying and communicating the burden of COVID-19. *BMC medical research methodology* 2021;21(1):164. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-021-01349-z>
178. Vu M. Weeks of life lost to COVID-19, the case of the United States. *Immunity, Inflammation and Disease* 2022;10(7) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/iid3.661>
179. Walkowiak MP, Walkowiak D. Underestimation in Reporting Excess COVID-19 Death Data in Poland during the First Three Pandemic Waves. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2022;19(6) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063692>
180. Wallace J, Lollo A, Ndumele CD. Evaluation of the Association Between Medicare Eligibility and Excess Deaths During the COVID-19 Pandemic in the US. *JAMA Health Forum* 2021;2(9):e212861. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamahealthforum.2021.2861>
181. Wang H, Paulson KR, Pease SA, et al. Estimating excess mortality due to the COVID-19 pandemic: a systematic analysis of COVID-19-related mortality, 2020-21. *The Lancet* 2022 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736%2821%2902796-3>

182. Watson OJ, Barnsley G, Toor J, et al. Global impact of the first year of COVID-19 vaccination: a mathematical modelling study. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 2022;22(9):1293-302. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099%2822%2900320-6>
183. Weinberger DM, Chen J, Cohen T, et al. Estimation of Excess Deaths Associated with the COVID-19 Pandemic in the United States, March to May 2020. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2020;180(10):1336-44. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.3391>
184. Weitkunat R, Junker C, Caviezel S, et al. Mortality monitoring in Switzerland. *Swiss Medical Weekly* 2021;151:w30030. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4414/smw.2021.w30030>
185. Wiemken TL, Rutschman AS, Niemotka S, et al. Excess mortality in the United States in 2020: Forecasting and anomaly detection. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2021;49(9):1189-90. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2021.03.013>
186. Wollschlager D, Schmidtmann I, Fuckel S, et al. [Explaining the age-adjusted excess mortality with COVID-19-attributed deaths from January 2020 to July 2021]. *Bundesgesundheitsblatt, Gesundheitsforschung, Gesundheitsschutz* 2022;65(3):378-87. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00103-021-03465-z>
187. Woolf SH, Chapman DA, Sabo RT, et al. Excess Deaths from COVID-19 and Other Causes, March-April 2020. *JAMA - Journal of the American Medical Association* 2020;324(5):510-13. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.11787>
188. Woolf SH, Chapman DA, Sabo RT, et al. Excess Deaths from COVID-19 and Other Causes, March-July 2020. *JAMA - Journal of the American Medical Association* 2020;324(15):1562-64. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.19545>
189. Woolf SH, Chapman DA, Sabo RT, et al. Excess Deaths from COVID-19 and Other Causes in the US, March 1, 2020, to January 2, 2021. *JAMA - Journal of the American Medical Association* 2021;325(17):1786-89. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2021.5199>
190. Wu J, Mafham M, Mamas MA, et al. Place and Underlying Cause of Death During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Retrospective Cohort Study of 3.5 Million Deaths in England and Wales, 2014 to 2020. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* 2021;96(4):952-63. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2021.02.007>
191. Yoneoka D, Kawashima T, Makiyama K, et al. Geographically weighted generalized Farrington algorithm for rapid outbreak detection over short data accumulation periods. *Statistics in Medicine* 2021;40(28):6277-94. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.9182>
192. Zalla LC, Mulholland GE, Filiatreau LM, et al. Racial/Ethnic and Age Differences in the Direct and Indirect Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on US Mortality. *American journal of public health* 2022;112(1):154-64. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306541>
193. Zhou F, Hu TJ, Zhang XY, et al. The association of intensity and duration of non-pharmacological interventions and implementation of vaccination with COVID-19 infection, death, and excess mortality: Natural experiment in 22 European countries. *Journal of Infection and Public Health* 2022;15(5):499-507. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2022.03.011>
194. Zhu D, Ozaki A, Virani SS. Disease-Specific Excess Mortality During the COVID-19 Pandemic: An Analysis of Weekly US Death Data for 2020. *American journal of public health* 2021;111(8):1518-22. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306315>

## Bijlage 5. Statistische modellen

| Reference                        | Statistical model          | Factors in the model  | Stratification   | Time scale         |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|---|--|--------------------|
| <b>Achilleos (2022)</b>          | Quasi-Poisson regression   | Secular trends, yearly and half-yearly seasonal cycles  | Sex, country   | Weekly and monthly |
| <b>Alicevich (2021)</b>          | No model                   | NA  | Age, municipality (with or without at least one care home)   | Daily              |
| <b>Alicandro (2022)</b>          | Overdispersed Poisson GLM  | Calendar year, age groups, week of the year, population   | Period (pre-Delta, Delta, Delta-Omicron transition, Omicron)   | Daily              |
| <b>Astengo (2021)</b>            | Poisson time-series GLM    | NR  | Age, comorbidities, period (before, during and after the peak), covid/non-covid deaths                               | Weekly             |
| <b>Barnard (2021)</b>            | Quasi-Poisson regression   | Whether the week contained a public holiday, time of year, age, gender, area deprivation, ethnicity and geographical area | Age, ethnicity, area deprivation quintile  | Weekly             |
| <b>Bartscher (2021)</b>          | No model                   | NA  | Country  | Daily              |
| <b>Bell (2022)</b>               | NR                         | NR  | Country income   | Weekly             |
| <b>Bogos (2021)</b>              | Prediction interval method | NR  | Age, country, European region  | Weekly             |
| <b>Buja (2022)</b>               | No model                   | NA  | Region   | NR                 |
| <b>Calderon-Larranaga (2020)</b> | No model                   | NA  | Age, sex, demographic statistics areas (income, level of education, share of Swedish-born, share gainfully employed) | Weekly             |
| <b>Caranci (2021)</b>            | No model                   | NA  | Age, sex, period, care setting   | Daily and weekly   |
| <b>Carey (2021)</b>              | Log-linear Poisson model   | Age, sex, pre-pandemic vs. pandemic years, smoking, BMI, ethnicity, Index of Multiple Deprivation, region                 | Age group, care home   | Weekly             |
| <b>Chen (2021)a</b>              | ARIMA model                | NR  | Occupational sector, ethnicity, time period  | NR                 |
| <b>Chen (2021)b</b>              | ARIMA model                | NR  | Age, sex, ethnicity, educational level, time period  | NR                 |
| <b>Corrao (2021)</b>             | No model                   | NA  | NA   | Weekly             |
| <b>Cronin (2021)</b>             | No model                   | NA  | Age, sex, ethnicity  | Weekly             |
| <b>De Angelis (2021)</b>         | No model                   | NA  | NR   | Daily              |
| <b>De Geyter (2022)</b>          | No model                   | NA  | NA   | Weekly             |

| Reference                    | Statistical model  | Factors in the model  | Stratification  | Time scale                    |
|------------------------------|--|---|---|-------------------------------|
| <b>De Lusignan (2020)</b>    | Additive hazard model with Poisson distribution          | NR  | NR  | Weekly                        |
| <b>Demetrious (2022)</b>     | Quasi-Poisson regression                                 | Seasonal variation, and long and short-term trends  | Age, sex, country   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Dorrucci (2021)</b>       | Negative binomial regression                             | Time and interaction between year 2020 and pre-pandemic years, seasonal variation                           | Age, sex, macro-geographical areas (northern, central and southern) | Daily                         |
| <b>Faust (2022)a</b>         | sARIMA model   | Prepandemic age and mortality trends  | Age, virus variants   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Faust (2022)b</b>         | NA   | NA  | NA  | Monthly                       |
| <b>Fazekas-Pongor (2022)</b> | Poisson GLM with log link                                | Age, sex  | Age, sex, time period   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Gadeyne (2021)</b>        | No model   | NA  | Age, sex, care home residence                                       | NR                            |
| <b>Geeraedts (2022)</b>      | NR   | NA  | NR  | NR                            |
| <b>Gobina (2022)</b>         | Generalised additive modelling (GAM)                     | Population size, temporal trends, seasonal variation  | NR  | Weekly                        |
| <b>Grande (2022)</b>         | No model   | NA  | Age, sex, demographic area  | NR                            |
| <b>Habibdoust (2022)</b>     | sARIMA model   | Seasonal variation  | Ethnicity   | Monthly                       |
| <b>Hanly (2022)</b>          | No model   | NA  | Age, sex, country   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Huang (2022)</b>          | No model   | NA  | Continent   | Weekly and monthly            |
| <b>Islam (2021)</b>          | Overdispersed Poisson GLM                                | Seasonal variation, population size   | Age, sex, country   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Joy (2020)</b>            | No model   | NA  | Age, sex, household size  | Daily                         |
| <b>Kapitsinis (2021)</b>     | No model   | NA  | Country   | Weekly, monthly and quarterly |
| <b>Karlinsky (2021)</b>      | Linear regression  | Seasonal variation and yearly trend in mortality and war casualties in certain countries                    | Country   | Weekly, monthly and quarterly |
| <b>Kelly (2021)</b>          | No model   | NA  | Country   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Kontis (2020)</b>         | Ensemble of multiple models using a Poisson distribution | Medium-term to long-term trends, seasonal variation, short-term phenomena, temperature/weather and holidays | Age, sex, country   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Kung (2021)</b>           | No model   | NA  | Country   | Weekly                        |



| Reference                | Statistical model                              | Factors in the model  | Stratification   | Time scale                    |
|--------------------------|--|---|--|-------------------------------|
| <b>Laurencin (2021)</b>  | No model                                       | NA  | Ethnicity  | NR                            |
| <b>Leon-Gomez (2021)</b> | Time series analysis                           | Region, weekday and period of the year, reporting delays                    | Age, sex, region, time period  | Weekly                        |
| <b>Levitt (2022)</b>     | Multiple                                       | Annual trends and within-year seasonal variation, age                       | Age  | Weekly, monthly and quarterly |
| <b>Lewis (2021)</b>      | No model                                       | NA  | Age, sex, occupational group   | Daily                         |
| <b>Lukowsky (2022)</b>   | No model                                       | NA  | Age, sex, ethnicity  | Monthly                       |
| <b>Lundberg (2021)</b>   | Farrington model                               | Mortality trends, seasonal variation  | Country  | NR                            |
| <b>Matz (2022)</b>       | No model                                       | NA  | Sex, occupational group  | Daily                         |
| <b>Meng (2021)</b>       | sARIMA model                                   | NR  | Country  | Weekly                        |
| <b>Oroszi (2021)</b>     | No model                                       | NA  | Age, sex, municipality   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Perotti (2022)</b>    | No model                                       | NA  | Age, sex   | NR                            |
| <b>Polyakova (2021)</b>  | Linear regression                              | Annual time trend and seasonal variation                                    | Ethnicity  | Monthly                       |
| <b>Quast (2021)</b>      | Overdispersed log-linear model                 | Population size, secular trends, seasonal variation                         | Age, sex, ethnicity, state   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Rangachev (2022)</b>  | Karlinsky–Kobak regression model               | Seasonal variation, yearly trends   | Age, sex, country  | Weekly                        |
| <b>Reif (2021)</b>       | NA   | NA  | NA   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Riley (2021)</b>      | Dynamic harmonic regression model with ARIMA   | NR  | Age, sex, nativity, country of birth, educational attainment, occupation | Weekly                        |
| <b>Rose (2021)</b>       | NA   | NA  | NA   | NR                            |
| <b>Rossen (2021)</b>     | sARIMA model                                   | Incomplete reporting in the most recent weeks, weekly population projection | Age, ethnicity   | Weekly                        |
| <b>Ruhm (2022)</b>       | Linear regression                              | Volatility of January death counts, leap years                              | Age, sex, ethnicity  | Monthly                       |
| <b>Sanmarchi (2021)</b>  | Generalized negative binomial regression model | Seasonal variation  | Country  | Weekly and monthly            |
| <b>Shiels (2021)a</b>    | No model                                       | NA  | Age, cause of death, month   | Monthly                       |
| <b>Shiels (2021)b</b>    | No model                                       | NA  | Age, sex, ethnicity, month   | Monthly                       |

| Reference               | Statistical model                               | Factors in the model   | Stratification   | Time scale         |
|-------------------------|---|--|--|--------------------|
| <b>Stokes (2021)</b>    | Linear regression                               | COVID-19 death rate  | County level characteristics; % of people >65y, % of black people, % of white people, % of Hispanic people, rural area, median household income, % people with college or higher education, % of people owning a house, % of people with poor or fair health, % of people with obesity, % of people who smoke, % of people who have diabetes and for different regions | NR                 |
| <b>Stoto (2022)</b>     | Overdispersed Poisson GLM                       | Seasonal variation   | Jurisdiction, time period  | Weekly             |
| <b>Strang (2020)</b>    | No model  | NA   | Age, sex, living arrangements (residents in nursing homes versus all others), socioeconomic status   | NR                 |
| <b>Strongman (2022)</b> | GLM with negative binomial error structure      | Seasonal variation and calendar year   | Age, sex, deprivation, living area, ethnicity, region, morbidity, health indicators  | Weekly             |
| <b>Tarazi (2021)</b>    | Linear regression                               | Yearly trend   | Age, sex, ethnicity, type of medical conditions, number of medical conditions, nursing home status, original reason for medicare entitlement, medicaid eligibility, census region  | NR                 |
| <b>Traub (2021)</b>     | Negative binomial regression                    | Seasonal influenza   | None   | Weekly             |
| <b>Van Asten (2021)</b> | Linear regression                               | Linear time trend and cyclical seasonal trends   | None   | Weekly             |
| <b>Vanthomme (2021)</b> | No model  | NA   | Age, sex, migrant  | Weekly             |
| <b>Verbeeck (2021)</b>  | GLM with Gaussian distribution                  | Heat waves, seasonal influenza, cyclic pattern.  | None   | Daily and weekly   |
| <b>Wang (2022)</b>      | Ensemble of multiple models                     | Seasonal variation   | Location (country; sometimes also region or province)  | Weekly and monthly |
| <b>Watson (2022)</b>    | Boosted regression tree machine learning method | Wide range of covariates, including demographic, economic, geographical and political data, data on mobility, information on government policy responses to COVID-19 and COVID-19 data | Country, world bank income group, WHO region   | Daily              |
| <b>Wu (2021)</b>        | Overdispersed Poisson GLM (Farrington)          | Seasonal variation   | Age, sex, COVID-19 status (suspected or confirmed covid-19 recorded, not mentioned), place of death  | Daily              |
| <b>Zalla (2022)</b>     | Quasi-Poisson regression                        | Secular and seasonal trends  | Age, ethnicity   | Weekly             |
| <b>Zhou (2022)</b>      | No model  | NA   | NA   | Daily              |
| <b>Zhu (2021)</b>       | No model  | NA   | Disease classification, state  | Weekly             |

## Bijlage 6. Referenties methodologische artikelen

*Artikelen geïdentificeerd met onze zoekstrategie*

1. Acosta RJ, Irizarry RA. A Flexible Statistical Framework for Estimating Excess Mortality. *Epidemiology* 2022;33(3):346-53. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1097/EDE.0000000000001445>
2. Akhmetzhanov AR. Estimation of delay-adjusted all-cause excess mortality in the USA: March-December 2020. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268821001527>
3. Antunes L, Mendonca D, Bento MJ, et al. Dealing with missing information on covariates for excess mortality hazard regression models - Making the imputation model compatible with the substantive model. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2021;30(10):2256-68. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211031615>
4. Barnard S, Chiavenna C, Fox S, et al. Methods for modelling excess mortality across England during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2021 doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/09622802211046384>
5. Bottcher L, D'Orsogna MR, Chou T. Using excess deaths and testing statistics to determine COVID-19 mortalities. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2021;36(5):545-58. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00748-2>
6. Brinks R, Tonnie T, Hoyer A. Assessing two methods for estimating excess mortality of chronic diseases from aggregated data. *BMC research notes* 2020;13(1):216. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13104-020-05046-w>
7. Brinks R, Tonnie T, Hoyer A. Impact of diagnostic accuracy on the estimation of excess mortality from incidence and prevalence: Simulation study and application to diabetes in German men. *F1000Research* 2021;10 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.28023.1>
8. Checchi F, Testa A, Gimma A, et al. A method for small-area estimation of population mortality in settings affected by crises. *Population Health Metrics* 2022;20(1) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12963-022-00283-6>
9. Gibertoni D, Sanmarchi F, Adja KYC, et al. Small-scale spatial distribution of COVID-19-related excess mortality. *MethodsX* 2021;8 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mex.2021.101257>
10. Jdanov DA, Galarza AA, Shkolnikov VM, et al. The short-term mortality fluctuation data series, monitoring mortality shocks across time and space. *Scientific data* 2021;8(1):235. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-01019-1>
11. Jin R, Grunkemeier GL, Furnary AP. Continuous Monitoring of Risk-Adjusted Outcomes: Excess Deaths vs Lives Saved. *Annals of Thoracic Surgery* 2021;112(2):368-72. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2021.03.110>
12. Lusa L. Identifying the Italian provinces with increased mortality during COVID-19 epidemics using the data made available by the Italian National Institute of Statistics. A methodological challenge.

Epidemiologia e Prevenzione 2020;44(5-6 Suppl 2):260-70. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.126>

13. Martin C, McDonald S, Bale S, et al. Construction of a demand and capacity model for intensive care and hospital ward beds, and mortality from COVID-19. *BMC medical informatics and decision making* 2021;21(1):138. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12911-021-01504-y>
14. Mba RD, Goungounga JA, Graffeo N, et al. Correcting inaccurate background mortality in excess hazard models through breakpoints. *BMC medical research methodology* 2020;20(1):268. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-020-01139-z>
15. Nemeth L, Jdanov DA, Shkolnikov VM. An open-sourced, web-based application to analyze weekly excess mortality based on the short-term mortality fluctuations data series. *PLoS ONE* 2021;16(2 February) (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0246663>
16. Rizzi S, Vaupel JW. Short-term forecasts of expected deaths. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2021;118(15):13. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2025324118>
17. Rubio FJ, Rachet B, Giorgi R, et al. On models for the estimation of the excess mortality hazard in case of insufficiently stratified life tables. *Biostatistics (Oxford, England)* 2021;22(1):51-67. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/biostatistics/kxz017>
18. Shkolnikov VM, Klimkin I, McKee M, et al. What should be the baseline when calculating excess mortality? New approaches suggest that we have underestimated the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and previous winter peaks. *SSM - Population Health* 2022;18 (no pagination) doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2022.101118>
19. Touraine C, Graffeo N, Giorgi R. More accurate cancer-related excess mortality through correcting background mortality for extra variables. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2020;29(1):122-36. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0962280218823234>
20. von Cube M, Timsit JF, Kammerlander A, et al. Quantifying and communicating the burden of COVID-19. *BMC medical research methodology* 2021;21(1):164. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12874-021-01349-z>
21. Weitkunat R, Junker C, Caviezel S, et al. Mortality monitoring in Switzerland. *Swiss Medical Weekly* 2021;151:w30030. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4414/smw.2021.w30030>
22. Yoneoka D, Kawashima T, Makiyama K, et al. Geographically weighted generalized Farrington algorithm for rapid outbreak detection over short data accumulation periods. *Statistics in Medicine* 2021;40(28):6277-94. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.9182>

*Artikelen waarnaar verwezen werd door geïncludeerde studies*

1. Bramness JG, Walby FA, Morken G, et al. Analyzing seasonal variations in suicide with Fourier Poisson time-series regression: a registry-based study from Norway, 1969–2007. *American journal of epidemiology* 2015;182(3):244-54.
2. Farrington C, Andrews NJ, Beale A, et al. A statistical algorithm for the early detection of outbreaks of infectious disease. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)* 1996;159(3):547-63.
3. Faust JS, Du C, Li S-X, et al. Correcting excess mortality for pandemic-associated population decreases. *medRxiv* 2021:2021.02. 10.21251461.
4. George E. Box. *Time series analysis: forecasting and control*: Holden-Day, 1970.
5. Hyndman RJ, Athanasopoulos G. *Forecasting: principles and practice*: OTexts 2018.
6. Lunde BÅS, Kleppe TS. agtboost: Adaptive and automatic gradient tree boosting computations. *arXiv preprint arXiv:200812625* 2020
7. Serfling RE. Methods for current statistical analysis of excess pneumonia-influenza deaths. *Public health reports* 1963;78(6):494.

## Bijlage 7. Doodsoorzaken

| Cause of death                                     | Faust (2022) <sup>b</sup>                                  | Gobina (2022) | Grande (2022) | Perotti (2022)* | Ruhm (2022)                              | Shiels (2021) <sup>a</sup> | Shiels (2021) <sup>b</sup> | Wu (2021) | Zhu (2021) |
|--|--|---------------|---------------|-----------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Number of causes of death                          | 6  | 7             | 19            | 28              | 13                                       | 7                          | 7                          | 12        | 8          |
| <b>Accidents, self-harm, suicide, and homicide</b> |  |               |               |                 |  |                            |                            |           |            |
| Accidental falls                                   |  |               | W00-W19       | X               |  |                            |                            |           |            |
| Accidents  | V01-V99,<br>W00-X59<br>(excluding<br>X40-X44),<br>Y85, Y86 |               |               |                 |  |                            |                            |           |            |
| Assault /homicide                                  | U01, U02,<br>X85-Y09,<br>Y87.1                             |               |               |                 | U01, U02,<br>X85-Y09,<br>Y87.1           |                            |                            |           |            |
| Drug overdose                                      | X40-X44,<br>Y10-Y14  |               |               |                 | X40-X44,<br>X60-X64,<br>X85, Y10-<br>Y14 |                            |                            |           |            |
| Intentional self-harm (suicide)                    | U03, X60-<br>X84, Y87.0                                    |               | X60-X84       | X               | U03, X60-<br>X84, Y87.0                  |                            |                            |           |            |
| Motor vehicle / transport accidents                |  |               | V00-V99       | X               | V02-V89.2<br>with<br>exceptions          |                            |                            |           |            |
| <b>Alzheimer's and dementia</b>                    |  |               |               |                 |  |                            |                            |           |            |

| Cause of death                                   | Faust (2022) <sup>b</sup>                             | Gobina (2022) | Grande (2022)                      | Perotti (2022)* | Ruhm (2022)                | Shiels (2021) <sup>a</sup> | Shiels (2021) <sup>b</sup> | Wu (2021)                   | Zhu (2021)                 |
|--|---|---------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Alzheimer's disease                              |   |               |                                    |                 | G30                        | G30                        | G30                        |                             |                            |
| Dementia & Alzheimer's disease                   |   |               | F01, F03, G30                      | X               |                            |                            |                            | F01, F03, G30               |                            |
| <b><i>Cancer and non-malignant neoplasms</i></b> |   |               |                                    |                 |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| Cancer   |   |               |                                    |                 |                            | C00-C097                   | C00-C097                   |                             |                            |
| Malignant neoplasms                              | C00-C97   | C00-C97       |                                    | X               | C00-C97                    |                            |                            | C00-C97                     | C00-C97                    |
| Neoplasms  |   |               | C00-D48                            | X               |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| <b><i>Cardiovascular disease</i></b>             |   |               |                                    |                 |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| Cardiovascular disease                           |   |               |                                    | X               |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| Cerebrovascular diseases / stroke                |   | I60-I69       | I60-I69                            | X               | I60-I69                    |                            | X                          | I60-I69                     | I60-I69                    |
| Heart disease                                    | I00-I02, I05-I09, I11, I13, I20-I25, I26-I28, I30-I51 |               |                                    |                 | I00-I09, I11, I13, I20-I51 | I00-I09, I11, I12, I20-I51 | I00-I09, I11, I12, I20-I51 | Aggregation of ICD-10 codes | I00-I09, I11, I12, I20-I51 |
| Hypertensive diseases                            |   | I10-I16       | I10-I15                            |                 |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| Ischemic heart diseases                          |   | I20-I25       | I20-I25                            | X               |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| Other diseases of the circulatory system         |   |               | I00-I09, I26-I45, I47-I52, I70-I99 |                 |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |
| <b><i>Congenital and pregnancy-related</i></b>   |   |               |                                    |                 |                            |                            |                            |                             |                            |

| Cause of death   | Faust (2022) <sup>b</sup> | Gobina (2022) | Grande (2022) | Perotti (2022)* | Ruhm (2022) | Shiels (2021) <sup>a</sup> | Shiels (2021) <sup>b</sup> | Wu (2021)              | Zhu (2021)                 |
|--|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|-------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| Certain conditions originating in the perinatal period               |                           |               |               | X               |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Complications of pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium            |                           |               |               | X               |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Congenital malformations, deformations and chromosomal abnormalities |                           |               |               | X               |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| <b><i>Infectious diseases (incl. COVID-19)</i></b>                   |                           |               |               |                 |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| COVID-19   |                           | U071-U072     | U071-U072     | X               | U071        | U071                       | U071                       | U071-U072              | U071                       |
| Flu virus  |                           |               |               | X               |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Infectious and parasitic diseases (COVID-19 excluded)                |                           |               | A00-B99       | X               |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Influenza and pneumonia  |                           |               | J09-J18, J849 | X               | J09-J18     |                            |                            |                        | J10-J18                    |
| <b><i>Respiratory disease</i></b>                                    |                           |               |               |                 |             |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Chronic lower respiratory diseases                                   |                           | J40-J47       | J40-J47       | X               | J40-J47     |                            |                            |                        |                            |
| Respiratory diseases   |                           |               |               | X               |             |                            |                            | Additional aggregation | J40-J47, J00-J06, J30-J39, |



| Cause of death   | Faust (2022) <sup>b</sup> | Gobina (2022) | Grande (2022)                                | Perotti (2022)* | Ruhm (2022) | Shiels (2021) <sup>a</sup> | Shiels (2021) <sup>b</sup> | Wu (2021)<br>of ICD-10 codes | Zhu (2021)<br>J67, J70-J98 |
|--|---------------------------|---------------|--|-----------------|-------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Other diseases of the respiratory system                     |                           |               | J00-J06,<br>J20-J39,<br>J60-J848,<br>J85-J99 |                 |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| <b>Other</b>   |                           |               |  |                 |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| All causes excluding COVID-19                                |                           |               | A00-Y98<br>excluding<br>U071-U072            |                 |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| Cirrhosis and other diseases of liver                        |                           |               |  |                 |             |                            |                            | K70–K76                      |                            |
| Diabetes   |                           | E10-E14       | E10-E14                                      | X               | E10-E14     | E10-E14                    | E10-E14                    | E10-E15                      | E10-E14                    |
| Diseases of the digestive system                             |                           |               |  | X               |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| Diseases of the genitourinary system                         |                           |               |  | X               |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue |                           |               |  | X               |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs              |                           |               |  | X               |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |
| Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue                 |                           |               |  | X               |             |                            |                            |                              |                            |

| Cause of death   | Faust (2022) <sup>b</sup> | Gobina (2022) | Grande (2022)   | Perotti (2022)* | Ruhm (2022) | Shiels (2021) <sup>a</sup>      | Shiels (2021) <sup>b</sup> | Wu (2021)                              | Zhu (2021) |
|--|---------------------------|---------------|---|-----------------|-------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|--|------------|
| Diseases of the urinary system                           |                           |               |   |                 |             |                                 |                            | N00–N39                                |            |
| Endocrinuous, nutritional and metabolic diseases         |                           |               |   | X               |             |                                 |                            |  |            |
| External causes of mortality                             |                           |               |   | X               |             |                                 |                            |  |            |
| Mental and behavioural disorders                         |                           |               |   | X               |             |                                 |                            |  |            |
| Nephritis, nephrotic syndrome, nephrosis (Kidney)        |                           |               |   |                 |             | N00-N07,<br>N17-N19,<br>N25-N27 |                            |  |            |
| Other cause of diseases                                  |                           |               | D50-E07,<br>E15-E90,<br>F04-G26,<br>G31-H95,<br>K00-Q98 |                 |             |                                 |                            | Additional aggregation of ICD-10 codes |            |
| Other external causes                                    |                           |               | W20-X59,<br>X85-Y98                                     |                 |             |                                 |                            |  |            |
| Parkinson's disease                                      |                           |               |   |                 |             |                                 |                            | G20                                    |            |
| Unclassified / symptoms, signs, and ill-defined diseases |                           |               | R00-R99,<br>I46   | X               |             | R00-R99                         | R00-R99                    | R00-R99                                | R00-R99    |

\*Perotti (2022) only reported a list of causes of death, without definitions.

## Bijlage 8. Determinanten

### 8A. Leeftijd

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Alacevich (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>              | Of the three age groups (0-49, 50-69 and 70+), the excess daily death rate was highest in the age group 70+ and lowest in the age group 0-49  |
| Alicandro (2022)<br><i>Italy</i>              | Excess deaths in the working-age population were relatively higher than for the whole population only in the Delta-period, and relatively lower in the pre-Delta and Delta-Omicron transition period. Only for the working-age population was a mortality lower than expected estimated during the Omicron wave.                            |
| Astengo (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>                | Cumulative mortality due to COVID-19 increased with age from 1.9 deaths/10,000 in the 45-64-year age-group to 21.2/10,000 and 80.3/10,000 in the 65-84-year and > 84-year classes, respectively.  |
| Barnard (2021)<br><i>England</i>              | Excess deaths were similar in those aged under 75 years and among all persons (ratio expected/observed of 1.20 and 1.22, respectively).   |
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i>    | During the peak week of 6-12 April 2020, mortality rates were in excess of the 5-year averages by 69% in individuals 0-64 years old, by 129% in individuals 65-79 years old, and by 165% in individuals 80 years old or older.  |
| Caranci (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>                | The crude excess mortality was greater among the elderly (75+) compared to the younger generation (18-74). However, the share of the excess attributable to COVID-19 related deaths was instead larger in the age group 18-74 years.  |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>                | Mortality was lower than expected in 2020 for age groups <70 year. However, for ages >= 80 years, the opposite was true, and significantly higher EMRs (excess mortality rates) were estimated.   |
| Chen (2021) <sup>b</sup><br><i>USA</i>        | Per capita excess mortality increased with age group, with the highest excess mortality in the age group 85 and older, and the lowest in the age group 0-24 years old.  |
| Cronin (2021)<br><i>USA</i>                   | COVID-19 death rates increased with age-group, with the lowest death rate in the 0-44 age group and the highest in the 75+ age group.   |
| De Angelis (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>             | Standardized proportion of population over 75 years old was not associated with the all-cause standardized mortality ratio.   |
| De Lusignan (2020)<br><i>England</i>          | Increasing age was associated with excess mortality. Adjusting for all other variables, the age group 75+ had an excess mortality rate of 10.09 compared to 45-64 year olds.  |
| Demetriou (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | Most countries observed substantial excess mortality only in the older of the two age groups. In contrast, Peru demonstrated substantial excess mortality also in the <45 years old age group.  |
| Dorrucchi (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>              | People aged 80 years and older contributed the most to excess mortality during the whole year (2020), with a further increase during the second wave (from 35% in the first to 39% in the second wave). The excess mortality observed among people aged less than 50, although of negative sign, increased slightly during the second wave. |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>Faust (2022)</p> <p><i>USA</i></p>                    | <p>Numerically there were more excess deaths in older age groups, but there was excess mortality in all adult age groups, including in younger age groups. Moreover, the ratio of observed to expected all-cause deaths was similar in all age groups and increased during the Omicron period compared with the Delta period.</p>  |
| <p>Fazekas-Pongor (2022)</p> <p><i>Hungary</i></p>       | <p>During the second wave, rate ratios were highest for ages 65-84. A lower risk was observed in those older than 85 years, while the risk was lowest in those below 65 years of age. During the third wave, rate ratios peaked between ages 35 and 44, followed by the age groups 45-74. Low results were observed for both the 75-84 and the 0-34 age groups, while the lowest risk was observed in the 85+ populations.</p> |
| <p>Gadeyne (2021)</p> <p><i>Belgium</i></p>              | <p>The largest excess mortality and percentages changes was in the oldest age groups (65-84; 85+).</p>   |
| <p>Islam (2021)</p> <p><i>Multiple countries</i></p>     | <p>No excess mortality in children &lt;15 years, increasing excess mortality in increasing age groups</p>  |
| <p>Joy (2020)</p> <p><i>England</i></p>                  | <p>The relative survival model showed that older people had a 1.8% reduced risk of mortality.</p>  |
| <p>Kontis (2020)</p> <p><i>Multiple countries</i></p>    | <p>In absolute terms, 94% of all excess deaths occurred in people aged &gt;65y. In relative terms, people &gt;65y were also affected more ranging from ~30 to ~40% higher mortality than expected.</p>   |
| <p>Leon-Gomez (2021)</p> <p><i>Spain</i></p>             | <p>The cumulated excess mortality was greater as age increased. The highest cumulated mortality was observed in the 85 years and over age groups, followed by the 75-84 age group.</p>   |
| <p>Levitt (2022)</p> <p><i>Multiple countries</i></p>    | <p>30 of 33 countries had a death deficit for children 0-14 years, the other three had minimal excess deaths. On average, 29.7% of excess deaths were in people &lt;65 years old; 10 countries had a death deficit for people &lt; 65 years old, while 4 countries had more than 25% of excess deaths in this population (Canada, USA, Chile, UK).</p>   |
| <p>Lewis (2021)</p> <p><i>England and Wales</i></p>      | <p>Among those working in schools, the age group 65 and older had much higher numbers of deaths compared with their 5-year average than the younger working age group. The group of all professionals and of all occupations had fewer excess deaths than those working in schools.</p>  |
| <p>Lundberg (2021)</p> <p><i>Multiple countries</i></p>  | <p>There was no significant association between the % of population 65 years and older and excess mortality in 2020.</p>   |
| <p>Quast (2021)</p> <p><i>USA</i></p>                    | <p>In both states, although the number of excess deaths was highest among older age groups, the ratio of observed-to-expected deaths was highest for adults aged 20-49.</p>  |
| <p>Rangachev (2022)</p> <p><i>Multiple countries</i></p> | <p>Most Western European countries had more excess deaths in the older population (&gt;65y), while Eastern European countries had relatively more excess deaths in people of working age (&lt;65y).</p>  |
| <p>Reif (2021)</p> <p><i>USA</i></p>                     | <p>Total excess death rate and both excess deaths due to COVID-19 and not due to COVID-19 were higher in the age group 65 years and above than in the age group 25-64 years.</p>   |
| <p>Riley (2021)</p> <p><i>USA</i></p>                    | <p>Relative increases in mortality was of similar magnitude across all age groups.</p>   |

|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Ruhm (2022)<br><i>USA</i>          | Actual-to-baseline death ratios were fairly comparable for 25–44, 45–64 and ≥ 65 year-olds, ranging from 1.21 to 1.31, with 95% CI's between 1.20 and 1.40, but with a considerably lower 1.15 (95% CI: 1.07–1.23) ratio for persons younger than 25. Over 90% of excess deaths of seniors were attributed to COVID-19, but with monotonically decreasing shares at younger ages.   |
| Shiels (2021)<br><i>USA</i>        | Death rates per month in 2020 were higher than in 2015-2019 across all groups aged 15 years and older, with the largest absolute increases in the oldest age groups.  |
| Stokes (2021)<br><i>USA</i>        | Counties in the lowest proportion of 65 year-olds had overall lower death rates than counties with the highest proportion of 65 year-olds. The non-covid attributable deaths were higher in counties less 65y-olds(25%) compared to the counties with more of 65y-olds (18%) though the 95% confidence intervals overlap.   |
| Strang (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i>     | Only patients over 80 years of age had excess deaths in March, whereas all studied age groups were affected in April. In May, excess deaths were mainly attributed to patients aged 70-79 years and to those aged 80 years or more.   |
| Strongman (2022)<br><i>UK</i>      | Excess deaths per million person-weeks increased with age and was the highest in the 80+ age group and the lowest in the 40-49 age group.   |
| Tarazi (2021)<br><i>USA</i>        | The absolute number of excess deaths increased with the age groups, with the lowest for <65 years and the highest number for 85+. The ratio of share of excess deaths to share of total number of beneficiaries was lowest in the 65-74 years group and highest in the 85+ group.<br><br><i>(A high ratio of share of excess deaths to share of beneficiaries indicates a disproportionate number of excess deaths within a particular subgroup).</i> |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i> | Overall, excess mortality was much higher in the population aged 65 and older than the population 40-64 years old.  |
| Zalla (2022)<br><i>USA</i>         | The magnitude of excess mortality increased dramatically with age, consistent with prepandemic mortality patterns as well as the age distribution of deaths attributed to COVID-19. The percentage increase in observed mortality relative to expected mortality was similar across age groups.   |

## 8B. Geslacht

|   |  |
|---|--|
| Achilleos (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | For most countries, mortality was raised in both males and females, but for some countries it was raised only in males (Ukraine and Israel) or females (Ireland).  |
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i>    | Relative excess mortality was higher for men than for women in all age groups and during all weeks, except for 3 weeks in March 2020 (9-29 March) for the age group 0-64 years.  |
| Caranci (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>                | The crude excess mortality was greater among men (22.2%) than women (18.4%).   |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>                | While men were 38% more likely to have died during 2020 than women (after adjusting for age), this was only marginally higher than the usual observed estimate (34%). Thus, the estimated EMR of 1.46 was not significantly higher than the UMR (usual mortality rate) (true pandemic interaction = 1.09, 95% CI 0.98–1.20). |

|   |  |
|---|--|
| Chen (2021)<br><i>USA</i>                     | Excess mortality per capita was significantly higher in men than in women.   |
| Cronin (2021)<br><i>USA</i>                   | Males had higher excess mortality than females, but a lower percentage excess mortality due to COVID-19.   |
| De Angelis (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>             | Standardized sex ratio was not associated with the all-cause standardized mortality ratio.   |
| De Lusignan (2020)<br><i>England</i>          | Male gender was associated with excess mortality. Adjusting for all other covariates, males had an excess mortality rate of 1.4 compared to females.   |
| Demetriou (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | For most countries, excess mortality was higher in males compared with females. Excess mortality was only higher in females in Slovenia and no notable differences were observed in Cyprus.  |
| Dorrucchi (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>              | Despite a similar incidence of COVID-19 cases reported for men and women, men presented a higher mortality risk than women. This difference appeared to be more marked during the second wave (compared to the first wave), even though not significantly. |
| Fazekas-Pongor (2022)<br><i>Hungary</i>       | There were no significant differences between men and women, except for a higher rate ratio in women compared to men aged 55-64 during the third wave.   |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>              | Excess mortality was higher in men than in women in all age groups.  |
| Hanly (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>     | Male deaths represented 76.7% of the total. The male/female ratio of deaths ranged between 1.42 in Switzerland to 14.71 in Sweden.   |
| Islam (2021)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>     | No differences in crude excess mortality between men and women. Higher age-standardised excess mortality in men.   |
| Joy (2020)<br><i>England</i>                  | The relative survival model showed males to have a 13.2% greater risk of mortality than females.   |
| Kontis (2020)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>    | Of all deaths, most were observed in men (105800 [90400-119000]) compared to women (100000 [82000-117500])   |
| Lewis (2021)<br><i>England and Wales</i>      | Excess mortality in men was higher than that in women for all those working in schools, all professional occupations and all occupations. This was the same for the age group 20-64 and the group aged 65+ that was still working.                         |
| Matz (2022)<br><i>England and Wales</i>       | Excess mortality was higher in men than in women in each occupational group.   |
| Oroszi (2021)<br><i>Hungary</i>               | Men had a 1.1 times higher risk of death than women.   |
| Quast (2021)                                  | In both states, the point estimate of the ratio of observed-to-expected deaths was higher for males than for females.  |

|   |   |
|---|---|
| USA   |   |
| Rangachev (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | Males (3,250 DPM, P-score: 24.1) across all ages had higher excess mortality rates in deaths per million than women (2,248 DPM, P-score of 19.3).   |
| Reif (2021)<br>USA                            | For the all ages, all races/ethnicities, and both COVID-19 related and non-COVID-19 related, excess death rates were higher for men than for women.   |
| Riley (2021)<br>USA                           | Latino males had a greater relative increase in mortality than Latina females.  |
| Ruhm (2022)<br>USA                            | Gender differences in the ratio of observed versus baseline deaths were fairly modest.  |
| Shiels (2021)a<br>USA                         | Although excess deaths per 100000 persons were higher among males than females within each racial/ethnic group, they were higher among non-Latino American Indian and Alaska Native (AI/AN), Black, and Latino females than among White and Asian males.  |
| Strongman (2022)<br>UK                        | Excess deaths per million person-weeks was slightly higher in male than female persons.   |
| Tarazi (2021)<br>USA                          | The ratio of share of excess deaths to share of total number of beneficiaries within the stratum was similar for males and females.<br><br><i>(A high ratio of share of excess deaths to share of beneficiaries indicates a disproportionate number of excess deaths within a particular subgroup).</i> |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>            | Overall, excess mortality was much higher for men than for women.   |

## Bijlage 9. Internationale verschillen

### 9A. Oversterfte per land

| Country               |                               |              |    | Male                          |              |   | Female                        |              |   |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|----|-------------------------------|--------------|---|-------------------------------|--------------|---|
|                       | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N  | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N |
| Albania               | 3030 (2440 to 3040)           | 1850 to 3050 | 3  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Andorra               | 1673 (1453 to 1892)           | 1233 to 2112 | 2  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Australia             | -214 (-291 to -169)           | -366 to -93  | 10 | -115 (-147 to -83)            | -179 to -51  | 2 | -143 (-148 to -138)           | -154 to -133 | 2 |
| Austria               | 856 (685 to 944)              | 88 to 1027   | 14 | 668 (402 to 894)              | 162 to 1016  | 4 | 444 (181 to 702)              | 13 to 855    | 4 |
| Belarus               | 3200 (2517 to 3883)           | 1834 to 4566 | 2  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Belgium               | 1422 (953 to 1573)            | 476 to 2544  | 15 | 1549 (1332 to 1762)           | 716 to 2367  | 4 | 1589 (1204 to 1934)           | 237 to 2781  | 4 |
| Bosnia                | 2816 (2648 to 2983)           | 2480 to 3151 | 2  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Bulgaria              | 2622 (2304 to 3342)           | -546 to 5953 | 6  | 1275 (333 to 2218)            | -610 to 3161 | 2 | 921 (219 to 1622)             | -482 to 2324 | 2 |
| Canada                | 321 (299 to 482)              | 184 to 596   | 7  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Croatia               | 1745 (1552 to 2248)           | 1061 to 2831 | 11 | 1610                          | NA           | 1 | 1581                          | NA           | 1 |
| Cyprus                | 222 (133 to 303)              | 9 to 360     | 6  | 54 (24 to 85)                 | -7 to 116    | 2 | 62 (44 to 80)                 | 27 to 97     | 2 |
| Czech Republic        | 1732 (1579 to 2055)           | -163 to 2667 | 13 | 1497 (694 to 1599)            | -108 to 1702 | 3 | 1197 (500 to 1327)            | -198 to 1457 | 3 |
| Denmark               | 82 (-58 to 285)               | -347 to 892  | 14 | 43 (-92 to 151)               | -328 to 304  | 4 | -146 (-386 to 133)            | -446 to 316  | 4 |
| England and Wales     | 1431 (1396 to 2353)           | 1361 to 3275 | 3  | 1401 (776 to 2416)            | 151 to 3430  | 3 | 1354 (1336 to 2232)           | 1319 to 3109 | 3 |
| Estonia               | 1015 (378 to 1307)            | -209 to 2119 | 12 | 413 (176 to 455)              | -61 to 497   | 3 | 347 (-9 to 429)               | -365 to 512  | 3 |
| Finland               | 234 (134 to 319)              | -65 to 794   | 12 | 250 (243 to 261)              | 236 to 272   | 3 | 218 (167 to 270)              | 116 to 321   | 3 |
| France                | 763 (545 to 938)              | 306 to 1197  | 16 | 729 (433 to 932)              | 371 to 1182  | 5 | 560 (241 to 804)              | 210 to 1212  | 5 |
| Georgia               | 1159 (409 to 1351)            | -340 to 1544 | 3  | -342                          | NA           | 1 | -338                          | NA           | 1 |
| Germany               | 534 (337 to 847)              | 271 to 1221  | 12 | 426                           | NA           | 1 | 197                           | NA           | 1 |
| Gibraltar             | 665                           | NA           | 1  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Greece                | 907 (660 to 1156)             | 550 to 1188  | 11 | 602 (576 to 628)              | 549 to 655   | 2 | 659 (604 to 713)              | 550 to 767   | 2 |
| Greenland             | -425                          | NA           | 1  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| High income countries | 961                           | NA           | 1  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Hungary               | 1736 (1427 to 1976)           | -179 to 2761 | 13 | 1381 (544 to 1522)            | -294 to 1663 | 3 | 1508 (726 to 1626)            | -56 to 1745  | 3 |
| Iceland               | -48 (-147 to 9)               | -429 to 91   | 11 | -84                           | NA           | 1 | -118                          | NA           | 1 |
| Ireland               | 166 (142 to 195)              | 117 to 225   | 3  | -16                           | NA           | 1 | 346                           | NA           | 1 |

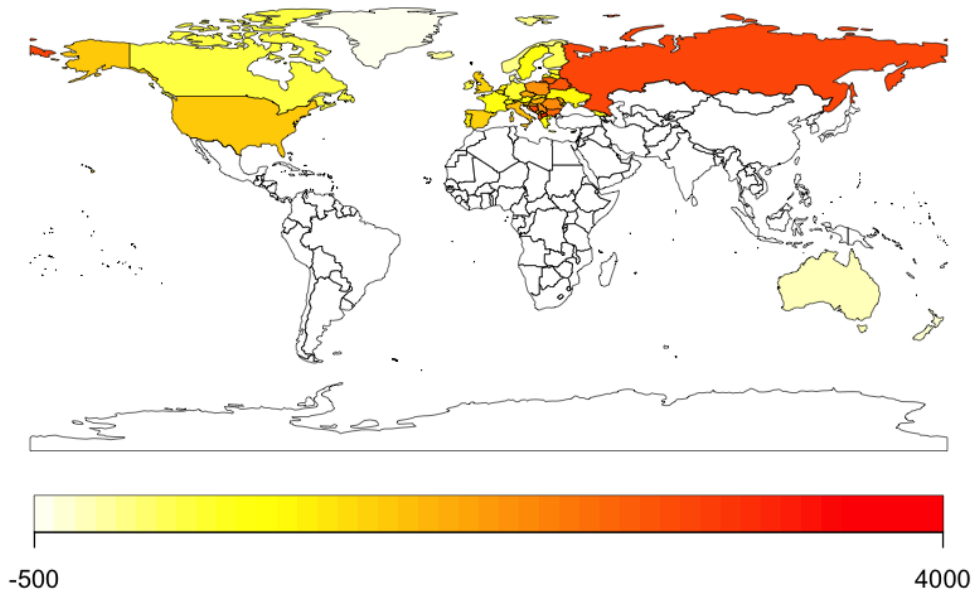


| Country                       |                               |              |    | Male                          |              |   | Female                        |              |   |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|----|-------------------------------|--------------|---|-------------------------------|--------------|---|
|                               | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N  | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N |
| Italy                         | 1581 (1383 to 1899)           | 381 to 2797  | 15 | 1650 (841 to 2007)            | 500 to 2837  | 5 | 1354 (262 to 1893)            | 98 to 2768   | 5 |
| Kosovo                        | 1446                          | NA           | 1  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Latvia                        | 1592 (552 to 2043)            | 91 to 3265   | 11 | 425 (355 to 495)              | 284 to 566   | 2 | 680 (629 to 730)              | 579 to 780   | 2 |
| Liechtenstein                 | 1109 (1058 to 1142)           | 1007 to 1175 | 3  | 1188                          | NA           | 1 | 878                           | NA           | 1 |
| Lithuania                     | 2598 (2354 to 3095)           | 1077 to 3580 | 12 | 2694 (2672 to 2716)           | 2650 to 2738 | 2 | 2248 (2234 to 2262)           | 2220 to 2276 | 2 |
| Lower middle income countries | 1435                          | NA           | 1  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Luxembourg                    | 440 (162 to 656)              | 45 to 849    | 11 | 546                           | NA           | 1 | 333                           | NA           | 1 |
| Malta                         | 658 (579 to 714)              | 542 to 840   | 5  | 520                           | NA           | 1 | 796                           | NA           | 1 |
| Moldova                       | 2309 (1479 to 2889)           | 486 to 3133  | 4  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Monaco                        | 1661 (1189 to 2132)           | 718 to 2603  | 2  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Montenegro                    | 1835 (1454 to 2396)           | 1105 to 3286 | 4  | 1826                          | NA           | 1 | 1314                          | NA           | 1 |
| Netherlands                   | 878 (837 to 1089)             | 409 to 1683  | 15 | 1040 (924 to 1302)            | 667 to 1996  | 4 | 754 (597 to 915)              | 151 to 1370  | 4 |
| New Zealand                   | -263 (-350 to -174)           | -491 to -86  | 11 | -357 (-414 to -299)           | -472 to -241 | 2 | -329 (-420 to -238)           | -511 to -148 | 2 |
| North Macedonia               | 3566 (3011 to 4221)           | 2455 to 4877 | 3  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Northern Ireland              | 909 (783 to 1035)             | 657 to 1161  | 2  | 1056                          | NA           | 1 | 1161                          | NA           | 1 |
| Norway                        | 3 (-78 to 94)                 | -278 to 188  | 14 | 28 (5 to 75)                  | -38 to 190   | 4 | -63 (-87 to -21)              | -157 to 102  | 4 |
| Poland                        | 2076 (1861 to 2288)           | 34 to 2825   | 13 | 1869 (1005 to 1990)           | 141 to 2111  | 3 | 1304 (613 to 1457)            | -77 to 1611  | 3 |
| Portugal                      | 1097 (894 to 1386)            | 175 to 1963  | 15 | 820 (644 to 906)              | 242 to 1037  | 4 | 968 (683 to 1112)             | 107 to 1267  | 4 |
| Romania                       | 2101 (1928 to 2438)           | 1766 to 3091 | 5  | 2433                          | NA           | 1 | 1768                          | NA           | 1 |
| Russia                        | 2983 (2732 to 3349)           | 2481 to 3716 | 3  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| San Marino                    | 2164 (1950 to 2377)           | 1736 to 2591 | 2  |                               |              |   |                               |              |   |
| Scotland                      | 1245 (1162 to 2059)           | 1080 to 2873 | 3  | 1428 (1342 to 2150)           | 1256 to 2873 | 3 | 1062 (982 to 1967)            | 903 to 2873  | 3 |
| Serbia                        | 2325 (1894 to 2847)           | 1765 to 3251 | 4  | 2237                          | NA           | 1 | 1293                          | NA           | 1 |
| Slovakia                      | 1961 (940 to 2328)            | -206 to 2579 | 12 | 843 (303 to 1033)             | -238 to 1223 | 3 | 770 (310 to 962)              | -150 to 1154 | 3 |
| Slovenia                      | 1432 (1275 to 1633)           | -172 to 1694 | 12 | 1523 (650 to 1551)            | -223 to 1578 | 3 | 1523 (701 to 1667)            | -122 to 1811 | 3 |
| Spain                         | 1579 (1191 to 1711)           | 726 to 3301  | 16 | 1669 (1510 to 2120)           | 1237 to 3272 | 4 | 1714 (1322 to 2199)           | 455 to 3344  | 4 |
| Sweden                        | 645 (540 to 875)              | -18 to 1813  | 14 | 1011 (836 to 1272)            | 386 to 1978  | 4 | 786 (591 to 1007)             | 27 to 1649   | 4 |
| Switzerland                   | 787 (515 to 936)              | 58 to 1283   | 15 | 835 (574 to 985)              | 69 to 1161   | 4 | 506 (285 to 720)              | 48 to 936    | 4 |

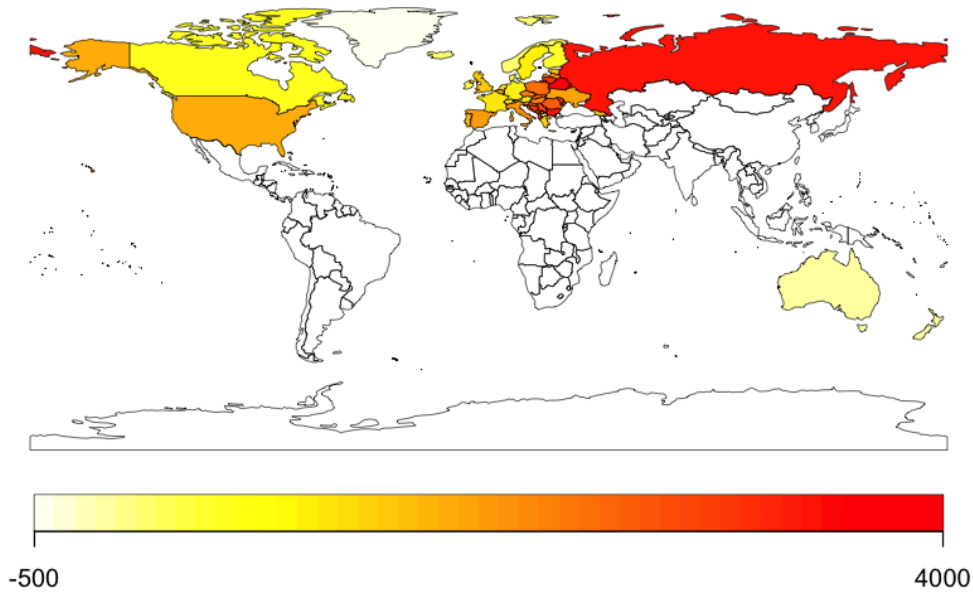
| Country                       | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N  | Male                          |             |   | Female                        |              |   |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|----|-------------------------------|-------------|---|-------------------------------|--------------|---|
|                               |                               |              |    | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range       | N | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range        | N |
| UK                            | 1231 (1111 to 1261)           | 651 to 1408  | 11 |                               |             |   |                               |              |   |
| Ukraine                       | 1238 (738 to 1696)            | 254 to 2052  | 4  | 1821                          | NA          | 1 | -1319                         | NA           | 1 |
| Upper middle income countries | 1080                          | NA           | 1  |                               |             |   |                               |              |   |
| USA                           | 1429 (1250 to 1561)           | -627 to 1706 | 12 | 934 (661 to 1206)             | 388 to 1479 | 2 | 1502 (1394 to 1610)           | 1286 to 1717 | 2 |

NA: not applicable for countries with only 1 study

**25th percentile excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**

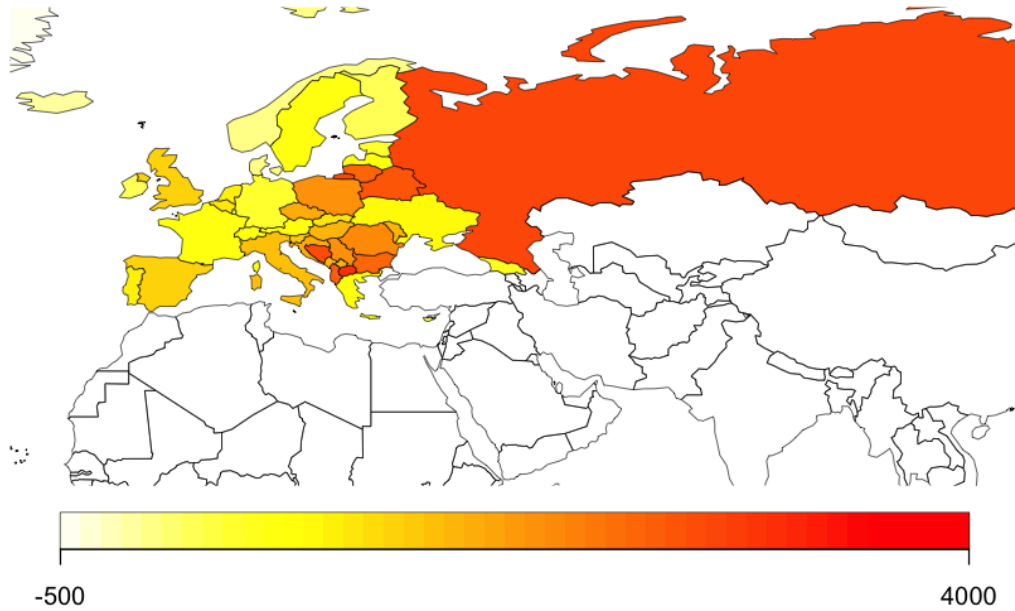


**75th percentile excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**

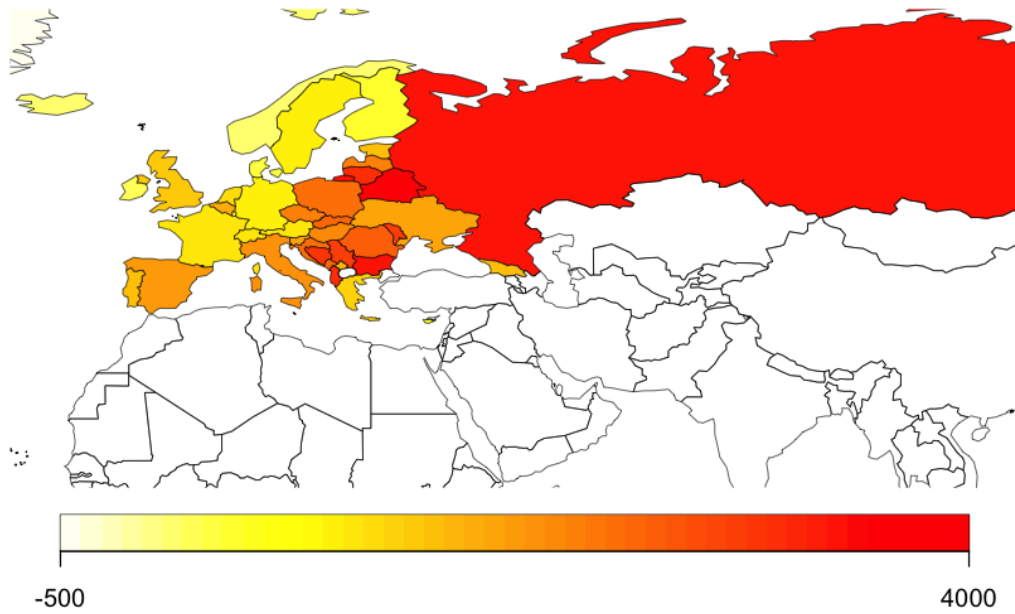


**Figuur: Internationale verschillen in oversterfte wereldwijd (25e en 75e percentielen)**

**25th percentile excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**



**75th percentile excess mortality per 1 million inhabitants per year**



**Figuur: Internationale verschillen in oversterfte in Europa (25e en 75e percentielen)**

## 9B. COVID-19 sterfte per land

| Country                       | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range          | N | Male   |   | Female |   |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---|--------|---|--------|---|
|                               |                               |                |   | Median | N | Median | N |
| <b>Albania</b>                | 400 (361 to 405)              | 322 to 411     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Andorra                       | 438 (438 to 438)              | 438 to 438     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Australia                     | 29 (20 to 35)                 | 8 to 36        | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| Austria                       | 404 (263 to 673)              | 124 to 695     | 5 |        |   |        |   |
| Azerbaijan                    | 258 (258 to 258)              | 258 to 258     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Belarus                       | 154 (153 to 156)              | 151 to 158     | 2 |        |   |        |   |
| Belgium                       | 1681 (1412 to 1999)           | 633 to 2926    | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| Bosnia                        | 1160 (1118 to 1203)           | 1075 to 1246   | 2 |        |   |        |   |
| Bulgaria                      | 1095 (1081 to 1155)           | 1066 to 1216   | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Canada                        | 418 (314 to 592)              | 210 to 766     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Croatia                       | 925 (855 to 945)              | 784 to 965     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Cyprus                        | 131 (105 to 136)              | 35 to 144      | 4 | 50     | 1 | 20     | 1 |
| Czech Republic                | 1056 (979 to 1075)            | 901 to 1094    | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Denmark                       | 187 (158 to 216)              | 148 to 228     | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| England and Wales             | 1349 (1349 to 1349)           | 1349 to 1349   | 1 | 1505   | 1 | 1198   | 1 |
| Estonia                       | 171 (149 to 229)              | 96 to 389      | 4 | 98     | 1 | 96     | 1 |
| Finland                       | 99 (90 to 100)                | 81 to 101      | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| France                        | 943 (487 to 953)              | 453 to 1584    | 5 | 548    | 1 | 359    | 1 |
| Georgia                       | 628 (318 to 631)              | 8 to 633       | 3 | 8      | 1 | 8      | 1 |
| Germany                       | 377 (360 to 391)              | 332 to 407     | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| Greece                        | 468 (461 to 495)              | 454 to 521     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| High income countries         | 38410 (38410 to 38410)        | 38410 to 38410 | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Hungary                       | 1001 (982 to 1043)            | 963 to 1086    | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Iceland                       | 84 (56 to 85)                 | 28 to 85       | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Ireland                       | 455 (387 to 532)              | 318 to 608     | 3 | 602    | 1 | 612    | 1 |
| Italy                         | 1209 (1175 to 1235)           | 603 to 1995    | 5 |        |   |        |   |
| Kazakhstan                    | 145 (145 to 145)              | 145 to 145     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Latvia                        | 341 (331 to 494)              | 320 to 647     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Lithuania                     | 674 (649 to 694)              | 623 to 713     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Lower middle income countries | 10270 (10270 to 10270)        | 10270 to 10270 | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Luxembourg                    | 782 (581 to 786)              | 380 to 791     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Malta                         | 487 (389 to 491)              | 291 to 495     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Moldova                       | 742 (741 to 753)              | 741 to 765     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Monaco                        | 266 (266 to 266)              | 266 to 266     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Montenegro                    | 1067 (1061 to 1073)           | 1055 to 1079   | 2 |        |   |        |   |
| Netherlands                   | 669 (577 to 821)              | 329 to 1247    | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| New Zealand                   | 5 (4 to 5)                    | 3 to 5         | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| North Macedonia               | 1176 (1163 to 1189)           | 1150 to 1202   | 2 |        |   |        |   |

| Country                       | Median (25th-75th percentile) | Range          | N | Male   |   | Female |   |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---|--------|---|--------|---|
|                               |                               |                |   | Median | N | Median | N |
| Northern Ireland              | 714 (714 to 714)              | 714 to 714     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Norway                        | 77 (71 to 80)                 | 64 to 80       | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| Poland                        | 726 (701 to 746)              | 675 to 766     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Portugal                      | 663 (568 to 673)              | 474 to 683     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Romania                       | 810 (807 to 817)              | 805 to 824     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Russia                        | 389 (388 to 765)              | 386 to 1141    | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| San Marino                    | 802 (802 to 802)              | 802 to 802     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| Scotland                      | 1188 (1188 to 1188)           | 1188 to 1188   | 1 | 1213   | 1 | 1164   | 1 |
| Serbia                        | 472 (430 to 475)              | 389 to 477     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Slovakia                      | 412 (388 to 616)              | 363 to 819     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Slovenia                      | 993 (563 to 1278)             | 92 to 1313     | 4 | 72     | 1 | 112    | 1 |
| Spain                         | 1080 (1069 to 1088)           | 571 to 2037    | 5 | 916    | 1 |        |   |
| Sweden                        | 846 (820 to 865)              | 386 to 1791    | 5 |        |   | 782    | 1 |
| Switzerland                   | 866 (613 to 879)              | 360 to 891     | 3 |        |   |        |   |
| Turkey                        | 250 (250 to 250)              | 250 to 250     | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| UK                            | 1075 (955 to 1330)            | 651 to 2040    | 4 |        |   |        |   |
| Ukraine                       | 443 (359 to 490)              | 113 to 625     | 4 | 161    | 1 | 71     | 1 |
| Upper middle income countries | 39792 (39792 to 39792)        | 39792 to 39792 | 1 |        |   |        |   |
| USA                           | 1042 (859 to 1070)            | 653 to 1257    | 5 | 939    | 1 | 780    | 1 |

## 9C. Lijst verklaringen internationale verschillen

| Reference, geographical area                                   | Summary of explanations for international differences  |
|--|--|
| <b>Achilleos (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                    | Stringency/timing of control measures, inequalities in healthcare access, geographical location, inequalities in population density, seasonality, delay/inaccuracies in death reporting, whether COVID-19 being a contributing factor to death is included in its mortality rate.  |
| <b>Bartscher (2021)</b><br><i>Europe</i>                       | Social capital, compliance with containment norms, strictness of containment policies, mobility behavior   |
| <b>Bell (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                         | Underestimation of true burden by official death rates in LICs and lower MICs, access to COVID-19 vaccines   |
| <b>Bogos (2021)</b><br><i>Europe</i>                           | Timing of restrictions and policies, adherence to restrictions, hospital capacity/expenditure, differences in definitions for covid-19-related deaths  |
| <b>Corrao (2021)</b><br><i>Europe + Canada, USA</i>            | "Highest COVID-19 mortality rate in Belgium possibly due to the broadest criterion for attributing a death to COVID-19.<br><br>Between-country heterogeneity of COVID-19 mortality metrics could be largely explained by differences of criteria for attributing a death to COVID-19; in age/ comorbidity structures; in policies for identifying asymptomatic people affected from SARS-CoV-2 infection.<br><br>COVID-19 age-adjusted mortality rate was the largest in Belgium and the lowest in Austria." |
| <b>Demetriou (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                    | Variation in the timing, strictness and duration of governmental control measures, access to healthcare. Moreover, significantly higher yearly deaths in the younger age group (<70) was only observed in Estonia, which can be explained by an increased prevalence of comorbidities in the Estonian population (<70y).   |
| <b>Huang (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                        | Poverty, vaccine coverage (accessibility and public acceptance), geographical region, limited reporting  |
| <b>Islam (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                        | Gender inequality, extreme high mortality in nursing homes in the USA, underreporting of covid-19 deaths, early viral elimination strategy in New Zealand.   |
| <b>Kapitsinis (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                   | Differences in testing system (registering of COVID-19 deaths), pre-pandemic healthcare conditions, state capacity to handle the pandemic (test and trace), lockdown measures, timing of lockdown, population density, global interconnectedness, religion   |
| <b>Karlinsky (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                    | Incomplete death registrations   |
| <b>Kelly (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                        | Differences in reporting, (timing of) government responses/stringency index, social determinants, disruption to health services, population density, care home occupancy   |
| <b>Kontis (2020)</b><br><i>Europe + Australia, New Zealand</i> | Baseline characteristics of the population and communities they live in; the response policies that affect mortality positively by interrupting transmission and negatively by isolation and denial of essential services; and the preparedness, resilience and agility of the public health and health and social care systems.   |
| <b>Kung (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                         | "Countries that imposed early and stringent lockdown measures, reported none or a reduction. Variation in excess death proportion related to COVID-19 are likely due to differences in healthcare systems, case definitions, availability of testing, variations in the historical baseline all-cause death rates from which the number of excess deaths were estimated, and other factors that contributed to deaths from causes other than COVID-19."  |
| <b>Levitt (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                       | Adverse risk profiles, disadvantaged populations without good health care, availability of vaccination options, population infection rates, reliability of data  |
| <b>Lundberg (2021)</b><br><i>Europe</i>                        | Government measures, geographical factors, population demographics and density, genetic factors, cultural differences, organization of health care, elderly nursing homes.   |
| <b>Meng (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                         | Inconsistency of mortality data between countries  |

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>Rangachev (2022)</b><br><i>Europe</i>              | Insufficient testing and underreporting of COVID-19 related cases and deaths, (timing of) government restrictions and social mobility of people, high prevalence of cardiovascular diseases in Eastern Europe vs. Western Europe. Healthcare disparities |
| <b>Rose (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                | Epidemiology workforce, number of urban centres, surveillance and reporting capacities, restrictions, social cohesion, societal/political polarisation, previous experience with SARS/MERS, island status, population share over 65 years                |
| <b>Sanmarchi (2021)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>           | Differences in testing and diagnosis capacities and effective response measures against the pandemic   |
| <b>Verbeeck (2021)</b><br><i>Belgium, Netherlands</i> | Possible underestimation of the number of covid-related deaths in the Netherlands.   |
| <b>Wang (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>                | Paucity in extensive testing, medical practices, and state guidance, lower mask use, increased mobility, fewer social distancing mandates, HAQ index, crude death rates, inpatient admission rates, health-care use, vaccination rates                   |
| <b>Watson (2022)</b><br><i>Worldwide</i>              | Number of vaccinations administered, levels of vaccine coverage achieved before delta, access to more efficacious mRNA vaccines, government policies   |
| <b>Zhou (2022)</b><br><i>Europe</i>                   | No explanations for differences between countries, they do provide some results on the effect of covid measures and vaccine effectiveness for separate countries in supplementary material.  |



## Bijlage 10. Oversterfte in subgroepen

### 10A. Mensen met verschillende etnische achtergronden

|                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Barnard (2021)<br><i>England</i>     | Higher overall excess mortality was observed in the black, Asian, mixed and other ethnic groups compared to the white group.   |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>       | People of black ethnicity versus white had an EMR = 2.50 (95%CI 1.97–3.18), while for Asian ethnicity the EMR = 1.50 (95%CI 1.19–1.90) compared to white. As non-white ethnicities had UMRs<1 in pre-pandemic years, the estimated true pandemic interactions were higher still (Black = 2.72, Asian = 1.87).  |
| Chen (2021)a<br><i>USA</i>           | Latino Californians had the highest relative excess mortality as well as high per-capita excess. Per-capita excess mortality was highest among Black Californians at 110 excess deaths per capita (95% PI: 93–126), with relative excess of 28% (95% PI: 22–33%). Asian Californians had lower relative and per-capita excess mortality.                                     |
| Chen (2021)b<br><i>USA</i>           | Black and Latino residents had highest excess mortality per capita. White and Asian residents had similar excess mortality per capita.   |
| Cronin (2021)<br><i>USA</i>          | Absolute excess deaths are highest for whites, though the death rates per 1000 are higher for Black and Hispanic people. The percentage excess deaths from COVID-19 was higher for white people than for Black/Hispanic people.  |
| De Lusignan (2020)<br><i>England</i> | Black ethnicity compared with white ethnicity was associated with excess mortality. On the other hand, Asian ethnicity was associated with less excess mortality than white ethnicity. There was no statistically significant difference in excess mortality between white ethnicity and mixed/other ethnicity.  |
| Habibdoust (2022)<br><i>USA</i>      | Among all race/ethnic groups, the total all-cause deaths were higher than expected. In absolute numbers, Hispanics had highest number of excess deaths, followed by White non-Hispanic, Asian and Black people. Adjusting for population size, Black individuals had the highest rate of excess deaths per 100 K people followed by Hispanic, White non-Hispanic, and Asian. |
| Joy (2020)<br><i>England</i>         | Compared with white ethnicity, black ethnicity was associated with increased mortality in the cohort with known SARS-COV-2 status (OR = 1.84, 95% CI = 1.33 to 2.54, P = 0.0002). For mixed, other and Asian ethnicity compared to white ethnicity, odds ratios for all-cause mortality were not statistically significant.  |
| Laurencin (2021)<br><i>USA</i>       | There were higher mortality rates due to Covid-19 in Blacks and Latinx, and both groups experienced a greater increase in mortality than Whites especially when compared to the same time period of the previous year.   |
| Lukowsky (2022)<br><i>USA</i>        | The largest change in all-cause mortality was observed between periods 2 and 3, resulting in a 34% increase in deaths among Hispanics and a 32% increase among Blacks. Between periods 1 and 2, the change in all-cause mortality was considerably lower for both  |

|                                |  |
|--------------------------------|--|
|                                | minority groups (13% Blacks, 13% Hispanics). Among Whites, we found an 18% increase in all-cause mortality between periods 2 and 3, and a 19% increase between periods 1 and 2.  |
| Polyakova (2021)<br><i>USA</i> | All racial groups exhibited excess mortality in April 2020. The unadjusted excess mortality was highest for Black people, followed by Asian, then Hispanic people and people with other or two or more ethnic backgrounds. Excess mortality was the lowest for Hawaiian and Pacific Islanders. Excess mortality in Hispanic, Black and Asian people were statistically significantly different compared to excess mortality in White people.   |
| Quast (2021)<br><i>USA</i>     | The ratios of observed-to-expected deaths were larger for Black people than for White people, with the disparity in Florida (1.30 vs 1.15) being greater than the disparity in Ohio (1.23 vs 1.14).  |
| Reif (2021)<br><i>USA</i>      | For ages 25-64, for men and women, the total death rate and the non-COVID-19 death rate was highest for the Black race/ethnicity, a bit lower for the Hispanic race/ethnicity and lowest for the White race/ethnicity. This was the same for total death rate for and non-COVID-19 death rate for women aged 65 years and older and the non-COVID-19 death rate for men aged 65 years and older. COVID-19 related excess deaths in men aged 25-64 and total death rate and COVID-19 death rate in men aged 65 years and older was highest for Hispanics.   |
| Rossen (2021)<br><i>USA</i>    | <p>a. Among persons aged 25–64 years, the largest percentage excess mortality occurred among Hispanic persons.</p> <p>b. Among persons aged &lt;65 years, Black and AI/AN populations had the highest excess mortality IRs (e.g. the number of excess deaths per 100,000 person-years). Among adults aged ≥65 years, Black and Hispanic persons experienced the highest excess mortality IRs of &gt;1,000 excess deaths per 100,000 person-years.</p> <p>c. Black persons had the highest excess mortality IR among all persons aged &lt;25 years.</p>   |
| Ruhm (2022)<br><i>USA</i>      | White people had the highest absolute number of excess deaths, but these represented a smaller percentage increase over baseline than for other groups: the ratio was 1.17 (95% CI: 1.15–1.19) for white individuals compared with 1.33 to 1.51 (with similar sized 95% CI's) for black, Hispanic, and other nonwhite persons. Among white people, 87.3% (95% CI: 78.9%–97.8%) of excess deaths were attributed to COVID-19, with considerably lower percentages for black (67.8%, 95% CI: 63.4%–72.9%) and other nonwhite individuals (76.4%, 95% CI: 74.3%–78.5%).   |
| Shiels (2021)a<br><i>USA</i>   | Age-standardized excess deaths per 100000 persons in 2020 among Black, AI/AN, and Latino males and females were 2 to 3 times higher than among White and Asian males and females.  |
| Stokes (2021)<br><i>USA</i>    | <p>Counties with higher proportion of Black people had higher death rates than counties with lowest proportion of Black people. Counties with more Black people also had higher percentages of non-covid deaths (23%) than counties with less Black people (14%) without overlap of the 95% confidence intervals.</p> <p>Counties with highest proportions of White people had lower death rates than counties with the lowest proportions of White people. In counties with the highest proportion of White people almost all deaths were attributed to covid (2% not-attributed to covid). In counties with lowest proportions of white people 18% of deaths were non-covid attributable (no overlap in 95%-CI's)</p> <p>Death rates for counties with highest and lowest proportions of Hispanic people were similar (+ 1.4 from graph), but deaths that were non-attributable to covid were higher</p> |

|                               |   |
|-------------------------------|---|
|                               | among counties with the highest proportion of Hispanic people (18% vs. 9%, overlapping 95% CI's)  |
| Strongman (2022)<br><i>UK</i> | Compared to white ethnic groups, prepandemic mortality rates were lower in black (0.80, 95% CI 0.78 to 0.82), South Asian (0.81, 95% CI 0.80 to 0.83), and other non-white ethnic groups (0.66, 95% CI 0.64 to 0.69). However, during Wave 1 of the pandemic, RRs of death in minority ethnic groups were higher compared to white people (blacks 1.53, 95% CI 1.43 to 1.64; South Asians 1.15, 95% CI 1.08 to 1.23; other ethnicities 1.03, 95% 0.91 to 1.17). |
| Tarazi (2021)<br><i>USA</i>   | COVID-19-related mortality rates also varied considerably by subgroup; being higher than average for Black, Asian, Native American, and Hispanic beneficiaries.<br>High ratios appeared for Black and Hispanic beneficiaries.<br><br><i>(A high ratio of share of excess deaths to share of beneficiaries indicates a disproportionate number of excess deaths within a particular group).</i>  |
| Zalla (2022)<br><i>USA</i>    | The 1-year risk of excess mortality was higher than the national average among decedents identified as American Indian or Alaska Native (25.2 deaths per 10 000) or Black (22.2 deaths per 10 000), and lower than the national average among decedents identified as Hispanic (13.8 deaths per 10 000), White (13.6 deaths per 10 000), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (12.4 deaths per 10 000), or Asian (8.6 deaths per 10 000).                        |

## 10B. Bewoners van institutionele instellingen

|                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Alacevich (2021)<br><i>Italy</i> | In municipalities where a care home is present, there are significantly higher excess death rates compared to municipalities without any care home. The presence of a care home is more relevant than the number of beds in care homes.   |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>   | EMR 2.87x greater than the UMR in care home residents compared to the rest of the population  |
| Caranci (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>   | Compared to 2015-2019, in 2020 more deaths occurred at home or in long-term care facilities (LCF). Women reached the highest mortality rate ratios (MRR), especially in LCF. Men had the highest but unstable MRR corresponding to home care.<br><br>Fewer deaths were registered in care settings such as hospices and community or long-term hospitals among both men and women, compared to the other care settings such as hospitals and LCF. |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i> | For the 65-84 age group, excess mortality was 24% for male and 18% for female non-residents compared to 57% for male and 53% for female care home residents.<br><br>For the 85+ age group, care home residents show a much higher excess mortality during the first COVID-19 wave compared to elderly people who still lived independently: a 50% vs. 22% higher mortality level among men, and a 42% vs. 22% difference among women.             |

|                                |  |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Strang (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i> | In March, the percentage excess deaths was higher for other places of death than nursing homes, 30% vs. 11%, whereas the situation reversed for April, 85% vs. 167%.   |
| Tarazi (2021)<br><i>USA</i>    | High ratios appeared for beneficiaries that were nursing home residents.<br><br><i>(A high ratio of share of excess deaths to share of beneficiaries indicates a disproportionate number of excess deaths within a particular subgroup).</i> |

## 10C. Migranten

|  |   |
|--|---|
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i> | Proportion of Swedish-born: Demographic areas with the lowest proportion of Swedish-born had the highest excess mortality during the outbreak. Demographic areas with the highest proportion of Swedish-born had the lowest excess mortality up until the peak in the week April 6-12, after which the areas with the medium proportion of Swedish-born had the lowest excess mortality. Until April 27-May 3, when the highest proportion again experienced the lowest excess mortality. |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>           | For the men in the 25-64 years group, excess mortality was highest among first-generation non-Belgian people with 21.9% compared to Belgian (0.6%) and second-generation non-Belgians (8.5%).<br><br>For the women in the 25-64 years group, excess mortality was highest among first-generation non-Belgian people with 12.7% compared to Belgian (0.8%) and second-generation non-Belgians (7.2%).  |
| Riley (2021)<br><i>USA</i>                 | Foreign-born Latinos had higher relative excess mortality than U.S.-born Latinos. In every adult age group, foreign-born Latinos experienced at least double the relative increase in mortality experienced by U.S.-born Latinos.   |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>         | Striking was the excess mortality in SSA men and women, suffering from very high rates during the first COVID-19 wave. Sub-Saharan Africans were the only community showing significantly higher MRRs (mortality rate ratio) than native Belgians both for men and women at middle age and for women at old age.  |

## 10D. Mensen met comorbiditeiten

|                                |   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Astengo (2021)<br><i>Italy</i> | COVID-19 patients with various comorbidities, including chronic lung disease, chronic renal injury, neoplasia, chronic cardiovascular disease, neurological syndromes and diabetes, have a higher likelihood of complications and death. For the majority of comorbidities, the risk proved comparable in COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 patients. Only for chronic renal injuries in subjects aged 45-64 years, diabetes and chronic cardiovascular diseases in those aged 65-84 years, and neuropathies in those aged > 84 years, the risk of dying of COVID-19 was higher than the risk of dying of other causes. |
| Buja (2022)                    | Model 5 mention the following variables which show no significant correlation for excess mortality:   |

|                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| <i>Italy</i>                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*AIDS mortality rate</li> <li>*cardiovascular disease mortality rate</li> <li>*Tuberculosis mortality rate</li> <li>*population with at least one chronic disease</li> <li>*COPD mortality rate</li> <li>*No. of hypertensive subjects aged 65 or more per 1000 people</li> <li>*respiratory system and intrathoracic organs malignant cancer mortality rate</li> <li>*ischaemic heart disease mortality rate</li> <li>*respiratory system disease mortality rate</li> </ul>  |
| Caranci (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>       | Metabolic and neuropsychiatric diseases were more prevalent among those deceased in 2020 compared to the deaths that occurred in 2015-2019. The prevalence of respiratory disease was lower in 2020 among deceased older than 75 years, while it was higher, even if not significantly, among deceased younger than 75 years, in both sexes. In deceased younger than 75 years, cancer was less prevalent in 2020 compared to 2015-2019.   |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>       | <p>Among co-morbidities, the EMRs for dementia (9.87, 95%CI 9.00–10.82) and learning disability (8.54, 95% CI 5.99–12.18) stood out, though significantly higher estimates of EMR than UMR were also observed for chronic kidney disease, diabetes, epilepsy, hypertension, severe mental illness, osteoarthritis and stroke.</p> <p>Cancer and COPD produced EMRs significantly lower than their UMRs.</p>  |
| De Lusignan (2020)<br><i>England</i> | All studied comorbidities were significantly associated with excess mortality. Among the chronic diseases, hypertension has a lower excess mortality rate (EMR), than CKD. CKD in turn has a lower EMR than chronic respiratory and heart disease. People with cancer and who were immunocompromised had the highest EMR.  |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>     | Looking at the results by age group, there was a significant level of excess mortality during the first COVID-19 wave among men without chronic morbidity (10%) in the youngest age group (aged 25-64). Women in this group showed 5.7% of excess mortality.   |
| Gobina (2022)<br><i>Latvia</i>       | <p>All-cause excess deaths were significantly greater than COVID-19 related excess deaths. There was significant excess mortality from circulatory diseases during the first pandemic year. While there was also predicted excess deaths from malignant neoplasms, diabetes mellitus and chronic lower respiratory diseases, these predictions were not significant.</p> <p>Most COVID-19 contributing deaths were from cardiovascular diseases (58.6%) and malignant neoplasms (19.8%). Diabetes mellitus did only contribute to 4.5% of COVID-19 deaths.</p> |
| Joy (2020)<br><i>England</i>         | In the cohort with known SARS-COV-2 status: People diagnosed with chronic diseases and with learning disabilities had a higher odds of mortality, with the exception of diabetes and hypertension. Compared to normal weight, only severely obese persons (BMI $\geq$ 35 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) had significantly increased odds of mortality, while overweight persons (BMI 25-29 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) had significantly decreased odds of mortality.   |
| Ruhm (2022)<br><i>USA</i>            | Among non-COVID causes, heart disease had the largest absolute number of excess fatalities (31,382; 95% CI: 27,794-35,870) but this represented a smaller actual-to-baseline death ratio (1.05, 95% CI: 1.04–1.05) than for diabetes or Alzheimer’s disease. There were no excess cancer deaths and lower respiratory disease mortality was 5% (95%  |

|                             |   |
|-----------------------------|---|
|                             | CI: 1%–8%) below baseline, with a similar but less precisely estimated reduction for influenza/pneumonia.   |
| Shiels (2021)<br>USA        | Among persons aged 25 to 64 years, the most common specified causes of excess deaths were heart disease (n=5600) and diabetes (n=3000), although 9500 excess deaths were still unclassified as of the data release date. Among persons aged 65 years and older, the most common specific causes of excess death were Alzheimer disease (n= 6000) and diabetes (n= 4300), with 2100 excess deaths not yet assigned a cause. A notable deficit of cancer deaths was seen among persons aged 25 to 64 years (n=-5700) as well as those aged 65 years and older (n=-14800).                                       |
| Stokes (2021)<br>USA        | In counties with the lowest proportion of poor or fair health, had lower death rates than counties with the highest proportions of poor or fair health (~0.9 vs. ~1.75 deaths per 1000 PY) and showed a negative % of non-covid deaths (-3% vs. 19%, no overlapping CI's). The same trend could be seen for counties with the lowest proportion of Obesity, smoking and diabetes; lower death rates and lower non-covid deaths.   |
| Strongman (2022)<br>UK      | Numbers of excess deaths per million person-weeks were highest among people with dementia (2,693; 95% CI 2,682 to 2,704), cerebrovascular disease (656; 95% CI 652 to 660) or cancer diagnosed in the last year (616; 95% CI 603 to 628).<br><br>Prepandemic, people with dementia had a 3.47 (95% CI 3.44 to 3.51) times higher mortality rate than those without dementia, but this increased to 5.07 (95% CI 4.87 to 5.28) times higher in Wave 1. The equivalent estimates for learning difficulties were 3.55 (95% CI 3.44 to 3.51) prepandemic, increasing to 4.82 (95% CI 4.35 to 5.34) during Wave 1. |
| Tarazi (2021)<br>USA        | Compared with previous years, the highest shares of excess deaths in 2020 were among beneficiaries with hypertension, dementia, diabetes, or cardiac disorder; and those with multiple medical conditions.<br>High ratios appeared for beneficiaries with dementia, end-stage renal disease, or a severe neurological conditions.<br><br><i>(A high ratio of share of excess deaths to share of beneficiaries indicates a disproportionate number of excess deaths within a particular group).</i>  |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br>Belgium | Persons with a chronic disease had significantly higher excess mortality than persons without. The vulnerability of middle-aged people with a chronic disease did not really change during the first COVID-19 wave. The variable seemed to be somewhat more determinant in 2019 than in 2020 but the difference between both periods was not significant.   |
| Zhu (2021)<br>USA           | Excess deaths related to CVD and to influenza and respiratory diseases increased with the rise of excess deaths related to COVID-19 from week 12, and the first peak was at week 16. Compared with the baseline, the excess deaths from diabetes mellitus increased from week 12 to week 16, and it remained at about the same level after week 16. In addition, excess unclassified deaths in 2020 increased with time, and the more recent the week, the higher the number of deaths.   |

## 10E. Sociaaleconomische status en opleiding

### Sociaal economische status

|  |   |
|--|---|
| Barnard (2021)<br><i>England</i>           | Among those aged under 75 years, excess mortality was clearly associated with area deprivation: highest in the most deprived and lowest among the least deprived areas. A slight gradient in the relative excess mortality of the most deprived area quantile to the least deprived area was observed.  |
| Buja (2022)<br><i>Italy</i>                | Model 5 mention the following variables which show no significant correlation for excess mortality:<br>*local public transport facility availability<br>*GPs per 1000 people  |
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i> | Median acquisition income: During the outbreak, the highest excess mortality was recorded among demographic areas with the lowest tertile of median acquisition income. High income had the lowest excess mortality during the outbreak, up until the week of April 6-12, 2020, where medium income had the lowest excess mortality.  |
| Carey (2021)<br><i>England</i>             | Clear trend with IMD (Index of Multiple Deprivation), but not too dissimilar to the usual trend: EMR for the most deprived quintile (EMR = 2.05, 95%CI 1.76–2.38) was significantly slightly higher than expected (UMR = 1.70, 95%CI 1.65–1.75).  |
| De Angelis (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>          | SES: IRPEF per capita (proxy for household income) correlated positively with the standardized mortality ratio.   |
| De Lusignan (2020)<br><i>England</i>       | Poorer socioeconomic group (IMD Quintile 1) was associated with more excess mortality.  |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>           | <p>Looking at the results by age group, there was a significant level of excess mortality during the first COVID-19 wave among low-educated women (23%) and high-income men (14%).</p> <p>Absolute and relative mortality excesses in the 65-84 age group did not vary consistently by education and income among men, although middle- and high-income groups seemed characterised by a higher reccess mortality with resident men. Among women not residing in care homes, we found the largest mortality excesses among those with unknown and lower educational attainment, whereas the opposite was observed among care home residents. A similar pattern was observed by income.</p> <p>Among the 85+ age group, excess mortality was highest for men with an upper secondary degree and the missing category, while for income, patterns varied when considering absolute and relative excess mortality. For women, the largest excess mortality was observed for the lower and lower secondary educated and middle-income among care home residents. In non-resident women, patterns by education were inconsistent, while by income excesses were largest in the high-income and missing categories.</p> |

|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Joy (2020)<br><i>England</i>       | In the cohort with known SARS-COV-2 status, no change was seen in association of mortality with socioeconomic status, measured using Index of Multiple Deprivation quintile.  |
| Oroszi (2021)<br><i>Hungary</i>    | Excess mortality in the most deprived quintiles was 38.15% higher than in the least deprived one.<br><br>The excess death rate in districts with the lowest representation of Roma population was 10.16% lower than the average in the least deprived quintile, while the excess death rate in districts with the highest representation of Roma population was 17.46% higher than the average in the most deprived quintile. The excess death rates observed in districts with the largest share of the Roma population were 1.81 times higher than in those with the smallest share.  |
| Stokes (2021)<br><i>USA</i>        | In counties with the lowest median household incomes, higher death rates occurred and more excess deaths were not attributable to covid-19 vs. counties with the highest median household incomes (24% vs. 4%, no overlapping CI's)<br>In counties with lowest proportions of homeownership death rate was a bit higher and slightly more deaths were not attributed to covid (17% vs. 10%, overlap in CI's).   |
| Strang (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i>     | Per month:<br>When stratifying for socio-economic Mosaic groups, where Mosaic group 1 represents individuals from the most affluent and Mosaic 3 the least affluent socio-economic areas, there were significant differences as regards COVID-19-related deaths for each month during March to May 2020, with more deaths in Mosaic group 3.<br><br>Per age group:<br>COVID-19-related deaths were also calculated in relation to every 1000 inhabitants, stratified both for Mosaic groups and for age groups. The most affected month was April 2020. Deaths were consistently higher in Mosaic group 3 compared with Mosaic group 1. |
| Strongman (2022)<br><i>UK</i>      | Excess deaths per million person-weeks were highest among most deprived quintile (157). The least deprived quintile showed the lowest excess deaths per million person-weeks (136).   |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i> | Higher mortality among lower educated and low-income groups during the first wave.  |

### Opleiding

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i> | Proportion with above-elementary education: During the outbreak, the highest excess mortality was recorded among demographic areas in the lowest tertile of proportion with above-elementary education; excess mortality for medium- and high proportion remained similar throughout the outbreak. |
| Chen (2021) <sup>b</sup>                   | People with no education or only a highschool/GED had a higher excess mortality both absolute and per capita than people with a college degree or higher.  |



|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| USA                                |   |
| De Angelis (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>  | Education: High to low education ratio had an inverse relationship with the standardized mortality ratio.   |
| Gadeyne (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i>   | <p>Looking at the results by age group, there was a significant level of excess mortality during the first COVID-19 wave among low-educated women (23%) and high-income men (14%).</p> <p>Absolute and relative mortality excesses in the 65-84 age group did not vary consistently by education and income among men, although middle- and high-income groups seemed characterised by a higher reccess mortality with resident men. Among women not residing in care homes, we found the largest mortality excesses among those with unknown and lower educational attainment, whereas the opposite was observed among care home residents. A similar pattern was observed by income.</p> <p>Among the 85+ age group, excess mortality was highest for men with an upper secondary degree and the missing category, while for income, patterns varied when considering absolute and relative excess mortality. For women, the largest excess mortality was observed for the lower and lower secondary educated and middle-income among care home residents. In non-resident women, patterns by education were inconsistent, while by income excesses were largest in the high-income and missing categories.</p> |
| Riley (2021)<br><i>USA</i>         | Educational attainment was inversely associated with the magnitude of excess death during the pandemic period. Relative excess mortality was highest among Latinos with less than a high school degree and lowest among those with a Bachelor's degree or higher.   |
| Stokes (2021)<br><i>USA</i>        | Counties with the lowest proportion of high education showed the same trend (22% vs. 3%, no overlapping CI's).  |
| Vanthomme (2021)<br><i>Belgium</i> | Higher mortality among lower educated and low-income groups during the first wave.  |

### Beroepssector

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Calderon-Larranaga (2020)<br><i>Sweden</i> | Proportion of gainfully employed: Demographic areas with the lowest proportion of gainfully employed had the highest excess mortality. Demographic areas with the highest proportion had the lowest excess mortality up until the week of April 13-19, after which areas with a medium proportion had a lower excess mortality.  |
| Chen (2021)a<br><i>USA</i>                 | Occupational sector: Relatively large numbers of excess deaths were recorded among workers in the facilities and transportation/logistics sectors. Trends in excess mortality varied by occupational sector, with particularly high June–August relative excess among food/agriculture (52%; 95% PI: 43–63%), manufacturing (44%; 95% PI: 38–51%), and transportation/logistics (43%; 95% PI: 35–53%) workers. |

|  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>Lewis (2021)<br/><i>England and Wales</i></p> | <p>Occupational group: During March-December 2020, all-cause and COVID-19 mortality rates among educational professionals appeared to be lower than for all working-aged adults and similar to those for all professionals. When deaths across all occupations working in schools were combined, there was 15% excess mortality in men (similar for men in all occupations and among all male professionals) and 5% in women (lower than the excess observed across all occupations and among all professionals).</p> |
| <p>Matz (2022)<br/><i>England and Wales</i></p>  | <p>Occupational group: Healthcare workers had the highest excess mortality. The second highest excess mortality was in adults working in other essential occupations, followed by those working in social care and education. For non-essential workers, unemployed or those whose occupation was unknown, mortality was lower than would have been expected if the pandemic had not occurred.</p>  |
| <p>Riley (2021)<br/><i>USA</i></p>               | <p>Occupational sector: Cumulative excess mortality ratios were highest in those working in food-and-agriculture and manufacturing, and lowest for those in retail. Disadvantages in excess mortality associated with foreign-born status and low educational attainment were more pronounced among Latinos in essential occupations and in the 55 to 74 age group.</p>   |

## Bijlage 11. Virusvarianten, vaccinaties en interventies

### 11A. Virusvarianten

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Alicandro (2022)<br><i>Italy</i>        | Relative excess mortality was highest in the pre-Delta period and the Delta-Omicron transition period. Between these (during the Delta wave) the relative excess mortality was lower, and it was lowest during the Omicron-period.  |
| Faust (2022)<br><i>USA</i>              | More all-cause excess mortality occurred during the first 8 weeks of the Omicron period than during the entire 23-week Delta period.  |
| Fazekas-Pongor (2022)<br><i>Hungary</i> | The number of excess deaths recorded during the third wave of the pandemic was substantially lower than the number recorded during the second wave.   |
| Leon-Gomez (2021)<br><i>Spain</i>       | Pandemic waves: Estimated all-cause excess mortality during the first epidemic wave was considerably higher than the confirmed COVID-19 deaths, while estimates were very similar in the following two pandemic waves. Excess mortality estimates in the second and third pandemic waves were also lower compared to the first wave.                  |
| Stoto (2022)<br><i>USA</i>              | Excess mortality per 100,000 population per day was highest in the period October 2020 to February 2021 and the period June to September 2021, and lowest in the period in between this. The periods March to May 2020 and May 2020 to October 2020 had excess mortality rates in between, with the second period having higher rates than the first. |

### 11B. Vaccinaties

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Bell (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>  | COVID-19 vaccines had substantial positive effects on deaths, hospitalizations, and healthcare system resource use in 2021  |
| Fazekas-Pongor (2022)<br><i>Hungary</i>   | A clear decline in relative mortality of the 65 years and older population as observed when comparing the second to the third wave, possibly related to the quickly increasing vaccination coverage (from <10% at the end of the first wave to 50-65% at the end of the third wave). Vaccination coverage in the 35-44, 45-54 and 55-64 age groups were (much) lower during the third wave than for 65+ year olds (20-50% at the end of the third wave), and this can account for the increase in relative risk of mortality in these age groups compared to the second wave. Overall, the vaccine coverage was below 10% for all age groups at the end of the second wave, and ranged from 10-65% at the end of the third wave (average 30%), with the higher vaccination coverage in the higher age groups. |
| Huang (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | New deaths from all causes per million population and excess mortality did not decrease with time course. There was no significant correlation between excess mortality and the rate of fully vaccinated per hundred.   |

|  |  |
|--|--|
|  | At the same time point, new cases and deaths per million population gradually decreased as the rate of vaccination coverage increased, especially when the rate of COVID-19 vaccine coverage was over 60%.   |
| Rose (2021)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>   | More fully vaccinated people per 100 individuals had a positive effect on excess deaths (i.e. caused less excess deaths at day 400, but a negative effect at day 500; neither effect was significant).   |
| Stoto (2022)<br><i>USA</i>                 | Excess mortality in the summer of 2021 was correlated with vaccine uptake. The Northeast had the lowest COVID-19 mortality rates and the highest vaccination coverage. The South, at the other extreme, had the highest COVID-19 mortality rates and lowest vaccine coverage.  |
| Watson (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | It is estimated that vaccination prevented 79% of deaths due to COVID-19 and 63% of excess deaths during the first year of COVID-19 vaccination globally. 79% of excess mortality was averted due to direct protection. Vaccine impact was initially concentrated in LMIC, later in HIC. Number of deaths averted per vaccine administered was significantly higher in the European region and significantly lower in the Eastern Mediterranean region, reflecting disparities in access to vaccine types. |
| Zhou (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i>   | After the introduction of vaccination, main effect of covid measures on excess mortality increased with 25% (RR 1.25; 95% CI: 1.11–1.41). The main effect of covid measures drops with the increase in vaccine coverage. Even under weak covid measures (low intensity, low duration) vaccine policies can effectively reduce 15% of excess deaths (RR 0.85; 95% CI: 0.77–0.94).   |

### 11C. COVID-19 interventies

|   |  |
|---|--|
| Achilleos (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | The mortality burden observed in the participating countries of this study seems to be, at least partly, related to the promptness in the application of control measures of high stringency index.  |
| Dorrucci (2021)<br><i>Italy</i>               | The all-cause excess deaths increased much faster during the first wave than in the second wave, even though the percentage of all-cause excess deaths was higher during the second wave. This result may be explained by the different mitigation measures adopted in Italy during the two phases.  |
| Matz (2022)<br><i>England and Wales</i>       | Excess mortality started to increase in March 2020. After the first national lockdown began, excess mortality continued to increase, with the peak of the first wave occurring in April. Post-lockdown (after July 2020), mortality was consistently lower than expected among working age adults for all occupations combined. During the second national lockdown (November 2020), mortality increased slightly, though there was still no excess mortality. |
| Rangachev (2022)<br><i>Multiple countries</i> | Overall low stringency index of Bulgaria is likely a contributing factor to the high excess mortality. Restrictions were probably not the main cause of decline in cases as the restrictions peaked at time of the peak in excess mortality. It is more likely that people were distancing themselves.   |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>Riley (2021)<br/><i>USA</i></p>               | <p>Excess mortality was lowest during California's Shelter-in-Place period (March 19-May 7, 2020)</p>  |
| <p>Rose (2021)<br/><i>Multiple countries</i></p> | <p>Stringency of interventions:<br/>Stringent interventions showed a negative effect (i.e. more excess deaths) at all time points, but non were significant.<br/>Trade and travel restrictions:<br/>Trade and travel restrictions had a significant negative effect (i.e. caused more excess deaths) at day 100, 300 and 400, and was non-significant at day 500.</p>  |
| <p>Stoto (2022)<br/><i>USA</i></p>               | <p>Excess COVID-19 mortality in the South and other areas of the country starting in the summer of 2020 is likely to be due at least in part to higher transmission resulting from differences in mask use, school attendance, social distancing, and other behaviors.</p>   |
| <p>Traub (2021)<br/><i>USA</i></p>               | <p>A decline in excess deaths followed one month after the first lockdown measures (15-21 March).<br/>An increase of excess deaths followed two weeks after the first relaxation of measures (10-16 May) with a smaller peak in excess deaths one month after relaxation.<br/>One month after the second relaxation 24-30 May, an incline in excess deaths started and the third relaxation of measures was introduced (11-18 June). A larger peak of excess deaths followed one month later.<br/>New lockdown measures end of June/beginning of July were followed by a erratic decline and inclining trend, and stricter lockdown measures (mid-July) were again followed by a decline of excess deaths one month after.</p>   |
| <p>Zhou (2022)<br/><i>Multiple countries</i></p> | <p>The increase in excess mortality was associated with long duration and high intensity of intervention. High intensity interventions showed a positive main effect on excess mortality, while there was a negative added effect under some definition. The average main effect showed an increasing trend with the duration given the intensity threshold criterion. Such as the RR (risk ratio) raised from 1.28 (95% CI: 1.11–1.46) for lasted 5 days to 1.40 (95% CI: 1.23–1.59) for lasted 21 days at the 60th percentile of intensity criterion. The average main effect also showed an increasing trend as the intensity criterion increases under the same duration. In contrast, we found the added effect decreased with longer duration given the intensity criterion. There was no significant added effect at a lower threshold criterion and shorter duration.<br/>High-intensity and long-duration of NPIs were associated with a decreased daily new cases growth rate before the implementation of the vaccine policies. However, it is also associated with an increase in excess mortality without affecting the COVID-19 death growth rate. Even if the intervention intensity was only more than the 60th percentile, if it lasted for 21 days, it appeared to achieve a similar effect as above the 80th percentile intensity for 7 days in reducing infections. However, this did not mean that long-term continuous lower-intensity interventions were feasible, because it may result in some potential adverse effects, such as an increase in excess mortality instead of COVID-19 deaths.</p> |