

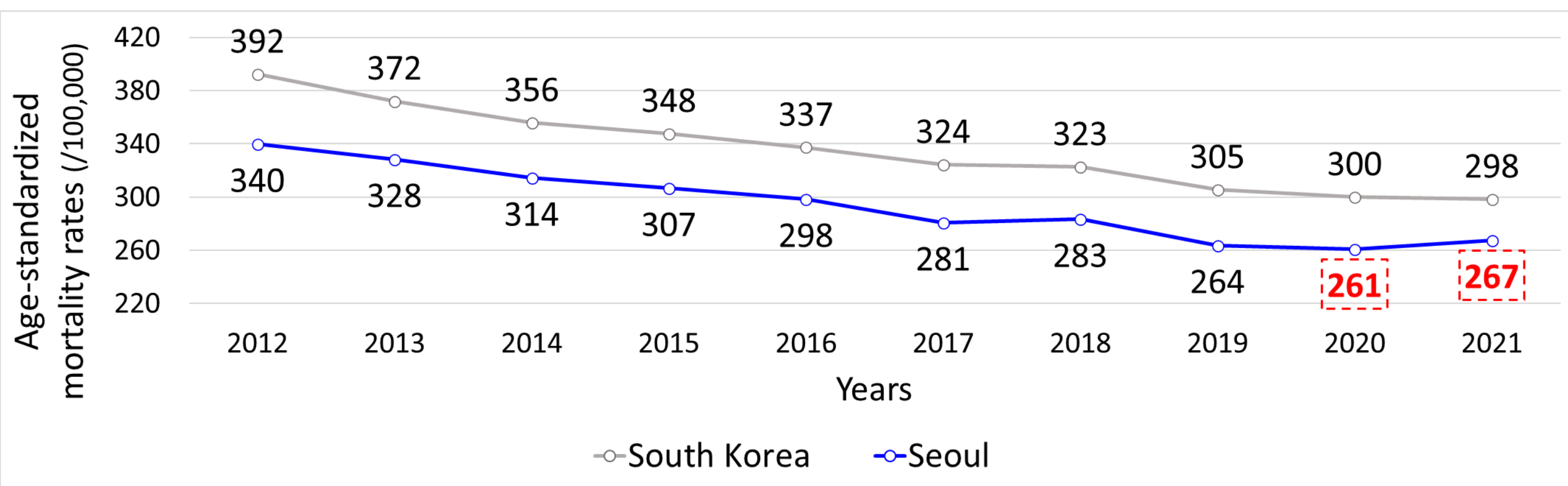
Joonsu Jang<sup>1,2</sup>, Kisiju Trishna<sup>1,2</sup>, Soojung Kim<sup>2,3</sup>, Nawon Kim<sup>2,3</sup>, and Byung Chul Chun<sup>1,2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Korea University Graduate School, Seoul, South Korea, <sup>2</sup>Korea University College of Medicine, Seoul, <sup>3</sup>Graduate school of Public Health, Korea University, Seoul

- South Korea's age-standardized mortality rate (SMR) has steadily declined through 2021 despite the COVID-19 pandemic, but in Seoul, the country's capital, it has increased since the pandemic.
- The increase in SMR during the COVID-19 pandemic in Seoul varied widely by neighborhood.
- Hot spots of SMR during the COVID-19 pandemic were found in neighborhoods with low education levels and limited healthcare resources, while affluent neighborhoods that were cold spots before the pandemic remained cold spots.
- In policies to protect people's health and prevent deaths during a pandemic like COVID-19, regional prioritization and re-allocation of healthcare resources are essential.

## BACKGROUND

- Seoul is the capital of South Korea and is a metropolis of 9.6 million people covering an area of 605.2 km<sup>2</sup>. (Pop. Density: 15,93/ km<sup>2</sup>)
- South Korea's mortality rates have decreased since 2012. However, Among the 17 provinces nationwide, Seoul is the only province where mortality rates have increased after COVID-19.



**Figure 1.** Age-standardized mortality rate (per 100,000 people) in South Korea and Seoul

- We aim to explore neighborhood-level mortality rates changes pre-/post-COVID-19 in Seoul using spatial clustering and to investigate regional factors affecting mortality rates differences.

## METHODS

- Study variables
  - Standardized mortality rates (in 2019 and 2021)
  - Crude mortality rate difference: pre-/post-COVID-19 difference
- Study area: 425 neighborhoods (dong) in Seoul, South Korea
- Study period: 2019 and 2021 (pre-/post-COVID-19)

### Description of study variables

**Table 1.** List of study variables

Variables	
<b>Outcome variables</b>	
	Standardized mortality rates, 2019 & 2021
	Crude mortality rate difference (difference between 2019 and 2021)
<b>Explanatory variables</b>	
Socioeconomic variables	Divorce (%) 2019
	Single-person household (%), 2019
	Low education attainment (%), 2020
	High education attainment (%), 2020
	Elderly population (%), 2019
	Basic living security recipients (%), 2019
Healthcare related variables	Health facilities per 100 people, 2017
	Medical doctors per 100 people, 2017

### Statistical analysis

#### Spatial analysis

- Spatial autocorrelation test: Global Moran's I statistics
- Getis-Ord Gi\* clustering: To detect the high-risk areas
- Bayesian spatial analysis
  - iCAR† and BYM‡ model
  - Performed using INLA\*\*

The difference in mortality rates per Dong  $i$  ( $i=1, \dots, 425$ ) can be represented as  $Y_i$ , using a **BYM model** as follows:

$$Y_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2) \text{ where, } E(Y_i) = \mu_i \text{ and } V(Y_i) = \sigma_i^2$$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + \sum_k (\beta_k \times \text{variables}_{i,k}) + s_i + \epsilon_i$$

$$s_{1:425} \sim \text{iCAR}(W, \sigma_s^2)$$

$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$$

where,  
 $Y_i$  = differences in mortality rate of Dong  $i$   
 $\mu_i$  = mean of  $Y_i$   
 $\sigma_i^2$  = variance of  $Y_i$   
 $\alpha$  = intercept  
 $\beta_k$  = regression parameters of each variable  $k$   
 $s_i$  = intrinsic conditional auto-regressive term  
 $\epsilon_i$  = random effect quantifying non-spatial variation

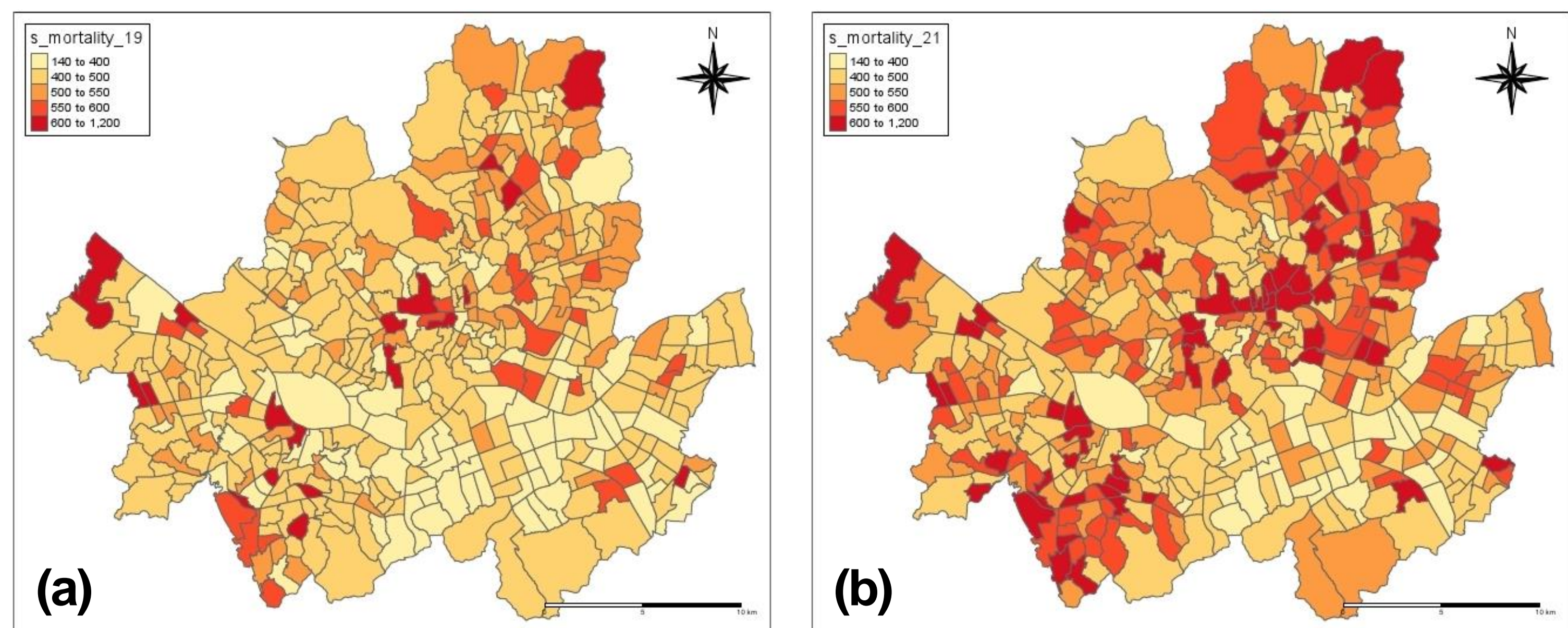
\*AIC: akaike information criterion,

†iCAR: intrinsic conditional auto-regressive model,

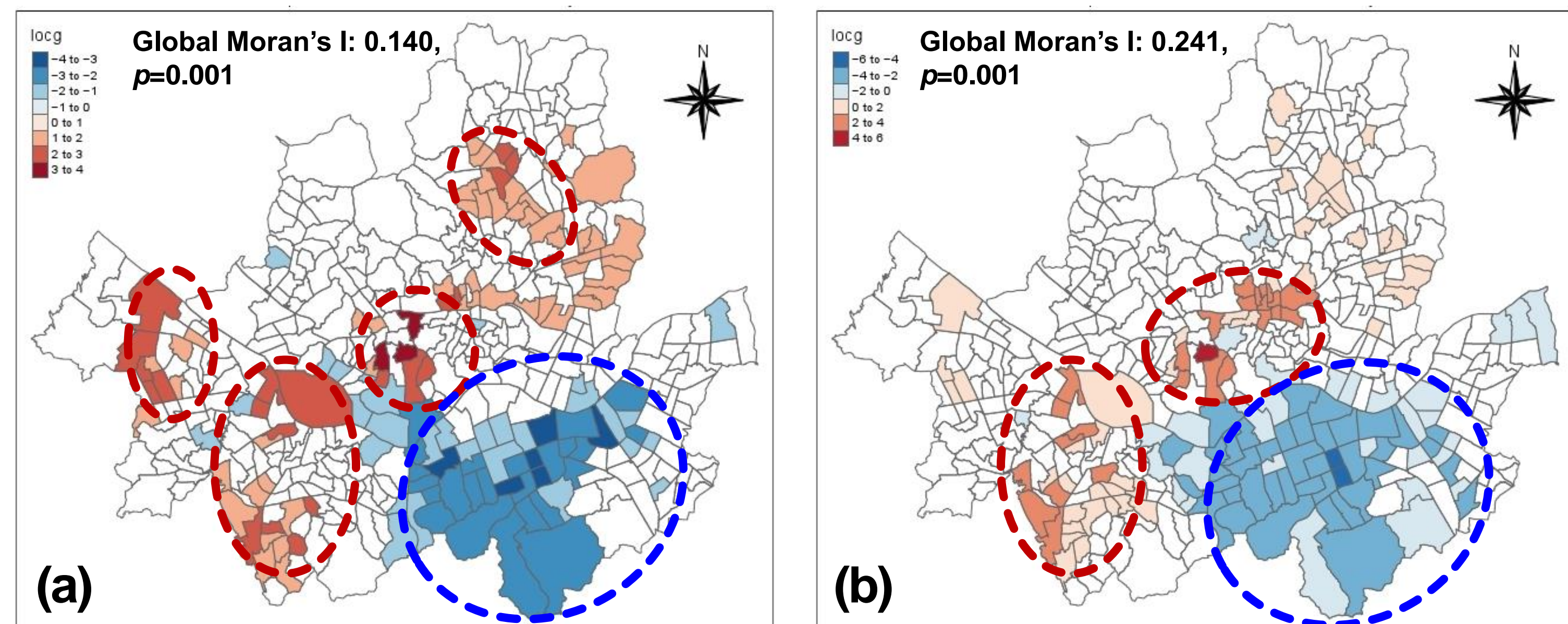
‡BYM: Besag-York-Mollie model,

\*\*INLA: integrated nested Laplace approximation

## RESULTS



**Figure 2.** Regional distribution of age-standardized mortality rates (per 100,000 people) in 2019 (a) and 2021 (b) in Seoul



**Figure 3.** Getis-Ord Gi\* clustering of age-standardized mortality rates (per 100,000 population) in 2019 (a) and 2021 (b) in Seoul

**Table 2.** Results of regional factors at the neighborhood-level for mortality rate difference, expressed as coefficients (95% credible interval).

Variables	Spatial model	
	iCAR	BYM
Divorce (%)	6.1 (-52.1, 64.3)	14.6 (-37.9, 67.0)
<b>Single-person household (%)</b>	1.6 (0.5, 2.7)	<b>1.6 (0.9, 2.2)</b>
<b>Low education attainment (%)</b>	1.3 (-0.6, 3.2)	<b>1.3 (1.1, 2.4)</b>
High education attainment (%)	1.9 (-1.7, 5.5)	1.9 (-0.2, 4.0)
<b>Elderly population (%)</b>	7.3 (2.9, 11.8)	<b>7.4 (4.8, 10.0)</b>
Basic living security recipients (%)	1.1 (-3.8, 6.0)	1.2 (-1.7, 4.0)
Elderly living alone (%)	-3.0 (-10.9, 5.0)	-3.0 (-7.6, 1.7)
Health facilities (per 100 people)	2.2 (-20.5, 25.0)	2.3 (-11.6, 16.2)
<b>Medical doctors (per 100 people)</b>	-10.0 (-16.0, -4.0)	<b>-10.1 (-13.6, -6.5)</b>
DIC*	4,972	<b>2,197</b>

\*DIC: deviance information criterion

## CONCLUSION

- Seoul's SMR increased overall during COVID-19, with significant regional variations in the increase.
- Factors associated with regional increases in SMR during the COVID-19 pandemic are low educational attainment, a high proportion of elderly people, a high proportion of households living alone, and a low number of physicians relative to the population.
- This study highlights the importance of identifying high-risk areas for mortality at the neighborhood level, which directly contributes to setting public health policy priorities.

## ADDITIONAL KEY INFORMATION

- All authors have no conflict of interest to declare
- Contact: chun@korea.ac.kr, c16329@korea.ac.kr