

1 **Disentangling the relationship between cancer mortality and COVID-19**

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24 **Abstract (368 words)**

25 Several countries have reported that deaths with a primary code of cancer did not rise during  
26 COVID-19 pandemic waves compared to baseline pre-pandemic levels. This is in apparent  
27 conflict with findings from cohort studies where cancer has been identified as a risk factor for  
28 COVID-19 mortality. Here we further elucidate the relationship between cancer mortality and  
29 COVID-19 on a population level in the US by testing the impact of death certificate coding  
30 changes during the pandemic and leveraging heterogeneity in pandemic intensity across US  
31 states. We computed excess mortality from weekly deaths during 2014-2020 nationally and for  
32 three states with distinct COVID-19 wave timing (NY, TX, and CA). We compared pandemic-  
33 related mortality patterns from underlying and multiple causes (MC) death data for six types of  
34 cancer and high-risk chronic conditions such as diabetes and Alzheimer's. Any coding change  
35 should be captured in MC data.

36 Nationally in 2020, we found only modest excess MC cancer mortality (~12,000 deaths),  
37 representing a 2% elevation over baseline. Mortality elevation was measurably higher for less  
38 deadly cancers (breast, colorectal, and hematologic, 2-5%) than cancers with a poor 5-year  
39 survival (lung and pancreatic, 0-1%). In comparison, there was substantial elevation in MC  
40 deaths from diabetes (39%) and Alzheimer's (31%). Homing in on the intense spring 2020  
41 COVID-19 wave in NY, mortality elevation was 2-15% for cancer and 126% and 55% for  
42 diabetes and Alzheimer's, respectively. Simulations based on a demographic model indicate  
43 that differences in life expectancy for these conditions, along with the age and size of the at-risk  
44 populations, largely explain the observed differences in excess mortality during the COVID-19  
45 pandemic.

46 In conclusion, we found limited elevation in cancer mortality during COVID-19 waves, even after  
47 considering coding changes. Our demographic model predicted low expected excess mortality  
48 in populations living with certain types of cancer, even if cancer is a risk factor for COVID-19  
49 fatality risk, due to competing mortality risk. We also find a moderate increase in excess  
50 mortality from blood cancers, aligned with other types of observational studies. While our study  
51 concentrates on the immediate consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic on cancer mortality,  
52 further research should consider the pandemic impact on hospitalizations, delayed  
53 diagnosis/treatment and risk of Long COVID in cancer patients.

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## 59 Introduction

60 The dominant risk factors for COVID-19 mortality have consistently been shown to be advanced  
61 age, male gender and certain chronic diseases such as diabetes, obesity and heart disease  
62 (Chavez-MacGregor et al., 2022; R uthrich et al., 2021; Williamson et al., 2020). Cancer has  
63 also been identified as a high-risk condition based on case-control and cohort studies, although  
64 these studies have provided conflicting results. In a large cohort study of ~500,000 COVID-19  
65 inpatients, only cancer patients under recent treatment were at increased risk of COVID-19  
66 related deaths (OR=1.7) relative to non-cancer patients (Chavez-MacGregor et al., 2022).  
67 Conversely, a smaller European study of 3,000 COVID-19 inpatients found that cancer was not  
68 a risk factor (R uthrich et al., 2021), as did an international, multicenter study of 4,000 confirmed  
69 COVID-19 inpatients (Raad et al., 2023). More recently a meta-analysis of 35 studies from  
70 Europe, North America, and Asia found a 2-fold increased risk of COVID-19 mortality among  
71 cancer patients (Di Felice et al., 2022). Similarly, a large analysis from the UK found that the risk  
72 of COVID-19 mortality for cancer patients had declined over the course of the pandemic but  
73 remained 2.5 times higher than for non-cancer patients into 2022 (Starkey et al., 2023). Taken  
74 together, such observational studies provide a mixed picture of cancer as a COVID-19 mortality  
75 risk factor, with several studies reporting that controlling for other important factors such as age  
76 is a challenge. Further, cancer is often considered as a single disease category despite the  
77 diversity of conditions and patients represented.

78 Further evidence for the relationship between cancer and COVID-19 comes from population-  
79 level analysis of vital statistics. A recent US study showed no elevation in cancer deaths  
80 concomitant with COVID-19 waves, in stark contrast to mortality from other chronic diseases  
81 (W.-E. Lee et al., 2023). Several other countries, including Sweden, Italy, Latvia, Brazil, England  
82 and Wales also observed stable or decreasing cancer mortality during the first year of the  
83 pandemic (Alicandro et al., 2023; Fernandes et al., 2021; Gobiņa et al., 2022; Grande et al.,  
84 2022; Kontopantelis et al., 2022; Lundberg et al., 2023). Further, a study of 240,000 cancer  
85 patients in Belgium found a 33% rise in mortality in April 2020, but concluded that this was no  
86 different from the excess mortality observed in the general population (Silversmit et al., 2021).  
87 These findings raise the question of the true relationship between cancer and COVID-19.

88 The relationship between these two diseases could operate via multiple biological mechanisms,  
89 where immunosuppression in cancer patients could increase susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2  
90 infection and/or risk of severe clinical outcome upon infection. Conversely, immunosuppression  
91 could be seen as a protective factor in the face of a severe respiratory infection that over  
92 stimulates the immune system – the immune incompetence rescue hypothesis. (Reichert 2004).  
93 This hypothesis was put forward to explain the lack of elevation in underlying cancer mortality  
94 during the 1968 influenza pandemic and severe influenza epidemics, a departure from patterns  
95 seen for other high-risk conditions such as heart disease and diabetes (Reichert 2004). A  
96 further mechanism that could affect the observed relationship between cancer deaths and  
97 COVID-19 is changing guidelines for establishing the primary cause of death. Coding guidelines  
98 evolved throughout the pandemic as testing for SARS-CoV-2 infection became more  
99 widespread, which presumably affected vital statistics studies.

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101 To further elucidate the relationship between cancer mortality and COVID-19 on a population  
102 level, we analyzed US vital statistics in detail to understand the potential role of coding changes  
103 during the pandemic and explored putative differences in mortality patterns between different  
104 types of cancer. The US provides a particularly useful case study as the timing of COVID-19  
105 waves varied considerably between states, so that elevations in cancer deaths, should they  
106 exist, should also be heterogeneous. For context, we also assessed mortality patterns for other  
107 chronic conditions such as diabetes, ischemic heart disease (IHD), kidney disease, and  
108 Alzheimer's, for which the association with COVID-19 is less debated.

## 109 **Results**

### 110 Establishing patterns and timing of COVID-19 related deaths

111 We obtained individual ICD-10 coded death certificate data from the US for the period January  
112 1, 2014, to December 31, 2020. We compiled time series by week, state, and cause of death,  
113 for underlying cause (UC) and for multiple-cause (MC, any mention on death certificate)  
114 mortality. We considered 10 causes of death, including diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, ischemic  
115 heart disease (IHD), kidney disease, and 6 types of cancer (all-cause cancer, colorectal, breast,  
116 pancreatic, lung, and hematological; see Table 1 and Appendix 1 - Table 1 for a list of disease  
117 codes). We chose these types of cancer to illustrate conditions for which the 5- year survival  
118 rate is low (13% and 25%, respectively, for pancreatic and lung cancers) and high (65% and  
119 91%, respectively, for colorectal and breast cancers) (National Cancer Institute, n.d.).  
120 Hematological cancer (67% 5-year survival rate) was included because it has been singled out  
121 as a risk factor in several previous studies (Chavez-MacGregor et al., 2022; X. Han et al., 2022;  
122 R  thrich et al., 2021; Williamson et al., 2020). To compare mortality patterns with the timing of  
123 COVID-19 pandemic waves, we accessed national and state counts of reported COVID-19  
124 cases from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)(Centers for Disease Control  
125 and Prevention, 2022).

126 In national data, time series of COVID-19-coded death certificates (both UC and MC) tracked  
127 with the temporal patterns of laboratory-confirmed COVID-19 cases (Figure 1), revealing three  
128 distinct COVID-19 waves: a spring wave peaking on April 12, 2020, a smaller summer wave  
129 peaking on July 26, 2020, and a large winter wave that had not yet peaked by the end of the  
130 study in December 2020. This correspondence between COVID-19 case and death activity  
131 represents a "signature" mortality pattern of COVID-19.

132 In state-level data, different states experienced variable timing, intensity and number of COVID-  
133 19 waves during 2020. To focus on periods with substantial COVID-19 activity and explore the  
134 association with cancer, we identified three large US states with unique, well-defined waves  
135 (Figure 1). New York (NY) state experienced a large, early wave in March-May 2020, based on  
136 recorded COVID-19 cases and deaths and high seroprevalence of SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in  
137 New York City in this period (over 20% (Stadlbauer et al., 2021)). Meanwhile, California (CA)  
138 experienced a large COVID-19 wave at the end of the year and had only little activity during the

139 spring and summer. Finally, Texas (TX) had two large waves; one during late summer, followed  
140 by one in winter 2020.

#### 141 National patterns in excess mortality from cancer

142 Similar to other influenza and COVID-19 population-level mortality studies (W.-E. Lee et al.,  
143 2023), we established a weekly baseline model for expected mortality in the absence of  
144 pandemic activity by modeling time trends and seasonality in pre-pandemic data and letting the  
145 model run forward during the pandemic (see Methods). Each cause of death (UC and MC) and  
146 geography was modeled separately. We then computed excess mortality as the difference  
147 between observed deaths and the model-predicted baseline. We summed weekly estimates to  
148 calculate excess mortality for the full pandemic period and during each of the 3 waves (see  
149 Methods). In addition to these absolute effects of the pandemic on mortality, we also calculated  
150 the relative effects by dividing excess mortality by baseline mortality (see Methods).

151 Nationally, we found a drop in UC cancer deaths during spring 2020 (Figure 2, panel a; Table  
152 2), although the drop was not statistically significant. A similar non-significant decline was also  
153 seen for specific cancer types (Figure 2, panels b-c; Appendix 1 - Figure 1, panels a-f-j). We  
154 also saw that pre-pandemic mortality trends for each cancer type continued unabated during the  
155 first pandemic year. We reasoned that the drop in UC cancer deaths seen at the start of the  
156 pandemic could be evidence of a modest harvesting effect or alternatively could be due to  
157 changes in coding practices. If a death occurred in a cancer patient with COVID-19, the death  
158 could be coded with COVID-19 as the underlying cause of death and could explain the  
159 observed drop. We turned to MC mortality to resolve this question.

160 Time series of MC cancer mortality (any mention of any cancer code) showed a significant  
161 increase in all three waves (Figure 2, panel a; Appendix 1 - Table 2). A similar pattern was seen  
162 in MC time series for colorectal (Figure 2, panel h), breast (Appendix 1 - Figure 1, panel i), and  
163 hematological cancer (Appendix 1 - Figure 1, panel j). However, the total excess mortality was  
164 modest with 12,000 excess cancer deaths in 2020, representing a statistically significant 2%  
165 elevation over baseline (Table 2). The largest relative increase in MC mortality was observed in  
166 hematological cancer at 5% (statistically significant, 3100 excess deaths). No excess in MC  
167 mortality was seen for the two deadliest cancers, pancreatic cancer (Figure 2, panel f) and lung  
168 cancer (Appendix 1 - Figure 1, panel g).

#### 169 National patterns in deaths due to other chronic conditions

170 We considered diabetes and Alzheimer's as "positive controls" as they are also considered  
171 COVID-19 risk factors and can illustrate associations between excess mortality from chronic  
172 conditions and COVID-19 on a population level. Diabetes provides a particularly useful  
173 comparator for cancer as the mean age at death is similar (~72 years, Table 1) and because  
174 few individuals live in a nursing home (Appendix 1 - Supplemental Methods). Mortality time  
175 series from UC and MC diabetes and Alzheimer's were highly correlated with COVID-19 activity,  
176 with statistically significant mortality elevation synchronous with pandemic wave activity (Figure  
177 2 b-c; Appendix 1 - Figures 2-5). For diabetes, we measured an excess of 11,400 and 85,700

178 deaths (UC and MC, respectively), corresponding to an elevation of 17% and 39% over baseline  
179 level mortality (Table 2). For Alzheimer's, we estimated 18,500 and 32,200 excess deaths,  
180 corresponding to 21% and 31% elevation over baseline, respectively. Pandemic-related excess  
181 mortality was also seen for IHD and kidney disease (see supplement for estimates, Appendix 1 -  
182 Table 2).

### 183 State-level patterns in excess mortality

184 Similar to cancer patterns in national level data, none of the studied states had notable  
185 increases in UC cancer mortality, while there was a modest, non-significant increase in MC  
186 cancer mortality (Figures 3-5; Appendix 1 - Figures 6-8). The largest mortality increase was  
187 seen in NY during the spring wave, with an 8% rise in MC cancer mortality above the model  
188 baseline (Table 2; Appendix 1 - Table 3). The magnitude of the increase seen during the spring  
189 wave varied by cancer type, with minimal increases seen in pancreatic and lung cancers ( $\leq 2\%$ )  
190 and higher increases in colorectal, hematological, and breast cancers (8, 13, and 15%  
191 respectively). For comparison, there was a statistically significant rise in Alzheimer's and  
192 diabetes deaths during this wave by 55% and 126%.

193 In CA and TX, mortality fluctuations were less pronounced than in NY, coinciding with less  
194 intense COVID-19 waves, and this was seen across all conditions. MC excess mortality  
195 estimates remained within  $\pm 6\%$  of baseline levels for cancers, irrespective of the type of  
196 cancer and pandemic wave, except for a 12% elevation in hematological cancer (MC) during the  
197 summer wave in Texas. None of these elevations were statistically significant. In comparison,  
198 there was significant excess mortality elevation for both Alzheimer's and diabetes deaths  
199 (range, 25-49% in the CA winter wave, and 65-76% in the TX summer wave, Appendix 1-  
200 Tables 4-5).

### 201 Mortality projections under the null hypothesis that cancer in and of itself is not a risk factor for 202 COVID-19 mortality

203 Two main factors could drive cancer mortality patterns during COVID-19, namely the age of the  
204 population living with cancer (since age is such a pronounced risk factor for COVID-19), and the  
205 life expectancy under cancer diagnosis. These factors would operate irrespective of the true  
206 biological relationship between SARS-CoV-2 infection, severity, and cancer.

207 To test the impact of these factors on observed excess mortality patterns and assess whether  
208 these factors alone could explain differences in excess mortality between chronic conditions, we  
209 designed a simple demographic model of COVID-19 mortality for individuals with chronic  
210 conditions. The model projected excess mortality during the pandemic under the null hypothesis  
211 that the chronic condition was not in and of itself a risk factor for COVID-19 mortality, with only  
212 the demography of the population living with the disease (namely, age, size and baseline risk of  
213 death) affecting excess mortality. In the demographic model, we first estimated the number of  
214 expected COVID-19 infections among persons with a certain condition, by multiplying the  
215 estimated number of US individuals living with the condition by the reported SARS-CoV-2  
216 seroprevalence at the end of our study period (December 2020). We focused on

217 seroprevalence among individuals  $\geq 65$  years, the most relevant age group for the conditions we  
218 considered. We then multiplied the estimated number of SARS-CoV-2 infections by an age-  
219 adjusted infection-fatality ratio (IFR) for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19 Forecasting Team, 2022). This  
220 gave an estimate of COVID-19-related deaths, or excess deaths, for a given condition. We  
221 divided our excess death estimate by the total deaths for that condition in 2019 to estimate a  
222 percent elevation over baseline (see Methods). We repeated this analysis for each cancer type,  
223 diabetes, Alzheimer's, IHD, and kidney disease. In addition to the null hypothesis, we also  
224 projected an alternative hypothesis of a biological association, assuming that a given chronic  
225 condition would raise the risk of COVID-19 mortality (via the infection fatality ratio) by a factor 2.  
226 We compared these modeled expectations for the null and alternative hypotheses with the  
227 observed excess mortality in 2020, focusing on MC as the outcome (Table 2).

228 Under the null hypothesis we projected a 7% elevation in all cancer deaths over the 2019  
229 baseline (Table 3). For hematological cancers and particularly deadly cancers such as  
230 pancreatic and lung, we projected only a 1-2% elevation in mortality, in part driven by the high  
231 competing risk of death from these cancers (short life expectancy) and the small size of the  
232 population-at-risk. For colorectal and breast cancers, we projected a 6% and 14% elevation in  
233 mortality, in part driven by the lower risk of death from these cancers (longer life expectancy).  
234 Under the alternative hypothesis that cancer doubled the COVID-19 infection fatality rate (IFR),  
235 we projected a 13% elevation in total cancer mortality, 2% in pancreatic- and 28% in breast  
236 cancer. In empirical national MC mortality data, we observed a 0-3% elevation over baseline for  
237 all the non-hematological cancers and 5% for hematological cancers, more consistent with the  
238 null hypothesis. We note, however, that for the large spring wave in NY state the rise in cancers  
239 was closer to that projected under the assumption of a relative risk of 2.

240 We repeated this analysis for diabetes, Alzheimer's, IHD, and kidney disease mortality (Table 3;  
241 Appendix 1 - Table 6). For diabetes we projected a 28% elevation over baseline based on the  
242 age distribution and substantial size of the population-at-risk alone. In fact, we observed a 39%  
243 elevation over baseline in national US data. For Alzheimer's we projected a 46% increase over  
244 baseline, while we found a 31% increase in national US mortality data. Similarly, for IHD and  
245 kidney disease, the magnitude of the excess mortality rise projected under the demographic  
246 model was higher than for cancer and consistent with observations (Appendix 1- Table 6).  
247 These projections support the idea that demography alone (age, size, and baseline mortality of  
248 the population living with each of these conditions) can explain much of the differences in  
249 absolute and relative mortality elevations seen during the pandemic across conditions like  
250 cancer, diabetes, and Alzheimer.

## 251 **Discussion**

252 Cancer is generally thought of as a risk factor for severe COVID-19 outcomes, yet observational  
253 studies have produced conflicting evidence. With recent availability of more detailed US vital  
254 statistics data, we used statistical time series approaches to generate excess mortality  
255 estimates for multiple cause of death data, different types of cancer, and several geographic  
256 locations. We accounted for potential changes in coding practices during the pandemic, for  
257 instance capturing a COVID-19 patient with cancer whose death may have been coded as a

258 primary COVID-19 death and not a cancer death. Based on multiple cause of death data, we  
259 estimated 12,000 national COVID-19-related excess cancer deaths, which aligns well with  
260 reporting on death certificate data, where 13,400 deaths are ascribed to COVID-19 in cancer  
261 patients (Appendix 1 - Figure 9). Yet these deaths only represent a 2% elevation over the  
262 expected baseline cancer mortality. Percent mortality elevation was measurably higher for less  
263 deadly cancers (breast and colorectal) than cancers with a poor 5-year survival (lung and  
264 pancreatic). Consistent with other studies (Chavez-MacGregor et al., 2022; S. Han et al., 2022;  
265 Rüttrich et al., 2021; Williamson et al., 2020), we found that the largest mortality increase for  
266 specific cancer types was seen in hematological cancers with a 5% elevation over baseline.

267 In contrast to cancer, we observed substantial COVID-19-related excess mortality for diabetes  
268 and Alzheimer's, temporally consistent with the three-wave "signature" pattern observed in  
269 reported COVID-19 cases and deaths. To investigate whether demographic differences in  
270 underlying patient populations (age distribution, population size, and baseline risk of death due  
271 to underlying condition) could explain differences in excess mortality during the pandemic, we  
272 ran a simple demographic model for each condition – first assuming the condition in and of itself  
273 was not a risk factor for COVID-19-related mortality (null hypothesis). The results of these  
274 projections were consistent with observed excess mortality patterns; specifically, we did not  
275 expect to see large increases in cancer deaths compared to these other chronic conditions.  
276 These projections also illustrate the importance of competing risks, where the risk of cancer  
277 death predominates over the risk of COVID-19 death. This is exacerbated for cancers with the  
278 lowest survival; for instance, for pancreatic cancer, under the null hypothesis we would expect a  
279 <1% risk of mortality from COVID-19 in 2020 (assuming a 9% attack rate and 2.6% IFR,  
280 Appendix 1 - Table 7). In contrast, the 2019 baseline risk of death for pancreatic cancer itself is  
281 43.5% (ratio of deaths to population-at-risk = 1:2.3, Table 3). Even if pancreatic cancer had in  
282 fact doubled the risk of dying of COVID-19 (IFR = 5.2), we would not expect to see more than a  
283 1% excess mortality elevation during the pandemic (Table 3), due to the high baseline level  
284 mortality associated with this disease. On the other hand, conditions with a lower baseline level  
285 mortality, such as diabetes (<1% baseline risk of death), are more sensitive to COVID-19 driven  
286 elevations in mortality.

287 Our study rules out the immune incompetence rescue hypothesis that was raised in a 2004  
288 paper on excess mortality patterns during influenza seasons (Reichert et al 2004). Similarly, the  
289 possibility that infectious disease mortality risk is modulated by immune competence has been  
290 put forward to explain the extreme mortality in young healthy adults in the 1918 pandemic (Short  
291 et al., 2018). In the 2004 study, cancer deaths did not increase during the 1968 influenza  
292 pandemic as it did for other risk conditions, leading the authors to propose that  
293 immunosuppressive cancer treatment could mitigate an aberrant immune response to pandemic  
294 influenza infection. However, observational studies have consistently found the opposite to be  
295 the case for COVID-19 infection in patients with hematological cancers. These patients have  
296 twice the risk of dying compared to patients without cancer, likely due to the  
297 immunosuppression associated with their malignancy and treatment (X. Han et al., 2022;  
298 Starkey et al., 2023; Williamson et al., 2020). Under the immune incompetence rescue  
299 hypothesis, one would have expected the opposite – that hematological cancers would have  
300 lowest excess mortality of all cancers. Our analysis of empirical vital statistics reveals instead



301 that hematologic cancers were the most impacted by the pandemic, relative to other types of  
302 cancer, with a percent elevation over baseline most pronounced in states that were hit intensely  
303 like New York.

304 Nationally, the observed excess mortality for non-hematological cancers was lower than that  
305 expected under our demographic model, even under the null hypothesis of no biological  
306 association between non-hematologic cancers and COVID-19. The null hypothesis may still be  
307 valid as our analysis ignores any behavioral effects associated with the pandemic. It is  
308 conceivable that cancer patients may have shielded themselves from COVID-19 more than the  
309 average person or even other persons with chronic diseases in 2020. Our projections assume  
310 an average risk of infection for a typical individual over 65 years as there is no serologic data for  
311 specific clinical population subgroups (of any age). If shielding was high among cancer patients,  
312 our projections of cancer excess mortality during the pandemic would be inflated, potentially  
313 explaining the disconnect with observations. Retrospective serologic analysis of banked sera  
314 from the first year of the pandemic, broken down by underlying comorbidities, may shed light on  
315 whether infection risk may have varied by chronic condition.

316 State-level mortality patterns can potentially provide indirect insights on the question of shielding  
317 from exposure to SARS-CoV-2. Because NY experienced the earliest and most intense COVID-  
318 19 wave of the US, with 25% of the population infected in Spring 2020 (Centers for Disease  
319 Control and Prevention., 2023), and because social distancing did not come into effect until  
320 March 2020, shielding would have had a more limited impact there than in other states. Thus, a  
321 biological relationship between cancer and COVID-19 would have been most dramatic in NY in  
322 spring 2020. Indeed, cancer excess mortality was exacerbated in NY, including an 8-15%  
323 increase in colorectal and breast cancer mortality. Yet these increases are still aligned with the  
324 projections from our demographic model under the null hypothesis. The absence of excess  
325 mortality in pancreatic and lung cancer in NY (0% and 1% over baseline) are, as discussed  
326 above, still consistent with what would be expected under a high competing risk situation.

327 Most vital statistics studies focused on the COVID-19 pandemic have relied on underlying  
328 cause-specific deaths, which are prone to changes in coding practices. Our initial hypothesis  
329 going into this work was that coding changes associated with a better recognition of the impact  
330 of SARS-CoV-2 led to an underestimation of excess mortality from cancer, affecting our  
331 perception of the relationship between cancer and COVID-19. We certainly found an effect of  
332 coding changes, where for instance a drop in excess mortality in underlying cancer deaths  
333 turned into an increase in any-listed cancer deaths, particularly in the first COVID-19 pandemic  
334 wave. The impact of coding changes was also seen in mortality from other chronic conditions  
335 but was particularly important for cancer. Yet both the absolute and relative excess mortality  
336 elevation remained modest for cancer, even after adjustment for coding changes, leading us to  
337 consider additional mechanisms such as the competing risk hypothesis.

338 Our study is subject to limitations. Given uncertainty in SARS-CoV-2 attack-rates and the age  
339 distribution and size of the population-at-risk for all studied conditions, our demographic model  
340 projections are not an exact tool to titrate excess mortality nor the relative risk associated with  
341 each condition. Our model merely serves as an illustration of the role of demography and

342 competing risks. Further, we did not study the potential long-term consequences of the  
343 pandemic on cancer care, which includes avoidance of the health care system for diagnosis or  
344 treatment. We did not see any delayed pandemic effect on mortality from pancreatic cancer,  
345 which may have manifested in 2020 given the very low survival rate of this cancer (Lemanska et  
346 al., 2023), but we cannot rule out longer-term effects on breast or colorectal cancers that would  
347 not be seen until 2021 or later (Doan et al., 2023; Han et al., 2023; Haribhai et al., 2023; R. Lee  
348 et al., 2023; Nascimento de Lima et al., 2023; Nickson et al., 2023; Nonboe et al., 2023; Tope et  
349 al., 2023). Additional years of data will be important to evaluate such effects. Additional years of  
350 data will also be important for assessing the impact of vaccination on the relationship between  
351 cancer and COVID-19; there is evidence that vaccines may be less immunogenic in patients  
352 with cancer compared to those without (Seneviratne et al., 2022). Another limitation of our study  
353 is the reliance on mortality as an outcome, while it may be important to consider the risk of  
354 COVID-19-related hospitalization and morbidity, and Long COVID in cancer patients. A small  
355 US study reported that 60% of cancer patients suffered Long COVID symptoms (Dagher et al.,  
356 2023). Future analyses using hospitalization data and electronic medical records may provide  
357 additional insights on how different cancer stages or other comorbidities may contribute to  
358 increased risk of severe COVID-19 outcomes. Lastly, a few methodological limitations are worth  
359 raising. Though it was important to assess excess mortality in state level data because of  
360 asynchrony in pandemic waves, confidence intervals in state-level estimates were large,  
361 particularly for specific types of cancers, affecting significance levels. Lastly, our study is a time-  
362 trend analysis and – similar to cohort and case-control studies – correlation does not  
363 necessarily imply causation. However, the intensity and brevity of COVID-19 pandemic waves in  
364 space and time lends support to our analyses.

## 365 **Conclusion**

366 Our detailed excess mortality study considered six cancer types and found that there is at most  
367 a modest elevation in cancer mortality during the COVID-19 pandemic in the US. Our results  
368 demonstrate the importance of considering multiple-causes-of-death records to accurately  
369 reflect changes in coding practices associated with the emergence of a new pathogen. In  
370 contrast to earlier studies, we propose that lack of excess cancer mortality during the COVID-19  
371 pandemic reflects the competing mortality risk from cancer (especially for pancreatic and lung  
372 cancers) itself rather than protection conferred from immunosuppression. We note the more  
373 pronounced elevation in mortality from hematological cancers during the pandemic, compared  
374 to other cancers, which aligns with a particular group of cancer patients singled out in several  
375 cohort studies. Future research on the relationship between COVID-19 and cancer should  
376 concentrate on different outcomes, such as excess hospitalizations, Long COVID, changes in  
377 screening practices during COVID-19, and longer-term patterns in cancer mortality.

## 378 **Materials and Methods**

### 379 **Data sources**

380 US National vital statistics.

381 We obtained individual ICD-10 coded death certificate data with exact date of death from the  
382 United States for the period January 1, 2014, to December 31, 2020. Each death certificate has  
383 one underlying cause (UC) of death, defined as the disease or injury that initiated the train of  
384 events leading directly to death, and up to twenty causes of death in total, referred to here as  
385 multiple cause mortality (MC). We considered 10 conditions, including diabetes, Alzheimer's  
386 disease, ischemic heart disease (IHD), kidney disease, and 6 types of cancer (all cancer,  
387 colorectal, breast, pancreatic, lung, and hematological; see Table 1 for a list of disease codes).  
388 We chose these types of cancer to illustrate conditions for which the 5- year survival rate is low  
389 (13% and 25%, respectively, for pancreatic and lung cancers) and high (65% and 91%,  
390 respectively, for colorectal and breast cancers) (National Cancer Institute, n.d.). Hematological  
391 cancer (67% 5-year survival) was included because it was singled out as a risk factor by  
392 previous studies. We compiled time series by week, state, and cause of death, separately for  
393 underlying and multiple cause mortality.

#### 394 Other data sources

395 To compare vital statistics patterns with COVID-19 surveillance data, we accessed national and  
396 state counts of laboratory-confirmed COVID-19 cases in 2020, from the CDC (Centers for  
397 Disease Control and Prevention, 2022).

398 To clarify the expected role of COVID-19 on excess mortality, we compiled data on the  
399 proportion of the population with serologic evidence of SARS-CoV-2 infection by the end of  
400 2020 from the CDC dashboard (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2023). We further  
401 compiled data on estimated age-specific infection-fatality ratios from COVID-19, provided by  
402 single year of age (COVID-19 Forecasting Team, 2022).

#### 403 **Statistical approach**

##### 404 Weekly excess mortality models

405 Similar to other influenza- and COVID-19 excess mortality studies (W.-E. Lee et al., 2023), we  
406 established a predicted baseline of expected mortality for each time series, and computed the  
407 excess mortality as the excess in observed deaths over this baseline. To establish baselines for  
408 each disease nationally and in each state, we applied negative binomial regression models to  
409 weekly mortality counts for each cause of death, smoothed with a 5-week moving average and  
410 rounded to the nearest integer. Models included harmonic terms for seasonality, time trends,  
411 and an offset for population size, following:

412  $\text{Weekly\_mortality} = t + t^2 + \cos(2\pi t/52.17) + \sin(2\pi t/52.17) + \text{offset}(\log(\text{population}))$ , where  $t$   
413 represents week.

414 We fitted national and state-level models for each mortality outcome from January 19, 2014, to  
415 March 1, 2020, and projected the baseline forward until December 6, 2020, the last complete  
416 week of smoothed mortality data.

417 Using COVID-19 coded death certificates from March 1, 2020, to December 6, 2020, we  
418 established the timing of each pandemic wave from trough to trough. We found that nationally,  
419 the first wave occurred from March 1, 2020, to June 27, 2020; the second wave from June 28,  
420 2020 to October 3, 2020 and the third from October 4, 2020 to December 6, 2020 (the 3rd wave  
421 was not completed by the last week of available smoothed data on December 6, 2020). For NY,  
422 the pandemic pattern was characterized by an intense first wave in Spring 2020, while TX had  
423 its major wave in summer 2020 and CA in late 2020. Comparison of mortality patterns from  
424 these three states provides an opportunity to separate the effect of SARS-CoV-2 infection with  
425 that of behavioral changes later in the pandemic. For instance, the effects of healthcare  
426 avoidance would predominate in CA or TX in Spring 2020, as there was little SARS-CoV-2  
427 activity but much media attention on COVID-19, with cancer patients potentially avoiding  
428 medical care out of fear of getting infected. In contrast, risk of infection would dominate in NY in  
429 Spring 2020, and behavioral factors may only play a role as SARS-CoV-2 awareness increased  
430 and the wave was brought under control by social distancing.

431 We estimated weekly excess mortality by subtracting the predicted baseline from the observed  
432 mortality. We summed weekly estimates to calculate excess mortality for the full pandemic  
433 period and for each of the 3 waves within the first year of the pandemic. In addition to estimating  
434 the absolute effects of the pandemic on mortality, we also calculated relative effects by dividing  
435 excess deaths in each diagnosis group by the model baseline. Confidence intervals on excess  
436 mortality estimates were calculated by resampling the estimated model coefficients 10,000  
437 times using a multivariate normal distribution and accounting for negative binomial errors in  
438 weekly mortality counts.

439 We used Pearson correlation to test synchronicity patterns in weekly excess mortality from  
440 different cancers and chronic conditions to underlying COVID-19 deaths. Correlation analysis  
441 assumes a direct and immediate effect of COVID-19 on cancer mortality. We also investigated  
442 the possibility of delayed effects or harvesting by inspecting the time series for evidence of such  
443 effects and by comparing total excess deaths for distinct pandemic waves and the whole of  
444 2020.

#### 445 Projections of excess mortality under the null hypothesis of no specific COVID-19 mortality risk 446 of each condition

447 To further test the impact of age on the association between chronic conditions and COVID-19,  
448 and clarify the additional risk due to each chronic condition, we projected the number of COVID-  
449 19 deaths under the null hypothesis that age alone is a risk factor, and that there is no particular  
450 interaction between the condition and SARS-CoV-2 infection. Excess mortality projections were  
451 then compared with observed excess mortality. We only used MC deaths for this approach to  
452 account for the possibility that some individuals may suffer from multiple conditions. For  
453 example, an estimated 11.5% of US adults with type 2 diabetes also have a history of cancer  
454 (Yeh et al., 2018).

455 We first calculated the number of expected COVID-19 infections among persons living with a  
456 certain chronic condition, by multiplying the estimated number of individuals living with the

457 condition by the reported SARS-CoV-2 seroprevalence among individuals  $\geq 65$  years at the end  
458 of 2020 (we interpolated between the CDC surveys conducted in mid-December 2020 and the  
459 next one available in February 2021 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2023). We  
460 then estimated an age-adjusted COVID-19 IFR based on the estimated age distribution of  
461 individuals living with the condition and single-year age fatality rates (COVID-19 Forecasting  
462 Team, 2022) (Appendix 1- Table 7). We multiplied this age-adjusted infection-fatality ratio by the  
463 estimated number of infections to arrive at the projected number of COVID-19-related excess  
464 deaths for a particular condition during 2020.

465 To obtain a relative metric of expected COVID-19 burden, we divided projected COVID-19  
466 excess deaths by total deaths in each diagnosis group in the 2019 baseline period (March to  
467 December 2019), resulting in an expected percentage elevation over baseline in 2020. We  
468 compared this null expectation to the observed percentage elevation over baseline from our  
469 excess mortality models. We also generated the expected number of excess deaths under  
470 alternative hypotheses where each condition is associated with a 2-fold increased risk of  
471 COVID-19 related death given infection (i.e., the baseline age-adjusted infection fatality ratio  
472 used in the null hypothesis was increased 2-fold). We also provide projections for a RR of 5 in  
473 the Appendix (Appendix 1 - Table 6).

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476 who wanted to know if a cancer diagnosis was a COVID-19 mortality risk factor.

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## 493 Data availability

494 Individual-level mortality data were obtained from the National Center for Healthcare Statistics.  
495 These data are not publicly available due to privacy concerns, but descriptive characteristics  
496 have been summarized in Table 1 and Appendix - Table 1. The excess mortality models in this  
497 paper use mortality data aggregated by week and US state. These data (with values <10  
498 suppressed), along with the model code, have been posted to the following public GitHub  
499 repository: [https://github.com/chelsea-hansen/Disentangling-the-relationship-between-cancer-](https://github.com/chelsea-hansen/Disentangling-the-relationship-between-cancer-mortality-and-COVID-19)  
500 [mortality-and-COVID-19](https://github.com/chelsea-hansen/Disentangling-the-relationship-between-cancer-mortality-and-COVID-19)

501 Weekly, state-level data on recorded COVID-19 cases and deaths are publicly available. Data  
502 were downloaded from the following link: [https://data.cdc.gov/Case-Surveillance/Weekly-United-](https://data.cdc.gov/Case-Surveillance/Weekly-United-States-COVID-19-Cases-and-Deaths-by-/pwn4-m3yp)  
503 [States-COVID-19-Cases-and-Deaths-by-/pwn4-m3yp](https://data.cdc.gov/Case-Surveillance/Weekly-United-States-COVID-19-Cases-and-Deaths-by-/pwn4-m3yp) and have also been posted as a .csv file  
504 to the GitHub repository referenced above.

## 505 Disclaimer

506 This article represents the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the National  
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**Table 1.** Each diagnosis group and its corresponding ICD-10 codes, number of underlying deaths, mean age in years at time of death, the percentage of deaths occurring at home, and the percentage of deaths occurring in nursing homes for 2019 and 2020.

Year	Diagnosis Group	ICD-10 Codes	No. Deaths	Mean age, years (IQR)	%Home/ER	%Nursing Home
2019	Cancer	C00-C99	493,397	72 (64-81)	45	12
	Pancreatic Cancer	C25	37,864	72 (64-80)	51	9
	Colorectal Cancer	C18-C20	42,484	71 (61-82)	46	13
	Hematologic Cancers	C81-C96	47,174	74 (67-84)	35	11
	Diabetes	E10-E14	70,763	72 (63-82)	53	17
	Alzheimer's	G30	98,675	87 (82-92)	29	50
2020	Cancer	C00-C99	513,275	72 (64-81)	55	8
	Pancreatic Cancer	C25	39,893	72 (65-80)	61	6
	Colorectal Cancer	C18-C20	43,990	71 (61-82)	56	9
	Hematologic Cancers	C81-C96	49,161	74 (67-84)	46	8
	Diabetes	E10-E14	88,124	71 (62-82)	58	15
	Alzheimer's	G30	115,256	86 (82-92)	33	46

**Table 2.** The estimated number of excess deaths and the percentage over baseline for each diagnosis group when listed as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause). Estimates for the national-level data are provided for the full pandemic period and for each state based on when the first large wave was experienced.

Cause of Death	State	Wave	Multiple Cause		Underlying Cause	
			Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline	Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline
Cancer	National	Overall	12371*	2.0	-523	0.0
	New York	1	924*	8.0	-313	-3.0
	Texas	2	388	3.0	-97	-1.0
	California	3	396	3.0	57	0.0
Pancreatic Cancer	National	Overall	-122	0.0	-407	-1.0
	New York	1	5	1.0	-18	-2.0
	Texas	2	-3	0.0	-9	-1.0
	California	3	1	0.0	-10	-1.0
Colorectal Cancer	National	Overall	1242	3.0	223	1.0
	New York	1	89	8.0	-4	0.0
	Texas	2	27	2.0	-32	-3.0
	California	3	-24	-2.0	-29	-3.0
Hematologic Cancers	National	Overall	3068*	5.0	-235	-1.0
	New York	1	163	13.0	-68	-7.0
	Texas	2	153	12.0	46	4.0
	California	3	25	2.0	-45	-4.0
Diabetes	National	Overall	85717*	39.0	11398*	17.0
	New York	1	6120*	126.0	549*	35.0
	Texas	2	4587*	76.0	411*	22.0
	California	3	3056*	49.0	435*	23.0
Alzheimer's	National	Overall	32238*	31.0	18472*	21.0
	New York	1	825*	55.0	260	22.0
	Texas	2	1756*	65.0	1156*	51.0
	California	3	927*	25.0	493*	16.0

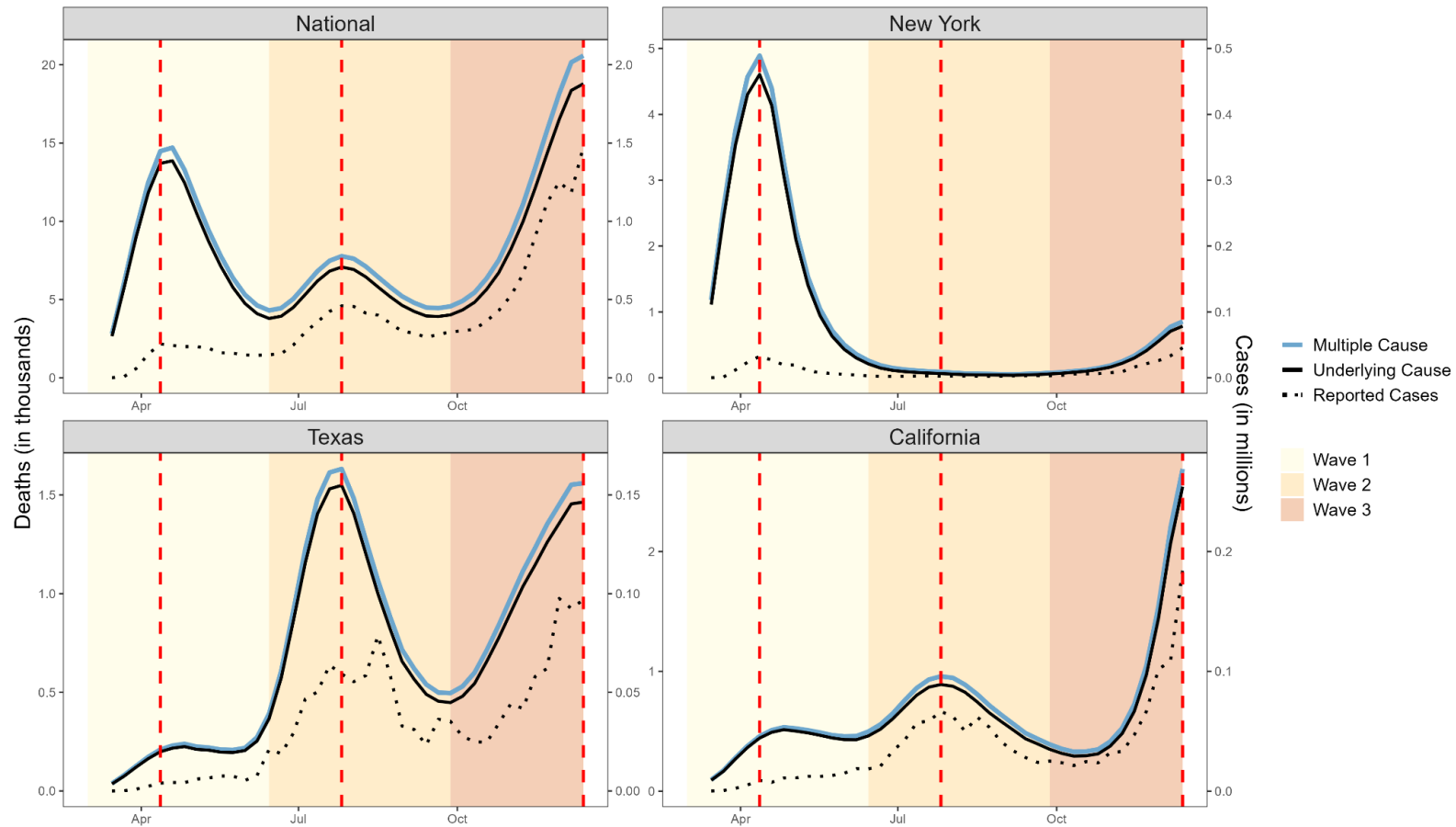
\*Confidence interval does not include zero

**Table 3. Projections of COVID-19-related excess mortality patterns for different cancers and chronic conditions in the US, under different hypotheses for the association between the condition and COVID-19.** Projections are provided for the null hypothesis of no biological interaction between the condition and COVID-19; these projection are solely driven by the size and age distribution of the population living with each condition (where age determines the infection-fatality ratio from COVID-19), and the baseline risk of death from the condition over a similar time period (March to December 2019, 10 months). Additional projections are provided under alternative hypotheses, where each condition is associated with a relative risk (RR) of 2 for COVID-19 related death (infection-fatality ratio multiplied by 2).

Causes of Death	Estimated no. of US individuals living with condition	Ratio of 2019 deaths (Mar-Dec) to estimated population at risk (baseline risk of death)	Estimated % of population with condition aged $\geq 65$ years	Expected no. of excess deaths, Mar-Dec 2020 if condition is not associated with COVID-19 (null hypothesis, RR=1)	Expected % elevation* in mortality over baseline, Mar-Dec 2020, if condition is not associated with COVID-19 (null hypothesis, RR=1)	Expected % elevation* in mortality over baseline, Mar-Dec 2020, if condition has a RR of 2 for COVID-19 death	Estimated % mortality* elevation over baseline in 2020 US vital statistics (estimates from Table 2) (95%Ci)
Cancer (all)	18000000	1:32.9	58%	36823	7%	13%	2% (1 - 4%)
Pancreatic cancer	90000	1:2.3	69%	214	1%	1%	0% (-7 - 7%)
Lung cancer	541000	1:4.4	71%	1317	1%	2%	1% (-3 - 5%)
Colorectal cancer	1545000	1:31.5	56%	2829	6%	12%	3% (-3 - 9%)
Breast cancer	3800000	1:87.3	48%	6201	14%	28%	2% (-4 - 9%)
Hematological cancer	550000	1:9.5	63%	1430	2%	5%	5% (0 - 12%)
Diabetes	34200000	1:149.1	42%	64802	28%	57%	39% (33 - 45%)
Alzheimer's	6500000	1:54.6	100%	54345	46%	91%	31% (22 - 42%)

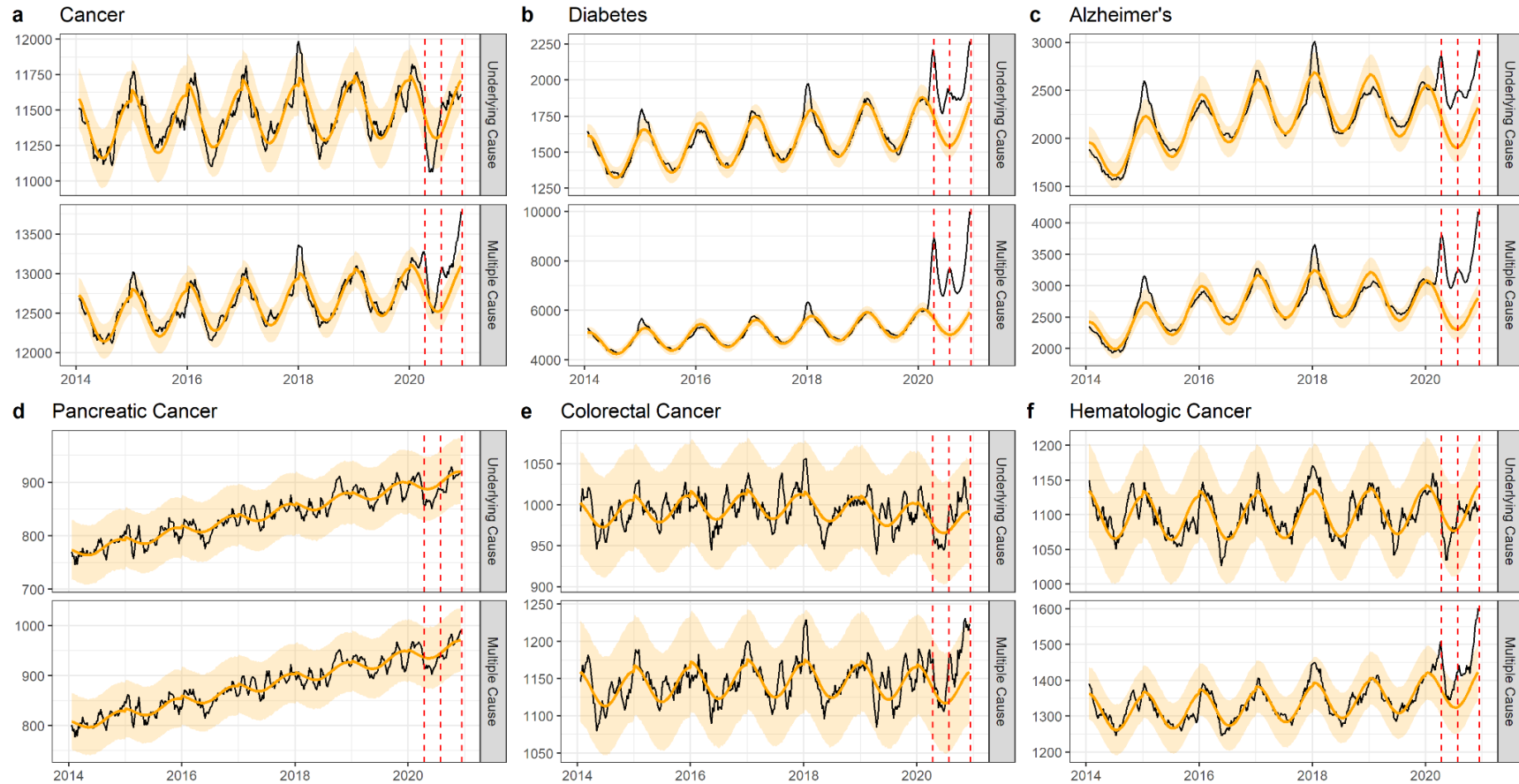
\* % elevation calculated as expected no of excess deaths in the pandemic under the null hypothesis of no biological association between cancer and COVID-19 (column 5) divided by expected deaths in a non-pandemic period, which are based on baseline risk of death and population size (column 2 multiplied by column 3) .

**Figure 1.** Weekly counts of death certificates listing COVID-19 as either the underlying or a multiple cause. When included on a death certificate, COVID-19 was most often listed as the underlying cause of death rather than a contributing cause. National-level data reveal three distinct waves: Wave 1 (spring, March 1 - June 27, 2020), Wave 2 (summer, June 28 - October 3, 2020), and Wave 3 (winter, October 4 - December 6, 2020, incomplete). Vertical dashed lines represent the peak of each wave, dotted lines represent the number of reported cases (y-axis on the right). New York experienced its first large COVID-19 wave in Wave 1, while Texas had its first large wave in Wave 2 and California did not experience a large wave until Wave 3 which had not yet peaked at the end of 2020.



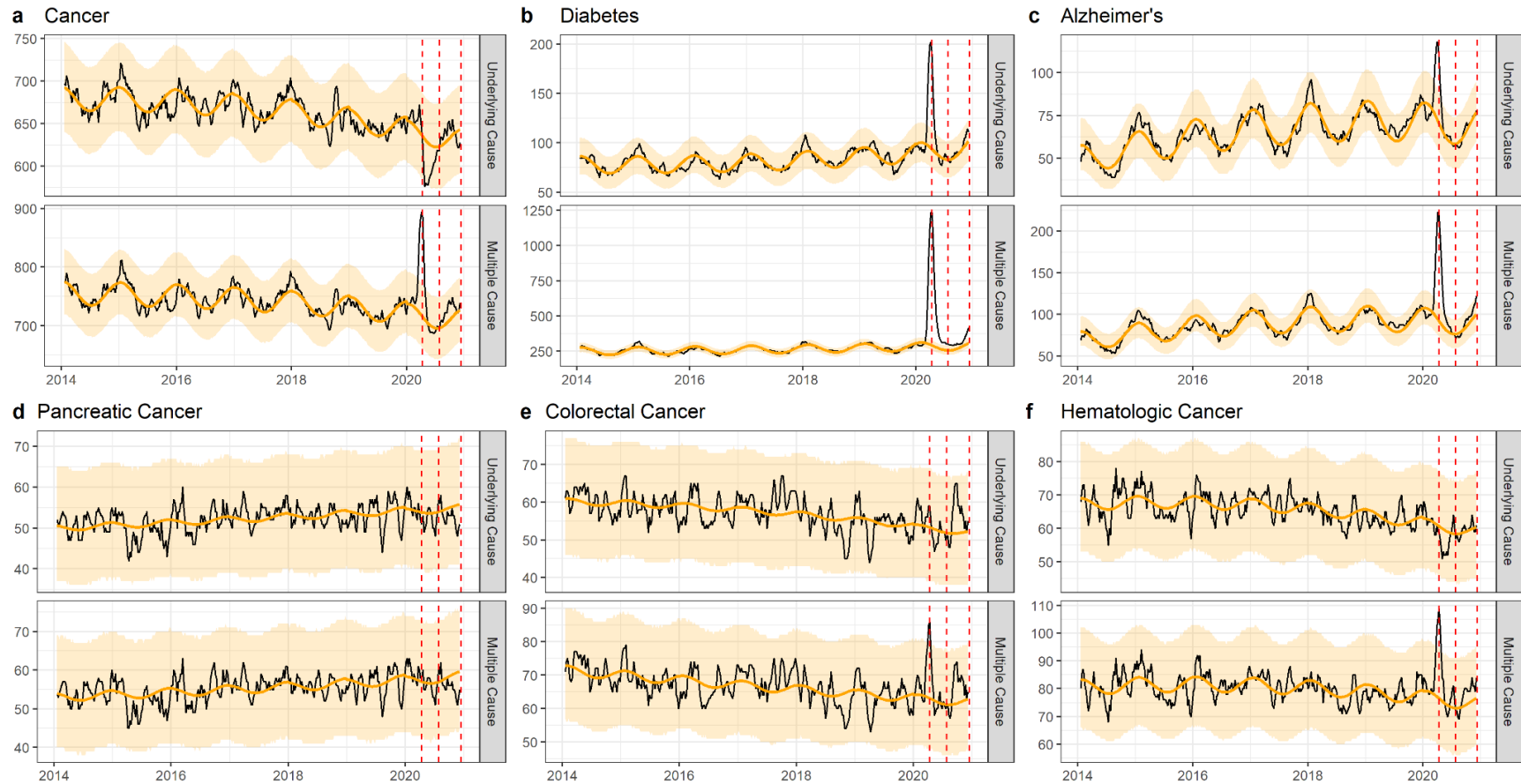
**Figure 2.** National-level weekly observed and estimated baseline mortality for each diagnosis group as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause) from 2014 to 2020. Baselines during the pandemic are projected based on the previous years of data.

## National



**Figure 3.** The same as figure 1, but for New York. New York experienced its first large wave of COVID-19 in spring 2020 (Wave 1).

## New York

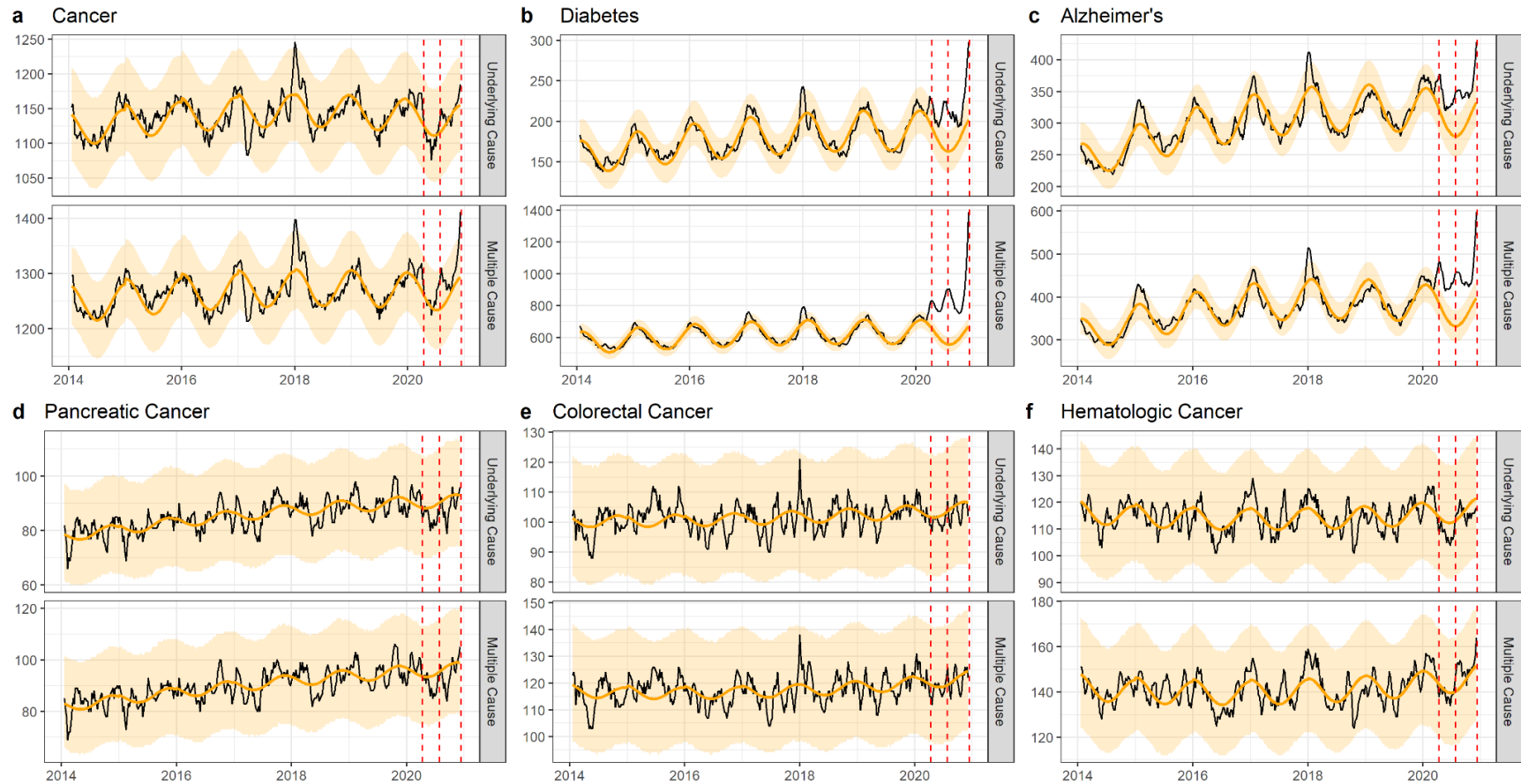






**Figure 5.** The same as figure 1, but for California. California did not experience a large wave of COVID-19 until the winter of 2020-2021 (Wave 3), only the first half of which is captured here.

## California



## **APPENDIX 1**

### **Supplemental Methods**

#### Characteristics of cancer, diabetes, and Alzheimer's deaths in the pre-pandemic period.

For each chronic condition studied (cancer, diabetes, IHD, Alzheimer's), we assessed potential changes in the characteristics of deaths during the pandemic period that are unrelated to timing but may signal an association with COVID-19. For instance, age is known to be a major risk factor for COVID-19 mortality. For each chronic condition, we computed the average age-at-death in the pre-pandemic year 2019 and compared this to the average age-at-death in 2020. The second potential confounder is living arrangement, as individuals living in nursing homes may be at increased risk of exposure (and death) to COVID-19 due to mixing, even though their underlying condition is not per se a risk factor. To test this hypothesis, we also compared the proportion of individuals in each disease group who died in nursing homes in 2019 and 2020. And finally, to illustrate the impact of coding practices we compared ICD-10 letter categories between 2020 and 2019 for the underlying cause of death when cancer or diabetes are included on the death certificate, but are not listed as the underlying cause of death (Appendix 1 - Figure 9). For 2020, we further compared death certificates listing both COVID-19 and cancer to those listing both COVID-19 and diabetes. For all comparisons between 2019 and 2020 data are limited to March to December to isolate the pandemic period.

#### **Supplemental tables and figures**

**Appendix 1 - Table 1.** Diagnosis groups and corresponding ICD-10 codes, number of underlying and multiple cause deaths, mean age in years at time of death, the percentage of deaths occurring at home, and the percentage of deaths occurring in nursing homes for 2019 and 2020.

Year	Diagnosis group	ICD-10 codes	Underlying Cause				Multiple Cause			
			No. Deaths	Mean age, years (IQR)	%Home/E R	%Nursing Home	No. Deaths	Mean age, years (IQR)	%Home/E R	%Nursing Home
2019	Cancer	C00-C99	493,397	72 (64-81)	45	12	546,453	72 (64-82)	44	13
	Pancreatic Cancer	C25	37,864	72 (64-80)	51	9	39,798	72 (64-80)	50	9
	Lung Cancer	C34	114,552	72 (65-80)	45	12	123,622	72 (65-80)	44	12
	Colorectal Cancer	C18-C20	42,484	71 (61-82)	46	13	49,053	72 (62-83)	45	14
	Breast Cancer	C50	35,115	69 (59-81)	44	13	43,519	71 (61-83)	43	15
	Hematological Cancer	C81-C96	47,174	74 (67-84)	35	11	57,892	74 (67-84)	35	12
	Diabetes	E10-E14	70,763	72 (63-82)	53	17	229,326	74 (65-84)	46	19
	Alzheimer's	G30	98,675	87 (82-92)	29	50	118,993	87 (82-92)	29	48
	Ischemic Heart Disease	I20-I25	292,659	77 (67-88)	50	18	440,225	77 (68-87)	47	18
	Kidney Disease	N00-07, 17-19,25-28	46,120	76 (68-87)	25	18	189,938	76 (67-87)	20	15

2020	Cancer	C00-C99	513,275	72 (64-81)	55	8	586,503	72 (64-82)	52	9
	Pancreatic Cancer	C25	39,893	72 (65-80)	61	6	42,383	72 (65-80)	60	6
	Lung Cancer	C34	115,554	72 (65-80)	54	8	127,671	72 (65-80)	53	8
	Colorectal Cancer	C18-C20	43,990	71 (61-82)	56	9	52,319	72 (62-83)	53	10
	Breast Cancer	C50	36,296	70 (60-81)	54	10	47,094	72 (62-83)	51	12
	Hematological Cancer	C81-C96	49,161	74 (67-84)	46	8	64,840	74 (68-84)	43	9
	Diabetes	E10-E14	88,124	71 (62-82)	58	15	343,061	73 (65-83)	45	16
	Alzheimer's	G30	115,256	86 (82-92)	33	46	151,206	86 (82-92)	31	47
	Ischemic Heart Disease	I20-I25	327,854	76 (67-88)	54	16	533,204	77 (68-87)	49	16
	Kidney Disease	N00-07, 17- 19,25-28	49,796	76 (68-87)	30	15	255,708	75 (67-86)	21	12

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**Appendix 1 - Table 2.** Supplemental Table 2. Estimated number of excess deaths and the percentage over baseline for each diagnosis group (National). Estimates are aggregated over all of 2020 and for each COVID-19 wave during 2020.

Cause of death	Wave	Multiple Cause		Underlying Cause	
		Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline	Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline
Cancer	Overall	12371*	2.0	-523	-0.0
	1	2930	1.0	-1685	-1.0
	2	5165*	3.0	1557	1.0
	3	4275*	3.0	-395	-0.0
Pancreatic Cancer	Overall	-122	-0.0	-407	-1.0
	1	-125	-1.0	-222	-1.0
	2	-72	-1.0	-156	-1.0
	3	75	1.0	-28	-0.0
Lung Cancer	Overall	700	1.0	-1086	-1.0
	1	-174	-0.0	-743	-2.0
	2	481	1.0	-15	-0.0
	3	392	1.0	-328	-1.0
Breast Cancer	Overall	821	2.0	-681	-2.0
	1	272	2.0	-281	-2.0
	2	350	2.0	-75	-1.0
	3	200	2.0	-326	-4.0
Colorectal Cancer	Overall	1242	3.0	223	1.0
	1	186	1.0	-144	-1.0
	2	456	3.0	165	1.0
	3	600	5.0	201	2.0
Hematological Cancers	Overall	3068*	5.0	-235	-1.0
	1	884	4.0	-195	-1.0
	2	1121*	6.0	178	1.0
	3	1063*	8.0	-218	-2.0
Diabetes	Overall	85717*	39.0	11398*	17.0

	1	31301*	33.0	4147*	14.0
	2	28692*	40.0	4466*	20.0
	3	25724*	46.0	2785*	16.0
Alzheimer's	Overall	32238*	31.0	18472*	21.0
	1	11793*	27.0	6801*	19.0
	2	10992*	33.0	7081*	26.0
	3	9452*	35.0	4591*	21.0
Ischemic Heart Disease	Overall	65239*	16.0	24044*	9.0
	1	23607*	13.0	9487*	8.0
	2	23699*	18.0	9983*	11.0
	3	17934*	17.0	4574*	7.0
Kidney Disease	Overall	45702*	25.0	1385	3.0
	1	13697*	18.0	203	1.0
	2	16148*	28.0	969*	7.0
	3	15857*	34.0	213	2.0

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\*Confidence interval does not include zero

**Appendix 1 - Table 3.** Supplemental Table 2. Estimated number of excess deaths and the percentage over baseline for each diagnosis group (New York). Estimates are aggregated over all of 2020 and for each COVID-19 wave during 2020.

Cause of death	Wave	Multiple Cause		Underlying Cause	
		Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline	Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline
Cancer	Overall	1226	4.0	-270	-1.0
	1	924*	8.0	-313	-3.0
	2	159	2.0	71	1.0
	3	142	2.0	-27	-0.0
Pancreatic Cancer	Overall	-55	-2.0	-73	-3.0
	1	5	1.0	-18	-2.0
	2	-13	-2.0	-16	-2.0
	3	-47	-8.0	-38	-7.0
Lung Cancer	Overall	89	1.0	-108	-2.0
	1	58	2.0	-113	-5.0
	2	33	2.0	33	2.0
	3	-2	-0.0	-28	-2.0
Breast Cancer	Overall	173	7.0	-14	-1.0
	1	155	15.0	-15	-2.0
	2	15	2.0	11	2.0
	3	3	0.0	-11	-2.0
Colorectal Cancer	Overall	172	7.0	78	4.0
	1	89	8.0	-4	-0.0
	2	34	4.0	40	6.0
	3	49	8.0	42	8.0
Hematological Cancers	Overall	245	8.0	-53	-2.0
	1	163	13.0	-68	-7.0
	2	30	3.0	9	1.0
	3	52	7.0	6	1.0
Diabetes	Overall	7180*	63.0	624	17.0

	1	6120*	126.0	549*	35.0
	2	560*	15.0	26	2.0
	3	500*	17.0	50	5.0
Alzheimer's	Overall	923*	26.0	265	10.0
	1	825*	55.0	260	22.0
	2	-8	-1.0	-6	-1.0
	3	106	11.0	11	2.0
Ischemic Heart Disease	Overall	7133*	24.0	3874*	17.0
	1	7054*	56.0	4473*	47.0
	2	84	1.0	-224	-3.0
	3	-5	-0.0	-374	-6.0
Kidney Disease	Overall	2302*	30.0	-29	-1.0
	1	2004*	62.0	23	3.0
	2	76	3.0	-46	-7.0
	3	222	11.0	-6	-1.0

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\*Confidence interval does not include zero



**.Appendix 1 - Table 4.** Supplemental Table 2. Estimated number of excess deaths and the percentage over baseline for each diagnosis group (Texas). Estimates are aggregated over all of 2020 and for each COVID-19 wave during 2020.

Cause of death	Wave	Multiple Cause		Underlying Cause	
		Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline	Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline
Cancer	Overall	480	1.0	-421	-1.0
	1	-21	-0.0	-109	-1.0
	2	388	3.0	-97	-1.0
	3	113	1.0	-215	-3.0
Pancreatic Cancer	Overall	-48	-2.0	-79	-3.0
	1	-48	-4.0	-59	-6.0
	2	-3	-0.0	-9	-1.0
	3	3	0.0	-11	-2.0
Lung Cancer	Overall	55	1.0	-48	-1.0
	1	4	0.0	-11	-0.0
	2	11	0.0	-33	-1.0
	3	40	2.0	-4	-0.0
Breast Cancer	Overall	-48	-2.0	-151	-6.0
	1	-59	-5.0	-58	-6.0
	2	16	2.0	-35	-4.0
	3	-4	-1.0	-58	-9.0
Colorectal Cancer	Overall	59	2.0	-81	-3.0
	1	-3	-0.0	-40	-3.0
	2	27	2.0	-32	-3.0
	3	35	4.0	-9	-1.0
Hematological Cancers	Overall	253	7.0	68	2.0
	1	56	4.0	34	3.0
	2	153	12.0	46	4.0
	3	45	5.0	-12	-2.0
Diabetes	Overall	8930*	48.0	623	11.0

	1	1559*	20.0	107	5.0
	2	4587*	76.0	411*	22.0
	3	2785*	58.0	105	7.0
Alzheimer's	Overall	3373*	39.0	2278*	32.0
	1	736*	20.0	593*	20.0
	2	1756*	65.0	1156*	51.0
	3	880*	40.0	529*	29.0
Ischemic Heart Disease	Overall	5188*	16.0	1899*	10.0
	1	721	5.0	314	4.0
	2	3037*	29.0	1262*	20.0
	3	1431*	17.0	323	6.0
Kidney Disease	Overall	5789*	37.0	321	9.0
	1	716*	11.0	63	4.0
	2	3184*	64.0	189	17.0
	3	1890*	48.0	70	8.0

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\*Confidence interval does not include zero

**Appendix 1 - Table 5.** Supplemental Table 2. Estimated number of excess deaths and the percentage over baseline for each diagnosis group (California). Estimates are aggregated over all of 2020 and for each COVID-19 wave during 2020.

Cause of death	Wave	Multiple Cause		Underlying Cause	
		Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline	Excess Deaths	% Over Baseline
Cancer	Overall	1135	2.0	220	0.0
	1	216	1.0	44	0.0
	2	523	3.0	119	1.0
	3	396	3.0	57	0.0
Pancreatic Cancer	Overall	-92	-2.0	-102	-3.0
	1	-14	-1.0	-18	-1.0
	2	-79	-6.0	-74	-6.0
	3	1	0.0	-10	-1.0
Lung Cancer	Overall	120	1.0	14	0.0
	1	21	1.0	0	0.0
	2	44	2.0	-16	-1.0
	3	54	3.0	30	2.0
Breast Cancer	Overall	58	1.0	-55	-2.0
	1	-27	-1.0	-31	-2.0
	2	82	6.0	26	2.0
	3	3	0.0	-49	-5.0
Colorectal Cancer	Overall	-36	-1.0	-71	-2.0
	1	-21	-1.0	-25	-1.0
	2	8	0.0	-17	-1.0
	3	-24	-2.0	-29	-3.0
Hematological Cancers	Overall	100	2.0	-84	-2.0
	1	-5	-0.0	-34	-2.0
	2	80	4.0	-5	-0.0
	3	25	2.0	-45	-4.0

Diabetes	Overall	9353*	37.0	1444*	20.0
	1	2403*	22.0	394	12.0
	2	3894*	49.0	616*	27.0
	3	3056*	49.0	435*	23.0
Alzheimer's	Overall	3495*	23.0	1879*	15.0
	1	1096*	17.0	552	10.0
	2	1472*	31.0	833*	21.0
	3	927*	25.0	493*	16.0
Ischemic Heart Disease	Overall	6326*	16.0	3187*	12.0
	1	1591*	9.0	750	6.0
	2	3072*	25.0	1656*	20.0
	3	1663*	17.0	781*	12.0
Kidney Disease	Overall	4579*	25.0	239	7.0
	1	914*	11.0	25	2.0
	2	2209*	38.0	143	14.0
	3	1455*	32.0	72	9.0

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\*Confidence interval does not include zero

**Appendix 1 - Table 6.** Projections of COVID-19-related excess mortality patterns for all cancers, ischemic heart disease, and kidney disease in the US, under different hypotheses for the association between the condition and COVID-19.

Causes of Death	Estimated no. of US individuals living with condition	Ratio of 2019 deaths to estimated population at risk	Estimated % of population with condition aged $\geq$ 65 years	Expected no. of excess deaths	Expected % COVID-19 mortality elevation over baseline if condition is not associated with COVID-19 (null hypothesis, RR=1)	Expected % COVID-19 mortality elevation over baseline if condition has a RR of 2 for COVID-19 death	Expected % COVID-19 mortality elevation over baseline if condition has a RR of 5 for COVID-19 death	Estimated % COVID-19 mortality elevation over baseline in 2020 US vital statistics (observations from Table 2) (95%Ci)
Cancer (all)	18000000	1:32.9	58%	36823	7%	13%	34%	2% (1 - 4%)
Diabetes	34200000	1:149.1	42%	64802	28%	57%	141%	39% (33 - 45%)
Alzheimer's	6500000	1:54.6	100%	54345	46%	91%	228%	31% (22 - 42%)
Ischemic Heart Disease	20000000	1:45.4	63%	70267	16%	32%	80%	16% (10 - 21%)
Kidney Disease	37000000	1:194.8	56%	95380	50%	100%	251%	25% (19 - 33%)

**Appendix 1 - Table 7. Estimated age distributions and age-adjusted infection fatality ratios for six types of cancer, diabetes, Alzheimer’s, IHD, and kidney disease.** For each condition we estimated an age-adjusted infection fatality ratio. We first determined the approximate proportion of persons living with each condition across several broad age groups. We aimed to keep age groups roughly consistent between conditions, with the exception of Alzheimer’s disease for which the entire population at risk is ≥65 years. For all-cause cancer, pancreatic, lung, colorectal, and breast we used the age distribution of newly diagnosed cases in 2019. We then took a weighted average of the age-specific infection fatality ratios, using the midpoint for each age group. For the oldest age group we used the infection fatality ratio for the average age-at-death in 2019 for that condition.

Condition	Age group	Estimated Proportion	Midpoint age (years)	Age-specific infection fatality ratio
<b>All-cause cancer <sup>a</sup></b>	<15 years	.01	7	0.1123
	15 - 44 years	.07	30	0.0573
	45 - 64 years	.35	55	0.6242
	65+ years	.58	72	3.5527
	Weighted			<b>2.272999</b>
<b>Pancreatic cancer <sup>a</sup></b>	<45 years	0.02	22	0.0188
	45-64 years	0.28	55	0.6242
	65+ years	0.69	72	3.5527
	Weighted			<b>2.636392</b>
<b>Lung cancer <sup>a</sup></b>	<45	0.01	22	0.0188
	45-64	0.28	55	0.6242
	65+	0.71	72	3.5527
	Weighted			<b>2.703841</b>
<b>Colorectal cancer <sup>a</sup></b>	<45	0.07	22	0.0188
	45-64	0.37	55	0.6242
	65+	0.56	71	3.2022
	Weighted			<b>2.034357</b>
<b>Breast cancer <sup>a</sup></b>	<45	0.09	22	0.0188
	45-64	0.42	55	0.6242
	65+	0.48	71	3.2022
	Weighted			<b>1.813096</b>
<b>Hematological cancers <sup>b</sup></b>	<15 years	0.02	7	0.0023
	15-39 years	0.08	27	0.0386
	40-64 years	.27	52	0.4958
	65+ years	.63	74	4.3679
	Weighted			<b>2.888777</b>
<b>Diabetes <sup>c</sup></b>	<45	0.14	22	0.0188
	54-64	0.43	55	0.6242
	65+	0.42	74	4.3679
	Weighted			<b>2.105315</b>
<b>Alzheimer’s <sup>d</sup></b>	65-74	0.27	70	2.8851
	75-84	0.37	80	8.0093
	85+	0.36	87	15.5984
	Weighted			<b>9.289791</b>
<b>Ischemic heart disease <sup>e</sup></b>	<45	0.06	22	0.0188
	45-64	0.31	55	0.6242
	65+	0.63	77	5.932
	Weighted			<b>3.903738</b>
<b>Kidney disease <sup>f</sup></b>	<45	0.17	22	0.0188
	45-64	0.27	55	0.6242
	65+	0.56	75	4.8397
	Weighted			<b>2.864266</b>

<sup>a</sup> Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. United States Cancer Statistics: Data Visualizations. “Leading Cancers by Age, Sex, Race and Ethnicity.” Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from: <https://gis.cdc.gov/Cancer/USCS/#/Demographics/>

<sup>b</sup> Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. United States Cancer Statistics. "Hematological Cancer Incidence, Survival, and Prevalence." Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from:

<https://www.cdc.gov/cancer/uscs/about/data-briefs/no30-hematologic-incidence-surv-prev.htm>

<sup>c</sup> Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. "National Diabetes Statistics Report 2020." Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from: <https://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pdfs/data/statistics/national-diabetes-statistics-report.pdf>

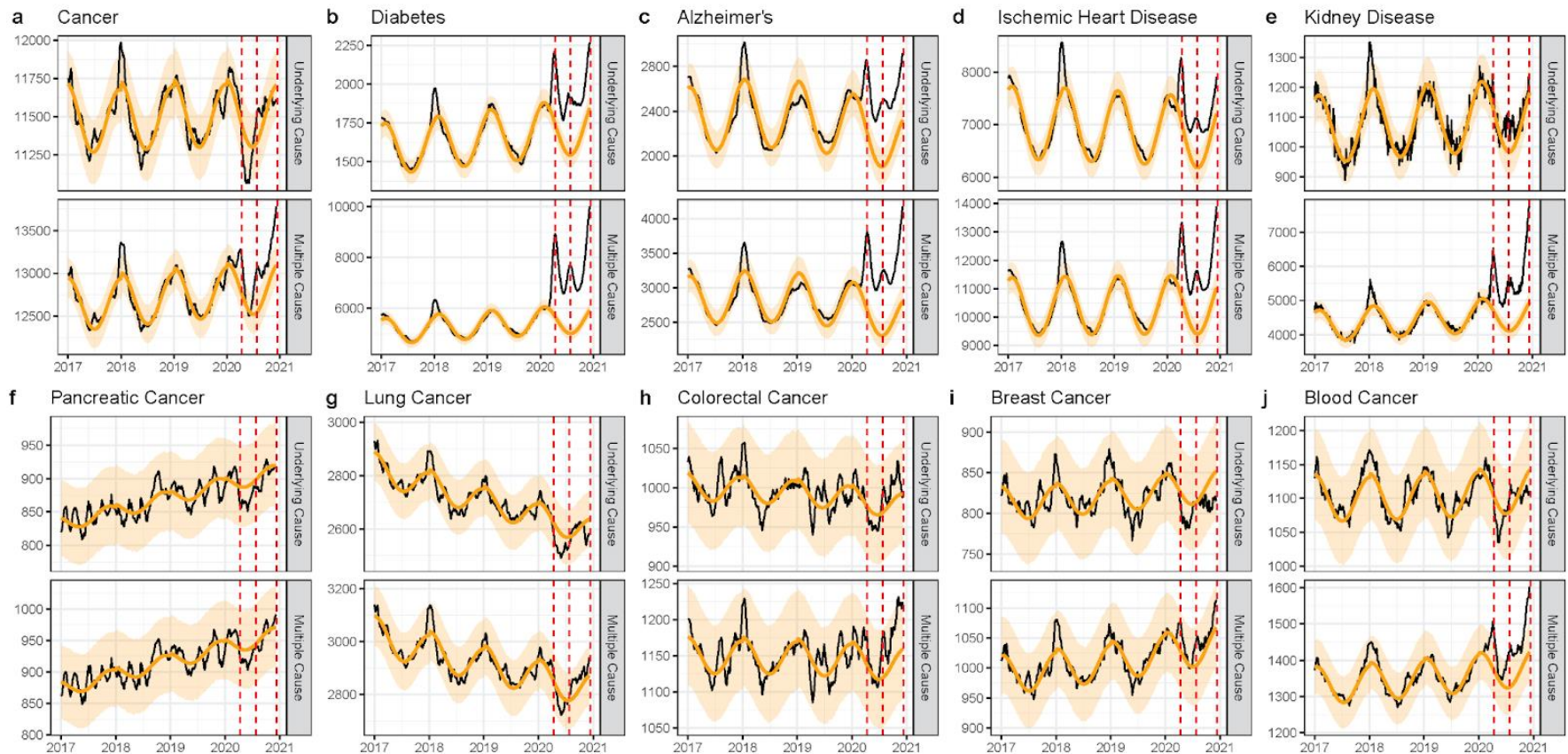
<sup>d</sup> Alzheimer's Association. "2023 Alzheimer's Disease Facts and Figures: Special Report." Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from: <https://www.alz.org/media/Documents/alzheimers-facts-and-figures.pdf>

<sup>e</sup> Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report. "QuickStats: Percentage\* of Adults Aged ≥18 Years with Diagnosed Heart Disease, † by Urbanization Level§ and Age Group — National Health Interview Survey, United States, 2020." Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from: <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/71/wr/mm7123a4.htm>

<sup>f</sup> Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Chronic Kidney Disease Initiative. "Chronic Kidney Disease in the United States, 2023." Retrieved on 03 October 2023 from: [https://www.cdc.gov/kidneydisease/publications-resources/ckd-national-facts.html#:~:text=According%20to%20current%20estimates%3A&text=CKD%20is%20more%20common%20in,%25\)%20than%20men%20\(12%25\)](https://www.cdc.gov/kidneydisease/publications-resources/ckd-national-facts.html#:~:text=According%20to%20current%20estimates%3A&text=CKD%20is%20more%20common%20in,%25)%20than%20men%20(12%25))

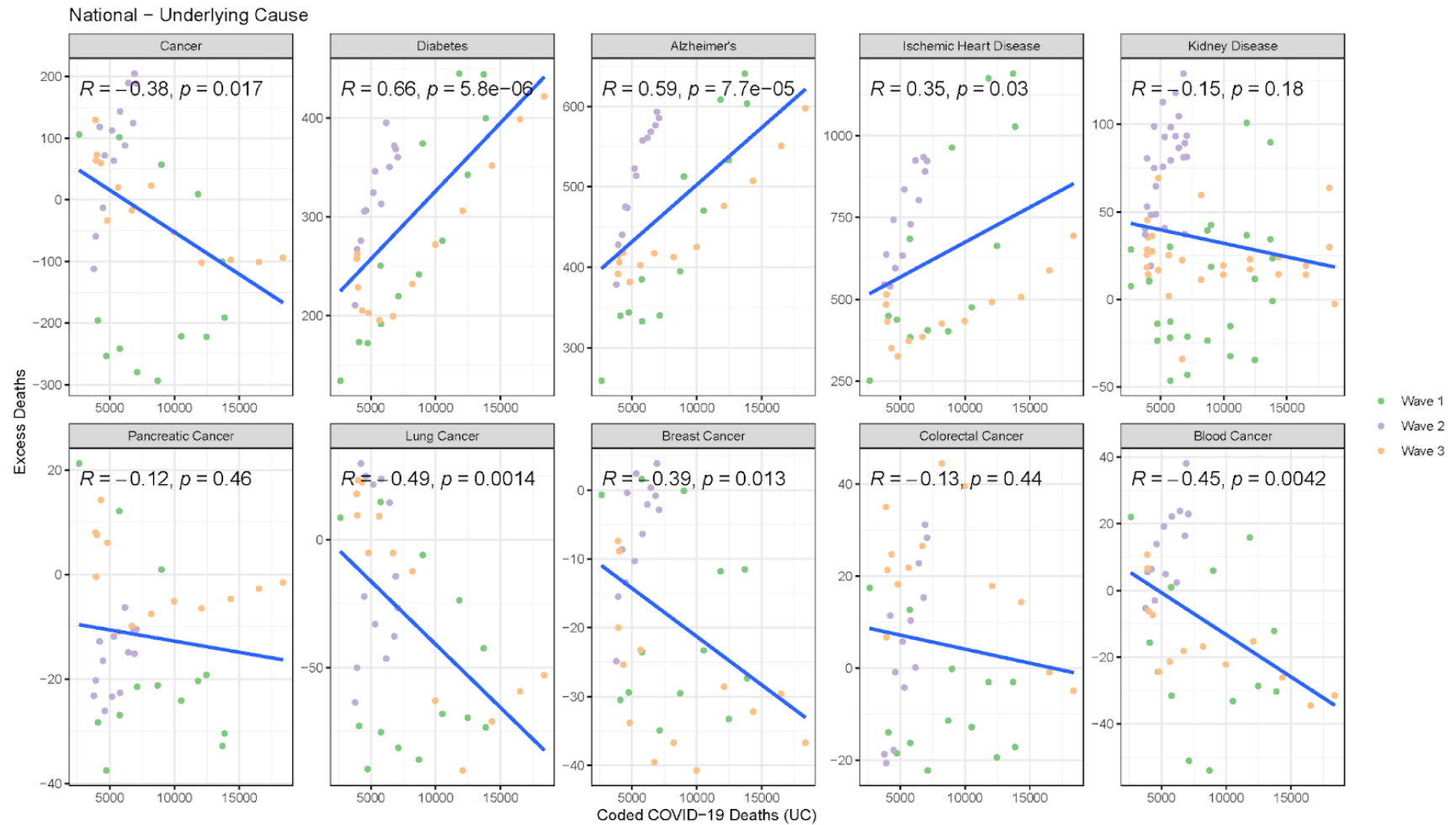
**Appendix 1 - Figure 1.** National-level weekly observed and estimated baseline mortality for each diagnosis group as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause) from 2017 to 2020. Baselines during the pandemic are projected based on the previous years of data.

## National

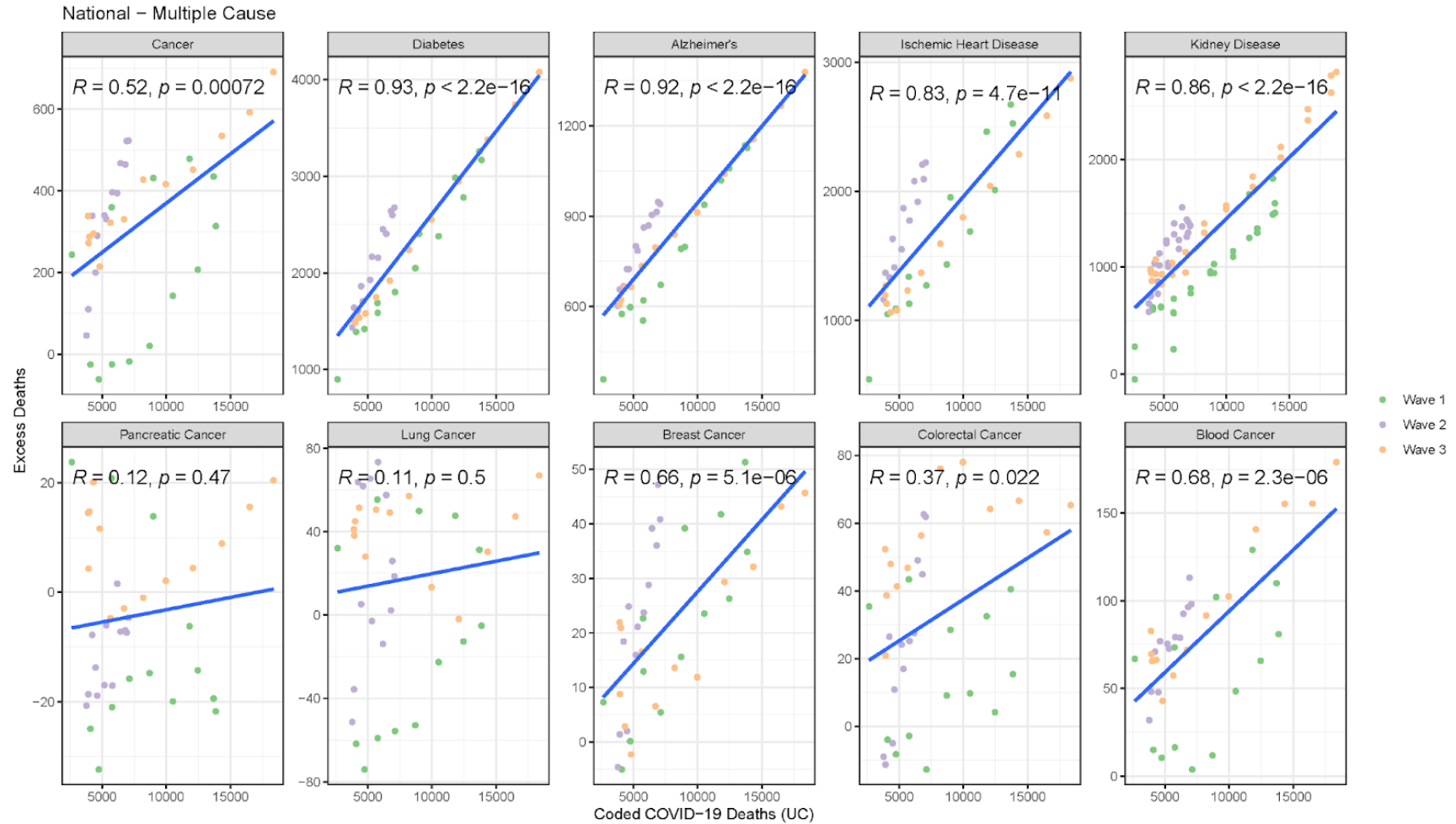




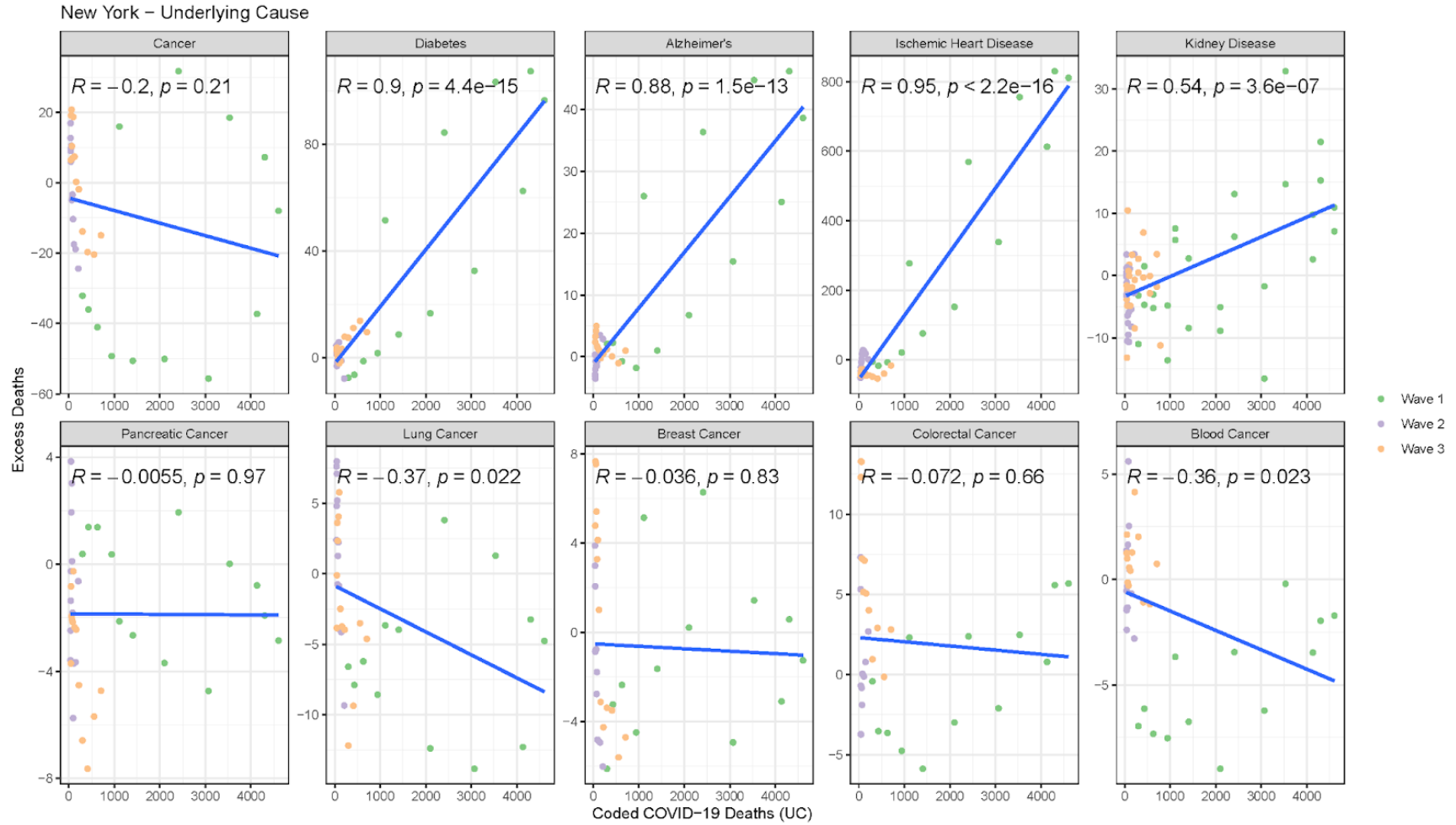
**Appendix 1 - Figure 2.** Correlation between weekly number of COVID-19 coded deaths and excess underlying deaths for each diagnosis group (National).



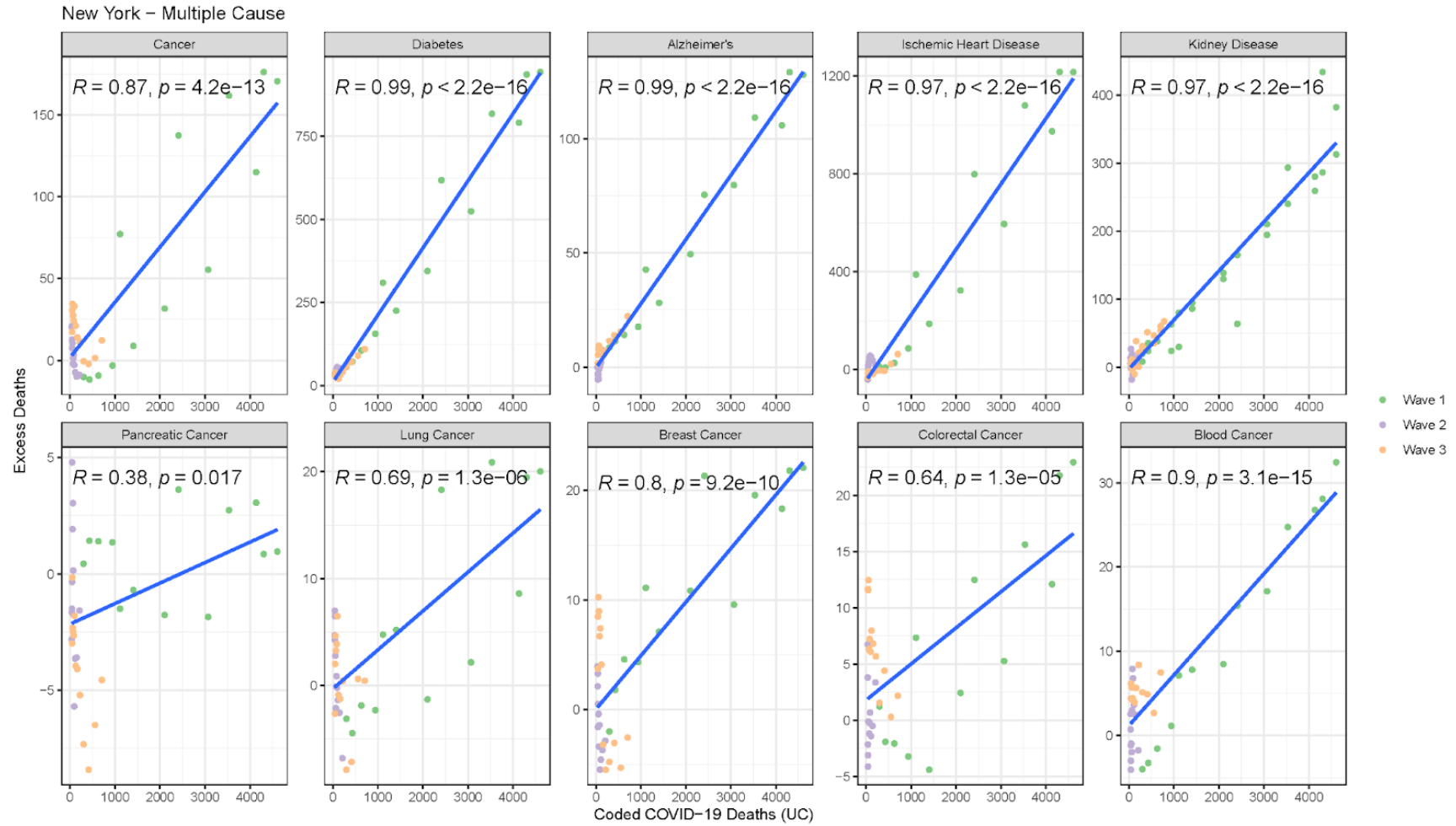
**Appendix 1 - Figure 3.** Correlation between weekly number of COVID-19 coded deaths and excess multiple cause deaths for each diagnosis group (National).



**Appendix 1 - Figure 4.** Correlation between weekly number of COVID-19 coded deaths and excess underlying deaths for each diagnosis group (New York).

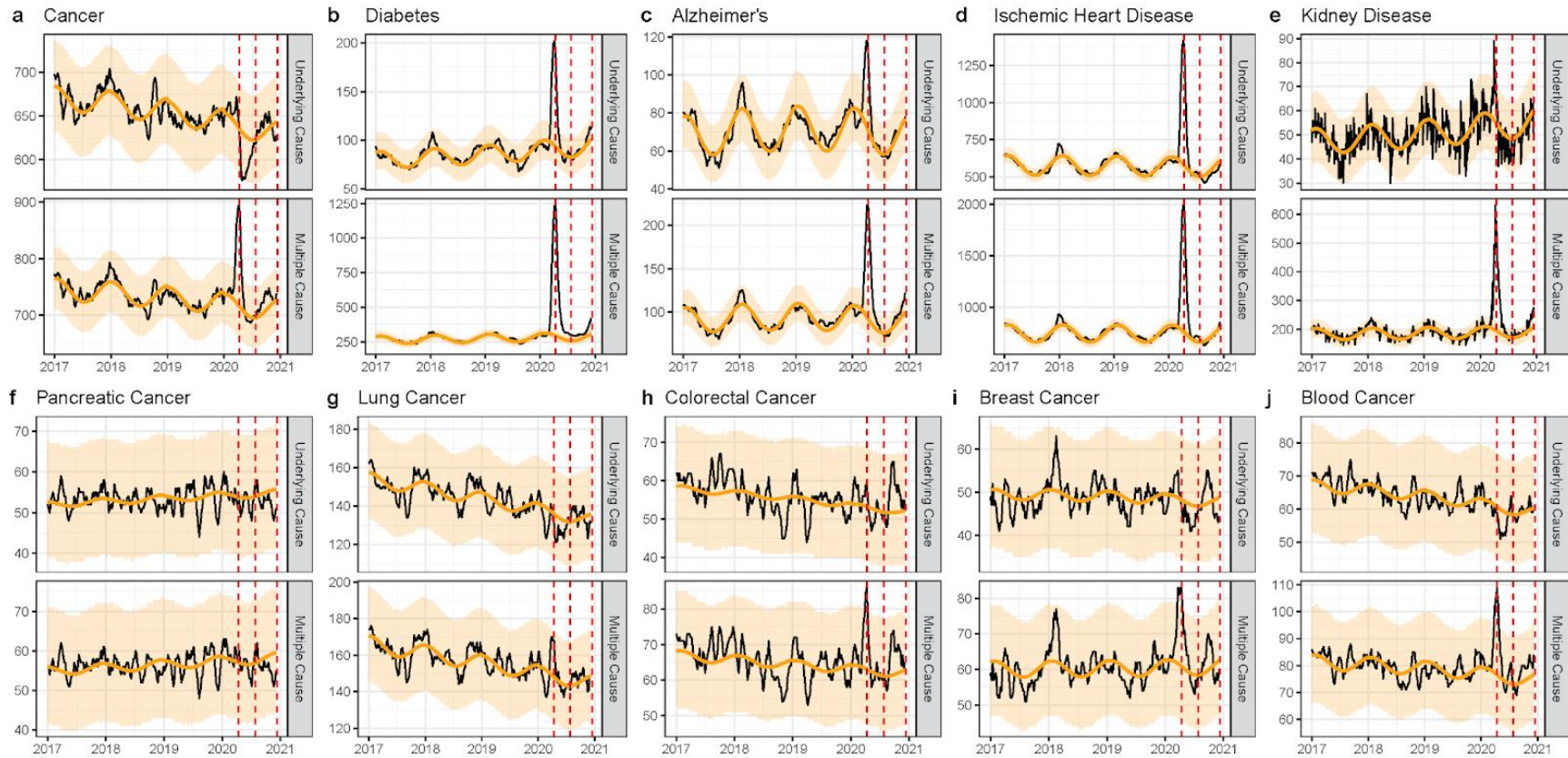


**Appendix 1 - Figure 5.** Correlation between weekly number of COVID-19 coded deaths and excess underlying deaths for each diagnosis group (New York).



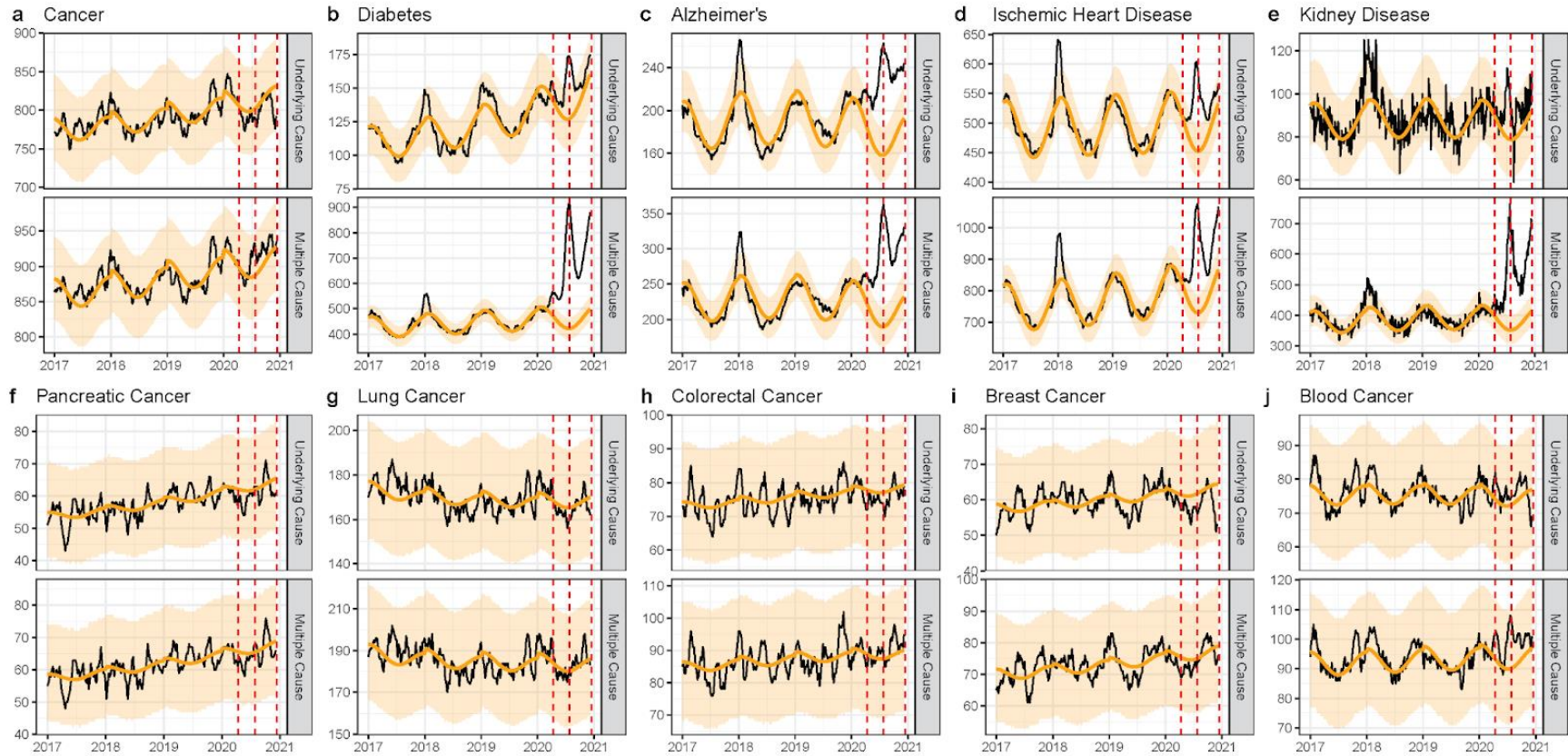
**Appendix 1 - Figure 6.** Weekly observed and estimated baseline mortality for each diagnosis group as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause) from 2017 to 2020 in New York. Baselines during the pandemic are projected based on the previous years of data.

## New York



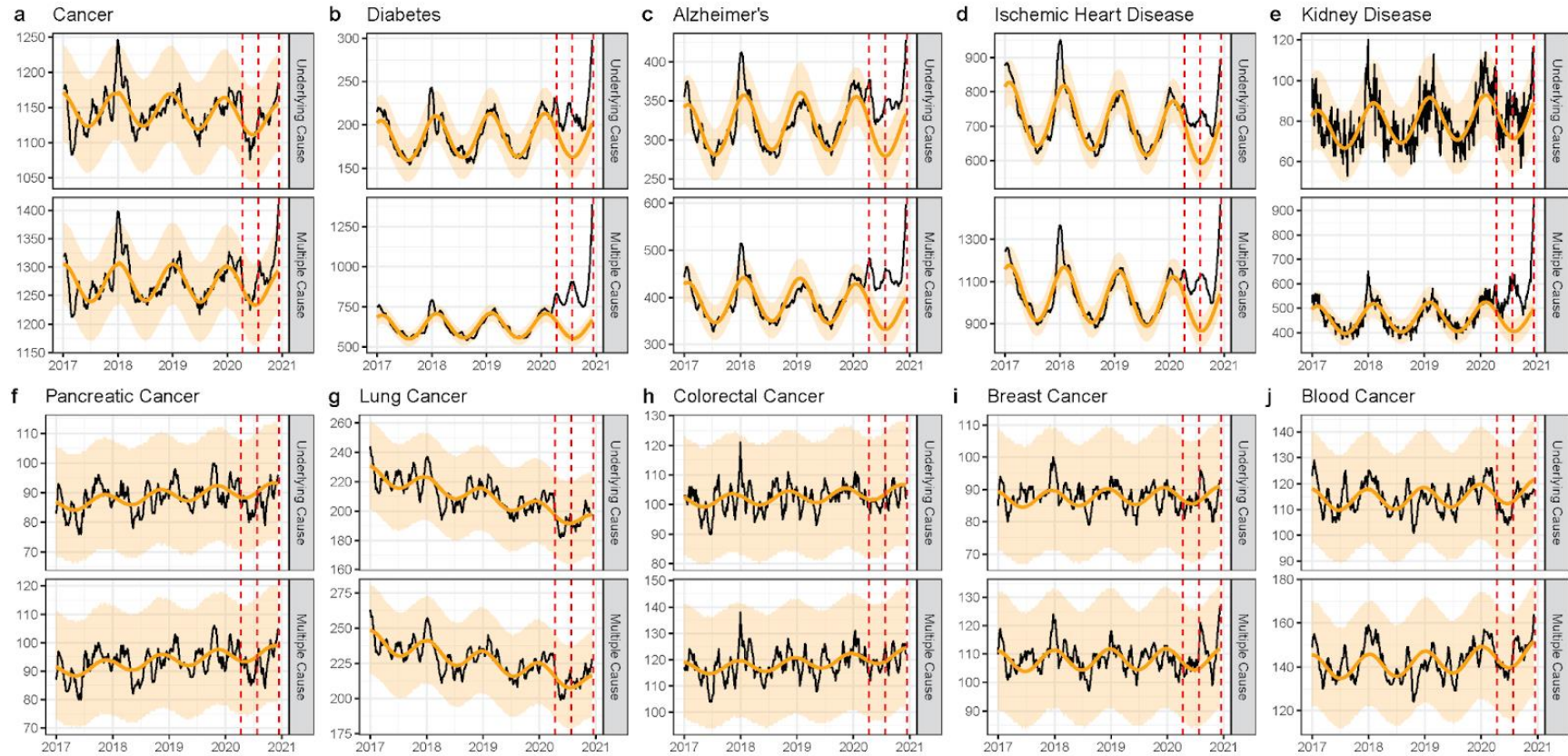
**Appendix 1 - Figure 7.** Weekly observed and estimated baseline mortality for each diagnosis group as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause) from 2017 to 2020 in Texas. Baselines during the pandemic are projected based on the previous years of data.

**Texas**



**Appendix 1 - Figure 8.** Weekly observed and estimated baseline mortality for each diagnosis group as both the underlying cause or anywhere on the death certificate (multiple cause) from 2017 to 2020 in New York. Baselines during the pandemic are projected based on the previous years of data.

## California



**Appendix 1 - Figure 9.** Comparison of ICD-10 letter categories between 2020 and 2019 for the underlying cause of death when cancer or diabetes are included on the death certificate, but are not listed as the underlying cause of death. For both cancer and diabetes, I codes (diseases of the circulatory system) make up the majority of underlying deaths. The most notable difference between 2019 and 2020 is the increase in U codes, which includes COVID-19 (U071). In total there were 13,434 deaths ascribed to COVID-19 (UC deaths) among cancer MC deaths. COVID-19 was included in <3% of all cancer deaths and 17% of diabetes deaths. In both cases it was listed as the UC on the majority of death certificates where it was included (81% and 97% for cancer and diabetes, respectively).

