

1 **Title:** Changes in life expectancy and life span equality during the COVID-19 epidemic

2 in Japan up to 2022.

3 **Running title:** Demographic impact of COVID-19 pandemic in Japan

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6 **Authors:**

7 Yuta Okada^a, Hiroshi Nishiura^a

8 ^a Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto 6068503, Japan

9

10 **Correspondence to:** Hiroshi Nishiura

11 **Address:** Kyoto University, Yoshidakonoecho, Sakyo, Kyoto city, Kyoto 6068503,

12 Japan

13 **Tel:** +81-75-753-4456; **Fax:** +81-75-753-4458

14 **Email:** nishiura.hiroshi.5r@kyoto-u.ac.jp

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 **Objectives:** To evaluate the impact of COVID-19 on life expectancy in Japan through
19 demographic analyses.

20 **Methods:** We evaluated the relationship between the life expectancy gap from 2020–21
21 and 2021–22 and COVID-19 epidemic size at prefectural level. We also conducted age-
22 and cause-specific decomposition of life expectancy change. Trends in life span equality
23 from 2000–22 were evaluated at the national level.

24 **Results:** Prefectural analysis of 2021–22 life expectancy change and annual per-
25 population COVID-19 cases, person-days in intensive care, and reported COVID-19
26 deaths showed no significant correlations, unlike our analysis from 2020–21. However,
27 decomposition analysis revealed substantial life expectancy shortening attributable to
28 the population over 35 years old. It also showed large increases in causes of death such
29 as cardiovascular or respiratory disorders as well as COVID-19. Whole-population life
30 span equality declined in 2020 but increased in 2021 and 2022 despite the shorter life
31 expectancy.

32 **Conclusions:** Discrepancy between life expectancy change and COVID-19 statistics in
33 2022 suggests the growing ascertainment bias of COVID-19. The increased contribution
34 of cardiovascular disorders to life expectancy shortening is an alarming sign for the

35 future. Life span equality changes in 2021 and 2022 can probably be attributed to
36 increased mortality among older people.

37

38 **Keywords:** COVID-19; life expectancy; Arriaga Method; life span equality; Japan

39

40 **Highlights**

- 41 • Life expectancy change was not correlated with COVID-19 epidemic activity in 2022
- 42 • Older people made the biggest contribution to shorter life expectancy
- 43 • Cardiovascular disorders contributed substantially to shortening of life expectancy
- 44 • Life span equality increased in 2021 and 2022 despite shorter life expectancy

45 **Introduction**

46 Since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic in Wuhan, China in November 2019,
47 evidence of the pandemic's impact on mortality has accumulated globally, with
48 substantial geographical heterogeneity. [1–6] Global studies suggest that from January
49 1st, 2020 to December 31st, 2021, excess deaths worldwide were in the range of 14.9–
50 15.9 million, with a large proportion attributed to India and the United States. [3,4]
51 Published studies suggest that the global life expectancy change was –1.6 years from

52 2019 to 2021, when many countries showed bounce-backs from the shortening in 2020.

53 However, other countries faced sustained shortening into 2021. [4–6]

54 It is now several years since the emergence of COVID-19, and the evaluation of the

55 mortality impact of the condition has become more difficult for several reasons. One

56 reason is changes in the official COVID-19 statistics, which are provided by public

57 health agencies around the world and reflect epidemic activity. These are now less

58 rigorous than in 2020, because most countries have gradually diminished their effort

59 either to control the spread of COVID-19 or to maintain a meticulous surveillance

60 system. Another reason is the change in the nature of deaths associated with COVID-19

61 since the introduction of vaccines against the disease in late 2020. The direct mortality

62 impact of COVID-19 has been alleviated by these vaccines, but a substantial proportion

63 of deaths are caused indirectly through complications such as cardiovascular disorders,

64 or by limited access to healthcare services when the healthcare capacity or ambulance

65 system were overwhelmed by the increased case load pressure of COVID-19.[5,7–15]

66 The ongoing emergence of SARS-CoV-2 variants with a high capability of immune

67 evasion and transmission may have worsened the health impact of COVID-19, but

68 understanding the true burden has remained a challenging task.[16,17]

69 Direct approaches to estimating the mortality impact of COVID-19 are therefore
70 challenging, including in Japan. There, the epidemic size of COVID-19 was greatest
71 upon the emergence of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron (B.1.1.529) lineage variants. In line with
72 other regions, Japan has been severely affected by COVID-19 in terms of excess
73 mortality and life expectancy shortening. [1,3–5,14,18–21] The updated estimates by
74 the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research suggest that life
75 expectancy at birth has shortened for two consecutive years, from 84.58 years in 2021
76 to 84.10 in 2022 for the total population. However, it is not clear whether the cause-
77 specific impact of this shortening has changed since 2021. It is also not clear how the
78 contribution of cardiovascular, respiratory, and neoplastic disorders in 2021 have
79 changed.[18] From a demographic perspective, the change in life span equality during
80 and since the COVID-19 pandemic is also interesting. One measure of life span equality,
81 or, evenness of life span, is the logarithm of the inverse of life table entropy. Global and
82 historical demographic analysis suggests that the trends in life expectancy at birth and
83 life span equality have been in line with each other. [22,23] However, this might not be
84 the case when the age–mortality structure changes drastically. For example, during the
85 COVID-19 epidemic in Japan, the mortality increase in 2021 contributed substantially
86 to shorter life expectancy. [18]

87 To examine the demographic impact of the COVID-19 epidemic in 2022 in Japan, we
88 investigated the relationship between reported COVID-19 burden at the prefectural level
89 and life expectancy. We also decomposed the year-on-year life expectancy change from
90 2019–22 by age groups and major causes of death, and evaluated the lifetime loss by
91 age and life span equality during the COVID-19 epidemic.

92 **Methods**

93 **Epidemiological data**

94 We used the data on deaths and exposure-to-risk populations available in the
95 Japanese Mortality Database (JMD), which was available for the whole of Japan and by
96 prefecture.[24] Death counts by cause of death and age group were obtained from the
97 vital statistics published by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan.[24] In
98 line with a previous study, we categorized major causes of death using the International
99 Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision (ICD-
100 10) into the top nine major cause categories (based on death counts by cause in 2022),
101 and aggregated the remainder into a single group, to give a total of ten groups.[18] The
102 epidemiological data for COVID-19 were retrieved from the open-access data provided
103 by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. [24]

104 Calculation of period life table

105 For subsequent use for age- and cause-specific decomposition of life expectancy
106 gaps, we re-calculated period life tables from 2000 to 2022 for the whole of Japan and
107 for all prefectures as described before. [18,24] We obtained age group-specific mortality
108 m_x using death counts and exposure-to-risk population in each age group x . Using m_x
109 and a_x , the average length of time to death in deceased individuals in age group x , we
110 calculated q_x , the probability of death in age group x as:

$$q_x = \begin{cases} \frac{m_x w_x}{1 + (w_x - a_x) m_x}, & x = 0, 1-4, 5-9, \dots 95-99, \\ 1, & x = 100+, \end{cases}$$

111 where w_x is the time interval of age group x . Starting from an initial population

$$l_0 = 100,000,$$

112 l_x can be obtained by iteratively applying the formula:

$$l_{x+1} = l_x(1 - q_x),$$

113 for age groups $x = 0, 1-4, 5-9, \dots 100+$ (in years). Using l_x and a_x values,

$$L_x = w_x l_{x+1} + a_x d_x = w_x l_{x+1} + a_x l_x q_x,$$

$$T_x = \sum_{i=x}^{100+} L_i,$$

114 where L_x is the person-years spent in age group x , $d_x = l_x q_x$ is the number of deaths in
115 age group x , and T_x is the person-years of life remaining for those in age group x . The
116 life expectancy of age group x , e_x , is then calculated as:

$$e_x = \frac{T_x}{l_x},$$

117 and the life expectancy at birth is calculated as $e_0 = T_0/l_0$.

118 **Life expectancy change and COVID-19 statistics at the prefectural level**

119 Three COVID-19 statistics at prefectural level were used for this analysis: (i)
120 annual number of COVID-19 cases, (ii) annual number of person-days in intensive care
121 because of COVID-19, and (iii) annual number of documented deaths due to COVID-19.
122 Using each of the COVID-19 indicators as an explanatory variable, we used linear
123 regression analysis to predict the year-on-year life expectancy change as the dependent
124 variable for 2020–21 and 2021–22.

125 **Decomposition of annual life expectancy change by age and cause of death**

126 In line with a recent study, we used the Arriaga method for age- and cause-
127 specific decomposition of life expectancy change. [18,25] The total contribution of age
128 group x to the life expectancy change (in years), denoted as C_x , can be described as:

129
$$C_x = \left[\frac{l_x^{2020}}{l_0} \left(\frac{L_x^{2021}}{l_x^{2021}} - \frac{L_x^{2020}}{l_x^{2020}} \right) \right] + \left[\frac{T_{x+1}^{2021}}{l_0} \left(\frac{l_x^{2020}}{l_x^{2021}} - \frac{l_{x+1}^{2020}}{l_{x+1}^{2021}} \right) \right]. \quad (1)$$

130 We then decomposed C_x into cause-specific contributions:

131
$$C_x^i = C_x \left[\frac{R_x^{i,2021} m_x^{2021} - R_x^{i,2020} m_x^{2020}}{m_x^{2021} - m_x^{2020}} \right], \quad (2)$$

132 where C_x^i is the contribution of cause of death i in age group x , R_x^i is the proportion of
133 deaths in age group x associated with cause i , and m_x is the overall mortality rate in age
134 group x .

135 **Life span equality h**

136 We used a measure of life span equality h , which was derived from life table
137 entropy \bar{H} . [22,26,27] Life table entropy $\bar{H}(t)$ is a measure of variation, or inequality, in
138 life span at time t that is defined as:

$$\bar{H}(t) = - \frac{\int_0^\infty l(x, t) \ln(l(x, t)) dx}{\int_0^\infty l(x, t) dx} = \frac{e^\dagger(0, t)}{e_0(t)},$$

139 where $e^\dagger(0, t)$ is the special case of:

$$e^\dagger(x, t) = - \frac{\int_x^\infty l(a, t) \ln(l(a, t)) da}{l(x, t)} = \frac{\int_x^\infty d(x, t) e(x, t) dx}{l(x, t)},$$

140 which is the life disparity, or the life expectancy loss after birth, and e_0 is the life
141 expectancy at birth. Using $\bar{H}(t)$, life span equality $h(t)$ is defined as:

$$h(t) = - \log(\bar{H}(t)).$$

142 Note that, contrary to $\bar{H}(t)$, the value of $h(t)$ is the measure of life span equality. We
 143 used a 1×1 year life table provided by JMD to calculate $h(t)$ from 2000 to 2022 for
 144 total, male, and female populations, and evaluated the relationship between $h(t)$ and
 145 life expectancy at birth, $e_0(t)$, for each of these populations. [28]

146 Aburto et al. [22] described the variation of $h(t)$ over time as:

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} = -\frac{\frac{\partial \bar{H}}{\partial t}}{\bar{H}} = \int_0^{\infty} w(x, t)W_h(x, t)\rho(x, t)dx,$$

147 where

$$\rho(x, t) = -\frac{\frac{\partial \mu(x, t)}{\partial t}}{\mu(x, t)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \log(\mu(x, t))$$

148 is the mortality improvement in age x over time,

$$w(x, t) = \mu(x, t)l(x, t)e(x, t) = d(x, t)e(x, t)$$

149 is the weight of the contribution of $\rho(x, t)$ to life expectancy change in age x , and

$$W_h(x, t) = \frac{1}{e_0} - \frac{1}{e^\dagger} (H(x, t) + \bar{H}(x, t) - 1) = \frac{1}{e_0} - \frac{1}{e^\dagger} \left(\int_0^x \mu(x, t)dx + \frac{e^\dagger(x, t)}{e(x, t)} - 1 \right).$$

150 Thus, $w(x, t)W_h(x, t)$ can be considered as the weight, or sensitivity, of $h(t)$ to $\rho(x, t)$

151 at age x . We calculated $w(x, t)W_h(x, t)$ and the threshold age a^H that satisfies

152 $W_h(a^H, t) = 0$ for $t = 2000, 2001, \dots, 2022$. These results were compared with year-

153 on-year mortality improvement, i.e., $r(x, t) = \log(\mu(a, t)) - \log(\mu(a, t + 1))$, which

154 is analogous to $\rho(x, t)$ as described above. We calculated the values such as $h(t)$, $\bar{H}(t)$,
155 and a^H in a discretized manner regarding ages, which has been previously described
156 elsewhere.[22,27]

157 **Software**

158 All analyses used R version 4.2.2. [29]

159 **Results**

160 The life expectancy at birth in Japan for the total, male, and female populations
161 from 2019–2022 is shown in Supplementary Table 1. These results were based on
162 abridged life tables that we re-calculated for use in Arriaga decomposition, but which
163 are almost identical to results provided by JMD. The life expectancy of the total
164 population decreased by 0.49 years, from 84.59 to 84.10 from 2021–22. A decrease in
165 life expectancy was also seen from 2020–21 of 0.15 years (from 84.74 to 84.59 years).
166 However, the magnitude of the shortening was greater in 2021–22. The shortening of
167 life expectancy at birth for both male and female populations also increased from 2021–
168 22, by 0.43 years for men (from 81.49 to 81.06 years) and 0.50 years for women (from
169 87.62 to 87.12 years).

170 Figure 1 shows life expectancy changes in the total population by prefecture in
171 2019–20, 2020–21, and 2021–22. Following the drastic change from an overall
172 increasing trend in 2019–20 to a sharply decreasing trend in 2020–21, all but one
173 prefecture saw a decline in life expectancy from 2021–22. In 2022, the greatest decrease
174 in life expectancy was seen in Iwate (1.00 years), and the only prefecture where life
175 expectancy continued to increase was Nagasaki (0.05 years). The prefecture-level life
176 expectancy changes of the male and female populations were largely consistent with
177 that for the total population (for the details, see Supplementary Data).

178 Figure 2 shows the correlation between reported COVID-19 burden and life
179 expectancy changes at the prefectural level. Combined with the linear regression results
180 shown in Table 1, there was no obvious correlation between annual reported cases,
181 person-days in intensive care, and death due to COVID-19 in 2021–22. However, this
182 was contrary to the findings from 2020–21.

183 Figure 3 shows the results of the Arriaga decomposition of life expectancy
184 change by age groups and major causes of death. An aggregated summary by age
185 groups and causes of death is shown in Supplementary Figures 1 and 2. There was a
186 clear negative contribution among the older population in 2020–21, and this negative

187 contribution was even bigger in 2021–22. The age range of the group contributing to the
188 reduction also widened in 2021–22 to as low as 30–34 years.

189 Figure 3 also shows the contributions of major causes of death by age groups.

190 The negative contribution of COVID-19 among the older population expanded
191 substantially in 2021–22. The total contribution by all ages grew from –0.095 years in
192 2020–21 to –0.131 years in 2021–22. In addition to COVID-19, the negative
193 contribution of cardiovascular causes also grew considerably in 2021–22, especially
194 among those over 50 years old. The total contribution of cardiovascular death was
195 –0.091 years in 2022, which was a consistent and substantial reduction compared with
196 +0.073 years in 2020 and –0.003 years in 2021. The negative contribution of “other”
197 causes (the remaining causes of death beyond the top nine major categories) also
198 increased substantially in 2021–22 among the population over 50 years old, with a total
199 of –0.139 years across all age groups. There was a clear decrease in the contribution of
200 respiratory and neoplastic disorders, and other causes from 2020–21 to 2021–22 (see
201 Supplementary Data for detailed results). Results from the decomposition analysis for
202 the male and female populations were similar to that of the total population
203 (Supplementary Data and Supplementary Figures 3 and 4).

204 The values of $h(t)$ as an indicator of life span equality for the total population
205 from 2000 to 2022 are shown in Figure 4. Panel (A) shows that h largely increased
206 consistently up to 2019, except in 2011 when an exceptional number of casualties
207 occurred due to the earthquake and tsunami that hit eastern Japan. That increasing trend
208 was halted in 2020 when the COVID-19 pandemic started, but has resumed since 2021.
209 The values of $h(t)$ for the female and male populations showed very similar patterns to
210 those for the total population (Supplementary Figures 5 and 6). Panel (B) in Figure 4
211 shows the relationship between $h(t)$ and life expectancy at birth from 2000 to 2022. A
212 decrease in $h(t)$ was seen in 2020 for the first time since 2011, and was followed by an
213 increase in 2021 and 2022 despite the shortening of life expectancy at birth.

214 To see how the overall dynamics of $h(t)$ from 2020 to 2022 can be explained
215 by mortality improvements by age for this period (in relation to a^H), we calculated
216 curves of $w(x, t)W_h(x, t)$ across ages for 2021 and 2022. We also evaluated the year-
217 on-year mortality improvement $r(x, t)$ from 2020 to 2022 for the total population
218 (Supplementary Figure 6). The curves of $w(x, t)W_h(x, t)$ for 2021 and 2022 were very
219 similar, although there was a slight shift toward the younger ages in the negative part of
220 the curve for the older population. As for $r(x, t)$, $r(x, 2020)$ above $x = a^H$ lay in the
221 positive range, whereas $r(x, 2021)$ and $r(x, 2022)$ mostly lay in the negative range for

222 the age range. For ages younger than $x = a^H$, the signs of $r(x, 2020)$, $r(x, 2021)$, and
223 $r(x, 2022)$ were inconsistent across different ages, suggesting that increased mortality
224 among those older than a^H clearly contributed to the increase of $h(t)$ in 2021 and 2022
225 (see Supplementary Figures 7 and 8 for results on the female and male populations).

226 **Discussion**

227 Our study showed the pattern of deaths in Japan during the COVID-19
228 epidemic (up to 2022) through demographic information. The main finding was the
229 growing impact of the older population and cardiovascular deaths on the shortening of
230 life expectancy, which was considerable from 2021 to 2022. The lack of significant
231 correlations between life expectancy change and epidemiological indicators of the
232 COVID-19 burden from 2022 is also a concern. This finding may be linked to the low
233 detection of COVID-19 cases and associated deaths, which is supported by our results
234 about the age- and cause-specific contributions to life expectancy change. The
235 increasing trend in life span equality despite the life expectancy shortening may also be
236 related to the substantial increase in mortality among the older population.

237 There were two key findings from our study. The first was that all age groups
238 over 30 years old contributed to the shortening of life expectancy in 2022, as shown in

239 Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure 1. However, compared with the overall shortening
240 attributed to age groups over 50 in 2021, the negative impact was more diffuse across
241 ages. This finding is similar to what was observed in 2020–21 in countries in Eastern
242 Europe, though the underlying situations in these countries, such as types of circulating
243 SARS-CoV-2 variants, vaccine coverage, and healthcare situations, would have been
244 quite different from that in Japan from 2021–22. [5] In Japan, the population-wide
245 vaccine coverage of the second dose of mRNA vaccines (BNT162b2 [Pfizer/BioNTech]
246 and mRNA-1273 [Moderna] vaccines) was around 80% by the end of 2021, and the
247 coverage of the third dose also increased from around 15% at the end of 2021 to 68% by
248 the end of 2022. [24] Despite this high vaccination rate, we found substantial mortality
249 caused by COVID-19 in Japan among wider age groups in 2022. This was not fully
250 captured by COVID-19 statistics, as seen in our prefectural analyses (Figure 2 and
251 Table 1).

252 Another key finding was the substantial growth in the negative contribution of
253 cardiovascular disorders to life expectancy shortening, especially among populations
254 over 50 years old (Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure 2). This was not surprising,
255 because published studies have shown an elevated risk of cardiovascular diseases
256 associated with COVID-19.[12–14,30] However, to our knowledge, our study is the

257 first to have quantified the magnitude of life expectancy shortening in Japan caused by
258 cardiovascular deaths in 2022. The negative change in contributions by respiratory
259 causes from 2021 to 2022 and the consistently negative trend in contributions by
260 neoplastic disorders since 2020 are also of note. In addition to COVID-19-associated
261 conditions, these findings may be attributable to an array of factors including changes in
262 hospital attendance. [18] There is a gap between these findings and the global and
263 regional cause-specific contributions to life expectancy change from 2019–21. Further
264 update on this issue is warranted to evaluate changes in life expectancy change by
265 causes of death. The increase in the contribution of remaining causes of death is mostly
266 explained by the increase in deaths due to senility, which increased by around 20,000 in
267 2021 and 27,000 in 2022. [24]

268 The changes in life span equality during the COVID-19 pandemic were also of
269 note. Our result highlights the undesirable increase in life span equality despite the
270 shortening of life expectancy at birth. This was in line with the substantial negative
271 contribution by the older population to life expectancy changes in the same period,
272 highlighted by the Arriaga decomposition results. These findings add to demographic
273 case studies on the historical relationship between life expectancy and life span equality.
274 [22,23]

275 Our study had some limitations. First, we could not examine the relationship
276 between COVID-19 and other causes of death in detail at the prefectural level, because
277 data on prefectural death count stratified by age and cause of death are not openly
278 accessible. Detailed analysis of prefectural data would have provided insights on
279 geographic heterogeneity, and we hope to explore this in future. Second, we ignored
280 geographic and temporal variation in the ascertainment bias for COVID-19 statistics.
281 We sufficiently met our key focus to be confident about the true mortality burden of
282 COVID-19, but these factors could have biased our analysis of the relationship between
283 prefectural COVID-19 statistics and life expectancy change. Third, we did not consider
284 the fluctuation in the coverage of death registrations in Japan from 2019–22. However,
285 it is unlikely that we missed a large proportion of deaths that would substantially affect
286 our results, because the completeness of death registration is reported to be 90–99% in
287 Japan. [24]

288 In conclusion, our demographic analysis showed the impact of the COVID-19
289 epidemic up to 2022, when the epidemic grew substantially larger. The demographic
290 burden of the pandemic increased more in 2022 than in 2021 or before, but the COVID-
291 19 burden reported by epidemiological surveillance failed to capture this trend. This is
292 probably due to both the shrinking coverage of epidemiological surveillance and the

293 growing impact of COVID-19-associated deaths caused by complications such as
294 cardiovascular disorders. We also showed an undesirable increase in life span equality
295 due to disproportionately higher mortality among older people. Our study therefore
296 provides valuable insights into the mortality impact of the COVID-19 epidemic in Japan,
297 which can now only be captured by indirect measures such as demographic analysis in
298 the absence of meticulous epidemiological surveillance.

299

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317

318 **Conflict of interest**

319 We declare that we have no conflicts of interest.

320 **Ethical approval statement**

321 Ethical approval was not required because none of the data used in this study included
322 any personally identifiable information.

323 **Data availability**

324 We used openly accessible COVID-19 statistics from the website of the Ministry of
325 Health, Labour and Welfare, and life tables and related statistics from the website of
326 National Institute of Population and Social Security Research. The supplementary files

327 include the datasets used in this study, and also the results of our numerical analyses.

328 None of the data used in this study contained personally identifiable information.

329

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445

446 **Figure 1. Life expectancy changes from 2019–20, 2020–21, and 2021–22 by**
447 **prefecture.**

448 Changes from (A) 2019–20, (B) 2020–21, and (C) 2021–22 are shown. In each panel,
449 bars in blue show positive changes, and red bars show negative changes. Prefectures are
450 shown in ascending order by life expectancy change in 2021–22.

451

452 **Figure 2. Correlation between life expectancy changes and COVID-19 burden**
453 **from official statistics.**

454 Correlation between life expectancy changes and the reported numbers of (A) annual
455 COVID-19 cases, (B) person-days in intensive care due to COVID-19, and (C) deaths
456 due to COVID-19 are shown. The variables on the x-axis are log-scaled in all panels. In
457 each panel, individual prefectures are shown as black triangles for 2020–21 data, or red
458 dots for 2021–22 data. The horizontal dashed line corresponds to “no year-on-year life
459 expectancy change”.

460

461 **Figure 3. Arriaga decomposition of life expectancy change by major cause of death**
462 **and age group, for the total population of Japan.**

463 Decomposed contribution by age for (A) 2019–20, (B) 2020–21, (C) 2021–22 are
464 shown in each panel. The key to the colors of bars for each major cause are shown in
465 the panel below the plots. Bars representing major causes with a positive contribution to
466 life expectancy are stacked on the right-hand side, and those making negative
467 contributions are stacked on the left-hand side.

468

469 **Figure 4. The trend in life span equality from 2000 to 2022, for the total population**
470 **of Japan.**

471 Panel (A) shows the dynamics of life span equality by time from 2000 to 2022. Panel
472 (B) shows the same dynamics in relation to life expectancy for the same period, and the
473 years corresponding to the red dots are noted within the figure.

474

475

476 **Table 1. Life expectancy change and COVID-19 statistics: summary of linear**
477 **regression analysis.**

478

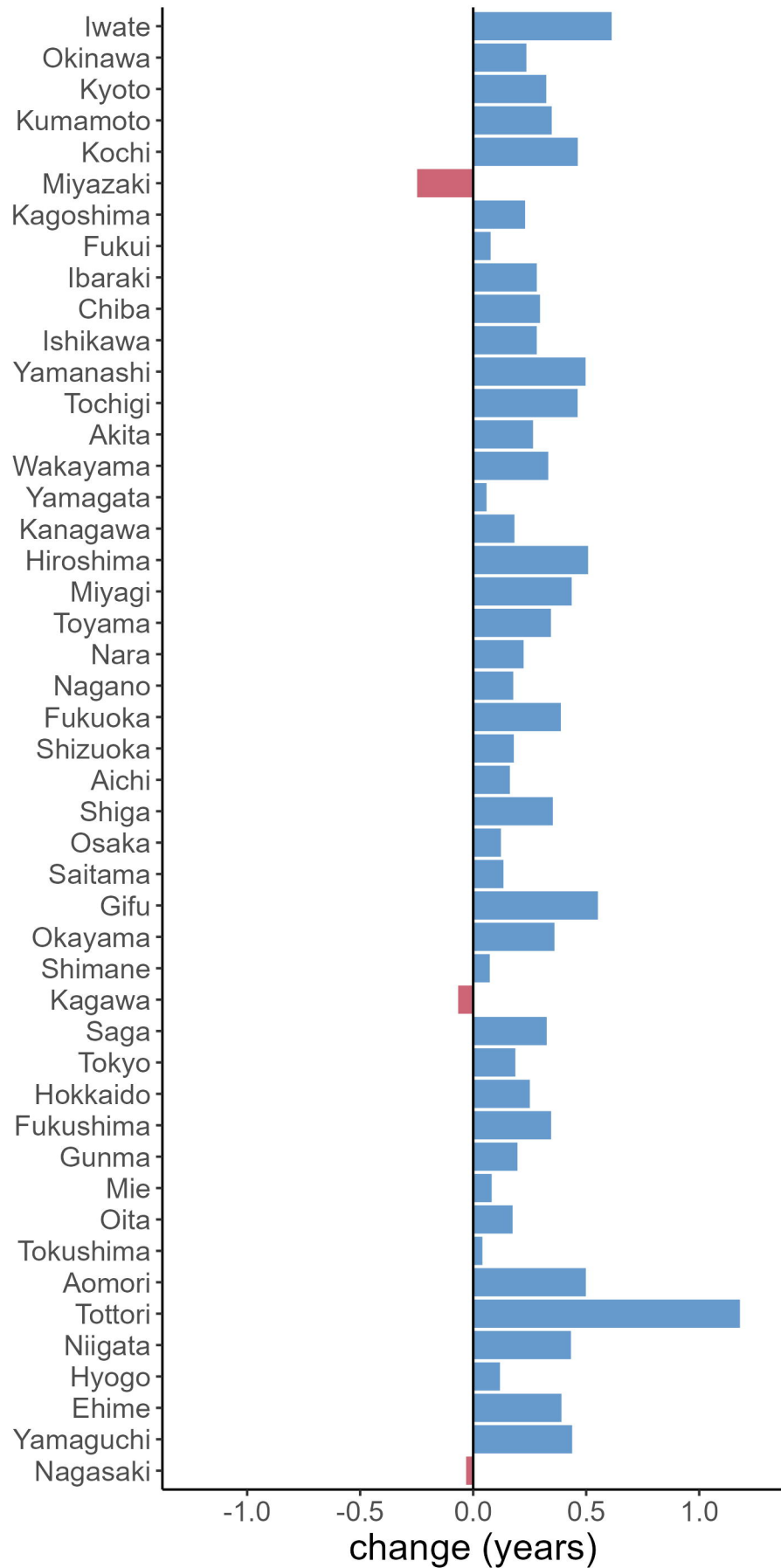
COVID-19 data (log-scale)	Year	Coefficient (95% CI*)	Intercept (95% CI)
Cases	2020-21	-0.104 (-0.189, -0.018)	-0.655 (-1.086, -0.224)
	2021-22	-0.104 (-0.496, 0.288)	-0.652 (-1.266, -0.037)
Person-days in intensive care	2020-21	-0.082 (-0.144, -0.021)	-0.704 (-1.132, -0.277)
	2021-22	-0.053 (-0.117, 0.011)	-0.879 (-1.353, -0.405)
Death	2020-21	-0.067 (-0.137, -0.002)	-0.789 (-1.464, -0.114)
	2021-22	-0.105 (-0.269, 0.060)	-1.338 (-2.671, -0.057)

479 *CI, confidence interval

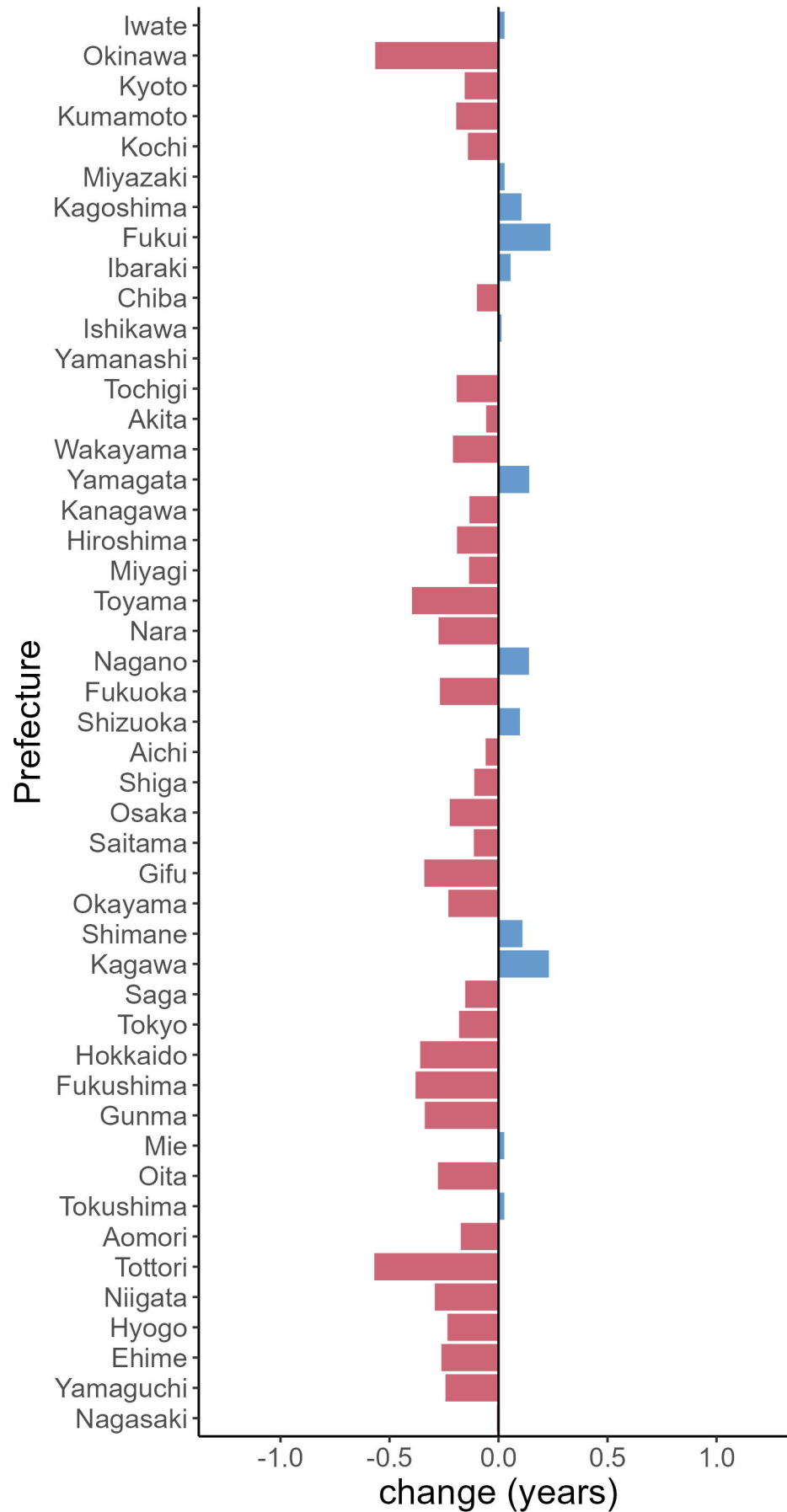
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Life expectancy changes (years) by prefecture, Total Population

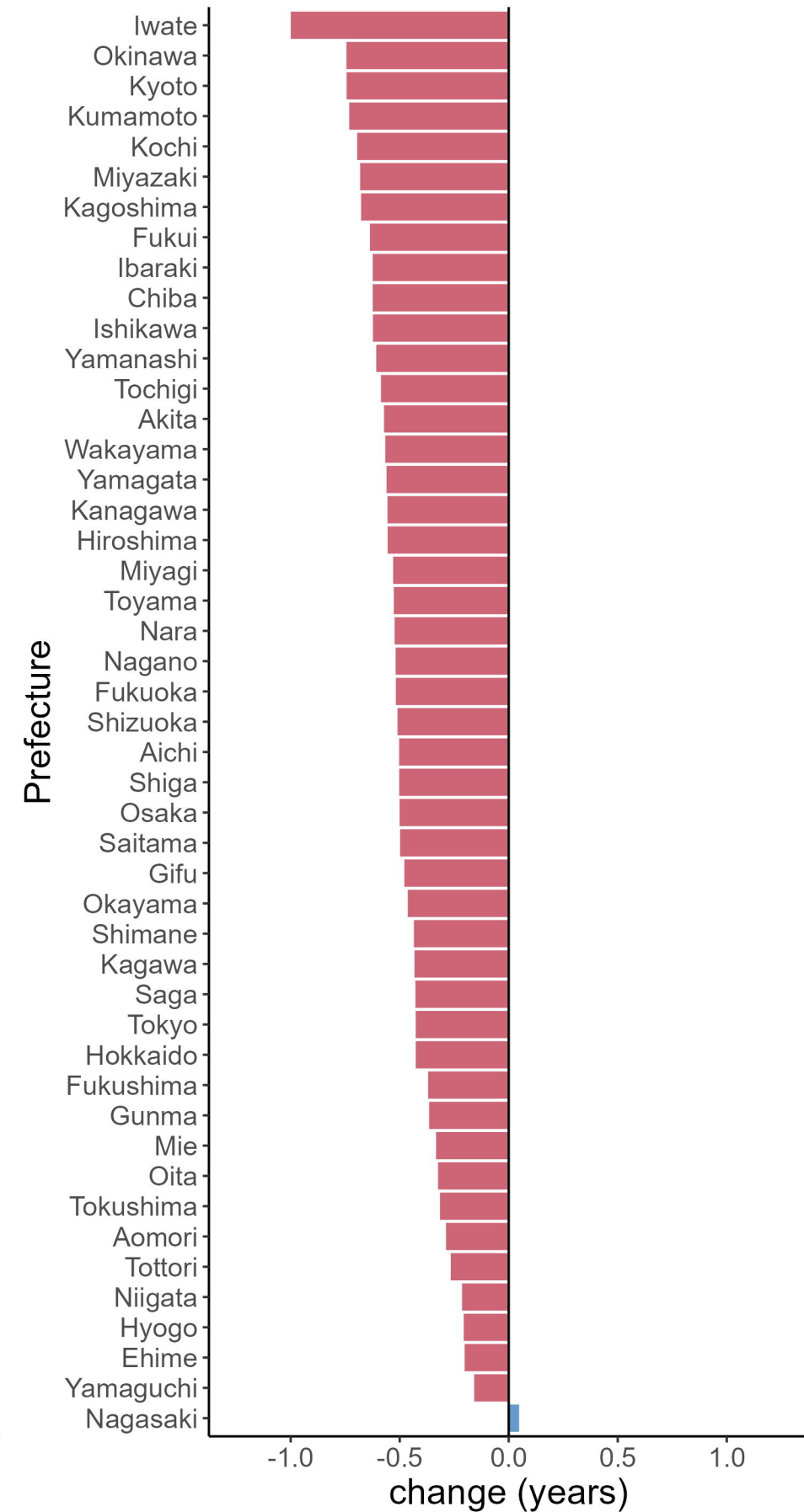
(A) 2019-20



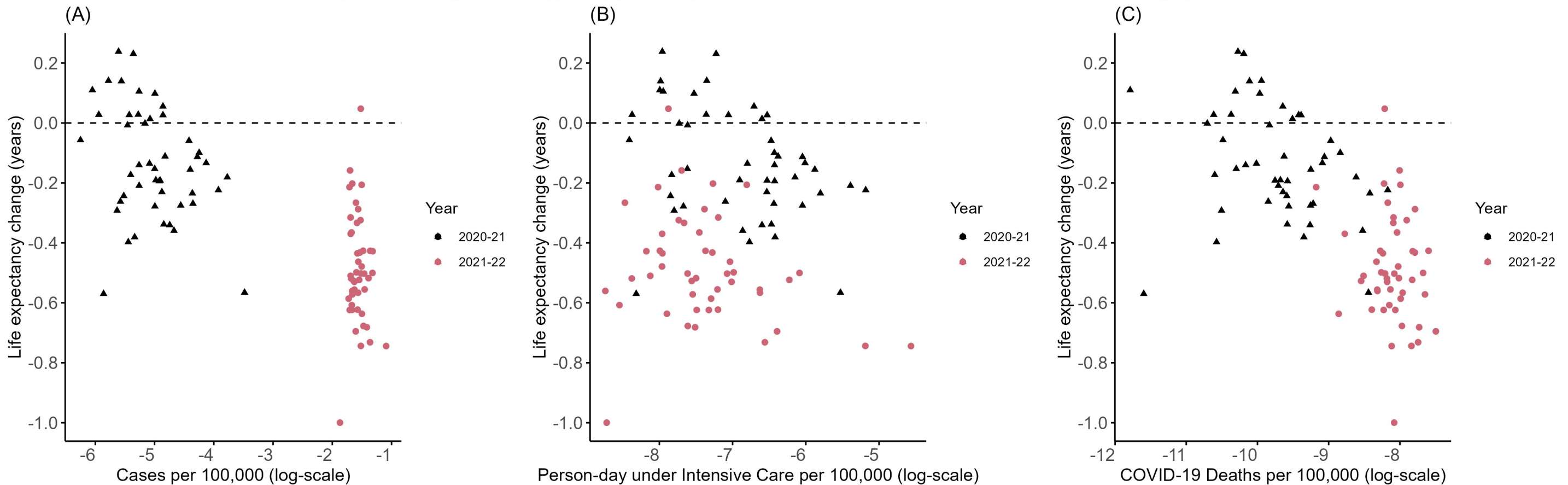
(B) 2020-21



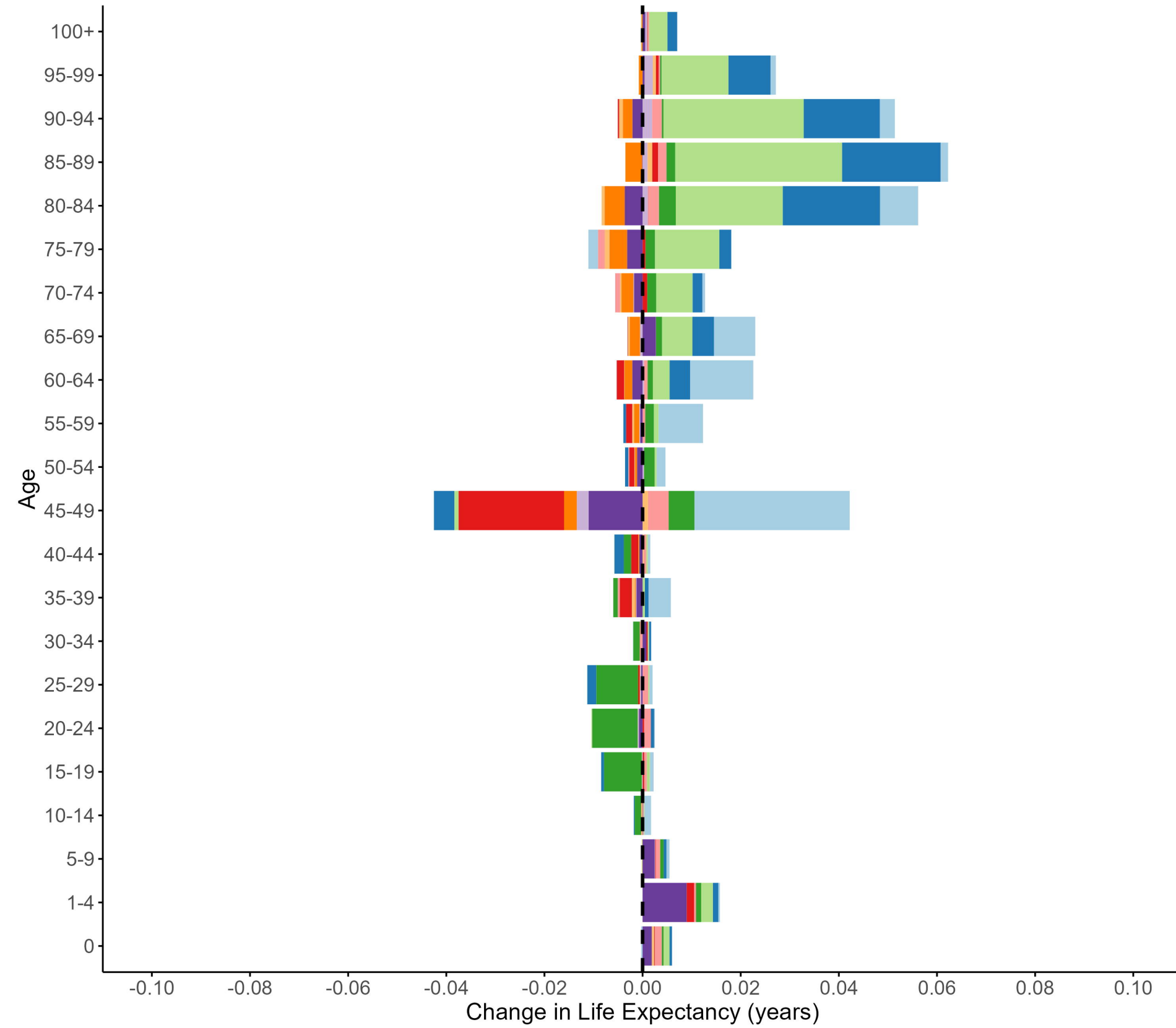
(C) 2021-22



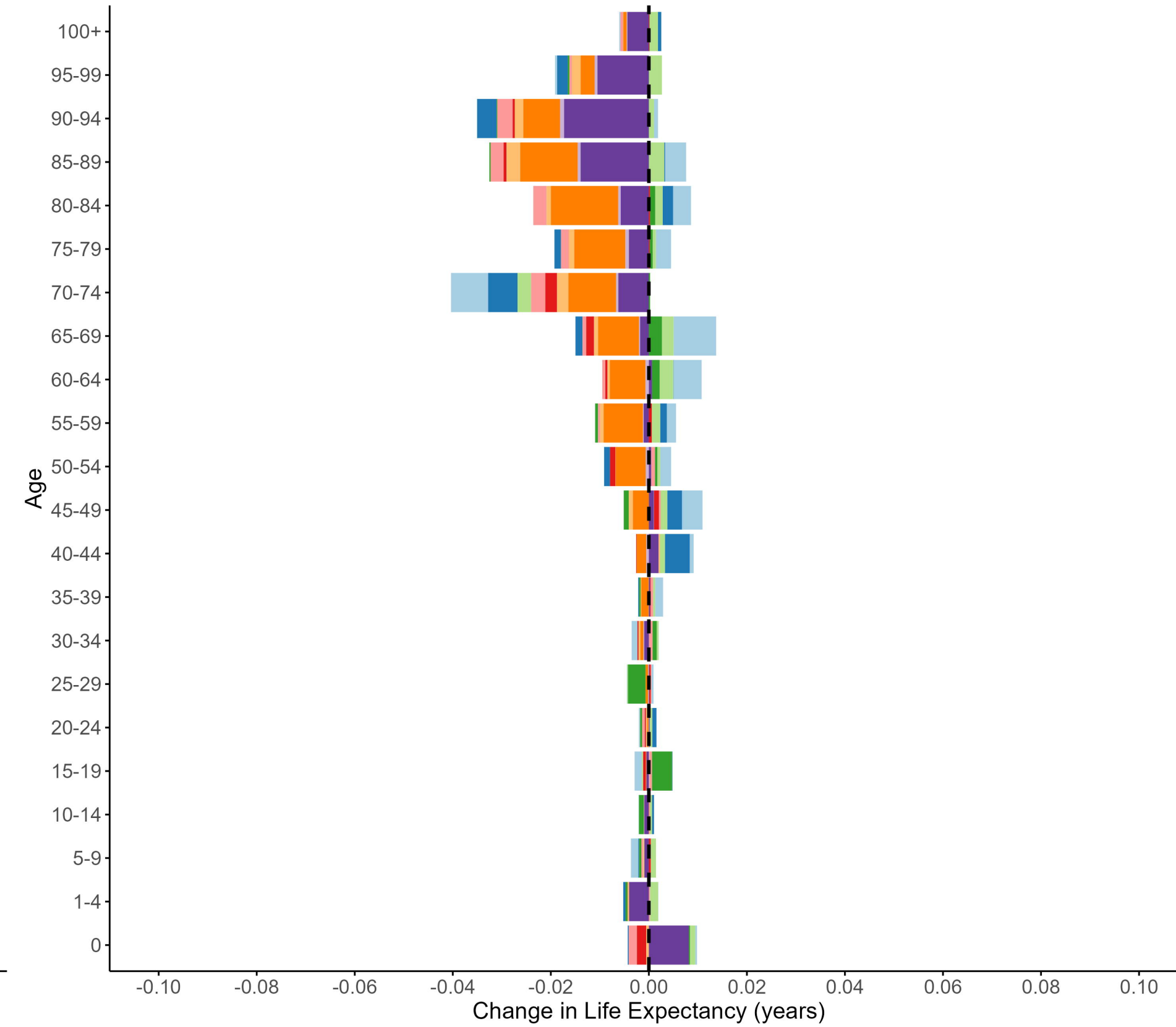
Life expectancy changes (years) and reported COVID-19 burden by prefecture



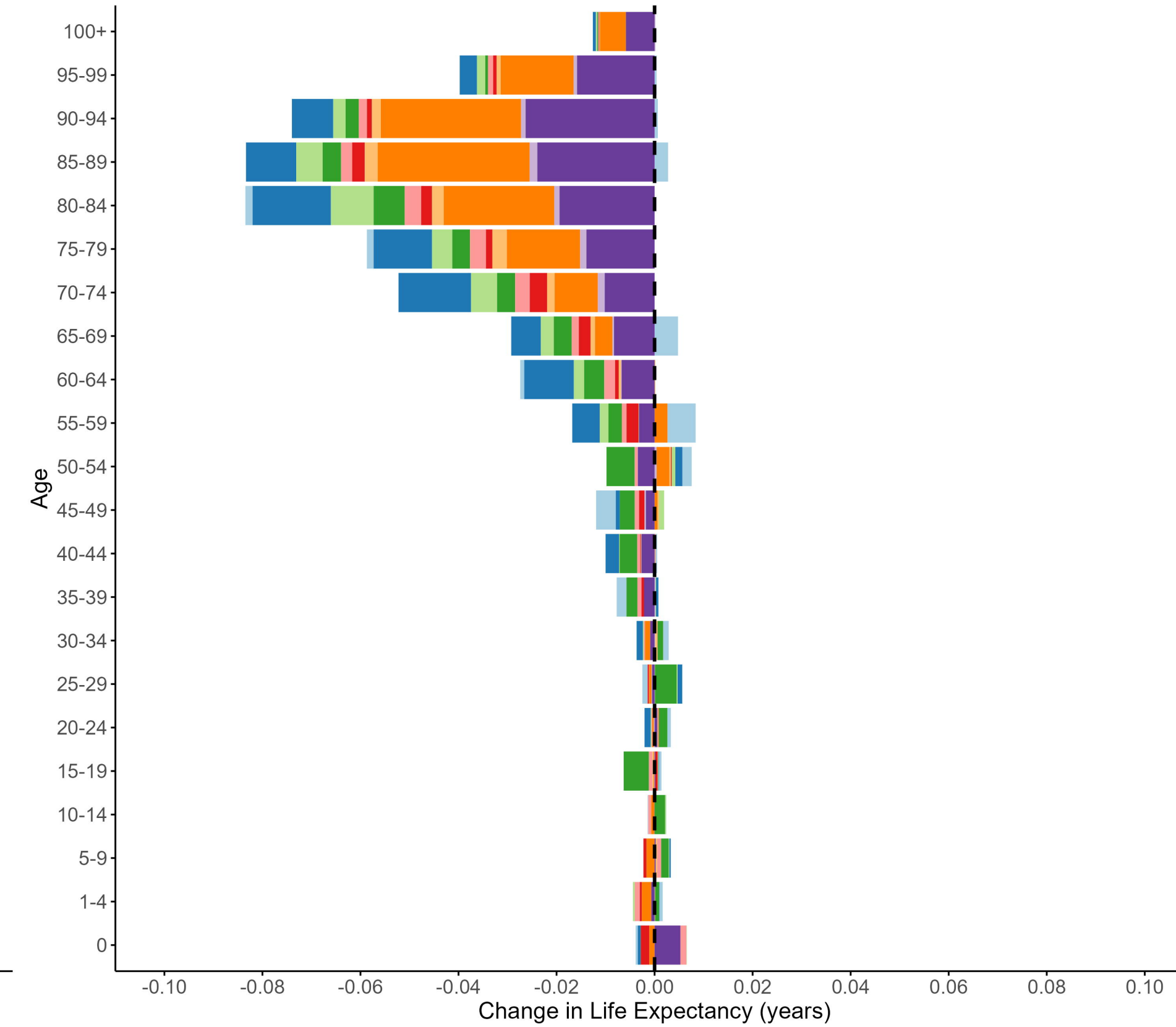
(A) 2019-20



(B) 2020-21



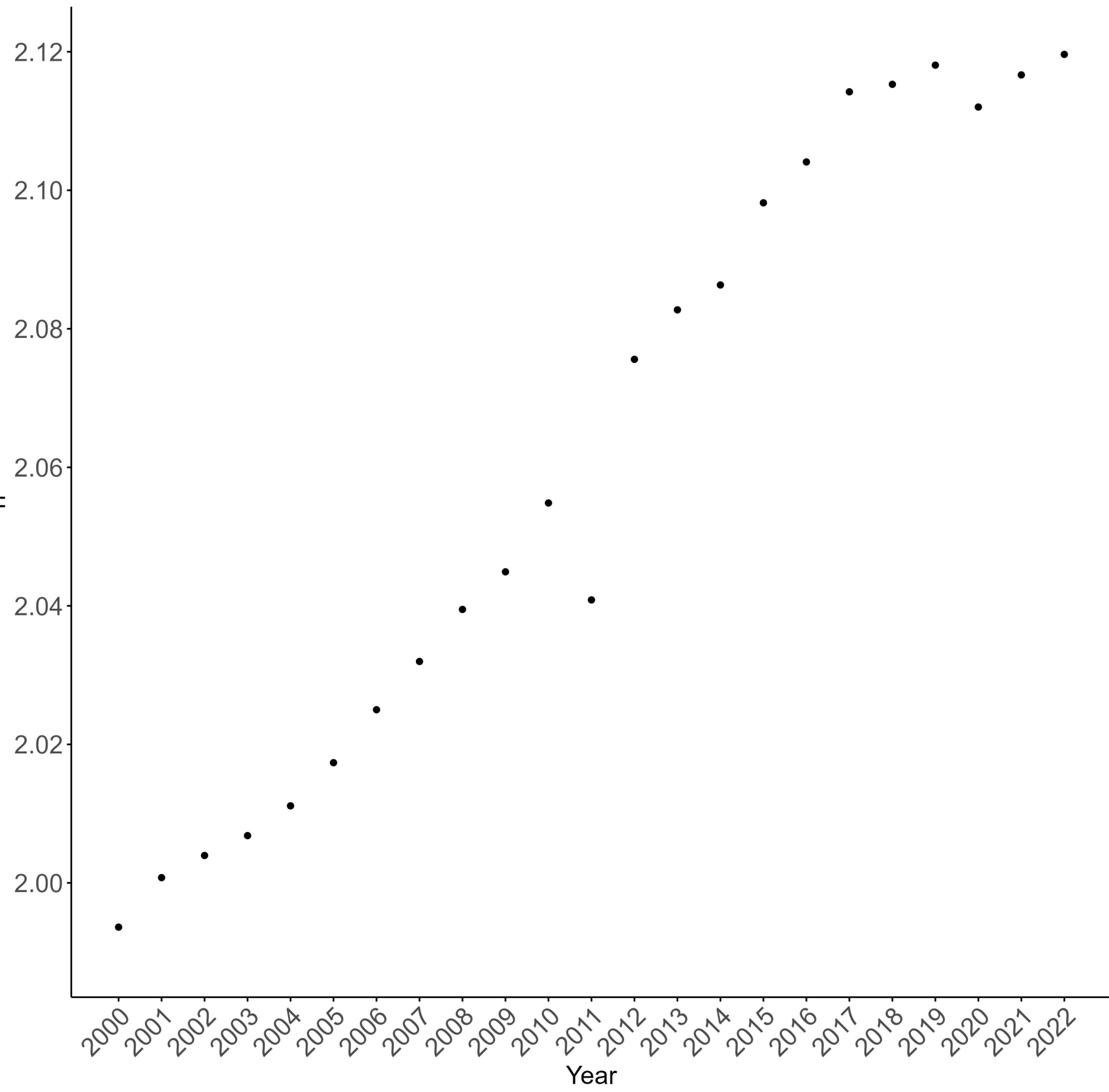
(C) 2021-22



Cause of Death

Neoplastic	Respiratory	Nervous	Genitourinary or Renal	Mental
Cardiovascular	External	Digestive	COVID-19	Others

(A) Trend of h , 2000-22



(B) Life Expectancy at Birth and h , 2000-22

