

1 **Assessing Excess Mortality Patterns in**
2 **Argentina over the COVID-19**
3 **Pandemic (2020-2021): A**
4 **Comprehensive National and**
5 **Subnational Analysis**

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17

18 Abstract

19 The COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically impacted global health metrics, with the World Health
20 Organization (WHO) reporting over 732 million cases and 6.7 million deaths by the end of 2021.
21 Additionally, approximately 14.8 million excess deaths were estimated globally through 2022,
22 significantly surpassing reported COVID-19 deaths. In Argentina, recorded pandemic-related
23 fatalities reached nearly 160,000 from March 2020 to December 2022, underlining the necessity
24 for a detailed examination of excess mortality across national and subnational levels.

25 This study aims to describe excess mortality in Argentina in 2020 and 2021 and its subnational
26 geographic areas, and to identify geographic and temporal disparities across sub-regions using
27 publicly available monthly mortality and climate data from Argentina, spanning 2015 to 2021.
28 Excess mortality was assessed using Generalized Additive Models (GAM) to account for long-
29 term and annual trends, monthly climatic variations, and epidemiological reports of Influenza-like
30 Illness (ILI). Data across various geographic regions was analyzed to identify temporal and spatial
31 disparities in mortality.

32 Our analyses revealed significant regional disparities in mortality, identifying a total of 133,612
33 excess deaths across Argentina during the study period, with notable peaks coinciding with
34 COVID-19 waves. These insights not only contribute to our understanding of the pandemic's
35 broader effects but also emphasize the critical need for enhanced public health responses
36 informed by mortality data analyses. The development of an open-source, interactive platform
37 further supports this initiative, enabling detailed exploration and informed decision-making to
38 better manage future public health crises.

39 Introduction

40 The global epidemiological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has been profound, with the World
41 Health Organization (WHO) reporting over 732 million confirmed cases and 6.7 million deaths as
42 of December 31, 2022¹. Additionally, the WHO estimates indicate that there were approximately
43 14.8 million excess deaths worldwide through the duration of the pandemic by the end of 2022,
44 a figure 2.7 times greater than the reported COVID-19 deaths during the same period². More
45 recent studies describe that out of 131 million global deaths from all causes combined in 2020
46 and 2021, approximately 15.9 million were attributed to COVID-19, either directly or indirectly due
47 to associated social, economic, or behavioral changes during the pandemic³. In Argentina, the
48 pandemic led to around 10 million confirmed cases¹ and nearly 160,000 deaths from March 2020
49 to December 2022, with significant annual variances observed: more than 53,000 in 2020, almost
50 85,000 in 2021, and almost 24,000 in 2022⁴.

51 The most substantial impact on the death toll was noted during 2020-2021. Latin America was
52 particularly hard-hit, emerging as one of the regions most affected during this timeframe and
53 several countries in the region presented the highest number of cases and deaths in the world^{5,6}.
54 Notably, countries like Peru and Mexico experienced enormous excess mortality rates during
55 2020, highlighting the severe regional disparities in the pandemic's impact⁷.

56 In Argentina, the pre-pandemic general mortality rate remained relatively constant between 809.8
57 and 757.0 per 100,000 from 2015 to 2019, experiencing dramatic increases to 829.0 and 953.5
58 per 100,000 in 2020 and 2021, respectively (26.0% increase). However, the assessment of excess
59 mortality has been primarily focused on the year 2020, with limited comprehensive analysis
60 extending into 2021⁸⁻¹⁰.

61 The anomalous and sudden nature of the pandemic brought significance to the concept of
62 "excess deaths" defined as the number of deaths that occurred in a period exceeding what is

63 expected as "normal" based on historical records. The concept of "excess mortality" is
64 operationalized as a percentage of the total expected deaths under normal conditions and is used
65 as a comparable indicator across different populations, which is useful for quantifying the impact
66 of a pandemic (or other dramatic situations such as climate disasters, wars or catastrophes) on
67 mortality¹¹. Unlike other classic mortality indicators, such as crude, adjusted, or specific mortality
68 rates, estimating excess mortality requires the availability of mortality information for all causes
69 for the period of analysis in a given population and a historical period for the same population.

70 Considering the impact of a pandemic, this indicator is crucial in examining the aftermath, as it
71 considers various factors that can affect fatalities, such as government-driven public health and
72 social policies to manage the crisis, shifts in social behaviors, and preparedness and response of
73 healthcare systems.

74 While there is consensus that excess deaths observed above what is expected (in absolute values
75 or percentages) represent the appropriate indicator to capture this phenomenon, there is no
76 consensus in the literature on how to determine the threshold of what is expected under "normal"
77 circumstances, and consequently, how to calculate the indicator. Two of the most commonly
78 used alternatives are models based on percentiles of the historical distribution of deaths¹²⁻⁸ and
79 models based on more complex or multivariate methods that can incorporate other variables,
80 such as climate or seasonality¹³⁻²⁰.

81 This study aims to describe excess mortality in Argentina in 2020 and 2021 and its subnational
82 geographic areas, and to identify geographic and temporal disparities across sub-regions.
83 Beyond providing detailed analyses and insights, the research aims to extend its utility by
84 developing an open-source, interactive, customizable, and user-friendly platform for estimating
85 jurisdiction-specific excess mortality. This tool is designed to facilitate the exploration and
86 understanding of mortality data by researchers, policymakers, and the general public, enabling
87 informed decision-making and targeted interventions to address public health challenges.

89 Materials and Methods

90 This is a descriptive and analytic study. Monthly mortality statistical data from 2015 to 2021 were
91 utilized to construct curves representing the monthly number of deaths for all causes at both
92 national and subnational levels. The datasets used were publicly released by the Ministry of
93 Health of Argentina (MoH) and were accessible through its Open Data portal²¹. The available
94 information for excess mortality analysis was temporally disaggregated by month. The
95 geographic areas defined in the dataset encompassed complete jurisdictions in 11 cases (the
96 provinces of Buenos Aires, Chaco, Córdoba, Corrientes, Entre Ríos, Formosa, Mendoza, Misiones,
97 Santa Fe, Tucumán, and the Autonomous City of Buenos Aires). Given the lower event frequency
98 and in order to prevent the indirect identification of deceased individuals, the MoH aggregated the
99 remaining jurisdictions into five regions based on geographic contiguity: Jujuy + Salta (NOA 1),
100 Catamarca + Santiago del Estero (NOA 2), Chubut + Santa Cruz + Tierra del Fuego (Southern
101 Patagonia), La Pampa + Neuquén + Río Negro (Northern Patagonia), and San Juan + San Luis +
102 La Rioja (Rest of Cuyo) (Fig 1).

103 **Fig 1. Geographic Division for Excess Mortality Analysis in Argentina**

104

105 Additionally, monthly data for both minimum and maximum temperatures^{22,23} recorded by
106 meteorological stations across various geographical regions for the period spanning from 2015
107 to 2021 were incorporated. Data was obtained from the National Meteorological Service of
108 Argentina²⁴. Weekly notifications of Influenza-like Illness (ILI) cases^{25,26}, sourced from
109 epidemiological bulletins periodically published by the Ministry of Health²⁷ and the Open Data
110 portal²⁸ for years 2015–2021, were also used. Studies cited, employing similar models have
111 demonstrated improved goodness of fit, reinforcing the robustness of our methodological
112 approach.

113 A generalized additive model (GAM) was identified as the best choice for threshold estimation
114 after evaluating the root mean square error (RMSE) between various models (1) simple linear
115 models, 2) simple linear model with regularization, 3) Poisson regression model, 4) negative
116 binomial generalised linear model, 5) GAM model, and 6) median and percentiles methodology⁸)
117 comparing predicted versus observed mortality within training data via cross-validation for the
118 time series over the period 2015-2019. This process was carried out using the R²⁹ package caret
119 and the function "trainControl", with the method specified as "timeslice"³⁰.

120 During model development and selection, long-term (systematic changes observed throughout
121 the entire study period, independent of seasonal variations) and annual trends, monthly average
122 minimum and maximum temperatures, and reports of ILI cases from 2015-2019 were taken into
123 account. Based on the RMSE obtained through cross-validation, the GAM was chosen as the best
124 estimator to predict the expected number of deaths in 2020-2021 (test set) and to estimate
125 excess deaths (the difference between observed and expected deaths) on a monthly and annual
126 basis, both at the national and subnational levels.

127 As illustrated in Fig 2, the data was segmented into training, validation, and test sets. The training
128 and validation sets were split sequentially in chronological order, using the last year of each
129 sequence as the validation set. RMSE was used as the metric for selecting the best performing
130 model. The test set (2020-2021) was used for the final performance evaluation.

131 **Fig 2. Time series split for k-fold cross validation: training and validation set.**

132 The final selected model was a quasi-Poisson regression model that relates the logarithm of the
133 monthly number of deaths to various time-dependent predictors, including annual trends, long-
134 term trends, climatic variables such as average monthly maximum and minimum temperatures,
135 monthly reports of Influenza-like Illness cases, and the month of the year. The models were fitted
136 to the data using the GAM function in R statistical software's *mgcv* library³¹. A separate model
137 was fitted for each geographical area and one at the national level. A second-order autoregressive

138 correlation structure was specified in the model to account for temporal correlation in the data.
139 This allows the modeling of the dependence of errors over time. An examination of the residuals
140 of the models showed a good fit to the data, including all lag autocorrelations. The annual trend
141 was modeled using a cyclic B-spline with predefined smoothing levels.

142 Excess mortality percentage indicators were calculated using the selected GAM. As elaborated
143 in this section, multivariate models and their corresponding prediction intervals were developed
144 for each geographic area or jurisdiction to estimate expected deaths on a monthly basis for the
145 2020-2021 period. The excess percentages for 2020 and 2021 were calculated using the
146 thresholds generated by this model, involving the summation of the monthly estimates for each
147 year. Unlike previous methods, which were based solely on the mean and median of the past five
148 years, this approach enables distinct estimations for different years. Additionally, a prediction
149 interval was constructed from which the confidence intervals for the excess indicator were
150 derived. These intervals were calculated using the model's statistical estimates and the
151 properties of the residual distribution with the `predict()` function from *mgcv* library.

152 The number of excess deaths was calculated on a monthly basis as the difference between the
153 total observed deaths from all causes and the expected deaths based on the model. The
154 confidence interval for the number of excess deaths was determined by using the prediction
155 interval of the fitted model. Annual summary indicators were constructed by summing the
156 monthly values. The p-score, or percentage of excess mortality, was calculated as the ratio of
157 excess deaths to expected deaths per 100 per month, year, and geographic region.

158 Values for the entire country were computed using a stratified approach as described by Nielsen
159 et al.³². Unlike the summarized approach, this approach assumes statistical independence
160 among geographic regions and has the advantage of mitigating discrepancies between the
161 national and regional levels.

162 During the development of our study, an interactive visualization was created using the R
163 programming language, utilizing the Shiny package³³ for the user interface and the Highcharter
164 package³⁴ for graphical representations..

165 The codes used to fit the models are publicly available and are accessible in the GitHub repository
166 (<https://github.com/agsantoro/excesoMortalidad>). The results of this study can be visualized at
167 <https://iecs.shinyapps.io/excesomortalidad>.

168 Results

169 Figs 3, 4, and 5 present a comprehensive graphical representation of the data utilized as
170 covariates in our models, described by province/region. Figure 3 displays the temperature
171 variables. Figure 4 depicts the number of reported cases of Influenza-Like Illness , providing
172 insights into the epidemiological trends across different provinces. Figure 5 charts the mortality
173 data from all causes. These figures collectively facilitate a nuanced understanding of the interplay
174 between environmental factors, disease incidence, and mortality outcomes.

175

176 **Fig 3. Monthly Average of Maximum (orange) and Minimum (cyan) Temperatures by**
177 **Geographic Region.** Period 2015-2021.

178 **Fig 4. Monthly Reported Cases of Influenza-like Illness (ILI).** Period 2015-2021.

179 **Fig 6. Monthly All-causes Deaths by Geographic Region.** Period 2015-2021.

180

181 Based on the method employed for the entire period, 133,612 excess deaths were identified
182 in Argentina, while 137,736 deaths are reported due to COVID-19 for the full period (2020-
183 2021). This discrepancy yields an undercount ratio of 0.97. The undercount ratio highlights

184 the percentage by which reported disease-specific deaths deviate from excess deaths
185 estimated from all-cause mortality data, which in this instance suggests a 3% underreporting
186 of COVID-19 deaths. Upon annualized assessment for the year 2021, 91,125 excess deaths
187 are described alongside 84,190 COVID-19 deaths, resulting in a higher undercount ratio of
188 1.08.

189 **Waves identified**

190 When observing by geographical area, it is noteworthy that in the province of Buenos Aires and
191 the City of Buenos Aires (CABA), three peaks of deaths above expected levels were identified, with
192 elevated mortality levels between each one. These events occurred in July, August, and
193 September 2020; January 2021; and May 2021. Given that the province of Buenos Aires is the
194 largest and most populated jurisdiction in the country, the same pattern of three peaks of excess
195 deaths is found when analyzing the total for Argentina. However, in the jurisdictions of Córdoba,
196 Entre Ríos, Santa Fe, Corrientes, Chaco, Tucumán, Mendoza, and the NOA 1, Resto Cuyo, and
197 Patagonia Norte regions, two peaks were identified, one in 2020 and another in 2021 (months
198 from May to June). In these geographic areas, the level of mortality did not return to the expected
199 value during any period of the study (figure 6).

200 **First Half of 2020**

201 During the first half of 2020, four geographical areas were identified with mortality levels below
202 expected levels (Santa Fe, Córdoba, Tucumán, and Patagonia Norte, see Table 1). The rest of the
203 areas studied did not show significant excess mortality, as the percentage excess presented a
204 confidence interval that included zero.

205 **Table 1.**

Region	Year 2020						Year 2021
	Semestre 1		Semestre 2		Year 2021		
	Excess Deaths (%)	COVID Deaths (%)	Excess Deaths (%)	COVID Deaths (%)	Excess Deaths (%)	COVID Deaths (%)	
Total Country	-3.4 (-8.6 - 2.5)	1.5	27.8 (20.2 - 36.5)	23.3	26.8 (17.8 - 37.3)	19.5	
Buenos Aires	-3.5 (-7.5 - 0.9)	1.8	26.2 (21.2 - 31.6)	25.5	28.4 (22.9 - 34.5)	19.8	
Chaco	-5.1 (-10.9 - 1.5)	3.4	19.6 (12.1 - 28.3)	14.7	32.2 (23.1 - 42.7)	21.6	
Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires	5.8 (-2.1 - 14.9)	5.3	38.3 (26.3 - 52.8)	26.4	21.6 (8.2 - 38.8)	17.4	
Corrientes	-4.6 (-11.9 - 4.1)	0.0	6.1 (-4.1 - 18.8)	9.3	20.4 (6.3 - 38.9)	18.0	
Córdoba	-6.9 (-12.1 - -1)	0.9	18.9 (11.1 - 27.7)	21.8	15.7 (6.4 - 26.7)	15.8	
Entre Ríos	-4.6 (-11.2 - 3)	0.1	12.2 (1.6 - 25.2)	12.1	25.4 (10.3 - 45.3)	17.1	
Formosa	-0.8 (-9.4 - 9.6)	0.1	-9.3 (-19.1 - 3.3)	0.5	26 (8.9 - 49.6)	24.5	
Mendoza	-3.6 (-8.2 - 1.5)	0.1	41 (34.2 - 48.5)	22.6	26.1 (19.7 - 33.2)	20.7	
Misiones	1.9 (-7 - 12.6)	0.1	-1.9 (-14.1 - 14.2)	1.6	30.4 (9.8 - 60.6)	19.2	
NOA 1	-0.7 (-7 - 6.4)	0.2	73.5 (59.6 - 90.1)	30.4	30.9 (17.1 - 48.4)	15.1	
NOA 2	3.9 (-3.9 - 13.1)	0.0	16.4 (5.4 - 29.9)	9.6	46.9 (28.9 - 70.8)	24.5	
Patagonia Norte	-7.1 (-11.8 - -1.9)	1.3	34.2 (24.4 - 45.5)	30.3	29.8 (17.9 - 44.3)	27.1	
Patagonia Sur	-5.5 (-10.9 - 0.5)	0.3	44.1 (35.4 - 54)	32.6	32.9 (24.6 - 42.5)	25.0	
Resto Cuyo	-0.7 (-6 - 5.3)	0.4	22.4 (15.6 - 29.9)	18.1	33.1 (25.6 - 41.6)	20.2	
Santa Fe	-10.4 (-16 - -3.9)	0.1	30.9 (22.7 - 40.2)	21.6	25.1 (16 - 35.6)	17.7	
Tucumán	-4.3 (-7.9 - -0.4)	0.6	40.2 (35.1 - 45.7)	25.1	26.6 (21.8 - 31.9)	21.7	

207 Second Half of 2020

208 During the second half of 2020, following the multivariate modeling methodology, three
209 geographical areas were identified with no significant excess mortality (Misiones, Corrientes, and
210 Formosa). The rest of the areas studied showed significant excess mortality, with the three most
211 affected being Noa 1 (73.5% CI 59.6 - 90.1), Patagonia Sur (44.1% CI 35.4 - 54), and Mendoza
212 (41% CI 34.2 - 48.5). The regions with the lowest levels of excess for the second half of 2020 were
213 Entre Rios (12.2% CI 1.6 - 25.2), NOA 2 (16.4% CI 5.4 - 29.9), and Córdoba (18.9% CI 11.1 - 27.7).

214 In comparing the indicator of the percentage of COVID-19 related deaths to the percentage of
215 excess mortality, it was observed that in all the studied regions exhibiting significant excess, the
216 excess mortality surpassed the percentage of deaths attributed to COVID-19. However, this trend
217 was not observed in the provinces of Córdoba and Corrientes (fig 6)

218 **Fig 6. COVID Deaths and Excess Deaths per Month by Geographic Region.** Period 2020-2021.

219

220 Year 2021

221 The year 2021 showed significant levels of excess mortality in all studied geographical areas. The
222 highest levels of the p-score indicator were observed in the NOA 2 area, which reached values of
223 46.9% (CI 28.9 - 70.8), Resto de Cuyo (33.1% CI 25.6 - 41.6), Patagonia Sur (32.9%, CI 24.6 - 42.5),
224 and Chaco (32.2, CI 23.1 - 42.7). Fig 6 illustrates the magnitude of the excess in these
225 geographical areas. It can also be observed that, unlike 2020, excess mortality in these areas was
226 distributed between January and September, in contrast to 2020, where it was mainly
227 concentrated between August and December. The regions of Córdoba (15.7% (CI 6.4 - 26.7),
228 Corrientes (20.4% (CI 6.3 - 38.9), and CABA (21.6%; CI 8.2 - 38.8) showed lower levels of excess

229 mortality. In 2021, all geographical regions displayed higher mortality rates than those presented
230 by COVID-19 deaths.

231 The interactive visualization (<https://iecs.shinyapps.io/excesomortalidad>) displaying the results
232 was developed to enable users from various levels and jurisdictions to conduct their own
233 analyses, select indicators, and easily obtain results. It allows for comparisons between
234 regions and the disaggregation of indicators at different levels. Although the models underlying
235 the visualization are sophisticated, the platform facilitates straightforward interpretation and
236 can be customized to meet the needs of specific users.

237 Limitations

238 It is important to note that the excess mortality measures employed in this study (both the
239 quantity and percentage of excess deaths) do not account for the differences in the
240 demographic structures of the compared populations. While there are precedents for studies
241 that have used age-adjusted indicators to estimate excess mortality, most of the studies did
242 not incorporate this adjustment. In future approaches, it is crucial to evaluate whether to
243 prioritize demographic structure as a determinant of the magnitude of excess (older
244 populations tend to exhibit a higher proportion of excess deaths due to the overrepresentation
245 of older age groups) or regarding this structure as a bias, prioritizing interpretations based on
246 the comparative impact of the anomalous phenomenon. Additionally, it is worth noting that the
247 excess mortality measures used in this study are not based on differences between age-
248 adjusted mortality rates and therefore possess inherent interpretability.

249 The lack of mortality data for 2022 at the time this study was conducted is another limitation.
250 In Argentina, the temporal criteria for the statistical recording of deaths are based on the date
251 of registration; therefore, the release of 2022 data will also include deaths that occurred in
252 2021 (primarily towards the end of the year) but were reported to the MoH in 2022. This
253 circumstance is evident in Fig 6, where a noticeable decrease in excess mortality is observed

254 in November and December 2021. It should also be considered that the inclusion of these
255 deaths will elevate the annual figures for excess deaths and excess mortality for 2021,
256 particularly in the final months of the year, as the vast majority of deaths registered in the
257 subsequent year, originate in November and December of the preceding year.

258 We should take into account some idiosyncrasies of the data used. Deaths have been
259 tabulated by their "underlying cause of death"³⁵ which was selected for each death based on
260 rules among the multiple causes of death indicated in the death certificate. However, due to
261 the novelty of the COVID-19 event, the WHO established new rules for its registry in 2020³⁶,
262 prioritizing COVID-19 over other causes, which could constitute a bias of over-representation
263 of mortality due to COVID-19 and, consequently, an under-representation of mortality from
264 other causes. In other words, deaths with COVID-19 rather than deaths by COVID-19.

265 Discussion

266 First, based on the methodology employed in this study for the entire period, we identified
267 133,612 excess deaths in Argentina, while 137,736 COVID-19 deaths were reported for the
268 entire period (2020-2021). This discrepancy yields an undercount ratio of 0.97. However, when
269 examining each year individually, 2021 shows 91,125 excess deaths and 84,190 reported
270 COVID-19 deaths, leading to an undercount ratio of 1.08. Argentina's estimated undercount
271 ratio for the entire period of 2020-2021 aligns closely with those of Chile (0.99) and Panama
272 (1.01) for 2020, and is lower than those of Brazil (1.11), Paraguay (1.15), and Peru (1.07) for
273 the same period⁷.

274 The GBD 2021 provides vital demographic estimates spanning 204 countries, including
275 Argentina, emphasizing pandemic-period changes in mortality and life expectancy,
276 underscoring the need for timely data to grasp COVID-19's impact on population health
277 trends.³

278 Notably, the excess deaths estimated for Argentina in this study are also in line with figures
279 from other sources. The Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME)³⁷ estimates
280 141,488 excess deaths, while The Economist³⁸ reports a figure of 132,470 for the entire period.

281 The challenges associated with analyzing excess mortality in Argentina are significant due to
282 the absence of a digital death registry⁸, which impedes real-time pandemic response and
283 delays the provision of vital statistics. Studies by Rearte et al. (2020)⁸ reveal a 10.6% increase
284 in excess mortality in 2020 compared with the 12.7% obtained in this study, although the
285 methodology may oversimplify outcomes by not accounting for environmental, and long-term
286 trend and annual trends. Regional insights provided by Sarrouf et al. (2020)¹⁰ and Pesci et al.
287 (2021)³⁹ highlight disparate impacts across the country, with notable increases in areas like
288 Patagonia and Buenos Aires province, reflecting healthcare saturation and altered public
289 behaviors. Additionally, a reported decline in non-COVID-19 mortality among the elderly
290 suggests significant behavioral and healthcare engagement changes during the pandemic.

291 Argentina's struggle to manage mortality data is not unique, as a significant digital divide
292 hinders timely public health interventions globally. The EuroMOMO⁴⁰ initiative serves as a
293 model for Argentina to enhance its pandemic response and data analysis capabilities.
294 Comparative analyses by Rossen et al. (2021)¹⁸ highlight universal challenges and the
295 sustained impacts of the pandemic, emphasizing the global scale of the crisis and the common
296 hurdles in pandemic management and response strategies.

297 Global insights from the WHO (2020)² estimate 14.8 million excess deaths worldwide,
298 underscoring the critical need for robust data collection and analysis methodologies. The
299 parallel between global figures and national findings in Argentina highlights the underreporting
300 and challenges in accurately assessing the pandemic's full impact. By aligning Argentina's
301 research approaches with global standards and insights, there is an opportunity to refine public
302 health strategies, enhance real-time monitoring, and ensure a more informed and effective
303 response to current and future public health crises.

304 During the COVID-19 pandemic, a significant substitution of causes of death was noted, where
305 declines in mortality from non-COVID-19 causes were observed, with diabetes being the
306 notable exception⁹. This phenomenon highlights the complex interplay between the pandemic
307 and other health conditions and deserves a specific approach. In particular, the study
308 showcases that during 2020, there was a notable decrease in mortality across various non-
309 COVID-19 categories, illustrating the shift in mortality causes during the pandemic period.
310 However, these changes in the mortality profile must be evaluated taking into account the
311 particularities of each group of causes of death and the historical period (circulation restriction
312 measures, difficulties in accessing health services, etc.).

313 Moreover, the investigation reveals that in 2021, excess deaths estimated by the study
314 exceeded the number of deaths officially recorded as due to COVID-19, suggesting possible
315 underreporting and an increase in deaths from other causes, potentially linked to the
316 pandemic's indirect impacts (REF). This situation aligns with the concept of syndemics,
317 emphasizing the exacerbated mutual impacts of COVID-19 and non-communicable diseases,
318 affecting individuals with chronic conditions. Understanding this dynamic requires a
319 comprehensive approach, integrating the substitution phenomenon observed in 2020, where
320 a reduction in non-COVID deaths, aside from diabetes, coincides with the pandemic's wider
321 implications. This context underscores the need for precise methodologies for estimating all-
322 cause excess mortality and understanding non-COVID mortality behaviors, particularly
323 regarding NCDs, to inform public health decisions and address the intertwined challenges of
324 infectious and chronic diseases.

325 Conclusions

326 To conclude, our examination of excess mortality in Argentina during the COVID-19 pandemic
327 provides significant insights into the extensive impact of the pandemic, beyond just the
328 reported infection and mortality rates. These insights greatly contribute to our understanding

329 of the pandemic's broader effects and emphasize the critical need for detailed public health
330 responses. Highlighting how pandemic preparedness and response strategies can be
331 informed by the lessons learned from the COVID-19 mortality rates, we see a clear directive
332 for strengthening health systems and enhancing response mechanisms to better manage
333 future public health crises. Additionally, it is crucial to extend our research by analyzing excess
334 mortality due to different causes of death. Further analysis will improve our comprehension of
335 the pandemic's complex effects and help in crafting focused health interventions. Future
336 studies should track these developments using thorough methods to support the ongoing and
337 future public health efforts.

338

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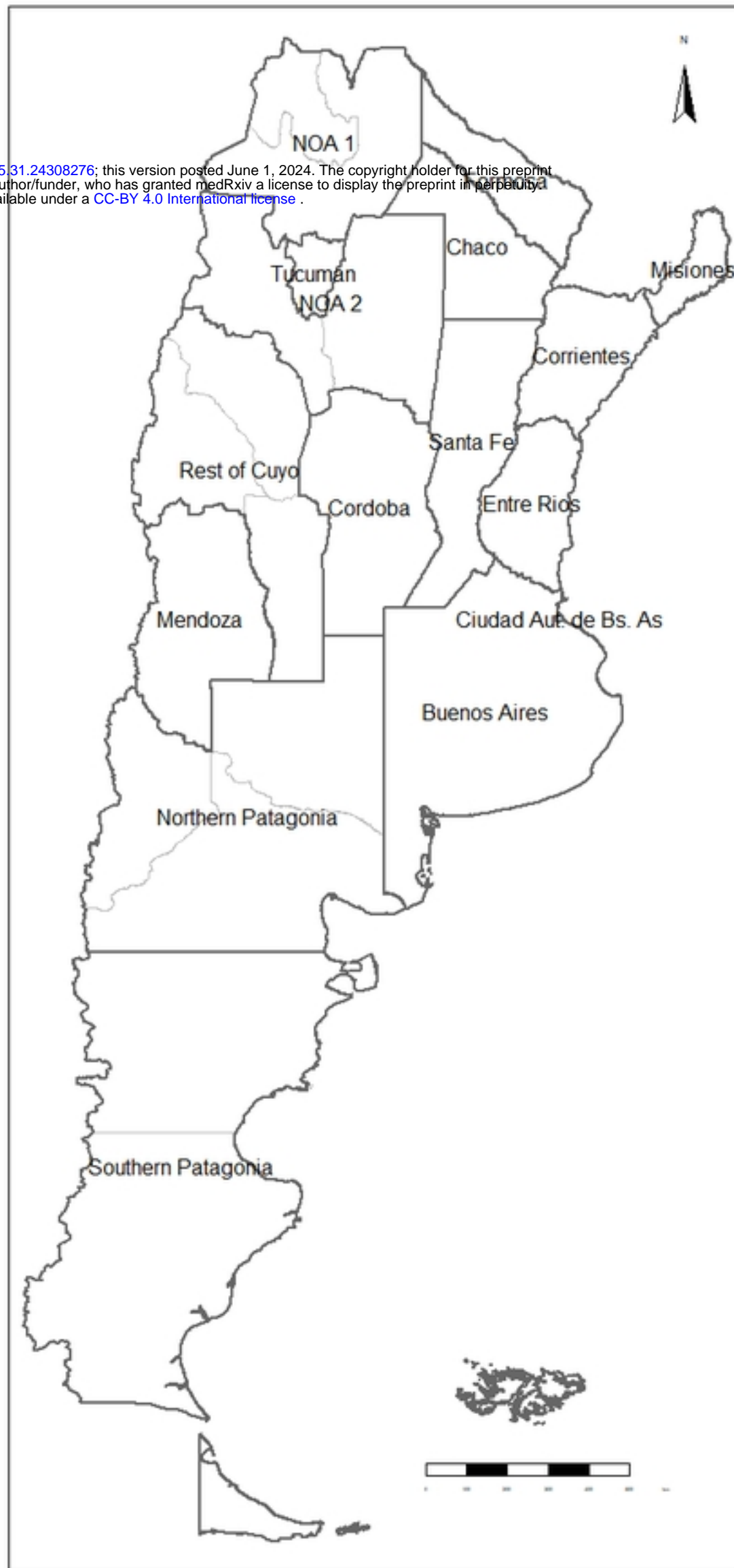


Fig1

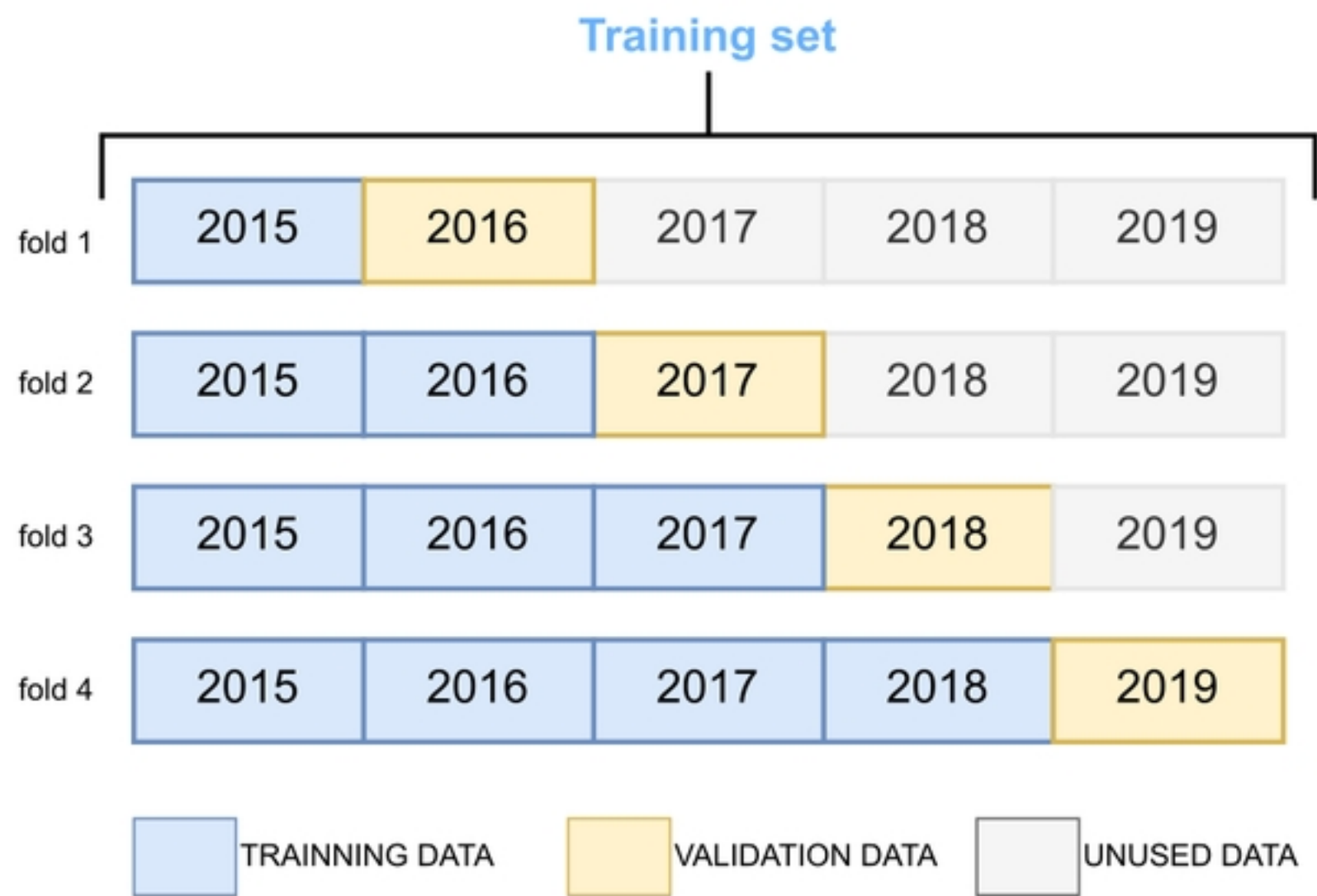


Fig2

Monthly Average of Maximum (orange) and Minimum (cyan) Temperatures by Geographic Region

Period 2015-2021

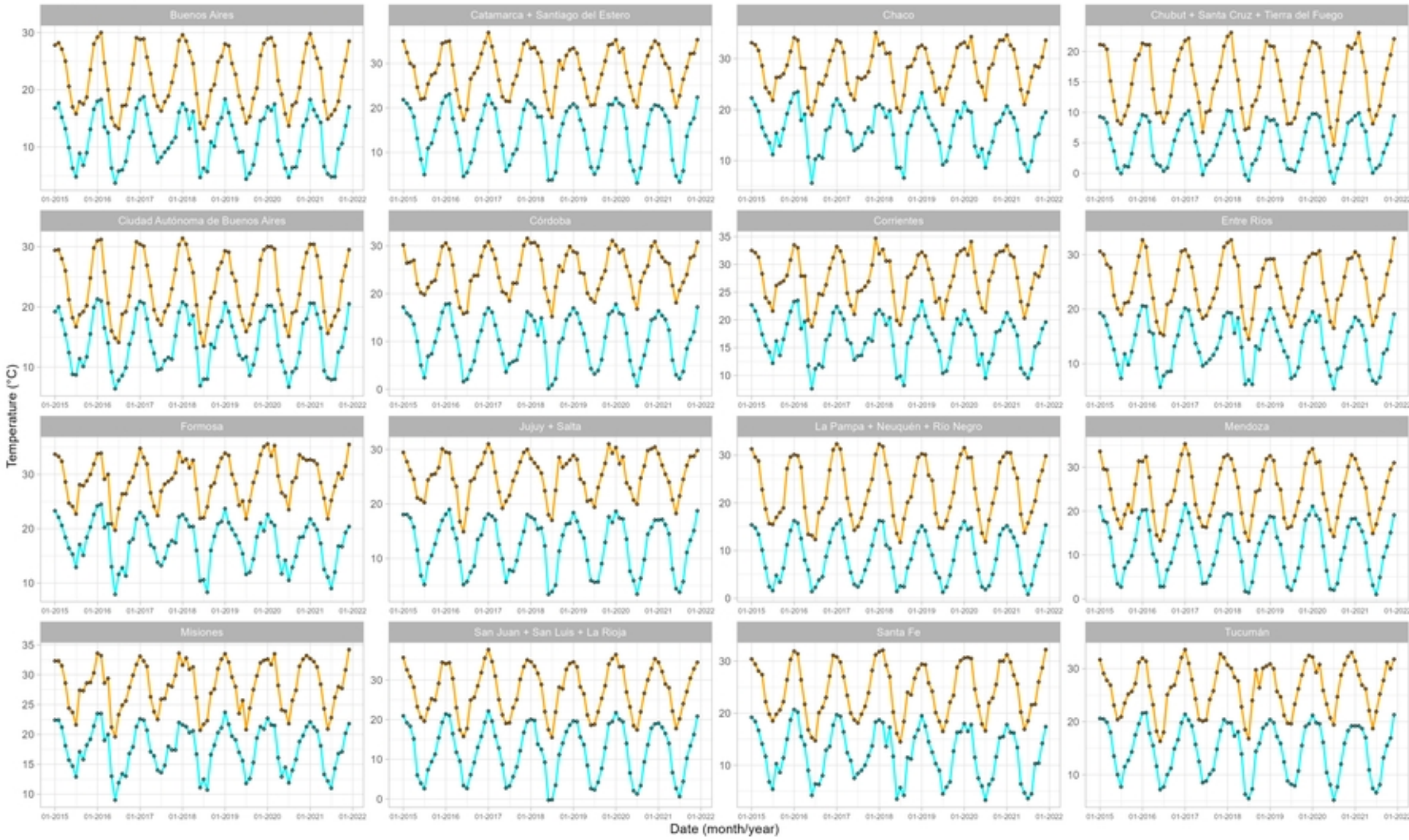


Fig3

Monthly Reported Cases of Influenza-like Illness (ILI)
Period 2015-2021

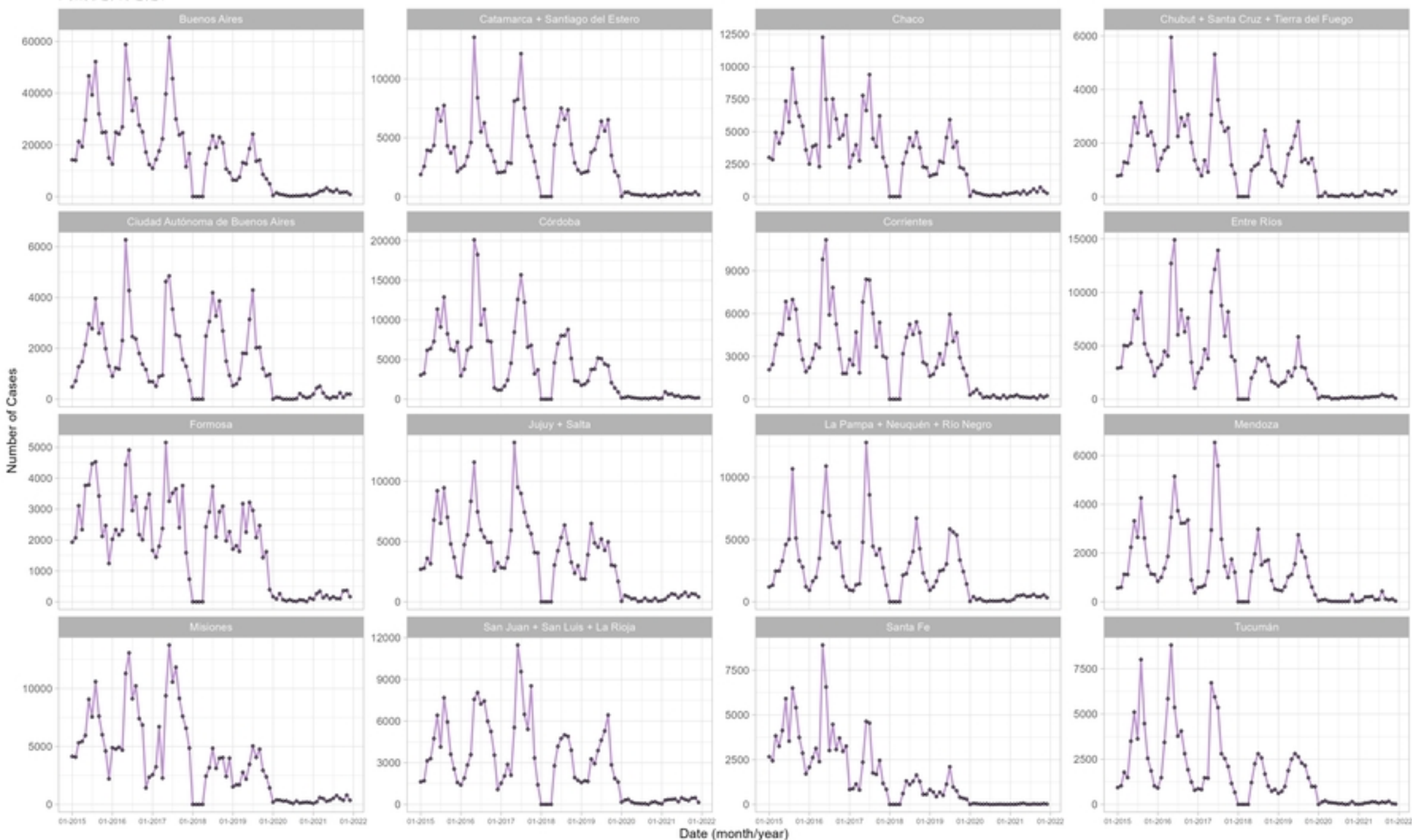


Fig4

Monthly All-causes Deaths by Geographic Region

Period 2015-2021



Fig5

COVID Deaths and Excess Deaths per Month by Geographic Region
 Period 2020-2021

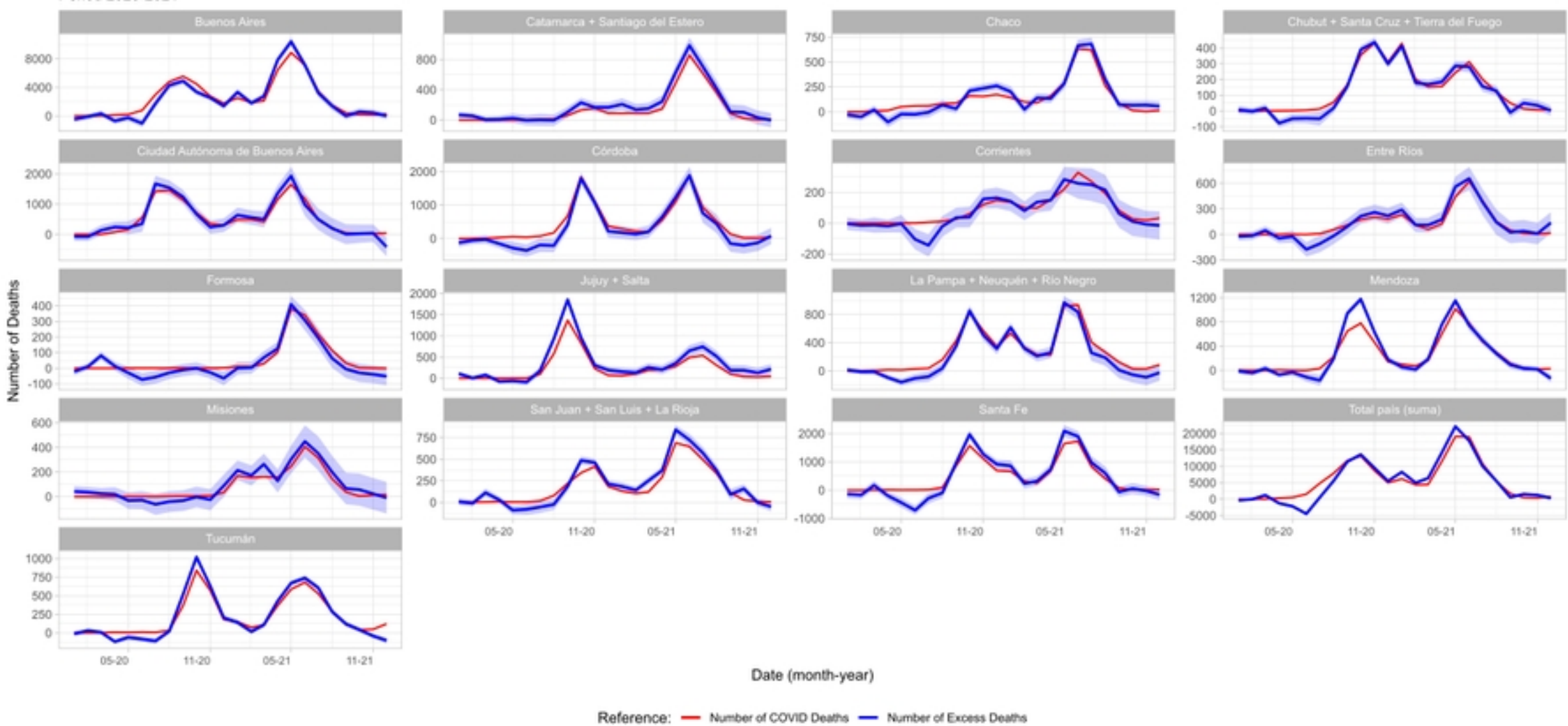


Fig6