



Association between area deprivation index and concerns to COVID-19: A multi-level analysis of individual and area factors

Doo Woong Lee^{a,b,c,1}, Jieun Jang^{c,d,e,1}, Jaeyong Shin^{a,b,c,*}

^a Department of Preventive Medicine, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, 03722, Republic of Korea

^b Department of Public Health, Graduate School, Yonsei University, Seoul, 03722, Republic of Korea

^c Institute of Health Services Research, Yonsei University, Seoul, 03722, Republic of Korea

^d Hinda and Arthur Marcus Institute for Aging Research, Hebrew SeniorLife, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

^e Department of Hospital Administration, Yonsei University Graduate School of Public Health, Seoul, 03722, Republic of Korea

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

COVID-19

Concerns related to COVID-19

Area deprivation

Multi-level analysis

ABSTRACT

Background: The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has been one of the most serious global threats to public health recently. The present study examined whether area deprivation is associated with concerns related to COVID-19 using large nationwide data across South Korea.

Methods: We used nationwide 2020 Korea Community Health Survey and official government database. Of the 225,680 included participants, 123,324 (54.6%) were women, and the mean age was 54.9 [17.8] years old. We classified the Area deprivation index (ADI) into Quartile 1 (Least deprived); Quartile 2; Quartile 3; and Quartile 4 (Most deprived). Our primary outcome was the concerns related to COVID-19 (0–16 scores). Multilevel regression analysis was conducted.

Results: The mean score of concerns related to COVID-19 was 11.3 [3.2] in the total population. 13.5% of the variability in the scores of concerns related to COVID-19 was accounted for by district areas. Area with Q4 of ADI were associated with an increased score of concerns related to COVID-19 (Q1: reference; Q2: $\beta = 0.218$, $SE = 0.119$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.085$; Q3: $\beta = 0.235$, $SE = 0.133$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.094$; Q4: $\beta = 0.252$, $SE = 0.109$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.029$). 19–49 groups in area with Q4 of ADI were associated with an increase in scores of concerns related to COVID-19 than other age groups in area with Q4 of ADI. Area with Q4 of ADI were associated with a score of concern of being criticized if getting infected compared to area with Q1 of ADI.

Conclusion: We found that the highest quartile ADI was associated with greater concerns related to COVID-19. By identifying vulnerable population to concerns related to COVID-19, health systems may consider preventive intervention to mitigate mental health issues.

1. Introduction

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has been one of the most serious global threats to public health recently. As of August 2023, 1 out of 10 people in the world has had COVID-19, and 1 out of 100 people have died due to COVID-19 (“WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard,”). In particular, South Korea is one of the countries most affected by COVID-19, with about 66% of the total population getting COVID-19 as of August 2023. COVID-19 affected people’s mental health as well as their physical health (“Mental Health During the COVID-19 Pandemic,”; Wu et al., 2020). COVID-19 has unprecedentedly suffered humanity while infringing on personal freedoms and provoking

financial loss due to the government’s strict quarantine policies (Cullen, Gulati, & Kelly, 2020; Kumar & Nayar, 2021; O’Connor et al., 2021). Consequently, policies such as lockdown, social distancing, and its economic consequences have affected individuals’ mental health and increased the risk of suicide (Cullen et al., 2020; Kumar & Nayar, 2021; McKibbin & Fernando, 2020; O’Connor et al., 2021).

Individuals might encounter various concerns about COVID-19, including the risk of contracting the virus, COVID-19-related death, the stigma, and the economic impact brought by the pandemic. Concerns about COVID-19 may increase vigilance to protect themselves and those they care about from infection and death, which can cause anxiety, and panic in some people (Wu et al., 2020). COVID-19 may also result in

* Corresponding author. Department of Preventive Medicine, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, 50 Yonsei-ro, Seodaemun-gu, Seoul 03722, Republic of Korea

¹ Co-first authors: Doo Woong Lee and Jieun Jang equally contributed to the research.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2023.101580>

Received 4 April 2023; Received in revised form 11 November 2023; Accepted 6 December 2023

Available online 24 December 2023

2352-8273/© 2023 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

stigma such as discrimination, racism, and judgmental attitudes to those who have been quarantined or who were from COVID-19 affected regions (Ganesan et al., 2021). Furthermore, economic loss, economic hardship and unemployment, and employment transitions triggered by the pandemic may have a strain on mental health with increasing financial difficulties and economic pressure (Lu & Lin, 2021).

Certain groups may be more vulnerable to the psychological impacts of the pandemic than others (Pfefferbaum & North, 2020). A systematic literature review summarized that several mental health outcomes are worse in deprived areas, and other studies have shown that people are more likely to have poor mental health in deprived areas than in other regions during COVID-19 (Hubbard, den Daas, Johnston, & Dixon, 2021; Rehkopf & Buka, 2006). Therefore, it may be necessary to identify mental health vulnerable people considering area factors during COVID-19.

Several studies have examined the association between the concerns of the COVID-19 pandemic and area factors such as area deprivation score (Hubbard et al., 2021) and socio-demographic factors of 31 European countries (Sannigrahi, Pilla, Basu, Basu, & Molter, 2020); however, these studies have utilized datasets of relatively limited scope, often focusing on specific populations or regions. To bridge this knowledge gap, the present study examined whether area deprivation is associated with concerns related to COVID-19 using a large nationwide sample of data across South Korea.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Data source and study population

We used the 2020 Korea Community Health Survey (KCHS) from the Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency, which employed a multi-

stage, stratified, and random sampling method to represent the nationwide Korean population (Kang et al., 2015). The 2020 KCHS was conducted from October 16, 2020 to December 31, 2020. Trained interviewers conducted one-to-one interviews with individuals aged 19 or older across the 255 local districts, which are all administrative districts in South Korea. “Districts” (or “Gu”) in South Korea are key administrative units within cities, akin to boroughs or neighborhoods elsewhere. Their geographic sizes and population densities vary, especially in larger cities where districts are smaller but more populous. Each district autonomously manages local matters such as urban planning, education, and public services. They play a vital role in local policy-making, tailored to the specific needs of their residents. Overall, districts are central to daily life and governance in South Korean cities. Within 255 districts, KCHS yielded about 230,000 representative population. Detailed information on the study design and aims of the KCHS has been previously reported (Kang et al., 2015). In the 2020 KCHS, new questionnaires regarding COVID-19 were added, including types of concerns related to COVID-19. Of the 229,269 participants, we excluded those who 1) did not answer at least one question regarding concerns related to COVID-19 ($n = 482$), and 2) who had any missing value of covariates considered in our study ($n = 3107$) (Fig. 1). We included 225,680 participants for our final study population.

We deployed data of cumulated infection rate of COVID-19 regional from the initial occurrence date (January 20, 2020) to the last survey date of KCHS (December 31, 2020), from open data source of Public Data Portal managed by the Ministry of the Interior and Safety. Thus, our study reflects the COVID-19 experience of the study population in KCHS as possible. We also used 2020 Korean population census data to calculate area deprivation index (ADI) in the context of material and social deprivation (MicroData Integrated Service (MDIS), 2021). All data used in this study are publicly accessible as noted in section of

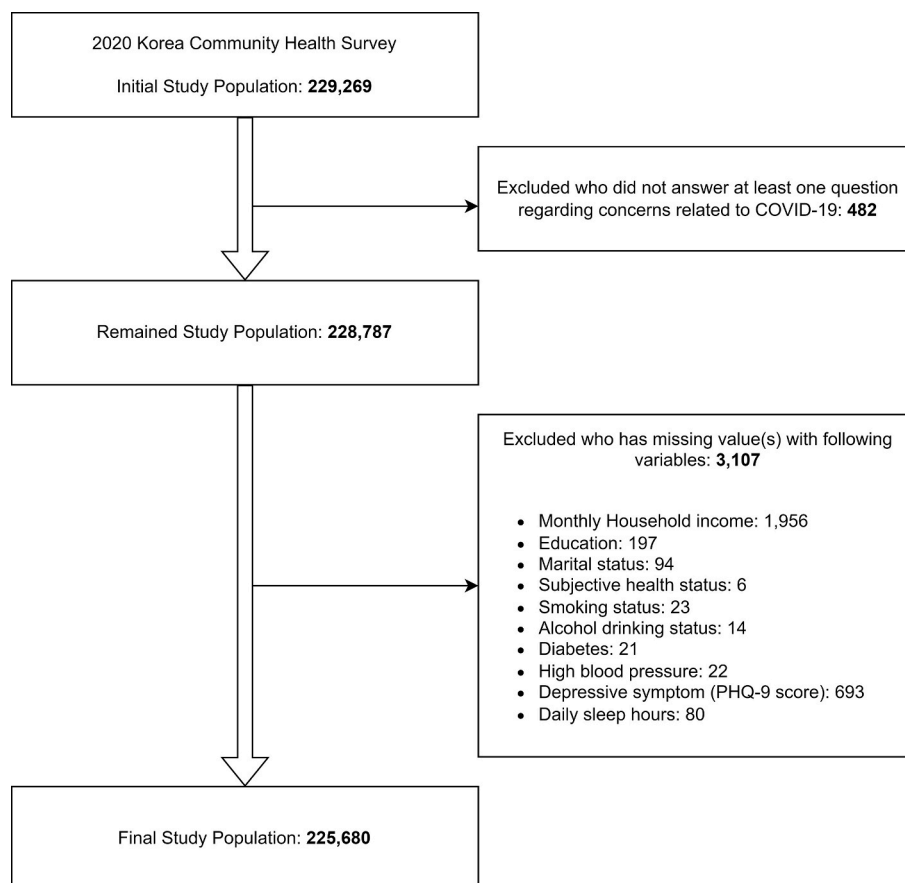


Fig. 1. Flowchart of the study population.

'Availability of Data and Materials'. All personal information in this data was de-identified before its distribution; therefore, the institutional review board of Yonsei University confirmed that this study is eligible for exemption from full institutional review board review.

2.2. Variables

2.2.1. Dependent variable: concerns related COVID-19 score (0–16 score)

With COVID-19 emerging as one of the most impactful and devastating pandemics in recent history, there's an increasing urgency to comprehend its societal repercussions and understand the depth of people's fears regarding the pandemic. Numerous studies have aimed to gauge the perceived risks and concerns associated with COVID-19 (Beaudoin & Hong, 2021; Fujii, Suzuki, & Niimi, 2021; Rayani, Rayani, & Najafi-Sharjabad, 2021). In response to this demand, KCHS formulated five questionnaires probing into respondents' concerns about the unintended consequences spurred by COVID-19. These questionnaires have been frequently employed in both published research and ongoing studies (Hyun, Son, & Jung, 2022; W. Kim, Ju, & Lee, 2022; H. Shin, Kim, & Lee, 2023).

To determine the COVID-19 concerns score, we used four questionnaire items: Type 1) "I am concerned I might become infected with COVID-19" (99.9% response rate; 229,029 out of 225,269 respondents), Type 2) "I am concerned I might die if I become infected" (99.9% response rate; 229,077 out of 229,269 respondents), Type 3) "I am concerned I may face criticism if I get infected" (99.9% response rate; 229,007 out of 229,269 respondents), Type 4) "I am concerned the outbreak could result in economic losses for me or my family" (99.9% response rate; 229,145 out of 229,269 respondents).

Although the item "I am concerned that my family members vulnerable to poor health might get infected" was included in the data, this specific question targeted only participants with family members at higher risk, such as the elderly, infants, or those with underlying health conditions. To ensure consistency in our evaluation of the association between ADI and the COVID-19 concerns score across the entire study population, we excluded this particular item. Each of the retained items was assigned a score of 0 (least concerned) or 4 (most concerned). The overall COVID-19 concerns score was the cumulative total of these individual scores, ranging between 0 and 16, with higher scores representing greater levels of concern related to COVID-19.

2.2.2. Independent variable: area deprivation index (ADI)

The ADI serves as a composite measure, signifying the extent of material and social deprivation within a geographical region. It is formulated based on several standardized and weighted variables (Jarman, Townsend, & Carstairs, 1991). Previous research has proven that the ADI can be useful for uncovering geographically-based differences in a community's health (V, 1995).

The South Korean version of the ADI, developed by the Korea Institute for Health and Social Affairs (D. Kim et al., 2013). Considering South Korea's unique socio-geographical dynamics, this ADI has been crafted drawing inspiration from earlier established indices like the Townsend and Carstairs indexes (H.-S. Shin, Lee, & Chu, 2009). It offers a continuous metric, quantifying regional socioeconomic disparities by incorporating eleven distinct determinants. This version of the ADI has gained traction in past studies for its efficacy in delineating variations in local environments (Hwang et al., 2022; D. W. Lee et al., 2022; S. E. Lee, Yeon, Kim, & Yoon, 2016; Youn, Lee, & Park, 2020).

The ADI used in our study was calculated based on the 2020 Korean population census data driven from 10% of the sample survey, along with district-level data (MicroData Integrated Service (MDIS), 2021). Eleven variables were included for the overall degree of area deprivation across 13 regional states and four metropolitan cities, which are the entire geographical area of South Korea. These variables are 1) proportion of people aged 25–64 with no high school diploma, 2) proportion of households not owning their own house, 3) proportion of

households living in a monthly/yearly rental house, 4) proportion of households with overcrowded living conditions (> one person/room), 5) proportion of the population aged 65 or over, 6) proportion of households with a woman as head of the household, 7) proportion of separated, divorced, or widowed individuals aged ≥ 15 years, 8) proportion of households living below the minimum housing standard (house without separate kitchen, bathroom, hot-water supply system, and heating apparatus), 9) proportion of households without a motor vehicle, 10) proportion of people living alone, and 11) proportion of the population with occupational lower social class. These occupations include a) agriculture, forestry, and fishing workers; b) device, operation, and assembly workers; and c) simple labour workers. Each variable was standardized using a Z-score, combined to calculate the district-specific deprivation score, and linked with a participant's residential area code. We manually classified the ADI into quartile groups: Quartile 1 (least deprived, 1–25%, z-score < -3.67); Quartile 2 (26–50%, -3.67 < z-score \leq -0.15); Quartile 3 (51–75%, -0.15 < z-score \leq 3.61); Quartile 4 (most deprived, 76–100%, 3.61 < z-score).

2.2.3. Covariates

Incorporating with the study objective of understanding how concerns of COVID-19 were related with socioeconomic and health aspect, we included following individual- and area-level covariates. Included individual-level covariates were sex, age groups (19–29, 30–39, 40–49, 50–59, 60–69, or ≥ 70), monthly household income (<₩2,000,000, ₩2,000,000–2,999,999, ₩3,000,000–3,999,999, ₩4,000,000–4,999,999, or \geq ₩ 5,000,000; ₩1000 almost equal \$0.921), education (elementary school graduated or below, middle school graduated, high school graduated, or college graduated or above), marital status (single, married living together, or separated, divorced, or bereaved), subject health status (good, fair, or bad), smoking status (every day, occasionally, past, or never), alcohol drinking status (more than 4 times/a week, 2–3 times/a week, 2–4 times/a month, once or less than once/a month, or never), diabetes (no, or yes), high blood pressure (no, or yes), depressive symptom (Patient Health Questionnaire 9 items [PHQ-9] score; ranges from 0 to 27), and daily sleep hours. Included area-level covariates were COVID-19 infection rate by region and region type (capital city, metropolitan areas, or others).

2.3. Statistical analysis

We used a multilevel regression model to estimate the regression coefficient, with individual-level factors nested within 255 district areas in South Korea (area-level). Given that the dependent variable was continuous, ranging from 0 to 16, and had a fairly normal distribution (Supplementary Table 1), we selected the model with the identity link.

To ensure the correct specification of our multilevel model, we first conducted preliminary analyses to assess the functional relationship between the ADI (z-score) for 255 district areas and the mean concern scores related to COVID-19. We confirmed linearity through both visual and analytical means, using scatter plots with linear regression line (Supplementary Fig. 2).

Secondly, we conducted a univariate exploratory spatial data analysis (ESDA) to identify any spatial autocorrelation in concerns related to COVID-19 in South Korea, using both the global Moran's I and Geary's C statistic (Supplementary Fig. 3). Testing residuals for spatial autocorrelation means checking if a residual at one location correlates with residuals at nearby locations more than would be expected randomly. In essence, it checks if observations that are spatially close have similar values, indicating similar values are clustered together within the neighbouring areas.

Multilevel modelling begins with a null model analysis. This null model differentiates variances of the dependent variable, like within-area and between-area variances (Snijders & Bosker, 2011). We calculated the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) to test between-area variability. The ICC is the ratio between the between-area variance

and the sum of both within-area and between-area variances. In other words, the ICC reports on the amount of variation unexplained by any predictors in the model that can be attributed to the grouping variable, as compared to the overall unexplained variance (within and between variance). A high ICC indicates that between-area variance is not negligible, and thus a multilevel model should be employed to explain the inter-area dynamics. ICC equation is expressed as follows:

$$ICC = \frac{\sigma_{u_0}^2}{\sigma_{u_0}^2 + \sigma_e^2}$$

where $\sigma_{u_0}^2$ is the variance of the level-2 (area-level) residuals and σ_e^2 is the variance of the level-1 (individual-level) residuals.

Following the basic association analysis (null model), we incorporated area-level deprivation (Model 1). In Model 2, we introduced individual-level characteristics. Finally, in Model 3, we integrated both individual- and area-level characteristics for the main analyses. This analysis used a two-level random intercept where individuals are nested within their residential areas. The main analyses used a two-level random intercept with the individuals (i), nested within their residential areas (j). Its equation is expressed as follows:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ij} + (u_{0j} + e_{0ij})$$

$$[u_{0j}] \sim N(0, \sigma_{u_0}^2)$$

$$[e_{0ij}] \sim N(0, \sigma_{e_0}^2)$$

Here, Y_{ij} represents the value of the dependent variable of the i th individual in area j , while adjusting for a vector, X_{ij} of independent variables of individuals. Random effects inside the bracket are residual differentials specific for individuals (u_{0j}) and area (e_{0ij})-level.

We also performed stratified analysis with independent variables by sex, age, and monthly household income. Further we tested which type of concerns related COVID-19 had stronger association with ADI.

Furthermore, as the multiple comparison in the analyses may increase the likelihood of type I errors (false positive), we calculated different types of adjusted p-value such as Bonferroni adjusted p-value, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value, and false discovery rate (FDR) adjusted p-value (Supplementary Table 1). As FDR adjusted p-value is a balance between being too conservative (and potentially missing true effects) and allowing a controlled rate of false positives, we take it as a main p-value in the study (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).

All the statistical tests were two-tailed and performed using Stata (15.1, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX), and SAS version 9.4 software (Cary, North Carolina, USA).

3. Results

COVID-19 infection rate per 1000 people varied by area from 0.06 to 9.50 (Fig. 2). ADI ranges from -13.1 to 16.7. The Capital region (Seoul and Gyeonggi) presented a higher COVID-19 infection rate per 1000 people along with a lower ADI compared to other areas.

The mean (standard deviation) score of concerns related to COVID-19 was 11.3 (3.2) in the total population (Table 1). Of the 225,680 included participants, 123,324 (54.6%) were women, and mean age was 54.4 [17.8]. Those with a higher score of concerns related to COVID-19 were more likely to be women (men: 10.81 [3.30]; women: 11.73 [3.11]), be aged 70 years or over (19–29 to ≥ 70 : 10.20 [3.18] to 11.97 [3.36]; p -value < 0.001), and received less than ₩ 2,000,000 monthly household income (<₩ 2,000,000 to \geq ₩ 5,000,000: 11.78 [3.33] to 10.80 [3.12]; p -value < 0.001). Area in quartile 4 of ADI showed higher scores of concerns related to COVID-19 compared to area in quartile 1 of ADI (Q1: 10.96 [3.17]; Q2: 11.31 [3.15]; Q3: 11.46 [3.24]; Q4: 11.70 [3.28]; p -value < 0.001). Other area showed higher scores of concerns related to COVID-19 compared to capital city regions (capital city: 10.99 [3.15]; metropolitan areas: 11.07 [3.13]; others: 11.58 [3.29]; p -value < 0.001).

Further, the result of the global univariate Moran’s I and Geary’s c tests for autocorrelation in score of concerns related to COVID-19 showed a significant value of positive spatial autocorrelation, indicating similar values are clustered together within the neighbouring areas (Moran’s I: 0.0223; Geary’s c: 0.9446, both p-values: <0.0001) (Supplementary Fig. 3).

In the null model, the random effect covariance was 0.510 (standard error [SE]: 0.047; p -value < 0.001), and ICC value was 0.135. In ADI adjusted model, the random effect covariance was 0.4178 (standard error [SE]: 0.038; p -value < 0.001), and ICC value was 0.113 (Table 2). Each indicates that 13.5% and 11.3% of the variability in the scores of concerns related to COVID-19 was accounted for by district areas. Accordingly, we can infer that 2.3% variability in concerns about COVID-19 was attributed to ADI. Model 3 considered both individual- and area-level characteristics presents the best fitting with the lowest -2 Log-likelihood and Akaike Information Criterion. In model 1, area with the highest quartile ADI scores was associated with the higher scores of concerns related to COVID-19 referenced with the least deprived area (Q1: reference; Q2: $\beta = 0.317$, $SE = 0.122$, $FDR adj.p-value = 0.013$; Q3: $\beta = 0.395$, $SE = 0.136$, $FDR adj.p-value = 0.009$; Q4: $\beta = 0.539$, $SE = 0.111$, $FDR adj.p-value < 0.001$). In model 3, regarding individual-level characteristics, women were significantly associated with an increased score of concerns related to COVID-19 (women: $\beta = 0.705$, $SE = 0.019$, $FDR adj.p-value < 0.001$). Regarding area-level characteristics, area of COVID-19 infection rate was not related to an increased score of concerns related to COVID-19 ($\beta = -0.032$, $SE = 0.052$; $FDR adj.p-value =$

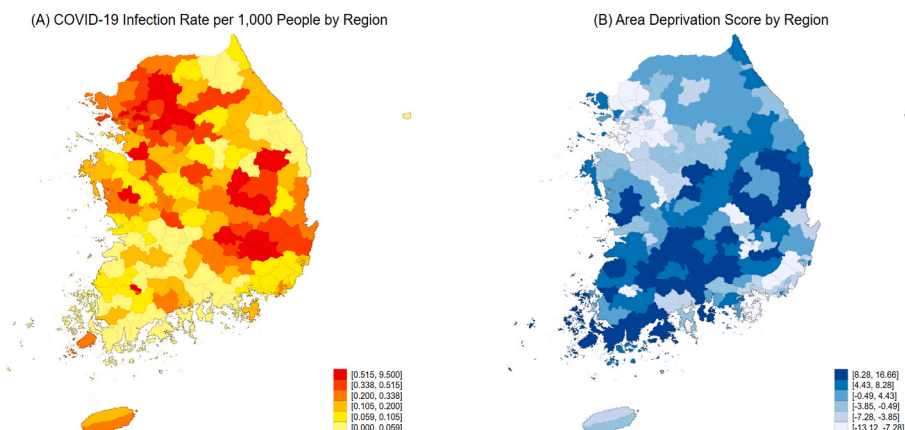


Fig. 2. COVID-19 infection rate (A) and area deprivation score (B) for 255 administrative districts that classified in 2020 Korea Community Health Survey.

Table 1
General characteristics of study population.

| Characteristics | Total | % | Concerns related to COVID-19 (0–16 score) | | |
|---|---------|-------|---|------|---------|
| | | | Mean | SD | p-value |
| Individual level | | | | | |
| Sex | 225,680 | 100.0 | 11.3 | 3.2 | |
| Men | 102,356 | 45.4 | 10.81 | 3.30 | <0.0001 |
| Women | 123,324 | 54.6 | 11.73 | 3.11 | |
| Age (mean: 54.5, SD: 17.8) | | | | | |
| 19–29 | 25,821 | 11.4 | 10.20 | 3.18 | <0.0001 |
| 30–39 | 25,012 | 11.1 | 10.87 | 3.09 | |
| 40–49 | 35,440 | 15.7 | 10.89 | 3.04 | |
| 50–59 | 43,912 | 19.5 | 11.29 | 3.12 | |
| 60–69 | 44,335 | 19.6 | 11.83 | 3.16 | |
| ≥70 | 51,160 | 22.7 | 11.97 | 3.36 | |
| Monthly Household income | | | | | |
| < ₩ 2,000,000 | 72,049 | 31.9 | 11.78 | 3.33 | <0.0001 |
| ₩ 2,000,000–2,999,999 | 35,203 | 15.6 | 11.46 | 3.19 | |
| ₩ 3,000,000–3,999,999 | 31,176 | 13.8 | 11.26 | 3.17 | |
| ₩ 4,000,000–4,999,999 | 24,421 | 10.8 | 11.11 | 3.11 | |
| ≥ ₩ 5,000,000 | 62,831 | 27.8 | 10.80 | 3.12 | |
| Education | | | | | |
| Primary school grad., or below | 49,639 | 22.0 | 12.22 | 3.25 | <0.0001 |
| Middle school grad. | 25,257 | 11.2 | 12.01 | 3.13 | |
| High school grad. | 79,718 | 35.3 | 11.13 | 3.21 | |
| College, or above | 71,066 | 31.5 | 10.65 | 3.08 | |
| Marital status | | | | | |
| Single | 39,732 | 17.6 | 10.23 | 3.19 | <0.0001 |
| Married, live together | 141,473 | 62.7 | 11.50 | 3.15 | |
| Separated, divorced, bereaved | 44,475 | 19.7 | 11.71 | 3.32 | |
| Subjective health status | | | | | |
| Good | 108,438 | 48.0 | 10.98 | 3.28 | <0.0001 |
| Fair | 87,022 | 38.6 | 11.44 | 3.08 | |
| Bad | 30,220 | 13.4 | 12.17 | 3.27 | |
| Smoking status | | | | | |
| Smoke every day | 32,971 | 14.6 | 10.72 | 3.30 | <0.0001 |
| Smoke occasionally | 3855 | 1.7 | 10.77 | 3.26 | |
| Past smoker | 41,275 | 18.3 | 11.08 | 3.26 | |
| Never smoked | 147,579 | 65.4 | 11.53 | 3.18 | |
| Alcohol drinking status | | | | | |
| More than 4 times/a week | 12,651 | 5.6 | 10.89 | 3.42 | <0.0001 |
| 2–3 times/a week | 27,794 | 12.3 | 10.92 | 3.13 | |
| 2–4 times/a month | 40,208 | 17.8 | 10.95 | 3.09 | |
| Once or less than once/a month | 90,257 | 40.0 | 11.36 | 3.20 | |
| Never drank | 54,770 | 24.3 | 11.81 | 3.31 | |
| Diabetes | | | | | |
| No | 199,319 | 88.3 | 11.24 | 3.22 | <0.0001 |
| Yes | 26,361 | 11.7 | 11.86 | 3.29 | |
| High blood pressure | | | | | |
| No | 162,783 | 72.1 | 11.11 | 3.21 | <0.0001 |
| Yes | 62,897 | 27.9 | 11.84 | 3.23 | |
| Depressive symptom (PHQ-9 score), mean ± SD | | | | | |
| Daily sleep hours, mean ± SD | 6.68 | | ±1.27 | | |
| Area level | | | | | |
| COVID-19 infection rate per 1000 by region ^a , mean ± SD | 0.39 | | ±0.79 | | |
| Area deprivation score | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (least): z-score < -3.67 | 89,312 | 39.6 | 10.96 | 3.17 | <0.0001 |
| Quartile 2: 3.67 ≤ z-score < -0.15 | 36,761 | 16.3 | 11.31 | 3.15 | |
| Quartile 3: 0.15 ≤ z-score < 3.61 | 26,563 | 11.8 | 11.46 | 3.24 | |
| Quartile 4: (most): 3.61 ≤ z-score | 73,044 | 32.4 | 11.70 | 3.28 | |
| Region | | | | | |
| Capital city | 63,132 | 28.0 | 10.99 | 3.15 | <0.0001 |
| Metropolitan areas | 44,141 | 19.6 | 11.07 | 3.13 | |
| Others | 118,407 | 52.5 | 11.58 | 3.29 | |

PHQ-9, Patient Health Questionnaire 9 items, SD, standard deviation.

^a 255 administrative districts that classified in 2020 Korea Community Health Survey.

0.584). Area with Q4 of ADI were associated with an increased score of concerns related to COVID-19 (Q1: reference; Q2: $\beta = 0.218$, $SE = 0.119$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.085$; Q3: $\beta = 0.235$, $SE = 0.133$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.094$; Q4: $\beta = 0.252$, $SE = 0.109$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.029$).

In subgroup analyses, it was observed that men exhibited slightly higher concerns related to COVID-19, when stratified by ADI (Table 3). Concerning age groups, individuals aged 19–49 in areas with Q4 of ADI demonstrated a higher increase in concern scores related to COVID-19 compared to other age groups in the same ADI quartile.

Subgroup analysis for each detailed concern related to COVID-19 items showed that area with Q4 of ADI were associated with a score of concern of being criticized if getting infected compared to area with Q1 of ADI (Q1: reference; Q2: $\beta = 0.069$, $SE = 0.032$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.042$; Q3: $\beta = 0.066$, $SE = 0.036$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.084$; Q4: $\beta = 0.091$, $SE = 0.029$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.003$) (Table 4). Moreover, concerns of economic burdens due to infection were significantly associated with ADI, albeit its statistical significance is marginal in Q3 and Q4 (Q1: reference; Q2: $\beta = 0.088$, $SE = 0.033$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.012$; Q3: $\beta = 0.074$, $SE = 0.037$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.064$; Q4: $\beta = 0.063$, $SE = 0.030$, $FDR\ adj.p\text{-value} = 0.057$). The result was in line with the respective analysis where the included population did not answer a corresponding question (Supplementary Table 2).

4. Discussion

We found that the highest quartile ADI was associated with greater concerns related to COVID-19. While explaining 13.5% of the concerns on COVID-19 at area-level, which is somewhat noticeable where the majority of previous research populated in South Korea indicated little explanation of regional variation to health-related outcomes (around 3%). (Kong & Cho, 2021; J. H. Lee & Heo, 2014; M, 2012; Park & Kim, 2014). Furthermore, we found that 2.3% variability in concerns about COVID-19 was attributed to ADI. Additionally, when stratified by sex, men exhibited a greater increase in COVID-19-related concern scores than women within the same ADI quartiles. In the highest ADI quartile, individuals aged 19–49 showed a more significant increase in these concern scores compared to other age groups within the same quartile. When stratified by type of concerns, “Concerns being criticized if getting infected” and “Concerns of economic burdens due to the infection” had significantly associated with ADI.

Firstly, it is noteworthy that the variability in concerns about COVID-19 is largely attributed to regional factors. Public health strategies and policies targeting larger clustered groups, like the 255 government district areas, could be beneficial. Understandably, living in a more deprived area was associated with greater concerns related to COVID-19 since the more deprived areas had a higher rate of poorer mental health, and thus higher vulnerability to concerns related to COVID-19. Environmental factors of an individual’s dwelling area such as demographic profile, economic status, educational status, housing status and employment rate are critical factors to suicide, anxiety, and depression since they are indirectly associated with each other (O’Farrell, Corcoran, & Perry, 2016; Rehkopf & Buka, 2006; Walters et al., 2004). Indeed, areas with greater deprivation in South Korea showed higher rates of suicide and mental illness such as depression and anxiety, moderated by a higher proportion of the elderly and poorer economic status (Cheong et al., 2012; C. Kim, Chang, E. J., & Kim, C. Y., 2021). Furthermore, those who already had mental illness showed a greater risk of developing its severity (Pfefferbaum & North, 2020).

Moreover, deprived areas would be more likely to have a lower educational and socioeconomic level; thus, they may have less opportunity to acquire appropriate information about COVID-19 at the proper time. Therefore, people living in deprived areas have fewer COVID-19 preventive behaviours and greater fear of COVID-19. It is important to

Table 2
Association of individual and area characteristics to individuals' concerns related to COVID-19.

| Characteristics | Concerns related to COVID-19 (0–16 score) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----|--------------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------|-----------------|----------------|-----------|-----------------|--------|
| | Null Model | | | Model 1 (Area) | | | Model 2 (Individual) | | | Model 3 (Both) | | | |
| | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | |
| Individual level | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sex | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Men | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Women | | | | | | | 0.704 | 0.019 | <0.001 | | 0.705 | 0.019 | <0.001 |
| Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19-29 | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| 30-39 | | | | | | | 0.466 | 0.036 | <0.001 | | 0.343 | 0.031 | <0.001 |
| 40-49 | | | | | | | 0.163 | 0.032 | <0.001 | | 0.167 | 0.032 | <0.001 |
| 50-59 | | | | | | | 0.293 | 0.033 | <0.001 | | 0.297 | 0.033 | <0.001 |
| 60-69 | | | | | | | -0.240 | 0.032 | <0.001 | | -0.241 | 0.032 | <0.001 |
| ≥70 | | | | | | | 0.326 | 0.040 | <0.001 | | 0.330 | 0.040 | <0.001 |
| Monthly Household income | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| < ₩ 2,000,000 | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| ₩ 2,000,000–2,999,999 | | | | | | | 0.127 | 0.021 | <0.001 | | 0.129 | 0.021 | <0.001 |
| ₩ 3,000,000–3,999,999 | | | | | | | 0.057 | 0.023 | 0.016 | | 0.060 | 0.023 | 0.015 |
| ₩ 4,000,000–4,999,999 | | | | | | | -0.007 | 0.025 | 0.8 | | -0.004 | 0.025 | 0.903 |
| ≥ ₩ 5,000,000 | | | | | | | -0.170 | 0.021 | <0.001 | | -0.167 | 0.021 | <0.001 |
| Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Primary school grad., or below | | | | | | | 0.759 | 0.026 | <0.001 | | 0.755 | 0.026 | <0.001 |
| Middle school grad. | | | | | | | 0.769 | 0.026 | <0.001 | | 0.767 | 0.026 | <0.001 |
| High school grad. | | | | | | | 0.332 | 0.017 | <0.001 | | 0.330 | 0.017 | <0.001 |
| College, or above | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Marital status | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Married, live together | | | | | | | 0.727 | 0.026 | <0.001 | | 0.722 | 0.026 | <0.001 |
| Separated, divorced, bereaved | | | | | | | 0.370 | 0.030 | <0.001 | | 0.365 | 0.030 | <0.001 |
| Subjective health status | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Good | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Fair | | | | | | | -0.259 | 0.022 | <0.001 | | -0.259 | 0.022 | <0.001 |
| Bad | | | | | | | -0.433 | 0.023 | <0.001 | | -0.433 | 0.023 | <0.001 |
| Smoking status | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoke every day | | | | | | | -0.130 | 0.023 | <0.001 | | -0.130 | 0.023 | <0.001 |
| Smoke occasionally | | | | | | | -0.101 | 0.051 | 0.055 | | -0.101 | 0.051 | 0.065 |
| Past smoker | | | | | | | -0.001 | 0.022 | 0.975 | | -0.001 | 0.022 | 0.980 |
| Never smoked | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Alcohol drinking status | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| More than 4 times/a week | | | | | | | -0.240 | 0.032 | <0.001 | | 0.080 | 0.021 | <0.001 |
| 2–3 times/a week | | | | | | | 0.010 | 0.025 | 0.753 | | 0.009 | 0.025 | 0.775 |
| 2–4 times/a month | | | | | | | 0.069 | 0.022 | 0.003 | | 0.068 | 0.022 | 0.003 |
| Once or less than once/a month | | | | | | | 0.040 | 0.018 | 0.026 | | 0.040 | 0.018 | 0.032 |
| Never drank | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Diabetes | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Yes | | | | | | | 0.080 | 0.021 | <0.001 | | 0.080 | 0.021 | <0.001 |
| High blood pressure | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Yes | | | | | | | 0.113 | 0.017 | <0.001 | | 0.114 | 0.017 | <0.001 |
| Depressive symptom (PHQ-9 score) | | | | | | | 0.040 | 0.002 | <0.001 | | 0.040 | 0.002 | <0.001 |
| Daily sleep hours | | | | | | | 0.021 | 0.005 | <0.001 | | 0.021 | 0.005 | <0.001 |
| Area level | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| COVID-19 infection rate per 1000 by region | | | | | | | -0.030 | 0.053 | 0.573 | | -0.032 | 0.052 | 0.584 |
| Area deprivation score | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (least): z-score < -3.67 | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Quartile 2: 3.67 ≤ z-score < -0.15 | | | | | | | 0.317 | 0.122 | 0.013 | | 0.218 | 0.119 | 0.085 |
| Quartile 3: 0.15 ≤ z-score < 3.61 | | | | | | | 0.395 | 0.136 | 0.009 | | 0.235 | 0.133 | 0.094 |
| Quartile 4 (most): 3.61 ≤ z-score | | | | | | | 0.539 | 0.111 | <0.001 | | 0.252 | 0.109 | 0.029 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Capital city | | | | | | | Reference | | | | Reference | | |
| Metropolitan areas | | | | | | | -0.075 | 0.124 | 0.573 | | -0.110 | 0.122 | 0.412 |
| Others | | | | | | | 0.311 | 0.1121 | 0.011 | | 0.125 | 0.11 | 0.298 |
| Between area variance (SE) | 0.510 (0.047) * | | 0.391 (0.036) * | | 0.408 (0.037) * | | 0.377 (0.035) * | | | | | | |
| Model Fitness | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Log Likelihood | 1,159,212 | | 1,159,146 | | 1,145,270 | | 1,145,251 | | | | | | |

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

| Area level | | 1,159,218 | 1,159,164 | 1,145,332 | 1,145,325 |
|------------------------------------|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| AIC | | | | | |
| Intraclass correlation coefficient | Unadjusted: 13.5%/Area deprivation score adjusted: 10.2% ^b | | | | |

FDR, False Discovery Rate, SE, standard error, AIC, Akaike Information Criterion.

*p < 0.0001.

^a 255 administrative districts that classified in 2020 Korea Community Health Survey.

^b 13.5% of the variability in the scores of concerns related to COVID-19 is accounted for by the areas in the study.

acquire relevant and updated information about COVID-19, as it guides an individual to practice preventive behaviours, such as hand hygiene, avoiding close contact with the sick, staying home when suspicious of being ill, using a facemask, cleaning and disinfecting contact objects and surfaces (Basch et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2020). Accordingly, relevant information about COVID-19 played an important role in reducing the fear of COVID-19 while preventive behaviours were mediated (Chang, Strong, Pakpour, Griffiths, & Lin, 2020).

While there is no definitive evidence explaining why men residing in socioeconomically deprived areas exhibit greater concerns about COVID-19 compared to women, a plausible inference can be drawn. It is likely that men in these areas are more frequently employed in occupations that cannot be performed remotely, such as manual labor or factory work. These types of jobs typically have a higher risk of exposure to COVID-19, potentially contributing to their increased concerns

regarding the virus. Those aged 19–49 living in deprived areas had greater concerns due to COVID-19. This is interpreted that they are socially or economically active but environmentally aggravated, thus more likely to be frightened of the negative consequences related to COVID-19, such as being infected, criticized by others due to infection of COVID-19, financially disadvantaged, or death.

Our study showed the highest quartile deprivation was associated with greater concerns about being criticized if they got infected. Fear of interpersonal relationships may lead to social isolation and further psychological problems (Leigh-Hunt et al., 2017; Pietrabissa & Simpson, 2020; Rogers et al., 2020). This might be especially distinctive during the COVID-19 outbreak (Pietrabissa & Simpson, 2020; Rogers et al., 2020). Furthermore, we can infer that in deprived areas, significant concerns arise from economic burdens potentially caused by infection, such as decreased or suspended earnings due to job disruptions or loss.

Table 3

Association between area deprivation and individuals' concerns related to COVID-19, according to individuals' characteristics (sex, age group, and monthly income group).

| Characteristic | Concerns related to COVID-19 (0–16 score) | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|--|----|-----------------|--|-------|-----------------|--|--------------|-----------------|---|--------------|------------------|
| | Area deprivation score ^a : Q1 (least) | | | Area deprivation score ^a : Q2 | | | Area deprivation score ^a : Q3 | | | Area deprivation score ^a : Q4 (most) | | |
| | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value |
| Sex | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Men | Reference | | | 0.247 | 0.128 | 0.072 | 0.260 | 0.143 | 0.087 | 0.285 | 0.117 | 0.022 |
| Women | Reference | | | 0.182 | 0.117 | 0.156 | 0.211 | 0.130 | 0.150 | 0.214 | 0.107 | 0.068 |
| Age | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19-29 | Reference | | | 0.267 | 0.149 | 0.180 | 0.300 | 0.132 | 0.063 | 0.433 | 0.125 | 0.004 |
| 30-39 | Reference | | | 0.174 | 0.130 | 0.260 | 0.349 | 0.148 | 0.044 | 0.430 | 0.123 | <0.001 |
| 40-49 | Reference | | | 0.202 | 0.126 | 0.189 | 0.214 | 0.142 | 0.218 | 0.328 | 0.117 | 0.013 |
| 50-59 | Reference | | | 0.210 | 0.123 | 0.137 | 0.075 | 0.138 | 0.704 | 0.191 | 0.113 | 0.138 |
| 60-69 | Reference | | | 0.195 | 0.130 | 0.223 | 0.171 | 0.144 | 0.336 | 0.143 | 0.119 | 0.336 |
| ≥70 | Reference | | | 0.188 | 0.155 | 0.295 | 0.247 | 0.172 | 0.206 | 0.167 | 0.142 | 0.301 |

Adjusted for sex, age, monthly household income, education, marital status, subjective health status, alcohol drinking status, smoking status, depressive symptom score (PHQ-9), daily sleep duration, diabetes, high blood pressure, regional infection rate of COVID-19, and region type.

^a 255 administrative districts that classified in 2020 Korea Community Health Survey.

Table 4

Association between area deprivation and each type of concerns related to COVID-19.

| | Concern Type 1: Concerns about infection | | | Concern Type 2: Concerns of dying by infection | | | Concern Type 3: Concerns of being blamed by others of infection | | | Concern Type 4: Concerns of economic burdens due to infection | | |
|---|--|-------|-----------------|--|-------|-----------------|---|--------------|-----------------|---|--------------|-----------------|
| | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value | β | SE | FDR adj.p-value |
| Area deprivation score^a | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (least): z-score < -3.67 | Reference | | | Reference | | | Reference | | | Reference | | |
| Quartile 2: 3.67 ≤ z-score < -0.15 | 0.017 | 0.029 | 0.566 | 0.046 | 0.048 | 0.356 | 0.069 | 0.032 | 0.042 | 0.088 | 0.033 | 0.012 |
| Quartile 3: 0.15 ≤ z-score < 3.61 | 0.029 | 0.032 | 0.406 | 0.066 | 0.053 | 0.245 | 0.066 | 0.036 | 0.084 | 0.074 | 0.037 | 0.064 |
| Quartile 4 (most): 3.61 ≤ z-score | 0.015 | 0.027 | 0.566 | 0.082 | 0.044 | 0.078 | 0.091 | 0.029 | 0.003 | 0.063 | 0.030 | 0.057 |

Abbreviations: SE, standard error.

Adjusted for sex, age, monthly household income, education, marital status, subjective health status, alcohol drinking status, smoking status, depressive symptom score (PHQ-9), daily sleep duration, diabetes, high blood pressure, regional infection rate of COVID-19, and region type.

^a 255 administrative districts that classified in 2020 Korea Community Health Survey.

Interestingly, we can deduce that people have greater fears about the social/psychological and economic impacts arising from COVID-19 than about clinical outcomes such as being infected or dying from the infection. This finding aligns with previous research indicating that concerns over the pandemic's consequences adversely affect mental health, stemming from psychological distress and economic burdens (Blix, Birkeland, & Thoresen, 2021).

Several strategies may be explored to address concerns related to COVID-19 in deprived areas. The government may consider enhancing providing accurate information and mental health support related to COVID-19 to deprived areas where it is difficult to access timely appropriate information related to COVID-19. It may be considered to reduce the stress of the COVID-19 situation by increasing the public's understanding and reliability of COVID-19 related policies. In addition, policies and programs aiming at increasing neighbourhood safety and cleanliness might potentially lead to better mental health (Mohan & Barlow, 2023). Moreover, given access to services and amenities related to better mental health, efforts to enhance services like public transportation and establish high-quality open spaces may benefit the mental health of the community (Mohan & Barlow, 2023). Community social capital was associated with reduced psychological distress during the COVID-19 pandemic, serving as a buffer against the negative effects of pandemic-induced mobility restrictions (Laurence & Kim, 2021; McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Mohan & Barlow, 2023). Participating in social groups and engaging in community activities might yield positive impacts on mental health by alleviating adverse outcomes.

Our study had several limitations. First, even after adjusting for various individual and area-level characteristics, the observed associations may still be influenced by residual confounding and potential bias from excluding individuals with missing values. We suggest investigating other factors that could influence concerns related to COVID-19. Future research should also explore potential mediators and moderators in the connection between area deprivation and COVID-19 concerns. Furthermore, it would be pertinent to examine the role of other area-based social determinants of health that might be relevant to this relationship. Second, the study relied on self-reported data, making it susceptible to measurement errors, recall bias, and social desirability bias. These limitations could introduce attenuation bias, underestimating the true effect of the independent variables. Third, the study's cross-sectional nature inhibits causal inferences. Longitudinal designs are needed for a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between area deprivation and COVID-19 concerns. Fourth, due to the limitation of data availability, we could not reflect frequent changes in the COVID-19 infection rate and involved government regulations, raising limited generalizability of the result. Subsequent research might consider the effect of government regulations on COVID-19 on individuals' behavioural changes and concerns. Fifth, we did not include worries about susceptible family members among the concerns related to COVID-19 items to understand the entire population's concerns related to COVID-19. It might lead to an incomplete understanding of the relationship between area deprivation and COVID-19 concerns. Sixth, our findings may not be generalizable to other countries with different environments. Nevertheless, given the severe effect of COVID-19 on Korea, where approximately two-thirds of the entire Korean population has experienced infection, this research may provide valuable insights into the association between the pandemic and mental health (Taylor, 2019). Seventh, even though we conducted a normality test on the outcome, as required by the multilevel regression model which assumes a normal distribution of the outcome, the results are somewhat ambiguous. Graphically, the distribution appears roughly normal, but statistically, it does not align perfectly with this (Supplementary Fig. 2). According to the Central Limit Theorem, normality tests with large sample sizes can be sensitive to even minor deviations from a perfect normal distribution (Kwak & Kim, 2017). Thus, given the current context of COVID-19 concerns and the potential influence of our large study population on the observed non-normality, it might be more prudent to emphasize the

real-world significance of our findings rather than a slight deviation from normality in the outcome. Finally, ADI used was based on 255 predefined geographic districts, which may not align with residents' perceived neighbourhoods. This could result in discrepancies between administrative boundaries and actual areas affecting residents' lifestyles (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). However, using these 255 administrative districts in South Korea was our best option to classify the areas to capture social and economic characteristics using accessible data. These limitations notwithstanding, our study offers comprehensive information about factors associated with concerns related to COVID-19 including more than 200,000 individuals based on large nationwide representative data.

5. Conclusion

By identifying vulnerable population to concerns related to COVID-19, health systems may consider preventive intervention to mitigate mental health issues. Our research outcomes shed light on that regional deprivation is associated with higher concerns about COVID-19, potentially serving as valuable insights to address mental health issues during public health emergencies.

Availability of data and materials

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available in the repository of Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency [<https://chs.kdca.go.kr/chs/rdr/rdrInfoProcessMain.do>], Ministry of the Interior and Safety [<https://www.data.go.kr/en/index.do>], and Statistics Korea [<https://kostat.go.kr/portal/eng/index.action>].

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The data used in the study are publicly accessible and all methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations in the declaration. All personal information in this data was de-identified before its distribution; therefore, the institutional review board of Yonsei University confirmed that this study is eligible for exemption from full institutional review board review.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

Doo Woong Lee: Conceptualization; Methodology; Formal analysis; Data curation; Writing – original draft; Writing – review and editing; Visualization.

Jieun Jang: Conceptualization; Methodology; Writing – review and editing; Visualization;

Jaeyong Shin: Conceptualization; Validation; Supervision.

All authors gave final approval.

Financial disclosure

This study was supported by Big data-based COVID-19 sequelae study HD22C204500 from the Korea Health Industry Development Institute (Dr. Shin) and the Korea Health Technology R&D Project through the Korea Health Industry Development Institute, funded by the Ministry of Health & Welfare, Republic of Korea (grant number: RS-2023-00274416 to Dr. Lee/ grant number: HI21C1249 to Dr. Jang).

Declaration of competing interest

Dr. Shin reported receiving grant funding from the Korea Health Industry Development Institute during the conduct of the study and

being the chief executive officer and founder of Evertri, a company unrelated to the work that was submitted. Dr. Lee reported receiving grant funding from the Korea Health Industry Development Institute during the conduct of the study. Dr. Jang reported receiving grant funding from the Korea Health Industry Development Institute during the conduct of the study. No other disclosures were reported.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgements

None.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2023.101580>.

References

- Basch, C. H., Hillyer, G. C., Meleo-Erwin, Z. C., Jaime, C., Mohlman, J., & Basch, C. E. (2020). Preventive behaviors conveyed on YouTube to mitigate transmission of COVID-19: Cross-sectional study. *JMIR Public Health Surveill*, 6, Article e18807.
- Beaudoin, C. E., & Hong, T. (2021). Predictors of COVID-19 preventive perceptions and behaviors among millennials: Two cross-sectional survey studies. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 23, Article e30612.
- Benjamini, Y., & Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the false discovery rate: A practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B*, 57, 289–300.
- Blix, I., Birkeland, M. S., & Thoresen, S. (2021). Worry and mental health in the covid-19 pandemic: Vulnerability factors in the general Norwegian population. *BMC Public Health*, 21, 928.
- Chang, K. C., Strong, C., Pakpour, A. H., Griffiths, M. D., & Lin, C. Y. (2020). Factors related to preventive COVID-19 infection behaviors among people with mental illness. *Journal of the Formosan Medical Association*, 119, 1772–1780.
- Cheong, K. S., Choi, M. H., Cho, B. M., Yoon, T. H., Kim, C. H., Kim, Y. M., et al. (2012). Suicide rate differences by sex, age, and urbanicity, and related regional factors in Korea. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Public Health*, 45, 70.
- Cullen, W., Gulati, G., & Kelly, B. D. (2020). Mental health in the COVID-19 pandemic. *QJM: Monthly Journal of the Association of Physicians*, 113, 311–312.
- Fujii, R., Suzuki, K., & Niimi, J. (2021). Public perceptions, individual characteristics, and preventive behaviors for COVID-19 in six countries: A cross-sectional study. *Environmental Health and Preventive Medicine*, 26, 1–12.
- Ganesan, B., Al-Jumaily, A., Fong, K. N. K., Prasad, P., Meena, S. K., & Tong, R. K. (2021). Impact of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) outbreak quarantine, isolation, and lockdown policies on mental health and suicide. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 12, Article 565190.
- Hubbard, G., den Daas, C., Johnston, M., & Dixon, D. (2021). Sociodemographic and psychological risk factors for anxiety and depression: Findings from the covid-19 health and adherence research in scotland on mental health (CHARIS-MH) cross-sectional survey. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 1–13.
- Hwang, M.-J., Park, S. Y., Yoon, T.-H., Jang, J., Lee, S.-Y., Yoo, M., et al. (2022). Effect of socioeconomic disparities on the risk of COVID-19 in 8 metropolitan cities in the Korea: A community-based study. *Epidemiology and Health*, 44.
- Hyun, W. I., Son, Y. H., & Jung, S. O. (2022). Infection preventive behaviors and its association with perceived threat and perceived social factors during the COVID-19 pandemic in South Korea: 2020 community health survey. *BMC Public Health*, 22, 1381.
- Jarman, B., Townsend, P., & Carstairs, V. (1991). Deprivation indices. *BMJ*, 303, 523.
- Kang, Y. W., Ko, Y. S., Kim, Y. J., Sung, K. M., Kim, H. J., Choi, H. Y., et al. (2015). Korea community health survey data profiles. *Osong Public Health and Research Perspectives*, 6, 211–217.
- Kim, C., Chang, E. J., & Kim, C. Y. (2021). Regional differences in the effects of social relations on depression among Korean elderly and the moderating effect of living alone. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Public Health*, 54, 441–450.
- Kim, W., Ju, Y. J., & Lee, S. Y. (2022). Does having various types of fear related to COVID-19 disrupt individuals' daily life?: Findings from a nationwide survey in Korea. *Epidemiology and Health*, 44.
- Kim, D., Lee, S., Ki, M., Kim, M., Kim, S., Kim, Y., et al. (2013). *Developing health inequalities indicators and monitoring the status of health inequalities in Korea* (pp. 166–179). Seoul: Korea institute for health and social affairs.
- Kong, J., & Cho, S. I. (2021). Effect of tobacco outlet density on quit attempts in Korea: A multi-level analysis of the 2015 Korean community health survey. *Epidemiology and Health*, 43, Article e2021048.
- Kumar, A., & Nayar, K. R. (2021). COVID 19 and its mental health consequences. *Journal of Mental Health*, 30, 1–2.
- Kwak, S. G., & Kim, J. H. (2017). Central limit theorem: The cornerstone of modern statistics. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology*, 70, 144–156.
- Laurence, J., & Kim, H. H. (2021). Individual and community social capital, mobility restrictions, and psychological distress during the COVID-19 pandemic: A multilevel analysis of a representative US survey. *Social Science & Medicine*, 287, Article 114361.
- Lee, J. H., & Heo, T.-Y. (2014). A study of effect on the smoking status using multilevel logistic model. *The Korean journal of applied statistics*, 27, 89–102.
- Lee, D. W., Lee, S., Oh, S. S., Youn, H. M., Choi, D.-W., Jung, S. J., et al. (2022). Risk of suicide death in psychiatric patients according to the level of continuity of care and area deprivation: A population-based nested case-control study. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, 151, 279–285.
- Lee, S. E., Yeon, M., Kim, C.-W., & Yoon, T.-H. (2016). The association among individual and contextual factors and unmet healthcare needs in South Korea: A multilevel study using national data. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Public Health*, 49, 308.
- Leigh-Hunt, N., Bagguley, D., Bash, K., Turner, V., Turnbull, S., Valtorta, N., et al. (2017). An overview of systematic reviews on the public health consequences of social isolation and loneliness. *Public Health*, 152, 157–171.
- Lu, X., & Lin, Z. (2021). COVID-19, economic impact, mental health, and coping behaviors: A conceptual framework and future research directions. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, Article 759974.
- M, J. (2012). Covariation in community- and individual-based community capacity and health behavior: A multilevel analysis of populations in seoul, South Korea. *The Health Care Manager*, 31, 308–319.
- McKenzie, K., & Harpham, T. (2006). *Social capital and mental health*. Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- McKibbin, W., & Fernando, R. (2020). The economic impact of COVID-19. *Economics in the Time of COVID-*, 19, 45.
- Mental Health During the COVID-19 Pandemic.**National institutes of health COVID-19. *MicroData Integrated Service (MDIS)*.(2021).
- Mohan, G., & Barlow, P. (2023). Area-level deprivation, neighbourhood factors and associations with mental health. *PLoS One*, 18, Article e0281146.
- O'Connor, R. C., Wetherall, K., Cleare, S., McClelland, H., Melson, A. J., Niedzwiedz, C. L., et al. (2021). Mental health and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic: Longitudinal analyses of adults in the UK COVID-19 mental health & wellbeing study. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 218, 326–333.
- O'Farrell, I., Corcoran, P., & Perry, I. (2016). The area level association between suicide, deprivation, social fragmentation and population density in the Republic of Ireland: A national study. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 51, 839–847.
- Park, Y. M., & Kim, Y. (2014). A spatially filtered multilevel model to account for spatial dependency: Application to self-rated health status in South Korea. *International Journal of Health Geographics*, 13, 1–10.
- Pfefferbaum, B., & North, C. S. (2020). Mental health and the Covid-19 pandemic. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 383, 510–512.
- Pietrabissa, G., & Simpson, S. G. (2020). Psychological consequences of social isolation during COVID-19 outbreak. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 2201.
- Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. sage.
- Rayani, M., Rayani, S., & Najafi-Sharjabad, F. (2021). COVID-19-related knowledge, risk perception, information seeking, and adherence to preventive behaviors among undergraduate students, southern Iran. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 28, 59953–59962.
- Rehkopf, D. H., & Buka, S. L. (2006). The association between suicide and the socio-economic characteristics of geographical areas: A systematic review. *Psychological Medicine*, 36, 145–157.
- Rogers, J. P., Chesney, E., Oliver, D., Pollak, T. A., McGuire, P., Fular-Poli, P., et al. (2020). Psychiatric and neuropsychiatric presentations associated with severe coronavirus infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis with comparison to the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 7, 611–627.
- Sannigrahi, S., Pilla, F., Basu, B., Basu, A. S., & Molter, A. (2020). Examining the association between socio-demographic composition and COVID-19 fatalities in the European region using spatial regression approach. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 62, Article 102418.
- Shin, H., Kim, J.-S., & Lee, H. (2023). Association of depression with Precautionary behavior compliance, COVID-19 fear, and health behaviors in South Korea: National cross-sectional study. *JMIR Public Health and Surveill*, 9, Article e42677.
- Shin, H.-S., Lee, S.-H., & Chu, J.-M. (2009). Development of composite deprivation index for Korea: The correlation with standardized mortality ratio. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Public Health*, 42, 392–402.
- Snijders, T. A., & Bosker, R. J. (2011). *Multilevel analysis: An introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modeling*. sage.
- Taylor, S. (2019). *The psychology of pandemics: Preparing for the next global outbreak of infectious disease*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- V, C. (1995). Deprivation indices: Their interpretation and use in relation to health. *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health*, 49(Suppl 2), S3–S8.
- Walters, K., Breeze, E., Wilkinson, P., Price, G. M., Bulpitt, C. J., & Fletcher, A. (2004). Local area deprivation and urban–rural differences in anxiety and depression among people older than 75 years in Britain. *American Journal of Public Health*, 94, 1768–1774.
- WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard.**World Health Organization.
- Wu, M., Xu, W., Yao, Y., Zhang, L., Guo, L., Fan, J., et al. (2020). Mental health status of students' parents during COVID-19 pandemic and its influence factors. *General Psychiatry*, 33.
- Youn, H. M., Lee, D. W., & Park, E.-C. (2020). Association between community outpatient clinic care accessibility and the uptake of diabetic retinopathy screening: A multi-level analysis. *Primary Care Diabetes*, 14, 616–621.