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Brief Empirical Report

Trajectories of distress following the Great East Japan Earthquake: a multi-wave prospective study

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Abstract

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The March 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake, tsunami and nuclear leak were complex traumas. We examine psychological distress in the years following the earthquake, using growth mixture modelling to classify responses from 2,599 linked respondents (2012 to 2016). We identify four classes of trajectories following the disaster; resilient (76% respondents), delayed distress (8%), recovery (8%) and chronic (7%). Compared to the resilient trajectory other class members were less likely to be female and had less social support. Survivors in the recovery group were more likely to live in prefabricated housing. While distress has decreased over time, specific populations continue to require targeted intervention.

Keywords: Psychological distress; natural disasters; distress trajectories; Japan

17 Trajectories of distress following the Great East Japan Earthquake: a multi-wave
18 prospective study

19

20 Introduction

21

22 The Great East Japan Earthquake (GEJE), off the coast of Miyagi Prefecture, on 11th
23 March, 2011, was accompanied by a 'Level 7' nuclear accident. With more than
24 18,000 fatalities the disaster led to the migration of one third of a million people
25 (National Police Agency, 2014). These events occurred in a deprived region already
26 affected by high suicide rates, and with limited health resources. A number studies
27 have illustrated the negative impact of seismic events on psychological well-being
28 (Fergusson, Horwood, Boden, and Mulder, 2014). However, sustained, large scale
29 longitudinal research on the impact of such events is still rare.

30 A five-year study of 224 participants following an earthquake in Niigata
31 Prefecture, Japan reported a significant decrease in psychological distress in each of
32 the first four years after the disaster (Nakamura, Kitamura, and Someya, 2014). In
33 Fukushima following the GEJE both post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and
34 general psychological distress declined in each of the three years post disaster (Oe,
35 Takahashi, and Maeda, 2017). Responses to trauma, however, are likely to be
36 heterogenous across affected populations, and several studies have identified
37 different trajectories of distress following major disasters. Of these, the most common
38 groupings are resilience (stable and healthy adjustment), delayed dysfunction (where
39 distress worsens over time), recovery (elevated symptoms returning to normal
40 functioning) and chronically elevated symptoms (persistence of impairment)
41 (Bonanno, Westphal, and Mancini, 2011; Galatzer-Levy, Huang, and Bonanno, 2018;

42 Johannesson, Arinell, and Amberg, 2015). Demographic factors, pre-existing
43 susceptibilities and post-disaster experiences are all associated with these
44 trajectories (Bonanno et al. 2011). Women typically report greater psychological
45 distress following natural disasters (Nakamura et al. 2014). An individual's history of
46 psychological disorder is associated with increased risk of psychological distress
47 post-disaster (Suzuki et al. 2015). Place of residence impacts on likely exposure to
48 disaster as well as the availability of community resources. Poorer, temporary
49 housing conditions also increase risk of depression or anxiety (Johannesson et al,
50 2015), although it is uncertain whether this persists over time (Sasaki et al, 2017).
51 Emotional support from families, friends and relatives is positively associated with
52 resilience (Johannesson et al. 2015). Finally, age has shown mixed associations with
53 psychological distress amongst earthquake survivors. Here some studies find the
54 elderly more vulnerable (Oe et al. 2017), others that previous exposure to disaster
55 makes this population more resistant (Cherniack, 2008).

56 In this paper we map predictors and trajectories of distress from residents of
57 the three most affected Prefectures of the GEJE (Miyagi, Iwate and Fukushima). We
58 consider data from 2,599 respondents linked across surveys yearly from 2012 to
59 2016. We use this to address there questions: 1) how do levels of psychological
60 distress change in the six years following the GEJE? 2) what are the major
61 trajectories of distress over this period? 3) to what extent are the above covariates
62 associated with these distress trajectories over these five years?

63

64 *Method*

65 We report a prospective cohort study examining psychological distress across
66 multiple waves. Data was collected by Miyagi Prefecture, which recorded the largest

67 number of deaths from the disasters. Survivors whose housings was damaged by the
68 earthquake / tsunami were provided temporary housing largely financed by the
69 Prefecture. This was randomly allocated and grouped into two types of temporary
70 housing - privately rented homes (in 35 of the municipalities) or prefabricated housing
71 (in 10 municipalities).

72 Data was collected by the Miyagi Prefecture using methodology standard
73 throughout Japan for survey collection. The Prefecture annually distributed self-report
74 questionnaires to those living in both private residences those in prefabricated
75 housing from September 2012. Respondents returned their questionnaires through
76 mail or directly to administrative officers with no obligation to participate. Participants
77 were not rewarded for their responses. Family-based response rate ranged from 50%
78 to 70% over the six waves. Supplementary Table S1 in the Supplemental Material
79 (online) shows number of families contacted, response rates, and final number of
80 surveys in each wave. Supplementary Figures S1 & S2 (online) indicate data
81 retention. We were unfortunately unable to follow up those who moved from their
82 registered temporary housings. The study profile for waves 1 and 2 has been
83 described elsewhere (Goodwin, Takahashi, Sun, and Ben-Ezra, 2015; Kusama et al.
84 2018; Matsuyama et al. 2016)

85 The Prefecture allocated data linkage codes to respondents by name, date of
86 birth, gender and address at the time of disaster, allowing individuals to be identified
87 across waves. Following linkage, the Prefecture deleted personal information to form
88 an anonymised data set, providing the research team with a sub-set of linked
89 respondents for further analysis. **In this paper we focus on trajectories of distress**
90 **over time. To do this we** analysed respondents from those five years for which full
91 annual data was available (2012-2016; $N = 2599$).

92 All procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of
93 the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with
94 the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008. Ethical approval was obtained
95 from the Prefecture and from the relevant Ethics Committees of Tohoku and Warwick
96 Universities (ref: 70/17-18).

97 *Measures*

Measures were selected on the basis of previous work on psychological distress and were analogous to those employed by Japanese prefectures following earthquakes in Kobe and Niigata Provinces (e.g. Nakamura et al, 2014).

Demographic variables and support

All participants provided their sex, age (susequently recorded into quintiles), Prefecture of residence at the time of the earthquake and housing type (private or prefabricated). Respondents also indicated past history of psychiatric illness and whether they had someone to listen to their concerns (all yes / no).

Outcomes

All participants completed a Japanese version of the six item Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K6: Kessler et al, 2002), intended to detect non-specific psychological distress. Scores range from 0 to 24 (maximum distress) ($\alpha=.91$ in current cohort data). Scores from 8-12 indicate probable mild-moderate mental illness (MMI), 13-24 severe mental illness (SMI).

98 *Statistics*

99 We report findings for all respondents aged ≥ 18 years who completed all five waves.

100 To examine trajectories over time in our linked data we use latent growth mixture
101 modelling (LGMM) (MPlus v. 6: Muthén and Muthén, 2010). We adopt a step-by-step
102 approach, employing a single-group model as the baseline before comparing to more
103 sophisticated models, using model fit statistics (AIC, BIC, ABIC, LRT, Lo-Mendell-
104 Rubin and Bootstrapped likelihood ratio tests and entropy criteria). This allowed us to
105 to judge number of subgroups/classes without imposing a-priori limitations on number
106 or definition of trajectories or a linear/nonlinear trajectory shape (Bonanno et al,
107 2011). We test for cubic trajectories in both our unconditional and conditional models,
108 taking into account missing data by using the full information maximum likelihood
109 estimation. Multinomial regression, t-tests and ANOVA (SPSS v.23) were then used
110 to examine predictors of class membership, using the resilient class as reference
111 group. Here, we use the covariates listed above with the exception of original
112 Prefecture (only small numbers of respondents in our linked data lived outside Miyagi
113 at the time of the earthquake).

114

115 *Results*

116

117 *Baseline characteristics and attrition*

118 Supplementary Table S2 (available online) reports baseline characteristics for
119 respondents. 53.9% respondents were female, 97.5% originally resided in Miyagi
120 prefecture, 73.3% had a supporter and 97.8% had no psychiatric disease history.
121 Respondents ranged from 18-97 at the start of our data collection, with a mean age
122 of 54.63 (SD 15.92). Supplementary Figure 3 provides psychological distress over
123 time. We report prevalence of MMI and SMI (Supplementary Table S3, online) and

124 compare those who completed all waves of the survey versus those who participated
125 in a specific wave (Supplementary Table S4, available online). There were no
126 significant differences between linked respondents who completed all waves versus
127 responses for those completing only that wave.

128

129 *Growth Mixture Modeling*

130 Compared to a 3-class solution, the Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) for a 4-class solution
131 was statistically significant ($p < .0001$). Compared to a 4-class solution, the LRT for a
132 5-class solution were not significant ($p = .10$), suggesting no substantial improvement
133 in fit. Other fit indices (e.g. BLRT) favoured a 4-class solution, with sample means
134 closely approximating estimated means. Entropy was .85, estimated posterior
135 probabilities for the groups ranged from .82 to .95 (Supplementary Tables S5 and S6,
136 available online).

137 We modelled trajectories using two methods: a) using K6 data only (the simple
138 model) and b) including covariate data to aid class alignment (conditional model).
139 Both analyses led to the same number of classes (4) which were adequately
140 explained by linear trajectories (see Supplementary Table 5, online; fit and class
141 proportions are in Supplementary Table 6). As a result we only discuss findings for
142 the conditional model. Further results for the simple model are available from the first
143 author.

144 The four trajectory groups (classes) are illustrated in Figure 1. Resilient
145 respondents (76.3% of total sample) demonstrated stable levels of low distress
146 throughout the waves (with an intercept score of 3.2 decreasing slightly over time:
147 slope = $-.12$). Only 0.2% of this group could be classified at risk of severe mental
148 illness (SMI) in 2012, with rates not exceeding 1% in any wave. Class 2 (delayed

149 distress, 8.1% respondents overall) showed low distress at wave 1, but with a
150 significant increase in distress over time (slope 1.41). For this group SMI risk rose
151 from 3.3% (in 2012) to 34.5% (in 2016). Class 3 (chronic distress, 7.1% respondents)
152 exhibited consistently high levels of distress (intercept = 14.44, with only a small
153 decrease slope over time (-0.43)). Risk of SMI was high in both 2012 (62.5%) and
154 2016 (44.9%). Finally, after high initial distress (intercept 15.25) Group 4 (recovery,
155 8.4% respondents) showed consistent improvement (slope -2.13)), with risk of SMI
156 dropping from 55.4% (2012) to 0.6% (2016). More detailed scores for potential
157 moderate or severe mental illness by group over time are shown in Supplementary
158 **Table 7** (online).

159 We then profiled trajectories using multinomial logistic regressions
160 (Supplementary **Table S8**). Compared to the reference group (resilient trajectory),
161 other groups were more likely to include female respondents (there were 52% of
162 females amongst resilient survivors, 57%, 61% and 64% females in classes 2-4,
163 respectively) and **less** likely to report receiving support. Chronic and recovery groups
164 were also both more likely to report a psychiatric history prior to the earthquake (9%
165 of group members reported this, compared to just 1% of those in the resilient or
166 delayed distress classes). Compared to the reference resilient sample those in the
167 recovery group were more likely to live in prefabricated accommodation. Age effects
168 were small across the groups.

169

170 Discussion

171

172 Complex disasters, such as the major earthquake, tsunami and nuclear leak in Japan
173 in 2011, can have a severe impact on psychological health (Cherniack, 2008). In this
174 paper, we report a rare longitudinal prospective panel study of psychological distress

175 up to six years after these events. As in previous work, on both seismic events
176 (Nakamura et al. 2014) and related disasters (Wickrama and Ketring, 2012) we find a
177 decrease in psychological distress over time. **Growth linear mixture modelling**
178 suggested four trajectories of distress, affirming, across five waves, groups reported
179 over shorter periods (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2018). While more than three-quarters
180 (76%) of respondents showed resilience, approximately even groups of others
181 demonstrated delayed distress, recovery or chronic distress over time. These
182 trajectories were associated with both pre-existing vulnerabilities and post-trauma
183 housing conditions and support.

184 Average (mean) levels of psychological distress were generally low throughout
185 our data. Eighty-four percent of our respondents report positive trajectories
186 (resilience or recovery) with, as elsewhere, resilience the most common response
187 (Bonanno et al, 2011; Bryant et al. 2015; Galatzer-Levy et al, 2018; Johannesson et
188 al, 2015). This may reflect the high levels of resilience in the Japanese population in
189 general, often associated with the concept of *shouganai* (“it cannot be helped”). As
190 elsewhere, respondents who recovered usually did so within two years following the
191 stressful event (Bonanno et al, 2011) (the recovery group risk of several mental
192 illness more than halved between 2012 and 2013). One reason for this recovery may
193 **lie** in the higher proportion of prefabricated housing residents within this group. While
194 cross-sectional data showed that prefabricated housing, with its greater noise and
195 extreme temperatures, is a risk factor for psychological well-being (Sasaki et al,
196 2017), the close proximity of these prefabricated homes also means it was easier for
197 those in these dwellings to obtain municipal and voluntary support (Kusama et al.
198 2018; Murakami et al, 2017). This support can be a major bulwark against distress
199 (Johannesson et al, 2015). Additional logistic regressions (Supplementary Table **S9**,

200 online) demonstrated the association between the presence of a supporter at first
201 time of survey completion and psychological well-being in the subsequent three
202 years.

203 For all this, the minority of survivors who fail to recover there may be a
204 sustained risk of trauma (Bui et al. 2010). The negative impact of prior psychiatric
205 disorders on psychological well-being was demonstrated by the higher proportion of
206 those with prior (pre-earthquake) diagnoses in the chronic and recovery trajectories.
207 Previous psychiatric diagnosis was also related to increased exposure to risk
208 following an earthquake in New Zealand (Fergusson et al, 2014). Sex effects were as
209 anticipated, with greater distress amongst female respondents, and fewer women in
210 the stable resilient trajectory.

211 Our study had several strengths. Previous studies on psychological distress
212 following seismic events have been largely cross-sectional (risking conflating
213 trajectories, Galatzer-Levy et al, 2018) and **have** been conducted primarily in Western
214 settings. We use latent growth mixture models to consider trajectories of distress
215 over a period of five years. We provide novel insights into the input of housing over a
216 protracted time period. Survival analyses show we maintained participants with
217 comparable levels of distress to those who did not complete all survey waves. At the
218 same time, we recognise a number of limitations. We lacked several additional
219 socioeconomic details, such as income and education level. **We had more**
220 **participants than families, running the risk of nonindependence of participants in our**
221 **analyses. However, because very few members of the same family participated**
222 **throughout the five waves (with only one or two family members linked in 78% of**
223 **families) we were not able meaningfully conduct multi-level analysis clustering by**
224 **family, and linked participants by their individual ID numbers rather than families.**

225 Future studies could make particular efforts to include maintain participation by family
226 in order to conduct analyses at this additional level. We were unable to determine
227 additional measures of personal exposure or additional stressors, including the need
228 to provide medicinal aid to others. More extensive information on a range of
229 individual variations before an event would have been valuable (Galatzer-Levy et al.,
230 2018). Location at the time of an earthquake may also be significant but could not be
231 formally assessed in our models as few respondents lived outside Miyagi. Victims of
232 atomic events can suffer long-lasting anxieties that threaten their identity (Ben-Ezra
233 et al, 2015). Fukushima refugees suffered serious disruption to their social networks,
234 often involving the separation of spouses and children. High rates of distress in
235 Fukushima have been reported elsewhere, reflecting public stigma towards those
236 living in the Prefecture, as well as family dissention around the decision to evacuate
237 (or return) (Hasegawa et al, 2015). Finally, data was self-reported. While widely used
238 in Japan, the K6 measure of distress we used is not necessarily equivalent to clinical
239 interviews, and may lead to conservative estimates (Goto and Wilson, 2003).
240

241 Despite the above, we believe our work has a number of important
242 implications. This is one of the largest longitudinal studies of natural disasters using
243 representative samples over a protracted period. Our longitudinal data underlines the
244 significance of identifying vulnerable populations post-disaster, and the need to
245 orientate health services accordingly. This is important in avoiding a simplistic ‘one
246 size fits all’ for interventions (Bonanno et al, 2011). Those most at risk are likely to
247 include survivors with previous psychological illnesses, women, and those who had
248 to move home. This has implications for estimates of likely treatment effects as well
249 as efficacy of these interventions (Galatzer-Levy et al, 2018). Expert communication
250 is needed to gain trust of these individuals and better explain the risks following such
251 an event. Finally, despite evidence of decline in psychological distress over time,
252 social support retains importance for several years after the event. The random
253 allocation of housing for survivors may make this problematic, with communities
254 easily fractured during movement (Koyama et al, 2014). Sustained support may
255 therefore be needed, even amongst those in apparently comfortable housing
256 arrangements.

257

258 *Future research*

259 Our study suggests several avenues for future work. A large percentage of our
260 respondents exhibit a ‘resilient’ trajectory. This response may result from the relative
261 absence of further natural threats facing our populations (e.g. the emergence of new
262 diseases). Multiple threats are associated with more negative post-disaster
263 trajectories (Galatzer-Levy et al, 2018), with the emergence of cascading threats
264 particularly challenging when resources are already stretched (e.g. locations with low
265 levels of economic development). Further research could profitably explore

266 trajectories in these settings, particularly in those hazard-prone areas neglected in
267 prior research (including many locations in Africa and Asia). Second, we must be
268 wary of reifying the ‘cats cradle’ pattern of trajectories we observed in our study.
269 Such trajectories may not be simply linear or stable over time (Sher et al, 2011), with
270 different study designs likely to lead to different class memberships (e.g. prospective
271 studies report higher resilience than longitudinal analyses: Galatzer-Levy et al, 2018).
272 Finally, one interesting avenue for research may explore mental health implications
273 when an individual’s trajectory is significantly different from that of their societal group
274 (e.g. when an individual’s chronic trajectory is at odds with others in their ethnic
275 group). Such work could complement other emerging research that emphasises a
276 combination of individual and community-level relationships in the development of
277 mental health post-disaster (Matsumaya et al, 2016).

278

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290 data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of this paper

291

292 **Conflict of interest**

293 The authors declare no conflicts of interest with respect to the authorship or
294 publication of this article.

295 **Ethics**

296 The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the
297 ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human
298 experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

299

300 **Author Contributions**

301 RG, KS and SS conducted the data analyses, MT, JU and SS reviewed and revised
302 initial data waves and aided in interpretation. RG, JA and MT helped conceptualise
303 the study and reviewed and revised the report. All authors approved the final
304 manuscript submission.

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Figure and Table Legends

Included in Main text (1 figure):

Figure 1- Growth mixture model for psychological distress (K6) with covariates, based on sample and estimated means

Other Supplementary materials (separate document)

SOM-R (Online, for review). (No SOM-U is now submitted)

Supplementary Table S1: Responses per wave and housing type (all responses and linked)

Supplementary Table S2: Base-line characteristics of respondents completing all waves

Supplementary Table S3. Prevalence of mild-moderate mental illness (MMI), severe mental illness (SMI) for each wave

Supplementary Table S4: Comparison of K6 scores between those who responded to all waves and not all waves

Supplementary Table S5: Parameter estimates and Model Fit Statistics.

Supplementary Table S6: Fit indices and class proportions for 1- to 5-class models.

Supplementary Table S7: Mental Illness Across Trajectories (K6 scores)

Supplementary Table S8: Multinomial Logistic Regressions for Univariate Predictors of Class Membership (vs. Reference group Resilient)

Supplementary Table S9: Association between first support and repeated K6 scores (2,599 participants)

Supplementary Figure S1: Flow charts of the data set for private housings

Supplementary Figure S2: Flow charts of the data set for prefabricated housings

Supplementary Figure S3: Psychological distress over time