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Can we mitigate the effect of natural disasters on child health? Evidence from the Indian Ocean tsunami in Indonesia

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Can we mitigate the effect of natural disasters on child health? Evidence from the Indian Ocean

tsunami in Indonesia

October 11, 2022

Abstract

The 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami was an international natural disaster unlike any seen before,

killing 166,561 people in Aceh province, Indonesia. It prompted an unprecedented humani-

tarian response and was a catalyst in ending almost 30 years of civil conflict in Aceh. Since

the tsunami was followed by a multitude of events, we first conduct a systematic review to

identify those events in Indonesia. Then, we use a synthetic control method to estimate

the combination of those effects on child mortality indicators in Aceh for the 13 years that

followed the disaster using data from 258,918 children born between 1990 and 2017. The

results show a significant increase in under-5 mortality only the year after the tsunami and

no effect in the medium term. However, younger and older children were affected differently

in the medium term. In fact, we show a decrease in child mortality among children aged

1-4 years. In contrast, we observe an increase in mortality among children under-1 in 2009

and 2010. Overall, the resilience of Aceh province points to the importance of coordinated

international disaster response.

Key Words: Natural disaster, child mortality, 2004 tsunami, synthetic control.

Classification Codes: I100, I120, I150, C21, C22, H84

Highlights:

1. The tsunami led to a statistically significant increase in under-5 mortality only the year

that followed the disaster

2. The tsunami led to a significant reduction in child mortality among children aged 1-4 in

the medium term

1

3. Under-1 mortality increased significantly five years after the tsunami

1 Introduction

Individuals in low-income countries are exposed to different types of exogenous shocks. Among such shocks, the least studied and most likely to affect people lives in the long term are natural disasters. As a matter of fact, each year there are over 300 natural disasters globally with millions of victims that cost economic losses near USD\$100 billion (Yehuda, 2002). With the likely future rise in climate variation, and thus an increase in the intensity of natural disasters, understanding the mechanisms that allows the mitigation of the impact of natural disasters on population health is vital. Because the most vulnerable groups are disproportionally affected by natural disasters globally, such shocks can leave permanent impacts on health, hence reinforcing the intergenerational transmission of poverty. Recent evidence suggests that natural disasters affect well-being more than asset losses (Hallegatte et al., 2016) and that the occurrence of these shocks in utero and in early childhood is considered to be especially harmful because of their long lasting effect (Walker et al., 2005, Hoddinott et al., 2008, Gertler et al., 2014, Maluccio et al., 2009, Neelsen and Stratmann, 2011, Gluckman et al., 2008). Despite this, there is limited evidence of the effect of natural disasters on child health (Caruso and Miller, 2015, Chen et al., 2016, Maccini and Yang, 2009, Datar et al., 2013, Frankenberg et al.).

Several studies have aimed to identify the causes of mortality in natural disasters (Frankenberg et al., 2011, Gutierrez et al., 2005), but only a few have investigated the prolonged effects of natural disasters on mortality. Ho et al. (2017) use longitudinal data from households living in affected Indonesian provinces to estimate adult mortality and its causes the five years that followed the 2004 Tsunami. The results do not show strong evidence of an increase in adult mortality among residents in tsunami-affected communities. In Armenia, Armenian et al. (1998) showed that the earthquake led to an increase in adult mortality the first 6 months and to an increase in heart disease, while Nakagawa et al. (2009) find that there was an increase in acute myocardial infarction the three years that followed the Niigata-Chuetsu earthquake in Japan. Aida et al. (2017) provide evidence that mortality increases up to 38 months after the 2011 Japanese tsunami, especially among survivors with no social connections.

Our paper makes an important contribution to the literature on the effect of natural disaster

on mortality by providing the first evidence of the prolonged effects of a severe natural disaster on mortality of children under-5. To do so, we focus on events caused by the largest earthquake recorded in over 40 years, which occurred on the 26th of December 2004 in the Indian Ocean off the Northwest coast of Indonesia. The ensuing tsunami caused killed 167,540 persons in Indonesia, where most of the damages occurred in Aceh province, including 129,775 deaths and 36,786 people reported missing, i.e., almost 5% of Aceh's population. On the 28th of March, 2005 a magnitude 8.6 earthquake struck off of Nias Island in neighbouring North Sumatra province further displacing many Acehnese. The tsunami also destroyed the local economy, where losses were estimated to be USD\$4.45 billion, or 97% of Aceh's GDP in 2003 (World Bank, 2005). Structurally, one third of roads, schools and health facilities in Aceh were damaged (Athukorala and Resosudarmo, 2005). Lastly, the tsunami killed many local healthcare staff which led to decreased local capacity to care for the large influx of injuries and illnesses caused by the tsunami.

The tsunami also led to some effects that could have been beneficial to child mortality reduction. In response to this human and economic devastation, the international community generated an unprecedented humanitarian response. In total, USD\$7.7 billion was committed for relief and reconstruction by the government, non-governmental organizations and international donors (Masyrafah and McKeon, 2008), which represents the largest influx of aid in history. More specifically, aid was aimed to prevent "second mortality" post disaster through various direct channels such as to prevent communicable diseases outbreak (Athukorala, 2012) and to develop effective policies for sustainable reconstruction. In addition, the devastation was so severe that it further encouraged Aceh's separatists and the Indonesian military to sign a peace agreement that ended a 30-year conflict. At the same time, Aceh strengthened its Islamic identity. Posttsunami relief efforts ushered in Islamic organizations that did not previously have a presence in Aceh. These organizations helped to intensify the practice of Sharia law and intensified religious zeal (Ichwan, 2011). As a result, the subsequent effects of the tsunami on child mortality may be both positive and negative.

Our paper aims to investigate whether the combination of the different effects of the tsunami translated into an increase in subsequent child mortality the years that followed the catastrophe. Indeed, while international relief organizations played an important role in health services delivery, it is not clear if these efforts were sufficient to prevent subsequent child mortality. To

answer this question, we first conduct a systematic review to identify the multiple short term and longer term effects of the tsunami in Aceh province on child health. Then, we estimate the effect of the tsunami on child mortality the 13 years that followed the natural disaster. To do so, we use non-affected Indonesian provinces to create a synthetic Aceh province using the synthetic control method pioneered by Abadie et al. (2010). Our results show that the tsunami led to a significant increase in under-5 mortality in 2005, the year that followed the catastrophe but did not have any longer term impacts. We however also provide evidence that different age groups were not affected at the same time by this natural disaster in the medium term. More precisely, we show that although children aged 1-4 were negatively affected by the disaster immediately, child mortality for children aged 1-4 decreases in the medium term. Conversely, in addition to the immediate increase in infant mortality, we also observe that mortality of children under-1 also increases 5 years after the tsunami.

The remainder of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 reviews the literature on the short-term and longer-term effects of the tsunami in Indonesia. Section 3 describes the data and empirical approach used. Section 4 presents the results and robustness checks, while Section 5 discusses findings. Finally, Section 6 concludes.

2 Immediate and longer term effects of the tsunami on child health: a systematic review

The Asian tsunami that hit Aceh was followed by a multitude of events that may have had a combination of negative and positive longer-term effects on child mortality. In order to provide evidence of those transmission channels, we conduct a systematic review. Exact search terms, syntax and database search results are included in Appendix 1. After the review of these search results, a snowballing approach was used to capture articles from reference lists of extracted literature. An additional search of google scholar was conducted to capture grey literature, reports from international relief and governance agencies and unpublished PhD dissertations. Seventy-eight full-text articles written in English met the inclusion criteria and were included in the review. A description of these papers is presented in Appendix 2.

2.1 Negative impacts of the tsunami on child mortality

The tsunami severely damaged health infrastructures. Five of 27 hospitals, 19 of 237 large public health centers and one third of village birth clinics and village health centers in Aceh were destroyed, leaving a limited local capacity to attend to the influx of medical needs (World Bank, 2005). Data from the Study of the Tsunami Aftermath and Recovery (STAR) estimate the disruptions in service provision in 2005 and 2006 in heavily damaged communities to be 64% for community health posts, 49% for village midwives and 63% for public health centers, while emergency primary health care services were only established in 31% of those communities (Frankenberg, 2007). The World Health Organization (2005) reports that of the 497 provincial health staff in Aceh, 57 died and 59 were reported missing after the tsunami. Additionally, 53 of the 244 health facilities were destroyed or incapacitated. Moreover, the proportion of health facility staff who died is estimated to be 22% in heavily damaged communities by the STAR project. Importantly, this lack of health infrastructure prompted a delay in seeking care and increased morbidity since patients were unable to get the immediate care they needed (Guha-Sapir et al., 2007, Pascapurnama et al., 2016, Redwood-Campbell and Riddez, 2012). In addition, there was a decrease in the quality of care reported in public health centres since 17% of affected sub-districts reported a decrease in the quantity of health workers, 20% reported a decrease in supply of pharmaceuticals, and a 18% decrease of equipment, sterile treatment conditions, and inadequacy of waters and toilets. It may be worth noting that the destruction of health infrastructures and the deaths of health workers may have a large detrimental impact on infants and children mortality given that in Indonesia, and more generally in low-and middle income countries, health facilities primarily function as providers of maternal and child care.

The disaster also destroyed vital water and sanitation infrastructure leaving large displaced populations at an increased risk of disease. Post-tsunami, diarrhoea was found to be the second leading cause of morbidity and pointed to the need for improved systems (Gupta et al., 2007).

The tsunami destroyed transportation infrastructure, agricultural production and coastal fishing, which had a dramatic impact on already impoverished communities. The market for fish collapsed because of damage to harbors and public fears of water contamination. Food prices increased because of the destruction of agricultural lands and farm costs rose because of scarce resources and large transportation cost of obtaining new equipment due to the destruction of

roads (Webb, 2005). Thorburn (2009) notes that in the four years before the tsunami, the poverty rate doubled in Aceh to nearly 30% and the tsunami pushed thousands more families into poverty. The study found that although aid programs brought much needed livelihood support and restored many of these families back to work within a year, newly developed enterprises, micro-credit formed businesses and co-operative community development programs could not alleviate pre-existing vulnerability.

Changes to society and culture also occurred after the disaster. Post-tsunami Aceh strengthened its Islamic identity (Shah and Cardozo, 2014). More specifically, Islam was heavily used post-disaster to teach about the relationship between natural phenomenon and faith in order to strengthen religious beliefs (Adiyoso and Kanegae, 2013). Tsunami relief ushered in new, extreme forms of Islamic ideology from radical organizations that developed a presence and a following in the province during their humanitarian aid work (Ichwan, 2011). The increased conservative Islamic values displayed in Aceh after the tsunami may have given rise to further reduction in health seeking behaviours among women and their children.

Finally, the presence of international NGOs' and funding agencies often leads to a lack of local capacity to respond to future sustainability and vulnerability reduction needs. In Aceh, the large influx of organizations overpowered local voices and led to many instances of corruption, unsustainable skyrocketing cost for local materials and wage competition that pushed local labour out of the reconstruction market (Jayasuriya and McCawley, 2010, Jayasuriya and McCawley, 2008). There was no evidence of aid crowding out local government budgets (Athukorala and Resosudarmo, 2005), however, potential shifts in government spending because of earmarked health aid could have had a negative effect on health after aid organizations reduced their local presence and turned over health system management to local staff.

2.2 Positive impacts of the tsunami on child mortality

Within the relief aid effort, USD\$700 million was committed specifically for health-focused work from 135 health NGO's, 16 donors and 152 international actors (Masyrafah and McKeon, 2008). In total there were 330 health projects and 85% of these projects were conducted by NGOs (Masyrafah and McKeon, 2008). The allocation of aid funds took place mainly the four years that followed the tsunami were programmed to be disbursed by 2008. As a matter of

fact, by end 2007, 88 percent (US\$6.8 billions) of committed aid had been allocated to specific projects (Jayasuriya and McCawley, 2010, Jayasuriya and McCawley, 2008). Health aid improved the capacity of the local health system through rebuilding destroyed and damaged health and sanitary infrastructures and training local medical staff (World Health Organization, 2015). Lee et al. (2014) studied the impact of aid to create durable development solutions one and six year post-tsunami and found housing quality, water, sanitation, and perceptions of local and national health services all improved by 2011.

Chang-Seng (2013) argues the tsunami prompted governance change along with rapid decentralization and facilitated the reorganization of government. Indeed, 90% of the capital city, Banda Aceh, was destroyed by the disaster and 40% of its government staff were killed (World Health Organization, 2015). Total destruction of this governance hub allowed for the influence of international actors, with aid and political pressure as tools for incentivizing change, to rebuild systems of governance in partnership with the Indonesian central government. In 2014 universal social health insurance was introduced in order to achieve universal health coverage by 2019 (World Health Organization, 2017). While it is complicated to infer that international scrutiny causes further decentralization and prompted the introduction of social health insurance, one can assume that the increased attention given to Indonesia in the disaster response and recovery effort shifted governance towards improving health systems more than what would have been done in the absence of the tsunami.

Lastly, the "building back better" reconstruction plan focused on sustainable re-development and both rebuilt destroyed capital and made more productive use of capital post-tsunami (Heger, 2016). From 2005-2009 in Banda Aceh, reconstruction doubled built up areas with less dense settlements, enhanced costal development and infrastructure improvements (Achmad et al., 2015). In addition to rebuilding and improving economic systems locally, Aceh province reopened to international investors, which recreated trade connections to Malay and Islamic worlds and generated pathways to future growth (Phelps et al., 2011). Heger (2016) finds strong evidence of a creative-destruction effect of the tsunami that facilitated short and long-term economic growth in Aceh above what was seen in other Indonesian provinces. Economic growth and opportunity is tied to poverty alleviation and could influence many of the social determinants of health that could have lasting effects on population health.

Finally, the tsunami ended an almost 30-year civil conflict that cut off Aceh province from the rest of the country. The civil conflict killed over 15,000 people, shut off access to education and health systems and left nearly 1.4 million people displaced (Worldwatch Institute). The cost of the conflict was estimated at USD\$10.7 billion (World Bank, 2009b). Peace talks had begun in secret prior to the tsunami, however, the tsunami was a catalyst in resuming peace talks in order to help Aceh receive international aid and give the rebel group local political legitimacy in the rebuilding process. Upon signing the 2005 peace agreement, the Free Aceh Movement or Gerakan Aceh Merdeka (GAM) gave up their claim for independence and negotiated more autonomy for Aceh in terms of receiving central government funds (Gaillard et al., 2008a). The peace agreement allowed for improvements to local systems and infrastructure, increased international aid and improved local governance (Beardsley and McQuinn, 2009). The ending of the civil conflict undoubtedly had a positive impact on short-term health and it would be expected that improved access to services and outside resources would improve health over time.

2.3 Undetermined impact of the tsunami on child mortality

There is some evidence in the literature that maternal posttraumatic stress disorder is detrimental to child mental health (McFarlane, 1987, Pfefferbaum, 1997). It is clear that the tsunami led to a decline in mental health among survivors, especially in women and young adults (Frankenberg et al., 2008) and that this decline affected long-term health of survivors (Rassekh and Santosham, 2014). However, the tsunami was also a catalyst towards developing a mental health system (Marthoenis et al., 2016). Before the tsunami, there was only one 250-bed mental health hospital available in Aceh and little common knowledge of mental health conditions (De Jong et al., 2005, Meilianda et al., 2017). After the tsunami, intensive training for general practitioners and other aid efforts led to improved capacity, care coordination, and support of mental health services that otherwise would not have been available (Prasetiyawan et al., 2006). It is unclear, however, if the tsunami could have had an effect on the mortality of children born from mothers who survived the tsunami through the mental health channel.

3 Methods

3.1 Data

We use the Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data, collected in 1997, 2007, 2012 and 2017. These data come from nationally representative cross-sectional surveys and contain information on child death and on several intermediary child health outcomes. We used birth record from DHS to estimate mortality indicators. This dataset has one record for every child ever born to interviewed women. Essentially, it contains the full birth history of all women interviewed for all children born in the last 5 years ¹. It includes information on year of birth, on whether the child is alive at the time of the interview and if the child is dead, the age at death. As a result, unlike the use of birth and death registers, our measures of child mortality are unlikely to depend on the quality of registration services. Using information on the province where the household lives and on the date of birth and death, we reconstruct birth cohorts from 258,918 born between 1990 and 2017 (Appendix 3) and estimate indicators per province and year. Among the 258,918 children included in our cohort, 88,164 children are under-5 years old at the time of the interview. We use the cohort of 258,918 children to estimate annual child mortality rates by province (Masset, 2015) and the cohort of the 88,164 children to estimate the effect of the tsunami on main causes to child mortality.

The primary health outcome is under-5 mortality per 1,000 live births, but we also investigate the distribution of under-5 child mortality at different periods: infant (under-1) and 1-4 years. We do so because these different mortality indicators are unlikely influenced by the same factors (Muldoon et al., 2011). Infant mortality is good marker of the quality of care, while mortality of older children is mainly caused by environmental factors such as political and medical infrastructure, poor access to clean drinking water, and lack of sanitation. We also use DHS data in order to estimate the effect of the tsunami on the main factors of child mortality. To identify relevant factors of deaths among children under-5, we use data from the Institute of Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME)² on the causes of death in Indonesia. Note however that unlike mortality rates, information on intermediary outcomes are only asked for children under-5 hence the period covers ranges from 1992 to 2012 with an interruption between 1997 and 2002.

¹Note that the data set collected in 1997 contains this information for all children born.

²Global of Disease compare tool: https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare/

Lastly, we present the effect of the tsunami on the other transmission channels identified in the literature review. To do so, we use data from the Indonesia Database for Policy and Economic Research (World Bank, 2015) that contain province-level information (n=33)³ on fiscal, economic, infrastructure, social and demographic indicators over the period 1976-2014. The data set combines data from the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance, and Central Bureau of Statistics special reports and primarily collected data by the World Bank. Vital system access measures include the percentage of households with access to safe water⁴ and safe sanitation⁵ and were based on the National Socioeconomic Survey. Information was available between 1996 and 2013 but was missing in 2000, 2001, 2002, and 2005.

3.2 Empirical Strategy

A naive analysis consisting of a direct comparison of health outcomes in Aceh to those observed in other Indonesian provinces would be misleading given that Aceh was distinctly different from the rest of Indonesia given its long history of civil conflicts, its limited geographical access and its high poverty level (Fan, 2006). As a result, the rest of Indonesia is not a valid counterfactual as highlighted by the differences in the trend in child mortality Figure 1 ⁶. However, recreating a synthetic Aceh is an attractive option since other provinces shared similar characteristics. We can see that given the geography of Indonesia, many others provinces are remote. In addition, Aceh has never been the poorest province of Indonesia. Finally, the Indonesian provinces of Maluku, Kalimantan, Central Sulawesi, West Timor and Papua were also been affected by communal conflicts prior 2004.

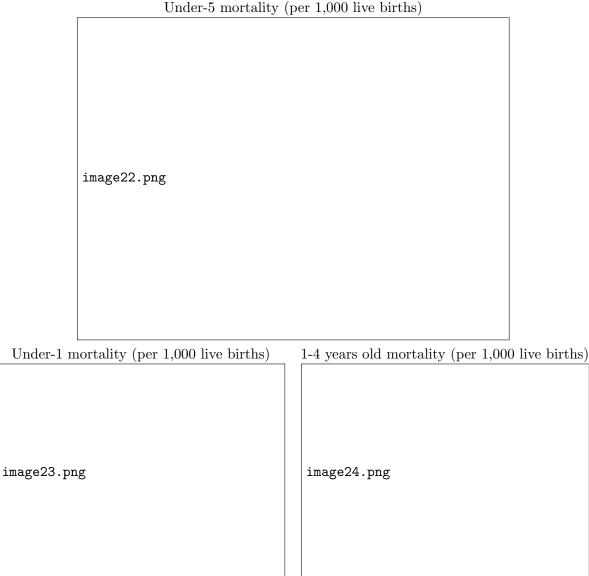
³INDO-DPER lists 34 provinces, however, seven were created after 2000 (Bangka Belitung, Riau islands, Banten, Gorontalo, West Sulawesi, North Maluku, West Papua) and one was created after the period covered by our analysis (Kalimantan Utar). In addition, one province (East Timor) became independent in 1999 and was dropped from DHS 1997.

⁴ Safe water includes access to bottled water, refill water, tap water, protected well more than 10 meters from a septic tank and protected spring located more than 10 meters from a septic tank.

⁵ Safe sanitation means that each household had access to a private toilet and did not use a shared or public toilet.

⁶Note that on the graphs presented, we observe a peak in child mortality in 2001 that is particularly severe for children aged 1-4 years old. This peak in mortality is due to the civil conflict that was taking place in Aceh and that was particularly severe this year (Freeman & Than, 2002)

Figure 1: Trend in child mortality in Aceh and rest of Indonesia



Instead, in order to reconstruct a valid counterfactual we employ the synthetic control method introduced by Abadie and Gardeazabal (2003) and Abadie et al. (2010). The synthetic control method involves constructing a counterfactual, the synthetic control, for the treated province, Aceh, by taking the weighted average of the unaffected provinces that minimises the root mean squared prediction error (RMSPE). For each outcome, a synthetic Aceh is created so that its pre-tsunami outcome trend mimics the one observed in Aceh province. The effect of the tsunami on child mortality is estimated by comparing the level of outcome in Aceh to the one observed in synthetic Aceh post-tsunami.

There are many advantages of the synthetic control method over others quasi-experimental designs. Unlike matching, the synthetic control is a combination of control units, which provides a better comparison group for the treated unit than a single unit alone. Secondly, because the counterfactual is constructed by using all pre-tsunami years, the method, unlike difference-in-differences, accounts for unobserved heterogeneity that is time-varying (Abadie et al., 2010). In addition, the method allows to assess visually the quality of the counterfactual constructed by looking at the actual discrepancy between the treated unit and the combination of untreated units that provides the counterfactual (Abadie, 2019).

In keeping with the Abadie et al. (2010) model, let the observed outcome for province i in year t be defined as Y_{it} . We define the outcome in province i that has been impacted by the tsunami as Y_{it}^I . We define the outcome for province i that have not been impacted by the tsunami as Y_{it}^N . If there are J provinces not affected by the tsunami, potential synthetic controls, W, would be a weighted sum of control provinces such that $(J \times 1)$ weighting $W = (w_2, \ldots, w_{J+1})'$, where w_j is the contribution of each control province to the synthetic Aceh with a positive weight. Note that all of the weighted contributions of control provinces sum to 1.

For this analysis we are concerned with the effect of the tsunami on province i at year t which we will identify as α_{it} . Therefore, the effect of the tsunami for province i at year $t > T_0$ can be defined as $\alpha_{it} = Y_{it}^I - Y_{it}^N$ given that T_0 represents all years before and including 2004. Because Y_{it}^I is observed for Aceh, i=1, to estimate α_{it} we simply need to estimate Y_{it}^N .

The synthetic control method choses weights of these donor provinces such that the distance between pre-intervention characteristics and outcomes for the treated district, Aceh (X_1) , and for the donor districts (X_0) is minimized. Therefore, the synthetic control for unit i is:

$$\hat{Y}_{1t}^{N} = \sum_{j=2}^{j=j+1} w_{j}^{*} Y_{jt} \text{ for } t > T_{0}$$

And the effect of the tsunami for Aceh, i=1 , is $\widehat{\alpha}_{1t}=~Y_{1t}-\widehat{Y}_{1t}^N.$

Since the synthetic control model minimizes the distance between pre-intervention characteristics and outcomes, the optimal vector W* is chosen such that the distance between X_1 and X_0 W is minimized, where V minimizes the RMSPE denoted $\frac{1}{S_1}$:

$$||X_1 - X_0 W||_{V} = \sqrt{X_1 - X_0 W)' V(X_1 - X_0 W)}$$

Sometimes covariates are included in both X_1 and X_0 in order to minimize the RMSPE. In our case, we chose to use all pre-treatment outcomes values without covariates in the main specification since it is the specification that allows us to apply the SCM on the longest time period and to have the largest number of units in the donor pool. While there is no specific recommendation about the variables that should be used in the SCM in Abadie et al. (2010), there is evidence supporting that different specifications used in synthetic control applications may lead to different results and different conclusions (Ferman et al., 2020). We conduct robustness checks in order to prove that different specifications would not affect our conclusion. Following Abadie et al. (2010), we also use three pre-treatment outcome values alongside covariates using two sets of data sets (IDPR and DHS data). Covariates from IDPR data were only available for 19 provinces and 17 years (1996-2012) and DHS data were available for 25 provinces and 26 years (1992-2017). However given that the inclusion of these covariates led to a large reduction of our panel due to missing data and to a larger RMSPE, we chose not to include covariates in the main results presented. We however present the results when including covariates in Appendix 4.

Composition of the donor pool and characteristics of Aceh are presented in Appendix 5.

In order to test whether the effects obtained are not due to chance, we use placebo tests as defined in Abadie et al. (2010). The placebo tests apply the synthetic control method to each unit of the donor pool. If this distribution in placebo effects denoted $\hat{\alpha}_{1t}^{PL}$ yields gaps as large as the estimated effect of the treated unit, then it is likely that the estimated effect observed in the treated unit was observed by chance. The p-value estimates the proportion of control units that have an estimated effect at least as large as that of the treated unit. The one-sided p-values of post-treatment positive effects are given by p-value= $\Pr(\hat{\alpha}_{1t}^{PL} \geq \hat{\alpha}_{1t})$. However, it should be noted that placebo effects may be large in the presence of large RMSPE, which will cause p-values to be too conservative. In order to account for this, we adjust $\hat{\alpha}_{1t}$ for the quality of pre-treatment matches. To do this, we divide post-treatment effects by the corresponding pre-treatment match quality $\overleftarrow{s_1}$ to get a standardized effect measure and report the standardized p-value i.e. the proportion of placebo standardized effects that are at least as large as the main standardized effect for each post-treatment period. Untrimmed placebo tests graphs are

presented in Appendix 6a and trimmed placebo tests graphs in Appendix 6b.

A consideration regarding the composition of the donor pool is its potential contamination. If

some units of the donor pool are affected by the tsunami it will lead to an underestimation of its

impact and to overestimation of the significance level (p-value). We exclude in all the estimates

Aceh's neighbour province, Sumatra Utara, because this province was directly affected by the

tsunami as shown in Figure 2 and was indirectly affected by population movement since most

Acehnese who left Aceh were displaced to North Sumatra. In addition, one may want to note

that at the time of the tsunami, Indonesia had 33 provinces but 7 provinces (West Java, Bangka

Belitung, Riau islands, North Sulawesi, South Sulawesi, Maluku and Papua) were created after

2000 i.e. 13 years after the beginning of our child cohort and one province (North Kalimantan)

had missing value. This explains why the donor pool contains 24 units.

Figure 2: Number of tsunami related deaths per province

Source: Authors

4 Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. One can note that before the tsunami, child mortality indicators in Aceh were generally lower than in the donor pool. However, in 2005, under-5 mortality in Aceh is as much as twice larger than the one we observe in the donor pool (108 deaths per 1,000 live births in Aceh against 57 in the donor pool). Five years later, we can note that the level of under-5 mortality in Aceh has converged to the level we observe in the donor pool. Average in under-5 mortality rate however hides some important differences in trends between infant and children aged 1-4 years old. Table 1 shows that for children under-1, mortality in Aceh was still greater than the one in the donor pool in 2010 (53 deaths per 1,000 live births in Aceh against 38 in the donor pool) while mortality of children aged 1-4 was lower in Aceh than in the donor pool (0 death per 1,000 live births in Aceh against 14 in the donor pool).

Table 1 also shows a similar pattern observed for causes of mortality than for under-5 mortality.

Namely the fact that before the tsunami, Aceh had lower coverage of assisted delivery, facility-based delivery, tetanus immunisation and access to safe water and sanitation than the donor pool. However, five years after the tsunami, all indicators, except the access to safe sanitation, have converged to the level we observe in the donor pool.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

	1990		1995		2000		2005		2010		2015	
Indicators	Aceh	Donor pool										
Under-5 mortality per 1,000 live births	65	109	56	73	57	69	108	57	50	47	41	38
Under-1 mortality per 1,000 live births	48	73	34	56	43	49	72	40	48	35	28	27
1-4 year old mortality per 1,000 live births	18	39	22	19	14	20	38	17	1	13	13	12
Assisted delivery from qualified provider (%)	-	-	36	40	-	-	45	51	85	65	87	75
Home-based delivery (%)	-	-	90	78	-	-	78	58	40	44	19	26
Antenatal care from qualified provider (%)	-	-	89	0.91	-	-	88	94	99	95	97	96
Prenatal tetanus injec- tion (%)	_	-	61	73	-	-	41	73	71	74	57	73
Access to safe water (%)	-	-	25	35	27	38	34	46	53	56	63	66
Access to safe sanitation (%)	-	-	46	50	51	55	48	60	59	64	67	73

4.2 Effect on Child mortality

Results of the effect of the tsunami on child mortality are presented in Table 2. The results indicate that the tsunami only led to a significant increase in under-5 mortality in 2004 and in 2005, the year that followed the natural disaster. Results highlight that there is no longer term effect of the tsunami on child mortality.

Results presented in Figure 3 show two distinct peaks in under-5 mortality. The first one that

led to an increase in mortality of 65 deaths per 1,000 live births was observed in 2005 and was explained by an increase in mortality among both under-1 and children aged 1-4.

The second peak, which is of a lower magnitude than the first one, occurred in 2009 and is driven by an increase in mortality of children under-1. Infant mortality increased by 27 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2009 and by 31 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2010. These effects are large since this represents an increase in mortality close to 150% in comparison to its level in 2003. Over the same period, the tsunami is found to have led to a statistically significant reduction in mortality of children aged between 1 and 4 years old. This reduction of 15 deaths per 1000 live births in 2011 represents a reduction of 65% in child mortality in comparison to its level in 2003.

Table 2: Effect of the tsunami on child mortality indicators

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Under-5 mortality	54.837***	64.969***	16.379	7.181	-11.691	24.508**	9.989	-3.604	3.214	-1.125	-5.212	16.579	-2.026	-9.209
Under-1 mortality	36.249***	45.269***	22.318	15.885	-12.243	27.170***	31.020*	16.612	7.595	5.093	-5.403	12.800	-0.560	11.712
1-4 year old mortality	12.351**	12.189	-0.436	-6.763	-6.362	-11.408	-16.141	-15.439**	-14.367**	-4.314	0.605	-0.564	-2.397	-16.176

Notes: The tables report the effects of the tsunami on child mortality indicators measured by the difference in level in the treated unit and in the synthetic control. P-values are estimated by calculating the proportions of placebo standardized effects that are at least as large as the main standardized effect for each post treatment period. The donor pool includes 24 provinces.

Donor pool composition and RMSPE are presented in Appendix 5 and placebo test in Appendix 6.

Under-5 mortality (per 1,000 live births)

Under-5 mortality (per 1,000 live births)

Under-1 mortality (per 1,000 live births)

1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)

image27.png

image28.png

4.3 Causes of child mortality

Information collated from IHME on the main causes of death show that in 2005 the main causes of deaths among children under-5 were diarrhoeal diseases and lower respiratory diseases, accounting, respectively, for 19% and 17% of total deaths. In 2009, these two disease groups were also the main causes of deaths among children under-1, accounting, respectively, for 30% and 19% of total deaths. Lower respiratory diseases and diarrhoea are multifactorial diseases that are mainly the result of poor environmental conditions. Conversely, neonatal birth complications were the main cause of death among neonates. In order to investigate the effect of the

tsunami on several causes of child mortality, we estimate its impact on the place and assistance during delivery at birth, antenatal care, prenatal tetanus injection, access to safe water and sanitation.

Results presented in Table 3 and Figure 4 show that overall the tsunami improved intermediary child health indicators in the medium term. For example, there is a significant increase in the proportion of assisted delivery in Aceh from 2007. In addition, there is an increase in antenatal care coverage in the medium term. Results also highlight a large increase in tetanus injection and a reduction in the proportion of mothers who deliver at home, although those effects are not statistically significant.

Conversely, results also highlight the detrimental effect of tsunami on vital systems. We show that the tsunami led to a statistically significant decrease in the access to safe water and sanitation the years that followed the tsunami.

While those results can provide some justifications for the observed short term increase in child mortality and the reduction of child mortality of older children in the medium term, the increase in mortality observed among under-1 in 2009 and 2010 remains unexplained.

Table 3: Effect of the tsunami on the causes of deaths

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Assisted delivery from qualified provider (%)	0.043	0.021	0.007	0.151*	0.134	0.269**	0.242***	0.156	0.167	0.123	0.138	0.126	0.063	0.155
Home delivery (%)	0.063	0.033	-0.006	-0.082	-0.0871	-0.072	-0.149	-0.059	-0.143	-0.098	-0.086	-0.151	-0.233	-0.211
Antenatal care from (%) qualified provider(%)	-0.050*	-0.034**	0.038*	0.024	0.043	0.071***	0.084**	0.044*	0.084**	-0.005	-0.005	0.045**	0.041*	0.062*
Prenatal tetanus injection (%)	-0.050	-0.200*	0.013	-0.070	0.132	0.153	0.153	0.167	0.108	0.103	0.019	-0.013	0.064	0.092
Access to safe water (%)	0.054	-0.045	-0.051	-0.074	-0.067	-0.008	0.005	0.043	0.026	0.030	0.004	0.024	0.041	0.051
Access to safe sanitation (%)	0.028	-0.085*	-0.110***	-0.066	-0.019	-0.017	-0.018	-0.029	-0.030	-0.047	-0.042	-0.051	-0.044	-0.044

Notes: The tables report the effects of the tsunami on intermediary health indicators measured by the difference in level in the treated unit and in the synthetic control. P-values are estimated by calculating the proportions of placebo standardized effects that are at least as large as the main standardized effect for each post treatment period.

Figure 4: Synthetic control for estimation of the effect of the tsunami on causes of child mortality

Assisted delivery at birth (%)

Received antenatal care (%)

Home-based delivery (%)

Tetanus immunisation before birth (%)

Access to sanitation (%)

Access to safe water (%)

4.4 Robustness checks

We conduct several robustness checks. Firstly, we remove DI Yogyakarta from the donor pool given that this province was affected by an earthquake in 2006.⁷ By doing so we obtained close results but the quality of the synthetic control constructed was not as good given that this unit accounts for a large weight for several child mortality outcomes.

Gray et al. (2014) estimate that two-thirds of individuals who were living in severely affected area at the time of the disaster moved in the four months that followed the tsunami. Population displacement and returns may affect per capita health outcomes in the donor pool, hence it is important to ensure that effects on child mortality are not driven by migration patterns. We show in Table 4 that our results are not driven by changes in the population growth in the donor pool. More specifically, Figure 5 shows that the increase in population growth that occurred after the tsunami was not attributable to displaced populations coming back to Aceh, since there was an increase in population growth in the rest of the country. In addition, it is apparent that since 2007 population growth remains steady in both Aceh and its synthetic control.

The changes in government spending allocations may also potentially have been caused by the large influx in aid to central government and might have resulted in a reallocation of funds from other provinces towards Aceh. It is crucial to argue that an absence of effect is explained by Aceh's resilience rather than by a degradation in outcomes in the donor pool. We further identify in Table 4 and Figure 6 that although there was a noteworthy increase of per capita health and infrastructure function expenditure in Aceh, this did not occur at the expense of other Indonesian provinces. One may want to note that the increase in function expenditure did not come from aid relief because deconcentration funds, emergency funds, and reintegration of

⁷ Results are available from authors upon request.

GAM funds were first channelled through Indonesian National Board for Disaster Management before being channelled through the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction Agency and do not seem to have been recorded in regional budgets.

The peace accord provided Aceh special autonomy status and new legislation on the governing of Aceh which provided additional revenue from central government general allocation funds and an increased share of own source revenue from a change in the revenue-sharing arrangements of oil and gas revenue (World Bank 2009, World Bank 2008, World Bank 2006). These additional funds were meant to increase revenue and public spending in order to improve infrastructure, education, health and social programs. Additionally, Aceh saw an increase in their province tax revenue with the ending of violence, which previously had prohibited local government from collecting taxes and "increased economic activity generated by the influx of tsunami aid money into the local economy" (World Bank, 2006). Hence, this result suggests that the peace accord and subsequent changes to local government budgets led to an increase in government spending but did not take away central funding received by non-affected provinces.

In addition we provide a series of purely methodological robustness tests as suggested in Abadie, 2019. We first test the absence of anticipation effect by running our estimation while backdating the tsunami 5 years before its actual date (1999) and present results in Appendix 7a. The fact that the estimated effect of the tsunami appears after 2003 even when the event is artificially backdated in the data provides credibility to the synthetic control estimator of the tsunami and confirm absence of anticipation effect. In addition, we investigate how results are influenced by the choice of units in the donor pool. To do this, we conduct leave-one-out re-analysis taking from the sample one-at-a-time each of the Indonesian provinces that contribute to the synthetic control. Results of the leave-one-out re-analysis are presented in Appendix 7b and show that all leave-one-out estimates closely follow mortality indicators before the tsunami. The results are all consistent with results produced using the full donor pool.

Table 4: Long-term effect of the tsunami on population growth, health and infrastructures spending

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Population growth (%)	-0.037	-0.034	-0.012	0.000	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	0.006	0.004
Health Function expenditure per capita in IDR ⁸	-5,365	-7,287	-9,318	5,957	$30,\!570$	75,066*	88,958	105,950	104,419
Infrastructure Function expenditure per capita in IDR	5,491	-15,004	-2,053	$71,\!589$	355,985**	558,843***	386,903***	277,323*	305,956*

Notes: The tables report the effects of the tsunami on indicators measured by the difference in level in the treated unit and in the synthetic control. P-values are estimated by calculating the proportions of placebo standardized effects that are at least as large as the main standardized effect for each post treatment period.

Figure 5: Pre- and post-tsunami trends in Aceh and its synthetic control for population growth

Figure 6: Pre- and post-tsunami trends in Aceh and its synthetic control for government expenditures per capita

Health function expenditure (IDR)

Infrastructure function expenditure (IDR)

5 Discussion

Our paper makes use of the inability to forecast earthquakes and the existence of a large control group to reconstruct a valid counterfactual using the synthetic control method to estimate the effect of the 2004 tsunami on child mortality in Aceh province. We find that while there was no long term effect of the Indian Ocean tsunami on child mortality, it affected all children the year that followed the tsunami. Our results however highlight different patterns of mortality for different age groups. We find that the tsunami reduced mortality among children 1-4 years old in the medium term but increased mortality of younger children over the same period.

We showed that the increase in child mortality in 2005 is likely to be explained by a degradation in access to safe water and sanitation. In contrast, the investigation of the causes of mortality for children under-1 observed in 2009 and 2010 did not provide a clear explanation of the causes of death since there was no evidence of any deterioration in prenatal care and delivery. Selection into childbearing could also have longer term impact on child mortality. For instance it has been shown that the increase in fertility observed after the tsunami was driven by women who lost a child in the disaster and by women who did not have any children before the disaster (Nobles et al. 2014). While there is no available evidence regarding the characteristics of the second group, it has been shown that socio-economic factors did not explain much the probability of dying among women of childbearing age (Frankenberg et al., 2011). As a result, it is unlikely that the second peak in mortality observed among infants post-tsunami is due to selection into childbearing. While we cannot explicitly test for the reason of the delayed increased in mortality among the youngest children, the timing coincides with the end of aid relief. The results highlight that despite increase in assisted delivery, antenatal care and tetanus immunisation, there was an increase in infant mortality when international reconstruction projects ended. The World Bank 2009 reports highlights the effect on the end of aid on macroeconomic indicators by stating that "growth in Aceh's non-oil and gas declined sharply in 2008 as the reconstruction efforts winds down. As many reconstruction actors (NGOs, GOI) wind down or significantly scale down their operation in the province, sectors linked to the reconstruction effort that had led to growth in Aceh since 2005 registered low or negative growth" (World Bank, 2009a). Hence, the most likely explanation for the increase in mortality among infants in the medium term is the decrease in quality of care resulting from the end of aid projects.

The decrease in mortality among older children in the medium term coincides with improvement in environmental factors. However, this result could also be explained by an 'harvesting' effect, namely the fact that if the tsunami killed the most vulnerable children before the age of 1, this selection in mortality may lead to a decrease in mortality later on among children of this age cohort and could explain the decrease in mortality observed later on among children aged between 1 an 4 years old.

The main limitation of our analysis relates to the potential contamination of the donor pool due to misplaced populations. For instance, if those with high morbidity were more likely to leave Aceh because of the tsunami, the effect of tsunami on morbidity would be underestimated. However, Gray et al. (2014) finds that a small proportion of total Acehnese families left their pre-tsunami home by April 2005 and that few were displaced from their community to Sumatra Utara, which we have excluded from the donor pool. Additionally, the analysis of population shows little difference in population between Aceh and the counterfactual over time and that there was no large increase in population in the counterfactual post-tsunami, which would have signalled a migration effect away from Aceh to donor pool provinces.

There is also little concern of aid funds contaminating the donor pool since many international relief agencies directly provided services in Aceh instead of funnelling aid through the local or national government. In fact, the Aceh government created a non-political body which was responsible for coordinating local reconstruction efforts with the help the Multi-Donor Fund to channel aid funds. This effort was revered as highly successful at retaining aid commitments and ensuring their effective local use (Masyrafah and McKeon, 2008). Furthermore, the analysis shows that the counterfactual, consisting of the donor provinces, did not have an abnormally large increase in government expenditure after the tsunami. This suggests that aid did not create an exogenous increase in government health budget across donor provinces.

The final hypothesized limitation of our findings is the possibility that the results are overestimated given the potential of a shift in central government funding due to the 2005 peace accord. More specifically, the peace accord gave Aceh province a larger percentage of its oil and gas revenues, previously kept by the central government (World Bank, 2009b, Shah and Cardozo, 2014). This dramatically increased Aceh's local government budget, which was used for investment in local services (Shah and Cardozo, 2014). If the central government previously dispersed these oil revenue funds to other provinces, and then post-peace accord may have taken these funds away from the donor provinces, so that the shift in donor province budgets would degrade the donor pool health function expenditure and possibly influence health outcomes. If a change in donor province government budgets is not exogenous, but targeted and reallocated from donor provinces to Aceh province, then the tsunami treatment effects would be overestimated.

Another limitation is the fact that information on child mortality is reported by the mother in DHS. It is likely that mothers who had children who died during the tsunami also died and this could explain why our results should not be used to estimate the number of children who died during the tsunami in 2004.

6 Conclusion

Each year there are over 300 natural disasters globally, resulting in millions of victims and economic losses near USD\$100 billion. With the increase incidence in climate variation and intensity of natural disasters, understanding the impact of these shocks on population health is vital to improve resilience of health systems. We investigate the effect of one the deadliest natural disasters in history and find that the disaster increased child mortality immediately after the tsunami. However, we show mixed evidence of the combined effect of such disaster on child mortality in the medium term since children were affected differently depending on their age. Our systematic literature review identified several transmission channels in the Indonesian context through which the tsunami may have impacted child health. While we were not able to disentangle these impacts empirically ,the review confirmed that the response to this disaster was complex and that the coordinated international aid played an important role in the reconstruction process in Aceh.

6.1 Appendix 1: Literature review method

The literature search focused on two elements, searches that would return articles that focused on direct health outcomes post-tsunami and articles that would illuminate hypothesized pathways to longer-term health effects. Below are the search strings and results of each of the two searches.

Table 5: Search strategy: short term effect

Health outcomes				
search string				
Health AND		Tsunami AND		Indonesia
Health AND health OR sanitati water quality OR deliver* OR birt morbidity OR m OR health expendit health ADJ2 spend mental health OR m OR health ADJ2 ou OR access to ca health ADJ2 impa health seeking be OR health seeking be OR health seeking havior OR hospita nurse* OR out of payment	assisted ch OR ortality ure OR ing OR aedicine atcome* or OR ct* OR haviour ng be-al* OR	tsunami OR ea quake OR nat Quake OR nat disaster* AND 2 lity OR OR ine ne* OR		Indonesia Indonesia* OR Aceh OR Sumatra OR Sumatera Utara OR Nanggroe OR Banda Aceh
Health Outcomes Database Search				
Results				
Database	Date		No.	Results
Medline/PubMed	June 20)17	26	
EMBASE	June 20)17	31	
Global Health	June 20)17	12	
Scopus	June 20)17	5	
Web of Science:	June 2017		151	
Core Collection				
IBSS	June 20		22	
Social Policy and Practice	April 20	017	0	

Table 6: Search strategy: medium and long term effect

Pathways to						
long-term health						
outcomes search						
string						
Factors of Interest	AND	Tsunami AND		Indonesia		
religion OR Islam O	R civil-	tsunami OR ea	rth-	Indonesia* OR Aceh OR		
war OR conflict (OR aid	quake OR nat	ural	Sumatra OR Sumatera		
OR donation OF	R gov-	disaster* AND	2004	Utara OR Nanggroe OR		
ern* OR economy (OR eco-			Banda Aceh		
nomics OR society OR wel-						
fare OR developme						
growth OR innovat	ion OR					
re-construction OR	invest-					
ment OR relief O	R cor-					
ruption OR trauma OR						
poverty						
Pathways to						
Long-Term						
Health Outcomes						
Database Search						
Results						
Database	Date			Results		
Medline/PubMed	June 20)17	73			
EMBASE	June 20)17	82			
Global Health	June 20)17	37			
Scopus	June 20)17	18	_		
Web of Science:	June 20)17	531			
Core Collection						
IBSS	June 20)17	170			
Social Policy and	April 20	017	4			
Practice						

Once the articles were collected from the two searches they were subjected to title and abstract review from which it was decided that if they met inclusion criteria they would be kept in the review. Once articles were selected for inclusion only those that were able to be accessed in full text were used for the review.

Figure 7: Study flow diagram

6.2 Appendix 2: Literature review results

6.2.1 Negative effect

Author/ Add insti- tution	Study Type	Method	Population/ Study Size	Modifying Factor	Outcome of In- terest	Correlation or causal effect
Guha-Sapir et al. (2007)	Peer reviewed analysis of patterns of disease after tsunami	Cross-sectional record study of Red-Cross field hospital	1,188 Aceh resident records January 15-31	Limited care seek- ing behaviour	Morbidity	Odds of chronic vs acute disease increased by 16.4% per day (95%CI 7.8-25.6) until the 23^{rd} and decreased 13.1% after (95%CI 6.6-19.1) signalling a delay in care for acute conditions that have negative implications for long-term health
De Jong et al. (2005) Written for Medecins Sans Frontieres	Field report in peer reviewed journal	Observations from field workers	Medical, logistical, water/sanitation and mental health teams using rapid assessments	Cultural views of mental health	Morbidity	Negative association
Doocy et al. (2009)	Peer reviewed demo- graphic survey collection and analysis	Surveys of mortality and injury impact	Three surveys across districts in Aceh with 7310 households	Location, demographics	Injury, morbid- ity, mortality, care seeking behaviour	Odds of mortality 1.41% (95%CI 1.27-1.58) times greater for women, Odds of injury 0.81(95%CI 0.61-0.96) for women. Highest mortality 23.6% (95% CI 17.8-29.4 in west coast versus 5.3% (95% CI 1.3-8.0 east coast.
Jeremijenko et al. (2007)	Peer reviewed tetanus outbreak summary	Standard reporting and active case finding report	Clinical review in 8 hospitals in Aceh	Limited immunization, illness, poor access to care	Morbidity, mortality, child health	Mortality rate 19%, projection that limited care was a result of inability to reach a hospital leading to negative morbidity/mortality outcomes
Pascapurnama et al. (2016)	Peer reviewed system- atic literature review of tetanus outbreaks	Systematic literature review of PubMed, WHO website and books	16 publications reviewed	Poor access to care and low vaccination	Morbidity, mortality	Positive association between limited access to health care facilities and case fatality ration (18.9%)
Redwood-Campbell and Riddez (2012)	Peer reviewed descrip- tion of post-disaster ill- ness and casualty	Prospective reporting of de- pression and Post-traumatic Stress Disorder screening in Red Cross field hospital	5 day review of 271 pa- tients registered in ICRC hospital in Banda Aceh	Limited access to mental health care	Morbidity	24% of patients had at least 4/7 depression/PTSD symptoms yet 1.4% received mental health diagnosis. Study authors report that there is a need for better assessment and mental health response
Gupta et al. (2007)	Peer reviewed study of factors associated with water contamination	Water quality sampling and survey to households about water storage	Survey of 1,127 households in Aceh Besar, Simeulue and Nias	Poor water quality and sanitation	Morbidity	Found improved water sources and handling was associated with decreased risk of contamination. Author notes relationship between water quality and morbidity but does not test morbidity
Patunru (2015)	Peer reviewed analysis of Indonesian progress towards meeting millen- nium development goals	Multivariate logistic regression analysis of WHO and UNICEF data	N/A	Poor water quality and lack of improved sanitation infrastructure	Morbidity	Individuals without access to improved sanitation infrastructure have 1.27 [CI 1.25; 1.29] times the risk (27 percent higher chance) of having diarrhoea

Athukorala and Re-	Peer reviewed economic	Review of past disasters and		Socio-political	Limited disas-	Suggested association
sosudarmo (2005)	impact and disaster	response, Impact assessment		instability, con-		Suggested association
sosudarmo (2005)	•	of 2004 tsunami		strained informa-	ter response, morbidity	
	management report	oi 2004 tsunami		tion sharing, poor	morbidity	
				infrastructure		
Webb (2005)	Peer reviewed account of	Emergency needs assessment	Non-statistically represen-	Poor nutrition ac-	Morbidity, mor-	Authors suggest that "there was a danger of major loss
Webb (2005)	food and nutrition as-	0 0	· -		tality	
		conducted by UN agencies	tative of population, 30 lo-	cess	tanty	of life in the absence of [food] interventions"
	sessment teams experi-	with the Indonesian Govern-	cations reviewed			
	ence in Aceh	ment	100 11 10 11		26 1414	
Agustini et al.	Peer reviewed analysis	Child Post-	482 11-19 year old tsunami	Trauma expo-	Morbidity	Positive association between trauma exposure and per-
(2011)	of association between	Traumatic Stress Reaction	survivors in Aceh	sure, mental		sistence of PTSD symptoms 4.5 years later
	trauma exposure and	Index survey & Traumatic		health, parental		
	persistence of PTSD	Exposure Severity Scale		mortality		
	symptoms					
Frankenberg et al.	Peer reviewed analysis	Survey analysis of Post-	20,500 adults from Aceh	Tsunami expo-	Morbidity	As distance from coast increased, PTSR scores decreased
(2008)	of correlation between	Traumatic Stress Reactivity	and North Sumatra 5 to 17	sure	(mental health)	indicating better mental health. Distance from coast
	PTSR and tsunami ex-	interviews before and after	months after tsunami			(KM)02 in PTSR score (95%CI0301)
	posure intensity	tsunami				
Frankenberg et al.	Unpublished manuscript	Multivariate linear regression	4,170 children in Aceh	Tsunami expo-	Morbidity	Children exposed to tsunami in utero have a lower height
(2013a)	investigating the effect of	comparing height of cohorts		sure	(child height)	of one third than children born 3-4 years earlier.
	tsunami on child height	in utero at tsunami to an				
		older cohort				
Frankenberg et al.	Peer reviewed analysis of	Multilevel linear regression	27,624 STAR respondents	Community de-	Morbidity	1-point increase in exposure to tsunami is associated
(2012)	traumatic stress	model with satellite mapping	from Aceh and North	struction	(post-traumatic	with .81 increase in PTSR score. Community destruc-
		and informant interviews	Sumatra. Additional		stress)	tion worsens stress reaction.
			16,709 of these were			
			interviewed.			
(Frankenberg, 2007)	Peer reviewed analysis	Descriptive statistics	Community and facility	Tsunami expo-	Morbidity	High destruction of health services after the tsunami.
	of the condition of pub-		characteristics located in	sure	(health ser-	
	lic services after the		the 591 villages targeted		vices)	
	tsunami		by STAR			
Irmansyah et al.	Peer reviewed analysis	Multiple linear regression	783 people in Aceh	Displacement,	Morbidity	Each increase in impact level had .416 increase in pre-
(2010)	of determinants of psy-	analysis of self-reported	both displaced and non-	tsunami exposure	(mental health)	dicted SRQ-20 score of post-traumatic stress symptoms
	chological morbidity af-	questionnaire of disaster	displaced.			IDP status had .324 increase in predicted score.
	ter tsunami	exposure and measure of				
		resilience				
Lee et al. (2015)	Peer reviewed analysis	Multivariate linear modelling	138 displaced and non-	Displacement dis-	Morbidity	Displacement distance predicted impairment, one KM of
	of causes of impairment	of predictors of impairment	displaced Acehnese chil-	tance	(mental health)	displacement increased interpersonal subscalse score by
	in tsunami-exposed chil-	using Brief Impairment Scale	dren			.213 points (.0335393, p=.026) and impairment by .149
	dren					points (.015-0.282, p=.033)
	I	<u>I</u>	I	l	I.	

Guha-Sapir and van	Peer reviewed analysis	Epidemiological profile of dis-		Illness	Morbidity	Negative association observed between increased in-
Panhuis (2009)	of infection disease and	ease survey before and after				stance of wounds mixed with lack of vaccination in Aceh
	injury consequences of	tsunami using field hospital				against tetanus and tetanus infections leading to in-
	tsunami	records and historic records				creased morbidity
Schwab et al. (2016)	Peer reviewed as-	Wet mount microscopy	159 women screened from	Stress, demo-	Morbidity	Study found higher than normal pre-term delivery in this
	sessment of preterm		Banda Aceh in February-	graphics		population which they suspect high levels of stress was
	deliveries associated		June of 2005 post-disaster			a risk factor in negative birth outcome
	with infection					
Urlainis et al.	Peer reviewed litera-	Literature Review of extreme	8 events, including the	Lack of pre-	Morbidity	Author states that appropriate disaster alert systems and
(2014)	ture review of extreme	events impact on critical in-	2004 Indian Ocean tsunami	warning system		preparation could have reduced loss of life and that crit-
	weather events	frastructure and review of				ical infrastructure was destroyed because of poor design
		strategies and their imple-				and consideration of tsunami possibility
		mentation				
Hayat and Ama-	Peer reviewed analysis	Semi-structured interviews	Road infrastructure stake-	Corruption and	Road main-	Perceived negative impact of corruption and governance
ratunga (2014)	of political factors in-	with infrastructure stake-	holders (n=28) in 4 dis-	governance	tenance and	on infrastructure repair
	fluencing governance and	holders	tricts in Aceh		infrastructure	
	road development post-					
	disaster					
James (2006)	Australian National Uni-	Discussion		Corruption in	Infrastructure	Theorizes negative association
	versity report on corrup-			aid, weak gov-		
	tion: discussion paper			ernance, rapid		
				decentralization,		
				civil conflict		
Jayasuriya and Mc-	Working paper exam-	Comments on aid delivery ar-		Poor aid qual-	Infrastructure,	Discussed negative association (hypothesized?)
Cawley (2008) for	ining aid delivery and	rangements and challenges of		ity leading to	poverty allevia-	
Asian Development	reconstruction after	designing reconstruction pro-		increased cost	tion	
Bank	tsunami	gram with recommendations		of labour, cost		
				increase in con-		
				struction goods,		
				lack of local		
				participation in		
				reconstruction		
Jayasuriya and Mc-	Book reviews tsunami	Literature review of disaster		Aid coordination,	Infrastructure	Theory of negative association
Cawley (2010).	situation and aftermath	policy response and economic		labour market		
	for Asian Development	theory		changes, local		
	Bank			participation in		
				reconstruction,		
				weak governance		

World Bank (2005)	Situation report con- ducted by BAPPENAS, the Indonesian Govern- ment and international donors	Collection of reports	N/A	Tsunami Impact	Mortality, in- frastructure, health systems	Negative impact on mortality, health system capacity, infrastructure (exact detail reported throughout text of paper)
World Health Organization (2005)	WHO news release	Situation analysis of tsunami recovery process		Tsunami impact	Infrastructure and health sys- tem capacity	Negative impact observed (details reported throughout text of paper)
Ichwan (2011)	Peer reviewed analysis of Islamic Law in Aceh	Authors analysis of legal proceedings and political process		Influx of aid	Culture	Author finds that the introduction of new religious groups via aid efforts changed local religious interpre- tations of Islam
Adiyoso and Kanegae (2013)	Peer reviewed qualita- tive study	In-depth interviews and direct observation	6 Students and 8 community members from Banda Aceh	Religious educa- tion, culture and disaster education	Disaster pre- paredness : Mortality	N/A
Chang-Seng (2013)	Peer reviewed institutional-oriented analysis framework	Analysis of institutions and governance related to devel- opment of a tsunami early warning system		Civil conflict, rapid decen- tralization in governance, cul- ture	Disaster pre- paredness and response—- mortality	Suggested association weak institutions were a result of civil conflict and decentralization of government which lead to limited disaster response capacity
Grayman (2014)	Peer reviewed ethnographic case study	Analysis of email archives be- tween aid organization and medical staff		Poor aid quality and poor commu- nication between aid and health staff (culture)	Health system quality	Author hypothesizes negative association between use of electronic communication and patient outcome
Ismail et al. (2016)	Peer reviewed assessment of disaster preparedness	Household descriptive survey	Surveyed 827 random households in Aceh province	Disaster pre- paredness, cul- ture	Mortality	26% of participants had good knowledge of disaster pre- paredness after the tsunami, far below the 70% target which is hypothesized to have had a negative effect on tsunami outcomes
Lovholt et al. (2014)	Peer reviewed analysis of tsunami risk reduc- tion 10 years after the tsunami	Vulnerability assessment	Indonesia and Sri Lanka	Culture and disaster prepared- ness governance (tsunami aware- ness, income and employment, ethnic group)	Mortality	Concludes that improvements in preparedness have been made implying that previously cultural and governance factors hindered prevention

Marthoenis et al.	Peer reviewed literature	Review of published and un-	Medline search, limited re-	Cultural views	Mental health	Mental health systems have improved since before the
(2016)	review of mental health	published literature pertain-	sults prompted use of me-	of mental health,		tsunami, implying these factors limited mental health
	services in Aceh	ing to mental health in Aceh.	dia reports and google	limited access		system capacity and infrastructure leading to poor
			scholar	to care, lack of		tsunami outcomes. Stigma, limited access to care and
				political will to		political fluctuations still hinder mental health system
				develop mental		development.
				health services		
McNicoll (2011)	Peer reviewed histori-	N/A		Culture	Understanding	Primordial beliefs have negative impact on health
	cal account of conflict,				of illness, in-	seeking-behaviour, yet this is waning as acceptance of
	economics, demograph-				fertility and	clinical medicine has spread over time
	ics and culture's influ-				health seeking-	
	ence on development in				behaviour	
	Indonesia vs. Nigeria.					
Meilianda et al.	Peer reviewed analysis of	Qualitative analysis of focus	Beneficiaries and actors in-	Community per-	Mental health	Participants felt that aid and revitalization improved
(2017)	perceptions of recovery	group discussions using mind	volved in rehabilitation in	ceptions of the		mental health infrastructure and programs since very
	efforts	mapping analysis	Banda Aceh with 5 sessions	tsunami recovery		little was available pre-tsunami and they felt recovery
			of 80 different participants	process and aid		efforts improved governments attention to improving
				(culture?)		mental health infrastructure and programing.
Shah and Cardozo	Peer reviewed analysis of	Cultural, political and eco-	N/A	Shifts in govern-	Culture	Peace accord brought changes to budget for education
(2014)	educational system and	nomic framework analysis		ment budgets and		and lead to islamafication of local education
	social transformation in			decentralization		
	Aceh			following peace		
				agreement		
Smith (2015)	Peer reviewed personal	Ethnographic semi-	Author's connections in	Perceptions of	Care seeking	Author finds association between mistrust of local doc-
	account and survey sum-	structured interviews	Aceh	health system	behaviour	tors because of civil conflict and care seeking behaviours
	mary			quality due to		of Acehnese
				civil conflict		
				(culture)		
Daly (2015)	Peer reviewed qualita-	Semi-structured in per-	20 aid workers in Aceh	Religion, cultural	Effectiveness of	Negative association was perceived
	tive interviews	son qualitative survey and	both international and	practices, lack of	aid	
		interview	Acehnese	capacity of local		
				institutions from		
				civil conflict, poor		
				engagement of lo-		
				cal institutions by		
				external agency		

Thorburn (2009)	Peer reviewed analysis of	Program evaluation	N/A	Aid	Household in-	Almost three years after tsunami, many households re-
(,	recovery program impact		,		come, economic	turned to pre-tsunami income levels which the author
					re-development	attributes to food aid and subsidies, work programs and
					To development	livelihood assistance programs. Conversely, many busi-
						ness start-up programs and agriculture programs had
						mixed results as the author observes that economic de-
						velopment program was supply-driven, not needs based.
Doocy (2007) for	Tsunami mortality re-	Two-stage cluster survey of	Surveys of 1653 households	Location, demo-	Mortality, pop-	Highest mortality in 0-9yo and 70+yo, mortality highest
, ,	· ·			*	1	
the World Health	port	tsunami-displaced house-	across Aceh	graphics	ulation	in the west vs. east
Organization		holds				
Frankenberg et al.	Peer reviewed analysis of	Analysis of population level	43,606 respondents liv-	Demographics, lo-	Mortality	Children, older adults and females least likely to survive.
(2011)	correlates of survival	survey data with measure of	ing in Aceh and North	cation		Mortality highest in those living within 5KM of coast
		damage by location	Sumatra before and after			(1 in 20 died), within 1KM of coast (1-2 children and
			tsunami			females (15-44yo) died and (7 of 10 older women died).
						Men 15-44yo (1 in 4 died).
Rofi et al. (2006)	Peer reviewed analysis of	Household survey clustered	Survey of 20 clusters across	Location, demo-	Mortality	Mortality risk of females 1.9 [CI 1.5-3.0] times greater
	demographic impacts of	by internally displaced per-	Aceh Barat and Naga Raya	graphic character-		than males, children under 10 and adults over 60 had
	tsunami and assessment	son households and multi-	including 388 households	istics		2.3 [1.6-3.4] and 3.1 [1.9-4.9] times the risk of mortal-
	of displaced households	variate regression model for				ity, fisheries based households were 2.2 [1.2-11.4] times
		risk of death analysis				more likely to have a household member die, of those
						IDP household who settled, 91.7% [88.6-94.2] remained
						in the same district
Rassekh and San-	Peer reviewed assess-	Cross-sectional cluster sam-	31 clusters of barracks	Maternal mortal-	Care seeking	Mother caretakers had 1.88 [CI 1.04; 3.40] times the odds
tosham (2014)	ment of care-seeking	pling with stratification and	and non-IDP neighbour-	ity and displace-	behaviour,	of seeking formal care for their sick children and those
,	practices in IDP's living	multiple logistic regression	hoods with 1295 observa-	ment status	child health	who were not displaced had 2.7 [CI 1.38; 5.44] times the
	in barracks and non-	analysis	tions			odds of seeking formal care for their sick children
	IDP's living in their	3				g
	homes					
Du et al. (2012)	Peer reviewed analysis	Multivariate logistical regres-	155 child and parent dyads	Displacement and	Mental health	Children from barracks were three times more likely to
()	of children's' fears and	sion analysis of interviews	from barracks and compar-	residence in bar-		report fear than children from villages Odds ratio of
	psychological experience	with displaced families	ison village within 1KM of	racks		2.97(95% CI 1.00-8.85).
	since the tsunami	with displaced lamines	barrack	Lucks		2.07(0070 02 1.00-0.00).
Fan (2006) for the	Analysis of land rights		Sarrack	Governance, reli-	Housing quality	Perception that unequal land rights because of cultural,
World Bank						
world ballk	policy			gion	and poverty	religious, and legal precedents has a negative impact on
					disparities	economic development, poverty and infrastructure

6.2.2 Positive effect

				I		
Author	Study Type	Method	Population/ Study Size	Modifying Factor	Outcome of In-	Correlation or causal effect
					terest	
Chan et al. (2010)	Peer reviewed field re-	A balanced scorecard was cre-	7 clinics and 9 accommoda-	Aid quality and	Quality of	Positive association
	port published in WHO	ated and used to identify and	tion centres across Aceh in	assessment	health infras-	
	bulletin	assess performance targets	2007		tructure	
De Pee et al. (2007)	Peer reviewed program	Descriptive analysis and pro-	104,691 children 0-12 in	Food aid	Nutritional sta-	Authors correlate food aid to reduced anaemia and diar-
	evaluation in bulletin of	gram evaluation	transitional camps in Aceh		tus and health	rhoea prevalence
	UN university		in Nias between January		status of chil-	
			2005 and April 2006		dren	
Doocy et al. (2006)	Peer reviewed descrip-	Review of monitoring data	1,428 randomly selected	Cash for work	Household	Positive association
for Mercy Corp	tion and discussion of	and staff exit interviews	Cash-for-Work program	programs (aid)	economics and	
	program evaluation		participants in Banda		post-disaster	
			Aceh and Meulaboh		economic re-	
					covery	
Heger (2016)	PhD dissertation	Synthetic control analy-	Analysis range in number	Capital invest-	Economic	GDP in districts with the most aid surpassed the coun-
		sis of economic outcomes	of districts in Aceh used	ment and aid	Development	terfactual across all models even after aid ended sig-
		post-tsunami				nalling creative destruction effect
Lee et al. (2014)	Peer reviewed impact as-	Cluster community survey;	598 households in Banda	Aid	Development-	Standard of living, education and health facility satisfac-
	sessment of aid	multiple linear regression	Aceh and Meulaboh sur-		vulnerability	tion increased significantly after tsunami believed to be
		analysis	veyed		reduction,	a result of receiving aid
					poverty	
Masyrafah and	Aid effectiveness report	Analysis of types of aid given,	N/A	Aid	Development-	Aid has positive impact on sanitation, health facilities,
McKeon (2008) for		amounts of aid, pledged vs.	·		vulnerability	resource repair
Brookings Institute		dispersed			reduction	
Prasetiyawan et al.	Peer reviewed descrip-	Description and commentary	Program administered to	Professional	Improved di-	Author notes lack of mental health services pre-tsunami
(2006)	tion and commentary on	on the reach of mental health	168 GP's and 277 nurses in	development	agnostic and	and the positive results of professional development and
	proliferation of mental	programing	Aceh and Sumatra Utara	programs admin-	treatment prac-	mental health capacity improvement to improve mental
	health training			istered after the	tices for mental	health care
				tsunami, aid	health	
World Health Orga-	Book of lessons learned	Compilation of various	N/A	Disaster response,	Long-term	Book emphasizes the importance of health on long-term
nization (2015)	and strategic planning	reports and findings post-		aid	recovery	disaster recovery and highlights positive responses and
` ′	for the future of South	tsunami				lessons learned
	East Asia					
Chang-Seng (2013)	Peer reviewed analysis	Governance concept and	N/A	Improved disaster	Improved	Author concludes that learning from the tsunami has
J. 10119 (2019)	of disaster risk prepared-	framework conditions insti-		governance	tsunami re-	changed disaster governance structures which will im-
	ness	tutional analysis		Sovernance	silience	prove future resilience
	ness	tutional analysis	1		sinence	prove inture resilience

Syamsidik et al.	Peer reviewed review of	Survey of government em-	245 respondents from Aceh	Governance	Vulnerability	New guidance around disaster preparedness and im-
(2017)	disaster governance 10	ployees and legislation	based organizations	strengthening	reduction	proved confidence of local stakeholder in policy has im-
	years after the tsunami					proved integration of disaster risk maps with develop-
						ment planning for future risk reduction
Beardsley and Mc-	Peer reviewed model for	New typology proposed	Indonesia and Sri Lanka	Estimated return	Behaviour of	GAM was incentivized to foster peace and end conflict
Quinn (2009)	understanding insurgent			on investment,	GAM, civil	for their perceived longevity
	groups motivation and			dependence on	conflict	
	use of conflict			foreign relief aid		
Gaillard et al.	Peer reviewed framework	Review of disasters, conflicts	Aceh and other country	Tsunami, pres-	Conflict resolu-	The disaster played a positive role in encouraging peace
(2008a)	analysis of factors to se-	and diplomatic responses	case studies	sure from in-	tion	talks, author proposes that aid and international pres-
	curing peace			ternational aid		sure were an even greater catalyst for the ending of civil
				organizations		conflict for the GAM
Achmad et al.	Peer review analysis of	Land use geo-spacial map-	Banda Aceh 2005-2009	Population den-	City growth	Built up areas in Banda Aceh increased 90% and were
(2015)	change and factor effect-	ping		sity and location		positively impacted by population density and business
	ing land use			of business center		center growth
Cas et al. (2014)	Peer reviewed analysis	Ordinary least squares re-	9-17 year olds living in	Parental mortal-	Child wellbeing	If both parents died, 9-14yo girls were 58% less likely to
	of correlation between	gression with fixed effects	coastal communities n=737	ity		still be enrolled in school 5 years later and girls 15-17
	parental death and chil-					were 55% less likely to be enrolled in school 5 years later
	dren's wellbeing					
Frankenberg et al.	Peer reviewed analysis	Multivariate regression	3,813 adults in areas heav-	Education	Morbidity,	Education above primary level has some protective effect
(2013b)	of the impact of socioe-	analysis of population-	ily damaged by tsunami		mental health	for men, immediately after tsunami education did have
	conomic status on re-	representative longitudinal				positive effect on spending vulnerability
	silience after natural dis-	study				
	aster					
Phelps et al. (2011)	Peer reviewed commen-	Authors commentary based	N/A	Ending of civil	International	Author argues that ending of the civil conflict reopened
	tary on opening of Aceh	on field work in Aceh and		conflict	investment	trade routes, encouraged investment and united Aceh
	post disaster	Jakarta				
Nobles et al. (2015)	Peer reviewed analysis of	Multiple linear regression	Nearly 300 communities	Fertility	Population	For each one percentage point increase in community
	fertility response to nat-	analysis	across Aceh			mortality there is a 1.2 percentage point increase in prob-
	ural disaster shock					ability of birth
Srinivas and Naka-	Peer reviewed environ-	Observations of environmen-	Indonesia	Conservation	Development-	Author notes that damage from natural disasters de-
gawa (2008)	mental analysis	tal impact of tsunami		and ecological	housing,	stroys infrastructure, livelihoods and sanitation systems
				preservation	poverty	and notes that in coastal areas that were protected and
				pre-disaster		where development was not close to the shore line did
						better, recommends improved eco-sustainable develop-
						ment practices

6.2.3 Undetermined effect

Author	Study Type	Method	Population/ Study Size	Modifying Factor	Outcome of Interest	Correlation or causal effect
Gaillard et al. (2008b)	Peer reviewed discussion of ethnic groups customs and disaster experiences	Community surveys and framework analysis	120 Face to face interviews	Culture	Mortality	Mortality varied dramatically by ethnic group, survival depended on historical experience and education of dis- asters, location to coast and relative freedoms of women
Jauhola (2010)	Peer reviewed analysis of gender mainstreaming policies and advocacy	Analysis and framework of gender normativity in Aceh		Gender roles, religion, government	Advocacy capacity	Author argues that gender advocacy needs to include economic and political oppression in its interpretation of gender biases and violence
Kenny (2007)	Peer reviewed analysis of types of capacity building available post- tsunami	Author offers different frame- works through which to view capacity building	N/A	Aid	Community development, training, reconstruction	Author offers mixed reviews of capacity building to meet outcomes of interest
Muriuki et al. (2012) for Mentor Initiative	Peer reviewed research report of malaria preva- lence	Malaria prevalence surveys	11,763 individuals in 5 coastal districts of Aceh	Malaria	Morbidity	Study finds an epidemic did not occur, but given that pre-tsunami data is not available study can not draw a conclusion about tsunami effect
Oktari et al. (2017)	Peer reviewed analysis of disaster management budget post-tsunami	Literature review and bud- get analysis based on recom- mendations from interviewed stakeholders	Banda Aceh local budgets from 2007-2015	Government budgets	Vulnerability reduction	Legal frameworks have improved, disaster management budgets have improved, yet study cannot draw conclu- sion on quality of investments
Régnier et al. (2008)	Peer reviewed investiga- tion into livelihood re- covery	Case study analysis	Aceh v. Tamil Nadu India	Aid	Economic recovery	Only a few organizations could deliver economic recovery and most were chaotic unorganized aid efforts
Steinberg (2007)	Peer reviewed report on housing reconstruction	Review of experience of implementing housing programs	Aceh and Nias	Aid	Housing redevelopment	Building back better initiative will take more time to incorporate the views of effected communities and has both benefits and drawbacks
Sudomo et al. (2010)	Peer reviewed report of malaria prevalence	Village and school-based surveys of malaria prevalence	Simeulue	Malaria	Morbidity	Malaria may have been endemic before tsunami, aid efforts helped to control malaria and island remains on its way to eradication. Study does not offer evidence on change in morbidity
Thormar et al. (2014)	Peer reviewed analysis of longitudinal study of PTSD in relief volun- teers	Impact of Event Scale survey conducted at 6 and 18 months post-tsunami	506 Indonesian Red Cross volunteers	Volunteering	Morbidity	Finds some evidence that volunteers have higher PTSD prevalence than professional workers, but notes that methodological differences hinder this association
Uscher-Pines (2009)	Peer review system- atic literature review of health effects of relocation	Systematic literature review	24 articles reviewed from 5 databases plus google	Relocation	Morbidity	Literature review finds mixed evidence of the impact of relocation on health and health seeking behaviour

Waizenegger and	Peer reviewed analysis of	Interviews and in-field re-	Field work in Aceh and	Aid	Civil conflict	Aid to tsunami survivors was greater than for conflict
Hyndman (2010)	peace process for multi-	search	unidentified number of			survivors which could hinder future peace
	ple stakeholders		interview with stake-			
			holders, interview of 14			
			ex-combatants			
Zeccola (2011)	Peer reviewed analysis of	Authors commentary from		Aid, civil conflict,	Reconstruction	Author argues need for donor flexibility in changing hu-
	humanitarian action	working in Aceh		governance		manitarian contexts as changing context poses new chal-
						lenges for aid delivery amid political contexts

6.3 Appendix 3: Sample of the DHS and estimation of mortality

Year	Number of chil-
	dren
1990	9,364
1991	9,235
1992	10,307
1993	10,324
1994	10,753
1995	11,987
1996	12,578
1997	11,697
1998	12,084
1999	13,178
2000	15,024
2001	13,664
2002	13,485
2003	11,353
2004	10,899
2005	10,831
2006	11,127
2007	9,592
2008	7,355
2009	7,268
2010	7,324
2011	7,564
2012	5,177
2013	3,674
2014	3,550
2015	3,552
2016	3,671
2017	2,301
Total	258,918

6.4 Appendix 4: Inclusion of covariates

Using IDRP data: Covariates include the proportion of births attended by skilled health worker, the GDP on construction sector, access to safe water, access to safe sanitation, net enrolment ratio, total GDP, total population and total revenue of the province. The data set contains a total of 19 provinces (18 donor provinces) and 17 years including 8 pre-treatment years. We conduct the synthetic control by including the level of pre-treatment outcomes in 1996, 1999 and 2003

nd 2003.	Under-5 mortality (per 1,000 live births)			
	image49.png			
Under-1 m	nortality (per 1,000 live births)	1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)		
image50.pn	g	image51.png		

Using DHS data: Covariates include the access to drinking water, antenatal care, births attended by skilled health worker, tetanus immunisation coverage, home delivery. Data cover the period of 1992-2017 and 25 provinces (24 donor provinces). We conduct the synthetic control by including the level of pre-treatment outcomes in 1992, 1997 and 2003.

Under-5 mortal	ity (per 1,000 live births)
image52.png	
Under-1 mortality (per 1,000 live births	s) 1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)
image53.png	image54.png

6.5 Appendix 5: Donor Pool Weights and RMSPE Tables

	Under-5	Under-1	1-4 year old
	mortality	mortality	mortality
West sumatra	0	0	0
Riau	0	.134	0
Jambi	0	.165	.359
South sumatra	0	0	0
Bengkulu	.09	0	0
Lampung	0	0	0
Jakarta	0	.281	0
Central java	0	0	0
Yogyakarta	.363	.189	0
East java	0	0	0
Banten	0	0	0
Bali	.148	0	.249
West nusa tenggara	0	0	0
East nusa tenggara	0	0	0
West kalimantan	0	0	0
Central kalimantan	.015	0	.091
South kalimantan	0	.019	0
East kalimantan	.25	.212	0
Central sulawesi	0	0	0
Southeast sulawesi	0	0	0
Gorontalo	.023	0	0
West sulawesi	0	0	0
North maluku	0	0	.118
West papua	.111	0	.183
Total	1	1	1
RMSPE	7.140	8.045	4.163

6.6 Appendix 6a: Placebo Test Graphs (untrimmed)

Under-5 mortality (per 1,000 live births)			
	image40.png		
Under-1 m	nortality (per 1,000 live births)	1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)	
image41.pn	g	image42.png	

6.7 Appendix 6b: Placebo Test Graphs (trimmed)

Under-5 mortality ((per 1,000 live births)
image40b.png	
Under-1 mortality (per 1,000 live births)	1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)
image41b.png	image42b.png

6.8 Appendix 7a: Backdating analyses

	Under-5 mortality	(per 1,000 live births)
	image43.png	
Under-1 m	nortality (per 1,000 live births)	1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)
image44.pn		image45.png

6.9 Appendix 7b: Leave-out analyses

Under-5 mortality	(per 1,000 live births)
image46.png	
Under-1 mortality (per 1,000 live births)	1-4 years old mortality (per 1,000 live births)
image47.png	image48.png

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