

Risk Factors for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) in COVID Survivors: A Cross-Sectional Study

Surakshaya Dhakal^{1*}; Ram Prasad Khatiwada¹

¹*Central Department of Statistics, Kathmandu, Tribhuvan University, Nepal

*Corresponding author

Email: ssdhakal123@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to investigate the impact of demographic, socio-economic, health, and lifestyle variables on the development of PTSD symptoms in COVID survivors. The study used a cross-sectional design, and data were collected via a standard set of questionnaires from 228 COVID survivors, who required oxygen support and were admitted to Damak COVID hospital from April to October 2021.

Descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage were used to summarize the data and inferential statistics such as chi-square test, Fisher's exact test, and Binary logistic regression were used to analyze the data and to infer the overall result from the taken sample. The study found that only three variables, i.e., gender, diabetes, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder (COPD), were significant factors that posed a higher threat of PTSD in COVID survivors. Additionally, the study uses model adequacy tests such as Pseudo R² test, Reliability test and Hosmer and Lemeshow test to validate the model fitted.

The study found that only three variables had significant impact PTSD symptoms in COVID survivors. Male patients were more likely to have PTSD symptoms than female patients. The presence of diabetes before or after the infection increased the risk of PTSD. The patients with high blood pressure before COVID and those who developed chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder (COPD) after COVID were more likely to experience PTSD symptoms. The study provides valuable information on the risk factors for developing PTSD symptoms in COVID survivors. This study can contribute to the understanding and growing body of research on the psychological impact of COVID and help healthcare professionals identify patients who are at risk of developing PTSD and provide them with appropriate interventions to prevent or treat PTSD.

29 **Keywords:** COVID survivors, PTSD, Diabetes, High blood Pressure, COPD, Binary logistic
30 regression

31 **INTRODUCTION**

32 **Background of Study**

33 In December 2019, pneumonia cases of unknown cause were reported in Wuhan, China. Later, it
34 was identified as a virus called SARS-CoV-2, causing severe acute respiratory syndrome [1]. On
35 January 30, 2020, the WHO declared it a global Public Health Emergency, recognizing it as a
36 major epidemic [2]. Coronaviruses are RNA viruses found in birds and mammals, including
37 humans. They can cause respiratory, enteric, and hepatic diseases. While four coronaviruses only
38 result in common cold-like symptoms in immunocompromised individuals, two strains—SARS-
39 CoV and MERS-CoV—have caused severe and fatal illnesses [3].

40 New data shows that more than 1 million people in Nepal have contracted SARSCoV-2, and the
41 recovery rate is over 98.5% [4]. Some survivors bounced back quickly, but others experienced
42 lasting physical and mental effects. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that it can
43 take six weeks or longer to recover from a COVID infection [5]. Various factors, including age,
44 gender, and underlying health conditions, can affect the rate and duration of patient recovery. Older
45 males with chronic pulmonary conditions who needed intranasal oxygen supplementation had a
46 longer recovery time [6]. A study published by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
47 (CDC) in the Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report revealed that even patients with milder
48 illness can experience prolonged symptoms. After 2-3 weeks of recovery, more than 35% of
49 patients reported persistent issues like cough, fatigue, or shortness of breath [7].

50 Throughout history, human civilization has experienced numerous epidemics, including the
51 ongoing one, and few phenomena have had as profound an impact on societies and culture as
52 disease outbreaks. Major pandemics such as the Spanish flu (1918-1920), the HIV pandemic of
53 the late nineteenth century, and the Swine flu pandemic of the early twentieth century have greatly
54 affected human society. They have devastated communities, influenced the outcomes of wars, and
55 even led to the extinction of entire populations. However, these epidemics have also stimulated
56 scientific progress and advancements, particularly in the fields of public health and medicine [8].
57 In times of trauma, such as natural disasters, sexual harassment, accidents, war, medical
58 emergencies, or the loss of loved ones, humans experience a range of psychological

59 manifestations. While some of these manifestations are expected and normal, others can manifest
60 as varying degrees of mental health issues. Immediate problems often include depression and acute
61 stress reactions, while delayed forms of psychological manifestations commonly include
62 pathological grief, depression, adjustment disorders, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance
63 abuse, and psychosomatic disorders [9].

64 Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is a common psychological condition resulting from trauma,
65 characterized by recurring mental and physical distress triggered by memories of a past traumatic
66 event. Individuals with PTSD intentionally avoid thoughts, memories, and discussions about the
67 event [10]. PTSD is marked by intense fear, persistent re-experiencing, avoidance, and hyper-
68 arousal symptoms that can last for months or even years after the trauma. Multiple factors
69 contribute to the likelihood of developing PTSD, with genetic factors accounting for about 30-
70 40% of the risk [11]. Previous experiences, including adult and childhood trauma, also influence
71 the susceptibility to PTSD. Traumatic events encompass natural disasters, disease outbreaks,
72 substance abuse, war, domestic violence, and more [12] [13] [14]. Survivors of COVID-19 may
73 experience psychological effects due to the life-threatening nature of the infection. Physical trauma
74 survivors may suffer from nightmares, flashbacks, intrusive thoughts, and behavioral changes such
75 as hypervigilance, hyperarousal, avoidance, sleep difficulties, and angry outbursts [15]. The
76 widespread availability of social media news contributes to anxiety but does not directly impact
77 mental health. However, it has been shown to contribute to Secondary Traumatic Stress (STS),
78 despair, and anxiety [16]. Health Care Workers (HCWs) and COVID-19 patients have also
79 reported symptoms of PTSD and post-traumatic stress [17] [18].

80 The global attention on COVID-19 has overlooked its unknown physiological effects. While the
81 physical harm caused by the pandemic is widely discussed, its psychological impact remains
82 overlooked. Each successive mutant strain of the virus is believed to be more contagious than its
83 predecessor. Even after two years since its emergence, COVID-19 continues to affect the entire
84 planet, prompting efforts to address economic inequality and minimize fatalities. However, the
85 psychological trauma inflicted by the pandemic has received little attention, particularly in
86 developing and disadvantaged countries.

87 Nepal, with a limited public health budget [19], struggled to handle the surge of patients during
88 the pandemic, leading to a critical shortage of oxygen [20]. Despite a relatively low rate of serious

89 infections, hospitals were overcrowded, resulting in many patients being unable to receive basic
90 care, such as artificial oxygen. The focus of the authorities was primarily on controlling the
91 pandemic, with little attention given to psychological well-being. Mental health facilities in Nepal
92 are primarily located in major cities, with a scarcity of professionals, including 0.22 psychiatrists
93 and 0.06 psychologists per 100,000 population. Moreover, the country has only 18 outpatient
94 mental health facilities, indicating a lack of efforts to address and understand the psychological
95 needs of patients [21]. Although a few public and private organizations have contributed to
96 psychology, there is a significant dearth of services and research projects outside the capital city
97 [22].

98 This study examines PTSD prevalence among severe COVID patients who required oxygen
99 support during their hospital stay at Damak COVID hospital. The hospital, built by Damak
100 Municipality as a primary care facility for COVID-19 patients, now serves as a vital treatment
101 center for Damak and neighboring areas. Located near the Indo-Nepal border, Damak is a large
102 and populous municipality that attracts travelers from the eastern and southern frontiers, leading
103 to a higher incidence of reported cases and increased patient visits to the hospital.

104 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

105 **Data and study area**

106 **Fig 1: Map related to the study Area**

107 The study focused on discharged patients from Damak COVID Hospital, which situated in the
108 northern part of Damak Municipality near Ratuwa River. The patients were from the local
109 community covering 75.42 sq. km and surrounding areas such as Urlabari (west), Lakhanpur
110 (east), Gauradaha (south), and Chulachuli (north). The researcher personally visited the
111 participants at their homes and asked them to complete the questionnaire.

112 The study used a cross-sectional study design. It included inferential and descriptive findings.
113 Primary information was collected through in-person interviews. To assist participants who
114 struggled with English, the questionnaire was first developed in English and then translated into
115 Nepali.

116 According to Damak COVID Hospital, a total of 589 COVID-19 positive patients were admitted
117 from April 14, 2021 to October 16, 2021. The data was collected in collaboration with the Damak
118 Municipality office. Out of these patients, 338 were male and 251 were female. The study did not
119 include patients who were transferred or deceased. Also, 28 patients were referred, and among
120 them, 4 passed away.

121 Data were collected through self-administered interviews using a PTSD questionnaire set,
122 including the PTSD checklist-Civilian (PCL-C) [23]. When tested in Nepal, PTSD checklist-
123 Civilian (PCL-C) demonstrated positive psychometric qualities in terms of internal consistency,
124 test-retest reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Participants' health and
125 lifestyle variables were recorded based on their own responses. The study included 557 patients
126 who tested positive for COVID-19 and required artificial oxygen after being hospitalized for at
127 least one day. The sample was selected using simple random sampling, and data collection took
128 place from December 2022 to January 2023.

129 A sample size of 228 was determined using the Yamane formula, considering a 95% confidence
130 level, a 5% margin of error, and a 50% population proportion [24]. The study collected data from
131 the records of the Damak COVID hospital to determine the sample size based on a finite population
132 size.

133 **Variables**

134 The dependent variable of this study is dichotomous i.e. either prevalence of PTSD or non-
135 prevalence of PTSD. Different category variables are chosen as explanatory variables by
136 evaluating the pertinent literature. Further, explanatory variables were classified into socio-
137 demographic, health-related, and life-style related variables. Socio-demographic variables include
138 age category, gender, ethnicity, employment status, marital status. Similarly, health related
139 variables Presence of Diabetes, High Bp, COPD, Cardiovascular disorder, Kidney disorder, and
140 Psychological disorder are studied. Life-style related variables; smoking status, alcohol-
141 consuming status, habits of doing yoga and whether the respondent is vegetarian or not considered
142 in the study. Both health-related and life-style related variables are studied directly by the answer
143 given by the respondent without any medical supervision or observation. They are categorized as
144 they have them from before the COVID infection, only after the infection or do not have till now.

145 The purpose of this study is to understand whether people have PTSD (Post-Traumatic Stress
146 Disorder) or not. We looked at different factors that might explain this. We chose different
147 categories to explain why this is the case, based on what we found in relevant research. These
148 categories include socio-demographic factors (like age, gender, ethnicity, employment status, and
149 marital status), health-related factors (such as diabetes, high blood pressure, COPD, cardiovascular
150 disorder, kidney disorder, and psychological disorder), and lifestyle factors (like smoking, alcohol
151 consumption, yoga habits, and whether the person is vegetarian or not). We collected this
152 information directly from the respondents without any medical supervision or observation. We
153 categorized the variables based on whether they had these factors before, only after the COVID
154 infection, or if they don't have them at all.

155 The study used the PCL-C (Posttraumatic Stress Disorder Checklist) to identify PTSD. PCL -C is
156 a standardized self-report scale with 17 items that correspond to key PTSD symptoms. Two
157 versions of the PCL exist: PCL-M for military-related PTSD and PCL-C for any traumatic event.
158 In this study, the PCL-C version was used to identify PTSD in post-COVID patients. Scoring of
159 the PCL-C version was done by adding all the items for a total severity score or response categories
160 3–5 (Moderately or above) were treated as symptomatic and responses 1–2 (below moderately)
161 were treated as non-symptomatic. Then the DSM criteria were used for the diagnosis where,

162 Symptomatic response to at least 1 “B” item (Questions 1–5), symptomatic response to at least 3
163 “C” items (Questions 6–12), and symptomatic response to at least 2 “D” items (Questions 13–17)
164 are considered as symptomatic [25].

165 **Measure of reliability**

166 Cronbach's alpha is a valuable measure for internal consistency. In the case of Likert scale
167 questionnaires about PTSD, the reliability measure obtained from pilot surveys was 0.88. A value
168 above 0.69 is considered acceptable for Cronbach's alpha [26] as given in Table 1, and 0.88 falls
169 within the good range. This indicates that the scales used are reliable.

170 **Table 1: Range of Cronbach’s alpha coefficients and their reliability levels.**

S.N	Coefficient of Cronbach’s Alpha	Reliability test
1	More than 0.90	Excellent
2	0.80-0.89	Good
3	0.70-0.79	Acceptable
4	0.6-.69	Questionable
5	0.5-0.59	Poor
6	Less than 0.59	Unacceptable

171

172 **Data Analysis**

173 The study's findings were analyzed using descriptive and inferential methods. Descriptive analysis
174 involved calculating frequencies and percentages of participant attributes. In the inferential
175 section, several model adequacy tests such as Pseudo-R square, Hosmer-Lemeshow test, and
176 accuracy check for the dependent variable were conducted to determine the overall significance of
177 the model coefficient. Additionally, the chi-square test, Fisher Freeman exact test, binary logistic
178 regression analysis, and odds ratio were calculated.

179 Binary logistic regression is a type of linear regression model used when the outcome variable is
180 dichotomous, taking values of either 0 or 1, and is influenced by one or more continuous or
181 categorical explanatory variables. In this study, the explained variable is PTSD, and it is
182 determined based on the values of a set of predictor variables. The dependent variable PTSD is
183 categorized as: $Y_i = 0$, indicating not having PTSD, and $Y_i = 1$, indicating having PTSD. The
184 independent variables, denoted as X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k , can be discrete or continuous or a combination
185 of both. The mathematical model for binary logistic regression is expressed as follows:

$$186 \quad Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

$$187 \quad \text{Its specific form is } \pi(x) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k}}$$

188 The logit transformation in terms of $g(x)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} 189 \quad g(x) &= \ln\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1-\pi(x)}\right) \\ 190 \quad &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k \end{aligned}$$

191 where $\pi(x)$ is the probability that the event occurs $\pi(y=1)$

192 $g(x)$ is the logit transformation and also called logit model.

193 $\frac{\pi(x)}{1-\pi(x)}$ is the odds ratio

194 $\ln\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1-\pi(x)}\right)$ is the log odds ratio or logit.

195 **Model Adequacy Test**

196 Pseudo R square is used to assess the strength of logistic regression. While the measure of
197 correlation is not sufficient for evaluating the accuracy of error associated with the model in binary
198 logistic regression, this study utilized Cox and Snell R-square and Nagelkerke R-square to quantify
199 the extent to which the independent variables explain the variation in dependent variables.
200 Additionally, the Hosmer-Lemeshow test was conducted to measure the goodness of fit statistics
201 of model fitting. A smaller difference between observed and predicted classification, or a large p-
202 value (greater than 0.05), indicates a better fit for the model.

203 **RESULTS**

204 Out of 228 respondents, 92 (40.4%) showed symptoms of PTSD, while 136 (59.6%) did not report
205 such symptoms. The participants were categorized based on demographic variables. Of the total
206 228 participants, 124 (54.4%) were male, and 104 (45.6%) were female. The study classified the
207 participants into five groups: Janajati (43.9%, n=100), Brahmin (29.8%, n=68), Chhetri (15.4%,
208 n=35), Dalit (6.6%, n=15), and others (3.1%, n=7). Regarding marital status, the participants were
209 divided as follows: married 188 (82.5%), unmarried 24 (10.5%), separated 2 (0.9%), divorced 2
210 (0.9%), and widowed 12 (5.2%). Based on age, six categories were created. The age group of 40-
211 50 years had the highest number of participants at 28.1% (n=64), followed by the age group of 30-
212 40 years at 27.6% (n=64). The age group of 50-60 years had 39 (17.1%) participants, the age group
213 of 20-30 years had 34 (14.9%) participants, and the age group above 60 years had 28 (12.3%)
214 participants. No participants were below the age of 20 years. This may be due to younger
215 individuals having a lower likelihood of severe COVID infections requiring hospitalization or
216 oxygen support.

217 Another important variable associated with the occurrence of PTSD symptoms was socioeconomic
218 status. Socioeconomic status was found to be an important factor associated with PTSD symptoms.
219 The study examined education level and employment status. Results showed that 11.4% of
220 participants were illiterate, 21.9% were literate but not enrolled in any educational institute, 2.6%
221 had primary level education, 6.1% had lower secondary education, 26.8% had secondary level
222 education, 21.1% had higher secondary education, and 10.1% had a bachelor's degree or higher.

223 The study looked at how having a job could affect the number of people with PTSD. They included
224 whether someone was employed or not as a factor. Out of all the people in the study, 55.7%
225 (n=127) had a job, while 44.3% (n=101) did not have a job.

226 The study did not directly identify health-related variables through clinical means. Instead,
227 questionnaires were utilized to gather information on the participants' health history. The study
228 examined three categories of health-related variables: 1) health conditions that emerged solely
229 after the infection, 2) health conditions present both before and after the infection and 3) the
230 absence of any such health condition before and after the infection.

231 Regarding diabetes, 15.8% (n=36) had the condition both before and after COVID, while 6.6%
232 (n=15) developed it after the infection. The majority, 77.6% (n=177), did not have diabetes before
233 or after the infection. For kidney disorders, only 1.3% (n=3) had it before COVID, while 3.5%
234 (n=8) acquired it after the infection. The majority, 95.2% (n=217), did not have kidney problems
235 at the time of the study. In terms of cardiovascular disease, 0.4% (n=1) had it before infection,
236 while 5.7% (n=13) had it after the infection. The majority, 93.9% (n=214), did not have the
237 condition. Regarding obesity, 99.1% (n=226) of participants did not have the problem, 0.4% (n=1)
238 developed it after COVID, and 0.4% (n=1) had it before.

239 Another important health variable considered was COPD. It was present in 1.8% (n=4) of
240 participants before infection, while 17.1% (n=39) seemed to have acquired it following the
241 infection. The majority, 81.1% (n=185), did not have COPD. Another variable, Psychological
242 disorder is frequently overlooked in our country, and there is limited awareness about them. As a
243 result, 99.6% (n=227) of participants responded that they did not have any psychological disorder
244 till the date of the study. Only 1 (0.4%) participant responded that a psychological disorder was
245 acquired after COVID infection.

246 The study classified lifestyle-related factors into four groups: (1) individuals who adopted specific
247 habits only after contracting COVID-19, (2) participants who discontinued their habits after getting
248 infected, (3) individuals who maintained their habits both before and after the infection until the
249 day of the study, and (4) those who did not engage in the habit before or after the infection.

250 Regarding smoking, 8.3% (n=19) of respondents smoked before COVID-19 and still do. 6.1%
251 (n=4) quit smoking after getting infected, while the majority of participants (84.6%, n=193) never
252 had the habit. Only 2 (0.9%) started smoking after getting infected. Similar results were found for
253 drinking, with only 2 (0.9%) starting to drink after getting infected, while 9.2% (n=21) stopped
254 the habit. 34 (14.9%) of them used to drink before and still do, while most participants (82.6%,
255 n=176) were never involved in alcohol consumption. Another lifestyle-related variable considered
256 in the study was yoga, with most participants (79.8%, n=170) not interested or involved in
257 practicing yoga. 6.6% (n=14) started practicing yoga after recovering from the infection, while
258 1.9% (n=4) stopped doing yoga after getting infected. The remaining participants (11.3%, n=24)
259 had been practicing yoga before the infection, and they continued to do so after recovering, being
260 aware of its benefits. Regarding smoking, 8.3% (n=19) of respondents smoked before COVID-19
261 and still do, while 6.1% (n=4) quit smoking after getting infected. The majority of participants
262 (84.6%, n=193) never had the habit, and only 2 (0.9%) started smoking after getting infected.

263 The study discovered that certain factors like gender, marital status, employment status, diabetes,
 264 cardiovascular disorder, kidney disorder, COPD, high blood pressure, and practicing yoga had
 265 noticeable differences in average scores between individuals with and without symptoms of PTSD.
 266 However, there were limited data available for Cardiovascular Disorder and Kidney Disorder in
 267 some cases, which could have influenced the overall analysis of the odds ratio. Consequently, these
 268 variables were excluded from the logistic regression, and certain categories within certain
 269 independent variables were combined due to a small number of participants.

270 Further analysis of the significant variables obtained from a chi-square test revealed the following
 271 associations:

- 272 • Males had 2.71 times higher odds of the outcome compared to females (95% CI: 1.307-5.636).
- 273 • Individuals with diabetes before and after COVID-19 had 1.24 times higher odds of the
 274 outcome variable compared to those without diabetes (95% CI: 1.42-8.47).
- 275 • Individuals with COPD after COVID-19 had 1.45 times higher odds of the outcome variable
 276 compared to those without COPD (95% CI: 1.73-10.42).
- 277 • Individuals with high blood pressure before and after COVID-19 had 2.69 times higher odds
 278 of the outcome variable compared to those without high blood pressure (95% CI: 1.13-6.41)

279
 280 The binary logistic regression model identified gender, presence of diabetes, COPD, and high
 281 blood pressure as significant factors for the outcome variable. Notably, only one category for
 282 diabetes and COPD was found to be significant in the fitted regression model. Table 2 displays the
 283 values obtained after model fitting.

284 **Table 2: Logistic Regression Model Summary**

Variable	Category	Coefficient	Standard Error	Odds Ratio(OR)	95% CI for OR	p-value
Gender	Male	0.9979	0.3730	2.71	1.307-5.636	0.007
	Female	®				
Diabetes	Before and After COVID	1.2416	0.4665	3.46	1.416-8.472	0.008
	No Diabetes	®				
COPD	After COVID only	1.4467	0.4424	4.246	1.731-10.424	0.001
	No COPD	®				
High Blood Pressure	Before and After COVID	0.9917	0.4413	2.694	1.134-6.408	0.025

	No High Blood pressure	®
--	------------------------	---

285 ® denotes the reference category

286 The logistic regression model's overall fit was evaluated using Cox & Snell R² statistics and the
287 Hosmer-Lemeshow test [Cox & Snell, Hosmer-Lemeshow]. The results indicated that the model
288 accounted for 24.2% to 32.7% of the variation in the dependent variable (PTSD), depending on
289 whether the Cox and Snell R square or Nagelkerke R square was used as a reference. The Hosmer-
290 Lemeshow test yielded a chi-square value of 6.2604 with 8 degrees of freedom, and the p-value
291 was greater than 0.05, indicating that the model's goodness of fit was not violated. Additionally,
292 data were assessed for multicollinearity.

293 **Discussion**

294 COVID leaves deep emotional scars on people with each wave. The study conducted at Damak
295 COVID hospital aimed to identify PTSD in COVID survivors and found significant PTSD
296 symptoms in the target population.

297 Out of all participants, 40.4% showed a prevalence of PTSD, indicating a high chance of PTSD in
298 the targeted group of people. A similar study conducted by Bo et al. (2021), the prevalence of
299 PTSD in COVID patients was reported to be as high as 96.2% [27]. Another study by Xueyuan Li
300 and colleagues found that 31.6% of Chinese adults experienced PTSD following a COVID
301 infection [28]. These variations in results suggest that the occurrence of PTSD in COVID can be
302 influenced by factors such as geography, society, environment, and lifestyle.

303 In a study conducted in Nepal by MoHP and NHRC, it was found that 14% of the respondents had
304 anxiety, 7% had depression, and 5% had stress [29]. The frequency of psychological disorders in
305 the Nepal study was much lower compared to the present study. The difference in results could be
306 attributed to the different target populations: the Nepal study included all COVID patients who
307 attended the fever clinic, while the present study focused on COVID survivors who required
308 Oxygen support during hospital treatment. It is evident that patients with more severe conditions
309 experience higher mental pressure and are therefore at a greater risk of developing psychological
310 disorders.

311 Gender-wise, male COVID survivors exhibited a higher likelihood of displaying PTSD symptoms
312 compared to females. Lei et al. (2021) also found that males had higher odds of developing PTSD
313 than females (OR = 1.484, 95% CI: 1.147 to 1.920) [30]. In contrast to our findings, Wang et al.
314 (2020) reported that the psychological impact of the pandemic was more significant for females
315 than males [31]. Similarly, Martinez et al. (2022) reported a similar situation, with female
316 survivors showing a higher prevalence of PTSD compared to males (OR = 1.13, 95% CI: 0.50–
317 1.76) [32]. The disparity in the development of PTSD between genders across different studies
318 may be attributed to the social and cultural behaviors of the targeted population.

319 The study showed that people with pre-existing diabetes and those who developed diabetes after
320 COVID are more likely to exhibit symptoms of PTSD compared to those without diabetes.

321 Similarly, individuals with pre-existing high blood pressure (BP) or COPD after the infection are
322 more likely to develop PTSD compared to those without these conditions. However, the presence
323 of high BP after infection and COPD before infection did not show significant associations with
324 PTSD. Thus, the presence or acquisition of conditions such as diabetes and COPD significantly
325 impacts the likelihood of developing PTSD. This finding aligns with previous studies that indicate
326 COVID-19 patients with comorbidities like diabetes, psychological disorders, high BP, obesity,
327 and COPD are more prone to developing PTSD compared to those without these conditions.
328 Previous research by González-Sanguino et al (2020) have identified chronic pulmonary disease as a
329 significant risk factor (OR = 6.03, 95% CI: 1.0–37.1, $p = 0.053$) for PTSD [33]. Moreover, a web-
330 based survey conducted via the WhatsApp platform reported a higher prevalence of psychological
331 disorders (specifically depression) among COVID-19-infected patients with diabetes mellitus
332 (37.8%), suggesting that diabetic patients are more susceptible to developing PTSD compared to
333 non-diabetic individuals [34]. This result aligns with the fact that diabetic patients typically have
334 a 24% increased risk of developing depressive symptoms even without a COVID-19 infection
335 [35].

336 **CONCLUSION**

337 In Nepal, there is a scarcity of research focusing on the psychological consequences experienced
338 by individuals who have survived COVID-19. The present study aims to contribute to this
339 knowledge gap by examining the impact of COVID-19 on the mental well-being of survivors. The
340 study specifically investigated the prevalence of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) among
341 individuals admitted to Damak COVID hospital and analyzed the statistical relationship between
342 PTSD symptoms and various factors.

343 The findings of the study revealed that the prevalence of PTSD among COVID-19 survivors
344 admitted to Damak COVID hospital is moderately high, with approximately 40.4% of the
345 participants exhibiting symptoms of PTSD. Furthermore, the study identified several significant
346 factors associated with the development of PTSD symptoms. Being male, having a diabetic
347 disorder, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and high blood pressure are identified
348 as significant factors contributing to the occurrence of PTSD among COVID-19 survivors.

349 Overall, this study sheds light on the psychological impact of COVID-19 on survivors in Nepal,
350 filling a crucial gap in the existing research. The identification of significant factors associated
351 with PTSD symptoms provides valuable insights for healthcare professionals and policymakers,
352 enabling them to develop targeted interventions and support systems to address the mental health
353 needs of COVID-19 survivors in the country.

354 **LIMITATIONS**

355 There were certain limitations in the study due to its scope. Firstly, the medical information
356 provided by the patients could not be verified, as no healthcare professionals were involved.
357 Therefore, all the information regarding past and present disorders relied solely on the patients'
358 responses.

359 Additionally, the study was limited to patients admitted during a specific time period due to
360 resource constraints. The data on patients were collected between late 2022 and early 2023, within
361 a year of their hospital admission. It is important to note that over time, the effects of the trauma
362 experienced by the patients may have diminished.

363 **Conflict of interest**

364 The subject matter discussed in this research project and the authors involved do not have any
365 conflicts of interest. Furthermore, the authors want to assure readers that their work is unbiased
366 and unaffected by external influences.

367 **Ethical Approval and Respondent's Consent**

368 In order to conduct the research, ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional Review
369 Committee (IRC) of the Institute of Science and Technology (IOST), Tribhuvan University (TU).
370 Additionally, In accordance with the study protocol, prior informed consent was obtained from all
371 the participating patients to gather relevant information pertaining to them. This ensured that the
372 research adhered to ethical guidelines and respected the rights and privacy of the individuals
373 involved.

374 **Acknowledgements**

375 The authors wish to sincerely thank the Head of the Department and all the professors from the
376 Central Department of Statistics at Tribhuvan University for their valuable feedback and
377 encouragement during the paper's completion. Furthermore, the authors would like to
378 acknowledge the support of Damak municipality and Damak COVID Hospital for the research.

379 **References**

- 380 1. He F, Deng Y, Li W. Coronavirus disease 2019: What we know? *J Med Virol.* 2020 Jul;
381 92(7):719-725. doi: 10.1002/jmv.25766.
- 382 2. Jee Y. WHO International Health Regulations Emergency Committee for the COVID-19
383 outbreak. *Epidemiol Health.* 2020;42:e2020013. doi:10.4178/epih.e2020013.
- 384 3. Su S, Wong G, Shi W, Liu J, Lai AC, Zhou J, Liu W, Bi Y, Gao GF. Epidemiology, Genetic
385 Recombination, and Pathogenesis of Coronaviruses. *Trends Microbiol.* 2016 Jun; 24(6):490-
386 502. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2016.03.003>
- 387 4. World Health Organization. WHO COVID-19 Dashboard: Nepal. [Internet]. Geneva: World
388 Health Organization. Available from: <https://covid19.who.int/region/searo/country/np>
- 389 5. Neupane HC, Shrestha N, Adhikari S, Gauli B. COVID 19 and Nepal: Identification of
390 Critical Public Health Measures. *J Nepal Med Assoc.* 2020 May 30; 58(225).
391 <https://doi.org/10.31729/jnma.4950>
- 392 6. Kaso AW, Hareru HE, Kaso T, Agero G. Time to recovery from Covid-19 and its associated
393 factors among patients hospitalized to the treatment center in South Central Ethiopia. *Environ*
394 *Chall.* 2022 Jan;6:100428. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envc.2021.100428>

- 395 7. Tenforde MW, Kim SS, Lindsell CJ, Billig Rose E, Shapiro NI, Files DC, Gibbs KW,
396 Erickson HL, Steingrub JS, Smithline HA, Gong MN, Aboodi MS, Exline MC, Henning DJ,
397 Wilson JG, Khan A, Qadir N, Brown SM, Peltan ID, Rice TW, ... IVY Network Investigators.
398 Symptom Duration and Risk Factors for Delayed Return to Usual Health Among Outpatients
399 with COVID-19 in a Multistate Health Care Systems Network - United States, March-June
400 2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2020 Jul 31;69(30):993-998. doi:
401 10.15585/mmwr.mm6930e1.
- 402 8. Huremović D, editor. *Psychiatry of Pandemics*. Springer International Publishing; 2019.
403 Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-15346-5>
- 404 9. Pan American Health Organization. Protecting mental health during epidemics. Pan American
405 Health Organization. 2006;2-3. Available from:
406 <https://www.hs-j.co.uk/coronavirus/protecting-mental-health-during-covid19/7027358.article>
- 407 10. Association, A. P. (2013). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth*
408 *Edition*. American Psychiatric Publishing.
- 409 11. Ressler KJ. Introduction to recent advances in understanding and treatment of posttraumatic
410 stress and trauma-related disorders: Special issue on PTSD. *Harvard Review of Psychiatry*.
411 2018;26(3):97. doi: 10.1097/HRP.0000000000000191
- 412 12. Bah AJ, James PB, Bah N, Sesay AB, Sevalie S, Kanu JS. Prevalence of anxiety, depression
413 and post-traumatic stress disorder among Ebola survivors in northern Sierra Leone: a cross-
414 sectional study. *BMC Public Health*. 2020 Sep 11;20(1). [https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09507-6)
415 [09507-6](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09507-6)
- 416 13. Kariisa M, Scholl L, Wilson N, Seth P, Hoots B. Drug Overdose Deaths Involving Cocaine
417 and Psychostimulants with Abuse Potential — United States, 2003–2017. *MMWR Morb*
418 *Mortal Wkly Rep* [Internet]. 2019 May 3;68(17):388-
419 95. <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6817a3>
- 420 14. Hugo M, Declerck H, Fitzpatrick G, Severy N, Gbabai OB, Decroo T, Van Herp M. Post-
421 Traumatic Stress Reactions in Ebola Virus Disease Survivors in Sierra Leone. *Emerg Med*.
422 2015;05(06). <https://doi.org/10.4172/2165-7548.1000285>
- 423 15. Yin Q, Sun Z, Liu T, Ni X, Deng X, Jia Y, Shang Z, Zhou Y, Liu W. Posttraumatic stress
424 symptoms of health care workers during the corona virus disease 2019. *Clin Psychol*
425 *Psychother*. 2020 May;27(3):384-395. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.2477>
- 426 16. Zhao N, Zhou G. Social Media Use and Mental Health during the COVID-19 Pandemic:
427 Moderator Role of Disaster Stressor and Mediator Role of Negative Affect. *Appl Psychol*.
428 2020 Dec; 17;12(4):1019-38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.12226>
- 429 17. Bryant-Geneviev J, Rao CY, Lopes-Cardozo B, Kone A, Rose C, Thomas I, Orquiola D,
430 Lynfield R, Shah D, Freeman L, Becker S, Williams A, Gould DW, Tiesman H, Lloyd G,
431 Hill L, Byrkit R. Symptoms of Depression, Anxiety, Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, and
432 Suicidal Ideation Among State, Tribal, Local, and Territorial Public Health Workers During
433 the COVID-19 Pandemic — United States, March–April 2021. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly*
434 *Rep.* 2021 Jun 25;70(26). <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7026e1>

- 435 18. Tarsitani L, Vassalini P, Koukopoulos A, Borrazzo C, Alessi F, Di Nicolantonio C, Serra R,
436 Alessandri F, Ceccarelli G, Mastroianni CM, d’Ettorre G. Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
437 Among COVID-19 Survivors at 3-Month Follow-up After Hospital Discharge. *J Gen Intern*
438 *Med.* 2021 Mar 29;36(6):1702-7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-021-06731-7>
- 439 19. Dulal, R. K., Magar, A., Karki, S. D., Khatiwada, D., & Hamal, P. K. (1970). Analysis of
440 Health Sector Budget of Nepal. *JNMA J Nepal Med Assoc.* 2014 Apr-Jun;52(194):811-
441 21. <https://doi.org/10.31729/jnma.2757>
- 442 20. Bhatt N, Nepal S, Pinder RJ, Lucero-Prisno DE, Budhathoki SS. Challenges of Hospital
443 Oxygen Management during the COVID-19 Pandemic in Rural Nepal. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.*
444 2022 Apr 6;106(4):997-9. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.21-0669>
- 445 21. World Health Organization. WHO-AIMS report on mental health system in Nepal.
446 Kathmandu: World Health Organization and Ministry of Health; 2006.
- 447 22. Luitel NP, Jordans MJ, Adhikari A, Upadhaya N, Hanlon C, Lund C, Komproe IH. Mental
448 health care in Nepal: current situation and challenges for development of a district mental
449 health care plan. *Confl Health.* 2015 Feb 6;9:3. doi: 10.1186/s13031-014-0030-5
- 450 23. Dhungana S, Koirala R, Ojha SP, Thapa SB. Quality of life and its association with psychiatric
451 disorders in outpatients with trauma history in a tertiary hospital in Kathmandu, Nepal: a
452 cross-sectional study. *BMC Psychiatry* 2021;21(1):321. doi: 10.1186/s12888-021-03104
- 453 24. Rafael C. How to Calculate Sample Size Using Taro Yamane’s Formula. [Internet]. Available
454 from: <https://www.nairaproject.com/blog/its-taro-yamane-not-yaro.html>
- 455 25. Weathers FW, Litz BT, Keane TM, Palmieri PA, Marx BP, Schnurr PP. The PTSD Checklist
456 for DSM-5 (PCL-5). Standard [Measurement instrument]. Available from
457 <https://www.ptsd.va.gov/>.
- 458 26. Saidi SS, Siew NM. Investigating the validity and reliability of survey attitude towards
459 statistics instrument among rural secondary school students. *Int J Educ Methodol.*
460 2019;5(4):651-661. doi: 10.12973/ijem.5.4.651
- 461 27. Bo HX, Li W, Yang Y, Wang Y, Zhang Q, Cheung T, Wu X, Xiang YT. Posttraumatic stress
462 symptoms and attitude toward crisis mental health services among clinically stable patients
463 with COVID-19 in China. *Psychol Med.* 2021 Apr;51(6):1052-1053. doi:
464 10.1017/S0033291720000999.
- 465 28. Li X, Li S, Xiang M, Fang Y, Qian K, Xu J, Li J, Zhang Z, Wang B. The prevalence and risk
466 factors of PTSD symptoms among medical assistance workers during the COVID-19
467 pandemic. *J Psychosom Res.* 2020;139:110270. doi: 10.1016/j.jpsychores.2020.110270
- 468 29. Dhimal M, Pandey A, Parajuli K, Silwal S, Dhamala B, Gyanwali P. Assessment of status of
469 post-recovery patients with COVID-19 infections in Nepal. Kathmandu, Nepal: Nepal Health
470 Research Council; 2020. Available from: <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.14356/741>.
- 471 30. Lei L, Zhu H, Li Y, Dai T, Zhao S, Zhang X, Muchu X, Su S. Prevalence of post-traumatic
472 stress disorders and associated factors one month after the outbreak of the COVID-19 among
473 the public in southwestern China: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Psychiatry.* 2021;21(1):545.
474 doi:10.1186/s12888-021-03527-1.

- 475 31. Wang C, Pan R, Wan X, Tan Y, Xu L, McIntyre RS, Choo FN, Tran B, Ho R, Sharma VK,
 476 Ho C. A longitudinal study on the mental health of the general population during the COVID-
 477 19 epidemic in China. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2020;87:40-48. doi:10.1016/j.bbi.2020.04.028
 478 32. Martínez Pajuelo AR, Irrazabal Ramos JE, Lazo-Porras M. Anxiety, depression, and post-
 479 traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptomatology according to gender in health-care workers
 480 during the COVID-19 pandemic in Peru: Psychological impact of the pandemic on women.
 481 *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2022;19(19):11957. doi:10.3390/ijerph191911957
 482 33. González-Sanguino C, Ausín B, Castellanos MÁ, Saiz J, López-Gómez A, Ugidos C, Muñoz
 483 M. Mental health consequences during the initial stage of the 2020 Coronavirus pandemic
 484 (COVID-19) in Spain. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2020 Jul;87:172-176.
 485 doi:10.1016/j.bbi.2020.05.040
 486 34. Nouwen A, Winkley K, Twisk J, Lloyd CE, Peyrot M, Ismail K, Pouwer F. Type 2 diabetes
 487 mellitus as a risk factor for the onset of depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis.
 488 *Diabetologia.* 2010 Dec;53(12):2480-2486. doi:10.1007/s00125-010-1874-x
 489 35. Sisman P, Polat I, Aydemir E, Karsi R, Gul OO, Cander S, Ersoy C, Erturk E. How the
 490 COVID-19 outbreak affected patients with diabetes mellitus? *Int J Diabetes Dev Ctries.* 2022
 491 Jan; 42(1):53-61. doi:10.1007/s13410-021-00992-y
 492

493 Supporting Information

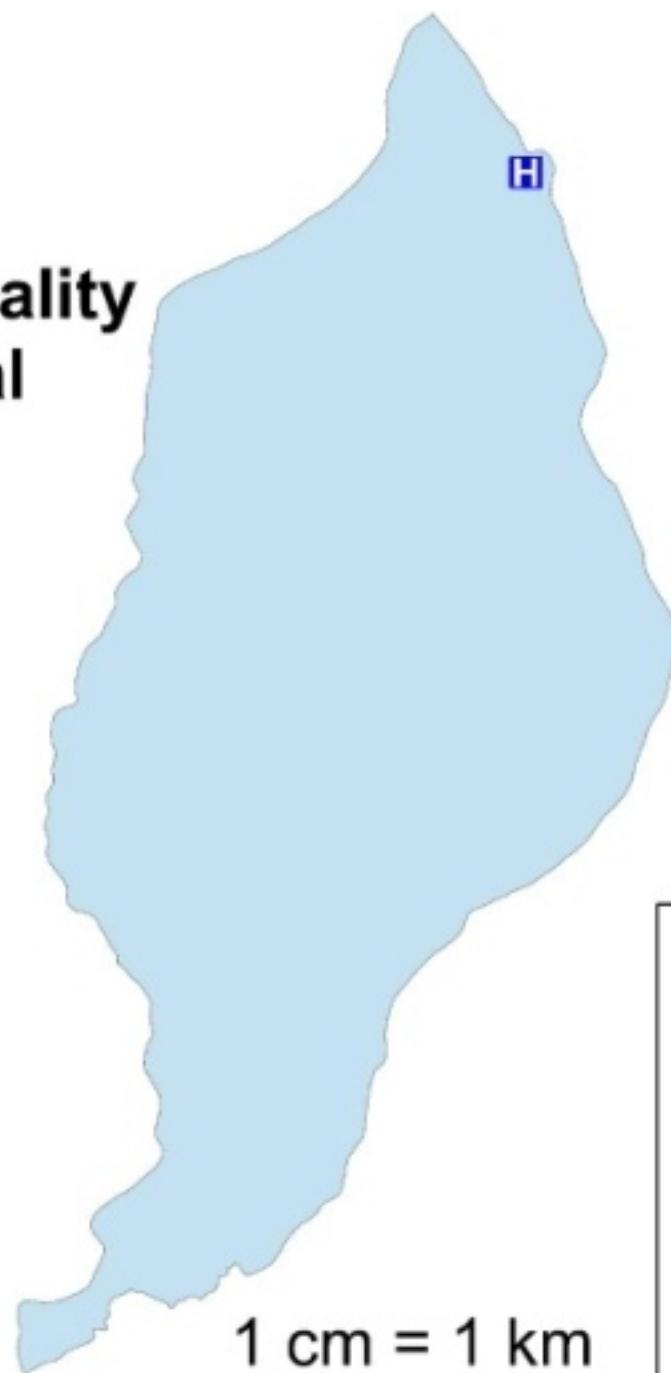
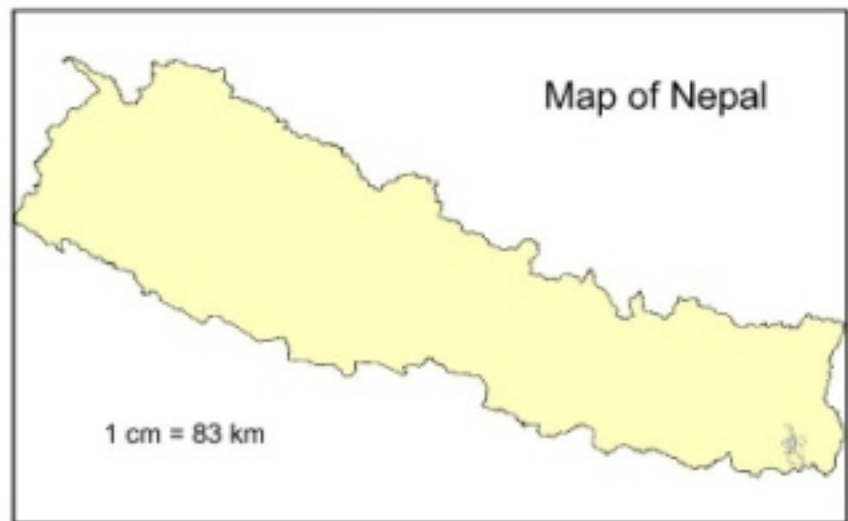
494 **S1 Table. Bivariate analysis of different significant variables in relation to PTSD**

Variables		PTSD (Yes or No)	
		Degrees of freedom	P-value
Gender	Male	1	0.0043
	Female		
Marital Status	Married	4	0.04096*
	Unmarried		
	Divorced		
	Separated		
Employment status	Employed	1	0.0353
	Unemployed		
Diabetes	Yes(Before COVID)	2	0.0001
	Yes(Only after COVID)		
	No Diabetes		
Kidney Disorder	Yes(Before COVID)	2	0.0003*
	Yes(Only after COVID)		
	No Disorder		
Cardiovascular	Yes(Before COVID)	2	


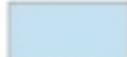
Disorder	Yes(Only after COVID)		1.609-06*
	No Disorder		
High Blood Pressure	Yes(Before COVID)	2	0.0001418
	Yes(Only after COVID)		
	No High Blood Pressure		
COPD	Yes(Before COVID)	2	2.294e-05*
	Yes(Only after COVID)		
	No COPD		
Yoga	Yes(Before COVID)	3	0.00144*
	Yes(After COVID)		
	No(Before COVID)		
	Yes(After COVID)		

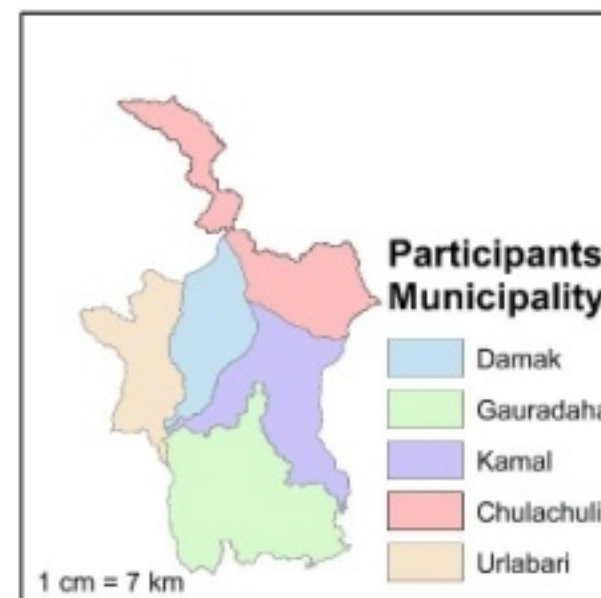
495 *Using Fisher's exact test

Map of Damak Municipality with COVID Hospital



Legend

-  Damak COVID Hospital
-  Damak



Map of study area