

サービス研究，あるいはプログラム評価研究の蓄積に向け克服すべき課題でもある。(1)開発，(2)データ収集，(3)データ収集後の活用，そして(4)担い手の問題の4つに分けて考えられる。

(1)開発に関わる課題には，開発主体と開発費用がある。独自にデータ収集するにはコストがかかり，データ蓄積や指標開発と妥当性の検証，指標の改善には10年はかかるが，それを賄う主体が競争的研究資金で賄われる研究班というのでは継続的な研究は難しい。目途が立った段階で長期間・安定的な財源を賄われる主体が開発に当たるべきである。英米などでは政府が行っている。

(2)データ収集に関わる課題として，既存データがあっても提供を受けられない，縦断追跡に必要な個人特定をさせてもらえない，独自に収集する場合には参加施設・市町村の負担軽減策

が必要である⁵⁹⁾。有限な社会保障財源を効果的・効率的・公正に使うため，公益にかなうデータ利用を認める法的な裏付けがなければ自治体等が持つデータ利用は進まないだろう。

(3)データ収集後に活用されなければ，データ蓄積や評価は継続されない。それらの Good Practice を収集する必要がある。

(4)担い手の問題では，評価研究ができる人材を育成する大学院は日本にはほとんどなく，研究費の枠も少ない。例えば，医学部でも医療サービス研究を担う社会医学系の教員ポストが減少している。これでは人材の育成が進まず研究が蓄積されない。

医療サービス研究をテーマにしてきた者から見ると，国として評価システムを整備するのとは比べ，現状は極めて費用対効果が悪い状況である。これらの克服が望まれる。

V. おわりに

限られた社会保障財源を効率的に配分するためには，費用対効果分析の視点が不可欠である。ただし，それには費用と共に効果の測定が必要である。しかし，今まで日本では医療や介護サービス，ケアの効果（質）の評価研究が遅れていた。そこで，筆者らが取り組んで来た医療サービス研究の事例を紹介し，医療の質・効果の「見える化」の到達点と可能性，そして今後の課題を論じた。

医療サービス研究の到達点としては，既存データを活かし，独自データを加えることで，質評価は，紹介してきた程度には可能である。その結果，同じ介護予防事業でも，医療でも，介護サービスや終末期ケアにおいても，効果があるものもあれば，乏しいものもあることが明らかであった。国民が公的な医療費や社会保障費の拡大のための負担を受け入れてくれるため

にも，無駄を排除して，増やした医療費や介護費が，ケアの質や公平性の改善につながるような仕組みづくりが必要である。そのためには，医療・ケアの質や効率・公平性について「見える化」を進めることが必要である。このような医療の質評価研究を積み重ね，効果の大きい部分とそうでない部分を区別しないまま一律に費用抑制すれば，介護予防や良質な医療，介護サービスの欠如で要介護認定は増え，終末期に苦痛に苦しむ患者は増える。医療における「痛み」とは，欲しい贅沢品を我慢することや比喩としての痛みとは違う。最も基本的な人権である「いのち」が奪われることであり，文字通りの苦痛を意味する。

日本における「評価と説明責任の時代」「見える化の時代」が本格的なものに成熟していくには，各領域における大規模データベースの構

築, それらを活用したサービス評価研究とマネジメント研究の蓄積, それらを含むマネジ

メント・システムの開発が必要である。

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Evaluation of Effectiveness, Quality and Inequalities in Health, Medical and Long-Term Care – Achievements and Challenges –

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Abstract

The viewpoint of cost effectiveness analysis is essential for efficiently allocating limited social security resources. To do this, effectiveness must be measured together with costs. However, evaluation studies for effectiveness and quality of health, medical and long-term care in Japan have lagged behind those in other well developed countries.

We will hereby present studies that we have conducted regarding health (preventive care), rehabilitation medicine, long-term care (quality of care at special nursing homes for elderly people) and end-of-life care. In addition, we will discuss achievements in and potentials for “visualization” in the effectiveness and quality of health, medical and long-term care, and present future challenges.

In each study, some programs led to significant effects, while others did not. Simply suppressing costs uniformly without distinguishing between effective and ineffective programs will also inhibit activities that are effective. To encourage citizens to accept the cost burden associated with expansion of social security costs, it is critical to construct frameworks for “visualization” that lead to improved care quality and equity by utilizing increased health and long-term care costs while eliminating waste. This requires the construction of large-scale databases in each field, the accumulation of health services research and the development of a management system encompassing those findings.

Keywords: Care quality, health services research, visualization, database

JEL Classification: I00, I10, I12, I32

I. Background and purpose

With increased necessity for fiscal reform, debate on suppressing social security costs has been reignited. Although some have suggested “painful suppression of social security costs” as a means of combating the fiscal crisis, few of them would completely deny the necessity of social security. Thus, it is best to carefully proceed with cost reduction measures with no (or little) pain while maintaining the functions of social security as much as possible.

Cost performance analysis is widely used in regard to public works and suchlike in Japan and other countries when selecting policies and programs that offer significant benefits, effectiveness and utility (hereinafter referred to as “effectiveness”) using limited resources. This involves comparatively analyzing the ratio of cost to effectiveness, such as simultane-

ously analyzing effectiveness and costs to determine whether effectiveness exceed costs, comparing two or more choices such as A and B to decide which choice offers the greatest effectiveness with the same costs or which choice lowers costs with the same effectiveness.

Measures and services with no effectiveness at all are a waste of funds. If this could be clarified and made it sufficiently known to the citizens of Japan, not only would inhibiting or discontinuing such measures be painless, but wasteful costs could also be reduced. Therefore, demonstrating which measures have no effectiveness makes painless waste elimination possible. Meanwhile, even if painful cost reduction is unavoidable, a means of reducing the pain or damage accompanying it is to retain the portions with excellent cost effectiveness and reduce costs from the parts with poor cost effectiveness. Thus, amid the tendency for tightening up fiscal constraints in the future, the importance and necessity of cost effectiveness analysis is likely to increase as well.

Some instances of cost effectiveness analysis have been accumulated in social security fields including health, medicine and welfare (caregiving). In many countries, they have been used as one basis for determining target technology covered by public medical costs. However, in Japan, cost effectiveness analysis regarding health and long-term care is lagging behind those of medication. As a reason for that, it can be indicated that there is little accumulated research regarding it due to a weak research basis for the evaluation of (clinical) effectiveness, which is the foundation for cost effectiveness analysis.

In consideration of increased need for such evaluation, we have previously been involved in research evaluating the effectiveness and quality of health, medical and long-term care (hereinafter abbreviated to “health care”). As part of this, we have also conducted rough cost estimates. In this report, we introduce this research and examine the following issues. Firstly, we discuss why the evaluation of cost effectiveness for health care is difficult. Secondly, we introduce some cases within these limitations and indicate to what extent the evaluation of programs—and the effectiveness and quality of services in health care—is possible. The cases we present are related to health (care prevention), rehabilitation medicine, long-term care and end-of-life care. Thirdly, we will discuss challenges in promoting cost-effectiveness analysis, which is becoming increasingly necessary, and the health services research upon which it is based in Japan.

II. Why is it difficult to research cost effectiveness?

Cost effectiveness analysis offers information with its basis in a consideration of optimal allocation or of priorities for introduction or abolition regarding limited resources. However, excluding some parts, such as medication, evaluation research regarding social security-related fields such as health care have been hardly conducted in Japan. The following difficulties may have contributed to this.

II-1. Lack of collaborative research between economics and health services research

Performing cost effectiveness analysis requires an interest in economics such as optimal allocation of resources, as well as academic knowledge of economics such as concepts of direct and indirect costs, benefits and effectiveness, marginal effects, methods of cost analysis, cost-benefit analysis, cost effectiveness analysis and cost utility analysis.

Meanwhile, professional knowledge regarding health care is also required. This includes knowledge of: medical needs for which health care technology should be applied (disease and pathology, degree of severity, common complications); teams and processes that provide health services; substitute intervention measures that could be used for comparison and contrast; costs that arise in those processes; characteristics or limitations of costs and receipt data; effectiveness of health care; utility and adverse effects; and, related confounding factors. (Hereinafter, research regarding such health care is described as “health services research” to distinguish it from medical research in the narrow sense, of which the basic science is biomedicine). In other words, cost effectiveness analysis requires knowledge of both economics and health services research. Gathering and analyzing data backed by such wide-ranging academic knowledge requires research project teams related to both fields. However, this is rare in Japan.

As a result, most medical data handled by economists in Japan has been receipt data. The receipt data includes invested medical resources (activity) and detailed data of costs. However, information on the clinical conditions of patients, which determines the validity of the application of medical activity, is mainly limited to Diagnosis Procedure Combination (DPC) information. Clinical information for evaluating treatment effectiveness only includes in-hospital death and does not include information, for example, in regard to whether blood pressure decrease or whether subsequent rehabilitation allows patients to walk. This means that the effectiveness of medical activity cannot be verified, so cost effectiveness is unknown even if the costs are calculated. Meanwhile, the main concern of medical researchers working on health service research is effectiveness and quality, and it is rare for them to collect information about costs. As a result, gathering data on both cost and effectiveness, which is essential for analysis of cost effectiveness, has been extremely rare, except in the case of medication (drugs), which must be submitted to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare.

II-2. Complicated outcomes brought about by complicated intervention

There is a reason why cost effectiveness analyses have been conducted regarding medication but rarely in the case of other health care services. For example, in case of anti-hypertension drugs, short-term effectiveness can be evaluated by measuring blood pressure. Furthermore, in verification of the effectiveness of single elements such as medication, adjustments with a randomized controlled trial (RCT) using a control group administered

placebo can be conducted relatively easily in order to investigate other factors influencing results. RCTs can be easily performed if the following characteristics are present: (1) it is a relatively simple intervention, (2) there is little influence of other factors, (3) outcomes are clearly defined and measurable, and (4) short-term effectiveness is verified. Meanwhile, when evaluating a service provided by many factors, people or teams involved, the intervention itself is complicated, and it is not easy to standardize the quality of the intervention¹⁾. For example, in the case of rehabilitation medicine mentioned below, many different professionals are involved, including doctors, nurses, physical therapists, occupational therapists and medical social workers. All of these people affect the quality of the health care provided. In the same team, some members of certain occupational categories are highly skilled, while other members of another category are less skilled. In addition, the presence of family caregivers can also affect treatment outcomes. Furthermore, when determining treatment effectiveness, improvement of post-discharge quality of life (QOL) is the endpoint, but it can often be difficult to measure it with a simple index.

II-3. No (available) basic database

When many factors are involved, data of these many factors must be gathered. Databases used for multifaceted analysis must have many items. Furthermore, as all patients are different, extremely large-scale data including diverse patient data is required to investigate effectiveness on such diverse patients. To examine the effectiveness further, longitudinal data that clarifies changes between before and after the intervention is also essential.

Administrative data could be used to construct a database including large-scale, multifaceted, cross-sectional and longitudinal data. For example, data on individuals requiring long-term care alone includes information on over 5 million people. However, in many cases, despite the fact that the use of data for research purposes is not subject to the Act on the Protection of Personal Information, and this is explicitly stated, using such data is often rejected by administrative officials for reasons of unintended use or to protect individual privacy.

If the secondary use of existing data is impossible, we have to make a new database by ourselves with a very limited number of evaluation targets and items. For example, as presented further below, a database is limited to only fall prevention activity participants, or only end-of-life care patients with six months of life expectancy. More limitation of subjects leads to greater subject homogeneity, but subjects are then limited to a few subjects or tens of subjects from one facility or one city, which may make data unable to withstand statistical evaluation.

To overcome it, data from multiple facilities or cities must be pooled. However, it heightens the hurdle involved due to the necessity of gaining cooperation from multiple facilities and cities that accept the significance of evaluation research. Even if such cooperation was given, the increase in target facilities and cities would lead to greater variation in service and data quality despite one wanting to verify the quality of a certain service. This

would then make even greater effort necessary in order to standardize such factors. Furthermore, when constructing independent databases, more answers to questionnaires and more items to be input into the database leads to an increase in the number of non-response or missing fields, restricting the number of variables that can be ascertained.

Thus, there are many limitations associated with even the construction of a database that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness and quality of health care. To overcome this, a significant amount of human resources, research grants and lucky encounters with cooperators is necessary. The current period for competitive research grants is approximately three to five years, and many of them are on such a small scale that they do not even cover personnel costs. Thus, it is no easy task to even begin to construct a database for this type of research.

II-4. Lack of cooperative research between the government and researchers

Data held by the government has great latent potential but it is rarely used for policy evaluation that can withstand academic criticism. There are a number of background factors for it. Firstly, the government and researchers have different priorities. Researchers, for example, prioritize adjustment by means of statistical methods that deduct the influence of factors such as age. In addition to age, data is required for many factors influencing effectiveness including gender, diagnosis and degree of severity. To examine effectiveness, an intervention group and control group need to be compared, and information from both before and after the intervention is required. Researchers believe that the mission is to determine what the “true effectiveness” of health care technology or factors are even after deducting the influence of the aforementioned factors by using advanced statistical methods.

Meanwhile, from the viewpoint of the government, providing individually-identifying information is difficult with regards to protecting personal information, and gathering information from before intervention and “evaluation for the sake of evaluation” whereby data is gathered on a control group that has not undergone the intervention is “inconceivable from the standpoint of administrative purposes.” Moreover, strict research papers are difficult to understand and “cannot be used for policies.” On the other hand, even if there are researchers who could help with evaluation or analysis that could be used for administration, the requirements for academic papers are not met so the work is not evaluated as being academic. Therefore, even if young research scientists get involved in this work, they would not be able to progress to higher academic posts, making it feel it a burden for them.

Such different priorities between the government and researchers means that there is rarely progression in collaborative research.

Thus, the involvement of many factors means that the construction of large-scale databases necessary for cost effectiveness analysis and collaboration between related parties is especially not proceeding in Japan compared to many other developed countries.

III. Case examples of health service research

Despite these limitations, we have engaged in evaluation research cases in the following fields: (1) health (care prevention), (2) rehabilitation medicine, (3) long-term care and (4) end-of-life care.

In evaluation of health policy, the “Threes E’s” are important: (1) Efficiency or cost, (2) Effectiveness or quality, and (3) Equity or access. Adding to these, the extra “E” of (4) Empowerment for patients and citizens has led to the evaluation criteria known as the “Four E’s”, and good balance in these Four E’s is considered to be a requirement for a good health-care system²⁾.

However, in Japan, evaluation of quality and the advantages and disadvantages of access has lagged behind that in other developed countries as only cost has been focused on. Cost alone cannot be used to evaluate cost effectiveness. Firstly, methodology and frameworks need to be constructed for evaluating health care that offers a predictable effectiveness and quality. As mentioned above, this is not easy, but not impossible.

III-1. *Health (care prevention)*

One foundation of the reform of long-term care insurance system in 2006 was the introduction of a system emphasizing the prevention of functional decline called “care prevention”. The results of this care prevention policy that was introduced in Japan, which is the most aged country in the world, is drawing attention from other countries including nations in Asia where the number of older people is increasing. The question remains as to whether care prevention is effective or not.

We investigated the situation and cause of it not leading to the desired results and will report on the necessity of “another strategy” and its basic directionality. Next, we will introduce the results of a community intervention study to verify the effectiveness of a new community-building type of prevention program, and give an overview of a cost analysis of the system.

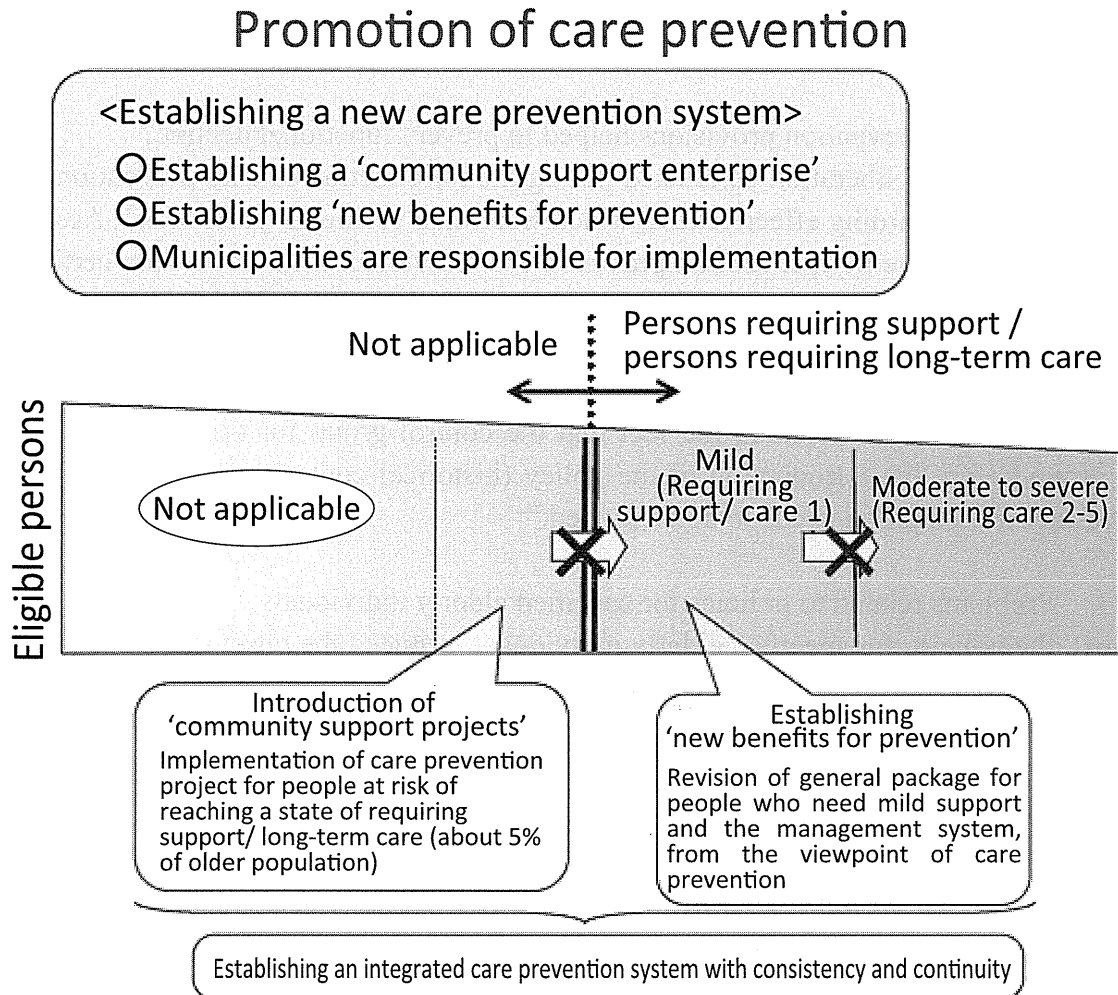
III-1-1. Care prevention activity framework

Care prevention is composed of two parts. The first is “benefit for prevention” targeting individuals who have already been certified as requiring long-term care. The second is “care prevention projects” performed as part of “community support projects” targeting individuals who have not yet been certified as being in need of long-term care (Figure 1).

The latter, “care prevention projects,” is further divided into “specified elderly policies” and “general elderly policies.” Specified elderly individuals are “persons likely to later require public insurance benefits for support or long-term care,” and “general elderly individuals” refers to all other elderly individuals.

(Currently, the names have been changed, but here we use the expression “specified el-

Figure 1
Overview of care prevention-focused system



(Reference) Health, Labor and Welfare Ministry document—partly modified

derly individual” which was used when it was introduced.)

There are two strategies in preventive medicine: high risk strategy and population strategy. It is considered important to combine these two strategies³⁾. High risk strategy refers to specifying high risk individuals through screening and conducting intervention for such individuals. Meanwhile, population strategy targets the entire population overall without performing screening.

According to the “community comprehensive support center work manual” (December 19, 2005) by the Health and Welfare Bureau for the Elderly of the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, high risk strategy is formulated for specified elderly individuals and population strategy is formulated for general elderly individuals for care prevention. In policies for specified elderly individuals, health checkup attendees undergo screening with a basic checklist to determine specified elderly individuals, and these people are recommended to participate in care prevention activities. Meanwhile, in policies for general elderly individu-

als, awareness-raising activities regarding care prevention knowledge involving the creation and allocation of pamphlets and lecture meetings are conducted in addition to the personnel training of volunteers engaging in care prevention, and the cultivation and support of community activity organizations.

III-1-2. Have new prevention provisions helped to prevent functional decline?

During the diet deliberation conducted during the introduction of care prevention, questions were raised regarding effectiveness, which were then verified 3 years later⁴⁾. According to this verification, the new prevention provision for individuals who have been certified as requiring long-term care “was found to lead to a statistically significant reduction in the number of persons exhibiting an aggravated condition before and after the policy introduction, confirming the care prevention effectiveness.” However, there were many limitations in this analysis method including the fact that the control group for this analysis was the same group before the introduction of the policy (historical control), and the report stated that “further investigation needs to be continued.”

III-1-3. Problems related to policies for specified elderly individuals

Next, the policies for specified elderly individuals “reduced the onset rate of aggravation for requiring long-term care for specified elderly individuals before and after the introduction of the policy but statistically significant care prevention effectiveness could not be calculated⁴⁾.”

As shown below, a reason for the policies for specified elderly individuals not being effective is the fact that the three conditions necessary for effective preventive policies were not fulfilled. Firstly, the fact that high risk individuals who should be targeted for care prevention activities could not be screened. Secondly, the fact that these people did not participate in the care prevention program. Thirdly, the problem of the effectiveness of the care prevention program in which such individuals would participate.

(1) Screening problems

Frail elderly individuals who have risk factors making them prone to requiring long-term care were estimated to account for approximately 5% of the elderly population at the time. However, they actually only accounted for 0.14%⁵⁾. One reason for this was the fact that screening was conducted for healthy participants.

Our investigation revealed that compared to individuals who do not undergo health checkups, those who do undergo such checkups are actually healthier^{6,7)}. Thus, healthy elderly individuals were unintentionally screened, making it impossible to understand “specified elderly individuals” according to the expected standards.

Another issue was the high cost involved in these policies. According to materials from the June 15, 2010 conference of national officials of Community-Comprehensive Support Centers, the costs required to determine specified elderly individuals with health checkups was approximately 50% of long-term care prevention activities (national expenditure base)

budget (17.6 billion yen). If cost-covered insurance was included, the cost rose to 34 billion yen (66.7%) of the 50.9 billion budget, meaning that more money was spent on ascertaining the target population than on providing care prevention programs.

(2) Problems related to participation refusal

There were also problems related to the second condition, “participation in care prevention programs by screened specified elderly individuals.” A significant number of people refused despite being recommended to participate in a care prevention program.

According to the Community-Comprehensive Support Center/Long-Term Care Officers’ Meeting materials (held on March 14, 2007), out of 112,124 specified elderly individuals (FY2006), over half did not participate in the program, including 27,025 (24.1%) who did not participate of their own accord.

In the year after its introduction, in consideration of the fact that activities were not proceeding as expected, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare released notifications of relaxing standards, making it possible to substitute self-administered questionnaires rather than screening health checkups, and recommending the use of common names, which are easy to use in each municipality, because of complaints from specified elderly individuals about using the name “specified elderly individuals.”

(3) Effectiveness of care prevention programs

Let us now consider the third condition, “Effectiveness of care prevention programs.” Looking at individual studies, although some reported that programs were effective, others reported that there were no effects. Regarding fall prevention, on which the studies have been accumulated, systematic reviews comprehensively investigating previous studies or meta-analysis⁸⁾ involving the gathering and re-analysis of data have been reported overseas. The results of the review of 19 controlled comparative studies (RCTs and pseudo-RCTs) indicated that the ratio of falls in the intervention group (relative risk ratio), when the control group was 1, was reduced to 0.91 to 0.90. However, no statistically significant difference was observed.

Let us now consider fall prevention programs in Japan. Four conditions were set based on evidence which had accumulated overseas, and the rates for requirement of long-term care one year later were compared between municipalities according to the extent of fulfilling the above conditions⁹⁾.

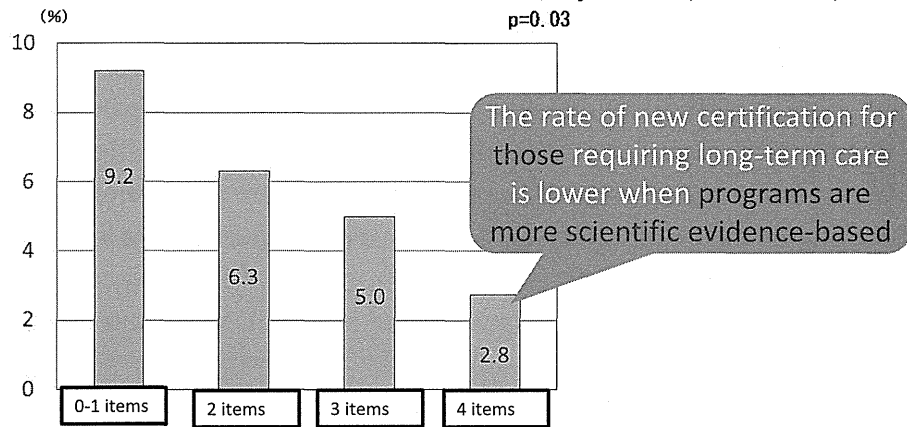
The results indicated that of the 71 target municipalities (insurers), there were 8 municipalities with programs that fulfilled all four conditions. In these municipalities, the rate of certification for requiring long-term care was 2.8%. However, in the municipalities for which only 0 to 1 of the conditions were fulfilled, this rate nearly tripled to 9.2%. Thus, fall prevention programs were considered effective not in all municipalities, but in some municipalities where high quality programs were provided.

These results above suggest that policies for specified elderly individuals have many problems: screening methods and costs, small number of individuals participating in activi-

Figure 2

Evidence-based fall prevention programs help decrease the proportion of new certifications

(Hayashi T, Kondo K, 2013)



•Survey of 71 municipalities throughout Japan: We calculated rates for certification of those requiring long-term care according to the number of items that meet the following “four characteristics.”

•“Four characteristics” for which there is evidence proving they are effective in fall prevention programs:

- (1) Staff specialized in exercise guidance are involved in fall prevention intervention, such as physiotherapists and occupational therapists.
- (2) The exercise program includes not only muscle strength enhancing, but also balance training.
- (3) The total time of intervention involving instruction from an instructor and home exercise is at least 2 hours per week.
- (4) A follow-up program after conclusion of the fall prevention workshop is provided.

ties despite being screened, program effectiveness and the scale (coverage ratio) of subjects for the care prevention program¹⁰⁾.

III-1-4. Problematic points related to policies for general elderly individuals-missing program evaluation

Let us now consider an “alternate care prevention strategy,” comprising policies for general elderly individuals (=population strategies).

Most policies for general elderly individuals involve awareness-raising activities through lecture meetings or similar, and few have organized care prevention programs for which the intervention theory and methodology has been indicated. Although the system in place does include activities to evaluate the effectiveness of such programs, most of the results of such assessment have not been reported. Even investigations of the number of participants, which is a basic form of evaluation, have only indicated rough estimates, and the actual number of participants had not even been investigated until 2014. Furthermore, as lists of participants are rarely made, participants cannot be followed up in order to evaluate effectiveness using the currently-available information.

III-1-5. Novel pilot program=choices for care prevention

Thus, evaluation and verification is currently insufficient for the aforementioned three policies, “new benefits for prevention,” “policies for specified elderly individuals” and “policies for general elderly individuals,” and these have not been refined into effective systems. As a result, the effectiveness cannot be evaluated, let alone the cost effectiveness of these activities. Despite the limited information that is available, it is highly likely that both effec-

tive and ineffective policies are in place. If an attempt is made to restrict costs without a system for evaluating effectiveness, the scale of all current policies will have to be reduced equally. This would mean that even effective activities would be discontinued. However, what we need to restrict is ineffective activities only.

The next issue that we face is enhancing evaluation. If things progress randomly without it, “exorbitant waste” on a scale of tens of billions of yen such as that observed for target screening costs is likely to continually occur. Considering our limited social insurance resources brought about as the declining birth rate and aging society becomes more serious, it is unacceptable to simply maintain the current status.

There are three future options for Japanese society. The first is continuing to improve the problems associated with policies for specified elderly individuals while expanding such activities by 10-fold or more. The second choice is developing and evaluating programs that equate to an “alternate care prevention strategy,” comprising policies for general elderly individuals (=population strategies), and also developing effective strategies and methods. The third option is to quickly come to the conclusion that “efforts to prevent functional decline are essentially attempting to achieve ‘eternal youth and longevity,’ making these efforts unrealistic and fruitless,” and abandon such efforts.

In the field of program evaluation, the term “type III error (mistake)” is used¹¹⁾. These errors, including “type I errors” that mistakenly assume effectiveness (despite lack of statistical significance), “type II errors” that overlook effectiveness (despite statistical significance), and “type III errors”, which refers to discontinuing activities in the early stages despite the possibility of effectiveness if improvements are made. If an evaluation were conducted, we could determine whether certain care prevention programs were highly effective or non-apparently effective. Type III error refers to completely stopping activities due to effectiveness not being apparent overall. The discontinuation of care prevention activities that are still under discussion is likely to fall under this type of error.

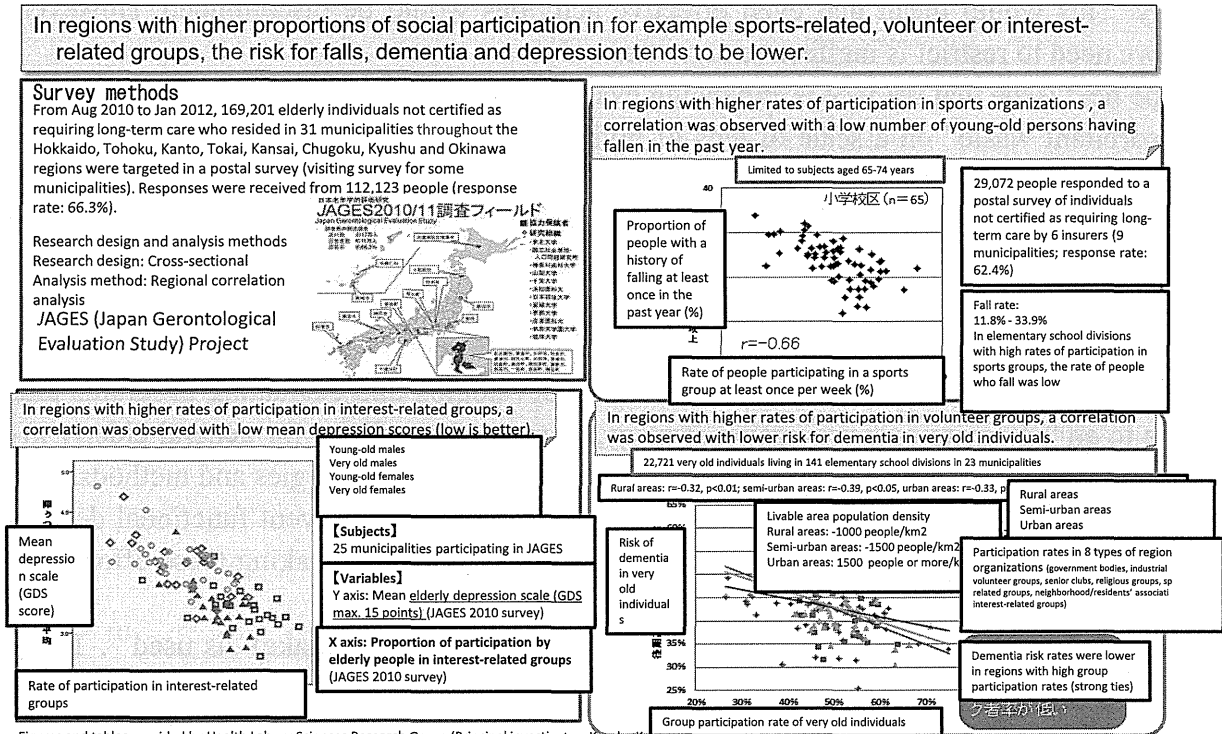
III-1-6. Social capital and Taketoyo Project

With the aim of obtaining basic evidence for policies for elderly care, we have been involved in the Aichi Gerontological Evaluation Study (AGES) project since 1999^{12;13)}. As part of this, we have verified the relationship between community social capital and the health of residents in the community. Social capital is the richness of “social cohesion between residents in the community” that Robert Putnam, a political scientist, has defined as “the characteristics of the social structures of trust, norms and networks that can improve social efficiency by vitalizing coordinated activities¹⁴⁾.”

Various research results have indicated that social capital is related to health. Ecological correlation analysis with municipalities or elementary schools as aggregate units (Figure 3) found that communities with many older people who participated in sports or hobby groups had fewer individuals with a history of falling, low depression scores (good mental health) and a low proportion of individuals at risk for dementia¹⁵⁾.

Analyses using self-rated health¹⁶⁾, which has predictive power of mortality, as a health

Figure 3
The Relationship between Social Participation and Care Prevention Effects



Figures and tables provided by Health Labour Sciences Research Group (Principal Investigator: Kondo, K.)
Source: 47th Social Security Council, Caregiving Insurance Sectional Meeting Materials

index have also indicated the same results. The correlation coefficients of social capital and the proportion of people who answered that their self-rated health was not good were calculated for each of the 25 old villages. This led to a result of -0.50 ($p=0.02$), revealing a relationship whereby richer social capital indicated fewer individuals with “poor health levels.” However, ecological studies such as this of simple community level correlations between values aggregated for community units can overestimate the relationship.

Therefore, we performed multi-level analyses, which can simultaneously analyze correlations between individual level and community level variables^{17;18}. These results indicated that in a community with 1% higher values for general sense of trust, the rate of people who responded that their self-rated health was poor, was reduced by 4%. Although this figure appears very low, the denominator was all elderly individuals living in that region, and the figure accounts for 40 out of every 1000 individuals, resulting in showing that this effect is not low at all.

The health indices used also include mental health indices¹⁹ and more objective index of the number of remaining teeth²⁰. It follows that the “introduction of the concept of social capital” was included in the 2014 Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare white paper.

(1) A population strategy in the social capital theory – Taketoyo Project

If population strategies targeting general elderly individuals could enrich social capital

by encouraging them to participate in social activities, it may likely improve psychological status and social lifestyles overall, and increase the health level of community-residing elderly individuals. Though many programs targeting them have been introduced nationwide, few programs has been evaluated in regard to effectiveness on health.

Therefore, we have been evaluating effectiveness of care prevention programs based on social capital theory. In Taketoyo town, Aichi Prefecture, there is a community intervention-trial called the Taketoyo Project.^{21;22;23;24)}

Three sites called “salons” at which older people enjoy social activities programs were established in 2007, and by 2014, the salons had increased to 11 sites. Interim evaluation has indicated that these programs have promoted social support and participation, which are compositional elements of social capital. We also found that healthier people are likely to participate in the program. Therefore, even when a participant group exhibits the anticipated improvement in health indices, it might be the effects of better health at baseline. To take account of these effects and unobservable differences between individuals who participated in the program and those who did not, we used the instrumental variable method, in which the distance from each resident’s home to the nearest salon was used as an instrumental variable. As a result, a favorable outcome of a 2.5-fold improvement in self-rated health was observed in individuals who participated in the program. Then, the Taketoyo Project was introduced on the homepage of the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (http://www.mhlw.go.jp/bunya/shakaihosho/seminar/02_88.html, http://www.mhlw.go.jp/bunya:shakaihosho/seminar/dl/02_88-24.pdf).

As it mainly targeted healthy individuals, no statistically significant differences were de-

Figure 4

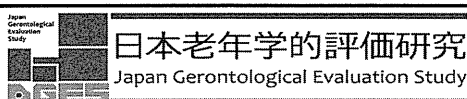
Case example of community-building utilizing long-term care prevention activities

<http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/2009/05/tp0501-1.html>

Taketoyo City, Aichi Prefecture

Long-term Care Prevention Manual Revised Version, p.4

For example, in Taketoyo City, Aichi Prefecture, Japan, regional salons for learning and exchange that could be easily accessed by elderly individuals at any time were introduced as a primary prevention activity in each district and they are run autonomously by residents. When preparing to establish these regional salons, municipalities called for resident volunteers and gave explanations of planning to them. Subsequently, the volunteers came up with issues for the region, as well as discussing the type of salon necessary for each region, leading to the opening of the salons. The diverse plans drawn up as part of these regionally-autonomous activities were created based on each region’s needs, and results have been seen such as a great increase in the number of individuals participating in long-term caregiving prevention activities compared to the previous year.



Taketoyo Project (Regional intervention research to prevent long-term care)

<http://square.umin.ac.jp/ages/taketoyo.html>

tected in rates of certification for requiring long-term care insurance in short-term follow-up. However, 5-year follow-up indicated significant suppression of the rate of certification for requiring long-term care insurance. Analysis with instrumental variables etc. taking account of background factors such as the fact that healthier people can more easily attend such salons also indicated the same results. The rate of certification for requiring long-term care insurance for participants was 7.7%, which was roughly half of that of non-participants (14%)²⁵⁾.

(2) Taketoyo Project cost analysis

The costs used for the salons program in Taketoyo Town were analyzed in 2010. Costs were calculated to include fees paid by the town, public long-term care insurance such as administrative outsourcing expenses, and human resource costs for personnel at Health Divisions, Welfare Divisions, community comprehensive support centers and the social welfare council. Costs for full-time employees were calculated based on the Survey on Wages of Local Government Employees, with the part-time hourly wage calculated as 800 yen. Opportunity costs for volunteers were not included as costs. These were calculated based on government materials and similar²⁶⁾.

The total cost for one year was 6,327,077 yen. The breakdown of (1) personnel costs and (2) actual total annual expenditure was 3,197,460 yen and 3,129,617 yen, respectively (Table 1).

Actual total annual expenditure included venue operating costs provided by the town, gratuities for instructors, expendable supply costs and casual employment wages (Table 2). Venue operating costs totaled 2,724,590 yen for eight sites in 2010. This figure was approximately 4% lower than that of the previous year despite the number of salons increasing by one (Table 3).

In 2010, there were eight salons, 727 actual participants (counting participants who went to multiple salons once, excluding guest participants and those who only participated in the opening ceremony), 177 registered volunteers, 6,441 total participants (including volunteers, opening ceremony and free participants and invited guests), and 109 open days.

Thus, the annual cost was 8,703 yen per actual participant and 982 yen per total participant (Table 1). Costs per salon were calculated by dividing total cost by the eight salons, resulting in 790,885 yen. The cost per salon open day was calculated by dividing total cost by salon open days, resulting in 58,047 yen.

The nationwide annual mean amount of benefits for each individual who certified as requiring long-term care insurance is approximately 1.92 million yen. Although it depends on hypothetical conditions, if at least 4 persons per year could be inhibited from being certified as requiring long-term care insurance, this program would offer excellent cost effectiveness. For 5 years, approximately 46 individuals (7.7%²⁵⁾ of the approximately 600 participants in 2009) and 9 individuals per year could be anticipated to not be certificated as requiring long-term care as a result of this program, it appears to offer excellent cost effectiveness.

Table1
Total costs and breakdown for Taketoyo Project

		Year of 2010
Cost item	Breakdown/unit	Cost (yen)
Total cost		6,327,077
①Personnel		3,197,460
②Total actual expenses	Venue operating costs, remuneration for instructors, irregular employment wages, etc.	3,129,617
	Per actual participant (727 people)	8,703
	Per total participants (6,441 people)	982
	Per salon location (8 locations)	790,885
	Per salon day open (109 days)	58,047

(2012 Outline of actual survey for long term care benefits) Annual long term care benefits per person is 1.92 million Yen=It pays for itself when reducing the number of people who newly certified as requiring long-term care at a rate of 4 people a year vs an average of 600 people in 5 years × 7.7%=46 people

Table 2
Breakdown of total annual expenditure

Cost item	Cost of venue management, etc.	Gratuity for lecturers	Other consumables	Postage fees	Wages for casual employment	Total
Annual expenditure	2,724,590	190,000	29,987	5,840	179,200	3,129,617

Guidelines for each venue, including expenses for commission, consumables, rental charge for venue-including gratuities for lecturers included in expenses for venue commission
Reference:Taketoyo City documents

Table 3
Summary of performance of the program

Each venue's performance	Number of actual participants	Number of registered volunteers	Total number of participants	Number of open days	Registration fee (income)	Cost of venue management, etc.	Increase and decrease of allowance	Remarks
2009 total	637	155	5,223	91	409,500	2,827,780		7 venues
2010 total	727	177	6,441	109	519,200	2,724,590	△ 103,190	8 venues
Comparison with the previous year	114%	114%	123%	119%	116%	96%		

Reference:Kondo, Takeda & Suzuki (2014)-the author developed from the briefing paper, etc.