平成29年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)

縦断調査を用いた中高年者の生活実態の変化とその要因に関する研究

(H28 - 統計 - 一般 - 005)

平成29年度 総括・分担研究報告書

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平成30年(2018年)3月

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平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 総括研究報告

縦断調査を用いた中高年者の生活実態の変化とその要因に関する研究

研究代表者 金子 能宏 一橋大学経済研究所・教授

研究要旨

研究代表者(金子能宏)は、「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データに基づいて、研究協力者の川口大司・松山晋一の協力を得て「定年前後の就業状態の推移」に関する分析を行い、同じく研究協力者の湯田道生の協力を得て「所得が医療利用に与える影響」に関する研究を行うとともに、本研究の総括を行った。

研究組織

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A. 研究目的

「ニッポンー億総活躍プラン」(平成 28 年 6 月)に示された高齢者の就労促進・社会参加が確保される社会、高齢者と現役世代が安心して生活できる社会保障制度を構築することが課題となっている。2015 年の中高年者(60歳)の平均余命は男性 23.5 年、女性 28.8 年に達した。高齢化の進行は、単身世帯の増加など中高年者の世帯構造や介護状況に影響し、年金受給者の増加と労働

力需給の変化を通じて就業機会に影響し、 所得・資産の格差、医療・介護サービス利 用の格差、中高年者のメンタルヘルス問題 など重層的な影響が生じている可能性があ る。第 7 回働き方改革実現会議(平成 29 年 2 月)では、「エイジレス」に働くための キャリアチェンジの促進、継続雇用等の促 進、「雇用」ではない多様な働き方の促進と して「起業」による就業機会の創出支援を 行うことなどが政策課題として提示された (第 7 回働き方改革実現会議資料「高齢者の 就業促進について」)。

また、健康日本 2 1 (第二次)(平成 24 年 7月)では、平成 25 年度からの 10 か年計画の方針の一つとして「自立した日常生活を営むことを目指し、ライフステージに応じ、「こころの健康」「次世代の健康」「高齢者の健康」を推進」することが示された。したがって、全世代が安心して生活できる社会保障制度を構築するためには、中高年者の生活状態・健康状態を把握し、社会保障制度や社会経済的要因を考慮しながら定年退職前後の行動変容を分析し、政策に資する基礎的資料を得ることが必要で

ある。

本研究の目的は、これらの課題に対応して「中高年者縦断調査」を用いて、中高年者の生活状況と就業の関係、中高年者の属性(学歴等)と健康状況・メンタルヘルスとの関係、医療需要行動に関連する実態把握、及び定年退職前後の行動変容等について、パネル・データの特性を生かした実証分析を行い、社会保障の充実・安定化に向けた施策に資する基礎資料を得るとともに縦断調査の利活用を進めることである。

B.研究方法

「中高年者縦断調査」第1回から第10回までの調査結果から得られる個票データを利用して、研究協力者の協力を得ながら各種の実証分析を行った。また、研究分担者である高山と小塩も、「、分担研究報告」で説明したように、それぞれの研究テーマに基づき実証分析を行った。

(倫理面への配慮)

政府の公的統計の二次利用に基づく分析であり、倫理面への追加的な配慮は不要。

C.研究結果

研究協力者の協力を得て、以下の研究結果が得られた。まず。研究協力者の川口大司・松山晋一は、「定年前後の就業状態の推移」について実証分析し、60歳で定年退職した労働者の多くが、再雇用制度を用いて新たな雇用契約の下で同じ企業で働き続けること、その就業継続の傾向は企業内にけること、その就業継続の傾向は企業内にした。を持つといわれる大企業で顕著であることを明らかに少事を指し、この結果は企業特殊的人的資本理論と整合的で、現実は一つの理論のみでは、は整合的で、現実は一つの理論のみでは、はできないことに留意する必要性を指摘した。

また、研究協力者の湯田道生は、所得水準が医療利用に与える影響に関する研究が日本ではこれまでマクロ・メゾレベルの都道府県データを用いた分析にとどまっていることを鑑みて、中高年者の所得水準と受診行動・健康状態がわかる「所得が医療利用に与える影響」について実証分析し、医療需要の所得弾力性は、マクロデータを用いた計測結果以上に非弾力的であることを示した。

D . 考察

「中高年者縦断調査」は豊富な変数があ ること、調査期間が長い(10年以上)こと、 サンプルの脱落率が比較的少なく(脱落 率:毎回平均4%)パネル・データとして のサンプル数が多いことなど多くのメリッ トがある。(既存の個票レベルのパネル・デ ータとして、JSTAR と JAGES があるが、前 者は10地域に限られており、後者はやや高 齢層に偏っておりまだ全国ではない。した がって、クロス集計や年齢階層別のデータ ごとの回帰分析に加えて、変数間の相互影 響・内生性を考慮した複数の推定方法によ る比較分析、生存時間分析、パネル・デー タ分析など新しい推定方法を応用して、中 高年者の生活実態の把握と引退過程におけ る政策と行動変容に関わる実証分析ができ るメリットがある。とくに、健康関連変数 と社会経済変数がともに豊富で学際的研究 に有効である(例1:社会疫学・公衆衛生・ 老年学における学際的研究、例2:労働経 済学・家計経済学・家族社会学での学際的 研究)。ただし、居住地情報は第1回調査の みであるため、少子高齢化と都市部と地方 との格差是正のために関心がもたれている 人口移動に関する研究や最近発展している GIS を応用した研究については、同調査を 用いた分析が難しいという課題が残されて いる。

E . 結論

本研究の結果は、分担研究の結果と相俟って、「中高年者縦断調査」を用いた分析によって厚生労働行政の各分野の政策立案に資する基礎的資料のみならず、各分野の政策の連携に資する基礎的資料を提供することが可能になることを示唆している。

F.健康危険情報

- G.研究発表
- 1. 論文発表なし
- 2 . 学会発表なし
- H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況
- 1. 特許取得

なし

2. 実用新案登録

なし

3. その他

なし

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定年前後の就業状態の推移

川口 大司 松山 普一

2018年5月

概要

労働者が一つの企業で長期勤続し、勤続年数の増加とともに賃金上昇を経験することは世界 の多くの国で共通して観察される現象である。これらの現象を説明する代表的理論として企業 特殊的人的資本理論とラジア型賃金後払い契約的理論がある。本稿では日本の中高年齢層を対 象としたパネルデータである厚生労働省中高年縦断調査を用いて、多くの企業で 60歳に設定 されている定年退職前後の就業状態の推移を分析し、これらの理論より得られる予測を検証す る。分析の結果、60歳で定年退職した労働者の多くが、再雇用制度を用いて新たな雇用契約の 下で同じ企業で働き続けることが明らかになった。また、その傾向は企業内に人的資本蓄積を 促す賃金体系を持つといわれる大規模企業でより顕著であることも明らかになった。これらの 発見は企業特殊的人的資本理論とラジア型賃金後払い契約的理論の双方と整合的であり、現実 は一つの理論のみでは説明できないことを示している。

1 はじめに

多くの労働者は労働市場にでて数年のうちは転職をしながら適職を探していき、数年ののちには適した会社を探し、その会社で長い職業人生を送ることになる。日本の大卒者のうち大企業に就職するもののように新卒で入社した企業で長い職業人生を送ることが一般的であったり、欧州大陸諸国のようにインターンなどの不安定雇用を経験して安定的な雇用に移行していくなど、マッチングのプロセスに国による違いはあるものの、一度安定的なマッチングを探した後では特定の企業で長い職業人生を送るという特性は多かれ少なかれ様々な労働市場に共通する特徴である。また、その程度に国ごとの差があるものの、勤続年数が伸びるにつれて賃金が上がっていくというのも様々な労働市場に共通してみられる現象である。

このようにある労働者が特定の企業で長期勤続をして、その対価として賃金上昇を経験する という、多くの国に共通する特徴を説明するための有力な理論として大きく分けて、?による 企業特殊的人的資本と Lazear (1979) による賃金後払い契約の理論がある。前者はある技能が 特定の企業においてしか利用できない時にその技能に対しての投資が企業と労働者の共同投資 として起こり、結果として投資収益が企業と労働者の間で分けられるとするもので、技能に関 係特殊性があるゆえに長期勤続と勤続に伴う賃金上昇が

起こる。後者の賃金後払い契約は、企業と労働者の間に現在の努力水準に関して情報の非対称性があるとき、労働者はその企業への貢献よりも低い賃金支払いを受け入れることで暗黙の債権をつみ、のちに貢献よりも高い賃金を受け取ることでその債権を回収するという考え方である。労働者は暗黙の債権を企業に対して持っているがゆえに、それを回収できるように、高い努力水準で働くことになり同時に一つの企業で働き続け、勤続年数に伴う賃金上昇も経験することになる。

これら三つの代表的な理論は長期勤続や勤続に伴う賃金情報を説明し、排他的ではないが、どちらの理論がどのくらい観察される現象を説明しているのかを明らかにすることは難しい。 三つの理論は勤続年数と労働者の企業への貢献、勤続年数と賃金の三つの関係についてその関係の傾きの大小関係について異なる予測を出すものの、労働者の企業への貢献を観察することが難しいためである。そこでこの論文では、日本において多くの雇用労働者が 60 歳で定年を迎え、同じ会社で新たな待遇の下で働き続けたり、別の会社に転職したりして働き方の大きな変化を経験することに着目し、三つの理論の相対的な重要性を明らかにすることを試みる。日本の高齢者の就業に関しての分析は多数あるが(Oshio et al., 2011; Shimizutani and Oshio; Shimizutani, 2011; Shimizutani and Oshio, 2013; Usui et al., 2016)、これらの研究に比し てこの研究の特徴は、長期勤続と勤続年数に伴う賃金上昇の理論の検証を目的としている点に ある。

多くの日本の企業が定年年齢を 60 歳に定めていることは、ラジア型の賃金後払い契約の理 論が当てはまることを示唆しているが、このことは企業特殊的人的資本の重要性を排除するも のではない。実際に多くの企業は法的な要請もあり、定年退職後の労働者に再雇用制度や雇用 延長制度といった継続雇用制度を提供しており、多くの労働者がそれらの選択肢を用いて同じ 企業で就業を継続している。定年退職後も新たな雇用契約の下で同じ企業で働き続けるという選択は、技能に企業特殊性があったり、労働市場に摩擦があったりして、仮に待遇が定年前よりも低下したとしても同じ企業で働き続けたほうがより良い待遇を得られることを示唆してい るといえる。

本稿では日本の中高年齢層を対象としたパネルデータである厚生労働省中高年縦断調査を用いて、多くの企業で60歳に設定されている定年退職前後の就業状態の推移を分析し、三つの理論より得られる予測を検証する。分析の結果、60歳で定年退職した労働者の多くが、再雇用制度を用いて新たな雇用契約の下で同じ企業で働き続けることが明らかになった。また、その傾向は企業内に人的資本蓄積を促す賃金体系を持つといわれる大規模企業でより顕著であることも明らかになった。これらの発見は企業特殊的人的資本理論とラジア型賃金後払い契約的理論の双方と整合的であり、現実は一つの理論のみでは説明できないことを示している。

2 賃金後払い契約・企業特殊的技能・定年退職

定年退職制度とはあらかじめ労働契約で定められた年齢に達した際に雇用契約が自動的に終了する制度のことである。厚生労働省の雇用管理調査によれば2016年の時点において95.4%の企業が定年退職制度を持っている。そのうち約80.7%の企業が高齢者雇用安定法の認める定年年齢の下限である60歳に定年年齢を設定しており、15.2%の企業が65歳に定年年齢を設定している。後述するように本稿で用いる厚生労働省「中高

者縦断調査」においても非常に高い割合の雇用労働者が定年を経験している。

このように広範にわたる労働者が経験する定年退職であるが、その経済合理性を説明す る理 論が Lazear (1979) である。Lazear (1979) は定年退職前の労働者の賃金が彼 の貢献を上回っ ているがゆえに、企業はその契約を一定の年齢で終了するような契約を 結ぶのだと考えた。な ぜ定年前の労働者に貢献以上の賃金を支払うのかというと、企業 が直接は観察できないものの 労働者の企業への貢献を決める重要な要因である努力を引 き出すためだとした。労働者の努力水準は観察できないものの、企業への貢献は時をおい て観察できるため、中高年期における賃金が市場賃金を上回るように設定しておき若年期 の企業への貢献が一定程度を上回った場合にのみ中高年期に雇われるという契約を提供 すると、労働者は中高年期にその企業で雇用され続けるように若年期に努力をするように なる。このような契約を企業と労働者が結ぶと、情報の非対称があるにもかかわらず、労 働者の努力の企業への限界的貢献が努力の限界的苦痛に等しくなる水準で労働者の努力 が決まるという意味で効率的な配分を達成できる。定年退職の直前の努力インセンティブ を引き出すことができないという問題に対しては退職金や企業年金の提 供で対応できる とした。また、賃金を後払いにしている限り労働者から最適水準の努力を引き 出す賃金 カーブは様々な形状のものがありうるが、Lang (1989) は労働者のほうが企業よりも 高い割引率を持つという現実的な仮定の下では、労働者のインセンティブ条件が満たされ る もっとも平坦な賃金カーブが選ばれることを示した。ラジア型の契約においては企業 は中高年 に貢献以上の賃金を支払うことになるため、企業には労働者を裏切り契約を破 棄する誘因が付 きまとうが、そのような労働者に対する裏切り行為は企業の評判を殻損 し、若い世代との契約 を結ぶことができなくなるため企業の割引率が小さければそのよ うなことは起こらず、均衡に おいてラジア型の契約は成立しうる。さらに中高年者に対 する解雇規制がラジア型契約をより 成立しやすくするとの見方もある (Neumark and Stock, 1999).

ラジア型の賃金後払い契約が成立しているとするならば、企業は若年労働者を対象に貢献以下の賃金支払いをし、それを原資として中高年に貢献以上の賃金支払いをするため、ラジア型の賃金後払い契約を導入している企業では中高年者を途中入社させないという予測が得られる。この予測を検証したのが Hutchens (1986) で、定年退職がある企業では中高年の途中入社が少 ないことを示している。またラジア型契約が結ばれる根本的な原因は、労働者の努力水準に関 して企業と労働者の間に情報の非対称性があることなので、単純な繰り返し作業が多く情報の 非対称性が発生しえないと考えられるような職種においては定年退職がないと予測されるが、この予測を Hutchens (1987) は職種と職務特性を関連付ける Dictionary of Occupational Titles を使い、入手可能な職種情報から単純な繰り返し作業が多い職種では定年退職が少ないことを示した。また、Lazear and Moore (1984) はラジア型契約を導入することで雇用労働者に関しては効率性を向上させ生涯所得を増やすことができるため、職種ごとの賃金カーブの 傾きと生涯所得には正の関係が生まれるものの、自営業者に関してはそのようなメカニズムが働かないため、職種ごとの賃金カーブの傾きと生涯所得には関係がないことが予測されることを用いて実証分析を行っている。

Lazear(1979)のモデルは定年退職制度を説明すると同時に勤続年数とともに賃金が上昇 する理由も説明する。もっとも長期勤続に伴って賃金が上昇することを説明する理

論として Becker (1962) の企業特殊的人的資本による説明もある。この理論によれば労働者が長期勤続するにしたがって企業特殊的人的資本が蓄積され生産性が上昇するため賃金も上昇していく。 人的資本が特定の企業のみで使えるという意味で企業特殊的な時には、投資が関係特殊的な投 資となるため、その投資にかかる費用負担と収益回収は労働者と企業が共同して行うことにな る。企業特殊的人的資本投資が行われる若年期には生産性が低下するため投資の機会費用が発 生するが、その費用の一部を企業が負担するため、賃金は生産性を上回る水準に設定される。 その一方で投資回収期である壮年期には生産性以下の賃金支払いを企業が行うことによって企 業は投資の一部を回収しようとする。すなわち勤続年数と生産性の関係を示すカーブの傾きが 勤続年数と賃金の関係を示すカーブの傾きよりも急である点においてラジア型の賃金後払い契約とは異なる予測が得られる。なお、人的資本の企業特殊性については、どれだけの技能が特定の企業でしか使えない技能なのかという点に関して批判があるが、異なる技能の組み合わせについて企業特殊性があるケースや(Lazear, 2009)、労働市場に情報の非対称性があり特定の企業のみが労働者の生産性水準を知っているというケースでは、あたかも技能が企業特殊的であるかのような状態となることが知られている (Acemoglu and Pischke, 1998)。

現実の勤続年数と賃金の関係は、ラジア型の賃金後払い契約と企業特殊的人的資本のどちらか、あるいはその双方で説明がつくと考えられる。しかしながら、三つの理論のどちらで勤続 年数と賃金の間の関係が説明できるかを見分けることは難しい。三つの理論は、勤続年数と労働者の貢献の関係、勤続年数と賃金の関係に関して異なる予測をするのだが、労働者の貢献を 測定することが難しいためである。そこでこの研究では日本のデータを用いて定年前後の職の 推移を観察することで、三つの仮説について検証する。そもそも定年制度が存在すること自体、定年まじかの労働者の賃金が生産への貢献を上回っていることを示唆し、ラジア型の賃金後払い契約を仮定しないと説明が難しいわけであるが、企業特殊的人的資本が存在したり労働市場に何らかの摩擦があるとすれば、定年退職後にも新たな雇用契約の下で同じ企業で働き続けるということが予想される。実際に日本ではいったん定年退職した労働者を再雇用制度や勤務延 長制度で雇いなおすという慣行があり、高齢者雇用安定法が 65 歳までの雇用確保を求めていることもあり、2018 年現在、多くの企業がこれらの制度を導入している。

以上の理論的な予測を踏まえて、本研究では通常の定年年齢である 60 歳の前後で男女の全労働者がどのような仕事の移動を経験しているかを労働者の属性別に記述し、どのような企業 で働く労働者に賃金後払い契約と企業特殊的人的資本のそれぞれの理論がより強く当てはまる のかを検証する。

3 データ

この論文では厚生労働省の「中高者縦断調査」を用いて分析を行う。「中高年者縦断調査」では、平成 17 年 10 月末 (2005 年) 時点で 50-59 歳であった全国の男女を対象としているが、2015 年 (wave10)までの 10 年分のデータをプールし、主として男性の 59歳から 61歳の部分を抜き出して分析を行う。利用する変数は生年月、教育水準、就業状態、働いている人に関し て雇用形態、企業規模、59歳時点での勤続年数といった各労働者の属性変数に加えて、定年制 度、再就職会社の斡旋/再雇用制度/勤務延長制度の有無、それら制度の利用に関する変数を抜き出した。

このうち、定年についての設問は 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 まで設問が存在し、その後は設問 がなくなる。なお、就業形態として自営業主、家族従業者、家庭での内職、その他を回答した 人に関しては設問がスキップされている。2009 年以降は、全ての年次で質問が設けられてい る『過去 1 年に仕事を辞めたかどうか』の設問を用い、2008 年の職場と同じであれば 2008 年 時点の調査票の情報を用いる。また、再就職会社の斡旋/再雇用制度/勤務延長制度の有無については、2005-09 年と 2012-15 年に設問があり、就業形態として自営業主、家族従業者、家庭での内職、その他を回答した人以外については回答している。この変数については、欠損が多いので、同じ職場で情報が得られているときには、まず、前期の値を用いて、そうでない場合には、来季の情報を用いて欠損値を埋めた。2010 年、2011 年のデータについても同様に変数を作成した。さらに再就職会社の斡旋/再雇用制度/勤務延長制度の利用についての変数を用いるが、これら制度の利用については 2012 年から設問が存在するので 2012-15 年のみを分析対象とする。

4 記述統計

日本の中高齢者の全体の労働供給の状況を確認するために、男性を分析対象にして複数年の データをプールして月齢ごとの就労状態、労働時間、働いている仕事の内容、現在の仕事が能力の活用・発揮についているか満足しているかのグラフを書いたものが図 1 である*1。日本 の定年制度は誕生日に定年を迎えるケースと、誕生日を迎えた年度いっぱいまで両方のケースがあるため、実質的な定年年齢は満 60 歳から満 61 歳までに設定されているケースが多い。そのため、60 歳と 61 歳の線に点線を加えている。

左上のグラフは月齢ごとの就業状態を描いたものである。これを見ると 60 歳になった 時点で就業率はやや減少するがそれほど大きな就業率の低下は見られないことが分か る。一方で雇 用形態については 60 歳から 61 歳にかけて正社員が 7 割 5 分前後か ら 4 割前後まで大幅に減る一方で、非正社員が 2 割から 4 割前後まで大幅に増加して いることが分かる。これは 60 歳 で定年退職を迎えた労働者の多くが正社員から非正社 員に雇用形態を変えていることを示して いる。右上のグラフは働いている人々の中での 平均労働時間を記したもので、労働時間は 50 歳代後半から徐々に低下しており、その 傾向は 65 歳に至るまで継続している。60 歳から 61 歳にかけては労働時間の減少のペ ースが前後のトレンドよりも早いがこれは 60 歳から 61 歳にかけての雇用形態の変化を 一部反映しているものと考えてよいだろう。また、左下のグラフはどのような仕事に従事 しているかを示したもので、60歳、61歳を過ぎたころから農業に従事する人が多くなっ ていることがわかる。右下のグラフは能力の活用に満足している人と不満な人々の割合を 記したものだが、年齢が増すにつれて能力の活用・発揮に満足している人が増えているこ とが分かる。これは因果関係というよりも、能力の活用・発揮に関して満足している人々 だけが働き続けているというセレクションの効果によるところが大きいといえそうであ る。

グラフでも確認できたように日本の高齢者の就業形態が大きく変化するのは多くの労働者が 定年を経験する満60歳から満61歳にかけてである。そこで以下の分析ではこの期間の就業状況の変化をとらえる分析を行う。ただし満60歳の調査時点では勤め先の定年制度の詳細によりすでに定年退職したものとまだ定年退職していないものが混じって

^{*1 「}中高齢者縦断調査」には賃金のデータがないため、労働供給の変数のみでの分析となった。

しまう。そのため定年退 職前後の変化をとらえるために以下の分析では 59 歳の調査時点から 61 歳の調査時点にかけての就業状態の変化を分析対象とする。

分析で用いるサンプルの記述統計量を確認する。59歳から 60歳、61歳の状態を記述統計で 確認する。男性で、59歳時点で働いており、かつ自営業主、家族従業者を除いた人をサンプルとして選んだ。59歳の就業状態が、継続雇用制度の有無にどのように影響しているのか、61歳の就業状態が継続雇用制度の利用を経ているのかを分析するためである。表 1 は、59歳の生年と教育水準を書いたものである。1945年、1953年のサンプルはやや数が少ないが、その他は同じくらいに分布している。またおよそ3割強の人々が4年制大学を卒業している。

表 2 は、継続雇用制度に関する再就職会社の斡旋、再雇用制度の有無、勤務延長制度の有無について 59 歳時点での分布を見たものである。まず再就職会社のあっせんについてであるが制度があると答えたのは約12%と限定的である。一方で再雇用制度に関しては制度があると答えたものが約54%とかなり多くの会社に再雇用制度があることが分かる。同様に勤務延長制度についても約33%が、制度があるとしている。なお、各制度について制度について「知らない」と答えた人の割合は15%から20%ほど存在する点も注目に値する。

表 3 は 59 歳時点で雇われて働いていることを条件づけたうえで、59 歳、60 歳、61 歳時点 の就業率、就業形態、59 歳時点の定年制度の有無と定年年齢、60 歳・61 歳時点の仕事を辞め た経験、定年経験の有無に関する回答の記述統計量をまとめている。まず 59 歳の状態をみると、73.6% が正規の職員・従業員であり、ほぼ全員に定年があり、その年齢が平均で60歳で あることが分かる。60歳の状態をみると、59歳から 13% の人が仕事を辞めており、働き方も正規の職員・従業員が 47%で、その減った分が契約社員・嘱託といった非正社員としての働き方に変化している。61歳の状態をみると、60歳からさらに 3%の人が仕事を辞めており、働き方も正規の職員・従業員が相対的に減り、その分が契約社員・嘱託やパート・アルバイトの割合が増えていることが分かる。

表 4 は従業員規模をみたものである。働いている人の従業員規模の比率は年齢を考慮してもそれほど大きく変化していない。図 2 は勤続年数のヒストグラムをみたものである。図を見ると、59 歳時での勤続年数に関しては 0 年、35 年、40 年のところで比率が高いところがあることが分かる。興昧深いのは、勤続年数が 10 年未満である労働者が相当数いることである。そこで、以降の多項ロジット分析では勤続年数を連続値として用いるのではなく、四分位数を計算し、それぞれがどの四分位範囲に含まれるかのダミー変数をたてて分析を行う。

5 定年後の各種制度の利用可能性と利用

5.1 定年後の各種制度の有無

最初に 59 歳時点で雇用労働者である男性を対象にして、65 歳未満の定年制度があるか、65 歳未満の定年がある場合に定年後の継続雇用制度があるかないかを被説明変数とした分析を行う。被説明変数を

1. 定年制度がないまたは定年が 65 歳以上

- 2. 定年がある + 継続雇用制度 (再雇用・雇用延長) がない
- 3. 定年がある + 継続雇用制度 (再雇用・雇用延長) がある
- 4. 定年がある + 継続雇用制度 (再雇用・雇用延長) についてはわからない として、 多項ロジットモデルを推定した。この際に継続雇用制度について欠損がある人は落として 分析を行った。

表 5 は多項ロジットの推定量の結果で、表 6 はその結果を限界効果に変換したものである。限界効果をもとに結果を解釈していこう。まず 4 年制大学を卒業している労働者は定年を経験する確率がおよそ 3 ポイント高く、さらに継続雇用制度がある確率が高くなっている。また、雇用形態に関しては正規の職員・従業員については定年がある確率が 17 ポイント高く、およそ 8 ポイント継続雇用制度がある確率が高い。一方で、パート・アルバイト、派遣、契約・嘱 託といったいわゆる非正社員として働く人々は定年を経験する確率が有意に低くなっている。また、企業規模の影響に関していうと大きな企業で働く者ほどほぼ単調に定年がある確率が上がっていく。たとえば 30-99 名の企業規模で働く者は 1-4 名の企業規模で働くものに比べて 40 ポイントも定年を経験する確率が高い。また、大企業で働く者ほど定年後に継続雇用制度のある確率が高くなっていることも見て取ることができる。さらに勤続年数が長いもののほうが、定年がある確率が高く、定年後の継続雇用制度がある確率が高くなっている。

まとめると学歴が高く、大きな企業で働く正社員で勤続年数の長いものが、定年退職がある企業で働く傾向があり、さらに定年退職後の継続雇用制度がある企業で働いている傾向があることが明らかになった。これらの属性を持つ労働者は企業内で人材開発と人材配置が行われ、それに対応して処遇が決められていく高度な人事管理制度のある企業で働く労働者増と重なっている。すなわち、高度な人事管理制度と定年退職制度がセットになると同時に、これらの労働者の技能の企業特殊性を定年後にも活用するために、継続雇用制度を持つ可能性があることを示している。

5.2 定年後の各種制度の利用

次に 59 歳時点の就業状況が 61 歳時点の就業状態に与える影響を分析する。61 歳時点で働いている場合には、定年を経験している場合が多いと考えられるため、継続雇用制度を利用して働きつつづけているケースと、継続雇用制度は利用せずに働き続けているケースを分けて分析した。すなわち 61 歳時点での就業状況を以下の選択肢とし、多項ロジットモデルを推定した。

- 1. 働いていない
- 2. 働いている + 継続雇用制度は利用した。
- 3. 働いている + 継続雇用制度は利用しなかった (利用しかわからないを含む)

表 7 は多項ロジットの推定量の結果で、表 8 はその結果を限界効果に変換したものである。 限界効果に基づいて結果を解釈すると、学歴による差異は見られないことが明らかになった。一方で、1945・1946 年生まれに比べて 1947・1948 年生まれは約 18 ポイントも継続雇用制 度を用いて働き続けているものが多いことが分かる。また、就業形態についてみてみると「会 社・団体等の役員」に比べると「正規の職員・従業員」は継続雇用の制度を用いずに働いている確率が低く、働いていないか働いていたとしても

継続雇用の制度を用いて働いているケースが多いことが明らかである。

59 歳時点での企業規模の効果に目を転じてみると、59 歳時点での企業規模は 61 歳時点で働いているか働いていないかの選択確率にはほとんど影響を与えていないものの、大きな企業で働いているものほど継続雇用の制度を用いて就業を続けている確率が高いことが明らかになった。また、59 歳時点での勤続年数の効果についてみてみると勤続年数が長いものほど働いていないとする確率と継続雇用制度を用いて働いている確率が上がり、制度を利用せずに働いている確率が下がることが明らかになった。

分析結果をまとめると、59歳の時点で規模が大きな企業ではたいており勤続年数が長い男性 は継続雇用の制度を用いて 61歳時点で働いている確率が高いことが明らかになった。これらの結果は前節の制度の有無に関する分析結果と整合的であり、大企業に勤める長期勤続者が企 業特殊的な人的資本を持ち、定年後も同一の企業で働き続ける傾向があることを示しているといえる。

6 今後の課題

本稿では 59 歳時点の就業状態が、定年や再雇用制度の有無に与える影響や 61 歳時点の就業状態に与える影響を分析するにあたり、選択肢間の相関がないという Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives の仮定をおいて多項ロジットモデルを推定した。もっとも被説明変数となる選択肢間には相関があるとも考えることができ、この点を改善していくことが計量経済 学的には課題であるといえよう。仮定を緩めた分析を行うため Nested Logit や Multinominal Probit を試みたものの計算負荷が大きかったり識別が難しく計算が収束しなかったりした。これらの点について引き続き検討を行うことが今後の課題である。

より経済学的に本質的な今後の課題は三つの理論の仮説検証の在り方である。ラジア 型賃金後払い契約を導入する根本的な動機となる企業と労働者の間に存在する現在の 努力水準に関する情報の非対称性や企業特殊的な人的資本をとらえる変数をより深く 検討し、経済理論と計量 経済モデルの間の関係をより明確にしていくことも今後の課 題として指摘できるであろう。

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表 1 コーホート・教育など

	59 歳	
コホト		
1945 年生ま れ	0.005	
	(0.071)	
1946 年生まれ	0.116	
	(0.321)	
1947 年生まれ	0.162	
1747 年主&16	(0.368)	
	(0.300)	
1948 年生まれ	0.151	
	(0.358)	
1949 年生まれ	0.149	
	(0.356)	
1950 年生まれ	0.126	
1300 15010	(0.332)	
1951 年生まれ	0.106	
	(0.308)	
1952 年生まれ	0.102	
	(0.303)	
1953 年生まれ	0.082	
, _, .	(0.274)	
数 本		
教育		
大卒である(=1)	0.314	
	(0.464)	
N	6242	

表 2 継続雇用制度について

		59 歳	
再就職会社の斡旋			
制度はない		0.651	
		(0.477)	
制度がある		0.115	
		(0.319)	
知らない		0.195	
713/8/1		(0.396)	
掛いてわいのでなせ			
働いてないので欠損		0.000 (0.000)	
職種が異なるため欠損		0.004	
		(0.061)	
その他の理由で欠損		0.036	
		(0.186)	
再雇用制度の有無			
制度はない		0.287	
ではなられて 1		(0.453)	
制度がある		0.535	
		(0.499)	
知らない		0.154	
		(0.361)	
働いてないので欠損		0.000	
		(0.000)	
職種が異なるため欠損		0.004	
		(0.059)	
その他の理由で欠損		0.020	
		(0.139)	
勤務延長制度の有無			
制度はない		0.436	
		(0.496)	
制度がある		0.331	
		(0.471)	
知らない		0.201	
		(0.401)	
働いてないので欠損		0.000	
		(0.000)	
職種が異なるため欠損		0.004	
ᅄᄳᆂᄭᅕᅻᅉᄝᇆᄱᄉᆙᄝ		0.004 (0.059)	
	10	()	
その他の理由で欠損		(0.164)	0.028
N		6242	

表 3 働き方と定年

_	59 歳	60 歳	61 歳
働いているかどうか			
働いている(=1)	1.000	0.874	0.836
	(0.000)	(0.331)	(0.370)
働き方: 働いている人で条件づけ			
自営業主	0.000	0.030	0.047
	(0.000)	(0.172)	(0.211)
家族従業者	0.000	0.003	0.002
	(0.000)	(0.051)	(0.050)
会社・団体等の役員	0.128	0.116	0.115
	(0.334)	(0.321)	(0.319)
正規の職員・従業員	0.736	0.469	0.316
11/1007 14092 1/2/52	(0.441)	(0.499)	(0.465)
パート・アルバイト	0.053	0.089	0.136
77 1 770711	(0.223)	(0.285)	(0.343)
以掛派津市米にの派津社号			
労働派遣事業所の派遣社員	0.009 (0.094)	0.011 (0.105)	0.013 (0.115)
+7/4+1 B			
契約社員・嘱託	0.075 (0.263)	0.266 (0.442)	0.350 (0.477)
	(0.203)	(0.442)	(0.477)
家庭での内職など	0.000	0.001	0.001
	(0.013)	(0.033)	(0.024)
その他	0.000	0.014	0.020
	(0.000)	(0.117)	(0.139)
定年について: 有無と年齢			
定年がある(=1)	0.992		
	(0.092)		
定年年齢	60.701		
	(1.860)		
昨年 / 年仕事を辞めたか			
辞めた経験がある (=1)		0.270	0.184
		(0.444)	(0.387)
1 年で辞めた理由が定年か:辞めた人に対して			
定年が理由で辞めた (=1)		0.746	0.598
. ,		(0.436)	(0.490)
N	6242	6241	6241

表 4 従業員規模

	59 歳	60 歳	61 歳
企業規模: 働いている人で条件付け			
1-4	0.054	0.079	0.099
	(0.227)	(0.270)	(0.298)
5-29	0.213	0.232	0.245
	(0.410)	(0.422)	(0.430)
30-99	0.175	0.176	0.187
	(0.380)	(0.381)	(0.390)
100-299	0.151	0.154	0.153
	(0.358)	(0.361)	(0.360)
300-499	0.063	0.066	0.056
	(0.243)	(0.249)	(0.231)
500-999	0.069	0.062	0.058
	(0.254)	(0.241)	(0.234)
1000-4999	0.114	0.100	0.094
	(0.318)	(0.300)	(0.292)
5000-	0.094	0.071	0.065
	(0.291)	(0.258)	(0.247)
日公庁	0.066	0.060	0.044
	(0.248)	(0.238)	(0.204)
N	6242	5378	5124

表 5: 継続雇用制度と 59 歳時の勤務状況: 多項ロジットでの推定 (推定量)

	制度の有無と 59 歳時の働き方		1 1 5 1
	継続雇用制度がある	継続雇用制度がない	わからない
教育			
大卒ダミー(=1)	0.198*	0.162	-0.0669
	(0.0845)	(0.118)	(0.150)
コホト			
1946年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.328	0.534	-0.0194
, ,	(0.525)	(0.707)	(0.818)
1947年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0833	0.0108	0.0890
	(0.521)	(0.708)	(0.813)
1948年生まれダミー(=1)	0.00828	-0.202	-0.166
,,	(0.522)	(0.710)	(0.816)
1949年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.152	-0.470	-0.386
1919 (19	(0.522)	(0.711)	(0.818)
1950年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.127	-0.585	-0.383
1730 + 18407 (-1)	(0.523)	(0.714)	(0.820)
1951年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.419	-0.346	-0.638
1731 (± 64,07 € (=1)	(0.525)	(0.713)	(0.827)
1952年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.210	-0.436	-0.488
1732 - 1870 - (-1)	(0.526)	(0.716)	(0.827)
1953年生まれダミー(=1)			
1933年至3167~ (-1)	-0.588 (0.528)	-1.083 (0.726)	-0.680 (0.832)
59 歳時での働き方	, ,		, ,
正規の職員・従業員	1.105***	1.217***	1.879**
	(0.104)	(0.154)	(0.255)
パート・アルバイト	-1.463***	-0.701	0.211
	(0.236)	(0.365)	(0.419)
労働派遣事業所の派遣社員	-1.268**	-0.380	0.281
	(0.422)	(0.634)	(0.775)
契約社員・嘱託	-0.498**	-0.0762	0.796*
	(0.157)	(0.258)	(0.336)
家庭での内職など	-11.88	-11.53	-11.58
	(633.2)	(1456.7)	(1972.2)
勤め先の企業規模			
5 から 29 人	2.231***	1.099***	1.126**
	(0.282)	(0.240)	(0.309)
30 から 99 人	3.595***	1.431***	1.666**
	(0.284)	(0.252)	(0.318)
100 から 299 人	4.115***	2.079***	1.681**
• •	(0.288)	(0.256)	(0.335)

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	継続雇用制度がある	継続雇用制度がない	わからない
300 から 499 人	4.393***	2.009***	1.543***
	(0.314)	(0.310)	(0.419)
500 から 999 人	4.115***	1.452***	1.557***
	(0.307)	(0.315)	(0.393)
1000 から 4999 人	4.449***	1.521***	1.686***
	(0.300)	(0.294)	(0.367)
5000 人以上	4.943***	1.849***	1.766***
	(0.320)	(0.327)	(0.417)
日公庁	4.562***	2.732***	1.848***
	(0.338)	(0.321)	(0.441)
59 歳までの勤続年数: 四分位ダミ			
勤続年数第 2 四分位ダミー (=1)	0.691***	0.851***	0.813***
	(0.0984)	(0.148)	(0.164)
勤続年数第 3 四分位ダミー (=1)	1.379***	1.470***	0.845***
	(0.110)	(0.159)	(0.197)
勤続年数第 4 四分位ダミー (=1)	1.906***	1.739***	1.188***
	(0.123)	(0.173)	(0.208)
定数項	-4.408***	-4.030***	-4.768***
	(0.588)	(0.746)	(0.884)
Observations	6234		

表 6: 継続雇用制度と 59 歳時の勤務状況: 多項ロジットでの推定 (限界効果)

-	定年なし	継続雇用制度がある	継続雇用制度がない	わからない
教育				
大卒ダミー(=1)	-0.0216*	0.0275*	0.00385	-0.00971
	(0.0110)	(0.0124)	(0.00891)	(0.00707)
コホト				
1946年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0167	-0.0849	0.0638	0.00435
	(0.0668)	(0.0771)	(0.0540)	(0.0382)
1947年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.00961	0.0115	-0.00409	0.00221
	(0.0664)	(0.0766)	(0.0541)	(0.0380)
1948年生まれダミー(=1)	0.00749	0.0166	-0.0168	-0.00731
	(0.0665)	(0.0768)	(0.0542)	(0.0381)
1949年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0334	0.00910	-0.0300	-0.0125
	(0.0665)	(0.0768)	(0.0544)	(0.0382)
1950年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0341	0.0194	-0.0413	-0.0122
	(0.0667)	(0.0771)	(0.0546)	(0.0383)
1951年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0594	-0.0372	-0.00343	-0.0189
	(0.0669)	(0.0772)	(0.0545)	(0.0387)
1952年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0397	0.00000562	-0.0234	-0.0163
	(0.0670)	(0.0773)	(0.0547)	(0.0387)
1953年生まれダミー(=1)	0.0955	-0.0259	-0.0578	-0.0118
	(0.0674)	(0.0779)	(0.0557)	(0.0389)
59 歳時での働き方				
正規の職員・従業員	-0.168***	0.0764***	0.0341**	0.0578***
	(0.0127)	(0.0172)	(0.0123)	(0.0127)
パート・アルバイト	0.151***	-0.222***	0.0161	0.0542*
	(0.0268)	(0.0433)	(0.0323)	(0.0216)
労働派遣事業所の派遣社員	0.123*	-0.207**	0.0331	0.0505
	(0.0486)	(0.0766)	(0.0559)	(0.0397)
契約社員・嘱託	0.0346	-0.103***	0.0149	0.0540**
	(0.0197)	(0.0274)	(0.0216)	(0.0169)
家庭での内職など	1.617	-1.134	-0.288	-0.195
	(78.58)	(144.4)	(131.0)	(101.6)
勤め先の企業規模				
5 から 29 人	-0.257***	0.298***	-0.0314	-0.00966
	(0.0285)	(0.0486)	(0.0238)	(0.0165)
30 から 99 人	-0.402***	0.502***	-0.0790***	-0.0208
	(0.0281)	(0.0477)	(0.0239)	(0.0163)
100 から 299 人	-0.468***	0.557***	-0.0509*	-0.0381*
	(0.0285)	(0.0475)	(0.0235)	(0.0168)

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	定年なし	継続雇用制度がある	継続雇用制度がない	わからない
300 から 499 人	-0.490***	0.613***	-0.0708**	-0.0520*
	(0.0331)	(0.0500)	(0.0263)	(0.0205)
500 から 999 人	-0.449***	0.594***	-0.104***	-0.0403*
	(0.0322)	(0.0497)	(0.0274)	(0.0193)
1000 から 4999 人	-0.485***	0.645***	-0.117***	-0.0432*
	(0.0307)	(0.0483)	(0.0258)	(0.0180)
5000 人以上	-0.541***	0.711***	-0.115***	-0.0544**
	(0.0340)	(0.0495)	(0.0270)	(0.0198)
日公庁	-0.530***	0.595***	-0.0194	-0.0458*
	(0.0373)	(0.0513)	(0.0252)	(0.0207)
59 歳までの勤続年数: 四分位ダミ				
勤続年数第 2 四分位ダミー (=1)	-0.101***	0.0526***	0.0314**	0.0172*
	(0.0120)	(0.0158)	(0.0120)	(0.00787)
勤続年数第 3 四分位ダミー (=1)	-0.182***	0.138***	0.0480***	-0.00348
	(0.0136)	(0.0162)	(0.0121)	(0.00907)
勤続年数第 4 四分位ダミー (=1)	-0.245***	0.206***	0.0408**	-0.00196
	(0.0151)	(0.0168)	(0.0126)	(0.00926)
Observations	6234	6234	6234	6234

表 7: 継続雇用制度の利用と 59 歳時の勤務状況: 多項ロジットでの推定 (推定量)

	働いている_制度を利用	働いている_制度を利用せず
教育		
大卒ダミー(=1)	-0.0922	-0.0454
	(0.171)	(0.178)
コホト		
1946年生まれダミー(=1)	0.451	0.153
	(0.393)	(0.392)
1947年生まれダミー(=1)	0.727	-0.106
	(0.392)	(0.394)
1948年生まれダミー(=1)	0.771	-0.0637
	(0.396)	(0.399)
59 歳時での働き方		
正規の職員・従業員	-0.558	-1.544***
	(0.317)	(0.309)
パート・アルバイト	-1.168*	-0.647
	(0.547)	(0.487)
労働派遣事業所の派遣社員	-2.071*	-2.346**
	(0.840)	(0.746)
契約社員・嘱託	-0.370	-0.618
	(0.446)	(0.435)
家庭での内職など	-0.504	11.02
	(910.4)	(788.6)
勤め先の企業規模		
5 から 29 人	1.294*	-0.0709
	(0.580)	(0.441)
30 から 99 人	1.187*	-0.962*
	(0.570)	(0.434)
100 から 299 人	1.702**	-0.816
	(0.576)	(0.447)
300 から 499 人	1.276*	-1.180*
	(0.597)	(0.483)
500 から 999 人	1.442*	-1.144*
	(0.587)	(0.470)
1000 から 4999 人	1.542**	-0.848
	(0.580)	(0.456)
5000 人以上	1.376*	-1.519**
	(0.579)	(0.469)
日公庁	1.446*	-0.921
	(0.600)	(0.492)

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	働いている/制度を利用	働いている/制度を利用せず
59 歳までの勤続年数: 四分位ダミ		
勤続年数第 2 四分位ダミー (=1)	0.236	0.0282
	(0.240)	(0.238)
勤続年数第 3 四分位ダミー (=1)	0.0117	-0.503*
	(0.241)	(0.245)
勤続年数第 4 四分位ダミー (=1)	-0.239	-1.207***
	(0.237)	(0.251)
Constant	-0.310	3.387***
	(0.730)	(0.620)
Observations	1872	

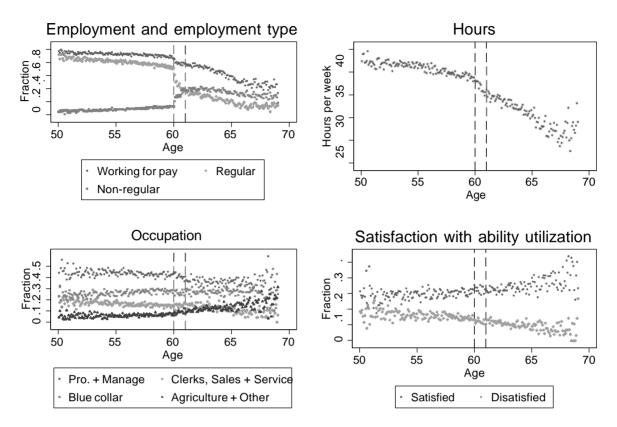
表 8: 継続雇用制度の利用と 59 歳時の勤務状況: 多項ロジットでの推定 (限界効果)

	働いてない	働いている/制度を利用	働いている/制度を利用せず
教育			
大卒ダミー(=1)	0.00918	-0.0137	0.00452
	(0.0201)	(0.0260)	(0.0236)
コホト			
1946年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.0415	0.0769	-0.0353
	(0.0441)	(0.0673)	(0.0596)
1947年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.0499	0.175**	-0.125*
	(0.0440)	(0.0668)	(0.0595)
1948年生まれダミー(=1)	-0.0553	0.178**	-0.123*
	(0.0446)	(0.0674)	(0.0601)
59 歳時での働き方			
正規の職員・従業員	0.117**	0.0993*	-0.216***
	(0.0373)	(0.0392)	(0.0308)
パート・アルバイト	0.120	-0.163*	0.0436
	(0.0615)	(0.0797)	(0.0600)
労働派遣事業所の派遣社員	0.270**	-0.117	-0.153
	(0.0884)	(0.154)	(0.127)
契約社員・嘱託	0.0580	0.00754	-0.0655
	(0.0526)	(0.0581)	(0.0471)
家庭での内職など	-0.496	-1.694	2.190
	(103.8)	(116.3)	(75.72)
勤め先の企業規模			
5 から 29 人	-0.0946	0.294**	-0.200**
	(0.0596)	(0.100)	(0.0723)
30 から 99 人	-0.0432	0.398***	-0.355***
	(0.0578)	(0.0988)	(0.0716)
100 から 299 人	-0.0893	0.491***	-0.401***
	(0.0585)	(0.0984)	(0.0720)
300 から 499 人	-0.0394	0.449***	-0.410***
	(0.0613)	(0.103)	(0.0782)
500 から 999 人	-0.0537	0.481***	-0.427***
	(0.0600)	(0.101)	(0.0761)
1000 から 4999 人	-0.0757	0.460***	-0.384***
	(0.0592)	(0.0999)	(0.0741)
5000 人以上	-0.0305	0.520***	-0.490***
	(0.0588)	(0.101)	(0.0769)
日公庁	-0.0648	0.450***	-0.385***
	(0.0620)	(0.104)	(0.0791)

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	働いていない	働いている/制度を利用	働いている/制度を利用せず
59 歳までの勤続年数: 四分位ダミ			
勤続年数第 2 四分位ダミー (=1)	-0.0192	0.0477	-0.0285
	(0.0280)	(0.0342)	(0.0292)
勤続年数第 3 四分位ダミー (=1)	0.0235	0.0749*	-0.0984**
	(0.0280)	(0.0357)	(0.0314)
勤続年数第 4 四分位ダミー (=1)	0.0766**	0.121**	-0.198***
	(0.0275)	(0.0368)	(0.0337)
Observations	1872	1872	1872



Hours, occupation, satisfaction are conditional on working for pay

図 1 中高齢者の働き方

勤続年数のヒストグラム

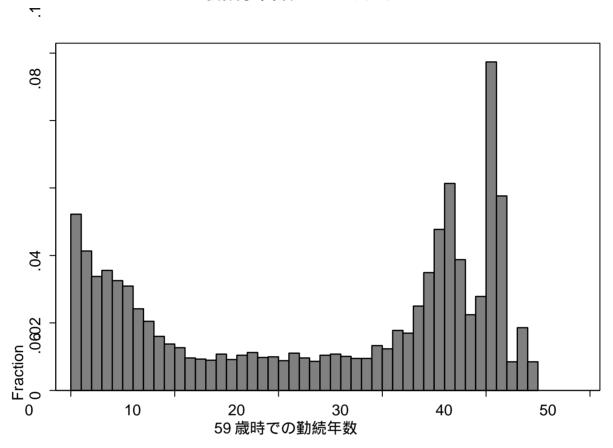


図 2 中高齢者の勤続年数のヒストグラム

(資料)

研究協力者:湯田道生(平成28~29年度 中京大学経済学部准教授)

所得が医療利用に与える影響†

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1.はじめに

わが国の医療利用に関する実証研究は,レセプトデータを使用した研究が豊富に存在するが,レセプトデータには医療利用に大きな影響を与えうる所得の情報が含まれておらず,その点が常に分析のアキレス腱とされてきた¹。また,所得水準が医療利用に与える影響に関する分析は,医療経済学の中でも基礎的なトピックスの一つであるが,国内での研究蓄積はきわめて乏しく(西村,1987;大竹,1990; Tokita, et al., 1996; 藤野, 1997; 澤野, 2000), マクロデータ(都道府県データ)を用いた分析にとどまっているのが現状である。これらのマクロデータを用いた研究で推定された医療需要の所得弾力性は,いずれも非弾力的であることが報告されており(表 1),これは Chandra, et al. (2010)が包括的にサーベイしている海外のミクロデータによる分析結果と類似している。しかしながら,日本のミクロデータを使って所得水準が医療利用に与える影響を検証した研究は筆者の知り限り皆無である²。

<表1>

そうした背景を踏まえて本稿では,第1回(2005年)から第10回(2014年)の『中

[†] 本稿の作成に当たって,本研究プロジェクトのメンバーである金子能宏氏,高山憲之氏, 小塩隆士氏,白石浩介氏,臼井恵美子氏,松山普一氏から大変有益なコメントを頂戴した。 記して感謝の意を表したい。

[‡]元・中京大学経済学部准教授

¹ この問題を克服する可能性がある研究は,厚生労働省『国民生活基礎調査』を用いた分析であると考えられるが,『国民生活基礎調査』はパネルデータではないので,個人の unobserved heterogeneity を考慮できないことや,医療利用・健康などに影響を与えうる変数(例えば,教育年数;Grossman, 1972)が過去の調査に含まれていないといった欠点がある。

² 筆者の知る限りにおいて,その唯一の例外が今堀・野口・栗原・泉田(2017)である。この論文では,ある市から提供を受けた国民健康保険・後期高齢者医療保険・介護保険の各レセプトに,所得情報を加えたデータを使って所得が高齢者の医療費・介護費に与える影響を分析している。パネルデータを用いた分析の結果,公的年金受給額が高いほど,医療費・介護費は低いこと,世帯所得が医療費・介護費に与える影響は限定的であることを明らかにしている。

高年者縦断調査』の個票データを使って,所得が医療利用に与える影響を推定する。このデータは,長期にわたる個人レベルのパネルデータであるため,豊富な情報を有しており,それらを活用することによって,先行研究における分析上の重大な課題を克服することができるという利点がある。

本稿の構成は以下の通りである。次節では,本分析で使用するデータの概要と記述統計を報告する。3節では,所得が医療利用に与える影響を推定する計量経済モデルについて述べる。4節は推定結果を報告する。5節は本稿のまとめである。また,本稿の付録1では,所得が健康指標に与える影響について分析を行った結果を報告する。

2.データ

本分析で使用するデータは,厚生労働省が実施・管理している『中高年者縦断調査(第1回(2005年)~第10回(2014年)』の個票パネルデータである。この調査は,団塊の世代を含む全国の中高年者世代の男女を対象に,彼らの健康・就業・社会活動および意識面・事実面の変化の過程を継続的に調査することで,行動の変化や事象間の関連性等を把握し,高齢者対策等厚生労働行政施策の企画立案や実施等のための基礎資料を得ることを目的としたものである。

表 2 には分析に用いる記述統計量がまとめられている。医療利用を示す変数は,医療費の自己負担額と,外来・入院の利用に関する二値変数である。医療費の自己負担額の平均は 7888 円であるが,外来・入院の利用割合はそれぞれ 9.3%と 1.9%とかなり低い。一方で,月収の平均は約 32 万円であるが,月収とそれぞれの医療利用の相関はかなり小さい。個人属性については,サンプルの平均年齢は 59.4 歳で,女性が 51.7%を占めている。また,所得や医療利用(を通して健康)に影響を与える学歴については,高卒が 49.2%で最も高く,次いで中卒の 19.1%,短大・高専卒が 15.8%,大卒が 15.1%となっている。また,サンプルの 71.6%が現在就業中であり,その内訳は,正規労働者(34.4%),非正規労働者(33.0%),自営業(22.7%)でおよそ 9割となっている。また,サンプルの 85.0%が結婚しており,平均の本人を除く同居人数は約 1 人である。金融資産については,保有額の平均が 1024 万である一方,借入金の平均は約 400 万円である。

<表2>

3.計量経済モデル

本分析で用いる計量経済モデルは,パネルデータの特性を活かした以下の線形の固定効果モデルである。

$$\ln(Exp_{it}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(Inc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it}\alpha + c_i + \tau_t + u_{1it}$$
[1]

$$Out_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(Inc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it} \mathbf{\beta} + c_i + \tau_t + u_{2it}$$
 [2]

$$ln_{it} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \ln(lnc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it}\mathbf{y} + c_i + \tau_t + u_{2it}$$
 [3]

ただし, Exp_{it} は,個人 i の t 期における医療費の自己負担額である。また,Out と In はそれぞれ,個人 i の t 期に外来医療または入院医療を利用していれば1,そうでなければ0をとるダミー変数である。Inc は個人の月収であるが,対数化するために事前に1(万円)を加えている。また,[1] 式は log-log モデルであるため,係数 a_i が所得弾力値を示す。また,線形確率モデルで推定される [2]・[3] 式の所得の係数 b_i が y_i は,それぞれの利用に対する限界効果を示す。 \mathbf{x} は個人属性ベクトルであり,年齢,年齢の 2 乗,有配偶ダミー,同居人数,預貯金額・借入金額の対数値(ただし,月収と同様に対数化前に1を加えている)が含まれる。c は個人効果,c は年効果を示し,d は誤差項である。

また,医療利用(や健康状態)には継続性があるので,これらのラグ値を説明変数に加えたモデル,すなわち Arellano and Bond (1991)が考案したダイナミック・パネルモデルによる分析も試みる。すなわち,

$$\ln(Exp_{it}) = \alpha_0 + \delta_1 \ln(Exp_{it-1}) + \alpha_1 \ln(Inc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it}\alpha + c_i + \tau_t + u_{1it}$$
[1']

$$0ut_{it} = \beta_0 + \delta_2 0ut_{it-1} + \beta_1 \ln(Inc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it} \mathbf{\beta} + c_i + \tau_t + u_{2it}$$
 [2']

$$In_{it} = \gamma_0 + \delta_2 In_{it-1} + \gamma_1 \ln(Inc_{it}) + \mathbf{x}_{it} \mathbf{y} + c_i + \tau_t + u_{2it}$$
 [3']

も推定する。

4. 推定結果

4.1 主な結果

表 3 には ,[1] ~ [3] 式および [1'] ~ [3'] 式の推定結果がまとめられている 3 。 なお ,高額所得者の影響を排除するために ,上位 5% に相当する月収 80 万円以上の個人を除いたサンプルでも分析を行っている 4 。

<表3>

モデルの違いや医療利用の変数の違いに関わらず,医療需要の所得弾力性および限界効果は,マクロデータを用いた計測結果以上に非弾力的で,きわめてゼロに近い数値が計測

³ ダイナミック・パネルモデルにおける誤差項の自己相関の検定結果は,付録2にまとめている。

⁴ 月収の 95%分位が 80 万円であることは,少し高いと思われるが,各年のデータを通しておよそこのような傾向が見られる。この現象は,たまたま退職月に調査が行われたことで,退職金が月収に含まれている可能性が考えられる。

された。所得が医療利用に与える影響がほとんどないことは先行研究と整合的な結果ではあるが、いずれも負値に推定されていることには大きな違和感がある。もっとも大きな可能性の一つは、所得が医療利用に与える因果効果の識別が上手くいっていない可能性が挙げられる。特に調査の対象となっている 50~60 代の人々は、退職や離職、年金の受給開始、介護保険の利用開始などといった大きなライフイベントを経験する年代である。特に、退職・離職は所得に大きな影響を与えるとともに、健康や医療利用に対しても大きな影響を有すると考えられる。

4 . 2 頑健性の確認

表 4 A ~ C には,結果の頑健性を確認するために,いくつかのサブサンプルについて同様の分析を行った結果をまとめたものである。前節の結果と同様に,モデルの違いや医療利用の変数の違いに関わらず,医療需要の所得弾力性および限界効果は,マクロデータを用いた計測結果以上に非弾力的で,きわめてゼロに近い数値が計測されている。しかしながら,やはりそのほとんどが負値に推定されている。

<表4A~C>

5.まとめ

本研究では、『中高年者縦断調査』の個票データを使って、所得が医療利用に与える影響を推定した。パネルモデルによる分析の結果、医療需要の所得弾力性は、マクロデータを用いた計測結果以上に非弾力的であることが確認された。しかしながら、ほとんど全ての弾力値が負値に推定されていることから、本分析の結果は、所得が医療利用に与える効果が完全に識別されていないことを示唆するものとなっている。

例えば,本分析では高額医療費に対する自己負担の軽減政策である高額療養費制度の影響を含めていない。したがって,自己負担額自体はそれほど高くはなくとも,実際には多くの医療サービスを利用している可能性があり,それを考慮していないことがこのような結果が得られた一因となっているかもしれない。また,医療利用と代替的な関係にあると考えられる市販薬の購入状況や他財の支出状況の影響といったいわゆる代替効果を考慮した推定も必要かもしれない。これらは今後の重要な分析課題である。

付録1 所得が健康指標に与える影響

本付録では,論文内で用いられた手法を用いることで,所得水準が健康指標に与える影響を推定した結果を報告する。分析に用いた健康指標の記述統計量は表 A1,推定結果は表 A2a ~表 A2k にまとめたとおりである。なお 所得と健康の関係については 岩本(2000),橋本(2006),小塩(2009),湯田(2010)などが検証を行っている。

<表A1>

付録2 所得が健康指標に与える影響

表 A3a~A3b には , ダイナミック・パネルモデルにおける誤差項の自己相関の検定結果がまとめられている。

<表A3>

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表 1 国内の先行研究の概要

論文名	所得弾力値
西村(1986)	0.369 ~ 0.433
大竹 (1990)	0.098
Tokita, et al. (1996)	0.554 ~ 0.568
藤野(1997)	0.55
澤野(2000)	医療サービスは必需財

表 2 記述統計量

	—————————————————————————————————————	平均	標準偏差	 最小値	 最大値	月収との相関
医療費(自己負担,万円)	256642	0.788	6.244	0		0.029
外来利用(=1 if あり)	113622	0.093	0.290	0	1	-0.006
入院利用(=1 if あり)	264568	0.019	0.136	0	1	-0.010
説明変数						
月収(万円)	227407	32.164	90.046	0	9410	
年齢	339770	59.351	3.981	50	69	
性別(女性)	333970	0.517	0.500	0	1	
学歴						
中卒	311600	0.191	0.393	0	1	
高卒	311600	0.492	0.500	0	1	
短大·高専卒	311600	0.158	0.365	0	1	
大卒	311600	0.151	0.358	0	1	
大学院卒	311600	0.008	0.092	0	1	
就業中	272901	0.716	0.451	0	1	
就業形態						
自営業	194422	0.227	0.419	0	1	
役員	194422	0.062	0.242	0	1	
正規労働者	194422	0.344	0.475	0	1	
非正規労働者	194422	0.330	0.470	0	1	
その他	194422	0.036	0.186	0	1	
有配偶	272779	0.850	0.357	0	1	
同居家族人数	339770	0.978	1.286	0	13	
金融資産(万円)	242897	1024.112	1784.456	0	70000	
借入金(万円)	251679	399.561	1687.512	0	99990	

表 3 所得が医療利用に与える影響

	A 11 \ 11		÷:::/:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	
サンプル	全サンプル		高所得除く	
Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE	Linear FE	Dynamic FE
医療費	-0.016 ***	-0.013 ***	-0.021 ***	-0.023 ***
	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.003
観測値数	190847	110905	181838	93697
個人数	31213	25082	30848	23285
外来利用	-0.002 *	-0.004 *	-0.002	-0.007 ***
	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.003
観測値数	80026	34336	74821	27950
個人数	23029	15215	22557	12681
入院利用	-0.003 ***	-0.004 ***	-0.004 ***	-0.005 ***
	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	195535	119133	186508	101157
	31399	26092	31040	24388

注:推定方法は固定効果モデル。Linear モデルの標準誤差は家族を単位とした Clustering robust standard errors ,Dymanic モデルの標準誤差は Windmeijer(2005)の標準誤差である。***,**および*はそれぞれ1%,5%,10%有意水準で有意であることを示す。各推定式には,年齢,年齢の2乗,有配偶ダミー,同居人数,預貯金額・借入金額の対数値,年効果が含まれている。

表 4 頑健性の確認

(A)医療費

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE	Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.018	-0.015	就業者	-0.017	-0.014
	0.002	0.003		0.002	0.003
観測値数	93587	55794	観測値数	145415	78564
個人数	14950	12098	個人数	26533	19346
女性	-0.012 **	* -0.011	自営業者	-0.013 **	* -0.010
	0.002	0.003		0.004	0.007
観測値数	95047	54130	観測値数	30710	14627
個人数	15731	12585	個人数	6818	3940
中卒	-0.028 **	* -0.018	役員	-0.008	-0.001
	0.004	0.006		0.010	0.014
観測値数	30557	16146	観測値数	9234	3650
個人数	5525	4249	個人数	2843	1062
高卒	-0.013 **	* -0.011	正規社員	-0.020 **	* -0.014
	0.002	0.003		0.005	0.007
観測値数	93058	54665	観測値数	50940	22790
個人数	14503	12319	個人数	12727	7353
短大·高専卒	-0.018 **	* -0.020	非正規社員	-0.018 **	* -0.011
	0.004	0.006		0.005	0.007
観測値数	30420	18091	観測値数	49281	21061
個人数	4645	4001	個人数	12937	6726
大卒	-0.014 **	* -0.011	その他	-0.013	0.031
	0.004	0.005		0.013	0.017
観測値数	30931	19406	観測値数	4821	912
個人数	4481	3894	個人数	2390	386
大学院卒	-0.004	0.009	非就業者	-0.002	-0.004
	0.018	0.021		0.003	0.006
観測値数	1748	1105	観測値数	45349	18364
個人数	253	221	個人数	13300	5965

(B)外来利用

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE	Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE
	-0.003	-0.005	就業者	-0.004	-0.003
	0.002	0.003		0.002	0.003
観測値数	40587	18309	観測値数	60140	24949
個人数	10999	7847	個人数	17705	11078
女性	0.000	-0.001	自営業者	-0.006 **	-0.006
	0.002	0.003		0.003	0.006
観測値数	39065	16027	観測値数	13323	4873
個人数	11656	7368	個人数	4472	2234
中卒	-0.005	-0.008	役員	0.000	0.017
	0.003	0.006		0.006	0.011
観測値数	11570	4303	観測値数	4010	1343
個人数	3782	2059	個人数	1521	607
高卒	-0.001	-0.003	正規社員	-0.002	-0.008
	0.002	0.003		0.003	0.005
観測値数	39389	16889	観測値数	15824	5133
個人数	11311	7539	個人数	5941	2593
短大·高専卒	0.003	0.005	非正規社員	-0.003	0.000
	0.003	0.004		0.003	0.005
観測値数	13078	5581	観測値数	24742	8166
個人数	3737	2485	個人数	9011	4063
大卒	-0.005 *	-0.006	その他	-0.007	-0.005
	0.003	0.005		0.011	0.009
観測値数	13939	6671	観測値数	2190	353
個人数	3616	2753	個人数	1252	199
大学院卒	-0.022	-0.051	非就業者	0.001	-0.002
	0.011	0.020		0.003	0.005
観測値数	794	391	観測値数	19814	5418
個人数	197	154	個人数	8746	2977

(C)入院利用

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE	Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.003	-0.004	就業者	-0.003	-0.003
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	95228	58595	観測値数	148715	83616
個人数	15016	12469	個人数	26759	20206
女性	-0.003 ***	-0.002	自営業者	-0.004 **	* -0.003
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	97972	59387	観測値数	31383	15489
個人数	15845	13187	個人数	6896	4111
中卒	-0.005 ***	-0.004	役員	0.000	0.003
	0.001	0.002		0.003	0.003
観測値数	31272	17340	観測値数	9467	3860
個人数	5564	4527	個人数	2888	1095
高 卒	-0.003 ***	-0.004	正規社員	-0.002	0.000
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	95369	58805	観測値数	52311	24480
個人数	14570	12776	個人数	12846	7805
短大·高専卒	-0.003 **	0.000	非正規社員	-0.005 **	* -0.003
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	31145	19467	観測値数	50121	22201
個人数	4666	4137	個人数	13019	6979
大卒	-0.002 **	-0.004	その他	-0.006 *	0.000
	0.001	0.001		0.003	0.007
観測値数	31695	20756	観測値数	4955	983
個人数	4495	4005	個人数	2427	403
大学院卒	-0.001	0.006	非就業者	0.002	-0.002
	0.004	0.006		0.001	0.001
観測値数	1794	1183	観測値数	46739	20232
個人数	254	228	個人数	13446	6295

表 A1 健康指標の記述統計量

健康指標	観測値数 -	 平均	標準偏差	最小値	 最大値
主観的健康	270862	1.819	0.934	0	5
日常活動が困難	262324	0.103	0.304	0	1
精神的負担(2つ)	263451	0.005	0.070	0	1
精神的負担(3つ)	263451	0.027	0.163	0	1
糖尿病	242746	0.105	0.307	0	1
心臓病	242407	0.045	0.207	0	1
脳卒中	242024	0.021	0.142	0	1
高血圧	243090	0.280	0.449	0	1
脂質異常症	242358	0.152	0.359	0	1
がん	241853	0.027	0.163	0	1

表 A2 所得が健康指標に対する影響

(A) 主な結果

サンプル	全サンプル		高所得除〈	
Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE	Linear FE	Dynamic FE
主観的健康	-0.022 ***	-0.020 ***	-0.027 ***	-0.024 ***
	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.004
観測値数	199280	124395	189958	105085
個人数	31420	26221	31063	24562
日常活動困難	-0.007 ***	-0.006 ***	-0.009 ***	-0.007 ***
	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	194448	117397	185445	99715
個人数	31280	25728	30919	24043
精神的負担	-0.001 ***	0.000	-0.001 ***	-0.001 *
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
観測値数	195414	120200	186231	101713
個人数	31146	25571	30779	23905
精神的負担2	-0.003 ***	-0.001 *	-0.003 ***	-0.002 **
	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	195414	120200	186231	101713
個人数	31146	25571	30779	23905
糖尿病	0.000	0.000	-0.001	0.000
	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	180044	97047	171453	81910
個人数	31053	23006	30680	21243
心臓病	-0.001	0.000	-0.001 **	0.000
	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	179818	96713	171231	81623
個人数	31054	22976	30681	21212
脳卒中	-0.002 ***	-0.001	-0.002 ***	-0.001 **
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
観測値数	179547	96313	170992	81348
個人数	31049	22956	30676	21205
高血圧	-0.001	-0.002 *	-0.001	-0.003 **
年1771 / 士 米 5	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数	180278	97503	171672	82277
個人数	31054	23032	30681	21280
脂質異常症	0.001	0.000	0.002 **	0.000
年月20月7年 米月	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
観測値数 個人数	179805	96752	171226	81677
個人数がな	31051 -0.004 ***	22978 -0.004 ***	30678 -0.005 ***	21233 -0.005 ***
がん	0.004	0.004	0.001	0.001
観測値数	0.000 179394	96002	0.001 170845	81077
個人数	31051	22933	30678	21179
四八奴	31031	44933	30078	411/9

(B) 主観的健康

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.023 ***	-0.020 ***	就業者	-0.016 ***	-0.017 ***
	0.003	0.004		0.003	0.004
観測値数	96666	60660	観測値数	151451	87246
個人数	15019	12506	個人数	26775	20351
女性	-0.019 ***	-0.017 ***	自営業者	-0.012 **	-0.010
	0.003	0.004		0.005	0.008
観測値数	100264	62590	観測値数	32157	16424
個人数	15863	13276	個人数	6913	4196
中卒	-0.037 ***	-0.041 ***	役員	-0.020 *	-0.008
	0.005	0.007		0.012	0.016
観測値数	32464	18865	観測値数	9538	3895
個人数	5574	4585	個人数	2899	1109
高卒	-0.020 ***	-0.019 ***	正規労働者	-0.014 **	-0.018 **
	0.003	0.004		0.006	0.008
観測値数	97032	61239	観測値数	52725	24912
個人数	14584	12811	個人数	12867	7805
短大·高専卒	-0.021 ***	-0.015 **	非正規労働者	-0.024 ***	-0.013
	0.005	0.007		0.006	0.009
観測値数	31780	20375	観測値数	51459	23641
個人数	4668	4166	個人数	13091	7189
大卒	-0.012 **	-0.007	非就業者	-0.007 *	-0.010
	0.005	0.007		0.004	0.007
観測値数	31884	21041	観測値数	47735	21084
個人数	4498	4006	個人数	13571	6422

(C)日常活動困難

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.009 ***	-0.007 ***	就業者	-0.006 ***	-0.005 ***
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	94588	57637	観測値数	147767	82381
個人数	14946	12293	個人数	26620	19892
女性	-0.006 ***	-0.003 *	自営業者	-0.007 ***	-0.006 **
	0.001	0.002		0.002	0.003
観測値数	97557	58649	観測値数	31118	15238
個人数	15798	13008	個人数	6853	4037
中卒	-0.009 ***	-0.008 ***	役員	-0.002	0.004
	0.002	0.003		0.004	0.004
観測値数	31250	17289	観測値数	9361	3763
個人数	5541	4406	個人数	2863	1084
高卒	-0.007 ***	-0.006 ***	正規労働者	-0.004 **	-0.002
	0.001	0.001		0.002	0.003
観測値数	94821	57958	観測値数	51877	24094
個人数	14554	12611	個人数	12753	7678
短大·高専卒	-0.007 ***	-0.001	非正規労働者	-0.008 ***	-0.006 *
	0.002	0.003		0.002	0.004
観測値数	31029	19182	観測値数	50029	22077
個人数	4657	4097	個人数	12983	6914
大卒	-0.007 ***	-0.007 ***	非就業者	-0.003	0.000
	0.002	0.002		0.002	0.003
観測値数	31395	20226	観測値数	46618	20064
個人数	4490	3977	個人数	13410	6253

(D)精神的負担

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.001 ***	0.000	就業者	0.000	0.000
	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
観測値数	94878	58736	観測値数	148540	84509
個人数	14896	12204	個人数	26522	19765
女性	-0.001 **	0.000	自営業者	0.000	0.000
	0.000	0.000		0.001	0.001
観測値数	98265	60396	観測値数	31360	15700
個人数	15716	12953	個人数	6830	4028
中卒	-0.001	-0.001 *	役員	-0.002	-0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.002	0.001
観測値数	30844	17113	観測値数	9433	3883
個人数	5482	4280	個人数	2844	1088
高卒	-0.001 ***	-0.001	正規労働者	0.000	0.000
	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.001
観測値数	95490	59422	観測値数	51831	24353
個人数	14527	12588	個人数	12711	7580
短大·高専卒	0.000	0.000	非正規労働者	-0.001 *	0.000
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	31383	19933	観測値数	50540	22959
個人数	4652	4092	個人数	12959	7005
大卒	-0.001 **	0.000	非就業者	0.000	0.000
	0.001	0.000		0.000	0.000
観測値数	31774	20946	観測値数	46789	20367
個人数	4493	3983	個人数	13390	6280

(E)精神的負担(2)

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.003 ***	-0.002 **	就業者	-0.002 ***	-0.003 ***
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	94878	58736	観測値数	148540	84509
個人数	14896	12204	個人数	26522	19765
女性	-0.002 ***	0.000	自営業者	-0.002 *	-0.002
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	98265	60396	観測値数	31360	15700
個人数	15716	12953	個人数	6830	4028
中卒	-0.003 ***	-0.001	役員	-0.005 *	-0.004
	0.001	0.002		0.003	0.004
観測値数	30844	17113	観測値数	9433	3883
個人数	5482	4280	個人数	2844	1088
高卒	-0.003 ***	-0.001	正規労働者	-0.003 **	-0.004 **
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	95490	59422	観測値数	51831	24353
個人数	14527	12588	個人数	12711	7580
短大·高専卒	-0.001	-0.001	非正規労働者	-0.003 **	-0.005 **
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.002
観測値数	31383	19933	観測値数	50540	22959
個人数	4652	4092	個人数	12959	7005
大卒	-0.003 ***	-0.002	非就業者	0.000	0.002
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.002
観測値数	31774	20946	観測値数	46789	20367
個人数	4493	3983	個人数	13390	6280

(F)糖尿病

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	0.000	0.001	就業者	0.000	0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	89071	49851	観測値数	137213	68959
個人数	14867	11265	個人数	26344	17621
女性	0.000	-0.001	自営業者	-0.003 *	0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	88921	46377	観測値数	28600	12388
個人数	15654	11400	個人数	6701	3462
中卒	0.000	0.002	役員	0.001	-0.004
	0.002	0.002		0.003	0.004
観測値数	27406	12475	観測値数	8923	3401
個人数	5429	3587	個人数	2779	993
高卒	0.000	0.000	正規労働者	0.001	0.000
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	87874	47834	観測値数	48580	20481
個人数	14434	11356	個人数	12586	6688
短大·高専卒	-0.002 *	-0.001	非正規労働者	0.000	0.002
	0.001	0.002		0.002	0.002
観測値数	28721	15847	観測値数	46276	18304
個人数	4624	3685	個人数	12702	6154
大卒	0.000	0.001	非就業者	0.001	-0.002
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.001
観測値数	30349	18556	観測値数	42753	16066
個人数	4476	3795	個人数	13014	5414

(G)心臓病

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
TabA2	0.000	0.000	就業者	-0.001	-0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	88935	49630	観測値数	137030	68689
個人数	14867	11248	個人数	26343	17597
女性	0.000	0.000	自営業者	-0.002 *	-0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	88835	46267	観測値数	28566	12332
個人数	15655	11386	個人数	6701	3454
中卒	-0.002	-0.001	役員	-0.003	-0.003
	0.001	0.002		0.004	0.005
観測値数	27369	12415	観測値数	8913	3394
個人数	5429	3573	個人数	2779	992
高卒	0.000	0.000	正規労働者	0.003 **	0.002
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	87761	47664	観測値数	48517	20408
個人数	14435	11346	個人数	12581	6681
短大·高専卒	0.000	-0.001	非正規労働者	-0.001	0.001
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.002
観測値数	28682	15798	観測値数	46205	18228
個人数	4624	3681	個人数	12698	6143
大卒	0.000	0.001	非就業者	0.001	0.002
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	30317	18502	観測値数	42711	16032
個人数	4476	3792	個人数	13011	5399

(H) 脳卒中

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.002 ***	-0.001	就業者	-0.001 *	0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.000	0.001
観測値数	88762	49380	観測値数	136820	68386
個人数	14865	11236	個人数	26339	17583
女性	-0.001 ***	-0.001	自営業者	0.000	0.000
	0.000	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	88741	46123	観測値数	28506	12261
個人数	15652	11379	個人数	6698	3450
中卒	-0.004 ***	-0.002	役員	-0.002	0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.002	0.001
観測値数	27322	12356	観測値数	8906	3374
個人数	5426	3571	個人数	2780	987
高卒	-0.001 ***	-0.001	正規労働者	0.000	0.000
	0.000	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	87617	47468	観測値数	48456	20333
個人数	14435	11335	個人数	12578	6669
短大·高専卒	-0.002 **	0.000	非正規労働者	-0.001	0.000
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.001
観測値数	28650	15739	観測値数	46135	18156
個人数	4624	3679	個人数	12688	6137
大卒	-0.001 *	0.000	非就業者	-0.001	-0.001
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	30278	18422	観測値数	42650	15984
個人数	4475	3788	個人数	12998	5394

(I)高血圧

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.001	-0.003 *	就業者	-0.002	-0.002
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.002
観測値数	89161	50027	観測値数	137407	69234
個人数	14866	11279	個人数	26349	17642
女性	0.000	-0.001	自営業者	-0.005 **	-0.002
	0.001	0.001		0.002	0.003
観測値数	89068	46662	観測値数	28635	12406
個人数	15656	11414	個人数	6705	3469
中卒	0.000	-0.005	役員	0.004	-0.007
	0.002	0.003		0.005	0.007
観測値数	27443	12542	観測値数	8938	3415
個人数	5429	3586	個人数	2780	996
高卒	0.000	-0.001	正規労働者	-0.001	-0.005
	0.001	0.002		0.002	0.003
観測値数	88025	48131	観測値数	48625	20556
個人数	14437	11378	個人数	12589	6701
短大·高専卒	-0.001	-0.002	非正規労働者	0.001	0.002
	0.002	0.002		0.002	0.003
観測値数	28737	15882	観測値数	46367	18412
個人数	4625	3685	個人数	12707	6166
大卒	-0.001	-0.003	非就業者	0.000	-0.001
	0.002	0.002		0.002	0.002
観測値数	30377	18610	観測値数	42794	16150
個人数	4474	3799	個人数	13010	5419

(J) 脂質異常症

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	0.000	0.000	就業者	-0.001	-0.001
	0.001	0.002		0.001	0.002
観測値数	88875	49579	観測値数	137058	68733
個人数	14866	11241	個人数	26343	17601
女性	0.002	0.000	自営業者	-0.002	0.000
	0.001	0.002		0.002	0.003
観測値数	88881	46353	観測値数	28547	12330
個人数	15653	11397	個人数	6704	3455
中卒	0.000	-0.002	役員	-0.002	-0.012
	0.002	0.003		0.005	0.009
観測値数	27354	12397	観測値数	8924	3400
個人数	5426	3574	個人数	2778	989
高卒	0.001	0.001	正規労働者	0.000	-0.001
	0.001	0.002		0.002	0.004
観測値数	87788	47749	観測値数	48564	20463
個人数	14436	11350	個人数	12590	6693
短大·高専卒	0.000	-0.001	非正規労働者	-0.001	0.001
	0.002	0.003		0.002	0.003
観測値数	28675	15790	観測値数	46192	18215
個人数	4625	3683	個人数	12696	6137
大卒	0.003	0.000	非就業者	0.002	0.000
	0.002	0.003		0.002	0.003
観測値数	30305	18495	観測値数	42670	16020
個人数	4474	3788	個人数	12995	5402

(K) がん

Model	Linear FE	Dynamic FE		Linear FE	Dynamic FE
男性	-0.004 ***	-0.003 ***	就業者	-0.003 ***	-0.004 ***
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	88669	49179	観測値数	136730	68196
個人数	14865	11225	個人数	26342	17563
女性	-0.004 ***	-0.005 ***	自営業者	-0.002 **	-0.003 *
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	88679	46009	観測値数	28487	12234
個人数	15654	11367	個人数	6700	3448
中卒	-0.006 ***	-0.006 ***	役員	-0.004	-0.007
	0.001	0.002		0.004	0.005
観測値数	27303	12323	観測値数	8900	3366
個人数	5426	3561	個人数	2778	987
高卒	-0.004 ***	-0.004 ***	正規労働者	-0.003 **	-0.003 *
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	87550	47310	観測値数	48397	20251
個人数	14435	11327	個人数	12580	6663
短大·高専卒	-0.005 ***	-0.002	非正規労働者	-0.005 ***	-0.003 *
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.002
観測値数	28613	15682	観測値数	46126	18123
個人数	4625	3675	個人数	12695	6119
大卒	-0.004 ***	-0.004 ***	非就業者	-0.001	-0.003 **
	0.001	0.001		0.001	0.001
観測値数	30246	18370	観測値数	42587	15907
個人数	4475	3787	個人数	12995	5381

表 A3 誤差項の自己相関の検定結果

(A)全サンプル

Model	1次	,	2次
医療費	-44.026	***	1.864
(高所得者除く)	-39.756	***	1.140
外来利用	-26.108	***	-0.007
(高所得者除く)	-23.079	***	-0.747
入院利用	-28.925	***	1.0014
(高所得者除く)	-26.881	***	0.735

注:。***, **および*はそれぞれ1%, 5%, 10%有意水準で有意であることを示す。

(B) サブサンプル

被説明変数	医療費		外来利用			入院利用		
	1次	2次	1次		2次	1次	2	2次
男性	-31.294 ***	1.328	-19.857	***	1.162	-20.357	***	0.87151
女性	-30.050 ***	1.096	-16.716	***	-1.434	-18.209	***	-0.876
中卒	-16.441 ***	0.074	-9.474	***	-0.390	-11.008	***	0.461
高卒	-29.992 ***	2.044 **	-18.272	***	1.221	-19.585	***	-0.963
短大・高専卒	-17.930 ***	1.609	-8.966	***	-0.868	-10.512	***	-0.076
大卒	-19.252 ***	-0.151	-11.875	***	-1.397	-10.033	***	1.623
大学院卒	-3.935 ***	-0.062	-3.082	***	-0.003	-2.345	**	-0.772
就業者	-36.696 ***	2.440 **	-21.600	***	-0.169	-21.27	***	0.33723
自営業者	-16.360 ***	0.945	-9.917	***	1.321	-8.665	***	-0.168
役員	-6.5888 ***	1.0073	-3.713	***	-1.171	-4.615	***	0.197
正規社員	-17.528 ***	-0.0369	-8.774	***	-0.284	-10.599	***	0.091
非正規社員	-18.686 ***	1.4344	-11.772	***	-1.028	-8.474	***	0.764
その他	-3.8924 ***	1.411	-1.130		-0.331	-2.621	***	0.822
非就業者	-16.906 ***	-1.2099	-9.409	***	-0.309	-11.729	***	0.717

注:。***, **および*はそれぞれ1%, 5%, 10%有意水準で有意であることを示す。

平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 分担研究報告

親の介護が女性の労働供給とメンタルヘルスに及ぼす影響に関する研究

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研究要旨

本研究は、女性が家族介護に関与し始めたとき、労働供給やメンタルヘルスがどのような影響を受けるかを厚生労働省「中高年者縦断調査」を用いて実証的に解明する暫定的試みである。本研究の分析結果によると、固定効果(時間とともに変化しない要因)の影響を制御した場合、家族介護は女性の労働供給を 3.2%しか引き下げない。また、女性が労働供給を続ける場合も、労働日数や労働時間はほとんど変化しない。一方、家族介護は介護者のメンンタルヘルスを悪化させるが、介護者による労働供給はメンタルヘルスの追加的な悪化要因とはならない。

A. 研究目的

2000 年度に公的介護保険が導入されたが、施設介護の供給は限定的であり、介護サービスの中心は依然として居宅介護である。そのため、家族介護が家族とりわけ女性の労働供給やメンタルヘルスに及ぼす影響が重要な政策課題になっている。本研究はその影響を実証的に解明し、介護政策に関する政策的な含意を得ることを目的としている。

B.研究方法

第1に、「中高年者縦断調査」のデータに基づき、家族介護が女性の労働供給に及ぼす影響を、クロスセクション・データに基づく通常の最小二乗法(OLS)、クロスセクション・データに基づくが、介護の必要性を操作変数とする操作変数法(IV)、パネル・データに基づき、固定効果を制

パネル・データに基づき、固定効果を制御した固定効果モデル(FE)で分析し、結果を比較する。

第2に、介護に従事しているか否か、雇用されているか否かを示す二値変数のほか、両者の交絡項を説明変数として、ケッスラーの6で計測されるメンタルヘルスを説明する回帰式を、IVとFEの両方で推計して、結果を比較する。

(倫理面への配慮)

政府統計の二次利用に基づく分析であり、 倫理面への追加的な配慮は不要。

C.研究結果

家族介護の女性の労働供給に及ぼす影響をFEで分析すると、統計的に有意なマイナスの影響が確認できるが、その影響はOLSやIVによる推計結果に比べてかなり小さめであり、労働供給を3.2%減少させるにとどまっている。また、労働供給を続ける場合も、家族介護によって労働日数や労働時間はほとんど変化しない。

一方、メンタルヘルスに及ぼす影響について分析すると、家族介護はマイナス、雇

用はプラスとなっているが、両者の交絡項 の係数は有意ではないことが分かる。

D.考察

本研究からは、家族介護が始まると女性の労働供給が減少するという一般的な見方とは異なる結果が導かれた。これは、家族介護への関与がかなり内生的に決定されることを示唆するものである(働いていない女性が家族介護を担当することになる、というパターンも十分あり得る)。

また、 家族介護が始まっても、労働日数や労働時間が変化しないという結果や、

家族介護者にとって労働がメンタルヘルスの追加的な悪化要因になっていないという結果は、女性がパートタイムや非管理職的な労働に従事している状況が依然として一般的であり、結果的に家族介護と労働供給が両立していることを反映しているのかもしれない。こうした点は介護政策・雇用政策にとっても重要であり、さらなる研究が必要である。

E.結論

本研究の結果は、家族介護が介護者の労働 供給やメンタルヘルスへの影響を分析する 場合、家族介護の内生性を考慮に入れる必 要があることや、日本の労働市場における 女性雇用の特殊性が結果を大きく左右する 可能性のあることを示唆している。

F.健康危険情報

G. 研究発表

1.論文発表

Takashi Oshio and Emiko Usui, "How does informal caregiving affect daughters' employment and mental health in Japan?" *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies*, 2018, in press.

2 . 学会発表

Emiko Usui, "The effects of providing eldercare on daughters' employment and mental health in Japan," 2017 Annual Meeting, Population Association of America, April 27, 2017, Chicago (USA).

- H.知的財産権の出願・登録状況
- 1. 特許取得

なし

2. 実用新案登録

なし

3.その他

なし

(資料)

Takashi Oshio and Emiko Usui, "How does informal caregiving affect daughters' employment and mental health in Japan?" *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies*, 2018, in press.

Abstract

We examine the association of informal caregiving with daughters' employment and mental health in Japan, using the 2008–2014 waves of the Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults, a large and nationally representative panel survey of middle-aged Japanese individuals. We find that caregiving reduces the probability of employment by only 3.2 percent, after controlling for time-invariant individual heterogeneity, and is not associated with either the hours or days worked per week by working caregivers. We further observe that employment does not add to the psychological distress already being experienced by the caregivers as a result of their caregiving role.

1. Introduction

The use of female labor is currently a major policy challenge in Japan due to the declining prime working-age population and the rapidly increasing elderly population, due to reduced fertility and longevity of the elderly. Increasing the participation of women in the labor market is crucial for the growth of Japan's economy. However, Japan is a country in which approximately 70 percent of elderly care is provided at home, mainly by women (Cabinet Office, 2015). Therefore, it is essential to investigate whether and how informal caregiving by women might negatively affect their level of employment.

As discussed by Bauer and Sousa-Poza (2015) and Lilly et al. (2007), many previous studies conducted in other advanced countries—mainly in the United States and Europe—have shown that the effect of informal caregiving on employment is relatively limited, even though caregiving and low levels of employment are combinedly prevalent. However, the association between caregiving for elderly parents and the female labor supply in Japan has not yet been fully investigated.

We use the 2008–2014 waves of the Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults, a large and nationally representative panel survey of middle-aged Japanese individuals. From the cross-sectional dataset, we find a negative association between caregiving for elderly parents and women's labor supply at both the extensive margin (employment probability) and the intensive margin (hours worked conditional on employment). However, after controlling for time-invariant individual heterogeneity by fixed effects, we observe that informal caregiving reduces the probability of employment only modestly—by 3.2 percent. Furthermore, working women do not reduce their hours or days worked per week at the onset of caregiving for their elderly parents.

We further investigate how work affects the association between informal caregiving and caregivers' mental health. It is well known that informal caregiving has an adverse impact on caregivers' mental health (Coe and Van Houtven, 2009; Hiel et al., 2015; Oshio, 2014; Pinquart and Sörensen, 2003). However, whether employment exacerbates the adverse impact of caregiving has not been sufficiently studied either within or outside Japan. We find that work neither increases nor decreases the adverse

impact of caregiving on the mental health of caregivers.

Overall, our results suggest that informal caregiving does not appear to be a significant deterrent to employment among middle-aged women in Japan. This may be because Japanese women tend to work shorter hours and have limited responsibility at work; in many cases, they can participate in informal caregiving without needing to significantly adjust their labor force participation. This situation is consistent with our observation that employment does not add to the caregivers' psychological distress.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on how providing informal caregiving affects caretakers' level of employment and their mental health. Section 3 provides details about the data and descriptive statistics of the sample. Section 4 presents the main estimation results, including the effect of informal caregiving on (1) employment; (2) hours of work conditional on working; and (3) caregivers' mental health. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2. Background

Many studies in the United States and Europe have examined the effect of informal caregiving on employment. These studies have raised the possibility that the observed large negative association between caregiving and employment may be biased for two reasons. The first reason is endogenous selection into caregiving, as women with a weaker attachment to the labor market are more likely to take on the caregiving role. To control for the potential endogeneity of caregiving, we applied the instrumental variable (IV) approach. Previous studies have used measures of parental health, such as health status and/or daily activities, as instruments for informal caregiving (Crespo and Mira, 2014; Meng, 2012; Nguyen and Connelly, 2014; Van Houtven et al., 2013), as well as the number of the woman's siblings (Coe and Van Houtven, 2009). Second, researchers have been concerned that time-invariant unobserved individual heterogeneity may be related to caregiving because caregivers may differ in human capital investment or experience. To control for individual heterogeneity, previous studies have used a fixed-effects (FE) approach (Leigh, 2010; Meng, 2012; Van Houtven et al., 2013).

Studies in the United States and European countries that have used these two approaches have found a limited association between caregiving and women's probability of working. These studies have also found that caregiving is associated with a relatively moderate reduction in work hours (Bolin et al., 2008; Lilly et al., 2010; Meng, 2012; Van Houtven et al., 2013). Therefore, studies from the United States and European countries imply that caregivers may be able to adjust their working hours and may not have to exit the labor force to care for elderly parents.

However, the link between informal caregiving and work has not been studied extensively in Japan. Using repeated cross-sectional data from the Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions released by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Sugawara and Nakamura (2014) show that the presence of coresiding elderly parents who require care reduces the probability of coresiding, middle-aged women continuing as regular workers. Using repeated cross-sectional data from the Labor Force Survey and the Employment Status Survey, Kondo (2016) finds that the availability of long-term care (LTC) facilities is not related to the labor force participation of middle-aged women.

However, neither of these studies focuses directly on the way that caregivers' employment decisions are affected by caregiving activities because the data used in these two studies lack information on (i) whether all of the elderly parents (namely, father, mother, father-in-law, and mother-in-law) are alive, and (ii) whether middle-aged people who have living elderly parents actually provide them with care.

Two studies use panel data to control for individual heterogeneity in Japan. Shimizutani et al. (2008) observe that the introduction of a public long-term care insurance (LTCI) scheme in 2000 increased the probability of female caregivers being employed and increased the number of days per week and hours per day worked by female caregivers (Tamiya et al., 2011). In contrast, Fukahori et al. (2015) find that the LTCI system does not mitigate the adverse impact on the employment of middle-aged individuals who reside with an elderly person needing care. Because of these contrasting results regarding the impact of informal caregiving on caregivers' employment, this issue should be investigated using a large and nationally representative sample in Japan.

Meanwhile, as mentioned above, a growing number of studies have demonstrated that informal caregiving increases the psychological distress experienced by caretakers (Coe and Van Houtven, 2009; Hiel et al., 2015; Oshio, 2014; Pinquart and Sörensen, 2003; Sugihara et al., 2004). However, these studies have not examined the effects, if any, that working could have on caregivers' mental health. One might assume that caregivers would feel more stressed if they continue to work because of reduced leisure and personal time. However, the multiple roles performed by people may just as likely have positive mental health outcomes (Adelmann, 1994; Moen et al., 1992). Particularly, participating in the labor force has been shown to have a favorable impact on the mental health of middle-aged and elderly individuals (Hao, 2008), and retirement tends to have a negative effect on one's health (Kim and Moen, 2002). Hence, it is interesting to examine whether work adds to, or reduces, caregivers' psychological distress. Caregiving and continuing to work in the labor market may exacerbate psychological distress due to a decrease in leisure time; however, the performance of multiple fulfilling roles may also reduce psychological distress.

3. Data and descriptive statistics

3.1 Data

We use panel data from the Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults, conducted by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. The survey began in early November 2005 with a sample of 34,240 individuals aged 50 to 59 years, and these individuals have been surveyed every November in subsequent years. The initial response rate of the survey was 83.8 percent, with a subsequent attrition rate ranging from 1.2 percent to 9.8 percent. Because of the large sample size and low attrition rate, as well as the availability of information on (i) parent(s) or parent(s)-in-law who are still living; (ii) care needs of those alive; and (iii) which of those elderly parents are being cared for by the respondent, this survey is one of the most effective ways to study the association between informal caregiving and the employment and mental health of middle-aged women in Japan.

We focus on women, who are usually considered reliable resources for providing informal care for elderly parents, especially in Japan. Japanese women often face a situation of having to decide whether to (i) provide care for their elderly parents while continuing to participate in the labor market or (ii) stop doing one in order to focus on the other. We restrict our sample to female respondents between the ages of 50 and 59 who have at least one living parent or parent-in-law. We exclude women over age 60 from our sample, considering that their work decisions are likely to be affected by pension and retirement policies: workers in Japan can claim pensions starting at age 60, and the mandatory retirement age is often between the ages of 60 and 65. We also limit our sample to the years 2008–2014 because the data from the earlier waves—between 2005 and 2007— do not include information on the family member(s) requiring care. We are left with a total of 21,788 observations for the 7,415 female respondents in the sample.

Regarding employment, the respondents are asked whether they have a paid job. The indicator variable for employment is defined as 1 if the respondent has a paid job and 0 otherwise. Those who have a paid job are then asked about (i) their average hours worked per week and (ii) their average days worked per week during October— the most recent month because the survey is conducted in early November—of the survey year. Regarding informal caregiving, the survey asks whether the respondents provide care to their immediate family (including father, mother, father-in-law, and mother-in-law), and if they do so, the family member(s) who receive care. We consider a respondent an informal caregiver if she cares for at least one of her parent(s) or parent(s)-in-law or both.

As instrumental variables for the caregiving decision, we use four indicator variables for the demand for care for the father, mother, father-in-law, and mother-in-law. "Care" in this survey means all activities, such as formal, informal, and at-home or institutionalized care, although these are not specified in detail in the questionnaire given to the respondents. The elderly parent's need for care is negatively related to how healthy that parent is, and this is likely to affect the respondent's involvement in informal caregiving in a largely exogenous way.

We also consider the respondents' mental health problems using the Kessler Screening Scale for Psychological Distress (K6). K6 score is a standardized and validated measure of nonspecific psychological distress (Kessler et al., 2002, 2010). The K6 contains six questions that ask whether the following feelings have been experienced in the past 30 days: (a) nervousness; (b) hopelessness; (c) restlessness or fidgeting; (d) depression; (e) feeling that everything was an effort; and (f) worthlessness. These items are rated on a five-point scale, ranging from 0 (none of the time) to 4 (all of the time). The items are summed to provide a score that ranges from 0 to 24. The reliability and validity of this tool have been demonstrated for a Japanese sample (Furukawa et al., 2008; Sakurai et al., 2011). Higher K6 scores indicate higher levels of psychological distress in the respondent.

3.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides summary statistics of the key variables by caregiving status using the pooled sample of the 2008–2014 waves. Among women who have at least one living parent or parent-in-law or both, 18.0 percent (= 3,914/21,788) provide informal care to at least one parent or parent-in-law. When caregivers and non-caregivers are compared, caregivers tend to have somewhat poorer health and fewer children

¹ The results remain largely unchanged even if we include women aged 60 years or above.

younger than 18 years old.

We then compare whether the employment and mental health variables differ by caregiving status in the upper panel of Table 2. The proportion of caregivers who have paid jobs is 68.8 percent, which is 6.8 percentage points lower than that among non-caregivers. Caregivers who have paid jobs work an average of 31.6 hours per week and 4.7 days per week—both values being somewhat less than those among non-caregivers (33.4 hours and 4.8 days). Meanwhile, the average K6 score was more among caregivers (4.74) than non-caregivers (3.53).

The lower panel of Table 2 shows the relationship between care demand and the prevalence of actual caregiving for each of the parents and parents-in-law. Having parent (s) or parent (s)-in-law who need care is positively related to the daughter or daughter-in-law becoming a caregiver. However, it should be noted that this relationship is not one-to-one; among non-caregivers, 4.5, 10.4, 3.1, and 10.6 percent have a father, mother, father-in-law, and mother-in-law, respectively, who requires care. This finding implies that caregiving is provided not only by women but also by other family members and institutions.

4. Estimation Results

4.1 Caregiving and work on the extensive margin: employment probability

We estimate a linear probability model in which the dependent variable is the indicator of having a paid job. The independent variables include an indicator of providing care to at least one parent or parent-in-law, in addition to a set of control variables. In line with the literature, the control variables consist of the woman's age and its square, self-assessed health, physical functional limitations, education, marital status, the number of children, whether the respondent is living with children younger than 18 years old, whether the household has a home mortgage, and survey years.

First, we estimate the model by ordinary least squares (OLS). Second, we estimate the instrumental variable (IV) model treating informal caregiving as endogenous. We use four indicator variables of each parent and parent-in-law's need for care as the instrument to explain caregiving. Third, we estimate the fixed-effects (FE) model to control for time-invariant individual heterogeneity. Finally, we estimate the fixed-effects models with instrumental variables (FE-IV) to control for both endogeneity of informal caregiving and time-invariant individual heterogeneity. Table 3 summarizes the main estimation results, and Table 4 provides the first-stage estimation results in IV and FE-IV models.

In these regression analyses, probit or logit models rather than linear probability ones could be an alternative approach because the dependent variable is binary. We choose linear probability models for two reasons in addition to its interpretability. First, many preceding studies (e.g., Crespo and Mira, 2014; Heitmueller, 2007; Leigh, 2010; Leigh, 2010) have employed linear probability models, facilitating the comparison of our estimation results with theirs.¹ Second, the sample size in the FE logit models would

We have also estimated probit and logit models and obtained similar marginal effects as compared to the linear probability model. Specifically, the marginal effects are -0.054 (0.012) for the probit model and -0.053 (0.012) for the logit model. These are very similar to estimates as compared to the estimates from the linear probability model in Table 3, -0.054 (0.012).

be substantially reduced because the respondents whose job statuses were unchanged throughout the sample periods were dropped from regressions. It should be also noted that unbiased FE probit cannot be constructed. However, we should be cautious in interpreting the results of linear models because the estimated coefficients can imply probabilities outside the unit interval [0, 1].

As seen in Table 3, the OLS estimate of the coefficient on caregiving is –0.054, which is and significant, a result consistent with the finding that the proportion of workers among caregivers is 6.8 percentage points lower than that among non-caregivers (see Table 2). After controlling for the potential endogeneity of caregiving, the IV estimate of the coefficient on caregiving is –0.072, which is significant and slightly larger compared to the OLS estimate.

Nevertheless, we should be cautious in interpreting the validity of the IV model. The left columns of Table 4 present the first-stage regression results of the IV model. We found that the instruments used in the first-stage regression—that is, the four variables of the demand for care—are significantly and positively associated with caregiving. However, the *p*-value of the endogeneity test is 0.320, indicating that the null hypothesis that caregiving is exogenous cannot be rejected. Hence, we conclude that informal caregiving is largely exogenous in terms of the relationship with employment status among Japanese middle-aged women, indicating that potential endogeneity is not a serious concern.

Turning to the FE model, we find its estimate of the coefficient on caregiving (-0.032), despite being significant, is somewhat smaller in magnitude than the OLS and IV estimates. We also find that the F-test of the null hypothesis that all individual-level error terms in the FE model are equal to zero can be rejected (p-value <0.001; not reported in the table), confirming that the FE model is preferred to the OLS model. Another finding is that the FE-IV estimate is somewhat higher than the FE one, but the validity of the FE-IV model is questionable, because Table 4 shows that the exogeneity of informal caregiving cannot be rejected, as was the case with the FE model; the p-value of the endogeneity test is 0.223.

The key results obtained from Tables 3 and 4 can be summarized as follows. First, similar to the findings in many studies that estimate the IV models (e.g., Bolin et al., 2008; Crespo and Mira, 2014; Nguyen and Connelly, 2014; Van Houtven et al., 2013), the endogeneity of informal caregiving is less of a concern in our results in both the cross-sectional and FE models. Second, due to the association between the time-invariant individual heterogeneity and the regressors, the negative association between informal caregiving and employment is overestimated when not accounting for the individual heterogeneity.

In addition to these key results for caregiving, we obtain noteworthy findings about the associations between other variables and employment in Table 3. First, employment is negatively related to having two or more physical functional limitations and positively associated with having a home mortgage, even after controlling for time-invariant individual heterogeneity. Second, lower levels of self-assessed health are negatively associated with employment in the OLS and IV models, but their associations become insignificant in the FE and FE-IV models, suggesting that the cross-sectional correlation between employment and health is confounded by common time-invariant factors. Third, the confounding effects of time-invariant factors matter also for the

associations of employment with divorced/widowed and never married status, both of which are positive in the OLS and IV models but negative in the FE and FE-IV models.

4.2 Caregiving and work on the intensive margin: hours and days worked conditional on employment

We further examine how informal caregiving is associated with the labor supply on the intensive margin. Specifically, for individuals who have paid jobs, we regress informal caregiving on hours worked per week and days worked per week separately, along with a set of covariates described in Section 4.1. Table 5 reports the results, focusing on the estimated coefficients on caregiving in each model. Caregiving reduces hours worked per week by 1.92 hours in the OLS model. This is largely consistent with the results from Table 2, which show that caregivers work 1.8 hours fewer per week than non-caregivers. The IV estimate provides a very close estimate—a reduction of 1.91 hours—although we confirm that the hypothesis that caregiving is exogenous cannot be rejected (not reported in the table), as in the case of employment models. By contrast, the impact of caregiving on hours worked per week is –0.31 and 0.13 in the FE and FE-IV models, respectively, which are small and insignificant.

We obtain similar results for the relationship between caregiving and days worked per week, as shown in the bottom panel of Table 5. Caregiving reduces 0.12 and 0.16 days worked per week in the OLS and IV models, respectively, both in line with the result in Table 2, which shows that the work week of caregivers is 0.14 days shorter than that of non-caregivers. The FE and FE-IV estimates are both 0.03, which reveal little association between caregiving and days worked per week.

Limited association between caregiving and working hours or days among working individuals—combined with a significantly negative, albeit small, association between caregiving and employments—suggests that caregivers may choose to remain in the labor force with the same working hours as before or leave the labor force completely without the opportunity of reducing working hours or days to adapt to caregiving. This may be due to the inflexibility of working hours or days in Japan, where workers are not allowed to adjust their working hours or days in response to family circumstances.² If the need of caregiving is too heavy to be met by reducing leisure time, women tend to stop working outside the home rather than reduce working hours. It is somewhat surprising, however, to see limited association between caregiving and working hours or days, considering that part-time workers constitute about 70 percent of middle-aged working women. The results suggest even part-time workers may have difficulty in adjusting working hours or days in accordance with the need of caregiving. More in-depth analysis is needed to explain why caregiving has limited association with work on both the extensive and intensive margins.

4.3 Impact of work on the association between caregiving and mental health

Last, we investigate how caregiving is associated with mental health and examine whether employment worsens the impact of caregiving on psychological distress. We regress psychological distress, measured

² Constructing the overemployment and underemployment indicators— as in Altonji and Paxson, 1988, 1992; Altonji and Usui, 2007; Usui, 2016; and Usui et al., 2016—shows that a significant proportion of Japanese workers are not satisfied with their working hours and that they are either overemployed or underemployed.

by the K6 scores, on caregiving, employment, and the interaction between caregiving and employment, along with a set of control variables described in Section 4.1. We exclude self-assessed health, which is based on the respondent's subjective assessment and tends to overlap with psychological distress measured by K6 scores. Although many studies find a positive association between psychological distress and caregiving, few studies have examined how psychological distress is related to the situation in which employment and caregiving coexist. If the estimate of the coefficient on the interaction between employment and caregiving is positive, employment exacerbates caregivers' psychological distress; however, if it is negative, employment alleviates caregivers' psychological distress.

Table 6 presents the estimation results. The OLS model shows that psychological distress is associated positively with caregiving and negatively with employment; particularly, it indicates that psychological distress is not associated with the interaction between caregiving and employment. The IV model also gives similar results. In the FE and FE-IV models, psychological distress is positively associated with caregiving but not associated with employment or the interaction between caregiving and employment.

Thus, regardless of the model specifications, our results confirm that work does not exacerbate the negative impact of caregiving on mental health. One plausible reason is that the positive mental health effect of performing multiple roles, which has been reported by Adelmann (1994), Hao (2008), and Moen et al. (1992), offsets the negative mental health effect of reduced leisure time and/or additional psychological pressures.

5. Conclusions

Based on the data from a large and nationally representative panel survey of middle-aged Japanese, we have obtained three noteworthy findings. First, the association between caregiving and employment is small in magnitude, albeit negative, after controlling for time-invariant individual heterogeneity. Second, caregiving is not related to either hours or days worked per week by the caregiver. Third, even though a negative association is found between caregiving and caregivers' mental health, employment does not increase the psychological distress experienced by the caregivers due to their caregiving role.

These results suggest that informal caregiving does not seriously harm employment for middle-aged women and that female caregivers can remain in the Japanese labor force without feeling additional psychological pressure from work. These findings may reflect the features of female employment in Japan. Women with paid jobs tend to work relatively short hours and tend to have jobs with limited responsibility, regardless of their caregiving status. In the sample of the current study, the average hours worked per week among working women is 31.6 hours for caregivers and 33.4 hours for non-caregivers (see Table 2). These hours are longer in the United States: 36.9 hours for those who have been caregivers at least once and 36.4 hours for those who have never been caregivers (Van Houtven et al., 2013). The hours are also longer in Europe: 36.5 hours for caregivers and 37.9 hours for non-caregivers (Sugano, 2015). Women in Japan also tend to be engaged in jobs with limited responsibility. Among the working women in our sample, only 2.9 percent hold managerial positions whereas 20.0 percent and 20.6 percent hold clerical and service

positions, respectively. By comparison, the share of managerial, clerical, and service positions among working men in the sample is 18.4 percent, 8.5 percent, and 7.5 percent, respectively. Therefore, if middle-aged women were given the same roles and responsibilities at work as men, caregiving could have a larger impact on their employment.

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Table 1. Key features of respondents

		All	Caregivers	Non-caregivers
Age	M (SD)	56.9 (1.8)	57.0 (1.7)	56.8 (1.8)
Number of living children	M(SD)	2.1 (1.0)	2.0 (1.0)	2.1 (1.0)
Proportions (%)				
Marital status	Married	89.1	89.2	89.1
	Separated	2.7	2.3	2.8
	Divorced/widowed	5.8	5.2	6.0
	Never married	2.2	3.4	2.0
Educational attainment	Less than high school	9.5	7.1	10.0
	High school	51.1	47.3	51.9
	Some college	28.8	32.5	28.0
	University	10.1	12.8	9.5
	Other	0.5	0.3	0.5
Self-assessed health	Excellent	4.8	3.2	5.1
	Very good	31.8	26.5	33.0
	Good	47.0	49.1	46.5
	Fair	13.3	17.6	12.4
	Poor	2.5	2.8	2.5
	Very poor	0.6	0.8	0.5
Physical functional limitation	One	3.8	5.6	3.4
	Two or more	5.1	5.5	5.0
Having children younger than 18	years old	2.6	1.8	2.8
Home mortgage		27.2	25.1	27.6
N		21,788	3,914	17,874

Table 2. Labor supply variables and K6 scores by caregiving status

	Caregiv	vers (A)	Non-care	givers (B)	Difference	e ^a (A–B)
	M	(SD)	M	(SD)	M	(SE)
Employment	0.621	(0.485)	0.688	(0.463)	-0.068	(0.009)
Hours worked per week	31.59	(14.81)	33.39	(14.47)	-1.80	(0.33)
Days worked per week	4.69	(1.35)	4.83	(1.18)	-0.14	(0.03)
K6 score (range: 0–24)	4.74	(4.54)	3.53	(4.11)	1.21	(0.08)
Father needs care	0.179	(0.383)	0.045	(0.207)	0.134	(0.006)
Mother needs care	0.506	(0.500)	0.106	(0.307)	0.400	(0.008)
Father-in-law needs care	0.122	(0.327)	0.032	(0.175)	0.090	(0.005)
Mother-in-law needs care	0.391	(0.488)	0.107	(0.309)	0.284	(0.008)
N		3,914		17,874		

^a All significant at the 0.1% significance level.

Table 3. The estimated association between informal caregiving and employment $(N = 21,788)^a$

Dependent variable = Employment

	0	LS	IV	rb	FI	<u>E</u> c	FE-	IV ^b
	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)
Caregiving	-0.054 **	* (0.012)	-0.072 **	(0.023)	-0.032 ***	(0.009)	-0.041*	(0.020)
Age	0.119	(0.102)	0.119	(0.102)	0.288 ***	(0.086)	0.286***	(0.085)
Age square	-0.012	(0.009)	-0.012	(0.009)	-0.026***	(0.007)	-0.026***	(0.007)
Marital status (ref. = married)								
Separated	-0.012	(0.031)	-0.012	(0.031)	-0.003	(0.019)	-0.003	(0.019)
Divorced/widowed	0.167**	* (0.019)	0.166***	(0.019)	-0.109*	(0.048)	-0.108*	(0.048)
Never married	0.189**	* (0.030)	0.190 ***	(0.030)	-0.067 ***	(0.008)	-0.068 ***	(0.009)
Educational attainment (ref. =	high school)						
Less than high school	0.031	(0.018)	0.030	(0.018)				
Some college	0.001	(0.013)	0.002	(0.013)				
University	-0.017	(0.021)	-0.016	(0.021)				
Other	-0.051	(0.081)	-0.053	(0.081)				
Self-assessed health (ref. = fair	·)							
Excellent	0.015	(0.020)	0.014	(0.020)	-0.010	(0.013)	-0.010	(0.013)
Very good	0.011	(0.009)	0.010	(0.009)	-0.002	(0.005)	-0.002	(0.005)
Good	-0.086**	* (0.014)	-0.086***	(0.014)	-0.014	(0.008)	-0.014	(0.008)
Poor	-0.157**	* (0.026)	-0.156***	(0.026)	-0.024	(0.018)	-0.024	(0.018)
Very poor	-0.272**	* (0.054)	-0.271 ***	(0.054)	-0.017	(0.042)	-0.016	(0.043)
Physical functional limitation								
One	-0.053*	(0.021)	-0.052*	(0.021)	-0.002	(0.013)	-0.002	(0.013)
Two or more	-0.120**	* (0.022)	-0.120 ***	(0.022)	-0.037 **	(0.013)	-0.037 **	(0.013)
Number of living children	0.030**	* (0.006)	0.030 ***	(0.006)	0.002	(0.005)	0.002	(0.005)
Children aged < 18 years	0.004	(0.030)	0.003	(0.030)	0.001	(0.019)	0.001	(0.019)
Home mortgage	0.067 **	* (0.011)	0.067 ***	(0.011)	0.026*	(0.011)	0.026*	(0.011)

^a Adjusted for survey years. Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level are shown in parentheses.

^b See Table 4 for the results of first-stage estimation.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

Table 4. The first stage estimation results in IV and FE-IV models $(N = 21,788)^a$

Dependent variable = Caregiving

	IV				FE-IV		
	Coef		(SE)	Coef		(SE)	
Father's need for care	0.237	***	(0.017)	0.185	***	(0.017)	
Mother's need for care	0.368	***	(0.012)	0.254	***	(0.013)	
Father-in-law's need for care	0.249	***	(0.022)	0.158	***	(0.021)	
Mother-in-law's need for care	0.288	***	(0.012)	0.214	***	(0.014)	
Age	-0.006		(0.080)	-0.139		(0.086)	
Age square	0.001		(0.007)	0.01		(0.007)	
Marital status (ref. = married)							
Separated	-0.031	*	(0.015)	-0.001		(0.018)	
Divorced/widowed	0.002		(0.012)	0.102	*	(0.059)	
Never married	0.095	***	(0.023)	-0.038		(0.090)	
Educational attainment (ref. = high school)							
Less than high school	-0.029	**	(0.010)				
Some college	0.023	**	(0.008)				
University	0.028	*	(0.012)				
Other	-0.044		(0.038)				
Self-assessed health (ref. = fair)							
Excellent	-0.031	**	(0.012)	-0.014		(0.012)	
Very good	-0.018	***	(0.006)	0.000		(0.006)	
Good	0.029	***	(0.009)	0.019	*	(0.009)	
Poor	-0.005		(0.018)	-0.002		(0.018)	
Very poor	0.022		(0.037)	0.102	*	(0.043)	
Physical functional limitation							
One	0.037	*	(0.015)	0.026		(0.014)	
Two or more	-0.030	*	(0.013)	0.002		(0.013)	
Number of living children	-0.001		(0.003)	-0.002		(0.007)	
Children aged < 18 years	-0.028		(0.015)	-0.033		(0.022)	
Home mortgage	-0.016	*	(0.007)	0.023	*	(0.012)	
Endogeneity test ^b	0.320			0.223			
Joint significance of instruments ^c	< .001			< .001			
Overidentification test ^d	0.821			0.689			

^a Adjusted for survey years. Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level are shown in parentheses. ^b p-value of the null hypothesis of exogeneity. ^c p-value of the null hypothesis of no joint significance. ^d p-value of the null hypothesis of valid exclusion restrictions.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

Table 5. The estimated associations of informal caregiving with hours worked per day and days worked per week^a (N = 14,384)

	OLS		IV		FI	FE FE-IV			
	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.	(SE)	
Dependent varia	able = hours wo	orked per d	ay						
Caregiving	-1.92 ***	(0.46)	-1.91 *	(0.89)	-0.31	(0.32)	0.13	(0.82)	
Dependent variable = days worked per week									
Caregiving	-0.12 **	(0.04)	-0.16 *	(0.08)	0.03	(0.03)	0.03	(0.07)	

^a Adjusted for age, age square, marital status, educational attainment, self-assessed health, physical functional limitation, number of living children, living with children younger than 18 years old, having a home mortgage, and survey years. Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level are shown in parentheses. The complete results (including the first-stage estimation results for IV and FE-IV models) are available upon request from the author.

Table 6. The association across informal caregiving, employment, and psychological distress^a (N = 20,959)

Dependent variable = K6 score (0-24)

	OLS			IV		FE FE-IV			·		
	Coef.	(SE)	Coef.		(SE)	Coef.		(SE)	Coef.		(SE)
Caregiving	1.09 ***	(0.17)	1.84	***	(0.31)	0.69	***	(0.15)	1.14	***	(0.34)
Employment	-0.36 ***	(0.10)	-0.29	*	(0.12)	-0.10		(0.11)	-0.12		(0.14)
Caregiving × Em	Caregiving × Employment										
	0.07	(0.21)	-0.17		(0.39)	-0.13		(0.17)	0.02		(0.38)

^a Adjusted for age, age square, marital status, educational attainment, physical functional limitation, number of living children, living with children younger than 18 years old, having a home mortgage, and survey years. Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level are shown in parentheses. The complete results (including the first-stage estimation results for IV and FE-IV models) are available upon request from the author.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 分担研究報告

中高年時における学歴の健康格差拡大とその媒介要因に関する研究

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研究要旨

教育は、中高年時における健康の重要な決定要因として注目されるのようになっている。本研究では、学歴による健康格差が加齢によって拡大するという仮説(「累積的不利仮説」(cumulative disadvantage hypothesis)の妥当性を「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データを用いて検証するとともに、格差拡大の要因を解明する。本研究の分析によると、「累積的不利仮説」は成立しており、格差拡大を媒介する要因としては、余暇時間での運動や喫煙といった健康行動だけでなく社会活動も重要であることが分かる。

A.研究目的

教育が高齢時における健康の重要な決定 要因として注目されるのようになっている。 本研究では、学歴による健康格差が加齢に よって拡大するという仮説「累積的不利仮 説」(cumulative disadvantage

hypothesis)の妥当性を「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データを用いて検証するとともに、格差拡大の要因を解明する。

B.研究方法

高卒未満の人にとっての主観的健康観, 日常生活での支障、心理的ディストレスという3つの変数の「中高年者縦断調査」第 1回から第9回までの変化幅が、高卒以上の人に比べてどのように変化するかを回帰分析によって調べる。その場合、誤差項の個人間でのクラスター化を想定した変動効果モデルを適用する。

この分析結果によって学歴による健康格差の拡大が確認できた場合、それがどのような要因を媒介してもたらされたかを媒介分析の枠組みに基づいて分析する。統計的な有意性のチェックはブートストラップに

よって 95%信頼区間を推計することによって行う。

(倫理面への配慮)

政府の公的統計の二次利用に基づく分析であり、倫理面への追加的な配慮は不要。

C. 研究結果

第1に、分析結果は、学歴による健康格差が拡大するという「累積的不利仮説」を支持するものとなっている。第2に、学歴による健康格差拡大においては、社会参加や余暇時間での運動などいくつかの要因が無視できない程度で媒介していることが分かった。

D.考察

中高年の健康増進策という観点から見れば、教育格差が健康格差の拡大につながる経路をどのようにすれば遮断できるかが問題となる。その観点から言えば、両者をつなぐ媒介要因の特定化が重要であり、その分析を大規模なパネル・データに基づいて行った点がこの研究の貢献と言える。

また、狭い意味での健康行動ではないが、

健康診断の受診が重要な媒介要因であることが確認されたことも注目される。教育水準が高いほど健康リテラシーが高く、健康診断の重要性を認識し、受診率が高くなるということかもしれない。また、日本では、定期的な健康診断が非正規雇用者を対象外とするケースが多いことを考えると、健康診断の媒介効果は、学歴による就業状態の差を反映したものとも解釈できる.

学歴と健康の格差拡大を結びつける要因 として社会活動の重要性が明らかになった ことも重要だ。社会活動の媒介効果は上記 の健康行動のそれを大きく上回る、社会活 動に対する支援は、学歴による教育格差拡 大を抑制する重要な方策になり得る。

E.結論

学歴による健康格差は加齢とともに拡大し、「累積的不利仮説」が支持される形になっている。また、学歴による健康格差拡大を媒介する要因としては、余暇時間での運動や喫煙といった健康行動だけでなく、社会活動への参加の有無も重要である。

F.健康危険情報

G.研究発表

1. 論文発表

Takashi Oshio, "Widening disparities in health between educational levels and their determinants in later life: evidence from a nine-year cohort study," *BMC Public Health*, 18:278, 2018 年 2 月 23 日.

H.知的財産権の出願・登録状況

- 1. 特許取得
 - なし
- 2. 実用新案登録

なし

3.その他 なし

(資料)

Takashi Oshio, "Widening disparities in health between educational levels and their determinants in later life: evidence from a nine-year cohort study," *BMC Public Health*, *BMC Public Health*, 2018, 18:278

Abstract

Background: Education has attracted more attention as a key determinant of health in later life. In this study, the hypothesis that widened educational disparities in health can be observed in later life was investigated, and the factors that mediated the association between education and changes in health were also assessed.

Methods: Using the 10-wave longitudinal data of 20,024 individuals (9,320 men and 10,704 women) aged 50–59 years at baseline, collected from a nationwide population survey in Japan (2005–2014), the changes in self-rated health, functional limitations, and psychological distress between educational levels were compared. Mediation analysis was further conducted to assess the factors that mediated the association between education and changes in health, with reference to six types of potential mediators (household spending, social participation, leisure-time physical activity, smoking, problem drinking, and regular health check-ups). The analyses were conducted separately for men and women.

Results: All three health variables rapidly deteriorated among lower-educated men and women. For men, the six potential mediators mediated 55.2%, 64.3%, and 47.3% of the associations between educational levels and changes in self-rated health, functional limitations, and psychological distress, respectively. The proportions for women were 42.0%, 49.5%, and 58.8%, respectively. Social participation was the primary mediator, followed by physical activity, regular health check-ups, and smoking. In general, no substantial or consistent differences were observed between men and women.

Conclusions: The results suggested that policy measures that encourage social participation and promote healthy behaviors can improve educational disparities in health in later life.

Background

Education as a key determinant of health in later life has attracted more attention because it is one of the most stable indicators of one's socioeconomic status after young adulthood [1, 2]. Education is also likely to affect other aspects of socioeconomic status that are associated with health [3, 4]. A well-established view is that health differences between educational levels increase with age. Health is predicted to deteriorate more rapidly with age for lower-educated individuals than for higher-educated individuals, which is known as the cumulative disadvantage hypothesis [5]. In line with this hypothesis, several studies have demonstrated that educational level is a key determinant of health disparities in later life among other several aspects of health, including mortality, disability, frailty, chronic diseases, mental health, self-rated health, or other health variables [5–13].

However, two key challenges must be addressed for the further understanding of the association between educational levels and health. First, more information is needed about the long-term changes in health at an individual level, particularly if the focus is on how health disparities will accumulate with

age over time. Previous studies have often been based on cross-sectional or repeated cross-sectional data [8, 12, 13], and even if longitudinal data were used, analyses have often been limited to comparisons between a couple of survey waves with relatively short intervals [5–7, 10, 11, 14], with a recent exception that used longer longitudinal data [9]. Further evidence based on large-scale and extended longitudinal data must be obtained to examine the validity of the cumulative disadvantage hypothesis at an individual level [7].

Second and more importantly, the mechanism that explains the relationship between educational levels and widening health disparities with age has not been fully elucidated. Numerous studies have examined the possible explanations for the general relationship between education and health [3, 15]. In addition, results showed several potential mediators of this relationship. For example, a lower educational level is likely to cause material disadvantages, particularly in terms of income, which can reduce the access to healthy food and the chances of living in healthy conditions [16, 17].

Lower-educated individuals may also undertake an unhealthy lifestyle or behaviour, resulting in higher risks of worsening health [4, 18]. In this respect, how health behaviours and lifestyle habits, such as leisure-time physical activity, smoking, and problem drinking can link education to health should be assessed. In addition, social participation may be a potential mediator if it is positively associated with educational level [14], given that studies have demonstrated a positive association between social participation and health [19, 20]. However, existing observations about these mediating effects are conflicting, and as suggested by Chandola et al. [21], multiple pathways that link education and health must be considered, rather than focusing on a single potential mediator.

To address these challenges and further understand the association between educational levels and health, the validity of the cumulative disadvantage hypothesis was assessed at an individual level, and the factors that mediated the association between education and changes in health were investigated. For these purposes, the 10-wave (9-year) longitudinal data, obtained from a nationwide social survey, of 20,024 individuals (9,320 men and 10,704 women) aged 50–59 years at baseline were used. The changes in health and its evolution over the 9-year period were compared between the lower- and middle-/higher-educated individuals, with a focus on three health variables (self-rated health [SRH], functional limitations, and psychological distress).

Furthermore, the factors that mediated the association between educational levels and changes in health over the 9-year period were assessed. Six potential mediators were considered: household spending (as an alternate for income), social participation, leisure-time physical activity, smoking, problem drinking, and regular health check-ups. A mediation analysis was conducted to evaluate the mediating effect of each of these six variables on the association between education and health.

All of these analyses were conducted separately for men and women. It might be possible that educational differences in health may increase differently among men and women, and that the mediating mechanisms might operate in different ways by gender.

Methods

Study sample

Data from the Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults, a nationwide 9-year panel survey,

that was conducted by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) each year between 2005 and 2014, were obtained. Samples in the first wave were collected nationwide in November 2005 through a two-stage random sampling procedure. First, 2,515 districts were randomly selected from 5,280 districts used in the MHLW's nationwide, population-based "Comprehensive Survey of the Living Conditions of People on Health and Welfare," which was conducted in 2004. The 5,280 districts were, in turn, randomly selected from about 940,000 national census districts. Second, 40,877 residents aged 50–59 years as of October 30, 2005 were randomly selected from each selected district, according to its population size. A total of 34,240 individuals responded (response rate: 83.8%). The second to tenth waves of the survey were conducted in early November of each year from 2006 to 2014, and 22,748 individuals remained until the tenth wave (with an average attrition rate of 4.0% in each wave). No new respondents were added after the first wave.

Data of the 20,024 individuals (9,320 men and 10,704 women), who participated for 9 years were used, and all information required in the present study were provided. The respondents were divided into lower-educated individuals (whose educational attainment was below high school, that is, less than 12 years of schooling in total) and middle-/higher-educated ones (who had graduated from high school or above). Lower-educated individuals, including those who had not completed high school, comprised 15.4% of the entire sample. The study sample consisted of 58.4% of the individuals who participated in the first wave. The key attributes between this study sample and dropouts were compared to assess the potential bias in the estimation results.

Measurements

Health variables

Three health variables were considered: SRH, functional limitations, and psychological distress. SRH has often been used as a comprehensive alternative for general health conditions in social epidemiology because it has been repeatedly found to be a valid predictor of health outcomes, including mortality, physical and cognitive functioning, and morbidity [22–24]. In terms of SRH, the respondents were asked to choose 1 (*very good*), 2 (*good*), 3 (*somewhat good*), 4 (*somewhat poor*), 5 (*poor*), or 6 (*very poor*) regarding their current health condition.

These categorical answers were used as a continuous variable with higher values that indicate poorer SRH. In terms of functional limitations, the respondents were asked whether they had any difficulty in each of the 10 activities of daily living (walking, getting out of bed, getting in/out of a chair, dressing, washing their face and hands, eating, toileting, bathing, ascending and descending stairs, and carrying purchased items). The degrees of functional limitations were also evaluated using the sum of items in which the respondents had difficulty performing.

Kessler 6 (K6) scores were established to measure psychological distress [25, 26]. From the survey, the respondents' assessments of psychological distress were first obtained using a 6-item psychological distress questionnaire—"During the past 30 days, about how often did you feel a) nervous, b) hopeless, c) restless or fidgety, d) so depressed that nothing could cheer you up, e) that everything was an effort, and f) worthless?" The questionnaire was rated on a 5-point scale ($0 = none \ of \ the \ time \ to \ 4 = all \ of \ the \ time)$. The sum of the reported scores were then calculated (range: 0-24) and defined as the K6 score.

Higher K6 scores reflected higher levels of psychological distress.

Potential mediators

Six types of potential mediators were considered for the association between education and health (household spending, social participation, leisure-time physical activity, smoking, alcohol drinking, and regular health check-ups). Each variable was completely evaluated throughout the 10 waves. Household spending was considered as a key factor that represents the material conditions rather than income because the number of respondents who did not report household spending was significantly lower compared to those who did not own a household or have their own income and because dependent wives who did not work outside their house did not have income. Reported household spending throughout the 10 waves were summarized, and a binary variable of low household spending was established by allocating one to the lowest tertile of the sum and zero if otherwise.

In terms of social participation, respondents were asked whether they participated in 6 types of social participation (hobbies or cultural activities, exercise or sports, community events, support for children, support for the elderly, and other activities) within the past year from the date of the survey. The answers regarding social participation were summarized, showing that the respondents were engaged in each wave throughout the 10 waves (range: 0–60), and a binary variable of low social participation was established by allocating one to the lowest tertile of the sum and zero if otherwise.

Physical activity, smoking, alcohol drinking, and regular health check-ups were considered as key behaviours that are associated with health. Respondents were asked how they were engaged in leisure-time physical activity. A binary variable of low physical activity was then established by allocating one to those who did not engage in moderate (without breathlessness or heart palpitations) or more intense exercise at least few days per week throughout the 10 waves. The respondent was considered as a smoker if he/she answered that he/she was currently smoking all throughout the waves. Problem drinking was defined as an intake of more than two *go* (360 ml) per day of Japanese *sake* or an equivalent amount of alcohol, which corresponds to about 40 g of pure alcohol. This threshold was based on a study showing that maintaining alcohol consumption below 46 g/day minimized the risks of mortality in a Japanese population [27]. Those who drank above this threshold in at least one wave were considered as problem drinkers. Lastly, a binary variable for those with no regular health check-ups was established by allocating one to those who reported that they did not have a health check-up in at least one wave. In addition to these variables, binary variables of sex and each age (50–59 years old) at baseline and the baseline values of each health variable as covariates were used.

Statistical analyses

For the descriptive analysis, the baseline values and changes in the three health variables over the 9-year period between the lower- and middle-/higher-educated individuals were compared for both men and women. Then, two types of linear regression models (Models A and B) were estimated separately for men and women to explain the change in each health variable between baseline and each wave, allowing random effects to consider error terms at an individual level. In Model A, the wave was used as a continuous variable and the binary variable of low educational level as key explanatory variables, along

with the covariates. The coefficients of the wave and low educational level were both expected to be positive. In Model B, the interaction term of the wave and low educational level were added to Model A. The coefficient of this interaction term was expected to be positive if low educational level adds to the pace of deterioration in health with increasing age.

In these regression models, each health variable was normalised by its mean and standard deviation to help assess and compare the substantive degrees of association between health and other variables. In addition, inverse probability weighting was used to mitigate potential sources of attrition bias [28, 29]. Specifically, the probit model was first estimated to predict observation presence through wave 10, using the baseline values of each health variable and the binary variables of lower education and each age at baseline. Then, the inverse of the predicted probability of presence was used as the weight when estimating the regression models.

Subsequently, a mediation analysis was performed separately for men and women, with the conventional three-step estimation procedure along with bootstrapping to assess the significance of the mediating effects [30, 31]. Changes in the three health variables over the 9-year period were the focus. In the first step, Model 1 was used to explain the change in each health variable between baseline and the tenth wave by the binary variable of low educational level. In the second step, Model 2 was used to explain each potential mediator by the binary variable of low educational level. In the third step, Model 3 was utilized to explain the change in each health variable by low educational level. In each of Models 1, 2, and 3, health variables at baseline as well as other covariates were controlled for.

For each potential mediator an actual mediator was suspected if the estimated coefficients of low educational level in Models 1 and 2 and the estimated coefficients for the potential mediators were all statistically significant. To examine the statistical significance of the mediating effect, the 95% confidence interval (CI) of the proportion of the association between education and the change in each health variable were subsequently estimated via bootstrap estimation with 2,000 replications.

Results

Widening disparities in health

The first half of Table 1 shows the comparison (1) of the values at baseline and (2) the changes over the 9-year period for the lower- and middle-/higher-educated individuals in terms of SRH, functional limitations, and psychological distress, between lower- and middle-/higher-educated individuals. For both men and women, SRH and functional limitations at baseline were worse among lower-educated individuals than middle-/higher-educated ones, whereas no difference was observed in terms of psychological distress. Over the 9-year period, self-rated health and psychological distress deteriorated among lower-educated men, while functional limitations and psychological distress deteriorated among lower-educated women. Deterioration in functional limitations or self-rated health showed no difference among men and women with varying educational backgrounds. However, it should be noted that baseline values of health variables or other covariates were not controlled for in Table 1.

The second half of Table 1 shows the comparison of the six potential mediators in terms of educational level over the 9-year period. Lower-educated individuals were at significantly higher risks of low household spending, low social participation, low physical activity, smoking, problem drinking,

and no regular check-ups compared to middle-/higher-educated individuals, while the difference in the proportion of problem drinking was small for both men and women and significant only at the 10% level for women.

To confirm the widening educational disparities in health with age, Table 2 presents the estimation results of the regression models to explain the change in each health variable between baseline and each wave after controlling for sex and age at baseline. In Model A, results showed that, for both men and women, low educational level accelerated deterioration in health. This result was obtained even after controlling for (i) the adverse effect of aging on health (which is captured by a positive coefficient of a continuous variable of the wave), and (ii) the initial level effect (which means that higher initial levels reduced additional increases in subsequent waves and is indicated by a negative coefficient of the health variable at baseline).

By adding the interaction term between low educational level and the wave in Model B, the coefficients of the interaction terms were positive and significant in all models, except for self-rated health for women. This observation indicates that low educational level generally accelerated the deterioration in health with age for both men and men.

Mediation analysis

The estimation results of Models 1 and 3 based on the mediation analysis are presented in Table 3, which focuses on the change in health variables between baseline and the tenth wave. The results of Model 1 confirmed the adverse effect of low educational level on the changes in all the three types of health variables. The results of Model 2 are not presented to conserve space (available upon request), but it was confirmed that all potential mediators were significantly associated with low educational level (p < 0.001).

The results of Models 3 help understand the mediating mechanism. For example, in the case of SRH for men, the estimated coefficient of low educational level was substantially attenuated to 0.08 from 0.16 in Model 1, after controlling for the six potential mediators, suggesting that a substantial portion of the association between education and the change in SRH was influenced by those mediators. Among the six variables, low social participation, smoking, problem drinking, and no regular health check-ups were positively associated with deteriorated SRH. Household spending was not related to SRH. A reduction in the estimated coefficient of low educational level from Model 1 to 3 was commonly observed in all models, while the levels of the coefficient were somewhat different between men and women. Another finding was that estimation results of the six mediators were not much different between men and women in terms of the magnitudes and statistical significance of their estimated coefficients; notably, low social participation and physical activity were most closely associated with the changes in health variables in all models.

Table 4 shows the comparison of the magnitude of each variable's mediating effects as well as statistical significance. In the case of men's self-rated health, social participation had the largest mediating effect, which accounted for 31.1% of the association between educational levels and SRH. The magnitude of the mediating effect of social participation was remarkably higher than that of physical activity (15.0%), regular health check-ups (6.0%), and smoking (3.1%). The mediating effects of these four variables were all significant, given that the bootstrap-estimated 95% CI did not include

zero. By contrast, the mediating effect of household spending or problem drinking was not significant. The mediating effect of these six potential mediators accounted for 57.3% (95% CI: 28.9 - 58.6%) of the association between low educational level and SRH. If limited to four significant mediators, the mediating effect was 55.2% (95% CI: 44.2 - 66.1%) in total.

Largely similar results were obtained for other combinations of the health variable and gender. For men, the six potential mediators accounted for 64.3% and 47.3% of functional limitations and psychological distress, respectively. The proportions for women were 42.0%, 49.5%, and 58.8% for the three health variables, respectively, not much different from those for men. For both men and women, social participation was the primary mediator for all health variables. Albeit to a lesser extent, leisure-time physical activity and regular health check-up, and smoking in some cases, were found to be important mediators for all health variables for both genders.

Discussion

In the present study, the association between the changes in health and educational levels were investigated using the 10-wave longitudinal data of the individuals aged 50–59 years old at baseline. The estimation results clearly support the hypothesis that educational disparities in health would accumulate with age in terms of SRH, functional limitations, and psychological distress. These results were generally in accordance with those in previous studies that demonstrated educational disparities in health [5–13], although the present study additionally revealed the changes in disparities over the 9-year period.

The results of the mediating analysis highlighted the importance of the pathways that link education to health in later life. The proportions of the association between educational levels and the change in heath mediated by a set of six factors (household spending, social participation, leisure-time physical activity, smoking, problem drinking, and regular check-ups) were in the range from 47.3% to 64.3% and from 42.0% to 58.8% for men and women, respectively, depending on health variables (self-rated health, functional limitations, and psychological distress). These results suggested that we can construct policy measures to alleviate the accumulation of educational disparities in health by blocking the pathways that link low educational level to health.

In this respect, the key mediators for the association between education and health must be identified. Moreover, the prediction of health behaviors as key mediators is also important, as already suggested by previous studies [4, 18]. Indeed, estimation results confirmed that leisure-time physical activity and, to a lesser extent, smoking mediated the effect of education on health, whereas problem drinking did not. In addition, regular health check-up, which is not a narrowly defined heath behaviour, was also an important mediator. This result is also consistent with the assumption that health literacy mediates the effect of education on health [32] because it is reasonable to argue that individuals with a higher level of health literacy are more inclined to have regular heath check-ups.

Another significant finding is that social participation was the primary mediator of the association between education and health because of the magnitude of its mediating effect was well above those of other factors for both men and women. Numerous studies have demonstrated that social participation has a favourable effect on health [19, 20]. The results of the present study suggested that lower-educated

individuals are at high risk in failing (or be reluctant) to engage in social participation, which in turn affects the health of lower-educated individuals.

However, a one-way causation from social participation (as well as other mediators) may not affect health. Rather, a two-way causation between the two variables may be assumed, considering that healthier individuals are more likely to engage intensively in social participation, which in turn further enhances their health. This two-way causation between social participation and health may result in the accumulation of the mediating effect of social participation over time. Compared to the present study, Ettman et al. [14] indicated a more limited mediating effect of social participation between educational levels on frailty. The difference was probably attributed to the difference in the time intervals in observing the change in health: 2 years in the study by Ettman et al. versus 9 years in the present study.

In contrast to social participation and health behaviours, a somewhat surprising result was that household spending, which was used as an alternative for income, did not have any mediating effect on the association between educational levels and health. Two remarks should be made on this result. First, it may probably be wrong to argue for a limited mediating effect of income, because income may likely provide material sources to health-promoting behaviours, access to health service, and healthy lifestyle. In this sense, income may possibly arbitrate the mediating effects of other factors. Second, the present study, which focused on how income (along with other factors) mediated the effects of education on health, did not address the differential effects of education versus income on health, which should be addressed in another analytic framework [1, 33].

Finally, the results did not show any substantial differences between men and women, and gender differences depended on the types of health variable. For both men and women, educational disparities in health widened at a largely similar pace, albeit somewhat differently across health variables. In addition, the proportion of the association between education and health mediated by six potential mediators was in the range from 47.3% to 64.3% and 42.0% to 58.8% for men and women, respectively, which were largely overlapped. Moreover, the key mediator was social participation for both men and women, and physical activity, regular health check-up, and smoking worked as important mediators commonly for both genders. However, we should be cautious in any generalization, because the results may depend on socio-institutional backgrounds.

The present study has several limitations, in addition to the limited coverage of health variables: for instance, it did not analyse the educational difference in mortality due to lack of data availability from the current dataset. First, attrition biases were not fully controlled, although the study sample and dropouts were compared. Hence, as mentioned above, the association between educational levels and changes in health observed in the present study might have been underestimated. Second, potential mediators for the association between education and health were not comprehensively explored, although their association was significantly mediated by the six factors that were considered in the present study. Hence, one should be cautious in interpreting the proportion of the mediated association in Table 4. The remaining proportion did not indicate the magnitude of the direct unmediated effect of education on health. Third and most importantly, the possibility that a third unobserved factor that affects both education and the mediators exist was not ruled out. For instance, some genetic characteristics or personality trait can make an individual more inclined to both continue his/her

education and participate in social activities. If that is the case, caution should be undertaken in interpreting the observed association between education and the mediators as well as its effects on the association between education and health.

Conclusions

Based on the statistical analyses using the 10-wave cohort data of the nationwide survey in Japan, educational disparities tended to widen with age in later life. In addition, a substantial portion of the associations between educational levels and changes in health was mediated by social participation and health-related activities, which contributed to a cumulative disadvantage of low educational level. These results suggested that policy measures that encourage social participation and promote healthy behaviours can improve educational disparities in health in later life.

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Table 1. Comparing health and other variables by educational level^a (N = 20,024)

		Men(n =	= 9,320)		Women $(n = 10,704)$						
Educational level	Lower	Middle /higher	Diff	ference	Lower	Middle /higher	Diff	erence			
	(A)	(B)	A - B	p-value	(A)	(B)	A-B	p-value			
Health variables											
(1) Values at baseline											
Self-rated health	2.84	2.68	0.16	< 0.001	2.91	2.68	0.23	< 0.00			
(range: 1-6)	(0.97)	(0.94)			(0.96)	(0.90)					
Functional limitations	0.22	0.14	0.08	0.007	0.32	0.21	0.11	< 0.001			
(range: 0-10)	(1.27)	(0.99)			(1.44)	(1.07)					
Psychological distress	2.66	2.72	-0.06	0.584	3.16	3.05	0.11	0.301			
(range: 0-24)	(3.71)	(3.77)			(4.04)	(3.82)					
(2) Changes over ten wave:	S										
Self-rated health	0.21	0.15	0.06	0.042	0.16	0.14	0.02	0.404			
	(1.05)	(1.00)			(1.00)	(0.94)					
Functional limitations	0.27	0.24	0.03	0.505	0.47	0.26	0.21	< 0.00			
	(1.94)	(1.66)			(2.19)	(1.72)					
Psychological distress	0.58	0.05	0.53	< 0.001	0.60	0.37	0.23	0.029			
	(4.22)	(3.85)			(4.21)	(3.95)					
Potential mediators over te	n waves										
Low household spendingb	0.45	0.34	0.11	< 0.001	0.49	0.37	0.12	< 0.00			
	(0.50)	(0.47)			(0.50)	(0.48)					
Low social activity ^b	0.53	0.30	0.24	< 0.001	0.53	0.28	0.24	< 0.001			
	(0.50)	(0.46)			(0.50)	(0.45)					
Low physical activity	0.98	0.95	0.04	< 0.001	0.97	0.94	0.03	< 0.00			
	(0.14)	(0.23)			(0.18)	(0.24)					
Smoking	0.61	0.51	0.10	< 0.001	0.29	0.19	0.10	< 0.00			
	(0.49)	(0.50)			(0.46)	(0.40)					
Problem drinking	0.19	0.17	0.02	0.022	0.12	0.10	0.02	0.063			
A CONTRACT OF THE CONTRACT OF	(0.39)	(0.37)			(0.32)	(0.30)					
No regular health	0.00	0.55	0.1.	0.001	0.00	0.77	0.05	0.00			
check-up	0.80	0.66	0.14	< 0.001	0.82	0.75	0.06	< 0.001			
	(0.40)	(0.48)			(0.39)	(0.43)					
Number of individuals	1,452	7,868			1,631	9,073					

^a Figures in the parentheses are standard deviations. ^b Lowest tertile.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01

Table 2. Estimated associations with changes in normalised health variables between baseline and each wave^a

		Men	(n = 9,320)) × 10 wa	ives)		Women ($n = 10,704 \times 10$ waves)						
	M	odel	A	N	/lode	l B	N	/lode	I A	N	lode	В	
	Coef. b		SEc	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	
(1) Self-rated healthd													
Low-educated	0.116	***	(0.012)	0.081	***	(0.015)	0.105	***	(0.011)	0.092	***	(0.014)	
Low-educated × Wave				0.006	***	(0.002)				0.002		(0.002)	
Wave	0.017	***	(0.001)	0.016	***	(0.001)	0.015	***	(0.001)	0.014	***	(0.001)	
Self-rated health at baseline	-0.467	***	(0.004)	-0.467	***	(0.004)	-0.474	***	(0.004)	-0.474	***	(0.004)	
(2) Functional limitations ^d													
Low-educated	0.039	***	(0.011)	0.020		(0.015)	0.089	***	(0.012)	0.029		(0.016)	
Low-educated × Wave				0.004	*	(0.002)				0.011	***	(0.002)	
Wave	0.015	***	(0.001)	0.015	***	(0.001)	0.019	***	(0.001)	0.017	***	(0.001)	
Functional limitations at baseline	-0.538	***	(0.005)	-0.538	***	(0.005)	-0.440	***	(0.005)	-0.440	***	(0.005)	
(3) Psychological distress ^d													
Low-educated	0.092	***	(0.012)	0.018		(0.014)	0.052	***	(0.012)	0.021		(0.015)	
Low-educated × Wave				0.014	***	(0.002)				0.006	***	(0.002)	
Wave	-0.001		(0.001)	-0.003	***	(0.001)	0.006	***	(0.001)	0.005	***	(0.001)	
Psychological distress at baseline	-0.431	***	(0.005)	-0.431	***	(0.005)	-0.380	***	(0.005)	-0.380	***	(0.005)	

^a Controlled for ages at baseline. ^b Coefficient. ^c Standard error. ^d Normalised by mean and standard deviation.

^{***} p < 0.001.

Table 3. Estimated associations with changes in normalised health variables over the 9-year perioda

			Men (n	= 9,320)		Women $(n = 10,704)$						
	N	/lode	11	N	/lode	13	N	Aode	11	N	Mode	13	
	Coe	f.b	SEc	Coe	f.	SE	Coe	f.	SE	Coe	f.	SE	
(1) Self-rated health ^d													
Low-educated	0.16	***	(0.02)	0.08	***	(0.02)	0.17	***	(0.02)	0.11	***	(0.02)	
Low household spending				0.02		(0.02)				-0.05	***	(0.01)	
Low social participation				0.23	***	(0.02)				0.21	***	(0.02)	
Low physical activity				0.23	***	(0.04)				0.21	***	(0.03)	
Smoking				0.05	**	(0.02)				0.03		(0.02)	
Problem drinking				0.05	**	(0.02)				-0.04		(0.02)	
No regular health check-up				0.07	***	(0.02)				0.04	**	(0.02)	
Self-rated health at baseline	-0.55	***	(0.01)	-0.57	***	(0.01)	-0.58	***	(0.01)	-0.59	***	(0.01)	
(2) Functional limitations ^d													
Low-educated	0.05		(0.02)	-0.01		(0.03)	0.16	***	(0.03)	0.10	***	(0.03)	
Low household spending				0.05	*	(0.02)				-0.03		(0.02)	
Low social participation				0.20	***	(0.02)				0.19	***	(0.02)	
Low physical activity				0.13	**	(0.05)				0.14	***	(0.04)	
Smoking				0.01		(0.02)				0.13	***	(0.02)	
Problem drinking				0.08	**	(0.03)				-0.05		(0.03)	
No regular health check-up				0.02		(0.02)				0.11	***	(0.02)	
Functional limitations at baseline	-0.58	***	(0.01)	-0.58	***	(0.01)	-0.50	***	(0.01)	-0.51	***	(0.01)	
(3) Psychological distress ^d									141				
Low-educated	0.14	***	(0.02)	0.07	***	(0.02)	0.09	***	(0.02)	0.04		(0.02)	
Low household spending				0.03	*	(0.02)				-0.01		(0.01)	
Low social participation				0.19	***	(0.02)				0.15	***	(0.02)	
Low physical activity				0.08	*	(0.03)				0.06	*	(0.03)	
Smoking				0.00		(0.01)				0.04	*	(0.02)	
Problem drinking				0.05	*	(0.02)				0.00		(0.02)	
No regular health check-up				0.06	***	(0.02)				0.07	***	(0.02)	
Psychological distress at baseline	-0.52	***	(0.01)	-0.54	***	(0.01)	-0.47	***	(0.01)	-0.48	***	(0.01)	

^a Controlled for ages at baseline. ^b Coefficient. ^c Standard error. ^d Normalised by mean and standard deviation

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01.

Table 4. Estimated proportions of the associations between education and health mediated by each mediator (N = 20,024)

		Men (n	= 9,320)	Women $(n = 10,704)$					
	Propor	tion (%)	9	5% CI ^b	Proport	ion (%)	9	5% CI		
Self-rated health										
Low household spending	1.0		(-1.6,	3.5)	-3.6		(-6.1,	-1.2)		
Low social participation	31.1	†c	(24.4,	37.7)	30.7	†	(24.3,	37.2)		
Low physical activity	15.0	Ť	(6.8,	23.2)	9.3	Ť	(4.2,	14.4)		
Smoking	3.1	Ť	(0.5,	5.7)	2.0		(-1.2,	5.1)		
Problem drinking	1.2		(-0.3,	2.6)	-0.8		(-2.2,	0.6)		
No regular health check-up	6.0	†	(2.2,	9.7)	2.0	†	(0.1,	3.9)		
Total	57.3	Ť	(28.9,	85.6)	39.5	Ť	(12.3,	66.8)		
Total for significant mediators ^d	55.2	†	(44.2,	66.1)	42.0	+	(33.8,	50.1)		
Functional limitations										
Low household spending	0.3		(-3.2,	3.8)	-2.3		(-5.7,	1.2)		
Low social participation	41.8	†	(32.3,	51.2)	27.4	†	(18.7,	36.2)		
Low physical activity	12.1	Ť	(7.4,	16.8)	7.3	Ť	(3.3,	11.3)		
Smoking	3.9	†	(0.3,	7.6)	9.8	Ť	(-4.5,	15.1)		
Problem drinking	0.8		(-1.0,	2.6)	-0.9		(-2.6,	0.9)		
No regular health check-up	6.5	†	(3.0,	10.0)	4.9	†	(2.0,	7.9)		
Total	65.4	Ť	(21.3,	109.5)	46.4	Ť	(4.3,	88.4)		
Total for significant mediators ^d	64.3	Ť	(53.6,	74.9)	49.5	Ť	(38.8,	60.3)		
Psychological distress										
Low household spending	2.4		(-0.8,	5.5)	-1.6		(-6.3,	3.1)		
Low social participation	32.2	Ť	(24.1,	40.3)	46.2	Ť	(33.2,	59.1)		
Low physical activity	7.7	†	(1.9,	13.5)	6.5	+	(0.2,	12.8)		
Smoking	0.6		(-2.4,	3.6)	4.7		(-1.9,	11.4)		
Problem drinking	1.3		(-0.5,	3.1)	0.2		(-2.1,	2.5)		
No regular health check-up	7.4	Ť	(2.8,	11.9)	6.1	Ť	(2.0,	10.3)		
Total	51.6	Ť	(16.0,	87.3)	62.1	Ť	(7.9,	116.4)		
Total for significant mediators ^d	47.3	†	(36.9,	57.6)	58.8	t	(44.9,	72.7)		

^a Controlled for baseline value of each health variable as well as ages at baseline.

^b 95% confidence intervals obtained via bootstrap estimation with 2,000 replications.

c Indicates that bootstrap-estimated 95% CI was above zero.

d Mediators with †

平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 分担研究報告

引退が中高年の健康・健康行動に及ぼす影響に関する研究

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研究要旨

加齢に応じて、健康面でさまざまな問題が発生することはよく知られている。本研究では、引退の内生性を処理したうえで、引退によって健康・健康行動がどのように変化するかを分析する。ただし、分析に際しては、健康・健康行動の変化を,非連続的なもの(例:引退を機に運動を始める)と連続的なもの(例:引退を機に運動の回数を増やす)とに区別する。分析の結果、引退はとりわけ男性の場合、健康や健康状態の非連続的な変化を即座にもたらすとともに、それらの変化のペースにも影響を及ぼすことが明らかとなった。例えば、余暇時間に運動する確率は引退を契機にしてジャンプするが、加齢による低下ペースも引退後に緩和する。

A.研究目的

加齢に応じて、健康面でさまざまな問題が発生することはよく知られている。しかし、加齢による健康や健康行動の変化は、個人が直面する社会経済環境の変化にも影響されるだろうし、個人に備わっている属性、あるいはこれまでの人生の過ごし方に規定される面もあるはずである。本章では、そうした点を念頭に置いて、「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データを用いて中高年の健康・健康行動の変化を分析することを目的とする。

B.研究方法

「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データから得られる情報を活用して、 個人レベルの固定効果をコントロールするとともに、引退の内生性に起因するバイアスを軽減し、 引退による健康・健康行動の影響を水準と変化のペースという2つの側面から把握する、という3点に留意する。具体的

には、3つの健康アウトカム(主観的健康 感、有症、心理的ディストレス)と3つの 健康行動(喫煙、飲酒,余暇時間における 運動)とに注目して、引退の影響を固定効 果・操作変数法(FE-IV)に基づいて分析す る。さらに,引退の健康・健康行動への影 響は男女間で異なることが予想されるので、 分析は男女サンプルに分けて行う。

(倫理面への配慮)

政府の公的統計の二次利用に基づく分析であり、倫理面への追加的な配慮は不要

C.研究結果

引退が多くの健康変数に異なる形で影響を及ぼすことが明らかになった。男性の場合、引退が良好な形で即座に影響を及ぼすものとして、余暇時間での運動や主観的健康感、心理的ディストレスが挙げられる。また、引退後の変化のペースが望ましい方向に変化するものとしては、喫煙や余暇時間での運動、主観的健康感、有症が挙げら

れる。しかし、過度な飲酒は加齢や引退の 影響を受けないことが分かった。

6つの健康変数のなかで、引退時における非連続的な変化の度合いが最も顕著なのは余暇時間における運動だった。これは、引退によって時間的余裕ができることを考えれば十分予想できることだと言えよう。

さらに、引退の健康効果は男女によって 大きく異なることも確認された。男女間で 共通に観測されたのは、余暇時間に運動を する確率が引退を契機にして大きく上昇す るという点だけである。また,男性の場合 と異なり、健康変数の変化率は引退前後で ほとんど変わらなかった。

D . 考察

引退は健康に対して基本的にプラスに作用する、というのがこの研究で得られた基本的知見である。人々は、引退をきっかけとしてライフスタイルを健康的な方向に変える傾向がある。中高年層の健康増進策を考える場合は、そこが狙い目になるだろう。時間的な自由度が高まる中高年層をターゲットとした健康促進策を地方自治体等が中心となって展開すれば、人々の意識と相俟って大きな効果を生む可能性がある。

なお、引退の影響は、女性では男性ほど 明確になっていない。引退前における就業 形態の男女間格差がその原因になっている 可能性がある。女性の場合は,正規労働者 の比率が男性より低いだけでなく、労働時 間も短めである。その分だけ、ライフ・イ ベントとしての引退の重みが限定的であり、 健康や健康行動への影響もその分小さ目に なると考えられる。もちろん、こうした状 況は女性労働をめぐる社会情勢の変化によ って大きく変化する可能性がある。

E.結論

引退は、とりわけ男性の場合,健康や健

康状態の水準に非連続的な変化を即座にもたらすとともに、それらの変化のペースにも無視できない影響を及ぼすことが明らかになった。

F.健康危険情報

G.研究発表

1. 論文発表

Takashi Oshio and Mari Kan, "The dynamic impact of retirement on health: evidence from a nationwide ten-year panel survey in Japan," *Preventive Medicine*, 100, 287-293, 2017 年 7 月.

H.知的財産権の出願・登録状況

- 1. 特許取得
- 2. 実用新案登録
- 3.その他 なし

(資料)

Takashi Oshio and Mari Kan, "The dynamic impact of retirement on health: evidence from a nationwide ten-year panel survey in Japan," *Preventive Medicine*, 2017,100, 287-293.

ABSTRACT

Retirement is a major life-course transition that is closely related to changes in health. This study examined the dynamic impact of retirement on health and health behaviors, distinguishing an immediate change in the level of health at retirement and a change in the rate of change after retirement. We used panel data from 9,283 individuals (4,441 men and 4,842 women) who had retired during a nationwide ten-year panel survey in Japan conducted in 2005-2014. We focused on three health behaviors (current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, and leisure-time physical activity) and two health indicators (self-rated health and psychological distress). We estimated regression models that controlled for both time-invariant individual attributes and the endogeneity of retirement, using panel data collected during the five years before and after retirement. Results generally confirmed that the transition was accompanied by favorable changes in health and health behaviors with some gender differences. Among men, retirement immediately promoted leisure-time physical activity and reduced poor self-rated health and psychological distress. Retirement also accelerated smoking cessation and leisure-time physical activity and decelerated reporting poor health. Among women, retirement immediately promoted leisure-time physical activity and reduced psychological distress, while it did not affect the rate of change in any health variable after retirement. The current study underscores the need for more in-depth knowledge of the dynamic impact of retirement on health. This will assist in developing policy measures to help the middle-aged population make healthy transitions from work to retirement.

INTRODUCTION

Retirement is a major transition in later life that is closely related to changes in health. The impact of retirement on health is potentially a key determinant of quality of life among middle-aged and elderly individuals (van der Heide et al., 2013; Zantinge et al., 2014). Additionally, the association between retirement and health is a central issue for public policy in developed countries, because retirement is closely related to public pension schemes (Gruber and Wise, 1999) and health and long-term care for the elderly are expected to continue to increase public spending (de la Maisonneuve and Oliveira Martins, 2013).

It is reasonable to predict that retirement would have a favorable impact on health, considering the stressful influence of work. Indeed, many studies have attempted to confirm this, focusing on various types of health behaviors such as smoking (Celidoni and Rebba, 2016; Ding et al., 2016; Lang et al., 2007), alcohol consumption (Brennan et al., 2010; Celidoni and Rebba, 2016; Ding et al., 2016; Zins et al., 2011), and physical activity (Chung et al., 2009; Ding et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016; Slingerland et al., 2007; Stenholm et al., 2016). Studies have also considered overall health variables measured by self-rated health and mental health indicators (Behncke, 2012; Coe and Zamarro, 2011; Hesel, 2016; Neuman, 2008; Westerlund et al., 2009; Westerlund et al., 2010; Zhu, 2016). As surveyed by van der Heide et al. (2013) and Zantinge et al. (2014), many studies have confirmed that retirement has a

beneficial effect on health, while several other studies have obtained opposing or inconsistent results. Indeed, there are many reasons to assume the negative effects of retirement on health, through life-course disruptions, loss of key social role, income loss, and others.

There are at least three factors that may result in mixed and inconsistent observations about the positive effects of retirement, besides differences inherent to datasets collected from different countries and study groups. First, results may be biased as studies have not fully considered individual differences such as personality traits and inherent characteristics. Prospective cohort studies have usually compared health variables between participants who had retired during baseline and follow-up and those who continued to work throughout the study (e.g., Feng et al., 2016; Lang et al., 2007; Slingerland et al., 2007). These studies did control for sociodemographic and socioeconomic attributes observed through surveys, but they could not control for unobserved individual attributes, making it difficult to identify the causal effect of retirement on health. Fixed-effects (FE) regression models have often been used to control for time-invariant individual attributes, both observed and unobserved (Celidoni and Rebba, 2016; Chung et al. 2009; Zhu, 2016).

Second, retirement must be endogenous in general; it may be a choice made by an individual, at least to some extent. To alleviate the endogeneity biases, an increasing number of studies have been utilizing the instrumental variable (IV) method (Behncke, 2012; Coe and Zamarro, 2011; Hessel, 2016; Zhu, 2016). In the first stage, this method estimates retirement through an IV expected to affect retirement but not health directly. In the second stage, the model explains health by the retirement predicted in the first stage. Many studies have used eligibility for public pension benefits as an IV (Coe and Zamarro, 2011; Hessel, 2016; Neuman, 2008; Zhu, 2016), because it is institutionally fixed and expected to affect an individual's decision to retire but not his/her health directly. In recent years, FE-IV models, which are a combination of an FE model and an IV method, have often been used to address biases due to both individual time-invariant attributes and the endogeneity of retirement (Bonsang et al., 2012; Godard, 2016; Zhu, 2016).

Third, retirement is likely to affect health in two different ways: (i) an immediate change in the level at retirement and (ii) a change in the rate of change after retirement. For example, it might be that even if health keeps deteriorating after retirement, retirement reduces its rate of deterioration. A simple comparison between pre- and post-retirement levels of the health outcome may fail to capture this type of beneficial impact of retirement on health, even if the endogeneity of retirement is successfully controlled for. Indeed, studies have found that the health effect of retirement tends to change over time (Stenholm et al., 2016; Zhu, 2016), suggesting the need for examining the dynamic effect of retirement on health.

In the current study, we examined how retirement affects the dynamics of health and health behaviors, explicitly considering the above-mentioned issues—that is, (i) controlling for individual heterogeneity, (ii) alleviating endogeneity biases of retirement, and (iii) distinguishing two types of health effects of retirement. We estimated FE-IV models to examine both types of health effects of retirement separately for three health behaviors (current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, and leisure-time physical activity) and two health indicators (self-rated health and psychological distress). We also considered gender differences in health effects of retirement, assuming that socio-institutional

backgrounds of retirement and their implications for health may differ between men and women.

The present study is also expected to shed new light on the understanding of the impact of retirement on health; it used a nationwide dataset in Japan, contrary to previous studies, most of which have used data from Europe, the U.S., and other Western countries. Japan is characterized not only by a high level of labor force participation and long life-expectancy among the elderly but also by a gradual and less straightforward transition from work to retirement (Shimizutani and Oshio, 2010). In addition, a lower share of full-time employees among middle-aged women is expected to lead to more limited impact of retirement on women's health in Japan.

METHODS

Study sample

We used data obtained from a nationwide, ten-wave panel survey, "The Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults," which was conducted by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) each year between 2005 and 2014. Japan's Statistics Law required the survey to be reviewed from statistical, legal, ethical, and other viewpoints. We obtained the survey data from the MHLW with its official permission, so the current study did not require ethical approval.

Samples in the first wave were limited to those aged 50–59 years and were collected nationwide in November of 2005 through a two-stage random sampling procedure. A total of 34,240 individuals responded (response rate: 83.8%). The second to tenth waves of the survey were conducted in early November of each year from 2006 to 2014, and 22,748 individuals remained in the tenth wave (average attrition rate of 4.0% in each wave). No new respondents were added after the first wave.

To capture the impact of retirement as precisely as possible, we focused exclusively on the observations of the respondents who had been working continuously since the first wave and retired during the second and tenth waves (assuming that they had been working until the first wave). We excluded the data of participants when and after they resumed working after the first retirement. We also considered the observations at most five years before and after retirement; for example, we concentrated on the observations between waves 1 and 9 for the respondents who retired in wave 4 and on the observations between waves 3 and 10 for the respondents who retired in wave 8. This is because too long a period from retirement may make it difficult to distinguish the effects of retirement from other factors. Excluding further respondents who were missing key variables, we used the data of 9,283 individuals (4,441 men and 4,842 women). The total number of observations was 54,113 (25,833 for men and 28,280 for women).

Measures

Health behaviors

We considered three health behaviors: current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, and leisure-time physical activity, each of which was expressed as a binary variable. We considered a participant who answered "yes" to the question "do you smoke currently?" to be a current smoker. We defined heavy problem drinking as an intake of more than three *go* (540 ml) of Japanese sake or an equivalent amount of alcohol every day, which corresponds to about 60 g of pure alcohol. This threshold was based on a

study that showed that maintaining alcohol consumption below 46 g/day appeared to minimize the risks of mortality in a Japanese population (Inoue et al., 2012). We considered respondents to have engaged in leisure-time physical activity if they reported that they were doing moderate-intensity or vigorous aerobic activity at least two days per week. This threshold was roughly consistent with the guideline proposed by the MHLW (2013).

Health

We considered two health indicators—poor self-rated health and psychological distress, each of which was expressed as a binary variable. Regarding self-rated health, the respondents were asked to indicate their current health condition on a 6-point scale: 1 (*very good*), 2 (*good*), 3 (*somewhat good*), 4 (*somewhat poor*), 5 (*poor*), and 6 (*very poor*). A binary variable for poor self-rated health was constructed by assigning the value 1 to those who indicated 4, 5, or 6 on the scale, and zero to those who indicated 1, 2, or 3 on the scale.

We measured psychological distress using the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K6; Kessler et al., 2002; Kessler et al., 2010). The respondents were asked to answer a six-item questionnaire that included items such as, "During the past 30 days, about how often did you feel a) nervous, b) hopeless, c) restless or fidgety, d) so depressed that nothing could cheer you up, e) that everything was an effort, and f) worthless?" The questions were rated on a 5-point scale ($0 = none \ of \ the \ time \ to \ 4 = all \ of \ the \ time)$. Then, the sum of the reported scores (range: 0-24) was calculated and defined as the K6 score. Higher K6 scores reflect higher levels of psychological distress. K6 scores ≥ 5 indicate mood/anxiety disorder in a Japanese sample, as validated by preceding studies (Furukawa et al., 2008; Sakurai et al., 2011). A binary variable for psychological distress was constructed by assigning the value 1 to those with K6 scores ≥ 5 and the value zero to those with K6 scores below 5.

Covariates

As covariates, we constructed three binary variables to indicate whether the respondent was living alone, had a spouse, and was providing informal care to any family member. It should be noted that these covariates are potentially endogenous and affected by both retirement and health; however, we confirmed that estimation results remained virtually intact even if omitting them in regressions. In addition, we used the indicator variables for each wave to control for wave-specific factors.

Analytic strategy

Following some descriptive analyses, we estimated regression models to explain each health variable separately. The benchmark model is given by the following:

$$Health_{it} = \alpha Retired_{it} + \theta (Age_{it} - Retirement \ age_i) + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{it} + \varepsilon_i + \xi_{it}.$$

$$(1)$$

where *Health* indicates a binary variable of health, and Age and Retirement age indicate current age and retirement age, respectively. The subscripts i and t correspond to individual and wave, respectively. Retired is a binary variable, which is equal to one if age is equal to or higher than retirement age and zero otherwise. The value of $(Age_{it} - Retirement \ age_i)$ is in the range between -5 and 5 and is negative before retirement, equal to zero at retirement, and positive after retirement. X is a set of time-variant

covariates, ε_i is a time-invariant individual factor, and ξ_{it} is an error.

As illustrated in Figure 1, an immediate change in the level of health at retirement is indicated by α . The rate of change in health changes from θ before retirement to $(1+\beta)\theta$ after retirement. β indicates the proportion of a change in the rate of change in health after retirement with its positive and negative values corresponding to acceleration and deceleration, respectively. The value of β is implicitly computed by dividing the estimated value of $\beta\theta$ by that of θ .

In the actual regression analyses, we estimated

$$Health_{it} = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 Female_i) \times Retired_{it} + (\theta_1 + \theta_2 Female_i) \times (Age_{it} - Retirement \ age_i)$$

$$+ (\theta_1 \beta_1 + \theta_2 \beta_2 Female_i) \times Retired_{it} \times (Age_{it} - Retirement \ age_i) + \gamma X_{it} + \varepsilon_i + \xi_{it}, \qquad (2)$$

for the entire sample to incorporate potential gender differences, instead of estimating eq. (1) separately for men and women. Eq. (2) includes three interaction terms with a binary variable, *Female_i*, which indicate female participants. An immediate impact on the level of health at retirement (denoted by α in eq. (1)) is given by α_1 for men and $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ for women, with the gender difference to be tested by the significance of estimated value of α_2 . The proportion of change in the rate of change in health after retirement (denoted by β in eq. (1)) is calculated by dividing the estimated value of $\theta_1\beta_1$ by that of θ_1 for men and by dividing the estimated value of $(\theta_1\beta_1 + \theta_2\beta_2)$ by that of $(\theta_1 + \theta_2)$ for women. The gender difference can be tested by the significance of the difference between these two estimated proportions.

We first estimated eq. (2) as an FE model, in which all variables are mean-centered and, hence, a time-invariant individual factor (ε) is automatically removed from regression. To make the estimation results easily understood, we treated the regression model as a linear probability model (*Wooldridge*, 2013) rather than a logistic/probit model. Further, considering the potential endogeneity of retirement, we estimated two additional first-stage, linear FE models: (i) to explain *Retired* by *Eligible*, that is, a binary variable allocated as 1 if age is equal to or higher than the eligibility age for public pension benefits, and (ii) to explain $(Age - Retirement \ age)$ by $(Age - Eligibility \ age)$, which is the difference between the current age and the eligibility age for public pension benefits, along with the same covariates used in eq. (2). In the second stage, we estimated the FE model (2) by replacing *Retired* and $(Age - Retirement \ age)$ with their predicted values obtained from the first-stage estimations.

For the eligibility ages of public pension benefits, we used those for the wage-proportional benefits of the Employees' Pension Insurance (EPI) program, which covers private-sector employees. This was relevant for public-sector employees as well, because they have a similar pension program to the EPI. EPI benefits consist of flat-rate and wage-proportional components. The eligibility age for the flat-rate benefit was raised gradually from age 60 in 2001 for men and 2006 for women. The eligibility age for the wage-proportional benefit was raised gradually from age 60 in 2013 for men but remained fixed at 60 until 2018 for women. We focused on the eligibility age for the wage-proportional benefit as the EPI insured participants were generally not eligible for any benefit before that age. It should be noted that the variation of the eligibility age was limited; the proportions of eligibility age 60 (for those born before April 2, 1953), 61 (for those born between April 2, 1953 and April 1, 1955), and 62 (between April 2, 1955 and April 1, 1957) were 88.0%, 10.1%, and 1.9%, respectively, among male participants, and the eligibility age was 60 for all female participants. However, both IVs (*Eligible* and *Age – Eligibility age*), had sufficiently large variation in the observations to make the first-stage estimations effective.

RESULTS

Figure 2 depicts the observed distribution of retirement age for men and women, confirming the spikes of retirement age at 60 for both genders; 21.5% and 16.6% of men and women, respectively, retired at age 60. This result is in line with the fact that most participants in this survey became eligible for public pension benefits at age 60.

Table 1 compares occupational status and hours worked per week between men and women one year before retirement, along with educational attainment. Compared to women, a larger proportion of men had been regular employees and executives and had been working for a longer time. Nearly half of female participants had been working as part-time or temporary workers. Table 2 shows how the level of each health variable changes from two years before to two years after retirement. Among both men and women, the prevalence of current smoking and heavy drinking decreases after retirement while that of leisure time activity increases. Self-rated health worsens after retirement while there is no significant change in psychological distress.

However, comparisons between only two time points cannot grasp the dynamics of health around retirement. Figures 3 and 4 compare evolutions of health and health behaviors around retirement among men and women, respectively. Remarkable jumps at retirement are observed for leisure-time physical activity among both men and women. By contrast, smoking secession accelerates after retirement especially among men. A trend in psychological distress turns from upward to downward at retirement, albeit not substantially, among both men and women.

Estimation results of FE models are summarized in Table 3. The key focuses are on (i) the estimated coefficient on Retired (α), i.e., the immediate impact of retirement, and (ii) the estimated proportion of the impact on the rate of change after retirement (β). The estimated values of α suggest that retirement immediately discouraged both men and women from smoking and prompted them to engage in leisure-time physical activity. Meanwhile, the estimated values of β suggest that retirement reduced a rising pace of reporting poor self-rated health and psychological distress among both men and women while it accelerated smoking cessation only among men. The gender difference was not significant in α or β for any health variable.

To examine how these estimation results are affected by controlling for the endogeneity of retirement, Table 4 summarizes the FE-IV results (with first-stage regression results available upon request). Retirement immediately encouraged both men and women to engage in leisure-time physical activity and reduce their probability of psychological distress. Meanwhile, retirement immediately reduced the probability of poor self-rated health only among men. Significant changes in the rate of change in health variables after retirement were observed only among men; retirement accelerated smoking secession and leisure-time physical activity and decelerated self-reporting poor health. A significant gender difference was observed in two cases; the immediate impact on leisure-time physical activity was higher and the post-retirement rate of reporting poor health declined more remarkably among men.

DISCUSSION

We investigated the dynamics of health around retirement and generally confirmed that the transition is accompanied by favorable changes in health and health behaviors. However, results were not fully consistent across health variables. The most remarkable and consistent impact was observed on leisure-time physical activity, in line with several preceding studies. Current smoking was another health behavior affected by retirement especially among men. By contrast, alcohol consumption was not related to retirement, adding to generally mixed results in preceding studies. Retirement had a generally positive impact on self-rated health and psychological distress, confirming general results in preceding studies.

Results also uncovered gender differences in the health effect of retirement. The effect of retirement on health was more limited for women than for men, although the differences were not statistically significant in most cases. We can speculate that our findings were related to the gender differences in occupational status before retirement. As shown in Table 1, female participants worked less than male participants before retirement, with a higher proportion of part-time and temporary workers and shorter hours worked, which may have resulted in a more limited impact of retirement on health for women.

Finally, our findings highlighted the importance of two methodological issues. First, controlling for endogeneity of retirement tended to affect substantially the estimation results, as already suggested by previous studies which utilized FE-IV methods. Second, an immediate change in the level of health at retirement and a change in its rate of change after retirement should be distinguished. These two types of impact differed across health variables as well as between genders, making simple comparisons between before and after retirement sometimes misleading.

Study limitations and strength

We recognize that the current study has several limitations. As suggested by Chung et al. (2009), job status before retirement is expected to confound the effect of retirement on health even among those of the same gender, an issue disregarded in the present study. More broadly, the relevance of retirement for health is likely affected by socio-institutional background. Notably, a gradual transition to retirement and a limited proportion of full-time employees among middle-aged women require us to be cautious in generalizing the results in this study to other countries.

Meanwhile, our analysis had two important features. First, it controlled for the endogeneity of retirement as well as time-invariant individual attributes. Second, it distinguished an immediate change in the level of health at retirement and a change in its rate of change after retirement. These two methodologies allowed us to provide new insights into the understanding of the dynamics of health around retirement.

Conclusions

The current study underscores the need for more in-depth knowledge of the dynamic impact of retirement on health. This will assist in developing policy measures to help the middle-aged population make healthy transitions from work to retirement.

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Figure 1. Dynamics of health around retirement: an illustrative example

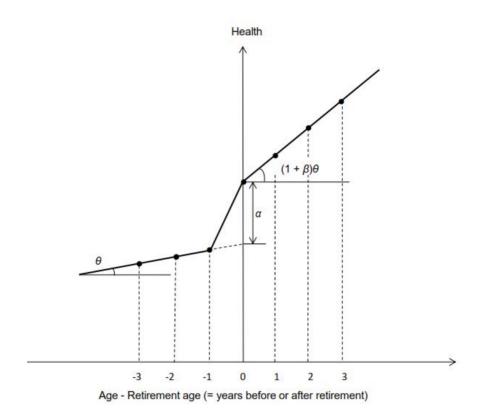


Figure 2. Distribution of retirement age

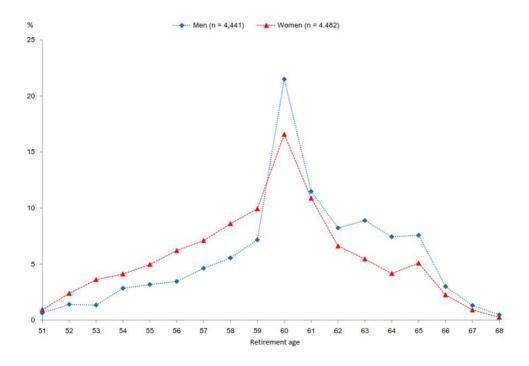


Figure 3. Evolution of health and health behavior among men around retirement (n = 25,833 of 4,441 individuals)

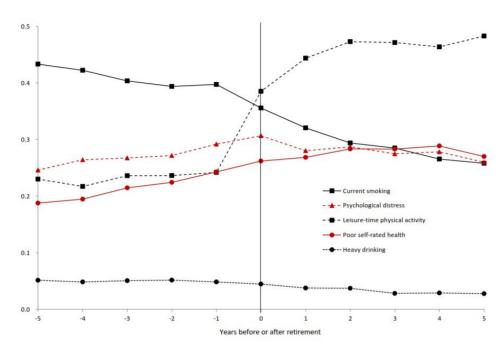


Figure 4. Evolution of health and health behavior among women around retirement (n = 28, 280 of 4,842 individuals)

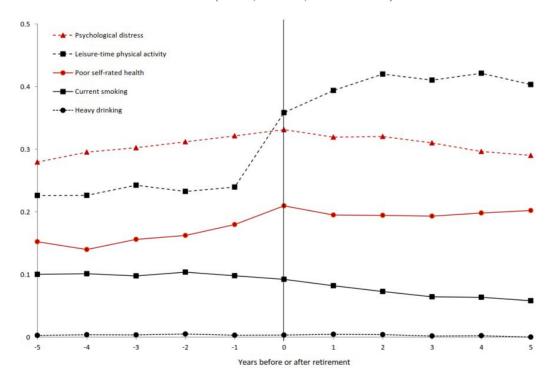


Table 1 Job status one year before retirement.

	Men	Womer
Occupational status		(%)
Regular employee	50.2	24.3
Executive	5.8	1.7
Part-time or temporary worker	9.0	46.5
Dispatched employee	0.9	0.8
Contract worker	20.9	7.2
Self-employed	9.1	4.1
Family worker	0.6	8.4
Side job at home	0.1	3.5
Other	3.4	3.4
Total	100.0	100.0
Hours worked per week		
M	39.4	29.6
SD	(13.2)	(14.3)
Cf. Education level		(%)
Junior high school	17.7	17.2
High school	48.8	53.7
Junior college	6.8	22.1
College or above	25.9	6.6
Other	0.8	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0
N	4441	4842

Changes in health and health behavior (prevalence) from two years before retirement to two years after retirement.

	Men (n	=5094	4)	Women ($n = 5599$)					
	Before	After	Change		Before	After	Change		
Current smoking	0.394	0.294	-0.100	***	0.104	0.073	-0.031	***	
Heavy drinking	0.052	0.037	-0.015	*	0.005	0.004	-0.001		
Leisure-time physical activity	0.236	0.473	0.236	***	0.232	0.420	0.187	***	
Poor self-rated health	0.224	0.283	0.059	***	0.162	0.194	0.032	**	
Psychological distress	0.272	0.287	0.015		0.312	0.320	0.009		

^{*} *p* < 0.05.

^{**} p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001.

Table 3 Estimated associations between retirement and health obtained from FE models (54,113 observations of 9283 individuals)^a.

		Retired ^b			(Age — Ret	tirement	age) ^c	Retired × (Retirement	-		β	β	
		Coef. (α)		(SE)	Coef. (θ)		(SE)	Coef. $(\beta\theta)$		(SE)			(SE)
Current smoking	Men	-0.014	***	(0.003)	-0.021	***	(0.001)	-0.004	**	(0.002)	0.200	*	(0.081)
	Women	-0.013	***	(0.003)	-0.002		(0.001)	-0.002		(0.001)	0.983		(1.079)
	Difference	-0.001		(0.001)	-0.019	***	(0.001)	-0.002		(0.002)	-0.784		(1.075)
Heavy alcohol drinking	Men	-0.001		(0.002)	-0.003	***	(0.001)	0.000		(0.001)	0.161		(0.414)
	Women	-0.001		(0.002)	0.000		(0.001)	-0.001		(0.001)	4.681		(29.80)
	Difference	0.000		(0.001)	-0.003	**	(0.001)	0.000		(0.001)	-4.520		(29.76)
Leisure-time physical activity	Men	0.138	***	(0.007)	0.014	***	(0.002)	0.005		(0.003)	0.365		(0.278)
	Women	0.136	***	(0.006)	0.003		(0.003)	0.004		(0.003)	1.479		(2.167)
	Difference	0.002		(0.002)	0.011	***	(0.003)	0.001		(0.004)	-1.114		(2.155)
Poor self-rated health	Men	0.006		(0.006)	0.012	***	(0.002)	-0.012	***	(0.003)	-0.990	***	(0.187)
	Women	0.008		(0.005)	0.008	***	(0.002)	-0.009	***	(0.003)	-1.122	***	(0.304)
	Difference	-0.002		(0.002)	0.004		(0.003)	-0.003		(0.004)	0.132		(0.354)
Psychological distress	Men	0.003		(0.007)	0.008	***	(0.002)	-0.009	**	(0.003)	-1.219	***	(0.338)
	Women	0.002		(0.006)	0.012	***	(0.002)	-0.010	***	(0.003)	-0.837	***	(0.217)
	Difference	0.001		(0.002)	-0.004		(0.003)	0.001		(0.004)	-0.382		(0.403)

a Controlled for living alone, having a spouse, providing informal care to any family member, and waves. b = 1 if age \geq retirement age; = 0 otherwise. Range: from -5 to 5.
* p < 0.05.
** p < 0.01.

Table 4 Estimated associations between retirement and health obtained from FE-IV models (54,113 observations of 9283 individuals)^a.

		Retired ^b			(Age — Re	tiremei	nt age) ^c	Retired × (Retirement			β		
		Coef. (α)		(SE)	Coef. (θ)		(SE)	Coef. $(\beta\theta)$		(SE)			(SE)
Current smoking	Men	-0.009		(0.030)	-0.023	***	(0.005)	-0.003	***	(0.001)	0.132	*	(0.055)
	Women	-0.047		(0.028)	0.005		(0.005)	-0.001		(0.001)	-0.257		(0.299)
	Difference	0.039		(0.033)	-0.027	***	(0.005)	-0.002		(0.001)	0.389		(0.298)
Heavy alcohol drinking	Men	-0.026		(0.019)	0.002		(0.003)	-0.001		(0.001)	-0.578		(1.032)
	Women	-0.019		(0.018)	0.003		(0.003)	-0.001		(0.000)	-0.231		(0.27)
	Difference	-0.007		(0.021)	-0.001		(0.004)	0.000		(0.001)	-0.347		(0.95)
Leisure-time physical activity	Men	0.475	***	(0.061)	-0.044	***	(0.011)	0.006	***	(0.002)	-0.138	**	(0.047)
	Women	0.283	***	(0.058)	-0.025	*	(0.010)	0.002		(0.001)	-0.070		(0.065)
	Difference	0.192	9.9	(0.068)	-0.019		(0.011)	0.004	*	(0.002)	-0.068	**	(0.065)
Poor self-rated health	Men	-0.136	**	(0.051)	0.034	***	(0.009)	-0.005	***	(0.002)	-0.153	**	(0.053)
	Women	-0.054		(0.049)	0.017	*	(0.008)	0.000		(0.001)	0.022		(0.071)
	Difference	-0.082		(0.057)	0.016		(0.009)	-0.006	***	(0.002)	-0.174		(0.079)
Psychological distress	Men	-0.204	***	(0.057)	0.039	***	(0.010)	0.002		(0.002)	0.040		(0.047)
	Women	-0.124	*	(0.055)	0.028	**	(0.009)	0.002		(0.001)	0.077		(0.056)
	Difference	-0.080		(0.063)	0.012		(0.011)	-0.001		(0.002)	-0.038		(0.064)

a Controlled for living alone, having a spouse, providing informal care to any family member, and waves. b = 1 if age \geq retirement age; =0 otherwise. c Range: from -5 to 5. p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.01.

平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 分担研究報告

親が要介護状態になった場合の中高年女性のライフスタイル 及びメンタルヘルスの変化に関する研究

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研究要旨

先行研究の多くは、家族介護と親との同居、介護者の労働供給及び健康状態との関係を、それらの同時決定性を考慮に入れないで分析している。本研究では、親が要介護状態になったことによる中高年女性のライフスタイル(要介護になった親との同居、労働供給)や心理的ディストレスの影響を、介護や居住関係に関する決定の同時性を考慮に入れて分析する。中高年女性の場合、親が要介護状態になった場合、介護者になる確率が高いものの、親との同居や労働供給面での調整は限定的である。したがって、親が要介護状態になったことによる中高年女性のメンタルヘルス悪化のかなりの部分は、自分が介護者になったことで説明できる。

A. 研究目的

先行研究の多くは、家族介護と親との同居、介護者の労働供給及び健康状態との関係を、それらの同時決定性を考慮に入れないで分析している。本研究では、その点を念頭に置いて、、「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データを用いつつ、親が要介護になったことによる中高年女性のライフスタイル(要介護になった親との同居、労働供給)や心理的ディストレスの影響を介護や居住関係に関する決定の同時性を考慮に入れて分析することを目的とする。

B.研究方法

「中高年者縦断調査」のパネル・データから得られる情報を活用して、まず、親が要介護状態になったことを外生的なイベントとして捉える。そして、そのイベントが、回答者(女性)が介護を始める、その親と

同居する、家庭の外で仕事をする、という 行動にどの程度の影響を及ぼすかを、「一 見すると無関係な回帰分析」(Seemingly unrelated Regression 分析)の手法を用い て分析する。

さらに、心理的ディストレスを Kessler 6 スコアで把握し、親が要介護状態になったことが中高年女性の心理的ディストレスに及ぼす影響を把握するともに、その影響が介護の着手やライフスタイルの調整によってどこまで説明できるか、媒介分析の手法を用いて分析する。

(倫理面への配慮)

政府の公的統計の二次利用に基づく分析であり、倫理面への追加的な配慮は不要

C . 研究結果

自分の親または配偶者の親が要介護状態になった場合、中高年女性が介護者にな

る確率はそれぞれ30.9%、30.3%となるが、 親との同居や労働供給への影響はいずれも 軽微か、あるいは統計的に有意ではないこ とが分かる。

一方、自分の親または配偶者の親が要介護状態になった場合、中高年女性のK6スコア(範囲は0~24)は、それぞれ0.368(標準偏差0.061)0.465(標準偏差0.073)上昇する。このようなメンタルヘルス悪化のうち、介護者になることで説明される部分は、それぞれ37.7%(95%信頼区間:15.6-68.2%)44.0%(95%信頼区間:22.2-75.4%)とかなり高めとなる。対照的に、同居や労働供給面での調整による媒介効果は限定的である。

D.考察

自分の親または配偶者の親が要介護状態になった場合、中高年女性が介護者になる可能性は依然として高い。しかし、それによって親との同居や労働供給に大きな変化がないとすると、介護者になる女性はかなりの程度、暗黙のうちにあるいは明示的に予め決定されているケースが多いと推察される。

しかし、仮にそのような「暗黙の契約」が家族内で締結されているとしても、親の介護を引き受けることを媒介して中高年女性のメンタルヘルスが大幅に悪化することは看過できないという状況は、居宅サービスの在り方にとって重要な意味合いを持っている。

E.結論

中高年女性の場合、親が要介護状態になった場合、介護者になる確率が高いものの、親との同居や労働供給面での調整は限定的である。したがって、親が要介護状態になったことによる中高年女性のメンタルヘルス悪化のかなりの部分は、自分が介護者に

なったことで説明できる。

F.健康危険情報

G. 研究発表

1. 論文発表

Takashi Oshio and Mari Kan, "Impact of parents' need for care on middle-aged women's lifestyle and psychological distress: evidence from a nationwide longitudinal survey in Japan," *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 16:63, 2018 年 4 月 13 日.

H.知的財産権の出願・登録状況

1. 特許取得

なし

2. 実用新案登録

なし

3. その他

なし

(資料)

Takashi Oshio and Mari Kan, "Impact of parents' need for care on middle-aged women's lifestyle and psychological distress: evidence from a nationwide longitudinal survey in Japan," *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 2018, 16:63.

Abstract

Background: Many studies have separately addressed the associations of informal caregiving with coresidence, a caregiver's work status, and health conditions, but not jointly. We examined how their parents' need for care affects middle-aged women's lifestyle and psychological distress, considering the potential simultaneity of decisions on caregiving and living adjustments.

Methods: We used 22,305 observations of 7,037 female participants (aged 54–67 years) from a nationwide longitudinal survey in Japan conducted during 2009 and 2013. We considered the occurrence of parents' need for care (OPNC) as an external event and estimated regression models to explain how it affected the probabilities of the participants becoming caregivers, coresiding with parents, and working outside the home. We further conducted the mediation analysis to examine how the impact of OPNC on participants' psychological distress measured by Kessler 6 (K6) scores was mediated by caregiving and living adjustments.

Results: OPNC made 30.9% and 30.3% of middle-aged women begin informal caregiving for parents and parents-in-law, respectively, whereas the impact on residential arrangement with parents or work status was non-significant or rather limited. OPNC raised middle-aged women' K6 scores (range: 0–24) by 0.368 (SE: 0.061) and 0.465 (SE: 0.073) for parents and parents-in-law, respectively, and informal caregiving mediated those impacts by 37.7% (95% CI: 15.6-68.2%) and 44.0% (95% CI: 22.2-75.4%), respectively. By contrast, the mediating effect of residential arrangement with parents or work status was non-significant.

Conclusions: Results underscore the fact that OPNC tends to promote middle-aged women to begin informal caregiving and worsen their psychological distress.

Background

Informal caregivers provide majority of the long-term care in many countries. Owing to longer life expectancy and a smaller number of siblings, we now face a higher probability of individuals having to provide informal care to old parents [1]. Hence, the occurrence of parents' need for care (OPNC) is a key driver of the change in the lifestyle of middle-aged individuals, especially women, who still tend to play a dominant role in informal care. If their parents happen to need care, adult children are probably forced to consider who will provide care to them, whether they will start coresiding with parents [2–5], whether a caregiver will stop work outside the home [6, 7], and so on.

Actually, many studies have already addressed the associations of informal caregiving with coresidence, a caregiver's work status, and health conditions, albeit not jointly. Poor health of parents tends to raise the probability of their coresidence with their adult children [2–5]. In comparison, mixed findings have been reported on the association between informal caregiving and a caregiver's work

status. However, many studies have shown that the effect of informal caregiving on employment is relatively limited [6, 7]. One possible reason is the endogenous selection for assuming a caregiving role. Specifically, women, who tend to have a weaker attachment to the labor market, are more likely to take on the caregiving role [8].

A key limitation of previous studies is that they have often considered informal caregiving as an exogenous variable, thereby ignoring possible simultaneity biases. Further, most of these studies did not consider the simultaneity of decisions on informal caregiving and other behaviors, such as coresidence with parents and work outside the home, which are likely to interact with each other.

In the present study, we attempted to control for potential biases owing to endogeneity of informal caregiving and simultaneity of decisions on informal caregiving and other behaviors, in order to examine the relevance of informal caregiving to the life arrangements and well-being of middle-aged women more precisely. Therefore, we focused on OPNC, which was considered largely exogenous, and examined how the middle-aged women responded to it in terms of caregiving, residential relationship with parents, and work status, taking into account the impact of their pre-OPNC statuses as well as their interactions under the framework of a simultaneous regression model.

We further examined how the onset of caregiving and living adjustments mediated the impact of OPNC on the middle-aged women's psychological distress, based on the theoretical framework of the mediation analysis [9, 10]. It is reasonable to predict that these living adjustments, which are likely correlated with each other, will affect middle-aged women's psychological distress, especially if they become caregivers [11, 12]. Indeed, studies have evidenced that informal caregiving has a negative association with a caregiver's health and quality of life [13–14]. However, some studies suggest that conditions surrounding caregiving—such as coresidence with parents and employment status—tend to mediate the impact of informal caregiving on a caregiver's psychological distress [16–20]. In this study, we computed the mediating effects along with their statistical significance of caregiving and living adjustments.

Methods

Study sample

We used longitudinal data obtained from a nationwide, population-based longitudinal survey titled, "The Longitudinal Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults," conducted by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW). Samples in the first wave were collected nationwide from individuals between the ages of 50-59 years in November 2005 through a two-stage random-sampling procedure. First, 2,515 districts were randomly selected from 5,280 districts used in the MHLW's nationwide, population-based 'Comprehensive Survey of the Living Conditions of People on Health and Welfare', which was conducted in 2004. The 5,280 districts, in turn, had been randomly selected from about 940,000 national census districts. Second, depending on the population size of each district, 40,877 residents aged 50–59 years as of October 30, 2005 were randomly selected. A total of 34,240 individuals responded (response rate: 83.8%). The second to ninth waves were conducted in early November of each year from 2006 to 2013, with no additional sampling (average attrition rate in each wave: 4.3%).

We took full advantage of the longitudinal structure of the dataset to capture the timing of OPNC and

how the middle-aged women's responses to it in terms of caregiving, residential relationship with parents, and work status, taking into account the impact of their pre-OPNC statuses. Specifically, we first compiled the data on female participants from the fourth to ninth waves (2008–13), because information on each individual's parents' need for care was collected only from the fourth wave. We then limited our analysis to the data of female participants who had not faced parents' need for care—and thus had not provided caregiving to parents—in the year prior to the survey year. It means that we excluded the data of participants who had already faced parents' need for care in the fourth wave (2008) and focused on the participants' data from the fifth wave (2009) onwards. This allowed us to capture the exogenous impact of OPNC in the survey year. We also excluded the data of participants whose parents died in the survey year. After further excluding participants with missing data, we used 22,305 observations of 7,303 women for the statistical analysis, in which we focused on their responses to OPNC at the survey year.

Measures

The survey asked respondents whether care was needed for each family member. We collected the data of parents' need for care and constructed a binary variable in which the emergence of parents' need for care in the survey year (after no need was reported in the previous year) was scored as "1" and other conditions were scored as "0," for the participants' parents (father and/or mother) and parents-in-law (father-in-law and/or mother-in-law). Similarly, we constructed binary variables for participants' provision of informal care to and coresidence with parents and parents-in-law, by allocating "1" if the participant was providing informal care and was residing with parents or parents-in-law, and "0" otherwise. We also constructed a binary variable for work outside the home by allocating "1" if the participant answered that she was engaged in any paid job and "0" otherwise.

Additionally, we focused on the impact of OPNC on women's psychological distress measured by K6 scores [21, 22]. The reliability and validity of K6 scores have been demonstrated in a Japanese population [22, 23]. Participants were asked to complete a six-item psychological distress questionnaire: "During the past 30 days, about how often did you feel a) nervous, b) hopeless, c) restless or fidgety, d) so depressed that nothing could cheer you up, e) that everything was an effort, or f) worthless?" Responses were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = none of the time to 5 = all of the time). K6 score (range: 0–24) was constructed by subtracting six from the sum of the responses. Higher K6 scores reflect higher levels of psychological distress. We additionally focused on the proportion of respondents with K6 score ≥ 5 , which has been found to indicate mood or anxiety disorders in a Japanese population [23]. For the entire respondents in this study sample (n = 22, 307), Cronbach alpha coefficient for K6 scores was 0.90, K6 scores' mean and standard deviation were 3.4 and 4.0, respectively, and the proportion of those with K6 score ≥ 5 was 30.0%.

As for control variables, we used the respondent's age, educational attainment (junior high school, high school, college or above, other), having a spouse, and household expenditure as a proxy of household income. These factors were taken into account, because they were expected to affect the costs—both pecuniary and psychological—of informal caregiving and living arrangements, and correspondingly, their impact on psychological distress. Household expenditure was adjusted for

household size by dividing the reported value of household expenditure by the square root of the number of members in the household, as was done in recent publications of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [24].

Analytic Strategy

We compared the probabilities of three variables—becoming a caregiver, coresiding, and working outside the home—between those who faced parents' need for care and those who did not, without controlling for other variables. However, as explained in the Introduction, we had to control for potential biases owing to the endogeneity of informal caregiving and simultaneity of decisions on informal caregiving, coresidence, and working outside the home as well as their statuses prior to the survey year. Therefore, we jointly estimated a set of linear regression models within the framework of the seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) model [26]:

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Caregiving<sub>t</sub> = \alpha_1 \text{OPNC}_t + \beta_1 \text{Coresidence}_{t-1} + \gamma_1 \text{Work}_{t-1} + \mathbf{Z}_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_1 + \varepsilon_{1t}

Coresidence<sub>t</sub> = \alpha_2 \text{OPNC}_t + \beta_2 \text{Coresidence}_{t-1} + \gamma_2 \text{Work}_{t-1} + \mathbf{Z}_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_2 + \varepsilon_{2t}

Work<sub>t</sub> = \alpha_3 \text{OPNC}_t + \beta_3 \text{Coresidence}_{t-1} + \gamma_3 \text{Work}_{t-1} + \mathbf{Z}_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_3 + \varepsilon_{3t}.
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Here, the subscript t indicates year t (t =2009, 10, 11, 12, and 13), and \mathbf{Z} and ε_i (i = 1, 2, and 3) indicate a set of control variables and an error term. We estimated α_i and β_i , which are coefficients of OPNC and Coresidence, respectively, as well as δ_i , which is a set of coefficients of each control variable included in \mathbf{Z} . This set of regression models attempted to capture the impacts of OPNC on caregiving, coresidence, and work, assuming that these three variables were affected by coresidence and work in the previous year, and that the error terms were correlated with each other.

The focus was on the estimated value of α_i , which indicates the impact of OPNC on caregiving, coresidence, and work. Because we limited the analysis to the respondents who did not face OPNC (and thus did not engage in caregiving) in the previous year, the estimated value of α_1 indicates the probability of newly becoming a caregiver in response to OPNC. **Z** included age, educational attainment, having a spouse, and household expenditure, as mentioned earlier.

One may be tempted to estimate a multivariate probit model rather than a set of linear regression models within the framework of the SUR model, considering that three dependent variables are all binary ones. However, we did not use a multivariate probit model because "no OPNC" (OPNC = 0) perfectly predicted "no caregiving" (caregiving = 0) in the first caregiving model, thus omitting OPNC from regression. It has been also known that linear probability models obtain results generally similar to those of probit or logistic models and that their theoretical flaws can be disregarded in most cases [26].

We further estimated regression models to explain the extent to which OPNC affected K6 scores and how its impact was confounded by caregiving, coresidence, and work. Specifically, we first estimated the benchmark model (Model 1), which explained K6 scores by OPNC. Next, we estimated three models (Models 2–4), each of which included caregiving, coresidence, and work as an additional predictor. Then, we examined how the results were affected by adding all of these variables in Model 5. In all these models, we included a set of control variables (**Z**) as well as K6 scores, coresidence, and work status in the previous year.

Finally, we conducted the mediation analysis [9, 10] to examine how the impact of OPNC was

mediated by three potential mediators: caregiving, coresidence, and work. Based on the results of (i) the SUR model (which examined the impacts of OPNC on each of three mediators) and (ii) Model 1 (which explained K6 scores by OPNC), and (iii) Model 5 (which explained K6 scores by OPNC and three mediators), we computed the mediating effects of each of three mediators. We examined their statistical significance by bootstrap estimating their 95% confidence intervals with 3,000 replications.

Results

Descriptive analyses

Table 1 summarizes the key characteristics of 7,037 participants at baseline (in 2009). Among the participants, 11.3%, and 22.0% were residing with parents and parents-in-law, respectively. We also observed that 63.5% of the participants were working outside the home.

Table 2 compares the probabilities of caregiving, coresidence, and work between women who faced OPNC and those who did not. It was found that 30.7% and 29.7% of the participants started caregiving in response to the OPNC of parents and parents-in-laws, respectively. The difference in the probabilities of caregiving in the right column of Table 3 indicates the probability of newly becoming a caregiver in response to OPNC, because the probability of caregiving was equal to zero among those who did not face OPNC. The probabilities of coresidence and work were lower among women who faced OPNC than those who did not, but their differences (ranging between 1.8–7.2%) were much more limited as compared to those with the probabilities of caregiving. Table 2 also shows that the mean K6 score and the proportion of those with a K6 score ≥ 5 was much higher among women who faced OPNC than among those who did not, for both parents and parents-in-law.

Regression analyses

Table 3 summarizes the estimated impact of OPNC on women's behavior. We observed that 30.9% and 30.3% of women started caregiving in response to the OPNC of parents and parents-in-law, respectively. The magnitude of this impact was almost the same as those observed in Table 2 (30.7% and 29.7%). Coresidence in the previous year raised the probability of caregiving for both parents (6.2%) and parents-in-law (8.7%), whereas work in the previous year slightly reduced it for parents. As for coresidence, OPNC slightly raised the probability of coresidence for parents (1.3%) and it had no significant impact (0.6%) for parents-in-law. Instead, residential status in the previous year was a key determinant of the current residential status. A negative impact of OPNC on work (1.1% for parents and 2.4% for parents-in-law) was rather limited and smaller than that suggested by the descriptive comparisons in Table 2. We further observed that previous work status strongly determined the current one.

Table 4 presents the estimation results of Models 1–5, which explain how OPNC affected women's K6 score. As the benchmark model, Model 1 showed that OPNC raised women's K6 scores by 0.368 and 0.465 for parents and parents-in-law, respectively. These impacts were equivalent to 0.09 and 0.13 standard deviation of K6 scores. Model 2 showed that the impact of OPNC was substantially mediated by becoming a caregiver for both types of parents. The inclusion of caregiving substantially attenuated the association between OPNC and K6 scores—the coefficient declined by 38.1% to 0.227 for parents

and by 43.6% to 0.263 for parents-in-law (0.220)—while caregiving had a significant, positive correlation with K6 scores for both parents (0.454) and parents-in-law (0.668).

Model 3 showed that coresidence or work did not have any positive association with K6 scores, leaving the impact of OPNC virtually intact, for both parents and parents-in-law, while work reduced K6 scores in the case of caring for parents-in-law. Finally, Model 5, which included all related variables, largely mirrored the results in Models 2–4; the coefficients for OPNC and caregiving remained close to those in Model 2, while the coefficients for coresidence and work remained almost intact from Models 3 and 4, respectively.

Lastly, Table 5 presents the results of the mediation analysis, based on the results of the SUR models presented in Table 3 and those of Models 1 and 5 presented in Table 4. For caregiving to parents, OPNC raised K6 score by 0.368, and 37.7% of this impact (i.e., 0.139) was mediated by caregiving. In contrast, coresidence or work did not significantly mediate the impact of OPNC on K6 scores. We found similar results for parents-in-low; caregiving mediated 44.0% of the impact of OPNC K6 scores, while coresidence or work did not work as a mediator.

Discussion

We examined how OPNC affects the lifestyle and psychological distress of middle-aged women, using the data obtained from a nationwide longitudinal survey in Japan. Unlike most previous studies, we examined the impact of OPNC on caregiving, coresidence, and work, adjusted for their potential interactions and the effects from their previous statuses.

Results confirmed that about 30% of women began caregiving for their parents or parents-in-law in response to their need for care during the survey period (2019–2013). We also observed that the probability of becoming a caregiver was positively associated with previous coresidence with parents, a finding which was consistent with the result of a previous study conducted outside Japan [27]. Compared to the impact on the probability of becoming a caregiver, the probability of coresidence with parents was less sensitive to OPNC. In line with the results of previous studies [2, 4, 5] we obtained some evidence that OPNC prompted individuals to coreside with their parents, but the impact was rather small. Women who have been residing separately from parents seem to prefer going to their parents' house to take care of them at least at the onset of the need for caregiving. The impact on work status was also limited, which was generally in line with the results of previous studies [6, 7].

Hence, we can argue that middle-aged women tend to respond to OPNC mainly by becoming a caregiver, at least initially, without substantial adjustments to coresidence with parents and work status. One possible explanation, which seems to be relevant in Japan, where intergenerational family setting is common, is that the parent-child coresidence, along with the wife's labor force participation, may reflect the implicit contract regarding informal care and other life arrangements, which is traditionally made between adult children and their parents before OPNC [28, 29].

At the same time, results underscore the fact that OPNC is a stressful event for middle-aged women. OPNC raised psychological distress and its adverse impact was substantially mediated by becoming a caregiver. Coresiding with parents and work did not explain the variations in women's psychological distress after including OPNC as an explanatory variable. This observation was consistent with the

finding that women tended to become caregivers with limited adjustments to coresidence and work.

Additionally, the present study highlights that the kin relationship tends to confound the impact of caregiving on psychological distress. Compared to parents, the adverse impacts of both OPNC and caregiving on psychological distress were higher for parents-in-law. This observation confirmed the importance of kin relationship between caregivers and care recipients for a caregiver's psychological distress, as already evidenced by previous studies [28–30].

We recognize that the present study has several limitations. First, we did not assess caregiving burden in terms of time spent on caregiving or the level of care required in the statistical analysis. This requires us to be cautious in any generalization of the obtained results. Second, we ignored the impact of prolonged caregiving on women's lifestyle and psychological distress. As caregiving continues and the nursing care levels increase, women are more likely to adjust their lifestyle and feel more distressed, especially if the conflict between informal care and other roles becomes incompatible [20]. In this sense, it is likely that the present study may underestimate the impact of OPNC on women's lifestyle and psychological distress. Following previous longitudinal studies (e.g., [31–33]), the dynamics of caregiving and its associations with lifestyle and mental health of caregivers, care recipients, and their family members must be addressed using more detailed longitudinal data. Third, we must expand the analysis to address how wider aspects of women's multiple roles including interpersonal relations with others and other social ties are affected by OPNC [16, 19].

Conclusions

Overall, the results highlighted that the onset of caregiving tends to be a serious external event that affects middle-aged women's psychological distress, even if its impact on their lifestyle is relatively limited. If long-term care for the elderly keeps relying heavily on informal caregiving at home, policy measures to support informal caregivers are required. Providing a wider range of home-visit nursing care services to in-house care recipients and expanding institutional care services could be helpful in mitigating any psychological pressure and stress caused by informal caregiving at home.

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Table 1 Key characteristics of 7037 participants at baseline (in 2009)

Educational attainment	Propo	rtion (%)
Junior high school		12.7
High school		64.1
Junior college		14.6
College or above		8.3
Having a spouse		88.0
Residing with parents		11.3
Residing with parents-in-law		22.0
Working outside home		63.5
Age (years)	M	58.0
	SD	(2.7)
Monthly household expenditure (thousand yen) ^a	M	230.0
	SD	(283.0

^aAdjusted for household size

Table 2 Behavioral probabilities and K6 scores of women with and without parental need for care^a

	The need of care		Difference (A-B)		
	Occurred (A)	Not occurred (B)			
Parents (n = 15,972)					
Caregiving	30.7%	0	30.7%	***	
			SD (0.4%)		
Coresidence	13.7%	15.5%	-1.8%	*	
			SD (0.8%)		
Work	55.1%	60.5%	-5.4%	***	
			SD (1.0%)		
K6 score (range: 0-24)	M 3.79	3.20	0.59	***	
	SD (0.08)	(0.03)	(0.00)		
K6 score ≥ 5	33.3%	28.4%	4.9%	***	
Number of observations	2648	13,324			
Parents-in-law (n = 10,887)					
Caregiving	29.7%	0	29.7%	***	
			SD (0.5%)		
Coresidence	33.1%	40.3%	-7.2%	***	
			SD (1.2%)		
Work	55.7%	62.0%	-6.3%	***	
			SD (1.2%)		
K6 score (range: 0-24)	M 3.90	3.20	0.70	***	
	SD (0.10)	(0.04)	(0.10)		
K6 score ≥ 5	34.4%	29.3%	5.1%	***	
Number of observations	2086	8801			

 $^{^{\}rm a}$ All variables were evaluated in each wave when parents' need for care emerged $^{***}p < 0.001, \ ^*p < 0.05$

Table 3 Estimated impact of the occurrence of parents' need for care on women's behavior^a

	Women's behavior										
Explanatory variables	Caregiving	9		Coresiden	ce		Work				
	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE		
Parents (n = 15,972)											
Occurrence of parents' need for care	0.309	***	(0.004)	0.013	***	(0.003)	-0.011		(0.006)		
Coresidence in the previous year	0.062	***	(0.004)	0.934	***	(0.003)	-0.001		(0.006)		
Work in the previous year	-0.012	***	(0.003)	0.002		(0.002)	0.819	***	(0.005)		
Parents-in-law ($n = 10,887$)											
Occurrence of the need for care	0.303	***	(0.005)	-0.006		(0.004)	-0.024	***	(0.007)		
Coresidence in the previous year	0.087	***	(0.004)	0.928	***	(0.004)	0.011	*	(0.006)		
Work in the previous year	0.003		(0.004)	0.008	*	(0.004)	0.813	***	(0.006)		

 $^{^{\}rm a}$ Adjusted for age, educational attainment, having a spouse, household expenditure in all models $^{\rm ****}p < 0.001$, $^*p < 0.05$

Table 4 Estimated impact of the occurrence of parents' need for care on women's K6 scores^a

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5						
	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE	Coef.		SE
Parents (n = 15,972)															
Occurrence of parents' need for care	0.368	***	(0.061)	0.227	***	(0.071)	0.366	***	(0.061)	0.367	***	(0.061)	0.228	***	(0.071)
Caregiving				0.454	***	(0.121)							0.449	***	(0.121)
Coresidence							0.119		(0.164)			(0.080)	0.072		(0.165)
Work										-0.062			-0.057		(0.080)
Parents-in-law ($n = 10,887$)															
Occurrence of parents' need for care	0.465	***	(0.073)	0.263	**	(0.085)	0.465	***	(0.073)	0.460	***	(0.073)	0.255	**	(0.085)
Caregiving				0.668	***	(0.145)							0.674	***	(0.146)
Coresidence							-0.028		(0.158)				-0.109		(0.159)
Work										-0.211	*	(0.100)	-0.202	*	(0.100)

^a Adjusted for age, educational attainment, having a spouse, household expenditure, coresidence, and work in the previous year in all models $\stackrel{***}{=} p < 0.001, \stackrel{**}{=} p < 0.01, \stackrel{*}{=} p < 0.05$

Table 5 Estimated impact of the occurrence of parents' need for care on women's K6 scores mediated by their behavior^a

	Coefficient	95% CI ^b	Proportion (%)	95% CI ^b
Parents (n = 15,972)				
Mediated by:				
Caregiving	0.139	(0.058, 0.217)	37.7	(15.6, 68.2)
Coresidence	0.001	(-0.004, 0.006)	0.3	(-1.0, 1.8)
Work	0.001	(-0.001, 0.003)	0.2	(-0.4, 0.9)
Total	0.140	(0.061, 0.219)	38.1	(16.1, 68.5)
Unmediated	0.228	(0.088, 0.368)	61.9	(31.5, 83.9)
Total	0.368	(0.249, 0.487)	100.0	
Parents-in-law ($n = 10,887$	7)			
Mediated by:				
Caregiving	0.162	(0.085, 0.239)	44.0	(22.2, 75.4)
Coresidence	0.001	(-0.002, 0.004)	0.1	(-0.4, 1.0)
Work	0.005	(-0.000, 0.011)	1.0	(-0.1, 2.5)
Total	0.210	(0.113, 0.309)	45.1	(23.1, 76.7)
Unmediated	0.255	(0.085, 0.428)	54.9	(23.3, 76.9)
Total	0.465	(0.323, 0.608)	100.0	

^aAdjusted for age, educational attainment, having a spouse, household expenditure, coresidence, and work in the previous year in all models ^bBootstrap-estimated with 3000 replications

平成 29 年度厚生労働科学研究費補助金(政策科学総合研究事業(統計情報総合研究)) 分担研究報告

高年期における就労と離職に関する研究

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研究要旨

本研究では、60歳時点で定年を迎えて離職した男女 2,309人を対象として、彼ら(彼女ら)の属性とその後の再就職との関係を分析した。主な使用データは厚生労働省「中高年縦断調査」(第1回~第10回)である。この調査は平成17年10月時点に50~59歳であった全国の男女を対象として、平成26年11月まで10回にわたり継続調査したものである。分析によって得られた主要な知見は以下のとおりである。

研究結果が示唆しているもののうち、政策上、重要であると思われるのは次の3点である。 (1)60 歳で定年を迎えた者はその時点でいったん離職し、さらに再就職する者とそのまま引退する者に分かれる。複数の職場(勤務形態)の変更を経験する者の実態を詳しく調べる必要がある。 (2)高年期の就労インセンティブに影響する要因の多くは、同時期の離職行動と関連性を有する。 体力の衰え、親族への介護の必要性、住宅ローンがあること、配偶者が無職であることは離職を促す。高年者が状況に応じて勤務形態を柔軟に変化させているのか、それとも就労の継続を望みつつ離職を余儀なくされているかについての検証が望まれる。

(3)60 歳時点で定年により離職した者のうち、その後の離職回数が1回である者では61歳以降の就業期間がやや短くなる。定年後に再就職に成功しつつも、その後は引退する時期が早くなっている。60歳以降の就労率を高めるためには2度目の転職を円滑化させる必要がある。

A . 研究目的

人口の高齢化と経済の停滞が進む日本では、年金、医療、介護といった社会保障の受益と負担のあり方をめぐる検討が進められてきた。公的年金の分野では5年ごとに財政再検証がなされてきたが、このうち2004年改革により規模の大きな制度改革が実現した。2004年改革ではマクロ経済スライドと呼ばれる仕組みが導入され、公的年金の保険料率に上限を定めることにより負担増に歯止めをかける一方で、高齢化の進展に応じて給付を抑制することになった。この改革により年金財政の持続可能性が高

まったものの、個人レベルでの給付は長期的な削減リスクを負うことになった。個人レベルにおいて社会的に妥当な給付水準を確保し続けるためには、60歳以降における年金保険料拠出期間を可能な限り長くすることが求められている。そのためには60歳以降における就労インセンティブを強化する必要がある。就労インセンティブを強化する必要がある。就労インセンティブを強化て知られる中高年の労働供給と引退行動に関する研究では、健康状態、定年制度、年金受給の有無、賃金低下といった要因が影響していることがこれまでに究明されてきた。日本では、年金の支給開始年齢が段階

的に引き上げられているが、65 歳までの継続雇用を希望する人に対しては、高年齢者雇用安定法ほかにより、それを義務づけることになっている。これらが60~64歳層の就業率の引き上げに寄与した効果に関する研究も少なくない。

他方、複数回の離職と再就職を経て引退 に至るプロセスについては不明点が少なく ない。先行研究の多くでは、就労継続する か引退するかという2者択一の選択問題を 検討している。しかし、就労継続者であっ ても60歳台においてずっと同一の職場や 勤務形態で働き続けることは稀であり、例 えば定年を契機として離職をする。そして 年金支給開始年齢に到達するまで継続雇用 された人は65歳ごろに2回目の離職を迎え、 この2回目の離職の後にさらに再就職する 人としない人が発生する。このような高年 者が離職と再就職を繰り返す実態の解明が 残された課題となっている。 そもそも 60 歳で迎えた定年の後に高年者は何回くらい 再就職をしているのか。離職してそのまま 引退する人と再就職することにより就業を 続ける人の違いは何か。高年期には健康が 衰えるが、離職と再就職の実態はそれに沿 うものなのか。あるいは60歳以前の就業経 験が定年後の再就職に影響しているのか。 さらには60歳定年後の雇用契約は1年単位 と考えられるが、再就職した高年者は、ど れくらいの期間を働いているのか。

本研究の目的は、60歳定年後における離職と就業状況の実態を統計データを用いて明らかにすることである。

B. 研究方法

本研究では、60歳時点で定年を迎えて離職した男女 2,309人を対象として、彼ら(彼女ら)の属性とその後の再就職との関係を分析した。主な使用データは厚生労働省「中高年縦断調査」(第1回~第10回)である。この調査は平成17年10月時点に50~59

歳であった全国の男女を対象として、その後、平成 26 年 11 月まで 10 回にわたり継続調査したものである。

本研究は次の順序で考察を進めた。まず、 先年月と各年に調査している離職の有無に 関する情報から、60歳時点で定年を理由と して仕事を辞めた男女を選び出した。次に、 パネル・データを駆使することにより、その後の離職回数を調べ、高年者の60歳台における離職と再就職の実態を究明した。 そして60歳時点で定年により離職した男 女の職歴、健康状態、経済状態とその後の 再就職の関係について調べ、これらの影響 要因を考察した。さらに離職年月と各年11 月時点の就業の有無に関する情報から、その間隔から求められる就業期間を推計し考 察した。

なお、本研究は研究協力者の白石浩介教 授(拓殖大学)と共同で実施した。

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本研究では、60歳時点で定年を迎えて離職した男女 2,309人を対象として、彼ら(彼女ら)の属性とその後の再就職との関係を分析した。主な使用データは厚生労働省「中高年縦断調査」(第1回~第10回)である。この調査は平成17年10月時点に50~59歳であった全国の男女を対象として、その後、平成26年11月まで10回にわたり継続調査したものである。

本研究は次の順序で考察を進めた。まず、 先年月と各年に調査している離職の有無に 関する情報から、60歳時点で定年を理由と して仕事を辞めた男女を選び出した。次に、 パネル・データを駆使することにより、そ の後の離職回数を調べ、高年者の60歳台 における離職と再就職の実態を究明した。 そして60歳時点で定年により離職した男 女の職歴、健康状態、経済状態とその後の 再就職の関係について調べ、これらの影響 要因を考察した。さらに離職年月と各年 11 月時点の就業の有無に関する情報から、そ の間隔から求められる就業期間を推計し考 察した。

(倫理面への配慮)

本研究は、倫理審査委員会で倫理審査不要と判断されたパネル・データを使用した分析であり、倫理指針の個別項目には一切、該当していない。また、厚生労働省「中高年縦断調査」の2次利用に際しては、利用申請に基づく許可を得ており、データ利用に際しては所用のセキュリティ対策を実施した。

C.研究結果

(1)60 歳定年者のうち約半数はその後 65 歳までに1回以上の離職をしている。60歳 定年により離職した経験を有する者は、 2,309 名 (男性 1,637 名、女性 672 名) い たが、調査最終年にあたる2014年までに 離職経験が無い者(つまり離職回数0回) は 1,570 名(68%) に留まる。 このうち 2014 年までに年齢が65歳以上に達した1945年 度~1948年度生れについてみていくと、離 職経験なしの比率は50%程度であった。つ まり、これらのコーホート集団では 61-65 歳の間に定年による離職に加えて、さらな る離職を1回以上経験している。(なお、 離職回数0回には、再就職後に2014年ま で就労継続している人と60歳定年時に事 実上、引退しその後は就労していない人の 両方が含まれている。離職回数0回者のす べてが引退した訳ではない。)

(2)1947 年度生れ(2014 年時点の年齢は67歳)である323名(男性219名、女性104名)に着目すると、離職回数2回以上が14.9%(男性16.0%、女性12.5%)を占めており、定年後の7年間で2つ以上の職場(あるいは勤務形態)を経験した者の存在が明らかになった。

離職回数0回は48.6%(男性46.6%、女 性 52.9%)であり、離職回数 1回 36.5%(男 性 37.4%、女性 34.6%) 離職回数 2回 11.5% (男性 12.8%、女性 8.7%) 離職回 数3回3.1%(男性3.2%、女性2.9%)と なっている。離職回数4回以上は僅かであ った。(離職回数1回以上の者についても、 全員がそのまま引退する訳ではなく、その 後に再就職して2014年まで働き続けるも のが含まれており、彼らは2度目の再就職 を経験する)上記の数値は、1946年度生れ、 1948 年度生れにおいてもほぼ同じであっ た。男性の転職回数が女性よりやや多い傾 向にある。同一の職場(あるいは勤務形態) で就業を継続している訳ではなく、離職と 再就職を繰り返す者が少なくないことが窺 える。

(3)離職回数が多い者は離職時の年齢が少しだけ上昇する。1947年度生れに関して、離職回数1回と離職回数2回を比べてみた。彼ら(彼女ら)は2007年4月~2008年3月に60歳となっており、離職回数1回者のうち50%が1回目の離職を迎えるのは2012年まで(65歳まで)である。一方、離職回数2回の者のうち50%が1回目の離職を迎えるのは2010年(63歳まで)2回目の離職を迎えるのは2013年(66歳まで)である。つまり、転職回数が多くなると60歳定年後の早期に1回目の離職を迎えており、短期間で離職と再就職を繰り返している。

(4)離職回数が0回者のうち、そのまま引退する割合は生年度が下る(若く)なるにつれて6割から4割に低下している。60歳定年で離職した者のうち、その後の離職回数が0回のサンプルに関して、3年後の仕事の有無を調べたところ、1946-1948年度生れでは仕事なしの割合は60-65%であり、多くの者がそのまま引退していたが、1949年度生れでは48%、1950年度生れで

は37%まで低下する。1951年度生れ以降については、調査最終年の制約から3年後の仕事の有無が分からないが、仕事なしとする者の割合は、1951年度生れ(2年後)36%、1952年度生れ(1年後)34%となっており、それほど低下していない。換言すると60歳台前半において就労する者の割合は1946年度生れから1950年度生れにかけて4割から6割まで上昇したが、1953年度生れにかけてそれより上昇することはなかった。

(5)66 歳~68 歳時点における有業者の比 率は3割強であるが、この比率は離職回数 0回、1回、2回のいずれでもほぼ同水準で ある。離職回数 0 回者のうち、2014 年に おいて仕事ありとする者の割合は1946年 度生れ(68歳)34%、1947年度生れ(67 歳)41%、1948年度生れ41%(66歳)で あった。離職回数1回者については、1946 年度生れ(68歳)34%、1947年度生れ(67 歳)27%、1948年度生れ40%(66歳)で あり、離職回数2回者については、1946 年度生れ(68歳)33%、1947年度生れ(67 歳)38%、1948年度生れ41%(66歳)と ほぼ同水準であった。つまり離職の有無に 関わらず60歳台後半における有業率は3 割強となっている。離職と再就職の繰り返 しが、就労年数を増やす傾向は小さそうで ある。

(6)過去の勤務状況と定年後の離職回数に関しては、「ひとつの企業に20年以上勤務」していると離職回数が少なく、「同じ分野に20年以上従事」していると離職回数が増える傾向がある。それまでの勤務形態には「ひとつの企業に20年以上勤務」「同じ分野に20年以上従事」「それ以外で20年以上仕事」「自営業で20年以上仕事」「仕事を中断し、それ以降仕事をしていない」「それ以外の働き方」がある。1947年度生れの男性のうち、離職0回でその後再

就職して2014年まで勤務継続している者 では、その内訳は「ひとつの企業に20年 以上勤務」81%、「同じ分野に20年以上従 事」13%であるが、離職回数が2回以上で は、「ひとつの企業に20年以上勤務」69%、 「同じ分野に20年以上従事」20%となっ ている。60歳時点で定年を迎えた者の8 割はそれまで同一企業に勤務していた。す ると定年後の離職回数が少なくなり転職が 難しくなる。他方、現役時代に転職経験が ある者は定年後の離職回数が増える。この 傾向は女性において強い。但し、離職0回 でそのまま引退する者では「ひとつ企業に 20年以上勤務」76%と高い。長年同一企業 に勤務すると、そのまま引退してしまう可 能性がある。

(7)学歴と離職回数に関しては、男性の場合には、大卒であると定年後の離職回数が少なく、中卒であると離職回数が多くなる。1947年度生れの男性のうち、離職0回でその後再就職して2014年まで勤務継続している者では、その内訳は「大卒」34%、「中卒」9%だが、離職回数が2回以上では「大卒」20%、「中卒」26%と逆転する。離職0回でそのまま引退する者では「大卒」は24%と少ない。この理由として、高学歴者ほど大企業に勤めていたので定年後の「面倒見」がよいこと、現業職に従事した「高卒」は体力理由により引退することが考えられる。

(8)定年前(58-59歳)と定年後(63-64歳) では就労環境が変化する。従業員数が「1 ~99人」の会社に勤務する者の割合は定年前44%から定年後65%まで上昇し、勤務する会社の規模が小さくなる。また、仕事の内容は、離職0回でその後再就職して2014年まで勤務継続している者では事務職が減り、販売職、サービス職が増える。離職1回以上では専門・技術職が減り、事務職や生産・労務職が増える。 (9)配偶者における仕事の有無と離職回数に関しては、男女とも配偶者に仕事があると就労を停止し、配偶者に仕事が無いと就労を継続する傾向がある。1947年度生れの男性に関して、彼らの63-64歳時点における妻に仕事が無い割合と定年後との離職回数の傾向をみると、離職回数0回でそのまま引退した者では「配偶者に仕事なし」が48%に留まるが、離職回数0回で2014年まで就労継続した者では53%まで上昇する。離職回数1回では54%、離職回数2回以上では58%である。つまり妻が無職であると定年後に再就職をして働き続けたり、離職と再就職を繰り返している。同時に引退する傾向が低い。

(10)親族などの介護の有無は、定年後の 引退や離職回数を増やす傾向がある。1947 年度生れの男性に関して、63-64 歳時点の 介護の有無をみる。離職回数 0 回でそのま ま引退した者では「介護あり」が 22%であ るが、離職回数 0 回で就労継続した者では 「介護あり」は 10%に留まる。離職回数 1 回は 10%、離職回数 2 回以上 18%であっ た。

(11)健康状態が良くないと離職回数が増える。1947年度生れの男性に関して、63-64歳時点の健康状態の良否をみる。離職回数1回では「健康状態が良い」85%、離職回数2回以上では74%である。高年期になると体力が衰え、それに応じて転職する傾向が窺える。

(12)住宅ローンの有無は就労や離職回数を増やす。1947年度生れの男性に関して、63-64歳時点で住宅ローンがある者の割合は、離職回数0回でそのまま引退した者では10%だが、離職回数0回で2014年まで就労継続した者では21%である。離職回数1回では6%、離職回数2回以上では19%である。経済的理由が離職を促す傾向は、仕事理由に関する集計結果からも確認でき

る。「生活費・借金返済」を仕事する理由と して挙げる者は、離職回数 0 回で 2014 年 まで就労継続した者では 0%、離職回数 1 回では 24%、離職回数 2 回以上では 57% であった。

(13)60歳定年後の就業期間は離職1回で はやや短くなる。離職年月と各年の就業状 況をもとに60歳以降の就業期間を推計し た。1947年度生まれの男性では調査最終年 である 2014 年までの 7 年間において、「1 年以下」5%、「2年以下」7%、「3年以下」 14%、「4年以下」25%、「5年以下」23%、 「5年超」26%となっており7割強が定年 後3年間以上働いている。離職回数1回者 は定年後に1回だけ離職したものであり、 そのまま引退した者と 2014 年まで働き続 けた者が含まれるが、「1年以下」7%、「2 年以下」9%、「3年以下」13%、「4年以下」 32%、「5年以下」26%、「5年超」12%で ある。全体と比べると「4年以下」が多く、 「5年超」が少ない。全体には転職回数0 回でそのまま引退する者、転職回数0回だ が再就職してそのまま働き続ける者、離職 2回以上で再就職を繰り返す人が含まれる が、そういった人達に比べると離職回数1 回者の就業期間は短くなっている。

D.考察

研究結果が示唆しているもののうち、政 策上、重要であると思われるのは次の3点 である。

(1)60歳で定年を迎えた者はその時点でいったん離職し、さらに再就職する者、そのまま引退する者に分かれる。1947年度生まれを例として67歳までの離職回数をみると、その構成は離職回数0回が5割、1回が4割弱、2回以上が1割強となっている。複数の職場(勤務形態)の変更を経験する者の存在が明らかになった。これらの実態を詳しく調べる必要がある。

- (2)高年期の就労インセンティブに影響する要因の多くは、同時期の離職行動と関連性を有する。体力が衰えたり、親族への介護の必要性は離職を促す。住宅ローンがある、配偶者が無職であるといった経済的な理由がある場合にも離職が増える。高年者が状況に応じて勤務形態を柔軟に変化させているのか、それとも就労の継続を望みつつも離職を余儀なくされているかについての検証が望まれる。
- (3)60歳時点で定年により離職した者のうち、その後の離職回数が1回である者では61歳以降の就業期間がやや短くなる。定年後に再就職に成功しつつも、その後は引退する時期が早くなっている。60歳以降の就労率を高めるためには2度目の転職を円滑化させる必要があるだろう。

E.結論

法定の支給開始年齢が引き上げられるなかで高年者の就業率が上昇しているが、定年後には離職傾向が強まり、職場ごとの就業期間が短くなる。高年者の就労をさらに促進するためには、働き方改革により柔軟な職場環境を構築すると同時に、転職市場や職業再訓練を整えることにより、雇用のミスマッチを解消させる努力が必要である。

- G. 研究発表
 - 1. 論文発表なし
 - 2. 学会発表なし
- H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況
 - 1. 特許取得

なし

- 2. 実用新案登録 なし
- 3. その他

研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

雑誌

発表者氏名	論文タイトル名	発表誌名	巻号	ページ	出版年
高山憲之・白 石浩介	年金と高齢者就業:パネル・データ 分析	年金研究	6	38-100	2017年
	The dynamic impact of retirement on health: evidence from anationwide ten-year panel survey in Japan	Preventive Medicine	100	287-293	2017年
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	Impact of parents' need for care on middle-aged women's lifestyle and psychological distress: evidence from a nationwide longitudinal survey in Japan	Health and Quality of Life Outcomes	16:63	(電子ジャーナル)	2018年
Takashi Oshio and Emiko Usui	How does informal caregiving affect daughters' employment and mental health in Japan?	Journal of the Japanese and International Economies	印刷中	印刷中	2018年