



BACKGROUND PAPER

Well-Being of Older Asians: An Overview

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Well-Being of Older Asians: An Overview

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ABSTRACT

Population aging is underway across developing Asia, although demographic profiles differ substantially across subregions and countries. Thus, improving the well-being of the large and growing numbers of older Asians has emerged as an important socioeconomic challenge for the region. The central objective of this paper is to take stock of the current state of the well-being of older Asians. More specifically, we delve into indicators from four thematic areas; namely, income, health, work, and family support, that shape the well-being of older Asians. Our overview of the indicators yields some policy-relevant insights. For example, we find that raising the productivity of older workers is no less important than raising their labor force participation rate.

Keywords: elderly, well-being, Asia, population aging, old-age support

JEL Codes: J14, J11

Note: in this report, “\$” refers to United States dollars.

I. INTRODUCTION

Asia and the Pacific is experiencing very rapid demographic transition, which has profound implications for economic growth, generational equity, public finances, the well-being of both young and old generations, and other important socioeconomic aspects. The well-being of older persons depends on a multitude of factors, including their health status, work capability, availability of public income support, family and community support. The disadvantages that older women suffer throughout their lives are likely to affect the well-being of old women differently than old men.

But what is well-being? At a broader level, well-being is a subjective state of mind or cognitive assessment of life satisfaction or happiness. Various researchers have suggested several different measures, such as evaluative, hedonic, eudaimonic, or experience well-being, and proposed different methodologies for measuring well-being (Kahneman and Krueger 2006; Stiglitz, Sen, and Fitoussi 2009; Krueger et al. 2009; Kapteyn et al. 2015; Clark 2018; Smith et al. 2022). Because of its subjective nature, there is a great deal of debate about the measurement of well-being. Such lack of consensus on methodological issues has not prevented the emergence of a growing body of literature on this topic. For instance, researchers have studied happiness throughout the world (De Neve et al. 2018, Helliwell et al. 2022), in Europe (Fonseca et al. 2013, 2014), and in transition economies (Guriev and Melnikov 2018; Clark, Di, and Huang 2019; Cai, Park, and Yip 2021). A few studies focus on Asian economies. For example, Park et al. (2021) provide an overview of the active pursuit of activities, wellness, and lifestyles that lead to a state of good health in Asia (Park, 2021).

The development of micro datasets and efforts to harmonize them greatly facilitate cross-country studies on well-being, retirement, and health studies. However, data and research on developing Asian economies are still lacking (Angrisani and Lee 2020, Smith et al. 2002, Crosswell and Park 2022).¹ The central objective of this paper is to provide a cross-country overview of various dimensions of the well-being of older Asians. In particular, we focus on internationally comparable socioeconomic variables that contribute to the well-being specifically of older Asians.² Indicators that measure the well-being of the entire population

¹ The Gateway to Global Aging Data project (<https://g2aging.org/>) explores the economics of aging from a cross-country perspective. The datasets are the Health and Retirement Study in the United States (HRS), English Longitudinal Study of Ageing (ELSA), the Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE), the Mexican Health and Aging Study (MHAS), the Costa Rican Longevity and Healthy Aging Study (CRELES), the Korean Longitudinal Study of Aging (KLoSA), the Japanese Study of Aging and Retirement (JSTAR), the Irish Longitudinal Study of Ageing (TILDA), the China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS), and the Longitudinal Aging Study in India (LASI). Although data on two more countries, such as the Health, Aging, and Retirement in Thailand (HART), and the Malaysia Ageing and Retirement Survey (MARS) are available, a concordance table for well-being measures is not yet available.

² There are several cross-country studies on many Asian studies (Park, Lee, and Mason 2012; Mason, Lee, and Park 2021), but these studies look into only the economic security of older people. Some indicators portrayed here also overlap with ADB (2022) as well.

rather than only the older population are limited to a few economic variables, such as per capita gross domestic product (GDP). Other indicators that pertain to the entire populations, such as a country's environmental quality, are not discussed here. The indicators included in this paper are organized around four thematic areas; namely, income, health, work, and family support, that shape the well-being of older Asians.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II documents the old-age dependency in Asia. In section III, we look at the income and life satisfaction of older Asians. Section IV explores the health status of older Asians. Section V takes a look at the older Asians in the workforce. Section VI briefly reviews the living arrangements of older Asians. The last section concludes.

II. OLD-AGE DEPENDENCY

In this section, we delve into old-age dependency or the economic dependency of older Asian which, in turn, depends on population aging.

In all economic settings, the existence of large populations that are not productive currently requires that some economic resources be transferred to them from the productive population. The extent of the dependence of the nonproductive population on the productive population has profound implications for the amount of required transfers and the well-being of both groups.

Countries throughout Asia and the rest of the world are experiencing large systematic changes in their age structure. During a demographic transition, fertility decline leads to a rapid drop in the relative size of the child population and, consequently, a substantial rise in the productive population relative to the nonproductive population. This opens up a window of opportunity for rapid growth, known as the demographic dividend (Bloom and Williamson 1998, Mason 2001). The large working share in the population is a transitory phenomenon, however. Eventually, low birth rates and increasing life expectancy lead to an increase in the older population. The share of the working age population declines and the demographic dividend will turn negative. Eventually, the share of the working-age population will be no greater than early in the demographic transition. The key difference is that the elderly account for a higher share of the nonproductive population.

Asian economies are at very different stages of population aging because of significant differences in the timing and speed of fertility and mortality declines. East Asian and a few Southeast Asian economies are at relatively advanced stages of their demographic transitions. Life expectancy has already reached high levels and continues to rise steadily. Fertility has dropped to very low levels in East Asia. In South Asia and the Pacific, fertility is still high and life expectancy is lower than other countries, but they too are experiencing population aging (Table 1).

[insert Table 1 here]

One notable feature of Asia's demographic transition is its exceptional speed. While the basic picture is the same worldwide, Asia is aging more rapidly than elsewhere primarily because fertility rates have declined more rapidly. In 2000, the share of the population aged 65 and older exceeded 17% only in Japan (Table 2). By 2060, a majority of Asian countries, except the Pacific countries, will surpass this level. By subregion, East Asia is experiencing much faster population aging than the rest of the region. However, there is a lot of heterogeneity across subregions. In 1980, the share of people aged 65 and over in East Asia (4.4%) was slightly higher than that of South Asia (3.9%) and Southeast Asia (3.9%), but lower than that of Caucasus and Central Asia (5.4%). By 2020, the share increased to 12.8% in East Asia but only reached 6.4%–7.7% in other regions. While the share is expected to increase further to about 36% in East Asia, it will increase to 16%–20% in other Asian regions in Asia. The share will still be less than 10% in the Pacific in 2060.

Population undermines the capacity of the productive population to support the nonproductive older population. The old-age dependency ratio is the number of people aged 65+ per 100 working-age (ages 15–64) people. For example, the ratio is about 20 for East Asia in 2022, which means that five working age persons are needed to support one older person. Changes in the dependency ratio provide an indication of social support requirements resulting from changes in the population age structure. The ratio will increase further to about 67% for East Asia by 2060, which suggests that three working age persons will need to support two older persons. Thus, an increase in the old-age dependency ratio would put added pressure on governments to fund health care and pensions if older people are mostly funded by government transfers.

[insert Figure 1 and Table 2 here]

A. Different Measures of Dependency

Traditional dependency measures suffer from several limitations. One big caveat of the old-age dependency ratio is that it does not account for country-specific characteristics. Countries vary a lot in terms of their age profiles of consumption, health status and disability, human capital accumulation, labor productivity and labor force participation, work hours and intensity, public versus private spending, and many other socioeconomic factors that affect the actual levels of dependency across generations, along with the implied social, economic, and fiscal stress. Chomik, McDonald, and Piggot (2016) compare these measures, which use data on healthy life expectancy, burden of disease or disability, or labor force participation rate (LFPR). Skirbekk, Loichinger, and Weber (2012) and Ogawa et al. (2022) suggested a new approach in which age variation in cognitive abilities among older persons is incorporated into a revised version of the conventional dependency ratio.

These approaches have their own merits, but they still ignore the economic need of the dependent population and the actual production of old and young persons. Individuals consume much more than they earn when they are old. People aged 65 and older produce substantially in many countries, not because of high labor force participation but because of high labor income (Section V). The National Transfer Accounts (NTA) provides comprehensive information about the levels of production, consumption, and transfers by age in the Asia and Pacific region and the world. As such, they are central to more sophisticated measurements of dependency (Lee and Mason 2011, United Nations Population Division 2013).

One key indicator based on NTA data that captures the impact of demographic transition on the economy and dependency of older people is the old-age gap ratio (OAGAP). The ratio is calculated as the gap between total consumption and total labor income at each age as a percentage of total labor income. It thus measures contemporaneous resources that would be required to meet the old-age deficit between consumption and labor income at each age. Using the NTA methodology, Mason, Lee, and Park (2022) estimate OAGAP for 19 economies in Asia and the Pacific. The projected OAGAP values in 2060 are very similar for Caucasus and Central Asia, South Asia, and Southeast Asia at 21%–22%, with OAGAP increasing by 13–16 percentage points. The projected OAGAP of East Asia in 2060 is significantly higher, at 41.5%, an increase of 29% relative to 2020. The Pacific economies are aging more slowly, with a projected OAGAP of only 8.4% in 2060, which is a 4-percentage point increase from 2020. The bottom line is that maintaining the existing life cycle profiles in the presence of population aging would require funding in excess of 40% of labor income in East Asia and more than 20% in the rest of developing Asia by 2060. To some extent, this funding could rely on public and private transfers but also on asset-based reallocations, i.e., asset income and dissaving.

[insert Figure 2 here]

III. INCOME, LIFE SATISFACTION, AND PENSION COVERAGE OF OLDER PEOPLES

In this section, we first take a look at the income and life satisfaction of older Asians before briefly examining the region’s pension coverage.

A. Income and Life Satisfaction

Economic well-being is often measured by GDP per capita. Although there are no comparable measures of GDP which only captures older people, the level of per capita GDP is

assumed to be correlated with economic well-being of older people (Table 3).³ However, there are some issues with these indicators. One natural question is how these indicators are related with each other. In Figure 3, the vertical line of the dots shows national average self-reported life satisfaction in the Cantril Ladder (a scale ranging from 0 to 10 where 10 is the highest possible life satisfaction) extracted from the World Happiness Report (Helliwell et al. 2022), while the horizontal line shows per capita GDP based on purchasing power parity. The figure shows that developing economies with higher average national income tend to have higher average life satisfaction scores. That is, people in richer countries tend to report higher life satisfaction than people in poorer countries. However, life satisfaction does not increase any more after a certain income level, about \$20,000. This is consistent with the empirical findings that happiness is not positively correlated with income after a certain per capita GDP (Easterlin and Sawangfa 2010; Guriev and Zhuravskaya 2009, Kahneman and Deaton, 2010).

[insert Figure 3 and Table 3 here]

B. Pension

Pension systems can play a central role in reducing old-age poverty and inequality. Comparing pension systems to measure well-being is, however, a difficult task since the type of pension scheme; for example, noncontributory versus contributory, coverage rate, and replacement rate, differ significantly across countries (OECD 2022). Pension coverage is often limited, especially in low- and middle-income countries. While 91.4% of people aged 15–64 are pension scheme members in Japan, the corresponding figure for Pakistan is only 6.6% (OECD 2022) (Table 4). Coverage is relatively high in Hong Kong, China (90.8%); Singapore (69.3%); and the Republic of Korea (ROK) (60.3%); intermediate in the PRC (48.7%), Thailand (47.6%), and Malaysia (32.8%); and low in India (27.2%), Viet Nam (24.9%), Sri Lanka (17.6%), Indonesia (16.5%), and Pakistan (6.6%). However, high coverage does not necessarily mean high replacement rates. For example, the ROK has relatively high coverage but relatively low pension replacement rates.⁴ The ROK also suffers from the highest poverty rate of older people, which

³ The subjective well-being may also change over life cycle, making a U-shaped pattern by age (e.g., Blanchflower and Oswald 2008; Ulloa, Møller, and Sousa-Poza 2013; Cheng, Oswald, and Powdthavee 2017; Helliwell et al. 2018).

⁴ The old-age pension replacement rate measures how effectively a pension system provides a retirement income to replace earnings, the main source of income before retirement. The gross replacement rate is defined as gross pension entitlement divided by gross preretirement earnings. Under the baseline assumptions, workers earn the same percentage of average worker earnings throughout their career. Therefore, final earnings are equal to lifetime average earnings revalued in line with economy-wide earnings growth. Thus, replacement rates expressed as a percentage of final earnings are identical to those expressed as a percentage of lifetime earnings. The net replacement rate indicates workers “disposable” income in retirement in comparison to when working. As income taxes are usually progressive and pensioners have a lower income tax rate than workers (i.e., gross replacement rates is less than 100%), net replacement rates are generally higher than gross replacement rates. The difference between gross and net replacement rates for low earners is about 6 percentage points on average for countries in Asia (OECD 2022).

suggests that high pension coverage indicator has only limited implications for old-age economic security (OECD 2022).⁵ In addition, the gender gap is substantial in the PRC, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka, with replacement rates for women 13%–34% lower than for men.

[insert Table 4 here]

In many developing Asian countries, the public sector still plays a limited role, either because they are still not experiencing rapid aging or the government is not actively involved in providing income support for senior citizens. However, even in these economies, the pressure on public finances will grow as population aging sets in. Since tax payments exceed public benefits during productive middle ages but public benefits exceed tax payments after retirement, maintaining intergenerational equity will gain significance in Asia and the Pacific as the demographic transition proceeds.

C. Consumption of Older People

The consumption of the elderly relative to children or prime-age adults is potentially a relative measure of well-being of older people. Based on the NTA data, we plot the average values of per capita consumption of persons aged 3–24 versus the consumption of older people aged 65 and above in developing Asian countries (Figure 4). The numbers are presented as the ratio of the average consumption of people aged 30–49 in each country. For example, the consumption of older people in Japan is 1.43, which means that the average consumption of older people is 43% higher than that of people aged 30–49. Per capita consumption for people aged 65 and above is as high as per capita consumption of working-age adults. It is particularly high in Japan and very low in the Pacific countries. There are two exceptions. The consumption of older people in the ROK is quite high compared to those aged 3–24, while the opposite is true for the Maldives. The contrast between South Asian and the East Asian economies is especially striking. Observations for the four South Asian economies lie well to the left of the overall average, while observations for the East Asian economies lie well to the right.

[insert Figure 4 here]

The role of the government versus family in old-age support varies substantially too. Figure 5 shows the private versus public health consumption of the elderly. This is measured as the ratio of the health consumption of the elderly relative to the average labor income of people aged 30–49. The figure shows huge public health care consumption by the elderly in Japan and the Maldives. Japan is an extreme case where publicly provided health care consumption accounts for more than 20% of the average labor income of prime age adults. In general, the elderly tend to consume much less publicly provided health care in low-income economies.

⁵ There are many explanations for this pattern. In the ROK, for example, the pension system is still maturing, and current generations still have very low pensions.

Publicly provided health care consumption is limited in eight countries; namely, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Nepal, the Philippines, Timor-Leste, and Viet Nam, where most of the old-age health care cost is borne by individuals. However, there is also a great deal of variation. For example, the ROK is close to Thailand in the relative importance of publicly provided health care spending, but private health consumption is much less important in the ROK than in Thailand.

[insert Figure 5 here]

D. Poverty

Poverty is a very important dimension of the well-being of older persons, especially since old-age poverty is a significant risk for older persons in developing economies with underdeveloped pension systems. Most people work less or stop working altogether at some point when they get older because they must retire at the statutory retirement age. Others find that age discrimination limits their employment opportunities. But no one wants to fall into poverty after retirement.

There is comparable data for extreme poverty for the entire population based on international poverty lines.⁶ Anyone consuming or earning less than that amount is considered to be extremely poor in countries that use income rather than consumption as their primary welfare measure. However, to assess national poverty, each country sets its own official poverty line, which depends on the level of consumption in the country (Table 5). Therefore, official poverty lines and the associated national poverty rates are not comparable across countries, although they are likely to be comparable over time within the same nation. The table shows that the poverty rate has been declining over time for most developing Asian economies, with exception of a few such as Afghanistan. Figure 6 also shows that the per capita GDP is a strong predictor of poverty rate.

[insert Figure 6 and Table 5 here]

The only comparable poverty data for older persons is based on OECD data.⁷ Analysis of this data yields three key findings. First, older people are more likely to be poor than the entire population (Figure 7).⁸ The largest difference between old-age and total-population poverty rates is found in the ROK, where old-age poverty rate is 27 percentage-point higher than the poverty rate for the whole population. Second, older women are at greater risk of poverty than

⁶ Currently set at \$2.15 per person per day based on 2017 purchasing power parity.

⁷ It is the ratio of the number of people aged 65 and above whose income falls below half of the median household income of the total population.

⁸ Older people are less likely to be poor than the total population in only few countries in advanced economies, such as in France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Spain. There are considerable country differences in wealth (housing or otherwise) held by older people, which is not reflected in income poverty rates.

older men in almost in all countries (OECD 2022). The average old-age poverty rate for women is 16.2% and 11.6% for men in the OECD. Lower earnings-related pension income and longer life expectancy are among the main drivers of higher poverty incidence among women. Third, the older old (75 and above) is more likely to be poor than the younger old (65–74) (OECD 2015). The gap between men and women is particularly high in the ROK (20.5 percentage points). Although the situation in developing Asian economies might differ from OECD economies, these three key findings may nevertheless shed some light on the well-being of older people in Asia and the Pacific, where the pension system is much less developed than in wealthier economies.

[insert Figure 7 here]

IV. HEALTH AND HEALTHY AGING

In this section, we explore the health status of older Asians.

A. Life Expectancy and Disability-Adjusted Life Years

Although many older people enjoy healthy aging and live in good physical and mental condition even beyond 80, some older persons suffer declining health and age-based disabilities caused or exacerbated by external factors, such as limited access to affordable quality health care and unhealthy lifestyles throughout their lives. Moreover, the continued prevalence of communicable diseases and an increase in noncommunicable diseases contribute to the decline of older people’s health and well-being. Since a growing number of people live to older age, it is increasingly challenging but important to ensure that older persons live healthier lives and suffer less from age-related disabilities.

Remaining life expectancy at old age is a key metric for assessing the health status of older people (Table 6). Developing Asia and the rest of the world achieved impressive progress in health that led to sizable increases in life expectancy. The ROK achieved the most impressive progress in this context. Life expectancy at age 60 (LE60) in the ROK rose from 20.7 to 25.8 years between 2000 and 2019, while that the corresponding figure for Sri Lanka rose from 19.6 to 20.8 years. Viet Nam’s LE60 increased by 0.7 years, from 18.9 to 19.6 years. The gain is even smaller in Indonesia, Nepal, and the Philippines, where LE60 increased less than 0.2 years during the same period.

[insert Table 6 here]

The same is true for healthy life expectancy at age 60 (HALE60). Figure 8, which shows the relation between two measures, indicates that a 1-year increase in LE60 is correlated with a 0.79-year increase in HALE60. Relatively low correlation is observed primarily in the Pacific countries. More specifically, the gains in life expectancy are less likely to translate into gains in healthy life expectancy in the Pacific.

[insert Figure 8 here]

B. Disease Burden of Older People

Disease burden is often measured by Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs), which not only incorporates the mortality associated with a disorder but also years lived with disability or health burden. The DALY burden for a particular condition is the sum of years of life lost because of mortality and years of life lost because of disability. Health interventions seek to reduce DALYs so as to increase the number of years that a person lives in good health. The share of each disease burden for people aged 70 and above varies a lot across countries (Table 7). DALYs, because of a specific disease burden, also varies widely across countries. Communicable diseases generally account for a much smaller share of DALYs than noncommunicable diseases. But in some developing Asian countries, such as the Philippines, Solomon Island, and Timor-Leste, they still account for about 17% of all DALYs. Among communicable diseases, DALYs from diarrhea is much higher among older people in Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Solomon Islands. Cardiovascular disease is the single biggest causing of DALYs for older people, and it is especially high in Caucasus and Central Asia. Alzheimer disease and other mental disorders are most prevalent in Brunei Darussalam, Japan, the ROK, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

Figure 9 shows the ratio of DALYs of entire population to DALYs of people aged 70 and over. DALYs itself is adjusted for differences in the age distribution of the population. As such, the figure can be used as a health indicator for older persons relative to the entire population. For example, although Thailand and Azerbaijan are similar in terms of DALYs of the entire population, Azerbaijan has almost twice as much DALYs for people aged 70 and above, in large part because of high prevalence of cardiovascular disease.

[insert Figure 9 and Table 7 here]

C. Mental Health, Suicide, and Well-Being

Mental health or psychological well-being is another important dimension of the well-being of older people. The direct death toll from mental health disorders and substance abuse is typically low. However, mental health disorders are indirectly responsible for a significant number of deaths through suicide and self-harm. Suicide deaths are linked to, but are not always attributed, mental health disorders. Ferrari et al. (2014) estimated that about two thirds of suicides in the PRC; Taipei, China; and India were because of mental health disorder and substance abuse.

Table 8 shows the suicide rate by age in developing Asian countries. The number of suicide deaths of older people aged 70 and above ranged from 6.3 to 73.7 per 100,000 people in 2019. Suicide rates do not appear to have any relation with national income in developing Asia. Instead of income, suicide is more closely linked with other factors such as mental disorder,

substance abuse, criminal and legal system, and religion. It is also clear that older people are much more likely to commit suicide than their younger peers. Developing Asia’s data show that the suicide rates of people aged 70 and above is about five times higher than the entire population. In addition, the suicide rate of people aged 70 and above is 50% higher than those aged 50–69.

[insert Table 8 here]

The majority of economies in developing Asia succeeded in reducing suicide rates, especially for older people. On average, the suicide rate of people aged 70 and above fell from 25.3 to 20.8, while that of people aged 50–69 fell from 18.7 to 13.9 (Figure 10). The gains are especially large for Japan, the PRC, Singapore, and Sri Lanka. There are two exceptions. Between 1990 and 2019, the suicide rate of people aged 70 and above rose sharply in the ROK, from 28.7 to 73.7 (a 157% increase), and Armenia, from 9.5 to 32.8 (a 245% increase).

[insert Figure 10 here]

D. Care Services and Sanitation

The density of doctors, nursing, and pharmacists in a given region serves as proxy for access to and availability of health care services (Table 9). The proportion of population using clean drinking-water or sanitation services also is a good proxy for quality of sanitation. Although there is no indicator specifically linked to older people, quality of health care and sanitation improves the well-being of the entire population. Quality of life may also differ by place of residence not only because of access to health care but also community characteristics. Older people in cities may have better access to health care. On the other hand, frequent contacts with neighborhood and grassroots community may have a positive impact on the mental health of older rural residents.

[insert Table 9 here]

V. LABOR CAPACITY, PRODUCTIVITY, AND ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES

In this section, we take a look at the participation of older Asians in the workforce.

A. Labor Market Participation of Older People

Productivity, employment, and job opportunities have profound implications for the well-being of older people.⁹ Labor productivity and employment over the life cycle reflects many factors: individual behavior, market forces, institutions, and age-related characteristics of individuals such as education, health, and disability. However, the decision to work and the

⁹ It is not clear if employment itself increases subjective well-being. However, it definitely facilitates activities to do via income effect.

productivity of workers are not independent because the productivity of older workers conditional on working is closely related to the decision to work.

Such interdependence means that the productivity of labor conditional on working may not decrease noticeably around retirement age, if only highly productive individuals remain in the labor market. Further, older workers retire completely from full-time work without any subsequent spell of part-time work. This is because most older workers face rather limited work choice of a high-paying year-round job or low-paying part-time work or self-employment, especially true in developing economies. Therefore, someone who wants to retire gradually from a career type job will instead have to compete for low-paying, part-time jobs. Further, pension programs may be suddenly created or terminated, which significantly affects the life cycle budget constraint, thus creating strong incentives to either retire or to return to work. Changes in tax policies may also alter the trade-off between work and leisure.

It is difficult to identify and separate these factors and examine the connection between the well-being of older people with work-related factors using real-world datasets. However, one thing is clear. If the rapid growth of older populations is accompanied by a healthier and more productive older workforce, the negative impact of population aging on economic growth will be much lower. As aging proceeds, policies on elderly health and work capacity will take on increased importance. Policy decisions in these areas will have far-reaching implications.

Table 10 shows the LFPRs of older people by gender. The LFPR for people aged 65 and above ranges widely. The LFPRs for men (women) range from only 3.6% (0.9%) in Uzbekistan to 71.4% (59.7%) in Timor-Leste. The ratio of older female's LFPR to older male's LFPR is generally higher in the Pacific countries than other regions.¹⁰ The ratio is the lowest in Afghanistan.

[insert Table 10 here]

Changes in LFPR have a significant impact on the size and key characteristics of the older labor force. Reliable and consistent long-range time series datasets for older workers are available only for a few advanced economies in Asia. Most available datasets are somewhat unreliable and difficult to interpret, in large part because they were estimated by using different sources of data. Nonetheless, the historical trend for more advanced Asian economies shows some consistent pattern (Figure 11). LFPR of older men declined at least until around 2000. Older workers may have lost job opportunities because workers moved out of agriculture. The agriculture sector used to be the most important source of employment for the elderly in the past in part because it is not subject to mandatory retirement. In the broader labor market, rapid technological progress and educational improvements give middle-aged and younger workers a competitive advantage over their

¹⁰ The LFPR of older men is almost always higher than that of older women around the world. Azerbaijan is the only exception in developing member countries where older women have higher LFPR than older man.

older peer.

An interesting stylized fact is that, since 1990, the LFPR of older persons increased for older males in high-income countries and older females in high- and upper middle-income countries (Fetter and Lockwood 2018; Gelber et al. 2017; Coile, Milligan, and Wise 2017). On the other hand, the LFPR of older people has not increased in low- and low middle-income countries. One potential reason is pension reform since the development of pension systems contributed to lower labor force participation until the 1990s only in high-income countries. LFPR of older women has been approaching that of older men, reflecting gains in the education and social status of women. Changes in family responsibilities, particularly the decline in child rearing responsibilities, played an important role too. The development of social infrastructure such as child-care, preschool, and elderly-care facilities; and the growth of new high-tech industries that require workers with dexterity and mental skills rather than physical strength also contributed to the increased participation of older female workers in the labor force.

[insert Figure 11 here]

B. Labor Force Participation Versus Earnings per Worker

High level of labor force participation does not guarantee high income if the productivity of older people is low. By using the labor income age profiles based on NTA data, Figure 12 plots the LFPR of people aged 65 and above versus their per capita labor income, normalized by the average labor income of people aged 30–49 in each country. The results show a great deal of variation across countries. The elderly in some countries are earning relatively little even though the LFPR of the elderly is relatively high. In other countries, their earnings are relatively high even though their LFPR is low. The correlation coefficient between the LFPR of older people and their labor income is only 0.11. The ratio of the average per capita income of people aged 60–64 to that of people aged 30–49 is 0.497. That is, older people aged 60–64 earn about 50% less than what people aged 30–49 receives. The LFPR of older people aged 60–64 is 50%, which means that one half of the population aged 60–64 is either unemployed or looking for a job in the region. If two countries have similar LFPRs but one has a higher labor income, this implies a higher average income per worker. For example, Nepal has slightly higher labor force participation than Brunei Darussalam, but per capita labor income for those aged 60–64 is higher in Brunei Darussalam, which means that labor income per worker for the age group is much higher in Brunei Darussalam. Likewise, Viet Nam and Timor-Leste have much higher LFPR than the Maldives, but per capita labor income is higher in the Maldives. Thus, we can conclude that labor income per older worker is much higher in the Maldives than in Viet Nam or Timor-Leste.

[insert Figure 12 here]

To investigate this possibility further, the labor income per worker (Y/L) is estimated by dividing the labor income per capita (Y/N) by the LFPR (L/N) of people aged 60–64, following the methodology of Lee and Ogawa (2011). Figure 13 plots the LFPR of people aged 65 and above versus their per worker labor income, normalized by the average labor income of people aged 30–49 in each country. The effect of low labor income per worker dominates the effect of high labor force participation in Viet Nam’s labor income for older people, while the effect of high labor income per worker dominates the effect of low labor force participation in Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Brunei Darussalam, and India. Although the labor income of people aged 60–64 in Viet Nam and Nepal are similar, the underlying reasons are quite different. More elderly Vietnamese work, but their labor income is lower than that of the elderly in Nepal. The figure should be interpreted with caution since labor income per worker may not necessarily reflect unbiased average productivity of old workers. For example, declining productivity because of poor physical and mental health may induce a person to retire or leave the labor market. Thus, if higher-productivity workers remain in the labor market, LFPR might be low. On the other hand, those who plan to retire soon are less likely to invest in human capital, which lowers their productivity. In addition, health conditions, labor market conditions, and labor market rigidities, such as seniority-based wages, play a substantial role in many developing economies.

[insert Figure 13 here]

Governments have sought to mitigate the negative economic impact of population aging by modifying the age patterns of labor income to raise support ratios for a given demographic structure. One option is to raise the retirement age.¹¹ The impact of this policy will be larger for countries with high labor income per worker and low LFPR of older population, such as Brunei Darussalam. The effect will be less for a country with low labor income per worker and high LFPR, such as Viet Nam. The key lesson here is that raising the retirement age may not be effective in developing economies with low productivity and high labor force participation. Further, in many developing economies, some poor older people are already working to the limit of their health capacity (Park and Lee 2022). More fundamental reforms may be needed, including making the labor market more flexible and strengthening retraining programs for the elderly.

C. Literacy of Older People

Education is an important proxy for labor capability, human capital, and economic opportunities in older age. Education provides choice and purpose, supports social relationships, and enhances social and economic rights. There are no reliable and comparable

¹¹ For example, the normal retirement age at which full benefits are payable had been 65 in the United States for many years. However, according to the Social Security Amendments of 1983, beginning with people born in 1938 or later, age gradually increases until it reaches 67 for people born after 1959. Congress provided improvements in the health of older people and increases in average life expectancy as primary reasons for increasing the normal retirement age.

data for education of older people across developing Asia. However, the literacy rates of older people aged 65 and above are comparable (Table 11). Literacy rates are close to 100% in East Asia and Caucasus and Central Asia. The literacy rates exceed 70% in most Southeast Asia and the Pacific countries except for Cambodia, Papua New Guinea, Timor-Leste, and Vanuatu. The lowest literacy rates are found in South Asia, where more than half of older people are not literate. Sri Lanka and the Maldives are the exceptions. The gap between older men and older women is much higher in countries with low male literacy rates. This suggests that the low literacy rates of males may lead to wide gender gaps in literacy rates as well.

[insert Table 11 here]

Literacy is the most fundamental goal of elementary school education. Literacy rate indicates whether people have at least some years of elementary schooling. Literacy has a profound effect on the well-being and living standard of people. More literate workers tend to have better jobs. In addition, illiteracy contributes to bad health. Numerous studies show that illiterate patients tend to have less health-related knowledge, receive less preventive care, are more prone to chronic illnesses, and get hospitalized more frequently.

VI. FAMILY SUPPORT: LIVING ARRANGEMENT

In this section, we briefly review the living arrangements of older Asians. In many Asian countries, a much higher percentage of seniors live in multigeneration-extended households than in western countries. Even when children live separately from their parents, they visit more often and provide more resources than in the West (Park, Lee, and Mason 2012; Mason et al. 2022). Table 12 shows the living arrangements of people aged 65 and above across developing Asia. Pacific countries such as Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu are unique in that less than half of their elderly were living with children older than age 20. In other countries, the proportion of elderly living with their children is very high, ranging from 60% to 80%. In five countries; namely, Afghanistan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Pakistan, and Uzbekistan, the figure exceeded 80%.

[insert Table 12 here]

However, the elderly do not depend exclusively on their children. Many who live independently of their children live with their spouse. In every country, older men are much more likely to be living with their spouse than older women. The gender gap is particularly evident in Bangladesh, where 89% of men aged 65 and older live with their wives, compared with only 28% of older women living with their husbands. The gender gap reflects the fact that most women outlive their husbands because they are younger than their husbands and they live longer. Because older women are much more likely to be widowed than older men, they are much more likely to live alone. Co-residence may increase as older people need much more support from their grown-up children. However, the actual difference (not shown in the table) is very small, perhaps because children become adults and no longer live with their parents.

The family-based approach to old-age income support has been successful in Asia. In particular, family support mitigates intergenerational income inequality, which can increase rapidly in fast-growing economies such as those of Asia. As Asia's demographic transition causes its population to grow older, the family support system, like public support systems, will come under increasing pressure. In many Asian economies, a substantial portion of older people are already living alone (Table 12). Adult children may find that they are supporting their parents for longer and with fewer siblings with whom they can share the cost. Many seniors may no longer be able to rely on family support. In addition, many young people are leaving their rural homes for cities, which often offer better economic opportunities and amenities, geographically separating them from their older parents. In the coming decades, the elderly will be living longer lives, with fewer children to support them, placing considerable strain on the family support system.

VII CONCLUSION

Asia and the Pacific as a whole is experiencing population aging, although the timing and speed of demographic change varies from economy to economy. For many developing Asian economies, the paramount challenge is to improve existing health and social security systems in the face of population aging. Those economies face a difficult balancing act. On one hand, they must avoid exposing large and growing elderly populations to economic and health insecurity. On the other hand, they may implement more extensive public old-age support systems. Doing so comes at the cost of rising tax burdens or risk to fiscal sustainability. Some countries, including Malaysia, Singapore, and some South Asian countries, look toward families to support the elderly in the face of aging, but it is unlikely that this will be a regionwide solution.

In most countries, people live longer and healthier lives, but they are not willing to work longer because they can afford to have more leisure in their later years and rely on their assets or on public resources to fund their consumption. This can seriously harm the sustainability of social security systems because a growing proportion of the population in aging high-income economies are retirees. In this context, the fact that in some countries elderly workers are earning less than younger workers despite their high LFPRs is a significant finding. Low productivity will restrict the capacity of older people to support their consumption, even if they work longer. The conventional way of looking at LFPRs and labor income separately fails to accurately capture the economic life cycle. In addition to boosting labor force participation, an equally significant objective must be to improve the productivity of older workers.

The coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic brought about huge challenges for the health and thus well-being of older people. COVID-19 started as a health crisis, but quickly turned into a socioeconomic crisis that engulfed all aspects of daily life. The crisis impacted economic security, food and housing supply, social mobility of individuals, and long-term political management (ADB 2022). In addition, older people are under constant pressure from technological progress and growing integration of economies (Frey and Osborne 2017, ADB

2018, OECD 2019). Technological progress and trade presents opportunities for highly skilled workers, but poses a challenge for less-skilled workers. Digitalized business models often rely on self-employed workers rather than employees. Older people face greater risk of skills obsolescence and job changes, which, in turn, widens their earnings gap vis-à-vis younger workers. Connecting those at risk of being left behind with better job prospects should be a policy priority for a more inclusive and sustainable economy and society. COVID-19 made it even more imperative for workers, especially older workers, to adapt to new work patterns (ILO 2021, OECD 2021). Retraining and redeploying older workers will be an important long-term challenge.

Finally, in many countries of developing Asia, there is a great deal of scope for improving the quality and quantity of data on elderly well-being and well-being in general. The COVID-19 pandemic, which adversely affected the physical and mental well-being of large segments of the population, exposed big limitations and gaps in data on well-being indicators. Therefore, investing in reliable surveys on well-being, updating relevant administrative datasets, and strengthening other data collection activities must be a top policy priority. Accurate and adequate data on elderly well-being contributes greatly to designing and implementing policies that improve the well-being of the elderly. But securing data will require a continuous concerted effort.

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Table 1: Total Fertility Rate and Life Expectancy

ADB Member Economies (2020)	Total Fertility Rate (TFR)	Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	Life expectancy at birth, female (years)
Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	1.8	65	64	67
Azerbaijan	1.7	75	71	79
Georgia	2.0	73	71	76
Kazakhstan	3.1	73	71	75
Kyrgyzstan	3.0	72	72	73
Tajikistan	3.5	76	75	77
Turkmenistan	2.7	70	68	72
Uzbekistan	2.9	77	75	79
East Asia				
Hong Kong, China	0.9	85	83	88
Mongolia	2.8		66	75
People's Republic of China	1.7		75	80
Republic of Korea	0.8	72	69	76
Taipei, China		68	66	69
South Asia				
Afghanistan	4.2	74	70	78
Bangladesh	2.0	70	69	71
Bhutan	1.9	72	70	74
India	2.2	77	76	78
Maldives	1.8	85	82	88
Nepal	1.8	71	67	76
Pakistan	3.4	69	64	73
Sri Lanka	2.2	72	68	76
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	1.8	68	66	70
Cambodia	2.5	76	74	78
Indonesia	2.3	79	78	81
Lao PDR	2.6	65	63	68
Malaysia	2.0	68	66	70
Myanmar	2.1	70	66	74
Philippines	2.5	67	64	70
Singapore	1.1			
Thailand	1.5	71	70	73
Timor-Leste	3.9		68	72
Viet Nam	2.0	67	66	68
The Pacific				
Cook Islands		69	66	72
Federated States of Micronesia	3.0	65	63	66
Fiji	2.7	71	67	76
Kiribati	3.5	83	81	87
Marshall Islands	4.0	73	71	76
Nauru		84	82	86
Niue		73	71	75
Palau	2.2	77	74	80
Papua New Guinea	3.5	71	69	74
Samoa	3.8	77	74	81
Solomon Islands	4.3	70	68	72
Tonga	3.5	71	69	73
Tuvalu		68	65	72
Vanuatu	3.7			
Developed Asia				
Japan	1.3	72	70	74
Source: UNPD (2022).				

Table 2: Share of Older People, Old Age Dependency Ratio, 1980–2060

ADB Member Economies	% of older people ages 65+					Old age dependency ratio (people ages 65+/people ages 15-64*100)				
	1980	2000	2020	2040	2060	1980	2000	2020	2040	2060
Caucasus and Central Asia	5.4	6.2	7.2	11.5	16.5	9.2	10.1	11.1	17.5	26.3
Armenia	5.6	9.1	12.4	18.9	29.0	8.7	14.2	18.5	28.5	50.8
Azerbaijan	5.1	5.5	6.5	15.0	23.7	8.4	8.7	9.3	21.9	38.1
Georgia	8.7	11.9	14.5	19.0	24.0	13.2	18.4	22.5	29.9	40.7
Kazakhstan	6.0	6.6	7.8	10.9	13.3	9.6	10.0	12.5	17.1	21.2
Kyrgyzstan	4.9	5.1	4.3	7.7	12.2	8.5	8.6	7.0	11.8	18.9
Tajikistan	4.0	3.6	3.2	6.3	10.4	7.4	6.6	5.4	9.8	16.1
Turkmenistan	4.4	4.1	4.7	8.8	13.5	8.0	7.0	7.4	13.0	20.4
Uzbekistan	4.4	4.6	4.9	8.8	14.2	8.1	7.9	7.4	13.0	22.0
East Asia	4.4	7.0	12.8	26.5	35.9	7.3	10.1	18.4	42.3	66.8
Hong Kong, China	6.4	11.2	18.8	34.9	44.1	9.4	15.6	27.2	60.6	93.3
Mongolia	4.8	3.4	4.3	10.3	16.5	9.3	5.6	6.7	15.3	26.2
People's Republic of China	4.4	6.9	12.6	26.2	35.5	7.4	10.1	18.2	41.6	65.7
Republic of Korea	3.8	7.1	15.8	33.6	43.6	6.2	9.9	22.0	58.1	89.7
Taipei, China	4.0	8.4	15.2	28.8	38.8	6.4	11.9	21.1	47.9	76.6
South Asia	3.9	4.3	6.4	11.0	18.1	6.9	7.3	9.6	16.1	28.1
Afghanistan	2.5	2.3	2.4	3.3	5.7	4.9	4.8	4.5	5.4	8.6
Bangladesh	3.4	3.8	5.6	11.2	20.2	6.7	6.4	8.4	16.4	31.9
Bhutan	2.6	4.0	6.0	10.2	24.3	4.6	6.8	8.6	13.9	38.6
India	4.0	4.5	6.7	11.6	19.1	7.1	7.4	9.9	16.9	29.7
Maldives	2.6	3.8	4.4	13.6	34.9	5.0	6.7	5.9	18.8	67.7
Nepal	3.4	3.8	6.0	8.3	14.9	6.2	6.8	9.5	12.0	22.3
Pakistan	3.4	3.5	4.2	5.5	8.3	6.4	6.5	7.1	8.5	12.4
Sri Lanka	4.9	7.1	10.8	17.8	23.8	8.2	10.8	16.5	28.0	39.3
Southeast Asia	3.9	5.1	7.7	14.1	20.0	7.0	8.0	11.3	21.4	31.9
Brunei Darussalam	2.8	2.9	5.5	15.3	24.3	4.7	4.5	7.6	22.6	40.0
Cambodia	3.0	3.1	5.3	11.0	16.8	5.4	5.4	8.1	16.5	26.2
Indonesia	3.7	5.0	6.7	12.0	16.9	6.6	7.8	9.9	17.9	26.0
Lao PDR	3.3	3.5	4.3	7.4	13.9	6.4	6.6	6.6	10.8	20.9
Malaysia	3.3	4.1	7.0	13.0	22.7	5.7	6.6	10.1	18.9	36.7
Myanmar	4.1	4.9	6.5	11.1	15.9	7.3	7.8	9.4	16.3	24.1
Philippines	3.3	3.8	5.2	8.8	13.2	6.2	6.4	8.2	13.4	20.2
Singapore	4.9	6.3	13.2	29.8	37.4	7.1	8.5	17.6	49.4	71.2
Thailand	3.4	6.1	13.9	27.4	34.9	5.8	8.7	19.8	45.2	64.7
Timor-Leste	2.2	3.1	5.4	5.9	10.4	3.7	5.8	9.2	8.8	15.2
Viet Nam	5.5	6.2	8.4	15.9	24.0	10.1	9.9	12.2	23.9	40.2
The Pacific	1.7	2.7	3.7	6.4	9.7	3.1	4.7	6.0	9.8	14.5
Cook Islands	4.1	5.8	10.9	19.3	19.1	7.9	9.8	16.8	32.0	30.6
Federated States of Micronesia	3.2	3.3	5.6	9.2	13.2	6.3	5.8	8.8	14.2	19.8
Fiji	2.6	3.2	5.5	8.2	12.1	4.5	5.1	8.5	12.0	18.0
Kiribati	3.6	3.2	3.7	6.3	9.5	6.4	5.8	6.1	9.8	14.7
Marshall Islands	3.1	2.1	3.9	8.2	10.8	6.8	4.0	6.3	12.1	15.8
Nauru	2.3	1.6	2.1	5.1	8.5	3.5	2.7	3.6	8.1	13.4
Niue	6.5	9.2	14.9	15.0	14.6	13.0	14.5	25.4	24.0	22.3
Palau	5.3	5.1	9.2	15.7	15.0	9.6	7.5	13.1	24.5	22.9
Papua New Guinea	1.1	2.3	3.0	5.8	9.2	1.9	4.0	4.9	8.7	13.7
Samoa	3.0	4.3	5.0	7.8	9.0	5.8	7.9	8.8	13.0	14.4
Solomon Islands	3.2	3.3	3.5	5.3	7.5	6.6	6.2	6.1	8.6	11.7
Tonga	3.5	5.4	6.2	8.5	10.4	6.6	9.6	10.5	13.7	16.1
Tuvalu	4.3	6.0	6.0	8.2	9.5	7.2	10.4	9.6	12.9	14.9
Vanuatu	3.4	3.5	3.7	5.1	8.2	6.5	6.7	6.6	8.3	13.0
Developed Asia										
Japan	9.3	17.8	29.6	31.4	38.3	13.8	26.3	50.6	65.5	75.1

Source: United Nations Population Division (2022).

Table 3: Per Capita Gross Domestic Product and Self-Reported Life Satisfaction

ADB Member Economies	Year	Life satisfaction in Cantril Ladder	GDP per capita, PPP (constant 2017 international \$)	Population (historical estimates)
Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	2020	5.40	12620	2805610
Azerbaijan	2020	5.17	13727	10284952
Georgia	2020	4.97	13966	3765912
Kazakhstan	2020	6.23	25363	18979250
Kyrgyzstan	2020	5.83	4715	6424880
Tajikistan	2020	5.38	3658	9543211
Turkmenistan	2019	5.07	15538	6158424
Uzbekistan	2020	6.06	7332	33526662
East Asia				
Hong Kong, China	2020	5.42	56154	7500955
Mongolia	2020	5.76	11724	3294340
People's Republic of China	2020	5.59	16316	1424929792
Republic of Korea	2020	5.94	42336	51844688
Taipei, China	2020	6.51		23821468
South Asia				
Afghanistan	2020	2.40	1971	38972236
Bangladesh	2020	5.16	4871	167420944
Bhutan	2013	5.08	9164	728898
India	2020	3.78	6166	1396387072
Maldives	2019	5.20	19510	504518
Nepal	2020	5.38	3800	29348626
Pakistan	2020	4.52	4563	227196736
Sri Lanka	2020	4.36	12537	21715076
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam				
Cambodia	2020	4.64	4192	16396864
Indonesia	2020	5.24	11445	271857984
Lao PDR	2020	5.14	7811	7319397
Malaysia	2020	5.71	26472	33199988
Myanmar	2020	4.39	4857	53423200
Philippines	2020	5.90	7954	112190984
Singapore	2020	6.48	93397	5909874
Thailand	2020	5.89	17285	71475664
Timor-Leste	2020		3926	1299998
Viet Nam	2020	5.49	8200	96648680
The Pacific				
Cook Islands				
Federated States of Micronesia	2020		3369	112119
Fiji	2020		11451	920430
Kiribati	2020		2259	126473
Marshall Islands	2020		3932	43437
Nauru	2020		13594	12339
Niue				
Palau	2020		15473	17999
Papua New Guinea	2020		4064	9749641
Samoa	2020		6417	214934
Solomon Islands	2020		2483	691198
Tonga	2020		6347	105265
Tuvalu	2020		4411	11090
Vanuatu	2020		2854	311694
Developed Asia				
Japan	2020	6.04	40232	125244760
Source: World Happiness Report (2022), ADB (2022).				

Table 4: Pension Scheme, Coverage Rate, Gross and Net Replacement Ratio

	Type of scheme	FDC or NDC schemes	Coverage % of populaiton 15-64	Coverage % of labor force	Gross Replacement Rate		Net Replacement Rate	
					Men	Women	Men	Women
Total contribution rate (%)								
East Asia								
Hong Kong, China	FDC	5.0-10.0	90.8	120.6	38.1	35.1	40.0	36.8
People's Republic of China	NDC + FDC	20.0/8.0	48.7	60.7	71.6	55.7	90.8	70.7
Republic of Korea	DB		60.3	78.3	39.8	39.8	35.4	35.4
South Asia								
India	DB + FDC	15.67	27.2	54.9	52.4	48.8	59.5	55.4
Pakistan	DB		6.6	12.4	41.1	35.7	41.3	35.9
Sri Lanka	FDC	20.0	17.6	30.3	37.4	24.8	40.7	27.0
Southeast Asia								
Indonesia	DB + FDC	5.7	16.5	22.0	57.2	53.9	59.5	56.1
Malaysia	FDC	23.0-24.0	32.8	47.2	41.0	28.5	46.7	32.5
Philippines	DB		55.5	92.4	79.8	79.8	83.3	83.3
Singapore	FDC	37.0	69.3	84.6	57.0	51.4	61.6	55.6
Thailand	DB		47.6	60.8	48.0	48.0	50.3	50.3
Viet Nam	DB		24.9	29.7	58.7	59.4	65.6	66.4
Developed Asia								
Japan	DB		91.4	98.9	32.4	32.4	38.7	38.7
<p>Note: Gross replacement rates are calculated for full-career workers from the age of 22, which means that career lengths differ between countries. Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, the Philippines and Singapore have an estimated long-term retirement age of 65 years for those starting in 2020, whilst in Malaysia, Sri Lanka and Thailand it will be 55 for men, while it will be 50 for women in Sri Lanka</p>								
Source: OECD (2022).								

Table 5: Poverty Ratio at National Poverty Lines, 1990–2020

ADB Member Economies	Country Code	1990-94	1995-99	2000-04	2005-09	2010-14	2015-19	2020 per capita GDP (2017 PPP)
Caucasus and Central Asia								
	Armenia							12620
	Azerbaijan							13727
	Georgia	45.3		37.2	36.2	30.2	21.0	13966
	Kazakhstan						4.3	25363
	Kyrgyzstan				34.6	35.2	25.1	4715
	Tajikistan	50.2	37.0	33.8	50.2	33.2	29.0	3658
	Turkmenistan							15538
	Uzbekistan				25.8	15.7		7332
East Asia								
	Hong Kong, China							56154
	Mongolia					30.4	29.0	11724
	People's Republic of China				30.2	11.2	3.1	16316
	Republic of Korea							42336
	Taipei, China							
South Asia								
	Afghanistan	56.6	50.1	48.9	33.7	38.3	54.5	1971
	Bangladesh			31.7	40.0	31.5	24.3	4871
	Bhutan				23.2	12.0	8.2	9164
	India		20.5	18.0	29.8	21.9		6166
	Maldives						5.4	19510
	Nepal			58.0		25.2		3800
	Pakistan				47.3	34.2	23.1	4563
	Sri Lanka		96.0	72.4	12.1	6.7	4.1	12537
Southeast Asia								
	Brunei Darussalam			49.8				
	Cambodia			49.8	34.3	20.1		4192
	Indonesia				16.0	12.1	10.4	11445
	Lao PDR						18.3	7811
	Malaysia						7.2	26472
	Myanmar				48.2	42.2	28.5	4857
	Philippines				26.5	25.2	20.1	7954
	Singapore							93397
	Thailand			36.3	20.1	12.7	7.9	17285
	Timor-Leste			16.2	50.4	41.8		3926
	Viet Nam				15.3	17.1	8.3	8200
The Pacific								
	Cook Islands							
	Federated States of Micronesia					41.2		3369
	Fiji			34.3			24.1	11451
	Kiribati						21.9	2259
	Marshall Islands							3932
	Nauru		41.8	30.9				13594
	Niue							
	Palau		37.5		24.9			15473
	Papua New Guinea	37.5	36.8	29.0	39.9			4064
	Samoa				26.9	20.3		6417
	Solomon Islands	26.1	28.8	22.7	22.7	12.7		2483
	Tonga				22.5			6347
	Tuvalu			26.8		26.3		4411
	Vanuatu	58.1	37.4	24.2				2854

Source: World Bank (2022).

Table 6: Life Expectancy at Age 60 and Healthy Life Expectancy at Age 60

ADB Member Economies	Life expectancy at age 60 (LE60), Both Sexes	Life expectancy at age 60 (LE60), Male	Life expectancy at age 60 (LE60), Female	Healthy life expectancy at age 60 (HALE60), Both Sexes	Healthy life expectancy at age 60 (HALE60), Male	Healthy life expectancy at age 60 (HALE60), Female
Caucasus and Central Asia						
Armenia	20.41	18.24	22.15	15.73	14.25	16.92
Azerbaijan	17.06	15.65	18.32	13.37	12.44	14.2
Georgia	18.76	16.05	21.02	14.41	12.41	16.07
Kazakhstan	19.46	16.84	21.44	14.8	13	16.16
Kyrgyzstan	20.01	17.78	21.67	15.68	14.16	16.82
Tajikistan	16.12	15.1	17.19	12.73	12.06	13.42
Turkmenistan	18.74	17.07	20.11	14.72	13.59	15.65
Uzbekistan	18.64	17.33	19.81	14.51	13.66	15.28
East Asia						
Hong Kong, China						
Mongolia	16.41	14.16	18.51	12.62	10.96	14.16
People's Republic of China	21.06	19.19	23.08	15.92	14.99	16.93
Republic of Korea	25.8	23.37	27.87	19.81	18.21	21.2
Taipei, China						
South Asia						
Afghanistan	15.21	15.39	15.06	10.84	11.17	10.56
Bangladesh	20.86	20.26	21.53	15.5	15.36	15.66
Bhutan	19.36	18.89	19.95	14.49	14.34	14.67
India	18.82	18.11	19.54	13.25	13.02	13.47
Maldives	22.15	21.39	23.05	16.79	16.41	17.23
Nepal	18.01	16.8	19.15	13.25	12.66	13.81
Pakistan	17.26	16.8	17.76	12.57	12.53	12.62
Sri Lanka	20.76	18.64	22.63	15.3	13.82	16.6
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	19.17	18.97	19.38	14.5	14.32	14.67
Cambodia	17.74	15.93	19.11	13.18	11.97	14.09
Indonesia	17.94	16.73	19.13	13.35	12.66	14.04
Lao PDR	17.65	16.35	18.89	13.3	12.52	14.04
Malaysia	19.5	18.49	20.56	14.63	14.02	15.26
Myanmar	18.06	16.17	19.62	13.59	12.38	14.58
Philippines	17.77	15.84	19.57	13.41	12.12	14.62
Singapore	25.54	23.78	27.22	19.95	18.81	21.05
Thailand	23.57	22.12	24.84	17.96	16.99	18.8
Timor-Leste	17.9	16.92	18.87	13.17	12.51	13.83
Viet Nam	19.6	16.88	22.03	14.76	12.91	16.4
The Pacific						
Cook Islands						
Federated States of Micronesia	14.7	13.82	15.58	11.14	10.68	11.62
Fiji	16.18	14.88	17.49	11.84	11.07	12.62
Kiribati	13.69	12.5	14.64	10.34	9.53	10.99
Marshall Islands						
Nauru						
Niue						
Palau						
Papua New Guinea	16.48	15.37	17.59	12.28	11.73	12.82
Samoa	17.86	17.35	18.32	13.4	13.33	13.49
Solomon Islands	15.47	14.71	16.28	11.78	11.39	12.19
Tonga	19.03	17.04	21.16	14.46	13.28	15.72
Tuvalu						
Vanuatu	15.68	14.83	16.67	11.94	11.53	12.41
Developed Asia						
Japan	26.35	23.95	28.56	20.39	18.82	21.85
Sources	https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/					

Table 7: Composition of Disability-Adjusted Life Years by Source of Disease, Age 70 and Above

	I. Communicable disease		II. Noncommunicable diseases						III. Injuries	
	Total	Diarrheal	Total	Cancer	Diabetes	Mental/su.	Alzheimer	Cardiovas		Respirato
Caucasus and Central Asia										
Armenia	4.7	0.1	92.2	13.8	4.2	2.0	2.3	46.4	4.6	3.1
Azerbaijan	1.8	0.1	96.7	5.5	3.2	1.3	3.4	65.7	3.5	1.6
Georgia	1.8	0.1	95.4	7.7	4.2	1.7	4.7	59.9	2.9	2.8
Kazakhstan	2.2	0.1	94.9	10.0	3.8	2.1	3.9	50.2	8.6	2.9
Kyrgyzstan	1.4	0.1	96.3	9.0	1.7	2.1	4.6	57.6	6.1	2.2
Tajikistan	3.4	0.2	94.7	4.2	3.6	1.1	2.8	65.2	4.7	1.9
Turkmenistan	1.8	0.1	95.9	7.3	2.7	1.7	4.0	62.7	1.7	2.3
Uzbekistan	1.7	0.1	96.5	4.3	3.4	1.5	2.8	67.5	2.6	1.8
East Asia										
Hong Kong, China										
Mongolia	1.6	0.1	96.1	16.5	1.0	1.6	3.2	51.2	3.0	2.3
People's Republic of China	2.6	0.2	93.4	16.4	2.5	1.9	4.5	39.8	11.7	4.0
Republic of Korea	9.9	0.3	82.8	20.5	4.3	2.3	5.7	18.1	7.1	7.3
Taipei, China										
South Asia										
Afghanistan										
Bangladesh	10.9	4.6	85.8	6.9	5.5	2.3	3.5	37.0	10.8	3.3
Bhutan	8.6	3.4	85.1	6.6	5.3	1.9	3.4	29.4	18.3	6.3
India	14.2	7.4	78.8	6.8	4.6	1.7	2.5	26.2	17.4	7.0
Maldives	5.0	1.0	91.7	9.3	5.8	1.5	4.9	35.1	11.2	3.3
Nepal	12.4	3.2	82.1	7.2	3.3	1.9	2.2	23.5	26.0	5.5
Pakistan	12.1	5.8	84.9	4.7	6.9	1.5	2.4	35.5	13.3	3.0
Sri Lanka	7.2	0.8	88.8	8.8	11.9	1.3	5.7	21.9	13.2	4.0
Southeast Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	7.8	0.1	88.9	15.4	9.6	1.0	5.8	26.7	8.3	3.3
Cambodia	13.8	1.8	81.8	9.7	5.3	1.2	3.0	33.5	6.8	4.4
Indonesia	10.2	3.8	86.8	7.2	5.6	1.0	2.8	41.5	7.9	3.0
Lao PDR	10.9	2.2	86.3	9.9	6.0	1.1	2.7	38.2	9.0	2.8
Malaysia	14.7	1.1	81.3	9.9	4.3	1.6	3.5	33.3	5.7	4.0
Myanmar	8.6	1.6	87.9	7.8	7.3	1.0	2.9	37.8	14.8	3.6
Philippines	18.3	0.6	79.4	6.4	5.5	1.2	1.2	35.0	9.4	2.3
Singapore	16.9	0.1	78.9	19.0	3.2	1.9	2.8	23.0	3.5	4.2
Thailand	10.2	1.7	85.8	13.7	6.2	1.8	6.4	23.1	6.5	4.0
Timor-Leste	16.8	2.5	80.1	5.4	4.4	1.1	2.6	37.3	8.9	3.1
Viet Nam	5.3	0.6	89.3	7.5	6.5	1.0	5.8	40.6	8.1	5.4
The Pacific										
Cook Islands										
Federated States of Microne	6.7	1.6	91.2	10.5	13.9	1.0	2.2	38.2	8.3	2.1
Fiji										
Kiribati	13.3	6.0	85.2	9.1	13.2	0.8	2.7	32.1	10.6	1.4
Marshall Islands										
Nauru										
Niue										
Palau										
Papua New Guinea	9.9	4.3	86.8	12.3	9.7	1.1	2.1	29.4	19.8	3.3
Samoa	6.0	1.2	91.3	13.9	10.4	1.2	3.3	36.6	8.2	2.7
Solomon Islands	17.2	6.1	79.6	3.2	8.1	1.0	2.0	43.8	9.5	3.2
Tonga	6.9	0.8	89.5	15.3	13.6	1.3	3.8	27.1	7.8	3.6
Tuvalu										
Vanuatu	9.8	4.2	87.7	4.1	8.2	1.0	2.5	44.8	10.8	2.5
Developed Asia										
Japan	7.0	0.1	87.1	21.3	2.2	1.9	6.6	20.3	8.3	5.9

Source: Same as Table 6.

Table 8: Suicide Rates for Older Persons by Age

	1990			2019		
	Deaths - Self-harm 70+ years	Deaths - Self-harm 50-69 years	Deaths - Self-harm all ages	Deaths - Self-harm 70+ years	Deaths - Self-harm 50-69 years	Deaths - Self-harm all ages
Caucasus and Central Asia	15.5	15.5	8.1	18.4	12.9	9.9
Armenia	9.5	5.8	3.1	32.8	13.1	9.5
Azerbaijan	6.4	5.5	3.1	9.2	5.2	3.7
Georgia	13.1	10.1	5.7	17.1	11.6	8.6
Kazakhstan	40.1	36.5	20.6	39.6	31.1	23.2
Kyrgyzstan	24.3	28.7	13.4	14.7	13.7	9.2
Tajikistan	8.3	11.1	4.9	11.0	7.5	4.9
Turkmenistan	11.8	12.6	7.2	10.6	8.8	8.7
Uzbekistan	10.6	14.1	6.9	12.3	12.7	11.3
East Asia	40.9	22.1	13.4	39.8	20.6	17.9
Hong Kong, China						
Mongolia	14.4	18.0	14.7	12.4	15.5	17.5
People's Republic of China	77.7	32.9	18.1	34.8	11.2	8.5
Republic of Korea	28.7	18.7	11.4	73.7	33.2	27.3
Taipei,Chi	42.9	18.7	9.4	38.1	22.7	18.2
				2.571		
South Asia	29.3	20.7	13.2	19.4	12.8	9.0
Afghanistan	10.7	12.5	6.1	9.5	9.9	4.2
Bangladesh	14.7	14.3	10.0	9.8	6.3	4.6
Bhutan	19.5	16.5	6.0	20.6	10.8	5.4
India	27.0	21.6	18.0	22.6	16.3	14.1
Maldives	20.7	13.3	5.7	12.1	4.4	4.0
Nepal	17.1	28.1	13.7	19.9	21.9	11.6
Pakistan	12.0	9.2	6.4	10.0	8.7	7.9
Sri Lanka	112.7	49.8	39.4	50.8	24.1	20.3
Southeast Asia	20.0	12.9	7.6	14.5	8.5	5.8
Brunei Darussalam	16.4	8.2	4.7	20.1	8.4	5.6
Cambodia	14.0	12.9	5.6	12.4	9.1	4.7
Indonesia	7.2	5.2	3.5	8.0	3.8	3.0
Lao PDR	16.9	17.7	10.8	11.6	8.4	6.0
Malaysia	23.8	14.2	5.6	20.0	9.9	5.8
Myanmar	10.9	9.7	6.6	6.3	4.5	3.6
Philippines	7.9	6.1	4.9	6.7	5.2	4.1
Singapore	57.8	22.6	14.9	24.3	10.8	8.2
Thailand	22.1	14.9	12.4	13.1	10.1	10.1
Timor-Leste	14.7	11.2	6.6	13.6	8.7	4.7
Viet Nam	28.3	19.6	8.1	23.7	14.3	8.4
The Pacific	25.4	22.1	16.5	21.3	16.6	15.2
Cook Islands	34.0	22.5	16.4	24.6	13.9	13.0
Federated States of Micronesia	30.1	29.1	22.6	27.7	23.9	22.7
Fiji	18.5	13.7	10.3	16.1	11.0	9.2
Kiribati	28.4	34.9	31.9	24.8	23.2	25.4
Marshall Islands	32.2	29.0	20.3	26.0	21.6	20.9
Nauru	34.1	28.7	21.3	28.6	22.4	20.6
Niue	27.9	18.7	15.1	22.1	14.0	12.3
Palau	22.7	17.7	15.3	18.4	13.0	14.3
Papua New Guinea	7.4	6.6	3.1	7.0	6.0	2.9
Samoa	27.5	20.3	14.3	22.9	13.9	12.0
Solomon Islands	25.2	31.3	20.7	21.5	25.7	21.9
Tonga	10.9	7.3	4.0	11.5	6.3	4.7
Tuvalu	28.7	26.7	19.6	23.3	16.8	16.0
Vanuatu	27.7	22.4	15.6	24.3	20.1	17.4
Developed Asia						
Japan	51.8	29.8	19.3	25.3	24.7	19.4

Source: Same as Table 6.

Table 9: Health Facility, Sanitation, and Urbanization Indicators

	Density of medical doctors (per 10,000 population)	Density of nursing and midwifery personnel (per 10,000)	Density of dentists (per 10,000 population)	Proportion of population using safely-managed drinking-water	Proportion of population using safely-managed sanitation services (%)
Member State	2012-2020	2012-2020	2012-2020	2020	2020
Caucasus and Central Asia					
Armenia	44.0	49.5	5.6	87.0	69.0
Azerbaijan	31.7	64.3	2.7	88.0	-
Georgia	51.1	55.5	6.2	66.0	34.0
Kazakhstan	40.7	72.9	2.9	89.0	-
Kyrgyzstan	22.1	56.0	1.9	70.0	92.0
Tajikistan	17.2	47.5	1.6	55.0	-
Turkmenistan	22.2	44.3	1.2	95.0	-
Uzbekistan	23.7	112.8	1.5	59.0	-
East Asia					
Hong Kong, China					
Mongolia	38.5	42.1	4.1	30.0	56.0
People's Republic of China	22.3	30.8	4.5	-	70.0
Republic of Korea	24.8	81.8	5.2	99.0	100.0
Taipei, Chi					
South Asia					
Afghanistan	2.5	4.5	0.7	28.0	-
Bangladesh	6.7	4.9	0.7	59.0	39.0
Bhutan	5.0	20.8	0.9	37.0	65.0
India	7.4	17.5	1.6	-	46.0
Maldives	20.5	46.6	0.9	-	-
Nepal	8.5	33.4	1.3	18.0	49.0
Pakistan	11.2	4.8	1.2	36.0	-
Sri Lanka	12.3	25.0	1.1	-	-
Southeast Asia					
Brunei Darussalam	16.1	59.0	2.5	-	-
Cambodia	1.9	10.1	0.9	28.0	-
Indonesia	6.2	39.5	1.2	-	-
Lao PDR	3.5	11.9	0.8	18.0	61.0
Malaysia	22.9	34.8	3.1	94.0	-
Myanmar	7.4	10.8	0.7	59.0	61.0
Philippines	7.7	54.4	2.6	47.0	61.0
Singapore	24.6	62.4	4.1	100.0	100.0
Thailand	9.5	31.5	2.7	-	26.0
Timor-Leste	7.6	17.5	<0.1	-	-
Viet Nam	8.3	14.5	-	-	-
The Pacific					
Cook Islands	14.1	80.0	3.4	-	-
Federated States of Microne	9.4	21.5	-	-	-
Fiji	8.6	39.6	1.2	-	-
Kiribati	2.0	38.3	0.7	15.0	27.0
Marshall Islands	4.2	33.4	1.2	-	-
Nauru	13.5	78.5	3.7	-	-
Niue	-	125.0	-	94.0	-
Palau	17.7	64.6	3.3	91.0	-
Papua New Guinea	0.7	4.5	<0.1	-	-
Samoa	6.0	32.7	1.0	46.0	48.0
Solomon Islands	1.9	21.6	0.7	-	-
Tonga	9.5	45.4	1.4	30.0	34.0
Tuvalu	11.9	34.7	0.8	-	-
Vanuatu	1.7	14.2	0.3	-	-
Developed Asia					
Japan	24.8	119.5	8.0	99.0	81.0

Source: Same as Table 6.

Table 10: Male and Female Labor Force Participation Rates, 60–64 and 65 and Above

	Year	Labour force participation rate by older people 65+, both sexes (%)	Labour force participation rate by older people 65+, male (%)	Labour force participation rate by older people 65+, female (%)	Labour force participation rate by older people 60-64 both sexes (%)	Labour force participation rate by older people 60-64, male (%)	Labour force participation rate by older people 60-64, female (%)
Caucasus and Central Asia							
Armenia	2020	34.8	38.4	32.5	68.5	73.3	65.0
Azerbaijan	2021	5.8	7.8	4.3	27.8	30.9	25.1
Georgia	2020	40.4	49.9	34.7	67.7	76.9	60.1
Kazakhstan	2020	4.3	5.7	3.5	36.9	56.2	22.7
Kyrgyzstan	2021	21.7	30.2	16.2	55.3	69.4	43.6
Tajikistan	2016	18.9	25.6	11.3	37.4	56.6	19.4
Turkmenistan							
Uzbekistan	2020	2.2	3.6	0.9	10.9	16.7	6.2
East Asia							
Hong Kong, China	2021	12.5	18.0	7.6	48.0	59.9	36.7
Mongolia	2021	12.3	16.6	9.4	24.4	26.9	22.6
People's Republic of China	2010	21.1	27.6	15.1			
Republic of Korea	2021	37.5	47.3	30.0	64.0	75.0	53.4
Taipei, Chi	2020	8.8	13.8	4.6	37.7	51.9	24.5
South Asia							
Afghanistan	2020	18.7	28.2	3.4	32.8	53.6	8.6
Bangladesh	2017	31.0	47.1	8.7	52.0	78.3	19.3
Bhutan	2021	44.8	53.2	36.3	80.9	85.7	76.0
India	2019	21.2	33.9	8.1	40.9	65.5	17.1
Maldives	2019	20.9	25.5	16.2	53.4	78.4	33.0
Nepal	2017	15.1	23.1	7.8	26.3	36.9	17.5
Pakistan	2021	20.6	32.7	4.5	36.9	58.5	11.7
Sri Lanka	2019	23.5	38.5	11.7	46.9	68.8	27.8
Southeast Asia							
Brunei Darussalam	2020	11.1	14.0	8.5	22.1	28.3	16.0
Cambodia	2019	37.5	47.3	30.8	67.1	77.9	59.2
Indonesia	2021	42.5	56.0	30.7	62.3	75.8	49.0
Lao PDR	2017	23.4	32.0	15.3	46.8	56.4	36.5
Malaysia					39.2	55.3	23.1
Myanmar	2020	15.6	27.7	7.8	41.0	64.9	22.8
Philippines	2021	29.6	39.4	22.2	52.6	63.5	42.4
Singapore	2021	32.1	41.2	24.2	65.4	77.1	54.3
Thailand	2021	26.4	35.8	19.1	57.3	67.5	48.3
Timor-Leste	2016	65.8	71.4	59.7	81.0	88.1	74.4
Viet Nam	2021	33.2	39.0	29.2	61.9	66.5	58.1
The Pacific							
Cook Islands	2019	32.3	43.4	24.4	57.3	64.0	49.0
Federated States of Micronesia	2014	21.6	28.2	17.1	52.9	71.2	31.6
Fiji	2016	26.1	41.4	13.5	41.2	61.9	24.3
Kiribati	2019	8.5	11.7	6.5	20.5	24.3	17.3
Marshall Islands	2019	26.2	39.1	14.2	43.2	59.3	26.6
Nauru	2013	28.7	33.8	24.0	52.4	65.1	44.1
Niue	2001	47.3	53.9	41.6			
Palau	2014	17.1	22.0	13.8	33.7	36.0	31.9
Papua New Guinea	2010	22.5	24.0	20.7	40.7	39.6	41.9
Samoa	2017	19.3	28.8	10.9	42.8	55.7	28.8
Solomon Islands	2013	62.0	67.6	54.1	87.8	91.8	82.2
Tonga	2018	32.9	50.1	19.0	58.3	71.6	45.3
Tuvalu	2016	24.5	45.4	10.9	42.3	63.9	23.1
Vanuatu	2019	35.0	40.1	28.7	52.8	58.3	47.1
Developed Asia							
Japan	2021	25.6	34.9	18.4	73.8	85.7	62.2

Source: International Labour Organization (2022).

Table 11: Literacy Rates of Older People by Gender

Country	Year	Elderly literacy rate, population 65+ years, both sexes (%)	Elderly literacy rate, population 65+ years, male (%)	Elderly literacy rate, population 65+ years, female (%)
Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	2020	99.3	99.7	99.1
Azerbaijan	2019	98.6	98.8	98.5
Georgia	2019	99.4	99.7	99.2
Kazakhstan	2020	99.6	99.6	99.6
Kyrgyzstan	2019	97.6	99.0	96.7
Tajikistan	2014	98.1	99.2	97.1
Turkmenistan	2014	97.6	98.9	96.8
Uzbekistan	2019	100.0	100.0	100.0
East Asia				
Hong Kong, China				
Mongolia	2020	98.7	99.4	98.3
People's Republic of China	2020	87.1	94.0	81.0
Republic of Korea	2018	93.3	95.1	91.9
Taipei, Chi				
South Asia				
Afghanistan	2021	16.5	25.4	2.3
Bangladesh	2020	39.0	52.6	24.7
Bhutan	2021	26.3	39.2	10.7
India	2018	45.4	61.7	30.3
Maldives	2021	93.1	93.9	92.4
Nepal	2021	26.3	45.0	10.6
Pakistan	2019	30.8	44.4	12.9
Sri Lanka	2020	80.9	86.4	76.7
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	2021	84.4	93.2	75.9
Cambodia	2021	62.4	81.3	50.5
Indonesia	2020	77.9	86.4	70.5
Lao PDR	2021	65.0	80.5	52.3
Malaysia	2019	77.2	86.8	68.4
Myanmar	2019	73.8	87.1	65.2
Philippines	2019	90.5	90.1	90.8
Singapore	2020	88.1	95.4	82.0
Thailand	2021	82.3	87.5	78.3
Timor-Leste	2020	17.6	25.2	11.0
Viet Nam	2019	88.9	94.7	85.0
The Pacific				
Cook Islands				
Federated States of Micronesia				
Fiji				
Kiribati				
Marshall Islands	2011	89.4	92.8	84.7
Nauru				
Niue				
Palau	2015	84.7	89.6	81.4
Papua New Guinea	2010	33.0	41.3	26.8
Samoa	2021	98.3	98.2	98.5
Solomon Islands				
Tonga	2021	99.3	99.1	99.4
Tuvalu				
Vanuatu	2021	56.0	62.5	49.1

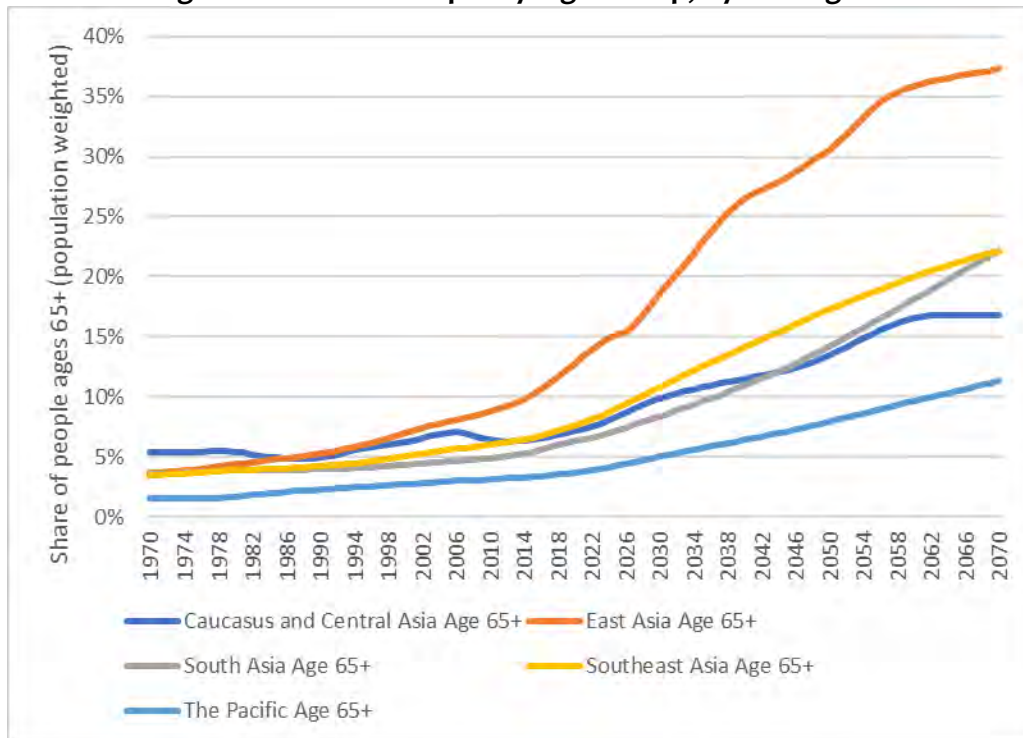
Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2022).

Table 12: Living Arrangements of People Aged 65 and Older

	Data Source	Reference Year	Living alone (65 or older, male)	Living alone (65 or older, female)	Co-residence with family members with spouse or partner (65 or older, Male)	Co-residence with family members with spouse or partner (65 or older, Female)	Co-residence with family members with children aged 20 years or over (65 or older, Male)	Co-residence with family members with children aged 20 years or over (65 or older, Female)
Caucasus and Central Asia								
Armenia	DHS	2016	9.7	22.6	76.2	33.3	55.5	57.7
Azerbaijan	DHS	2006	3.7	10.2	77.3	34.5	71.9	74.0
Georgia	MICS	2018	9.5	17.3	72.9	31.2	57.1	60.3
Kazakhstan	MICS	2015	9.7	26.2	75.1	27.4	47.3	52.8
Kyrgyzstan	MICS	2018	6.1	18.8	78.8	30.8	62.0	62.7
Tajikistan	DHS	2017	1.4	4.4	75.9	36.4	88.7	86.6
Turkmenistan	MICS	2019	9.2	3.4	64.6	35.1	85.2	87.7
Uzbekistan	MICS	2006	4.6	8.6	74.6	39.2	80.7	79.9
East Asia								
Hong Kong, China								
Mongolia	MICS	2018	11.9	26.0	66.2	27.8	48.3	55.8
People's Republic of China	IPUMS	2000	8.3	10.5	67.5	42.1	54.3	63.2
Republic of Korea								
Taipei, Chi								
South Asia								
Afghanistan	DHS	2015	0.4	0.1	84.1	45.2	87.0	90.5
Bangladesh	MICS	2019	0.9	7.4	88.7	24.7	68.2	79.7
Bhutan	MICS	2010	3.8	4.2	63.4	39.9	69.6	76.7
India	DHS	2020	2.5	7.3	77.3	35.9	69.9	75.0
Maldives	DHS	2017	3.3	5.0	68.1	32.5	74.5	76.5
Nepal	MICS	2019	2.9	5.1	76.5	42.2	71.1	75.6
Pakistan	DHS	2013	0.8	1.0	72.1	36.0	84.9	86.0
Sri Lanka								
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam								
Cambodia	DHS	2014	1.6	6.5	77.2	30.0	67.4	68.6
Indonesia	DHS	2017	4.1	12.7	75.8	27.9	58.2	61.6
Lao PDR	MICS	2017	2.9	4.6	78.3	32.9	71.6	80.5
Malaysia	IPUMS	2000	5.6	10.4	71.5	28.0	61.6	68.5
Myanmar	DHS	2016	3.6	7.2	68.5	33.1	72.0	70.6
Philippines	DHS	2017	7.9	11.1	72.2	36.4	54.4	58.1
Singapore								
Thailand	MICS	2019	9.2	15.0	74.4	39.0	47.5	53.8
Timor-Leste	DHS	2016	5.7	11.4	73.9	38.3	53.2	54.9
Viet Nam	MICS	2020	6.7	14.3	78.8	39.6	52.5	59.3
The Pacific								
Cook Islands								
Federated States of Micronesia								
Fiji	IPUMS	2014	5.2	6.6	60.5	30.0	62.8	67.7
Kiribati	MICS	2018	0.7	1.7	62.0	25.0	66.0	70.2
Marshall Islands								
Nauru								
Niue								
Palau								
Papua New Guinea	IPUMS	2000	5.4	5.1	58.0	31.3	40.8	29.2
Samoa	MICS	2019	4.5	1.6	64.5	35.6	72.3	80.3
Solomon Islands								
Tonga	MICS	2019	7.0	10.2	58.5	31.6	64.8	70.3
Tuvalu	MICS	2019	3.6	4.9	50.1	19.5	72.7	64.2
Vanuatu	MICS	2007	7.8	7.7	80.3	57.8	48.2	50.8

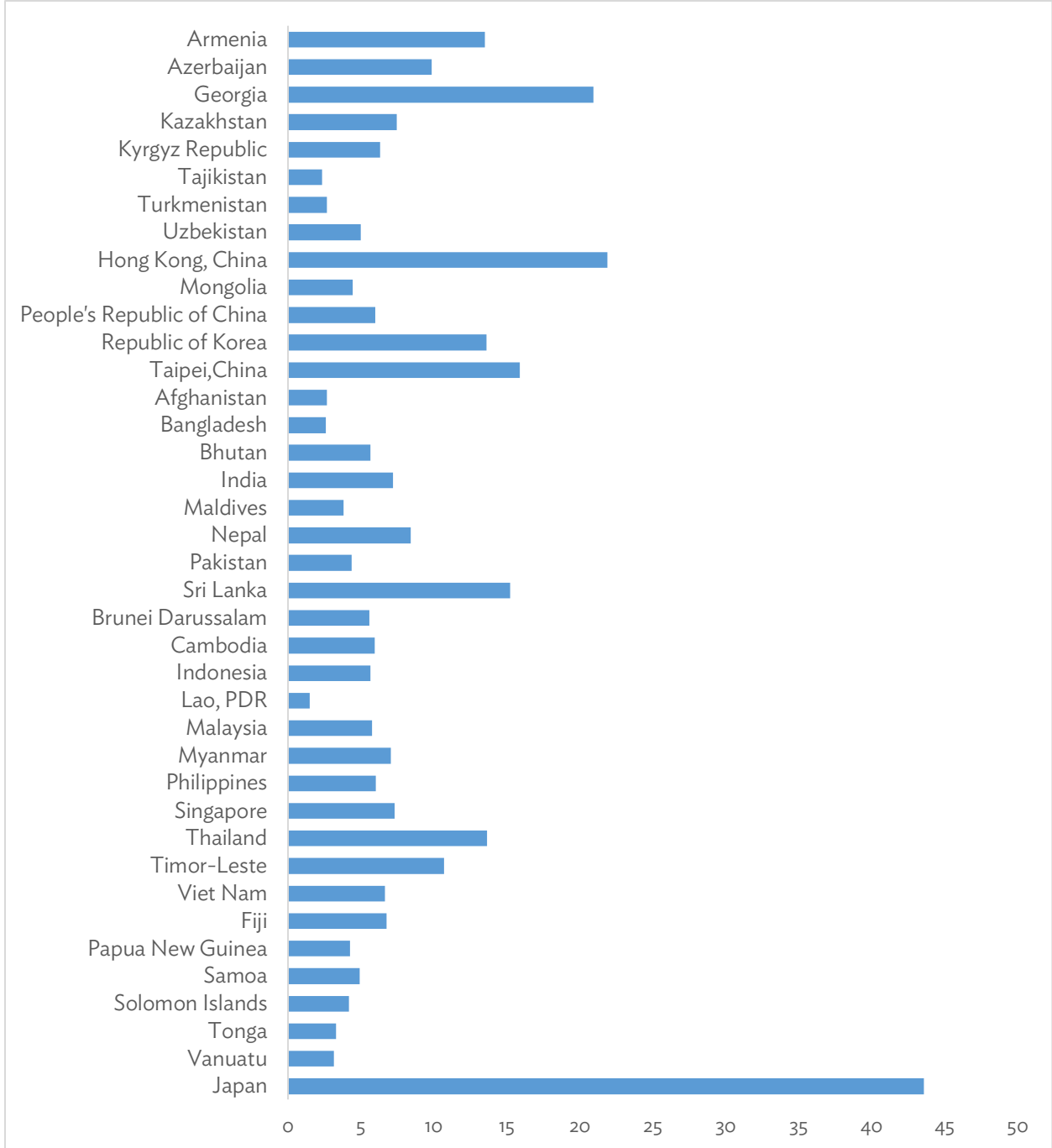
Source: United Nations Population Division (2022b)

Figure 1: Share of People by Age Group, by Subregion



Source: United Nations Population Division (2022a).

Figure 2: The Old-Age Gap Ratio



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Source: Mason, Lee, and Park (2021).

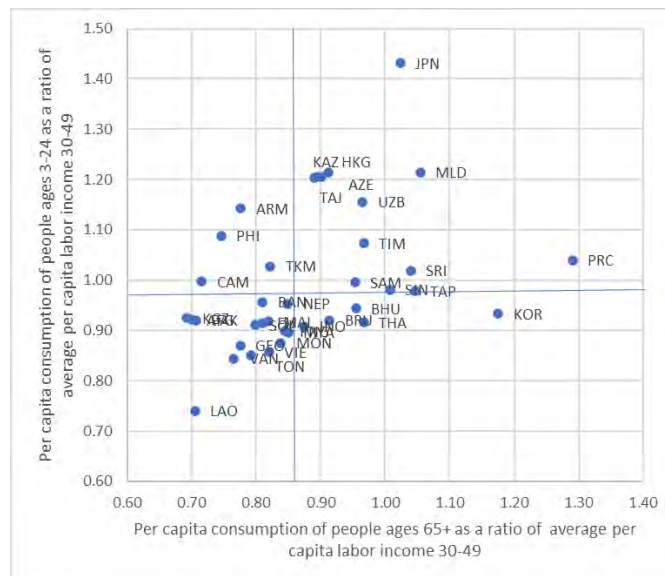
Figure 3: Relation Between Per Capita Gross Domestic Product and Self-Reported Life Satisfaction



GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Sources: World Happiness Report (2022) and Asian Development Bank (2022).

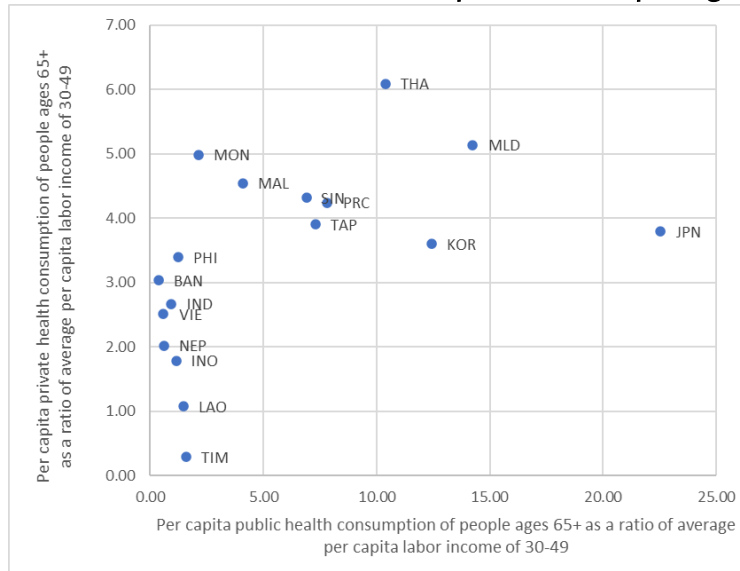
Figure 4: Per Capita Consumption of Children Aged 3–24 Versus the Consumption of the Older



ARM = Armenia; AZE = Azerbaijan; BAN = Bangladesh; BHU = Bhutan; BRU = Brunei Darussalam; CAM = Cambodia; GEO = Georgia; HKG = Hong Kong, China; INO = Indonesia; LAO = Lao People’s Democratic Republic; KAZ = Kazakhstan; KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic; KOR = Republic of Korea; MAL = Malaysia; MLD = Maldives; MON = Mongolia; NEP = Nepal; PRC = People’s Republic of China; SAM = Samoa; SIN = Singapore; SOL = Solomon Islands; SRI = Sri Lanka; TAJ = Tajikistan; TAP = Taipei, China; THA = Thailand; TKM = Turkmenistan; TON = Tonga; UZB = Uzbekistan; VAN = Vanuatu; VIE = Viet Nam,

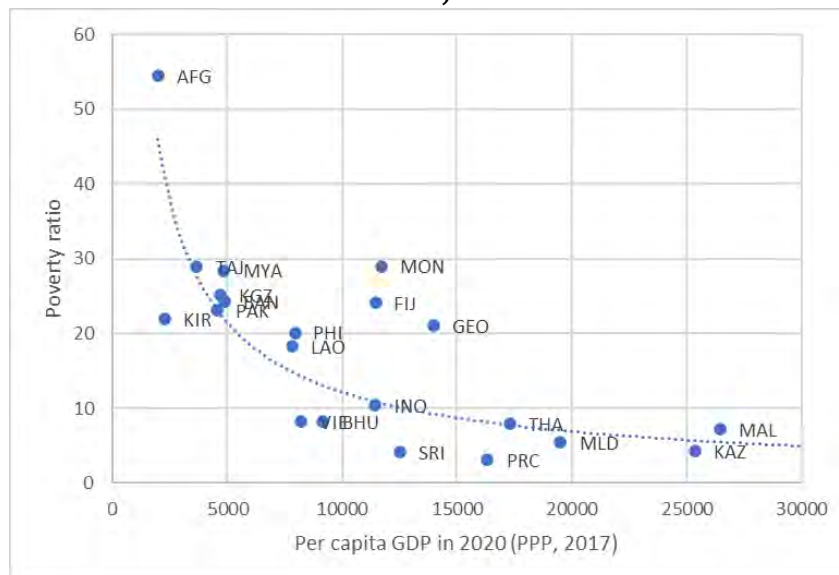
Sources: Authors calculation, and National Transfer Accounts database. www.ntaccounts.org (accessed 31 October 2022).

Figure 5: Private Versus Public Health Consumption for People Aged 65 and Older



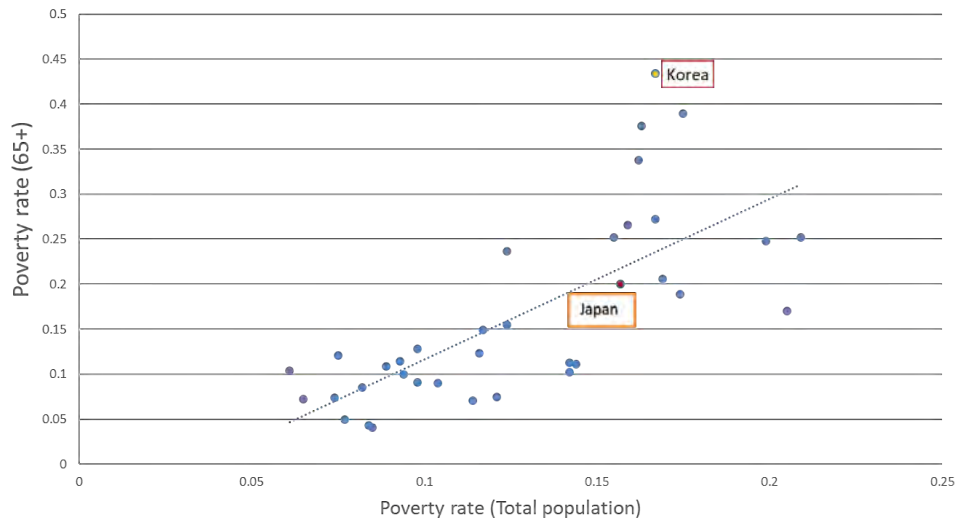
BAN = Bangladesh; IND = India; INO = Indonesia; JPN = Japan; KOR = Republic of Korea; LAO = Lao People’s Democratic Republic; MAL = Malaysia; MLD = Maldives; MON = Mongolia; NEP = Nepal; PHI = Philippines; PRC = People’s Republic of China; SIN = Singapore; TAP = Taipei,China; THA = Thailand; VIE = Viet Nam.
 Sources: Authors calculation and National Transfer Accounts database. www.ntaccounts.org (accessed 31 October 2022).

Figure 6: Poverty Ratio at National Poverty Lines Versus Per Capita Gross Domestic Product, 2020



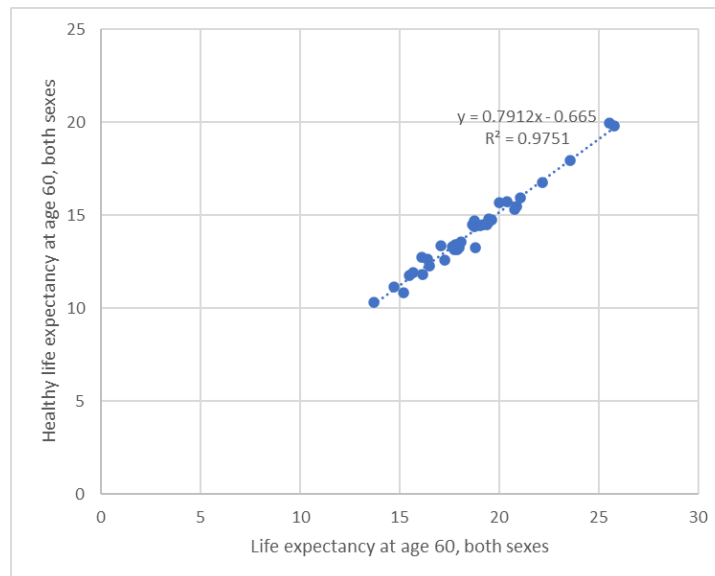
AFG = Afghanistan, BAN = Bangladesh, BHU = Bhutan, FIJ = Fiji, GEO = Georgia, INO = Indonesia, KAZ = Kazakhstan, KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic, KIR = Kiribati, LAO = Lao People’s Democratic Republic, MAL = Malaysia, MLD = Maldives, MON = Mongolia, MYA = Myanmar, PAK = Pakistan, PHI = Philippines, PRC = People’s Republic of China, TAJ = Tajikistan, THA = Thailand, SRI = Sri Lanka, VIE = Viet Nam.
 Source: World Bank (2022).

Figure 7: Poverty Rate, Older Persons Versus Entire Population, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development



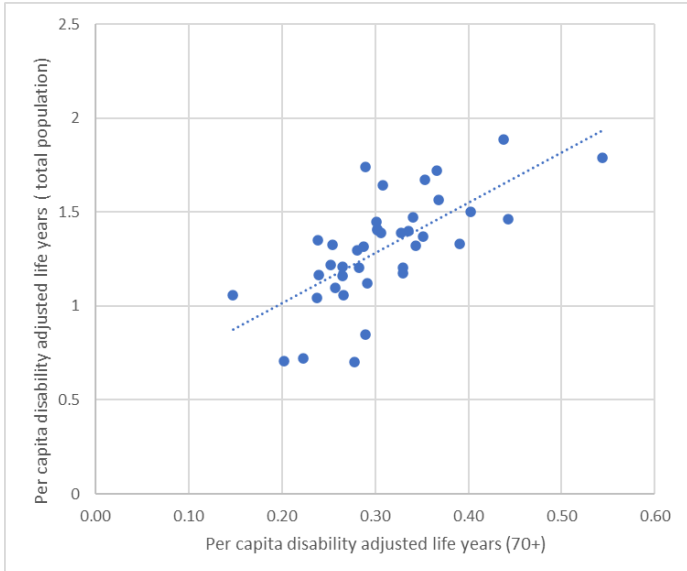
Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2022).

Figure 8: Relation Between Life Expectancy at Age 60 and Healthy Life Expectancy at Age 60



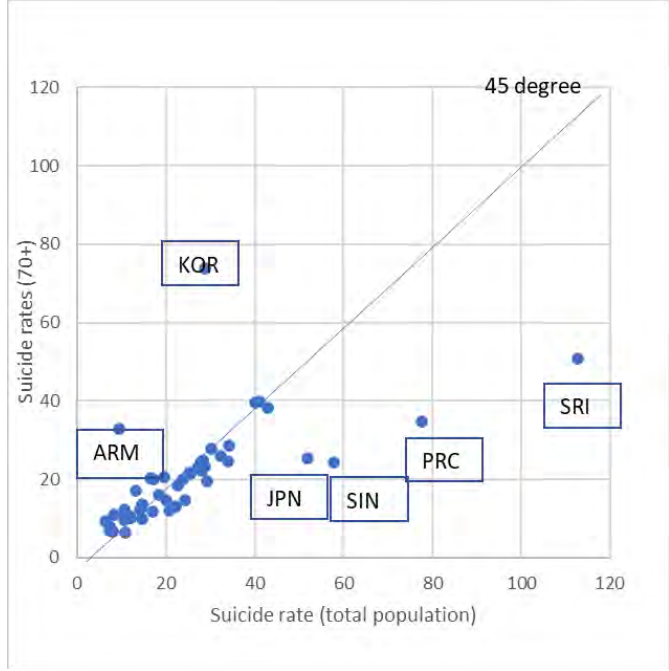
Source: Table 6.

Figure 9: Disability-Adjusted Life Years to Population Ratio, Total Versus People Aged 70 and Above



Source: Table 6.

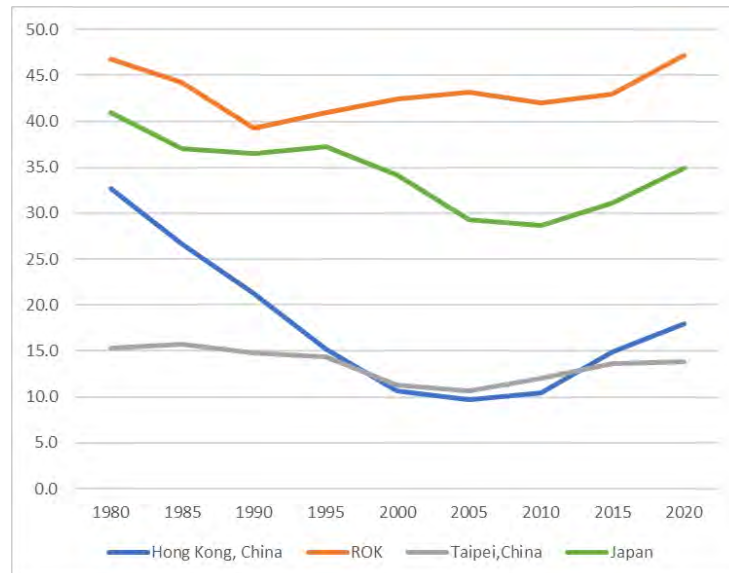
Figure 10: Suicide Rates of People Aged 70 and Above, 1990 Versus 2019



ARM = Armenia, JPN = Japan, KOR = Republic of Korea, PRC = People’s Republic of China, SIN = Singapore, SRI = Sri Lanka.

Source: Table 8.

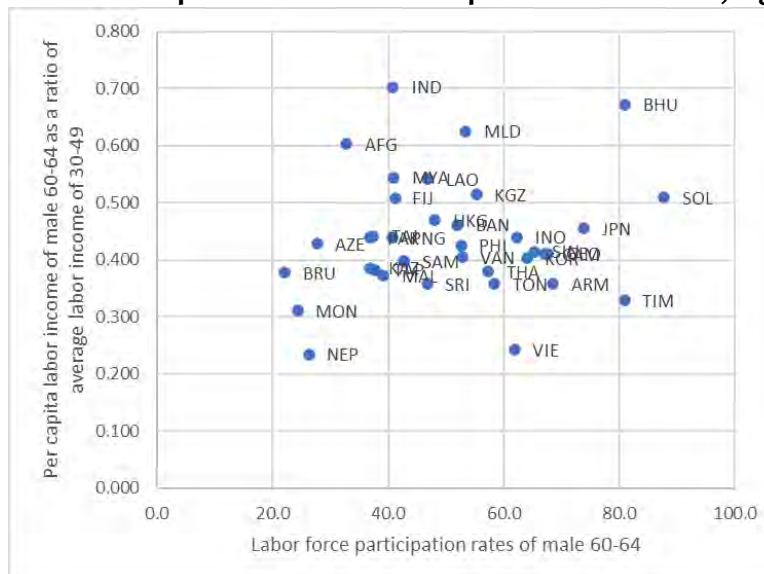
Figure 11: Labor Force Participation Rates for Male Aged 65 and Above, 1980–2020, Selected Economies



ROK = Republic of Korea.

Source: International Labour Organization (2022).

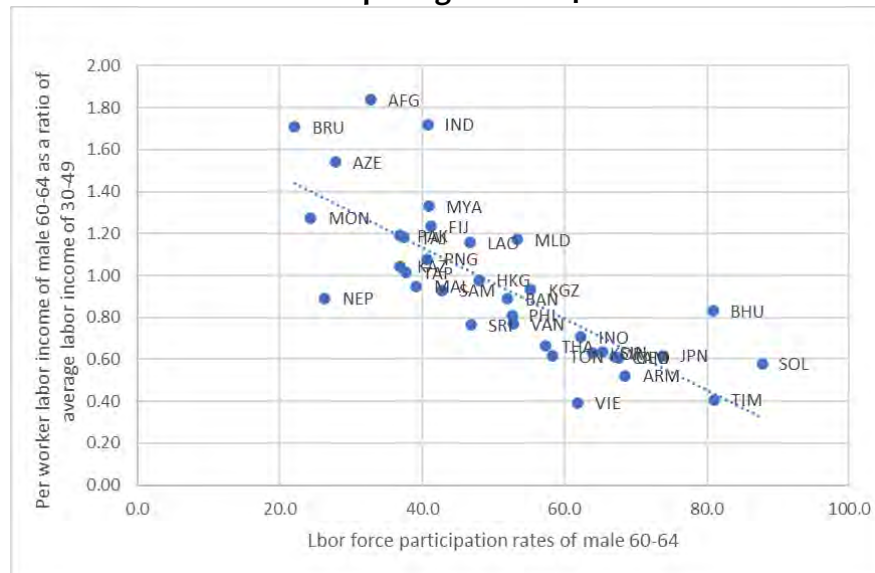
Figure 12: Labor Force Participation Versus Per Capita Labor Income, Aged 65 and Above



AFG = Afghanistan; ARM = Armenia; AZE = Azerbaijan; BAN = Bangladesh; BHU = Bhutan; BRU = Brunei Darussalam; FIJ = Fiji; HKG = Hong Kong, China; IND = India; INO = Indonesia; JPN = Japan; KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic; KOR = Republic of Korea; LAO = Lao People's Democratic Republic; MAL = Malaysia; MLD = Maldives; MON = Mongolia; MYA = Myanmar; PAK = Pakistan; PNG = Papua New Guinea; PHI = Philippines; NEP = Nepal; SAM = Samoa; SIN = Singapore; SOL = Solomon Islands; SRI = Sri Lanka; TAP = Taipei, China; THA = Thailand; TON = Tonga; TIM = Timor-Leste; VAN = Vanuatu.

Sources: Authors calculation; National Transfer Accounts database. www.ntaccounts.org; and International Labour Organization (2022) (accessed 31 October 2022).

Figure 13: Per Capita Labor Income Versus Labor Force Participation Rates of Older People Aged 60–64



AFG = Afghanistan; ARM = Armenia; AZE = Azerbaijan; BAN = Bangladesh; BHU = Bhutan; BRU = Brunei Darussalam; FIJ = Fiji; HKG = Hong Kong, China; IND = India; INO = Indonesia; JPN = Japan; KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic; KOR = Republic of Korea; LAO = Lao People’s Democratic Republic; MAL = Malaysia; MLD = Maldives; MON = Mongolia; MYA = Myanmar; PAK = Pakistan; PNG = Papua New Guinea; PHI = Philippines; NEP = Nepal; SAM = Samoa; SIN = Singapore; SOL = Solomon Islands; SRI = Sri Lanka; TAP = Taipei, China; THA = Thailand; TON = Tonga; TIM = Timor-Leste; VAN = Vanuatu.

Sources: Authors calculation; National Transfer Accounts database. www.ntaccounts.org; and International Labour Organization (2022) (accessed 31 October 2022).