POPULATION AGING IN NIGERIA: THEMES AND PERSPECTIVES

BY

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INTRODUCTION

Population aging is increasing due to declining fertility and increasing longevity, requiring serious attention by governments. It is a process of major significance for all societies, especially Nigeria, as it enters into the twenty-first century with a very large baby boom. This concern already being witnessed in developed countries was first raised during the First World Assembly on Aging, held in Vienna (1982), where the United Nations International Plan for Action Ageing in the enunciation of principles for older persons and targets on Aging for the year 2001 were adopted.

Again, the above was further expounded by the United Nations General Assembly Resolution 46/91 of December, 1991. Indeed, the attention of the world was howeve escalated by the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), where the proposal for further implementation of the all previous programmers of action was raised. This includes fostering intergenerational dialogue and solidarity, gender sensitive research to meet the policy and programme challenges of population aging among others.

Furthermore, the 2ndWorld Assembly of Ageing, held in Madrid April, 2002 espoused on "society for all ages" and made far reaching plan of action. Essentially, the World Population Aging Report of 2007 asserts that declining mortality has improved survivorship along the middle and the elderly

population, with far reaching effect of increasing life expectancy, thereby leading to a shift from younger to the older population.

However, considerable attention has been attracted to this phenomenon in developed countries with policy implications. Same cannot be said of developing countries like Nigeria. Essentially, populations aging in Nigeria has the following notable features:

i. Population aging also causes changes in the living arrangement resulting in increasing number of older persons alone.
ii. Population aging is particularly rapid among women, resulting in "feminization" of population aging due to known mortality rates across women.
iii. In view of lower income and higher number of older persons living below low poverty line, population aging is associated with poverty (Geurilou and Heuveline, 2003).

The unprecedented increase in the relative size of the older population has created major challenges for many countries including Nigeria. This development strains existing system of social and financial supports for older persons as the burdens of intergenerational dependency increase (Williamson and Higo, 2011). Global aging is going to create new challenges and risks, particularly with respect to the allocation of resources to older people for informal caregiving, formal health care provision, financial security and long term care.

The twenty-first century will witness a rate of population aging unparalleled in world history. Considering the global population, young children aged 5 and younger have always outnumbered older people (aged 65 and above). However, between 2020 and 2025, for the first time in history, older people will outnumber young children. In 2000, the number of young children and older people worldwide were about 627 and 473 million respectively; by 2025, the figures are projected to increase to about 650 and 714 million respectively. By 2050, the figures are projected to increase to 592 million and 1 billion respectively (United Nations, 2009).

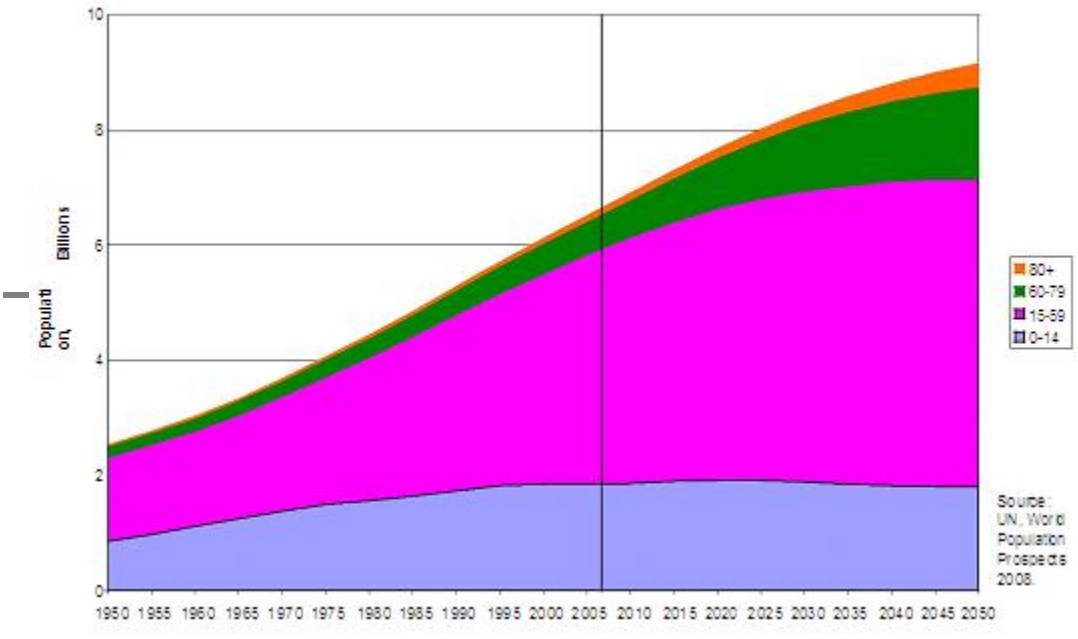
Between 1975 and 2000, the median age of the World population increased from 22.4 to 26.4 years. It is projected to rise to 32.8 years by 2025 and 38.4 years by 2050 (United Nations, 2009).

The old age dependency ratio is another important measure of population aging. Calculated by dividing the number of people aged 65 years and older by that of both the formal and informal burdens of providing for an older population's economic security and wellbeing (Schulz and Binstock, 2006). Globally, this ratio increased from about 8.5% in 1950 to about 10-9% in 2000, and it is projected to steadily increase to about 15.8% by 2025 and to 25.3% by 2050 (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2009)

Two major determinants of population aging are increasing life expectancy and decreasing fertility (United Nations, 2009). Worldwide, the average life expectancy at birth increased from 46.6 years for the 1950-53 birth cohort to 66.4 years for the 2000-2005 cohort. The figure is projected to further increase to 72.5 for the 2025-2030 birth cohort and 75.5 years for the 2050-2055 cohort. The world has experienced decrease in fertility rates since the mid–twentieth century. The world's total fertility rate (average number of children born to each woman over the course of her life time) was 4.92 between 1950 and 1955 and the figure decreased to 2.67 between 2000 and 2005. It is currently projected to fall to 2.21 between the years 2025 and 2030 and to 2.02 between the years of 2050-2055 (United Nations, 2009).

Exhibit 1 –

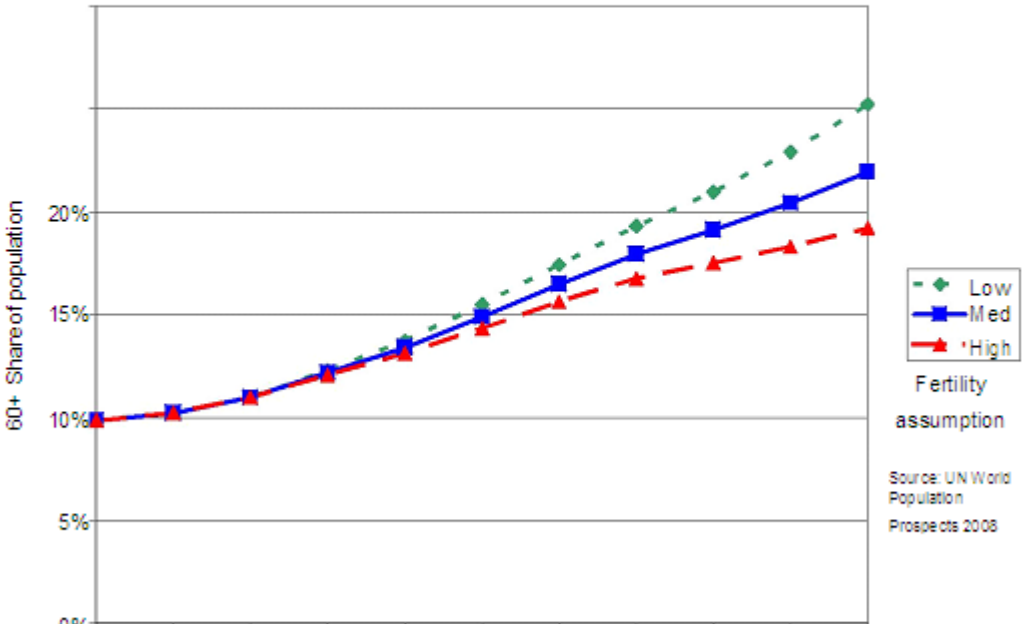
World, population by age group



Source: Bloom, D.E; Canning, D. and Fink. G (2011)

These projections displayed in Exhibit 1 are based on the UN's medium-fertility scenario. If fertility rates in the coming decades are lower than the "medium scenario" estimate, the share of elderly in the population will rise even further. Exhibit 2 shows how this source of uncertainty leads to differing predictions regarding the elderly share. The variation in 2050 represents more than one-fourth of the medium-scenario elderly share.

Exhibit 2 – World, population by age group



The phenomenon of population aging, of course, is not uniform across countries, and varies between developed and the developing countries and across regions

Source: Bloom, D.E; Canning, D. and Fink. G (2011)

CONCEPT OF AGING

Aging is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon. Conventional measure for aging was produced by the United Nations and this was chronologically based (United Nations, 2013). Such measure is the proportion of the population who are classified as 'old'. As such anyone that is 60^{th} years is categorized as old. Another measure was spearheaded by eclectic scholars based on differing characteristics of people. For instance, cognitive studies uses one set of measures (Weber et al., 2014; Skirbekk, Loichinger and Weber, 2012; Schnieweis, Skirbekk and Winter –Ebmer, 2014;, Stoet and Geary, 2013; Flynn, 1987; Wahab, 2017). Physical functioning is studied using another set

of measures (Leong etal, 2015; Sanderson and Scherbov, 2014; Al Snihetal, 2004; Habibietal, 2013; Inner, 1999; Wahab, 2017).

Due to the complexity of aging, neither of both measures is fully adequate and comprehensive. While the former ignored both physical and cognitive characteristics among others and relied solely on chronological age, which in the Nigerian clime is not only difficult but mostly understated. In fact, most Nigerian have more than one birth certificate especially the job seekers, as most jobs are age bound. The latter measure relied on physical and cognitive conditionings, while ignoring chronological age. This is even more defective than the former, as poverty and social exclusion deteriorate both conditions irrespective of age.

To overcome the above quagmire, Sander and Sherbov (2013), introduced the "characteristic approach". This new approach is based on the translation of quantitative measure of people's characteristics into a new form age measure that is called "alpha age". By allowing for the consistent quantitative measurement of multiple aspects of aging the characteristics approach can generate new insights that are relevant for both scientific study and policy formulation. This approach takes into account that the age specific characteristics of people that are relevant for the study of population aging change over time, differs from place to place and vary across population subgroups. Among the many age-specific characteristics that could be considered are remaining life, the probability of dying in the next few years, the proportion of people with severe activity limitations, measures of cognitive functioning, measure based on biomarkers, and subjective life expectancy. The main advantage of this new approach is that it allows for the analysis of all of these characteristics within a single unified structure.

While chronological age is one characteristic of an individual on its own it is insufficient to represent the multifaceted phenomenon of aging (Sanderson and Scherbov (2016). For instance, group of 60-yrs olds with a university education may be much healthier, have fewer disabilities, and fewer distribution with longer remaining life expectancy than a group of 60-year olds with secondary education. Even though, the two groups have similar chronological age, their socio-economic characteristics may be quite different.

In view of the above shortcomings, Sanderson and Scherbov (2016) opined that a better measure of aging should take into account the characteristics of individuals. This approach basically translate those characteristics into alpha-ages.

The basic building blocks of the unifying framework are a set of schedules of the age specific characteristics of people indexed by r, Cr (a). The schedule r can refer to different years, different places, different genders or different subgroups of the population; or to any other feature that distinguishes groups of people.

Kr (a) = Cr (a)

Where Kr (a) is the level of the characteristic of individuals at chronological age a in characteristic schedule r.

If Cr (a) is continuous and monotonic in age over the relevant range, holding r fixed, it can be inverted to obtain an aged associated with & level.

Sanderson and scherbov (2016) denote this universe, which maps characteristics onto chronological ages, by Cr-1 (k). Clearly,

$$a = Cr^{-1} (Kr (ca).$$

The computations of alpha-ages generally requires two characteristic schedules, which are denoted by r and s. Where characteristic schedule is a fixed standard and constant as r varies. The alpha-age corresponding to chronological age a is the chronological age is the chronological age in schedule s at which the levels of the characteristic is the same as it is at chronological age a in schedule r.

Formally

$$\alpha = (^{-1}{}_{s}(-1 (cr (\alpha))$$

Table 1

Hypothetical example of an alpha-age computation

From characteristic schedule r	From characteristic schedule s

A characteristic level, k		characteristic level, k	α
.....	……	……	……
65	100	100	55
…….	……	…….	……

The above table provides a step by step example of how alpha-age is calculated. First, chronological age of interest is chosen. In the left most column, this age is 65. Moving to the next cell to the right, we can see that the characteristics level of 65 years old is 100. The third step is to move to schedule s and find where the characteristic level is 100. The alpha-age is then shown in the fourth step as the age in schedule s at which the level of the characteristic is 100. Therefore, the alpha age of 65 years old person in schedule r would be 55, using schedule s as a standard.

THEMES IN POPULATION AGING

Gender and Aging

Recent research in social gerontology have led to appreciation and intersection of ethnic group, sexuality, class ultimately, gender. This "gendered eyes" or as Slevin (2001) puts it "gender lens" has revealed not only the neglected issues of elderly persons but also in rethinking population due to its unprecedented growth.

Earlier theoretical approaches to aging focused on retirement as a maker for the commencement of old age (Midwinter, 1997; Phillipton, 1998), rather than as a physiological process (Townsend, 1981; Gilleard and Higgs, 1998). Therefore, old age was socially constructed and the field of aging was primarily policy oriented. Subsequent studies called attention to poverty and health problems as antithetical to old age. The disengagement theory of Cumming and Henry (1961) continues to problematize how and why older people come to terms with withdrawal from the labour, society and ultimately life.

This positivistic organismic approach was countered by activity theory led by Havighurst (1963) and continuity theory of Atchley (1971). Then came the

structured dependency theory in the 1980s. All the above theories were feminist/gender blind. Calasanti (1986) was among the early feminists who challenged the male paradigm of production in a formal economy by highlighting the vital, unpaid work carried out particularly by older women. Estes (1991) later echoed it by focusing on the gendered nature of the division of labour as an extra causal factor in the post-retirement position of women .This gendered lens leads to a more all-inclusive and wide ranging understanding of old age and offers a framework with which to understand men and women's varied experienced of aging. In addition, this approach has further exposed both the disadvantages and advantages faced by men and women in later life. For instance, examining employment and retirement has not only drawn attention to gender inequalities in pension provision, but also raised awareness of the neglected issues of unpaid work, largely undertaken by women.

Access to pension provision had previously been male focused, which was largely designed with men in mind, assuming long term, continuous employment leading to access to an income in retirement. Women, on the contrary, were expected to receive income and benefits indirectly through their marital relationship (Ginn, 2003).

Several factors were identified as contributing to the disadvantaged status of women with regard to pension:

The influence of life events such as marriage, divorce and child birth affect women's participation in the labour market and therefore access to pension provision (Ginn, 2003; DWP, 2005; Wahab, 2014).

Married women are more likely to be dependent on their husband or the state for their pension provision than men, and women are more likely to work part time or withdraw from the labour market when they have children (Ginn, 2003; Price and Ginn, 2003).

Women are also more likely to undertake unpaid labour, such as caring for the sick or elderly relative.

Women's pay does not increase overtime at the same rate as men's, resulting in a gendered pay gap, which continues after retirement (Mcmullin, 1995).

The majority of older women are widowed, and alongside divorced, older women, widows are particularly financially disadvantaged in later life due to reduced employment participation (Ginn, 2003; Arber, 2004).

Finally, declining fertility rate, increased childlessness, and changing social forms surrounding divorces and marital separation are leading to an increasing member of women and men without some sort of family support in later life (Kneale and Joshi, 2008; Wahab,2011).

Fertility

In the period of 1950-2010, a pre-transition fertility regime of pre-transition fertility regime of Pro-natalist behaviour has been observed in Sub-Saharan Africa, which has been higher than that of Latin American and Asian developing regions (Bongaarts and Watkins, 1996; Bongaarts and Casterline, 2012).

This fertility pattern has been postulated to persist into the foreseeable future in SSA (Odimegwu and Adedini, 2012). As in most SSA countries, fertility in Nigeria is high (above 2.1 children per woman-replacement level fertility).

Such very high fertility impact negatively on socio-economic and demographic developments at all levels. In effect, there is the urgent need to enhance an accurate and less fictitious fertility estimates for better policy formulation and implementation. As already known, there is paucity of reliable fertility data, thus the need for indirect demographic methods for a more precise fertility estimates. In fact Odimegwu (1998) asserts that few scholarly works fertility estimate in Nigeria are documented

Life Expectancy

Life expectancy at birth is highest in Japan and Singapore of 82 years, with other developed countries–including the US – in the 78 – 80 years range. Generally, individuals born in developed countries are expected to outlive their counterparts in developing countries like Nigeria. In Nigeria, there was no

information on life expectancy of birth before 1950, more worrisome was the impact of HIV/AIDS, which was discovered in 1980 on average life expectancy at birth.

Although, there is gradual improvement in life expectancy at birth yet Nigeria is among the lowest in the world. Nigeria, presently is at 56 years with females more likely to outlive their male counterparts. Yet their gender differential is lower than what is obtainable in developed countries due to higher rates of maternal deaths. Life expectancy is however higher in the Urban area compared to rural areas, it is also higher among those with better life styles and life chances.

RATE OF POPULATION AGING IN NIGERIA

Population aging is occurring in an astronomical scale in Nigeria. Infact, it was estimated that it would double by 2025. It is expected to be higher than the total population of some countries in Africa (Togo, Mali, Botswana etc.). Nigeria has a greater percentage of population in two group of 5 – 50 years as compared to the percentage in the age group 60 – 80 years or more (United Nations, 2002).

Not surprising, the percentage of these age groups is estimated to change drastically in the year 2050 when the pyramid of population aging converts into a pillar with less percentage of lower age group population and more percentage of higher or old age population.

The above is expected to further strain scarce resources, as competition would be intensified with other sectors.

DEMOGRAPHIC CORRELATES OF AGING

The combined effect of falling and mortality, resulting in higher longevity within the demographic transition is the basic correlate of population aging. For instance, falling fertility reduces the proportion of young adult transiting into higher adult population even in the of face drastic drop in birth rate. This poses increasing burden on cost of the population.

This increasing life expectancy is likely to increase the average age of the population and the proportion of older persons, which is expected to increase geometrically. Population aging in Nigeria is the resultant effect of both fertility and mortality declines, though the former plays higher role.

Migration policy is another very important correlate, as the age group of both the immigrants and emigrants influences the age pyramid to a lesser extent from fertility and mortality.

PERSPECTIVES ON AGING

Rethinking Retirement

Research is often determined by social policy, labour markets, economic system, family dynamics as well as personal conviction. In effect, retirement research is highly dynamic, as it is often a long awaited stage of the life course. Modern societies is renowned for bureaucratic standardization of job entries and exit, as such is determined by demographic traits like age, gender, education, skill among others.

During the last decade in Nigeria, government retirement policies (pension acts of 2004, 2007 and 2014), industrial retirement programs (private and public contributory pension scheme), and personal retirement expectation adapted to an age-structured approach to employment. This approach tilt employment towards younger ages (mostly 21-25 years) leading to large spate of age alteration among job seeking Nigerians and leading to increasing age of retirement especially in higher educational institutions and the judiciary as well as the military. Of major interest is that the pension act of 2014 allows anyone who had spent a minimum of ten consecutive service years as capable of enjoying pension. And ultimately made academics in professorial cadres to enjoy 70 years retirement age as well as for the judges in courts.

Regardless of whether one thinks of retirement as a status, a transition, age of retirement, or a state of the life course, classifying people as retired (or in the process of retiring) is a problematic categorization. However the use of labour force status (70 years for professors and 65 for others) has been a favoured strategy, since it allows a consistent basis for historical and international comparisons of aggregate trends, however hardly capture the complexities of individual transitional behaviour (Handy, 2011). Recent trends however in some European countries like France, the Holland and Germany, portends a replacement of labour force status with employment status. Here, Government used unemployment or disability programs to replace wages for those too young for "early" retirement benefits making the distinction programmatic rather than behavioural (Guillemard and Rein, 1993). For instance, the 2009 ASUU/FGN Agreement state inter alia that any full Professor, who retires ten years after his professorship confirmation is entitled to full pension (His basic salary is his take home per month). Assuming Prof. Akalamagbo's professorship was attained at the age of 40 years, he is entitled to his full pension cum monthly basic salary if he retires at the age of 50 years. This amount to "early" retirement and a period of 20 years unaccounted for.

Thus:

x= No of years in services

y = Retirement age

a = age at attaining full professorship

b = wasted years

s = post professorship years (minimum of 10 years)

$$y = (a^{+\frac{s}{x}+b})$$

(Formula Developed by Wahab, 2018)

The above ultimately create a distinct state of life course and the size of retired population grew, retirement research tends to answer four prongs questions. The first set of questions focused on the behavioral patterns: when do I retire?

Why do I retire when I do? What do I do after retirement? The second set of questions tackled issues of inequality: who are able to return when they wanted to, and who worked longer or

retired earlier than planned? How was the financial security of retirement affected by one's place in the occupational structure? By one's ethnic group, gender, marital status, health or work history? To what extent did inequality increase, decrease or remain the same after retirement? The third set of questions dealt with issues of adjustment: Were retirees happy with their lives? Did health (both physical and mental) improve or deteriorate because of retirement? How did retirement affect marriage and marital status/satisfaction? A fourth and final set of questions addressed how retirement and retirement transition differed across countries? What role did firms or unions play in orchestrating these transitions? How were different retirement regime reflected in the security of older population (Hardy, 2011).

Projected Supports From Chilldren

Wahab (2009) asserted that old age security provided rationale for child bearing among people in the rural area than in the urban area. Therefore, such rationale cannot be ignored in both desired and achieved fertility levels. Caldwell (1976) posits that child rearing and replacement effects may be especially in developing countries, where child mortality is somewhat high, with limited credit markets and societal institutions for old age support exist. However, Entwhistle and Winegarden, (1984) affirmed that fertility varies with level and breath of publicly provided old age support. Furthermore, more research needed to be done to understand whether this gradual shift from family-based old-age support in developing countries and how much the growing availability of substitutes for old-age security affects the decline in the demand for children.

Social Supports

A commonly used indicator for social support is the dependency ratio, which is the ratio between older individuals and working age individuals. Therefore, the older dependency ratio (ODR) is defined as the number of individuals at 65 and above years of age per 100 individuals 20- 64 years of age. The ODR is very low in Nigeria, yet much social support is urgently required to meet the rising needs of old people. However, the aging of "baby boom" generations in Nigeria, which refers to aging of large cohorts of children born after the Nigerian civil war in 1970is a major setback to efficacious social support system.

There is also the rise of "anti-aging technologies" – such as memory enhancing drugs to high-tech joint replacement to facial make up and healthier lifestyles have not merely increased longevity but have also made old age healthier.

Another measure is the economic support ratio, this is the ratio of the productive population to the consuming population. This is often calculated using weight to adjust for age-variation in the labour force participation rates and productivity of the working age population. The consuming population is constructed using weights to adjust for age-variation in material "needs". For the productive population, the labour force unadjusted for age-variation in productivity, for the consuming population, we count children age 0 – 14 as 0.5 and all adults.

To summarize:

1. Child dependency ratio: population (0-14)/ population (15-64)
2. Older age dependency ratio: population (65+)/ population (15-64)
3. Total dependency ratio: population (0-14)+ population (65+)/ population (15-64)
4. Economic support ratio: (Total labour force)/(0.5 pop (0-14)+pop (15+1)

Financial Issues

Individual and population aging has several implications of pension and social security system. There is massive effect on pay-as-you-go (PAYG) pension

system, as there is likely to be potential increase in the number of beneficiaries, while the number of contributors may decrease. This will impact negatively on the proposed five thousand Hnaira monthly stipend for vulnerable Nigerians, as the number will increase. There is also the likelihood of governance crisis with the existing private – public contributory pension scheme.

POPULATION AGING AND ECONOMIC INEQUALITY

Longer life has its own effect on inequality through changes in life cycle (Lee and Goldstein, 2003). The three aspects of population aging as it affect economic inequality are: decline in population growth from fertility decline, accompanying shift to older age structures and increases in longevity. For instance, there is fewer or no studies on the effects of longer life and lower fertility on inheritances. Other intervening variables of population aging and economic inequality are differential fertility, international migration, and inter-generational transfer among others.

The Solow model shows how slower population growth with constant savings can lead to capital accumulation and higher living standards. Picketty makes a further argument that higher capital intensity is associated with higher levels of inequality, and Bloom (2001) argued that the demographic dividend in savings that accompanies the demographic transition will come to an end as population age, this has major consequences for economic inequality. Although, rising longevity goes with life cycle saving and ultimately capital formation.

Remile (2011) also x-rayed multigenerational families response to economic shocks and transition into and out of financial self-sufficiency that are experienced by one or more family members. The types, timing and extent of support exchanges vary widely, as they get moderated by structural ambivalent expectations and norms that influence family decision-making regarding the distribution of private resources across generations (Eggebeh and Hogan, 1990; Rossi and Rossi, 1990).

In Nigeria, it is settled how and when midlife adults should provide assistance to children during the transition to adulthood or to aging parents with reduced

financial resources. In essence, the society rely more on middle generation to support ascendant and descendant family members in need (Schoeni and Ross, 2005; Hooyan and Gonyea, 1995; Wahab, 2012).

The economic cost of such supports are rarely calculated in GDP per capita income and intergenerational support system. Old age comes with financial reliance or financial insufficiency, as assistance inform of daily living expenses, accommodation among others are mostly provided by few middle age or economically active population. This can create a more deteriorating economic burden on struggling working population. In effect, the working population (broadly defined as 40-65) are forced to adapt to what Remile (2011) called financial "midlife squeeze" that involves the conflicting responsibilities of (1) preparing for its future financial self-sufficiency via retirement savings (2) providing support for ascendant generation members who experience declines in their financial self-sufficiency; and/or (3) assisting descendant generation members who have not yet gainful financial self-sufficiency themselves (Settersten, 2007; Soldo , 1996; Cheal , 1983).

The most common explanation for intergenerational financial transfer is that they offer assurances for family members' financial self- sufficiency and overall well- being via a private safety net (Kohli & Kunnemund, 2003; Eggebeen & Hogan, 1990; Eggebeen & Davey, 1998). Such material resources can flow in two directions across generations either "upward'' to older family members or 'downward '' to descendants (Soldo & Hill, 1993). Finger et al (2011) found that middle aged adults were more likely to provide financial assistance to elderly parents who experienced crises or to parents with functional disabilities rather than to help them meet every day needs, suggesting contingency based support. Wahab (2017) asserts that monetary transfers to address the transition out of financial self- sufficiency are common in Nigeria due to the following reasons: (i) Few adults remain relatively healthy into old age and are unable to provide sufficient care for themselves with increased disability and greater caregiving needs couple with industrialization and urbanisation (ii) The average life expectancy at birth in Nigeria is around 55years, this is rather low (iii) In our age graded social

system, elderly adults are unable to access annuities or public pension except the very few opportune to have worked in big government parastatals. This does not allow elderly persons to have financial self-sufficiency beyond age 60.

iv. The caregiving literature has dominated research on intergenerational supports to elderly adult as many middle-aged adults who help parents may be using time and co-residence as their 'currencies of choice' while providing financial transfer in extreme cases.

2014 PENSION ACT AND RETIREES' WELLBEING

This current act has the capacity and capability to have impact on private family financial resources over the long term that put current middle and retirement age individual of risk to remain financially independent into their later years. This pension reform Act, 2014 repealed the 2004 pension reform Act, No2 with the objective of improving the uniform contributory pension scheme, and the retirement benefits in the public and private sectors of the Nigerian economy. Persons in the Armed forces, intelligence and secret services continue to be exempted from this contributory pension scheme.

The Act makes it obligatory for employers in the private sector of the economy, with fifteen (15) or more employees to register and make contributions to the pension contributory schemes. The monthly rate of contributions is now a minimum of ten percent (10% of each employee's monthly emolument to be contributed by the employers, and minimum of eight percent (8%) of each employee's monthly emolument to be contributed by each employee. Employers and employees are allowed to increase their pension contribution beyond the minimum rate prescribed under this law, provided such contribution shall not be less than twenty percent (20%) of the employee's total monthly emolument. Economics experts have however posited that this increment will only further increase the cost of doing business and discourage new employment.

Also, due to the average life expectancy of Nigeria in Nigeria being less than from 55 years, experts have seriously questioned the propriety of the

retirement age of 60 years, as stated in the acts or even the 70 years retirement age for professors.

As the average life expectancy of Nigeria moves toward 55 years, there is now need for increased interest in the mature market, as in older consumers. Macro-level economics of aging focus on retirement saving and policy, labour market behavior, sustainability of existing retirement benefits and relationship of health and economic circumstances. Population aging would lead to the development and marketing of products for older persons (Coulmas, 2008). Even such business opportunities are profit oriented, they still provide services and products to meet the needs of the growing population of older person consumers. In essence, population aging and economic growth are not mutually exclusive but complementary in seeking to better the lives of older persons (Wessel, 2011).

CONCLUSION

The need for a comparative demography of aging that would seek to identify the differentials in rural and urban older persons as well as socio-demographic profiles of the older person was the standing point. Demography of aging should link demographic and economic data for better appreciation of its tools and paradigms. Family studies should rethink with demographers of aging the impact of changing family structure and immigration on care of older persons.

Finally, multi-disciplinary research organized by topic will be more productive than research organized by scientific discipline, such that there would be linkage between social, economic, biology, medical, psychology and environmental study of demography of aging.

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