Variation in cognitive functioning as a refined approach to comparing aging across countries

Vegard Skirbekk^{a,b,1}, Elke Loichinger^{a,b,c}, and Daniela Weber^{a,b}

^aWorld Population Program, International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, 2361 Laxenburg, Austria; ^bWittgenstein Centre for Demography and Global Human Capital, 1090 Vienna, Austria; and ^cResearch Institute Human Capital and Development, Vienna University of Economics and Business, 1090 Vienna. Austria

Edited* by Joel E. Cohen, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY, and approved November 14, 2011 (received for review July 28, 2011)

Comparing the burden of aging across countries hinges on the availability of valid and comparable indicators. The Old Age Dependency Ratio allows only a limited assessment of the challenges of aging, because it does not include information on any individual characteristics except age itself. Existing alternative indicators based on health or economic activity suffer from measurement and comparability problems. We propose an indicator based on age variation in cognitive functioning. We use newly released data from standardized tests of seniors' cognitive abilities for countries from different world regions. In the wake of long-term advances in countries' industrial composition, and technological advances, the ability to handle new job procedures is now of high and growing importance, which increases the importance of cognition for work performance over time. In several countries with older populations, we find better cognitive performance on the part of populations aged 50+ than in countries with chronologically younger populations. This variation in cognitive functioning levels may be explained by the fact that seniors in some regions of the world experienced better conditions during childhood and adult life, including nutrition, duration and quality of schooling, lower exposure to disease, and physical and social activity patterns. Because of the slow process of cohort replacement, those countries whose seniors already have higher cognitive levels today are likely to continue to be at an advantage for several decades to come.

he world population is growing older (1, 2). Comparisons of the burden of aging across countries hinge on the availability of valid and comparable indicators. Demographic indicators like the old-age dependency ratio and median age are widely used to characterize and rank how old countries are. Based on these measures, the populations of Germany, the United States, and Japan are much older than those of India, China, or Mexico. However, the fact that these indicators are exclusively based on chronological age distributions limits their usefulness in terms of drawing conclusions about the consequences of and possible responses to population aging. Alternative approaches to comparing the extent of aging across countries are based on subjective health, life expectancy, and economic activity (3–5). These studies show that different countries can be considered to be the oldest in the world depending on how aging indicators are defined. Such measures, however, can be influenced by culture- and nation-specific interpretations of health level and disability and by business cycle fluctuations.

In contrast to existing studies, we here compare the extent of aging across nations according to age variation in cognitive abilities. Recently released surveys allow us to compare country-level variation in seniors' cognitive functioning across populations with younger and older age distributions.

Studies have found that cognitive ability levels predict individual productivity better than any other observable individual characteristics and that they are increasingly relevant for labor market performance (6–10). This finding applies to a variety of countries and settings, including poorer countries and rural settings (11, 12). In the wake of long-term advances in countries' industrial composition and technological advances, the ability to handle new job procedures is now of high and growing importance, which increases the importance of cognition over time (7, 13).

The growing importance of seniors for the labor market and the fact that certain cognitive abilities decline considerably during late adult ages are the reasons why we focus our study on the population that is 50 y and older (14–18). The length of time for which individuals can retain high cognitive performance will influence the age until which they can potentially stay active in the labor market. We use standardized questions based on representative surveys from different world regions. These international comparable surveys of seniors include English Longitudinal Study of Aging (ELSA), Health and Retirement Study (HRS), World Health Organization (WHO) Study on global AGEing and adult health (SAGE), and Survey of Health, Aging and Retirement in Europe (SHARE), which together allow us to cover almost one-half (45.5%) of the world population (see SI Materials and Methods for more details). These surveys include a measure of cognitive ability that is operationalized comparably across all surveys, namely, immediate recall of a certain number of given words, which is a measure of short-term memory (19). Other variables that measure cognitive abilities, like delayed word recall or fluency, are either not included in every survey or not measured in a comparable way. Analysis for countries where these measures can be compared corroborates the results we get for immediate word recall (see Figs. S1 and S2, Tables S1 and S2, and SI Results for more details). This study compares seniors' age variation in cognitive abilities across countries from both developed and emerging economies by using results from standardized testing procedures. The inclusion of seniors from world regions with chronologically younger populations has become possible only recently with the release of SAGE.

Immediate recall has been shown to be important for a variety of outcomes, ranging from financial decisionmaking to the risk of developing dementia (20–23). Moreover, technological advances and changes in working procedures imply that the importance of the ability to learn and remember is increasing (24). Employers are particularly concerned that their employees are able to learn new work procedures and process new information (25), which also suggests that employers view the ability to immediately recall information as advantageous to labor market performance.

Results

Fig. 1 shows the age variation in immediate recall across countries and country regions. It depicts the proportion of words (out of 10 read out nouns) which the respondents are able to recall within 1 min (18 countries) and 2 min (UK and the US; 95% of

Author contributions: V.S. designed research; E.L. and D.W. prepared and analyzed data; and V.S., E.L., and D.W. wrote the paper.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10. 1073/pnas.1112173109/-/DCSupplemental.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

^{*}This Direct Submission article had a prearranged editor.

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: skirbekk@iiasa.ac.at.

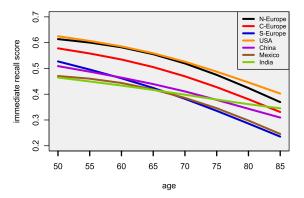


Fig. 1. Mean age-group–specific immediate recall scores (values between 0 and 1, where a score of 0.4 means being able to recall 40% of the given words). Curves are smoothed by using spline interpolations. Logistic regression to test for significant age-related decline, significance levels P < 0.001. Analysis of variance to test for differences between countries, significance levels P < 0.01.

the US participants completed the task within 1 min. See *SI Materials and Methods* for more details). In Table 1 summary statistics for all used variables of our dataset are provided.

The findings highlight a statistically significant age-related decline in all countries within the 50–85 age interval. Immediate recall age trajectories for northern and continental European countries and the United States run parallel to those of southern Europe, Mexico, and China, whereas the decline in India proceeds at a much slower pace. Our findings show statistically significant differences in the levels of cognitive performance between countries. Thus, seniors in the United States and northern and continental European countries have the highest immediate recall ability, whereas their peers in China, India, Mexico, and southern Europe perform worse.

To take the observed differences in cognitive functioning of seniors into account when comparing aging across countries, we propose an additional indicator that focuses on cognition and demographic change: cognition-adjusted dependency ratio (CADR). For this measure, the denominator is composed of everyone who is 15 to 49 y old and the 50+ population (no upper age bound) with good cognitive functioning (approximated by those who are able to recall at least one-half of the words in the test). The numerator consists of the number of persons aged 50+ who recall fewer than one-half the words in the test.

Our aging indicator is presented and compared with the usual old-age dependency ratio (OADR), which is defined as the ratio of the number of persons aged 65+ to the number of persons between the ages of 15 and 64, in Table 2. The rank ordering of the different countries and regions changes as we apply the alternative aging indicator: Mexico, India, and China do less well compared with the rank order based on the OADR, whereas the United States and continental and northern Europe do better.

This result implies that although continental European countries have a larger population share above the age of 65 than China, their lower CADR would suggest that these countries are effectively "younger." That is, they have a lower share of seniors with poor cognitive performance.

Discussion

One potential source of explanation for the international variation in seniors' cognitive functioning levels are life-course differences among the cohorts we consider. Present-day seniors in different countries have varying experiences with respect to a large number of influences, including their average length and quality of schooling, nutrition (prenatal, early life, and adult), exposure to famines, disease, and pollutants, physical and social activity patterns, and whether working conditions have been stimulating or detrimental to cognitive performance (26–37).

An increase in cognitive performance among successive cohorts describes a phenomenon that has been observed in many countries for an extended period (38–40). In the United States, such evidence began with comparisons of test performances of conscripts from World War I and World War II, with continued cognitive improvements having been documented for most of the 20th century. Successive cohorts in western countries have been shown to generally perform better at cognitive tests for long periods, whereas in other countries, cohort improvements have only been documented for recent cohorts. The likely later onset of cognitive improvement would follow the observed delayed onset of drivers of cognitive improvements, including mortality decline, universal education, improved nutrition, and better economic conditions (40–44).

In some countries, particularly in India, the cohorts presently 50 y and older have grown up during periods of widespread poverty and deprivation and where mortality levels were high, which could lower the overall levels of cognition among the cohorts presently old (41, 45). At the same time, large socio-economic mortality differentials within a population could imply that the population is positively selected at a more advanced age. Given that those with higher cognitive performance live longer,

Table 1. Summary statistics of the survey subsets

	HRS	SAGE			SHARE (Northern Europe)	SHARE (Continental Europe)	SHARE (Southern Europe)
Measurements	United States	China	India	Mexico	Denmark, England, Ireland, Sweden	Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland	Greece, Italy, Spain
Year	2006/07	2007–2009	2007–2009	2007–2009	2006/07	2006/07	2006/07
Sample size	17,995	13,367	7,150	2,306	4,736	14,948	6,153
Females, %	58.3	53.1	49.4	60.5	53.4	55.2	54.6
Birth cohorts	1901–1956	1910–1959	1909–1957	1904–1959	1907-1957	1903-1957	1905-1957
None of the words recalled, %	0.7	1.3	1.0	2.8	0.4	1.9	2.9
All words immediately recalled, %	0.7	0.4	0	0	0.9	0.4	0.5

Table 2. Different measures for the burden of aging

	Marik (ratio)		
Country/group	CADR	OADR	
United States of America	1 (0.10)	4 (0.19)	
Northern Europe (Denmark, England, Ireland, Sweden)	2 (0.12)	5 (0.24)	
India	3 (0.14)	1 (0.07)	
Mexico	3 (0.14)	2 (0.09)	
China	5 (0.15)	3 (0.12)	
Continental Europe (Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland)	6 (0.18)	6 (0.25)	
Southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Spain)	7 (0.32)	7 (0.27)	

Source: Population data for the year 2005 from UN (2009) and for England for the year 2005 from the Office for National Statistics (2010); survey data from HRS, SAGE, and SHARE.

this could entail a "flatter" age-cognition curve (46, 47), such as for India (48–50).

A few studies suggest that there has been a leveling off and reversal in cognitive increases among recent generations of younger men in some countries; however, it will take several decades until these cohorts attain senior age (51, 52).

Education has been identified as significantly raising levels of cognitive functioning, including memory (16, 53, 54). The countries in our study with better cognitive functioning levels are also the countries with higher educational attainment. Northern Europeans and Americans have globally the highest educational attainment among their 50+ population, whereas education levels are much lower in the Chinese and Mexican senior populations. Epidemiological research has identified low educational attainment as an important risk factor for low cognitive functioning and Alzheimer's disease (55, 56). Education is related to better cognitive performance in late life, and researchers relate the effect to occupational complexity and the acquisition of a lifelong ability to sustain attention and conceptualize problems. Although it is uncertain whether education affects the rate of decline (57), it can affect the cognitive level for all age groups (53, 54). Being mentally active, through courses and cognitive training, has been shown to improve cognitive functioning among older people (33, 58–60). Education may increase the synaptic density in the neocortical association cortex and, therefore, delay cognitive decline and dementia by several years (61). At the same time, lower childhood intelligence in early life appears to be a reliable proxy for lower cognitive ability later in life (62–64).

Later born cohorts with higher cognitive functioning will eventually replace older cohorts with poorer cognitive performance. If this trend continues, cognitive performance is likely to improve along cohort lines at senior adult ages (65). In Mexico, where time series data allow comparison of successive cohorts, we find that individuals of the 1941-45 cohorts at age 60 were able to remember on average 4.2 words, whereas those born 1946–50 were able to recall 5.1 words at the same age. The same holds for England's 60-y-olds: Here, we find an increase from 6.0 to 6.3 recalled words for the 1941–45 relative to the 1946–50 cohorts. Overall, these developments suggest that there will be a universal increase in cognitive functioning among seniors in the coming decades. However, as cohort replacement is a slow process, the countries whose seniors have higher cognitive levels today are likely to continue to have an advantage for several decades ahead.

Pank (ratio)

Age-related norms (such as at which age a person is regarded as being "old") can vary by countries and cultures (66, 67). They may be influenced by age-related laws and regulations, including official retirement ages, which vary significantly between countries (68). Retiring at older ages can imply that one stays mentally active until higher ages, which could improve the level of cognitive functioning until higher ages (69).

Conclusion

The current study's shift in focus from chronological age distributions to actual cognitive functioning at older ages leads to a relevant additional possibility to compare aging across countries. This shift in perspective is crucial because it changes focus from predictable changes in the demographic age structure toward the importance of improving and maintaining cognitive abilities. Because the adjustment for aging requires long-term investments and changes in training policies and lifestyles, it is essential to implement policies and efforts that prepare societies for an older population by maintaining cognitive abilities throughout the life cycle (70, 71).

The degree to which demographic aging translates into societal challenges depends to a considerable extent on the age at which mental functioning becomes significantly impaired. Technological improvements increasingly allow seniors to participate longer in the working life (72, 73). Normal aging, however, also tends to involve a decline in certain cognitive abilities, where technological innovations are less likely to be able to compensate to a significant extent for cognitive decline. At the same time, the need for cognitive fitness seems to continue to increase. Nations that are truly challenged by aging may be those where the cognitive performance among their seniors is poor; not those who have chronologically older age structures.

Materials and Methods

A growing number of surveys are focusing on the elderly (for an overview of selected cross-national and single-country databases, see ref. 1). However,

Table 3. Overview of all used datasets

Dataset	Country/region	Year	Sample size
ELSA (English Longitudinal Study of Aging)	England	2006/07	9,771
HRS (Health and Retirement Study)	United States	2006/07	18,469
MHAS (Mexican Health and Aging Study)	Mexico	2003	13,704
SAGE (WHO Study on global Aging and adult health)	China, India, Mexico	2007/09	32,696
SHARE (Survey of Health, Aging and Retirement in Europe)	Europe	2006/07	26,515

the number of surveys that contain the information we need for our analysis is limited (Table 3). The main reasons for excluding data sources are (i) The survey only includes people above 60 or 65, which is higher than our lower age bound of 50 y and (ii) the measure for cognitive ability is not included in the survey or not comparable to our measure of word recall.

Data Sources and Variables. ELSA, representative for the population aged 50+ of England, consists of four waves (2002-2009) (74). HRS is representative for the 50+ population of the United States. It started 1992 and was conducted every year until 1996. Thereafter it was done only every other year. So far, 11 waves are available. For our purpose we took the RAND HRS dataset, a user-friendly subset of HRS (75). SHARE is a European survey that is representative of the participating countries' population aged 50+. The first survey was conducted in 11 countries in 2004/2005. Three more countries were added for the second wave in 2006/07. We divided the individual country files of SHARE into three regional datasets: continental (Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland, and Switzerland), southern (Greece, Italy, and Spain) and northern Europe (Denmark, Sweden, and Ireland) (76). Mexican Health and Aging Study (MHAS) consists of two waves. The baseline survey was conducted in 2001, the follow-up in 2003. The survey population is representative of Mexicans aged 50+ (77). SAGE was initiated by WHO to collect longitudinal information on health and well-being of adults (18+ with an emphasis on 50+). We use this data for China, India, and Mexico (78).

ELSA is part of the Northern European country group. All "don't know" and "refused" answers are coded as missing in all surveys. For cross-country comparison we use the 2006/07 waves to compare cognitive performance by age and country/region for a similar period. MHAS was only used for obtaining cohort differences in cognitive functioning. All provided results are gained by including the provided cross-sectional individual sample weights or individual sample weights for longitudinal investigations.

CADR. As described above, we introduce CADR, which is formally defined by the following equation.

- 1. United Nations (2010) World Population Ageing 2009 (United Nations, New York).
- Kapteyn A (2010) What can we learn from (and about) global aging? Demography 47 (Suppl):S191–S209.
- Sanderson WC, Scherbov S (2005) Average remaining lifetimes can increase as human populations age. Nature 435:811–813.
- 4. Vaupel JW, Loichinger E (2006) Redistributing work in aging Europe. *Science* 312: 1911–1913.
- Sanderson WC, Scherbov S (2010) Demography. Remeasuring aging. Science 329: 1287–1288.
- Schmidt FL, Hunter J (2004) General mental ability in the world of work: Occupational attainment and job performance. J Pers Soc Psychol 86:162–173.
- 7. Spitz-Oener A (2006) Technical change, job tasks, and rising educational demands: Looking outside the wage structure. *J Labor Econ* 24:235–270.
- 8. Gatewood RD (2000) Human Resource Selection (Thomson Learning, Mason, OH), 5th
- Scott JC, Reynolds DH (2010) The Handbook of Workplace Assessment: Selecting and Developing Organizational Talent (Wiley, Hoboken, NJ).
- 10. Neisser U (1997) Rising scores on intelligence tests. Am Sci 85:440-447.
- Behrman JR, Ross D, Sabot R (2008) Improving quality versus increasing the quantity of schooling: Estimates of rates of return from rural Pakistan. J Dev Econ 85:94–104.
- Tansel A (1994) Wage employment, earnings and returns to schooling for men and women in Turkey. Econ Educ Rev 13:305–320.
- Bekman E, Bound J, Machin S (1998) Implications of skill-biased technological change: International evidence. Q J Econ 113:1245–1279.
- Prull MW, Gabrieli JDE, Bunge SA (2000) Age-related changes in memory: A cognitive neuroscience perspective. Handbook of Aging and Cognition, eds Craik FIM, Salthouse TA (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, NJ), pp 91–153.
- Souchay C, Isingrini M, Espagnet L (2000) Aging, episodic memory feeling-of-knowing, and frontal functioning. *Neuropsychology* 14:299–309.
- Park DC, et al. (1996) Mediators of long-term memory performance across the life span. Psychol Aging 11:621–637.
- Maitland SB, Intrieri RC, Schaie KW, Willis SL (2000) Gender differences and changes in cognitive abilities across the adult life span. Aging, Neuropsychology, and Cognition 7:32–53.
- Anderson ND, Craik FIM (2000) Memory in the aging brain. The Oxford Handbook of Memory, eds Tulving E, Craik FIM (Oxford Univ Press, Oxford), pp 411–425.
- Old SR, Naveh-Benjamin M (2008) Age-related changes in memory Experimental approaches. Handbook of Cognitive Aging - Interdisciplinary Perspectives, eds Hofer SM, Alwin DF (SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA).
- Brækhus A, Øksengård AR, Engedal K, Laake K (1998) Subjective worsening of memory predicts dementia after three years. Nor Epidemiol 8:189–194.
- Fein G, McGillivray S, Finn P (2007) Older adults make less advantageous decisions than younger adults: Cognitive and psychological correlates. J Int Neuropsychol Soc 13:480–489.

$$CADR = \frac{|\{x \in P | (m_x < 0.5) \land (age_x \ge 50)\}|}{|\{x \in P | (15 \le age_x < 50\} \cup \{m_x \ge 0.5) \land (age_x \ge 50)\}|}$$

where m_x represents the memory score of person x, age_x represents the age of person x, and P is the population.

Trends in Cognitive Abilities. We use all four waves of ELSA and calculate the mean immediate recall score at age 60 for the cohorts born between 1941 and 1945 and the cohorts born between 1946 and 1950. MHAS data for 2001 and 2003 are combined with SAGE data for 2007/09, because both surveys are representative for the 50+ population in Mexico. The cohorts born between 1941 and 1945 and the cohorts born between 1946 and 1950 are analyzed in an analogous manner to ELSA.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We acknowledge the support of Victoria Schreitter and Gwen Fisher. This paper uses data from the WHO Study on global AGEing and adult health (SAGE) and SHARE release 2.3.0, as of November 13, 2009, SHARE data collection in 2004–2007 was primarily funded by the European Commission through its fifth and sixth framework programs by Project Numbers QLK6-CT-2001-00360; RII-CT-2006-062193; and CIT5-CT-2005-028857). Additional funding provided by US National Institute on Aging Grants U01 AG09740-1352, P01 AG005842, P01 AG08291, P30 AG12815, Y1-AG-4553-01, OGHA 04-064, and R21 AG025169 and by various national sources is gratefully acknowledged (see http://www.shareproject.org for a full list of funding institutions). The Health and Retirement Study is sponsored by National Institute on Aging Grant NIA U01AG009740 and is conducted by the University of Michigan. The English Longitudinal Study of Ageing was developed by a team of researchers based at University College London, the Institute of Fiscal Studies, and the National Centre for Social Research. The funding is provided by the National Institute on Aging in the United States (Grants 2RO1AG7644-01A1 and 2RO1AG017644) and a consortium of UK government departments coordinated by the Office for National Statistics. The developers and funders of ELSA and the Archive do not bear any responsibility for the analyses or interpretations presented here. We acknowledge support by a Starting Grant of the European Research Council, Grant Agreement 241003-COHORT.

- Panza F, et al. (2005) Current epidemiology of mild cognitive impairment and other predementia syndromes. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 13:633–644.
- O'Brien JT, et al. (1992) Do subjective memory complaints precede dementia? A threeyear follow-up of patients with supposed 'benign senescent forgetfulness'. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 7:481–486.
- 24. Machin S, Van Reenen J (1998) Technology and changes in skill structure: Evidence from seven OECD countries. *Q J Econ* 113:1215–1244.
- Munnell A, Sass SA, Soto M (2006) Employer Attitudes towards Older Workers: Survey Results (Center for Retirement Res, Chestnut Hill, MA).
- Erickson KI, et al. (2011) Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 108:3017–3022.
- Samir, KC et al. (2010) Projection of populations by level of educational attainment, age, and sex for 120 countries for 2005-2050. *Demogr Res* 22:383–472.
- Robertson A, et al., eds (2004) Food and health in Europe: A new basis for action.
 WHO Reg Publ Eur Ser (WHO Regional Office Europe, Copenhagen), No. 96.
- 29. Amarantos E, Martinez A, Dwyer J (2001) Nutrition and quality of life in older adults.

 J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 56:54-64.
- 30. Acemoglu D (2003) Patterns of skill premia. Rev Econ Stud 70:199-230.
- Black RE, et al.; Maternal and Child Undernutrition Study Group (2008) Maternal and child undernutrition: Global and regional exposures and health consequences. Lancet 371:243–260.
- Meijer WA, van Boxtel MPJ, Van Gerven PWM, van Hooren SAH, Jolles J (2009) Interaction effects of education and health status on cognitive change: A 6-year follow-up of the Maastricht Aging Study. Aging Ment Health 13:521–529.
- Ball K, et al. (2002) Advanced Cognitive Training for Independent and Vital Elderly Study Group (2002) Effects of cognitive training interventions with older adults: A randomized controlled trial. JAMA 288:2271–2281.
- Engelhardt H, Buber I, Skirbekk V, Prskawetz A (2010) Social involvement, behavioural risks and cognitive functioning among older people. Ageing Soc 30:779–809.
- 35. Lumey LH, Stein AD, Susser E (2011) Prenatal famine and adult health. *Annu Rev Public Health* 32:237–262.
- Rahu K, Rahu M, Pullmann H, Allik J (2010) Effect of birth weight, maternal education and prenatal smoking on offspring intelligence at school age. Early Hum Dev 86: 493–497.
- Broadberry SN (1997) Forging up, falling behind and catching up. A sectoral analysis
 of Anglo-American productivity differences, 1870-1990. Res Econ Hist 17:1–37.
- 38. Tuddenham RD (1948) Soldier intelligence in World Wars I and II. Am Psychol 3:54–56.
- 39. Flynn JR (1987) Massive IQ gains in 14 nations. What IQ tests really measure. *Psychol Bull* 101:171–191.
- Sacuiu S, et al. (2010) Secular changes in cognitive predictors of dementia and mortality in 70-year-olds. Neurology 75:779–785.
- United Nations (2011) World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision (United Nations, New York).

- 42. Maddison A (1995) Monitoring the World Economy 1820-1992 (Org Econ Coop Dev,
- 43. Lutz W, Goujon A Samir KC, Sanderson W (2007) Reconstruction of populations by age, sex and level of educational attainment for 120 countries for 1970–2000. Vienna Yearbook of Population Research 2007 (Verlag der Österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, Vienna), pp 193-235.
- 44. Uvin P (1994) The state of world hunger. Nutr Rev 52:151-161.
- Visaria PM (1969) Mortality and fertility in India, 1951-1961. Milbank Mem Fund Q 47: 91-116
- 46. Calvin CM, et al. (2011) Intelligence in youth and all-cause-mortality: Systematic review with meta-analysis. Intl J Epidemiol 40:626-644
- 47. Deary IJ, Weiss A, Batty GD (2010) Intelligence and personality as predictors of illness and death. Psychol Sci Public Interest 11:53-79.
- 48. Subramanian SV, et al. (2006) The mortality divide in India: The differential contributions of gender, caste, and standard of living across the life course. Am J Public Health 96:818-825
- 49. Saikia N, Ram F (2010) Determinants of adult mortality in India. Asian Population Studies 6:153-171.
- 50. Subramanian SV, Ackerson LK, Subramanyam MA, Siyaramakrishnan K (2008) Health inequalities in India: The axes of stratification. Brown J World Aff 14:127–138.
- 51. Teasdale TW, Owen DR (2005) A long-term rise and recent decline in intelligence test performance: The Flynn Effect in reverse. Pers Individ Dif 39:837-843.
- 52. Sundet JM, Barlaug DG, Torjussen TM (2004) The end of the Flynn effect?: A study of secular trends in mean intelligence test scores of Norwegian conscripts during half a century. Intelligence 32:349-362.
- 53. Ceci SJ (1991) How much does schooling influence general intelligence and its cognitive components? A reassessment of the evidence. Dev Psychol 27:703-722
- 54. Glymour MM. Kawachi I. Jencks CS. Berkman LF (2008) Does childhood schooling affect old age memory or mental status? Using state schooling laws as natural experiments. J Epidemiol Community Health 62:532-537.
- 55. Cullum S, et al. (2000) Decline across different domains of cognitive function in normal ageing: Results of a longitudinal population-based study using CAMCOG. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 15:853–862.
- 56. Launer LJ, et al. (1999) Rates and risk factors for dementia and Alzheimer's disease: Results from EURODEM pooled analyses. EURODEM Incidence Research Group and Work Groups, European Studies of Dementia, Neurology 52:78-84.
- 57. Van Dijk KRA, Van Gerven PWM, Van Boxtel MPJ, Van der Elst W, Jolles J (2008) No protective effects of education during normal cognitive aging: Results from the 6year follow-up of the Maastricht Aging Study. Psychol Aging 23:119-130.
- Schaie KW, Willis SL (1986) Can decline in adult intellectual functioning be reversed? Dev Psychol 22:223-232.
- 59. Le Carret N, Lafont S, Mayo W, Fabrigoule C (2003) The effect of education on cognitive performances and its implication for the constitution of the cognitive reserve. Dev Neuropsychol 23:317-337.

- 60. Bennett DA, et al. (2003) Education modifies the relation of AD pathology to level of cognitive function in older persons. Neurology 60:1909-1915.
- 61. Katzman R (1993) Education and the prevalence of dementia and Alzheimer's disease. Neurology 43:13-20
- 62. Whalley LJ, et al. (2000) Childhood mental ability and dementia. Neurology 55: 1455-1459.
- 63. Richards M, Shipley B, Fuhrer R, Wadsworth MEJ (2004) Cognitive ability in childhood
- and cognitive decline in mid-life: Longitudinal birth cohort study. BMJ 328:552-554. 64. Schooler C, Mulatu MS, Oates G (1999) The continuing effects of substantively com-
- plex work on the intellectual functioning of older workers. Psychol Aging 14:483-506. 65. Finkel D, Reynolds CA, McArdle JJ, Pedersen NL (2007) Cohort differences in trajectories of cognitive aging. J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci 62:286-294.
- 66. Liefbroer AC, Billari FC (2010) Bringing norms back in: A theoretical and empirical discussion of their importance for understanding demographic behaviour. Popul Space Place 16:287-305.
- 67. Van Dalen HP, Henkens K, Schippers J (2010) Productivity of older workers: Perceptions of employers and employees. Popul Dev Rev 36:309-330.
- 68. OECD (2006) Live longer, work longer. Ageing and Employment Policies (Org Econ Coop Dev, Paris).
- 69. Rohwedder S, Willis RJ (2010) Mental Retirement. J Econ Perspect 24:119-138.
- 70. D'Anci KE, Rosenberg IH (2010) B vitamins in the prevention of cognitive decline and vascular dementia. Preventive Nutrition: The Comprehensive Guide for Health Professionals, eds Bendich A, Deckelbaum RJ (Humana Press, Totowa, NJ), pp 325-334.
- 71. Williams JW, Plassman BL, Burke J, Holsinger T, Benjamin S, eds (2010) Preventing Alzheimer's Disease and Cognitive Decline (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, Rockville, MD), Publication No. 10-E005.
- 72. de Zwart BCH, Frings-Dresen MHW, van Dijk FJH (1995) Physical workload and the aging worker: A review of the literature. Int Arch Occup Environ Health 68:1-12.
- 73. Metter EJ, Conwit R, Tobin J, Fozard JL (1997) Age-associated loss of power and strength in the upper extremities in women and men. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 52: B267-B276
- 74. Scholes S, et al. (2009) Technical Report (Wave 3): Living in the 21st Century: Older People in England: The 2006 English Longitudinal Study of Ageing (National Centre for Social Research, London).
- 75. Health and Retirement Study (University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI). Available at http://hrsonline.isr.umich.edu/.
- 76. Börsch-Supan A, Hank K, Jürges H (2005) A new comprehensive and international view on ageing: Introducing the Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe. Eur J Ageing 2(4):245-253.
- 77. Mexican Health and Aging Study (University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia). Available at http://www.mhas.pop.upenn.edu/english/home.htm.
- 78. WHO Study on Global Ageing and Adult Health (SAGE) (WHO, Geneva). Available at http://www.who.int/healthinfo/systems/sage/en/index.html.