

The Present and Future Dementia Burden in China: Kinship-Based Projections and Global Comparisons

Kai Feng, Xi Song, and Hal Caswell

ABSTRACT China has the largest number of patients with dementia in the world, and the rate of growth is expected to escalate further as the population ages. The majority of dementia patients rely on their families for care and assistance. Using demographic models of kinship, we provide quantitative estimates of the burden of dementia, from 1990 up to 2050, by illustrating the number of kin accessible to dementia patients, the dementia prevalence among kinship networks, and the dependency ratio of kin with dementia to working-age kin without dementia. We then compare the estimates of dementia burden across 194 countries and territories, accounting for historical trends in, and future projections of, mortality, fertility, and dementia prevalence. Our findings suggest that, unlike in other aging societies, China's aging crisis is exacerbated by the fact that, in addition to the alarming rise in the number of older adults in need of care, the number of potential family caregivers is also dropping at an unprecedented pace. The increase in dementia dependency ratio is expected to exceed the increases in most other countries across East Asia, Western Europe, and the United States. These findings have important implications for understanding the evolution of care networks for older adults in China over time and from a cross-country comparative perspective.

KEYWORDS Aging • Dementia caregiving • Kinship • Mathematical demography • China

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease and related dementias (hereafter referred to as dementia) constitute an enormous challenge for patients, their caregivers and family members, and society as a whole. At a population level, numerous studies have documented the causes and consequences of dementia, its variation across time and place, and its growing impact on the economy and health care systems (Baumgart et al. 2015; Nichols et al. 2022; Pedroza et al. 2022). Dementia profoundly changes the lives of patients and those of their families and relatives (Schulz and Martire 2004). Those effects depend, among other things, on the structure of kinship networks: the numbers, age distributions, and social roles of the relatives of a person with dementia.

Following the framework developed by Freedman et al. (2024), we study how demographic transitions affect the dynamics of kinship structure and how structural

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changes in kinship networks influence dementia caregiving. Specifically, we estimate the dementia prevalence and the availability of potential caregivers for an *average* individual in the historical past and project these measures into the future. Our primary focus is on China, and we then contextualize the China case through a global comparison. China has the largest number of dementia patients in the world, and this number is expected to grow rapidly in the coming years owing to the unprecedented pace of population aging. The number of those living with dementia has increased more than fourfold in the past three decades, from 3.68 million in 1990 to 15.33 million in 2019, and this number is expected to triple to 45.54 million in 2050 (Nichols et al. 2022). Although a significant amount of research has documented the increased rate of dementia cases and the associated economic costs at the national level (Chan et al. 2013; Jia et al. 2020; Nichols et al. 2019; Sohn 2023), the familial implications of dementia in kinship networks have yet to be fully explored.

Of particular importance is the number of potential family caregivers available to individuals with dementia, as well as the number and relations of one's family members who may potentially experience dementia throughout their lifetime. Thus, the burden of dementia (and many other diseases) in China, and in rapidly aging populations worldwide, is fundamentally a kinship problem. The kinship network determines the number of potential family caregivers and how many families and relatives are affected by the occurrence of dementia among their kin. For example, an individual may, in young adulthood, have a grandmother with dementia, a parent with dementia in middle age, and a spouse or a sibling with dementia in their own older age. This age pattern may vary across population subgroups stratified by kin type, gender, race and ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and place of residence, and it will likely have significant consequences for social inequality (Alburez-Gutierrez et al. 2022; Chung and Hepburn 2018; Feng et al. 2024; Friedman et al. 2023; Jiang 1995; Song and Caswell 2022; Verdery and Margolis 2017; Z. Zhou et al. 2019). Although the availability of relatives is not the sole determinant of the provision of care (which also depends on the health care system, the costs and access to institutional care facilities, and the cultural norms of family responsibilities), all those factors must operate within the context of the kinship network. That network is crucial for both the care needs of older adults and the support of caregivers, as consistently emphasized in previous demographic analyses (Cheng et al. 2013; Cleary et al. 2022; Freedman et al. 2024; Reyes et al. 2021).

The expected kinship network of a focal individual is an outcome of the mortality and fertility schedules to which the population is subject. The recent development of kinship models allows us to analyze these demographic trends and predict how kinship structures might evolve (Caswell 2019; Caswell and Song 2021). We use the time-varying version of this kinship model to project kinship structure based on observed and projected changes in mortality and fertility schedules from 1950 to 2050. China's rapidly changing demography makes this time-varying approach particularly useful (Peng 2011; Wang 2011).

By applying the age-specific dementia prevalence rates to the age distributions of various kin types, we calculate the burden of dementia care for individuals. This burden varies depending on a person's age, their kin's ages, and their relatedness to different kin types. In general, older cohorts will face a greater burden than younger ones. We introduce an index called the dementia dependency ratio (DDR), which calculates the ratio of the number of kin with dementia to the number of kin without dementia who are potential caregivers. The DDR is an individual property. To

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evaluate the burden of dementia at the population level, we average the age-specific DDR over the age distribution of the population. After computing results for China, we compare the index across a wide range of countries.

Our results show that China will experience among the fastest growing dementia burdens in the world in the next three decades. In 2050, China's age-weighted DDR is projected to rise to approximately 18 times its 1990 level, marking one of the most rapid increases ever recorded, surpassed only by Singapore's expected climb of roughly 24 times. This trend is largely driven by rising numbers of dementia cases and shrinking kinship networks. Given China's immense population size and its relatively underdeveloped public health support system, the challenges faced by China will be substantially more formidable than those of many other countries. The results also underscore the need for future research to redirect its focus from merely the total count of dementia cases to a more comprehensive assessment of dementia burden from a demographic perspective. The kinship approach offers new insights into the economic and health care impacts of dementia in a rapidly aging context.

Background

Population Aging and Dementia in China

China's population is aging at an unprecedented rate. Its three-and-a-half-decade-long history of the One-Child Policy, along with its remarkable economic takeoff following the 1978 economic reforms, has led to a sustained fertility decline and a rapid increase in life expectancy (Cai and Feng 2021; Chen and Liu 2009; Wang 2011). This ongoing demographic transition will eventually turn China's population pyramid upside down. Even assuming, against the trend, a gradual and moderate recovery of fertility, the proportion of the population aged 65 years and above is expected to increase from 191 million in 2020 to 395 million in 2050, eventually accounting for 30.1% of the total population (United Nations 2022). This accelerated aging of the population will lead to substantial pressures on the fiscal capacity and the social welfare system in China. Cai et al. (2018) estimated that maintaining an average social welfare generosity at the 2014 level, public health spending will more than double and pension spending will more than triple from 2015 to 2050. Assuming that China manages to maintain its economy at the 2020 level, the spending on public health and pensions alone would consume as much as 82.8% of the government revenue by 2050. The impact that the COVID-19 pandemic has had on China's birth rate and economy would only precipitate the tipping point of the potential fiscal crisis.

The increasing prevalence of dementia is one of the greatest challenges facing China's aging population. China has the largest population of dementia patients (Jia et al. 2020), with many of them undiagnosed (Lang et al. 2017), and this number is expected to climb as the population ages. In 2017, dementia became the fifth leading cause of death in China, following stroke, ischemic heart disease, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and lung cancer (M. Zhou et al. 2019). There is no effective cure for dementia, and sufferers eventually require assistance as the disease progresses. The disease thus poses a heavy economic and health care burden on patients and their families. A 2015 survey of 81 representative hospitals, nursing homes, and care facilities across 30 provinces in China reported an average annual cost of dementia care

per patient of \$19,150, amounting to a national total of \$167.74 billion annually (Jia et al. 2018). Indirect costs, such as financial loss sustained by patients themselves or their informal caregivers, account for 51.9% of the total cost, while the direct medical costs (such as medication and hospitalization) and nonmedical costs (such as costs of transportation and health care equipment) account for 32.5% and 15.6%, respectively.

As the demand for dementia care rises, the traditional family structures that have long supported care for older adults in China are also undergoing significant changes. Despite the long history of preference for large families and intergenerational coresidence in China, the average household size has shrunk from 4.41 in 1982 to 3.44 in 2000 and to 2.62 in 2020 (China National Bureau of Statistics 2021). Moreover, with a total fertility rate of 1.3 in 2020, China now has one of the lowest fertility rates, similar to its East Asian neighbors (China National Bureau of Statistics 2021). The three-and-a-half-decade-long strict One-Child Policy and the changing fertility preferences have significantly altered the kinship network (Wang et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2016). Scholars have long warned that the One-Child Policy would significantly weaken family and kin structures in Chinese families, leading to the disappearance of many kin ties for the most affected generations (Bongaarts and Greenhalgh 1985). For example, an only child has no siblings, and the children of two only-child parents have no aunts or uncles. Additionally, a significant number of parents may be left without a surviving child in old age if their only child passes away prematurely.

These demographic shifts have profound implications for the future of caregiving in China. Microsimulation studies and formal demographic models have predicted an unavoidable decline in both family size and kin availability (Hammel et al. 1991; Jiang 1995; Verdery 2019; Yang 1992). Verdery (2019) showed that China has reached an era of peak family, in which the number of extended family members remains high but is projected to drop in the coming years. By 2050, two fifths of the population younger than 50 will be only children. The kinless population, defined as those without spouses or children, will reach around 25 million (Verdery 2019). Moreover, massive rural-to-urban migration has split families, as many adult children have migrated to metropolitan regions for better opportunities, leaving their older parents behind in rural villages (Liang 2016; Lin and Tang 2023; Wang and Mason 2007). The percentage of individuals over 65 living alone is expected to increase to 14% in rural areas and 11% in urban areas in 2050 (Zeng et al. 2008). Overall, the number of dementia cases is expected to rise as a result of population aging, at the same time that the number of available family caregivers, particularly those who are not in old age themselves, decreases.

The Demography of Dementia Caregiving

Family plays a key role in caring for older adults worldwide, especially those with dementia (Jia et al. 2020; Livingston et al. 2017; H. Wang et al. 2019). According to a large-scale survey from China, about 84.9% of dementia patients were cared for by family members, 8.3% lived alone, 4.9% received care from hired nannies, and only 2% were receiving formal care in nursing homes or hospitals (Jia et al. 2016). Several factors contribute to the low utilization of formal care in China. First, formal care provided by nursing homes or hospitals is often not covered by medical insurance, making it financially inaccessible for many families (Wang, Cheung et al.

2019). Second, dementia care services are often inadequate and fragmented. While home care in developed urban areas is supplemented by community-based services, such support is scarce in rural and underdeveloped regions, further restricting access to formal care (Quail et al. 2020). Furthermore, cultural norms rooted in filial piety also discourage families from using nursing homes, as it is seen as a departure from traditional caregiving (Chang et al. 2011). These intertwined factors collectively contribute to the limited use of formal care services and the enduring significance of family care within kinship networks in the context of dementia care in China.

Most people with dementia receive informal care at home primarily from their spouses and children (Wang, Xie et al. 2019). Using the China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS), Hu and Ma (2018) found that among those over 60 receiving informal care, 41.7% were cared for by a spouse only and 27.0% by children only. For those who were never married, divorced, separated, or widowed, 70.9% received care exclusively from children (Hu and Ma 2018). Caregiving expectations also remain strong even for those who do not currently require care. Among the general population of older adults, 60.3% expect long-term support from their children when needed, nearly double the rate in the United States (Cheng 2017). Extensive research from various contexts highlights that dementia caregiving places a significant strain on families, leading to physical, psychological, and emotional stress for caregivers (Brodaty and Donkin 2009; Chan 2011; Freedman et al. 2022; Ory et al. 1999; Patterson et al. 2023). This challenge is especially pronounced for caregivers in low- and middle-income countries such as China, where support systems, as well as knowledge and skills related to dementia care, are limited (Chan 2011; Wang, Xie et al. 2019). However, there is relatively little knowledge about the prevalence of dementia within kinship networks from a caregiver perspective, or the expected probability of having a family member with dementia based on an individual's age or other sociodemographic characteristics—information that is crucial for anticipating caregiving needs, guiding public health planning, and informing social policies to support family caregivers.

Although extended family members are not the primary caregivers for individuals with dementia, their role cannot be overlooked (Furstenberg 2020; Furstenberg et al. 2020). They often serve as important substitutes, stepping in when primary caregivers are unavailable or during emergencies (Reed et al. 2023; Sun 2014). According to CHARLS, 6.4% of old adults receiving informal care were cared for exclusively by relatives other than a spouse or children, while 12.3% received care from a combination of other relatives along with a spouse or children. In the absence of children or a spouse, extended family members can take on the primary caregiving role. Among single older adults who received informal care, 29.1% were cared for by other relatives (Hu and Ma 2018). The anticipated importance of extended family members grows as the rates of childlessness, unmarried individuals, and domestic and international migration continue to rise (Sun 2014; Verdery 2019; Z. Zhou et al. 2019). Furstenberg (2020) argued that kinship has been a “neglected topic” in recent decades, partly because of the lack of availability of data on patterns and the frequency of contact and exchanges among kin.

In this study, we address the question of how changing kinship networks and dementia prevalence combine to reshape the dementia burden landscape in China. We calculate both the expected burden experienced by an *average* individual and the potential availability of family caregivers. Our analyses span both past trends and future projections and consider both primary and extended kin. China presents a compelling

case not only because of its large and rapidly growing population of dementia patients but also because of the rapid demographic transitions resulting from family planning policies and economic development, which have fundamentally reshaped its kinship structure. We then situate China within a global context, demonstrating how its unique demographic changes have created a significant gap in dementia care demands. Before presenting our results in detail, we outline our analytic approach in the next section.

Projecting the Kinship Network and the Dementia Burden

Changes in kinship structures impact caregiving arrangements and the well-being of older adults (Freedman et al. 2024; Murphy 2010; Schulz and Eden 2016: chap. 3; Wachter 1997; Wolf 1994). These shifts in family dynamics play a pivotal role in determining how older adults receive care and support as they age. To analyze the dementia burden, formal demographic models offer a valuable framework for quantifying the implications of these changes in terms of kinship networks. These models leverage data on mortality, fertility, and other demographic rates to calculate and understand the dynamics of kinship. In the following we describe the analytic framework that characterizes the evolving landscape of caregiving for older adults.

The Kinship Network of Individuals

Notation

The following notation is used throughout this article. Matrices are denoted by uppercase bold characters (e.g., \mathbf{U}) and vectors by lowercase bold characters (e.g., \mathbf{a}). Vectors are column vectors by default; \mathbf{x}^T is the transpose of \mathbf{x} . The bold vector $\mathbf{1}$ is a vector of ones, and the matrix \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. When necessary, subscripts are used to denote the size of a vector or matrix; for example, \mathbf{I}_ω is an identity matrix of size $\omega \times \omega$. The notation $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ denotes the 1-norm of \mathbf{x} , that is, the sum of the absolute values of the entries of \mathbf{x} .

The matrix kinship model on which we rely has been presented in a series of papers, each of which extends the demographic processes that can be incorporated (Caswell 2019, 2020, 2022; Caswell et al. 2023; Caswell and Song 2021). Because we are interested in *changes* in kinship, beginning in the past and continuing into the (projected) future, our analysis is based on the version of the model that incorporates time-varying demographic rates.

The model describes the kinship network of an individual, referred to as Focal. The model treats each type of kin as a population. As Focal ages, her kinship network develops through the births and deaths of each type of kin. Our one-sex definitions of kin include mother, grandmother, great-grandmother, daughter, granddaughter, great-granddaughter, sisters, cousins, aunts, and nieces.

The age structure of each type of kin is projected using the matrix formulation of rates of survival and fertility. The population of any type of kin is subsidized; that is, new members of the population of one type of kin come not from the reproduction of those kin but from the reproduction of some other type of kin (e.g., new sisters of Focal arise not from the reproduction of her current sisters but from the reproduction of her mother).

Let $\mathbf{k}(x, t)$ denote the age distribution for a generic type of kin:

$$\mathbf{k}(x, t) = \text{kin of type } \mathbf{k} \text{ at age } x \text{ of Focal at time } t. \quad (1)$$

The kin vector is projected from time t to $t+1$ by a survival matrix \mathbf{U}_t and a fertility matrix \mathbf{F}_t , both of dimensions $\omega \times \omega$ (i.e., the number of age groups). The survival and fertility rates may vary with time. For example, with three age classes, so that $\omega = 3$, we have

$$\mathbf{U}_t = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p_{1t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p_{2t} & [p_{3t}] \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{F}_t = \begin{pmatrix} f_{1t} & f_{2t} & f_{3t} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

where p_{it} is the survival probability and f_{it} is the fertility rate of age class i at time t .¹

The kin at age $x+1$ of Focal at time $t+1$ include the survivors of the kin of age x at time t . These survivors are obtained by multiplying the age distribution $\mathbf{k}(x, t)$ by the survival matrix \mathbf{U}_t . New individuals are produced according to a recruitment vector $\beta(x, t)$ such that

$$\mathbf{k}(x+1, t+1) = \mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{k}(x, t) + \beta(x, t), \quad x = 0, \dots, \omega, t = 0, \dots, T. \quad (3)$$

The recruitment vector $\beta(x, t)$ has one of two forms. For some kin (e.g., older sisters of Focal), there is no recruitment of new members after the birth of Focal, so that

$$\beta(x, t) = 0. \quad (4)$$

For some types of kin,

$$\beta(x, t) = \mathbf{F}_t \mathbf{k}^*(x, t), \quad (5)$$

which applies the fertility at time t to the age structure vector of the kin \mathbf{k}^* that provides the subsidy. For example, younger sisters (**n**) of Focal are produced by reproduction of the mothers (**d**) of Focal, so

$$\mathbf{n}(x+1, t+1) = \mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{n}(x, t) + \mathbf{F}_t \mathbf{d}(x, t). \quad (6)$$

The model must specify a set of two boundary conditions. One gives the kinship network of Focal, over all ages, at the earliest time point in the projection. The other specifies the kinship network of Focal at her birth over all time points. For some kin the latter boundary condition is zero (e.g., Focal can have no children at birth), and for others it is not (e.g., Focal may have older sisters at birth). For details on these conditions, see Caswell and Song (2021).

Selection of Kin Types

Defining what constitutes a kinship network is challenging because of the growing diversity of family structures and cultural variations (Furstenberg 2020; Goody 1996).

¹ The optional (ω, ω) cell in \mathbf{U}_t describes an open final age interval.

While the matrix kinship model can be extended to include any chosen set of kin types, we limit our analysis to those blood-related ties that are both the most common and most likely to be present for the focal individual during her lifetime. This includes first-degree kin (children and parents), second-degree kin (grandchildren, grandparents, and siblings), and third-degree kin (great-grandchildren, great-grandparents, aunts, uncles, nieces, and nephews). As will become clearer in the Results, we present the kin structure and dementia prevalence within kinship networks by kin type. In constructing the dementia dependency ratio, we provide two methods of aggregation: one aggregating all the common kin types mentioned above and another aggregating only parents and their children (including the focal individual).

Approximating Male and Female Kin

The vector $\mathbf{k}(x, t)$ gives the age structure of female kin in maternal lines of descent. To fully compute the age distributions of both male and female kin through all lines of descent would require a two-sex model incorporating both male and female mortality and fertility schedules (Caswell 2022). However, approximate results for both sexes can be obtained by treating males and females as identical and multiplying the kin vectors $\mathbf{k}(x, t)$ by a set of factors suggested by Goodman et al. (1974), called the “GKP factors” by Caswell (2022). In this approximation, daughters are multiplied by 2 to give children, granddaughters are multiplied by 4 to give grandchildren, mothers are multiplied by 2 to give parents, grandmothers are multiplied by 4 to give grandparents, sisters are multiplied by 2 to give siblings, and so on. In the absence of full sets of male and female vital rates, the GKP factors offer the best alternative for approximating the full kin counts. Prior studies have shown that the GKP factor approximation is largely comparable to the two-sex model or data from population registers. However, relying solely on female vital rates for kin population estimates can lead to overestimation as a result of females’ relatively lower mortality rates (Alburrez-Gutierrez et al. 2023; Caswell 2022; Song and Caswell 2022).

The Dementia Dependency Ratio of an Individual

As an individual, Focal has kin both with and without dementia. The numbers of kin in these categories will differ among kin types because the age distributions differ among kin types and change as Focal ages.

The number of kin with dementia is calculated from the age-specific prevalence of dementia in the population.² Let Ψ be a vector containing age-specific prevalences. The expected number of kin with dementia at age x of Focal at time t is

$$y(x, t) = \Psi^T(t) \mathbf{k}(x, t). \quad (7)$$

² In this study, because the male kin population is approximated based on the female kin population, we apply the average of female and male dementia prevalence rates to the sum of the female and male kin population to obtain the number of kin with dementia.

This calculation can be modified to give the number of kin with dementia within a specified age range (e.g., kin in the working ages from 16 to 64) by setting all elements of Ψ except those corresponding to those ages to zero.

From the numbers of kin with dementia, we calculate the probability that Focal, at age x and time t , has at least one relative with dementia, using a Poisson approximation,³ as in Song and Mare (2019) and Song et al. (2015). If the expected number of kin with dementia at time t is $y(t)$, under the Poisson assumption the probability of having at least one such kin is

$$P(\text{at least one kin with dementia}) = 1 - e^{-y(t)}. \quad (8)$$

Focal has kin both with and without dementia, and the burden of dementia experienced by Focal is measured by a dependency ratio. The familiar demographic dependency ratio is calculated as the ratio of those not considered part of the labor force (younger than 15 or older than 65) relative to those considered to be part of the labor force (those aged 16–64) and thus supporting the dependent ages.

Here we calculate a corresponding dementia dependency ratio for each type of kin:

$$\text{DDR}(x, t) = \frac{\text{number with dementia}}{\text{number without dementia aged } 16-64} = \frac{y(x, t)}{(\mathbf{1} - \Psi_{16-64})^T \mathbf{k}(x, t)}. \quad (9)$$

The dementia dependency ratio can be interpreted as a measure of the burden that kin with dementia place on kin without dementia in working ages.⁴

In our main results, we include all common kin types introduced in the previous section. We carried out an additional analysis that limits the types of kin to children and parents. The results show a similar significant rise of DDR in China when compared with other countries, as presented in Figure 6. We present these results in Figures S2 and S3 in the online appendix.

The Dementia Burden of a Population

The kinship network and the dementia dependency ratio are expected properties of a Focal individual at a given age x . A population is a collection of such individuals, of different ages, with an age structure given by, say, $\mathbf{n}(t)$.

The population dependency ratio is obtained by averaging the age-specific values over the age distribution. Then the age-weighted population dependency ratio is

$$\text{DDR}_{\text{pop}} = \frac{\sum_x n_x(t) \text{DDR}(x, t)}{\|\mathbf{n}(t)\|}. \quad (10)$$

³ The Poisson approximation assumes that having kin with dementia is rare and independent, but we acknowledge that this may underestimate the probability, as dementia can be genetic and not fully independent within a kinship network.

⁴ Note that alternative measures of dependency can easily be imagined and are easily calculated. For example, Chung and Alexander (2019) proposed a similar kin dependency ratio (KDR) index, which is defined as the ratio of the number of plausibly dependent kin at Focal age x to the number of plausibly nondependent kin at Focal age x . Also note that this index can be calculated for any type of kin, or any combination of types of kin, as desired.

1 This quantity is the expected dementia dependency ratio of an individual selected
2 at random from the population.

3 The population ratio $DDR_{pop}(t)$ gives the expected dementia burden of the popu-
4 lation at time t and permits comparison across populations of different countries and
5 at different times. As is done with standardized mortality calculations, a standard age
6 distribution could be used for $n(t)$ across all countries. We do not explore this here.
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9 Data Sources and Estimation 10

11 Our analyses are based on mortality and fertility schedules from the 2022 Revision
12 of the United Nations World Population Prospects (UNWPP) (United Nations 2022),
13 starting in the year 1950 and continuing from the year 2021 to 2050 as a projection
14 of future rates. The time-zero boundary condition $k(x, 0)$ was obtained by a time-
15 invariant calculation using the rates of 1950 and the distribution of ages at mater-
16 nity in 1950 based on the UN's estimate of births by age of the mother. The age-zero
17 boundary condition specifies $k(0, t)$ for each year; it was calculated from the appro-
18 priate kin at time $t - 1$ (see Table 1 of Caswell and Song 2021). Thus, when we report
19 kinship results for a particular year (e.g., 1990), the results reflect the changing mor-
20 tality and fertility schedules in China from 1950 up to that year.
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22 We draw on period fertility and mortality estimates for China and 194 other coun-
23 tries from the year 1950 to 2021 documented in the 2022 UNWPP. The 2022 Rev-
24 ision provides age-specific fertility and mortality estimates for each single-year age
25 group. For projected estimates up to the year 2050, we choose the medium-variant
26 projections of fertility and mortality rates provided by the UN. The medium-variant
27 projection refers to the median of several thousand distinct trajectories of each demo-
28 graphic component derived using the probabilistic model that takes into account the
29 historical variability in fertility and mortality of each country (United Nations 2022).
30 According to the medium-fertility scenario, China's fertility is expected to rebound
31 gradually and moderately to 1.4 from 2022 to 2050 after reaching a historical low of
1.2 in 2021.

32 To estimate the prevalence of dementia, we draw on data from the 2019 Global
33 Burden of Disease Study (GBD 2019) (Nichols et al. 2022), which provides fore-
34 casted estimates of the prevalence rate of Alzheimer's disease and other types of
35 dementia by age, sex, and year. The GBD uses a Bayesian meta-regression model
36 to estimate age- and sex-specific prevalence rates and provides the mean value out
37 of 1,000 draws from their model.⁵ The Bayesian models provide a meta-analysis of
38 43 published studies on dementia in China. These data can be downloaded through
39 GBD's Data Input Sources Tool. We did not use the public version of the GBD data
40 as the data exclude dementia induced by other clinical disorders, including Down
41 syndrome, Parkinson's disease, clinical stroke, and traumatic brain injury. Instead,
42 we use updated dementia prevalence rates provided in Nichols et al. (2022), which
43 include all forms of dementia. We use the mean-value dementia prevalence estimates
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46 ⁵ Four risk factors for dementia—high body mass index, high fasting plasma glucose, smoking, and years
47 of education—have been included in the dementia projection (Nichols et al. 2022).

throughout our analyses. Because the dementia prevalence rates were estimated in the five-year age group, we use linear interpolation to impute single-year age-specific prevalence rates. Table S1 in the online appendix summarizes sources, data types, time coverage, and age ranges for data used in our analyses.

We carried out our calculations using the R package DemoKin (Williams et al. 2022). This package implements the calculations developed in Caswell (2019, 2020, 2022) and Caswell and Song (2021), which are presented in those papers as MATLAB programs.

Results

Changing Kinship in China

Compared to 1990, Chinese people in 2019 are expected to have fewer grandchildren and great-grandchildren but are more likely to have living parents, grandparents, and great-grandparents. For instance, the average number of children for Focal aged 30 has decreased from 1.78 in 1990 to 1.20 in 2019 and is projected to decrease to 0.58 by 2050. In contrast, the estimated average number of grandparents for Focal age 30 has risen from 0.69 in 1990 to 1.70 in 2019, and it is expected to reach 2.33 by 2050.

However, the change in the number of kin between 1990, 2019, and 2050 does not follow a monotonic trend for certain types of kin, especially among older individuals. For example, Focal at 80 years old is expected to have 3.71 children in 1990, 3.96 children in 2019, and 1.79 children in 2050. This nonlinear pattern largely results from the rise and fall of fertility and mortality rates since the 1950s: the immediate fertility drop following the Great Leap Forward Famine (1959–1961), the baby boomers born from 1962 to 1964, the subsequent long-running fertility decline following the Later-Longer-Fewer family planning campaign in the 1970s, and the more stringent One-Child Policy between 1980 and 2016 (Cai 2008, 2010; Feeney and Feng 1993; Peng 1987; Whyte et al. 2015). Nevertheless, as Focal at the age of 40 in 2019 reaches 80, they will have fewer accessible kin of various types, such as children or grandchildren, than Focal at age 80 in 2019. This pattern reflects the ongoing decline in fertility rates, with generations born earlier experiencing higher levels of fertility.

These estimates of kinship structure are important because they reveal not only the number of specific kin types that Focal is expected to have across various life stages during different periods but also the maximum number of available kin of specific types that could potentially provide care when Focal develops dementia or other illnesses. Table S2 in the online appendix shows the number of kin of Focal at different ages. In the following section, we employ the projected dementia prevalence rates from the GBD study to estimate the prevalence of dementia in Focal's kinship network.

Abundance of Dementia in the Kinship Network

Figure 2 depicts age-specific dementia prevalence rates in 1990, 2019, and 2050 estimated by the Dementia Forecasting collaborators in the GBD (Nichols et al. 2022). Panels b and c of Figure 2 display the projected number of dementia cases by age

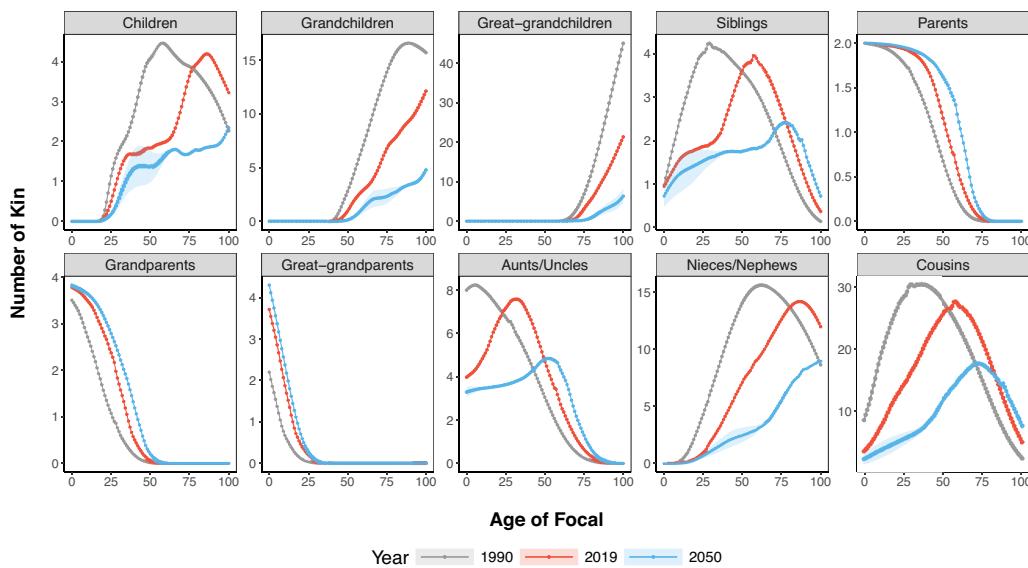


Fig. 1 Expected numbers of living kin of various types as a function of the age of Focal in 1990, 2019, and 2050. The living kin are estimated from the time-varying kinship model using period age-specific fertility and mortality rates from 1950 to 2050 from the UN's 2022 Revision of World Population Prospects (United Nations 2022). The results in a particular year reflect the changing mortality and fertility schedules in China from 1950 up to that year. The methodology is described in the Data Sources and Estimation section. To estimate the number of all kinds of kin from both paternal and maternal ancestry, we assume that the demographic rates of female and male kin are equal. The shaded areas on the 2050 projections indicate the range of uncertainty in the estimates resulting from different WPP fertility scenarios. *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

of Focal and the total count of dementia cases for the years 1990, 2019, and 2050. The sources of data are described in Methods and Table S1 in the online appendix. Regarding age, dementia prevalence grew considerably between 1990 and 2019. For example, 7 out of 100 people aged 80 had dementia in 1990, and this number increased to 10 out of 100 in 2019 (panel a). The rise in dementia prevalence in China over the last three decades has been well reported, reflecting increased longevity and improved diagnostic criteria (Chan et al. 2013; Jia et al. 2020). Between 2019 and 2050, the projected age-specific dementia prevalence rate shows only a small increase. However, the proportion of people with dementia in the population is expected to increase dramatically by 2050, because the population as a whole is expected to be much older.

After combining the prevalence and kin age distributions, we obtain the expected number of kin with dementia. Panel a of Figure 3 presents the expected number of kin with dementia as a function of Focal's age in 1990, 2019, and 2050. These results suggest that the number of kin with dementia has increased substantially between 1990 and 2019 and is expected to further increase over the next three decades. Over time, individuals would have more grandparents and great-grandparents with dementia at younger ages, parents and aunts/uncles with dementia at middle ages, and children, siblings, nieces/nephews, and cousins with dementia at older ages. As

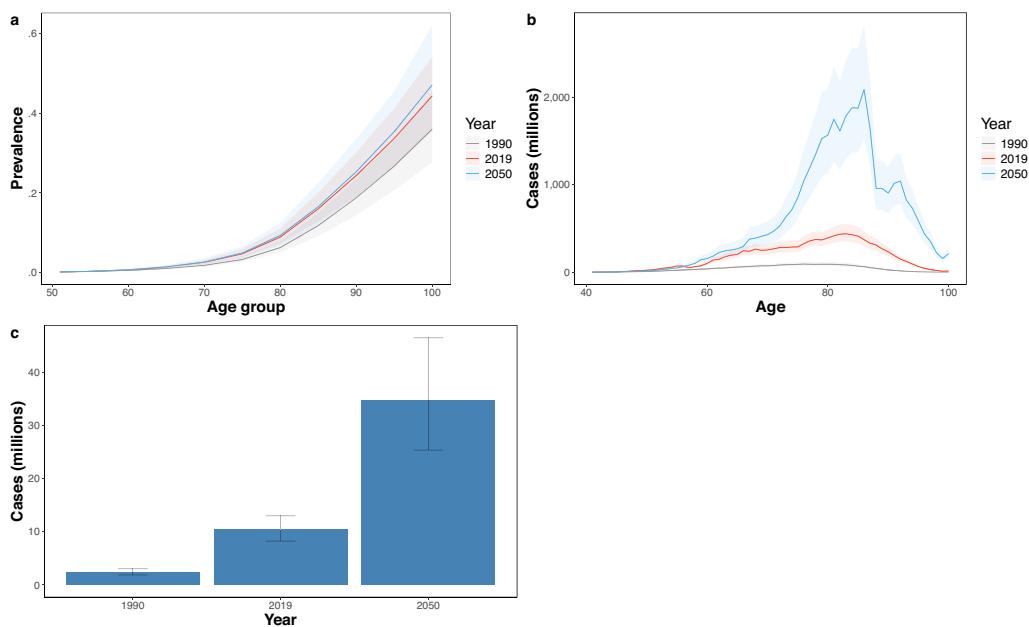


Fig. 2 (a) Projected age-specific dementia prevalence rate, (b) number of dementia cases by age, and (c) total number of dementia cases, all in 1990, 2019, and 2050. These numbers are calculated using dementia prevalence estimates from the GBD 2019 Dementia Forecasting Collaborators (Nichols et al. 2022). The shaded areas and error bars indicate the range of uncertainty in the dementia prevalence estimates resulting from different GBD scenarios. *Data source:* Nichols et al. (2022).

individuals live longer and have older kin, they would not only experience dementia themselves but also become subject to the ripple effect of dementia within their kinship networks.

The probability of having at least one relative of each type with dementia, as a function of the age of Focal, is shown in panel b of Figure 3. Nearly half of individuals born in 2050 can expect to have at least one great-grandparent with dementia at birth. Among individuals at age 30 in 2050, 25% are expected to have at least one grandparent with dementia; among those at age 60, 16% will have parents with dementia; and among those aged 75, 15% of them will have siblings with dementia, 23% will have aunts and uncles with dementia, and more than 65% will be expected to have cousins with dementia. Given the elevated prevalence of dementia within kinship networks, it is highly possible that the majority of the population will experience dementia's direct or indirect consequences at some point in their lives.

The increase in the number of kin with dementia is a result of both the rising prevalence of dementia and population aging. To clarify the relative importance of these two factors over time, we use the Kitagawa (1955) method to decompose the change in the number of kin with dementia into contributions from changing prevalences (rate effect) and changing age distributions. Panels a and b of Figure 4 present the decomposition results for different types of kin for two time periods, 1990–2019 and 2019–2050, respectively. The overall size of the colored area in

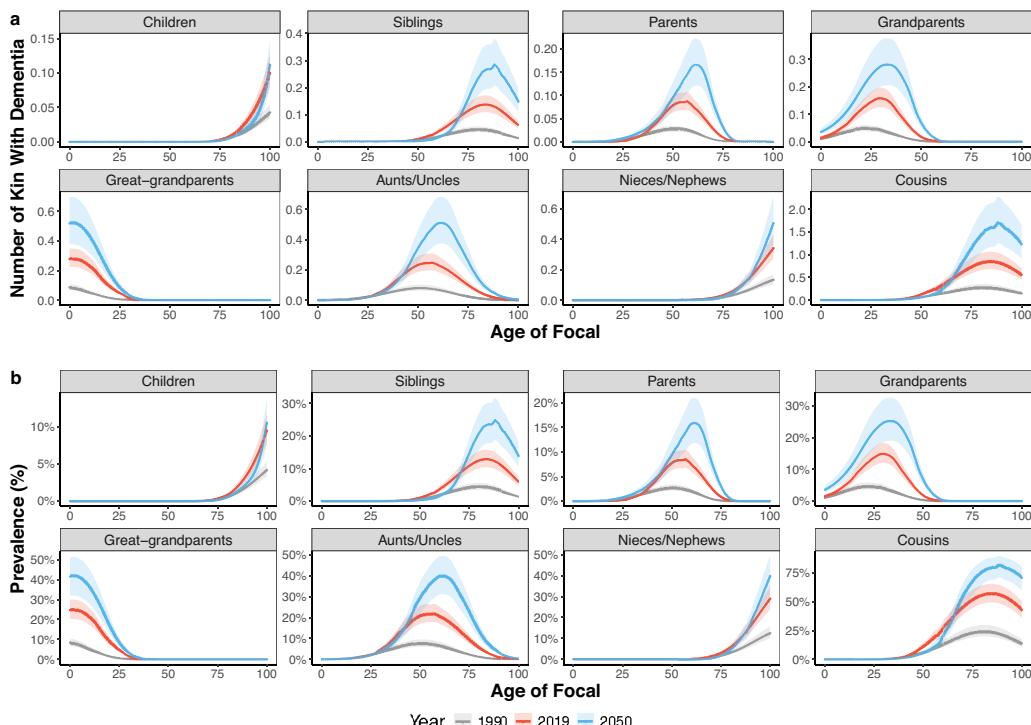


Fig. 3 (a) Estimated number of kin with dementia as a function of the age of Focal in 1990, 2019, and 2050, and (b) estimated prevalence of having at least one kin with dementia as a function of the age of Focal in 1990, 2019, and 2050. Panel a presents the count of kin, categorized by kin type, with dementia for an individual by the age of that individual, and panel b shows the probability that an individual has a certain type of kin with dementia by the age of the individual. These numbers are estimated from time-varying age-specific fertility, mortality, and prevalence of dementia in the population. The estimation details are described in the Data Sources and Estimation section. The shaded areas for the blue lines indicate the range of uncertainty in the estimates resulting from different GBD dementia prevalence and WPP projected fertility scenarios. The shaded areas for the red and gray lines indicate the range of uncertainty in the estimates resulting from different GBD dementia prevalence scenarios. *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

each figure represents the change in the number of kin with dementia between the two anchoring years. The red area indicates the portion of change due to shifts in the age distribution of a certain type of kin, and the blue area indicates the portion of change attributable to changes in the prevalence of dementia within that specific type of kin. Between 1990 and 2019, the rate and the age effects jointly determine the increase in kin with dementia as each plot appears as a combination of red and blue areas. Between 2019 and 2050, the age effect is expected to dominate the increase in kin with dementia, with the red areas accounting for nearly all of the changes observed. The dominant age effect suggests that, despite a mild projected increase in age-specific dementia rates from now until 2050, the demand for dementia caregiving is expected to increase disproportionately owing to the rapidly changing kinship age structure alone.

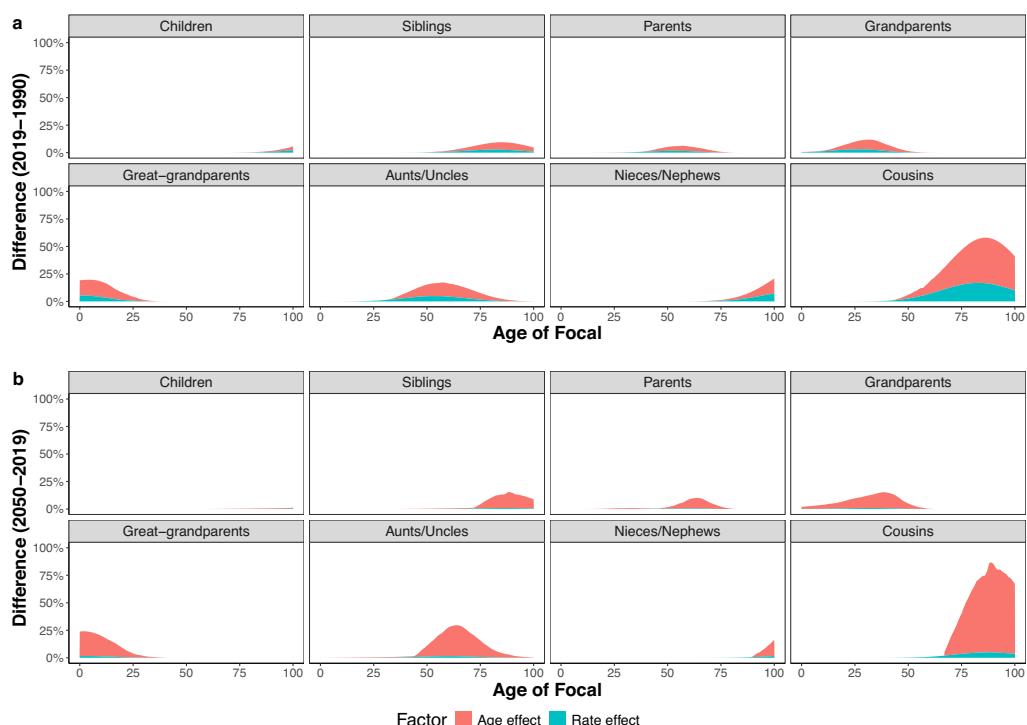


Fig. 4 Kitagawa decomposition results of the difference in the number of kin with dementia between (a) 1990 and 2019 and (b) 2019 and 2050. The total area of each graph represents the difference partitioned into contributions from age structure and from age-specific dementia rate. *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

Dementia Burden in China and Globally

The components of the dementia dependency ratio $DDR(x)$ and the DDR itself are shown in Figure 5 for the years 1990, 2019, and 2050. The age-specific $DDR(x)$ values presented in panel c indicate that the DDR among the kin of Focal is higher when Focal is younger than 25 and older than 60. For example, the dementia dependency ratio among the kin of an individual close to retirement age at age 65 is 0.7 in 1990 and 2.4 in 2019, indicating a more than threefold increase. The DDR values are expected to increase dramatically in the next three decades. By 2050, the DDR among the kin of an individual aged 65 will have more than tripled from 2.4 in 2019 to 7.3 in 2050. The dramatic increase in DDR is driven by two factors: the increase in the number of kin who have dementia (panel a of Figure 5) and the decline in kinship size over time (panel b). For example, the expected number of kin with dementia for an individual at age 65 will increase by 43.6% ($= 1.12 / 0.78 - 1$) between 2019 and 2050, whereas the number of kin aged 16–64 without dementia will decline by 52.5% ($= 1 - 15.5 / 32.6$).

The rapid increase in dementia dependency burden seen in China, as illustrated in Figure 5, might not be an isolated case. To gain a broader perspective, we situate China in a global context. Specifically, we conduct similar DDR calculations for

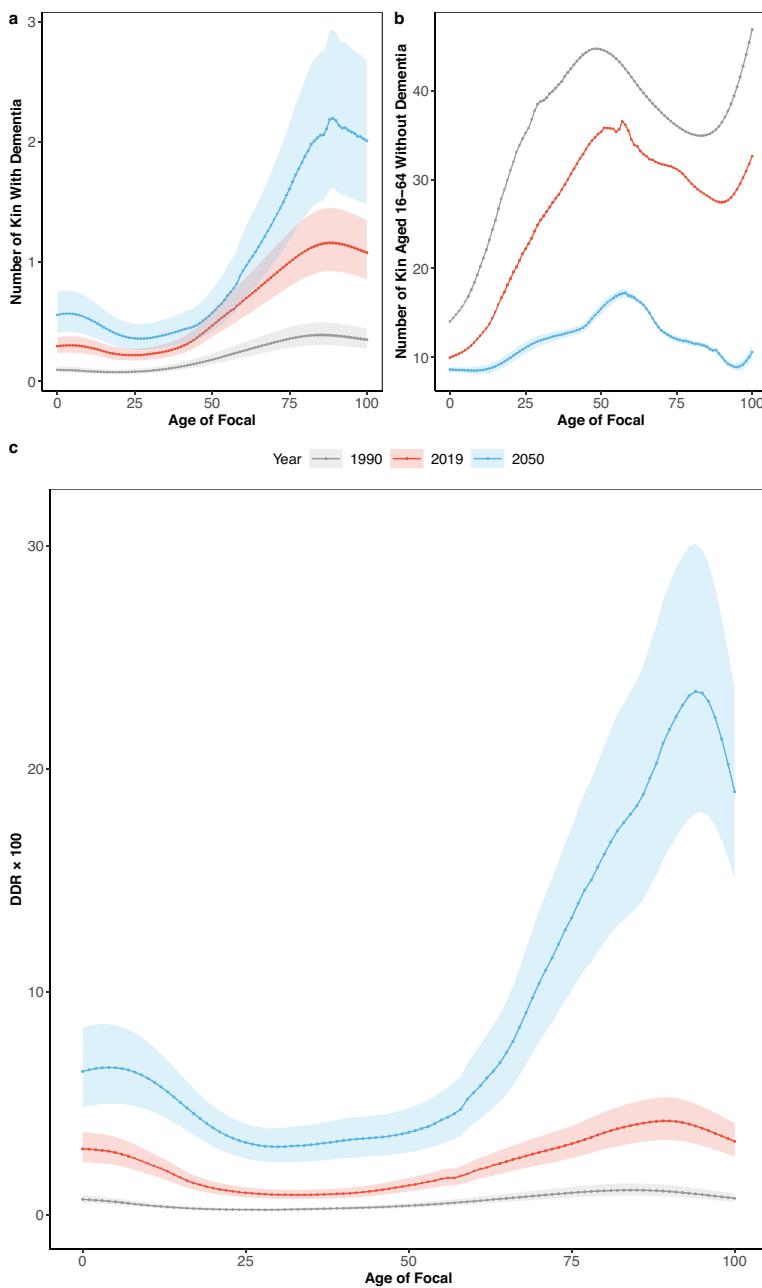


Fig. 5 (a) The number of kin with dementia, (b) the number of kin aged 16–64 without dementia, and (c) the dementia dependency ratio ($DDR(x)$) as a function of the age of Focal in 1990, 2019, and 2050. DDR refers to the proportion of family members with dementia to family members without dementia who are at risk for providing family care. The mathematical definition of DDR is discussed in the Data Sources and Estimation section. The shaded areas for the blue lines indicate the range of uncertainty in the estimates resulting from different GBD dementia prevalence and WPP projected fertility scenarios. The shaded areas for the red and gray lines indicate the range of uncertainty in the estimates resulting from different GBD dementia prevalence scenarios. *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

CORRECTED PROOFS

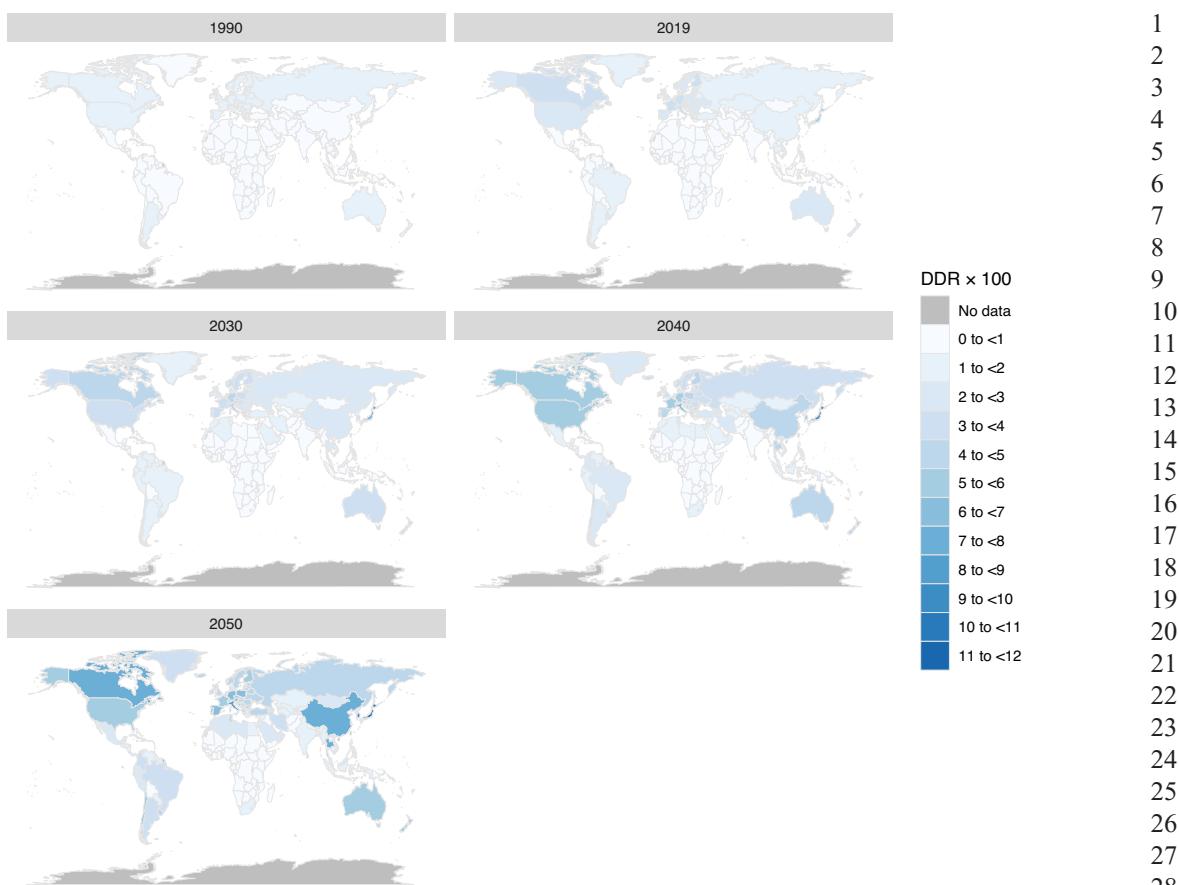


Fig. 6 Population-level dementia dependency ratio $DDR_{pop}(t)$ across countries in 1990, 2019, 2030, 2040, and 2050. We apply the method used for estimating the DDR index for China to other countries. The indices draw on dementia data from GBD 2019 Dementia Forecasting Collaborators and data of fertility and mortality rates in the UN's 2022 Revision of World Population Prospects (United Nations 2022). A darker blue color indicates a higher caregiving burden caused by dementia on kinship groups, whereas a lighter blue color indicates a lower caregiving burden. The detailed DDR estimates are presented in Table S3 (online appendix). *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

194 countries. To perform the analyses, we rely on two key data sources: dementia prevalence estimates from the GBD database and demographic rates, such as age-specific fertility and mortality and population age distribution, from the United Nations (Nichols et al. 2022; United Nations 2022). We then develop a population-level dependency burden index called DDR_{pop} using age-specific DDR weighted by the population age distribution. Results in Table S3 (online appendix) show the population-level $DDR_{pop}(t)$ for all countries at five time points: 1990, 2019, 2030, 2040, and 2050.

Figure 6 shows a series of heat maps, one for each time point, to visualize population-level $DDR_{pop}(t)$ across countries at each of those times. In 1990, DDR_{pop} is highest in Europe and North America. Notably, the United States and Sweden had

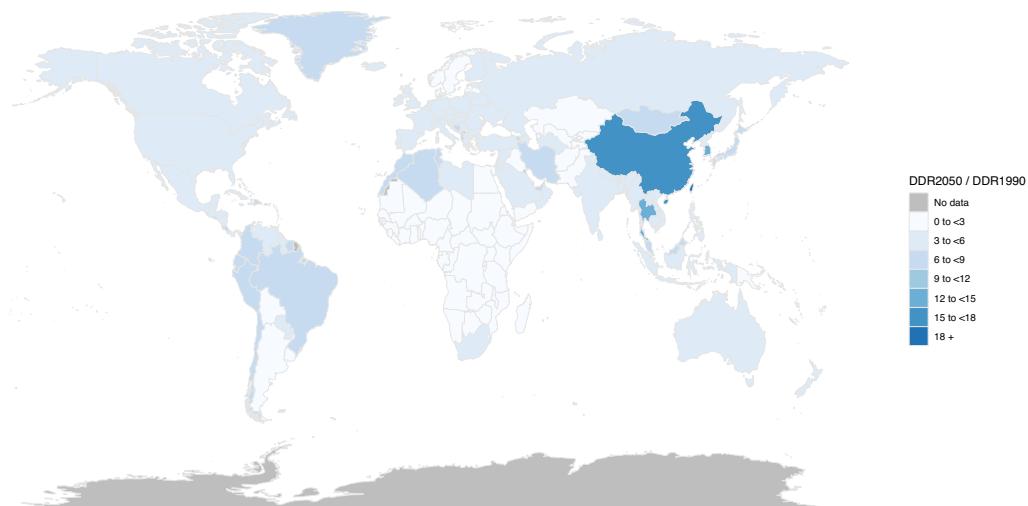


Fig. 7 Change in the population-level dementia dependency ratio across 194 countries from 1990 to 2050. We apply the method used for estimating DDR in China to other countries and calculate the ratio of DDR in 2050 relative to that in 1990. A dark blue color indicates a rapidly increasing dementia burden on kin, whereas a light blue color indicates a slowly increasing burden caused by dementia on kin over time. *Data sources:* Nichols et al. (2022) and United Nations (2022).

the highest value at 1.8. By contrast, China's DDR_{pop} was one of the lowest at 0.4, similar to countries such as Morocco and South Africa in the same year. Fast forwarding to 2019, the global landscape of DDR_{pop} has shifted. Japan now leads the ranking with a DDR_{pop} level of 5.8, and China's DDR_{pop} increased appreciably to 1.7, similar to that of Ireland and Chile in that year.

The most dramatic changes in $DDR_{pop}(t)$ are projected for 2050. China's DDR_{pop} is expected to be among the highest globally, reaching a level of 7.2. This value surpasses those projected in 2050 for many well-known aging societies, such as Germany (6.4) and France (5.9).

To better understand changes in $DDR_{pop}(t)$ during the period of 1990 to 2050, we summarize these changes in [Figure 7](#).⁶ The figure highlights the dramatic increase that China is expected to experience. By 2050, China's $DDR_{pop}(t)$ is projected to be approximately 18 times higher than it was in 1990, indicating one of the fastest growth rates globally. Only Singapore is projected to see a more dramatic rise, with a roughly 24-fold increase. However, the sheer size of China's population adds another layer of complexity to this challenge. Although Singapore may experience a similar growth rate in $DDR_{pop}(t)$, the number of Chinese people with dementia will be far greater owing to its massive population base. Furthermore, China's public health support system is currently underdeveloped, raising further concerns about its ability to cope with this rapidly growing demographic shift.

⁶ Table S3 (online appendix) also documents the change in the population-level $DDR_{pop}(t)$ between 1990 and 2019 and between 2019 and 2050.

Although studies suggest that North Africa, sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East may experience the highest increases in dementia cases in the next three decades (Nichols et al. 2022), many low-income countries in these areas maintain low values of $DDR_{pop}(t)$ and exhibit minimal changes. For instance, in 1990, Niger had the lowest recorded $DDR_{pop}(t)$ at 0.2, and this figure hardly changed by 2019, and it is projected to rise to only 0.3 by 2050. This persistently low $DDR_{pop}(t)$ in low-income countries can be attributed to high fertility rates, which contribute to expansive kinship networks for individuals with dementia. However, the low values may also result from potential underestimation of dementia prevalence within these regions because very few studies have examined aging and cognitive function in low-income countries as a result of data limitations (Kohler et al. 2023).

Discussion and Conclusion

China has the highest number of people living with dementia in the world. As China's population continues to age, dementia is expected to remain a significant social and public health concern for the foreseeable future. While the majority of older adults with dementia are cared for by family members, shrinking family size and changing kinship structures are undermining the traditional family care arrangements. Furthermore, some recent evidence shows that the unit cost of dementia care in China has doubled from 2000 to 2019 and is predicted to double again within the next two decades (Pedroza et al. 2022). The compound effects of increasing dementia cases, smaller families, and rising costs may exacerbate the impact on individuals, families, and the wider society. In light of the rising demand for dementia care in China, the present study illustrates the evolving accessibility of potential care provided by family members, who offer an alternative care source to professional providers and health care institutions.

Using demographic models of kinship, we estimate kin availability and prevalence of dementia among individuals' kinship networks. We find that the probability that an individual has a close family member with dementia rises significantly over time. For example, among people aged 30, the likelihood of having at least one living grandparent with dementia grew from 5% in 1990 to nearly 30% in 2050, whereas among those aged 50, the likelihood of having at least one living parent with dementia climbed from 3% to 11%. What has been driving this rise? Our decomposition analysis indicates that both increasing dementia prevalence and changes in kinship age structure contribute to the trend, though their relative impacts vary over time. From 1990 to 2019, rising dementia prevalence and an aging kinship network jointly boosted the probability of having a close relative with dementia. However, from 2019 to 2050, the rapid aging of kinship networks will emerge as the dominant factor.

Furthermore, the number of kin available to older adults for caregiving will plummet over the next three decades. Factoring in changing kinship sizes and structures, our kin-based indices of dementia dependency ratios shed more light on the impact of demographic change on the dementia caregiving demand. Our results suggest that the dementia caregiving burden in China is expected to climb 18-fold, one of the most dramatic projected changes for any country. For example, in 1990, an individual of age 80 would have had 0.4 kin with dementia (considering all types of kin and

kin of different ages) and 35.1 working-age, dementia-free kin (defined as kin aged 16–64 without dementia). In 2019, an 80-year-old Focal would have had 1.2 kin with dementia and 29.9 kin who were dementia-free and could have been care providers. Looking ahead to 2050, these figures are expected to change to 2.2 kin with dementia but only 11.6 dementia-free kin.⁷ Taken together, these trends suggest that even a significant breakthrough in reducing dementia prevalence may not be sufficient to offset the growing dementia caregiving demands. As the number of affected relatives increases and the pool of potential family caregivers shrinks, the traditional reliance on family-based care will face increasing pressure, highlighting the need for stronger institutional support and policy interventions.

By incorporating the kin ties beyond the nuclear family, our study also joins the research agenda on building the *demography of kinship* (Furstenberg 2020; Furstenberg et al. 2020) and rethinking family networks and support structures, especially in an era of extended shared lifetimes among kin and heightened caregiving demands. This is particularly relevant for China, where a third of families are one-child families (Cai and Feng 2021). A promising direction for future research would be to examine the frequency and intensity of exchanges between distant kin, such as cousins, nieces, and nephews, for the one-child generation and their parents, exploring the extent to which kin from alternative family forms may substitute for nuclear family members.

This study has several limitations. First, we treat the population as a homogeneous group with a single set of demographic rates and dementia prevalences, despite variations in fertility, mortality, and dementia rates by socioeconomic factors such as educational attainment, *hukou* status, and place of residence (Crimmins et al. 2018; Jiang 1995; Luo et al. 2019; Ruiz et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2022; Zhang 2006). Furthermore, families with a history of dementia may have members with a higher genetic risk and share environmental factors that increase dementia risk, leading to greater caregiving demands within these family networks compared with others (Loy et al. 2014). These factors would lead to variations in the estimates of kinship structure and dementia burden that are overlooked in the current study. In the Chinese context, previous research has found that older adults with lower education and rural *hukou* status have lower cognitive function and experience faster cognitive decline (Ruiz et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2022). Although they may have larger kinship networks than the urban educated population (Jiang 1995), they remain vulnerable because of limited access to public support, including pensions, health insurance, and care facilities. Future research should investigate the complex interaction between kinship and other social factors to identify the most vulnerable, hard-to-reach groups with limited access to health care. Multistate matrix kinship models (Caswell 2020) and microsimulations (Zaghenei 2015) could be promising approaches for improving our analysis by capturing population heterogeneity in kinship compositions and dementia rates.

Second, our demographic models of kinship consider only common biological kin ties, excluding spouses, in-laws, and kin from other alternative family forms

⁷ It is also worth noting that because kinship models are projections of the consequences of the demographic rates conditional on these hypotheses, they are not expected to duplicate the results found from empirical censuses of kin (as noted explicitly by Goodman et al. 1974). Rather, models capture the main effects of the demographic structure against which the effects of violations of these assumptions can be evaluated.

such as stepkin, adopted family members, and voluntary kin. Models incorporating spouses would be a valuable addition because they are more likely than children and other biological kin to live with the person with dementia (Hu and Ma 2018) and are often better equipped to provide care because of their closer emotional bond with the dementia patient (Evans and Lee 2014; Hayes et al. 2009). However, the impact of omitting spouses and in-laws on our estimates remains unclear, as they can be both caregivers and dementia care recipients, which may balance out their overall effect on the caregiving burden. It is also worth noting that spouses of dementia patients are likely to be “hidden patients” themselves, as they often face their own health issues (Liu et al. 2019). In addition, caregiving is often gendered. In the Chinese context, daughters-in-law are a significant source of care for older adults (Cong and Silverstein 2008), as they are traditionally expected to move into the husband’s family household. However, this tradition has weakened under China’s rapid demographic and social changes. Recent empirical evidence indicates a growing involvement of daughters in caregiving (Hu 2017; Lei 2013). Some studies even suggest that daughters now provide as much, if not more, support than sons (Silverstein et al. 2006; Xie and Zhu 2009; Zeng et al. 2016). Fictive or voluntary kin from alternative family forms can also play an important role, particularly for older adults who lack children, spouses, or siblings, or during times when nuclear family members are unavailable (Furstenberg et al. 2020; Reed et al. 2023; Sun 2014). Caregiving exchanges within these kin-like relationships are often overlooked or underreported owing to limitations in existing data collection practices (Furstenberg 2020). As a result, models that exclude nonbiological kin may overstate the caregiving burden placed on biological relatives. Future research using large-scale household-level microdata, in-depth qualitative interviews, or other innovative data collection approaches could provide valuable insights into how family complexity shapes dementia caregiving in China and beyond.

Third, we did not account for factors such as the social expectations, cultural significance, and geographic proximity of kin ties (Lin and Tang 2023; Murphy 2008; Shanas 1973), which may moderate kin relationships and caregiving dynamics. Among these factors, gender is one important dimension warranting further consideration. Previous studies indicate that caregiving for older adults within families is gendered, shaped not only by the caregiver’s gender but also by the gender of the care recipient and other available family members (Grigoryeva 2017), with women disproportionately bearing more care responsibilities than men (Carr and Utz 2020; Silverstein and Giarrusso 2010). The type of support provided to older parents can vary significantly by gender, with daughters often offering more emotional and instrumental support, while sons typically focus on financial assistance (Lei 2013; Zeng et al. 2016). Furthermore, we did not account for the institutional contexts in which kin ties are embedded. Studies in Europe have shown that caregiving for older parents by children is more common in Southern and Central Europe than in Northern Europe, where public support systems are stronger (Attias-Donfut et al. 2005; Haberkern and Szydlik 2010). This limitation affects our cross-national comparison, as we infer the care gap based on kin availability and dementia prevalence among kinship networks, without considering social norms, health policies, and accessibility of formal care services.

Future research should examine whether the increasing prevalence of dementia within kinship networks will reinforce existing social inequalities or create new ones, affecting both those providing care and those at risk of having kin with dementia, and how these dynamics vary across institutional contexts. From a life course perspective, having grandparents or parents with dementia at younger ages may temporarily disrupt an individual's work as he or she takes time off or adjusts work schedules to provide care for family members. Such disruptions may even lead to long-term consequences for reduced work performance, diminished career prospects, and financial strain. The repercussions on labor market outcomes for individuals caring for relatives with dementia is another critical, yet largely unexplored, area for future research.

Our findings based on demographic estimates have policy implications for national health care systems and the well-being of families. Compared with other aging societies, the projected increase in dementia care demands in China is both rapid and large in scale. This challenge is further compounded by the country's aging kinship structure, which undermines traditional family-based care. China's basic medical insurance covers some dementia-related medical expenses, such as diagnostic tests, hospitalizations, and medications; however, long-term care and nonhospital services are often not covered (Feng et al. 2020; Jia et al. 2020; Wu et al. 2016). Furthermore, the existing programs primarily support older adults with severe dementia. There are no specific subsidies or support programs for individuals experiencing mild cognitive decline or early-stage dementia (Wu et al. 2020; Ye et al. 2024). In many aging societies, such as Japan, Korea, and Germany, long-term care insurance is a mandatory component of the social security system (Kang et al. 2023; Spasova et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2020). Although China began piloting long-term care insurance in a limited number of cities in 2016, it still lacks a comprehensive nationwide system (Feng et al. 2020). To close this gap, policymakers should consider making equitable access possible across the country to ensure that individuals, regardless of where they live or their social background, have a fair chance to benefit from the program. In addition to strengthening formal care policies, it is also urgent for China to promote and expand informal caregiving networks. While the size of close kinship networks has declined in recent decades, our findings suggest that a substantial number of extended family members remain potential caregivers. Expanding caregiver subsidies to include extended relatives, such as nieces and nephews, could provide much-needed support and alleviate the burden on primary caregivers. This approach would also encourage a more flexible, community-based caregiving model—an essential adaptation for a society in which single-child households become increasingly common. Although we highlight the rapid increase in China's dementia caregiving burden from 1990 to 2050, the absolute scale of the dementia caregiving challenge remains high in rapidly aging societies across East Asia and Europe. For example, kin-based indices of dementia dependency ratios are consistently higher in Japan and Italy than in China throughout the estimated years (Figure 6 and Table S3). In our analysis, we focus on comparing the aggregate dementia caregiving burden across countries. Future research could apply our analytic framework to other aging contexts to examine the evolving kinship structure in detail and to identify the specific ages at which caregiving demands peak across different historical periods and into the future. ■

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Code and Data Availability Statement Code, data, and readme files have been archived in Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/s9ua8/>).

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10
11 Kai Feng (corresponding author)
12 kaifeng@sas.upenn.edu

13
14 Feng • Department of Sociology and Graduate Group in Demography, University of Pennsylvania,
15 Philadelphia, PA, USA; <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1099-2352>

16 Song • Department of Sociology and Graduate Group in Demography, University of Pennsylvania,
17 Philadelphia, PA, USA; <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3463-045X>

18 Caswell • Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam,
19 the Netherlands; <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4394-6894>

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