

# National Indicators and Social Wealth

**Erwin de Leon**





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This report presents the results of a two-day meeting co-convened by the Urban Institute and the Center for Partnership Studies, with support from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation, the NoVo Foundation, and the Kalliopeia Foundation. It contains invaluable insight from Riane Eisler, president and cofounder of the Center for Partnership Studies, and Kimberly Otis, director of the Caring Economy Campaign. Expert guidance was also provided by Elizabeth T. Boris, director of the Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy; the Social Wealth Advisory Council: Joe Cordes, Nancy Folbre, Barbara Fraumeni, Thomas Kingsley, and Sara Melendez; and workshop participants.

The Urban Institute is a nonprofit, nonpartisan policy research and educational organization that examines the social, economic, and governance problems facing the nation. The Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy conducts and disseminates research on the role and impact of nonprofit organizations and philanthropy.

The Center for Partnership Studies is a nonprofit organization founded in 1987 that seeks to accelerate movement to partnership systems of human rights and nonviolence, gender and racial equity, economic prosperity, and a sustainable environment through research, education, grassroots empowerment, and policy initiatives that promote human development, social well-being, and long-term economic success, with special emphasis on valuing the work of caring and caregiving still primarily done by women. Its Caring Economy Campaign seeks to lay the foundations for a more just, sustainable, and caring economy and world, and provides materials, training, and support to members of the campaign coalition, policymakers, and the public.

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## Introduction

Our Gross National Product ... if we judge the United States of America by that ... counts air pollution and cigarette advertising, and ambulances to clear our highways of carnage. It counts special locks for our doors and the jails for the people who break them. It counts the destruction of the redwood and the loss of our natural wonder in chaotic sprawl .... Yet the gross national product does not allow for the health of our children, the quality of their education or the joy of their play... It measures neither our wit nor our courage, neither our wisdom nor our learning, neither our compassion nor our devotion to our country, it measures everything in short, except that which makes life worthwhile. And it can tell us everything about America except why we are proud that we are Americans.

Robert F. Kennedy  
March 18, 1968<sup>1</sup>

Senator Kennedy's 1968 speech at the University of Kansas is as relevant today as it was then. His words speak to the need for including social wealth in our measure of national economic prosperity and social well-being. A full and complete assessment of the state of our nation becomes increasingly necessary as we transition into a knowledge-based and service economy while competing with other countries for markets, resources, capital, and talent. Solid data and metrics are crucial to calibrate government policies, corporate decisions, and civil society action that invest in individuals, families, and communities and result in our shared economic progress and security.

An urgent need met by measuring a nation's social wealth is identifying the attributes of a society that make it possible to create and support the development of the full capacities of every individual throughout the human life span. Social wealth indicators identify these drivers, with special focus on the economic value of caring for and educating children and the contributions of women and communities of color. These measures include the level of investment in early childhood education, time use<sup>2</sup> (especially for care work), national investment in innovation, lifelong education, health, and the quality of the natural environment, as well as their critical links to individual, social, and economic development. They are designed to account for much of the private, public, and nonprofit sectors' investment in optimal human and societal development to meet both individual and national needs for success in the post-industrial information and service age.

Since Kennedy's speech, international agencies such as the United Nations, governments at all levels, scholars, and other experts have been working on better

methods and metrics of evaluating societal well-being, aware of the importance of these data in determining economic and social policies. Advances in the applied and social sciences that attest to the inter-relationship of various individual and social factors demonstrate the need for measures and systems of indicators that recognize the interconnectedness of all these factors.

The social wealth indicators project was initiated by the Center for Partnership Studies (CPS) to further research on alternative methods and metrics focusing on the factors that lead to economic success in the post-industrial era. As a first step, CPS commissioned the Urban Institute's Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy in 2010 to examine worldwide alternatives to GDP. The resulting report, *The State of Society: Measuring Economic Success and Human Well Being*, showed that while these proposals and indices make important contributions, most still give little or no visibility to the economic value of caregiving and early education as well as to the status and contributions of women, children, and communities of color. To follow up this assessment, in May 2012 the Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy and CPS co-convened leading experts and thinkers on national indicators for a social wealth indicators workshop moderated by Joe Cordes of George Washington University (appendix C). Held at the Urban Institute, the workshop invited participants to discuss the field and relevant work with the goal of answering two key questions:

- How can national economic and human well-being be better assessed?
- How can drivers for human capacity development throughout the human life course best be identified?

Participants considered the strengths and weaknesses of existing indicators to measure social wealth, identified missing indicators that need to be developed, and made recommendations for the development and placement of social wealth indicators in the U.S. National Key Indicator System as well as within national and satellite accounts at federal agencies (e.g., the U.S. Department of Commerce) and at the state and local levels.

This report summarizes key themes and ideas that surfaced during the social wealth indicators workshop. Presentations delivered during the convening are placed in context of the literature and recent work on economic competitiveness and human well-being measures.



## Beyond GDP

The default measure for economic and social progress is gross domestic product (GDP), the market value of all goods and services produced in a country during a given year. This dependence on GDP is due in large part to its parsimony: it indicates the state of the economy in one number.

Gross domestic product, however, is a limited economic metric that does not fully reflect the depth and breadth of a country's economic activity (Abraham and Mackie 2005; Ironmonger and Soupourmas 2012; U.S. Government Accountability Office 2011), much less the state of all a nation's facets, including its social, political, and environmental aspects. It does not factor in activities outside the market, such as the maintenance of households and care for household members, activities that directly shape the economy. Moreover, GDP does not reveal or indicate anything about the well-being of individuals, families, and communities.

For example, the U.S. Department of Commerce reported that GDP increased at an annual rate of 1.7 percent in the second quarter of 2012 and 2.0 percent in the first quarter.<sup>3</sup> Although these increases give the impression that the country is slowly but surely climbing out of the Great Recession, the fact remains that many Americans are struggling. The overall unemployment rate hovers around 8.0 percent, and the rates for African Americans, Latinos, and teenagers lag dramatically, at 14.1, 10.3, and 23.8 percent, respectively.<sup>4</sup> According to the U.S. Census, the poverty rate was 15.1 percent in 2010, up from 14.3 percent in 2009. There were 46.2 million people living in poverty in 2010, up from 43.6 million in 2009, the fourth consecutive annual increase and the largest number in the 52 years for which poverty estimates have been published.<sup>5</sup> Child poverty rates have increased exponentially, with one in four American children living in relative poverty (Adamson 2012).<sup>6</sup> Yet none of this essential information is included in measures of GDP.

GDP also does not assess what government investments do or do not contribute to economic health. It does not predict which factors will or will not contribute to future economic competitiveness—a matter of increasing urgency as the country shifts from a manufacturing- to a service- and knowledge-based economy. For example, the economic value of the caregiving work in families is not included in GDP, nor are the economic and social costs of *not* supporting caring for people, starting in early childhood.

Governments have increasingly acknowledged the need for addressing the limitations of the GDP. Various measures have been developed to assess economic and societal well-being, mostly within national account systems.<sup>7</sup> The U.S. Congress mandated the development of a national indicator system “to create a more informed and accountable democracy.”<sup>8</sup> This led in 2010 to the establishment of the State of the USA (SUSA), a nonprofit and nonpartisan entity working with the National Academies of Sciences, “to blend public and private data, to build a broad base of stakeholders and to focus on the challenge of how to make quality statistical data both highly useful and widely used.” SUSA

collaborates with the scientific and statistical communities as well as issue experts to identify key national measures for more than a dozen topic areas. Its web site provides initial data on employment and some health metrics. SUSA has also launched a beta web site, a collaborative platform for developing indicators.<sup>9</sup>

Current national income accounts are incomplete in a number of ways. First, they omit unpaid work and mischaracterize investment as solely capital expenditures by industry. Investment should include health and education expenditures, as well as government spending that promotes the development of human capabilities. Such investments have a measurable economic effect by increasing national productivity and prosperity. As such, they should be treated as investments that are amortized over time, not as expenses.

The limitations of GDP and national income accounts have increased efforts to create more comprehensive measures and systems of indices. Public leaders, advocates, nongovernmental organizations, and government agencies worldwide have developed alternative indicators, supplements, and systems that attempt to mitigate GDP's shortcomings. *The State of Society: Measuring Economic Success and Human Well-Being* looks at some of these alternative measures. Hundreds of indicators found in various reports (appendix B) were synthesized into 79 indicators and organized under 14 categories as a framework for an alternative system to GDP (de Leon and Boris 2010):

- poverty
- health
- education
- employment
- income and wealth
- shelter
- natural environment
- political participation
- civil society
- economic participation
- human rights
- national stability and sustainability
- family well-being
- personal well-being

Taken together, these categories can provide a foundation for creating indices that will permit comprehensive assessments of the state of societies from the country down to communities, families, and individuals.

Lacking across the categories, however, are indicators that adequately assess the well-being of all segments of society: women, children, the elderly, and marginalized communities (e.g., racial/ethnic populations; indigenous peoples; lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender individuals; and religious groups). Moreover, existing indices and systems

of indicators do not fully reflect the complex interaction of the numerous indicators that impact human development and capacities throughout the human life span.

Existing indices and systems of indicators also marginalize the majority (women, children, and communities of color) and fail to show the large economic contributions of care work done mainly by women, in both the market and nonmarket sectors. While most reports examined in *The State of Society* include indicators on women, children, and communities of color, they are limited and inadequate.

Under the category of health, for example, the usual indicators are life expectancy, maternal and infant mortality, death rates, and morbidity. Information on children's health, nutrition, and access to health insurance are often included, but women's reproductive health and access to contraception are generally not. Under education, literacy, enrollment, and dropout rates are commonly used, but early childhood education indicators are not. Although poverty rates of families and children are common indicators, the poverty rates of communities of color and women are generally not included.

Even new indicators on the status of women, with few exceptions, tend to overlook the economic contributions of care work performed in the non-market household sector, despite evidence of its very high value. A Swiss survey, for example, showed that if the unpaid work performed in households—primarily, caring for people—were counted, it would constitute 40 percent of the country's GDP (Scheiss and Schön-Bühlmann 2004).

The 2012 *Counting on Care Work in Australia* report shows the enormous economic value of care work. It examined the three intersecting spheres of paid care work, unpaid care work, and government investment in the care sector. It measured the labor and resources devoted to the care of children and the elderly or disabled, education of children from kindergarten through 12th grade (or through high school), and delivery of health care regardless of age. The report documented that in 2009–10, the care economy in Australia was worth an estimated \$762.5 billion. Paid care was worth \$112.4 billion, or 8.8 percent of GDP, providing nearly 20 percent of all paid employment. Unpaid care was valued at \$650.1 billion (60 percent of which is performed by women), or a staggering 50.6 percent of GDP (Hoenig and Page 2012).

In the United States, a recent Bureau of Economic Analysis report on household production found that in 2010 women spent an average of 26 hours per week in nonmarket home production, while men spent an average of 17 hours (Bridgman et al. 2012). If the U.S. economy were to include what Ironmonger and Soupourmas (2012) call gross household product,<sup>10</sup> it would be approximately 80 percent larger than indicated by conventional GDP. Failure to include the value of household production and care work makes women's large economic contribution invisible, since women worldwide are still primarily responsible for this labor.

Most new indicators also fail to consider the status of women in society—that is, their position and treatment in comparison to men. Nor do the indicators consider the consequences of women's status, even though CPS's *Women, Men, and the Global Quality of*

*Life*<sup>11</sup> and the World Economic Forum’s annual *Global Gender Gap Reports*<sup>12</sup> show that these consequences must be considered in identifying factors that impact both economic success and human well-being. For example, women’s lack of economic empowerment—that is, the ability to participate fully in the economy—negatively affects both a nation’s quality of life and economic success, and a higher participation of women in political leadership has a positive effect. In fact, these studies show that the status of women can better predict quality of life than GDP, and investments in women’s empowerment are now shown to have a high return for economic development around the world.

## The Social Wealth Indicators Workshop

Participants in the social wealth indicators workshop included experts from academia, government, and the nonprofit sector—individuals who have studied, developed, and written about, as well as administered indicators. The goal of the convening was to have a free-flowing discussion about how societal well-being and long-term economic success are assessed, which metrics can be expanded, and what additional measures must be developed. Presenters shared relevant earlier and new work, and participants identified areas where consensus could lead to new approaches in assessing society.

Workshop participants focused on indicators that fall under two domains: human capacity and care investment (appendix A). These categories highlight areas of crucial importance for individuals to lead healthy, productive, and meaningful lives. They also measure the condition of a country's human infrastructure, which is essential for assessing and projecting capacity for economic progress.

Data gathered under these two domains are meant to be compared cross-nationally and include information on race, income, gender, age, and ability.

Discussion honed in on the importance to human capacity development of the economic contributions of care work done mostly by women in both the market and nonmarket economic sectors as well as on the contributions of early childhood education. Participants also considered ways to mitigate the challenges of measuring these contributions.

### Care Work

The social wealth indicators workshop paid special attention to care work, defined as care activities performed in service of others both outside and within the family, such as caring for children and nursing the sick, disabled, and elderly. Care work encompasses both paid employment and unpaid labor.

Jobs within the paid economy include market substitutes for what women, particularly in developed countries, once provided in their own homes, such as child care, elder care, nursing, and teaching. Aside from tending to family members, tasks within the unpaid economy include household maintenance, food processing and meal preparation, and other family work (Albelda et al. 2010; Antonopoulos and Hirway 2010; Folbre 2006).

Scholars have also referred to care work as the work of caring, work of care giving, direct care work, domestic work, household production, and social reproduction work (Antonopoulos and Hirway 2010; Eisler 2012; Esquivel 2011; Folbre 2006; Landefeld, Fraumeni and Vojtech 2009), although Eisler notes a problem with the distinction between “productive” and “reproductive” work. She writes, “Especially in our time, when ‘high-quality human capital’—flexible, creative people who can work in teams and think in long-term, not only short-term, ways—is essential for economic success, it can be argued that

the production of this capital through the caregiving activities still generally categorized as ‘reproductive work’ is actually the most productive of all work” (Eisler 2012, 81).

Care work is also referred to as the care economy, a term that is now part of the lexicon of United Nations entities, governmental gender equality/equity offices, some governments, and advocacy groups (Esquivel 2011), as well as the care sector (Albelda et al. 2010). It also falls under the rubric of unpaid work, including all uncompensated work activities that support the family unit (Antonopoulos and Hirway 2010; Guerrero 2000).

## The Importance of Care Work

Workshop participants, along with other scholars and commentators, have increasingly pointed to the integral role of care work in the economic success and overall well-being of a nation and its people.

According to Albelda and colleagues, “care work accomplishes some of the most fundamental tasks of a society” (2010, 7). They emphasize that “care work is not just the cornerstone of our economy—it is its foundation. Care work provides the basis for our human infrastructure. We need it to navigate through life as surely as we need roads and bridges” (2010, 6–7). They argue that meeting the most basic societal needs relies on care workers both within and outside the home: “In order to work, be an active part of communities, and participate in the political process, people have to be fed, nurtured, educated and have their daily needs met” (2010, 7). Antonopoulos and Hirway add that care work supports the working population and contributes to overall productivity (2010). It provides important resources for the development of human capabilities by raising children, for instance, and providing the next generation with education, health, and values essential to becoming productive members of society (Antonopoulos and Hirway 2010; Eisler 2007; Folbre 2006).

Care work is thus crucial to the economic success and well-being of societies. Ignoring its contributions and the implications for those who provide it leads to a skewed understanding of the true size and workings of an economy.

Antonopoulos and Hirway (2006), for example, highlight the fact that for countries with available data, household unpaid work supplements goods and service bought with income from the market and made available through government by between 20 and 60 percent of GDP. Non-market care work, in essence, contributes to the economy by providing goods and services that would either have to be purchased by individuals and families or provided by governments. (Antonopoulos 2009; Swiebel 1999). Abraham and Mackie (2005) point out that measuring the value of goods and services produced by households for their own consumption is essential for determining a nation’s overall economic activity.

Agencies like the United Nations and some governments that have begun to measure the economic contributions of care work show that its value is high. Nova Scotia’s Genuine Progress Index Time Use Accounts, for example, show that in 2005, Nova Scotians contributed 977 million hours a year in unpaid household work and child care (1,241 hours per person over the age of 15) or the equivalent of a half-million full-time jobs. If this

unpaid work had to be replaced for pay in the market economy, even at the average hourly rates of \$10.87 for domestic help and \$8.96 for child care, it would be worth \$10.4 billion a year to the provincial economy, or 36 percent of GDP (PannoZZo and Colman 2009). If care work were adequately rewarded in the market economy, this figure would actually be substantially higher.

Beyond measuring overall economic activity, Eisler (2012, 59) contends that “the failure to recognize the real value of the work of caring and caregiving has been a major obstacle to the development of a more equitable and sustainable approach to economics.” She notes that as long as care work is devalued and its economic contribution ignored, it is unrealistic to expect more policies that invest in and care for the populace—investments needed for national prosperity and progress.

Eisler also points to research on innovation and creativity that takes into account the importance of the matrix or context within which creativity is developed. In spaces where people feel cared for, their creativity and productivity rises. Of special interest is the work of the pioneering creativity researcher Frank Barron showing that a large percentage of the creative men he studied came from homes where their mothers supported their creativity by caring for them in ways that made its development and expression possible (Barron 1968). These studies too point to the importance for national economic success of investing in caregiving, especially in our postindustrial era when creativity and innovation are of increasing importance to both economic success and personal well-being.

## **Gender, Care, and Paid and Unpaid Work**

Unpaid and paid work are distributed unequally between women and men (Swiebel 1999). Men spend more of their work time in jobs that pay, while women perform most of the unpaid work, especially care work (Antonopoulos 2009). In other words, care work is highly gendered, reproducing inequality between women and men (Folbre 2008). The United Nations Development Programme has reported that “men receive the lion’s share of income and recognition for their economic contribution—while most of women’s work remains unpaid, unrecognized and undervalued” (UNDP 1995, 6).

Time-use data show that women disproportionately perform unpaid work in both developing and developed countries. The gap ranges from two to five hours a day for countries as diverse as South Africa, Japan, and the Netherlands, to France, Mauritius, and the United States, and to India, Guatemala, Italy, and Mexico (Antonopolous and Hirway 2010). In the Republic of Korea, women on average spend 21 hours more than men a week in unpaid work, and their total working week exceeds men’s by almost an hour a day (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific [UNESCAP] Statistics Division 2004). On an average U.S. workday in 2009, married women spent one hour a day caring for household members, while husbands spent 40 minutes on caregiving (U.S. Department of Commerce and Executive Office of the President 2011). This unequal distribution of unpaid work between women and men can be attributed to the gender-segregated labor market, gender discrimination, and “domination of men’s values in society at large” (Sweibel 1999, vii).



In paid work, a large earnings gap exists between women and men. For instance, women's average earnings in the manufacturing sector worldwide range from 60 to 90 percent of men's earnings (United Nations 2010). In the United States, women were paid only 77 cents for every dollar paid to men in 2010; African American and Latino women were paid only 62 cents and 54 cents, respectively, for every dollar paid to white men (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, and Smith 2011). Women who worked full time in 2010 had median weekly earnings of \$669, which was only 81 percent of men's median weekly earnings (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2011).

While some have tried to attribute this gap to women's choices, a study by the American Association of University Women (AAUW) counters the argument. The authors point out that "after accounting for college major, occupation, industry, sector, hours worked, workplace flexibility, experience, educational attainment, enrollment status, GPA, institution selectivity, age, race/ethnicity, region, marital status, and number of children, a 5 percent difference in the earnings of male and female college graduates one year after graduation was still unexplained" (AAUW 2012, 8). Moreover, the AAUW analysis of full-time workers 10 years after college graduation found a 12 percent unexplained difference in earnings between women and men.

In other words, the gender wage gap widens and accrues over time. Over four decades, the average woman will be set back by as much as \$431,000 compared to the average man.<sup>13</sup>

A U.S. study of the long-term earnings gap that factors in women's lower work hours and years with zero earnings due to family care finds that women workers make only 38 percent of what men earn. The study reports that across 15 years, the average prime age working woman earned only \$273,592 while the average working man earned \$722,693 (in 1999 dollars), a gap of 62 percent (Rose and Hartmann 2004).

In addition, *The Global Gender Gap Report 2011* reports that on average, while 96 percent of the gap in health outcomes and 93 percent of the gap in educational attainment have been closed, considerable gender gaps in economic participation (59 percent) and political participation (82 percent) persist. No country, not even the four highest-ranking nations—Iceland, Norway, Finland, and Sweden—have achieved gender equality (Hausmann, Tyson, and Zahidi 2011).

The implications of this gender gap for poverty rates is a key factor in developing more effective ways to end cycles of poverty. The share of women living in poor households in most countries ranges between 50 and 54 percent (United Nations 2010). In the United States, over 6.6 million women, or 24.1 percent, lived below the poverty level in 2010.<sup>14</sup> Poverty rates for all groups of women were substantially higher than their male counterparts (DeNavas-Walt et al. 2011).

Three in ten (31.6 percent) female-headed households were poor compared to two in ten (15.8 percent) male-headed households.<sup>15</sup> In 2010, older women of all races in the United States had a higher poverty rate (10.7 percent) than older men (6.7 percent).<sup>16</sup>



Among older people of color, the gender gap was wider. Older Latino women had a poverty rate of 20.9 percent while their male counterparts had a poverty rate of 14.2 percent. Among African Americans, it was 20.2 percent to 14.2 percent. Further, older Latino and African American women who lived alone had the highest poverty rates.<sup>17</sup>

The glaring disparity in economic security between women and men is in part attributable to gender wage discrimination. But a major factor is that most of these women are or were either part- or full-time caregivers, and their poverty is the result of the failure to give visibility and adequate value to this essential work.

A United Nations report on women points out:

In spite of the changes that have occurred in women's participation in the labour market, women continue to bear most of the responsibilities for the home: caring for children and other dependent household members, preparing meals and doing other housework. In all regions, women spend at least twice as much time as men on unpaid domestic work. Women who are employed spend an inordinate amount of time on the double burden of paid work and family responsibilities; when unpaid work is taken into account, women's total work hours are longer than men's in all regions. (United Nations 2010, ix–x)

Moreover, women are predominantly employed in the service industries or in agriculture. In most developed, Latin American, and Caribbean countries, the service sector accounts for three-quarters of women's employment. In sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia, agriculture accounts for more than half of women's employment. Overall, women are significantly underrepresented in managerial positions and overrepresented among support and service workers (United Nations 2010).

Measuring the value of care work and its contribution to a country's economy and well-being gives a fuller picture, not only of total economic activity, but also of the place, role, and contribution of all individuals, especially women. Recognition of the importance of care work and the role it plays in gender inequality has led many governments to seek solutions. At least 40 national governments around the world, including South Africa, Switzerland, Uganda, Tanzania, and the United Kingdom, have adopted gender-responsive budgeting.<sup>18</sup> Based on in-depth analysis that identifies effective interventions for implementing policies and laws that advance equal treatment of women and girls, gender-responsive budgeting, "seeks to ensure that the collection and allocation of public resources is carried out in ways that are effective and contribute to advancing gender equality and women's empowerment."<sup>19</sup> This trend will be greatly aided by social wealth indicators that show the contributions of care work and thus, the contributions of women, who do most of this work, to national economic success.

## Measuring Care Work

Workshop participants, spurred by presentations by Nancy Folbre of the University of Massachusetts Amherst's Department of Economics and Rania Antonopoulos and Ajit Zacharias of the Levy Economics Institute of Bard College, discussed the advantages and shortcomings of the main tool for measuring care work: time-use surveys.

Collecting data on care work is often accomplished through a household survey or a component of a multipurpose survey. Time-use surveys (TUS) are widely used in the United States and other countries to learn what activities households engage in during a given period. TUS data are quantitative summaries of what women and men do over the course of a day, a week, and across seasons over the year. They are designed to capture who does what during the day, for how long, how often, at what time, in what order, where, with whom, and for whom (Guerrero 2000; UNESCAP Statistics Division 2004; United Nations 2010).

Abraham and Mackie (2005) assert that the development of TUS is not only integral to the measurement of household production, but it is a better measure of national production. These surveys shed light on how individuals allocate their time among paid work, unpaid domestic work (e.g. cooking, cleaning, shopping, and care of children and elderly, etc.), community and voluntary activities, and personal activities (e.g., eating, leisure, rest, etc.).

These surveys are major data sources on care work since they illuminate “the invisible part of the economy which needs to be integrated into a government’s decision-making” (UNESCAP Statistics Division 2004, 2). TUS data has been used to verify information on unpaid family workers, home workers, and others who are undercounted in standard labor force surveys. Antonopoulos (2009) points out that TUS data can also be used in getting improved estimates of important macroeconomic variables—that is, workforce estimates, national income estimates, valuation of unpaid work, and national time accounts, which in turn are useful in macroeconomic modeling.

Nationally representative TUS data have been available in many developed countries since the 1980s. Since the mid-1990s, at least two dozen developing countries have initiated or undertaken TUS data collection (Guerrero 2000) as recommended in the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action of the IV United Nations World Conference on Women (United Nations 2003b). The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics conducted the first American Time Use Survey (ATUS) in 2003 (Folbre 2006; Landefeld et al. 2009). ATUS is currently the only federal survey providing data on a range of nonmarket activities (from child care to volunteering) collected from over 112,000 interviews conducted from 2003 to 2010.<sup>20</sup>

**The Limitations of Time-Use Methodology.** Time-use surveys, however, have limitations. Although these surveys have now been implemented by at least 20 developing countries with more planned, comparisons across countries are hampered by differences in activity classification and nomenclature, design, methodology, and overall quality (Antonopoulos 2009; Folbre 2006, 2012; Sweibel 1999). Tasks performed simultaneously are often underreported, and the intensity of effort is not counted (Sweibel 1999).

Nancy Folbre presented a paper on the use and limitations of time-use measures in estimating the market value of care work. While acknowledging that TUS is a rich source of information, she outlined some of the method's shortcomings.

First, measures of household production under this method are limited to activity time and represent a serious underestimate of the amount of time that is devoted to caring for children and others. For example, time when a person is not actively caring for a child or an elderly dementia sufferer, but must be present to ensure that the person is safe, is not included.

Second, only one person's time-use is sampled per household, and this person may or may not be the primary caregiver and person responsible for the majority of the household work. Folbre notes that there is a need to know the entire household's time budget. Moreover, TUS gives a snapshot of one day which may not be representative of most days.

Third, as alluded to earlier, TUS defines and counts only a portion of care work as activities. It includes, for example, feeding, bathing, talking, and reading aloud to a child. But TUS does not record child supervision (e.g., being present while a child sleeps), a primary constraint on parental time.<sup>21</sup> Folbre pointed out that a parent has to be present, with or without activity, to be available should the need arise. In contrast, a watchman, a guard, or someone on call with a beeper is remunerated for that time, which is in essence no different from child supervision time. Elderly and disabled family members also require a lot of supervision that is not valued as an activity under TUS.

Fourth, TUS measures do not show how many children are being cared for at the same time. A person may report an hour for child care activities, but she could have been caring for five children during that hour. During the same hour, two parents could have been caring for one child. Both situations, under TUS, will be counted as an hour of child care, although the circumstances differ vastly. This has huge implications for valuation of child care: Does one value the input—that is, one person for an hour (or, in the case of a couple, two persons for an hour)? Or does one value the output—that is, five children (or one child) for an hour?

Folbre also discussed the critical issue of costing parental time. Most policy work uses replacement cost, often a very low wage rate that almost certainly underestimates family-specific skills that go into provision of care.<sup>22</sup> Other methods would greatly increase the value given to this work. For example, it has been proposed that the time spent caring for a child be considered an opportunity cost, and valued as what a parent could have earned if she engaged in paid employment instead.

As Folbre explained, while TUS measures important activities and how much time they take, it does not give an accurate or complete picture of time that is devoted to caring for children and household adults. Folbre estimates that it will take 4 to 5 times the size of the paid labor force to replace care work that is provided within families.

The challenge is in breaking care work down to job equivalents and comparing specific activities to other types of work. Folbre argues that the simplest measurement strategy is

to estimate the cost of replacing unpaid care work with paid labor of comparable quality. She assigns, for example, parental supervisory time a babysitter's wage.<sup>23</sup> But when she looks at time spent on reading to a child, she assigns a higher value, such as a kindergarten teacher's wage. She believes that a vector of wage rates rather than one wage rate provides a better valuation of care time and work.

Workshop participants generally agreed that TUS has the potential to measure care work well and pointed out that considerable work has already been completed. However, it is uncertain whether the American Time Use Survey would be funded again by Congress and, if it were, how scholars might be employed to assist in improving the survey. Funding of ATUS is a major factor for the development of social wealth indicators.

## Early Childhood Education

Another major focus area of the workshop was education, especially early childhood education. W. Steven Barnett, director of the National Institute for Early Education Research (NIEER), presented a paper on the state of early childhood education in the United States, drawing from a recent NIEER report. The *State of Preschool 2011* found that rather than increasing our national investment in these essential programs, real spending on state pre-K education declined by about 15 percent in the past 10 years. Spending per child nationally is currently \$715 *lower* than even the 2001–02 level. As Barnett noted, “A decline of this magnitude should serve as a wake-up call for parents and policy leaders about how well we are preparing today’s preschoolers to succeed in school and later find good jobs in a competitive market.”<sup>24</sup>

He also presented a paper on the return on investment from early educational intervention (2012b) and made recommendations for preschool indicators, including the following:

- An index of children’s prenatal exposure to such hazards as tobacco, alcohol, drugs, and maternal stress that can affect development while in utero. Exposure to second-hand smoke and other environmental toxins (e.g., lead paint), abuse, neglect, exposure to violence, and parental stress also continue to be important because of their potential adverse effects on child development (Shonkoff 2011).
- An index of learning and development collected at age 3 and kindergarten entry. The first five years of life are time of rapid learning and development, and the large ability gaps, or socioeconomic gradients, become apparent well before kindergarten entry (Halle et al. 2009). Early differences in abilities among racial and ethnic groups grow larger through age 5 and persist at the same or larger levels thereafter.
- An index of the home learning environment or experiences. Early developmental differences emerge from complex family circumstances that vary within and across ethnic groups. Much of the variation in preschool abilities is explained by differences in early parenting—talking, reading, and playing—and to a lesser, but still important, extent by differences in experiences with other caregivers and preschool education (Dickinson 2011; Levine et al. 2010).

- The percentage of young children receiving early care and education outside the home by age (at least at age 3 and 4). Although parents are the strongest influences on young children’s learning and development, preschool education can produce substantive and lasting impacts on learning and development (Barnett 2011; Camilli et al. 2010).
- An index or measure of the quality of preschool programs—for example, spending per child by state, ratio, index of standards, or observed quality score. The quality of programs is an essential determinant of their effectiveness (Camilli et al. 2010; Pianta et al. 2009). Access to quality programs also varies by age, family background, and geography (Barnett et al. 2010; Karoly et al. 2008). Unfortunately, quality is highly complex, and current measures are far from satisfactory (Burchinal, Kainz, and Cai 2011).

Barnett proposed that for policy purposes, it would be useful to have as a simple measure how much the United States spends on early care and education per child under age 5.

He highlighted in his presentation the economic returns from early education investment for children, especially disadvantaged children. He contrasted the Chicago school system, which had a benefit-to-cost ratio of 10, to the Abecedarian Project in Chapel Hill, North Carolina, which had a benefit-to-cost ratio of 2.5. Potential gains from such investments include educational success and future economic prosperity for the students and their families, along with decreased costs to government (Barnett 2012b).

**Table 1. Economic Returns to Early Childhood Investment for Disadvantaged Children**

	<b>Cost</b>	<b>Benefits</b>	<b>Benefits/cost</b>
Perry Pre-K	\$17,599	\$284,086	16.0
Abecedarian	\$70,697	\$176,284	2.5
Chicago	\$8,224	\$83,511	10.0

Source: Barnett (2012).

Notes: Cost and benefits are in 2006 dollars, with a 3 percent discount rate.

These findings have important implications for social wealth indicators that seek to determine the attributes of a society that make it possible to create and support the development of the full capacities of every individual throughout her or his life span.

## Other Metrics

Experts, including workshop participants, concur that existing indicators need to better assess the state of all segments of society, particularly women, children, the elderly, and communities of color. Participants also agreed that, in addition to measures focusing on care work and early childhood education, other measures need to be considered in the development of social wealth indicators.

As Folbre noted, a myriad of factors—all the way from health, education from kindergarten through high school and beyond, and community connectivity and trust to the condition of our natural environment—contribute to social wealth.

However, in keeping with the goal of the workshop of making visible areas that are notably neglected in most current and proposed indicators, participants continued to focus on care work, women, children, and other marginalized groups. A couple of presentations honed in on the implications of the economic marginalization of women.

## **Time and Income Poverty**

Rania Antonopoulos suggested the Levy Institute Measure of Time and Income Poverty (LIMTIP)<sup>25</sup> as an alternative to the standard income poverty measure. LIMTIP goes beyond the ability of a family to purchase basic necessities and factors in the time required for actual household production—that is, the production of goods and services by members of the household for their own consumption (such as meals, laundry, etc.). It reveals the “hidden poor,” namely those with incomes above the official poverty threshold who lack the time needed to complete household activities. LIMTIP, in essence, reassesses the depth of poverty by identifying hardships that time deficits impose, on households and on individuals. More important, it differentiates by gender, age, headship of household, and worker status, and it determines who is primarily responsible for household production. The authors employ a microsimulation model to estimate the impact of policy interventions or market-based changes on households’ and individuals’ ability to transition out of poverty. LIMTIP was used to measure poverty in Argentina, Chile, and Mexico, and these empirical estimates were compared to official poverty rates. The size of the hidden poor was considerable in all three countries.

## **Economic Well-Being**

Ajit Zacharias gave a presentation on the Levy Institute Measure of Economic Well-Being (LIMEW). An expanded measure of economic well-being, LIMEW goes beyond the official U.S. Census Bureau measure of gross money income and includes major components of economic well-being, noncash transfers, and public consumption, imputed income from wealth, and household production; it also nets out personal taxes (Zacharias et al. 2012a).<sup>26</sup> These components can be converted into money equivalents, and LIMEW is a household-level measure that can be used for households in different economic and demographic groups. Moreover, it is built using mainly information from income and employment surveys (e.g., the Annual Demographic Supplement of the Current Population Survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau), other surveys on wealth and time use, the National Income and Product Accounts, and government agencies.

## **Nuancing Time and Income Measures**

In response to the proposed use of time deficits as a poverty dimension, Riane Eisler brought up the need for more nuance in the measure. For example, a low-income single

mother might have a lot of time available but lack the capacity and resources to maximize the benefit of that time for her and her family's benefit.

Nancy Folbre in turn raised the impact of household technology (e.g., microwaves and other appliances) in household production. Families today, compared to those from the 1950s, spend less time doing household work due in part to increasingly available conveniences.



## A More Robust National System of Indicators

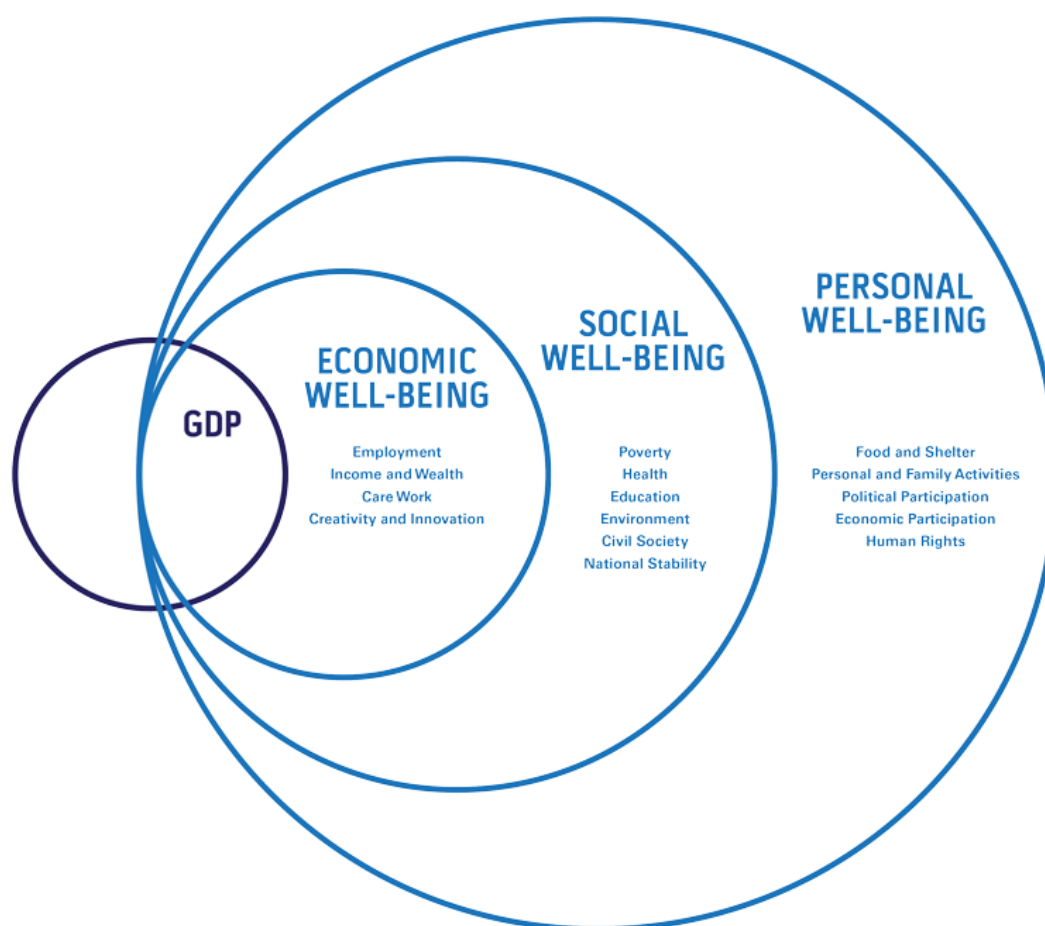
The social wealth indicators workshop participants considered the necessary steps for developing a national social wealth indicator system. They also discussed bringing more visibility in other national indicators to women, children, and communities of color, as well as the value of care work.

Participants brought up several questions and challenges that need to be addressed. What should be included in a national system of indicators? Which indicators should be developed? Which are feasible to measure and likely to have statistical potency and synergistic power? How should indicators be organized?

Experts at the convening and in the field recognize that complex social systems cannot be understood in terms of simple linear cause-and-effect thinking; rather, they must be conceptualized in terms of the interaction of a number of key factors. It is apparent from the reports included in *The State of Society* that the indices and systems of well-being and economic success developed by governments, nongovernmental organizations, and other agencies are moving toward multidimensional approaches that factor in diverse categories or dimensions of well-being and prosperity simultaneously. An optimal economic framework must acknowledge this interconnectedness and encompass GDP, common measures (such as employment, income, education, health, poverty, etc.), and a cross-cutting domain of social wealth indicators, specifically data on the economic contribution of and investment in care work as well as the predictive value of the status of women, children, and marginalized populations.



**Figure 1. Toward a More Holistic Economic Framework**



*Source:* Adapted from Stefan Bergheim's measures of well-being featured in "Beyond GDP: New Measures for a New Economy" (Daly and Posner 2011).

Such a holistic framework must integrate the economic contributions of care work, and women in particular, while assessing national and individual well-being in various overlapping domains. But how should disparate components of the formal and informal care economy be measured? How should unpaid care and unpaid work in general be incorporated into indicators?

Scholars acknowledge that this endeavor is not an easy one but maintain that it can be done. As Eisler, Folbre, and others pointed out in their published work and during the workshop, the devaluation of care work can be better understood from the perspective of a gendered system of values in which activities stereotypically associated with women and "women's work" are given lower value regardless of the education and skills needed to undertake them or the social and economic benefits derived from them. This means that using current pay scales for the valuation of care work in both the market and nonmarket economic sectors is problematic, as it reflects and perpetuates a gendered system of values.

Participants asked who ultimately decides which indicators are relevant: politicians, government and nonprofit agencies, academics, or other individuals? What kinds of processes would lead to the best results?

Eisler posed a crucial question: what care investments should a country make? She argued that this question has enormous social policy implications, especially in the post-industrial, knowledge- and service-based economy. She pointed out that economists emphasize that the most important capital for the post-industrial economy is “high-quality human capital.” She cited findings from neuroscience that indicate that investment in early childhood care and education profoundly impacts brain development and, thus, whether human capacities reach their fullest potential (Perry 2002).

## Steps Toward an Interactive Framework

Workshop participants acknowledged that developing a more robust system of social wealth and economic indicators faces other challenges beyond measurement and data issues. Foremost are fiscal and political factors that put current funding at risk and threaten future funding. For example, a few days before the workshop, the U.S. House of Representatives voted to eliminate the American Community Survey, a critical tool that includes measures indicating economic and social well-being. However, various constituencies urged the Senate to keep the ACS viable.<sup>27</sup>

These challenges indicate that even with a vigorous analysis of the benefits of such a framework, in a climate of austerity and opposition to funding from some members of Congress, the development of the measures necessary to incorporate social wealth indicators into national accounts and the Key National Indicator System is likely to be a long process.

To move forward, participants agreed the following steps need to be taken:

- Review systematically existing research to identify areas of national economic and social well-being that have not been covered and create appropriate measures.
- Develop measurements that acknowledge and highlight gender, race/ethnicity, and other gaps.
- Measure unpaid care work to properly reflect its economic value.
- Identify specific ways to disseminate work more widely. Dissemination should go beyond researchers and government agencies to other stakeholders that might want to use measures for various purposes (e.g., nonprofit organizations that work on women’s and children’s issues).

The group also saw the value in taking both short-term and long-term approaches. What is feasible within a decade or so? What is feasible in 20 years or more?

In the short term, it is reasonable to identify low-hanging fruit—that is, indicators that can be used, readily improved, or developed. Examples include the following:

- Current measures such as time-use, early childhood care and education, and poverty measures that, as Folbre, Antonopoulos, and Barnett noted, should be broadened and deepened. There are precedents for such initiatives; for example, the Supplemental Poverty Measure addresses the weaknesses of the current poverty measure and “better reflects contemporary social and economic realities and government policy” (Short 2011, 1).
- Parental investment in children. Scholars such as Gayle, Golan, and Soytaş (2011) measure parental investment in their children’s human capital by the time mothers and fathers spend separately on child care (referred to as maternal and paternal time investment). Hango (2005) measures parental involvement through parental interest in education as assessed by teachers and by the number of times parents go out on outings with their child. Other examples of investments parents make in their children include neighborhood choice, family structure, family size, parental labor supply, and availability of books, learning materials, and other technologies (Loughran, Datar, and Kilburn 2008).
- Paid and unpaid care work by women, men, and communities of color.
- Improved poverty measures. For example, Income, Poverty, and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2010 (DeNavas-Walt et al. 2011) includes detailed information on gender and race. Economic indicator efforts will need to also include detailed information on gender and race.
- Contributions of community volunteers. The Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy uses data collected from the Current Population Survey and the American Time Use Survey to estimate the number of people volunteering at nonprofits, the hours volunteered, the economic value of volunteering, and how volunteers spend their time (Roeger, Blackwood, and Pettijohn 2011).
- Micro-level data (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age) that can be aggregated and eventually incorporated into the larger national accounts.
- New indicators can be constructed from existing data, thereby avoiding the cost of creating new surveys or measuring tools. The LIMTIP and LIMEW are good examples.

Workshop participants recommended a dual-pronged approach: simultaneously developing a domain of comprehensive social wealth indicators, and at the same time promoting their incorporation into existing indicator domains such as health and education as well as promoting the use and/or further development of underutilized indicators such as the return on investment of early childhood education and the value of unpaid care work.

For the cross-cutting domain of social wealth indicators, here are seven examples of measures to be included broken down by gender, race, and other classifications:

1. Infant and maternal mortality rates
2. Child poverty rates
3. Science and math achievement rankings for students
4. Return on investment on early childhood education

5. Economic value of unpaid care work drawing from time use surveys (with modifications suggested by Folbre and others)
6. Economic contribution of volunteer work
7. Economic and political participation rates for women, men, and communities of color

The above examples also point to the need for broadening the current setup of the proposed Key National Indicator System by including a social wealth domain, as well as for incorporating specific social wealth indicators such as maternal mortality into existing health measures and early childhood education into existing education measures.

The working group agreed that a web site clearinghouse for research and other materials on indicators should be created. Good work is already being done and shared through different venues such as academic networks and conferences as well as issue-based coalitions and platforms, but the information rarely leaks out of these silos to reach other stakeholders, including scholars outside the main disciplines involved in the work, nongovernmental organizations, advocacy groups, public agencies, and others who might be interested in or benefit from having access to the broad range of current work. Such an open platform could further peer learning and lead to unexpected collaborations.

Developing a system of social wealth indicators is a long-term process that will require partnerships among key stakeholders and entities tasked with collecting data at the national, local, and international levels. It demands a multipronged approach that considers the political and funding environment as well the methodological and data issues.

The incorporation of data on nonprofit institutions within the System of National Accounts (SNA) is a good example of how the process could be structured. Close collaboration between the Johns Hopkins University Center for Civil Society Studies and the Economic Statistics Branch of the United Nations Statistics Division resulted in the publication of the *Handbook on Non-profit Institutions in the System of National Accounts*, which recommends statistical standards and guidelines for the development of data on nonprofit organizations (United Nations 2003a). An example of outcomes at the national level is the Volunteering in America web site, which hosts a comprehensive collection of data on volunteering and civic engagement for every U.S. state and nearly 200 cities. The data are collected through the collaboration of the Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS), the U.S. Census Bureau, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and has been released annually since 2005.<sup>28</sup> This government-financed data collection followed significant investments by the nonprofit Independent Sector and the National Center for Charitable Statistics in developing methods and conducting surveys of volunteering in 1980s and 1990s. The economic value of volunteering is estimated by the number of people volunteering at nonprofits and the amount of hours volunteered. In 2010, for instance, volunteer hours were calculated as the equivalent of 8.8 million full-time employees. At average private wages, volunteer time was worth nearly \$284 billion (Roeger et al. 2011).

At the local level, the National Neighborhood Indicators Partnership (NNIP) is another example of a collaborative effort by the Urban Institute and local partners in 36 cities to develop and use neighborhood information systems in local policymaking and community building.<sup>29</sup> Thomas Kingsley, NNIP's co-director who attended the workshop, expressed strong interest in social wealth indicators for local use.

## Conclusion

Across the world, scholars and governments are creating and using measures of economic success and social well-being that go beyond gross domestic product. This promising trend is gathering steam; additional reports on indicators and systems have been identified since the release of *The State of Society* in 2010 (appendix D). While there are now many more indicators of individual and societal well-being, there is an urgent need for the creation of social wealth measures that focus on the critical matter of human capacity development and take into account the economic value of care work as well as indicators of the status of women and communities of color and their contributions to society and the economy. There is also a need to pay sufficient attention to the interaction of variables. It is critical to better understand those interactions and how they operate in concert to impact human capacity development and ultimately, economic and social progress.

The research and dialogue sponsored by the social wealth project identified the possibilities and challenges of a more robust national system of indicators that encompasses social wealth measures. The need is clear and pressing and there are many obstacles to be overcome, but the benefits will be transformative. Such a system will paint a more complete and accurate picture of the economic and social health of our nation. The crucial contributions of women and the intrinsic value of care work to the economy must be acknowledged and counted if pressing matters—from poverty to competitiveness in the global economy—are to be successfully addressed.

The development of such a system demands a long-term commitment from all stakeholders, including the federal government, which has the political platform and institutional wherewithal to see this essential undertaking through. There is a foundation of research and experience to build upon. Academics, research institutions, and issue-driven nonprofits such as women's, children's, caregivers', and other groups can collaborate by focusing attention on the need for broad and deep indicators that are necessary to expand coverage in existing national accounts and in new efforts such as the Key National Indicators System. Philanthropic foundations can help fund initiatives that engender public-private partnerships to develop and implement national and local social wealth measures. A coordinated effort can change the way we think about and measure our economy, providing more realistic tools to help navigate a very different social, political, and economic reality than existed at the birth of GDP. To move the United States forward, we need to develop and expand key indicators as well as construct a framework of high-priority indicators focused on social wealth and put them forward for discussion, piloting, and, ultimately, implementation. This can lead to better policymaking and ultimately greater economic prosperity and human well-being for all.

## Appendix A. Human Capacity and Care Investment Indicators

*Human Capacity Indicators* measure the degree of human capacity development. This includes health indicators in addition to life expectancy, maternal and infant health, and death and mortality that should be considered, such as the availability of contraception and prenatal care. Under the category of education, these are indicators such as early childhood education and parenting education.

*Care Investment Indicators* measure a country's national investment (from government, business, and civil society) in caring for people through both the paid and unpaid sectors as required to meet individual needs as well as the need for the high-quality human capital required for the nation to compete and succeed in a knowledge/service-based economy. Some indicators under these two domains are already in use while others, such as international comparisons of investment in parenting education and valuation of the economic contribution of care work in households, need to be developed.

*Human Capacity Indicators* include the following key measures:

- Caregiving measures:
  - Economic contribution of unpaid care work (e.g., Eurofound's European Working Conditions Survey data on paid and unpaid work; 1993 System of National Accounts; Wellington Region Genuine Progress Index);
  - Pay for caregivers compared to professions requiring equivalent levels of training and skill (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics); and
  - Availability of high-quality care, from child care to elder care (e.g., U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' 13 Indicators of Quality Child Care).
- Education measures:
  - Affordable high-quality early childhood education (e.g., National Institute for Early Education Research).
- Health measures:
  - Affordable family planning and prenatal health care (e.g., MEASURE DHS Project; National Institute of Health; U.S. Agency for International Development; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services);
  - Teen pregnancy rates (e.g., MEASURE DHS Project; National Institute of Health; U.S. Agency for International Development; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services); and
  - Maternal mortality rates (e.g., MEASURE DHS Project; National Institute of Health; Save the Children's *State of the World's Mothers*; U.S. Agency for International Development; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services).
- Social connectivity and cohesion measures:
  - Value of Nonprofit and Volunteer contributions (e.g., GPIAtlantic's Genuine Progress Index, *The Nonprofit Almanac 2012*, forthcoming).



- Environmental measures:
  - Air and water quality (e.g., United Nations Environmental Indicators; World Bank Environmental Economics and Indicators).
- Social equity measures:
  - Human rights, particularly violence and discrimination against women, children, and racial and other minorities (e.g., United Nations Development Programme; World Bank);
  - Wealth and income disparities, such as poverty rates for women and children and disparity of lifetime earnings between women and men (e.g., OECD; U.S. Census, *Current Population Survey*; World Bank);
  - Poverty rates, particularly differences between women and men related to unpaid care work (e.g., U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *American Time Use Survey*);
  - Status of women and children as predictors of general quality of life and long-term economic success (e.g., World Economic Forum's *Global Gender Gap Report*); and
  - Political and legal protections for women, children, the elderly, and communities of color (UNESCO's *Legal Protection Indicators in Early Childhood*).

*Care Investment Indicators* include measures in the following key areas:

- Government investment in care work:
  - Education for care work, including education for parenting in schools and universities (e.g., National Center for Education Statistics; Public Education Network's *Civic Index Indicators for Active Parents*);
  - Family-friendly policies throughout the lifespan, such as subsidies for unpaid care work in families (e.g. Social Security credits for caregivers); adequate training and salaries for paid care work; investments in early child care and education (e.g., British Columbia *Smart Family Policy 2010 Report Card*).
- Business investment in care work:
  - Paid vacation; quality health care and child care; flextime; paid family leave (e.g., British Columbia *Smart Family Policy 2010 Report Card*).
- Comparative investment data:
  - Investment in both paid and unpaid care work and human capacity development (e.g. Bureau of Economic Analysis' Satellite Accounts); and
  - Spending on prisons and military compared to education budgets nationally as well as through foreign aid, especially for the education of girls (e.g., Center for Defense Information; Stockholm International Peace Research Institute; U.S. Department of State).
- Public and private investment in protecting the environment (e.g., European Commission Environmental Protection Expenditure); and
- Return on Care Investment from high-quality early childhood education; correlation between investment in unpaid and paid care work and human capacity



development: and economic security, public savings on crime, prisons, and other back-end costs.

## Appendix B. Reports Included in *The State of Society*

America's Children (Forum on Child and Family Statistics), Indicators of Children's Well-Being:  
<http://www.childstats.gov/americaschildren/index.asp>

America's Civic Health Index (National Conference on Citizenship), Indicators of Civic Health:  
<http://www.ncoc.net/index.php?tray=content&tid=top5&cid=2gp76>

American Human Development Project (The Social Science Research Council), The American Human Development Index: [http://measureofamerica.org/wp-content/uploads/2009/05/measureofamerica\\_methodology.pdf](http://measureofamerica.org/wp-content/uploads/2009/05/measureofamerica_methodology.pdf)

The Calvert-Henderson Quality of Life Indicators: <http://www.calvert-henderson.com/overview.htm>

The Child and Youth Well-Being Index Report (The Foundation for Child Development):  
[http://www.fcd-us.org/usr\\_doc/Final-2009CWIRReport.pdf](http://www.fcd-us.org/usr_doc/Final-2009CWIRReport.pdf)

The Child Development Index (Save the Children):  
<http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/en/docs/child-development-index.pdf>

Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress:  
<http://media.ft.com/cms/f3b4c24a-a141-11de-a88d-00144feabdc0.pdf>

Counting on Care Work (University of Massachusetts):  
[http://www.mccormack.umb.edu/centers/csp/documents/counting\\_on\\_care\\_web\\_fullPercent200909.pdf](http://www.mccormack.umb.edu/centers/csp/documents/counting_on_care_web_fullPercent200909.pdf)

Doing Better for Children (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Six Dimensions of Child Well-Being: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/19/4/43570328.pdf>

The Failed States Index (The Fund for Peace):  
[http://www.fundforpeace.org/web/index.php?option=com\\_content&task=view&id=391&Itemid=549](http://www.fundforpeace.org/web/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=391&Itemid=549)

The Gender Equity and Quality of Life Index (The Center for Partnership Studies):  
<http://www.partnershipway.org/Economics-Politics/economics-public-policy/excerpts-from-women-men-and-the-global-quality-of-life>

Gender Equity Index (Social Watch): <http://www.socialwatch.org/node/11563>

Genuine Progress Indicator (Redefining Progress):  
[http://www.rprogress.org/sustainability\\_indicators/genuine\\_progress\\_indicator.htm](http://www.rprogress.org/sustainability_indicators/genuine_progress_indicator.htm)

Global Civil Society Index (London School of Economics):  
<http://www.lse.ac.uk/Depts/global/Publications/Yearbooks/2002/2002chapter910.pdf>

The Global Gender Gap Report (World Economic Forum), The Global Gender Gap 2009:  
<http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2009.pdf>

The Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme):  
<http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/>

The Human Poverty Indices (United Nations Development Programme), The Three Indicators of the Human Poverty Index: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/hpi/>

Gender-Related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure:  
[http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/gdi\\_gem/](http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/gdi_gem/)

Index of Social Health (Fordham Institute for Innovation in Social Policy):  
[http://www.fordham.edu/images/Graduate\\_Schools/GSSS/2003%20Index%20of%20Social%20Health.doc](http://www.fordham.edu/images/Graduate_Schools/GSSS/2003%20Index%20of%20Social%20Health.doc)

The Kids Count Data Book (The Annie E. Casey Foundation):  
<http://datacenter.kidscount.org/databook/2009/Default.aspx>

Missing Dimensions of Poverty Data (Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative):  
<http://www.ophi.org.uk/subindex.php?id=research2>

National Accounts of Well-Being (The New Economics Foundation), National Account of Well-Being Indicators: <http://www.nationalaccountsofwell-being.org/explore/indicators/zpersonal>

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Family Database:  
[http://www.oecd.org/document/4/0,3343,en\\_2649\\_34819\\_37836996\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/4/0,3343,en_2649_34819_37836996_1_1_1_1,00.html)

Society at a Glance 2009—OECD Social Indicators:  
[http://www.oecd.org/document/24/0,3343,en\\_2649\\_34637\\_2671576\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html#data](http://www.oecd.org/document/24/0,3343,en_2649_34637_2671576_1_1_1_1,00.html#data)

State of Working America Indicators: <http://www.stateofworkingamerica.org/tabfig.html>

State of World Population Report (United Nations Population Fund): <http://www.unfpa.org/swp/>

State of the World's Mothers (Save the Children), Women on the Front Lines of Health Care:

State of the World's Mothers 2010: <http://www.savethechildren.org/publications/state-of-the-worlds-mothers-report/SOWM-2010-Women-on-the-Front-Lines-of-Health-Care.pdf>

System of National Accounts (United Nations), System of National Accounts 2008:  
<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/SNA2008.pdf>

The (Un)Happy Planet Index 2.0 (New Economics Foundation), The (Un)Happy Planet Index 2.0: Why Good Lives Don't Have To Cost the Earth: <http://www.happyplanetindex.org/public-data/files/happy-planet-index-2-0.pdf>

Women, Men, and Quality of Life (Center for Partnership Studies):  
<http://www.partnershipway.org/Economics-Politics/economics-public-policy/excerpts-from-women-men-and-the-global-quality-of-life>

The World Factbook (Central Intelligence Agency), Country Profiles:  
<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/docs/profileguide.html>

## Appendix C. Workshop Participants

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## Appendix D. Additional Measures of Well-Being

Community Indicators Consortium: <http://www.communityindicators.net/>

Compendium of OECD Well-Being Indicators:  
[http://www.oecd.org/document/42/0,3746,en\\_2649\\_201185\\_47916764\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/42/0,3746,en_2649_201185_47916764_1_1_1_1,00.html)

European Working Conditions Survey Data, Hours Spent on Paid and Unpaid Work Per Week:  
[http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys/smt/ewcs/ewcs2010\\_14\\_05.htm](http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys/smt/ewcs/ewcs2010_14_05.htm)

Genuine Progress Index: <http://www.gpiatlantic.org/about.htm>

Global Creativity Index: <http://martinprosperity.org/2012/06/27/insight-rise-revisited-creativity-index/>

Healthy People 2020: <http://www.healthypeople.gov/2020/LHI/Default.aspx>

Levy Institute Measure of Economic Well-Being: <http://www.levyinstitute.org/research/?prog=4>

Lifelong Education and Resource Network (LEARN): [http://www.learn-council.ca/%20%20%20%20FamilyLiteracy\\_3\\_1580827437.pdf](http://www.learn-council.ca/%20%20%20%20FamilyLiteracy_3_1580827437.pdf)

MEASURE DHS Project: <http://www.measuredhs.com/Who-We-Are/About-Us.cfm>

Maryland Genuine Progress Indicator: <http://www.green.maryland.gov/mdgpi/>

Measure of America: <http://www.measureofamerica.org/>

OECD Better Life Index: <http://oecdbetterlifeindex.org/>

Public Education Network's Civic Index Indicators for Active Parents:  
[http://civicindex4education.org/main/home.cfm?Category=The\\_National&Section=Active\\_Parents](http://civicindex4education.org/main/home.cfm?Category=The_National&Section=Active_Parents)

State of the USA: [www.stateoftheusa.org](http://www.stateoftheusa.org)

UNESCO's Legal Protection Indicators in Early Childhood:  
<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002157/215738E.pdf>

United Nations Environmental Indicators:  
<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/environment/qindicators.htm>

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' 13 Indicators of Quality Child Care:  
<http://aspe.hhs.gov/hsp/ccquality-ind02/>

Wellington Region Genuine Progress Index: <http://www.gpiwellingtonregion.govt.nz/>

Women in America: <http://www.whitehouse.gov/administration/eop/cwg/data-on-women>

World Bank Environmental Economics and Indicators:  
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/ENVIRONMENT/EXTEEI/0,,menuPK:408056~pagePK:149018~piPK:149093~theSitePK:408050,00.html>

## Notes

<sup>1</sup> John F. Kennedy Presidential Library and Museum, “Remarks of Robert F. Kennedy at the University of Kansas, March 18, 1968,” <http://www.jfklibrary.org/Research/Ready-Reference/RFK-Speeches/Remarks-of-Robert-F-Kennedy-at-the-University-of-Kansas-March-18-1968.aspx> (last accessed July 11, 2012).

<sup>2</sup> The amount of time people spend doing various activities, such as paid work, child care, volunteering, and socializing. This is measured through time-use surveys employed by researchers and government agencies.

<sup>3</sup> U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2012, “National Income and Product Accounts Gross Domestic Product: Second Quarter 2012 (second estimate); Corporate Profits: Second Quarter 2012 (preliminary),” <http://www.bea.gov/newsreleases/national/gdp/gdpnewsrelease.htm> (accessed August 29, 2012).

<sup>4</sup> U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, “The Employment Situation–July 2012,” <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/empst.pdf> (accessed August 29, 2012).

<sup>5</sup> U.S. Census Bureau, 2011, “Income, Poverty and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2010,” [http://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/income\\_wealth/cb11-157.html](http://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/income_wealth/cb11-157.html) (accessed May 6, 2012).

<sup>6</sup> Adamson defines relative poverty as living in a household in which disposable income, when adjusted for family size and composition, is less than 50 percent of the national median income.

<sup>7</sup> National account systems are the standard methods for compiling measures of a country’s economic activity. They describe a coherent, consistent, and integrated set of macroeconomic accounts in the context of internationally agreed concepts, definitions, classifications, and accounting rules (United Nations Statistics Division, “The System of National Accounts,” <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna.asp>, accessed August 1, 2012).

<sup>8</sup> The State of the USA, “History,” <http://www.stateoftheusa.org/about/history/> (accessed August 1, 2012).

<sup>9</sup> The State of the USA, “History,” <http://www.stateoftheusa.org/about/history/> (accessed May 6, 2012).

<sup>10</sup> Ironmonger and Soupourmas define gross economic product as the sum of gross household product (GHP) and gross market product (GMP). They use GHP to refer to the unpaid value added from household production. GMP is GDP less the unpaid rental value of owner-occupied dwellings.

<sup>11</sup> Center for Partnership Studies, “Women, Men, and the Global Quality of Life,” <http://www.partnershipway.org/Economics-Politics/economics-public-policy/excerpts-from-women-men-and-the-global-quality-of-life> (accessed August 15, 2012).

<sup>12</sup> World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap, <http://www.weforum.org/issues/global-gender-gap> (accessed September 5, 2012).

<sup>13</sup> In 2010, the median annual pay gap between full-time working women and men was \$10,784 (median annual pay was \$36,931 for full-time working women and \$47,715 for their male counterparts; see DeNavas-Walt et al. 2011). Over four decades, this adds up to \$431,360.

<sup>14</sup> U.S. Census, “Table 4. People and Families in Poverty by Selected Characteristics: 2009 and 2010,” <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/poverty/data/incpovhlth/2010/table4.pdf> (accessed September 5, 2012).

<sup>15</sup> Both for households without spouses (U.S. Census, “Table 4. People and Families in Poverty”).

<sup>16</sup> U. S. Census, “POV01: Age and Sex of All People, Family Members and Unrelated Individuals Iterated by Income-to-Poverty Ratio and Race: 2010,” Annual Social and Economic (ASEC) Supplement,

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[http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032011/pov/new01\\_100\\_01.htm](http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032011/pov/new01_100_01.htm) (accessed September 5, 2012).

<sup>17</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration on Aging, "A Profile of Older Americans: 2011," [http://www.aoa.gov/aoaroot/aging\\_statistics/Profile/2011/docs/2011profile.pdf](http://www.aoa.gov/aoaroot/aging_statistics/Profile/2011/docs/2011profile.pdf) (Accessed August 29, 2012).

<sup>18</sup> United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, "Gender Responsive Marketing," [http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com\\_content&view=article&id=46&Itemid=112](http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=46&Itemid=112) (accessed May 11, 2012).

<sup>19</sup> United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, "Gender Responsive Budgets," [http://www.unifem.org/gender\\_issues/women\\_poverty\\_economics/gender\\_budgets.php](http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/women_poverty_economics/gender_budgets.php) (accessed August 5, 2012).

<sup>20</sup> U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "American Time Use Survey Overview," <http://www.bls.gov/tus/overview.htm> (accessed May 6, 2012).

<sup>21</sup> It is against the law in most states to leave a child under age 10 unsupervised.

<sup>22</sup> The replacement cost is usually a housekeeper's wage.

<sup>23</sup> The same cost for caring for one child or two because a babysitter could care for two babies for the price of one child.

<sup>24</sup> NIEER, "NEVADA PRE-K PROGRESS FALTERS: State ranks near bottom for access and funding: Lack of Availability in High-Quality Programs Could Threaten Nation's Future Job Prospects; New Cuts Proposed in a Number of States," press release, April 10, 2012.

<sup>25</sup> For a more detailed and technical explanation, go to the Levy Institute's web site: <http://www.levyinstitute.org/>.

<sup>26</sup> For a more detailed and technical explanation, go to the LIMEW web page: <http://www.levyinstitute.org/research/?prog=4>.

<sup>27</sup> Catherine Rampell, "The Beginning of the End of the Census?" *New York Times*, May 19, 2012, <http://www.nytimes.com/2012/05/20/sunday-review/the-debate-over-the-american-community-survey.html> (accessed July 24, 2012).

<sup>28</sup> Corporation for National and Community Service, "Volunteering in America," <http://www.nationalservice.gov/about/volunteering/index.asp> (accessed May 6, 2012).

<sup>29</sup> The National Neighborhood Indicators Partnership, <http://www.neighborhoodindicators.org/> (accessed May 6, 2012).



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