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Editor’s Note

Welcome to the 2014 AFCPE® Symposium Proceedings. The broad range of items selected by the program task forces for posters, practitioner’s forums, research papers, and student papers for the 2014 Annual Research and Training Symposium represents the expertise and commitment of our members to financial counseling, planning, and education across the lifespan in a variety of venues.

I would like to thank all who submitted and reviewed papers, practitioner forums and posters for the 2014 Annual Research and Training Symposium of AFCPE®. The Proceedings include all of the research papers, student papers, practitioner forum summaries, and poster abstracts presented at the AFCPE® Symposium in Bellevue, Washington, November 19-21, 2014.

I would especially like to thank Katie Tornow, AFCPE® Operations Officer, who patiently and graciously answered my many questions during the preparation of the Proceedings.

It has been a privilege, as well as an educational experience, to edit and format the Proceedings for this year’s AFCPE symposium. The opportunity to read each of the submissions prior to the conference has been invigorating. I am looking forward to attending as many of the presentations as possible. The commitment of the AFCPE membership is reflected in their submission of quality research and presentations for this year’s conference.

The 2014 symposium exemplifies AFCPE’s® mission of “providing outstanding professional development experiences for financial educators, practitioners and researchers to improve the economic wellbeing of individuals and families worldwide”.

Please consider submitting your work for publication in the 2015 AFCPE® Proceedings and for presentation at the symposium in Jacksonville, FL, November 18-20, 2015. Please visit the AFCPE® website (www.afcpe.org) for symposium details and submission guidelines.

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Assessing Impacts of a Financial Literacy Program on Peer Educators

Pamela Chow¹, Stacy-ann Miyashiro, Rosita Chang, Barbara Watanabe, Dean Nushida, University of Hawai’i

Key Words: college students, financial literacy, peer education

Many institutions of higher education have created financial literacy programs to mitigate attrition and improve student stress that affect performance and progress. (Goetz, J., et al., 2011; Tombitas, K., 2012). Often these programs utilize peer education and service learning models which have been widely used primarily in student services and health education. (Carns, et. al., 1993; Ender, S. C. & Newton, F. B., 2001; Annis, P., et. al., 2010). But, limited information is available regarding impacts on the financial literacy peer educators themselves.

It is the mission of the University of Hawai’i at Mānoa (UHM) Financial Literacy Program to impart financial education to our students, other colleges, high schools, and the community-at-large. The program provides accurate and reliable financial information through collaboration of professionals and students who serve as educators, facilitators, peer leaders and partners. The program empowers peer educators to instruct incoming students about financial literacy at New Student Orientation, classes, and events on campus. Any UHM student who has successfully completed their freshman studies may apply to become a peer educator. Students selected participate in a vigorous training on basic financial literacy concepts, personal development, and group process skills.

Methods were employed to assess whether the peer educators improve their financial knowledge and ability to manage their own money as well as strengthen presentation and group process skills. A Student Evaluation for a semester course was the basic instrument utilized since some students were enrolled in an internship class. The students were required to complete 150 hours of work, pass an online course with a score of at least 80%, and submit two papers. A detailed Plan of Action was required at the beginning of the semester. At the end, students provided a self-assessment of their performance elements and a detailed paper of the experience, knowledge and skills attainment, application to real world topics, and suggestions for program improvement.

The findings for 31 peer educators suggest that they improved in their financial knowledge and ability to manage their own money as well as strengthened presentation and group process skills. Positive qualitative data of peer educators regarding self-reflections on goal achievement, what they learned, accomplishments and contributions were reported. Self-reflections, peer cohort assessments, and supervisor observations provided information on strengthening of presentation and group process skills. Improvement of current personal financial management concepts and issues were obtained by a review of online lesson transcripts and analysis of pre-post reflective surveys for specific topics.

Although this data is limited to a small number, it suggests that utilizing peer educators in financial literacy dissemination can be a useful methodology to improve the financial literacy skills for these students as well as be an effective part of developing student leadership, involvement, and engagement on college campuses. Further research is needed to improve the assessment and impact of financial literacy programs on peer educators.

References

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**Demystifying Student Loans: Helping Minority Students Better Understand and Utilize Student Loans**

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**Key Words:** financial aid terminology, high school students, student loans, return on investment

Demystifying Student Loans is an interactive workshop geared toward high school students. This workshop exposes minority youth to an unfamiliar side of financial loans using a practical case study derived from an actual college student’s financial aid award letter and tuition and fees statement. Additionally, it educates youth on financial terms frequently used throughout the financial aid process when applying for student loans. Lastly, this workshop culminates with helping students determine the amount of loans they will borrow based on the business concept of return on investment (ROI) with respect to their aspiring professions and/or careers. The goal of the workshop is to take complex and intricate details about student loans and simplify them to enable students to gain a better understanding of student loans as well as make wiser and financially healthier choices when accessing student loans.

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Effectiveness of Online Financial Education in Rural States

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Key Words: distance education, financial behavior, financial education, online education, rural, webinar

Abstract
Individuals in rural areas often lack access to financial education opportunities. Distance education is being utilized to address this problem. A key question is how effective online education is at addressing this issue. This poster focuses on the effectiveness of two webinar based financial education programs. Solid Finances is a webinar based financial education program offered to individuals in the Montana University System whereas Growing Financial Wellness targeted those employed by South Dakota State University. Although marketing efforts were focused on these two entities the webinars were also open to the public free of charge.

Montana (MT) and South Dakota (SD) are similar in a number of ways; low population density, large geographic areas, low median household income, and high poverty levels. To determine webinar topics two approaches were taken. The first was a series of focus groups and the second was an online needs assessment survey. Both yielded similar results. The target audience indicated they wanted more information on many topics including estate planning, retirement planning, basic personal finance, insurance/risk management, and credit/debt.

During the 2013-2014 academic year webinars were conducted in both MT and SD. The 50 minute webinars were offered at noon, participants had the option to attend a hosted viewing site or at their personal computer. All sessions were recorded and available for archived viewing at the participants’ convenience. Between the two series approximately 1,175 hours of financial education were delivered to 320 individuals via the “live” sessions. Recordings were accessed an additional 2,513 times.

The sessions in both series were divided into topics area blocks. Post topic area evaluations were conducted using a retrospective pre-post survey to assess knowledge gained. A follow-up survey was sent three months after the series’ ended to gather data on behavior change. Evaluations were only sent to participants who attended a “live” session.

Participants indicated an increase in knowledge in all topic areas after attending a webinar presentation. Positive financial behaviors were also seen by those who completed the follow-up survey. Forty-one percent of survey respondents indicated they obtained a free copy of their credit report as a result of attending the session on credit reports scores. Sixty-eight percent of participants who attended a session on retirement planning indicated they estimated the amount of money they will need to retire.

References

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Exploring Cultural Meanings about Financial Management: The American Indian Case

Sharon M. Danes, Jennifer Garbow, Becky Hagen-Jokela, University of Minnesota

Key Words: American Indians, culture and money, financial management

Culture is more complex than either race or ethnicity (Chan & Lee, 2004). Culture, compared to ethnicity or race, is composed of interpersonal, interactive processes reflecting ways of behaving through family roles and values, communication patterns, affective styles, and decision-making (Hill, 2006). Yet, many financial education tools are culturally neutral resulting in less effective impacts when used with audiences composed of a culture other than that of the mainstream culture. Being more culturally aware in financial education is critical because research indicates that financial socialization is grounded in family interactions that influence financial attitude development, knowledge transfer, and financial capability development (Gudmunson & Danes, 2011). The connection between these two propositions is that families are culture-bearing units. So if cultural context is not considered in financial management education, counseling, or coaching efforts and behavior change is the goal, effectiveness is slighted.

Project objectives were twofold: (1) to explore understandings of family, household, resources, well-being, and financial decision making patterns of AIs, and (2) to utilize research findings to adapt existing financial education tools to reflect cultural nuances discovered in the analysis of the study findings. A team of Extension Educators developed the interview questions and protocol. Interviews were conducted by three interviewers (one being American Indian), sometimes working solely and sometimes working in pairs. Sample is rural AIs originating from counties where a large majority of AIs resided. Respondents were the primary household financial manager.

Findings indicate that AIs view many constructs used in financial education quite unlike how they are defined within the financial management discipline. Family is an active kinship system inclusive of parents, cousins, children, “aunties”, uncles and grandparents. Close, trusted friends are also considered family. Household is very fluid; it is so because AI values create obligations to make certain everyone’s basic needs are met. Money is secondary in priority to relationships. Well-being is about harmony and balance, not success. Money is a means to an end, not an end in itself. Well-being is not just about physical health, but mental, emotional and spiritual health, as well.

Income sources need to be thought about not just as individual or family resources. In fact, when asked about the meaning of resources, respondents often discussed social service or other agency resources. Reservation dwellers have access to resources not available to non-dwellers. With high unemployment, money may come from social welfare programs. Further, natural resources such as meat from hunting or fishing, ricing, berry-picking, and making maple syrup reduce food expenses. Trading and bartering are regular practices in some families.

Financial decision making and the paying of bills is often done by the oldest woman in the household or the home owner. Current members of the household often contribute what they can; one or two systematic, continual sources of income are not the norm. Present time thinking is the norm and combined with a deep spirituality, there is often a belief that what happens is the design of the Creator. Thus, the focus for many AIs is meeting the needs of the day.

Expense and income worksheets were designed to incorporate the AI cultural nuances discovered in the study findings. This study demonstrates a collaborative model where a cultural community informed educational tool development. It is a scholarly model that begins with research; educational outcomes result that will be piloted. The final step will be to evaluate the impact of the tools’ use to determine their behavioral change impact on the financial management of AIs. Education is more effective when cultural nuances are acknowledged and respected. When people see that the tools reflect their beliefs, values, and expectations, motivation to change their behavior is enhanced and there is a greater probability that the tools will be used in future financial management practices.

Financial Counseling: Categorizing Research Papers Published in *Journal of Financial Counseling and Planning*

Jing Jian Xiao\(^5\), University of Rhode Island, Frances C. Lawrence, Louisiana State University
Alyssa Francis, University of Rhode Island

**Key Words:** financial counseling, *Journal of Financial Counseling and Planning*

This poster presentation provided a summary of selected research papers on financial counseling published in the *Journal of Financial Counseling and Planning* (JFCP) since its first issue in 1990 to its latest issue in June 2014. The overall purpose of the investigation was to categorize research papers published in the JFCP to provide helpful information for financial counselors. In addition, the poster presentation provided recommendations for future applied research projects that benefit the work of financial counselors.

AFCPE’s “Journal Archives” website was used to search for relevant papers. A snowball method was used to generate relevant papers to be reviewed. First, a key word, financial counseling, was used to produce pertinent papers. After reading titles and abstracts of these papers, more key words were used to search for additional papers. For example, using “behavior change” as a key word, more relevant papers using the behavior change theory were located. Employing this method, 57 papers were located and reviewed.

After reviewing these papers, several categories emerged. These categories were conceptual discussions on financial counseling, theories used in financial counseling, scales developed for financial counseling, vulnerable consumer populations who need financial counseling, and descriptions of the financial counseling industry. The following are brief descriptions of these categories.

**Conceptual discussion.** Conceptual discussions are helpful for clarifying concepts and proposing new ideas. Langrehr (1991) discussed similarities and differences between financial counseling and planning. Other researchers discussed helpful concepts and tools used by financial counselors such as financial ratios (Lytton et al., 1991) and financial well-being (Porter & Garman, 1993). Lastly, researchers discussed the association between financial concerns and productivity (Williams et al., 1996) and how to improve housing affordability indices (Jewkes & Delgadillo, 2010).

**Theories.** Several theories are applied in the setting of financial counseling. The theory of transtheoretical model of behavior change (TTM) is used to help people develop desirable financial behaviors. Kerkmann (1998) first conceptually discussed the application of this theory to financial counseling. After that, the theory was applied in the setting of credit counseling (Xiao et al., 2004). In addition, this theory was applied to financial education (Shockey & Seiling, 2004, Lyons et al., 2007) and retirement saving behavior (Gutter et al., 2007). This theory is considered a major behavior change theory that can be used to develop action-oriented financial education programs that help consumers take actions to achieve their financial well-being (NEFE, 2005).

Several other theories that are suitable in the setting of financial counseling are also applied or developed. The theory of planned behavior is used to understand and predict human behavior. This theory is applied in the setting of credit counseling (Xiao & Wu, 2008) and credit behavior (Rutherford & DeVaney, 2009). The theory of financial help-seeking behavior was proposed and validated with data (Grable & Joo, 1999; 2001). Recently, a family financial socialization model was proposed conceptually (Danes & Yang, 2014).

**Scales.** Behavioral scales are efficient ways to measure financial behaviors that can be used by financial counselors. Several scales, such as a financial strain scale (Aldana & Liljenquist, 1998), a compulsive buying measure (Edwards, 1993), and a measure of attitudes toward seeking financial counseling (Lown & Cook, 1990), are closely...
related to consumers who have financial difficulties and need financial counseling. Several scales measure general financial behaviors and can also be used by financial counselors. Such scales include a scale of financial management decision style (Rettig & Schulz, 1991), a scale of personal financial management style (Prochaska-Cue, 1993), a scale of financial distress/well-being (Prawitz et al., 2006), a financial management behavior scale (Dew & Xiao, 2011), and a financial self-efficacy scale (Lown, 2012). In addition, financial counselors can use several measures developed for special topics or populations such as measures of risk tolerance (Hanna et al., 2001; Hanna & Lindamood, 2004) and money attitude measures for adolescents (Beutler & Gudmunson, 2012).

Vulnerable consumer populations. Vulnerable consumer populations may need special attention by financial counselors. Research papers provide helpful information for counselors to better understand these populations for developing effective strategies to help them. Military personnel are such a population. Research has focused on career changes (Brunson et al., 1998), financial issues (Varcoe et al., 2003), financial resources (Plantier & Durband, 2007), and the financial well-being (Bell et al., 2014) of military personnel.

Consumers in credit and housing counseling are examples of other vulnerable populations. Researchers examined these consumers’ educational desires (Bailey et al., 2003), financial behaviors (Kim et al., 2003), financial distress and health (O’Neill et al., 2005; 2006), and mortgage default behaviors (Delgadillo & Green-Pimentel, 2007). Another vulnerable population is college students. Researchers have investigated college students’ financial problems (Kerkmann et al., 2000), financial anxiety (Archuleta et al., 2013), and credit card behavior (Leach et al., 1999; Lyons & Hunt, 2003; Hayhoe et al., 2005; Jones, 2006; Robb & Sharpe, 2009). Researchers have also studied college students’ perception of status-conveying goods (Fan, & Burton, 2002), financial aid (Churaman, 1992), money goals (Dilworth et al., 2000), scholarship status (Goetz et al., 2008), debt burden (Kim et al., 2012), and characteristics and needs (Pope & Howe, 1991).

Other vulnerable populations include low-income consumers and rural residents. Researchers have studied cash flow management behavior (Godwin & Kooonce, 1992), saving behavior (Hogarth, et al., 2003), and risk taking behavior (Griesdorn et al., 2014) of low income consumers. In addition, researchers examined economic adjustment strategies of farmers experiencing economic stress (Danes & Rettig, 1995).

Industry Description. Researchers described a profile of Accredited Financial Counselor (Oleson et al., 2004). Several papers described financial counseling situations from international perspectives such as Canada (McGregor & Berry, 1997), South Korea (Lown & Ju, 2000), and Sweden (Klingander, 2000).

In sum, in the past 25 years, the Journal of Financial Counseling and Planning has published over 300 research papers in financial counseling, planning, and education that have helpful information for financial counselors, planners, advisers, coaches, and educators. In this poster, we only focused on articles relevant to financial counseling. Interested readers may visit the journal website http://www.afcpe.org/publications/ to locate more papers that have helpful information for their work.

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Financial Education Designed to Assist Students for Post-Secondary Success

Jessica Kailer and Ann House, University of Utah Personal Money Management Center

A review of the literature on the subject of students and personal finances shows that financial pressure has become the number one reason for dropout rates and food insecurity among college students. We have also learned that educational interventions early in students’ college careers can prevent mistakes linked to increased debt and can start undergraduates on the road to a secure financial future. Educating students in personal financial management while helping avoid hunger associated with financial strain can be difficult; however, research indicates that a narrowly defined financial education program may be the most effective method.

The University of Utah’s Personal Money Management Center in collaboration with TRiO created a narrowly focused financial education series for low-income first generation students teaching the practical application of how to eat well on a budget. Successful personal finance and budgeting incorporates a variety of choices every day; what better way to impact this process than with a necessity of everyday life - food? We chose to help students positively impact their budget three times a day by teaching them ways to make smart food choices. When students are equipped with tools and a knowledge base to make smart food choices, their budget will benefit. Through an interactive 6-week series held in a classroom and kitchen setting, students learned financial tools for success while also receiving hands on experience for how to create and cook budget-friendly nutritious meals and snacks.

Through a self-administered pre-session survey, we uncovered information pertaining to the students’ spending habits, attitudes toward money and nutrition, and current money management and nutrition knowledge. Post-session survey results showcased an increased knowledge base accompanied by increased confidence levels when compared to pre-survey findings. Students specifically gained self-efficacy in how to cook, plan meals, and effectively grocery shop with a budget. We also found that low-income first generation college students did not differ from a general sample of college students when it comes to proficiency in managing personal finances or stress caused by finances and higher education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ attitudes with regard to nutrition and budgeting:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I worry about how to manage my money.</td>
<td>-15%</td>
<td>-11%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spend an appropriate amount of my budget on food.</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>-10%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident in ways to reduce money spent on food.</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>-15%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
<td>-8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy cooking.</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>-7%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident in my ability to make smart food choices for body and budget.</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>-23%</td>
<td>-12%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing Results Before Workshop to After Workshop

Students responded overall with an increase in confidence and know-how to make smart food choices for their budget. Through survey results we saw a 26% decrease in the number of students worried about how to manage their money and a 39% increase of students confident in their ability to make smart food choices for their body and budget. This narrowly focused curriculum in conjunction with hands-on learning created an environment conducive to knowledge retention and increased self-efficacy with regard to personal financial management and food security.

References

6Jessica Kailer, University of Utah, Olpin Student Union Building, 200 S. Central Campus Dr., Room 317B, Salt Lake City, UT 84112, Office: 801.585.7379, Email: jkailer@sa.utah.edu, Website: http://personal-money-management.utah.edu.
Financial Education: Debt and Savings Behavioral Changes

Lauren Robinson\textsuperscript{7}, Nancy Granovsky, Rebekka Dudensing, Joyce Cavanagh; Texas A&M University

Key Words: behavioral change, debt, extension, financial behavior, money management programs, savings, Wi$eUp.

Wi$eUp is a financial education curriculum designed to increase savings and decrease debts in participants. Effective financial education occurs when the content taught produces tangible changes in behaviors. To assess the program, Wi$eUp asked all participants to participate in a survey three months after completing the curriculum. The questions focused on behavioral changes, such as increased savings and reduced debt, rather than changes in recitative knowledge.

We examine new healthy financial behaviors in the areas of debt and savings using 125 post-instruction questionnaires of course participants. This sample contains three groups of participants—those who completed both the debt and savings modules, those who took only the savings module, and those who took only the debt module. We construct “healthy financial behavior scores” based on the number of newly introduced healthy financial behaviors a participants reports engaging in after completing the Wi$eUp course. The survey questions are divided into debt or savings-specific questions based on Hilgert & Hogarth’s standardized questions (2003), giving a “healthy debt score” and a “healthy savings score” for each participant.

We find that, holding other factors constant, debt behavior in our sample participants changed significantly with participation in the Wi$eUp module on debt. The highest average healthy scores overall for debt come from the groups that took both modules followed by participants who had taken the debt module only. This may be tentative evidence of the efficaciousness of debt education at producing measurable changes in behavior. Repeated application of debt education to diverse groups could provide information about the magnitude of this effect.

Gains in healthy savings scores were not statistically significant, but participants who received both debt and savings education modules did score higher than single-module participants. Savings behavior appears to be less malleable than debt behavior, potentially because of the psychological nature of saving and the need for a longer timeline. Participants’ level of educational attainment also contributed significantly to changes in behavior.

This evaluation suggests that education, especially debt education, may change financial behavior. Wi$eUp’s method of evaluation focused on intentions and dynamic behaviors, but this growth may take years rather than months. Research that has direct observational data on financial behavior, instead of relying on self-reports, could also contribute to the knowledge base by offering more accurate data on the gap between reported and observed behavior. Continued study of behavioral factors as well as community and classroom support of behavioral modifications will provide new avenues of research and promising practice.

References


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Financial Educator Certificate Program

Mary Jo Katras\(^8\), Cathy Solheim, Dung Mao and Veronica Deenanath, University of Minnesota

**Key Words:** financial education, online education, financial capacity

In the past decade there has been an increased attention on financial education (Braunstein & Welch, 2007). This can be partially attributed to changes in the economic climate, lack of consumer knowledge, and questionable lending practices (Katras, Croymans, & Anderson-Porisch, 2012). Financial professionals have been challenged with an increased demand to provide financial education, stretching the capacity of some organizations to keep up with the ever-changing world of personal finance.

The Financial Educators Certificate (FEC) program is a nine month synchronous online course designed to help financial educators understand core concepts of financial education, demonstrate mastery of core financial practices, and comprehend core tenets of financial education and evaluation. The FEC program fills a need for financial education at two different levels—the individual and organizational. First, at the individual level, FEC helps professionals not only build content knowledge but also confidence in their ability to teach personal finance concepts to their clients and the communities they serve. Second, at the organizations level, FEC helps to build financial education capacity of an organization by providing knowledge and skills to develop and improve programming.

FEC was launched in September of 2014 with a cohort of 22 financial professionals from six different community organizations. The 10-module program covers core financial concepts of earning, spending, saving, borrowing, and protecting along with broader topics of financial behavior theory, financial education delivery methods, ethics, and program evaluation. Each module consists of videos, narrated presentation, discussion forums, live chats, a case study, and short quizzes. Cohort participants were given 2-3 weeks to complete each module, depending on the topic.

The financial professionals who successfully completed the FEC course have core knowledge of content, delivery methods, theory, ethics, and evaluation. This certification will help to build the financial education capacity of organizations to help support the development, implementation, and delivery of current and future financial education programming. Further, due to the dynamic nature of the personal finance area, FEC will provide continuing education opportunities to keep individuals and organizations up-to-date on new content, research and policies.

The poster will provide a description of course participants, the course development process and the structure of online delivery. Using pre and post survey data, the poster will also examine the effectiveness of the course in building participant personal finance content knowledge, confidence in teaching financial education, and building organizational capacity to inform current and future program delivery.

**References**

\(^8\)Mary Jo Katras, University of Minnesota Extension, Bunker Hills Act Ctr L-1, 550 Bunker Lake Blvd NW Andover, MN 55304; mkatras@umn.edu; 612.203.6403.
From Financial Literacy to Financial Health for Life

Lucy M. Delgadillo, Utah State University

Key Words: financial health, financial literacy

Introduction
In 2012, President Barack Obama declared April as the National Financial Literacy Month (White House, 2012). His proclamation calls upon “all Americans to observe this month with programs and activities to improve their understanding of financial principles and practices.” Following Obama’s proclamation, Idaho proclaimed April as the Financial Literacy Month in 2013, following by Arkansas (2014), Oklahoma (2014) Texas (2014). In 2014, Utah was the first in the country to proclaim April as the Financial Health Month, instead of financial literacy.

Financial health can be understood as a process and a destination. Financial health is a holistic term that integrates not only the numerical aspects of money (external finances) but also the emotional and relational ones (internal finances) (Klontz, Kahler, and Klontz, 2008). Financial Health, as opposed to financial literacy, also recognizes that people are at different stages of change. Some people are in a pre-contemplation stage, others are in contemplation, others are in preparation, others are in action stage, and others are in maintenance stage (Xiao, O’Neill, Prochaska, Kerbel, Brennan, & Bristow, 2004). One way to move individuals from pre-contemplation to contemplation in relation to financial issues is by increasing awareness (e.g. through mass media channels). Being exposed to information can create cognitive dissonance within an individual. Another way to promote adoption of healthy financial habits is by promoting emotional arousal about their own financial status quo and or about a desirable and healthy financial behavior.

The purpose of the poster is to promote Financial Health, as a holistic term, and to show-case how practitioners can use the state-level executive branch of government as an important stake-holder to leverage financial literacy efforts.

Discussion
The celebration of Financial Health month in Utah extended an invitation to all individuals, couples, families, students, and members of the community to self-reflect on their own financial life; it was an invitation to be better informed about their own finances, and an invitation to foster dialogue about finances with significant others. In doing so, individuals and families would be more resourceful in dealing with crisis, weathering persistent stress, and understanding options to meet future financial challenges.

Conclusion and Implications
The activities organized in the state of Utah during the month of April 2014 helped increase awareness of financial matters for individuals and families. A good understanding of financial health can help people achieve confidence, financial security, self-fulfillment and happiness, accumulation of assets and improvement of their overall wellbeing. When people have a better understanding of their money habits, money biases, and the emotional triggers that foster shopping and overspending, for example, they will be more in control of their own finances. They would be able to recognize, without internalizing, their own money weaknesses, but they can turn those weaknesses into strengths through learning and experiential growth. This project shows that it is possible for financial professionals to leverage the impact and efforts of their financial education/literacy programs by partnering with powerful state-level stake holders.

References

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Helping Families Recover Financially After a Disaster: A Webinar Series for Helping Professionals

Sara Croymans\textsuperscript{10}, Lori Hendrickson & Becky Hagen Jokela, University of Minnesota Extension

Key Words: disaster, financial, recovery, webinar

U.S. households and individuals are experiencing natural disasters in growing numbers (National Climatic Data Center, 2012). Simultaneously, the ability of individuals and families to financially handle disaster and financial distress has been made more difficult by the recent recession. Already vulnerable, consumers are not well positioned to financially survive a disaster. The effects of disaster recovery on families have been an overlooked area of research (Peek, et.al. 2011, Knowles, et.al. 2010). Following a disaster, survivors are faced with complex financial decisions: documenting loss, managing family finances before and after disaster, determining the ability to afford additional payments, finding housing, accepting financial assistance, and accessing recovery resources.

It is vital for disaster survivors and helping individuals to understand the financial issues and to have the tools and resources to navigate the recovery process. To address this need, the University of Minnesota Extension developed a webinar series, Helping Families Recover Financially After a Disaster: A webinar series for helping professionals. The goal of the series was to prepare disaster professionals to assist survivors through the financial recovery process. The series was based on the “Recovery After Disaster: The Family Financial Toolkit” (\textit{www.extension.umn.edu/go/1064}) written by the University of Minnesota Extension and NDSU Extension Service. The webinars were held monthly November 2013 - March 2014 addressing: What Do I Do Now? Documenting, Coping & Caring; Where to Start? Moving Towards Recovery; Where Am I Financially? Taking a Financial Snapshot; Where Will I Live? Making Housing Decisions; and What Will Life Look Like? Creating the New Reality.

Webinars were chosen as the delivery method to provide this education to disaster professionals. Due to the nature of disaster response, there is merit in providing free, recovery-focused training via distance education because of the minimal time required (5 one-hour sessions) to attend. A certificate of attendance and AFCPE Accredited Financial Counselor CEUs were available. The webinars were archived for those not able to attend, thus providing a resource readily available for helping professions as needed. Extension educators utilized a mix of video and audio clips to engage participants with a variety of learning styles. Disaster professionals and survivors shared their knowledge as guest speakers. Participants were engaged through chats and polls. Registrations were received from 453 professionals across the United States and world. Results from the end of session evaluations and six month follow-up evaluation will be shared. The archived webinars are available at \textit{http://www.extension.umn.edu/family/disaster-recovery/moving-towards-recovery/helping-families-recover/webinar-series/}.

References


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Identity Theft Risk Reduction Factors: Results from an Online Survey

Barbara O’Neill11, Rutgers University, Jing Jian Xiao, University of Rhode Island

Key Words: credit report, credit score, fraud, identity theft

Literature Review
This study analyzes recent data about actions that consumers are taking, or not taking, to reduce their chance of becoming an identity theft fraud victim. O’Neill and Xiao (2005) studied the identity theft risk reduction practices of 287 respondents to an online identity theft risk assessment quiz. They found that checking a credit report for evidence of identity theft was the least frequently reported identity theft risk reduction practice on the quiz. Other areas of weakness were not securing incoming mail and carrying a Social Security card or identification with a Social Security number. Similar findings were found a few years later with a sample of 1,042 quiz respondents (O’Neill & Xiao, 2008).

Purpose and Justification
This study investigated the frequency of performance of 20 recommended identity theft risk reduction practices using data collected from an online self-assessment tool. It also explored differences in frequency of identity theft risk reduction practices by demographic characteristics and compared findings from the current study with two earlier studies using the same online survey instrument (O’Neill & Xiao, 2005, 2008).

Methodology and Sample
Data were collected from a sample of 4,599 respondents to an online survey about identity theft risk reduction practices (see http://njaes.rutgers.edu/money/identitytheft/) between January 1, 2007 and April 4, 2014. The sample was 56.4% female and skewed young with over half (58.4%) of respondents under age 35, 28.1% age 35-54, and 13.5% age 55 and over. Almost 4 in 10 (39.8%) had a bachelor’s degree or higher and 72.2% were white. Four in ten (40.1%) earned less $25,000, 37.9%, $25,000 to $74,999, and 22%, $75,000 and over.

Results/Discussion
The higher the score, the more frequently identity theft risk reduction practices are performed. The mean quiz score was 73.58 versus 74.17 with a 2005-2006 sample (O’Neill & Xiao, 2008) and 70.83 with a 2003 sample (O’Neill & Xiao, 2005). Mean scores for individual quiz items ranged from 2.50 to 4.48. As in the two studies noted above, two areas of weakness were checking one’s credit report annually (score of 2.65) and securing incoming mail (score of 2.50). In contrast to the prior studies, however, the score for carrying documents with a Social Security number (SSN) improved (score of 3.72), reflecting less use of SSNs as an identifier. Almost two-thirds (64.4%) of respondents scored between 70 and 100. The three risk reduction strategies that were performed most frequently (mean score above 4) were not divulging one’s SSN, not printing sensitive data on checks, and practicing “general security consciousness.” Many score rankings were similar to previous studies.

ANOVA tests were used to explore differences in the frequency of identity theft risk reduction practices by demographic variables. The total quiz score (20 questions) differed by gender, age, education, income, race, and marital status groups. Female scores averaged 73.8 versus 73.2 for males. Age showed a reverse U shape pattern with the youngest group (under 25) scoring the lowest (70.5) and the second oldest group (65-74) scoring the highest (79.5). Education was positively associated with quiz score. The higher the educational level, the higher the score. People with a high school diploma or some high school had below-average scores. Income showed a reverse U shape pattern. The lowest income group had the lowest score (70.8) and the second highest income group had the highest score (77.3). Blacks had the lowest score (69.0) and Hispanics had the second lowest score (70.8) versus 74.6 for whites. Singles without minor children had the lowest score (72.1) and singles with children had the second lowest score (72.3). Both scores were below average.

11Rutgers Cooperative Extension, Cook Office Building, 55 Dudley Road, Room 107, New Brunswick, NJ 08901, Phone: 848.932.9126; Fax: 732.932.8887; Email: oneill@aesop.rutgers.edu.
Conclusions/Implications
The results of this study indicate identity theft risk reduction strategies that are frequently practiced and those that need attention by consumers and the financial practitioners who assist them. Although the mean score for checking a credit report annually for errors and evidence of identity theft was slightly higher (2.65) in this study than previous studies using the same survey instrument, it is still performed infrequently. Since all data for this study were collected well after respondents were eligible for a free credit report under FACTA, it appears that cost is not a major factor affecting the decision to request a credit report and that other barriers need to be addressed.

References


Table 1
Average Scores for Identity Theft Risk Assessment Quiz Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identity Theft Risk Reduction Practice (Quiz Item)</th>
<th>Score/(Rank) 2007-2014 Sample N = 4,599</th>
<th>Score/(Rank) 2004-2006 Sample N= 1,042</th>
<th>Score/(Rank) 2003 Sample N= 287</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Check credit report annually.</td>
<td>2.65 (18)</td>
<td>2.52 (18)</td>
<td>2.13 (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Review bank and/or brokerage account statements.</td>
<td>3.36 (9)</td>
<td>4.05 (5)</td>
<td>3.94 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Save credit card receipts and check them against statements.</td>
<td>3.52 (15)</td>
<td>3.79 (10)</td>
<td>3.76 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Know the approximate billing cycle for credit cards and utility bills.</td>
<td>3.48 (16)</td>
<td>3.54 (10)</td>
<td>3.25 (15-tie)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Use a crosscut shredder, fireplace, or woodstove to destroy “sensitive” documents.</td>
<td>3.61 (13)</td>
<td>3.64 (12-tie)</td>
<td>3.25 (15-tie)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Destroy everything that contains information of interest to identity thieves.</td>
<td>3.68 (12)</td>
<td>3.74 (11-tie)</td>
<td>3.46 (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Avoid giving out Social Security number or bank account numbers.</td>
<td>4.48 (1)</td>
<td>4.53 (1)</td>
<td>4.42 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Have a post office box or a locked mailbox for incoming mail.</td>
<td>2.50 (19)</td>
<td>2.57 (17)</td>
<td>2.44 (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Place outgoing mail in a secured collection box.</td>
<td>3.58 (14)</td>
<td>3.87 (8)</td>
<td>3.81 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Have mail held or picked up when away.</td>
<td>3.94(5)</td>
<td>4.12 (3 )</td>
<td>4.25 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Question how personal information will be used before revealing it.</td>
<td>3.88 (6)</td>
<td>3.93 (7 )</td>
<td>3.85 (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Cautious about not leaving personal information lying around.</td>
<td>3.79 (8)</td>
<td>3.74 (11-tie)</td>
<td>3.61 (11)</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Avoid carrying Social Security card or any type of identification card with my Social Security number.</td>
<td>3.72 (11)</td>
<td>3.21 (16)</td>
<td>2.88 (17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Avoid printing driver’s license or Social Security number on personal checks.</td>
<td>4.35 (2)</td>
<td>4.27 (2)</td>
<td>4.15 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Limit the amount of personal information “out there” (e.g., Internet).</td>
<td>3.98 (94)</td>
<td>4.03 (6)</td>
<td>3.93 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Limit the number of credit cards and information routinely carried around.</td>
<td>3.74 (10-tie)</td>
<td>3.63 (13)</td>
<td>3.50 (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Aware of access to personal information at work.</td>
<td>3.81 (7)</td>
<td>3.64 (12-tie)</td>
<td>3.37 (14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Cross out credit card number on receipts for travel reimbursement.</td>
<td>3.30 (17)</td>
<td>3.37 (15)</td>
<td>3.08 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Careful about completing postcards that contain sensitive information.</td>
<td>3.74 (10)</td>
<td>3.82 (9)</td>
<td>3.68 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Practice “general security consciousness.”</td>
<td>4.09 (3)</td>
<td>4.09 (4)</td>
<td>4.06 (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Intergenerational Land Transfer Collaborative Education

Rebecca Hagen Jokela12, Michael Reichenbach, Cindy Petersen, University of Minnesota Extension

Key Words: intergenerational, land transfer, resource management

Intergenerational Land Transfer education assists forestland owners in passing land from one generation to the next, by providing support to families as they communicate about land decisions. As many forestland owners age, some desire to keep their land in the family. University of Minnesota Educators partnered together to deliver workshops to meet this need.

Unless family forestland owners know how to pass the land from one generation to the next generation, working forestlands are likely to be lost. The University of Minnesota’s unique approach to teaching succession planning, known as the Intergenerational Land Transfer Class, incorporates informational content expertise from two University of Minnesota Extension program areas, Forestry and Family Resource Management.

The workshops focused on three main objectives: (1) to learn about multi-generational family dynamics; (2) to understand family land ethics, and (3) to acknowledge the legal aspects of land transfer.

Family communication has been shown to be necessary for successful land transfer. A post class follow-up survey was used to evaluate goals and objectives. Between 2007 and 2010 the University of Minnesota Extension offered nine two-part classes (Reichenbach, Jokela, Sagor, 2013). Extension educators surveyed 107 class participants to assess the classes’ effectiveness at increasing family communication and protecting working forestlands. Many participants reported they were confident that they could realize their hopes and dreams of successfully transferring their management ethic and land to the next generation. The intentional teaching both about family communication and legal tools used in land transfer was shown to be beneficial. The Intergenerational Land Transfer Class was effective at catalyzing family discussion and protecting working forestlands.

References

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Money Scripts of Students in a Personal Financial Planning Class

Ryan H. Law, University of Missouri

Key Words: behavior change, money scripts, personal finance, students

Description
Klontz, Kahler and Klontz (2008) have defined money scripts as “unconscious beliefs each of us have developed concerning money and life” (p. 63). They are typically formed early in life and come from a variety of sources, including family, culture, religion and advertising. Klontz et al. (2008) identified the top ten most common money scripts as follows:

1. More money will make things better
2. Money is bad
3. I don’t deserve money
4. I deserve to spend money
5. There will never be enough money
6. There will always be enough money
7. Money is unimportant
8. Money will give me meaning
9. It’s not nice (or necessary) to talk about money
10. If you are good, the Universe will supply all your needs

For this project I tested which of these money scripts were the most prevalent in my Financial Counseling class that I teach at the University of Missouri. Most of the students in my class will go on to careers in financial planning and/or counseling, and I thought this project would offer unique insights into how this specific set of students felt about money.

I collected some basic demographic information (age, gender, major, childhood socioeconomic status, and if they carry any student loan and/or credit card debt). I then administered a 30-question survey based on the top ten most common money scripts. Some questions were simply rephrasing of the money script (i.e. I do not deserve to spend money) and some questions came from Klontz, Britt, Mentzer and Klontz’s (2011) article that measured money scripts. Three questions pertained to each of the ten money scripts.

Klontz et al. (2008) argued that it is important for practitioners to understand their own money scripts because they can influence how they interact with clients. This project helped the students in my class begin to understand their own beliefs about money.

The most common money script was more money will make things better, followed by it is not nice to discuss money and I deserve to spend money.

The inventory could be taken and adapted to other practitioners or clients. I will have a handout with the inventory and results from my class.

References

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PowerPay Debt Elimination Tool Goes Mobile

Margie Memmott14, Extension Associate Professor, Utah State University; Dean Miner, Extension Professor, Utah State University; Stacey MacArthur, Extension Assistant Professor, Utah State University

Key Words: budget, debt reduction, finance, mobile apps, powerpay

PowerPay has a successful history as a financial tool for consumers, educators, facilitators, and counselors since it was created and introduced in 1992. It has been widely used by Extension, as well as private, public, and U.S. military based counselors and educators. Research has also cited the effectiveness of PowerPay as a specialized debt reduction tool (O’Neill, 1998; O’Neill & Ensle, 2012). Other research indicated that PowerPay was easy to use, was relevant and personalized, and was high quality as rated by users (Miner & Harris, 1998 & Miner & Harris 2001).

Although the PowerPay website (powerpay.org) has been a highly successful resource, opportunity to reach an additional audience through mobile technology exists. The PowerPay App was created to meet this need. Both Extension professionals and clientele have shown their readiness and adoption of technology in disseminating and receiving information. Research supports this migration of technology for delivering programs. One study (Diem, Hino, Martin, & Meisenbach, 2011) challenged Extension to lead by example by modeling and promoting the use of technology for faculty, staff, and volunteers.

Through a collaborative Extension partnership, the PowerPay mobile app for iOS was developed in 2014 by Margie Memmott, Dean Miner and team at Utah State University, and Barbara Chamberlin, Learning Games Lab and team at New Mexico State University. Within the first 11 days of its launch, the app had been downloaded in 11 countries (App Annie, 2014).

The new PowerPay mobile app is a financial tool to help consumers develop a personalized, self-directed debt elimination plan. PowerPay contains the most frequently used sequences to choose from (e.g., paying debts off in order of highest interest, lowest balance, shortest term, or as entered). The app displays the payment calendar for each option and shows a projection of the amount of money saved in interest costs and reduced repayment time by making power payments (also referred to as snowball or rollover payments). The app also allows users to plan extra payments towards their debts (e.g., one-time, monthly, or annually). PowerPay is unique in that it provides users the option to simultaneously build up an emergency or reserve fund as they continue to follow their debt payment plan, and avoid additional debt. The emergency fund feature has been the most requested modification/addition to PowerPay by financial counselors and educators since its introduction.

In 2001, PowerPay was named the Education Program of the Year by AFCPE. The impact of the PowerPay online debt management tool is demonstrated with Google analytics reporting nearly 148,000 hits during 2013. Extrapolating from the savings found in a Rutgers study (O’Neill, 1998), if just 5% of visitors implemented a PowerPay debt reduction plan, their estimated savings would have been $8,877,000.

The creation of the mobile app adds another debt management instrument for financial educators and counselors to share with their clientele which will potentially generate similar financial benefits. The PowerPay app also adds a more readily available option for mobile consumers to build their own self-directed debt elimination plan with this proven financial tool.

References

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Simulating Money Management and Life Skills with Prison Populations

Karen L. Richel, Joey Peutz, University of Idaho Extension; Karin Hatheway-Dial, Lori Wahl, C. Brian Cleveley, University of Idaho

Key Words: behavior modification, inmate financial education, reducing recidivism

A recently-released medium security inmate shared with a group of educators that after serving 10 years in prison, he was given the bag of possessions he entered into the institution with, a voucher for a local hotel room, a bus ticket to a nearby town, and $12.63. He didn’t have a valid driver’s license, birth certificate or his social security card. He was “free” but now what? Once inmates finish their sentences, they are given minimal information on what to do next, how to re-enter society, and what to do differently so they do not repeat past mistakes. Many inmates do not have support systems and families waiting for them on “the other side of the fence.” They are beginning again with the knowledge they had before lock-up, the information they gained while they were in prison, and their experiences from the past to guide their new future.

To address this need, a University of Idaho Extension educator began offering these soon-to-be-re-entering citizens a glimpse into their future and the opportunity to see what it is like to successfully manage their financial lives – without real-life risk. Assisted by university faculty, 30+ university student volunteers and prison staff, a face-to-face financial capability simulation called “That’s Life” has been offered at a nearby minimum security men’s prison. Due to program demand among inmates, prison staff and student volunteers, the simulation has been offered 10 times engaging 1067 prisoners and 120 volunteers since March 2012. In addition, a University course has been created to encourage and allow more students this opportunity. The current class has a waiting list.

The simulation, based off of the Reality Store SM, provides a vendor-like environment in which the inmates are challenged to manage monthly wants and needs for themselves and a make-believe family. Some inmates ask to make it “more real” to include their own family situation. The participants pay their income taxes, explore careers they may not have thought about before, acquire accounts at the “financial institution”, and visit eighteen other “expense” booths that represent a component of living successfully within society. In addition, the inmates experience random events during the simulation like speeding tickets, parenthood and other unexpected life expenses. Participants complete pre- and post-surveys and a future reflective exercise.

This poster session will share with educators how to create this opportunity in other states, the challenges of bringing a hands-on simulation into a prison environment, and the successes of the program. Educator observations of the program and research data will also be shared.

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The Impact of Financial Planning on Portfolio Performance

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Key Words: financial planning, portfolio performance, Sharpe Ratio

Nowadays, individuals and households are increasingly responsible for their own wealth accumulation and preservation while the financial market are growing with complexity (Ho, Palacios, and Stoll 2012). However, empirical studies have found that most of the individuals and households lack adequate financial knowledge and skills to make the appropriate saving and investment decisions facing complex of financial market (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2006; Lusardi and Mitchell,2008; Mitchell and Curto ,2010).

Economic theory indicates that individuals and households are utility maximizers. They will make the trade-off between the costs and benefits to make the choice to help them realize this goal. Therefore, in concept, due to the opportunity cost, it may be more efficient for most individuals and households to get professional assistance in financial decision making. However, in reality, few individuals and households turned to the professional support. The 2009 National Consumer Survey conducted found two thirds of the respondents of the survey did not have the financial plan, among which only 38% involved the financial planning professionals in their financial planning (CFP Board, 2009). This situation seemed not to improve too much in the following years. According to the findings of 2012 Household Financial Planning Survey, only 31% respondents had their own or professional plans. The report also pointed out that the numbers actually did not change too much compared to 15 years ago (CFP Board, 2012). (Hanna,2011) found that there were only 22% households reported they used financial planners in the 1998-2007 Survey of Consumer Finances datasets, which was consistent with the results from previous surveys. Why people behave contradictorily to what the theory predicts? One of the possible reasons is that it may be challenging to precisely quantify the value of financial planning, thus making it difficult to reveal and analyze the benefit to the public (Hanna, 2010).

Understanding the impact of financial planning on households’ portfolio highlights the benefit of financial planning and the need for financial planning professionals. This study evaluates the impact of financial planning on households’ portfolio performance. Using the data from the 2010 Survey of Consumer Finances, the findings lend empirical support to the belief that financial planning services delivered by professionals benefit the households in higher possibility of reaching better portfolio performance. The study also provides insights into other determinants of portfolio performance. It indicates that wealthy respondents with longer investment horizons were more likely to have better performed portfolios.

References


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The Impact of Traditional Education and Financial Sophistication on Searching for Financial Information

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Abstract
This paper investigates where and how decision makers in U.S. households find financial information. In addition, gender difference in the use of sources is examined. The Ordered Probit model shows no difference between male and female household decision makers in the number of sources used to gather financial information. However, males who have completed high school or above have a higher probability of searching financial information from multiple sources than do males with less than a high school education. On the other hand, through factor analysis, males with higher financial sophistication levels show less probability in using several sources than do males in the lowest financial sophistication group. Females with the highest financial sophistication level show the same result as males within higher financial sophistication groups. Those who show higher risk preference have a greater willingness to search multiple sources for financial information than do those in the lowest group. As age increases, the tendency to search many sources for financial information decreases. Likewise, those with children under 18 years old show a similar trend. The risk takers expect to earn higher benefits from time and monetary investment through searching, but older households may experience a cognitive ability decline, and parents of children under 18 may have to choose time with their children over searching for investment opportunities. Searching for financial information contains both costs and benefits; the findings show that traditional education and financial sophistication impact consumers’ search behavior differently.

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The Structure of Debts and Assets among Low Income Near-Retirees:
Implications for Financial Education

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Using data from the 2010 Rand Health and Retirement Study, this study attempted to explore the types and the amounts of debts and assets near-retirees are holding by income quintiles and examined the effect of income quintiles on the levels of household debt among near-retirees between the ages of 55 and 64. This study further investigated factors associated with the level of household debt among near-retirees in the lowest fifth (1st quintile) income group. The study sample (N=4,080) was divided into quintiles according to their total household income. The quintile is based on the income distribution of all sample households and the sub-samples consisted of bottom-fifth ($0-$19,200), second-fifth ($19,201-$40,400), middle-fifth ($40,401-$68,100), fourth-fifth ($68,101-$112,968), and top-fifth ($112,969 and above). The average household income of the bottom-fifth was $9,600, the average household income of the middle-fifth was $53,343, and that of the top-fifth was $204,042.

The descriptive results show that the mean levels of total housing debt for the top-fifth fourth-fifth, and middle-fifth groups were greater than those for the second-fifth and bottom-fifth groups. The proportions of those who reported consumer debt were higher for the second-fifth, the middle-fifth, and the fourth-fifth groups than the bottom fifth and top-fifth groups. This study also found significant differences in assets among the five income quintiles. The results indicate that only 13.2 percent of the bottom-fifth near-retirees reported having any value in an IRA, while 28.3 percent, 39 percent, 55.8 percent, and 64.8 percent of the second-fifth, middle-fifth, fourth-fifth, and top-fifth near-retirees, respectively, reported having value in an IRA. It is also noted that only four percent of the bottom-fifth reported values in stocks, whereas 47.4 percent of the top-fifth and 30.3 percent of the fourth-fifth reported having values in stocks.

The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) results indicate that all else being equal, near-retirees in the lowest income quintile reported $14,412 less total debt than those in the middle-fifth quintile. Those in the second-fifth income quintile also reported $14,438 less total debt than those in the middle-fifth quintile. On the other hand, near-retirees in the fourth-fifth and top-fifth quintiles reported $19,861 and $62,055, respectively, more total debt than those in the middle-fifth quintile. It is obvious that as levels of household income increased, so did the amounts of household debt among families approaching retirement. It is interesting to note that all else being equal, the amounts of total debt held by both bottom-fifth and second-fifth income quintiles were about $14,000 less than the amounts held by the middle-fifth group. However, while considering the difference in the levels of household income between the bottom-fifth and second-fifth groups, it can be said that near-retirees in the bottom-fifth ($0-$19,200), had relatively higher levels of household debt than those in the second-fifth as they approach retirement.

This study investigated factors associated with level of household debt among near-retirees in the lowest fifth (1st quintile) income group. Bottom-fifth near-retirees with higher levels of education reported significantly higher

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levels of debt than those with lower levels of education. The findings of this study indicate that married low income near-retirees reported higher levels of debt than their never married counterparts. Whites in the bottom-fifth income quintile also reported higher amounts of household debt than Blacks in the same quintile. The findings of this study suggest that educating low income families with financial knowledge and providing financial literacy programs that target subgroups of educated, white, or married individuals and families is essential. Policy makers, consumer educators, and resource management specialists need to design programs that promote financial education programs, financial literacy programs, and debt management programs for low income families. It is also important for financial professionals to encourage young families to plan for retirement and set financial goals that would generate income in the later stages of the life cycles (elderly stage or near-retiring stage).
What's In A Name? Exploring and Defining Financial Delivery Methods

Mary Jo Katras, Virginia S. Zuiker, Sara Croymans, Shirley Anderson Porisch, & Blendine Hawkins, University of Minnesota

Key Words: coaching, counseling, financial capability, financial education, mentoring

Successful management of personal finances can be a challenging task for many people. Challenges to managing personal finances are often related to trends occurring in the current United States economy including lack of consumer knowledge and skills; cost and access issues related to meeting basic family needs; questionable lending practices in the marketplace; increase in consumer debt rate; decrease in consumer savings rate; and increased use of technology to manage finances. Economic trends may not only influence one’s financial picture, but result in the need for financial capability assistance.

Research indicates that a lack of financial knowledge is often a barrier to successful financial practice, while a positive link has been identified with the delivery of financial education (Hilgert, Hogarth, & Beverly, 2003; Collins, 2010). Financial education is critical in building effective money management skills. Understanding how the delivery of financial education is defined among financial professionals is important for the existing body of research as well as current and future program development.

In an effort to strengthen the financial knowledge of consumers and assist their ability to address these challenges, many financial capability programs have been developed and are available to a wide range of consumers. Community organizations and groups providing programs include human service agencies, faith based groups, financial institutions, employers, and educational institutions. Through a variety of settings such as classroom, one on one, or web based, programs commonly use one or more delivery methods including classes, planning, coaching, mentoring, counseling, and/or case management. Each delivery method provides some level of financial education.

Program providers determine which delivery method will be most applicable to strengthen client knowledge and meet critical needs.

A 2013 national survey identified how financial capability program providers utilize a variety of delivery methods and define their position/role to maximize successful outcomes with their clients. The online survey was distributed to five financial professional groups through organizational listservs.

Using data from the national survey of 251 financial professionals, this poster examines the variety of delivery methods used by financial professionals to provide financial education and describes how they define their position/role to maximize successful outcomes with the audiences they serve. Definitions of delivery methods and an exploration of the role differences and similarities as described by financial professionals will be included.

References

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Practitioner’s Forum


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Key Words: budgeting, mobility, money management, smartphone, technology

Target Audience
This presentation will be most applicable to financial educators and counselors, as well as community outreach specialists that work directly with consumers who may not be able to afford to purchase the latest Android phone or to pay for Android apps.

Objectives/Purpose
Participants in this presentation will leave with a sound understanding of how nine free financial apps for Android phones can help their clients or students better manage their money and make better informed financial decisions. Participants will also have a clear understanding of the limitations of each of these apps so that they will have a solid basis upon which to refer or not refer their clients or students to such smartphone tools.

Description
Based upon a 9-point review of nine free mobile Android apps purported to make our financial lives less stressful and more productive, this presentation will highlight the strengths and limitations of each app. The discussion will also identify the app’s target user and its ideal usage.

The discussion will include some of the most popular and well-known free Android apps for personal finance (e.g. Mint and Check) in addition to lesser known apps like Mvelopes and Toshl. Apps available through the Android Marketplace (not just Google Play) will also be included in order to ensure accessibility on older Android phones more likely to be owned by lower-income populations.

The reviews are based upon nine key points that include the ability of the program to connect to the individual’s bank or credit union account, the stability of the software on the phone, the “mobility” of the app (whether it can stand alone on the phone or whether it requires a desktop companion account), the app’s ability to connect to or manage multiple accounts, the inclusion of a truly helpful budgeting tool (more than a expense tracking app), the app’s security features, the app’s user interface, and any additional or unique features not found in other apps.

Handouts with reviews in table and checklist formats will be provided to participants.

Please note that this seminar will not include a discussion of iPhone apps, since a 2013 Pew Center survey clearly shows that lower income and less educated populations (those also in greatest need of financial education and counseling) are significantly more likely to own an Android phone.

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**Boots to Backyards™: A Mentor Program for Successful Transition from Military to Civilian Life Focusing on Financial Stability, Home Ownership, Family Unity, Gainful Employment, Home Life Balance**

Joyce Cohen, Director, Veteran Mentor Program PHH USA.org, also known as Purple Heart Homes

**Key Words:** educate, empower, engage, financial education/homeownership, guide

**Target Audience**
Military Spouse Fellows (MSF) who desire to earn practicum hours working with families transitioning from military to civilian life; professionals who assist individuals/families to expand expertise in financial stability, home ownership, family harmony, career transition and home life balance (principles related to eight life domains).

**Objectives/Purpose**
Develop responsible financial managers, long term successful home owners, stewards of family harmony, gainful employment, and emerging leaders who pay it forward to their communities.

**Description**
As Veterans reintegrate from military to civilian life, they are faced with numerous challenges. How do they navigate through the maze of financial stability, home ownership, career transition, and reentry to family and community? Questions arise, doubts take over, inner demons reappear, decisions need to be made. With that added stress, they often need a knowledgeable guide to assist with financial education, understanding of home ownership, career transition, and assistance to create home/life balance. To ease that path, Boots to Backyards™ was developed with five Pillars and a knowledgeable Mentor (guide) to help Veterans navigate uncharted territories and potential obstacles.

**Boots to Backyards™ five pillars encompass**

PILLAR 1…GET STARTED…Pair Mentor/Veteran, Build relationship, Identify immediate interests and goals (complete life planning tool to trace personal highs and lows while identifying future aim, legacies)

PILLAR 2…MONEY/HOME…Explore financial personality, money management, monthly budgeting, credit repair (if needed), and principles of successful home ownership (work with engaging supportive tools)

PILLAR 3…FAMILY/COMMUNITY/CAP…Monthly support group for caregivers; focus on family and community; active involvement in a Community Action Project (CAP) to improve a local problem area.

PILLAR 4…GAINFULLY EMPLOYED…Military to civilian; update credentials; career transition process

PILLAR 5…HOME LIFE BALANCE…Explore options to create peace of mind at home and in the rest of life (encompasses eight life dimensions); Closure; Next steps; Appendices

Within the five Boots to Backyards™ pillars, activities, exercises, discussions, engaging tools and assignments are offered to involve partners/caregivers and family members. In addition, financial counsel from Military Spouse Fellows is provided along with a trained life planning Mentor to provide personal assistance throughout the process.

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Breaking Barriers to Improve Financial Capability with Incarcerated Audiences

Carol Bralich\textsuperscript{25} and Missy Bablick, University of Wisconsin Extension

Key Words: breaking barriers, financial capability, incarcerated audiences

Target audience
The financial programming concepts presented are approaches for use by extension educators and other financial educators who provide financial capability outreach for incarcerated and limited income audiences. In addition, this approach can be shared with additional audiences including but not limited to: Head Start programs, workforce resource centers, and drug court systems.

Objectives/Purpose
This practitioner’s forum will focus on the intentional process necessary when working with incarcerated audiences, and drug court systems. Learners will discuss how to break down barriers related to perceived biases of participants as well as conflicting internal beliefs when working within this system. We will discuss what creates a good partnership, how to develop the relationship, as well as the tools to cultivate and maintain relationships within these systems.

Description
New county partners were asking for financial education for their clients from a variety of audiences. With different audiences came the opportunity to develop new partnerships. We needed to refocus our approach to collaborate with the unique audiences we did not have the opportunity to work within the past. UW-Extension Family Living county-based programs, in collaboration with county agencies, worked together to improve the financial capability of county residents. Through our new partners and educational research, audience specific approaches were developed to work with drug court participants and incarcerated audiences.

Within the drug court system, a financial coaching program can be as short as 3 months while some coaching relationships last years. Each drug court participant works with a coach a minimum of four times to build the coaching relationship and have the opportunity to see progress on goals set.

When working with incarcerated audiences every system is different. For example, in Barron County the educational component is usually a minimum of three educational events followed up with one on one coaching. Two separate classes are offered, one with male and one with female participants. Participants sign up on a voluntary basis. In Washington County, financial educational programs are voluntarily offered to female Huber inmates as a three week series, two in classroom setting and an opportunity to participate in a financial coaching session. The workshop content is centered on goal setting, saving, and credit management.

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Creating a Comprehensive Assessment Plan for Financial Counseling and Education

Danielle Champagne\textsuperscript{26}, M.B.A., Assistant Director - Operations, Student Money Management Center, University of North Texas

Key Words: assessment, assessment plans, funding, program review

Target Audience
All practitioners – educators & counselors, particularly in higher education

Objective/Purpose
The purpose of this session is for financial educators, counselors, and planners to develop the assessment plans that will provide continuing improvement for intentional programming and counseling services that best serve their constituency groups and user populations. Advice and guidance will be provided for practitioners with all levels and experience with assessment.

Learning Outcomes
1. Attendees will understand the components of a comprehensive assessment plan.
2. Attendees will be able to design and implement a comprehensive assessment plan for their programs or departments.

Description
Do your programs drive your data or do your data drive your programs? Get in the driver's seat to understand and create the components of a comprehensive assessment plan. Assessment plans will address quality control, programming and student learning outcomes, qualitative/quantitative assessment questions, and crafting components to create a successful plan. This session will provide an opportunity for financial literacy educators in all positions and assessment knowledge levels to improve your assessment efforts.

Assessment of programs and services will provide three areas of potential improvement to your efforts: effectiveness, efficiency, and evidence. Effectiveness of programming and counseling offerings can improve attendance and continued participation, learning outcomes associated with attitudes, skills, and behaviors, and decision-making at the strategic level. Efficiency improvements can be made to address issues of limited resources, including time, staffing, and programming costs, and will demonstrate a concern for the value of your audiences’ time. Evidence provides decision-makers in your organization for your continued viability and funding requests. These issues can make or break your efforts – they are essential to your continued existence.

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Educating Consumers and Businesses on the ACA: Lessons Learned from Implementing a Statewide ACA Education Initiative

Graham McCaulley²⁷, Personal Financial Planning Assistant Extension Professor, Janet LaFon, Family Financial Education Specialist, Nellie Lamers, Family Financial Education Specialist, Brenda Procter, Personal Financial Planning Extension Associate Professor, Trish Savage, Family Financial Education Specialist, University of Missouri Extension

Target Audience
Those interested in, or currently encountering, ACA and health insurance educational outreach efforts, including financial educators, practitioners, university faculty, Extension faculty, and staff from financial/education-related organizations.

Objective/Purpose
The goal of our initiative was to provide politically neutral, fact-based education to help individuals and families throughout the entire state: 1) better understand the new health care law and clear up confusion, 2) understand their health insurance options, and 3) make informed health insurance decisions as required by the ACA. The goal of this AFCPE practitioners’ forum is to provide transferable information on our success and challenges. Specifically, we will present information in a way that will highlight strategies regarding building partnerships, positioning organizations for funding related to ACA education, political sensitivity considerations, and how to find and evaluate ACA/health insurance content for use with the public. Additionally, evaluation results will be shared regarding what types of ACA information consumers and businesses find helpful and how they may use this information in health insurance decision-making. The team contributing to this presentation provides a range of perspectives, including campus-based leaders, regional leaders, and logistical staff.

Description
The Affordable Care Act (ACA) is the most significant health-policy law passed by Congress since Medicare was established in 1965. However, many consumers and businesses may not be adequately informed about the law or feel prepared to make educated health insurance decisions. As employees of a university Extension system, we launched a health insurance education initiative in 2013. We created two comprehensive curricula- one for individuals and families providing basic health insurance literacy, information on the ACA, and the range of health insurance options; and one for small businesses/employers that covers health insurance options for employers and their employees, employer responsibilities, and how the ACA affects different sizes of employers. Curricula were taught in communities across our state via a workshop format that averaged 90 minutes. We also developed handouts, educational videos, PSAs, podcasts, news releases, and web content.

We took a strong nonpartisan approach both in the creation of content as well as the delivery. Trainings were developed and conducted on the importance of political neutrality and how to communicate with the public and media. We also sought to take a collaborative approach from the beginning through multi-level state and regional leadership teams. The result was a cross-programming effort involving all academic areas and nearly 100 Extension faculty. Regional faculty worked to identify the best local approach for the rural, suburban, and urban communities they serve. Through these efforts and local partnerships, 230 educational workshops were conducted that directly reached over 3,000 citizens in the first seven months of programming. Additionally, awareness and education events in other contexts another 3,000 and our statewide network and communications capabilities were also used to reach over 350,000 citizens through mass media efforts. The project is continuing into at least 2015, if not longer, and we expect these numbers to continue to grow.

We developed an end-of-session evaluation designed to collect program satisfaction, knowledge gain, and demographic information, and also send out a follow-up survey a couple of months post-workshop to examine health insurance decision-making, confidence levels, and what additional information participants needed. We also have regional faculty complete a weekly online survey about their activities, successes, and challenges.

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Financial Coaching and Behavior Change: What Can Counselors and Educators Learn?

Lucy Delgadillo, Alena Johnson28, and Cindy Stokes, Utah State University, Luke Erickson, University of Idaho Cooperative Extension

Key Words: behavior change, coaching, goals, motivation

Target Audience
Financial Counselors and Educators interested in financial behavior change.

Purpose
To help Financial Counselors and Educators increase their effectiveness in encouraging positive behavior change in individuals, especially college students working to improve financial capability. This forum seeks to identify how this can be done by incorporating solution focused coaching components corresponding to findings of this study into existing financial counseling and education programs such as: self-directed goals, accountability, and participant readiness (Grant, 2010).

Descriptions of Content and Method
In response to President Obama’s call to focus on increasing the financial capability of college students (White House, 2012), a pilot study was completed with several classes of college students at a Western University to help determine what motivators help most to increase their engagement in positive behavior changes, both generally and financially. The study resulted in responses from 819 total participants that covered three open-ended questions and one multiple choice question.

Question one asked, “When you have made changes in your life in the past (started exercising, losing weight, studying regularly, stop smoking, reduce debt, etc.), what helped motivate you to make those changes?” The most reported answers involved “experiencing the benefits of the change” or “visualizing the potential outcomes.” The second most reported theme involved taking care of “myself,” “my health,” and to produce “a better quality of life,” “sense of accomplishment,” or “improved self-esteem.”

A quantitative question then asked, “What would motivate you to make changes in your life now?” The most common answer was “friends who are doing the same thing” (69.9%), followed by “envisioning your life with the results of the changes” (68.2%), and “rewards” (59%).

Question three asked, “When you felt like you were on track with the new changes but you relapsed to old behavior, what triggered the relapse?” The most common theme referred to “laziness,” and the “old way was easier” which lead to a “loss of desire to change” or a “lack of motivation.” The second most common theme referred to “stress” as a trigger. Other common theme included “required too much time,” “didn’t see results quickly enough,” and “the lack of accountability or support.”

Question four asked participants specifically about their finances. It read, “list any reasons that you have for wanting to be financially secure/responsible.” The most common theme resulting from this question centered on “supporting” and “financially providing” for family members. Several other commonly found themes included “reducing personal stress,” “increasing personal happiness,” more opportunities to enjoy life through “vacations and family travel,” and the desire for general “financial independence.”

References

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Financial Recovery After Disaster: On Demand Videos

Lori Hendrickson29, Extension Educator, University of Minnesota Extension; Sara Croymans, University of Minnesota; Lori Scharmer, Family Economics Specialist, North Dakota State University Extension Service; Patricia Olson, Family Relations and Family Resource Management Program Leader, University of Minnesota

Key Words: disaster, community engagement, financial recovery

Target Audience
The target audience for this session is professionals who work with disaster recovery professionals and survivors.

Objective/Intended Purpose
This session will help professionals to:

- become familiar with video content
- identify the value of disaster recovery videos
- discuss pilot evaluation
- formulate strategies to provide local training and promote video use
- access the Toolkit and videos

Description
Disaster survivors face tremendous challenges while making financial recovery decisions. On-demand videos were developed to enhance the Recovery After Disaster: The Family Financial Toolkit to assist those impacted by disaster to make informed financial decisions.

Financial recovery is complex and programs vary depending on disaster circumstances. In a study of hurricane Hugo survivors in South Carolina, Rubin & Popkin (1990) found many survivors were low-income and illiterate. Access to videos which provide verbal explanations may have helped survivors better understand financial recovery options.

Use of social media and devices providing internet access has expanded significantly. Ardalan, et. al (2008) found just-in-time videos to be a well-received and utilized resource for disaster survivors, volunteers and professionals following disasters. NDSU Extension documented success with a short video on building a sandbag dike, which was viewed 9,292 times via the internet during the active disaster period of the 2011 flood.

The series of short on-demand videos were developed to assist survivors in making the best financial decisions for their unique situation. Topics include: resilience; finding help; finances; insurance; FEMA/SBA; and additional resources.

Extension educators enlisted the assistance of an advisory board of disaster survivors and professionals to ensure accuracy of content and respectful portrayal of financial circumstances faced during recovery. Marketing and educational materials will be shared.

References

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Free Tax Preparation, Financial Education & Counseling: Recipe for a Taxpayer Layer Cake


Key Words: tax preparation, MOTax, VITA, financial counseling

Volunteer Income Tax Assistance (VITA) program volunteers provide free tax assistance for low- to moderate-income, disabled, homebound, and "English-as-a-second-language" taxpayers. Many states across the United States provide tax preparation (Layer 1). Financial education is often provided to assist individuals and families with resources to help them make better financial decisions (Layer 2). Financial counseling is the icing on the taxpayer layer cake.

Free income tax preparation sites prepare federal and state tax returns and use this opportunity to emphasize the importance of financial goals, good financial management strategies, and guidance/counseling to help them plan for the future. For many states, tax season education includes delivering money management workshops, definitions and explanations of tax credits, goal setting for those who are receiving very large refunds, and counseling to provide strategies to assist taxpayers reach their goals.

Financial education and counseling resources used in this state during tax preparation include a variety of handouts, worksheets, and processes. A “What to do with $1,000 worksheet” allows taxpayers to think about what they would do with their tax refund; set goals. This allows for follow-up evaluation at 3-month, 6-month, and 12-month time periods (results shared at Symposium).

The Affordable Care Act has been confusing to almost everyone. Handouts were shared on rights and responsibilities, tax credits and subsidies; as well as potential penalties and contact information for Certified Application Counselors to help with the Health Insurance Marketplace.

“Money U” is simply a financial resource of various financial information, including guidesheets on how to save, tracking your spending, a net worth worksheet, info about credit report/score, and mistakes even smart people make financially.

Additional resources include materials from eXtension Financial Security for All Website and “SaveYourRefund” by the D2D Fund.

The purpose of this practitioner’s forum is to share resources and processes with income tax preparation colleagues attending the Symposium. Multiple presenters will share how they use the resources and processes to mix up their layer cake and icing with taxpayers in their area of the state.

Ultimate target audience for the content included in this practitioner’s forum is low- to moderate-income, disabled, homebound, and "English-as-a-second-language" taxpayers. Target audience for the overall focus of this submission is individuals who are preparing free income taxes, but may not be providing financial education and counseling or those who may want to add some new ingredients to their mixing bowl.

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FINANCE, FACTS, AND FUN: From PowerPoint to On Point: Engaging Clients the First Time and Every Time

Madeleine Greene
AFC, The Money Team LLC; Amy Hutchison AFC, Zeiders Enterprises, Judee Kelley AFC, ACS Fort Drum, Andi Wrenn AFC, Zeiders Enterprises

Key Words: concepts, delivery, facts, fun, messages, resources, teaching tools

Target Audience
Financial counselors and educators wanting powerful, engaging delivery techniques that encourage adoption of financially responsible behaviors.

Objective/Purpose
Counselors need to continually build their client base, connections, and professional capacity. Innovative, fun methods will be shared leading to improved understanding of key financial concepts.

Description
Experienced financial counselors and educators will share creative, out-of-the-box counseling and teaching strategies. Current technology, entertaining techniques, and tools will be included. Learn to communicate in an enjoyable, non-threatening manner. Financial facts will provide the basis for understanding that can lead to the adoption of better practices. Come prepared to be engaged. Whatever your style of counseling or teaching, there will be ideas you can use. At the conclusion of this seminar you will know how to personalize material, empower peers, reward attendees for self-identified behaviors they want to change, and generally power up your delivery. This workshop is about connecting successfully with clients the first time and every time.

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Get them to come. Get them to come back!

Syble Solomon[^32^], M.Ed., BCC, LifeWise Strategies, LLC

**Key Words:** event planning, marketing, speaking, training, workshops

**Target Audience:**
Financial professionals who want to increase their client base and/or improve attendance at workshops and events.

**Objectives/Purpose**
Increase attendance at workshops and events. Increase utilization of an organization’s or practitioner’s services.

**Description of Content and Method**
You offer free classes at a convenient time and place—and attendance is disappointing. Yet the money gurus on TV and radio charge for their programs and it’s standing room only at their events. What can we learn from them about marketing and programming? This fast-paced, interactive workshop will provide seven “stolen” strategies. And there will be time for you and your colleagues to share tips and resources that have helped you successfully attract attendees to come to your programs—and come back. Here’s a quick overview of topics:

1. *Use the Familiarity Principle.* Tired of seeing all those ads? They may annoy you, but they work! People prefer things that are familiar, and repetition builds familiarity. Advertisers say people need to see or hear a message at least 3-7 times before they will act on it. And if your information is associated with a medical practice, public library or a respected social, community or faith-based program, you gain even more credibility and familiarity!

2. *Don’t be incognito.* Do a Google search. If people can’t find you or your program on Google in one or two tries, you don’t exist. If what comes up doesn’t present you well, you might as well not exist.

3. *Grab their attention.* Whether it’s an email subject, workshop title or ad, you only have seconds before someone decides to pay attention or not. Don’t tell them what you will do—tell them the results they can achieve: like save money, overcome a problem or make money. You’ll also learn some quick tricks like: people respond more to the numbers 3 and 5 than 4 and 6; and use hopeful words that tap into their dreams of peace, freedom and happiness.

4. *Make basic info obvious and easy to see.* Every time people have to search for where, when, what to expect or how to contact you, it increases the odds that they will not attend—and it leaves a lasting negative impression.

5. *Choose your meeting place well.* The best place is one that is familiar, already part of their routine and is safe by their standards. What works during the day may not work at night like garage parking or walking two blocks.

6. *Provide relevant information in an engaging, fun way.* Watch clips of successful money gurus. They are dynamic, use humor and get people involved immediately. They never start with a pre-test or ask people to fill out forms. They use music, tell stories, provide hope and convey the feeling that every person can be successful. They don’t overwhelm attendees with information but choose a few key points and strategies, break them down to simple steps and repeat them. Numbers, graphs, PowerPoint slides and statistics are used sparingly. They make time for people to share their stories and respond with feelings, not just facts. And they make them smile and laugh! They know that people who are actively engaged and enjoying themselves will learn more, retain more and come back for more!

7. *Intrinsic rewards are more powerful for follow-through and getting people to come back than extrinsic rewards.* Aim to have them leave with one or two insights, actions or resources that they can use immediately. If they feel hopeful, positive and in-control after having fun and being actively engaged, they are more likely to come back.

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Barbara O’Neill\textsuperscript{33}, Rutgers University

Key Words: financial education, financial wellness, personal finance

Target Audience
Program: Consumers (general public) and financial educators; AFCPE Workshop: Financial practitioners

Objectives/Purpose
1. Participants will learn about 25 tools and techniques to assess personal financial wellness
2. Participants will learn about online personal financial self-assessment resources
3. Participants will complete three activities to solidify their understanding of workshop content
4. Participants will use the information provided personally and in interactions with clients

Description
Thirty years ago, the late New York City mayor Ed Koch was known for his trademark query “How am I doing?” as he asked people for feedback on his progress at the helm of America’s largest city. Some people feel the same way about their finances and are motivated to improve their financial management practices with personalized assessments of their strengths and weaknesses and/or comparisons to evidence-based frames of reference or to other people in similar circumstances as themselves. This workshop will present information about 25 tools and techniques that can be used by consumers, with or without professional advisors, to assess various aspects of personal financial wellness. While some of these metrics, individually, may not be new to financial practitioners, the way that they are packaged together and integrated holistically will be. Workshop content and learning activities can easily be replicated by participants to assess their own or clients’ individual/household financial wellness or to teach others to do self-assessments. Practitioners are encouraged to become familiar with the resources that are discussed and to try them out personally as well as with their clients.

This workshop will describe a “tool kit” of 25 financial wellness metrics for financial educators and counselors. It is an “umbrella” personal finance presentation that covers a wide variety of personal finance topics that are linked together because they are all associated with financial health. All of the content is research-based with dozens of unbiased, research-based online resources embedded in the slides for participants to explore workshop topics further. Topics included in the workshop include: online financial self-assessment tools, SMART financial goals, net worth statements, the “Wealth Test” from the book The Millionaire Next Door, cash flow statements, irregular expense set aside accounts, financial ratios, spending plans, a credit check-up, a housing check-up, a human capital check-up, a career check-up, and an income tax check-up. Other workshop topics will include: a lifestyle check-up, a health finance check-up, a life insurance needs analysis, other insurance reviews, a retirement planning check-up, Social Security and pension reviews, an investment performance review, an investment risk tolerance analysis, an investment asset allocation check-up, an estate planning review, and comparisons of personal/household income and net worth to U.S. median household income and net worth, and U. S. household income and asset percentiles. Not surprisingly, different financial wellness metrics have appeal to people at various stages of the life cycle. The workshop will conclude with action steps to put workshop content into practice.

This workshop will include a PowerPoint presentation and two hands-on activities. In the first activity, participants will use case studies to apply “The Wealth Test” from the book The Millionaire Next Door. In the second activity, they will work together to calculate financial ratios. Some of the content of this workshop was previously used in a eXtension professional development webinar (see https://learn.extension.org/events/1316#U9pYiU10yM8), a FINRA Investor Education Foundation grant funded Smart Investing @ Your Library program for consumers (see

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How to Organize, Market, Deliver, Evaluate, and Archive Financial Education Twitter Chats

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Key Words: impact evaluation, social media, Twitter, Twitter chats

Target Audience
Program: Consumers (general public) and financial practitioners
AFCPE Workshop: Financial practitioners who use Twitter for financial education marketing and outreach

Objectives/Purpose
5. Participants will learn about basic Twitter functions and how Twitter chats operate
6. Participants will learn about regularly scheduled personal finance Twitter chats
7. Participants will learn how to organize, market, manage, and deliver a Twitter chat
8. Participants will learn how to evaluate a Twitter chat
9. Participants will learn how to archive a Twitter chat

Description
Less than a decade old, Twitter was founded in 2006 as a micro-blogging site where users can post short messages of no more than 140 characters called tweets. Fast forward to 2014 and Twitter has approximately 645,750,000 active users (see http://www.statisticbrain.com/twitter-statistics/). As the number of Twitter users has grown, so has the use of Twitter for various purposes, including financial education information delivery and professional development. A key component of Twitter use is the hashtag (#) symbol followed by a series of unique characters. The hashtag serves like a “magnet” to link together the tweets of Twitter users who are interested in the same topic (e.g., credit) or who are linked together in some way (e.g., professional conference attendees). An example of the latter is the use of #AFCPE30 for tweets relating to the 2013 AFCPE Annual Symposium. By searching for the conference hashtag, users were able to view tweets that included a summary of the speakers’ key points and participants’ comments about the meeting content and format.

Twitter chats are increasingly being used to deliver information and, thus, are a new program delivery method for AFCPE members to master. Online users gather at a specified time (e.g., every Friday at 3 pm ET) to “discuss” (read: tweet about) certain topics, questions, or issues. In other words, they are a synchronous learning environment where participants interact with each other real time using their Twitter user names (a.k.a., “handles”). As with tweets at professional conferences, the “glue” that holds Twitter chats together is the designated hashtag which is often derived from the chat sponsor’s name (example: #wbchat for WiseBread (see http://www.wisebread.com), a Web site about frugal living; industry (example #creditchat for credit reporting agency Experian http://www.experian.com); or program title (#SSHWchat and #eXASchat for the Small Steps to Health and Wealth™ and America Saves programs, respectively). A Twitter chat hashtag creates a running stream of tweets so that everyone can follow the “conversation.” The formatting convention used to follow Twitter chat threads is Q1 for Question 1 and A1 for participant responses to that question. Some Twitter chat organizers provide prizes, such as gift cards, as an incentive for participation.

There are more than 300 existing Twitter chats on a wide variety of topics including personal finance (see http://chatter.thundertech.com/post/How_to_run_a_successful_Twitter_chat.aspx). This workshop will begin by describing how Twitter chats operate, including Twitter chat etiquette. Next, it will introduce participants to regularly scheduled personal finance Twitter chats. Finally, the workshop will describe the “nuts and bolts” of organizing a Twitter chat from start to finish including the following steps: setting Twitter chat goals, designating a

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date and time, picking a hash tag, deciding upon chat topics or questions, marketing and attracting Twitter chat participants, using Twitter chat tools such as http://www.tchat.io/, moderating a chat, maintaining a chat conversation, increasing interest and participation with guest “speakers” and prizes, evaluating the impact and outreach of a Twitter chat using applications such as http://tweetreach.com/, writing impact reports, following up with participants, and archiving a Twitter chat for future viewing using applications such as http://storify.com/ (for an example of an archived Twitter chat, see https://storify.com/RutgersNJAES/small-steps-to-health-and-wealth). Evaluation results from two 2014 Cooperative Extension Twitter chats for the America Saves and Small Steps to Health and Wealth™ programs will be shared.
Kinesthetic Learning Activities that Work

Cindy R. Stokes\textsuperscript{35}, M.S., AFC\textsuperscript{©}, Lucas Martin, M.S., Alena C. Johnson, M.S., AFC\textsuperscript{©}, and Ellie Hansen, Utah State University

**Key Words:** activities, coaching, counseling, kinesthetic learning activities, workshops

**Target Audience:**
This forum will be useful to professionals who work with clients or teach educational workshops on topics such as financial management, credit and credit scoring, investment preparation, first-time home buying, foreclosure prevention, bankruptcy, etc.

**Objective/Purpose:**
This forum seeks to pass on to other practitioners’ effective kinesthetic learning activities used over the past decade of successful workshops. Accredited and experienced counselors/educators will provide a variety of kinesthetic learning experiences. The activities demonstrated can be used in counseling, small group, and workshop settings and can be altered to fit individual preferences and topics. Counselors, coaches, planners, and educators will increase their ability to incorporate kinesthetic learning into their professional interactions and improve their results.

**Description of Content and Method:**
There are three basic learning styles: auditory, visual, and kinesthetic. Most individuals have a preferred style of learning although many have tendencies in more than one area (Pulvino & Pulvino, 2010). Sometimes counselors/educators can get an idea what type of learning style clients/participants prefer, but sometimes they just don’t know. It is good to include all three styles as to touch on the style best understood and to increase optimal learning. This is especially true when working with couples, small groups, and in workshop settings (Pulvino & Pulvino, 2010).

While auditory learners like to gather and process information through listening and talking and visual learners prefer to learn by seeing a diagram, illustration, or PowerPoint slide, kinesthetic learners want to participate. They like to be physically involved in the learning process. Most counselors/educators commonly use techniques that simply mix auditory and visual learning such as discussing/lecturing combined with a PowerPoint presentation or some type of visual, fact sheet, or handout. Even the creative use of video clips only integrates auditory with visual. The hardest learning style to include is kinesthetic learning (Pulvino & Pulvino, 2010).

Kinesthetic learners like to be physically involved in the learning process and like a variety of activities (Pulvino & Pulvino, 2010). “Varying the type and sensory modality of learning activities may be helpful,” according to Miller (2011), “as a way of promoting attention and engagement across learners in general” (p.122). Activities can include role playing, simulations, “out of seat” actions, manipulation of items, flash cards, worksheets, mnemonics, drawing, highlighting, puzzles, games, projects, calculator problems, experiments, etc.

The USU Housing and Financial Counseling Services at the Family Life Center, a HUD Approved counseling agency, has conducted 544 workshops with 8743 participants over the past 10 years. Of those workshops, 236 were financial management with 3468 participants, 198 were financial related workshops with 3352 participants, and 110 were first-time homebuyer workshops with 1923 participants. A variety of kinesthetic learning activities, such as bean budgeting (manipulation of items), steps to closing ordering (“out of seat” activity), who wants a great credit score? (game), etc., are included in every workshop conducted and are, as needed, either customized or changed to fit the needs of the clients/participants.

**References:**

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Removing the Silos: The Creation of Student Financial Education

Sharon Cabeen\textsuperscript{36}, AFC,TG

**Key Words:** financial education, pre-college success, student financial aid, student loan counseling, student loan debt

**Target Audience**
Cooperative extension, military financial counselors, financial aid professionals, and financial educators who work with and counsel families and students

**Objectives/Purpose**
To gain an understanding of the “financial farm” analogy, become familiar with the history of three different student-centric programs, and cite an example of how to merge different areas of financial education.

**Description**
This session focuses heavily on the presumption that consumers are largely provided financial information in silos. These silos are based on product and service development that benefits businesses. They are not based on a holistic, financial life evolution approach that would be more beneficial to consumers.

Participants will learn and discuss what the “financial farm” is, understand the various “silos” that make up that farm, explore why silos exist, and discover what the impacts of educating from a silo perspective may have been in historical terms. Attendees will have the opportunity to work in groups to demonstrate the silos that consumers must navigate and discuss the silos-within-silos effect on consumers.

Once participants understand the silos of financial education and how interconnected they are, the presenter will facilitate a deeper discussion around financing a higher education. This discussion will break down the education financing silo and illustrate a new, more holistic, life event approach to teaching financial concepts and habits as students and families embark on higher education decisions.

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**Student Loan Exit Counseling: A Refresher for AFCPE Members**

Paul F Goebel37, CPFM, the University of North Texas

**Key Words:** Student loan repayment obligations, Student loan repayment plans, Exit loan counseling

**Target Audience**
Financial, Counseling, Military, Education

**Objectives/Purpose**
1. Participants understand student loan borrower’s rights and responsibilities related to federal student loan obligation
2. Participants can differentiate between available repayment plans and specific aspects of each repayment plan
3. Participants gain tips on structuring a student loan exit counseling session

**Description**
Student Loan Exit Counseling requirements were created to ensure student loan borrowers understand their rights and responsibilities and is a federal requirement for all Federal Stafford Loan recipients and Federal Perkins Loan recipients, as well as being a mandatory requirement in many states. Uniformed and under informed student loan borrowers often experience greater difficulty and stress managing their debt responsibilities after they graduate. It is imperative for all financial planners, counselors, or educators to understand the student loan exit counseling process and repayment planning options. During this workshop, attendees will learn about an innovative and engaging student loan exit counseling initiative and partnership between the financial literacy program and financial aid office at the University of North Texas that is empowering student loan borrowers through education.

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The Changing Landscape of Student Loans

Ryan H. Law38, Jorie Neech, Marco Pantoja & Tehra A. Zotos, University of Missouri

Key Words: federal student loans, financial aid, repayment

Target Audience
The target audience includes anyone interested in student loans, but will be of particular interest to those who work directly with students and student loans or who work with clients who have student loan debt.

Objectives/Purpose
If a financial planner, counselor or educator does not keep up-to-date with student loans it is easy to get lost trying to help people understand them. We hear about student loans on a regular basis – particularly the size of the debt load and news about changes (or proposed changes), but it can be difficult to keep up-to-date and see how that news fits into the overall picture of student loans. This session will provide a “big picture” overview of student loans with particular attention paid to recent changes and pending legislation.

Description
According to the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (2014), total student loan debt in the United States exceeds $1.2 trillion, and average debt load exceeds $29,000 (The Institute for College Access and Success, 2013). As tuition prices rise, most students don't see any other way of paying for school. Despite federally mandated entrance and exit counseling, research done by Whitsett with NERA Economic Consulting (2012) shows that the majority of student loan borrowers are confused about their student loans – too many students don't understand the debt they are taking on or the terms they are borrowing on. In addition, Congress keeps changing the rules, which leaves students more confused.

In this session we will undertake a comprehensive overview of federal student loans, with particular attention given to recent changes and pending legislation. Participants will leave the session with a better understanding of student loan debt, including different types of student loans, interest rates, repayment plans and the consequences of default. The session will be a PowerPoint presentation about student loans utilizing statistics and information from the federal government and other reliable sources.

Topics will include:
- Statistics about student loan debt in America
- Entrance and Exit counseling requirements
- Different types of student loans available
- Overview of interest rates
- Overview of changes Congress has implemented
- Repayment plans
- Consequences of default
- Overview of pending legislation

References

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Together: A Couples’ Program to Improve Communication, Coping and Financial Management Skills

Mariana Falconier, Virginia Tech University and Jinhee Kim39, University of Maryland

Key Words: couple therapy, financial management, couple communication, stress coping

Target Audience
Train-the-trainers (financial counselors, educators, counselors, marriage and family therapists) Participants (couples experiencing financial strains)

Objective/Purpose
This program TOGETHER is designed to improve communication, coping, and financial management skills for financially distressed couples. We will share the outlines of program, evaluation results from the pilot testing with community samples, and proposed adaptation for military and their families.

Description of Content and Method
Financial counseling and couples’ therapy knowledge were integrated to create a new psychoeducational program called TOGETHER designed to help couples under financial strain improve their communication, coping, and financial management skills in a group format. The program is based on financial education and counseling principles (Lyons & Neelakantan, 2008), cognitive-behavioral couples’ therapy (Falconier & Epstein, 2011) and the systemic-transactional stress model for couples (Bodenmann, 2004). Its goals are to reduce financial strain and its potential negative effects on the individual and the couple’s relationship and to improve the couple’s financial management skills. The program is designed to be delivered in 18 hours (four four-and-a-half-hour meetings) and in groups of four to eight couple, co-led by a financial counselor and a couples’ therapist. The program consists of nine modules: (1) Understanding Financial Stress, (2) Improving Individual Coping with Financial Stress, (3) Communicating Financial Stress to Your Partner, (4) Improving Dyadic Coping with Financial Stress, (5) Learning to Talk about Money, (6) Clarifying Financial Roles and Expectations in the Couple, (7) Improving Financial Management Skills, (8) Credit and Risk Management, and (9) Improving Financial Problem Solving Skills. Each module includes an informational/teaching component and a skills-building component that involves individual, couple’s, and group activities (e.g., role-plays, games, etc.) and homework. The program is 18 hours long and is usually delivered in four meetings of 4 hours and 30 minutes. Sessions are co-led by a couple’s therapist and a financial counselor and include between four and eight couples, making it a more cost-effective when compared to approaches that work with only one couple such as financial counseling, couples’ therapy, or financial relational therapy. The TOGETHER program was pilot-tested at a large public university in the U.S. Results from repeated measures ANOVAs suggest that the program may help reduce both partners’ financial strain and the male negative communication and improve both partners’ financial management skills and strategies to cope together with financial strain, and the male relationship satisfaction. These findings suggest that this program may be a promising approach to help couples experiencing financial strain. The program will be adapted to the reality and resources of the military population. Financial Strain will be understood in the context of stressors that military couples face (e.g., deployment, reunification, trauma) when one or both partners are active members. Communication and coping skills will be adapted to situations in which partners are apart during periods of deployment. Financial management skills will be adapted for military families’ unique experience to improve their financial readiness. The adaptation of the program will be pilot-tested with couples recruited through the Army Community Service at Fort Meade, Maryland. The sessions will be co-led by a personal financial readiness specialist and a therapist that have long experience working with the military population. Assessments will be conducted before participation in the program, on completion of the program and six months afterwards.

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Utilizing Technology to Maximize Financial Education Impact

Morgan McMillan, Indiana University  Phil Schuman40, Indiana University

Key Words: application, instruction, online, required financial literacy, student debt, technology, website

Target Audience
Those involved directly or indirectly with higher education institutions

Objectives/Purpose
A constant critique of financial education programming is that not enough students attend an event because the material is not of any interest, despite evidence indicating financial education is needed. Moving forward, the use of technology to draw interest to financial education will likely be at the forefront of means by which to reach students. There is a need to know what does and does not work when it comes to developing a platform. The purpose of this session is to allow attendees to think about how they might be able to utilize technology, regardless of their institutions’ sizes and/or budgets, to reach their audience, and to also brainstorm ways to push financial education in new and engaging directions across various types of student body.

Description
As institutions grapple with how best to deliver financial education, they are quickly confronted with decisions about appropriate mediums (e.g., programs and events vs. technology and online platforms). Indiana University had a mandate to serve all seven of its campuses, move quickly to do so, and demonstrate results. Online resources were a first choice for achieving expedient high-impact outcomes. Effective technology utilization is vital for institutions – large or small, big budget or no budget – to develop impactful financial education programming that maximizes reach of their target audience.

The presenters will review their website and discuss the factors that led to building a unique product in an environment where many vended web service products are available. The presenters will also discuss why they still elected to purchase a “canned” product and will share how to evaluate the utility of these options. Other tools discussed in this session include the utilization of a mobile app, instructing via podcasts, and delivering important communications through e-mail.

Through the various implementations of technology for the purpose of financial education, Indiana University has been able to reach more students with more impact than through any other financial education programming.

Between October 2013 and May 2014, our website saw 11,164 hits, with almost 40,000 page views and an average visit duration of approximately 2 minutes. Additionally, between October 1, 2013 and January 1, 2014, our podcast play request number reached approximately 5,600. The required financial literacy piece for new students had almost 11,000 completers in its first year of implementation. These initiatives, coupled with our changes to business practices, resulted in a 12% reduction in both the dollar amount of student borrowing and the number of student borrowers between the 2012-2013 and 2013-14 school years. These numbers indicate that institutions can have a major impact on their average student debt and the overall financial health of their students through effective technology utilization.

40Phil Schuman, phaschum@iu.edu and Morgan McMillan, morganm2@iu.edu.
Youth Credit Score Education

Luke Erickson\textsuperscript{41}, and Lyle Hansen, University of Idaho Extension

Target Audience
The “Credit Score Millionaire” program has already proven, in a short time, to be of significant interest to audiences and partners from a variety of disciplines. While original plans for program development intended to target 4-H youth and high school students, it has subsequently been expanded to reach audiences like civic groups, senior citizens, college students, farmers, job seekers, and learners with disabilities. The program has been delivered using a train-the-trainer model, which leverages the time and skills of other youth leaders.

Objective/Purpose of the Program
The objectives of this program are to promote positive financial behavior change and low cost strategies for establishing and building strong personal credit. Outcomes of stronger credit include decreased costs for loans and insurance premiums, and increased opportunities for employment, and apartment rentals, etc. The resulting increased wealth and productivity that is likely to result from program participation ultimately strengthens the economy, and reduces dependence on government and community nonprofit organizations.

Description of Content and Method
In the spring of 2012, the program authors completed local, regional and state-wide needs assessments in order to set future program priorities. An emerging priority was identified to help teens understand and build strong credit scores and avoid some of the common missteps in establishing credit upon reaching adulthood. NPR reported that a credit score can be just as important as an SAT score to youth transitioning into adulthood (Horsley, 2006). This is because credit scores are no longer used exclusively by lenders, but are also used by insurance companies, landlords, utility companies, elective medical service providers and even employers. The difference between a score of 808 and 638 (170 points) costs the average consumer about $1,000 a month (Bingham, 2011).

The “Credit Score Millionaire” youth education program uses a variety of videos, instructional presentations, and a game show activity to target youth participants with face-to-face and e-learning opportunities. All materials are made available for download or checkout from regional offices throughout the state. Detailed instructor’s guides are included so that even novice instructors can effectively share this program with youth. Also included in the download are marketing materials and evaluation strategy descriptions with accompanying online and printable evaluation tools.

Total number of direct face-to-face participants exceeds 1,619. (385 adult and 1,234 youth). Hundreds more have been reached through other trained youth educators. Web materials have registered 1,117 hits. The Credit Score Millionaire program has also been featured twice on local television news: KIFI, Local ABC affiliate, East Idaho/Western Wyoming market area of 126,150 homes (The Nielsen Co., 2013). Online and paper-based evaluation tools were developed to capture retrospective self-assessment data from the participants in this program. Adult participant impact (Erickson, et. al., 2013): Approximate average of 40% increase in areas of knowledge, confidence and intended behavior improvement with credit scores. Youth participant impact: Approximate average of 45% increase in areas of knowledge, confidence and intended behavior improvement with credit scores.

References

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Alternative Borrowing Behavior Among Emerging (Early) Adults

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Abstract

This study aims to identify determinants of alternative borrowing behavior among emerging adults ages 25-34. Specifically, we examined accessing auto title loans, payday loans, advance tax refunds, pawn loans and rent-to-own products. Data from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study (NFCS) conducted by the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) was analyzed. It was found that emerging adults are more likely to utilize AFS when experiencing a negative external shock, drop in income, foreclosure or bankruptcy, and are influenced by internal factors, risk tolerance, perceived debt and financial satisfaction. Suggestions to policy and education to deter these behaviors were provided.

Key words: alternative borrowing, emerging adults, National Financial Capability Study

Introduction

According to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC), six percent of US households used alternative financial services (AFS) credit products in 2011 (Burhouse & Osaki, 2012). Alternative financial services products include auto title loans, payday loans, advance tax refunds, pawn shops and rent-to-own stores (Levy & Sledge, 2012). Millennials (ages 18-34) tend to rely less on traditional banking services than previous generations (Mottola, 2014).

Individuals in the early adulthood stage of life commonly have started to accept responsibility for consequences of their actions, decided on personal beliefs and values independently of parent and other influences, established a relationship with parents as an equal adult, and are financially independent from parents (Arnett, 2001, 2007). Other activities of this age group occurring during life cycle stage where people typically live on their own, marry, and bear and rear children (Berk, 2013). Prior to this stage, individuals relied on parents for some or all of their financial needs. They now have the responsibility to make financial decision for themselves and alternative borrowing is one option.

This study aims to identify determinants of alternative borrowing behavior among emerging adults ages 25-34 and to assess the relationship of external negative shocks (decrease in income, foreclosure or bankruptcy) and internal factors (risk tolerance, perceived level of debt and financial satisfaction) on the use of alternative financial services (AFS). For this research, AFS are defined as accessing auto title loans, payday loans, advance tax refunds, pawn loans and rent-to-own products. Data from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study (NFCS) conducted by the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) was analyzed.

Methodology

Data collected in the National Financial Capability Study (NFCS) by the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) was used for this study. Surveys were conducted online from July to October 2012 among a nationally-representative sample of 25,509 American adults. The survey instrument used in the 2012 NFCS was based on the

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original 2009 questionnaire. The sample used for this study were young adults aged 25-34, final sample size 4,284, which accounted for 16.8% of the total sample. Logistic regression analyses were employed for the use of each of the following alternative borrowing behavior in the past five years – 1) auto title loan, 2) short term pay-day loan, 3) advance tax refund, 4) pawn shop, and 5) rent-to-own store.

**Results**

Table 1 shows the demographic overview of the sample. Our sample of emerging adults from age 25-34 consisted of 4,284 individuals. There were slightly more women (57.5%) than men. In terms of respondents’ level of educational attainment, the majority had a college degree (54.9%). Almost half of the respondents were married (49.3%) and 44.4% were reported single. The majority of the respondents (31%) earned between $50,001 and $100,000 as their yearly household income. Most of them were white (61%), and working either full time or part time.

**Table 1. Descriptive Statistics (N=4,284)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1821</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2463</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Attainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>898</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>2353</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post college</td>
<td>603</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2112</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1903</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated/Divorced/Widowed</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than $25k</td>
<td>1184</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25k - $50k</td>
<td>1303</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50k - $100k</td>
<td>1329</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100k and more</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-white</td>
<td>1677</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>2607</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Status</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed (full/part)</td>
<td>2530</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not working</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4284</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 demonstrates the logistic regression results for all five alternative borrowing behaviors among our sample. In explaining the use of auto title loan, participants’ perceived level of debt, financial satisfaction, experience of drop in income, foreclosure, bankruptcy, use of financial advice, and credit card behavior were significant. In terms of the use of short-term ‘pay-day loan’, education level, race, risk tolerance level, perceived debt, drop in income, foreclosure, bankruptcy, use of financial advice, and credit card behaviors were found significant. Emerging adults’ use of advance tax refund were associated with education level, banking status, risk tolerance level, perceived debt level, financial satisfaction, past experience of drop in income, foreclosure, bankruptcy, use of financial advice, and negative credit card behaviors. Use of pawn shop among emerging adults in our sample was predicted by gender, education, income level, banking status, risk tolerance, financial satisfaction, drop in income, foreclosure, bankruptcy, use of financial advice, and negative credit card behaviors. The predictors of the use of rent-to-own stores were education level, marital status, income level, banking status, risk tolerance level, perceived level of debt, financial satisfaction, experience in foreclosure and bankruptcy, use of financial advice, and negative credit card behaviors.
The purpose of this study was to identify determinants of alternative borrowing behavior among emerging adults ages 25-34 and to assess the relationship of external negative shocks (decrease in income, foreclosure or bankruptcy) and internal factors (risk tolerance, perceived level of debt and financial satisfaction) on the use of alternative financial services (AFS). It was found that emerging adults are more likely to utilize AFS when experiencing a negative external shock, drop in income, foreclosure or bankruptcy, and are influenced by internal factors, risk tolerance, perceived debt and financial satisfaction. Previous research supports findings of this study.

Emerging adults are in a vulnerable situation as they are experiencing independence for parents, determining personal values and beliefs and establishing adult relationships with family. When a financial need occurs, emerging adults are prone to seek out a convenient solution to the problem, easy access to AFS can seem like the best decision. This cohort has been recognized as having low financial capability skills, which involves using knowledge to make a decision. When information about a financial product is presented and questions are not asked to understand possible long-term financial consequences, it is easy to how the debt cycle can begin. Policy, market and education recommendations will not only address education gaps but also provide needed restrictions and financial products to impact the alternative borrowing behavior of emerging adults.
Coping with Financial Stress in College

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Kansas State University

Introduction

College is the first opportunity to directly experience financial stressors for many individuals. The impact of financial stress can range from psychological distress to unhealthy behaviors and interpersonal relationships, and adverse academic outcomes. A primary source of financial stress for college students is the cost of tuition and fees, which have grown at three times the rate of inflation. In today’s economy, students would have to work year-round at 55 hours per week to pay for the average public college tuition, while a student in the 1960s could have worked 40 hours per week in the summer and 15 hour per week during the school year to pay the same (Bosquet, 2008). As a result, financial stress is now commonplace among college students (Joo, Durband, & Grable, 2008-2009). The cost of working more hours is high in terms of academic and social integration on college campuses—the National Study for Student Engagement is concerned that students will cease to be academically and socially engaged on campuses as they are driven to work more hours to meet basic financial needs (NSSE, 2008). The purpose of this study was to identify how resources and perceptions alter the amount of financial stress felt by college students and how this relates to academic achievement from a Double ABC-X framework.

Theoretical Framework and Related Literature

The double ABC-X model focuses on the idea that “families and adolescents are rarely dealing with single demand” (McCubbin, Needle, & Wilson, 1985, p. 53), which incorporates the idea of “pile-up” demands or the cumulative effect of multiple stressors and strains over time (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). The research has shifted focus away from how families deal with a single crisis event toward how families deal, or adapt, to a series of events as modeled in the double ACB-X model (Marotz-Baden & Colvin, 1986).

Stressors are often highly subjective, influenced by individual perception (Lazarus, 1984) and shaped by environmental, physical, psychological or social forces (Pederson, 2012). According to Joo et al. (2008-2009), freshmen are faced with a number of financial stressors with “two out of three students reported having some or major concerns about their ability to finance the costs of their education” (p. 290). Joo et al. indicated that attempts such as working full-time, commuting to college, and trying to find employment while taking classes all add to the stress level of college students.

Resources, perceptions, and coping skills influence how stressors are eventually operationalized as stress. Personal resources may include the educational level of respondents, particularly their financial knowledge in the case of financial stressors (Nelson Goff & Smith, 2005). Although income is a resource, there can be negative consequences in how a student earns income as previous studies indicated that working more than 20 hours a week will, in-fact, increase the likelihood that a student will drop out of college (Farrell, 2005).

Perception is how an individual defines a stressor and the resources available. These perceptions include both the perception of the adequacy of resources such as time and money and also the perception of the adequacy of social support services, such as subsidized housing or food stamps (Herman & Marcenko, 1997). In studies of financial behaviors, perceptions have been analyzed from locus of control/mastery perspective, particularly within the context of the ABC-X model (Hayhoe & Wilhelm, 1998). People with high perceived mastery (belief that they are in control of their destiny) tend to demonstrate better financial behaviors (Perry & Morris, 2005). If they have better financial behaviors, it is likely that they also exhibit less financial stress.

The ability of college students to effectively respond to stressful events is modulated by how the events are experienced (Shipton, 2002). Increased access to resources will have a positive influence on lowering financial costs.
stress in college students, but coping skills will also be a determinant in overall financial stress. The act of coping involves the utilization of current resources to meet demands, the development of new resources to meet demands, and the interaction of those resources with the pile-up of demands itself.

Methods

Data
Undergraduates enrolled in at least six credit hours during the Spring of 2014 on the main campus of a large public university located in the Midwest were e-mailed a link to an online survey. Registrar data (e.g., age, gender, grade level, marital status, first generation college student status, academic major, and grade point average) were also obtained and linked with the online survey. A total of 16,675 e-mails were successfully sent. A total of 3,342 surveys were opened; 3,029 students started the survey; and 2,585 respondents finished the survey for a total response rate of 18% for partial data and 15.5% for mostly complete data. All surveys were conducted using the proper protocol and approval from the primary investigator’s university Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Financial Stress
A subjective measure of financial stress was used for this study. Respondents were asked, “How stressed do you feel about your current financial situation” on a scale of 1 to 10 where 1 = not at all and 10 = extremely stressed.

Stressors
Stressors were identified as financial events that the respondent was unable to pay for in the past three months. Items included textbooks, groceries, transportation, and medical expenses. Response options included 1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = twice, 4 = three to five times, and 5 = more than five times with an option for not applicable. The not applicable responses were re-categorized as a score of 0 for the summated score. The mean was 16.65 (SD = 8.37) with a Cronbach’s alpha of .84.

For the post-crisis side of the model, general stressors were added. Respondents were asked to identify whether a series of 17 events happened to them or a family member in the last 12 months. Respondents indicated separately if each event had occurred to them or a family member. The mean was 4.57 (SD = 4.11) and the reliability of the items as a summated score was α = .82.

Resources
Existing and adaptive resources were measured through items designed to capture respondents’ current resources as well as the adaptive resources they have access to in the event of a stressor. Objective and subjective financial knowledge were used to assess for existing resources. Objective financial knowledge was measured by six true/false questions. The mean for this sample was 3.20 (SD = 2.10) with an alpha of .80. Subjective financial knowledge was measured on a 10 point scale where 1 = respondent felt they had the lowest level of financial knowledge and 10 = respondents felt they had the highest level of financial knowledge.

Income, savings, credit card debt, and student loan debt were measured continuously and logged for ease of interpretation. Respondents were asked to indicate how much money would be left over if they sold all of the assets and paid back all their debt. A score of 1 = broke, 3 = break even, and 5 = have money left over. The mean perceived net worth score was 3.25 (SD = 1.21).

One item was used to represent adaptive resources. Respondents were asked to indicate if they would be willing to engage in a list of 16 negative activities for extra cash (e.g., borrow from friends, pawn items, skip meals, steal). Response options included 1 = I have done this once before and 2 = I have done this multiple times. The mean for this sample was 4.28 (SD = 4.56) and the items had good reliability for use as a scale (α = .80).

Perceptions
Three items were used to assess for pre-crisis perceptions. A single item question was used to assess peer financial comparison. Respondents were asked, “Compared to my friends, I am worse, the same, or better off financially.” Respondents were also asked to indicated to what extent their current income is enough to live on where 1 = can’t meet necessities, 2 = can meet necessities only, 3 = can afford some but not all of the things I want, 4 = can afford nearly everything I want, and 5 = can afford everything I want and still have money left over. Less than 3% of the
sample indicated that they could afford everything and still have money left over, so categories 4 and 5 were combined.

Mastery was measured with Pearlin and Schooler’s (1978) seven item scale. Higher scores represent a greater sense of self mastery. The alpha for the scale was .81.

On the post-crisis side of the framework, coping was based on the Adolescent Coping Orientation for Problem Experiences (A-Cope) scale. The scale asks respondents to indicate how often they engage in a list of 54 items when they face difficulties or feel tense. The scale items were reduced to 25 items due to space constraints on the survey. The alpha for the reduced scale used for this sample was α = .77.

Data Analysis
A hierarchical regression was used to analyze the relationship of stressors, existing resources, perceptions, stress pile-up, adaptive resources, and adaptive perceptions on self-assessed financial stress. We then explored the influence of financial stress, resources, and perceptions on academic achievement as measured by grade point average. No variables were correlated above the \( r = .40 \) level.

Results
The final model accounted for 50% of the variance in financial stress by including financial stressors, resources and perceptions, general life pile-up stressors, and adaptive resources and perceptions. The general stressors lost their statistical significance in the final model, possibly indicating that adaptive resources and perceptions are more important in explaining financial stress. If respondents were willing to engage in more negative activities for extra resources/cash, they were associated with higher levels of financial stress (\( B = .00, p < .001 \)).

Academic Achievement
A secondary purpose of this study was to determine how financial stress viewed from a double ABC-X stress framework impacts academic achievement as measured by grade point average (GPA). Financial stress was not a significant predictor, but financial stressors were (\( B = -.01, p < .01 \)) as were general stressors (\( B = -.02, p < .001 \)). Students with greater financial knowledge were associated with higher GPAs (\( B = .04, p < .01 \)). Students with more financial resources reported better GPAs (log income: \( B = -.02, p < .001 \); log savings: \( B = .05, p < .001 \); log credit card debt: \( B = -.02, p < .05 \)). Students who reported to be able to only pay for their necessities were associated with lower GPAs as compared to students who can afford all of their needs and most of their wants (\( B = -.12, p < .05 \)). The overall model explained 12% of the variance in GPA.

Discussion
For the most part, actual financial resources had effects on financial stress as expected. Those with little to no money in savings, higher levels of student loan debt, and lower net worth more likely to report higher financial stress. Income, however, was not statistically significant in predicting financial stress among college students. This could be representative of students’ low income from work and greater reliance on student loans as “income.” Future studies should consider the impact of no work income as an independent category in predicting financial stress among college students.

Students who reported being worse off financially than their peers reported higher financial stress and those who reported being better off reported lower financial stress, which provides evidence to support that perceptions of peer comparison do matter. Perceptions also matter in regards to how much students can afford to buy. Students who felt they could not afford all of their needs and wants reported higher financial stress. Again, actual budgetary constraints were not analyzed, although this result provides additional support that perceptions do matter regardless of whether they are reality or not.

Respondents reporting having more control over their life were more likely to report less financial stress. This effect was consistent throughout the hierarchical regression. Finally, it is interesting to note that positive coping strategies were not associated with financial stress levels among college students as expected.
Next, we evaluated how the above characteristics combined with financial stress influenced academic achievement as measured by grade point average (GPA). The findings indicated that financial education interventions designed to increase the financial knowledge of college students may be effective in improving students’ GPAs, but actual financial measures are much more important in predicting GPA. These findings suggest colleges and universities would be more effective in their efforts to increase the academic achievement of students if they aided students in tangible ways to increase their financial resources, especially for basic needs.

Limitations
More representative samples are needed. The sample for this study was self-selected students from one Midwestern university. While this was a consistent representative sample of this particular university’s population, a good sampling frame may include a cross section of college students from higher-learning institutions drawing from urban, rural, public, private, and varying demographic profiles. An understanding of commonalities with regard to the Double ABC-X model’s components across a cross section of colleges would improve educational institutions’ and policymakers’ ability to design programs to improve retention and graduation rates. Lastly, a longitudinal study may be warranted to understand whether a greater degree of aid, counseling, or resources results in better stress management with regard to money and ultimately, whether or not better resources lead to better graduation rates.

Implications
The significant contribution of this study was to examine college students’ financial stress, perceptions about resources, and coping mechanisms, and its ultimate effect on academic achievement. While research about the population exists with regard to specific financial products such as students and credit cards, this study holistically explored the many different inputs that contribute to financial stress. Existing research surrounding college students and credit card use sets forth that students suffer psychologically, earn poorer grades, drop out of school, and suffer from depression as a result of excessive debt (Roberts et al., 2000). Universities are able to quantify the dollars given away in the form of scholarships and grants. If students receiving these are still unable to make ends meet and experience a pile-up of stressors, it may lead to destructive behavior and ultimately drop-out.
Financial Education and Financial Capability

Jing Jian Xiao\(^4\), University of Rhode Island
Barbara O’Neill, Rutgers University

Abstract

Financial capability refers to a consumer’s ability to apply financial knowledge and perform desirable financial behaviors to achieve financial well-being. The purpose of this study was to examine the association between financial education and financial capability among American consumers. Data from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study were used to test the hypothesis that financial education is positively associated with financial capability. Five variables were used to measure financial capability: objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, financial behavior, perceived financial capability, and financial capability index. Multivariate linear regression results showed that, after controlling for demographic and financial variables, respondents who ever received financial education had higher scores in objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability, and financial capability index. In addition, high school, college, and workplace financial education variables also showed positive associations with the five financial capability variables. The results imply that financial education in high school, college and workplaces may enhance consumer financial capability. The findings have implications for designing and implementing effective financial education programs to enhance consumer financial capability and improve financial well-being.

Key Words: financial education, financial capability, financial literacy, financial behavior, National Financial Capability Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the association between financial education and financial capability using a large national dataset. Compared to financial literacy, financial capability is a broader concept that includes both financial literacy and financial behavior (Taylor, 2011). Specifically, financial capability refers to the ability to apply appropriate financial knowledge and perform desirable financial behavior to achieve financial well-being (Xiao, Chen, & Chen, 2014). In recent years, programs to improve consumer financial capability have been developed in many countries due to recent socioeconomic trends, including the 2008 global financial crisis, that demand consumers to take more responsibility for their current and future economic security. Financial education is crucial to improving consumer financial literacy, encouraging desirable financial behavior, and enhancing financial capability (PACFC, 2013). However, effects of financial education are controversial. Some research suggests that financial education has positive impacts on consumer financial outcomes (e.g. Bernheim et al., 2001; Danes, Huddleston-Casas, & Boyce, 1999) and others imply that financial education has limited effects on financial outcomes (e.g. Fernandes et al., 2013; Mandell, & Klein, 2009). This study used data collected from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study to examine financial education and five financial capability variables and found positive associations among them. The results suggest that financial education may have positive impacts on consumer financial capability by improving financial knowledge, encouraging positive financial behaviors, and enhancing confidence in financial capability.

Compared to previous research, this study contributes to the literature in four aspects. First, this study used a comprehensive measure of financial capability that includes five variables measuring objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability, and financial capability index. The last one was calculated by summing Z scores of objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, and perceived financial capability. In previous research, financial capability was measured either by behavior related variables (Atknison et al., 2006; Lusardi, 2011) or a mix of behavior and outcome variables (Taylor 2011). The approach used in this study is similar to that used by Xiao et al. (2014) except for adding a new variable, financial capability index. Second, compared to previous studies on financial literacy and behavior that used smaller state or local datasets, this study used a national dataset with over 25,000 observations.

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Third, compared to previous studies using the same dataset, the FINRA National Financial Capability Study, this is the first study to focus on the association between financial education and financial capability. Lastly, this study examined potential effects of, not only general financial education, but also specific financial education experiences such as high school, college, and workplace financial education on financial capability together, which is unique compared to previous research.

**Literature Review**

**The Status of U.S. Financial Capability**

Financial capability is measured in terms of how well people make ends meet, plan ahead, choose and manage financial products, and possess skills and knowledge to make financial decisions such as saving and debt payment (Lusardi, 2011). Recent studies have found both low financial knowledge and poor financial practices. The 2012 National Financial Capability Study (NFCS), sponsored by the FINRA Investor Education Foundation (FINRAIEF, 2013), found that 19% of a sample of over 25,000 respondents reported that, over the previous year, their household spent more than their income and more than half (56%) did not have savings to cover three months of expenses. In addition, 30% of the sample engaged in non-bank borrowing within the past five years, such as taking out a payday loan or auto title loan or getting cash from a tax refund advance or pawn shop. A third of the sample (34%) both paid the minimum amount due on credit cards and did not compare offers when shopping for a credit card and 14% were “underwater” on home mortgages and owed more than the value of their home.

The NFCS included an assessment of financial knowledge because knowledge, paired with financial decision-making skills, can ensure an individual’s financial capability (FINRAIEF, 2013). On a test of five basic financial literacy questions covering aspects of personal finance encountered in everyday life, the national average was 2.88 correct answers (FINRAIEF, 2013). Using data from the inaugural 2009 NFCS, Lusardi (2011) also found that a majority of Americans lack both basic numeracy skills and knowledge of fundamental economic principles such as inflation, compound interest, risk diversification, and the relationship between asset prices and interest rates. Even more troubling, there is ample evidence that Americans do not plan for predictable events (e.g., retirement) as well as unexpected events/emergencies leaving themselves and the economy exposed to shocks. Similar findings were reported in the UK (Atkinson, McKay, Kempson, & Collard, 2007).

The 2013 Consumer Financial Literacy Survey (FINRAIEF, 2013), with 2,037 adult respondents, found that 60% did not have a budget and did not keep track of their spending, and 40% graded themselves a C or below on their personal finance knowledge. In addition, about 37% carried credit card debt from month to month. More than two in five (43%) said they worry most about not having enough savings for an emergency and 38% worried about retiring without having saved enough money. Another recent study related to financial capability is the 2014 Retirement Confidence Survey (RCS) by Helman, Adams, Copeland, and VanDerhei (2014) that found 58% of U.S. workers and 44% of retirees reporting a problem with their level of debt. In addition, a sizeable percentage of workers, particularly those lacking an employer retirement savings plan, reported they have virtually no savings/investments: 36% have less than 1,000 saved. In addition, less than half of workers (44%) have tried to calculate how much money they need to have saved for retirement. The study also found higher levels of worker confidence about having enough money for a comfortable retirement, compared to 2009-13 RCS studies, but that retirement confidence was strongly related with household participation in a retirement savings plan.

**Impact of Financial Education on Financial Capability**

Previous research indicates that financial education may improve consumer financial literacy, financial behavior, and financial capability overall. Braunstein and Welch (2002) reviewed findings of empirical studies of financial literacy training efforts including homebuyer counseling programs, savings initiatives, and workplace programs and noted that program sponsors use a variety of criteria for determining success such as amount of savings deposits, retirement plan participation levels, and maintenance of a mortgage loan. They noted that “the body of objective research generally concludes that financial literacy training yields some benefits” (p. 449) and that evidence exists that “education can result in more informed consumers who make better financial decisions” (p. 456). Martin (2007) also summarized research on financial education efforts and concluded that financial education is necessary and that many existing approaches are effective. Hilgert, Hogarth, and Beverly (2003) documented a strong relationship between financial knowledge and the likelihood of engaging in recommended financial practices such as
maintaining an emergency fund. Sherraden and Boshara (2008) found exposing participants to financial education raised average savings deposits. Despite methodological and evaluation limitations in measuring program effectiveness, many studies of adult financial education interventions have shown positive outcomes (Lyons, 2005). Research indicates financial education improves youth financial literacy. McCormick (2009) reviewed studies of the effectiveness of youth financial education efforts and noted that “some indicators do point to efficacy of financial education efforts” (p. 76). The first of two foundational studies that she cited was the Danes, Huddleston-Casas, and Boyce (1999) study that evaluated the NEFE High School Financial Planning Program® and found reported student increases in knowledge, self-efficacy, and savings rates. The second was the Bernheim, Garrett, and Maki (2001) study of the effects of state financial education mandates which found positive effects of state mandates on savings rates and net worth in subsequent adulthood years. Tennyson and Nguyen (2001) analyzed the relationship between high school students’ scores on a test of personal financial literacy and their state’s personal finance curriculum mandate. Results of the study showed that curriculum mandates, broadly defined, are not generally associated with higher students’ scores. However, students in states that required specific financial education course work scored significantly higher than those in states with either a general mandate or with no mandate. Walstad, Rebeck, and MacDonald (2010) investigated the effects of a financial education program on high school students’ knowledge of personal finance and found that scores increased regardless of which course the curriculum was used in and across student characteristics.

Previous studies also documented that workplace financial education may have positive effects on consumer financial literacy, financial behavior, and financial capability. For example, Joo and Grable (2005) found that persons exposed to workplace financial education were more likely to have a retirement savings program and having retirement savings related positively to retirement confidence. Similarly, Kim, Garman, and Quach (2005) found that attending financial education workshops is positively related to both employees’ and their spouses’ contributions to retirement savings plans. Clark, Lusardi, and Mitchell (2014) explored associations between financial knowledge and retirement savings plan performance and found that risk-adjusted annual expected returns were 130 basis points higher for the most financially knowledgeable employees.

Some researchers found financial education has little or a limited effect on financial literacy and financial behavior. Mandell and Klein (2009) studied the effects that taking a personal finance course had on students one to four years later and found that those who took a course were no more financially literate than those who had not. In addition, those who took a course did not evaluate themselves to be more savings-oriented and did not appear to have better financial behavior than those who had not taken the course. Hastings, Madrian, and Skimmyhorn (2012) reviewed studies of financial literacy, financial education, and consumer financial outcomes and noted “a sizeable and growing literature has established a correlation between financial literacy and several different financial behaviors and outcomes” (p. 14). Gale and Levine (2011) reviewed the effectiveness of previous efforts to promote financial literacy and concluded that none of the four traditional approaches to financial literacy- employer-based, school-based, credit counseling, or community-based- has generated strong evidence that financial education has had positive and substantial impacts.

A meta-analysis of 188 studies of the effects of financial literacy and financial education on financial behavior was conducted by Fernandes, Lynch, and Netemeyer (2013). The study found that interventions to improve financial literacy explain only 0.1% of the variance in financial behavior while correlational studies that measure financial literacy find larger effects on financial behaviors. Collins (2010) conducted a similar review of financial education evaluation literature to synthesize implications for research and practice. Studying 41 evaluations of adult financial education and counseling programs, he found that positive impacts are often small when compared to valid comparison groups. These researchers noted the limitation of financial education on financial literacy, financial behavior and financial capability, but also believe financial education is necessary and can be improved to make it more effective.

The Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

Lusardi and Mitchell (2014) developed a life-cycle saving model that addresses the role of financial literacy. In their paper, financial literacy is defined as “people’s ability to process economic information and make informed decisions about financial planning, wealth accumulation, debt, and pensions (p.6),” which is similar to the definition of financial capability used in this study. Under the traditional utility framework, they have incorporated several factors such as borrowing constraints, mortality risk, demographic factors, stock market returns, and earnings and
health shocks in the theoretical model and made simulations using plausible parameters. This model predicts that financial literacy is endogenously determined over the life cycle. Consumers invest in financial knowledge to the point where their marginal time and money costs of doing so are equated to their marginal benefits. These predictions suggest that consumers who receive financial education would increase their ability to manage their money and perform financially better than their counterparts who do not receive financial education. Previous research also shows that financial education is associated with financial literacy and encourages desirable financial behaviors among consumers (see the literature review in the previous section).

Based on the above conceptual model and discussion in the literature review section, the following hypotheses were proposed for this study:

H1: Consumers who have received financial education are more likely to show higher scores in financial capability variables.

H2: Specifically, consumers who have received financial education from (a) high school, (b) college, and (c) workplace are more likely to show higher scores in financial capability variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Variable Specifications</th>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Variable label</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sum(m6x, m7x, m8x, m9x, m10x)</td>
<td>Objective financial literacy</td>
<td>Financial capability</td>
<td>0-5, the sum of correct numbers for financial literacy questions. The original financial literacy variables (m6-m10) were recoded to binary variables in which 1=correct answer, 0=otherwise and then the new variables were summed to form the score.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4</td>
<td>Subjective financial literacy</td>
<td>Desirable financial behavior</td>
<td>1-very low, 7-very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See note</td>
<td>Perceived financial capability</td>
<td>Financial capability index</td>
<td>The sum of 12 desirable financial behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M20_fin_ed</td>
<td>Received financial education</td>
<td>Financial education</td>
<td>1=yes, 0=no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M21_1_highsch</td>
<td>Received fin. ed. in high school</td>
<td>Control variables</td>
<td>1=yes, 0=no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M21_2_coll</td>
<td>Received fin. ed. in college</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1=yes, 0=no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M21_3_work</td>
<td>Received fin. ed. in workplace</td>
<td>a3_male</td>
<td>1=male, 0=female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3Ar_w</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>a5_ed</td>
<td>6 education levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a6_married</td>
<td>Being married</td>
<td>a8_income</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a11_dep_child</td>
<td>Having dependent children</td>
<td>a9_working</td>
<td>Working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a10_fin_sat</td>
<td>Financial satisfaction</td>
<td>j10_inc_drop</td>
<td>Experiencing income drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j2_check</td>
<td>Having checking account</td>
<td>c1_have_401k</td>
<td>Having a 401k plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b2_have_cd</td>
<td>Having savings, MMA and CD.</td>
<td>ea_1_own_home</td>
<td>Owning a home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b14_have_invest</td>
<td>Having other investments</td>
<td>e7_have_mort</td>
<td>Having a mortgage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1_have_cc</td>
<td>Having credit card</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: 20 desirable financial behaviors are spending within income, saving for children’s college education, saving for emergency, checking credit reports, checking credit scores, using advice on financial services (debt counseling, investment, mortgage, insurance, and taxes), contributing to 401k plans, comparison shopping for credit card, calculating retirement needs, making mortgage payment on time, and desirable credit card behaviors (making full payment, not keeping balance, not making minimum payment, not paying late fees, not being over the limit, and not using cash advance). All of these variables are binary variables that are appropriately recoded from corresponding variables from the original data set.

Method

Data
Data used in this study were from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study (NFCS). In consultation with the U.S. Department of the Treasury and the President’s Advisory Council on Financial Literacy, the FINRA Investor Education Foundation commissioned the first national study of the financial capability of American adults in 2009. The 2012 NFCS is a replicated study that included 25,509 American adults (roughly 500 per state, plus the District of Columbia) and 1,000 military service members through online surveys (FINRAIEF, 2013). The data set is available for public use from the website of the FINRA Investor Education Foundation. For this study, observations were removed for 1,218 respondents who reported “don’t know” or “prefer not to say” for three perception variables, subjective financial literacy, perceived financial capability, and financial satisfaction, which resulted a sample size of 24,291 used for this study.

Variables
The dependent variables were five financial capability variables: objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability and financial capability index (calculated by summing Z scores of objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, and perceived financial capability). The focal independent variable included two sets of financial education variables. One set had one binary variable: ever received financial education. The other set included three variables indicating specific sources of financial education, from high school, college, and/or a workplace. Other independent variables included a set of demographic and financial variables. See Table 1 for variable specifications.

Data Analyses
One-way ANOVA tests were conducted to examine financial education differences in financial capability variables. Multiple OLS regressions were used to examine potential effects of financial education on financial capability variables after adding control variables. The sample was unweighted in the analyses.

Table 2. Results of one way ANOVA of Financial Capability Variables by Financial Education Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Objective Knowledge (0-5)</th>
<th>Subjective Knowledge (1-7)</th>
<th>Financial Behavior (0-20)</th>
<th>Perceived Financial Capability (1-7)</th>
<th>Financial Capability Index (-10.01-6.38)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received financial education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>-.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received financial education from high school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>9.24</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received financial education from college</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>10.15</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Results of Regression on Financial Capability Variables: Having Ever Received Financial Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Education Variables</th>
<th>Objective Knowledge</th>
<th>Subjective Knowledge</th>
<th>Financial Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived Financial Capability</th>
<th>Financial Capability Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td></td>
<td>.027</td>
<td></td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having dependent children</td>
<td>-.096</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td></td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
<td>.022</td>
<td></td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial satisfaction</td>
<td>-.047</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income drop last year</td>
<td>-.078</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having checking account</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having CD and MMA</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having investments</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>1.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having 401k plan</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td></td>
<td>.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owning a home</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td></td>
<td>.090</td>
<td></td>
<td>.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having mortgage</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td></td>
<td>.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having credit card</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>4.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received financial education</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td></td>
<td>.193</td>
<td></td>
<td>.118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
p                                   | .000                |                      | .000               |                               | .000                      |                            | .000                      |                            | .000                      |                            |

**Results**

**One Way ANOVA Results**

Table 2 presents the results of one way ANOVA tests when financial education differences in financial capability variables were examined. Results showed that specific financial education variables (i.e., high school, college, and workplace financial education) showed more potential impacts than the general financial education variable. The general financial education variable “ever received financial education” showed a potential positive impact on only one capability variable, perceived financial capability. However, two specific financial education variables, “received financial education in college” and “received financial education in workplace,” showed potential positive impacts on all five financial capability variables, suggesting that respondents received financial education in college and/or workplace scored higher in objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability and financial capability index. The variable “received financial education from workplace” showed a potential positive impact on only one capability variable, perceived financial capability. However, two specific financial education variables, “received financial education in college” and “received financial education in workplace,” showed potential positive impacts on all five financial capability variables, suggesting that respondents received financial education in college and/or workplace scored higher in objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability and financial capability index.
education in high school” showed potential positive impacts on two capability variables, subjective financial literacy and perceived financial capability.

**Multiple Regression Results**

Table 3 presents results of multiple regressions when the general financial education variable and control variables were included in the models. After controlling for 16 demographic and financial variables, the general financial education variable “ever received financial education” showed potential positive effects on all five financial capability variables. The results are different from those of one way ANOVA, suggesting that, after controlling important variables, the general financial education variable showed potential positive effects on all financial capability variables. The explaining powers of these models varied by the $R^2$ values, that were, from the highest to the lowest, perceived financial capability, financial capability index, objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, and desirable financial behavior.

**Table 4. Results of Regression on Financial Capability Variables: Having Received Financial Education from Specific Sources**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Objective Knowledge</th>
<th>Subjective Knowledge</th>
<th>Financial Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived Financial Capability</th>
<th>Financial Capability Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>3.543</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-0.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having dependent</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income drop last year</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having checking account</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having CD and MMA</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having investments</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>1.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having 401k plan</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owning a home</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having mortgage</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having credit card</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>4.476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial education:</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 presents the regression results when specific financial education variables and control variables were in the models. Compared to the results of one way ANOVA, one difference was found that the specific financial education variable “received financial education in high school” showed only two potential positive impacts in ANOVA but all five potential positive effects on all financial capability variables. The findings of ANOVA and regressions for the other two specific financial education variables were consistent, showing financial education in college and/or workplace may have positive impacts on all five financial capability variables. The patterns of explaining powers of the regressions models using specific financial education variables were similar to those when the general financial education variable was used.

Discussion

This study used data from the 2012 National Financial Capability Study to examine associations between financial education and financial capability. Financial education was measured by two sets of variables, one set had a single variable, receiving any financial education, and the other set had three variables, receiving financial education from high school, college, and workplace. Financial capability was measured by five variables: objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, perceived financial capability, and financial capability index.

Bivariate analysis results showed that financial education from college and a workplace showed positive associations with all five financial capability variables, financial education from high school showed positive associations with two of five financial capability variables, and any financial education variable showed an association with only one financial capability variable. However, after controlling for 16 demographic and financial variables, all financial education variables, both general financial education and financial education from a specific source showed positive associations with all five financial capability variables, supporting H1, H2a, H2b, and H2c. The findings of this study indicate that receiving any financial education and receiving financial education from high school, college, and a workplace are positively associated with objective financial literacy and subjective literacy, which are consistent with previous research (Hastings, Madrian, & Skinnyhorn, 2012, Martin, 2007; McCormick, 2009). This evidence shows that financial education, not only increases consumers’ knowledge level but also increases confidence about their financial knowledge. Both objective and subjective knowledge variables are associated with positive financial behavior as indicated in previous research (Robb & Woodyard, 2011).

Based on the results of this study, any financial education or financial education from a specific source is associated with positive financial behavior performed, which is consistent with previous research (Braunstein and Welch, 2002; Hilgert, Hogarth, & Beverly, 2003; Sherraden & Boshura, 2008). Desirable financial behaviors are important to reduce financial risks and reserve resources for current and future consumption. Financial education may not only teach consumers financial content but also provide a social network setting for consumers to learn from each other. Research shows that social networks such as neighbors may have effects on consumer financial capability (Lachance, 2014).

Results also demonstrate that both general financial education and financial education from a specific source are positively associated with perceived financial capability. Perceived financial capability can be considered as financial self-efficacy based on a major psychological concept self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an important psychological state to give people confidence to achieve their desirable goals (Bandura, 1982). Since real financial
capability is difficult to measure directly, this variable can be a good proxy. Research indicates that perceived financial capability is positively associated with financial satisfaction (Xiao et al., 2014).

Finally, both general financial education and financial education from a specific source is positively associated with financial capability index. Financial capability index is calculated in this study by summing Z scores of objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, desirable financial behavior, and perceived financial capability. Compared to previous research (Atkinson et al. 2006; Taylor 2011), this index includes more dimensions that may better capture true financial capability.

**Implications**

The goal of most financial education programs is to translate financial education into knowledge gains and behavior change on the part of participants for improved financial well-being. This study employed two different measures of financial education (any education and school or workplace specific education) and five variables to measure financial capability. Positive associations were found between both measures of financial education and all five financial capability variables: objective financial literacy, subjective financial literacy, financial behavior, perceived financial capability, and financial capability index.

Taken together, these findings indicate that financial education appears to enhance financial capability whether it is measured on an objective or subjective basis. Thus, this study lends support to efforts to enhance financial education for both youth and adults. Financial education, whether through formal classes, workplace seminars, or other means appears to have beneficial results. This is good news for consumers because responsibility for financial security has been transferred, for the most part, from government and employers to individual Americans. For practitioners, this study provides evidence that their hard work to build the financial knowledge and skills of Americans is not in vain.

With that said, there is always room for improvement such as more rigorous evaluation methods and providing “just in time” information at “teachable moments” when people are motivated by life circumstances to learn to better manage their finances. Other ways to enhance financial education programs and outcomes include greater training for personal finance instructors, tailoring programs for specific audiences, addressing underlying behaviors that shape people’s financial decisions, using case studies to foster critical thinking and financial decision-making skills, making it easy for people to take positive action (e.g., enrolling in a 401(k) plan or electing auto-escalation of savings immediately following a workplace seminar), and helping to simplify financial decision-making with step-by-step instructions and/or good choice architecture. It is also important to increase the public’s awareness of the need for financial education and to make it accessible.

This study also has implications for researchers. First, it supports one of the Financial Literacy and Education Commission (FLEC) 2012 research priorities to identify and evaluate “key metrics” for financial capability, including measures of knowledge and well-being (FLEC, 2012). The methodology could be replicated with a different sample such as employees of a large company or university students. Many of the questions that were asked could be placed online for ease of administration. The questions could also be used as pre- and post-tests before and after an educational program or in a study with a control group. Attention should also be paid by researchers to assessing the return on investment (ROI) from financial education programs in economic terms as well as in terms of participants’ financial capability. The higher the ROI multiple (e.g., 30:1 versus 3:1), the better a financial education program from an economic standpoint.

Finally, for policy makers, this study also has implications. The most obvious is that, given the positive association between financial education and financial capability, financial education programs in schools and in the community should be supported and funded. Some might take this suggestion even further and recommend required financial education classes in public schools. As a caveat to these recommendations, program funders should require financial education programs to have clear objectives and an evaluation methodology that assesses both knowledge gains and behavior change. In addition, personal finance instructors need to have adequate training in both subject matter content and pedagogy. Financial education is not an option - it is a necessity. The financial security of families and, by extension, communities and the nation itself, is at stake.
References


Financial Skills Among Married Adults: A Comparison to Singles and Recommendations for Extension Educators

Travis G. Parry, M.S. and Lucy Delgadillo, Ph.D.

Abstract

Economic uncertainty has driven researchers to study stress on American families. This study compares the differences in financial skills between married and single participants of a financial education course (n=432), and provides recommendations for extension educators. Married students reported better financial skills overall, but faired the same as single students when it came to achieving financial goals that they set. Possible reasons behind the differences are discussed and practical solutions are recommended for educators.

Key Words: financial skills, financial education, married couples

Recent economic problems have caused higher levels of stress on American families (FINRA, 2012), leading many researchers to study this phenomenon. Extension has long been involved with teaching both financial education (Collins, Olive, & O’Rourke, 2013) and family life education courses to help address financial strain on relationships. However, researchers have found that integrating financial education into relationship education is usually lacking. When it is introduced, most participants desire deeper financial understanding than is provided (Higginbotham, Tulane, & Skogrand, 2012).

Financial education is a broad term used to describe teaching financial topics by an educator or teacher with a specific curriculum. Various organizations offer financial education including universities, schools, financial institutions, community groups, non-profit organizations, employers, and extension agencies (Kozup & Hogarth, 2008). However, most research evaluates financial education programs completed with individual participants providing little understanding for teaching financial education to couples. Further, there may be potential relationship outcomes that could be impacted by these interventions, like impacts on marital quality and stability (Archuleta, Grable, & Britt, 2013).

A compelling argument for integrating financial topics into marriage education programs might be that the same factors that increase success in attaining financial goals like setting financial goals, time management, communication, etc. are also factors that increase marital quality (Skogrand, Schramm, Marshall, & Lee, 2005; Dew & Wilcox, 2011; Houts, Robins, & Huston, 1996; Driver, Tabares, & Shapiro, 2012). Archuleta et al., (2013) found that the more goals a couple shared, the higher their marital satisfaction scores were.

A possible challenge for such integration would be that teaching financial skills to individuals is much different than teaching financial skills to couples. Financial education for individual participants is designed to help a person deal with his or her own internal financial motivations and external financial and numerical skills. The individual can make changes on his or her own timetable and according to his or own desire. Whereas, financial education for couples involves not only the internal and external financial issues that each individual has, but it also involves how they work toward consensus and make changes together as a dyad.

Purpose

This paper focuses on the differences in financial skills between married and single participants enrolled in a financial education course at a Western University. The paper provides implications for educators and extension agents.

The following hypothesis were posited:

1. Hypothesis 1-Single individuals will have less effective overall financial skills than married couples.
2. Hypothesis 2-Single individuals will not be as likely to set and achieve financial goals as married couples.

3. **Hypothesis 3** - Regardless of marital status, those who set financial goals are more likely to achieve their financial goals.

**Method**

Participants consisted of a convenient sample of students in a financial education course at a Western University (n=432). Students were comprised of 42% male and 58% female and were 91% white, 4% other, 2% Latino, and 1% Black. Age ranged from 12-66, with a mode at age 21. 23.5% of the students were married and 76.5% were single, divorced, or widowed.

Students received extra-credit by answering an online-questionnaire at the end of the semester to assess their financial skills. The online questionnaire was administered by Qualtrics. The participants were provided eleven questions about their financial skills and asked to self-report their level of agreement or disagreement in a 10-point Likert-style scale. The financial skills scale (alpha .78) questions included: I make a budget, I am good at following my own budget, I always keep track of my expenses, I pay my bills on time, I am prepared for emergency expenses, I pay my credit card bill in full each month, I only pay the minimum on my credit card, I know how much money I make each month, I try to save a little bit each month. The surveys also included questions about goal setting: I like to set financial goals, and I achieve my financial goals. Basic demographic information gender, race or ethnicity, age, and marital status were also included.

A cross-sectional design was used to answer Hypothesis 1 and 2 by testing for correlational differences between the married and single students in the financial education course.

The independent variable (IV) was marital status and dependent variables (DV) included financial skills, and setting and achieving financial goals. Marital status was coded with married as 1 as single as 2. The financial skills variable was a combination of all nine financial questions (financial skills scale) and the two goal setting questions. Their responses were based on the 10-point Likert scale, with 10 as the highest and 1 as the lowest score. The setting and achieving financial goals variable was measured as an additional item of the two goal-setting questions and used the Likert scale. In order to test the two stated hypotheses, multiple regression was used with a Pearson Correlation measure to analyze mean differences. These measures were run using SPSS 21.

**Results**

Hypothesis 1 - Single individuals will have less effective overall financial skills than married couples. The variables included in Table 1, marital status and financial skills, were used to test Hypothesis 1. Results of the analysis found a positive correlation between the two variables. The Pearson Correlation score of .198 was found to be statistically significant at p < .01. This score indicates that hypothesis #1 is supported, that the single students did indeed have less overall financial skills than married students did.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status and Financial Skills correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status &amp; Financial Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*

Hypothesis 2 - Single individuals will not be as likely to set and achieve financial goals as married couples. To test Hypothesis 2, the analysis included additional questions: setting financial goals, achieving financial goals, and marital status. There was a positive relationship between the setting financial goals and marital status with a Pearson
Correlation measuring at .137 and was found to be statistically significant at p < .01 (Table 2.). Achieving financial goals and marital status were positively correlated with a Pearson Correlation of .077, but not statistically significant. These scores suggest that hypothesis #2 is was only partially supported, with married students setting financial goals at a higher rate but not necessarily achieving financial goals at a higher rate than that of their single cohorts.

Table 2
Financial Goals and Marital Status correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting Financial Goals</td>
<td>.137**</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving Financial Goals</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 3-Those who set financial goals are more likely to achieve their financial goals. To test this hypothesis, both setting financial goals and achieving financial goals were used to test correlation. There was a strong Pearson Correlation of .660 and was found to be highly statistically significant at p < .01 level (Table 3.) Thus confirming that Hypothesis 3, that those who set financial goals are likely to achieve their financial goals.

Table 3
Setting and Achieving Financial Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achieving Financial Goals</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting Financial Goals</td>
<td>.660***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Limitations
This study was conducted on a University campus with a majority of white undergraduate students. The design is correlational research with no comparison group to compare outcomes, directionality, or effect sizes. Longitudinal research among a more diverse group would have been more ideal, however, these findings can provide initial insights into further research and implementations of financial education with married couples, and utilized wherever financial education is being taught. Additional evaluation research could provide more valuable research as a result of this study.
Discussion

The results supported Hypothesis 1 and 3, but only partly for Hypothesis 2. We will discuss the implications for these findings and give specific implementation suggestions. Married students reported that they had significantly better financial skills than single students. One explanation might be the change that occurs when one gets married and begins to discuss finances as a couple. Most couples need to discuss finances in order to have a happy marriage (Olson, Olson-Sigg, & Larson, 2008; Skogrand, Johnson, Horrocks, & DeFrain, 2011), thus the need for financial education is an intrinsic motivator to maintain healthy relationships. Single people may not be as concerned with finances, yet. For example, single students could be more interested in paying rent, paying their own tuition, and financing social activities; whereas married students collaborate on their family’s budget in order to pay their joint home expenses, car payments, food, childcare, etc.

Although married students set more financial goals they did not achieve them at a significantly higher rate than single students. This is an interesting finding given that married couples report better financial skills and better financial goal setting, but that it did not translate into achieving these financial goals.

The last finding in this paper also illustrates how all students who set financial goals, regardless of marital status, were more likely to achieve them. Additional analysis helped to answer this question. The Pearson Correlations found that all productive financial skills; making a budget, following the budget, keeping track of expenses, paying bills on time, being prepared for emergency expenses, paying credit card bills in full each month, knowing how much money is made each month, saving a little bit each month, and setting financial goals were all positively correlated at significant levels with achieving financial goals. So, if having better financial skills is related to achieving financial goals, and married couples have significantly higher financial skills scores, why did couples not achieve their financial goals more than single students?

One possible answer to the above question may be that single people have simpler financial goals than married people and were more easily achieved. It is also possible that there is a more complicated dynamic for married couples when dealing with financial goals. Most marriage education programs include communication as the main focus of their intervention (Fowers, 2001), because family relation researchers and professionals understand this dynamic. This may be a clue that spouses may not be communicating clearly about their financial goals as a couple. This could explain why, in extension classes where spouses were present, participants wanted additional financial information (Higginbotham et al., 2012). Since money is the most contentious topic couples argue about (Stanley, Markman, & Whitton, 2002), extension agents can use these findings to improve their own efforts in educating couples in financial matters.

Implementation suggestions

Here are some practical recommendations using a strengths-based approach:

- Include financial education in conjunction with marriage education, especially on how to communicate about money and how to manage time together to speak about these important topics.
- Help couples set and accomplish their financial goals by teaching financial skills courses. This has been shown to also lead to increasing marital quality (Skogrand, et al., 2005).
- Provide additional support, if needed, in the form of financial coaching or counseling. (Use of coaching in extension was recently proposed by Allen (2013) in order to improve the learner’s accountability, while recognizing their knowledge and experiences.)
- Evaluate financial and marriage education classes along with financial coaching and counseling interventions, to better understand what additional help may be needed, and to evaluate changes in marital quality.

This study has shown differences in outcomes of a financial education intervention between single and married students. Married students were found to have better financial skills, including setting financial goals. However, the advantages in married students were not associated with higher levels of financial goals achieved. Practical recommendations for future use of financial education with couples in extension were proposed. Among these were integration of financial education with marriage education, helping couples set and achieve their financial goals,
providing additional support in the form of financial coaching and counseling for couples, and evaluate these future efforts to contribute to the literature.

References


Personal Finance Teaching Efficacy – A Measurement

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Kristy Archuleta, Ph.D., Kansas State University

Introduction

This study explored the factors that affect the capacity of teachers to teach personal finances in the public and private school systems in Puerto Rico. Using Social Cognitive Theory as a theoretical framework (Bandura, 1997), this study investigated how demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, financial self-efficacy, teaching efficacy, formal preparation in personal finances, subjective financial knowledge, objective financial knowledge, and financial behaviors impact personal finance teaching efficacy of Puerto Rican teachers.

Literature Review

Teacher training in personal finance subject matter has not been well documented in the research, although training has been found to be a significant predictor of a teacher’s perceived competence for a given subject (Way & Holden, 2009). Most studies ask teachers if they feel more confident about teaching personal finances after taking a training course (Way & Holden, 2009; Hensley, 2011), but they do not address teachers’ efficacy regarding the teaching of personal finance. In general, teaching efficacy has been linked to student achievement.

Research has been conducted on teacher preparation (i.e., knowledge level), teachers’ pedagogical training, and teacher efficacy in subject matters like mathematics and science (Tschanne-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Enochs, Smith, & Huinker, 2000; Utey, Moseley, & Bryant, 2005; Bates, Kim, & Latham, 2011). Furthermore, Tschanne-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) examined the importance of teacher efficacy as it relates to the efforts put forth by teachers and the expected effects on students. This connection is considered important as Bandura (1993) posited that teachers with higher teaching efficacy affect the intellectual capabilities students develop. Other authors have linked teacher competence and efficacy to higher-achieving students (Henson, Kogan, & Vacha-Haase, 2001; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001). Behaviors and beliefs have also been found to be essential aspects of self-efficacy, which has been reported to be an important factor in competence (Bandura, 1993).

Several studies have noted the association between the level of teachers’ financial knowledge and their perceived preparedness to teach personal finance (Gutter, Gillen, Copur, & Way, 2011; Hensley, Richards, and Hansell, 2012; Godsted and McCormick, 2007; McCormick & Godsted, 2006; Grossman, Stodolsky, & Knapp, 2004; McCormick, 2005).

Some states have even recognized the importance of teacher preparation and have begun to take action. North Dakota, for instance, has implemented a teacher training program in order to fulfill a state mandate for high school students (Pankow, Borr, & Jurgensen, 2011). With these findings in mind, the purpose of this study was to explore the factors that affect the capacity of teachers to teach personal finances in Puerto Rico.

To investigate this query, the Personal Financial Education Efficacy Model was developed for this study to understand the factors that may drive personal finance teaching efficacy. This model was rooted in Social Cognitive Theory and expanded Mundy’s (2008) two-stage model by: (a) defining financial literacy, (b) developing the curriculum that will be used by the teachers to teach personal finances, (c) teacher preparation, (d) teacher demographic and socioeconomic factors, (e) personal teaching factors, (f) individual financial factors, and (g) personal finance teaching efficacy.

Methodology

Participants for this study were recruited by direct invitation, posts on Facebook pages, LinkedIn posts, and mass media outlets. Three hundred sixteen sixth through 12\textsuperscript{th} grade teachers from Puerto Rico completed an on-line survey. The survey was composed of six sections, including: (a) Teacher Efficacy Scale (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993),

\textsuperscript{46}Kurt A. Schindler, Ph.D., CFP\textsuperscript{\textregistered} , 787-249-7061.
(b) Financial Self-efficacy Scale (Lown, 2011), (c) Personal Finance Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument, (d) financial behavior questions, (e) financial knowledge questions, and (f) demographics, (g) professional preparation, and (h) current financial situation. The three scales included in the survey incorporated the original questions in English alongside the questions translated into Spanish.

Results

The sample consisted primarily of females and the average age of respondents was 45. Slightly more than half of the sample was married. Seventy-eight percent of the respondents owned their own home. Most of the sample had received at least some level of graduate level education (74%). Eighty-three percent of respondents indicated they work in public schools and the remaining 16.2% in private schools. Average household gross income was $32,433. Of the 316 respondents, 88.6% have been teaching for five years or less and the remaining 11.4% have been teaching for at least six years. One hundred ninety of the respondents indicated they had taken some kind of course or workshop on personal finance.

In regards to financial perceptions, financial satisfaction scores ranged from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied) with an average score of 5.09. Objective financial knowledge scores ranged from 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest) with an average score of 5.83. Financial behaviors scores ranged from 0 to 9 (n = 316) with an average score of 5.7, which indicates the respondents had more positive than negative behaviors.

Principal Components Analysis was conducted on several of the scales in the survey to confirm the validity. The Teacher Efficacy Scale showed two subscales – teaching efficacy (α = .73) and personal teaching efficacy (α = .74). Only one factor for the Financial Self-efficacy Scale (α = .78) was found, which compared favorably to published reports of .76 (Lown, 2011). The Personal Finance Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument was adapted from the math teaching efficacy beliefs instrument (Enochs, Smith, & Huinker, 2000). Three factors emerged for the Personal Finance Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument, which was different than previous research indicating only two factors (Enochs, et. al., 2000; Utley, Mosley & Bryant, 2005). The first factor, personal finance teaching outcome expectancy factor pertains to what the teacher can expect in the relationship with the students. The reliability for this subscale was strong (α = .82). The second factor, personal finance teaching efficacy factor one, pertains to the control a teacher had in managing the student experience. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated at .79. The third factor personal finance teaching efficacy factor two pertains to concepts and not specific actions regarding the teaching of personal finances. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated at .81 for this subscale.

We specifically asked if the overall model is better than chance at predicting a teacher’s inclusion in the top one-third of the scores for the Personal Finance Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument scale. This research question was tested using hierarchical binary logistic multiple regression analysis to investigate the hypothesis of how a teacher’s level of personal finance teaching efficacy is associated with individual financial factors, personal teaching factors, socioeconomic factors, and demographic factors? Each set of independent variables were entered in blocks to test the strength of the model. The model summary showed improvement in the Log Likelihood Ratio between the constant-only model and the final model in terms of overall fit. The chi-square statistic is significant ($\chi^2 = 96.114$, $\rho < .001$). Results showed the model was accurate 82.6% of the time—an improvement over the chance level. Two financial variables had significant estimated coefficients, subjective financial knowledge (B = .537, $\rho < .001$) and financial behaviors (B = .286, $\rho < .05$). The variable for financial training (i.e., having taken a course in personal finances) had a significant estimated coefficient (B = -1.412, $\rho = .000$). A possible interpretation is that while training increases a person’s subjective financial knowledge it decreases their confidence in teaching personal finances to students. This may be due to the complexities and depth of the subject matter in the training classes. Or, it may be due to the focus of the training session on applying the personal finance techniques rather than on teaching the personal finance concepts.

Implications

This study has several implications for teacher capacity building. Teacher training on personal finances needs to include pedagogical training in addition to helping teachers learn about managing their own personal finances. The predictive strength of objective financial knowledge on personal finance teaching efficacy needs to be studied.
further. This information can be used for teacher training and development, as well as curriculum development in light of Puerto Rico Education Policy Memos instructing teachers to teach personal finances.

**Limitations**

Several limitations exist for this study. First, although the goal of this study was to focus on Puerto Rican teachers, the sample population cannot be generalized to other areas. Second, the majority of the respondents have been teaching for five years or less. Third, including both Spanish and English translations were used for each question. This was the first time these questions had been translated into Spanish and it is possible that meaning of each question may not have been conveyed effectively. Utilizing both translations also affected the length of the survey, which may have discouraged potential respondents from completing the survey. Fourth, the timing of the survey was at the end of the school year in Puerto Rico, which may not have been an optimal time for teachers to respond to a survey. Finally, the lack of trust in how the results might be used as teacher evaluation is a sensitive subject. Social research studies are not common in Puerto Rico and participation in the study may have been viewed by some as admitting a lack of knowledge or preparation for teaching personal finances, even though no identifying information was requested in the survey.

This study has identified factors that affect the capacity of teachers to teach personal finance to high school students in Puerto Rico. With this information, the study contributes to the creation of teaching models for the Puerto Rico education system which can lead to helping students increase their financial capabilities and implement behaviors to improve their financial well-being.
The Role of Medical Debt in Consumer Bankruptcy

Levi Pace\textsuperscript{47}, University of Utah and Jean M. Lown, Utah State University

Abstract

The U.S. records the highest rates of bankruptcy in the world, at least in part because it is the only industrialized nation, other than South Africa, that does not provide some form of universal health coverage. This study uses data on bankruptcy cases filed from 2003-2007 to reveal the role of medical debt in bankruptcy. Medical debt is the most common type of debt listed, arising in 90% of cases. In terms of dollar amount, medical debt is the second highest category after mortgages. As America transitions to the Affordable Care Act (ACA), financial educators, counselors, and advisors need to help clients understand the importance of adequate medical insurance to avoid financial disaster. Although there is no consensus, many studies recognize the significant role of medical debt as a trigger for entering bankruptcy. With employer-provided health insurance becoming less generous, reliance on bankruptcy to resolve financial obligations related to medical may rise.

In 2012, prior to ACA implementation, 14.7% of Americans (45.5 million) lacked health insurance, while millions more had inadequate insurance. The percentage without health insurance rose from 14.5% of the population during 1998-2002 to 15.2% of the population during 2008-2012. In 2013 one in five Americans, 53 million people or 19.8% of the population, lived in households that were struggling to pay medical bills. The share of people failing to obtain needed medical care due to cost has risen from an average of 4.5% during 1998-2002 to an average of 6.6% ten years later. In 2012, about 6.2% of the U.S. population failed to obtain needed medical care due to cost.

Even if the problem is ameliorated somewhat by the expansion of health insurance with the ACA, financial concerns associated with health care are likely to persist. Health insurance coverage does not insure against financial disaster. Thus, it is essential that financial educators, counselors, and planners understand the role of medical debt in bankruptcy. This study is based on an original dataset of bankruptcy filings from a state with a high filing rate to illustrate the role of medical debt in bankruptcy.

It is challenging to study the role of medical debt in bankruptcy because many medical bills are charged to credit cards and therefore are hidden and because families may choose to pay a medical bill instead of their credit card, utility, or car payment. So medical debt is hard to quantify and very likely understated in previous studies. Further, the impact of medical events often extends beyond the initial bills in the form of job loss or income reduction, the need for additional expenditures, and travel expenses to obtain care. Loss of employment and reduced income can have a greater long term impact than the actual medical expenses.

The dataset created for this study draws from detailed court records for 200 cases filed from October 2003 to October 2007. The state is roughly comparable to the U.S. in terms of home values, auto loan delinquency, and the percentage of citizens without health insurance. The state comprises a single bankruptcy court district, facilitating comparisons with the rest of the U.S. A stratified sampling procedure was used to select 200 cases. To supplement the online court records, data from documents produced by debtors or the court were examined and analyzed.

In bankruptcy, medical bills are considered non-priority, unsecured debts and thus are eligible for discharge. Because the bankruptcy court does not collect data on the reasons for filing, it is challenging to tease out the circumstances contributing to individual bankruptcy cases.

For each of 4,383 debts reported by bankruptcy petitioners, the amount, type, and creditor name was examined. Medical debt includes amounts owed to doctors, hospitals, medical clinics and their collection agencies. Debts in collection were classified as medical based on the creditor name.

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The 200 cases (half chapter 7 and half chapter 13) represent 607 individuals when spouses and children are included. Demographics including gender, race, age, and educational status are not collected by the court. Most of the debtors were employed at the time of filing. Debtors were much more likely to be divorced, separated, or widowed than the general population; married couples tended to report only one earner. Nearly one-third of households reported a prior filing. Two hundred households listed a total of 4,383 individual debts amounting to $22.0 million. Households averaged 22.4 debts averaging $5,012 per debt and $112,100 per household. Compared to the state’s population, households in this sample have lower median income and income per capita; more divorced, separated or widowed individuals; smaller household size; more poverty; and lower home values and home ownership rates. The debtors are similar to state residents in terms of employment and home foreclosures. Households in this state are similar to U.S. households in terms of the percent without health insurance, 15.5% versus 14.6%, respectively.

Not surprisingly, households in this study report heavier debt burdens than U.S. households. Mortgage, auto, and credit card debt balances in this state averaged $2,399 per capita or 5.3% above U.S. amounts for 2003-2007. These are the three largest consumer debt categories. Aside from secured and priority debts like mortgages and child support obligations, medical debt is the most common and the largest category of debt. Fully 89.8% of filers reported medical debt which was more common than mortgages, auto loans, credit card debt, student loans, payday loans or debts in collection. The amount owed was second only to mortgage loans and was 23.1% of total debt. Actually, 23.1% is an understatement because medical bills paid by credit card or second mortgages, for example, are not counted in these statistics. Debtors reported 1,042 medical debts, an average of 5.3 per case for 196 cases. This number represents 26.1% of the number of unsecured debts but 40.5% of the dollar amount of unsecured loans. Medical debts totaled at least $2,000 and less than $10,000 for most households, but there is wide variation. The mean amount was $18,875, skewed right as the median was only $8,875. Over one-half of medical debts were less than $10,000, and almost one-fourth were below $2,000; the highest amount in our sample was $266,730. Fifty households owed at least $20,000. Overall, 196 households were responsible for $3.7 million in medical debt. Only one in ten households in the sample reported no identifiable medical debt. One-fourth of the sample reported medical debts of less than 20% of their unsecured debts. Yet for over one-third of the sample, medical debt accounted for the majority of unsecured debt. The amount of medical debt rises with income level, but income per capita does not seem to vary in a consistent way with medical debt levels. Larger households and married individuals reported high levels of medical debt. Debtors with high levels of medical debt are more likely to file Chapter 7 bankruptcy than to attempt partial repayment under Chapter 13.

Medical debt is associated with repeat bankruptcy filings, that is, bankruptcy experienced again by an individual or family who had previously filed. A repeat filing is more likely for a bankruptcy filer with a higher percentage of medical debt. Specifically, for these households, the higher the percent that medical debt was of non-priority unsecured debt, the more likely that the household was filing for at least the second time. Medical debt appears to be a key trigger for bankruptcy among individuals and families who have had financial trouble in their past. A subsequent filing may indicate chronic financial trouble unresolved by an earlier bankruptcy.

Data were collected prior to implementation of the Affordable Care Act (ACA) and thus do not reflect the current medical insurance situation. However, the data clearly show the role of medical expenses in prompting individuals to file for bankruptcy protection. Married bankruptcy filers with higher incomes, previous bankruptcy filings, and larger households are more likely to carry large amounts of medical debt than other bankruptcy filers.

Prior to the ACA, medical debt was a significant contributor to bankruptcy. Based on preliminary data on health insurance sign-up rates, implementation of the ACA is unlikely to result in a reduction in bankruptcy filings. The impact of ACA on bankruptcy is likely to vary between states that expand their Medicaid coverage compared to states that fail to extend Medicaid coverage. The risk of not being able to afford potentially life-saving care continues for a substantial minority of Americans. Preliminary reports on ACA signups indicate that many people who now have insurance may have chosen the least costly, most affordable option and thus face the risk of medical bankruptcy. Whether the bankruptcy rate will fall due to the implementation of the ACA is open to future research.

A limitation of the study is that data are from only one state. Also, important demographic data are not available because bankruptcy records do not report filers’ age, educational attainment, or health insurance status. Medical debts are likely to be higher than reported because many debts are likely hidden in credit card or loan balances.
Financial counselors, educators, and advisors need to continue to inform and educate their clients about the risks of going without insurance or choosing inadequate major medical coverage. Educators and counselors seeking a reliable, non-partisan resource for health insurance and health policy information can explore the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation (rwjf.org) and the Kaiser Family Foundation (kff.org) websites. Despite the recent implementation of the ACA, many consumers still face the possibility of “medical bankruptcy.”
Student Paper

The Effects of Financial Disadvantage between Black and White Committed Couples

Schane D. Coker\textsuperscript{48}, Masters’ Student, Purdue University

Abstract

Citing previous research into cohabitation, marriage, and divorce in the United States, the root of this research explores why individuals choose to cohabitate given the social and personal risks and benefits, from a financial counseling standpoint. Viewed by some as a temporary or transition stage between dating and marriage (Clarkburg, 1999; Bumpass & Lu, 2000), this type of romantic relationship has become increasing common within the last couple of years, so much so that many existing cohabitating couples enjoy a majority of the positive social benefits of being married.

Key Words: Cohabitation, Financial Counseling, Financial Disadvantage, Marriage

Introduction

Understanding that change within a society is imminent, it is safe to speculate that American societal standards regarding relationship status and race have gone through some dramatic adjustments. Advancements in the professional identities of blacks and women have been made in the workplace, academia, and within their respective households. Consequently, American society has also seen a decline in individuals marrying young in lieu of pursuing their professional endeavors, with the idea of marriage or a long term commitment will likely be there for them when they have reached a plateau point in their careers. “Changes in public attitudes, coupled with the growing popularity of non-marital cohabitation, the increase in children born outside of wedlock, and the continuing rise of divorce rates, is starting to chip away at the prestige and privilege that marriage once held (Amato, Booth, Johnson, & Rogers, 2007, p.1).” Despite this, many young adults still maintain a positive view of marriage (Glenn 1996; Thornton and Young-DeMarco, 2001).

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African Americans have made great strides towards equality in the United States, as well as globally. Recent years have even seen the election of the first ever African American president in United States history. However, there continue to be occurrences of financial disparities, ideals that perpetuate the state of financial disadvantage among blacks (Gutter, 2000). Based on these historical structures and motives, coupled with former and current societal norms, black married and cohabitating couples are more financially disadvantaged than their white counterparts. Additionally, when compared to one another, black cohabitative couples are more financially disadvantaged than black married couples (United States Census, 2010).
Hypothesis

Based on previous research, Financial Disadvantage is based off of an individual’s resources inherited from their parent or guardian during adolescence and developed throughout their youth, leading up to adulthood. In particular, this proposal looks to examine the influences of personal savings on financial disadvantage.

Dominant groups (white, male, wealthy, etc.) tend to sustain their power over less privileged groups (non-whites, female, poor, etc.), therefore underprivileged groups who have low socioeconomic prospects are in a less powerful position to negotiate and are more vulnerable to consequences of financial disadvantage, like fraud (Bristor, Lee, and Hunt 1995; Hirschman 1993; Penaloza 1995; Brill 1992). Although numerous theories have been examined to explain how shifts in America’s economic and social landscape have resulted in decreases in marriage rates, the majority of these factors present barriers to marriage for new unmarried couples, who are disproportionally poor and minorities. Additionally, these individuals are less likely to follow through on future marriage plans (Ellwood & Jencks, 2004; Fein, Burstein, Fein, & Lindberg, 2003; Gibson-Davis, Edin, & McLanahan, 2005). This type of inequality in social and economic power will result in future generations of perpetual disadvantage while further widening the inequality gap within the United States.

It is hypothesized that marital status and race will have a significant effect on financial disadvantage.

- The first hypothesis will look to see if there is a financial disadvantage between black and white married couples.
  \( H_1 \): Black married couples are more financially disadvantaged than white married couples

- The second hypothesis will look to see if there is a financial disadvantage between black and white cohabitative couples.
  \( H_2 \): Black cohabitative couples are more financially disadvantaged than white cohabitating couples

- The third hypothesis will look to see if there is a financial disadvantage between black married couples and black cohabitative couples.
  \( H_3 \): Black cohabitating couples are more financially disadvantaged than black married couples

Literature Review

Marriage/Married. Matrimony in the United States has been established as a “social marker” of one’s entrance into adulthood (Amato et al, 2007, p.1). Many of cohabitation’s critics argue that two individuals that are living together as a married unit without any legal or social recognition will have many drawbacks, including that the couple may never decide to marry. However, activities like sexual relations, childbirth, and sharing a home together, are not only being normalized outside of marriage but are leading individuals to still hold marriage in very high esteem as an end goal of their cohabitative relationship (Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001, p.1009). The main issue of marriage pertains to the origins under which it was created, as it perpetuates gender roles within a traditional marriage. In particular, men have historically been treated as the dominant power and decision maker within this relationship, leaving women with little to no opportunity to become financially independent or responsible themselves. Prior to the 1950’s, traditional marriages and households within the US consisted of males being considered head of household as breadwinners and were to financially sustain a lifestyle in which he could raise a family, while the woman’s main roles were that of a homemaker and caretaker for the children. Though the history of marriage was established on the limitations of women, individuals still view and treat marriage as an irreversible commitment at legal, spiritual, and societal levels. Marriage offers individuals the opportunity to invest in their partner without the looming fear of abandonment due to lack of trust that one would find in cohabitation (Cherlin, 2004, p.854).

Cohabitation. The definition of cohabitation varies, both by the individuals that actively engage in it, as well as the society that observes it. In past research this type of relationship has been referenced as a co-residential arrangement as well as a trial marriage, a substitution for marriage, or an alternative to dating (Clarkburg, 1999; Gibson-Davis, Edin, & McLanahan, 2005). Being negatively stigmatized for some time within society, this trend of living with or becoming intimate with another individual resulted as a product of social uprising that gained true momentum around the 1960’s. American society experienced three initial revolutions between the years 1955 through 1970: the introduction and acceleration of divorce and remarriage, the increase in premarital sex, and the increased use of contraception (Lesthaeghe, 1995). Although these events paved the way for cohabitation, the true roots of this type
of relationship grew from the in-between time that occurred during an individual’s previous committed relationships. Cohabitation has become so common in the United States that the majority of young people have cohabitated at least once before marriage, while most marriages began as cohabitations (Bumpass & Lu, 2000, p.29-30). Yet some researchers in the field of family and intimate relationships still consider cohabitation temporary in the sense that they begin and end so suddenly that there really is no need or accurate method to measure how a cohabitative relationship is structured.

**Financial Stability.** Financial Stability, or the status of one’s financial or economic standing, is crucial to the survival and advancement of any sort of intimate relationship. According to Smock, Manning, & Porter (2005, p. 692), “the idea of marriage appears to be associated with having attained a certain ‘comfortable’ financial status.” Separating cohabitation from marriage in regards to financial stability are 3 barriers, or pre-requisites: education, employment status/stability, and relationship strength. Education has been identified as a basic level requirement of marriage in American society. Particularly in current society, the ongoing expansion of online learning resources via the internet has made it possible for self-education on one’s own time in an area of expertise that could eventually lead to a profession or major career.

Individuals that pursue higher education and attain better economic prospects are more likely to marry and develop a family within wedlock (Carlson, McLanahan, & England, 2004; McLaughlin & Lichter, 1997; Smock, Manning, & Gupta, 1999; Sweeney, 2002). It appears that education not only offers direct benefits to a relationship, in terms of providing more cohesion and inclusion within a relationship at an academic level, but indirect benefits as well, like more opportunities for career advancement and income growth.

**Employment Status.** Viewed as a common end goal or implied result of one’s education, employment status/stability is another requirement. “Good economic circumstances tend to be positively linked to marriage, particularly, those who cohabitate” (Smock et al, 2005). In many respects of a committed relationship and society, acquiring and maintaining full time employment is a sign of maturity and responsibility. Concerning financial responsibility, this becomes visible by being able to manage one’s money in relation to receiving a paycheck. Being able to handle the demands and duties of full time employment is said to directly cross over to being able to handle the demands and duties of a marriage. This may hold truer to males within American society, who have traditionally and historically been regarded as the “breadwinner” in a relationship. As stated by Oppenheimer (2003), “career immaturity may affect marriage formation, not only because it raises questions about whether a young man is currently able and/or willing to make a serious commitment to adult responsibilities, but also because it creates uncertainties about his future capabilities in this respect. Others say that more opportunities for women in both the workforce and academia have opened up the playing field for economic independence and lessened the need for marriage at a young age. Commonly labeled as the “Economic Independence Hypothesis”, this argument assumes that women with favorable prospects in the labor market will be less likely to marry than will women with relatively poorer prospects (Sweeney 2002; Oppenheimer 2003). This hypothesis states that women who would be more family-oriented in previous generations now have the opportunity to instead focus their energies towards the development of a career and their professional persona. As a result, this would deter women from pursuing marriage immediately and instead opt for cohabitation until they’ve fully developed their careers to the point where marriage is more ideal. However, the issue with this argument is that it makes the assumption that all or a majority of women will or would want to marry at some point in their lives.

**Relationship Strength/Trust.** Considered the most important requirement, relationship strength, or the trust that is established and shared within a committed relationship, is the result of a couple’s combined education and employment status. This requirement is essential to ensuring a relationship will be safe from the threat of divorce or separation should there be any disputes. According to Gibson-Davis, Edin, & McLanahan, (2005, p. 1310), “The quality of a relationship and the fear of divorce go hand-in-hand, as couples want guarantees that this is the right relationship, one that will not be sullied by divorce.” The fear of creating a solid relationship only to have it end in divorce is one matter, but the actual loss of someone who was so cared for to the extent of joining into a monogamous union with them causes trust issues. “Just as the experience of divorce in the absence of new attachments is associated with lower levels of trust, having experienced the breakup of a cohabitation also negatively impacts trusting future intimates” (King, 2002, p.644).

**African American Relationships.** Particularly within the Black family, both relationship statuses have been utilized within the American way of life, stemming from the politics of US Slavery. “No other people have been taught to
systematically hate themselves (psychic violence) which has been reinforced through powers of state and civic coercion (physical violence) for the primary purposes of controlling their minds and exploiting their labor for nearly four hundred years” (West, 1993, p.3). Slave Marriages were viewed so far from the contexts of a legal marriage that many ignored them or just didn’t acknowledge them as such (Chakkalakal, 2011, p.5-6). This allowed for the Slave Masters or Plantation Owners to more easily access either individual in this relationship for either a mistress or breeder for future slaves. Given this, African Americans were really only allowed to engage in a Cohabitation, or a relationship in which the establishment and/or dissolution of such a union could easily be accomplished. Concerning the income, education, and formation of the family structure, official and unofficial laws were put in place in order to prevent African American from trying to establish themselves and their families independently from their white counterparts. Driven by economics and politics, US Slavery was very systematic in how whites extracted as much labor from blacks through the use of threat or force (Jones, 1985). Prohibiting blacks from owning property, being able to read or write, or from having their marriages recognized as a legal union would cause a ripple effect that would leave the Black family, individually and as a collective, disenfranchised and in a constant state of trying to stabilize themselves as a unit, for decades to come. Moving into the later part of the twentieth century, blacks started to see and actively engage in economic and social change, via the Civil Rights and Black Power Movements of the 1960’s and 1970’s, which allowed them the opportunity to establish themselves as equals in American Society. However, after centuries of overt and structural racism and oppression, black families have only been able to engage in the American marketplace as equal consumers for roughly 50 years, tracing back to the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, and national origin in programs and activities receiving federal financial assistance. A case could be made that it would take the same amount of time for blacks to be able to build up enough economic and educational development, as well as true financial independence, before they could ever be considered truly “equal” with their white counterparts within the United States.

Financial Disadvantage. The definition of financial advantage is the economic comprehension of an individual through their understanding of money and finances that is made up of compartmentalized and incomplete pieces of information that become integrated over time (Jahoda & France, 1979; Leiser, 1983). So the definition of the opposite of this term, financial disadvantage, would be the miscomprehension or an incorrect understanding of how money and finance works that continuously builds up over time. Further research done on financial advantage and disadvantage shows that not only is this type of knowledge base developed when an individual is a child, but that whether or not children have opportunities to save is dependent upon their parents’ financial resources (Friedline, 2012, p.144). A direct and future consequence of this disadvantage is education, or actively trying to enlighten one’s self. The opportunity for an individual to attain higher education via a college or university would strengthen their chances to attain stable employment and financial stability with a college degree. To combat this idea of financial advantage and disadvantage, the ASPIRE (America Saving for Personal Investment, Retirement, and Education) Act was introduced in 2004 by the US Congress to encourage financial literacy initiatives for children. As it was proposed, this act would provide US children with a tax-free account in their own name that would eventually be transferred into their sole property at age 18 and used for the purposes of education, buying a home, and retirement (Cramer, 2004, 2009). While this bill was met with many alterations and adjustments in the years following, a major limitation to this bill is that it does not allow for a child to establish a basic savings account, a key feature that is crucial for individuals from low to moderate income (LMI) households, who may require access to such an account to acquire funds for short term expenses like school books, uniforms, as well as SAT/ACT fees (Friedline, 2012, p.152).

There are several important conclusions to be drawn from this literature. Past research has shed light on how cohabitation not only differ from marriage but also serve as a practice test. “Given that cohabitators are at least income sharing to the extent that they are taking part in, if not seriously considering, joint bank accounts” (Avellar & Smock, 2005, p.315), one would begin to speculate who has more control over certain matters, like money, and how this role is determined. Examining the dynamics of a cohabitative relationship allows the opportunity for further analysis of how financial roles are assigned and carried out through power strategies, or who garners the most control of a relationship. Concerning race, many different studies have looked to see how white and black families fair economically. The conclusion has been made that blacks experience more difficulties than whites. However, there is a gap in knowledge about how these two worlds interact in regards to financial disadvantages, particularly as functioning family units and the historical background that has given one race a substantial advantage over the other for centuries.
Methodology

This proposal will utilize the 2010 Survey of Consumer Finance (SCF) dataset. Collected by the Federal Reserve, this secondary dataset was conducted via computer-assisted personal interviewing. Interviewers then weighted and computed the datasets for each observation to adjust for systematic differences in interviewee response rates by demographic groups, financial characteristics, and gender/sex groups as well as to adjust the sample design of the project. The total interview sample size used in the analysis was 6,492. Most of the data in the survey are intended to represent the financial characteristics of a subset of the household unit referred to as the "primary economic unit" (PEU) (Kennickell, 2012). “In brief, the PEU consists of an economically dominant single individual or couple (married or living as partners) in a household and all other individuals in the household who are financially interdependent with that individual or couple. Summary information is collected at the end of the interview for all household members who are not included in the PEU. Because only limited information is collected on the ownership of assets and liabilities within the PEU, it is not possible, in general, to make direct separate estimates of the financial characteristics of the individuals in the survey households unless one is prepared to make a number of fairly complex assumptions.” Employing questions posed to those who were interviewed in the survey, the proposal will look to measure if any of the race/marital status mixture experiences either a higher or lower amount of financial advantage based on their responses formatted into the aforementioned dataset.

Dependent variable

The dependent variable in this proposal is financial disadvantage. The SCF question of financial disadvantage will be answered by looking at the primary variable of personal savings, while also utilizing financial institution interest rates on loans and household income variables. Together, these variables reflect a household's vulnerability to financial disadvantage. The following questions (and accompanying codes) pulled from the 2010 Survey of Consumer Finances Codebook will serve to create a Financial Vulnerability Variable:

1) Do you (or anyone in your family living here) have any savings or money market accounts? (X3727)

2) How many such accounts do you (and your family living here) have? (X3728)

3) Do you (or anyone in your family living here) owe any money or have any other loans for any reason? (X7182)

4) How many such loans do you have? (X2709)

5) What is the current annual rate of interest being charged on this loan? (X1045)

6) Is this loan being paid off ahead of schedule, behind schedule, or are the payments about on schedule? (X7566)

7) Over the past five years, did your total (family) income go up more than inflation, less than inflation, or about the same as inflation? (X304)

8) Over the next year, do you expect your total (family) income to go up more than inflation, less than inflation, or about the same as inflation? (X7364)

9) At this time, do you have a good idea of what your (family's) income for next year will be? (X7586)

10) Do you usually have a good idea of what your (family's) next year's income will be? (X7366)

Independent variable

The two categories of independent variables and their subsequent codes, race (X6809) and marital status (X7019), will be used to control for other possible influences on financial disadvantage. All independent variables are categorical. For the SCF public dataset, the race and ethnicity variable includes four main categories: White, Black, Hispanic/Latino, and Other races. In particular, the SCF dataset of “Other Race and Ethnicity” category is very diverse, combining those Asian, American Indian, Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islanders households. Considering the diversity of groups being categorized as “other” by the SCF, it is impossible to determine the cultural backgrounds of such households (Yao, Gutter, & Hanna, 2005). For the purpose of this
proposals, this variable will be used on African Americans and White populations. Additionally, the SCF consists of various household/marital types: married couple households, cohabiting households and single head households. The structure of these households differs as well, shedding light on same-sex partnerships and mixed-race households, as well as married and unmarried male and female headed households. In order to focus on the existence of financial disadvantages of black and white households, only married and unmarried opposite sex partner households were selected. A household is categorized as an opposite-sex married couple household only if the respondent specifies that a spouse of the opposite sex resides in the household or for a cohabitative household the respondent specifies that a partner of the opposite sex resides in the household.

Data Analysis

For this proposal a cross tabulation of 3 separate 2 sample T-Tests comparing black and white married and/or cohabitating couples measuring personal savings, loans, and household income, will be used. One tailed t-tests will be used to investigate whether or not differences between married and/or cohabitating black and white couples is significant. A p-value of .05 or lower will be considered as significant for any of the groups mentioned in the 3 hypothesis.

Syntax

Listed below is the SAS code for the Survey of Consumer Finance data on black and white couples and their financial disadvantage. Note that this is a T-Test code that is measuring the variables of “race” and “status” (relationship). The alpha for all tests is .05 to provide sufficient significance. To evaluate the first hypothesis, a two-sample t-test is conducted after checking all assumptions. As expected based upon previous research, there should be a significant difference in financial disadvantage between black and white married couples.

To evaluate the second hypothesis, a two-sample t-test is conducted after checking all assumptions. As expected based upon previous research there should be a significant difference in financial disadvantage between black and white cohabitative couples. Below is the SAS code that would generate output logging the significant between the groups.

Discussion

The purpose of this proposal is to examine if the presence of financial disadvantage exists amongst Black and White couples, as well as Married and Cohabitative relationships. Additionally, another aim made by this proposal is to determine if a financial disadvantage is being experienced more within black relationships, regardless of relationship status, based on historical data and contexts. Measuring these hypotheses through the use of 2 Sample T-Tests as well as the creation of a financial disadvantage variable constructed from data and interview survey questions supplied by the 2010 Survey of Consumer Finance, this proposal will be able to make side by side comparisons to detect if a significant financial disadvantage exists, in addition to also identifying if a financial advantage is also present.

Limitations. There were some drawbacks to conducting this proposal. One of the major limitations of this particular study is that it only focuses on financial disadvantage/advantages between white and black populations, and completely leaves out the presence of other races within the United States. The Survey of Consumer Finance has applicable data on all, or the very least, a majority of all race and/or ethnic backgrounds in the US. However, for the intended focus of this study, coupled with relative ease in locating and drawing upon past research and experiments for the construction of a more concrete argument, the two aforementioned racial groups were selected.

Another limitation of this proposal is that it primarily focuses on heterosexual couples and relationships, as well as only focusing on those individuals between the ages of 25-34. The Survey of Consumer Finance contains relevant data that measures both hetero and homosexual households and relationships, and lists a complete age breakdown of its respondents. However, past and present research still defines same-sex relationships as a perpetual cohabiting relationship. Though breakthroughs with same-sex rights, including marriage, have occurred in various regions of the United States and at the federal level, some government agencies at the state level continue to not recognize marriage or equal rights for gay and lesbian couples. The focus of age is kept on young Americans between the ages of 25-34 as this generation is actively engaging the lifestyle of cohabitation at a higher rate than previous
generations, and getting married later. Concerning historical references, an argument could be made that even within the classification of “White”, there are some racial and/or ethnic groups that may not directly identify as such, but are subsequently lumped into this category (Jewish, German, etc.) that could also face financial disadvantage; additionally the same case could be made about other races being summed up as “Black or African American”. One final argument pertaining to the limitation of this proposal stems from the creation of the financial disadvantage variable via the Survey of Consumer Finance. In particular, of the major themes used to construct this variable, financial institution interest rates on loans, could be considered too vague to accurately measure financial disadvantage; moreover, it could also be escalated to the point of not being an accurate measure at all, as those who are truly financially disadvantaged would not necessarily have access to a financial institution for the establishment of a bank account, much less any type of loan.

Implications. Overall, the results of this study will serve as a starting point for understanding how financial disadvantage plays a very powerful role in the everyday life of many American citizens. At the legislative level, policies could be enacted and coupled with current bills and provisions aimed at spreading financial literacy and independence by placing more vehicles of financial freedom in downtrodden and underrepresented areas within the US. In a report produced by the Office of the Inspector General of the United States Postal Service and addressed further by Senator and co-designer of the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau Elizabeth Warren (D-Massachusetts), both expressed utilizing Post Offices as an extension of financial service providers outside of mainstream institutions, like Banks and Credit Unions. A primary reason behind using post offices as a medium for financial services is that there are likely to be more of them available to those who are financially disadvantaged; mainstream financial institutions are more scarce in these areas where financially disadvantaged individuals live. As stated in the Post Office’s report, “The Postal Service is an ideal fit for offering non-bank financial services, based on four basic guiding principles for potential new products: market need, capabilities, public purpose, and financial prosperity; in particular, banks are closing branches across the country. Although the number of closings is only a fraction of the total number of branches, the closings are not spread evenly, heavily hitting low-income communities, including rural and inner-city areas. As a result, this leaves some communities stranded without physical access to quality financial services, and the problem could get much worse (Office of Inspector General, 2014). Combining the results of this proposal’s hypothesis of financial disadvantage with the very idea of enabling post offices across the nation to serve a dual role as both a post office and as a non-banked financial services provider, this would not only help to alleviate many of the damaging effects of financial disadvantage, but would also yield additional benefits that a mainstream financial institution would normally, like the encouragement of creating and maintaining a Savings and/or Checking Account and instilling a sense of Financial Responsibility in youth of those who are financially disadvantaged, and underserved, which would also help to close the gap of financial inequality that is currently being felt in the nation.

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AFCPE Mary O’Neill Financial Education 2013 Mini-Grant Project Report

Results of Financial Education Boot Camp: Building Teachers’ Capacity to Teach Personal Finance, Pilot Program for Alabama Teachers

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Key Words: IDAs, wealth-building, financial education

A new graduation requirement for Alabama public schools includes a one-half credit personal finance course for high school graduates, beginning with the 2013 freshman class. Both anecdotal evidence and a study by Way and Holden (2009) indicated that many teachers are not prepared for, nor confident about, teaching personal finance. Their study found evidence of limited preparedness in both subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical methods. They concluded, “One of the main implications of this study is that there is a great need to expand personal finance educational opportunities for pre-service and in-service teachers in order to meet both their personal and professional needs.” (Way and Holden, p. 76).

Dr. Ruth Brock, Alabama Cooperative Extension System, AFCPE® Mary O’Neill Financial Education Mini-Grant 2013 winner, collaborates with local schools, school boards, and local financial institutions to improve the capacity of teachers to deliver personal finance education. Dr. Brock presents on subject matter content topics including investing, credit, and building wealth, using portions of Dr. Barbara O’Neill’s presentations available on this link [http://njaes.rutgers.edu/money/bootcamp/]. County Extension Coordinator, Lelia Wissert, presents teachers free available curriculum, including the National Endowment for Financial Education’s High School Financial Planning program. Representatives from United Way of Central Alabama (UWCA) present on saving for college or a small business through the IDA program. Using a train-the-trainer model, these teachers now have the knowledge, skills, and resources, to share and replicate materials with others.

The educators in this project have trusted relationships with schools, school systems, teachers, administrators, and others. Requests for educational programs come from across the State of Alabama. The training is promoted using a variety of media including school and organization websites, social media sites, registration information flyers in schools, boards of education, as well word-of-mouth.

Pre and posts tests indicate an increase financial knowledge in all areas of financial education. Follow-up evaluation results show the desired outcome, which is sharing the materials with other educators. Ten Financial Education Boot Camp sessions have been held for teachers who are teaching personal finance, with more scheduled.

Symposium presentation will include detailed description of the methods used in the training and the results of the pre and posts tests, as well as the follow-up assessment.

References

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