

Profitwise

News and Views

Published by the Consumer and Community Affairs Division

December 2008

A Focus Group Study of Latin American Immigrants' Financial Behaviors



Also In This Issue

Food Prices and the Inflation Experiences of Low-income Households *page 8*

Profitwise

News and Views

Profitwise News and Views welcomes article proposals and comments from bankers, community organizations, and other readers. It is mailed (either electronically or via U.S. mail) at no charge to state member banks, financial holding companies, bank holding companies, government agencies, nonprofit organizations, academics, and community economic development professionals.

You may submit comments, proposals, or request a subscription by writing to:

Profitwise News and Views
Consumer and Community Affairs Division
Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago
230 South LaSalle Street
Chicago, IL 60604-1413
or CCA-PUBS@chi.frb.org

The material in *Profitwise News and Views* is not necessarily endorsed by and does not necessarily represent views of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System or the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago.

© 2008 Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago
Profitwise News and Views articles may be reproduced in whole or in part, provided the articles are not reproduced or distributed for commercial gain and provided the source is appropriately credited. Prior written permission must be obtained for any other reproduction, distribution, republication, or creation of derivative works of *Profitwise News and Views* articles. To request permission, please e-mail or write to the address indicated above.

Advisor

Alicia Williams

Managing Editor

Michael V. Berry

Assistant Editor/Production Manager

Mary Jo Cannistra

Contributing Editor

Jeremiah Boyle

Compliance Editor

Steven W. Kuehl

Economic Research Editor

Robin Newberger

Economic Development Editor

Harry Pestine

Designer

Katherine Ricca

A Focus Group Study of Latin American Immigrants' Financial Behaviors

by Katy Jacob and Carrie Jankowski

Introduction

The subject of U.S. immigration – particularly more recent immigration trends – has generated many contentious debates around crime, impacts of worker skill levels on economic growth patterns, and on relative wage rates, among other areas. Further, analysis and focused studies of immigrant populations reveal varied and disjointed economic behaviors. A behavioral dimension that receives increasing attention by academics – and banking institutions – is immigrant participation in mainstream (retail) financial service markets. Immigrants tend to be less “banked” (i.e., use alternative and more costly financial service providers, such as check cashers and payday lenders) than the native population across income levels, though transaction account use correlates positively with higher income. The 2000 Survey of Income Program Participation reveals that 53 percent of Mexican immigrants and 37 percent of other Latin American immigrants remain unbanked, compared to about 9 percent of the total U.S. population.¹ Survey information reveals that the reasons for limited participation in financial markets vary and include language barriers, identification requirements, high bank fees, and minimum balance requirements, as well as income level.² Researchers often examine the impacts of (use of) mainstream financial services on the

overall assimilation and financial well-being of immigrant populations versus native born. Due to the negative impacts of limited participation – high transaction costs, low savings rates, and limited prospects for home or business ownership – as well as the potential to expand customer and deposit bases, the banking industry has been developing strategies to attract immigrants into mainstream financial services for many years.

Throughout most of the United States, immigrants originating from Latin America account for a higher percentage of total immigrants than from all other regions. In 2006, immigrants from Latin America accounted for 20 of the 38 million U.S. immigrants. Moreover, influxes of Latin American immigrants have driven overall in population increases in many metropolitan areas. Chicago is one of the large cities most affected by this trend. More than 140,000 immigrants moved to the city from 2000 to 2006, with almost 460,000 relocating there prior to 2000. The Chicago area is currently home to over 348,000 Latin American immigrants.³

Concurrent with these general immigration patterns is a shift in how financial services are utilized by the population as a whole. Indeed, the United States continues to transition from paper-based to electronic payments. For most households in the U.S. today,

currency (cash) still represents a transactions vehicle, but one that is increasingly being supplanted by a variety of substitutes, such as debit cards. However some populations including immigrants are less likely to use the services of banking institutions, and must rely more heavily on cash.

To understand these trends – and particularly use of cash among immigrants – at a finer level, in 2006 a group of researchers at the Chicago Fed began a long-term project to examine the impact of recent immigration patterns on domestic currency demand. Focusing on Latin American immigrants in the Chicago area, the study offers initial evidence that the dramatic increase in the number of immigrants is indeed boosting the demand for currency, particularly for \$100 bills.⁴ The study suggests that this trend has likely contributed to the increase in domestic demand for currency since the late 1990s—an increase that is at odds with the generally accepted view that cash use is declining.

This study was based on currency shipment data to community banks aggregated by five-digit zip codes. We can infer immigrant behavior through our regression findings, but the results are not directly informative about micro level, individual immigrant behavior. To shed further light on our broad findings, in 2008 we conducted a series of focus

groups of Latin American immigrants, hoping to discover the underlying reasons for the observed increase in demand for cash in areas with high concentrations of Latinos.

Focus group design

In recent years, financial institutions in metropolitan Chicago have conducted extensive outreach and directed marketing campaigns to Latino immigrants. Beginning in 2003, a partnership between the Mexican Consulate in Chicago and the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation led to the creation of the New Alliance Task Force on immigrant banking. This highly publicized effort included dozens of financial institutions in Illinois and Wisconsin, along with community organizations and regulators. The purpose of this task force was to bring affordable financial services to immigrant populations, with a heavy emphasis on Latin American groups. Banks that participated in the task force created new checking account programs, remittance products, and alternative identification requirements. As a result, it became quite common for banks in the Chicago area to accept Matricula Consular cards and Individual Taxpayer Identification Numbers (ITINs) as identification to open bank accounts. These nontraditional identification methods were used in lieu of traditional materials, such as social security numbers.⁵

Given the local efforts of financial institutions described above, in our focus groups we sought to determine if there was still a discrepancy in immigrants' access to mainstream financial institutions based on immigration status, whether perceived or real. Documented immigrants were still expected to make more use of mainstream financial institutions, and to rely less on alternative financial products and companies, to use debit and credit cards more extensively and, therefore, function with less cash. In contrast, undocumented immigrants were expected to operate more heavily in the

cash economy, to be more likely paid in cash, and to spend and save in cash.

Another hypothesis was that within the city of Chicago, immigrants may have more and more formal financial industry resources available to them. A greater presence and array of financial institutions may affect financial behavior, just as fewer choices and branches in suburban and exurban areas may have an impact.

To evaluate these assumptions, we conducted four focus groups – two in the city of Chicago and two outside of the city (one in Rolling Meadows, a northwest suburb, and the other in the city of Aurora). Two groups – one in the city and one outside – consisted of documented residents or U.S. citizens; the other two consisted of undocumented immigrants. The focus group meetings were held between January and May 2008. All meetings were 90-minute sessions conducted entirely in

immigrant population, we sought greater representation from this cohort, but made sure to include individuals from other Latin American countries in each group. Also, a range of ages and genders was represented. The focus group respondents were fairly evenly split gender-wise; 21 women and 17 men took part. Participants' (ranges in) age, education, years in the U.S., and household income appear in Table 1.

The educational attainment of the focus group participants was higher than the national level; 68 percent of the respondents reported achieving a high school diploma or higher, while the Census estimated only 49.1 percent of Latin American immigrants at this level in 2003.⁶

With respect to household composition, most (about three-fifths) live in households with one or two adult persons; over three-quarters of the households that participated have children living with them. At the time of screening,

...we sought to determine if there was still a discrepancy in immigrants' access to mainstream financial institutions based on immigration status, whether perceived or real.

Spanish. Participants were individuals who responded to newspaper advertisements or were recruited with the assistance of community organizations. All potential participants completed a screener form so their eligibility could be assessed. A total of 38 individuals participated in the four focus groups: nine undocumented immigrants in Rolling Meadows, nine documented immigrants in Chicago, 11 undocumented immigrants in Chicago, and nine documented immigrants in Aurora.

Participant demographics

Given the concentration of Mexicans within the local Latin American

18 reported working full-time, six part-time, and 14 were not working. All but six participants had access to automobiles owned by household members.

Findings

In order to better understand the demand for and use of cash by this population segment, the groups were questioned about their financial decisions. The focus groups revealed much information about perceptions related to financial transactions and payments services. Questions and observations were parsed into five categories focused on financial stability, money management,

Table 1: Participants' Demographics

Age	Number	Education*	Number	Years in the U.S.	Number	Household Income	Number	Ratio
18-25	9	Less than H.S.	12	1-5 years	7	Under \$20K	13	34%
26-40	18	H.S. diploma/ GED	16	6-10 years	10	\$20K - 40K	15	39%
41-55	9	Some College	7	11-15 years	3	\$40 - 60K	4	11%
56-64	2	College graduate	2	16-20 years	2	\$60K - 80K	4	11%
		Missing	1	20+ years	16	\$80K +	2	5%

*Some participants did not volunteer this information.

financial institutions, financial transactions, and savings. The following paragraphs summarize the findings.

Financial stability

To get a sense of the economic realities facing our respondents, they were asked how financially stable they felt, including the impact of employment trends and recent economic shocks. Across all focus groups, respondents reported negative effects from the current economic downturn. Most participants felt the pain of what they referred to as a “recession,” either through fewer work opportunities or work hours, or smaller, less frequent, or no wage increases. Many also have been greatly impacted by the increase in gas prices and felt that this was among their top financial concerns.

In the undocumented groups, where respondents tended to be younger, there was a more intense feeling of financial instability. The most common occupations in these groups were construction and restaurant work, and several respondents were unemployed or had experienced recent bouts of unemployment. Many were worried about losing their jobs or having hours severely reduced due to the downturn in the real estate market (for construction workers) or in the service industry (for restaurant workers). The suburban undocumented group expressed the most concern over possible deportation and job loss. This group tended to have the shortest tenure

in the country and the lowest skilled jobs of all the groups. These respondents were more likely to try to keep cash at home, even in small amounts, as a safety net in case of an emergency.

“I think that sometimes, because one is illegal, you can be caught, and deported... I saw on TV that one can claim their money, but you never know.”

“Something else about having cash is that if you have an emergency in the middle of the night, you can go to an ATM, but you will not be able to withdraw enough.”

Money management

To fully understand why Latino immigrants use cash more than others, one must have a sense of financial aptitude and money management preferences, and learn how individuals discover and make choices about their financial options. The undocumented immigrants in the suburban group – the group more isolated from information sources – tends to rely on friends and family for financial advice. On the other hand, documented immigrants reported relatively more sources of financial information, such as employers, the newspaper, TV, direct mail, and the Internet. These respondents felt that, while employers give some information on direct deposit, 401(k)s, and credit unions, they still desire more information from unbiased sources. There were a few individuals across the focus groups who preferred not to talk about money

with family and friends, citing a desire for privacy, and/or concern that others might take advantage of that knowledge.

“...Given my situation...my family is in the business of lending money, so they have guided me; they have recommended me to people that I can trust.”

“I do not like to talk about my finances... It's very personal.”

It is a common presumption that undocumented immigrants are paid primarily in cash. When discussing sources of financial information, including employers, many respondents also provided information about how they are paid. The majority of respondents in all groups are paid by check; direct deposit was somewhat more common among the documented individuals (that had accounts). When respondents did report cash payments, it was often for secondary or side jobs; tips, among those working in restaurants, were also noted as a source of cash payments. Side jobs included construction work, car repair, and (door-to-door) cosmetic sales, among others. Many individuals who were paid via check cashed their checks immediately, while others put a portion of funds directly into savings accounts or other savings vehicles.

Frequently, respondents shared perceptions of money management habits of Latinos that differed from their own. Several respondents across the focus groups believed that Latinos

Table 2: Payment Type for Employment*

Group	Direct Deposit Only	Cash Only	Check Only	Cash and Check	Check and Direct Deposit
1 – Rolling Meadows (undocumented)	0	5	4	0	0
2 – Chicago—south (documented)	2	0	5	2	0
3 – Chicago—north (undocumented)	0	0	6	3	0
4 – Aurora (documented)	2	1	3	1	2

*Some participants did not volunteer this information.

manage their money less responsibly than other population groups. However, many of the respondents reported saving or remitting significant portions of their incomes.

“I think that Latinos, well, we spend money on things that are not necessary.”

“I think that we Latinos are a little bit show offs, because if you have a lot of money you want everyone to know that you do. If I buy a car I try to make it look the prettiest so that people can see that I have money.”

Some of both the documented and undocumented immigrants stated that they had issues with impulsiveness and self-control, and that a banking relationship helps prevent rash spending. (Some stated that keeping only small bills on hand helps achieve the same end.)

“I think that the bank is best to keep your money, because if you have it with you, you spend it.”

“With cash you have less control of your expenses. Instead, when you use your checkbook, you can keep track of how much you spend and where you spent it.”

“We are naïve, because if you go to the store with \$20, you buy just what you need; but if you bring a \$100, you spend it all instantly.”

Financial institutions

Because of the ease with which undocumented immigrants in Illinois can now open bank accounts (using a Mexican Matricula, a passport from

another country, or an ITIN), bank relationships are not exclusive to documented immigrants. In the focus group study, all participants expressed confidence in the U.S. banking system, regardless of immigration status. There was also broad awareness that deported immigrants can still access their bank accounts from abroad. The majority of

Almost all, including the unbanked and undocumented, felt that it was easy to get a bank account in the Chicago area, despite lower participation by the undocumented in the sample, and the perception across the groups that financial institutions in both the city and suburbs have trained staff members to be helpful to first-time customers.

Table 3: Access to Financial Institutions

Group	Banked*	Unbanked
Rolling Meadows	6	3
Chicago South	8	0
Chicago North	6	5
Aurora	8	1

*Banked = either current savings or checking account

respondents have bank accounts, though the undocumented were less likely to, and some respondents have only savings accounts.

The findings from the focus groups support the notion that documented groups continue to make greater use of mainstream financial services than undocumented across both the city and suburban groups. The group from Rolling Meadows felt that relatively few area banks accept the Matricula to open an account, supporting the second hypothesis that both the quantity and policies of city-based financial institutions foster broader account ownership among Latino immigrants.

How hard was it to open an account?

“It’s easy, even with a voter card from Mexico.”

“I have a cousin and I told him, ‘open a bank account.’ And he said ‘no, because if they catch me, then I am going to leave.’ No, I tell him, nothing happens. And he went and got his Matricula and at all the banks with the Matricula you can open an account.”

“Now banks are more flexible, which they weren’t before.”

Some studies have shown that immigrants and lower-income households are more likely to use currency

exchanges or check cashing outlets for many financial services, even if they are banked. Conversely, a 2004 study reveals that many unbanked consumers occasionally transact at banks or credit unions for various reasons.⁷ The use of currency exchanges is, not surprisingly, more frequent among those without bank accounts. In this study, the undocumented suburban group used currency exchanges because they are more conveniently located and open late, compared with banks. This group also has less income than the city-based undocumented group, and has little savings. They reported keeping hardly any cash at home, although a third of the group is unbanked.

Some analysts have argued that fees charged at currency exchanges are not only excessive, but confusing, stating that consumers are not aware of the true costs of services performed at check cashers. Despite the perceptions of the habits of this population, most of the Latin American immigrants in our study (other than the undocumented suburban group) do not use currency exchanges extensively.

"We are fine like this. It is better to go to the bank rather than the currency exchange, because it is nicer and it costs less to cash the check."

Furthermore, they were all quite aware of the higher prices of these services relative to financial institutions. Most people admitted to using these establishments occasionally for things like purchasing city stickers and paying bills that are due immediately. Those who did use check cashers mentioned convenience as the primary motivating factor.

"Sometimes if you have an emergency, you can cash your check at the currency exchange. At the bank you deposit it, but you cannot withdraw your money right away."

"A few (currency exchanges) are open 24 hours a day, and that is the advantage."

"Because of lack of English, one prefers the currency exchanges; they speak Spanish there."

Despite the convenience of currency exchanges, most participants, including the undocumented and unbanked, expressed a great deal of trust in U.S. banks and believed that banks were a better option than currency exchanges. Many had negative experiences with financial institutions in Mexico, but those experiences did not lead to a distrust of the U.S. financial system.

"It is safer to have a bank account here. We had a problem in Mexico with my husband...well, we had a business and he had to have a checking account. And we had a bank account at a bank that closed down overnight because of bankruptcy, and we did not get our money back."

"That is the bad thing over there, because here we can get our money back, but not in Mexico."

Financial transactions

Access to bank accounts and participation in financial services should have a large influence on the type of payment instrument used for transactions. The respondents in these groups verified this idea to an extent. The majority of the respondents who held checking accounts reported using debit cards on a regular basis for everyday purchases. Cash was used infrequently for transactional purposes by those with checking accounts. When cash was used for purchases, several respondents expressed a preference for smaller bills. Contradicting their own behavior, however, these respondents generally felt that Latinos were culturally inclined to be heavy cash users.

"No, but this is their... it is their idiosyncrasy, of the Americans. They are very different from the Hispanic and Latino. There is no American, it is very rare, that carries \$50 in their wallet. It is their idiosyncrasy. They carry \$10 maximum in their wallet. And the cards,

that is why they call it here 'the plastic currency' for the cards."

"Because it is from the culture. Because of tradition, the way in which mentality is raised, let's say. Almost, as many people said, many people do not believe in that, in the bank, on the cards, all of that. Rather, they prefer more money in cash."

"I think also it's a matter of habit... I think that we have different customs in each country, but you need to see how you save and how you handle your finances. Regarding specifically the use of and handling money, I think that we are different than Americans."

"Since I arrived here, I've noticed that they hardly use cash, they almost don't use any cash, they use the minimum they can; the whole time, they use the cards. We come with the habit of using cash and it is only now that we are learning the habit of using the card or keeping the money in the bank."

Most participants expressed an aversion to debt, although the more acculturated (Chicago documented group) had relatively high amounts of credit card debt. Participants were very aware of the high cost of credit and felt that terms and conditions on credit card contracts were confusing. Respondents often preferred to use debit cards to avoid spending money that they did not yet have. Some that did use credit cards extensively were quick to point out that they made sure not to revolve balances.

"I think it is like... it depends on the person. So, I cannot use it, I don't think so; I have never applied, and I am not interested in applying for a credit card, because I know I will go bankrupt."

"That is why I use the debit card, because I know the money that I can spend is already there."

"So, I took this goal... I do not spend more money than I can enter to my account. Why? Avoid paying interest to the bank. If I spend \$2,000 this month, at the end of the month I know that I will

not be able to respond with \$2,000. It means I am spending money from the bank, but without paying interest."

Respondents often expressed fear of being robbed as a deterrent to using cash for both transactional and savings purposes. The fear was not necessarily that having cash would lead to being robbed, but rather that one would have much more to lose if robbed of cash rather than "plastic currency." This feeling was much more prevalent in the city groups. Fear of loss went beyond being mugged by strangers, to include family members and the police. Family members sometimes stole large sums of money that respondents were saving for special circumstances; sometimes family members fail to repay debts.

"Sometimes, let's say most Latinos, we carry our money with us so it will never be a problem with your credit card and all that, because if a Latino is mugged they take all your money, but if an American gets mugged they only take their cards and he can report the card stolen and that's all."

"We were robbed by my own brothers. We saved to start a business and we had gotten up to \$20,000."

Some participants claimed that police officers are suspicious of Latinos that carry large sums of cash, question where the money originated, and stated they knew of cases where police officers had confiscated cash from Latinos.

"Nobody has money in their house, but the police know that Latinos always have cash, that is why they rob them because they always have cash instead of using cards."

"In any case, if the police come to your house and they find more than \$1,000, you have to justify why you have that money."

"Now if the policeman stops you and you are carrying quite a bit of cash, say you are going to purchase something, right? That's one reason why people sometimes

don't take cash alone... you are a little scared, if you are an undocumented person you'll say there is discrimination and they see you with money even if you just cashed your paycheck and it is clean money, but a policeman stops you and they take it away."

Savings

A large portion of the focus group participants and their families were able to save large sums of money at various points in their lives (ranging from several hundred to almost \$50,000). Often, this money was saved in the form of cash at home. Respondents cited a variety of reasons for saving up these large cash stockpiles – the most prevalent being emergencies, travel, and large anticipated purchases. When storing large amounts of money, they often preferred large denomination bills for efficiency of space. Smaller sums of cash are saved on a more regular basis by participants who regularly remit money to relatives in their countries of origin. In general, it was much more common for participants to report using cash for savings than for common purchases.

"Well, when I have more than 500 (in cash savings) I start saving in 100s."

"If you want to save money, large bills are better."

"For me only when I am going to send money to Mexico, its only then and when I am going to deposit money in the bank, those are the only times when I handle large bills."

Questions for future research

With the limited nature of this study, a number of questions remain unanswered, and might be explored with a different design in which groups are not segmented by city versus noncity residence or by documented/undocumented status. In urban and suburban northern Illinois, access to banks for the undocumented does not seem to present serious difficulties, as

our participants confirmed, although discrepancies in bank usage remain. Comparing groups of relatively recent immigrants versus more established and acculturated participants might offer more and different insights. Screening might allow researchers to select groups of bilingual versus monolingual immigrants, or groups of participants that receive some cash income versus those who do not, for example.

The group findings can also be analyzed along a number of different dimensions. If use of the banking system is not limited to documented immigrants, then what makes some undocumented and documented behave more similarly between them in terms of use of cash (or lack thereof) compared with others in their own groups? Possible factors include acculturation levels, level of education, household composition, and income level. Nonetheless, in a qualitative study – and one with a small overall sample – it is not possible to establish with certainty any strong association or correlation.

Acculturation is a construct that is difficult to define and to measure. Possible proxies for acculturation are number of years since immigration combined with age at immigration, language proficiency and use, and intention to stay in this country. Both in the documented and undocumented groups, there were some participants who appear more detached from their country of origin than others of similar characteristics. They are the ones learning English, not sending money to their home country, and not thinking of returning there if they suddenly received a large sum of money. However, there is no uniformity of behavior regarding cash use in this group.

Prudent financial decision making seems to be associated with acculturation, particularly as language proficiency opens doors to better understanding of products and services. Comfort with financial decisions leads to more informed and demanding

consumers generally. Both documented groups may fall in this camp. While the suburban group was more vocal in terms of their expectations of banks, the Chicago group included several members who spoke about how they work the system, taking advantage of things like interest-free credit offers.

Research on the ethnic makeup of neighborhoods might also help us understand cash usage in Latin American immigrant communities. Perhaps Latino immigrants that are more isolated from other groups are less likely to be banked or even exposed to the myriad of available financial options. Those who live in diverse neighborhoods might acculturate faster, regardless of legal status. Moreover, in order to understand remittance patterns that might explain excess cash holding, we would be interested in knowing more about respondents' closest relative in their home countries. If some immigrants are here without family, they are more likely to remit, while others might be living in the U.S. with the majority of their relatives and have little reason to hold on to cash for the purpose of remittances.

Conclusion

The findings suggest that there are complex factors influencing the Federal Reserve's 2007 finding that \$100 bills are in greater demand in areas with high concentrations of Latin American immigrants. Participants in this focus group study exhibited a range of attitudes and behaviors towards cash, both in savings and financial transactions. While some patterns did emerge – such as the proclivity for the unbanked to be heavier cash users, the overall trust and knowledge of the banking system, and the feeling that plastic currency was safer than cash – diverse perspectives were more the rule than the exception. Because the sample size is too small to be truly representative, these findings provide a flavor of what is happening in Latin American neighborhoods rather than any definitive sense of currency trends.

It was discovered that many participants had stored cash recently and in the past. Because the previous study's initial findings reported an increase of three \$100 bills over an entire year in such areas, it is not necessary for many people to store large amounts of cash or store it for long periods of time to get this result. A perpetual stockpile of \$100 bills for emergencies might be enough to attribute to this result. Also, the study used 2005 cash demand data – a time when the economy was stronger than it is currently. More recent data might reveal that these neighborhoods still have high demand for cash relative to the rest of the population.

It is difficult to gauge with certainty the extent to which Latinos as a culture, really a set of cultures, are more cash oriented consumers than the native born without more extensive survey work or statistical analysis. The findings suggest that most Latin American immigrants, including many of the undocumented, have financial service opportunities similar to those of the general population. It is interesting to note that few, if any, focus group participants reported major barriers to access to financial services in their communities, even though some participants remain unbanked. However, there is still a significant use of cash among immigrants, which presents troubling risks related to crime and even general acculturation, and warrants further investigation.

Notes

- 1 Survey of Income Program Participation, 2000.
- 2 For more information on immigrants' financial attitudes and behaviors, see Paulson, Singer, Newberger, and Smith, 2006. *Financial Access for Immigrants: Lessons from Diverse Perspectives*. Chicago: Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago and The Brookings Institution.
- 3 Information in this paragraph from the *American Community Survey*, U.S. Census Bureau, 2006.
- 4 Jankowski, Porter, and Rice, 2007. "Against the tide—Currency use among Latin American immigrants in Chicago," *Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 31, No. 2, Second Quarter.

5 For more information on banks' general interest in reaching out to underbanked consumers, see Jacob, 2006. *Highlights from The Inaugural Underbanked Financial Services Forum*. Chicago: The Center for Financial Services Innovation. Also see The Center for Financial Services Innovation 2005. *From the Margins to the Mainstream: A Guide to Building Products and Strategies for Underbanked Markets*. Chicago: The Center for Financial Services Innovation.

6 The national statistics in this paragraph come from The Foreign-Born Population in the United States: 2003, U.S. Census Bureau, August 2004. One caveat in comparing these statistics to the focus group population is that the national figures are not broken out by documented status. Also, half of the immigrants in this study are undocumented, which is a much higher percentage than would be found in the Census.

7 In the Chicago area, check cashers are referred to as currency exchanges. For more information on dual usage of banks and currency exchanges and immigrant markets, see Seidman, Habbabou, and Kramer, 2005. *Getting to Know Underbanked Consumers: A Financial Services Analysis*. Chicago: The Center for Financial Services Innovation.

Biographies

Katy Jacob is a research specialist focusing on payments in the Financial Markets Group at the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago. Jacob's research focuses on payments trends and consumer choice, financial institution strategy, money service businesses and underbanked populations.

Carrie Jankowski is a business economist focusing on payments in the Financial Markets Group at the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago. Jankowski's current research interests include emerging payments technologies, electronic toll collection, mobile payments and immigrants' payment choices.

Food Prices and the Inflation Experiences of Low-income Households

by Leslie McGranahan

Introduction

Food prices have been rising rapidly over the past two years. In August 2008, aggregate food prices were 6.1 percent above their level in August 2007. Prices in August 2007 were already 4.8 percent above the level in August 2006. Because food purchases represent a larger portion of the expenditures of low-income households, these increases in price have a more substantial impact on the purchasing power of low-income households. This article describes the food inflation experiences of different population groups to demonstrate how different groups have been differentially affected by the recent run-up in food prices. In addition to spending more of their budget on food, lower-income households also concentrate more of their food expenditure on food consumed at home than higher-income households. Because the prices for food at home have been growing more rapidly than the prices of food away from home, this creates an additional gap in the impact of food inflation on lower- and higher-income households.

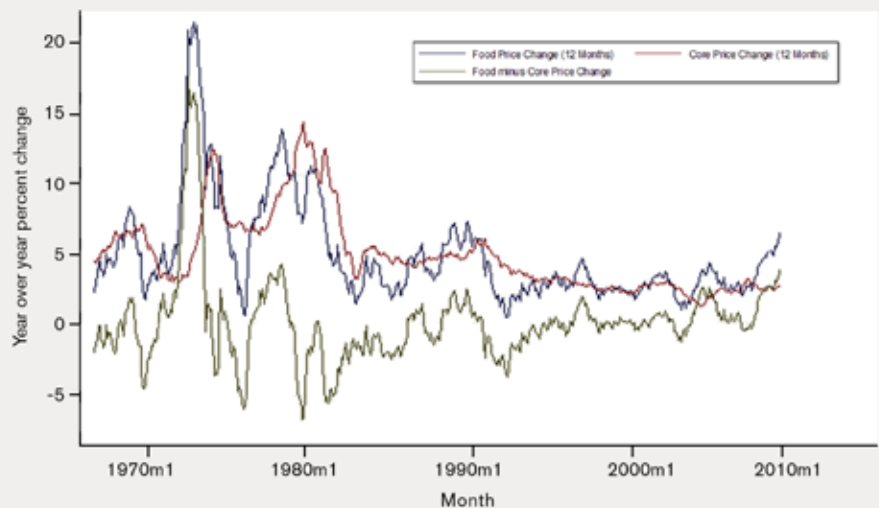
This investigation into the differential impacts of food inflation is part of a larger project that looks at household consumption patterns to assess the inflation experiences of different types of households. That project, the Chicago Fed IBEX® (Income-Based Economic Index), measures household

inflation as the weighted price increase in the goods purchased by that household, where the weights depend on the consumption patterns of the household as documented in the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics' *Consumer Expenditure Survey*.¹ The IBEX® reports inflation levels for 37 different types of households, covering the period from 1981 to 2007.²

The principal finding from that research is that over long-time horizons, the inflation experienced by most of these groups has been very similar. The one exception to this is the elderly. Households with individuals 65 or over have faced higher inflation due to their tendency to purchase medical care – a category where prices rose above the average for much of the covered period.

While the long-run inflation patterns across groups have been very similar, the short-run dynamics have differed due to periodic differences in price changes in particular items that are purchased by particular types of households. The current growth in food inflation is one example where those households that concentrate a greater percentage of their purchases on food have experienced higher inflation rates.

Figure 1: Food and Core Price Changes, January 1968 to August 2008



Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Price Index*.

Similarly, high energy inflation has had differential impacts on different types of households.³

Food inflation over time

Figure 1 places the August 2008 food inflation rate of 6.1 percent into historical context by graphing food inflation, core inflation (inflation excluding food and energy), and the difference between them from 1968 to 2008. The graph shows that food inflation today is high relative to the experience of the past decade, although food inflation is lower than was experienced in the mid and late 1970s. An annualized increase exceeding 6 percent last occurred in 1990. The difference between food inflation and core inflation is high relative to the past two decades, but low when compared to the 1970s. For example, annual food inflation was 6.1 percent in August 2008, while core inflation was 2.5 percent. This difference of 3.6 percent was the largest gap reported since early 1979, but substantially smaller than the nearly 17 percent difference in August 1973.

The recent increase in prices has not been uniform across all food categories. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) publishes price changes for over 100 food items and for 17 categories of food expenditure.⁴ Table 1 shows that, among these categories, the largest price increases have been in fats and oils, fresh vegetables, bakery products, cereal, and cereal products. While these prices stand out, price increases in every food category have been higher than core inflation. Across the food items that comprise these categories, the largest increase was in rice (up 40.0 percent from August 2007 to August 2008), while the smallest was in oranges, including tangerines (a decrease of 2.9 percent).

There has also been a difference in price increases, depending on where food is consumed. Prices for food at home are up 7.5 percent, while prices for food away from home are up 4.5

Table 1: Price Increases by Food Expenditure Category, August 2007 to August 2008

	Price Change
Food	6.1%
Food at Home	7.5%
Cereals And Cereal Products	11.9%
Bakery Products	11.5%
Beef And Veal	7.0%
Pork	3.4%
Other Meats	2.9%
Poultry	4.2%
Fish And Seafood	7.7%
Eggs	6.9%
Dairy And Related Products	6.4%
Fresh Fruits	10.5%
Fresh Vegetables	14.2%
Processed Fruits And Vegetables	10.5%
Nonalcoholic Beverages And Beverage Materials	3.4%
Sugar And Sweets	5.4%
Fats And Oils	16.5%
Other Foods	5.9%
Food Away from Home	4.5%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Price Index*.

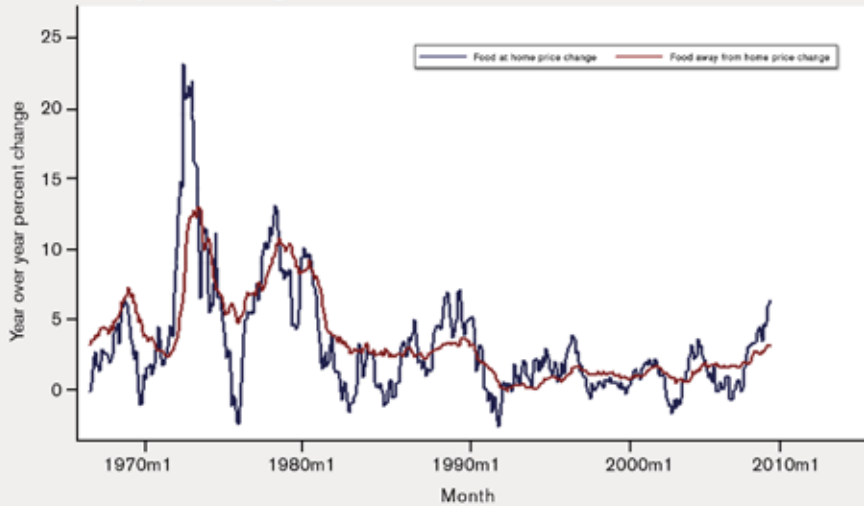
percent. Food at home comprises standard grocery store purchases, while food away from home primarily consists of food eaten at restaurants and fast food. Prices for food at home have historically been more volatile than prices for food away from home, and inflation for food at home has often been higher when food inflation is high. Figure 2 compares inflation for food at home and inflation for food away from home.

Why has food inflation been high?

Food prices have been going up for a number of different reasons. One culprit

has been the rise in the price of energy and its effects on food. The energy effect operates in two ways. First, oil price increases have led to increased demand for ethanol and other alternative energy sources. The increased demand for corn to produce ethanol has led to an increase in the price of corn, as well as to an increase in the price of other agricultural commodities because acreage planted with those commodities has been replaced with corn. Second, energy price increases impact food prices through crop production and food transportation, which are fairly energy intensive.

Figure 2: Inflation for Food at Home and Food Away from Home, January 1968 to August 2008



Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Price Index*.

Prices for food at home are up 7.5 percent, while prices for food away from home are up 4.5 percent. Food at home comprises standard grocery store purchases, while food away from home primarily consists of food eaten at restaurants and fast food. Prices for food at home have historically been more volatile than prices for food away from home, and inflation for food at home has often been higher when food inflation is high.

Another factor behind the run up in food prices is the decline in the value of the U.S. dollar. This has increased the cost of imports and increased foreign demand for U.S. agricultural output. Foreign demand for food products has also grown because of increasing economic growth and wealth.⁵ Individual food categories have also been subject to independent influences. For instance, fresh fruit price growth has partly been due to poor weather in countries producing bananas.

The lower growth in prices of food away from home likely results from the fact that the price of the food commodities represents a lower portion of the cost of food away from home. Labor and rental costs are important parts of restaurant food production. In addition, the prices of food away from home may be more difficult to adjust due to “menu costs” – the costliness of changing printed prices. Finally, restaurant patrons may be particularly price sensitive, as they can choose to eat cheaper meals at home.

Food consumption patterns

How households are affected by increases in food prices depends on

two factors. The first factor is the percentage of the household's expenditure dedicated to food. The second is the mix of food items the household consumes—i.e., what food the household purchases for its food market basket. Households that dedicate a higher percentage of their total consumption to food have faced higher inflation recently because food prices have been increasing more rapidly than the prices of other goods. In addition, for a given percentage of total expenditure on food, some households purchase more foods whose prices are growing especially quickly (relative to other foods).

Consumption data for 2006 (the most recent year of available data from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics' *Consumer Expenditure Survey*) was used to determine the market baskets for different types of households, and then the price change in these market baskets was calculated using Consumer Price Index data.

For this article, the consumption patterns and inflation experiences of 11 different groups, as well as the overall population, were investigated. The first four groups are based on quartiles of

family income after income is adjusted for family composition using the National Academy of Science's equivalence scale. The next four groups are defined by the work and poverty status of the household members – the working poor, the working non-poor, the non-working non-poor, and the non-working poor. Households are defined as poor if their income is below the federal poverty line. Households are defined as working if household members combined work 1,750 hours per year or more. This corresponds to the Census Bureau's definition of working full-time, full-year of 50 weeks per year and 35 hours per week. Results are also presented for elderly households, households headed by single mothers, and for households receiving food stamps.

Table 2, column 1 shows the proportion of household expenditure dedicated to food for these different household types. The calculations based on the income quartiles show that food expenditure percentages fall as income increases. This finding corresponds to other research that shows a higher concentration of spending on necessities among lower-income households. The poor, independent of

their work status, spend a higher percent on food than the non-poor. In addition, the non-working poor spend a higher percentage on food than the working poor. The non-working poor are probably of lower income and spend less on transportation to work and other work related expenses. Elderly households spend a smaller percent than any of the other groups on food, possibly because they eat at home more and consume fewer calories. Of all the groups, food stamp recipients concentrate the highest percentage of their total consumption on food. As will be discussed in more detail below, the effect of food inflation on food stamp recipients is partly blunted by the indexation of food stamp benefit amounts to food prices. Single mother households' food expenditure shares are

in line with the working poor. Overall, lower-income households concentrate a higher proportion of their total spending on food than does the remainder of the population. As a result, recent increases in food prices have a more substantial impact on their purchasing power.

While lower-income households concentrate a higher percentage of their total expenditures on food than higher-income households, wealthier households spend a greater dollar amount on food. Column 2 of Table 2 presents average total annual expenditure on food by household type for 2006. Food stamp recipients, the non-working poor, and bottom income quartile households spend the least amount on food, while top quartile households and the working non-poor spend the most on food.

Food expenditure percentages represent just one part of the calculation of food inflation. Food inflation also depends on which foods are purchased. Table 2 also shows spending patterns on food at home compared with food away from home for the different household types. The percentage of food expenditure away from home increases with income. More than half of all food expenditure occurs away from home for the highest-income households (top income quartile), compared with one-third for the lowest-income households (bottom income quartile). For the work and poverty status categories, working households consume a higher fraction of their food outside the home, than non-working households, and non-poor households consume a higher fraction outside the

Table 2: Food Expenditure Patterns, by Household Type

Group	Food as a share of total expenditure	Annual food expenditure (Aug. 2007 \$)	As a share of food expenditure	
			Food at home	Food away from home
All	13.5%	\$5,921.28	54.5%	45.5%
<i>Bottom Income Quartile</i>	14.9%	\$3,870.90	66.4%	33.6%
<i>Second Income Quartile</i>	14.7%	\$5,423.42	57.2%	42.8%
<i>Third Income Quartile</i>	14.1%	\$6,496.86	53.8%	46.2%
<i>Top Income Quartile</i>	12.1%	\$8,056.36	46.8%	53.2%
<i>Working Poor</i>	15.4%	\$4,413.67	65.5%	34.5%
<i>Poor Not Working</i>	16.2%	\$3,260.80	71.0%	29.0%
<i>Not Poor Not Working</i>	11.9%	\$4,587.23	58.6%	41.4%
<i>Working Not Poor</i>	13.6%	\$6,849.69	51.9%	48.1%
<i>Elderly</i>	11.7%	\$4,500.33	60.5%	39.5%
<i>Single Mom</i>	15.2%	\$5,123.60	57.9%	42.1%
<i>Food Stamp Recipients</i>	17.8%	\$3,913.56	74.8%	25.2%

Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Expenditure Survey*. **Note:** Annual food expenditure in August 2007 \$ is calculated by inflating annual expenditure data from the *Consumer Expenditure Survey* for 2006 using the change in the *Consumer Price Index for Food* from 2006 to August 2007.

Table 3: Inflation Experiences by Demographic Group, August 2007 to August 2008

Group	Food inflation	Food's contribution to Total Inflation	Overall household inflation	Additional food costs
All	6.2%	0.8%	5.5%	\$365.81
<i>Bottom Income Quartile</i>	6.5%	1.0%	5.9%	\$253.41
<i>Second Income Quartile</i>	6.2%	0.9%	5.7%	\$337.92
<i>Third Income Quartile</i>	6.1%	0.9%	5.6%	\$398.83
<i>Top Income Quartile</i>	6.0%	0.7%	5.1%	\$479.96
<hr/>				
<i>Working Poor</i>	6.5%	1.0%	6.2%	\$287.93
<i>Poor Not Working</i>	6.6%	1.1%	5.8%	\$216.15
<i>Not Poor Not Working</i>	6.4%	0.8%	5.1%	\$293.46
<i>Working Not Poor</i>	6.1%	0.8%	5.5%	\$416.03
<hr/>				
<i>Elderly</i>	6.5%	0.8%	5.2%	\$292.08
<i>Single Mom</i>	6.2%	0.9%	5.8%	\$317.66
<i>Food Stamp Recipients</i>	6.7%	1.2%	6.3%	\$262.05

Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Price Index*, and Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Expenditure Survey*. **Note:** The 6.2 percent reported here for overall food inflation differs from the 6.1 percent reported by the CPI because of differences in the market baskets and formula used to calculate inflation.

home than poor households. As a result, the non-working poor have the highest fraction of consumption at home while the working non-poor have the highest fraction away from home.

Elderly households consume less than average outside the home while single mothers have consumption patterns similar to the overall population. Food stamp recipients spend one-quarter of their food dollars away from home (food stamps are not accepted for restaurant food). They have the lowest percentage of consumption away from home of all the groups investigated.

Household inflation also depends on which foods are consumed at home. Households that consume more oranges have faced lower inflation than households that consume a lot of rice, other things equal. These differences do

not appear to have a strong influence on differential inflation rates across households, because expenditure patterns within food at home are very similar across the different household types. For every household type and for every food at home expenditure subcategory, the percent of expenditure on that type of food is between 0.7 and 1.4 times the average.⁶ Because of these similarities, expenditure breakdowns within food at home are not presented.

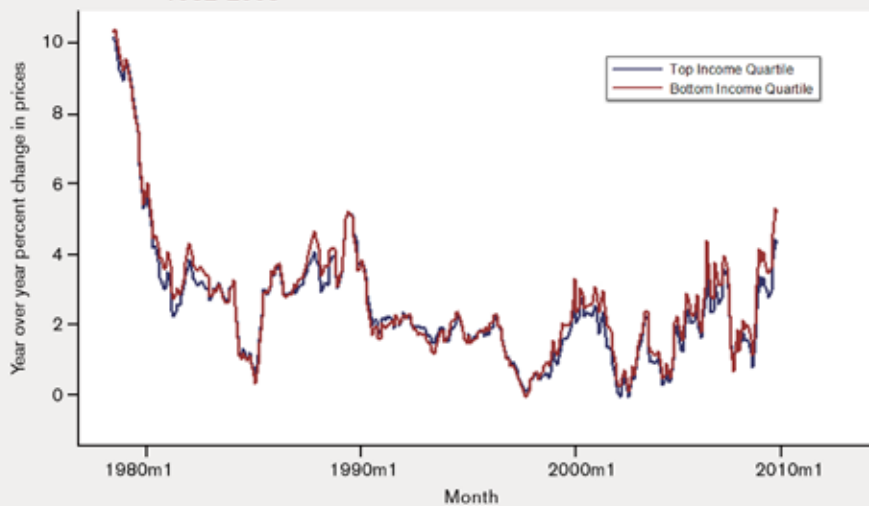
Household food inflation

The measures of price changes by food category are combined with market basket information to gauge household food inflation in two ways. The first measure is the weighted average price change of the food items consumed by the household (for all 17 categories listed in Table 1). This measure tells us

how much more (in percentage terms) it would cost the household to buy the same food market basket. Mechanically, this measure combines the food price change for each category from August 2007 through August 2008 with the share of that category in the household's food basket in 2006. Table 3, column 1 shows the result. Based on these data, food inflation has ranged from 6.0 percent to 6.7 percent. It has been the lowest for the highest-income households, while it has been the highest for the food stamp recipients and the non-working poor.

The second measure of food inflation, presented in Table 3, column 2, asks how much inflation the household would have faced if there were no price increases except in food. In other words, this calculation assumes that the prices of other goods were unchanged

Figure 3: Inflation Experiences of Low- and High-income Households, 1982-2008



Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Price Index*, and Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Expenditure Survey*.

between August 2007 and August 2008. This measure combines the price change for each food category with the share of total consumption concentrated on that category to calculate food's contribution to total inflation. Based on these numbers, food's contribution to total inflation has ranged from 0.7 percent to 1.2 percent. For the highest-income households, food's contribution to inflation has been the smallest, while for food stamp recipients, its contribution has been the largest. This calculation also tells us how much larger the household's overall budget would need to be to cover the increasing cost of its food basket.

The third column of Table 3 shows the household types' inflation based on their actual market basket across all expenditure categories (including non-food items). One notable determinant of these inflation rates is the amount of motor fuel purchased by the household. These findings for total inflation are similar to the results for food inflation and food's contribution to total inflation in that total inflation rates have been highest for food stamp recipients and total inflation declined as income increased over this period.

The findings that food inflation and total inflation were highest for food

stamp recipients and low-income households between August 2007 and August 2008 have not been consistent over time. Figure 3 displays total group inflation for the lowest and highest income quartile households from 1982 to 2008. During many periods since 1982, the lowest-income households faced lower food inflation and lower total inflation than the highest-income

...the non-working poor have the highest fraction of consumption at home, while the working non-poor have the highest fraction away from home.

households. This has particularly been the case when food inflation has been lower than overall inflation and inflation for food away from home has been lower than inflation for food at home. Low-income households have consistently dedicated a higher portion of their total expenditure toward food than high-income households.

In the final column of Table 3, the level of food inflation is translated into the additional amount of money needed for

the food basket annually by household type. In this case, the annual food expenditure of the household is multiplied by the inflation rate between August 2007 and August 2008. An additional 6.2 percent spent on food by the average household, which spent \$5,921 on food in 2006 (translated to August 2007 dollars), equals an additional \$366 per year.⁷ To purchase their 2006 market basket, food stamp recipients would need to spend \$262 more per year based on August 2008 prices as compared to August 2007 prices.

The Food Stamp Program

Throughout this analysis, the expenditure patterns of food stamp recipients have stood out. Food stamp recipients have faced the highest food inflation of any of the groups and concentrate the largest portion of their total expenditure on food. The Food Stamp Program contains provisions that automatically adjust benefit levels for changes in the price of food. This section discusses how the extent to which food stamp benefit adjustments compensate for the price increases faced by recipient households.

The maximum food stamp benefit is set equal to the cost of the USDA's Thrifty Food Plan, a balanced minimum cost diet that is comprised solely of food consumed at home. Food stamp benefit levels for the 12 months starting in October are based on the price of the Thrifty Food Plan in the previous June. Between June 2007 and June 2008, the cost of the Thrifty Food Plan increased by 8.4 percent for a family of two from \$298 to \$323.⁸ Comparable

Table 4: Estimates of Inflation Experiences by Demographic Group, 2009

Group	Projected food inflation, 2009	Projected food contribution to total inflation, 2009
All	4.3%	0.6%
Bottom Income Quartile	4.3%	0.6%
Second Income Quartile	4.3%	0.6%
Third Income Quartile	4.3%	0.6%
Top Income Quartile	4.3%	0.5%
Working Poor	4.3%	0.7%
Poor Not Working	4.3%	0.7%
Not Poor Not Working	4.3%	0.5%
Working Not Poor	4.3%	0.6%
Elderly	4.3%	0.5%
Single Mom	4.3%	0.7%
Food Stamp Recipients	4.3%	0.8%

Source: Author's calculations based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Consumer Expenditure Survey*, and U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, *Food Price Outlook*, 2008.

increases were seen by other sized families. Because the Thrifty Food Plan does not include any food consumed away from home, the price increase between 2007 and 2008 was more in line with the price increase of food at home.

Food stamp recipients are expected to spend 30 percent of their income on food. As a result, the food stamp benefit received by a household is equal to the maximum benefit minus 30 percent of the household's net income (income minus a series of deductions). For example, a family of two with a net monthly income of \$375 would have received a monthly benefit of \$173 in 2007 (\$298-.3x375).

If that household's income was unchanged between 2007 and 2008, the benefit amount would increase from

\$173 to \$198 (\$323-.3x375) starting in October – the household would receive an additional \$300 in food stamps in 2008. This increase in benefits would defray the additional cost of food. In this example, the household's annual benefits would increase by more than the average additional cost of food of \$262. This occurs because the percentage increase in the cost of the Thrifty Food Plan was greater than the percentage increase in the cost of food, and because household income was assumed to be unchanged from year to year.

While these calculations are based on hypothetical households, and may not represent the experiences of individual households, they point to the fact that food stamp benefits increase as food prices increase. These price

increases, at least partially, and potentially totally, offset the increased price of food.⁹

Looking ahead

The Economic Research Service (ERS) of the Department of Agriculture releases detailed forecasts of food price changes. Their recent forecast is for food inflation for all of 2008 of between 5.0 percent and 6.0 percent, broken down into inflation for food at home of 5.5 percent to 6.5 percent, and inflation for food away from home of 3.5 percent to 4.5 percent. For 2009, they are forecasting a slight moderation with total of food at home and food away from home, growing from 4.0 percent to 5.0 percent. They also provide forecasts for all 17 categories of food expenditure displayed in Table 1.¹⁰

Table 4 provides estimates of food inflation and food's contribution to total inflation for the different household types based on the 2006 food expenditure patterns and the ERS's 2009 price forecasts. For these estimates, the midpoints of the ranges of the ERS's anticipated price changes are used. For all the population groups, food inflation of 4.3 percent for 2009 is predicted. This consistency arises from the fact that food at home and food away from home are expected to grow at similar rates. There is some disparity across the projected contributions to inflation due to differences in food's share of total expenditure.

Adjusting consumption

The discussion of food price inflation takes as given the expenditure patterns of households and calculates inflation based on price changes. These calculations are based on the assumption that household food consumption patterns remain fixed in the face of price increases. However, households can respond to price increases by altering their consumption patterns.

Research within the United States does not tend to find that people substantially adjust the amount of food they consume in response to price changes. According to the ERS, the price elasticity of demand for food, beverages, and tobacco in the United States is -0.08, meaning that a 1 percent increase in the price of food decreases the quantity demanded by eight-hundredths of a percent.¹¹

However, households substitute across food categories and items in response to price increases. One pattern that is emerging is that households are responding to increasing food prices by choosing to eat at home more or packing lunch for work. Survey data points to increased at home dining. In conjunction with this, many of the large restaurant chains are reporting slower sales and weak financial results. By contrast, grocery stores are reporting strong sales. They are also reporting that consumers are purchasing more private label rather than brand name items. Fast food chains have also been performing well as consumers are attracted by their value options.¹²

The ability to switch to at home dining is more of an option for high-income households, because they eat out more to begin with. In addition, low-income households may already be purchasing inexpensive and generic items, and have little leeway to trade down to these cheaper options.

Conclusion

Food price inflation has been high over the past year. These price increases have had a disproportionate effect on low income, poor, and food stamp recipient households for three reasons. First, low-income households concentrate a greater proportion of their total budget to food than high-income households, making them more sensitive to food price changes in general. Second, low-income households concentrate more of their total food

expenditure at home, where prices have been growing rapidly, relative to food away from home. Third, because low-income households consume less expensive foods and eat predominately at home, they have less capability to meet their food budget by trading down to less expensive food options.

Notes

- 1 For details on the Chicago Fed IBEX®, see Leslie McGranahan and Anna Paulson, "Constructing the Chicago Fed Income-Based Economic Index: Inflation," *Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago Working Paper No. WP-2005-20*, or available at www.chicagofed.org/community_development/chicagofed_ibex_consumer_price_index.cfm on December 1, 2008.
- 2 Household types are overall urban population, based on race/ethnicity (Black, Hispanic, White, other), educational attainment (less than high school, high school graduate, some college, college graduate), age (elderly, non-elderly), food stamp recipients, home ownership status (home owner, non-home owner), poverty status (poor, non-poor), poverty status where poverty is defined at twice the federal poverty line (poor, non-poor), poverty and work status (non-poor non-working, non-working poor, working poor, working non-poor), poverty and work status where poverty is defined as twice the federal poverty line (non-poor non-working, non-working poor, working poor, non-poor, non-working), income quartile, income quartile where income is adjusted for family composition, savers, non-savers, and single mothers. The creators of the index are in the process of adding the disabled to this list.
- 3 See David B. Cashin and Leslie McGranahan, "Household energy expenditures 1982-2005," *Chicago Fed Letter*, June 2006, No. 227.
- 4 The BLS has 18 categories, because it splits nonalcoholic beverages and beverage materials into two. Expenditure percent breakdowns within nonalcoholic beverages were not calculated.
- 5 For a more comprehensive discussion of food price increases, see Tom Capehart and Joe Richardson, 2008, "Food Price Inflation: Causes and Impacts," *CRS Report for Congress, Congressional Research Service No. RS22859*, April 10, or *Farm Foundation Issue Report*, "What's Driving Food Prices?" July 2008.
- 6 The coefficient of variation (the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean) of the expenditure shares within food at home of the 16 different subcategories of food at home, it ranges from 5 percent to 18 percent.
- 7 Any adjustment to account for the fact that the expenditure amounts were calculated in 2006 and prices increased between base period 2006 and August 2007 have been omitted. Taking these price increases into account would increase these numbers slightly.
- 8 This is based on a family of two, because the average food stamp household has 2.3 members.
- 9 A separate issue is the timing of these adjustments. For a good discussion of this see Dorothy Rosenbaum, "Food stamp inflation adjustment lags, resulting in inadequate benefits," revised July 23, 2008. Available at www.cbpp.org/7-22-08fa.htm on December 1, 2008.

10 Available at www.ers.usda.gov/Briefing/CPIFoodAndExpenditures/Data/cpiforecasts.htm on December 1, 2008. Cereals and bakery products are reported together.

11 Available at www.ers.usda.gov/data/InternationalFoodDemand on December 1, 2008.

12 "With prices high, consumers warm to the idea of eating in," Associated Press, September 21, 2008. Available at www.chicagotribune.com/news/nationworld/chi-eating-charticlesep21,0,7895851.story on December 1, 2008. Also see Dan Sewell, "Kroger profit rises 3.4 pct on sales growth," Associated Press, September 16, 2008. Available at www.nytimes.com/2008/09/17/business/17kroger.html on December 1, 2008.

Biography

Leslie McGranahan is an economist in the in the regional analysis team of the economic research department of the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago. Her research interests include the effectiveness of antipoverty programs, government expenditure on low income populations and the intergenerational transmission of wealth and inequality. She received a bachelor's degree in politics from Princeton University and master's and doctorate degrees in economics from Northwestern University.

Call For Papers

Networks Financial Institute at Indiana State University is pleased to invite research papers for its conference:

Improving Financial Literacy and Reshaping Financial Behavior

May 14-15, 2009, in Indianapolis, Indiana

Conference papers will be considered for publication in a special issue of the Journal of Consumer Affairs (JCA) to be published in Spring/Summer 2010. Editors for the special issue are Professors Brenda Cude, Angela Lyons and John A. Tatom.

Personal financial decisions are under great scrutiny and uncertainty today. The unfolding foreclosure crisis, which has stressed household wealth and income, underscores the costs of poor consumer decisions, and the need for greater skill in managing household finances and decision-making. The focus of this conference is on the factors that shape financial behavior, and how individuals, educators, and policymakers can improve financial literacy and its influence on financial decision-making.

Likely topics include, but are not limited to:

- Measurement and assessment of financial education programs
- Current approaches to, and best practices for, improving financial literacy
- Behavioral finance and improving behavioral outcomes
- Financial and consumer socialization processes
- Reshaping saving and investment behavior for the retirement years
- Improving saving and asset building strategies for low-income groups
- The implications of the financial crisis for improving literacy and behavior
- Research on improving mortgages and reducing foreclosures and bankruptcies
- Regulatory reform, financial literacy, and reshaping financial behavior
- Financial institutions' role in improving financial literacy and access to financial services

Conference organizing committee:

Brenda Cude, professor of housing and consumer economics, University of Georgia

Tahira Hira, professor of personal finance and consumer economics and executive assistant to the president, Iowa State University

Annamaria Lusardi, professor of economics, Dartmouth College

Angela Lyons, associate professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Anna Paulson, senior economist, Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago

John A. Tatom, associate professor of finance, Indiana State University

Submission date: papers must be received by February 16, 2009.

Submissions will be evaluated and selected by the organizing committee for presentation at the conference. These papers can subsequently be submitted for the special edition of the JCA and will be refereed using the normal JCA review process. Therefore, authors should follow the submission guidelines for the Journal of Consumer Affairs as detailed under "JCA Author Guidelines" on the Blackwell Publishing Web site (www.blackwellpublishing.com/submit.asp?ref=0022-0078&site=1).

Submit papers electronically to: **John A. Tatom, Director of Research**
 Networks Financial Institute
 John.Tatom@isunetworks.org

Reasonable expenses for travel (up to \$500 for authors[s] of each paper) and lodging for authors of papers accepted for the conference will be reimbursed by Networks Financial Institute. Registration fees for authors will also be waived.

**FEDERAL RESERVE BANK
OF CHICAGO**

Consumer and Community Affairs Division

P.O. BOX 834

CHICAGO, IL 60690-0834

RETURN SERVICE REQUESTED

Attention:
Executive Officers
Board of Directors
CRA Officers
Community Lenders
Community Representatives

Profitwise News and Views is published by the
Consumer and Community Affairs Division of the
Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago
230 S. LaSalle Street
Chicago, IL 60604-1413

PRESORTED
STANDARD
U.S. POSTAGE PAID
CHICAGO, IL
PERMIT NO. 1942