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FINANCIAL PLANNING AND SAVING BEHAVIOUR AMONG SALARIED EMPLOYEES: EVIDENCE ON INVESTMENT PREFERENCES, FINANCIAL DISCIPLINE AND HOUSEHOLD CONSTRAINTS

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ABSTRACT

Financial planning has become increasingly important for salaried employees because regular monthly income must be allocated across current consumption, emergency needs and long-term financial goals. This study examines the financial planning and saving behaviour of 98 salaried employees, with particular attention to saving intensity, saving motives, investment preferences, budgeting practices, expense tracking, long-term saving and factors influencing saving decisions. A descriptive cross-sectional research design was adopted, and primary data were collected through a structured questionnaire using convenience sampling. The data were analysed using frequencies, percentages and exploratory Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests. The findings indicate that 47.4% of valid respondents save 10–20% of their monthly salary, while 56.7% save primarily for future security. Bank savings are the preferred investment avenue for 53.1% of respondents, whereas mutual funds are preferred by only 7.1%. A large majority plan monthly savings (85.7%), consider saving important (98.0%) and intend to increase their savings in the future (94.9%). Family responsibilities represent the most frequently reported constraint on saving, while family members are the dominant influence on saving decisions. Overall, the findings indicate strong saving awareness and positive future intentions, but moderate saving intensity and a strong preference for familiar and relatively conservative financial avenues. The study highlights the need to strengthen practical financial planning through disciplined budgeting, emergency preparedness, long-term planning, risk-return awareness and informed diversification.

KEYWORDS: Financial planning; saving behaviour; salaried employees; investment preferences; budgeting; financial discipline; financial security.

1. INTRODUCTION

Financial planning is a continuous process through which individuals assess available financial resources, establish goals and allocate income among consumption, saving, investment, insurance and future obligations. Its relevance has increased as households face more complex financial products, changing employment conditions, inflationary pressure and greater individual responsibility for long-term financial security. Financial literacy is therefore an important contextual factor in personal financial decision-making because knowledge of financial concepts can influence how individuals evaluate saving, investment and risk. However, financial knowledge alone may not necessarily translate into consistent financial behaviour, as actual decisions are also shaped by income, household responsibilities, preferences and perceived financial security.

For salaried employees, the regularity of monthly income can create an appearance of financial stability, yet fixed income must often support several competing commitments. Household expenditure, housing, healthcare, education, debt repayment, insurance and family responsibilities reduce disposable income and can restrict the amount available for saving. A well-designed financial plan helps employees distinguish essential expenditure from discretionary consumption, maintain liquidity for emergencies and allocate resources towards medium- and long-term objectives.

Saving is the foundation of personal financial resilience, but saving alone does not ensure long-term wealth creation. Funds retained in highly liquid or low-return instruments may provide security but can lose purchasing power in inflationary environments. Investment decisions therefore involve balancing liquidity, safety, return, time horizon and risk tolerance. Financial literacy can support this balance by enabling individuals to understand diversification, compounding, inflation and the characteristics of alternative financial products.

International evidence has increasingly connected financial inclusion with financial resilience. The Global Findex Database documents how account ownership, digital payments, formal saving and the ability to raise emergency funds relate to household financial participation. Similarly, the OECD/INFE framework evaluates financial literacy through financial knowledge, behaviour and attitudes, emphasising that knowing financial concepts is insufficient if such knowledge is not translated into effective behaviour.

India's financial environment has changed substantially with greater access to banking, digital payments and investment platforms. Salaried individuals can now access deposits, insurance, mutual funds, pension products and digital investment services with relative ease. However, availability does not automatically produce informed participation. Familiarity, perceived safety, risk aversion, family

influence and limited product knowledge can lead households to concentrate resources in conventional instruments.

The present study examines these issues using primary data from salaried employees. Rather than treating saving as an isolated act, it considers saving intensity, motivations, investment preference, planning routines, expense monitoring, constraints and future intentions together. This provides a compact empirical picture of how salaried respondents manage personal finances and where financial capability may be strengthened.

Against this background, the present study focuses on the financial planning and saving behaviour of salaried employees by examining saving intensity, saving motives, investment preferences, planning routines, expense tracking, long-term saving and household constraints. The study is particularly concerned with the distinction between positive financial intentions and actual financial practices. By examining these dimensions together, the study provides an applied descriptive account of the financial behaviour observed within the surveyed group.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Financial literacy is among the most established explanations of differences in household financial behaviour. Lusardi and Mitchell (2014) conceptualised financial literacy as economically valuable human capital and demonstrated its relevance to saving, investment and retirement decisions. Their work helped establish that individuals differ substantially in their understanding of basic financial concepts and that these differences can have important economic consequences.

Lusardi (2019) emphasised that financial education has become necessary in environments where individuals increasingly bear responsibility for complex financial decisions. Limited knowledge of interest, inflation and risk diversification can affect borrowing, saving and investment choices. Financial education is therefore most useful when it equips individuals to apply financial concepts to practical decisions rather than merely increasing theoretical awareness.

The OECD/INFE 2023 international survey extends this perspective by treating financial literacy as a combination of knowledge, behaviour and attitudes (OECD, 2023). Behavioural dimensions such as monitoring finances, saving actively and considering longer-term consequences are especially relevant to salaried employees. This approach is useful for the present study because respondents may recognise the importance of saving while differing considerably in how consistently they budget, monitor expenditure or diversify investments.

Financial resilience is another important strand of the literature. Demirgüç-Kunt et al. (2022), using

Global Findex data, highlight the ability of individuals to cope with unexpected financial requirements. Emergency saving, access to formal financial services and appropriate financial tools can reduce vulnerability to income or expenditure shocks. For employees, this implies that the quality of saving behaviour matters alongside the quantity saved.

Behavioural finance provides a complementary explanation. Statman (2020) argues that financial decisions are influenced by behavioural and social considerations in addition to conventional risk-return calculations. Familiarity, emotions, perceived safety and social influence can affect investment choices. Such insights are relevant when individuals prefer familiar instruments even when other products may offer diversification or higher long-term expected returns.

Taken together, prior research indicates that personal financial outcomes are shaped by knowledge, behaviour, economic capacity and social context. Yet these dimensions are often examined separately. Small-scale empirical studies can contribute by showing how these factors appear together within a particular working population, especially where income constraints and family responsibilities are prominent.

2.1 Saving, Investment Preference and Financial Behaviour

Saving behaviour is influenced not only by financial knowledge but also by income, household obligations, perceived financial security and preferences regarding risk and liquidity. Individuals with limited disposable income may find it difficult to maintain high saving rates even when they recognise the importance of saving. Investment preferences may similarly reflect a combination of perceived safety, familiarity, liquidity requirements and risk tolerance. Consequently, preference for conventional saving instruments should not automatically be interpreted as inadequate financial knowledge. Instead, the suitability of an investment choice should be considered in relation to an individual's financial goals, time horizon, capacity to bear risk and household circumstances.

For salaried employees, these considerations are particularly relevant because regular income does not necessarily imply high disposable income. Housing, education, healthcare, family obligations, debt repayments and other recurring expenses can influence the amount available for saving and investment. Examining saving intensity together with investment preference and household constraints can therefore provide a more complete understanding of personal financial behaviour.

3. RESEARCH GAP AND OBJECTIVES

Existing research has established the importance of financial literacy, financial inclusion, saving behaviour and investment decision-making in shaping household financial outcomes. However, financial awareness and positive attitudes towards saving do not necessarily translate into consistent

saving practices or diversified investment behaviour. In addition, saving capacity may be constrained by income levels, household responsibilities, expenditure patterns and debt obligations.

A practical gap therefore exists in examining these dimensions together within a salaried-employee context. The present study addresses this gap by examining saving intensity, saving motives, investment preferences, financial planning routines, expense tracking, long-term saving, saving constraints and influences on financial decisions. Rather than measuring financial literacy directly, the study focuses on observable and self-reported financial planning and saving behaviours within the surveyed sample.

Accordingly, the objectives are: (1) to examine the financial planning and saving practices of salaried employees; (2) to analyse their saving motives and investment preferences; (3) to assess budgeting, expense tracking and long-term saving behaviour; (4) to identify major factors constraining savings; and (5) to understand the principal sources influencing saving decisions.

4. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

H01: The proportion of monthly salary saved is equally distributed across the four saving-rate categories.

H11: The proportion of monthly salary saved is not equally distributed across the four saving-rate categories.

H02: Preference for saving and investment avenues is equally distributed across the five available investment categories.

H12: Preference for saving and investment avenues is not equally distributed across the five available investment categories.

H03: The reported factors affecting savings are equally distributed across low income, high expenses, family responsibilities and loans.

H13: The reported factors affecting savings are not equally distributed across these four categories.

To strengthen the empirical component of the study, three distributional hypotheses were formulated using variables for which complete category frequencies are available. Because the available dataset contains aggregated frequencies rather than respondent-level cross-tabulations, these hypotheses test whether observed responses are distributed equally across categories. They do not test associations between two respondent characteristics. Association hypotheses such as income $\times$ saving rate require the original respondent-level dataset.

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a descriptive, cross-sectional research design to examine the financial planning and saving behaviour of salaried employees. The study was designed to describe respondents' saving

practices, investment preferences, financial planning routines, saving constraints and future intentions without manipulating any variables or establishing causal relationships.

Primary data were collected using a structured questionnaire administered to salaried respondents. The sample consisted of 98 respondents selected through convenience sampling based on accessibility and willingness to participate. Because convenience sampling does not provide every member of the target population an equal probability of selection, the findings are interpreted as evidence relating to the surveyed sample and are not generalised to the wider population of salaried employees.

Frequency and percentage analysis were used because the available variables are primarily categorical. Five questionnaire items contain 97 valid responses rather than 98; percentages for those items are calculated using the valid-response denominator. No association or causal inference is reported because respondent-level cross-tabulated data were not available. Exploratory Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were nevertheless conducted using the available aggregate category frequencies to examine departures from an equal-distribution benchmark. This avoids drawing statistical conclusions that cannot be supported by the available aggregated frequencies. In addition, exploratory Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were conducted at the 5% significance level for the three distributional hypotheses. Under each null hypothesis, category frequencies were assumed to be equal. Cohen's w was reported as an effect-size index, calculated as $\sqrt{(\chi^2/N)}$. Conventional reference values of approximately 0.10, 0.30 and 0.50 indicate small, medium and large distributional departures, respectively.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Profile of Respondents

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18–25	68	69.4
	26–35	15	15.3
	36–45	9	9.2
	Above 45	6	6.1
Gender	Male	46	46.9
	Female	52	53.1
Monthly income	Below ₹20,000	40	40.8
	₹20,001–₹40,000	54	55.1
	₹40,001–₹60,000	1	1.0
	Above ₹60,000	3	3.1

Table No 1: Respondent Profile

The respondent profile is concentrated among younger salaried individuals. Nearly two-thirds (69.4%) fall within the 18–25 age category, while 15.3% are aged 26–35. Gender representation is comparatively balanced, with women constituting 53.1% and men 46.9%. Income is concentrated at the lower and middle levels: 55.1% report monthly income between ₹20,001 and ₹40,000 and 40.8% earn below ₹20,000. Only four respondents earn more than ₹40,000. Consequently, the findings predominantly reflect younger and lower-to-middle-income respondents.

6.2 Saving Behaviour and Motives



Figure 1. Proportion of monthly salary saved by respondents (n = 97).

Variable	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Salary saved	Less than 10%	30	30.9*
	10–20%	46	47.4*
	20–30%	11	11.3*
	More than 30%	10	10.3*
Reason for saving	Emergency	29	29.9*
	Future security	55	56.7*
	Children's education	12	12.4*
	Retirement	1	1.0*

*Based on 97 valid responses.

Table No 2: Saving Behaviour and Motives

The dominant saving rate is 10–20% of salary, reported by 47.4% of valid respondents. A further 30.9% save less than 10%, meaning that more than three-quarters of valid respondents save no more than one-fifth of salary. This pattern indicates a willingness to save, although the relatively high concentration in the below-20% categories suggest that saving capacity may be constrained by income levels, household expenditure and other financial commitments. Given the descriptive nature of the study, this interpretation should be understood as a possible explanation rather than a causal conclusion. Given the income profile of the sample, moderate saving rates may reflect the competing claims of household expenditure and other commitments.

Future security is the most common saving motive (56.7%), followed by emergency preparedness (29.9%). Retirement is identified by only 1.0% of respondents. The low representation of retirement as a stated saving motive occurs within a sample that is predominantly young. However, because respondent-level association between age and saving motive was not tested, the finding should be interpreted descriptively rather than as evidence that age determines retirement-saving preferences, but it also indicates an opportunity for early-career financial education. Beginning long-term saving earlier can increase the time available for compounding and reduce the amount that must be saved later to reach retirement goals. The strong emphasis on future security and emergencies is consistent with the concept of financial resilience highlighted by Demirgüç-Kunt et al. (2022).

6.3 Investment Preferences

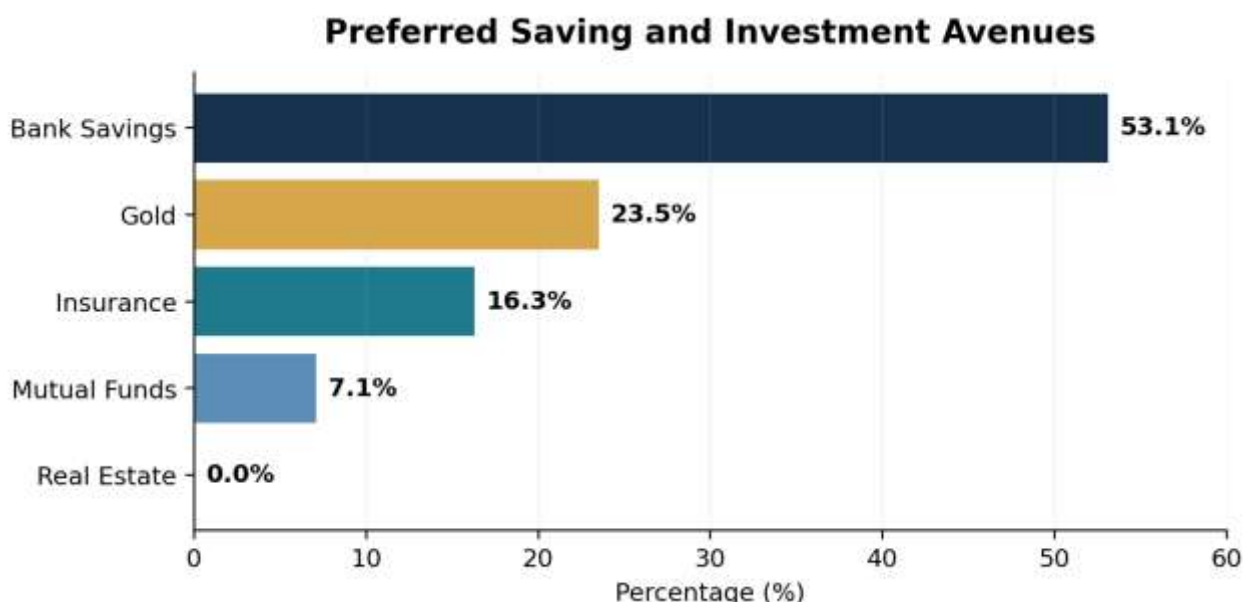


Figure 2. Preferred saving and investment avenues of salaried employees (N = 98).

Investment avenue	Frequency	Percentage
Bank savings	52	53.1
Gold	23	23.5
Insurance	16	16.3
Mutual funds	7	7.1
Real estate	0	0.0

Table No 3: Investment Preferences

Investment preference is heavily concentrated in conventional and familiar avenues. More than half of respondents prefer bank savings, followed by gold and insurance. Mutual funds are preferred by only 7.1%, and no respondent identifies real estate as the preferred option. The result should not be interpreted as evidence that respondents are irrational: bank savings provide liquidity and perceived safety, while real estate requires substantial capital. Nevertheless, the low stated preference for mutual funds indicates limited representation of market-linked investment avenues within the reported preferences. This should not automatically be interpreted as inadequate financial knowledge, since investment selection may also reflect liquidity needs, risk tolerance, perceived safety, familiarity and available investible surplus.

Existing financial literacy and behavioural-finance research provides a useful contextual explanation for this pattern. Understanding risk, diversification and the relationship between risk and return may influence participation in different financial products. At the same time, familiarity, perceived safety and social influence may affect investment choices independently of formal financial knowledge. Therefore, financial education should focus not only on increasing awareness of financial products but also on helping individuals match financial instruments with their goals, time horizon, liquidity needs and risk capacity.

6.4 Financial Planning Discipline

Indicator	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Plans monthly savings	Yes	84	85.7
Savings are important	Yes	96	98.0
Reviews financial plan	Monthly	59	60.2
	Yearly	15	15.3
	Occasionally	16	16.3
	Never	8	8.2
Tracks expenses	Always	42	43.3*
	Sometimes	44	45.4*
	Never	11	11.3*

*Expense-tracking percentages are based on 97 valid responses.

Table No 4: Financial Planning Discipline

Financial attitudes are strongly favourable. A large majority plan monthly savings and almost all respondents regard saving as important. Moreover, 60.2% review their financial plans monthly. These indicators suggest that financial planning is not an unfamiliar concept among respondents. However, expense tracking reveals a more nuanced picture: only 43.3% always track expenditure, while 45.4% do so sometimes. This difference between attitudes and consistent behaviour supports the OECD/INFE view that financial literacy should be assessed through behaviour as well as knowledge and attitudes.

Regular expense monitoring can improve the accuracy of budgets and make saving targets more realistic. For salaried employees, simple practices such as automatic transfers on salary day, categorisation of essential and discretionary expenses and periodic review of subscriptions or recurring payments may help convert saving intentions into consistent financial behaviour.

6.5 Constraints, Long-Term Saving and Decision Influences

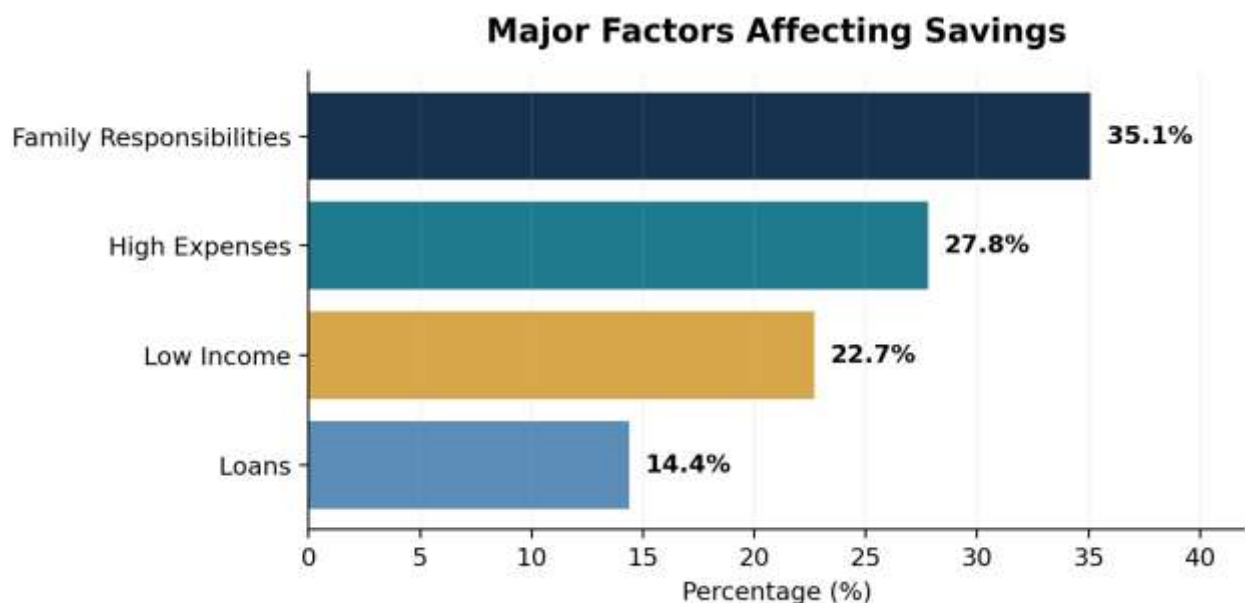


Figure 3. Major factors affecting respondents' saving capacity (n = 97).

Key Financial Planning Behaviour Indicators



Figure 4. Key indicators of financial planning behaviour among respondents.

Variable	Leading response	Frequency	Percentage
Factor affecting saving	Family responsibilities	34	35.1*
	High expenses	27	27.8*
	Low income	22	22.7*
	Loans	14	14.4*
Long-term saving scheme	Yes	66	68.0*
Willing to increase future saving	Yes	93	94.9
Main influence on saving	Family	76	77.6
	Friends	14	14.3
	Financial adviser	4	4.1
	Social media	4	4.0

*Relevant percentages are based on 97 valid responses.

Table No 5: Constraints, Long-Term Saving and Decision Influences

Family responsibilities are the leading reported constraint on saving, followed by high expenses and low income. The finding demonstrates why financial behaviour cannot be explained by literacy alone: even financially knowledgeable individuals may have limited capacity to save when disposable income is constrained. Financial education should therefore be realistic and include prioritisation, emergency planning and debt management rather than assuming that all employees can immediately increase investment contributions. These findings indicate that saving behaviour should be understood in the context of financial capacity as well as financial intention. A respondent may recognise the importance of saving and still be unable to increase savings substantially when household obligations and essential expenditure absorb a large proportion of disposable income.

Despite these constraints, 68.0% of valid respondents report investment in long-term saving schemes

and 94.9% intend to increase savings in the future. This combination indicates substantial positive intention. The challenge is to translate intention into a sustainable allocation strategy. A goal-based approach can separate emergency liquidity, medium-term goals and retirement investments, reducing the tendency to treat all savings as a single pool.

Family is by far the dominant reported influence on saving decisions (77.6%), whereas financial advisers account for only 4.1%. This finding highlights the importance of household-level financial decision-making within the surveyed group. Family influence may reinforce positive saving practices, but it may also contribute to continued preference for familiar financial instruments. Financial education initiatives may therefore be more effective when they recognise the household context and encourage informed discussion of financial goals, risk, emergency preparedness and long-term planning.

6.6 Exploratory Hypothesis Testing

The hypotheses were examined using Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests to determine whether the observed category frequencies differed significantly from an equal-distribution benchmark. Since respondent-level cross-tabulated data were not available, these tests do not examine associations between demographic and financial variables and should not be interpreted as evidence of causal relationships.

Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were used to determine whether the observed category frequencies differed significantly from an equal-distribution benchmark. The results are presented below. These tests are statistically valid for the available aggregate frequencies, but they should be interpreted as exploratory distributional evidence rather than evidence of causal relationships or associations between demographic variables.

Hypothesis	N	χ^2	df	p-value	Cohen's w	Decision
H01: Saving-rate distribution	97	36.485	3	< .001	0.613	Reject H01
H02: Investment preference	98	82.510	4	< .001	0.918	Reject H02
H03: Saving constraints	97	8.773	3	.032	0.301	Reject H03

Table No 6. Summary of Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests and effect sizes

H11: The saving-rate categories are not equally represented, $\chi^2(3, N = 97) = 36.485$, $p < .001$, $w = .613$. The effect is large. The 10–20% saving category is the most common (47.4%), whereas saving above 20% is comparatively less common. The null hypothesis H01 is therefore rejected.

H12: Investment preferences differ very strongly across the five avenues, $\chi^2(4, N = 98) = 82.510$, $p < .001$, $w = .918$. Bank savings dominate the observed preferences, while mutual funds have low representation and real estate receives no first preference. The null hypothesis H02 is therefore rejected.

H13: The factors reported as affecting savings also differ significantly across the four categories, $\chi^2(3, N = 97) = 8.773$, $p = .032$, $w = .301$. The effect is approximately medium. Family responsibilities are reported most frequently, followed by high expenses, low income and loans. The null hypothesis H03 is therefore rejected.

Taken together, the tests strengthen the descriptive evidence by demonstrating that the observed concentration in saving rates, investment preferences and saving constraints is unlikely to reflect an equal distribution across response categories. However, the equal-frequency benchmark is a neutral statistical benchmark rather than a theory-derived population expectation. Consequently, the statistical tests strengthen the evidence of category concentration within the present sample, but they do not establish relationships between respondent characteristics and financial behaviour.

7. OVERALL DISCUSSION

The combined evidence presents an important contrast. Respondents display high awareness of the importance of saving, high prevalence of monthly saving plans and strong intentions to save more. Yet actual saving rates are moderate and investment preferences remain concentrated in low-risk, familiar avenues. The combined findings indicate a potential intention–behaviour gap: respondents report strong awareness of the importance of saving and strong intentions to increase future savings, while the observed saving rates remain concentrated at moderate levels and investment preferences remain strongly concentrated in familiar avenues. Because the study is descriptive and does not track behaviour longitudinally, this should be interpreted as an observed pattern rather than a formally tested behavioural gap.

Income structure and family responsibilities are central to this gap. With 95.9% of respondents earning ₹40,000 or less per month, saving capacity may be restricted even where willingness is high. Financial recommendations should therefore avoid a one-size-fits-all saving percentage. A more appropriate approach is to establish a realistic saving rate, create an emergency reserve and progressively increase long-term contributions as income rises or liabilities fall. This interpretation is consistent with the reported prevalence of family responsibilities, high expenses and low income as constraints on saving. However, the present aggregate data do not permit testing whether income level is statistically

associated with saving rate.

The low preference for mutual funds should also be interpreted carefully. Market-linked products involve risk and are not automatically appropriate for every individual. The relevant issue is whether respondents understand diversification, time horizon, volatility, fees and the difference between insurance protection and investment. Improved financial capability enables individuals to select products consistent with their goals and risk capacity rather than simply moving from traditional to market-linked products.

The findings broadly support the literature's emphasis on financial literacy as a combination of knowledge and behaviour. Lusardi and Mitchell (2014) show why financial knowledge matters for consequential economic decisions, while OECD (2023) emphasises financial behaviour and attitudes. The present study adds a small-sample applied perspective by showing that respondents may simultaneously exhibit strong saving attitudes, moderate saving capacity and conservative investment choices.

8. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

First, salaried employees should adopt goal-based budgeting rather than saving only the residual amount left after expenditure. Automatic saving immediately after salary receipt can improve consistency. Second, an emergency fund should be distinguished from long-term investment so that unexpected expenses do not require liquidation of retirement-oriented assets. Third, Financial education programmes should provide practical guidance on inflation, compounding, diversification, insurance, pension planning and risk-return trade-offs using salary-based examples.

Fourth, employers can integrate financial wellness into employee development through periodic workshops on budgeting, debt management, insurance and retirement planning. Such programmes may be especially useful for early-career employees represented strongly in this sample. Fifth, financial institutions should provide clear product information and avoid presenting financial literacy as product promotion. Employees need the ability to compare alternatives based on cost, liquidity, risk, expected return and suitability.

Finally, respondents' strong reliance on family advice suggests that financial education may be more effective when it recognises household decision-making. Programmes can encourage employees to discuss goals, emergency funds, insurance coverage and long-term responsibilities with family members while using credible professional or institutional information to validate major decisions.

9. LIMITATIONS AND SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study has several limitations. First, the sample size is limited to 98 respondents and was selected through convenience sampling; therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to the wider population of salaried employees. Second, the sample is highly concentrated among younger and lower-to-middle-income respondents, which limits representation of other age and income groups.

Third, the data are self-reported and may be subject to recall and social-desirability bias. Fourth, several variables were measured using single categorical items, limiting the scope for reliability assessment and advanced multivariate analysis. Five questionnaire items contain one missing response, resulting in 97 valid observations for those variables.

Fifth, the study examines financial planning and saving behaviour but does not use a validated multi-item financial-literacy scale. Therefore, conclusions about financial literacy should be treated as contextual rather than as direct empirical findings of the present study. Finally, the absence of respondent-level cross-tabulated data prevents testing associations between variables such as income, age, saving rate and investment preference.

Future research should employ larger probability-based samples and validated multi-item measures of financial literacy, financial behaviour, risk tolerance and financial well-being. Respondent-level data would enable association tests, logistic regression and other multivariate techniques where theoretically justified. Comparative studies could examine government and private employees, income groups, occupational categories and generations. Longitudinal studies could further determine whether financial education, income changes or major household events produce measurable changes in saving and investment behaviour.

10. CONCLUSION

Financial planning among the surveyed salaried employees is shaped by the interaction of saving intentions, financial capacity, household responsibilities and investment preferences. The respondents generally recognise the importance of saving, report regular saving plans and express a strong intention to increase future savings. At the same time, actual saving rates are concentrated largely within the moderate range, while investment preferences are strongly concentrated in conventional avenues, particularly bank savings and gold.

Family responsibilities, high expenses and low income are the most frequently reported constraints on saving, while family members are the dominant influence on saving decisions. The findings therefore suggest that positive attitudes towards saving do not necessarily translate into higher saving intensity or diversified investment preferences.

The central implication is that promoting saving alone is insufficient. Effective personal financial management requires disciplined budgeting, emergency preparedness, appropriate insurance, long-term planning and informed investment decisions. Financial education initiatives should focus on translating positive intentions into sustainable financial practices while recognising the income constraints, household responsibilities and risk considerations faced by individuals. Within the limitations of the sample and research design, the study provides useful descriptive evidence on financial planning and saving behaviour among the surveyed salaried employees.

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