RESEARCH

Education Maintenance Allowance: The First Two Years A Quantitative Evaluation

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Chapter 1 Introduction

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned a longitudinal evaluation of the piloting of Education Maintenance Allowances (EMAs). The evaluation is being undertaken by a consortium of research organisations, led by the Centre for Research in Social Policy (CRSP) and also includes the National Centre for Social Research, the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) and the Institute for Employment Research (IER). This is the second report of the statistical evaluation of EMA.

The statistical evaluation design is a longitudinal cohort study involving large random sample surveys of young people (and their parents) in 10 EMA pilot areas and eleven control areas[1]. Two cohorts of young people were selected from Child Benefit records. The first cohort of young people left compulsory schooling in the summer of 1999 and they, and their parents, were interviewed between November 1999 and April 2000. A second interview was carried out with these young people between November 2000 and April 2001. The second cohort left compulsory education the following summer of 2000 and young people, and their parents, were first interviewed between November 2000 and April 2001.

Response rates to all surveys have been high. Weights have been constructed to correct for potential sources of bias arising from exclusions from the sample and differential response rates. Population weights have also been produced for England as a whole.

Box S1 summarises the datasets which have been used in the analysis, the findings of which are described in the report; their main purpose in contributing to the evaluation of EMA; and the Chapters of the report in which the findings can be found.

[1] Details of how the control areas were selected can be found in Ashworth et al. (2001).

Box S1

Cohort and Interview Number	Finished Compulsory Education in:	Evaluation of:
Cohort 1 Wave 2 EMA	Summer 1999	Retention (Ch 2). Changes in destinations (Ch 4). EMA receipt over time (Ch 4). Courses and Year 12 Achievement (Ch 5).
Cohort 2 Wave 1 EMA	Summer 2000	Destinations (Ch 2). Awareness, applications and awards (Ch 3).

Chapter 2 The Impact of EMA on Young People's Destinations

The methodological approach to modelling the impact of EMA has been refined since last year's report in order better to take account of unobserved area effects (**Chapter 2.2**). Population weights have also been produced, using data from the Family Resources Surveys (FRS), for all young people in the pilot and control areas, and all young people in England (**Chapter 1.3.4, Annex A**).

EMA has significantly raised post-16 full-time education participation among eligible young people in Year 12 by around 5.9 percentage points and for the combined eligible and ineligible population by around 3.7 percentage points. (**Chapter 2.3**).

EMA is estimated to have had a significant impact in urban areas. However, whilst the rural estimate is of a similar magnitude to the urban estimate, a lower sample size and technical difficulties arising from the matching procedure meant that the rural estimate just failed to reach statistical significance.

Just over one half of young people encouraged into post-16 education by EMA appear to have come from full-time work or training[2], and just under one half would otherwise have been not in education, employment or training (NEET). **(Chapter 2.3.2)**.

[2] This group of young people could have been in full-time work with some element of training (e.g. Modern, Apprenticeship, National Traineeship, trade apprenticeship or other on-the-job training; or in full-time work without any training.

EMA is estimated to have had a larger effect on increasing participation amongst young men than on young women, which suggests that EMA may go some way towards closing the gap between young men and young women in participation in post-16 education.

EMA is estimated to have had a larger effect for urban young men in Cohort 1 than in Cohort 2. Amongst urban young women the opposite was true, with EMA having a larger effect in Cohort 2 than in Cohort 1. In the rural area, the estimated impact of EMA was not significantly different from zero either for young men or young women. **(Chapters 2.3.3-2.3.6)**.

EMA has had a significantly larger effect on young men and women who were eligible for the full amount of EMA compared to those who were eligible for a partial award, for whom the effects were non-significant. For men, the overall effect of EMA was to increase participation amongst those eligible for the full EMA by 7.5 percentage points, compared to 4.7 percentage points for young women eligible for a full EMA. **(Chapter 2.3.7)**.

EMA also impacted significantly on the whole pilot population including both eligible and ineligible young people. Again the impact was larger for young men (4.3 percentage points) than for young women (3.0 percentage points) (Table 2.8). (**Chapter 2.3.8**)

The participation gap, i.e. the difference in the proportions of young people in post-16 education between pilot and control areas, widened between Year 12 and Year 13, from 5.7 percentage points to 7.3 percentage points. This widening occurred for both rural and urban areas. This difference in the participation gap appears largely to have been driven by the impact of EMA on retention in Year 13 for those eligible young people who were in post-16 education in Year 12. EMA increased retention in full-time education in Year 13 by 3.9 percentage points for urban areas and 6.4 percentage points for rural areas. **(Chapter 2.4**). Comparing the different Variants of EMA does not enable the impact of EMA to be disentangled from other potential effects such as administration and take up of the EMA, and so forth. However, the results suggest that money paid to the child is more effective both in increasing education participation in Year 12, and retention in Year 13. However, it is also clear that the most effective way to increase retention is to increase retention bonuses.

Retention among young people in Variant 4 was significantly larger than for other groups. (**Chapter 2.5**).

The last part of the chapter attempts to estimate the effect of EMA if it were rolled out nationally (ignoring any general equilibrium effects). The different composition of England compared to our pilot areas would dampen the rural effects and increase the urban effects but the overall effect would remain unchanged at 5.9 per cent. (**Chapter 2.6**).

Chapter 3 One Year's Experience of EMA

The second year of the operation of EMA showed that the high levels of awareness achieved in the first year were maintained in the second year amongst income eligible young people in full-time education. Moreover, awareness had increased quite substantially amongst young people who were not in full-time education; and, to a lesser extent, amongst parents and guardians of young people, though they remained slightly less aware of EMA than were the young people themselves.

Awareness tended to be slightly lower amongst young people in both cohorts who lived in Variant 3 areas, where the weekly award is payable to parents. It is not clear whether this is because of the promotion strategies used in these areas or if payment to the parent makes the message less salient to young people and, therefore, they do not retain the message as readily.

Amongst young people who were not in full-time education, awareness was higher in rural than urban areas, and this was particularly notable for the second cohort. Young men not in full-time education were less likely to have heard of EMA than were young women. In urban areas, those eligible for a full award were less likely to have heard of it than those eligible for a partial award. (**Chapter 3.2**).

Applications for EMA amongst young people in full-time education remained high and unchanged in the two years of operation, around 83 per cent applying. However, in the second year, slightly more young people who had gone elsewhere than to full-time education had applied compared to first year respondents. (**Chapter 3.3**).

Awards of EMA had increased slightly in the second year, from 84.3 per cent to 88.2 per cent of all applications. This primarily reflects improved efficiency in the administration of EMA, particularly amongst certain LEAs, as seen in decreases in the number of young people still waiting to hear the result of their application at the time of interview. In general, people who had been refused EMA accepted the decision and few appealed against the decision or had re-applied by the time of the interview. (**Chapter 3.4**).

In both Cohorts 1 and 2, the vast majority of young people awarded an EMA reported that they had signed a Learning Agreement. However, one of the Variant 1 areas showed low levels of signing in the first year of EMA and this had decreased further in the second year. Where the young person reported that signing had taken place, they reported that virtually all young people had signed and only slightly fewer representatives of the education providers. Parents and guardians were least likely to have been recalled by the young person as having signed, although around 94 per cent of young people reported their parents/guardians had done so.

Of the obligations young people had agreed to in the learning agreement, they were most likely to remember that they were required to attend all their classes; around nine in ten young people remembered this commitment. Two-thirds of young people also recalled that they were to work towards agreed learning goals in the first year of EMA, though fewer recalled this in the second year. The requirement to seek careers advice when choosing or changing courses was least likely to be recalled. (**Chapter 3.6**).

Chapter 4 EMA One Year After Leaving Compulsory Education

The majority of young people in full-time education in Year 12 who received EMA continued to receive it in Year 13 (67 per cent). Continuous receipt was more common amongst young people receiving a partial award than a full award.

A substantial minority of young people who were in receipt of EMA in Year 12 remained in full-time education in Year 13 but no longer received EMA (14 per cent). Nearly one-half (45 per cent) of these former recipients had made a further claim for EMA, suggesting that they were not discouraged by their experience of receiving it, or the process of (re)applying. Young people eligible for a full award were more likely to have reapplied than those eligible

for a partial award, suggesting that the monetary value of EMA was a persuasive factor. Nearly one-half (42 per cent) of those who reapplied did so because their Year 12 course had ended, and they were starting another course in Year 13. Most of these young people had been in receipt of a full award in Year 12. Six per cent were routinely reapplying and four per cent were from families who had experienced changes in their financial circumstances. Fifteen per cent of young people reported problems with information on their application forms and four per cent reported that their EMA had ended because of attendance problems.

Amongst former recipients remaining in full-time education who had not reapplied, the main reason for termination of their EMA was a change in family finances (37 per cent). Young people who had received a partial award Year 12 were more likely to have had an EMA that ended because of a change in family finances. The main reason given for not reapplying was perceived ineligibility because of family income (33 per cent). However, 12 per cent of former recipients who did not reapply thought too much 'hassle' was involved.

EMA recipients were no less likely than non-recipients to have dropped out of full-time education by the start of Year 13, although drop out rates were higher amongst young people eligible for a full EMA than amongst those eligible for a partial EMA. However, recipients who had received a full EMA in Year 12 were more likely to have completed a one-year course than were their counterparts receiving a partial EMA, suggesting that EMA either encouraged more young people to take one-year courses or that it encouraged them to complete them.

Nearly one-fifth of eligible young people who had not received EMA in Year 12 continued in full-time education and were in receipt by Year 13. Young people eligible for a full award were more likely to become recipients, whereas those eligible for a partial award were more likely to remain non-recipients. As with reapplications, the monetary value of EMA appears to act as an inducement for taking it up.

Most eligible young people who had never received EMA had not applied for it (68.5 per cent). This was seldom because they thought that it was too much hassle (three per cent), but mainly because they perceived themselves ineligible (66 per cent) or knew too little about it (22 per cent). (**Chapter 4.2**).

Temporary stoppages of EMA had been quite common, experienced by one fifth of recipients. They were most likely to have occurred in Variant 2 areas, where the maximum EMA weekly award was greatest. Attendance problems were the most common cause of stoppages, again most apparent in Variant 2 areas, suggesting that education providers in these areas were more rigid in monitoring attendance. Young people on a full award were more likely than those receiving a partial award to have EMA stopped for attendance reasons.

Administrative faults also lay at the root of a substantial minority of stoppages, most notably in Variants 2 and 4; and problems with information given on the attendance monitoring form were also apparent, to a lesser extent. (**Chapter 4.3**).

Termly retention bonuses were most likely to be paid in the Autumn term, after which the proportion of young people receiving bonuses declined. However, this drop in receipt appears to have taken place primarily in Variant 4 areas, where bonus receipt in the Autumn term was particularly high. It is not clear whether this represents a change in the behaviour of young people throughout the year or changes in the practices of education providers.

Non-attendance was a common reason for bonus non-receipt, again particularly in the Variant 2 and, to a lesser extent, Variant 4 areas. However, in the rural and urban Variant 1 areas, 'other' reasons were most common, suggesting that in these areas more education providers were making bonus receipt conditional on young people's behaviour and quality of work as well as attendance. (**Chapter 4.4**).

Chapter 5 Post-16 Courses and Achievement During Year 12

There was no overall difference in Year 11 GCSE/GNVQ attainment between all eligible young people in the pilot areas compared to those in the control areas (**Chapter 5.2.1**). However, young people in the pilot areas entering post-16 education were less likely than comparable young people in the control areas to have passed five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ courses in Year 11. Conversely, they were more likely to have passed GCSE/GNVQ courses with D-G grades (Level 1) (**Chapter 5.2.2**).

Young people in both the pilot and control areas were most likely to take an academic route. However, presumably because young people in the pilot areas in post-16 education were less

well qualified, they were more likely to take vocational courses, and less likely to take academic courses, than their better qualified counterparts in the control areas. The better a young person's Year 11 GCSE/GNVQ qualifications, the more likely they were to take an academic route in post-16 education. Conversely, young people with poorer Year 11 attainment were more likely to take a vocational route (**Chapter 5.2.2**).

Young people who had taken a one-year post-16 course usually did so as a part of a wider portfolio of post-16 courses including one, or more, two-year courses. Such one-year courses were most likely to be vocational. However, more young people in the pilot areas taking a one-year course took both academic (typically GCSE resits) and vocational courses (19 per cent) than their counterparts in the control areas (10 per cent). Conversely, in the pilot areas (eight per cent) they were less likely to take academic courses than young people in the control areas (17 per cent) (**Chapter 5.2.2**).

Young people in the pilot areas were more likely to be studying at Level 2 (26 per cent) compared to young people in the control areas (21 per cent) and less likely to be studying at Level 3 (57 per cent and 62 per cent, respectively). The majority of young people in both the pilot and control areas were seeking to increase their attainment in post-16 education. However, a minority was taking courses at the same, or lower, attainment levels (**Chapter 5.2.2**).

Around one-third of young people in post-16 education, in both pilot and control areas, had taken a course that had finished within one year. Approximately half of these one-year courses were GCSE/GNVQ courses, the remainder were of some other type. Young people taking a one-year GCSE/GNVQ course in the pilot areas were less likely than comparable young people in the control areas to drop out of post-16 education. Young people taking a one-year GCSE/GNVQ course in the pilot areas were more likely to have completed a one-year course than comparable young people in the control areas. (**Chapter 5.3**).

Young people in the pilot areas who had completed a one-year GCSE/GNVQ course typically were taking a GNVQ. This was more likely in the pilot areas (88 per cent) than in the control areas (76 per cent). Conversely, young people on one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were less likely to take a GCSE (14 per cent) than comparable young people in the control areas (24.5 per cent).

Young people in the pilot areas who had completed a one-year GCSE/GNVQ course tended to have achieved at a lower level in Year 11 than their counterparts in the control areas and to have come from a more deprived background. However, despite this, their achievement in Year 12 was equivalent to that of their counterparts in the control areas.

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Finally, we would like to thank all the young people and their parents who have taken time to respond to these surveys and upon whose continuing support we depend for the future of the project.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has commissioned a longitudinal evaluation of the piloting of Education Maintenance Allowances (EMAs). The evaluation is being undertaken by a consortium of research organisations, led by the Centre for Research in Social Policy (CRSP) and also includes the National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR), the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) and the Institute for Employment Research (IER).

1.1 Content of the Report

This report contains results from surveys of young people and their parents in ten of the original EMA pilot areas and in a number of control areas. It is the second report on findings from the quantitative surveys[3]. Further details about the surveys and their resulting datasets are provided later in this introduction. In summary, the findings in this report are based on the analysis of two datasets:

Cohort 1 Wave 2 of EMA

Young people who finished compulsory education in summer of 1999 and who were first interviewed between November 1999 and April 2000. This was the first cohort of young people to be potentially eligible for EMA and data are included in this report from the second interview with these young people which took place between November 2000 and April 2001. In other words, these young people were at least one year beyond the end of compulsory education. Among many other topics, these data allow an exploration of:

- Any impact that EMA might be having on retaining young people in full-time education (Chapter 2).
- Changes in young people's post-16 destinations since their first interview, their history of EMA receipt, and their experiences with retention bonuses (Chapter 4).
- Qualifications obtained by these young people in the first year following the end of compulsory education to begin to explore the impact of EMA on educational achievement (Chapter 5).

[3] Findings from the first year's statistical evaluation were reported in Ashworth et al. (2001).

Cohort 2 Wave 1 of EMA

Young people who finished compulsory education in summer 2000. This is the second cohort of young people potentially eligible for EMA. Their first interview took place between November 2000 and April 2001. For this group of young people it is of particular interest to explore the extent to which EMA had 'bedded down' by the time they were interviewed, that is, approximately one year after its introduction. In this report the focus is on these young people's:

- Destinations at the start of post-compulsory education (compared with those from Cohort 1, Wave 1) (Chapter 2).
- Awareness, applications for and awards of EMA (again compared with those from Cohort 1 Wave 1) (Chapter 3).

The remainder of this introduction gives a brief policy synopsis and description of EMA and an overview of the quantitative evaluation that describes the design, the samples, the questionnaires and the weighting and analytic strategies.

1.2 The Education Maintenance Allowance

Education Maintenance Allowances (EMAs) are being piloted with a view to raising participation, retention and achievement in post-compulsory education among 16-18 year olds. EMA is a means-tested allowance paid to 16-18 year olds from lower income families (or in some areas to their parents). It is paid in addition to any Child Benefit that is claimed for a young person in post-16 education. At the end of the pilot, some form of EMA might be extended nationally. It is important to remember that the results of the evaluation are sensitive to the conditions under which Child Benefit is paid and that any change to these conditions might mean that the results do not necessarily generalise to any other such circumstances.

The pilot provision began in September 1999 by introducing four models of the main EMA in 15 Local Education Authorities (LEAs). Variations exist in terms of the weekly amount of EMA available, to whom it is paid (either the young person or their parents), and in the amounts which are paid for retention and achievement bonuses. The full weekly allowance is payable if total parental taxable income does not exceed £13,000 per annum, while for those

with a total parental income of between £13,000 and £30,000 (£20,000 for the London pilot), EMA is progressively tapered, down to a minimum of £5 per week. While the evaluation focuses on 10 of the initial 15 pilot areas, the introduction of EMA has now been extended to around one-third of young people in England. Five of the initial 15 pilot areas, Leeds and four Inner London Boroughs, could not be included in the main statistical evaluation because of different eligibility criteria (see further below). These five LEAs were evaluated separately from the primary evaluation reported here, and the results of that evaluation are given in Heaver et al., (2002).

Box 1.1 Design and Coverage of the Main EMA Pilot

Model	LEA Pilot Areas	Awards
Variant 1	Middlesbrough, Walsall, Southampton, Cornwall, Leeds, Inner London (Lambeth, Southwark, Lewisham, Greenwich)	£30 per week plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 2	Oldham, City of Nottingham	£40 per week plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 3	Bolton, Doncaster	£30 per week paid to parents plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 4	Stoke-on-Trent, Gateshead	£30 per week plus £80 retention and £140 achievement bonus

1.3 The Evaluation of EMA

The main aim of the evaluation is to assess the impact of EMA on young people's post-16 participation, retention and achievement in full-time education. The evaluation must also make recommendations on:

- the levels at which EMA should be set;
- the effectiveness of bonuses for retention and achievement; and
- to whom EMA should be paid (parent or young person).

There are other subsidiary questions that will be addressed in the course of the evaluation, including:

- What is the take-up rate for EMA?
- Does EMA reduce reliance on part-time work and/or increase expenditure?
- Does the availability of EMA improve attendance in post-16 education?
- Does EMA reduce post-Year 11 participation rates in employment and training?
- Does EMA reduce the number of young people not in education, employment or training (NEET)?
- Does EMA affect the transfer of money within households?
- Does EMA affect education and work decisions made at the age of 18?
- Does EMA affect young people's decisions about continuing in education after Year 11, their choice of school or college or their choice of course?

The evaluation will provide guidance on the cost of EMA in achieving these objectives, thereby providing information for designing a national scheme should the Government choose to do so. The main EMA evaluation started in 1999 and the final wave of interviews will start in 2002 with a final reporting date of 2003 (Box 1.2). The evaluation includes a number of important elements in addition to the statistical evaluation reported here. Reports are also produced by the EMA evaluators on an annual basis, on the implementation of EMA (Maguire et al., 2001a; Maguire et al., 2002), contextual data relating to EMA pilot areas (Maguire et al., 2001b), on a smaller-scale statistical evaluation in the Leeds and London pilot areas (Heaver et al, 2002), and on qualitative research with young people and parents (Legard et al., 2001). In addition, an evaluation of flexibilities to EMA, targeted at vulnerable groups of young people, is also being undertaken. Further details about the design of these other elements of the evaluation can be found in Ashworth et al.(2001) and in the other evaluation reports referred to throughout this report. Finally, two variants of a transport EMA are also being tested in five LEAs in order to assess the impact of helping to overcome cost-related travel barriers to post-16 education (Dobson et al., 2002). The transport EMA evaluation compares 'pure' transport schemes with a mixed 'hybrid' of transport and income-allowance schemes.

1.3.1 Design of the statistical evaluation

The statistical evaluation design is a longitudinal cohort study involving large surveys of random samples of young people in the 10 EMA pilot areas and 11 control areas[4].

Box 1.2 summarises the design of the statistical evaluation. Two cohorts of young people are being studied, young people who completed Year 11 (the end of compulsory schooling) in summer 1999 and in summer 2000. The first wave of interviews with each cohort is conducted face-to-face and includes an interview with a parent or guardian of the young person. Two subsequent waves of telephone interviews are to be undertaken at annual intervals[5]. In addition, for the first cohort a fourth wave of interviews with young people will assess any longer-term effects of EMA on labour market and other outcomes for young people.

Box 1.2 Survey Design

EMA Cohort 1

Wave 1	→	Wave 2	→	Wave 3	→	Wave 4
Face-to-Face		Telephone		Telephone		Telephone
1999		2000		2001		2002

EMA Cohort 2

Wave 1	→	Wave 2	→	Wave 3
Face-to-Face		Telephone		Telephone
2000		2001		2002

1.3.2 Questionnaires

All questionnaires have been designed in consultation with the DfES.

Wave 1 interviews include:

A household and parent/guardian's questionnaire to provide information about:

- household composition, relationships, tenure, income and ethnicity;
- education decisions and current activities of the young person's siblings;
- parent's occupation and educational qualifications;

[4] Details of how the control areas were selected can be found in Ashworth et al. (2001).

[5] Face-to-face interviews are carried out with young people who have no access to a telephone.

- involvement of parents in the young person's decisions about what to do at the end of Year 11;
- the young person's childhood;
- parent's attitudes to education; and
- sources of funding for the young person post-16 including EMA.

A young person's questionnaire which covers:

- activities since Year 11 and at the time of interview, including courses being studied and part-time work for those in full-time education;
- experiences during Years 10 and 11 at school, including qualifications entered for and obtained;
- Year 11 decisions about what to do next, sources of advice and help, and reasons for decisions;
- distances travelled to school or college and travel costs;
- sources and amounts of income, including EMA; and
- expenditure patterns and amounts.

The young person's questionnaire at Wave 2 covers:

- activities since Wave 1;
- reasons for activity changes;
- decision-making and future plans;
- sources of funding for students, including EMA; and
- expenditure patterns and amounts.

1.3.3 Sample sizes and response rates

Sample sizes drawn for the first wave of interviews with each cohort have to be sufficiently large to:

- allow statistically significant differences of approximately five percentage points in participation, retention and achievement between pilots and controls and between the different EMA variants to be measured; and
- take account of the proportion of young people who would inevitably drop out of the evaluation in subsequent waves of interviews (sample attrition).

Wave 1 samples were drawn by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP[6]) from Child Benefit records, following specifications provided by the National Centre for Social Research.

The target populations were young people born between 1 September 1982 and 31 August 1983 (Cohort 1 EMA), and between 1 September 1983 and 31 August 1984 (Cohort 2 EMA) who lived in one of the 21 pilot and control LEA areas covered by the study, as defined by their postcode. A small proportion of 'cases in action' was excluded by the DWP.

The National Centre specified a random method for selecting the required number of young people from each LEA, to form the total samples. The additional sample above target was to allow for attrition arising from 'opt-out' (see below) and non-response.

The target number differed between LEAs according to whether they were pilot or control areas. For urban LEAs a simple random sample of eligible young people was drawn. For rural LEAs, which covered larger distances, a two stage sampling method was followed with a first stage of selecting postcode sectors with probability according to their populations of eligible young people, and a second stage of selecting a fixed number of young people.

Following selection of the sample an opt-out mailing was administered. The letter was addressed to the parent or guardian who received Child Benefit for the young person.

The Wave 2 sample was drawn from young people who had agreed to be re-interviewed at the Wave 1 stage. However, not all of the young people who responded in the first wave were issued for re-interviewing in the second wave. The original design proposed dropping young people from the Wave 2 sample who were income ineligible for EMA[7]. In the event, young people were excluded from the second wave sample if they or their parents had provided no usable income data in Wave 1, hence their eligibility for EMA could not be determined. Once this group was excluded, along with people who could no longer be traced, it was possible to follow the remaining eligible and ineligible Wave 1 respondents. The exceptions to exclusion through a failure to provide income data were young people who

[6] Formerly the Department of Social Security (DSS), at the time these procedures were carried out.

[7] As the focus of the research was on the impact of EMA on eligible young people, the extra cost of following ineligibles initially was deemed unnecessary.

were defined as 'vulnerable' and, therefore, of potential interest to the evaluation of the EMA Extension Pilots. Vulnerable young people met one or more of the following criteria: they lived with neither biological parent, had a child or were pregnant, or had special educational needs or a disability. These young people were included in the sample issued for Wave 2.

Fieldwork was undertaken by the National Centre for Social Research. For the first wave of Cohort 1, interviewing started in October 1999 and was completed by April 2000. For the Cohort 1 Wave 2 and Cohort 2 Wave 1 interviews, the fieldwork period spanned October 2000 to April 2001.

Response rates were high (Box 1.3). A total of 7,560 interviews were completed within Cohort 1 Wave 2, which represented a response rate of 78 per cent of issued names. This response rate was higher than anticipated (seven per cent above target). A total of 10,845 interviews were completed with young people within Cohort 2 Wave 1 EMA, which is a response rate of 68 per cent of issued names, and 94 per cent of young person interviews were accompanied by an interview with a parent. The Cohort 2 sample response rate was slightly lower than that obtained for the Cohort 1 sample (by three percentage points), a difference that was caused by a slight increase in the number of refusals.

Box 1.3 Sample Sizes and Response Rates

EMA	Total Issued Sample	No. of Individuals Withdrawn	Per Cent[a]	Per Cent[b]
Cohort 1 Wave 1				
Drawn from Child Benefit records	15,704			
DSS excluded		817		
*Sub-total issued**	14,887		100	
Address problems		120		
Movers/not known at address		1,138		
*Sub-total issued***	13,629		92	100
Non-contacts		480	3	4
Refusals		1,649	11	12
Unproductives		878	6	6
Total Interviews [c]	10,622		71	78
Interviews with:				
• Young person and parent guardian	10,166			
• Young person only	456			
Cohort 1 Wave 2				
Available from Wave 1	10,622			
Excluded: income data not available[d]	923			
Sample issued	9,699		100	
Address/telephone number problems		662	7	
Movers/not known at address		419	4	
*Sub-total issued***	8,618			100
Non-contacts		178	2	2
Refusals		272	3	3
Unproductives		608	6	7
Total Interviews	7,560		78	88
Cohort 2 Wave 1				
Issued*[e]	15,892		100	
Address problems		86	1	
Movers/not known at address		1,152	7	
No eligible young person		190	1	
*Sub-total issued***	14,464		91	100
Non-contacts		597	4	4
Refusals		2,262	14	16
Unproductives		760	5	5
Total Interviews	10,845		68	75
Interviews with:				
• Young person and parent/guardian	10,216			
• Young person only	629			

Note: Two sets of response rates are derived. The first ([a]) is based upon the total issued sample and does not take into account reasons where it is not possible to contact the young person. The second ([b]) removes the non-contact addresses and provides a better indicator of the quality of response from available addresses.

[c] These figures differ slightly from, and supersede, those given in the earlier report (Ashworth et al., 2001) and reflect later revisions and updates of the data since the Cohort 1 Wave 1 response rates were calculated.

[d] The original design did not allow for the follow-up of non-income eligible young people. However, once young people were excluded because of missing data problems with annual household income in the previous tax year (unless they belonged to a 'vulnerable group'), it was possible to follow up non-eligibles.

[e] DSS exclusion codes for Cohort 1 were applied after cases were selected from Child Benefit records. Whereas for the second cohort exclusions were applied prior to selecting the cases from Child Benefit records, exact information on DSS exclusions was not provided for the Cohort 2 sample.

* excluding DSS exclusions.

** excluding addresses with no young person and where no address details were available.

1.3.4 Weighting

The samples were originally designed to be representative of young people leaving school at the end of the academic years 1998/1999 and 1999/2000 in the pilot and control areas. However, the DWP required the exclusion of certain categories of young people from the sampling frame of Child Benefit records, prior to selection for the study. These exclusions resulted in a disproportionate loss of some young people with characteristics known to be associated with not staying on in full-time education.

Samples were drawn to be representative within the LEAs from which they were selected. However, different sampling strategies were used in urban and rural areas. Rural LEAs were oversampled in order to provide sufficient numbers for analysis. In consequence, when combining the rural and urban data, rural areas would be over-represented unless adjustments to reflect the actual population size in rural areas are made.

In order to correct for these potential sources of bias, and any arising from possible differences in initial non-response, weights were constructed using data from the Family Resources Survey (FRS) (see Annex A, for further details). The objective of the weights was to make the weighted distribution of the characteristics of young people included in the surveys in the pilot and control areas (referred to in what follows as the 'EMA samples'), reflect the corresponding distribution of similarly aged young people drawn from the FRS. Thus, greater weight would be given to responses of young people under-represented in the EMA sample compared to the FRS sample, and lesser weight to those correspondingly over-represented in the EMA sample.

Two sets of weights were derived, first, the pilot population weights designed to adjust the pilot and control samples to be representative of the overall pilot and control populations of the LEAs from which the data were drawn. These weights are most appropriate for standard analysis of the data.

The second set of 'national' population weights were designed to adjust the sample to the characteristics of England, with the caveat that the LEAs selected for the study were not chosen to be representative of the whole of England. The exclusion from the EMA sample of London, in particular, means that results using these weights are best regarded as indicative rather than conclusive.

The FRS is the best survey in which to observe similar aged individuals before they reached school leaving age, alongside characteristics such as parents' education, housing tenure and detailed income information. It is known from surveys such as the Youth Cohort Study that, once children reach 16 and leave education, they are much more likely to leave the family home and much harder to sample.

In order to augment the FRS sample sizes to derive population weights, data were used from five FRS samples between 1995 - 1996[8] and 1999 - 2000. In 1995 - 1996 10, 11 and 12 year olds were used for Cohort 2, and 11, 12 and 13 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1996 - 1997 11, 12 and 13 year olds were used for Cohort 2 and 12, 13 and 14 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1997 - 1998 12, 13 and 14 year olds were used for Cohort 2 and 13, 14 and 15 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1998 - 1999 13, 14 and 15 year olds were used for Cohort 2 and 14 and 15 year olds for Cohort 1. Finally in 1999 - 2000 14 and 15 year olds were used for Cohort 2 and 15 year olds for Cohort 1. This gave 14 groups for Cohort 2 and 12 groups for Cohort 1. Combining these groups produced sufficient sample sizes to calculate the numbers of young people in England with broad types of characteristics.

The FRS and EMA samples were split into 44 mutually exclusive groups based on household income:

- in receipt of means tested benefits; £30,000 or less and not on means tested benefit; more than £30,000 and not in receipt of means tested benefits (in 1999-2000 prices);
- urban/rural status (based on local council type);
- sex of child;
- whether at least one parent stayed past minimum school leaving age or not (2 groups);
- household size (five or more; less than five); and
- whether both parents were in the household (only for two large low income urban groups and two large medium income urban groups).

[8] The FRS sampling period covers the financial year period between April in one year and March the following year, hence the use of two successive years in the title.

All income variables were uprated (or downrated) to 1999-2000 prices. Population weights were derived for the pilot areas, the control areas and for the whole of England, for each of these 44 groups using the Households Below Average Income population weights that are contained in the FRS dataset. This information was then merged into the EMA database and individuals were allocated a weight by dividing the appropriate group weight by the number of people in each group in the EMA data. On the basis of this weighting, it was calculated that the Cohort 1 pilot sample represented about 36,775 girls and boys in all of the pilot areas of which around 27,002 were eligible for EMA. The corresponding figure for Cohort 2 was 37,938, of which 27,300 were eligible. If EMA operated throughout England, on the basis of the two cohorts in the sample, we estimate that there are just over 600,000 in each cohort and between 375,000 to 380,000 of these would be eligible for some EMA if they stayed in full-time education.

Weights were constructed using similar procedures both for Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 respondents. These FRS derived pilot and national population weights are applicable to the Wave 1 EMA data for the appropriate cohort. However, differential attrition between Waves 1 and 2 requires further adjustments to be made to the weighting of Wave 2 data. A non-response weight was devised by comparing the distribution of characteristics of Wave 2 respondents with Wave 1 respondents (unweighted) and adjusting the Wave 2 respondent characteristics so that they resembled those of the Wave 1 characteristics. A new (Wave 2) weight was then created, by multiplying the Wave 2 non-response weight by the Wave 1 weight. This procedure has been adopted in Chapters 4 and 5, which have used Wave 2 data.

1.3.5 Analytic strategy

Details of the analytic strategy in relation to the selection of control areas, matching with pilot areas and the individual matching procedures developed to take account of observed and unobserved compositional differences between the pilot and control areas can be found in last year's report[9].

[9] Ashworth et al. (2001), see Chapter 2 for further information on changes to the matched individual approach used between this report and the previous one.

The important points to note about the strategy are:

- The selection of LEA areas to participate in the EMA pilots was not random. Urban areas were chosen that were known to have relatively high levels of deprivation, low participation rates in post-16 education and low levels of attainment in Year 11 examinations. In other words, areas were chosen where EMA might be expected to have most impact. Other LEAs, displaying similar characteristics, were then chosen as control areas.
- Statistical techniques have been developed to ensure that individuals in the pilot areas are as alike as possible to those in the control areas in terms of characteristics that are known to be related to participation in post-16 education. In other words, differences have been controlled statistically using matching procedures at two levels:
  - At the LEA level to match pilot areas with control areas, both in selecting the control areas originally and then in allocating them across the different variants;
  - At the individual level to control for differences in the composition of the population in pilot and control areas.

The essence of the matched individuals approach is to achieve a control group where each individual is as alike to their counterpart in the pilot areas as is possible using observed characteristics. In effect, the aim is to simulate the outcome that would be expected had individuals been allocated randomly to the pilot[10] and control groups, i.e. the young people in the two groups would not be different from each other in any systematic way relevant to the outcome of interest.

This lack of systematic difference between the two groups is crucial only with respect to characteristics that are associated with the outcomes (participation, retention and achievement). Were the two groups different in terms of characteristics that are not associated with the outcomes, this would be unimportant for the analysis. However the exclusion, in the matching model, of variables associated with outcomes potentially could

[10] The same principle can be applied to matching individuals from two different EMA variants. However, individuals so matched will always differ from each other in the way that EMA is administered, so that if, e.g. LEA associated activities such as publicity and/or administrative efficiency affect the outcomes, the impact of the LEAs on the outcomes will differ between the two matched individual samples. Thus, the assumption is that LEAs in the control areas would operate in a manner similar to those in the pilot areas, with similar effects on the outcomes. In addition, when generalising to the national population, it is assumed that the practices of LEAs in the sample are representative of those that would occur in the national population.

have important effects. Hence, great care has been taken in selecting all known and available relevant variables for inclusion in the modelling.

Initial analysis showed that young people living in the pilot areas tended to be slightly more deprived, or were otherwise more likely to have characteristics associated with lower educational outcomes than were their counterparts living in the control areas. Hence, the use of a matched individual approach generally is preferable for the impact analysis of outcomes.

The impact analysis of outcomes is reported in Chapter 2, which describes the results of the matched individuals analysis of the effect of EMA on participation in post-16 education and in other post-16 destinations. The impact of EMA on retention of young people in post-16 education and the relative impacts of the four different variants of EMA are also discussed.

Chapter 3 moves away from the matched individuals approach to focus on individuals in the pilot areas in order to explore the process of claiming EMA and compares levels of awareness, applications and awards between the first two cohorts of young people potentially eligible for EMA.

Chapter 4 also focuses on young people in the pilot areas. It uses data from the second wave interviews of the first cohort to examine the level of re-applications for EMA, weekly payment stoppages and EMA retention bonus payments.

Finally, Chapter 5 uses data drawn from the second wave of interviews with young people from the first cohort in both pilot and control areas. It explores how participation in different types of post-16 courses varies between young people living in the pilot and control areas and gives an initial overview of Year 12 qualification attainment for those young people who had started and finished a post-16 course in Year 12. The number of young people who had finished a course at the end of Year 12 was relatively small and, for this reason, the use of a matched individual approach was deemed inappropriate. Hence, appropriately weighted comparisons were made between young people living in the pilot and control areas.

2 THE IMPACT OF EMA ON YOUNG PEOPLE'S DESTINATIONS

SUMMARY

- EMA significantly raised post-16 full-time education participation among eligible young people in Year 12 by around 5.9 percentage points.
- Across both eligible and ineligible young people EMA significantly raised post-16 full-time education participation in Year 12 by around 3.7 percentage points.
- This participation gap for eligible young people widened between Year 12 and Year 13 and appears largely driven by the significant impact of EMA on retention.
- Money paid to the young person was more effective in increasing both participation and retention.
- The most effective way to increase retention is to increase retention bonuses.
- If EMA were to be rolled out nationally, the estimated effects would not alter significantly.
- EMA has had a larger effect on young men than on young women.
- EMA only has a significant effect on young men and women who are eligible for the full amount of EMA.
- EMA was estimated to have had a significant impact in urban but not rural areas.
- EMA does not appear to have had any positive or negative spillover effects on ineligibles in pilot areas but, despite this, the overall effect on the entire population is significant and larger for young men than for young women.

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the quantitative impact of EMA on post-compulsory education and labour market destinations. Section 2.2 briefly discusses the methodology used for the quantitative analysis, describing important refinements that have been made in the propensity score matching technique since last year's report (Ashworth et al., 2001). Section 2.3 explores the impact of EMA on the Year 12 destinations of young people in both Cohort 1 and Cohort 2. First, the overall results are presented by gender and rural/urban status before a more detailed examination of each of these groups in turn. Secondly, the impact of EMA by eligibility type is analysed to see if the impact of EMA differs for those young people who

were eligible for a full EMA award and those who were only eligible for a partial award. Finally, matching on the whole population of young people (including those who are ineligible for EMA because their parents' income is too high) is undertaken so that the impact of EMA on Year 12 destinations can be estimated for all young people in the pilot areas.

Section 2.4 focuses on young people in Cohort 1 and examines the impact of EMA on Year 13 destinations. Year 13 destinations are explicitly linked to those in Year 12 to allow an estimate to be made of the impact of EMA on retention in full-time education, as well as of its impact on drawing people who were not in full-time education in Year 12 into full-time education one year later.

An important part of the evaluation involves assessing the comparative effectiveness of different variants of EMA in improving young people's participation in full-time education post-16. For this analysis a modified matching approach is used, rather than the more structured regression approach in last year's report. The results of this analysis are discussed in Section 2.5.

Finally, in Section 2.6, population weights, derived from the nationally representative Family Resources Survey, are used to re-weight the matched pilot sample so that estimates can be produced of the likely impact of EMA if it was rolled out nationally. These population weights give higher weights to groups which are not as prevalent in the pilot areas compared to the whole country and relatively low weights to groups of individuals who are more concentrated in the pilot areas than the country as a whole. These estimates, therefore, only take account of composition differences between the pilot areas and the country as a whole. They completely ignore any general equilibrium effects a national roll out may have on the labour market and economy. Nevertheless, they give important insights into how many people would be potentially affected by a roll out of the EMA and some clues as to whether the impact measured in the pilot areas is a true reflection of its likely national impact.

2.2 Methodological Approach

2.2.1 Propensity Score Matching

The same methodology has been used as in the first report of the statistical evaluation. This involves measuring the quantitative impact of EMA using a series of techniques which match

each individual in a pilot area to the individual or group of individuals closest to them in a control area, according to a weighted range of their personal and background characteristics and local area characteristics, including the quality of and distance to local schools. The aim of this matching approach is to construct control groups that are as similar to the pilot areas as possible.

Matching is based on the assumption that all differences relevant to the outcome of interest between those in a treatment (pilot) area and those in a control area can be accounted for by controlling for observable characteristics in the survey data. For matching to work, it is crucial that no factor (relevant to the outcome variable of interest), other than the observed characteristics controlled for, varies significantly between the pilot and the control areas.

Once matching is completed, the outcome for young people in the control group represents the outcome that the subjects in the pilot areas would have had, had they not been subjected to EMA. In other words, so long as only similar young people are compared, the control areas provide the *counterfactual* outcome for the pilots.

In this report, kernel density matching techniques are used. This matching procedure involves:

1. Estimating (using a probit model) the probability that each young person (both controls and pilot) lives in a pilot area. This probability is called the 'propensity score'.
2. In this model a wide range of background characteristics are controlled for (or matched on), including household income, parents' education, work status, early childhood outcomes, and earlier school outcomes[11]. In addition we match on detailed 1998 ward level measures of post-16 participation in education rates, measures of deprivation, and other economic indicators. A number of Year 11 school quality measures from the person's nearest comprehensive school are also used in matching[12].
3. For each young person in a pilot area a group of young people is found in the control areas who have a propensity score within 0.5 percentage points of the pilot young person.

[11] Specifically, this refers to Year 11 achievement in Maths and English GCSE exams.

[12] The ward level characteristics that we match on include indices of deprivation, education, health and employment. For more details see www.statistics.gov.uk/neighbourhood/home.asp.

The kernel weighted average[13] of the outcomes for this group provides the counterfactual outcome for the pilot young person.

4. All young people who cannot be matched in this way are dropped from the sample.
5. The impact of EMA on young people in pilot areas is the difference between their outcome and the counterfactual outcome.

The matching process needs to take place for each sub-sample of young people of interest, so that the correct counterfactual comparisons can be made. For the purposes of most of the analysis the pilot and control samples are matched by:

- eligibility (those estimated to be eligible for EMA on income grounds);
- gender; and
- urban and rural status.

This involves dividing the sample into four groups (eligible rural men, eligible rural women, eligible urban men, eligible urban women). The matching procedure described above is then conducted separately for each of these four groups. It should be noted that a young person in a control area can be used as a match for more than one young person in a pilot area.

2.2.2 Improvements to the matching technique since the first report

A number of improvements have been made to the matching technique used in last year's report. In the first report 'nearest neighbour' matching was used. This is less efficient than kernel density matching and can be more sensitive to the choice of what is a sufficiently close match (Heckman et al., 1997). Hence the standard errors used in the second report are generally smaller than those found with the nearest neighbour matching. The use of kernel matching also means that, compared with nearest neighbour matching, far fewer individuals are completely excluded from the analysis.

In addition, one major concern in last year's report was that there were no detailed measures of local area characteristics and school staying-on rates prior to the introduction of EMA. The key assumption for matching to work is that there are no other factors (relevant to the outcome variable of interest) which differ significantly between the pilot and the control

[13] Technically, this means that only those controls falling within a radius of 0.5 percentage points are used to construct the counterfactual for each given treated unit with more weight being given to those which are better matches within this radius. In this paper we use an 'Epanechnikov' kernel to do this kernel weighting.

areas. This would be violated if a control area had another policy to promote post-16 participation, or had better schools or colleges, or had individuals with some different unobserved propensity to undertake schooling.

Last year, information from the survey on older siblings (who went to school before EMA was introduced) of young people in our sample was used to try and estimate the likely magnitude of these unobserved area effects. This work suggested that rural results were probably over-estimates and urban results under-estimates in terms of the impact of EMA on full-time education participation. This year considerable time has been spent to incorporate ward level data from 1998 (before the EMA was introduced) as well as local Year 11 school quality information from 1999. With the inclusion of these data we are much more confident that the potential bias associated with such unobserved area effects has been minimised. Indeed, the pilot and control areas were found to vary significantly on a number of these measures, such as ward level deprivation scores and various potential indicators of the quality of their nearest school.

Perhaps most crucial is the finding that previous levels of (ward level) participation in post-16 education were lower in the urban pilot areas than the urban control areas and higher in the rural pilot areas than the rural control areas. This is consistent with the evidence presented in the first report which suggested that previous results would tend to under estimate the effect of the EMA on participation in post 16 education in the urban areas but over-estimate it in the rural areas. While area effects over and above the ones controlled for here may still be present, there is no reason to believe that the results are biased in any particular direction (unlike the first report).

2.2.3 Weighting the data

The basic strategy used to construct the weights has been described in Section 1.3.4, and more fully in Annex A. In Sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5, weights have been used that adjust the EMA matched individual sample to be representative of the population of young people living in the pilot areas (using 'pilot population' weights). To recapitulate, these weights adjust for:

- the likelihood of non-random response;
- exclusions which were placed on the original sample drawn from Child Benefit records; and

- the different proportions of the population sampled in the rural sample compared to the urban sample which meant that overall averages of the results under-weighted urban areas.

In Section 2.6, national population weights for the whole of England have been applied. These weights might be important since the pilot areas have, on average, lower participation rates than the English average which might suggest that EMA will have a different effect in the pilot areas than in the rest of the country. If these differences are reflected in the characteristics used to calculate the weights, then we will be able to estimate the effect of EMA if it were to be rolled out nationally. If, however, the effects of these characteristics are different in our pilot areas and other areas not in the pilot (for example London), then our procedure will not correct for this. Similarly, if there are influential characteristics not included in the weights, which differ between pilot and non-pilot areas, these will not be adjusted for. It should also be noted though that doing this ignores any 'general equilibrium' effects - such as on young person's labour market opportunities.

2.3 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destinations

2.3.1 Introduction

This section discusses results from the kernel density matching of young people in the pilot and control areas. In the matched samples, the difference in average participation rates in post-16 full-time education between pilot area young people and their chosen controls can be attributed to the impact of EMA, since all other relevant observable background factors were taken into account by the matching. This estimate was calculated for the entire EMA eligible population, regardless of whether or not young people had actually taken up EMA. Thus the estimate does not assume that everyone was taking up EMA. Hence, when the effect for different groups of individuals is estimated, different rates of take-up within a group may impact on the estimate. A related paper has shown that there is considerable variation in take-up across the different variants and between urban and rural areas (Dearden et al., 2002)[14].

The sample was again divided into those who were estimated to be eligible and those who were ineligible for EMA in both the pilot and control areas. This was done in the same way as for

[14] In particular this research shows that take-up was lowest in Variant 3 where EMA is paid to the primary carer rather than the young person.

the first report and is fully described in Appendix A.3.1.2 of the first quantitative report. It essentially involved defining individuals as eligible if they were receiving any means tested benefit or if their gross taxable family income was less than or equal to £30,000 in the previous financial year.

As described in the previous section, the basic matching approach involved separately matching:

- EMA eligible urban young men in pilot areas with eligible urban young men in control areas;
- EMA eligible urban young women in pilot areas with eligible urban young women in control areas;
- EMA eligible rural young men in pilot areas with eligible rural young men in control areas; and
- EMA eligible rural young women in pilot areas with eligible rural young women in control areas.

This separate matching is necessary if the differential impact of EMA on these groups is to be estimated (to ensure the composition of the relevant control group is directly comparable).

2.3.2 Overall results

Table 2.1 shows estimates of the overall impact of EMA on young people's initial decisions to remain in full-time education (FT Education), to move into full-time employment and/or full-time work based training (Work/Training)[15] or to become NEET which is defined here as not in full-time education, full-time employment or full-time work based training[16]. These three groups are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. These results combine Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 and young men and young women together. The EMA effect has been estimated separately for urban and rural areas and using both matched and unmatched samples[17]. The effects were estimated using pilot population weights. In Table B.1 in Annex B, the corresponding estimates are given if unweighted data are used.

[15] In the unmatched sample 56.3 per cent of young people in full-time work in the pilot areas reported that they received training compared to 55.4 per cent in the control areas.

[16] This includes young people who gave their main activity as part-time education and those who said they were doing part-time work.

[17] Unmatched samples refer to just the mean of the relevant variable across the entire subgroup of interest. For example in unmatched samples the average participation in education among Cohort 1 urban women in all the pilot areas is compared with the mean in all the control areas.

EMA has had a positive and significant effect on post-compulsory education participation among eligible young people. The overall estimate for both rural and urban areas, combining Cohorts 1 and 2, is 5.9 percentage points. The effect is broadly similar in both rural (6.1 percentage points) and urban areas (5.8 percentage points). The findings in Table 2.1 also highlight the importance of matching and it is apparent from the unmatched results that the impact of EMA would have been under-estimated in urban areas (by 1.6 percentage points) and over-estimated in rural areas (by 2.5 percentage points) if matching had not taken place.

It should be noted that the standard errors on the rural results are quite high and, in particular, much higher than in our first report. This is a direct result of the new ward level local area characteristics that we match on and in particular, the difficulty in finding satisfactory matches using these new characteristics for individuals in Cornwall, the only rural pilot area. However, this more stringent matching procedure has resulted in an estimated EMA impact in the rural area that is no longer statistically significantly different from a zero impact. This contrasts with the significant impact for the rural area reported in the first year report (Ashworth et al., 2001). It is difficult to decide if the estimate reflects a true rural impact of zero or if the technical difficulties associated with having only a single rural LEA, and the consequent difficulties of matching observations at the ward level, are obscuring a true non-zero impact.

Table 2.1 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Location – pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban Results					
FT Education	69.5	65.3	69.9	64.0	5.8
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.8)			(1.2)
Work/Training	14.4	16.2	14.3	17.8	-3.6
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.6)			(1.0)
NEET	16.1	18.5	15.8	18.1	-2.3
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.6)			(1.0)
Sample size	7,266	3,607	7,111	7,111	
Population size	48,498	50,855	48,498	48,498	
Rural Results					
FT Education	83.1	74.5	83.7	77.6	6.1
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.0)			(3.4)
Work/Training	8.5	13.6	8.3	10.5	-2.3
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.8)			(2.4)
NEET	8.4	11.9	8.0	11.8	-3.8
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.7)			(2.7)
Sample size	2,076	1,936	1,812	1,812	
Population size	5,804	5,628	5,804	5,804	
Total					
FT Education	71.0	66.3	71.3	65.5	5.9
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.6)			(1.1)
Work/Training	13.8	15.9	13.7	17.1	-3.4
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.5)			(0.9)
NEET	15.3	17.8	15.0	17.4	-2.4
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.5)			(0.9)
Sample size	9,342	5,543	8,923	8,923	
Population size	54,301	56,484	54,301	54,301	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications.

It is clear that this increase in post-compulsory education participation has drawn young people from both employment and the NEET groups in both urban and rural areas. Table 2.2 provides a breakdown of the results for each cohort. Again the results are weighted to the population in the pilot areas. Annex B Table B.2 provides results which are weighted to the English population. The effect of EMA on education participation at Year 12 is found to be larger in the first cohort (7.1 percentage points) compared to the second cohort (4.6

percentage points), although this difference is not statistically significant. This is due to an increase between the cohorts in participation in education and a corresponding fall in the proportion in work or training in the control areas.

Table 2.2 Impact of EMA on all Eligible Young People by Cohort – pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1					
FT Education	70.7	65.7	71.2	64.1	7.1
(S.E)	(0.7)	(0.9)			(1.6)
Work/Training	14.2	15.5	14.1	18.5	-4.5
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.7)			(1.4)
NEET	15.1	18.8	14.7	17.4	-2.6
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.7)			(1.3)
Sample size	4,716	2,844	4,464	4,464	
Population size	27,000	27,226	27,000	27,000	
Cohort 2					
FT Education	71.3	66.9	71.5	66.9	4.6
(S.E)	(0.7)	(0.9)			(1.6)
Work/Training	13.3	16.3	13.3	15.7	-2.4
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.7)			(1.3)
NEET	15.4	16.9	15.2	17.4	-2.2
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.7)			(1.3)
Sample size	4,626	2,699	4,459	4,459	
Population size	27,297	26,550	27,297	27,297	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications.

The impact of EMA is now examined in more detail by gender and cohort.

2.3.3 Urban young men

Last year's report estimated that the impact of EMA on urban young men in Cohort 1 was 4.6 percentage points. The report also suggested that this was probably an underestimate, possibly by as much as six percentage points, due to unobserved local area effects.

The results in Table 2.3 appear to corroborate this. Matching on a host of local area characteristics changes the estimated impact of EMA on post-compulsory education participation among young men in urban areas to 10.6 percentage points. This increase has been largely drawn from work/training, although some has been drawn from the NEET group.

For Cohort 2 the estimated impact is only 3.3 percentage points for urban young men, this result is not statistically significantly different from zero. The decline is largely the result of a 5.0 percentage point increase in post-compulsory education participation by young men in the urban control areas. This is the result of a fall in the proportion who are in work and work-based training. The proportion who are in the NEET group has increased between Cohorts 1 and 2. When both cohorts are combined, it is estimated that EMA has increased education participation rates for eligible urban young men by around 6.9 percentage points.

Table 2.3 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: Eligible Urban Young Men, by Cohort - pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		**Matched Sample**		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1					
FT Education	68.5	62.7	68.7	58.0	10.6
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.6)			(2.4)
Work/Training	17.1	18.5	17.0	25.3	-8.3
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.3)			(2.3)
NEET	14.4	18.8	14.3	16.6	-2.4
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.3)			(1.8)
Sample size	1,795	924	1,746	1,746	
Cohort 2					
FT Education	66.2	62.0	66.3	63.0	3.3
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.6)			(2.5)
Work/Training	17.2	19.8	17.2	18.6	-1.4
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.3)			(2.0)
NEET	16.6	18.1	16.6	18.4	-1.9
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.3)			(2.0)
Sample size	1,818	878	1,802	1,802	1,802
All Urban Young Men					
FT Education	67.3	62.4	67.4	60.6	6.9
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.1)			(1.7)
Work/Training	17.2	19.1	17.1	21.9	-4.8
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.9)			(1.5)
NEET	15.5	18.5	15.4	17.5	-2.1
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.9)			(1.3)
Sample size	3,613	1,802	3,548	3,548	3,548

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.3.4 Urban young women

Results for urban young women are shown in Table 2.4. For Cohort 1, it is estimated that EMA increased post-compulsory education participation by around 3.6 percentage points though this is not significant at conventional levels. This is almost identical to the estimate reported last year (3.9 percentage points).

It is clear that, for Cohort 1, EMA had a larger effect on young urban men than young urban women. However, this difference is not significant at conventional levels. Nevertheless, it is important to remember that young women in the control group have significantly higher participation rates than young men in the control group (by around 9 percentage points on average) and, indeed, are known to have higher post-16 participation rates nationally. The results suggest, therefore, that, for Cohort 1, EMA may have played an important role in closing this substantial gap between young men's and young women's participation in post-16 full-time education in the pilot areas.

For Cohort 2 young women, the estimated impact of EMA on education participation is much larger than for those in Cohort 1, and also larger than for Cohort 2 young men (although none of these differences are statistically significant). The estimates suggest that EMA has increased education participation among eligible urban young women in Cohort 2 by around 6.0 percentage points. Interestingly, for young women, there was no large increase in the participation rates of those in control areas, as was the case for young men.

Table 2.4 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: Eligible Urban Young Women, by Cohort - pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1					
FT Education	70.0	66.4	70.7	67.0	3.6
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.6)			(2.3)
Work/Training	12.6	13.1	12.5	13.1	-0.7
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.1)			(1.8)
NEET	17.4	20.5	16.9	19.8	-3.0
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.3)			(2.1)
Sample size	1,832	925	1,767	1,767	
Cohort 2					
FT Education	73.6	70.3	74.0	68.0	6.0
(S.E)	(1.0)	(1.5)			(2.4)
Work/Training	10.6	13.3	10.6	14.7	-4.1
(S.E)	(0.7)	(1.1)			(1.9)
NEET	15.8	16.4	15.4	17.3	-1.9
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.3)			(2.0)
Sample size	1,821	880	1,796	1,796	
All Urban Young Women					
FT Education	71.8	68.2	72.3	67.5	4.8
(S.E)	(0.7)	(1.1)			(1.7)
Work/Training	11.6	13.2	11.6	13.9	-2.3
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.8)			(1.3)
NEET	16.6	18.6	16.2	18.6	-2.4
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.9)			(1.5)
Sample size	3,653	1,805	3,563	3,563	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.3.5 Rural young men

The estimated impact of EMA on rural young men's Year 12 education participation is 8.4 percentage points for Cohort 1 and 6.1 percentage points for Cohort 2 (Table 2.5). For Cohort 1, this was entirely drawn from work/training rather than the NEET group but, for Cohort 2, was drawn from both groups. The estimate for Cohort 1 is lower than reported last year (10.9 percentage points), confirming our suspicion that the impact for rural young men was being over-estimated because of unobserved area effects. None of these rural estimates are significant at conventional levels. Thus, while matching on these new ward level characteristics produces results much more in line with what was anticipated, it does so at the expense of precision.

Table 2.5 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: Eligible Rural Young Men, by Cohort - pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1					
FT Education	80.2	72.1	81.7	73.4	8.4
(S.E)	(1.7)	(2.1)			(8.4)
Work/Training	10.7	19.7	10.4	21.2	-10.8
(S.E)	(1.3)	(1.8)			(8.1)
NEET	9.1	8.1	7.8	5.4	2.5
(S.E)	(1.2)	(1.3)			(3.6)
Sample size	550	474	482	482	
Cohort 2					
FT Education	80.6	70.9	81.0	74.9	6.1
(S.E)	(1.8)	(2.1)			(6.5)
Work/Training	8.4	13.7	8.0	11.8	-3.8
(S.E)	(1.3)	(1.6)			(4.1)
NEET	11.0	15.4	11.0	13.3	-2.3
(S.E)	(1.4)	(1.7)			(5.3)
Sample size	491	469	425	425	
All Rural Young Men					
FT Education	80.4	71.4	81.3	74.2	7.1
(S.E)	(1.2)	(1.5)			(5.2)
Work/Training	9.4	16.3	9.1	15.9	-6.8
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.2)			(4.2)
NEET	10.2	12.3	9.7	9.9	-0.3
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.1)			(3.4)
Sample size	943	1,041	907	907	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.3.6 Rural young women

EMA is estimated to have increased post-compulsory full-time education for rural young women by around 7.1 percentage points for Cohort 1 and 3.3 percentage points for Cohort 2 (Table 2.6). It appears that, for rural women, this increase was drawn almost entirely from the NEET group. Again, none of these gains are significantly different from zero at conventional levels.

Table 2.6 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: Eligible Rural Young Women, by Cohort - pilot weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1					
FT Education	86.2	79.7	87.2	80.0	7.1
(S.E)	(1.5)	(1.8)			(6.0)
Work/Training	7.2	9.0	6.8	8.0	-1.2
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.3)			(4.1)
NEET	6.6	11.3	6.0	11.9	-5.9
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.4)			(4.8)
Sample size	539	521	469	469	
Cohort 2					
FT Education	84.6	75.0	84.3	80.9	3.3
(S.E)	(1.6)	(2.0)			(6.7)
Work/Training	8.1	13.2	8.4	4.0	4.4
(S.E)	(1.2)	(1.6)			(3.3)
NEET	7.3	11.8	7.4	15.0	-7.7
(S.E)	(1.2)	(1.5)			(6.3)
Sample size	496	472	436	436	
All Rural Young Women					
FT Education	85.4	77.3	85.7	80.5	5.2
(S.E)	(1.1)	(1.3)			(4.5)
Work/Training	7.7	11.2	7.6	6.0	1.6
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.0)			(2.6)
NEET	6.9	11.5	6.7	13.5	-6.8
(S.E)	(0.8)	(1.0)			(4.0)
Sample size	1,035	993	905	905	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.3.7 Eligibility for full or partial EMA awards

As Chapter 3 will show, only just over half of eligible young people in Cohort 2 and three-fifths in Cohort 1 were eligible for the maximum amount of weekly EMA available in their area. The remainder of successful applicants for EMA would have received an amount below the maximum to a minimum of £5 per week. This section distinguishes between partial and full eligibility (rather than receipt) to see if the impact of EMA differs by whether a person was fully or only partially eligible. For this analysis, young people were also matched within eligibility group, which results in the sample being slightly smaller than for the earlier results.

Among those who were estimated to be eligible for a full EMA award, EMA increased full-time education participation in Year 12 by 7.5 percentage points for young men and 4.7 percentage points for young women (Table 2.7). For those estimated to be eligible for only a partial award, the corresponding figures are 3.2 percentage points and 5.5 percentage points, but neither of these effects are significant at conventional levels[18].

Table 2.7 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Gender and Amount of EMA - pilot weights

Per cent

	Young Men			Young Women		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Fully Eligible						
FT Education	67.4	59.9	7.5	70.2	65.5	4.7
(S.E)			(2.2)			(2.1)
Work/Training	15.5	20.9	-5.4	11.0	13.8	-2.8
(S.E)			(1.9)			(1.6)
NEET	17.0	19.1	-2.1	18.8	20.7	-1.9
(S.E)			(1.8)			(1.7)
Sample size	2,437	2,437		2,490	2,490	
Population size	16,932	16,932		17,347	17,347	
Partially eligible						
FT Education	71.1	67.9	3.2	80.0	74.5	5.5
(S.E)			(3.6)			(3.3)
Work/Training	17.9	22.0	-4.1	11.2	12.0	-0.8
(S.E)			(3.1)			(2.3)
NEET	11.0	10.1	0.9	8.8	13.5	-4.7
(S.E)			(2.6)			(2.7)
Sample size	1,706	1,706		1,648	1,648	
Population size	9,957	9,957		10,060	10,060	
All Eligibles						
FT Education	68.8	62.9	5.9	73.8	68.8	5.0
(S.E)			(1.9)			(1.8)
Work/Training	16.4	21.3	-4.9	11.1	13.1	-2.0
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.3)
NEET	14.8	15.8	-1.0	15.1	18.0	-2.9
(S.E)			(1.5)			(1.5)
Sample size	4,143	4,143		4,138	4,138	
Population size	26,889	26,889		27,407	27,407	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

[18] The overall increase in full-time education rates, when combined, for young men and women eligible for a partial award was 4.3 percentage points (with a standard error of 2.4 per cent) (Table B.10). This difference is significant ($P<0.05$) using a one-tailed hypothesis, which arguably is acceptable, as we are predicting that EMA will increase participation in full-time education rather than decrease it.

2.3.8 Impact of EMA on eligible and ineligible young people

In all the results discussed so far, the focus has been solely on young people who were eligible for EMA because of parental income. It is of policy interest, however, to know what impact EMA has had on the entire population of young people, including those who were ineligible on income grounds. This could be done by assuming that EMA has no effect on participation among ineligible young people and simply using the eligibility rates to calculate this figure.

It could be the case, however, that EMA has spillover effects (positive or negative) on the ineligible population as well and these would be missed if a zero effect was simply assumed (see further Chapter 4). Instead, ineligible as well as eligible young people have been matched so that the overall impact of EMA can be obtained. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 2.8. These are weighted to the population in the pilot areas. Annex B Table B.3 provides the results when the sample is weighted to the English population instead.

EMA is estimated to have increased overall urban participation rates by 4.1 percentage points for young men and 3.0 percentage points for young women, although this impact for women is not significant at conventional levels. The corresponding figures for the rural areas are 5.7 percentage points for young men and 3.6 percentage points for young women. Again neither of these rural results are significant. The results again suggest that the EMA may be playing an important role in reducing the gender gap in overall Year 12 full-time education participation rates. Comparing the magnitude of the results for the eligible population with the magnitude of the effect on both the ineligible and eligible groups combined provides no evidence of any positive or negative spillover effects of EMA.

Table 2.8 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible and Ineligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Location and Gender - pilot weights

Per cent

	Young Men	Young Women	Overall
Urban			
FT Education	4.1	3.0	3.5
	(2.4)	(2.4)	(1.7)
Work/Training	-2.7	-1.6	-2.2
	(2.2)	(1.7)	(1.4)
NEET	-1.4	-1.3	-1.4
	(1.6)	(1.9)	(1.2)
Sample size	4,528	4,511	9,039
Population size	33,551	33,181	66,732
Rural			
FT Education	5.7	3.6	4.6
	(5.0)	(4.6)	(3.4)
Work/Training	-6.5	1.4	-2.4
	(4.0)	(2.8)	(2.4)
NEET	0.7	-5.0	-2.2
	(3.4)	(3.8)	(2.6)
Sample size	1,022	997	2,019
Population size	3,868	4,108	7,976
All			
FT Education	4.3	3.0	3.7
	(2.2)	(2.2)	(1.6)
Work/Training	-3.1	-1.3	-2.2
	(2.0)	(1.5)	(1.3)
NEET	-1.2	-1.7	-1.5
	(1.4)	(1.8)	(1.1)
Sample size	5,550	5,508	11,058
Population size	37,419	37,289	74,708

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.4 Impact of EMA on Year 13 Destinations

2.4.1 Introduction

So far the analysis in this chapter has concentrated on the impact of EMA on initial destinations in Year 12. Clearly of key interest to policy makers is whether EMA has lasting impacts on retention in full-time education, further down the line on educational achievement and, ultimately, labour market success. This section, focuses on Cohort 1 and examines their

destinations in Year 13, one year after the introduction of EMA. However, first the possible impact of sample attrition on the results needs to be considered.

2.4.2 Overall results

Table 2.9 examines individuals in Cohort 1 who did not leave the sample between the first and second interview and shows their activity at the time of the Year 12 and the Year 13 interview. Again these results are calculated by weighting to the population in the pilot areas. Results weighted to the entire English population are contained in Annex B Table B.4. The effect of using this reduced sample on estimates of the impact of EMA in Year 12, compared to the estimates obtained in Section 2.2 gives some insight into whether estimates of the impact of EMA in Year 13 could also be affected by the problem of attrition. Next four mutually exclusive outcomes are defined based on activity at the time of interview:

- education in Year 12 and education in Year 13;
- education in Year 12 and other activity in Year 13;
- other activity in Year 12 and education in Year 13; and finally,
- other activities in both Year 12 and Year 13.

The results from this division are presented in Table 2.10 and enable the results in Table 2.9 to be further disentangled.

Focusing first on the results in Table 2.9, the overall estimated impact of EMA on full-time education participation in Year 12 is 5.7 percentage points, compared to 7.1 percentage points in Table 2.2. The control area participation rate is 70.1 per cent, which is considerably higher than the 64.1 per cent reported in Table 2.2. This shows that attrition is related to full-time education participation and our re-weighting cannot fully take this into account[19]. Young people who are more likely to remain in education are also more likely to be re-interviewed in subsequent waves.

[19] The results from our unweighted data show an even bigger difference in the staying-on rates between those who left and those who did not leave the sample in control areas.

What is interesting from Table 2.9 is that the impact of EMA on full-time education participation in Year 13 was greater than in Year 12 (although the difference between years is not statistically significant). For urban areas, the gap widened from 5.2 percentage points to 6.7 percentage points. For rural areas the gap widened from 10.8 percentage points to 13.0 percentage points. This suggests that EMA was not only having a positive impact on Year 12 education participation, but also on retention and/or drawing young people who were not in education in Year 12 back into education in Year 13.

Table 2.9 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version I: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Location - pilot weights

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban						
FT Education	74.6	69.4	5.2	62.8	56.0	6.7
(S.E)			(2.1)			(2.3)
Work/Training	13.1	15.3	-2.1	21.3	27.3	-6.0
(S.E)			(1.6)			(2.1)
NEET	12.2	15.3	-3.1	15.9	16.6	-0.7
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.7)
Sample size	2,497	2,497		2,497	2,497	
Rural						
FT Education	87.0	76.2	10.8	77.4	64.4	13.0
(S.E)			(6.1)			(6.4)
Work/Training	6.6	18.6	-11.9	13.2	31.5	-18.3
(S.E)			(5.6)			(6.2)
NEET	6.4	5.2	-1.1	9.4	4.1	5.3
(S.E)			(3.6)			(3.2)
Sample size	708	708		708	708	
All Areas						
FT Education	75.9	70.1	5.7	64.2	56.9	7.3
(S.E)			(2.0)			(2.1)
Work/Training	12.5	15.6	-3.1	20.5	27.7	-7.2
(S.E)			(1.6)			(2.0)
NEET	11.6	14.3	-2.7	15.3	15.4	-0.1
(S.E)			(1.5)			(1.6)
Sample size	3,205	3,205		3,205	3,205	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table 2.10 shows the impact of EMA based on the division of the population into the four mutually exclusive groups described above. The increase in the impact of EMA from Year 12 to Year 13 was entirely due to its impact on retention. In fact, more young people were drawn into education in Year 13 from other activities in Year 12 in control areas than in pilot areas, although this difference is not statistically significant. These results are weighted to the population in the pilot areas. The corresponding results when the sample is weighted to the entire English population instead are in Annex B Table B.5.

Table 2.10 also shows how EMA has affected education retention rates, defined as the proportion of those in full-time education in Year 12 who were still in full-time education in Year 13. EMA increased retention rates by 3.9 percentage points in urban areas (from 77.2 per cent to 81.1 per cent) and 6.4 percentage points in rural areas (from 80.8 per cent to 87.2 per cent). This was despite the higher education participation rates experienced in Year 12 as a result of the EMA. The remainder of this section looks in more detail at what is driving these results by examining each sub-group in turn.

Table 2.10 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Location - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	60.5	53.6	6.9
(S.E)			(2.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.1	15.8	-1.7
(S.E)			(1.8)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.2	2.4	-0.2
(S.E)			(0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	23.2	28.2	-5.0
(S.E)			(2.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.1	77.2	3.9
(S.E)			
Sample size	2,497	2,497	
Rural			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	75.9	61.6	14.3
(S.E)			(6.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.1	14.6	-3.5
(S.E)			(4.2)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.5	2.8	-1.3
(S.E)			(2.3)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.5	21.0	-9.5
(S.E)			(5.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	87.2	80.8	6.4
(S.E)			
Sample size	708	708	
All Areas			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	62.1	54.5	7.6
(S.E)			(2.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.8	15.7	-1.9
(S.E)			(1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.1	2.4	-0.3
(S.E)			(0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.0	27.4	-5.4
(S.E)			(1.9)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.8	77.6	4.2
(S.E)			
Sample size	3,205	3,205	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Standard Errors for the retention rate could not be bootstrapped.

2.4.3 Urban young men

The proportion of urban young men in education in both Year 12 and Year 13 was 9.8 percentage points higher in pilot areas than in control areas and this can be attributed to EMA (Table 2.11). Retention rates for urban young men in Year 13 were estimated to be 5.6 percentage points higher as a result of EMA.

Table 2.11 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Urban Young Men from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**
Education Y12 → Education Y13	59.6	49.8	9.8
(S.E)			(3.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.9	16.2	-2.3
(S.E)			(2.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.5	3.0	-1.5
(S.E)			(1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	25.0	31.0	-6.0
(S.E)			(3.0)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.1	75.5	5.6
(S.E)			
Sample size	1,209	1,209	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Standard Errors for the retention rate could not be bootstrapped.

2.4.4 Urban young women

The same pattern was observed for urban young women (Table 2.12) although the important results are no longer significant. EMA is estimated to have increased the proportion of urban young women staying in education in both Years 12 and 13 by 4.2 percentage points. EMA has also had a positive impact on retention in Year 13, despite all the extra young people who were drawn into full-time education in the pilot areas in Year 12 as a result of EMA. It seems that the young people who were initially drawn in are staying in education, which is very encouraging.

Table 2.12 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Urban Young Women from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Education Y12 → Education Y13	61.4	57.3	4.2
(S.E)			(3.1)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.3	15.5	-1.2
(S.E)			(2.4)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.9	1.9	1.0
(S.E)			(0.9)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	21.4	25.3	-4.0
(S.E)			(2.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.1	78.7	2.4
(S.E)			
Sample size	1,288	1,288	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Standard Errors for the retention rate could not be bootstrapped.

2.4.5 Rural young men

For rural young men the story is slightly different. There was a very large increase in Year 12 participation as a result of EMA. At Year 13 this gap, although still large, was slightly smaller as retention has been lower (by 4.1 percentage points) in pilot areas compared to controls (Table 2.13), although this difference is not significant at conventional levels.

Table 2.13 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Rural Young Men from Cohort 1 who Remained in the Survey At Wave 2 - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Education Y12 → Education Y13	70.1	54.8	15.3
(S.E)			(11.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	12.8	7.0	5.8
(S.E)			(5.8)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.8	1.0	0.8
(S.E)			(2.2)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	15.3	37.2	-21.9
(S.E)			(11.9)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	84.6	88.7	-4.1
(S.E)			
Sample size	335	335	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Standard Errors for the retention rate could not be bootstrapped.

2.4.6 Rural young women

For rural young women, the numbers in full-time education in Year 12 and Year 13 increased by 13.6 percentage points, albeit this effect was not statistically significant. However, it was unfortunately not possible to determine the significance of the large point estimate of the impact of EMA on retention (12.4 percentage points) (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Rural Young Women from Cohort 1 who Remained in the Survey at Wave 2 - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Education Y12 → Education Y13	80.3	66.7	13.6
(S.E)			(7.9)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	9.8	20.3	-10.5
(S.E)			(5.9)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.2	4.1	-2.9
(S.E)			(3.6)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	8.7	8.0	-0.2
(S.E)			(4.9)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	89.1	76.7	12.4
(S.E)			
Sample size	373	373	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Standard Errors for the retention rate could not be bootstrapped.

2.4.7 Impact of EMA on eligible and ineligible young people

Whilst continuing to focus on Cohort 1 and the activities of young people at the time of their interview in Year 13, the analysis now examines all young people (eligible and ineligible for EMA), rather than only those who are eligible. Table 2.15 shows the activities of all young people from the first cohort who were interviewed in both Wave 1 and Wave 2. The participation rates for young people in Year 12 should be compared to those in Annex B Table B.6 which provide the figures for the whole of the first cohort regardless of whether they were re-interviewed in the second wave. Again results are weighted to the population of young people in the pilot areas. The results found when data are weighted to the population of England are provided in Annex B Table B.7.

As was the case when looking at just those young people who were eligible for EMA, attrition has not been random with respect to the young persons activity at Year 12 and this is not completely mitigated by the use of the FRS weights. Those who remain in the sample at the second wave were much more likely to be in education at Year 12 than those who had left the sample. For example 70.5 percent of young men in the control areas re-interviewed in the second wave were in education at their Year 12 interview, compared to 64.3 per cent across

the whole of the first cohort (as shown in Table B.6). The effect of the EMA on participation in education at Year 12 is estimated to be 4.5 percentage points among men and 2.4 percentage points among women, for those remaining in the sample, compared to 7.2 and 2.6 percentage points across the entire first cohort.

Again, as with the analysis looking just at those eligible for EMA, there is evidence that EMA has increased participation in education at Year 13. For young men, participation rates in Year 13 full-time education are 64.0 per cent in the pilot areas compared to 60.4 per cent in the control areas – a difference of 3.6 percentage points. For young women 70.6 per cent are in full-time education in the pilot areas at Year 13 compared to 65.7 per cent in the control areas – a difference of 4.9 percentage points. Further breakdowns of these results by location can be found in Annex B Tables B.8 and B.9.

Table 2.15 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: Eligibles and Ineligibles, Those in Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 Only - pilot weights, by gender

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
All Men						
FT Education	75.0	70.5	4.5	64.0	60.4	3.6
Work/Training	15.1	18.0	-2.9	23.4	27.6	-4.2
NEET	9.9	11.5	-1.6	12.6	12.0	0.6
Sample size	1,971	1,971		1,971	1,971	
All Women						
FT Education	80.2	77.8	2.4	70.6	65.7	4.9
Work/Training	9.6	9.9	-0.3	15.8	21.4	-5.6
NEET	10.2	12.4	-2.2	13.6	12.9	0.7
Sample size	2,028	2,028		2,028	2,028	
All People						
FT Education	77.6	74.2	3.4	67.4	63.1	4.3
Work/Training	12.3	13.9	-1.6	19.5	24.4	-4.9
NEET	10.1	12.0	-1.9	13.1	12.5	0.6
Sample size	3,999	3,999		3,999	3,999	

Note: Matched samples only. We have been unable to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

2.5 Comparing the Different Variants of EMA

2.5.1 Introduction

In this year's report, matching methods have also been used to compare the four variants of EMA described in Chapter 1. This is achieved by taking as the base all young people in the sample in the urban control areas. These are then matched to young people in the four different urban variants. This enables comparisons to be made across variants on the basis of the same set of control young people. Again the control young people have been re-weighted so that each of the 44 groups has the same weight as found in the FRS for similar aged individuals living in the pilot LEAs.

This approach is different from that taken in last year's report when a more structured regression approach was used to make comparisons across variants. The regression approach has the advantage of allowing estimates to be produced of how full-time education participation rates are affected for every additional pound of estimated EMA entitlement. However, the regression approach dictates that Variant 4 and Variant 2 must be better than Variant 1, because EMA entitlement enters linearly[20] (and positively). By using matching techniques the data are allowed to tell the story, making no assumptions about which variant should have the biggest effect. Matching was undertaken on two separate bases. The first base used 'non-overlapping samples', whereas the second base used 'overlapping samples' (see below for an explanation of these differences).

It is known from other parts of the evaluation (e.g. Chapter 3 of this report and Maguire et al., 2001a, 2002) that the administration and take-up of EMA is very different in each of the LEAs. These factors, as well as entitlement, will determine the impact of EMA. As these factors cannot be accounted for in the matching procedures, it is not possible to state with certainty the extent to which the EMA variant impacted upon the participation and retention outcomes compared to the effect exerted by other local influences.

[20] Even if we enter higher order terms in EMA entitlement this remains true.

2.5.2 Comparison of variants

Table 2.16 reports the results of this matching exercise with the non-overlapping samples, and suggests that:

- Variant 1 increased education participation by 8.4 percentage points;
- Variant 2 increased participation by 3.9 percentage points;
- Variant 3 increased participation by 5.1 percentage points; and
- Variant 4 increased participation by 8.3 percentage points[21].

However, the problem with the analysis of non-overlapping samples is that individuals in the control sample who were successfully matched to their counterparts in Variant 1 areas might have different characteristics to those control individuals successfully matched to the Variant 2 sample. As a result, any difference in EMA impact found between the two variants could be due to the variant itself or compositional differences in individual characteristics across areas (as well as to any LEA differences, as described above). This is true for the construction, and comparison, of all variants using this approach. For example, in Variant 2 a large proportion of the control sample was used whereas for Variant 4 a much smaller proportion was used.

[21] The overall effect on education participation using this methodology is 6.2 percentage points. This is very slightly higher than the 5.8 percentage point EMA effect in Table 2.1. The reason for the difference is that Table 2.16 is reporting the estimated effect of EMA, had it been introduced, on the individuals living in the control areas whereas most of our analysis looks at the effect on individuals living in the pilot areas. Since these individuals will, despite the matching process, have slightly different characteristics this will lead to slight differences in the effect found. The results are not statistically significantly different.

Table 2.16 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destinations: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Variant - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Variant 1			
FT Education	74.6	66.2	8.4
Work/Training	14.2	16.1	-1.9
NEET	11.2	17.7	-6.5
Sample size	2,875	2,875	
Variant 2			
FT Education	69.8	65.9	3.9
Work/Training	17.7	15.9	1.8
NEET	12.5	18.2	-5.7
Sample size	3,047	3,047	
Variant 3			
FT Education	70.0	64.9	5.1
Work/Training	16.4	16.7	-0.3
NEET	13.7	18.4	-4.7
Sample size	2,874	2,874	
Variant 4			
FT Education	73.5	65.2	8.3
Work/Training	12.6	17.4	-4.8
NEET	13.9	17.4	-3.5
Sample size	2,245	2,245	
All Eligibles			
FT Education	71.8	65.6	6.2
Work/Training	15.5	16.5	-1.0
NEET	12.8	18.0	-5.2
Sample size	11,041	11,041	

Note: Matched samples only. It has not been possible to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

The problem of differential composition in terms of individual characteristics between variants is overcome by presenting the results only for those control area young people who have been found matches in all four of the variants ('overlapping samples'). However, again it should be emphasised that differences in local LEA effects are not controlled for. The result of doing this is shown in Table 2.17 and suggests that the impact of:

- Variant 1 on full-time education participation was 10.2 percentage points;

- Variant 2 on full-time education was 4.7 percentage points;
- Variant 3 on full-time education participation was 5.4 percentage points; and
- Variant 4 on full-time education was 7.1 percentage points.

The story emerging from both Tables 2.16 and 2.17 is relatively consistent. The biggest impacts are found for Variant 1 (the core EMA variant) and Variant 4 (where larger retention bonuses were paid). However, it is not possible to state unequivocally that a higher weekly maximum award leads to lower participation, as suggested, using both overlapping and non-overlapping samples, by the low participation effect observed for Variant 2. It seems likely that local conditions such as the administration of EMA, which cannot be accounted for in the matching procedure, are exerting comparatively either a less strong upward, or a stronger downward, effect on the participation rate.

In addition, Table 2.17 also shows that the sample on which the common effect has been estimated is very small and this could have affected the results.

Table 2.17 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destinations: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Variant, Overlapping Sample - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Variant 1			
FT Education	74.8	64.6	10.2
Work/Training	14.6	19.0	-4.4
NEET	10.5	16.3	-5.8
Sample size	1,366	1,366	
Variant 2			
FT Education	69.3	64.6	4.7
Work/Training	18.4	19.0	-0.6
NEET	12.2	16.3	-4.1
Sample size	1,366	1,366	
Variant 3			
FT Education	70.0	64.6	5.4
Work/Training	16.4	19.0	-2.6
NEET	13.7	16.3	-2.6
Sample size	1,366	1,366	
Variant 4			
FT Education	71.7	64.6	7.1
Work/Training	12.9	19.0	-6.1
NEET	15.3	16.3	-1.0
Sample size	1,366	1,366	
All Eligibles			
FT Education	71.4	64.6	6.8
Work/Training	15.6	19.0	-3.4
NEET	12.9	16.3	-3.4
Sample size	5,464	5,464	

Note: Matched samples only. It has not been possible to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

To increase sample sizes and ensure that outcomes are compared on the same group of young people in our control group, Table 2.18 presents a series of pairwise comparisons where Variant 1 is compared with each of the other three variants on a common sample. The results of this analysis shows that the impact of Variant 1 was larger than that for Variant 2 (7.4 percentage points compared to 3.5 percentage points), despite the fact that Variant 2 areas provide the highest maximum weekly payment of EMA. The impact of Variant 1 (9.6

percentage points) was twice as large as the impact of Variant 3 (4.8 percentage points) where EMA is paid to the parent rather than the young person. Finally the impact of Variant 1 (10.1 percentage points) was also larger than Variant 4 (7.8 percentage points) where additional bonuses are paid. However, again it was not possible to state unequivocally the extent to which these differences were caused by differences in the EMA variant or to local influences such as the administration and take-up of EMA.

Table 2.18 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destinations: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Variant, Pairwise Comparisons - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Variant 1 versus Variant 2 (overlapping sample)			
FT Education Variant 1	74.0	66.6	7.4
FT Education Variant 2	70.1	66.6	3.5
Sample size	2,504	2,504	
Variant 1 versus Variant 3 (overlapping sample)			
FT Education Variant 1	74.9	65.3	9.6
FT Education Variant 3	70.1	65.3	4.8
Sample size	2,262	2,262	
Variant 1 versus Variant 4 (overlapping sample)			
FT Education Variant 1	74.7	64.6	10.1
FT Education Variant 4	72.4	64.6	7.8
Sample size	1,697	1,697	

Note: It has not been possible to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

These results appear to suggest that the most effective variant in terms of initial participation decisions is the core Variant 1 where a maximum of £30 per week is paid to the young person and bonuses are lower. It must be remembered, however, that only initial destinations have been examined and, if there were delays or problems in some of the pilot areas, an EMA variant effect may be being attributed to differences in administration. To explore this issue in more detail, we now concentrate on the impact of the different variants in Year 13, by which time some administrative problems might have been ironed out, although other locally based differential administrative practices that influence EMA might still be operative.

Table 2.19 shows the impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 destinations using an overlapping sample. In each variant the effect of EMA is compared with the effect of Variant 1. This allows the effect of each dimension of the variation to be investigated separately – for example the effect of higher bonuses or giving the weekly payments to the primary carer rather than the young person. The impact of Variant 1 on the proportion of individuals in full-time education in both Year 12 and Year 13 was 9.1 percentage points. The corresponding figure for Variant 2 was 7.4 percentage points, for Variant 3 5.2 percentage points and for Variant 4 10.2 percentage points. These results suggest that the variants where EMA is paid to the young person, were more effective in keeping young people in full-time education in both Year 12 and Year 13.

If the impact of EMA in different variants on retention rates is compared, the largest effect is for Variant 4 (9.5 percentage points) where larger bonuses are paid. Again, however, in Table 2.19 sample sizes are quite small because of the need to have an overlapping sample.

Table 2.19 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed In Wave 2, by Variant, Overlapping Sample - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Variant 1			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	66.6	57.5	9.1
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.3	12.2	1.1
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	0.5	0.8	-0.3
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.7	29.5	-9.8
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	83.3	82.5	0.8
Variant 2			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	64.9	57.5	7.4
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.2	12.2	-1.0
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.4	0.8	0.6
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.5	29.5	-7.0
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	85.3	82.5	2.8
Variant 3			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	62.7	57.5	5.2
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.7	12.2	-0.5
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.8	0.8	1.0
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	23.8	29.5	-5.7
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	84.3	82.5	1.8
Variant 4			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	67.7	57.5	10.2
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	5.9	12.2	-6.3
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	0.8	1.2
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	24.4	29.5	-5.1
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	92.0	82.5	9.5
Sample size	356	356	

Note: It has not been possible to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

To solve this problem, a series of pairwise comparisons were again undertaken, in which Variant 1 was compared to each of the other variants using a common sample. The results from this analysis are reported in Table 2.20 which shows that the impact on full-time education participation in Year 12 and Year 13 was very similar in Variants 1 and 2.

However, the impact on retention was larger in Variant 2 where higher weekly amounts of EMA are available. Comparing Variants 1 and 3, the impact of Variant 1 was slightly higher on both full-time education participation in Year 12 and 13 and on retention rates. Finally when Variants 1 and 4 are compared, the more generous bonuses in Variant 4 were associated with a higher proportion of individuals being in education in both Years 12 and 13, and a significantly larger retention rate. This suggests that the additional retention bonuses available in Variant 4 were having a significant effect on retention.

Table 2.20 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: All Eligible Young People From Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Variant, Pairwise Comparisons - pilot weights

Per cent

	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**
Variant 1 versus Variant 2 (overlapping sample)			
V1 Education Y12 → Education Y13	66.1	57.9	8.3
V1 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	12.8	13.4	-0.6
V1 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	83.8	81.2	2.6
V2 Education Y12 → Education Y13	65.0	57.9	7.1
V2 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.2	13.4	-2.2
V2 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	85.3	81.2	4.1
Sample size	854	854	
Variant 1 versus Variant 3 (overlapping sample)			
V1 Education Y12 → Education Y13	66.8	57.1	9.7
V1 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.8	14.0	-2.3
V1 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	85.0	80.3	4.7
V3 Education Y12 → Education Y13	64.5	57.1	7.5
V3 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	12.1	14.0	-1.9
V3 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	84.2	80.3	3.9
Sample size	726	726	
Variant 1 versus Variant 4 (overlapping sample)			
V1 Education Y12 → Education Y13	66.0	55.0	11.0
V1 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	12.4	14.3	-1.9
V1 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	84.2	79.4	4.8
V4 Education Y12 → Education Y13	68.5	55.0	13.5
V4 Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	6.4	14.3	-7.9
V4 Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	91.5	79.4	12.1
Sample size			

Note: It has not been possible to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

2.6 EMA and a National Roll-Out

In this final section of Chapter 2, population weights for the whole of England are used to estimate the likely impact of EMA if it were rolled out nationally. In order to do this, the pilot areas are simply re-weighted according to the 44 chosen weighting groups to match the English population. As discussed previously, any general equilibrium effects caused by a national roll-out, such as its effect on the labour market opportunities available to young people, are ignored. The weights used for the English population differ to those used for the pilot area populations because the pilot areas used in the evaluation of EMA are not representative of the characteristics of the English population.

The results shown in Table 2.21 are quite encouraging. They suggest that, if EMA was rolled-out nationally, the impact in urban areas on full-time education participation among eligible young people would be around 6.8 percentage points (compared to 5.8 per cent for the urban pilot areas) and 3.8 percentage points in rural areas (compared to 6.1 percentage points in the rural pilot area). The overall effect is estimated to be 5.9 percentage points which is identical to the effect estimated in the pilot areas. The likely impact of general equilibrium effects is not known, but it does appear that the different composition of the English population to that of the pilot areas will not significantly effect the estimates presented here.

Table 2.21 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Location - population weights

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban Results					
FT Education	70.4	66.0	70.8	64.0	6.8
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.8)			(1.2)
Work	13.8	15.8	13.8	18.0	-4.2
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.6)			(1.0)
NEET	15.7	18.2	15.5	18.1	-2.6
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.6)			(1.0)
Sample size	7,266	3,607	7,111	7,111	
Rural Results					
FT Education	80.9	71.2	81.3	77.5	3.8
(S.E)	(0.9)	(1.0)			(3.4)
Work	9.6	15.2	9.4	11.0	-1.6
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.8)			(2.5)
NEET	9.5	13.6	9.3	11.5	-2.2
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.8)			(2.5)
Sample size	2,076	1,936	1,812	1,812	
Total					
FT Education	73.6	67.6	74.0	68.1	5.9
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.6)			(1.3)
Work/Training	12.5	15.6	12.4	15.8	-3.4
(S.E)	(0.3)	(0.5)			(1.0)
NEET	13.8	16.8	13.6	16.1	-2.5
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.5)			(1.0)
Sample size	9,342	5,543	8,923	8,923	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

2.7 Conclusions

The results from this chapter suggest that EMA has significantly raised post-16 full-time education participation among eligible young people in Year 12 by around 5.9 percentage points and for the whole population (eligibles and ineligibles combined) by around 3.7 percentage points. The results also suggest that the participation gap for eligible young people widens between Year 12 and Year 13 and that this is largely driven by the significant impact EMA has on retention in education in Year 13 for those eligible young people who

were in education in Year 12. It also appears that the impact of EMA is only significant for those receiving the full amount. When the different variants are compared, there is evidence that money paid to the young person is more effective in increasing both education participation and retention in education in Year 13 for those who were in full-time education in Year 12. However, it is also clear that the most effective way to increase retention is to increase bonuses. The retention outcomes for Variant 4 individuals are significantly larger than for other groups. All of these measured effects, however, vary by gender, rural/urban status and cohort. Despite this, the analysis suggests that if EMA were to be rolled out nationally, the estimated effects would not alter significantly because of the different composition of the population of the pilot areas and England as a whole.

3 AWARENESS, APPLICATIONS AND RECEIPT OF EMA

Summary

- High levels of awareness of EMA amongst young people and their parents in the first year of operation had increased still further in the second year.
- In both years, young people in full-time education were much more likely to know about EMA than were young people doing something else.
- In the second year of EMA, young people not in full-time education were more likely to be aware of EMA than their counterparts in the first year.
- Amongst young people not in full-time education awareness of EMA was lower for young men and for young people eligible for a full award.
- Young people in Variant 3 LEAs (where payment of the weekly award was made to the parent) were least likely to be aware of EMA, whether they were in full-time education or not.
- Applications for EMA amongst young people in full-time education were comparatively high (about 83 per cent) in both the first and second year of EMA.
- Amongst young people not in full-time education, applications had increased in the second year, particularly amongst those in the NEET groups.
- The efficiency of LEAs in processing awards had improved overall in the second year of EMA, resulting in an increase in the number of awards made by the time of interview. This was particularly true for two LEAs that had performed comparatively poorly in the first year of EMA.
- Young people were unlikely to have appealed against a refusal or reapplied for an EMA, whether they were in full-time education or not, although appeals and re-applications were slightly higher in the second year of EMA.
- The vast majority of young people, parents and guardians and college and school representatives had signed Learning Agreements, although one LEA seemed to be less strict than others in enforcing this obligation.
- Young people were most likely to recall the condition in their Learning Agreement of full attendance on their chosen course.

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has shown the positive impact of EMA on participation rates in full-time education. In this chapter, we turn our attention to particular aspects of the process by which EMA might have made this impact. In order to be in receipt of EMA at the time of the interview, young people (and/or their parents) would have to know that EMA exists, have translated that awareness into a successful application, and signed a Learning Agreement with the education provider attended by the young person.

This section of the report examines issues of awareness, applications and receipt of EMA by young people at the time of their first interview, and recall of their Learning Agreement commitments. It is not possible to disentangle the nature of the relationship between a young person's decision to take-up EMA and to remain in full-time education. For some young people EMA will have been a primary factor in encouraging them to stay on, whereas for others who were intending to stay on anyway EMA will have been a bonus. However, a descriptive overview of components of the EMA application process provides a useful context that allows general inferences to be drawn.

First, the extent of awareness of EMA is important because, if levels are high, this suggests that publicity has been effective but that there is perhaps limited scope for encouraging more young people to stay on through further increases in awareness. Conversely, low levels of awareness imply poor publicity but, potentially, further participation gains among young people who are currently unaware of EMA.

Secondly, knowledge of levels of applications for EMA provides information about the popularity of the scheme and, thirdly, the pattern of applications and application outcomes amongst those who do not enter full-time education might offer clues to reasons for choosing their destinations. Differential patterns of application outcomes also show where there are difficulties with the administration of EMA.

Finally, completion of a Learning Agreement is a condition of receiving EMA. It sets out a number of requirements and goals that students must fulfil as a condition of continued receipt. The Learning Agreement can therefore be used as a means of exerting control over student recipients, but only if the link between receipt and the conditions of the Learning

Agreement is readily understood by young people. This is explored by examining students' recall of the conditions of the agreement.

The population of interest is eligible young people living in the pilot areas where EMA is available, hence the pilot samples of income-eligible young people in both Cohorts 1 and 2 have been analysed. The data are taken from the first waves of interviews with both cohorts.

As the EMA was in its second year of operation at the time of interview, young people in the second cohort had had much more time to become aware of and familiar with EMA. Comparisons are therefore made between young people interviewed in the second cohort and those interviewed at the same stage in the first year of the evaluation.

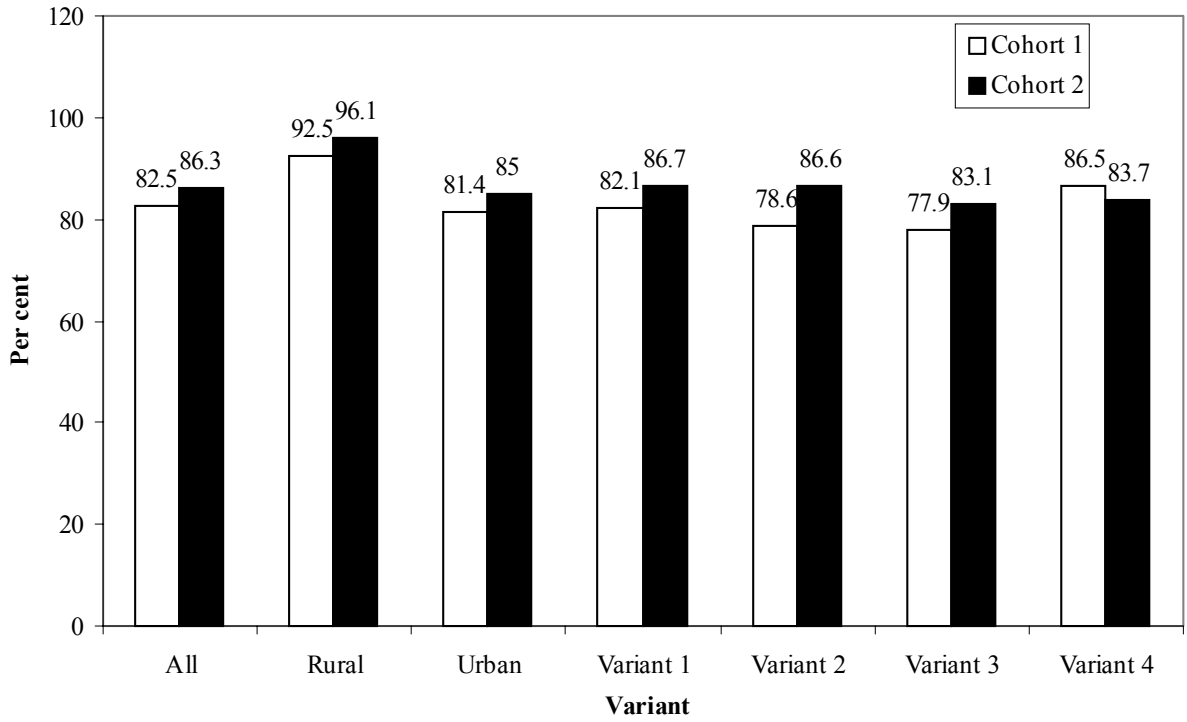
The analyses have been weighted using the pilot population weights, which adjust the achieved Cohort 1 and 2 samples to the population of young people in the pilot areas using data derived from the FRS (Section 1.3.4).

3.2 Awareness of EMA

3.2.1 Awareness among all eligible young people and parents or guardians

Young people and their parents were asked if they had heard of EMA. Overall, 86.3 per cent of young people in the second cohort had heard of it, a significant increase of 3.8 percentage points above the number who had heard of it in the first cohort (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 Awareness of EMA Among All Eligible Young People



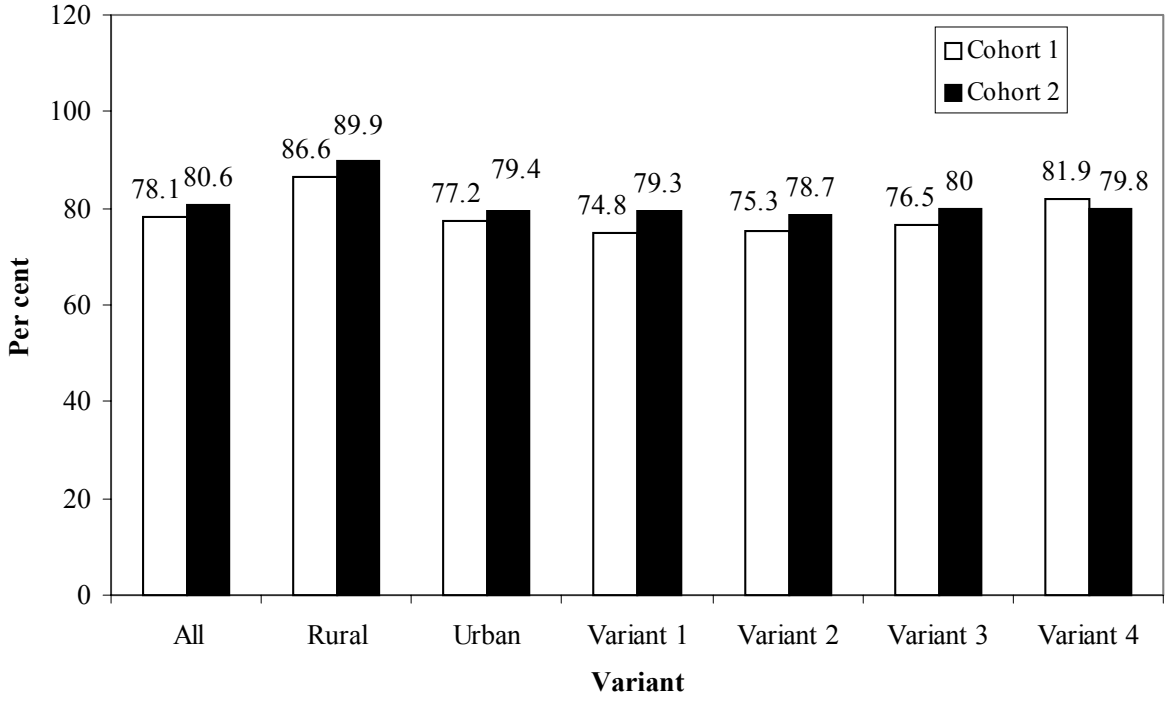
Bases: All income eligible young people living in pilot areas in Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N, for each bar from left to right respectively: 4716, 4627, 1089, 987, 3627, 3640, 908, 845, 877, 939, 873, 914, 969, 942).

Awareness had increased between Cohorts 1 and 2 by approximately the same extent in both urban and rural areas, but rural young people were much more likely to have heard about EMA than were those in urban areas. Among the urban areas, young people living where EMA was payable to the parent or guardian (Variant 3) were least likely to have heard of EMA in both Cohorts 1 and 2. However, even under this variant awareness had increased from 77.9 per cent to 83.1 per cent of young people. Awareness had increased to its greatest extent where the largest weekly award was payable (Variant 2), from 78.6 per cent to 86.6 per cent. In Variant 4, with larger retention and achievement bonuses, awareness of EMA had declined slightly between the two cohorts from 86.5 to 83.7 per cent, so that awareness was only slightly higher than in the Variant 3 areas.

Awareness of EMA amongst parents and guardians was comparatively high, 80.6 per cent in Cohort 2, which was a slight improvement over Cohort 1 (78.1 per cent) (Figure 3.2). However, knowledge of EMA had not percolated through to parents and guardians to quite the same extent as it had to young people. Almost 6 percentage points fewer parents and guardians had heard of EMA in Cohort 2 than had young people.

Parents and guardians in rural areas were more likely to be aware of EMA than were those in urban areas in both Cohort 1 and Cohort 2. Increases in awareness between Cohorts 1 and 2 were also larger in rural areas where awareness had increased by 3.3 percentage points, from 86.6 per cent in Cohort 1 to 89.9 per cent in Cohort 2. This compared with an increase of only 2.2 percentage point in urban areas. Within urban areas, awareness of EMA had declined slightly among parents and guardians in Variant 4 areas, alongside the decline already noted among young people. However, these parents and guardians (and young people), had been most likely to be aware of EMA in the first cohort, so that those living in other urban areas were catching up under Cohort 2. For the second cohort, awareness levels among parents were highest in Variant 3 areas where EMA is paid to the parent, where awareness levels among young people were lowest, if only by a small margin.

Figure 3.2 Awareness of EMA among Parents and Guardians



Bases: Parents and guardians of income eligible young people in Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N, for each bar from left to right respectively: 4716, 4627, 1089, 987, 3627, 3640, 908, 845, 877, 939, 873, 914, 969, 942).

3.2.2 Awareness by post-Year 11 destination

Young people in full-time education are likely to receive information and publicity about EMA from a number of sources, among which schools and colleges themselves will be

extremely important. Evidence for this can be seen in the vast majority of EMA eligible young people in full-time education who had heard of EMA, around 96 per cent in both the first and second cohorts (Table 3.1). Awareness of EMA was high across all variants for young people in full-time education, but slightly more had heard of it in rural than urban areas (approximately a 2.5 percentage point difference in each cohort). Awareness was lowest in Variant 1 and Variant 3 areas, although in Variant 1 awareness had increased closer to the urban average by the second cohort.

It is important that awareness of EMA is high amongst those young people who do not remain in full-time education, as well as amongst those who do. Concern about finance is one potential reason for not entering full-time education and not knowing about the financial support potentially available through EMA might have led to some young people deciding to leave full-time education who might otherwise have remained (see Ashworth et al., 2001).

Either from the extra time that had been available for EMA to 'bed-in' by the second year, or through more effective publicity to the second cohort, awareness of EMA had increased substantially amongst young people not in full-time education after Year 11. Overall, 60.5 per cent of young people not in full-time education in Cohort 2 had heard of EMA compared to 50.1 per cent in Cohort 1 (Table 3.1).

This increase in awareness had been most dramatic in rural areas, where it had risen by around 19 percentage points from 63.8 per cent to 82.9 per cent. Among the urban areas, the increase was largest in Variant 2 where the highest maximum weekly payment of EMA is available (an increase of 18.5 percentage points), and Variant 3 where payment is to the parent (an increase of 18 percentage points), although awareness in Variant 3 was still lower than in other variants. However in Variant 4, where awareness had been greatest in Cohort 1, this had declined by 5.3 percentage points between Cohorts 1 and 2, much larger than the decrease in awareness among young people in full time education in Variant 4 areas described above.

Table 3.1 Young People's Awareness of EMA by Destination after Year 11

Cell base = 100 per cent

	Cohort 1				Cohort 2			
	In Full-time Education		Other		In Full-time Education		Other	
	Percent	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**
Overall	95.9	3382	50.1	1334	96.7	3305	60.5	1332
Rural	98.1	891	63.8	198	98.9	801	82.9	186
Urban	95.6	2491	49.3	1136	96.4	2504	58.9	1136
Variant 1	93.6	650	52.0	258	96.3	612	61.0	233
Variant 2	97.2	575	44.0	302	97.2	631	62.5	308
Variant 3	93.7	618	37.0	255	94.4	648	55.0	266
Variant 4	98.1	648	62.3	321	97.5	613	57.0	329

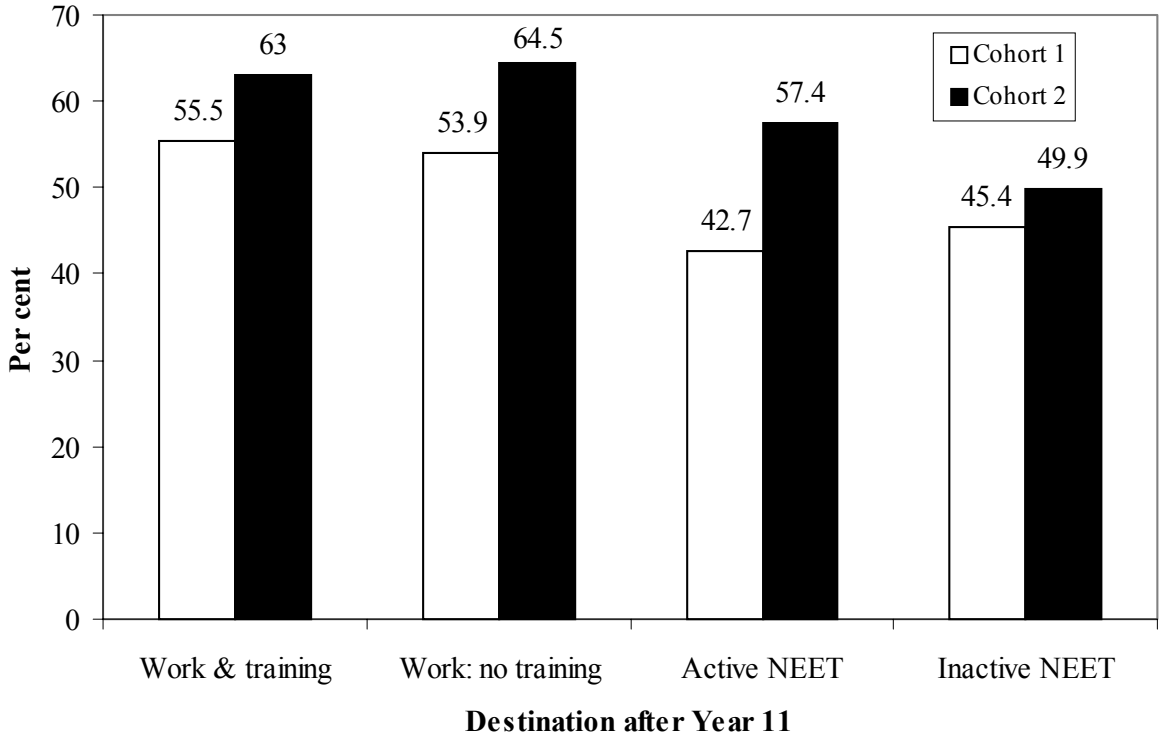
Base: All income eligible young people living in pilot areas in Cohort 1 and Cohort 2.

Amongst young people not in full-time education, awareness of EMA was higher if they were involved in work with training (63 per cent in Cohort 2) or work without training (64.5 per cent), than if they were in the NEET active[22] group (57.4 per cent) or NEET inactive[23] (49.9 per cent) (Figure 3.3). However, growth in awareness between Cohorts 1 and 2 was most notable for members of the NEET active group, increasing by 14.7 percentage points from 42.7 per cent. For those in work, with or without training, the growth in awareness was less spectacular, at 7.6 and 10.6 percentage points respectively, but still significant. There was no evidence of significant growth in awareness amongst young people in the NEET inactive group (4.5 percentage points).

[22] Defined as young people who were unemployed or waiting to take-up work.

[23] Defined as young people who were out of the labour market because they were sick, disabled, pregnant, 'taking a break' or doing something else.

Figure 3.3 Awareness of EMA amongst Young People not in Full-time Education



Base: Eligible young people not in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N for each bar, from left to right respectively: 446, 424, 360, 343, 370, 376, 115, 132).
Note: the within-cohort sums of these base numbers differ from the 'Other' bases in Table 3.1 because of missing values associated with training.

As the general rise in awareness of EMA between Cohorts 1 and 2 occurred primarily among those who did not enter full-time education (Table 3.1), it is of interest to explore differences in awareness amongst groups of young people traditionally more resistant to full-time education. Here we focus on differences in awareness between young men and young women and between those from more and less affluent families.

Young men were less likely than young women to have heard about EMA, a finding that was apparent both in Cohort 1 and Cohort 2. Overall, awareness increased to a similar extent amongst young men and women not in full-time education between the first and second year of implementation, by 10.6 percentage points (men) and 10.5 percentage points (women) (Table 3.2).

However, in the rural area, awareness amongst young women not in full-time education increased dramatically by 25.2 percentage points to 86.7 per cent. Amongst young men in

the rural area, the increase in awareness was much lower at 9.2 percentage points but this still meant that more than three-quarters of young men in the rural area knew about EMA. In urban areas, in contrast, although awareness had risen appreciably, substantial minorities both of young women and, particularly, young men not in full-time education still had not heard of EMA.

Table 3.2 Awareness of EMA amongst Young Men and Women not in Full-time Education

Cell base = 100 per cent

	Cohort 1				Cohort 2			
	Young Men		Young Women		Young Men		Young Women	
	Percent	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**
All	47.5	701	52.5	590	58.1	729	63.0	546
Rural	69.0	112	61.5	79	78.2	102	86.7	72
Urban	46.2	589	51.9	511	56.8	627	61.2	474

Base: Eligible young people not in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2.

The increase in awareness of EMA amongst young people from less affluent backgrounds (that is, those who were estimated to have been eligible for a full EMA award if they had applied), not in full-time education, was quite substantial. Overall, the number of these young people aware of EMA in the second cohort was less than three-fifths (58.2 per cent), but this was an increase of 13.3 percentage points from the first cohort (Table 3.3). This increase was most evident in a rural area, at 16.6 percentage points compared to 12.8 percentage points in urban areas. However, the increase in awareness among young people eligible for a partial EMA award in a rural area was even greater, at 17.8 percentage points, while in urban areas, the increase for this group was much less evident at only 2.2 percentage points. In general, and disappointingly, awareness remained lower among less affluent young people who would be eligible for the full award than among those who would expect to receive only a partial award.

Table 3.3 Awareness of EMA amongst Young People not in Full-time Education by EMA amount Eligibility

Cell base = 100 per cent

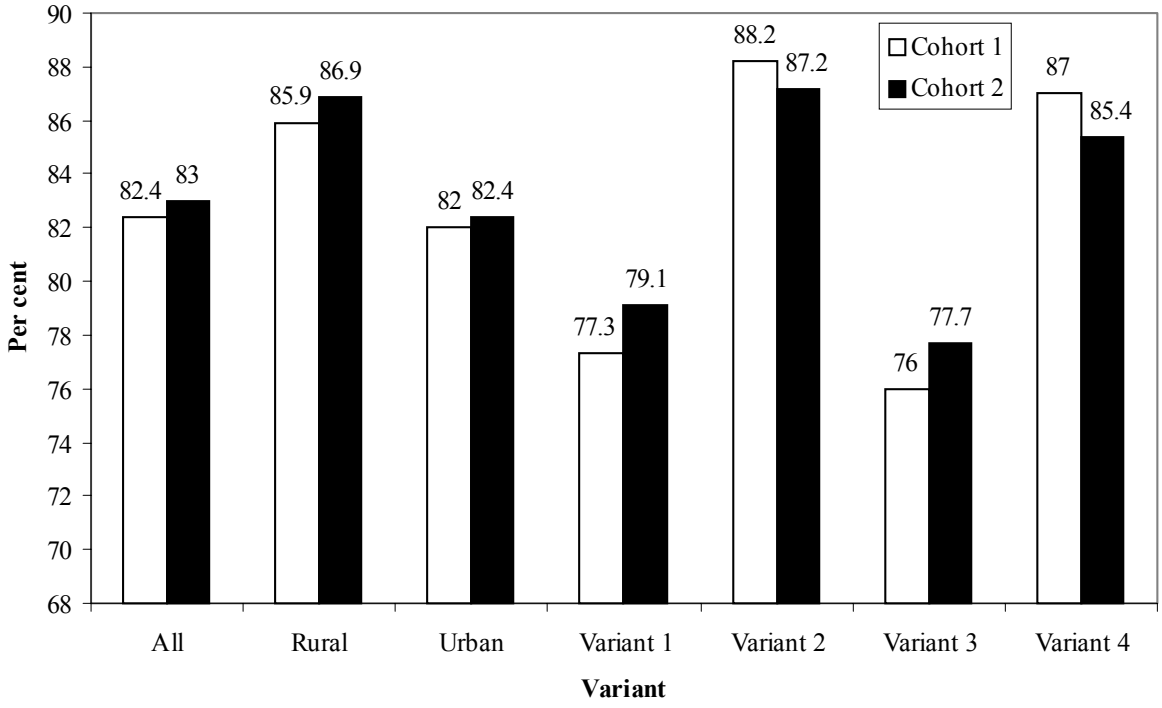
	Cohort 1				Cohort 2			
	Partial		Full		Partial		Full	
	Percent	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**	**Percent**	**N**
All	61.6	455	44.9	836	64.7	440	58.2	835
Rural	65.1	61	65.4	130	82.9	52	82.0	122
Urban	61.4	394	43.6	706	63.6	388	56.4	713

Base: Eligible young people not in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2.

3.3 Applications for EMA

Applications for EMA amongst income eligible young people in full-time education increased very slightly by just 0.6 percentage points between Cohorts 1 and 2. Applications were higher in rural (86.9 per cent) than urban areas (82.4 per cent) in Cohort 2 (and in Cohort 1), (Figure 3.4). In urban areas, applications were highest in Variant 2, where the highest weekly maximum payment was awarded and Variant 4, with higher bonuses. However, the proportion applying had declined in both Variant 2 and Variant 4 areas between Cohort 1 and Cohort 2. Applications were lowest in Variant 3, where payment was made to the parents, although applications had increased between the two cohorts.

Figure 3.4 Applications for EMA



Base: Eligible young people in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N for each bar from left to right respectively: 3381, 3299, 891, 798, 2490, 2501, 650, 612, 574, 629, 618, 648, 648, 612).

Applications amongst young people in full-time education differed only slightly between young men and young women, with more men than women applying in Cohort 2, reversing the situation in Cohort 1 (Table 3.4). In Cohort 2 more young people eligible for the full amount of EMA applied (85.7 per cent) than those eligible for only a partial award (79.1 per cent) but the increase in applications among those partially eligible was slightly larger between Cohorts 1 and 2 (1.2 percentage points) than among those eligible for the full award (0.4 percentage points).

Table 3.4 Applications for EMA by Sex and EMA Amount Eligibility (Young People in Full-time Education)

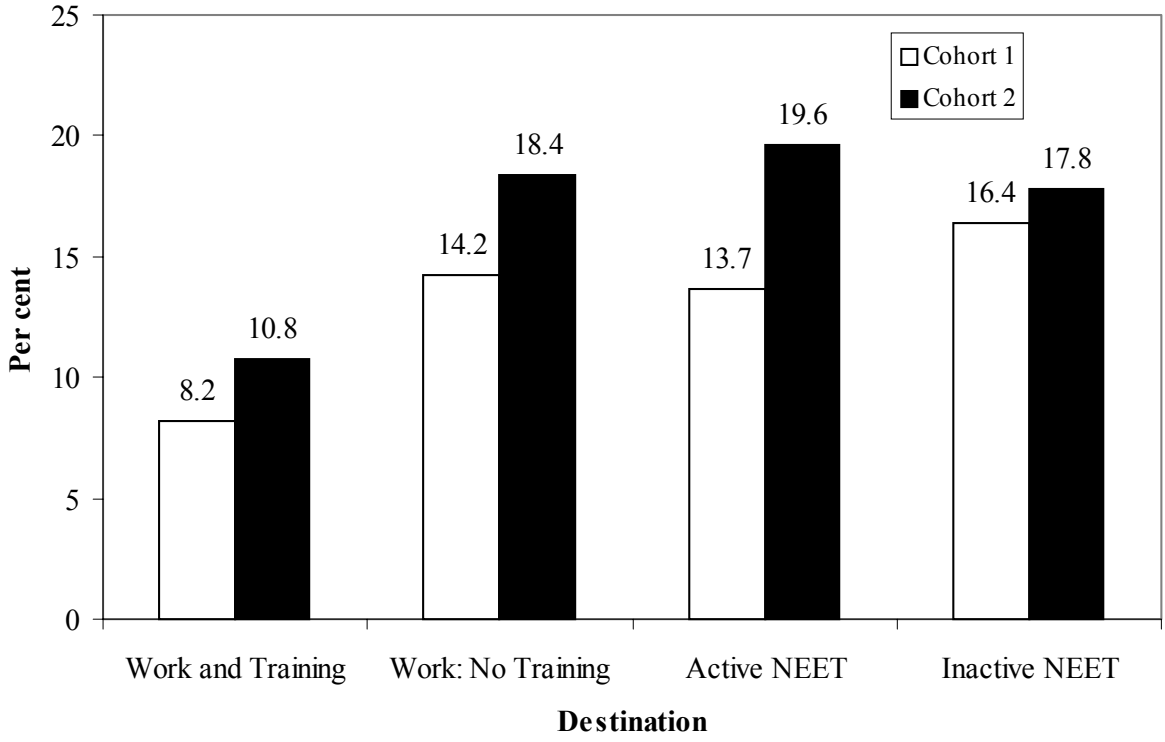
Cell base = 100 per cent

	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Per cent	**N**	**Per cent**	**N**
Sex:				
Male	81.7	1622	83.7	1545
Female	83.1	1759	82.3	1753
Amount EMA-Eligible:				
Partial	77.9	1431	79.1	1466
Full	85.3	1950	85.7	1833

Base: Eligible young people in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2.

A substantial minority of applications for EMA was made by young people who were in destinations other than full-time education at the time of their interview. Young people in the NEET groups and in work without training were more likely to have applied for EMA than were those in work with training. In Cohort 2, 19.6 per cent of NEET active young people had applied, 17.8 per cent of NEET inactives and 18.4 per cent of those in work without training. (Figure 3.5). Only 10.8 per cent of young people in work with training had applied. These application rates for Cohort 2 were somewhat higher than they were for Cohort 1 for all groups, presumably reflecting the increased levels of awareness. Applications had risen most amongst the NEET active group (5.9 percentage points) and those in work without training (4.2 percentage points).

Figure 3.5 Applications for EMA from Young People not in Full-time Education



Base: Eligible young people not in full-time education Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N for each bar from left to right respectively: 446, 422, 358, 343, 370, 374, 115, 132).

There were no significant differences in applications among young people not in full-time education between young men and young women, or between young people eligible for a full or partial award (figures not shown).

3.4 Application Outcomes

Although the Cohort 2 application rates from young people in full-time education were only slightly higher than in Cohort 1, awards by the time of interview had increased from 84.3 per cent to 88.2 per cent of applicants (Table 3.5). Refusals had also increased, from 2.9 per cent to 3.8 per cent, but this rise was not statistically significant. Conversely, there was a drop in the numbers awaiting the outcome of their application from 12.8 per cent to 8.0 per cent, illustrating a general improvement in administrative efficiency between the two years.

There were two LEAs that had experienced substantial processing difficulties in the first year of EMA, one of the Variant 3 areas and the rural LEA, as illustrated by high percentages of

young people awaiting the outcome of their applications. Both of these LEAs had improved considerably by the second year of EMA. The Variant 3 area had reduced the percentage waiting from 35.8 to 20.8, and this was largely responsible for the increase in the proportion of awards that had been made by the time of interview, from 62.7 per cent to 77.2 per cent. In the rural area the numbers waiting dropped from 20.9 per cent to 9.9 per cent and awards increased from 75.0 per cent to 84.6 per cent.

One other LEA, in Variant 4, showed a large decrease in the numbers awaiting their EMA decision, from 13.1 per cent to 4.8 per cent. The majority of LEAs had similar, i.e. non-significant, differences in the numbers awaiting the outcome of their application in both cohorts.

There were no differences between young men and young women in the outcomes of their applications or between those eligible for a full or partial award (figures not shown).

Table 3.5 EMA Application Outcomes for Young People in Full-Time Education

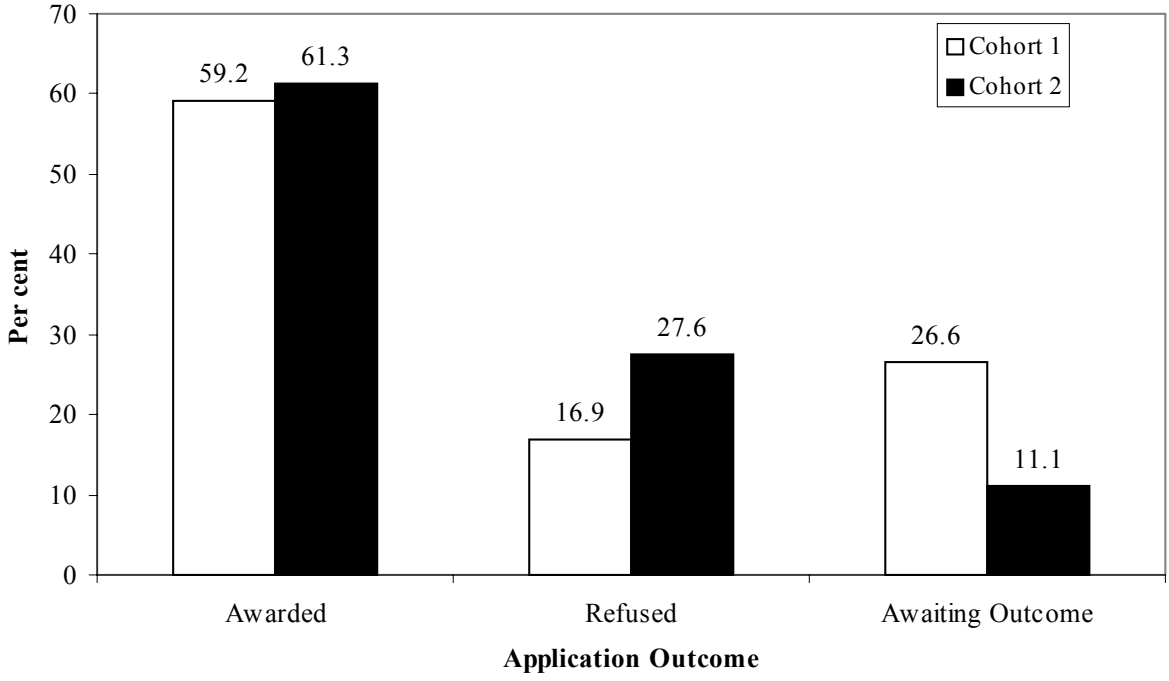
	Cohort 1						Cohort 2					
	Applied		Application Outcomes (Row per cent)				Applied		Application Outcomes (Row per cent)			
	Per cent	N	Per cent			N	Per cent	N	Per cent			N
			Awarded	Refused	Awaiting				Awarded	Refused	Awaiting	
Urban Variant 1	80.0	246	93.1	4.0	2.9	199	82.9	243	93.8	3.9	2.4	195
Urban Variant 1	76.9	213	89.4	2.1	8.5	165	72.6	196	86.7	5.2	8.0	142
Urban Variant 1	74.5	191	87.2	4.8	8.0	144	80.7	173	90.7	4.0	5.3	137
Urban Variant 1 average	*77.3*	650	*90.2*	*3.6*	*6.2*	508	*79.1*	612	*90.9*	*4.3*	*4.8*	454
Variant 2	91.0	284	93.6	3.5	2.9	252	87.9	321	93.9	3.2	2.9	281
Variant 2	85.5	290	85.7	1.8	12.5	255	86.3	308	88.0	3.2	8.8	264
Variant 2 average	*88.2*	574	*89.8*	*2.7*	*7.5*	507	*87.2*	629	*91.2*	*3.2*	*5.6*	545
Variant 3	70.1	282	83.6	2.2	14.2	191	74.7	309	81.8	3.1	15.1	226
Variant 3	81.2	335	62.7	1.5	35.8	268	80.6	339	77.2	2.0	20.8	270
Variant 3 average	*76.0*	617	*71.6*	*1.8*	*26.5*	459	*77.7*	648	*79.4*	*2.5*	*18.1*	496
Variant 4	86.3	318	94.1	3.2	2.6	271	84.0	341	95.8	3.3	0.9	294
Variant 4	87.6	332	84.8	2.1	13.1	292	87.3	271	89.7	5.5	4.8	238
Variant 4 average	*87.0*	650	*89.5*	*2.6*	*7.8*	563	*85.4*	612	*93.2*	*4.3*	*2.6*	532
Urban Variants overall average	*82.0*	2491	*85.6*	*2.7*	*11.7*	2037	*82.4*	2501	*88.8*	*3.6*	*7.7*	2047
Rural Variant	86.0	890	75.0	4.1	20.9	767	86.9	798	84.6	5.5	9.9	690
All Variants overall	*82.4*	3381	*84.3*	*2.9*	*12.8*	2804	*83.0*	3299	*88.2*	*3.8*	*8.0*	2733

Base: Eligible young people in full-time education in Cohorts 1 and 2.

It was apparent (from Figure 3.5) that a substantial minority of young people had originally considered staying on in full-time education, as evidenced by their application for EMA, but had eventually chosen to do something else. A high level of refusals or delays in processing applications among these young people might be the reason why they had decided not to remain in full-time education. However, in general, these applications for EMA had been successful. In Cohort 2, more than three-fifths (61.3 per cent) of applications were awarded, slightly up on the 59.2 per cent in Cohort 1 (Figure 3.6). It is possible that the minority of young people who were refused or were awaiting the outcome of their application, chose to do something else because they had not received EMA. However, for the majority who were awarded EMA, their decision was actively in favour of a different route, irrespective of the offer of EMA (although it is possible they considered the amount of the award insufficient).

The proportion of young people who were refused EMA had increased substantially among those not in education (from 16.9 per cent to 27.6 per cent) and only slightly among those in education (from 2.9 per cent to 3.8 per cent). This suggests that increased awareness of and applications for EMA reported earlier among young people not in full-time education had not been based on their making an accurate assessment of their eligibility.

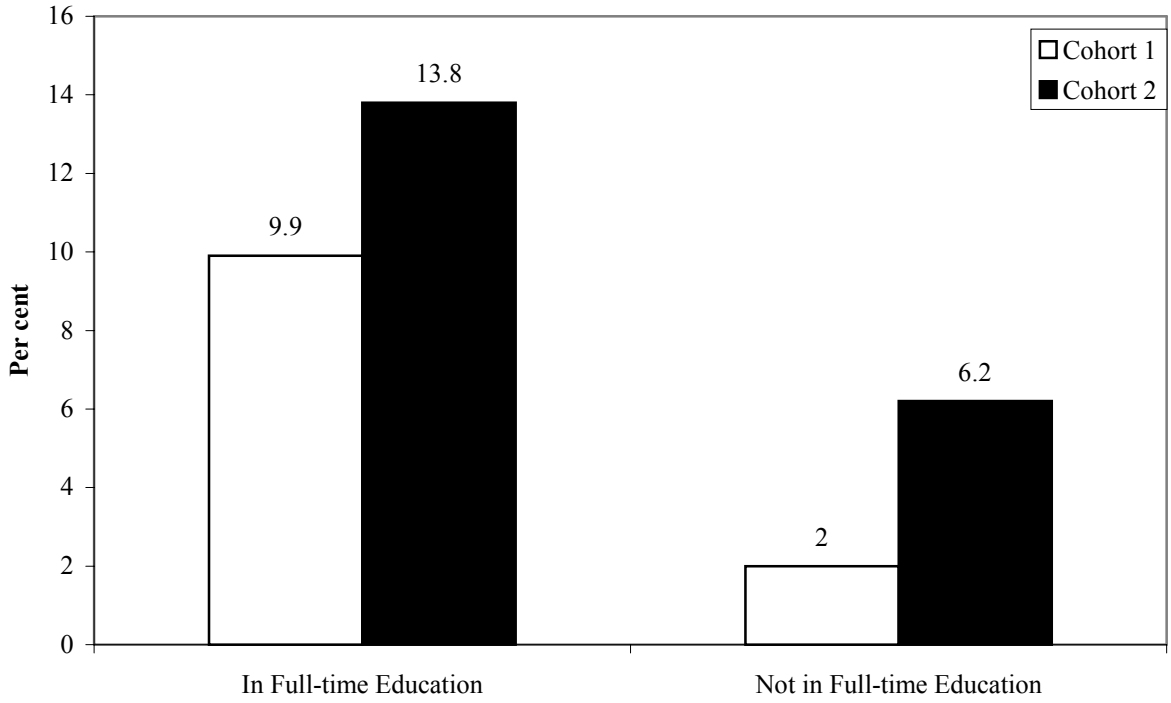
Figure 3.6 EMA Application Outcomes for Young People not in Full-Time Education



Base: Eligible young people not in full-time education who had applied for EMA Cohorts 1 (unweighted base N=176) and 2 (unweighted base N=221).

Generally, people whose application had failed accepted the decision and did not either reapply or appeal. Of young people in full-time education 9.9 per cent in Cohort 1 and 13.8 per cent in Cohort 2 lodged an appeal or reapplied (Figure 3.7). Amongst young people who were not in full-time education, only 2 per cent had appealed or reapplied in Cohort 1 increasing to 6.2 per cent in Cohort 2.

Figure 3.7 Re-applications and Appeals against Refusal of EMA



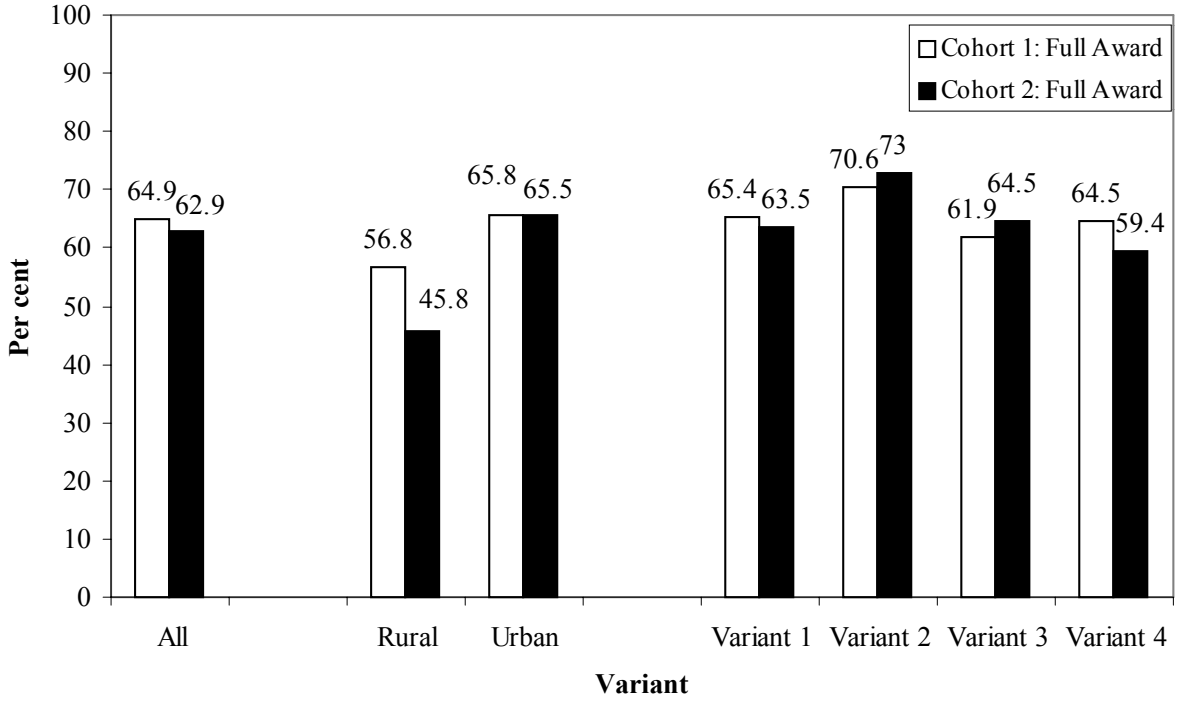
Base: Eligible young people who had been refused EMA Cohorts 1 (unweighted base N=139) and 2 (unweighted base N=180).

3.5 Level of EMA Awards

Some changes have occurred between the two cohorts in the proportions awarded the maximum weekly amount of EMA and a partial award. Overall, two percentage points fewer young people were receiving the full award in Cohort 2 than in Cohort 1 and hence, by definition, more were receiving a partial award (Figure 3.8). The situation had changed only slightly in the urban areas, whereas a much larger reduction in the proportion of young people receiving the full award can be seen in the rural area, a fall of 11 percentage points between the two cohorts.

In the urban areas the largest fall in the proportion awarded the full award occurred in Variant 4 (by 5.1 percentage points), with the numbers of young people receiving the full award actually showing a small increase in the Variant 2 (2.4 percentage points) and Variant 3 (2.6 percentage points) areas.

Figure 3.8 Young People Receiving the Full Weekly Amount of EMA



Base: Young people receiving an EMA award at the time of the first interview Cohorts 1 and 2. (Unweighted base N for each bar from left to right respectively: 2361, 2477, 580, 605, 1781, 1872, 467, 447, 465, 515, 324, 384, 525, 526).

3.6 The Learning Agreement

EMA payments require the signing of a Learning Agreement by the young person committing them to a variety of obligations including full attendance, completion of coursework, notification of absence, compliance with codes of conduct and agreed learning goals. A representative of the education provider and the parent or guardian are also required to sign the agreement.

Overall, in both Cohorts 1 and 2 large proportions of young people in full-time education who had been awarded an EMA remembered that a Learning Agreement had been signed. In

Cohort 1, 95.1 per cent of young people recalled a Learning Agreement being signed as did 93.1 per cent in Cohort 2 (Table 3.6).

In Cohort 2 the numbers recalling a signed Learning Agreement varied between LEAs from 68 per cent in one Variant 1 area to 99.6 per cent in another Variant 1 area and in one of the Variant 3 areas. In general, with the exception of the one Variant 1 area, around 90 per cent of young people recalled signing a Learning Agreement in each of the LEAs both in Cohort 2 and Cohort 1. Although most LEAs showed a small decline in the proportion of young people who recalled signing a Learning Agreement, typically, LEAs with higher numbers of reported Learning Agreements in Cohort 1 were also those with higher numbers reported in Cohort 2. However, one of the Variant 3 areas showed a more substantial decline of 5 percentage points and one of the Variant 1 areas by 4.3 percentage points. In addition, the Variant 1 area with the lowest proportion of young people recalling signing a Learning Agreement in cohort 1 showed a further decline from 74.1 to only 68 per cent in Cohort 2.

Table 3.6 The Signing of Learning Agreements

Cell base = 100 per cent

		Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
		Per cent	**N**	**Per cent**	**N**
Urban	Variant 1	97.8	159	93.5	167
	Variant 1	97.5	139	99.6	119
	Variant 1	74.1	119	68.0	114
	Variant 2	93.7	217	91.5	248
	Variant 2	99.2	199	98.4	219
	Variant 3	95.5	148	90.5	167
	Variant 3	100.0	147	99.6	177
	Variant 4	98.2	237	97.7	269
	Variant 4	98.7	243	96.2	206
Rural		90.1	527	88.8	538
All		95.1	2135	93.1	2224

Base: All eligible young people in full-time education who had been awarded an EMA, Cohorts 1 and 2, who gave a valid response.

Virtually all young people who had reported the signing of a Learning Agreement also reported themselves as signatories (99.6 per cent in Cohort 1 and 99.8 per cent in Cohort 2) (Table 3.7). Parents or guardians were least likely to be reported as having signed but, even so, around 94 per cent in both years were reported by the young people as having done so, as were about 98 per cent of representatives from education providers in Cohort 1, declining slightly to 95 per cent in Cohort 2.

Table 3.7 Who Signed the Learning Agreement?

Cell base = 100 per cent

	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Per cent	**N**	**Per cent**	**N**
Young person	99.6	2005	99.8	2054
Parent/guardian	93.6	1987	94.0	2022
Representative of education provider	97.6	1968	95.2	2012

Base: Eligible young people in full-time education awarded EMA and who reported a Learning Agreement signed in Cohorts 1 and 2. Data are based on recall of the young person, bases vary because "don't know" responses were excluded from the analysis.

Recall of the different obligations entered into under the agreement varied, and for all obligations was slightly lower amongst young people in the second cohort. The vast majority recalled that they were committed to attend all classes (89.4 per cent in Cohort 1 and 88.9 per cent in Cohort 2) (Table 3.8). Other obligations were less well recalled, although in Cohort 1 more than two-thirds (67.4 per cent) remembered they were to work towards agreed learning goals (dropping to 54.8 per cent in Cohort 2). Over one half recalled that they were to complete coursework and homework, and just over four in ten remembered that they had to comply with the education provider's code of conduct. Around one-third recalled they were to notify the school or college of absence, but relatively few remembered their commitment to seek careers advice before choosing or changing their course.

Table 3.8 Recall of Commitments in Learning Agreements

Cell base = 100 per cent

	Cohort 1	Cohort 2
Attendance at all classes	89.4	88.9
Working towards agreed learning goals	67.4	54.8
Complete any coursework/homework	54.5	51.8
Complying with school/college code of conduct	43.8	42.4
Notifying school of absences	34.3	31.8
Seeking careers advice before choosing/changing course	13.3	10.7

Base: Eligible young people in full-time education awarded EMA and who reported a Learning Agreement signed Cohorts 1 (unweighted base N recalling a commitment = 1953) and 2 (unweighted base N recalling a commitment = 1971).

It is worth noting that no differences in recall of Learning Agreements were found between young men and young women or between those receiving a full or partial award (figures not shown).

3.7 Conclusion

Awareness of EMA was high both amongst eligible young people and their parents/guardians, even so both groups in Cohort 2 showed an increase in awareness compared to Cohort 1. Nearly all young people in full-time education (over nine in ten) were aware of EMA, and there was no difference in awareness amongst these students between Cohort 1 and 2. The increase in awareness found in Cohort 2 arose amongst young people not in full-time education. However, despite this increase, young men and young people eligible for a full award (groups traditionally more resistant to entering post-16 education) were still less likely than young women and those eligible for a partial award to know about EMA. Awareness of EMA was lowest in Variant 3 areas, where it is paid to the parent, particularly amongst young people not in full-time education.

Overall, applications for EMA amongst eligible young people in full-time education were high (around eight in ten), and had increased only non-significantly between the Cohorts 1 and 2. Amongst young people not in full-time education, applications had risen most notably for young people in the active NEET group, and, to a lesser extent, in work with no training.

Overall, there was an improvement in application outcomes between Cohorts 1 and 2 with a reduction in the numbers waiting to hear the outcome by the time of the survey interview.

Young people who had originally applied for EMA but who had not stayed on in full-time education generally did not change their minds because their EMA was refused (the majority were awarded EMA), but decided to do something else so for some other reason. Re-applications and appeals against refusals tended to be low, although they had risen slightly in the second cohort.

The vast majority of young people, parents/guardians and college representatives had signed Learning Agreements. Young people were most likely to recall the agreement of full attendance on the course.

4 ONE YEAR'S EXPERIENCE OF EMA

Summary

- There had been considerable movement in the population of EMA recipients between Waves 1 and 2. Sixty-seven per cent were in receipt in both years; 13.9 per cent of Wave 1 recipients still in full-time education were no longer recipients at Wave 2; 18.8 per cent of Wave 1 non-recipients had become recipients by Wave 2; and, 61.8 of Wave 1 non-recipients were still non-recipients at Wave 2.
- There was no difference in the rate at which recipients and non-recipients had left full-time education between Waves 1 and 2, or in the proportions who had left because they had finished their course or who had simply dropped out.
- Among EMA recipients in year 12 those receiving a partial award were more likely still to be in full-time education and receiving EMA by Year 13 than those receiving a full award. There is some evidence that EMA recipients receiving the full award at the start of Year 12 were more likely to have taken one-year courses than those on a partial award or young people in the control group.
- Take-up of EMA at Wave 2 among young people who were eligible non-recipients at Wave 1 was higher among those eligible for a full award than those eligible only for partial EMA.
- Of former Year 12 EMA recipients who remained in full-time education in Year 13, more than half had not reapplied for EMA, young people who had formerly received only a partial award were more likely not to have reapplied.
- Former Year 12 EMA recipients not in receipt at Year 13, who had not reapplied for EMA, were most likely to say their EMA had ended because of a change in financial circumstances. Former recipients no longer in receipt in Year 13 who had reapplied were most likely to say their EMA had finished because their course had ended.
- Among former EMA recipients the reason most often given for not reapplying was that they thought they were ineligible on income grounds, this was particularly true of those eligible for a partial award.
- Eligible young people who had never applied for EMA were most likely to give reasons for not applying associated with having insufficient information about the scheme.

- One-fifth of young people in receipt of EMA at both Waves 1 and 2 had experienced a stoppage of EMA at some point, the main reason being attendance problems, particularly in the Variant 2 areas and among those on a full award.
- More than four-fifths of young people reported receiving a termly retention bonus in the Autumn terms but this had declined significantly by the Summer term, particularly in the rural area where levels of receipt were lower in each term than in urban areas. Although bonus receipt was highest in the Variant 4 areas in the autumn term, there was a very steep decline in subsequent terms. In contrast, in Variant 3 areas receipt of bonuses was consistently high across all three terms. Attendance problems often underlay the failure to receive a bonus, particularly in the Variant 2 areas.

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on findings from the second interview with young people who were included in the first cohort of the evaluation. That is, young people who completed compulsory education (Year 11) in summer 1999, who were first interviewed at the start of Year 12 (Wave 1), and who were re-interviewed one year later at the start of Year 13 (Wave 2). By comparing what they were doing and whether they were receiving EMA at the time of their first interview (Wave 1) with their status one year later (Wave 2), entries to and exits from full-time education and EMA can be analysed.

Chapter 2 has already suggested that EMA has had a positive impact on retention of young people in post-16 education. The descriptive analysis in this chapter provides more detail by examining the extent of EMA receipt over time, exploring the extent of movements in and out of EMA receipt, as well as identifying those young people who have never applied for EMA. This information is important because it will help to identify potential problems, perceived or experienced, with EMA, and to gain an understanding of the extent of such problems and how they might affect take-up. Awareness of these issues can then help policy makers to decide the extent to which changes need to be made to the rules, regulations, administrative procedures or marketing of EMA.

The following issues are addressed in Section 4.2:

- continuing receipt of EMA by young people remaining in education;

- drop out from full-time education and course completions by the start of Year 13 (Wave 2);
- take-up of EMA at Wave 2 by young people in education but not in receipt of EMA at Wave 1;
- the change to non-recipient status at Wave 2 among EMA recipients at Wave 1; and
- take-up of EMA amongst young people entering full-time education at Wave 2.

In Section 4.3, temporary stoppages of EMA are examined. Stoppages are used as a 'stick' to encourage young people receiving EMA to comply with the terms of their Learning Agreement, described in Chapter 3.6, in particular the requirement to attend. In general, stoppages for absence are made when young people are reported to the LEA by their school or college as having missed lessons without authorisation. However it should be noted that not all education providers apply these rules consistently and that stoppages can also occur as a result of administrative problems or failures (Maguire et al., 2002).

Finally, in Section 4.4, the numbers receiving retention bonuses are examined, along with reasons why such bonuses were not received. Retention bonuses are supposed to be paid, on a term-by-term basis, to young people who have achieved a 95 per cent or higher attendance level throughout the term. However, Maguire et al., (2001a) reported that some education providers also attach other conditions to payments of termly bonuses.

The results in this chapter are confined to young people who were estimated to be income eligible for EMA, lived in one of the pilot areas at the time of their first interview, and were interviewed successfully at both the first and second waves of the study. The same system of pilot weights has been used as in the rest of the report, with an additional adjustment to correct for any potential bias arising from differential response rates to the Wave 2 interviews among different groups of Wave 1 respondents (Section 1.3.4).

A number of comparisons are made in this chapter between EMA recipient and non-recipient eligible young people, in full-time education, who lived within pilot areas. Here a recipient typically was defined as someone who at some time between the first and second EMA interview had received an EMA payment. Non-recipients therefore, were those who were

eligible but who had never applied; had applied and had been refused; had applied and were awaiting a decision; or had applied, been awarded EMA but were awaiting payment.

There is a temptation to infer that any differences observed between the two groups are the result of EMA. Whilst this conclusion is possibly correct, it is also the case that recipients and non-recipients differ from each other in a number of ways that are unrelated to a causal effect of EMA receipt[24]. It might be, therefore, that these differences in characteristics are playing a part in the observed differences between recipients and non-recipients, rather than the differences being the result of EMA.

4.2 EMA Receipt in Years 12 and 13

4.2.1 EMA receipt and full-time education status between Waves 1 and 2

At the time of the Wave 1 interview about 70 per cent of eligible young people were in post-16 education (Table 4.1). Approximately one half (50.2 per cent) of all eligible young people received EMA at Wave 1 and one-fifth (19.7 per cent) were in post-16 education but received no EMA. By Wave 2, around 10 percentage points more young people were not in post-16 education (40.4 per cent), and whilst around one-fifth (19.9 per cent) in post-16 education received no EMA, the number receiving EMA had dropped to 39.6 per cent. Overall, just over one-half (52.3 per cent) of eligible young people had received EMA, but about one-fifth (20.1 per cent) had been in post-16 education and had not received it. The remaining 27.6 per cent had not been in post-16 education at either Waves 1 or 2.

The stability of the non-recipient figures between Waves 1 and 2 and the decline of recipients might suggest, naively, that only recipients finished post-16 education by Wave 2. Further perusal (see Figure 4.1 below) shows that this was not the case: recipient and non-recipient status was dynamic over time.

[24] For example, non-recipients were slightly more likely than recipients to have been from affluent families and to have gained better Year 11 qualifications than did recipients.

Table 4.1 Breakdown of Eligible Young People

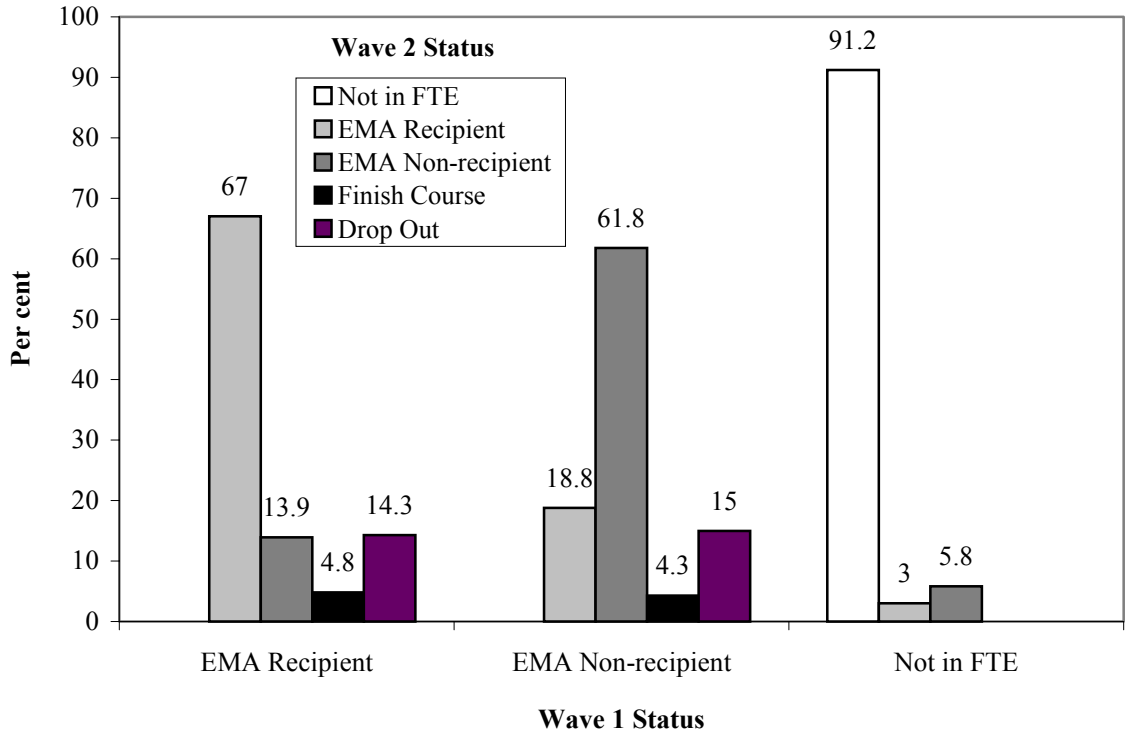
Row per cent

	Recipients	Non-recipients	Not in Full-time Education
Wave 1	50.2	19.7	30.1
Wave 2	39.6	19.9	40.4
Waves 1 and 2 combined	52.3	20.1	27.6

Base: Eligible young people interviewed in both Wave 1 and Wave 2. Unweighted N = 3421.

Overall, 81 per cent of income eligible young people who were in full-time education in Year 12 were still in full-time education at the start of Year 13. Of those who were receiving EMA at the time of their first interview in Year 12, 67 per cent were still in receipt at the start of Year 13 (Figure 4.1). However, 13.9 per cent of Year 12 recipients who remained in full-time education were no longer receiving EMA by Year 13. Conversely, of those young people who were in full-time education in Year 12 but not receiving EMA, 18.8 per cent had become EMA recipients by Year 13, and 61.8 per cent remained non-recipients although they were still in full-time education.

Figure 4.1 Destination and EMA Receipt at the Start of Year 13 by Destination at the Start of Year 12



Base: Eligible young people interviewed in both Wave 1 and Wave 2.
(Unweighted base N, Wave 1 status: recipients=1833, non-recipients=828, not in FTE=760).

Almost one in five of EMA-eligible young people (19.2 per cent) had left full-time education between Wave 1 and Wave 2 (Year 13). Recipients and non-recipients of EMA at the start of Year 12 had left at almost exactly the same rate (19.1 per cent and 19.3 per cent, respectively) (Figure 4.1). Young people could have left full-time education either because they had completed their course or because they had simply dropped out. Between four and five per cent of non-recipients and recipients reported finishing their courses, so that 15 per cent of non-recipients and 14.3 per cent of recipients had dropped out[25].

Slightly fewer than nine per cent of eligible young people who were not in full-time education in Year 12 had entered education by the start of Year 13. Almost six per cent of these new entrants were not in receipt of EMA at the time of their interview and three per cent were recipients.

[25] It is worth noting that, although not shown in Figure 4.1, in the control areas the number who dropped out was 16.8 per cent and 3.6 per cent completed their course.

The likelihood of remaining in or re-entering education for young men and young women from less affluent backgrounds was analysed, as in earlier chapters, to explore the extent to which EMA had any beneficial impact on these groups of young people who are traditionally less likely to enter post-16 education. There were no differences between young men and young women. But young people eligible for a full award (those from less affluent families) showed a different pattern of exiting or re-entering full-time education compared to those eligible for a partial award (from more affluent families). It seems that EMA has encouraged slightly more young people from less affluent backgrounds to take one-year courses and that EMA recipients were no less likely to drop out of full-time education than non-recipients[26].

Among EMA recipients in Year 12, young people receiving a partial award were more likely than those with a full award to remain in full-time education and still to be in receipt of EMA by Year 13. Seventy one per cent of young people eligible for a partial award remained recipients in full-time education compared to 64.8 per cent of those receiving a full award (Table 4.2). Around 14 to 15 per cent of both full and partial recipients in Year 12 had lost their EMA by Year 13, whilst still remaining in full-time education.

Turning next to young people who had completed their courses by the time of the Wave 2 interview, this was significantly higher amongst young people who had been receiving a full award at Wave 1 (5.8 per cent) compared to those who had received a partial award (2.9 per cent). In other words, recipients of a full award were twice as likely to have finished their course than were recipients of a partial award. In contrast, amongst non-recipients, young people eligible for a full award were less likely to have completed their course (3.4 per cent) than were those eligible for a partial award (5.4 per cent).

[26] Chapter 2 has shown that EMA is having an effect upon retention, it seems likely therefore that if EMA had not been implemented those young people who under the EMA scheme are 'recipients' would have had a higher drop out rate than 'non-recipients'. So, EMA appears to have decreased what would have been a higher drop out rate in the absence of the scheme, amongst those young people receiving it under the scheme. A 2.5 percentage point difference in drop out rates between recipients and controls, in favour of recipients, is in accordance with this interpretation (See Figure 4.1 and Footnote 1).

The most likely explanation for these findings is that amongst those receiving a full award, EMA has encouraged a minority of young people who might not otherwise have participated in full-time education at all to take one-year courses[27].

EMA recipients were no less likely to drop out of full-time education than were non-recipients. The drop out rate by Year 13 for non-recipients in Year 12, at 16.4 per cent for young people eligible for a full award, was very slightly higher than for recipients in Year 12 receiving a full award, at 15.8 per cent. Similarly, among young people eligible for a partial EMA award the drop out figures were 13.5 for non-recipients and 11.5 per cent for recipients.

Amongst young people who were in full-time education at both Wave 1 and Wave 2, more non-recipients in Year 12 who were eligible for a full EMA award had taken it up by Year 13 than Year 12 non-recipients who were eligible for only a partial award. Amongst non-recipients in Year 12, 23.5 per cent of those entitled to a full award had become recipients by Year 13 compared to 13 per cent of those eligible for a partial award. However, amongst young people who had entered full-time education by Year 13 from some other destination in Year 12, there were only small differences in Year 13 EMA receipt according to whether they were eligible for a full or partial award.

[27] A comparison of the numbers taking one-year courses in the control areas shows no difference between young people eligible for a full and partial award (3.6 per cent and 3.4 per cent, respectively). In other words, in the absence of EMA there is no suggestion that less affluent young people are more likely to take one-year courses than their more affluent counterparts.

Table 4.2 Changes in EMA status between Years 12 and 13 by EMA Entitlement Amount

Column per cent

Wave 1 Status	Wave 2 Status	Full	Partial
EMA Recipient	Recipient	64.8	71.0
	Non-recipient	13.6	14.6
	Completed course	5.8	2.9
	Dropped out	15.8	11.5
	Unweighted N (=100%)	1043	790
EMA Non-recipient	Recipient	23.5	13.0
	Non-recipient	56.7	68.1
	Completed course	3.4	5.4
	Dropped out	16.4	13.5
	Unweighted N (=100%)	422	406
Not in Full-time Education	Recipient	3.5	2.0
	Non-recipient	5.3	7.1
	Not in full-time education	91.2	91.0
	Unweighted N (=100%)	456	304

Base: Eligible young people interviewed in both Wave 1 and Wave 2. Unweighted bases shown in table.

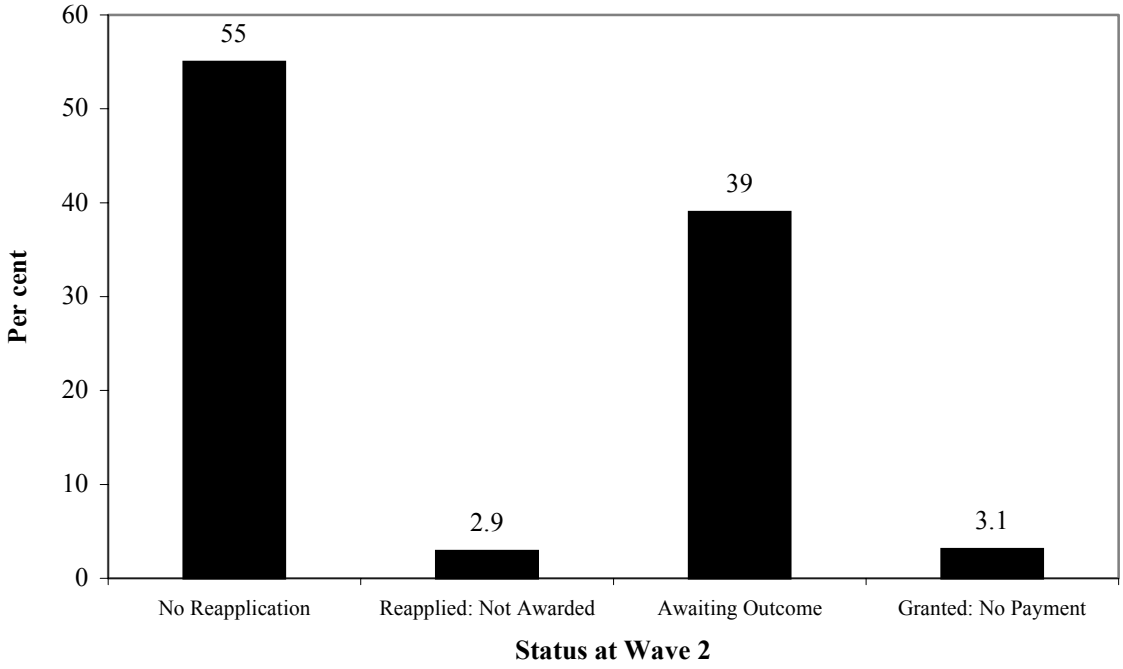
Having examined changes in EMA receipt and full-time education participation between Years 12 and 13, the next two subsections explore, first, why young people left EMA and, second, why some of those eligible for EMA never received it. Care should be taken in reading these results, since the numbers on which the analyses are based sometimes involve small subgroups of young people.

4.2.2 Former EMA recipients in full-time education in Year 13

Of the young people who were EMA recipients in Year 12 and non-recipients but still in full-time education in Year 13:

- 55 per cent had not reapplied for EMA;
- 39 per cent had reapplied and were awaiting the result;
- 2.9 per cent had reapplied and been refused; and
- 3.1 per cent had been granted EMA but had yet to receive a payment (Figure 4.2).

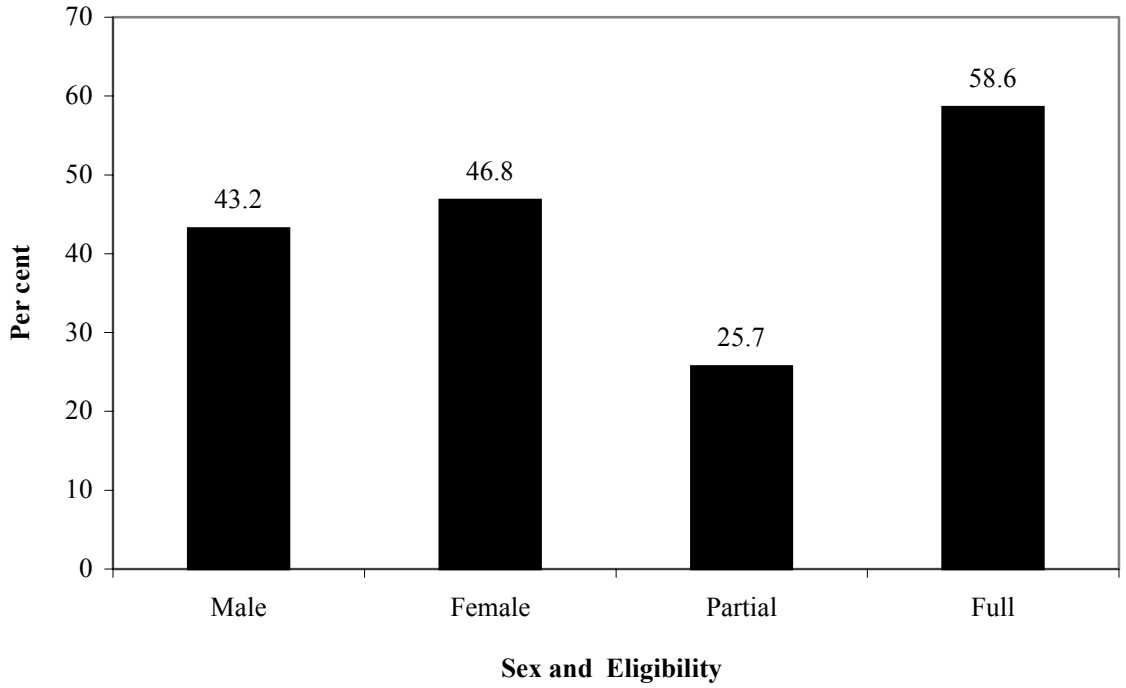
Figure 4.2 EMA Applications made by Former Recipients in Year 12 who were Non-recipients in Year 13



Base: Year 12 EMA recipients who remained in full-time education in Year 13 but no longer received EMA. (Unweighted base N=191).

It would appear that the monetary value of the EMA award was an important influence on decisions to reapply. Young people eligible for a full EMA were much more likely to have reapplied (58.6 per cent) compared to those eligible for a partial EMA (25.7 per cent) (Figure 4.3). Although young women were slightly more likely to have reapplied than young men (46.8 per cent and 43.2 per cent), this difference was not statistically significant with the sample size available.

Figure 4.3 Re-applications for EMA amongst Former Recipients: Sex and Eligibility



Base: Young people remaining in full-time education in receipt of EMA in Year 12 but not in Year 13 (Unweighted base N: Males=86, Females=105, Partial=92, Full=99).

Why EMA ended

It is important to explore why EMA awards came to an end amongst young people who remained in full-time education, particularly awards that ended because of administrative difficulties or attendance problems. Such problems might be amenable to policy interventions to improve administrative procedures or attendance patterns among some groups of students.

Young people who had received an EMA that had subsequently ended were asked why. They were allowed to respond with as many reasons as they wished. A distinction is made between young people who had not reapplied after their EMA ended and those who had reapplied (i.e. young people whose application was refused, who were awaiting an outcome or were awaiting payment to start were combined into a single group). Different reasons for the award ending might be associated with the decision about whether or not to reapply. Since EMA could have ended at any stage between the Wave 1 and Wave 2 interviews, both 'natural' endings of the award at the end of the academic year or the completion of a one-year course, and 'enforced' endings were possible.

Amongst EMA recipients in Year 12 who were in Year 13 full-time education but who had not reapplied for EMA, 16.4 per cent gave their course ending[28] as a reason for their EMA ending, but this reason was also given by 42 per cent of reapplicants (Figure 4.4). Further work is planned in the next quantitative report in this series to examine the extent to which these responses are confined to people who were originally taking one-year courses, although small sample sizes will limit the analysis. However, the above findings suggest that at least some of those young people who complete one-year courses do not go on to reapply for EMA, despite remaining in full-time education[29].

The most common reason given for the ending of EMA amongst non-reapplicants was a change in financial circumstances (37 per cent). Very few reapplicants (3.5 per cent) gave this reason.

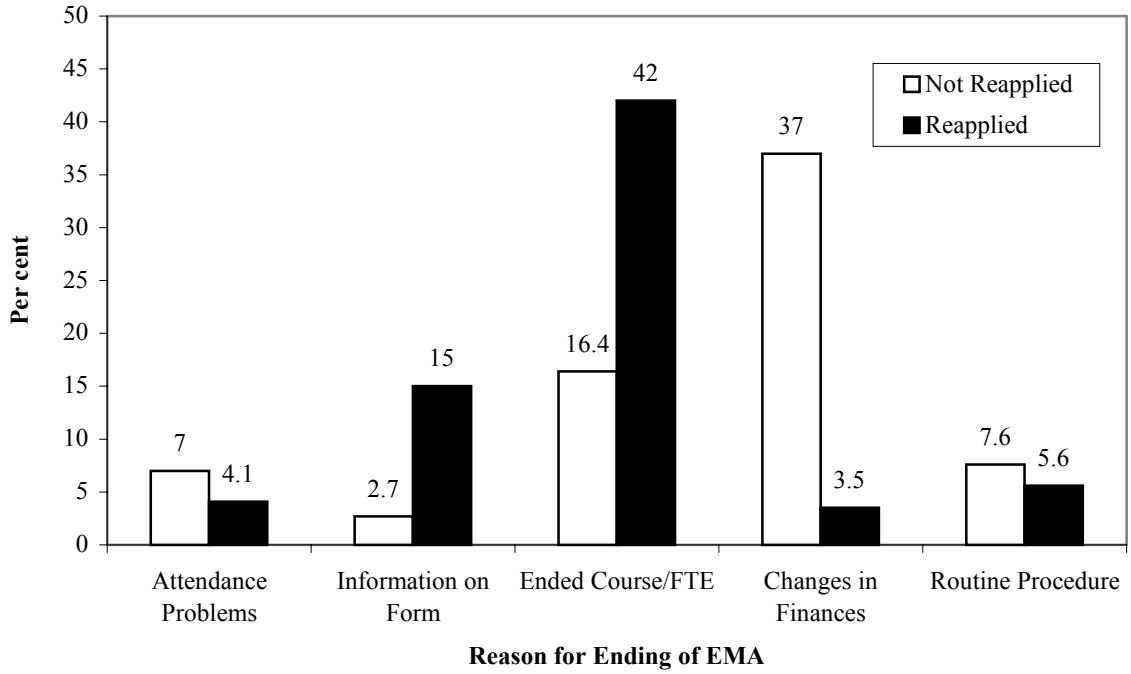
Administrative and attendance problems were seldom given as reasons for EMA ending, either for reapplicants (seven per cent) or non-reapplicants (4.1 per cent).

Six per cent of former recipients who reapplied reported that their EMA had ended as a matter of routine, as did eight per cent of non-reapplicants. Presumably, these types of reasons simply indicate the ending of the academic year or the course.

[28] It is possible that some young people dropped out of full-time education in Year 12 but restarted in Year 13, however, whilst we cannot identify such transitions, it is expected that any such occurrences will be small in number.

[29] The data show that one third of former recipients who were in full-time education in Year 13 and gave their course ending as a reason for no longer receiving EMA were non-reapplicants; the other two-thirds had reapplied.

Figure 4.4 Why EMA Ended by Year 13



Base: Year 12 EMA recipients who remained in full-time education at Year 13 but no longer received EMA. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure. (Unweighted base Non-reapplicants=104, Reapplicants=78).

Former recipients who had reapplied and those who had not were combined into a single group to examine differences in the reasons for the termination of their EMA between young men and women, and those who had received a full or partial award.

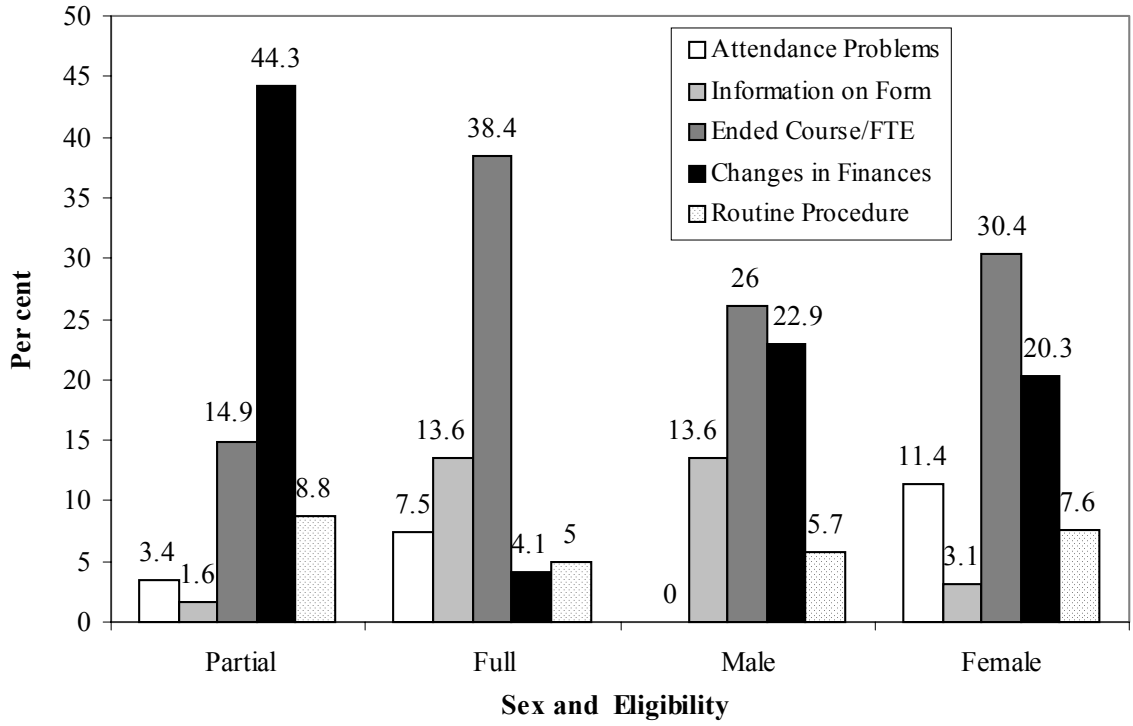
It was seen above (Table 4.2) that young people in receipt of a full award were more likely to have finished their course than those receiving a partial award. Similarly, 38.4 per cent of former recipients with a full award in Year 12 reported, at the start of Year 13, that their EMA had finished because they had completed their course, compared to 14.9 per cent who were receiving a partial award in Year 12 (Figure 4.5).

In contrast, 44.3 per cent of those who had received a partial award in Year 12 reported a change in their parents' financial circumstances as a reason for their EMA ending by Year 13, compared with 4.1 per cent of those who had received a full EMA. Conversely, young people in receipt of a full award were more likely to have experienced problems with information on their application forms (13.6 per cent) than those receiving a partial award (1.6 per cent). Although young people who had received a full award in Year 12 reported

higher levels of attendance problems (7.5 per cent) than those receiving a partial award (3.4 per cent), these differences were not statistically significant.

Young men were also more likely to report problems with the information on their application form (13.6 per cent) than young women (3.1 per cent). The only other difference between young men and women in the reason for their EMA ending was that no young men reported that their EMA had stopped as a result of attendance problems compared to 11.4 per cent of young women.

Figure 4.5 Reasons for EMA Ending by Year 13: Sex and Amount Eligibility



Base: Young people remaining in full-time education who were in receipt of EMA in Year 12 but not in Year 13. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure. (Unweighted base N: Partial=90, Full=92, Male=83, Female=99).

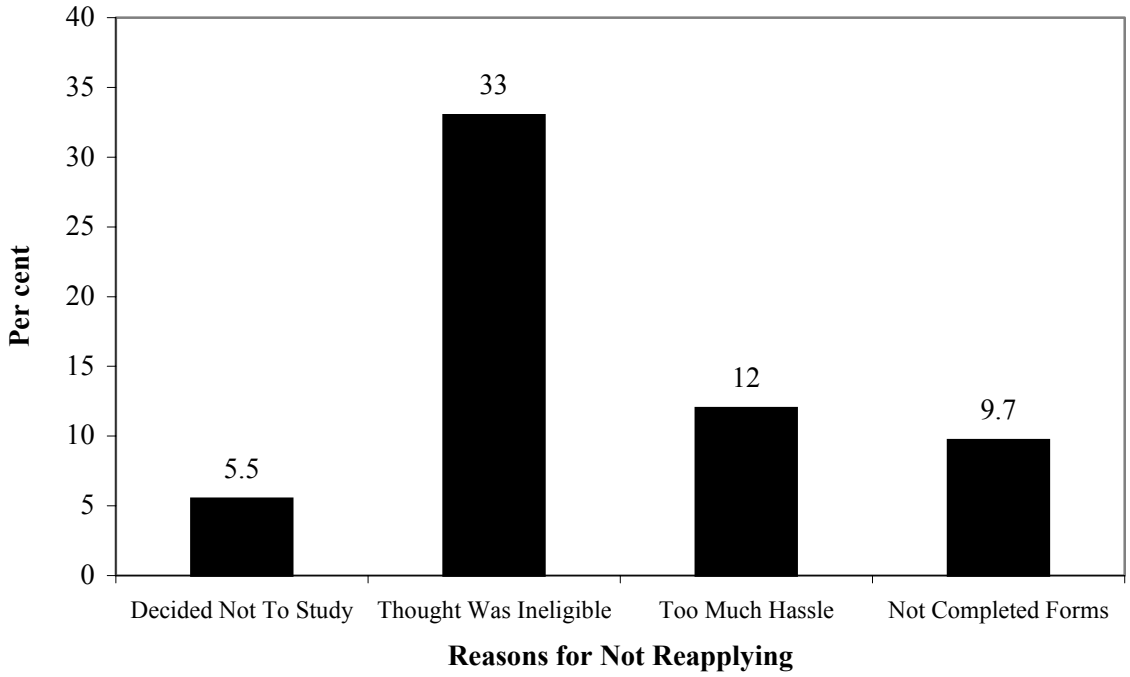
Reasons why former recipients did not reapply

Former recipients whose EMA had ended and who had decided not to reapply were asked why they had chosen not to reapply. The question was open-ended allowing any response and multiple responses from the same respondent were allowed. The reasons were classified into the main groups given in Figure 4.6, other reasons that could not be classified into any of these groups were excluded from further analysis. Thirty-three per cent of non-reapplicants

did not reapply because they thought they were ineligible through their family income being too high (Figure 4.6). It is not possible to be certain of the extent to which these perceptions were correct because information about changes in family income was not collected in the second wave interviews.

Twelve per cent thought reapplying was not worth the hassle, just under 10 per cent had obtained their application forms but not completed them, and 5.5 per cent said they were thinking about giving up full-time education.

Figure 4.6 Reasons for not Reapplying for EMA by Former Recipients in Year 12 who were Non-recipients in Year 13

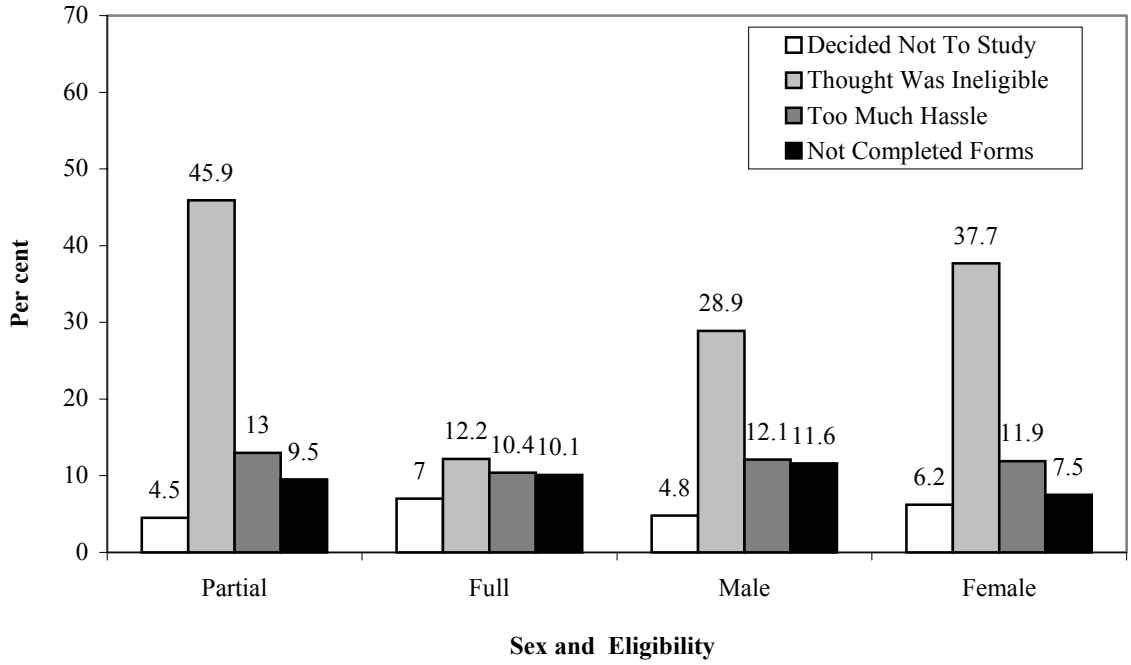


Base: Young people in full-time education in Years 12 and 13 who were in receipt of EMA in Year 12 but not Year 13 and who did not reapply. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure.
(Unweighted base N=91).

Perceived income eligibility was given as a reason for not reapplying for EMA more often amongst young people eligible for a partial award in Year 12 (45.9 per cent) than amongst those eligible for a full award (12.2 per cent), although the numbers here are very small (Figure 4.7). There were no other significant differences for non-reapplication between young people eligible for a full and partial award.

There were no significant differences between young men and women in reasons given for not reapplying. However, it was notable that women were often more likely to think themselves ineligible (37.7 per cent) than were young men (28.9 per cent) although, again, numbers are very small.

Figure 4.7 Reasons for not Reapplying for an EMA by Former Recipients: Sex and Eligibility



Base: Young people remaining in full-time education in receipt of EMA in Year 12 but not in Year 13 who did not reapply for EMA. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure.
(Unweighted base N: Partial=56, Full=35, Male=45, Female=46).

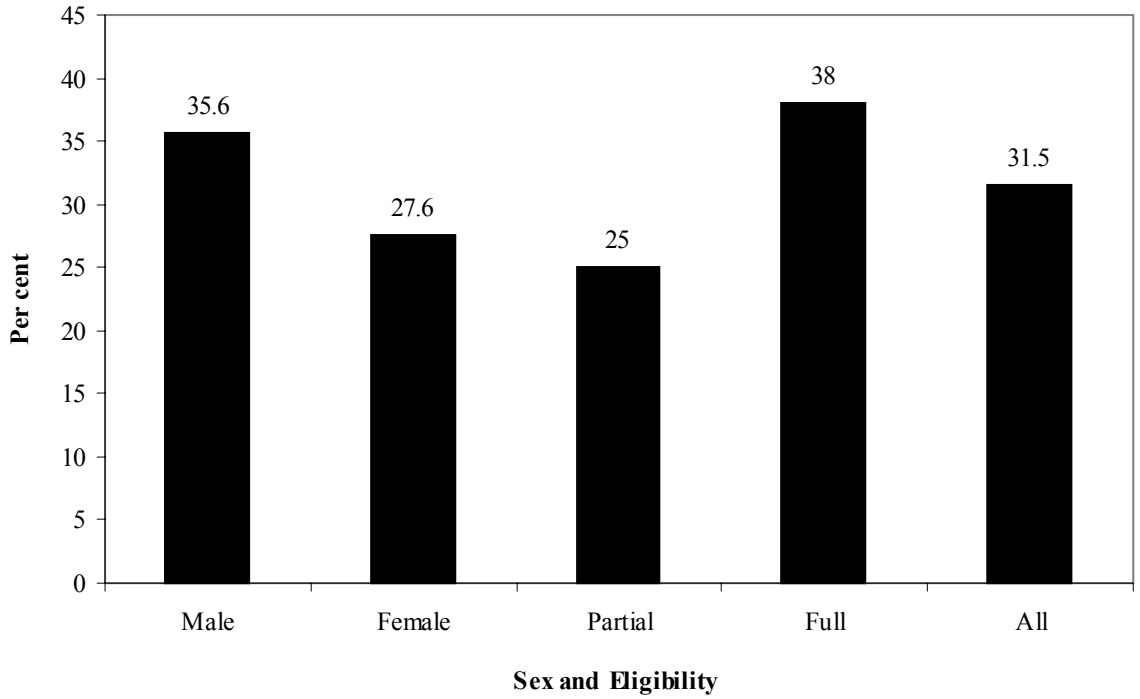
4.2.3 EMA non-recipients in Waves 1 and 2

Almost one-fifth (18 per cent) of income eligible young people in full-time education in both Years 12 and 13 reported receiving no EMA at both interviews. However, a substantial minority of these young people had applied for EMA at some time[30] (31.5 per cent), and conversely, 68.5 per cent had never applied (Figure 4.8).

[30] Applications tended to have been refused because income exceeded the maximum threshold. This suggests either that there was error in the original estimation of eligibility used here or that peoples' financial circumstances had changed since the first interview.

Amongst non-recipients who had applied at some point, applications had been greater amongst young people estimated in our data to be eligible for a full award (38 per cent) than amongst those eligible for a partial award (25 per cent). There was no statistically significant difference between the proportions of young men and women who had applied (Figure 4.8).

Figure 4.8 EMA Applications made by Non-recipients of EMA

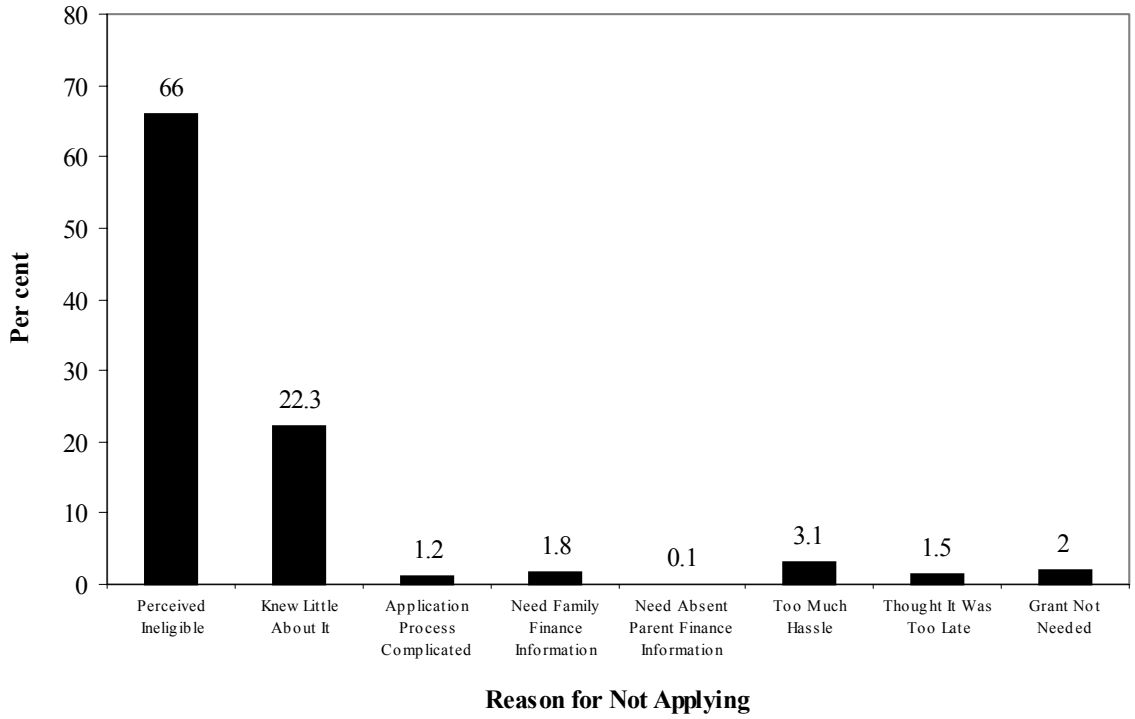


Base: Eligible young people in full-time education in both Years 12 and 13 who never received EMA. (Unweighted base N: Male=229, Female=249, Partial=254, Full=224, All=478).

Young people who had never applied for EMA were asked why. The question was open-ended and multiple responses were allowed so that a person could give more than one answer.

The most frequent reason given was a lack of relevant information. Sixty-six per cent of young people who had never applied thought themselves ineligible, over one-fifth (22.3 per cent) said they knew too little about EMA, and 1.5 per cent thought they were too late to apply (Figure 4.9). Three per cent thought the amount involved meant it would not have been worth the hassle to apply, two per cent said they did not need the grant and 1.2 per cent were put off because they thought the process was too complicated. The fact that lack of information was more often given as a reason for non-application than 'hassle' is encouraging since increasing awareness is, arguably, easier than changing preconceptions.

Figure 4.9 Reasons for Non-Application for EMA



Base: Eligible young people in full-time education in Waves 1 and 2 who did not apply for EMA and were not in receipt at either interview. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure.
(Unweighted base N=325).

4.3 EMA Stoppages of Weekly Payments

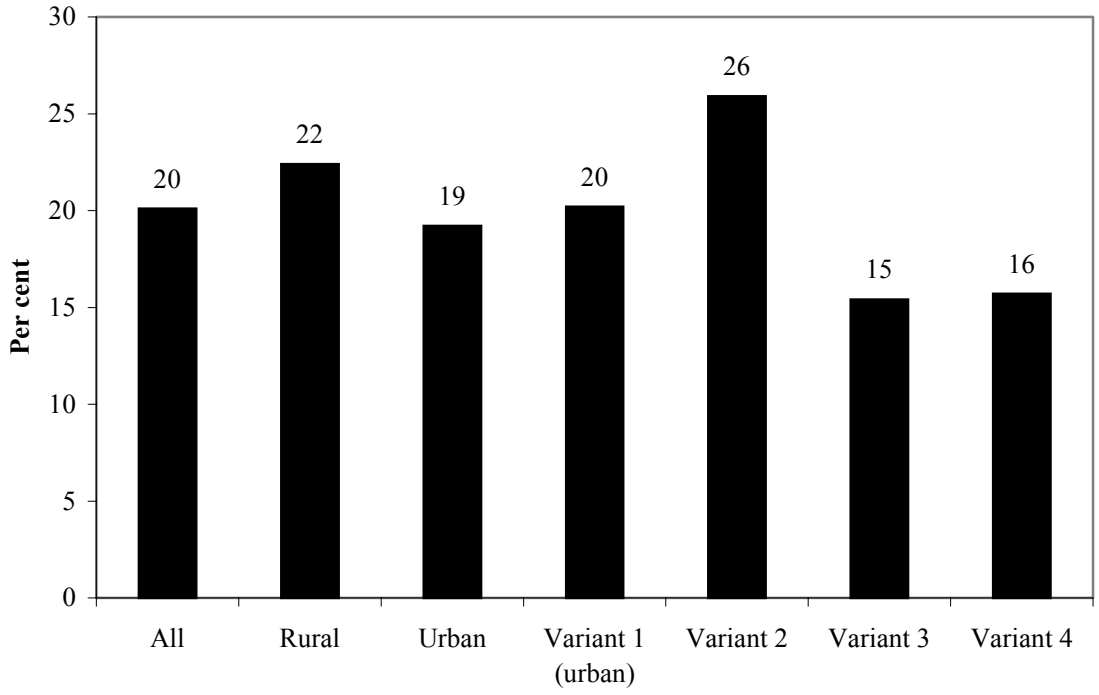
Attendance is encouraged through the threat of withdrawal of EMA payments for unauthorised absences from classes. However, young people might experience stoppages of EMA for other reasons, including faults in the administrative system and administrative monitoring procedures (Maguire et al., 2002).

To investigate the extent of stoppages as a result of transgressing attendance rules or administrative failures, young people who were in receipt of EMA at both Wave 1 and 2 were asked if they had received their awards continuously or if there had been breaks in the payments and, if so, why. Stoppages might therefore have taken place at any time between the Wave 1 and Wave 2 interviews.

Overall, one-fifth of young people who were in receipt of EMA at Waves 1 and 2 reported that there had been a break in payment (Figure 4.10). Stoppages were slightly more frequent in rural than in urban areas, although this difference was not statistically significant. Stoppages were highest in Variant 2 which provides the highest weekly amount of EMA (26 per cent), and lowest in Variants 3 (15 per cent) and 4 (16 per cent).

There were no significant differences in the numbers of young men and young women who experienced stoppages, or between young people receiving a full or partial award (figures not shown).

Figure 4.10 Stoppages of EMA



Base: Young people in receipt of EMA in both Years 12 and 13.
(Unweighted base N for each bar from left to right respectively: 1455, 408, 1047, 248, 257, 221, 321).

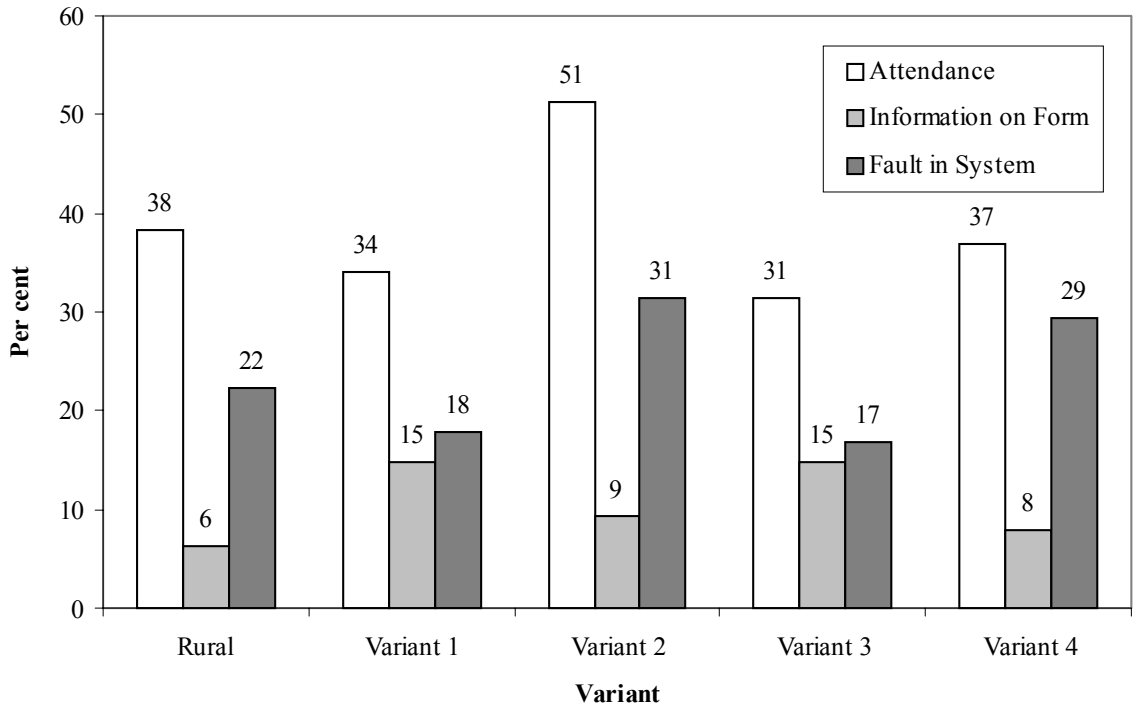
Young people who had experienced an EMA stoppage were asked why. They were allowed to give as many open-ended responses as they wished. Similar responses were grouped together into a group of categories given in Figure 4.11. Reasons that could not be classified into any of these categories were excluded from analysis.

The main reason for EMA being temporarily stopped was a problem with attendance (Figure 4.11). An earlier report has suggested that the recording of attendance intensified in the second year of the evaluation (Maguire et al., 2002). Although the data reported in this paper refer to the time period throughout Year 12, it seems reasonable to assume that this intensification had taken place progressively over the first year of the pilot.

Stoppages for attendance were particularly frequent in the Variant 2 LEAs that provide the highest weekly award (51 per cent). The level of stoppages in these areas was significantly higher than in other variants. It is not clear, however, to what extent this represents greater efficiency in monitoring unauthorised absences by the LEAs and education providers in these areas, or a 'true' higher rate of absence amongst students. However, stoppages as a result of faults in the administrative system were also reported most often in the Variant 2 areas (31 per cent).

Stoppages for administrative faults were also relatively high in the Variant 4 areas (29 per cent). In Variant 1 and Variant 3 areas, stoppages were slightly, albeit non-significantly, higher because of problems with information given in the attendance monitoring form (15 per cent) than in other areas.

Figure 4.11 Reasons for Stoppages

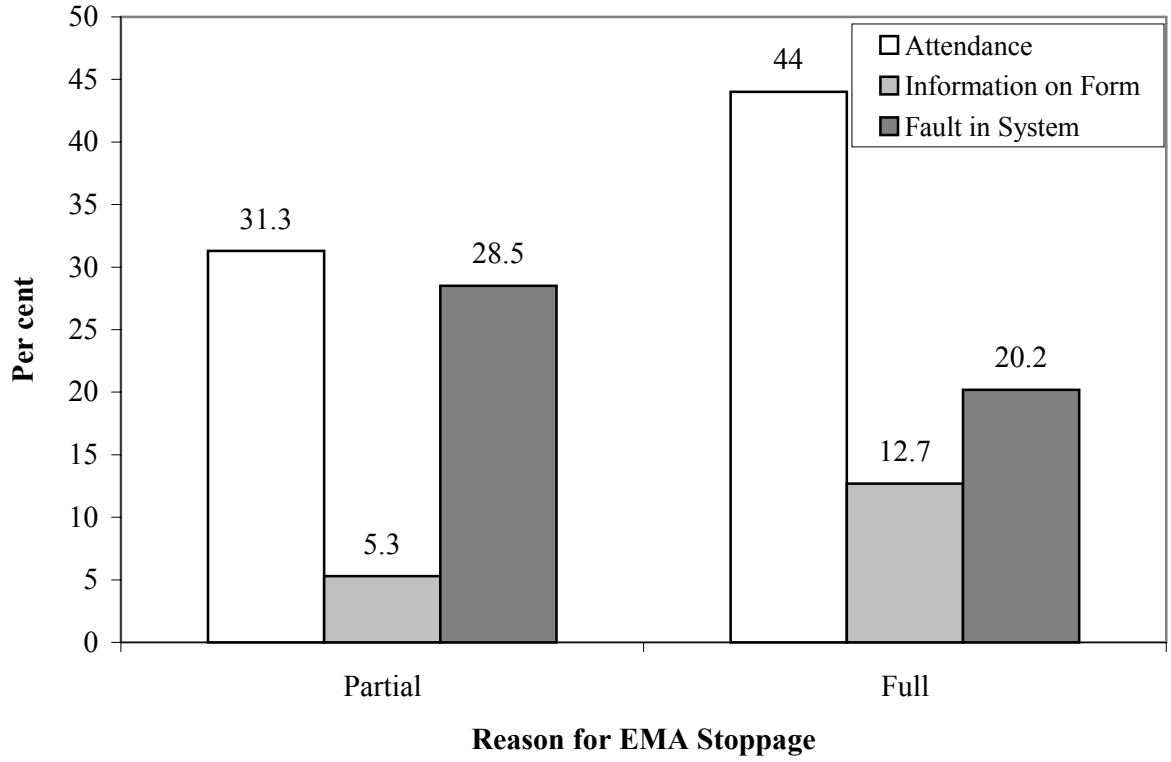


Base: Young people experiencing EMA stoppages. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure.
(Unweighted base N: Rural=87, V1=47, V2=67, V3=34, V4=49).

Amongst young people who experienced stoppages, those caused by attendance problems were more likely to occur amongst young people with a full award (44 per cent) than for young people with a partial award (31.3 per cent) (Figure 4.12). Although it is not clear whether these differences in levels of absence might have been even greater in the absence of EMA, it seems likely that this relationship might be another example of the well established link between low income, attendance problems and lower rates of education achievement among young people from this group.

The number of stoppages occurring because of faults in the administrative system or information given on the attendance monitoring form were not significantly different between young people on a full or partial award. In addition, there were no differences found between young men and young women.

Figure 4.12 EMA Stoppages amongst Recipients with a Full or Partial Award



Base: Young people experiencing EMA stoppages. Responses that could not be grouped into one of the above categories have been excluded from the figure.
(Unweighted base N: Partial=130, Full=160).

4.4 Termly Retention Bonuses

Termly retention bonuses are payable to young people in receipt of EMA at the end of each term if they have attended 95 per cent or more of their lessons during that term. However, it is clear from Maguire et al. (2001a) that some education providers also take into account other factors including quality of work and the general standard of a student's behaviour when deciding whether or not to pay a bonus.

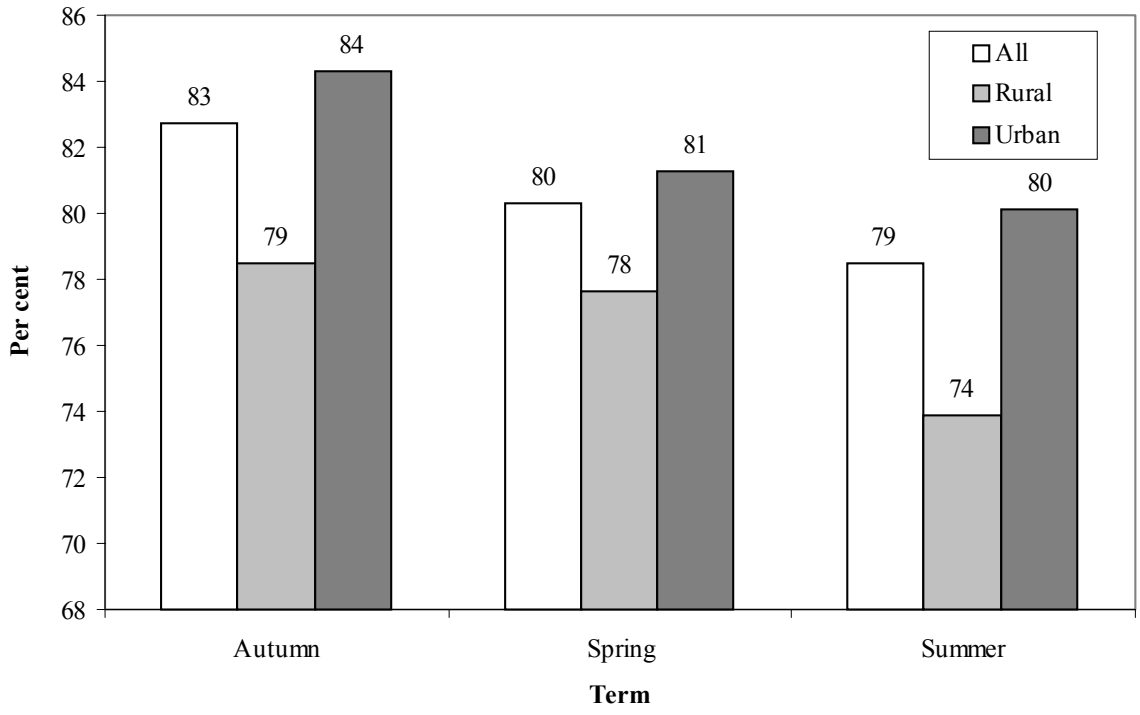
The standard retention bonus is £50.00 per term in Variants 1, 2 and 3. In Variant 4, a higher bonus of £80.00 per term is available. Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the Wave 2 interview and had received EMA throughout Year 12 were asked if they had received a bonus in each of the Year 12 Autumn, Spring and Summer terms and, if not, why not.

Overall, 83 per cent reported receiving their retention bonus in the Autumn term (Figure 4.13). However, this figure declined to 80 per cent in the Spring term and 79 per cent in the

Summer term, a statistically significant decrease. A number of reasons might underlie this fall, for example, opportunities for part-time work might have been greater in the summer months and students might have thought that their earnings from this activity outweighed the loss of the bonus. Another possibility is that young people had failed to attend school or college until the end of the Summer term if their exams had finished at an earlier stage in the term.

Reported receipt of bonuses was higher in the urban than the rural areas for each term, although both showed the same pattern of falling receipt from term to term.

Figure 4.13 Receipt of Retention Bonuses



Base: Young people in receipt of EMA at Wave 2.
(Unweighted base N, running from left to right respectively: 1412, 393, 1019, 1406, 393, 1013, 1412, 395, 1017).

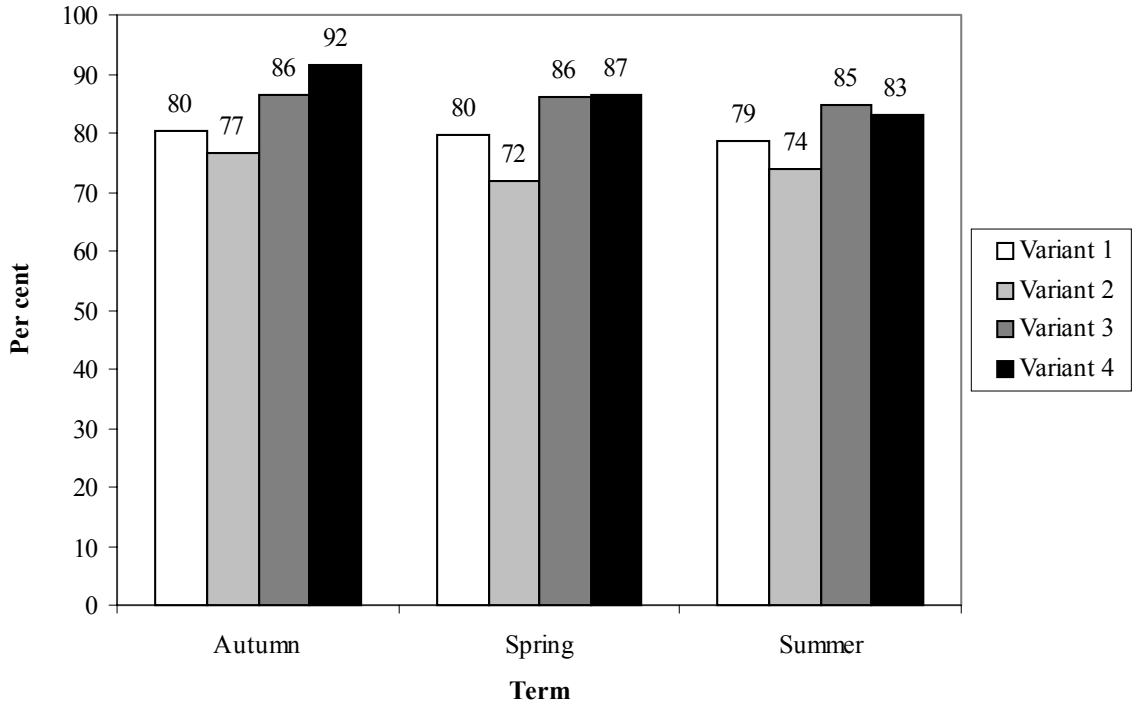
In the urban areas, receipt of the bonus was highest amongst recipients in Variant 4 in the Autumn term (92 per cent). However, this figure had declined substantially to 83 per cent by the Summer term (Figure 4.14). In comparison to Variant 1, where bonus receipt had hardly changed between the Autumn and Summer terms, receipt of the bonus in Variant 4 was some 12 percentage points higher than in Variant 1 in the autumn, compared to only four

percentage points higher in the summer. It would therefore appear that the initial extra inducement of a high EMA bonus declined over time, although this occurred from a particularly high base to one that was still relatively high.

Under Variant 3, where the weekly award is paid to the parent but the bonus is paid to the young person, levels of bonus receipt started relatively high (86 per cent) and remained high throughout the year (dropping only to 85 per cent). In Variant 2, receipt of the bonus was lower than for any other variant, starting at 77 per cent in autumn and falling to only 74 per cent in summer.

It is worth noting that there were no differences in the pattern of bonus receipts according to either the sex of the young person or whether they received a full or partial award.

Figure 4.14 Receipt of Retention Bonuses: Urban Variants

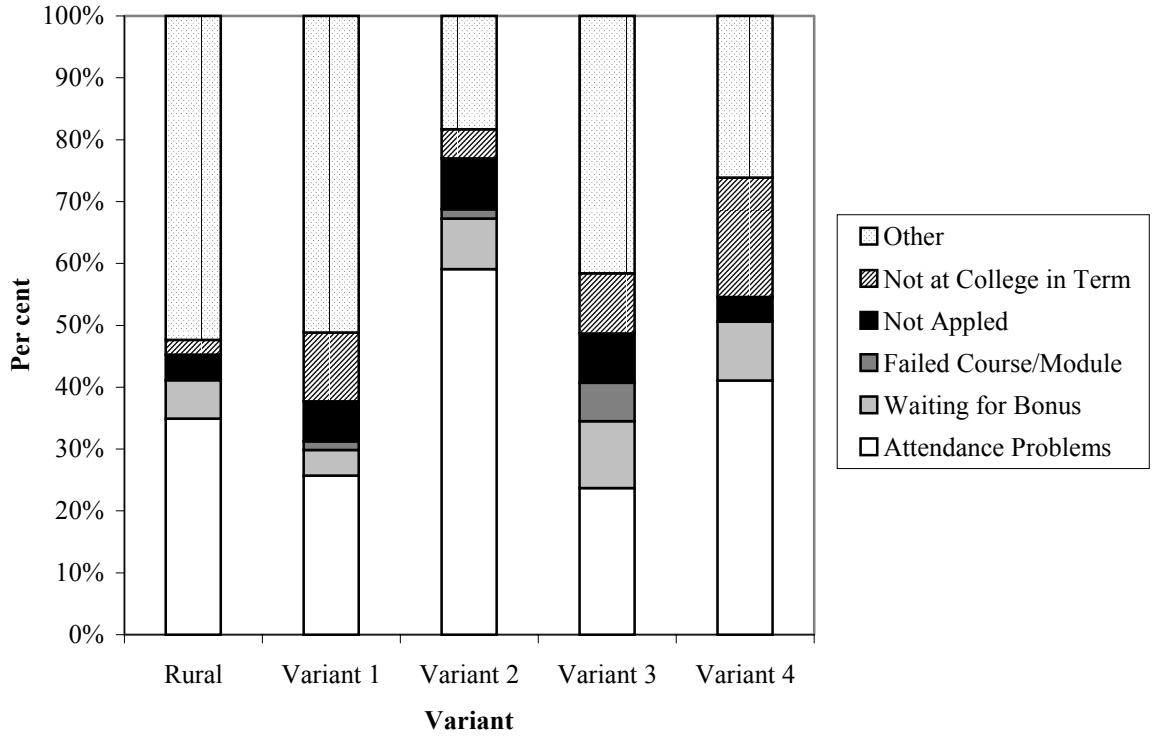


Base: Young people in receipt of EMA at Wave 2, living in urban areas.
(Unweighted base N, running from left to right respectively: 241, 245, 217, 316, 240, 243, 216, 314, 245, 244, 214, 314).

Young people who had not received a bonus, in any of the three terms, were asked why. They could give more than one reason, and all reasons were classified into those given in Figure 4.15.

Attendance problems often underlay the non-receipt of a bonus by EMA recipients. Attendance problems were particularly prominent in the Variant 2 areas, accounting for 59 per cent of reasons given (Figure 4.15). Variant 2 areas were also those where attendance problems were often the cause of stoppages to the weekly payments (Section 4.3).

Figure 4.15 Reasons for not Receiving a Bonus



Note: Percentage based on number of responses for not receiving a bonus either in the Autumn, Spring or Summer term.
Base: Young people in receipt of EMA at Wave 2 who had not received at least one bonus.
The data are derived from multiple response options to an open-ended question.
(Unweighted base N: Rural=122, V1=63, V2=68, V3=35, V4=69).

Attendance problems were also often a cause of bonus non-payments in Variant 4 areas (41 per cent) which, again, showed slightly higher levels of stoppages of weekly payments for attendance.

Bonus non-payments arising from attendance problems were lowest in Variant 3 (23.7 per cent) and Variant 1 (25.7 per cent). It is not clear to what extent these differences relate to

better attendance monitoring by parents in Variant 3 or different practices in recording absence by the various education providers in different variants.

The first year evaluation reports suggested that the LEAs in Variant 3 had particular administrative problems in implementing EMA (Ashworth et al., 2001; Maguire et al., 2001a). To some extent these problems appear to have continued as 10.8 per cent of reasons given in these areas were that the young person was still waiting for the bonus to be paid. However, only in the urban Variant 1 and rural area were these problems significantly lower, at 4 per cent and 6 per cent, respectively.

Few bonuses were withheld for failing a course or module but, at 6 per cent, this reason was most often given in the Variant 3 areas.

Some young people believed that the non-payment of their bonus arose from them not having applied for it. However, as the bonus is paid directly by the LEA on receipt of notification from the education provider that it should be paid, these perceptions were false.

In Variant 4 a substantial number of recipients (19.3 per cent) stated that they were not at school or college for that particular term and that this was the reason they had not received a bonus. It is not clear what the meaning of this finding represents. Possible explanations include long-term sickness, although the stoppage figure seems too high for this to be a complete explanation, and the treatment of students on 'sandwich' courses although our understanding is that young people should still have been eligible for a bonus.

Finally, a relatively large number of responses were vague or could not be classified. Approximately one-half of responses given in both the rural and urban Variant 1 areas fell into this category, as did 42 per cent of reasons given in Variant 3. It seems plausible that at least some of these 'other' reasons could include the additional criteria that Maguire et al. (2001a) report that some education providers are using to decide upon young people's eligibility for bonuses.

There were, again, no differences in the patterns of reasons for not receiving a bonus according to either the sex of the young person or whether they received a full or partial award.

4.5 Conclusion

The EMA population was found to be dynamic. Around two-thirds of recipients in Year 12 remained recipients in Year 13, about 14 per cent were still in full-time education in Year 13 but no longer received EMA. Nearly one in five eligible non-recipients in Year 12 became a recipient in Year 13. However, approximately six in ten non-recipients remained in full-time education as non-recipients. Around one in 20 of recipients and non-recipients finished their course by the end of Year 12 and a further 15 per cent of recipients and non-recipients had dropped out of their course. Recipients of a full award were more likely to drop out of their course than were recipients of a partial award. However, recipients of a full award were also more likely to have completed a one-year course than were partial recipients or non-recipients of EMA.

Just over one half of former Year 12 recipients, who remained in full-time education in Year 13 but no longer received EMA, had not reapplied for EMA. Amongst former recipients who had not reapplied, a change in finances was the most common reason given for their EMA ending, whereas amongst young people who had reapplied, their course finishing was the main reason given for EMA ending. Former recipients who had received a partial award were most likely to say their EMA had ended for financial reasons and those on a full award said they were most likely to have finished their course.

The majority of young people who had not received EMA, despite being in full-time education in both Years 12 and 13, had never applied for one. However, applications were more common amongst those non-recipients who were eligible for a full award than amongst those eligible for a partial award. The main reason given (by about two-thirds) by non-recipients who had not applied for EMA was that they thought themselves ineligible and this reason was much more likely to be given by those who had received a partial award (just under one-half) than a full award (around one in ten).

Around one-fifth of young people who had received EMA in both Waves 1 and 2 reported a break in payment, this was most likely to have occurred in Variant 2 LEAs. Stoppages were most likely to have occurred because of attendance problems; again this was more likely to have been the reason within Variant 2 LEAs. However, administrative faults were also quite

common, reported between one-fifth (Variants 1 and 3) and one-third of young people (Variants 2 and 4) experiencing stoppages. Stoppages caused by attendance problems were more likely to have occurred amongst recipients with a full award than with a partial award.

Eight in ten, or more, recipients of EMA had received retention bonuses. However, bonuses were slightly more likely to have been received in the autumn term than in the spring or summer terms. They were also more likely to have been received in urban than in rural LEAs. The chances of receiving a bonus in the Variant 4 LEAs, where a higher bonus was paid, was initially much greater than in other LEAs. However, receipt declined substantially so that in summer bonus receipt in Variant 4 was actually less than in Variant 3 and only slightly greater than in Variant 1. Where the weekly award was paid to the parent (Variant 3), the chances of receiving the bonus remained constant from term to term at around 85 per cent. The reasons given for not receiving a bonus varied between areas, but in Variants 4 and, especially, Variant 2, attendance problems were stated comparatively frequently.

5 POST-16 COURSES AND YEAR 12 ACHIEVEMENT

SUMMARY

- EMA appeared to have encouraged low achievers into full-time education: EMA eligible young people ***in post-16 education*** in the pilot areas were less well qualified at Year 11 than were comparable young people in the control groups.
- Eligible young people were most likely to take an academic route in post-16 education. However, eligible young people in the pilot areas were more likely to take a vocational course than were comparable young people in the control areas.
- Lower Year 11 levels of qualification attainment were associated with an increased chance of taking a vocational route in post-16 education and, consequently a lower chance of taking an academic route. The opposite was true for higher Year 11 levels of qualification attainment.
- Eligible young people on a two-year course in the pilot areas were slightly more likely to have taken a vocational route than their counterparts in the control areas.
- Eligible young people on one-year courses in the pilot areas were less likely to be taking an academic route and more likely to be combining academic and vocational courses than comparable young people in the control areas.
- Eligible young people in the pilot areas were slightly less likely to be studying post-16 Level 3 courses and more likely to be studying Level 2 compared to comparable young people in control areas.
- Although the majority of eligible young people in post-16 education were studying to improve their Year 11 qualification base, a substantial minority was not.
- Overall, around one-third of eligible young people who started post-16 education had completed a course at the end of Year 12. Typically, such one-year courses were part of a portfolio which also included one or more two-year courses.
- Eligible young people taking one-year post-16 GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were less likely to be taking an accompanying two-year course compared to young people in the control areas.
- Eligible young people taking one-year post-16 GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were less likely to drop out, compared to young people in the control areas.

- Eligible young people in the pilot areas, taking one-year post-16 GCSE/GNVQ courses, were more likely to be taking vocational courses than were comparable young people in the control areas.
- Eligible young people in the pilot areas taking one-year post-16 GCSE/GNVQ courses, despite having lower levels of Year 11 qualification attainment and higher levels of deprivation, attained as well as young people in the control areas with respect to the number of A*-C passes and grade-point scores.

5.1 Introduction

5.1.1 Overview

This chapter examines the courses of study taken by young people when they enter post-16 full-time education, and explores achievement amongst young people who had finished, by the end of Year 12, at least one of the courses they had started.

In Section 5.2, the types of post-16 courses taken by young people who entered full-time education in Year 12 are examined. Our expectation is that EMA will have drawn more young people into vocational, rather than academic, post-16 courses. This hypothesis derives from the findings that EMA has encouraged entry to full-time education mainly amongst young people from less affluent backgrounds (Chapter 2), who will on average be lower Year 11 achievers, and therefore more likely to take vocational courses (Payne, 2001).

If this hypothesis is true, and the pilot and control areas are well matched, a higher number of vocational courses would be expected in the pilot areas than in the control areas. However, differences might also emerge in the range of post-16 courses studied between young people in the pilot and control groups for a number of other reasons. For example, the courses on offer by the education providers might differ, or young people in the pilot and control areas might not be well matched in terms of their Year 11 attainment. These reasons, and others, could act singly or together to influence the distributions of course types in the pilot and control areas. The analysis presented here does not attempt to disentangle the extent to which these different possible reasons might have influenced the types of courses chosen by young people, although attention is drawn to some of these possible explanations.

Section 5.3 explores qualification attainment amongst young people who had finished a GCSE or an Intermediate or Foundation GNVQ course after one year in post-16 compulsory education. These young people do not comprise all young people who finished a course in Year 12. Other young people could have finished A or A-S levels, NVQs or other qualifications.

Whilst Section 5.3 offers an early insight into qualification attainment, the findings do not represent a full picture of the potential impact of EMA on post-16 qualification attainment. It is worth repeating that these young people had finished compulsory education in the summer of 1999 and had entered full-time education in Year 12 (September 1999 to July 2000). As a result, this report can only focus on results obtained after ***one*** year of post-16 full-time education and, therefore, the findings should be treated as interim, since most young people were taking two-year courses. A fuller analysis of qualification attainment will be possible from analysis of the next wave of interview data.

5.1.2 Methodological issues

The sample

The analysis was conducted using simple, weighted comparisons between young people in the pilot and control areas[31]. All results are based on young people who were estimated to be eligible for EMA at the first interview, were interviewed at both Waves 1 and 2 and were in full-time education at the Wave 1 interview. The data have been weighted to adjust for systematic differences in non-response to both the Wave 1 and Wave 2 interviews. This system of weighting is consistent with that used in previous chapters.

[31] In other words, no individual level matching derived from propensity scoring techniques was used.

Measuring qualification attainment

Qualification attainment was measured for new[32] GCSE courses, started in Year 12, and GNVQ courses at Foundation and Intermediate level. The rationale for restricting the analysis of results to new GCSE and GNVQ courses was that they have a common scoring system, which is not shared by NVQ and other vocational courses. In other words, it is possible to combine GCSE and GNVQ results into composite scales, of which there are two. The first scale is based on the number of GCSE passes, and a conversion formula allows GNVQ passes to be converted to an equivalent number of GCSE passes. There are, in effect, two sub-scales. The first ('Level 2') sub-scale counts the number of GCSE (or GNVQ equivalent) passes at A*-C levels; the second ('Level 1') sub-scale counts the GCSE/GNVQ passes at D-G level. The second scale is a grade-point summation, where higher quality results receive higher grade points. Thus, a higher grade-point score reflects greater achievement.

The DfES formula for converting GNVQ passes to GCSE passes is linked to the type of the qualification (Part One or Full) and course level (Foundation or Intermediate). Table 5.1 demonstrates that Part One GNVQ passes are equivalent to two GCSEs, whereas Full GNVQ passes are equivalent to four GCSEs.

Table 5.1 The GNVQ To GCSE Equivalent Pass Number Conversions

Qualification	Equivalent to Number of GCSEs	GCSE Grades
Full GNVQ		
Intermediate	4	A*-C
Foundation	4	D-G
Part One GNVQ		
Intermediate	2	A*-C
Foundation	2	D-G

Source: Department for Education and Skills (personal communication).

[32] i.e. not resits.

The grade-point score was constructed following the scoring system used by the DfES to calculate qualification attainment rates. It assigns a score of between 8 grade-points for an A* GCSE grade through to one-grade point for a G and zero for a fail (U). Scores are allocated to GNVQ results in a similar way according to the level of the course (Foundation or Intermediate), the exam grading (Distinction, Merit, Pass) and whether it is a Full, Part One or other course (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 The GNVQ to GCSE Grade-Point Conversions

GNVQ Grade	Full GNVQ	Part One GNVQ
Intermediate Distinction	30	15
Intermediate Merit	24	12
Intermediate Pass	20	10
Foundation Distinction	16	8
Foundation Merit	12	6
Foundation Pass	6	3

Source: Department for Education and Skills (personal communication).

Unfortunately, data were not collected at Wave 2 on whether GNVQ courses were of the Full or Part One type, since reports from interviewers after the first Wave interview showed that a substantial number of young people were unaware of the distinction between Full and Partial awards. For the purposes of this analysis, it has therefore been assumed that GNVQ passes were at the Part One level. Consequently, the GNVQ equivalent number of GCSE passes and grade-point scores are likely to be underestimates of those actually obtained, since some young people may have completed Full GNVQs.

5.2 Post-16 Courses

This section compares the post-16 courses taken by young people between the pilot and control areas. It is worth repeating that the type of post-16 courses taken by young people in the sample might vary for a number of reasons. One possible reason might be that young people in the pilot and control areas differ in their ability, and that this might influence their choice. Another possible reason might be differences in the courses on offer from education

providers in the pilot and control areas. No attempt has been made to control directly for these differences but some idea of the possible scope of the effects of contextual influences is outlined.

5.2.1 Year 11 qualification attainment

The importance of Year 11 qualification attainment in determining future educational attainment cannot be understated. For example, Payne (2001) showed that young people taking A or AS levels were predominantly higher achievers in Year 11; whereas, young people taking vocational courses, particularly at Levels 1 and 2, tended to be low achievers in Year 11.

Since differences in Year 11 attainment might influence young people's course choices in post-16 education this analysis starts by examining qualification attainment at the end of Year 11. The measure of Year 11 attainment was based upon the combined number of GNVQ and GCSE results (see above, Section 5.1, for the procedure used to equivalise GNVQ and GCSE passes).

A comparison of ***all*** (not just those in post-16 education in Year 12) EMA eligible young people between the pilot and control groups reveals that there were no significant differences in qualification attainment in Year 11 (Table 5.3). The implication of this is that any differences in the range of post-16 courses, taken by young people in the pilot group compared to the control group, are unlikely to be caused by differences in the availability of better qualified young people in one group rather than the other.

Overall, qualification attainment was comparatively low amongst EMA eligible young people, less than one-third had achieved five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes (31.4 per cent and 29.5 per cent, respectively in the control and pilot areas) (Table 5.3). This is well below the Government target that over a half of young people leaving compulsory education should get five or more A*-C GCSEs (DfEE, 1998), but is as expected since these young people are from the lower end of the family income spectrum (EMA eligible) who are living in highly deprived LEAs[33]. One-third had achieved 1-4 A*-C GCSE/GNVQ qualifications (34.4 per cent and 34.7 per cent in the control and pilot areas respectively). However, around

[33] The LEAs chosen for this study were selected from amongst the most deprived LEAs in England.

one-quarter of all EMA eligible young people attained only D-G GCSE/GNVQ grades and approximately one in ten achieved no grades at all, either failing all exams or not sitting any.

Table 5.3 Year 11 Attainment: All EMA Eligible Young People (Number Of GCSE/GNVQ Passes)

Column per cent

	Control	Pilot
None taken/passed	9.9	10.6
D-G passes	24.3	25.1
1-4 A*-C passes	34.4	34.7
5+ A*-C passes	31.4	29.5
N (unweighted)	2102	3437

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.

Qualification attainment in Year 11 was significantly higher amongst young people who had remained in full-time education in Year 12 and who lived in the control areas; 43.4 per cent had five or more A*-C GCSE passes compared to 38.4 per cent in the pilot areas (Table 5.4). Conversely, young people in full-time education in Year 12 in the pilot areas were more likely to have achieved only D-G GCSE passes (20.5 per cent) than were comparable young people in the control areas (17.9 per cent).

A distinction was made, amongst eligible young people who remained in full-time education and who lived in pilot areas, between those young people who had received EMA and those who had not. An EMA recipient was defined as an eligible young person[34] who at some time between the first and second Wave interviews had received an EMA payment. Non-recipients, therefore, were eligible young people who had never applied for EMA; had applied for EMA and had been refused; had applied for EMA and were awaiting a decision; or had applied for and been awarded EMA, but were awaiting payment.

[34] Or their parent/guardian in Variant 3 areas.

Amongst eligible young people in post-16 full-time education in the pilot areas, EMA recipients (38.9 per cent) were as likely to have had 5 or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes as were EMA non-recipients (40.6 per cent). However, recipients were more likely to have lower Year 11 attainment levels on other measures than non-recipients. Amongst recipients, only 35.5 per cent had 1-4 A*-C GCSE passes compared to 41 per cent of non-recipients; conversely, 22.6 per cent of recipients had obtained only of D-G GCSE passes compared to 14.1 per cent of non-recipients.

Table 5.4 Year 11 Attainment: EMA Eligible Young People in Full-Time Education in Year 12 (Number of GCSE/GNVQ Passes)

Column per cent

	Control	**Pilot**		
		Overall	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
None taken/passed	3.3	4.1	3.0	4.2
D-G passes	17.9	20.5	22.6	14.1
1-4 A*-C passes	35.5	36.9	35.5	41.0
5+ A*-C passes	43.4	38.4	38.9	40.6
N (unweighted)	1536	2661	1881	689

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2. Note missing data covering EMA receipt means that the recipient and non-recipient total N does not equal the overall pilot N. Young people with missing EMA data were proportionately more likely to have had no, or low, Year 11 qualifications.

5.2.2 Post-16 courses started in Year 12

Chapter 2 has already shown that EMA has been more likely to encourage less affluent young people into full-time education. Since less affluent young people tend to achieve at lower educational levels than their more affluent counterparts, greater numbers of lower achievers are expected in the pilot areas than in the control areas, because of EMA. These findings, taken in conjunction with Payne's (2001) findings, might lead to an expectation that more young people in the pilot areas would be studying vocational post-16 courses than young people in the control areas.

Course types

In this section post-16 courses studied by young people in the sample were categorised into academic and vocational courses. Academic courses include GCSEs, both resits and new courses, AS levels and A-levels[35]. Vocational courses include GNVQs, NVQs BTECs and other work-related qualifications. Young people were categorised according to their 'route' through post-16 education: academic or vocational, or both academic and vocational courses. However, it is worth noting that many young people following the joint academic and vocational route were principally taking a vocational route supplemented by GCSE resits.

Within both pilot and control areas, young people in post-16 education were more likely to be studying academic than vocational courses. However, whilst 44.7 per cent of young people in the control areas were studying academic courses only, 37.4 per cent of young people in the pilot areas were following this route (Table 5.5). Conversely, 34.6 per cent of young people in the pilot areas were studying vocational courses only, compared to 31.5 per cent in the control areas. A further 17.8 per cent of young people in the pilot areas were studying both academic and vocational courses, compared to 15.2 per cent in the control areas. Thus, as expected on the basis of Year 11 qualification attainment differences, a higher proportion of young people in the pilot areas was studying vocational courses than in the control areas.

There was also a slightly higher, albeit non-significant, occurrence of unknown course types in the pilot areas than in the controls (10.2 per cent compared to 8.6 per cent).

Amongst EMA recipients, academic only courses were less common (36.4 per cent) than amongst non-recipients (42.2 per cent) and, conversely, vocational only courses were more common amongst recipients (34.9 per cent) than non-recipients (31.1 per cent). Recipients were also slightly more likely to have unknown courses (10.7 per cent) than non-recipients (8.4 per cent). Explanations for these differences might also be linked to Year 11 achievement, since Table 5.4 showed that non-recipients were more likely to have achieved higher Year 11 qualifications than recipients. This might help to explain the findings observed in Table 5.5, with higher Year 11 achievers being more likely than lower achievers both to be EMA non-recipients and to take a post-16 academic, rather than vocational, route.

[35] The data were collected prior to the introduction of the 'A2' examination, which is a two year course that essentially is an AS level in the first year and leads to an A-level if the course is continued into the second year.

Table 5.5 Academic and Vocational Post-16 Courses Started in Year 12

Column per cent

	Control	Pilot		
		Overall	Recipient	Non-recipient
None/missing	8.6	10.2	10.7	8.4
Academic	44.7	37.4	36.4	42.2
Vocational	31.5	34.6	34.9	31.1
Academic & vocational	15.2	17.8	18.0	18.3
N (unweighted)	1536	2661	1881	689

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2. Note missing data covering EMA receipt means that the recipient and non-recipient total N does not equal the overall pilot N. Young people with missing EMA data were proportionately more likely to have been on vocational post-16 courses.

The relationship between Year 11 qualification attainment and the route taken through post-16 education differed in the pilot areas compared to the control areas (Table 5.6). As discussed below, this difference between pilot and control areas primarily is manifest amongst young people whose Year 11 attainment was less than five A*-C GCSE passes, and resulted in lower proportions of young people in the pilot areas taking an academic post-16 route.

Two possible reasons for these findings suggest themselves. First, EMA brings into full-time education young people who are either particularly averse to academic courses or attracted to vocational courses[36]. Secondly, factors other than EMA influence the distribution of post-16 course types. Disentangling the relative influences of these potential reasons is beyond the scope of this analysis.

[36] If EMA were increasing the number of low achievers in post-16 education, there is no a-priori reason to suppose that this would lower the group mean of Year 11 achievement within low achievers, however, it would lower the overall mean achievement of the combined low, moderate and high groups.

For young people who had attained D-G grades, or no GCSE qualifications, in Year 11, post-16 vocational only courses were more common than they were for young people who had attained at least 1 A*-C GCSE pass in Year 11. Sixty per cent of low attaining young people in the pilot group were taking vocational only courses, as were 58.4 per cent of comparable young people in the control group (Table 5.6). This difference is not statistically significant. Academic only courses were least prevalent amongst low achievers (D-G grades, or none, at GCSE) in the pilot areas (6.5 per cent), and, to a lesser extent, in the control areas (11.3 per cent). This difference is statistically significant. Moreover, 17.5 per cent of Year 11 low achievers (D-G, or no, GCSE grades) in the pilot areas were combining academic and vocational qualifications, as were 15.3 per cent of comparable young people in the control areas. However, if GCSE resits are excluded from the post-16 course options, these figures drop to 3.1 per cent and 3.9 per cent, respectively; whereas the figures for vocational courses increase to 74.5 per cent and 69.6 per cent, respectively. Again, this shows the tendency for lower achievers to take a vocational route through post-16 education.

Vocational only post-16 courses were also common amongst young people with 1-4 A*-C passes in Year 11, although to a much lesser extent than amongst Year 11 low achievers (D-G, or no, GCSE grades). In both the pilot and control groups, 42.6 per cent of young people with 1-4 A*-C GCSE passes in Year 11 were taking vocational only courses. Combining post-16 vocational and academic courses was more common in the pilot areas (23.6 per cent) than in the controls (18.5 per cent), whilst 23.5 per cent and 29.3 per cent were taking academic only courses, respectively in the pilot and control areas.

Amongst young people attaining five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes there were no significant differences between the pilot and control groups in the distribution of post-16 courses. For these high achievers in Year 11, an academic route was most likely whether or not they were in the pilot or control group. In fact, only about one in ten high achievers in this sample were following a vocational route.

Table 5.6 Academic and Vocational Post-16 Courses Started in Year 12 By Year 11 Attainment

Column per cent

	Year 11 qualifications					
	None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
Post-16 course	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**
Unknown	15.9	15.0	10.3	9.7	6.4	4.5
Academic	6.5	11.3	23.5	29.3	70.5	73.6
Vocational	60.1	58.4	42.6	42.6	10.7	9.4
Academic & vocational	17.5	15.3	23.6	18.5	12.4	12.6
Unweighted N	500	268	970	541	1191	727

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.

EMA and length of time spent in post-16 education

This section explores the possible link between EMA and the length of time a young person spends in post-16 education. Typically, post-16 academic courses such as A-levels are two-year courses and AS levels[37] and GCSE courses are one-year[38]. However, newer vocational courses, such as GNVQs and NVQs, are competence-based qualifications which are not linked to completion over a fixed time-scale. In other words, a person works towards the qualification in their own time and conceptualising a time distinction such as a one or two-year course is not so clear-cut. However, EMA is available, in most cases, for only two years of study, except in special circumstances (for example, where a young person has special needs).

[37] AS exams could be studied in their own right as a one-year course, but were also a precursor to an A-level in the second year of study. Hence an AS level could be viewed either as a one or two-year course. Curriculum 2000 replaced A and AS-levels with A2 levels but was only introduced the year after this cohort of young people were interviewed at Wave 1 (1999/2000).

[38] Post-16 GCSE courses, in most cases, are completed in one academic year.

For the purposes of this analysis, a 'course of study' is used to describe a portfolio of individual 'one-year' or 'two-year' courses; for example, a two-year course of study might comprise a one-year course such as a GCSE and a two-year course such as an A-level. A young person is classified as starting a two-year course if they were in full-time education at the time of the first interview in Year 12 and also at their second interview in Year 13. This classification does not enable a distinction to be made between a young person who started and completed a one-year course of study in Year 12 and then started a further course of study in Year 13 from a young person that started a two-year course of study in Year 12 and remained on that course in Year 13.

A young person is classified as completing a one-year course if they were in full-time education at their first interview in Year 12, but had left full-time education in Year 13, at their second interview, and reported that they had left because their course of study was finished. As a consequence, young people who were initially on a one-year course of study but continued in full-time education in Year 13, as described above, would not be classified here as on a one-year course, but as on a two-year course.

A young person who started full-time education in Year 12, and was not in full-time education at their second interview in Year 13, for a reason other than that their course had finished, was defined as a 'drop out'. It is not possible to ascertain from the data whether drop out occurred within the first year of a one or a two-year course of study.

Young people on a two-year course of study were much more likely than those on a one-year course, or who had dropped out, to be taking academic qualifications. However, amongst young people on a two-year study course in the pilot areas 42.5 per cent were taking academic qualifications, compared to 51.4 per cent counterparts in the control areas (Table 5.7). To what extent, if any, this difference reflects the impact of EMA or pre-existing area differences in Year 11 attainment is difficult to determine.

Conversely, young people taking a two-year study course in the pilot area were more likely to take vocational courses (29.3 per cent) than were comparable young people in the control areas (25.2 per cent) (Table 5.7). Similarly, combined academic and vocational courses were slightly more prevalent amongst young people on two-year courses in the pilot areas (18.8 per cent) than they were amongst their counterparts in the control areas (16.3 per cent).

Young people taking one-year courses were most likely to be completing vocational courses (62.9 per cent of young people in the pilot areas and 60 per cent in the control areas). The main differences between young people on a one-year course were that those in the pilot areas were less likely to take academic courses (8.2 per cent) and more likely to combine academic and vocational courses (18.6 per cent) than were their counterparts in the control areas, (17.1 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively). It is worth noting that the majority of these one-year academic courses were GCSE resits.

Over half of the young people who dropped out of full-time education did so from vocational courses (55.7 per cent in the pilot areas and 54.9 per cent in the control areas). There were no differences between pilot and control areas amongst drop outs with respect to course types.

Table 5.7 Type of Course by Course Duration

Column Per Cent

	Two-year course		**One-Year course**		**Drop-out**	
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**
Missing/none	9.4	7.2	10.3	12.9	15.0	14.6
Academic	42.5	51.4	8.2	17.1	17.9	19.0
Vocational	29.3	25.2	62.9	60.0	55.7	54.9
Academic & vocational	18.8	16.3	18.6	10.0	11.4	11.5
Unweighted N	2197	1228	105	70	344	295

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.

Course levels

A key issue for the evaluation is the extent to which the EMA incentive improves young people's attainment rates. The next Wave of data (Wave 3) will provide substantial evidence to measure the effect of EMA on educational attainment rates. However, this subsection begins this process by exploring the differences between the pilot and control areas in relation to the levels of post-16 courses that are being undertaken by young people.

For the purposes of this analysis, post-16 courses were grouped according to whether they fell into the NVQ equivalent Level 1, 2 or 3 distinction (Table 5.8). For GNVQ courses, Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced courses equate respectively to NVQ levels 1, 2 and 3. Amongst other vocational/occupational qualifications, a BTEC was assigned a Level 2 equivalence, but it was not possible to assign a level to other types of vocational qualifications.

Table 5.8 Equivalence Between Academic, Vocational and Occupational Qualifications

Level of qualification	General		Vocationally related	Occupational
5	Higher level qualifications			Level 5 NVQ
4				Level 4 NVQ
3 advanced level	A Level	Free-standing mathematics units level 3	Vocational A level (Advanced GNVQ)	Level 3 NVQ
2 intermediate level	GCSE Grade A*-C	Free-standing mathematics units level 2	Intermediate GNVQ	Level 2 NVQ
1 foundation level	GCSE Grade D-G	Free-standing mathematics units level 1	Foundation GNVQ	Level 1 NVQ
Entry level	Certificate of (educational) achievement			

Source: Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002).

Amongst academic courses, A and AS levels are equivalent to NVQ Level 3. The level assigned to a GCSE is dependent upon the actual qualification obtained (A*-C equating to Level 2 and D-G to Level 1)[39].

The most common level of course studied was Level 3. However, whilst 62.2 per cent of young people in the control areas were studying at Level 3, only 56.8 per cent of comparable young people were studying Level 3 qualifications in the pilot areas (Table 5.9). A greater number of young people in the pilot areas were studying Level 2 courses (26 per cent) in

[39] Since information was not collected in the survey on the grade at which GCSE resits were passed, it was not possible unequivocally to assign these to their corresponding NVQ level. Instead, when a person took both a vocational and GCSE course, the person was assigned to the level of their vocational course. If only GCSE courses were taken, the person was assigned at Level 1. A person taking more than one course was classified using the highest level course, irrespective of whether it was academic or vocational.

comparison to the control areas (21.1 per cent). There was no significant difference between pilot and control areas in the number of young people taking Level 1 courses.

A comparison between EMA recipients and non-recipients showed that a greater number of recipients were studying Level 1 courses (17.1 per cent) than were non-recipients (13.4 per cent). Conversely, non-recipients were slightly more likely than recipients to have taken courses at Levels 2 or 3. However, among both EMA recipients and non-recipients, only a minority were taking Level 1 courses, with the majority taking Level 3 courses.

Table 5.9 Level of Post-16 Courses Started in Year 12

Column Per Cent

	Control	**Pilot**		
Level		**Overall**	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
1	16.7	17.2	17.1	13.4
2	21.1	26.0	25.7	27.2
3	62.2	56.8	57.2	59.4
N (unweighted)	1347	2298	1621	603

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2 and who were taking a post-16 qualification that could be classified as NVQ, or equivalent, Level 1, 2 or 3. Note missing data covering EMA receipt means that the recipient and non-recipient total N does not equal the overall pilot N.

Differences in the levels of post-16 courses studied emerge when taking into account Year 11 attainment (Table 5.10). Not surprisingly, relatively few young people who obtained only D-G passes in Year 11 were taking Level 3 courses. However, amongst young people who had obtained only D-G passes in Year 11, 8.7 per cent were taking Level 3 qualifications in the control areas compared to 5.2 per cent of comparable young people in the pilot areas. Conversely, 49.7 per cent of low achievers (D-G, or no, GCSE passes) in Year 11 in the pilot areas had started a Level 2 course compared to 42.7 per cent of comparable young people in the control areas.

Nearly one half of young people who had passed 1-4 A*-C GCSEs in Year 11 had taken Level 3 post-16 courses (46 per cent in both the pilot and control areas). Approximately one-third of moderate Year 11 achievers (1-4 A*-C GCSEs) had started a Level 2 course (36.9

per cent in the pilot areas and 33.7 per cent in the control areas). However, about one-fifth of young people who had attained 1-4 A*-C GCSEs at Year 11 were taking Level 1 courses (17.1 per cent in the pilot areas and 20.3 per cent in the control areas). These figures show that under one-half of young people, in this attainment group, were actually aiming to improve the level at which they were already qualified (Level 2 at Year 11). The remainder were seeking to broaden their knowledge or skills at either the same or a lower level than they had obtained at Year 11.

Amongst high Year 11 achievers (5 or more A*-C GCSE passes), the overwhelming majority were aiming for advancement with Level 3 post-16 qualifications (94.6 per cent and 96.0 per cent, respectively in the pilot and control areas). Only one in 20 high achievers were seeking to broaden their skills or knowledge base at lower qualification levels than they had already attained.

Table 5.10 Level of Post-16 Courses Started in Year 12 By Year 11 Attainment

Column Per Cent

	Year 11 Qualifications					
	None/D-G		**1-4 A*-C**		**5+ A*-C**	
Level of Year 2 course	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**
1	45.1	48.7	17.1	20.3	2.1	1.0
2	49.7	42.7	36.9	33.7	3.3	3.0
3	5.2	8.7	46.0	46.0	94.6	96.0
Unweighted N	380	208	833	456	1085	683

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.

5.3 Year 12 Attainment

This section focuses on qualification attainment amongst young people who started and finished a post-16 course in Year 12, in particular on GCSEs and Foundation and Intermediate GNVQs completed by the end of Year 12.

There is no common metric that allows the range of post-16 courses to be considered in combination. The official equivalence scales between Level 1 and 2 GNVQs and GCSEs are presented in Section 5.1. Similar procedures exist at Level 3 for combining A/AS-Levels with Advanced GNVQs. However, no official procedures exist for combining attainment measured at Levels 1 and 2 with Level 3, even for these types of academic and GNVQ courses. There is no equivalence procedure to match GNVQs and academic courses with NVQs and other vocational qualifications.

For these reasons, the measures of attainment considered are presented only for Levels 1 and 2 GCSE and GNVQ qualifications started and completed by the end of Year 12. In addition, as the vast majority of Level 3 courses are completed after two years, those courses completed within one year are too few to provide robust early data to explore evidence of an EMA effect. Findings from the results on attainment in Level 1 and 2 GCSE/GNVQ are based on relatively small numbers and select groups, which reinforces the need for caution in generalising the findings.

Two measures of attainment are explored: the number of GCSE/GNVQ passes, and grade-point averages.

5.3.1 Courses ending in Year 12

Overall, approximately one-third of young people who had started a post-16 qualification had completed at least one course by the end of Year 12. There was no significant difference between young people in the pilot and control groups in the proportions who finished a GCSE/GNVQ course (16.4 per cent and 18.3 per cent, respectively); completed other one-year courses with no GCSE/GNVQs (14.9 per cent and 14 per cent, respectively); or who took no one-year course (68.7 per cent and 67.7 per cent, respectively) (Table 5.11).

It was, however, apparent that EMA recipients (19.5 per cent) were more likely than non-recipients (14.5 per cent) to have completed a GCSE/GNVQ course by the end of Year 12. Conversely, non-recipients were slightly more likely to have taken two-year courses (70.7 per cent compared to 67.2 per cent of recipients).

Table 5.11 Post-16 Courses Started and Completed in Year 12

Column Per Cent

	Control	Pilot		
Type		**Overall**	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
GCSE/GNVQ	16.4	18.3	19.5	14.5
Other	14.9	14.0	13.3	14.7
None	68.7	67.7	67.2	70.7
N (unweighted)	1536	2659	1880	689

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2. Note: missing data covering EMA receipt means that the recipient and non-recipient total N does not equal the overall pilot N.

In general, young people who had started and finished a course within Year 12 had done so as a part of a wider portfolio of courses including at least one two-year course of study[40]. However, young people who had completed GCSE/GNVQs (73.4 per cent in the pilot and 71.5 per cent in the control areas) were slightly less likely to be on a two-year study course than their counterparts who had completed other one-year courses (79.1 per cent in the pilot and 77.1 per cent in the control areas) (Table 5.12).

Young people who had completed one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were more likely to have completed only one year in post-16 education and then left (13.9 per cent) than young people in the control areas (9.5 per cent). Additionally, amongst young people who had completed one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses, drop out was lower in the pilot areas, at 12.7 per

[40] In Table 5.12 the rows are defined on the basis of a young person's stated main economic activity in Waves 1 and 2 (as in Chapter 4). Thus, 'two years' refers to a young person in full-time education at both Waves 1 and 2. 'One year' refers to someone in full-time education at Wave 1 but not at Wave 2, and who said they had completed their course when asked why they were no longer in full-time education at Wave 2. 'Drop out' refers to someone in full-time education at Wave 1 but not at Wave 2 and who gave an answer other than course completion as a reason for no longer being in full-time education. In contrast a 'one-year course', the column of Table 5.12 is defined in response to specific questions about post-16 educational courses taken. In this instance, a person would have reported completing one, or more, specific courses at the end of Year 12.

cent, compared to the control areas, at 19 per cent; which might reflect the positive effect EMA is having on retention rates (Chapter 2). Amongst young people completing other one-year courses in Year 12, there was no difference between young people living in pilot and control areas in the numbers leaving after one year, continuing into Year 13 or dropping out.

Inevitably, the vast majority of young people who had not completed a one-year course in Year 12 were studying two-year courses (84.1 per cent in the pilot and 82.2 per cent in the control areas). The proportions of young people who had not finished a Year 12 course and who had dropped out were not significantly different between the pilot areas (13.9 per cent) and the control areas (15.7 per cent). However, in both the pilot and control areas, approximately two per cent of young people with no Year 12 course completion data had apparently finished a course but had missing data that did not allow identification of the courses started and completed in Year 12.

Table 5.12 Post-16 Courses Started and Completed in Year 12 by Duration

Column Per Cent

	One-Year Course Type					
	GCSE/GNVQ		Other		None	
Overall Duration: Course of Study	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**
Two-years	73.4	71.5	79.1	77.1	84.1	82.2
One-year	13.9	9.5	7.2	6.0	2.0[a]	2.1[a]
Drop out	12.7	19.0	13.7	16.9	13.9	15.7
Unweighted N	396	230	378	218	1870	1087

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.
Note: [a] These young had reported themselves as in full-time education in Year 12 but not in Year 13 and reported finishing their course as a reason for leaving full-time education. However, there were no data to indicate the post-16 course taken or the examination outcome, so they could not be classed as GCSE/GNVQ or 'other'.

5.3.2 Young people starting and completing a Year 12 GCSE/GNVQ course

Characteristics of young people who had started and finished GCSE/GNVQ courses in Year 12

Although it is not the intention in this chapter to provide evidence to measure the impact of EMA on qualification attainment, comparisons are made in the qualifications obtained at the end of Year 12 between young people living in the pilot and control areas. An initial investigation shows the extent to which young people in the pilot and control areas who had started and completed GCSE/GNVQ courses in Year 12 differed from each other in terms of characteristics that might influence Year 12 attainment. Two broad dimensions of difference were explored: Year 11 attainment and levels of deprivation. Both of these factors are known to impact more generally on educational attainment.

In this analysis of post-16 attainment at the end of Year 12, it was apparent that the young people in the pilot areas were from less affluent backgrounds than were their counterparts in the control areas (Table 5.13). The extent of child poverty[41] and material deprivation[42] amongst both recipients and non-recipients of EMA in pilot areas was much greater than in the control areas. Year 11 attainment was also lower amongst young people in the pilot group than in the control group. Young people in the pilot areas had passed an average of 1.33 GCSEs at A*-C compared to an average of 1.86 amongst corresponding young people in the control group. The corresponding average grade-point scores were 24.66 (pilot) and 27.37 (control). In addition, and as expected given the known relationship between family income and attainment, average annual family income[43] (measured in the year before the 1st interview) was lower in the pilot group (£14,982) than in the control group (£16,949).

Within pilot areas, comparing EMA recipients and non-recipients showed that Year 11 attainment was slightly higher for non-recipients than for recipients (an average of 1.35 GCSE A*-C passes compared to an average of 1.28; grade-point averages of 26.19 (non-recipients) to 24.02 (recipients)). However, deprivation scores were approximately equivalent for recipients and non-recipients and, rather surprisingly, family income was lower amongst non-

[41] Measured as the number of children in families in receipt of means tested benefits in the ward.

[42] The DTLR Index of Material Deprivation, measured as a composite of six factors at ward level: income, employment, health, education, housing and access to services.

[43] Family income here is defined as the (gross) income of the parents/guardians with whom the child lives rather than as income used to define EMA eligibility. Income used to define EMA eligibility is based on the income of biological parents and legal guardians, but excludes income amongst other family members such as stepparents with no legal responsibility.

recipients[44]. Given the relatively high attainment levels of non-recipients, a lower average family income was unexpected because of the relationship between low achievement and low income. This difference might be caused by measurement error within the income estimation procedure, which has resulted in low estimates of income; or it may be that these non-recipients represent a special group of comparatively high attaining young people from low income families. Whatever the group, EMA non-recipients tended to have better Year 11 attainment, and, as such, might be expected to achieve more highly in post-16 education.

Table 5.13 Deprivation and Year 11 Results

Average

	Control	**Pilot**		
		Overall	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
Family income (£)	16,949	14,982	15,244	13,921
Number A*-C GCSE/GNVQ exams Year 11	1.86	1.33	1.28	1.35
Year 11 GCSE GPA	27.37	24.66	24.02	26.19
Child poverty index	44.06	49.61	49.35	50.83
Material deprivation index	37.89	43.88	43.82	43.90
Unweighted N	217	382	285	81

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2, starting and finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12, and with valid exam data. (Note: missing values on the EMA receipt variable mean that the subtotal recipient and non-recipient N does not match that of the overall pilot N.)

The numbers taking GCSE and GNVQ courses

Young people in the control areas were much more likely to have taken GCSE courses in Year 12 than young people in the pilot areas (Table 5.14). Conversely, young people in the pilot areas were more likely to have taken GNVQ courses than were young people in the control areas. It is not clear to what extent this reflects differences associated with the types of courses on offer from education providers in the pilot and control areas or differences in the preferences of young people in the two groups.

[44] Family income was an estimate based on data from a number of sources within the questionnaire, and, as such, was subject to error.

Amongst young people who had taken GCSEs, 16 per cent had taken a single GCSE in the control areas compared to 10.4 per cent in the pilot areas (Table 5.14). The corresponding figures for young people taking two or more GCSE courses were 8.5 per cent and 3.8 per cent; so that over twice as many young people in the control areas had taken two or more GCSE courses than their counterparts in the pilot areas. However, within the pilot areas, there was no significant difference amongst EMA recipients and non-recipients in the proportions that had taken one or more GCSEs.

GNVQs were much more prevalent amongst courses completed within one year than were GCSEs in both the pilot and control areas but were most prevalent in the pilot areas. Almost 85 per cent of young people who had started and finished a course in Year 12 in the pilot areas had taken a single GNVQ course and three per cent had taken two or more compared to 73.2 per cent and 3.1 per cent respectively, in the control areas. However, there was no difference in the pilot areas in the number of GNVQs taken between EMA recipients and non-recipients.

Table 5.14 Number of GCSE and GNVQ Examinations Taken Amongst Young People Who had Started and Finished a Post-16 GCSE/GNVQ in Year 12

Column per cent

	Control	**Pilot**		
		Overall	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
Taking no GCSEs (%)	75.5	85.8	86.4	86.1
Taking 1 GCSE (%)	16.0	10.4	9.5	9.7
Taking 2+ GCSEs (%)	8.5	3.8	4.0	4.2
Taking no GNVQs (%)	23.7	12.3	11.7	11.0
Taking 1 GNVQ (%)	73.2	84.7	85.0	86.3
Taking 2+ GNVQs (%)	3.1	3.0	3.3	2.7
Unweighted N	230	399	300	83

Base: EMA eligible young people, responding to Waves 1 and 2 interviews, starting and finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12. (Note: missing values on the EMA receipt variable mean that the subtotal recipient and non-recipient N does not match that of the overall pilot N).

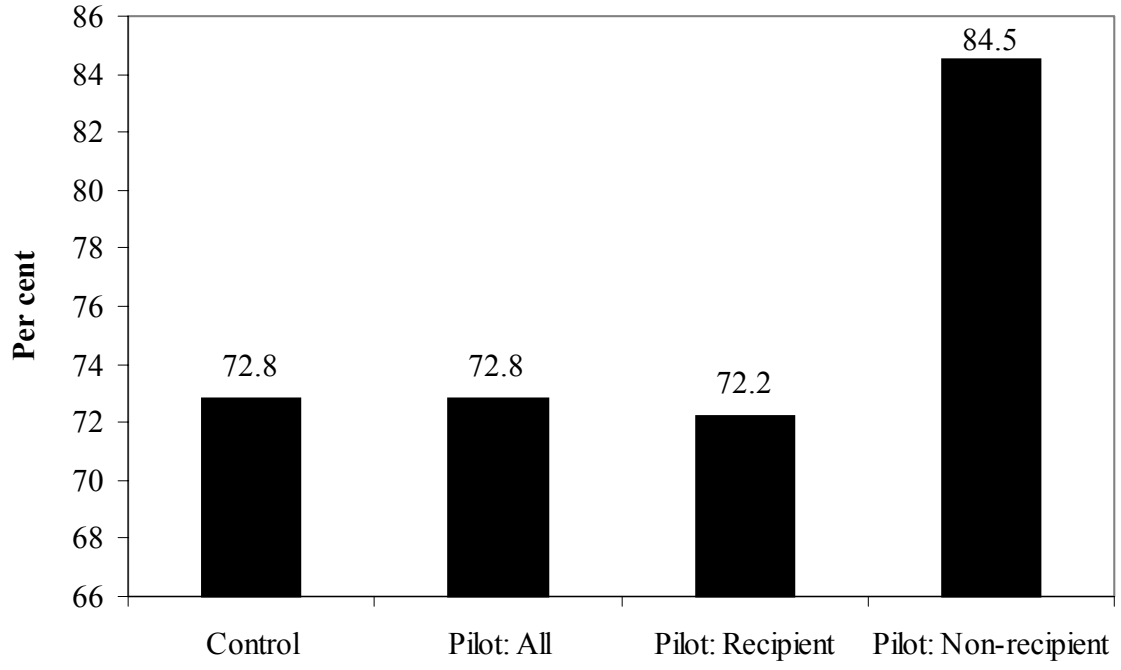
Number of GCSE/GNVQ equivalent passes

One or more A-C passes*

Of young people in the pilot areas in full-time education who had completed a GCSE/GNVQ course which they started in Year 12, 72.8 per cent had passed one or more with an A*-C GCSE/GNVQ equivalent score (Figure 5.1). Exactly the same percentage of young people in the control areas had passed one or more GCSE/GNVQ exams at A*-C.

However, EMA non-recipients in the pilot areas (84.5 per cent), were significantly more likely to have passed their exam(s) with an A*-C grade than were recipients of EMA (72.2 per cent). But Table 5.13 has shown that non-recipients had higher Year 11 attainment on average than recipients. This higher Year 11 attainment might, at least in part, help to explain higher levels of attainment in Year 12 on these one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses among non-recipients, although other factors might also have played their part.

Figure 5.1 Passing One or More A*-C GCSE/GNVQ Equivalent Exams: Young People who had Started and Finished a Post-16 Course in Year 12



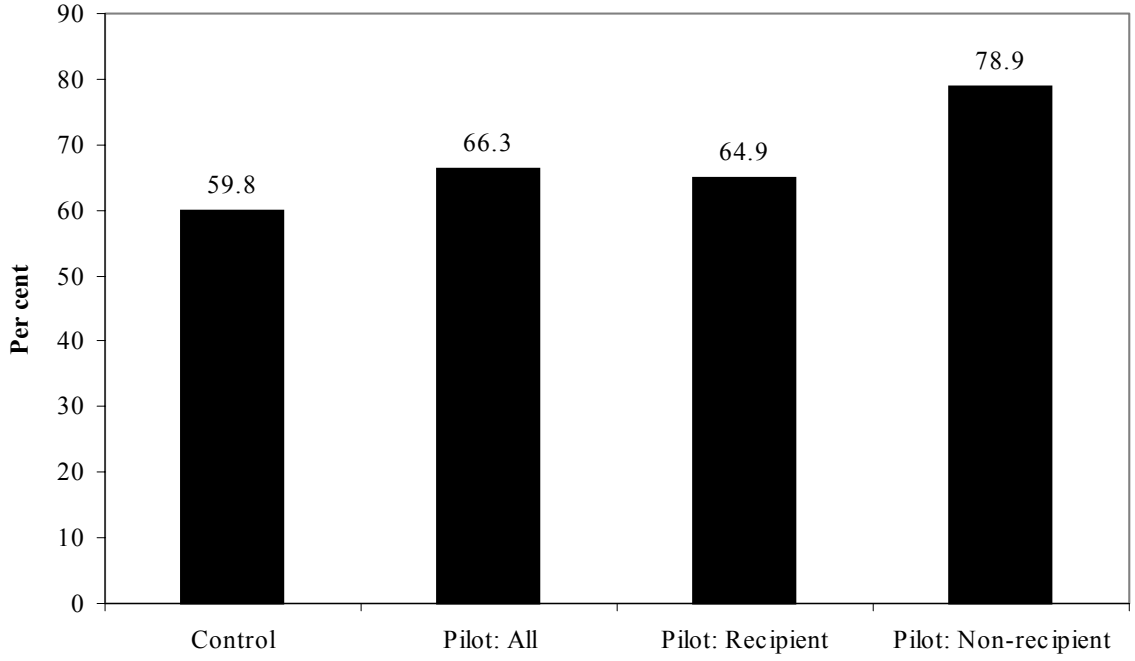
Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2, starting and finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12, with one or more valid examination results. (Unweighted N: Control=217, Pilot All=382, EMA recipient=285, EMA non-recipient=81; EMA recipient and non-recipient N does not total to Pilot All because of missing EMA receipt data).

Two or more A*-C passes

Exploring achievement rates at two or more A*-C passes showed that 66.3 per cent of young people in the pilot areas had passed two or more exams with an A*-C GCSE/GNVQ equivalent score compared to 59.8 per cent in the control areas (Figure 5.2). This difference is not statistically significant at conventional levels ($P<0.05$), which suggests that young people in the pilot areas, despite their more disadvantaged backgrounds, achieved GCSE/GNVQ courses, at the same level as their more advantaged counterparts in the control areas on one year GCSE/GNVQ courses[45].

Amongst young people in the pilot areas, significantly fewer EMA recipients (64.9 per cent) than non-recipients (78.9 per cent) had achieved this standard, which displays a similar pattern to that observed among young people who had achieved one or more A*-C passes (see above).

Figure 5.2 Passing Two or More A*-C GCSE/GNVQ Equivalent Exams: Young People who had Started and Finished a Post-16 Course in Year 12



Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2, starting and finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12, with one or more valid examination results. (Unweighted N: Control=217, Pilot All=382, EMA recipient=285, EMA non-recipient=81; EMA recipient and non-recipient N does not total to Pilot All because of missing EMA receipt data).

[45] Controlling for the deprivation and Year 11 attainment differences, using a logistic regression model, still showed no statistically significant difference in attainment on two or more A*-C passes in one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses between young people in the pilot and control areas.

Achievement gain Year 11 to 12: increasing A-C GCSE/GNVQ passes:*
Achievement can also be measured in relation to the extent to which young people have improved their educational qualifications, by taking into account the combined Years 11 and 12 achievement outcomes.

Seven per cent of young people in the pilot areas, who had completed a one-year GCSE/GNVQ course in Year 12, had previously achieved five or more A*-C GCSE qualifications in Year 11 compared to 14 per cent in the control areas (Table 5.15). In Year 12, the proportions were 16 and 27 per cent, respectively. Overall, the proportionate increase amongst young people in the pilot areas, at 2.3, was not substantially greater than that amongst young people in the control areas (1.9).

A comparison of young people receiving and not receiving EMA within the pilot areas shows no significant difference in terms of enhancing their qualification base between Years 11 and 12.

Table 5.15 Achievement Gain in Year 12: Young People Passing 5+ A*-C GCSE/GNVQ Examinations

Average

	Control	**Pilot**		
		Overall	**Recipient**	**Non-recipient**
Year 11	13.8	6.8	6.9	5.6
Years 11 and 12 combined	26.8	15.5	14.5	18.3
Proportionate gain	1.9	2.3	2.1	3.3
Unweighted N	217	382	285	81

Base: EMA eligible young people finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12.

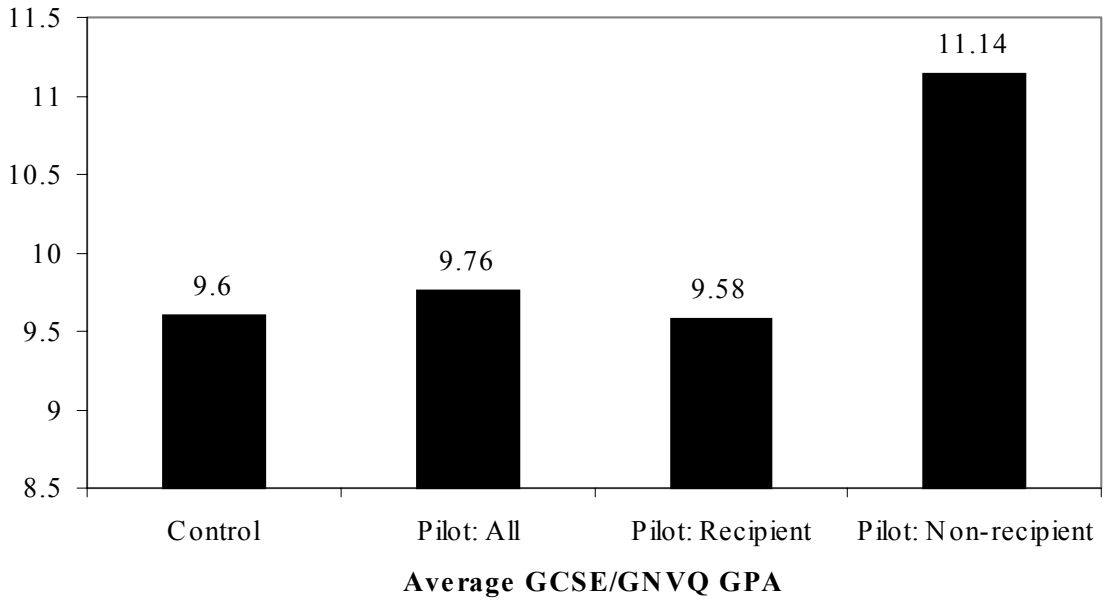
GCSE/GNVQ grade point average

Another standard measure of attainment (described in Section 5.1) involves assigning grade-point values to qualifications according to the level of the pass and then summing these values across all qualifications[46].

Taking the sum of these grade-points, across all GCSE and GNVQ exams finished as one-year courses in Year 12, and averaging them across students gives a grade point average (GPA). The average GPA was around just over nine and a half (Figure 5.3) for young people in both the pilot (9.76) and control (9.60) areas and the difference between pilot and control was not statistically significantly different (t=0.302, P=0.762)[47].

Within pilot areas, EMA non-recipients obtained slightly higher attainment using the GPA measure than did EMA recipients (11.1 compared to 9.6).

Figure 5.3 Year 12 GCSE/GNVQ GPA Examination Score



Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Wave 2, starting and finishing a GCSE or GNVQ Foundation or Intermediate course in Year 12, with one or more valid examination results. (Unweighted N: Control=217, Pilot All=285, EMA recipient=285, EMA non-recipient=81; EMA recipient and non-recipient N does not total to Pilot All because of missing EMA receipt data).

[46] Here, for reasons of missing data, described above in Section 5.1, a Part 1 GNVQ course was assumed for the purposes of scoring.

[47] Using a logistic regression model and controlling for deprivation and Year 11 attainment still showed no significant difference between pilots and controls.

5.4 Conclusion

There is evidence to suggest that EMA has encouraged some EMA eligible Year 11 low qualification achievers into post-16 education. This reinforces evidence presented in Chapter 2, which showed that EMA has had a positive impact on persuading some young people from less affluent economic backgrounds to participate in post-16 education.

Furthermore, although eligible young people in post-16 education were mainly following an academic route, greater numbers of young people in the pilot areas than in the control areas were following a vocational route. This relationship between lower Year 11 attainment and the propensity to undertake post-16 vocational courses has been observed in previous research (e.g. Payne, 2001).

In addition, a greater proportion of young people in the pilot areas were studying Level 2 post-16 courses than were comparable groups of young people in the control areas who, in turn, were more likely to be studying Level 3 courses. This presumably reflects the increased numbers of low Year 11 qualification achievers who were encouraged to enter post-16 education by EMA in the pilot areas compared to the control areas.

Around one-third of eligible young people had finished a post-16 course at the end of Year 12, and most of them were remaining in full-time education to complete a two-year course. There was no difference between pilot and control areas in the numbers of young people taking one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses, although following a GNVQ route was more common in pilot areas. However, there was some evidence to suggest that young people in the pilot areas were slightly more likely to be completing one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses and then leaving full-time education than were groups of comparable young people in the control areas. In other words, EMA appears to have had a positive impact on retaining young people in post-16 education on one-year courses. In addition, EMA appeared to have discouraged drop out amongst those who started a GCSE/GNVQ course in Year 12: a lower drop rate was found in the pilot areas than in the control areas.

Despite lower Year 11 qualification attainment and higher levels of socio-economic deprivation, young people in the pilot areas attained similar results to comparable young

people in the control areas in their one-year GCSE/GNVQs in terms both of the numbers of A*-C passes and their grade-point scores.

6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

EMA was introduced with the joint aims of encouraging more young people, particularly from deprived backgrounds, into post-16 education, helping to keep them there and ensuring achievement. This report has shown that EMA has increased participation and retention in post-16 education, particularly amongst young people from low-income families. However, any conclusion about achievement must await the results of the next wave of interviews with young people.

The most robust estimate of the EMA participation effect is obtained by combining data from both cohorts of young people, which gives an estimated participation impact of 5.9 percentage points. However, the estimated impact of EMA was larger amongst the first cohort of young people (7.9 percentage points) than amongst the second cohort (4.6 percentage points). It is not possible to state with any certainty whether this reflects chance differential year-on-year fluctuations in the staying on rates, as commonly occur (e.g. Maguire et al., 2001b), or a change in the impact of EMA. Overall, just over one-half of young people encouraged into post-16 education by EMA would otherwise have gone into work and/or training, and just under one half would have been not in education, employment or training (NEET).

When a distinction was made between urban and rural areas, a definite impact was observed in urban areas; but, in rural areas, the estimated impact was not quite significantly different from zero. However, precision of the estimates was comparatively poor in the rural areas because the one rural area where EMA was piloted was, in many ways, very different from the two rural control areas, leading to difficulties in the matching procedure. On balance, it seems likely that EMA does have an impact in the rural area but that the methods used here do not have the power to detect that effect.

The impact of EMA on participation was greater for young men than for young women. This result should help to ameliorate pre-existing differences in staying on rates, which currently favour young women. However, both for young men and young women, estimates in the urban areas were, again, more robust than in rural areas, which were non-significant.

The impact of EMA was greater for young people, both young men and women, who were eligible for a full award than for young people eligible for a partial award. In fact, amongst young people eligible for a partial award, the impact was not significantly different from zero.

A significant Year 13 participation gap, the difference in the proportions in post-16 education between the pilot and control group, was seen for both urban and rural areas. This Year 13 participation gap appeared primarily to be driven by differences in retention rates. However, when distinguishing between young men and young women, the Year 13 participation gap was significant for young men in urban areas, but not young women. The effects were not significant either for young men or young women in rural areas, but this probably reflects the comparatively low sample sizes of these two subgroups rather than no rural participation effect.

A comparison of the EMA variants was complicated by the fact that differences between them in participation or retention rates could be caused by differences in the make-up of the variant or by area specific differences, such as the administration and take-up of EMA, or some other influential factors[48]. Matching procedures were used on two different bases. The first, 'non-overlapping samples', allowed for compositional differences in individual characteristics across the variant areas. This problem was overcome by using the second, 'overlapping' samples matching. However, whilst both approaches yielded relatively consistent results, neither could rule out potential LEA effects on participation and retention. In particular, it appeared that the influence of LEA related factors in Variant 2, with the highest maximum weekly award, appeared to have had a dampening effect on participation in these areas relative to the effect of LEA related characteristics in other variant areas.

Keeping in mind the impossibility of isolating an effect for the EMA variant, over and above any extraneous LEA related effects, Variant 1 appeared to be most effective at increasing participation in Year 12. In addition, Year 12 participation in Variant 3, where the basic award is paid to the parent, was lower than in Variants 1 and 4 (both with the same £30 maximum weekly award as Variant 3, but paid to the young person). However, it was also the case that participation was lower in Variant 2 (with a maximum weekly award of £40 paid

[48] Technically, the design of EMA in the LEAs was 'confounded' by other variables such as administration and promotion of EMA, post-16 education opportunities and so forth, that are unique to particular LEAs.

to the young person). Retention in Year 13 was substantially greater in the Variant 4 areas (with the higher retention bonuses) than in any of the other areas.

Combining together EMA eligible and ineligible young people in the analyses still showed positive EMA effects, particularly for young men in urban areas, but there was no evidence of any general positive spillover effects of EMA onto ineligible young people, nor, for that matter, any negative spillover effects.

Generalising the results from the population of the pilot areas to that of England as a whole suggested that EMA would have the same effect nationally as within the pilot areas, a 5.9 percentage points increase in participation among eligible young people. Combining eligible and ineligible young people, the overall national increase in participation would be 3.8 percentage points.

A prerequisite for the success of EMA is take-up of the award, and this requires young people, and/or their parents, to have heard about it so that they can then choose to apply. Awareness of EMA was generally quite high, exceptionally so amongst young people in full-time education. This was true of the first cohort of respondents as well as the second cohort, despite the short time between the announcement of EMA (July 1998) and the start of Year 12 (autumn 1999) for the first cohort. In both cohorts, awareness was higher amongst young people than amongst parents/guardians, even in Variant 3 where EMA is paid to the parent. Awareness had increased in the second cohort amongst young people not in post-16 education, so that greater numbers were aware of it when deciding what to do in Year 12, even if they chose not to continue in post-16 education. However, a substantial minority (around one-half in the Cohort 1 and 40 per cent in Cohort 2) of young people not in post-16 education had not heard of EMA. So it would appear there is still scope for EMA to exert a positive effect on the decision making of some young people, particularly those in the NEET groups.

Applications for EMA were relatively high (around eight in ten) amongst young people in full-time education and were more likely to come from less affluent young people eligible for a full award. Applications were highest in Variant 2 (higher weekly award) and Variant 4 (higher bonuses) areas. There was, however, no sign that application rates had risen in the second cohort amongst young people in post-16 education. The vast majority of applications were awarded (nine in ten) and there was evidence that two LEAs that had performed poorly in the first year of the evaluation had improved their administrative procedures substantially by the second year.

Application rates had risen amongst young people who were not actually in post-16 education in Year 12 at the time of interview. In fact, nearly one in five of the young people in the NEET groups and in work with no training had applied for EMA. Nearly 60 per cent of these applications had been awarded with only 28 per cent refused. Despite this relatively high level of awards, these young people had still decided against post-16 education.

The vast majority of young people reported that they, their parents/guardians and a representative of the education provider had signed a Learning Agreement. However, the only commitment of the Agreement that was well remembered was the requirement to attend classes, far fewer recalled other commitments. The potential for the use of the Learning Agreement commitments as a behaviour-control mechanism for difficult recipients is demonstrated in Maguire et al. (2002), where it is shown that receipt and bonuses are halted by some education providers for a variety of transgressions, particularly non-attendance.

Receipt of EMA is dynamic. Young people who are awarded it do not necessarily remain in receipt throughout their period of post-16 education. Around one-third of EMA recipients in Year 12, who were still in post-16 education in Year 13, were no longer recipients in Year 13. A principal reason for the ending of EMA was a change in financial circumstances amongst the families of young people eligible for a partial award. Whereas for young people eligible for a full award, the main reason for EMA ending was that their course had ended. Attendance problems were a relatively minor cause of EMA ending.

Over one-half of these former recipients had not reapplied for EMA, and amongst non-reapplicants changes in financial circumstances were the primary reason for EMA ending, and perceived ineligibility the main reason for not reapplying, particularly amongst young

people who were eligible for a partial award. Of the former recipients who had not reapplied, the main reason that their EMA had ended was because their course had finished.

Of the remaining young people who had been awarded EMA in Year 12, 4.8 per cent had finished their course and 14.3 per cent had dropped out. These figures were no different to those for eligible non-recipients of EMA, in the pilot areas, who were in post-16 education in Year 12. Young people on full awards in Year 12 were more likely to have taken a one year course than young people on partial awards and were more likely to drop out. Around one in five (18.8 per cent) of young people who were non-recipients in Year 12 were recipients by Year 13.

Around six in ten young people who were not receiving EMA in Year 12 remained in education and were not receiving EMA in Year 13. The vast majority, about seven in ten, had not applied for EMA, and two-thirds of these had not done so because they thought themselves ineligible, and a further one-fifth because they knew too little about it. Young people eligible for a full award were more likely to have applied than those eligible for a partial award.

Stoppages of the weekly EMA allowance were experienced by around one-fifth of young people who had received EMA at both the Wave 1 and 2 interviews. The chances of experiencing a stoppage varied between areas and were highest in Variant 2 areas and lowest in Variants 3 and 4. Non-attendance was always the most likely reason given for a stoppage, particularly in Variant 2 areas, but reported administrative faults were also relatively common in Variants 2 and 4 areas. Young people eligible for a full award were slightly more likely to experience a stoppage for non-attendance than those eligible for a partial award.

Receipt of retention bonuses was high, particularly in the autumn term of Year 12. Young people living in Variant 4 where bonuses are higher were most likely to receive a retention bonus, and, as seen above, young people in these areas had the highest retention rates. However, in Variant 4 areas, receipt of the bonus declined from a high in the autumn term (of 92 per cent) to a low in the summer term (of 83 per cent). Receipt of retention bonuses was also high in Variant 3 areas, although there was no corresponding evidence of a retention effect in these areas. Non-attendance was the most common reason for non-receipt of bonuses in Variants 2 and 4.

EMA appears to have encouraged young people with relatively low levels of achievement in Year 11 into post-16 education: more young people in the pilot areas were qualified at only Level 1 than in the control areas; and conversely, fewer had achieved five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes in Year 11. This increase in the number of low achievers appeared to result in a greater proportion of young people taking post-16 vocational courses although, overall, the academic route was still most common. Young people in post-16 education in the pilot areas were more likely to be studying Level 2 qualifications than young people in the control areas; conversely in the pilot areas, young people were less likely to be studying Level 3 courses than in the control areas. These differences would appear to be a consequence of the increased numbers of low achievers in post-16 education in the pilot areas. In general, young people in post-16 education were studying to improve their qualification base, though a minority was not.

Around one-third of young people in post-16 education took a one-year course, typically this was accompanied by a two year course. About one-half of these one-year courses were GCSE or Foundation or Intermediate GNVQ courses. GNVQ courses were more common amongst those taking one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses, particularly in the pilot areas. Additionally, in the pilot areas young people on one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses were less likely to take an academic course than were comparable young people in the control areas. Young people taking one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were less likely to drop out and more likely to be taking the one-year course as their only post-16 course than their counterparts in the control areas.

Young people taking one-year GCSE/GNVQ courses in the pilot areas were more deprived, and were lower Year 11 achievers, than comparable young people in the control areas. On this basis, it might have been expected that these young people in the pilot areas would achieve at lower levels (at the end of) Year 12 than young people in the control areas. However, achievement was comparable for the two groups of young people, suggesting that young people in the pilot areas had made greater improvements in their qualifications than those in the control areas.

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ANNEX A

ANNEX A THE FAMILY RESOURCES SURVEY WEIGHTING SCHEME

The report describes data that have been weighted using population estimates derived from the Family Resources Survey (FRS). This requirement arose in the first instance because of the Department for Work and Pensions imposed a number of unknown exclusion codes on the Child Benefit records used as sampling frames for the two cohorts. Some concern arose from the possibility that these exclusions might have disproportionately affected those from less privileged backgrounds, young people who potentially had the most to benefit from EMA. In addition, use of the FRS derived weights also helps to compensate for any potential response bias to the surveys.

The FRS is the best survey in which to observe similar aged EMA individuals before they reached school leaving age, and it records characteristics such as parents' education, housing tenure and detailed income information. It is known from surveys such as the Youth Cohort Study that, once children reach 16 and leave education, they are much more likely to leave the family home and much harder to trace.

In order to augment the FRS sample sizes to derive population weights, data were used from five separate FRS survey samples, the first one drawn between 1995 - 1996[49] and the last one between 1999 - 2000. In 1995 - 1996, 10, 11 and 12 year olds were used for Cohort 2; and 11, 12 and 13 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1996 - 1997 11, 12 and 13 year olds were used for Cohort 2; and 12, 13 and 14 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1997 - 1998, 12, 13 and 14 year olds were used for Cohort 2; and 13, 14 and 15 year olds for Cohort 1. In 1998 - 1999, 13, 14 and 15 year olds were used for Cohort 2; and 14 and 15 year olds for Cohort1. Finally in 1999 - 2000 14 and 15 year olds were used for Cohort 2 and 15 year olds for Cohort 1. This gave 14 groups for Cohort 2 and 12 groups for Cohort 1. Combining these groups produced sufficient sample sizes to calculate the numbers of young people in England with broad types of characteristics.

[49] The FRS sampling period covers the financial year and thus runs from April in one calendar year through to March of the next calendar year.

The FRS and EMA samples were split into 44 mutually exclusive groups based on:

- 3 household income groups: in receipt of means tested benefits; income less than or equal to £30,000 and not on means tested benefit; income above £30,000 and not in receipt of means tested benefits (in 1999 - 2000 prices);
- urban/rural status (based on local council type);
- sex of child;
- whether at least one parent stayed past minimum school leaving age or not (2 groups);
- household size (five or more; less than five); and
- whether both parents were in the household (only for two large low income urban groups and 2 large medium income urban groups).

Eight of these groups were further aggregated leaving us with 44 groups in total. These groups are listed in full below in Tables A.1 to A.4.

All income variables were uprated (or downrated) to 1999 - 2000 prices. Population weights were derived for our pilot areas and our control areas for each of these 44 groups using the population weights contained in the FRS dataset. This information was then merged into the EMA data and individuals were allocated a weight by dividing the appropriate group weight by the number of people in each group in the EMA data. On the basis of this weighting, it was calculated that the Cohort 1 pilot sample represented about 36,775 girls and boys in all of the pilot areas, of which around 27,002 were eligible for EMA. The corresponding figures for Cohort 2 were 37,938 of which 27,300 were eligible.

In addition, population weights for the whole of England have been calculated. These weights might be important since the pilot areas, on average, consist of people from relatively poor backgrounds compared to the overall average for England. This difference in composition may mean that EMA will have a different effect in the pilot areas than in the rest of the country. If the variables we weight by are important determinants of education participation, and these characteristics affect the decision to participate in education in the same manner throughout the country, then we will be able to estimate the effect of the EMA if it were to be rolled out nationally. This means, however, we necessarily have to restrict ourselves to weighting by groups that exist in both our pilot areas and the rest of the country.

If however, the effects of these characteristics on full-time education participation are different in our pilot areas and other areas not in the pilot (for example London), then our procedures will not correct for this. If these weighting groups are also determinants of attrition in our data between waves, then this procedure will help overcome attrition bias. It should also be noted that this procedure ignores any 'general equilibrium' effects – such as the effect on a young person's labour market opportunities.

If the EMA operated throughout England, on the basis of the two cohorts from which these samples have been drawn, it is estimated that there are just over 600,000 in each cohort and between 375,000 to 380,000 of these would be eligible for some EMA if they stayed in full-time education.

In Tables A.1 to A.4 below we show the effect of re-weighting by pilot population weights and national population weights by gender, cohort and urban/rural status in our EMA data set. We see that in urban areas, we appear to under-sample those on means-tested benefits, particularly individuals coming from large families where the parents are not well educated. We see however, that nationally this group (those on means tested benefits) is much less important than it is in our pilot areas. In rural areas we again see that we under-sample males coming from families on means-tested benefits although the same is not true for females. We also see that if we take all rural areas in England, they tend to be much better off than Cornwall (our only rural pilot area) with a much higher proportion falling into the top income category.

Table A.1: The Impact of the FRS Weights on Men in Urban Areas

Weighting Group	Cohort 1			Cohort 2		
	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population Weights	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population weights
Families on Means Tested Benefit (MTB):						
Parents low ed, small family, single parent	11.39	10.14	11.30	11.78	8.70	11.34
Parents low ed, small family, both parents	3.14	2.54	2.99	3.66	2.51	2.85
Parents low education, large family	9.45	15.72	9.90	7.44	13.86	10.14
Parents high education, small family	1.42	3.25	3.87	1.63	3.18	3.88
Parents high education, large family	0.90	4.88	4.65	1.16	5.46	4.70
Families not on MTB with income less than £30,000:						
Parents low ed, small family, single parent	10.18	4.97	3.56	11.74	5.87	3.35
Parents low ed, small family, both parents	15.56	12.27	8.58	16.73	13.60	9.31
Parents low education, large family	13.84	3.88	5.90	13.33	6.90	6.49
Parents high education, small family	7.95	9.85	9.54	10.24	9.25	9.46
Parents high education, large family	3.82	4.51	4.93	3.74	5.47	4.99
Families not on MTB with income greater than £30,000:						
Parents low education, small family	7.43	10.96	7.16	5.29	7.11	6.66
Parents low education, large family	3.31	5.45	4.25	2.37	5.14	4.01
Parents high education, small family	8.59	4.95	13.30	8.00	5.82	13.22
Parents high education, large family	3.01	6.63	10.08	2.88	7.14	9.59
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Sample weights refer to the unweighted survey data.

Table A.2: The Impact of the FRS Weights on Men in Rural Areas

Weighting Group	Cohort 1			Cohort 2		
	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population Weights	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population weights
Families on Means Tested Benefit (MTB):						
Parents low education, small family	8.79	3.37	8.95	10.08	4.69	9.25
Large family	6.10	14.59	7.08	5.26	15.94	8.33
Parents high education, small family	4.11	4.26	2.64	2.86	7.53	2.72
Families not on MTB with income less than £30,000:						
Parents low education	36.03	8.03	20.30	34.44	14.24	21.11
Parents high education, small family	16.88	24.33	10.37	20.15	21.48	11.04
Parents high education, large family	6.67	13.26	4.56	5.86	11.50	5.46
Families not on MTB with income greater than £30,000:						
Parents low education, small family	4.54	7.20	8.98	3.31	4.88	7.98
Parents low education, large family	1.99	8.53	4.82	1.95	5.77	4.46
Parents high education	14.89	16.42	32.29	16.09	13.97	29.64
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Sample weights refer to the unweighted survey data.

Table A.3: The Impact of the FRS Weights on Women in Urban Areas

Weighting Group	Cohort 1			Cohort 2		
	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population Weights	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population weights
Families on Means Tested Benefit (MTB):						
Parents low ed, small family, single parent	12.59	12.52	10.30	10.79	13.57	10.62
Parents low ed, small family, both parents	3.07	4.01	2.89	3.23	4.77	2.75
Parents large family	9.82	17.59	16.07	9.26	13.50	16.12
Parents high education, small family	1.95	3.07	3.79	2.00	1.58	3.39
Families not on MTB with income less than £30,000:						
Parents low ed, small family, single parent	12.94	7.91	4.36	14.23	5.75	3.85
Parents low ed, small family, both parents	16.27	11.70	9.72	14.74	11.70	9.42
Parents low education, large family	12.64	7.97	6.41	12.32	7.12	6.73
Parents high education, small family	7.62	4.60	8.38	9.35	7.63	9.10
Parents high education, large family	3.16	5.58	4.75	4.04	7.06	5.09
Families not on MTB with income greater than £30,000:						
Parents low education, small family	6.32	7.70	6.92	5.31	8.06	6.19
Parents low education, large family	2.64	4.29	4.02	2.25	4.41	4.27
Parents high education, small family	7.44	8.33	14.05	9.22	8.47	12.94
Parents high education, large family	3.55	4.72	8.34	3.27	6.37	9.50
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Sample weights refer to the unweighted survey data.

Table A.4: The Impact of the FRS Weights on Women in Rural Areas

Weighting Group	Cohort 1			Cohort 2		
	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population Weights	Sample Weights	Pilot population weights	National Population weights
Families on Means Tested Benefit (MTB):						
All	22.45	21.08	18.05	19.97	12.80	18.89
Families not on MTB with income less than £30,000:						
Parents low education, small family	26.00	16.73	14.83	22.48	24.42	14.66
Parents low education, large family	8.42	11.13	6.71	9.91	16.28	7.25
Parents high education, small family	17.73	13.65	10.29	20.91	13.58	10.96
Parents high education, large family	6.50	14.74	5.03	8.65	11.89	5.49
Families not on MTB with income greater than £30,000:						
Parents low education	5.91	7.25	14.44	5.66	5.85	12.80
Parents high education, small family	9.45	11.58	17.56	7.86	9.35	17.17
Parents high education, large family	3.55	3.84	13.09	4.56	5.84	12.79
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Sample weights refer to the unweighted survey data.

ANNEX B

ANNEX B SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table B1 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Location - unweighted

Per cent

	Unmatched Sample		Matched Sample		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban Results					
FT Education	69.0	63.9	69.1	64.2	4.9
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.6)			(1.1)
Work	15.6	18.1	15.7	17.9	-2.2
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.5)			(0.9)
NEET	15.4	18.0	15.3	17.9	-2.6
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.5)			(0.9)
Sample size	7,266	3,607	7,111	7,111	
Rural Results					
FT Education	81.7	76.8	81.9	77.9	3.9
(S.E)	(0.9)	(0.9)			(3.3)
Work	9.7	10.7	9.6	10.9	-1.3
(S.E)	(0.7)	(0.7)			(2.6)
NEET	8.6	12.5	8.5	11.1	-2.6
(S.E)	(0.6)	(0.7)			(2.4)
Sample size	2,076	1,936	1,812	1,812	
Total					
FT Education	71.8	66.8	71.7	67.0	4.7
(S.E)	(0.5)	(0.5)			(1.1)
Work	14.3	16.5	14.4	16.5	-2.0
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.9)
NEET	13.9	16.8	13.9	16.6	-2.6
(S.E)	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.9)
Sample size	9,342	5,543	8,923	8,923	

Note: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table B.2 Impact of the EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People, by Cohort - pilot and population weights

Per cent

	Pilot Weights			Population Weights		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Cohort 1						
FT Education	71.2	64.1	7.1	74.5	67.0	7.5
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.9)
Work	14.1	18.5	-4.5	12.6	17.7	-5.1
(S.E)			(1.4)			(1.6)
NEET	14.7	17.4	-2.6	12.9	15.3	-2.4
(S.E)			(1.3)			(1.3)
Sample size			4464			4464
Population size			27,000			380,881
Cohort 2						
FT Education	71.5	66.9	4.6	73.5	69.2	4.3
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.9)
Work	13.3	15.7	-2.4	12.2	14.0	-1.8
(S.E)			(1.3)			(1.3)
NEET	15.2	17.4	-2.2	14.3	16.8	-2.5
(S.E)			(1.3)			(1.6)
Sample size			4459			4459
Population size			27,297			375,041
Total						
FT Education	71.3	65.5	5.9	74.0	68.1	5.9
(S.E)			(1.1)			(1.3)
Work/Training	13.7	17.1	-3.4	12.4	15.9	-3.4
(S.E)			(0.9)			(1.0)
NEET	15.0	17.4	-2.4	13.6	16.0	-2.5
(S.E)			(0.9)			(1.0)
Sample size			8923			8923
Population size			54,297			755,922

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table B.3 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible and Ineligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Location and Gender - pilot and population weights

Per cent

	Pilot Weights			Population Weights		
	Young Men	**Young Women**	**Overall**	**Young Men**	**Young Women**	**Overall**
Urban						
FT Education	4.1	3.0	3.5	5.3	3.9	4.6
(S.E)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(1.7)	(2.4)	(2.6)	(1.8)
Work/Training	-2.7	-1.6	-2.2	-3.6	-2.3	-2.9
(S.E)	(2.2)	(1.7)	(1.4)	(2.2)	(1.8)	(1.4)
NEET	-1.4	-1.3	-1.4	-1.8	-1.6	-1.7
(S.E)	(1.6)	(1.9)	(1.2)	(1.5)	(2.1)	(1.3)
Sample size	4528	4511	9039	4528	4511	9039
Population size	33,551	33,181	66,732	408,178	393,037	801,215
Rural						
FT Education	5.7	3.6	4.6	2.6	1.9	2.3
(S.E)	(5.0)	(4.6)	(3.4)	(6.0)	(5.5)	(4.1)
Work/Training	-6.5	1.4	-2.4	-4.1	1.1	-1.6
(S.E)	(4.0)	(2.8)	(2.4)	(4.6)	(3.6)	(2.9)
NEET	0.7	-5.0	-2.2	1.5	-3.0	-0.6
(S.E)	(3.4)	(3.8)	(2.6)	(4.2)	(4.2)	(3.0)
Sample size	1022	997	2019	1022	997	2019
Population size	3,868	4,108	7,976	212,325	198,839	411,164
All						
FT Education	4.3	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.3	3.8
(S.E)	(2.2)	(2.2)	(1.6)	(2.7)	(2.5)	(1.8)
Work/Training	-3.1	-1.3	-2.2	-3.8	-1.2	-2.5
(S.E)	(2.0)	(1.5)	(1.3)	(2.1)	(1.7)	(1.4)
NEET	-1.2	-1.7	-1.5	-0.6	-2.1	-1.3
(S.E)	(1.4)	(1.8)	(1.1)	(1.8)	(2.0)	(1.3)
Sample size	5550	5508	11058	5550	5508	11058
Population size	37,419	37,289	74,708	620,503	591,876	1,212,379

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table B.4 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 destinations, Version I: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Location - population weights

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban						
FT Education	75.7	69.4	6.3	64.1	56.0	8.0
(S.E)			(2.1)			(2.3)
Work/Training	12.6	15.4	-2.7	20.7	27.4	-6.6
(S.E)			(1.6)			(2.1)
NEET	11.7	15.2	-3.5	15.2	16.6	-1.4
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.7)
Sample size			2497			2497
Population size			266,399			266,399
Rural						
FT Education	84.6	73.9	10.1	74.4	63.0	11.4
(S.E)			(6.1)			(6.2)
Work/Training	7.5	20.4	-13.0	14.2	32.1	-17.8
(S.E)			(5.7)			(6.1)
NEET	7.9	5.6	2.3	11.3	4.9	6.5
(S.E)			(3.4)			(3.2)
Sample size			708			708
Population size			114,482			114,482
All Areas						
FT Education	78.4	70.8	7.6	67.2	58.1	9.0
(S.E)			(2.3)			(2.4)
Work/Training	11.1	16.9	-5.8	18.8	28.8	-10.0
(S.E)			(2.0)			(2.3)
NEET	10.5	12.3	-1.8	14.0	13.1	1.0
(S.E)			(1.5)			(1.5)
Sample size			3205			3205
Population size			380,882			380,882

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table B.5 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version II: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Location - population weights

Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	62.0	53.6	8.4
(S.E)			(2.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.7	15.8	-2.2
(S.E)			(1.8)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	2.4	-0.4
(S.E)			(0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.2	28.1	-5.9
(S.E)			(2.0)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.9	77.2	4.7
(S.E)			
Sample size			2497
Population size			266,399
Rural			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	72.4	60.4	12.0
(S.E)			(6.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	12.2	13.5	-1.3
(S.E)			(3.9)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	2.6	-0.6
(S.E)			(2.2)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.3	23.4	-10.1
(S.E)			(5.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	85.6	81.7	3.8
(S.E)			
Sample size			708
Population size			114,482
All Areas			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	65.1	55.7	9.5
(S.E)			(2.5)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.2	15.1	-1.9
(S.E)			(1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	2.5	-0.5
(S.E)			(0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.6	26.7	-7.1
(S.E)			(2.3)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	83.1	78.7	4.5
(S.E)			
Sample size			3205
Population size			380,882

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications and 'standard errors could not be calculated for retention rates'.

Table B.6 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destinations: Eligible and Ineligible Young People, Cohort 1 Only, by Location - pilot weights

Per cent

	Young Men			Young Women			Total
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**	**Increase**
Urban							
FT Education	69.8	62.7	7.1	74.7	72.6	2.1	4.6
(S.E)			(3.7)			(3.5)	(2.5)
Work/Training	17.8	22.9	-5.1	11.3	11.6	-0.3	-2.7
(S.E)			(3.3)			(2.5)	(2.1)
NEET	12.4	14.4	-2.0	14.0	15.8	-1.7	-1.9
(S.E)			(2.0)			(2.8)	(1.7)
Sample size			2,242			2,208	4,450
Population size			16,472			16,601	33,074
Rural							
FT Education	86.9	79.2	7.8	89.2	81.8	7.4	7.5
(S.E)			(7.9)			(7.0)	(5.2)
Work/Training	7.3	16.5	-9.1	5.4	7.1	-1.7	-5.1
(S.E)			(7.1)			(4.5)	(4.1)
NEET	5.7	4.4	1.4	5.4	11.1	-5.7	-2.4
(S.E)			(4.3)			(5.6)	(3.6)
Sample size			524			515	1,039
Population size			1,707			1,992	3,699
All							
FT Education	71.4	64.3	7.2	76.2	73.6	2.6	4.9
(S.E)			(3.4)			(3.2)	(2.3)
Work/Training	16.8	22.3	-5.5	10.6	11.1	-0.5	-3.0
(S.E)			(3.1)			(2.3)	(1.9)
NEET	11.8	13.4	-1.7	13.1	15.3	-2.2	-1.9
(S.E)			(1.9)			(2.5)	(1.6)
Sample size			2,766			2,723	5,489
Population size			18,180			18,593	36,772

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.

Table B.7 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: Eligibles and Ineligibles, Those in Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 Only - population weights, by gender

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
All Men						
FT Education	79.3	72.3	7.0	69.0	65.2	3.9
Work/Training	12.4	17.9	-5.4	19.8	25.4	-5.6
NEET	8.3	9.9	-1.6	11.1	9.4	1.7
Sample size	1971	1971	1971	1971	1971	1971
Population	272,826	272,826	272,826	272,826	272,826	272,826
All Women						
FT Education	85.0	81.2	3.8	76.9	69.6	7.4
Work/Training	7.4	9.1	-1.6	12.6	20.4	-7.8
NEET	7.6	9.7	-2.1	10.5	10.0	0.5
Sample size	2028	2028	2028	2028	2028	2028
Population	260,902	260,902	260,902	260,902	260,902	260,902
All People						
FT Education	82.1	76.6	5.4	72.9	67.3	5.6
Work/Training	10.0	13.6	-3.6	16.3	23.0	-6.7
NEET	8.0	9.8	-1.8	10.8	9.7	1.1
Sample size	3999	3999	3999	3999	3999	3999
Population	533,728	533,728	533,728	533,728	533,728	533,728

Note: Matched samples only. We have been unable to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

Table B.8 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: Eligibles and Ineligibles. Those in Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 Only, Urban Areas, by Gender – pilot weights

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Urban Men						
FT Education	73.8	70.6	3.2	62.8	59.6	3.2
Work/Training	16.0	17.3	-1.3	24.1	27.5	-3.4
NEET	10.3	12.1	-1.9	13.0	12.9	0.1
Sample size	1,613	1,613		1,613	1,613	
Urban Women						
FT Education	78.9	76.6	2.3	69.0	64.8	4.2
Work/Training	10.2	10.3	-0.1	16.6	21.2	-4.6
NEET	11.0	13.2	-2.2	14.4	14.0	0.4
Sample size	1,617	1,617		1,617	1,617	
All Urban Areas						
FT Education	76.3	73.6	2.7	66	62.3	3.7
Work/Training	13.0	13.7	-0.7	20.3	24.3	-4.0
NEET	10.6	12.6	-2.0	13.7	13.4	0.3
Sample size	3,230	3,230		3,230	3,230	

Note: Matched samples only. We have been unable to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

Table B.9 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations: Eligibles and Ineligibles. Those in Cohort 1 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2 Only, Rural Areas, by Gender – pilot weights

Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	**Control**	**Increase**	**Pilot**	**Control**	**Increase**
Rural Men						
FT Education	86.8	69.7	17.1	75.5	68.1	7.4
Work/Training	6.6	24.8	-18.2	15.8	28.0	-12.2
NEET	6.6	5.5	1.1	8.6	3.8	4.8
Sample size	358	358		358	358	
Rural Women						
FT Education	91.6	88.3	3.3	84.3	72.9	11.4
Work/Training	4.9	6.5	-1.6	8.7	23.4	-14.7
NEET	3.4	5.1	-1.7	7.0	3.7	3.3
Sample size	411	411		411	411	
All Rural Areas						
FT Education	89.4	79.6	9.8	80.2	70.7	9.5
Work/Training	5.7	15.1	-9.4	12.0	25.5	-13.5
NEET	4.9	5.3	-0.4	7.8	3.8	4
Sample size	769	769		769	769	

Note: Matched samples only. We have been unable to calculate standard errors due to problems of small samples in the bootstrapping process.

Table B.10 Impact of EMA on Year 12 Destination: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and Cohort 2, by Gender and Amount of EMA – pilot weights

Per cent

	Men	Women	Total
Fully Eligible			
FT Education	7.5	4.7	6.1
(S.E)	(2.2)	(2.1)	(1.5)
Work/Training	-5.4	-2.8	-4.1
(S.E)	(1.9)	(1.6)	(1.2)
NEET	-2.1	-1.9	-2.0
(S.E)	(1.8)	(1.7)	(1.2)
Partially Eligible			
FT Education	3.2	5.5	4.3
(S.E)	(3.6)	(3.3)	(2.4)
Work/Training	-4.1	-0.8	-2.4
(S.E)	(3.1)	(2.3)	(1.9)
NEET	0.9	-4.7	-1.9
(S.E)	(2.6)	(2.7)	(1.9)
All Eligibles			
FT Education	5.9	5.0	5.4
(S.E)	(1.9)	(1.8)	(1.3)
Work/Training	-4.9	-2.0	-3.4
(S.E)	(1.6)	(1.3)	(1.1)
NEET	-1.0	-2.9	-2.0
(S.E)	(1.5)	(1.5)	(1.0)

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.