

The Evaluation of Education Maintenance Allowance Pilots: Three Years Evidence A Quantitative Evaluation

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The Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS)

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Chapter 1 Introduction

This is the third report of the longitudinal quantitative evaluation of Education Maintenance Allowance (EMA) pilots and the first since the government announced that EMA is to be rolled out nationally from 2004. The evaluation was commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) from a consortium of research organisations, led by the Centre for Research in Social Policy (CRSP) and including the National Centre for Social Research, the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) and the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling (NICEC).

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. 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 October 1999 and April 2000 (Year 12 interview). A second interview was carried out with these young people between October 2000 and April 2001 (Year 13 interview). The second cohort left compulsory education the following summer of 2000 and young people, and their parents, were first interviewed between October 2000 and April 2001. (**Chapter 1.2.1**)

Response rates to all surveys have been high (**Chapter 1.2.3**). Weights have been constructed to correct for potential sources of bias arising from exclusions from the sample, differential response rates and attrition. Population weights have also been produced for England as a whole. (**Chapter 1.2.4**). The report uses both propensity score matching (PSM) and descriptive techniques, each of which brings their own particular strengths to the analysis (**Chapter 1.2.5**). Methods of measuring qualification achievement have been devised which take into account qualifications at Year 11, and progress since then in terms of advancement **between** educational levels and **within** the same level (**Chapter 1.2.6**). The method used to construct socio-economic groups within the data is also described (**Chapter 1.2.7**).

The findings are based on analysis of five datasets produced from five interviews with young people (and their parents in the first wave of interviews). These are shown in Box S1, which also shows the academic year in which young people were at the time of each interview and the year in which interviews were undertaken. Throughout the report academic year terminology is used for ease of understanding.

Box S1

Dataset:	Interview at the Start of Academic Year:	Interviewing begun in:	Approximate age of Young People:	Approximate Time since Completing Compulsory Education:
Cohort 1 Wave 1	12	1999	16 – 17 years	3 months
Cohort 1 Wave 2	13	2000	17 - 18 years	15 months
Cohort 1 Wave 3	14	2001	18 – 19 years	27 months
Cohort 2 Wave 1	12	2000	16 – 17 years	3 months
Cohort 2 Wave 2	13	2001	17 – 18 years	15 months

Chapter 2 Participation and Retention in Post-16 Education

The chapter begins by comparing the destinations of EMA eligible young people with national destinations statistics (**Chapter 2.1**). The remainder of the chapter reports on the transitions made by young people at Years 12, 13 and 14 using both the propensity score matching (PSM) approach to provide robust estimates of the impact of EMA (**Chapter 2.2**) and descriptive techniques to enable a more detailed analysis of the data (**Chapter 2.3**). Finally, the possible role of sanctions in the EMA system in encouraging participation and retention is considered.

A descriptive comparison of the destinations of the EMA eligible population with the destinations of 16-18 year olds in England as a whole showed that there was a slightly higher percentage of all 16 year olds remaining in education in 1999 in comparison to the EMA eligible sample at Year 12. The proportion in post-16 education among the EMA eligible population was slightly higher at Years 13 and 14 (**Chapter 2.1.1**).

PSM techniques estimate that the overall impact of EMA for men and women, combining Cohorts 1 and 2, has been to increase Year 12 participation in full-time education by 4.3 percentage points, and Year 13 participation by 6.2 percentage points. For young men, the impact of EMA on full-time education participation increased from 4.6 percentage points in Year 12 to 8.2 percentage points in Year 13, suggesting that EMA has had a positive effect on education retention for young men. For young women EMA increased full-time education participation in both years by just over 4 percentage points and does not appear to have had a significant impact on retention (**Chapters 2.2.1 and 2.2.2**).

When EMA is rolled-out nationally, the effects of EMA will probably be enhanced. EMA should increase the proportion staying in education in Year 12 and 13 by around 8.3 percentage points for men and 5.7 percentage points for women and increase retention in education by 4.9 percentage points for men (but only marginally for women). This increase in continuous education participation should mostly be drawn from the group who otherwise would have not participated in any education in Year 12 or 13 (**Chapter 2.2.3**).

In Year 14 the impact of EMA on participation in rural areas was larger than in urban areas. However, results suggest that the retention effect was concentrated in urban rather than rural areas. The number of young men in full-time education at the start of Year 14 was 9.2 percentage points higher in pilot areas, despite the fact that EMA was no longer paid (except

to young people with special educational needs or to young people in some pilot areas who came from vulnerable groups) (**Chapter 2.3.1**).

Descriptive analysis showed that approximately 80 per cent of young people reported continuous receipt of EMA weekly payments, whilst 20 per cent reported stoppages to their weekly payments. Variant 2, which pays the highest EMA weekly allowance, accounted for the highest proportion of reported stoppages across all pilot areas (27.6 per cent). In contrast, Variant 3 where EMA is paid to the parent(s) accounted for the lowest proportion of stoppages overall (14.4 per cent). Recipients from the highest socio-economic group reported stoppages to payments more frequently than other groups (**Chapter 2.4.1**).

Across all pilot areas, attendance problems emerged as the most common reason for stoppages to the weekly payment (42.8 per cent). However, administrative problems such as processing errors and payment delays also accounted for a substantial proportion of stoppages (25.9 per cent). Across urban variants, attendance problems were most commonly reported in Variant 2 areas (45.5 per cent) where the highest weekly allowance was available. This could suggest that the higher weekly payment available here, did not encourage better attendance. However, it is also possible that attendance had been monitored more stringently in Variant 2 **because** of the relatively higher weekly allowance. Young people from professional and managerial backgrounds were more likely than other groups to attribute stoppages to attendance problems.

Overall, similar proportions of young people reported receipt of termly retention bonuses in the period leading up to the Year 13 interview (89.7 per cent) compared to the period between Year 12 and 13 (90.8 per cent). The largest proportions of young people who reported receiving bonuses were located in Variant 3 where a £50 retention bonus was available and in Variant 4 where an £80 bonus was available. This suggests that both models provide more effective short- and medium-term incentives than those in operation in Variant 1 and Variant 2. (**Chapter 2.4.2**).

Young people with more than five A*-C GCSE grades at Year 11, were most likely to have received retention bonuses. Furthermore, those with the highest level of Year 11 achievement and those from the highest socio-economic group sustained high levels of bonus receipt throughout the academic year, whilst bonus receipt fell dramatically for other groups.

The main reason given for non-receipt of retention bonuses was poor attendance, which was also central to explanations of stoppages to the weekly allowance. Attendance problems were especially apparent in urban Variant 2 at Year 13 (54.1 per cent) and Year 14 (50.7 per cent). At Year 13, attendance problems were least prevalent in Variant 4. A small proportion of young people across each urban variant reported that they were still waiting for retention bonuses to arrive, indicating possible administrative problems. There were marked differences between variants and between Years, which implies that administrative systems were not applied with consistent levels of success. (**Chapter 2.4.2**)

Chapter 3 Participation and Retention, Socio-Economic Group and Year 11 Achievement

Chapter 3 explores the impact of EMA on participation and retention in post-16 education in greater detail, focusing on the relationship first between participation and socio-economic group (**Chapter 3.1**) and, secondly, between participation and Year 11 achievement (**Chapter 3.2**). Both PSM and descriptive techniques are used, the former in order to provide robust estimates of the impact of EMA, the latter to describe the data in greater detail.

The impact of EMA on young people from the Professional/Managerial socio-economic group (Group 1) was almost non-existent. All of the impact was concentrated among the children of other non-manual workers (Group 2), skilled manual workers (Group 3), semi-skilled and unskilled workers (Group 4), and those not in work (Group 5). For Groups 2 and 3, EMA increased the proportion in education in both Years 12 and 13 by 6.4 percentage points and the corresponding figure was even larger for Groups 4 and 5 at 9.1 percentage points. For both these groups, EMA has impacted positively and significantly on retention, which means that the impact of EMA on education participation increased between Years 12 and 13. (**Chapter 3.1.2**).

Descriptive analysis that allowed disaggregation of the five socio-economic groups showed the same pattern as the PSM analysis. EMA eligible young people from SEG 5 living in the pilot areas were much more likely than those in the control areas to have been in full-time education at the start of Year 12 and this difference remained at the start of Year 13 but at a lower level. Young people in SEG 5 appear to have been drawn into education who would otherwise have become NEET or entered work without training. However, extension of the analysis to the start of Year 14, when most young people would have completed their entitlement to EMA, showed that there was little difference in educational participation rates among young people in SEG 5 between pilot and control groups, while the proportion entering the NEET group had begun to grow. (**Chapter 3.1.3**).

EMA had its largest impact on the participation and retention decisions of low and middle achievers, defined by Year 11 GCSE performance. For those falling into the lowest achieving group, EMA increased the proportion staying in full-time education in Years 12 and 13 by 8.8 percentage points (from 26.9 per cent to 35.7 per cent). It also significantly widened the education participation gap between Years 12 and 13, increasing retention by 7.6 percentage points for this group. The effect was even large for middle achievers, increasing the proportion staying on in Years 12 and 13 by 10.9 percentage points. Again for this group EMAs also positively impacted on retention increasing it by 10 percentage points to 78.1 per cent. The impact for the highest GCSE achievers was essentially zero (**Chapter 3.2.2**).

Descriptive analysis, which allowed further disaggregation of Year 11 achievement into four groups, showed a similar pattern, and suggests that the draw into education among all except those who achieved 5 or more A*-C grades at GCSE was from work with no training or the NEET group. Extension of the analysis to Year 14 suggests that the effect of EMA had declined for those who had achieved no qualifications at Year 11 and those who had achieved only D-G grades at GCSE and, as with the earlier analysis of SEG, the size of the NEET group had begun to grow in the pilot areas. However, eligible young people in pilot areas with 1-4 A*-C GCSE achievement levels at Year 11 managed to sustain higher rates of participation in post-16 education in Years 12, 13 and 14 (**Chapter 3.2.3**).

Chapter 4 Courses Chosen in Post-16 Education and Achievement During Year 12

Amongst all eligible young people in the second EMA cohort, those in the pilot areas were slightly less well qualified at the end of Year 11 than their counterparts in the control areas. In addition, the availability of EMA appeared to promote participation in post-16 education amongst Year 11 low and moderate achievers (who attained less than five A*-C GCSE/GNVQs) but not amongst high achievers (who had passed five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQs). Consequently, amongst young people who remained in education beyond compulsory schooling, those in the pilot areas tended to have substantially lower levels of Year 11 attainment than their counterparts in the control group (**Chapter 4.2.1**).

The remainder of Chapter 4 focuses on EMA eligible young people who remained in post-16 full-time education. In the second cohort, students in the pilot group were more likely to have started a solely vocational course, and less likely to have embarked upon a solely academic course, than their higher achieving counterparts in the control group (**Chapter 4.2.2**). However, there was some suggestion that this pilot-control distinction remained when achievement was controlled for. At each level of Year 11 achievement, students in the pilot group were marginally more likely to have embarked upon a solely vocational course than those in the control group.

When Year 11 qualifications were held constant, there was no significant difference in the highest level of course started by eligible young people in the pilot and control groups in the second cohort. At Year 12, over nine-tenths of Year 11 high achievers began a Level 3 course (**Chapter 4.2.2**). However, by Year 13, high achievers in the pilot group were less likely to have passed a Level 3 course than their counterparts in the control group (**Chapter 4.2.3**). Amongst Year 11 high achievers, 67.4 per cent of those in the pilot group had successfully completed a Level 3 course at the time of their Year 13 interview compared with 73.9 per cent of those in the control group.

Pilot/control differences in successful course completion at Year 13 do not reflect a higher incidence of dropped or failed qualifications within the pilot group. Indeed, moderate achievers in the pilot group (who had attained between one and four A*-C GCSE/GNVQs) were more likely to have continued with (or passed) all the qualifications they began at Year 12 than those in the control group (67.4 per cent and 57 per cent respectively)(**Chapter 4.2.3**).

For the second cohort, amongst both moderate and high achievers, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have embarked upon a solely vocational Level 3 course (i.e. a Level 3 NVQ or an Advanced GNVQ) than those in the control group (**Chapter 4.2.3**). Amongst high achievers, eight per cent of eligible students in the pilot group began a solely vocational Level 3 course compared with 4.8 per cent of those in the control group. Amongst moderate achievers, these figures were 12.7 per cent and seven per cent respectively.

Choice of course impacts upon the likelihood of successfully completing a Level 3 qualification at Year 12. Unlike AS Levels, it is rare for vocational Level 3 courses to result in a qualification within the first year of study. Higher rates of solely vocational Level 3 courses amongst high achievers in the pilot group contributed towards their lower likelihood of having passed a Level 3 course. However, these behaviours, in turn, require explanation.

It is hypothesised that students have been influenced by the courses chosen by their peers. EMA availability appears to have had the effect of increasing the number of Year 11 low and

moderate achievers in post-16 education within the pilot group. These students had an increased likelihood of subsequently embarking upon a vocational course. This may, in turn, have raised the profile or popularity of vocational courses, thereby attracting students who might have otherwise have followed an academic path through post-16 education.

It is important to reiterate that, controlling for existing attainment, eligible students in the pilot group were not starting courses that were at a lower level than their counterparts in the control group; therefore, there is no suggestion that they were ‘lowering their sights’. However, where students embarked upon a vocational Level 3 course, rather than an AS Level, they were unlikely to attain a Level 3 qualification at Year 12. As EMA is normally only available for a maximum of two years, any deferment of attainment may conceivably result in fewer eligible students gaining a Level 3 qualification before their award expires. This possibility can be explored when Year 14 data become available.

Chapter 5 EMA and Achievement Two Years after Compulsory Education

This chapter asks whether or not EMA has had an impact on the achievement of young people who entered post-16 full-time education over Years 12, 13 and 14 of the survey, that is, during the first two years following compulsory education.

The first part of the chapter uses PSM techniques to examine the impact of EMA on achievement among all EMA eligible young people by the beginning of Year 14, whether or not they had actually engaged in any post-16 education¹. Data are from the third interviews with the first cohort of young people eligible for EMA. The second part of the chapter uses descriptive analysis to explore patterns of achievement in greater detail. Finally, young people’s receipt of EMA achievement bonuses are explored (**Chapter 5.1**)

PSM techniques measured achievement by capturing progress between Levels 1, 2 and 3 and, secondly, by analysing the number and level of passes achieved within these levels. EMA appears to have had almost no effect on a range of achievement outcomes at Level 3. However, there was some evidence of an EMA effect on Level 2 qualifications. This was the case for young women in both urban and rural areas, and was significant for both the number of Level 2 NVQ passes and the combined Levels 1 and 2 scores.² There was similar evidence for young men in rural areas, although for this group the results were significant only for the number of Level 2 NVQ passes.

This pattern was confirmed when the sample was split by SEG groups; there was evidence of a positive EMA effect only on the Level 3 scores of young people in the highest SEG (Group 1). The significant results found at Level 2 among all eligible young people were not found once SEG was taken into account.

There were also few significant results from the analysis of the impact of EMA on achievement according to Year 11 GCSE results. The effect of EMA on the Level 3 grade point score, seemed to be highest for middle-achievers at Year 11. For achievement at Levels 1 and 2, the effect of EMA on the equivalised grade point score was highest for individuals in the lowest GCSE group. However, it should be noted that sample sizes in some of these

¹ This excludes, therefore, qualifications gained through work-based education and training for which data were not available. These qualifications will be included in analysis for next year’s report.

² Note that if an individual has qualifications from both Levels 1/ 2 and Level 3, it is not possible to combine this information into a unique score. As should be clear from the analysis above, two different outcomes for that individual have been examined.

analyses were relatively small. Further analysis when achievement data are available for young people in Cohort 2 are available will allow any EMA impact to be more precisely identified.

Analysis of the impact of EMA on Year 13 achievement by SEG produced an interesting contrast with the findings in Chapter 3, which suggested that EMA had the largest impact on young people in the middle and lower SEG groups. For achievement by the end of Year 13 at Levels 1 and 2 and at Level 3, it was only among those from the highest SEG that a significant effect was found. (Chapter 5.2).

Descriptive analysis focused, first, on achievement and the extent of progression by young people who spent at least one year in post-compulsory education, both within and between groups of young people defined by levels of achievement at the end of Year 11. The second approach identified a series of education trajectories, defined by the pattern of participation in post-16 full-time education described by young people in their interviews at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14.

Achievement in post-16 education was examined for young people who had spent at least one year in post-16 full-time education. Post-16 achievement was measured in a number of ways including the highest level attained, the number of passes at different levels and grade point scores reflecting the quality of passes. The focus was on progression between levels and progression within levels. Young people were classified into one of four groups according to their Year 11 achievement in terms of the number of GCSE/GNVQ passes: none, low achievers (D-G passes only), moderate achievers (1-4 A*-C passes), high achievers (5+ A*-C passes) (**Chapter 5.3**)

The vast majority (78 per cent) of Year 11 high achievers obtained a post-16 Level 3 qualification (1+ A, AS level, Advanced GNVQ or Level 3 NVQ). However, there was no evidence that EMA had effected achievement because there was no difference between the pilot and control groups in the proportions attaining a Level 3 qualification. Around three in 10 moderate achievers had obtained a Level 3 qualification, another 40 per cent obtained only A*-C GCSEs and around 36 per cent achieved nothing or D-G passes only. Few low achievers obtained a Level 3 qualification (3.8 per cent in the pilot areas and 7.8 per cent in control areas). Overall there were no significant differences between pilot and control groups; thus, no evidence of an EMA effect. (**Chapter 5.3.1**)

Young people who remained at the same level of achievement after a period spent in post-16 education as they had started from in terms of their Year 11 achievement tended to double their grade points on average. Among low achievers who had obtained one A*-C post-16 qualification the grade point average doubled from about 19.5 to 39, and the average number of exams gained was about four GCSEs. Among moderate achievers who obtained at best only A*-C passes, their grade point averaged almost doubled (from 27.3 to 48.5 in the pilot areas and from 28.3 to 44.9 in the control areas), an increase of about 4.5 GCSE exams. There were no significant differences in achievement between pilot and control groups. (**Chapter 5.3.2**)

Young people in the pilot group were more likely to have obtained a place at a Higher Education institution (but see further Chapter 6) (**Chapter 5.4.1**). This was particularly so for Year 11 high achievers who had obtained a Level 3 post-16 qualification (62.8 per cent in the pilot group compared to 50.5 per cent in the control group). It appears that these EMA recruits into Higher Education in the pilot areas were drawn from young people who would

otherwise have entered a third year of post-16 education or have left post-16 education after two years. Among this group who would otherwise have left education, it appeared that those who had obtained better Level 3 results were those who were encouraged into Higher Education. (**Chapter 5.4.2**)

There was a suggestion of a slight EMA effect on entry to Higher Education among Year 11 moderate achievers who obtained a Level 3 qualification (8.4 per cent in the pilot group compared to 5.8 per cent in the control group). However, this difference was not statistically significant. Similarly, 24.5 per cent in the pilot group remained for a third year of post-16 education compared to 18.4 per cent in the control group, but the difference was not quite statistically significant. The most likely destination for moderate achievers who obtained a post-16 Level 2 qualification was a third year in post-16 education and EMA appeared to encourage this option (44 per cent and 32.8 per cent, respectively). (**Chapter 5.4.3**)

Among Year 11 low achievers, the draw into post-16 participation appeared to be among young people who took a two year course and then left (12.6 per cent compared to 6.9 per cent in the pilot and control areas, respectively). Year 11 low achievers who had improved their qualifications to Level 2 by Year 14 were most likely to enter a third year of post-16 education. In the pilot areas 43.3 per cent had opted to continue for another year, as had 44 per cent of the control group. Among low achievers who had obtained no post-16 qualifications, it appears that fewer EMA recruits had dropped out after two years and more had continued for a third year of post-16 education instead. In the pilot areas, 33.3 per cent of these young people reported that they had started a third year of post-16 education compared to 19.2 per cent of young people in the control areas. In contrast, 25 per cent of Year 11 low achievers in the pilot areas who had gained no post-16 qualifications reported that they had dropped out after one year compared to 50.7 per cent of their counterparts in the control areas. (**Chapter 5.4.4**)

Overall, it was concluded that EMA appears to have had a positive impact upon participation in post-16 education among low and moderate achievers in Year 11 but not among higher achievers. However, among higher achievers more young people appear to have been encouraged by EMA to enter Higher Education, but EMA eligible young people who entered higher education were those who had achieved similar standards at Level 3 to those who would have entered Higher Education without EMA. There was no evidence to suggest that EMA had an impact on post-16 achievement, because there was no difference between average achievement between pilot and control groups. Consequently, as average post-16 achievement was not significantly lower in the pilot group compared to the control group, it also appears that EMA recruits perform to similar standards as young people who would have entered post-16 education without EMA. (**Chapter 5.5**)

Most young people who had completed two years of post-16 education and who had received EMA reported that they had qualified for an achievement bonus (58.4 per cent). Among the urban variants of EMA, Variant 2 had the lowest proportion who reported qualifying for the bonus (51.8 per cent) and Variant 4, which paid the largest achievement bonuses, the highest (71.1 per cent). Young people receiving a partial award of EMA; with the highest levels of Year 11 achievement; and, from the highest socio-economic groups were most likely to report that they had qualified for an achievement bonus (**Chapter 5.6.1**).

Levels of receipt of the bonus were high, but were higher in some Variants than others. Among the small numbers of young people who had not received their achievement bonus, administrative delays was almost always given as the reason for non-receipt (**Chapter 5.6.2**).

Chapter 6 Entry into Higher Education

PSM techniques found no significant impact of EMA on entry in to higher education at this stage of the evaluation (**Chapter 6.2**).

Descriptive analysis suggested that white young people in the pilot areas (19.1 per cent) were slightly more likely to have a higher education place than those in the control areas (16.5 per cent), but that non-white young people in the pilot areas were slightly **less** likely to have a higher education place (23.9 per cent) than those in the control areas (25.2 per cent). Young people who were most likely to have been eligible for a full EMA, that is, young people in the pilot areas with no parent working, were less likely to have a higher education place than their counterparts in control areas (**Chapter 6.3.1**).

More EMA ineligible young people than those eligible for EMA had a place on an honours degree course; 79.8 per cent compared with 77.8 per cent of young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt, 74.3 per cent of those eligible but who received no EMA and just 60.3 per cent of those who had received EMA at some point only (Chapter 6.4.1)

EMA-ineligible young people were more likely than all groups of EMA eligible young people to have a place at an 'old' university. Almost half of EMA ineligible young people had a place at an 'old' university (49.8 per cent), compared with less than two-fifths of those who had received EMA continuously (38.8 per cent) or at some point (38.4 per cent) (Chapter 6.4.2)

While reasons associated with particular courses and universities were the most commonly cited reasons for choice of university for all groups, financial reasons were most important to young people who had continuously received EMA throughout their period in further education. Of those in continuous receipt 58.7 per cent gave a financial reason, compared with 49.5 per cent of those in receipt at some point, 41.1 per cent of eligible non-recipients and 39.5 per cent of ineligible young people (Chapter 6.4.2)

Young people who had been in continuous receipt of EMA were more likely to live with their parents during term-time (47.1 per cent) than those who had receive EMA at some point (38.8 per cent), EMA ineligible young people (33.2 per cent), and EMA eligible non-recipients (28.6 per cent) (**Chapter 6.6.1**)

Take-up of student loans was high for all groups, but those who had been in continuous EMA receipt had the highest take-up rate (88 per cent) (**Chapter 6.6.2**)

Only half (49.6 per cent) of young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt received help with living costs from their parents. This compares with 69.2 per cent of those in receipt of EMA at some point, 73.5 per cent of those who were never in receipt of EMA and 68 per cent of EMA ineligible young people (**Chapter 6.6.3**)

A high proportion of young people had, or intended to have, a part-time job in their first year of higher education (80 per cent). Young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt were most likely to say that they could not afford to study otherwise (39 per cent). This group also worked the longest hours. (**Chapter 6.6.5**)

As expected, those who had been eligible for EMA were more likely to receive LEA support with their tuition fees than those who had been ineligible (71.9 per cent compared with 15.1

per cent). However, the amount of non-receipt of support with tuition fees in the EMA eligible groups remained surprisingly high (**Chapter 6.6.7**)

Chapter 7 Young People and the Labour Market

This chapter examines the labour market experiences of young people who had left full-time education at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14 in order to explore whether participation in post-16 education enhances young people's labour market opportunities (**Chapter 7.1**).

Among young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12, there were few significant differences between the pilot and control areas in terms of occupational entry points, irrespective of whether young people had entered government supported training, work based training, or work without training (**Chapter 7.2.1**). Young people who had entered work without training in Year 12 were more likely to be in insecure seasonal, temporary or casual jobs and were more likely than other groups of young people to have changed their jobs by the start of Year 13. Those who had entered government supported training in Year 12 were most likely to be in the same job one year later (**Chapters 7.2.1 and 7.2.2**).

Analysis of the occupational entry points of young people who had entered the labour market at the start of Year 13 could not isolate the extent to which one year spent in post-16 education had enhanced the labour market opportunities available to young people (**Chapter 7.2.3**).

However, it would appear that the occupational choices open to young people who had spent two years in post-16 education were much greater than for young people who left school at 16 and who had attempted to progress through the work-based training or non-training routes. Young people who entered the labour market at Year 14 from full-time education were in higher occupational categories, in particular management, professional, associate professional technical occupations, than those who had entered the labour market at Year 12. In addition, most young people who had entered the labour market at Year 14 had done so without the assistance of government supported training provision (**Chapter 7.3.2**).

Just over one half of young people in the NEET group in both pilot and control areas in Year 14 were new entrants, that is, they had not been in the NEET group at either the start of Year 12 or 13. However, nearly one half of EMA eligible young people in both pilot and control areas who had entered the NEET group at Year 12 were still NEET by Year 14 (**Chapter 7.3.3**).

Chapter 8 EMA and Part-Time Work

The final chapter of the report explores how young people who were eligible for EMA combined part-time work with full-time post-16 education, focusing on participation in part-time work and hours worked, and how these appear to be related to EMA and to other characteristics of young people. Regression and PSM analytic techniques are employed (**Chapter 8.1**).

Controlling for a range of characteristics, young people who were eligible for EMA were less likely to be in part-time work in the pilot than the control areas. This pattern was consistent across Years 12 and 13 and was particularly so for those eligible for the maximum amount of EMA. Young people who were eligible for EMA in the pilot areas also worked shorter hours. Results from the PSM analysis showed a similar pattern of results.

Among young people in higher education at the start of Year 14, when EMA was no longer available, those who had been eligible for EMA in the pilot areas were no less likely to have a part-time job than those in the control areas.

1 INTRODUCTION

This publication is the third quantitative report in a series arising from an evaluation of the piloting of Education Maintenance Allowances (EMAs), commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The evaluation is being undertaken by a consortium of research organisations, led by the Centre for Research in Social Policy (CRSP), that includes the National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR), the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) and the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling (NICEC).

This report is the first since the government announced its decision to roll EMA out nationally in September 2004. As part of its commitment to increasing post-16 participation in learning, the government's Spending Review, published in July 2002 states that,

“Following successful pilots the Government is introducing Education Maintenance Allowances nationally from 2004...For many young people from low-income families they will make staying in education after 16 a realistic choice for the first time”.
(HM Treasury, 2002)

At the time of writing many decisions on the structure and delivery of the national scheme have yet to be taken and the remainder of the evaluation is now to be refocused to assist policy makers in planning for national implementation of the scheme. However, despite the policy decision that EMA has proved sufficiently successful in terms of its positive impact on participation and retention in post-16 education to merit its extension nationwide, much remains to be said about the potential longer term effects of EMA on young people as they move from compulsory education through to the labour market.

The longitudinal quantitative evaluation includes large samples of young people who finished compulsory education in the summers of 1999 and 2000 who, when the data presented in this report were collected, were at least one or two years into their post-school life. This means that the evaluation can now begin to complete its original objectives of estimating the impact of EMA on participation, retention and achievement in post-16 education. In particular, this report explores:

- The impact of EMA on participation and retention in post-16 education over the two years after young people had completed compulsory education (Chapter 2);

- Relationships between the effect of EMA on participation and retention in education, the socio-economic background of young people and their levels of achievement at the end of compulsory education (school Year 11) (Chapter 3);
- Differences in the types of courses that young people had chosen on entering post-16 education and their achievements during the first year of post-compulsory education (Chapter 4);
- The impact of EMA on educational achievement and progress that young people had made in the first two years since leaving compulsory education (Chapter 5);
- The impact of EMA on young people's entry to higher education and the choices that they had made in relation to institutions, courses, living accommodation and their intentions for supporting themselves financially (Chapter 6);
- The contrasting experiences of young people who had joined the labour market immediately after they had completed compulsory education with those who did so two years later after completing two years in post-16 education (Chapter 7); and
- An initial investigation of how young people combine full-time post-16 education with part-time work and the relationship between this and EMA availability (Chapter 8).

The findings reported here are based on analysis of five datasets produced from five interviews with young people (and their parents at Wave 1). These are shown in Table 1.1, which also shows the academic year in which young people were at the time of each interview and the year in which interviews were undertaken. A fuller description of the survey design is shown later in this chapter (see Section 1.2.1). Throughout this report, academic years are used in preference to the terminology of interview 'waves' since they are simpler and easier to understand, although this terminology is, of course, not strictly applicable to those young people who were not in education. In addition, not all readers will be familiar with academic years and, in any event, 'Year 14' is not commonly used since it extends beyond the age range of traditional schooling. Therefore, the approximate age of young people at the time of each interview is also shown in Table 1.1 so that the reader can bear this in mind in what follows.

The particular datasets that have been used in each set of analyses are described in the introduction to each chapter.

Table 1.1 Datasets

Dataset:	Interview at the Start of Academic Year:	Interviewing begun in:	Approximate age of Young People:	Approximate Time since Completing Compulsory Education:
Cohort 1 Wave 1	12	1999	16 – 17 years	3 months
Cohort 1 Wave 2	13	2000	17 - 18 years	15 months
Cohort 1 Wave 3	14	2001	18 – 19 years	27 months
Cohort 2 Wave 1	12	2000	16 – 17 years	3 months
Cohort 2 Wave 2	13	2001	17 – 18 years	15 months

The remainder of this introduction gives a brief policy synopsis and description of EMA followed by a description of the quantitative evaluation including its design, the samples of young people, the questionnaires, the weighting and analytic strategies, and the approaches used to measure achievement and socio-economic group.

1.1 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.

The pilot provision began in September 1999 by introducing four models of the main EMA in 15 Local Education Authorities (LEAs) (see Box 1.1). 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 quantitative surveys of young people and their parents focus on 10 of the initial 15 pilot areas, EMA was subsequently extended to around one-third of young people in

England and will be available to all eligible young people from September 2004. 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 are being evaluated separately from the primary evaluation reported here, and initial results of that evaluation have been published 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

1.2 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, although there are a number of subsidiary aims and objectives that have been fully described in earlier reports (for example, Ashworth et al., (2002)). The main EMA evaluation started in 1999 and it is currently intended that the final wave of interviews will start in 2003 with a final reporting date of 2004 (Box 1.2). The main evaluation includes a number of important elements in addition to the statistical evaluation reported here, each of which have also produced a number of published reports³.

Further, and in addition to the separate evaluation of five of the original fifteen pilot areas in Leeds and London referred to above, 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.

1.2.1 Design of the statistical evaluation

The design of the statistical evaluation is a longitudinal cohort study involving large surveys of random samples of young people in the 10 EMA pilot areas and 11 control areas⁴.

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. Three subsequent waves of telephone interviews are to be undertaken at annual intervals⁵.

³ See bibliography for a complete list of publications arising from the evaluation.

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.

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	Wave 4
Face-to-Face		Telephone	Telephone	Telephone
2000		2001	2002	2003

1.2.2 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;
- 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 includes:

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

The young person's questionnaire at Wave 3 contains information about:

- activities since Wave 2;
- reasons for activity changes;
- qualifications started and completed since Wave 2;
- entry into Higher Education;
- sources of funding, both for HE and post-16 education, (including EMA); and,
- expenditure patterns and amounts.

1.2.3 Sample sizes and response rates

Sample sizes drawn for the first wave of interviews with each cohort had 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 (Year 12) samples were drawn by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP⁶) 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.

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

The Wave 2 (Year 13) sample was drawn from young people who had agreed to be re-interviewed at the Wave 1 (Year 12) 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 (Year 13) sample who were income ineligible for EMA⁷. 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 (Year 12), 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 (Year 12) respondents. The exceptions to exclusion through a failure to provide income data were young people who 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 (Year 13).

Fieldwork was undertaken by the National Centre for Social Research. For the Cohort 1 Wave 3 (Year 14) and Cohort 2 Wave 2 (Year 13) interviews, the fieldwork period spanned September 2001 to April 2002.

Response rates were again high (Box 1.3). A total of 5,973 interviews were completed within Cohort 1 Wave 3 (Year 14), which represented a response rate of 80 per cent of issued names (which was the target response rate). A total of 7,709 interviews were completed with young people within Cohort 2 Wave 2 (Year 13), which is a response rate of 78 per cent of issued names. The Cohort 2 Wave 2 (Year 13) sample response rate was the same as that obtained for Cohort 1 Wave 2 (Year 13) in 2001.

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.

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 3 (Year 14)				
Available from Wave 2 (Year 13)	7,560			
Excluded: refused to be recontacted	125			
Sample issued	7,435		100	
Address/telephone number problems		10	0	
Movers/not known at address		261	4	
Sub-total issued*	7,164			100
Non-contacts		425	6	6
Refusals		281	4	4
Unproductives		485	7	7
Total Interviews	5,973		80	83
Cohort 2 Wave 2 (Year 13)				
Available from Wave 1 (Year 12)	11,035			
Excluded: refused to be recontacted	123			
Excluded: income data not available ^c	1,049			
Sample issued	9,863		100	
Address/telephone number problems		722	7	
Movers/not known at address		295	3	
Sub-total issued*	8,846			100
Non-contacts		200	2	2
Refusals		331	3	4
Unproductives		606	6	7
Total Interviews	7,709		78	87

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 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.

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

1.2.4 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 were 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 - 1996⁸ 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).

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

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.

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 Year 12 EMA data for the appropriate cohort. However, differential attrition between Years 12 and 13 and Years 13 and 14 require further adjustments to be made to the weighting of Years 13 and 14 data. A non-response weight was devised by comparing the distribution of characteristics of Year 13 respondents with Wave 1 respondents (unweighted) and adjusting the Year 13 respondent characteristics so that they resembled those of the Wave 1 characteristics. A new (Year 13) weight was then created, by multiplying the Year 13 non-response weight by the Year 12 weight. A similar procedure was undertaken to compute a new Year 14 weight.

For the descriptive analysis in this report, weights have now been calculated that allow for attrition between each wave to vary with more of the young persons background characteristics. Unfortunately, it has not been possible to use these weights in the ‘propensity score matching’ analysis (see further below), because it was not feasible to re-estimate this type of attrition weight every time the matching was carried out (the weights based on 44 groups are computationally simpler and therefore much faster to re-estimate each time).

1.2.5 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 Ashworth et al., 2001 and 2002.

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:
 - o 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;
 - o At the individual level to control for differences in the composition of the population in pilot and control areas.

Propensity Score Matching

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 pilot⁹ and control groups, i.e. the young people in

⁹ 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.

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 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.

Strengths and weaknesses of the ‘matched areas’ approach

It seems sensible to consider at this stage of the evaluation the strengths and weaknesses of propensity score matching and, in the next section below, of descriptive analytic techniques. The consortium is confident of the robustness of findings from the PSM approach on participation and retention, and the model has enabled an impact analysis of EMA that would not otherwise have been possible in the absence of random assignment. There are, however, limitations to what can be achieved with the areas based approach. First, the evaluation was specifically designed to control for influences on participation in post-16 education. It was not specifically designed to take into account differences in other destinations. For example, whilst the assumptions required for the model to distinguish FTE, from work, from NEET and, probably, work with training from work without training might be valid; we suspect that the assumptions required to identify the impact of EMA on differences between Work Based Training (Government Supported Training) and work with in-house training might be too strong. For example, it might well be the case that local characteristics which vary over time, might be particularly important in determining the training opportunities available to young people.

Secondly, PSM requires relatively large sample sizes to detect small effects. This is particularly of concern with the Wave 3 (Year 14) analysis of achievement (Chapter 5.2) and movements into Higher Education (Chapter 6.1). It is possible that effects do exist but that the second cohort of data is required to detect them. (Most of the point estimates for the impact of EMA from the PSM analysis are positive, but the standard errors mean that they are not statistically different from zero). In addition, socio-economic groups have had to be combined in the PSM analysis (for example, in Chapter 3.2).

Thirdly, it may be that the characteristics that predict achievement in post-16 education and entry into Higher Education are different/additional to those that predict participation and retention.

Finally, for the reasons described above, it has not proved possible to use attrition weights in the PSM analysis to take account of differential losses from the sample.

Strengths and weaknesses of descriptive analytic techniques

All of the above highlights some of the advantages of the complementary descriptive analysis that is included in this report. Descriptive techniques allow the data to be explored in greater detail, and at a greater level of disaggregation; data can be weighted to account for attrition; and, the findings also provide a useful check on the direction of the findings from the PSM approach. (It is also the case that the evidence from the quantitative analysis should be considered alongside the qualitative studies and the implementation reports that also form part of the evaluation of EMA).

However, the descriptive analysis cannot provide a measure of EMA effects; it simply suggests possible relationships. Differences between the pilot and control areas from the descriptive analysis should generally be smaller than from the PSM approach because the pilot areas were known to be more deprived than the control areas at the outset of the evaluation, and the descriptive analysis cannot control for this. What is encouraging is that the patterns emerging from the two approaches are so similar; almost invariably it is the magnitude of the differences identified between the two approaches that vary, not the direction of the findings.

All this, of course, makes the presentation of findings more difficult with, apparently, two ‘different’ sets of findings on the same issues. However, this should be viewed positively. The PSM and the descriptive analysis should be viewed as complementary rather than alternative methods of analysis. In broad terms the two analytic approaches are reaching the same conclusions.

1.2.6 Measuring Achievement

Much of the focus of this year’s report is on young people’s educational qualifications and achievements. However, measuring educational achievement in Britain is not a simple matter, given the plethora of possible courses and qualifications that are available, and the different levels and grades that exist within these qualifications.

Table 1.12 shows the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority’s (QCA) comparison of academic, vocational and occupational levels of qualifications.

Table 1.2 Equivalence between Academic, Vocational and Occupational Qualifications

Level of qualification	General		Vocationally related	Occupational
5				Level 5 NVQ
4		Higher level qualifications		Level 4 NVQ
3 advanced level	A/AS 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).

For almost all young people, Level 2 (intermediate level) is the highest level of qualification achievable by the end of Year 11 and Level 3 (advanced level) by the end of Year 13, two years after the end of compulsory education.

In last year's report, early data on achievement taken from Cohort 1 Wave 2 (Year 13) interviews focused on post-16 achievement, without taking into account achievement at the end of Year 11. This could be problematic in considering the effect of EMA on achievement because many young people who have been drawn into post-16 education as a result of EMA were low achievers at Year 11. Their low achievement might 'dilute' the overall mean of the distribution of those remaining in full-time education so that it might appear, for example, that eligible young people in the pilot areas were performing worse post-16 than those in the control areas. In other words, it is necessary to take Year 11 achievement into account in order to consider young people's progress in post-16 education.

Measuring 'progress' in post-16 education is also problematic. It is relatively easy to identify those who have achieved at a higher level post-16 than they did at the end of Year 11 by comparing the maximum level achieved in Year 11 with that achieved subsequently. However, this is a very blunt instrument that takes no account, first, of the quality of achievement – there is a difference, for example, between two young people who have both progressed from Levels 2 to Level 3 where one has achieved one 'A' Level at Grade D and the other has achieved 3 'A' Levels at Grade A. Secondly, measuring progress between the QCA levels takes no account of possible achievements in terms of increasing qualifications within the same level. A young person who achieved only one D-G Grade at Year 11 might have added further D-G grades to their qualifications post-16 and/or Level 1 GNVQ qualifications. Simple measurement of progress between levels will not account for either the extent of the progression or of achievements which do not involve moving up a level.

In short, there is no common measure that allows the qualifications and levels shown in Table 1.2 to be equated across Levels 1, 2 and 3. However, measures do exist that allow some equivalisation between GCSEs and GNVQs and between A Levels and Advanced GNVQs. It is possible to compare the number of passes at each level, and to compare the **value** of qualifications within levels (with the exception of NVQs), and between Levels 1 and 2, but it is not possible to compare the value of qualifications between levels 2 and 3.

Therefore, two main approaches have been adopted for measuring achievement in addition to movement between levels, number of passes and grade point scores, and these have been used throughout the report.

Number of passes

The formula used by DfES for converting GNVQ passes to GCSE passes is linked to the **type** of qualification (Part One or Full) and course level (Foundation or Intermediate). Table 1.3 demonstrates that Part One GNVQ passes are equivalent to two GCSEs, whereas Full GNVQ passes are equivalent to four GCSEs. Once these calculations have been made, young people can be assigned to either Level 1 (D-G GCSE Grades) or Level 2 (A*-C GCSE Grades). However, to refine this measure of achievement, in much of the descriptive analysis in Chapters 4 and 5 a further subdivision has been made between young people who achieved 1 – 4 A*-C GCSE Grades and those who achieved five or more A*-C GCSE Grades. The analyses in Chapter 5 (including the PSM analysis) have further subdivided young people according to their levels of achievement both at the end of Year 11 and subsequently in post-16 education, into nil, low, moderate and high achievers. Further details of this can be found in Chapter 5.1.

Table 1.3 GNVQ To GCSE Equivalent Pass Number Conversions

Qualification		Equivalent to Number of GCSEs	GCSE Grades
Full GNVQ			
(Level 2)	Intermediate	4	A*-C
(Level 1)	Foundation	4	D-G
Part One GNVQ			
(Level 2)	Intermediate	2	A*-C
(Level 1)	Foundation	2	D-G

Source: Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002).

Grade point scores

At Advanced Level grade-point scores assign 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 1.4).

Table 1.4 Value Of Intermediate And Foundation GNVQ Grades

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: Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002).

A similar system exists for assigning grade-points at Level 3 to AS, A-levels and Advanced GNVQs (AVCEs). For AS levels a grade A is assigned a value 5, which incrementally decreases to a value of 1 for a grade E. A-level qualifications are worth twice the value of their corresponding AS grade. Scores for Advanced GNVQ (AVCE) grades are shown in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 Value Of Advanced GNVQ Grades

Advanced GNVQ (AVCE) Grade	Full Advanced GNVQ (AVCE)	Part One Advanced GNVQ (AVCE)
Distinction	18	9
Merit	12	6
Pass	6	3

Source: Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002).

1.2.7 Measuring socio-economic group

This year's report also incorporates analysis that takes into account the socio-economic group to which the parents of young people in the samples belonged at the time of the first interview.

The classification of socio-economic group (SEG) brings together people with similar social and economic status into 17 groups, 3 of which are subdivided. It is derived from an individual's occupational unit group (1990 SOC group), employment status and the size of

establishment in which they work. A full description of the SEG classification is outlined in Table 1.6 and a detailed explanation of its derivation can be found in Office for National Statistics (1991). In order to examine the impact of EMA by SEG it was necessary to aggregate the 17 categories into 5 groups and the method used for this aggregation is also shown in Table 1.6.

The first survey interview collected detailed information on the ‘responsible adults’ in the household. These data allow all adults present in the household for whom information was available to be classified into both the initial 17 SEGs and into the 5 aggregated groups. (Information about absent fathers was not available). Household SEG was then allocated according to the aggregated SEG group of the household member with the highest aggregated SEG status (Group 1 being the highest and Group 5 being the lowest). The lowest SEG group (Group 5) consists entirely of households where no responsible adult was in employment¹⁰. In the PSM analysis Groups 2 and 3, and Groups 4 and 5 have been amalgamated so that these analysis examine how the impact of EMA varied by these three broad SEG groups for Cohorts 1 and 2 at the start of Years 12 and 13¹¹. (A more detailed initial analysis of the impact of EMA by SEG group for Cohort 1 was published in June 2002¹²).

¹⁰ If a responsible adult had retired, they were coded on the basis of the type of job they last did and were not treated as out of work.

¹¹ In the earlier SEG report a slightly different grouping was used which amalgamated Groups 1 and 2, then 3 and 4, and finally had Group5 (unemployed) by themselves. A closer examination of the results in that report showed that the grouping needed to be changed to capture the most important features of how EMA impacts on different socio-economic groups.

¹² Institute for Fiscal Studies (2000) The Impact of EMA on Young People’s Destinations: Further Analysis. IFS Working Paper.

Table 1.6 Construction of Aggregate Measures of Socio-economic Group (SEG)

SEG – full classification	SEG – Aggregated classification
1 Employers and managers in central and local government, industry, commerce, etc. – large establishments	
1.1 Employers in industry, commerce, etc – large establishments	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
1.2 Managers in central and local government, industry, commerce, etc – large establishments	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
2 Employers and managers in industry, commerce, etc. – small establishments	
2.1 Employers in industry, commerce, etc. – small establishments	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
2.2 Managers in industry, commerce, etc. – small establishments	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
3 Professional workers – self-employed	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
4 Professional workers – employees	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
5 Intermediate non-manual workers	Group 2 (Other non-manual workers)
5.1 Ancillary workers and artists	Group 2 (Other non-manual workers)
5.2 Foremen and supervisors non-manual	
6 Junior non-manual workers	Group 2 (Other non-manual workers)
7 Personal service workers	Group 4 (Semi- and unskilled manual workers)
8 Foremen and supervisors – manual	Group 3 (Skilled manual workers)
9 Skilled manual workers	Group 3 (Skilled manual workers)
10 Semi-skilled manual workers	Group 4 (Semi- and unskilled manual workers)
11 Unskilled manual workers	Group 4 (Semi- and unskilled manual workers)
12 Own account workers (other than professional)	Group 3 (Skilled manual workers)

Cont..

13	Farmers – employees and managers	Group 1 (Professionals and Managers)
14	Farmers – own account	Group 3 (Skilled manual workers)
15	Agricultural workers	Group 4 (Semi- and unskilled manual workers)
16	Members of armed forces	Group 4 (Semi- and unskilled manual workers)
17	Inadequately described and not stated occupations	
	Not in work	Group 5 (Not in work)

2 PARTICIPATION AND RETENTION IN POST-16 EDUCATION

SUMMARY

- EMA has had a positive impact on participation in post-16 education in pilot areas in Years 12, 13 and 14, particularly among young men in urban areas.
- The existence of EMA seems to have encouraged a greater proportion of eligible young people in the pilot areas to remain in education, rather than leaving education at the end of Year 11 to enter work with no training or the NEET group.
- EMA has also had a positive impact on retaining young people in post-16 education in Year 13 and in Year 14, particularly young men and in urban areas.
- The main mechanism for encouraging participation and retention in education is the EMA weekly payment and termly bonuses, both of which can be withheld if the young person does not meet EMA requirements.
- Stoppages of weekly payments of EMA were most common in Variant 2 areas which pays the highest weekly amount, and lowest in Variant 3 areas where EMA is paid to parents. Stoppages were most often attributed to absence.
- Receipt of termly bonuses was high but declined between the autumn and summer terms in both Years 12 and 13. Bonus receipt was highest in Variant 3 where the bonus is the only part of the EMA award paid directly to the young person, and in Variant 4 which provided the highest level of bonus

This chapter examines patterns of participation and retention in post-16 education over the two years since young people completed compulsory education. For young people who completed compulsory education in the summer of 1999, data are available for the start of academic Year 12 (when they were between 16 and 17 years old); Year 13 (when they were 17 or 18 years old); and Year 14 (aged 18 or 19 years old). For those who completed compulsory education in the summer of 2000, data are available for the start of academic Year 12 and 13 only.

The chapter begins with a descriptive comparison of participation in post-16 full-time education among the EMA sample of young people, with data drawn from DfES national

destination statistics (Section 2.1). This provides a context for the analysis in the following sections that uses a mixture of Propensity Score Matching (PSM) and descriptive analytic techniques to explain the role of EMA in post-16 participation and retention in education. The impact of EMA on participation and retention in full-time education at the start of Years 12 and 13 is described in Section 2.2, followed by its impact on participation and retention at the start of Year 14 (for those who left compulsory education in the summer of 1999 only), (Section 2.3). The final section examines the possible role that EMA weekly payments and retention bonuses may have played in encouraging the increased participation and retention in education seen in the earlier sections (Section 2.4).

2.1 Destinations 1999 – 2001: EMA Eligible Young People and the National Picture

This section compares participation trends in education, training and employment among the EMA eligible population of 16-18 year olds with national destination statistics. The data reported here focus on the first cohort of young people in the EMA sample only, that is, those who completed compulsory education in the summer of 1999. Young people are included in the analysis who were eligible for EMA on income grounds when they were first interviewed at the start of Year 12 and who had been interviewed subsequently at the start of Year 13 and Year 14¹³. The data have been weighted to adjust for differential selection probabilities at the first interview (at the start of Year 12) and differential attrition at the second and third interviews (at the start of Years 13 and 14) see (Chapter 1.2.4).

The section explores the overall pattern of movement between education, training, employment and the NEET group over the two year period between 1999 and 2001. In particular, it examines how young people in the EMA eligible population had moved between education, training, employment and NEET status between the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. This is compared and contrasted with destination statistics prepared by DfES on participation in education, training and employment by 16-18 year olds in 1999, 2000 and 2001, this being the corresponding period over which the EMA survey data were collected. The purpose of

¹³ It should be noted that fieldwork took place approximately between October and March of each academic year so that, strictly speaking, young people were first interviewed between 3 months and 9 months after completing compulsory education. By the time of their third interview, therefore, they could have been between 2 years 3 months and 2 years 9 months after compulsory education.

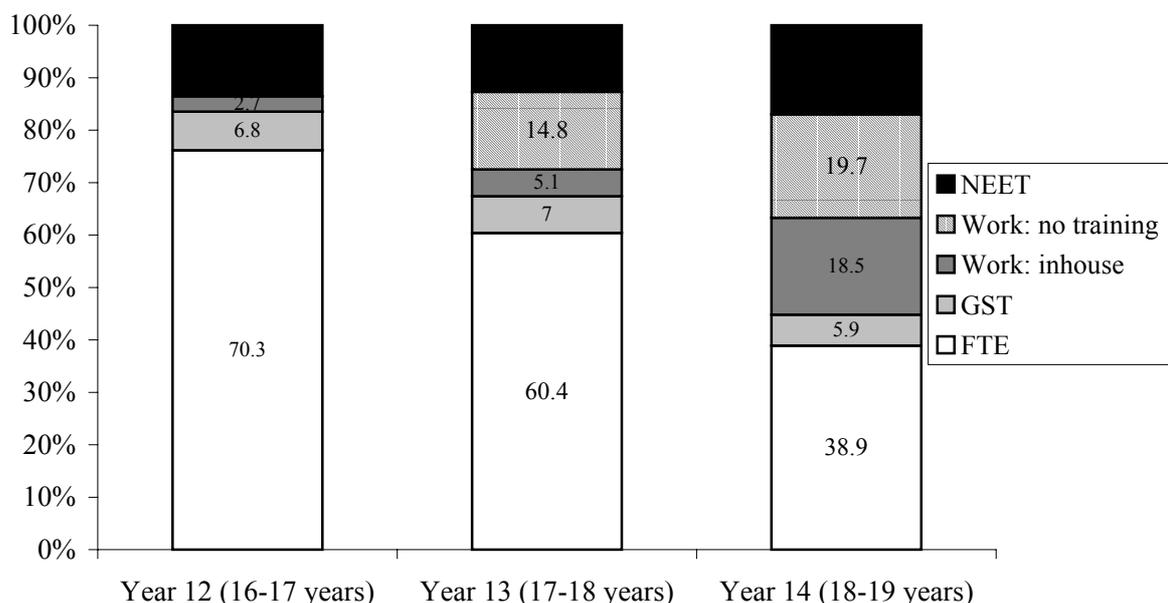
the comparison is to identify the extent to which differences may exist between the EMA eligible population and the 16-18 population as a whole.

It should be noted, however, that the two sets of data differ in a number of respects. First they have been collected from different sources. The EMA data were collected in interviews conducted between Autumn and Spring over a two and a half-year period. The DfES estimates of participation in education and training in England combine data for specific age groups (16, 17 and 18 year olds) from a number of sources, which, again, have been collected over a three-year period. In addition, the EMA survey data comprises a longitudinal cohort of young people who were re-interviewed at annual intervals, whereas the DfES data comprises the destinations of all 16-18 year olds in England which are collated on an annual basis. Some differences of interpretation may also exist in the preparation of the two datasets in relation to the definitions of participation in full-time education, employment and training.

2.1.1 Participation in full-time education

The proportion of young people in the EMA eligible population in full-time education at the start of Year 14 (18–19 years old) was 38.9 per cent, a decrease from 60.4 per cent at the start of Year 13 (17–18 years old), and from 70.3 per cent at the start of Year 12 (16–17 years old), (see Figure 2.1). This represents a 31.4 percentage point fall in the proportion of young people continuing in post–16 education between the start of Years 12 and 14, with the most significant fall occurring between the start of Years 13 and 14 (21.5 percentage points).

Figure 2.1 Destinations of Young People in the EMA Eligible Population



Base: Destinations of EMA eligible respondents who completed compulsory education in summer 1999 and who were interviewed in all three survey waves at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. N=4384.

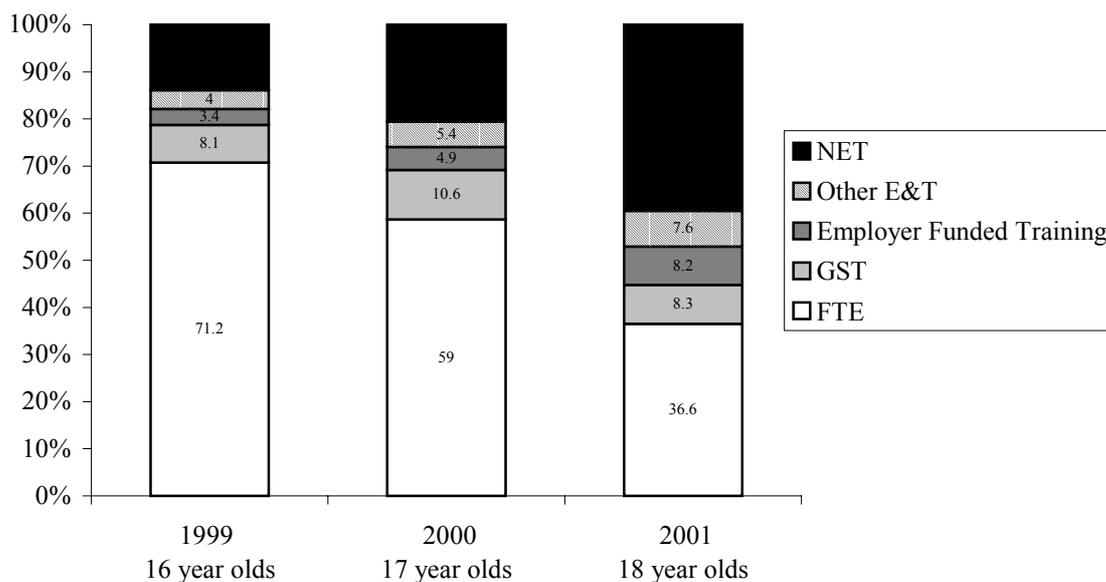
Key: NEET: Not in Education, Employment or Training; FTE: Full-time Education.

The Statistical First Release¹⁴ is a National Statistics publication which is prepared by DfES and provides an interesting comparison in relation to participation rates in education, training and employment by 16-18 year olds in England over the same time period. It estimated that the proportion of 16 year olds who remained in full-education in 1999 (that is, the year in which the young people in the EMA sample were first interviewed at the start of Year 12) was 71.2 per cent. In 2000 (at the time of the second interview with the EMA sample at the start of Year 13), it was estimated that 58.7 per cent of 17-year olds were in full-time education and at the end of 2001 (at the time of the third interview with the EMA sample at the start of Year 14), 36.6 per cent of 18 year olds had remained in full-time education (see Figure 2.2).

¹⁴ DfES (2001) National Statistics First Release: Participation in Education, Training and Employment by 16-18 Year Olds in England: 1999 and 2000 (SRF 30/2001).
DfES (2002) National Statistics First Release: Participation in Education, Training and Employment by 16-18 Year Olds in England: 2000 and 2001 (SRF 16/2002).

A slightly higher percentage of all 16 year olds remained in post-compulsory education in 1999 using DfES data (71.2 per cent) than in the EMA eligible survey sample¹⁵ when they were first interviewed at the start of Year 12 (70.3 per cent). However, the proportion in post-16 education among the EMA eligible population was slightly higher at the start of Years 12 and 13 than in national figures. At first sight, this seems counter-intuitive, given the fact that the EMA eligible population is drawn solely from young people from lower socio-economic groups among whom post-16 participation rates tend to be lower and from LEAs where participation rates in post-16 education were estimated to be lower than the national average. It is possible that this is, at least in part, a reflection of the higher retention rates in post-16 education among young people eligible for EMA in the pilot areas that will be seen in later sections of this chapter.

Figure 2.2 Participation in Education, Training and Employment by 16-18 Year Olds in England: 1999, 2000 and 2001



Source: DfES First Releases : Participation in Education, Employment and Training by 16-18 Year Olds in England: 1999 and 2000 and 2000 and 2001.

Key: NET: Not in Education or Training, GST: Government Supported Training, FTE: Full-time Education, Other E&T: Other Employment and Training.

¹⁵ Weighted to be representative of the population of all young people in the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in which the survey was carried out.

2.1.2 Participation in employment and training

While the proportions of EMA eligible young people who completed compulsory education in summer 1999 and who remained in full-time education fell between the start of Years 12 and 14, there were corresponding, if smaller, increases in the percentages of young people who entered employment with training (not government supported training). At the start of Year 14, 18.5 per cent of young people were in work that offered in-house training, an increase from 5.1 per cent at the start of Year 13 and from 2.7 per cent at the start of Year 12. Over the same period, that is between 1999 and 2001, DfES statistics show that the proportions of 16-18 year olds in England who were in employer funded training (which would include in-house *and* external training) rose from 3.4 per cent among 16 year olds in 1999, to 4.9 per cent among 17 year olds in 2000 and increased much less steeply in comparison with the EMA eligible population to 8.2 per cent among 18 year olds in 2001.

2.1.3 NEET and NET

The proportion of young people from the EMA eligible population who did not enter any form of education, employment or training and whose destination can be classified as NEET grew between the start of Years 12 and 14. The NEET group in the EMA cohort was also larger than the NEET group which existed among the 16-18 year old population as a whole. At the start of Year 12, the proportion of EMA eligible young people in the NEET group was 12.5 per cent, at the start of Year 13 this remained constant at 12.7 per cent, but by the start of Year 14, 17 per cent were in the NEET group. DfES statistics estimate both the number of young people not in education or training (NET), which excludes young people who are in employment without training, and the number of young people in the NEET group (not in any form of education, employment or training)¹⁶.

In 1999, 7 per cent of 16 year olds were classified as NEET (lower than among the EMA eligible sample). This proportion rose slightly in 2000 to 8 per cent of 17 year olds who were NEET. Among 18 year olds in 2001, the NEET population nationally was 12 per cent of the cohort.

¹⁶ NEET figures can be found in the additional tables at <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics/DB/SRF/s0341/index.html>

At the start of Years 12 and 13, the proportions of EMA eligible respondents who were NET were significantly larger than for the population of young people as a whole. The larger proportions of the EMA sample who were both NET and NEET might be expected, given the predominance of lower socio-economic groups in the surveys of the EMA eligible population and the established links between NET/NEET status and social classification (Hillman and Pearce, 1998). However, this trend was reversed among the NET group at the start of Year 14 for the EMA population compared with 18 year olds nationally in 2001. While the overall size of the NET populations had continued to grow in both datasets, at the start of Year 14 the EMA data showed 36.7 per cent of young people as NET, compared with 39.6 per cent of all 18 year-olds in England. There could be two reasons for this difference. First, a much larger proportion of young people in the EMA eligible survey population at the start of Year 14 were in employment with training (18.5 per cent compared with 8.1 per cent of all 18 year olds who were in employer funded training). Second, the proportion of eligible young people in full-time education at the start of Year 14 in the EMA survey was slightly larger than among the 18 year old population as a whole (38.9 per cent of the EMA eligible population compared with 37.1 per cent of all 18 year olds).

2.2 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Education in Years 12 and 13

This section examines the impact of EMA both on young people's participation in education immediately after the end of compulsory education (at the start of Year 12) and one year later (at the start of Year 13). It also explores the effect of EMA on retaining young people in post-16 education between Years 12 and 13 since, in addition to encouraging young people from low income families to enter post-16 education, EMA also had the policy objective of retaining more of this group in education once they had made the initial decision to participate. The reason for this policy concern with retention had already been shown in Section 2.1; national figures show that the proportions of young people remaining in full-time education decline significantly as the period from the end of compulsory education lengthens. To repeat the earlier example, 71.2 per cent of 16 year olds were in full-time education in 1999, 58.7 per cent of 17 year olds in 2000 and only 36.6 per cent of 18 year olds in 2001 (DfES, 2001 and 2002).

In most of this section propensity score matching (PSM) techniques are used to estimate the impact of EMA on participation and retention. This repeats the analysis undertaken last year for the first cohort of young people eligible for EMA¹⁷, that is, those who completed compulsory education in summer 1999, but now combines data from both cohort 1 and cohort 2 (young people who completed compulsory education in summer 2000). This substantially increases sample sizes for analysis and, hence, the precision of the estimates.

However, it should be noted that the results here are not directly comparable to those in the previous section for two reasons. First, the previous section used results only from young people in cohort 1 in order to extend the analysis to the start of Year 14 (PSM results for participation and retention in Year 14 among young people in cohort 1 can be found in the next section of this chapter). Secondly, results in this section are based on PSM techniques which means that the bases are different. All EMA eligible young people in the pilot and control areas who completed all three interviews were included in the analysis in the previous section, whereas in this section only young people for whom a suitable match could be found are included¹⁸. Nevertheless, these estimates, derived using PSM techniques and combining data from two cohorts, are the most robust and reliable of the impact of EMA on participation and retention in education in Year 13.

2.2.1 Impact of EMA on destinations in Years 12 and 13

The first set of analyses shown in Table 2.1 provides estimates of the overall impact of EMA on young men and women's destinations in Years 12 and 13 in terms of their decisions to remain in full-time education (FT Education), to move into full-time employment and/or full-time work based training (Work/Training), or to become NEET which is defined as not in full-time education, full-time employment or full-time work based training. The results are shown, first, by gender (Table 2.1) and, secondly, by urban and rural areas (Table 2.2). The effects have been estimated using pilot population weights. Both Tables combine the results for cohorts 1 and 2. The results for Year 12 and Year 13 are slightly lower than those presented in last year's report, as they now include data from both cohorts and the impact of EMA was lower on young people who finished compulsory education in summer 2000

¹⁷ See Ashworth et al., 2002.

¹⁸ See Section 2.5 For a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of PSM and descriptive techniques

(cohort 2) than on those who finished in summer 1999 (cohort 1), as was shown in last year's report.¹⁹

EMA has had a positive and significant effect on participation in post-compulsory education participation among EMA eligible young people (Table 2.1). The overall impact for young men and young women, combining cohorts 1 and 2, was to increase Year 12 participation in full-time education by 4.3 percentage points, and Year 13 participation by 6.2 percentage points. This overall effect for Year 12 is lower than reported last year and reflects the fact that our weighting is not fully taking into account the effects of attrition²⁰. This should be borne in mind when interpreting these Year 13 results.

It seems that EMA had drawn young people into education who would otherwise have entered work (with or without training) or the NEET group, although the results were only statistically significant for the reduction in the NEET group in Year 12 and the 'work' group in Year 13. Analysis using simple descriptive comparisons between EMA eligible young people in the pilot and control areas for cohort 1 only, has broken down further the 'work' group into those who entered work without training, and work with training. The findings suggest that eligible young people in the EMA pilot areas were significantly less likely to be in work without training than their counterparts in the control areas in both Years 12 and 13 (figures not shown). There was little difference in the proportion of young people entering work with training between young people in the pilot and control areas. Whilst not conclusive, this suggests the encouraging conclusion that, in addition to the apparent reduction in the size of the NEET group, the draw into full-time education as a result of EMA has been among young people who might otherwise have entered work without training.

Among young men, the impact of EMA on participation in full-time education was an increase of 4.6 percentage points in Year 12 and 8.2 percentage points in Year 13 (Table 2.1). In Year 13 the increase was predominantly drawn from work/training (the group in work/training was significantly smaller, by 5.2 percentage points, in the pilot than the control areas), although there is some evidence that part of this increase came from the NEET group which was 3.1 percentage points smaller in the pilot than the control areas (although this

¹⁹ The results for cohort 1 can be found in Ashworth et al., 2002.

²⁰ For more details see the discussion in Chapter 1

effect is not significant at conventional levels). This shows that either EMA is attracting young men back into education at Year 13, or that it is having a positive effect on education retention between Year 12 and Year 13. This is examined in more detail in the next section.

The corresponding results for young women show that EMA increased full-time education participation significantly in both Years 12 and 13 by just over 4 percentage points. The increase in education participation in Year 13 among young women seems to have been drawn solely from the work and/or training route, which was significantly smaller, by 5.5 percentage points, among young women in the pilot areas.

The impact of EMA in rural areas was larger than in urban areas (Table 2.2). A comparison of these Year 12 results with those described in last year's report again suggests that attrition may be dampening the estimated impact of EMA in urban areas, but exaggerating it in rural areas. Again this points to the fact that the weighting is NOT fully accounting for the effects of attrition. The results in Table 2.2 show that it is in urban areas where EMA is having a larger impact on participation in Year 13 compared to Year 12. Again this might be the result of EMA attracting more people back into education at Year 13, or that it is having a positive effect on education retention between Year 12 and Year 13. This is also explored in greater detail in the next section.

Table 2.1 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations by Gender Per cent

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men						
FT Education	72.8	68.3	4.6	61.5	53.3	8.2
(S.E)			(2.2)			(2.3)
Work/Training	15.0	16.9	-1.9	25.0	30.2	-5.2
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.5)
NEET	12.1	14.8	-2.7	13.5	16.6	-3.1
(S.E)			(1.8)			(1.8)
Sample size		3313			3313	
Population size		26890			26890	
% of total popn		71.9			71.9	
Young Women						
FT Education	78.6	74.5	4.1	66.6	62.4	4.2
(S.E)			(2.0)			(2.1)
Work/Training	10.0	11.3	-1.3	18.3	23.8	-5.5
(S.E)			(1.9)			(2.7)
NEET	11.4	14.2	-2.8	15.1	13.7	1.4
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.7)
Sample size		3325			3325	
Population size		27408			27408	
% of total popn		73.5			73.5	
All Eligibles						
FT Education	75.8	71.4	4.3	64.1	57.9	6.2
(S.E)			(1.5)			(1.6)
Work/Training	12.5	14.1	-1.6	21.6	27.0	-5.4
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.6)
NEET	11.8	14.5	-2.7	14.3	15.1	-0.8
(S.E)			(1.2)			(1.2)
Sample size		6638			6638	
Population size		54298			54298	
% of total popn		72.7			72.7	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All EMA eligible young people. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 combined. Pilot weights.

Table 2.2 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations by Location

	Per cent					
	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban						
FT Education	74.5	71.2	3.3	62.8	57.2	5.6
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.3)
Work/Training	13.1	14.8	-1.7	22.4	27.9	-5.5
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.3)
NEET	12.3	14.0	-1.7	14.8	14.9	-0.1
(S.E)			(1.3)			(2.3)
Sample size		5111			5111	
Population size		48495			48495	
% of total popn		72.7			72.7	
Rural						
FT Education	85.9	73.4	12.5	74.7	63.2	11.4
(S.E)			(4.4)			(3.2)
Work/Training	7.1	8.0	-0.9	15.0	19.4	-4.4
(S.E)			(1.8)			(2.4)
NEET	7.1	18.6	-11.5	10.3	17.4	-7.1
(S.E)			(3.9)			(3.2)
Sample size		1527			1527	
Population size		5803			5803	
% of total popn		72.8			72.8	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
 Base: All EMA eligible young people. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 combined. Pilot weights.

2.2.2 Impact of EMA on Year 12 and 13 transitions and retention in education

Tables 2.3 and 2.4 compares the activity of EMA eligible young people at the time of their Year 12 and Year 13 interviews. The data include young people from both Cohorts 1 and 2 who did not leave the sample between the first and second interview and, again, these results have been calculated by weighting to the population in the pilot areas. As with last year's report, four

mutually exclusive outcomes were defined which capture young people's main changes in activity (transitions):

- 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 are shown, first, by gender (Table 2.3) and, secondly, by urban/rural location (Table 2.4).

Table 2.3 shows that the increase in the impact of EMA for young men between Year 12 and Year 13 seen in Table 2.1 was partly the result of the impact EMA had on increasing retention (5.5 percentage points), defined as the proportion of those in full-time education in Year 12, who were still in full-time education in Year 13. This is despite the fact that, as will be shown in Chapters 3 and 4, EMA had drawn more 'marginal' young people into education in Year 12 that is, those with lower Year 11 qualifications and from lower socio-economic groups, who would normally be expected to have higher drop-out rates.²¹ Thus it is clear that, for young men, increased retention is an important part of explaining the full effect of EMA. For young women, the effects were much more modest, with the only significant impact of EMA being on the proportion who were never in post-compulsory education (a significant difference of 4.5 percentage points between young women in the pilot and control areas).

Table 2.4 shows the results split by urban and rural areas, combining cohorts and gender. The education participation effects were stronger in rural than in urban areas, although both were positive and significant, whereas significant retention effects were only found in urban areas. In urban areas, EMA increased retention rates by 4.0 percentage points (from 77.1 per cent to 81.1 per cent).

²¹ See further Chapter 3.

Table 2.3 Impact of EMA on Year 13 Destinations and Retention by Gender
Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	59.3	50.7	8.6 (2.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	13.6	17.6	-4.0 (1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	2.6	-0.4 (0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	24.9	29.2	-4.2 (2.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.6	76.1	5.5 (2.4)
Sample size	3313		
Population size	26890		
% of total population	71.9		
Young Women			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	64.2	60.4	3.8 (2.1)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.4	14.1	0.3 (1.6)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.4	2.0	0.4 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	19.0	23.5	-4.5 (1.9)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	82.2	81.2	1.0 (3.8)
Sample size	3,325		
Population size	27,408		
% of total population	73.5		
All Eligibles			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	61.7	55.6	6.1 (1.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.0	15.7	-1.7 (1.2)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.3	2.3	0.0 (0.5)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	21.9	26.3	-4.4 (1.5)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.9	78.7	3.2 (2.2)
Sample size	6,638		
Population size	54,298		
% of total population	72.7		

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of both Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. Pilot Weights.

Table 2.4 Impact of EMA on Year 13 Destinations and Retention by Location
Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	60.4	55.0	5.4 (1.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.1	16.2	-2.1 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.4	2.2	0.2 (1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	23.1	26.6	-3.5 (1.7)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.1	77.1	4.0 (1.7)
Sample size	5,111		
Population size	48,495		
% of total population	72.7		
Rural			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	72.9	60.7	12.2 (4.5)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	13.0	12.7	0.3 (2.1)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	1.7	2.6	-0.9 (1.9)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	12.4	24.0	-11.6 (4.7)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)			1.2 (3.9)
Sample size	1,527		
Population size	5,803		
% of total population	72.8		

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of both Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. Pilot Weights.

2.2.3 EMA and a national roll-out

In this section, population weights for the whole of England are used to estimate the likely impact of EMA when it is rolled out nationally. Tables 2.3 and 2.4 have been replicated but data have now been weighted to be representative of all young people in England using the 44 weighting groups described in Chapter 1.2.4²². However, it should be noted that any general equilibrium effects caused by a national roll-out, such as its effect on the labour market opportunities available to young people, have been ignored.

The results shown in Tables 2.5 and 2.6 are quite encouraging, in that they estimate that when EMA is rolled-out nationally its effects will probably be enhanced, particularly for young women. The evidence here suggests that EMA nationally will increase the proportion staying in education in Years' 12 and 13 by around 8.3 percentage points among young men and 5.7 percentage points among young women, and should increase retention in education by 4.9 percentage points among young men (but only marginally among young women). It seems that this increase in two years participation in post-16 education will mostly be drawn from the group who, without EMA, would have left education at the end of Year 11 and not participated at all in education in either Years 12 or 13 (a reduction of 5.9 percentage points in the proportion of young people reporting activity other than education in both Years 12 and 13, see Table 2.5).

A similar story is found when the sample is split into urban and rural areas (Table 2.6). The impact of EMA on education participation is likely to be highly significant in both urban and rural areas, with a slightly larger impact in rural areas. The retention effect, however, should be higher in urban areas which reflects the fact that the impact of EMA on education participation in urban areas increased between Years 12 and 13.

²² 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. See further, Chapter 1.2.4.

Table 2.5 National Impact of EMA on Year 13 Destinations and Retention by Gender

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	60.7	52.3	8.3 (2.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.2	15.8	-1.6 (1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	2.4	-0.2 (1.6)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	22.9	29.5	-6.6 (2.6)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.1	76.3	4.9 (2.4)
Sample size		3313	
Young Women			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	67.6	61.8	5.7 (2.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	13.7	14.0	-0.3 (1.5)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.0	2.2	-0.2 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	16.7	22.0	-5.3 (2.6)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	82.7	81.4	1.3 (1.8)
Sample size		3325	
All Eligibles			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	64.1	57.0	7.1 (1.8)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.0	14.9	-1.0 (1.1)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	2.3	-0.2 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	19.8	25.8	-5.9 (1.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.9	78.8	3.1 (1.5)
Sample size		6638	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of both Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. National Weights.

Table 2.6 National Impact of EMA on Year 13 Destinations and Retention by Location

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	61.6	55.0	6.6 (1.8)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	13.9	16.2	-2.3 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	2.3	-0.1 (1.4)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	22.3	26.5	-4.3 (2.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.6	77.2	4.4 (1.7)
Sample size		5111	
Rural			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	69.7	61.6	8.2 (4.0)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.1	12.0	2.2 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	1.9	2.4	-0.5 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.2	24.0	-9.8 (3.7)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	83.1	84.4	-1.3 (2.1)
Sample size		1527	

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

Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of both Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. National Weights.

2.3 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Education in Year 14

This section compares the destinations of young people at the start of their third year after the end of compulsory education (Year 14). Data are from the third interviews with young people who had completed compulsory education in summer 1999 (Cohort 1), that is, when these young people were aged between 18 and 19 years. Therefore, analysis in this section is based on one cohort of young people only, rather than for both cohorts as in Section 2.2. As a result, estimates provided here may be less precise than those that will be available in our

next report, when data from the third interviews with young people in Cohort 2 are also available and can be combined with data from Cohort 1 to give larger sample sizes. Nevertheless, it was important to provide some early indications of the impact of EMA on young people at this important stage in their post compulsory education careers. For some young people the start of Year 14 marks the beginning of their transition into Higher Education (see further, Chapter 6). Other young people will be starting work after completing two years of post-16 education, whilst a further group will still be in post-16 education, as they seek to improve their qualifications. This section examines if and how EMA has impacted on the chosen paths of the first cohort of EMA eligible young people, and how the increase in participation in full-time education in Years 12 and 13 observed in the previous section seems to have impacted on the routes taken.

2.3.1 Impact on Year 14 destinations

Table 2.7 shows estimates of the overall impact of EMA on eligible young people's destinations at least two years after completing compulsory education, that is, at the start of Year 14. It will be noted that for this analysis 'work' has now been split into work that involves training and work with no training component.²³ The results have been split by gender but, because of small sample sizes, it is not possible to provide separate results for urban and rural areas. The effects have been estimated using pilot population weights.

The number of young men who were undertaking full-time education at the beginning of Year 14 was 9.2 percentage points higher in pilot areas than for similar men in control areas.²⁴ Most of this difference between pilot and control young men was the result of far fewer young men in the pilot areas undertaking work involving training at the start of Year 14. Only 19.8 per cent of young men in pilot areas were undertaking work with training, compared with 28.9 in control areas, a difference of 9.1 percentage points.²⁵ This could be because the type of young men who would previously have undertaken this type of work were now remaining in education, and/or because those men who were induced to undertake education as a result of the EMA now required less training once they started work.

²³ This exercise has been undertaken for both cohorts in Year 12 and Year 13 and the results are available from the authors on request.

²⁴ For this sample of men who have not left the survey, the difference in full-time education participation rates in Year 12 was 11.9 percentage points and in Year 13, 11.4 percentage points.

²⁵ This was also true for this cohort in Year 12 where there was a 6.3 percentage point difference and Year 13 where there was an 8.5 percentage point difference.

However, there were also fewer men in pilot areas undertaking work without training, though this difference is not statistically significant at conventional levels.

Table 2.7 Impact of EMA on Destinations in Year 14 by Gender

Year 14 Destinations	Pilot	Control	Per cent Increase
Males			
FT Education	44.3	35.1	9.2
(S.E)			(3.1)
Work with training	19.8	28.9	-9.1
(S.E)			(2.8)
Work without training	13.3	15.1	-1.8
(S.E)			(2.1)
NEET	22.6	20.9	1.7
(S.E)			(2.8)
Sample size		1,265	
Population size		13,016	
% of total population		71.6	
Females			
FT Education	41.6	42.4	-0.8
(S.E)			(2.9)
Work with training	18.0	18.8	-0.8
(S.E)			(2.2)
Work without training	14.5	14.9	-0.4
(S.E)			(2.1)
NEET	25.9	24.0	1.9
(S.E)			(2.6)
Sample size		1,353	
Population size		13,985	
% of total population		75.21	
All Eligibles			
FT Education	42.9	38.9	4.0
(S.E)			(2.1)
Work with training	18.9	23.7	-4.8
(S.E)			(1.8)
Work without training	13.9	15.0	-1.1
(S.E)			(1.5)
NEET	24.3	22.5	1.8
(S.E)			(1.9)
Sample size		2,618	
Population size		27,001	
% of total population		73.43	

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

Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot Weights.

2.3.2 Impact of EMA on Year 12, 13 and 14 transitions and retention

While it is interesting to examine outcomes at the start of the third year after the end of compulsory education (Year 14), more can be learned about the impact of EMA by looking at young people's transitions between destinations measured at the start of the three academic years for which data are available (1999-2000; 2000-2001 and 2001-2002). To do this the same four mutually exclusive transition outcomes were used as in the previous section.

From the results of this analysis, it is clear that EMA has significantly effected the transitions of young men, but not those of young women, in this first Cohort over the (approximately) two year period since the end of compulsory education (Table 2.8).

The number of young men who were in full-time education at the start of all three academic years is estimated to have been 10 percentage points higher than it would have been in the absence of EMA, and this difference is highly significant. EMA also increased the proportion of young men who had remained in education in Year 12 and Year 13 but who had then moved to a different destination at the start of Year 14, although this increase is not significant at conventional levels. Most of these increases in education participation by young men were the result of a large reduction in the proportion of young men who undertook no full-time education after compulsory education had finished (a reduction of 10.5 percentage points in the proportion of young men who reported being in an activity other than education at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14, see Table 2.8). The differences in other transitions were small and not significant. It also seems that the positive retention effect of EMA, observed both in last year's report and in Section 2.2 above, seems to persist for young men; 64.3 per cent of young men who were in full-time education in Year 13 remained in education at the start of Year 14, compared to only 60.5 per cent of those in control areas, although this result is not statistically significant at conventional levels.

For young women, there were no significant differences in transitions. However, with only one cohort of data it is too early to speculate on possible reasons for this and the issue will be explored more thoroughly in next year's report when data for the second cohort are available.

Table 2.8 Impact of EMA on Year 14 Transitions and Retention by Gender Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Males			
Education → Education→ Education (S.E)	40.9	30.9	10.0 (3.1)
Education → Education→ Other (S.E)	22.8	20.2	2.6 (2.6)
Other → Other→ Other (S.E)	20.0	30.5	-10.5 (2.9)
All other transitions (S.E)	16.3	18.4	-2.1 (2.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y13) (S.E)	64.3	60.5	3.8 (4.4)
Sample size		1,265	
Population size		13,016	
% of total population		71.6	
Females			
Education → Education→ Education (S.E)	38.8	40.3	-1.5 (2.8)
Education → Education→ Other (S.E)	26.4	23.5	2.9 (2.5)
Other → Other→ Other (S.E)	18.6	19.5	-0.9 (2.4)
All other transitions (S.E)	16.2	16.6	-0.5 (2.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y13) (S.E)	59.5	63.2	-3.7 (3.5)
Sample size		1,353	
Population size		13,985	
% of total population		75.21	
All Eligibles			
Education → Education→ Education (S.E)	39.8	35.8	4.0 (2.1)
Education → Education→ Other (S.E)	24.7	21.9	2.8 (1.8)
Other → Other→ Other (S.E)	19.3	24.8	-5.5 (1.9)
All other transitions (S.E)	16.2	17.5	-1.3 (1.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y13) (S.E)	61.8	61.9	-0.1 (2.8)
Sample size		2,618	
Population size		27,001	
% of total population		73.43	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only.
Pilot Weights.

2.3.3 Transitions, retention and gender: Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis can provide greater detail about the differential impact of EMA on young men and young women in Years 12, 13 and 14, although the percentage point differences among young people in the pilot and control areas may vary according to whether PSM or descriptive techniques are used. Table 2.9 shows that the pattern of findings are similar. For example, young men show higher rates of post-16 education participation and retention in the pilot areas at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. At the start of Year 12, there was a 9.4 percentage point difference between the pilot and control areas in relation to the proportion of young men who had chosen to enter post-16 education. (This compares to a 7.1 percentage point observed difference using the matched sample technique that was recorded in the second year report (see Ashworth et al., 2002)).

At Years 13 and 14, larger proportions of young men in the pilot areas were either entering or being retained in post-16 education (Table 2.9). At Years 12 and 13, participation and retention in full-time education had been achieved by a reduction in the proportion of young men entering work without training or the NEET group. At Year 14, although EMA eligibility for most young people had expired, 5.5 percentage point more young men were participating in education in the pilot areas than in the control areas. (In comparison, a 9.2 percentage point observed difference using the matched sample technique was reported in the previous section of this chapter). This suggests that, while entitlement to EMA may have expired, a higher proportion of young men in EMA pilot areas had remained in learning.

At Years 12 and 13, increases in educational participation and retention were accounted for by a reduction in the number entering work without training, and the NEET group. At Year 14, the difference between the pilot and the control areas can also be explained in relation to the proportions entering work with training as well as work without training (although the differences are not statistically significant). Therefore, while a significantly greater proportion of young men were choosing to remain in education at Year 14, this seems to have been achieved to some degree, by a reduction in the proportion entering sections of the labour market where training was available.

At Years 12, 13 and 14, the introduction of EMA appears to have made very little difference to post-16 education participation rates among young women, again confirming earlier

findings (Ashworth et al., 2001, 2002) and reinforcing the results from the propensity score matching reported earlier in this chapter.

Table 2.9 Gender

	Male			Female		
	Pilot	Control	Difference %	Pilot	Control	Difference %
Wave 1						
FTE	72.4	63.0	9.4	72.7	72.7	0.0
WBT	8.0	8.9	-0.8	5.4	5.1	0.3
Work: in house trn	2.9	3.4	-0.4	2.0	2.6	-0.7
Work: no trn	5.9	11.1	-5.2	6.7	7.3	-0.6
NEET	10.7	13.6	-3.0	13.2	12.3	1.0
Wave 2						
FTE	61.1	53.2	7.9	63.4	63.6	-0.2
WBT	8.0	8.7	-0.7	5.9	5.4	0.5
Work: in house trn	6.8	6.7	0.1	3.1	3.9	-0.8
Work: no trn	12.6	16.0	-3.3	14.6	16.2	-1.6
NEET	11.4	15.4	-4.0	13.0	10.9	2.1
Wave 3						
FTE	41.6	36.1	5.5	38.5	39.2	-0.7
WBT	6.7	7.5	-0.8	5.0	4.6	0.3
Work: in house trn	16.5	19.3	-2.8	17.8	20.4	-2.7
Work: no trn	16.9	19.4	-2.5	21.5	21.1	0.3
NEET	18.3	17.7	0.6	17.3	14.6	2.7

Base: EMA eligible young people in all three survey waves.

2.4 EMA Weekly Payments and Retention Bonuses

Previous sections of this chapter have shown that EMA both increased participation in post-16 education, and encouraged young people to remain in education once their initial decision was made. Weekly payments, termly retention bonuses and course-related achievement bonuses are the incentives provided to help realise these aims. Weekly allowances offer an incentive for regular attendance in the short-term. The termly retention bonus provides an incentive for medium-term participation. The achievement bonus encourages and rewards successful completion of a course of study that requires a relatively long-term commitment. It is worth repeating here that each EMA variant provides a different level of EMA weekly payments, termly bonuses and achievement bonus (Table 2.10 – see further Chapter 1.1).

Table 2.10 Weekly Payments, Termly Bonuses and Achievement Bonus, by EMA Variant

EMA Variants	EMA Weekly Payments, Termly Bonuses and Achievement Bonus
Variant 1	£30 per week plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 2	£40 per week plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 3	£30 per week paid to parents plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
Variant 4	£30 per week plus £80 retention and £140 achievement bonus
Rural variant (same provision as Variant 1)	£30 per week plus £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus

This section uses descriptive analysis to explore receipt of EMA weekly payments and termly retention bonuses to identify the potential influences of EMA incentive mechanisms on young people and to suggest which models provide the most effective incentives. A description of young people's experiences of achievement bonuses is included in Chapter 5.3.

During their interviews at the start of Years 13 and 14 young people who had received EMA were asked a range of questions about their experiences of stoppages of EMA weekly payments, and receipt or withdrawal of termly bonus payments. Therefore, in order to ensure that young people included in the analysis had received EMA for a sufficient period to reflect on their experience of weekly payments and retention payments, young people have been included who:

- Were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13, and had either received EMA at the start of Year 12 or had received EMA in the intervening period (data taken from Year 12 and Year 13 interviews for Cohorts 1 and Cohort 2 have been combined). These data are used for the analysis of experiences of stoppages of weekly payments.
- At the start of Year 14 had either reported receiving EMA at the start of Year 13 or who had received it between Year 13 and Year 14 (data taken from Year 14 interviews with Cohort 1). These data are used for the analysis of experiences of receipt of termly retention bonuses in combination with those from Years 12 and 13 described above, in order to maximise the number of termly retention bonuses that young people could potentially have received.

Throughout this section, all data have been weighted unless otherwise stated. Pilot weights have been applied to the data that take account of young people who left the sample between waves of interviews (attrition)²⁶. It should be noted that tests of statistical significance were conducted on the findings described here but none were statistically significant.

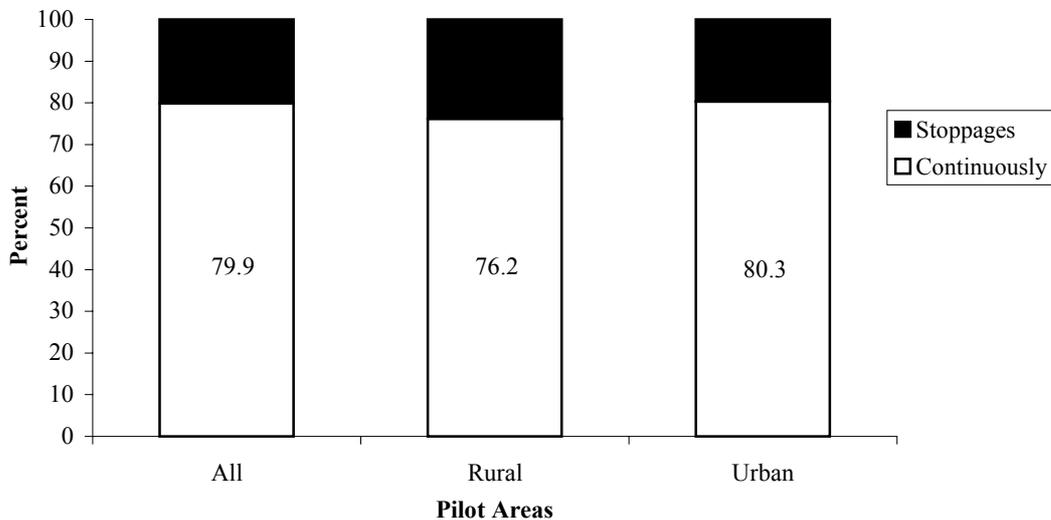
2.4.1 Weekly payments

In order to be eligible for an EMA weekly allowance, young people must achieve 95 per cent attendance in a given week. Failure to meet these attendance criteria can result in young people having their weekly payments stopped. Stoppages can also occur if young people omit information from application forms or if administrative problems arise for LEAs, schools or colleges.

²⁶ See further Chapter 1.2.4

Stoppages to weekly payments

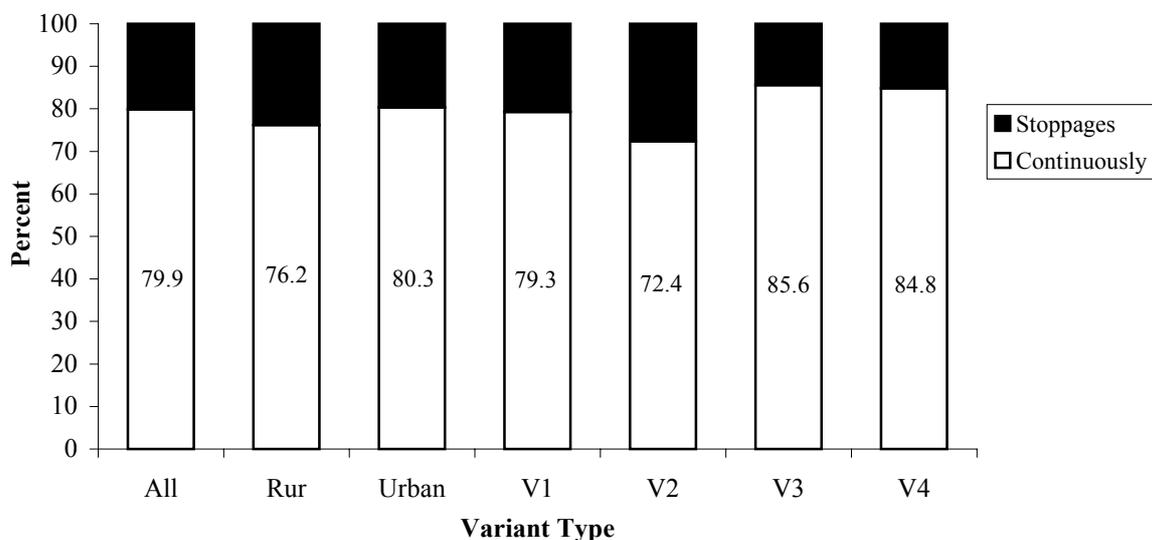
Figure 2.1 Stoppage Patterns during Year 12: All, Urban and Rural Pilot Areas



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=3052).

Approximately 80 per cent of young people reported continuous receipt of EMA weekly payments, whilst 20 per cent reported stoppages to their weekly payments (Figure 2.1). Differences between urban and rural areas were small with 23.8 per cent of rural recipients reporting that their weekly payments had been stopped at some point compared to 19.7 per cent of urban recipients.

Figure 2.2 Stoppage Patterns during Year 12: Variant



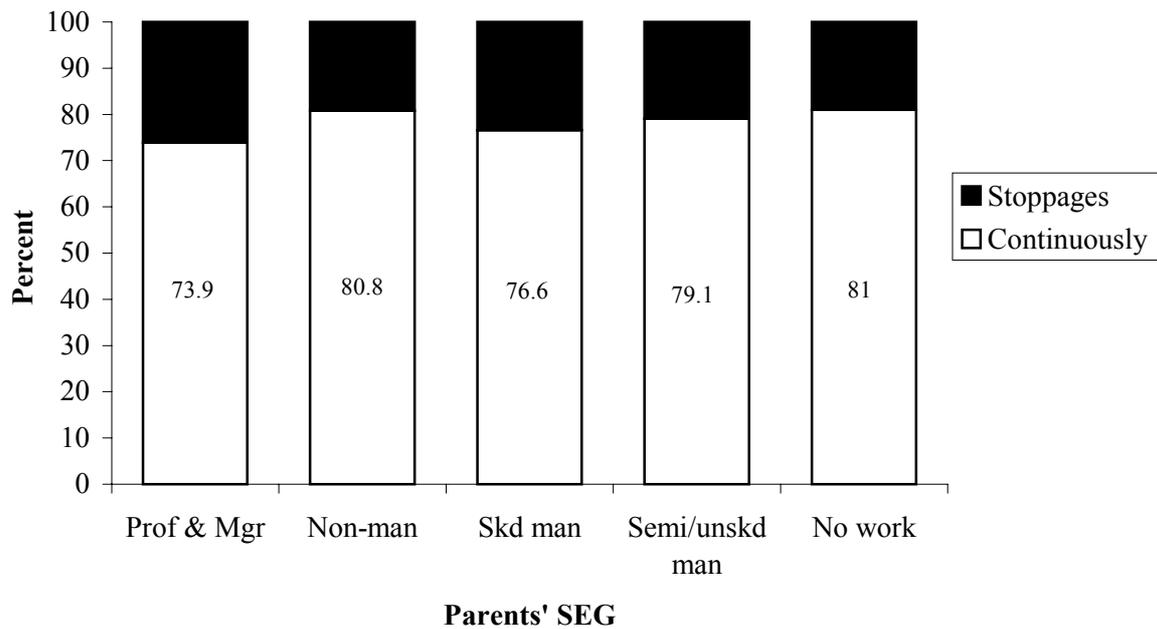
Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=3052).

Across the four urban variants, the most substantial difference to emerge was between Variant 2 and Variant 3 (Figure 2.2). Variant 2, which pays the highest EMA weekly allowance, accounted for the highest proportion of reported stoppages across all pilot areas (27.6 per cent). In contrast, Variant 3 where EMA is paid to the parent(s) accounted for the lowest proportion of stoppages overall (14.4 per cent). At first sight Variant 3 appears to provide an effective model for encouraging weekly attendance. However, a review of reasons for stopped payments is necessary to evaluate whether stoppages were caused by attendance-related problems or other factors such as administrative delay (see further below, Figure 2.6).

There were no discernible differences in stoppages between:

- Those in receipt of partial EMA payments (20.4 per cent) and those in receipt of a full EMA award (20.1 per cent).
- Young men (21 per cent) and young women (21 per cent).
- Recipients who had achieved D-G GCSE grades at Year 11 (19.5 per cent), those who had achieved 1-4 A*-C grades (22.3 per cent) and those who had achieved 5+ A*-C GCSE grades (19.1 per cent).

Figure 2.3 Stoppage Patterns during Year 12: SEG



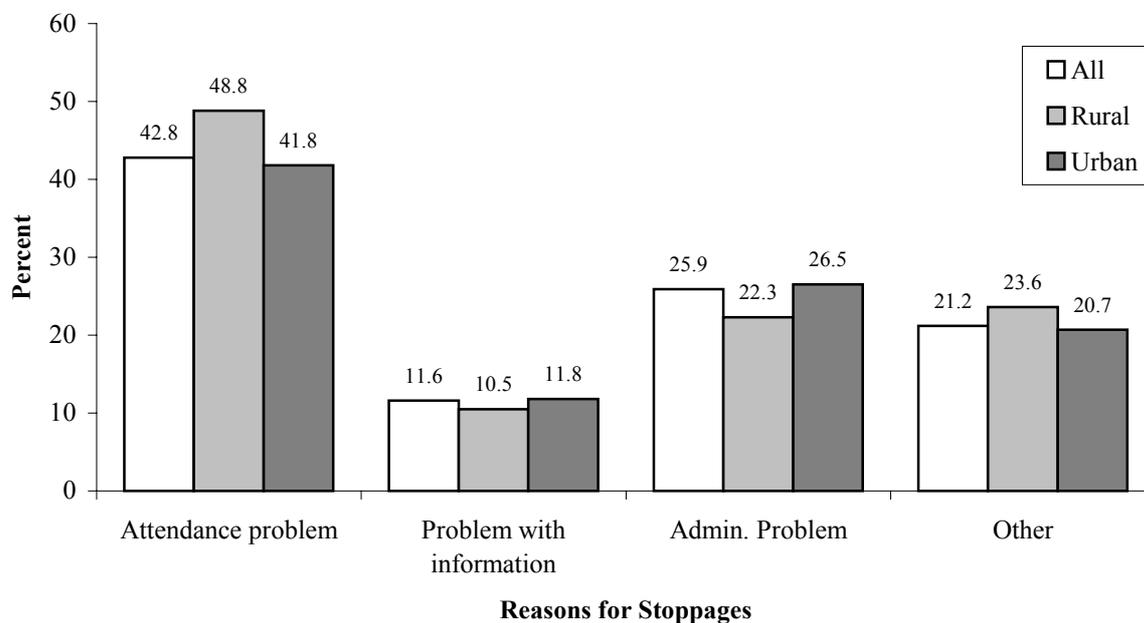
Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=3052).

However, some differences did emerge in the patterns of stoppages according to socio-economic group (Figure 2.3)²⁷. For example, 26.1 per cent of recipients from ‘Professional / managerial’ backgrounds reported stoppages to payments compared to 19 per cent of recipients whose parents were not engaged in employment (‘No work’).

²⁷ See Chapter 1.2.7 for an explanation of the construction of socio-economic groups.

Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments

Figure 2.4 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments during Year 12: All, Urban and Rural Pilot Areas

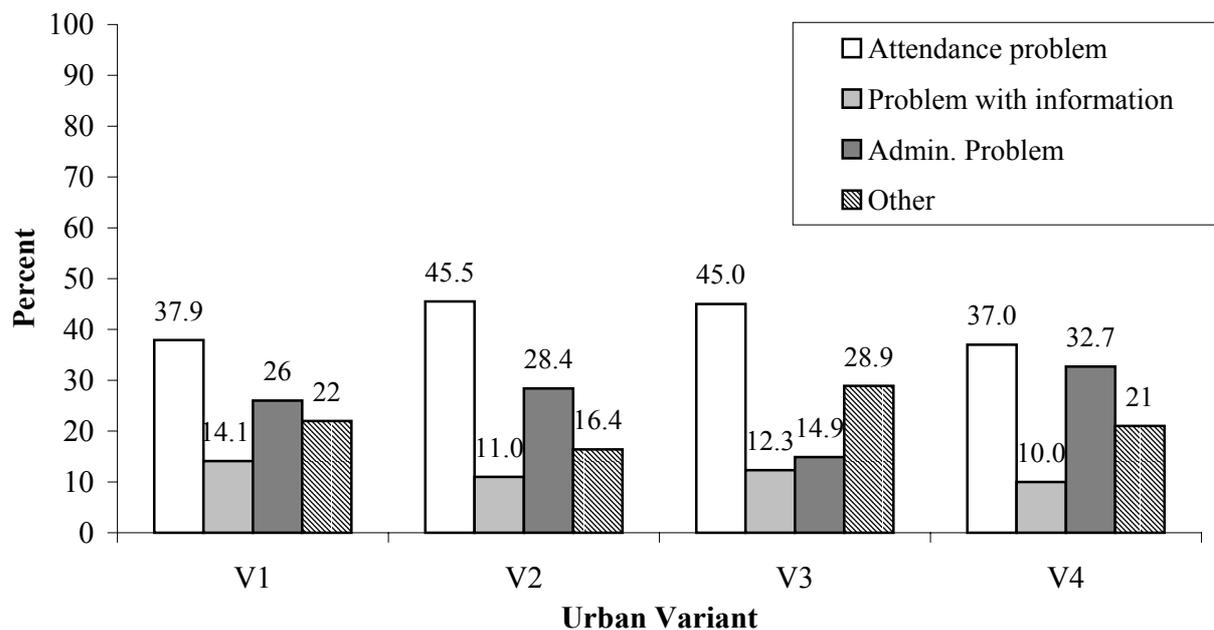


Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=595).

Across all pilot areas, attendance problems emerged as the most common reason for stoppages to the weekly payment (42.8 per cent) (Figure 2.4). However, administrative problems such as processing errors and payment delays also accounted for a substantial proportion of reasons given for stoppages to weekly payments (25.9 per cent). A small proportion of young people also reported that there had been a problem with information provided in their application form (11.6 per cent)²⁸. A larger proportion of rural recipients (48.8 per cent) attributed stoppages to attendance problems compared to their urban counterparts (41.8 per cent).

²⁸ It should be noted that some respondents interpreted this question as referring to delays in the applications process that had led to them not receiving EMA, which they categorised as a stoppage of their EMA payments.

Figure 2.5 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments during Year 12: Urban Variants



Base: Young people in Urban areas who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=412).

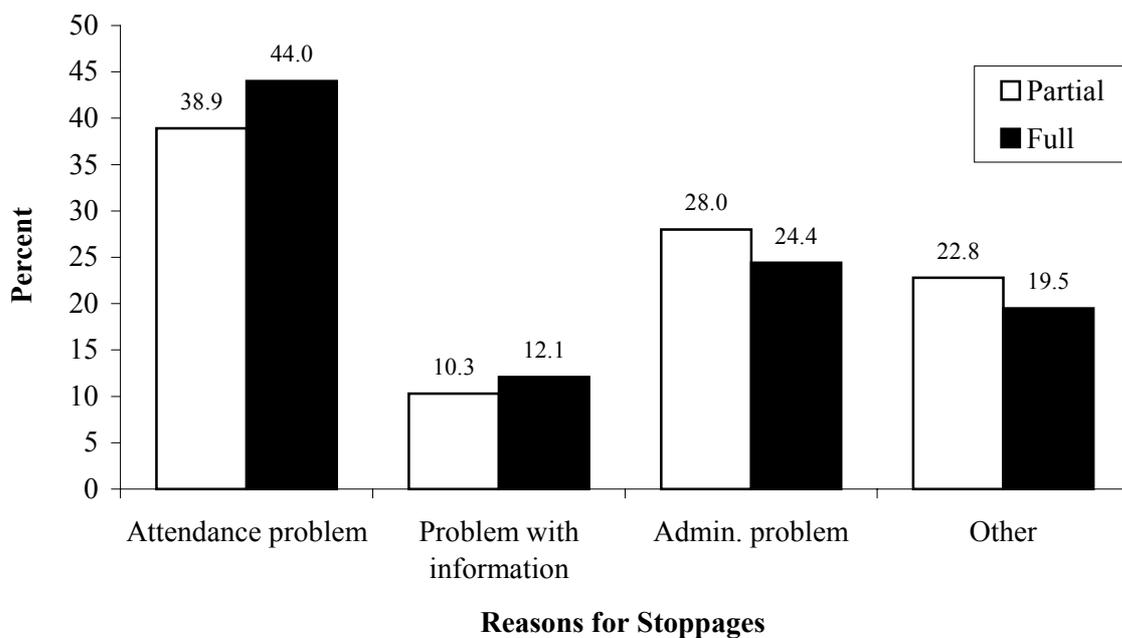
Attendance problems were most commonly reported in Variant 2 areas (45.5 per cent) where the highest weekly allowance was available (Figure 2.5). This could suggest that the higher weekly payment available here did not encourage better attendance. However, it should also be noted that evidence from elsewhere in the evaluation suggests that absence monitoring and the interpretation of authorised absence were applied differently across EMA pilot areas (Maguire and Maguire, 2002). It is possible that attendance had been monitored more stringently in Variant 2 because of the relatively higher weekly allowance there.

Problems with information provided in the application form represented a relatively small proportion of reasons given to explain stoppages to weekly payments. Within rural areas, only 10.5 per cent of recipients reported problems with the application form as a reason for stoppages (Figure 2.4). The proportions of young people in each urban variant who attributed stopped payments to problems with their application form ranged from a minimum of 10.2 per cent in Variant 4 to a maximum of 14.1 per cent in Variant 1 (Figure 2.5).

Interruptions to weekly payments caused by administrative problems varied widely among the urban variants. For example, administrative problems represented 14.9 per cent of reasons provided by recipients in Variant 3 compared to 33.2 per cent in Variant 4 (Figure 2.5). Research evidence from the evaluation of EMA implementation strategies noted that different LEAs, schools and colleges utilised contrasting methods and resource levels in the administration of EMA (Maguire and Maguire, 2002). This may account for differences in the extent of administrative errors and delays to weekly payments.

A substantial proportion of stopped payments were attributed to the unspecified classification of ‘Other’. This ranged from 16.4 per cent in Variant 2 to 28.9 per cent in Variant 3.

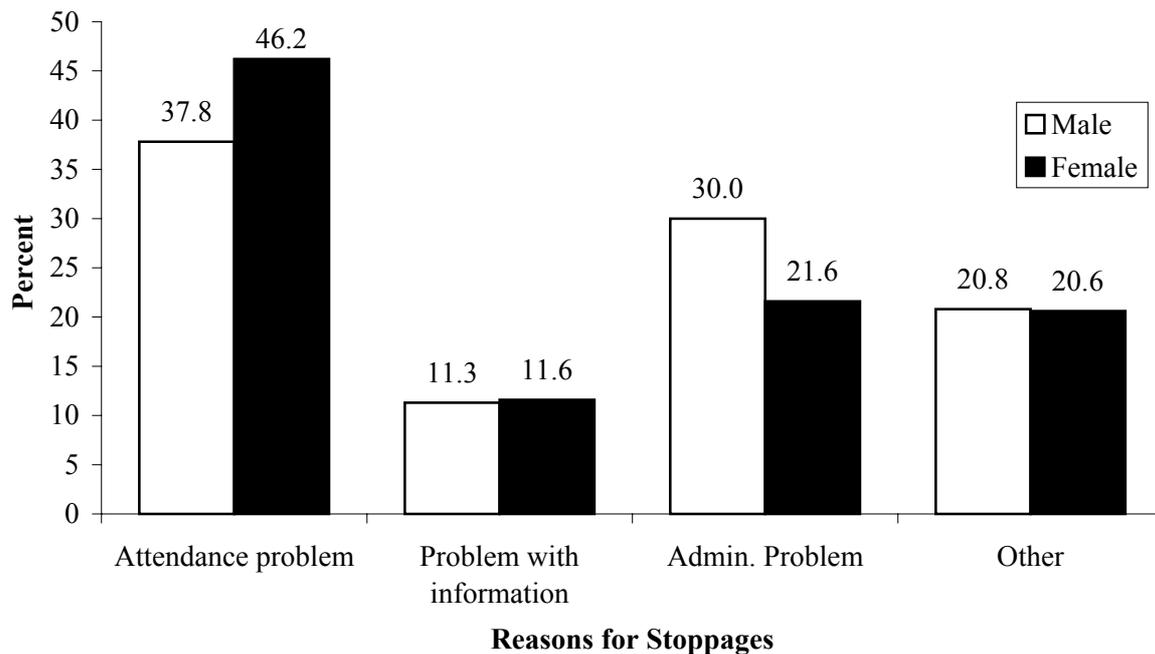
Figure 2.6 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments during Year 12: Partial or Full EMA Award



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=595).

A higher proportion of those in receipt of a full EMA award attributed stoppages to attendance problems (44 per cent) compared to those receiving a partial award (38.9 per cent) (Figure 2.6).

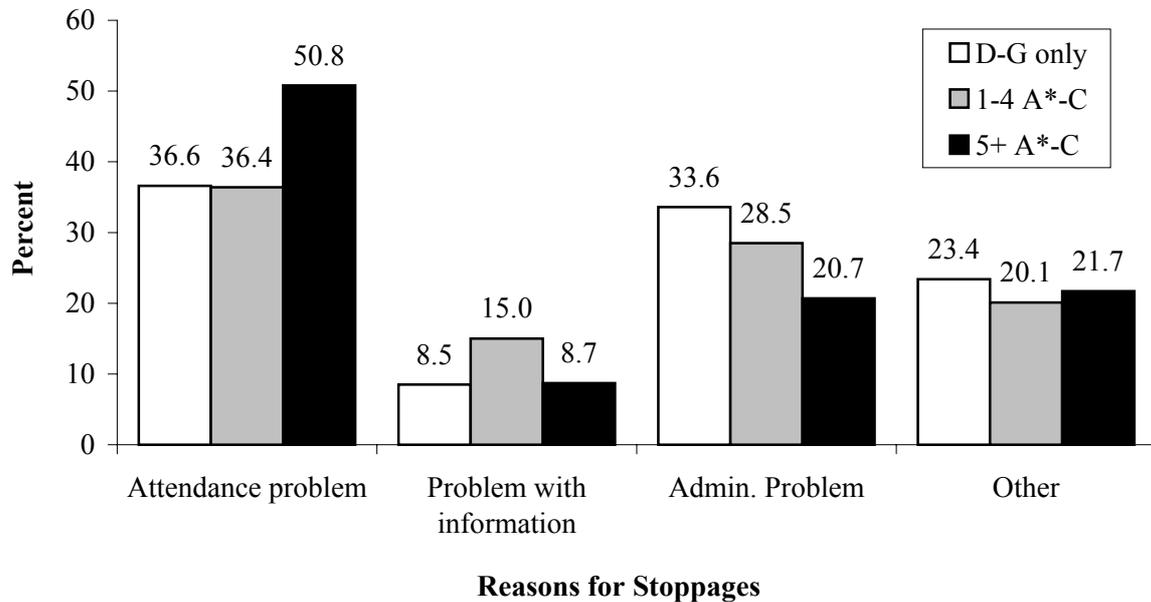
Figure 2.7 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments in Year 12: Gender



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=595).

Some gender differences emerged in reasons given to explain stoppages to the weekly payment with a higher proportion of young women (46.2 per cent) attributing stopped payments to poor attendance than young men (37.8 per cent) (Figure 2.7). However, a higher proportion of young men (30 per cent) attributed stoppages to administrative processing errors compared to young women (21.6 per cent). It is not possible to measure how far such differences represent gendered differences in attendance patterns, administrative discrepancies or blame attribution.

Figure 2.8 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments in Year 12: Year 11 Achievement



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=595).

It was shown earlier that similar proportions of young people experienced stopped payments, irrespective of their level of Year 11 achievement. However, the reasons given for stoppages differed with young people from the highest achieving group at Year 11 being more likely to attribute stoppages to attendance problems; 50.8 per cent of young people who gained five or more GCSE A*-C grades at Year 11 attributed stoppages to attendance problems, compared with only 36.6 per cent of those who attained GCSE grades D-G at Year 11 (Figure 2.8). By contrast, only 20.7 per cent of those with five or more A*-C grades attributed stoppages to administrative problems but 33.6 per cent of those with D-G grades did so.

Table 2.11 Reasons for Stoppages to Weekly Payments in Year 12: Parents' SEG

	Professional & Managerial	Non-Manual	Skilled Manual	Semi/unskilled Manual	No Work
Attendance problem	58.2	45.7	49.4	42.7	37.9
Problem with information	12.2	14.1	10.0	10.7	11.1
Administrative problem	22.2	15.8	24.3	29.5	29.9
Other	7.4	26.3	19.1	18.3	22.5

Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12, or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13, AND who experienced a stoppage AND who gave a reason. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined (Unweighted N=595).

A larger proportion of young people from professional and managerial backgrounds experienced stoppages than in other groups (Figure 2.3), and young people also accounted for stopped payments in different ways according to their socio-economic group (Table 2.11). Young people from professional and managerial backgrounds most commonly attributed stoppages to attendance problems (58.2 per cent). In contrast, a far smaller proportion of those whose parents did not work attributed stoppages to attendance problems (37.9 per cent).

2.4.2 Termly retention bonuses

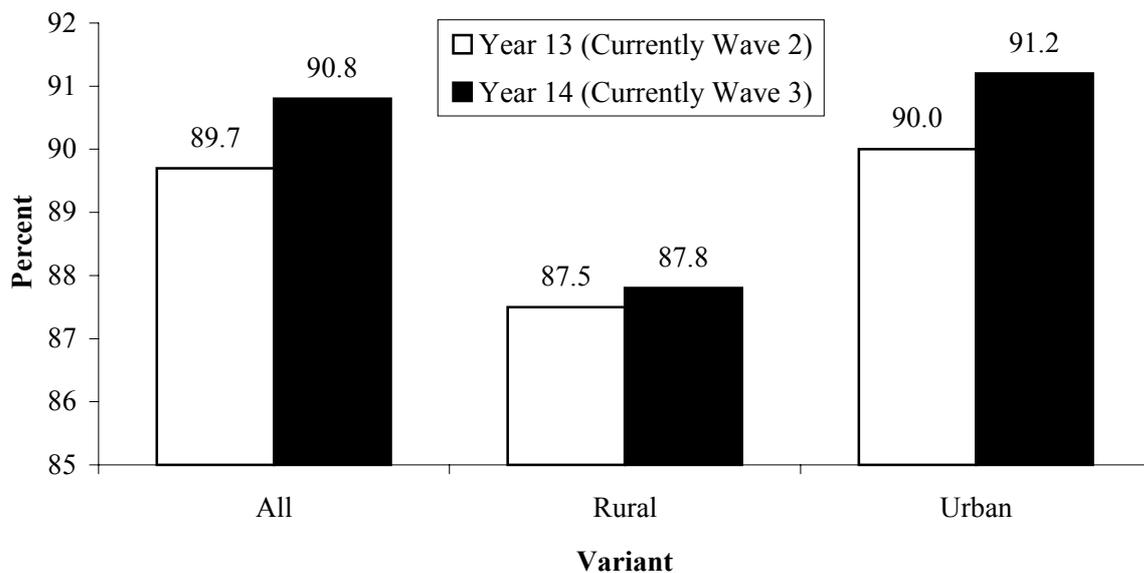
In order to be eligible for a termly retention bonus, young people must achieve a 95 per cent attendance rate in a given term. Young people may receive up to three retention bonuses in one academic year, at the end of the Autumn, Spring and Summer terms. Different levels of retention bonus are available, with the rural Variant and urban Variants 1, 2 and 3 providing £50 each term whereas Variant 4 pays a higher retention bonus of £80.

This section focuses on the proportions of young people who reported receiving termly retention bonuses and analyses reasons for non-receipt using a similar approach to the previous section. As in the previous section, young people are included in the analysis who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13, and had either received EMA at the start of Year 12 or had received EMA in the intervening period (data taken from Year 12 and Year 13 interviews for Cohorts 1 and Cohort 2 have been combined). We also now add to the analysis those young people who at the start of Year 14 either reported receiving EMA at the

start of Year 13 or who had received it between Year 13 and Year 14 (data taken from Year 14 interviews with Cohort 1). All young people in the analysis had responded to questions in the survey about receipt of retention bonuses.

Retention Bonus Receipt

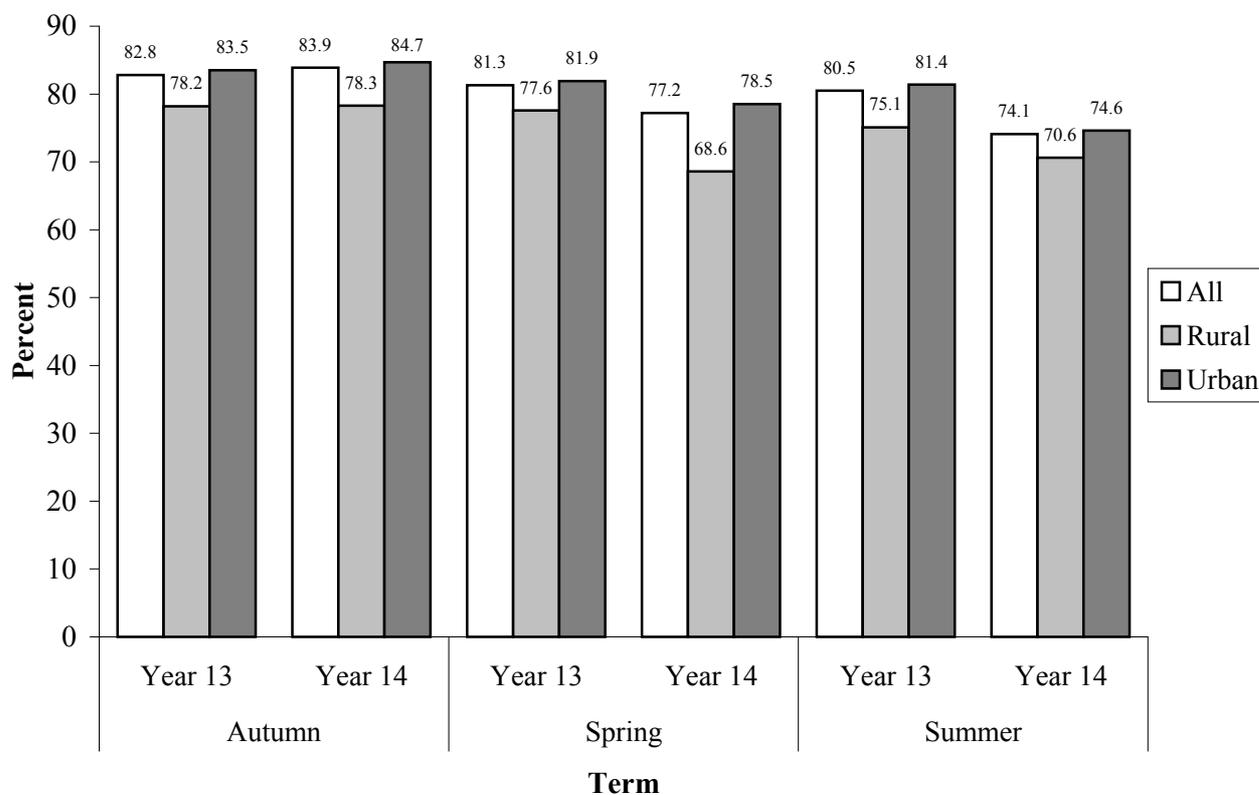
Figure 2.9 Receipt of Retention Bonuses in Years 12 and 13: All, Rural and Urban Pilot Areas



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=3029). PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=1248).

Overall, similar proportions of young people reported receipt of retention bonuses in the period leading up to the Year 13 interview (89.7 per cent) compared to the period between Year 13 and Year 14 (90.8 per cent) (Figure 2.9). Reported receipt of retention bonuses in the year preceding the interview was lower in rural areas than in urban areas at both Year 13 and Year 14. However, even in rural areas receipt of retention bonuses remained high.

Figure 2.10 Autumn, Spring and Summer Retention Bonuses: All, Urban and Rural Pilot Areas



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=3029) PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=1248).

During Year 12, receipt of bonuses had not varied greatly between the Autumn, Spring and Summer terms. However, reports of bonus receipt during Year 13 declined substantially between the Autumn (83.9 per cent), Spring (77.2 per cent) and Summer (74.1 per cent) terms.

Table 2.12 Autumn, Spring and Summer Retention Bonuses in Years 12 and 13 by Variant

	Autumn		Spring		Summer	
	Year 12	Year 13	Year 12	Year 13	Year 12	Year 13
Rural	78.2	78.3	77.6	68.6	75.1	70.6
V1	80.9	79.9	82.5	75.4	82.0	69.6
V2	77.1	79.5	72.7	71.9	73.9	68.9
V3	87.0	90.4	86.2	81.7	86.3	80.9
V4	89.2	88.4	86.7	83.8	84.1	77.7

Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=3029) PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=1248).

Analysis of these data by each of the different variants reveals a similar pattern to that observed in Figure 2.10 (Table 2.12). Receipt of termly retention bonus during Year 12 remained fairly consistent throughout the course of the three terms, whereas the proportion of young people receiving a termly bonus during Year 13 decreased more substantially each term. Although many factors contribute towards payment of termly retention bonuses, this pattern could be explained, at least partially, by the increased levels of non-attendance which might occur in Year 13 as a result of exam preparation and the completion of exams.

Across all urban variants, bonus payments declined from the Autumn term onwards (Table 2.12). This was particularly marked in Variant 2 during Year 13, where 79.5 per cent of recipients had received a bonus in the Autumn term, but by the Summer term this had declined to 68.9 per cent; a fall of 11 percentage points. Variant 3 experienced the smallest decline with a nine percentage point fall between Autumn (90.4 per cent) and Summer (80.9 per cent).

Overall, the largest proportions of young people who reported receiving bonuses were located in Variant 3 where a £50 retention bonus was available and in Variant 4 where an £80 bonus was available. It should be noted that in Variant 3 areas bonuses are the only part of the

EMA award received by young people themselves – the weekly allowance is paid to parents. This suggests that both Variants 3 and 4 provide more effective short- and medium-term incentives than those in operation in Variant 1 and Variant 2. The strength of the Variant 4 model confirms findings from last year’s report in which the strongest retention effect was shown to be in the Variant 4 areas (Ashworth et al., 2002).

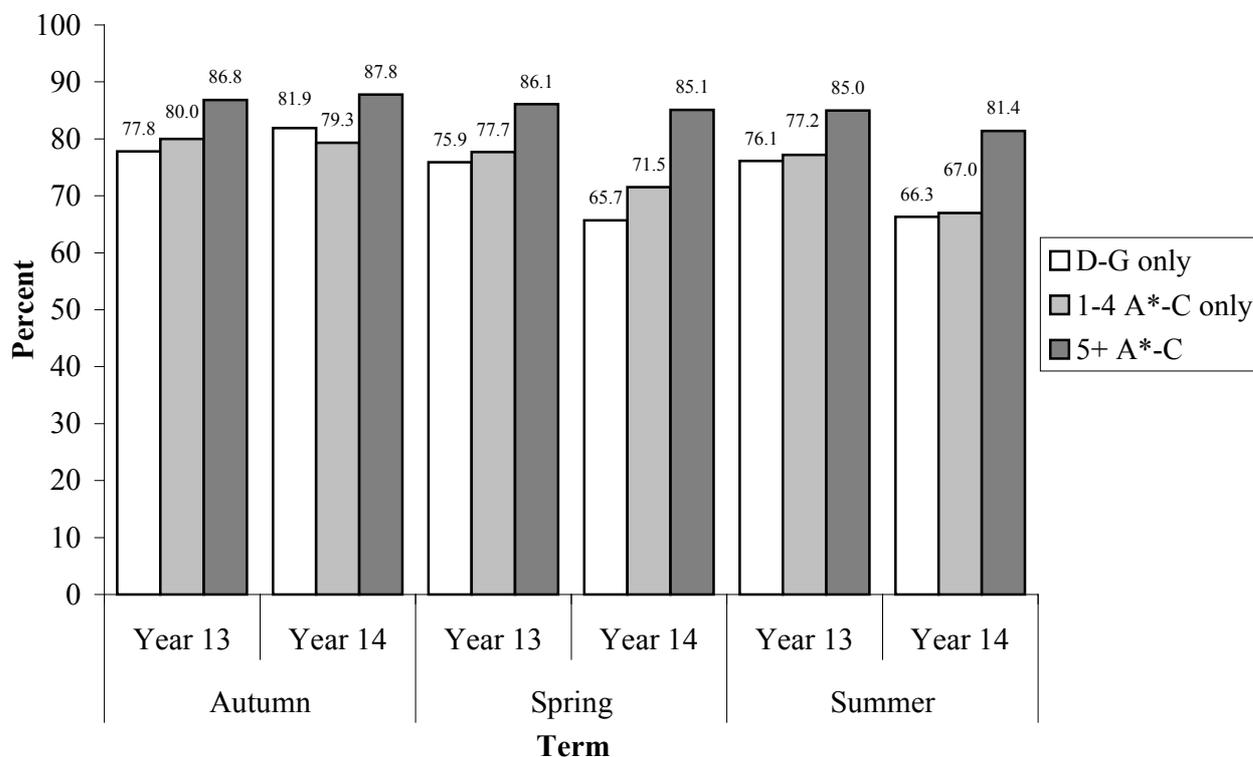
Similar proportions of young people in receipt of full and partial EMA weekly allowances received retention bonuses in both Years 12 and 13. For example, in Year 13 91.2 per cent of those receiving a partial award received a retention bonus and 89.3 per cent of those with a full EMA award. There was also no difference in the pattern of receipt between young men and young women.

Table 2.13 Receipt of Retention Bonuses in Years 12 and 13: Year 11 Achievement

Year 11 Achievement	Received at least one Retention Bonus in:	
	Year 12 %	Year 13 %
D-G only	86.2	90.6
1-4 A*-C only	84.2	86.9
5+ A*-C	93.0	93.6
Unweighted N	2950	1224

Overall, young people with more than five A*-C GCSE grades at Year 11, were more likely than young people in lower achievement groups to have received at least one retention bonus (Table 2.13).

Figure 2.11 Autumn, Summer and Spring Retention Bonuses in Years 12 and 13: Year 11 Achievement



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=2950) PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=1224). Bases vary because of item non-response.

When differences were explored across terms, it was evident that those with the highest level of Year 11 achievement also sustained a high level of bonus receipt throughout the academic year, whilst bonus receipt fell dramatically for other groups (Figure 2.11). During Year 13, for example, those with more than five A*-C GCSE grades experienced a 6 percentage point fall in retention bonuses between Autumn and Summer. However, those with D-G grades experienced a 16 percentage point decrease in receipt over the same period.

Table 2.14 Autumn, Spring and Summer Receipt of Retention Bonuses in Years 12 and 13: Parents' SEG

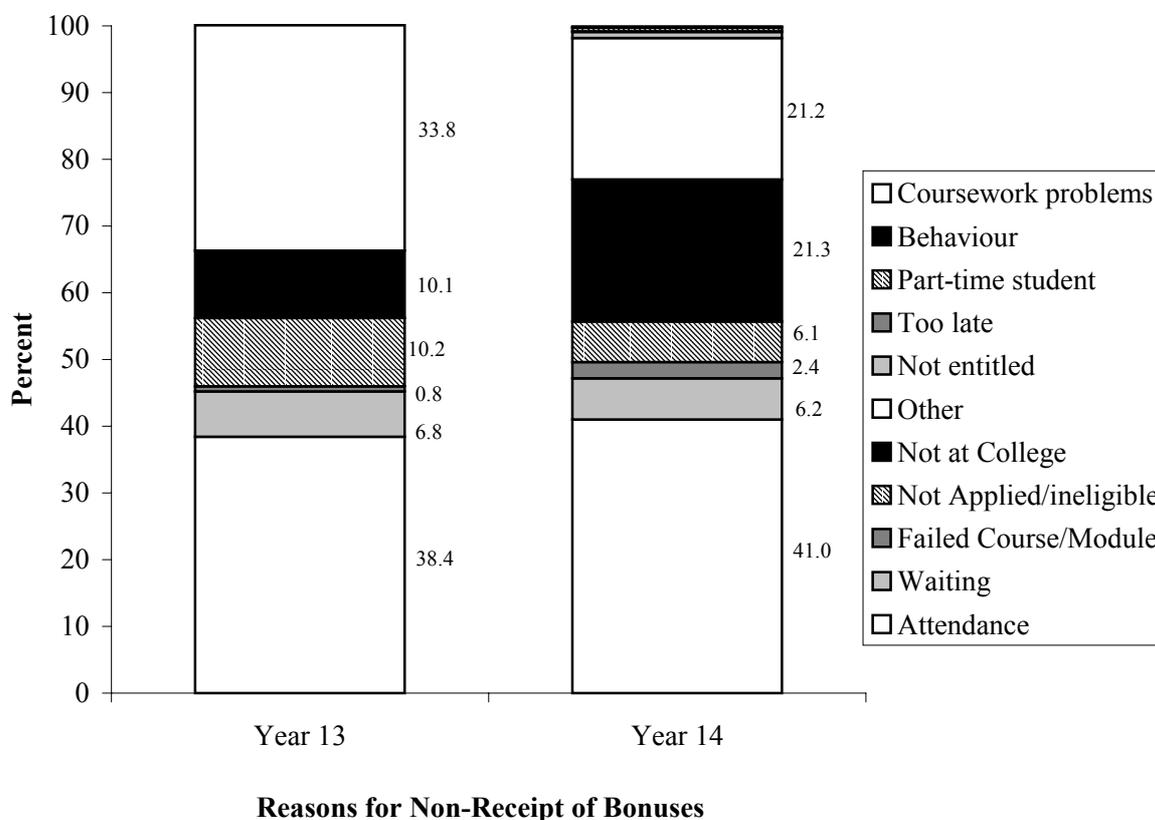
	Autumn		Spring		Summer	
	Year 12	Year 13	Year 12	Year 13	Year 12	Year 13
Professional & Managerial	82.9	86.1	82.3	82.8	82.2	80.2
Non-manual	82.3	83.0	84.5	75.9	82.8	75.5
Skilled manual	83.7	84.9	85.4	78.6	85.0	72.9
Semi/unskilled manual	83.2	85.5	81.4	82.6	78.6	69.9
No work	82.7	83.1	79.2	73.8	79.2	73.3

Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=3029) PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses (Unweighted N=1248).

Although there were no overall differences in the pattern of receipt of bonuses according to socio-economic group, there were variations across each term and between waves (Table 2.14). For example, between the Autumn and Summer terms of Year 13, receipt of the retention bonus fell by 16 percentage points among those whose parents' SEG was classified as semi- or unskilled manual. However, for young people from professional and managerial backgrounds retention bonus receipt fell by only 6 percentage points between Autumn and Spring terms. This is in contrast to the pattern of stoppages of weekly payments described earlier in this section where young people from professional and managerial backgrounds were most likely to have experienced stoppages (Figure 2.3). These findings suggest that young people from professional and managerial backgrounds experienced short-term interruptions to attendance but sustained a high level of attendance overall, so allowing them to qualify for retention bonuses throughout the academic year.

Reasons for Non-Receipt of Retention Bonuses

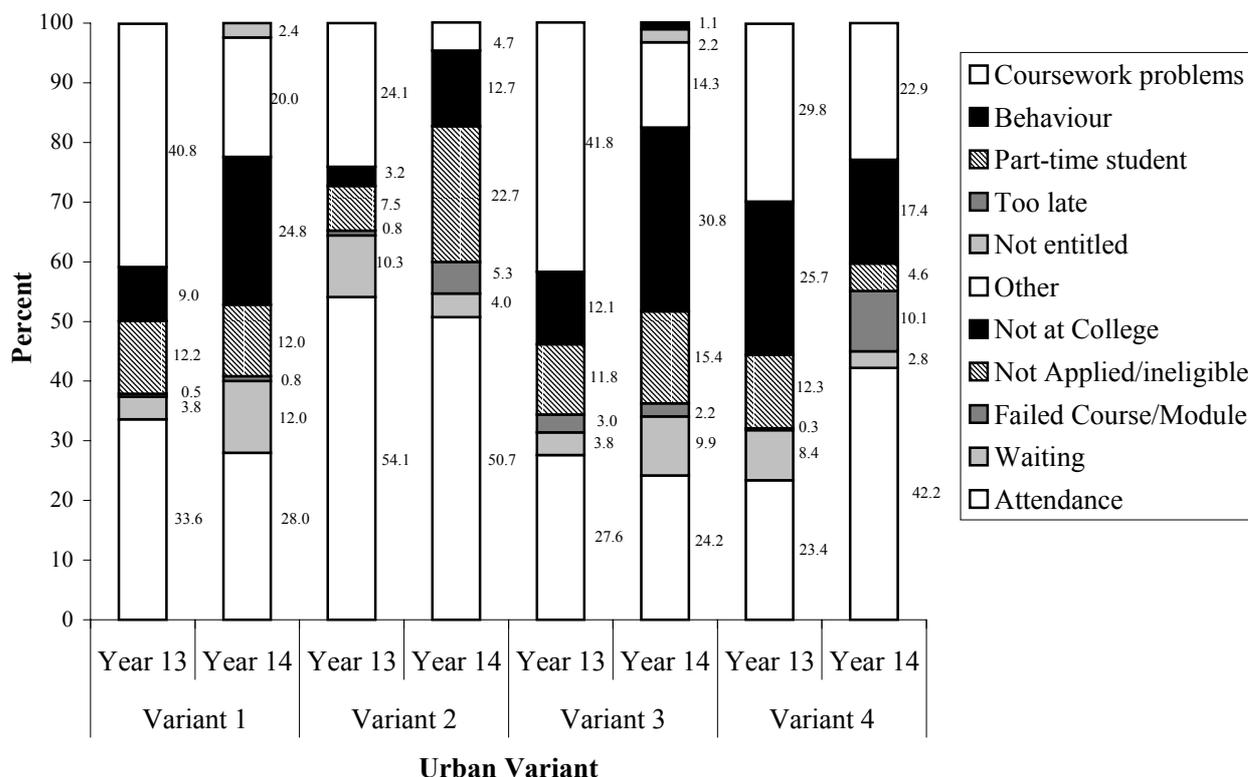
Figure 2.12 Reasons for Non-Receipt of Retention Bonuses



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses AND who did not receive a bonus AND gave a reason for their non-receipt (Unweighted N=1256)
 PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses AND who did not receive a bonus AND gave a reason for their non-receipt (Unweighted N=732).

The main reason given for non-receipt of bonuses was poor attendance (Figure 2.12). At Year 13, poor attendance represented 38.4 per cent of responses and at Year 14 41 per cent. This reason was also central to explanations of stoppages to the weekly allowance (Figure 3.4). Attendance related problems might also underlie the explanation for non-receipt of ‘not being at college in a given term’, which represented a substantial proportion of responses at Year 14 in particular (21.3 per cent). Earlier evidence from the evaluation suggested that local differences in attendance monitoring could influence retention bonus receipt (Maguire and Maguire, 2002).

Figure 2.13 Reasons for Non-Receipt of Retention Bonuses: Urban Variant



Base: Young people who were in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 and who were either in receipt at the start of Year 12 or received EMA between the start of Year 12 and the start of Year 13. Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 data combined AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses AND who did not receive a bonus AND gave a reason for their non-receipt (Unweighted N=1256)
 PLUS Young people at the start of Year 14 who were either in receipt of EMA at the start of Year 13 or received EMA between the start of Year 13 and the start of Year 14 AND who responded to questions about receipt of retention bonuses AND who did not receive a bonus AND gave a reason for their non-receipt (Unweighted N=732).

Attendance problems were especially apparent in urban Variant 2 at Year 13 (54.1 per cent) and Year 14 (50.7 per cent). In Variant 2, the highest weekly allowance of up to £40 per week is available and the termly retention bonus is £50. Consequently, the retention bonus may be providing a lower incentive in Variant 2. At Year 13, attendance problems were least prevalent in Variant 4. In this variant, the weekly allowance is up to £30 and the retention bonus is highest at £80. The incorporation of a higher retention bonus in contrast to the weekly allowance may have provided a stronger incentive than the Variant 2 model. At Year 14, poor attendance was least marked in Variant 3 (24 per cent). Therefore, Variant 3 may also provide an effective incentive to young people with its combination of a £30 weekly allowance and £50 retention bonus. However, again it needs to be borne in mind that this is the variant in which the weekly allowance is paid to parents, with young people receiving

only the bonuses. Earlier findings suggested that Variant 4 exerted the strongest influence on retention as it had the highest percentage increase in retention rates at Year 13 (Ashworth et al., 2002). This is reinforced by evidence included here, where Variant 4 emerges with the lowest proportion of reports relating to attendance problems.

Substantial proportions of young people attributed non-payment of bonuses to not being present at college in a given term (Figure 2.12). When explored by urban variants, it emerged that this reason was presented most frequently by Variant 3 respondents (30.8 per cent) and least often by Variant 2 respondents (12.7 per cent) at Year 14 (Figure 2.13).

A small proportion of young people across each urban variant reported that they were still waiting for retention bonuses to arrive, indicating possible administrative problems (Figure 2.13). This was particularly noticeable in Variant 2 at Year 13 (10.3 per cent) and Variant 1 at Year 14 (12 per cent). There were marked differences between variants and between Years, which implies that administrative systems were not applied with consistent levels of success. In earlier research, Variant 3 was identified as an area with acute administrative problems (Ashworth et al., 2002). This may account for ongoing difficulties with administrative issues as indicated by respondents.

No discernible differences emerged for non-receipt of retention bonus payments by those in receipt of partial or full EMA weekly awards.

At Years 12 and 13, larger proportions of young men attributed non-receipt of retention bonus payments to attendance compared to young women. This is the reverse of the earlier finding relating to stoppages of weekly payments, where more young women than young men attributed stoppages to attendance problems (Figure 2.7). For retention bonuses, a higher proportion of young women than young men attributed non-receipt of bonuses to non-attendance at college in a given term. However, these differences were not significant.

Regardless of Year 11 achievement, poor attendance was the most frequent reason for non-receipt of bonuses. No consistent patterns emerged according to Year 11 achievement between Years 13 and 14. For example, at Year 13, non-receipt of bonuses was most commonly attributed to poor attendance by respondents with one to four A*-C GCSE grades

obtained at Year 11 (40.4 per cent). At Year 14, the greatest proportion of young people to articulate this were those with D-G grades (53.4 per cent).

When reasons for non-receipt of bonuses were explored across socio-economic grouping, poor attendance was the main reason among each group, with no clear differences emerging.

3 PARTICIPATION AND RETENTION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUP AND YEAR 11 ACHIEVEMENT

SUMMARY

- EMA has increased participation particularly among young people in the lower socio-economic groups and has had almost no effect on those in the highest socio-economic groups. The impact has been particularly strong among young men from the lowest socio-economic group.
- EMA has reduced differences in levels of participation between those from the highest and lowest socio-economic groups, but the gap remains wide.
- The draw into education among young people from SEG 5 in the pilot areas in Years 12 and 13 was from those who would otherwise have either entered the NEET group or work without training.
- EMA also seems to be enhancing participation and retention in both post-16 and higher education among young people from SEG 4.
- EMA has also had its largest impact on young men and young women who were ‘middle’ or ‘low’ achievers at the end of Year 11, with no effect on high achievers.
- EMA has reduced differences in levels of participation between those with the highest and lowest levels of Year 11 achievement but, again, the gap remains wide.
- Descriptive analysis suggests that EMA had improved participation at Year 12 among young people with no qualifications, those with only D-G grade GCSE’s, and those with 1-4 GCSEs at grades A*-C. These increases in participation were sustained in Years 13 and 14 for all except those who had achieved no qualifications at the end of Year 11.

The previous chapter has shown that the impact of EMA on participation and retention in post-16 education has not been homogenous. Certain groups of young people appear to have benefited more than others, particularly urban young men. In this chapter variations in the impact of EMA are explored according to two characteristics known to be of importance in predicting whether or not young people will remain in education; their socio-economic background and their GCSE achievement at the end of compulsory education (Year 11).

Each section of this chapter begins by using PSM techniques to measure the impact of EMA on young people's destinations at the start of Years 12 and 13 and, specifically, at levels of participation in education in each year and retention in education between the two years. These analyses are based on data for young people who took part in both of the first two interviews. Data for young people who completed compulsory education in summer 1999 (cohort 1) and summer 2000 (cohort 2) have been combined to improve the precision of estimates. The second part of each of the first two sections seeks to extend and deepen the analysis by applying descriptive techniques to data from the first three interviews with the first cohort of young people only. In this way, young people's circumstances can be studied in greater depth at the start of Year 14, as well as Years 12 and 13. It should be noted that the results of this descriptive analysis do not provide robust estimates of an EMA 'effect'. Rather, it seeks to provide additional detail to underpin the PSM analysis of Years 12 and 13, and extends the analysis to provide indications of what may be occurring as a result of EMA at the start of Year 14²⁹.

3.1 EMA and Socio-Economic Group (SEG)

3.1.1 Measuring SEG

The method used for classifying the socio-economic group of young people's parents into five groups has been described in Chapter 2.7 and a summary Table is provided below (Table 3.1). For the PSM analysis, further aggregation into three groups was necessary because of sample size restrictions, so that data for SEGs 2 and 3, and SEGs 4 and 5 have been combined (see Table 3.2). The descriptive analysis is able to report findings on each of the five SEGs for young people in the first cohort at the start of Years 12, 13 **and** 14, because these techniques do not require such large sample sizes.

²⁹ See Chapter 1.2.5 For further discussion of the respective roles of PSM and descriptive techniques in the analysis.

Table 3.1 **SEG – Aggregated Classification**

Group 1	Professionals and Managers
Group 2	Other non-manual workers
Group 3	Skilled manual workers
Group 4	Semi- and unskilled workers
Group 5	Not in work

3.1.2 SEG and the impact of EMA in Years 12 and 13

The PSM analysis shows that the impact of EMA on the top socio-economic group has been almost non-existent, with all of the impact concentrated on the middle and lowest socio-economic groups (Table 3.2). Amongst Groups 2 and 3, EMA increased the proportion in education in both Years 12 and Year 13 by 6.4 percentage points, and the increase for Groups 4 and 5 was even larger at 9.1 percentage points. For Groups 2 and 3 it seems that EMA had the effect of significantly reducing the numbers of young people who would otherwise have spent just one year in post-16 education before moving to some other activity (-2.8 percentage points), and reducing the proportions who would otherwise have been doing something other than education in both years (-3,1 percentage points). For Groups 4 and 5, by contrast, the impact seems to have been almost entirely on young people who would have not participated at all in post-16 education (-7.4 percentage points). For Groups 2 and 3, EMA also impacted positively and significantly on retention, which means that the impact of EMA on education participation was even greater in Year 13 than in Year 12. The retention rate for Groups 4 and 5 was also positive, but not significant.

Among young men the impact of EMA had been similar for both the middle (Groups 2 and 3) and the lower (Groups 4 and 5) socio-economic groups, although the retention effect was much larger for the middle group (Table 3.3). Again, for Groups 2 and 3, EMA seems to have drawn young men from among both those who would otherwise have spend only one year in post-16 education (-4.6 percentage points), and those who would not have participated at all (-4.7 percentage points). For Group 5 young men the draw was almost solely from those who would have otherwise finished education at the end of Year 11 (-8.2 percentage points).

The results for young women again suggest that the effects of EMA on women's participation in education have not been as dramatic as for men (Table 3.4). Indeed, for young women significant effects were only found on the lowest socio-economic groups where EMA increased the proportion staying in education in both Years 12 and 13 by 7.8 percentage points. This increase, as for young men, was mainly from among young women who would otherwise have left education at the end of Year 11 (-6.7 percentage points). Although EMA also increased retention among young women in socio-economic Groups 4 and 5 by 4.5 percentage points, from 74.4 per cent to 78.9 per cent, this difference was not significant.

Table 3.2 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13.
Per cent

	Pilot	Control	Increase
Group 1			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	73.5	73.6	-0.1 (3.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	11.0	10.2	0.8 (2.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.3	1.1	0.2 (0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.1	15.0	-0.9 (3.0)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	87.1	87.8	-0.7 (2.5)
Sample size		1051	
Groups 2 and 3			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	64.7	58.3	6.4 (1.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.2	16.9	-2.8 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.1	2.7	-0.6 (0.5)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.0	22.0	-3.1 (1.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	82.0	77.1	4.8 (1.4)
Sample size		3103	
Groups 4 and 5			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	55.9	46.8	9.1 (2.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.8	15.9	-1.1 (1.7)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.8	3.3	-0.5 (0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	26.4	33.9	-7.4 (2.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	79.1	74.6	4.5 (2.4)
Sample size		2564	
All groups			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	61.4	54.5	6.9 (1.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.1	15.6	-1.5 (0.9)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.4	2.8	-0.5 (0.4)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.1	27.1	-5.0 (1.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.7	77.8	3.8 (1.2)
Sample size		6718	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals. Base: All EMA eligible young people who were re-interviewed in Year 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. Pilot weights.

**Table 3.3 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13:
Young Men**

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
Group 1			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	71.6	69.7	1.9 (4.8)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	8.9	11.7	-2.8 (3.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.4	1.6	-0.2 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	18.1	17.0	1.1 (4.3)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	88.9	85.6	3.3 (3.8)
Sample size		540	
Groups 2 and 3			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	60.3	50.6	9.6 (2.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.5	19.1	-4.6 (2.1)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.5	2.8	-0.3 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.8	27.5	-4.7 (2.3)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	80.6	72.6	8.0 (2.8)
Sample size		1552	
Groups 4 and 5			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	54.7	44.3	10.4 (3.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.3	14.8	-0.5 (2.5)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.4	4.1	-1.7 (1.2)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	28.6	36.8	-8.2 (3.3)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	79.3	74.9	4.4 (3.6)
Sample size		1225	
All groups			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	59.0	50.0	9.0 (1.9)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.7	16.0	-2.4 (1.4)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.3	3.3	-1.0 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	25.1	30.7	-5.7 (1.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.5	75.6	5.9 (2.0)
Sample size		3317	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals.

Base: EMA eligible young men who were re-interviewed in Year 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. Pilot weights.

**Table 3.4 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13:
Young Women**

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
Group 1			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	75.6	77.7	-2.2 (4.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.2	8.7	4.5 (3.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.3	0.6	0.7 (0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	10.0	13.0	-3.0 (4.3)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	85.1	90.0	-4.8 (3.4)
Sample size		551	
Groups 2 and 3			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	69.2	65.9	3.3 (2.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	13.9	14.8	-0.9 (1.9)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.8	2.7	-0.8 (0.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	15.1	16.6	-1.5 (2.0)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	83.2	81.6	1.7 (2.7)
Sample size		1551	
Groups 4 and 5			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	57.1	49.3	7.8 (2.9)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	15.3	17.0	-1.7 (2.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	3.2	2.6	0.6 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	24.4	31.1	-6.7 (2.7)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	78.9	74.4	4.5 (3.2)
Sample size		1339	
All groups			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	63.9	59.0	4.9 (1.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.5	15.2	-0.7 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.5	2.4	0.1 (0.5)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.2	23.5	-4.3 (1.5)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.8	80.0	1.8 (1.8)
Sample size		3401	

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals.

Base: EMA eligible young women who were re-interviewed in Year 13. Cohorts 1 and 2 combined. Pilot weights.

These results show that EMA has not impacted evenly across socio-economic groups and has had its largest impact on young people from the lowest socio-economic backgrounds. Encouragingly, these young people have had low education participation rates historically and are the group of young people at whom EMA was aimed. In the lowest socio-economic group (Groups 4 and 5), only 46.8 per cent of eligible young people in the control areas remained in full-time education in Years 12 and 13, compared with 73.6 per cent of young people in the highest group (Group 1). The corresponding figures in the pilot areas were 55.9 per cent and 73.5 per cent. Hence, it seems that EMA has played an important role in reducing the large participation gap between those in the highest and lowest socio-economic groups. Nevertheless, the gap remains wide.

3.1.3 SEG and EMA in Years 12, 13 and 14: Descriptive analysis

This section extends the analysis of SEG by using descriptive techniques to focus on the post-16 destinations of the first cohort of EMA eligible at the start of Years 12, 13 **and** 14 in each of the five SEGs described in Section 3.1. Comparisons are, therefore, between eligible young people in pilot and control areas and the reader is reminded that any observed differences cannot be definitively attributed to the impact of EMA but are indicative.

Table 3.5 compares the destinations of EMA eligible young people from Cohort 1 in each SEG across pilot and control areas at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. ‘Work’ destinations have also been further disaggregated into ‘Work Based Training’ which includes all government supported training provided under Modern apprenticeships, ‘Work with In House Training’ provided by the employer only, therefore excluding participants in government supported training, and ‘Work with No Training’.

The first point to note is that, despite the different sample bases and analytic techniques used, the pattern of findings in Table 3.5 for participation in education at the start of Years 12 and 13 is similar to those reported in the previous section: there are only small differences between the proportions of young people in education in the pilot and control areas in SEG 1, and the largest gain seems to have been among young people in SEG 5, at least at the start of Year 12 when 10.2 percentage points more young people were in full-time education in the pilot than in the control areas.

At the start of Year 12, in control areas more young people from SEG 5 had entered both the NEET group (5.3 percentage points difference between pilot and control areas) and work without training group (4.1 percentage points difference between pilot and control areas). The availability of EMA to young people in pilot areas is likely to be an important factor in explaining this difference between participation rates in post-16 education, since young people from households where no adults are in work are likely to attract the maximum weekly entitlement to EMA.

Table 3.5 SEG and Post-16 Destinations: Descriptive Analysis

	Prof and Mgt SEG 1			Non-Manual SEG2			Skilled manual SEG3			Semi & unskilled SEG 4			No work SEG 5		
	Pilot	Contr ol	Differenc e %	Pilot	Contr ol	Differenc e %	Pilot	Contr ol	Difference %	Pilot	Contr ol	Differenc e %	Pilot	Contr ol	Differenc e %
Year 12															
FTE	82.7	82.8	-0.2	85.1	76.5	8.7	67.6	69.7	-2.1	70.3	66.0	4.2	63.7	53.5	10.2
WBT	4.9	3.8	1.1	6.2	6.4	-0.2	11.0	9.4	1.6	6.8	10.0	-3.1	6.0	6.5	-0.6
Work: in house trn	2.7	3.2	-0.5	2.2	3.9	-1.7	2.9	4.4	-1.6	3.3	1.5	1.8	2.0	2.2	-0.2
Work: no trn	4.0	5.5	-1.5	3.3	5.7	-2.4	7.5	10.4	-2.9	10.4	13.6	-3.2	7.1	11.2	-4.1
NEET	5.8	4.6	1.1	3.2	7.6	-4.4	11.0	6.1	4.9	9.3	8.9	0.3	21.3	26.6	-5.3
Year 13															
FTE	75.2	77.6	-2.4	73.7	64.4	9.3	58.5	60.6	-2.2	60.0	52.2	7.8	52.9	45.8	7.0
WBT	6.3	5.0	1.3	6.9	6.6	0.3	8.7	9.4	-0.8	6.8	9.7	-2.9	6.5	6.0	0.5
Work: in house trn	4.4	2.7	1.7	3.7	6.7	-2.9	4.7	7.8	-3.1	4.9	6.9	-2.0	5.9	3.6	2.3
Work: no trn	9.5	10.5	-1.1	11.2	13.9	-2.8	20.1	16.6	3.5	15.8	21.0	-5.2	13.3	18.1	-4.8
NEET	4.6	4.2	0.4	4.5	8.4	-3.9	8.1	5.6	2.5	12.4	10.2	2.3	21.4	26.5	-5.1
Year 14															
FTE	52.2	49.8	2.4	45.9	40.6	5.3	35.6	32.2	3.3	39.9	28.9	11.0	33.7	36.1	-2.3
WBT	6.0	5.3	0.8	6.0	7.4	-1.5	6.2	6.4	-0.2	5.3	8.1	-2.8	5.7	4.3	1.4
Work: in house trn	18.1	19.6	-1.5	20.3	21.6	-1.3	19.9	26.7	-6.8	20.2	15.4	4.8	12.4	17.4	-5.0
Work: no trn	15.0	16.2	-1.2	19.6	19.1	0.5	21.1	22.6	-1.5	20.8	29.7	-8.9	19.0	17.7	1.4
NEET	8.6	9.1	-0.5	8.2	11.3	-3.0	17.3	12.1	5.2	13.8	17.9	-4.1	29.1	24.6	4.5

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 4. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Interestingly, at the start of Year 12, there were also significantly more young people from SEG 2 (non-manual households) entering post-16 education in pilot areas: an 8.7 percentage point difference in post-16 education participation rates among this group between the pilot and control areas. These differences were sustained at both Year 13 (9.3 percentage point difference) and Year 14 (5.3 percentage point difference), although the difference becomes insignificant at Year 14 because of the small sample size³⁰.

At Year 13, the difference between pilot and control areas, in terms of post-16 education participation among young people from SEG 5 remained (7 percentage points) but at a lower level than at Year 12 (10.2 percentage points)³¹. The availability of EMA appears to have increased retention in education from young people in this group by 7.8 percentage points. In contrast, in the control areas, larger proportions of young people were found in the NEET group (5.1 percentage point difference) and in work without training (4.8 percentage point difference), with both of these differences showing statistical significance.

However, it would appear that the availability of EMA over a two-year period may be constraining longer term participation and retention in education among young people from SEG 5. At the start of Year 14, when most young people would have completed their two-year entitlement to EMA, there was little difference in educational participation rates among young people in SEG 5 between pilot and control groups (33.7 per cent and 36.1 per cent, respectively), while the proportion in the NEET group began to grow. In the pilot group, 29.1 per cent were in the NEET group, compared to 24.6 per cent in the control group. There could be two explanations for this trend. First, young people may have effectively been 'warehoused' in full-time education for two years, without enhancing their employability or qualification base. Second, (and probably most likely), the Year 14 survey was conducted relatively soon after young people completed their courses, and this may have given insufficient time for many young people to have made their transition from post-16 education. Further light will be shed on both explanations when data from interviews at the start of Year 15 are available. However, it is notable that 17.4 per cent of young people in the control group were in work with in-house training at Year 14, which was a significantly greater proportion than their counterparts in the pilot group (12.4 per cent).

³⁰ Further analysis which will combine Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 will be undertaken in 2003/2004.

³¹ The focus for measurement within post-16 education shifts to retention rather than participation rates, since there was very limited entry to post-16 education at Year 13.

While the difference in education participation among young people in post-16 education from SEG 5 fell between pilot and control areas across successive years, the reverse happened among young people from SEG 4 (semi-and unskilled households). At Year 12 there was a non-significant 4.2 percentage point difference between the pilot (70.3 per cent) and the control (66 per cent) areas among young people from this group. This rose to a (non-significant) 7.8 percentage point difference at Year 13 and to a significant 11 percentage point difference at Year 14. It should also be noted that around four in ten young people from SEG 4 (37.4 per cent in the pilot group and 41.1 per cent in the control group) had entered higher education (see Chapter 8). This suggests that EMA is enhancing participation among young people in SEG 4 in both post-16 and higher education.

In the control areas, a significantly larger proportion of young people in SEG 4 were entering work without training. The lower proportion in the NEET group, and to a lesser extent work-based training, was not significant, so it would appear that at Year 13 EMA might have diverted some young people away from work without training by retaining them in full-time education.

Among young people from SEG 3 (skilled manual), at Years 12 and 13 the availability of EMA in the pilot areas appears to have had little impact on post-16 education participation rates. By Year 14, a non-significant 3.3 percentage point difference existed between pilot and control areas in the proportion of young people in full-time education. However, while the existence of EMA does not appear to have increased post-16 education participation rates among young people from SEG 3, this trend was reversed among young people from SEG 2. At Year 12, there was an 8.7 percentage point difference between the pilot (85.1 per cent) and the control areas (76.5 per cent) among young people from this group, which was significant. At Year 13 this rose to a 9.3 percentage point difference which was significant, before falling to a 5.3 percentage point difference³² in post-16 education participation rates between pilot and control areas at Year 14. In SEG 2, at Years 12 and 13, larger proportions of young people in the control areas were in the work no training and NEET groups. At Year 14, the difference between pilot and control areas was largely concentrated on the size of the NEET group. In pilot areas, 8.2 per cent of young people were in the NEET group compared with 11.3 per cent in the control areas.

³² This percentage point difference almost reached significance $p=0.064$)

Finally, as in the previous section, the destinations of young people in SEG 1 are seen to have been largely unaffected by the availability of EMA, which is unsurprising given the income eligibility criteria attached to the receipt of the allowance. However, the statistics on the destinations of young people in SEG 1 again serve to demonstrate the stark differences which continue to exist in post-16 education participation rates between young people from different socio-economic groups. For example, at Year 12 82.7 per cent of young people in pilot areas from SEG 1 were in post-16 education compared with 63.7 per cent of young people from SEG 5. By Year 14, approximately one-half (52.2 per cent) of young people from SEG 1 households were in full-time education in pilot areas, compared with approximately one-third (33.7 per cent) of young people from SEG 5 households.

3.2 EMA and Year 11 Achievement

Previous research has shown that Year 11 achievement directly impacts upon a young person's likelihood of remaining in full-time education (Payne, 1998). This section explores the relationships between EMA eligibility, Year 11 achievement and participation and retention in post-16 education.

3.2.1 Measuring Year 11 achievement

The approach used for measuring achievement throughout this report is described in Chapter 2.6. The descriptive analysis later in this section uses the classification shown in that section to measure young people's achievements in GCSEs or their vocational equivalent at the end of Year 11 to report on destinations of the first cohort of EMA eligible young people in Years 12, 13 and 14. However, because of small sample sizes, for the PSM analysis it was necessary to further aggregate achievement into three groups; high, middle and low achievers. The way in which these groups have been amalgamated is shown in Table 3.6, along with the 'levels' of achievement that each group represents. The reader is reminded that the PSM analysis combines data for young people in cohorts 1 and 2 from interviews at Year 12 and 13 only³³.

³³ For a small number of individuals complete information on these GCSE results was not available and these individuals have been excluded from the analysis.

Table 3.6 PSM Classification of Year 11 Achievement

PSM Achievement Group	GCSE or Vocational Equivalent
Low	No qualifications or GCSEs Grades D – G (Level 1)
Middle	1 – 4 GCSEs Grades A* - C (Level 2)
High	5 or more GCSEs Grades A* - C (Level 2)

3.2.2 Year 11 achievement and the impact of EMA in Years 12 and 13

EMA had the largest impact on education participation and retention among middle and low achievers (Table 3.7). Among the middle achievers, EMA increased the proportion staying in full-time education in Years 12 and 13 by 10.9 percentage points (from 49.2 per cent to 60.1 per cent). Among lower achievers it was increased by 8.8 percentage points from 26.9 per cent to 35.7 per cent. EMA also significantly widened the education participation gap between Years 12 and 13, increasing retention by 10.0 percentage points among the middle achievers and 7.6 percentage points for the lowest achievers. Tables 3.8 and 3.9 show that the impact of EMA among both middle and low achievers was similar for both young men and women.

The impact of EMA among the highest GCSE achievers was, essentially, zero. Thus, as with gender, urban and rural location, and SEG, it seems that EMA has played an important role in reducing the full-time education participation gap between the highest and lower groups.

Table 3.7 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
High Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	85.8	83.1	2.7 (1.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	6.3	7.3	-1.0 (0.9)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.5	1.3	0.2 (0.4)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	6.3	8.3	-2.0 (1.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	93.1	91.9	1.2 (1.1)
Sample size	2,838		
Middle Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	60.1	49.2	10.9 (2.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	16.8	23.1	-6.3 (2.2)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.6	2.4	0.3 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	20.4	25.3	-4.9 (2.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	78.1	68.1	10.0 (2.8)
Sample size	2,168		
Low Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	35.7	26.9	8.8 (2.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	20.9	21.5	-0.6 (2.5)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.3	3.8	-1.5 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	41.0	47.8	-6.7 (3.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	63.1	55.4	7.6 (4.1)
Sample size	1,692		
All			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	60.7	53.2	7.4 (1.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.6	17.2	-2.6 (1.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.2	2.5	-0.3 (0.5)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.5	27.1	-4.5 (1.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	80.7	75.0	5.7 (1.4)
Sample size	6,698		

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals.

Base: All EMA Eligible Young People who were interviewed in both Years 12 and 13. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

Table 3.8 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13: Young Men

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
High Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	85.7	81.0	4.7 (2.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	5.1	7.2	-2.1 (1.4)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	1.0	1.0 (0.6)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	7.2	10.8	-3.6 (1.8)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	94.4	91.9	2.5 (1.6)
Sample size	1,297		
Middle Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	59.5	47.9	11.7 (3.6)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	16.5	21.6	-5.2 (3.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.3	2.8	-0.5 (1.2)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	21.7	27.7	-6.0 (3.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	78.3	68.9	9.4 (4.0)
Sample size	1,026		
Low Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	34.1	25.5	8.6 (3.3)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.8	22.8	-2.9 (3.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.8	4.4	-2.6 (1.8)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	44.3	47.3	-3.0 (4.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	63.2	52.8	10.4 (5.3)
Sample size	967		
All			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	58.4	50.2	8.2 (1.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	14.1	17.4	-3.3 (1.5)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.0	2.8	-0.8 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	25.5	29.6	-4.1 (1.7)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	80.2	73.2	7.0 (2.1)
Sample size	3,290		

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals.

Base: EMA Eligible Young Men who were interviewed in both Years 12 and 13. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

Table 3.9 Impact of EMA on Participation and Retention in Years 12 and 13: Young Women

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
High Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	85.9	84.9	1.0 (1.8)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	7.5	7.5	-0.0 (1.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	1.0	1.6	-0.5 (0.6)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	5.6	6.0	-0.5 (1.4)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	92.0	92.0	0.0 (1.4)
Sample size	1,541		
Middle Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	60.5	50.2	10.3 (3.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	17.1	24.3	-7.2 (3.1)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	3.0	2.0	1.0 (0.9)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.3	23.4	-4.0 (3.1)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	78.0	67.4	10.6 (3.9)
Sample size	1,142		
Low Achievers			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	37.8	28.6	9.1 (4.1)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	22.2	20.0	2.3 (3.8)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	3.0	3.1	-0.1 (1.9)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	37.0	48.3	-11.3 (4.4)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	62.9	58.9	4.0 (6.4)
Sample size	725		
All			
Education Y12 → Education Y13	62.9	56.2	6.6 (1.7)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13	15.2	17.0	-1.8 (1.4)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13	2.3	2.2	0.1 (0.6)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13	19.6	24.5	-4.9 (1.5)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12)	81.1	76.7	4.4 (1.9)
Sample size	3,408		

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at conventional levels on the basis of bias corrected confidence intervals.

Base: EMA Eligible Young Women who were interviewed in both Years 12 and 13. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

3.2.3 Year 11 achievement and EMA in Years 12, 13 and 14: Descriptive analysis

Table 3.10 shows a descriptive analysis of young people's destinations at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14 broken down into the four achievement groups described in Chapter 2.6. As with the analysis for SEG, the pattern of association between Year 11 achievement and young people's destinations is similar to that produced by the PSM analysis; EMA seems to have increased participation among the lower achieving groups at Years 12 and 13 and had little effect on the highest Year 11 achievers, that is, those young people who had achieved five or more A*-C GCSE passes in Year 11.

However, the variations in participation among young people with differing levels of Year 11 achievement, shown both in the previous section and in Table 3.10, irrespective of whether they were in pilot or control areas, should also be noted. Across all three years, for the first cohort of young people, the highest achievers among the EMA eligible population were more likely to enter and remain in post-16 education, in comparison to their counterparts who had lower levels of Year 11 academic achievement. Conversely, those young people who had achieved no or few qualifications at Year 11, were the least likely to opt for, and be retained in, post-16 education.

Table 3.10 Destinations at Waves 1,2 and 3: Year 11 Qualification Achievement

	No Qualifications			Level 1 D-G GCSEs			Level 2 1-4 GCSEs			Level 2 5+A*-C GCSEs		
	Pilot	Control	Difference %	Pilot	Control	Difference %	Pilot	Control	Difference %	Pilot	Control	Difference %
Year 12												
FTE	32.7	24.9	7.8	59.5	49.9	9.6	75.3	66.0	9.2	90.1	89.0	1.1
WBT	6.9	1.2	5.8	9.0	9.2	-0.2	8.2	10.2	-2.1	3.2	3.7	-0.5
Work: in house trn	1.2	2.3	-1.1	4.2	5.0	-0.8	2.7	3.8	-1.1	1.2	1.2	0.0
Work: no trn	10.9	16.4	-5.5	9.3	15.3	-5.9	6.8	9.5	-2.7	2.9	3.1	-0.2
NEET	48.3	55.3	-7.0	17.9	20.7	-2.8	7.1	10.4	-3.3	2.6	3.1	-0.4
Year 13												
FTE	23.0	23.4	-0.4	39.1	32.6	6.5	64.9	52.8	12.0	86.5	85.7	0.8
WBT	2.7	4.0	-1.4	9.6	9.5	0.1	9.4	10.2	-0.8	3.3	3.4	-0.2
Work: in house trn	3.0	4.3	-1.3	9.5	7.7	1.9	5.0	6.7	-1.7	1.9	2.8	-0.9
Work: no trn	19.9	16.6	3.3	21.6	26.9	-5.2	13.4	20.2	-6.8	6.0	5.5	0.5
NEET	51.4	51.7	-0.2	20.1	23.4	-3.2	7.4	10.1	-2.7	2.4	2.6	-0.2
Year 14												
FTE	14.6	19.7	-5.1	23.1	22.3	0.8	38.9	33.0	5.9	59.8	54.7	5.1
WBT	1.9	1.8	0.2	6.2	5.1	1.1	8.1	10.2	-2.1	4.0	3.7	0.3
Work: in house trn	11.4	15.0	-3.7	19.1	20.7	-1.6	21.1	21.7	-0.6	13.9	19.0	-5.1
Work: no trn	18.6	16.3	2.3	24.0	26.2	-2.3	19.8	21.0	-1.2	15.6	16.6	-1.1
NEET	53.5	47.1	6.4	27.7	25.7	2.0	12.2	14.1	-1.9	6.7	5.9	0.8

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Nevertheless, and in line with the PSM analysis, important pilot/control differences emerged at Years 12, 13 and 14 in relation to young peoples' participation and retention in education and their entry into other post-16 destinations. At Year 12, while there was very little difference in post-16 education participation rates between eligible young people in pilot and control areas who had achieved five or more A*-C GCSE passes in Year 11, within all other achievement levels greater numbers of young people in the pilot areas chose to remain in education. That is, post-16 education participation rates were much higher among eligible young people in the pilot areas who had achieved 1-4 GCSE A*-C passes, GCSE grades D-G passes or no qualifications in Year 11. The existence of EMA seems to have encouraged a greater proportion of eligible young people (apart from the highest achievers) in the pilot areas to stay on at school, as opposed to leaving education at 16 to enter work with no training or the NEET group.

At Year 12, among young people who had obtained 1-4 GCSE A*-C passes, 75.3 per cent of eligible young people in pilot areas remained in education, compared to 66 per cent of eligible young people in control areas. By contrast, in the control areas larger proportions of young people at this level of Year 11 achievement had entered the NEET group (10.4 per cent of young people in the control areas and 7.1 per cent of young people in the pilot areas which is a statistically significant difference). The proportions of young people drawn into post-16 education from the other destinations were not significantly different (9.5 per cent of young people in the control areas entered work with no training compared to 6.8 per cent of young people in the pilot areas).

At Year 12, the largest percentage point difference in post-16 education participation rates occurred among young people who had achieved GCSE grades D-G passes in Year 11. There was a 9.6 percentage point difference between the pilot and the control areas in relation to the proportion of eligible young people in post-16 education. Among young people with GCSE grades D-G passes at Year 11, a greater proportion in the control areas had entered work with no training (15.3 per cent in the control areas compared to 9.3 per cent in the pilot areas). Differences in other destinations were non-significant, but there was some indication that some young people from this achievement level in pilot areas had remained in education rather than enter the NEET group (20.7 per cent in the control areas compared to 17.9 per cent in the pilot areas).

Finally at Year 12, participation rates in post-16 education were also higher in the pilot areas among eligible young people who had obtained no qualifications in Year 11. For eligible young people in this group, there was a 7.8 percentage point difference between the pilot and control areas in post-16 education participation rates. In contrast, larger numbers of young people in this category in the control areas had entered the NEET group and work with no training. However, it should be noted that young people in the no qualifications group represented a very small proportion of the post-16 education population (between seven and eight per cent) and, as a consequence, the sample sizes were too small to determine statistical significances.

In any event, by Year 13 differences between pilot and control areas in relation to the proportions of eligible young people who had obtained no qualifications at the end of Year 11 but who had remained in education had disappeared. In the pilot areas, 23 per cent of young people with no Year 11 qualifications were in full-time education, compared to 23.4 per cent in the control areas.

Among eligible young people who had obtained 1-4 A*-C GCSE passes or GCSE grades D-G passes in Year 11, significantly more young people in the pilot areas were in full-time education at Year 13 than in the control areas. For those with 1-4 A*-C GCSE Year 11 attainment there was a 12 percentage point difference between the pilot and the control areas, this having increased from a 9.2 percentage point difference at Year 12. For those who had achieved GCSE grades D-G passes in Year 11 there was a 6.5 percentage point difference, although this was lower than the 9.6 percentage point difference between pilot and control areas at Year 12. While the difference between pilot and control areas at Year 13 is not quite statistically significant, the result is suggestive of an EMA effect. By contrast, more young people in the control areas from both of these achievement groups were found in work without training and in the NEET group.

Eligible young people in pilot areas with 1-4 A*-C GCSE achievement levels at Year 11 managed to sustain higher rates of participation in post-16 education in Years 12, 13 and 14. At Year 14, there was a 5.9 percentage point difference in participation rates for this group between pilot and the control areas. The higher rate of participation in post-16 education among young people in the pilot areas who had obtained GCSE grades D-G passes in Year 11 that had been observed at Year 13, was no longer apparent at Year 14. In fact, differences in

destinations between pilot and control areas in relation to this group were not significant by Year 14.

Among the highest achievers at Year 11, that is those young people who had achieved five or more A*-C GSCE passes in Year 11, a significant difference emerged between the pilot and the control areas in relation to participation and retention rates in post-16 education for the first time at Year 14. In the pilot areas, 59.8 per cent of young people in this group were in full-time education (including higher education) at Year 14, compared to 54.7 per cent in the control areas. In addition, there were fewer young people in work with training in the pilot areas (13.9 per cent) compared to the control areas (19 per cent). The existence of financial support packages such as EMA that encourage young people to remain in education, may be deferring entry into the labour market for some high achievers and motivating larger numbers of young people to enter higher education (see Chapters 5 and 6).

4 COURSES CHOSEN IN POST-16 EDUCATION AND ACHIEVEMENT DURING YEAR 12

SUMMARY

- Amongst EMA eligible young people in post-16 education, those in the pilot areas tended to be less well qualified at Year 11 than those in the control areas. This may be attributed to EMA encouraging young people with low Year 11 attainment to remain in full-time education.
- Eligible students in the pilot group were less likely to have started an AS or A level course at Year 12, and more likely to have begun a Level 1 NVQ or a Foundation GNVQ, than those in the control group.
- Across cohorts, a decreasing number of eligible young people in full-time education embarked upon a new GCSE course while an increasing number began an AS or A Level course.
- Eligible students in the pilot group were less likely to have started a solely academic course, and more likely to have started a solely vocational course, than their counterparts in the control group.
- Across cohorts, there was an increase in the proportion of eligible young people who started a mixed academic-vocational course at Year 12.
- Compared with eligible students in the first cohort, many more of those in the second cohort completed a Level 3 course at Year 12 as a result of the introduction of Curriculum 2000.
- Amongst Year 11 high achievers (who had attained five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQs), those in the pilot group were less likely to have completed a Level 3 course at Year 12 than those in the control group.
- Controlling for Year 11 attainment, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have started a solely vocational Level 3 course than their counterparts in the control group.

4.1 Introduction

Previous chapters have shown that EMA significantly increased participation in post-16 education, particularly among those young people who had previously been least likely to remain in education, that is, urban young men, those from lower socio-economic backgrounds and those with lower levels of achievement at the end of compulsory education. These chapters have also shown the extent to which disadvantage is, in turn, associated with lower Year 11 achievement.

There is also known to be a clear and strong association between Year 11 achievement and subsequent educational trajectories and achievement. Payne's (2001) research into young people in post-16 full-time education revealed that those studying A or AS levels were highly likely to have been high achievers at Year 11, while those taking vocational courses were disproportionately likely to have performed less well at the end of Year 11. If EMA encourages young people with limited Year 11 achievement to remain in education, this is likely to be reflected in the types of courses taken and the qualifications subsequently achieved.

Therefore, this chapter begins by describing the levels of achievement of young people who remained in education, rather than of all EMA eligible young people as in the previous chapter. This is necessary because the increased proportion of eligible young people from deprived backgrounds remaining in full-time education at the end of compulsory schooling will effect the educational profiles of EMA eligible Year 12 students, in such a way that young people in the pilot areas are likely to have lower overall levels of Year 11 qualifications than those in the control group.

The types of courses chosen at Year 12 (whether academic, vocational or a mix of the two) and the level of study are then examined, and factors associated with completing a course of study by the end of Year 12 are outlined³⁴. The analysis focuses on the second cohort of EMA eligible young people who entered post-16 full-time education in the autumn of 2000. This cohort of young people was the first to have had the opportunity to study for AS level qualifications as the first stage of a two stage A2 examination³⁵, introduced under Curriculum 2000. In the light of this, the courses chosen, and their outcomes, are compared with those of the first EMA eligible cohort who began post-16 education twelve months earlier.

4.1.1 Methodological issues

The analysis is descriptive, using simple, weighted comparisons between young people in the pilot and control areas³⁶. Therefore, as in previous chapters, observed differences between

³⁴ Achievement following two years in post-16 education is the subject of Chapter 5.

³⁵ As was the situation before Curriculum 2000 was introduced, students were also able to study AS level qualifications in their own right, as well as studying them as a first stage of the A2 qualification.

³⁶ In other words, no individual level matching derived from propensity scoring techniques was used.

young people in the pilot and control areas cannot be treated as conclusive evidence of a precise EMA effect, but are indicative.

All results are based on young people who were estimated to be eligible for EMA at the first interview and who were interviewed in both Years 12 and 13. With the exception of Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.4 (which incorporate information relating to all EMA eligible young people) the analysis is limited to eligible young people who were in full-time education at the Year 12 interview.

Year 11 achievement was measured using the same procedure as in Chapter 3, described in detail in Chapter 2.6.

4.2 Year 11 Qualification Achievement

Table 4.1 addresses the question of whether, at the end of Year 11, the pilot and control areas differed in terms of GCSE/GNVQ achievement. If the two groups were similar whilst young people were at this stage of their educational career, any subsequent differences may be attributed to EMA having the effect of encouraging low achieving young people to remain in full-time education. The results for the second cohort have been contrasted with those derived from the first cohort to explore whether there has been a shift in Year 11 educational outcomes across time. In addition, Table 4.1 shows the Socio-Economic Group (SEG) of young people's parents for the pilot and control areas across the two cohorts (for an explanation of how this was derived, see Chapter 1.2.7). Whilst it is possible that changes in the educational arena during this time period may have influenced Year 11 outcomes, such changes should not have impacted upon the distribution of socio-economic groups in the two areas.

For the second cohort, pilot and control areas were relatively well matched in terms of Year 11 educational outcomes (Table 4.1). Slightly more than one-third of EMA eligible young people had achieved five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes by the end of Year 11. However, young people in the pilot areas were marginally less likely to have achieved five or more A*-C passes than their counterparts in the control areas (34.9 per cent compared with 37.6 per cent). Just under one-third gained between one and four passes at these grades (32.6 per cent in the pilot areas and 30.6 per cent in the control areas). Between one-fifth and one-

quarter passed one or more GCSE/ GNVQ at grades D-G but none at grade C or above (23.2 per cent in the pilot areas and 22.2 per cent in the control areas). Finally, 6.6 per cent of eligible students in the pilot areas, and 7.1 per cent in the control areas, finished Year 11 with no GCSE or GNVQ passes.

Overall, the level of achievement fell far short of the Government's target of 50 per cent of young people achieving five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQs. This is not surprising given that the sample was selected from families at the lower end of the income distribution and living in deprived LEAs³⁷. These indicators of disadvantage are reflected in the socio-economic profiles of the EMA pilot and control groups.

Within both groups, approximately one-third of eligible young people were from homes where no parent was working or retired. This situation was slightly more common in the pilot areas than in the control areas (34 per cent of the pilot group compared with 31.1 per cent of the control group). While few eligible young people came from professional or managerial households, this was least likely amongst those living in the pilot areas (13.2 per cent compared with 16.1 per cent in the control areas). Across cohorts, within the pilot areas, the proportion of eligible young people who did not achieve any GCSE/GNVQ passes (at grades A*-G) fell by 2.1 percentage points, compared with a fall of just 0.3 percentage points in the control area. Apart from this, the two cohorts did not differ significantly either in terms of Year 11 achievement or parental socio-economic position.

³⁷ The LEAs chosen for this study were selected from amongst the most deprived LEAs in England.

Table 4.1 Year 11 Achievement and Parent’s SEG by Cohort: All EMA Eligible Young People

	Column per cent			
	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
YEAR 11 GCSE/GNVQ EXAMS				
Unknown	1.7	2.2	2.5	2.6
None taken/passed	7.4	8.7	7.1	6.6
D-G passes	23.8	23.5	22.2	23.2
1-4 A*-C passes	31.5	32.2	30.6	32.6
5+ A*-C passes	35.7	33.3	37.6	34.9
PARENTAL SEG				
No working/retired parent	29.8	36.4	31.1	34.0
Semi/unskilled manual	14.9	13.9	14.1	14.0
Skilled manual	15.2	14.4	15.4	15.4
Routine non-manual	24.4	22.6	23.2	23.5
Professional/managerial	15.7	12.7	16.1	13.2
Minimum unweighted N	2074	3423	1994	3379

Base: All EMA eligible young people who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

Table 4.2 outlines the association between EMA availability and participation in full-time education at Year 12, broken down by Year 11 achievement and by cohort. The figures support those in the previous chapter, in that there is a strong, positive association between Year 11 achievement and remaining in post-16 full-time education. Amongst Year 11 high achievers (who passed five or more A*-C grade GCSE/GNVQs) around nine-tenths of eligible young people remained in education and there is no evidence of a difference between the pilot and control areas. Amongst moderate achievers (who attained between one and four A*-C passes at Year 11), fewer eligible young people remained in full-time education, but participation rates were higher in the pilot areas than in the control areas. Similarly, amongst Year 11 low achievers (who did not pass any GCSE/GNVQs at grade C or above) eligible young people in the pilot areas were more likely to remain in education than those in the control areas. In summary, the availability of EMA appears to impact upon participation

rates amongst moderate and low achievers, but not amongst Year 11 high achievers. There is no suggestion that these patterns changed between the first and second cohorts.

Table 4.2 Participation in Post-16 Full-time Education at Year 12 by Year 11 Achievement and Cohort

COHORT	Cell per cent					
	Year 11 qualifications					
	None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Cohort 1: in FT education N (unweighted)	43.3 534	50.6 863	68.7 685	73.6 1116	90.1 865	91.4 1414
Cohort 2: in FT education Unweighted N	45.7 449	51.7 788	66.9 632	72.7 1089	91.6 886	90.5 1462

Base: All EMA eligible young people who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

Table 4.3 shows Year 11 achievement amongst EMA eligible young people who remained in post-16 full-time education. As anticipated, for the second cohort fewer young people in the pilot group had passed five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQs than in the control group (44 per cent compared with 50.5 per cent). Conversely, the pilot group were more likely than the control group to have gained between one and four A*-C grade passes at Year 11 (33 per cent compared with 29.2 per cent). The magnitudes of the pilot-control differences in Table 4.3 are greater than those in Table 4.1. This suggests that initial differences in Year 11 achievement are not solely responsible for the differences between the pilot and control group in the distributions of Year 11 achievers who have entered post-16 education. This finding is consistent with an EMA effect that has encouraged young people with lower Year 11 qualification levels to remain in further education.

A similar proportion of the two groups had passed GCSE/GNVQ examinations at grades D-G (18 per cent of the pilot group and 16.5 per cent of the control group) while a small minority of both groups had not achieved any GCSE/GNVQ qualifications at Year 11 (3.2 per cent of

the pilot group and 2.6 per cent of the control group). Similar differences were evident between the pilot and control groups within the first cohort.

Table 4.3 Year 11 Achievement by Cohort: All EMA Eligible Young People in FT Education at Year 12

	Column per cent			
	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
YEAR 11 GCSE/GNVQ EXAMS				
Unknown	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.7
None taken passed	2.9	3.6	2.6	3.2
D-G passes	17.1	19.3	16.5	18.0
1-4 A*-C passes	31.9	33.4	29.2	33.0
5+ A*-C passes	47.5	42.8	50.5	44.0
Unweighted N	1536	2661	1515	2622

Base: EMA Eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

4.3 Post-16 Courses

The LEA areas chosen for inclusion in the study were carefully selected to ensure that the pilot and control groups were very similar in terms of Year 11 educational outcomes and levels of deprivation. However, it is possible that education providers in the two areas did not offer an identical range of post-16 qualifications (in particular, vocational qualifications) and this may have influenced the routes through post-16 education taken by students in the pilot and control groups. An exploration of this possibility is beyond the scope of this report.

4.3.1 Post-16 courses started at Year 12

Course types

The following analysis outlines the choices that young people made among the qualifications commonly available in post-16 full-time education, namely GCSEs (whether resits or new courses), AS and A Levels, GNVQs, NVQs and BTECs. In Table 4.4 AS Levels and A

Levels have been combined, reflecting the situation under Curriculum 2000 that AS Levels may form the first component of an A2 (A Level). GNVQ and NVQ qualifications of a comparable level have also been combined. Official equivalence scales identify Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced GNVQs as being equivalent to NVQ Levels 1,2 and 3 respectively³⁸. As young people are not restricted to following a single type of qualification (for instance they may take GCSE resits in conjunction with AS Levels or GNVQs) the column totals in Table 4.4 exceed 100 per cent. The upper half of the table identifies the proportions of eligible young people in full-time education taking each of the course-types. The lower half of the table shows take up of the different course types as a proportion of **all** eligible young people in the pilot and control areas (i.e. by adding eligible young people who were not in full-time education).

Amongst the second cohort of EMA eligible young people in full-time education, the most common qualification embarked upon at Year 12 was an AS or A Level, chosen by approximately one-half of students. Around one-fifth had studied for GCSE resits while only about three per cent had studied for new GCSEs. Of the three listed vocational qualifications, the most common were those equivalent to NVQ Levels 1 and 2, which were each taken by between one-fifth and one-quarter of eligible students³⁹. Slightly more than one-tenth of eligible students embarked upon a vocational Level 3 course.

For the second cohort, eligible students in the pilot group were less likely to have begun an AS or A Level at Year 12 than those in the control group. Less than half (45 per cent) of the pilot group had started this type of qualification compared with more than half (53.1 per cent) of the control group. Conversely, eligible young people in the pilot group were more likely to have embarked upon GCSE resits than those in the control group (20.2 per cent compared with 17.7 per cent). The likelihood of commencing a Level 1 vocational course was also greater in the pilot group (24.6 per cent compared with 21.4 per cent in the control group). These differing outcomes are to be expected, given the overall lower levels of Year 11 achievement amongst the pilot group.

³⁸ Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002).

³⁹ NVQ students who did not know the level at which they were studying were coded to Level 1.

Across cohorts, the proportion of eligible young people taking GCSE resits remained constant but there was a decline in the number taking new GCSEs (of 1.9 percentage points and 4.4 percentage points in the pilot and control areas respectively). At the same time, there was an increase in the uptake of both AS/A Levels and Level 3 NVQs/Advanced GNVQs. The rise in the proportion of students starting an AS or A Level was greatest in the control areas (with an increase of 7.9 percentage points compared with 4.4 percentage points in the pilot areas). By contrast, the rise in the proportion taking a Level 3 NVQ or Advanced GNVQ was higher in the pilot areas (with an increase of 3.9 percentage points compared with just 1.7 percentage points in the control areas).

When all eligible young people in the second cohort are considered (rather than just those in full-time education at Year 12) approximately one-third of young people had begun to study for an AS or A level. This course of action was slightly more common in the control areas than in the pilot areas (36.5 per cent and 32.3 per cent respectively). This pilot/control difference was not evident amongst the first cohort.

Table 4.4 Qualifications Started at Year 12 by Cohort

	Column per cent			
	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
ELIGIBLE YOUNG PEOPLE IN FT EDUCATION				
GCSE resits	19.2	17.7	20.2	17.7
New GCSEs	4.8	7.6	2.9	3.2
AS/A Levels	40.6	45.2	45.0	53.1
Level 1 NVQ/ Foundation GNVQ	20.9	16.3	24.6	21.4
Level 2 NVQ/ Intermediate GNVQ/ BTEC	23.6	18.7	23.2	21.6
Level 3 NVQ/ Advanced GNVQ	9.4	9.6	13.3	11.3
N (unweighted)	2661	1536	2627	1515
ALL ELIGIBLE YOUNG PEOPLE				
GCSE resits	14.3	12.9	15.9	13.2
New GCSEs	3.5	5.2	2.1	2.3
AS/A Levels	29.0	30.7	32.3	36.5
Level 1 NVQ/ Foundation GNVQ	17.1	13.2	19.1	17.7
Level 2 NVQ/ Intermediate GNVQ/ BTEC	19.8	15.2	19.4	17.3
Level 3 NVQ/ Advanced GNVQ	7.0	6.8	9.9	8.2
Unweighted N	3461	2113	3427	2020

Base: All EMA eligible young people (lower half of Table), in full-time education (upper half of Table), at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

Students can mix academic qualifications (such as GCSEs and AS levels) with vocational qualifications (such as GNVQs and NVQs), and in the following tables qualifications started at Year 12 are categorised as sole-academic, sole-vocational and mixed academic-vocational. Academic courses include GCSE resits and new GCSEs as well as AS and A levels. Vocational courses include GNVQs, NVQs, BTECs and ‘other’ qualifications. Under this categorisation, for example, a student who combined GCSE resits with AS levels would be classified as following a sole-academic route through post-16 education, while one who combined GCSE resits with a GNVQ would be classified as taking a mixed academic-vocational route.

It has been established that eligible young people in post-16 education in the pilot areas tend to have lower Year 11 qualifications than their counterparts in the control areas (Table 4.3). In addition, research has shown that low Year 11 attainment increases the likelihood that young people will move on to vocational rather than academic qualifications at Year 12 (Payne, 2000). Consequently, it is anticipated that eligible young people in the pilot group will be under-represented on academic courses and over-represented on vocational courses. Amongst the second cohort of eligible students, 40 per cent of the pilot group had begun a sole-academic course compared with 46.5 per cent of the control group. By contrast, 42.2 per cent of students in the pilot group had embarked upon a sole-vocational course compared with 35.5 per cent of those in the control group. Approximately one-sixth of students had taken a combined academic-vocational course (17.8 per cent of the pilot group and 18 per cent of the control group). Comparisons across cohorts reveal that uptake of mixed academic-vocational course increased (by 2.2 percentage points in the pilot areas and 4.1 percentage points in the control areas).

Table 4.5 Academic and Vocational Post-16 Courses Started at Year 12 by Cohort Column per cent

POST-16 COURSE	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Sole-academic	48.7	40.1	46.5	40.0
Sole-vocational	37.3	44.3	35.5	42.2
Mix academic-vocational	13.9	15.6	18.0	17.8
Unweighted N	1536	2661	1515	2627

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

Table 4.6 outlines (for the second cohort only) the routes through post-16 education taken by eligible young people with differing levels of Year 11 achievement. This design takes into account existing variations in qualifications between the pilot and control groups at the commencement of post-16 education. There is a very strong association between Year 11 results and the type of course started at Year 12. With decreasing levels of Year 11 achievement, eligible young people in post-16 education became less likely to have embarked upon a sole-academic course and more likely to have chosen a sole-vocational course.

Amongst eligible students with five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes at Year 11, just under three-quarters had begun a sole-academic course at Year 12. Where eligible young people had achieved between one and four A*-C GCSE/ GNVQ passes, approximately one-quarter had started a sole-academic course while around one-half had started a sole-vocational course. Amongst Year 11 low achievers (who had not attained any GCSE/ GNVQ passes at grade C or above) only a small minority had embarked upon a sole-academic course while more than three-quarters had started a sole-vocational course.

For each level of Year 11 achievement, uptake of sole-academic courses was lower for the pilot group than for the control group. Conversely, uptake of sole-vocational courses was higher amongst the pilot group. Most of these differences are not statistically significant, due to the relatively small numbers at each level of Year 11 achievement. However, analytical

procedures that do not partition the sample in this way produce statistically significant results. In effect, controlling for Year 11 achievement, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have started a sole-vocational course, while those in the control group were more likely to have embarked upon a sole-academic course. This may reflect the fact that the pilot group included young people who would not have continued in full-time education had they not been offered EMA. It is possible that these ‘converts’, who might otherwise have entered employment, were particularly attracted to vocational courses.

Table 4.6 Academic and Vocational Post-16 Courses Started at Year 12 by Year 11 Attainment: Cohort 2 only

POST-16 COURSE	Column per cent					
	Year 11 qualifications					
	None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Sole-academic	7.5	5.6	25.6	22.8	74.5	71.1
Sole-vocational	77.2	79.0	47.4	51.4	11.6	15.5
Mix academic-vocational	15.3	15.5	27.0	25.8	13.9	13.3
Unweighted N	237	440	445	809	818	1342

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12. Cohort 2 respondents who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

Course levels

An alternative way of conceptualising routes through post-16 education is to consider the level of study undertaken without reference to whether the course of study is academic or vocational or a combination of the two. Here, the official DfES scales already used to combine equivalent NVQs and GNVQs are utilised to equivalise GCSE and AS and A Levels⁴⁰. AS and A Levels are allotted to Level 3 (alongside Level 3 NVQs and Advanced GNVQs). In general, it is the type of qualification started at Year 12 that determines the level of study, not the outcome. The exception to this is the small minority of eligible young people who began GCSEs (whether resits or new) at Year 12. In order to be consistent with

⁴⁰ See Chapter 1.2.6 for an illustration of this equivalisation and a more detailed description.

Year 11 qualifications, candidates who had passed one or more GCSE at grade A*-C at Year 12 are treated as having followed a course of study at Level 2 (along with students taking Level 2 NVQs, intermediate GNVQs and BTECs). Those whose highest grade was D-G are placed at Level 1 (with young people studying Level 1 NVQs and Foundation GNVQs)⁴¹. Where students were studying for disparate qualifications (such as AS Levels and GCSE resits), their level of study has been derived from the highest level qualification.

The second and third columns of Table 4.7 outline the level of Year 12 courses undertaken by eligible students in the pilot and control groups. Compared with the control group, fewer eligible students in the pilot group had embarked upon a Level 3 course at Year 12 (53.2 per cent compared with 58 per cent). Correspondingly, more of the pilot group were studying a Level 1 course than their counterparts in the control group (22.6 per cent compared with 18.6 per cent).

In Table 4.7, the courses started at Year 12 are broken down by Year 11 attainment and shows whether the course started at Year 12 was an advance upon qualifications already achieved. For students with no GCSE/GNVQ passes at grade C or above at Year 11, the successful completion of a Level 2 course would improve their qualification level. For all young people in post-16 education, a Level 3 qualification represents an advance upon their Year 11 achievement. It should be noted that passing one or more Year 11 GCSE/GNVQ qualifications at grade A*-C denotes achievement at Level 2. Consequently, both Year 11 high achievers (who attained five or more A*-C grades) and Year 11 moderate achievers (who attained between one and four A*-C grades) need to have started a Level 3 course at Year 12 if they hoped to improve upon their existing achievement level.

Amongst high achieving eligible students, more than nine-tenths had chosen a Level 3 course which, if successfully completed, would enhance their existing qualification level. By contrast, just over one-third of moderate achievers had embarked upon a course at this level (36.6 per cent of the pilot group and 37.5 per cent of the control group). Similar numbers of moderate achievers (40.6 per cent of the pilot group and 37.1 per cent of the control group) continued to study at Level 2 (in effect, a course at the same level as their existing

⁴¹ For GCSE resits only, the grades attained were only collected for English Language and Maths. For any other subjects the level is set to 1.

qualifications) and just under one-quarter had embarked upon a Level 1 course. Amongst low achievers, the majority had started either a Level 1 or Level 2 course.

At each level of Year 11 achievement, the course levels started by the pilot and control groups were very similar. Table 4.6 suggested that eligible students in the pilot group were more inclined to take a vocational route through further education than their counterparts in the control group (controlling for Year 11 attainment). However, there is no indication from Table 4.7 that this resulted in differences in the level of course studied (controlling for Year 11 attainment).

Table 4.7 Highest Level Course Started at Year 12 by Year 11 Achievement: Cohort 2 only

Course	Column Per Cent							
	Year 11 qualifications							
	All		None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Unknown	1.3	0.7	4.8	2.1	1.2	0.4	0.0	0.1
Level 1	18.6	22.6	44.6	54.4	24.1	22.4	4.6	6.0
Level 2	22.1	23.5	46.0	38.8	37.1	40.6	3.9	3.2
Level 3	58.0	53.2	4.6	4.7	37.5	36.6	91.5	90.8
Unweighted N	1515	2627	237	440	445	809	818	1342

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

4.3.2 Post-16 courses passed at Year 12

The next analysis considers the level of any course passed by eligible students during Year 12. The successful completion of a course at the end of Year 12 gives an indication of progress through post-16 education; consequently, it is an important aspect of the evaluation of the EMA pilot scheme. The introduction of Curriculum 2000 would be expected to have affected substantially Year 12 achievement levels among the second cohort of EMA eligible young people. The first cohort of students eligible for EMA began their post-16 education in the autumn of 1999, before the widespread introduction of AS Levels. For the majority of

these young people, the only Level 3 academic qualification available was a two-year A Level. The introduction of Curriculum 2000 in the following year meant that all young people opting for the academic route began a Level 3 qualification (an AS Level) that could be completed in one year. Consequently, it would be anticipated that many more eligible students in this second cohort would pass a Level 3 qualification at the end of Year 12 than those in the first cohort.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the majority of vocational qualifications available at Year 12 may be viewed as being of equivalent merit to common academic qualifications. However, in the context of this analysis, an important difference between academic and vocational qualifications is the expected duration of study. This distinction is particularly salient for advanced (Level 3) academic and vocational qualifications. While AS Levels are designed to be completed within one year, there is no set timetable for the completion of Level 3 NVQs and advanced GNVQs. Amongst the second cohort, only a small minority of students who had embarked upon a Level 3 NVQ or Advanced GNVQ subsequently reported gaining this qualification in their Wave 2 interview (3.8 per cent of those in the pilot group and 6.3 per cent of those in the control group; analysis not shown). Consequently, the type of qualification undertaken (whether academic or vocational) is likely to have a profound impact upon Year 12 completion rates.

It has already been established that EMA eligible students in the pilot group tended to have lower Year 11 qualifications than those in the control group (Table 4.3). This is reflected in their lower uptake of AS and A Levels at Year 12 compared with their counterparts in the control group (Table 4.6). Therefore, it Level 3 pass rates at the end of year 12 are likely to be lower for the pilot group than for the control group. Table 4.8 outlines the highest level of course passed by EMA eligible students, as reported in their Year 13 interviews. As expected, amongst the second cohort eligible young people in pilot group were substantially less likely to have successfully completed a Level 3 course than their counterparts in the control group (34.5 per cent compared with 42.4 per cent) and more likely to have passed a Level 1 course (14.3 per cent and 9.7 per cent respectively). Just under three-tenths of each group had not passed any course at Year 12 (29.6 per cent of the pilot group and 28.3 per cent of the control group).

The results for the first cohort are very different to those for the second. Amongst eligible young people who entered post-16 education in the autumn of 1999 (Cohort 1), only a tiny minority passed a Level 3 course (2.1 per cent of the pilot group and 3.1 per cent of the control group), and three-fifths of students had not passed any course at Year 12 (59.1 per cent of the pilot group and 60.6 per cent of the control group). For this first cohort, there was no evidence of a difference in outcomes between the pilot and control groups. This presents a marked contrast to the second cohort where courses passed by eligible students in the pilot group tended to be at a lower level than those in the control group.

Table 4.8 Highest Level Course Passed during Year 12 by Cohort

Post-16 course	Column per cent			
	Cohort 1		Cohort 2	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Unknown	2.9	3.1	4.3	4.5
None passed	60.6	59.1	28.3	29.6
Level 1	14.4	15.2	9.7	14.3
Level 2	19.0	20.5	15.3	17.2
Level 3	3.1	2.1	42.4	34.5
Unweighted N	1536	2661	1515	2627

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

In Table 4.9 courses passed at Year 12 are broken down by Year 11 qualifications (for the second cohort only). The majority of high achieving eligible students (with five or more GCSE/GNVQs at grades A*-C) had passed a Level 3 course at the end of Year 12. By contrast, only a minority of moderate achievers (with between one and four A*-C GCSE/GNVQs) had successfully completed a Level 3 course at Year 12. It was rare for Year 11 high achievers to have completed a Level 2 course at Year 12 (just 3.1 per cent of those in the pilot group and 3.5 per cent of those in the control group). However, this was a common outcome for both moderate and low achievers, with between one-quarter and one-third of eligible students in these categories reaching this level of attainment.

Differences between the pilot and control groups are apparent for high achieving students. Amongst eligible young people who had attained five or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQs at Year 11, those in the pilot group were less likely to have passed a Level 3 course at Year 12, and more likely not to have passed any new course, than their counterparts in the control group. In the pilot group, 67.4 per cent of high achieving eligible students had successfully completed a Level 3 course compared with 73.9 per cent of their counterparts in the control group. Conversely, at this level of Year 11 achievement, 21.9 per cent of eligible young people in the pilot group had not passed a new course at Year 12 compared with 17.6 per cent of the control group.

Table 4.9 Highest Level Course Passed during Year 12 by Year 11 Achievement: Cohort 2 only
Column per cent

Post-16 course	Year 11 qualifications					
	None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Unknown	2.2	4.5	6.9	4.3	3.5	4.5
None passed	43.9	40.0	35.6	31.8	17.6	21.9
Level 1	23.7	28.8	14.8	19.1	1.6	3.1
Level 2	27.8	25.2	26.9	31.2	3.5	3.1
Level 3	2.4	1.5	15.8	13.6	73.9	67.4
Unweighted N	237	440	445	809	818	1342

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

This difference in outcomes amongst Year 11 high achievers warrants further attention, given the finding that similar proportions of high achievers in the pilot and control groups started a Level 3 course at Year 12 (Table 4.7). One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that eligible young people in the pilot group were more likely to have left education before a course was completed, or to have completed a course but failed it. There is no *a priori* expectation that high achieving eligible students in the pilot and control groups would have differing experiences in this respect. It has been shown that EMA availability has promoted participation in post-16 education amongst groups of young people who would normally have

left full-time education at the end of Year 11 (Table 4.2), and it is possible that subsequent attrition was higher amongst these ‘new recruits’. However, Table 4.2 has suggested that EMA availability only impacted upon participation rates amongst Year 11 moderate and low achievers, not amongst high achievers.

Table 4.10 shows course outcomes of eligible students at the time of the Year 13 interview, controlling for their Year 11 achievement. It differs from previous analysis by taking account of the fact that a post-16 educational course often takes the form of a portfolio of individual qualifications (such as four AS Levels or an NVQ in conjunction with a GCSE resit). By the Year 13 interview, each of these qualifications may have been dropped, failed, passed or on-going. Table 4.10 shows where students were unsuccessful in all qualifications embarked upon at Year 12, because they had either dropped or failed them all. It also reveals where students dropped or failed some qualifications but continued with, or passed, others. A final category contains those who had not dropped or failed any Year 12 qualification. This category does not distinguish between those who had passed some or all qualifications and those who were continuing with all qualifications. Obviously, the opportunity to drop or fail some, but not all, qualifications is only available to those who began more than one qualification at Year 12. Multiple qualifications were most common amongst Year 11 high achievers, where 85.4 per cent of eligible students started two or more qualifications (analysis not shown). This contrasts with 40.1 per cent of moderate achievers and just 15.5 per cent of low achievers. These differences predominantly reflect the differing structure of AS Level course portfolios compared with vocational portfolios such as NVQs and GNVQs.

Amongst Year 11 high achievers, just under two-thirds of eligible students in the pilot and control groups had neither dropped nor failed a qualification by the start of year 13 (65.5 per cent in the pilot group and 65.6 per cent in the control group). A similar proportion of moderate achieving students in the pilot group had neither dropped nor failed a qualification (67.4 per cent). However, fewer moderate achievers in the control group had neither dropped nor failed a qualification (57 per cent). Amongst Year 11 low achievers, 67 per cent of the pilot group and 62.5 per cent of the control group had neither dropped nor failed any Year 12 qualification.

Approximately one-fifth of Year 11 low achievers had dropped or failed all qualifications (18.4 per cent of the pilot group and 22.9 per cent of the control group) compared with fewer

than one-twentieth of Year 11 high achievers (2.7 per cent of the pilot group and 4.8 per cent of the control group). Conversely, one-fifth of high achievers had dropped or failed some, but not all, qualifications (18.9 per cent of the pilot group and 21 per cent of the control group), compared with only a small minority of low achievers (7.5 per cent of the pilot group and 6.2 per cent of the control group).

This analysis does not support the hypothesis that young people in the pilot group were more likely to subsequently drop out or fail the qualifications they started at Year 12. On the contrary, overall, a greater proportion of eligible students in the pilot group than in the control group had neither dropped nor failed a course (66.3 per cent in the pilot group compared with 62.4 per cent in the control group). Controlling for Year 11 achievement, this pilot/control difference remains for low- and moderate Year 11 achievers, but not for Year 11 high achievers. Table 4.10 also shows that Year 11 low achievers were at greatest risk of dropping or failing all of the qualifications embarked upon at Year 12.

Table 4.10 Qualifications Dropped or Failed at Year 12 by Year 11 Achievement: Cohort 2 only

Column per cent

	Year 11 qualifications							
	All		None/D-G		1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
Unknown	9.5	8.9	8.4	7.1	11.8	5.1	8.6	12.9
All drop/fail	11.1	9.6	22.9	18.4	13.2	11.6	4.8	2.7
Some drop/fail	17.0	15.2	6.2	7.5	18.0	16.0	21.0	18.9
None drop/fail	62.4	66.3	62.5	67.0	57.0	67.4	65.6	65.5
Unweighted N	1515	2627	237	440	445	809	818	1342

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

The next analysis explores another possible explanation for the finding that, amongst Year 11 high achievers, a smaller proportion of the pilot group had passed a Level 3 course at Year 13 than the control group (Table 4.9). This difference may derive from eligible students in

the pilot group being less likely to have started an academic Level 3 course (which is generally completed within a year) and more likely to have embarked upon a vocational Level 3 course (which is rarely completed within a year).

An earlier table in this chapter (Table 4.6) outlined the type of courses embarked upon by the pilot and control groups at Year 12 (i.e. academic or vocational or a mix of the two), without reference to the course level. There is evidence that, controlling for Year 11 achievement, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have embarked upon a sole-vocational course, and less likely to have started a sole-academic course, than their counterparts in the control group (Table 4.6). Table 4.11 shows the extent to which the pilot and control groups differ when this distinction is applied to Level 3 qualifications only. Eligible students are categorised according to whether, at Year 12, they embarked upon a sole-academic Level 3 course (AS or A Level), a sole-vocational Level 3 course (Level 3 NVQ or Advanced GNVQ), a mixed academic-vocational Level 3 course, or no Level 3 course. These outcomes are broken down by Year 11 achievement; however, as very few Year 11 low achievers started a Level 3 course at Year 12, only moderate and high achievers are included in the Table.

Given this focus on Level 3 courses, it is important to consider whether curriculum changes associated with the introduction of Curriculum 2000 interacted with EMA availability to influence the educational choices made by eligible young people in post-16 education. Consequently, Table 4.11 presents results from both the first and second cohort of EMA eligible young people. The discussion first considers whether there are pilot-control differences within each cohort. It then moves on to consider cross-cohort change and the possible interaction of curriculum change and EMA availability on the course choices made by eligible Year 12 students.

For Cohort 1 high achievers, the courses started by the pilot and control groups were very similar. Amongst high achievers, just over three-quarters of both groups started a Level 3 sole-academic course (76.1 per cent of the pilot group and 78.6 per cent of the control group). Between seven and eight per cent started a sole-vocational course (7.8 per cent of the pilot group and seven per cent of the control group) and a small minority began a mixed academic-vocational course (3.5 per cent of the pilot group and three per cent of the control group).

The remainder did not start a Level 3 course at Year 12 (12.6 per cent of the pilot group and 11.4 per cent of the control group).

For Cohort 1 moderate achievers, there was also little difference in the type of courses taken by the pilot and control groups. Just over two-thirds of eligible students did not start a Level 3 course (69.8 per cent of the pilot group and 69.1 per cent of the control group). Around one-sixth started a sole-academic course (17.1 per cent and 17.8 per cent of the pilot and control groups respectively) and just over one-tenth began a mixed academic-vocational course (11.1 per cent of the pilot group and 11.5 per cent of the control group). Fewer than two per cent of either group started a mixed academic-vocational course (1.9 per cent and 1.6 per cent of the pilot and control group respectively).

In the second EMA cohort, there were differences in the type of Level 3 courses started by the pilot and control groups, amongst both Year 11 high and moderate achievers. In both groups, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have started a sole-vocational Level 3 course than those in the control group (eight per cent and 4.8 per cent respectively for high achievers and 12.7 per cent compared with seven per cent for moderate achievers). Amongst high achievers, those in the pilot group were also less likely to have begun a mixed academic-vocational Level 3 course than their counterparts in the control group (4.5 per cent compared with 7.4 per cent).

Comparison of the two EMA cohorts reveals that the introduction of Curriculum 2000 was associated with changes in the type of Level 3 courses started by eligible students with moderate and high Year 11 achievement. Across cohorts there had been a decline in the proportions of eligible young people who had not started any Level 3 course; this was evident for all four groups (i.e. the pilot and control groups within each of the two Year 11 achievement categories). Within each Year 11 achievement category, the decline was of a similar magnitude for both pilot and control groups. All four groups showed an increase in the proportions who started a mixed academic-vocational Level 3 course at Year 12. For both high achievers and moderate achievers, the rise was greater in the control group than the pilot group. In addition, for both moderate and high achievers, there was a decrease in the proportions of eligible students in the control group who began a sole-vocational Level 3 course (although for high achievers this did not quite reach statistical significance).

However, there was no evidence of a similar shift occurring amongst the pilot group (for either moderate or high achievers).

For the first EMA cohort, there was no substantive difference in the type of courses taken by the pilot and control groups. However, for the second cohort, a number of differences were apparent. Perhaps the most salient of these (for understanding Year 12 Level 3 pass rates) is the finding that, for both moderate and high achievers in the second cohort, eligible students in the pilot group were more likely to have begun a sole-vocational Level 3 course than their counterparts in the control group. In effect, controlling for Year 11 achievement, more eligible students in the pilot group had started a Level 3 course that was unlikely to lead to a qualification at year 12. This finding may help to explain the lower Level 3 pass rate evident amongst the pilot group (Table 4.9). It appears that, in the control areas, there was a cross-cohort shift away from starting a sole-vocational Level 3 course towards taking a mixed academic-vocational course. There was no evidence of a similar shift in the pilot areas.

Table 4.11 Level 3 Course Type started at Year 12 by Year 11 Achievement and Cohort: Moderate and high achievers only

Post-16 course	Year 11 qualifications			
	1-4 A*-C		5+ A*-C	
	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot
COHORT 1				
No Level 3	69.1	69.8	11.4	12.6
Sole-academic	17.8	17.1	78.6	76.1
Mix academic-vocational	1.6	1.9	3.0	3.5
Sole-vocational	11.5	11.1	7.0	7.8
Unweighted N	482	848	783	1307
COHORT 2				
No Level 3	62.5	63.5	8.5	9.3
Sole-academic	23.1	19.3	78.3	74.8
Mix academic-vocational	7.4	4.5	8.5	8.0
Sole-vocational	7.0	12.7	4.8	8.0
Unweighted N	445	809	818	1342

Base: EMA eligible young people in full-time education at Year 12 who attained 1+ A*-C GCSE/GNVQ at Year 11 who completed Year 12 and 13 interviews. Pilot and attrition weights.

There was no *a priori* expectation that the pilot and control groups would embark upon different types of Level 3 course, once their Year 11 achievement had been controlled for. In particular, Table 4.2 indicated that the availability of EMA did not influence post-16 participation rates amongst Year 11 high achievers; consequently, high achievers in post-16 education should have similar individual characteristics in both the pilot and control areas. An analytical design that routinely controls for Year 11 achievement obscures aggregate-level differences between the two groups; however group-level differences may impact upon the educational choices, or opportunities, of students. As has been shown in Table 4.3, eligible young people who remained in full-time education in the pilot areas had overall lower levels of Year 11 achievement than those in the control areas. Low Year 11 achievement is, in turn, associated with a greater likelihood of subsequently embarking upon vocational, rather than academic qualifications (Payne 2001). It is plausible that an environment where many students take vocational qualifications increases the attraction of vocational courses for students who might otherwise have followed an academic course at a similar level. In addition, it may influence the perspectives of education professionals when planning courses or advising students. While these interpretations remain speculative, they suggest potentially fruitful areas for future research.

5 EMA AND ACHIEVEMENT TWO YEARS AFTER COMPULSORY EDUCATION

SUMMARY

- There is no evidence that EMA has encouraged young people to improve their post-16 qualification attainment.
- EMA appears to have encouraged more young people to enter Higher Education primarily through encouraging young people who would otherwise have left full-time education after two years, or who would have entered a third year of post-16 education, and who were of similar ability levels to those entering in the absence of EMA.
- Although few young people had taken one-year courses, EMA encouraged more to do so and to complete them.
- High levels of qualification for EMA achievement bonuses were reported, particularly among those who had received a partial award of EMA, who had high levels of Year 11 achievement and from the highest socio-economic groups.

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has examined achievement in courses undertaken by young people during their first year of compulsory education (Year 12). In this chapter analysis of achievement is expanded to address the question of whether or not EMA has had an impact on the achievement of young people who entered post-16 full-time education over Years 12, 13 and 14 of the survey, that is, during the first two years following compulsory education. Therefore, throughout, the analysis uses data from Cohort 1 only, relating to young people who finished compulsory education in summer 1999.

The first part of the chapter uses propensity score matching techniques to examine the impact of EMA on achievement among all EMA eligible young people by the beginning of Year 14,

whether or not they had actually engaged in any post-16 education⁴² (Section 5.2). Data are from the third wave of interviews with the first cohort of young people eligible for EMA.

Sections 5.3 to 5.6 use descriptive analysis to explore patterns of achievement in greater detail and takes two approaches. The first considers achievement and the extent of progression by young people who spent at least one year in post-compulsory education, both within and between groups of young people defined by levels of achievement at the end of Year 11 (Section 5.3). The second approach identifies a series of education trajectories, defined by the pattern of participation in post-16 full-time education described by young people in their interviews at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14 (Section 5.4). Section 5.5 discusses the findings in the previous two sections and Section 5.6 concludes the descriptive analysis.

5.1.1 Measuring achievement

Chapter 1.2.6 has explained the complexities involved in measuring achievement in the UK and described the basis of the approach taken in our analysis. However, some further explanatory detail is required, since this chapter measures achievement in a number of different ways designed to maximise our understanding of young people's progression following compulsory education.

First, it might be assumed that if young people in the pilot group achieve significantly better than young people in the control group then this could be attributed to EMA. However, it is clear from the previous quantitative reports (Ashworth et al., 2001, 2002), and from the previous three chapters of this report (Chapters 2, 3 and 4), that EMA has drawn into post-16 education young people whose background characteristics are associated with lower educational outcomes and who had lower levels of achievement at the end of Year 11. Therefore, simple comparisons of post-16 achievement between the pilot and control groups could suggest that the pilot groups were achieving no better, or achieving worse results than the control groups if no account was taken of the generally lower educational qualifications of young people who have been drawn into post-16 education by EMA. This could lead to the erroneous conclusion that EMA has had a negative effect on post-16 achievement.

⁴² This excludes, therefore, qualifications gained through work-based education and training for which data were not available. These qualifications will be included in analysis for next year's report.

In order to guard against this potential pitfall, the achievement of young people has been examined using their Year 11 scores and comparing pilot and control differences within each of four Year 11 achievement groups, described below.

A second issue arises from the fact that young people can choose from a diverse array of post-16 courses, including academic A and AS levels, as well as GCSE examinations; and from a range of vocational courses, principally, though not exclusively, GCSE and NVQ courses. Unfortunately, as described in Chapter 1.2.6, the official scoring systems used to equivalise achievement between different course types are not comprehensive.

The scoring system that allows different qualifications to be equivalised, is described in Chapter 1.2.6, along with methods of allocating grade points to the different qualification results. In brief, achievement on Advanced GNVQs can be equivalised to A/AS level passes. Using separate scales, Foundation and Intermediate GNVQ achievement can be equivalised to GCSE passes (Levels 1 and 2). However, the Levels 1 and 2 scores cannot be equivalised to the Level 3 scores and NVQs are not included at all in the equivalisation procedures. As a consequence of the constraints of these different scoring systems, different summary measures of qualification achievement are used throughout this chapter.

First, Year 11 achievement was constructed by counting the number of GCSE/GNVQ equivalent passes obtained and, on the basis of these scores, young people were assigned to one of four groups.

- Nil Achievers No qualifications obtained (all exams were failed or none were taken)⁴³;
- Low Achievers D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes only;
- Moderate Achievers 1-4 A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes;
- High Achievers 5+ A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes.

⁴³ This group of young people was excluded from analysis because too few entered post-16 education to enable the calculation of robust results.

Secondly, a similar system was used to classify young people on the basis of their post-16 achievement. The QCA Levels of qualification shown in Table 1.2 were used and students were assigned to the highest level they had obtained.

Level 1	D-G GCSE/Foundation GNVQ/Level 1 NVQ;
Level 2	A*-C GCSE/Intermediate GNVQ/Level 2 NVQ;
Level 3	A/AS level/Advanced GNVQ/Level 3 NVQ.

Thirdly, average grade point achievements were analysed, for both Levels 1 and 2 and Level 3 qualifications, as were the numbers of Levels 1 and 2 passes.

5.2 Impact of EMA on Post-16 Achievement by Year 14: Propensity Score Matching

This section of the report uses propensity score matching techniques to examine the impact of EMA on post-16 achievement during the first two years following compulsory education. The data are from Cohort 1 only and include all EMA eligible young people who were interviewed at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. Achievement has been measured using the methods described in the previous section and in Chapter 1.2.6; first, by capturing movements between Levels 1, 2 and 3 and, secondly, by analysing the number and level of passes achieved within these levels. The analysis first examines achievement among urban and rural young men and women (Section 5.2.1) and then by Year 11 achievement and the socio-economic group (SEG) of young people's parent(s) (Section 5.2.2).

5.2.1 Achievement at Levels 1, 2 and 3

Young people were classified, first, according to their maximum level of academic achievement at the start of Year 14. For the three levels of achievement (Levels 1, 2 and 3)⁴⁴, each young person was assigned a dummy variable on the basis of their observed qualification. It is worth emphasising the limits of this analysis because, for example, an individual with one A-level will have been classified in the same way as a young person with five A-levels; both will have been assigned a dummy variable indicating that they had

⁴⁴ Level 1 indicates 1 or more D-G GCSE passes (foundation vocational equivalent); Level 2 indicates 1 or more A*-C GCSE passes (intermediate vocational equivalent); Level 3 indicates 1 or more A/AS level examinations (advanced vocational equivalent).

achieved Level 3. Therefore, further analyses were undertaken to count the number of qualifications achieved within each level.

This analysis is also limited in the sense that young people might not move between levels, but could improve their levels of achievement within a particular level. Unfortunately, no scoring system exists that can equate achievement across levels so that it is not possible, for example, to say that 5 A* - C GCSE passes or their vocational equivalents (Level 2) are 'worth' one 'A' level at Grade C (Level 3). Therefore, further analyses could only be undertaken that scored the grades achieved within each level, using the scoring system described in Section 1.2.6.

Achieving Level 3

The first row of each panel in Table 5.1 shows results for matched eligible young men and young women, across urban and rural areas. There was no significant difference between the proportion of young people in the pilot and control areas achieving Level 3 in any of the sub-groups.

Achievement within Level 3: Score and number of NVQs

Each individual was assigned a score based on their grade at any of A / AS / A2 / GNVQ qualifications.⁴⁵ Unfortunately, NVQ qualifications could not be incorporated into this measure, so these qualifications were examined separately.⁴⁶

Again, results of this analysis in the second row of each panel of Table 5.1 show that EMA had no effect on the scores achieved for any group.

The number of NVQ Level 3 passes achieved are shown in the third row of each panel in Table 5.1. Again, no significant differences were found between pilot and control areas for any group.

⁴⁵ The grade point score assigns a score of between 8 grade points for an A* GCSE grade through to one grade point for G, and 0 for a fail / not taken. 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 1 or other course. If an individual was not in education, or did not take that particular qualification, they are assigned a score of 0.

Table 5.1 The Impact of the EMA on Educational Achievement at Level 3 by the End of Year 13

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Urban YOUNG MEN				
Achieved Level 3	0.3105	0.2969	0.0136	0.0346
Level 3 score	4.0079	3.3240	0.6839	0.6402
Number of NVQs	0.0540	0.0811	-0.0271	0.0317
Sample size			920	
Urban YOUNG WOMEN				
Achieved Level 3	0.3525	0.4038	-0.0513	0.0356
Level 3 score	4.7924	5.6292	-0.8368	0.6745
Number of NVQs	0.0761	0.0596	0.0165	0.0191
Sample size			989	
Rural YOUNG MEN				
Achieved Level 3	0.3632	0.2841	0.0791	0.0518
Level 3 score	5.3364	3.9475	1.3889	1.8138
Number of NVQs	0.0947	0.0381	0.0566	0.0412
Sample size			316	
Rural YOUNG WOMEN				
Achieved Level 3	0.4527	0.3971	0.0556	0.0965
Level 3 score	6.4689	6.4932	-0.0243	1.6529
Number of NVQs	0.0858	0.0318	0.0540	0.0445
Sample size			314	

Base: All EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

⁴⁶ This is because it is a pass/fail qualification and is not assigned a grade point in the same way in which GNVQs, GCSEs, A and AS levels are graded.

Achieving Levels 1 and 2

The same approach for Level 3 was used to consider the effect of EMA on qualifications at Levels 1 and 2. First, the effect of EMA on the probability of obtaining a Level 1 or Level 2 qualification was measured. Again, this is the broadest possible measure which classified individuals into Level 1 if they had achieved one or more GCSE pass at Grades D – G (or a foundation vocational equivalent), and into Level 2 if they had achieved one or more A* - C GCSE passes (or an intermediate vocational equivalent).

Results in Table 5.2 (first row of each panel) for the matched sample indicate that there was a statistically significant positive effect of EMA on achieving a Level 1 or Level 2 qualification for young women in urban areas only.

Achievement within Levels 1 and 2: Score and number of NVQs

Young people's total scores at Level 1 and 2 were then analysed to measure the extent of their achievement *within* Levels 1 and 2 and the results are shown in the second row of each panel of Table 5.2. These suggest that EMA had increased the combined Level 1 and Level 2 scores for young women in both urban and rural areas. However, no significant effect was found for young men.

The third row of each panel of Table 5.2 shows the number of NVQ passes at both Level 1 and Level 2 across pilots and controls. For the number of Level 2 NVQ passes, there seems to have been a statistically significant increase in pilot areas relative to controls for urban young women and rural young men. However, there was no significant difference for any of the groups for Level 1 NVQ passes.

Table 5.2 The Impact of the EMA on Educational Achievement at Levels 1 and 2 by the End of Year 13

	Pilot	Control	Effect	SE
URBAN YOUNG MEN				
Achieved Level 1 or 2	0.2283	0.1758	0.0525	0.0307
Combined L1&L2 score	3.8059	2.7628	1.0431	0.8123
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1900	0.1431	0.0469	0.0430
Number of L2 NVQs	0.3194	0.2630	0.0564	0.0539
Sample size			920	
URBAN YOUNG WOMEN				
Achieved Level 1 or 2	0.2056	0.1471	0.0585	0.0283
Combined L1&L2 score	3.6060	2.1718	1.4342	0.6350
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1774	0.1111	0.0663	0.0412
Number of L2 NVQs	0.3321	0.2224	0.1097	0.0440
Sample size			989	
RURAL YOUNG MEN				
Achieved Level 1 or 2	0.1149	0.0355	0.0794	0.0935
Combined L1&L2 score	1.5307	0.6604	0.8703	1.3980
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1048	0.0123	0.0925	0.0530
Number of L2 NVQs	0.2278	0.0564	0.1714	0.0864
Sample size			316	
RURAL YOUNG WOMEN				
Achieved Level 1 or 2	0.1409	0.1411	-0.0002	0.0597
Combined L1&L2 score	3.6583	1.1066	2.5517	1.1416
Number of L1 NVQs	0.0448	0.0310	0.0138	0.0341
Number of L2 NVQs	0.2632	0.1166	0.1466	0.0791
Sample size			314	

Base: All EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

5.2.3 Year 13 achievement, Year 11 achievement and socio-economic group

Year 11 achievement

Achievement was then examined according to young people's Year 11 GCSE results in order to give some indication of whether the EMA is impacting on the achievement of young adults differently depending on their level of achievement in year 11.

Young people were classified into four groups according to their GCSE results at the end of Year 11. Group 1 includes those who achieved the highest scores at Year 11, whilst Group 3 contains the lowest achievers, and the fourth group refers to those young people whose GCSE scores were missing.⁴⁷

Tables 5.3 and 5.4 display the results of this analysis, for young men and young women respectively. It was not possible to separate individuals by whether they lived in urban or rural areas because of small sample sizes in each cell. Table 5.3 shows that EMA might have had a positive impact on the Level 3 scores of the highest achieving young men in Year 11, but there is no evidence of any impact on their number of NVQs at Level 3. In addition there is no evidence of any impact of the EMA on either the Level 3 score or the number of NVQs at Level 3 achieved by either those with middle or low prior GCSE attainment. Table 5.4 shows that for young women there is no evidence of any impact of the EMA on the Level 3 results, either in terms of Level 3 score or in terms of number of NVQs at Level 3 irrespective of the level of Year 11 achievement (with the exception of the number of NVQs for the middle GSCE group).

In terms of achievement at Levels 1 and 2, (Tables 5.5 and 5.6) the effect of EMA on the equivalised grade point score was highest for both young men and young women in the middle achieving GCSE group. There was no evidence of a positive impact on other groups, or on the number of NVQ Level 1 or Level 2 qualifications achieved, with the exception of the combined Level 1 and 2 score for young women in the top GSCE group.

⁴⁷ Groups are defined on the basis of their scores in GCSE or their vocational equivalents.

Table 5.3 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Level 3 by the End of Year 13 for Young Men, by Year 11 GCSE groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Top GCSE group				
Level 3 score	10.65	8.76	1.89	(1.25)
Number of NVQs	0.076	0.064	0.013	(0.03)
Sample size			485	
Middle GCSE group				
Level 3 score	1.78	1.65	0.14	(0.63)
Number of NVQs	0.082	0.136	-0.054	(0.05)
Sample size			378	
Lowest GCSE group				
Level 3 score	1.47	0.20	-0.06	(0.16)
Number of NVQs	0.011	0.042	-0.031	(0.03)
Sample size			306	

Base: EMA eligible young men interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.4 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Level 3 by the End of Year 13 for Young Women, by Year 11 GCSE groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Top GCSE group				
Level 3 score	11.04	11.58	-0.55	(1.03)
Number of NVQs	0.099	0.039	0.060	(0.02)
Sample size			592	
Middle GCSE group				
Level 3 score	1.72	1.84	-0.12	(0.52)
Number of NVQs	0.094	0.085	0.10	(0.04)
Sample size			453	
Lowest GCSE group				
Level 3 score	0.91	0.116	-0.03	(0.16)
Number of NVQs	0.012	0.032	-0.20	(0.34)
Sample size			244	

Base: EMA eligible young women interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.5 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Levels 1 and 2 by the End of Year 13 for Young Men, by Year 11 GCSE groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Top GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	0.192	0.116	0.076	(0.14)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.085	0.036	0.049	(0.03)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.077	0.072	0.004	(0.03)
Sample size			485	
Middle GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	6.942	3.048	3.894	(1.39)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.218	0.238	-0.019	(0.09)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.515	0.330	0.185	(0.09)
Sample size			378	
Lowest GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	4.510	6.953	-2.442	(1.92)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.252	0.231	0.021	(0.10)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.395	0.447	-0.052	(0.12)
Sample size			306	

Base: EMA eligible young men interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.6 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Levels 1 and 2 by the End of Year 13 for Young Women, by Year 11 GCSE groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Top GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	0.560	0.091	0.470	(0.24)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.073	0.025	0.048	(0.03)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.091	0.045	0.046	(0.03)
Sample size			592	
Middle GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	6.284	2.616	3.668	(1.29)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.165	0.117	0.048	(0.06)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.522	0.331	0.191	(0.10)
Sample size			453	
Lowest GCSE group				
Combined L1&L2 score	4.624	5.097	-0.473	(1.75)
Number of L1 NVQs	0.307	0.407	-0.101	(0.16)
Number of L2 NVQs	0.401	0.202	0.200	(0.15)
Sample size			244	

Base: EMA eligible young women interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Socio-economic group (SEG)

Achievement was also examined according to young people's Socio-Economic Grouping (SEG), classified into three groups using their parents' SEG. Chapter 1.2.7 contains details on how this was derived. Tables 5.7 and 5.8 show the results of this analysis, for young men and young women respectively. As with the analysis by GCSE achievement, young people have not been separated according to whether they lived in urban or rural areas because of small sample sizes.

For Level 3 grade point scores, EMA appears to have had a positive and significant effect on young men from the highest SEG. No effect of EMA on academic achievement was found among young men from SEG 2 and 3, or SEG 4 and 5. This is perhaps surprising, given that Chapter 3.1 found that it was among these lower SEG groups that EMA had the largest impact on participation in education. EMA had no significant impact on the Level 3 scores of young women from any SEG, or on the number of Level 3 NVQs achieved among young men or young women from any SEG.

Tables 5.9 and 5.10 reveal exactly the same pattern for results at Level 1 and Level 2. A significant positive impact of EMA was only found on the Level 1 and 2 scores of young men from the highest SEG.

Table 5.7 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Level 3 by the End of year 13 for Young Men, by SEG groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Group 1				
Level 3 score	8.0615	4.7396	3.3219	1.5696
Number of NVQs	0.0974	0.0601	0.0373	0.0419
Sample size		195		
Groups 2 and 3				
Level 3 score	4.3229	4.6355	-0.3125	0.7110
Number of NVQs	0.0625	0.0586	0.0039	0.0215
Sample size		576		
Groups 4 and 5				
Level 3 score	2.5441	2.5873	-0.0432	0.7204
Number of NVQs	0.0781	0.0917	-0.0136	0.0732
Sample size		397		

Base: EMA eligible young men interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.8 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Level 3 by the End of Year 13 for Young Women, by SEG groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Group 1				
Level 3 score	9.3094	9.7050	-0.3957	1.9221
Number of NVQs	0.1050	0.0643	0.0407	0.0386
Sample size		181		
Groups 2 and 3				
Level 3 score	6.025	6.8086	-0.7836	0.7899
Number of NVQs	0.1083	0.0738	0.0345	0.0275
Sample size		600		
Groups 4 and 5				
Level 3 score	3.7725	2.5452	1.2273	0.6929
Number of NVQs	0.0706	0.0408	0.0298	0.0232
Sample size		510		

Base: EMA eligible young women interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.9 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Levels 1 and 2 by the End of Year 13 for Young Men by SEG groups

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Group 1				
Combined L1&L2 score	2.8670	1.1639	1.7031	0.8802
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1333	0.0584	0.0749	0.0717
Number of L2 NVQs	0.2308	0.1329	0.0979	0.0811
Sample size		195		
Groups 2 and 3				
Combined L1&L2 score	2.8427	2.7606	0.0821	0.7351
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1719	0.1081	0.0638	0.0448
Number of L2 NVQs	0.2986	0.2666	0.0320	0.0527
Sample size		576		
Groups 4 and 5				
Combined L1&L2 score	3.9333	4.3730	-0.4397	1.4534
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1839	0.1849	-0.0010	0.0704
Number of L2 NVQs	0.330	0.2753	0.0546	0.0845
Sample size		397		

Base: EMA eligible young men interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 5.10 The Impact of EMA on Educational Achievement at Levels 1 and 2 by the End of Year 13 for Young Women, by SEG Group

	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Group 1				
Combined L1&L2 score	1.7644	1.0898	0.6746	0.9260
Number of L1 NVQs	0.0773	0.0894	-0.0120	0.0735
Number of L2 NVQs	0.1934	0.1282	0.0652	0.757
Sample size		181		
Groups 2 and 3				
Combined L1&L2 score	2.5811	1.6362	0.9490	0.6041
Number of L1 NVQs	0.0967	0.0760	0.0206	0.0391
Number of L2 NVQs	0.2583	0.2049	0.0534	0.0497
Sample size		600		
Groups 4 and 5				
Combined L1&L2 score	4.2801	30515	1.2286	0.9726
Number of L1 NVQs	0.1784	0.1392	0.0392	0.0703
Number of L2 NVQs	0.3627	0.2587	0.1040	0.0647
Sample size		510		

Base: EMA eligible young women interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.
 Note: figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

5.2 Achievement and Progression - Descriptive Analysis

This section of the report extends the analysis in the previous section to explore the extent to which young people who had spent at least one year of post-compulsory education had improved on the qualifications they had obtained at the end of Year 11. The analysis describes such improvements, first, in terms of whether young people has moved between Levels and, secondly, for those who had not advanced up the Levels, whether young people who had not advanced up the Levels had improved their qualifications within the same level at which they had achieved at the end of Year 11.

Descriptive techniques are used, since these allow analysis of the smaller sample sizes involved and attrition weights, as well as pilot weights, can be applied (see further, Chapter 1.2.4). As in all sections of this chapter, data are from Cohort 1 only and include EMA eligible young people who were interviewed at the start of years 12, 13 and 14. However, in this section data are included only for young people who had spent at least one year in post-

16 education. Achievement has been defined and measured as described in Chapters 1.2.6 and 5.1.1.

5.3.1 Highest level of post-16 achievement

This section focuses on the highest level of achievement that young people who had spent at least one year in post-16 education had obtained by the time of their interview at the start of Year 14. The analysis focuses, first, on the extent to which post-16 education had enabled young people to progress from their maximum achievement at Year 11.

The vast majority of young people who had obtained five or more A*-C GCSE passes at Year 11 (Year 11 high achievers) were likely to have progressed to at least one A or AS level qualification (Level 3); although there was no difference between the post-16 achievement rates of young people in the pilot group (78.3 per cent) and the control group (78.5 per cent). However, high achievement at Year 11 was no guarantee of post-16 progression, since just under one in five Year 11 high achievers (who had started a post-16 course) had gained no post-16 qualifications by Wave 3 (16.1 per cent in the pilot group and 17.9 per cent in the control group). Typically, this was because they had failed to finish the course, rather than through having failed their examinations. None of these differences were statistically significant.

Table 5.11 Maximum Level of Achievement during Years 12 and 13 among Young People who had Spent at Least One Year in Post-16 Education

Post-16 Achievement	Column per cent					
	Year 11 attainment (number of GCSE/equivalised GNVQ passes)					
	Low Achievers D-G		Moderate Achievers 1-4 A*-C		High Achievers 5+ A*-C	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
None	37.8	34.6	30.1	31	16.1	17.9
Level 1	14.9	16.4	5.4	5	0.9	0.7
Level 2	43.4	41.1	36.7	31.9	4.7	2.8
Level 3	3.8	7.9	27.7	32.2	78.3	78.5
N	280	156	612	359	1022	660

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who had spent at least one year in post-16 full-time education. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Note: relatively few young people who had obtained no qualifications at Year 11 entered post-16 education, these were excluded from this table.

Progression was not as apparent amongst Year 11 moderate achievers (with 1-4 A*-C passes) as it was amongst high achievers. Moderate achievers were only about half as likely as high achievers to have obtained a post-16 Level 3 qualification, with only around three in ten achieving at this level (27.7 per cent and 32.3 per cent, in the pilot and control groups, respectively). Around one-third had achieved a maximum of a Level 2 equivalent qualification (36.7 per cent in the pilot group and 31.9 per cent in the control group). A further third had failed to gain any additional qualifications by the start of Year 14. No significant differences were found between young people in the pilot and control groups.

Relatively few low achievers at Year 11 had obtained a Level 1 qualification (14.9 per cent in the pilot group and 16.4 per cent in the control group). Substantial minorities either had failed to achieve any further qualifications or had obtained a Level 2 qualification. In the pilot group, 37.8 per cent had failed to get any post-16 qualifications, as had 34.6 per cent of the control group. Over four in ten had progressed to Level 2 (43.4 per cent in the pilot group and 41.1 per cent in the control group), although few had progressed to Level 3 (3.8 per cent in the pilot group and 7.9 per cent in the control group). As with young people with better

Year 11 achievement levels, none of the differences in post-16 achievement between pilot and control groups were statistically significant.

5.3.2 Within-level progression

Analysis reporting the highest level achieved during Years 12 and 13 obscures possible achievement gains within levels that might have been made by young people since Year 11. In this section the focus is on those groups of young people who remained at the same level by the start of Year 14 as they had been at the end of Year 11. Four groups of young people were identified:

- those with D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes in Year 11 who had obtained at least one A*-C pass, or GNVQ equivalent, after Year 11⁴⁸.
- those with 1-4 A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes in Year 11 who had obtained one or more further A*-C passes, or GNVQ equivalent, after Year 11.
- young people who had started solely on D-G passes in Year 11, and who had obtained only D-G passes by the end of Year 13 (insufficient numbers for analysis).
- year 11 high achievers whose highest attainment was at A*-C GCSE/GNVQ grades (insufficient numbers for analysis).

Year 11 low achievers

On average, Year 11 low achievers who had progressed to achieving one or more post-16 A*-C qualifications by the start of Year 14 had started off with an average of just over 5.5 GCSE (or GNVQ equivalent) D-G qualifications at the end of Year 11 (Table 5.12). By the start of Year 14 they had obtained an average of almost four A*-C GCSE passes (the equivalent of a full intermediate GNVQ) and an average of almost one further D-G pass. This increase in achievement doubled the Year 11 grade point average of this group from around 19.5 to approximately 39 points. There were no significant differences between young people in the pilot and control areas in any of these results.

⁴⁸ Strictly speaking, this could be considered as ‘between level’ achievement. However, as D-G and A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes have equivalent scoring systems it was decided to treat them as ‘within level’.

Table 5.12 Progression among Year 11 Low Achievers who became Moderate Achievers Post-16 by the start of Year 14

	Mean	
	Pilot	Control
Year 11 grade point		
Mean	19.5	19.4
Standard Deviation	(6.4)	(6.4)
Overall grade point by Year 14		
Mean	38.9	39.0
Standard Deviation	(17.0)	(23.9)
Year 11 number of A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes		
Mean	0	0
Standard Deviation	(0)	(0)
Overall number of A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes by Year 14		
Mean	3.9	3.7
Standard Deviation	(2.3)	(3.3)
Year 11 number of D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes		
Mean	5.7	5.8
Standard Deviation	(1.7)	(1.7)
Overall number of D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes by Year 14		
Mean	6.5	6.6
Standard Deviation	(2.1)	(2.1)
Unweighted N	120	66

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12,13 and 14 who had spent at least one year in post-16 education, who were Year 11 low achievers and had obtained one or more A*-C grades by the start of Year 14.

Year 11 moderate achievers

Young people with between 1-4 A*-C GCSE/GNVQ results in Year 11, who had not achieved an A or AS level by the end of year 13, had started their post-16 education with an average of approximately two A*-C qualifications (Table 5.13). By the start of Year 14, they had improved by approximately 3.5 A*-C qualifications (almost equivalent to gaining a full intermediate GNVQ). This group had also finished Year 11 with an average of around 4.5 D-G GCSE/GNVQ equivalents and by the start of Year 14 had increased the number of these by an average of approximately 0.4. The Year 11 grade point start was equivalent to around three A* and one D grade, which increased to approximately five A* grades and one C grade.

There was a suggestion that young people in the pilot groups had improved their post-16 qualifications relative to their control counterparts, with overall grade points of 48.5 and 44.9, respectively. However, this difference was not statistically significant.

Overall, for this group, as with the Year 11 low achievers discussed above, there was no evidence of an EMA incentive effect, but neither was there evidence of a lowering of the overall level of achievement for any young people drawn into post-16 education by EMA.

Table 5.13 Progression among Year 11 Moderate Achievers who Remained Moderate Achievers Post-16 by the start of Year 14

	Mean	
	Pilot	Control
Year 11 grade point	27.3 (5.8)	28.3 (6.6)
Overall grade point by Year 14	48.5 (18.0)	44.9 (17.9)
Year 11 number of A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes	1.8 (1.0)	2.1 (1.2)
Overall number of A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes by Year 14	5.7 (2.6)	5.4 (2.5)
Year 11 number of D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes	4.8 (1.8)	4.4 (1.5)
Overall number of D-G GCSE/GNVQ passes by Year 14	5.3 (2.7)	4.7 (1.7)
Unweighted N	223	115

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12,13 and 14 who had spent at least one year in post-16 education, who were Year 11 moderate achievers and had obtained one or more A*-C grades by the start of Year 14.

5.3 Achievement and Education Trajectories – Descriptive Analysis

This section examines young people’s educational achievements according to their trajectories through post-16 education. These trajectories were constructed by summarising their post-16 full-time education activity over the three interviews at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14. The trajectories were created primarily by establishing the length of a spell of full-time education started at Year 12, and the young person’s main activity at the start of Year 14.

Again, achievement is examined within three of the Year 11 achievement groups described earlier in this chapter, although caution is urged with some of the results because of small sample sizes.

Data is from Cohort 1 only and includes all EMA eligible young people, not simply those who had spent at least one year in full-time education as in the previous section.

5.3.1 Post-16 Education Trajectories

Overall, 56.2 per cent of young people had spent the first two years after the end of compulsory education in full-time post-16 education and had entered one of the following destinations by the start of Year 14 (Table 5.14):

- a Higher Education institution (17.5 per cent)⁴⁹;
- a third year in a Post-16 Education institution (17 per cent);
- completed all their courses and finished full-time education (16.5 per cent);
- dropped out of one or more of their courses and left full-time education (5.2 per cent).

A further 13.7 per cent of young people had entered one year of full-time education (either at Year 12 or 13) but were no longer studying full-time by Year 14:

- completed course (3.4 per cent);
- dropped out (10.3 per cent).

⁴⁹ This was defined as a young person who stated that they had a place at a university, which they had taken up or decided to take up.

The remaining two categories were:

- other patterns of post-16 education (3.4 per cent);
- no full-time post-16 education at any point (26.6 per cent).

Table 5.14 Education Trajectories between Years 12 and 14

Column per cent

Trajectory	Pilot	Control	All
Two years of post-16 education starting at Year 12, destination at Year 14:			
Higher Education	18.7	16.3	17.5
Further education (3 rd year)	17.3	16.7	17
Completed course	16.5	16.6	16.5
Drop out	5.7	4.8	5.2
One year of post-16 education starting at Years 12 or 13, destination at Year 14:			
Completed course	4.0	2.8	3.4
Drop out	9.5	11.1	10.3
Other pattern of post-16 education	3.2	3.5	3.4
No full-time post-16 education	24.9	28.4	26.6
N (unweighted)	2690	1680	4370

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Amongst young people who had spent two years in full-time post-16 education, the only significant difference between the pilot and control groups was a higher level of entry to Higher Education institutions amongst young people in the pilot groups (18.7 per cent) compared to their control counterparts (16.3 per cent) (but see further, Chapter 6.1).

The second set of trajectories was based upon students who were in post-16 full-time education for one year (13.7 per cent) and who either had completed their course after that year (3.4 per cent) or had dropped out (10.3 per cent). It is apparent, as described in last year's report, that young people in the pilot areas were significantly more likely to have

completed a one-year course (four per cent) than were young people in the control areas (2.8 per cent). Conversely, young people in the pilot areas appeared less likely to have dropped out after one year (9.5 per cent) than young people in the control areas (11.1 per cent), although this difference is not statistically significant.

There were a number of miscellaneous other trajectories through post-16 education,⁵⁰ which had been taken by 3.4 per cent of young people. Young people in the pilot areas were as likely to have followed one of these routes as young people in the control areas.

The final trajectory was that of no participation at any time in post-16 full-time education. This route had been followed by 26.6 per cent of young people and was significantly less prevalent in the pilot group (24.9 per cent) than in the control group (28.4 per cent), reflecting the impact of EMA on increasing post-16 participation.

5.3.2 Year 11 High Achievers

EMA appears to have influenced the trajectories of different groups of young people in different ways. Young people who had achieved five or more A*- C GCSEs at Year 11 did not appear to have been encouraged to participate in post-16 education, as was shown in Chapter 3. However, Table 5.15 below suggests that they have been encouraged to participate in Higher Education (but, again, see further Chapter 6.1).

Of these Year 11 high achievers, 46.2 per cent in the pilot group had entered Higher Education (i.e. stated that they had a place at a university that they had already taken up or decided to take up) compared to 37.1 per cent of comparable young people in the control group; a statistically significant difference (Table 5.15). Conversely, more Year 11 high achievers in the control group had started a third year in a post-16 education institution (15.2 per cent) than had their counterparts in the pilot group (10.2 per cent). Finally amongst Year 11 high achievers, EMA appears to have had a positive effect on retention, with 4.2 per cent of young people in the pilot areas dropping out after two years compared with 6.4 per cent in the control areas.

⁵⁰ Often these trajectories were not defined because the young person had taken a year out in Year 12, started post-16 education at Year 13 and was still in at Year 14, so that no third year destination was yet available for them.

Table 5.15 Education Trajectories among Year 11 High Achievers between Years 12 and 14

	Column per cent	
Trajectory	Pilot	Control
Two years of post-16 education starting at Year 12, destination in Year 14:		
Entered Higher Education	46.2	37.1
Post-16 Education (3 rd year)	10.2	15.2
Completed course	22.6	24.0
Dropped out	4.2	6.4
One year of post-16 education starting at Year 12 or 13, destination in Year 14:		
Completed course	0.4	0.6
Dropped out	4.9	5.9
Other pattern of post-16 education combination	3.0	1.6
No full-time post-16 education	7.5	9.0
N (unweighted)	1166	745

Base: All EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 and had attained five or more A*-C GCSE (or GNVQ equivalents) passes in Year 11. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

It is also possible to examine the trajectories of Year 11 high achievers according to their post-16 achievements (using the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority definition).

However, small sample sizes restrict this analysis to two groups of young people:

- year 11 high achievers who had achieved one or more A/AS level by the start of Year 14.
- year 11 high achievers who had achieved no additional qualifications by the start of year 14.

A larger proportion of Year 11 high achievers who had attained Level 3 qualifications (i.e. one or more A/AS level) had entered Higher Education in the pilot areas (62.8 per cent) than in the control areas (50.5 per cent) (Table 5.16). Conversely, young people in the control areas were more likely either to have stayed on for a third year in a post-16 education institution or to have left post-16 education after completing their courses. Drop out rates for

both pilot and control young people were negligible among this group of Year 11 high achievers.

Among high achievers who had failed to achieve any additional qualifications by the start of Year 14, around one in ten stated that they had a place at a Higher Education institution. It is difficult to be sure whether these young people had actually obtained additional qualifications but the data were missing or they had failed to report them, or if they had obtained a place in a Higher Education institution on the basis of their Year 11 qualifications to study a course below degree level. The data also suggest that high achieving young people in the pilot areas were less likely to have entered a third year of post-16 education and more likely to have completed their course and left post-16 education than were those in the control areas, but these differences were not significant.

Table 5.16 Trajectories of Year 11 High Achievers by Post-16 Qualification Outcomes

	Column per cent			
	Post-16 qualifications			
	None		Level 3	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Two years post-16 Education then entered HE	7.4	10.2	62.8	50.5
Three years post-16 education	25.0	33.1	7.7	12.9
Two years post-16 education and completed course	21.3	15.7	23.7	29.0
Two years post-16 education then dropped out	10.2	10.2	3.5	6.0
Other -> Two years FE	5.6	2.4	1.7	0.9
One year FE -> completed course	0.9	0.8	0	0
One year FE -> drop out	29.6	27.6	0.6	0.7
Unweighted N	177	119	790	517

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who were Year 11 high achievers and had either obtained no post-16 qualifications or a post-16 Level 3 qualification. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Examining the attainment of Year 11 high achievers who obtained a Level 3 qualification, it appears that young people who had entered Higher Education performed best, on average, in their post-16 courses (Table 5.17). These young people averaged almost 19 grade points (approximately equivalent to 1 grade A and 1 grade B at A-level). There was no difference between the pilot and control groups in Level 3 average grade point scores. Young people who had left full-time education after completing their course within two years performed significantly less well than the group of young people who had entered Higher Education. These young people in the pilot areas had a statistically significant lower Level 3 grade point average (13.7) than their counterparts in the control areas (16.6).

In summary, EMA neither appeared to increase the number of Year 11 high achievers who achieved a Level 3 post-16 qualification nor improved their post-16 grade score. It did, however, at equivalent levels of achievement, appear to help high Year 11 achievers, into higher education. This apparent draw into higher education appears to come from young people who would otherwise have completed their post-16 education after two years.

Year 11 high achievers who had performed least well at Level 3 were those who had stayed on for a third year in post-16 education. There was a slight difference in average grade point score between the pilot and control areas (9.6 and 10.8, respectively) but, although this might support the hypothesis that better performers had been drawn into Higher Education in the pilot areas, this difference was not statistically significant.

There were too few young people who had followed other post-16 education trajectories to produce robust findings.

Finally, it is apparent that few of the Year 11 high achievers in Table 5.17 had obtained any additional qualifications below Level 3 since Year 11, as their Levels 1 & 2 average grade points by Year 14 were virtually the same as their Year 11 average grade points.

Table 5.17 Grade Point Achievement of Year 11 High Achievers at Year 11 and by the end of Year 13

Trajectory	Year 11 L1 and 2 Grade point		L1 and 2 Grade point by the start of Year 14		Level 3 Grade point	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Two years post-16 FTE – then entered HE	46.4 (9.4)	46.6 (8.6)	46.9 (9.7)	47.8 (10.4)	18.6 (10.0)	18.7 (9.9)
Unweighted N	471	260	471	260	471	260
Three years post-16 FTE	44.1 (8.3)	42.7 (9.4)	44.2 (8.4)	44.4 (9.8)	9.9 (6.2)	11.0 (8.7)
Unweighted N	69	59	69	59	68	58
Two years post-16 FTE and left FTE	43.2 (8.4)	44.0 (8.2)	43.4 (8.5)	44.6 (8.7)	13.7 (8.4)	16.6 (9.9)
Unweighted N	207	161	207	161	203	158

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 high achievers and had obtained a post-16 Level 3 qualification. The mean is given in the first row of each cell, with the standard deviation in the second row and the unweighted N in the third row. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

5.3.3 Year 11 Moderate Achievers

Amongst Year 11 moderate achievers, that is, young people who had achieved between one and four GCSE/GNVQ passes at Year 11, EMA appears to have encouraged young people to take a third year in post-16 education, 26.2 per cent in the pilot group compared to 18.2 per cent in the control group (Table 5.18).

In addition, EMA appears to have decreased the numbers of Year 11 moderate achievers who dropped out after one year in post-16 education, but this seems to have been at the expense of them dropping out after two years. In the pilot areas 9.1 per cent of young people had dropped out of post-16 education after one year, compared to 13.1 per cent of comparable young people in the control areas. In contrast, after two years in post-16 education, 8.4 per cent of moderate achievers in the pilot group had dropped out compared to 4.7 per cent in the control group. It is worth noting that ‘dropping out’ was defined by using any response given

by the respondent for leaving post-16 education other than completing their course. It does not necessarily imply that no qualifications were gained; for example, a young person might have started two or more courses and not finished one of them but taken exams in another.

There is a suggestion that EMA might have encouraged a small proportion of Year 11 moderate achievers to enter Higher Education, with 8.4 per cent of young people in the pilot areas entering Higher Education compared to 5.8 per cent of young people in the control areas; a difference that only just failed to reach statistical significance.

Table 5.18 Education Trajectories among Year 11 Moderate Achievers between Years 12 and 14

	Column per cent	
Trajectory	Pilot	Control
Two years of post-16 education starting at Year 12, destination in Year 14:		
Entered Higher Education	8.4	5.8
Post-16 Education (3 rd year)	26.2	18.2
Completed course	16.6	17.5
Dropped out	8.4	4.7
One year of post-16 education starting at Year 12 or 13, destination in Year 14:		
Completed course	5.0	4.7
Dropped out	9.1	13.1
Other pattern of post-16 education combination	3.5	6.1
No full-time post-16 education	22.8	29.9
Unweighted N	889	555

Base: All EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 moderate achievers. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

It appears that Year 11 moderate achievers who had attained a post-16 Level 3 qualification were most likely to have been encouraged by EMA to start a third year in post-16 education (Table 5.19). In the pilot areas, 31.7 per cent had entered Higher Education and 24.5 per cent had stayed on for a third year of post-16 education. In the control areas, the figures were 22.8

per cent and 18.4 per cent, respectively. Whilst neither of these differences was significant separately, when combined the difference reached significance.

In contrast, it seems that young people in the control areas were more likely to have finished their course and left post-16 education than in the pilot areas, but this difference was not statistically significant.

Year 11 moderate achievers who had improved their GCSE A*-C or Level 2 vocational qualifications were more likely to stay in post-16 education for a third year in the pilot areas (44 per cent) compared to the control areas (32.8 per cent). In part, this appeared to reflect a significantly reduced drop out rate after one year in post-16 education: 10.3 per cent in the pilot areas compared to 26.9 per cent in the control areas. There is a suggestion that, for some young people, if EMA was retaining them in post-16 education for a second year, this was a form of 'warehousing' in that drop out after two years increased (10.3 per cent in the pilot areas and 5.3 per cent in the control areas). However, this difference was not statistically significant.

Among Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained no post-16 qualifications, a small minority again stated that they had a university place for the academic year 2001-2002. As with the similar small group of Year 11 high achievers described earlier, it is difficult to be sure of the meaning of this response. However, virtually all of these young people stated that they were studying either for an ordinary or foundation degree, or other Higher Education course.

Approximately one-third of Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained no post-16 qualifications were staying on for a third year of post-16 education. However, drop out rates from post-16 education exceeded one-third. There were no differences between young people in the pilot and control areas.

Table 5.19 Trajectories of Year 11 Moderate Achievers by Post-16 Qualification Outcomes

Column per cent

	Post-16 qualifications					
	None		Level 2		Level 3	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Two years post-16 FTE then entered HE	4.0	1.5	2.2	2.2	31.7	22.8
Three years post-16 FTE	31.5	35.4	44.0	32.8	24.5	18.4
Two years post-16 FTE and completed course	20.8	16.2	16.8	18.7	33.8	41.2
Two years post-16 FTE then dropped out	16.8	12.3	10.3	5.2	5.8	3.7
Other -Two years post-16 education	6.8	7.7	3.8	3.7	0.7	3.7
One year post-16 FTE and completed course	1.3	0.8	12.5	10.4	1.4	5.1
One year post-16 FTE then dropped out	18.8	26.2	10.3	26.9	2.2	5.1
Unweighted N	183	114	223	115	183	112

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 moderate achievers, and who obtained no post-16 qualification or a post-16 qualification at Level 2 or Level 3. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Among Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained a Level 3 qualification, those who had entered Higher Education were likely to have obtained a Level 3 grade point average of between 12 and 14; approximately equivalent to one grade A and one grade D/E at A2 level (Table 5.20). Few of these young people who had entered Higher Education had improved their Level 1 and 2 grade point scores between the end of Year 11 and when they were interviewed at the start of Year 14.

Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained a post-16 Level 3 qualification but who had begun a third year of post-16 education had achieved less well at Level 3 than the moderate achievers who had entered Higher Education. The group who remained in post-16 education had an average grade point score that was approximately equivalent to one grade B at A2 Level. There were no differences between pilot and control groups. Improvements were seen in the Level 1 and 2 grade point scores, although the slightly larger increase in the pilot areas was not significant compared to the control areas.

Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained a Level 3 post-16 qualification but who had left full-time education after two years had achieved similar Level 3 average grade points to those who had stayed in post-16 education for a third year. However, in contrast, they had not improved their Year 11 Levels 1 and 2 grade point averages.

There were no significant differences in achievement between young people in the pilot and control areas for any of the above comparisons.

Table 5.20 Grade Point Achievement of Year 11 Moderate Achievers who had Obtained a Level 3 Qualification by the Start of Year 14

Trajectory	Year 11 L1 and 2 Grade point		L1 and 2 Grade point by the start of Year 14		Level 3 Grade point	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Two years post-16 FTE then entered HE	30.2 (5.7)	31.2 (6.5)	31.0 (7.4)	32.1 (7.2)	14.3 (9.4)	12.4 (6.2)
Unweighted N	52	23	552	23	52	23
Three years post-16 FTE	29.3 (7.7)	30.3 (5.0)	39.3 (14.9)	35.7 (11.3)	8.0 (5.5)	7.6 (4.9)
Unweighted N	48	23	48	23	46	21
Two years post-16 FTE completed course and left FTE	30.3 (6.5)	30.5 (5.5)	33.8 (11.8)	31.9 (7.8)	9.5 (4.0)	8.6 (5.2)
Unweighted N	66	51	66	51	66	48

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 moderate achievers, and who had obtained a Level 3 post-16 qualification. The mean is given in the first row of each cell, with the standard deviation in the second row and the unweighted N in the third row. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Turning next to Year 11 moderate achievers who had obtained a maximum of Level 2 qualification(s) in post-16 education, progression was much more notable for those who had started a third year of post-16 education compared to those who had completed their studies after two years, even though their Year 11 qualifications had been similar (Table 5.21).

At Year 11, young people who eventually started a third year in post-16 education had attained the equivalent of three A*-C and one D GCSE/GNVQ grades. By the end of Year 13 this group had increased their average grade points to the equivalent of six A*-C and one A GCSE/GNVQ grades. There was no significant difference between young people in the pilot and control areas in terms of achievement at Year 11 or by Year 13 gains.

Among Year 11 moderate achievers who had completed their course after two years, overall achievement was approximately six A*-C grades by the end of Year 13, and there were no differences between pilot and control groups.

Table 5.21 Grade Point Achievement of Year 11 Moderate Achievers who had Obtained a Level 2 Qualification by the Start of Year 14

	Year 11 L1 and 2 Grade point		L1 and 2 Grade point by start of Year 14	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Three years post-16 FTE	27.6 (5.4)	28.0 (6.5)	55.1 (15.9)	49.3 (20.0)
Unweighted N	97	41	97	41
Two years post=16 FTE completed course	26.2 (5.6)	27.0 (8.0)	37.1 (16.4)	34.6 (16.5)
Unweighted N	35	18	35	18

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 moderate achievers, and who obtained a Level 2 qualification post-16. The mean is given in the first row of each cell, with the standard deviation in the second row and the unweighted N in the third row. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

5.3.4 Year 11 Low Achievers

EMA appears to have had a comparatively large participation effect on Year 11 low achievers, that is, young people who had obtained a maximum of D-G GCSE/GNVQ grades at Year 11. Only 37.6 per cent of low achievers in the pilot group had taken no full-time post-16 courses compared to 47 per cent of their counterparts in the control group (Table 5.22).

The draw into post-16 education appears to have been into two year courses: amongst Year 11 low achievers 35.9 per cent of young people in the pilot areas had studied a two-year course, compared to 28.9 per cent of comparable young people in the control areas. Principally, it seems that the low achievers in Year 11 drawn into post-16 education by EMA were likely to have completed their course after two years and then to have left full-time education. In the pilot areas, 12.6 per cent of low achievers had left after two years compared to 6.9 per cent of young people in the control areas.

There were no other significant differences between pilot and control groups in the proportions of Year 11 low achievers who had followed other educational trajectories. However, the 7.6 per cent in the pilot group who had finished a one-year course was almost significantly different to the 4.3 per cent in the control group. With a larger sample size, it is possible that this effect might have reached significance.

Table 5.22 Education Trajectories among Year 11 Low Achievers between Years 12 and 14

	Column per cent	
Trajectory	Pilot	Control
Two years of post-16 education starting at Year 12, destination in Year 14:		
Entered Higher Education	0.2	0.6
Post-16 FTE (3 rd year)	17.9	17.7
Completed course then left FTE	12.6	6.9
Dropped out	5.2	3.7
One year of post-16 education starting at Years 12 or 13, destination in Year 14:		
Completed course then left FTE	7.6	4.3
Dropped out	15.6	17.5
Other pattern of post-16 education	3.2	2.4
No full-time post-16 education	37.6	47.0
N (unweighted)	488	304

Base: All EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 low achievers. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

EMA appears to have had some impact on the small group of Year 11 low achievers who entered post-16 education at Year 12, but who had obtained no qualifications by the start of Year 14 (Table 5.23). In particular, it appears that fewer had dropped out after two years and more had continued for a third year of post-16 education instead. In the pilot areas, 33.3 per cent of these young people reported that they had started a third year of post-16 education compared to 19.2 per cent of young people in the control areas. In contrast, 25 per cent of Year 11 low achievers in the pilot areas who had gained no post-16 qualifications reported that they had dropped out after one year compared to 50.7 per cent of their counterparts in the control areas. Although the numbers upon which these figures are based are comparatively small, these differences are statistically significant.

The trajectories of Year 11 low achievers who had improved their qualifications to Level 2 by the start of Year 14 showed that their most likely destination was a third year of post-16 education. In the pilot areas 43.3 per cent had opted to continue for another year, as had 44 per cent of the control group. There was a suggestion that drop out after one year had been higher in the pilot areas (18.2 per cent) than in the control areas (10.3 per cent), but this difference was not statistically significant. The proportions entering other destinations did not differ between pilot and control groups but it was notable that just over two per cent of these young people, in both the pilot and control group, said they had gained a place in a Higher Education institution.

Table 5.23 Trajectories of Year 11 Low Achievers by Post-16 Qualification Outcomes

	Column per cent			
	Post-16 qualifications			
	None		Level 2	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Two years post-16 FTE then entered HE	0	1.4	2.3	2.2
Three years post-16 FTE	33.3	19.2	44.3	44.0
Two years post-16 FTE completed course and left FTE	15.7	13.7	13.6	16.8
Two years post-16 FTE and dropped out	7.4	4.1	9.1	10.3
Other -> Two years FE	8.4	4.1	1.1	3.8
One year post-16 FTE completed course and left FTE	10.2	6.8	11.4	12.5
One year post-16 FTE and dropped out	25.0	50.7	18.2	10.3
Unweighted N	151	86	118	65

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 low achievers, and who had obtained either no qualifications or a Level 2 qualification post-16. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Year 11 low achievers who had obtained one or more A*-C GCSE/GNVQ grades by the start of Year 14 achieved as highly post-16 if they had finished their course after one year (either completing it or dropping out of post-16 education) as if they had decided to remain for a third year of post-16 education. In the pilot areas, young people entering a third year of post-16 education had achieved an average of 20 grade points at Year 11 and approximately doubled this by Year 13 to 39.5 grade points (Table 5.24). Comparable young people in the pilot areas, who had finished post-16 education after one year, started at Year 11 with an average of 19.9 grade points and doubled this to an average of 40.2. A similar pattern of results was observed in the control areas.

It seems possible that young people who had entered a third year of post-16 education had perhaps spent their first year improving their qualifications and were studying for a higher level post-16 qualification in the second and third years of their course.

Table 5.24 Grade Point Achievement of Year 11 Low Achievers who had Obtained a Level 2 Qualification by the start of Year 14

	Year 11 L1 and 2 Grade point		L1 and 2 Grade Point by the start of Year 14	
	Pilot	Control	Pilot	Control
Three years post-16 FTE	20.0 (6.7)	19.1 (7.1)	39.5 (15.8)	36.9 (19.9)
Unweighted N	40	25	40	25
One year post –16 FTE (completed/dropped out)	19.9 (5.3)	20.6 (5.8)	40.2 (17.7)	36.5 (18.9)
Unweighted N	36	24	36	24

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were Year 11 low achievers, and who obtained a Level 2 qualification post-16. The mean is given in the first row of each cell, with the standard deviation in the second row and the unweighted N in the third row. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

5.4 Discussion

Achievement has been explored in this chapter firstly through examining the maximum level achieved in post-16 full-time education and, secondly, through examining the numbers of post-16 qualifications and grade points of those qualifications. The focus has been on progression from the Year 11 starting point in relation to the number of A/AS levels and GCSE/GNVQ qualifications subsequently obtained.

Overall, no differences in achievement were observed between young people in the pilot and control areas. This suggests that young people encouraged into post-16 education by EMA had performed at an equal level to young people who would otherwise have entered post-16 education in the absence of EMA.

Over three-quarters of Year 11 high achievers (young people who obtained five or more GCSE/GNVQ passes) obtained at least one post-16 A/AS level pass. It was also apparent that Year 11 high achievers were more likely to have entered Higher Education in the pilot areas (46.2 per cent) than in the control areas (37.1 per cent). In fact, among Year 11 high achievers who had obtained a Level 3 qualification, 62.8 per cent had entered Higher Education in the pilot areas compared to 50.5 per cent in the control areas. This evidence is highly suggestive of an EMA effect on Year 11 high achievers of encouraging participation in Higher Education (but see further, Chapter 6.1).

It is worth contrasting this impact on Higher Education participation with the fact that no evidence was found to support an EMA participation effect for encouraging Year 11 high achievers into post-16 education. There was no evidence to suggest that these Year 11 high achievers who were encouraged into Higher Education were of lower ability than those who would have otherwise entered; both the pilot and control groups averaged grade points of just over 18.

A broad examination of other education trajectories taken by Year 11 high achievers suggests that the main draw into Higher Education overall was from young people who would otherwise have entered a third year of post-16 education. However, when focusing only on those Year 11 high achievers who had obtained a Level 3 post-16 qualification, it was apparent that the draw into Higher Education was from two routes: (i) those who would have

entered a further year of post-16 education (7.7 per cent and 12.9 per cent in the pilot and control areas respectively); and (ii) those who would have left full-time education upon completing their course after two years (23.7 per cent and 29 per cent, in the pilot and control areas, respectively).

Among those Year 11 high achievers with a Level 3 post-16 qualification who would have left full-time education without EMA, those drawn into Higher Education appeared to be those with better Level 3 qualifications. This was deduced from the finding that those Year 11 high achievers with Level 3 post-16 qualifications who did leave full-time education had a significantly lower grade point average in the pilot areas (13.7) than in the control areas (16.6). In contrast, among the Year 11 high achievers with Level 3 post-16 qualifications who did enter Higher Education, the grade point averages were approximately equivalent (18.6 in the pilot areas and 18.7 in the control areas). In other words, in the pilot areas, there was no diminution of the mean effect on those entering Higher Education, as would be expected if less able young people had entered Higher Education. Conversely, there was a diminution of the mean among young people who left full-time education after two years, as would be expected through the loss of better qualified young people.

Around 30 per cent of Year 11 moderate achievers had obtained a Level 3 qualification post-16, with a further 33 per cent who had improved their A*-C GCSE/GNVQ qualifications and about 36 per cent who had achieved nothing or only D-G equivalent results. Overall for this group, there appeared to have been an EMA participation effect of 7.1 percentage points on entry into post-16 education, and EMA had apparently also encouraged eight percentage points more young people to take a third year of post-16 education. In addition, it appears that some young people had been encouraged to continue into a second year of education but had dropped out before completing their second year.

Amongst moderate achievers with a Level 3 qualification by the end of Year 13, more young people had entered Higher Education in the pilot areas than in the control areas (31.7 per cent and 22.8 per cent, respectively), although this effect was just below statistical significance. In other words, it is possible that EMA may have had a Higher Education participation incentive effect upon these moderate achievers who had obtained a Level 3 qualification post-16. The suggestion was that they would otherwise have left full-time education for the labour market, but the pilot-control difference was not significant. There were no differences

in Level 3 grade point averages between pilot and control groups, but the range of scores was greater in the pilot group, suggesting that more people with lower grade point scores might have been encouraged to enter Higher Education in the pilot areas.

Year 11 moderate achievers who had improved their qualifications ‘within-level’ almost doubled their Year 11 grade points from averages of around 27 to about 49, i.e. adding approximately two A*-C GCSE/GNVQ grades to their achievement levels. There was also a suggestion that post-16 achievement, as measured by Level 3 grade points, was greater in the pilot areas than in the control areas, particularly amongst those who stayed on for a third year of post-16 education. However, these differences were not significant, although future analysis with a combined Cohort 1 and 2 dataset will enable a more robust test of these differences. A greater proportion in the pilot areas (44 per cent) stayed on for a third year of post-16 education than in the control areas (32.8 per cent); a difference that was just under statistical significance.

Year 11 low achievers experienced an EMA participation effect for entry into post-16 education and, typically, these young people went on to finish their course over two years, and then left full-time education. Just over four in ten Year 11 low achievers improved their achievement to Level 2 obtaining an average of nearly four A*-C GCSE/GNVQ passes. Consequently, they approximately doubled their grade points from averages of around 20 in Year 11 to about 40 by the start of year 14 of the survey. There were no differences between pilot and control groups.

5.5 Achievement Bonuses

Finally in this chapter, the possible role of the EMA achievement bonus in encouraging young people to attain the levels of achievement described earlier is explored. In addition to the EMA weekly allowance and termly retention bonuses described in Chapter 2.4, EMA recipients may receive an achievement bonus that is linked to longer-term course outcomes and was intended to act as an incentive to the achievements described in previous sections of this chapter. Young people are required to meet targets set out in their Learning Agreement relating to standards of achievement and submission of coursework. Where young people undertake two year courses, the achievement bonus is payable at the end of the two-year period; AS Levels are treated as the first year of a two-year Advanced Level course. Where

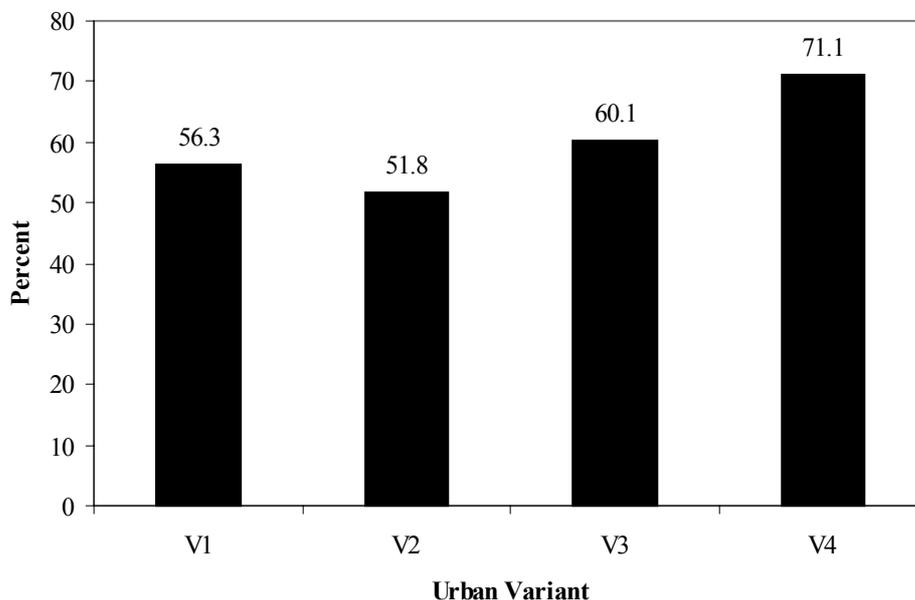
young people undertake one year courses only, the bonus is payable at the end of the year. With one exception, all EMA variants provide a £50 achievement bonus. EMA Variant 4 offers a far higher achievement bonus of £140.

This section describes qualification for and receipt of the achievement bonus. As in other parts of this chapter, the data are from interviews with young people in Cohort 1 who took part in all three interviews, at the start of years 12, 13 and 14. However, the analysis is restricted to young people in the pilot areas who had received EMA and who at the time of the Year 14 interview had already completed two years of post-sixteen education. They were therefore in a position to comment on one year or two year achievement bonus payments.

5.5.1 Qualification for an achievement bonus

Most young people who had completed two years of post-16 education and who had received EMA reported that they had qualified for an achievement bonus (58.4 per cent) with a higher proportion in urban areas (60.4 per cent) than in rural areas (44.2 per cent).

Figure 5.1 Qualification for an Achievement Bonus: Urban Variant



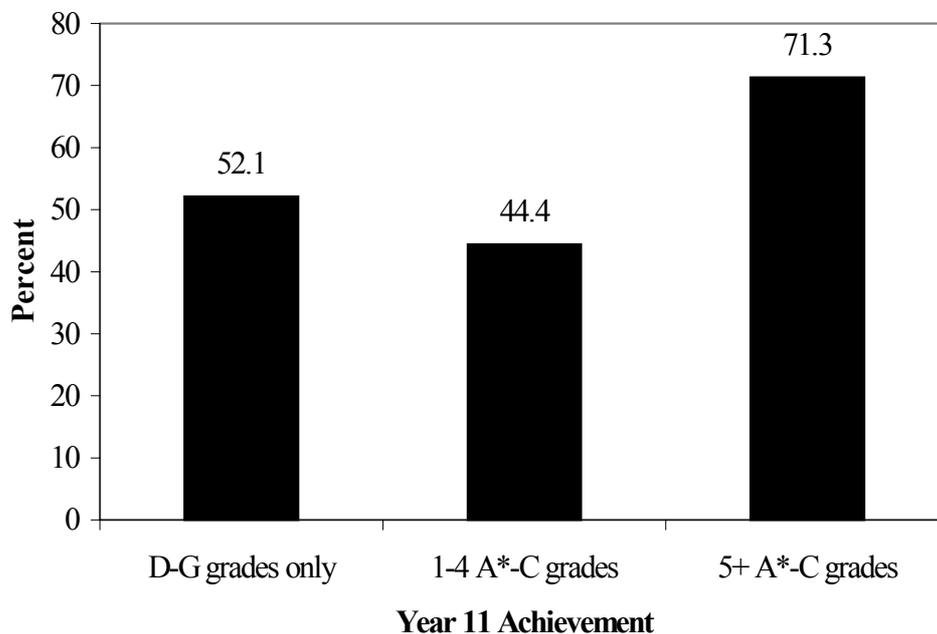
Base: Young people in urban pilot areas who had received EMA between Year 12 and the start of Year 14 and who responded to questions about achievement bonuses. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. (Unweighted N=1120).

Levels of reported qualification for the achievement bonus differed among the urban variants (Figure 5.1). Variant 2 had the lowest proportion who reported qualifying for the bonus (51.8 per cent) and Variant 4, which pays the largest achievement bonuses, the highest (71.1 per cent).

Those receiving a partial EMA award (66.4 per cent) were more likely to report that they had qualified for an achievement bonus than young people receiving a full award (54.3 per cent). It is possible that the relatively greater value of the achievement bonus compared to the level of weekly EMA payments may be providing a greater incentive for young people receiving partial EMA. However, this may also be a reflection of the trend in this report and elsewhere, for young people from higher socio-economic groups generally to achieve higher levels of educational attainment.

There was only a two percentage point difference between young men (57.4 per cent) and young women (59.3 per cent) who reported qualification for an achievement bonus.

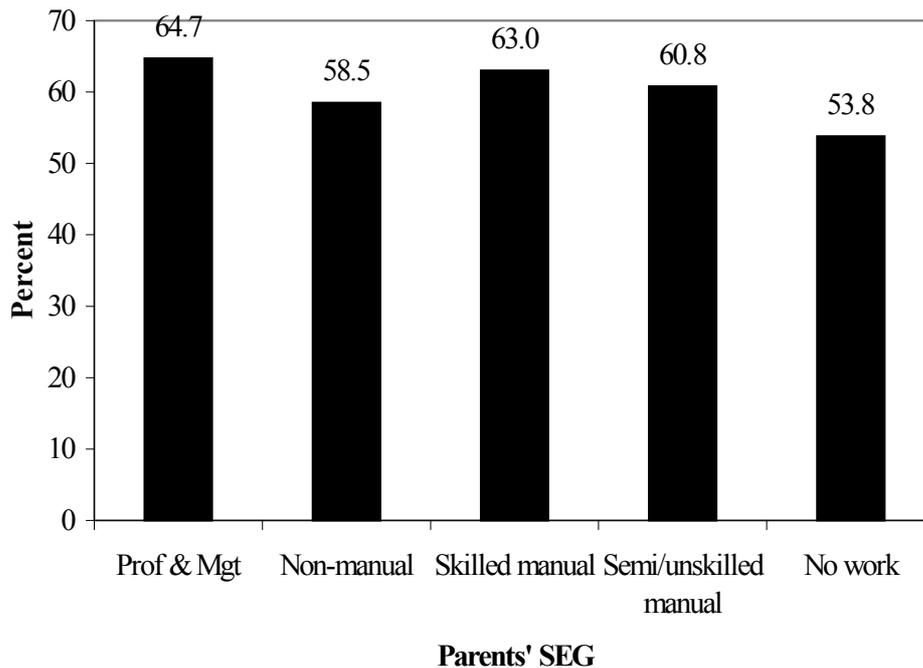
Figure 5.2 Qualification for an Achievement Bonus by Year 11 Achievement



Base: Young people in pilot areas who had received EMA between Year 12 and the start of Year 14 and who responded to questions about achievement bonuses and Year 11 achievement. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. (Unweighted N=1208)

Young people with the highest level of achievement at Year 11 (71.3 per cent) were far more likely to have qualified for an achievement bonus than young people with lower Year 11 qualifications (Figure 5.2). However, those who had achieved only D-G GCSE grades at Year 11 (52.1 per cent) were more likely to have qualified for a bonus than young people with 1-4 A*-C Grades at GCSE (44.4 per cent).

Figure 5.2 Qualification for an Achievement Bonus by Parents' SEG



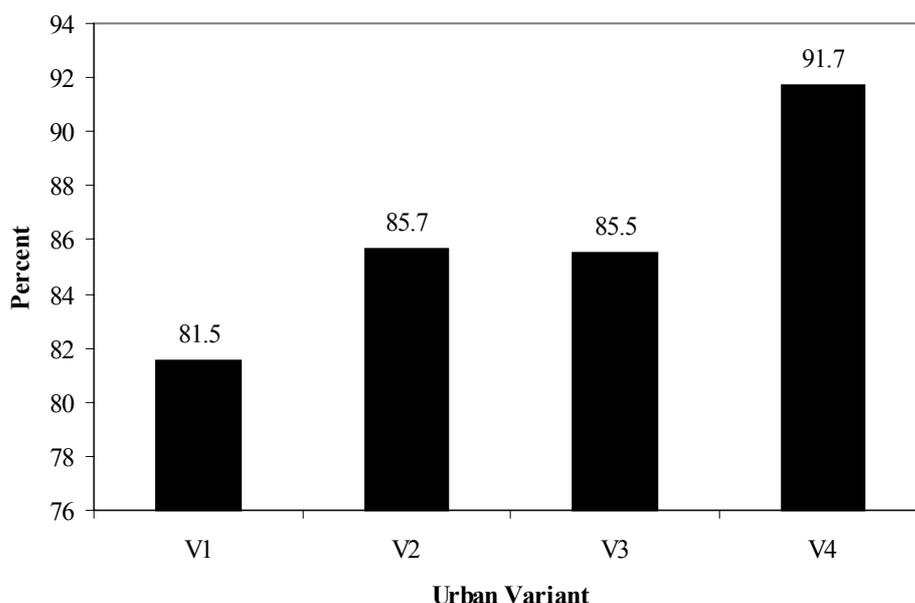
Base: Young people in pilot areas who had received EMA between Year 12 and the start of Year 14 and who responded to questions about achievement bonuses and for whom SEG data were available. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. (Unweighted N=1232)

Young people from professional and managerial backgrounds (64.7 per cent) were more likely than any other group to report that they had qualified for an achievement bonus (Figure 5.2). It will be recalled that this group also sustained their receipt of retention bonuses throughout the academic year better than other groups, despite having been more likely to experience stoppages of their weekly EMA payments (Chapter 2.4). It seems that short-term stoppages to weekly payment had not undermined medium-term or long-term outcomes for the highest socio-economic group.

5.5.2 Receipt of an achievement bonus

The majority of young people who reported qualifying for an achievement bonus, also reported that they had received it (87.1 per cent), although a higher proportion of rural recipients claimed that they had received the bonus (91.7 per cent) in comparison to urban participants (86.8 per cent).

Figure 5.3 Receipt of an Achievement Bonus by Urban Variant



Base: Young people in urban pilot areas who had received EMA between Year 12 and the start of Year 14 who reported that they had qualified for an achievement bonus. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. (Unweighted N=559).

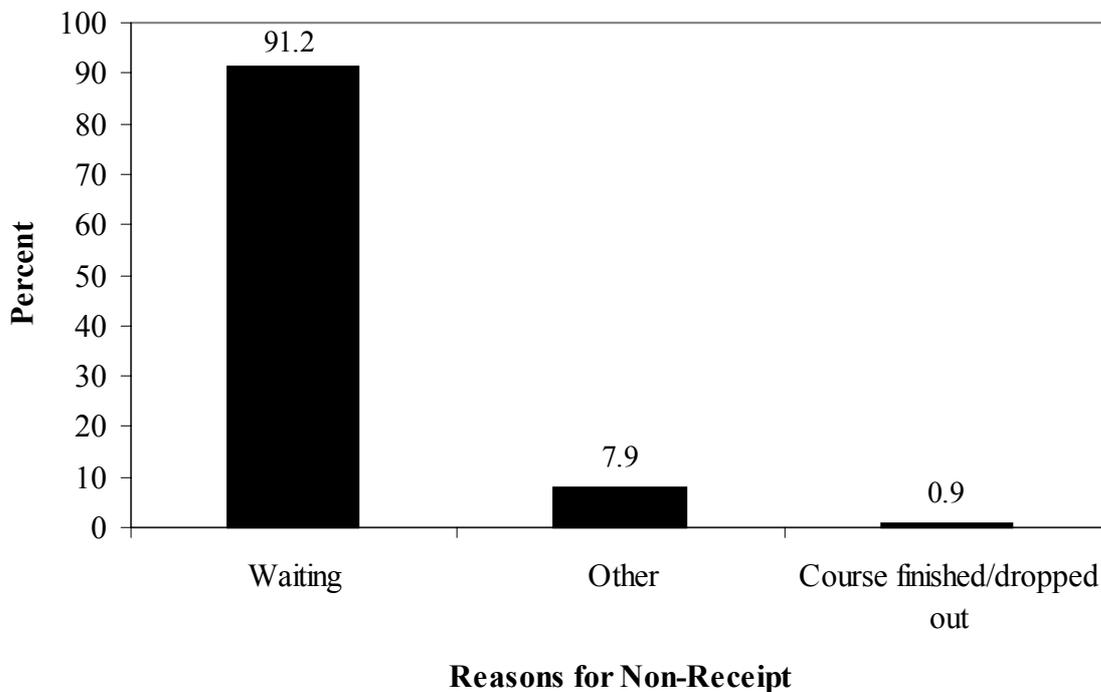
Across urban variants, those in urban Variant 1 were least likely to report receipt of the achievement bonus (81.5 per cent) and those in Variant 4 were most likely to report receipt (91.7 per cent) (Figure 5.3). Such differences are likely to relate at least partly to the way in which EMA is administered within each variant, although it may be that the timing of interviews had some bearing on this finding. Young people interviewed at the start of fieldwork (October 2001) might have been less likely to have received their achievement bonus for results achieved in the summer of 2001 than those interviewed later. This should become clearer when next year's data are available. However, it is worth questioning the extent to which a bonus received at least three months after course completion might be seen as an incentive by young people. Evidence from the implementation evaluation suggests that

for some young people at least, the reason for the arrival of the achievement bonus was a mystery (Maguire et al., 2002).

5.5.3 Reason for non-receipt of an achievement bonus

Non-receipt of achievement bonuses was explored amongst the small number of young people who qualified for such a bonus but had not yet received it (Figure 5.4). Non-receipt was largely attributed to administrative delay, with approximately 91 per cent of young people who had qualified for an achievement bonus but not yet received it, reporting that they were waiting for the bonus to arrive. As mentioned earlier, however, the length of time for which young people had been waiting will vary according to the date of interview.

Figure 5.4 Reasons for Non-Receipt of an Achievement Bonus



Base: Young people in pilot areas who had received EMA between Year 12 and the start of Year 14 who reported that they had qualified for an achievement bonus but had not yet received it. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. (Unweighted N=80).

5.6 Conclusion

In general, EMA appears not to have improved the achievement levels of young people in post-16 education. Descriptive analysis suggests, however, that EMA has increased participation in Higher Education (although this is not apparent using the propensity score

matching technique, as will be shown in Chapter 6.1). This increase has occurred primarily through encouraging participation in Higher Education among more young people who had been both high achievers at Year 11 and who had achieved a Level 3 post-16 qualification by the start of Year 14. These Year 11 high achieving young people drawn into Higher Education appear mostly to be those whose post-16 Level 3 achievement (grade point scores) was equivalent to that of comparable young people destined for Higher Education irrespective of EMA. They appear principally to have been drawn from young people who, without EMA, would otherwise have left full-time education after completing their course within two years, and from those who might otherwise have been expected to take a third year in post-16 education.

EMA might have had a similar Higher Education participation effect on young people who were moderate achievers in Year 11 but who had also obtained a Level 3 post-16 qualification by the start of Year 14. However, with the small sample sizes available, this effect was not statistically significant.

6 ENTRY INTO HIGHER EDUCATION

SUMMARY

- Among the eligible population, it seems that more young men in the pilot areas than in the control areas had a higher education place, although this could not be confirmed at this stage by propensity score matching techniques.
- Young people who had been ineligible for EMA were more likely than those who had been eligible for EMA to have a place on an honours degree course.
- Young people who had been ineligible for EMA were more likely than those who had been eligible for EMA to have a place at an old university.
- While reasons associated with particular courses and universities were the most commonly cited reasons for choice of university for all groups, financial reasons were more important to young people who had received EMA than those with no history of receipt.
- Young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt were more likely to live with their parents during term-time than other groups.
- Student loan take up was high for all groups, but those who had been in continuous EMA receipt had the highest take-up rate.
- Only half of young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt received help with living costs from their parents.
- A high proportion of young people had, or intended to have, a job in their first year of higher education. Young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt were most likely to say that they could not afford to study otherwise and worked longest hours.
- As expected, those who had been eligible for EMA were more likely to receive LEA support with their tuition fees than those who had been ineligible. However, the amount of non-receipt in this group was higher than expected.

6.1 Introduction

The Government is committed to encouraging 50 per cent of young people under the age of 30 to progress to higher education by 2010. In order to achieve this aim, access to higher education will need to be extended among currently under-represented groups, particularly those from lower income and socio-economic backgrounds. While the proportion of young people entering higher education from the lowest socio-economic group has more than doubled since 1991/2, participation rates of all other socio-economic groups have also increased (NAO, 2002). As a result, young people from a professional background are still four times more likely to enter university than young people from a working class background (DfES, 2002).

In September 2001 the Government launched a three year programme, Excellence Challenge, to increase the number of young people from poorer backgrounds who apply for and enter university. This includes awareness activities in schools and colleges in disadvantaged areas, and funding for higher education institutions to reach out to young people from disadvantaged backgrounds. The 'Aim Higher' campaign seeks to provide clearer information on routes into higher education, and individual financial support is provided through Opportunity bursaries for young people from low income backgrounds with no or little family experience of higher education.

EMA might also play an important role in realising government participation targets, if increased participation in post-16 education by low income groups were to translate into increased participation in higher education.

Using data from the third wave of interviews with young people in the first cohort eligible for EMA (those who completed compulsory education in Summer 1999), this chapter focuses on those young people who have entered higher education following two years of post-16 education. Section 6.2 describes the impact of EMA on higher education entry using propensity score matching techniques. The remainder of the chapter employs descriptive analysis to explore the characteristics of young people entering higher education and the background to and context of this decision. Section 6.3 examines the numbers and socio-demographic characteristics of those who entered higher education and the reasons why some young people decided to defer entering higher education for a year. Section 6.4 describes

young people's choice of course and higher education provider and Section 6.5 considers the educational route taken into higher education in the light of Year 11 and post-16 qualifications achieved. Finally, Section 6.6 explores the financial arrangements young people entering higher education had in place, including choosing to live at home, living cost support, paid part-time work and tuition fee support.

6.1.1 Entry into 'higher education'

This chapter may under-report the numbers of young people entering or intending to enter higher education in the academic year 2001-2002 and subsequently for two reasons. First, in the third wave of interviews participants were asked if they had a place at university for the academic year 2001-2002. Focusing on those who had a university place may exclude some young people who are studying for a higher education qualification at a different type of higher education institution, such as a further education college⁵¹. However, some young people studying a higher education course at other types of higher education institutions did answer the Higher Education section of the questionnaire. Therefore, for convenience this chapter refers mainly to entry into higher education in the academic year 2001-2002, although this potential under-reporting should be borne in mind.

Secondly, some young people may need three years in post-compulsory education to achieve the qualifications necessary to enter higher education, or may defer entry. Young people reporting that they intend to enter higher education in the next academic year (2002-2003) are considered in Section 6.3.2. Interviews that will be undertaken with young people at the start of academic year 2002-2003 will allow an examination of actual patterns of entry among this group.

⁵¹ This question has been amended for the next wave of interviews so that young people will be asked if they have a higher education place, rather than a university place.

6.1.2 Data considerations – descriptive analysis

Focus of the Analysis

The description of young people entering higher education in Section 6.3.1 focuses on EMA eligible young people in the pilot and control areas and provides some additional detail of the characteristics of young people entering higher education to the results of the propensity score matching in Section 6.2.

Remaining sections of the chapter focus on young people in the pilot areas, making comparisons mainly between those who received EMA throughout their period in further education, those who received EMA for part of that period, those who were estimated to be eligible on income grounds but who did not receive EMA at all, and those ineligible for EMA. This division is useful in two ways: first, it allows us to compare the experiences of those who received EMA with those who did not. Differences in these experiences cannot necessarily be ascribed to EMA receipt but may provide some useful indications of if and how EMA is affecting young people's decisions in the longer term.

Secondly, since information about family income was only collected at the first wave of interviews continuous receipt of EMA provides a useful proxy indicator of a young person who has had a relatively low family income throughout the period since finishing compulsory education and ineligibility suggests a relatively high family income, at least at the time of the initial interview with parents⁵².

6.2 Impact of EMA on HE entry decisions: Propensity Score Matching

The information collected from the Year 14 interviews with the first cohort of EMA eligible young people allows an analysis of both young people who entered university in autumn 2001 and those who had a place at university for the following academic year. The proportions for matched individuals in each of these two categories, are shown in Table 6.1 by gender and whether the young person lived in an urban or rural pilot area. The results show that the proportions of young people who had entered, or were planning to enter, higher education were not significantly different between the pilot and control areas. However, there is some indication that EMA might have increased participation among young men who

⁵² See Annex B for a further description of this variable.

had already entered higher education, although the results do not reach statistical significance. As with the propensity score matching results for achievement in the previous chapter, the full picture will be clearer when data are available from the Year 14 interviews with the second cohort of EMA eligible young people. This should considerably enhance the precision of the estimates.

Table 6.1 Impact of EMA on University Participation

				Per cent
	Matched sample			
	Pilot	Control	Effect	S.E.
Urban Young Men				
Currently in university	21.2	15.8	5.3	(3.0)
Currently or will start university	22.5	19.0	3.5	(3.2)
Sample size	920			
Urban Young Women				
Currently in university	23.1	23.1	0.0	(3.1)
Currently or will start university	25.1	25.1	0.0	3.1
Sample size	989			
Rural Young Men				
Currently in university	22.5	15.3	7.3	(8.0)
Currently or will start university	26.3	15.4	10.9	(8.0)
Sample size	316			
Rural Young Women				
Currently in university	27.1	38.4	-11.3	(9.8)
Currently or will start university	30.6	39.1	-8.6	(9.7)
Sample size	314			

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas who had entered or intended to enter Higher Education. Year 14 interviews. Cohort 1 only. Pilot weights.

6.3 Entry into Higher education– Descriptive Analysis

This section examines entry into higher education two years after the end of compulsory education (academic year 2001-2002), focusing first on characteristics of entrants that could

not be considered using Propensity Score Matching techniques because of small sample sizes (Section 6.3.1). The analysis then considers young people who said that they intended to enter higher education in the academic year 2002 – 2003 and their intended activities in the intervening year (Section 6.3.2).

6.3.1 Higher education entry in academic year 2001-2002

Some 1600 young people⁵³ had a higher education place for the current academic year, of whom all but eight (0.1 per cent) were or would be studying full-time.

Ethnicity

When the population was divided simply into white and other ethnic groups, it seems that whilst white young people in the pilot areas (19.1 per cent) were more likely to have a higher education place than those in the control areas (16.5 per cent), the situation was reversed for non-white young people; those in the pilot areas were **less** likely to have a higher education place (23.9 per cent) than those in the control areas (25.2 per cent) (Table 6.2). Although the numbers of young people in each of the categories of non-white ethnicity were too small to allow a detailed comparison between the pilot and control areas, it seems that a very large under-representation of black and ‘other’ young people with a higher education place in the pilot areas was largely responsible for these differences (figures not shown). The availability of data from the second cohort of EMA eligible young people should allow a more detailed analysis in next year’s report.

⁵³ This is 24 per cent of young people who were interviewed in all three waves and answered this question (N=5891).

Table 6.2 Young people with a Higher Education Place: Ethnicity

Cell per cent

	Pilot	Unweighted N	Control	Unweighted N
White	19.1	2465	16.5	1558
Other	23.9	225	25.2	119

Base: EMA-eligible young people in pilot and control areas for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Socio-economic group

In line with national figures, young people from higher socio-economic groups were more likely to have a higher education place than those from lower socio-economic groups⁵⁴ (Table 6.3). Young people in the pilot areas in SEG III-V appear to have been more likely to enter higher education than those in the control areas. There was no difference between the pilot and control areas for SEG I/II and, surprisingly, those likely to have been eligible for full EMA, that is young people in the pilot areas with no parent working, were less likely to have a place than their counterparts in control areas.

Table 6.3 Young people with a Higher Education Place: Socio-Economic Group

Cell per cent

Household SEG	Pilot	Unweighted N	Control	Unweighted N
Professional/Managerial I/II	34.4	450	34.1	324
Other Non-Manual III (nm)	27.5	752	20.8	495
Skilled Manual III (m)	20.6	503	15.2	313
Unskilled and Semi-Skilled Manual IV/V	19.2	422	10.5	249
Not in work	9.3	538	11.3	270

Base: EMA-eligible young people in pilot and control areas for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

6.3.2 Deferring entry into higher education

Deferring entry into higher education, or taking a ‘gap year’ between post-16 and higher education has become increasingly popular among young people in recent years. Reasons for

⁵⁴ See Chapter 1.2.7 for a description of the construction of SEGs.

deferment given on University Central Admissions Service (UCAS) application forms suggest that many young people use the time to travel or earn money to help pay for their studies. In 2001, 7.8 per cent (28,195) of all higher education applicants applied for deferred entry in 2002 (UCAS, personal communication, 2002).

In addition to those with a higher education place for the academic year 2001-2002, 14.9 per cent of young people in the pilot areas intended to enter higher education in the near future. Two per cent of young people had accepted a higher education place for the next academic year (2002-2003), and 10 per cent were planning to apply or reapply next year. A small proportion (2.9 per cent) were awaiting a decision on their application or were planning to apply or reapply for the current year. It will be possible to examine these patterns of entry in greater detail when data from the fourth wave of interviews (Year 15) are available.

Those intending to start university in the next academic year were asked their reasons for delaying entry and what they would be doing in the meantime. There may be important differences between the three groups of young people asked these questions. The first group was made up of young people who had accepted a place for the next academic year, the traditional 'gap-year' student. The second group were those who had not applied for university in the current year but who intended to apply for the next academic year. As well as those who had also opted for a gap year, this group may have included young people who were not ready to enter university, i.e. they required three years in post-16 education to gain the necessary qualifications. The third group were those who applied for university in the current year, but had not been offered or had not accepted a place. This group may have included some young people who opted for a gap year, but also those who needed to improve their qualifications to gain a place of their choice in higher education.

The largest group of young people were those who had not applied for a higher education place for the academic year 2001-2002 but intended to apply for 2002-2003 (Table 6.4). Those who had been in continuous receipt of EMA throughout their two years in further education (15.7 per cent) were less likely than EMA ineligible young people (23.9 per cent) to be taking a genuine gap year – that is, they had accepted a University place for the next academic year. However, the other group of EMA eligible young people – those who had received EMA at some point or had not received EMA at all- was the least likely to be taking

a gap year (13.2 per cent)⁵⁵. The continuous receipt group was more likely than the other two groups neither to have been offered nor accepted a place and to intend to reapply, presumably because their qualifications were not adequate to secure a place or the place of their choice.

Table 6.4 Taking a ‘Gap Year’ and University Intentions

Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	Other EMA eligible	Pilot Ineligible
Accepted University place for next year	(15.7)	(13.2)	23.9
Not applied – intends to apply next year	72.6	80.8	67.6
Not offered/accepted a place – intends to reapply	(11.8)	(6.1)	(8.5)
Unweighted N	175	178	123

Base: 476 young people in pilot areas who had a higher education place for the next academic year (2002-2003) or who intended to apply or reapply for next year for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

The main intended activities of the different groups tell a similar story (Table 6.5). Those who had a history of EMA receipt were more likely than those never in receipt to be spending their year in education. Analysis of the reasons for deferring entry reveal that more than two fifths of those who had been in continuous EMA receipt throughout their time in further education (44.1 per cent) and other EMA-eligible young people (47.9 per cent), compared with only 29.1 per cent of those ineligible for EMA were completing or retaking courses (figures not shown). Those ineligible for EMA were much more likely than the other groups to be going on holiday or travelling. The pattern for intending to take paid employment during the gap year is not so clear, although those who had received EMA were less likely than those who had not received EMA to say that they intended to spend the year working.

⁵⁵ These groups have been combined because of small numbers.

Table 6.5 Main Intended Activity of Young People Deferring Entry to Higher Education

Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
Education	61.4	66.6	44.0	39.5
Work	34.5	(29.7)	46.8	45.8
Holiday/Travelling/Other	(4.1)			(14.7)
Unweighted N	173	83	95	119

Base: 470 Young People in pilot areas who had a higher education place for the next year (2002-2003) or who intended to apply or reapply for next year for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

6.4 Higher Education Courses and Institutions

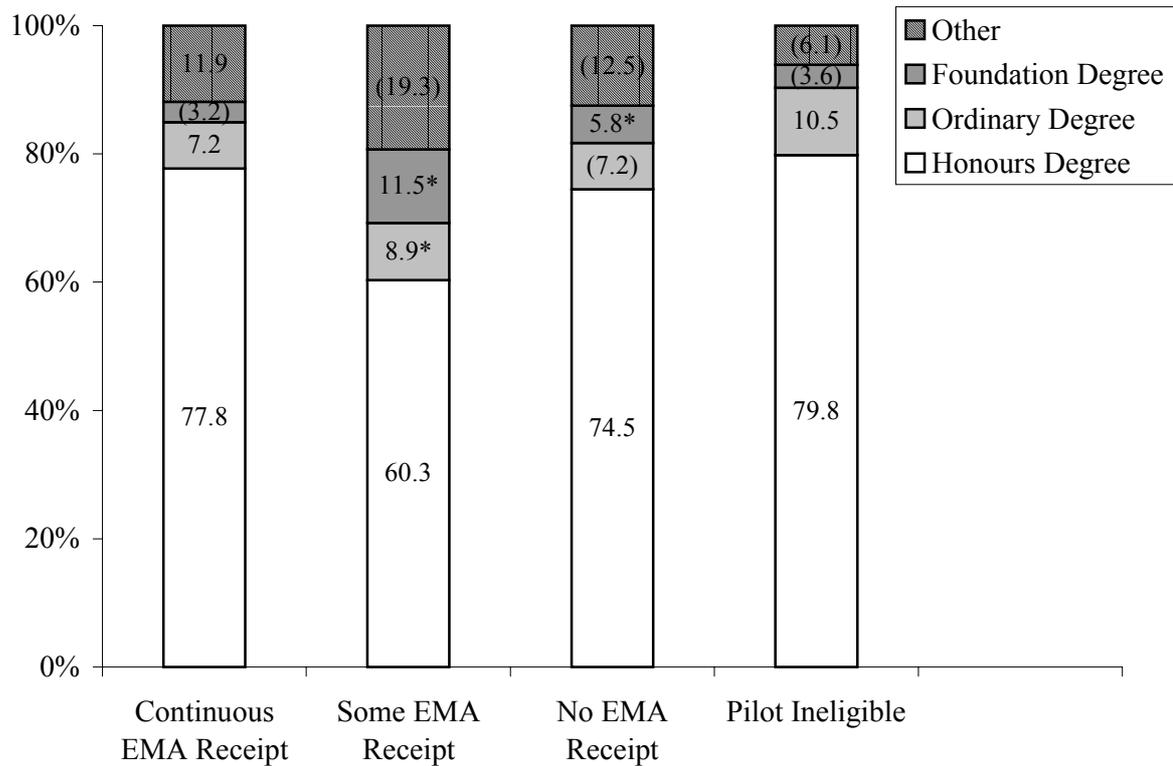
6.4.1 Courses

The vast majority of young people entering higher education in the academic year 2001-2002 from the pilot areas were starting an honours degree course (76.7 per cent), 8.7 per cent were starting an ordinary degree course, 4.3 per cent were starting a foundation degree course and 10 per cent were starting another type of course⁵⁶.

⁵⁶ It is possible some young people on other higher education courses are underrepresented here because, as mentioned earlier, the initial question in the Higher Education section of the questionnaire asked if they had a university place rather than if they had a higher education place.

Figure 6.1 Type of Course in Higher Education

Base: 1004 Young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information



available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

More EMA ineligible young people than those eligible for EMA had a place on an honours degree course. They were also more likely to have a place on an ordinary degree course, and correspondingly were less likely than other groups to have a foundation degree or another course place. Although the number of cases is too small to be reliable, it appears that those who had been in EMA receipt at some point are more likely than the other groups to have a place on a foundation degree course or on another type of course, which require lower entry qualifications. As the next section will show, this group achieved the lowest average grade point score in further education.

6.4.2 Choice of higher education institution

Young people who were attending or intended to start university in 2001-2002 were asked which university they were/would be attending. These institutions were categorised into five groups:

- ‘old’ universities, established prior to 1992;
- ‘new’ universities, those given university status in 1992 or later;
- higher education institutions;
- further education institutions; and,
- specialist institution, such as art, drama, music or agricultural colleges.

EMA-ineligible young people were more likely than all groups of EMA eligible young people to have a place at an ‘old’ university (Table 6.6). Almost half of EMA ineligible young people had a place at an ‘old’ university (49.8 per cent), compared with less than two-fifths of those who had received EMA continuously (38.8 per cent) or at some point (38.4 per cent). Ineligible young people were generally less likely to attend each other type of Higher education institution than the other groups.

Table 6.6 Type of Higher Education Provider Entered/Will Enter 01-02
Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	Receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
Old university	38.8	38.4	40.4	49.8
New university	42.7	34.1	43.0	37.6
HE institution	8.8	12.4*	(8.5)	(6.2)
FE institution	7.6	(11.7)	5.0*	(3.9)
Specialist institution	(2.1)	3.4*	3.1*	2.5*
Unweighted N	374	91	150	370

Base: 985 Young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

Young people with a university place for the current academic year were asked their reasons for opting for their first choice of higher education provider (Table 6.7). Being able to do a particular course was the most cited reason for all groups, although slightly more eligible than ineligible young people gave this as a reason. The reputation of the university was the second most popular reason, but was less important for those who had received EMA.

Those who had been in continuous EMA receipt throughout their time in further education were far more likely than the other three groups to stress being able to live at home; 31.3 per cent gave this as a major reason compared with 21.4 per cent of EMA ineligible young people. Those who were in continuous EMA receipt were also more than twice as likely to cite the cost of living for students as a major reason for their choice (25.3 per cent) and more than three times more likely to mention the availability of grants, bursaries and other financial awards (26.1 per cent) than were ineligible young people (11.1 per cent and 8.4 per cent respectively).

Table 6.7 Major Reasons for First Choice of HE Provider

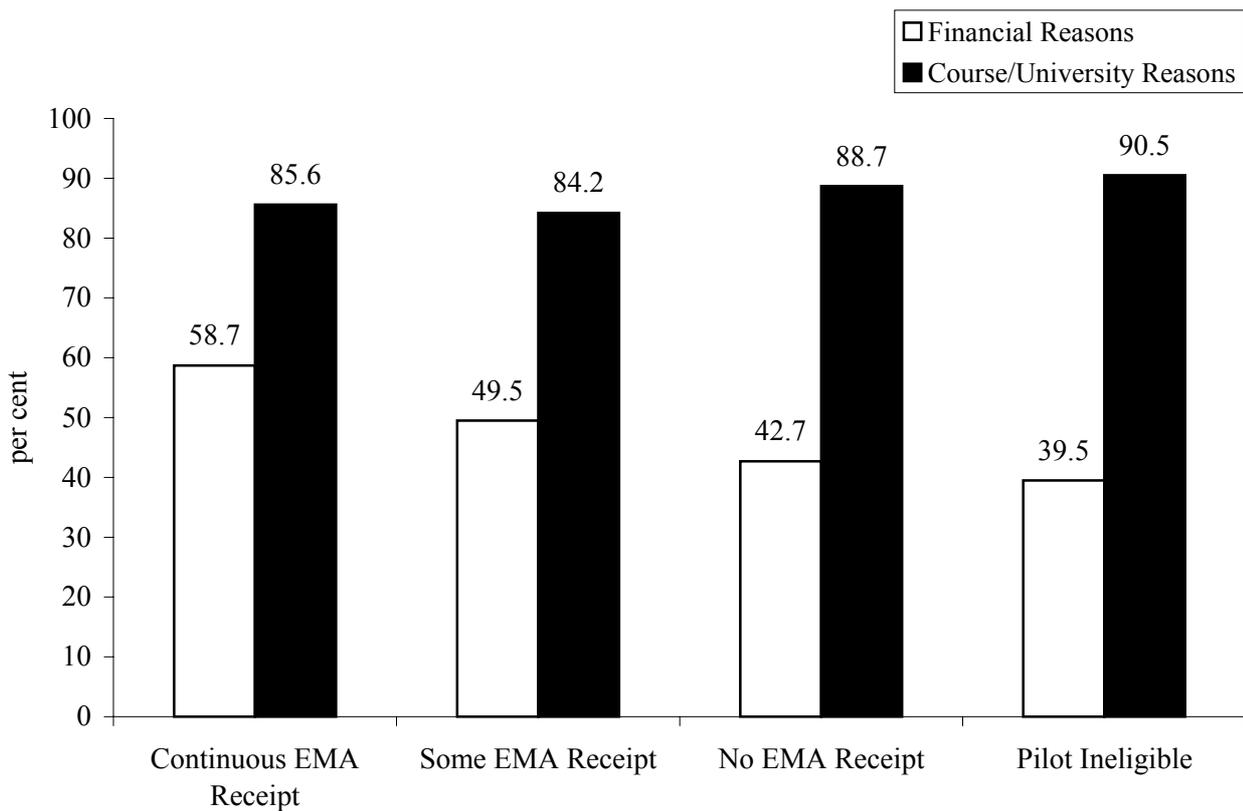
	Cell per cent			
	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
Able to live at home	31.3	(18.4)	19.2	21.4
Cost of living for students	25.3	(22.6)	(16.2)	11.1
Able to do a particular course	77.2	77.5	77.0	74.0
Reputation of the university	50.0	48.9	62.8	60.5
Able to fit study around other things	17.8	(15.9)	18.9	15.6
Availability of grants, bursaries, other grants	26.1	(28.0)	19.8	8.4
Able to change courses/take a variety of courses	9.0	(13.2)	(6.3)	10.2
Unweighted N (for each cell)	382	92	153	379

Base: 1006 young people from the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

Collapsing these reasons for first choice of educational provider into two categories, financial reasons and course/university related reasons, shows clearly that the vast majority of young people gave at least one course-related reason but that those with no history of EMA were more likely to do so (Figure 6.2). Financial reasons were more important to those who had received EMA, particularly those who had received it throughout post-16 education, than those with no history of receipt or who were ineligible.

Figure 6.2 Financial and Other Reasons for First Choice of HE Institution



Base: 1006 young people in pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 who gave reasons for their choice of institution and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

6.5 Routes into Higher Education

The majority of young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place for the current academic year had taken what might be regarded as the conventional academic route into higher education; 89.3 per cent had studied either A-levels and/or AS levels for two years, 10.7 per cent of young people had taken vocational courses (GNVQs and/or NVQs) (Table 6.8).

EMA ineligible young people were most likely to have followed the conventional academic route (92 per cent) and least likely to have taken a vocational course (eight per cent). Of those with continuous EMA receipt, 83.8 per cent took an academic course and 16.2 per cent took a vocational course.

Table 6.8 Route into Higher Education

	Column per cent			
	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
Academic*	83.8	87.0	83.8	92.0
Vocational	16.2	(13.0)	(16.2)	(8.0)
Unweighted N	353	82	145	361

Base: 941 young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

*Includes two young people who were studying both academic and vocational courses.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

6.5.1 Achievement prior to entering higher education

The decision to enter higher education and the choice of institution and course will inevitably be constrained by prior levels of educational achievement. This section considers, first, achievement at the end of compulsory education (Year 11) among young people who entered higher education from the pilot areas and, secondly, achievement two years after the end of compulsory education (at the end of Year 13).

Achievement at Year 11

EMA eligible young people in the pilot areas who entered higher education had significantly lower levels of achievement at the end of Year 11 than ineligible young people (Table 6.9). Only around four-fifths of those who had received EMA had achieved five or more A* -C GCSE Grades at Year 11 or their vocational equivalents, compared with 95.2 per cent of EMA ineligible young people.

Table 6.9 Year 11 Achievement for Young People Entering HE⁵⁷ Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
D-G only	0	2.3*	0	0.4*
1-4 A*-C	17.1	(16.7)	(10.9)	(4.4)
5+A*-C	82.9	81.1	89.1	95.2
Unweighted N	381	91	152	378

Base: 1002 young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

Achievement at Year 13

Both the number of passes at Level 3 (A, AS Level or GNVQ) and the grades achieved are important in terms of entry into Higher education because institutions usually require a particular combination of grades or a total number of grade points which vary among courses and institutions according to demand. In general, the old universities require more passes at higher grade points than the new universities and other HE institutions.

It seems that two years in post-16 education had failed to narrow the achievement gap between EMA ineligible and eligible young people. Those young people who had been in continuous receipt of EMA were far less likely to have achieved four or more A and AS Level passes (26.6 per cent) than other groups of young people, particularly the EMA ineligible group (42.2 per cent) (Table 6.10). The continuous EMA receipt group were

⁵⁷ Details of the calculation of grade point scores can be found in Section 1.2.6.

correspondingly far more likely to have achieved fewer than three passes (28.1 per cent) compared with the ineligible group (18.7 per cent). It should be noted that the group who received EMA at some point during their two years in post-16 education were the most likely to have achieved fewer than three passes (31.5 per cent). However, as noted previously, numbers in this group were small.

Table 6.10 Number of A and AS Level Passes among Young People Entering HE⁵⁸
Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
Fewer than 3 passes	28.1	(31.5)	27.9	18.7
3 and 3.5 passes	45.3	(35.2)	41.5	39.1
4 plus passes	26.6	(33.3)	30.6	42.2
Unweighted N	305	64	121	341

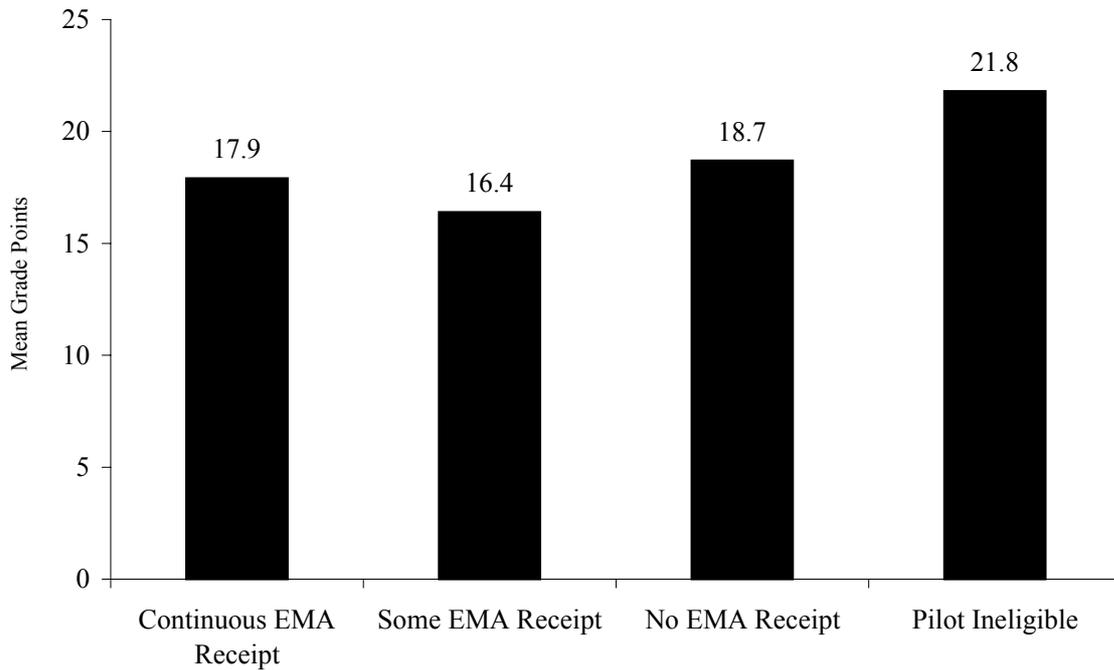
Base: 831 young people in pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.
() Under 30 unweighted cases.

A, AS level and GNVQ qualifications are graded and each grade has a number of points attached to it (see Chapter 1.2.6). It is possible, therefore, that young people who achieved fewer Level 3 passes potentially could have as many or more grade points if their passes were at a higher grade than those who achieved more passes.

However, in addition to the lower number of passes achieved, young people who had received EMA also achieved fewer grade points on average than either those who were ineligible for EMA or those eligible who had not received it (Figure 6.3). Again, those who had received EMA at some point achieved a lower grade point average (16.4) than those who had been in continuous receipt of EMA (17.9) and those who were ineligible for EMA achieved the highest (21.8).

⁵⁸ There are no equivalent scales for A/AS level and Advanced GNVQ passes so GNVQ data is not represented. An A level is counted as one pass and a A/S level as half a pass.

Figure 6.3 Grade Points Achieved from Level Three Qualifications (A levels, AS level and GNVQs)



Base: 898 young people from pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

As Table 6.11 shows, among those achieving 25 or more points, those with continuous EMA receipt throughout their post-16 education were still less likely to enter an old university (77.9 per cent) than those in other eligible groups (89.1 per cent) and those who were ineligible for EMA (86.6 per cent).

Table 6.11 Type of Higher Education Institution: Year 13 Achievement and EMA Eligibility/Receipt

EMA receipt:	Grade point	Old university	New university	HE/FE institution
Continuous receipt	0-14	(20.6)	61.1	(18.3)
	15-24	44.7	41.6	(13.7)
	25 plus	77.9	(13.2)	8.8*
Unweighted N		130	141	57
Other EMA eligibles	0-14	(21.4)	62.3	(16.4)
	15-24	(39.6)	44.0	(16.5)
	25 plus	89.1	3.1*	7.8*
Unweighted N		81	78	31
Pilot Ineligible	0-14	(18.6)	69.5	(11.9)
	15-24	36.6	47.9	(15.5)
	25 plus	86.6	(7.7)	5.6*
Unweighted N	N	179	119	41

Base: 858 young people in pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

6.6 Financial Arrangements for Higher Education

This section examines the financial arrangements that young people had in place to support themselves when entering higher education. First, young people's choices of whether or not to live at home are described (Section 6.6.1), followed by the range of sources of financial support towards living costs which young people had; student loans, parental contributions, other sources of funds and paid work (Sections 6.6.2-6.6.5). Next, the packages of support young people had arranged from these sources are examined (Section 6.6.6). Finally, the support young people had received or expected to receive towards their tuition fees is examined (Section 6.6.7).

These issues are of particular policy interest at the time of writing as the Government's recently published the white paper on the future of higher education (DfES 2003). This announced that from 2006, universities will be able to set their own rates for graduate contributions to tuition fees at between £0 and £3000 a year, payable when the graduate is earning. Universities who wish to increase their fees beyond the current standard fee will

have to have an Access Agreement committing them to action to increase the take up of places by disadvantaged groups. The introduction of a Higher Education Grant of up to £1000 a year for full-time students from households on low incomes was also announced. This section highlights differences in financial support currently available to young people, in particular parental contributions and the need to undertake part-time work.

6.6.1 Accommodation

Accommodation costs are an important part of the financial burden of attending university, particularly if the young person chooses to move away from home and, as indicated in Section 6.4.2, this may influence choices of higher education institution.

Young people with a university place for the current academic year were asked whether they were living or would live at home during term time (Table 6.12). In the pilot areas living with parents was the second most common accommodation option (38.3 per cent), with the majority of young people living in accommodation provided by the university (53 per cent). In 7.7 per cent of cases young people were/would be living in privately rented accommodation. Five young people were/would be living in accommodation owned in their name, four in accommodation owned in their parents or other relatives name, one in a house owned by their partner and one with her boyfriend's family.

Table 6.12 Type of Accommodation in Higher Education

	Column per cent
Live with parents	38.3
University accommodation	53.0
Private rent	7.7
Own accommodation	0.4*
Parent/relative accommodation	0.4*
Other	0.1*
<hr/>	
Unweighted N	1015

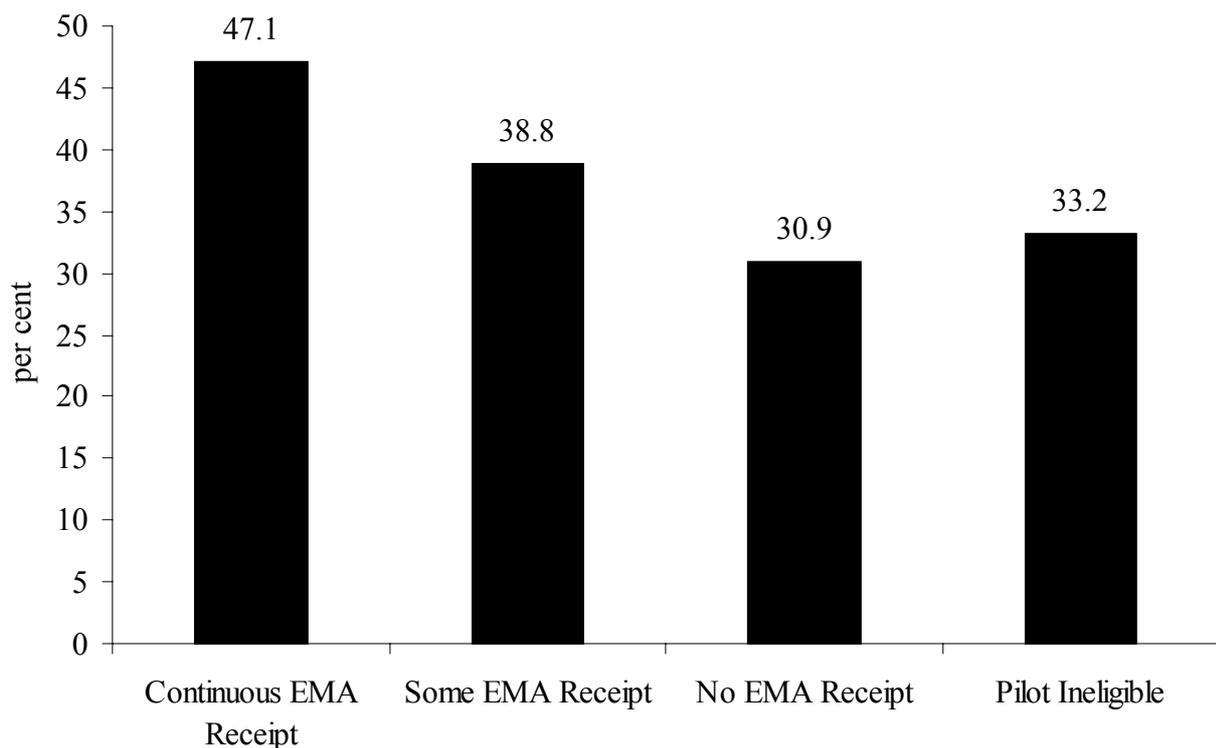
Base: All young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

Young people who had been in continuous EMA receipt throughout their two years of post-compulsory education were the group most likely to have decided to continue to live with

their parents and those with no EMA receipt least likely (Figure 6.4). Again, low income may be dictating young people's choice of HE institution restricting them to institutions within daily travelling distance of their parental home. Other studies have also shown that the financial constraints faced by lower-income groups leads to a restricted choice of institutions and courses (Knowles 2000, Forsyth and Furlong 2001).

Figure 6.4 Living with Parents while in Higher Education



Base: 1005 young people in pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

6.6.2 Student loans

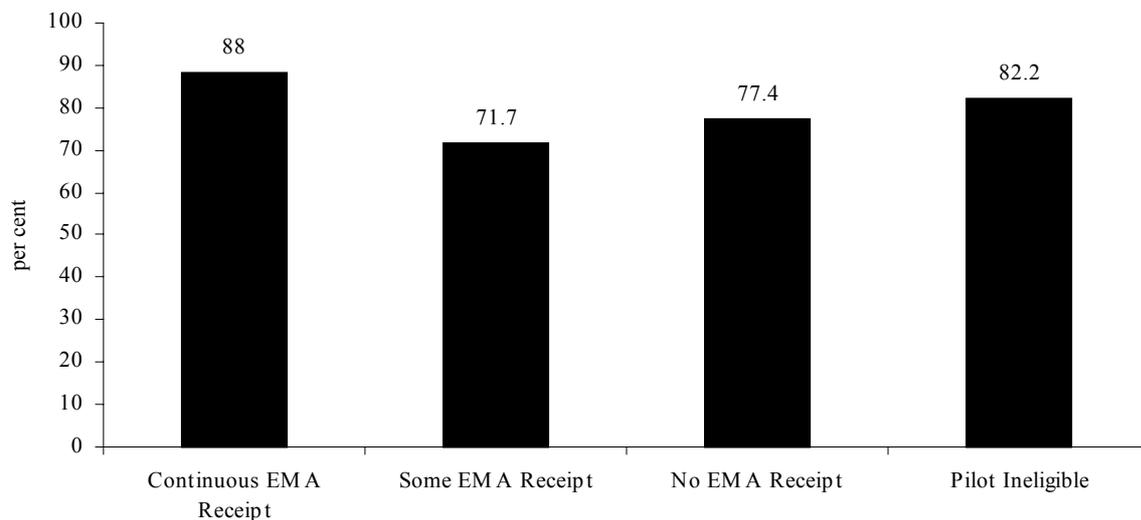
Student loans were first introduced in 1990/1. They were not means-tested and were repayable on a fixed-term basis. In 1997/98, these loans formed broadly 50 per cent of the support available. Under the reform of the student support arrangements announced by the Government in 1997, student loans that are partly means-tested and are repayable on an income-contingent basis became the main source of statutory funding for higher education students entering higher education in 1998/99 or later.⁵⁹ In the academic year 2001-2002

⁵⁹ Students who entered higher education in or before 1997/98 continue to be eligible for maintenance grants until they have completed their courses.

students could borrow up to £3020 if they lived at home, £4700 if they lived in London and £3815 if they lived elsewhere. Seventy-five per cent of the value of a student loan is a basic entitlement for all students, with the remaining 25 per cent being assessed on parental income for students dependent on their parents⁶⁰. Loans are repayable from the April after leaving higher education with interest linked to inflation, although repayments do not have to be made if total income is below the threshold of £10,000 per annum. In the academic year 2001/02 amongst the student population as a whole there was an 81 per cent take-up rate of student loans (DfES 2002).

Young people entering higher education who had been in continuous receipt of EMA (88 per cent) and EMA ineligible young people (82.2 per cent) were most likely to have taken out or intended to take out a student loan (Figure 6.5). Those who had received EMA at some point (71.7 per cent) and those who never received EMA (77.4 per cent) were less likely to take out student loans. Given the relatively low household incomes of EMA eligible young people, a higher proportion of student loan take-up might have been expected for all EMA recipient groups. However, there may be important reasons why young people do not take out a student loan and this issue will be explored in the next wave of interviews.

Figure 6.5 Take-up of Student Loans



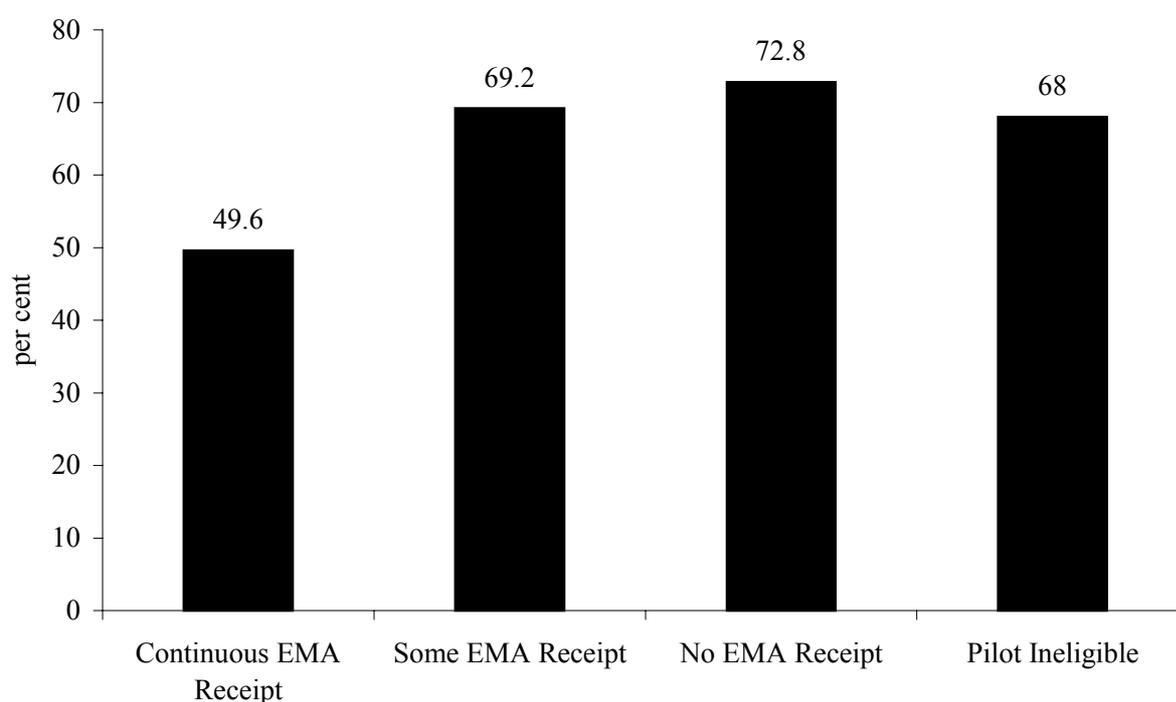
Base: 1000 young people in pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 who had applied for or intended to apply for a student loan for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

⁶⁰ For circumstances in which a student is deemed to be independent of their parents see the DfES publication 'Financial support for higher education students'.

6.6.3 Parental contributions

Young people were asked if their parents were or would be giving them money to help with their living costs while at university (Figure 6.5). Of those who had been in continuous receipt of EMA throughout their post-compulsory education, only half (49.6 per cent) said that they were or would be receiving help from their parents, compared with 69.2 per cent of those in receipt of EMA at some point, 72.8 per cent of those who were never in receipt of EMA and 68 per cent of EMA ineligible young people.

Figure 6.6 Parents Support with Living Costs



Base: 1001 young people in pilot areas who had a university place for the academic year 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

6.6.4 Other sources of funds

There are a number of other possible sources of funding that young people can apply for when in Higher Education. For completeness, this section reports their take-up by young people in the pilot areas entering higher education in the academic year 2001-2002.

Relatively small proportions of young people reported that they were, or would be, receiving each of these sources of funding (Table 6.13). Only three per cent of young people reported that they were/would be receiving money through hardship funds or access funds. A further

3.6 per cent of young people said they had applied for, or intended to apply for, hardship funds or access funds that year. It is likely that this underestimates the numbers who will receive help from these funds, since they are discretionary awards to be applied for when in financial difficulty. Obviously, many young people will not know in advance if they will experience difficulty or, if they apply, whether they will be successful.

Of young people with a current higher education place, 4.8 per cent said they were/would be receiving a grant to help with travel costs, 4.8 per cent were/would be getting a special bursary for training as a health professional and 1.2 per cent were/would have sponsorship from a business or other organisation. Pupils with little or no family experience of higher education, who study in schools and colleges in Phase 1 and 2 Excellence in Cities areas or in Education Action Zones and have a gross family income of less than £20,000 a year can apply for a £2000 Opportunity Bursary. This covered some of the areas included in the EMA evaluation and 6.3 per cent of young people reported that they were receiving an Opportunity Bursary. In 1.2 per cent of cases young people received a Disabled Students Allowance (DSA), a non-means-tested grant to cover the extra costs incurred in attending a higher education institution as a direct result of disability.

Table 6.13 Other Sources of Funding for Higher Education

		Cell per cent
		N
Hardship/access fund:		
Will/have received	(3.0)	989
Will apply	3.6	
Help with travel cost	4.8	1014
Health prof bursary	4.8	1013
Sponsorship	(1.2)	1014
Opportunity bursary	6.3	1014
Disabled Students Allowance	(1.2)	1012
Dependents grant	0	2
Childcare grant	0	2

Bases: All young people in the pilot areas who had a university place for the academic year 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Note: Unweighted bases vary according to the number of young people for whom data were available.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

6.6.5 Part-time work

Part-time work is becoming an increasingly important part of students' financial packages of support, with the proportion of young people working whilst in higher education having grown since the introduction of student loans (Callender 2002). The Student Income and Expenditure Survey 1999 found that over three-fifths of full-time students had earned some money during the academic year, and just under half (46 per cent) worked in term-time (Callender and Kemp 2000). Young people living at home with their parents were most likely to work during term-time and those in lower socio-economic groups were both more likely to work, and to work for longer hours than their counterparts from higher socio-economic groups (Callender and Kemp 2000, Barke et al., 2000).

A number of studies have reported students' mean hours work per week at between 11 and 14 (Callender and Kemp 2000). There is evidence that just under half (45 per cent) of all students working during term time believe the time spent in paid-work has a detrimental effect on their studies, citing inability to devote time to college work and feeling tired and overloaded (Callender 2001, Callender and Kemp 2000). It has also been found that the mean grade for employed students was 1.7 percentage points less than for non-working students (Barke et al., 2000).

In this study young people with a higher education place for the current academic year were asked whether they currently had a part-time job. Young people who had started their course were asked if they had a job, and if not, if they intended to look for one before May 2002. Young people with a job who had yet to start their higher education course were asked about their intentions to keep their current job when they started their course, and if not, whether they would look for a new job before May 2002. Those without a job and yet to start their course were asked if they would look for a job before May 2002.

A very high proportion of young people in the pilot areas (81 per cent) had, or intended to have, a job whilst in their first year of a higher education course. However, no clear association emerged between having or intending to have a job and EMA receipt (Table 6.14). There was little difference between those who were in continuous receipt of EMA throughout their post-compulsory education and those with no EMA receipt (83.2 per cent compared with 83.8 per cent), whilst those with partial EMA receipt appeared less likely to have or intend to get a job (77.1 per cent). Those ineligible for EMA were more likely than

those with partial EMA receipt and less likely than the other two recipient groups to have or intend to get a job (78.8 per cent).

Table 6.14 Working or Intending to Work Part-Time while in Higher Education

	Cell per cent Unweighted (N)	
Continuous EMA Receipt	83.2	360
EMA Receipt at Some Point	77.1	83
No EMA Receipt	83.8	132
Pilot Ineligible	78.8	369

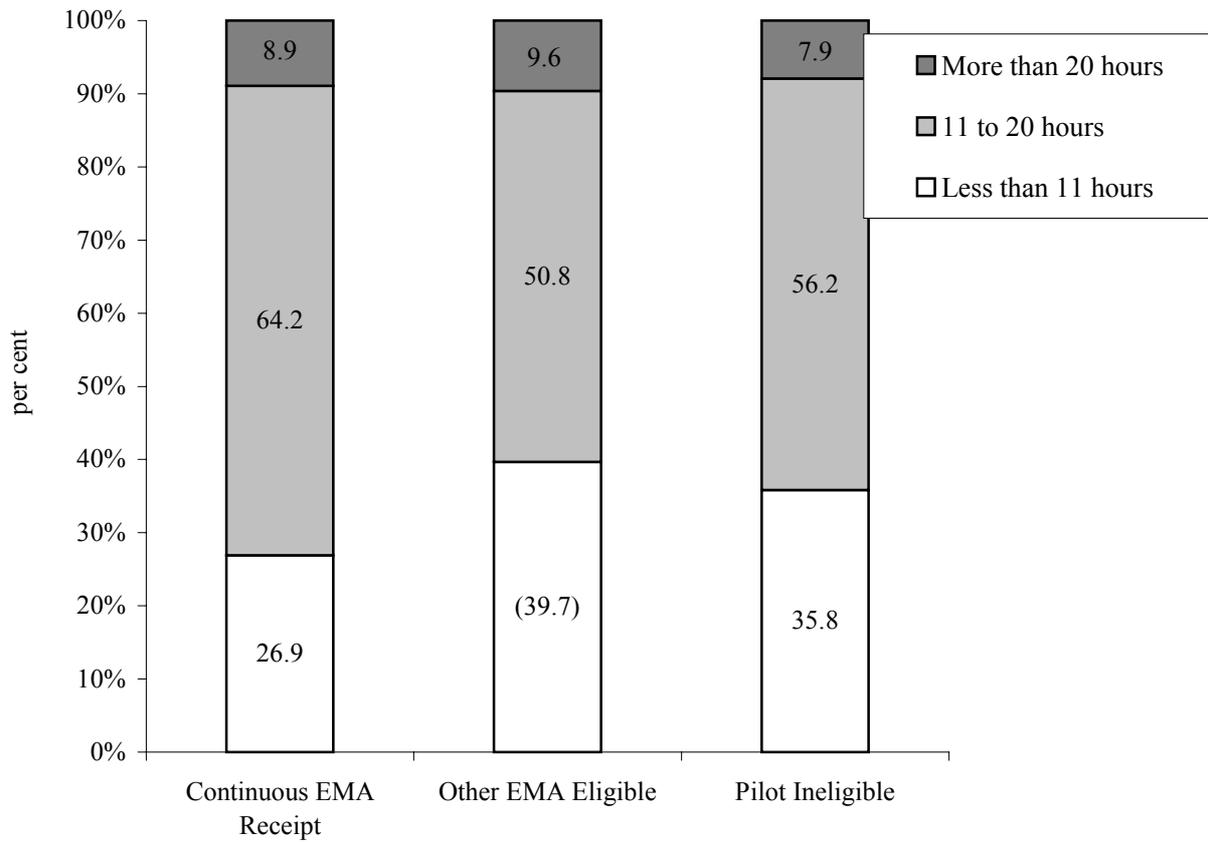
Base: 957 young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

At the time of interview, 1010 young people in the pilot areas (93.6 per cent) with a university place for the current academic year had started their university course and of these 36.8 per cent had a job, a figure somewhat lower than that found by Callender and Kemp (46 per cent), although it must be recalled that these data were collected towards the beginning of the academic year and that 80 per cent of young people said that they intended to work part-time while at university.

Analysis in the remainder of this section focuses on the group of young people who had started their courses and already had a job in order to describe in detail the part-time work activities of young people in higher education. The two groups of eligible young people who received EMA at some point in their post-16 education and those who never received EMA have been combined in this analysis because of small numbers. Therefore, most comparisons are between the continuous receipt and ineligible groups.

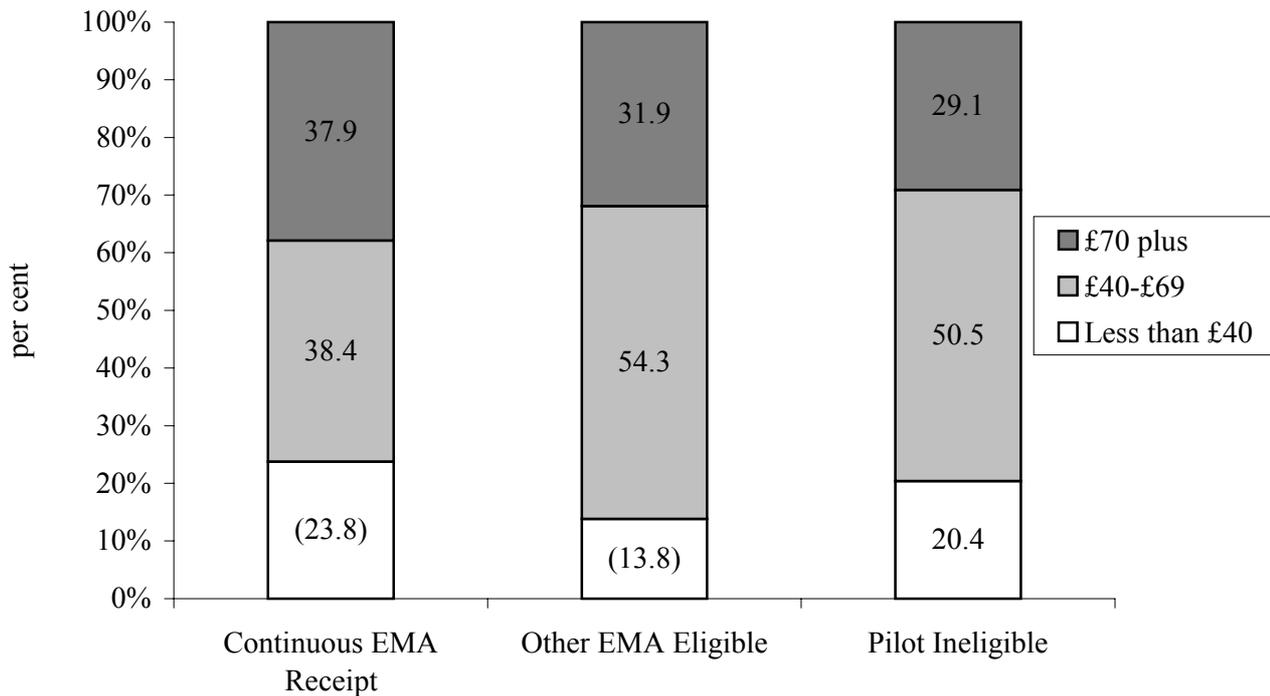
Young people who were in continuous EMA receipt worked longer weekly hours than the other groups (Table 6.15), while EMA eligible young people were slightly more likely to work more than 20 hours per week than the other groups (Figure 6.7).

Figure 6.7 Hours Spent in Part-Time Work while in Higher Education



Base: 323 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Figure 6.8 Earnings per week from Part-Time Work while in Higher Education



Base: 323 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Despite working slightly longer hours, young people in the continuous EMA receipt group earned less than the other EMA eligible young people because they received lower hourly rates of pay (Table 6.15). This supports the findings of earlier research among 11 to 16 year olds which showed that young people in this age group from poorer backgrounds worked for longer hours for lower rates of pay than their more affluent peers (Middleton and Loumidis, 2001).

Table 6.15 Average Hours, Weekly and Hourly Pay from Part-Time Work in Higher Education

	Continuous EMA receipt	Other EMA eligible	Pilot Ineligible
Mean Hours per week	13.8 hours	13.6 hours	13.2 hours
Mean Pay per week	£59.67	£61.60	£58.78
Mean Pay per hour	£4.37	£4.66	£4.49
Unweighted N	122	76	125

Base: 323 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Young people who had a part-time job were asked their reasons for working whilst studying full time (Table 6.16). Earning money for going out and leisure activities was given most often as a major reason for working, but the proportions varied greatly between EMA eligible and ineligible young people; 76.2 per cent and 76.1 per cent of those in continuous receipt and other eligible groups compared with 94.2 per cent of ineligible young people. It appears that those who had been in continuous EMA receipt in particular had a more immediate need to work whilst studying, with 39 per cent agreeing that they could not have afforded to study otherwise. This compares with 23.6 per cent of other EMA eligibles and 21.1 per cent of ineligibles. Interestingly, more than one-fifth of both continuous EMA recipients and EMA ineligible young people said that a major reason for working part-time was to gain useful work experience. These young people presumably feel that they will have a better chance of gaining employment after completing their higher education qualification if they have worked part-time whilst studying.

Table 6.16 Main Reasons for Working Part-Time whilst in Higher Education

	Cell per cent		
	Continuous EMA receipt	Other EMA eligible	Pilot Ineligible
Couldn't afford to study otherwise	39.0	(23.6)	(21.1)
Useful work experience	(21.1)	8.4*	(22.0)
Going out and leisure activities	76.2	76.1	94.2
Unweighted N for each cell	125	78	131

Base: 334 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

6.6.6 Packages of financial support

This section considers the packages of financial support that young people entering higher education had put together to maintain themselves. As well as sources already secured, it also includes the intention to find paid work.

For those who had received EMA throughout their two years in post-16 education, the most common package of support was a student loan and work (43.2 per cent), (Table 6.17). This group was almost two and one half times more likely than the other EMA eligible group (18.6 per cent) and almost twice as likely as EMA ineligible young people (24 per cent) to be reliant on combining student loans with part-time work. The difference lies mainly in the extent to which young people received or expected to receive financial support from their parents. Less than one third of the continuous EMA receipt group expected to combine student loans and work with support from their parents (31.7 per cent), compared with more than two fifths of other EMA eligibles (42.5 per cent) and EMA ineligible young people (41.3 per cent).

Table 6.17 Packages of Financial Support in Higher Education

Column per cent

	Continuous EMA receipt	Other EMA eligibles	Pilot Ineligible
No parental support, student loan or work	0.3*	1.0*	0
Student loan only	(4.9)	2.0*	(3.8)
Parental support only	1.8*	3.1*	(4.1)
Work only	(3.3)	(6.1)	(4.3)
Parental support and student loan	(9.9)	(12.9)	13.5
Parental support and work	(4.9)	(13.9)	(9.1)
Student loan and work	43.2	18.6	24.0
Parental support, student loan and work	31.7	42.5	41.3
Unweighted N	360	223	366

Base: 949 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

The amount of financial support young people had in their first year of higher education will be examined next year when young people can provide information on the actual amount of support they received.

6.6.7 Tuition fees

Since 1998 full-time students starting higher education have had to contribute towards their yearly tuition fees. For the academic year 2001-2002 fees for courses at publicly funded higher education institutions were £1075. Means-tested help with these fees are provided by the state. Unless the student is deemed to be independent of their parents⁶¹, this state help is calculated using the parents' residual income⁶². In 2001, the state paid tuition fees in full when residual income was less than £20,000. Parents contributed £45 if their residual income was £20,000 plus £1 for every £9.50 of residual income over £20,000. Therefore, when residual income is £29,785 or more the state made no contribution to tuition fees. In comparison, young people whose parents' total taxable income does not exceed £13,000 are

⁶¹ For circumstances in which a student is deemed to be independent of their parents see the DfES publication 'Financial support for higher education students'.

⁶² Gross income minus certain allowances.

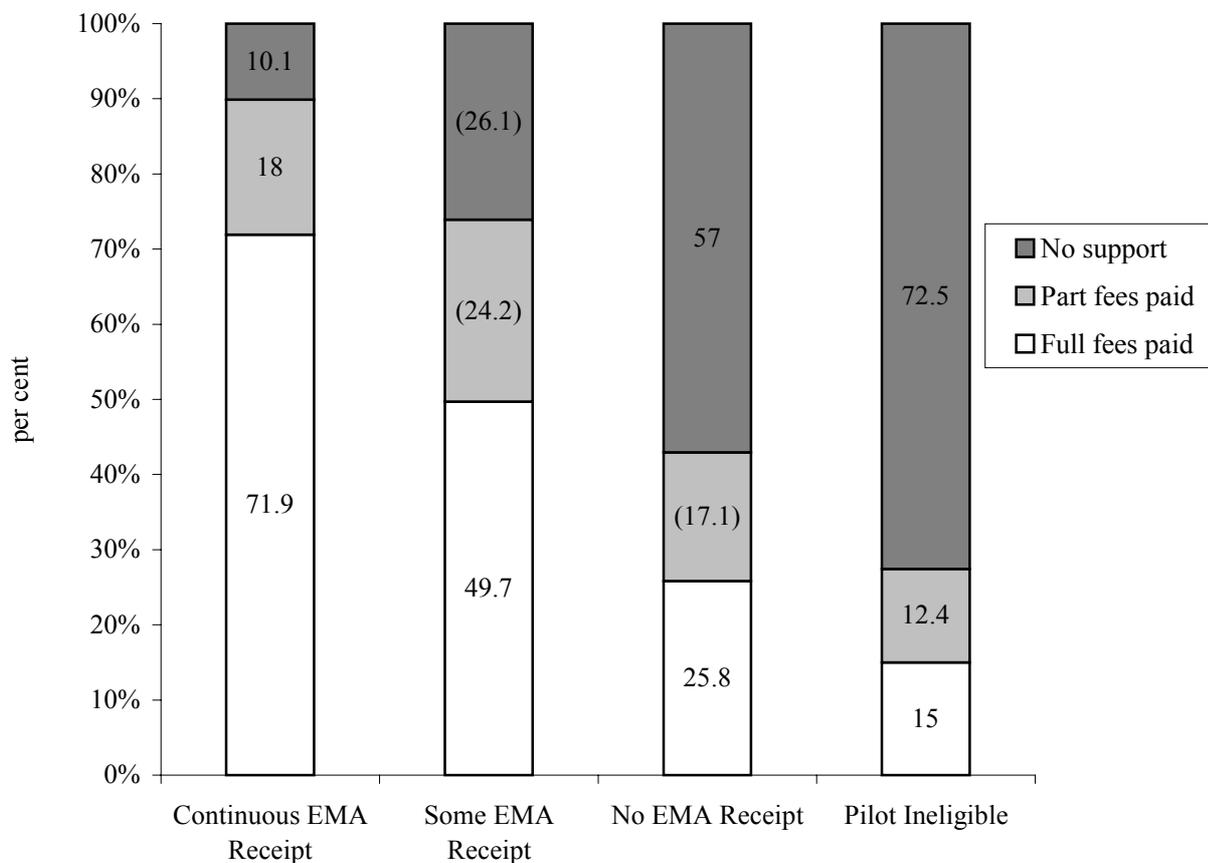
eligible for the full weekly EMA award, while for those with total parental income of between £13,000 and £30,000 EMA is tapered down to a minimum of £5 a week.

Inevitably the proportion of young people who had their fees paid in full by their LEA varied greatly between EMA eligible and ineligible young people, with eligible young people (from all three receipt status groups) far more likely to have had their full fees paid (Figure 6.9). Young people who were in continuous EMA receipt throughout their further education were most likely to have their tuition fees paid in full by the state (71.9 per cent) and those who were ineligible for EMA were least likely (15 per cent). This group of young people who had been ineligible for EMA and who had their tuition fees paid in full is somewhat surprising at first sight. However, this could be the result of changes in parental income, since income eligibility was assessed during the first wave of interviews in 1999, or because of differences in eligibility criteria for the two awards. For example, when parents are separated, parental contribution for tuition fees is assessed using one parent's income, whereas for EMA both parents' incomes are assessed.⁶³

Young people in EMA-eligible groups were more likely to have had partial state support with their tuition fees than those who were ineligible. However the proportion of EMA eligible young people receiving no state support is still surprisingly high for all groups and for young people who had received EMA continuously in particular (10.1 per cent). Given the requirements of the parental contribution means-test, it would be expected that all EMA-eligible young people would have received some tuition fee support from the state. Again, changes in parental income since wave one could be a factor, as could failure to apply, possibly as a result of the detailed information required in the application process.

⁶³ Another reason why EMA ineligible students might have their tuition fees paid in full by the state, is if they are deemed independent of their parents, e.g. if they have been married for two years, and their income is low. There were no such cases in the pilot ineligible group who entered higher education.

Figure 6.9 State Support with Tuition Fees



Base: 917 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights. () Under 30 unweighted cases.

The proportion of tuition fees not paid by the state is described as the ‘parental contribution’, the assumption being that parents will pay the difference between the LEA contribution and the full amount of tuition fees. However, some young people had to rely on partial state support only, whilst others received no support from either source (Table 6.18).

Table 6.18 Packages of Support for Tuition Fees**Column per cent**

	Continuous EMA receipt	EMA receipt at some point	No EMA receipt	Pilot Ineligible
State pay full fees	71.9	49.7	26.5	15.1
State and parents	(12.7)	(12.8)	(16.2)	10.7
State only	(5.4)	11.5*	1.3*	1.4*
Parents only	(5.6)	(16.1)	39.2	59.4
No support	(4.5)	9.9*	(16.8)	13.4
Unweighted N	357	84	124	350

Base: 915 young people in higher education in pilot areas who had a part-time job for whom information available and who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

() Under 30 unweighted cases.

* Under 10 unweighted cases.

6.7 Conclusion to Descriptive Analysis

Financial considerations appear to constrain those who had been in continuous EMA receipt throughout their further education, both in their choice of university and in their need to spend (a considerable amount of) time working whilst in higher education.

They were most likely to live at home during term-time and to cite this and the cost of living for students as major reasons for their choice of higher education institution. This group were less likely than those with no history of EMA receipt to have a place at an old university, and correspondingly more likely to have a place at a new university or HE/FE institution.

Those with a history of continuous EMA receipt were least likely to (expect to) receive a parental contribution towards their living costs and were most likely to rely on student loans or, more commonly, student loans and earnings from part-time work. Young people in this group who had a job worked longer hours for lower rates of pay than their counterparts in non-recipient groups. They were also most likely to say that a major reason for working was that they could not afford to study otherwise.

Many of the results appear to follow the pattern that might be expected, given the association between EMA receipt, low family income, low socio-economic group (see Annex 6). Those who received EMA continued to be more disadvantaged than those with no history of receipt and those who were EMA-eligible were more disadvantaged than those who were ineligible for EMA. These patterns should become clearer next year by which time these young people will have settled into higher education, and additional young people from both this Cohort and the second cohort of potentially EMA eligible young people will have joined them.

SUMMARY

- There were no significant differences between the pilot and control areas in the occupational entry points of young people who entered the labour market at the start of Year 12 immediately after the end of compulsory education, or at the start of Year 13 when they had spent one year in post-16 education.
- Young people who entered the labour market after two years in post-16 education were in higher occupational categories than those who had already spent two years in the labour market.
- There were far higher rates of employment instability among those who had entered work without training at the end of compulsory education than among those who had obtained work with some form of training.
- Among young people who had entered work without training in Year 12, more than half had moved into some form of education or training by the start of Year 14, but early one third were NEET.
- New entrants to the NEET group at the start of Year 14 largely comprised young people who had completed two years in full-time education. Data collected at the start of Year 15 will help to explain the extent to which young people who had completed two years post-16 education entered the NEET group for long periods, or if this experience was short-term while they were looking for work/training or to re- enter education.

7.1 Introduction

The final two chapters of this report describe young people's engagement with the labour market. Chapter 8 begins to explore how young people combine part-time work with education. This chapter examines the labour market experiences of young people who left full-time education at the end of Year 11 (Year 12 interview) and compares these to young people who remained in full-time education and joined the labour market after either one year (Year 13 interview) or two years (Year 14 interview). The aim is to explore whether participation in post-16 education enhances young people's labour market opportunities. Therefore, the chapter examines young people's occupational entry into the labour market in order to gauge the types of employment opportunities available to young people at the different points at which they leave full-time education.

The first part of the chapter examines, first, the destinations of young people who entered the labour market immediately after compulsory education (Year 12) and their subsequent labour market positions at the start of Year 13. The analysis next focuses on young people who entered the labour market at Year 13, having spent one year in post-16 education. The second part of the chapter explores movements between education, employment training and NEET group status among EMA eligible young people between Years 12 and 14. The labour market experiences of those who left education after Year 11 are compared with those who had remained in full-time education for two years following the end of compulsory schooling.

It is difficult to isolate any impact of EMA receipt on occupational entry, given that entry into work could be affected by a number of intervening variables, most notably the level and type of young people's educational achievements, the level of demand from the local labour market for youth labour, and the industrial composition of the local economy. Therefore, although in much of what follows the analysis compares the experiences of young people in the pilot and control areas, no firm conclusions about the role of EMA can be drawn.

7.1.1 Data and methods

The data used in this chapter are from Cohort 1 only, that is, young people who completed compulsory education in summer 1999 and who had therefore potentially completed three interviews, at the start of Years 12, 13 and 14.

The analysis describes the levels of entry of all EMA eligible young people into employment and/or training in both pilot and control areas at Years 12, 13 and 14. The types of entry young people make into the labour market have been grouped into three categories: government supported training, work with in-house employer provided training and work without training. Occupational entry has been ranked, as in previous analysis in this report, using the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC)⁶⁴, but is presented in greater detail based on nine major occupational groupings:

- 1 Managers
- 2 Professional occupations
- 3 Associate professional and technical occupations

⁶⁴ For further details see Office of Population Censuses and Surveys Standard Occupational Classification, 1990.

- 4 Administrative, clerical and secretarial occupations
- 5 Skilled trade occupations
- 6 Personal service occupations
- 7 Sales and customer service occupations
- 8 Process, plant and machine operatives
- 9 Elementary or other occupations

The more highly ranked the occupation, the greater the variety of skills and personal attributes that are needed. For the purpose of this analysis, SOCs 1, 2 and 3 have been condensed into one occupational category, since levels of entry into managerial and professional occupations among young people between the ages of 16-18 were extremely small.

7.2 Labour Market Entry in Years 12 and 13

7.2.1 Entry into work and training at Year 12

Young people entered the labour market at Year 12 through one of three routes: government supported training, which in 1999 included Modern Apprenticeships and National Traineeships; work with training (employer funded training without government supported funding); and work without training, where a young person reported that they were working but not in receipt of any form of training. Table 7.1 provides a breakdown of the proportions of young people entering each occupational category in relation to their route into the labour market.

In both pilot and control areas, nearly half of all entrants into government supported training had moved into skilled trade occupations, which include the traditional apprenticeship routes into the engineering and construction industries. In control areas, a larger proportion of young people who entered government supported training were in sales occupations (12.1 per cent), compared to pilot areas (6 per cent), although this difference does not quite reach statistical significance at conventional levels. Otherwise, the SOC profiles of young people entering government supported training were very similar in both pilot and control areas. Young people who entered employer based training tended to be in sales occupations to a far greater extent in pilot areas (20.4 per cent) than in control areas (6.2 per cent). There were no

significant differences between pilot and control areas in the SOC profiles of young people who entered work without training.

Table 7.1 Occupational Classifications of Year 12 Labour Market Entrants

	Per cent							
	Managers/ Prof & Assoc Prof & Technical	Admin, Clerical & Sec	Skilled Trades	Personal Service Occupations	Sales	Process, Plant & Machine Operatives	Elementary or Other Occupations	N (unweighted)
Pilot								
GST	5.5	18.3	45.6	21.2	6	1.1	2.4	169
Work: in house training	2	14.1	26.5	20.9	20.4	2.6	13.5	57
Work: no training	0.4	15.4	9.5	8.7	14.8	28.6	22.7	144
Control								
GST	1.7	17.5	44.2	21.6	12.1		2.9	113
Work: in house training	2.2	17.7	23.9	26	6.2	5.7	18.3	52
Work: no training	1.7	15.2	4.8	10.6	20.7	21.7	25.3	125

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who had entered work/training at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Approximately 50 per cent of entrants into work which offered in-house training in both pilot and control areas were concentrated in skilled trade and personal service occupations. However, these findings should be treated with caution because of small sample sizes. Unsurprisingly, a much greater proportion of young people entering work without training in both pilot and control areas were located in lower occupational levels, most notably in process, plant and machine operating and elementary or other occupations.

Around one-half of all young people entering work with training and work without training stated that they had secured a permanent job (just under one-half in pilot areas and just over one-half in control areas) (Table 7.2). Seasonal, temporary or casual work was more prevalent amongst young people who had entered employment without training. In contrast, ‘other’ types of contracts, which include fixed term contracting and employment linked to the successful completion of a probationary period were more common in work with training (particularly government supported training).

Table 7.2 Seasonal/Temporary, Casual & Permanent Employment at Year 12
Row Per cent

	Seasonal, Temp or Casual Employer	Permanent Employment	Other*	N (unweighted)
Pilot				
Government Supported Training	3.3	46	50.7	169
Work: In house training	11.4	45.6	42.9	57
Work: No training	31.2	50.1	18.7	144
Control				
Government Supported Training	3.6	54.2	42.3	113
Work: In house training	4.9	55.9	39.3	52
Work: No training	22.3	56.2	21.6	125

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who had entered work/training at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

*Other includes performance related or fixed term contracting.

7.2.2 Employment stability at Year 13

Among young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12, 77.6 per cent remained in work or training at Year 13 compared to 80.2 per cent in control areas. Similar proportions of young people in both pilot and control areas had returned to full-time education (8.7 per cent in pilot areas and 7.4 per cent in control areas). Therefore, it seems that the availability of EMA had not encouraged much larger proportions of young people in the pilot areas to leave the labour market and return to full-time education.

Young people who had entered the labour market at the end of Year 11 and who were still in employment at the start of Year 13 (one year after leaving compulsory schooling), were asked if they had changed jobs or remained in the same job since their Year 12 interview. Those who had entered employment without training at Year 12 were much more likely to have changed jobs (Table 7.3), with 43 per cent of young people in pilot areas and 48.2 per cent of young people in control areas having changed jobs between their Year 12 and Year 13 interviews. In contrast, only approximately one quarter of young people who had entered government supported training at Year 12, in both pilot and control areas, had changed jobs. Job stability in government supported training may be linked to the time taken to complete the training period, which is usually two years. However this finding also suggests that most young people in this group were willing to remain in the same job in order to complete their training.

Table 7.3 Employment Stability at Year 13

		Row Per cent		
		Same job	Different job	N (unweighted)
Pilot	Government Supported Training	71.3	28.7	148
	Work: In house training	64.6	35.4	45
	Work: No training	57	43	102
Control	Government Supported Training	77.2	22.8	111
	Work: In house training	69.3	30.7	43
	Work: No training	51.8	48.2	85

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who had entered work/training at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

7.2.3 Movements into employment at Year 13

This section examines the occupational entry points of young people in pilot and control areas who had entered employment by the time of their Year 13 interview, that is, at least one year after completing compulsory education. In particular, a comparison is made between the occupational entry points of young people who had completed one year in post-16 education at Year 13, with those young people who were in the NEET group at the time of the Year 12 interview. The relatively small overall number of new entrants to the labour market at Year 13 from both groups, does not allow detailed breakdowns to be made between occupational areas and the three routes into the labour market (government supported training, employer supported training and employment without training). Therefore, the analysis concentrates on occupational entry points (Table 7.4).

Focusing on young people who had completed one year in post-16 education, there was very little difference in the pattern of occupational entry into the labour market between pilot and control areas (see Table 7.4). This would suggest that young people offered similar levels of skills, abilities and qualifications to employers and that EMA had little identifiable effect on enhancing the labour market attainment of young people in the pilot areas. Therefore, EMA receipt had not enabled young people in pilot areas to significantly enhance their portfolio of qualifications, over and above those young people in control areas who had chosen to remain in post-16 education but had also left after one year.

However, different patterns emerged between pilot and control areas when a comparison was made between young people who had previously spent one year in full-time education and those who had NEET group status (although small sample sizes restrict the interpretation of the results). In pilot areas, about a third of new entrants to the labour market at Year 13 who had previously been in the NEET group entered elementary or other occupations, where young people are also more likely to be offered temporary, seasonal or casual employment. In addition, a much larger proportion of young people formerly in the NEET group in the pilot areas entered skilled trade occupations, in comparison to their counterparts who had spent one year in full-time education. In control areas, 5.5 per cent of young people from the NEET group had entered sales occupations, compared to 19.6 per cent of young people who had spent one year in education. A much larger proportion of young people from the NEET group had entered work which was either unskilled or semi-skilled, mainly as process, plant and machine operatives (21.1 per cent). It is possible that the higher occupational entry

points observed among some young people who had spent one year in post-16 education may be accounted for by the additional skills and qualifications that might have been obtained in post-16 education. However, Year 11 achievement was higher among young people who remained in education at Year 12⁶⁵ which would lead to the expectation that many young people in the NEET group who entered the labour market at year 13 had lower educational achievement. Therefore, it is difficult to isolate the extent to which one year spent in post-16 education enhanced the labour market opportunities available to young people.

⁶⁵ 8.8 per cent of eligible young people in the NEET group at Year 12 had obtained five or more A*-C qualifications in Year 11, compared to 46.1 per cent of those who entered post-16 education at Year 12.

Table 7.4 Year 13 Labour Market Entrants among Young People in FTE/NEET Group at Year 12

	Row Per cent							
	Managers/ Prof & Assoc Prof & Technical	Admin, Clerical & Sec	Skilled Trades	Personal Service Occupations	Sales & Customer Service Occupations	Process, Plant & Machine Operatives	Elementary or Other Occupations	N (unweighted)
Pilot Areas								
FTE (at Year 12)	3.8	23	13.8	13.9	20.3	11.1	14.1	240
NEET (at Year 12)	0.9	6.5	26.1	9.8	15.5	10.9	30.3	68
Control Areas								
FTE (at Year 12)	3.8	20.4	18.3	13.7	19.6	7.8	16.5	176
NEET (at Year 12)	0.7	16.5	20.2	15.0	5.5	21.1	21	51

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who entered work/training at Year 13. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

7.3 Movements between Education, Employment, Training and NEET Group between Years 12 and 14

This section explores movements between education, employment, training and NEET group status among EMA eligible young people between Years 12 and 14. In particular it examines:

- the routes taken into the labour market at Year 14, among young people who had completed two years in full-time education;
- the destinations of young people at Year 14 who had entered the labour market at Year 12, focusing on employment stability, movements into post-16 education and NEET group status by Year 14; and
- the proportions of eligible young people entering government supported training, in-house training and employment without training and their occupational entry points at Year 14, in relation to those entered by eligible young people at Year 12.

Table 7.5 Entrants from Full-time Education into the Labour Market at Year 14

	Column per cent	
	Pilot	Control
Government Supported Training	5.9	3.7
Work: in house Training	47.7	50
Work: no Training	46.4	46.3
Total	100	100
N (unweighted)	550	330

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were in full-time education at Years 12 and 13 and who had entered work training at Year 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Most young people who had entered the labour market at Year 14 from full-time education, had done so without the assistance of government supported training provision (Table 7.5). While a slightly larger proportion of young people in pilot areas had entered government supported training provision (5.9 per cent compared to 3.9 per cent in control areas), the difference was not statistically significant. The proportions of young people entering both

work with training and work without training were similar in both pilot and control areas. Therefore, it is difficult to identify any discernable impact of EMA on employment destinations.

7.3.1 Employment stability by Year 14 of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12

Among EMA eligible young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12, those who had initially entered employment that offered no training had experienced the largest turnover rate by Year 14 (see Table 7.6). This mirrors findings from Year 13 data, described earlier in this chapter, which showed that job stability was least likely to be found among those young people who had entered employment without training at Year 12 (see above Table 7.3). Data from Year 12 also indicated that young people who entered work without training were more likely to enter seasonal, temporary or casual employment, which will account, to some extent, for higher rates of employment instability among this group.

Table 7.6 Employment Stability at Year 14

	Row per cent			
	Changed Employment/ Training Status	In same status at Years 12, 13 & 14	Total	N (unweighted)
Government Supported Training	46.8	53.2	100	282
Work: in house training	50.4	49.6	100	109
Work: no training	63.6	36.4	100	269

Base: EMA eligible young people (pilot and control areas have been combined because of small numbers) who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who had entered the labour market at Year 12, and who were in work/training at Year 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

While at Year 13 over 70 per cent of young people in government supported training in both pilot and control areas had remained in the same job (see above Table 7.3), this was reduced to just over a half of all young people at Year 14 (Table 7.6). This is probably accounted for by the fact that government supported training programmes typically last for two years. Of those young people who had either completed or left government supported training by Year 14, almost three-fifths had moved into employment without training (32.8 per cent) or the NEET group (25.5 per cent) (Table 7.7).

A similar pattern was observed among young people who had left work with in-house training after their Year 12 interview. By Year 14, two-thirds were in work without training or in the NEET group (Table 2.13). One fifth had moved to another job that offered in-house training, and about 15 per cent were in education or government supported training.

Among young people who had entered work without training at Year 12, more than one half had moved into some form of education or training by Year 14: 11.7 per cent had entered full-time education; 3.9 per cent were in government supported training provision; and 35.4 per cent had moved into work which offered some form of training. Approximately one fifth had changed jobs but were still in employment which offered no training (18 per cent), and nearly one-third had entered the NEET group (31.1 per cent) (Table 7.7).

Table 7.7 Year 14 Destinations of Young People who had changed their Status since Entering Employment/Training at Year 12

	Year 14 Status					Row Per cent
	Full-time education	Government supported training	Work: in house training	Work: no training	NEET	N (unweighted)
Government Supported Training (at Year 12)	10.2	3.6	27.7	32.8	25.5	117
Work: in house training (at Year 12)	6.9	8.6	19	32.8	32.8	59
Work: no training (at Year 12)	11.7	3.9	35.4	18	31.1	156

Base: EMA eligible young people (pilot and control areas combined because of small numbers) who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who had entered work/training at Year 12 and changed their status at Year 13 or Year 14

There is no suggestion in Table 7.7 that the introduction of EMA has had a major impact on encouraging young people who left school at the end of Year 11 to enter the labour market, back into full-time education. Among young people who had been in government supported training at Year 12, 10.2 per cent were in full-time education by Year 14. Similarly, among

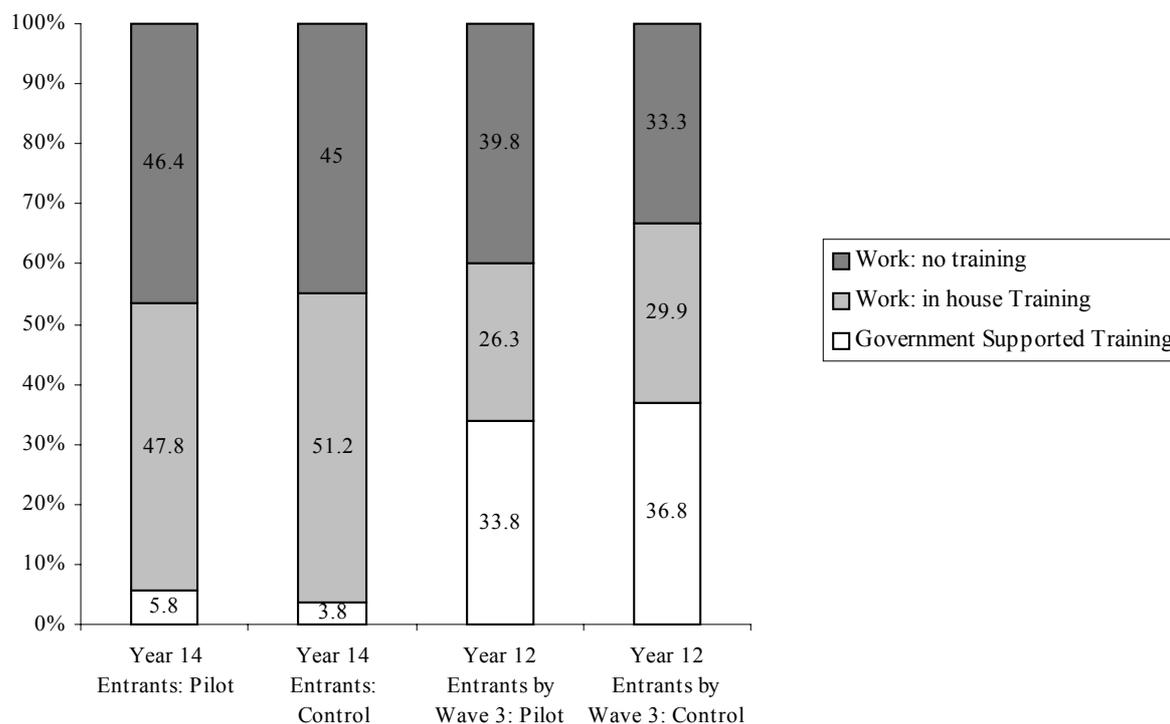
young people in work with training and work without training at Year 12, only 6.9 per cent and 11.7 per cent respectively had returned to full-time education by Year 14.

7.2.2 Occupational patterns of Year 12 and Year 14 labour market entrants

This section explores the employment and training trajectories of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12 and who remained in employment or training by Year 14 with young people who had completed two year post-16 education and then entered the labour market at Year 14. Year 12 entrants to the labour market include young people who may have changed their employment or training, as well as those who had retained the same status at Years 12, 13 and 14. A comparison of the two groups can provide insights into the differing types of employment and training options open to young people depending on whether they enter the labour market immediately after compulsory schooling or after spending two years in post-16 education.

Figure 7.1 provides a breakdown of the three routes into the labour market taken by young people (government supported training, employment with training and employment without training) and compares the Year 14 destinations of young people who had spent two years in post-16 education and entered the labour market at Year 14 with young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12, immediately after the end of compulsory education.

Figure 7.1 Labour Market Destinations



Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14: who were in full-time education at Years 12 and 13 and who entered work/training at Year 14; who had entered work/training at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

While there were no observable differences between pilot and control areas, variations can be seen between groups of young people according to the time they had already spent either in the labour market or in full-time education (Figure 7.1). Young people who had left school at 16 were much more likely to be in government supported training by the time of their Year 14 interview than young people who had spent two years in full-time education. In pilot areas 33.8 per cent and in control areas 36.8 per cent of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12 were in government supported training by Year 14. Only 5.8 and 3.8 per cent respectively, of young people in pilot and control areas who had spent two years in full-time education before entering the labour market at Year 14, were in government supported training. In contrast, larger proportions of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 14 were found in work that offered in-house training than among those who had entered the labour market at Year 12.

Table 7.8 Occupational Breakdown of Year 12 and Year 14 Labour Market Entrants

								Row per cent
	Managers/Prof and Assoc Prof and Technical	Admin Clerical and Sec	Skilled Trades	Personal Service Occupations	Sales	Process Plant and Machine Operatives	Elementary or Other Occupations	N (Number)
Pilot								
Year 12 Labour Market Entry	2.8	16.4	27.8	16	11.9	12.6	12.5	370
Year 14 Labour Market Entry (2 yrs FTE)	17.2	11.5	6.2	26	22.4	5.2	11.4	550
Year 12 Entrants to the Labour Market at Year 14	5.0	17.5	32.2	17.5	11.8	7.9	8.2	257
Control								
Year 12 Labour Market Entry	1.8	16.4	22.1	17	15.3	11.3	16	290
Year 14 Labour Market Entry (2 yrs FTE)	21.1	16.5	6.2	21.7	19.5	3.2	11.8	328
Year 12 Entrants to the Labour Market at Year 14	8.4	19.6	29.1	15.7	8.9	11.2	7.3	205

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14: who were in full-time education at Years 12 and 13 and who entered work/training at Year 14; who had entered work/training at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights

Table 7.8 shows the occupational breakdown for young people who:

- Entered the labour market at Year 12;
- Remained in work or training by Year 14; and,
- Completed two years in post-16 education before entering the labour market at Year 14.

There were no significant differences between EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in relation to either their occupational entry points or their occupational status by Year 14. However, the data suggest that the occupational choices open to young people who have spent two years in post-16 education were much greater than for young people who had left school at 16 and attempted to progress through the labour market over the same time period. These findings must be tempered by the fact the structure of opportunities available to young people will also be affected by qualifications achievement, which is generally higher among young people who enter post-16 education, as well as among those who complete it.

Table 7.8 demonstrates that young people who entered the labour market at Year 14 were in higher occupational categories, in particular management, professional, associate professional technical occupations, in comparison to their counterparts who had entered the labour market at Year 12. In EMA pilot and control areas, 17.2 per cent and 21.1 percent of young people who entered the labour market at Year 14 were in management related occupations compared to 5 per cent and 8.4 per cent respectively, of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12.

Entry points of young people to skilled trades occupations had primarily occurred at Year 12. For example, in pilot areas 27.8 per cent of young people who had entered the labour market at Year 12 had entered skilled trades occupations compared to 6.2 per cent of labour market entrants at Year 14. A similar pattern emerged in control areas. This suggests that employers have continued to recruit young people into traditional apprenticeship training at the end of compulsory schooling.

Higher proportions of Year 14 entrants to the labour market were found in personal service and sales occupations. For example, 26 per cent of Year 14 labour market entrants in pilot areas were in personal service occupations compared to 17.9 per cent of young people who

had left school at 16 (by Year 14). Higher proportions of Year 12 labour market entrants (16-year old school leavers), had entered and were retained in operative level occupations at Year 14. For example, in pilot areas 12.6 per cent of young people at Year 12, had entered operative level work and at Year 14, 7.9 per cent of young people who had left school at 16 were in this category. In contrast, 5.2 per cent of Year 14 labour market entrants in pilot areas had entered operative level work.

7.2.3 The NEET group

Finally, this section examines the composition of the NEET group at Year 14 as well as plotting the progression of young people at Year 14 who had been in the NEET group at Year 12.

Just over one half of young people in the NEET group in both pilot and control areas in Year 14 were new entrants, that is, they had not been in the NEET group at either of their previous interviews in Years 12 or 13 (Table 7.9). Chapter 3 has already suggested that the NEET group (in particular in pilot areas) had increased by Year 14, while there was a corresponding decrease in the proportion of young people who had remained in or had entered full-time education. It seems, therefore, that new entrants to the NEET group at Year 14, largely comprised young people who had completed two years in full-time education but who had completed their studies by the time of their Year 14 interview. However, the timing of the Year 14 interviews could be a crucial factor in explaining why so many young people who had completed their education were found in the NEET group at Year 14 (see Chapter 3.1.3). Wave 4 data will be instrumental in untangling the extent to which young people who had completed two years post-16 education entered the NEET group for long periods, or if this experience was short-term while they were looking for work/training or to re enter education.

A slightly larger percentage of young people in control areas had remained in the NEET group since leaving school at 16. In pilot areas, 24.5 per cent of young people had NEET group status at Years 12, 13 and 14 compared to 27 per cent of young people in control areas. However, this difference is not statistically significant.

Table 7.9 **NEET Population at Year 14**

	Pilot	Control
NEET Years 12, 13 and 14	24.5	27
NEET Years 12 and 13 only	18.8	16.6
NEET Year 14 only	56.6	56.4
N (unweighted)	310	169

Base: EMA eligible young people interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14 who were in the NEET group at Year 14. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

Nearly one half of EMA eligible young people in both pilot and control areas who had entered the NEET group at Year 12 were still NEET by Year 14 (Table 7.10). However, it cannot be assumed that this group of young people had retained NEET status since leaving compulsory education; some young people may have participated in some form of education, employment or training at Year 13 or for short periods between interviews.

The introduction of EMA seems to have had little impact in encouraging young people who were in the NEET group at Year 12 to return to full-time education. In pilot areas, 8.7 per cent of young people who were NEET at Year 12 were in full-time education by Year 14, compared to 12.2 per cent of young people in control areas. Fewer young people in pilot areas who were NEET at the end of compulsory education (Year 12), were in work without training by Year 14. In control areas 23.9 per cent of young people who were NEET at Year 12 had entered work without training by Year 14, compared to 19.4 per cent in pilot areas, although this difference is not quite statistically significant at conventional levels.

Table 7.10 Year 14 Destinations of Young People who were in the NEET Group at Year 12

	Pilot	Control
Full time Education	8.7	12.2
Government Supported Training	3.5	0.9
Work: in house training	19.6	17.5
Work: no training	19.4	23.9
NEET	48.8	45.5
Total	100	100
N (unweighted)	168	121

Base: EMA eligible young people who were interviewed in Years 12, 13 and 14, who were in the NEET group at Year 12. Cohort 1 only. Pilot and attrition weights.

8 EMA AND PART-TIME WORK

SUMMARY

- It seems that young people who were eligible for EMA in the pilot areas (whether a maximum or partial award) were less likely to have combined full-time education with part-time work during Years 12 and 13 than their counterparts in the control areas.
- Among young people in higher education at the start of Year 14, when EMA was no longer available, those who had been eligible for EMA in the pilot areas were no less likely to have a part-time job than those in the control areas.

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has examined young people's entry into the labour market once they had left full-time education and, in Chapter 6, we examined how young people were combining part-time work with higher education. This chapter explores how young people who were eligible for EMA combined part-time work with full-time post-16 education. In particular, the focus is on participation in part-time work and hours worked, and how these appear to be related to EMA and to other characteristics of young people.

The analysis uses two methodologies: a regression-based approach and a matching approach. This is useful as a sensitivity analysis and, also importantly, the regression framework allows a description of the relationship between the outcomes of interest and the set of characteristics controlled for in the matching procedure.

It is important to bear in mind that the assumptions under which the matching procedure is valid, apply to the whole population of young people before their choices had been affected by EMA (which is why young people are matched on pre-program characteristics only). Young people who chose to go into full-time education are no longer representative of this

population and, therefore, the matching assumptions are very unlikely to hold for this sub-group.⁶⁶

In this sense, a causal interpretation to the results cannot be made. In other words, it is not valid to attribute any effects purely to EMA; the results presented in this chapter are only indicative of associations. For the same reason, the results cannot be extrapolated to the population by using population weights. Thus all results presented, both regression and matching, are unweighted.

Throughout, the focus of the analysis is on EMA eligible young people only, in both pilots and control areas. Thus the results are useful in highlighting the differences in part-time work choices between fully eligible individuals and those who were eligible for only a partial award of EMA.

8.2 Regression based approach

Table 8.1 reports the results from a maximum likelihood probit with the dependent variable equal to 1 if the individual is in part-time work. The sample consists of all young people in full-time education, who were either fully or partially eligible for EMA. Data from Cohorts and 2 have been combined and results are presented separately by gender and urban / rural areas, and by young people's circumstances in relation to part-time work at the start of Year 12 and Year 13. Only those variables directly relating to EMA are shown, although a large number of individual, household, parental, area and school characteristics have also been controlled for. The more salient features of the model are discussed further below, in order to give a flavour of how these characteristics relate to the propensity of young people to be in part-time work whilst in full-time education.

Table 8.1 consists of four panels, referring to urban men, urban women, rural men, and rural women. The columns relate to activity at Years 12 and 13. Marginal effects are reported, and a positive sign indicates an increase in the probability of participation in part-time work. Therefore, the coefficients are interpreted as follows: for urban young men in Year 12, those

⁶⁶ A similar line of thought can be applied to the regression framework, where one might think there are unobservable characteristics affecting both the education choice and part-time work decisions.

who were fully eligible for EMA were 6.7 percentage points less likely to be participating in part-time work, relative to eligible controls.⁶⁷

Table 8.1 Probit Estimates with Dependent Variable = 1 if Young Person is in Part-Time Work whilst in Full-Time Post-16 Education

	Year 12	Year 13
Urban Young Men		
Young person is in cohort 2	0.0455 (0.0167)**	0.0543 (0.0227)*
Family income	0.0280 (0.0385)	-0.0448 (0.0454)
Family income squared	-0.0125 (0.0126)	0.0084 (0.0121)
Receiving full EMA	-0.0674 (0.0222)**	-0.0727 (0.0308)*
Receiving partial EMA	-0.0158 (0.0234)	0.0409 (0.0322)
Receiving means tested benefits	-0.0097 (0.0272)	-0.0273 (0.0374)
Urban Young Women		
Young person is in cohort 2	-0.0289 (0.0168)	0.0249 (0.0204)
Family income	-0.0465 (0.0562)	-0.0302 (0.0658)
Family income squared	0.0464 (0.0226)*	0.0274 (0.0262)
Receiving full EMA	-0.0715 (0.0227)**	-0.1039 (0.0275)**
Receiving partial EMA	-0.0638 (0.0237)**	-0.0561 (0.0286)
Receiving means tested benefits	-0.0496 (0.0271)	-0.0846 (0.0330)*
Rural Young Men		
Young person is in cohort 2	0.0052 (0.0292)	0.0089 (0.0357)
Family income	-0.1338 (0.0952)	-0.2084 (0.1284)
Family income squared	0.0688 (0.0400)	0.1358 (0.0568)*
Receiving full EMA	-0.2107 (0.0447)**	-0.2636 (0.0556)**
Receiving partial EMA	-0.2529 (0.0456)**	-0.3698 (0.0565)**
Receiving means tested benefits	-0.0141 (0.0464)	0.0481 (0.0583)

⁶⁷ In the tables, “Receiving full EMA” gives the gain from being in a pilot area and receiving the full amount of EMA, relative to being an eligible control. Similarly, “Receiving partial EMA” gives the gain for individuals who were partially eligible for EMA, relative to being an eligible control.

Cont..

Rural Young Women		
Young person is in cohort 2	0.0095 (0.0271)	0.0579 (0.0296)
Family income	0.0373 (0.0711)	-0.0542 (0.0964)
Family income squared	-0.0083 (0.0267)	0.0310 (0.0402)
Receiving full EMA	-0.1637 (0.0423)**	-0.2249 (0.0486)**
Receiving partial EMA	-0.1952 (0.0440)**	-0.1933 (0.0487)**
Receiving means tested benefits	-0.0760 (0.0431)	-0.0875 (0.0480)

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

The results indicate that, even after controlling for a range of characteristics, those individuals who received EMA were less likely to be in part-time work.⁶⁸ Both young men and young women who were eligible for EMA, in both Years 12 and 13, were less likely to be in part-time work in rural areas. This pattern is consistent across Years and groups, and holds particularly for those eligible for the maximum amount of EMA. However, it should be noted that the large difference between rural and urban areas is likely to reflect the very different labour markets in the pilot area (Cornwall) vis-à-vis the control areas (Devon and Norfolk). Whilst ward-level labour market variables are controlled for in the analysis, if these variables do not adequately capture differences in the relative part-time work opportunities between the pilot and control rural areas, which may be substantially different from each other, the results may be somewhat overstating the effect. Differences in labour markets between urban pilot and control areas are not so stark, so that the results are likely to be more robust.

The only set of characteristics that seems to be consistently positively correlated with participation in part-time work is if the young person's mother was in employment. There also seems to be a positive relationship between GCSE results and participation in part-time work, although this finding was not so consistent across the four sub-samples and the two years of data; the finding was statistically significant in approximately only half of the cases.

⁶⁸ Note the similarity to matching, in the sense that the interpretation of the EMA variables is net of all the other characteristics we control for.

The presence of a father in the household also seemed to be positively associated with part-time work participation although, again, this did not hold across all sub-samples of interest. In particular, as the analysis moved from Year 12 to Year 13 the positive effect became insignificant.

Next, relationships between the same set of variables and hours of part-time work were examined. The main concern here is that, by definition, hours of work can only be observed for young people who chose to work. This problem was dealt with by estimating a censored regression (to bit) model for all those in full-time education.

Table 8.2 Tobit Estimates with Dependent Variable Hours of Work

Urban Young Men	Year 12		Year 13	
	Coefficient	Marginal Effect	Coefficient	Marginal Effect
Young person is in cohort 2	1.5177 (0.6145)*	0.5237	1.6088 (0.6528)*	0.8652
Family income	0.2401 (1.3625)	0.0828	-1.3568 (1.2731)	-0.7301
Family income squared	-0.2607 (0.4277)	-0.0900	0.1352 (0.3188)	0.0727
Receiving full EMA	-2.6465 (0.8228)**	-0.8965	-2.6376 (0.8962)**	-1.3950
Receiving partial EMA	-0.4961 (0.8474)	-0.1698	0.7408 (0.9110)	0.4017
Receiving means tested benefits	-0.7767 (1.0132)	-0.2650	-0.2333 (1.1106)	-0.1252
Urban Young Women				
Young person is in cohort 2	-0.5899 (0.4336)	-0.2660	0.7325 (0.4352)	0.4915
Family income	0.5107 (1.0672)	0.2302	-1.1190 (1.3912)	-0.7510
Family income squared	0.3888 (0.3488)	0.1753	0.6630 (0.5408)	0.4449
Receiving full EMA	-2.1120 (0.5890)**	-0.9345	-2.5315 (0.5985)**	-1.6653
Receiving partial EMA	-2.0068 (0.6013)**	-0.8762	-1.2688 (0.5918)*	-0.8408
Receiving means tested benefits	-1.4757 (0.7134)*	-0.6496	-2.6501 (0.7316)**	-1.7145

Cont..

Rural Young Men

Young person is in cohort 2	0.1384 (0.7334)	0.0629	0.6525 (0.8435)	0.3814
Family income	-2.2824 (2.1682)	-1.0370	-4.6800 (3.0496)	-2.7358
Family income squared	1.3383 (0.8692)	0.6080	2.8659 (1.3214)*	1.6753
Receiving full EMA	-5.4758 (1.1402)**	-2.2923	-5.5204 (1.3137)**	-3.0038
Receiving partial EMA	-6.5190 (1.1520)**	-2.6102	-7.5782 (1.3201)**	-3.9650
Receiving means tested benefits	-1.0459 (1.2003)	-0.4640	2.0489 (1.3997)	1.2440

Rural Young Women

Young person is in cohort 2	0.0671 (0.5024)	0.0391	0.9900 (0.5643)	0.7347
Family income	0.0388 (1.3565)	0.0226	-1.2212 (1.8525)	-0.9049
Family income squared	0.1904 (0.5142)	0.1109	0.6627 (0.7726)	0.4911
Receiving full EMA	-3.2556 (0.7906)**	-1.7906	-3.1360 (0.9041)**	-2.2382
Receiving partial EMA	-3.8677 (0.8157)**	-2.0805	-2.9485 (0.9034)**	-2.1054
Receiving means tested benefits	-1.5801 (0.8234)	-0.8885	-2.2192 (0.9602)*	-0.0876

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Years 12 and 13. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

Table 8.2 shows results for the same set of variables as in Table 8.1. Because the coefficients of the tobit model are not directly interpretable as marginal effects on the number of hours of work, the marginal effects are also shown. So, for example for urban young men, being eligible for the maximum amount of EMA is associated with a reduction of 0.06 hours worked by comparison with eligible controls. The main point to note is that the pattern of results follows very closely those already discussed for participation.

8.3 Matching

This section uses a matching framework to examine part-time work related issues. Thus the figures in what follows, refer to the residual correlation between the outcomes of interest - participation in part-time work and hours of work - and EMA eligibility variables, after controlling for a set of matching variables.

In the Tables below, the samples again refer to eligible individuals in full-time education, pooling both cohorts. Tables 8.3 and 8.4 (Years 12 and 13 respectively) display the difference in participation in part-time work between eligible pilots and eligible controls, for the four subgroups.

As one would expect, the results are consistent with those from the regression approach. In Year 12 the incidence of part-time work is consistently negatively associated with receipt of EMA. This relationship is significant for urban young men eligible for either the partial or the maximum amount of EMA, and for rural young men receiving a partial award. For young women, the negative relationship between EMA and part-time work is significant only for those in urban areas eligible for the full amount of EMA. Interestingly, in Year 13 the negative relationship is only significant for rural young men (both those eligible for partial and maximum EMA) and for urban young women eligible for maximum EMA. Note that the magnitudes of the results differ from those in the regressions above. This is not surprising, given that, whilst they both build on the same assumptions, the regression framework exploits additional parametric restrictions.

Table 8.3 Participation in Part Time Work, Matched Sample, Year 12

	Year 12					
	Pilot	Partial EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)	Pilot	Maximum EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)
Urban Young Men	0.4248	0.4975	-0.0727 (0.0367)	0.2650	0.3259	-0.0609 (0.0291)
Sample size			951			1,366
Urban Young Women	0.5045	0.5540	-0.0495 (0.0377)	0.3468	0.4289	-0.0821 (0.0290)
Sample size			1120			1,462
Rural Young Men	0.3810	0.6389	-0.2579 (0.0803)	0.3292	0.4125	-0.0833 (0.0866)
Sample size			294			322
Rural Young Women	0.50	0.5720	-0.0720 (0.0854)	0.4615	0.5566	-0.0951 (0.0822)
Sample size			326			338

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Year 12. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

Notes: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 8.4 Participation in Part-Time Work, Matched Sample, Year 13

	Year 13					
	Pilot	Partial EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)	Pilot	Maximum EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)
Urban Young Men	0.6069	0.5331	0.0738 (0.0508)	0.4246	0.4559	-0.0313 (0.0454)
Sample size			641			789
Urban Young Women	0.6873	0.7210	-0.0337 (0.0425)	0.5104	0.6431	-0.1327 (0.0389)
Sample size			758			864
Rural Young Men	0.4541	0.7009	-0.2468 (0.1091)	0.4663	0.6942	-0.2279 (0.1033)
Sample size			185			163
Rural Young Women	0.6491	0.7247	-0.0756 (0.0972)	0.5636	0.7061	-0.1425 (0.1037)
Sample size			265			236

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Year 12. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

Notes: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 8.5 Hours of Part-Time Work, Matched Sample, Year 12

	Year 12					
	Pilot	Partial EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)	Pilot	Maximum EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)
Urban Young Men	5.0568	5.5912	-0.5344 (0.5137)	3.0710	4.1704	-1.0994 (0.4423)
Sample size			951			1,366
Urban Young Women	5.1286	6.0960	-0.9674 (0.4649)	3.6860	4.8045	-1.1185 (0.4090)
Sample size			1120			1,462
Rural Young Men	3.6633	7.3573	-3.6940 (1.2171)	3.1988	3.6564	-0.4576 (0.9656)
Sample size			294			322
Rural Young Women	4.1933	6.0162	-1.8229 (1.0595)	3.9882	5.2885	-1.3003 (0.9075)
Sample size			326			338

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Year 12. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

Notes: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at the 5% significance level assuming normality.

Table 8.6 Hours of Part-Time Work, Matched Sample, Year 13

	Year 13					
	Pilot	Partial EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)	Pilot	Maximum EMA Control	Effect (S.E.)
Urban Young Men	8.2122	7.1008	1.1114 (0.8127)	5.7858	6.8124	-1.0266 (0.7752)
Sample size			641			789
Urban Young Women	8.1346	8.4433	-0.3087 (0.6322)	6.1204	7.8724	-1.7520 (0.6027)
Sample size			758			864
Rural Young Men	5.3081	8.1594	-2.8513 (1.4534)	5.8282	7.3666	-1.5384 (1.5177)
Sample size			185			163
Rural Young Women	6.7283	7.4384	-0.7101 (1.2511)	6.3559	6.7934	-0.4375 (1.2162)
Sample size			265			236

Base: EMA eligible young people in pilot and control areas in full-time education in Year 13. Cohorts 1 and 2. Unweighted.

Notes: Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications. Figures in bold are significant at the five per cent significance level assuming normality.

Tables 8.5 and 8.6 (Years 12 and 13 respectively) show differences in hours worked between eligible pilot and eligible control young people. In both years the figures suggest a negative association between EMA eligibility and hours of part-time work across all sub-samples, again consistent with the regression results. In Year 12, the results are only significant for rural young men eligible for partial EMA and for urban young women eligible for either a partial or maximum EMA award. In Year 13, the negative relationship between EMA eligibility and part-time working hours is only significant for urban young women eligible for the maximum amount of EMA. The difference in the magnitudes across the matching and regression approaches is more pronounced here, which is partly attributable to the different assumptions underlying the two approaches.⁶⁹ What these results clearly suggest, however, is that the impact of EMA is on reducing participation in part-time work participation, rather than on reducing the hours worked for those who choose to work part-time. In other words, all the reported differences in hours observed in the whole sample is attributable to the reduction in the number of people undertaking part-time work in pilot areas.

⁶⁹ In the censored regression model, the contribution to the likelihood of those not working importantly depends on their observable characteristics through parametric assumptions. On the other hand, the matching approach imposes no parametric restrictions, and simply assigns 0 hours to those not working.

Finally, Tables 8.7 and 8.8 report the matching results for the start of Year 14 for young people in Cohort 1 only, among those in higher education who are eligible for (although no longer in receipt of) EMA. As the sample now consists of young people in higher education, the analysis here is distinct in many respects from the earlier analysis. However, to the extent that these young people are no longer eligible for EMA, it is interesting to examine whether differences in part-time work decisions across eligible pilots and eligible controls, are in line with the differences in the first two interviews with young people at the beginning of Years 12 and 13.

The results are reported separately by gender and eligibility (sample sizes are too small to allow for a robust disaggregation by rural/urban area). In terms of participation in part-time work, there appears to be a reversal of the earlier results which suggested that young people at the start of Years 12 and 13 who were eligible for EMA were less likely to have part-time jobs in the pilot than in the control areas. For those in higher education, it seems that those who had been eligible for EMA in the pilot areas were slightly more likely to have part-time jobs and, with the exception of urban young men who had been eligible for the maximum amount of EMA, were likely to work for more hours. However, none of these effects were statistically significant. Descriptive analysis in Chapter 6 also showed no clear association between having, or intending to have, a job and EMA receipt among young people in higher education at the start of Year 14. However, those who had been in continuous EMA receipt were most likely to say that they could not afford to study unless they worked part-time and also reported working the longest hours.

Table 8.7 Participation in Part-Time Work at the Start of Year 14, Matched Sample

Year 14				
	Pilot	Control	Effect	SE
Young Men who had been eligible for maximum EMA	0.3948	0.3897	0.0051	0.0737
Sample size			233	
Young Women who had been eligible for maximum EMA	0.4750	0.4691	0.0059	0.7592
Sample size			261	
Young Men who had been eligible for partial EMA	0.4780	0.3878	0.0902	0.9703
Sample size			205	
Young Women who had been eligible for partial EMA	0.5173	0.4845	0.0328	0.8117
Sample size			259	

Base: EMA eligible young people in Higher Education at the start of Year 14. Cohort 1 only. Unweighted.

Table 8.8 Hours of Part-Time Work at the Start of Year 14, Matched Sample

Year 14				
	Pilot	Control	Effect	SE
Young Men who had been eligible for maximum EMA	5.9871	6.6877	-0.7006	1.3650
Sample size			233	
Young Women who had been eligible for maximum EMA	6.4482	5.7041	0.7441	1.1990
Sample size			261	
Young Men who had been eligible for partial EMA	7.2195	5.5946	1.6249	1.5760
Sample size			205	
Young Women who had been eligible for partial EMA	7.1621	7.7463	-0.5842	1.6097
Sample size			259	

Base: EMA eligible young people in Higher Education at the start of Year 14. Cohort 1 only. Unweighted.

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ANNEX A

ANNEX A

The calculation of weights to deal with attrition and potential non-representativeness of the initial wave 1 sample

A weighting scheme is constructed to account for three factors:

- the possibility of non-random attrition from the sample. In cohort 1 around 24% attrit between wave 1 and wave 2 and 40% between wave 1 and wave 3. In cohort 2 around 23% attrite between wave 1 and wave 2.
- the fact that there were some sampling problems with the original EMA sample, which means that we may have under-sampled some key groups with characteristics known to be disproportionately associated with not staying on in full-time education.
- to enable us to weight up our pilot (or alternatively our control) areas to the National English population so that we can speculate on what would happen if the program was rolled out nationally.

In order to deal with the second and third of the above issues, we utilise pilot, control and national population weights that are constructed using FRS weights, details of which are outlined in the second year report.

For the first issue the attrition weights that we use depend on the methodology employed. For the matching analysis we continue to use the same technique as in last years' report. This essentially assumes that sample attrition is random within each of the 44 groups that we use to weight our data. For the descriptive analysis we are able to calculate weights that take into account much more of the information contained in the wave 1 questionnaire. These attrition weights are constructed as follows:

For all individuals in the original wave 1 samples, a dummy variable is assigned to each person, which is equal to 1 if that person has *not* attrited in each successive wave of the sample. This is done separately for each cohort. Individuals from both the main EMA and the EMA(T) pilot areas are included, as well as individuals in the control areas.

For each cohort, the probability of not attriting is assumed to be a function of observable characteristics as at wave 1, which importantly, include the young person's main activity and eligibility status. This is important as these characteristics are clearly observed for all individuals, whether they attrit or not. In addition, controlling for main activity in wave 1 in some sense allows for attrition to be a function of the outcome of interest.⁷⁰ The analysis is carried out separately for males and females, in both urban and rural areas, thus leading to four different sub-samples for each cohort.

The attrition problem basically comes down to the fact that those we observe for each subsequent wave after wave 1 (for each cohort) might not be a representative sample of the original sample. For each of the four sub-samples, probit regressions are estimated. All of the original wave 1 samples for whom there is sufficient background information are included in the analysis. Each of the probit regressions has a dependent variable that is one if the individual is observed not to have attrited by the relevant wave. A parsimonious specification is used from experimenting with all of the characteristics used in the standard matching process.⁷¹ From these probits the inverse of the predicted probability of not attriting is constructed. This is what we term the 'attrition weight'.⁷² The higher the probability of attrition, the higher this weight will be. Intuitively, those individuals with characteristics known to be associated with a higher probability of attrition, are assigned a higher weight, as individuals 'like' them are under-represented in subsequent waves due to attrition.

The final weights that are used in the analysis are the product of the population and attrition weights.⁷³ It is not possible to calculate weights for all individuals since they may have missing background information that is deemed an important determinant of whether they are likely to attrit. As this only applies to a relatively small number of cases we rescale the weights upwards to obtain the original population totals. This is done within each of the four

⁷⁰ Although we are unable to control for outcomes of interest in wave 2 or wave 3 since they are unobserved for those who attrit.

⁷¹ In particular, we use a stepwise regression procedure on the wide variety of observed characteristics, to select the set of explanatory variables to use in the final specification. This means that although we start with the same set of variables for each group of individuals, the final set of variables selected by the stepwise procedure is not necessarily the same.

⁷² Across non-attriters, the mean of this weight is one.

⁷³ A small number of the calculated weights are less than 1. This arises because we are using a 5 year average of FRS data to assign population weights to our sample and the composition of the cohort will have changed in these 5 years.

‘types’ of young people (rural female, rural male, urban female and urban male) to ensure that each subgroup is weighted to the correct population total.

ANNEX B

ANNEX B

EMA Receipt Variable

The EMA Receipt variable used in Chapter 6 divides young people in the pilot areas into four groups:

- Received EMA throughout their two years in post-16 education;
- Received EMA for part of their time in post-16 education;
- Estimated to be eligible on income grounds but did not receive EMA at all; and,
- Ineligible for EMA.

Since information about family income was only collected at the first wave of interviews continuous receipt of EMA provides a useful proxy indicator of a young person who has had a relatively low family income throughout the period since finishing compulsory education and ineligibility suggests a relatively high family income, at least at the time of the initial interview with parents.

Table AB.1 investigates this further by comparing the first three groups of EMA eligible young people with estimates of whether their family incomes were sufficiently low to entitle them to a full award of weekly EMA (parents income less than £13,000 per annum), or to a partial award (parents incomes of between £13,000 and £30,000 per annum). It shows that almost three-fifths of those who had been in continuous receipt of EMA were eligible for a full award (58.5 per cent). In contrast, those young people who had received EMA at some point were more likely to have been eligible for only a partial EMA award (57 per cent) and three-fifths of eligible young people who had not received EMA at all would have been eligible for only a partial award (60.4 per cent).

Table AB.1 EMA Receipt and Eligibility among Young People Entering HE

			Row per cent
	Full EMA Eligibility	Partial EMA Eligibility	Unweighted N
Continuous EMA Receipt	58.5	41.5	378
Received EMA at some point	43.0	57.0	92
No EMA receipt	39.6	60.4	136

Unweighted Base: 606 EMA-eligible young people in the pilot areas with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available. Cohort 1 Wave 3.

Further evidence of the contrasting backgrounds of these young people can be seen in Table AB2 which examines their socio-economic background. Those who had received EMA continuously were vastly under-represented in the highest socio-economic group (Professional/Managerial) and over-represented in all other groups but particularly in the unskilled and semi-skilled manual and not in work groups. In contrast, the group of young people classified as ineligible for EMA at the start of the research were over-represented in the Professional/managerial group and almost absent from the not in work group. Whilst the figures for the other two groups are less clear, they seem to move in the anticipated direction.

Table AB.2 EMA Receipt and Socio-economic Group of Young People Entering HE**Column per cent**

	Continuous EMA Receipt	Received EMA at some point	No EMA receipt	Ineligible for EMA
Professional/Managerial	12.8	20.5	52.1	61.4
Other Non-Manual	34.6	26.7	27.2	28.8
Skilled Manual	14.1	21.3	12.3	6.0
Unskilled and Semi- skilled manual	17.5	14.6	2.8	3.0
Not in work	21.0	16.9	5.6	0.7
Unweighted N	378	92	136	373

Unweighted Base: 979 young people in the pilot group with a higher education place 2001-2002 for whom information available. Cohort 1 Wave 3.

It seems safe, therefore, to use continuous receipt of EMA as a proxy for low income and SEG and EMA ineligibility as a proxy for greater affluence and higher SEG. The remaining two groups serve as an indicator of intermediate socio-economic status, although this is less reliable for a number of reasons including:

- The range of factors that might underlie movements in and out of EMA receipt, including changes in income eligibility but also administrative errors, and changes in other family circumstances (EMA receipt at some point);
- The range of factors that might underlie non-receipt among eligible non-recipients, including inaccurate estimates of income eligibility, administrative differences between LEA areas in promoting take-up, and eligibility for only a small weekly award (income toward the top of the eligibility).

In addition, numbers in these groups are relatively small and have had to be combined in parts of the analysis.

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