

Education Maintenance Allowance Transport Pilots – Quantitative Findings from Year 1 and 2 (2000-2001/2001-2002)

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ANNEX A

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

This report contains a summary of quantitative evidence from an evaluation of the Education Maintenance Allowance Transport (EMA(T)) pilots, commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES).

The EMA(T) Pilots were introduced in September 2000 and aimed to encourage young people from low income households to remain in post-16 education, by assisting with the costs of travel to and from an education provider. **(1.1)**

The original intention was that two models of EMA(T) should be piloted for young people who were in full-time post-16 education and whose parents' income was £30,000 or less per annum. The 'pure' model would provide the young person with free travel to and from school or college plus termly retention and end of course achievement bonuses for those young people who met the provisions of their Learning Agreement. The 'hybrid' model would give the young person a weekly payment tapered according to parental income, (but smaller at a maximum than in the main EMA pilot areas), as well as subsidised travel. Each model was to be piloted in rural and urban Local Education Authorities (LEAs).

However, prior to the introduction of the scheme, the five LEAs involved agreed with the DfES a number of variations on the basic model of EMA(T) that they were to implement so that, in effect, five different variants of EMA(T) were piloted. A large part of this variation resulted from differences in the extent and nature of post-16 transport provision and other post-16 support that was available in each area prior to the introduction of the EMA(T) pilot scheme. As a result, it was argued that most young people would have noticed very little difference in the level of transport support before and after the introduction of EMA(T).

The areas also varied extensively in their transport infra-structure, so that the actual value of the transport subsidy to young people also differed, and in the extent to which the pilot areas conformed to their designation as 'urban' or 'rural'. **(1.2)**

The main aim of the evaluation of EMA(T) was to assess its impact on young people's post-16 participation, retention and achievement in full-time education and to make recommendations on:

- the levels at which EMA(T) should be set; and
- the effectiveness of bonuses for retention and achievement.

The statistical evaluation design was a longitudinal cohort study involving large surveys of random samples of young people in the 5 EMA(T) pilot areas and eleven control areas which were originally selected as control areas for the ten pilot areas in the main EMA evaluation. Two cohorts of young people were included in the evaluation: young people who completed Year 11 in summer 2000 and in summer 2001. Random samples of young people in the relevant age ranges were drawn by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) from Child Benefit records.

Data in this report relate to the first wave of interviews with both cohorts of young people and the second wave of interviews with the first cohort. Response rates were high for all three waves of interviews.

Weights have been designed to correct for initial exclusions from the sample and to correct for differential attrition between survey waves. Population weights for the pilot and control areas and for England as a whole have also been designed. All data are weighted, unless stated otherwise.

Details of the analytic strategy can be found in Ashworth et al., 2001, and Ashworth et al., 2002. The important points to note are that:

- the selection of LEA areas to participate in the EMA(T) pilots was not random;
- matching procedures have been developed;
 - at the LEA level, to match pilot areas with control areas on characteristics known to be related with participation in post-16 education; and
 - at the individual level to control for unobserved differences between pilot and control areas (Propensity Score Matching). **(1.3)**

Chapter 2 The Impact of EMA(T) on Education Decisions

The findings of the analysis using Propensity Score Matching techniques are disappointing in that no consistent significant impact of EMA(T) on the education decisions of eligible young people were found. A number of breakdowns of the data were undertaken to explore the impact of EMA on participation and retention in post-16 education by:

- gender;
- location (urban or rural);
- distance from nearest education provider; and
- EMA(T) Variant (Pure or Hybrid).

No consistent significant impact of EMA(T) was found in any of these analyses. The only result of note was that in the hybrid areas EMA(T) was associated with an increase in participation in education at Year 13 among young men of 5.9 percentage points and among young women of 3.6 percentage points. However neither of these results are statistically significant.

Chapter 3 EMA(T) and Young People's Choices Post-16

The five EMA(T) pilot areas differed in the level of socio-economic disadvantage experienced by all eligible young people. Those living in the rural hybrid Variant were least likely to have come from a home where no parent was employed or retired (18 per cent); this contrasts with 39 per cent among those living in the rural pure 1 Variant and 36 per cent in the Urban pure Variant. This pattern of relative disadvantage across EMA(T) pilot areas was replicated among the subset of eligible young people who remained in full-time education at the end of compulsory schooling. **(3.4)**

Unsurprisingly, there were area differences in the average distances between the eligible students' homes and their Year 12 school or college. Those living in the three rural Variants were more likely to live more than ten miles from their education provider than their counterparts in the two urban Variants.

There was a strong positive association between distance to school or college and use of public transport. In addition, there is evidence that the availability of pure or hybrid Variant EMA(T) awards was associated with eligible students' modes of travel in some circumstances. Within the two urban areas, for distances of less than six miles, use of public transport was greater in the pure Variant (where travel was free) than in the hybrid Variant (where it was subsidised). There is evidence that this represents a shift from walking or cycling as a mode of transport. In the rural areas, the availability of free public transport appeared to have a similar association with travel to school or college, but only among eligible students living three to five miles from their education provider. **(3.5)**

There is no indication that the availability of free transport in pure Variants encouraged eligible students to travel further afield to attend preferred education providers. This may reflect limited awareness of the EMA(T) scheme prior to enrolling at the chosen Year 12 educational institution. Among EMA(T) recipients who used public transport on their journeys to and from school or college, only a fifth reported that the availability of EMA(T) had influenced their choice. **(3.6)**

Awareness of EMA(T) differed considerably across the five pilot areas, both among eligible students and among those eligible young people who had not continued in full-time education. However, overall levels of awareness were much lower than those reported in the main EMA study. Awareness of EMA(T) was higher in the two hybrid Variants and lower in the rural Variants. In the Variant with the lowest awareness, application rates for EMA(T) were also very low.

Compared with the main EMA study, a high proportion of EMA(T) recipients did not recall signing a Learning Agreement. Recollection was lowest in one of the rural pure Variants and in the rural hybrid Variant. Recipients who recalled signing a Learning Agreement were most likely to recall that they were required to attend all of their lectures and classes. They were least likely to recall the commitment to seek careers advice before they chose or changed a course. On average, recipients in the three pure Variants recalled a higher number of commitments than those in the two hybrid Variants. **(3.7)**

1 INTRODUCTION

This report contains a summary of quantitative evidence from an evaluation of the Education Maintenance Allowance Transport (EMA(T) pilots, commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The quantitative evaluation of EMA(T) was part of a much wider evaluation of both EMA(T) and the main EMA pilots that is being undertaken by a consortium of research organisations, led by the Centre for Research in Social Policy (CRSP), which also includes the National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR), the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS), the Institute for Employment Research (IER) and the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling (NICEC). A number of reports on other aspects of the evaluation of EMA(T) and of the main EMA pilots have been produced and a full list is appended to this report.

The remainder of this chapter describes briefly the aims of the EMA(T) pilots, summarises their design and implementation, explains the methodology of the quantitative evaluation and, finally, provides an outline of the contents of the rest of the report.

1.1 Aims of the EMA(T) Pilots

The EMA(T) Pilots were introduced in September 2000 as an extension to the main EMA pilots which were introduced one year earlier, in September 1999. The central aim of both schemes was to encourage young people from low income households to remain in post-16 education. However, in broad terms, whereas the main EMA pilots focused on providing eligible young people with the incentive of a weekly cash allowance, the Transport variant aimed to assist eligible young people with their travel costs.

Concern that the costs of traveling to and from post-16 education providers were discouraging some young people, particularly those from low income backgrounds, from remaining in education were expressed in the Social Exclusion Unit's Report *Bridging the Gap* (Social Exclusion Unit, 1999). This report committed the government to introducing an Education Maintenance Allowance directed at students who lived in areas with poor transport provision, particularly those in metropolitan and rural areas. EMA(T) was intended to meet

this commitment by testing out

'innovative approaches to providing additional help with transport costs (e.g. discount schemes) for young people in all kinds of learning, including a variant of EMA pilots focusing on transport, particularly for young people living in areas with poor public transport provision.'

(Bridging the Gap, Social Exclusion Unit, 1999)

More specifically the pilots aimed to:

- Identify the extent to which transport costs are a barrier to learning by testing whether an allowance targeted at the cost of traveling to an educational institution is an effective means of improving participation, retention and achievement in post-16 education; and
- Provide evidence as to whether extra support should be targeted at those students with particularly high transport costs.

1.2 The Structure and Implementation of EMA(T)

The original intention was that two models of EMA(T) should be piloted for young people who were in full-time post-16 education and whose parents' income was £30,000 or less per annum. The 'pure' model would provide the young person with free travel to and from school or college plus termly retention and end of course achievement bonuses for those young people who met the provisions of their Learning Agreement. The 'hybrid' model would give the young person a weekly payment tapered according to parental income, (but smaller at a maximum than in the main EMA pilot areas), as well as subsidised travel. Each model was to be piloted in rural and urban LEAs (Box 1.2).

3 Box 1.2 Design of EMA Transport Pilots

4	Model	LEA Pilot Areas	Awards
	Pure Variant Rural	East Lancs, Suffolk	Free transport to school/college, £50 retention and £50 achievement bonus
	Pure Variant Urban	Sunderland	Free transport to school/college, £80 retention and £140 achievement bonus
	Hybrid Variant Rural	Worcestershire	Discounted travel card, £20 per week maximum, no bonus
	Hybrid Variant Urban	NE Lincolnshire	Free transport to school/college or discounted travel card, £23 per week maximum, no bonus

However, although the levels of awards were implemented as shown in Box 1.2, prior to the introduction of the scheme the five LEAs involved agreed a number of variations with the DfES so that, in effect, five different variants of EMA(T) were piloted. In addition, the pilot areas were encouraged by the DfES to respond to feedback on ways in which the service might be improved in order better to assist young people. The details of each of the schemes as implemented are summarised below.

Pure Transport Models

5 *East Lancashire – Rural Pure Variant 1*

Provision:	Free home-to-school transport regardless of distance from school or college.
Recipient:	Young person.
Income Assessment:	Young people will be eligible for free home-to-school transport if their parents' annual taxable income is £30,000 or less.
Bonus:	£50 retention and £50 achievement bonus, available to all students eligible for an EMA(T) regardless of transport need.
Attendance Requirement:	Transport discount will be lost if student attendance falls below 80 per cent in previous term. Half the retention bonus will reward 90 per cent attendance, and the full retention bonus will reward 95 per cent attendance.

Suffolk – Rural Pure Variant 2

Provision:	A top-up discount over and above the current LEA subsidy to ensure free home-to-school transport regardless of distance from school or college.
Recipient:	Young person.
Income Assessment:	Young people will be eligible for free home-to-school transport if their parents' annual taxable income is £30,000 or less.
Bonus:	£50 retention and £50 achievement bonus, available to all students eligible for an EMA(T) regardless of transport need.
Attendance Requirement:	Transport discount will be lost if student attendance falls below 80 per cent in previous term* Half the retention bonus will reward 90 per cent attendance, and the full retention bonus will reward 95 per cent attendance.

Sunderland – Urban Pure Variant

Provision:	A top-up discount over and above the current LEA and Nexus subsidy to ensure free home-to-school transport regardless of distance from school or college.
Recipient:	Young person.
Income Assessment:	Young people will be eligible for free home-to-school transport if their parents' annual taxable income is £30,000 or less.
Bonus:	£80 retention and £140 achievement bonus, available to all students eligible for an EMA(T) regardless of transport need.
Attendance Requirement:	Transport discount will be lost if student attendance falls below 80 per cent in previous term* Half the retention bonus will reward 90 per cent attendance, and the full retention bonus will reward 95 per cent attendance.

Hybrid Transport Models

NE Lincolnshire – Urban Hybrid Variant

Weekly Allowance: Maximum of £23 weekly.

Recipient: Young person.

Provision: A top-up discount to the current LEA subsidy to ensure free home-to-school transport for young people living beyond 3 miles of the education provider, whose parents income is £13,000 or less. All other students whose parents' income is £30,000 or less, will receive a 75 per cent discount card free of charge, irrespective of distance from school or college.

Bonus: There are no bonuses payable under this variant.

Attendance Requirement: 100 per cent of the allowance entitlement will be lost as a result of not meeting the Learning Agreement that week (e.g. any absence or failure to hand in homework). Transport discount will be lost if attendance falls below 80 per cent in previous term.*

Worcestershire – Rural Hybrid Variant

Weekly Allowance: Maximum of £20 weekly.

Recipient: Young person.

Provision: Young people whose parental income is £30,000 or less will be eligible to receive a 50 per cent discount on their remaining home-to-school transport costs, after any LEA subsidy regardless of distance from school/ college. In practice, this will mean that most young people will pay £33 per term and those with parents on income support will pay £11 per term. Those young people who live within 3 miles of school will be issued with a 50 per cent discount card.

Bonus: There are no bonuses payable under this variant.

Attendance Requirement: 100 per cent of the allowance entitlement will be lost as a result of not meeting the Learning Agreement that week (e.g. any absence or failure to hand in homework). Transport discount will be lost if attendance falls below 80 per cent in previous term.*

* This provision, that transport discount would be lost if attendance had fallen below 80 per cent in the previous term was never actually implemented.

Therefore, the EMA(T) schemes that were actually implemented varied significantly from pilot area to pilot area. A large part of this variation can be attributed to differences in the extent and nature of post-16 transport provision and other post-16 support that was available in each area prior to the introduction of the EMA(T) pilot scheme. This meant that, for example:

- East Lancashire's 'pure' EMA(T) provision was **more generous for each individual** than had previously been available;
- Suffolk's 'pure' EMA(T) **expanded eligibility to more young people** because the existing LEA schemes were only available to students who lived more than three miles from school or college and also had a lower parental income threshold;
- Sunderland's 'pure' scheme was said to have made **very little difference** because transport costs were already very low and extensive subsidy had already been available;
- NE Lincolnshire's 'hybrid' scheme had a maximum weekly allowance of £23 per week which was **equivalent to the termly allowance that had been previously available** to young people from low income families, under the authority's discretionary scheme; and
- Worcestershire's 'hybrid' pilot, whilst providing the possibility of a weekly allowance for the first time, was said to have had little effect as a result of the transport provisions because of the availability of subsidized transport to non-EMA(T) students. However, the pilot was believed to have **widened the choice of education provider** because transport assistance had only been available previously, in general, for travel to the nearest education provider.

As a result, it was argued by those responsible for implementing EMA(T), particularly in the 'pure' areas, that most young people would have noticed very little difference in the level of support available to them before and after the introduction of EMA(T), with the exception of the bonus payments.

The areas also varied extensively in their transport infra-structure, so that the actual value of the transport subsidy to young people also differed. Put at its simplest, providing young people with a free travel pass that can be used at any time of day, seven days a week, is of less value in areas where transport services are severely limited than in areas where services are frequent.

Finally, the extent to which the pilot areas conformed to their designation as ‘urban’ or ‘rural’ also varied. Whilst Sunderland is clearly an ‘urban’ area and Suffolk largely ‘rural’, North East Lincolnshire, designated as ‘urban’ under the pilots has 30 per cent of its population living outside the main towns of Grimsby and Cleethorpes (Humber-side TEC, 2000). Worcestershire, a ‘rural’ pilot, has large centers of population and pockets of deprivation in Worcester itself, as well as in Kidderminster, Bromsgrove and Redditch¹.

All of these variations among the pilot areas have implications for the robustness with which the impact of EMA(T) can be measured statistically, as will be shown in later Chapters.

1.3 The Evaluation of EMA(T)²

The main aim of the evaluation of EMA(T) was to assess its impact on young people’s post-16 participation, retention and achievement in full-time education and to make recommendations on:

- the levels at which EMA(T) should be set; and
- the effectiveness of bonuses for retention and achievement.

The evaluation of EMA(T) has included a number of important elements in addition to the statistical evaluation reported here. Reports have also been produced on the implementation of EMA(T), which includes contextual data relating to the pilot areas³, and on qualitative research with young people and parents⁴.

1.3.1 Design of the statistical evaluation

The statistical evaluation design was a longitudinal cohort study involving large surveys of random samples of young people in the 5 EMA(T) pilot areas and eleven control areas which were originally selected as control areas for the ten pilot areas in the main EMA evaluation⁵. Box 1.3 summarises the original design of the statistical evaluation, with those elements that have actually been undertaken and completed highlighted in bold. Two cohorts of young

¹ This section summarises some of the evidence in Dobson et al., (2003) forthcoming.

² The evaluation of EMA(T) was originally intended to run from 2000 to 2004. However, in the light of findings from the first two years of the pilot it was decided to suspend the evaluation in the summer of 2002.

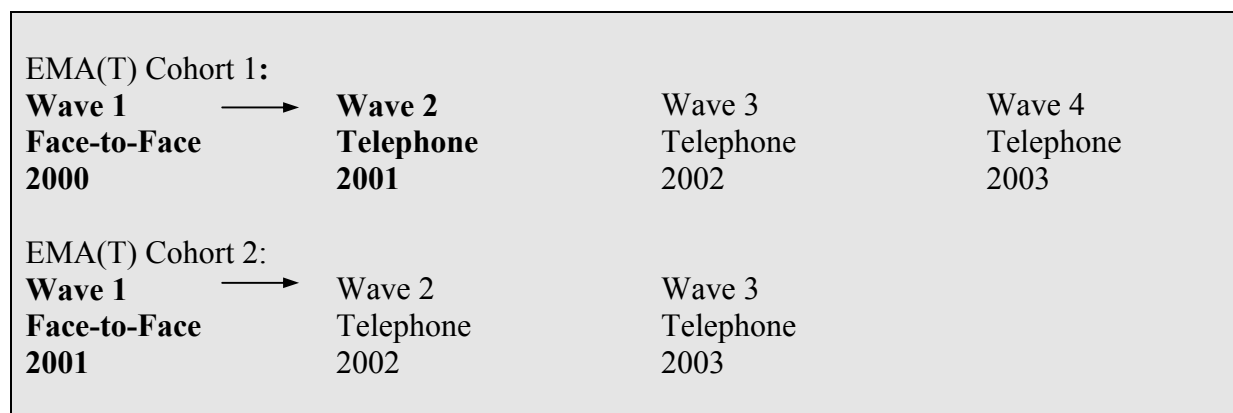
³ Dobson et al., 2003 (forthcoming)

⁴ Dickens et al., 2003 (forthcoming)

⁵ Details of how the control areas were selected can be found in Ashworth et al., 2001

people were included in the evaluation: young people who completed Year 11 in summer 2000 and in summer 2001. The first wave of interviews with each cohort was conducted face-to-face and included an interview with a parent or guardian of the young person. Subsequent waves of telephone interviews were intended to be undertaken at annual intervals although, in the event, only one subsequent wave was completed with Cohort 1. Interviews with those in the control areas took place at the same time as those in the first cohort of EMA(T).

Box 1.3 Survey Design



1.3.2 Questionnaires

All questionnaires were designed in consultation with the DfES.

Wave 1 interviews included:

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

- household composition, relationships, housing tenure, income and ethnicity;
- education decisions and current activities of the young person’s siblings;
- parents’ 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;
- parents’ attitudes to education; and
- sources of funding for the young person post-16 including EMA(T).

A young person's questionnaire covered:

- 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 traveled to school or college and travel costs;
- sources and amounts of income, including EMA(T); and
- expenditure patterns and amounts.

The young person's questionnaire at Wave 2 covered:

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

1.3.3 Sample sizes and response rates

Sample sizes drawn for the first wave of interviews with each Cohort were intended 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(T) models to be measured; and
- take account of the proportion of young people who would inevitably drop out of the evaluation in subsequent waves of interviews (sample attrition).

Wave 1 samples were drawn by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) from Child Benefit records, following specifications provided by the National Centre for Social Research. Eligible young people were those who were born between 01 September 1983 and between 31 August 1984 (Cohort 1) and between 01 September 1984 and 31 August 1985 (Cohort 2) who lived in one of the 5 pilot and 11 control LEA areas covered by the study, as defined by 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 for 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 by the DWP. The letter was addressed to the parent or guardian who received Child Benefit for the young person.

The Wave 2 sample was drawn from young people who had agreed to be re-interviewed at the Wave 1 stage. However, not all young people in the first Wave were included in the second Wave. Young people were excluded from the second wave sample if they or their parents had provided no usable income data in Wave 1. The exceptions were young people who were defined as 'vulnerable' and, therefore, of potential interest to the evaluation of the EMA Extension Pilots. These young people either lived with neither biological parent, had a child or were pregnant, or had special educational needs or a disability.

Fieldwork was undertaken by the National Centre for Social Research.

Response rates were high (Box 1.4). A response rate of 68 per cent of issued names was achieved for the first wave of both Cohorts 1 and 2, and 79 per cent of the Cohort 1 Wave 1 respondents were successfully re-interviewed at Wave 2.

Box 1.4 EMA(T) Sample Sizes and Response Rates

	Total Issued Sample	No. of Individuals Interviewed	Response Rate Per cent	Start Date
Cohort 1 Wave 1	6,506	4,427	68	Nov 2000
Cohort 1 Wave 2	4,147	3,266	79	Dec 2001
Cohort 2 Wave 1	6,515	4,432	68	Jan 2002

1.3.4 Weighting

The samples were originally designed to be representative of young people leaving school at the end of the academic years 1999-00 and 2000-01. There should therefore, have been no need to weight the sample. However, exclusions from the sample meant that some young people with characteristics known to be disproportionately associated with not staying on in full-time education were under-represented. Weights were constructed to correct for this potential source of bias. Weights have also been designed to correct for differential attrition from the surveys, that is, to allow for the possibility that some groups would have been more likely than others to drop out of the surveys between waves. Population weights for the pilot and control areas and for England as a whole have also been designed to aid the statistical analysis reported in chapter 2⁶. In the remainder of the report, all data are weighted unless stated otherwise.

1.3.5 Analytic strategy

Details of the analytic strategy in relation to the selection of control areas, matching with pilot areas and the individual matching procedures developed to take account of unobserved differences between the pilot and control areas can be found in Ashworth et al., 2001 and Ashworth et al., 2002.

⁶ Further details of the weighting strategy can be found in Ashworth et al., 2002.

The important points to note about the strategy in relation to EMA(T) are:

- The selection of LEA areas to participate in the EMA(T) pilots was not random. First, areas had to be chosen that were not already participating in the main EMA (51 areas, including the original 15 EMA pilot areas, operated the main EMA from September 2000). The choice of EMA(T) pilot areas also had to avoid those areas that were already being used as control areas for the main EMA evaluation, and which were also to be used as controls for the EMA(T) evaluation. Secondly, ‘urban’ and ‘rural’ areas had to be found 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 where EMA(T) might be expected to have most impact.
- Statistical techniques have been developed to ensure that individuals in the pilot areas are as alike as possible to those in the control areas in terms of characteristics that are known to be related to participation in post-16 education. In other words, differences have been controlled statistically using matching procedures at two levels:
 - At the LEA level to match pilot areas with control areas. However, the selection of the 11 control areas was made in relation to the 10 original EMA pilot areas within which the statistical evaluation of EMA is being undertaken. These control areas were chosen to match as closely as possible the characteristics of the EMA areas. It was not possible to select new control areas for the EMA(T) evaluation so that the control areas selected for the main EMA evaluation also had to be used for the evaluation of EMA(T).
 - At the individual level to control for unobserved differences between pilot and control areas. The essence of this ‘propensity score matching’ approach is to achieve a control group where each individual is as much like their counterpart in the pilot areas as is possible using observed characteristics. In effect, the aim is to simulate the outcome that would be expected had individuals been allocated randomly to the pilot and control groups, i.e. the young people in the two groups would not be different from each other in any systematic way relevant to the outcome of interest, in this case participation in post-16 education. Individual young people in the first EMA(T) cohort (2000) have been compared to matched individuals in the second cohort of the main EMA control areas (2000), since these young people were born in the same year. However, individuals who were in the second EMA(T) cohort (2001) have also had to be matched with young people in the control areas for the second cohort of the main

EMA (2000; who were, therefore, born a year earlier than those in the second cohort of EMA(T)), because interviews were not conducted with a new set of individuals in the control areas in 2001.

1.4 Content of the Report

Chapter 2 of this report describes the results of statistical modelling of the effect of EMA(T) on participation in post-16 education and in other post-16 destinations in Years 12 and 13, using propensity score matching techniques described in Section 1.3.5 above. Data from first wave interviews with young people in Cohorts 1 and 2 have been combined to increase sample sizes and, hence, the precision of the estimates for initial decisions about post-16 destinations (participation). Data from the second wave of interviews with young people from Cohort 1 have also been analysed to provide information on the impact of EMA on decisions at Year 13 (retention).

Chapter 3 of the report provides a descriptive context to, and extension of, the analysis in Chapter 2. Propensity score matching techniques require relatively large sample sizes so that a limited amount of disaggregation and sub-group analysis is possible, even with the large sample sizes in this evaluation. Descriptive analysis in this chapter, therefore, examines young people's family characteristics and destinations in greater detail, how they travel to and from school and college, their choice of education provider and their levels of awareness, applications and receipt of EMA(T).

2 The impact of EMA(T) on education decisions

This section examines how EMA(T) impacted on the education decisions of young people in the first two cohorts for whom EMA(T) was available, that is, those who finished compulsory education in summer 2000 and summer 2001 and who were eligible for EMA(T) on income grounds. Analysis of the initial decision to participate in post-16 education immediately after the end of post-compulsory education (in ‘Year 12’) uses combined data from the first wave of interviews with each cohort of young people. Decisions about participation in education in the following year (‘Year 13’, academic year 2001-2002), are analysed using data from the second wave of interviews with the first Cohort only. The impact of EMA(T) on retention is measured for young people in Cohort 1 who participated in both the first and second wave of interviews. The analysis uses propensity score matching techniques, as described in Chapter 1, and weights have been applied throughout so that the results are representative of all eligible young people in the pilot areas.

2.1 Overall Impact of EMA(T) on Participation and Retention

Table 2.1 presents findings for the impact of EMA(T) on both cohorts in Year 12 and for the first cohort in Year 13, split by gender. No significant impact on education decisions was found⁷. In other words, EMA(T) had not increased participation in post-16 education significantly either in Year 12 or Year 13, for all eligible young people, or among young men or young women.

⁷ Table A1 in Annex A reproduces these results for just those who are in the first cohort who were interviewed in both waves.

Table 2.1 Impact of EMA(T) on Year 12 and Year 13 Destination by Gender

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men						
FT Education	62.8	63.8	-1.0	58.4	57.0	1.5
(S.E)			(2.0)			(3.1)
Work/Training	20.1	21.0	-0.9	26.6	32.5	-5.8
(S.E)			(1.8)			(2.9)
NEET	17.1	15.1	1.9	14.9	10.6	4.4
(S.E)			(1.6)			(2.5)
Sample size			2,730			983
Population size			18,442			9,241
Young Women						
FT Education	72.2	73.2	-1.0	63.3	63.6	-0.4
(S.E)			(1.8)			(3.1)
Work/Training	12.6	12.8	-0.2	21.0	22.8	-1.8
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.5)
NEET	15.2	14.0	1.2	15.7	13.5	2.1
(S.E)			(1.5)			(2.5)
Sample size			2,748			1,091
Population size			16,313			8,133
All Eligibles						
FT Education	67.2	68.2	-1.0	60.7	60.1	0.6
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.3)
Work/Training	16.6	17.2	-0.6	24.0	27.9	-3.9
(S.E)			(1.2)			(2.1)
NEET	16.2	14.5	1.6	15.3	11.9	3.3
(S.E)			(1.1)			(1.9)
Sample size			5,478			2,074
Population size			34,755			17,345

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

Base: EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 1 of Cohorts 1 and 2 combined (Year 12 results).

EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 2 of Cohort 1 (Year 13 results).

Table 2.2 shows the impact of the EMA(T) on the same group of young people, but this time divided by whether they lived in an urban or a rural area. Again no significant impact on the proportion of young people in full-time education was found.

Therefore, it seems that EMA(T) had no significant impact on participation in post-16 full-time education, either in Year 12 or Year 13.

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

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban						
FT Education	64.1	65.0	-0.9	55.9	56.5	-0.7
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.5)
Work/Training	17.6	18.2	-0.5	24.0	30.6	-6.6
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.4)
NEET	18.3	16.9	1.4	20.1	12.8	7.3
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.0)
Sample size			3,021			1,100
Population size			15,555			7,743
Rural						
FT Education	69.8	70.9	-1.1	64.6	63.0	1.6
(S.E)			(2.1)			(3.4)
Work/Training	15.8	16.4	-0.6	24.0	25.8	-1.8
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.9)
NEET	14.5	12.7	1.7	11.4	11.2	0.2
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.8)
Sample size			2,457			974
Population size			19,200			9,631

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

Base: EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 1 of Cohorts 1 and 2 combined (Year 12 results).

EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 2 of Cohort 1 (Year 13 results).

Table 2.3 focuses on young people in the first cohort who were interviewed in both the first and second waves, to explore the impact of EMA(T) according to the different educational paths that young people might have taken in the period of around 18 months since they completed compulsory education. Again, no significant impact of EMA(T) was found on any of the different educational pathways either in rural areas, in urban areas, or in all areas combined. EMA(T) appears to have had no significant impact on retaining young people in education.

Table 2.3 Impact of EMA(T) on Destination Pathways in Year 12 and Year 13 by Location

			Per cent
	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	53.7	54.6	-0.9 (2.5)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	15.0	17.7	-2.8 (2.0)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.1	1.9	0.2 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	29.2	25.7	3.4 (2.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	78.2	75.4	2.8 (2.6)
Sample size			1,100
Rural			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	62.4	61.8	0.6 (3.4)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	13.9	15.5	-1.6 (2.3)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	1.2	1.0 (0.7)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	21.4	21.5	0.0 (3.2)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	81.9	79.9	0.2 (3.0)
Sample size			974
All Areas			
Education Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	58.6	58.6	0.0 (2.2)
Education Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	14.4	16.4	-2.1 (1.6)
Other activity Y12 → Education Y13 (S.E)	2.2	1.5	0.7 (0.5)
Other activity Y12 → Other activity Y13 (S.E)	24.9	23.4	1.5 (2.0)
Retention Rate (for those in Edn in Y12) (S.E)	80.2	77.9	2.3 (2.0)
Sample size			2,074

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1000 replications.
Base: All eligible young people in Cohort 1 Wave 1 who were re-interviewed in Wave 2.

2.2 Impact of EMA(T) and Distance from Education Provider

It might be expected that EMA(T) would have a greater impact on those young people who lived further away from their nearest provider of post-16 education, since the value of assistance with transport costs would be greater. Analysis for Table 2.4 split the sample by how closely young people lived to the nearest post-16 education provider. To ensure the sample was large enough for robust analysis, the (pre-matching) sample was divided in half; the 50 per cent of young people who lived furthest away from an education provider and the 50 per cent who lived closest to a provider.

Again, no significant impact of EMA(T) was found on participation in education in either Year 12 or Year 13 although, as expected, the largest percentage difference was among those who lived further away from their nearest education provider. Among these young people 3.6 percentage points more were in education in Year 13 in the pilot areas compared to the control areas. However, this difference is not sufficiently large to be statistically significant at conventional levels (standard error 2.8).

Table 2.4 Impact of EMA(T) on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations by Distance to Nearest Y12 Education Provider

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Closest 50%						
FT Education	70.0	68.5	1.5	62.6	61.0	1.6
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.5)
Work/Training	14.4	16.5	-2.1	21.3	25.5	-4.2
(S.E)			(1.5)			(2.0)
NEET	15.5	15.0	0.6	16.1	13.5	2.6
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.0)
Sample size			2,732			1,006
Population size			17,078			8,615
Furthest 50%						
FT Education	64.4	67.2	-2.9	58.0	54.3	3.6
(S.E)			(1.8)			(2.8)
Work/Training	17.5	17.3	0.2	26.4	29.3	-2.9
(S.E)			(1.5)			(2.5)
NEET	18.1	15.4	2.6	15.6	16.3	-0.7
(S.E)			(1.4)			(2.4)
Sample size			2,730			1,053
Population size			17,721			8,759

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications.
 Base: EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 1 of Cohorts 1 and 2 combined (Year 12 results).
 EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 2 of Cohort 1 (Year 13 results).

2.3 Impact of the Different Variants of EMA(T)

The two variants of EMA(T), ‘hybrid’ and ‘pure’ might also be expected to have impacted differently on young people, (although the different ways in which each LEA actually implemented ‘their’ variant described in Chapter 1 should be borne in mind). The hybrid variant might be expected to have been more fruitful, as young people were eligible for a weekly payment similar in nature, if less generous, to that available in the main EMA areas, which has been found to have a significant impact on education choices. Therefore, this section examines the impact of the hybrid and pure variants of EMA(T) in turn.

2.3.1 Impact of the hybrid variant

Table 2.5 looks at young people in the hybrid variant areas and, again, no consistent significant impact of EMA(T) on education decisions was found. Among the first cohort there were 5.9 percentage points more young men and 3.6 percentage points more young women in education in Year 13 in the pilot areas compared to the control areas. However, these differences were not sufficiently large to be statistically significant at conventional levels (standard errors of 4.7 and 4.5 respectively).

Table 2.5 Impact of Hybrid EMA(T) on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations by Gender

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men						
FT Education	64.1	65.3	-1.3	59.8	53.9	5.9
(S.E)			(3.0)			(4.7)
Work/Training	18.9	17.4	1.5	24.5	30.2	-5.7
(S.E)			(2.4)			(3.0)
NEET	17.0	17.2	-0.2	15.7	15.9	0.2
(S.E)			(2.7)			(4.6)
Sample size			1,259			472
Population size			18,380			9,163
Young Women						
FT Education	75.2	72.2	3.0	67.9	64.3	3.6
(S.E)			(3.1)			(4.5)
Work/Training	11.5	16.3	-4.8	19.5	22.1	-2.6
(S.E)			(2.3)			(2.9)
NEET	13.3	11.6	1.8	12.6	13.6	-1.0
(S.E)			(2.5)			(4.4)
Sample size			1,256			449
Population size			16,234			8,120
All Eligibles						
FT Education	69.3	68.5	0.8	63.6	58.8	4.8
(S.E)			(2.2)			(3.3)
Work/Training	15.4	16.9	-1.4	22.2	26.4	-4.2
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.1)
NEET	15.3	14.6	0.7	14.2	14.8	-0.6
(S.E)			(1.9)			(3.2)
Sample size			2,515			921
Population size			34,615			17,283

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

Base: EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 1 of Cohorts 1 and 2 combined (Year 12 results).

EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 2 of Cohort 1 (Year 13 results).

2.3.2 Impact of the pure variant

Table 2.6 contains findings from those areas which implemented the pure transport variant of EMA(T) and, again, although increases in participation in education in Year 13 can be seen among both young men and young women, none of these were statistically significant.

Table 2.6 Impact of Pure EMA(T) on Year 12 and Year 13 Destination by Gender

	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Young Men						
FT Education	61.1	63.6	-2.5	55.6	53.7	1.9
(S.E)			(2.7)			(4.2)
Work/Training	21.5	21.1	0.4	28.4	31.7	-3.3
(S.E)			(2.5)			(3.1)
NEET	17.5	15.3	2.1	16.0	14.6	1.4
(S.E)			(2.3)			(4.0)
Sample size			1,448			476
Population size			18,162			9,218
Young Women						
FT Education	69.6	72.4	-2.8	60.6	56.8	3.8
(S.E)			(2.9)			(4.2)
Work/Training	13.9	9.8	4.1	22.1	18.4	3.8
(S.E)			(1.9)			(2.2)
NEET	16.5	17.9	-1.4	17.3	24.9	-7.6
(S.E)			(2.6)			(4.2)
Sample size			1,441			589
Population size			16,261			8,091
All Eligibles						
FT Education	65.1	67.7	-2.6	57.9	55.1	2.8
(S.E)			(2.0)			(3.0)
Work/Training	17.9	15.7	2.1	25.5	25.5	0.0
(S.E)			(1.6)			(1.9)
NEET	17.0	16.5	0.5	16.6	19.4	-2.8
(S.E)			(1.7)			(2.9)
Sample size			2,889			1,065
Population size			34,422			17,310

Note: Matched samples only. Bootstrapped standard errors are reported based on 1,000 replications.
 Base: EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 1 of Cohorts 1 and 2 combined (Year 12 results).
 EMA(T) eligible young people in Wave 2 of Cohort 1 (Year 13 results).

2.4 Conclusion

The findings are disappointing in that no consistent significant impact of EMA(T) on the education decisions of eligible young people were found from examining the data using a number of different breakdowns: location; gender; distance from nearest education provider; EMA(T) variant. The only result of any note was that in the hybrid areas EMA(T) was associated with an increase in participation in education at Year 13; among young men of 5.9 percentage points and young women of 3.6 percentage points. However, neither of these results was statistically significant at conventional levels.

Although unlike the main EMA, EMA(T) has not had a significant positive impact on participation in full-time education, the findings have nevertheless been of immense value in guiding policy development to seek for more effective solutions. Further, these negative findings confirm the importance of piloting and thoroughly evaluating new policy initiatives before they are introduced nationally.

3 EMA(T) AND YOUNG PEOPLE'S CHOICES POST-16

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on descriptive comparisons among EMA(T) eligible young people across the five pilot areas. It considers the extent to which differences in the EMA(T) experiences of eligible young people may be attributable to their locality (i.e. whether they live in an urban or rural area) and to the form of EMA(T) available to them (i.e. pure or hybrid). The data in this chapter provide a useful context to findings on the impact of EMA(T) contained in Chapter 2, derived from Propensity Score Matching techniques. However, it should be recalled that none of the findings seek to measure the impact of EMA; they simply describe young people's circumstances in relation to EMA(T). In addition, the analysis presented in this Chapter is entirely based on Cohort 1 Wave 1 whereas some of the analysis in Chapter 2 is based on data from Cohorts 1 and 2 combined.

Section 2 describes the family background of eligible young people while Section 3 outlines their destinations immediately after completing compulsory education. Section 4 presents the household characteristics of eligible full-time students and Section 5 describes their journeys to and from their education provider. Section 6 examines young people's choice of provider while Section 7 explores young people's awareness of, applications for, and awards of EMA(T).

Throughout the chapter, where appropriate, comparisons are made between these data and data from eligible young people in the pilot areas of Cohort 1 Wave 1 of the main EMA evaluation. Such comparisons are useful since they involve cohorts of young people interviewed at a similar stage of the main EMA and the EMA(T) implementation process. However, it should be noted that data for the two cohorts were collected one year apart so that similarities and differences should be seen as illustrative rather than conclusive. Data have been weighted to be representative of all eligible young people in the pilot areas.

3.2 Family Background

For young people, the likelihood of continuing in full-time education at the end of compulsory schooling may be influenced by their family circumstances (for instance, their parental income and socio-economic group) as well as by local factors, such as the availability and accessibility of job opportunities and education providers.

3.2.1 Family backgrounds of eligible young people in the pilot areas

Almost three-fifths of all EMA(T) eligible young people in the pilot areas came from households where parental income was estimated to be no more than £13,000. For young people in hybrid Variant areas this meant that that they would have been entitled to the full weekly award of EMA(T) if they had remained in full-time education beyond Year 11. Table 3.1 identifies the proportion of eligible young people in each Variant with a parental income of £13,000 or less. It also displays the socio-economic group position of working parents at the time of interview (or the socio-economic group of the last job where the parent was retired). Where two parents were working or retired, the higher of the two socio-economic groups has been used.

Overall, 58 per cent of eligible young people in the EMA(T) pilot areas came from households where parental income did not exceed £13,000. Almost three-tenths (29 per cent) had parent(s) who were neither working or retired while 16 per cent of eligible young people had one or more parent in a professional or managerial occupation. This profile is very similar to that of eligible young people in the main EMA study where 61 per cent were in low income households (£13,000 or below), 27 per cent had no working or retired parent and 14 per cent had a parent in a professional or managerial occupation.

Table 3.1 Parental Income and Socio-Economic Group of all Eligible Young People, by Variant

	Column per cent					
	Urban Pure	Urban Hybrid	Rural Pure 1	Rural Pure 2	Rural Hybrid	All
Family Income						
£13,000 or less	61	58	65	55	51	58
£13,001 - £30 000	39	42	35	45	49	42
Household Social Class						
No working/retired parent	36	28	39	25	18	29
Semi/unskilled manual	12	17	11	13	13	13
Skilled manual	15	17	14	15	18	16
Routine non-manual	25	28	20	26	30	26
Professional/managerial	12	11	16	22	21	16

Base: All eligible young people in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:2780).

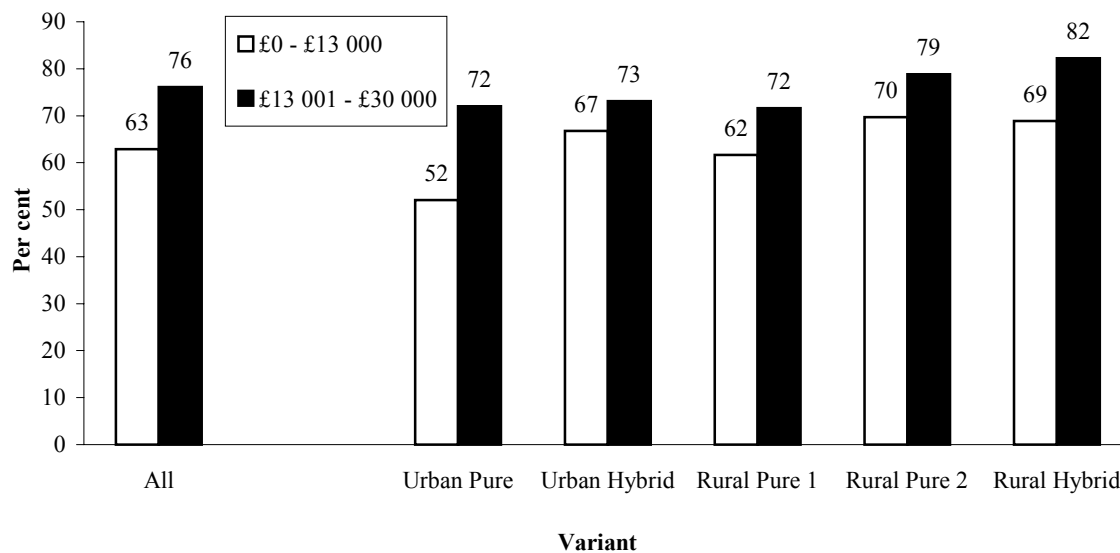
In each of the two urban Variants around three-fifths of eligible young people lived in households where the parental income was no more than £13,000; this was very close to the overall average (Table 3.1). However, there was considerable variation in the parental incomes of eligible young people across the three rural pilot Variants. In the rural hybrid and rural pure 2 areas a little over a half lived in homes with a parental income of £13,000 or below (51 per cent and 55 per cent respectively) compared with almost two-thirds of those in the rural pure 1 area (65 per cent).

This same pattern of relative advantage in the rural pilot areas is evident for the household socio-economic group of eligible young people. Those in the rural hybrid Variant were least likely to live in a household where no parent was working or retired while those in the rural pure 1 Variant were most likely to do so. About half of those living in the rural hybrid and rural pure 2 Variants (51 per cent and 48 per cent respectively) came from professional/managerial or routine non-manual homes compared with just 37 per cent in the rural pure 1 Variant. In this respect, the urban pure and urban hybrid Variants were similar to the rural pure Variant (38 per cent and 39 per cent respectively).

Table 3.1 identified differences in parental income, and household socio-economic group, across the five pilot areas. Household characteristics are, in turn, associated with the likelihood that a young person will remain in full-time education at the end of compulsory schooling (Ermisch and Francesconi, 2001).

Figure 3.1 outlines how, in each of the five pilot areas, there is a positive association between parental income and the proportion of eligible young people who remained in full-time education at Year 12.

Figure 3.1 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education at Year 12 by Parental Income, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:2801).

For each pilot area, eligible young people in higher income households (i.e. £13,001 to £30,000) were more likely to remain in full-time education at Year 12 than those in lower income households (up to £13,000). Among eligible young people in higher income homes between 72 per cent and 82 per cent remained in full-time education beyond school leaving age. Among those from lower income homes, this fell to between 52 per cent and 70 per cent). The difference associated with parental income was greatest in the urban pure Variant (20 percentage points) and least in the urban hybrid Variant (six percentage points).

3.3 Destinations

This section looks at the destinations of eligible young people in the five pilot areas after they finished compulsory schooling.

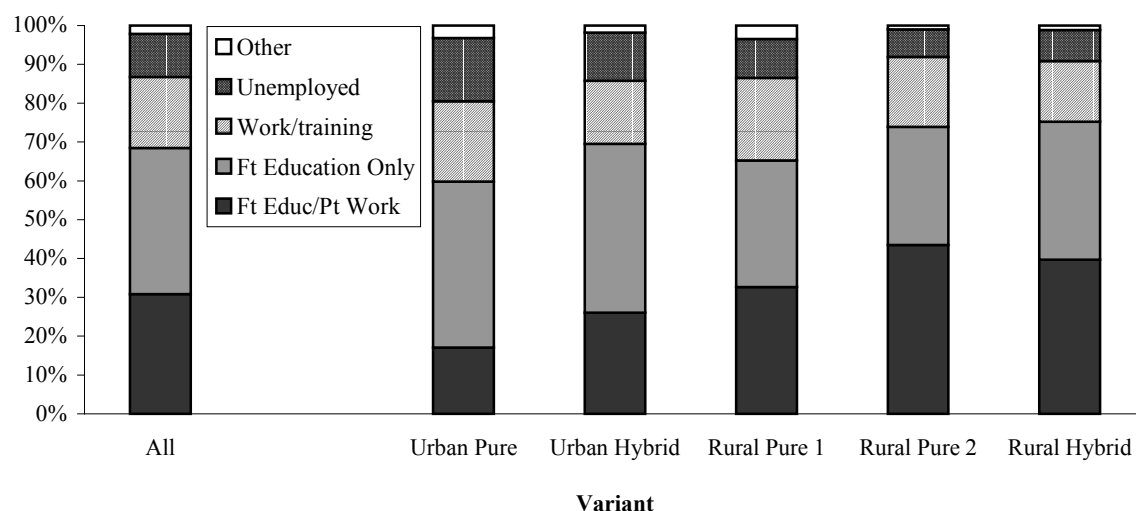
3.3.1 Destinations of eligible young people in the pilot areas

Overall around two-thirds (69 per cent) of eligible young people in the pilot areas went on to participate in full-time education immediately after Year 11 (Figure 3.2)⁸. Just under half (45 per cent) of these full-time students also had a part-time job. Almost one-fifth of eligible young people (18 per cent) were in work and/or training, and the remainder described themselves as either unemployed and looking for work (11 per cent) or involved in some other activity (two per cent). ‘Other activities’ include part-time education; looking after the home or family; taking a break/on holiday; joining the armed forces; waiting to start a new job/training course/education course; or other unspecified activity. This destination category also covers those young people who report an absence from education, employment or training on the grounds of disability, illness or pregnancy.

This pattern of post-16 destinations is similar to that found in the main EMA pilot areas for Cohort 1, where 71 per cent of eligible young people were in full-time education; 17 per cent were in work and/or training; and 12 per cent were either unemployed and looking for work or involved in some other activity. However, in the main EMA sample, eligible full-time students were less likely to have a part-time job than in the EMA(T) study (38 per cent compared with 45 per cent). This difference between the two datasets remained after controlling for parental socio-economic group and may reflect the impact of local labour market conditions on the work behaviours of young people in further education.

⁸ It will be noted that these descriptive statistics here are slightly different to those in Chapter 2, which were based on combined data for Cohorts 1 and 2 and matched samples of young people.

Figure 3.2 Post-16 Destinations of all Eligible Young People, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:2801).

Eligible young people in the rural hybrid and rural pure 2 areas were most likely to remain in full-time education (75 per cent and 74 per cent respectively) (Figure 3.1). Table 3.1 identified eligible young people in these Variants as the most advantaged in terms of parental income and household social class. However, young people in the least advantaged Variant (rural pure 1) did not have the lowest rates of remaining in full-time education after Year 12 (65 per cent remained in school/college compared with 60 per cent of those in the urban pure Variant). This highlights the fact that other factors, such as the availability of work locally, may influence young people’s decisions.

In each of the three rural areas, at least half of all eligible young people who were in full-time education at Year 12 also had a part-time job (59 per cent in the rural pure 2 Variant; 53 per cent in the rural hybrid Variant and 50 per cent in the rural pure 1 Variant). By contrast, in the two urban areas, only a minority of full-time students worked part-time (38 per cent in the urban hybrid Variant and 28 per cent in the urban pure Variant). In addition, unemployment was higher in the two urban areas than in the three rural areas.

3.4 Family Background (Students)

The remainder of this chapter is predominantly concerned with the experiences of eligible young people who remain in full-time further education at Year 12.

3.4.1 Family backgrounds of eligible full-time students

Table 3.2 outlines the household characteristics of eligible full-time students across the five areas. As may be expected, compared with *all* eligible young people (displayed in Table 3.1), fewer of this sub-sample came from disadvantaged households, that is, where the parental income was £13,000 per year or less, or where no parent was working or retired.

Table 3.2 Family Characteristics of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Variant

	Column per cent					
	Urban Pure	Urban Hybrid	Rural Pure 1	Rural Pure 2	Rural Hybrid	All
Family Income						
£13,000 and less	53	56	61	52	47	53
£13,001 - £30 000	47	44	39	48	53	47
Household Social Class						
No working/retired parent	28	23	33	19	13	23
Semi/unskilled manual	10	17	10	13	12	13
Skilled manual	15	17	15	15	16	16
Routine non-manual	32	31	22	29	34	30
Professional/managerial	14	12	21	24	25	19

Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1922).

Among eligible full-time students, those living in the rural hybrid and rural pure 2 Variants tended to be relatively advantaged (Table 3.2). EMA(T) eligible young people in full-time education in these Variants were most likely to be in households where the parental income was greater than £13,000 and least likely to come from homes where no parent was employed or retired. More than half had a parent in a professional/managerial or routine non-manual occupation. By contrast, the third rural area (rural pure 1 Variant) was the most disadvantaged. Three-fifths of eligible full-time students came from households with a parental income of £13,000 or below and one-third had no working or retired parent.

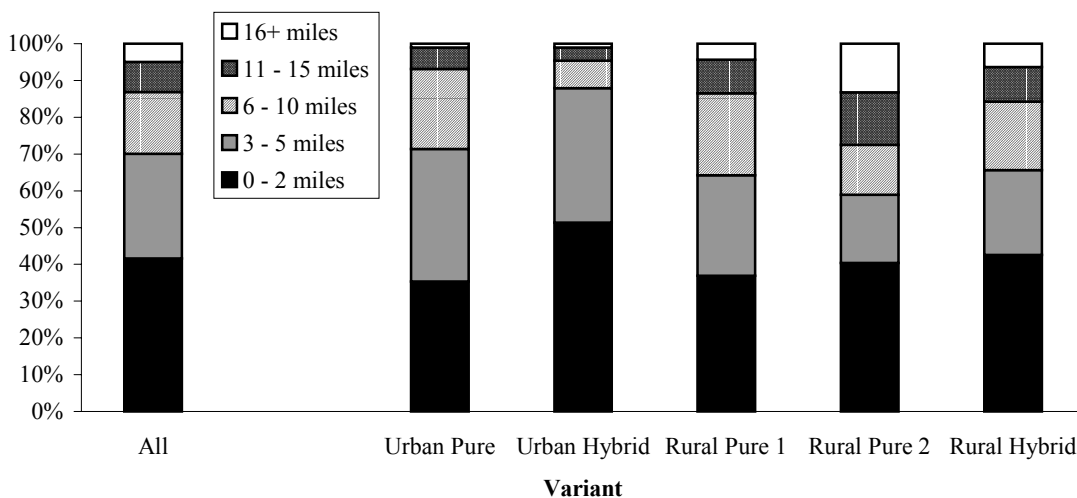
3.5 The Journey to School/College

This section examines the travel patterns of eligible young people in full-time education within the EMA(T) pilot areas: the time and distance to school/college; the mode of transport used; and the cost of travel.

3.5.1 Distance and time to school/college

The mean (self-reported) distance travelled to school/college by EMA(T) eligible young people in full-time education was 5.1 miles (median three miles) and the mean (self-reported) journey time was 27 minutes (median 20 minutes). This compares with a mean distance of 4.7 miles (median three miles) and a mean journey time of 26 minutes (median 20 minutes) for eligible full-time students in the main EMA study.

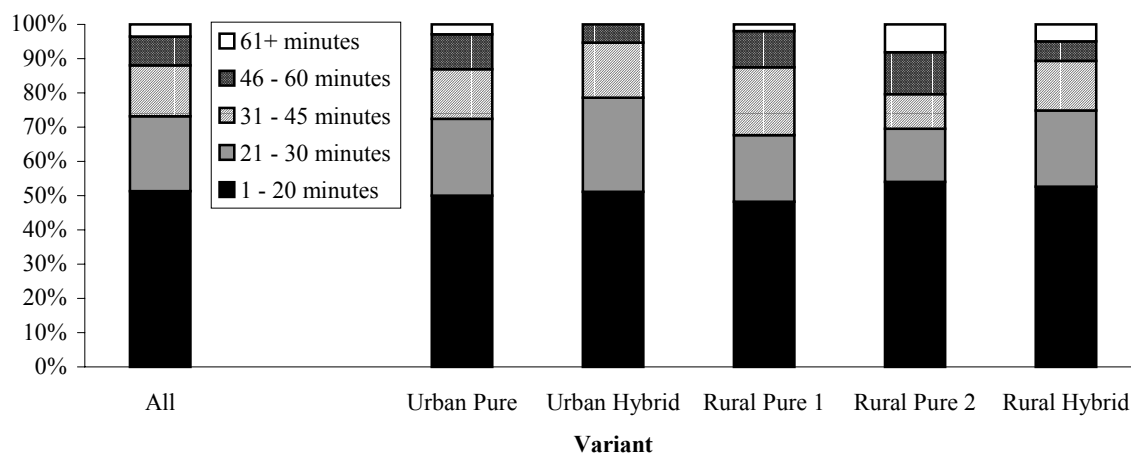
Figure 3.3 Self-reported Distance from Home to School/college by Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1835).

Across the five pilot areas, between a third and a half of eligible full-time students lived within two miles of their education provider (Figure 3.3). The urban hybrid Variant had the highest proportion of eligible full-time students living this close to their school or college (51 per cent) while the urban pure Variant had the lowest proportion (35 per cent). Among eligible students, those living in the three rural areas were more likely to be living more than ten miles from their education provider than those in the two urban areas.

Figure 3.4 Self-reported Journey Time from Home to School/college by Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Variant



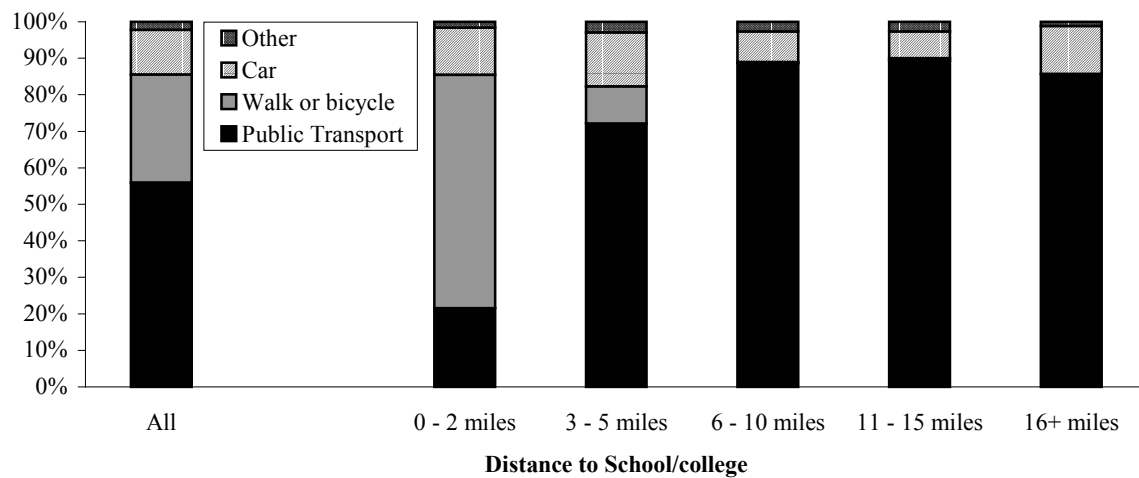
Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1829).

In each of the five Variants, around half of eligible young people in full-time education took twenty minutes or less to get to school/college (Figure 3.4). Between 68 per cent and 79 per cent of eligible full-time students reached their education provider within half an hour. However, a fifth of those living in the rural pure 2 Variant reported journey times in excess of three-quarters of an hour. This contrasts with just one-twentieth of those in the Urban hybrid Variant. Overall, eligible full-time students living in the rural Variants took only slightly longer to get to their education provider than their counterparts in the urban Variants, with mean journey times of 28 minutes and 26 minutes respectively.

3.5.2 Mode of transport

Among eligible young people in full-time education in the pilot areas, public transport was the most common means of travelling to school/college and was the main mode of transport for 57 per cent of young people. Walking or cycling was the second most common means of travel (29 per cent), followed by car (12 per cent). ‘Other’ modes of transport, which includes motorcycles or taxis were used by just two per cent of young people. By gender, young women were more likely to use public transport to reach school/college than young men (60 per cent compared with 54 per cent) and were less likely to walk or cycle (25 per cent compared with 32 per cent).

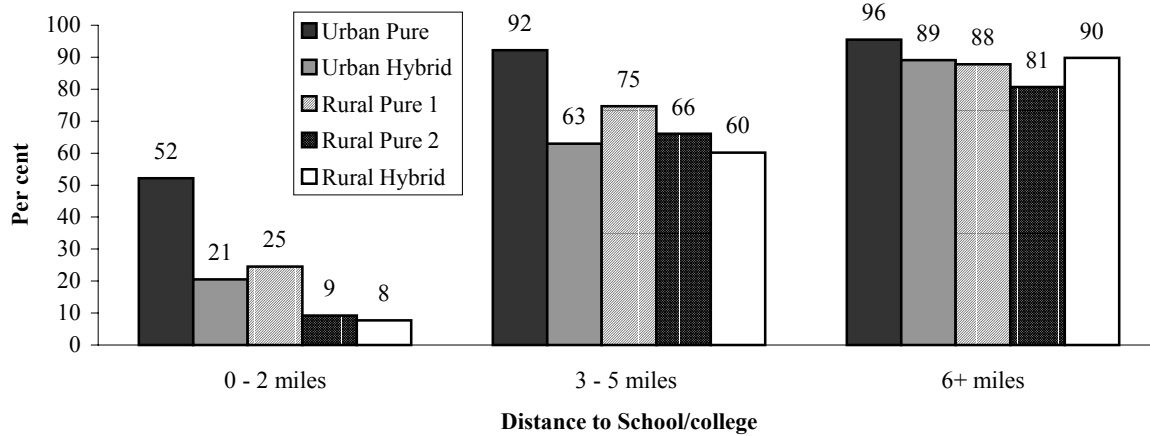
Figure 3.5 Mode of Transport to School/College used by Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Distance from Education Provider



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1830).

Predictably, the mode of transport used to travel to school/college was closely related to the distance that young people lived from their education provider (Figure 3.5). Among eligible young people in full-time education living under three miles from their school/college, walking or cycling was the most common mode of travel, used by almost two-thirds (64 per cent). Among those who lived three to five miles from their school/college one in ten walked or cycled. Public transport was used by fewer than a quarter (22 per cent) of those living under three miles from their education provider compared with almost three-quarters (72 per cent) of those living between three and five miles away. Beyond this almost nine out of ten eligible full-time students used public transport as their primary mode of getting to school or college.

Figure 3.6 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education Using Public Transport on Journey to School/College, by Variant and Distance from Education Provider

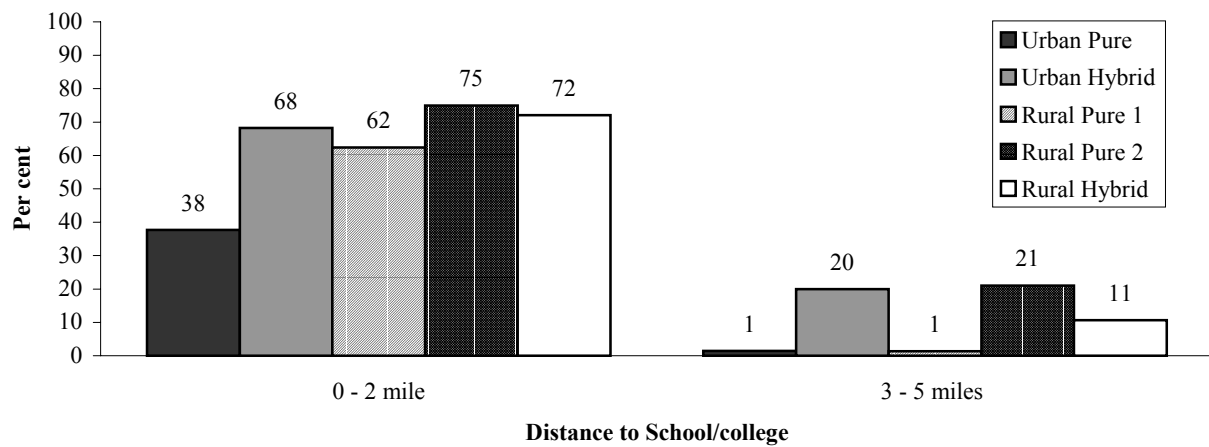


Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1830).

Figure 3.6 shows that, in the urban areas, eligible students in the pure Variant (where transport was free) were more likely to rely on buses or trains to reach their education provider than their counterparts in the hybrid Variant (where travel was subsidised). This pattern is evident for each of the distance categories, although the size of the difference diminishes with increasing distance. In the rural areas, where the distance was less than six miles, more eligible students in the two rural pure Variants used public transport to get to school or college than in the hybrid Variant, although the difference between students in the rural pure 2 and rural hybrid Variants is not statistically significant.

Overall, Figure 3.6 supports the contention that students with access to free public transport are more likely to use it than those who are offered subsidised travel. However, this association is clearest where the distances involved were relatively short. This may indicate that travel concessions had encouraged eligible students to switch from walking or cycling to using public transport.

Figure 3.7 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who Walk or Cycle to School/College, by Variant and Distance from Education Provider



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1035).

Figure 3.7 shows the proportions of eligible young people in full-time education who walked or cycled to school or college, where the distance was less than six miles. In the two urban areas, there is a clear association between the type of EMA(T) scheme in place (i.e. free transport or subsidised) and the tendency for eligible students to walk or cycle. For both distances, students in the urban pure Variant were much less likely to walk or cycle than those in the urban hybrid Variant. Among eligible students living within two miles from school or college, 38 per cent of those in the urban pure variant chose to walk or cycle, compared with 68 per cent of those in the urban hybrid Variant. Where the distance was three to five miles, just one per cent of eligible students in the urban pure Variant walked or cycled compared with 20 per cent of those in the urban hybrid Variant.

Where students lived in rural areas, those who lived within two miles of their education provider were likely to walk or cycle, regardless of the EMA(T) scheme in operation. However, among rural eligible students living three to five miles from their school or college, the availability of free public transport appears to have discouraged eligible students from walking or cycling. This interaction between distance and the type of travel subsidy available on modes of travel possibly reflects that, in rural areas, walking or cycling is more convenient than taking public transport where distances are relatively short.

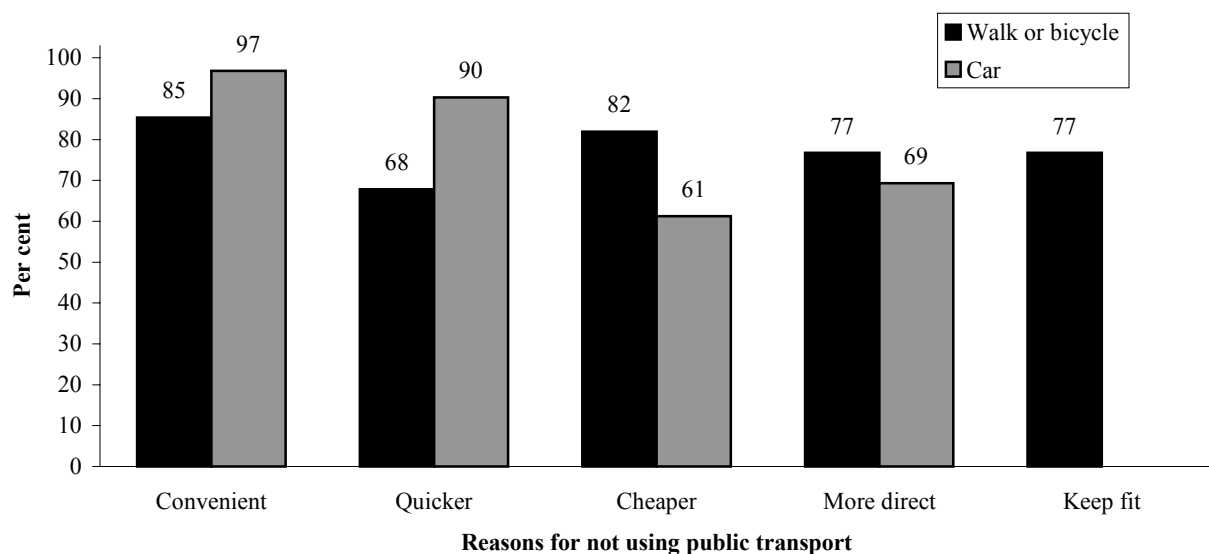
Recipients of EMA(T) who did not use public transport

Overall, 29 per cent of eligible young people in full-time education who received an EMA(T) award did not use public transport as their main mode of transport to their education provider. Of these, 65 per cent walked or cycled to school/college, 30 per cent used a car and four per cent (11 cases) relied on ‘other’ modes of transport (such as a motorbike or taxi). Among those EMA(T) recipients who did not rely on public transport to get to school/college, three-quarters (77 per cent) had access to a bus service they could use if they needed to, while three per cent could have got to school/college by train. Of recipients who did not use public transport to get to school/college, the majority (71 per cent) lived in hybrid Variant areas where travel was generally discounted rather than free, and where eligible young people received a weekly payment in addition to a travel subsidy.

The main reasons why recipients used an alternative mode of transport to reach their education provider (chosen from a list) were:

- It allowed them to travel at a more convenient time (90 per cent);
- It was quicker (77 per cent);
- It was cheaper (73 per cent); and
- It allowed them to take a more direct route (74 per cent).

Figure 3.8 Reasons for not using Public Transport among EMA(T) Recipients, by Mode of transport



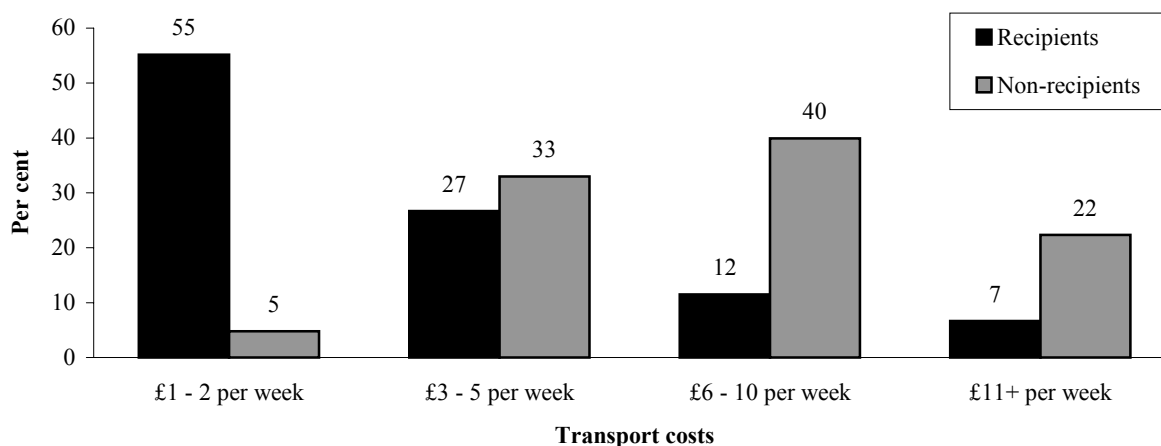
Base: All EMA(T) recipients in Cohort 1 in pilot areas who don't use public transport (Unweighted base N:181).

Compared with car users, those who walked or cycled to school/college were more likely to say that this mode of transport was cheaper and more direct than public transport (Figure 3.8). Car users were most likely to view driving as more convenient and quicker than taking a bus or a train. Among those who walked or cycled, 77 per cent reported that it helped them to keep fit.

3.5.3 Cost of travel

The intention of EMA(T) was to remove or reduce the cost of public transport for young people staying on in education after Year 11. The findings suggest that EMA(T) was achieving this: only 28 per cent of EMA(T) recipients who travelled to school/college on public transport had to pay anything, compared with 56 per cent of eligible non-recipients. Most recipients who had to pay to use public transport (84 per cent) were from the hybrid EMA(T) Variants.

Figure 3.9 Amount Spent on Travel by Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who Pay to Use Public Transport, by Whether they Receive EMA(T)



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas who pay to use public transport (Unweighted base N:484).

For EMA(T) recipients who used public transport, and who had to pay towards their travel costs, most (55 per cent) paid no more than £2 per week while a fifth (19 per cent) spent £6 or more per week on travel (Figure 3.9). By contrast, among non-recipients who took a bus or train to school/college just five per cent paid £2 or less while three-fifths (62 per cent) paid at least £6 per week.

By Variant, both the proportion of eligible young people who had to pay something for using public transport, and the average amount spent by those who paid, varied (Table 3.3). In the pure Variants (which offered free travel to all EMA(T) recipients) few who used public transport as their main mode of transport said that they spent money travelling to and from school/college. In the hybrid pilot areas, where discounted rather than free public transport was provided for most EMA(T) recipients, more EMA(T) recipients had to pay for using public transport. This was most notable in the urban hybrid Variant where 80 per cent of recipients had to pay. However, where eligible young people used public transport, and paid to get to school/college, the mean amount paid per week was lowest in the urban hybrid Variant for both recipients and eligible non-recipients.

Table 3.3 Paying for Journeys to School/college among Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who use Public Transport, by Variant and whether Recipient

Variant	Per cent Who Paid		Non-zero Mean Amount Spent £/week	
	Recipient	Non-recipient	Recipient	Non-recipient
Urban Pure	11	52	£5.71	£8.86
Urban Hybrid	80	95	£3.23	£6.13
Rural Pure 1	2	53	£6.29	£9.21
Rural Pure 2	3	44	£5.00	£9.71
Rural Hybrid	35	53	£5.80	£10.74

Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas who use public transport (Unweighted base N:1095).

It might be expected that no EMA(T) recipients would spend money on travel in the pure Variants, where free public transport was offered. However, it is possible that the various restrictions on free travel in the rural pure Variants meant that recipients who, for example, travelled outside of the specified time periods, or with a non-participating provider, would have to pay for their travel. In the urban pure Variant the proportion of recipients who paid to use public transport was between four and five times higher than in the rural pure Variants. It is possible that EMA(T) recipients paid more to extend their travel pass to extra zones beyond their home to school/college journey, and included this additional payment in their answer to this question.

In the hybrid areas, the level of discount available on travel costs varied according to whether the young person was eligible for a full or partial award. Among students who used public transport in these areas, those receiving full and partial awards were equally likely to have paid something towards their transport costs (25 per cent and 26 per cent respectively - analysis not shown). Among eligible students in the hybrid areas who paid to use public transport (N=46) the average amount spent on travel did not differ significantly between the two groups. The mean amount spent by recipients receiving a full award was £5.49 per week, compared with a mean of £6.02 per week among those who received a partial award.

For EMA(T) recipients who paid to use public transport (predominantly recipients in the hybrid Variants) the amount spent was lowest among students living close to their school or college. Those who lived within 2 miles of their education provider spent an average of £2.52 per week travelling to school/college. Those living three to five miles away spent an average of £4.94 per week, and those living six or more miles away spent an average of £4.89 per week.

3.6 Choice of Education Provider

This section explores the decisions made by eligible full-time students in the pilot areas in choosing their post-16 education provider. However, the choices made will have been constrained by the range of educational institutions and courses available across the five EMA(T) areas.

3.6.1 LEA provision in the pilot areas

Table 3.4 shows the education providers within each LEA covered by the EMA(T) pilot areas. It reveals that there are fewer institutions providing post-16 courses in the urban areas than in the rural areas; in particular, rural areas had many more schools offering post-16 education. The greatest ratio of schools to colleges was in the rural pure 2 area, where there were more than nine times as many schools as colleges, followed by the rural hybrid area, with almost six times as many schools as colleges. However, the pattern of local education provision does not necessarily reflect where young people go, because they might attend institutions in neighbouring LEAs.

Table 3.4 Post-16 Education Providers within each LEA covered by the EMA(T) Pilot Areas

Variant	School with Sixth Form	Sixth Form College	Tertiary/FE College	Total Number
Urban Pure	4	0	1	5
Urban Hybrid	5	2	1	8
Rural Pure 1*	22	0	9	31
Rural Pure 2	37	0	4	41
Rural Hybrid	34	1	5	40

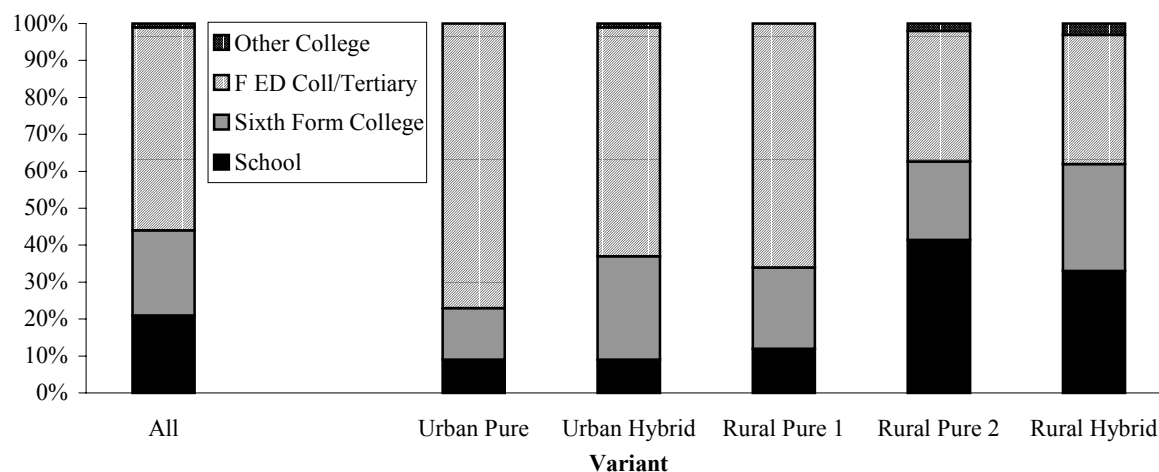
* The Rural Pure 1 Variant covers just part of this LEA.

Source: Education League Tables 1999.

3.6.2 Type of education institution attended

Overall, a fifth of eligible students in the pilot areas (21 per cent) attended a school at Year 12 while a similar proportion (23 per cent) went to a sixth form college and just over half (55 per cent) were enrolled in a further education or tertiary college (Figure 3.10).

Figure 3.10 Type of Institution Attended by Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1935).

Broken down by Variant, there was considerable variation in the type of institution attended by eligible Year 12 students (Figure 3.10). Compared with the overall distribution, the rural pure 2 and rural hybrid Variants had low numbers of eligible students enrolled in a further

education or tertiary college and high numbers remaining in schools. This is consistent with the finding that these two areas had particularly high ratios of schools to colleges. In the three remaining areas, the reverse was true.

3.6.3 Change of education provider

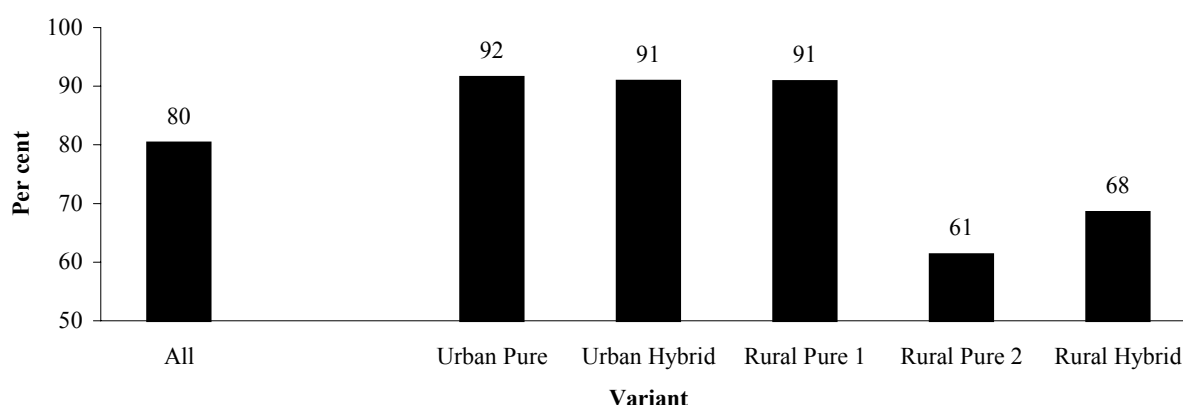
It might be expected that the availability of EMA(T) would increase choice by removing or reducing transport costs, thus enabling eligible young people to travel to their preferred institution. This may be manifested by students leaving their Year 11 school at the end of compulsory education and moving to another educational institution which is likely to be further away from their home. Among eligible young people in the pilot areas who continued in full-time education at Year 12, four-fifths (80 per cent) changed institutions between Year 11 and Year 12. This proportion is similar to that found in the main EMA study (78 per cent).

Under the EMA(T) scheme, eligible students living in the pure Variant areas were entitled to free travel on public transport for journeys to and from school. By contrast, in the hybrid areas most eligible students had to pay to use buses or trains, albeit at a reduced rate. If the transport savings associated with EMA(T) encouraged eligible young people to look further afield for a Year 12 education provider, it is to be expected that those living in the pure Variant areas would be more likely to have left their Year 11 school than those in the hybrid areas.

More eligible students in the pure areas changed institutions between Year 11 and Year 12 than their counterparts in the hybrid areas, (82 per cent compared with 78 per cent).

However, as Figure 3.11 shows, the association between EMA(T) type and rates of change was not consistent across the five pilot areas.

Figure 3.11 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who Changed Education Provider between Year 11 and Year 12, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1935).

In the two urban areas, around nine-tenths of eligible young people in full-time education left their Year 11 school. In the three rural areas, the pure 1 Variant saw the vast majority of eligible students change education provider between Year 11 and Year 12. However, the second pure Variant (rural pure 2) had the lowest proportion of eligible young people changing education providers (61 per cent). Consequently, in both urban and rural environments, there is no support for the contention that the availability of free travel may encourage eligible young people to leave their existing education provider. These figures may reflect area differences in the range of institutions available to young people remaining in full-time education at the end of compulsory schooling.

3.6.4 Reasons for changing education provider

Young people who decided to continue in post-16 education might have changed their education provider for a variety of reasons. The four most frequently mentioned reasons for going to any college were:

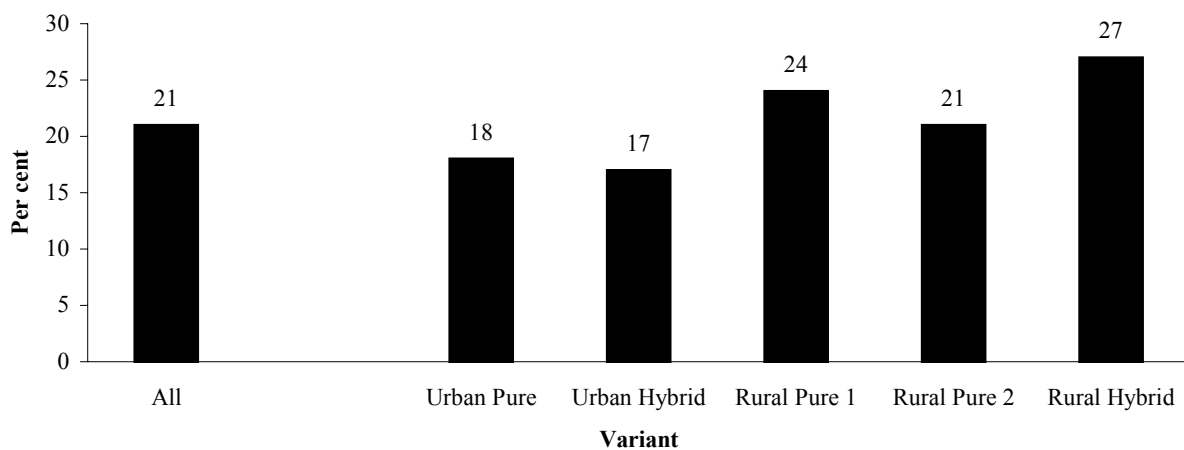
- it offered the courses that they wanted to study – mentioned by 45 per cent;
- it was near to home (or was their local college) – mentioned by 25 per cent;
- it had a good reputation – mentioned by 13 per cent; and
- because their friends/people they knew went there – mentioned by 11 per cent.

3.6.5 Whether school/college chosen was the nearest offering course followed

It is plausible that the availability of free or subsidised public transport under EMA(T) might have encouraged eligible students to choose between a number of institutions offering their preferred course, rather than simply enrolling at the nearest. Again, it might also be expected that this factor would have had a greater impact in pure areas (where public transport travel was nominally free) than in the hybrid areas (where public transport was subsidised).

Overall, a fifth of eligible young people in full-time education (21 per cent) said that the school or college they attended was not the nearest place to them that offered the courses they were studying. This suggests that these students were prepared to travel further to get to the school or college of their choice. However, this course of action was marginally less common in the pure Variant areas (where public transport to school or college was free) than in the hybrid areas (where public transport was subsidised) (21 per cent and 22 per cent respectively).

Figure 3.12 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who do not Attend the Nearest Institution Offering the Course they are Currently Studying, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1941).

Figure 3.12 indicates differences between urban and rural areas, with eligible young people in the two urban Variants being less likely to travel further afield for their preferred course than those in the three rural Variants. Given the large number of schools with sixth forms in the

three rural areas (Table 3.4), the decision to travel further distances possibly reflects a preference for attending some form of college rather than remaining in a school environment.

Additional analysis (not shown) reveals that parental social class was a strong predictor of whether an eligible student travelled to a distant educational provider rather than enrolled in the closest school or college. A quarter of eligible students with a parent in a professional/managerial or routine non-manual occupation did not choose the closest institution offering the course they were studying. This compares with 20 per cent of those with a parent in a manual occupation and 15 per cent of those from households where no parent was working or retired.

3.6.6 The importance of help with travel costs in choice of education provider

EMA(T) recipients were asked whether the availability of help with travel costs had made any difference to their choice of school or college, or whether they would have gone there anyway. Among recipients who relied on public transport to get to school or college, almost a fifth (19 per cent) of those in the pure Variants said it had made a difference compared with one in seven (14 per cent) of those in the hybrid Variants; however, this difference is not statistically significant.

Overall, just seven per cent of all EMA(T) eligible students could be categorised as relying on public transport to reach school or college, being in receipt of an EMA(T) award and saying that receipt had influenced their choice of institution. In part, this is likely to reflect that many young people had made the decision about where to study before they were aware of the existence of the EMA(T) scheme. In addition, qualitative research in the pilot areas indicated that it was parents, rather than students, who appreciated help with transport costs⁹. This reflects that the burden of paying for public transport for young people (or alternatively driving them to school or college) was often borne by parents.

3.7 Awareness, Applications and Receipt of EMA(T)

To receive EMA(T) young people first need to know that EMA(T) exists; secondly, they need to apply for it; and, thirdly, for those successful in their application, a Learning

⁹ Allen et al., (2002).

Agreement needs to signed. This section examines the process of claiming EMA(T) among young people who were deemed eligible on income grounds, and looks at differences across EMA(T) areas. Comparisons are also made with findings from the first year of the main EMA evaluation.

An awareness of the existence of EMA(T) may have had an influence on the decisions of all eligible young people, not just those who continued in education beyond compulsory schooling. Consequently, the first part of this section considers levels of awareness among *all* eligible young people, not just those in full-time education in Year 12.

3.7.1 Awareness of EMA(T) among all eligible young people

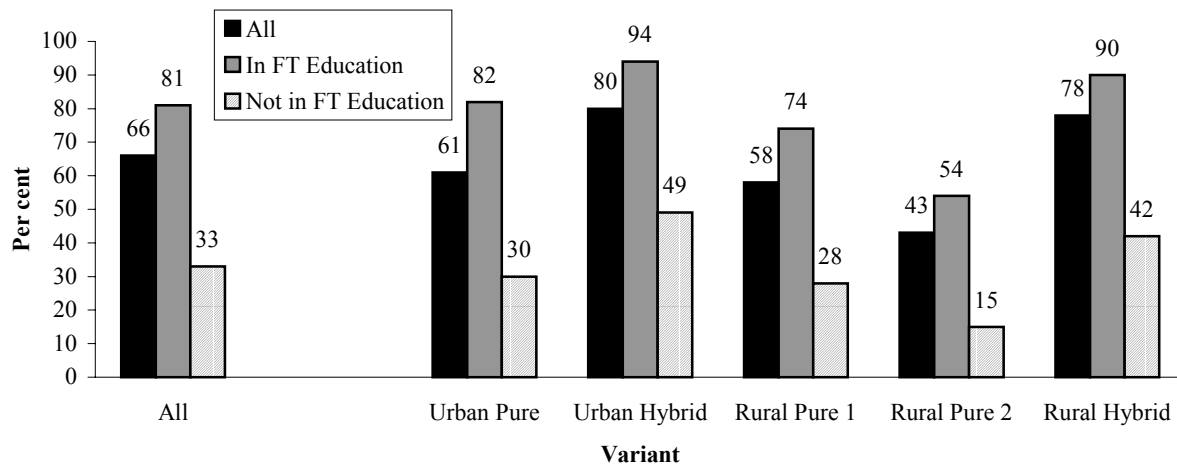
Awareness of EMA(T) among all eligible young people in the pilot areas (including those who had not remained in full-time education beyond Year 11) was not very high – only 66 per cent had heard of it. This compares with 81 per cent of all eligible young people in the main EMA pilot areas. However, there were large differences in awareness of EMA(T) among eligible young people who were, at the time of interview, in full-time education and those who were not. Four-fifths of full-time students (81 per cent) had heard of EMA(T) compared with just a third of those who were engaged in other activities (33 per cent).

This might reflect the nature and timing of publicity campaigns¹⁰. Due to late notification of the introduction of EMA(T), much publicity material was not ready until the summer holidays when schools and colleges had already closed for the summer holidays. Methods used to publicise EMA(T) included distributing EMA(T) application forms at school and college registrations and poster campaigns at schools and colleges, whereby young people would find out about EMA(T) when they enrolled for their post-16 courses. Other methods, such as advertising locally on radio and in newspapers, and directly mailing information to all Year 11 students, were also employed in some areas. LEAs were intending to improve their publicity campaigns for the second year of EMA(T) to inform more young people about the EMA(T) schemes¹¹.

¹⁰ Dobson et al., (2001).

¹¹ Dobson et al., (2001).

Figure 3.13 Awareness of EMA(T) Among Eligible Young People, by Variant and whether in Full-time Education



Base: All eligible young people in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:2801).

There were differences in levels of awareness across the five pilot areas (Figure 3.13). Regardless of their destination on leaving compulsory education, eligible young people in the two hybrid Variants were more likely to be aware of EMA(T) than those in the three pure Variants. The lowest levels of awareness of EMA(T) were found in the rural pure 2 pilot area where around half (54 per cent) of eligible full-time students, and just 15 per cent of those engaged in other activities, were aware of the scheme. This contrasts with awareness levels of 94 per cent and 49 per cent respectively in the urban hybrid Variant.

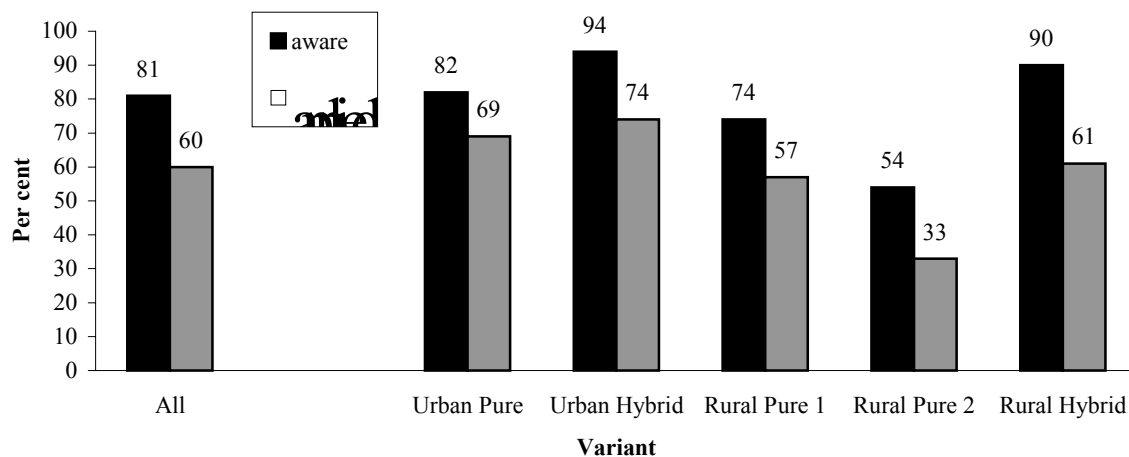
Lower levels of awareness of EMA(T) in the pure Variants supports the views of administrators and stakeholders¹², that there was insufficient distinction between EMA(T) and other travel subsidies that already existed for students in these areas, whereas in the hybrid Variants the additional weekly payments set EMA(T) apart from other travel schemes. Among eligible full-time students, there was no significant gender difference in awareness of EMA(T). However, among eligible young people engaged in other activities, young women were more likely to have heard of EMA(T) than young men (40 per cent compared with 29 per cent).

¹² Dobson et al., (2001).

3.7.2 Applications for EMA(T) among eligible students in full-time education

Among eligible full-time students, only 60 per cent had applied for EMA(T) compared with 82 per cent of their counterparts in the main EMA pilot areas. There was no significant difference in application rates among young people in full-time education who were eligible for the maximum EMA(T) award and those who were eligible for a partial EMA(T) award.

Figure 3.14 Percentage of Eligible Young People in Full-time Education who are Aware of, and have Applied for, EMA(T) , by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:1931).

Unsurprisingly, areas where awareness of EMA(T) was relatively high had correspondingly high levels of applications from eligible young people in full-time education. Application rates were highest in the urban hybrid Variant and this area also recorded the highest levels of awareness of EMA(T). They were lowest in the rural pure 2 Variant, which had the lowest level of awareness.

In the hybrid areas, successful EMA(T) applicants received a weekly payment in addition to discounted travel. Despite high levels of awareness of the scheme in these two areas, a quarter of eligible young people in the urban Variant, and two-fifths of those in the rural variant, were missing out on this source of funding. In the pure Variant areas, even eligible students who did not use public transport could have benefited from bonuses. However, in the rural pure 2 Variant, just one in three eligible students had applied for an EMA(T) award.

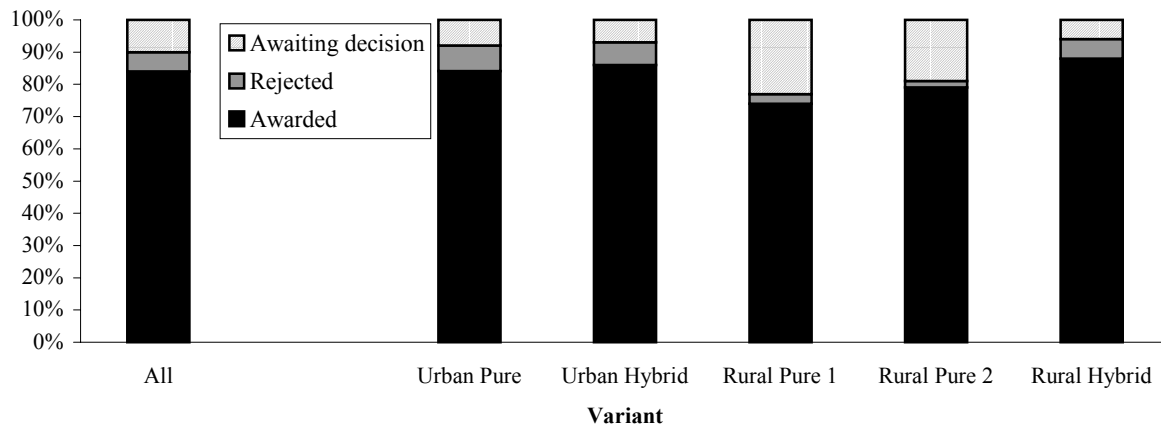
Overall, three-quarters of eligible young people in full-time education who had heard of EMA(T) had applied for it (75 per cent)(analysis not shown). This proportion was highest in

the urban pure and urban hybrid pilot areas (84 per cent and 79 per cent respectively) and lowest in the rural hybrid and rural pure 2 Variants (68 per cent and 62 per cent respectively). It is likely that urban areas would have more comprehensive public transport services than in rural areas, adding to the perceived value of a travel subsidy in an urban area. In addition, application rates are likely to have been linked to the nature of the travel subsidy on offer. The urban pure EMA(T) provided free transport (including use outside of school hours) while the urban hybrid EMA(T) scheme offered only discounted travel.

3.7.3 Awards and receipt of EMA(T)

Of all eligible young people in full-time education in the pilot areas, only half had been awarded EMA(T) at the time of their interview (50 per cent). An additional 40 per cent had not applied; six per cent were awaiting a decision; and four per cent had had their application rejected.

Figure 3.15 Outcome of EMA(T) Applications for Eligible Young People in Full-time Education, by Variant



Base: All eligible young people in full-time education in Cohort 1 in pilot areas who applied for EMA(T) (Unweighted base N:1162).

Across the five pilot areas, the proportions of applicants who had been awarded a grant varied from 88 per cent in the rural hybrid Variant to 74 per cent in the rural pure 1 Variant. This difference was largely the result of variations in the proportion of claims outstanding. Two areas had a large number of applications outstanding; in the rural pure 1 and rural pure 2 Variants around a fifth of applicants were awaiting a decision (23 per cent and 19 per cent respectively) compared with between six and eight per cent in the other three areas. In the

rural pure 1 Variant, the high number of outstanding claims may be attributable to reported initial difficulties with the computer system in this area¹³.

Reasons for refusal

Of the small number of young people who had applied for EMA(T) but been refused an award (77 in total), three-quarters said that the main reason given for their refusal was because their family income was too high.

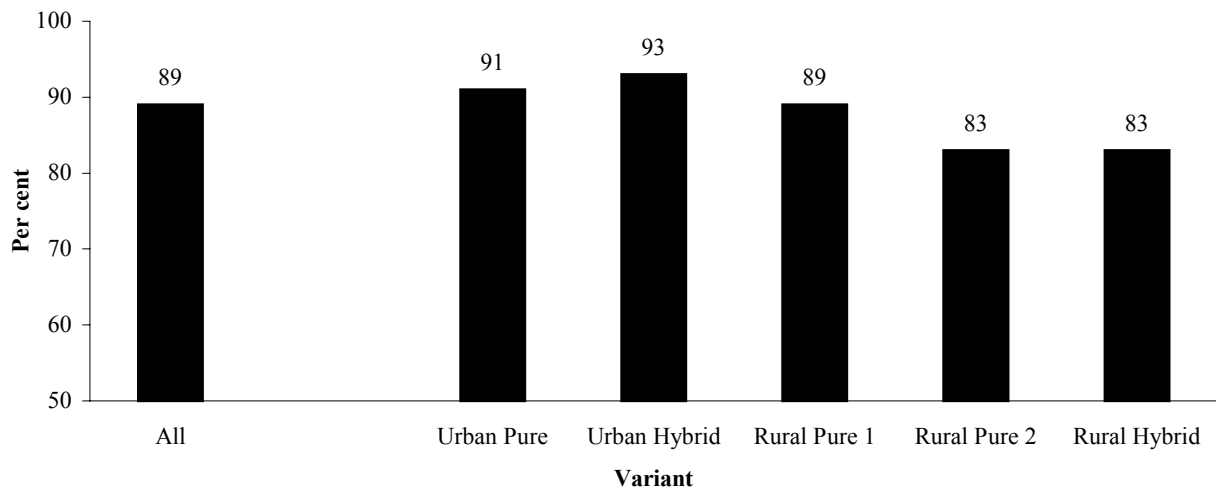
3.7.4 Learning Agreements

All students in receipt of EMA(T) were required to complete a Learning Agreement, which was completed by the student, their parent and the educational institution at which they were studying. Learning Agreements set out the learning and attendance targets against which entitlement to assistance with transport and either the weekly allowance or bonus payments was assessed.

Most EMA(T) recipients (89 per cent) reported that a Learning Agreement had been signed by either themselves or a parent or guardian. This was lower than the 93 per cent of recipients in the main EMA study who reported that a Learning Agreement had been signed. Seven per cent of EMA(T) recipients said that no agreement had been signed while a further four per cent could not remember.

¹³ Dobson et al., (2001).

Figure 3.16 Percentage of EMA(T) Recipients Recalling Signing Learning Agreement, by Variant

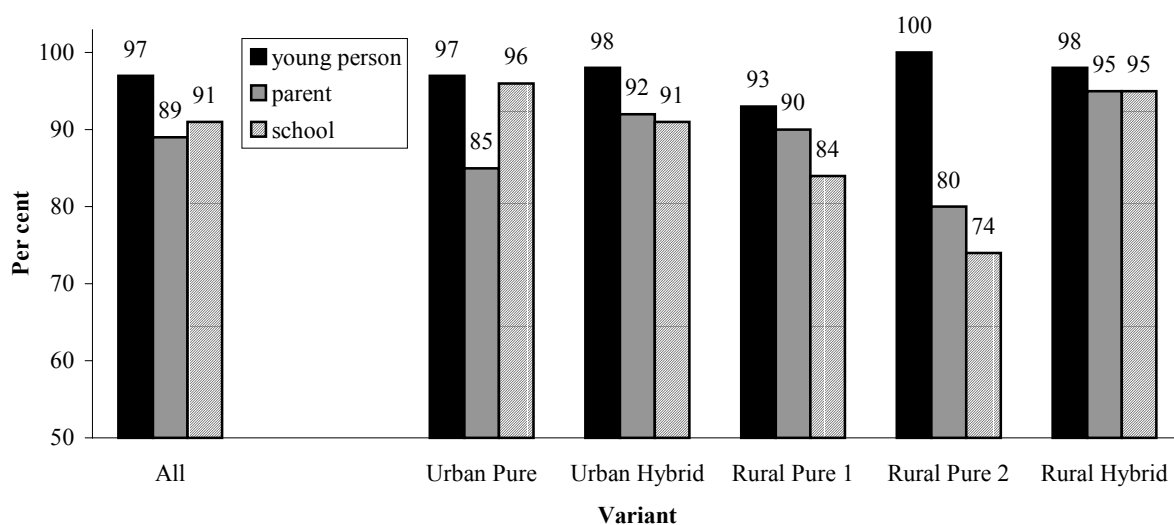


Base: All EMA(T) recipients in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:817).

In the urban pure and urban hybrid Variants, just over nine out of ten EMA(T) recipients recalled signing a Learning Agreement (91 per cent and 93 per cent respectively)(Figure 3.16). This contrast with the rural pure 2 and rural hybrid Variants, where just 83 per cent of recipients remembered signing. Recipients in the rural pure 1 Variant occupied an intermediary position, with 89 per cent reporting that a Learning Agreement had been signed.

EMA(T) recipients who recalled that a Learning Agreement had been signed were subsequently asked who the signatories were (Figure 3.17). Almost all (97 per cent) reported that they had been signatories. Fewer recipients (89 per cent) recalled that a parent or guardian had signed, while 91 per cent stated that a representative of their education provider had signed.

Figure 3.17 Signatories to Learning Agreement, by Variant

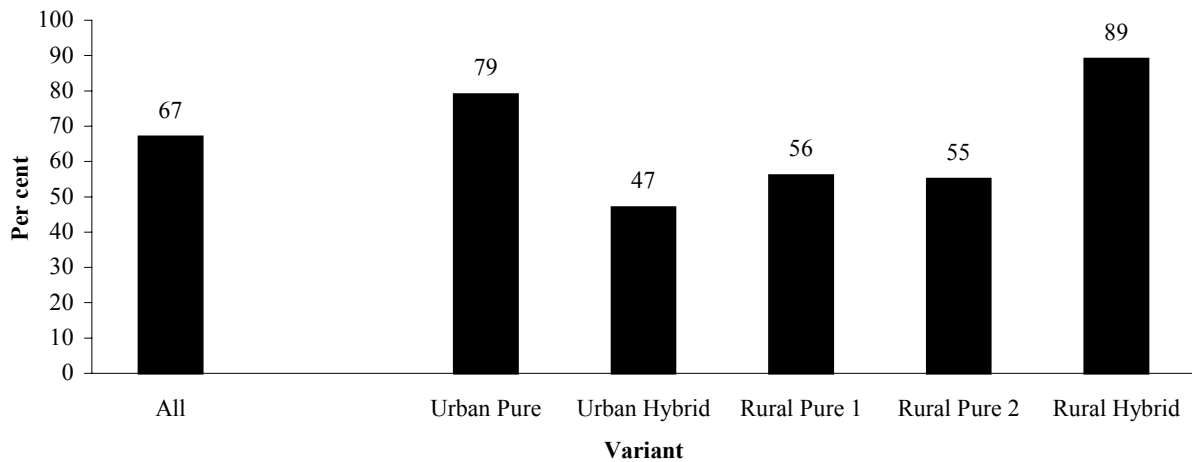


Base: All EMA(T) recipients in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:722).

Signature rates tended to vary among the pure and hybrid EMA(T) Variants (Figure 3.17). For each of the three possible signatories (recipient, parent, and school/college) rates in the two hybrid areas were equal to or above the average for all EMA(T) recipients. In the three pure Variants the association was more ambiguous. The urban pure Variant presents a mixed picture with parental signature rates four percentage points below average, while signatures by education providers were five percentage points above average and signature rates for recipients were the same as the average for all EMA(T) recipients. In the rural pure 1 area, signature rates for recipients and education providers fell below the overall average (by four and seven percentage points respectively). In the rural pure 2 Variant, signature rates for parents and education providers were both well below average (by nine and 17 percentage points respectively).

Of young people in full-time education who had signed a Learning Agreement, two-thirds had retained a copy (Figure 3.18). Overall, retention of the Learning Agreement was lower in the EMA(T) pilot areas than in the main EMA pilot scheme where 72 per cent of young people in full-time education kept a copy.

Figure 3.18 Percentage of EMA(T) Recipients Retaining a Copy of Learning Agreement, by Variant



Base: All EMA(T) recipients in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:662).

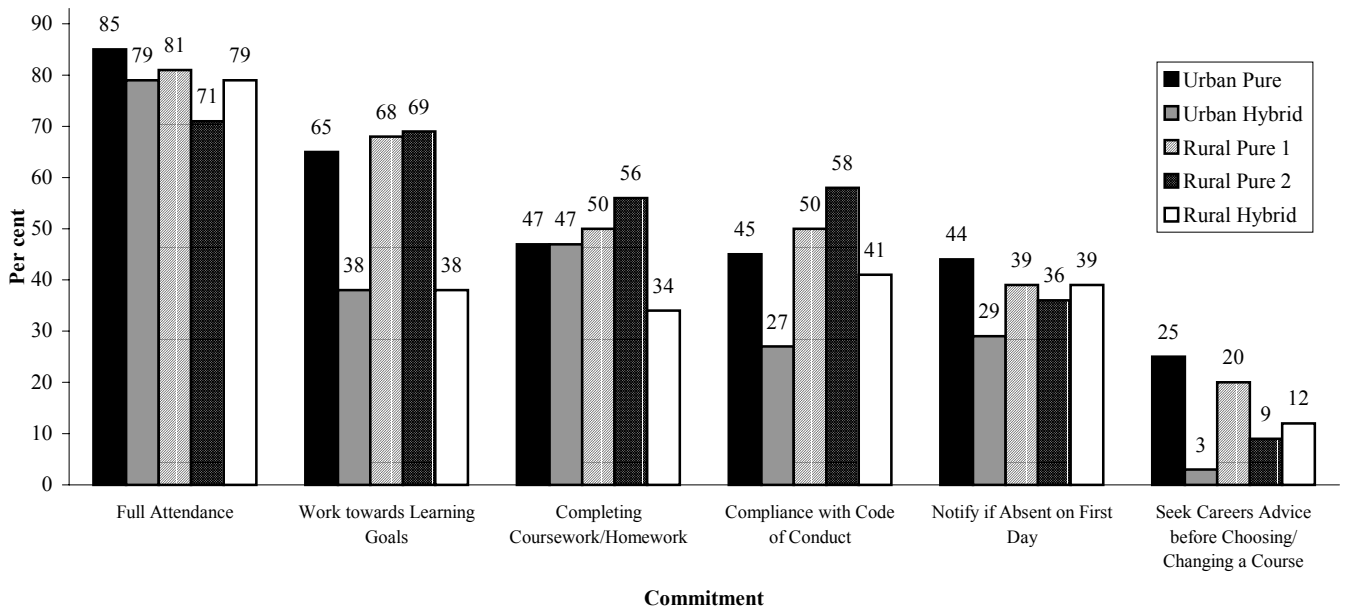
Across the five Variants, the proportions of EMA(T) signatories who had retained a copy of their Learning Agreement varied considerably. Two Variants had particularly high rates; the rural hybrid area (with 89 per cent of recipients retaining a copy) and the urban pure area (with 79 per cent of signers retaining a copy). Among the other three Variants rates varied between 47 per cent and 56 per cent. It is not possible to explain why these differences occurred although it could be associated with their co-signatories. The two Variants with high rates of retention of the Learning Agreement were also the areas with above average signature rates among education providers.

The most frequently remembered commitment in the Learning Agreement was the requirement for ‘full attendance at all classes’, recalled by 80 per cent of young people, followed by ‘working towards agreed learning goals’ (52 per cent), ‘completing any coursework/homework that is set’ (45 per cent) and ‘complying with college/school code of conduct’ (41 per cent) and ‘notify if absent on first day’ (37 per cent). The commitment recalled least often (14 per cent) was ‘seeking careers advice before choosing or changing a course’.

There was a clear difference in the mean number of commitments recalled by recipients in the pure and hybrid Variants. In the three pure Variants, the mean number of commitments was either 4.0 (in each of the two rural areas) or 4.1 (in the urban area.). By contrast, in the

two hybrid Variants, the mean number of commitments recalled was 3.2 (in the urban area) and 3.3 (in the rural area).

Figure 3.19 Percentage of EMA(T) Recipients Recalling Commitments in Learning Agreement, by Variant



Base: All EMA(T) recipients in Cohort 1 in pilot areas (Unweighted base N:722).

When the individual commitments are considered, this pure/hybrid distinction remains for two of the six commitments (Figure 3.19). Compared with EMA(T) recipients in the two hybrid Variants, a substantially greater proportion of those in the three pure Variants recalled the commitment of working towards learning goals. Similarly, more recipients in the three pure Variants remembered the commitment to comply with a code of conduct. With regard to three of the other four items (‘full attendance at all classes’, ‘notify if absent on first day’ and ‘seeking careers advice before choosing or changing a course’) recall was higher in two of the pure Variants (the urban and rural 1 areas) than the two hybrid areas. Only in the rural pure 2 area did the pure/hybrid distinction break down for these items.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has been mainly concerned with describing the educational circumstances of EMA(T) eligible full-time students in the pilot areas. In addition, it has explored the possibility that the type of EMA(T) scheme available in each of the pilot areas (i.e. whether

pure or hybrid) had influenced the educational behaviours and decisions of eligible students. This latter analysis has been contextualised by outlining the differing situations of eligible students in the five areas, with particular reference to their locality. The household circumstances of eligible students were found to differ across the five areas and this may have affected the educational choices made.

The five pilot areas were categorised as either urban or rural. These categorisations were associated with differences in the local transport infra-structure as well as in access to post-16 education (with rural students tending to live further away from their education provider than their counterparts in the urban areas). These urban/rural differences were reflected in the situation of eligible students across the five EMA(T) pilot areas. In the three rural areas, a higher proportion of eligible students lived more than ten miles from their education provider than in the two urban areas (Figure 3.3).

The analysis presented in this chapter indicates that, in urban areas, free travel encouraged eligible young people in the EMA(T) pilot areas to use public transport on their journey to and from their school or college (Figure 3.6). Where students lived quite close to their education provider, this appeared to represent a switch from walking or cycling (Figure 3.7). In the three rural areas, the availability of free travel seems to have encouraged eligible students to switch from walking or cycling, but only where they lived between three and five miles from their education provider. This suggests that the adequacy of local bus and train services influenced the perceived value of free public transport provision.

The availability of free travel in the pure Variant areas did not encourage eligible students to ‘shop around’ for a school or college (Figure 3.12). The large majority of eligible students enrolled at the closest educational institution that offered the course they were following. This is perhaps unsurprising given that many students would not have been aware of the details of the EMA(T) scheme prior to enrolling at their Year 12 institution. Eligible students in the three rural areas were more likely to have chosen a distant education provider (i.e. not the institution closest to their home) than those in urban areas.

Eligible full-time students (and eligible young people who did not remain in full-time education) were more likely to have heard of the EMA(T) scheme in hybrid areas (where a weekly payment was available in addition to help with travel costs) than in pure areas (where

there was no weekly payment, but public transport was free) (Figure 3.13). However, even in hybrid areas, a large minority of eligible students had not applied for this source of funding. The rural pure 2 Variant stands out as an area where the implementation of EMA(T) met with limited recognition among eligible students. Just over half of eligible full-time students had heard of the award and only a third had applied. Of these applicants, a fifth were still awaiting a decision. Among those eligible students who recalled that a Learning Agreement had been signed, the rural pure 2 Variant had the lowest level of signatories among both parents and educational providers.

Comparisons between eligible young people in the EMA(T) study and those in the main EMA study revealed that the two groups were very similar in terms of their socio-economic background and their post-16 destinations. However, eligible students in the EMA(T) study were less likely to have been aware of the existence of EMA than their counterparts in the main study and were correspondingly less likely to have applied for it. In addition, among successful applicants, fewer of those in the EMA(T) pilot areas remembered signing a Learning Agreement.

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ANNEX A

Table A1. Impact of EMA(T) on Year 12 and Year 13 Destinations, Version I: All Eligible Young People from Cohort 1 and 2 who were Re-Interviewed in Wave 2, by Location – Pilot Weights

	Per cent					
	Year 12			Year 13		
	Pilot	Control	Increase	Pilot	Control	Increase
Urban						
FT Education	68.7	72.3	-3.7	55.9	56.5	-0.7
(S.E)			(2.3)			(2.5)
Work/Training	15.9	15.8	0.2	24.0	30.6	-6.6
(S.E)			(1.9)			(2.4)
NEET	15.4	11.9	3.5	20.1	12.8	7.3
(S.E)			(1.8)			(2.0)
Sample size			1,100			1,100
Rural						
FT Education	76.4	77.2	-0.9	64.6	63.0	1.6
(S.E)			(3.2)			(3.4)
Work/Training	11.7	13.5	-1.8	24.0	25.8	-1.8
(S.E)			(2.3)			(2.9)
NEET	11.9	9.2	2.7	11.4	11.2	0.2
(S.E)			(2.8)			(2.8)
Sample size			974			974
All Areas						
FT Education	72.9	75.1	-2.1	60.7	60.1	0.6
(S.E)			(2.0)			(2.3)
Work/Training	13.6	14.5	-1.0	24.0	27.9	-3.9
(S.E)			(1.5)			(2.1)
NEET	13.5	10.4	3.1	15.3	11.9	3.3
(S.E)			(1.7)			(1.9)
Sample size			2,074			2,074

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

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