# ESTIMATING DIFFERENTIALS IN THE TEACHER-BASED COST OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION

Interim report to the National Treasury, 13<sup>th</sup> November, 2004<sup>1</sup> Servaas van der Berg Department of Economics University of Stellenbosch

#### Introduction

This paper briefly reports on the calculations undertaken with the aid of various datasets to arrive at estimates of educational cost differentials between beneficiaries from different race and income groups and by urban-rural location. Given the history of these differentials, and the results of the previous incidence analysis undertaken by the same author for the Department of Finance in 1999/2000 (see particularly Van der Berg 2000), the focus fell on the race-based differences. In brief, it was found that the race differentials were strongly reduced in this period, continuing a process that started immediately after the transition, through the equalisation of pupil-teacher-ratios between schools. There is still a large differential remaining, though, of about 28% rather than 71%, which is based on the differential is likely to remain more enduring because of the difficulty of getting well qualified teachers into poor schools, particularly in rural areas, and is only moderated somewhat by the shift of black students into formerly white schools, a process that also is nearing its natural limits.

It is likely that the impact of the shift in teachers between schools that is reflected in teacherpupils ratios would have had a considerable further impact on the targeting incidence of school spending, which was already commendable in 1997 because of almost universal access to education. This is likely to be reflected in the next step in the fiscal expenditure incidence analysis, to be completed by the end of this year.

#### Previous estimates: How well targeted is education spending?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This study is funded by US AID through Nathan Associated.

Targeting accuracy can be summarised in the concentration index and the Kakwani progressivity index. The former is similar to the Gini coefficient, where a value of zero indicates complete equality of public expenditure. However, concentration curves, unlike Lorenz curves, can lie above the diagonal (the poorest quintile can receive more than one fifth of benefits from public expenditure, but not of income), thus the area above the diagonal contributes to negative values, where

Concentration Index = 1 - 2 x (Area under concentration curve)

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and
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Kakwani Progressivity Index = Gini Coefficient – Concentration Index

We shall confine our attention here to the concentration index. Where it is negative, spending is per capita progressive or targeted, i.e. strongly equity-enhancing. The last three columns of Table 1 show the concentration indices for education in 1993, 1995 and 1997, based on the earlier study, from which the shift in spending is evident. Also clear is that South African school education spending is quite well targeted in international comparison with other developing countries.

 Table 1: Concentration indices for public spending on education in SA compared to a sample of developing countries, 1990s

	Dev	veloping count	South Africa			
	Mean	Range	Sample size	1993	1995	1997
Education:						
Primary	-0.14	-0.44 to 0.19	34			
Secondary	0.12	-0.23 to 0.72	38			
All schools				0.079	-0.016	-0.078
Tertiary	0.39	0.04 to 0.76	31	0.261	0.235	0.223
All education	0.01	-0.27 to 0.30	25	0.113	0.030	-0.023

*Concentration Index* = 1 - 2 x *Area under concentration curve* 

<u>Source:</u> Own calculations, based on applying geometry (i.e. assuming straight lines between observation rather than fitting curves to the data). These calculations are based on decile data. The calculations were based on the distribution of individuals, not households. Deciles/quintiles are equal sized in terms of households, not individuals.

Source: Developing country data from Yaqub 1999, Tables 2 and 5

South Africa's –0.023 in 1997 for all levels of education combined is somewhat below the mean of 0.01 for the 25 countries for which this information was available in Yaqub's (1999) sample, indicating that South African education spending is better targeted than most, despite

the poorly targeted university spending. Because spending is higher per rich child than per poor child, South Africa's primary education concentration index is likely to be worse than average, but South Africa's surprisingly high secondary education participation rates may imply somewhat better targeting than in most developing countries with poor access to secondary education, despite the cost differentials which still applied between white and black students.

#### How important are unit cost figures for determining educational fiscal incidence?

Internationally, fiscal incidence studies usually make the implicit assumption that unit costs do not differ between beneficiaries. In discussing benefit incidence analysis in Africa, Castro-Leal et al (1998; see also Demery 2000) identify three steps in the analysis:

"\* Estimating the unit cost per person, or unit subsidy ..., of providing a service.

\* Imputing the unit subsidy to households or individuals who are identified (usually from household surveys) as users of the service. Individuals who use a subsidized public service in effect gain an in-kind transfer. Benefit incidence measures the distribution of this transfer across the population.

\* Aggregating individuals (or households) into subgroups of the population to compare distribution of the subsidy among different groups."

This essentially implies that the distribution of beneficiaries per service is the crucial step for determining benefit incidence for that particular service, and that the aggregate cost of the service then enters as a weight in aggregating all the different services. This methodology is used despite the fact that it is well known that the value (or the cost) of any particular public service provided to different members of a society often differs substantially across individuals, and, more importantly, often differs systematically between groups of individuals, e.g. urban and rural dwellers, or between different provinces. The latter fact is sometimes acknowledged in some benefit incidence studies, where administrative division between provinces allow a breakdown of unit costs by province, but the more important rural-urban differential is usually ignored because of difficulty of obtaining such data. Moreover, this would also further increase the implicit confusion in the benefit incidence analysis: Cost of delivery in rural areas may sometimes be very high, but the value (quality of the service) may be very low. The costs approach is nevertheless the one followed in such studies.

In South Africa, the nature of the apartheid legacy, particularly in education cost structures, made it imperative in earlier work on fiscal incidence to deal extensively with cost differentials between beneficiaries. Yet these differentials were even by 1995 much reduced. The figure below sets out the concentration curves for actual education spending in 1995, versus the curve that would have applied had there been no cost differentials. As can be seen, cost differentials still had a considerable impact, and rather than a concentration index of -0.124, the actual concentration index for 1995 was -0.016. Thus, measuring cost differentials has a considerable impact on measured targeting accuracy. It increased the concentration index by 0.108, a considerable proportion compared to the estimated actual reduction of 0.157 in the index between 1993 and 1997. Disregarding cost differentials is, in education at least, not yet warranted and would only be once differentials in the public cost of education have been much further reduced than was the case in 1995.



#### New cost estimates

The datasets at our disposal unfortunately suffered from various deficiencies, some of which could perhaps be overcome, but that would require far more time and effort. For one, theY were poorly linked and because of confused numbering, linking attempts often failed (provincial and national emis numbers often differ or are used inconsistently, examination centre numbers are not all linked to emis numbers, and neither could persal pay point numbers or component numbers all be linked to emis numbers). As a consequence, the datasets individually often provided useful information, but as soon as linking was attempted, a large proportion of schools were dropped from the analysis. The uncertainty here lies in whether such schools a reduction in the sample was randomly distributed. Precisely those schools and

provinces experiencing the worst education management also often had the most common data problems.

A second constraint was that a large proportion of some of the administrative data was of poor quality (e.g. many schools recorded school fees of 50 cents per annum, and some more than R1 million). Total pupil numbers did not match between datasets containing race distribution and those showing age distribution. Consequently, where race data had to be used, all these schools where this difference in pupil numbers was more than 10 were dropped from the dataset. In many cases former department was also not shown, thus considerably reducing the sample for which we could obtain data based on either race or former department.

The datasets used were the Annual School Survey of 2002; data obtained from the national department of education through the Education Foundation on school management, teachers and students; persal data for most teachers in the system, but not linked to schools; and persal data for a sample of 100 schools (500 primary and 500 secondary) in each province, However, it turned out that this last sample was firstly not random (schools were selected according to the ease of matching the school data to the persal data rather than through random sampling); some of the matching was wrong, so that the same persal numbers were sometimes linked to schools in different provinces. All these duplicates were dropped, as well as all the schools in which such duplicates occurred, considerably reducing the sample size. Also, the Persal datasets did not contain the true full cost of teachers to the state, as the state's contribution to pension funds and medical aid was not included. Consequently, the gross salaries plus fringe benefits, transport and housing subsidies, where these still applied, were used, on the assumption that the full costs to the state are likely to be approximately proportional to this. In addition, we also obtained a previous analysis of Persal data for the National Department of Education by Crouch and Gustaffson, as well as the systemic school evaluation. These datasets were only used for comparison purposes.

Most of the data relates to 2002, although the analysis is aimed at understanding the situation in 2000. However, as will be shown, teacher racial cost structures hardly changed between 1997 and 2002, so it appears that the use of the 2002 datasets would not fundamental affect the conclusions. The more important shifts in pupil-teacher ratios had been completed by 2000, thus little would have changed in the regard between 2000 and 2002. The previous study was also largely based on analysis of a 1997 dataset and conclusions then also drawn

for 1993 and 1995, so the interval of half a decade between the primary datasets is maintained (1997 to 2002, rather than 1995 to 2000).

The previous incidence study for National Treasury, undertaken in 1999/2000, pointed out that there were two important sources of cost differentials, historically largely based on race. One part was the difference in **teacher-pupil ratios** that applied in different schools and had been reduced but not yet eliminated by 1997. The other was the difference in the **cost per teacher**, which reflects a mixture of differences in post levels, qualifications and experience that are captured in the teacher remuneration structures. Earlier, discriminatory teacher salaries and promotion possibilities also affected both these aspects of teacher costs, but by 1997 that had been eliminated.

By 2000, all differentials in school post provisioning had been eliminated, so that an important source of differentials in cost per pupil had been eliminated. However, one aspect remained, viz. that primary teacher-pupil ratios were higher than secondary ones and primary school salaries lower, and poorer pupils are more likely to be in primary schools. This differences has to be incorporated in the analysis.

Regarding the cost differentials between teachers, the Persal dataset we had for employees in the public education sector allowed an analysis of some of the factors that determine gross salaries. Unfortunately, these could not all be linked to individual schools, so that it is not possible to show how these differ across schools. But some analysis was nevertheless possible.

Firstly, it was apparent that there are large cost differentials between teachers in different provinces and of different rate groups. However, a large part of these differentials can be explained by differences in qualification levels (REQV). The tables below show provincial and racial gross salaries plus benefits (excluding the state contribution to pension funds and medical aid) per annum.

Table 2: Annual cost of full-time permanent CS educators by race and province, 2002 (including gross salary, fringe benefits, transport and housing subsidy, but not state contribution to pension fund)

	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
Eastern Cape	R 70 329	R 83 918	R 93 723	R 98 086	72857.68
Free State	R 73 655	R 81 455	R 95 541	R 97 415	77625.16
Gauteng	R 82 922	R 87 136	R 92 809	R 98 853	89142.74
Kwazulu-Natal	R 75 308	R 86 561	R 95 863	R 99 468	80213.41
Mpumalanga	R 75 819	R 84 740	R 92 435	R 96 810	78509.29
Northern Cape	R 70 309	R 77 340	R 124 536	R 92 848	79333.67
Limpopo	R 73 944	R 69 560	R 93 012	R 98 531	R 74 574
Northwest	R 71 562	R 80 392	R 95 301	R 97 727	R 73 945
Western Cape	R 82 472	R 87 231	R 100 681	R 100 366	R 89 623
Total	R 74 127	R 85 310	R 95 473	R 98 521	R 78 730

The white/black differential of 33% found here is larger than that implied by a more careful analysis of the Persal dataset by Gustafsson for 2001, where this differential was only 23%. As the subsequent analysis is largely based on the same Persal data as shown here, there has to be a suspicion that, if anything, the cost differentials are somewhat exagerated. Thus, the results would be conservative in terms of measuring the accuracy of targeting, if they are based on cost differentials that favour the rich more than is actually the case.

Table 3: Qualification levels (mean REQV) of full-time permanent CS educators by race and province, 2002 (*Matriculation or equivalent only=REQV10*, each additional year of tertiary education adds one unit to the REQV level)

	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
Eastern Cape	12.85	13.35	14.27	14.14	12.96
Free State	12.99	13.33	14.82	14.22	13.19
Gauteng	13.43	13.61	14.17	14.41	13.81
Kwazulu-Natal	13.19	13.65	14.60	14.27	13.48
Mpumalanga	13.29	13.35	14.03	14.35	13.43
Northern Cape	12.86	13.19	15.00	14.07	13.32
Limpopo	13.30	13.03	14.14	14.36	13.33
Northwest	12.76	13.60	14.07	14.41	12.92
Western Cape	13.62	13.48	14.27	14.35	13.70
Total	13.11	13.44	14.53	14.33	13.33

Table 4: Qualification levels (REQV) of full-time permanent CS educators by race, 20	02
(Matriculation or equivalent only=REQV10, each additional year of tertiary education ad	lds
one unit to the REQV level)	

	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
Numbers:					
REQV10	1 604	6	2	4	1 616
REQV11	11 945	1 237	18	1	13 201
REQV12	45 084	3 466	23	210	48 783
REQV13	105 844	9 968	773	4 517	121 102
REQV14	47 972	9 616	4 749	20 088	82 425
REQV15	18034	2 827	2 329	8 598	31 788
REQV16	4 950	913	1 557	3 237	10 657
REQV17	271	87	163	718	1 239
Total	235 704	28 120	9 614	37 373	310 811
Percentage:					
REQV10	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%
REQV11	5.1%	4.4%	0.2%	0.0%	4.2%
REQV12	19.1%	12.3%	0.2%	0.6%	15.7%
REQV13	44.9%	35.4%	8.0%	12.1%	39.0%
REQV14	20.4%	34.2%	49.4%	53.8%	26.5%
REQV15	7.7%	10.1%	24.2%	23.0%	10.2%
REQV16	2.1%	3.2%	16.2%	8.7%	3.4%
REQV17	0.1%	0.3%	1.7%	1.9%	0.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Based on the above, if black mean salaries<sup>2</sup> at each REQV level were to apply, and if all race groups had the white REQV levels, mean salaries by race would have been as follows:

R 88 272
R 96 609
R 93 419
R 98 522
R 91 770

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$  The term "salary" or "gross income" here and subsequently refers to the annual gross salary plus fringe benefits, transport subsidies and housing subsidies, where these still exist, but excluding the state contribution to the pension fund and medical aid.

Based on these data, 58% of the black salary deficit to whites and 86 of the coloured deficit can be explained by the qualification level of teachers alone. Indian salaries are actually higher than those of whites, considering their REQV levels.

The figures above, however, do not consider the impact of post level. Post provisioning is now standard across all former departments, thus the structure of posts is consistent across schools. We now turn to investigating the relationship between salary, race, post level, qualification level and province by way of OLS regression analysis, with the dependent variable being the natural log of salary for all permanent full-time CS educators.

Table 5: Regressions showing effect of race, post level, qualification and province on the natural log of gross income (gross salary, fringe benefits, transport and housing subsidies, but excluding employer pension and medical aid contribution), 2002

Dependent variat	ole: Natural log	of Gross Annua Dognossions: Al	al income	Dogr	aggiong, Plask	only	
	Decreation	Regressions: A	ll Dogwogałow	Regressions: Diacks only			
	Regression	Regression	Regression	Regression	Regression 5	Regression	
	0.130	0.267	0.123	4	5	U	
Whites	(98.83)**	(178 23)**	(82.00)**				
	0.132	0.279	0.129				
Indian	(52.80)**	(99.71)**	(49.45)**				
	0.093	0.131	0.087				
Coloureds	(63 60)**	(77 51)**	(45.05)**				
	-0.205	-0.432	-0.219	-0 595	-0.439	-0 549	
Post level 2	(1.26)	(8.88)**	(1.35)	(2.57)*	(8 28)**	(2 35)*	
	0.057	-0.127	0.044	-0.317	-0.121	-0.270	
Post level 3	(0.35)	(2.61)**	(0.27)	(1.37)	(2.28)*	(1.16)	
	0.230	0.052	0.221	-0.130	0.070	-0.093	
Post level 4	(1.41)	(1.06)	(1.36)	(0.56)	(1.31)	(0.40)	
	0.408	0 279	0 394	0.044	0 294	0.091	
Post level 5	(2.50)*	(5 73)**	(2 42)*	(0.19)	(5 53)**	(0.39)	
	0.690	0 572	0.680	0.363	0.633	0.401	
Post level 6	(4 19)**	(10.42)**	(4 15)**	(1.56)	(10.43)**	(1.71)	
	0.768	-0.060	0.759	-0.243	-0.015	-0.236	
Post level 7	(3 32)**	(0.81)	(3 30)**	(0.74)	(0.18)	(0.72)	
	-0.155	-0.103	-0.140	-0 503	-0.087	-0.493	
Post level 8	(0.55)	(0.80)	(0.50)	(1 54)	(0.66)	(1.49)	
	0.000	-0.202	0.000	0.000	-0.207	0.000	
Post level 9	()	(2.21)*	()	()	(2.13)*	()	
	0.000	-0.197	0.000	0.000	-0.174	0.000	
Post level 10	()	(3.43)**	()	()	(2.81)**	()	
	-0.740	(3.13)	-0.743	-0.734	(2:01)	-0.734	
REQV10	(127.94)**		(128.32)**	(125.04)**		(124.91)**	
	-0.387		-0 384	-0 379		-0.383	
REQV11	(182.78)**		(180.67)**	(167.62)**		(169.76)**	
	-0.137		-0.141	-0.140		-0.136	
REQV12	(110.58)**		(113.18)**	(106.10)**		(103.05)**	
	0.111		0.107	0.113		0.117	
REQV14	(100.91)**		(97.19)**	(87.39)**		(90.70)**	
	0.183		0.176	0.175		0.186	
REQV15	(119.19)**		(114.00)**	(91.24)**		(96.80)**	
DEOUIS	0.216		0.206	0.202		0.220	
REQVIT	(87.68)**		(83.81)**	(58.54)**		(63.68)**	
DEOUIS	0.000		0.000	0.000		0.000	
REQVIT	(.)		(.)	(.)		(.)	
DEOV10	0.122		0.129	0.107		0.101	
REQVIS	(0.53)		(0.56)	(0.46)		(0.43)	
Eastern Cana			-0.022	-0.030	-0.092	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
Eastern Cape			(16.45)**	(20.82)**	(56.43)**		
Ence Oferte			0.026	0.028	-0.021		
Free State			(13.64)**	(13.66)**	(9.04)**		
Contons			0.052	0.080	0.081		
Gauteng			(32.34)**	(42.24)**	(36.83)**		
Vwozulu Natal			0.010	0.005	-0.023		
rwazulu-inatal			(7.08)**	(3.26)**	(13.23)**		
Managalan			0.011	0.009	0.001		
mpumalanga			(5.93)**	(4.43)**	(0.46)		
National			0.000	0.000	0.000		
department			(.)	(.)	(.)		

Northern Cape			-0.029	-0.013	-0.071	
			(8.46)**	(1.94)	(8.93)**	
N			0.035	0.037	-0.032	
INOITIIWEST			(20.16)**	(20.31)**	(15.32)**	
Western Come			0.029	0.024	0.052	
western Cape			(13.18)**	(5.70)**	(10.73)**	
Constant	11.302	11.510	11.310	11.681	11.536	11.640
Constant	(69.23)**	(236.64)**	(69.62)**	(50.41)**	(217.75)**	(49.81)**
Observations	309581	309785	309581	235442	235622	235442
R-squared	0.53	0.37	0.53	0.50	0.32	0.49

Absolute value of t statistics in parentheses

\* significant at 5%; \*\* significant at 1%

Note: The reference group is, where applicable, black, post-level 1, with an REQV of 13 (the most common value, with three years of tertiary education), and from Limpopo Province

The first three regressions show the whole teaching population (permanent full-time CS educators). The premia in Regression 1 imply that whites employed in the same posts and with the same qualifications as blacks earn 14.9% more, Indians 14.2% more and Coloureds 9.8% more. The small provincial differences account for a small part of this differential, with the residual premia (13.1%, 13.8% and 9.1% for whites, Indian and Coloureds compared to blacks) in Regression 3 then largely reflecting the distribution of experience across the groups. However, more relevant for present purposes are the differences without considering qualifications levels, because a major part of the higher cost in formerly white schools arises from the higher qualification levels of the teachers employed there. Judging only by the race of the teacher and not yet that of the beneficiary children, white teachers in the same post levels earn on average 30.6% more than black teachers, Indian teachers 32.1%, and coloured teachers 13.9% (derived from the coefficients in Regression 2). This therefore confirms that almost 60% of remaining salary differentials between white and black teachers in similar posts derive from the differences in qualifications, and the remainder from differences in experience. These differentials will be used in the subsequent calculations.<sup>3</sup>

This indicates that there are substantial differences between the salaries earned by teachers of the different race groups. Little has changed in this regard, which is not surprising, considering that qualification levels and experience are slow to change. Thus, the estimate of the 30.6% premium that white teachers are earning is very similar to the 27.9% calculated for 1997 in the previous incidence study. It is worth remembering that our Persal figures perhaps exagerrate the gap between white and black salaries, as rferred to earlier.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Inserting a female dummy in regression 1 showed that female teachers earned on average 2.5% less than their male counterparts, when all the available other variables were considered. However, this information is not used in the further analysis.

However, before one can allocate these costs according to the race of the children, one needs to have information as to the distribution of teachers and children across schools. Using the Annual School Survey data of 2002, the racial composition of the school population for 2002 was as shown in Table 6.

	Number of pupils	Percentage
Black	9 550 282	82.8%
Coloured	913 349	7.9%
Indian	159 331	1.4%
White	803 227	7.0%
Other/Unknown	101 758	0.9%
Total	11 527 947	100.0%

 Table 6: Race composition as obtained from ASS2002:

Unfortunately, the former department of many schools was not known, and for some schools the pupil totals were inconsistent. Only a minority of students were in schools for which there was accurate information on former department and on school numbers (age-based and race-based data matching within 10).

 Table 7: Race composition and former department as obtained from Annual School

 Survey 2002

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indians	Whites	Unknown/	Total
					Other	
DET	2 439 707	2 240	0	435	902	2 443 284
HOR	88 032	286 412	259	8	29 204	403 915
HOD	38 754	37	0	0	3 078	41 869
HOA	202 523	18 927	240	55 285	40 069	317 044
New Dept	10 801	0	5	459	0	11 265
Total	2 779 817	307 616	504	56 187	73 253	3 217 377
DET	87.8%	0.7%	0.0%	0.8%	1.2%	75.9%
HOR	3.2%	93.1%	51.4%	0.0%	39.9%	12.6%
HOD	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.2%	1.3%
HOA	7.3%	6.2%	47.6%	98.4%	54.7%	9.9%
New Dept	0.4%	0.0%	1.0%	0.8%	0.0%	0.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Data on the distribution of teachers was obtained by matching the Persal data to the component numbers linked to schools. Though although only some one-quarter of full-time permanent teachers were retained within the sample (there were many non-matches, and many schools did not provide information on former department), it was still a large enough group to give fairly accurate information..

	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
DET	37 924	786	40	742	39 492
HOR	90	17 779	37	322	18 228
HOD	6	28	107	47	188
HOA	48	248	6	8 034	8 336
New	7				7
Total	38 075	18 841	190	9 145	66 251
DET	99.6%	4.2%	21.1%	8.1%	59.6%
HOR	0.2%	94.4%	19.5%	3.5%	27.5%
HOD	0.0%	0.1%	56.3%	0.5%	0.3%
HOA	0.1%	1.3%	3.2%	87.9%	12.6%
New	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

 Table 8: Race composition and former department of teachers as obtained from persal data matched to Annual School Survey 2002

Data on the racial composition of schools confirm that more than 99½% of black teachers are in mainly black schools, whereas there are more teachers from the other race groups in black schools. If this is considered, costs per teacher would be slightly higher in black schools because of the more expensive teachers from other race groups, whereas costs in white schools would be little affected by the few black teachers in such schools.

Applying these ratios to the cost differentials per teacher, the costs ratios per teacher in the different former departments would be as follows:

DET 100; House of Representatives (coloured) 113.2; House of Delegates Indians) 126.3; House of Assembly (Whites) 130.2 New schools 99,1

Assuming equal teacher-pupil ratios and ignoring the primary-secondary differential, one finds that the costs per child differ as follows for children of the different race groups: Coloured 10.8% higher than blacks, Indians 17.6% higher, and whites 25.1% higher.

But the primary teacher pupil-ratios are higher and primary teachers less qualified and therefore less remunerated, whilst the black population has a greater numerical domination at primary schools. This still needs to be considered. Table 9 shows the distribution of children by race and grade.

	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Other/	Total
					Unknown	
Grade 1	1 088 349	89 624	17 492	52 394	7 617	1 255 476
Grade 2	824 854	79 917	12 003	49 524	6 710	973 008
Grade 3	783 517	64 913	8 678	50 414	5 842	913 364
Grade 4	874 613	84 259	12 594	53 326	6 961	1 031 753
Grade 5	923 731	98 030	13 596	55 470	7 232	1 098 059
Grade 6	827 356	88 920	13 590	56 615	7 175	993 656
Grade 7	763 148	81 232	12 917	55 915	6 864	920 076
Grade 8	738 568	72 151	9 853	55 215	10 479	886 266
Grade 9	868 402	77 156	13 356	185 762	11 464	1 156 140
Grade 10	680 474	60 737	14 172	53 767	10 337	819 487
Grade 11	556 576	41 734	13 007	52 408	8 770	672 495
Grade 12	354 521	30 098	10 734	48 275	7 682	451 310
Total	9 284 109	868 771	151 992	769 085	97 133	11 171 090
Primary	6 085 568	586 895	90 870	373 658	48 401	7 185 392
Secondary	3 198 541	281 876	61 122	395 427	48 732	3 985 698
% primary	65.5%	67.6%	59.8%	48.6%	49.8%	64.3%

 Table 9: Number of students by grade and race, Annual School Survey 2002

It was found in the previous incidence study that the differential between primary and secondary salaries was about 14%, but did not differ significantly by race. Moreover, if we now also allow for a ratio of 37 teachers per pupils in primary schools, versus 34 in secondary schools, the cost per student would then vary by race as shown in the final column of Table 10 (all ratios relative to black income). The comparison with the 1997 situation (second last column) is particularly interesting.

	1997	2000 (2002)	2000 (2002 (using IES primary- secondary ratios)
Blacks	100	100	100
Coloureds	120.3	110.5	110.6
Indians	162.9	118.5	120.3
Whites	171.1	128.8	127.8
Others/Unknown	133.6	121.8	

Table 10: Estimated cost ratios per student, 2000 (2002) versus 1997

In the case of whites, where the largest differences existed historically, this premium of 28.8% in the cost per student compared to blacks is much smaller than the estimate that was obtained for 1997, viz. 71.1%. Clearly, the half a decade since has seen considerable change in the distribution of the cost of education, mainly taking the form of a reduction in the teacher-pupil ratio differentials between former white and former black schools. The remaining differentials are in large part the results of differences in teachers qualifications, differences in teachers experience, and the greater weight of white students in the more expensive part of the school system, high schools.

Thus, we have been able to estimate, with a fair degree of confidence, the reduction in cost differentials that had occurred between children who are members of the different race groups in the period 1997 to 2002. However, salary structures have remained largely unchanged, and post provisioning was already equalised by 2000, so these cost structures can be used for the year 2000 as well.

There is one aspect of the cost differentials which has not yet been dealt with, and that is those amongst the black population. One part of the black population has joined formerly white, Indian or coloured schools, thus obtaining greater benefits from public spending. Also, there are differences within formerly black schools, largely resulting from the fact that it is difficult to attract better qualified teachers to poorer, particularly rural schools.

For the relatively small sample (just over 600) of black teachers for whom we had information in this regard, those located in what were termed urban schools earned on average 9.8% more than similar teachers in rural schools. But the small size of this sample, the likelihood that the sample was non-random (there may have been systematic bias in which schools had information on their location), and the fact that rural pupils often attend town-based schools, makes this information of dubious value.

An alternative indication is found from regression in Table xxx above, which shows a positive and significant coefficient for Gauteng, the most urban province, when not including the qualification levels of teachers in the model. This implies that Gauteng (black) teachers earn on average xxx% more than their counterparts in similar posts in the reference province, Limpopo, which is a poor and relatively rural province. This could be either the result of experience or, more likely, urban teachers being better qualified in terms of REQV. Though some of the other provinces are also urbanised, thus reducing perhaps the magnitude of this coefficient, the reference. This differential between urban and rural can be further used in the modelling of the final incidence analysis.

#### Conclusion

Despite data deficiencies, the data is clear enough that there has been a continuation of the improved targeting of public school education spending, regarding teacher salaries, largely because of the equalisation of teacher-pupil ratios combined with the already good access of the poor to school education, even in deep rural areas, and the fact that the poor have more children. It is likely that the concentration index for school education would show a further substantial reduction, making it more negative, once this data has been combined with the survey data showing access to education. This is the material that will be used for the final study.

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# **APPENDIX 2:**

### **INCIDENCE OF HEALTH SPENDING**

#### Interim report to the National Treasury, 15th November, 2004<sup>4</sup> Ronelle Burger assisted by Kara Mackay Department of Economics University of Stellenbosch

This section investigates the incidence of health spending across income, race and space. To answer this question two issues are explored: firstly, whether there are systematic differences across income groups, race and space in the cost of health provision and then secondly, whether there are there systematic differences across income groups, race and space in patterns of utilization<sup>5</sup>.

The focus here is broadly on equity. In the health literature this concept is often understood to refer to equality of opportunity, with access to a doctor arguably representing the most appropriate empirical measure of this. In a recent report on health and inequality Di McIntyre highlights three possible sources of inequity, namely

- funding,
- delivery and
- health status or health outcomes.

Whereas the first two dimensions of inequity clearly relate to health services, the last dimension is considerably broader and is influenced by the accessibility and quality of health services as well as factors outside the scope of health services including the individual's environment, lifestyle choices, occupational safety, health knowledge and genetics. The discussion here concentrates on the first dimension of inequity. The second dimension of equity will be covered briefly at the end of this section of the report. The third dimension of inequity is considered to fall outside the scope of this report.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This study is funded by US AID through Nathan Associated.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The latter would include questions about patterns in the frequency of the type of service and the associated cost of the type of service utilized

#### DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The analysis is restricted by the data available. No survey has adequate data on both health services utilization and household income. The General Household Survey (GHS) comes closest, but its lack of comprehensive income information limits the sophistication of the analysis. The available information on salary income does not allow the construction of quintiles due to 40% of households reporting zero salary income. The Income and Expenditure surveys have sufficient information on income to construct quintiles, but unfortunately contain no information on the utilization of health services, only on health expenditure. Due to the provision of free services to the poor the latter is unlikely to provide an adequate representation of the utilization patterns for health services.<sup>6</sup>

Although the health utilization data in the GHS 2003 is superior to that in other surveys, it still has its shortcomings. The survey does for instance not contain any details on the cost of the service or type of service utilized – it just provides information on the place of consultation and the type of health worker who was consulted.,

Also, the data available does not enable tracking changes in health spending and incidence over time. The Health Department's 2000 per hospital expenditure data that is used here to examine systematic differences in hospital costs are not available before that year. There are no surveys that would allow a comparison of how the utilization of public health services has changed from the mid or late nineties. The GHS, which is used for investigating utilization patterns, was only introduced in 2002. The 1993 Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development data set does not distinguish between private and public clinics and hospitals. The data set provides general information on health outcomes including variables on the prevalence of illness and health worker consultation. It also provides some specific quality and cost measures, but because the survey does not distinguish between public and private health institutions this is of little use for tracking trends pertaining to the questions asked here. The 1995 and 1997 October household surveys have no information on the utilization of health services and the 1999 October household survey will not provide a long enough time

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Efforts to use variables common to both the GHS and IES to model nonsalary income proved unsuccessful. The South African Demographic and Health Survey has more detailed information on health utilization than the GHS, but the survey has neither income nor expenditure information.

period for comparison. The 1998 Demographic and Health Survey has detailed information on the utilization of health services, but includes no income or expenditure data.

There are also issues concerning the reliability of data. The deficiencies of the IES 2000 have been well documented including both sampling and data coding problems. The Department of Health's hospital and clinic expenditure data set is still in an experimental/development phase with many seeming discrepancies and irregularities. With a few exceptions, the Department has preferred to leave the expenditure figures in the data base unquestioned and untouched, as reported by the provinces.

The analysis that follows attempts to use the various data sources available in a responsible way - with an awareness of its shortcomings - to provide some indication of who is benefiting from the money the government is spending on health. Despite its limitations, the available data sets can provide adequate answers to most of the questions posed:

- Hospital costs accounts for approximately 60% of the health budget, thus the incidence analysis will concentrate on hospital costs and utilization.
- The Department of Health's National Hospital data base and their per hospital expenditure data can be used to calculate average hospital unit costs for each province.
- Patterns of usage for different population groups, income groups and areas are investigated using both the GHS 2003 and the IES 2000.
- Average subsidies/transfers can be calculated for different groups using the usage patterns and average hospital unit costs
- The GHS 2003 allows a first round assessment of differences in service delivery and service quality across space, race and income groups

# 1. EQUITY OF HEALTH FUNDING

# 1.1 THE COST OF PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Despite hospital utilization being considerably lower than that of clinics, expenditure on hospitals is a multiple of expenditure on clinics. Approximately 60% of the total health budget is spent on hospitals while expenditure on clinics represents just slightly more than 10% of the budget, according to the 2004 Intergovernmental Fiscal Review. The rest of the budget is made up out of minor items – none bigger than 5% – such as health facilities management, health care support and administration costs. This provides the motivation for focusing this analysis of health spending on hospitals.

To avoid the once-off "lumpiness" of capital expenditure, capital expenditure items are removed from hospital cost totals before averages are calculated. According to the 2004 Intergovermental Fiscal Review, current payments account for almost 90% of expenditure.<sup>7</sup> To investigate the incidence of health funding, an estimate of the average cost of providing hospital services is required. The hospital expenditure entries are matched with the National Hospital data base's utilization statistics for 2000/1 to calculate a unit cost for each hospital over this period. The unit cost measure used is the actual current expenditure<sup>8</sup> per inpatient day. Outpatient days were not included in the calculation because it was unavailable for a large number of hospitals in the sample.

Alternatively, the actual current expenditure per inpatient visit (thus including length of stay) could be used as the unit, but seeing that hospital utilization by outpatients is less costly and the ratio of inpatient to outpatient visits is approximately 1 to 5 according to Intergovernmental Fiscal Review, an inpatient day is considered to be a sensible middle ground estimate for a hospital unit of utilization.

An average unit cost is calculated for each province, using the total number of inpatients as a weighting factor. Specialised hospitals were excluded from the sample for the calculation of the average. Figure 1 below displays the distribution of hospital current expenditure per inpatient day and Table 1 shows the average unit cost per province.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Personnel costs make up almost 70% of running cost

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Here actual recurrent expenditure was estimated by excluding any expenditure identified as capital expenditure of expenditure on land and buildings from the total. "Actual" is used here to distinguish what was spent by the institution from budgeted expenditure.





Source: DoH's National Hospital data base, Expenditure per hospital data base

TABLE 1: Provincial means for hospital unit cost for a sample					
of public hospitals - including tertiary hospitals, 2000/1					
Province	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations		
Eastern Cape	772	402	67		
Free State	1118	723	29		
Gauteng	1132	394	28		
KwaZulu-Natal	886	324	68		
Limpopo	725	235	42		
Mpumalanga	1147	1123	26		
NorthWest	698	220	23		
Northern Cape	425	268	24		
Western Cape	1251	803	37		
Total	960	551	344		

Source: DoH's National Hospital data base, Expenditure per hospital data base

It has been observed that tertiary hospitals have a higher unit cost than other types of hospitals – presumably due to costs associated with the training function and specialization of tertiary

hospitals. For this reason Table 2 shows provincial average unit costs excluding tertiary hospitals.

TABLE 2: Provincial means for hospital unit cost for a					
sample of public hospitals - excluding tertiary hospitals,					
	2000/1				
		Std.			
Province	Mean	Dev.	Observations		
Eastern Cape	772	402	67		
Free State	893	364	28		
Gauteng	953	300	23		
KwaZulu-Natal	858	315	66		
Limpopo	695	221	41		
Mpumalanga	1147	1123	26		
NorthWest	698	220	23		
Northern Cape	425	268	24		
Western Cape	769	620	34		
Total	835	471	332		

Source: DoH's National Hospital data base, Expenditure per hospital data base

#### **1.2 UTILIZATION OF PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES**

Utilization patterns are examined by population groups, area and income group. The GHS 2003 is used for the analysis. A household expenditure category variable is preferred above salary income as proxy for income. This is motivated by three considerations. Firstly, salary can be a poor proxy for income. Then secondly, the interest here is more in the bottom part of the welfare distribution than the top and as reported earlier the salary variable does not provide any separation for the bottom 40%. Furthermore, it is often argued that expenditure provides a more reliable measure of a household's welfare. The expenditure variable contains eight household expenditure brackets, with the top bracket for a monthly income of R10 000 and above.

It is clear from Table 3 that most of public hospital patients do not have medical aid. According to the GHS 2003 approximately two thirds of medical aid patients who reported having utilized hospitals over the previous month chose private hospitals. Also, as would be expected, Tables 4 and 5 show that medical aid membership is more prevalent among white households and households with higher expenditure levels.

TABLE 3: Utilization of public hospitalsby medical aid membership, 2003					
	Number	Proportion			
No medical aid	802,545	0.95			
Medical aid	41,167	0.05			
Total	843,712	1.00			

Source: GHS 2003

TABLE 4: Medical aid membership					
by expe	nditure ca	tegory, 2003			
Expenditure					
category	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations		
R 0 - R 399	0.05	0.21	22 600		
R 400 – R 799	0.06	0.24	30 365		
R 800 – R 1 199	0.10	0.30	14 887		
R 1 200 – R 1 799	0.15	0.36	8 756		
R 1 800 – R 2 499	0.24	0.43	5 929		
R 2 500 – R 4 999	0.37	0.48	7 580		
R 5 000 – R 9 999	0.52	0.50	4 283		
R10 000 or more	0.63	0.48	1 744		
Total	0.14	0.35	96 144		

Source: GHS 2003

TABLE 5: Medical aid membership					
by po	pulation g	roup, 2003			
Population group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations		
Black	0.08	0.27	77126		
Coloured	0.19	0.39	11658		
Indian	0.35	0.48	2245		
White	0.65	0.48	8192		
Total	0.15	0.35	99221		

According to Table 6 the occurrence of illness varies between 0.104 and 0.123 for the different expenditure categories. Reported illness and injury are notably higher for the top expenditure categories. There does not appear to be a steady linear relationship between the occurrence of illness and the expenditure categories, but this could be at least partly due to the inappropriateness of household expenditure – instead of household expenditure per capita – as a measure of household welfare.

Table 7 produces similar conclusions: health worker consultations are higher among the top expenditure categories, but there seems to be no reliable linear relationship between expenditure and the decision to consult a health worker.

TABLE 6: Reported illness and injury				
by e	expenditure cate	egory, 2003		
Expenditure				
category	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations	
R 0 - R 399	0.118	0.323	22 625	
R 400 – R 799	0.104	0.305	30 411	
R 800 – R 1 199	0.110	0.313	14 905	
R 1 200 – R 1 799	0.109	0.312	8 765	
R 1 800 – R 2 499	0.116	0.321	5 937	
R 2 500 – R 4 999	0.123	0.328	7 590	
R 5 000 – R 9 999	0.120	0.325	4 283	
R 10 000 or more	0.127	0.333	1 744	
Total	0.112	0.315	96 260	

TABLE 7: Consulted health worker as result of illness and injury by							
exj	expenditure category, 2003						
Expenditure category	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations				
R 0 - R 399	0.808	0.394	2700				
R 400 – R 799	0.835	0.371	3349				
R 800 – R 1 199	0.839	0.368	1680				
R 1 200 – R 1 799	0.849	0.358	997				
R 1 800 – R 2 499	0.817	0.387	710				
R 2 500 – R 4 999	0.843	0.364	908				
R 5 000 – R 9 999	0.878	0.328	522				
R 10 000 or more	0.899	0.302	214				
Total	0.833	0.373	11080				

Source: GHS 2003

The progressive fee structure for health services is evident from Table 8: a noticeably smaller proportion of those who report low household expenditure paid for their health worker consultation. However, according to Table 9 those in the bottom expenditure categories are

less likely to have access to doctors and are thus consuming a less costly medical service. Utilization of doctors is far below their expected values for the two lowest expenditure categories. Table 10 shows that only the bottom two expenditure groups consume a greater than proportional share of public health services.

TABLE 8: Payment for health worker consultation, 2003						
Expenditure category	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations			
R 0 - R 399	0.42	0.49	2108			
R 400 – R 799	0.48	0.50	2746			
R 800 – R 1 199	0.51	0.50	1458			
R 1 200 – R 1 799	0.56	0.50	854			
R 1 800 – R 2 499	0.59	0.49	620			
R 2 500 – R 4 999	0.74	0.44	807			
R 5 000 – R 9 999	0.86	0.35	444			
R 10 000 or more	0.84	0.37	170			
Total	0.54	0.50	9207			

Source: GHS 2003

TABLE 9: Cross-tabulation of type of health worker consulted					
by expenditure category, 2003					
Italics represents					
expected value	Doctor	Total			
R 0 - R 399	445 755	1 007454			
	574 476				
R 400 – R 799	601 928	1 207179			
	688 365				
R 800 – R 1 199	367 372	640 318			
	365 126				
R 1 200 – R 1 799	232 059	359 949			
	205 252				
R 1 800 – R 2 499	174 634	262 501			
	149 685				
R 2 500 – R 4 999	274 692	356 781			
	203 446				
R 5 000 – R 9 999	190 517	234 922			
	133 959				
R 10 000 or more	96 564	110 855			
	63 212				
Total	2 383 521	4179 959			
Pearson chi2 (4): $Pr = 0.000$					

TABLE 10: Place of consultation by expenditure category, 2003						
Italics represents	Public	Public	Private	Private	Private	
expected value	hospital	clinic	hospital	clinic	doctor	Total
R 0 - R 399	197 227	515 931	20 938	17 816	235 961	1 006 890
	194 919	389 096	44 313	26 742	321 767	
R 400 – R 799	262 067	556 879	37 639	17 007	301 458	1 208 045
	233 860	466 829	53 166	32 085	386 049	
R 800 – R 1 199	115 340	265 278	20 323	17 391	197 612	637 282
	123 369	246 267	28 047	16 926	203 653	
R 1 200 – R 1 799	73 771	122 023	18 038	10 557	123 403	359 949
	69 681	139 096	15 841	9 560	115 027	
R 1 800 – R 2 499	55 190	68 494	13 939	9 790	106 007	262 205
	50 759	101 325	11 540	6 964	83 792	
R 2 500 – R 4 999	67 009	58 498	31 470	20 589	162 379	356 407
	68 995	137 728	15 686	9 466	113 895	
R 5 000 – R 9 999	29 580	20 569	25 223	13 290	134 886	234 922
	45 478	90 782	10 339	6 239	75 073	
R 10 000 or more	8 370	6 355	16 248	4 491	73 031	111 031
	21 494	42 906	4 887	2 949	35 482	
Total	808 554	1 614 027	183 818	110 931	1 334 737	4 176 731
Pearson chi2 (4): $Pr = 0.000$						

According to Table 11 below there does not appear to be any noteworthy differences in the share of rural and urban residents that chose to consult a health worker when they were ill. Their respective shares of public hospital utilization are also close.

TABLE 11: Health worker consultation when ill by area,				
2003				
Area	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations	
Urban	0.839	0.368	6 719	
Rural	0.832	0.374	4 735	
Total	0.836	0.370	11 454	

TABLE 12: Public Hospital utilization by area, 2003				
		Std.		
Area	Mean	Dev.	Observations	
Urban	0.019	0.14	53 534	
Rural	0.018	0.13	45 894	
Total	0.018	0.13	99 428	

Source: GHS 2003

# **1.3 SUBSIDISING HEALTH SERVICES**

To enable a comparison of health subsidies for different groups an average expenditure per hospital visit is calculated for each group. The average expenditure per visit is estimated by multiplying the proportion of households that paid for their visit to the hospital (from GHS 2003) with the average hospital expenditure for those households that reported expenditure on public hospitals (from IES 2000).<sup>9</sup> The use of average reported expenditure will mean that systematic differences between groups in the use of hospitals will also be captured by this

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Note that the expenditure category in the IES 2000 is defined as "Hospitals, nursing-homes, clinics, etc., including ambulance services". The category thus also includes non-hospital health expenditure.

method. For each individual the average expenditure per hospital visit is then subtracted from the hospital cost per visit for the province where he or she resides to estimate the government transfer or subsidy for each of the individuals who utilized hospital services. An average subsidy for the group is calculated by multiplying the group's average subsidy per visit with the proportion of the group that reported utilizing hospital services during the previous month (GHS 2003).

As expected, the analysis demonstrates that on average those in the bottom expenditure groups pay less for their use of public hospitals. The estimated average subsidy varies between R 533 and R 812 with the six bottom expenditure groups all receiving close to R 800. Public hospital use is considerably lower for the top two expenditure groups, resulting in a substantially smaller average subsidy for these two groups.

Average expenditure if paid	Proportion that paid	Average expenditure	Average subsidy	Proportion of group who used public hospital	Average subsidy
48.33	0.42	20.48	801.73	0.019	15.09
48.58	0.48	23.28	800.61	0.018	14.76
69.66	0.51	35.85	812.02	0.018	14.84
89.39	0.56	50.00	768.75	0.018	13.46
98.25	0.59	57.85	791.71	0.021	16.59
141.96	0.74	104.79	757.18	0.019	14.65
308.67	0.86	264.41	596.60	0.014	8.57
389.11	0.84	325.52	533.42	0.007	3.80
100.95	0.54	54.38	785.55	0.018	14.29
	Average expenditure if paid 48.33 48.58 69.66 89.39 98.25 141.96 308.67 389.11 100.95	Average           expenditure         Proportion           if paid         that paid           48.33         0.42           48.58         0.48           69.66         0.51           89.39         0.56           98.25         0.59           141.96         0.74           308.67         0.86           389.11         0.84           100.95         0.54	Average         Proportion         Average           expenditure         Proportion         Average           48.33         0.42         20.48           48.58         0.48         23.28           69.66         0.51         35.85           89.39         0.56         50.00           98.25         0.59         57.85           141.96         0.74         104.79           308.67         0.86         264.41           389.11         0.84         325.52           100.95         0.54         54.38	Average expenditureProportion that paidAverage expenditureAverage subsidy48.330.4220.48801.7348.580.4823.28800.6169.660.5135.85812.0289.390.5650.00768.7598.250.5957.85791.71141.960.74104.79757.18308.670.86264.41596.60389.110.84325.52533.42100.950.5454.38785.55	Average         Average         Average         Proportion of group           if paid         that paid         expenditure         subsidy         hospital           48.33         0.42         20.48         801.73         0.019           48.58         0.48         23.28         800.61         0.018           69.66         0.51         35.85         812.02         0.018           89.39         0.56         50.00         768.75         0.018           98.25         0.59         57.85         791.71         0.021           141.96         0.74         104.79         757.18         0.019           308.67         0.86         264.41         596.60         0.014           389.11         0.84         325.52         533.42         0.007

For whole cotogory

# TABLE 13: Average subsidy per expenditure category, 2000 For those who visited public hospital

Source: DoH's National Hospital data base, Expenditure per hospital data base, GHS 2003, IES 2000

Notes: Ratios for proportion that paid applies to all individuals who consulted health workers due to small cell size when including only those who visited public hospital

Hospital visits are here approximated using health expenditure. A hospital visit is assumed if the household's expenditure on public exceeded zero

# 2. EQUITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY AND QUALITY

Average satisfaction with health services is lower among the lowest expenditure groups. The values for the satisfaction variable range from 1 to 5, with 1 representing "very satisfied" and 5 "very dissatisfied". There are noteworthy differences in the approval levels of the four race groups with black levels substantially lower than that of whites. There are however no significant differences in the average satisfaction of rural and urban residents.

Users of public health facilities generally have lower levels of satisfaction than users of private facilities. Public hospital users cited long waiting times (36% of users) and unavailable drugs (8% of users) as problems.

TABLE 14: Average satisfaction with health services					
by expenditure group, 2003					
Population group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations		
R 0 - R 399	1.60	1.13	2 109		
R 400 – R 799	1.65	1.15	2 746		
R 800 – R 1 199	1.63	1.10	1 459		
R 1 200 – R 1 799	1.64	1.15	853		
R 1 800 – R 2 499	1.46	0.96	623		
R 2 500 – R 4 999	1.43	1.02	807		
R 5 000 – R 9 999	1.35	0.96	444		
R 10 000 or more	1.24	0.66	170		
Total	1.57	1.10	9 211		

Source: GHS 2003

\* Note that a higher score here indicates greater dissatisfaction

TABLE 15: Average satisfaction with health services by				
population group, 2003				
Population				
group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations	
Black	1.61	1.13	7 558	
Coloured	1.45	0.94	885	
Indian	1.49	1.03	183	
White	1.25	0.79	916	
Total	1.56	1.09	9 542	

\* Note that a higher score here indicates greater dissatisfaction

TABLE 16: Average satisfaction with health services byarea, 2003					
Population	Population				
group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Observations		
Urban	1.559	1.097	5 628		
Rural	1.564	1.076	3 920		
Total	1.561	1.089	9 548		

Source: GHS 2003

The reasons given for not consulting a health worker vary by expenditure category and provide an indication of factors constraining use for the different expenditure groups. In addition to having a higher likelihood of consulting a health worker in case of illness, in most cases when individuals in the top expenditure brackets chose to not consult a health worker it was because the illness did not necessitate it. Table 17 shows that those in the bottom expenditure categories are considerably more likely than those in the top brackets to cite distance to the health facility and prohibitive costs as reasons for not consulting a health worker. In the bottom expenditure group more than a third claimed health costs to be prohibitive, while 14% said that the traveling distance to the facility prevented them from consulting a health worker.

Travel time appears to be an important consideration for rural residents when making decisions about medical care. According to Table 18 the number of rural residents reporting

that they decided to not consult a health worker because the facility was "too far away" is much higher than the that for urban workers. Tables 19 and 20 also show that the average travel time to the closest clinic or hospital was considerably higher for rural residents and that they were also less likely to consult doctors than urban residents.

TABLE 17: Reasons for not consulting health worker during the previous month					
by expenditure category, 2003					
Italics represents	Тоо	Too far	Not		
expected value	expensive	away	necessary	Total	
R 0 - R 399	78 870	29 290	96 316	204 476	
	70 254	18 986	115 236		
R 400 – R 799	69 199	24 645	116 450	210 294	
	72 253	19 527	118 514		
R 800 – R 1 199	38 547	7 271	60 016	105 834	
	36 363	9 827	59 644		
R 1 200 – R 1 799	18 303	1 920	31 239	51 462	
	17 681	4 779	29 002		
R 1 800 – R 2 499	17 135	1 943	30 331	49 409	
	16 976	4 588	27 845		
R 2 500 – R 4 999	15 304	1 047	41 010	57 361	
	19 708	5 326	32 327		
R 5 000 – R 9 999	4 733	366	20 913	26 012	
	8 937	2 415	14 660		
R 10 000 or more	3 907	0	7 228	11 135	
	3 826	1 034	6 275		
Total	245 998	66 482	403 503	715 983	
Pearson chi2 (4): $Pr = 0.000$					

Source: GHS 2003

TABLE 18: Reasons for not consulting health worker during					
the previous month by area, 2003					
Italics represents	Italics represents         Too         Too far         Not				
expected value	expensive	away	necessary	Total	
Urban	125 372	5 941	295 604	426 917	
	144 370	38 809	243 738		
Rural	123 124	60 859	123 929	307 912	
	104 126	27 991	175 795		
Total	248 496	66 800	419 533	734 829	
Pearson chi2 (4): $Pr = 0.000$					

TABLE 19: Time to travel to closest hospital or clinic					
	by area, 2003				
Population	Population Std.				
group	Mean	Dev.	Observations		
Urban	17.84	11.47	53 421		
Rural	33.57	18.57	45 716		
Total	24.94	17.00	99 137		

Source: GHS 2003

TABLE 20: Doctors consulted by area, 2003				
(Italics represents expected value)				
	Total number			
	that consulted			
	Doctor	health workers		
Urban	1 774 598	2 605 131		
	1 505 925			
Rural	749 764	1 761 815		
	1 018 437			
Total	2 524 362	4 366 946		
Pearson chi2 (9): $Pr = 0.000$				

#### CONCLUSION

The analysis shows that public health spending is progressive. Poorer individuals pay lower hospital fees and make more frequent use of public hospitals than those at the top of the expenditure scale, who often prefer to use private hospitals.

Service satisfaction is notably lower for the users of public rather than private health services. The most frequent complaints regarding public hospitals are long waiting times (36% of users) and drugs that are out of stock (9% of users). Dissatisfaction with health services is highest among blacks and those in the lowest expenditure groups.

Access to health facilities also remain an issue: individuals in the bottom expenditure group cite costs (39%) and travel to the health facility (14%) as factors that prevent them from seeking help when they are ill. Although there are no significant differences in the proportion of rural and urban residents that consult health workers when they are ill, urban residents are considerably more likely to see doctors.
### HOUSING SUBSIDIES AND FREE BASIC WATER

Andries Mouton, working with Janine Thorne Development Bank of Southern Africa

#### Housing subsidy information:

I had a meeting with Lenie Visser (DOH) to discuss detail and to clarify information provided by Dept of Housing DBSA. Information is depicted on a provincial level for individual years from 1994/95 to 2003/2004 and includes the following:

- Expenditure on housing subsidies
- Number of subsidies
- Beneficiaries per income group

# **Free Basic Water information:**

I had a meeting with Wessel Steyn of DWAF which focused on technical detail e.g. cost of providing free water. DWAF says it has not quantified the cost associated with free basic water since it a complicated issue and various factors influence the cost of providing free basic water (see notes)

Only cumulative information up to March 2004 is available: Information is depicted on a provincial level and includes the following:

- Population and estimated number of households served
- Poor population and estimated number of poor households served
- Estimated expenditure n free basic water.

# **Free Basic Electricity:**

I engaged in an exercise to obtain information on free basic electricity by contacting the following institutions and persons:

National Electricity Regulator: Lesley Ferrando: She informed me that NER currently has
no information available and will attempt to gather the information from Local Authorities
when the municipalities have to submit annual information to the NER. Submissions are
only due in Nov 2004 whereupon the NER will capture the free basic electricity
information in a database. From the discussion I had with her, it seems that ESKOM and
the Municipalities have to iron out financial problems before the implementation of the
programme can start in all earnest. She referred me to ESKOM.

- ESKOM. I had contact with Dannie van der Walt who in turn referred me to Department of Mineral and Energy Affairs. David Mahuna's Office who was responsible for the drafting of the Free Basic Electricity Guideline informed that the specific department is only responsible for the policy issues and that I should contact DPLG for statistical information.
- I contacted DPLG (Patrick Flusk's office) who will return my call, since no one was available to assist me. To date DPLG has not yet responded to my request, but it seems (from hearsay) that many problems still exist with regards to the implementation of free basic electricity and that very little (if any) information is available. I will inform you if DPLG does respond but in the meantime it must be assumed that the required information does not currently exist.

# **HOUSING**

	SUMMARY: PROVINCIAL EXPENDITURE											
Province	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	R'000m	
	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL	
										Up to Dec	April	
										2003	1994 to	
											Dec 2003	
Eastern Cape	60.5	64.3	133.0	274.3	387.1	325.2	471.4	293.2	465.0	456.4	2 930.4	
Free State	103.2	49.3	202.3	138.2	192.0	204.8	304.3	146.3	191.5	310.7	1 842.6	
Gauteng	400.4	346.9	567.9	790.8	797.6	796.5	614.2	576.2	1 041.3	390.5	6 322.3	
KwaZulu/Natal	303.4	140.6	335.3	842.7	600.1	461.8	558.4	664.3	748.1	620.0	5 274.7	
Limpopo	21.7	17.3	111.2	189.8	239.4	202.0	270.2	417.5	408.9	272.2	2 150.2	
Mpumalanga	69.5	77.6	175.5	168.4	108.3	105.1	171.8	250.5	269.2	221.9	1 617.8	
Northern Cape	54.9	48.2	53.5	74.7	70.9	62.7	63.8	65.5	68.9	63.3	626.4	
North West	37.5	30.1	124.0	263.9	221.4	181.4	261.3	275.4	221.7	80.6	1 697.3	
Western Cape	284.1	156.7	235.2	392.2	407.7	381.1	324.3	328.1	348.2	155.9	3 013.5	
Total	1 335.2	931.0	1 937.9	3 135.0	3 024.5	2 720.6	3 039.7	3 017.0	3 762.8	2 571.5	25 475.2	



# Housing Subsidies approved April 1994 to Dec 2003

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	Total	2003/2004
										to Dec 03	April 94 to	
											Dec 03	
Eastern Cape	0	19 357	28 581	34 235	33 071	28 614	31 105	38 146	10 849	18 411	242 369	20 811
Free State	2 048	20 439	7 210	4 017	11 600	16 818	13 564	8 799	17 510	5 081	107 086	5 681
Gauteng	56 691	17 051	75 462	68 527	104 446	111 623	65 877	84 907	404 432	13 926	1 002 942	39 086
KwaZulu/Natal	17 111	24 065	33 845	50 339	30 664	33 806	24 384	27 801	23 437	42 829	308 281	43 397
Limpopo	3 193	5 450	9 794	10 929	13 625	34 727	28 805	8 115	16 506	15 764	146 908	15 764
Mpumalanga	3 565	8 368	17 483	11 756	3 746	19 345	38 621	42 748	7 861	2 191	155 684	2 341
Northern Cape	1 797	2 707	5 275	11 322	2 880	3 990	4 010	3 109	4 161	7 003	46 254	7 452
North West	13 381	10 429	34 987	25 429	9 579	9 054	38 962	3 107	1 790	4 247	150 965	7 570
Western Cape	1 737	13 444	21 332	44 737	16 350	33 060	25 577	31 857	32 952	7 743	228 789	8 143
Total	99 523	121 310	233 969	261 291	225 961	291 037	270 905	248 589	519 498	117 195	2 389 278	150 245



# Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket R0 to R1500:April 1994 to

# March 2003

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	980	1 338	18 015	35 058	21 097	18 018	25 412	44 926	7 375	na	172 219
Free State	1 029	10 078	12 570	7 856	12 286	18 002	7 360	9 646	10 259	na	89 086
Gauteng	1 335	7 836	21 882	35 219	70 388	40 212	28 968	30 933	5 329	na	242 102
KwaZulu/Natal	24 214	20 152	44 275	19 932	25 834	12 562	16 493	2 964	4 380	na	170 806
Limpopo	106	2 536	6 269	14 752	19 180	15 240	20 154	9 821	465	na	88 523
Mpumalanga	1 417	9 652	11 810	8 886	7 336	11 047	24 631	5 246	2 744	na	82 769
Northern Cape	148	841	6 744	5 745	4 423	3 683	2 981	1 547	175	na	26 287
North West	1 947	8 188	13 756	9 225	10 318	19 789	15 438	13 570	2 055	na	94 286
Western Cape	1 323	8 757	14 547	26 502	29 306	18 935	21 677	26 243	2 268	na	149 558
Total	32 499	69 378	149 868	163 175	200 168	157 488	163 114	144 896	35 050	na	1 115 636



# Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket R0 to R1500:April 1994 to

March 2003

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	980	1 338	18 015	35 058	21 097	18 018	25 412	44 926	7 375	na	172 219
Free State	1 029	10 078	12 570	7 856	12 286	18 002	7 360	9 646	10 259	na	89 086
Gauteng	1 335	7 836	21 882	35 219	70 388	40 212	28 968	30 933	5 329	na	242 102
KwaZulu/Natal	24 214	20 152	44 275	19 932	25 834	12 562	16 493	2 964	4 380	na	170 806
Limpopo	106	2 536	6 269	14 752	19 180	15 240	20 154	9 821	465	na	88 523

Mpumalanga	1 417	9 652	11 810	8 886	7 336	11 047	24 631	5 246	2 744	na	82 769
Northern Cape	148	841	6 744	5 745	4 423	3 683	2 981	1 547	175	na	26 287
North West	1 947	8 188	13 756	9 225	10 318	19 789	15 438	13 570	2 055	na	94 286
Western Cape	1 323	8 757	14 547	26 502	29 306	18 935	21 677	26 243	2 268	na	149 558
Total	32 499	69 378	149 868	163 175	200 168	157 488	163 114	144 896	35 050	na	1 115 636



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	167	726	540	703	535	838	775	1 024	121	na	5 429
Free State	166	527	331	501	244	92	34	132	3	na	2 030
Gauteng	964	3 980	2 699	3 048	8 400	4 313	2 843	2 528	564	na	29 339
KwaZulu/Natal	4 595	786	1 724	501	506	286	284	96	33	na	8 811
Limpopo	2	24	50	390	606	269	145	36	0	na	1 522
Mpumalanga	105	456	465	283	203	144	273	92	18	na	2 039
Northern Cape	0	82	213	169	214	164	132	58	4	na	1 036
North West	73	565	1 282	936	671	1 003	809	373	31	na	5 743
Western Cape	183	1 314	1 884	1 370	1 652	1 215	1 451	618	49	na	9 736
Total	6 255	8 460	9 188	7 901	13 031	8 324	6 746	4 957	823	na	65 685

Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket R1501 to R2500: April 1994 to March 2003



Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket R2501 to R3500: April 1994 to March 2003

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	53	349	598	572	389	510	547	618	91	na	3 727
Free State	24	114	58	141	66	40	15	72	0	na	530
Gauteng	344	1 389	1 566	2 225	3 393	1 909	1 901	1 262	246	na	14 235
KwaZulu/Natal	2 218	412	714	221	230	93	393	58	59	na	4 398
Limpopo	2	20	8	73	153	64	27	8	1	na	356
Mpumalanga	12	78	149	58	48	43	59	103	24	na	574
Northern Cape	0	19	47	26	65	59	40	10	0	na	266

North West	18	190	436	194	122	241	144	142	29	na	1 516
Western Cape	111	884	905	754	740	570	873	373	36	na	5 246
Total	2 782	3 455	4 481	4 264	5 206	3 529	3 999	2 646	486	na	30 848



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	na	5
Free State	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	na	0
Gauteng	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	24	1	na	29
KwaZulu/Natal	0	0	0	2	1	6	0	0	5	na	14
Limpopo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	na	2
Mpumalanga	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	na	0
Northern Cape	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	na	3
North West	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	15	5	na	21
Western Cape	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	na	4
Total	2	0	2	2	1	8	5	46	12	na	78

# Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket R3501 and more: April 1994 to March 2003



Number of beneficiaries: Income bracket: ALL: April 1994 to March 2003

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	TOTAL
Eastern Cape	1 200	2 413	19 153	36 333	22 021	19 366	26 735	46 571	7 588	na	181 380
Free State	1 219	10 719	12 959	8 498	12 596	18 134	7 409	9 850	10 262	na	91 646
Gauteng	2 643	13 205	26 147	40 492	82 181	46 436	33 714	34 747	6 140	na	285 705
KwaZulu/Natal	31 027	21 350	46 713	20 656	26 571	12 947	17 170	3 118	4 477	na	184 029
Limpopo	110	2 580	6 327	15 215	19 939	15 573	20 326	9 867	466	na	90 403

Mpumalanga	1 534	10 186	12 424	9 227	7 587	11 234	24 963	5 441	2 786	na	85 382
Northern Cape	148	942	7 004	5 940	4 702	3 906	3 154	1 617	179	na	27 592
North West	2 038	8 943	15 474	10 355	11 111	21 033	16 392	14 100	2 120	na	101 566
Western Cape	1 619	10 955	17 338	28 626	31 698	20 720	24 001	27 234	2 353	na	164 544
Total	41 538	81 293	163 539	175 342	218 406	169 349	173 864	152 545	36 371	na	1 212 247



# Number of households:

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	1 258 609	1 295 690	1 333 862	1 372 034	1 411 299	1 451 688	1 493 232	1 535 966	1 579 922	1 625 136
Free State	578 807	602 104	626 339	650 574	675 747	701 893	729 052	757 261	786 561	816 996
Gauteng	1 680 320	1 818 294	1 967 597	2 116 900	2 277 533	2 450 354	2 636 290	2 836 334	3 051 558	3 283 113
KwaZulu/Natal	1 479 886	1 569 857	1 665 299	1 760 741	1 861 652	1 968 347	2 081 157	2 200 432	2 326 544	2 459 882
Limpopo	890 378	936 236	984 457	1 032 678	1 083 260	1 136 321	1 191 980	1 250 365	1 311 611	1 375 856
Mpumalanga	542 786	573 101	605 110	637 119	670 820	706 305	743 666	783 004	824 422	868 032
Northern Cape	175 650	181 525	187 596	193 667	199 935	206 405	213 085	219 981	227 101	234 450
North West	634 037	676 428	721 652	766 876	814 935	866 005	920 276	977 948	1 039 234	1 104 361
Western Cape	904 965	944 369	985 490	1 026 611	1 069 447	1 114 071	1 160 556	1 208 982	1 259 428	1 311 979
Total	8 145 438	8 597 604	9 077 402	9 557 200	10 064 628	10 601 389	11 169 294	11 770 273	12 406 380	13 079 805



# Beneficiaries as % of total households: Income bracket R0 to

# R1500

Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	0.08	0.10	1.35	2.56	1.49	1.24	1.70	2.92	0.47	nc
Free State	0.18	1.67	2.01	1.21	1.82	2.56	1.01	1.27	1.30	nc
Gauteng	0.08	0.43	1.11	1.66	3.09	1.64	1.10	1.09	0.17	nc
KwaZulu/Natal	1.64	1.28	2.66	1.13	1.39	0.64	0.79	0.13	0.19	nc
Limpopo	0.01	0.27	0.64	1.43	1.77	1.34	1.69	0.79	0.04	nc
Mpumalanga	0.26	1.68	1.95	1.39	1.09	1.56	3.31	0.67	0.33	nc
Northern Cape	0.08	0.46	3.59	2.97	2.21	1.78	1.40	0.70	0.08	nc
North West	0.31	1.21	1.91	1.20	1.27	2.29	1.68	1.39	0.20	nc
Western Cape	0.15	0.93	1.48	2.58	2.74	1.70	1.87	2.17	0.18	nc



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	0.01	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.01	nc
Free State	0.03	0.09	0.05	0.08	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	nc
Gauteng	0.06	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.37	0.18	0.11	0.09	0.02	nc
KwaZulu/Natal	0.31	0.05	0.10	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	nc
Limpopo	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.00	nc
Mpumalanga	0.02	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.00	nc
Northern Cape	0.00	0.05	0.11	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.03	0.00	nc
North West	0.01	0.08	0.18	0.12	0.08	0.12	0.09	0.04	0.00	nc
Western Cape	0.02	0.14	0.19	0.13	0.15	0.11	0.13	0.05	0.00	nc
Total	0.08	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.13	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.01	nc

# Beneficiaries as % of total households: Income bracket R1501 to R2500



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	0.004	0.027	0.045	0.042	0.028	0.035	0.037	0.040	0.006	nc
Free State	0.004	0.019	0.009	0.022	0.010	0.006	0.002	0.010	0.000	nc
Gauteng	0.020	0.076	0.080	0.105	0.149	0.078	0.072	0.044	0.008	nc
KwaZulu/Natal	0.150	0.026	0.043	0.013	0.012	0.005	0.019	0.003	0.003	nc
Limpopo	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.007	0.014	0.006	0.002	0.001	0.000	nc
Mpumalanga	0.002	0.014	0.025	0.009	0.007	0.006	0.008	0.013	0.003	nc
Northern Cape	0.000	0.010	0.025	0.013	0.033	0.029	0.019	0.005	0.000	nc
North West	0.003	0.028	0.060	0.025	0.015	0.028	0.016	0.015	0.003	nc
Western Cape	0.012	0.094	0.092	0.073	0.069	0.051	0.075	0.031	0.003	nc
Total	0.034	0.040	0.049	0.045	0.052	0.033	0.036	0.022	0.004	nc

# Beneficiaries as % of total households: Income bracket R2501 to R3500



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	nc
Free State	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	nc
Gauteng	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0001	0.0008	0.0000	nc
KwaZulu/Natal	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000	0.0002	nc
Limpopo	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	nc
Mpumalanga	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	nc
Northern Cape	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0005	0.0009	0.0000	nc
North West	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0015	0.0005	nc
Western Cape	0.0002	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	nc
Total	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0004	0.0001	nc

# Beneficiaries as % of total households: Income bracket R3501 and more



Province	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004
Eastern Cape	0.10	0.19	1.44	2.65	1.56	1.33	1.79	3.03	0.48	nc
Free State	0.21	1.78	2.07	1.31	1.86	2.58	1.02	1.30	1.30	nc
Gauteng	0.16	0.73	1.33	1.91	3.61	1.90	1.28	1.23	0.20	nc
KwaZulu/Natal	2.10	1.36	2.81	1.17	1.43	0.66	0.83	0.14	0.19	nc
Limpopo	0.01	0.28	0.64	1.47	1.84	1.37	1.71	0.79	0.04	nc
Mpumalanga	0.28	1.78	2.05	1.45	1.13	1.59	3.36	0.69	0.34	nc
Northern Cape	0.08	0.52	3.73	3.07	2.35	1.89	1.48	0.74	0.08	nc
North West	0.32	1.32	2.14	1.35	1.36	2.43	1.78	1.44	0.20	nc
Western Cape	0.18	1.16	1.76	2.79	2.96	1.86	2.07	2.25	0.19	nc
Total	0.51	0.95	1.80	1.83	2.17	1.60	1.56	1.30	0.29	nc

Beneficiaries as % of total households: Income bracket: ALL



### Notes:

Expenditure information covered the period April 1994 to December 2003

The number of subsidies covered the period April 1994 to December 2003.

The number of beneficiaries covered the period April 1994 to March 2003

The number of households for 1996 and 2001 were sources from STATS SA 1996 and 2001 Population Census Community profile databases. The number of households for other years were estimated by using the average annual growth rate between 1996 and 2001.

na: not available

nc: not calculable

### Source:

National Department of Housing: 2004. Operational Information. Pretoria

# FREE BASIC WATER:

	Total	Population	%	Total	Total	%	Total	Total	Household
	population	served	population	households	households	households	population	households	size 2001
	2004	2004	served	2004	served 2004	served	2001	2001	
				estimate	estimate				
Eastern									
Cape	7 353 937	2 828 680	38.5	1 754 829	674 992	38.5	6 436 760	1 535 968	4.2
Free State	2 934 118	2 845 595	97.0	820 860	796 095	97.0	2 706 779	757 259	3.57
Gauteng	8 362 716	8 007 114	95.7	2 684 055	2 569 923	95.7	8 837 175	2 836 335	3.12
KwaZulu-									
Natal	9 503 017	5 820 107	61.2	2 218 405	1 358 658	61.2	9 426 017	2 200 430	4.28
Limpopo	6 057 659	2 726 238	45.0	1 436 251	646 382	45.0	5 273 641	1 250 363	4.22
Mpumalanga	3 286 858	1 441 094	43.8	824 088	361 314	43.8	3 122 995	783 004	3.99
Northern									
Cape	901 405	594 682	66.0	241 018	159 006	66.0	822 726	219 981	3.74
North West	3 751 150	2 362 338	63.0	999 751	629 607	63.0	3 669 347	977 949	3.75
Western									
Cape	4 402 436	3 918 376	89.0	1 176 408	1 047 058	89.0	4 524 338	1 208 982	3.74
Total SA	46 553 296	30 544 224	65.6	12 225 516	8 021 320	65.6	44 819 778	11 770 271	3.81





#### Notes:

Total population for 2004 was estimated from Census 96 information and STATS SA growth factor for 2003 (DWAF estimate).

Total number of households 2004, total number of households served 2004 were etimated by using 2001 Census information on household size.

# Source:

Total population 2004, population served 2004, % population served information were obtained from DWAF Website: <a href="http:///www.dwaf.goz.za/FreeBasicWater">http:///www.dwaf.goz.za/FreeBasicWater</a>

Free Basic Water: Poor population and number of poor households served: July 2001 to March 2004

Province	Total poor	Poor	% poor	Total poor	Total poor	% Poor	Total	Total	Household
	population	population	population	households	households	households	population	households	size 2001
	2004	served	served	2004 estimate	served 2004	served	2001	2001	
		2004	2004		estimate				
Eastern									
Cape	5 481 547	2 216 093	40.4	1 308 031	528 814	40.4	6 436 760	1 535 968	4.2
Free State	1 951 829	1 801 350	92.3	546 051	503 953	92.3	2 706 779	757 259	3.57
Gauteng	4 055 972	3 532 076	87.1	1 301 784	1 133 637	87.1	8 837 175	2 836 335	3.12
KwaZulu-									
Natal	6 297 337	3 597 503	57.1	1 470 064	839 809	57.1	9 426 017	2 200 430	4.28
Limpopo	4 731 809	708 166	15.0	1 121 896	167 904	15.0	5 273 641	1 250 363	4.22
Mpumalanga	2 257 622	295 083	13.1	566 036	73 984	13.1	3 122 995	783 004	3.99
Northern									
Cape	524 831	402 316	76.7	140 330	107 572	76.7	822 726	219 981	3.74
North West	2 406 752	1 130 691	47.0	641 444	301 350	47.0	3 669 347	977 949	3.75
Western									
Cape	1 671 093	1 429 131	85.5	446 545	381 889	85.5	4 524 338	1 208 982	3.74

Total SA	29 378 792	15 112 409	51.4	7 715 262	3 968 720	51.4	44 819 778	11 770 271	3.81
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#### Notes:

Poor population for 2004 was estimated from Census 96 information and STATS SA growth factor for 2003 and referred to the population with an income less than R1000 per month (DWAF estimate).

Total number of poor number of households 2004, total poor households served were etimated by using 2001 Census information on household size.

Expenditure on free basic water: July 2001 to March 2004 (estimate)

Province	Total	6 kl	Cost	Expenditure

	households	water	(Cent	per month
	served	per	per kl)	(March 2004)
	2004	month		(Rands)
	estimate	free		
Eastern Cape	674 992	6	2.79	11 299 367
Free State	796 095	6	2.79	13 326 625
Gauteng	2 569 923	6	2.79	43 020 508
KwaZulu-				
Natal	1 358 658	6	2.79	22 743 943
Limpopo	646 382	6	2.79	10 820 436
Mpumalanga	361 314	6	2.79	6 048 399
Northern				
Cape	159 006	6	2.79	2 661 768
North West	629 607	6	2.79	10 539 619
Western				
Cape	1 047 058	6	2.79	17 527 757
Total	8 021 320	6	2.79	134 276 901



# Notes:

Total households served were estimated by using the Census 2001 household size. These figures represent cumulative totals from implementation (July 2001) to March 2004.

Each municipality determines its own amount of free basic water per month. For purposes of this exercise 6kl per month is used as a norm.

#### Cost:

Because the cost of providing water may differ substantially a general cost of R2.79c per kl is used (As obtained from the water services model) for purposes of this exercise. Factors influencing cost include the following:

- a. In some instance flat rates are used.
- b. cost varies depending on the source of water
- c. Cost varies depending on the location of the water source
- d. Cross subsidisation of services may occur

# Expenditure:

Only cumulative figures are available: Information in this column thus depicts estimated expenditure for the month of March 2004.
### **TERTIARY EDUCATION**

Pierre de Villiers University of Stellenbosch

#### Fiscal incidence of expenditure on tertiary education. A comparison between 1995 & 2000

Pierre de Villiers<sup>10</sup>

### Introduction

In this analysis the tertiary expenditure on technikons and universities are compared for 1995 and 2000. The technical colleges are not discussed here because it became an expenditure item of the provinces after 1994 and not enough data could be obtained to make it a worthwhile exercise to do for these institutions. In 1994 there were 65 477 full-time equivalent students at technical colleges (Race Relation Survey 1995/96). In comparison with the 280 774 full-time equivalent students at universities and 127 527 at technikons it is clear that the number of students at technical colleges are fairly small in comparison with the other two types of institutions. Financial data for technical colleges could not be obtained for the period 1994-2000. According to the Budget Expenditure Review 2001, R7 114 112 000 were allocated to tertiary education with R6 204 358 000 earmarked for universities and technikons. This left R909 764 000 that could be spend on technical colleges. However, the technical notes are not clear enough to make conclusive conclusions. Due to these uncertainties and the relatively small size of technical colleges they were excluded from this analysis.

### Method of analysis

The analysis was done with headcounts of students as well as full-time equivalent student numbers. There is not much difference between the two methods because full-time equivalent numbers are just a constant fraction of headcounts of student numbers. The difference is students that are not enrolled for full courses and are therefore not counted as full-time students when subsidies are determined. The number of enrolled students at both technikons and universities were obtained from the relevant Race Relations Surveys. These student numbers are available per race per

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Economics Department, University of Stellenbosch

institution. The funds spent on tertiary education were obtained from the Budget of 1995 and the Budget Expenditure Review for 2000.

Two methods of analysis are done. In the first instance it is assumed that all students receive the same subsidy and with the second method a distinction is made between students in the human sciences and those studying in the natural sciences. The results of these two methods are discussed separately and the most important reasons for different subsidies for different racial groups will be highlighted.

### Subsidies spent proportionally

With the first method it was assumed that the funds were spent proportionally to the number of students at each institution. It was thus assumed that the subsidy for each student at an institution was the same and that no distinction was made according to race or course followed. The conversion to full time equivalent numbers (FE) was done from the Information on the State Budget for Higher Education. The subsidies calculated per student will differ in size between these two methods, although the relative difference will be the same. The reason is because the only difference between the two methods is that you divide with a smaller number of students with the FE-method. The relative difference between subsidies per student with headcount of students and FE student numbers will differ from institution to institution, but the relative difference between racial groups stays the same with this method. With this method the most equal possible distribution of education subsidies between racial groups are discussed.

## Table 1

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	48.0	7.7	5.7	38.5
Expenditure %	49.0	8.2	5.7	37.1
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R5 402	R5 621	R5 260	R5 092
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R7 978	R8 598	R8 402	R7 574

Expenditure on Technikon education: 1995

In Table 1 the enrollment percentage of each racial group to the total number of students at all the technikons are given as well as the percentage of total expenditure allocated to each group. The table also includes the per capita expenditure per headcount and per full- time equivalent student.

Somewhat surprisingly there was not much difference between the different racial groups. The relatively high expenditure on blacks can be explained by the high subsidies paid to Border Technikon (more than double the subsidy per student than at any other technikon) where basically all students was black. Transkei and Setlogelo Technikons also received high subsidies per student and were exclusively black. The cheapest technikon (measured in subsidy per student) was Technikon South Africa with a per student subsidy of less than 30% of the second lowest subsidy per technikon student. The difference between the highest (coloured) and lowest (white) subsidy per student was less than 10%, and almost negligible.

### Table 2

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	73.1	6.2	3.9	16.7
Expenditure %	73.3	6.6	4.6	15.5
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R9 035	R9 548	R10 560	R8 324
[In 1995 prices]	[R6 541]	[R6 913]	[R7645]	[R6 027]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R12 611	R13 223	R13 657	R12 071
[In 1995 prices]	[R9 130]	[R9 573]	[R9 888]	[R8 739]

Expenditure on technikon education: 2000

How did the picture changed from 1995 to 2000? The number of black students at technikons increased by almost 60 % and by far the majority of students were black by 2000 (see Table 2). Expenditure per student is also given in 1995 prices so that it can easily be compared with the 1995-values. The highest subsidy per student was paid to ML Sultan Technikon where about one third of all Indian students were attending the institution. This partly explains the high subsidy per Indian student. The low subsidy of white students can be explained by the fact that about one third of total white students attended Technikon South Africa which received the lowest subsidy per student. Here the difference between the lowest subsidy (white) and highest subsidy (Indian) is quite substantial with more than a 20% difference.

For both 1995 and 2000 whites received the lowest subsidy per student, coloureds received the highest subsidy in 1995 while Indians received the highest subsidy in 2000. The difference between the subsidies paid to the different groups widened over the years if we calculate it using the above-mentioned method.

## Table 3

	Africans	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	50.8	5.0	6.9	37.3
Expenditure %	46.7	5.3	7.1	40.9
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R7 318	R8 385	R8 223	R8 732
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R9 844	R11 204	R11 329	R12 364

Expenditure on university education: 1995

Exactly the same procedure was followed with universities for the two years under discussion. Here the gap between the different groups in 1995 was not that big, although there was more than a 16% difference between white and black subsidies per student (see Table 3). The gap would be even wider, but the highest subsidy per FE student was paid to Medunsa (R27 200), North West (R25 959) and Transkei (R17 696) that was almost exclusively black. Unisa received the lowest subsidy per student (R4 399) and with almost one third of all white students enrolled at Unisa decreased the white subsidy per student quite substantially. These two factors brought the two figures closer than would otherwise be the case.

## Table 4

	Africans	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	53.3	4.8	8.2	33.7
Expenditure %	54.9	4.8	8.0	32.3
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R12 640	R12 330	R11 935	R11 785
[In 1995 prices]	[R9 151]	[R8 927]	[R8 641]	[R8 532]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R17 677	R17 516	R17 422	R17 261
[In 1995 prices]	[R12 798]	[R12 682]	[R12 614]	[R12 470]

Expenditure on university education: 2000

From 1995 to 2000 the situation changed quite dramatically. Although the number of black students increased by only 2.5 percentage points of the total number of students this group received 8.2 percentage points more of the total funds channeled to universities (see Table 4). This resulted in the subsidy per student that was much more evenly spread between the different groups in 2000 than in 1995. There is only about 7 % difference between the highest and the lowest subsidy per student. The figure for blacks is artificially high due to high subsidies paid per FE student at

Medunsa (R52 963 – due to mainly natural sciences being presented there) and Transkei (R29 423). However, their figure is lowered by the lowest subsidy per student (excluding Unisa) being paid to Port Elizabeth (R15 601) where almost 9% of all black students were studying. The difference between the different racial groups by 2000 was negligible small.

### Distinction between students in natural and human sciences

With the next method a distinction was made between students doing courses in human sciences and those following courses in natural sciences to see how that influenced the subsidy per student. With this method the number of students, according to race, that received degrees, diplomas or certificates at universities and technikons in 1998 and 2000 in human and natural sciences were taken from the Race Relations Surveys 2001/02 (page 268) and 2002/03 (page 274). The difference between the number of awards between the two fields of study did not change much over this period and the average of the two years was used as a proxy for students taking courses in the natural and human sciences. It was further assumed that the ratio between the number of students in the human sciences relatively to those in the natural sciences did not change between 1995 and 2000. It was also assumed that the ratio of the number of students of each racial group following human sciences relatively to natural sciences at a specific institution was equal to the national ratio. The subsidy paid to students in the natural sciences was 2.55 times more than for those in human sciences in 2003. This ratio did not change much since the introduction of the Sapse formula and it was assumed that subsidy per student was distributed in this ratio for both 1995 and 2000.

### Table 5

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	48.0	7.7	5.7	38.5
Expenditure %	47.0	8.7	6.3	38.1
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R5 179	R5 934	R5 816	R5 224
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R7 648	R9 077	R9 290	R7 771

Expenditure on technikon education with distinction between human and natural sciences: 1995

The subsidy per student for 1995 between the different racial groups was remarkably of the same magnitude. However, the figures for blacks may give the wrong impression. They represented 48% of the total number of students at technikons, but although this represented 51.1% of students in human sciences they were only 37.6% of students in natural sciences. The Border Technikon

received the most funds per FE student (R21 068) and Setlogelo (9 739) and Transkei (R11 417) also received much more per student. Students at all three these institutions were almost exclusively black. The other technikons received between R6 300 and R8 700 per student. The one exception was Technikon South Africa that received only R2 419 per student. Seeing that approximately 47% black technikon students attended this institution, this decreased the amount payable per black student quite substantially.

The picture changed quite dramatically in 2000 (see Table 6). The gap between the highest (Indians) and the lowest (whites) subsidy per student widened to almost 30%. The number of students following courses in the natural sciences can explain the relatively high subsidy per Indian student. Although they were only 4.3% of the total number of students they represented 7.4% of students studying in the natural sciences. The same applies to coloured students. They were 6.2% of the students, but 8.8% of students in the natural sciences. The number of students taking courses in human sciences can explain the low subsidy per black student. They were 73.3% of technikon students, but represented only 63.3% of students in the natural sciences. This figure was further lowered by the low subsidies per FE student paid to Technikon South Africa (R4 905) as well as Pretoria (R8 739). Almost 47% of black students were enrolled at these two institutions. However, their figure was increased by the highest FE student subsidies being paid to Border (R12 995), Mangosuthu (R13 598) and Witwatersrand (R13 026) Technikons. No other technikon received more than R12 400 per FE student. White students were 16.2% of the total number of students, but represented 20.2% of students in the natural sciences. This should lead to a high subsidy per student, but the low subsidy paid to Technikon South Africa (R4 905) and Pretoria (R8 739) lowered their figure substantially. Almost 54% of white students were enrolled at these two institutions.

## Table 6

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	73.3	6.3	4.3	16.2
Expenditure %	71.4	7.1	5.3	16.2
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R8 795	R10 252	R12 128	R8 742
[In 1995 prices]	[R6 368]	[R7 422]	[R8 781]	[R6 329]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R12 276	R14 199	R15 685	R12 677

Expenditure on technikon education with distinction between human and natural sciences: 2000

[In 1995 prices] [R	8 888] [R10	0 280] [R11 3	356] [R9 178]
---------------------	-------------	---------------	---------------

If we look at the figures for universities in 1995 the subsidy per student is very much the same for Indians, coloured and white students, but for blacks it is much lower (see Table 7). The difference between the highest and lowest subsidy was more than 20%. The high figure for the first three groups can be explained by the fact that those students were more enrolled in natural sciences. While white students were 36.1% of total university students they represented 41.4% of students in the natural sciences. Indian students were 6.8% of total students and 10.8% of those studying in natural sciences. Coloured students represented 5.1% of the total number of students and they were 6.5% of those studying in natural sciences.

### Table 7

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	51.9	5.1	6.8	36.1
Expenditure %	45.1	5.5	7.9	41.4
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R7 066	R8 814	R9 209	R8 838
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R9 496	R11 733	R12 688	R12 515

Expenditure on university education with distinction between human and natural sciences: 1995

The low figure for black students can be explained by various factors. They represented 51.9% of the total number of students, but they were only 41.2% of students studying in the natural sciences. Their average subsidy figure was further lowered by the low subsidies paid to Unisa and Vista. Almost 50% of black students attended these two institutions. However, their subsidy was artificially increased by the high subsidy per FE student paid to Medunsa (R20 481), North West (R20 296) and Transkei (R13 836). Except for the University of the Witwatersrand (R14 120) no other university received a subsidy of more than R12 400 per student. Clearly, with this method it does seem as though there was a substantial difference between the subsidy paid per black student relatively to the other three groups.

How did the picture changed in 2000? (see Table 8). The number of black students moving into universities did not change at the same rate as the technicons. The number of white and coloured students decreased in this 5-year period, but Indian students increased by more than 16% and blacks by approximately 5%. The high subsidy per Indian student can be explained by the fact that

although they were only 8.0% of the students they represented 13.0% of the students in natural sciences. The same applies to white students that were 32.8% of the students, but were almost 39% of students in natural sciences. Their figure was decreased by the fairly low subsidy (R5 441) that Unisa received per FE student. More than 26% of FE white students were enrolled at Unisa.

## Table 8

Expenditure on university education with distinction between human and natural sciences: 2000

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	54.4	4.8	8.0	32.8
Expenditure %	52.8	5.1	9.0	33.2
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R12 146	R13 038	R13 525	R12 080
[In 1995 prices]	[R8 794]	[R9 440]	[R9 792]	[R8 746]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R16 986	R18 523	R19 744	R17 694
[In 1995 prices]	[R12 298]	[R13 107]	[R14 947]	[R12 810]

The relatively low subsidy per black student can to a large extend be explained by so many black students taking courses in the human sciences. Although they were more than 54% of the students they represented only about 43% of students in the natural sciences. Their figure is also lowered by the low FE subsidy of Unisa (R5 441) where almost 20% of black students were enrolled. The black subsidy figures were artificially increased by high FE subsidies to Fort Hare (R18 626), Medunsa (R40 212) and Transkei (R22 878). The difference between the highest (Indian) and the lowest (whites) subsidy per FE student decreased to just above 10% in 2000.

### **Concluding remarks**

Although a few other options were investigated it did not lead to much different results than the above-mentioned. Therefore only the results of these methods will be summarized, although an

appendix is attached with the same analysis except that Technikon South Africa and Unisa were excluded. The difference in subsidy per FE student at technikons increased from about 10% in 1995 to 20% in 2000 when we use the first method. When a distinction is being made between students in natural and human sciences the difference is bigger. In 1995 it was about 17% and in 2000 approximately 30%. With both methods the gap between the highest and the lowest subsidy paid per student widened over the period under discussion.

With universities the opposite results were achieved. With the first method the difference between the highest and lowest subsidy per FE students was 16% in 1995 that decreased to only 7% in 2000. When a distinction was made between natural and human sciences, the gap decreased from 20% to only 10%. With both methods the difference between subsidies paid per student (per race) was negligible by 2000.

## **APPENDIX 4A**

# Table 1b

Expenditure on Technikon education (excluding Technikon South Africa): 1995

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	47.9	7.9	6.0	38.4
Expenditure %	48.9	8.4	6.0	36.7
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R8 361	R8 330	R6 899	R7 704
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R10 859	R11 618	R10 533	R10 163

# Table 2b

Expenditure on technikon education (excluding Technikon South Africa): 2000

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	74.1	6.1	4.4	15.4
Expenditure %	73.7	6.6	4.7	15.0
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R11 207	R12 359	R13 368	R10 568
[In 1995 prices]	[R8 838]	[R8 948]	[R9 678]	[R7 651]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R14 541	R15 668	R15 705	R14 259
[In 1995 prices]	[R10 527]	[R11 343]	[R11 370]	[R10 323]

# Table 3b

Expenditure on university education (excluding Unisa): 1995

	Africans	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	53.2	5.5	6.2	35.0
Expenditure %	46.6	5.4	6.9	41.0
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R9 612	R10 466	R12 635	R12 281
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R11 336	R12 638	R14 329	R15 141

## Table 4b

	Africans	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	56.9	4.8	7.0	31.3
Expenditure %	55.9	4.8	7.6	31.8
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R15 633	R15 829	R17 484	R15 657
[In 1995 prices]	[R11 318]	[R11 460]	[R12 658]	[R11 335]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R20 191	R20 529	R22 318	R20 830
[In 1995 prices]	[R14 618]	[R14 863]	[R16 154]	[R15 081]

Expenditure on university education (excluding Unisa): 2000

# Table 5b

Expenditure on technikon education with distinction between human and natural sciences

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	47.9	7.7	6.0	38.4
Expenditure %	47.0	8.8	6.6	37.6
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R8 035	R8 772	R7 586	R7 886
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R10 436	R12 236	R11 583	R10 402

(excluding Technikon South Africa): 1995

# Table 6b

Expenditure on technikon education with distinction between human and natural sciences

(excluding Technikon South Africa): 2000

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	74.1	6.1	4.4	15.4
Expenditure %	71.6	7.0	5.4	15.8
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R10 921	R13 231	R15 310	R11 081
[In 1995 prices]	[R7 907]	[R9 579]	[R11 084]	[R8 023]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R14 170	R16 774	R17 985	R14 950
[In 1995 prices]	[R10 258]	[R12 144]	[R13 021]	[R10 824]

# Table 7b

Expenditure on university education with distinction between human and natural sciences (excluding Unisa): 1995

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	53.2	5.5	6.2	35.0
Expenditure %	45.2	5.7	7.7	41.5
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R9 306	R10 990	R14 106	R12 406
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R10 974	R13 272	R15 997	R15 296

## Table 8b

Expenditure on university education with distinction between human and natural sciences

	Blacks	Coloureds	Indian	Whites
Enrollment %	56.9	4.8	7.0	31.3
Expenditure %	53.8	5.1	8.6	32.5
Per capita expenditure: Headcount	R15 056	R16 731	R19 792	R16 044
[In 1995 prices]	[R10 901]	[R12 113]	[R14 329]	[R11 616]
Per capita expenditure: Full-time	R19 445	R21 700	R25 259	R21 345
[In 1995 prices]	[R14 078]	[R15 711]	[R18 287]	[R15 454]

(excluding Unisa): 2000