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Fertility intentions, family size in comparison – Hungary and Transylvania

In this paper we analyzed the willingness to have children of the Hungarian population living in Hungary and Western Romania (Transylvania). Out intention was to shed light on individual motivations behind present and future parenting practices, the extent to which the willingness to have children differs in these two societies and the parenting practices they point to.

Data sources: The data regarding Hungary is from the second wave of the "Turning Points of the Life Course" panel survey (2004), which is part of the Generation and Gender Survey research programme. The case number of the nationally representative sample is 16,300. During the analysis, we used a sub-sample of respondents born between 1960 and 1984 (n=6,187).

In case of Romania (Transylvanian region) data is the first wave of the "Turning Points of the Life Course – Transylvania" survey (2006), in which an extended version of the Hungarian questionnaire was used, so they are easily comparable. The sample includes respondents born between 1960 and 1984 who speak good Hungarian (n=2,305). The survey covered 14 counties from Romania in which 97.3% of the ethnic Hungarians lived[5], according to the census of 2002. The sample was selected from an address list, regardless of nationality and mother tongue, and the questionnaire had to be asked from all persons in the sample who was able to answer the questions in Hungarian.

The project is part of both a Hungarian data collection and a big international survey: *Generation and Gender Program (GGP)* (Vikat, et.al, 2007), aimed at revealing the characteristics of the new European demographical behaviour which many consider the result of the so-called „second demographical transition".

The research of childbearing intentions has a long tradition in demography (Westoff, Ryder, 1977., Quesnel-Vallée, A. and Morgan, S.P., 2003.).

The interest toward this topic has changed in time. In the beginning it played a crucial role in developing population forecasting, but when it was found out that, at the individual level, there are important differences between planned and final child number, the interest to the topic decreased.

However the „individual mistakes" are balanced on the macro level, because some individuals have less, some of them have more children at the end of fertile period, in comparison with the planned number of children. (Quesnel-Vallée, A. and Morgan, S.P., 2003.).

The researches about the childbearing plans use different *intention-variables*, such as:

-if the respondent would like to have more children

-when he/she plan to have (next) child

-how many children he/she plans to have in total (desired no. of children)

-how sure is that he/she whant the next baby

-if the partners chidbearing plans are the same?

Beside this, the *ideal number of children* is often used to approximate the future number of children (Goldstein et al. 2003), howewer S. Molnár Edit pointed out that this notion is a kind of public opinion, because is closely conected with the total fertility rate of the related period. (S. Molnár 2001).

These research frames, bolstered by the above premises, offer numerous new research opportunities. The *Turning points in our lives* data collection from Hungary and Transylvania, the similarity of questions at different levels makes it possible to compare the key characteristics of individual and family demographical behaviour and the decisive aspects of the Hungarian and Transylvanian Hungarian societies.

Main results

An important part of the young population we analysed has not even started to set up a family yet, while another part has only taken the first steps. We analysed that timing of the first steps – having the first lasting relationship, becoming a parent – are basically characterised by similarities and differences may only be found in a few fileds. As for similarities with fertility practices among the two populations we analyse and the kind of completed fertility it approximates, it is influenced by several factors even if demograpchical behaviour is slightly inert. Such factors may be the following: structural relationships (labour market), institutional circumstances (family policies) and last but not least the intention of those affected. However, it is difficult to predict the evolution of future environmental factors and general changes in perceptions. Nevertheless, it is worth dealing with present willingness to have children: whether those affected would like to have children, when and how many.

Our present study is a comparative analysis between two intention-variables: a) the number of children people want and b) if our respondents intend to have children / another child within a determined period of time. Avereage values are usually being used for the number of children

people want, but we also analyse if there are people who would not like to have any children („voluntary childlessness") or people who would like to have a big family in both societies. Starting from the fact that determined plans which refer to a relatively short period of time are more likely realised (Schoeni et al. 1999), we analyse the willingness to have children from the perspective of three years following the questioning.

Before analysing fertility intentions we compare the two populations according to the number of children. From the previous results of the study we know that similarities dominated when comparing Hungary and Transylvania from the point of view of timing parenthood, but we also found differences. Now we analyse the „actual situation" that the studied tendencies resulted in by 2005. Then we turn to tha anlysis of the number of children people want by also comparing it to the number of children people already have. This is followed by the analysis of short term (within three years) fertility intentions.

1. Family size/Actual number of children

The distribution of the number of children for the two young Hungarian populations (20-44 year-old) is very similar at a first look. One third of the women and half of the men do not have any children (see also table 1). Certainly, the younger a cohort the higher the proportion of those who do not have children. According to relationship status two third of those living alone, slightly less than half of those who have a partner and one tenth of those married do not have any children both in Hungary and Transylvania. Partial proportions only differ by 2-3% the most. Taking into consideration people who do not have children we may find two essential differences. On the one hand, among those born by the end of the '70-ies 10% less women have children in Hungary than in Transylvania. (The adequate percentages are: 52,5 % and 43,0 %). This is consonant with the results of our previous analysis: childbearing starts somewhat later among a group of younger women from Hungary than among Hungarians from Transylvania. Considering the two older cohorts who were 35-44 year-old at the time of questioning, childlessness is a little bit higher in Transylvania than in Hungary. On the other hand, it seems that childbearing practices of women with middle and higher educational levels are different in Hungary and Transylvania. In Hungary, the proportion of women with higher educational levels who have children is much higher (by 11,5%) than in Transylvania. However, the willingness to have children is 10% higher among women from Transylvania with a high school degree (middle level education) than in Hungary. Thus, the proportion of people who do not have children is lower in Transylvania. (The adequate childlessness

proportions are as follows: 44,7 % in Hungary, 34,8 % in Transylvania.) Therefore, considering these two educational levels we may find tangible differences which we shall come back to later.

Taking into consideration the distribution according to the number of children we may also see some differences: the proportion of people who have *two children* is very similar in the two societies, but the proportion of those who only have one child is higher in Transylvania, while the proportion of families with three or more children is higher in Hungary. Althongh we may not speak about concluded reproductive careers, it is worth analysing the social recruitment basis of people from Transylvania who have only one child and that of people from Hungary who have several children.

. A significant number of those who have more children in Hungary are older and they have started their fertility careers before the regime change (in 1990 they were 21-30 years old). This reinforces the assumption that the change in childbearing practices has started after the regime change (Spéder, Kamarás 2007). In Transylvania, among women born between 1967-1971, who were 35-40 years old at the time of questioning, the proportion of those who have one child is higher than in Hungary. Of course, in their case giving birth to other children is not excluded.

From the point of view of *relationship situation* the most significant differences may be seen in the number of children of those living in marriages: the proportion of those who have only one child among them is 36,1% in Transylvania, 26,9% in Hungary. In Transylvania, thent average of desired children of two women's cohorts, i.e. those born between 1967-1971 and the youngest ones (1980-1984) is unequivocally lower than the 2,05 value necessary for natural reproduction. We do not consider these low values completely unexpected and we assume that they may be explained by dofferent factors. (table 1,2 here)

2. The number of desired children

The number of desired children is calculated as the sum of two factors: the number of planned children has to be added to the number of actual children.

When comparing men and women from Hungary and Transylvania there are hardly any differences in the number of children people want to have. In Hungary the average value of the number of children women want is slightly higher (2,08) than in Transylvania (1,96), but the values do not differ for men (their values are: 1,98, respectively 1,97, see table 3).

If we analyse the number of children people want according to social groups, we find some interesting differences. According to cohorts, there are no essential differences among women in Hungary and even in the case of men the lag is only minimum (1,84) for the youngest cohort (those born between 1980-1984). In Transylvania, the average number of children people want is unequivocally lower than the 2,05 value necessary for natural reproduction between two women cohorts, those born between 1967-1971 and the youngest cohort (1980-1984). We consider that these low values are not completely unexpected and we assume that they may be explained by differing factors.

The low number of desired children for women born in the second half of the ’60-ies is especially surprising, given that many of them had their first child during the first period of socialism. However, we consider that the possibilities and at the same time desires of this cohort had been strongly influenced by the outstanding size of this cohort. Let us remember that in Romania the prohibition of abortion was introduced in 1966, which resulted in an almost doubling (93%) in the number of births from one year to another. After this, fertility had started to decrease slowly, but it was significantly higher than at the beginning of the ’60-ies. The situation of this cohort is also disadvantageous in Easterlin’s sense, given that competition is very high among them from the point of view of obtaining new and/or vacant social positions and income possibilities (Easterlin 1987). The situation of women belonging to this cohort is especially disadvantageous from the perspective of establishing a family: they are rather disadvantaged on the relationship or marriage market, because there are only half as many potential partner men. Even if this proportion is not completely true, given that not every woman is looking for a partner who is 2-3 years older than herself, we may by all means assume that the 2-3 generations of women born after 1966 are rather disadvantaged on the marriage market. This situation could only ease up when among men as potential partners the 1967 big cohort had appeared, therefore in the case of women born at the beginning of the 1970-ies. In our judgement this disadvantageous situation on the marriage/relationship market entailed that this cohort „adjusted” its childbearing desires to relationship possibilities and that is why in their case the desired number of children is 1,82, i.e. 0,3 lower than that of the previous cohort. Let us observe that this is only true for women, given that the desired number of children for men of this cohort does not differ from the number of desired children for older men (1,95 and 1,93 respectively). The disadvantageous situation of women from this age group is also outstanding from the point of view of the average number of children, considering that in Hungary their average number of children is 1,82, while in Transylvania their average number of children is 1,52 (table 3, first panel). When looking at the low value

in the average number of children, we should also take into consideration that this cohort was the first one after the regime change in 1989, whose members – as a result of lifting the prohibition of abortion – had access to this brutal contraceptive method from the age of 18-23, probably to a larger extent.

However, the lower number of desired children in the case of the youngest women's cohort may most probably be explained by completely different reasons, such as social reasons that accompanied the regime change and changes in behaviour, respectively.

There are significant differences in the desired number of children according to *relationship status*: the planned, final number of children for those who live alone and do not have a partner is unequivocally below average both among men and women. In the case of three groups it is only slightly higher than 1,5. (Averages are the following in an increasing order: women from Transylvania: 1,49; men from Transylvania: 1,58; men from Hungary: 1,69; women from Hungary: 1,81.) Of course, it may not be excluded that these values may change as a result of establishing a relationship. The existence of a steady relationship, therefore, also plays a key role in formulating childbearing intentions. From the point of view of relationship types we shall also draw attention to the fact that in the case of women the average number of desired children (2,07) is significantly below values from Hungary (2,26) among Hungarian women from Transylvania.

There is also a significant leeway among women with high school diplomas and women with higher education diplomas. While in Hungary women with higher education would like to have 2,16 children on average, the value of this average is 1,90 for Hungarian women from Transylvania.

The *difference between the average of the desired and actual number of children* is natural, given that the analysed population is in the phase of realizing its childbearing intentions. Comparing values, identifying differences is rather useful in observing which social groups face greater problems in realizing their childbearing intentions.

The difference between the desired and the actual number of children is somewhat higher among women, and within this, among women living in Hungary. This is partly due to the fact that people from Hungary have a somewhat higher number of desired children and partly to the fact that they begin their fertility careers somewhat later.

According to level of education the same correlation as in the case of women may be observed: men living in Transylvania who are university graduates and those with basic education are much behind in realizing their plans than the average.

This might be caused by the fact that men are less "sought" on the marital market. According to marital status 47% of those who have maximum 8 classes are not married and among them 22% live with their partner, another 22% have a partner and 56% are single, without a partner. Analyzing the number of children according to birth cohorts we may observe that half of the oldest cohort born between 1962-1966 do not have any children, while 42,3% have 3 or more children, thus there are only a few who have 1 or 2 children: one part of the population does not have any children, while the other part belongs to families with many children, a significant proportion of which are of Roma origin. 59% of this low educated population has never moved out of the parental home and this proportion is above 50% even for the two oldest 5 year old cohorts (those born in 1971 or earlier)!

Men with higher education degrees are significantly behind. While the average value of desired children is 1,98 for men of Hungarian ethnic origin belonging to this category and the actual number of children is 0,83, the national TFR value is 1,3 in Romania and 1,2 in Transylvania. According to marital status, more significant differences may be observed for those married. *Among married men* there are significant differences between the number of actual and desired Transylvanian Hungarian children: 2,1 respectively 1,40 (see table 3 and 5.).

It is worth analyzing if there is, and if there is – what is the extent of *voluntary childlessness.* That is, what is the proportion of those who do not have children in Transylvania and who answered that they do not want to have any children.[1] Generally, the phenomenon of voluntary childlessness is very uncommon. At a first glance it appears that the proportion of childless persons or those who do not plan to have children is smaller among women and higher among men (table 6).

In Transylvania we find relatively high proportions for each age group. Proportions are especially high among the two youngest cohorts (those between 20-29 years of age at the time of questioning). *Marital situation* is the most important cause of voluntary childlessness among Hungarians from Transylvania. (But we may not exclude that those living alone do not want to have children (yet) because this event is not likely in their situation) The other recruiting group is formed of schooled women: this refers to the fact that childbearing does not fit into their life objectives. (see table 6)

[1] We are aware, of course, that intentions may change during one's life cycles.

Before jumping to rushed conclusions, let us analyse short-term childbearing intention, which according to the specialty literature allow for a more precise prognosis regarding childbearing behaviour. If our previous results are also gain support here, we may predict more precisely the differences between the childbearing behaviour of Hungarians from Hungary and Hungarians from Transylvania.

3. Short-term childbearing intentions

According to specialty literature, intention variables offer a good prediction of the evolution of childbearing behaviour. However, the way of measuring childbearing intentions is not indifferent. We know that the shorter the time period our question refers to, the more precisely we may predict future childbearing practices (Schoeni et al. 1999). Our data gathering allows us to analyse near future childbearing plans and to compare the answers from Transylvania and Hungary. Following the practice of our early analyses, we shall compare the childbearing intentions within three years from questioning. We will also present these short-term childbearing intentions in a differentiated way, according to certain criteria, just as before.

From the point of view of fundamental distributions, there are hardly any differences between the Hungarian population from Hungary and that from Transylvania (table 7.). Slightly more than one fourth of women of reproductive age (~27 %) planned in 2005-06 to have children within three years. Percentages are slightly higher among men (~30 %), but we may not find significant differences between the two Hungarian populations either.

Differences according to *age groups* have the same evolution in Hungary and Transylvania. Most of the 25-34 year-olds plan to have children within three years. From the different average age of women and men living in relationships it follows that the childbearing intention of men is higher than that of women in older age groups.

Analysing the *number of children (parity) and the time elapsed since the birth of the last child*, differences may also observed besides the fundamental similarities. Both in Hungary and Transylvania it is true to the same extent that childless people and those who have only one child would like the most to have children in the short run and the childbearing willingness of the two groups only differs to a minimal extent. Yet, in Hungary significantly more childless women from Hungary would like to become parents within three years (51,7%) than in Transylvania (38,0%). In Transylvania, however, the proportion of men who have one child and who plan to have other children in the short run is somewhat higher (44,2 % and 41,8 %, respectively). Differences should not be overrated, but we consider that the

difference between women may not be disregarded. Lower percentages among childless women from Transylvania unequivocally point to the fact that in Transylvania the number of those who postpone childbearing is higher. (We also know at the same time that very often postponing may be accompanied by a decrease in original intentions.) Another correlation may also point to a lower future realization of childbearing intentions in Transylvania. In the case of Hungary it is unequivocally true that if those concerned would like to have more children, generally they do not plan longer intervals between births. The closer the birth of the last child, the higher the percentage of those who plan to have children within three years. At the same time, this correlation may not be observed among Hungarians from Transylvania: the same percentage of women plan to have another child immediately after the birth of their last child as in 7-10 years following the birth of their last child. The result of our analyses, however, imply that after many years following the birth of one's last child the chance of giving birth to the planned number of children are lower than among those who have planned another child immediately after the birth of their last child (Spéder, Kapitány, 2007).

It is obvious that *relationship situations* play a key role in the formulation of childbearing intentions. It is evident that „strong", short-term childbearing intentions are more frequent among those who live in a relationship and more rare among those who are single. As for those who do not live in a relationship, it is important whether the person concerned is dating someone or not. Among women from Transylvania it is exactly this group of women who have the highest desire to have children. All this implies that in Transylvania women (might) regard dating as the forerunner of a future permanent relationship to a higher extent than women from Hungary. Among those who are in permanent relationships, the proportion of those who would like to have children within three years is the highest among those who live in unregistered cohabitation. This is unequivocally related to the fact that as compared to married people they are younger and have less children. For if we control the number of children and the duration of a relationship, the proportion of those who plan to have children is higher among married people. (We know from the specialty literature that childbearing intention is one of the significant reasons for turning from an unregistered cohabitation to marriage.)

There is a strong correlation between the *duration of the actual relationship* and the actual number of children. Thus, it is obvious that a higher percentage of those whose relationships are shorter would like to have other children. This may be regarded as true for both Hungary and Transylvania. It is a Transylvanian characteristic that there are many

people who have actual/short-term childbearing intentions in later phases of their relationships, 10-15 years after the establishment of the relationship. More than one fourth of women from this group from Transylvania (27,3%) and more than one third of men (38,5%) would like to have children within three years. In turn, in Hungary the willingness to have children lasts somewhat longer at the beginning of a relationship. This result is in accordance with those experienced during the analysis of the time elapsed since the birth of the last child.

Out of the social criteria we shall present the role of *educational level*, *labour market situation* and personal incomes in the case of active people. A lower percentage of those less educated wish to have children than those with higher educational levels. This higher desire of those holding a diploma to have children is most certainly related to the lower parity that may be observed in our case. In Transylvania, the diffusion according to educational level is somewhat lower. A multivariate analysis would be needed in order to present a more differentiated picture.

We have analysed the *labour market situation* separately among women and men. First, we have classified both populations into those active and those outside the labour market, and among non-active women we have differentiated between those who live on maternity assistance and other non working women. (In Hungary we have separately analysed those who live on child care fee). According to specialty literature assumptions, the labour market situation of women and men influences childbearing in a different way and thus, probably, the evolution of intentions as well (Ermisch 2002). We have to know that the group of those non-active is very heterogeneous from every point of view. One pole is represented by students: short-term childbearing intentions are minimal among them, given that school status may not be conciliated with childbearing. The other pole is represented by those on maternity assistance: the percentage of those who plan children may be especially high among those who have one child. Unemployed are in an intermediate position: childbearing intentions are average among the women concerned and above average among men.

Intention variables only partly confirm our above assumptions (table 7.). As we have expected, the short-term childbearing intentions of those inactive women who are not on maternity assistance (students, unemployed, those in search for their first job, other inactive women) are far weaker than the average. The same relation characterizes men as well. At the same time, at a first approach, in Hungary there are no differences between the intentions of active women and those who live on maternity assistance, although we have expected that among the latter ones the percentage of those planning to have more children would be higher

than average. In Transylvania, however, the difference is significant and in accordance with previous expectations. If, in turn, we separately analyse those who live on child care fee in the case of Hungary, we come to differences that correspond to percentages from Transylvania. However, we would only get a real picture about the incidental effect the activity if we differentiated according to parity and the time elapsed since the birth of the last child, respectively.

Demographic criteria, thus, play a key role in formulating intentions, given that the rhythm of walks of life entail strong ties, and although freedom of choice is greater in modern societies than in traditional ones, the scheduling of demographic events may not be modelled in an authoritarian manner. The effect of social criteria may come to light in multivariate analyses, when we control the differences due to age, number of children and relationship situation. We have already performed these analyses (Spéder, Kapitány 2007) for Hungary and we intend to perform them in the future for the population from Transylvania.

Conclusions

We may assert that correlations and relations point to the same direction. There are no differences in size between the willingness to have children among Hungarians from Hungary and Hungarians from Transylvania, the parenting intentions of men and women are basically the same and inasmuch as the willingness to have children are dispersed according to social and demographical criteria they point to the same direction. The average level of the willingness to have children does not differ substantially either. At the same time, if we consider the results of cohort analyses, that women have their first child at a younger age, then from the point of view of the entire 20-44 age group sample we may presume that the fertility of Hungarians from Transylvania is somewhat lower than that of women living in Hungary.

As the specific fenomenon is Transylvania, we stated that the childbearing practices and intentions of the female cohort born after the prohibition of abortion (between 1967-71) are special: they would like to have fewer children than younger and older cohorts. We explained their behaviour and endeavours by an overlap between periodic effects and imbalance of demand and supply on the labour market. It seems that the endeavours of university graduate women are also specific: they would like to have fewer children, there are more women who plan childlessness, on average they have fewer children.

In the end, it was surprising that certain demographic characteristics, i.e. the time elapsed since the birth of the last child, the time elapsed since the establishment of the first relationship, in Transylvania did not influence short-term childbearing plans in an expected, usual manner. These short-term plans had also persisted in later periods following the above-mentioned events. This may point to several things: (a) it is either the sign that in Transylvania childbearing is sequenced differently along one's lifespan – with longer intermissions; or that (b) short-term childbearing plans predict less validly the next child than in Hungary; or that (c) the realization of childbearing plans encounter more obstacles.

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Appendix

Table 1.

Distributions by number of children in case of the cohorts born between 1960-and 1984 according to socio-demographic variables, Hungary 2004/2005

	Number of children			
	No child	1 child	2 children	3+children
Gender				
Women	34,9	22,7	29,0	13,3
Men	52,8	17,0	20,6	9,7
Women cohorts				
1960-1964	5,3	20,7	49,1	24,8
1965-1969	12,1	21,3	47,7	19,1
1970-1974	24,3	27,9	32,8	15,0
1975-1979	52,5	26,8	14,0	6,7
1980-1984	81,7	15,0	2,0	1,3
Relationship (women)				
Single	65,5	15,9	12,5	6,1
Coabitation	47,7	24,0	20,9	7,4
Married	9,8	26,9	43,0	20,3
Education (women)				
Elementary	15,4	19,4	29,8	35,4
Vocational	20,9	29,0	37,0	13,0
High school	44,7	21,4	26,0	7,9
Univesity	45,5	20,1	25,2	9,2

Table 2.

Distributions by number of children in case of the cohorts born between 1962-and 1986 according to socio-demographic variebles, Romania (Transylvanian Hungarians) 2005/2006

	Number of children			
	No child	1 child	2 children	3+children
Gender				
Women	31.0	28.5	31.4	9.1
Men	48.2	22.3	24.3	5.1
Women cohorts				
1962-1966	10.7	19.5	50.2	19.5
1967-1971	16.5	29.6	45.5	8.4
1972-1976	23.9	39.4	27.1	9.6
1977-1981	43.0	34.6	17.3	5.1
1982-1986	80.3	13.7	4.9	1.1
Relationship (women)				
Single	66.8	16.6	12.6	4.0
Coabitation	44.6	22.8	15.8	16.8
Married	10.8	36.1	42.4	10.8
Education (women)				
Elementary	17.6	23.3	34.7	24.4
Vocational	15.3	28.1	42.0	14.6
High school	34.8	30.0	31.3	3.9

Univesity	57.0	29.1	11.2	2.8

Table 3.

The number of desired children and the average number of children among the 20-24 year-old Hungarian population from Hungary and Transylvania according to sexes

	Hungary		Transylvania	
	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)
Gender				
Women	2,08	1,26	1.98	1.24
Men	1,98	0,92	1.92	0.83

Table 4.

The number of desired children and the average number of children among the 20-24 year-old Hungarian and Transylvanian Hungarian women population according to different social criteria

Women	Hungary		Transylvania	
	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)
*Women Cohorts**				
1960-1964	2,11	2,05	2.09	1.96
1965-1969	2,14	1,82	1.82	1.52
1970-1974	2,06	1,42	2.06	1.27
1975-1979	2,12	0,77	2.04	0.88
1980-1984	1,98	0,23	1.82	0.27
Marital status				
Single	1,81	0,61	1.49	0.57
Coabitation	2,01	0,93	2.12	1.2
Marriage	2,26	1,81	2.07	1.6
Education level				
Low (elementary)	2,42	2,09	2.45	1.95
Vocational school	1,98	1,44	2.05	1.60
High school	1,97	0,99	1.79	0.94
University	2,16	0,99	1.90	0.52
Women total	2,08	1,26	1.96	1.23

*In Transylvania+2 yeears.

Table 5.

The number of desired children and the average number of children among the 20-24 year-old Hungarian and Transylvanian Hungarian men population according to different social criteria

Men	Hungary		Transylvania	
	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)	Wanted total number of chilldren (average)	Actual number of children (average)

*Man Cohorts**				
1960-1964	2,03	1,72	1.95	1.59
1965-1969	2,10	1,53	1.93	1.24
1970-1974	1,98	1,01	2.10	0.97
1975-1979	1,95	0,41	1.99	0.32
1980-1984	1,84	0,10	1.87	0.02
Marital status				
Single	1,69	0,17	1.58	0.06
Coabitation	1,91	0,80	2.20	0.8
Marriage	2,28	1,74	2.14	1.4
Education level				
Low (elementary)	2,24	1,42	2.07	1,06
Vocational school	1,86	0,96	2.07	0,98
High school	1,95	0,91	1.87	0.79
University	1,98	0,92	1.98	0.42
Man total	1,98	0,92	1.97	0.84

*In Transylvania+2 yeears.

Table 6.

The ratio between the childless population and the population that does not want to have children among the 20-44 year-oldHungarian and Transylvanian Hungarian population in 2005-2006

	Hungary		Transylvania	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
*Cohorts**				
1960-1964*	3,7	8,2	8.4	11.2
1965-1969	5,5	6,6	7.3	9.4
1970-1974	3,6	7,5	6.9	8.4
1975-1979	3,2	7,2	7.0	13.1
1980-1984	4,7	10,8	14.9	16.5
Marital status	*(21-44 years)*			
Single	8,7	15,3	24,4	27,3
Coabitation	3,8	3,8	11,9	12,0
Marriage	1,2	1,2	3,4	2,9
Education	*(21-44 years)*			
Low (Elementary)	5,9	10,2	2.5	15,7
Vocational school	3,5	9,1	9,3	12,9
High school	4,1	6,5	11,3	14.2
University	3,6	5,8	10,2	8,3

*In Transylvania+2 yeears.

Table 7.

The percentage of those who plan to have children within three years among those Hungarians from Hungary and Transylvania *who are at a childbearing age, according to established criteria, in 2005*

Socio-demographic indicators	*Women*		*Man*	
	Hungary	*Transylvania*	*Hungary*	*Transylvania*
Gender				
Men			30,3	30,4

Women	26,7	26,8		
Kohorts				
20–24	35,2	36,2	16,0	20,3
25–29	49,1	49,1	46,9	47,5
30–34	34,4	36,8	44,0	41,3
35–39	14,0	13,0	27,0	29,6
40–44	3,5	4,5	14,6	11,8
45–49* (only man)			11,6	-
Number of children				
No	51,7	38,0	39,8	35,5
1	33,2	37,9	41,8	44,2
2	7,7	12,0	12,8	12,5
3+	5,5	5,0	9,3	8,2
Time from the last child's birthday (monts)				
1–35	33,7	32,1	36,7	33,7
36–71	22,1	35,7	23,0	36,8
72–119	12,7	37,4	16,1	26,0
120–	6,4	9,5	13,1	15,2
Marital status				
Single	25,8	18,6	24,9	25,6
Relationship	37,1	47,3	37,3	31,4
Coabitation	46,1	34,7	48,7	41,0
Married	20,3	25,1	26,8	31,2
Relationship duration(months)				
1–35	60,8	60,0	61,3	57,1
36–71	50,5	26,9	59,0	40,0
72–119	33,9	38,9	32,3	33,3
120–179	17,3	27,3	21,0	38,5
180–	4,4	-	12,0	28,6
Education				
Low (Elementary)	12,4	20,7	24,6	30,9
Vocational school	22,7	17,7	29,4	32,2
High school	27,4	27,9	29,4	26,2
University	39,5	44,1	40,3	42,2
Labour status				
Employed	24,4	22,1	28,8	32,7
Maternity assistance	26,3	x	43,5	x
GYED /Hungary/	44,2	x	x	x
Other inactive	14,1	19,2	21,1	22,4
Total % (N=100%)	26,7 (2716)	26,8 (1306)	30,3 (2629)	30,4 (1186)

*In Transylvania only between 45-46 years old.