

Infant's sex, birth control policy and postpartum well-being: a prospective cohort study in Shanghai, China

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ABSTRACT

Objectives: The Chinese government loosed its birth control policy and allowed the parents to have the second child if both of the parent were from one-child family from 2001. We explore the association between infant's sex and mother's postpartum well-being, which may be moderated by birth control policy status in China.

Setting and Participants: We conducted a prospective cohort study in Shanghai City, one of the largest cities in China. A total number of 1730 childbearing women from 8 obstetric hospitals across Shanghai were included in the study at baseline, with 1503 women completing the survey 7 days postpartum in 2013.

Measures: The General Well-Being Schedule (GWBS) was used to assess maternal well-being at baseline and follow-up investigation in the study. Women's demographic, clinical characteristic, and well-being were measured at baseline. The maternal satisfaction and postpartum well-being were assessed in the follow-up survey.

Results The results of multivariable linear regression analyses showed that women who gave

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birth to male infants were positively associated with the total score of maternal well-being, when the participated hospitals, maternal well-being at baseline, the socio-demographic characteristic, maternal and infant's health outcome were added to the adjustments (β =1.462, P<0.05). The association disappeared when the two-child policy status was added to be adjusted (P>0.05). The results of multiple logistic regression model showed that having a male infant was a protective factor of 'positive well-being' (OR=0.622, P<0.05), which was moderated by the two-child policy status (P>0.05).

Conclusions: Our results emphasize the importance in conducting intervention to increase the general well-being, especially for those with a female infant in a son preference society such as China, and enhance the necessity of sustainability of newly relaxed two-child policy which allows more couples to have the second child in China.

[Keywords] Infant's sex, Birth control policy, Postpartum well-being, China

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Our study has provided important clinical implications regarding the effect of birth control policy and gender preference on postnatal maternal mental health.
- Our study is the first one which has provided direct evidence on how a relaxation of birth control policy could positively increase new mother's mental health status.
- We recruited the participants at 29-30 weeks of gestation in low-risk primiparous women in order to avoid other possible confounders such as severe complication during pregnancy and the first child's sex which may influence a multiparous woman's well-being.
- Selection bias may exist in our study as 1.5% women who refused to take part in our study at baseline. And 13.1% were missing or excluded from the follow-up investigation. Women with higher level of psychological well-being during the pregnancy may be more likely to take part in our study and completing the follow-up investigation.

INTRODUCTION

Developing a sense of well-being and achieving competence in the maternal role are considered as critical components of maternal adaptation during the transition to motherhood. Maternal psychology is also known to impact a child's physical² and mental health. However, previous studies have shown the significant difference in maternal postpartum mental health when comparing different genders of newborn infants. Women who gave birth to a female infant were at a higher risk of postpartum depression after adjusting for maternal age, education level, family income, living condition, gravidity, number of prenatal care visits, and mode of delivery. Fathers of male infants had significantly higher parenting satisfaction scores than fathers of female infants following the infant's birth. This is in contrast to studies conducted in Western societies which did not find an association between fetal gender and postpartum psychology.

The strong preference for boys is well known in Chinese culture because boys will carry their family lineage and may earn more income for family and society. ^{10,11} The gender preference has become a subject of considerable discussion since the one-child family policy was implemented in 1974. ^{10,11} The one-child family policy in China has been suggested to lead to a stronger male preference, ^{12,13} which may affect maternal psychological well-being when the male preference could not meet. Studies have shown that disappointment over baby gender is a significant risk factor of postnatal depression. ¹⁴ Under the one-child policy in China, the gender of newborn babies should play a more important role in affecting the mother's postnatal mental health status, because families could not have a second chance to have another child if they are not happy with the gender of the newborn baby. Unfortunately, there are limited studies exploring these relationships in Chinese culture.

In 2001, the Chinese government loosed its birth control policy and allowed the parents to have the second child if both of the parent were from a one-child family. The policy has been further relaxed which allows all couples to have two children since 2016. Therefore, the majority of Chinese families were under either one-child or two-child birth control policy status from 2001 to 2015. We conducted a prospective cohort study during 2013 in Shanghai City, one of the largest cities in China. We hypothesized that mothers with a male infant was positively associated with the higher level of postpartum well-being, but may be moderated by birth control policy status. The aims of the current study were: (1) to explore the association between infant's sex and mother's postpartum well-being including anxiety, depression, general health, positive well-being, self-control, vitality; and (2) to examine whether the birth control policy status would moderate the association.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

A prospective research design was used to collect data at two time points (baseline and follow-up). Eight obstetric hospitals were selected from 8 separate districts across Shanghai by convenience sampling. The childbearing women who attended antenatal clinics in the 8 selected hospitals were eligible for the study if they met the following inclusion criteria: (1) 29-30 weeks of gestation at recruitment; (2) primiparous; (3) singleton pregnancy. The exclusion criteria were: (1) personal, family-based psychiatric history; (2) presence of medical or obstetric complications (such as gestational diabetes and preeclampsia) before the final investigation; (3) fetal malformations; (4) unable to provide consent. 1902 childbearing women who were eligible

for the inclusion criteria were invited to take part in the study at baseline; 29 women were unable to provide the informed consent or refused to complete the questionnaire. A total of 1730 childbearing women were included in the cohortt, and finally 1503 women who completed the follow-up questionnaire with no missing information or fetal malformation were included in the final analysis (Figure 1). There were no difference of maternal age, education level, vacation and method of payment, or well-being level at baseline between the missing (n=227) and inclusion data (n=1503) (each P>0.05).

Measurements

The General Well-Being Schedule (GWBS) was used to assess maternal well-being at baseline (at 29-30 weeks of gestation of the recruited women) and follow-up investigation (7-14 days after birth) in the study. GWBS is an 18-item multi-dimensional scale developed by Harold Deputy and revised by Fazio Anthony; 15 which has been validated in American and Asian population. 16-19 Duan 20 has translated the GWBS scale into Chinese and reported its validation in China: the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficients of male and female were 0.91 and 0.95 respectively) and construct validity (the Pearson correlation coefficients between the scores of each item and total score were from 0.65 to 0.88) of GWBS were reliable in Chinese population. GWBS covers six dimensions of subjective feelings of psychological well-being: anxiety (nervousness; stress; strain; pressure; anxious, worried; upset; relaxed-tense), depression (sad; discouraged; hopeless; downhearted; blue; depressed-cheerful), general health (bothered by bodily disorders; health; concern; worry), positive well-being (good spirits; happy, satisfied; interesting daily life), self-control (firm control of behavior; emotions; afraid losing

mind; emotionally stable; sure of self) and vitality (waking, fresh, rested; feeling tired, worn out; energy level). All items refer to the experience of participants in the previous month. Items 1-14 are scored from 0 to 5, while items 15-18 are scored from 0 to 10. Items 1, 3, 6, 7, 9, 11, 15, and 16 are reverse scored. The scores of each dimension were summed by their corresponding items. The total score of GWBS was summed by the scores of six dimensions. The higher scores represent greater well-being. Proposed cutoffs (60, 72) representing three levels of well-being are 73–110 (positive well-being), 61–72 (moderate distress), and 0–60 (severe distress).

Procedure

The survey was conducted from May to October 2013. The questionnaires were filled out by women when they attended regular antenatal health education courses in the selected hospitals. Teachers of health education courses (usually the medical practitioner of the hospitals) were trained to brief through the aim of the current study and the questionnaires to the participants. The participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire individually in half an hour at the end of the courses according to the attached illustration. The teachers collected and placed all filled questionnaires in a sealed envelope and posted all original hard copies to the researchers. The follow-up investigation was conducted by a family interview on day 7-14 postpartum due to the Chinese tradition that a Chinese woman should remain at home for one month postpartum.

The study was approved by the ethics committees of the Shanghai First Maternity and Infant Hospital, Tongji University School of Medicine (#2013-09). The study was carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines. The purposes of the study were explained to all

participants verbally. All participants signed an informed consent form prior to enrolling in the study. The participants were advised that they could withdraw from the study at any time they wished.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 program. Independent-samples t-tests and Chi-square tests were conducted to compare the two groups (women with male and female newborn infants) at the baseline. Multivariable linear regression analyses were used to assess the effects of infant's sex on delivery mode and maternal satisfaction, after adjusting for potential confounders including participated hospitals, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, infant's health outcome and one-child policy status. The multi collinearity problem was verified using the tolerance approach and the variance inflation factor. Any variable that had a tolerance value of less than 0.1 and a variance inflation factor greater than 10 was not included in the same regression model.²¹ Multiple logistic regression models²² were also used to analyze the effect of infants' sex on the levels of maternal wellbeing when the possible potential confounders were adjusted. A p-value of 0.05 was used for all tests of significance. There was no difference found for maternal age, education, vacation and method of payment, or well-being at baseline between the missing (n=227) and inclusion data (n=1503) (each p>0.05).

RESULTS

Among all of our 1503 participants, 781 (52.0%) gave birth to male infants (Male Group), 722 (48.0%) gave birth to female infants (Female Group). Table 1 shows the distribution of selected

socio-demographic, obstetric and children's characteristic characteristics among participants. The proportion of age, ethnicity, education, vacation, resident status, multiple gestation, and method of payment was equal between the participants in two groups (p>0.05). Difference of birth weight was found between the participants in two groups; and the rate of breastfeeding in first 24 hours in Female Group was higher than those in Male Group, with the p values of 0.05 (Table 1). At the baseline, there was no difference of degree of maternal welling-being (non-anxiety, non-depression, positive well-being and self-control) between two groups (each p>0.05; see Table 2).

However, during the postpartum period, only women who gave birth to male infants were positively associated with the total score of maternal well-being when confounders were not adjusted (β =1.570, 95% CI: 0.372 to 2.767, p<0.001). The association remained statistical significance when the participated hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline (β =1.482, 95% CI: 0.303 to 2.660, P<0.001), the socio-demographic characteristic (β =1.526, 95% CI: 0.341 to 2.710, P<0.001), obstetric characteristic (β =1.474, 95% CI: 0.293 to 2.656, P=0.014), infant's health outcome (β =1.474, 95% CI: 0.293 to 2.656, P=0.015) were added to the adjustments. However, the association was not statistically significant when the birth control policy status (two-child vs. one-child status) was added to be considered (1.497, -0.001 to 2.990, p=0.051; Table 3).

Similarly, the infants' sex were also related with the score of subscale of positive welling-being when not adjusting for (β =0.274, 0.050 to 0.499, p<0.001) or adjusting for the hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline (β =0.273, 95% CI: 0.048 to 0.497, p<0.001), and when the socio-demographic characteristic (β =0.303, 95% CI: 0.079 to 0.528, , p=0.008), obstetric

characteristic (β =0.297, 95% CI: 0.072 to 0.522, p=0.010), infant's health outcome (β =0.295, 95% CI: 0.070 to 0.521, p=0.010) were added to be considered. However, the positive association disappeared when the two-child birth control policy were added to the adjustments (β =0.230, 95% CI:-0.048 to 0.508, p=0.104; Table 3).

We also found a lower depression level in women who gave birth to male infants when we did not adjust for any potential confounders (β =1.339, 95% CI: 1.051 to 1.626, p<0.001). These associations remained when the hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline (β =1.335, 95% CI: 1.050 to 1.621, p<0.001), socio-demographic characteristic (β =1.333, 95% CI: 1.046 to 1.620, p<0.001), obstetric characteristic(β =1.323, 95% CI: 1.036 to 1.610, p<0.001), infant's health outcome (β =1.321, 95% CI: 1.033 to 1.608, p<0.001) and two-child policy status (β =1.341, 95% CI: 0.990 to 1.692, p<0.001) were added to the adjustments (Table 3).

Additionally, the total score of GWBS was categorized into three levels (severe distress, moderate distress and positive well-being). The results showed that women who gave birth to male infants were only associated with the level of positive well-being (aOR=1.607, 95% CI: 1.034 to 2.499, p=0.035) when compared with the level of positive well-being after adjusted for hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, and infant's health outcome. However, the association disappeared when two-child policy status was added into the adjustments (aOR=1.240, 95% CI: 0.674 to 2.281, p=0.489; Table 4).

DISCUSSION

The present study sheds light on the influence of infants' sex with maternal postpartum well-

being. To our knowledge, there are few studies with consideration of the change of birth control policy. Our study indicated that the women who gave birth to a male infant experienced less maternal postpartum depression and enjoyed higher postpartum well-being. However, the positive association between infant gender and postpartum well-being could be moderated by the two-child birth control policy status.

In our study, the distribution of demographic characteristics, obstetric characteristic and infant's health outcome (such as exceptionally high rates of caesarean section and breastfeeding) are consistent with the general obstetric populations in Chinese literature, 5,23,24 therefore, our sample is representative of the national population. There was no significant difference at baseline in maternal well-being between women who gave birth to male and female infants, which may be due to the truth that since 2002, parents are not allowed to identify the gender of the fetus before delivery, which is to avoid any gender selection. 25,26

Our results suggest that giving birth of a male infant was related with less postpartum depression. The result is consistent to the previous studies that new mothers of female infants were at increased risk of developing postpartum depression,^{5,6,12,14} while new mothers of males infants experience lower depression level in a society that values boys. Couples in China have a strong preference of sons due to not only economic but also social reasons.²⁷ For example, people usually rely on their offspring to support their retired life since the national pension system is not very well established in China;^{28,29} and sons with higher income will be more capable of providing financial support compared to daughters since generally women gain less than men in China.³⁰ More important, only a son's offspring would be able to carry his father's surname to continue the family lineage. The negative reaction of family members towards the

birth of a female infant may subsequently affect their support of the mother, which may be a potential risk factor for postpartum depression within certain cultural groups.⁵

Our results further suggested that women who gave birth to a male have a more positive postpartum general well-being and higher-level well-being status. The general and higher level of well-being which was assessed by GWBS refers to anxiety, depression, general health, positive well-being, self-control, and vitality. It is biologically plausible that the brain and body respond to stress by an activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis and the sympathetic nervous system preparing the body to "fight or flight". ³¹ Consequently, the higher level of psychological well-being and lower depression and anxiety may bring along the physical fitness including general health and vitality, and enhance the level of postpartum general well-being.

Interestingly, the associations between infant's sex and postpartum well-being disappeared when the two-child birth control policy status was added to the adjustments, suggesting that family which were allowed to have more than one child may moderate the effects of the association. This could be caused by either the potential financial benefit brought by two children (either sons or daughters), or being provided with a second chance to have a son.

The Chinese government has recently scrapped its one-child family policy, allowing all couples to have two children since 2016. The policy may bring in an interesting dynamics of maternal mental health. The effective of son preference on mother's postpartum well-being would be moderated by two-child status in more families since the policy was implemented. However, older mothers are on the rise due to the two-child policy in China.³² Pregnancies after the age of 35 are associated with increased risks of preterm birth, gestational diabetes, placenta, amniotic fluid embolism, venous thrombosis, and genetic abnormalities in children and so on,³³ which may inversely bring about the challenges of maternal well-being.

CONCLUSION

Our study provided very important clinical implications regarding the effect of gender preference on postnatal maternal mental health. Our results emphasize the importance in

conducting intervention to reduce the risk of women's postpartum depression and enhancing general well-being, especially for those with a female infant in a son preference society such as China. Additionally, our study is the first one which has provided direct evidence on how a relaxation of birth control policy could positively increase new mother's mental health status. The significant change, however, will take time. The relaxation of policy creates some challenges on maternal health due to different reasons such as the increasing rates of older mothers induced by the policy change; and it is good to see that Chinese authorities have been committed to improving the country's maternal healthcare services to accommodate the possible negative effects on maternal health.

There was some possible bias exists in our study. We recruited the participants at 29-30 weeks of gestation because the baseline investigation conducted in different trimester may induce some potential confounders such as different health situation and maternal well-being at baseline. If we ask questions verbally in front of other family members in the postpartum interview, there would be an element of social desirability bias as their family may be upset if the newborn infants' mothers are not happy because they have had a male child. Therefore, we asked for the newborn infants' mother to fill out the questionnaires by themselves in the postpartum family interview. Moreover, we conducted the present study in low-risk primiparous women in order to avoid other possible confounders such as severe complication during pregnancy and the first child's sex which may influence a multiparous woman's well-being. 13,34

The caution should be made when we generalize our results in general obstetric population based on a convenience sample. Selection bias may exist in our study as 29 women who refused

to take part in our study at baseline, and 227 were missing or excluded from the follow-up investigation (although there were no differences of demographic characteristics and psychological well-being at baseline between the 227 women with missing information or excluded from the final analysis and 1503 women who included in our final analysis). Women with higher level of psychological well-being during the pregnancy may be more likely to take part in our study and completing the follow-up investigation. Fortunately, the selection bias induced by non-response and loss to follow-up in a cohort study decline usually to underestimate the effects (association). Our results may be only generalized to the advanced areas of China like Shanghai, but providing important clues for our nation-wide study in near future.

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Competing interests None declared.

Ethics approval The study was approved by the ethics committees of the Shanghai First Maternity and Infant Hospital, Tongji University School of Medicine (#2013-09).

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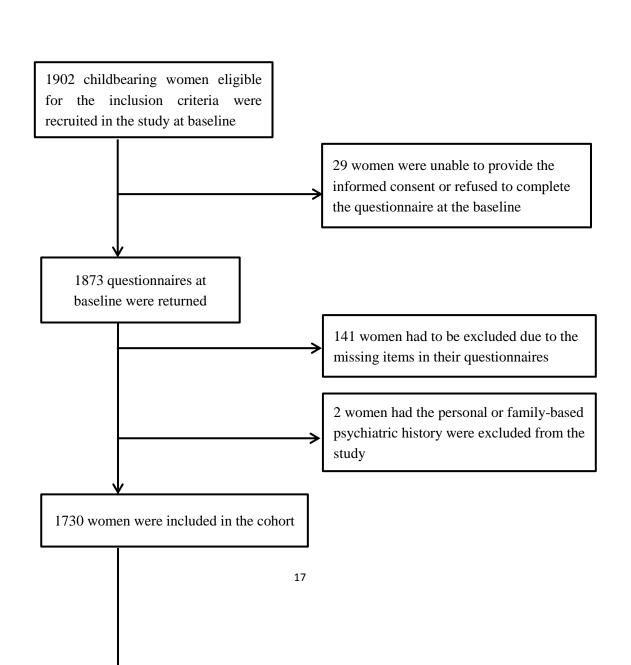
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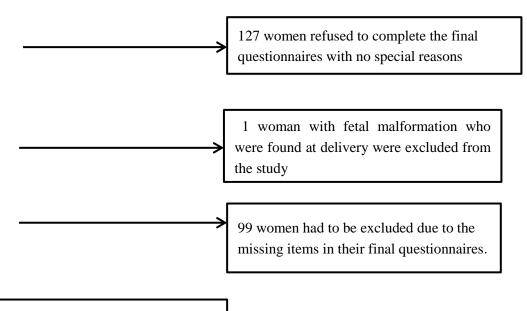
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Finally, a total of 1503 women were included in the analysis

Fig.1. Number of women who completed the baseline and follow-up investigations Table 1

Socio-demographic, obstetric and children's characteristic (n=1503)

Characteristic	Total n=1503; (n, %)	Male infant n=781; (n, %)	Female infant n=722; (n, %)	P
Socio-demographic characteristic				
Maternal age				
≤24	169(11.2)	95(12.2)	74(10.2)	0.485
25-34	1252(83.3)	645(82.6)	607(84.1)	
≥35	82(5.5)	41(5.2)	41(5.7)	
Education				
College or university	88(5.9)	52(6.7)	36(5.0)	0.054
Middle school	291(19.4)	165(21.1)	126(17.5)	
Primary school or below	1124(74.8)	564(72.2)	560(77.6)	
Vacation				
Company employee	321(21.4)	158(20.2)	163(22.6)	0.761
Private owner	106(7.1)	55(7.0)	51(7.1)	
Technician and liberal profession	614(40.9)	318(40.7)	296(41)	
Unemployed	281(18.7)	153(19.6)	128(17.7)	
Others	181(12.0)	97(12.4)	84(11.6)	
Method of payment				
Self-payment	490(32.6)	256(32.8)	234(32.4)	0.642
Government insurance	681(45.3)	346(44.3)	335(46.4)	
Private insurance	332(22.1)	179(22.9)	153(21.2)	
Resident status				
Resident women	794(52.8)	407(52.1)	387(53.6)	0.564
Migrant women	709(47.2)	374(47.9)	335(46.4)	
Obstetric characteristic				
Abortion				
0	1205(80.2)	617(79.0)	588(81.4)	0.106
1	221(14.7)	115(14.7)	106(14.7)	
≥2	77(5.1)	49(6.3)	28(3.9)	
Delivery mode				
Vaginal birth	764(50.8)	399(51.1)	365(50.6)	0.836
Caesarean section	739(49.2)	382(48.9)	357(49.4)	
	18	, ,	` '	

Midwife-led delivery No Yes	1069(71.1) 434(28.9)	552(70.7) 229(29.3)	517(71.6) 205(28.4)	0.692
Infant's health outcome Preterm children				
No	1386(92.2)	719(92.1)	667(92.4)	0.817
Yes	117(7.8)	62(7.9)	55(7.6)	0.617
Birth weight				
<2500g	24(1.6)	13(1.7)	11(1.5)	0.049
2500~3999g	1364(90.8)	699(89.5)	665(92.1)	
≥4000g	115(7.7)	69(8.8)	46(6.4)	
Breastfeeding in first 24 hours				
No	224(14.9)	130(16.6)	94(13.0)	0.049
Yes	1279(85.1)	651(83.4)	628(87.0)	
Birth control policy settings				
Two-child policy status ^b	483(32.1)	259(33.2)	224(31.0)	0.375
One-child policy status ^c	1020(67.9)	522(66.8)	498(69.0)	

a Pearson Chi-square test

Table 2 Maternal well-being assessed by GWBS ^a at baseline (n=1503)

Characteristic	Total	Male infant	Female infant	P^a
Characteristic	n=1503; Mean(SD)	n=781; Mean(SD)	n=722; Mean(SD)	P
Anxiety	17.13(4.491)	17.21(4.574)	17.05(4.401)	0.505
Depression	15.22(6.055)	15.25(6.04)	15.19(6.076)	0.845
General health	5.82(2.492)	5.81(2.484)	5.84(2.503)	0.823
Positive well-being	7.79(3.335)	7.81(3.319)	7.77(3.354)	0.791
Self-control	9.30(2.699)	9.35(2.715)	9.24(2.683)	0.414
Vitality	13.41(4.193)	13.47(4.206)	13.35(4.18)	0.572
Total score	68.68(11.435)	68.91(11.692)	68.44(11.154)	0.427

^a All items refer to a 1-month time frame. Items 1–14 are scored on a six-point rating scale, while items 15–18 are scored from 0–10. Items 1, 3, 6, 7, 9, 11, 15, and 16 are reversed scored. The Lower scores represent greater distress.

^b The family are allowed to have two child if both of the parents were from one-child families under the birth control policy during the study period

^cThe family are allowed to have only one child if one of or both of the parents were from multi-child families under the birth control policy during the study period

^b Two independent sample t-test

Table 3 Effects of fetal sex on women's postpartum well-being (n=1503)

Outcome variables ^g	Total n=1503; M(SD)	Male infant n=781; M(SD)	Female infant n=722; M(SD)	β ^a (95% CI)	β ^b (95% CI)	β ^c (95% CI)	β ^d (95% CI)	β ^e (95% CI)	Bf(95% CI)
Anxiety	19.48(3.778)	19.50(3.743)	19.47(3.812)	-0.035(-0.418, 0.347)	-0.055(-0.433, 0.323)	-0.046(-0.426, 0.335)	-0.051(-0.431, 0.329)	-0.056(-0.435, 0.323)	-0.155(-0.620, 0.310)
Depression	17.24(2.916)	16.54(2.868)	17.88(2.811)	1.339(1.051, 1.626)***	1.335(1.050, 1.621)***	1.333(1.046, 1.620)***	1.323(1.036, 1.610)***	1.321(1.033, 1.608)***	1.341(0.990, 1.692)***
General health	6.19(2.695)	6.21(2.755)	6.17(2.639)	-0.038(-0.311, 0.235)	-0.036(-0.309, 0.236)	-0.028(-0.301, 0.246)	-0.023(-0.296, 0.250)	-0.026(-0.300, 0.248)	0.192(-0.817, 0.571)
D 22 HJ 2	10.56(2.22)	10.41(2.202)	10.69(2.231)	0.274(0.050 0.499)***	0.273(0.048, 0.497)***	0.303(0.079,	0.297(0.072,	0.295(0.070,	0.230(-0.048,
Positive well-being	10.56(2.22)					0.528)*0.008	0.522)*0.010	0.521)*0.010	0.508)0.104
Self-control	11.98(2.159)	11.98(2.167)	11.98(2.153)	-0.004(-0.214, 0.223)	-0.003(-0.221, 0.215)	0.029(-0.190, 0.247)	0.025(-0.194, 0.243)	0.030(-0.189, 0.249)	-0.112(-0.370, 0.146)
Vitality	15.22(3.057)	15.21(3.057)	15.23(3.059)	0.025(-0.284,0.335)	0.012(-0.294,0.319)	0.006(-0.302, 0.314)	-0.009(-0.316, 0.298)	-0.016(-0.324, 0.292)	-0.116(-0.507, 0.275)
Total capra	90 66(11 947)	70.05(11.652)	01.42/11.002	1 570/0 272 2 7/7/***	1.400(0.202.0.00)	4 50 5 (0 0 44 0 5 40) data	1.484(0.303,	1.474(0.202.2.656)*	1.407/ 0.001 2.000\
Total score	80.66(11.847)	79.85(11.653)	81.42(11.983)	1.570(0.372, 2.767)***	1.482(0.303, 2.660)***	1.526(0.341, 2.710)***	2.6656*0.014	1.474(0.293, 2.656)*	1.497(-0.001, 2.990)

^a Not adjusted for any potential confounders

^b Adjusted for hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline

^c Adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline and socio-demographic characteristic

^d Adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, and obstetric characteristic

^e Adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, and infant's health outcome

^f Adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, infant's health outcome and birth control policy settings

g The score of six dimensions and total score of GWBS

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Table 4Effects of fetal sex on levels of women's postpartum well-being (n=1503)

Total score of GWBSg	Total	Male infant	Female infant	cOR ^a (95% CI)	aOR ^b (95% CI)	aOR ^c (95% CI)	aOR ^d (95% CI)	aOR° (95% CI)	aOR ^f (95% CI)
	n=1503; n(%)	n=781; n(%)	n=722; n(%)	(2011 (2010 01)					
73–110 (positive well-being)	1123(74.7)	593(52.8)	530(47.2)	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
61–72(moderate distress)	302(20.1)	155(51.3)	147(48.7)	1.061(0.823,1.368)	1.071(0.821,1.397)	1.082(0.827,1.415)	1.069(0.816,1.403)	1.038(0.787, 1.368)	1.007(0.708,1.434)
0-60(severe distress)	78(5.2)	33(42.3)	45(57.7)	1.526(0.959,2.427)	1.494(0.923,2.418)	1.551(0.950,2.532)	1.514(0.921,2.487)	1.607(1.034,2.499)*	1.240(0.674,2.281)

^a Crude Odds Ratio

^b Adjusted Odds Ratio (adjusted for hospitals and maternal well-being at baseline)

^c Adjusted Odds Ratio (adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline and socio-demographic characteristic)

^d Adjusted Odds Ratio (adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, and obstetric characteristic)

e Adjusted Odds Ratio (adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, and Infant's health outcome)

f Adjusted Odds Ratio (adjusted for maternal well-being at baseline, socio-demographic characteristic, obstetric characteristic, infant's health outcome and birth control policy status)

g The levels of wellbeing were grouped into three categories according to the total score of GWBS

^{*}*p*<0.05, ***p*<0.01, ****p*<0.001