



OPEN

Parity and incident type 2 diabetes in older Chinese women: Guangzhou Biobank Cohort Study

Huimin Su¹, Chaoqiang Jiang², Weisen Zhang^{2✉}, Feng Zhu², Yali Jin², Karkeung Cheng⁴, Taihing Lam^{2,3} & Lin Xu^{1,3✉}

This study examined the association between parity and incident type 2 diabetes in older Chinese women and estimated the mediation effect of adiposity indicators. A total of 11,473 women without diabetes at baseline from 2003 to 2008 were followed up until 2012. We used Cox proportional hazards regression to assess the association between parity and incident type 2 diabetes, and mediation analysis to estimate the mediation effect of adiposity indicators. Compared to women with one parity, the hazard ratio (HR) (95% confidence interval (CI)) for incident type 2 diabetes was 0.85 (0.44–1.63), 1.20 (1.11–1.30), 1.28 (1.16–1.41) and 1.27 (1.14–1.42) for women with parity of 0, 2, 3, and ≥ 4 , respectively. The proportion of indirect effect (95% CI) mediated by body mass index, waist circumference, hip circumference, waist-to-hip ratio, waist-to-height ratio and body fat percentage was 26.5% (19.2–52.2%), 54.5% (39.4–108.7%), 25.1% (18.2–49.1%), 35.9% (25.6–74.1%), 50.3% (36.5–98.6%) and 15.1% (– 66.4 to 112.3%), respectively. Compared to women with one parity, women with multiparity (≥ 2) had a higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes and up to half of the association was mediated by abdominal obesity.

According to the International Diabetes Federation, there were 536.6 million people with diabetes worldwide in 2021, with China accounting for about a quarter (140.9 million)¹. Diabetes and its complications have posed a huge socioeconomic burden in China with no trends of reduction². Pregnancy was known to be associated with dramatic alterations in physiology (e.g., peripheral vasodilatation and increased oxygen demand)³, metabolism (e.g., glucose metabolism and lipid metabolism)^{4,5} and lifestyle (e.g., decreased physical activity and increased energy intake)^{6,7}, and these changes may have a long-term influence on the health in general and diabetes in particular.

Previous epidemiological studies consistently showed a positive association between parity and risk of type 2 diabetes^{8–13}. However, there is no consensus on whether the increased risk for type 2 diabetes is due to childrearing-related issues or metabolic disorders related to childbearing^{10,14–16}. Furthermore, the strength of association was generally attenuated after adjusting for obesity indices such as weight, body mass index or waist circumference^{11,12,17–21}. But such adjustment could have ignored the effects of obesity in the causal model or pathway. As higher parity was associated with postpartum obesity in later life^{22–24}, and the latter especially abdominal obesity can lead to a higher risk of diabetes^{25,26}, postpartum obesity could be mediators between parity and incident type 2 diabetes.

Hence, we hypothesized that higher parity was associated with higher risk of type 2 diabetes, and such association was mediated, at least partly, by adiposity with various magnitudes of mediation through different adiposity indicators. We prospectively examined the association between parity and incident type 2 diabetes and quantitatively estimated the magnitude of mediation through adiposity indicators using data from a population-based cohort study in China. Furthermore, to examine whether the association was due to childrearing-related issues rather than metabolic disorders related to childbearing, we also assessed the association between the number of children and incident diabetes was significant in men.

¹School of Public Health, Sun Yat-Sen University, 74 Zhongshan 2nd Road, Guangzhou 510080, Guangdong, China. ²Molecular Epidemiology Research Centre, Guangzhou Twelfth People's Hospital, Guangzhou 510620, China. ³School of Public Health, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong 999077, China. ⁴Institute of Applied Health Research, University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT, UK. ✉email: zwszcn@163.com; xulin27@mail.sysu.edu.cn

Results

Characteristics of participants. GBCS enrolled 30,340 participants from 2003 to 2008, after excluding 8422 men, 8829 not returned for repeated examination and 136 with missing information on parity (n = 82) and type 2 diabetes (n = 54), 13,043 women with all variables of interest were included in the current study. Among them, 1570 participants had type 2 diabetes at baseline and 11,473 women were free of baseline type 2 diabetes. During 43,430 person-years of follow-up (mean = 3.8 years, standard deviation = 1.1 years), 1261 (11.0%) developed incident type 2 diabetes among 11,473 women free of baseline type 2 diabetes. Besides, 4236 men without baseline type 2 diabetes were included for analysis.

Table 1 shows that of the 13,043 women, 270 (2.1%), 3865 (29.6%), 4149 (31.8%), 2547 (19.5%), and 2212 (17.0%) women had parity of 0, 1, 2, 3, ≥ 4 , respectively. Compared with nulli- or multi-parity, those with parity one was younger, more educated, had higher household annual income, more non-manual workers, non-smokers, current alcohol users and pre-menopausal women, and had higher family history of diabetes (all $P < 0.001$). Moreover, nulliparous women had a higher level of physical activity, fewer abortions, fewer OCP users, more history of HRT user, and lower levels of BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR, and body fat percentage (all $P < 0.001$). Women with multiparity were older and less educated, had more manual workers, more with post-menopausal status, more abortion, less history of HRT user, and higher levels of BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR, and body fat percentage.

	Parity					Total	P value
	0	1	2	3	≥ 4		
Number (%)	270 (2.1)	3865 (29.6)	4149 (31.8)	2547 (19.5)	2212 (17.0)	13,043 (100.0)	–
Age, years	59.4 (7.6)	54.9 (4.2)	59.8 (5.2)	63.6 (5.7)	67.0 (5.8)	60.3 (6.7)	<0.001
Education, N (%)							
Primary or lower	76 (28.2)	536 (13.9)	1,682 (40.6)	1569 (61.6)	1805 (81.6)	5668 (43.5)	<0.001
Secondary or above	194 (71.9)	3329 (86.1)	2,466 (59.5)	977 (38.4)	407 (18.4)	7373 (56.5)	
Occupation, N (%)							
Manual	151 (56.8)	2174 (56.8)	2,468 (59.8)	1823 (71.7)	1808 (82.0)	8424 (65.0)	<0.001
Non-manual	68 (25.6)	903 (23.6)	961 (23.3)	409 (16.1)	183 (8.3)	2524 (19.5)	
Other	47 (17.7)	748 (19.6)	696 (16.9)	309 (12.2)	214 (9.7)	2014 (15.5)	
Household annual income, RMB/year (US\$1 ~ = RMB 6 Yuan), N (%)							
< 10,000	35 (13.0)	74 (1.9)	118 (2.9)	145 (5.7)	299 (13.5)	671 (5.2)	<0.001
10,000–	133 (49.4)	1084 (28.1)	1,228 (29.6)	896 (35.2)	751 (34.0)	4092 (31.4)	
$\geq 30,000$	67 (24.9)	2311 (59.8)	1,788 (43.1)	694 (27.3)	363 (16.4)	5223 (40.1)	
Unknown	34 (12.6)	395 (10.2)	1,012 (24.4)	808 (31.8)	798 (36.1)	3047 (23.4)	
Ever smoking, yes, N (%)	8 (3.0)	28 (0.7)	77 (1.9)	89 (3.5)	158 (7.2)	360 (2.8)	<0.001
Alcohol use, N (%)							
Never	218 (81.7)	2759 (71.8)	3,298 (80.0)	2065 (81.5)	1802 (82.1)	10,142 (78.2)	<0.001
Former	8 (3.0)	123 (3.2)	89 (2.2)	57 (2.3)	61 (2.8)	338 (2.6)	
Current	41 (15.4)	963 (25.1)	736 (17.9)	411 (16.2)	333 (15.2)	2484 (19.2)	
Physical activity, N (%)							
Inactive	18 (6.7)	388 (10.0)	326 (7.9)	161 (6.3)	149 (6.7)	1042 (8.0)	<0.001
Minimally active	102 (37.8)	1401 (36.3)	1645 (39.7)	999 (39.2)	882 (39.9)	5029 (38.6)	
Active	150 (55.6)	2076 (53.7)	2178 (52.5)	1387 (54.5)	1181 (53.4)	6972 (53.5)	
Menopausal status, yes, N (%)							
Number of abortions	1.2 (1.2)	1.3 (1.0)	1.5 (1.2)	1.6 (1.4)	1.6 (1.7)	1.5 (1.3)	<0.001
Oral contraceptive pill use, yes, N (%)	6 (2.3)	622 (16.1)	1007 (24.3)	468 (18.4)	321 (14.6)	2424 (18.6)	<0.001
History of hormone replacement therapy, yes, N (%)	11 (4.1)	155 (4.0)	100 (2.4)	38 (1.5)	19 (0.9)	323 (2.5)	<0.001
Body mass index, kg/m ²	22.8 (3.3)	23.5 (3.2)	23.9 (3.2)	24.1 (3.4)	24.2 (3.5)	23.8 (3.3)	<0.001
Waist circumference, cm	73.9 (8.5)	74.8 (8.0)	77.2 (8.0)	79.1 (8.5)	80.2 (8.8)	77.3 (8.5)	<0.001
Hip circumference, cm	89.0 (6.7)	89.9 (6.1)	90.9 (6.3)	91.5 (6.5)	91.3 (6.8)	90.8 (6.4)	<0.001
Waist-to-hip ratio	0.83 (0.06)	0.83 (0.06)	0.85 (0.06)	0.86 (0.06)	0.88 (0.07)	0.85 (0.07)	<0.001
Waist-to-height ratio	0.48 (0.06)	0.48 (0.05)	0.50 (0.05)	0.52 (0.06)	0.53 (0.06)	0.50 (0.06)	<0.001
Body fat percentage, % ^a	30.4 (6.8)	32.4 (6.9)	33.8 (7.6)	34.3 (7.2)	33.7 (7.2)	33.1 (7.2)	<0.001
Family history of diabetes, yes, N (%)	39 (14.4)	747 (19.3)	597 (14.4)	229 (9.0)	155 (7.0)	1767 (13.6)	<0.001

Table 1. Baseline characteristics by parity in 13,043 women in Guangzhou Biobank Cohort Study. Results are means (standard deviation) unless otherwise indicated. ^a3814 women with data on body fat percentage.

Parity and incident type 2 diabetes. Table 2 shows that, after adjusting for age, education, occupation, household annual income, ever smoking, alcohol use, physical activity, menopausal status, number of abortions, OCP use, history of HRT and family history of diabetes, women of parity 2, 3 and ≥ 4 , versus parity one, had a higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes, with the HR (95% CI) being 1.20 (1.11–1.30), 1.28 (1.16–1.41) and 1.27 (1.14–1.42), respectively. No significant association between nulliparous and incident type 2 diabetes was found (HR 0.85, 95% CI 0.44–1.63). In parous women, each additional live birth was associated with 13% higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes (HR 1.13, 95% CI 1.05–1.22).

After adjusting for multiple factors as above, women with parity 0, 2, 3, and ≥ 4 , versus parity one, showed higher level of fasting glucose at follow-up by 0.43 (0.07–0.79) mmol/L, 0.06 (0.001–0.12) mmol/L, 0.09 (0.02–0.17) mmol/L and 0.17 (0.08–0.26) mmol/L, respectively. In parous women, each additional live birth was associated with 0.05 (0.03–0.08) mmol/L higher fasting glucose at follow-up. Moreover, women with parity 2 and 3 showed higher 2hPG at follow-up by 0.14 (0.001–0.28) mmol/L and 0.21 (0.03–0.38) mmol/L, respectively. However, we found no association between parity and HbA_{1c} at follow-up. Sensitivity analyses excluding 972 pre-menopausal women showed similar results (Supplementary Table S1).

In sensitivity analyses, greater number of children was consistently associated with higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes in parous women (Supplementary Table S2). However, we found no association between number of children and incident type 2 diabetes in men. Compared to those with one child, the HR (95% CI) for incident type 2 diabetes was 1.06 (0.82–1.37), 0.92 (0.67–1.26) and 0.98 (0.69–1.40) for men with 2, 3 and ≥ 4 children, respectively.

Mediating effect of adiposity indicators on the association between parity and type 2 diabetes. Table 3 shows that compared to parity one, women with parity 2, 3 and ≥ 4 had higher levels of BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR and body fat percentage after adjustment. In parous women, each additional live birth was associated with higher levels of BMI (0.28 kg/m², 95% CI 0.20–0.35), WC (1.30 cm, 95% CI 1.11–1.49), HC (0.72 cm, 95% CI 0.57–0.87), WHR (0.008, 95% CI 0.006–0.009), WHtR (0.008, 95% CI 0.006–0.008), and body fat percentage (0.61%, 95% CI: 0.28–0.94) at baseline. Sensitivity analyses examining the associations between parity and obesity changes during follow-up showed similar results, but the association between parity and body fat percentage was attenuated and became not significant (Supplementary Table S3).

Table 4 shows that, in 11,236 parous women, the association between parity and incident type 2 diabetes was partially mediated by adiposity indicators, with the proportion (95% CI) of mediation through BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR and body fat percentage being 26.48% (19.25–52.28%), 54.50% (39.43–108.66%), 25.05% (18.18–49.13%), 35.88% (25.65–74.09%), 50.29% (36.48–98.59%) and 15.13% (–66.40 to 112.29%), respectively. Besides, the direct effect (i.e., all possible causal mechanisms except the one accounted for the mediator) of parity on risk of incident type 2 diabetes was non-significant after controlling for WC, WHtR or body fat percentage, indicating that the total effect (i.e., the sum of the indirect and direct effect) can be totally explained by WC, WHtR or body fat percentage, respectively.

	Parity					Per one live birth increment ^a
	0	1	2	3	≥ 4	
Hazard ratio (95% confidence interval)						
Incident type 2 diabetes						
Crude model	1.16 (0.74, 1.80)	1.00	1.49 (1.28, 1.73)***	1.77 (1.50, 2.08)***	1.86 (1.57, 2.20)***	1.22 (1.16, 1.29)***
Model 1	0.85 (0.44, 1.63)	1.00	1.20 (1.11, 1.30)***	1.28 (1.16, 1.41)***	1.27 (1.14, 1.42)***	1.13 (1.05, 1.22)***
β (95% confidence interval)						
Fasting glucose at follow-up, mmol/L						
Crude model	0.14 (–0.05, 0.33)	0.00	0.23 (0.17, 0.30)***	0.36 (0.28, 0.43)***	0.47 (0.39, 0.55)***	0.16 (0.13, 0.18)***
Model 1	0.64 (0.18, 1.09)**	0.00	0.20 (0.12, 0.28)***	0.30 (0.20, 0.39)***	0.39 (0.27, 0.50)***	0.13 (0.09, 0.16)***
Model 2	0.43 (0.07, 0.79)*	0.00	0.06 (0.001, 0.12)*	0.09 (0.02, 0.17)*	0.17 (0.08, 0.26)***	0.05 (0.03, 0.08)***
2-h post-load glucose at follow-up, mmol/L						
Crude model	0.08 (–0.31, 0.48)	0.00	0.55 (0.41, 0.69)***	0.93 (0.77, 1.09)***	1.05 (0.88, 1.22)***	0.37 (0.31, 0.42)***
Model 1	–0.42 (–1.35, 0.52)	0.00	0.32 (0.16, 0.48)***	0.51 (0.16, 0.48)***	0.49 (0.26, 0.73)***	0.18 (0.10, 0.25)***
Model 2	–0.47 (–1.30, 0.35)	0.00	0.14 (0.001, 0.28)*	0.21 (0.03, 0.38)*	0.16 (–0.05, 0.37)	0.06 (–0.01, 0.13)
Glycosylated hemoglobin A _{1c} at follow-up, % ^b						
Crude model	–0.11 (–0.30, 0.07)	0.00	0.10 (0.03, 0.17)**	0.21 (0.13, 0.29)***	0.25 (0.16, 0.34)***	0.09 (0.06, 0.12)***
Model 1	0.08 (–0.36, 0.53)	0.00	0.05 (–0.02, 0.13)	0.13 (0.03, 0.24)*	0.14 (0.01, 0.26)*	0.05 (0.01, 0.09)*
Model 2	–0.11 (–0.48, 0.26)	0.00	–0.01 (–0.07, 0.05)	0.01 (–0.08, 0.10)	0.01 (–0.09, 0.12)	0.01 (–0.03, 0.04)

Table 2. Associations of parity with incident type 2 diabetes and follow-up glycemc indicators. Model 1 adjusted for age, education, occupation, household annual income, ever smoking, alcohol use, physical activity, menopausal status, number of abortions, oral contraceptive pill use, history of hormone replacement therapy, and family history of diabetes; Model 2 additionally adjusted for fasting glucose at baseline. ^aRestricted to parouswomen. ^b4508 women with data on glycosylated hemoglobin A_{1c}. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001.

	Parity					Per one live birth increment ^a
	0	1	2	3	≥ 4	
Body mass index, kg/m ²	- 0.24 (- 1.20, 0.72)	0.00	0.44 (0.28, 0.60)***	0.72 (0.51, 0.92)***	0.81 (0.57, 1.04)***	0.28 (0.20, 0.35)***
Waist circumference, cm	- 0.81 (- 3.22, 1.61)	0.00	1.82 (1.42, 2.23)***	3.09 (2.57, 3.60)***	3.83 (3.23, 4.43)***	1.30 (1.11, 1.49)***
Hip circumference, cm	- 1.08 (- 2.95, 0.79)	0.00	1.22 (0.91, 1.53)***	1.99 (1.60, 2.39)***	2.07 (1.61, 2.53)***	0.72 (0.57, 0.87)***
Waist-to-hip ratio	0.001 (- 0.017, 0.019)	0.00	0.009 (0.006, 0.012)***	0.015 (0.011, 0.019)***	0.023 (0.018, 0.027)***	0.008 (0.006, 0.009)***
Waist-to-height ratio	- 0.001 (- 0.017, 0.015)	0.00	0.010 (0.008, 0.013)***	0.017 (0.014, 0.021)***	0.023 (0.019, 0.026)***	0.008 (0.006, 0.008)***
Body fat percentage, % ^b	- 1.47 (- 4.55, 1.61)	0.00	1.45 (0.81, 2.09)***	1.93 (1.07, 2.78)***	1.39 (0.36, 2.42)**	0.61 (0.28, 0.94)***

Table 3. Associations between parity and baseline adiposity indicators. Adjusted for age, education, occupation, household annual income, ever smoking, alcohol use, physical activity, menopausal status, number of abortions, oral contraceptive pill use, and history of hormone replacement therapy. ^aRestricted to parous women. ^b3814 women with data on body fat percentage. **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001.

Mediators	Indirect effect (ACME) estimate (95% CI)	Direct effect (ADE) estimate (95% CI)	Total effect estimate (95% CI)	Proportion via mediation % (95% CI)
Body mass index, kg/m ²	0.0031 (0.0021, 0.0041)	0.0083 (0.0026, 0.0132)	0.0114 (0.0059, 0.0159)	26.5 (19.2, 52.3)
Waist circumference, cm	0.0062 (0.0049, 0.0075)	0.0050 (- 0.0011, 0.0102)	0.0112 (0.0057, 0.0157)	54.5 (39.4, 108.7)
Hip circumference, cm	0.0029 (0.0020, 0.0037)	0.0083 (0.0025, 0.0133)	0.0112 (0.0058, 0.0157)	25.1 (18.2, 49.1)
Waist-to-hip ratio	0.0040 (0.0030, 0.0050)	0.0069 (0.0010, 0.0120)	0.0109 (0.0053, 0.0154)	35.9 (25.6, 74.1)
Waist-to-height ratio	0.0058 (0.0045, 0.0071)	0.0055 (- 0.0004, 0.0107)	0.0113 (0.0058, 0.0158)	50.3 (36.5, 98.6)
Body fat percentage ^a	0.0016 (0.0006, 0.0029)	0.0079 (- 0.0034, 0.0164)	0.0095 (- 0.0015, 0.0176)	15.1 (- 66.4, 112.3)

Table 4. Baseline adiposity indicators in mediating the association of parity (≥ 1) with incident type 2 diabetes. All mediators were standardized using Z-score to facilitate comparison and interpretation. Adjusted for age, education, occupation, household annual income, ever smoking, alcohol use, physical activity, menopausal status, number of abortions, oral contraceptive pill use, history of hormone replacement therapy, and family history of diabetes as appropriate. *ACME* average causal mediation effect, *ADE* average direct effect, *CI* confidence interval. ^a3814 women with data on body fat percentage.

Discussion

In this population-based study of older women, we found that compared to parity one, women with multiparity (≥ 2) had a significantly higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes, and the association was mediated by obesity indicators, of which the proportion of mediation effects through WC-related obesity indicators was as high as 35.9–54.5%. Our study has added to the literature by quantifying the substantial mediation effects through obesity.

Our results were generally consistent with those from studies in China (two cross-sectional studies and one prospective study)^{8–10} and other settings^{11–13,27,28}, showing that higher parity was associated with increased risk of type 2 diabetes. Two meta-analyses^{27,28}, and a prospective study from Singapore¹¹ showed that higher parity was associated with a higher risk of type 2 diabetes than nulliparous women in a linear pattern. Furthermore, a prospective¹⁰ and a cross-sectional study⁹ in China showed that both nulli- and multi-parity were associated with a higher risk of diabetes compared to parity one. However, another prospective study using data from 10 countries showed a U-shaped association with the incident diabetes, with the nadir at those with parity 2, although similar risk estimate was found in those with parity one²⁹. Results of the above studies generally support the greater parity, the higher risk of diabetes. However, there were also discrepancies in the results with and without adjusting for adiposity. For example, some^{8–12}, but not all studies^{17–19} showed significant results even after adjusting for BMI or other adiposity indicators. In a prospective study in Japan, a higher parity was associated with an increased risk of type 2 diabetes in a linear pattern before adjusting for BMI (P for trend = 0.029), but the association was substantially attenuated toward the null after adjusting for BMI (P for trend = 0.12), suggesting adiposity might play a major role in the pathway between higher parity and diabetes¹⁷. Our findings were also consistent with results from previous studies^{22–24} by showing that parity was positively associated with various obesity indicators including BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR and body fat percentage in later life, which could be due to accumulated weight gain, weight redistribution, and weight retention during pregnancy and puerperium³⁰. Furthermore, our mediation analyses further quantified the substantial mediation effect and highlighted that the association between parity and incident type 2 diabetes might be explained by adiposity. Specifically, up to 50% of the association was mediated by abdominal obesity, which is considered to better predict diabetes risk than the commonly used BMI since middle-aged and older women may not change much in weight with age but have a significant fat accumulation in the trunk, predisposing them to abdominal obesity³¹.

We also found that compared with women with parity one, those with nulli- or multi-parity had higher fasting glucose, and women with parity 2–3 had higher level of 2hPG at follow-up, which was not completely consistent with previous studies^{9,21,32}. For example, a cross-sectional study from China showed that compared with

women with one parity, women with 2 or ≥ 3 parities had higher level of 2hPG but not fasting glucose⁹. Another American cross-sectional study showed no association between parity and fasting glucose without adjusting for reproductive factors²¹, which may open to residual confounding, and their small sample size (N = 3211) may limit the power to detect the role of parity on fasting glucose.

Moreover, previous studies suggested that the association between parity and risk of diabetes may be due to biological influences of childbearing or socioeconomic burden of child-rearing, or both^{10,14–16}. A prospective study in China showed that the association between parity and diabetes risk was explained by environmental factors related to childrearing (socioeconomic burden or lifestyle) rather than biological effects of childbearing¹⁰. However, misdiagnosis of diabetes was a major concern in this study. As diabetes can be asymptomatic and undiagnosed for years, diagnosis of incident diabetes based on information obtained through record linkage with the National Health Insurance System might be substantially underestimated. For example, the 7-year cumulative incident rate was 1.7% for men and 2.0% for women in the above study, which were much lower than those reported in previous studies in China^{33,34}. The misclassification of the study outcome might bias the results towards null.

It has been reported that pregnancy can have a long-term adverse effects on insulin resistance⁴. Multiparity women are repeatedly exposed to higher anti-insulin hormones including placental lactogen, progesterone and cortisol during pregnancy, promoting pancreatic β -cell proliferation and subsequent β -cell dysfunction, which can lead to a higher risk of diabetes^{4,35}. Moreover, the increase in body weight related to physical inactivity, high-calorie diets and decreased insulin sensitivity during pregnancy might also result in a higher risk of diabetes in later life^{36,37}. Specifically, the elevation of insulin resistance during pregnancy may affect the ability to store adipose tissue, leading to the deposition of excess lipids in visceral adipose tissue³⁸. Concurrently, the placenta elicits the secretion of corticotropin-releasing hormone, which exerts an effect on the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis, culminating in heightened concentrations of cortisol. This phenomenon is involved in the pathophysiological underpinnings of obesity, with particular emphasis on abdominal adiposity³⁹. In our study, results of the mediation analysis supported the pathway through adiposity, and up to 50% of the association was mediated by abdominal obesity, which was consistent with a Mendelian randomization analysis showing that abdominal obesity increased the risk of type 2 diabetes by aggravating insulin resistance²⁶.

The strengths of this study included the prospective design, the comprehensive measurement of glycemic (fasting plasma glucose, 2hPG, and HbA_{1c}) and adiposity indicators (BMI, WC, HC, WHR, WHtR and body fat percentage), and the adjustment of a wide range of potential confounders. However, our study had some limitations. First, women with very high parity might have diabetes at baseline and were not included in the study. Hence, our HRs could be underestimated. Second, although a wide range of potential confounding factors were adjusted, residual confounding could not be ruled out. For example, adiposity before pregnancy might affect both parity and diabetes, but such information was not available in our study. However, we examined the associations between parity and obesity changes during follow-up, which might to some extent mitigate the confounding effect. Finally, as all participants in GBCS were permanent Guangzhou residents, potential confounding due to cultural differences and genetic background was minimized but the generalizability of the results to other populations may be limited.

Methods

Study sample. The Guangzhou Biobank Cohort Study (GBCS) is a population-based cohort study with baseline data collected from September 2003 to January 2008 in 30,430 middle aged or older participants. All surviving participants were invited for the follow-up examination from March 2008 to 2012. Details of GBCS have been reported previously⁴⁰. Briefly, GBCS is a 3-way collaboration among Guangzhou Twelfth People's Hospital and the Universities of Hong Kong, China, and Birmingham, UK. The Guangzhou Medical Ethics Committee of the Chinese Medical Association approved the study, and all participants provided written informed consent before participation. All procedures were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

Exposure. Parity refers to the number of biological live births, which was the same as a previous study from GBCS⁴¹. Parity was classified into five categories, i.e., 0 (nulliparity), 1, 2, 3, and ≥ 4 (grand-multiparity), with parity of 1 as reference.

Outcomes. The primary outcome was incident type 2 diabetes and the secondary outcomes were glycemic indicators including fasting glucose, two-hour post-load glucose (2hPG) and glycosylated hemoglobin A_{1c} (HbA_{1c}) measured at the follow-up examination. Because of constraints in funding, HbA_{1c} was measured in 4508 women only who returned for follow-up examination. Fasting glucose was measured by Shimadzu CL-8000 Clinical Chemistry Analyzer (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) at baseline and follow-up. 2hPG was measured 2 h after 75-g oral glucose administration in all participants except those with self-reported physician-diagnosed diabetes or on anti-diabetic treatment. Type 2 diabetes was defined according to the guidelines of the American Diabetes Association: fasting glucose ≥ 7.0 mmol/l, 2hPG ≥ 11.1 mmol/l, and/or self-reported physician-diagnosed diabetes or anti-diabetic treatment during follow-up⁴².

Confounders and mediators. Confounders (i.e., factors associated with both parity and incident type 2 diabetes in univariate analysis or reported in the literature) included age, education, occupation, household annual income, ever smoking, alcohol use, physical activity, number of abortions, menopausal status, oral contraceptive pill (OCP) use, history of hormone replacement therapy (HRT) and family history of diabetes. Education was categorized as primary or lower, and secondary or above. Occupation was categorized as manual (agricultural work, factory work, or sales and services), non-manual (administrative/managerial, professional/

technical, or military/police), and others (housewife or retired). Household annual income was categorized as < 10,000, 10,000–30,000, \geq 30,000 RMB/year (US\$1 ~ = RMB ¥6), and unknown. Alcohol use was categorized as never, former, and current users. Ever smoking (former plus current, as the number of each was small) was dichotomized into yes or no. Physical activity was measured by a validated Chinese version of the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) and categorized as inactive, minimally active and active⁴³. Number of abortions included the number of spontaneous abortions and induced abortions. Menopausal status, OCP use, history of HRT and family history of diabetes were dichotomized as yes or no, respectively.

Mediators (i.e., factors lie in the causal pathway between parity and incident type 2 diabetes) included body mass index (BMI), waist circumference (WC), hip circumference (HC), waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), waist-to-height ratio (WHtR), and body fat percentage, which were measured at baseline. The anthropometric measures including weight, height, WC and HC were measured by trained nurses following standard procedures. Using a bioelectrical impedance analyzer (Tanita BF350, Tanita Inc., Japan), body fat percentage was added to the measurements at phase 3 of the baseline, and 3,814 had complete data for analysis. BMI (kg/m^2) was calculated by weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared. WHR was calculated by dividing WC (cm) by HC (cm), and the WHtR was calculated by dividing WC (cm) by height (cm).

Statistical analysis. Chi-square tests were used to compare baseline categorical variables by parity, and one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) for continuous variables. General linear regression was used to examine the associations of parity with adiposity indicators at baseline and glycemic indicators at follow-up, giving regression coefficient (β) and 95% confidence interval (CI). Generalized estimating equation was used to examine the associations between parity and obesity changes (baseline and follow-up). Cox proportional hazards regression was used to assess the association between parity and risk of incident type 2 diabetes, giving crude and adjusted hazard ratio (HR) and 95% CI. Schoenfeld's residuals were used to assess the proportional hazard assumption and no violation was found (all $P > 0.05$). To rule out the effect of menopause during follow-up on the outcomes, sensitivity analysis was conducted on baseline postmenopausal women. All participants were followed up from baseline to occurrence of type 2 diabetes or to the date of repeated examination, whichever date came first. For those with newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes at the follow-up examination, the censoring date was defined as the midpoint between the baseline and follow-up examinations.

Mediation analyses were conducted to assess the proportion of the association mediated through each of the adiposity indicators in parous women, including BMI, WC, HC, waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), waist-to-height ratio (WHtR) and body fat percentage at baseline separately. To enable comparison of the effect sizes of the different obesity indicators, each obesity indicator was transformed into Z-score before mediation analysis.

To determine whether the association, if any, was due to biological effects, or due to environmental factors associated with childrearing, we conducted sensitivity analysis on the number of children and incident diabetes in men and women separately. Significant associations between number of children and incident diabetes in men may indicate that environmental factors related to childrearing also played a role in the development of diabetes rather than biological effects related to pregnancy or childbearing in our sample. Data analysis was done using STATA/SE 15.1 with the “mediation” package for the mediation analysis. P values were two-sided, with statistical significance defined by $P < 0.05$.

Conclusions

Compared to women with one parity, women with multiparity (≥ 2) had a higher risk of incident type 2 diabetes, and up to 50% of the association was mediated by abdominal obesity. The association was unlikely explained by environmental factors related to childrearing. Our results, if causal, highlight the need for weight management particularly in multiparous women.

Data availability

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Received: 30 March 2023; Accepted: 9 June 2023

Published online: 12 June 2023

References

1. Federation, I. D. *IDF Diabetes Atlas. 10th ed*, <https://diabetesatlas.org/> (2021).
2. Ma, R. C. W. Epidemiology of diabetes and diabetic complications in China. *Diabetologia* **61**, 1249–1260. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-018-4557-7> (2018).
3. Morton, A. Physiological changes and cardiovascular investigations in pregnancy. *Heart Lung Circ.* **30**, e6–e15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hlc.2020.10.001> (2021).
4. Liu, Y. *et al.* Metabolomic and genetic associations with insulin resistance in pregnancy. *Diabetologia* **63**, 1783–1795. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-020-05198-1> (2020).
5. Chavan-Gautam, P., Rani, A. & Freeman, D. J. Distribution of fatty acids and lipids during pregnancy. *Adv. Clin. Chem.* **84**, 209–239. <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.acc.2017.12.006> (2018).
6. Most, J., Dervis, S., Haman, F., Adamo, K. B. & Redman, L. M. Energy intake requirements in pregnancy. *Nutrients* <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu11081812> (2019).
7. Gaston, A. & Cramp, A. Exercise during pregnancy: A review of patterns and determinants. *J. Sci. Med. Sport* **14**, 299–305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2011.02.006> (2011).
8. Tian, Y. *et al.* Parity and the risk of diabetes mellitus among Chinese women: A cross-sectional evidence from the Tongji-Dongfeng cohort study. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e104810. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0104810> (2014).

9. Huo, Y. *et al.* Associations between parity, pregnancy loss, and breastfeeding duration and risk of maternal type 2 diabetes: An observational cohort study. *J. Diabetes* **13**, 857–867. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1753-0407.13176> (2021).
10. Peters, S. A. *et al.* Parenthood and the risk of diabetes in men and women: a 7 year prospective study of 0.5 million individuals. *Diabetologia* **59**, 1675–1682. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-016-3980-x> (2016).
11. Mueller, N. T. *et al.* Higher parity is associated with an increased risk of type-II diabetes in Chinese women: The Singapore Chinese Health Study. *BJOG* **120**, 1483–1489. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-0528.12364> (2013).
12. Moazzeni, S. S., Hizomi Arani, R., Asgari, S., Azizi, F. & Hadaegh, F. The association of parity/live birth number with incident type 2 diabetes among women: Over 15 years of follow-up in The Tehran Lipid and Glucose Study. *BMC Womens Health* **21**, 378. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-021-01519-7> (2021).
13. Naver, K. V. *et al.* Parity and risk of diabetes in a Danish nationwide birth cohort. *Diabet. Med.* **28**, 43–47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2010.03169.x> (2011).
14. Skilton, M. R., Lange, C., Lantieri, O., Balkau, B. & Bonnet, F. Number of children and change in markers of metabolic health over 9-years in men and women. Data from the DESIR study. *Diabetes Metab.* **37**, 351–355. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabet.2011.04.006> (2011).
15. Lawlor, D. A. *et al.* Is the association between parity and coronary heart disease due to biological effects of pregnancy or adverse lifestyle risk factors associated with child-rearing? Findings from the British Women's Heart and Health Study and the British Regional Heart Study. *Circulation* **107**, 1260–1264. <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.cir.0000053441.43495.1a> (2003).
16. Skilton, M. R., Sérusclat, A., Begg, L. M., Moulin, P. & Bonnet, F. Parity and carotid atherosclerosis in men and women: Insights into the roles of childbearing and child-rearing. *Stroke* **40**, 1152–1157. <https://doi.org/10.1161/strokeaha.108.535807> (2009).
17. Nanri, A. *et al.* Menstrual and reproductive factors and type 2 diabetes risk: The Japan Public Health Center-based Prospective Study. *J. Diabetes Investig.* **10**, 147–153. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jdi.12853> (2019).
18. Luo, J. H. *et al.* Associations between parity, breastfeeding, and risk of maternal type 2 diabetes among postmenopausal women. *Obstet. Gynecol.* **134**, 591–599. <https://doi.org/10.1097/Aog.0000000000003407> (2019).
19. Manson, J. E. *et al.* Parity and incidence of non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Am. J. Med.* **93**, 13–18. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0002-9343\(92\)90674-z](https://doi.org/10.1016/0002-9343(92)90674-z) (1992).
20. Xu, B., Chen, Y., Xiong, J., Lu, N. & Tan, X. Association of female reproductive factors with hypertension, diabetes and LQTC in Chinese women. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 42803. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep42803> (2017).
21. Fowler-Brown, A. G. *et al.* Parity and the association with diabetes in older women. *Diabetes Care* **33**, 1778–1782. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc10-0015> (2010).
22. Li, W. *et al.* Association between parity and obesity patterns in a middle-aged and older Chinese population: A cross-sectional analysis in the Tongji-Dongfeng cohort study. *Nutr. Metab. (Lond.)* **13**, 72. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12986-016-0133-7> (2016).
23. Zoet, G. A. *et al.* Association between parity and persistent weight gain at age 40–60 years: A longitudinal prospective cohort study. *BMJ Open* <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2018-024279> (2019).
24. Bobrow, K. L., Quigley, M. A., Green, J., Reeves, G. K. & Beral, V. Persistent effects of women's parity and breastfeeding patterns on their body mass index: Results from the Million Women Study. *Int. J. Obes. (Lond.)* **37**, 712–717. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ijo.2012.76> (2013).
25. Lee, D. H. *et al.* Comparison of the association of predicted fat mass, body mass index, and other obesity indicators with type 2 diabetes risk: Two large prospective studies in US men and women. *Eur. J. Epidemiol.* **33**, 1113–1123. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-018-0433-5> (2018).
26. Wang, T. *et al.* Causal association of overall obesity and abdominal obesity with type 2 diabetes: A Mendelian randomization analysis. *Obesity* **26**, 934–942. <https://doi.org/10.1002/oby.22167> (2018).
27. Guo, P., Zhou, Q., Ren, L., Chen, Y. & Hui, Y. Higher parity is associated with increased risk of Type 2 diabetes mellitus in women: A linear dose response meta-analysis of cohort studies. *J. Diabetes Complications* **31**, 58–66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2016.10.005> (2017).
28. Li, P. *et al.* Parity and risk of type 2 diabetes: A systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis. *Eur. J. Endocrinol.* **175**, R231–245. <https://doi.org/10.1530/EJE-16-0321> (2016).
29. Pandeya, N. *et al.* Female reproductive history and risk of type 2 diabetes: A prospective analysis of 126 721 women. *Diabetes Obes. Metab.* **20**, 2103–2112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dom.13336> (2018).
30. Gunderson, E. P. Childbearing and obesity in women: Weight before, during, and after pregnancy. *Obstet. Gynecol. Clin. N. Am.* **36**, 317. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ogc.2009.04.001> (2009).
31. Sun, Y. *et al.* Association of normal-weight central obesity with all-cause and cause-specific mortality among postmenopausal women. *JAMA Netw. Open* **2**, e197337. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.7337> (2019).
32. Wu, J. *et al.* Parity and risk of metabolic syndrome among Chinese women. *J. Womens Health (Larchmt)* **24**, 602–607. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2014.5134> (2015).
33. Quan, J. *et al.* Diabetes incidence and prevalence in Hong Kong, China during 2006–2014. *Diabet. Med.* **34**, 902–908. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13284> (2017).
34. Wang, Z. *et al.* Trends in prevalence and incidence of type 2 diabetes among adults in Beijing, China, from 2008 to 2017. *Diabet. Med.* **38**, e14487. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14487> (2021).
35. Salazar-Petres, E. R. & Sferruzzi-Perri, A. N. Pregnancy-induced changes in β -cell function: What are the key players?. *J. Physiol.* <https://doi.org/10.1113/jp281082> (2021).
36. Lindsay, K. L., Gyllenhammer, L. E., Entringer, S. & Wadhwa, P. D. Rate of gestational weight gain and glucose-insulin metabolism among hispanic pregnant women with overweight and obesity. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* **107**, e734–e744. <https://doi.org/10.1210/clinem/dgab655> (2022).
37. Teede, H. J. *et al.* Association of antenatal diet and physical activity-based interventions with gestational weight gain and pregnancy outcomes: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern. Med.* <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6373%JAMAInternalMedicine> (2021).
38. Després, J. P. & Lemieux, I. Abdominal obesity and metabolic syndrome. *Nature* **444**, 881–887. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature05488> (2006).
39. Pasquali, R., Vicennati, V., Cacciari, M. & Pagotto, U. The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis activity in obesity and the metabolic syndrome. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* **1083**, 111–128. <https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1367.009> (2006).
40. Jiang, C. *et al.* Cohort profile: The Guangzhou Biobank Cohort Study: A Guangzhou–Hong Kong–Birmingham collaboration. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **35**, 844–852. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyl131> (2006).
41. Lao, X. Q. *et al.* Parity and the metabolic syndrome in older Chinese women: The Guangzhou Biobank Cohort Study. *Clin. Endocrinol. (Oxf.)* **65**, 460–469. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2265.2006.02615.x> (2006).
42. American Diabetes, A. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* **37**(Suppl 1), S81–90. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc14-S081> (2014).
43. Deng, H. B. *et al.* Reliability and validity of the IPAQ–Chinese: The Guangzhou Biobank Cohort study. *Med. Sci. Sports Exerc.* **40**, 303–307. <https://doi.org/10.1249/mss.0b013e31815b0db5> (2008).

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Guangzhou Health and Happiness Association for the Respectable Elders participant recruitment.

Author contributions

H.M.S. analyzed data, wrote the manuscript, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. C.Q.J. and W.S.Z. collected data and reviewed and edited the manuscript. F.Z., and Y.L.J. collected data and reviewed the manuscript. K.K.C. reviewed and edited the manuscript. T.H.L. assisted with data analysis and edited the manuscript. L.X. led the statistical analysis, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-36786-x>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to W.Z. or L.X.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2023