

Original article

УДК 316.346.3

doi: 10.17223/1998863X/86/10

POLICIES OF PRO-NATALISM AND CHINESE WOMEN: BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF PUBLICATIONS IN WoS, 2013–2025

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Abstract. China has shifted from the one-child policy to the two- and three-child policies to cope with the low fertility rate and the aging of the population, but the fertility rate continues to be declining. The aim of this research is to answer the question: What paradoxes do Chinese women face under these pro-natalist policies? Through the bibliometric analysis of 33 WoS academic publications between 2013 and 2025, this research systematically combed the lack of academic discussion on Chinese policies of pro-natalism. Further, the research summarised four main research focus clusters: (1) economic constraints, including high parenting costs and motherhood penalties in the labour market; (2) social and cultural pressures, such as persistent boy preferences and the impact of population mobility; (3) family dynamics, focusing on the family division of labour and the role of intergenerational support; (4) institutional legacy issues, exploring the far-reaching impact of the one-child policy and the inadequacy of public child care and medical services. Such previous research together revealed controversial pro-natalist policies. Although the state encourages more births, existing structural barriers systematically disadvantage women. This research synthesises the existing knowledge in this field and points out the key directions for future policy formulation and academic inquiry.

Keywords: two-child policy, three-child policy, women, fertility, China

Acknowledgments: This work was prepared within the Basic Research Program at HSE.

For citation: Fu, L. (2025) Policies of pro-natalism and chinese women: bibliometric analysis of publications in WoS, 2013–2025. *Vestnik Tomskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Filosofiya. Sotsiologiya. Politologiya* – *Tomsk State University Journal of Philosophy, Sociology and Political Science*. 86. pp. 116–127. (In Russian). doi: 10.17223/1998863X/86/10

Научная статья

ПРОНАТАЛИСТСКАЯ ПОЛИТИКА И КИТАЙСКИЕ ЖЕНЩИНЫ: БИБЛИОМЕТРИЧЕСКИЙ АНАЛИЗ ПУБЛИКАЦИЙ В WoS, 2013–2025

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Аннотация. Китайская демографическая политика, разрешающая иметь троих детей в семье, включает переход от принудительного антинатализма к неоднозначному пронаatalизму. Библиометрический и тематический анализ аннотаций 33 статей в базе данных WoS (2013–2025 гг.) позволил выявить структурные напряжения между репродуктивной автономией и государственными целями и вызовы, с которыми сталкиваются китайские женщины под влиянием этой противоречивой политики.

Ключевые слова: политика в отношении двух детей, политика в отношении трех детей, женщины, рождаемость, Китай

Благодарности: работа выполнена в рамках Программы фундаментальных исследований НИУ ВШЭ.

Для цитирования: Fu L. Policies of pro-natalism and chinese women: bibliometric analysis of publications in WoS, 2013–2025 // Вестник Томского государственного университета. Философия. Социология. Политология. 2025. № 86. С. 116–127. doi: 10.17223/1998863X/86/10

Introduction

China has reduced population growth with strict fertility control and family planning. China's 1980s one-child policy has some of the harshest penalties. These programs helped China rapidly transform its demographics in the 1990s [1]. Demographics changed from high to low mortality and fertility. Decreasing fertility rates extend from one-child policy on eugenics propaganda [2]. The too-fast demographic change in China challenges the problem of expanding to constructive pyramid shapes. To address population ageing and maintain society's prosperity, China's family-planning strategy shifted from anti-natalism to pro-natalism.

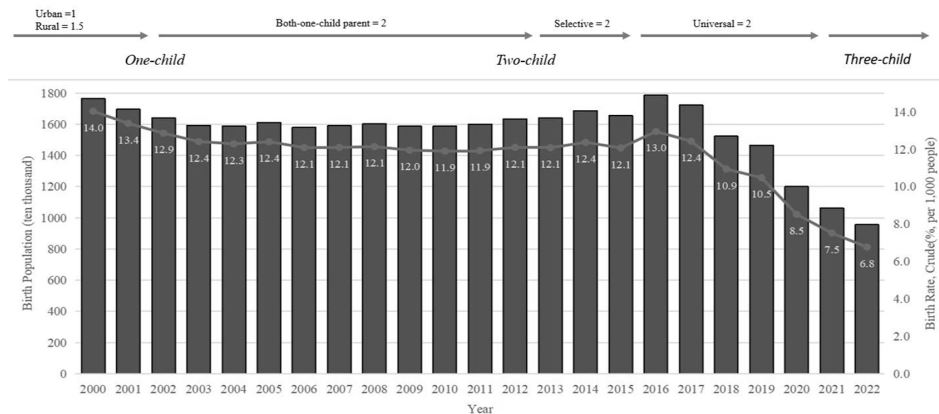


Figure 1. Birth condition and family-planning policies in 21st-century China

Source: National Bureau of Statistics

Firstly, the Chinese government carried out the complex two-child policy. It had three stages: the both-one-child parent phase (2002–2012)¹, the selective two-child phase (2013–2015)² and the universal two-child phase (2016–2020). Unfortunately, fertility rates only increased in the first two years of the universal two-child policy. The two-child policy stage did not significantly improve fertility rates or solve Chinese population development issues [3].

From the seventh census, China still has a large population of about 1.4178 billion people in 2021. However, a low birth rate and severe ageing problem plague China's demographic structure [4]. The 2020 fertility rate was 1.3, well below 2.1 (i.e., replacement-level fertility), and 18.7% of the population was elderly. China's

¹ The both-one-child parent policy refers to couples, both from one-child families, who can legally have two children.

² The selective two-child policy refers to a two-child fertility policy for couples where either the husband or the wife is from a one-child family.

development relies on the demographic dividend, fuelled by its massive working-age population. Moreover, China is a country home to various ethnic groups and cultural philosophies. Relaxing fertility policies to protect reservations' communities is crucial [5]. Some recommended more pro-natalist policies, while others declared elite dividends. The National Bureau of Statistics' data for the past decade reveals a reduction in the labour population, raising questions about the sustainability of previous family planning models [6]. To foster long-term balanced population development, the Chinese government has totally eased its family-planning policy against anti-natalism.

China swiftly transitioned from a one- to two-child policy in 2013 and introduced the three-child policy in 2021 to rejuvenate the ageing population, increase fertility, and reverse sex-ratio imbalance [7, 8]. Following the Constitution, the two-child and three-child policies promote population, economy, society, resources, and environmental harmony. These pro-natalist policies also support family planning, protect citizens' rights, and boost family happiness, national wealth, and social progress. However, the fertility rate has not increased as expected under pro-natalist policy phases [9].

At the end of the past century, most developed countries experienced lower-fertility traps. Cases have examined the potential reasons behind low fertility in order to safeguard national development [10]. Some European countries with subtly successful pro-natalism projects have survived demographic slumps [11–13]. Before China's one-child policy was repealed, reduced fertility rates were attributed to internal endogenous factors [10]. This historical setting made China a model and exceptional case of demographic transition.

Due to China's particular lower fertility traps, the three-child policy is legalised and promoted. The new regulation allows mainland Chinese couples to have three children. China directly communicates its goal of maintaining fertility by leveraging its "three-child" policy as a foundation. The first demographic transition outperformed the second near the end of the 20th century in China [1]. Therefore, projections suggest that the three-child policy, in addition to addressing demographic challenges, will enhance Chinese economic growth and promote regionalisation by facilitating a smooth demographic transition. For instance, fiscal expenditure and subsidy administration would have a strong correlation with three-child families [14]. The Chinese sandwich generation would manage living arrangements that involve both childbearing and caring for the elderly, benefiting from increased support provided by pro-natalism governing departments [15]. Kuhn and Neusius viewed that the three-child policy potentially copes with reducing economic inequality in China through mobility and migrant arrangements [16].

Nowadays, China has debated its pro-natalist policies, specifically between "allowing" and "advocating" [17]. The "allowing" approach suggests that younger generations have stronger intentions to reproduce and that providing generous fertility rights could lead to a baby boom, which may help address population challenges. The "advocating" strategy, based on government media initiatives, suggests that empowering people of childbearing age to begin having children will increase fertility rates. Since the "two-child" or "three-child" policies both limit legal births and penalise unanticipated overbirths, some researchers criticised these policies for not fully supporting pro-natalism. Indeed, loosening the fertility policy may arouse a regional birth boom. But, mostly, China has missed spontaneity in fertility [16].

Some researchers stated that before evaluating the efficacy of these pro-natalism programs, it is important to know what influences reproductive outcomes in the current reproductive population, especially for Chinese women [18, 18a, 19].

The pro-natalism era necessitates ongoing research into China's family planning policies and population development, particularly focusing on women as the primary subjects of study. Whyte [20] used bibliometrics to study the one-child policy and its derivatives across various dimensions. No bibliometric reviews of the two- and three-child policy stages exist. This disparity is partly due to the short policy development cycle and partly because typical female fertility-related bibliometric reviews are few.

This research synthesises Chinese women's fertility literature from the two-child and three-child policy periods using quantitative bibliometric analysis to fill this information gap. The bibliometric analysis is done using Bibliometrix, an open-source tool, Biblioshiny 5.0 [21]. The contributions of this study are as follows. Initially, it evaluates the bibliometric analysis and contains credible research trends. I link the evolution of the three-child phase to that of the two-child phase. The author then does a detailed analysis of themes and finds that economic problems, social expectations, family issues, and weaknesses in institutions have made it harder for women to be independent and have changed how the natalism policy is viewed in relation to gender during the three-child period.

Bibliometric analysis

Search methods

This study used electronic database searches to identify the Web of Science (WoS) Core Collection sources. The study focused on the two- and three-child policies, women, fertility, and China. The author determined the search strings for this research by reviewing various documents. The author searched for article titles, abstracts, and keywords using these words in WoS. The publication search using the given approach ran from January 2013 to May 2025, with the latest data update on 31 May 2025. The search strings and filtered results in Table 1 show that 33 items satisfied database criteria.

The inclusion criteria are (1) SCI and SSCI English articles in the WoS Core Collection from January 2013 to May 2025; (2) peer-reviewed; (3) full text online. Articles that were published before January 2013 or after May 2025 in WoS, those that did not focus on mainland Chinese women or the two-child or three-child policies, duplicates, conference papers, books, and other invalid publications, like those without full text online or that were not SCI or SSCI articles, are not included. The author found 33 WoS papers that fit.

Table 1. The search strings and results of WoS core collection

Scientific database	Search string	Results (N)
WoS Core collection	Language: English AND publication years: 2013-2025	
	TS = ("two-child" OR "two child" OR "three-child" OR "three child" OR "pro-natalism" OR "pro-natalism" OR "natalism" OR "pro-birth" OR "procreationism")	1025
	AND TS = ("fertility" AND "childbearing")	86
	AND TS = ("women" OR "female" OR "girl")	61
	AND TS = ("China" OR "Chinese" OR "mainland")	33

Annual scientific production and average citations per year

A comprehensive analysis of 33 publications (2013–2025) in WoS revealed two distinct developmental eras in China’s fertility policy and related research on women’s fertility:

The silent phase (2013–2017): The yearly count of published papers was almost nonexistent during this phase, which coincided with the selective two-child policy period. Mostly, women of reproductive age failed to satisfy the policy criteria. Researchers had not yet transitioned their focus from anti-natalism (i.e., one-child policy) to pro-natalism studies.

The transition to the fertility policy period, which spans from 2018 to 2025, is now underway: Subsequent to policy modifications in 2016, the annual publication output experienced a degree of enhancement. During the paper screening step, researchers discovered an insufficient number of studies explicitly focused on women and fertility. The 2022 peak may be linked to China’s extensive alteration in the family-planning policy towards a pro-natalism fertility framework.

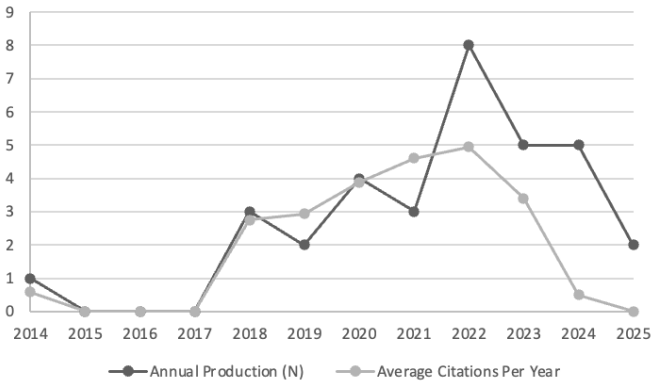


Figure 2. Production and average citations information

BMC Public Health and *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* had the highest mean annual citation volume from 2020 to 2022 (Figure 2). Research focused on economic and physiological aspects affecting women’s fertility intentions. These papers are mostly from Chinese academic institutions, but the worldwide focus on pro-natalism is positive (Figure 3). Although having more than one child is no longer illegal in China, this policy could change in response to population studies conducted worldwide.

Table 2. Publication sources

Top 10 Sources (Core Sources by Bradford’s Law)	Articles (N)	References
BMC Public Health	4	[21–24]
International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health	2	[25, 26]
American Journal of Human Biology	1	[27]
Applied Economics Letters	1	[28]
BMJ Sexual & Reproductive Health	1	[29]
Culture Health & Sexuality	1	[30]
Demography	1	[31]
Frontiers in Public Health	1	[32]
HOMO	1	[33]
Human Reproduction Open	1	[34]

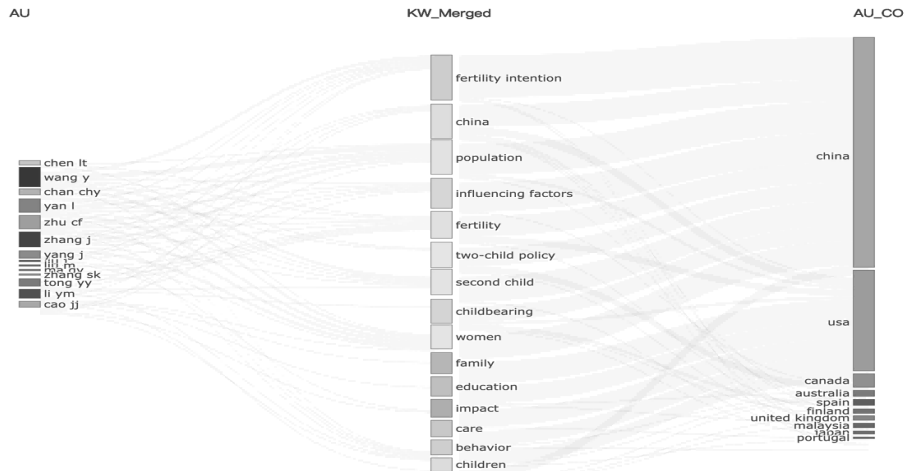


Figure 3. Authors' affiliation information

Research hotspots and trends

Population, childbearing, and fertility aim were thematic clusters in keyword co-occurrence analysis (Figure 4). Population research focuses on specific cohorts, such as cross-sectional evaluations of reproductive decisions regarding having a second or third child in central China [35]. Childbearing involves women's socio-economic growth [23, 36, 37], physiological elements [34, 38], psychological impacts [24], and cultural viewpoints [27]. Fertility intention, the primary outcome variable in many studies, do not require any further clarification.

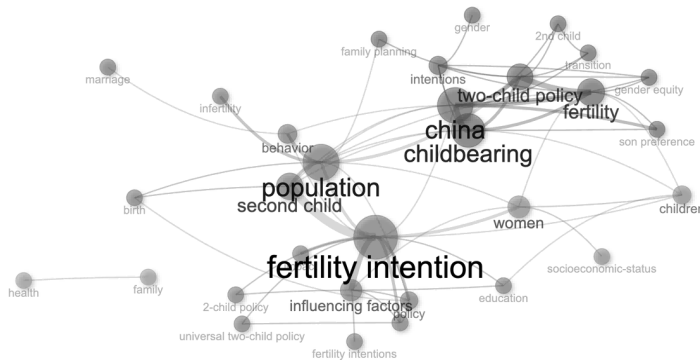


Figure 4. Keyword co-occurrence analysis

The author further examined WordCloud and Most Frequent Words since the articles' processing on such research subject was inadequate. In the WordCloud analysis, researchers demonstrated some potential for further research. For example, the “motherhood penalty” shows how pro-natalist policies make Chinese women more economically vulnerable, potentially reducing their desire to have children [39]. The term “migration” refers to China's population mobilities, including government-facilitated talent relocations and economic-driven labour migrations [40]. Migration and female fertility need further attention. Followingly, the research will examine the fundamental factors affecting Chinese women's fertility under the two- and three-child policies.

The female labour market participation rate has been increasing as a result of both the reform and opening-up of the 1980s and the one-child policy. Especially when China became a member of the WTO in 2001, women could accept more employment chances. Many rural women also began participating in the labour market. “Women can hide half of the sky” was a slogan of that era of rapid economic growth. However, the Chinese government is now promoting traditional values by encouraging women to return to their families to build harmonious households. Hence, under trade liberalisation, women with income substitutions and a smaller intramarital gap prefer having more babies [42, 43].

The cost of living and raising children is an important factor in the three-child fertility outcomes. The popular joke in Chinese media that “High house prices are a powerful contraceptive” reveals how important economic factors are. Zhu et al. [32] pointed out that pro-natalist policies with high housing prices in large cities negatively affect fertility rates, but Pan and Yang [44] supported the positive association with housing prices and fertility rates. Home ownership may play a role in determining fertility behaviours. Families who own their homes are less likely to have more children than those who rent because of the burden of homeownership [37]. The high-quality neighbourhood environment also influences the decision to have more children [45]. Overall, the costs of childbearing and settling down in particular areas have a significant impact on fertility rates.

Theme 2. Social aspect

China’s fertility policies explicitly ban abandoning female babies and prohibit gender testing and screening during pregnancy. In most parts of the country, traditional culture still favours having male children. China’s patriarchal culture views men as more valuable labourers and grants them land use rights. China has a history of gender imbalances, and families may still prioritise having male offspring to provide security in old age [46]. Parents may choose to have a third child if they have already had two female offspring [21].

China exhibits a phenomenon of highly mobile populations. People delay marriage and have fewer children due to instability and high costs of childbearing in unsettled cities [47]. The rising costs of movement may potentially exacerbate the practice of leaving children behind. Urbanisation also plays a role in changing family structures and declining fertility intentions. As rural hukou (household registration) residents migrate to cities, they tend to settle and have lower expectations of large families, damaging fertility intentions. The liberalisation of fertility policies has had a greater impact in areas that are urbanising more rapidly.

Theme 3. Family aspect

The division of household labour and the fertility histories of Chinese women influence their fertility intentions. Research showed that families with two daughters have acceptable attitudes towards pro-natalism. And when husbands participate in housework, women are more likely to intend to have another child [27]. Urban women are less anxious about having a second child with a more egalitarian division of housework, while rural women are more concerned about total household income [48]. The legal policies related to the three-child policy primarily focus on maternity leave, which pressures women to choose between having more children or reducing their fertility to balance work and life.

Changes in Chinese family structures, which support the existence of multi-generational households, influence fertility intentions. Although severing parental

relations post-marriage is a complex endeavour, research indicated that cohabitation with the couple's parents does not markedly influence their reproductive aspirations, yet offers them support [49]. The practice of a "proximate residence", in which couples live in the same neighbourhood as their parents, is becoming more popular. Parental support can encourage couples to have children, but it is more effective for the wife's parents to address motherhood penalties [46]. Parents frequently urge couples to conceive a child of the opposite sex to their current offspring, particularly among women who are more receptive to parental influence and whose spouses are from large families. Women are more motivated by the belief that more children can increase future pension security, although this connection is weakening because of an ageing, more mobile, and more hedonistic population.

Theme 4. Institutional aspect

Firstly, the Chinese context supports that family-friendly policies have a positive impact on fertility intentions. Higher family well-being and a higher level of justification related to healthcare make people more likely to accept the three-child policy [43]. However, the mini baby boom of the universal two-child policy had the backfire on subsequent fertility intentions due to the deficiency of the public health systems. The lack of legal settings for maternal and child healthcare adversely affects fertility intentions at the three-child stage as well. Unfortunately, individuals with high fertility intentions fail to achieve their desired number of births due to inadequate resource allocation.

The subsequent impact of the anti-natalism period has become increasingly apparent [30]. During the one-child policy era, the government prioritised "eugenics." Chinese parents invest highly in childbearing and parenting, which discourages fertility. In China, childbirth and the care of the old are predominantly family-oriented responsibilities. Nowadays, children born during the one-child period become the crucial primary workforce. They meet difficulty with the dual pressures of having no more siblings to divide responsibilities for their parents and raising more children. There is no denying that the effect of the three-child policy is tightly associated with the overall welfare policies of a comprehensive healthcare system on childbearing and ageing.

Conclusion

This research examines China's three-child policy as an institutional reaction to demographic issues like ageing populations, declining fertility rates, and gender imbalances, not only as a pro-natalism measure. Earlier strategies focused on population control by coercion, but the three-child era shows a fragmented strategy that swings between limited reproductive autonomy and state-sanctioned fertility goals. Bibliometric analysis and multidimensional theme discussion challenge policy efficacy narratives. The research shows how structural constraints and women's agency affect fertility outcomes via four subtly influencing factors, potentially to procedure causality inference. This quantitative analysis of China's pro-natalist policies calls for a shift from demographic targeting to women-beneficial measures. Future changes should prioritise structural inequalities over birth quotas.

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Автор заявляет об отсутствии конфликта интересов.

Статья поступила в редакцию 15.06.2025;
одобрена после рецензирования 17.07.2025; принята к публикации 07.08.2025
The article was submitted 15.06.2025;
approved after reviewing 17.07.2025; accepted for publication 07.08.2025