

Gender Gap in STEM: A Cross-Sectional Study of Primary School Students' Self-Perception and Test Anxiety in Mathematics

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Abstract—Contribution: Significant gender differences are observed on primary school students' perception of self-efficacy and test anxiety in mathematics. Girls perceive themselves to be significantly worse than boys in mathematics and report higher test anxiety toward mathematics exams. Gender differences in self-efficacy become more pronounced as students grow up, and test anxiety increases for all students. However, the present study shows that teachers' do not perceive differences in self-efficacy in mathematics between boys and girls.

Background: The low presence of women in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) might be explained by the attitude of young students toward mathematics. Different studies show that girls are less interested in STEM areas than boys during secondary school. A study on the reasons for this fact pointed out that the early years of education can provide a relevant insight to reverse the situation.

Research Questions: Is there any age-dependent gender difference in primary school students in aspects related to mathematics? Are teachers aware of students' perceptions?

Methodology: This work presents a study of over 2000 primary school students (6–12 years old) and 200 teachers in Aragón (Spain). The study consists of a survey on aspects that influence the experience of female and male students with mathematics and Spanish language for comparison purposes and teacher's awareness of students' perception.

Findings: The present study shows that during primary school, girls are more likely to experiment a negative attitude toward mathematics than boys as they grow up, and teachers may not perceive girls' situation.

Index Terms—Mathematics, primary school, science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) studies, women in engineering.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE SCIENCE, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) study areas are key to economic growth and innovation and have acquired special relevance in the ecosystem of the digital economy [1]. In this context, the scarce presence of women in these areas is especially visible and worrisome worldwide, especially in math-intensive fields, such as engineering and even more in computer engineering as different recent studies have shown [2]–[4].

Furthermore, even when girls do graduate from scientific fields, they are much less likely than boys to work as professionals in those fields. In the European Union, women were just 16.7% of those employed in the high and med-technological sector in 2016 [5]. In the United States, they accounted for one-fifth or less of those employed in some of these jobs, including 20.0% of software developers, 9.7% of computer network architects, and 7.8% of aerospace engineers [6].

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), workers who have completed higher education in STEM areas are more successful in the labor market than other workers, even over those workers who have completed other university degrees: the employment rate for those with STEM higher education is 83.0% over the average 66.6%, and presents a lower unemployment rate of 9.4% over the average 17.9%, in 2016. Therefore, the lack of women accessing STEM studies reduces the number of females in professions with prestige and greater purchasing power and therefore deprives them of greater independence. Moreover, the fact that there are few women working in STEM disciplines is detrimental to society as a whole because the community lacks the views, ideas, creativity, work, and knowledge of half of the population. The seriousness of this situation has led institutions, such as the EU or the OECD to encourage the recruitment of women in these fields, and in 2016, the United

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68 Nations established February 11th to be the International Day
69 of Women and Girls in Science.

70 Almost 60% of female students at high school have no
71 interest in studying engineering, while for male students
72 this percentage is down to 35% [7]. A variety of reasons
73 have been suggested for girls' lack of interest in STEM
74 areas [3], [8], [9]. Both boys and girls report that little is
75 known about the engineering profession [7], but girls hold
76 fewer positive views than boys about the areas of computer sci-
77 ence or information and technology [10]. Some causes have
78 a clear social component, such as the stereotypes installed
79 since childhood [11], the lack of family support, and the
80 absence of references [7]. Stereotypes lead people to believe
81 that the innate intelligence or brilliance required for mathe-
82 matics or engineering fields are male attributes [12]. Teachers
83 present implicit stereotypes toward gender differences in math-
84 ematical ability that are not present in other subjects or toward
85 other factors such as race [13]. These stereotypes in a stu-
86 dent's close environment may have an immediate effect on
87 their interests at early ages [14], leading girls and women to
88 avoid mathematics or engineering, and also causing people to
89 subconsciously believe that women cannot be good in these
90 fields.

91 Regarding reasons grounded in cognitive aspects, recent
92 research is converging toward the notion that gender differ-
93 ences in STEM are not due to differences in absolute cognitive
94 ability but rather to differences in the breadth of cognitive
95 ability [15], [16]. A study compared gifted individuals and
96 showed that those with higher mathematical skills relative to
97 verbal skills are more likely to pursue STEM careers, while
98 individuals with comparatively high mathematical and ver-
99 bal abilities are more likely to pursue a non-STEM career [9].
100 Therefore, as math-talented women tend to also have good
101 verbal abilities, they are more likely to choose challeng-
102 ing non-STEM fields that are more practical or applied, as
103 opposed to math-intensive fields that are more theoretical or
104 mechanical [3]. Different works also confirm the importance
105 of mathematics when choosing engineering as a career [17].

106 Herbert and Stipek [10] conducted a longitudinal study over
107 300 children from 5 to 10 years old in the United States
108 to observe gender differences concerning math and literacy,
109 including teachers' and parents' ratings. All participant chil-
110 dren came from low-income families. The results show that
111 starting at 7–8 years of age, girls rated themselves lower than
112 boys at math, despite math achievements and teachers' rat-
113 ings not showing gender differences. However, parents' ratings
114 of children's competence strongly influenced children's self-
115 perceived efficacy in math. According to research carried out
116 in Spain following 1500 students for six years, from age 14 to
117 19 [18], girls tend to underestimate their competence in tech-
118 nology and mathematics even though they have better grades
119 than boys. In contrast, boys tend to overestimate their skills
120 in these same subjects. The research concludes that there is
121 a clear gender gap in the perception of competences in subjects
122 related to science, technology, and mathematics.

123 Besides perceived competence, Ramirez *et al.* [19] high-
124 lighted that anxiety negatively affects children's achievements
125 in mathematics as early as the first and second grades

(6–8 years old). The stress caused by math exams can nega- 126
tively affect both results and interest in this subject. In this 127
sense, emotions have been recognized as critically impor- 128
tant to students' learning, motivation, academic achievement, 129
and health [23], [24]. Positive activating emotions, as stu- 130
dents' interest in a subject, are also related to academic 131
achievements [19], [25], [26]. 132

133 For primary- and elder-school students, the findings in
134 PISA [21] 2012 and, for instance, of O'Keeffe *et al.* [22] 135
showed that girls report higher levels of math anxiety than
136 boys. Young *et al.* [20] showed that math anxiety disrupts
137 and divides working memory resources and that individuals
138 with higher levels of math anxiety have less working memory
139 to focus on mathematical activities and several authors argue
140 that students who experience mathematics anxiety generally
141 avoid mathematics, mathematics courses, and career paths that
142 require the mastery of some mathematical skills [27]–[30].

143 In addition, it was proven that teachers have a strong
144 influence on the students' life, from academic achievements
145 to emotions experimented in the classroom [31]–[33], with
146 stronger influences exerted in younger students [34]. The
147 teachers' attitude and interpersonal relations with students
148 drive students' emotional experiences. Many works have ana-
149 lyzed the relationship between achievements in mathematics
150 and teachers' emotions and attitudes [19], [35], as well as
151 between teachers' attitude toward science and their pupils'
152 attitude [36]. The gender of the teacher is also relevant in
153 this relationship: female teachers with high levels of anxi-
154 ety toward mathematics or negative attitudes toward science,
155 lead female pupils to perform worse and have a worse
156 opinion of science than male students or pupils with male
157 teachers [34]–[36].

158 In light of the foregoing considerations, the present work
159 intends to cover the gap found in previous studies, focus-
160 ing on the evolution during primary school (6–12 years old)
161 of aspects that influence the experience with mathematics
162 of female and male students from any socioeconomic sta-
163 tus. The work also considers teachers' awareness of children's
164 autoperceptions because the regional evaluations show no rel-
165 evant differences in mathematical competence by sex at the
166 completion of primary education [37].

167 The remainder of this article is organized as follows.
168 Section II presents methodology and sample. Section III
169 investigates gender differences along with primary school
170 regarding students' perceptions toward mathematics and teach-
171 ers' awareness toward classroom climate. The results obtained
172 are discussed in Section IV. Conclusions and future actions
173 devised from present outcomes are given in Section V.

174 II. METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE

175 A. Background

176 The present study analyzes 2137 questionnaires answered
177 by primary-school students (48.7% female and 51.3% male)
178 and 212 questionnaires filled in by their teachers (75.5%
179 female and 24.5% male). The surveys were completed at
180 schools that had carried out the outreach activity titled
181 “Una Ingeniera en Cada Cole” (“A Female Engineer in Every



Fig. 1. Photographs taken during “A Female Engineer in Every School 2019” workshops. Left: “Augmented Reality” workshop participants coloring a human body page featured for an augmented reality app. Right: “How are images stored in computers?” workshop participants encoding/decoding simple images with pixel values.

School”) from March to May 2018 [38]. This activity was founded after a group of female faculty members from the University of Zaragoza realized that activities to encourage high-school students to pursue engineering degrees were often ineffective, as the students had already chosen a study pathway. The need to direct activities to younger pupils was identified, and “A Female Engineer in Every School” started in 2016.

In these series of events, female engineers, both from academic and industry backgrounds, visit primary schools, when possible with some kind of personal link, so that children can see her as a close example. The engineers show their work to children through open and interactive workshops where students in groups are asked to build or design some technology-related project (see Fig. 1). The workshops are creative, collaborative, and open so that each group creates their own designs or suggests their solutions, encouraging students’ effectiveness and self-perception. The workshops were shaped after research showing that girls tend to prefer working in small groups and learning through practical activities, and also that they feel more confident and obtain better results when teamworking and working in open problems [39]–[41].

The activity’s focus depends on the area of expertise of the visiting engineer and the children’s age group. Examples include “resistant structures with beautiful and tasty materials” [42], “a polyethylene thermocutter” [43], “how do we clean water?” [44], “augmented reality” [45], or “how are images stored in computers?” [46].

Before the activity with children, teachers were also involved through discussions about their opinions on STEM subjects, the education of their students, and the activity developed.

After 2016 and 2017 editions, the engineers realized that many primary school teachers were not aware of the lack of women in engineering studies. In addition, some teachers reported that many girls from the age of 9 started to show less interest in mathematics and technology than boys. Consequently, a new feature was added to the activity: a survey investigating the students’ approach to mathematics, as it is often directly linked to STEM career choices. In addition, teachers’ perceptions are also gathered and compared to students’ ones, as teachers’ beliefs can influence social interactions in the classroom life.

B. Questionnaires

Students were asked to fill in a questionnaire about cognitive test anxiety and self-perception, although the wording was simplified in an attempt to match the developmental level of the students participating (e.g., *S6*—I worry whenever I have a mathematics test. Instead of a more formal wording such as I have high anxiety levels when I have a cognitive evaluation on math-related topics). Teachers received a wider range of question topics, mostly to gather their preferences and strategies to teach different subjects and their thoughts about students’ understanding of mathematics. The results of these questionnaires are the subject of this report. The questionnaires for both teachers and students had two parts as follows.

- 1) The first part gathered profiling information, such as gender, age, and previous studies in the case of the teachers. A survey was considered valid only if the first part was completed correctly.
- 2) The second part involved statements related to subjects, perceived ability of the students, and anxiety toward exams. Responses were given in the form of Likert-scale ratings.

The questionnaire for students comprised eight 1-item measures, questions *S1*–*S8*. Despite the questionnaire not being designed as a single scale, in questions *S6*–*S8* (*S6*—I worry whenever I have a mathematics test; *S7*—I worry whenever I have a Spanish language test; and *S8*—I worry whenever I have a test, no matter the subject), where students’ concern with exams can be the underlying factor, Cronbach’s alpha yields a value of 0.8770, suggesting a good internal consistency. The teachers’ questionnaire comprised seven 1-item measures, *T1*–*T7*.

For convenience and to maximize the number of participants, schools were given the choice to complete the surveys before or right after the activity or on a follow-up session. As the survey was focused on students’ and teachers’ perceptions, not on the activity, the moment the survey was completed did not affect the answers.

C. Sample Characterization

The survey was completed in 39 educational centers, 30 in cities, and nine in rural areas, both in public and private schools.

Teachers: Out of 156 teacher surveys received, 143 were considered valid for data analysis and 58.7% were from public schools. The respondents included 75.5% of women and 42.7% of the respondents took science-based studies before going to college (as opposed to a humanities-based or arts-based studies).

Students: 2148 student surveys were gathered, out of which 2137 were valid for the data analysis. Students were divided into stages according to their academic school years: the first stage for children in first and second years of primary school (ages 6–8), second stage for children in the third and fourth years of primary school (ages 8–10), and third stage for children in the last two years of primary school, fifth and sixth (ages 10–12). Table I comprises the student count and percentage for each stage, segregated by sex.

TABLE I
STUDENTS' COUNT BY STAGE AND GENDER

Stage	Girls (count)	Boys (count)	Total (count)	Girls (%)	Boys (%)	Total (%)
1 st	152	175	327	7.1	8.2	15.3
2 nd	381	360	741	17.8	16.8	34.7
3 rd	509	560	1069	23.8	26.2	50
Total (count)	1042	1095	2137	48.7	51.2	100

281 Out of all students, 48.8% were girls and 64.4% attended
282 a public school. Note that these percentages are within less
283 than 5% of the official statistics provided by the Regional
284 Government [47] about primary-school students in the region,
285 which confirms that the sample is an accurate representation of
286 the relevant population for this study. The present results can
287 also be generalized to the rest of Spain, due to the uniformity
288 in student distribution around the country [48].

289 III. RESULTS

290 For every question, ratings in a five-point Likert scale
291 with scores 1—never, 2—rarely, 3—sometimes, 4—very often,
292 and 5—always, are collected. Questions are analyzed and
293 discussed independently, using a two-way analysis of vari-
294 ance (ANOVA) to test whether our two factors (gender and
295 stage) have an influence on the observed data. Significant
296 effects are further analyzed by using a Tukey–Kramer *post*
297 *hoc* analysis, which allows us to test pairwise comparisons.
298 In all tests, a *p*-value below 0.05 is considered to indicate
299 significance.

300 A. Students' Preferences and Perceptions Along Primary 301 School

302 This section presents students' beliefs concerning math and
303 Spanish language to highlight gender differences along the
304 primary school years that can explain the scarce presence of
305 women pursuing STEM studies: preferences, self-efficacy, and
306 test-anxiety of math and language. In addition, the perceived
307 usefulness of mathematics has been also considered as a factor
308 that influences the students' experience of positive activating
309 emotions [49].

310 1) *Preference of Math Versus Spanish Language*: Students'
311 preference for math versus Spanish language was tested
312 through question S1 (*I prefer Spanish language to math*). Both
313 gender and stage had a significant effect on the answers while
314 the interaction of both did not (see Table II). When looking
315 into the *post hoc* tests, it shows that gender drives the main
316 differences: from the second stage on, girls show a stronger
317 agreement with the statement than boys. Looking at the 95%
318 confidence interval for the mean rating of girls and boys in the
319 second and third stages, those of the girls are above the neutral
320 answer (3—sometimes), and those of the boys are below the
321 neutral answer (see Table III), separated by gender and stage,
322 suggesting that boys prefer math to Spanish language, whereas
323 girls prefer the Spanish language to math, with a significant
324 difference between genders.

TABLE II
ANOVA RESULTS FOR PREFERENCE AMONG SUBJECTS FOR THE
STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO S1 (I PREFER SPANISH LANGUAGE TO MATH)
AND S2 (I LIKE NATURAL SCIENCE BETTER THAN SOCIAL SCIENCE)

	S1			S2		
	F	(<i>df</i> ₁ , <i>df</i> ₂)	<i>p</i>	F	(<i>df</i> ₁ , <i>df</i> ₂)	<i>p</i>
Gender	37.88	(1, 2111)	0.0000*	2.40	(1, 2112)	0.1216
Stage	4.84	(2, 2111)	0.0008*	1.12	(2, 2112)	0.3251
Gender×Stage	0.24	(2, 2111)	0.7905	1.39	(2, 2112)	0.2505

F is the F-statistic, a measure of the ratio of the variance accounted for and the unexplained variance; *df*₁ and *df*₂ are the degrees of freedom for the effect of the factor (Gender, Stage, or the interaction) and the residuals, respectively; *p* is the associated *p*-value given the F-statistic and the degrees of freedom.

TABLE III
95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO S1 (I
PREFER SPANISH LANGUAGE TO MATH)

1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
(2.91, 3.31)	(3.23, 3.66)	(2.66, 2.94)	(3.12, 3.39)	(2.70, 2.92)	(3.12, 3.35)

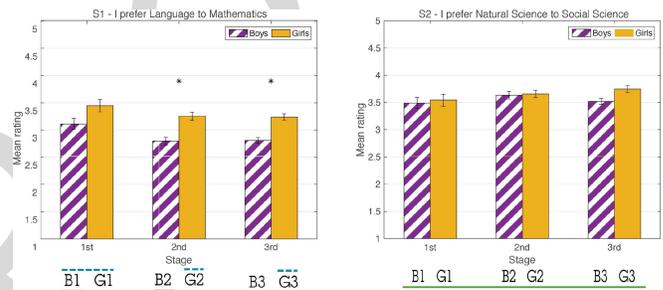


Fig. 2. Preference among subjects. Left: mean ratings for S1 (*I prefer Spanish language to math*). Right: mean ratings for S2 (*I prefer natural sciences to social sciences*). Error bars show standard error of the mean. Significant differences between both genders are marked with an asterisk. Girls' preference for Spanish language versus math is stronger than boys' preference from the second stage on, whereas no significant difference between genders is observed for natural versus social sciences. Below each graph, the results of the pairwise comparisons are shown for the corresponding question: items in the same group (i.e., marked by the same type of horizontal line) have no statistically significant differences between them. For each item, the letter refers to the gender (B: boys and G: girls), and the number to the stage. On the left, B1, B2, and B3 form one group (continuous line), while B1, G1, G2, and G3 form another group (dotted line). On the right, there is one single group comprising all six items (continuous line).

As an additional comparison to better put in context the findings from S1, the responses to S2 (*I like natural sciences better than social sciences*) were analyzed. S2 asks about the preference of natural versus social sciences, two distinct subjects in the Spanish primary school curriculum so students can differentiate them easily. There were no significant effects of gender or stage in the students' answers in this case (see Table II and Fig. 2).

The findings are summarized as follows.

- 1) From the second stage on, on an average, boys prefer math to Spanish language, whereas girls prefer Spanish language to math, with a significant difference between genders.
- 2) No difference between genders nor stage is observed, in contrast, for natural sciences versus social sciences.

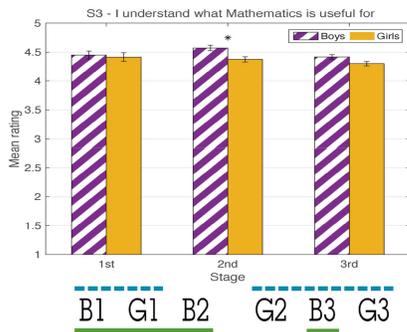


Fig. 3. Perceived usefulness of math, in the form of mean ratings for S3 (*I understand what mathematics is useful for*). Error bars show the standard error of the mean. Significant differences between both genders are marked with an asterisk. Only in the second stage, there is a significant difference between boys' and girls' answers. Below the graph, results for the pairwise comparisons are shown for the corresponding question (refer to the caption in Fig. 2).

TABLE IV
ANOVA RESULTS FOR PERCEIVED USEFULNESS OF MATHEMATICS FOR THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO S3 (I UNDERSTAND WHAT MATHEMATICS ARE USEFUL FOR)

	S3		
	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p
Gender	7.13	(1, 2116)	0.0077*
Stage	3.76	(2, 2116)	0.0235*
Gender×Stage	0.97	(2, 2116)	0.3800

340 2) *Usefulness of Mathematics*: Question S3 (*I understand*
 341 *what mathematics is useful for*) covers the understanding of
 342 math usefulness. It is assumed here that understanding its use-
 343 fulness correlates with considering them useful. Since the first
 344 stage of education, mathematics is clearly perceived as being
 345 very useful (see Fig. 3). While both gender and stage have
 346 a significant effect on the answers (see Table IV), a look at
 347 the *post hoc* tests reveals that the only significant difference
 348 between boys and girls is found in the second stage, in which
 349 boys rate the usefulness of mathematics higher than girls. The
 350 interaction effect between gender and stage is nonsignificant
 351 (Table IV), indicating that there is no sign that boys' and girls'
 352 responses are influenced differently by the stage.

353 3) *Self-Perceived Efficacy in Math Versus Spanish*
 354 *Language*: Self-perceived efficacy in both math and Spanish
 355 language has been explored through questions S4 (*I am good*
 356 *at math*) and S5 (*I am good at Spanish language*).

357 Both for S4 and S5, a significant effect was found for gender
 358 (see Table V). The *post hoc* analysis reveals that in the first
 359 stage there is no significant difference between genders for
 360 any of the two questions, with differences between genders
 361 arising in the second and third stages. In the second stage,
 362 boys rate themselves significantly better at math than girls do
 363 ($p < 0.0001$); estimated means are $\mu_{B2} = 4.24$ versus $\mu_{G2} =$
 364 3.81 . This trend continues in the third stage, in which boys also
 365 rate themselves significantly better at math ($p < 0.0001$), with
 366 estimated means $\mu_{B3} = 3.96$ versus $\mu_{G3} = 3.60$. In Spanish
 367 language, the result is the opposite. Girls rated themselves
 368 significantly better than boys did in the second and third stages

TABLE V
ANOVA RESULTS FOR SELF-PERCEIVED EFFICACY FOR THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO S4 (I AM GOOD AT MATH) AND S5 (I AM GOOD AT SPANISH LANGUAGE)

	S4			S5		
	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p
Gender	41.24	(1, 2101)	0.0000*	13.60	(1, 2089)	0.0002*
Stage	19.86	(2, 2101)	0.0000*	28.87	(2, 2089)	0.0000*
Gender×Stage	1.84	(2, 2101)	0.1594	0.71	(2, 2089)	0.4927

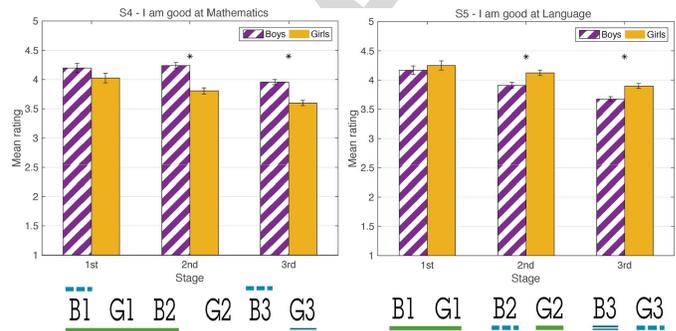


Fig. 4. Self-perceived efficacy. Left: mean ratings for S4 (*I am good at math*). Right: mean ratings for S5 (*I am good at Spanish language*). Error bars show the standard error of the mean. Significant differences between both genders are marked with an asterisk. From the second stage on, boys provide significantly higher ratings than girls in math, while the opposite happens for Spanish language. Below each graph, results for the pairwise comparisons are shown for the corresponding question (refer to the caption in Fig. 2).

($p = 0.0249$ for the second stage and $p = 0.0018$ for the third
 369 one); estimated means are $\mu_{B2} = 3.91$ versus $\mu_{G2} = 4.12$ and
 370 $\mu_{B3} = 3.67$ versus $\mu_{G3} = 3.90$. Fig. 4 shows estimated means
 371 for both questions, separated by gender and stage; significant
 372 differences are marked on the graphs.

A significant influence of the stage is found, as well for both
 374 questions (see Table V). The interaction effect between gender
 375 and stage is nonsignificant in both questions, indicating that
 376 there is no sign that boys' and girls' responses are influenced
 377 differently by the stage.

378 Additionally, there is a certain correlation between the self-
 379 perceived efficacy of children in a specific subject (e.g., math
 380 or Spanish language) and the preference of children for that
 381 subject. Specifically, the correlation between answers to S1 and
 382 S4 and answers to S1 and S5 has been tested for each gender
 383 group in the second and third stages. A weak correlation was
 384 found between the answers in all cases, with p -values allowing
 385 to assert that there is indeed a correlation (see Table VI). The
 386 sign of the correlation (negative for S1–S4 and positive for S1–
 387 S5) is indicative of this relationship between preference and
 388 self-perceived efficacy since S1 asks about the preference of
 389 language over math, S4 about self-perceived efficacy in math,
 390 and S5 about self-perceived efficacy in language.

391 4) *Test Anxiety*: Regarding students' concern about math
 392 and Spanish language tests, the answers to statements S6 (*I*
 393 *worry whenever I have a mathematics test*), S7 (*I worry*
 394 *whenever I have a Spanish language test*), and S8 (*I worry*
 395

TABLE VI
SPEARMAN CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (ρ) AND ASSOCIATED P-VALUE
BETWEEN ANSWERS TO S1 AND S4, AND BETWEEN S1 AND S5,
SEGREGATED BY GENDER GROUP AND STAGE, FOR STAGES WITH
A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN GENDER

		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
S1-S4	ρ	-0.2848	-0.3033	-0.3750	-0.3446
	p-val	<0.0001*	<0.0001*	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
S1-S5	ρ	0.2465	0.3533	0.3074	0.2680
	p-val	<0.0001*	<0.0001*	<0.0001*	<0.0001*

TABLE VII
ANOVA RESULTS FOR TEST ANXIETY FOR THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS
TO S6 (I WORRY WHENEVER I HAVE A MATHEMATICS TEST), S7 (I
WORRY WHENEVER I HAVE A SPANISH LANGUAGE TEST), AND S8 (I
WORRY WHENEVER I HAVE A TEST)

	S6			S7			S8		
	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p	F	(df ₁ , df ₂)	p
Gender	53.40	(1, 2057)	0.0000*	3.87	(1, 2052)	0.0493	27.50	(1, 2064)	0.0000*
Stage	27.19	(2, 2057)	0.0000*	58.05	(2, 2052)	0.0000*	47.73	(2, 2064)	0.0000*
Gender×Stage	1.18	(2, 2057)	0.3081	0.06	(2, 2052)	0.9415	0.94	(2, 2064)	0.3903

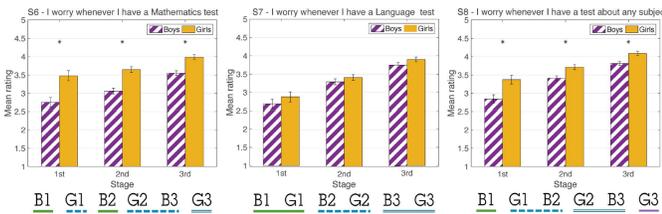


Fig. 5. Test anxiety. Left: mean ratings for S6 (*I worry whenever I have a mathematics test*). Middle: mean ratings for S7 (*I worry whenever I have a Spanish language test*). Right: Mean ratings for S8 (*I worry whenever I have a test, no matter the subject*). Error bars show the standard error of the mean. Significant differences between both genders are marked with an asterisk. Girls are significantly more worried than boys in math tests, while in Spanish language tests there is no significant difference between genders. Below each graph, results for the pairwise comparisons are shown for the corresponding question (refer to the caption in Fig. 2).

whenever I have a test, no matter the subject) were considered. Results are presented in Table VII, and the main findings are discussed next.

Gender has a significant effect on anxiety when facing a math exam ($F = 53.40, p < 0.0001$ in S6), but not when facing a Spanish language exam [$F(1, 2052) = 3.87, p = 0.0493$ in S7]. *Post hoc* tests for S6 show that in all three stages gender has a significant effect, with boys providing significantly lower ratings of test anxiety than girls ($p = 0.0017$ in the first, < 0.0001 in the second, and 0.0001 in the third stage). When looking at concern about exams, in general, gender again has a significant effect [$F(1, 2064) = 27.50, p < 0.0001$ in S8]; this significant difference is observed in all three stages ($p = 0.0191$ in the first, 0.0264 in the second, and 0.0126 in the third stage). These effects are illustrated in Fig. 5, and can be contrasted with test anxiety in engineering students, where gender differences are not observed [50].

The stage has a significant effect on all three questions regarding test anxiety (see Table VII), with students' anxiety increasing as stage increases (Fig. 5). *Post hoc* tests reveal that

in S6 there is a significant difference only between the third stage and the other two ($p < 0.0001$) for both genders. This is also the case for girls in S8, whereas for boys, the three stages are significantly different: they experience a larger increase in concern than girls, for whom the values were higher to begin with. In S7, all three stages are significantly different from each other for both genders.

The interaction effect between the gender of the student and the stage at which they are is nonsignificant for all three questions S6–S8 (Table VII), indicating there is no sign that boys' and girls' responses are influenced differently by stage. Furthermore, considering students' preferences, gender differences are maintained for learners without preference between math and Spanish Language. According to student's answers, out of the girls with no preference between math and Spanish language, 32.3% have a higher perceived self-efficiency in the Spanish language versus a 20.2% with higher self-efficiency in math. In the case of boys, only 17.1% of them have a higher self-efficiency in Spanish language versus a 37.8% in math. From these outcomes, it can be concluded that the general beliefs of boys and girls are kept also in learners that do not show any preference between Spanish language and math. In this group, it is also observed that 16.2% of the girls without preference are more worried about math and 12.6% about Spanish language, while 11.6% of the boys have higher anxiety about math versus 20.1% in Spanish language.

B. Relationship Between Teachers' Perception and Students' Beliefs

In order to determine, the teachers' consciousness of students' self-perceived efficacy in math and the perceived usefulness of math, teachers answered T6 (*I think my students understand the usefulness of mathematics*) and T7 (*I have noticed that girls think they are worse than boys in mathematics*).

Almost 50% of teachers consider that their students "very often" (41.13%) or "always" (9.93%) understand the usefulness of mathematics. However, almost 85% of students admit that they do very often (27.7%) or always (56.7%). It seems there may be a disconnection between students' and teachers' perceptions. However, the question posed to the students does not ask if they believe mathematics is useful, but rather if they understand what they are useful for; this nuance may be the cause of the disconnection. Teachers' perception is likely related to the fact that mathematics is more often tied to negative emotions like test anxiety rather than positive ones like the enjoyment of the subject. In fact, Muis *et al.* [49] recommended that teachers highlight the importance and usefulness of mathematics in order to help students' positive activating emotions.

Moreover, more than 50% of teachers think that girls "never" consider themselves worse than boys in mathematics when only 54.9% of the girls consider themselves very often or always good in mathematics as opposed to 71.5% of the boys. This means a gender difference of 16.6% that increases to 21.3% when focused on the second and third stages. The

471 present result shows that teachers are mostly unaware of gen- 527
472 der differences disadvantaging female students in children's 528
473 self-perceived efficacy in mathematics. 529

474 IV. DISCUSSION

475 Having found significant differences among primary school 530
476 students in the previous section, this section highlights the 531
477 implication of these quantitative results on the choice of sub- 532
478 sequent studies and the potential effect on women's interest in 533
479 STEM studies. 534

480 Mathematics has been chosen as the main subject to be 535
481 analyzed, as it is the one most related to engineering stud- 536
482 ies throughout the Spanish Primary School Curriculum. Other 537
483 subjects, such as natural science, contain relevant sections 538
484 at certain levels (e.g., electricity in the last two courses 539
485 of primary school) but are overall less related. The present 540
486 study analyzes three factors identified in the literature as 541
487 influencing the learning of mathematical concepts: 1) per- 542
488 ceived usefulness of math; 2) self-perceived efficacy; and 543
489 3) test anxiety in math. Spanish language is also ana- 544
490 lyzed in order to compare tendencies between "engineering- 545
491 related subjects" and "nonengineering-related subjects." First, 546
492 looking into students' preferences, it can be observed that 547
493 from the second stage on, on average, boys prefer math 548
494 to Spanish language, whereas girls prefer Spanish language 549
495 to math, and there is a significant difference between gen- 550
496 ders. In contrast, no difference between genders nor stage is 551
497 observed in their preference for natural sciences versus social 552
498 sciences. 553

499 Second, students' perceived usefulness of math was ana- 554
500 lyzed through the statement *I understand what math is use-* 555
501 *ful for*. No gender differences were observed (Fig. 3 and 556
502 Table IV). Throughout primary school, both girls and boys 557
503 perceive math as very useful. However, teachers' perception of 558
504 students' understanding underestimated students' ratings. This 559
505 mismatch may be due to students usually exhibiting negative 560
506 emotions as test anxiety toward mathematics. 561

507 Third, the statements *I am good at math* and *I am good* 562
508 *at Spanish language* allowed an investigation of the self- 563
509 perceived efficacy of children in math and Spanish language 564
510 (Fig. 4 and Table V). Notable findings include that from the 565
511 second stage on, boys have a better self-perception than girls in 566
512 math, whereas girls have a better self-perception in Spanish 567
513 language. The trend becomes more pronounced as students 568
514 grow up, i.e., girls rate themselves significantly lower in math 569
515 in the third stage than in the second stage, and boys behave 570
516 similarly for Spanish language. These results are consistent 571
517 with precedent works that establish using explicit measures 572
518 that during primary school girls rate themselves lower than 573
519 boys in math [51] but not in reading or writing [52]. Besides, 574
520 a study with Singaporean primary-school students (math 575
521 achievements of students in Singapore is outstanding without 576
522 significant differences between genders) found higher implicit 577
523 math self-concept in boys than girls [53]. Their findings sug- 578
524 gest that even before young children's math achievement 579
525 becomes affected, their understanding of themselves in relation 580
526 to math is already beginning to be affected by sociocultural 581

factors or stereotypical behaviors that may be prevalent in their 527
community (i.e., gender differences in math self-concepts). 528

529 In addition, the results of the survey show that there is a cor- 530
531 relation between children self-perceived efficacy in a specific 532
533 domain (math or Spanish language) and children preferences 534
535 for that domain with respect to other domains; i.e., if a child 536
537 considers her or himself good at mathematics and not so good 538
539 at Spanish language, then that child will likely prefer math 540
541 to Spanish language. Besides, girls prefer Spanish language 542
543 to math while boys prefer math to Spanish language (see 544
545 Section III-A1 for more details). 546

547 Regarding teachers' perception on students' self-perceived- 548
549 efficacy in mathematics, they apparently do not perceive such 549
550 large gender differences. It has been shown that gender stereo- 551
552 types in students' ability in mathematics exist in teachers 553
554 even for very young students [13], and these are maintained 554
555 throughout the education system with similar stereotypes held 556
557 by high school teachers [54]. This stereotype is also present 558
559 in their students, as 54.9% of the girls versus 71.5% of the 560
561 boys consider themselves good in math always or "almost 562
563 always." This difference increases to 21.3% at the ages from 564
565 8 to 10 years old. However, the results of this work show 566
567 that teachers are not explicitly aware of their female stu- 568
569 dents' lack of confidence, with more than 50% of the teachers 569
570 believing that girls never consider themselves worse than their 571
571 male colleagues. This result may also imply that teachers 572
572 are not self-aware of their own stereotypes or the influ- 573
573 ence they have on their students. The disconnection between 574
574 teachers' views of students and students' self-perception is 575
575 potentially due to the fact that exam results show no signifi- 576
576 cant difference in math performance between male and female 577
577 students [37], [55]. 578

579 Teachers' opinions of individual students also have an influ- 580
581 ence over those pupils. Rosenthal and Jacobson [34] showed 581
582 that when teachers believe a student will show a strong 582
583 intellectual development that student's performance increases 583
584 highly irrespectively of her or his actual previous skills, espe- 584
585 cially in the early primary school years. The same study also 585
586 showed that for those students, female pupils showed higher 586
587 development in reasoning and male in verbal skills, the areas 587
588 most affected by stereotypes. 588

589 Finally, gender differences also arise regarding test anxiety 589
590 (Fig. 5 and Table VII). There is a significant difference in 590
591 self-reported anxiety in math exams between boys and girls, 591
592 with girls reporting higher anxiety scores. Interestingly, this 592
593 trend is not found in Spanish language exams, where there is 593
594 no significant effect of gender in self-reported anxiety for the 594
595 first, second, and third stages. Additionally, self-reported test 595
596 anxiety increases as students progress through primary school, 596
597 particularly in the third stage with respect to the other two. 597
598 Anxiety has been argued to be a mediating variable of stereo- 598
599 type threat. The stereotype threat theory (STT) [56] states 599
600 that if negative stereotypes are present regarding a specific 600
601 group, group members are likely to become anxious about 601
602 their performance, which may hinder their ability to perform 602
603 to their full potential. Stereotype threat has been found to 603
604 be a contributing factor to longstanding racial and gender 604
605 gaps in academic performance [57]. It has been extensively 605

studied [58] and has been found not only in the laboratory but also in classroom settings [59]. Strong math-gender stereotypes have been found to correlate with stronger math self-concepts for boys and weaker math self-concepts for girls [53]. As stated, teachers have shown stereotypes toward gender in numerous occasions [13], [36]. Therefore, for girls, the development of a math self-concept that supports high math achievement may require opposing the effects of having acquired the societally stereotypical connection between math and boys [60]. Once stereotypes are internalized, students may begin to devalue particular school subjects; not because they have experienced difficulties with those subjects in the past, but because the stereotypes connote that they may experience difficulties in the future [61]. If explicit perceptions of academic discipline are at odds with one's identity they discourage students from choosing and identifying themselves with the field [62], [63]. Even if young girls excel in primary-school mathematics, as in Singapore, the stereotype that math is for boys might bias girls not to pursue mathematics in the long run, affecting girls educational interests and career choices in the future [45], [64], [65] and contributing to female underrepresentation in STEM fields.

There are many outreach activities for high-school students, such as Girls' Day [7] or Technovation Challenge [66], which have been running during more than ten years without strong effects. Findings support that girls become less interested in STEM topics when they move from the primary to secondary school [67], and that teachers have a stronger influence over their students in the younger years [34]. The effect of teachers paired with their implicit stereotypes and the unawareness of girls' self-perceptions indicates a potential area for development. It is strongly suggested that changing teachers' perceptions of students' and girls' mathematical ability will lead to an increase in females' self-perception in this subject. Moreover, these facts together with the present study imply that interventions should focus on changing teachers' and students' beliefs and attitudes about math in primary school stages, when interventions may be most effective due to the malleability of stereotypes and students' emerging self-concepts [53].

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE ACTIONS

The lack of women's presence in STEM studies is a global problem, receiving considerable attention in the last years. Recent studies have shown that girls become less interested than boys in STEM topics during adolescence; therefore, this work has analyzed through a large-scale study comprising more than 2100 students, 212 teachers, and a total of 17520 answers, gender differences that may arise during early stages of education (i.e., throughout primary school). Math subject is the main focus of the study since it has been identified in the literature as highly correlated with the lack of female students in STEM university degrees. Gender and educational stage's influence in math perception are analyzed, in terms of perceived usefulness, preference with respect to another subject, self-perceived efficacy, and test anxiety.

Whenever appropriate, these aspects are compared to similar perceptions for Spanish language subject in order to have a relative measure as opposed to an absolute one.

Results show remarkable differences between genders, with girls presenting a lower perceived self-perceived efficacy in math than boys and significantly higher test anxiety. These trends increase along educational stages as students grow up.

These findings suggest that girls are less likely to experience positive activating emotions during the mathematics learning process at primary school, often due to their teachers' unintended influence. This early childhood experience may affect girls' attitude toward mathematics at the high school level, increasing the anxiety levels in many girls. Consequently, it is more likely for them to avoid studies with mathematical requirements, such as STEM degrees. Primary-school teachers are not aware of this situation or of their implicit bias, so it cannot be expected that they accomplish actions to reverse the situation. Potential unawareness of the teachers can lead to difficulties in reversing this issue.

From these findings, the following recommendations in order to promote more women in STEM emerge. It is necessary, particularly during the early stages of education (i.e., primary school) to:

- 1) work on teachers' awareness of girls' lack of self-confidence toward mathematics;
- 2) accomplish actions in order for students, especially girls, to experience positive activating emotions toward mathematics;
- 3) give explicit messages about the value of mathematics in a real-world context.

To summarize, it is essential to make teachers aware of the problem and of their actions very powerful effects, and how they may influence students' beliefs. Schools have to actively promote gender balance in all areas, making all stakeholders work in the same direction. The authors will continue organizing and promoting "A Female Engineer in Every School," as it is an activity that can help close the gender gap in STEM.

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