# IS THERE A GENDER GAP IN COLLEGE ACADEMIC SUCCESS? 

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#### Abstract

The purpose of this research is to detect whether gender is a meaningful predictor of academic success. In other words, is there a gender gap in college achievement? The Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS) surveyed around 22,500 students at the end of their first year, and then three and six years after first starting their postsecondary education. Together with linear regression models, we measure the impact of gender on the two variables used to quantify student success: the number of courses failed, and, overall GPA, controlling for student and institution characteristics. Based on previous literature, gender is expected to account for a percentage of academic success, the value of that percentage changing between studies.


## Introduction

Gender differences are present in many aspects of our daily life, sexes think differently, and it impacts the way they act and perform. This paper focuses on the education field, and it aims to see just how much of an impact gender has on academic success, specifically college students. Understanding how grades and other measures of achievement change between both sexes is extremely important since it allows for better design of evaluation policies that capture both the male and the female strengths.

## Literature review

Gender plays a role when it comes to academic success, and (Bahar, 2010) sought to understand just how much of it is predicted by sex, social support, and socioeconomic status and discovered that gender and family support represent $15 \%$ of academic success.

According to previous research male students outperform females in IQ and other performance tests, such as the college entrance exams, however, female students show throughout the different education levels, consistently higher grades (Pomerantz, 2002; Wei-Cheng, 2001). This is mostly due to non-cognitive variables mainly a higher level of motivation, commitment (Rodriguez, 2016; Sheard, 2009), work ethics (Mikk, 2012), and self-discipline (Duckworth, 2006) of female students compared to their male counterparts (Hicks, 2008). "Women spend more time studying, attending class, engaging in extracurricular activities and discussing academics outside of class, the less academically engaged behavior of men may contribute to a lower GPA" (Kahn, 2011, pg. 66). Johnson W. (2008) found that even if with higher results on tests, men are more volatile, bring overrepresented in both the top and the bottom of the grid. Men have been underperforming in academics at the college level, they have a higher risk of being on academic probation and a higher probability of being suspended from college for academic reasons (Kahn, 2011).

Due to girls being more vulnerable to internal distress, they tend to perform worse on tests, but with higher commitment perform better on assignments. In a Turkish research case, even though a smaller number of women enter university and with lower rates, once they enter, they excel and outperform male students (Dayioğlu, 2007). However even achieving higher grades, female students are less likely to obtain a prestigious degree (McNabb, 2002). Zhang found that female college students do not outperform male students due to their ability, family background, or other student characteristics, but simply by putting in more effort (2011).

## Data

This paper expands on previous research by utilizing a national survey to corroborate previous findings. The dataset used to answer the research question is the Beginning Postsecondary Students Survey (BPS), which surveyed the same population of students between the years of 2012, 2014, and 2017. This questionnaire was conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (IES-NCES). This specific survey includes 22,500 students, which were questioned at the end of the respondent's first year of post-secondary education and then again at the end of their third and sixth year. The National Institute of Statistics makes certain to select a random sample of students from all over the nation to better represent the population of American postsecondary school students. A total of 1386 institutions were sampled from the 50 American states. Full details of the sample and the sampling procedures can be accessed through the IES-NCES DataLab. The sample was weighted to adjust for sampling error.

For a better understanding of what the sample looks like, it was below provided in Table I and Table II the summary statistics of some of the most relevant variables, according to the present research question. The variables were separated into continuous or categorical, where Table I focuses on continuous and Table II on categorical.

From Table I, we learn how each variable is measured, from the Minimum and Maximum columns, but we are also told the sample average and the correspondent standard deviation. Grade Point Average (GPA), has a 0 to 4 scale, with 4 being the best possible grade, and in this case, the sample presets an average of 2.68 . Courses failed, on the other hand, does not have a predefined scale, but it also starts at the zero courses failed during college studies and, has a maximum of 29, averaging to 1.61 failed courses per student. We can also deduce that the youngest person to attend college of the 22,500 is only 15 years old, while the oldest is 75 , but on average respondents are 21 years old. The table also presents information on high school test scores, so we have a measure of the student's success before entering university, we have data on income, the number of jobs worked by the student between 2014 and 2017, and how much each student spent on total college expenses (tuition, fees, housing, textbooks) for the academic 2011-12 year.

Table I - Continuous summary data characteristics

| VARIABLES | Min | Max | Average | Sta. Dev |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| GPA | 0.1 | 4 | 2.68 | 0.89 |
| Courses Failed | 0 | 29 | 1.61 | 3 |
| Age | 15 | 75 | 20.54 | 5.95 |
| ACT | 6 | 36 | 21.74 | 5.1 |
| Gross Income | 100 | 1000000 | 66682 | 69977 |
| Student Budget | 2204 | 123700 | 20478 | 14351 |
| Number of Jobs | 0 | 11 | 1.79 | 0.99 |

Table II - Categorical summary data characteristics

| VARIABLES | PERCENTAGE |
| :---: | :---: |
| Gender |  |
| Male | 43.5\% |
| Female | 56.5\% |
| Degree of Urbanization |  |
| City | 53.9\% |
| Suburb | 23.8\% |
| Town | 12.1\% |
| Rural | 10.2\% |
| Selectivity of Instittution |  |
| Very Selective | 15.9\% |
| Moderatly Selective | 20.9\% |
| Minimally Selective | 10.2\% |
| Open Admission | 11.5\% |
| Not 4-year institution | 41.5\% |
| Attended Institution in State |  |
| Yes | 81.2\% |
| No | 17.6\% |
| International | 1.2\% |
| Highest Degree Obtained (2017) |  |
| Certificate | 7.0\% |
| Associates's Degree | 8.7\% |
| Bachelor | 28.5\% |
| Masters | 15.8\% |
| Doctoral | 0.1\% |
| No degree | 53.6\% |
| Region |  |
| Northeast | 20.8\% |
| Midwest | 21.9\% |
| South | 37.4\% |
| West | 19.9\% |

Table II focuses on the summary statistics for the full dataset for the categorical variables. It includes information on what percentage of the total population fits into each of the categories. We can see there are more women than men in higher education with females accounting for $56.5 \%$ of the total population. Most of the institutions are located in an urban setting, only $10 \%$ being in a rural area. Most of these schools., however, are not 4-year institutions (41.5\%), and only $15.9 \%$ can be considered very selective universities. While the majority of the students attend university in the same state as their legal residence (81.2\%), there are a few out-of-
state students (17.6\%). From Table II we can also see that only around half the students achieved some sort of certificate or diploma by the end of the period, most commonly a bachelor's degree ( $28.5 \%$ ). When it comes to the origin of respondents, there is a good distribution between the main four regions of the continental US.

Table III - Continuous summary characteristics per gender

|  | Undergraduate <br> GPA | Number of <br> courses failed | Age as of <br> $12 / 31 / 2011$ | ACT score | Gross <br> Income | Number of jobs <br> $(2014-2017)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | 2.7 | 1.6 | 20.5 | 21.7 | $62,045.6$ | 1.6 |
| Gender |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | 2.6 | 1.8 | 20.6 | 22.2 | $64,916.6$ | 1.5 |
| Female | 2.8 | 1.5 | 20.5 | 21.4 | $59,836.1$ | 1.6 |

Moving onto the second set of tables, where the same relevant variables are presented, but this time divided by gender, it is clear that while females have higher grade point averages and fail fewer courses, males have higher ACT test scores, just as the literature suggested. The women were also slightly younger than their male counterparts and even though they worked more jobs, they had a lower income.

Table IV demonstrates how the genders are divided into each of the categories of the dummy variables. It is visible, how even though for those who did not get a degree, women took the lead, but when we continue to the diplomas attained in all of them females came first. For the subsequent variables, the results are very similar to the overall division between men and women, surrounding $43 \%$ for men and $56 \%$ for women.

Table IV - Categorical data characteristics per gender

|  | MALE | FEMALE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (\%) | (\%) |
| Total | 43.49 | 56.51 |
| Highest degree attained (2017) |  |  |
| No degree | 47.54 | 52.46 |
| Certificate | 33.49 | 66.51 |
| Associate's degree | 44.37 | 55.63 |
| Bachelor's degree | 40.71 | 59.29 |
| Attend institution in state |  |  |
| Yes | 43.42 | 56.58 |
| No | 43.76 | 56.24 |
| International student | 44.66 | 55.34 |
| Selectivity of institution |  |  |
| Not 4-year institution | 43.43 | 56.57 |
| Very selective | 45.88 | 54.12 |
| Moderately selective | 43.06 | 56.94 |
| Minimally selective | 42.74 | 57.26 |
| Open admission | 41.87 | 58.13 |
| Region of first institution 2011-12 |  |  |
| Northeast | 43.81 | 56.19 |
| Midwest | 44.58 | 55.42 |
| South | 41.89 | 58.11 |
| West | 44.96 | 55.04 |
| Degree of urbanization 2011-12 |  |  |
| City | 42.06 | 57.94 |
| Suburb | 44.43 | 55.57 |
| Town | 44.16 | 55.84 |
| Rural | 48.11 | 51.89 |

## Method

Model 1 \& 3:

$$
y=\beta 0+\beta \text { male }+u
$$

Model 2 \& 4:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y=\beta 0+\beta 1 & \text { male }+\beta 2 \text { ACT score }+\beta 3 \text { major }+\beta 4 \text { age }+\beta 5 \text { attendance intensity } \\
& +\beta 6 \text { all jobs }+\beta 7 \text { school level of selectivity } \\
& +\beta 8 \text { highest level of parents education } \\
& +\beta 9 \text { attends school in stste of legal residence }+u
\end{aligned}
$$

Outcome Variables:

$$
y=\text { college GPA \& number of courses failed }
$$

Undergraduate GPA at all known institutions indicates the cumulative undergraduate GPA at all attended institutions as of June 2017 and is measured as a continuous variable. Excluding missing values, skipped values for the respondents for whom it was not applicable, and zero values we are left with 90.46 percent of the respondents. The other variable used to measure student success is the Number of known courses failed. For this variable, from the pool of respondents were dropped $1.06 \%$ where values were missing.

For both variables duplicate course records, created by the transfer of credits to one or more additional institutions, are only counted once. Courses that are a part of a graduate program as well as courses that end after June 2017 have also been excluded from the calculation.

In this model, the independent variable is gender, obtained from the base year student interview. There are no missing values, and there are only two options 1 for male and 2 for female. Leaving us with $43.49 \%$ male students and $56.51 \%$ female students.

When it comes to control variables, to account for high school success the ACT composite score was used. The ACT composite score was derived either from an ACT score report or the SAT I combined score converted to an estimated ACT score. These values come from the College Board. Given that $22.57 \%$ of respondents skipped the question only $77.43 \%$ of respondents are being used. To separate fields of study, the variable used is the major enrolled in, in 2017. The majors were divided into 10 categories, leaving out options for the undecided $8 \%$ and the not applicable 4.8\%. Age was measured as a continuous variable as of $12 / 31 / 2011$, from the 2012 FAFSA application, $100 \%$ of students are included. Because how they participate in school may affect someone's grades, a control variable for attendance intensity was used, where the base value is those who attend full-time. There is also a control for the number of jobs worked during the 6 years since working is time and energy-consuming and may, once again, affect the student's academic performance. To account for differences in institutions, the level of selectivity was included, a dummy variable that separates institutions by three levels of selectivity, open admission or not a 4-year institution. It might be harder to get higher grades in very selective institutions, especially when compared to 2 -year colleges. Another variable represented was the parents' highest level of education. And the final variable of the model is whether the student is attending school in his state of legal residence or not, being dislocated not only presents itself as a monetary challenge but also mentally, from being without parental support.

## Results

Table V - Linear Regression models

|  | Model (1) | Model (2) | Model (3) | Model (4) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| VARIABLES | GPA | GPA | COURSES FAILED | COURSES FAILED |
| Male | -0.2044*** | -0.1855*** | 0.3106*** | 0.3687*** |
|  | (0.0351) | (0.0371) | (0.0896) | (0.0944) |
| ACT | no | yes | no | yes |
| Major | no | yes | no | yes |
| Age | no | yes | no | yes |
| Intensity | no | yes | no | yes |
| All jobs | no | yes | no | yes |
| Level of selectivity | no | yes | no | yes |
| Parents education | no | yes | no | yes |
| In state | no | yes | no | yes |
| Intercept | 2.7848*** | 0.7408** | 1.4801*** | 6.0285*** |
|  | (0.0238) | $(0.3381)$ | $(0.0465)$ | (0.7604) |
| Observations | 23500 | 12000 | 24600 | 12300 |
| R-squared | 0.0108 | 0.2654 | 0.0035 | 0.0808 |
| Standard errors in brackets |  |  |  |  |
| ***p<0.01,**p<0.05, *p<0.1 |  |  |  |  |

As discussed previously, the model analyzes the impact of gender on academic achievement for college students throughout the country. In Table V, these results are explicit, with models 1 and 2, having GPA as their dependent variable and models 3 and 4 having the number of courses failed as their output. While models 2 and 4 include a series of control variables, models 1 and 3 serve as a base, where the controls were not included. The base models were included in this group of linear regressions, so to present a simple picture of whether or not sex has any impact on college success. As we can see, in both models 1 and 3, there is a relationship between the dependent and the independent variable. In model 1, being a male decreases someone's GPA by -0.2, and this result is statistically significant at the $99 \%$ level, rejecting the null that sex has no impact on college grades. In model 3, where
we are measuring the impact of being male on the expected number of courses failed during postsecondary studies, we discover that being of male gender increases courses failed by 0.31 . Once again, this result is statistically significant at the $99 \%$ level of confidence, and we reject the null.

For models 2 and 4, the control variables were included in the regressions. Given that, there were no major changes between the male coefficients once we included the controls and given that the $99 \%$ level of confidence was always maintained, we can say these results are robust.

While model 1 has an R-squared of only $1 \%$, as we add the several control variables this number goes up to $26.5 \%$. This means the variables included in the model account for $26.5 \%$ of the total causes of changes in GPA. For models 3 and 4, even after adding the list of controls, R-squared stayed below the $1 \%$ of changes in the number of courses failed.

A low R-squared, tells us there are other variables out there that impact student success and unfortunately many of those are not measurable or not asked in the questionnaire. For example, life events, such as health issues, for the student or their families, divorce, and financial restraints. All these situations may lead the student to fail a course or to get lower grades. While these omitted variables are related to the $y$ variable because people cannot choose their gender, sex is randomly assigned, there are no variables correlated with it and with the outcome at the same time, and therefore no omitted variable bias.

A limitation of the present study is the lack of a different measure of academic success. Having access to a variable, such as "made the dean's list", would have been beneficial, to ensure the results spread throughout different measures and not only in the two accounted for.

## Conclusion

Overall, the results are congruent with the literature reviewed, in the sense that, women do have higher grades, and they do fail fewer courses in college. While females perform better in assignments and with continuous evaluation methods, male students do better in test taking. Unlike, the literature, this paper used a national, randomly sampled dataset from the National Center for Education Statistics for students starting their postsecondary studies. Being a male harms GPA and it increases the number of courses failed. We conclude, that there is a slight gender gap in college academic success at the national level.

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