## DISCUSSION PAPER SERIES

## DP15497

## PARENTAL GENDER STEREOTYPES

 AND STUDENT WELLBEING IN CHINAShuai Chu, Xiangquan Zeng and Klaus F. Zimmermann

LABOUR ECONOMICS

# PARENTAL GENDER STEREOTYPES AND STUDENT WELLBEING IN CHINA 

Shuai Chu, Xiangquan Zeng and Klaus F. Zimmermann<br>Discussion Paper DP15497<br>Published 26 November 2020<br>Submitted 26 November 2020<br>Centre for Economic Policy Research<br>33 Great Sutton Street, London EC1V 0DX, UK<br>Tel: +44 (0)20 71838801<br>www.cepr.org

This Discussion Paper is issued under the auspices of the Centre's research programmes:

- Labour Economics

Any opinions expressed here are those of the author(s) and not those of the Centre for Economic Policy Research. Research disseminated by CEPR may include views on policy, but the Centre itself takes no institutional policy positions.

The Centre for Economic Policy Research was established in 1983 as an educational charity, to promote independent analysis and public discussion of open economies and the relations among them. It is pluralist and non-partisan, bringing economic research to bear on the analysis of medium- and long-run policy questions.

These Discussion Papers often represent preliminary or incomplete work, circulated to encourage discussion and comment. Citation and use of such a paper should take account of its provisional character.

Copyright: Shuai Chu, Xiangquan Zeng and Klaus F. Zimmermann

# PARENTAL GENDER STEREOTYPES AND STUDENT WELLBEING IN CHINA 


#### Abstract

Non-cognitive abilities are supposed to affect student's educational performance, who are challenged by parental expectations and norms. Parental gender stereotypes are shown to strongly decrease student wellbeing in China. Students are strongly more depressed, feeling blue, unhappy, not enjoying life and sad with no male-female differences while parental education does not matter.


JEL Classification: I12, I26, I31, J16
Keywords: gender identity, gender stereotypes, student wellbeing, non-cognitive abilities, mental health, subjective wellbeing

Shuai Chu - chushuai1993@126.com
Renmin University of China and GLO
Xiangquan Zeng - zengxq@ruc.edu.cn
Renmin University of China and GLO
Klaus F. Zimmermann - klaus.f.zimmermann@gmail.com
Global Labor Organization (GLO), UNU-MERIT \& Maastricht University, Bonn University and CEPR

# Parental Gender Stereotypes and Student Wellbeing in China* 

Shuai Chu<br>Xiangquan Zeng<br>Klaus F. Zimmermann

November 17, 2020


#### Abstract

Non-cognitive abilities are supposed to affect student's educational performance, who are challenged by parental expectations and norms. Parental gender stereotypes are shown to strongly decrease student wellbeing in China. Students are strongly more depressed, feeling blue, unhappy, not enjoying life and sad with no male-female differences while parental education does not matter.


Keywords: Gender identity, gender stereotypes, student wellbeing, non-cognitive abilities, mental health, subjective wellbeing

JEL-Codes: I12, I26, I31, J16

[^0]
## 1. Introduction

Whether subjective wellbeing (SWB) is affected by gender is debatable and previous findings in the literature have been inconclusive (Batz and Tay, 2018; Nikolova and Graham, 2020). Studies found stronger or lower effects for females or even no differences when properly controlled for relevant other factors. This may have to do with the observation that the evidence for genetic differences is weak and the observed associations have to be understood in complex and diverse social contexts. This points to the relevance of identities, attitudes, norms and stereotypes, which have been the concern of significant recent literature in economics (Akerlof and Kranton, 2000; Alesina, Giuliano and Nunn, 2013; Carlana, 2019; Bursztyn, González and Yanagizawa-Drott, 2020). Gender stereotypes may cause gender differences in SWB when the generated pressures lead men and women to actually feel and express their emotions differently (Nolen-Hoeksema \& Rusting, 2003). Education seems to shape the way how more egalitarian gender role attitudes and behaviors are developing (Du, Xiao and Zhao, 2020).

Our contribution to this debate is to focus on the intergenerational association that parental gender stereotypes may show for the SWB of their children and how this transfer is associated to parental education. Those stereotypes can associate with SWB even if there are no gender differences. We study the role parental gender stereotypes and parental education have for student SWB in China using the largest national education survey. While we find that parental gender stereotypes are not gender-specific for student wellbeing as well as gender differences are irrelevant in general, they indeed show a strong and lower student wellbeing. Parental stereotypes could undermine girls' self-confidence and make them more prone to anxiety and other mental health issues. For boys, stronger stereotypes may indicate higher expectations and pressures, which also generate negative emotions. Also parental human capital has no association with offspring wellbeing.

## 2. Data

Data from the 2014 China Education Panel Survey (CEPS), the first and largest national representative education survey, are used. The survey covers middle schools from the 28 counties and city districts using a stratified sampling design, in which four middle schools and four classrooms in each school were selected to represent a given county or urban area. The data were collected in two samples, the mother sample (5,364 students) and the father sample (5,073 students) with a total
of 10,437 students, among them 5,407 girls. Each sample (father/mother) consists of a student and a parent questionnaire. Students covered are 11-18 years old.

The student questionnaires report the following feelings in the last seven days in the range " 1 = never", "2 = seldom", " 3 = sometimes", "4 = often" and " 5 = always": "depressed", "feeling blue", "unhappy", "not enjoying life", and "sad". They cluster around "2 = seldom" and are ranking with respect to misery as "unhappy", "depressed", "sad", "feeling blue" and "not enjoying life" for both mother and father samples. A detailed analysis is provided in Table 1. Girls in both samples have mostly a smaller mean than boys, but the differences are very small. Table 1 (last panel "sample differences") also reveals that the mother and the father sample do not differ according to the provided difference t-tests.

The two key variables we focus our investigation on are parental gender stereotypes and parental education controlling for a larger number of student and parental characteristics. The parent questionnaires contain responses on "Do you think boys are better at learning mathematics than girls?" ( $1=y e s$; $0=n o$ ). We treat "yes" as parental gender stereotype. Further, we use "years of schooling" to measure education of either the father or the mother according to the following rules: " 0 = no education", "6 = primary school", "9 = middle school", "12 = high school", "15 = college", "16 = undergraduate", and "19 = graduate". Father and mother samples contain educational information for both father and mother of the student, parental gender stereotype is only available for the parent of the respective sample.

Parental gender stereotypes are somewhat but not markedly different between mothers and fathers. Details can be seen in Table 2 in the first rows of Panel A: Mother sample and Panel B: Father sample: $25.6 \%$ of the mothers but only $24.3 \%$ of the fathers have the stereotype. This difference disappears if the student is a boy ( $27.8 \%$ for mothers against $27.5 \%$ for fathers), but is more marked if the child is a girl ( $23.8 \%$ for mothers against 20.9 for fathers). The stereotype is more present among parents with a male child than with a female child; it is also more present among mothers with a girl than among fathers with a girl. However, the differences between the mother and father samples are small.

Years of schooling is available in both (mother and father) samples, and can be compared for consistency (second and seven rows in both Panels of Table 2). In the mother sample, the mother has 10.1 years of schooling and the father has 10.4 years of schooling; in the father sample, the mother has 8.7 years of schooling and the father has 10.0 years of schooling. The schooling levels appear to be only marginally different for child gender within the four parent groups. Further, occupation (see Table 2) is available for both parents in both (mother and father) samples. Again, the variable means
between fathers (and mothers) in both samples are of similar size. Here, occupation is measured as occupational rank with values " $0=$ parent has no occupation", " 1 = parent engaged in skilled work, general workers in manufacturing or service industries and farmers", " $2=$ parents engaged as teachers, engineers, doctors, lawyers and with individual business activities", and " 3 = parents engaged in leadership or management positions". With respect to "years of schooling" and "occupation", the two samples (mother and father) are very similar.

Non-overlapping further controls for parents in both samples are "age" of the parent, his/her hukou ("1 = yes"), and his/her "health" sorted from 1-5 with " $1=$ very unhealthy" to " 5 = very healthy". This data is only available for fathers in the father sample and for mothers in the mother sample, but may be important for control purposes. Further controls are available and used at the student level. They include "gender" of the student ("1 = girl"; 0 otherwise), hukou ("1 = yes"; 0 otherwise), academic ranking in primary school ("rank number"), "has attended kindergarten" ("1 = yes"; 0 otherwise), "age" in years, "age when starting primary school" in years, and family's "financial situation " 0 = receive subsistence allowance at present "; 1 otherwise). In general, when family receive subsistence allowance at present, the financial situation is poor. Descriptive statistics on all these variables are provided in Table 2. The student controls in the two samples have very similar means; the exceptions are gender ( $55.3 \%$ girls in the mother sample against $48.1 \%$ in the father sample) and hukou ( $51.6 \%$ in the mother sample against $60.6 \%$ in the father sample).

## 3. Model specification and regression results

The student wellbeing measures Y ("depressed", "feeling blue", "unhappy", "not enjoying life", and "sad") are explained by a set of parental and student characteristics as explained in the previous section and listed in Table 2. Since the focus is on parental gender stereotypes and education, the other variables are just seen as controls and are not further presented and discussed in the sequel. For the analysis the two (father and mother) samples were merged resulting in a full sample size of 6,962 observations where all the variables were observed. The dummy regression specification is developed in a way to allow for direct tests for differences between the two samples and between child gender and their interactions in one regression for each wellbeing measure. The regression specification is:

$$
\begin{align*}
y= & \alpha+\mathrm{a}_{1} \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{a}_{2} \mathrm{G}+\mathrm{a}_{3}(\mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G})+b_{1} \mathrm{~S}+b_{2}(\mathrm{~S} \cdot \mathrm{M})+b_{3}(\mathrm{~S} \cdot \mathrm{G})+\mathrm{c}(\mathrm{~S} \cdot \mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G})+ \\
& d_{1} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}}+d_{2}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}} \cdot \mathrm{M}\right)+d_{3}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}} \cdot \mathrm{G}\right)+d_{4}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}} \cdot \mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G}\right)+d_{5} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}}+d_{6}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}} \cdot \mathrm{M}\right)+  \tag{1}\\
& d_{7}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}} \cdot \mathrm{G}\right)+d_{8}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}} \cdot \mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G}\right)+\mathrm{e}_{1} \mathrm{X}+e_{2}(\mathrm{X} \cdot \mathrm{M})+e_{3}(\mathrm{X} \cdot \mathrm{G})+e_{4}(\mathrm{X} \cdot \mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G})+ \\
& \mathrm{g}_{1} \mathrm{Z}+\mathrm{g}_{2}(\mathrm{Z} \cdot \mathrm{M})+\mathrm{g}_{3}(\mathrm{Z} \cdot \mathrm{G})+\mathrm{g}_{4}(\mathrm{Z} \cdot \mathrm{M} \cdot \mathrm{G})+\varepsilon
\end{align*}
$$

M and G are $(0,1)$ - dummies where M stands for mother sample and G for girl student; S are parental gender stereotypes (either mother or father where available), $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}}$ and $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}}$ are father and mother years of schooling; further as controls: X are other parental characteristics and Z are other student characteristics. $\alpha$ is the intercept, and $\varepsilon$ is the error term.

Results for the five measures of wellbeing are presented in Table 3. The parameter estimates for $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{G}$, and $\mathrm{M} * \mathrm{G}$ are all insignificant with the exception of $\mathrm{M}^{*} \mathrm{G}$ for "sad", implying no overall average differences between the father and the mother samples, and with respect to gender differences among the students. Only girls in the mother sample feel on average statistically significantly more sad. Education of both parents ( $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}}$ and $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}}$ ) have no impact on child wellbeing; this is a very robust finding. Not only the direct overall effect parameters of $E_{f}$ and $E_{m}$ are not statistically different from zero, there are also no significant differences across the examined subgroups. These observations and exceptions are worth mentioning: The estimated direct common parameters for $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}}$ (mother's education) for boys and girls are all negative (besides for "feeling blue") and significantly negative at the $10 \%$ level for "sad". $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{m}}$ has also a strong and statistically significant negative effect on "feeling blue" among girls. Hence, mother's education has some positive elements for student wellbeing.

The key issue of the study is the expected effect of parent gender stereotype for student-kid wellbeing. In principle, the effects could be gender-different among kids and for both parents. Table 3 allows for a direct test of all these potential differences. The results for the Chinese families the research reveals is surprising simple, sizable, statistically significant and robust: There is only one parental stereotype effect that disapproves all five wellbeing measures in a similar range from strongest for "unhappy" (0.535) to "feeling blue" (0.495),"depressed" (0.444),"not enjoying life" (0.437), and to the smallest "sad" (0.391). In general, there are no parental differences or student gender differences. The only exception is a statistically significant negative parameter estimate for girls in the mother sample indicating a smaller wellbeing damage for this student subgroup.

## 4. Conclusions

Using a large sample for 2014 from the well established China Education Panel Survey, our study investigates the intergenerational association between parental education and gender stereotypes for non-cognitive abilities of the 11-18 years old students. Wellbeing measures collected on a 5 level intensity scale cover the well-defined items "depressed", "feeling blue", "unhappy", "not enjoying life", and "sad". Parental gender stereotypes are shown to strongly decrease student wellbeing in China, but with no relevant gender differences between parents and students. Also parental human capital has no stabilizing effects for offspring wellbeing.

## References

Akerlof, G. A. and Kranton, R. E. (2000). Economics and Identity. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 115 (3): 715-753.

Alesina, A., Giuliano, P. and Nunn, N. (2013). On the Origins of Gender Roles: Women and the Plough. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 128 (2): 469-530.

Batz, C. and Tay, L. (2018). Gender Differences in Subjective Well-being. In: E. Diener, S. Oishi, \& L. Tay (Eds.), Handbook of Well-being. Salt Lake City, UT: DEF Publishers. DOI:nobascholar.com

Bursztyn, L., González, A. L. and Yanagizawa-Drott, D. (2020). Misperceived Social Norms: Women Working Outside the Home in Saudi Arabia. American Economic Review, 110 (10): 29973029.

Carlana, M. (2019). Implicit Stereotypes: Evidence From Teachers' Gender Bias. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 134 (3): 1163-1224.

Du, H., Xiao, Y. and Zhao, L. (2020). Education and Gender Role Attitudes. Journal of Population Eonomics, Online First, https://doi.org/10.1007/s00148-020-00793-3. Forthcoming.

Nikolova, M. and Graham, C. (2020). The Economics of Happiness. GLO Discussion Paper No. 640. Forthcoming: Zimmermann, K. F. (Ed.), Handbook of Labor, Human Resources and Population Economics.

Nolen-Hoeksema, S. and Rusting, C. L. (2003). Gender Differences in Well-being. In: D. Kahneman, D., Diener, E. and Schwarz, N. (Eds.), Well-being: Foundations of Hedonic Psychology. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation, 330-352.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of student well-being

| Mother sample |  |  |  | Father sample |  |  | Sample differences |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Well-being | Full sample (1) | Girl <br> (2) | Boy <br> (3) | Full sample (4) | Girl <br> (5) | Boy <br> (6) | Full sample (7) | Girl <br> (8) | Boy <br> (9) |
| Depressed | $\begin{aligned} & 2.483 \\ & (0.937) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.506 \\ & (0.902) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.454 \\ & (0.979) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.468 \\ & (0.966) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 2.505 \\ & (0.913) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.434 \\ & (1.012) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.014 \\ & (-0.777) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline-0.001 \\ & (-0.04) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.02 \\ & (-0.708) \end{aligned}$ |
| Blue | $\begin{aligned} & 2.215 \\ & (1.045) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.165 \\ & (1.021) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.278 \\ & (1.071) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.236 \\ & (1.068) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.158 \\ & (1.040) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.309 \\ & (1.088) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.021 \\ & (1.017) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.006 \\ & (-0.217) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.031 \\ & (1.003) \end{aligned}$ |
| Unhappy | $\begin{aligned} & 2.534 \\ & (0.979) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.518 \\ & (0.939) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.554 \\ & (1.027) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.553 \\ & (1.012) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.555 \\ & (0.984) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.551 \\ & (1.038) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.018 \\ & (0.946) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.037 \\ & (1.407) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.004 \\ & (-0.125) \end{aligned}$ |
| Not enjoy. life | $\begin{aligned} & 1.940 \\ & (1.108) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1.871 \\ & (1.058) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.026 \\ & (1.162) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1.974 \\ & (1.136) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1.880 \\ & (1.086) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.061 \\ & (1.175) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.033 \\ & (1.513) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.008 \\ & (0.289) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.035 \\ & (1.060) \end{aligned}$ |
| Sad | $\begin{aligned} & 2.267 \\ & (1.011) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.259 \\ & (0.974) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.278 \\ & (1.055) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.293 \\ & (1.041) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.281 \\ & (1.007) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.305 \\ & (1.071) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.026 \\ & (1.294) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.022 \\ & (0.823) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.027 \\ & (0.893) \end{aligned}$ |
| Count | 5,364 | 2,965 | 2,399 | 5,073 | 2,442 | 2,631 | 10,437 | 5,407 | 5,030 |

Note. (1) To measure students' well-being, we use student responses to questionnaire items. Specifically, five questions asked students about the frequency of the following feelings during the previous 7 days on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always): (a) depressed, (b) blue, (c) unhappy, (d) not enjoying life,or (e) sad. (2) This table reports the summary statistics and the difference between the mother sample and father sample in students' well-being. In columns 1 to 6 , the numbers indicate the mean of the variables, and the numbers in parentheses indicate the standard deviation of the variables. In columns 7 to 9 , numbers are differences of variables between both parent samples, and the numbers in parentheses are t-statistics.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of independent variables and control variables

|  |  | Full sample |  | Girl |  | Boy |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Count | Mean/(SD) | Count | Mean/(SD) | Count | Mean/(SD) |
| Panel A: Mother sample |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Parent mother | Stereotype | 5,338 | $0.256 /(0.437)$ | 2,954 | $0.238 /(0.426)$ | 2,384 | $0.278 /(0.448)$ |
|  | Years of schooling | 5,359 | $10.072 /(3.275)$ | 2,962 | $9.990 /(3.239)$ | 2,397 | 10.173/(3.318) |
|  | Age | 4,574 | $39.511 /(4.076)$ | 2,555 | $39.430 /(4.008)$ | 2,019 | 39.614/(4.159) |
|  | Hukou | 5,137 | $0.458 /(0.498)$ | 2,860 | $0.435 /(0.496)$ | 2,277 | $0.487 /(0.500)$ |
|  | Health | 5,210 | $3.814 /(0.908)$ | 2,893 | $3.832 /(0.905)$ | 2,317 | $3.792 /(0.912)$ |
|  | Occupation | 5,039 | $1.333 /(0.800)$ | 2,775 | $1.321 /(0.796)$ | 2,264 | $1.348 /(0.805)$ |
| Parent father | Years of schooling | 5,359 | 10.414 /(3.162 ) | 2,962 | $10.386 /(3.084)$ | 2,397 | 10.449 /(3.256 ) |
|  | Occupation | 5,007 | $1.509 /(0.771)$ | 2,763 | $1.485 /(0.746)$ | 2,244 | $1.538 /(0.801)$ |
| Individual students | Girl | 5,364 | $0.553 /(0.497)$ | 2,965 | -- | 2,399 | -- |
|  | Academic ranking in primary school | 5,018 | $15.837 /(11.864)$ | 2,775 | $14.116 /(11.007)$ | 2,243 | $17.966 /(12.525)$ |
|  | Hukou | 5,364 | 0.516/(0.500 ) | 2,965 | 0.530/(0.499 ) | 2,399 | 0.499 /(0.500 ) |
|  | Age | 5,266 | $13.812 /(1.265)$ | 2,927 | 13.789 /(1.284 ) | 2,339 | 13.840 /(1.240 ) |
|  | Attend kindergarten | 5,321 | $0.818 /(0.386)$ | 2,953 | $0.826 /(0.380)$ | 2,368 | $0.809 /(0.393)$ |
|  | Age when starting primary school | 5,308 | $6.512 /(0.939)$ | 2,940 | $6.512 /(0.916)$ | 2,368 | $6.512 /(0.967)$ |
|  | Family's financial situation | 5,188 | $0.914 /(0.280)$ | 2,868 | $0.917 /(0.276)$ | 2,320 | $0.911 /(0.285)$ |
| Panel B: Father sample |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Parent father | Stereotype | 5,042 | 0.243/(0.429 ) | 2,434 | 0.209/(0.407 ) | 2,608 | 0.275/(0.446 ) |
|  | Years of schooling | 5,070 | 10.015/(2.964) | 2,440 | 10.065/(2.944) | 2,630 | 9.968/(2.982) |
|  | Age | 4,169 | 41.291/(4.723) | 2,093 | 41.312/(4.739) | 2,076 | 41.27/(4.708) |
|  | Hukou | 4,807 | 0.376/(0.484 ) | 2,334 | 0.387/(0.487) | 2,473 | 0.366/(0.482 ) |
|  | Health | 4,913 | 3.825/(0.938) | 2,404 | 3.849/(0.937) | 2,509 | 3.802/(0.938) |
|  | Occupation | 4,749 | 1.446/(0.732) | 2,280 | 1.447/(0.710) | 2,469 | 1.445/(0.753) |
| Parent mother | Years of schooling | 5,070 | 8.729/(3.543 ) | 2,440 | 8.733/(3.546 ) | 2,630 | 8.725/(3.541) |
|  | Occupation | 4,683 | 1.264/(0.698) | 2,248 | 1.284/(0.684) | 2,435 | 1.246/(0.710) |
| Individual students | Girl | 5,073 | 0.481/(0.500 ) | 2,442 | -- | 2,631 | -- |
|  | Academic ranking in primary school | 4,662 | 16.362/(11.936) | 2,221 | 14.457/(11.094) | 2,441 | 18.095/(12.405 ) |
|  | Hukou | 5,073 | 0.606/(0.489 ) | 2,442 | 0.598/(0.490 ) | 2,631 | 0.614/(0.487 ) |
|  | Age | 4,968 | 14.063/(1.380 ) | 2,405 | 14.000/(1.372) | 2,563 | 14.121/(1.385 ) |
|  | Attend kindergarten | 5,038 | 0.772/(0.420 ) | 2,432 | 0.782/(0.413 ) | 2,606 | 0.762/(0.426 ) |
|  | Age when starting primary school | 5,009 | 6.488/(0.967) | 2,420 | 6.512/(0.928) | 2,589 | 6.465/(1.002 ) |
|  | Family's financial situation | 4,871 | 0.886/(0.318) | 2,366 | 0.893/(0.309) | 2,505 | 0.878/(0.327) |

Note. (1) "Parent's stereotype" is 1 if the answer of mother or father is "Yes" when asked: "Do you think boys are better at learning mathematics than girls?". (2) We use years of schooling to represent the education of either the father or the mother, defined according to the following rules: no education $=0$; primary school $=6$; middle school $=9$; high school $=12$; college $=15$; undergraduate $=16$; graduate $=19$. (3) Age indicate age of the student and the student's father or mother. (4) When the student individual or the student's father or mother has an agricultural household registration, Hukou=1; otherwise, Hukou=0. (5) Health is sorted from 1-5, $1=$ very unhealthy, $5=$ very healthy. (6) We define Occupation=0 if parent has no occupation; Occupation=1 if parents engaged in skilled workers, general workers in manufacturing or service industries and farmers; Occupation=2 if parents engaged in teachers, engineers, doctors, lawyers and individual business activities; Occupation=3 if parents engaged in leadership or management positions. (7) The variable "Girl" indicates the gender of the student. (8) Academic ranking in primary school reflects the relative ranking of students' academic performance in their classes when they are in primary school. If the score is the best, the value is 1 . The higher the value, the worse the students' academic performance in primary school. (9) Student who have attended kindergarten, Attend kindergarten=1; otherwise, Attend kindergarten=0. (10) Age when starting primary school reflects the age at which students enter primary school. (11) If the family do not receive subsistence allowance at present, then family's financial situation=1; otherwise=0.

Table 3 Regression results

|  | Depressed <br> (1) | Blue <br> (2) | Unhappy (3) | Not enjoying life (4) | Sad (5) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | -0.322 | -0.698 | -1.094 | 0.018 | -0.609 |
|  | (0.626) | (0.857) | (0.667) | (0.683) | (0.536) |
| Girl | -0.381 | -0.150 | -0.408 | 0.234 | -0.913 |
|  | (0.732) | (0.590) | (0.712) | (0.800) | (0.698) |
| Mother * Girl | 1.059 | 0.985 | 1.467 | -0.053 | 2.194** |
|  | (1.028) | (1.002) | (1.014) | (1.081) | (0.873) |
| Stereotypes | 0.434*** | 0.518*** | 0.548*** | 0.466*** | 0.401*** |
|  | (0.061) | (0.064) | (0.055) | (0.076) | (0.044) |
| Stereotypes * Mother | -0.007 | -0.083 | -0.063 | -0.116 | 0.013 |
|  | (0.074) | (0.090) | (0.066) | (0.082) | (0.061) |
| Stereotypes * Girl | 0.086 | 0.103 | -0.061 | 0.137 | 0.026 |
|  | (0.083) | $(0.081)$ | (0.082) | (0.096) | (0.082) |
| Stereotypes * Mother * Girl | -0.101 | -0.100 | 0.006 | -0.191** | -0.072 |
|  | (0.098) | (0.109) | (0.097) | (0.093) | (0.097) |
| $\mathrm{E}_{f}$ | 0.006 | -0.001 | -0.001 | 0.010 | 0.008 |
|  | (0.014) | (0.010) | (0.012) | (0.015) | (0.013) |
| $\mathrm{E}_{f}$ * Mother | 0.004 | -0.006 | 0.007 | -0.019 | -0.014 |
|  | (0.016) | (0.015) | (0.015) | (0.020) | (0.018) |
| $\mathrm{E}_{f} *$ Girl | -0.018 | 0.007 | -0.007 | -0.014 | -0.010 |
|  | (0.020) | (0.015) | (0.018) | (0.020) | (0.019) |
| $\mathrm{Ef}_{f}$ * Mother * Girl | 0.023 | 0.025 | -0.008 | 0.021 | -0.003 |
|  | (0.024) | (0.021) | (0.022) | (0.023) | (0.025) |
| Em | -0.004 | 0.002 | -0.002 | -0.003 | -0.016* |
|  | (0.007) | (0.008) | (0.010) | (0.011) | (0.009) |
| Em*Mother | 0.000 | 0.002 | -0.005 | 0.017 | 0.013 |
|  | (0.012) | (0.017) | (0.015) | (0.017) | (0.014) |
| $\mathrm{Em}_{m} *$ Girl | 0.008 | -0.017** | -0.004 | 0.003 | 0.012 |
|  | (0.009) | (0.008) | (0.014) | (0.015) | (0.011) |
| Em * Mother * Girl | -0.009 | -0.005 | 0.009 | -0.012 | -0.008 |
|  | (0.014) | (0.015) | (0.020) | (0.018) | (0.017) |
| Constant | 2.063*** | 1.806*** | 2.785*** | 1.360** | 2.544*** |
|  | (0.452) | (0.491) | (0.443) | (0.506) | (0.417) |
| $\mathrm{R}^{2}$ | 0.069 | 0.073 | 0.069 | 0.053 | 0.057 |

Note. This table reports OLS estimations of eq (1). Number of observations $=6,962$. Standard errors are robust and clustered at the district level, the number of clusters is $28 .{ }^{* * *} \mathrm{p}<0.01$; ${ }^{* *} \mathrm{p}<0.05$; ${ }^{*} \mathrm{p}<0.1$. All regressions contain student controls (Academic ranking in primary school; Hukou; Age; Attend kindergarten; Age when starting primary school; Family's financial situation) and parent controls (Parent Age; Parent Hukou; Health; Occupation) properly specified according to eq. (1).


[^0]:    * Corresponding author: Klaus F. Zimmermann (klaus.f.zimmermann@gmail.com), UNU-MERIT \& Maastricht University, Global Labor Organization (GLO), and Centre for Economic Policy Research (CEPR). Other authors: Shuai Chu (chushuai1993@126.com), Renmin University of China and GLO and Xiangquan Zeng (zengxq@ruc.edu.cn), Renmin University of China and GLO.

