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Perceptions of Gender Parity and Support for Gender Equality Policies

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Abstract

Purpose: This study examines perceptions of gender parity (50:50 representation) and support for gender equality policies in South Korea, and contextualizes the South Korean findings using the pooled European Social Survey (ESS) sample as a broader comparative benchmark. It also descriptively compares mean policy support across levels of gender parity perceptions. **Research design, data and methodology:** Weighted descriptive analyses were conducted using the 2025 Korean General Social Survey (KGSS) and ESS Round 11. Gender parity perceptions were examined in the family, business, and political domains, and support was assessed for equal parental leave, fines for unequal pay, and equal parliamentary representation. Comparisons were also made across gender, age, experience of discrimination, and political orientation. **Results:** Gender parity perceptions were generally positive in both samples but showed greater socio-demographic variation in South Korea. South Korea showed higher support than the pooled ESS sample for equal parental leave, whereas the pooled ESS sample showed higher support for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation. Mean policy support was generally higher among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity, although differences across perception categories varied by policy domain and sample. **Conclusions:** The findings show heterogeneous descriptive patterns across policy domains and social groups. They should not be interpreted as statistically adjusted associations or causal effects.

Keywords: Gender Parity, Gender Equality Policy, Korean General Social Survey (KGSS), European Social Survey (ESS)

JEL Classification Code: J16, D63, D72, A13

1. Introduction

Major decision-making bodies, such as political institutions, public organizations, and business leadership, set social agendas and determine priorities for resource allocation. Therefore, the gender composition of these bodies serves as an important indicator that goes beyond mere personnel composition, revealing to whom and in what manner social power and influence are distributed. If women are consistently underrepresented in key decision-making positions despite comprising approximately half of the population, this can be regarded as a structural issue that is difficult to explain solely by individual ability or choice, raising questions about the democratic legitimacy of representation and the distribution of power.

While women's educational attainment and participation in economic activities have steadily increased, a distinct gender imbalance continues to be observed in high-level decision-making domains. According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) and UN Women, as of January 2025, the proportion of women in parliament worldwide is only 27.2%, and the proportion of women serving as cabinet ministers is 22.9%. In terms of portfolio composition, women serving as ministers are relatively more likely to be appointed to areas such as women and gender inequality, social protection and social security, and human rights. By contrast, men hold an overwhelmingly large share of ministerial positions in areas that oversee the nation's core authority and resources, such as foreign affairs, finance, and national defence (Inter-Parliamentary Union & UN Women, 2025). This suggests that expanding women's participation in the public sphere does not automatically lead to gender parity in actual decision-making authority.

To address the underrepresentation of women, many countries have introduced various institutional mechanisms, such as gender quotas, candidate nomination regulations, women-only seats, and balanced representation targets. These mechanisms not only guarantee the participation of a certain number or proportion of women but also provide opportunities for institutional intervention to re-examine selection practices and power structures that have historically defined who is considered a suitable representative or leader. In other words, measures to expand women's representation can be understood not merely as allocating positions to women, but as a process of evaluating how effectively existing gender equality and gender parity initiatives have operated in practice and of reconstructing the standards of representation itself.

However, it is necessary to distinguish between acknowledging the existence of gender imbalance and supporting specific policies to address it. In reality, one may agree with the general goal of expanding women's representation while opposing mandatory gender quotas.

Conversely, one may take a reserved stance on specific allocation methods but agree with the principle that decision-making bodies should be composed of equal numbers of men and women. As such, attitudes toward gender parity may involve multiple considerations, including perceptions of the causes of gender imbalance, standards of desirable representation, the appropriate scope of intervention by the state and organizations, the fairness of selection procedures, and beliefs in meritocracy.

From an applied psychological perspective, the distinction between normative evaluations of gender parity and support for related policy is also relevant to understanding how individuals respond psychologically to institutional change. Evaluations of gender parity may involve perceptions of fairness, legitimacy, relative advantage or disadvantage, and the appropriate distribution of social roles and resources. Differences in these evaluations may, in turn, be relevant to broader questions concerning intergroup relations, institutional trust, and social wellbeing. Although this study does not directly measure subjective wellbeing, perceived fairness, or intergroup trust, these constructs provide a broader interpretive framework for the study rather than outcomes tested in the empirical analysis.

Miura et al. (2023), in a study of Japanese citizens, demonstrated that attitudes toward gender quotas can vary even among those who agree with the principle of expanding women's political representation. Furthermore, drawing on the concept of the "principle-policy puzzle," they suggested that support for the normative goal of equal representation does not necessarily translate into support for specific policy measures to achieve it. These discussions suggest the need to conceptually distinguish between gender parity and gender quotas. While gender quotas are specific policy measures designed to guarantee women's participation at or above a certain number or percentage, gender parity can be understood as a normative principle of representation requiring women and men to share public decision-making authority equally. The expansion of women's representation is a concept that encompasses various states in which the proportion of women has increased relative to the present, whereas gender parity aims for a state in which neither gender structurally monopolizes decision-making authority. Therefore, it is inappropriate to interpret opposition to gender quotas directly as opposition to the principle of gender parity or to equate support for gender parity with support for any particular policy instrument.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that the very way policies are named and justified can influence public attitudes toward them. The term "quota" can evoke the perception of pre-allocating positions or artificially manipulating competitive outcomes, whereas terms such as "parity" or "balance" emphasize the legitimacy of representation and

the equal sharing of authority rather than preferential treatment for specific groups. Coffé et al. (2025) demonstrated through survey experiments conducted in France and the UK that even when affirmative action measures are substantively similar, the level of public support can vary depending on whether they are presented as “gender quotas” or “gender parity laws.” In France, support for measures presented as parity laws was significantly higher than support for measures presented as quotas, but this effect was not observed in the UK. These findings suggest that attitudes toward gender parity and affirmative action may vary not only with the substantive content of the policy but also with the national context, including the terminology, the normative logic used to present the policy, and the degree of social familiarity with the relevant institutions.

This distinction provides the conceptual basis for examining perceptions of gender parity and support for specific gender equality policies together, while treating them as analytically distinct attitudes. In this study, perceptions of gender parity capture evaluations of the normative desirability of equal participation or representation of women and men across the family, business, and political domains. In the family domain, gender parity may be understood in terms of how paid and unpaid work, including housework and childcare, is shared between women and men. Previous studies underscore the substantive importance of these dimensions. Yanovskaya et al. (2020), for example, identified women’s disproportionate burden of unpaid domestic and care work as a source of systemic gender inequality and argued for redistributing household responsibilities and for policies that facilitate the reconciliation of paid employment with family responsibilities. Zhang et al. (2024), in turn, found that increases in the number of children had gender-differentiated effects on parental labor market outcomes. Specifically, they showed that mothers’ labor supply declined, whereas fathers’ labor supply was not significantly affected, and occupational prestige declined for both parents. They further interpreted these effects in light of parents’ involvement in household work and changing parental roles.

Support for gender equality policies, by contrast, concerns acceptance of particular institutional measures intended to address gender inequality. Although more positive evaluations of gender parity may coexist with stronger support for some gender equality policies, the two should not be expected to correspond perfectly, because support for specific policies may also involve judgments about procedural fairness, meritocracy, institutional intervention, policy design, and the allocation of social responsibilities or opportunities. Accordingly, this study does not assume that agreement with the normative principle of gender parity necessarily translates into support for every

specific policy instrument. Rather, this distinction motivates a descriptive examination of how mean policy support varies across negative, neutral, and positive evaluations of gender parity and whether these patterns differ across policy domains.

Meanwhile, public perceptions are not necessarily fixed before policy adoption; they can also be reshaped by policy implementation and the social debates surrounding it. Fernández and Valiente (2021) analyzed 28 member states of the European Union (EU) and found that countries implementing gender quotas tended to have stronger public support for expanding women’s political representation. They argued that the introduction of quotas and the public debates surrounding them provided informational and normative signals that encouraged people to perceive women’s underrepresentation as a social issue that needed to be addressed. In particular, they argued that the adoption of gender quotas by institutions with symbolic authority, such as national parliaments, conveyed the message that politics is an open domain for both women and men and provided a normative signal that defined women’s underrepresentation not as a result of individual choices but as a social problem to be addressed at the collective level. This perspective emphasizes the policy feedback effect, which suggests that institutions can reshape public perceptions.

However, it is difficult to conclude that the relationship between institutions and perceptions is unidirectional. In reality, awareness of gender equality and support for women’s representation can influence the feasibility of introducing gender quota systems. Furthermore, public perception does not change merely because a system officially exists; it is necessary to consider the strength and enforcement of the system, as well as the actual increase in women’s political representation and the outcomes associated with its implementation. In an analysis of 87 countries, Kim and Fallon (2023) found that a significant correlation with attitudes toward women’s political suitability appeared only when gender quota systems possessed sufficient institutional standards and enforcement capacity to substantially increase the number of women in politics and make their contributions visible. Conversely, such a correlation was not clearly observed for gender quota systems with low standards or weak enforcement mechanisms. This suggests that the extent to which a system makes women’s political participation and roles visible may be a more important factor in shaping public perception than whether the system is formally adopted.

A visible increase in women’s political representation and its outcomes, however, does not always lead to positive perceptions. These effects may vary depending on the type of institutional mechanism adopted, such as candidate quotas or women-only seats, the level of democracy and the

structure of political competition in the country, and how the achievements of women politicians are interpreted. Therefore, perceptions regarding women's political representation need to be understood by comprehensively considering not only individual values regarding gender equality but also the effectiveness of institutions, the achievements of women politicians, the types of quota systems, and the political context.

Caution is also required when interpreting support for gender parity as a direct indicator of commitment to gender equality. Some people may support increased representation for women based on gender stereotypes that portray women as more honest or better suited than men to handle care and welfare issues. While this attitude may appear to support gender equality because it endorses women's public participation, it also has the potential to reproduce traditional gender stereotypes by assigning different essential characteristics and roles to women and men. Conversely, even while recognizing that there is no fundamental difference in the abilities of women and men, one may oppose the principle of gender parity or related policies because explicitly considering gender in the selection process is perceived as inconsistent with procedural fairness. Therefore, it is necessary to go beyond simply confirming whether one supports or opposes gender parity and to analyze how such attitudes relate to perceptions of gender roles, judgments of fairness, beliefs in meritocracy, and interpretations of the causes of gender inequality.

Previous studies have extensively examined the introduction and effects of gender quotas, public attitudes toward such measures, and evaluations of women's representation. Building on this literature, the contribution of this study is not to propose a new theory of gender attitudes, but to apply the distinction between a normative principle of gender parity and support for specific gender equality policy instruments across the family, business, and political domains. This distinction is useful because agreement with equal gender participation or representation does not necessarily imply equivalent support for every institutional measure intended to address gender inequality. This study therefore examines these two dimensions separately and describes how policy support levels vary with perceptions of gender parity, while also considering variation across socio-demographic groups and policy domains.

In South Korean society, discussions regarding women's representation have frequently focused on increasing women's participation and on the necessity and legitimacy of gender quotas. However, supporting an expansion of women's participation and endorsing the normative principle that decision-making authority should be shared equally between women and men represent distinct judgments. Recent research provides empirical support for

the importance of meritocracy and fairness in understanding these debates. Using multi-year survey data from South Korea (hereafter Korea), Go and Lee (2024) found that meritocratic orientation was consistently associated with opposition to gender quotas, while attitudes toward quotas also differed by gender and cohort. Their findings highlight the relevance of meritocratic beliefs and perceived fairness to public evaluations of gender equality measures in Korea and provide a more specific empirical context for examining variation in attitudes toward gender parity and particular policy instruments.

Accordingly, this study descriptively compares perceptions of gender parity and support for gender equality policies in Korea with those observed in the pooled European Social Survey (ESS) sample using data from the 2025 Korean General Social Survey (KGSS) and ESS Round 11. Specifically, the study examines perceptions of gender parity in the family, business, and political domains and describes how these perceptions vary across gender, age, experience of discrimination, and political orientation. It also examines support for three gender equality policies and descriptively compares mean policy support across different levels of perceived gender parity. Through these comparisons, the study seeks to characterize patterns of normative acceptance of gender parity and support for specific gender equality policies across social groups and policy domains.

The comparison with the ESS is intended primarily to provide a broader comparative benchmark for understanding the Korean case rather than to explain differences among individual ESS countries. Korea is the focal case of this study because contemporary debates surrounding gender equality policies have become closely intertwined with controversies over meritocracy, fair competition, procedural legitimacy, and perceived "reverse discrimination." These debates make it important to examine how evaluations of the normative principle of gender parity and support for specific gender equality policies vary across social groups and policy domains in Korea.

For this purpose, the pooled ESS sample provides a useful external benchmark, as the relevant gender parity and gender equality policy items are measured across multiple national contexts within a common cross-national survey framework. The pooled ESS sample is therefore used to situate the descriptive patterns observed in Korea relative to a broader, weighted respondent-level pattern rather than to represent a single, homogeneous European social or institutional context. The comparison does not assume that the ESS participating countries are culturally, politically, or institutionally homogeneous, and it is not intended to support country-specific or between-country inferences. Selecting individual comparison countries, constructing

geographic regions, or explicitly modeling country-level heterogeneity would require different theoretical criteria and address research questions beyond the descriptive and Korea-focused objective of this study.

According to this study, respondents to the 2025 KGSS showed relatively high support for gender parity and gender equality policies in domains closely related to daily life, such as family and paid work, but relatively low support in domains involving business leadership and politics. These findings indicate that generally positive perceptions of gender parity coexist with considerable variation across policy domains and social groups in Korea. Furthermore, mean levels of support for gender equality policies were generally higher among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity, although this descriptive pattern varied across policy domains. This suggests the importance of considering normative perceptions of gender parity when examining the social acceptance of specific gender equality policies.

The pooled ESS sample also showed generally higher mean policy support among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity, although the magnitude of this descriptive pattern differed across policy domains. Positive evaluations of gender parity were generally high across the family, business, and political domains in the pooled ESS sample, and differences in perceptions by gender and age were relatively small compared with Korea. These patterns provide a broader comparative reference against which the greater variation observed within Korea can be interpreted.

Differences by group were also distinct. In Korea, the gender gap in perceptions of gender parity and support for gender equality policies was particularly pronounced among those aged 29 years or younger across several analyses; in contrast, in the pooled ESS sample, women consistently showed relatively high support for gender equality policies across age groups. Additionally, Korean men in their 40s showed relatively positive attitudes toward gender parity compared with other groups of men. These descriptive patterns reinforce the importance of avoiding treatment of age groups as internally homogeneous and of considering gender and age together when interpreting attitudes toward gender parity and gender equality policies. Patterns associated with experiences of discrimination also differed across genders and policy areas, suggesting that experience of discrimination should not be assumed to relate to gender equality policy support in a uniform manner.

This study does not limit gender parity to support for or opposition to specific policy measures; rather, it approaches it as a matter of social norms governing the gender distribution of decision-making authority. Through these descriptive comparisons, the study seeks to provide empirical evidence on how evaluations of gender parity and support for specific gender equality policies vary across

social groups and policy domains. From an applied psychological perspective, these patterns provide a basis for considering how public responses to gender equality measures may intersect with perceptions of fairness, legitimacy, and intergroup differences, while recognizing that these psychological mechanisms are not directly measured in this study.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The next section describes the data and the methodology. Section 3 presents the empirical results. Finally, Section 4 summarizes and discusses the main findings of this study.

2. Data and Methodology

This study uses data from the 2025 Korean General Social Survey (KGSS) and European Social Survey (ESS) Round 11 to address the research questions.

The KGSS is a nationwide social survey conducted by the Survey Research Center of the East Asian Institute at Sungkyunkwan University and is designed to monitor major social values, attitudes, and social changes in Korean society. The survey population consists of non-institutionalized adults aged 18 or older residing in general households in Korea who are able to communicate in Korean. The KGSS uses a multistage area probability sampling design in which geographical areas, households, and eligible household members are selected through successive sampling procedures. The KGSS questionnaire includes recurring core questions, international comparative thematic modules from the International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) and the East Asian Social Survey (EASS), and researcher-proposed modules. An ESS-related module has also been incorporated into the KGSS, enabling comparisons using common survey items. KGSS data are available through the KGSS website, the Korean Social Science Data Archive (KOSSDA), and the U.S. Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) (Kim et al., 2024).

The European Social Survey (ESS) is an academically led multinational comparative survey designed to provide comparable data on social and political attitudes across participating countries. It is generally conducted biennially and uses probability-based sampling and standardized methodological procedures for sampling, questionnaire development and translation, and data collection. The target population generally consists of individuals aged 15 years or older residing in private households in participating countries. The ESS questionnaire consists of a core module repeated across rounds and rotating modules covering specific substantive topics. ESS data are publicly available through the ESS Data Portal operated by the “European Social Survey European Research Infrastructure Consortium (ESS ERIC).”

For this study, the original 2025 KGSS dataset consisted of 1,211 respondents, while the ESS Round 11 dataset consisted of 50,116 respondents. Non-substantive responses, including “Do not know,” refusals, no answers, and other survey-specific missing value codes, were treated as missing. Cases with missing information on variables required for the analyses were excluded using a complete case approach, and missing values were not imputed. Following these exclusions, the final analytic samples consisted of 1,116 respondents for the KGSS and 37,598 respondents for the ESS. The same final analytic samples were used throughout the descriptive and comparative analyses. The final pooled ESS analytic sample retained respondents from all 30 participating countries included in the dataset used for this study: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, and the United Kingdom.

The ESS participating countries are pooled because the purpose of the comparative analysis is not to estimate country-specific patterns or explain between-country differences, but to provide a broader benchmark for contextualizing the Korean findings. Selecting one or a small number of individual countries as comparators would require additional theoretical criteria for country selection and would constitute a different comparative design. Similarly, grouping countries into geographic regions or explicitly modeling country-level heterogeneity would address questions concerning between-country or between-region variation that are beyond the descriptive objective of this study. The full pooled ESS sample is therefore used as a weighted respondent-level comparative benchmark derived from respondents across multiple national contexts measured within a common survey framework. Pooling should not be interpreted as implying that the participating countries are culturally, politically, or institutionally homogeneous, or that the pooled estimates characterize every individual country. Accordingly, the pooled ESS results are interpreted only at the level of the pooled analytic sample, and no country-specific or between-country inferences are made.

The 2025 KGSS and ESS Round 11 include questions evaluating the perceived consequences of gender parity in family life, business, and politics. Respondents answered each item on a 7-point scale ranging from 0 (very bad) to 6 (very good), with higher scores indicating more positive evaluations. Specifically, respondents were asked the following questions regarding the family, business, and political domains:

- 1) Bad or good for family life in [country] if equal numbers of women and men are in paid work,
- 2) Bad or good for businesses in [country] if equal numbers of women and men are in higher management positions,
- 3) Bad or good for politics in [country] if equal numbers of women and men are in positions of political leadership.

Support for policies addressing gender inequality was measured using three policy-specific items. Each item was originally measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly in favour) to 5 (strongly against). For this study, the items were reverse-coded so that the resulting scale ranged from 1 (strongly against) to 5 (strongly in favour), with higher scores indicating stronger support for gender equality policies. Specifically, respondents were asked about the following policies:

- 1) Requiring both parents to take equal periods of paid leave to care for their child,
- 2) Making businesses pay a fine when they pay men more than women for doing the same work,
- 3) Dividing the number of seats in parliament equally between women and men.

To examine how perceptions of gender parity and support for policies to address gender inequality vary by socio-demographic characteristics, descriptive comparisons were conducted by gender, age group, experience of discrimination, and political orientation. Gender was classified as men or women, and age groups were classified as aged 29 years or younger (18–29 years for KGSS, 15–29 years for ESS), those in their 30s (30–39 years), those in their 40s (40–49 years), those in their 50s (50–59 years), and aged 60 years or older. Experience of discrimination was measured by whether respondents had experienced unfair treatment at least once in the context of employment, wages, or promotion. Respondents reporting such an experience once or more than once were classified as having experienced discrimination, whereas respondents reporting no such experience were classified as having no experience of discrimination. Political orientation was classified as liberal, moderate, and conservative. For the KGSS, responses of 1–2 were classified as liberal, 3 as moderate, and 4–5 as conservative. For the ESS, scores of 0–4 on the original 0–10 left–right scale were classified as liberal, 5 as moderate, and 6–10 as conservative.

The empirical strategy of this study is descriptive and comparative. Weighted descriptive statistics were used to characterize the levels and patterns of perceptions of gender parity and support for gender equality policies across the socio-demographic groups described above, with weighted mean scores for items measured on 5- or 7-point scales

compared across groups. Gender, age, experience of discrimination, and political orientation are treated as substantive dimensions of attitudinal variation rather than solely as covariates to be statistically controlled. Accordingly, the analyses are not intended to estimate the independent effect of any single characteristic after adjustment for the others, nor to make causal claims.

In addition to the socio-demographic comparisons, the study descriptively compared mean policy support across different levels of gender parity perceptions in the family, business, and political domains. Specifically, perceptions of gender parity in paid work were paired with support for equal parental leave, perceptions of gender parity in higher management were paired with support for fines for unequal pay, and perceptions of gender parity in political leadership were paired with support for equal representation in parliament. For each comparison, perceptions of gender parity were classified as negative (0–2), neutral (3), or positive (4–6), and the weighted mean levels of support for the corresponding gender equality policy were compared across these categories. These comparisons are intended to describe differences in mean policy support across categories of gender parity perceptions. They do not estimate an independent association or causal effect of gender parity perceptions on policy support, and potential confounding by other individual or contextual characteristics is not statistically controlled for.

All analyses were conducted using Stata 18 SE (StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA). The KGSS analyses applied the KGSS weight variable ‘finalwt,’ whereas the pooled ESS analyses applied the ESS Round 11 analysis weight ‘anweight’; both weights were implemented as analytic weights in Stata. The ESS ‘anweight’ combines the post-stratification weight and the population size weight. Because the post-stratification weight is constructed from the design weight, the use of ‘anweight’ incorporates adjustments for differential selection probabilities and sample composition within countries as well as population size differences across participating countries.

No inferential significance tests or multivariable models were used in this study. Accordingly, no alpha level or statistical significance threshold was applied to the descriptive comparisons. Differences in weighted means and distributions are therefore interpreted as descriptive patterns in the analyzed samples rather than as statistically significant differences, independent associations, or causal effects. This analytical strategy is consistent with the descriptive and comparative objectives of the study, which focus on documenting patterns of attitudinal variation rather than testing adjusted associations or causal effects.

This study is a secondary analysis of publicly available, de-identified KGSS and ESS data without direct interaction or intervention with survey respondents. The datasets used

for the analyses did not provide the authors with names, contact information, or other personally identifying information, and no attempt was made to identify or re-identify individual respondents. This study therefore involved only the analysis of existing de-identified survey data.

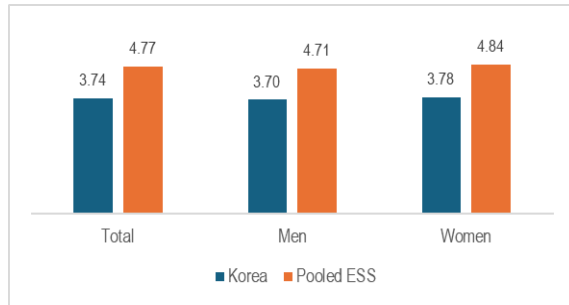
3. Empirical Results

3.1. Perceptions of Gender Parity

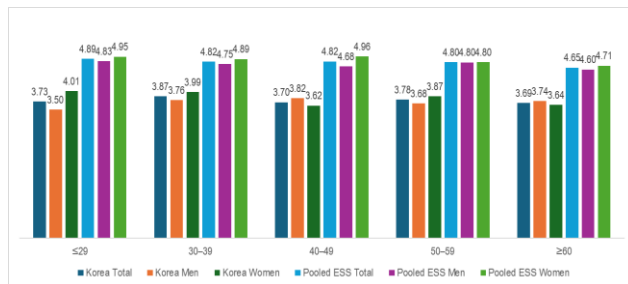
Perceptions of gender parity were generally positive in both Korea and the pooled ESS sample, although the levels and patterns differed between the two samples. Across the family, business, and political domains, mean evaluations were higher in the pooled ESS sample than in Korea, while greater variation by gender and age was observed in Korea.

Regarding whether equal numbers of women and men in paid work would be bad or good for family life, the overall mean in Korea was 3.74, exceeding the midpoint of the 0–6 scale. By age, respondents in their 30s showed the highest mean evaluation (3.87), whereas those aged 60 years or older showed the lowest (3.69). The gender-by-age pattern was more distinctive. Among Korean men, those in their 40s reported a relatively high evaluation (3.82), whereas women in their 40s reported a lower evaluation (3.62). Among Korean women, mean evaluations were relatively high among those aged 29 or younger (4.01) and those in their 30s (3.99), declined among those in their 40s, and increased again among those in their 50s (3.87). Despite the overall positive evaluation in Korea, a distinct gender-based difference in perception was observed, particularly among those in their 40s.

In the pooled ESS sample, evaluations of gender parity in the family domain were higher than in Korea and showed less variation across age groups. Respondents aged 29 or younger reported the highest mean evaluation (4.89), whereas those aged 60 years or older reported the lowest (4.65). Women reported higher evaluations than men across age groups, including women in their 40s (4.96). This contrasted sharply with the Korean results, in which women in their 40s recorded the lowest evaluation.



(a) Gender Comparison



(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

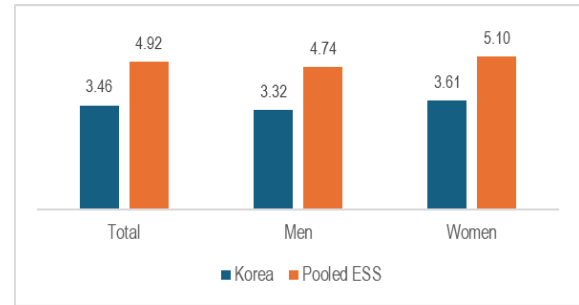
Note. Values represent weighted mean scores on a 0–6 scale, with higher scores indicating more positive evaluations of equal participation of women and men in paid work in relation to family life. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 1(a) for reference.

Figure 1: Perceptions of Gender Parity in Paid Work and Family Life

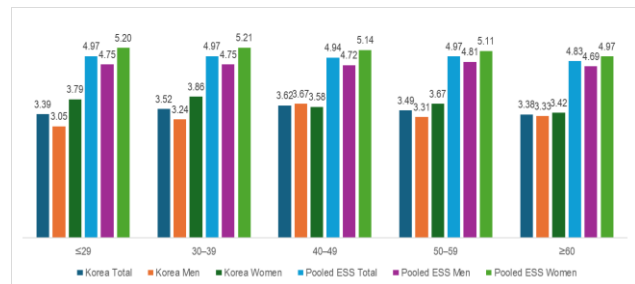
For gender parity in higher management, the overall Korean mean was 3.46, again above the midpoint of the scale. Respondents in their 40s reported the highest overall mean (3.62), followed by those in their 30s (3.52) and 50s (3.49), whereas respondents aged 29 or younger (3.39) and those aged 60 years or older (3.38) reported relatively lower evaluations.

Gender differences were particularly visible within age groups. Among Korean men, respondents in their 40s reported the highest mean evaluation (3.67), whereas men aged 29 or younger reported the lowest (3.05). Among Korean women, evaluations were relatively high among those aged 29 or younger (3.79) and those in their 30s (3.86). Women reported higher evaluations than men in most age groups, but among respondents in their 40s, the mean for men (3.67) was slightly higher than that for women (3.58).

The pooled ESS sample showed higher evaluations of gender parity in higher management than in Korea and comparatively smaller gender- and age-related variation. Women reported higher evaluations than men across age groups, though the gender difference tended to narrow with age. The reversal observed among Korean respondents in their 40s was not observed in the pooled ESS sample.



(a) Gender Comparison



(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

Note. Values represent weighted mean scores on a 0–6 scale, with higher scores indicating more positive evaluations of equal representation of women and men in higher management. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 1(b) for reference.

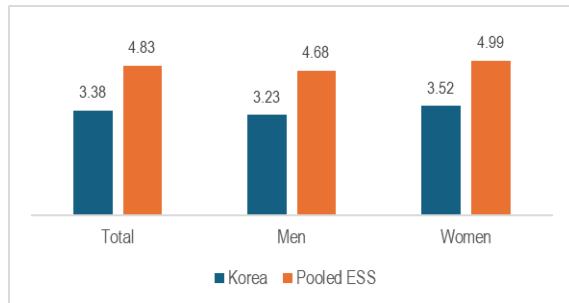
Figure 2: Perceptions of Gender Parity in Higher Management

For gender parity in political leadership, the overall Korean mean was 3.38. Respondents in their 40s reported the highest overall mean (3.54), whereas respondents aged 60 years or older reported the lowest (3.28). Respondents aged 29 or younger and those in their 30s both reported means of 3.39, while the mean among those in their 50s was 3.38.

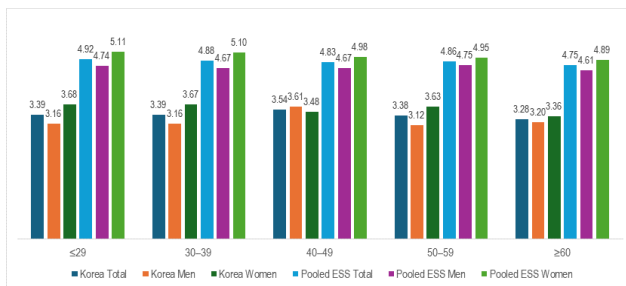
The gender-by-age differences were again most notable among Korean respondents in their 40s. Among Korean men, respondents in their 40s recorded the highest mean evaluation (3.61), whereas the corresponding means were 3.16 among those aged 29 or younger, 3.16 among those in their 30s, 3.12 among those in their 50s, and 3.20 among those aged 60 years or older. In the political domain, positive evaluations among men in their 40s were slightly higher than those among women, revealing a pattern that differed from the general trend, in which women's evaluations were higher than men's evaluations across most age groups. This pattern was also consistent with those observed in the previously examined family and business domains.

As in the other two domains, evaluations in the pooled ESS sample were higher than in Korea and varied less by gender and age. Women reported higher evaluations than men across all age groups, and the pattern observed among

Korean men in their 40s was not found in the pooled ESS sample.



(a) Gender Comparison



(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

Note. Values represent weighted mean scores on a 0–6 scale, with higher scores indicating more positive evaluations of equal representation of women and men in political leadership. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 1(c) for reference.

Figure 3: Perceptions of Gender Parity in Political Leadership

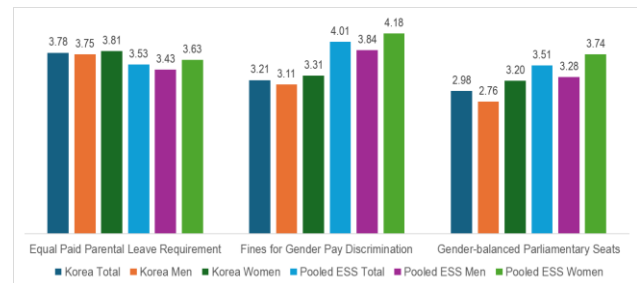
Taken together, the pooled ESS sample showed higher mean evaluations of gender parity than Korea across all three domains. Korea also showed generally positive evaluations, but greater gender- and age-related variation was evident. A recurring Korean pattern was the relatively positive evaluation reported by men in their 40s compared with other male age groups, whereas women generally reported more positive evaluations than men in the pooled ESS sample.

3.2. Support for Gender Equality Policies

Support for gender equality policies varied substantially across policy domains and between Korea and the pooled ESS sample. In Korea, mean support was highest for requiring both parents to take equal periods of paid leave to care for their child (3.78), followed by making businesses pay a fine when they pay men more than women for doing the same work (3.21) and dividing parliamentary seats equally between women and men (2.98). The pooled ESS sample showed a different ordering. Support was highest for

finances for unequal pay (4.01), while mean support for equal parental leave (3.53) and equal parliamentary representation (3.51) was similar. Thus, Korea reported higher support than the pooled ESS sample for equal parental leave, whereas the pooled ESS sample reported higher support for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation.

Women generally reported higher levels of policy support than men in both samples, although the magnitude of the gender difference varied across policies. In Korea, the gender gap was relatively limited in equal parental leave, more pronounced in fines for unequal pay, and largest in equal parliamentary representation. Women in the pooled ESS sample likewise reported higher support than men for all three policies.



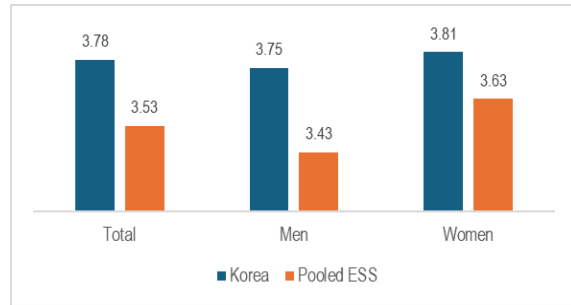
Note. Values represent weighted mean policy support scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 scale, with higher scores indicating stronger support.

The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in the All Ages section of Appendix 2 for reference.

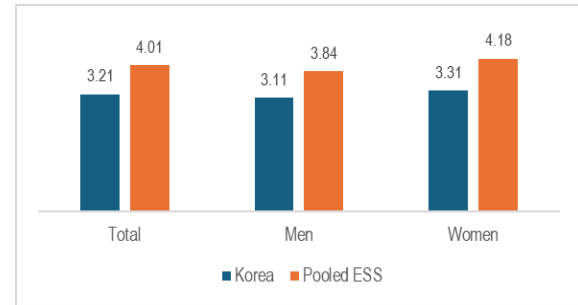
Figure 4: Support for Gender Equality Policies

Age-related differences were particularly apparent for equal parental leave. In Korea, mean support was relatively high among respondents aged 29 or younger (4.05) and those in their 30s (4.00), whereas lower levels were observed among respondents in their 50s (3.64) and those aged 60 years or older (3.57). Among respondents aged 29 or younger, women (4.18) reported higher support than men (3.96). In the 30s and 40s, however, the gender difference was smaller, and men reported slightly higher support in some comparisons.

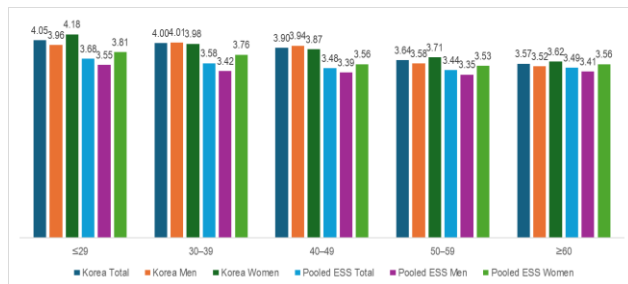
The pooled ESS sample also showed a tendency for support for equal parental leave to decline with age. Unlike in Korea, however, women reported higher mean support than men across all age groups. The decline across older age groups was also more pronounced in Korea than in the pooled ESS sample.



(a) Gender Comparison



(a) Gender Comparison



(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

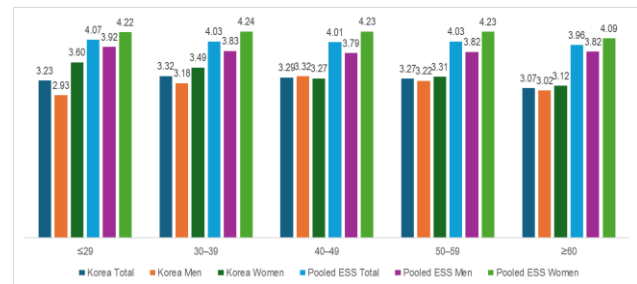
Note. Values represent weighted mean policy support scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 scale, with higher scores indicating stronger support.

The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 2(a) for reference.

Figure 5: Support for Equal Parental Leave

For fines for unequal pay, age differences were comparatively limited in both samples, although respondents aged 60 years or older showed somewhat lower support. Gender differences were more visible in Korea, particularly among younger respondents. Among Koreans aged 29 or younger, women reported a mean of 3.60, compared with 2.93 among men, resulting in one of the larger gender differences in the policy support analyses. Among respondents in their 40s, the difference narrowed and reversed, and men (3.32) reported slightly higher support than women (3.27).

In the pooled ESS sample, support for fines for unequal pay was higher than in Korea across age groups. Women consistently reported higher levels of support than men, while the gender differences were more stable across age groups than the pronounced differences observed among younger Korean respondents.



(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

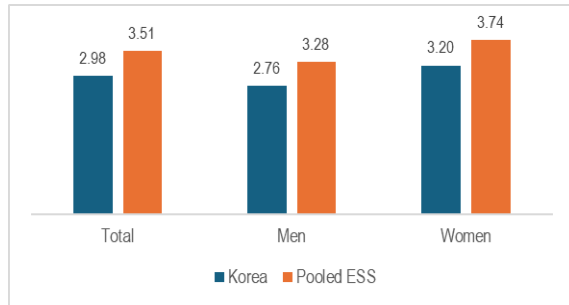
Note. Values represent weighted mean scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 policy support scale, with higher scores indicating stronger support for requiring businesses to pay a fine when they pay men more than women for doing the same work.

The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 2(b) for reference.

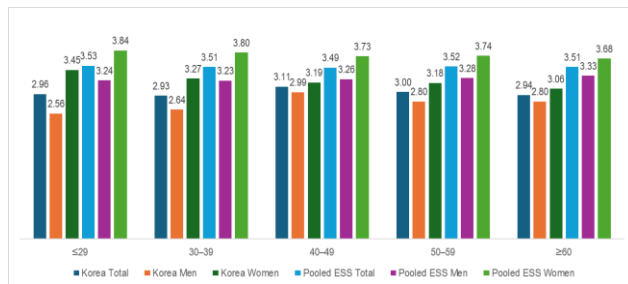
Figure 6: Support for Fines for Gender Unequal Pay

The largest gender differences were observed for equal parliamentary representation. In Korea, overall support was close to neutral among respondents in their 40s (3.11) and 50s (3.00), whereas lower mean support was observed in the other age groups. Women reported higher support than men across all age groups. The largest difference occurred among respondents aged 29 or younger, with a mean of 3.45 among women and 2.56 among men. Among respondents in their 40s, the gender difference was relatively smaller, with means of 3.19 among women and 2.99 among men.

The pooled ESS sample showed higher support for equal parliamentary representation than in Korea across age groups. Women again reported higher levels of support than men across the age distribution, although the gender gap tended to narrow among older respondents.



(a) Gender Comparison

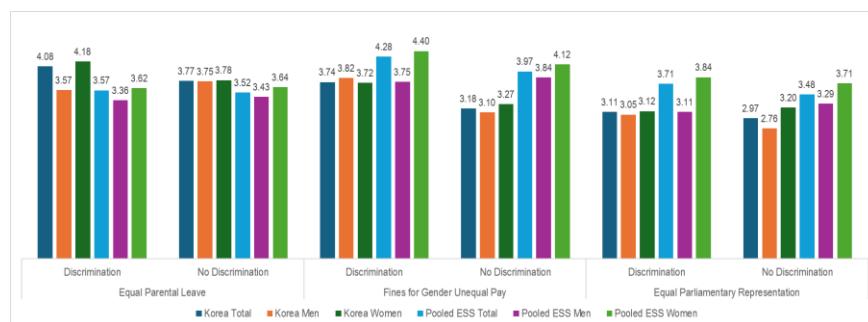


(b) Gender & Age Group Comparison

Note. Values represent weighted mean scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 policy support scale, with higher scores indicating stronger support for dividing the number of seats in parliament equally between women and men. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 2(c) for reference.

Figure 7: Support for Equal Parliamentary Representation

Policy support also differed by experience of discrimination, but the pattern was not uniform across genders or policy domains. In Korea, women who had experienced discrimination (4.18) reported higher support for equal parental leave than women without such experience (3.78). Among men, however, support was lower among those with experience of discrimination (3.57) than among those without such experience (3.75).



Note. Values represent weighted mean policy support scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 scale, with higher scores indicating stronger support. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in the Discrimination section of Appendix 3 for reference.

Figure 8: Support for Gender Equality Policies by Experience of Discrimination

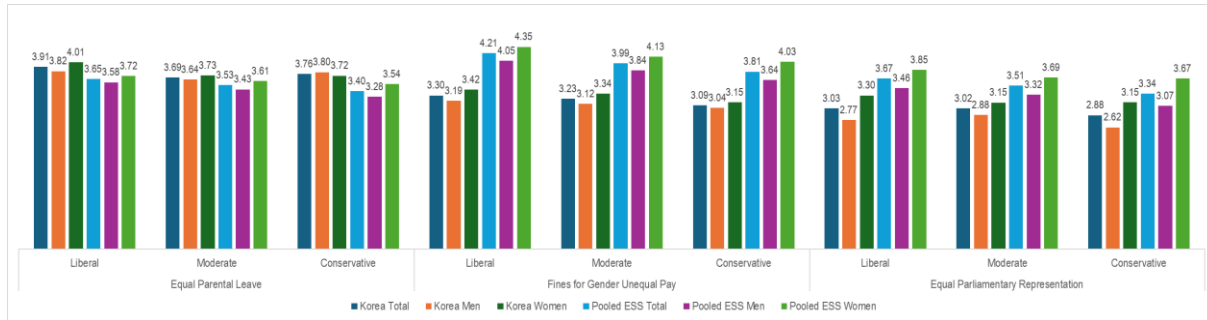
For fines for unequal pay, Korean men and women with experience of discrimination generally reported higher support than their counterparts without such experience. Among respondents without discrimination experience, women (3.27) reported higher support than men (3.10), whereas among those with discrimination experience, men reported a mean of 3.82 and women a mean of 3.72. For equal parliamentary representation, the direction of the difference by discrimination experience also differed between men and women.

The pooled ESS sample likewise showed gender-specific differences according to discrimination experience. Overall, the descriptive patterns indicate that differences in policy support by discrimination experience did not follow a single direction across gender and the three policy domains.

Political orientation showed relatively clear differences for two of the three policies. In both Korea and the pooled ESS sample, support for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation generally decreased from liberal to moderate and conservative groups. Women generally reported higher support than men across political orientations, although the magnitude of the gender difference varied.

However, equal parental leave showed a somewhat different pattern in Korea. Mean support was 3.91 among liberals, 3.69 among moderates, and 3.76 among conservatives and therefore did not show a monotonic decline from liberal to conservative respondents. In the pooled ESS sample, by contrast, support declined more consistently from liberals (3.65) to moderates (3.53) and conservatives (3.40).

For fines for unequal pay, both samples showed lower support among more conservative respondents, with particularly low support among conservative Korean men. A similar ideological pattern was observed for equal parliamentary representation. In both Korea and the pooled ESS sample, support was generally highest among liberals and lower among conservatives.



Note. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in the Political Orientation section of Appendix 3 for reference.

Figure 9: Support for Gender Equality Policies by Political Orientation

Overall, support for gender equality policies varied across policy domains and socio-demographic groups. Korea showed higher support than the pooled ESS sample for equal parental leave, whereas the pooled ESS sample showed higher support for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation. Women generally reported higher policy support than men, but the size and, in some comparisons, the direction of subgroup differences varied across age, discrimination experience, political orientation, and policy domain.

3.3. Policy Support across Levels of Gender Parity Perceptions

To describe how policy support varies across levels of gender parity perceptions, evaluations of gender parity were classified as negative (0–2 points), neutral (3 points), or positive (4–6 points). Weighted mean levels of support for the corresponding gender equality policies were then compared across these three categories. Considering the purpose of this study, these comparisons are descriptive; no inferential tests of significance or multivariable adjustments were used, and the observed differences should not be interpreted as independent or causal effects.

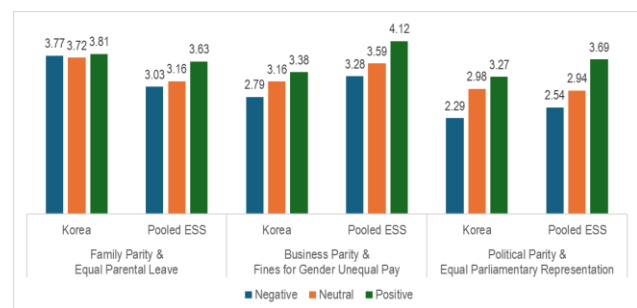
Overall, mean policy support was higher among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity, although the magnitude of differences across perception categories varied by policy domain and between Korea and the pooled ESS sample.

For equal parental leave, differences in mean policy support across the negative, neutral, and positive gender parity perception categories were relatively limited in Korea. On the other hand, the pooled ESS sample showed a clearer difference, with higher mean policy support among respondents with more positive evaluations of gender parity in the family domain.

For fines for unequal pay, mean policy support was higher among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity in the business domain in both Korea and the

pooled ESS sample. A similar pattern was observed for equal parliamentary representation: respondents with more positive evaluations of gender parity in political leadership generally reported higher mean support for equal representation in parliament in both samples. In Korea, the differences across perception categories were more apparent for the workplace and political policies than for equal parental leave.

Furthermore, the distribution of mean policy support across the three perception categories differed between Korea and the pooled ESS sample. In Korea, the difference between respondents with negative and neutral perceptions of gender parity was generally greater than the difference between the neutral and positive groups. Mean policy support was therefore particularly low among respondents with negative perceptions of gender parity. In the pooled ESS sample, by contrast, the difference between the neutral and positive groups was relatively larger.



Note. Values represent weighted mean policy support scores on the reverse-coded 1–5 scale. Gender parity perceptions are classified as negative (0–2), neutral (3), and positive (4–6). Higher policy support scores indicate stronger support. The numerical values presented in the figure are also reported in Appendix 4 for reference.

Figure 10: Mean Policy Support across Levels of Gender Parity Perceptions

Overall, differences in mean policy support across the negative, neutral, and positive gender parity perception categories were more pronounced in the pooled ESS sample than in Korea, although the magnitude of these differences varied across the three policy domains.

4. Conclusion and Discussion

4.1. Summary and Conclusion

This study used the 2025 Korean General Social Survey (KGSS) and the pooled ESS Round 11 sample to examine perceptions of gender parity (50:50 representation) and support for gender equality policies. Korea was treated as the focal case, while the pooled ESS sample served as a broader comparative benchmark for contextualizing the Korean findings. The study examined how perceptions of gender parity and support for gender equality policies varied across policy domains and socio-demographic groups. It also descriptively compared mean levels of policy support across respondents with negative, neutral, and positive perceptions of gender parity. Accordingly, the findings are interpreted as descriptive patterns rather than as estimates of statistically adjusted relationships or causal effects.

First, perceptions of gender parity were generally positive in both Korea and the pooled ESS sample, but their levels and patterns differed between the two samples. The pooled ESS sample showed more positive evaluations than Korea across the family, business, and political domains, and variation by gender and age was relatively limited. Korea also showed generally positive evaluations, but variation across gender and age groups was greater. In particular, among Korean men, those in their 40s showed relatively high evaluations of gender parity across the three domains, while Korean women in their 40s showed relatively lower evaluations in the family domain. These findings indicate that positive evaluations of gender parity can coexist with substantial socio-demographic variation and that age groups should not necessarily be interpreted as internally homogeneous without considering gender.

Second, Korea and the pooled ESS sample showed different patterns of support across the three gender equality policies examined. In Korea, support was highest for requiring both parents to take equal periods of paid leave to care for their child. In contrast, support was lower for making businesses pay a fine for unequal pay and for dividing parliamentary seats equally between women and men. Korea showed a higher mean level of support than the pooled ESS sample for equal parental leave. By contrast, the pooled ESS sample showed higher mean support than Korea for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation. These findings indicate that public responses to gender equality

vary substantially by the specific policy considered, rather than reflecting a single, uniform level of support for gender equality.

This policy-specific variation is consistent with the conceptual distinction between support for a general principle of gender parity and acceptance of particular institutional measures intended to promote gender equality. Previous research has similarly emphasized that support for broader principles of women's representation does not necessarily translate directly into support for specific policy instruments, such as gender quotas (Miura et al., 2023). Policy design and framing may also matter for public acceptance; for example, Coffé et al. (2025) showed that public responses to substantively similar positive action measures varied depending on how those measures were presented. The findings extend this discussion by showing descriptively that responses also differ across policies concerning family, business, and political representation.

Third, support for gender equality policies varied across gender, age, experience of discrimination, and political orientation. Women generally reported higher levels of policy support than men in both Korea and the pooled ESS sample, although the magnitude of the gender gap differed across policies and age groups. In Korea, gender differences were particularly pronounced among younger respondents in several comparisons. In addition, women in the pooled ESS sample generally maintained relatively high levels of policy support across age groups. Patterns involving experiences of discrimination also differed by gender and policy area rather than displaying a uniform direction. Political orientation showed a clearer pattern, with mean policy support generally decreasing from liberal to moderate and conservative groups, particularly among men.

These descriptive differences are relevant to the Korean context, where gender equality policies have increasingly been discussed in relation to meritocracy, fair competition, procedural legitimacy, and the allocation of family and work responsibilities. Go and Lee (2024), for example, found that a meritocratic orientation was associated with opposition to gender quotas in Korea and that attitudes toward quotas differed by gender and cohort. In addition, recent research on family roles and parental labor market outcomes has suggested that gender equality involves not only participation in paid work but also the distribution of work and responsibilities within families (Yanovskaya et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024). The findings do not directly test these mechanisms, but the observed variation across gender, age, and political orientation underscores the importance of considering the broader social context in which specific gender equality policies are evaluated.

Fourth, mean policy support was generally higher among respondents with more positive perceptions of gender parity, although the differences among negative, neutral, and

positive perception categories varied by policy domain and between Korea and the pooled ESS sample. In Korea, differences across perception categories were relatively limited for equal parental leave but were more apparent for fines for unequal pay and equal parliamentary representation. The pooled ESS sample showed more pronounced differences across perception categories overall. These comparisons are descriptive and do not establish that perceptions of gender parity independently explain policy support after accounting for other individual or contextual characteristics.

Taken together, the findings reinforce the importance of distinguishing between normative evaluations of gender parity and support for specific policies. A generally positive view of gender parity does not necessarily imply equally strong support for every policy intended to address gender inequality. Public responses appear to vary across policy domains and socio-demographic groups, and the Korean findings, in particular, show considerable heterogeneity by gender and age. From this perspective, analyses of public attitudes toward gender equality may benefit from treating support for particular policies as distinct from a broader normative commitment to gender parity.

These descriptive patterns may also have implications for how gender equality policies are discussed and communicated. Because public responses vary across policy domains and social groups, the psychological acceptance of a policy may depend in part on how its purpose, distributive consequences, and procedural rationale are understood. In the Korean context, where debates over gender equality policies frequently intersect with perceptions of meritocracy, procedural fairness, and relative disadvantage, principles such as equal opportunity, equal pay for equal work, shared caregiving responsibility, and balanced representation may provide useful frameworks for examining how different policies are evaluated. These implications should nevertheless be treated cautiously because this study did not directly measure perceived policy fairness, policy framing, or responses to alternative communication strategies.

Beyond questions of policy perception, an applied psychological perspective also draws attention to the family and wellbeing contexts in which gender-related social and economic arrangements operate. Paid work, for example, is not experienced solely as labor market participation but is embedded in patterns of time allocation, caregiving, household resources, and family relationships. Kim (2024) provided an illustrative example of this work–family connection by showing that mothers' working conditions were associated with their children's mental health. Children's stress generally declined as mothers' number of working weeks increased, although the relationship was nonlinear, with stress increasing again as the number of working weeks became relatively high. In addition, the

contrasting relationships observed for mothers' own income and total family income suggest that the implications of paid work for family wellbeing may involve both time-related and economic dimensions. Although Kim (2024) did not examine gender equality policies or policy attitudes, it illustrates why women's employment and work–family arrangements constitute an important wellbeing context within which gender-related social policies may operate.

A complementary implication concerns how the meaning and scope of gender-sensitive policy may shape public evaluations of gender equality initiatives. Support for a specific gender equality policy may depend not only on agreement with the general principle of gender parity, but also on how the purpose and intended beneficiaries of that policy are understood. In this respect, Kim and Lee (2025) provided a useful, although indirect, perspective. Focusing on older men in Korea, they showed that social capital was associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction and identified self-esteem as a partial mediator of the relationship between social capital and life satisfaction. They further emphasized gender-sensitive welfare strategies that address both relational resources, such as social networks, and psychological resources, such as self-esteem and emotional resilience. Their study is relevant here because it illustrates that gender-sensitive social policy need not be understood exclusively as an intervention directed toward women. Gender-specific vulnerabilities may also arise among men and may warrant policy attention. Viewed in relation to this study, this perspective suggests a broader way of conceptualizing gender-sensitive policy, extending attention beyond questions about the distribution of opportunities between women and men to gender-specific forms of social and psychological disadvantage. This, in turn, raises the possibility that support for specific gender equality policies may vary depending on whether such policies are understood primarily as benefiting one gender at the expense of another or, more broadly, as responding to different forms of gender-related disadvantage. Kim and Lee (2025) did not examine gender parity attitudes or policy support directly, and this study did not test this mechanism. Nevertheless, their findings suggest a useful direction for future research. Future research could examine whether perceptions of the purpose, inclusiveness, legitimacy, and distributional fairness of gender equality policies help explain why general support for gender parity does not necessarily translate into equivalent support for every specific policy instrument.

Overall, the contribution of this study lies in applying the distinction between gender parity as a normative evaluation of equal gender participation and representation and support for specific gender equality policies across the family, business, and political domains. The descriptive findings show that these two dimensions should not be treated as interchangeable and that patterns of policy support vary

across policy domains and social groups. The comparison with the pooled ESS sample provides a broader benchmark for interpreting the Korean patterns without assuming that the participating ESS countries constitute a homogeneous social or institutional context. The observed differences provide a basis for future research using inferential, multivariable, longitudinal, and cross-national methods to examine the statistical, psychological, and contextual processes underlying these patterns.

4.2. Limitations

Several methodological limitations should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the empirical analyses are descriptive and comparative. No inferential significance tests or multivariable models were used to determine whether the observed differences across socio-demographic groups or gender parity perception categories are statistically significant or remain after adjustment for other characteristics. Gender, age, experience of discrimination, political orientation, and other individual or contextual characteristics were not simultaneously controlled. Potential confounding therefore remains, and the observed differences in weighted means and distributions should not be interpreted as statistically significant differences, independent effects, or causal effects. Because the data are cross-sectional, the temporal ordering of gender parity perceptions and policy support also cannot be established. In addition, the study uses a complete case approach without imputation. Excluding respondents with missing information may affect the composition and representativeness of the analytic samples if those respondents differ systematically from those retained in the analyses. The KGSS and ESS also differ in survey timing and eligible age ranges, and these differences should be considered when interpreting direct comparisons between the two samples. Taken together, these limitations constrain statistical and causal interpretation and limit the extent to which the observed descriptive patterns can be generalized beyond the analyzed samples.

Several limitations of the comparative design should also be noted. The ESS participating countries differ substantially in their welfare systems, gender regimes, political institutions, and broader social contexts. Pooling these countries may therefore obscure meaningful between-country variation in perceptions of gender parity and support for gender equality policies. The pooled ESS sample is used in this study as a broad, weighted, respondent-level comparative benchmark for contextualizing the Korean findings, rather than as a homogeneous regional case. Accordingly, the pooled ESS results should not be interpreted as characterizing every participating country or as evidence of a uniform pattern across national contexts. Country-specific, regional, and multilevel analyses would be

required to examine how national institutions, gender policy regimes, or other contextual characteristics contribute to between-country variation. Such analyses are beyond the descriptive objective of this study but represent an important direction for future research.

Finally, this study focuses on descriptive patterns in survey responses and does not directly examine the psychological mechanisms underlying these attitudes. Although the Conclusion and Discussion section considers the possible relevance of meritocracy, perceived fairness, procedural legitimacy, perceived disadvantage, institutional trust, intergroup relations, and wellbeing, several of these constructs were not directly measured in the analyses. Conclusions regarding these mechanisms or outcomes should therefore not be drawn from this study. Future research could incorporate direct measures of policy fairness, meritocratic beliefs, perceived reverse discrimination or relative disadvantage, institutional and intergroup trust, and subjective wellbeing, together with multivariable and longitudinal designs, to examine the psychological processes underlying public responses to gender parity and specific gender equality policies.

Acknowledgement

This paper extends and revises the previously published book chapter, “Public Attitudes toward Gender Parity in Korean Society” (in Korean), in *Understanding Korean Society: Studies Using the Korean General Social Survey (KGSS)*. The original chapter relied solely on KGSS data to examine gender- and age-related differences, experiences of discrimination, and support for policies addressing gender inequality among respondents with different orientations toward gender parity. This paper substantially extends that work by adding an analysis of political orientation and incorporating analyses based on the European Social Survey (ESS) that were not included in the original chapter.

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Appendixes

Appendix 1: Perceptions of Gender Parity

Age Groups		All Ages	≤ 29	30-39	40-49	50-59	≥ 60
(a) In Paid Work and Family Life							
Korea	Total	3.74	3.73	3.87	3.70	3.78	3.69
	Men	3.70	3.50	3.76	3.82	3.68	3.74
	Women	3.78	4.01	3.99	3.62	3.87	3.64
Pooled ESS	Total	4.77	4.89	4.82	4.82	4.80	4.65
	Men	4.71	4.83	4.75	4.68	4.80	4.60
	Women	4.84	4.95	4.89	4.96	4.80	4.71
(b) In Higher Management							
Korea	Total	3.46	3.39	3.52	3.62	3.49	3.38
	Men	3.32	3.05	3.24	3.67	3.31	3.33
	Women	3.61	3.79	3.86	3.58	3.67	3.42
Pooled ESS	Total	4.92	4.97	4.97	4.94	4.97	4.83
	Men	4.74	4.75	4.75	4.72	4.81	4.69
	Women	5.10	5.20	5.21	5.14	5.11	4.97

(c) In Political Leadership							
Korea	Total	3.38	3.39	3.39	3.54	3.38	3.28
	Men	3.23	3.16	3.16	3.61	3.12	3.20
	Women	3.52	3.68	3.67	3.48	3.63	3.36
Pooled ESS	Total	4.83	4.92	4.88	4.83	4.86	4.75
	Men	4.68	4.74	4.67	4.67	4.75	4.61
	Women	4.99	5.11	5.10	4.98	4.95	4.89

Note: The numerical values reported in Panels (a), (b), and (c) correspond to the results graphically presented in Figures 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Appendix 2: Support for Gender Equality Policies

Age Groups		All Ages	≤ 29	30-39	40-49	50-59	≥ 60
(a) Support for Equal Parental Leave							
Korea	Total	3.78	4.05	4.00	3.90	3.64	3.57
	Men	3.75	3.96	4.01	3.94	3.58	3.52
	Women	3.81	4.18	3.98	3.87	3.71	3.62
Pooled ESS	Total	3.53	3.68	3.58	3.48	3.44	3.49
	Men	3.43	3.55	3.42	3.39	3.35	3.41
	Women	3.63	3.81	3.76	3.56	3.53	3.56
(b) Support for Fines for Gender Unequal Pay							
Korea	Total	3.21	3.23	3.32	3.29	3.27	3.07
	Men	3.11	2.93	3.18	3.32	3.22	3.02
	Women	3.31	3.60	3.49	3.27	3.31	3.12
Pooled ESS	Total	4.01	4.07	4.03	4.01	4.03	3.96
	Men	3.84	3.92	3.83	3.79	3.82	3.82
	Women	4.18	4.22	4.24	4.23	4.23	4.09
(c) Support for Equal Parliamentary Representation							
Korea	Total	2.98	2.96	2.93	3.11	3.00	2.94
	Men	2.76	2.56	2.64	2.99	2.80	2.80
	Women	3.20	3.45	3.27	3.19	3.18	3.06
Pooled ESS	Total	3.51	3.53	3.51	3.49	3.52	3.51
	Men	3.28	3.24	3.23	3.26	3.28	3.33
	Women	3.74	3.84	3.80	3.73	3.74	3.68

Note: The numerical values reported for All Ages correspond to the results graphically presented in Figure 4.

The numerical values reported in Panels (a), (b), and (c) correspond to the results graphically presented in Figures 5, 6, and 7, respectively.

Appendix 3: Support for Gender Equality Policies by Experience of Discrimination and Political Orientation

		Experience of Discrimination		Political Orientation		
		Disc.	No Disc.	Lib.	Mod.	Cons.
(a) Support for Equal Parental Leave						
Korea	Total	4.08	3.77	3.91	3.69	3.76
	Men	3.57	3.75	3.82	3.64	3.80
	Women	4.18	3.78	4.01	3.73	3.72
Pooled ESS	Total	3.57	3.52	3.65	3.53	3.40
	Men	3.36	3.43	3.58	3.43	3.28
	Women	3.62	3.64	3.72	3.61	3.54
(b) Support for Fines for Gender Unequal Pay						
Korea	Total	3.74	3.18	3.30	3.23	3.09
	Men	3.82	3.10	3.19	3.12	3.04
	Women	3.72	3.27	3.42	3.34	3.15
Pooled ESS	Total	4.28	3.97	4.21	3.99	3.81
	Men	3.75	3.84	4.05	3.84	3.64
	Women	4.40	4.12	4.35	4.13	4.03
(c) Support for Equal Parliamentary Representation						
Korea	Total	3.11	2.97	3.03	3.02	2.88
	Men	3.05	2.76	2.77	2.88	2.62
	Women	3.12	3.20	3.30	3.15	3.15
Pooled ESS	Total	3.71	3.48	3.67	3.51	3.34
	Men	3.11	3.29	3.46	3.32	3.07
	Women	3.84	3.71	3.85	3.69	3.67

Note: Disc. denotes Discrimination; Lib., Mod., and Cons. denote Liberal, Moderate, and Conservative, respectively.

The numerical values reported for Discrimination correspond to the results graphically presented in Figure 8.

The numerical values reported for Political Orientation correspond to the results graphically presented in Figure 9.

(c) Political Parity & Equal Parliamentary Representation			
Korea	2.29	2.98	3.27
Pooled ESS	2.54	2.94	3.69

Note: The numerical values correspond to the results graphically presented in Figure 10.

Appendix 4: Mean Policy Support across Levels of Gender Parity Perceptions

Gender Parity Perceptions	Negative	Neutral	Positive
(a) Family Parity & Equal Paid Parental Leave			
Korea	3.77	3.72	3.81
Pooled ESS	3.03	3.16	3.63
(b) Business Parity & Fines for Gender Unequal Pay			
Korea	2.79	3.16	3.38
Pooled ESS	3.28	3.59	4.12