

# **Influence of Gender and Gender Role Attitudes on Japanese Employees' Evaluations of Female Managers: Evidence from a Nationwide Survey of Full-Time Workers**

**Mami Muto**

Faculty of International Studies, Hannan University, Japan

## **ABSTRACT**

Women are increasingly expected to play active roles in Japanese society. However, they remain underrepresented in political leadership and corporate decision-making positions, and gender inequality persists. This study examined whether individuals' gender role attitudes influence their psychological acceptance of women managers and whether this evaluation differs by the evaluator's gender. The study used an online research panel to collect data from 1,102 full-time Japanese employees (552 men and 550 women, age range 20 to 61 years, Mean age = 43.89, SD = 12.53) and applied a 3-factor between-subjects design: gender role attitude (traditional vs. egalitarian) × manager gender (male vs. female) × participant gender (male vs. female). Results indicated that the three-way interaction was non-significant. However, we observed two significant two-way interactions between a manager's gender and gender role attitude and between a manager's and a participant's gender. Male and female participants with egalitarian gender role attitudes evaluated male managers more favorably than female managers. However, participants with egalitarian attitudes were more accepting of male or female managers than those with traditional attitudes. These findings reflect real-world workplace experiences where people observe a limited number of female role models as managers and heavy burdens placed on women in such roles, including professional responsibilities, domestic work, childcare, and elder care. Additionally, younger participants evaluated managers more negatively, regardless of gender. These generational differences are discussed within the context of current economic conditions in Japan and the younger generation's employment and living environments.

**Keywords:** Female Managers, Gender Role Attitudes, Gender Differences, Japanese Society.

## **STUDY PROBLEM**

Tremmel and Wahl (2023) indicated that women are held to higher standards than men during recruitment, performance evaluations, and promotion processes, across various occupations. They also observed that male leaders are generally preferred over female leaders. Many people believe that women and men possess equal overall competence. However, persistent gender stereotypes distinguish between communal traits associated with women and agentic traits associated with men (Eagly, Nater, Miller, Kaufman, & Sczesny, 2020). These stereotypes describe women as nurturing and cooperative and men as assertive and independent.

A study by Haines, Deaux, and Lofaro (2016) reported that gender stereotypes concerning personal traits, social roles, occupations, and physical attributes are remarkably consistent with findings over 30 years ago. This outcome suggests that despite global social changes, such as increased opportunities for women to participate in leadership and other conspicuous roles, the widespread perception that women are less agentic than men has persisted. Nevertheless, Haines et al. (2016) proposed that these deep-rooted gender stereotypes may eventually change as women's visibility increases and they gain authority in different social circles.

Japan's rank as 118th country out of 146 on the 2024 Global Gender Gap Index reflects the ongoing disparity between the sexes in economic and political participation in Japan (World Economic Forum, 2024). Japanese women are significantly underrepresented in positions of political leadership and corporate decision-making. Women comprised just 9.7% of Japan's national legislature members in 2022, compared to 46.1% in Sweden, 34.5% in the United Kingdom, and 27.9% in the United States. Many countries have substantially increased the representation of women in legislatures over the past three decades. However, female representatives have remained consistently low in the Japanese Diet (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2023a).

The Japanese Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office (2023b) reported that there were 30.24 million employed women and 36.99 million employed men in Japan in 2024. Working women increased by approximately 3.7 million over the preceding decade. Nevertheless, 14.32 million women were in non-regular employment by 2022. Moreover, the proportion of women in non-regular positions increased with age. Furthermore, only 15.5% of Japanese companies had female executives in 2022, much lower than corresponding percentages in France (45.2%), the United Kingdom (40.9%), or the United States (31.3%). The average proportion of female executives for the G7 countries (except for Japan) reached 38.8%. Clearly, there are significantly fewer female managers and leaders in Japan.

Strategic policies were introduced by the Japanese Government in 2021 to overcome this problem. These included the Second Act on the Promotion of Female Participation and Advancement in the Workplace, which required listed companies with more than three directors to appoint at least one woman as a director from 2022. The act also included changes to stock-listing regulations requiring at least 40% female board representation or at least one woman among top leadership roles (e.g., CEO, CFO, and senior independent director) from April 2022. Nevertheless, these measures primarily apply to large, listed corporations. Therefore, many small and medium-sized enterprises have failed to adopt these practices. Moreover, projections suggest that the percentage of female board members may not reach 30% until 2042, even in large corporations (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2023b).

Additionally, Gender inequality in political and economic decision-making remains a significant issue in Japan, perhaps because of negative perceptions about women leaders (Muto, 2019; Muto & Katsurada, 2024). Muto and Katsurada investigated how gender role attitudes and participants' gender influenced the evaluations of women managers. They surveyed male and female university students using the Japanese version of the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS; Wakabayashi & Munekata, 1985). Their study reported no significant effects of the participant's gender on the evaluations of female managers. However, individuals with egalitarian gender role attitudes evaluated female managers more favorably than those with traditional attitudes.

Furthermore, participants with egalitarian views rated female managers more positively than male managers. These results indicated that egalitarian gender role attitudes, rather than the evaluator's gender, were primarily associated with positive evaluations of women leaders. Muto and Katsurada concluded that participants with liberal gender role attitudes were more likely to hold favorable perceptions of women leaders, whereas women leaders were evaluated more critically by participants with traditional attitudes. However, Muto and Katsurada's study was limited to university students without work experience, and participants' evaluations were based on hypothetical impressions rather than real-world interactions with managers. Attitudes toward managerial roles may differ significantly when individuals enter the workforce and encounter leadership dynamics firsthand. Therefore, the authors identified the need to extend this research to full-time working adults. To fill this gap, this study investigates whether a similar pattern exists among Japanese working adults with regular contact with managers of both sexes.

### **Gender Role Attitudes and Gender as Factors Influencing Attitudes Toward Female Leaders**

Recent studies suggest that individual gender role attitudes play a significant role in perpetuating gender discrimination and inequality (Muto & Katsurada, 2024). Gender role attitudes are learned dispositions that consistently reflect favorable or unfavorable responses to traditional gender roles. People who strongly believe in gender equality have egalitarian attitudes, whereas those who support conventional gender distinctions have traditional attitudes (e.g., Suzuki, 1991, 1994). These attitudes are deeply held values that influence an individual's perceptions, emotions, and behaviors. They also shape perspectives on marriage, gender relations, education, careers, and society. People with egalitarian gender role attitudes, for example, are less likely to view parenting solely as the woman's responsibility. Moreover, they tend not to assign fixed roles to fathers and mothers (Azuma & Suzuki, 1991).

On the other hand, individuals with traditional gender role attitudes are more likely to believe that men should work outside of the home, whereas women should stay at home, and that housework and child care are women's duties (Muto & Katsurada, 2024). Such attitudes can, in turn, cause managers and employees to accept gender differences at work, such as unequal career advancement, uneven skill development, and compensation. Women with more traditional views might work hard to navigate competing work-family roles, which could lead to fatigue, stress-related health problems, and family strife (e.g., Hochschild, 2012). Similarly, men with traditional views may work long hours and suffer from overwork-related illness or have a family environment characterized by the absence of a paternal figure (Suzuki, 2017).

In addition to gender role attitudes, the present study also examines the influence of gender itself, i.e., if men and women evaluate female leaders differently. Muto and Katsurada (2024) reported no significant gender effects in attitudes toward managers; however, studies by Muto (2019) and Wakabayashi and Munekata (1985) reported gender-based differences in such attitudes. Moreover, men are generally more likely than women to endorse traditional gender role attitudes (Muto, 2019; Suzuki, 2017; Wakabayashi & Munekata, 1985). Therefore, there might be persisting gender-based differences in views on gender equality. Accordingly, this study investigates gender role attitudes and gender as key variables that influence female leaders' evaluations.

## **Study Overview and Hypothesis**

This study investigates how individuals' gender role attitudes influence their evaluations of female leaders, specifically female managers, and whether these evaluations differ based on the evaluator's gender. The study targeted full-time employees across Japan who regularly interact with both male and female managers. Compared to Muto and Katsurada (2024), this study included a larger and more demographically diverse sample of approximately 1,000 respondents from their 20s to 60s. We presented the participants with a male and a female managerial profile. All aspects of the profiles were identical except for the manager's gender, allowing for controlled comparison based on participant characteristics such as gender and gender role attitudes. We hypothesized that male participants with traditional gender role attitudes would negatively evaluate female managers.

## **METHOD**

### **Participants and Procedure**

This study was conducted using an online research firm. It was implemented in two phases: a screening phase and the main surveys. Data collection took place from March 8 to March 15, 2023. In the screening phase, the survey was distributed to 28,413 men and women, yielding 4,261 responses. From this pool, we identified respondents who were currently employed full-time in Japan as participants in the main study.

The primary survey was distributed to 1,659 individuals selected through stratified sampling to ensure a balanced representation across age groups. We collected valid responses from 1,119 full-time employees aged 20 to 61 living across Japan. The final sample, excluding 17 data sets due to incomplete responses on key variables, comprised 1,102 participants (mean age 43.89 years, SD = 12.53). This sample included 222 participants in their 20s, 225 in their 30s, 216 in their 40s, 221 in their 50s, and 218 in their 60s. The sample had a nearly equal gender distribution (552 men and 550 women). Among the participants, 608 were married, 494 were unmarried, 532 had children, and 570 did not. Of these participants, 668 lived in dual-income households, 212 in single-income households (where the respondent worked and the spouse was a homemaker), and 222 who lived alone. Their occupations included 482 clerical employees, 314 technical employees, and 306 in other sales or service positions.

### **Research Design**

This study employed a 3-factor between-subjects design: Gender Role Attitude (Traditional vs. Egalitarian) × Manager Gender Condition (Male vs. Female) × Participant Gender (Male vs. Female). Participants were randomly assigned to either the male manager or the female manager condition. Of the total sample, 546 participants evaluated the male manager condition, whereas 556 evaluated the female manager condition.

### **Measures**

#### **Attitudes Toward Managers:**

Participants' attitudes toward managers were assessed using the Japanese version of the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS, Wakabayashi & Munekata, 1985), which includes 19 items. Sample items include statements such as: "Women lack the authority required to be successful leaders," "As managers, women are more likely than men to be ruled by their emotions," and "It is less desirable for women to assume leadership roles compared to men." Participants rated their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale. In the male manager condition, all gender

terms in the items were reversed; for example, “women” was replaced with “men” and vice versa. The mean score was calculated to represent each participant’s overall attitude toward the manager in the assigned condition. Higher scores indicated more favorable evaluations of the male or female manager. The internal consistency reliability (Cronbach’s  $\alpha$ ) for this scale in the current study was .73 for the female manager condition and .91 for the male manager condition. This measure served as the primary dependent variable for hypothesis testing.

### **Gender Role Attitudes:**

The 15-item Scale of Egalitarian Sex Role Attitudes–Short Form (SESRA-S; Suzuki, 1987, 1991, 1994) to assess gender role attitudes. Sample statements included items such as: “A woman’s place is in the home, and a man’s place is in the workforce,” and “Housework should be a shared responsibility between men and women” (reverse-scored). The participants responded to this scale on a 5-point Likert scale. The average score was computed for each participant. Higher scores indicated more egalitarian gender role attitudes. In the present study, the SESRA-S demonstrated high internal consistency ( $\alpha = .90$ ). This score was used as a key independent variable in hypothesis testing.

### **Demographic Variables**

Participants provided demographic information, including age, gender, marital status (married or unmarried), parental status (whether they had children), and household type (dual-income, single-income, or living alone). They also reported their occupational category, choosing from among company employees, public servants, self-employed, executives, or others. Company employees further specified their role as clerical, technical, or other (e.g., sales or service-related).

### **Ethical Considerations**

Participants were recruited from a pool of registered monitors with the online survey company, Fastask. Their participation was entirely voluntary. At the start of the screening survey, the survey company informed the participants that they could withdraw from the study at any time, that all data collected would be anonymized and used solely for statistical analysis, such that no individual could be identified. Only those who provided informed consent were allowed to proceed with the survey. The same procedure was applied in the primary survey. Participants could respond to each question only once and could not return to previous items. The research ethics committee of the author's affiliated institution gave ethical approval for this study.

## **RESULTS**

The study categorized participants based on their gender role attitude scores: median or higher scorers were classified as having egalitarian gender role attitudes, and below-median scorers as having traditional gender role attitudes. An independent samples *t*-test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two groups,  $t(1100) = 50.53, p < .01$ . The egalitarian group had significantly higher gender role attitude scores (mean = 4.07, standard deviation = 0.44) than the traditional group (mean = 2.90, standard deviation = 0.32), indicating more substantial support for egalitarian views. The female manager condition included 149 traditional men, 119 traditional women, 129 egalitarian men, and 159 egalitarian women, whereas the male manager condition included 152 traditional men, 103 traditional women, 122 egalitarian men, and 169 egalitarian women.

We conducted a stepwise multiple regression analysis to examine the predictors of participants' evaluations of managers. The dependent variable was the participants' overall attitude score toward their assigned manager. Independent variables included age, gender, gender role attitude score, manager gender condition, marital status, parental status, household structure (dual-income, single-income, or single-person), and job type. Categorical variables were dummy-coded as follows: gender (0 = male, 1 = female), manager condition (0 = male manager, 1 = female manager), marital status (0 = unmarried, 1 = married), and parental status (0 = has children, 1 = no children). Additional dummy variables were created to distinguish between categories based on household structure and job type. We identified three variables with statistically significant effects on manager evaluations. Gender role attitude score was the strongest predictor ( $\beta = .58, p < .01$ ), followed by the manager's gender ( $\beta = -.25, p < .01$ ) and age ( $\beta = .05, p < .05$ ). The regression model was statistically significant,  $F(3, 1098) = 282.06, p < .01$ , with an adjusted  $R^2$  of .43. None of the remaining variables contributed significantly to the model.

### Hypothesis Testing

We hypothesized that "male participants with traditional gender role attitudes would evaluate female managers most negatively." To test this hypothesis, we conducted a three-way between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) with gender role attitude (traditional vs. egalitarian), manager gender condition (male vs. female), and participant gender (male vs. female) as independent variables and the scores of participants' attitude toward the manager as the dependent variable. The multiple regression analysis indicated that age significantly affected the manager evaluation. To control for the effects of age, we included age as a covariate and analyzed covariance (ANCOVA). Table 1 presents the mean scores and standard deviations for each condition.

**Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Scores Toward Managers Across Different Conditions**

Participant Gender	Female Manager - Traditional	Female Manager - Egalitarian	Male Manager - Traditional	Male Manager - Egalitarian
Male	3.22 (0.31)	3.67 (0.37)	3.30 (0.50)	4.13 (0.50)
Female	3.23 (0.31)	3.65 (0.37)	3.38 (0.51)	4.22 (0.51)

\*Values are presented as means with standard deviations in parentheses.\*

The two-way interaction effects were not statistically significant. However, there was a significant simple interaction between gender role attitude and manager gender condition,  $F(1, 1094) = 64.41, p < .01, \eta^2 = .06$ . A post hoc, simple main effects analysis indicated that participants with egalitarian gender role attitudes in the male manager condition rated managers significantly higher than those with traditional attitudes,  $F(1, 1098) = 534.80, p < .01, \eta^2 = .33$ . Similarly, in the female manager condition, the egalitarian group rated managers more favorably than the traditional group,  $F(1, 1098) = 127.92, p < .01, \eta^2 = .10$ . Moreover, participants in the egalitarian group evaluated male managers significantly higher than female managers,  $F(1, 1098) = 192.12, p < .01, \eta^2 = .15$ . Overall, participants in the egalitarian group evaluated male and female managers more favorably than those in the traditional group. Nevertheless, even egalitarian participants rated male managers higher than female managers. In contrast, there were no significant differences between male and female managers' evaluations among traditional participants. Furthermore, the participant's gender did not

produce significant effects. These did not support the hypothesis that male participants with traditional gender roles rate female managers most negatively.

## DISCUSSION

This study examined whether gender role attitudes influenced people's evaluations of female managers and whether those evaluations differed according to the evaluator's gender. The study tested the hypothesis that male participants with traditional gender role attitudes would negatively evaluate female managers. The study also compared evaluations of female and male managers.

Muto and Katsurada (2024) reported that university students with egalitarian attitudes evaluated female managers favorably. In contrast, the present study revealed that egalitarian participants, regardless of their gender, rated male managers more positively than female managers. Nonetheless, consistent with prior research, participants with egalitarian gender role attitudes accepted male and female managers more than those with traditional attitudes. They also evaluated female managers more positively overall. Nevertheless, even egalitarian participants evaluated male managers higher than female ones, which contradicts the study's hypothesis. One possible explanation for this discrepancy is the lived workplace experience of the participants. Working adults may see the scarcity of female role models in managerial positions and witness the visible strain experienced by women in such positions, who must balance work, domestic responsibilities, childcare, and elder care. Such observations may evoke negative emotions or skepticism toward the viability of women assuming leadership roles. This idea was also expressed by Tanaka and Waki (2023). The availability of only a few women in leadership positions to act as role models and the self-doubt of some women make Japanese women reluctant to pursue management positions. Muto and Katsurada (2024) suggested the possibility that increasing the visibility of confident, successful female managers could provide younger women with role models and mentors, empowering them and developing a more positive perception of women in leadership positions.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that participants' age positively predicted favorable attitudes toward male and female managers, contrasting with the results of Muto and Katsurada (2024), who reported that younger university students were more accepting of male and female managers. The current study indicated a positive correlation between age and egalitarian gender role attitudes ( $r = .24, p < .01$ ), suggesting that older participants held more egalitarian views. This finding supported a nationwide online survey of 10,906 men and women aged 20 to 60 conducted by the Gender Equality Bureau of the Cabinet Office in 2021 and 2022 that examined unconscious gender bias in the workplace. The bureau's study indicated that younger people, particularly men in their 20s and 30s, were likelier to agree with the statement, "In the workplace, women should support men." Specifically, 20.5% of men in their 20s and 17.4% of those in their 30s agreed, compared to 16.2% of men in their 40s, 14.7% in their 50s, and 12.2% in their 60s. Among women, 13.4% in their 20s and 11.9% in their 30s endorsed this view, whereas the endorsement decreased to 11.5% in their 40s, 8.6% in their 50s, and 9.7% in their 60s.

These findings suggest that unconscious gender role bias remains strong in younger generations, regardless of gender. This generational pattern could explain the results of the current study, which showed that younger participants were less accepting of male and female

managers. According to the same survey, younger men are likelier than older men or women to generally agree with the statement, "There is no need to provide education or training to promote women to management positions." These findings suggest that traditional gender role norms influence younger people more strongly, regardless of the wider societal changes aiming for gender equality.

The current economic conditions in Japan may be a factor contributing to these differences between the generations. As described above, the participation rate of women in the labor force has risen, but non-regular employment has also increased for both men and women, and wages are low. For instance, 22.9% of male workers (approximately 6.91 million) were non-regular employees, whereas 56.0% of female workers were non-regular (approximately 14.75 million) in 2019 (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, 2020). Additionally, the average annual income in Japan for 2020 was ¥4.33 million (National Tax Agency, 2021), indicating an absence of individual earnings growth over the past 30 years.

Many Japanese companies have a seniority-based pay structure in which younger employees earn much less than older ones. Therefore, younger people often have more financial difficulties. Simultaneously, they remain burdened by deeply rooted gender role expectations in Japanese society, including men being the primary breadwinners, whereas women are responsible for housework, childcare, and elder care. These traditional roles are maintained in Japan despite single incomes becoming insufficient to sustain a household and dual incomes a necessity. The resulting social and economic pressure may create inner conflicts, particularly among younger people who are unable to meet these expectations. The resulting dissatisfaction with their circumstances and the broader societal structure may be displaced onto female managers through negative evaluations and attitudes.

Studies on intergroup bias have suggested that individuals experiencing threats to their self-esteem or personal value may engage in out-group derogation and in-group favoritism as a means of preserving their self-worth and social identity (e.g., Ishii & Numazaki, 2011, 2012). Applying this framework to the current findings suggests that male participants viewed female managers as members of an out-group, resulting in more negative evaluations. Similarly, female participants not in managerial roles may have perceived female managers as different from themselves or as out-group members and respond accordingly. Although the present study did not empirically test these underlying psychological mechanisms, testing them is crucial for future research.

Cultural stereotypes about women, men, and leadership roles are evolving, with some evidence indicating a decline in overt prejudice. Nevertheless, while diminishing, preferences for male superiors persist (Madden, 2011). This lingering bias might have influenced the results of the present study. Respondents may have negatively reacted to women in leadership positions because it is inconsistent with current gender-based stereotypes, particularly the expectation that women should be communal, not agentic. Such cultural stereotypes could have led to lower valuations of female than male managers, even if participants held relatively egalitarian gender role attitudes.

Gender disparity is ingrained more deeply in Japan than in other countries. As a result, there are pronounced inhibitions to identifying with and preferring female over male leadership,



even among people who are ideologically inclined to be relatively egalitarian. This study's results show the critical need to install egalitarian gender role attitudes among Japanese people to improve the presence and acceptance of female managers. Moreover, Japanese society must pursue structural changes to reduce the possibility that women in management become scapegoats for frustrations caused by inflexible gender norms and economic insecurity. Such structural changes include promoting educational initiatives that offset negative gender biases, ensuring stable employment, securing livable wages, and expanding social safety nets. Society can develop an environment where men and women are free from the pressure to conform to traditional gender roles and where female leadership is normalized and respected only through such comprehensive efforts.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number JP22K18124 supported this research. I express my sincere gratitude to Professor Emerita Emiko Katsurada of Kwansei Gakuin University for her invaluable guidance and insightful advice on this research.

### References

1. Azuma, K., & Suzuki, A. (1991). Review of research on sex role attitudes. *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, 62, 270–276.
2. Eagly, A. H., Nater, C., Miller, D. I., Kaufmann, M., & Sczesny, S. (2020). Gender stereotypes have changed: A cross temporal meta-analysis of U.S. public opinion polls from 1946-2018. *American Psychologist*, 75(3), 301-315.
3. Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office. (2023a). White paper on gender equality 2022. Retrieved May 9, 2025, from [https://www.gender.go.jp/about\\_danjo/whitepaper/r04/zentai/pdfban.html](https://www.gender.go.jp/about_danjo/whitepaper/r04/zentai/pdfban.html)
4. Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office. (2023b). *Data collection for promoting a virtuous cycle of women's empowerment and economic growth*. Retrieved May 9, 2025, from <https://www.gender.go.jp/kaigi/kento/kouzyunkan/index.html>
5. Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office. (2022). FY 2022 survey research on unconscious bias based on gender: Survey results. Retrieved June 17, 2023, from [https://www.gender.go.jp/research/kenkyu/pdf/seibetsu\\_r04/02.pdf](https://www.gender.go.jp/research/kenkyu/pdf/seibetsu_r04/02.pdf)
6. Haines, E. S., Deaux, K., & Lofaro, N. (2016). The Times They Are a-Changing ... or Are They Not? A comparison of gender stereotypes, 1983-2014. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 40, 1-11.
7. Hochschild, A., & Machung, A. (2012). *The second shift: working families and the revolution at home*. Penguin Publishing Group.
8. Ishii, K., & Numazaki, M. (2011). The effects of threat to self-worth on men's implicit attitude related to gender. *Japanese Journal of Social Psychology*, 27, 24-30.
9. Ishii, K., & Numazaki, M. (2012). The effects of threat to self-worth on implicit prejudice of men toward women. *Japanese Journal of Interpersonal and Social Psychology*, 12, 67-76.
10. Madden, M. (2011). Gender stereotypes of leaders: Do they influence leadership in higher education? *Wagadu: A Journal of Transnational Women's and Gender Studies*, 9(1), Article 4, 55-88.
11. Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. (2020). *White paper on health, labour and welfare 2020: Considering social security and work styles in the Reiwa era*. Retrieved May 9, 2025, from <https://www.mhlw.go.jp/content/000735866.pdf>
12. Muto, M. (2019). A Study on cognitions of followers toward women as leaders: Focusing on effects of gender role attitudes and human-rights senses. *The Economic Studies*, 42, 41-50.

13. Muto, M. & Katsurada, E. (2024). Impact of Gender Role Attitudes and Gender Differences on the Evaluation of Female Leaders: Insights from a Survey of Japanese University. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 11, 35-43.
14. National Tax Agency. (2021). *Survey on private-sector salaries: Statistical report*. Retrieved May 9, 2025, <https://www.nta.go.jp/publication/statistics/kokuzeicho/minkan2020/pdf/000.pdf>
15. Suzuki, A. (1987). Construction and validation of a feminism scale. *Japanese Journal of Social Psychology*, 2, 45-54.
16. Suzuki, A. (1991). Egalitarian sex role attitudes: Reliability and validity of SESRA (English Form) and comparison of American and Japanese women. *Japanese Journal of Social Psychology*, 6, 80-87.
17. Suzuki, A. (1994). Construction of a short-form of the scale of egalitarian sex role attitudes (SESRA-S). *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, 65, 34-41.
18. Suzuki, A. (2017). Mechanisms of persistence in gender inequality: Perspective of work and family. *Japanese Psychological Review*, 60, 62-80.
19. Tanaka, R., & Waki, H. (2023). Appointing women to management positions as seen from the current status of women's employment. *Journal of Suzuka University and Suzuka Junior College*, 6, 139-150.
20. Tremmel, M., & Wahl, I. (2023). Gender stereotypes in leadership: Analyzing the content and evaluation of stereotypes about typical, male, and female leaders. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1-17.
21. Wakabayashi, M., & Munekata, H. (1985). A study on attitudes toward women as managers: An attempt to develop a Japanese version Woman as Managers Scale (WAMS). *Bulletin of the Faculty of Education, Nagoya University*, 32, 257-285.
22. World Economic Forum. (2024). The global gender gap report 2024. Retrieved May 9, 2025, from [https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GGGR\\_2024.pdf](https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2024.pdf)