2nd Vienna Gender Equality Monitor



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Dear readers,

This is the second edition of the Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report. With its 123 indicators for measuring goals in twelve areas, this tool paints a clear picture of the state of gender equality in Vienna.

As Executive City Councillor for Women's Issues, it is my aim to ensure that all women and girls can live a safe, self-determined and independent life in Vienna. The Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report is a fundamental tool for showing us on which areas we must focus.

This English summary provides you with an overview of the core results of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report in all twelve areas. For detailed information on the developments of the last three years, read the full report in German at: www.gleichstellungsmonitor.wien.at

Yours sincerely, Sandra Frauenberger Executive City Councillor for Women's Issues

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Introduction

The 2016 Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report uses available empirical data to make the state of equality between women and men in Vienna and changes over time measurable and visible.

This publication summarises some of the main results of the different chapters in English. For the full report and detailed charts see the German report at: www.gleichstellungsmonitor.wien.at

Three years after the publication of the 2013 Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report, this report looks at how the situation of women and men in Vienna has changed over this period. In which areas have we gotten closer to the goal of gender equality, and how much closer? In which areas do we still need intensive efforts to enable both women and men to lead self-determined, fair, and safe lives?

The Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report was developed to measure and analyse the status quo and development of equality of men and women on the basis of empirical data. The twelve topic areas and 123 indicators chosen for the report reflect a broad understanding of equality. They are oriented on concrete equality goals developed by the Municipal Department for the Promotion and Coordination of Women's Issues (MA 57) together with other specialist departments and experts of the City of Vienna as well as external researchers (cf. "Methodology" below). The first Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report presented the status quo of equality, explained the equality issues in each area, and discussed the availability and explanatory power of the data used. Three years later, we updated the data and created indicators for the development over time.

The Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report provides the empirical basis for the development of measures for the promotion of women in Vienna. It is with this aim that the 2010 government programme of the City of Vienna's coalition government of Social Democrats and Greens expressed the need for the development of a gender equality monitoring report:

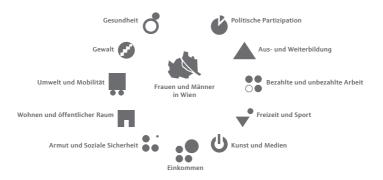
"In order to have ongoing information on the state and development of the living and working situations of women in Vienna, we shall

Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring: Goals and Methodology

create a Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report. The Gender Equality Monitoring Report shall be published periodically and identify the issues and disadvantages that women in Vienna face. It will serve as a basis for the continuous development of measures for the promotion of women in Vienna"

Methodology

The Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report analyses equality in 12 areas, which are also the chapters of the report:



Women and men in Vienna (A), political participation (B), education and training (C), paid and unpaid work (D), leisure time and sports (E), art and media (F), income (G), poverty and social security (H), housing and public space (I), environment and mobility (J), violence (K), and health (L).

These twelve areas are observed via 123 indicators. The interpretation of data begins with the construction of indicators, when the decision is made to relate certain data with specific sets of criteria to each other. The focus is on the graphical presentation of the data. The textual presentation of indicators is mainly descriptive, i.e. it highlights specific differences or developments. The summaries of the individual areas interpret the data descriptions and developments with reference to the equality goals for that chapter. The overall summary provides an overview of all topics and relates the developments in these different areas to each other, with the goal of identifying where and how actions can be taken to achieve the equality goals. However, the objective is not to provide a comprehensive analysis of equality issues in each area. The description of indicators will – and is intended to – give rise to questions concerning the causes of gender-specific differences. These questions cannot be answered in the monitoring report, as they require further detailed analyses.

In an effort to look more closely at the specific situations of different groups of women, the focus of the 2016 Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report is on women with a migration background (i.e., first or second-generation immigrants). Each future report will have a different focus (e.g. a focus on lesbian women, older women, or women with disabilities). Much of the data for the 2016 focus is derived from a survey conducted by the SORA Institute for Social Research and Consulting in 2015 for the Frauenbarometer report with a focus on first- and second-generation immigrant women (cf. Zandonella and Larcher 2015). This allows us to compare the situation of women with no migration background, women with a EU country migration background, and women with a third-country migration background for important indicators. This survey was also used as a source for some indicators from the 2013 report for which there was no other current data available. This was especially the case for data from the 2013 study Sozialwissenschaftliche Grundlagenforschung der Stadt Wien (SOWI-II).

Our quiding principle was to create an objective, data-based reference document for the evaluation of gender equality and equal opportunities, and to use it to make changes visible, define areas of action for equality policy, and assess equality goals. This approach is a fundamental part of evidence-based equality policy and serves to identify areas in which women remain underrepresented. There are many examples in politics past and present that show how subjective interpretations of data can distort truth to serve certain interests. The Gender Equality Monitoring Report is based primarily on official statistics prepared by Municipal Department 23 – Economic Affairs, Labour and Statistics and by Statistics Austria, as well as administrative data provided by different municipal departments of the City of Vienna and other institutions. In the indicators, these data and statistics are related to assessment criteria on which the main equality goals are based. This allows us to maintain transparency regarding the goals, data and criteria relevant for the development of the indicators while using multiple different approaches for complex issues like income, poverty or violence. This may, at times, impede the simple presentation of issues and might be perceived as contradictory at first glance. However, we hope it will encourage readers to ascertain which population, groups or indicators are used in a definition.

The objective of this report is to present the state of equality of women and men over the same wide spectrum of topics as in the 2013 report. A small number of indicators could not be updated in the same form as in the 2013 report due to a lack of current data or changes in the surveys providing the data. Due to the inclusion of new indicators and some restructuring of indicators in response to feedback to the 2013 Gender Equality Monitoring Report, availability of data, topicality, and the 2016 focus on first- and second-generation immigrant women, the number of indicators has increased from 119 to 123. For most indicators, we are able to show developments over time. These developments mainly concern the period between 2012 and 2015, although in some areas, more current data allows us to show developments until 2016. In some cases, however, the most current data is still from the previous assessment period (e.g. the most recent data for income from self-employment is for 2013).

The way in which data is presented and interpreted in the 2016 Gender Equality Monitoring Report is based on the findings of the 2013 Gender Equality Monitoring Report, in particular regarding discussion of equality issues and the explanatory power of the data sources used. The figures and tables are complemented by information on the data source and year as well as methodological comments regarding the significance of the data or the population sampled. An in-depth description of the data sources used can be found in the data glossary in the German report.

In contrast to the first Gender Equality Monitoring Report, which depicted the status quo of gender equality in 2013, this and future reports focus on the development of the gender equality indicators over time. These are generally presented as individual indices to make it easy to show aggregated equality indicators over time. If data is differentiated by groups, sectors, etc., this usually relates only to the current situation – unless the distribution is a core issue of that equality dimension, e.g. where horizontal segregation in professions and industries.

Gender equality monitoring principles

Based on discussions in expert workshops, the following principles were formulated for the Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report.

Focus on women: The Gender Equality Monitoring Report focuses on the discrimination of women, so the areas were selected with regard to the relevance of the problems for women. Areas in which improvements are needed for men are not explicitly discussed in this report. However, the equality aspects that are included in the report are shown for both women and men.

Relevance for equality: The Gender Equality Monitoring Report includes only indicators that refer to an equality-related problem. General goals that are not relevant for equality issues were not included.

Targets: The focus of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report is on targets. The monitoring programme is intended to monitor the development of equality-related aspects, not evaluate measures or projects of the City of Vienna. Therefore, results of measures are only considered when target results cannot be measured, e.g. increasing the participation in specific services that provide advice or support (e.g. clients of the Vienna Homeless Services).

Use of available data sources: The Gender Equality Monitoring Report uses available data sources and processes available data; no separate surveys are conducted. Therefore, a wide range of different data sources is used, including administrative data, survey data, official statistics, information from websites, and information provided by institutions for the purpose of this report.

Continuous availability of indicators: The Gender Equality Monitoring Report will be published in regular intervals. Therefore, it includes primarily indicators that can be observed over time, i.e. where the data sources on which they are based are available continuously or in suitable intervals.

Relevance for Vienna: The indicators in the Gender Equality Monitoring Report all refer to Vienna, although they describe different populations, e.g. people living in Vienna, people working in Vienna, or students at schools and universities in Vienna

Making missing data visible: The indicators of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report are based solely on available data. This frequently limits the

development of indicators. Such limitations are discussed in the report. This includes data sources that contain no information on gender or other social characteristics, that do not adequately depict the realities of women's lives, or that have not been prepared in a way that would allow evaluation by gender. Such missing data will be discussed explicitly to provide a basis for the further development of data sources and indicators.



Operationalising gender

The focus of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report focuses on structures of inequality between women and men by describing the dimensions of inequality between the sexes. However, this does not mean that women and men are seen as binary gender expressions. The objective is to also measure the many different dimensions of women and men. However, it is often not possible to differentiate further in empirical analysis, e.g. by age, level of education, nationality or migration background, physical impairments and the intersectional mutual influence of different structural categories, due to too small sample sizes, unclear data presentation or the complexities of the task.

Sex is not considered an explanatory independent variable, which would assume that the behaviour and experiences of humans differ from each other because of their biological sex. Instead, we ascribe sex a moderator function, i.e., we assume that certain mechanisms of cause and effect are stronger in one sex than the other (cf. Döring 2013). For example, sex may impact a person's financial situation via the profession they choose. Biological sex is considered a dichotomous indicator for social gender, for gender identity or experienced gender role, although we are fully aware of the fact that it is not primary or secondary sexual characteristics that determine what profession someone chooses but rather the roles they ascribe to the female/feminine and male/

Equality perspectives

Equality of women and men is a complex concept that is hard to measure because of the interplay of many different areas. There are also different interpretations of what the goal of equality measures should be. The concept

of equality is dependent on the underlying gender perspectives, i.e. the ideas of what the division of labour between men and women should look like or how to accomplish the transition to an equal society (cf. Leitner/Walenta 2007; European Institute for Gender Equality 2013). Different concepts and ideas are not only found in everyday conversations or political programmes, but also in feminist discourse. As the development of the goals for the monitoring programme showed, it is not possible to define equality goals for all areas that are generally valid and so clearly and concretely defined that unambiguously interpretable indicators could be directly derived from them. The problem of different interpretations of equality becomes apparent in the discussion about part-time work: Is part-time work a good way of balancing job and family and should be supported, or should it be prevented because it has a negative impact on women's careers?

In order to ensure a uniform approach to the individual topics despite the diversity of equality issues, the concrete indicators were chosen based on a concept that includes different equality perspectives. It is based on the 3R method, which was developed in Sweden as a tool for the systematic analysis of gender mainstreaming processes. The three Rs stand for representation, resources and realities (cf. Bergmann/Pimminger 2004). Representation is the quantitative distribution of women and men in an area, i.e. it describes the access of women and men to the field in question. The second part analyses how resources, such as time, money, space and education, are distributed among women and men. All types of resources are weighted equally, and various types of resources are considered for each issue. This makes it possible to address links between the different areas, as the lack of financial, temporal, spatial and education resources can be major obstacles hindering women from accessing certain areas. For example, financial resources provide access to various areas (e.g. leisure-time activities, cultural events, high-quality living), but their lack is at the same time the result of disadvantages in other areas (such as different valuation of "female" and "male" work). The available temporal resources are heavily influenced by the division of labour between women and men and the gender roles and stereotypes on which it is based, particularly in the context of unpaid work. They influence the access to paid work, various leisure-time activities, volunteer work and the degree of political involvement. Access to spatial resources is determined by financial resources (housing, mobility) but also by whether gender criteria are considered in designing public space. Education

resources limit access to other areas not only by way of formal degrees but also because of different competences and access to information.

Gender equality monitoring goals

- Development of a monitoring and steering tool that can make developments in gender equality visible continuously and in the long term and allows decision-makers to react early to them, and can help develop tailored measures to strengthen desired effects that promote women or reduce barriers.
- The **ongoing development of meaningful indicators** that can inform policies for the promotion of women and equality issues in Vienna based on clearly defined equality goals for Vienna.
- Raising awareness and understanding of departments concerned with the
 collection and evaluation of data and promoting synergies and cooperation in areas relevant for equality and diversity within the Vienna City
 Administration.
- Identifying and making data gaps visible with regard to gender, sex and
 intersectionality, working constructively towards closing these gaps, and
 initiating inter-department discussions on the collection and evaluation of
 "meaningful" data and their availability.
- Dissemination of equality issues to the public through participatory measures to increase interest in equality even among those parts of Vienna's population that are not yet being reached effectively (as recorded in the Gender Equality Monitoring Report) in order to incorporate their suggestions into the development of the monitoring report. Utilising the knowledge of both experts and laypeople in the further development of the indicators in order to incorporate diverse expert perspectives and heterogenic ways and realities of life into the analyses.

Selected facts and figures from 12 chapters

Frauen und Männer in Wien

Chapter **A**

The demographic data for Vienna show that neither women nor men can be considered homogeneous groups. Differences in age, origin, education, so-cio-economic status, and household and family composition give rise to a wide range of lifestyles and living situations that are distributed differently among women and men:

- → Women have a higher age structure than men: 19% of women and 14% of men are older than 64.
- → The share of people of non-Austrian origin is slightly lower in women, particularly for non-European origin (people of non-Austrian origin: 38% of women, 39% of men).
- → Women are more likely than men to live in single-person households (12% of women, 10% of men), single-parent households (10% of women and 3% of men) and institutional households, such as nursing homes (2.2% of women and 1.8% of men).
- → Women are less likely than men to live without a partner or spouse, but more likely to have children living in the same household: 39% of women and 34% of men have children in their household.

In Vienna, over half, or 51%, of the population are women, which makes them the majority of the resident population statistically speaking, but the share of women and men differs strongly in different sub-groups. There is a slight majority of boys in childhood, the numbers are balanced among adults of working age, and finally, there is a majority of women in the elderly population (60+). Women also make up a clear majority of people with compulsory schooling only and people who receive attendance allowance. Men, on the other hand, make up the majority of the working population, commuters, people with disabilities eligible for special support under the Employment Act, and people with a university or other tertiary degree.

Vienna's population grew by 8% between 2011 and 2016. The share of men increased more strongly than that of women (9% vs. 6%), resulting in a slight downward trend for the share of women in the resident population. Well over half of this increase happened in the past two years and can mainly be attributed to immigration. The share of Viennese inhabitants of non-Austrian origin increased by five percentage points in both women and men between 2011 and 2016. Among women, it was mainly the share of women from other EU or EFTA countries that increased, while among men there was also a high increase in men from non-European countries.

In terms of lifestyles, there are divergent developments. The current data on family compositions does not allow us to determine whether the trend towards less social support networks of families is continuing. There are few visible changes in the distribution of household types. There is a slight reduction in the share of women living in a household with children in the so-called family phase between ages 25 and 44. Foster care is increasingly provided by non-traditional families, especially single parents. The number of marriages is increasing slightly, while there is a downward trend in the number of divorces.

The indicators for sociodemographic structure and the household types and lifestyles of women and men in Vienna paint a picture of the diverse conditions of life that determine the differences between women and men.

Chapter

B Political participation

Goal: Increasing the participation of women in Vienna's provincial, municipal and district politics

Indicator B1 Politics at provincial, municipal and district level in Vienna

The share of women in the Vienna City Council varies by political parties (data from April 2016):

- SPÖ 43%
- FPÖ 21%
- Grüne 50%
- ÖVP 57%
- NEOS 40%

- → The share of female members of the Vienna City Council increased from 34% in 2012 to 37% in 2016.
- → This result can be mainly attributed to the growing number of female City Council members in the Green Party and the ÖVP, to a lesser extent in the FPÖ, and the newly elected NEOS members.

Indicator B2 Nominations by political parties

→ The share of female candidates nominated by their parties for the elections to the City Council, however, decreased from 2010 to 2015: From 43% to 42% overall, and from 48% to 43% among the top ten party list positions. This reduction is due to the lower share of women in top party list positions in the FPÖ, ÖVP and NEOS.

Indicator B7 Political activity

(focus on women with a migration background)

- → 36% of women with no migration background, 35% of women with a migration background from EU or EFTA countries and 30% of women with a third-country migration background were active in political parties, citizens' groups, participatory activities of the City of Vienna (such as the tenants' advisory council or Local Agenda 21) or political associations. The discrepancy is partially due to legal constraints on participation as well as differences in education, risk of poverty, and time.
- → However, when asked whether they could imagine being politically active, women with a migration background are more active: 64% of women with a background from third countries and 67% of women with a background from EU countries say they could, compared to only 53% of women with no migration background.
- → The fields in which they are politically active are also different: Women with a third-country migration background are more active in issues concerning children and adolescents, while women with no migration background are more active in issues concerning the environment, labour rights, and equality.

···· Goal: Increasing participation of women in statutory interest groups

Indicator B4 Statutory interest groups and Indicator B5 Trade unions

- → The share of women is increasing in the executive committees of statutory interest groups, but not so much in the boards of directors. Compared to 2013, it only increased in the Chamber of Architects and Chartered Engineering Consultants (from 0 to 33%). In the Chamber of Labour, female representation decreased from 50 to 40%, and there are no longer any women on the boards of the Chamber of Physicians and the Austrian Economic Chamber.
- → Little has changed in the participation of women in unions and works councils: 42% of the members and 39% of the board of the Trade Union Federation and 38% of shop stewards are women.

Chapter

C Education and training

Goal: Dismantling gender segregation in the education sector

Indicator C1 Kindergarten

→ The share of children aged 3 to 5 years in kindergarten has increased from 89% for both girls and boys in 2012/2013 to 93% for girls and 92% for boys in 2014/2015.

Indicator C 2 School

- → There are less girls than boys in polytechnic schools, part-time vocational schools for apprentices, and schools for students with special needs, but they make up the majority of students at VET schools, VET colleges and upper secondary schools.
- → At VET schools and colleges, gender segregation remains striking: Only 31% of students in technical and trade schools and colleges are girls, while girls dominate in schools and colleges that provide training for commercial (56%) business (69%) and social professions (90%).

Indicator C 3 Apprenticeships

→ Little has changed since 2012 with regard to the most popular trades for apprenticeships: 47% of girls choose to train in office administration, retail, or as hairdressers, with only minor changes from 2012. The share of boys choosing the three most popular trades retail, electrical engineering and automotive engineering increased from 25% to 31%.

Indicator C5 Segregation of teachers

→ The share of women in leadership positions increased in nearly all types of schools from 2012/2013, but is still considerably lower than their share in the faculty. For example, 29% of teachers and 14% of directors at technical VET schools and colleges and 75% of teachers and 50% of directors at business VET schools and colleges are women.

Indicator C6 Professions for the future – ICT (information and communication technologies)

→ 19% of students in tertiary ICT studies are women. There has been an increase in women in these subjects at technical VET colleges and universities, while the number of women apprenticing in these fields decreased from 2012 to 2015. However, the share of women working in these fields is lower – 12% in jobs requiring a university degree and 16% in non-academic ICT jobs.

Indicator C7 Women with low qualifications

- → The share of women among people whose highest level of education is compulsory schooling or lower went down from 61% in 2011 to 59% in 2014 and is now 54% in the 25 to 64 age group.
- → The share of women who have only compulsory schooling is lower in women with an EU migration background (11%) than in women with no migration background (15%). Women with a third-country migration background have a higher share of compulsory schooling only (33%).

Goal: Increasing the share of women working in jobs that match their qualifications

Indicator C11 Employment that matches qualifications

→ Women in full-time employment with no migration background are less likely to be overqualified for their jobs than women with an EU or especially a third-country migration background. When it comes to part-time work, the share of people working in jobs for which they are overqualified is highest among women with no migration background.

Chapter

D Paid and unpaid work

----- Goal: Equal distribution of paid and unpaid work

Indicator D1 Paid and unpaid work

- → In one third of couples without children, both partners work full time, and in 8%, both work part time. In one in five couples, only one of the partners works. The discrepancies are larger in couples with children: In only one in four couples is paid work distributed fairly in terms of full-time or part-time work. In more than half of the couples, the woman does not work or only works part time if the man has a full-time job.
- → In couples without children, one in three women contribute half the family income.
- → 42% of women make less than 40% of the joint income. In couples with children, the share of women contributing less than 40% of the household income increases to 63%. Only 18% are main breadwinners of the family, i.e. make 50% or more of the household income.

Indicator D2 Household work and childcare

→ Approximately 70% of women with a third-country migration background report that they do 90% of household and childcare work. For women with an EU migration background and women with no migration background, this is the case for 40% to 50% of women.

Indicator D3 Nursing and caregiver work

→ The share of women acting as caregivers for relatives in or outside their own home is similar in women with and without migration background (12-15%). However, the share of women providing care in their own home is higher among women with a migration background, while the share of women providing care outside their own household is higher in women without migration background.

Indicator D6 Economic activity

- → The share of women in Vienna who are economically active is 61%, versus 66% for men. The difference in Vienna is less marked than the Austrian average (10 percentage points).
- → The share of women in the economically active population has increased slightly from 2011, while for men there is a downward trend. The share of people looking for work increased from 6% to 8% for women and from 8% to 10% for men. The share of pensioners decreased in both women and men.
- → Women with a third-country migration background indicated a share of economically active women of 52% in the 2015 Frauenbarometer survey, placing them behind women with an EU migration background (66%) and women with no migration background (74%).
 - Women with a third-country migration background are also more likely to work part time (54%).

Indicator D7 Working hours

- → 26% of men and 18% of women habitually work overtime. Women work less hours on average than men across all levels of education.
- → The average weekly hours have gone down slightly since 2012 (by 1 hour for women and 2 hours for men).

Goal: Reduction of horizontal segregation

Indicator D8 Part-time work

- → 43% of women and 18% of men in gainful employment work part time.
- → The share of part-time employees in Vienna is lower than the Austrian average for women (43%) but higher for men
- → Women and men have different reasons for part-time work: Men work part time mostly in the 15-24 age bracket, often alongside their studies. Women are employed part time most often between ages 25 and 44, i.e. in the so-called family phase.
- → When a family has children, the share of full-time employment increases for men and the share of part-time employment for women.
- → The share of part-time work increased in both women and men by five percentage points between 2012 and 2015.

Goal: Reducing vertical segregation

Indicator D10 Professional position – vertical segregation

- → Women are more likely to work in non-manual than manual jobs. The share of women in white-collar jobs is 54%, but only 36% in blue-collar jobs.
- → Women are more likely to be lower in the job hierarchy. Vertical segregation is visible in white-collar jobs, and especially in blue-collar jobs: 52% of workers doing unskilled labour, but only 14% of skilled workers and 3% of supervisors are women.

Indicator D 11 Non-standard employment

- → 47% of women and 26% of men have non-standard employment situations. Only 53% of women work in standard employment with permanent full-time contracts and full social security and labour protection.

 The share increased between 2012 and 2014; from 44% to 47% in women and
 - from 20% to 26% in men.

Goal: Preventing precarious employment

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Indicator D13 Low-wage employment

- → In 2014, 22% of Viennese women and 14% of Viennese men were working in low-wage jobs, i.e. earning less than two thirds of the median wage (EUR 9.24 per hour before taxes). The share of low-wage jobs is markedly higher in non-standard employment: Approximately 30% of women and men in non-standard employment have low-wage jobs. People with a low level of education are especially affected by this, but so are 36% of women and 28% of men with a secondary school leaving certificate or higher.
- → The share of women in low-wage employment increased by one percentage point from 2010 to 2014; for men, the increase was two percentage points.

Leisure time and sports

Chapter **F**

Goal: Increasing the leisure time of women by redistributing unpaid work between women and men



Indicator E1 Free time

- → The results of the 2015 Frauenbarometer survey show that the amount of free time has changed very little for women. On average, Viennese women have three hours at their free disposal on an average weekday and five and a half on an average weekend day.
- → Viennese women with a migration background have less free time both on weekdays and weekends, especially those with a third-country migration background.

Indicator E2 Spending on leisure time activities, sports and hobbies

→ Compared to 2009/10, the share of households reporting monthly expenses for leisure time activities, sports and hobbies has gone down from 96% to 93%. There is also a downward trend in the volume of spending.

- → Single women are spending approximately 17% less on leisure time activities, sports and hobbies than in 2009/10, and single men 4% less, which is likely a consequence of the higher cost of living (e.g. for housing).
- Goal: Providing more leisure time infrastructure that meets the diverse needs of women and men (e.g. childcare, public transport connections)

Indicator E5 Utilisation of public recreational services

- → More girls than boys take lessons at Vienna's public music schools: Of the 58 subjects and instruments taught there, 28 have more girls than boys (with a share of girls of over 60%), twelve have a mostly balanced ratio of girls and boys (share of girls between 40% and 60%), and 18 have more boys than girls (share of girls under 40%).
- → Compared to 1012, the share of girls and women among course participants at the Vienna Public Learning Centres and public music schools went down by three percentage points, while library use (63% women) and use of public pools (51%) remain unchanged.

Goal: Increase the share of women in leadership functions in sports and leisure time activities

Indicator E 8 Leadership functions in recreational associations

- → Compared to 2013, the share of women in leadership positions in clubs and associations that organise leisure-time activities has increased from 43% to 49%. This means that there are now slightly more women on boards
- → While in 2013, women were underrepresented in approximately 50% of associations, this is only the case for 43% of associations in 2015.
- → The share of association boards with more women than men has also increased by seven percentage points

Indicator E9 Leadership functions in sports clubs

- → In sports clubs, women are a clear minority in leadership positions (18% to 35%).
- → Since 2013, the share of women in leadership positions in sports clubs increased by seven percentage points to 29%.

Art and media

Chapter

F

Goal: Increasing the share of women in managing and decision-making bodies in arts and media

Indicator F3 Decision-making bodies on funding for the arts

→ The share of women in juries, boards of trustees, and advisory boards increased from 54% to 61% between 2012 and 2015.

Goal: Increasing the share of subsidies, grants and awards given to women or institutions headed by women

Indicator F4 Art funding by the City of Vienna and Indicator F5 Film, TV and cinema funding by the City of Vienna

- → The City of Vienna's budget for subsidies for the arts in 2015 was EUR 137 million. Nearly two thirds of this (approx. EUR 88 million) are given to theatre, 27% of which go to institutions (co-)managed by women or projects directed by women.
- → Music is the second-largest recipient of subsidies (18% of subsidies listed in the *Frauenkulturbericht* report), only 4% of subsidies go to institutions and projects managed by women.
- → In literature and the fine arts, more than half of subsidies, and 47% of subsidies in the field of new media go to institutions and projects (co-)directed or managed by women however, these areas only receive between 0.3% and 1.6% of total subsidies.

Goal: Increasing the share of women managing and decision-making bodies in arts and media

Indicator F8 Leadership positions in print media in Vienna

- → The share of female board members and editors-in-chief continued to fall from 2013: from 19% to 14% for members of executive boards and from 28% to 25% for editors-in-chief.
- → Seven papers from Vienna are members in the Association of Regional Media, which considers itself the umbrella organisation and representation of regional and free newspapers in Austria. Of these seven, only one has women on the board, all other boards are composed entirely of men.

Indicator F9 Decision-making bodies in the field of media

- → The Austrian Press Council has gender parity: eleven of the 22 members are women.
- → Approximately one quarter of the members of the Austrian Advertising Council are women. There has been a reduction from 29% to 24% compared to the previous term (until 2014).

Chapter

G Income

----- Goal: Reducing income disparity between men and women

Indicator G1 Income disparity

- → Over half of all wage earners in Vienna earn their income exclusively from gainful employment (no self employment).
- → The annual gross median income of women is EUR 17,802 and of men EUR 22,598. This means women earn 21% less than men on average, or EUR 343 less per month in absolute numbers.
- → Taxation equalises the gender gap to some extent: The difference in net median income of gainfully employed people is 17%.

Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring: Facts and Figures

- → When looking at people whose income is exclusively from self employment, the income disparity between women and men is 32%.
- → The average income of female pensioners is a third lower than that of their male counterparts.
- → Looking at income after taxes, the net income difference has increased by 4% between female and male pensioners and by 6% between self-employed men and women
- → There are different developments in income differences between women and men from 2009 to 2013: There is hardly any change for people who are only employed, while among people who are only self-employed, the gender difference increased from 28% to 32% before taxes or from 23% to 29% after taxes. For pensioners with no other income, the difference shrunk from 33% to 30% before taxes but grew from 26% to 30% after taxes.

Indikator G2 Gender Pay Gap

- → The median hourly wage before taxes in 2014 was 14% lower for women than for men (EUR 13.28 vs. EUR 15.53).
- → When overtime is included, the gender pay gap grows to 15%.
- → When only full-time employees are considered, the gender pay gap shrinks to 13%.
- → When white- and blue-collar workers are viewed separately, the gender pay gap is wider in either group on its own than when both are combined: Female blue-collar workers have a median hourly wage before taxes that is 27% lower than that of male blue-collar workers (EUR 8.67 vs. EUR 11.90). White-collar workers have a higher hourly wage before taxes, resulting in a median wage for women of EUR 15.23 and EUR 19.93 for men, which is a difference of 24%.
- → There is no gender pay gap for people in minimum employment.
- → Compared to 2010, the gender pay gap has narrowed from 16% to 14%. This is particularly due to the reduction in income differences among blue-collar workers and full-time employees, while the gender pay gap has grown for

- white-collar workers and gone down from -8% to -9% in favour of women for part-time workers.
- → The gross hourly wage of women in gainful employment with a non-Austrian citizenship is 32% below that of Austrian women (in men, the difference is 30%). Over half of women in gainful employment with a non-Austrian citizenship have a gross hourly wage of less than EUR 10 (nearly EUR 2 lower than men with a non-Austrian citizenship and EUR 5 lower than Austrian women). This amounts to a gender pay gap of 19%.
- → The share of women in full-time employment earning less than EUR 1,100 a month varies by origin between 23% in women with a third-country migration background and 11% in women with an EU migration background (women with no migration background 14%). A similar pattern can be observed in part-time workers.

Indicator G5 Income of self-employed people

- → Women who are self employed make approximately 22% less on average than self-employed men.
- → Income differences vary considerably between industries: from 77% less for women in health care and social professions to more income for women than men in car sales, maintenance and repairs.
- → The gender pay gap in self-employed people narrowed from 25% in 2009 to 22% in 2013.

Indicator G6 Pensions

- → In 2015, women's pension payments were only 70% of those of men, resulting in a gender pension gap of 30%.
- → The gender pension gap in old-age pensions (as opposed to other types of pensions) is especially wide at 42%, and the share of women whose only mode of income is an old-age pension is increasing.
- → Between 2011 and 2015, the gender pension gap narrowed from 33% to 30%. This is in part due to a diminishing trend towards in income differences from old-age pensions as well as to changes in the distribution of pension types.

Indicator G7 Household income

→ Single women have a lower income than single men (-5% without pension, -10% with pension) and a considerably lower household income than couple households: 5% less than couple households with children and 27% less than couple households with no children. Single parents, 85% of whom are women, have an income that is 28% lower than the average. Families with at least three children have an even lower income (34% lower than the average).

Goals: Decreasing income disparities and allowing women to use their training better



Indicator G3 Wages by education, age and type of company

- → The gender pay gap widens considerably with age: while the hourly wage before taxes continues to grow on average for men in the higher age brackets (from EUR 15.60 to EUR 18.92), it remains relatively constant for women from the age of 39 onwards (EUR 14.40 to EUR 14.91).
- → In relation to duration of employment, the gender pay gap is largest in employees who have been with the same company for 10 to 14 years (19%).
- → In terms of education, the highest income gaps are observed for graduates of VET colleges (27%) and universities (24%).
- → Compared to 2010, the gender pay gap has widened in the groups where it already was high: 40 to 49-year-olds and university graduates.

Indicator G4 Pay by industries

- → In service, retail and office jobs, where employees are predominantly female, there are hardly any wage differences between women and men, but the average hourly wages before taxes are lower than in male-dominated professions.
- → A narrowing of the gender wage gap can be observed in most areas. This is especially true for management positions, technical jobs and unskilled labour. In the service sector and in retail, the slight wage gap to the detriment of women has turned into a slight wage gap to the detriment of men.

→ The gender pay gap has widened in male-dominated trades and related jobs and for machine and equipment operators.

----- Goal: Equal valuation of work

Indicator G8 Apprentice pay

- → Apprentices in the hairdressing and wig making trade receive the lowest pay. This is the most popular trade for women after office administration and retail.
- → Electrical engineer apprentices receive the highest wage. The share of women in his field is only 7%.
- → Compared to 2013, apprentice pay for both hairdressers and electrical engineers increased more than the average, reducing the difference between apprentices in these two trades from 34% to 30% in 2016.

Indicator G9 Collective bargaining agreements

→ Differences between collective bargaining agreements between female-dominated and male-dominated jobs are even more pronounced than for apprentice pay: The wage gap between hairdressers and electrical engineers is 45%. Going by collective bargaining agreements, the income disparity between these two trades increased by seven percentage points between 2013 and 2016.

Chapter

H Poverty and social security

----- Goal: Reducing poverty in women

Indicator H1 Risk of poverty

- → 19% of women over the age of 19 live in households that are at risk of poverty, i.e. have an income of no more than 60% of the median income.
- → Between 2011 and 2015, the risk of poverty of the Viennese population went down from 22% to 19%. In women, it went down from 20% to 19%, while

increasing from 19% to 20% in men. This means that in adults, slightly more men than women are at risk of poverty. The difference between women and men is small due to the measurement by household. In single-person households (with no pension), slightly more women (27%) than men (26%) are at risk of poverty, and the risk has increased by 1% for women and gone down slightly for men.

- → Families with children, especially single parents and families with three children or more have an elevated risk of poverty. The risk of poverty of single-parent households (most of them single mothers) decreased from 44% to 34% between 2013 and 2015. The risk of poverty for family and couple households has gone down overall.
- → The risk of poverty of women is more clearly visible when looking at households by main breadwinner. In 39% of all households, women make the largest contribution to household income over one third of these are single women, and ten percent are single mothers. 21% of households where the main breadwinner is female and 19% of households where the main breadwinner is male are at risk of poverty. The share of households with a female breadwinner at risk of poverty sank to 27%, down six percentage points from 2013.

Indicator H2 Risk of poverty or social exclusion

target group Europe 2020

In addition to people listed as at risk of poverty under indicator H1, the indicator of risk of poverty or social exclusion also includes people who are affected by material deprivation (difficulties meeting basic needs and facing unexpected necessary expenses) or very low work intensity (a household has very low work intensity if all household members of employable age work less than 20% of their total work potential per year).

- → 25% of Viennese women and 26% of men live in households at risk of poverty or exclusion. Women and men have a similar risk in all partial aspects: risk of poverty, financial deprivation, and very low work intensity.
- → Households where the main breadwinner is female are at a higher risk of poverty or social exclusion than those where the main breadwinner is male (27% vs. 25%).

→ Between 2015 and 2016, material deprivation (difficulties meeting basic needs and facing unexpected necessary expenses) increased in both women and men from 16% to 20%. Overall, the risk of poverty or social exclusion increased more in men compared to 2012, remained nearly the same for women, and went down in households with a female main breadwinner.

Indicator H3 Poverty - Focus 2016: Women with a migration background

→ 26% of Viennese women with no migration background are considered at risk of poverty going by their responses to the 2015 Frauenbarometer survey. For Viennese women with an EU migration background, the share is 27%. Women with a third-country migration background are considerably more at risk of poverty at 38%.

Goal: Ensuring access to social welfare services for women

Indicator H5 Means-tested basic benefit

- → The share of women receiving means-tested basic benefit is 50% (higher among over-60-year-olds and below 50% in women 29 or younger and between ages 45 to 59). The majority of means-tested basic benefit payments are supplemental benefits.
- → The largest group of recipients are single men (2015: 23%), followed by single-parent households (18%; mainly single mothers) and single women (13%).
- → Between 2012 and 2015, the numbers of recipients of means-tested basic benefit increased both by number of persons and share of households for all household types (from 8% to 10%).

Indicator H7 Housing assistance

- → The share of women among housing assistance recipients is 60%. Calculated by household types, 50% of housing assistance payments go to "female households", i.e. single women (30%) and single mothers (20%), and 21% to "male households".
- → Housing assistance has gone down slightly from 2012.

Indicator H8 Unemployment benefit and emergency welfare benefit

- → 41% of recipients of unemployment benefit are women, which is slightly higher than the share of women in people registered as unemployed with the Public Employment Service (AMS), which is 40%. The share of women in benefit recipients goes down with duration of unemployment. Only 38% of emergency welfare benefit recipients are women. This is due to women's applications for emergency welfare benefit being denied more often than men, because the household income is used to determine eligibility (74% of denials for non-eligibility affect women).
- → Compared to 2012, the share of unemployed people receiving a benefit increased from 76% to 82% in women and from 83% to 87% in men.

Indicator H9 Active labour market policy measures

- → The share of women among participants in labour market policy measures is 53%. While the share of participants went down overall between 2012 and 2015, the share of women increased by six percentage points.
- → The share of the budget allocated to women also increased from 44 to 48%.

Indicator H10 Child-care benefit

→ The low share of men (8%) of childcare allowance recipients, i.e. people taking parental leave, remained unchanged between 2013 and 2016. Overall, the share of fathers who received childcare allowance for at least two months increased slightly (from 29% to 30%), but due to the short durations of their parental leave, childcare, employment gaps and part-time employment remain mostly female.

Indicator H11 attendance allowance

- → The majority of attendance allowance recipients are women (65%).
- → Between 2012 and 2014, the share of attendance allowance recipients increased in Vienna, less in women than in men.

Chapter

I Housing and Public Space

----- Goal: Improving access to affordable housing and secure tenancy

Indicator 1 Housing types

→ In 2015, slightly more Viennese lived in private, more expensive flats than in 2012

Indicator 3 Precarious housing

- → One in six Viennese residents live in flats with a limited-term tenancy agreement and one in five live in overcrowded flats.
- → Women are now more likely to live in precarious housing situations than in 2012.

Indicator I4 Homelessness

→ One third of women live in transitional housing or long-term assisted living of the Vienna Homeless Services. The share of women varies between 17% in night shelters and 48% in assisted living. When it comes to walk-in counselling services, the gender ratio is relatively equal. These figures indicate hidden homelessness in women.

Indicator I5 Burden of housing costs

→ People in households with no pensions spend on average 22% of their income on rent. The share is higher in single-person households (especially women).

The burden of housing costs, i.e. the share of income needed for rent, increased by 36% between 2005 and 2014. Women have less income than men and therefore spend a higher percentage of it on rent.

Indicator 18 Sense of security

Focus 2016: Women with a migration background.

→ Women with a migration background experience discrimination mainly in public settings. Viennese women with a third-country migration background

report more experiences with discrimination than Viennese women with an EU migration background. One in two Muslim women has experienced discrimination in public transport or shopping.

Environment and mobility

Chapter

Goal: Increasing the representation of women in the environmental sector



Indicator J2 Work in the environmental sector and Indicator J3 Tertiary education in the environmental sector

- → Women make up approximately one third of students in subjects with a focus on environmental studies at Vienna's universities, universities of applied sciences, and in teacher education. The share of women studying environmental studies is lower than in highly qualified green jobs (25%).
- → The share of women in green jobs, which employ approx. 4% of the Viennese population, has diminished slightly, particularly in freelance jobs in the environmental sector (from 29% to 24%).

Indicator J5 Length of commute

→ More men (28%) than women (25%) have a short commute of up to 15 minutes. 33% of women and 27% of men have a commute of 30 minutes or more. This means that although women have shorter working hours, they spend more time on their commute. This is in part due to the mode of transport: more men than women use a car to commute. Another possible explanation is that women need more time for their commute because they often do unpaid work on the way.

Indicator J6 Public transport

→ The share of annual public transport ticket holders in women increased from 39% to 45% between 2013 und 2016, more than in men (increase from 28% to 31%) – women use public transport more than men.

Chapter

K Violence

----- Goal: Reducing violence against women and girls

Indicator K1 Crimes against life and limb and crimes against personal freedom

- → The crimes reviewed (murder, bodily harm, dangerous threats, stalking, and long-term violence) are mainly committed by men. Victims of murder and bodily harm are also mainly men. However, equally many women as men are victims of dangerous threats, and they are considerably more often victims of stalking and long-term violence.
- → In 2015 there were fewer murders, and fewer cases of bodily harm and stalking were reported. However, the reports of dangerous threats and long-term violence increased.

Indicator K2 Crimes against sexual integrity and self-determination

- → 96% of rape victims, 99% of victims of sexual coercion and 81% of victims of sexual abuse pursuant to Art. 205 are women.
- → In 2015, the perpetrator was an acquaintance of the victim in 41% of cases, and in another 23%, they were family members living in the same household. The situation is similar for sexual coercion.
- → In cases of sexual abuse of a defenceless or mentally impaired person, family members are the smallest group of perpetrators; in most cases, perpetrators are acquaintances, or have no or only a passing relationship with the victim. The latter has changed little since 2012. The share of perpetrators who are acquaintances has shrunk.
- → Compared to 2012, the number of crimes against sexual integrity and self-determination went down slightly. In 2015, 21 fewer cases of rape, 14 fewer cases of sexual coercion and 11 fewer cases of sexual abuse of a defenceless or mentally impaired person were reported.

Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring: Facts and Figures

→ The share of female victims of sexual coercion increased by five percentage points.



→ The share of female victims of sexual abuse went down, but the number of female rape victims remained the same.

Indicator K6 Forced marriage

→ The share of girls and women receiving support from the association "Orient Express" increased between 2012 and 2015, mainly due to an increase in women and girls who were already victims of forced marriages. The number of women and girls at risk of forced marriage has remained approximately the same.

Goal: Reducing violence by (ex) partners and making it visible



Indicator K3 Residence exclusion orders and conflict mediation

→ In 2015, there were slightly fewer reports of domestic violence at the Intervention centre against domestic violence than in 2012, but the police issued the same share of residence exclusion orders (expulsion from residence and ban from re-entering) compared to the number of reports made to the police. The number of residence exclusion orders in relation to the population went down, with a reduction by 1.2 cases per 10,000 inhabitants from 18.7 in 2012.

Indicator K4 Violence by (ex) partners

- → When women are victims of violence, men are the perpetrators in 95% of cases predominantly partners or former partners. In 84% of cases (1,679) of domestic violence, women are the victims and men the perpetrators. In 86% of cases (2,386), women are victims of partners or former partners.
- → The number of clients of the Intervention centre increased from approximately 3,900 in 2012 to 4,200 in 2015.

Kapitel

L Health

----- Goal: Building health literacy

Indicator L1 Health risk factors

- → One in three women and men smoke; there has been a marked increase in smoking women (in 2006/07, only 20% of women smoked). Particularly younger women smoke daily.
- → Obesity is particularly prevalent in women from age 65 (25%) and men already from age 45 (25%). Obesity is an education-dependent risk factor. People with compulsory schooling only are more frequently overweight or obese

Indicator L2 Health check-ups

- → In 2015, 14% of women and 13% of men went to preventive health checkups. On average, men start going to health check-ups later than women, but above age 60, more men than women have health check-ups.
- → Compared to 2011, more people had health check-ups in 2015, both general and gynaecological ones (2011: 13% of women and 12% of men).

····· Goal: Challenging gender stereotypes and body image

Indicator L4 Eating disorders and Indicator L5 Body image of girls and boys

- → Girls are considerably more critical of their weight than boys.
- → 50% of girls who are underweight or have normal weight consider their weight "right", but even in this group, 38% of girls consider themselves "too fat". Compared to 2009, the share of girls who are underweight or have normal weight who consider their weight "right" increased by 3%.
- → Severe eating disorders requiring in-patient treatment mainly affect women and girls (88%). The number of in-patient treatments of eating disorders increased by 6% from 2012 to 2015.

Goal: Supporting self-determined reproduction

4.....

Indicator L8 In vitro fertilisation

→ The number of couples undergoing an in vitro fertilisation procedure increased by 308 (28%) to approximately 1,400 couples between 2012 and 2015.

Indicator L9 Caesarean sections

→ The share of C-sections in Vienna is approximately 30%. The highest share is among women aged 40 or over (46%). The share of C-sections of live births has increased in the long term (from 20% in 2001) but has remained constant between 2012 and 2015.

Goal: Same access to and career opportunities in medical professions

4.....

Indicator L10 Employees in Vienna's hospitals

- → In 2015, 83% of qualified nurses and 76% of nursing aides employed by the Vienna Hospital Association women. Among physicians employed by the Vienna Hospital Association, the ratio is relatively balanced, with a share of 53% women.
- → Women are overrepresented among interns and residents (60%) but underrepresented in specialist training (43%). The share of women employed by the Vienna Hospital Association is higher among general practitioners (73%).
- → However, the share of women is lower in executive positions: only 26% of people in leadership positions are women.
- → Compared to 2012, the share of women increased slightly both in general practitioners and specialists, and especially in leadership positions (by seven percentage points from 19% to 26%).
- → There is still considerable gender segregation by specialisations: for example, less than 20% of surgeons are women, while 57% of paediatricians in private practice and 66% of paediatricians employed by the Vienna Hospital Association are women.

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