

VIENNA

GENDER EQUALITY

MONITORING REPORT

SUMMARIES

2013

PREFACE



DEAR READERS,

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.

In the last decades, we have achieved many important milestones that have contributed considerably to equality between women and men. However, we have not yet reached full equality: Even today, women still face discrimination.

For years, the City of Vienna has been active in supporting and promoting women and girls in order to combat the existing inequalities. But where are we really with equality in Vienna? To answer this question, the Vienna City Government decided in its government programme to develop the Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report.

The report describes the status quo with facts and figures and will be published at three-year intervals to allow the continuous monitoring of developments.

As equality is an issue in all aspects of women's lives, the Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report encompasses a wide range of different areas, from unpaid work to leisure time and health.

With this monitoring report, we have created a tool that allows us to continue on our road towards full equality effectively and consistently. The facts and figures make differences and successes visible and show which areas are in need of improvement.

Only if we all work together and consider women's policy an agenda that concerns everyone, women and men, politicians and civil society, will we achieve equality in all areas of life.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Sandra Frauenberger'.

Sandra Frauenberger
Executive City Councillor for Women's Issues

INTRODUCTION

EQUAL?

How disadvantaged are women compared to men in different areas? How close are we to achieving the goal of full equality between women and men? These are questions that concern both political institutions and gender studies. Depending on the perspective, assessment method and research interest, there are differing opinions, claims and evidence. While the persistence of income differences between women and men is used by some as an example of discrimination against women, others say the gender pay gap is a myth. While the increasingly similar male and female labour market participation rates are considered important progress in terms of equality, the imbalance of women and men in decision-making bodies is cited by others as an indication of unchanged power structures. Data and statistics have an important function especially in areas that are strongly coloured by personal experiences and attitudes. They provide an objective foundation for discussions about equality, they allow us to measure change and define areas of activity for equality policies, and make it possible to monitor progress towards defined goals.

With the Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report, the City of Vienna aims to continuously monitor the status quo of equality in different areas of life.¹ The indicators included in the monitor have been chosen to describe the different realities of life of women and men as precisely as possible. Like the markings on a map, they will show the central characteristics of unequal treatment of women. This can raise awareness for inequalities and serve as an empiric base for measures for improving gender equality. The City of Vienna has drawn from international experiences by developing the equality indicators in a goal-led rather than a data-led way. The selection process was guided by political priorities, i.e. the question “What do we want to know?”, rather than which data was available (“What can we know?”). With the approach of trying to define equality as comprehensively as possible and include many different areas, it was important to focus on core objectives and indicators to ensure efficiency and usability.

¹ This continues the work of existing monitoring tools of the City of Vienna, in particular the Vienna Integration and Diversity Monitor of Municipal Department 17 – Integration and Diversity, which has been published every two years since 2010. It describes the social status quo of Vienna’s population from the

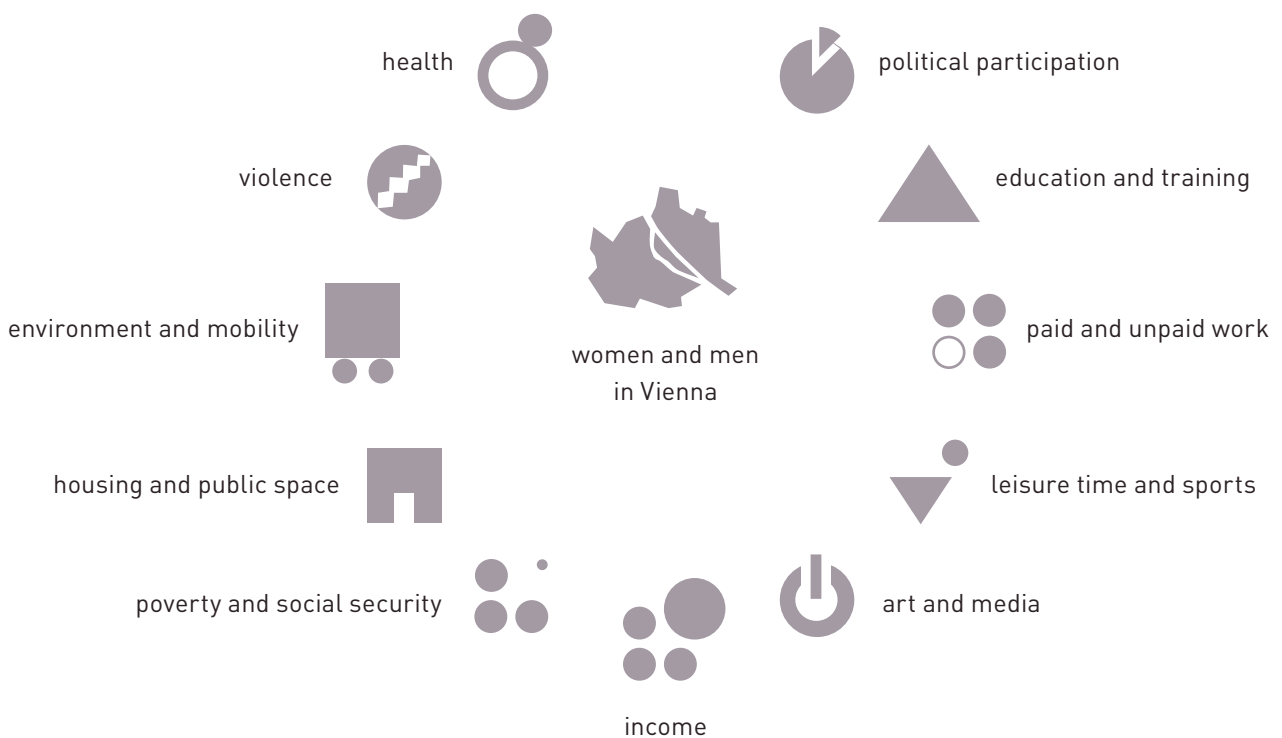
perspective of integration policies. The most recent Integration and Diversity Monitor was published in autumn 2014. For more information please visit: <https://www.wien.gv.at/english/social/integration/basic-work/monitoring.html>

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TOPICS AND INDICATORS

The monitor is based on a very broad concept of equality that includes different aspects and areas of life, going beyond the usual topics and indicators and not only focusing on statistically well explored areas. Based on previously defined equality objectives, a set of 119 equality indicators was developed in a discursive process. They are arranged into the 12 topics shown below.

GENDER EQUALITY MONITORING AREAS



INTRODUCTION

The indicators for the different topics are designed to adequately describe the situation of women and men against the backdrop of the current discussions on equality and to make gender hierarchies visible. Since the interpretation of gender issues does not begin with data analysis but already determines the construction of indicators, reflecting on *doing gender* is vital in statistics (cf. Leitner/Walenta 2007; Wroblewski et al. 2005). Focusing on only a certain part of reality, which highlights certain facts but not others, also creates gaps (e.g. when unpaid work is ignored). While data present facts but do not explain them, indicators have a normative approach and place statistical data in an appropriate context with a suitable frame of reference. The development of indicators is therefore always influenced by the objectives and approaches, which determine the results depending on what comparisons are made and which reference values are chosen. However, how indicators are defined (or how they can be defined) also depends on the availability of data. This goes both for the availability of gender-segregated data and the definitions and categories on which these data are based, i.e. whether they truly describe the realities of life of women and men. This understanding of equality indicators is reflected in the way in which the individual areas and indicators are described in the Gender Monitoring Report. The chapters in the main report (full version only available in German) are organised as follows: Each topic begins with a description of the equality-related issues and the concrete equality goals for Vienna in that area. The introduction to each topic also describes the data sources used and discusses

their significance. It also notes the equality objectives for which there is no indicator due to insufficient or missing data.

The subheadings of the chapter correspond to the indicators for that topic, providing a general description of the indicator. The indicator is described in more detail in the figures and tables. The definition explains how the indicator is calculated. The figures and tables are complemented by information on the data source and the year for which the data is 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. For complex indicators, there is also a description of the context factors for the selection of the concrete indicators or their normative frame of reference. The goal of this structure is to provide a compact description of each indicator. It is oriented on the priorities defined in the core equality goals. However, the objective is not to provide a comprehensive analysis of equality issues for each topic. 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. The First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report describes the status quo of equality, which will serve as the baseline for the analysis of changes over time in subsequent monitoring reports.

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PRINCIPLES AND CONCEPTS OF THE GENDER EQUALITY MONITORING REPORT

The indicators were selected and structured following the definitions and principles of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report and concepts for the operationalisation of gender and different gender perspectives.

GENDER EQUALITY MONITORING PRINCIPLES

Based on discussions in expert workshops, a number of principles that had previously been implicit or emerged from the discussions about contradictions, unclear or ambiguous wording or priorities were defined explicitly 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 discussed for both women and men.

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

Result-oriented objectives: The Gender Equality Monitoring Report focuses on target results.

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 sources²: 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 every three years. 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.

² A description of the major data sources can be found on page 311 of the German report. They are indicated with a ↗ in the relevant chapters. References to the glossary (p. 305) are also indicated with a ↗.

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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 sex 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 their evaluation by sex. Such missing data will be discussed explicitly to provide a basis for the further development of data sources and indicators.

OPERATIONALISING GENDER

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. Therefore, such a

differentiated view of women and men shall be deferred to the next monitoring reports, and differentiations are provided only for the most important categories.

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/masculine.

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

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programmes, but also in feminist discourse.³ 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? Making a clear decision in such matters is a political challenge.

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 method⁴, 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 different 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 a major obstacle 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.

3 Feminist discourse differentiates between equality, difference, transformation and (de)construction approaches, but any theoretical approach creates a political dilemma, as described, e.g., by Wetterer (2003), and all of these different perspectives have their weaknesses. Nancy Fraser (2001) approaches this problem by distinguishing between three models of welfare: the "universal breadwinner model", the "care-giver model" and the "universal care-giver model", which she discusses as visions or equality scenarios and

that not only address the issues of representation and distribution of resources but also explicitly address the issue of realities (cf. Bendl et al. 2007).

4 The Vienna City Administration generally uses the 4R method for equality analyses. This expansion of the 3R method by the legal dimension is not relevant for the Equality Monitoring Report in that the report focuses not so much on describing the legal framework but rather the changing realities in the actual situations.

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Realities analyse the reasons for differences, which can be both gender identities and expectations and requirements regarding gender roles. The equality goals addressed in this context aim to change decision-making criteria, establish gender competence in the individual areas, and change existing gender hierarchies. It is about changing power structures, challenging gender roles and changing the social conditions, i.e. modifications that aim to provide access to resources and opportunities for all people independently of social characteristics and realities of life.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE VIENNA GENDER EQUALITY MONITORING REPORT

International and national experiences show that the development of a meaningful gender equality monitoring tool is a complex process⁵ that should ideally be based on clearly defined and determined equality goals. Another challenge in the development of a gender equality monitoring process is that there are still many areas for which there are either no gender-specific data or no data at all, so that certain topics, such as mobility and leisure-time activities, are often not included (cf. Leitner/Wroblewski 2011). The City of Vienna approached these challenges with an ambitious project. Starting with the question

“What do we want to know?”, the steering group of the First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report formulated equality goals together with experts from different municipal departments of the Vienna City Administration. The result was a catalogue of equality goals from 17 areas, which were organised into six larger blocks: “housing/environment/public space/traffic, transport and mobility”, “leisure time/sports/media and ICT⁶/art and culture”, “(unpaid and paid) work/education and training”, “poverty / social security/income and ownership”, “sexuality/health/violence” and “political participation”.

In order to find a workable balance between the wide range of topics and a feasible number of indicators⁷, a moderated selection process was conducted that included experts from the different municipal departments as well as researchers. Workshops were held to determine the main goals of the catalogue against the backdrop of the current equality and scientific discourse, and these goals were tested for significance, completeness, consistence and coherence for all individual areas.⁸ Based on the discussions in the workshops, the project team defined concept-led objectives, which were agreed upon with the steering group and the political representatives and served as an indicative framework for the

5 According to De Neuffille (1975), for example, a good indicator needs ten years (quoted in Eckstein, in print).

6 Information and communications technology (ICT)

7 The catalogue of equality goals has two to seven overarching goals for each topic, which are then defined in more detail in subgoals. Overall, it consists of 73 overarching goals and approx. 370 subgoals.

8 11 half-day workshops were held between December 2012 and April 2013. Some workshops addressed several topics: education and training, paid and unpaid work, health, political participation, sexuality and violence, income and poverty, social security, housing and public space, environment and mobility, leisure time and sports, art, culture, media and ICT.

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subsequent development of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report. In addition to reflecting on the equality goals in the different areas, the discussion process also resulted in implicit definitions for the Gender Equality Monitoring Report. They were also agreed upon with the steering group and defined as explicit principles of the Gender Equality Monitoring Report.

The search for data was purposely done as the second step to avoid a primary data-led result and to be able to see in which areas there was a lack of data. The available data sources for each area were discussed together with experts from different municipal departments and other institutions, such as Statistics Austria, federal ministries, etc. Both data of Statistics Austria and surveys of the City of Vienna (such as the social sciences fundamental research project SOWI II) and administrative data of various municipal departments were used. They were selected based on quality criteria, their relevance for Vienna and continuous availability.

Lists of indicators and indicator profiles were derived from them as an intermediate step, and these indicators were then assessed once more with regard to their applicability to the discussed equality goals. Concrete requests for data for the First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report were then made of different institutions. The year under observation was 2012; in a few exceptions, data for 2013 or older data had to be used.

The concrete indicators were then defined and interpreted based on the available data. Some were commonly used indicators, but new

normative indicators were also developed, e.g. by using alternative frames of reference or creating descriptive indicators for new data sources. This step, which is usually a central element of the development of indicators, was only part of the development process. The result also serves as a starting point for further developments, where the indicators provide the basis for observing the development of equality dimensions over time, but may also lead to further differentiation or more concrete formulation of gender issues. In the medium term, this process will hopefully contribute to closing data gaps and creating more concrete findings for specific areas by using gender analyses.

WOMEN AND MEN IN VIENNA



SUMMARY

Women make up 52% of the resident population, mainly because of their higher life expectancy. The share of women in the economically active population is 48%. This is lower than their share in the employable population between 15 and 64 years (51%), but nevertheless shows that there is a high labour market participation of women in Vienna. The share of women in commuters from other federal provinces is considerably lower at 43%. Differentiating by age, education, migration status and health issues shows further sex-related differences:

- While the sex ratio is relatively balanced in the population of working age (+/-1%), women make up 60% of the population of retirement age.
 - Analysed by migration background, the share of women varies depending on the country of origin, with even larger differences with regard to labour market participation. The share of women in residents with a Turkish background is 47%, but only 33% in economically active people with a Turkish background.
 - 61% of the people with compulsory schooling only in the resident population are women, as are 50% of those who have completed an apprenticeship or a VET school, meaning that women make up a larger share of people with a lower level of education than men. In the population with higher levels education (upper secondary school and university), their share is 52%; roughly the same as in the overall resident population.
- Equality topics that relate to the private household as an economic or social unit use households or families as references. The indicators on household and family compositions show great changes in Vienna in terms of lifestyles, with the nuclear family, defined as a unit consisting of a married couple with at least one child, declining in importance.

- Single-person households are the most common household form: 47% of Vienna's households are single-person households – 26% women and 21% men.

- 8% of households are cohabitating unmarried couples, while 33% are married couples and registered same-sex partnerships. 3% of all households are unmarried couples with children, and 5% are unmarried couples without children.

- The share of married couples is put into perspective by the high number of unmarried couples and high divorce rates. There are 4.6 marriages and 2.6 divorces per 1,000 inhabitants.

- Approximately one third of households have children: 20% are two-parent households and 11% are single-parent households. Most single parents are women (9% single mothers vs. 2% single fathers).

- Living with children is a temporary way of life that is most common between ages 25 and 44. 50% of women and 34% of men in this age bracket have children in their household. The share of women and men

WOMEN AND MEN IN VIENNA



SUMMARY

with children rises with level of education (except for upper secondary school). People with a migration background are more likely to have children and have more children per family on average.

- 7% of all couples with children live in blended families with children from previous partnerships. Blended families are more common among unmarried couples (41%).
- Foster parenting reflects the new forms of living: 18% of foster children are placed in single-parent households and 9% are placed with same-sex couples.
- In addition to private households, there are institutional households, which are predominantly female due to the high share of women in nursing and retirement homes.

The distribution by household forms is not directly related to equality goals, but it demonstrates the importance of women being able to meet their subsistence needs without reliance on a partner, not only because many women stay single but also because marriage no longer guarantees lifelong financial security due to the high divorce rate.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION



SUMMARY

34% of the members of the Vienna City Council are female, which means that women are underrepresented compared to their share of the resident population. The share of female members of the City Council is 43% for the Social Democratic Party (SPÖ), 42% for the Christian Democratic Party (ÖVP), 36% for the Greens and 15% for the Freedom Party (FPÖ).

The share of women in the City Council is lower than among the candidates. All parties represented in the City Council have a higher share of women on their ballot sheets than in the City Council.

Five of the eleven City Council Committees and nearly all other bodies of the Vienna City Government (e.g. the personnel commission) have a balanced composition (with at least 40% women). Three City Council Committees (Housing, Housing Construction and Urban Renewal; Urban Planning, Traffic & Transport, Climate Protection, Energy and Public Participation; Finance, Economic Affairs and Vienna Public Utilities) have 25% female members.

However, women are not only underrepresented with regard to their share among the members in political decision-making bodies (City Administration) but also in the governing bodies and boards of statutory interest groups. The underrepresentation is particularly striking in the Vienna Medical Chamber and the Vienna Chamber of Dentists, where women make up half of the members but only 25% of the board (Vienna Medical Chamber) or are not represented on the board at all (Vienna Chamber of Dentists).

The same goes for works councils and trade unions. In the Association of Austrian Trade Unions, the share of women in official functions corresponds to their share of members; however, the rate of unionisation is lower among women (cf. Blaschke 2011). In some of the individual trade unions, there are considerable discrepancies between the share of women among members and officials. e.g., 52% of the members of the Union of Public Services but only 22% of individuals in official functions are women.

Women and girls are also underrepresented in students' bodies in schools and youth organisations of trade unions. The same goes for student councils at the universities of applied sciences, but is not true at universities. Looking at the current participation of girls and women in school students' bodies, the Austrian Trade Union Youth and the Austrian National Union of Students, there is very little indication for medium to long-term changes to the access of women to political functions, as these organisations remain one of the key entrance points to a political career.

Men not only have more political positions, they are also generally more frequently involved in politics. 49% of men and 41% of women have been politically active at some time during their lives, with twice as many men as women having been active in a political party. Notably, there are hardly any differences between women and men in the youngest age group when it comes to political participation and general willingness to participate politically. The gender gap in both categories only starts to grow with age, when male participation rates grow beyond those of women.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

SUMMARY

Education and training are characterised by a marked and very persistent segregation. It is particularly visible in the school choices of girls and boys, but also in employment in the education sector. For example, kindergarten and pre-school are nearly completely female, both when it comes to teachers and to management. The share of men currently training to become kindergarten teachers (7%) is higher than their share among employees (2%), which indicates that a slight rise in male employment in pre-school education may be expected in the long term. The share of female teachers in compulsory-level schools is also considerably higher than the share of girls among the students. In vocational schools, the share of female teachers corresponds approximately to the share of female students.

Although the majority of teachers are female, women are underrepresented in school management positions compared to their share of the teaching staff in all school types. This is particularly noticeable in secondary modern schools, polytechnic schools, part-time vocational schools for apprentices, and VET schools. At universities, women are considerably more frequently in managing positions than at schools, which can be attributed to the quota regulation for university bodies introduced in 2009.

Among students, two particularly striking aspects of gender segregation can be noted: Considerably more boys than girls become apprentices, while girls dominate in upper secondary schools, and girls are underrepresented in technical VET schools, making up just one third of students, but dominate in VET schools

that provide training for business, commercial, social and teaching professions. This perpetuates gender segregation on the labour market with all the consequences that entails.

In addition to the high participation of women in upper secondary schools and tertiary education, there is also a group of women who have a low level of education (compulsory schooling or lower). Specific target groups within this group of people with low qualifications are supported with basic training measures, with a focus on people whose native language is not German. In these basic training courses, there are more women than men overall; however, men are more likely to participate several times.

Women also participate more in further training courses in general. This difference can be attributed in part to the fact that women tend to participate in hobby-related courses more frequently. When it comes to career-related courses, there are no differences between women and men. However, women make more use of subsidies for career-related courses than men, which suggests that they receive less support from employers (Leitner et al. 2014 discuss this in the context of people returning to the labour market). Overall, while women in general have higher degrees (upper secondary school leaving certificate, tertiary education) than men, they are faced with more obstacles when it comes to entering the labour market. Young women are considerably more often working in jobs for which they are overqualified than men in the same age group (35% of women and 18% of men below age 25 are working in jobs for which they are overqualified).

PAID AND UNPAID WORK



SUMMARY

The indicators for paid and unpaid work show that women in Vienna have a high degree of labour market participation while at the same time being overwhelmingly responsible for reproductive work. Deviations from the traditional division of labour in families, where women are responsible for approximately two thirds of household work and childcare, usually occur where both partners are fully employed or the man works part time or is not employed. This is relatively independent of the level of education of both partners. When there are children in a household, traditional patterns of division of labour are more visible. Respondents said that men helped a bit more with household work than with childcare. This shows that women receive only some support from men in managing the double burden of job and family. However, Vienna has relatively good conditions when it comes to institutional childcare services. With nearly 90% of 3 to 5-year-olds in kindergarten, Vienna is considerably above the Austrian average. The share of school children in after-school care is also high (over 50%). When it comes to institutional support for people who provide care or nursing for elderly relatives, up to 50% of people aged 75 or over benefit from some form of care or services.

The share of women in Vienna who are economically active is nearly the same as for men; there are only small slumps due to childbearing and childcare. The younger age cohorts up to 45 years have a higher share of economically active women than above 45 years. However, even in Vienna the predominant responsibility of women for reproductive work limits their integration into the labour market. This is evidenced both by

the lower number of weekly hours of women and their higher share of non-standard employment. Although women with a higher level of education work more than women with compulsory schooling only, women of all levels of education do 5 to 6 hours less paid work per week than men.

Due to their career choices and part-time employment, there are more women in less valued jobs. Higher education reduces job segregation, with more women in jobs in which both women and men work and which are valued more. However, the segregation in job hierarchy shows that women do not advance to management positions as often as they should going by their qualifications – the share of women in management positions is 35%, which is lower than their share of university graduates.

A new form of gender segregation is being created by non-standard employment. Due to the high share of part-time and minimum employment, less women than men have regular employment contracts. There are divergent opinions on whether part-time work is an opportunity or a precarious form of employment. The high share of women in non-standard employment in low-wage jobs, however, indicates that these jobs are valued less. There are considerably more women in the low-wage sector than men. Even 3% of university graduates and 27% of higher secondary school graduates work for a gross hourly wage below EUR 8.53. Among men, the share of low-wage employment is less than a third even among those who have no more than compulsory schooling (men 32%, women 49%).

LEISURE TIME AND SPORTS



SUMMARY

Due to their higher share of unpaid work, women have half an hour less free time a day on average than men – women spend approx. 3.5 hours a day on leisure-time activities, men 4. In households with couples and in the 60-plus age group, the difference between women and men increases to nearly an hour less leisure time for women.

At first glance, there are hardly any gender differences in the use of free time: Both women and men use the majority of their leisure time for media use, they are nearly equally physically active, visit cultural events and have social contacts nearly equally. Single women and men also spend similar amounts on leisure-time activities, hobbies and sports.

However, there are clear differences between women and men within the individual categories: Women participate in courses at public learning centres and go to libraries much more than men, and the majority of pupils at the city's music schools are girls. In contrast, men are more likely to participate actively in sports and are more physically active than women in the 24 and below and the 65-plus age groups.

Although the shares of women and men who participate in sports are similar, there are differences in the choice of sport and access to professional sports. The latter is evidenced by the fact that only 26% of Viennese who are supported by sports promotion organisation Sporthilfe are women.

Despite the generally high participation of women in volunteer work (half of people active in associations and NGOs are female), women are

clearly underrepresented in leading positions in associations and clubs that organise leisure-time activities. The participation of women is lowest in sports clubs and highest in pensioners' associations. The latter have slightly over 50% female members, but even here the share of women is not as high as in the pension-age resident population.

The available data does not facilitate a comprehensive gender-specific analysis of subsidies for hobby and sports associations. Therefore, we cannot answer the question whether subsidies for such associations benefit women and men equally.

ART AND MEDIA



SUMMARY

Art and media shape the image of women and men in society. They contribute to perpetuating stereotypes but also have the potential to overcome them. Although the way in which women and men are depicted in art and in the media cannot be described with indicators, we can look at the perception of problematic issues, such as sexist advertising. The advertising watch group of the City of Vienna registered 119 complaints in 2012 and 263 in 2013. This development indicates a growing awareness of the issue but also shows that self-regulation (e.g. the Austrian Advertising Council) alone is not sufficient.

There is more information on art and the media as an employment sector with specific production conditions. It is an employment sector in which most employees have a university degree. At the same time, working as an artist is generally characterised by precarious employment conditions, as is a career in the media, especially when starting out. This likely explains in part the difference in the shares of women studying these subjects and working in the sector. The studies of media and art have long been predominantly female, while the share of women working in both sectors is estimated at just over 40%.

In the art sector, women have gained access to management functions – both at universities and in decision-making bodies on funding for the arts (juries, boards of trustees, advisory boards). However, women are still underrepresented in the governing bodies of cultural institutions, such as the Wiener Festwochen festival, Kunsthalle Wien or the Vienna Symphony Orchestra. This also impacts the share of funding given to institutions that are (co-)managed

by women. In particular in film, theatre, local (district-level) culture and music, the funding is predominantly given to institutions that are not headed by women. When it comes to grants and awards, i.e. funding granted to individuals, women make up 40% of recipients, which is still considerably below the share of women studying these subjects.

Compared to the arts, women are considerably less established in decision-making and executive bodies in the media. Editors-in-chief and managers of daily newspapers and regional media are still predominantly male. Of the eleven decision-making bodies in the field of media, only four have a female share of 40%; in all others, women are underrepresented compared to their presence in the field.



INCOME

SUMMARY

Although the income disparity between women and men is considerably smaller in Vienna than in Austria overall (cf. 2010 Women's Report of the Federal Chancellery), women still earn significantly less on average than men even in the capital. Depending on the income concept (gross/net income, hourly wages/annual income, full-time/part-time work, gainful employment/self-employment, pensioners) and data source used, the gender pay gap varies between 16% and 33%.

Depending on type of income, women's gross income is between 22% (income from employment) and 33% (pensions) lower than that of men. Redistribution via taxes and transfer payments reduces the income difference to 17–26% for annual net income.

Based on gross hourly wages for employees, the gender pay gap in Vienna is 16%. This is considerably lower than the national average (21%). The gender pay gap increases with age and duration of employment in the same company: It is 25% above age 50 and 20% for a longer time in the company (10 to 14 years). By level of education, the highest gender pay gap is found in graduates of VET colleges at 27%. This and viewing the data by professions show that gender segregation has an enormous impact on income: While the gender pay gap in female-dominated service and clerical jobs is only 3%, it is 17% for operators of heavy machinery and equipment, 18% for technicians and 28% for executives. The gender pay gap for blue-collar workers is particularly striking at 30%.

The difference in income before taxes of predominantly self-employed people is 25%, but varies enormously between sectors: Self-employed women have a slightly higher income than men in retail and the hotel and restaurant industry, but earn only 27% of the income of men in the health care and social services sector.

When it comes to old-age pensions, women only get 55% of what men get, i.e. the income gap is 45%. When someone receives multiple pensions, e.g. an old-age pension and a widow's/widower's pension, the income disparity sinks to 15%, reducing the overall gender pension gap to 33%.

Only some segments of net income at household level, which takes into account all different forms of income and therefore best reflects the standard of living, can be evaluated by gender. The income disparities are smaller at household level, but single women are considerably disadvantaged compared to single men, particularly in pensioners' households (20%, compared to 13% in households with no pension). In households that receive pensions, the income is considerably higher due to the age structure and the fact that the number of children reduces the equivalised income considerably. While the equivalised income in households without children is EUR 24,600 annually, it is only EUR 16,700 in households with children. The income disparities create particularly precarious situations in households with more than 3 children and single parent households, which are predominantly female.



INCOME

SUMMARY

The income disparities are considerably influenced by the gender segregation on the labour market. Even the apprentice pay rates for the ten most popular trades among apprentices show that female-dominated trades are valued considerably less than male-dominated ones. These differences become even more pronounced after completing the apprenticeship. In the constructed comparison groups of the most common apprenticeship trades, the gender pay gap was up to 40%. Even in trades where the apprentice pay rates are similar, the difference between collective bargaining rates for employees who have completed their apprenticeship increases to 34%. The differences were comparatively low in the pairs with low qualifications, i.e. cleaning staff and unskilled labourers (19%) and childcare professionals and firefighters (5%).

POVERTY AND SOCIAL SECURITY



SUMMARY

Women are at considerably higher risk of poverty (20%) in Vienna than in the Austrian average (14%), but only marginally more so than men in Vienna (19%). However, female poverty is obscured by the household principle on which this measurement is based, as the at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated based on household income under the assumption that resources are distributed equally within the family. Gender differences in poverty can only be measured for single-person households, but poverty affects very specific groups. The risk of poverty is higher in households with children, in particular in families with three or more children and in single-parent households. Comparing households by sex of the main breadwinner, households where the main breadwinner is female have a considerably higher risk of poverty (27%) than households where the main breadwinner is male (19%).

When the broad concept of risk of poverty and social exclusion for the target group of the Europe 2020 strategy, which measures not only household income but also ability to afford basic needs and unexpected expenses as well as work intensity, is applied, the risk of poverty is higher and there is a larger difference between women (26%) and men (22%) at the individual level. The difference increases when households are analysed by sex of main breadwinner: 37% of households that are primarily dependent on the income of a woman – either because there is no man in the household or the man has no or a lower income – are at risk of poverty and social exclusion, as opposed to 23% of households with a male primary breadwinner.

Poverty affects social participation, e.g. by limiting access to cultural activities. While approximately half of all women and men participate in cultural activities frequently, this share sinks to just over a third for people who have difficulty affording basic needs. Women tend to limit their cultural activities more than men. For women, poverty does not affect their political participation much. Men affected by poverty reduce their participation in non-profit associations and have a tendency to do so for political parties as well, while slightly increasing their participation in citizens' initiatives and public participation processes.

An evaluation of the selected welfare benefits against the backdrop of the higher risk of poverty of women with regard to being able to meet their subsistence needs without reliance on a partner leads to the following conclusions:

Men who are sole beneficiaries receive means-tested basic benefit more frequently than women who are sole beneficiaries – despite the same risk of poverty. However, sole beneficiary men receive a disproportionate amount of benefit compared to other at-risk-of-poverty households as well.

Female pensioners receive more equalisation supplements than male pensioners due to their lower pensions. This is valid for both old-age pensions and widow's/widower's and disability pensions. This corresponds to their higher risk of poverty, although the differences between women and men are larger for risk of poverty than for equalisation supplements.

POVERTY AND SOCIAL SECURITY



SUMMARY

The distribution of housing assistance recipients by type of household corresponds roughly to the distribution of at-risk-of-poverty households. This means that women receive appropriate support. However, in Vienna the right to housing assistance is dependent on a minimum income of at least the amount of the equalisation supplement, which is a disadvantage for people with a lower income – predominantly women.

Unemployed women are less likely to receive emergency welfare benefit to secure their long-term subsistence needs due to the fact that household income is used as a basis to calculate the emergency welfare benefit. Women's applications for emergency welfare benefit are denied more often than men's, so the share of women among recipients is lower than that of men and their benefits are more frequently below subsistence needs.

In order to counterbalance disadvantages on the labour market, women receive more support through labour market policy measures than men. However, this disproportionate support of women is in part due to family benefits (child benefit), while their share in employment projects and further training programmes is lower. The child-care benefit provides a basic income that covers loss of earnings through career interruptions for child care (parental leave). The recipients remain predominantly female. Due to the small share of men taking parental leave, the risks and long-term disadvantages with regard to career opportunities and income as well as division of labour at home still mainly affect women.

Women receive attendance allowance more frequently than men, which is only in part due to their higher life expectancy. This is positive in that it helps cover costs of nursing care and assistance, but indicates that women are more affected by the challenge of getting affordable and high-quality care.

HOUSING AND PUBLIC SPACE



SUMMARY

Single women live in different housing segments than single men. They are more likely to live in municipal housing (elderly women in particular) and large residential blocks. Single men, on the other hand, are more likely to live in flats rented from private owners and they also make up a higher share of residents of substandard flats (category D: no toilet or running water in the flat). Beyond that, housing conditions are determined by household compositions: Owner-occupied flats, which make up only 23% of residences in Vienna, are more likely to belong to couples without children. Couples with one or two children often live in single-family houses or duplexes as well as owner-occupied flats. Families with three or more children are more likely to live in municipal housing. Single parents are overrepresented in housing cooperatives. Because their predominant housing types have more communal property, couples with one or two children benefit considerably more from infrastructure for children than single parents or couples with three or more children. The two latter groups are also more frequently affected by precarious housing situations, particularly with regard to overcrowded flats.

It is difficult to measure homelessness – the most extreme form of housing precarity – of women based on the available statistics. Figures on registered homeless people generally underestimate the problem and likely also the share of women, as the existing forms of support hide female homelessness to some extent. A sign of this is that some 50% of users of non-residential support and counselling measures for homeless people are women, but women only account for 28% of users of transitional

housing and long-term assisted living of the Vienna Homeless Services. The share of women is particularly low in emergency housing and transitional housing.

Singles and single parents have the highest burden of housing costs. Single women and single parents spend a quarter or their income on rent on average, while single men spend 21%. In comparison, the share of housing costs for couples without children is 16%. This means that in households that mainly depend on a woman's income a higher share of the household income is needed for housing. The share of income needed for rent has increased in comparison to women's average income over time, from 28% to 34% between 2005 and 2012. In relation to the average male income, it increased from 23% to 28% in the same time span.

There are only small differences between women and men in terms of satisfaction with the housing situation. Here, other aspects, such as household composition or ownership/rental aspects, seem to create larger differences. In contrast, there is a noticeable difference in the sense of security in their immediate environment. One in three women and one in four men do not feel safe from crime there. The differences are particularly striking with regard to fear of sexual violence and being followed.

There are hardly any differences in the use of parks between women and men, but there are differences by type of household. Families with children under 18 go to parks more often than couples without children. Older single persons use parks less, and single parents are also

HOUSING AND PUBLIC SPACE



SUMMARY

underrepresented. There were clear differences in adolescents, on whom data was gathered via youth work in the public space. Girls and young women make less use of the offers than boys and young men. Until the age of nine, the distribution is still rather balanced. With age, the share of girls declines, and girls are severely underrepresented (30%) in the 15 to 19 age group.

While the tertiary education sector for housing and urban development has a relatively balanced ratio of women and men, construction engineering-related studies are clearly male-dominated. Targeted measures are needed to make these studies more attractive to women and integrate women's perspectives more. In general, it is difficult to achieve a balanced composition of decision-making bodies in heavily male-dominated areas. For example, the Chamber of Architects and Engineering Consultants for Vienna, Lower Austria and Burgenland only has 13% female members. Efforts to increase the representation of women in juries as important decision-making bodies for housing and urban development over time have only been successful to some extent: Women are less involved in urban development juries (22%) than in those deciding on the design of public parks (33%) and public space (43%).

ENVIRONMENT AND MOBILITY



SUMMARY

The indicators on environment and mobility show that women have a different environmental awareness than men and also have different needs with regards to the environment. Women tend to be more critical in environmental matters than men. Particularly women with children are bothered considerably more by air quality, lack of street cleaning, waste management, dust, smells, exhaust fumes, traffic noise and other noise. However, women are less likely to choose a job in the environmental sector than men, also compared to their share of employees in general (share of women in green jobs: 39%). The share of women is even lower when it comes to highly qualified green jobs and freelance work in the environmental sector (29%) or the generation of renewable energy (23%). The situation is similar in tertiary education in the sector. The total share of women is 29% and the field is strongly segregated: The share of women is lower at universities (28%) than at universities of applied sciences (34%). Men dominate with approx. 90% in environmental technology and energy management, while women make up 80% of students of environmental studies of the University College of Agrarian and Environmental Pedagogy. In the field of “technical environmental management”, the situation is nearly balanced (44% women).

Women are also considerably more eco-conscious than men with regard to transportation. The differences are enormous particularly with daily trips to work: 28% of men but only 17% of women use a car to get to work. Women use public transport more frequently (66%) than men (53%). The choice of transportation and distance to place of work determine how long it takes to

get to work. The average is the same for men and women at 28 minutes, but women have a higher variance, as they have a higher share both of trips that are considerably below average (up to 10 minutes: women 18%, men 13%) and trips that are considerably longer than average (over 40 minutes: women 17%, men 15%).

Going by the data on holders of yearly passes of Vienna Public Transport, women use public transport more than men: 39% of Viennese women and 28% of men own a yearly pass. The share of yearly pass holders has increased considerably in the last years, supported in particular by the price policy of the City of Vienna. The increase is stronger for men, which is a positive sign in terms of sustainable mobility, as men are catching up to women. Car sharing, another resource-saving form of mobility, has a relatively low percentage of female users (35%), as the user data of “zipcar” show. It is also lower than the share of women buying new cars (40%) or using a car frequently (44%).



VIOLENCE

SUMMARY

Gender aspects of violence are discussed with regard to selected intentional crimes: Victims of physical violence (murder, assault and battery) are predominantly male, while women predominantly become victims of dangerous threats, stalking and long-term violence. The perpetrators of all crimes are predominantly male. Men become victims of physical violence predominantly in the public space, women in the private space.

The victims of punishable offenses against sexual integrity and self-determination, such as rape, sexual assault and sexual abuse of a defenceless or mentally impaired person, are nearly always women, the perpetrators are almost exclusively male. Three in four rapes are perpetrated by male family members or acquaintances of the victim, as are two in three cases of sexual assault and sexual abuse of a defenceless or mentally impaired person.

The criminal statistics do not allow the identification of cases of violence against women perpetrated by partners or former partners. The statistics of victims' protection organisations for women who are victims of violence, however, show that 95% of violence against female victims is perpetrated by men, and predominantly by current or former partners. More than half (52%) of women who contact the 24-hour Women's Emergency Helpline of the City of Vienna are victims of violence perpetrated by their partner or former partner. In another 17% of cases, the aggressor is part of the social sphere of the victim, i.e. a family member, someone from their social circle or their work environment.

The perpetrator can be banned from the residence (residence exclusion order) and protection orders can be issued to protect victims of domestic violence. In 2012, a total of 3,246 residence exclusion orders were issued; 18.7 per 10,000 inhabitants. This alone highlights the need for support structures for victims of violence. In addition to laws and regulations, support measures that can be accessed without police intervention, such as women's shelters and specialised women's counselling centres, are extremely important for women. In 2012, Vienna's women's shelters supported 690 women and 663 children, the Women's Emergency Helpline provided counselling in person, by phone and online for 7,837 people and the association Orient Express helped 89 girls and women with regard to forced marriages.

The figures for violence at school show that 42% of boys and 34% of girls had been bullied at least once in the preceding 12 months. Boys are victims of bullying more often than girls, but they also account for the majority of perpetrators. In the 2009/2010 academic year, 54% of boys were involved in a physical altercation and 55% were involved in bullying fellow students.



This chapter focuses on three central aspects of women's health: risk factors and preventive health check-ups as aspects of health competence, eating disorders and reproduction as examples of areas of health that affect only or primarily women, and the health care sector as a labour market segment that is characterised by distinct horizontal and vertical segregation.

Health risk factors affect women and men differently: While men smoke more often and exhibit problematic alcohol consumption, women are more often physically inactive. Obesity, however, affects women and men equally. Women make use of the free preventive health check-up slightly more often than men and start at a younger age. Although women smoke less frequently and are less likely to have problematic alcohol consumption patterns, they are more likely than men to exhibit problematic health competence.

Eating disorders are considered predominantly female disorders, as the overwhelming majority of patients are women (88% of hospital discharges after in-patient stays due to eating disorders). Eating disorders are often connected to disordered feelings of self-worth, low self-esteem and the dominating body images and beauty ideals. Even among school-aged children, girls are considerably more critical of their body and looks than boys. Whether girls describe themselves as good-looking depends more on their weight than for boys.

From an equality perspective, issues related to reproduction, such as teenage pregnancies, contraception, in vitro fertilisation (IVF) and Caesarean sections are not only relevant because

they concern women's health but because they are indicators for whether women are allowed to decide freely and independently about the number of children they have, when they have them and at what intervals. 6% of mothers giving birth were under 20 years old (teenage pregnancies); the share of young mothers from Southeast Europe and Turkey was disproportionately high. In 2012, the IVF fund supported in vitro fertilisation for approx. 1,100 couples from Vienna, of which a third resulted in a pregnancy. 30% of all births in Vienna were by C-section, which was only sometimes medically indicated.

The health sector as an employment sector is characterised by distinct vertical and horizontal segregation. The vertical segregation is visible in the female dominance in nursing professions (women's share of approx. 80%), while women only make up half of all doctors. However, even among doctors, executive positions are mostly given to men (19% women). Female and male doctors choose different specialisations (horizontal segregation), and this tendency is even more marked among physicians in private practice than among employees of Vienna's hospitals. Women dominate among paediatricians, dermatologists and general practitioners, but very few women are surgeons.

Obstacles barring women access to health care are hard to describe via indicators, as they are primarily determined by cultural factors. Some approximation may be made via physicians in private practice in whose practices languages other than German are spoken. They are still the exception. For example, only 31 GP practices, six gynaecologists and 13 paediatricians have staff who speak Turkish.

GENERAL SUMMARY

The Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report provides a basis for the continuous monitoring of the situation of women and men. The findings can be used to develop approaches and measures for achieving equality. The report focuses on selected equality aspects in which women are disadvantaged. The 12 areas selected for the report cover a wide range of equality aspects, including both “traditional” areas of equality monitoring, such as paid and unpaid work, education and training or political participation, and “new” areas, such as leisure time, environmental aspects and public space. Another unusual feature of the monitoring report is that data from many different sources are used. The use of administrative data mitigates data gaps in official statistics and other primary research.

The indicators used were selected based on previously defined equality goals and developed together with experts, using theoretical concepts and empirical results from equality discourse. Although the development of indicators has been completed for the moment, it should be considered part of an iterative process that will continue in future monitoring reports. This is particularly the case for topics that have previously not been considered much in equality discourse, such as leisure time and sports, art and media, housing and public space, and environment and mobility.

The topics covered in the monitoring report should not be considered separate from each other, as they are closely linked. The complex connections between the 12 areas become evident in the multi-dimensional examination of equality via representation (access), resources (distribution of financial, temporal, spatial and

education resources) and realities (causes of inequalities). For example, the different degrees of labour market integration of women and men influence their financial resources and, consequently, their opportunities for participation in society (e.g. leisure-time activities, housing or mobility). At the same time, labour market integration is heavily influenced by whether someone has children or elderly relatives to care for. In some cases, the connections are less direct and some changes will only become apparent in the mid to long term, such as the reduction of income differences as a result of diminishing labour market segregation, or changes in housing construction as a consequence of making gender competence a larger aspect of architect training.

WOMEN AND MEN IN VIENNA

The indicators on the living situations and family compositions in Vienna provide contextual information on the Viennese that serve as a frame of reference for other indicators. These indicators show that the conditions for equality in Vienna are special due to its urban character, as evidenced by the high labour market participation of women and the high share of people with a migration background. At the same time, there are clear differences not only between women and men but also within these two groups. The diversity of different ways of life is particularly apparent in household and family compositions: Only one in four Viennese live in “traditional” nuclear families with a mother, father and children, while nearly half the population live alone. There is also a considerable share of single-parent households and blended families.

GENERAL SUMMARY

For the development of indicators in the other areas it is important to consider that equal access to certain resources and conditions does not always mean a 50-50 distribution. Depending on the populations defined, the shares of women and men are not equal – in some cases, there is a larger share of women, especially in the older age groups, and in others, there are more men, e.g. when looking at economically active people in Vienna. The choice of reference value depends on the issue: For most topics (in particular leisure time, sports, environment, mobility, public space, health, and violence), the total resident population is used, sometimes sorted by certain characteristics (e.g. by age and nationality in the case of political participation). In other cases, not only people living in Vienna are included, but also people who commute to the city for work or education. For issues related to employment (paid work, income), the economically active population serves as a frame of reference, while other issues, such as poverty and social security or housing, are measured not by individuals but by households in their different compositions.

The context indicators can be used to determine specific target groups for equality measures, such as not economically active women, women with low qualifications, older women, women with a migration background, single mothers, or women with more than two children. Such groups are discussed in more detail in the relevant sections. Additional differentiations would be interesting, such as women in lesbian relationships, women with disabilities, or people living in institutional settings; however, there is hardly any representative data for these groups. The monitoring report is also currently not able to show changes over people's lifetime.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

The Gender Equality Monitoring Report uses a broad definition of political participation, including not only political functions but also participation in trade unions and professional associations and political activity. Women are underrepresented in political functions compared to their share of the resident population despite an increasing number of women among candidates. In City Council Committees, women and men are involved in different topics. For example, women are overrepresented in the committees on integration and women's issues, health, and art and science. In the statutory interest groups (Chamber of Labour, Economic Chamber, professional associations) the situation is ambivalent – in three out of the eleven organisations, the share of women and men in governing positions is balanced, in all others, women are underrepresented. The situation is similar when it comes to students' bodies in schools and youth organisations of trade unions. The only exception are universities, as the Austrian National Union of Students is the only body where the representation of women corresponds to their share of students. The presence of women in different areas also reflects concrete political objectives of promoting women (e.g. quota regulations). This can also be seen in other areas where quota regulations increase the share of women in governing positions (e.g. at universities) or where women are actively involved (e.g. juries and selection committees in the arts or housing construction). At the same time, women are still severely underrepresented in managing positions, e.g. in hospitals, education institutions (with the exception of universities) and in the media.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Men are more involved in political parties and NGOs than women. Women are not less interested in political participation, they just act on that interest less frequently. This is also true for the participation of women in non-political decision-making functions, e.g. in sports associations. One of the consequences of the underrepresentation of women in decision-making bodies is that their interests and the realities of women's lives are not considered sufficiently in decisions. The participation of women in decision-making processes can be considered a rough indicator of the use of gender competence or gender criteria in the processes. However, there is currently no workable operationalisation of gender competence that could be used as a basis for the development of indicators nor a standardised way of recording gender awareness training or other such measures.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Education is a key resource for being able to live a self-determined life. Education not only influences career and income prospects but also other areas, such as health competence. Women are not disadvantaged in terms of access to education and training, but they remain concentrated in certain fields. This segregation in education and career choices leads to limitations with regard to employment and income opportunities. Women have more problems than men finding employment that matches their qualifications when they first start working.

Despite the high participation of women in education, there is an at-risk group of women with a low level of education that is not limited to elderly women. This group faces a particularly

high risk of poverty and social marginalisation. Women with low qualifications are forced to work in the low-wage sector significantly more often than men with low qualifications.

Life-long learning is necessary to maintain one's education resources. Women and men participate equally in further training measures, although women work mainly in sectors where further training is common. Women on maternity leave or in part-time employment have difficulties accessing in-house training, which they often compensate for by attending subsidised courses or courses during their free time.

Jobs in the education sector are female-dominated, which contributes to the persistence of gender segregation on the labour market. Women remain underrepresented in executive and governing positions, although there have been significant changes at universities in this respect since the introduction of a quota for university bodies.

PAID AND UNPAID WORK

Paid work is linked to many other areas primarily via income by providing access to housing, mobility, leisure-time activities, culture, sports, education and health care. However, paid work cannot be considered independently of reproductive work if we are to truly examine the realities of women's and men's lives: the balance of paid and unpaid work is relevant. The amount of unpaid work determines how much time someone has for paid work, and, conversely, participation in the labour market influences the demand for services in the care and nursing sectors.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Women work more overall than men, which means they have less free time. More than half their work is unpaid work for the family and in the household. While reproductive work affects women with children more than others, the career choices of young women often influence the division of labour before they have children. This reinforces the still existing traditional roles, and these patterns often remain intact in partnerships even after the child-rearing years are over. This is in part compensated for by the comparatively good childcare and after-school care situation in Vienna. Providing care for relatives can also limit the paid work of women.

When women assume a majority of reproductive work, this limits their integration into the labour market, which is monitored via the indicators on working hours, non-standard employment and segregation. There are different opinions on the impacts of this limited integration of women into the labour market in terms of temporal and financial resources. Parental leave, flexible working hours and part-time work make it easier to balance work and family or other activities. When someone has limited time, part-time employment is a way of being able to work at all or gaining more quality of life. On the other hand, career interruptions and part-time work make it harder for women to be able to be financially independent, limit their career advancement considerably and lead to a concentration of women in badly valued jobs and precarious employment situations.

LEISURE TIME AND SPORTS

Women have less free time than men due to their higher overall workload of paid and unpaid work. They also spend their leisure time differently; e.g., women spend less time on sports and prefer different sports than men. Women spend less money on leisure-time activities, sports and hobbies on average; however, this evaluation is based on household data, so only single-person households were included. In households with couples or children, it is not possible to determine what is spent on women and what is spent on other family members.

These differences in the use of free time are not, as such, problematic in terms of equality, as long as they are not caused by different opportunities for self-actualisation or linked to different amounts of public funding. However, there are some considerable data gaps concerning the use of public funds by gender. For example, there is no standardised way of determining what topics are being subsidised with subsidies for associations and what the membership structure of the associations is like. There is also hardly any information on whether gender criteria are considered in the development of infrastructure.

ART AND MEDIA

The perception of women with regard to roles and values is significantly influenced by the way they are portrayed in art and the media. There are no indicators that could measure to what extent women are portrayed in a non-sexist way or in non-traditional roles. Therefore, the Gender Equality Monitoring Report focuses on

GENERAL SUMMARY

the influence women have on the production conditions in the arts and the media. The arts and media are fields where most people have a university degree, and the majority of students are female. Despite the high level of education, the employment situation, particularly when starting out, is often characterised by precarious employment conditions, such as a low income (art) and new forms of self-employment (media). Despite the high share of women among students, women are clearly underrepresented in the field when it comes to employment and even more so in managing positions. However, in the arts, the number of women in decision-making bodies, such as juries, has increased.

INCOME

Income is a key resource for independence and social participation and influences access to different areas of life. It is closely linked to the topics of poverty and social security, but other areas, such as health, violence or education, are also influenced by a person's income. As many surveys do not collect income data and when it is available, such data is frequently distorted, it is often not possible to relate these matters directly to income. However, differentiating by education, the ability to afford certain things and migration status can help make the influence of financial resources visible indirectly. Of all types of resources, financial resources play a key role, as they can be used to increase temporal resources (by paying for services) and improve spatial resources.

The Gender Equality Monitoring Report focuses on income from work. Due to a lack of valid

data on property and investment income, only a part of the financial resources can be surveyed, which is closely related to employment. Due to the limited labour market integration of women caused by career gaps and part-time work, women have considerably lower incomes than men across all employment categories (self-employment, employment, non-standard employment) and from pensions. Redistribution within households still plays an important part in women's standard of living, although the high divorce rate means that this rarely guarantees life-long financial security anymore.

Income from work also reflects how different types of work are valued, illustrating the different ways in which women are disadvantaged on the labour market. Income differences adjusted for working hours reflect the influence of education, age, experience and career choice. These differences, however, are not sufficient to explain the gender pay gap and some of these factors are not free of structural disadvantages for women either. Differences in collective bargaining agreements in "typically female" and "typically male" jobs also indicate that the way in which work is valued is also influenced by the prevailing ideas of gender roles, i.e., that men are still considered the main breadwinners whose income is supplemented by women.

POVERTY AND SOCIAL SECURITY

The topic of poverty and social security focuses on the subsistence levels of households. This affects limited financial access to areas such as education, leisure-time activities, housing or mobility. Poverty thresholds depend on

GENERAL SUMMARY

household compositions and household income. Therefore, differences between women and men can only be shown for singles, single-parent families and in terms of the main breadwinner. The fact that households where the main breadwinner is female have a considerably higher risk of poverty indicates an accumulation of poverty risks due to the limited labour market integration of women and the strong concentration of women in low-wage sectors as well as the higher risk of poverty of single mothers. Definitions of poverty that also include the ability to afford expenses and work intensity indicate even bigger gender-specific differences in poverty.

When it comes to welfare benefits, the report examines measures that ensure subsistence (means-tested basic benefit, equalisation supplements for pensioners), secure housing (housing assistance), are part of labour market policy (unemployment benefits and emergency welfare benefit, subsidies relating to active labour market policy) and family policy (child-care benefit for parents on parental leave), and support nursing care (attendance allowance). In addition to combating poverty, these measures have various family, employment and education policy goals. For most benefits, the eligibility depends on household income, which may reinforce existing dependencies. This is obvious with benefits that are granted to households (e.g. means-tested basic benefit, housing assistance, equalisation supplements for pensioners), but the emergency welfare benefit is calculated including the partner's income.

HOUSING AND PUBLIC SPACE

Housing quality is measured on how it meets people's needs for quality of life, safety and security on the one hand and on functional aspects of practical living in the flat, the housing complex and the immediate neighbourhood on the other. Due to their different social roles, women and men have different needs of their environment, as it is still primarily women who have a great demand of infrastructure that supports housework and childcare. Mobility aspects not only influence mobility behaviour but also influence temporal resources and, as a consequence, determine how much time someone has for paid work, education or leisure-time activities.

Housing demands and conditions are primarily determined by household composition. Gender differences are secondary to other factors such as household size, household income, migration background, etc. Therefore, indicators regarding housing conditions, housing quality, precarious living conditions, housing satisfaction and use of public space are also described with regard to household composition.

An increased risk of poverty is usually accompanied by unsatisfactory or precarious housing. Therefore, the report compares housing costs to disposable income. Due to their lower average income, women have to use a larger percentage of their income for housing than men; a situation that has been exacerbated by the massive increase in costs over the last years. Contrasting the share of women making use of support and counselling measures for homeless people and

GENERAL SUMMARY

the share of women among users of transitional housing and long-term assisted living indicates that the share of homeless women is considerably higher than is reflected by the official figures.

The use of public space is very much determined by people's subjective sense of security and the design of green spaces, squares and streets with their needs in mind. There are hardly any meaningful data for the latter. Therefore, the monitoring report also looked at the participation of women in housing construction and urban planning in addition to sense of security, use of parks and youth work. The participation of women in decision-making bodies and selection committees will hopefully increase planning in housing construction and urban development that is suited to the everyday needs of women.

ENVIRONMENT AND MOBILITY

The chapter on environment and mobility describes gender differences in environmental awareness, the participation of women in the environmental sector, and gender differences in mobility behaviour as one aspect of environmental behaviour. Women harbour great potential for environmental policy, as women, particularly mothers, have a higher environmental awareness than men. Despite being more sensitive to environmental issues, women are underrepresented in environmental sector jobs that require higher qualifications. There is clear gender segregation in the green job sector, both in training and employment, with women dominating in environmental education studies but being underrepresented in the technical fields.

Women use resource-saving public transport more frequently than men, who use cars more often, particularly for commuting to work. Men, on the other hand, are the more frequent users of bicycles and car sharing, two other forms of resource-saving mobility.

However, mobility behaviour is not only an expression of environmental awareness but also of mobility requirements and mobility opportunities for work and education. Studies on the choice of transport modes do not examine the traffic behaviour of people with child or elder care responsibilities in their family. This is not only a gap in the monitoring report but also means that this group is being neglected in traffic and transport planning.

VIOLENCE

The chapter on violence focuses on the differences between women and men as victims of violence and the related legal and victim support measures. Women and men are affected by different types of violence and in different contexts. Women are particularly affected by violence in their immediate social sphere, i.e. family members and acquaintances in their private or work environment. The perpetrators are very frequently partners or former partners. Violence in the social sphere is strongly characterised by heteronormative power dynamics, which are often connected to some form of dependence on behalf of the victims. Therefore, women who are financially dependent on someone, whose residential status is not secure, and women with disabilities and in need of care are particularly at risk of

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violence. These risks are exacerbated by the fact that violence in the social sphere is often not reported and remains invisible. Therefore, it is important to create conditions that allow victims of violence to make use of support services. In this context, the report addresses women's shelters and other victim protection organisations that provide support both in an immediate crisis and in finding long-term solutions for a life free of violence. At the same time, it discusses residence exclusion orders and protection orders, which underline the importance of support structures for victims of violence.

HEALTH

The chapter on health focuses on the health competence of women and men, specific aspects of women's health (eating disorders and reproduction) and gender segregation in the health care sector. Women smoke less frequently than men and are less likely to have problematic alcohol consumption patterns, but they also exercise less. Although they have preventive health check-ups done more often than men, they rate their health competence as lacking or problematic more often than men.

The report discusses eating disorders as an example of illnesses that affect mainly women and girls. Even among school-age children, girls strive to follow conventional body and beauty ideals more than boys. Therefore, girls are twice as likely to have an eating disorder as boys. To counteract this, the way in which women are portrayed in public (e.g. in the media and art) must change.

Children and reproductive matters are core factors of equality: Women must be able to decide for themselves whether they have children, how many and when. This equality goal cannot be measured directly. The indicators included in the monitoring report therefore focus on potential problem areas, such as teenage pregnancies, unsafe methods of contraception, in vitro fertilisation and C-sections. The interpretation of these indicators is characterised by a complex combination of knowledge, medical necessities and freedom of family planning, which also implies that there is a great need for counselling and information.

In terms of employment, the health care sector is extremely segregated: Women are concentrated in a few specialisations (general practitioners, paediatricians, dermatologists); they dominate in the nursing professions and account for approximately half of all doctors, but are underrepresented in executive positions.

CONCLUSIONS

The indicators of the First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report describe the status quo of equality in different areas. Many of the ways in which women are disadvantaged are related to income and paid and reproductive work, level of education and available time. These are issues that are being addressed by current women's promotion and equality promoting measures, but they also influence other areas, such as leisure time, which have so far not been the focus of equality policy. This and future monitoring reports will therefore provide

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the foundations for the further development of existing measures and a rethinking of areas that have so far been neglected by equality measures.

Despite improvements with regard to the visibility of women and men in data sources, there are still considerable data gaps that impede the full analysis of all topics relevant for equality policy. This refers not only to the frequently limited applicability to the realities of women's lives, but even the fact that sex is not always included as a variable in surveys and studies. This is particularly evident in the use of public funds, where gender criteria are not recorded. The further development of the equality monitoring report should therefore also entail a further development of available data and be closely coordinated with extensive gender budgeting measures.

The First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report provides a basis for the analysis of the situation of women and men in Vienna and changes over time. It shows where there is a need for advancing the equality of women and men and it can also serve to show where further promotion of women is needed. However, the First Vienna Gender Equality Monitoring Report is also an invitation to define equality goals in more concrete terms or adapt them to changing contexts.

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For the complete bibliography, please see the full report “Wiener Gleichstellungsmonitor 2013” in German.

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