

EPASI Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

a programme of observation, analysis and innovation supported by the European Commission's department of Education & Culture, SOCRATES programme 2.1.2



Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Country Report: Denmark

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November 2008

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London
- Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö Högskola (Sweden)



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Country Report: Denmark

1. Introduction

This study will describe the official debate in Denmark concerning disadvantage in education. Some categories of pupils and perspectives will be further analysed. Some minor projects and some larger, in this study presented as cases, will be included as examples. Altogether this will form a picture of disadvantage in education in Denmark and the official policy and strategy to mitigate disadvantage. However it is a picture constructed by us out of the information we have had access to. We have searched information on official web-pages including pages of ministries, research and evaluation institutes, universities, teacher training colleges, local authorities and local schools. We have also interviewed five Danish college teachers and researchers in the educational area¹. Additional sources include some research literature with special relevance for Danish educational context as well as some literature of general character.

Our study concerns the “Danish mother country”, which is a member country of the EU. It will not deal with the home-ruled overseas territories, Faeroe Islands and Greenland, which are outside the EU. We have not found any official documents or evidence that children and young people with these backgrounds are subjected to disadvantage in schools in the Danish mother country. Overall, as far as we have found, children with Faeroese or Greenlandic background are seldom mentioned as particular groups in educational documents and debates in Denmark.

According to the Danish Constitution of 1953 (*Danmarks Riges Grundlov*), Denmark is a constitutional monarchy where regional and local authorities have a certain degree of autonomy. According to par. 76 of the Constitution,

All children of school age shall be entitled to free instruction in primary schools. Parents or guardians making their own arrangements for their children or wards to receive instruction equivalent to the general primary school standard shall not be obliged to have their children or wards taught in a publicly provided school (<http://www.folketinget.dk/pdf/constitution.pdf>).

Thus, children of school age are not obliged to participate in public or private school teaching if they receive equivalent teaching in other ways, eg, at home. The system is based on individual or family responsibility for children’s education rather than compulsory attendance at a school. However, current educational policies are focused on education in school.

As a result of a recent, comprehensive Municipal Reform, a large number of smaller units have been fused so that there are now 5 regional authorities (*regioner*) and 98 local authorities or municipalities (*kommuner*) (2007). The Reform has, among other things, been intended to accomplish a system where local and regional administrative bodies have direct contacts with the public, whereas the state authorities focus on general regulation (Regeringen 2007). Responsibility for the public elementary school is within the domain of local authorities, the municipalities. Public as well as private schools are regulated by a number of national laws (see Appendix 1).

The educational system for children and youth from 0-19 years is structured as follows:

- 0-2 year olds: Crèches (Day nursery)
- 3-6 y.o.: Kindergarten
- 6-7 y.o.: Pre-school class (will become compulsory)
- 7-16 y.o.: Elementary school (compulsory)
- 16-17 y.o.: Class Ten

1 Special thanks to Carsten Schou , Sören Hegstrup, Bent Madsen, Peter Mikkelsen, Üzeyir Tireli, Peter Gregersen.

- 16(17)-19(20) y.o.: Upper secondary education (gymnasium or vocational)

The system also consists of schools that focus on children with disabilities, children with emotional and psychological problems, and schools that focus on certain topics; like music and art-schools. In primary and secondary education, there are traditionally a large number of independent schools owned by parents. Another important part of the Danish education system is the tradition of *folkehøjskoler* (folk high schools; see below).

2. Public and free schools - a historical overview

We have chosen to limit the historical overview to some aspects that are important for a general understanding of the present-day situation and policies.

Compulsory teaching of children was introduced in Denmark as early as 1814. The development of the education system in the 19th century was strongly influenced by the philosophy of the Lutheran priest and author N. F. S. Grundtvig (1783-1872), who inspired the starting of the folk high school movement in 1844 (Dansk Friskoleforening). The folk high schools – seemingly an original Danish innovation – contributed to a quick rise in the education level and professional skills of adult men and women, particularly in the countryside, to improvements in the productivity of agriculture, and to the co-operative movement in commercial peasant agriculture. These movements have also been associated with a complex combination of egalitarianism and nationalism. This may also have affected the youth education system. Today these schools are still an important part of the Danish educational system (see Project DK143: [Mentorprojekt](#)). Young people as well as adults go to secondary-level courses of theoretical, practical or art creative character, on a voluntary basis.

In the first half of the 20th century, the secondary schools were reformed in order to educate an increasing number of pupils with middle- and working-class background. In 1958, new legislation integrated the primary and lower secondary school so that the present system with a 9-year compulsory education was established. Tendencies to decentralisation have been pronounced so that the Law of the Public Elementary School guarantees each public school, with its school-board, a certain degree of autonomy in relation to the local authority that finances the school. The role of parents is also stressed, and the law demands that they shall be in majority in the school-boards in public schools. Since the early 1990s, parents choose school for their children rather than being directed to one according to geographical proximity.

According to an official historical overview, an overall trend was that school policies were gradually decentralised from the state to the local authorities up to about 1992. This process has then been followed by new centralisation, primarily in the form of increased state regulation of the reporting of quality and output. However, governance or executive functions remain on the local level. General learning goals are partly formulated by the state (in certain subjects), partly by the local authorities (Uddannelsesstyrelsen 2004).

Free (independent) schools, which are not part of the public sector, as a result of a democratic tradition, emerged around 1850. They were inspired by NFS Grundtvig and Christen Kold. They are very common in Denmark. These schools are owned and managed mainly by parents. They have large spectra of perspectives, eg specialised pedagogic oriented schools like Steiner schools, Muslim schools, Adventist schools and many more. In 2007 there were 500 independent schools with approximately 14 percent of the Danish schoolchildren (the rest of the schoolchildren, with few exceptions, went to the about 1,500 public elementary schools; Undervisningsministeriet 2008a).

The schools get financial support from the Danish state in proportion to the number of pupils, provided that the schools fulfil certain criteria. The Danish State gives away about 20 million DKK

(circa 2.6 million Euro) to the independent school system. These schools must have the same content and goal as the schools in the public sector but the educational process can differ. The legislation on independent schools points out that the level and quality of the education must be the same as in the public schools. An important detail in the legislation is that parents shall choose representatives to inspect the schools currently. The average fee to an independent school is app. 9,000 DKK (app. 1,200 Euro) per year according to Dansk Friskoleforening. It is possible for individual children and their families to apply for state financial support that covers around 30 percent of the fee. This may be seen as a state measure to counteract disadvantageous segregation of children from low-income families.

The legislation on independent as well as public schools emphasises that the school shall prepare the pupil for freedom and democracy. The Minister of Education has expressed that this formulation should be specified, since “there is unanimous support for that neither Nazi nor Islamist schools should be able to demand state support” (“Der er enighed om, at hverken nazistiske eller islamistiske skoler skal kunne kraeve statstilskud”, Det mener ministeren 2007).

It is possible for free schools to apply to the state for exemption from the obligation to have written tests and exams. In the national organisation of free schools, 28 schools have such exemptions. An additional number of schools apply each year for exemption from having final exams in the subjects of Christianity and/or history due to the schools’ declared value base (Dansk Friskoleforening 2007).

About 10 percent of the pupils in Danish elementary schools are bilingual. The overall figure is approximately the same for public as for independent schools. However, the segregation patterns seem to differ between these two categories. The share of schools with no bilingual pupils at all was (2006/2007) 16 percent among public schools and 44 percent among independent schools. The share of schools with more than 90 percent bilingual pupils was only 0.4 percent among public schools but 5.5 percent among independent schools (Undervisningsministeriet 2008a). Thus the extremes in these respects are primarily to be found among the independent schools. In this sense, linguistic and ethnic segregation turns out to be stronger among independent schools. The segregation may be disadvantageous for monolingual Danish-speaking pupils as well as bilingual pupils from a linguistic and intercultural perspective.

A study (Schindler Rangvid 2007) has shown that “both Danes and immigrants seem to value higher SES - and higher achieving peers” (p 27), ie, that both categories tend to opt out from schools with high shares of pupils with weak socio-economic background or low exam results. However, immigrant families do not share the strong tendency of native Danish families to opt out from schools with high shares of pupils with immigrant background. There is great heterogeneity among immigrant families. Some choose Muslim schools, some of them opt out from schools with high shares of immigrants, but most of the families do not use the possibility to opt out.

3. Current official government policy and the pre-school and school-system

Pre-school education

All children living in Denmark, excluding children living in asylum centres, have access to different kinds of pre-school care which is divided into special groups and have special names according to child age: crèches (*vuggestuer*) for 0-2-year-olds and kindergartens (*boernehaver*) for 3-6-year-olds. The fee to crèches and kindergartens is equal regardless income, but families with low income can get reduced fees. Although it is voluntary, the official policy is that especially immigrant children shall attend pre-school care to learn Danish and to meet Danish culture. Danish *language*

stimulation training has been made compulsory for bilingual pre-school children, even those who do not attend day-care (Danish Ministry of Education 2008).

All in all, about 90 percent of 3-5-year-olds are in kindergartens or similar institutions (Uddannelsesstyrelsen 2004). Hence, it is also frequent that both parents work full-time.

Starting at the age of six, approximately 97 percent of the children attend a so-called pre-school class. All staff on these lower school-levels consists of educators (pedagogues), not teachers. However, the strict division of labour between pre-school educators and school teachers has become somewhat softened, since there is frequently some institutional co-operation between the pre-school class and the school. Still, many children perceive the passage from pre-school class to school as a dramatic shift in environment, demands and expectations, which may indicate a problematic lack of continuity for the child (Uddannelsesudvalget 2006; see also [Case Study 2](#)). According to a recent change in legislation, the pre-school class will become compulsory and integrated with the elementary school from the autumn of 2009 (Statsministeriet 2007, Undervisningsministeriet 2008).

Elementary school

In 2006, four parties with different views in other political matter (Venstre, Det Konservative Folkeparti, Socialdemokraterne and Dansk Folkeparti) formed a common bill for amendment of the Law of the Public Elementary School. The elementary school has long been the only education for many children and was once created with that purpose. After nine years of education most of the children went to work. An amendment of the educational system and the purpose of elementary school were needed because of changes in society. The parties meant that especially the increasing competition in the labour market caused a need of broader qualification among the youth generation and, hence, of increasing standards and changes in the educational system. The amendment was also caused by the Danish PISA results. In the international PISA investigations of 2000 and 2006, Danish 15-year-olds showed a slightly lower index of reading skills, as well as scientific literacy, than the OECD average. Even worse, Denmark was clearly below the average for countries on comparable levels of income per capita and schooling expenditures (Socialforskningsinstituttet 2006). Statistically, the poor results can be partly explained by a relatively high share of poor readers in Denmark (<http://www.sfi.dk/sw198.asp>). PISA 2000 indicated that in Denmark one out of six pupils left elementary school with poor or unsatisfactory skills in reading (Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut 2006; Andersen *et al.* 2001). These pupils have difficulties in understanding the contents and meaning of common texts. Such reading difficulties have been shown, in the Danish case, to correlate with pupils' socio-economic background, particularly the mother's level of education (Lentz and Rotboell 2006). The share of poor readers is largest among boys. Curiously, however, in relation to the gender patterns found in other OECD countries, Danish boys are relatively well off in relation to girls, in the sense that the boys' disadvantage in reading is smaller and their advantage in mathematics is bigger (Uddannelsesstyrelsen 2005).

Also, many second-generation immigrant children in Denmark have difficulties in reading and therefore problems in school and with their school careers. According to a deeper investigation of the PISA results, bilingual pupils were worse off than monolingual Danish-speaking pupils. An important result was that about half of the difference could be statistically explained by socio-economic factors, while the other half might be due, eg, to language or cultural factors (Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut 2006). In comparison with the other Nordic countries (Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden), it has been found that pupils' reading skills in PISA tests are more dependent on their families' "cultural capital" in Denmark than in the other countries. In this respect, Denmark was close to the OECD average. On the other hand, the correlation between reading skills and the family's *economic* capital was relatively weak in Denmark in an OECD comparison, and here Denmark was on par with the other Nordic countries. However, there still is a positive correlation (Ekholm 2004).

The PISA studies are supposed to be constructed out of a societal and contextual analysis of what kind of competences a 15-year-old student needs to have achieved when leaving school. A critical point about PISA is that the analysis of the context should take account of each country's reading culture and mathematical culture. But, as critics have pointed out, since the tasks are the same for all participating pupils the tasks must rather be context free than contextual since the pupils live in different countries.

On the positive side, it can be noted that the Danish pupils did better than the OECD average in applied mathematics (mathematical literacy) in PISA 2003. There are also factors believed to affect reading skills positively among Danish pupils, on the general level, in comparison with other countries. Among other things, all public schools are obliged by law to have well-functioning school libraries (*Lov om folkeskolen*; Lentz and Rotboell 2006).

According to the revised Law, the aim of elementary school shall be to prepare for further education rather than for the labour market. In Denmark about 20 percent of a generation leaves school at the end of compulsory education (Dahl 2005). The Government wants to reduce this share to a minimum. The aim is that pupils shall stay within the education system more than nine years, in upper secondary school, vocational education or in apprenticeship.

The intention is also that the quality of the education in elementary school should be improved. Previously, it was voluntary for a pupil to take part in the tests for an elementary school exam, but from 2007 the participation in the tests for the exam is compulsory for pupils in public schools though not in independent schools. The change has caused some controversy. Among other things, the teachers' national organisation has warned that the schooling may be too centred on tests rather than on each pupil's personal development (Uddannelsesstyrelsen 2004).

Centralised tests, standardised tests, formal evaluations and evidence of good praxis are some means to achieve better school results and a higher standard in schools according to EU documents. The Danish government is making important changes within the school system according to EU education policy. This is under debate. The accountability system, which is linked to the responsibility of the local school and often combined with incentives such as financing and contracts, is criticised (Hjort 2006, Moos et al. 2005). This system could lead to a traditional way of ranking and sorting pupils, in spite of good intentions. It could also lead to ranking schools and to setting teacher salary according to how their pupils score on tests in school subjects. The focus on centralised and standardised tests is underpinned by a particular view of knowledge and learning, as the reproduction of a set of facts in school subjects.

A governmental goal is that 95 percent of the children shall pass the exams and be able to move on to upper secondary level. This shall be achieved in a relatively near future so that in 2015, 95 percent of a cohort shall be able fulfil upper secondary education (see below) and 50 percent, a tertiary education (see [Case Study 1](#)).

For this purpose, a number of changes shall be made. The new Law making the pre-school class compulsory (see above) has been introduced partly in this context. In year 1-3, in elementary school, extended education in Danish language shall be given. Furthermore, leisure centres (*fritidshjem*) for schoolchildren shall support the children with their homework. A wider cooperation between school, leisure centre, music school and sport club is needed (Uddannelsesudvalget 2006).

According to the Government policies, there shall be an increased use of evidence-based methods in school education. For this purpose, an Evaluation Institute (EVA)² and a Council for Evaluation

² Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut.

and Quality Improvement of the Public Elementary School³ have been established. Documentation on good praxis called “Good examples” shall be spread and easy to find. The headmasters shall have an important role as pedagogy leaders. Local evaluation systems have shown too big differences in standards and routines to be used as tools for quality development (Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut 2005; Epinion A/S 2006) (see also [Case Study 3](#)).

In a meta-study of projects intended to break “negative social heritage”, financed by the Ministry of Social Affairs (Sivertsen SFI:07:03), 54 evaluations of projects in municipalities and institutions during the period 1998-2002 were studied. According to the study the evaluations contained relevant information on background, contents and documentation of the projects, as well as their results. Typically, the evaluations had been made one or a few years after the start of the projects. The dominating data collection methods used in the evaluations was qualitative personal interviews and focus group interviews with the project team members as informants. Half of the evaluations were made by externally recruited persons. Usually the project period was between half a year and three years. At least two thirds of the projects had been launched after initiatives or proposals from the Ministry of Social Affairs. In half of the cases, the evaluations lacked economic accounting for the projects. For projects covered by this meta-study see Project DK145: [Hvordan virker indsatsen mot negativt socialt arv?](#).

National regulations are now intended to provide higher standards and more evidence-based evaluations. Denmark has no tradition on documenting evaluations on local level. This lack of tradition has been pointed out by the OECD as a serious problem in the Danish system (Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut 2005) if evaluations on national and local level shall increase the educational standard. On local level the evaluations shall help the schools to value the pupils’ results and to compare with other municipalities and schools (see [Case Study 4](#)).

To help the teacher to form an education plan on an individual level ten national adaptive tests will be given to every pupil during the school years. The results of the test shall be documented and formed into individual pupil plans and profiles. These tests shall be apprehended as work-instruments for the teacher and not as a method to rank the pupils.

The public elementary school is cost-free.

Class ten

The tenth class ends the elementary school but this school-year is not a part of the compulsory system. However many children choose to take part in this year before they start their further education. Following changes in the school legislation, the tenth class has changed (from August 2008) to be the beginning of further education and not a voluntary ending of elementary school. The governmental aim is that tenth class pupils shall be given a further possibility to pass the tests for the elementary exam if they failed to get the diploma. The tenth class shall also be a concrete possibility for the pupil to find out what kind of education they are interested in, and for many it will be the first year of vocational education.

The importance of educational guidance to the young is often stressed in official documents. This will be in focus in [Case Study 1](#) and in Project DK143: [Mentorprojekt](#).

³ Radet for evaluering og kvalitetsudvikling af folkeskolen.

“Youth schools”

Besides the regular school system, local authorities are obliged to offer a special kind of youth school education (*ungdomsskoler*) for youths between 14 and 18 years. This education can be voluntary for the pupil. It is often part-time. It can also be a whole-time, not voluntary alternative to the elementary school for pupils who do not manage at all in the regular system. In total, about half of young people in this age group participate in one or several youth school courses, on a part-time basis. The youth schools are intended to deepen pupils' general knowledge or give special support. The local authority shall always offer the following categories of youth school services:

- General education
- Preparation for exam tests
- Special pedagogical support
- Education in Danish language and society for immigrant youths

Additional youth school services may be offered according to local decisions.

Upper secondary school

The upper secondary education is structured along several parallel lines:

- Theoretical upper secondary school (two or three years)
- Upper secondary trade schools and technical schools (three years)
- Vocational education and training (three years or more; usually four years)

The two first lines prepare for university, while vocational education and training is directed at the labour market. Vocational education begins with about half a year of theoretical studies and continues with a “shift” system, where the pupil is at school certain weeks and in workplace training most of the time. The system is administrated by the state, employers and trade unions in co-operation.

Youths who fulfil vocational education often get employed on the regular labour market (Pettersson 2006). On the other hand, interrupted vocational education is a big and debated problem. 60 percent of immigrant pupils and 32 percent of native Danish pupils drop out (Colding *et al.* 2005). Among the 20 percent of the youths who do not fulfil upper secondary education, the majority actually does start vocational education and training but does not fulfil it (Undervisningsministeriet 2004). Immigrant youths, particularly boys, are clearly overrepresented in this group. An explanation may be that the pupil has to find an employer who is willing to employ him or her with an apprentice contract. Analyses show tendencies to discrimination, where many employers avoid employing immigrant youths (Olofsson and Wadensjö 2006, Jensen and Joergensen 2005)⁴.

In order to raise the number of 15-17-year-olds participating in education or having “a job with an educational perspective”, the State's family allowance schemes have been adjusted so that youths in this age group are eligible for allowance only provided that this education criterion is fulfilled (Undervisningsministeriet 2005).

A Government decision that has caused lively discussion in Denmark concerns a Danish “canon”. The intention with the canon is to bring forward Danish culture in the form of specified lists of good Danish literature, art, architecture, etc. School teachers shall relate their teaching to this canon.

⁴ Appendix 2, Statistic overview

4. Some theme-related aspects of educational issues and conceptualisation of disadvantage and inequality

Recent and present Government policies affecting inequality and disadvantage in the society as a whole include a number of national strategies and action plans (Finansministeriet 2006; Minister for Ligestilling 2007; Undervisningsministeriet 2005):

- *Agreement Concerning Future Welfare and Investments*. This is a comprehensive agreement between political parties concerning overall welfare and economic strategies.
- *Agreement on More People Working*. This is a broad political agreement on a comprehensive policy for raising employment and labour market participation.
- *Action Plan for Removal of Gender Barriers to Ethnic Minorities' Participation in Work, Education and Club Activities*. This plan focuses on immigrant women and their participation in public life in Denmark.
- *Action Plan "Employment, Participation and Equal Opportunities for All"*. This ethnic and social integration plan also emphasises gender equality.
- *Integration Plan "A New Chance for Everyone"*. This is a plan for ethnic integration, directed at children, young people and adults.

As a part of the Lisbon process, the Danish Government has launched a *Strategy for Social Protection and Social Inclusion* for the years 2006 to 2008, which replaces and follows up earlier Action Plans against poverty and social exclusion.

These are comprehensive political plans and strategies. Below we shall concentrate on educational disadvantage. In this respect, with some simplification, we shall discuss official State policies as an integrated whole, which includes relevant components of the mentioned plans and strategies as well as specifically education-oriented strategies and other policy measures.

National Action Plan for Reading

This strategy includes, according to a recent Government commission proposal (Uddannelsesudvalget 2006):

- Compulsory language screening of three-year old children
- Making language development and language stimulation a compulsory topic in the education of pre-school educators
- Strengthening the topic of reading in the education of school teachers
- Daily preparatory reading training in pre-school class
- Strengthening of the education in Danish, particularly in the early school classes
- Strengthening of special support in Danish for bilingual pupils
- Regular evaluation of pupils' reading skills and command of Danish language during the school years
- Including reading tests in the exam for the elementary school diploma in the ninth class.

National policy against bullying

Problems with discipline and bullying among pupils, and teachers' use of power against pupils, are also debated on a national level. Among other things, discipline problems are believed to hit pupils from socially weak environments particularly hard and are seen as detrimental to their school career. Teachers' physical correction and punishment of pupils is illegal.

An official investigation of questions of discipline in school has been initiated by the Government (Undervisningsministeriet 2007). Moreover, the Government has announced a national campaign

against bullying in 2008. (In the Scandinavian languages there is not generally a clear distinction made between the words bullying and mobbing. Both terms tend to be rather wide and include harassment of individuals, done by individuals as well as by groups or ‘mobs’.) The campaign involves, among other things, the sharing of knowledge via an official anti-bullying internet portal (*Sammen mod mobning* 2008). Schools are obliged by law to have written action plans concerning certain specified aspects of the pupils’ educational environment, which shall include anti-bullying action plans. These plans, however, are sometimes criticised for being vague and difficult to follow up (*ibid*).

According to a survey of twelve-year-old pupils in 2002 and 2006, many pupils report having bullied other pupils and/or themselves having been bullied by pupils or by teachers. However, the number of pupils who, in these questionnaires, report having been bullied has fallen from 2002 to 2006, which is sometimes interpreted as a success of the national and local campaigns and action plans against bullying. At present there seems to be little knowledge of how bullying experiences are distributed among specific groups of pupils, eg, ethnic or socio-economic minorities or pupils with disabilities. It is known that bullying sometimes has a gendered character, for instance, that bullying among girls frequently involves communication technology, while bullying among boys more often is physically violent (*Sammen mod mobning* 2008).

Official conceptions and statistics concerning disadvantage in education

In an official document from the Minister of Education (Det mener Ministeren 2007), two factors that cause disadvantage in education were recognised:

- weak social economic background
- lacking knowledge of Danish language

it is often children from homes where education is not recognised as important. And there are also many bilingual children among them... (“...er ofte boern fra hjem, hvor uddannelse ikke star hoejt på dagsordenen. Her er der er ogsa mange tosprogede imellem”) (Det mener Ministeren 2007).

Thus minority ethnic pupils are seen as disadvantaged due to socio-economic and language factors.

According to the relative income poverty measure used by the Eurostat⁵ and commonly referred to in the EU, about 17 percent of all children of ages 0-15 in Denmark lived at low income levels in 2006.⁶ Also according to Eurostat, about eight percent of all children of ages 0-17 in Denmark lived in jobless homes in 2007. Children with immigrant background are strongly overrepresented among the poor children. According to a Danish research study with a narrower poverty definition⁷, 3.4 percent of the children in Denmark were poor in 2002. However, the share was 15 percent among children of first-generation immigrants and 7.1 percent among children of second-generation immigrants. The study also showed that while 7.5 percent of the native Danish children and 11.4 percent of all children lived in households with cash assistance, the share was 46.8 percent for children of first-generation immigrants and no less than 48.7 percent for children of second-generation immigrants (Dahl 2005).

In Denmark, however, in official texts and to some extent also in research, “negative social heritage” (rather than, for instance, poverty) tends to be used as explanation for difficulties pupils experience at school (eg Nielsen et al 2005). It is often regarded as an overtaking of parents’ negative attitudes and expectations towards life and an overtaking of weak economic and social

⁵ <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/> Statistic database in EU.

⁶ This is defined as an equivalised household income below 60 percent of the country median.

⁷ Equivalised household income below 50 percent of the country median.

standards and positions as in the above quotation as explanation – “homes where education is not recognised as important”. The concept is mostly used in the Nordic countries and was conceptualised in the 1960s in the discipline of Social Work to explain the “heritage” of social problems and marginalisation as a structural phenomenon. It can be used out of either individual or structural institution perspectives. The concept is, however, under debate among researchers. For instance, Morten Ejrnaes, Aalborg University, argues that the use of this concept hides structural explanations. As we interpret the above Minister quotation and other official statements of similar kind, the disadvantages are officially looked upon as caused outside school. The role of the school, then, is seen as compensatory with equal opportunities as an aim. An important aspect of this compensatory role is information. Pupils from “weak” backgrounds with respect to income and educational traditions, as well as pupils with non-Danish background, are supposed to gain from guidance and mentorship. Well-informed pupils and parents are expected to make rational choices (see [Case Study 1](#)).

The other factor is language, ie, lacking knowledge of Danish language. In the Danish politic discourse, the term bilingual is used for children with another mother language than Danish, often with incomplete knowledge of Danish.

Aggregate figures for immigrant children’s school results give evidence of disadvantage (see below), but is this disadvantage caused by economic factors, segregation, language factors, cultural factors or something else? Actual causal connections are probably complex. However, in official debate as we have perceived it, language problems are often in focus, but also (as in the Minister quotation above) a perceived lack of educational traditions in many immigrant families, maybe involving the attitude that education is not important.

Different categories of disadvantaged pupils

It is relatively problematic to use the seven categories of disadvantage, which our study addresses, in the Danish context. In Danish educational debate, ethnic minorities are often categorised as a vulnerable group, and this is by far the most debated one among the minority issues. The ethnic minorities are practically always also linguistic minorities, and they very often coincide with religious minorities (of which Muslims constitute the largest group).

Families with socio-economic problems are in focus and the debate in this area often, but not always, centres particularly on the problems that ethnic minorities are facing. Gender issues are also sometimes discussed, as are some questions concerning disability and special pedagogy. In contrast, there is practically no controversy at all around the only officially recognised indigenous minority, the German-speaking minority in Schleswig/Slesvig-Soenderjylland (see below).

For these reasons, we have chosen to spend the largest part of the discussion below on ethnic minorities, which strongly overlap linguistic and socio-economic minorities, as constructed in the Danish society.

Ethnic minorities

Ethnic minorities, in the sense of first-and second-generation immigrants, are generally a marginalised category relative to natives with respect to living and working conditions. Also the education level is lower. A large proportion of these groups live in the largest cities (particularly Copenhagen, Aarhus, and Odense) and their suburbs, with the result that ghetto formation is debated as a problem. See Projects DK141: [Post Traumatisk Stress](#), DK142: [Enghoejskole](#) and DK140: [Mangfoldighed i Koebenhavns dagtilbud](#).

Since the late 1990s, there have been several new restrictions implemented in Danish immigration policy, with the result that refugee immigration and immigration for family reasons have decreased significantly. New restrictive laws have also been introduced for immigration related to marriage, with the official intention to fight enforced marriages and pro forma marriages among immigrants. The cases of spouse immigration are now individually tested by the *Udlaendingeservice* (Foreigner Service) according to a number of criteria, including that the spouses, taken together, should have stronger bounds with Denmark than with any other country (Integrationsministeriet 2008). One result of these restrictions has been a strong increase in the number of couples moving to Sweden in order to marry.

In 2004, employment rates among immigrants from non-Western⁸ countries were 38 percent for women and 51 percent for men. The corresponding figures for native Danes were 71 percent for women and 77 percent for men (Danmarks Statistik; Jakobsen 2005).

In an analysis of 348 families with a seven-year-old child born in Denmark in 1995, where at least the mother was an immigrant from a non-Western country, it was found that 43 percent of the families had “weak social resources”. The corresponding figure for families where the parents were native Danes was only seven percent. The concept “weak social resources” was defined as the fulfilment of three or more out of five criteria: low household income, parents with low level of education, parents with weak foothold on the labour market, parents with certain self-reported health or relational problems (depression, drug abuse or frequent quarrelling between the parents), and families lacking social networks that might allow practical help in relation to the children. All in all, the majority of the 348 children had gone to kindergartens where a majority of the children had Danish as their native language. Also, the majority of them went to schools and leisure centres with a majority of native Danish-speaking children. According to their own parents, 70 percent of the 348 children spoke Danish better than their native language. A difference in relation to native Danish children was that only 56 percent of the children in this group went to some organised leisure activity (other than leisure centre), whereas the figure for children from native Danish families was 90 percent (Christensen and Agerlund Sloth SFI 05:05).

However, although many migration children grow up in weak socio-economic conditions, they at first do well in school. In the first school year they seem to manage equally with native Danes. This, however, is not the case in the remaining years of the elementary school. School results for this category are bad. In upper secondary school the rate of dropouts is high but the students who fulfil and get an exam do well (Dahl SFI:05:03). Girls have better school results than boys. PISA-Copenhagen (Egelund and Rangvid 2005) showed differences in school results between native Danes and ethnic minority children. Especially children who have arrived in Denmark at six to twelve years of age do not manage to achieve the test-goals in maths and in Danish (reading and writing) and pass the exam.

Tests in school year nine showed that 47-55 percent of ethnic minority children in Copenhagen find it difficult to understand the meaning of a text and to use it in situations other than given in the texts material. But since the exam was voluntary at the time the studies were made, many minority children did not take part in the exam-test. The actual difference in school results between native Danes and ethnic minority children could therefore be bigger than the statistics reveal (Dahl SFI:05:03, Colding *et al.* 2005a). The exam-tests in school in year nine were made compulsory from 1 August 2006, but since several of those tests were not held until May 2007, studies of test results with a breakdown by ethnic group are not yet available.

⁸ Western countries are defined as EU 27, other Western European countries, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

During the period 1988-2001, only 38 percent of immigrant children (ethnic minorities) who arrived in Denmark at six to twelve years of age fulfilled an upper secondary education. Even among second generation immigrant children only 55 percent fulfilled this level of education, while the figure was 70 percent for youths with Danish background (Colding 2005). (As mentioned above, the official goal for the entire age group in 2015 is 95 percent.)

There are, however, indications that within ethnic minority groups, girls are more successful than boys at school, particularly as regards the percentage completing vocational education. A curious pattern in upper secondary education is that among male as well as female pupils from native Danish families, it is more common to shift from academic to vocational education than vice versa. The opposite is true for girls and boys from immigrant families: more pupils shift from vocational to academic education than vice versa (Dahl 2005).

Still, the vast majority of pupils who do not complete vocational education do not complete any upper secondary education at all, at least not during their teens. This proportion is extremely high among immigrant boys from “less developed countries”⁹ who have started vocational education: 67 percent for those who immigrated during the ages 6-12, 66 percent for those who immigrated at 0-5 years of age, and 64 percent for Danish-born boys with immigrant parents. The corresponding figures for immigrant girls are somewhat lower but still very high. For pupils from native Danish families, the corresponding figures are 29 percent for boys and 36 percent for girls. One possible, perhaps partial explanation for these phenomena might be the discrimination patterns in apprenticeship contracts mentioned above, which tend to affect immigrant pupils’ fulfilment of vocational education negatively. In academic gymnasiums, the results for boys and girls with immigrant background are much better than in vocational education. Still, the figures for pupils from native Danish families are clearly better (Dahl 2005).

There are also marked differences between immigrant pupils with respect to their or their parents’ country of birth. For instance, the percentage completing an academic upper secondary education is much higher among pupils with Vietnamese background. They do much better than pupils with Lebanese or Turkish background. The Vietnamese even score higher in maths than Danish pupils. The same is true for vocational education (Dahl 2005; Colding *et al.* 2005a). According to Colding (2005), second generation immigrant pupils from Iran do not perform as well as Iranian pupils who arrived in Denmark at age 0-5. When Colding *et al.* (2004) have compared school results in vocational education between immigrant and Danish pupils, controlling for “negative social heritage”, the drop out rate was significantly reduced albeit to a small extent. Jensen and Jørgensen (2005) argue that language problems represent an important explanation, as well as inadequate knowledge, and that parents with little or no Danish language are not able to support their children.

According to Danish and other Scandinavian research studies, better school results among immigrant girls than immigrant boys may partly be due to a stronger disciplinary control on girls than on boys within the family, which may play a positive role for girls’ school homework. Girls may also perceive, to a higher degree than boys, the importance of education for their emancipation. Notwithstanding the girls’ relatively good school results, barriers to the labour market after completing school tend to be stronger for young women than for young men in these immigrant groups (Dahl and Jakobsen 2005; Jakobsen 2005).

Refugees and immigrants who are waiting for a decision on asylum, or have been denied asylum, meet particularly severe problems, which are currently debated. These families are only allowed to stay at asylum centres and cannot send their children to school. The children only receive lecturing

⁹ In the statistics, this country group is defined as countries in Africa, Latin America, Asia except Japan, Oceania except Australia and New Zealand, Turkey, Cyprus, and parts of the former Soviet Union. Thus, the group is more narrowly defined than “non-Western countries” mentioned above.

at the asylum centre. Many families with children have been living at these asylum centres for several years.

According to recent changes in the Law of the Public Elementary School, schools shall be screened by the Council for Evaluation and Quality Improvement with respect to their ability to integrate pupils with other ethnic background than Danish.

Linguistic minorities and language in school

All pupils learn Danish at school, and it is the main teaching language. Bilingual pupils – in the legal sense, meaning pupils with another native language learning Danish¹⁰ – may have lessons taught in their native language. This is seen as an arrangement that shall allow the pupil to gain subject knowledge that he or she shall be able, at the end, to express in Danish. Home-language instruction is not offered in elementary school but may take place after the school day (Undervisningsministeriet 2007). Home-language instruction is offered by the local authorities but voluntary for the pupils. See Projects DK150: [Integration af tosprogede boern i Ringkoebing](#), DK151: [Undervisning af tosprogede elever i folkeskolen](#), DK153: [Dette virker på vores skole](#).

For newly immigrated children between six and 16 years of age who do not speak any Danish at all, there are so-called reception classes (*modtagelsesklasser*) or, alternatively, basic teaching in smaller groups. The pupils spend maximum two years with any of these arrangements before they are referred to the regular school system – for instance, ordinary classes at *folkeskolen*. There are different categories of reception classes depending on the child's age and whether the child has gone to school in the home country. One category of reception classes is for children between 9 and 16 who have not gone to school before and, in many cases, have not learnt to read in their native language (Undervisningsministeriet 2007b).

Besides the indigenous German-speaking group (see below), no other indigenous minorities are officially recognised in Denmark. In 2001 the Danish government argued, in its answer to criticism from the Council of Europe, that other ethnic groups do not fulfil the criteria for indigenous minorities. People of Faeroese and Greenlandic descent do not have minority status in the Kingdom of Denmark because of the home-rule of the Faeroe Islands and Greenland. Other groups such as the Roma are regarded as immigrant groups rather than indigenous minorities (Delegationen til Europaradets parlamentariske forsamling 2001).

The German indigenous minority

This minority, which lives in the region of Schleswig/Slesvig-Soenderjylland close to the German border, uses a Danish dialect in everyday life and German language in school and official life. The group comprises 4-6 percent of the population of the region of Soenderjylland/Nordschleswig, or between 10,000 and 15,000 persons in all. About 1,400 children go to the German-speaking independent schools, which receive financial support from the Danish state through the *Deutscher Schul- und Sprachverein fur Nordschleswig*. The schools are exempted from the rule that Danish is the main language at school. This long-established arrangement, unlike many other aspects of language and ethnicity in Denmark, is not a matter of political controversy today (Pedersen 1998). We haven't found evidence that this group faces educational disadvantage.

¹⁰ Folkeskoleloven (Law of the Public Elementary School), Ch. 2, par. 4a.

Religious minorities and religion in school

Religion is a compulsory subject in elementary school, usually with the label Christianity. The official learning goals are primarily focused on knowledge and understanding of the Lutheran Christianity of the Danish state church (*Folkekirken*), while also including an understanding of other religions and philosophies of life. Parents may apply for exemption from having their children studying religion at school, provided that the parents accept responsibility for teaching their children, as well as guidance in this matter (*Lov om folkeskolen* Ch. 2, § 6).

As we have perceived it, when religion is mentioned in Danish educational debate, it is usually dealt with as an aspect of ethnicity. Thus the word “religion” often appears together with concepts such as (for instance) ethnicity, nationality, culture, language, and “skin colour”. It is relatively seldom discussed separately, except in debates directly concerned with school curricula and the studying of religion at school. Occasionally, official statements are made with more complex connotations. For instance, the Minister of Education writes in a newspaper article that the State subsidies there are for Muslim free schools, as well as the tax reliefs for Muslim congregations, are “bad for integration but good for freedom”¹¹. Such statements might be interpreted as a concern with the multi-religious character of the Danish society, which is maybe seen as creating political dilemmas.

Pupils with special needs

Special pedagogical support to pupils with special needs related, eg, to disability and impairment, is generally the responsibility of local authorities in accordance with the national laws regulating the public schools. To some extent, in matters related to health service and care, the responsibility is shared with regional authorities. The local authority is also responsible for a pedagogical-psychological service (*Paedagogisk-psykologisk radgivning, PPR*), which decides whether the child is entitled to special pedagogical support. The PPR shall also offer advice to pupils and parents in educational matters, for instance, with information on and discussion of school alternatives focusing on the needs of the individual child. Any educational option offered to the child must be approved of by the parents. Schooling for children with disabilities or impairments can be in ordinary classes with special pedagogical support, special classes, or special schools. In the latter case, the rule is that the child’s needs shall be appraised each year, with an ambition to re-locate the child to an ordinary school if possible. Each school, public or private, is also responsible for assisting the pupil with equipment, including equipment for homework, and a personal assistant or assisting teacher if needed. It is possible for parents to appeal against (negative) decisions on service entitlement (Socialministeriet 2007).

It will be possible for some pupils with special needs to be exempted from parts of the new national tests in elementary schools (Undervisningsministeriet 2007a). Pupils with special needs are entitled to apply for all forms of upper secondary education. See Projects DK154: [Udviklingsprojekt til intensivering af optraeningsindsatsen for boern med hjerneskade](#), DK155: [Modelforsog vedroerende overgangen mellem boernehave og skole for smaboern med hjerneskade](#), DK156: [Integrering af traening i hjemmet](#), DK157: [Det inkluderende dagtilbud](#).

Gender mainstreaming

Our overall impression is that gender issues are relatively seldom addressed in educational projects. A possible interpretation of this is that gender issues are often associated with gender equality,

¹¹ “Med 80 procent statsstoette til muslimske friskoler og fuldt skatte-fradrag for bidrag til muslimske menigheder! Lad os glæde os over det. Det er skidt for integrationen, men godt for friheden.” Haarder Bertel, “Demokrati med bade tolerance og fasthed”, *Berlingske Tidende*, 5 June 2007.

particularly from a formal point of view. Mainstreaming is one of the commonest concepts associated with gender issues. Male and female pupils have the same possibilities of going to school and girls achieve better than boys. However, gender traditions are strong in choices of vocational education. On a more general level all national, regional and local authorities with more than 50 employees are obliged to publish biannual web reports on their concrete measures aiming at gender equality internally, in their management and personnel policies, as well as externally, in activities directed to the public. Changes in labour market and in school results have inspired some local projects dealing with gender issues and gender equality among school pupils (Minister for Ligestilling 2007). See Projects DK161: [Glyngoere Skole](#) and DK162: [Koen, karriærer og identitet](#).

Socio-economic minorities

The concepts of socio-economic minorities and socio-economic disadvantage are not commonly used in official contexts in Denmark. Instead, socio-economic disadvantage in education is often perceived and labelled as “negative social heritage” (see above) in the official discourse with reference to pupils’ conditions at home and to their background¹². Socio-economic dimensions of educational disadvantage are considered in follow-up investigations to the PISA statistics on literacy (Danmarks Evalueringsinstitut 2006; Lentz and Rotboell 2006). As with integration of ethnic minorities, the Law of the Public Elementary School also provides that schools shall be screened by the Council for Evaluation and Quality Improvement with respect to their ability to fight negative social heritage.

A Government report on the Strategy for Social Protection and Social Inclusion mentions some measures involving youth education. One example, which also has an ethnic dimension since it is particularly designed for youths with non-Danish background, is a local experiment with all-day schools. This means that extended teaching hours, sometimes also leisure activities, are offered to pupils in order to strengthen their learning; it is also intended as an integration measure (Ministry of Social Affairs and Ministry of Interior Affairs and Health 2006). See Project DK152: [Den rullende heldagsskole Albertslund](#). See also Projects DK144: [Egedals folkeskoler skal styrkes](#), DK145: [Hvordan virker indsatsen](#), DK146: [Nye veje i Kerteminde](#), DK147: [Helhed i boern og unges liv](#), DK148: [Inkluderende laeremiljoeer](#), DK149: [KABU](#).

5. Explanation of project summaries included in database

In our identification of projects addressing inequality and disadvantage in Denmark, our most important priority has been to make as wide and many-sided a selection as possible, which can be said to mirror different policy trends and action strategies at different levels.

In our project descriptions we are defining minorities primarily in terms of how they are conceptualised in the project design. Hence, language-centred projects are defined as targeted at linguistic minorities. Similarly, religion-centred projects would be defined as targeted at religious minorities, but we have found no project of this kind. Socio-economic projects, integration projects and the like shall be defined as socio-economic and/or ethnic in character, depending on how strongly they focus on issues related to ethnicity.

We found no project related to the indigenous German minority, which is not usually described as disadvantaged. Disability-related projects are relatively easy to recognise and define. As we perceived it, gender is of great importance in Denmark and seen as a question of “mainstreaming” (a term commonly used) rather than a “deep” problem.

¹² The concept is under debate among researchers. For instance, Morten Ejrnaes, Aalborg University, means that the use of this concept hides structural explanations.

It should also be emphasised that many integration projects in Denmark have a universal and normalising character, which may be in order to avoid group stigmatisation. We have nonetheless related such projects to the minority themes since they, so to speak, represent Danish ways of working. Since evaluation is a very important theme in the present Danish educational debate, evaluation projects have also been included (see [Case Study 4](#)).

6. A summary of educational disadvantage in Denmark today

In terms of inequalities in the Danish education system, school results and social inclusion, some signifiers can be summarised as follows. Some more details are given above.

Literacy, in a basic sense, is close to 100 percent among those leaving elementary school, as well as adult persons who have spent their school-age years in Denmark. However, about one sixth of the pupils leaving elementary school are poor readers in the sense of having difficulties in understanding texts. This problem correlates with socio-economic disadvantage, for instance, in terms of the mother's level of education (Lentz and Rotboell 2006). It also correlates with ethnic minority status. For instance, 47-55 percent (possibly more) of ethnic minority pupils in Copenhagen have reading difficulties (Dahl 2005; Colding *et al.* 2005a). The overall gender gap, on the other hand, is relatively small in Denmark, ie, the reading disadvantage of boys is smaller than the OECD average.

We have found no exact data on **exclusion or expulsion rates** in the compulsory part of the school system (primary and lower secondary). However, children living in asylum centres are not allowed to go to school but receive lecturing in the centre.

School attainment levels, as indicated by written and oral exam tests in Danish language and mathematics in school-year nine, are lower for pupils with immigrant background. This disadvantage varies according to the parents' home country (Colding *et al.* 2005a).

In the period 1998-2001, only 38 percent of the pupils who had immigrated to Denmark at the age of 6-12 completed any kind of **upper secondary education**. The corresponding figures were 51 percent of those who immigrated at age 0-5, 55 percent of those born in Denmark with immigrated parents, and 70 percent of native Danish pupils. Dropout rates are high on the upper secondary level, particularly in vocational education, amounting to 32 percent of native Danish pupils and 60 percent of immigrant pupils. The share is even higher for immigrant boys (Colding *et al.* 2005a).

According to a projection of present trends into the future of children born in 2003, about 95 percent of all pupils will start some form of upper secondary education. However, only about 80 percent (or 85 percent of those enrolled) will fulfil the upper secondary level (Undervisningsministeriet 2005a).

According to the same projection, about 51.5 percent of the young people will start a **higher (tertiary) education**, and about 44.5 percent will fulfil it (Undervisningsministeriet 2005a). Pupils with immigrant background can be expected to be clearly under-represented here, unless their disadvantages at primary and secondary level are significantly reduced.

In 2004, **employment rates** among immigrants from non-Western¹³ countries were 38 percent for women and 51 percent for men. The corresponding figures for native Danes were 71 percent for women and 77 percent for men (Danmarks Statistik; Jakobsen 2005).

¹³ Western countries are defined as EU 27, other Western European countries, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

Experiences of **bullying** are rather common, according to questionnaire studies among school pupils (*Sammen mod mobning* 2008). However, there seems to be little knowledge of how these experiences are distributed, in quantitative terms, between different groups of pupils.

There are indications that many pupils with ethnic minority background live in families with **weak social resources** in terms of household income, education level, employment, self-reported problems, and combinations of these factors. For instance, a sample study found such combinations of weak resources among 7 percent of native Danish families, but 43 percent of families immigrated from non-Western countries (Christensen and Agerlund Sloth 2005).

7. Discussion

In conclusion, we wish to point out some general reflections we have about the official discourse in Denmark concerning educational disadvantage among children and young people.

It is our impression that disadvantage is primarily discussed and explained with reference to pupils' socio-economic conditions at home and to their ethnic background. Reference is also made to children and young people in homes with "weak" educational traditions. The Danish State primarily seems to focus on compensation through information from study counsellors and mentors. With this guidance, children and youths are expected to make rational choices. This is intended to counteract disadvantage based on inadequate knowledge of study paths and of the demands of working life among pupils whose parents do not have such knowledge. Thus the discourse on disadvantage seems to be focused on families' lack of competence concerning how schools and educations are organised and how they are related to working life and to professions.

Another tendency we have noted is the focus on the importance of vocational education and also that children shall begin their reflections on future choices of educational and professional specialisations as early as in the sixth class, ie, at the age of twelve. As discussed above, a research-based criticism of this policy could be that an early choice rather means that disadvantage may be reproduced and strengthened among children and youths from homes with weak educational traditions.

We also note a tendency to search for evidence-based methods in education, which frequently means methods supported by extensive quantitative evidence. From a research perspective, this may give a bias in favour of uniform solutions for heterogeneous groups of pupils.

There can also be observed some fields of tension between more or less contradictory tendencies in official policies. One such tension is between special (particular) and general (universal, normalising) pedagogies for children with special needs due, eg, to disability. Another tension perhaps more specific for Denmark is between the heavy stress on the bringing forward of Danish culture, "normality", and integration through ethnic assimilation, versus the multiculturalism that occasionally is mentioned as a positive value.

One of the factors recognised in international and Danish school research is that disadvantage in school relates to weak socio-economic background. We find it inevitable that analyses of this problem must also make use of the concept of poverty. According to research based on the Luxembourg Income Study, international experience shows that childhood experience of poverty (in this context, most often referring to relative income poverty) correlates with numerous problems later in life, including unsatisfactory school results and other problems at school (Vleeminckx and Smeeding 2003).

These poverty-related problems, however, are rarely addressed directly in educational policies and strategies. There may be a need for more integrated policies that combine educational strategies with measures addressing poverty and social exclusion.

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Appendix 1: The most important laws regulating the school system

Law of the Public Elementary School (*Lov om folkeskolen*)

Law of Independent and Private Elementary Schools (*Lov om friskoler og private grundskoler*)

Law of Vocational and Educational Guidance (*Lov om vejledning om valg af uddannelse og erhverv*)

Law of Youth Schools (*Lov om ungdomsskoler*)

Law of the 3-year Theoretical Upper Secondary School (*Lov om uddannelsen til studentereksamen*)

Law of the 2-year Theoretical Upper Secondary School (*Lov om uddannelsen til hoejere forberedelseksamen*)

Law of the Upper Secondary Trade Schools and Technical Schools (*Lov om uddannelserne til hoejere handelseksamen og hoejere teknisk eksamen*)

Law of Vocational Education and Training (*Lov om erhvervsuddannelser*)

Law of Basic Vocational Education and Training (*Lov om erhvervsgrunduddannelse*)

Law of Production Schools (*Lov om produktionsskoler*)

Law of Folk High Schools, Post-Elementary Schools, Schools of Household Management, and Crafts Schools (residential schools) (*Lov om folkehoejskoler, efterskoler, husholdningsskoler og handarbejdsskoler (frie kostskoler)*)

Law of Private Upper Secondary Education (*Lov om private gymnasieskoler, studenterkurser og kurser til hoejere forberedelseksamen*)

Laws of Primary and Secondary Exams and Diplomas (*Bekendtgoerelse om proever og eksamen; Eksamensbekendtgoerelse*)

There are also other alternatives in upper secondary education, such as social and health schools and farming schools, which are regulated by separate laws. They are not mentioned here because of the relatively small number of pupils in these schools (Undervisningsministeriet 2004). There are also a number of laws regulating primary and secondary education for adults, education of teachers and educators, and school institutions.

Appendix 2: Project Summaries

Theme	Project	subsidiary themes	
Minority ethnic groups	140 Mangfoldighed i Koebenhavns dagtilbud	L	
	141 Post Traumatisk Stress	S	
	142 Enghoejskole som magnetskole	L	
	Reaching 95 percent successful completion in youth education [Case Study ①]	G L S	
Socio-economic	143 Mentorsprojekt Hoejskoleforloeb		
	144 Egedals folkeskoler skal styrkes	E	
	145 Hvordan virker indsatsen mod negativ socialt arv		
	146 Nye veje i Kerteminde kommunes indsatser overfor boern i misbrugsfamilier		
	147 Helhed i boern og unges liv	E L D G	
	148 Inkluderende laeremiljoer	E L D G	
	149 KABU	E	
	The Danish Evaluation Institute: Evaluating the quality of education for the disadvantaged [Case Study ④]	E R L D G	
Religious Minorities Linguistic Minorities	150 Integration af tosprogede boern i Ringkoebing	E	
	151 Undervisning af tosprogede elever i folkeskolen	E	
	152 Den rullende heldagsskole Albertslund	E S G	
	153 Dette virker på vores skole	E S	
	Collaboratively improving the value of the public elementary school [Case Study ③]	E S D	
	Disabilities	154 Intensivering af optraeningsindsatsen for boern med hjerneskade	
		155 Modelforsoeg vedroerende overgangen mellem boernehave og skole for smaboern med hjerneskade	
156 Integrering af traening i hjemmet			
157 Det inkluderende dagtilbud			
Holistic strategies in education: integrating special needs [Case Study ②]			
Indigenous Minorities Gender	161 Glyngoere Skole		
	162 Koen, karriaerer og identitet		

Key: E ethnic minorities; C social class; R religious minorities; L linguistic minorities; D disability; I indigenous minorities; G gender

Appendix 2: Project overview

Project	target age range					target theme(s)						
	pre-school	primary	secondary	higher	working life	minority ethnic	social class	religious minority	linguistic minorities	disability	indigenous minorities	gender
140 Mangfoldighed i Koebenhavns dagtilbud	✓					✓✓			✓			
141 Post Traumatisk Stress		✓			✓	✓✓	✓					
142 Enghoejskole som magnetskole		✓	✓			✓✓						
143 Mentorsprojekt Hoejskoleforloeb			✓				✓✓					
144 Egedals folkeskoler skal styrkes		✓	✓			✓	✓✓					
145 Hvordan virker indsatsen	✓	✓					✓✓					
146 Nye veje i Kerteminde		✓	✓				✓✓					
147 Helhed i boern og unges liv	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓✓		✓			✓
148 Inkluderende laeremiljoer		✓				✓	✓✓		✓			✓
149 KABU	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓✓					
150 Integration af tosprogede Ringk.	✓					✓			✓✓			
151 Undervisning af tosprogede		✓	✓			✓			✓✓			
152 Den rullende heldagsskole			✓			✓	✓		✓✓			✓
153 Dette virker pa vores skole		✓	✓			✓	✓		✓✓			
154 Intensivering af optraening	✓	✓	✓							✓✓		
155 Modelforsoeg overg. boerneh.	✓	✓								✓✓		
156 Integrering af traening i hjemmet		✓								✓✓		
157 Det inkluderende dagtilbud	✓									✓✓		
161 Glyngoere Skole		✓	✓									✓✓
162 Koen, karriaerer og identitet			✓									✓✓