



Sebastian Barsch

Inclusive History Education



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KLEINE REIHE
G E S C H I C H T E
DIDAKTIK UND METHODIK

Sebastian Barsch

Inclusive History Education



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1. Introduction

For many years, inclusion was mainly a special and mainstream education issue. As important as this is, it reveals a crucial gap, as teaching in schools is still largely organised around traditional subject divisions. This requires that history education also addresses inclusion, whether defined in a 'narrow' sense (focusing on students with special educational needs=SEN) or in a 'broad' sense (considering diversity in schools more generally, including differences in socio-economic background, language, religious beliefs, sexual identities, etc.). However, there is much to suggest that a 'broad' approach to inclusion can be beneficial, as a diagnosed disability or identified SEN is generally not a singular phenomenon: learning difficulties, for example, are more common among students from socio-economically disadvantaged families and among children and young people with a migrant background than among those without (Barsch 2018a, 64). Furthermore, even within apparently homogeneous groups, there are significantly more differences between individual students than is often assumed (Fereidooni 2012, 367). Migration also contributes to further diversity, which can manifest itself linguistically and culturally.

What is inclusion?

This booklet is based on the assumption that a 'broad' understanding of inclusion ultimately benefits all learners. Practical responses to diversity in schools can be seen in the way that inclusive learning opportunities typically open up multiple learning pathways, both in terms of instructional design and materials, allowing students to progress individually. The ideas presented here are therefore not explicitly aimed at students with special educational needs. Nevertheless, there are frequent references to special educational needs approaches and their transferability to heterogeneous learning groups. In addition, insights into the state of inclusion are often best

Understandings of
inclusion

gained by examining evidence on 'special educational' inclusion. In summary, the concept of inclusion underlying this book can be outlined as follows

- There are no homogeneous learning groups. Classes are always characterised by diversity.
- Making diversity visible reveals categories of difference that challenge learning: disabilities, socio-economic differences, language challenges, talents.
- Inclusive history education aims to create opportunities for historical learning that promote mutual understanding and shared experiences among diverse groups.
- Teaching needs to be open enough to allow for different learning pathways, while providing guidance so that learners can follow the pathways that are accessible to them.
- Teachers need to reflect on their own view of diversity in schools and, ultimately, on their understanding of history: Which stories should be covered in the classroom, for whom, and how?

Research on inclusive history education

The state of research on inclusion from the perspective of special education and general education can be considered to be increasingly satisfactory. Overall, the majority of studies conclude that attending inclusive or mainstream schools can be beneficial for students with special educational needs, particularly in the areas of literacy and overall academic performance (Lindsay 2007; Kocaj et al. 2014; Klemm 2015, 20). For example, inclusive schooling has been found to have a positive impact on the development of literacy skills (Klemm 2015, 22). In addition to academic gains in inclusive classrooms, positive effects on the social behaviour of children and adolescents in inclusive education have also been observed (Rea/McLaughlin/Walther-Thomas 2002).

The evidence is clear on the question of whether inclusive teaching and learning has a negative impact on the performance of non-disabled pupils. The evidence is conclusive: the performance of non-disabled children in inclusive classrooms is no different from that of children in non-inclusive schools. In fact, some studies even show an improvement in the per-

formance of non-disabled pupils in inclusive classes (Feyerer 1998).

However, it is not enough to see school as a place of 'achievement'. Rather, it is a comprehensive educational environment where personal development also takes place. What is the evidence on social integration through inclusion? How does inclusion affect the identity of students with special educational needs? More research is needed here. However, the results are currently less favourable than those on achievement. They suggest that students with SEN are more often exposed to experiences of marginalisation (Krull/Wilbert/Hennemann 2014, 60).

The evidence for the effectiveness of specific methodological arrangements for teaching in inclusive classrooms points to a broad agreement that aspects such as didactic diagnostic assessment should be integral to effective lesson planning in general, rather than being limited to students with SEN. Diagnostic assessment and student-centred approaches are also explicitly required of history teachers (Adamski 2014; Ammerer/Hellmuth/Kühberger 2015). A well-functioning classroom management is also an effective element of successful inclusive teaching, as are individualised feedback practices and grading based on individual reference norms (Wilhelm 2012) rather than cohort-based learning objectives. Forms of cooperative learning in which students of different abilities work together to solve problems in class are highly effective. This approach is more successful in schools with a positive attitude to inclusion (Lindsay 2007).

Inclusion and history education

Specifically for history education, few studies have investigated the effectiveness of certain teaching methods for inclusive groups (Barsch/Barte 2020). These studies have shown that general pedagogical strategies such as scaffolding and project-based learning can have positive effects. Redundancy and periods of direct instruction can also be beneficial, particularly for students with learning difficulties. In addition to student-activating classroom environments, the explicit

introduction of basic historical theories – such as addressing the constructed nature of history and reflecting on the limitations of knowledge in sources and representations – appears to be highly effective in promoting historical thinking in children and adolescents with learning difficulties (De La Paz/MacArthur 2003).

However, there is not yet enough research to provide a clear picture of the effectiveness of inclusive history teaching methods. Nevertheless, teachers are already facing the challenge of planning and implementing inclusive history lessons. This booklet aims to provide support in this area. The methods and approaches presented here integrate history didactical and pedagogical strategies that are already applied in inclusive contexts. The limited practice-oriented materials available for inclusive history teaching (e.g., Alavi/Franz 2017), along with more recent approaches from special education and educational science, offer valuable insights for planning inclusive history lessons.

In addition to specific methodological issues, inclusion also raises fundamental theoretical questions that influence the concept of historical thinking, as taking student' diversity seriously also means exploring new approaches in history education (for a detailed discussion see Barsch/Degner/Kühberger/Lücke 2020). Teachers need to reflect on whether historical narratives can be conveyed without complex language and how this can be effectively achieved (Musenberg 2016). Concepts of history can have subjective validity and need not necessarily follow disciplinary conventions to provide guidance (which is not to say that history teaching should not aim to meet disciplinary standards). For example, how can learners who do not have access to verbal or alternative forms of language (such as sign language, communication devices, etc.) be included? How can their 'embodied knowledge' be recognised in the classroom (Völkel 2017)?

Inclusion and diversity undoubtedly challenge the categories and paradigms of history teaching, such as historical consciousness, narrative-based history, and source-based history teaching (Lücke 2015). Approaches that were dis-

cussed decades ago, such as historical imagination, aesthetics and emotionality, are now regaining relevance (Brauer/Lücke 2013). Inclusion, however, addresses not only the methodological but also the content-related level of history teaching. If it is assumed that history should always have a connection to students' lived experience, then established master narratives can no longer be the primary focus. Similarly, if migration is seen as a constant in history, a national or Eurocentric perspective cannot be taken for granted. Instead, an inclusive approach to teaching history should also include identity-forming family histories and the historical narratives negotiated within ethnically and socially diverse communities. These narratives may vary considerably depending on the group of students and their interests.

In summary, the following questions emerge in the context of inclusion from a perspective of history education (taken and adapted from Barsch/Degner/Kühberger/Lücke 2020, 20–21):

- What is the impact of diversity and inclusion on individual students in the history classroom?
- What specific opportunities for shared historical learning emerge from the interplay between students with and without diverse backgrounds?
- Can the ability to narrate history still be considered a core competence of history education from an inclusive perspective? If so, what might such narratives look like? What about people who are not able to develop historical narratives in a typical way?
- What kinds of support might be useful for historical learning? How could the concept of narrative be extended beyond language and text?
- How can the body and physical embodiment be utilised as a means of expressing historical narratives when language is not available for articulation?
- What does diversity and inclusion mean in terms of content? What new stories should be told and why? How can existing stories be examined in relation to past processes

of inclusion and exclusion? How should previously exclusionary narratives be re-told?

- Does the chronological principle of history help or hinder the teaching of history?
- What does it mean to teach history in a way that is sensitive to discrimination and language?
- What does inclusion mean for media and methodological skills? How should historical sources, which by definition are not accessible, be adapted to historical learning processes so that they can serve as media in inclusive history teaching?
- What can an inclusive culture of remembrance look like? To what extent does it require a critique of power structures and the visibility of forgotten histories? How can a culture of remembrance promote empowerment through memory and history, so that participation in history is possible for everyone, including the marginalised?
- and much more.

This booklet deals with the planning of inclusive history teaching at different levels. The *second* chapter begins with basic considerations on how to structure inclusive history learning around a common object.

The *third* chapter explores the possibilities of didactic diagnostics such as learning assessments, in the context of inclusive historical learning. Since inclusive history teaching emphasises a more learner-centred approach to historical learning, this chapter presents ways of integrating diagnostic phases into lesson planning and the learning process, and of documenting these processes.

The *fourth* chapter presents examples of building blocks for inclusive lesson planning. These include both methodological aspects and approaches to the design of teaching materials. In particular, it covers the benefits of project-based and cooperative teaching, as well as elements such as Universal Design for Learning and language-sensitive history teaching.

Chapter *five* proposes a series of planning steps for inclusive history teaching, intended as an extended form of checklist.

Chapter *six* then presents examples of teaching materials on 'exclusion'.

This book does not offer ready-made lesson plans. Such an approach would not be feasible from an inclusive perspective, as effective lesson planning must always respond to the needs, abilities, skills and questions of individual students. This book is aimed at trainee teachers, trainers and experienced teachers who either teach in an inclusive way or are looking for ideas on how to teach history in schools. The models, concepts and methods presented have been chosen so that they can be used in everyday school life without significantly increasing the workload of colleagues. Each component can be used independently in lesson planning.

2. Theoretical perspectives

There is a broad consensus in general, subject specific and special education that inclusive teaching must allow for individual learning pathways without each learner working on separate topics or subject-specific content. This can be achieved if teaching allows for differentiated objectives while at the same time enabling learners to engage with topics and content collaboratively. Learning is seen as a shared, object-centred process in which each individual pursues his or her own goals as far as possible. For some students, for example, a lesson on 'Kingship in the Middle Ages' might aim to deconstruct common ideas about the Middle Ages (kings as absolute rulers) or perhaps introduce the concept of 'epochs'. For others, it might involve a source-based investigation, using academic literature to explore the tense relationship between spiritual and secular power, vassalage and the transformation of power in different periods of the Middle Ages. From a disciplinary perspective, then, inclusive teaching is not a (radically) open lesson, but one that focuses on a central disciplinary core.

In the following section, three approaches are presented that are also suitable for learning history and that facilitate collaborative, differentiated subject learning. All approaches assume that learning takes place through collaboration and exchange on subject-specific content and issues.

Learning on the common object

Inclusive education postulated early on that, despite differentiated learning goals, a common core should be at the heart of teaching, so that students' shared learning is not limited to sharing the same space while working on completely separate content. In special education, the principle of 'learning around a common subject' (Feuser 1989) has therefore been developed, in which students engage with the same subject or content using their own methods, perspectives and levels

Learning on the
common object

of abstraction (Alavi/Barsch 2018, 196). Here, differentiation does not lead to segmentation of the learning group. The aim of this approach is to “present educational content in such a way that all students can engage with it according to their respective developmental approaches and means”, thus enabling a “shared engagement with the same content despite different learning prerequisites” (Alavi/Terfloth 2013, 195, all translations by author). In this context, ‘developmental logic’ is understood as a subjective process that should be taken into account in instructional planning. This includes not only the learner’s current level of development, but also the idea of a ‘zone of proximal development’, borrowed from Vygotsky, which is the level that the learner can reach by working with others: “For teaching and learning processes, the ‘cooperative activity around the common object’ of teacher and learner [...] thus becomes the didactic centre of pedagogical practice” (Feuser 1999, 46).

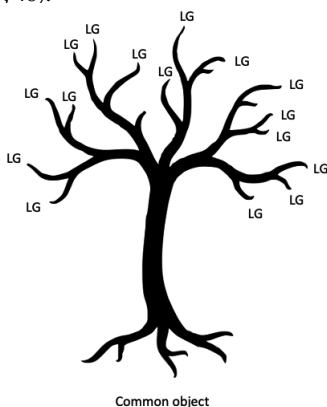


Fig. 1: Learning on the common object, (own illustration, based on Feuser 1989), LG = individualised learning goals.

Feuser uses the image of a tree to explain his model. The root represents the common theme for all students (“power in the Middle Ages”), while the tips of the branches symbolise the individual learning goals that each student is gradually approaching.

Dialogic learning

The Feuser model is very similar to the approach of dialogic learning (Badr Goetz 2007). Here teaching and learning are understood as a dialogue between all participants around the learning object, leading to new insights for all involved. In this approach, the 'common object' is conceptualised more broadly as a 'core idea'. Dialogical learning is based on four premises (source: <https://www.lerndialoge.ch/prämissen.html>):

1. Effective teaching starts with listening. It culminates in listening when the teacher understands the needs and experiences of his or her students. A teacher can be excellent in his subject, but if he does not understand how his students learn and what they need, he cannot help them. The same is true in reverse: students can be excellent, but the teacher does not recognise their achievements. If high achievement is not recognised and used, the quality of teaching will be low. Teachers therefore need to understand how their students learn and what they need in order to teach effectively.
2. Motivation arises when people have experiences that show them they can achieve and progress. This experience is further developed when people can repeat and build on these experiences. Experiences of self-efficacy, social inclusion and autonomy are important in developing motivation. When people have these experiences, they feel capable of achieving their goals and making their own choices.
3. Learning is about reorganisation and expansion. It is not about building something completely new, but about rethinking and extending existing structures. Teaching should recognise and respect the individual characteristics of students. It should neither ignore their prior knowledge and skills nor belittle their individual perspectives. What students think and do is often not wrong. It is simply a different perspective they have. We should acknowledge these differences and use them to learn and grow together.

4. There is no success without effort. Success is the result of effort and dedication. When we distinguish between product and process, we must also distinguish between two types of evaluation. In the product dimension, we often see only the defects. In the process dimension, on the other hand, we look for qualities and consciously recognise what we have achieved.

Fundamental to the design of dialogic learning lessons is the understanding that the process of gaining knowledge consists of three steps:

- 'I – You – We'*: 1. This is how I do it! 2. How do you do it?
3. How do we do it together?

An interesting aspect of this approach to inclusive history learning is the connection between individual learning and collective knowledge development within the group (Kühberger/Barsch 2020). By discussing their own historical questions with peers and teachers, learners experience history as something to be negotiated with others. Dialogical learning thus values the individual achievements of students within a group. Different levels of learning are considered but not assessed. Teachers are tasked with implementing a dialogical learning process by introducing a core idea (e.g. 'revolutions') and providing tasks that facilitate both individual and collective engagement with this idea. Learners document their achievements in learning journals, which form the basis for individual feedback from the teacher. According to this approach, the development of subject knowledge takes place through exchanges with peers (fellow learners) and experts (teachers) by negotiating different approaches to a topic.

Core concepts as a 'common object'

In several subject didactics – including history didactics – the concept of learning along core concepts (sometimes called basic concepts) has been developed for some time. These can also be understood as 'common objects' or 'core ideas', but they are conceptually more firmly rooted in the respective subjects. In other subject didactics, especially in the sciences, the idea

Core concepts

of learning along core concepts has been pursued for a longer time. In chemistry or biology, for example, it is said that:

“[...] in chemistry and biology didactics the overriding importance, if not dominance of academic disciplines as reference systems become obvious (e.g. substances and particles, structure–property relationships, chemical reactions and energy in chemistry didactics – system, structural–functional relationship, development as well as other key concepts considered as system properties of bio-systems in biology didactics). In particular, these basic concepts describe and structure the state of subject-specific knowledge in a general way.” (Vollmer/Rothgangel 2024,175).

A similar observation can be made for history. Core concepts should ensure the construction of systematic knowledge while allowing for different individual ways of learning. There is no right or wrong way to build knowledge. Different ways can be successful. Core concepts thus have a clear disciplinary core that is to be achieved through learning.

Christoph Kühberger has made core concepts fruitful for the teaching of history. He assumes that “conceptual knowledge’ provides concepts, theories and models that can be applied in variable situations” (2012, 39). Kühberger states that “it is not enough to acquire historical knowledge, but it must be used and linked by independently developing and justifying positions and weighing up arguments against the background of the respective present or the expected future, in order to advance the subject-specific learning process as understanding in connection with prior knowledge” (ibid., 59). Core concepts thus serve to make knowledge of the past applicable to one’s own life by clarifying for learners the principles of a historical phenomenon and its exemplary nature. Core concepts in history education might include theoretical constructs such as ‘chronology’, ‘perspective’ and ‘blueprint’ (=the constructedness of history). In a lesson on the concept of ‘blueprint’, for example, learners would explore how history itself is constructed. The individual learning objectives might be different. For some learners, the objectives would

be achieved by understanding that knowledge of the past is fragmentary as it is preserved in sources. Some might work on understanding the principles of multiperspectivity, others on the politics of history and its influence on historiography. All would engage with the 'blueprint' of history at a level they can manage. Other core concepts might include social concepts such as 'power' or 'labour' (ibid, 58).

The idea of core concepts is currently still quite new (in German-language history didactics) and the academic discourse is not yet complete. For teaching purposes, therefore, teacher-defined concepts (such as revolution or the Middle Ages) can form the core of the lesson. However, an essential feature is that the focus is not on a specific content (such as the French Revolution) but on the underlying principle (such as revolution). The assumption is that this approach facilitates student-centred historical learning and the formation of subjective historical meaning, as learners construct and connect knowledge through inquiry (and thus come to a better understanding of the French Revolution, perhaps in comparison with the American Revolution).

3. Didactic diagnostic assessment

Didactic diagnostics When planning inclusive history teaching, assessing students' initial learning levels is crucial in addressing their individual needs and learning requirements. One critical issue is that the level of diagnostic assessment that can be realistically achieved in the classroom is often unclear, and didactical diagnostic methods often lack the necessary methodological rigor. "Teachers need a nuanced understanding of learning and interaction processes to take effective action and provide reliable information to specialists." (Fromm 2019, 41)

In general, attention to subject-specific diagnostics for planning history education has increased significantly in recent years (Kühberger 2014, 11). With the shift to competency-based education in many countries, didactical diagnostic assessment has become even more relevant, as "competencies cannot simply be taught; learners must acquire them – this requires decelerated learning, space for negotiating meanings, opportunities for appropriate presentation of results – in other words, time" (Adamski 2014, 7). In planning inclusive lessons, particular emphasis is placed on the diagnosis of skills and knowledge, which can serve as a "starting point for thinking about new ways of learning for pupils during the non-testing periods" (ibid.). This approach provides teachers with "insights into how their students think about particular topics and how this thinking develops", which provides valuable information for designing specific learning arrangements (ibid).

Formalised diagnostics

The aim of didactic diagnostic evaluation is to provide an accurate and detailed understanding of individual students or groups. In practice, however, there is a coexistence of formalised and everyday diagnostic methods and procedures that can be understood as different levels of objectivity. So-called explicit methods aim to achieve objectivity through a high-

er degree of standardisation. These procedures include, for example, observation sheets, diagnostic sheets, competence grids, self-assessment sheets, knowledge tests, school achievement tests (Adamski 2014, 12; Hesse/Latzko 2017, 99).

Everyday or implicit diagnostics are part of every teacher's daily routine. These are rather informal procedures, such as assessing the learning success of students and groups by taking notes, open observations, evaluating the socio-economic background of learners, which lead to situational decisions regarding the division of learning groups, the formulation of work instructions, etc. (Hesse/Latzko 2017, 97).

The danger of implicit diagnostics is that we take our own judgements to be objective and stable. Diagnosis therefore always means being aware of one's own stereotypes and misinterpretations. Fromm goes on to emphasise that teachers should adopt as 'scientific' a mindset as possible when reflecting on their students and themselves. Particularly in inclusive settings, it is important for teachers to recognise the limitations of their own observations (e.g. inadequate language skills are not necessarily indicative of a student's capacity for historical reasoning). In this way, diagnostics can be (Fromm 2019, 42)

1. explorative: I really want to learn 'surprising things' about my learning group and not be guided by my unrecognised biases. ('I can still learn a lot of new things about my students.')
2. hypothesis testing: I look closely at my biases ('XY has never been able to do that.')

Psychological research has shown that there are a number of empirically proven observational biases that affect judgement (Adamski 2014, 25 f.). Fromm points to further research showing that even the seating arrangement in a classroom can influence how teachers perceive students (2019, 43). Students who are in the teacher's line of sight tend to be more engaged in classroom activities.

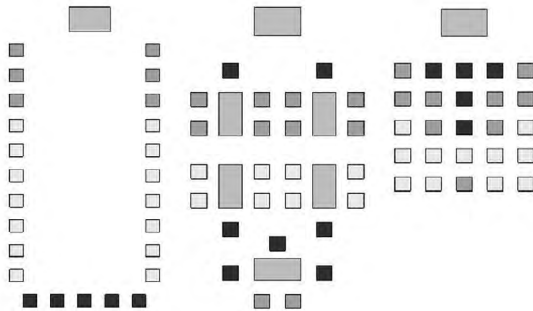


Fig. 2: Interaction patterns in the classroom (from: Fromm 2019, 44, the darker the colour, the higher the interaction potential).

Reflect your prejudices

When dealing with diverse groups, it is crucial to be aware of the potential for stereotyping. The attribution of characteristics to a particular group of students, such as providing special learning opportunities for students with a learning difficulty, can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, where those students internalize the characteristics attributed to them (Barsch 2013, 97). For instance, if a diagnostic assessment consistently leads to the provision of low-challenge texts or tasks that are primarily at the lowest level of cognitive demand for this group, students may internalize the belief that they are incapable of achieving at higher levels.

Despite certain risks of misjudgement in implicit, informal diagnostics, for the reasons outlined above, this approach can be essential in everyday school practice. Nevertheless, as Hesse and Latzko argue, “implicit diagnostics should always be complemented by explicit diagnostics in order to avoid misjudgements as far as possible”. (2017, 97). This is particularly true given that there are hardly any explicit diagnostic methods for the subject of history (Adamski 2014, 19). Several authors therefore emphasise the need to consider multiple quality criteria for subject-specific didactic diagnostics:

Objectivity	Reliability	Validity	Efficiency
The results of the diagnostic procedure should be independent of the expectations, assumptions and biases of the teacher carrying it out. Observational errors should be eliminated.	The diagnostic procedure gives similar results in other situations. Another person administering the test would give the same result for the same diagnosed group/student.	You really measure what you want to measure. A language test, for example, does not necessarily reflect a student's historical judgement or interpretive skills.	The process is appropriately aligned with the practical realities of teaching. For example, diagnostic tests that can only be carried out outside the classroom (such as those relating to the social environment) are difficult to implement in practice.

Tab. 1: Criteria for didactical diagnostics
(adapted from: Adamski/Bernhardt 2012, 403; Kühberger 2014, 10).

For inclusive history teaching, Bormuth, Körber and Seidl present a model that combines pedagogical diagnostic criteria with subject-specific didactic criteria:

Criteria for history
education

Subject-specific criteria	Pedagogical criteria
<p>a) Narrative expressiveness</p> <p>b) Time and orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time/orientation concepts • Date/time models • Connection to the lived experience • Irritation <p>a) Uncertainty/ tolerance of ambiguity</p> <p>b) Subject knowledge/knowledge of historical theories, events, and circumstances</p> <p>c) Methodological skills</p>	<p>d) Linguistic aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language skills • Written expression skills of the learners • Linguistic complexity of the text <p>e) Abstraction and reflection</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abstract thinking • Problem identification • (Self-)Reflection <p>f) Reasoning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questioning skills • Judgement <p>g) Social and self-regulatory skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooperation • Concentration • Consistent and continuous work <p>h) Physiological-sensory aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speaking ability • Auditory perception • Visual perception • Motor skills <p>i) Motivation</p> <p>j) Use of media</p>

Tab. 2: List of diagnostic criteria (from: Bormuth/Körber/Seidl 2020, 342).

These are extraordinarily high demands for diagnosis to be carried out in everyday classroom life. For this reason, Adamski also asks whether implicit diagnosis is not more in line with the real possibilities in schools. Indeed, it cannot be overlooked that there is hardly any material for explicit diagnosis in history education, especially for inclusive classes. Practical procedures will therefore not always meet the strict quality criteria. Nevertheless, they serve as a target and a point of reflection for the actual diagnostic activities. The guiding questions can also be used to check one's own attitudes:

- Am I objective or biased towards some learners? Am I guided by my own experience and expectations when planning the diagnostic task? What criteria justify my view?
- Would my diagnostic method work with another learner group?
- Can my task really capture the skill or knowledge of the learner that I want to capture?
- Can I carry out the diagnostic procedure in a way that does not take too much time?

The last point in particular is easy to resolve. If didactic diagnostics is not seen as an add-on to regular teaching, but as an essential component, there is no additional burden.

“Diagnosis must be an integral part of teaching, i.e. it must take place during teaching situations. This requires teaching/learning arrangements that make learning visible, e.g. open forms in which it is possible to observe how groups work, what difficulties they have, which learning strategies individual learners prefer, which technical terms are known, which tasks are successful, challenging or trivial – and for whom.” (Adamski 2014, 20).

This requires teaching that is centred on learners' questions and interpretations, and that allows sufficient space for reflection and independent learning. Diagnosis is not a top-down process. There needs to be transparency with learners about objectives and requirements to get them 'on board'.

Diagnostic methods

The choice of diagnostic tool will depend on the learner. It may be useful to use different tasks within a learning group in order to capture similar phenomena. For example, learners' preconceptions (ideas not directly influenced by the lesson) about the Middle Ages can be recorded by writing essays. Pupils who cannot write could draw a picture or record their ideas on a mobile phone.

Subject-specific diagnostics focus on historical thinking. In everyday school life, a general educational diagnostic view (e.g. of social and work behaviour) will always be necessary in order to be able to design learning scenarios appropriately. In this case, however, the focus should be on subject-specific content. In addition to Adamski (2014, 25–30), the following objectives could be addressed:

Area of historical thinking to be diagnosed can provide information about:
Preconceptions; 'naive' ideas (e.g. 'Everything used to be black and white. '; 'In the Middle Ages, nobody could read.')	the existence of 'academic' concepts/ideas
Asking questions about history	the individual motivations
Creating a reference to the present	the view of history (e.g. history of progress); understanding of alterity
Orientation in time	understanding chronology; concept of time; conceptual knowledge (epochs)
Recognising the constructed nature of history	knowledge of historical theory
Recognising historical perspectives	ability to abstract
Recognising perspectivity in sources and representations	expertise; knowledge of historical theory
Differentiation between different genres of sources and representations	expertise; methodological competence
Capacity for historical judgement/evaluation	attitudes; ability to abstract

Declarative knowledge	orientation knowledge; vocabulary; understanding of chronology
Methods: exploring sources and representations	methodological expertise
Language (technical language; linguistic comprehension; crea- ting narratives)	conceptualisation; basic under- standing of the lesson content

Tab. 3: Aims of subject-specific didactic diagnostics.

Diagnosis should be seen as a process. It will therefore be necessary to document the levels diagnosed and to include further diagnostic phases in lesson planning in order to identify changes in learners.

Self-assessment questionnaires and competency grids

Most recent school history textbooks and other teaching materials now include competency grids to record learners' skills and abilities at different levels. Such grids can be used for teacher assessment or for student self-assessment. The grids can have different perspectives:

1. Knowledge and skills for specific teaching units
2. Historical skills / historical thinking in general

Self-diagnostic questionnaires give learners the opportunity to reflect on their own competences. They also create transparency about what is required in teaching. In order to "push learners to be honest with themselves [...] diagnostic questionnaires can be made anonymous" (Stunz 2007, 15). In the context of inclusion, the language skills of the learners need to be taken into account when formulating the assessment questions and these may need to be supplemented with pictograms. It is also helpful if the diagnostic form already indicates where help can be found if opportunities for further development are identified. Adamski is critical of the fact that in many self-assessment forms "learning objectives and competences" are often blurred (2014, 69). He suggests that these areas should be clearly distinguished and that assessment forms should include tasks aimed at (narrative) competence. Competency grids present comprehensible lev-

Self-assessment
questionnaires and
competency grids

els (learning progression) in tabular form, using transparent criteria. Depending on the wording ('I know ...' or 'student knows ...'), they allow both self-assessment and external assessment (Heuer 2007, 29). They are strengths-based.

"Competence grids provide information about what the student can already do, what they are confident of, but also about what they could still learn or what still needs to be learnt" (ibid.).

I can ...	Very safe	Safe	Un-certain	Very un-certain	Support (material is provided by teacher)
I have a good idea of the ,Middle Ages'.					Writing down or colouring in an idea; recording; telling someone
I can explain the word ,Middle Ages' to someone.					Explanatory video; word card; factual text
There is something about the ,Middle Ages' that I want to find out more about.					Rummaging through a box of books
I can enter the period ,Middle Ages' in a timeline.					Matching cards; factual text
I understand why the period is called the ,Middle Ages'.					Explanatory video; factual text; ask someone

I can ...	Very safe	Safe	Un-certain	Very un-certain	Support (material is provided by teacher)
I can evaluate whether it is correct to speak of this period as the ‚Middle Ages‘.					Pro/con list; discussion
I know what a ‚source‘ is.					Factual text; matching game
I can describe what a medieval town might have looked like.					Image source; drawing; factual text
I can describe what a medieval castle might have looked like.					Image source; drawing; factual text
I can describe the professions that existed in most medieval towns.					Text source
I can evaluate whether the ‚Middle Ages‘ are comparable with the present.					Image sources of cities in the two eras; factual sources

Tab. 4: Self-assessment sheet, example ‘City in the Middle Ages’

In this example, the focus is more on the mode of reconstruction. It is also possible to focus on the deconstruction of, for example, medieval representations in films (‘I know films about the Middle Ages’, ‘I can judge whether the films give a realistic picture of the Middle Ages’).

In addition to topic-related assessment forms, assessment forms on general historical competences can also be designed, although these are likely to be less accessible to students due to their level of abstraction and lack of concrete content. The already established competency models can serve as a basis for this, although the transfer of competency levels from the models to practical application has so far been difficult (Adamski 2014, 26). Specific areas of competence, for example in relation to working with images, should be considered in order to formulate levels. This could take the form of a competency grid:

Criterion	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Image perception	Mentioning a few to many details of a picture; facial expressions/ gestures/ atmosphere are recognised and identified	Naming of selected image details; recognising the image as ‚historical‘; formulating questions about the image’s temporal location (design technique, building, clothing, etc.)	Irritating details are identified and named; questions are modified or re-evaluated; alternating between description and interpretation; identifying the author’s control codes (symbols, gestures, facial expressions, etc.); linking to previous knowledge/ transfer; reflecting on one’s own perceptions; analysing from self-chosen perspectives; identifying (and interpreting) the historical dimension of the image.

Criterion	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Image assessment	Questions about the meaning of the image are formulated; the image is evaluated in terms of its effect.	Hypotheses about the meaning of the image are formulated; the image is evaluated in terms of its past and present impact.	The image is contextualised within the social, political and cultural framework of the historical period; the image is evaluated from a contemporary perspective; the meaning of the image, both in its time and beyond, is assessed; the intentions of the author(s) are assessed (symbols, gestures, facial expressions, etc.).

Tab. 5: Competence grid for picture work (after: Bernhardt 2011; Krammer/Kühberger 2011).

One problem with the current use of competency grids is the lack of empirically validated evidence on how to define individual competency levels. There are only few promising studies in historical didactics research on the development of historical competencies (Trautwein et al. 2017).

In practice, therefore, competence grids are often developed that are based on subject-specific criteria but take into account the social reference norm of the class and the individual reference norm of each learner. Franz Wember has developed a five-level model for this purpose, which is based on curricular requirements but also takes into account the individuality of the pupils in a class (2013). The planning model is therefore attractive for inclusion as it also allows for levels 'upwards'. Basically there is ...

1. a central level corresponding to the curriculum (basic level), differentiated 'upwards' (extension level I) and 'downwards' (support level I),
2. a level beyond the curriculum for particularly able children (extension level II), and
3. a basic curriculum for children with manifest learning difficulties who require special educational assistance. (DZLM 2019)

Differentiation

The aim is to ensure that learners do not learn ‘side by side’, but work together around a common theme/the core idea/the

	Levels	Requirements
	Expansion stage II	In-depth offers for high performers
Central Level	Extension level I	Differentiation, upwards’ (further offers)
	Basic level	General requirements
	Support level I	Differentiation, downwards’
	Support level II	Basic programmes for children with learning difficulties (in accordance with the support plan), where possible: with an offer to participate

Tab. 6: Competence grid according to Wember 2013.

core concept. The levels must therefore be “assigned concrete requirements” (ibid.):

The basic idea is to provide objectives and tasks as well as methodological suggestions for the unit (or the individual lessons) that will enable students to participate in the lesson at their level. It is important to ensure that students are not restricted to the level they have been assigned. Ideally, the materials should be designed so that they can be used by all students. Therefore, it should be discussed with the students which media/materials are appropriate to achieve their goals. The following table shows what such a grid might look like for a lesson on ‘Ideas about medieval castles’ for lower secondary level.

This is initially a very time-consuming process, especially if a grid is created for each lesson. However, once the grid is established, it can be shared, adapted and developed within the teaching staff. (Table 7)

As mentioned above, a competence grid suggests clear prospects for individual learners. However, it should not be seen as a rigid work instruction. Rather, such a planning framework should raise awareness of obstacles that may arise

during the learning process and anticipate support strategies that might address them. Tasks at different levels (but open to all learners) accompany the work phase.

Other informal methods

An easy way to gather information about students' knowledge and imagination levels is to incorporate storytelling and writing prompts into the lesson.

Other informal
methods

Lesson: Imagining medieval castles: comparing sources and representations				
Common object: How can we find out what a medieval castle might have looked like?				
Level	Goals	Specific support strategies	Material/media	
Expansion stage II	Assessing the authenticity of sources; assessing the locational dependence of both sources and representations; reflecting on one's own locational dependence	Self-assessment form; ,white sheets'	Text sources Image sources Reconstruction drawings Toy castle	
Extension level I	Recognise the locality of both sources and representations; compare with own ideas	Self-assessment sheet; essay plan	Factual text Textbooks Educational videos	
Basic level	Reflection on the influence of sources as (contemporary) remnants of the past and representations as later narratives of history on one's own ideas.	Self-assessment sheet; worksheet; ,Where did I get my knowledge about medieval castles?'	Worksheet; ,This is how I imagine a medieval castle' Essay plan; audio recorder etc. for securing results	
Support level I	Recognise that sources and representations come from different times; reflect on own ideas	Self-assessment sheet; worksheet; ,Source or representation?'	Worksheet; ,Where did I get my knowledge about medieval castles?'	
Support level II	Expressing own ideas; comparing own ideas with sources/representations	Self-assessment sheet; worksheet; ,This is how I imagine a medieval castle'	Worksheet; ,What have I learnt about medieval castles?'	Worksheet; ,Source or representation?'
Central level				

Tab. 7: Sample grid for history lessons.

Narrative prompts: Narrative prompts are easy to set up. In fact, ‘think aloud’ tests have long been used in psychology, for example to assess the user-friendliness of new technical devices or user manuals. A similar method is to ask students to express their thoughts as directly as possible about an image or text source. This allows conclusions to be drawn about existing knowledge, ability to abstract, but also pre-scientific ideas. The situation is similar with writing prompts. Here, too, students are given the opportunity to express their subjective perspectives on historical phenomena. Non-speaking students can draw their ideas.

However, storytelling differs from writing or painting/drawing in that it is more immediate and therefore not already coloured by a slowing cognitive thought process.

For example, narrative prompts for pictorial sources could indicate whether students recognise the historicity of the source at all. It could also indicate whether the depicted image is perceived as alienating (in the sense of historical alterity). Many other levels of perception can be addressed: Dress, architecture, facial expressions. At a more basic level, a reference to the core concept of time or to the learner’s orienting knowledge can also become clear, for example when talking about a historical concept. The following example is taken from a group discussion between three pupils with learning difficulties. As part of a unit on industrialisation, they were asked what people looked like 150 years ago (from Barsch 2013, 103–104):

S3: *Like monkeys.*

S1: *Hairy.*

S3: *Fat. Like monkeys.*

S2: *Full of hair (...) So, so tousled.*

S3: *They have really thick fur, when they shave, they can uh completely the (blanket?)*

S2: *Like sheep.*

S3: *Yes. Like sheep, then when they shave sometime, when they invent that, they can sew a whole duvet cover for it.*

S2: *Just like sheep.*

S3: *Can make a house out of wool.*

S1: (mimics a razor)

I: And what do you think people did for work back then?

S1: Um. So, in the Middle Ages, in the Stone Age?

I: 150 years ago.

S1: Where the Romans lived?

S2: So, the Romans had ...

S3: They had; they built a castle like that. And they used swords and stuff.

S2: Smiths.

The analysis of this discussion shows that the learners have little chronological knowledge. Their past experiences in history have a profound impact on their personal and subjective understanding of time and events. The first requirement for lesson planning would therefore be to promote chronological conceptual knowledge, to clarify epochal differences and to work on the concept of time. This can be integrated with the content related to industrialisation. If this component is omitted (to be monitored through ongoing diagnostic assessment), there is a risk that the content will further contribute to historical disorientation.

Painting activities: Writing, storytelling and drawing activities can also be based on open questions. ('How do you imagine your parents' childhood?' or 'Draw a picture of the hippies'). This approach places even more emphasis on students' historical imagination or stereotypes. An example comes from a research project in which American children were asked to make a drawing representing a particular historical event in US history (pilgrims, western settlers, hippies) (Wineburg 2001). Although this is not a method originally designed for use in schools, the approach seems well suited to providing diagnostic insights into students' conceptions of history. For example, the research project explored the gender that children would assign to the protagonists (in this case, it was found that pilgrims were typically portrayed as male, while hippies were typically portrayed as female). This provides valuable insights for the classroom, particularly in selecting sources that might broaden students' perspectives,

including their understanding of socially constructed stereotypes.



Fig. 3: Gender perceptions (from: Wineburg 2001, 123).

Finally, such drawings can themselves become a starting point for discussion, allowing students to explain why they have drawn something the way they have.

Further diagnostic ideas

Adamski presents numerous other methods for subject-specific diagnostic assessment (2014). For example, dilemmas can facilitate the diagnosis of empathy (74) but, ultimately, also support the formation of historical judgments. Perspective writing can indicate the ability to understand history as narrative, exercises in word-image association ('What does the picture show: source or representation?', see also Kühberger/Windischbauer 2012, 60) provide information on methodological skills and conceptual knowledge. Mind maps or concept maps can also be used to visually represent learners' knowledge or ideas about specific historical issues. Mapping exercises on timelines give a sense of chronological understanding.

Further
diagnostic ideas

Ultimately, the various diagnostic options in inclusive education are not fundamentally different from those already established. The only difference is that, in the context of inclusion, a more diverse group of pupils is being addressed. It is therefore always necessary to consider whether the learners have the necessary skills to work with a particular diagnostic procedure, and non-written alternatives should always be available.

Document the learning process

Many didactic diagnostic methods are also suitable for monitoring and documenting student learning. For example, competence grids can be adapted during the teaching process, and new writing or drawing tasks can be introduced as the lesson progresses. The following methods are more specifically suited to the sole purpose of documenting the learning process.

Individual development plans

Development plans

Individual Development Plans (IDPs) have been established in special education practice for a number of years. In inclusive schools, such individualised plans may reach the limits of what is feasible for individual learners, especially when teaching takes place in mainstream classes rather than in small learning groups as in special schools. Nevertheless, the approach has sharpened the focus on individual learning needs. For use in larger classes, development plans could also be designed to focus on groups of learners with similar levels of ability rather than on individual learners. Support or individual development plans are created in several steps (Barsch 2014, 54). First, the area of competence/skill to be supported is defined, then goals and concrete strategies to achieve the goals are recorded. This includes an analysis of the necessary materials, teaching methods and spatial, temporal and human resource structures. The planning also includes considerations on how to check the effectiveness of the strategies (i.e. a further diagnostic phase).

When designing support plans, it is important to ensure that they are realistic about the next achievable objectives,

rather than trying to cover all possible areas for development. As mentioned above: In practice, development planning (and individualised teaching) is likely to be difficult due to time constraints. One solution is to form clusters of learners with similar ability profiles (Bormuth/Körper/Seidl 2020). However, this does not relieve the teacher of the responsibility to consider explicitly and in detail which cluster is most appropriate for each individual learner, guided by criteria.

Learning plan for:		Period:
Learning areas	Methods, materials	Results
		+ succeeds; +/- uncertain; - not yet
Historical expertise: - Basic knowledge of periods - Basic understanding of the construct character of epoch classifications Historical questioning competence: - Asking one's own questions about the past	- Picture-word association ('typical' images of the period) - Working with word cards - Working with timelines - Non-Western history - Playful exercise: reclassification of epochs; 'inventing' epoch names - Source pool: Mind map with questions about subjectively interesting sources - Exercise: What question would you ask the author of the source?	+ Temporal location of the 'Middle Ages' before 'modern times'. +/- Correct use of the terms 'antiquity', 'medieval', 'modern'. - Confidence in 'playing' with terms + Naming a source that is considered interesting + Explaining why the source is subjectively interesting +/- Phrasing a specific question - Recognising that a question to the author can only be fictional (as it is retrospective)

Tab. 8: Example of a development plan.

Portfolios

Portfolios are increasingly being used in schools. The advantage of this method is that students can individually collect their work results, ideas, sketches, pictures, self-assessment sheets, etc. without a standard forcing everyone to organise their portfolio in the same way. For example, students who

Portfolios

struggle with writing can maintain an audio portfolio, while non-verbal students may include pictures in theirs.

“In history class, this may involve writing historical narratives, working out interpretations of sources, justifying one’s own points of view, and the like, in which the availability of subject-specific methods, terms and concepts becomes visible, up to and including the ability to write convincing historical narratives.” (Rehlinghaus 2018, II).

Another advantage of portfolios as a documentation tool is that learners can present their own reflections on the subject matter in a way that is understandable to them. This includes their interests (‘This is why I am interested in children’s labour ...’) and assessments of learning (‘I have learnt that ...’; ‘I would like to learn more about ...’). Portfolios should not be used for summative assessment – particularly in inclusive settings – but rather as a free and individual means of documentation, without pressure or constraint.

Learning journals

Learning journals

Learning journals work in a similar way to portfolios. The difference is that they follow the chronology of the lessons more strictly. They focus on individual lessons. Learning journals can also be used to document reflections, self-assessments, questions, interests and learning outcomes. A learning journal can also be the result of collaborative work, for example by recording “how the group organised its work, what role you played in it, what materials were analysed, what decisions were made for the design, whether you were satisfied with the process and the outcome” (Adamski 2014, 93). Learning journals can therefore also be used to document the division of labour.

4. Elements for planning inclusive lessons

The didactic diagnostic and documentation procedures presented so far are already part of inclusive lesson planning. This chapter explores different approaches to organizing classroom work, with a focus on practical strategies for effective teaching and learning. The premise of this approach is that the lesson should be as open as possible, allowing for diverse interests, learning paths, individual questions and subjective learning needs. However, it should also be closed enough to provide orientation and support for students who need more support. This can be achieved through project-based teaching, which enables learning through exploration and discovery. By allowing students to work on projects that interest them, we can foster motivation, creativity and critical thinking skills, while also providing a supportive environment for students who need extra help. However, the following applies: “Project based learning is the most complex form of the organising principle of exploration and discovery in history teaching.” (Wolter 2018, 57) In practice, therefore, it will often be necessary to use forms of teaching that contain elements of project-based teaching but are still clearly characterised by methodological structuring by the teacher. This means that the enormous openness of project-based teaching goes hand in hand with the integration of different methods that offer students a structured orientation and the opportunity to work together. These include, for example, rotation learning (Kampl 2016) or working according to weekly plans in which the individual steps of the project are pre-structured.

Open and
structured lessons

Visualisation

It is well known, particularly from working with children and young people with autistic spectrum disorders, that clear visualisations and structured work processes are extremely

Visualisations and
pre-structuring

beneficial. It is in this context that the TEACCH approach has been developed: Treatment and Education of Autistic and Related Communication Handicapped Children, see Häusler 2005).

The aim of the TEACCH approach is to structure work processes clearly in order to provide orientation for the learner. On the one hand, this relates to general educational aspects such as the design of the classroom:

“It is easier for children to find their way around a room if they know what is expected in each place and what they can do there. Even simple support (tape, signs, pictures, photos, pictograms or symbols) can help them to find their way around the room.” (Klein 2018, 108)

For example, by “supporting stories – also in a historical context – with a series of easily distinguishable pictures, symbols or drawings” (ibid.), learners can be supported in carrying out tasks. For example, the use of fixed pictograms for certain work processes (working with sources, discussion, tasks, etc.) and terms (rule, medieval, modern, etc.) allows a higher degree of orientation, especially for some students, but ultimately for all learners.

Organising and visualising time is also crucial. For many children and young people, it is helpful to be clearly informed about the timing of tasks and activities. Timers, which display the remaining working time, can be a useful tool for this. However, (true-to-scale) timelines, which not only show the content currently being covered, but also place it in a larger chronological context, also support students. The TEACCH approach therefore complements classroom management by providing even clearer structural support, as a well-organised learning environment facilitates effective learning not only for students with special educational needs but for all learners.












Overall, teaching benefits when the classroom is structured, materials are always available in their designated places and these are marked with colours and symbols. It is also im-

portant to avoid unnecessary stimuli (decorations, bags, jackets, etc.) to enable distraction-free learning (see ISB 2019). For students with autism spectrum disorders in particular, it can also be helpful to occasionally work in an environment with even fewer distractions, for example by placing partitions on the desk.

To summarise:

- Established structures and visualisations support learners.
- This applies to organising the space as well as designing the worksheets and tasks.
- Design elements include pictograms, colours, boxes, material corners, etc.

An example of a task supported by pictograms might look like this. The symbols are ultimately arbitrary as long as their meaning is made clear to the learners and they are used consistently.

Subject: History				
Steps	Material		Duration	Done
1. Individual work Read the source.	Source		5 minutes 	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Individual work Read the presentation.	Slides		5 minutes 	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Individual work If you don't know a word, look it up in the dictionary or ask the person sitting next to you.	Computer			<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Individual work Write down the information from the source and the presentation in keywords.	Paper		10 minutes 	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Partner work Talk to your neighbor: Did you find the same thing?			10 minutes 	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Partner work Summarise your results: What is in the source and presentation? Create a poster.	Flipchart, pens		30 minutes 	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tab. 9: Example of a work plan with TEACCH elements.

Promote teamwork

Promote teamwork

Teamwork or cooperative learning “should not be understood as a teaching method, but as a teaching structure that enables learning processes through the alternation of individual and cooperative phases” (Scholz 2019). Particularly for heterogeneous learning groups, it is seen as a way of defining individual and common goals and allowing learners to work together on an equal footing based on their individual skills and abilities by distributing responsibilities among group members. Diversity is viewed positively in this approach, as it is only through the diversity of the learners that they can ultimately learn from each other. Group members have equal rights despite their different abilities and skills (Konrad/Traub 2010, 5). Cooperative forms of work are also valuable for learning history because historical knowledge is always constructed through negotiation. The cooperative approach can simultaneously build knowledge of historical theory by reflecting on the joint construction of history within the work itself and allowing for different interpretations and questions.

However, cooperative learning is not exclusively based on group work. Individual and partner work may also be necessary to achieve the objectives. For some learners, it may be helpful to use closed-ended procedures such as direct instruction in exploration phases (e.g. when analysing sources individually). Several empirical studies have shown that students with learning difficulties can benefit from clear guidance, especially in the exploration phase (Grünke 2006). For source analysis, this could be a step-by-step guide to the process (see chapter on scaffolding).

Overall, enabling communication between all participants is essential for the success of cooperative learning scenarios:

“At the heart of cooperative learning is a concept of learning that sees learning as an active and constructive process in which students can combine content with individual prior knowledge. In cooperative learning situations, different perspectives and experiences are shared through communicative processes and the af-

fective dimensions that are important for learning are taken into account." (ibid.)

Five characteristics of successful cooperative learning have been identified in the literature (Scholz 2019):

1. *Positive interdependence:* In order to achieve a group goal, each member of the group must be successful. For this purpose, different roles are assigned, e.g. experts for researching sources, reading fragments, reading factual texts, formulating questions, creating presentations (different media), formulating narratives, etc.
2. *Individual responsibility:* Each member of the group is responsible. The different shares of the work (see point 1) are made transparent.
3. *Direct and positive interaction:* There are always phases of individual work and exchange. For example, when deciphering a source in Fraktur script, the expert can ask for feedback on the relevance of the source to the questions posed by the group; in an exchange, a consensus can be reached on the design of the presentation, and so on.
4. *Interpersonal skills:* To facilitate this exchange, social skills such as active listening, offering and accepting help, compromising and allowing controversy are practised. The negotiation of interpretation and a possibly unimaginable resolution of controversial positions can also be a result of the work process itself, as the story is often controversial and ambiguous. Promoting tolerance of ambiguity is therefore not only a pedagogical but also a professional concern.
5. *Reflection on group processes:* The group reflects on its work together, exploring new steps and roles. Here, under the guidance of the teacher, care is taken to ensure that the workload is shared fairly and that no one person in the group does the work for others. Reflection should not only take place at the end of the work process, but should be woven throughout. It should also reflect on whether all voices are being taken into account and whether the principle of equal participation is being followed.

While cooperative learning that adheres to the above principles can be fundamentally open and does not require prescribed sequences for lesson structure, Brüning and Saum suggest that the ‘think-pair-share’ principle is often included (2009, 83; see also Scholz 2019):

- *Individual work*: By activating prior knowledge, learners engage with the content individually, e.g. ‘What questions do I have about the story?’ – ‘How might I answer these questions?’ Or more guided by the teacher: ‘What would you like to find out about the Middle Ages?’ – ‘How could you go about finding this out?’
- *Sharing*: The results – including the questions about the story and the thoughts on how to proceed – are shared, a joint plan is drawn up, the questions are answered as independently as possible, with the support from the teacher.
- *Presentation*: Present the results of the collaborative work to the other students and groups.

Such an approach is well suited to working on different facets of the same content within a unit. For example, in a diagnostic phase on the topic of ‘the Middle Ages’, different questions could be collected from the pupils in order to form clusters for group work according to interests. One cluster could deal with childhood in the Middle Ages, another with kingship, another with princesses, work, etc. The actual exploration phase would thus be clearly based on the interests of the learners. Although not all students are actively confronted with all the content on the topic in this way, all the results are presented to everyone in the final presentation phase at, which can take the form of an exhibition, a website, a podcast or similar. In this way, a topic is comprehensively developed in a co-operative manner.

In addition to the think-pair-share model, there are numerous other methods that can be used in cooperative teaching, including (cf. Scholz 2019):

- Group puzzle
- Learning pace duet
- Reciprocal reading

Encouraging
cooperation

The reciprocal reading method can also be used to facilitate team work on longer sources or presentations. Learners are assigned different roles (A to D). To implement this approach, consider the following steps (based on LISUM 2011a):

The text is read and worked through individually by each group member. The work process is organized according to a division of labour, with roles assigned to each team member:

- Student A reads the text or part of it and asks questions about the content.
- Student B briefly summarises the content orally.
- Student C asks (comprehension) questions about the text, including difficult words. The questions are discussed together.
- Student D makes assumptions about how the text might continue. These assumptions can be supplemented by other positions of the group.

After the roles have been swapped, the process can be started again. For history teaching, role D is particularly fascinating. The assumption about how the text could continue can reveal either factual or value-based interpretations of historical events. Through the exchange between group members, different perspectives and historical judgements/interpretations/evaluations on the same text can be negotiated and discussed.

Role cards for reciprocal reading

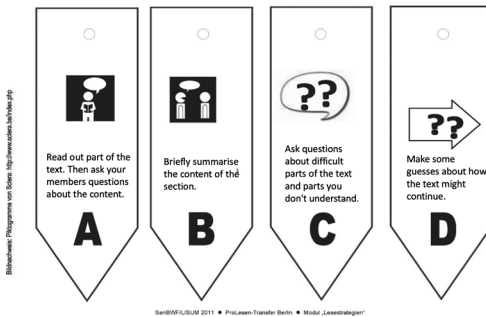




Fig. 4: Role cards for reciprocal reading (translated from: LISUM 2011b).

The Helper System is a simple yet effective way to promote collaborative learning in the history classroom. By identifying students who require additional support, you can facilitate peer-to-peer assistance and help level the playing field. This approach is particularly useful when tackling complex source analysis or factual text comprehension.

List of helpers	
Name:	I can help with:
	
Seeks support	Offers support

Tab. 10: Helper system principle.

Project-based learning

Project-based learning is a powerful approach that enables learners to investigate and explore topics of interest in an autonomous and inquiry-driven manner. By incorporating the principles of cooperative learning, learners can collaborate effectively during project phases while also pursuing their individual interests and curiosities. To implement project-based learning, a structured approach is essential. The basis for this structure consists of five phases:

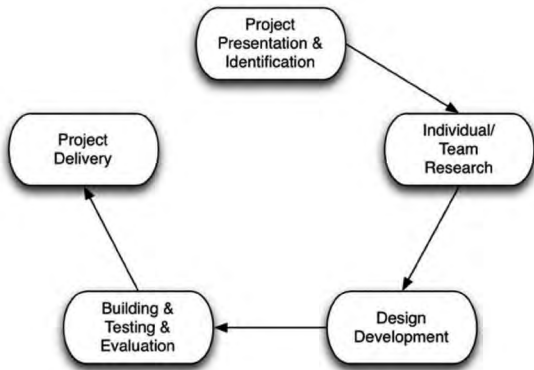


Fig. 5: Phases of project learning (after: Nohl 2014, 10, translation taken from Felipe/Amouroux/Pham/Stojcevski 2016).

Studies have shown the benefits of project-based teaching, particularly for use in inclusive settings (Ferretti/MacArthur/Okolo 2001). Embedding historical-theoretical reflexions (What is history? What can we know?) around source material has been shown to promote deeper understanding of historical contexts and more effective development of historical knowledge for all students. However, the effect was greater for students without learning difficulties. Additionally, the findings suggest that the project-based design of the unit has a comparable impact on both groups – those with learning difficulties and those without. Specifically, this design approach is found to affect their learning behaviour and understanding of historical principles to a similar extent. In particular, when the source work is contextualized within the theme of history’s constructedness, this effect is observed in both groups.

Students’ questions and interests

Project work requires a consistent focus on the learners’ subjective questions and interests as a starting point for planning the history lesson. In a project, therefore, the lesson plan can no longer be drawn up completely in advance. Instead, the teacher has the task of organising motivating encounters with historical phenomena to which the learners can ‘throw’ their questions. Lesson planning must therefore allow for greater openness, so that different learning paths and ap-

proaches are possible despite the fixed content. In the context of inclusion, such an approach also offers the opportunity for “each student to develop his or her own questions” (Barsch/Dziak-Mahler 2014, 130). The learners’ questions become the starting point for an intrinsically formulated research task: “The role of the teacher changes; they become more of a process facilitator, moderator and ‘material provider’. They use their role as ‘knower’ appropriately according to the situation” (ibid., 131).

The focus on learners’ individual questions does not mean that there is no common theme. Rather, the ‘historical phenomenon’ with which the learners are confronted at the beginning of the project is the common object/core idea/core concept (e.g. ‘labour’). Problem-based questions relevant to individual students can be the starting point for project teaching:

Stages	Teaching step
Confronting students with a historical phenomenon.	Scenario introduced by the teacher.
Identify the individual questions of the students.	Open-ended, ‘Unhistorical’ questions are also allowed.
Students form hypotheses.	Open-ended, ‘Unhistorical’ hypotheses are also allowed.
Cluster questions and hypotheses.	Criteria: Related to the past/related to the present.
Collection of material by teacher/students.	Objective: What other materials can be used to answer the questions and hypotheses from stage 4? Focus: The past!
Analysis of materials.	Historical analysis.
Answer the questions/hypotheses.	The answers must be intersubjectively verifiable, i.e. classmates must be able to understand the argumentation.
Relevance to the present.	Can the knowledge gained be used to answer today’s questions? What do the results mean for individual students?

Tab. 11: Model of an inclusive, problem-orientated history lesson (from: Barsch/Dziak-Mahler 2014, 130).

At the beginning, learners are confronted with a 'problem' or an open question ('How do we acquire knowledge about the past?'). They ask their questions around this question (e.g. 'Is it possible to find out about people in the past about whom nothing was written at the time?') Each student's question, no matter how 'difficult' it may be, is considered first and not discarded for the sake of a lesson's objective.

A theme is then formulated from the questions ('Many stories in society'). Students then formulate their first 'research questions' and develop a plan to answer them.


Find research questions			
			
<p>Plan your project from the start by defining your research questions and thinking about your goals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- What do I want to find out from this project? (Tip: A good research question is one that you cannot yet answer and that will lead you to exciting and new insights. Therefore, research questions cannot be answered with yes or no).			

Fig. 6: Formulation of the research questions (part of a worksheet created according to a template by Daniel Tries).

This first phase of the project initiative is a key point in terms of diagnosing the initial learning situation, especially in inclusive learning groups, because the learners' initial learning situation become visible when they develop the research questions and create their own first mind map on the topic.

Guided by the project folder, in which the steps are planned and recorded, or in which the minutes of individual sessions are filled in, the learners research the chosen topic or their question as independently as possible in (text)books, encyclopaedias, magazines and, of course, on various websites with or without the help of AI. The selection of media can be organised according to the principles of Universal Design

of Learning (see chapter on Lesson Planning), so that the teacher does not create material specifically for individual learners, but compiles the material directly according to criteria that maximise variance. Pupils thus control internal differentiation by selecting appropriate materials for themselves.

The teacher transforms into a learning guide, moving away from directing and towards mentoring. They provide guidance, share knowledge, and support students in their search for answers. The teaching process is now an integral part of the learning experience.

During the implementation phase, the learners then create a product that represents their own historical narrative.

The project concludes with a presentation to the learning group. Dedicated presentation days, such as exhibitions or showcases, provide a platform for students to demonstrate the effectiveness of their project work. This approach enhances student engagement and accountability while also giving parents and the school community a clear understanding of what students are achieving.

Finally, the students reflect on their project with the help of a reflection sheet.

Reflection sheet

Realised projects:		done with support	safely done	mostly safely done	partially mastered	not done	no rating
– my town 100 years ago							
– production of an educational video							
– childhood now and then							
– Individual project:							
Area of expertise							
Idea development and planning	Develops own ideas for a project.						
	Formulates research questions and project aims.						
	Uses planning tools to organise the project work.						
Research	Searches independently for information and extracts it purposefully.						
	Extract information from films based on questions.						
	Plans what materials are needed and procures them.						
	Handles data and information sources appropriately and critically.						
Realisation	Carries out the project independently according to the plan.						
	Works with concentration and uses the learning time effectively.						
	Works cooperatively in a group.						
	Uses the PC or tablet appropriately and purposefully for the project.						
	Deals comprehensively with the topic.						
	Takes a critical stance on exemplary problems or questions.						
Presentation	Presents the project in an understandable and clear way.						
	...						

Tab. 12: Assessment grid (modified and taken over by Daniel Tries, Offene Schule Cologne).

The reflection phase also analyses the extent to which the results of the work reflect the overarching theme/core idea/fundamental concept of the project and can be applied to other real-world phenomena.

Lesson planning

The following section presents perspectives on lesson design that can be used in different forms of teaching, either in individual lessons or in the whole unit. These are ideas for organising lessons so that all learners can participate. At the same time, the ideas focus on aspects that are increasingly emerging as focal points for successful teaching in the context of inclusion:

1. How can teaching be organised without hindering learning through 'rigid' internal differentiation?
2. To what extent can language be considered the foundation of historical learning?
3. How can non-cognitive elements enrich the classroom?
4. What can be done to create accessibility in (history) teaching?

Principles of lesson
planning

Universal Design of Learning

For some time now, the concept of 'Universal Design of Learning' has been seen as promising for the design of inclusive lessons (Kühberger/Barsch 2020). One of the reasons for this is the experience that it is extremely difficult to provide individualised teaching material for all individual learners in a group. The same is true of 'classic' differentiation material, which offers teaching material on the same topic at different levels of ability (Kühberger/Windischbauer 2012). This also carries the risk that learners may not develop to their full potential because they are 'assigned' a particular material (Smith 2010, 72). Universal Design of Learning (UDL) takes a different approach by understanding internal differentiation more in terms of 'many paths to the goal'. The key here is to design learning environments that provide 'ramps' for as barrier-free access as possible to shared learning at different levels. In contrast to 'classic' internal differentiation, special

Universal Design
of Learning

learning opportunities are not prepared for 'special' students, but the students themselves can choose from a pool of opportunities that are accessible to all. This means that students without special needs can also access texts in plain language, the read-aloud function of texts on the computer or pictogram-supported tasks. In the field of history, for example, the German Historical Museum in Berlin is increasingly designing exhibitions that follow this principle: Much of the information on the exhibits is provided in standard language, easy-to-read language, Braille and as an audio track. Visitors can choose which option they want to use. The aim of Universal Design of Learning is therefore to provide different learning groups with flexible provision that offers all learners the same learning opportunities from the outset and does not restrict learning pathways through pre-selection. The UDL principle addresses the question of how objectives, methods, materials and assessment or diagnostic procedures should be designed so that they are accessible to all learners in a group. The guiding questions for designing such lessons are What are my objectives for the lesson? What are the barriers to diversity in my classroom? To reduce these barriers, three principles of a *Universal Design for Learning* have been developed (Gargiulo/Metcalf 2017, 42).

The Universal Design for Learning Guidelines

The goal of UDL is learner agency that is purposeful & reflective, resourceful & authentic, strategic & action-oriented.

Design Multiple Means of Engagement	Design Multiple Means of Representation	Design Multiple Means of Action & Expression
<p>Design Options for Welcoming Interests & Identities ⁽⁷⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Optimize choice and autonomy (7.1) Optimize relevance, value, and authenticity (7.2) Nurture joy and play (7.3) Address biases, threats, and distractions (7.4) 	<p>Design Options for Perception ⁽¹⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support opportunities to customize the display of information (1.1) Support multiple ways to perceive information (1.2) Represent a diversity of perspectives and identities in authentic ways (1.3) 	<p>Design Options for Interaction ⁽⁴⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vary and honor the methods for responses, navigation, and movement (4.1) Optimize access to accessible materials and assistive and accessible technologies and tools (4.2)
<p>Design Options for Sustaining Effort & Persistence ⁽⁸⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarify the meaning and purpose of goals (8.1) Optimize challenge and support (8.2) Foster collaboration, interdependence, and collective learning (8.3) Foster belonging and community (8.4) Offer action-oriented feedback (8.5) 	<p>Design Options for Language & Symbols ⁽²⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarify vocabulary, symbols, and language structures (2.1) Support decoding of text, mathematical notation, and symbols (2.2) Cultivate understanding and respect across languages and dialects (2.3) Address biases in the use of language and symbols (2.4) Illustrate through multiple media (2.5) 	<p>Design Options for Expression & Communication ⁽³⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use multiple media for communication (5.1) Use multiple tools for construction, composition, and creativity (5.2) Build fluencies with graduated support for practice and performance (5.3) Address biases related to modes of expression and communication (5.4)
<p>Design Options for Emotional Capacity ⁽⁹⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize expectations, beliefs, and motivations (9.1) Develop awareness of self and others (9.2) Promote individual and collective reflection (9.3) Cultivate empathy and restorative practices (9.4) 	<p>Design Options for Building Knowledge ⁽³⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Connect prior knowledge to new learning (3.1) Highlight and explore patterns, critical features, big ideas, and relationships (3.2) Cultivate multiple ways of knowing and making meaning (3.3) Maximize transfer and generalization (3.4) 	<p>Design Options for Strategy Development ⁽⁶⁾</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Set meaningful goals (6.1) Anticipate and plan for challenges (6.2) Organize information and resources (6.3) Enhance capacity for monitoring progress (6.4) Challenge exclusionary practices (6.5)

Tab.13: Basics of the Universal Design of Learning (UDL) (<http://www.udlcenter.org>).

UDL allows all learners to make individual learning progress without being hindered by the teacher or limited by minimum or maximum goals. All learners can use the teaching materials and learning pathways provided to progress as far as they are able. In a history class, learners can be offered different representations (text, images, audio, etc.) of the subject matter:

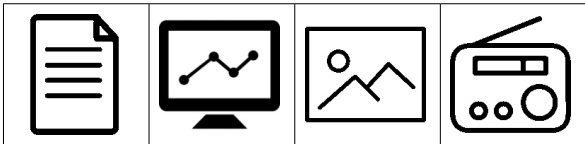


Fig. 7: Pictograms visualise different forms of representation.

If the aim of learning history is also, for example, to critically reflect on historical representations (deconstruction), such a selection of representations should also take into account different ways of representing the past. For example, the topic of ‘Ideas about the Middle Ages’ could be approached through textual and pictorial sources, but also through toy figures of kings, film clips (documentaries, feature films and animated films), sequences from computer games, and so on. In this way, diverse perspectives and approaches can be incorporated, including those that may be contradictory or contentious. This allows for a rich and varied range of qualitative approaches to be considered, promoting a more inclusive and nuanced understanding of the subject matter. A historical-didactic perspective can also be applied to the study of teaching materials. This involves allowing learners to present their results in a variety of formats, moving beyond traditional written forms such as essays and factual texts. Auditory formats, such as oral reports and presentations, as well as aesthetic approaches like role-plays and theatre productions, should be given equal consideration. This enables learners to express their understanding in a range of ways, from the spoken word to creative performances.

Language-Aware History Teaching

History is transported through language, through narratives (Handro 2015, 5). Therefore, history education must always be language sensitive. This also applies to inclusive settings (Alavi/Franz 2017, 40). There is also a growing awareness in history education that the teacher has a far greater role to play. Even outside of 'inclusion', it is doubtful whether students can follow the language behaviour in the classroom (Bernhardt/Wickner 2015, 281; Barsch 2018b). The challenge for language-aware history teaching in inclusive settings can be seen on two levels:

1. Students' language skills (writing, speaking, narrating, understanding).
2. Teachers' ability to organise language-aware lessons and to diagnose language needs.

The question of how narrative competence/skills might manifest itself in the group of non-speaking students remains unanswered at present. This does not refer to deaf people, but to people who do not have oral, written, sign language or other alternative communication skills. As part of a comprehensive understanding of inclusion, these groups must not be excluded (Völkel 2017). Inclusive education must therefore enable these children and young people to participate, even if the lack of a common language makes it difficult to work on a common subject. Some approaches are known from special education (working with picture cards, augmentative and alternative communication, etc.) (Köhnen/Roos 2002). However, it should always be critically examined whether the learners concerned actually participate or whether it is just a matter of being present in the classroom, although this should not be seen as a negative. As it will often remain unknown for some students whether they participate in the classroom in their own way or not, there are good reasons to include them in the classroom anyway.

Two approaches of interest in the context of language-sensitive history teaching are presented below. One is scaffolding and the other is the concept of plain language. Both approaches are intertwined and address the question of how

to organise teaching using language support so that a heterogeneous group of learners can benefit from it.

Scaffolding

Scaffolding

Scaffolding is an instructional approach that originated in language learning, where it is used to support language development in specialized teaching contexts. Initially, scaffolding was applied in the context of native and second language acquisition, including in multilingual classrooms. However, its application has expanded to facilitate students' subject-related learning by providing them with linguistic resources. The core idea of scaffolding is to offer learners temporary linguistic support, which is gradually removed as they become more proficient. The aim is for children and young people to then carry out the corresponding linguistic actions independently (Kniffka 2013). A distinction can be made between macro- and micro-scaffolding (ibid). Macro-scaffolding includes

1. Needs analysis
 - What technical terms, idioms, tasks, etc. could be covered in the lesson?
 - Which texts should be used?
 - What obstacles (technical language, metaphors, etc.) can be found in the texts?
 - What support in terms of explanations, vocabulary work, etc. will be needed?
2. Assessment of individual language skills:
 - What linguistic resources does each learner have and how can I diagnose them?
3. Lesson planning
 - How can I take into account needs and learning levels when planning lessons?
 - How can I provide plenty of language input (written and oral)? What additional materials do I need (vocabulary cards, etc.)?
 - How can I include meta-linguistic and metacognitive phases in my lessons?
 - Where does the term 'source' come from?
 - What does 'nobility' mean?

- Why is it necessary to use the subjunctive ('It could have been' instead of 'It was')?
- What is 'time'?
- What bridging texts, i.e. additional explanatory texts, do I need?
- How can I sequence the learning tasks so that they lead from everyday language to pedagogical and technical language?
- How can I take into account the principles 'from the concrete to the abstract', 'from the simple to the complex', 'from everyday language to academic language'?
- How can I organise learning and working in such a way that learners have to interact linguistically with each other?

Micro-scaffolding focuses on the actual interaction in the classroom. It is about organising lessons so that they are not just question-and-answer games (question-developing lessons), but also about activating linguistic interaction. Gibbons formulates these six principles (2015):

1. Slowing down the teacher-pupil interaction
2. More planning time for students for all linguistic expressions in class
3. Creating real communication situations that require students to make more complex utterances rather than a one-word response
4. Active listening by the teacher
5. Reformulation of statements by the teacher ('So the letter is the source you have a question about?')
6. Embedding learners' utterances in larger conceptual contexts

Haberzettl has drawn up the following checklist for planning language-sensitive lessons based on Gibbons (2002, 122):

Speaking	Listening	Reading
What are the requirements for oral language use?	What kind of listening is required? Interactional? Transactional?	What kind of texts will the learners read? Are there any non-linear texts? What linguistic and/or cultural barriers may arise (see also grammar/vocabulary)?
If there have not been many opportunities to use the language orally: Where could oral practice be incorporated?	If there has not been much opportunity for listening practice so far: What specific listening comprehension tasks can be included?	How can the texts be made accessible to learners? Are the reading comprehension tasks designed to develop reading strategies and language skills? If there are only a few reading texts: Can others be used?
Writing	Grammar	Vocabulary
What kind of written texts do learners have to produce? What is the schematic structure of these texts? What kind of connectors are used in these types of texts?	What grammatical aspects does the topic require? -passive - nominalization -Complex word formation products -Complex noun phrases etc.	What specific vocabulary do learners need to know? -Technical vocabulary -Specific phrases/expressions etc.
If there are few written tasks: What types of text are relevant and can be included?		

Tab. 14: Checklist for planning language-sensitive subject lessons (from: Haberzettl, n.d.).

Scaffolding often happens intuitively in everyday teaching. However, taking more account of these principles when planning inclusive history lessons will make it possible to be even more sensitive to the linguistic factors that determine teaching. For example, new terms are usually explained in class ('industrialisation'). However, words that are assumed to have everyday meanings ('king', 'earlier times') are often not explicitly made the subject of the lesson. In particular, the repetition of meta-linguistic aspects (the importance of concepts and language for understanding history) has proved empirically promising for inclusive history teaching.

Technical terms also pose an enormous challenge for learning history:

*"Because of these semantic challenges, learning historical terms must always be contextualised: King Otto I (912–973) had such and such rights and duties. King Otto I can then be used to infer royal rule in the High Middle Ages. In the 10th century, a king was a man who had such and such rights and duties. However, it is important for historical learning that the definition of the term be concrete and unambiguous, but also open enough to be transferred to other historical contexts. For example, if the term 'king' is also to be applied to Juan Carlos I of Spain (*1938), then it must be defined in such a way that the learner can integrate the different characteristics of his reign compared to Otto I under the generic term. The path of learning historical terminology, like learning in general, thus follows a three-step process: from visualisation to concept and then back to visualisation, from the historically concrete to the abstract and then back to the historically concrete". (Hamann/Krehan 2013, 173)*

In the context of scaffolding and inclusive history teaching, more attention needs to be paid to vocabulary work, as historical terms often denote something unobservable, are subject to temporal changes in their semantics, have different cultural connotations, are often ambiguous ('rule') or have a different connotation in everyday language ('revolution') (ibid., 172 f.). Hamann and Krehan have developed a five-step method for

Vocabulary work

vocabulary work that can also be used for planning macro scaffolds (ibid., 176):

Steps	Tasks
Vocabulary activation as a prerequisite, formulations	Technical terms in the context of formulations, finding technical terms in letter grids, creating word boxes
Introducing technical terms related to a topic	Marking of known technical terms in texts, marking of new terms for known word fields, labelling of pictures
Practice technical terms and phrases	Label a picture, classify terms in a diagram, untangle a jumble of letters (reconstruct technical terms), search for technical terms and word combinations for given explanations, fill in a gap text.
Getting used to use technical terms when speaking	Role-playing, analysing simple sources using sentence patterns, using technical terms in your own formulations, giving a short presentation, writing a letter.
Thinking about words	Creating index cards for word families
Testing	Label pictures, create logical sequences of events, fill in gaps

Tab. 15: Five-step method of vocabulary work (from Hamann/ Krehan 2013, 176).

Concept cards

Students could also create their own concept cards to explore a technical term in more depth, e.g. the term 'source':

Explanation Remains from the past. You can explore the past with sources.	Features Sources can be letters, pictures, books, buildings or even films made by people in the past.
Examples A diary from the year 1900; a law published in that year; an old house labelled "AD 1900".	Talking/writing about it The source (singular) – the sources (plural) Analysing a source The source is from the year ...

Tab. 16: Concept map (after: Born et al. 2019, 105).

Language can also be used to help formulate individual steps, such as analysing diagrams: Language support

Describing elements of the diagram	Language support
What is the diagram about?	The diagram shows .../represents ...
What do the different colours mean?	The colours stand for .../The symbols mean ...
How can the contents of the diagram be summarised?	Kings depended on ...

Tab. 17: Support for expression (after: Born et al. 2019, 88).

Aspects of integrating scaffolding into lesson planning are summarised:

- A process-accompanying diagnosis of linguistic learning status
- Planning a variety of speaking activities with plenty of linguistic input
- Including meta-linguistic and metacognitive phases not only in the introductory phase of the lesson.

Plain language

Plain language is a concept that aims to increase the comprehensibility of written language by reducing its linguistic complexity. Plain language can be a scaffolding in itself. Specifically, the translation of sources (or factual texts) into 'plain language' can be used to work on historical information in groups (Barsch 2019b; Barsch/Leinung 2019). The aim is for groups to reach a consensus on the content of a source as part of the translation process, and to collaboratively answer the following questions: What does the source say? What does the source mean in the historical context? What words and phrases are historical? What can the source actually tell us about the past? How do we evaluate the source from today's perspective? Fundamental questions of historical theory are raised in the process of translation. By negotiating a common translation of the source into 'plain language', students can recognise the constructed nature of history and learn that historiography is a social process, influenced by current norms and narrative structures as much as by the sources themselves. As an alternative to translating sources, writing a narrative text together in 'plain language' can also highlight negotiation processes.

Step 1: Translate together: The learners are divided into small groups of three or four, as heterogeneous as possible. The aim is to initiate as intensive and controversial a discussion as possible on the content of the source text. Each group is given a source which shows the common content from a specific perspective. The groups are now given the task of translating the source in such a way that the content is understandable for everyone in the group and a consensus on the content is reached. Students are sensitised not to change the content of the source, i.e. not to make any interpretations or historical judgements. For this process, in which the common 'translation' is a 'struggle' for the meaning of the text, each group is given a timetable together with the task (see below).

Step 2: Develop a historical judgement: After the groups have worked out the content of the sources through translation, they should position themselves from a contemporary

perspective and judge the message of the source. The groups do not necessarily have to reach a consensus. Rather, any controversial judgments will allow them to recognise that interpretations of sources (where it has been ensured that they are understandable to all) can be subjective. To support the development of historical judgments or historical reasoning, learners should consider aspects such as text genre, audience, and context. etc. The group could also consider whether the 'translations' might reveal meanings behind the actual text: Where, for example, were diplomatic, ideological or addressee restrictions imposed on the genre of the text? What was 'really' being said? How can it be written in plain language? Such reflections help learners to answer the question of whether the source they have translated makes a general statement about the period in which it was written. This helps students to make a valid historical judgement.

Step 3: Consolidate: At the end of the lesson, summarise the results of the different groups. The texts can be hung in different corners of the classroom or arranged in chronological order. In a subsequent tour of the 'exhibition', the groups present their translations, agree on whether they are understandable to their classmates and present their historical judgements/interpretations. The presentation can include controversial interpretations as well as descriptions of the translation experience (Which sentences were particularly difficult? Which parts of the text were easy to translate? Which parts of the text were particularly controversial?)

The final plenary session will revisit the initial question. An attempt will be made to arrive at a new assessment based on the sources that have now been intensively analysed and evaluated. Different sources from different periods make it possible to reflect on continuity and change.

It is also a good idea to reflect with the learners on their experiences of translation work. It can easily become clear that the struggle for meaning, the interpretation of sources, is part of the 'tools of the trade' of history. The constructivist nature of history becomes immediately apparent when stu-

dents learn that the interpretation of historical sources always includes the perspective of those who interpret them.

The following teaching material shows possible uses in the classroom (taken from Barsch/Leinung 2019). This teaching suggestion is a way of integrating an activating form of source work into the lesson, in which all learners can work together, regardless of their individual abilities. A simple language guide can also be used as a support. However, this should only be a suggestion and in no way restrict the learners' actual 'language games'. It is not necessary to read every sentence one by one. Sections can be worked out or the translation process can be combined with the reciprocal reading method (see chapter 4.2).

Activity

Translate the source so that everyone in the group can understand it. Do not change the meaning of the sentences. Follow this scheme:

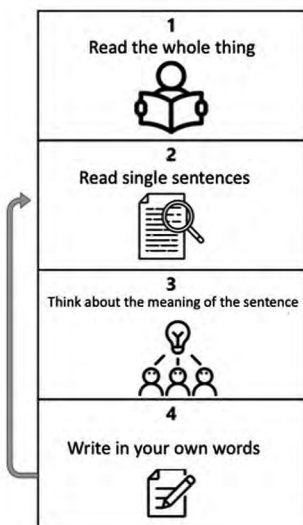


Fig. 8: Steps for translation into plain language (from Barsch/Leinung 2019, 14).

Consolidation of results

Write your collaborative translation into the first box.

Evaluate what the source says. Write down your interpretation in keywords. You do not have to agree to each other. All well-reasoned interpretations are equally valid.

What does the source say?
This is how we judge the content:

Tab. 18: Assessment of the source content.

Aesthetic approaches to historical learning

History teaching often focuses on cognitive learning. However, there are good reasons to consider aesthetic and sensory components into account when planning lessons. On the one hand, there is the much-vaunted ‘learning with all the senses’, which has been shown to be effective in terms of learning psychology (e.g. Minogue/Jones 2006). At the same time, such an approach can also be legitimised from a historical perspective, since the focus on objects, for example, is just as ‘booming’ as the question of how the past can be reconstructed acoustically, how it might have smelled or tasted (Barsch/Kühberger 2020 and Degner/Franz 2020). The question of aesthetics in learning history is therefore also important independently of inclusion. Lars Deile, for example, says that students always approach the past aesthetically. It is therefore necessary to take these ideas into account when developing learning scenarios (2016). The following key questions can be used as a basis for lesson planning:

- Can I design for haptic moments? This does not only include material sources (objects, buildings). Unusual objects can also be used in the classroom to deconstruct representations or express ideas about the past (toys, miniatures),

Aesthetic and sensory approaches to learning

- Can I include olfactory moments? It is not possible to deduce what history smelt or tasted like. However, there are many references to smells in textual sources (e.g. unknown foods in travelogues). The aim is not to create naive notions of the past ('We are baking medieval bread, so we can experience the smells that people in the Middle Ages were exposed to'). Rather, it is about abstracting from one's own ideas in order to reflect on the past.
- Can I include acoustic moments? What might the past have sounded like? Why have certain sounds become part of the collective memory? On the one hand, such questions can help learners to reflect on the reconstructive nature of history. On the other hand, it is an opportunity to compare one's own ideas with historical phenomena.
- Can I include visual moments? On the one hand, this includes more analytical approaches to interpreting visual sources (Sauer 2016). In addition, a stronger focus on aesthetic components can also be used here for comparison with one's own ideas about images. Images can also be used for diagnostic purposes (see above) (e.g. by painting pictures) or as a learning opportunity for historical-theoretical questions ('Where do my ideas about the past come from?').

Accessibility

Accessibility

General considerations for creating accessibility are only briefly touched upon here, as there are fewer subject-specific issues than general educational issues. Accessibility is therefore more successful in multi-professional teams. On the one hand, 'barriers' can be seen in mobility, for example when "the kerb is too high for a wheelchair user to cross a road" (Leidner 2007, 30). There are numerous barriers in the classroom, especially in history lessons (see Barsch/Lücke 2020 for more details):

- Blind or partially sighted students would not be able to understand text or visual sources without assistance.

- Students with diparesis of the arms could not easily complete a writing task unless they were able to write with their feet.
- Children from non-religious backgrounds may not be able to grasp the core message of sources with a religious context.
- Learners with limited reading skills would not be able to make sense of a textual source. The barrier here would therefore be the structure of the narrative.
- Children whose first language is not the language spoken in the classroom may have problems understanding technical terms.

The above-mentioned function of language for learning history is increasingly being researched and translated into practical approaches. In the context of inclusion, 'plain language' approaches have been used to create accessibility. To the extent that sign languages are full languages, approaches from bilingual history teaching (the two languages would be spoken and sign language) could also be used for inclusive teaching. However, only initial theoretical considerations have been made here (Barsch 2018b). Other possibilities include the above-mentioned use of AAC devices, picture cards and various forms of augmentative and alternative communication (Köhnen/Roos 2002).

Blind students or those with severe visual impairments, including motor visual impairments such as nystagmus, can now use a variety of technological devices to convert text into a form they can use. For visually impaired students, this can be as simple as increasing the size of print, using high contrast displays or using magnifying glasses. Sources may be read aloud or recorded. If they are provided electronically, screen reader software can do the job. Digital adaptive learning systems that offer individualisation through additional tasks, multimedia design and adaptability in terms of contrast, text size, etc. (for different learning groups) are also very promising (Schwabe 2020).

The situation is similar for Braille displays. Here, characters are translated into Braille and displayed on a haptic output device. However, the ability to read Braille is not widespread, even among blind and visually impaired people. In the meantime, redesigning image sources for accessibility is likely to prove difficult.

Students with (severe) physical disabilities – such as paralysis or limited arm movement – can also use many sophisticated assistive technologies. There are many systems that can be used to perform writing tasks without the need to move the arms. These include software that translates speech into written words, enlarged keyboards, keyboards with a perceptible frame around each letter, and many other things, such as computer systems that can be controlled by eye movements.

Creating accessibility is not a specific requirement of history teaching. Rather, it is important to consider it when planning inclusive teaching in general. Embedded in a universal design of learning (see the chapter on Lesson Planning above), accessibility can also be understood as not making special provision for individual learners, but providing a variety of access options for all learners in a group.

5. Five steps to inclusive history lesson planning

Planning an inclusive history lesson, in principle, follows the same fundamental steps as planning any other lesson (Oswalt 2016). However, inclusive teaching requires a more student-centred approach that accounts for diverse learning needs. This means creating individualized learning opportunities and considering how each student engages with historical content. Inclusive history education emphasizes the learner's unique questions, perspectives, and interpretations. One of its key challenges is the variety of 'languages' through which lesson content is communicated. While written language is dominant for most students and teachers, inclusive teaching must also incorporate oral communication and visual representations (e.g., images) to ensure accessibility (Smith 2010, 66). Smith outlines key strategies for overcoming learning barriers, particularly for students with special educational needs (ibid, 68):

- Learners' understanding of time should be developed through their daily routines, habits, and chronological patterns. At a basic level, this includes concepts such as times of day, weeks, and months.
- Learners should be encouraged to explore their personal histories and connect them to broader historical events.
- Learners should engage with various representations of the past to deepen their understanding of how people lived in different eras.
- A diverse range of sources and visual materials should support learners in forming well-founded interpretations of historical narratives.

Building on this, the following five guiding principles or steps can provide orientation for planning inclusive history education:

1. *Didactic diagnosis of students' initial learning situation:* Regardless of whether a classroom is inclusive or not, every student is unique. Differences exist in prior knowledge, skills, interests, motivation, and learning styles. To ensure effective teaching, it is crucial to assess students' individual approaches to history and the lesson topic. Key questions to consider include:
 - What historical competences do students already have?
 - What prior historical knowledge is available?
 - What are the individual strengths of each learner?
 - What are the objectives of the lesson?
 - What support strategies can help to achieve the objectives?
2. *Integrate ongoing diagnostic support and document learning progress:* Learning processes can be unpredictable, making it essential to remain flexible and adapt lesson plans when needed. Diagnostic tools should not only be used at the beginning and end of a teaching unit but should be integrated throughout the learning process. Continuous diagnostics help track students' progress and provide valuable insights for adjustments. Key questions for lesson planning include:
 - Which phases of the lesson are best suited for diagnostic support?
 - How can learning progress be recorded as objectively as possible?
 - What different tools (e.g., learning diaries, portfolios, competency grids) allow learners to document their development? Which tool is most suitable for which learner?
 - How can I ensure transparency regarding achieved and future learning goals for both students and colleagues?
3. *Involve learners in setting goals and learning objectives:* For effective learning, objectives must be clear and transparent – especially in inclusive settings, where differentiation is key. Actively involving learners in goal-setting fosters a sense of self-efficacy, enabling them to monitor their own progress. Goals should be structured in a step-by-step, comprehensible manner. Useful tools include:

- Individual development plans
 - Competency grid
 - Goal-setting agreements
4. *Design flexible learning units to accommodate diverse learning paths:* There is no single method for successfully teaching inclusive history. However, open-ended lesson designs that offer a variety of learning opportunities have proven effective in mixed-ability classrooms. Traditional differentiation through tiered materials (e.g., texts at three different levels of difficulty) can unintentionally limit learning by assigning students a fixed set of resources, restricting their potential (Smith 2010, 72). A more effective approach is to provide diverse materials that cater to different learning styles, allowing students to choose how they engage with the content. Project-based learning is particularly beneficial in inclusive history education, as it fosters autonomy and deeper engagement. At the same time, structured practice phases, repetition loops, and other reinforcing activities help consolidate learning. Key questions for lesson planning include:
- How can students' historical inquiries serve as a starting point for learning?
 - What common theme or core concept can structure the lesson?
 - How can aesthetic approaches be integrated into the lesson?
 - What support is needed to help students develop historical reasoning and storytelling skills?
 - What scaffolding techniques or plain language strategies can enhance comprehension?
 - How can learning materials be designed for universal accessibility and historical inquiry?
 - How can selected resources encourage historical storytelling?
 - How can structured practice phases be embedded in the lesson?
5. *Reflect on learning outcomes beyond content – focusing on strategies and progress:* Involving learners in setting learn-

ing objectives also means engaging them in assessing their achievements at the end of a unit. Reflection should go beyond content knowledge, encouraging students to analyse their learning strategies and evaluate whether they have answered their own questions about the subject matter. Key questions for this phase include:

- How can the documentation from steps 2 and 3 be used effectively?
- How can students' achievements be acknowledged in a meaningful way?
- How can future learning goals be set realistically?

The steps outlined here build on each other and often use overlapping tools. Diagnostic procedures not only accompany but also document learning progress (e.g., through repeated assessments in competency grids). The choice of materials should be based on learners' needs. For instance, if an initial diagnostic phase reveals that some students' ideas about the Middle Ages are heavily influenced by popular culture (e.g., 'pink princesses'), they should be provided with diverse materials – such as historical texts, images, and educational videos – that contrast their assumptions with academic perspectives. Meanwhile, students unfamiliar with the concept of the Middle Ages (or historical periods in general) may first need foundational work on historical terminology and chronology.

6. Exemplary lesson idea

Exemplary
lesson idea

The lesson plan presented here is not meant to replace individual lesson planning. Instead, it serves as an example of how the previously discussed principles can be applied within a project-based learning framework on ‘Exclusion Then and Now’. The overarching theme could be diversity or, more specifically, exclusion. The lessons are designed to explore the historical roots of contemporary racism, antisemitism, exclusion, and discrimination. This approach aligns with the principles of Universal Design for Learning (for detailed methodological guidance, see Kühberger/Barsch, 2020) and incorporates cooperative learning strategies discussed earlier. Various scaffolding techniques demonstrate how linguistic support can enhance instructional materials. The five planning steps for designing inclusive lessons, outlined at the beginning, serve as a guiding framework for this lesson plan.




Step one: diagnosing the initial learning situation

1. Diagnosing

Students bring their own everyday perspectives to historical phenomena. These prior understandings should be acknowledged and used as a foundation for lesson planning. By analyzing both historical sources and cultural representations, students can explore the contextual nature of historical knowledge, examine how the past shapes the present, and reflect on their own assumptions. A diverse range of materials – such as historical sources, cultural products (e.g., comics, apps, films, toys), and representations of the past – should be integrated into the classroom. These resources help students critically assess how historical knowledge is constructed and conveyed in different media.

In the lesson example provided here, the focus is on uncovering the historical origins of contemporary social ideas. Since the lesson structure accommodates individual learning paths, the working phase must remain flexible to address

students' questions and learning processes. At the start of the unit, the students' initial ideas about the topic should be collected and consolidated ('What do you understand by exclusion?', linguistically adapted to the respective group of learners). This can be done in the form of mind maps, short texts, audio recordings (for pupils with writing difficulties), simple lists or even pictures. As this stage focuses on capturing students' subjective perceptions, they should be given the opportunity to choose the best way for them to express their own ideas and knowledge. There is a diagnostic element to this stage which can provide further insight into what materials can be made available to learners at a later stage. If individual learners express that they have no concept of the question, basic information can be provided to help them fill the concept with content. Depending on the group of learners or the individual learner, providing different sources and representations at this stage may be supportive, although it is important to note that this may already imply a certain interpretation.

What do you understand by exclusion?	
Which is closest to your idea? Tick the box.	X
 <p>Boycott of Jewish shops in Hamburg, 1 April 1933</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 <p>National Civil Rights Museum. Sign from 1942.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>"Exclusion means that people or groups of people are excluded from certain things in society. This is usually done against the will of the excluded. Exclusion occurs, for example, when certain groups (women, people of colour or people with disabilities) have fewer opportunities in the labour market than other groups or ..."</p> <p>(Example for a factual text)</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>What else would you add?</p> <p>Write down, draw or record.</p>	

Tab. 19: Worksheet for diagnosing the initial learning situation.

Step two: Documenting the process and learning progress








2. Documenting

Learners should have the opportunity to develop their own questions about exclusion then and now, with guidance and access to a broad range of materials. This step – closely linked to step 3 – serves as an initial immersion into the topic. To support this process, the teacher provides diverse materials that help students identify areas of interest. Additionally, students are encouraged to conduct their own research using books and online resources. The goal is to formulate meaningful questions or specific topics of interest (e.g., ‘How racist was German colonialism?’). The teacher then organizes students into groups based on similar inquiries. At this stage, it is important to structure the research process, assign roles based on individual strengths, and establish both individual and group objectives. This ensures a smooth transition to the next step.

Step three: Tasks and objectives

3. Tasks and objectives

Students’ questions and research processes should be recorded in writing, for example, in learning diaries. Individual reflections on knowledge and progress can be structured using skill grids, which may also be incorporated into these diaries. For some learners, structured self-assessment sheets can provide additional guidance. These sheets, along with other forms of documentation, support the learning process by being progressively completed at different stages of the inquiry.

My self-assessment sheet			
I can explain what exclusion is.		This is how I check that my explanation is correct. I find this particularly helpful:	
Very safe	<input type="checkbox"/>	 Books	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safe	<input type="checkbox"/>	 Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>
Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	 Visual sources	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	 Text sources	<input type="checkbox"/>
			<input type="checkbox"/>
Here's how I check my knowledge:			
1.		<input type="checkbox"/>	
2.		<input type="checkbox"/>	
3.			
4.		<input type="checkbox"/>	
5.			
		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Did you learn anything new about exclusion through sources and representations? Tick the box.			
<input type="checkbox"/> a lot	<input type="checkbox"/> a little bit	<input type="checkbox"/> not very much	<input type="checkbox"/> nothing at all

Tab. 20: Self-assessment and planning sheet.

Once the objectives are formulated and documented, and the planned procedure is discussed, the teacher can establish different levels for students to support their work process by offering appropriate materials and tasks. Performance clusters can be created, but an individual development plan may also be used to provide more personalized guidance for some learners. In line with the principle of multiple pathways, students should not be restricted to materials within their designated cluster or be prevented from working towards their goals in different areas. The formulation of objectives serves primarily as a proactive tool to initiate the learning process. The teacher plays a guiding and advisory role throughout. There should also be flexibility, allowing students to request materials or media that may not be initially available (Table 22).

Step Four: Design lessons that are as open as possible and offer a variety of pathways


4. Open individual learning paths

Learners' own ideas and goals should be the foundation for exploration in the classroom. They should also be exposed to a variety of representations to compare their ideas against (Principle 1 of UDL). These representations can be tactile, visual, or textual, with the option to incorporate additional materials like videos and images. Students should have the opportunity to choose how they engage with the material (e.g., through writing, drawing, speaking, or recording). Sufficient time should be provided for them to explore these tactile, visual, and textual representations. The teacher should remain flexible and avoid imposing a specific method on the students (Principle 3). It is crucial to allow subject-specific learning at different levels without assigning fixed levels to individual students.

Common research objective: What forms of racism did exist in (European) society at the time of colonialism?		
Level	Goals	Specific support
Expansion stage II	Assessing the authenticity of sources; assessing the origin of both sources and representations; reflecting on one's own position; formulating historical judgments and valid interpretations; socio-political contextualisation of findings.	Self-assessment sheet; essay plan; "white sheets"
Extension level I	Recognise the place-specific nature of both sources and representations. Compare them with own ideas and social values.	Self-assessment sheet; essay plan
Basic level	Examine own ideas; recognise continuity and change in racism; reflect on social relevance/temporary relevance; formulate a historical judgement.	Self-assessment sheet; various sources and presentations; Worksheet: "Racism in Imperialism"; essay plan
Support level I	Reflection on own ideas; comparison with current representations and contemporary sources; orientation in time	Self-assessment sheet; worksheet "Racism in sources"; video "Racism today"; timeline
Support level II	Expressing one's own ideas about racism; or: expressing one's own ideas about colonialism; comparing one's own ideas with those of others	Self-assessment sheet; Worksheet: "This is what I understand by racism", language support; think-pair-share
Central level		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Text sources - Reconstruction drawings - Cartoons - Technical texts - Textbooks - Videos - Essay plan; audio recorder etc. to secure results - Worksheet "Racism in imperialism" - Worksheet "Racism in sources" - Timeline - Worksheet "This is what I mean by racism"

Tab. 21: Example competency grid.

Learners are encouraged to explore and evaluate the information presented, but the group should always be guided to reflect on their roles and keep the common goal in focus. This reflection often requires support from the teacher. To support the work process, various supplementary materials can be provided, such as self-assessment sheets or flashcards (e.g., genre card) (Kühberger & Windischbauer 2012, 66–69). Creating a variety of opportunities for action through different social formats is essential (Principle 2 of UDL). Learners should be given as much autonomy as possible. They should have access to a range of resources – such as sample solutions, reflective tasks, websites, and vocabulary sheets – to pursue their questions. Additionally, joint translations of factual texts, sources, or academic text excerpts into plain language (see chapter on plain language) can be used to support text comprehension. The helper system (see Chapter 4.2) can also be utilized to document interim results and assign tasks to faster learners.

Key terms related to racism	
Explain the terms from the factual text. You can write down, record or draw your explanations.	
Exclusion	
'Race'	
Colonialism	
Discrimination	
...	

Tab. 22: Example of vocabulary work.

Step five: Present and reflect on the results and the working process

5. Reflection

The presentation of results is highly valued, and learners should be given a range of options to choose from. For students who write, one possibility is to use an essay plan, such as the one based on Mierwald and Brauch (2015, 116)

(Figure 14). Other methods for documenting results include logs (including photo logs), posters, audio recordings, drawings, and more. During the presentation phase, the different representations introduced at the beginning of the lesson should be revisited and compared with the students' results. In this final reflection phase, both individual learning paths and group-specific approaches should be evaluated. Along with evaluating individual learning processes, it's crucial to analyze the conditions for success and the critical factors in group work. It is important to discuss with students whether the roles assigned at the beginning of the lesson were helpful for the working process. The self-assessment sheets filled out earlier can be re-examined during this phase.

Finally, it is essential to collect the results from the various groups to form a comprehensive answer to the initial question, for instance, by organizing an exhibition.

<p>How racist was society at the time of German colonialism?</p> <p>Write an essay. Use the outline and the key questions as a guide.</p>
<p>Introduction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What ideas did I myself have about racism? What did I already know? - What sources and representations have I studied (texts, cartoons, videos, photos)? - How did I evaluate the materials? - How did I plan my learning path? <p>Sentence starters: "I imagined racism as ..."; "The material I studied is ..."; "I found that ..."; "At first I ..."</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p>
<p>Description of the working process</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How did you go about it? - Where did you get the information? - What information did you gather? - How did you decide which information was important and which was unimportant? <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p>
<p>Outcome</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are the characteristics of racism in the colonial era? - How sure are you of your findings? - What is your strongest argument? What are you completely convinced of? - Where do you still have doubts? <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p>
<p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do your findings apply to the whole of the colonial period? - To which period do they apply? - For which region? - Are the results still valid today? <p>Formulation aids: "On the one hand ..., on the other hand ..."; "Although ..., but ..."</p>

Fig. 9: Essay plan (based on Mierwald/ Brauch 2015).

7. Looking ahead

The example provided here is just one suggestion. A more tailored approach can only be developed based on the unique characteristics of the specific learner group. Therefore, it represents only one potential method for fostering collaborative historical learning in open teaching formats. In practice, there will always be various approaches. However, it can be stated that the teacher's reflective role is essential in planning inclusive history education. Not only must methods be analysed to determine which learning pathways facilitate subjective processes of historical appropriation, but the overall approach to history teaching also needs continuous reflection: Which stories are suitable for whom to enable meaningful historical understanding? This question must be reconsidered each time. The importance of history teachers in shaping curricula within their schools, with inclusive perspectives in mind, has grown significantly. Interdisciplinarity and multi-professional collaboration, often advocated for, are also crucial for successful lesson planning – although the conditions in schools may not always support this ideal. For history education, inclusion also provides the opportunity to design lessons that truly engage learners, motivating them to explore and understand the past.

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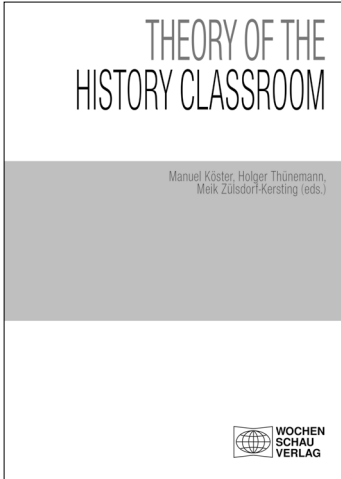
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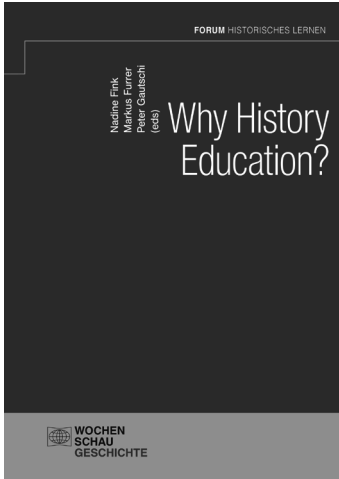




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Sebastian Barsch
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