Travel Documents

Security Features, Production Technologies and Examination

Training Manual and Curricula

This project is funded by the European Union.

ICMPD International Centre for Migration Policy Development

MOBILAZE project is implemented in Azerbaijan by the International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD)
This publication was prepared within the EU-funded “Support to the Implementation of the Mobility Partnership with Azerbaijan” (MOBILAZE) project as a preparatory and background manual for law enforcement trainers delivering lectures on document security, as well as a support tool for other lectures delivered on subjects related to migration and border management.

All three authors, Zuzana Armutidisova (Czech Republic), Monika Weber (ICMPD Project Manager), and (in the supervisory role) Violeta Wagner (ICMPD Senior Project Manager), have extensive experience in capacity building activities in different migration issues for governmental institutions of both EU and non-EU countries. The authors would like to acknowledge the contribution of the partner institutions in Azerbaijan for their support in development and publication of this manual, especially that which was provided by the representatives from the State Border and State Migration Services.

This Training Manual and Curricula was created to clarify the principles and effective practices and methodology in the field of training on, but not limited to, document security for trainers of the State Border and State Migration Services of the Republic of Azerbaijan and other law enforcement agencies involved in border management. It has been designed to provide you with instructions on how to become a good trainer. However, one becomes a good trainer only by active participation in regular capacity building activities within their particular profession. In the manual, pedagogical competencies or andragogic experience are often referred to, because no piece of paper or certificate can make an employee into a trainer.

Of course, this pedagogical or andragogic activity cannot be learned from a book. Without the willingness and will to practice training, recall examples, apply knowledge in practice, and enjoy working with people, the development of one’s pedagogical competencies cannot be expected. This text and curricula are just supportive, accompanying material that will make your efforts easier.

The present textbook is a supporting tool for professional teaching at the border/migration training centres, including advanced and qualification raising trainings, and self-learning. However, for an even higher performance with regard to document security, it is recommended to use this manual in combination with the Textbook and Distanced Learning E-tool which has been produced in the framework of the MOBILAZE project.

ICMPD and the project partners wish the best of success in effective education to the national trainers in Azerbaijan, who have been trained in the framework of this project by international EU partner trainers through knowledge sharing, training of trainers, workshops, pilot international training, supported national training, study visits to EU Member States and other project activities.

ICMPD and the project team, led by Ms. Violeta Wagner, ICMPD Senior Project Manager, would like to express their gratitude to the State Border Guard and the State Migration Service of the Republic of Azerbaijan, as well as to the authors, for the development of this manual and for their active participation in the project and wish the reader good luck in strengthening capacity in the field of capacity building activities on the subject of document security.

1 “Andragogy” refers to methods and principles used in adult education, whereas “pedagogy” literally refers to children education.
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Introduction

This publication was prepared in the framework of the EU-funded “Support to the Implementation of the Mobility Partnership with Azerbaijan” (MOBILAZE) project as a preparatory and background manual for law enforcement trainers delivering lectures on document security, as well as a support tool for delivering lectures on related subjects.

MOBILAZE project implementation started on 15 January 2016, and will last 36 months. The project partners from Azerbaijan include the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the State Migration Service, the State Border Service and the State Border Service Academy, the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, the Ministry of Education, and Baku State University.

The partners from the EU Member States represent the following institutions: the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria, the Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, the Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Latvia, the Migration Department under the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania, the State Border Guard Service under the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania, the Immigration and Naturalisation Service of the Ministry of Security and Justice of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Repatriation and Departure Service of the Ministry of Security and Justice of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Ministry of Interior and Administration of the Republic of Poland, and the Migration Office of the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic.

The present manual is part of the complex approach to further enhancement of the knowledge base on document security in Azerbaijan which has been applied during the abovementioned EU-funded MOBILAZE project, and, in particular, within Component 3 of the project dedicated to document security. This manual should be used in combination with the textbook on document security produced within the project: in this way, the textbook will provide the necessary content for the training, and this manual will support the trainer in achieving the learning outcomes in the most efficient way.

All the recommendations and suggestions contained herein are verified by years of pedagogical practice involving the participation of several thousand participants from different types of police, border guard and other governmental institutions.

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3 In the present manual, learners in the area of practical training will be referred to as “education participants” or simply “participants”, though the terms “learner”, “student”, etc. are also applicable and correct.
The trainers become successful thanks to the effective educational methodology: this fact has been proven by evaluations and analyses through the feedback and opinions of professionals, who have evaluated their education after many years of experience. The instructors may differ, but the effective ways of teaching and learning remain the same.

The manual assumes that its users have passed at least the basic trainer’s education programmes, as well having the necessary professional competencies in the field of document security. Whatever the case may be, this manual is not a substitute for comprehensive pedagogical literature; it rather represents a useful supplementary tool.

An efficient process developing the skills of each trainee is not possible without permanent interaction with both the working and the non-working environment, and the conflict between the two. Both education and day-to-day work in the different services of border management and migration agencies are made up of very variable and creative activities and processes in which the trainees actively sort and place new information and experience in the already existing systems and structures.

The process of acquisition of practical skills and experience by new employees usually takes place in the course of their practical professional work, after they have obtained theoretical knowledge at an educational institution. Education conceived this way has the disadvantage of a random sequence of situations and possible content inconsistency. However, superiors, colleagues, and society in general expect immediate and full professionalism from each state official in all situations.

Therefore, the most effective practice is to organise a systematic training for new employees which is delivered directly by experts/professionals from the real praxis. This in turn requires these trainers to have a high level of qualification: they have to combine their professional excellence and experience with competences in communication, pedagogy, and psychology; be highly motivated, possess psychological endurance, excellent communication skills, and the ability to manage themselves and others; be able to literally constantly communicate; and, last, but not least, must combine daily duties and training lectures.

Communication is seen as a critical part of the management and learning processes. However, those who extend their professional portfolio by exhibiting teaching skills confirm their professionalism, get promoted in the organisation hierarchy, actively capitalise on their experience and increase their resistance to potential job burnout.5

The reason for this publication is therefore purely pragmatic - to provide a simple guide to effective transfer of knowledge and skills for current and future trainers in the field of document security.

This manual is based on the so-called “PRESENTATION MATRIX”, which forms a clearly defined, verified, and functional structure for each training, lecture, presentation, interview, or meeting.

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4 Throughout this text, educators in the area of practical training will be referred to as the “trainers”, even though the terms “educators”, “instructors”, “teachers”, etc. would also be perfectly acceptable.

5 Burnout syndrome threatens especially those who work in the caring professions and professions in which the employee often has to act with the client from a position of power.
The term “matrix” has been given to the structure described by the participants in a series of courses in technically-oriented companies. The trainer can concentrate on specific expertise and use the matrix to create an effective educational module\(^6\) - i.e. to give as much information as possible in the shortest time, in a way that will demonstrably help those being educated to gain the necessary knowledge, skills, and habits, making them sufficiently resilient to forgetting these during practice. This matrix can also be used to present case studies.

The “PRESENTATION MATRIX” consists of a simple, classical presentation structure and therefore can be easily adapted by the trainers. They don’t feel that they have to learn something new but simply follow organically the structure of the lecture.

Each lecture has an introduction, a main part, and a conclusion; therefore, for a trainer, it is only necessary to identify the individual phases and apply their own expertise to the main part of the matrix.

Finally, this manual also offers sample training curricula based on the *Travel Documents: Security Features, Production Technologies and Examination/Textbook for State Officials of the Republic of Azerbaijan* mentioned above.

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\(^6\) During the course of this text, the effective training module will be referred to as the “training”, even though the terms “presentation”, “lecture”, “class”, “course”, “lesson”, etc. are all applicable and correct.
Unit 1: Introductory Session

This unit is dedicated to the introductory part of the training, including tips for the trainer on verbal and non-verbal communication during the greeting part of the session, organisational issues, training objectives and on how to motivate students.

I. INTRODUCTORY SESSION

Part 1:
- Greeting and Introduction
- Organisational Issues

Part 2:
- OBJECTIVE
  - teaching units/education
- MOTIVATION
- STRUCTURE:
  1) .....  
  2) .....  
  3) .....  
- CONNECTION

Presentation Matrix

In this way, the present manual follows the structure of the “presentation matrix” and consists of the following parts:
Unit 2: Main Session
This unit covers the main elements of the educational process. As is well
known, adult education has specific features, and this unit is dedicated to
describing the most essential issues related to the teaching process, including
psychological aspects of adult education, forms and methods of teaching, and
the importance of feedback.

II. MAIN SESSION

Thematic Part 1:
1.1. ..... 1.2. ..... 1.3. ..... 

Thematic Part 2:
2.1. ..... 2.2. ..... 2.3. ..... 

Thematic Part 3:
3.1. ..... 3.2. ..... 3.3. ..... 

Unit 3: Concluding Session
This unit overviews the process of summarising the training, provides important
tips on how to organise the discussion session, as well as introduces the process of
remotivation in order to keep trainees motivated to continue the training process.

III. CONCLUDING SESSION

Part 1:
Summary of the Lesson Content
Discussion/Questions
Remotivation

Part 2:
Goodbye

Unit 4: Sample Curricula
The manual is completed by the sample curricula,
which can be used by a trainer to provide training
specifically on document security. In this way the
manual represents a complete training guide for
document security experts.
Unit 1: Introductory Session

I. INTRODUCTORY SESSION

Part 1:
- Greeting and Introduction
- Organisational Issues

Part 2:
- OBJECTIVE: teaching units/education
- MOTIVATION
- STRUCTURE:
  1) ..... 
  2) ..... 
  3) ..... 
- CONNECTION
The time allocation for the introductory session of the training amounts to a maximum of 10% of the total overall time designated for the course or lesson. This important session which sets the tone for the entire training should at a minimum include a greeting and an introduction, cover training organisational issues, as in part 1 of the introductory session, and explain the training objectives, as well as motivate the students to start (or continue) the learning process in part 2.

1.1. Part 1 of the Introductory Session

1.1.1. Greeting and Introduction

Every social interaction begins with mutual greeting or assurance that the communication partners acknowledge each other’s presence.

Form of Greeting

The form of greeting to be used corresponds to:

- the type of situation - e.g. whether it is the first meeting, a meeting of friends, a subsequent lesson, etc.
- local culture - shaking hands, beckoning, bowing, etc.
- the level of interaction - meeting of friends, with a superior or subordinate, at a sporting event, etc.

The communication situation gives the trainer only a very short moment to inspire interest and sympathy in the participants. It is the greeting that gives the trainer a unique opportunity to do this. Even if the trainer has already met the participants individually before starting the lesson, they must greet everyone again at the beginning of the training.

The greeting should be pronounced calmly, with a voice much more dominant and slower than the standard. The participants will get the chance to get used to the voice and intonation of the lecturer.
If it is the first lesson that is being begun, the lecturer will greet according to the prevailing customs and cultural formulas. If it is a follow-up lesson, the situation described is the same. The difference is in the content part of the greeting. The following types of formulations can be used:

“Welcome back after the break…”
“Thank you for coming back so that we can continue…”
“I would like to ask you for your attention”, etc.

**Non-verbal Communication during the Greeting**

Even when we do not talk, we send signals to those present through non-verbal communicational channels: the way we move (or do not move), stand, look at participants, etc. Non-verbal communication during the introductory session is very important because often participants do not know the trainer and may get the wrong impression, which would influence the entire training later on.

It is recommended to keep your **body posture** upright, with your arms alongside the body or slightly bent at the elbows. This posture looks natural, non-aggressive, and determined. A stable posture is also a guarantee of correct **phonation** and prevention against any potential stress or stage fright - both feet rest on the floor with their entire surface, the hands are slightly in front of the body.

**Gestures** should be kept to a minimum at the beginning. Gradually, gestures can be allowed to occur naturally.

**Eye contact** precedes verbal expression. The trainer’s gaze should rests on each participant in turn, if the number of participants in the group allows for this. If the number is too large, the trainer’s gaze should move along the centre of the audience, from left to right. This way the trainer gets the attention of those present. When the trainer is sure they are being watched by all, they should speak and greet.

At the beginning, it is good strategy to enter the pedagogical event in a neutral **manner** - without any notable expressions of emotion. If the situation evolves according to the trainer’s ideas, this neutral stance can be lessened and positive development of interaction encouraged. If the coach has reservations towards the work or interaction with the group, the emphasis may be increased to demonstrate their level of dissatisfaction.

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7 **Phonation** (from the Greek “fóné”, voice, sound) is the process of making sound in the vocal cords or throughout the larynx. Air from the lungs passes through the vocal cords and larynx and is further modulated by the tongue, lips, etc.
The Gift of a Smile

1. It doesn’t cost anything and it can do a lot.
2. It enriches the person we smile at, but we don’t lose anything.
3. It takes only a moment, but the memory of it will last.
4. It is the real antidote that nature has reserved for us.
5. It is contagious. Smile at the person who refuses to smile.

A smile has an irreplaceable position in interpersonal communication. There is a whole range of smiles, from a slight lifting of the corners of the mouth to one of intense laughter. A smile helps to create a non-threatening atmosphere. It encourages, motivates, and is an anti-stress factor. Smile at your participants during the greeting. Use the smile that matches your personality.

Atmosphere

The atmosphere within the group depends on many factors; location of the event, the subjects presented, the number of and general profile of participants, climatic conditions, time, etc. The trainer has only a minor ability to influence these factors. But what they have to influence if they want to achieve andragogic success is rapid cognition of the audience and the dynamics of the group. An experienced professional immediately senses if there is a disturbing element within the group. It is not about focusing on an individual that disturbs the atmosphere, but about eliminating their negative manifestations, not giving the others a chance to become infected by their negative attitude. This can be achieved already during the greeting.

At one prestigious school, research was carried out aimed at the influence of a positive atmosphere on learning. Students were divided into two groups. One was led by a very impersonal, uncomfortable, pessimistic, but benevolent teacher, and the other one by a friendly, positive, but tough teacher. The students in the first group showed much worse results and little interest in the curriculum. In the second group, healthy competition for the best results arose, and even students with average grades improved their performance.
**Trainer Introduction**

Everyone who faces the auditorium has a social duty to introduce themselves. The trainer always presents themselves first. This gives the participants an example of what an introduction should look and partially removes any fear they may have about introducing themselves.

Participants often know the trainer’s name from the accompanying materials or previous trainings. However, the opportunity to pronounce one’s own name is irreplaceable. An individual’s name is closely related to their personality. Everyone identifies with their own name, likes it, and answers to it. Therefore, when we pronounce our name, we subconsciously pronounce it in a friendly tone of voice and at a slow tempo.

**Introduction Principles**

Recommended Introduction Principles:

- The trainer introduces themselves with their **full name, rank or title, and professional classification**.
- The trainer will also **display their name in written form** – write or project it, etc.
- Even if the trainer knows the participants, it is still important not to forget to introduce and pronounce their own name. If there is even only one participant in the group who does not know the trainer, it is necessary to make a full introduction.
- **Information on how the trainer should be addressed** is also part of the introduction.
- A personal introduction may also include information of a personal nature. It is not about impressing the others with the trainer’s lifestyle or success, but rather about getting closer to the participants. **Whatever the trainer wants to or can tell about their private life is up to the individual, but this communication should not eclipse the relevant professional information about the coach.**
- It is also possible to **let someone else introduce the trainer**. Alternatively, if there are more than one trainers participating in the training, they can present each other. Thus, they present their teamwork to the participants.
- If everyone knows one another and one person is in the role of trainer, it is also considered an introduction to state why this is so. The trainer will also state their name or explain why they have been delegated as trainer, or what authority they have been given to inform the others - e.g. a post at a meeting.
Human personality is made up of three interrelated spheres of life. The first sphere includes one’s professional life - the field from which one has graduated, number of years of practice, job classification, etc. The second sphere is related to one’s personal life - marital status, lifestyle, opinions, attitudes, etc. The third sphere includes their way of spending leisure time - sporting and cultural activities, involvement in socially beneficial activities, etc. From each sphere, one or two details can be picked out and presented to the participants during the self-presentation. They will then perceive the trainer as a partner rather than as an incompetent authority. This fact will be reflected in the further development of the educational event. The participants can then introduce themselves in the same way.

### Participant Introduction

The participants should introduce themselves immediately after the trainer’s introduction. All of them are actively involved in the event from the beginning. The information they communicate is up to them, but it should include information regarding professional engagement.

For the trainer, it is an irreplaceable opportunity to:

- **verify** the participants’ communication skills
- **memorise the names and match them with the faces** - essential for addressing the participants, and also for when the trainer is evaluating their performance after the course
- test the attitude of the group
- involve the participants in the lessons
- establish a relationship with (and between) the participants
- establish a friendly atmosphere - to talk about oneself means to talk about what we know, have no worries about failing, and be spontaneous
- find out what experiences the participants have with the topic - we should adapt the course and the lessons to a specific level of understanding
- reveal what expectations the participants have and whether their ideas match the content and assignment of the course

### Time Allocation for the Introduction

Performing the introduction requires a certain amount of time from the total time allocation. Depending on the length of the course, we should adjust the time spent on getting to know one other. If it is a several-hour course, it will be very brief. If it is a several-day meeting it may take an hour or two. However, this time investment will pay off in creating a friendly atmosphere.
Methods of Introduction

There are many ways participants can introduce themselves:

- plain presentation
- using games and tests of intuition\(^9\)
- energiser, icebreaker, bang
- presentation enriched with pictures, photos or in a comic way
- free or structured “round” - gradual, spontaneous or organised giving of the floor
- interview
- motion techniques - movements in the room based on the initial letter of each participant’s name, their height, nationality, etc.

Name Tags and Addressing

The introduction may include the method where participants write their name on the prepared name tags. Even so, it is recommended to ask for the correct pronunciation of the name or the possibility of addressing the participant in a shorter or simpler way.

How will the participants address each other and how will they be addressed by the trainer? There are several options:

- The trainer has a list of the participants’ names, addresses them by their full name or surname, and so it is not necessary to deal with this matter at all.
- For certain types of training events, the organisers of the training will prepare business cards and name tags in advance on behalf of the participants. If they place them on the tables, it will facilitate the sitting order.
- The participants write their name tags themselves, indicating the name in the form they wish to be addressed. This option is creative and irreplaceable. The participants are usually glad to be actively involved, because they have the ability to creatively express themselves, use different colours, fonts, or add symbols. Typically, they are written in a larger font than printed name tags, so they are also legible to the other participants. They provide the opportunity to address another member of the group, no matter how far away they are sitting. In addition, the trainer can ask everyone to say their own name. This avoids the embarrassing situation associated with mispronunciation of a name.

\(^9\) For example, the trainer prepares interesting information about themselves, including incorrect variants. The participants guess which are the correct variants.
A combination of both the printed and self-written name tag options can also be used.

Getting familiar with one another can also take the form of a game or the simple self-presentation of each person. This option has the advantage that the trainer, based on a short and spontaneous speech from each participant, develops their own opinion about the person and each participant’s level of understanding. This activity will often help introverted individuals to overcome their shyness and barriers.

A participant at a training session where the option to allow the participants to write their own name tags was chosen chose the name “sahib”\(^{11}\). Even names such “Queen of Sheba”, “His Beatitude”, etc. are not uncommon. If the trainer willingly assigns the task, they must accept the wishes of the participant. However, the question is whether the participant really answers to such a designation. Usually, this situation ends by appreciating the sense of humour and the name tag is rewritten using the more usual and common option - the participant’s actual name. However, the trainer should be ready to face such a situation, if s/he proposes this introduction option!

The first name and surname in their basic form are equal. Thus, both can be used in the polite form of address, if this form is accepted in the given language of instruction. Diminutives or simplified versions of the name may only be used by the lecturer, but only if the participant consents to them doing so, and if they are already on first name terms. The addressing agreement is usually limited to the duration of the training. The question of how to address each other can also be solved when the trainer is mentioning how they wish to be addressed.

The participants’ introduction of themselves is an essential part of the training. If we want to use it as an activation method or to create a friendly atmosphere, it is better to include it after the organisational issues have been addressed.

If other people are present at the training - e.g. an interpreter, an observer, media representatives, the trainer will introduce these people and only informally.

\(^{10}\) An introvert is a person who concentrates the majority of their interest on their internal life, such people tend to be more reserved.

\(^{11}\) In Arabic: holder, master, owner.
1.1.2. Organisational Issues

Organisation of the course is a very important factor for the participants. Therefore, it is that the participants get acquainted with the organisational aspects right at the beginning.

Each participant enters the training session with their own expectations. In addition to their concepts of what the training will bring to their professional life, often before the beginning they are stressed by the fact that they have to solve something outside the andragogic activity; someone needs to leave before the end, someone is expecting an urgent phone, someone is solving the way his travel allocation will be paid, someone needs to satisfy other needs. If each participant receives a response to his or her need without having to ask, the trainer will lower the subconscious stress and relieve the possible tension involved.

What the Participants should know

The possible needs can be sorted into the following points:

- **Breaks** - how the training schedule is organised, duration and number of breaks, means of and place for spending breaks, and, potentially, the possibility to smoke and the designated place for this.

- **Expected end** - the set end time, as scheduled or set by the trainer, must be respected!

- **Mobile phone and laptop use, options and modes allowed** - whether the participants can use such equipment and under what conditions.

- **(Im)possibility of connecting to the Internet/Wi-Fi**, including connectivity during breaks.

- **Refreshment** - drinking regimen, small snacks during lessons or just during breaks, own snacks, coffee breaks, etc.

- **Questions** - when it is possible to ask questions, in what way and form, and whether questions are expected.

No question is stupid, there are just stupid answers. This rule accompanies many seminars and its purpose is to motivate participants to ask questions. Most trainers highlight this at the beginning, among the organisational matters. It is not so crucial where the trainer mentions it, but it should be made clear that participants have the right to ask questions and receive answers.

The trainer has the right to determine how this activity will be carried out. Some encourage participants to ask immediately if there is anything which is unclear. Others prefer to keep questions for the end. Some trainers may even want a written version of the question, whilst on the other end of the spectrum there are trainers who won’t be afraid to open discussion with their audience.
- **Timekeeping and adherence to the rules** agreed to by all participants.
- **Safety, comfortable conditions, such as air conditioning, etc.**
- **Space for questions regarding training organisation.**

Due to the specific focus of the training, other organisational issues may arise. This is a question of the trainer’s experience, the specifics of the training at hand, the profile of the participants, etc. However, the above points should normally be included and explained.

To ensure the course’s smooth progress, the organisational rules can be written (or drawn) and placed in the classroom so that the participants can keep them within sight, both physically and in mind. The trainer can also develop a checklist in order to make sure they always include all important aspects related to training organisation.
1.2. Part 2 of the Introductory Session

Overview of Teaching Units/Education

The previously described activity of the trainer is only preparation for the educational process. The preparation, if done honestly and consciously, will facilitate the subsequent andragogic activity.

At the beginning of each educational activity, we should keep in mind OMSC. It is an acronym created from the first letter of each factor influencing the presentation:

- **O**bjective
- **M**otivation
- **S**tructure
- **C**onnection

1.2.1. Objective

We understand the **objective** as an **ideal idea** of the expected **results** to be achieved during the education session, or as the changes it will bring about. The objective is an important andragogic category that deserves attention.

In order for the trainer to set the objectives correctly, they must know the answers to these crucial questions:

- What should be the result of my lecture/lesson/presentation?
- What changes do I want to achieve?
- How are the participants and their minds going to be changed, what will develop, and in what respect are their professional level and readiness to act going to increase?
- Are the set objectives achievable, with respect to the participants’ level of understanding, time allocation, and the selected forms and methods?
- How can I verify my objectives?
“Just like any other human activity, the andragogic activity of the teacher and pupils in the classroom must also have its objective” - John Amos Comenius

Specific Objectives

Defining specific goals means knowing what the participants should get:

- knowledge and intellectual skills
- skills to coordinate self-control
- new attitudes

Specific educational objectives can be sorted into three areas:

- **Cognitive** (educational, cognitive) - acquisition of knowledge and intellectual skills (knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation assessment) - achievement of this objective can be verified by a test, discussion, etc.

- **Affective** (attitudinal, value) - adopting of attitudes, formation of value orientation (sensitivity, reactions, evaluation, integration of values) - their achievement cannot be guaranteed, but must be pursued.

- **Psychomotor** (training) - acquisition of psychomotor skills (speech, writing, tool manipulation, imitation, refinement, coordination, automation) - achievement of this objective can be verified by practical examination, demonstration, simulation, etc.

The overall objective is equally important for the trainer as for the participants. Therefore, the trainer should inform the participants about the set objectives. The path to achieving them is then easier.

The overall objective can be properly determined only in relation and with regard to motivation, target group and topic.

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12 John Amos Comenius (1592-1670) - renowned Czech philosopher and pedagogue, called the "The Teacher of Nations".
Purpose of the Objective

The andragogic success of trainers calls into question the opinion that setting an objective is an unnecessary complication in terms of organisation and time. Indeed, the opposite is true.

If the objective is not precisely defined, there is a risk that, for example, regular questioning from the audience will divert the course of the lecture or demonstration. The time allocation is unmerciful and any deviation from the set objective backfires on the trainer, because they will then fail to explain the planned curriculum.

However, as a rule, the trainer does not act alone within the educational process. If their colleagues, who have a set educational objective, adhere to a prescribed amount of the curriculum, the trainer puts the participants at risk of breaking up the flow of information and disturbing its continuity.

If this is repeated, the entire education session will lose its continuity. All that needs to be done in order to avoid this is to just set the objective correctly.

There are several reasons why the trainer works with teaching objectives:

- It is necessary to know what should be reached within the education and choose the path to achieving this.
- For effective review and evaluation of the teaching results, it is essential to set unambiguous and controllable objectives.
- A suitably adjusted learning objective significantly influences the learning activities of the participants; they learn better if they know specific objectives and identify with the performance requirements.

Errors in Determining the Objective

The most frequent mistakes include objectives which are:

- identified with the topic of the lesson
- interchanged with the description of the trainer’s activities
- determined in a way that allows different interpretations
- determined too generally and with no set conditions, quality, or other criteria for assessing participant performance
Making the Objective concrete

If we think about what we mean by an objective that achieves andragogic efficiency, we may think of the word “concrete”. It is indeed difficult to define the content of such a training. You could surely think of many other examples, here is just one:

Concrete means representing something graspable, perceptible by the senses, spatially and time-specific, individual (the opposite of abstract); specific (the opposite of general); naming a person, animal, or thing, having a physical meaning.

People understand the abstract on the basis of their own experience. Try to answer the question: What’s the ideal security feature of a passport? Ask this question to your colleagues. You will get as many answers as you have colleagues. The ideal security feature is an abstract concept. The answer - guilloches, optical variable ink, see-through register, etc. is concrete. Everyone responds according to their priorities, what is possible, and their own particular experience.

In order for the participants to understand the set objective, they must receive an exhaustive, concrete description of the changes that will occur after completing the lesson. The simplest way to correctly define the objective is to use active verbs, for example:

The participant will learn that the objective of the lesson is to specify the security features of travel documents. At the end of the lesson, it is then possible to verify whether the objective has been achieved.

Setting the objective is therefore also important in the evaluation process. If the objective has not been achieved, all relevant factors should be considered or the objective changed for the next training. Setting the target properly requires high intellectual involvement on the part of the trainer, andragogic erudition, and competence.

The objective is clearly motivating during the training of participants. The way the trainer formulates the objectives of the activity and organises the training provides the participants with the opportunity for an active and independent approach. This is an ideal andragogic state.

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13 To determine the objectives, the taxonomies of Dave, Krathwohl, Simpson or Bloom can be used.
14 To specify is a typical verb of the “ANALYSIS” taxonomical category.
15 We can verify whether the objective has been reached by way of, for example, a test, exam, inquiring questions, etc.
16 Achieving the objective is influenced by the target group of participants, their level of input and number, motivation, choice of methods, forms, time allocation, etc.
1.2.2. Motivation

“Success isn’t a result of spontaneous combustion. You must set yourself on fire!”
- Arnold H. Glasgow

If we have prioritised the objective before the motivation in the text above, it does not actually mean it is of predominant significance. On the overall scale, both these factors equally influence the effectiveness of the education. While the trainer must involve more rational thinking in determining the objective, emotional intelligence and psychological aspects are also important in seeking to motivate. A motivated participant learns better, faster, and more willingly.

The trainer then has an easy job. However, it is necessary to keep in mind the target group as a whole as well as the set of individualities, the level of understanding, the time allocation for the educational unit and the set objective. If the time allocation for reaching the objective is too large, motivation amongst a group of beginners will rapidly decline. If the time allocation is inadequately small, the motivation will have no meaning.

If you want to learn how to perform a document check at the seconded expert level, giving yourself a timeframe of 10 days, the likelihood that your determination will last is small. If you give yourself a timeframe of 14 days, it’s obvious that you cannot handle it and you will therefore not even start.

17 Arnold Henry Glasgow (1905 - 1998), American businessman and humourist.
Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

To determine the motivation, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs can be used very successfully, even though it is currently subject to critical revision.

Abraham Harold Maslow conducted research to find out what motivates people, depending on the development of their personality. He simplified the results of already existing research on the list of needs and desires that people want to fulfil:

- **overlap:** helping others to realise their potential (top level)
- **self-actualisation:** fulfilling one’s own potential, self-realisation
- **aesthetics:** symmetry, order, beauty, balance
- **learning:** knowledge, understanding, context awareness
- **respect:** need for recognition, acceptance, independence, position
- **sense of belonging:** love, family, friends, feeling
- **need for safety:** protection, security, stability
- **physical needs:** hunger, thirst, bodily comfort (lowest level)

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs ranks human needs by order of importance. The most important and therefore the most basic needs are on the lowest level. The most basic needs include the needs that ensure one’s survival and that of the human race - the need to eat, drink, and reproduce. If these needs are met, one begins to feel the need to meet the needs at another, higher level - for example, having work and a home, being healthy.

The logic of Maslow’s disaggregation of needs is that a **person first satisfies the basic needs and, if satisfied, moves to meet the needs on the higher levels of the pyramid**. This means that, for example, a starving person will not care for the beauty of a painting, nor whether the people around them appreciate their personal qualities, and probably not even whether the air they breathe is clean enough. Only when the person has eaten enough will they be able to perceive or fulfil their higher needs. We satisfy our higher needs only when all the basic needs at the lower levels of the pyramid, corresponding with the maturity of the individual’s personality, are met.

As already mentioned, this hierarchy may not be ideal, however, it can still be used as a schematic model for determining the motivation for educational purposes as described below.

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18 We can divide our needs into five basic areas, which are hierarchically organised into the so-called “hierarchy of needs”. This hierarchy was invented by the American psychologist Abraham Harold Maslow in 1954. Nowadays, some of modern teaching methods add to the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs also mobile phone with full battery and network connection including data.
The Hierarchy of Needs in the Educational Process

If we project the hierarchy of needs onto the motivation of the participant in the educational process, we will get some idea of their potential. Their basic needs and their satisfaction in the context of education have already been solved in the “organisation” section. People need to know when there will be a break and how long it will last, when and under what conditions they can refresh themselves, etc. If the participants are cold or hot, tired or weary, or if they need to use the toilet, but also if they expect an urgent phone call, or are afraid of a failing in their expertise, etc., their attention and motivation toward their education will be reduced.¹⁹

The next level of the hierarchy/pyramid of needs includes the need for a feeling of peace and security. For the trainer, this means ensuring a non-threatening atmosphere during the training. They mustn’t worry; they should enjoy the opportunity to develop their competences through education. People are often afraid of what they do not know. If the trainer precludes fear of tests, exams, lessons, etc. by specifying exactly when and how the testing will take place, they will ingratiate themselves with the participants.

The next level in the pyramid of needs includes the need to belong. Each participant and trainer plays their own social role ²⁰ and expected behaviour. The trainer is expected to behave in the context of their professional competencies - expert, objective assessor, morally stable person, etc. In addition, the participants form a purposefully or spontaneously formed group that creates distinctive interactions. Respecting some or, alternatively, suppressing others, may help raise the level of cooperation for all participants, if the right choice is made.

One trainee often asks questions without being called upon to do so, regardless of others, and often without reason. As a result, others are disturbed while the trainer responds to the trainee. It forces the trainer to constantly review, repeating what has already been said, and his lecture loses its tension and becomes less interesting. In the next lesson, the trainer specifies the conditions for questions. This way he will satisfy everyone’s needs.

If the trainer treats one of the participants unethically, all the participants may spontaneously strike against them, even if it concerns a problematic participant. Most people have the need to belong to a group greater than oneself, to be part of something important. A sense of belonging to a group significantly influences the individual’s sense of worth: their “subjective position” is reflected in their objective position within the group.

¹⁹ These examples are general and valid unless the participants are being intentionally exposed to difficult training conditions such as cold, heat, stress, etc.
²⁰ A social role is an expected way of behaviour, which is related to a certain social status. Each person plays more than one role, both independently (e.g. student at school, customer in a shop, employee at work), and simultaneously (e.g. father and husband in a family).
The trainer’s relationship with the group is usually positively influenced by both parties addressing each other using the appropriate form and through the time invested in the voluntary self-presentation of each member of the group at the beginning of the training.

The need for recognition and respect can be realised very easily, even though we would expect, since it belongs to the topmost position in the pyramid, some complicated psychological, social, or andragogic behaviour. Positive encouragement, praise, appreciation of effort and interest, and recognition of progress are important and easy factors. The trainer should find time and situations to praise their trainees!

What would you answer to the question: Is it possible to overpraise a person?

If your answer is: NO, you are a positive person and the type of trainer who can motivate.

If your answer is: YES, keep reading.

Nobody is ever doing anything completely wrong. They who are not doing well need twice as much praise or encouragement. If we give praise for a specific activity and follow the three-step rule, we cannot overpraise a person.

The three-step rule:

1. Expressing the praise (I praise/thank/acknowledge, etc.).
2. Definition of what you are praising (requires concretisation and objectivity).
3. Positive support with regard to further progress (reward/appreciation/encouragement).

The top of the pyramid of needs is the need for self-realisation. In this regard, the work of the trainer is easy. The only thing needed is to link the educational objectives with their use in one’s work and/or personal life. Whatever we can use in practice to develop professional competencies or to protect health and life is motivation by itself. Maslow ranked self-realisation at the top of the pyramid on the basis of his studies of human destinies and the suffering of survivors during the Second World War. He found that even if people are hungry, feel fear or loneliness, unless they are on the brink of death, excellent results can be achieved.
Motivational Extension

This alone does not guarantee motivation. The trainer has to think of the so-called “motivational extension” or, in other words, they must find the core of the motivating thought. Many of us believe that others live on the motivational ground floor - while we live in the attic. If we spend too much time on Maslow’s “ground floor”, it may happen that we overlook many opportunities to motivate people. It does not mean that salary, reward, job security, sense of usefulness, etc. are not motivating. However, if we only focus on these categories of needs, we lose the chance to find more important forms of motivation. Maslow called this fact an overlap, and it soars over the other floors, covering them.

The art of motivation means combining knowledge from the hierarchy of needs, applying them to the individual needs of the participant and also to the interests of the group, and finding consistency with the set objective of the education and time allocation.

Motivation Principles

Anyone who wants to motivate others must keep the following rules in mind:

- **What interests me, may not necessarily interest others.**
- **Motivation has a short lifespan.** It’s like hygiene, it’s not enough to wash once a year, but several times a day.
- **To motivate** is a lot of work for one trainer, but **it will make the learning easier for the group of participants and providing the teaching will also be easier.**

Elizabeth B. Hurlock\(^{21}\) made an experiment and divided classes of students into four groups:

1\(^{st}\) group – pupils were individually called upon and publically praised for good performance.

2\(^{nd}\) group – pupils were individually called upon and publically admonished for poor performance.

3\(^{rd}\) group – pupils were completely ignored, but they heard about the praise and admonition of the others.

4\(^{th}\) group – pupils were in another room and knew nothing about the other groups.

The experiment was conducted for several days. The pupils in the 1\(^{st}\) group had the best results; the pupils in the 2\(^{nd}\) group were 50% less successful than those in the 1\(^{st}\) group. The pupils who were ignored showed no progress at all. The 4\(^{th}\) group, the control group, had even worse results than prior to the experiment.

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\(^{21}\) Elizabeth B. Hurlock (1898-1988), American psychologist.
Teachers of mathematics, no matter of what latitude or longitude, generally “struggle” to motivate their students. Mathematics occupies one of the last places on the list of popular subjects. There are many reasons for this, but from the motivational point of view, there are two basic questions involved: “Why do we have to learn it?” and “What good will it bring us?”. A teacher who is a routineer will have a simple answer:

- mathematics forms the basis of science, it teaches us to use logic, which is indispensable for our lives
- you need it for further study
- you will use it in business transactions - when you buy a house, make a balance sheet, etc.

These arguments are clearly true, but pointless from the point of view of motivating the group of students. On top of that, a teacher that considers mathematics to be the meaning of their life will be demotivated by the attitude of their students. They will project their dismay at this attitude onto the grades they give, and through shortened communication, strictness, and aloofness. The lack of interest in mathematics will be deepened! It is a closed circle, which is impossible to leave. It often results in burnout of the teacher and the students’ lack of interest in the study of mathematics.

A teacher who is a visionary will have an answer controversial for the routineer and motivating for students:

- probably, some of you will never have any use for it
- probably, some of you will have a use for it
- the probability of this can be calculated, if you know how. So, calculate it!

Evaluation as a Motivating Factor

An integral part of motivation in the education process is evaluation. The importance of a positive evaluation generates positive emotional responses that encourage more intense activity and create a feeling of self-confidence. Evaluation has a separate chapter in this manual. However, the praise mentioned above can also serve as a positive evaluation.

A negative evaluation can also serve as a motivation stimulus, but when it is too frequent, it may cause manifestations which are hard to control - such as resentment, a feeling of inferiority, or a state of conflict, unease or anxiety.

“The best admonition is that which is dressed up as minor praise!”
**Mistakes**

Mistakes are a natural part of education. Mistakes highlight the problem in a particular area to both the trainees as well as the trainer, therefore mistakes should be considered a positive and natural aspect of the learning process. Identifying mistakes helps us improve. Repeated mistakes in pedagogy are a signal for analysis and re-evaluation of the methods and forms used in teaching, time allocation, goal setting, entry level of participants and their motivations and so on.

A mistake motivates the participant only when the participant perceives it as an opportunity for improvement and not as a failure. Repeated mistakes lead to motivation turning into de-motivation. Working with a mistake requires the trainer’s commitment!

Working with a mistake is further described in Unit 2: Main Session, in the Evaluation subchapter.

> “Imagine yourself standing on the threshold of unparalleled success. A whole, clear, glorious life lies before you. Achieve! Achieve!”

- Andrew Carnegie

**1.2.3. Structure**

The structure is the third important factor that must be addressed at the beginning of the course or training session. Together with the objective and motivation, it provides information to the participants about what to expect. It is important not to confuse the content with the title of the course!

**The three Parts of the Structure**

The structure briefly introduces to participants a breakdown of the lesson content into three separate parts. The number three is not self-serving, it has many historical links and socio-psychological aspects. People generally identify with the number three.

The trainer, who can group even a very large topic into three points or areas so that the participants can accept them within the introduction to the training, has a greatly facilitated job. If there were fewer points, the participants would feel that the subject is simple and their motivation and interest would decrease. One point could be easily misunderstood as being the entire topic.

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22 Andrew Carnegie (1835 - 1919), American-Scottish industrialist
The same can happen if there are more than three points. Four or more, especially when it concerns a complex and new issue, are unimaginable for many; they move into the abstract realm and therefore become demotivating. The three-point approach is proven and effective.

During the main part of the course itself, it is of course possible to further divide the three-point structure. However, it is useful to in turn subordinate only three points to each one point, and so on. In the final sum, we could get to 45 points within one lesson. If you try to familiarise the participants with all 45 points at the beginning, the response will be a mixture of looks, from shock to resignation. But because the trainer likes the participants, they will resist the temptation to do so, and not unnecessarily burden the participants’ mental resistance at the beginning.

The Structure as a Factor of Education

For participants who are motivated and have identified themselves with the objective of the lesson and understand the structure, the probability of being disappointed because they expected something different from the education is zero.

We work with the fact that people generally remember very little from listening alone. Resistance to forgetting increases with the involvement of other senses. Therefore, it is useful to visualise the topics, structure, and objectives. You can use a flipchart\(^{23}\), a data projector or printed materials for participants.

The flipchart allows individual sheets to be hung up in the classroom, so the participants not only have the structure always within their sight, but they also know in exactly which phase they are at any given moment.

From the context described, it does not necessarily have to be clear how important it is to distinguish the topic and the name of the course from the structure and the objective. It is a skill connected with the necessary practice and expertise. However, these competencies are assumed of every good trainer.

\(^{23}\) Flipchart - a portable, paper presentation board containing multiple sheets.
1.2.4. Connection

When it is a continuing or follow-up lesson, connection is an essential part of OMSC. It connects the past, present, and future curriculum in the minds of the participants. Connection is often a simple statement that explains to the participants the sense of their actions. The cognitive and communicative processes are closely intertwined and interconnected, and influence each other.

For example, during the second lesson on printing techniques, the trainer will inform the participants of the fact that they have already learned about offset, letter press, intaglio and screen printing, and that they will now learn about printing technologies which don’t use a printing plate. Connecting partial skills will merge into coherent knowledge at the mental level earlier than in the real training, which leads to less fear of the training and greater motivation.

In the mind of the trainer, professional and andragogic preparations interact. The trainer has certain andragogic knowledge about the content and its values. The trainer implements this knowledge into their own ideas about the activities being covered and the activities of the participants. The trainer then thinks about how to convey the curriculum to the participants and what results they should achieve.

The curriculum can therefore be divided into different time allocations. Each skill can be learned only by interconnecting partial skills, i.e. by interconnecting the individual lessons. Based on the progress achieved this way, regular training may lead to skills at the automation level. Connection can therefore be applied to all objectives in the psychomotor (training) category.

Didactic Transformation

At the beginning, the trainer will outline the connection between the lessons. If cognitive and value assets connect in the main part of the teaching process, we call it didactic transformation:

For example, in teaching profiling, the lessons learned from other subjects, psychology, multicultural differences, body language, effective communication, minority issues, racial issues, etc. are used.

The question of relationships between the taught subjects is important for didactic transformation. The connection is used to follow on one lesson from another within the same topic. However, if the content of the specific education does not follow on from any other content, it is not necessary to take the connection into account.
The presentation matrix has led us through the difficulties of what is essential for the presentation of our expertise during the introductory session. We can now have a look at the actual subject of the education.

The **time allocation** for the main session is at least 70% of the total time allocation for the course or lesson.

**The Three Points of the Structure – Follow-up**

In the section on structure, we outlined the content of the lesson as having three main points. It is recommended to stick to these points. They will guide us and allow us to not “get lost” in discussions, ideas, or examples.

The trainer will teach point 1, probably branched into other (sub)points. S/he then moves onto point 2 and point 3.

It is advisable to visualise the structure; the participants will be able to have an overview of which phase of the lesson they are in at any given point.
Content of the Structure Lesson

In the text that follows, the content is divided into three main points:

1. The Teaching Process

1.1. Principles of Information Transfer:
   - simplicity and unexpectedness
   - concreteness and credibility
   - emotions and story

1.2. General Didactics:
   - teaching forms
   - teaching methods
   - didactic means

2. Feedback

3. Evaluation
2.1. The Teaching Process

2.1.1. Principles of Information Transfer

When we unfold the carpet, piece by piece, unexpected colour combinations and admirable patterns appear. We can imagine the process of education similarly. The trainer develops the participants’ thinking and also their education, one piece of information after another. In order for the trainer’s efforts to fall into the fertile ground of the participant’s mental development, so that their thoughts are captured and are useful, without being forgotten, the following principles must be observed:

- attract the participants’ attention
- ensure that the participants understand and remember the message
- make the participants agree with or believe the trainer
- present ideas in such a way that they are attractive to the participants
- achieve a situation whereby the participants are able to act on the basis of acquired knowledge

The above tips and principles are easy to understand, but how to carry out such a training in practice? One of the basic recommendations is do not fall under the “curse of knowledge”. We go to school, we achieve higher education, we get information, we share the world online, to further expand our mental horizons. We can all summarise this in a simple word - knowledge.

And knowledge is threatened by the curse. Few of us can recall the feeling of what it was like when we did not know “something” or did not understand something. Our knowledge is our curse. If the coach does not realise this, it will be difficult to share their knowledge (expertise) with others (they will not be able to pass on the expertise).

The curse of knowledge is a cause of daily confrontation within the communication interactions of e.g. management and general staff, politicians and voters, teachers and students, businessmen and customers, writers and readers, doctors and patients, customs officers and tourists, etc. All of these groups are dependent on mutual communication but have a disproportionately different amount of information. The misunderstanding that arises from misinterpretation of the information has its most immediate consequences in the decline of productivity, loss of voter preferences, lowered levels of education, disruptions in supply and demand, loss of erudition amongst the population, weakened healing processes, slower check-in speeds, etc.
There is an aid that helps to discover whether our ability to transform and transport thoughts is insufficient - if we are often the agents of misunderstanding or we find we ask ourselves when explaining something “WHAT DON’T YOU UNDERSTAND, IS IT REALLY CLEAR?!”, this may well be the case.

When the trainer asks themselves: Will the participants understand me? They will probably answer YES, because they understand the problem.

When they ask: Will the participants be interested in this? They will answer YES, because they are interested in it.

The fact that the trainer has asked these questions is the first step to overcoming possible misunderstanding or andragogic failings. The only people who can give the trainer a relevant answer are the participants, by their interest and motivation.

**Simplicity and the Unexpected**

Simplicity - the goal is not to say something in only a few words, but to explain it clearly, just like proverbs do.

Unexpectedness - when trying to get attention, it is important to break the familiar pattern of behaviour.

The human brain is designed to enthusiastically notice every change. This is used by designers to attract the attention of user to their products. Cars, shoes, perfumes receive new shapes, names, adjustments. In order to attract, something must change.

In order to attract listeners, we must do, say, or show something unexpected.

In a course for special police units, one of the trainers wanted to introduce a new tool for breaking locks. Nobody paid any attention to him or the instrument. The trainer then locked the classroom with all the participants inside and threw the key out of the window. The classroom was on the third floor. In that moment, he caught everyone’s attention. The trainer presented the tool with a practical demonstration of breaking the lock. Finally, he installed a new lock and unlocked the classroom. This unexpected beginning made a standard lesson an experience that everyone still remembers.
Concreteness and Credibility

Ensuring that the participants understand your message means expressing yourself concretely.

One junior female lecturer was pleased with the participants’ reaction. They expressed themselves in the sense that they liked her. She walked down the corridor and felt very confident. She believed her lecturing skills had been positively evaluated. She woke up when she heard the conversation of two participants saying the only thing they liked about her was her dress.

To prevent misinformation and misunderstanding, we have an obligation to express ourselves in concrete terms. Don’t be afraid of details, use adjectives and attributes to describe. If we start a discussion about what the lecturer looked like, how old she was, what colour, hair, eyes, etc., we would get as many answers as there are people willing to answer. However if it was written at the beginning that the lecturer was 28 years old, 170 cm tall, a blonde with blue eyes, had an athletic figure and was dressed in a gentle green dress with a white collar, the vision of her would take a concrete form with clear understanding.

The only way to ensure that participants accept and interpret the trainer’s words correctly is for the trainer to express themselves clearly, comprehensibly, without word branching, without using terminology the participants do not know, etc. It will pay off in the effectiveness of the andragogic work. And when the participants say they like the trainer, s/he can be sure they have their professional competence in mind.

Credibility means that the trainer can make the participants agree with and believe them.

Lying, dissimulating, acting superior, appearing to be more skilled and knowledgeable than the participants, projecting authority by directives, etc. is a risky business. We can pretend for a moment only. It can only takes minor stress for us to start to behave naturally. All these bad habits will certainly be reflected in the inconsistency between the trainer’s verbal and non-verbal communication. Even people untrained in this area will subconsciously feel that something about the interaction is not right.

There is a general rule of communication that says IT IS IMPOSSIBLE TO NOT COMMUNICATE! We communicate by the way we behave, speak, look, by our gestures, but also by the way we dress and whether we are credible or not.
A trainer had the reputation among participants as a charismatic man. He was an older, short man, bold and overweight. If a participant saw only a picture of him, it would be likely that they would conclude that he was not the most attractive of men. However, every time he stood before newcomers, he took a steady and confident attitude (one foot slightly forward, his feet and shoulders wide apart, his arms alongside his body). At the beginning, he invited all participants to look at him and started to rotate 360° on the spot. He gave commentary on this by saying he wanted to focus on learning, not on whether the left side profile or the frontal view was more sympathetic to him. He was making the point that it is not important to him how a person looks, but rather what they are inside. Because of this self-conscious step, he became congenial to his students from all sides, especially the inside.

The table below characterises exactly the different types of trainers. “WHAT” in the table means the trainer’s expertise, “HOW” is their andragogic erudition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1</th>
<th>Type 2</th>
<th>Type 3</th>
<th>Type 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t know WHAT</td>
<td>Doesn’t know WHAT</td>
<td>Knows WHAT</td>
<td>Knows WHAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t know HOW</td>
<td>Knows HOW</td>
<td>Doesn’t know HOW</td>
<td>Knows HOW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first column from the left does not concern any of us. This is not a trainer, but an amateur.

The second column includes a situation that should not be standard in the field of education but nevertheless can occur. For example, if the “real” trainer faces a difficult situation (he is ill, for instance), and asks another colleague to replace him. He (the replacement) can teach, but he may be one lesson ahead of the participants in the sick colleague’s area of expertise.

The third column includes all experts who either are beginning their andragogic career or were asked for a one-off action. To be in this column and stand in front of the auditorium without any worries requires either tremendous courage or careful preparation. It is possible to succeed if we educate ourselves very carefully.

The last column includes professionals who have experience in the given field of expertise and a high level of andragogic competence. Such instructors are aware that lifelong learning is essential for both the career and personal development of the teacher.

The extent to which each of us is an expert on a subject does not fall within the scope of this manual. It is up to each of us, our superiors, or our colleagues and the participants to objectively assess our expertise - our “WHAT”.
As already mentioned, it is possible to develop the trainer’s skills or their “HOW” to train. A good trainer should observe the

10 MAIN TRAINER COMMANDMENTS,

which will highlight the trainer’s experience:

1. **Posture and position** - the trainer finds a place where they can be sure that everyone sees and hears them, where all communication barriers can be removed, where they have an overview of the entire audience.

2. **Controlled breathing** - forms an anti-stress factor and guarantees uninterrupted and spontaneous speech. Any heavy breathing, having to catch one’s breath, etc. indicates a problem. The problem attracts more attention than the lecture!

3. **Feedback** - in this context, it is meant as mutual and immediate reaction to the interaction.

4. **Non-verbal communication** - open, balanced and moderate gestures, eye contact, positive facial expression, stable posture, head held straight, forthcoming tone of voice, etc.

5. **Aids and materials** - first, during the preparation, the teacher must prepare and not forget anything they will need. Training materials are an indispensable condition for effective education.

6. **Style of delivery and vocal appeal** - the communication style is individual and distinctive. A natural and cultivated expression is assumed by trainers as a standard. Their voice and disposition is inborn and cannot be influenced. At the beginning, it is advisable to speak in a slower manner than usual so that the participants have the opportunity to get used to the trainer’s voice. Later, it is advisable to verify this by asking whether they are audible to everyone. Vulgarities and unethical sayings (jokes, statements, etc.) and aesthetic evaluations are not permissible.

7. **Normative pronunciation** - the trainer expresses themselves in standard language, pronounces the words clearly, observes punctuation; for a trainer, logopedic exercises are a common part of preparation.

8. **Enthusiasm and positive attitude** - an easily transferrable, hard-to-define element that creates a non-threatening and creative atmosphere.

9. **Appearance, social behaviour, and performance** - the trainer is generally dressed one level above the participants. Wearing a tailcoat is not appropriate attire for giving a lecture. For uniformed professions, a uniform is expected.

10. **To be concrete and credible** is one of the necessary communication competencies of a trainer. It is a skill that it is possible to learn.
Emotions and Story

Using emotions is a proven method of catching the attention of an audience. Emotions have been accompanying all people from time everlasting and since the day of birth. Thanks to evolution, several emotional categories have formed:

**Positive emotions:**
- peace
- joy
- interest
- love
- hope
- pride

**Negative emotions:**
- fears (anxieties)
- sadneses (depressions)
- angers (aggressions)

Each category has typical characteristics and a typical method of either managing the emotions or cultivating them. In order to catch the participant’s attention and engage them in the education, it is recommended to use especially the effect of positive emotions:

- Try to approach people through their already existing interests.
- Appeal to their interest in themselves.
- Use stimuli from personal life.
- Encourage interest in professional life.

If the trainers are emotionally responsive and skilful, they will get along with the participants much better, create a naturally friendly atmosphere (so-called “emotional synchronisation”) and the participants will achieve better learning results.

Emotional synchronisation can be achieved by:

- synchronising the trainer’s mood with those of the participants - ability to empathise with their situations and feelings;
- group organisation - the trainer coordinates and leads the group;
- talent of the mediator - the trainer prevents conflicts, is able to solve disagreements, is a natural authority;
- social analysis skills - ability to distinguish and understand human feelings, motivations, concerns and interests.
The trainer is not only empathetic, but uses suitable positive encouraging, emotionally coloured words - neutral (stone), flattering (pebble), pejorative (boulder), always in compliance with good interpersonal relationships.

A story which is suitably chosen and situated will help participants to be able to act based on the acquired knowledge. Stories are very powerful thanks to their simplicity and entertaining character. They allow the trainer’s easy interpretation of abstract definitions, and an understanding of the context, emotions, and practical lessons. The purpose of the stories is to place the knowledge into a context that is much more natural, understandable, and close to everyday life.

The components of the integrated rescue system are both individually and comprehensively and extensively trained. The aim of all the simulated situations in the specialised trainings is to create, as truthfully and as carefully as possible, a number of basic situations. None, even the most sophisticated training, will ever include the whole variety of variations which could happen. This is provided by stories. It is quite common that, after firefighters handle a situation, the whole team sit down and listen to the stories of what happened and how. The same is practiced by emergency rescue teams. Each "listener" will engage their mental projections. The human brain perceives such projections as a reality. This is because the projections activate the same brain centres as the real activities.

Mental projections help us to cope with stress and emotion. When you project a situation in your brain where your superior raises your salary, you will then be much calmer and more balanced in the real situation and you will have a greater chance of succeeding. The brain will treat the situation as an experience. It is as if it has already experienced this situation before. Under the supervision of a psychologist, the firefighters tell each other the story of their actions. Telling the story straight from the beginning, in the exact sequence of events, naming mistakes and failures, but also appreciating and emphasising the correct processes or heroism, all of this helps to create ideas and is a transfer of experience for the entire team.

It is easier for the trainer and the participants to translate defined and abstract formulation into an engaging story. However, the story must be related to the content being taught, and must have a motivational overlap, emotional colour, and unambiguous lessons. A long-time practitioner usually has a large repertoire of stories in stock.

However, it is important to carefully select which story to tell and where it should be placed in the education. Stories are irreplaceable, but they are not all salvable. Telling a story without knowing the goal you want to achieve is just telling a story rather than learning.
2.1.2. General Didactics

Teaching Forms

Educational processes are implemented in organisational forms that have been developed since ancient times. The trainer must keep up with current technical and social changes; otherwise s/he will not be able to flexibly adapt the forms to the ever-increasing demands of the participants.

Under the conditions of the development of the learning society, a gradual erosion of the boundaries between institutional education at school and its organisational forms and areas of learning in an informal environment is expected.

Basic Forms of Education:

- frontal teaching in a system of lessons
- group and cooperative
- individual and differentiated
- system of various organisational forms, realised during implementation of projects and integrated educational complexes
- home-based educational work

With a bit of exaggeration, one could say that any method of organising education that leads to effective learning is acceptable, appropriate, and possible from the andragogic point of view. The condition is that it must not be a random process without an educational plan.

This can be avoided if it is a creative and appropriate form of education based on:

- the teaching objective
- the character of the taught curriculum
- the readiness of the participants and their specific needs
- the resources available to the given educational institution
Teaching Methods

In their andragogic activities, the trainer uses their own individual strategy of thinking and application of andragogic activities. In different countries, application of the methods or their combination is related to the country’s historical traditions of educational content creation, their implementation and the tools for their control.

Qualification of Teaching Methods in terms of Source and Type of Knowledge (Maňák, 1995) distinguishes the following:

I. Word-related methods
- monologue (e.g. explanation, lecture)
- dialogue (e.g. interview, discussion)
- written works (exercises, compositions)
- work with text, textbook, or book

II. Demonstrative methods
- observation
- presentation
- demonstration
- projection

III. Practical methods
- training of motoric and work skills
- laboratory activity
- work activity
- art activity

Prof. PhDr. Josef Maňák, CSc. - Emeritus Professor at Masaryk University in Brno.
Didactic Means

Didactic means are all material items that ensure, condition, or make the teaching process more effective. Simply said, it is all that facilitates teaching, imagination, and concretisation, *saves time allocation and brings out the strengths of the trainer*. As with other andragogic factors, it must not be a random choice; e.g. flipchart, data projector, video, notebook, sample documents, etc.

The trainer choses the aids in accordance with:

- the educational objective
- the level of experience and knowledge of the participants
- the conditions of the implementation and experience of the trainer

An experiment in shooting training clearly demonstrated the importance of a suitable choice of methods, forms, and teaching aids for effective education and motivation of participants.

The first group sat behind their desks as in a standard lecture. The aim of the lesson was to get how to grip and hold the gun. The trainer had one weapon and the participants were invited to individually come to the lecturer’s desk. The trainer repeatedly showed how to grab and hold the gun. Within the given time allocation, each individual tried this activity once. The rest of the time, they were just waiting around inefficiently. The motivation for shooting preparation was very low amongst this group and the subsequent shooting results were weak.

The second group stood in a line. The aim of the lesson was also to get how to properly grasp and hold the weapon. Each participant received their own weapon. After a careful security check of all weapons and magazines, the trainer explained and demonstrated the required skill, and then the participants did the same. They worked on command and under constant control of proper implementation.

In the end, each participant presented the acquired skill themselves. Within the given time allocation, each individual tested this activity 15 times. There was no idle time during the lesson. The motivation for shooting preparation was high amongst this group and the subsequent shooting results were excellent.

The experiment unequivocally demonstrated that the choice of methods, forms and aids is the basis for andragogic success.
2.2. Feedback

Feedback and evaluation\[^{25}\] are an inherent part of performing any quality work, not only for partial evaluation in education, but also for determining the value and potential of an organisation, individual workers, and product outputs.

Under the conditions of formal education and the activities of the state authorities, the systematic acquisition and passing on of feedback, as well as implementation of the evaluation, are the primary prerequisites and an effective tool for the successful functioning and further development of the school or the professional activity. Information thus obtained can be used in the process of managing training departments and their human resources, as well as in identifying and evaluating the performance of both trainers and trainees, who are provided an opportunity for self-reflection on the quality of their work.

Getting and giving feedback has a significant educational and motivational function. For example, when selecting the staging method of the model situations\[^{26}\] the following issues play an important role in achieving the objective and effectiveness of the lessons:

- participants’ level of understanding
- motivation
- practical training
- feedback and strengthening

A classic example is a situation where the student is provided with information on the result of their performance through feedback analysis, allowing them to adapt to the teacher’s requirements. Likewise, students’ questions provide feedback to teachers by making it possible for the teacher to adapt their lecture and focus further lessons on those areas in which the students have failed, or individually treat and work with students, etc. A system without effective feedback faces the risk of working inadequately or spinning completely out of control. That’s why experienced instructors provide and seek feedback.

For this reason, feedback constitutes the basis for further development of the participant. It is ongoing and interactive evaluation of the education process participant’s progressive achievements within the educational process.

Unidirectional information provided to a participant is mere evaluation from the trainer’s point of view. Feedback, on the other hand, has an interactive character. Feedback is a special form of mutual communication among the participants, between the participants and the trainer, and among the trainers.

The content of feedback resulting from the analysis of a particular situation is of particular importance because of its evaluative information.

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\[^{25}\] Feedback is a way to analyses past performance or activity. Feedback is a way to develop the potential of the trainees or participants in education. It is used where the learning process is not completed yet, or has not yet been achieved by the trainer.

\[^{26}\] Evaluation establishes a direct connection with the ultimate performance of the trainees. It assesses the effectiveness of the training methods and providing an overall judgement about whether the training objectives have been met.

Model situations are a very effective and frequently used training method.
Evaluation, as a way of determining the value of or evaluating the learning results, makes sense only when it is an activity which is:

- systematic, i.e. It has an explicitly defined area and structure
- performed using the proper methodology
- carried out regularly
- managed according to predefined criteria
- applicable to decision-making and further planning

Feedback is therefore a means of evaluation. However, it is by no means a criticism of education or work activities. **Critical reviews are a positive or negative evaluation of learning results (final examinations, tests, etc.) or the result of work activities.**

The term “critical review” is often mistakenly understood as unfavourable or undesirable evaluation. Unless this is clarified, there could be confusion between the terms “critical review” and “feedback”, and hence misunderstanding of the feedback. What happens very often is the devaluation of its importance, leading to reluctance to put it into practice, even though feedback is precisely defined in education processes and has an unmistakable place. For clarity of explanation and understanding, the DP27 method can be successfully used, where the feedback corresponds with the fourth step of the method.

**Providing feedback is part of the trainer’s competences.** It is necessary to be prepared for providing and receiving feedback and follow certain basic rules. Passing on the information to the recipient is usually done in verbal form. Given that some of the information may be unpleasant for the recipient, attention must be paid to non-verbal expressions, such as gestures, body movements (kinesics), spatial location (proxemics), touch, facial expressions, eye contact, paralingual expressions, intonation, articulation, phonetics, etc.

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For the feedback to have the expected effect, it must meet certain requirements, such as being:

- **systematic** - thoroughly considered, aimed at supporting the development of the student's competences and their self-reflection
- **complex** - uses a combination of several information sources and resources
- **continuous** - occurs on an ongoing basis, as it cannot be effective if it happens randomly
- **understandable** - makes good use of language, presentation, verification
- **acceptable** - employs a positive attitude and constructive approach
- **concrete** - uses only specific, reasoned arguments
- **objective** - evaluates performance only
- **practically applicable** - includes positive as well as negative information, with indications of potential opportunities (what can be improved, and where and how)

**Feedback can be done individually or within the group.** The group concept is more effective and has more stimulating factors. The communicated fact, supported by the majority opinion, has a higher value. If there is a positively tuned, non-threatening atmosphere within the group, the recipient responds openly and is forthcoming. Providing and receiving feedback within a group places high demands on the experience and expertise of the trainer. S/he must be able not only to formulate feedback goals, but also have knowledge of the group, to empathically perceive any changes and the development of the prevailing atmosphere.

**Feedback is provided immediately after the activity or performance.** Any delay reduces effectiveness. In situations where this requirement cannot be met, it is necessary to prevent uncontrolled ventilation of feelings.

This can be achieved by prior arrangement, by setting rules, and by their strict observance by all actors. The agreement to and setting of rules must be a collective activity, based on comprehension and understanding of their content and the principle of feedback analysis.

**Providing feedback can only be done in an atmosphere of safety and solidarity.** The recipient must understand their collaboration and cooperation as attributes of the partnership between group and trainer. If s/he perceives the information communicated as negative criticism or has other bad feelings, they will not be open to the communication of other information that may be beneficial to them.

Once the activity has ended, the feedback recipient must be the first to comment on their performance; have the chance to express their own feelings, highlight both positive and negative moments of the performance, the reasons for their actions or solutions, and so on.
Comments on their performance should be done in a peaceful manner, the recipient must be able to “breathe out”, drink some water or use other means of quick relaxation. **Evaluation of the performance by feedback analysis is to be aimed only at the performance, not the person**, and the information communicated must be formulated so as to motivate improvement. The conclusion, despite any negative information, should be positive.

Improvement and development can only be expected and initiated if and where it can be assumed that the participant is able to make the suggested changes. The recipient usually cannot change their voice, speech defects, way of walking, etc. Similarly, any change in attitude, etc. will not be immediate.

Unhelpful feedback can be avoided by equipping all actors with the knowledge and skills on applying the feedback rules, before any feedback is given.

**Feedback Principles:**

**POSITIVELY**

This principle must be strictly observed, taken as predominant and come first - the trainer must always start with a positive message. The other principles can be applied in any order the trainer wishes, but this one must always precede their application. If negative information and hostile responses are communicated to the recipient at the beginning of the feedback session, their willingness to listen, participate and take the feedback into account will be minimised.

Any condemnation may cause negative thoughts such as “They don’t take me seriously”, “They’re mocking me”, “This is degrading”, etc. A comprehensively negative performance does not exist and attacking the person by telling him that s/he is incompetent, etc. has absolutely no positive effect. It only provokes immediate defensive reactions. The feedback recipient is usually aware of their own fundamental mistakes and deficiencies.

If a participant points these out at the beginning of the analysis, being given room to express their feelings, go over the positive and negative moments of their performance, the reasons for certain actions or similar self-appraisal, this assessment should be appreciated, as it contributes towards strengthening the effort for improvement. It does not mean avoiding negative comments. Adhering to the principle of providing primarily positive information is in the interests of both the trainer and the group, and the feedback recipient themselves.
CONCRETELY

The feedback recipient must receive clearly and precisely formulated information, without vague or incomprehensible terms. Information of the “I liked it” type falls into the area of non-specific formulations. Additionally, the recipient will naturally evaluate their entire performance in terms of the level of positive evaluation they receive. A concrete and in-depth description of the individual stages of the participant’s performance should include both positive and negative information, so the recipient can better understand what needs to be improved.

FACTUALLY

It is important to provide the information exactly and clearly in order to keep the attention of the recipient and the other participants. Information integrity is a qualitative element of the feedback.

SHORTLY

A quantitative requirement that greatly affects the outcome of the entire feedback process. More complex analysis will not be beneficial if the recipient or the other participants lose interest. The trainer must show self-control. Feedback is not their own personal “one-man show” but a dynamic interactive process.

PERSONALLY

Compliance with this policy confirms to the feedback recipient that they are the main actor and are personally responsible for their performance.

When giving feedback one-to-one, the recipient should be addressed by name and the information should be given face-to-face. This is the only way to avoid a feeling of “about us - without us”. Again, the trainer should use their experience to comply with this principle.

Due to their emotions, the dynamics of the situation, or the dominance of the analysis leader, analysis providers may address the trainer or another person instead of addressing the recipient. The recipient then may feel isolated and, in the case of negative information, anonymous and without active participation. Such feedback does not meet the expected effect.

OBJECTIVELY

This principle puts high demands on the analysis provider, their willingness to communicate negative and positive information and their professionalism. Whether the recipient is a close colleague, a friend, or someone they do not like is not important. The communicated information is to be provided fairly, without personal involvement.

If the feedback is provided within the group, this principle is more easily fulfilled - possibly biased opinions are balanced out by the position taken by the majority of the group.
WHAT happened, NOT why it happened

Only the feedback recipient is able to judge why they acted or performed in a certain way. Conversely, they are not able to judge how their actions or performance were perceived by others. Therefore, it is a principle to tell what happened, NOT why it happened. No one outside of the participant themselves can be sure of the reason why they chose to approach their presentation in the way they did. In order to ensure the objectivity of the evaluation, a precise and concrete description of the participant’s actions is necessary.

With TACT

This principle is a requirement for standard interpersonal relationships; politeness and consideration.

HUMOUR

To some extent, this facilitates a good feedback experience by bridging some of the more delicate or perhaps embarrassing stages of the performance being analysed. The principle of humour must be used with great discretion and it is one that may not be needed at all. **Be wary of using humour in a multicultural environment** - every nation has its own specific sense of humour, which is most of the time non-transferable.

**Linguistic Means**

The linguistic means used to provide feedback are very important. **Providers should speak for themselves and express only their feelings and impressions.** It is not recommended to express final advice or instructions. Feedback in its complexity reveals recommendations and good practices to the recipient.

Appropriate expressions it is recommended to use include, for example:

“I feel that...”; “I got the impression...”; “I liked...”; “As far as I am concerned, it was...”.

It is not recommended to use expressions such as:

“You should have...”; “You were...”; “You didn’t...”.

Instead of saying: “You speak very quietly”, it is more appropriate to use the phrase “I couldn’t hear you very well”. If the recipient is given the comment in this way, it is clear that the speaker is expressing their own observation, not judging the recipient’s behaviour. An exception can be made if a detail which the provider liked a lot is evaluated. At the same time, it is necessary to specifically explain what they liked about it.

In direct verbal communication, it should be highlighted what went well, and what was correct from the analysis provider’s point of view. **The analysis provider does not ask, nor apologise;** they highlight the strengths of the performance and can describe them in detail. They do not use expressions such as “correct”, “incorrect”, or other expressions with expressive colour or words expressing extremely positive or negative positions, nor do they use numeric ratings (e.g. 70% correct, etc.).
Feedback Receiving Principles

An important effect of feedback is the receiver’s response to it. Knowledge and skills complete the complex methodology of applying the feedback method.

Observing the principles of receiving feedback requires not only willingness to cooperate, collaborate, and motivate the recipient to perform better, but also a certain level of discipline and self-control.

DO NOT FIGHT

There is no reason to apologise for the performance. There is always room for improvement. If the recipient wants to improve their performance and takes the education responsibly, awareness of the possibility of gaining experience and reducing potential mistakes or failures are an accompanying learning phenomenon. Having to be on the defensive causes feelings of guilt that do not correspond with the principles of learning. Feedback is about listening to reactions, not about explaining one’s behaviour.

FEEDBACK IS NOT A CRITICAL REVIEW

The meaning of the term “critical review” corresponds to the terms “evaluation”, “assessment”, and “final judgment”. Critical review can be either positive or negative, or both. The meaning of the word “feedback” corresponds most closely with “analysis of the activity”. The difference also lies in the phase of education.

Feedback moves the participant’s skill to a higher level at a time when this can still be influenced. Critical review is the final classification of the demonstrated complex performance. It is necessary to familiarise participants with the principles of providing and receiving feedback. For the evaluation, it is essential for the trainer to accurately inform the participants at the beginning about the timing of the evaluation, its conditions, and the manner of assessment and evaluation criteria being used.

LISTEN

Providing feedback is intellectually demanding for the trainer. It requires a high level of ethical, professional, and andragogic experience. The goal of the trainer is to help the participant to develop. The recipient should listen to all opinions. Later, they analyse and use them for self-reflection and their further development. Or not. It is up to the participant to decide whether to accept the opinions of others.
THANK the analysis providers for the feedback

The fact that everyone is interested in me is positive and worth appreciation, especially if it is a person who is entrusted with my professional growth. Saying thanks or other expressions of the fact that the recipient respects all the recommendations they have received creates a participatory understanding between the recipient and the trainer.

Recommendations made during feedback can also be of a very negative nature, and it is not always easy for the trainer to analyse the participant’s performance face-to-face. It is the participant’s stance towards the trainer, in terms of understanding the feedback, that prevents unpleasant feelings on both sides, encourages further use of this effective method, prevents burnout syndrome and reflects grace and respect. But it must not be just formal or insincere.

Self-reflection

The desired result of the feedback is to achieve self-reflection on the part of the recipient. By self-reflection we mean “thinking about themselves as an individual, their personality, looking back at their actions, thoughts, attitudes, emotions, recapitulation of a certain part of their own life or behaviour and making decisions in situations that are important for the given person. The goal is to evaluate oneself, to decide what to change and how, and choose a strategy for the future”.28

Self-reflection is the basic tool of self-education, and makes controlled processes more effective and deepens them by developing critical thinking and willingness to ask questions. In the case of conscious self-reflection, the link between the learning objectives and experience is facilitated. It is a strong motivational factor for activity and responsibility, as it helps the recipient to understand how their social status progresses and whether they are growing.

For effective self-reflection it is necessary to ensure its continuous course throughout the entire process of educational activities and the various forms of its implementation (verbal, written, face-to-face, in pairs, within a group, etc.).

Some particularly important questions for the purpose of self-reflection are:

- What was I really doing?
- How did I feel doing it?
- What do I think about that?
- How can I explain my behaviour?
- How did my behaviour influence the given situation?
- What influenced my behaviour?
- What have I learned?
- Am I going to behave differently in the future, and how?
- What do I know?
- What don’t I know yet?
- What else would I like to learn?

Professional receiving and provision of feedback is a specialised reciprocal form of communication and means of improving any activity.

From the functional point of view, the systematic way of getting the feedback is reflection and self-reflection on the work performance of the individuals, the andragogic staff, or the training team, without which modern management and further development cannot be imagined. Another effect of feedback should be new motivation for further self-education on the part of all participating actors.

As part of the training on document security, the trainers prepared an exercise that, unlike standard document check exercises, combined the document detection technique and communication. The aim was to verify the skills to detect falsified or forged documents at the level of automation and the accompanying ability to communicate. The participants treated the exercise with contempt. The exercise consisted of 1. Document check exercise 2. Communication exercise 3. Interconnecting these two exercises.

The exercise ended with an evaluation. The trainer precisely defined the evaluation criteria to be used. The participants received the information - succeeded/failed after the first part. Those who received the “succeeded” grade advanced to the communication part of the exercise. Since it was a practical training, each participant tried to emphatically pronounce the routine questions during the border control/document check and other accompanying communication within the frame of the intervention possible. Then there was a link between both the document check and communication skills, which could be aimed at impostor detection. The trainer used a modelling method. The participants were able to test their reaction, the ability to connect their skills and to experience (un)successful check/intervention. Based on their performance, each participant received incentives and reaction through feedback.

The overall impression of the exercise was very positive. What seemed like an easy and unnecessary action at first turned the exercise into an effective lesson thanks to the feedback and evaluation. Participants received incentives for improvement, evaluation of their performance, and a picture of their document control potential. Document security training is not just looking at a passport.
2.3. Evaluation

Evaluation is an integral factor in the educational process. It is the final appraisal of the activity. Formative evaluation is an important factor for the development of key competencies and, if well presented, also for the positive motivation of all participants in the educational process. If they have been properly trained, the participants should look forward to the evaluation with positive feelings and enthusiasm.

They will learn how well they worked, in which areas they have room to expand, how they performed and what their potential is. If the participants fear the evaluation, there is something wrong with the education process.

Evaluation is a positive or negative opinion on the various activities and performance of those being taught.

**Importance of positive evaluation:**

- it satisfies the need for social recognition
- it encourages feelings of security and an improved performance
- it generates a positive relationship between the participants and the trainer

**Effect of negative evaluation:**

- it releases difficult-to-control feelings (defiance, inferiority complex, conflict, unrest, anxiety)
- it does not satisfy the need for social recognition
- it may lead to rejection of the learning objectives

Within the presentation matrix, feedback and evaluation are ideally part of the main session. It can also be one of the structure points.

E.g.:

**Structure I:**
1. Preparation of model situation
2. Implementation of model situation
3. Feedback

**Structure II:**
1. Repeating the curriculum
2. Test/dictation
3. Evaluation
The trainer evaluating the participant must consider:

- what is going to be evaluated
- which evaluation methods are going to be used

**Evaluation methods:**

- systematic observation  
  (in long-term education)
- oral and written exams
- didactic tests (andragogic diagnostics)
- standardised tests  
  (prepared by independent professionals)

In order for the **final evaluation** to be effective and help the participant's development, the trainer must follow the following **principles:**

- **Inform** the participant about the evaluation methods - how and when s/he is going to be evaluated
- **Use** clearly defined requirements - what is and what is not included in the evaluation
- **Use of aids** - the trainer will decide whether the participant can or cannot use a specific aid (dictionary, calculator, handout, etc.)
- **Individual work** - any help during the evaluation will devalue the results of the educational process and the evaluation of the trainer
- **Development control** – the degree of potential development
- **Final results** - these must be communicated to the participant as soon as possible.
- **Final statement** - verbal expression from the trainer, with the intention of motivating.

Evaluation is a specific trainer competence but also an integral part of the training process. It assumes that the participant has the objective, and is willing to put in the effort, to move their knowledge and skills to the next level.
Working with Mistakes

“I’m so lucky: whenever I’ve made a mistake, somebody has reproached me for it.”

- Confucius

Evaluation issues are closely related to working with mistakes. Every learning process is accompanied with a certain probability of making a mistake. A mistake is an important mediator of effective education. Realising the mistake or being alert to it motivates the participant to improve whilst at the same time sending a signal to the trainer, where a mistake has been made in the educational process, about the effectiveness of the methods and processes for imparting knowledge onto the participants.

Any response to a mistake must include:

- declaration of the performance mistake (inaccurate, incorrect)
- explanation (where the mistake was, what type it was, and the reason for its occurrence)
- instructions for redressing the error
- comments (encouraging further action, elimination of the fear of making mistakes, verification of the right direction to take)

“The greatest mistake you can make in life is to continually fear you will make one.”

- Elbert Hubbard

29 Confucius (551 - 479 BCE) - Chinese teacher, editor, politician, and philosopher.
30 Elbert Hubbard (1856 - 1915) - American writer, publisher, artist, and philosopher.
The conclusion is the last part of the presentation matrix, but it does not mean the end. It is a part which is equivalent to the sessions covering the introduction or the main part. It contains several parts, none of which can be omitted. The time allocation for the conclusion is **max. 20%** of the total time allocation for the course or lesson.

### 3.1. Part 1 of the Concluding Session

#### 3.1.1. Summary of the Lesson Content

The summary is the most important part of the conclusion. With a bit of exaggeration, one could say that it is the summary that will explain to the participants what they have learned in the course or lesson.

Just as we informed the participants of what the structure content of the course or lesson would be in three points (see section 1.2.3. Structure), **we should repeat what the lesson contained in three points as well.**
Summary Objective

The objective of the summary is not to teach again what has already been taught. We know from experience that it is only after the trainer repeats to the participants what has been discussed in the lesson that the knowledge communicated will fit into context and the participants will become aware of the content and interconnection of the subject.

It could easily happen that during the lesson point 1 is pushed into the background by point 3, which was more comprehensive and more engaging. This does not mean, however, that point 1 was less important. This is why the trainer will briefly and concisely review this point in the summary, thus increasing the understanding of the subject.

Summary Principles

Curriculum content summary principles

- paraphrase the content - express the same content in another way
- call attention to critical ideas, concepts and definitions
- use graphics or maps:
  - main idea
  - first supporting fact
  - detail it
- shorten the information, using precise and comprehensive expression

Forgetting the summary is like preparing lunch and forgetting to serve it on plates.
3.1.2. Discussion and Questions

Discussion is clarification of questions by mutual exchange of views. It means that the problem remains unsolved, that there is a state of doubt or an element of ambiguity, or that new circumstances are emerging. It is an excellent basis for voluntary cooperation in the interest of all participants and serves as a motivational factor of the education.

Conditions for the Discussion and Negative Influences

Every discussion is conditioned by the fact that the participants:

- know and understand the objective of the education and the discussion
- are not overwhelmed by either important or unimportant information
- are given space to express themselves in a safe and non-threatening atmosphere

Negative influences on discussion:

- intolerance
- stubbornness
- insufficient intellectual level
- shouting others down
- enforcement of power
- resistance to new ideas, opinions, etc.
- negative attitude towards participants

A discussion is not a quarrel. During the discussion, the trainer should act as a participant without showing their privileged position, even though they are leading and organising the discussion. Discussion includes not only questions but also answers.
Within the educational process, the *classification of responses is divided into seven types*:

- **Evaluating responses** - most participants feel obliged to make a judgment about the communication they have encountered. The evaluating response then expresses consent, disagreement, or recommendation.

- **Confrontational responses** - participants encourage the trainer to clarify certain information. They show disagreement. Confrontation can help clarify thoughts, feelings, or draw attention to something inadequately explained.

- **Focus-changing responses** - move the focus to another subject.

- **Testing answers** - pose questions about what the trainer has just said or about the topic chosen by the listener.

- **Reinterpretation responses** - the person answering attempts to clarify the problem by explaining the supposed or highlighted main ideas in other words or means of expression.

- **Calming responses** - used to reduce the emotional intensity associated with the content.

- **Personal responses associated with empathy and recognition** - express understanding with the person asking the question.

“The only stupid question is the one not asked!”

- *unknown author*

### Argumentation

The discussion includes an opportunity for argumentation. **When arguing it is advisable to use the presentation matrix and apply the basic argumentation structure:**

- let your counterpart speak first - it will help you organise your own arguments

- arrange your arguments - first strong, then weaker, with the best argument coming at the end

- disturb the structure of your counterpart’s arguments - anticipate and resolve their possible objections when submitting your arguments

- adjust the order of the counterarguments - challenge the strong points, discuss the little things, present the counterarguments, end the monologue with a good counterargument
Discussion is a motivational factor for participants but a risk factor in terms of time. To estimate how much time is needed for the discussion requires experience. **Control over the discussion and the time needed can be gained by asking questions.** Any arguments which are not important should be ignored. If the time limit expires, it is good practice to offer to answer questions in the next lesson, by mail, or alternative means. The participant must never leave without the discussion having been resolved or without having their questions answered.

In general, if the trainer has not chosen a lecture with a discussion as a training method and if they have followed the recommendations described, there should be just a few questions. If there are a number of questions this can be taken as a form of feedback on the trainer’s performance.

The most important issue at the end: **the trainer must never feel emotionally dragged into the situation or perceive the discussion as an attack on their person!**

### 3.1.3. Remotivation

Remotivation is the restoration of motivation and the procedures that lead to this. **Motivation is focused on the essence of the learning within the presentational matrix** - why the participant should learn specific knowledge or skills or how to use these in general life. **Remotivation is more focused on the continuity of education** - why the participant has to deal with the issue in the future, motivation for home preparation, invitation to follow-up lessons, etc.

What works very effectively as a remotivational factor is evaluation of the course or lesson in terms of the participants’ efforts, their communication and cooperation, etc. However, it is better to integrate the performance evaluation into the main part of the lesson.

Remotivation ensures that the participants leave the educational event with a positive feeling and the decision to continue despite partial failures. **It is important to persuade the participants that they can and will use what they have learned.** Invite them to try to do something completely differently or in an unusual way, but based on the information they have received. Inspire them to undertake some activity and encourage them to dare to accept your ideas and use them in their life.

**All recommendations in chapter 1.2.2. Motivation can also be used for the purposes of remotivation.**
3.2. Part 2 of the Concluding Session

3.2.1. Goodbye

The end of the presentation is just as important as the beginning. If the trainer fails to get the attention of the participants at the beginning, the quality of the end is insignificant, because by that point nobody will be listening.

“The End is not the End”

The time just after the lesson concludes is really crucial. In tests, this is the time when examiners decide on the grade. The end of the presentation is the beginning of the time after the presentation. What will be said at the end of the lesson will affect how the participants will evaluate the lesson in the future and the impression they are left with.

When the end of the presentation is strong, the impression it makes on the participants will also be strong. When the end of the presentation is convincing, participants will be convinced. When the end of the presentation is poor, the listener’s experience of the entire presentation will be poor. Impression, belief, and experience are stimuli for resistance to forgetting knowledge or skills. **The ending is therefore also about the result of the whole education.**

The biggest mistakes a trainer can make at the end:

- exceeding the time allocation - after the time specified by the trainer, the participants’ attention will be minimal
- ending with the sentence: “That’s all.”
- ending with empty phrases or sentences such as: “Thank you for your time.”
- an endless end - the course or lesson ends by the trainer leaving without any comment, not saying goodbye
3.2.2. Recommendations for a successful Ending

At the end, it is advisable to use a story. Use a success story that will give your listeners hope and promise that their lives will unfold in the right direction, based on the course or lesson.

Do not be afraid to ask for impressions. If the trainer wants response and feedback from the participants, s/he simply has to ask. Putting questions to the participants at the end of the lesson will raise an interest in them, and this can substitute for remotivation.

Never forget to thank the participants at the end of your presentation. A small reward always helps and often bridges the gap which may have been there up until then. The trainer must always be patient and stay calm until the very end. Although they might be in a hurry, they are the last one to leave.

Another important step at the end is exchanging contact information or indicating the possibility of contacting the trainer if necessary. If the trainer has established a positive relationship with the participants, they take them to be a friend. Handing over contact details at the end is a promise of a possible meeting in the future, and the participants will be convinced that everything the trainer said and did was meant seriously, thus deepening the confidence gained.

At the end, it is advisable to draw attention to additional literature, materials, or options where further information can be found.

If the trainer started with a pause, filled by eye contact with each participant, they should finish the same way. One look in the eyes is worth more than many words.

After that, wishes for the future and a greeting common in the given culture is all that needs to be done.

A course or lesson ended this way can still unofficially continue with a personal farewell, handshake, photo sharing, or even a toast. But this is up to the discretion and capacity of the lecturer. If for whatever reason they do not participate in such activities, it cannot be considered unprofessional.
Unit 4: Sample Curricula

This part of the manual provides the trainer with examples of curricula that could form the basis for developing a training course on document security based on the manual *Travel Documents: Security Features, Production Technologies and Examination. Textbook for state officials of the Republic of Azerbaijan*. 

A curriculum is a pedagogical term that describes what a trainee will learn (learning content) and how the trainers reach this goal (methods, forms, resources). 

The Sample Curricula which follow are just supporting tools for the trainer, and can be individually adjusted and modified depending on the training needs and target group of trainees. This will also depend on the resources and tools available. 

The samples aim to be a standardised reference to ensure that core information on first-level document security is included and to reduce the risk of variations in learning for trainees. The curricula are subject to regular assessment and modification in order to ensure their continued applicability. 

**Overall aim:** NOT to ensure that students can testify for certain that an identity document is genuine or not but that they can reasonably and knowledgeably examine whether a checked document needs to be inspected further at the second-line document control. 

**Target group:** state officials/document examiners working with different kinds of identity documents, breeding documents, visas and possibly banknotes. 

**Trainer profile:** has direct operational experience and expertise in document security; experienced in delivering trainings and/or participating in training of trainers; exhibits good interpersonal skills, with the ability to work independently as well as in a team; possesses in-depth knowledge of the relevant norms, especially related to document security (legislation and practice); has proven education and/or experience in drafting training concepts, and evaluating and elaborating training curricula and manuals, with methodological competences in delivering trainings; has the ability to establish good working relations with a team. 

**Subject:** document security: the methods of falsification of travel documents and the methods for detecting them; total falsification; partial falsification; the practice of document verification with the aid of special equipment.
Learning objectives:

related to understanding, at the end of the training the participants will: have increased knowledge on the stages of production of secure identity documents; be able to distinguish the various printing technologies and techniques; understand the importance of and difference between the security features that strengthen capacity in the first-line document check; know the national regulatory framework related to document security; be familiar with the ethical issues of a multicultural environment and reflect these during document control; be aware of the role, meaning, limits and advantages of a wide range of security features used in identity documents

related to skills, at the end of the training the participants will: be able to detect full or partial falsification or forgery of identity documents; possess the capacity to identify different forgery methods; be able to detect an impostor (establish whether the person presenting the identification document is its rightful holder); be able to formulate questions related to profiling; be able to differentiate between document reading and document verification; have strengthened capacity in the use of special detection tools for document control; be able to navigate the distance learning e-tool and online databases on travel documents and their features; have acquired the skills needed to verify identity documents effectively; have developed new abilities concerning the efficient methods and knowhow involved in day-to-day document checks

Methods: lectures, presentations, discussions, case studies, practical exercises with identity documents31, security papers and group work.

31 Although genuine or forged samples of identity documents like passports, ID cards, driving licences, etc. are usually used during the practical exercises during the training, their ownership is sometimes challenging. For this purpose, identity documents of trainees or trainers can also serve as good bases or security papers in daily use, such as banknotes, excise stamps from cigarettes/alcohol, etc.
Suggested Training Plan

FIVE-DAY TRAINING on 1st line document control
(one working day – 8 hours)

2 hrs

Training introduction

1 Welcome/Tour de table

2 Introduction of the main state-services involved in document checks

3 Regulatory framework for document security in the Republic of Azerbaijan

Type of Class:
- Speech
- Presentation/Speech
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A

15 hrs

Travel document printing steps

1 Prepress

2 Press

3 After Press

Type of Class:
- Lecture
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A
- Practical exercises
- Working group

7 hrs

Travel documents in general

1 Machine-readable documents

2 Electronic documents

Type of Class:
- Lecture
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A
- Practical exercises
- Working group
IV. Sample Curricula

Training Manual and Curricula

Document examination

Type of Class:
- Lecture
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A
- Practical exercises
- Working group

1. Counterfeits
2. Partial falsifications
3. Stolen blanks
4. Fantasy documents

Profiling

Type of Class:
- Lecture
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A
- Practical exercises
- Working group

1. Methods of identifying travellers

Examination

Type of Class:
- Examination (verbal/written test/practical exercise)
- Evaluation (written/verbal)

1. Formal assessment of a trainee’s knowledge or proficiency in document security and skills to detect whether an identification document is legitimate or not
2. Results of the examination

Closing

Type of Class:
- Speech
- Presentation
- Discussion, Q&A

1. Wrap up/Feedback
2. The way ahead
3. Closing of the training
4.1. Curricula for travel document printing steps

Aim: strengthen knowledge on the different travel document printing steps and their recognition with or without detection equipment.

Objective: state and recognise the most common printing methods and security features used in production of travel documents.

Outcomes: ability to detect different printing methods and security features by increased knowledge and practical skills in document detection.

Resources:

- classroom with overhead projector, PC, pointer
- reference material, printed handouts, the document check equipment available (detection kit, UV lamp, magnifiers, loupes, USB microscope, etc.), genuine or forged samples of identification documents, security paper, etc., prepared ice-breakers or energisers and proper preparation in advance, if necessary.

32 An icebreaker is an activity, game, or event used to welcome and warm up the conversation among trainees. An energiser is a brief activity intended to increase energy in a group by engaging them in physical activity, laughter, or in ways that engage the members cognitively (problem solving). A number of samples of icebreakers and energisers can be found at various online sources.
Type of Class:

- Lecture to introduce basic concepts followed by interactive discussions and working groups
- PowerPoint or Prezi presentation
- Flipchart/Board for drawing main features or visual aid for discussions
- Brainstorming
- Practical exercises with paper and plastic (polymers) samples
- Explanation of the use of different detection tools
- Interactive detection tasks in working groups
- Questions and answers
- Wrap up and reconfirmation that all trainees have understood and all questions have been answered

Subjects to be covered:

- papermaking process
- mechanical processing
- chemical processing
- treatment of printing surface
- security paper
- synthetic papers
- security features within the paper (watermarks, security fibres, planchettes, security thread, fluorescent hi-lites, chemical reagents)
- polyvinylchloride, polypropylene, polyester, acrylonitrile butadiene styrene, polycarbonate
**Type of Class:**

- Lecture to introduce basic concepts followed by interactive discussions and working groups
- PowerPoint or Prezi presentation
- Flipchart/Board for drawing main features or visual aid for discussions
- Brainstorming
- **Practical exercises** on recognition of different printing technologies
- Explanation of the use of different detection tools
- Interactive tests
- Questions and answers
- Wrap up and reconfirmation that all trainees have understood and all questions have been answered
Subjects to be covered:

- offset (planography/lithography)
- letterpress, blind embossing, foil printing
- intaglio
- screen printing
- inkjet, continuous inkjet, drop on demand (thermal, piezo, electrostatic) ink jet
- laser printing
- thermography
- graphical security features
- guilloches
- rainbow printing
- microprinting
- see-through register
- latent images
- other printed security features
- ultraviolet (UV) and fluorescent inks
- solvent-sensitive (reactive) ink
- thermochromic inks
- photochromic inks
- optically variable ink (OVI)
- optically variable magnetic ink (OVMI, Spark®)
- metameric inks
- IR-metameric inks
- iridescent ink
- anti-stokes ink
- bleeding ink
- magnetic ink
- metallic ink
Type of Class:

- Lecture to introduce basic concepts followed by interactive discussions and working groups
- PowerPoint or Prezi presentation
- Flipchart/Board for drawing main features or visual aid for discussions
- Brainstorming
- **Practical exercises** on recognition of different after press techniques
- Explanation of the use of different detection tools
- Interactive self-examination
- Questions and answers
- Wrap up and reconfirmation that all trainees have understood and all questions have been answered
Subjects to be covered:

- UV safeguards on laminate
- embossing in laminate
- laminate overprinting
- laminate with optically variable elements
- laminate with rated breaking points
- floating image
- Identigram®
- retroreflective foil
- iridescent laminate
4.2. Curricula for travel documents in general

**Machine-readable documents**

1. Introduction to identity documents
2. Parameters of machine-readable documents
3. Composition of machine-readable passport
4. Visual inspection zone
5. Machine-readable zone

**Electronic documents**

1. Introduction to electronic (e-passport/biometric) documents
2. Technical specifications
3. Methods of reading electronic documents

**Type of Class:**

- Lecture to introduce basic concepts followed by interactive discussions and working groups
- PowerPoint or Prezi presentation
- Flipchart/Board for drawing main features or visual aid for discussions
- Brainstorming
- **Practical exercises** with machine-readable and electronic documents
- Explanation of the use of different detection tools
- Interactive tests
- Questions and answers
- Wrap up and reconfirmation that all trainees have understood and all questions have been answered
4.3. Curricula for document examination and profiling

**Travel documents**

1. Introduction to the document check at the border
2. Common fraud classification

**Document falsification**

1. Complete falsification - counterfeit
2. Partial falsification
3. Stolen blank
4. Fantasy documents
5. Impostors

**Profiling**

1. Possible sources for risk indicators
2. Risk indicators related to the traveller; their appearance, behaviour, luggage, routing, presented document; questioning and answers
3. Rules of interrogation
Type of Class:

- Lecture to introduce basic concepts followed by interactive discussions
- PowerPoint or Prezi presentation
- Flipchart/Board for drawing main features or visual aid for discussions
- Brainstorming
- **Practical exercises** with documents, security paper and similar
- Explanation of the use of different detection tools
- Self-examination on impostor recognition and profiling
- Questions and answers
- Wrap up and reconfirmation that all trainees have understood and all questions have been answered
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This publication has been produced with the assistance of the European Commission. The contents of this publication are the sole responsibility of ICMPD and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Union.

The pictures used in this manual were provided by the State Border Service of the Republic of Azerbaijan and ICMPD.

Printed and bound in the Republic of Azerbaijan.

ISBN: 978-3-903120-19-8
Travel Documents: Security Features, Production Technologies and Examination

Training Manual and Curricula

International Centre for Migration Policy Development, 2018

This publication was prepared in the framework of the EU-funded “Support to the Implementation of the Mobility Partnership with Azerbaijan” (MOBILAZE) project as a preparatory and background manual for law enforcement trainers delivering lectures on document security, as well as a support tool for delivering lectures on related subjects.