

Q.1: HOW PROJECT COST AFFECT PROJECT PLANNING? EXPLAIN PROVIDING EXAMPLES.

ANSWER: –

Project Cost Management (PCM) is a method that uses technology to measure cost and productivity through the full life cycle of enterprise level projects. Beginning with estimating, a vital tool in PCM, actual historical data is used to accurately plan all aspects of the project.

- Management asks, Would you like more time? We respond, Thank you, no. I'll take some M-O-N-E-Y.
 - Customers offer, Would you like to reduce the scope? We answer, Thank you, no. I'll take some M-O-N-E-Y.
 - Sponsors demand a speedier schedule. We respond, Thank you, no. I'll take some M-O-N-E-Y.
- Get the point?

From IT to construction, most projects have to purchase materials: routers and cables, shingles and cement, and so on. We almost always must buy some things to complete the project work. Think back to your last project; didn't you have to buy something? A piece of software. A book. A large double-cheese and sausage pizza for your team. Someone, you or the organization you work for, had to cough up the cash to buy that stuff. Regardless of scope or schedule, projects need funds to complete the work. Technically, even projects that use only labour have funds attached to them; someone, somewhere is paying for that labour. What happens if you don't have the correct amount of funds to complete the project scope? Your project is doomed.

GOT YOUR MONEY ON YOUR MIND?

Now do we know what a project will cost? We really don't, until the project is complete. I sound more like a car mechanic than a project manager, but the truth is, and this may sting just a little, we can't know the final project cost until the project is complete because we can't accurately predict the future. What we can do is create an estimate. An estimate is more than pulling a random number out of the air, adding 20% for good measure, and then saying, That'll work. A real estimate evolves as project details become available. This is progressive elaboration. Project estimates start out broad, and as the project deliverables come into focus we're able to more accurately define our estimates. Each estimate should provide an acceptable range of variance, the conditions of the estimates, and any assumptions made by the estimate provider. For example, an estimate to build a new warehouse may state that the warehouse will cost \$350,000, +/- 10%, is valid for 30 days, and assumes that the warehouse will be built in the month of June.

Notice the range of variance, the assumptions, and the stated work? A good estimate clearly defines what the project will accomplish, the assumptions made, how long the estimate is valid, and how much the project will cost based on current information. A good estimate presents to the stakeholder everything relevant to the proposed work, without holding back any secrets. If there's a disagreement in price, assumptions, or range variance, it's better to discuss this issue now rather than four months into the project execution. There are three major estimate types that project managers should rely on:-

- **THE BALLPARK ESTIMATE:-** is also known as the Rough Order of Magnitude (ROM). A ROM estimate is based on high-level objectives, provides a bird's-eye view of the project deliverables, and has lots of wiggle room. Most ROM estimates, depending on the industry, have a range of variance from -25% all the way to +75%. Like I said, lots of wiggle room.

- **THE PROJECT MANAGER:-** shouldn't invest too much time in creating these initial estimates, just as the customer shouldn't place too much confidence in the accuracy of the ROM estimate. Unfortunately for both parties, there's a consistent breakdown in expectations when it comes to ROM estimates. Typically the project manager blindly throws out the ROM estimate like a bride tossing her bouquet, and the customer clings to the ROM bouquet like the maid of honour at the same wedding. ROM estimates, regardless of your role in the project, are simply for eyeballing the project's initial perceived costs.

- **THE BUDGET ESTIMATE:-** (or top-down estimate) is a bit more accurate. Formulated fairly early in the project's planning stage, the budget estimate is most often based on analogous estimating, taking budget lessons learned from a similar project and applying them to the current project. Do a little maths magic and we've got ourselves a budget estimate. Abra-cadaver! • With the budget estimate, we start at the top and work our way down into the project details. Like the ROM, this estimate should include conditions, a range of variance, and any assumptions that went into your calculations. A budget estimate is quick, but not very accurate. The range of variance on the budget estimate is from -10 percent to +25 percent.
- **THE DEFINITIVE ESTIMATE:-** (or bottom-up estimate) is the most accurate of the estimate types, but takes the most time to create. The definitive estimate requires a Work Breakdown Structure (WBS). A WBS is not a list of activities. (I know, everyone at your office says it is, but they're all wrong.) A WBS is a deliverables-oriented decomposition of the project scope. That's decomposition of the deliverables that your project will create for the customer, nouns, not verbs. For example, suppose you need to create a network from scratch in your organization's headquarters. Your WBS will stem from the project name HQ Network. Below HQ Network, you create a family tree of major deliverables: LAN, WAN, server room, workstations, and so on. Then you decompose these major deliverables into smaller deliverables.

You need a WBS in order to create the definitive estimate because you and/or your experts will account for the cost of each deliverable. In some organizations, that cost can include more than just the materials, it may take into account labour, consultants, team development, and so on. The point is that each deliverable in the WBS can have time and costs associated with it. Depending on the size of your project, you may want or need to create a WBS dictionary to take advantage of the code of accounts for each of the WBS elements: defining each element, the party responsible for the element, time and costs associated with each component, and other notes or relevant facts.

A WBS dictionary, coupled with the code of accounts, helps to prevent or resolve miscommunications, provide accurate references, and organize the project deliverables. Tied to the WBS dictionary are time, costs, and relevant info on each deliverable. Now you and Larry from Accounting can be best friends forever. You can move to any deliverable in the project and give an accurate estimate of what each thing will cost to implement.

A definitive estimate takes lots of time to create, but it's the most accurate estimate you can provide. You may know this as a bottom-up estimate because you start from zero (the bottom) and account for each freakin' thing the project will purchase, create, or deliver. The range of variance on a definitive estimate is relatively low: -5% to +10%. This makes sense because it's much easier to predict how much something will cost when you can see everything the project will create. How many projects have you been involved in where you can see everything the project will create from the word go? Probably not too many, or only projects that you've completed repeatedly and therefore know exactly what's expected. For example, an IT integrator may have a project template that defines all of the work to implement a prepackaged solution in any environment.

While definitive estimates are ideal for accuracy, they're not easy to create because so much effort has to go into the project before the project manager can create the definitive estimate. This requires education not just for you as project manager, but for your stakeholders, who need to understand that the only way a precise estimate can be created is to invest time in the project itself, by creating the WBS. With any type of estimate, the project manager must provide the range of variance and an explanation of how the estimate was created. Without these explanations, the customer is led to believe that the price you've quoted, the price you've "promised," is the final price that the customer will see. And should the price tag change, there'll be hell to pay.

GOT YOUR MIND ON YOUR MONEY? As the project moves toward completion, there will likely be a need to revise the project's price. If the project started with a ROM estimate, the original estimate could be wildly wrong. The customer who reads the ROM estimate should know that the final cost is likely to be much different from that estimate. No doubt the customer will be anxious to hear your more accurate definitive estimate. Of course, from ROM to definitive, estimates can be just plain wrong. It's not fun to have to approach your sponsor, stakeholders, or customer with hat in hand and

beg, plead, scrounge for more cash because your project estimate was way, way off. Poor planning is the major cause of poor estimates. Rushed estimates, bloated estimates, or estimates that are “low-balled” just to get the project moving are bound for budget reviews, unpleasant conversations, and project reassessments.

Sometimes, thankfully, it’s not the project manager’s fault when the estimate must change: The cost of materials has changed, the anticipated time to complete the project work was wrong, or the bases for decisions were faulty. In these instances, the project manager still has to communicate the variances, which isn’t fun, but it’s easier than taking the blame when that blame is all yours.

Poor estimates can also be the fault of the customer, stakeholders, or even the project sponsor.

When the stakeholder is responsible, the increase in cost is usually tied to a change request.

Contrary to public opinion, change requests are not good things. Ideally, when the customer and the project sponsor sign off on the scope statement, no changes should ever be made to that scope. Of course, errors and omissions, technological enhancements, and value-added changes all affect the scope’s resistance to change. If the customer demands new deliverables in the project scope, however, a price tag is usually associated with those demands. The monies needed to implement the change have to come from somewhere, and not your wallet. Even changes that replace current scope components may have a price; time and monies may already have been invested in these deliverables. In my opinion, change after the scope statement is a bad, bad thing.

We’ll talk more about change management in a future article. For now, know this: When the project scope changes, the budget usually has to change as well. Changes generally cost something, and that means a budget increase.

IT AND PROJECT COST CONTROL:- Do you ever feel like you’re playing on the budget dartboard? The vendor’s cost has increased. The historical information is flawed. Time estimates are incorrect. The project team is spread too thin. The bribe was lower than expected. Excuses, excuses, right? IT suffers from a universal law: the first-time, first-use penalty. The concept of the first-time, first-use penalty is that it’s next to impossible to accurately estimate the cost of something that has never been attempted. IT is so unique, so multifaceted, and has so many fronts that the constant movement of its variables creates a love-hate relationship for any organization trying to create an IT cost estimate. Consider any IT project, from replacing hardware to rolling out an entire new system, and I bet you’ve got a first-time, first-use scenario in there somewhere. Sure, that type of work may have been done before, but not in this project’s specific environment. You’ve got different types of hardware, firmware, software, and don’t forget users, banging up against your solutions. All of these factors are often ignored, dismissed, or assumed to be non-issues. Mistake! When it comes to cost and things that can affect cost, the project manager must consider the risk and ramifications of the first-time, first-use penalty. This universal law can spell disaster for any IT project. The longer a project manager goes without at least nodding in the direction of the first-time, first-use penalty, the bigger the pending fall.

COST AND THE PROJECT MANAGER:- Project managers are in a tough spot: They’re the liaison between the customer and the project team that will complete the customer’s project. In most organizations, it’s generally easier to get more time than money, and there’s usually more concern about how much than how long. Project managers and their stakeholders need to go into any project with a common goal: Identify an affordable scope and a plan of how to achieve it. Too often, and maybe because of the subject matter itself, cost is ignored in project planning. For projects to be successful, someone has to foot the bill, and until the estimate is requested or provided, it’s not a mystery, just a constant dread.

Q2: A) WRITE DOWN CRITERIA OF STUDENT’S CLASSIFICATION IN CLASSES.

Answer:

CRITERIA FOR STUDENT CLASSIFICATION

- a. History (Some plans for Students)
- b. General Criteria for Student Classification
- c. Common Pattern

(A). HISTORY (SOME PLANS FOR STUDENT CLASSIFICATION)

- i. Background
- ii. Winnetka Plan
- iii. Unit Plan
- iv. Techniques of Instruction
- v. Summer School
- vi. Grouping
- vii. Non-Grading Elementary School

(I). BACKGROUNDS

- Purpose of the school is to serve the needs of the pupils
- Administrator is to organize the school and classify the pupils to facilitate the achievement of this purpose
- Division of the grades helped to solve the problems related to the textbook, facilities, materials and methods
- New problem “Lock Step” system created
- “Lock Step” means “Grade Standard” which created difficulties to meet the needs of the individual pupils Administrator use different methods to adjust the students through different teachers, grades, or subjects etc
- Administration needs to classify the pupil by keeping the view of individual differences
- Many innovations in curriculum, teaching method & organization have been tried.

(II). WINNETKA PLAN

- Plan of individual instruction for elementary school children within the grade was inaugurated at Winnetka, Illinois.

- Curriculum divided into two parts;

1. Common essentials
2. Group activities

1. COMMON ESSENTIALS

- o Knowledge 7 Skills are considered necessary elements for pupils(Division was into units or “Goals”)

- o Assignment sheets, work sheets, diagnostic practice test, and test for each unit were considered

- o Emphasis on each pupil to get mastery in each unit

- o Promotion to the next unit were provided until the mastery of the previous one

2. GROUP ACTIVITIES

- o Designed on part of the pupil

- o Activities like art & crafts, music, physical education for standard goals to be met

- o Activities provide socialism & creative experience

(III). UNIT PLAN:-

- o It is a teaching procedure & requires no changes in school organization

- o Different methods are to be used like project, activity & problem assignment

- o All methods are of the distinct departures from the traditional subject matter recitation type of teaching

- o It has great influence in elementary schools by focusing upon the attention upon organization of the subject matter for the purpose of meeting the needs of the individual pupils

- o It has influence upon the curriculum being offered in many schools

(IV). TECHNIQUES OF INSTRUCTION:-

- o Needs can be met through the changed curriculum but it also requires techniques of instruction

- o Few suggestions are related to the instruction to meet the individual needs are;

1. Develop units on life problems rather than on abstract subject matter problems

2. Teach to focus on the satisfaction of needs recognized by the learners

3. Provide adequate counseling and guidance services

4. Utilize more fully teaching resources such as films, radio, television, teaching machines and the local community environment

5. Use wide variety of printed material

(V). SUMMER SCHOOL:-

- o Many school districts operated for adjusting the pupils
- o Operated primarily for those students who have failed or for those who wish to make additional credits in order to complete high schools in three years
- o Treated the failure students of regular terms in the school
- o Used to get measurable grade standard or subject if they are achieving before
- o Mostly emphasized on the subjects like music, arts, sports and games, but recently few more added like math, science and foreign languages

(VI). GROUPING:-

- o Emphasis was given for chronological age grouping
- o Homogeneous grouping usually be done according to the mental abilities, or achievement in the subject matter
- o Mental abilities tested through different tests or teacher's judgment
- o Great emphasis as given on the achievement of the subject matter
- o More preference was on the homogeneous grouping because instruction can be done effectively
- o Few arguments were for making homogeneous grouping;
- o Usually be taught by the same method Saves the teacher's time and energy 133 Subject may be covered in same period of time (13 Poor students are not discouraged
- o Specially trained teachers can be used for proper pupils
- o Homogeneous group can be taught as an individually
- o Brighter students are encouraged 69 Loafing on the part of superior pupil is reduced or eliminated
- o Some suggestions were against of the homogeneous grouping;
- o No basis for grouping has been developed which is sufficiently objective 1?3 Unwholesome competition may be engendered
- o People are not strictly grouped in their life occupations according to ability
- o Status distinctions, characteristics of the class society, may be fostered
- o Group can not be formed which are homogeneous in each curriculum area because abilities of the single student vary from subject to subject 123 No practical way has been found to group on the basis of special ability 17.1 Grouping according to the ability often cases jealousy and resentment (anger) on the part of the pupils and parents

(VII). NON-GRADED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

- o It was the movement which was slowly gaining supporters
- o Classifying the students was attributed to the results of the child study movement which reveals that students differ in different way
- o It classified the students according to the levels rather than to the grade numbers
- o Levels usually based on reading abilities and consists of 10-12 levels in the first three grades
- o Pupils progress through the levels at their own rate without usual stigma (disagree)
- o Pupils may complete their work of three years in two or may take 4 years • Plans used extensively at primary grades
- o Provide three major organizational advantages in classifying students;
- 1. A unit plan of years that is adaptable to the lags and sports normally accompanying the development of child
- 2. Progress levels that permit a child to pick up after an absence from school at the point where he previously left off
- 3. A time range that permit children of approximately the same chronological age to remain together while progressing at different academic rates suited to individual capacities

(B). GENERAL CRITERIA FOR STUDENT CLASSIFICATION:-

- o In the past teacher dealt all students of different ages and subject equally, but with the increase of population more teacher hired for then and children were divided into groups
- o age was common selection factor
- o Age 1-12 handed over to one teacher and age 12- above handed over to the next teacher
- o As population grew then more classification be done

- o Major purpose for grouping is individualization
- o Classification was due to the individual differences, academic and social characteristics
- o Age was used originally for the selection of the candidates because it is correlated with social characteristics
- o When age selection factor came into use then student were being differentiated on the basis of their academic achievements which was named as homogeneous grouping, which based on the performance, reading readiness tests etc
- o Students were divided in two classrooms, one for those who achieved above the standard readiness score and those who were below of that

(C). COMMON PATTERNS:-

1. Ungraded Grouping
2. Inter- Classroom Subject Grouping
3. Inter- Classroom Ability Grouping
4. Split-half Grouping
5. Intra-Classroom Ability Grouping
6. Special Ability Grouping
7. Inter-Classroom Individualized Grouping

1. UNGRADED GROUPING:-

- o Grade levels were abandoned (neglected)
- o There was no classification of the students in one classroom
- o Usually ungraded grouping were distinguished between lower elementary and upper elementary, upgraded primary & Upgraded intermediate
- o First three year schooling were assigned to ungraded primary then promotion was on the basis of age, social maturity, academic ability or some combination of factors
- o School might have three or more ungraded primary classrooms and teacher might stay with the same students for three years for knowing them

2. INTER-CLASSROOM SUBJECT GROUPING

- o Grouping based on subject matter
- o Most common pattern in grouping junior and senior high schools
- o Used in elementary schools when teacher train them for different subjects
- o During the 2hr period teacher A has reading with class A for the first hour and reading with the class B for second hour and teacher B follows the opposite schedule for mathematics

3:- INTER- CLASSROOM ABILITY GROUPING:-

- o Classification based on their performance in intelligence and achievement tests
- o Those scoring from grade level or higher are assigned to one classroom while all those scoring from grade level or below are assigned to another
- o A higher school might use placement tests for assigning English or Mathematics courses or even totally different tracks
- o Assignment may be for one day or for the subjects, or to pull the disabled readers from their classes for instruction

4:- SPLIT- HALF GROUPING:-

- o Students were divided into split half day schedule for reducing the class size for critical subjects
- o Commonly used in the primary grades means when half of the class receives instruction for few hours and then 2nd class will receive instruction after that time

5. INTRA-CLASSROOM ABILITY GROUPING:-

- o Students are to be classified on the basis of their abilities
- o Pattern is mostly common in reading when they are given reading achievement tests and then do grouping as per their level as high group, middle group and low group.
- o This ability had been used at all grads from kindergarten through high schools

6:- SPECIAL ABILITY GROUPING:-

- o Students are assigned for short period
- o Promotion is to be done on their ability
- o Teacher uses remedial instruction for half an hour below a certain reading level and an enrichment

teacher might work with students above a certain level

7. INTRA- CLASSROOM INDIVIDUALIZED GROUPING:-

- o One time instruction for one pupil
- o Reading programmes called “Individualized Reading” follow this pattern
- o This pattern has become popular for the last 10 years because of the availability of published, sub-instructional material
- o The best use of the continuous progress selecting students into individual group varies widely and sometimes name is used , student just work alone

NEED FOR CLASSIFICATION

More than a million species of living organisms have been discovered and described so far and a large number of them are yet to be discovered. Scientists involved in this task, called taxonomists, estimate that there may be around 30 million species of living organisms of which the known number of species forms a very small percentage.

Any systematic study on a given plant or animal can be made easier only when the organism is identified as one belonging to a particular group that has some specific characters. The vast number of plant and animal species that have been identified and described, exhibit a great deal of variation in their form, structure, mode of life and various other aspects. Unless the plants and animals are divided into discrete groups based on the differences and similarities between them, it becomes practically impossible to study them.

The scientific practice of identifying, naming and grouping of living organisms is called classification. The branches of biology that deal with classification are called taxonomy and systematic. Taxonomy, as the name indicates, deals with describing and naming organisms while systematic deals with grouping and arranging the described taxa into a hierarchical classification.

ADVANTAGES OF BIOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION:- The scientific grouping of organisms has some specific advantages:-

- It makes the study of living organisms convenient.
- It helps in the specific identification of any given organism.
- The study of a few representatives from each distinct group helps us to integrate the idea of life as a whole.
- It reveals the relationships among various groups of organisms.
- It provides information about plants and animals, which occur in specific geographical regions.
- It indicates the evolutionary relationship by establishing the gradually increasing complexity of form and structure in different groups of organisms.

B) EXPLAIN DIFFERENT TECHNIQUES OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT.

Answer: Student behaviors like shouting out, not paying attention, task avoidance, disrespect, refusal, and engaging in power struggles take your focus away from teaching and students’ focus away from learning. In order to create and maintain a productive classroom setting and bring the focus back to teaching and learning, use these classroom management strategies to decrease disruption and increase compliance.

UNDERSTAND YOUR STUDENTS:-

Get to know each student as an individual. Build relationships with them based on trust and understanding. Be sure to let your compassion for each student reflect through your nonverbal behavior and your preverbal communication.

BE PATIENT:-

Keep in mind that you have a choice about how you respond to disruptive student behavior. Choose not to take the behavior personally, and use positive self-talk. For example, instead of thinking, “I can’t take this disrespect anymore,” think, “I’ve seen this before. Why am I letting it get to me today?”

SET LIMITS:-

Be sure to post your classroom’s rules prominently. Keep to a few rules and make sure that they’re

clear, simple, and positive. For example, instead of stating, “NO FOOD OR DRINKS ALLOWED,” state, “Please leave food and drinks in the cafeteria.”

KEEP TO THE SCHEDULE YOU SET:- Following your own rules is key to modeling timeliness and productivity. The more organized you are, the more opportunity there is to focus on teaching and learning. This will help your students respect schedules and work within designated time frames.

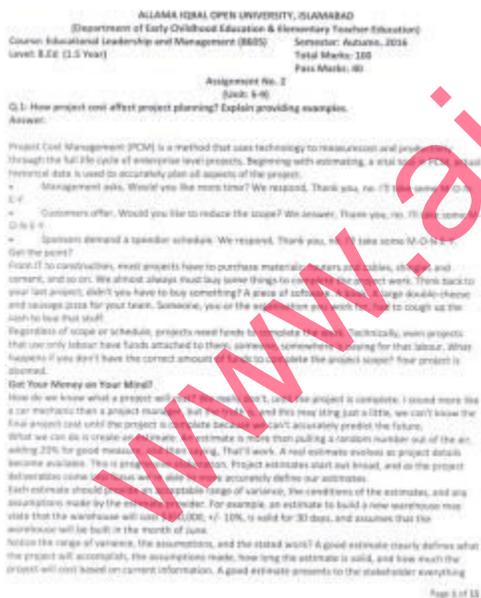
BE AWARE OF THE CAUSES OF BEHAVIOR:- Being mindful of Precipitating Factors and early warning signs helps you focus on prevention. One way to avert difficult behavior is to seat disruptive students strategically. For example, if a student tends to be loud, inattentive, or noncompliant, seat her away from others who might tempt her to challenge you or engage in a power struggle with you.

WALK AROUND:- When a student is inattentive, rowdy, or challenging, it distracts others. As you’re teaching, move toward the student while continuing to talk to the class as a whole. Most students will not continue being disruptive if you stand near them as you’re teaching. You can also try making friendly eye contact with the student. Be consistent in your practice of these classroom management techniques. When students know what to expect from you, and what you expect from them, they’re more likely to be productive learners. Put these effective classroom management tips to use to manage disruptive behavior with confidence.

Q.3: CONDUCT AN INTERVIEW FROM SCHOOL TEACHERS AND DISCUSS, WHAT IS DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEARNING RESOURCES AND EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES?

ANSWER:-

Learning Resources: Learning resources are texts, videos, software, and other materials that teachers use to assist students to meet the expectations for learning defined by provincial or local curricula. Before a learning resource is used in a classroom, it must be evaluated and approved at either the provincial or local level. Evaluation criteria may include curriculum fit, social considerations, and age or developmental appropriateness.



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LEARNING RESOURCES INCLUDE:-

Textbooks (print and digital) Workbooks Worksheets Manipulatives (blocks, beads, etc.) Flashcards Educator workshops Non-fiction books Posters Educational games Apps Websites Software Online courses Activity books Graphic novels Reference books DVDs CDs

Magazines & periodicals

Study guides Teacher guides Labs Models Movies Televisions shows Webcasts Podcasts Maps & atlases

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES:-

The idea of open educational resources (OER) has numerous working definitions. The term was firstly coined at UNESCO's 2002 Forum on Open Courseware and designates "teaching, learning and research materials in any medium, digital or otherwise, that reside in the public domain or have been released under an open license that permits no-cost access, use, adaptation and redistribution by others with no or limited restrictions. Open licensing is built within the existing framework of intellectual property rights as defined by relevant international conventions and respects the authorship of the work". Often cited is the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation term which defines OER as: teaching, learning, and research resources that reside in the public domain or have been released under an intellectual property license that permits their free use and re-purposing by others. Open educational resources include full courses, course materials, modules, textbooks, streaming videos, tests, software, and any other tools, materials, or techniques used to support access to knowledge. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defines OER as: "digitised materials offered freely and openly for educators, students, and self-learners to use and reuse for teaching, learning, and research. OER includes learning content, software tools to develop, use, and distribute content, and implementation resources such as open licences". (This is the definition cited by Wikipedia's sister project, Wikiversity.) By way of comparison, the Commonwealth of Learning "has adopted the widest definition of Open Educational Resources (OER) as 'materials offered freely and openly to use and adapt for teaching, learning, development and research'. The WikiEducator project suggests that OER refers "to educational resources (lesson plans, quizzes, syllabi, instructional modules, simulations, etc.) that are freely available for use, reuse, adaptation, and sharing'. The above definitions expose some of the tensions that exist with OER:

- **NATURE OF THE RESOURCE:** Several of the definitions above limit the definition of OER to digital resources, while others consider that any educational resource can be included in the definition.
- **SOURCE OF THE RESOURCE:** While some of the definitions require a resource to be produced with an explicit educational aim in mind, others broaden this to include any resource which may potentially be used for learning
- **LEVEL OF OPENNESS:** Most definitions require that a resource be placed in the public domain. Others require for use to be granted merely for educational purposes, or exclude commercial uses. At the same time, these definitions also share some universal commonalities, namely they all:
 - cover both use and reuse, repurposing, and modification of the resources; include free use for educational purposes by teachers and learners
 - encompass all types of digital media. Given the diversity of users, creators and sponsors of open educational resources, it is not surprising to find a variety of use cases and requirements. For this reason, it may be as helpful to consider the differences between descriptions of open educational resources as it is to consider the descriptions themselves. One of several tensions in reaching a consensus description of OER (as found in the above definitions) is whether there should be explicit emphasis placed on specific technologies. For example, a video can be openly licensed and freely used without being a streaming video. A book can be openly licensed and freely used without being an electronic document. This technologically driven tension is deeply bound up with the discourse of open-source licensing. For more, see Licensing and Types of OER later in this article.

There is also a tension between entities which find value in quantifying usage of OER and those which see such metrics as themselves being irrelevant to free and open resources. Those requiring metrics associated with OER are often those with economic investment in the technologies needed to access or provide electronic OER, those with economic interests potentially threatened by OER, or those requiring justification for the costs of implementing and maintaining the infrastructure or access to the freely available OER. While a semantic distinction can be made delineating the technologies used to access and host learning content from the content itself, these technologies are generally accepted as part of the collective of open educational resources.

Since OER are intended to be available for a variety of educational purposes, most organizations using OER neither award degrees nor provide academic or administrative support to students seeking college

credits towards a diploma from a degree granting accredited institution. In open education, there is an emerging effort by some accredited institutions to offer free certifications, or achievement badges, to document and acknowledge the accomplishments of participants.

Q.4: A) EXPLAIN THE MODES OF KEEPING RECORD OF SCHOOL.

ANSWER:-

Record keeping in school is the maintenance of information about each student, which includes basic biographical data, contact information, educational progress and modifications, attendance, discipline, and medical concerns. These records not only document information about the student, they also contain information on which a school is judged and funded. Many laws exist concerning the use and availability of these records to non-school personnel.

Record keeping in education is a very big part of the "business" of school, as accurate records keep educators accountable and facilitate the transfer of students, who are less likely to finish school in the system in which they started than they were years ago. Accurate biographical information, transcripts, medical records and special needs modifications must be transferred with a student from school to school, whether the school is within or outside the student's previous system. Decisions about a child's future education are often made based on school records, stressing the need for accuracy. Because of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, parents of students younger than 18 and students who are 18 or older have the right to inspect and amend school records. Decision about the school's future are also made based on school records, and federal funding often relies on information contained in them. Each school or school system must utilize a method of creating, keeping, storing and disposing of records that maintains their integrity and privacy.

MODES OF KEEPING RECORD OF SCHOOL:-

CUMULATIVE FILE:- This may be little more than a profile card with personal identification data, standardized test scores and report cards.

CONFIDENTIAL FILE:- This is often kept in the school district's central administrative office, where the special education program offices are located. The file typically includes:-

- All of the reports written as a result of the school's evaluation for special education and related services
- Records of independent educational evaluations, if your child was evaluated this way
- Medical records you've agreed to release to the school
- Results of vision and hearing tests done by the school
- Summary reports of the evaluation team and eligibility committee meetings
- Your child's Individualized Education Program (IEP) or 504 plan
- Correspondence between you and school personnel

COMPLIANCE FILE:- This file shows that the school system has met the timelines, notification and consent regulations required by federal law. The records in this may include:-

- Reports of eligibility determination meetings for children being considered for special education services
- Correspondence between school officials, including notifications and consent

DISCIPLINE FILE:- This may include notes about behavior and discipline issues that involve long-term suspension or expulsion. If a student has a behavior intervention plan ((MP), it may be filed here.

ATTENDANCE FILE:- This contains a record of a student's school attendance. It might also include notes from parents regarding excused absences.

PART B OF Q # 4

B) DISCUSS KINDS OF SCHOOL RECORD USED IN YOUR SCHOOL/INSTITUTE. HIGHLIGHT PROS AND CONS OF KEEPING RECORD UPDATE.

ANSWER:-

(Part A & Part B have to same answers as both questions are interchangeable.) Record keeping in school is the maintenance of information about each student, which includes basic biographical data, contact information, educational progress and modifications, attendance, discipline, and medical concerns. These records not only document information about the student, they also contain information on which a school

is judged and funded. Many laws exist concerning the use and availability of these records to non-school personnel.

Record keeping in education is a very big part of the “business” of school, as accurate records keep educators accountable and facilitate the transfer of students, who are less likely to finish school in the system in which they started than they were years ago. Accurate biographical information, transcripts, medical records and special needs modifications must be transferred with a student from school to school, whether the school is within or outside the student’s previous system. Decisions about a child’s future education are often made based on school records, stressing the need for accuracy. Because of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, parents of students younger than 18 and students who are 18 or older have the right to inspect and amend school records. Decision about the school’s future are also made based on school records, and federal funding often relies on information contained in them. Each school or school system must utilize a method of creating, keeping, storing and disposing of records that maintains their integrity and privacy.

MODES OF KEEPING RECORD OF SCHOOL:-

CUMULATIVE FILE:- This may be little more than a profile card with personal identification data, standardized test scores and report cards.

CONFIDENTIAL FILE:- This is often kept in the school district’s central administrative office, where the special education program offices are located. The file typically includes:-

- All of the reports written as a result of the school’s evaluation for special education and related services
- Records of independent educational evaluations, if your child was evaluated this way
- Medical records you’ve agreed to release to the school
- Results of vision and hearing tests done by the school
- Summary reports of the evaluation team and eligibility committee meetings
- Your child’s Individualized Education Program (IEP) or 504 plan
- Correspondence between you and school personnel

COMPLIANCE FILE:- This file shows that the school system has met the timelines, notification and consent regulations required by federal law. The records in this may include:-

- Reports of eligibility determination meetings for children being considered for special education services
- Correspondence between school officials, including notifications and consent

DISCIPLINE FILE: This may include notes about behavior and discipline issues that involve long-term suspension or expulsion. If a student has a behavior intervention plan (BIP), it may be filed here.

ATTENDANCE FILE: This contains a record of a student’s school attendance. It might also include notes from parents regarding excused absences.

Q.5: WRITE A NOTE ON IMPROVING MANAGEMENT THROUGH EVALUATION. MAKE AN EVALUATION PLAN FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE INSTITUTE/SCHOOL OF YOUR OWN CHOICE.

ANSWER:-

Performance in schools is increasingly judged on the basis of effective learning outcomes. Information is critical to knowing whether the school system is delivering good performance and to providing feedback for improvement in student outcomes. The OECD has launched the Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes to provide analysis and policy advice to countries on the following overarching policy question: “How can assessment and evaluation policies work together more effectively to improve student outcomes in primary and secondary schools?”

Countries use a range of techniques for the evaluation and assessment of students, teachers, schools and education systems. Many countries test samples and/or all students at key points, and sometimes follow students over time. International assessments such as PISA provide additional information and useful external comparators. Some countries also use inspection services to evaluate teachers and/or schools and teacher evaluation is becoming more widely used. In all countries, there is widespread recognition that evaluation and assessment frameworks are key to building stronger and fairer school systems. Countries also emphasize the importance of seeing evaluation and assessment not as ends in themselves, but instead as important tools for achieving improved student outcomes. Although each country context is unique, some common policy challenges are emerging from the OECD’s Review. These can be grouped under five main headings.

GOVERNANCE AND IMPLEMENTATION:- The common policy challenges that emerge concerning governance and implementation are: ensuring articulations within the evaluation and assessment framework; developing competencies for evaluation and for using feedback; securing links with classroom practice; and overcoming the challenges of implementation.

STUDENT ASSESSMENT:- Several common policy challenges arise concerning student assessment: aligning educational standards and student assessment; balancing external assessments and teacher based assessments in the assessment of learning and integrating student formative assessment in the evaluation and assessment framework.

TEACHER EVALUATION:- Common policy challenges in teacher evaluation are: combining the improvement and accountability functions of teacher evaluation; accounting for student results in evaluation of teachers; and using teacher evaluation results to shape incentives for teachers.

SCHOOL EVALUATION:- School evaluation presents common policy challenges concerning: aligning external evaluation of schools with internal school evaluation; providing balanced public reporting on schools and improving data handling skills of school agents.

SYSTEM EVALUATION:- Common policy challenges for evaluation of education systems are: meeting information needs at system level; monitoring key outcomes of the education system; and maximizing the use of system-level information. In many countries there has been a move away from school evaluation which emphasizes compliance with central policies and procedures towards much greater stress being placed on the need for schools to evaluate themselves as part of wider strategies of school improvement. Partly as a result of this strengthened school autonomy, the role of external evaluation has undergone significant change and achieving a much closer alignment between self-evaluation and external evaluation has become a key policy objective.

Self-evaluation has the merit of being immediate, responsive to the school's specific needs and circumstances and its results are 'owned' by the school. However, self-evaluation which serves the needs of accountability is subject to inevitable tensions between rigour and depth on the one hand and a natural desire not to undermine the confidence of parents and superiors on the other. As a result, self-evaluation is more a tool for managing development than for challenging assumptions or for arriving at conclusions which threaten key actors in the school's hierarchy.

The involvement of externality in school evaluation, therefore, both provides that element of distance from the internal dynamics of the school and gives the kind of perspective and challenge to assumptions and to the interpretation of evidence. This can lead to greater rigour in the process. Externality can be achieved in a variety of ways. Who evaluates, what is evaluated and how, and the ways in which the results are agreed and communicated must be explicit concerns for policy from the outset. Clarity is needed about the nature of externality and about the contexts within which it is important.