China’s radio and TV universities: reflections on theory and practice of open and distance learning
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Distance education and open learning are western innovations, representing the educational concepts, cultures and societies of western countries. The introduction of distance education and the adoption of open learning in China’s radio and TV universities are by no means an indication that they will and can be copied wholesale. Open and distance learning has to be developed in accordance with the specific political, social, cultural and economic environments in the Chinese context. Thus, it represents an ever-changing and evolving process in which theory and practice interact with each other.

Keywords: radio and television universities; distance education; open learning; open and distance learning

Introduction
China’s radio and TV universities (RTVUs) celebrated their 30-year anniversary in 2009. As the largest open and distance learning (ODL) network in the world, RTVUs produced 6.95 million degree-education graduates by 2008, which accounts for 27.63% and 19.83% of the total number of graduates from adult higher education and traditional higher education sectors, respectively, in China. Moreover, more than 40 million people have been trained in the non-credit programmes (Central Radio and TV University [CRTVU], 2008; CRTVU Development & Planning Office, 2009; Ministry of Education [MOE], 2009). Distance education and open learning are western innovations, representing the educational concepts, cultures and societies of western countries. The introduction of the practice and concepts of distance education and open learning into China’s RTVUs is a long and ever-evolving process, experiencing the stages of copying, adaptation and transformation. During this process, distance education practice and theories, together with open learning concepts and experiments, are constantly interacting with one another so as to fit into the Chinese context.

Concepts of distance education and open learning
In the long history of correspondence education, adult education, and non-traditional education, terms have been coined to describe their means, pedagogy, purpose, or nature. Distance education and open learning are two of them. Distance education has its origin in correspondence education, with its underpinning ideas embedded in educational democracy and equity. As media other than print started to play a part
in correspondence education, the term distance education has been adopted in western countries to widen the narrow concept and to embrace the approach of flexible and open learning. Open learning, which has a much shorter history than distance education, gets its underpinning ideas from lifelong learning advocated by Paul Lengrand, a French educator, in the late 1950s, to show that education is no longer schooling, or working for qualifications, but is a necessary part of our life (Lengrand, 1989, pp. 5–7).

**Distance education theories**

The diversity of distance education practice in the world has inhibited the development of a single distance education theory upon which to base practice and research. Thus, a variety of theories have been proposed to describe distance education. Attempts to formulate distance education theories started in the late 1960s by distance education practitioners and researchers, and the major theories defined are Charles Wedemeyer’s theory of ‘Independent Study’, Börje Holmberg’s theory of ‘Guided Didactic Conversation’, Michael Moore’s theory of ‘Autonomy and Distance’, and Otto Peters’ theory of the ‘Industrialization of Teaching’.

Wedemeyer was regarded as the creator of the ideas of distance education and open learning, and also as a passionate advocate of applying technology as a tool for opening opportunity and promoting democracy in education (Moore, 1999). Wedemeyer considered the independence of the student as the essence of distance education. To him, ‘independent study consists of various forms of teaching–learning arrangements in which teachers and learners carry out their essential tasks and responsibilities apart from one another, communicating in a variety of ways’ (Wedemeyer, 1977, p. 2114). Wedemeyer was admired for his efforts to build a new educational system that would give opportunity to those whose only chance to learn at the university level was ‘at the back door’, since the door of traditional universities was closed for various reasons (Wedemeyer, 1981).

Holmberg first outlined his theory of ‘Guided Didactic Conversation’ in 1960, comparing the process of distance education with a guided conversation so as to facilitate learning. In 1977 he defined distance education as:

> the various forms of study at all levels which are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or on the same premises, but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance, and tuition of a tutorial organization. (Holmberg, 1977, p. 9)

After many years of empirical testing, in the mid-1980s he offered a more comprehensive theory of teaching for distance education, including his former perceptions as the overarching principles for course development (Holmberg, 1985). In 1995 he explored the theory of distance education further, taking into consideration the purely educational aspects of learning and teaching with their surrounding circumstances and restrictions (Holmberg, 1995).

Moore first defined distance education in his theory of ‘Autonomy and Distance’ as:

> the family of instructional methods in which the teaching behaviors are executed apart from the learning behaviors, including those that in a contiguous situation would be performed in the learners’ presence, so that communication between the teacher and the
Moore revised the early theory as the theory of ‘Transactional Distance’ in the 1980s and 1990s. The extent of transactional distance in an educational programme is a function of a set of variables. These are not technological or communications variables, but variables in the teaching and learning process (Moore, 1993, pp. 22–23). Moore emphasises the relationships between the variables of dialogue, structure and learner autonomy, and calls for an appropriate balance between the three so as to encourage learner autonomy and two-way communication in the teaching and learning process.

For Peters, distance education is a rationalised method – involving the division of labour – for providing knowledge that, as a result of applying the principles of industrial organisation as well as the extensive use of technology, allows a large number of students to participate in university study simultaneously, regardless of their place of residence and occupation (Peters, 1994, p. 125). Peters does not deny the disadvantage of alienation through industrialised forms of distance teaching and learning, but explains that he limited himself to describing the structural differences between traditional teaching and learning and distance study. In his recent studies, he goes further to build his theory based on post-industrial changes, demanding a pedagogical interpretation of distance education and online learning in the knowledge economy and digital environment (Peters, 2008).

The common phenomenon of the theories of distance education is that they emphasise the notion that distance education is a different form of education compared with traditional education, due to the separation of teacher and student. The leading distance education theorists propose possible arrangements, forms and methods to bridge that separation in the teaching and learning transaction based on the general educational and communication theories, ‘therefore, most of them can be called theories of legitimation’ (Peters, 1993, p. 17). However, if we relate these theories to the contexts in which they have evolved, we can see clearly that the concept of distance education is deeply rooted in the philosophies of educational democracy, equity and egalitarianism.

As two-way communications technology began to link the teaching and learning acts in distance education in the 1990s, in particular the employment of information and telecommunications technology with synchronous functionality, the distance between teacher and learner was likely to disappear. But if distance in distance education goes, what will happen to distance education? (Wei, 2008, p. 340). Changes in the practice of distance education require the review and revision of distance education theories. Thus, the focus of distance education study has been shifting from organisational issues to pedagogical issues associated with the teaching–learning transaction, with concerns regarding real, sustained communication, as well as the emerging information and telecommunications technology to support sustained communication anytime, anywhere.

Garrison proposed that ‘as distance education practice goes further towards the general field of education, the acceptance of distance education as a legitimate field of study and practice will depend upon how education at a distance is designed and delivered’ (1993, p. 20). Moore aired almost the same view, ‘… that greater attention will be paid to variables besides the communications media, especially design of courses and the selection and training of instructors and the learning styles of students’ (1993, p. 24). Wedemeyer also claimed that distance education had yet ‘failed to
develop a theory related to the mainstream of educational thought and practice’ (in Keegan, 1996, p. 56). Holmberg expanded his theory by embracing the general theories of teaching and learning, and the organisational/administrative frames (Holmberg, 1985, 1986). As for Peters, he extended his definition of distance education as a complex, hierarchical, non-linear, dynamic, self-organised, and purposeful system of learning and teaching by incorporating the post-industrial era (Peters, 2008). All these indicate that distance education may no longer be a distinct field of education, which further blurs the differences between distance education and traditional education.

Open learning concepts

Different from distance education, which highlights the separation between teacher and students and the efforts to replicate traditional teaching and learning, open learning:

Denote(s) both an educational philosophy and a set of techniques for delivering knowledge and skills. As a philosophy, open learning implies greater accessibility, flexibility and student centeredness: it implies placing the learner rather than the provider at the core of educational practice. As a set of techniques, it is characterized by the use of resource-based teaching and training, often associated with the use of new communications media. (Field, 1994, p. 7)

Open learning, backed up by the idea of lifelong learning, can be near or distant, on campus or off campus, full-time or part-time, and degree or non-degree. It is a multifaceted broad concept, referring to:

the arrangements enabling people to learn at the time, place and pace which satisfy their circumstances and requirements. The emphasis is on opening up opportunities by overcoming barriers that result from geographical isolation, personal or work commitments or conventional course structures, which have often prevented people from gaining access to the training they need. (Tait, 1994, p. 27)

Both traditional and non-traditional educational institutions can offer open learning as long as they take measures to make their educational programmes more open and flexible as regards time, place, courses, methods, ideas and people.

Thus, the essence of open learning is accessibility and flexibility, with a student-centred approach to teaching. With the coming of the knowledge-based economy, the idea of lifelong learning prevails in every sector of society. Open learning is no longer only a means of skills training or knowledge updating, but a lifelong necessity for people to stay competitive in the national and international labour market. The concepts of open learning, which used to propose removing the barriers to learning with a student-centred approach, also develop with time. At the heart of open learning is learner choice: putting decisions about learning into the hands of the learners themselves. ‘Choice could be over the content in which learners studies; time, place and pace of learning; or over matters closer to the curriculum itself, such as content, learning method or nature of assessment’ (Lewis, 2002). All this makes present-day open learning look like a business, offering many kinds of educational products for customer choice, with student support service more or less like the after-sale service (Rumble, 2000).

Certain concepts of open learning have actually been long embedded in the activities and practice of distance education since what distance education has been trying
to do for more than 100 years is to provide an alternative route to education with open access and flexible modes of learning for individual learners. As the field of distance education is now embracing the idea of lifelong learning and making itself more accessible and flexible, it has been seen as moving from distance education towards open learning with regards to openness of ideas, access, courses, methods, places and students. In a way the concepts of open learning give inspiration to the current practice of distance education, making it become today’s ODL for multi-learners, with multi-modes, by multimedia, at multi-levels and for multi-purposes. Moreover, ODL also offers a stimulus to the traditional educational sector and other forms of part-time education, making them shift from a teacher-oriented or institution-oriented approach to a learner-centred one, and so providing them with a broader scope for future improvement and development.

However, the accessibility of open learning requires educational organisations to prepare more programmes and courses to accommodate the needs of various learners while the number of students spread over each programme or course will become less. And this will, to a great extent, increase the fixed costs of programme and course development in ODL. Similarly, the flexibility of open learning could also put heavy financial pressure in terms of a much more individualised learner support services, if the clientele can decide by themselves the time, place, content, pace and method of study, as well as the form of assessment and examination. The challenge ODL will be facing is that the economies of scale typical of distance education will disappear as both fixed costs and variable costs are increasing. This increase of expenditure will finally spread to each student, which will lead to a rise in tuition fees. If the tuition fees keep rising, the door of ODL might be closed to the disadvantaged groups. Thus, distance education incorporating open learning might make distance education lose the advantage of providing education at a lower cost. So present-day ODL might undermine the two most distinguishing features of distance education: distance education as a means of extending access to education to those who might otherwise be excluded from an educational experience (Garrison & Shale, 1989, p. 5); and as delivering more educational opportunities to more people than ever before, and to do so at lower average cost (Moore, 2003, p. 74).

Open and distance learning in China’s radio and TV universities

ODL in the network of China’s RTVUs is an ever-changing process in the context of the political, economic, social and cultural environment of the country. It takes place from the early stage of modelling after the Open University UK, to linking the separated teaching and learning acts in instruction with multimedia learning package and regular group tuition, to finally guiding and facilitating students’ self study with face-to-face and web-based interactive learner support. At each stage of its development, the concepts of ODL in China’s RTVUs are also evolving, from the ‘Industrialization of Teaching’ to ‘Guided Didactic Conversation’, shifting the focus from organisational issues to more pedagogical concerns, with the change of ideas from human capital theory to educational egalitarianism and lifelong learning.

A single-mode distance teaching university network

Founded in 1979 as a government initiative to train urgently needed manpower on the cheap for the four modernisations of the country (agriculture, industry, technology,
defence), the early RTVUs were run like a network of single-mode distance teaching universities. The CRTVU was the headquarters for programme and course development, while 28 provincial RTVUs enrolled students, organised teaching and learning, and awarded certificates (McCormick, 1992). Those provincial RTVUs, made up of dozens of administrative staff and teachers, were usually located in the local adult higher education institutions or conventional institutions of higher learning, sharing their campuses and hiring their staff to work part-time for them. Such was also the case with civic RTVU branch schools and county RTVU workstations, sharing campuses with local teacher-training institutes, workers’ colleges, vocational colleges, evening colleges, local high schools and vocational and teacher training centres, and making use of their physical and human resources for the operation.

The RTVU early provision was a sub-degree programme with a very limited number of disciplines in engineering and social science. Ready-made textbooks for conventional colleges and universities were adopted in RTVUs. Since those knowledge-based textbooks were not appropriate for self-study, teachers’ explanation and clarification were needed to facilitate learning. But the shortage of academics in local RTVUs made this teaching mission impossible. The medium of television came to the rescue to transmit the teaching of those courses by professors from traditional universities to all RTVU students nationwide in the form of classroom lectures with blackboards and talking heads. Although there was a well-established national television network to make all the programme delivery possible, China Central TV (CCTV) had to broadcast most of the TV programmes for RTVUs during daytime due to the limited transmission time. Moreover, the majority of the RTVU students did not have access to a television set at home. Group tuition seemed to offer the only solution to all these problems (Wei & Tong, 1994).

Thus, in the early stages, after applicants were admitted into RTVUs by passing the CRTVU entrance examination, those ‘distance learners’ were released from their work to study full-time on campus since they were mainly local residents such as factory workers, school teachers, and civil servants, with a high school educational background. They were organised into classes of about 40 each to watch television programmes in the classrooms, followed by face-to-face group tutorials, usually provided by part-time tutors. As Hawkridge once described the variety of activities of distance education in developing countries, ‘… and just to confuse the issue further, there are examples of distance education in classrooms that are more or less teacherless as in China’ (1988, pp. 84–95). The real open and distance learners, those free viewers and listeners who did not sit the entrance examination, but were allowed to study part-time on a single course basis, were not supported because of the shortage of teaching staff in local RTVUs.

Group tuition, as the accepted approach to teaching, has a deep-rooted origin in the Chinese cultural tradition for thousands of years. It not only appealed to RTVU students, but also to tutors since they were both familiar and felt comfortable with this traditional way of teaching and learning. Moreover, it bridged the gap between television teachers and RTVU students by offering interaction between students and students, and between tutors and students, reducing the negative effects of the passive, one-way-communication television programmes. Furthermore, it removed the sense of isolation, uncertainty and fear of failure usually experienced by part-time adult learners who had been absent from formal schooling for some years.

Peters’ ‘Division of Labor’ clearly marked this early stage in China’s RTVUs, with the CRTVU as the programmes’ production centre and the local RTVUs as its
study centres. However, the group tuition of full-time RTVU students, bizarre to the western ODL concepts, was actually the adapted form of distance education to the specific context of the country. In 1986 when China’s RTVUs were permitted to admit fresh high school leavers, the structure of the network began to change, from single-mode distance teaching universities to dual-mode ones, by offering education to both working adults and high school leavers. It was also in 1986 that RTVUs were no longer authorised to enrol free viewers and listeners, and all applicants for RTVUs were asked to take the national unified entrance examination for adult learners.

Dual-mode distance teaching universities

As RTVU programmes developed over the years, the RTVU student population expanded quickly, becoming far beyond the capacity and ability of the partnership institutions. Thus, there was large-scale construction and purchase of RTVU campuses, coupled with a large-scale recruitment of full-time administrative and teaching staff for local RTVUs. The decentralisation of the national educational system in the late 1980s further promoted this trend since local governments were willing to invest more in local RTVUs for training human resources needed in local development. One after another, local RTVUs moved out of the campuses of traditional institutions and became independent dual-mode local distance teaching universities under the direct leadership of their local government with power over the enrolment, programme provision and certificate issuance at the provincial and civic levels.

The adoption of a socialist market economy policy for promoting economic development of the country made many employers unwilling to grant their employees paid study leave. The end of 1990 saw only one-third of RTVU adult learners released from their work to study full-time. The problem was that the knowledge-based textbooks were not suitable at all for self-study. Moreover, the time schedule of television programme broadcasting was unable to meet the time available for working adults. It was at this time that China’s RTVUs first tasted the ‘distance’ in distance education. This ‘distance’ was different from the western notion of ‘distance’. It was neither the physical separation in time and space between television or radio teachers and RTVU students, nor the physical distance between television or radio teachers and RTVU students, because they did not change at all. What had changed was more and more adult learners had to study part-time, which caused the separation between tutors and students, and between students and students.

In other words, it was the change from full-time study to part-time study that created the ‘distance’ in distance education in China’s RTVUs. This ‘distance’ further gave rise to the actual separation between the teaching act and learning act. It was this separation of teaching and learning acts that then led to the obsolescence of textbooks, to the unavailability of television and radio programmes to RTVU students, to the lack of group tuition, to the loss of interaction between tutors and students, between students and students, to the sense of isolation and uncertainty, to the fear of failure, and much more. What was worse, part-time study was not a popular form of learning in China. ‘Distance education is not simply a geographic separation of learners and teachers, but, more importantly, is a pedagogical concept’ (Moore, 1993, p. 22). It was at this stage of the development that China’s RTVUs began to think, for the first time, from the perspective of a learner, about how to help students with their self-study...
rather than how to organise group tuition in the classrooms from a teacher's point of view.

The CRTVU was the first to take measures to adapt to the changing situation by undertaking a large-scale course development project in collaboration with traditional universities and provincial RTVUs. More than 200 courses were developed and revised as self-study packages, with a few adopting a tutorial-in-print approach, typical of Holmberg's theory of 'Guided Didactic Conversation', to facilitate learning. Television and radio programmes were made into audio-cassettes and video-cassettes as an integral part of the package, with local RTVU study centres equipped with cassette players for students to listen or watch in case they did not have access at home (Wei, 2000). Owing to the time pressure and the shortage of expertise in educational technology, many self-learning packages did not live up to the standards expected. Many more failed to provide the strategies to help students reorient from the teacher-centred tutor-dependent classroom tuition to learner-centred autonomous learning. What local RTVUs did to remedy the situation was to offer group tuition for part-time learners in the evenings and at weekends so as to link the separated teaching and learning acts. RTVU students from high school leavers, however, studied full-time on campus, using the same CRTVU course materials designed for part-time learners. In this way, China's RTVUs operated as dual-mode distance teaching universities, with two different management mechanisms. In the daytime they looked the same as other regular colleges, and in the evenings and at weekends they were more like adult higher education institutions with working adults attending group tuition.

The late 1980s and 1990s witnessed the Chinese Government’s interest in the ideas of continuing education, lifelong learning and open learning so as to improve the quality of the nation (MOE, 1993). Opening up access and modernising teaching and learning facilities were the two main features for distance education. In 1995 an open entry policy was reintroduced in the ‘Registered Free Viewers and Listeners’ project in RTVUs. This project was designed and conducted to reform the existing RTVUs’ operational, managerial, teaching and learning modes for future ODL in China. Thus, the major form of teaching and learning of the project was students’ ‘independent study’ of the multimedia learning package with little group tuition. However, ‘the greater structure and the lower dialogue’ for this target group did not seem to promote the expected ‘learner autonomy’ (Moore, 1993, p. 28). By the end of 1998, when the first group of registered free viewers and listeners was to graduate, the average completion rate was only 5.1% (Yu, 1999), a sharp contrast to that of 97% for distance learners.

Under such circumstances, distance educators in RTVUs began to observe their students. They found that open learning students had diverse educational backgrounds, instrumental motivation and teacher-dependent learning behaviour. Although closed entry did block access to higher education for some, it ensured the pre-requisites required of the applicants admitted, paving the way for later organisation and the operation of group tuition. The role of open entry seemed negative rather than positive in this regard because the very diverse educational backgrounds of students could jeopardise the value of the age-long common practice of group tuition. Open learning students’ motivation and learning behaviour also implied that even if study skills were included in the multi-media learning package, a responsive learner support, both near (face-to-face) and distant, was a must (Tong, 2000). Greater attention should be paid to ‘the variables in teaching and in learning and in the interaction of teaching and
learning’ (Moore, 1993, p. 23). This observation created an awareness of a learner-centred approach in RTVUs. More, it made them realise the importance of learner support in ODL.

**Dual-track distance teaching universities**

Influenced by the change of name for the International Council for Distance Education to the International Council for Open and Distance Education in 1999, the term ‘distance education’ was replaced by ‘modern open and distance education’ in the Chinese context. The word ‘modern’ represents the employment of cutting-edge technologies in ODL. The word ‘open’ refers to the open entry policy and the meaning of ‘distance education’ is the separation between teacher and student in the instructional process. By claiming themselves to be modern open distance education universities, China’s RTVUs were attempting to embrace the concepts of three fields of study: distance education, open learning and educational technology.

In 1999 another open entry project, ‘The Reform of Personnel Training Model and Experiment on Open Learning’, was underway in RTVUs in cooperation with traditional universities. Lessons learned from the previous trial project indicated that the priority of open learning was neither open access nor flexibility. What should be taken into consideration first of all were the chain reactions and consequences that open access and flexibility would give rise to in the teaching and learning process. Accessibility and flexibility are key elements of open learning, but the essence of ODL still relates to pedagogical issues. All the variables involved in ODL should be well balanced subject to the specific features of the learners and institutions. There is no such case as: the more open a learning system is, the better it will be, or the more closed a learning system is, the worse it will be, as every coin has two sides. What ODL in China’s RTVUs needs most is interactive student support services.

In April 2001 the CRTVU combined the satellite broadcast system and China Education and Research Network for the delivery of ODL. In 44 provincial-level RTVUs and 608 municipal and county RTVU branch schools/workstations, teachers and students could access online resources and supplements for more than 500 courses from their campus computer laboratories or home computers. In 2002, interactive elements in the form of email, teleconferencing, Bulletin Board systems, chatroom, QQ (a free instant messaging computer program in China), and an online forum were added to the online courses to provide two-way communication. RTVUs were trying to ‘move the student into the center of the picture’ (Lewis, 2002), but without ‘an electronic environment of student services for all’ (Sewart, 2001, p. 10). For a country with a rural population of more than 75%, and with the ownership of computers per 100 households of only 5.4 in the country and 59.3 in the cities (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2009), group tuition in the evenings and at weekends has remained until today as one major form of learner support in many RTVUs to prevent the quality of ODL from falling.

In 2006 the adult higher education institutions in China, including RTVUs, were no longer allowed by the central educational authority to admit immediate high school leavers, as their focus was oriented to the provision of on-the-job-training, continuing education and non-degree adult educational programmes for a learning society. This policy change put local RTVUs in a dilemma because their funding mainly came from their local government based on the number of full-time students admitted. The CRTVU is an exception because its annual block grant comes directly from the MOE
based on its activities rather than on the number of full-time students it admits. Without government funding, the provision of ODL will become mere lip service, ‘To be open or not to be open’; that is a question for local RTVUs in the new century.

Consequently, a dramatic structural change is seen within the network of China’s RTVUs as the central authority delegates the power of higher education to provincial governments. Fourteen out of 44 RTVUs at provincial level, with approval from the MOE, have become dual-track institutions of higher learning. That is to say, instead of having one identity, they each possess two – one as the RTVU and the other as the provincial vocational college, with the former providing part-time ODL for adult learners and the latter offering full-time vocational and technical education to new high school leavers. Part-time adult learners will use the CRTVU self-learning packages while full-time students follow the academic schemes for campus students in conventional two-year and three-year colleges. Ten more RTVUs have cooperated with their local traditional college or university, following the teaching plan of either the partner institution or the RTVU. Another 12 RTVUs are awaiting the MOE’s validation for their double identity, and only a few have remained as single-mode distance teaching universities (Tong & Wei, 2007). As for RTVUs at civic level, about one-half have merged into other local higher learning institutions, totally losing their identity as an independent distance higher education institution.

Conclusion
There is nothing so theoretical as good practice (Fullan, 1991, p. 8). The development of ODL in China’s RTVUs shows that part-time study of distance learners helps the RTVUs understand the concepts of distance education, and the open entry policy for open learning programmes generates their awareness of open learning ideas. Namely, it is the practice of ODL that finally lead China’s RTVUs to a better understanding of ODL concepts. Practice and theory interact with each other. It is practice that leads to a good understanding of theory, and this understanding, in turn, promotes better practice, which will then result in the future change of ideas. No matter how the external environments change, how the RTVUs respond to the changes, ODL in China’s RTVUs is developing, taking into consideration the Chinese characteristics.

As distance education embraces open learning to promote a learning society, the underpinning ideas of distance education – that is, educational democracy, equity and egalitarianism – should be revisited. These ideas are the inspiration for the creation and development of distance education and, together with the successful operation of ODL, have taken distance education from ‘back-door learning’ to ‘front-door learning’ in many developed countries as more and more traditional educational organisations find fewer philosophical and practical concerns with delivering education at a distance. The practice and activities of distance education in developing countries may not demonstrate all these ideas, but the review of these ideas might not only create an awareness of greater equity, but also encourage more educational democracy in both developed and developing countries. Moreover, these ideas can be made compatible with the concepts of open learning so as to build a global learning society for all.

References


