

Reviewing Implementation of Global Mobility Policy for Youth from the Perspectives of Stakeholders

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Abstract

Following the EU's Erasmus, Korea's K-Move, Australia's New Colombo Plan, and the United States' Generation Study Abroad, Taiwan's Ministry of Education (MOE) initiated a plan called Mobility+ in 2015. The four-year plan was conducted from 2016 to 2019; its aim was to promote the capability of global mobility for youth. Previous studies examined this policy focusing on student overseas studies and teacher education for internationalization. However, the discussion of stakeholders' voices is still limited. This study aims to determine the challenges of Mobility+ and its future prospect in global context based on stakeholders' perspectives. The survey gathered 404 participants, 24.5% of whom resided in northern Taiwan, 36.9% in southern Taiwan, 30.0% in central Taiwan, and 8.7% in eastern Taiwan. The results reveal current Mobility+ has faced significant challenges and relatively low resources support, which might impact on the outcome of the implementation of the policy itself. However, relatively low resources did not affect MOE's intention to implement Mobility+. This study found that the working plans of universities were more effective than those of high schools, especially in terms of available resources and outcomes of policy implementation. This study also found that Mobility+ overemphasized outbound studies

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at the expense of local students' needs. The findings suggest further enhancing the implementation of the global mobility policy for youth in the future, while also enriching the knowledge of the field.

Keywords: global mobility, internationalization, outbound study, policy design, policy implementation

Introduction

Enhancing students' global mobility is one of the major objectives of education policies in various countries and it has extended to different academic levels to promote students' global competition in the future. Traditionally, student mobility has referred to two different types: inbound and outbound mobility. Inbound mobility refers to students who move to a country to study or study-related activity. Outbound mobility refers to students who leave their home country to study or professional training. Inbound and outbound mobility might be intertwined but not balance in number of students. For example, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2015) countries had more inbound mobility compared to outbound mobility in tertiary education. Specifically, 89% of OECD citizens study abroad in another OECD country, and 70% of international students in OECD countries come from a non-OECD country. To further analyze the student mobility among OECD countries, we found there are an average of 19% of all international students came from neighboring countries that share land or maritime borders with the host country in 2013. Even though the numbers changed in 2016 (OECD, 2018), student mobility from neighboring countries reflects the local pattern of mobility. Teichler (2012) defined that the number of "incoming students" and "inwards mobile" can be referred to the number of "foreign" students, if nationality is of interest. Similarly, "outgoing students" or "outwards mobile" students can be referred to "study abroad", if the nationality is of interest. Such definition has been applied to numerous countries to establish its policies of student mobility. For example, ERAMUS Plus in the European Union (EU), Korean K-Move, Australia's New Colombo Plan, and Generation Study in the US are all embedded to such concept and intend to achieve via specific policies.

Various studies focus on outbound student mobility (Dall'Alba & Sidhu, 2015; Gray, Hall, Downey, Jones, Truong, & Power, 2018), but stakeholders' perspectives are little explored with a specific policy. In order to enhance the policy implementation and enrich the knowledge in the field, this study intend to explore the perspectives of student mobility via stakeholders' perspectives. Moreover, higher education expansion or over-

expansion has provided a convenient learning environment in Taiwan which may decrease students' motivation to study abroad. Simultaneously, the declining birthrate also decrease the student enrollment of higher education system (Chang, 2018; Chang & Huang, 2017; Wu, Chang, & Hu, 2019). To recruit international students in higher education, the student mobility policies in Taiwan have been more prone to the inbound mobility. Taiwan has been facing the isolated international relationship globally and the student mobility policies could show how Taiwan utilize its soft power to gain global recognition. Based on the above discussion, this study selected the student mobility policies in Taiwan as the research target and addressed the following research questions:

1. What is the trend of global student mobility and that of Taiwan?
2. What kind of theories can be applied to interpret the student mobility phenomena in Taiwan?
3. What are the stakeholders' reflections on implementing the Mobility+ policy?
4. What are the differences of implementation in institutional levels and sector viewed by stakeholders?
5. What are the findings prompted to the knowledge of future policy design?

In this paper, the parts are organized as follows. Firstly, this study discusses the mobility policy implementation related to the EU's ERASMUS Plus, Korea's K-Move, Australia's New Colombo Plan, the US's Generation Study Abroad and Taiwan's Mobility+. Secondly, we review the related theories to interpret student mobility phenomena. Thirdly, we address the research framework and how the data were collected and analyzed. Fourthly, the results of implementing of Taiwan's Mobility+ are presented and discussed. Finally, conclusions are drawn.

Literature Review

In this section, this study addresses the trends of student mobility and what kinds of policy initiatives have worked? The related theories are then addressed to interpret the student mobility phenomena in the global context.

Global Trends of Student Mobility

Under the trend of global mobility, different formats for promoting students' mobility capability have been implemented in different countries. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategy and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least a cost-recovery basis. Outbound-oriented mobility learning for economic or culture reasons has been considered in various countries, for example, intentionally designing international service-learning in structured service-learning experiences in another country where students can learn from interaction, cross-cultural dialogue, and reflection (Coryell, Stewart, Wubbena, Valverde-Poemie, & Spencer, 2016). Outbound mobility enhances opportunities for upward mobility, while it also challenges the established cultural patterns of learning. Clearly, we need to consider policy design in a wider perspective to fit national goals in the global context. With this regard, we started literature from international policies including EU's ERASMUS Plus, followed by Korea's K-move, Australia's New Colombo Plan, the US's Generation Study Abroad. After introducing and examine the international policies, we analyzed the similarities and differences with Taiwan's Mobility+.

EU's ERASMUS Plus

ERASMUS is the largest mobility exchange scheme for higher education in Europe and the flagship program of the EU. More than 4,000 higher education institutions from more than 30 countries take part in the program (European Commission, 2016a). ERASMUS mobility, presented by the European Commission, provides information on both incoming and outgoing students, and the interpretations reflect an ideal of reciprocal exchange and thus equal interest in inwards and outwards mobility. The program requires universities to have signed a European charter, which implies that the institutions promise to meet certain conditions regarding student exchanges taking place within the program; for instance, tuition fees at the host institution are waived and credits earned at the host institutions are to be recognized by the sending institution in

accordance with a learning and training agreement signed by the sending and host institution and the student (European Commission, 2016b, 2016c). Reflecting on the 25th anniversary of the ERASMUS program, de Wit (2012) mentions that the lack of involvement of the faculty and a move to a more bureaucratic and quantitative approach to ERASMUS mobility in the past 15 years have to be regarded as barriers. Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens and de Wit (2013) indicate that the effect of social and personal variables is one of differentiating factors between ERASMUS and non-ERASMUS students. They highlight the importance of social and personal considerations that relate to balancing the risks (credit recognition, costs and benefits) and to managing personal anxieties (social factors) related to student mobility. The importance of social and personal aspects may suggest that the marketing and communication aspects of the program should change to put greater emphasis on opportunities for personal development and the establishment of new relationships without losing the old ones. Furthermore, Beerkens, Souto-Otero, de Wit and Huisman (2016) indicate incredible similarities between countries regarding how barriers cluster for students and what barriers hinder non-participants. They argue that home ties and lack of interest are the most robust predictors for non-participation. How can the non-participants be helped to overcome the barriers to mobility? Reconsidering national and institutional policies as well as the contextual factors are more relevant in reflecting the above issues.

Korea's K-Move

The main business of K-Move is supporting Korean youth with passion and offering the possibility for them to grow into global leaders. Basically, K-Move helps young people who wish to work abroad by facilitating overseas employment and the capabilities required, with preparations, local information, and support mentoring. Authorities related to K-Move include overseas employment, overseas internship, overseas startup, and overseas volunteering (K-Move Enterprise, 2016a). The Ministry of Employment and Labor supports the overseas employment of young Koreans via its K-Move program. The Ministry of Education in Korea supports the training of talented youth for overseas employment. The Ministry of Trade, Industry & Energy supports global marketing activities, including overseas employment or startups. The Ministry of

Foreign Affairs ensures the safety of Koreans overseas, the protection of their rights through its diplomatic relations and overseas network of embassies. It also expands its diplomatic activities to promote overseas jobs (K-Move Enterprise, 2016b).

Under the vision of K-Move's "Korean youth move the world", the domestic labor market for youth is expanded globally; they are supported in obtaining a diverse array of overseas experience, and provided with total global job information and One-Stop overseas employment service. Through this process, the Korean government is expected to train competent human resources who will lead national growth and become the world-class talent that leading companies seek. Their goal is to resolve the problem of youth unemployment through training that addresses the needs of the market (Human Resources Development Service of Korea, 2016).

Australia's New Colombo Plan

Australian universities have implemented outbound student mobility programs focused in the Asia region and hyped them as a powerful educational strategy to positively transform student through opportunities to acquire intercultural competence (Townsin & Walsh, 2016). Australia's highly effective soft power means building alliances, enhancing Australian influence, and creating cultural understanding between Australia and Asia (Adans, Banks, & Olsen, 2011). The related policy has been driven by the Colombo Plan and the new Colombo Plan (Australia Government, 2016; Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2016a; Oakman, 2010). The New Colombo Plan is a signature initiative of the Australian Government which aims to enhance knowledge of the Indo-Pacific region in Australia by supporting Australian undergraduates to study and undertake internships in the region. The Australian Government made an initial commitment of \$100 million of funding for the New Colombo Plan (Australia Government, 2016). This plan is intended to be transformational, deepening Australia's relationships in the region, at the individual level and through expanding university, business and other links. There are 38 eligible host locations for the New Colombo Plan supported study across the Indo-Pacific region. The New Colombo Plan pilot year of 2014 supported 40 scholars and more than 1,300 mobility students to study and undertake work placements across four pilot locations. In

2015 the New Colombo Plan built on this success, expanding the program across the Indo-Pacific region and awarding 69 scholarships and supporting more than 3,100 mobility students. The program continued to grow in 2016 to support more than 5,450 mobility students and 100 scholars to live, study and undertake work placements in the region, bringing the total number of students funded by the New Colombo Plan to more than 10,000 in just the first three years of the program (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2016a). Under the 2017 funding round, around \$20 million in New Colombo Plan mobility grants is expected to be awarded to Australian universities to support students to study and undertake work-based experiences in the Indo-Pacific region between the 1st of January 2017 and the 30th of June 2018 (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2016b).

US's Generation Study Abroad

According to the Open Doors Report on International and Educational Exchange, 295,000 American college students studied abroad in 2011/12 in credit and non-credit programs. These students represent less than 10% of the 2.6 million students graduating with associates or baccalaureate degrees each year (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2016a). IIE (2016b) indicated that 2.6 million students earn an undergraduate degree each year; fewer than 300,000 of these have studied abroad before graduating. The goal is 600,000 students studying abroad annually by the end of the decade. Generation Study Abroad is a five-year initiative of the IIE to mobilize resources and commitments with the goal of doubling the number of U.S. students studying abroad by the end of the decade (Chang, 2016). Leading up to IIE's centennial celebration in 2019, Generation Study Abroad is engaging educators at all levels and stakeholders in the public and private sectors to drive meaningful, innovative action to increase the number and broaden the population of U.S. students who have the opportunity to gain international experience through academic study abroad programs, as well as internships, service learning and non-credit educational experiences (IIE, 2016b). Generation Study Abroad was designed and implemented by the IIE, which provides programs of study and training for students, educators, young professionals and trainees from all sectors with funding from government agencies, foundations, and corporations. The year one

impact of Generation Study Abroad has been reported as encompassing the following topics (IIE, 2016b):

- Expanding access: Scholarships and funding;
- Building awareness;
- Internationalizing the curriculum: Mobilizing faculty;
- Engaging alumni;
- Removing barriers: Providing tools and resources;
- A global movement;
- Building the pipeline.

Taiwan's Mobility+

The Ministry of Education in Taiwan initiated Mobility+ in 2015 as a policy effort to promote youth global mobility and enhance the global competition. The four-year plan was designed to be implemented from 2016 to 2019; its aim is to promote the capability of global mobility for youth. Mobility+ is a comprehensive project which contains 21 strategies, 115 implementing actions, and five supplementary measures. The key competences for global mobility include: capabilities of communication, culture adaptability, professional competence, and practice focusing ability as defined for the young generation at different levels of education (Ministry of Education, 2016). The Mobility+ policy was designed by Ministry of Education; essentially, it is a top-down policy and needs to be totally supported by institutional levels. During these four years, the central government supported the funding for universities and senior high schools by way of policy-driven projects, for example Teaching Excellence Project for universities and High Quality Assisting Project for senior high schools. The visions of the policy are listed as follows (Ministry of Education, 2011, 2016):

- In elementary schools: Create a global map for students;
- In junior high schools: At least contact an international friend;
- In senior high schools: Promote courage and interest for international activities;
- At the university level: Enhance capabilities for global mobility;

Based on the above discussion, student mobility refers to inbound and outbound directions. The EU's ERASMUS Plus provides both functions, while Korea's K-Move,

Australia's New Colombo Plan, the US's Generation Study Abroad and Taiwan's Mobility+ are perceived as focusing more on outbound study or exchange. As Bilecen (2016) argued, international students in Europe are usually depicted as highly skilled, young, cosmopolitan and easier to integrate into host societies, which makes them perfect migrants to join the aging Western populations. Various factor which might impact on students' perspective on global mobility and their decision. Previous studies examined how teacher education might prepare the youth mobility (Yen, 2016), while this study explores its challenges with specific purposes of Mobility+ by using the stakeholder's perspectives.

Related Theories for Interpreting Student Global Mobility and Policies

The internationalization of education has been considered as an indisputable global trend. We suggest that the international context is external to educational institutions and needs to be incorporated into all functions of academia. Globalization is both external to education and a threat to local places, thus requiring a defensive response to the phenomena of global mobility. The rationales of internationalization have been investigated and illustrated in different dimensions and different ways in previous studies, where we found soft power theory, push-pull theory, and spatial theory mentioned persistently in this field to interpret the phenomena from different viewpoints.

Soft Power Theory

Nye (2004a, 2004b, 2005) argues that there are three key power resources: culture, political values, and foreign policy. Soft power, as applied to foreign policy, usually refers to the capacity to achieve policy aims through attraction, rather than force (Lomer, 2017). In general, soft power aims to attract other countries to follow a country's subscribed path, whereas hard power focuses on coercing or inducing others to align with another country's perspectives and goals (Nye, 2004a). Basically, it encourages others to subscribe to the same aims and outcomes, co-opting rather than coercing or persuading (Lukes, 2005). Following this sense, higher education offers the opportunity for educational exchanges between countries, generating a space for cultural contact as

well as recruiting international students in numerous countries. For example, ERASMUS is a great example of providing information on both incoming and outgoing students, and the interpretations reflect an ideal of reciprocal exchange. Policies such as ERASMUS underlying soft power theory viewed alumni as “unofficial ambassadors” and “long-term advocates” for the destination countries and institutions (British Council, 2003; Debenham Thouard Zadelhoff [DTZ], 2011; Department for Business Innovation and Skills [BIS], 2009). The report of Wider Benefits of International Higher Education suggests that graduates “promote and help to facilitate educational, cultural, developmental, and business links and collaborations” with other countries (Lomer, 2017; Mellors-Bourne, Humfrey, Kemp, & Woodfield, 2013). These kinds of policies could also promote other countries such as “promote Britain around the world” (Department of Fire and Emergency Services [DFES], 2003).

Moreover, Nagao (2016) proposes direct and indirect soft power to make a distinction between: 1. the ones that involve direct payment from one government to another (or institution) and 2. indirect investments in individuals and professionals for scholarships and training, including nonmonetary cultural influences. In other words, direct soft power is an institutional investment, while indirect soft power is individual investment through scholarship or professional projects. For instance, educational investment is categorized as one kind of the indirect soft power, such as the British Council of the United Kingdom, the Goethe Institute of Germany, and the Confucius Institute of China. In this sense, technology, education, and economic growth are becoming more important in constructing soft power, whereas the geography, population, and raw materials are becoming less important (Li, 2018). From a structural approach, the soft power of higher education not only rests on a country’s culture, values and policies, but also depends on the structure of the international education system, comprised of international education norms, rules, and institutions. The US higher education system provides a good example, which includes providing sufficient educational resources; institutional funding of international activities; institutional policies regarding international programs; federal, state, and foundation support for international education; international courses and curricula, and initiating different international projects, such as intercultural exchange projects. All these initiatives play

significant roles in shaping the integrated behaviors of conceptualizing soft power conversion of US higher education (Li, 2018). Australia's New Colombo Plan is another example of how soft-power theory is embedded in the policy. In Australia, highly effective soft power means building alliances, enhancing Australian influence, and creating cultural understanding between Australia and Asia (Adans et al., 2011). Taiwan's Mobility+ focuses on the outbound mobility could be another example of soft-power theory. Soft power theory has been converted into the international education policies mentioned above.

Push-pull Theory

Push-pull theory has long been used to explain international student flow. Ravenstein (1989) used census data from England and Wales to develop his "Laws of Migration" and concluded that migration was governed by a "push-pull" process; that is, unfavorable conditions in one place (oppressive laws, heavy taxation, etc.) "push" people out, and favorable conditions in an external location "pull" them in. Ravenstein's laws state that the primary cause for migration was better external economic opportunities; the volume of migration decreases as distance increases; migration occurs in stages instead of one long move; population movements are bilateral; and migration differentials (e.g., gender, social class, age) influence a person's mobility (Ravenstein, 1985, 1989). Based on Ravenstein's theory, Lee (1966) further focused on showing possible migration between a place of origin and a place of destination, with positive and negative signs signifying pull and push factors, respectively. There are many factors in both the places of origin and destinations, namely environmental, economic and social factors. Environmental factors refer to climate, attitude, land resources, water resources, and location. Economic and social situations refer to the situations of living standard, income, employment situation, education facilities, medical services, and transportation. For intervening obstacles, we could include the distance and the great changing of the migrants' life, the change of lifestyle, change of productive activities, language obstacles, and loss of traditional living skills. For personal factors, we mainly focus on the migrant's age, gender, education, occupation, income, number of livestock, and area of grassland.

After Lee proposed the theory, it had been broadly used in several types of research in issues of international student mobility. Specifically, the micro-level factors referring to most of the decision-making involves parents and other relatives. When deciding to study internationally, most students go through four distinct stages: clarifying the intention to study internationally, choosing the country in which to study, selection of a type of institution, and choice of the city (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2001). Regarding macro factors, available evidence also suggests the presence of a link between choice of country in which to study and the likelihood of obtaining permanent residency upon graduation (Baas, 2006). Thus, marketing of international education is increasingly being integrated into the migration marketing strategies, such as those pertaining to permanent residency (Baas, 2007). Moreover, the meso factors can explain the economic impact of international students on individual institutions. For example, international students are also a highly sought commodity for universities that are undergoing transformative changes brought on by neoliberal policies, whereby university agendas are increasingly aligning with corporate interests (Magnusson, 2000; Scott, 2000; Sidhu, 2002, 2006). Many universities have become corporate organizations that seek to generate profit, rather than to focus on producing and disseminating knowledge for the betterment of society (Maringe, 2010). Pull and push theory provides a clear framework to reflect the global mobility phenomena and policies, and Korea's K-Move is one of the examples.

Spatial Theory

How can a theoretical framework based on spatial, network, and mobility theories can cause us to shift our attention from linear, binary, deterministic, Western-centric accounts of internationalization to understand the complex, multi-centered process. As Larsen (2016) argues, there are notable problems with the distinction between internationalization at home and internationalization abroad. Working within this binary framework means accepting that there are particular internationalization strategies that happen in a local setting, home, and others that do not. Larsen proposes an analysis through spatial, network, and mobility theories to broaden the theoretical framework for analyzing internationalization in higher education settings. Moreover, as Rumbley and

Altbach (2016) explain, the nexus between the local and global is increasingly important to international initiatives of all kinds, and understanding this relationship is key to comprehending the increasingly complex nature of 21st century higher education internationalization.

Spatial theories operate based on a new set of ontological assumptions that propose the social world as being a fundamentally spatial, as well as networked and mobile framework. There are many overlapping perspectives and approaches across new spatial, mobility, and network theories (Larsen, 2016). For example, post-structural spatial scholars Massey (2005) and Soja (1996, 2009) emphasize the need for more complex theorizations of the concept of place/local and space/global. They are concerned with how space is constructed and changed by human activity within it, and how human activity is altered and shaped by spatial arrangements. It is not helpful to think of the international (or the global) as something “out there” and beyond the university, until the university becomes internationalized. The international is co-constructed within local universities, which in turn are co-constituted through the very international phenomena that influence and shape what they are. Even though the emerging spatial theory has focused on higher education, it can be extended to explain the phenomena in other education levels. Furthermore, mobility theories combine social, spatial, and anthropological research, bringing together:

some of the more purely “social” concerns of sociology (inequality, power, hierarchies) with the “spatial” concerns of geography (territory, borders, scale) and the “cultural” concerns of anthropology and media studies (discourses, representations, schemas), while inflecting each with a relational ontology of the co-constitution of subjects, spaces and meanings. (Sheller, 2011)

Mobility theories are concerned with forms of actual, potential, and blocked movement. With regard to network theories, Castells (2000a, 2000b) argues that the space of places is based on the closely interrelated contiguity of practice, meaning, function, and locality, while the space of flows is comprised of the material arrangements that allow for simultaneity of social practices without territorial contiguity. The space of flows is

not placeless, but rather is made of nodes and networks, places connected by ICT networks through which information circulates. The related theories provide a window to view the complex student global mobility phenomena. With a holistic approach, spatial theory provides a reasonable framework to interpret global mobility phenomena. Moreover, the spatial theory, with culture understanding, has extended the notion to wider conceptual contexts in the process of global mobility. Spatial theory may provide a wider perspective for designing student mobility policy.

Stakeholder's Perspectives in Mobility Policy

Many countries view international academic mobility and educational exchanges as critical components for sharing knowledge, building intellectual capital, and remaining competitive in a global world. It is a way to foster mutual understanding and cooperation, especially in a climate of increased security and political concerns (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). Various mobility enhancing policies have implemented in different countries and areas, for example, TEMPUS and ERASMUS in EU, New Colombo Plan in Australia and K-Move in Korea. Previous studies have addressed related mobility policies from different viewpoints, for example, Gross and Berry (2016) employed event history modeling to describe and explain how state policy levers, specifically state grant aid, relates to mobility and baccalaureate degree completion; Dall'Alba and Sidhu (2015) analyzed a recent initiative to increase undergraduate outbound student mobility at a research-intensive Australian university in regard to the experiences and perceptions of participating students; Lingo's student's intent to participate study abroad suggests gender, prior and current academic characteristics, university type, diverse coursework, orientation towards diversity, non-classroom faculty interactions, and co-curricular involvement have associations with study abroad participation (Lingo, 2019); Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2015) argued that study abroad intent and participation are interrelated and shaped by an array of factors, including gender, race or ethnicity, major, and involvement in college activities. Based on the theoretical argumentation, the implementation of global mobility policy has not been tested explicitly with stakeholder's perspectives in prior policy or education abroad

literatures. This study highlights the direction for future research on the relationship between state-level mobility policy and stakeholders' voices in participating in education internationalization. The result of this study may enhance the knowledge of the student global mobility context.

Methods

Under current global context, we selected the research target to realize the stakeholders' reflections on the Mobility+ policy in Taiwan as a case study. In this section, the research framework, data collection, and data analysis process are addressed.

Framework of Mobility+

There are four main themes in the mobility+ policy design: capabilities of communication, culture adaptability, professional competence, and implementation of focusing ability. In this study, the research design follows the policy guidelines by evaluating the stakeholder's perspectives from different levels or sectors. The research framework includes the four competences of global mobility and displays how the stakeholder's perspectives have been collected (see Figure 1). In this study, the stakeholders refer to administrators in universities and higher schools, faculty in universities and high schools, and students.

Data Collection

In this study, a self-designed questionnaire was used to collect the data from the stakeholders in higher and secondary education levels in Taiwan. It is a five-point Likert scale questionnaire focusing on the key competences of global mobility, including how the institutes promote students' capabilities of communication, culture adaptability, professional competence, and implementation ability. The questionnaires include the following five domains which are our major concern issues for implementing global mobility policy:

1. Implementing policy and strategy in institutes;
2. Level of challenges in institutes;

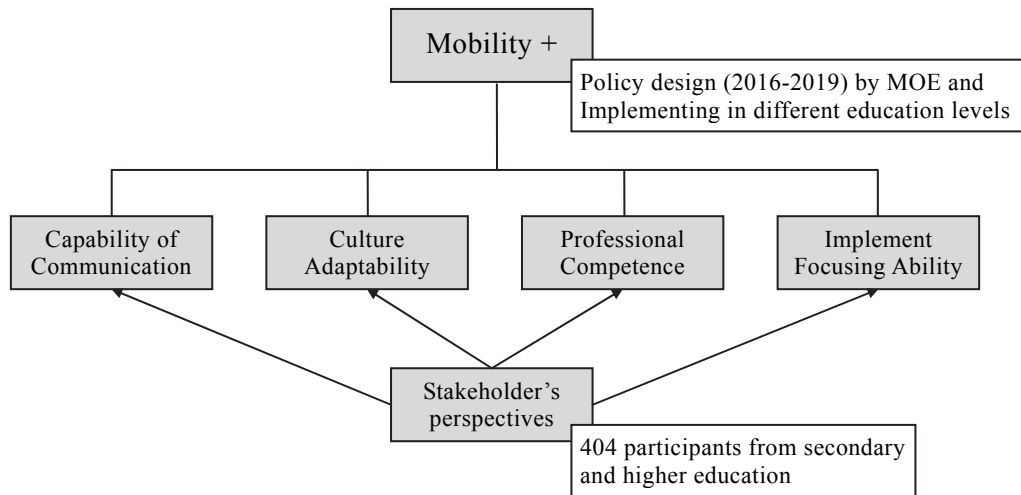


Figure 1 The Research Framework

3. Intentions of students engaged in global mobility;

4. Supportive resources in institutes refer to subsidy for global mobility, related staff engaged in the service;

5. Effect of global mobility policy implementation in institutes.

These selected items have been verified by 5 experts in this field, including 3 professors and 2 school teachers. The Cronbach's α is .871 with 10 related items in this survey instrument.

The samples have considered the different areas in the Island, levels of education, sectors, and participant's current positions. The samples were collected by way of the local centers for implementing internationalization in terms of selected universities or senior high schools during 2018. There are 25 institutes located different areas of Taiwan. We have invited the 25 institutes to help the data collection from their neighbor institutes during that time. Table 1 shows the total valid samples are 404 based on areas, level of education, sector, types of institutions. The participants, in terms of policy stakeholders, from universities are 250 (61.9%), the participants from high schools are 154 (38.1%). There are 264 (65.3%) participants from the public sector, and the other 135 (33.8%) from the private sector. Most of the invited participants (61.3%) are administrators in charge of the international affairs in their institutes. There are 125

students (31.6%) from different levels of education on the basis of voluntary participation. The details of the stakeholders' structures are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 The Distribution of Samples by Different Categories

Classify	<i>N</i>	Percent	Cumulated (%)
Areas	404		
Central	121	30.0	30.0
North	99	24.5	54.5
East	35	8.7	63.1
South	149	36.9	100.0
Levels of education	404		
Universities	250	61.9	61.9
High schools	154	38.1	100.0
Sectors	399		(missing 5)
Public	264	65.3	66.2
Private	135	33.4	100.0
Types of work places	399		(missing 5)
University	158	39.6	39.6
Technological university	86	21.6	61.2
Senior high schools	106	26.6	87.7
Senior vocational high schools	49	12.3	100.0
Faculty/staff or students	395		(missing 9)
Administrators of university	107	26.5	27.1
Faculty of universities	18	4.5	31.6
Administrators of high schools	135	33.4	65.8
Teachers of high schools	10	2.5	68.4
Students	125	30.9	100.0

Data Analysis

The original questionnaire is a 5-point Likert scale to be used to collect data. The values of scale have been transformed from -2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree) in our data analysis. In this study, SPSS statistics was conducted, including mean, t-test, and ANOVA. The mean is used to realize the whole picture of the stakeholder's perspectives on specific policy implementation. The t-test was used to compare the group differences, for example, determining the differences in sectors and levels of

education. The ANOVA was used to compare the group differences among the various work places, faculty/staff or students.

Results

According to the results, most of institutes have implemented the policy at the beginning stage ($M = 0.911$). Students' intention to engage in the global mobility is also relatively high ($M = 0.680$). While the supportive resources in institutes ($M = 0.274$) and the effect of global mobility implementation in institutes ($M = 0.356$) are relatively low compared to other domains. The results reveal that the level of challenges in institutes to implement the policy is high ($M = 1.119$). This result reveals that the available resources are insufficient in institutions. The details are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Perceived the Issues of Implementing Mobility+ Policy by Stakeholders

Issues of implementing global mobility	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. Implementing policy and strategy in institutes	403	.911	.9500	.0473
2. Level of challenges in institutes	403	1.194	.6963	.0347
3. Intentions of students engaged in global mobility	400	.680	1.0679	.0534
4. Supportive resources in institutes	402	.274	1.2108	.0604
5. Effect of global mobility policy implementation in institutes	402	.356	1.1798	.0588

Note. The values of scale have been transformed from -2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree).

Different Perspectives in Level of Education

Table 3 shows that the implementation policy and strategy in universities is better than that of high schools ($t = 3.080$, $p = .002$) because the supportive resources ($t = 3.713$, $p = .000$), and the effect of global mobility policy implementation in universities is better than that of high schools ($t = 2.136$, $p = .033$).

Different Perspectives by Sector

There is no significant difference between the public and private sector in their implementing policy and strategy in institutes ($t = -.557$, $p = .564$), level of challenges in

Table 3 Comparing the Perspectives on Different Implementations by Level of Education

Issues of implementing global mobility	Level of Education	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1. Implementing policy and strategy	University	249	1.024	3.080*	.002
	High school	154	.727		
2. Level of challenges in institute	University	249	1.197	.119	.906
	High school	154	1.188		
3. Intention of students engaged in global mobility	University	248	.613	-1.608	.109
	High school	152	.789		
4. Supportive resources	University	248	.448	3.713*	.000
	High school	154	-.006		
5. Effects of global mobility policy implementation	University	249	.454	2.136*	.033
	High school	153	.196		

institutes ($t = -1.902, p = .058$), intention of student engaged in global mobility ($t = -.669, p = .485$), supportive resources in institutes ($t = -1.039, p = .300$), and effect of global mobility policy implementation in institutes ($t = -1.264, p = .207$). In this stage, both public and private sectors face a similar situation to implement the Mobility+ policy.

Different Perspectives among Types of Institute and Level of Education

How was the global mobility policy implemented in different types of institutes and level of education? The stakeholders in different types of workplaces reflected that the senior high schools lack an implementation policy and strategy ($F_{(3, 394)} = 3.706, p = .012$), and supportive resources ($F_{(3, 393)} = 7.931, p = .000$); therefore, these schools demonstrated little effect of global mobility policy implementation in institutes ($F_{(3, 393)} = 4.164, p = .006$). The group differences compared by the Turkey method in SPSS and the details of significant differences are presented in Table 4. The results reveal that the implementation policy and strategy in senior high schools are at low levels in their current status. The supportive resources in senior high schools are also weaker than those in other types of institutes. Clearly, the effect of implementing global mobility policy in senior high schools ranked last. In general, the entrance exam focus in senior

Table 4 Comparing Implementing Policy and Strategy, Supportive Resources, and Effects of Global Mobility Policy by Types of Institute and Level of Education

Domains	(I) institute Types	(J) institutes	Avg. difference (I-J)	SE	p
1. Implementing policy and strategy	University	Technological University	-.0030	.1269	1.000
		Senior High School	.3526*	.1190	.017
		Senior Vocational School	.2359	.1548	.424
	Technological university	Senior High School	.3556*	.1373	.049
		Senior Vocational School	.2390	.1694	.493
4. Supportive resources	University	Technological University	.1684	.1594	.716
		Senior High School	.7077*	.1488	.000
		Senior Vocational School	.1218	.1937	.923
	Senior High School	Technological University	-.5393*	.1724	.010
		Senior Vocational School	-.5859*	.2045	.023
5. Effects of implementing global mobility policy	University	Technological University	.0819	.1571	.954
		Senior High School	.4746*	.1471	.007
	Senior High School	University	-.4746*	.1471	.007
		Technological University	-.3927	.1704	.099
		Senior Vocational School	-.5320*	.2021	.044

Note. Tukey HSD, $\alpha = .05$.

high schools and the neglect of the new mobility policy explain the implementation lag and need for more resources to realize implementation.

Different Perspectives among Faculty/Staff or Students

The results of one way ANOVA reveal that faculty, staff and students reflected their different perspectives in implementing policy and strategy ($F_{(4, 389)} = 3.422, p = .009$), level of challenges in institute ($F_{(4, 389)} = 5.467, p = .000$), supportive resources ($F_{(4, 388)} = 7.090, p = .000$), and effects of implementing global mobility policy in institutes ($F_{(4, 388)} = 3.868, p = .004$). Specifically, considering the implementation policy and strategy, the administrators of universities have shown more confidence in their institutes ($I_1-J_3 = .354, p = .032$), while the students have shown more confidence than did the administrators of high schools regarding their implementing policy and strategy in institutes ($I_5-J_3 = .382, p = .011$). In addition, administrators and faculty in both universities and senior high schools perceived more serious challenges in current policy implementation compared to students ($I_1-J_5 = .356, p = .001$; $I_2-J_5 = .548, p = .011$). Regarding the supportive resources, the administrators at both levels of education have

experienced their supportive resources for promoting global mobility policy worse than did their students ($I_1-J_5 = -.559, p = .004$; $I_3-J_5 = -.747, p = .000$, respectively). The result can be used to explain the experiences perceived by the stakeholders in the first line to implementing the promoting policy for youth. In this study, the results indicate that the effect of Mobility+ policy evaluated by students is higher than that by administrators in both levels of education ($I_1-J_5 = -.428, p = .044$; $I_3-J_5 = -.516, p = .004$). The details are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Comparing Implementing Policy and Strategy, Level of Challenges, Supportive Resources, and Effects of Global Mobility Policy Implementation by Different Participants

Domains	(I) participants	(J) participants	(I-J)	SE	p	
1. Implementing policy and strategy	University Administrators	University Faculty High School Administrators	-.0275 .3540*	.2402 .1220	1.000 .032	
	Students	University Administrators	-.3540*	.1220	.032	
		High School Administrators	.3824*	.1173	.011	
		University Faculty Administrators				
	2. Level of challenges in institutes	University Administrators	University Faculty Students	-.1911 .3564*	.1709 .0885	.797 .001
		University Faculty Administrators	University Administrators	.1911	.1709	.797
Students			.5475*	.1692	.011	
University Faculty Students						
4. Supportive resources	University Administrators	University Faculty Students	-.3491 -.5587*	.3006 .1560	.773 .004	
	Senior High School Administrators	University Administrators	-.1880	.1530	.735	
		Students	-.7467*	.1467	.000	
	5. Effects of global mobility policy implementation	University Administrators	University Faculty Students	-.4308 -.4282*	.2969 .1538	.595 .044
Senior High School Administrators		University Administrators	-.0877	.1511	.978	
		Students	-.5159*	.1446	.004	

* $p < .05$.

The main issues of implementing Mobility+ policy reflected by stakeholders are summarized in Table 6. Typically, different levels of education show significant differences in their implementation of policy and strategy, supportive resources, and effects of Mobility+ policy implementation. However, there is no significant difference between public and private sectors in the related issues of implementing the global

mobility policy. Types of workplaces show their differences in implementing policy and strategy, supportive resources, and effects of global mobility policy implementation. The perceptions of faculty/staff or students reflect their differences in implementing policy and strategy, level of challenges in institutes, supportive resources, and effects of the global mobility policy implementation.

Table 6 Perceived Issues of Implementing Global Mobility Policy by Stakeholders in Various Level, Sector, and Institutes

Issues of implementing global mobility	Levels of education (high schools/university)	Sectors (public/private)	Types of institute (work place)	Faculty/staff or students
1. Implementing policy and strategy	✓	×	✓	✓
2. Level of challenges in institute	×	×	×	✓
3. Intentions of student engaged in global mobility	×	×	×	×
4. Supportive resources	✓	×	✓	✓
5. Effects of global mobility policy implementation	✓	×	✓	✓

Note. ✓ represents significant differences, × represents no significance.

$p < .05$.

Discussion

In this beginning, we raised the following research foci: the global trends of student mobility, related student mobility theories and stakeholder's voice in the case study. Generally, the outbound-focusing Mobility+ is different from the EU's ERASMUS, while similar to other countries' working plan. Following Korean's K-Move, Australia's New Colombo Plan, and even the US' Generation Study Abroad, Mobility+ has focused on attracting domestic students engaged in their outbound study. The four-year plan has been designed for implementation from 2016 to 2019, to promote youth capability of global mobility and flip the current domestic-focused learning style. Basically, the

focusing capability of Mobility+ follows the six competences raised by the White paper for cultivating talents (Ministry of Education, 2014). The White paper guides the education system to not only follow the traditional approach to train the young generation but also to create a new learning model to enhance competences; in this case, global mobility has been listed as the top priority among the required competences (Ministry of Education, 2014). The competence-based focus has become one of the significant characteristics in Mobility+ policy implementation. This initiative has shown to fit the context of global mobility.

Nye's theory of soft power provides a specific lens to examine the interdependency and complexity of the internationalization of higher education in the increasingly developed trends of globalization worldwide. In the soft power conversion, higher education in the UK and US has growing significant influence worldwide with economic, political, and social forces driving the increasingly global economy. The interplay of internationalization and globalization of higher education in the UK and US is fundamental to moving from balancing international strategies through increasing enrollments of international students to offering comprehensive internationalization agendas that are consistent with enhancing global capacity building and global competitiveness orientation. Global student mobility in higher education for academic, economic or political purposes has provided a new map in the world. This concept impacts current policy design for enhancing education investment in seeking to revise the current domestic-oriented education in Taiwan. For inbound study purposes, Mobility+ may take into account the influence of soft power for specific countries. In other words, Mobility+ could reflect outbound mobility in the current policy implementation. Within this policy framework, not only Taiwanese students could learn from other countries but also what other international students could learn in Taiwan. The case country's experiences may provide an example for related policy implementing in other similar countries.

Push factors include the non-availability of enough livelihood opportunities, poverty, rapid population growth that surpasses available resources, "primitive" or "poor" living conditions, desertification, famines/droughts, fear of political persecution, poor healthcare, loss of wealth, and natural disasters. Pull factors are exactly the

opposite of push factors: they attract people to a certain location. Typical examples of pull factors of a place are more job opportunities and better living conditions, easy availability of land for settling and agriculture, political and/or religious freedom, superior education and welfare systems, better transportation and communication facilities, better healthcare system, a stress-free environment, and security. Data on international student flows illustrate the strength of proximity factors, such as language, historical ties, geographical distance, bilateral relationships and political framework conditions as key determinants for mobility (OECD, 2018). In this sense, the push-pull theory did not fit the current initiative of Mobility+ policy. Competences-focused enhancing strategy has displayed more influence in the policy design of Mobility+ and the survey results also confirmed the positive perspectives of stakeholders.

This study found that the spatial theorists provide a set of interrelated theoretical tools drawing on new spatial, network, and mobility theories to present a post-foundational framework for analyzing how universities are internationalized in the twenty-first century. For example, post-structural spatial, mobility, and network theories have provoked us to see internationalization processes and practices in innovative and stimulating ways. Larsen's spatial, mobility, and network ideas provide the post-foundational theoretical terrain for interpreting the global phenomena. This might explain why universities have been more effective in implementing Mobility+ policies and achieve its outcomes. The related theories also offer a new set of possibilities for making sense of internationalization in the global context.

What are the findings prompted to the knowledge of research field? Mobility+ has a good start in Taiwan, for further implementing, the findings in this study will provide meaningful suggestions for universities and high schools. Moreover, we should realize that most students are not possible to fulfill their studies in abroad. Therefore, how to create a friendly international learning environment on campus has become a crucial task in institutional level. This concern may take into account in related student mobility policy in similar countries. The findings may provide a reflection of current mobility policy design, how to review the stakeholder's voices properly, which can prompt to enhancing the policy implementation.

Conclusions

The MOE initiated the policy for promoting global youth mobility in 2015, while most of the stakeholders have perceived the challenge as relatively high at the institutional level. This study found that the policy implementation at the institutional level could enhance student engagement, as well as providing more resources to support them in the learning process. Thus, the policy implementation at the institutional level achieves outcome effectively, and survey results also confirmed via positive feedback from the stakeholders. By analyzing different levels of education, sectors, types of institutes, and various backgrounds of stakeholders, this study tackled the potential issues and provided useful information to enhance the implementation of Mobility+. Based on the findings, this study suggests the following priority actions to be taken for better policy implementation in the future:

1. Senior high schools have become the priority areas that should reinvent their institutional policy and strategy to catch up with the movement of implementing global mobility policy.

2. Administrators and faculty members perceived more serious challenges in current situation than university students. Being more friendly and encouraging supplemental measures might relieve the students' worry but the challenge of achieving such policy might be challenging in the institutional level.

3. The four key competences: capabilities of communication, culture adaptability, professional competence, and practice focusing ability have been defined for the young generation, while the institutional workable plan was not properly prepared in the current stage as the stakeholders' perspectives. More specific institutional actions are needed to enhance the capabilities of the young generation.

This study deals with the initiatives of outbound mobility and related policy implementation in mainstream student global mobility. Currently, Taiwan's case study may provide an example to review this specific type of policy implementation in the global context. This experience may prompt to the related global mobility policies design in south Asian countries or other areas' developing countries. Rethinking the

current student mobility policy design, for example investing more resources to reinforcing students' capability of global mobility is needed. For further studies, we encourage continuing to follow-up the effects of implementing the related outbound mobility policies and their future trends. The global events, such as the coronavirus pandemic in 2019-2020 (COVID-19), might weaken the students' intent and impact the policy implementation. In addition, cross country comparison is another alternative which will offer a better framework to integrate the policy information and share experiences in the research community.

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利害關係人觀點評析青年全球移動政策之推動

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摘要

有鑑於歐盟的ERASMUS計畫、韓國的K移動、澳洲的新哥倫布計畫，以及美國的新世代留學，臺灣教育部也在2015年制定移動力計畫。移動力計畫架構四年，從2015年到2019年，且其目標為推廣青年的國際移動力。以往國際移動力研究往往注重學生的海外學習、師生的國際化培育，但缺乏政策本身利害關係人部分之研究。本研究焦點在決定國際移動力計畫的挑戰，亦即在全球脈絡下，利害關係人的未來願景。調查研究共有404位參與者，24.5%來自臺灣北部，36.9%來自南部，30.0%來自中部和8.7%來自東部。結果顯示，國際移動力計畫面臨險峻挑戰和相對稀少的資源支援，這將會影響到政策的實施成效。然而，這不影響教育部推行政策的意圖。另外，大學的海外學習計畫不管在可用資源和政策的實施上，都較高中成效佳。本研究也發現移動力計畫過度注重海外學習，可能影響到在地學生就讀的需求。在新冠病毒蔓延的衝擊下，本研究發現可強化未來學子全球移動政策且可充實該領域的知識。

關鍵詞： 全球移動力、國際化、海外學習、政策設計、政策實施

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