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The Internationalization of Higher Education
in the Wake of COVID-19:

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CIHE Perspectives

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This report summarizes the academic and professional literature on how COVID-19 has affected the internationalization of higher education in the short term, specifically between March 2020 and August 2021. We first assemble a conceptual framework of major domains and activities involved in the internationalization of higher education. This framework reflects how COVID-19 may have influenced aspects of internationalization. To discern the impacts of COVID-19 on internationalization across countries and institutions, we next identify national characteristics as well as institutional and national supports (i.e., policies and practices) likely to moderate COVID-19's direct effects on related activities.

We then present a rigorous review¹ of the literature while using this framework to theorize impacts. Our aims in analyzing the literature were twofold: 1) to consider how COVID-19 has affected the internationalization of higher education worldwide based on available research; and 2) to identify gaps in the literature. In examining the short-term impacts of COVID-19 on internationalization, we identified 158 publications (e.g., magazine and newspaper articles, book chapters, and peer-reviewed academic articles) that met our inclusion criteria. We then coded each source based on publication type, country or region of interest, internationalization domain or activity, and emergent key themes.

Key findings are as follows:

1. The literature published on COVID-19 and internationalization was skewed: most coverage appeared in non-academic outlets and pertained to the United States and the United Kingdom. This pattern is not surprising; scholarly articles feature longer peer-review and publishing timelines than other types of publications. As such, more time is needed to assess COVID-19 impacts. Because our chosen time frame (March 2020–August 2021) co-

incided with the early stages of the pandemic, our sample was understandably dominated by news items and reports rather than academic pieces.

2. Studies overwhelmingly focused on aspects of internationalization related to mobility, both inbound and outbound. Publications from core Anglophone countries that are major recruiters of international students discussed people mobility more than publications from other countries. These publications from Anglophone countries expressed substantial concerns about whether institutions in recruiting countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada would maintain international student enrollments throughout the pandemic and how circumstances may affect revenues. Other aspects of internationalization, such as its role in research collaboration or provider mobility, received scant attention.
3. The suspension of in-person events due to COVID-19 led numerous internationalization activities to shift to online and digital formats. Many studies documented advantages and disadvantages of this digital transition. Sources also outlined best practices.
4. We identified common themes across studies in various domains, including students' experiences with discrimination and isolation that affected mental health and well-being. A large body of work described how international students' and faculty members' status as non-nationals created distinct pressures given their visa status, employment limitations, and inability to travel home. Much of the literature centered on undergraduate international students studying in North America.

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is concentration may limit our understanding of the scope of international students' experiences.

5. The pandemic's impacts have been uneven across countries and institutions. Numerous sources indicated that long-standing global inequalities have changed. Specifically, digital tools have rendered certain types of collaboration possible in ways that were previously infeasible due to visa requirements and cost barriers.
6. Finally, several studies pointed out that COVID-19 has catalyzed persistent geopolitical concerns, particularly between the West and China. New inequalities are believed to have emerged, mapped onto access to fast and affordable Internet that is free from censorship.

In today's increasingly interconnected world, higher education institutions (HEIs) play a critical part in educating students for global understanding and awareness. These institutions are also crucial in addressing worldwide development challenges such as poverty and climate change. Although international academic mobility and collaboration are established traditions in higher education, starting in the 1990s, universities became involved in more extensive forms of international engagement. With the end of the Cold War, the presence of Europeanization and other forms of regionalization, and a global shift towards a knowledge economy, universities began to respond and became international actors. National and regional programs—Fulbright and Title VI programs in the United States, and Europe-based research grant programs such as Horizon 2020 and the European Commission's ERASMUS+ mobility scheme—inspired and supported HEIs as they sought to implement more strategic internationalization (de Wit, 2002). At the same time, the 1990s saw a shift towards emphasizing economic competitiveness as a basis for internationalization. Van der Wende (2001) characterized this move as a paradigmatic change from cooperation to competition, although not completely at the expense of the conventional approach to international collaboration in higher education.

Given its rising importance, internationalization in higher education has transformed from a marginal and ad hoc range of activities to a more comprehensive and centralized process. It is now a major strategic priority for universities worldwide; it features an array of motivations, diverse organizational and program-based strategies, and broad stakeholder involvement (de Wit et al., 2015; Hudzik, 2011).

Internationalization is a multifaceted phenomenon that has been defined in numerous ways (Rumbley et al., 2022). In a critical overview and analysis of internationalization in higher education, Hunter et al.

standings" (p. 70). Knight (2004) described internationalization as the "process of integrating international and intercultural dimensions of knowledge into all aspects of higher education, including core teaching, research, and service functions" (p. 11). This conceptualization is one of many to stress internationalization as a set of interrelated organizational activities. In a study for the European Parliament, de Wit et al. (2015) offered an updated definition that adds intentionality and normative elements, which we have adopted in this report:

"[Internationalization in higher education is the] intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (p. 29).

The strategic benefits of internationalization include increased revenue, enhanced prestige, and improved student learning (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Knight, 2004). According to the 5th Global Survey of Internationalization of Higher Education by the International Association of Universities (IAU), conducted in 2018, more than 90% of institutions mentioned internationalization in their mission or strategic plan (Marinoni, 2019). The most frequently cited benefits of internationalization were "enhanced international cooperation and capacity building" and "improved quality of teaching and learning."

Yet internationalization also raises numerous concerns. Related topics have become points of debate in political spheres, the media, and the higher education community. Common foci include the use of internationalization for revenue generation; competition for international students; the dominance of the English language in international activities at the expense of local languages; and international student recruitment at the expense of access, quality education, and services (e.g., housing) for local students.

ese critiques are not unfounded: the internationalization process typically spotlights the mobility of a small minority of students, staff, programs, and institutions. Many associated activities tend to be exclusive and only benefit a subset of actors, particularly in the Global North (Marinoni & de Wit, 2019). de Wit et al. (2022) argued that “international student mobility might well contribute to increased global inequality between sending and receiving countries and institutions, as well as between students who have access to these opportunities and students who don’t” (p. 299). These findings echo the 5th Global Survey on Internationalization, which cited the most common risk to internationalization as “international opportunities accessible only to students with financial resources” followed by “difficulty to assess/recognize the quality of courses/programs offered by foreign institutions” and “excessive competition with other higher education institutions” (Marinoni, 2019).

In response to this focus on mobility, movements

such as internationalization at home (IaH) (Beelen & Jones, 2015), internationalization of the curriculum (Leask, 2015), and comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik, 2011) emerged around the turn of the century. These initiatives were meant to shed light on internationalization for all students rather than the slight percentage of mobile ones. Also, the rather narrow focus on one of three missions of universities—teaching—has been countered with an appeal to attend to the internationalization of research (Woldegiyorgis et al., 2018). Criticism of internationalization as a Western paradigm has also come to the fore (de Wit, 2020; Jones & de Wit, 2014) along with a call to decolonize the curriculum (Stein & de Andreotti, 2016). Jones et al. (2021) appealed for “internationalization for society,” urging reflection on how internationalization benefits society overall instead of particular students or faculty. In short, the internationalization of higher education occupied a complicated and contested space even before the COVID-19 pandemic.

ASSESSING THE IMPACTS OF COVID-19

Internationalization projects were severely disrupted in the wake of COVID-19. Immediately following, professional associations and the media reported decreased international student mobility together with restrictions on international fieldwork and short-term mobility for faculty and scholars (Rumbley, 2020). These issues sparked anxiety about upsetting students’ lives and faculty members’ research. Longer-term worries centered on institutional budgets and fiscal security. Scholars have since called on institutions to rethink fundamental approaches and assumptions related to pre-COVID-19 norms. In the early days of the pandemic, many news articles and think pieces tended towards hyperbole, framing COVID-19 as having possibly catastrophic impacts on internationalization. In fact, over the past two years, the pandemic has exerted nuanced effects on HEIs and their internationalization activities. Many universities have come to recognize the great potential of virtual collaboration and mobility. Some of the more dire conjectures about international student mobility are proving to be over-

stated. Nonetheless, institutions’ and individuals’ experiences have varied tremendously based on national and local contexts as well as institutional decisions, policies, and supports. Indeed, we expect the pandemic to have resulted in divergent higher education impacts, responses, and practices.

The IAU’s second edition of the global survey on the impact of COVID-19 on higher education indicated HEIs’ resilience during the pandemic. Institutions crafted innovative solutions and invested additional time and energy into minimizing disruption amid partial or complete campus closures in most countries.

The picture of higher education emerging from COVID-19 is nevertheless concerning: declining financial means, students unable to benefit from remote teaching and learning, delayed research activities, increased staff workloads, and slower recruitment. Most importantly, these challenges affect regions, countries, and HEIs differently and with a tendency to exacerbate pre-existing inequalities. International activities were among those most compromised by the pandemic.

Organizational Activities

Although many activities associated with internationalization do not take place on physical campuses, they are nonetheless considered part of HEIs' internationalization efforts when individuals affiliated with the institution—including students, faculty, and staff—are involved. Our major foci included HEIs, key stakeholders, and activities undertaken on their behalf. We relied on the comprehensive internationalization model to conceptualize which activities fall under institutional

Primary Domain	Definition
People Mobility	the outward and inward physical movement of people (students, faculty, and staff) with the purpose of engaging in learning, research, and/or collaboration (American Council on Education, 2022).
International Program and Provider Mobility	the delivery of programs (e.g., twinning, joint/double degree, franchise, distance education) and providers (e.g., branch campuses, joint universities) across international borders (Knight & Liu, 2019; Knight & McNamara, 2017; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012).
International Research	Research that involves international locations or collaborators. This is a broad definition that encompasses individual institution-affiliated researchers traveling across borders for university-affiliated research, participation in global education hubs or networks, and bilateral or multilateral research partnership agreements that include provisions for mobility or cross-border collaboration.
International Partnerships and Networks	A formal arrangement—usually in the form of a Memorandum of Understanding or similar document—between institutions, professional associations, or research institutes through which parties agree to cooperate to advance their mutual interests that span international contexts and borders. In most cases, partnership agreements outline specific areas or projects of collaboration as well as relevant actors, departments, or units and timelines for completion, renewal, or exit.
Internationalization at Home	“the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments” (Beelen & Jones, 2015, p. 69).

People Mobility

The first core domain of internationalization we examine is people mobility. For our conceptual frame-

or capacity-building projects within this domain. Capacity building is a common practice in international development policy; it refers to cross-border initiatives to strengthen the capacity for development and growth of various sectors through supports to areas such as science, technology, research, and innovation. Building capacity for development may also entail indirect or direct intervention in domains related to public policy and institutional governance and is usually marked by inequality and an imbalanced power dynamic between countries in the North and those in the South (Altbach, 2004).

International at Home

Finally, the third domain of internationalization we evaluate pertains to activities occurring within the campus and curriculum, often called IaH. We refer to Beelen and Jones's (2015) definition, specifically "the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (p. 69). These authors emphasized the importance of internationalized learning outcomes, assessing such outcomes, internationalizing all programs rather than several elective courses, and providing internationalized learning experiences to all students instead of only those who can benefit from mobility opportunities. Activities within this domain include changes to the curriculum and co-curriculum and the provision of support services.

Curricular and co-curricular programs and activi-

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sible and desirable with respect to internationalization.

Therefore, in our conceptual model, we considered institutional activities on both a national level and a supra-national level, each of which reveals factors that could shape how COVID-19 has affected institutions' internationalization activities cross-nationally. For instance, we underlined geopolitics as one area that could impinge on internationalization projects in numerous ways.

abstract to determine the publication's relevance to our

systematic reviews, and its functionality allows for collaborative projects. In each phase of screening, once we determined that an article did not meet our inclusion criteria, we excluded it and moved on. Many articles would or could have been excluded for multiple reasons; **Table 2** reflects our prioritization of criteria.

Following our bibliometric search, all references and abstracts were loaded into EPPI. A team of research assistants read each publication's title and abstract to determine if it met inclusion criteria. Our initial review returned 781 articles based on search terms, 108 of which were duplicates (i.e., appearing in more than one database). The resultant sample contained 673 publications; 377 were then screened out based on their titles and abstracts. Sources could be excluded for several reasons, such as focusing on domestic issues (not internationalization) in higher education or on other levels of education.

Phase 4: Screening and Coding of Full Texts

We next read the full text of the remaining sources ($n = 296$). An additional 138 articles were excluded due to not meeting our inclusion criteria upon reviewing their full text. Some articles made only marginal references to COVID-19 as the research background and did not address how the pandemic affected internationaliza-

tion. Others were based on contributors' opinions or personal experiences; most publications excluded for this reason were newspaper articles featuring speculation rather than analysis.

Ultimately, 158 articles met all inclusion criteria. We then coded relevant information for these publications. We gathered information on each source to identify the types of literature being produced: the country or region of interest, publication type, key domain, and internationalization activity. We also coded the general themes discussed in each article, which we developed and expanded through emergent coding and later refined through iterative coding during the initial search and screening phases.

Phase 5: Analysis and Synthesis

In a second round of analysis, our research assistants read the articles coded under specific domains and key themes to summarize major findings from the literature. Within each domain and overarching theme, we

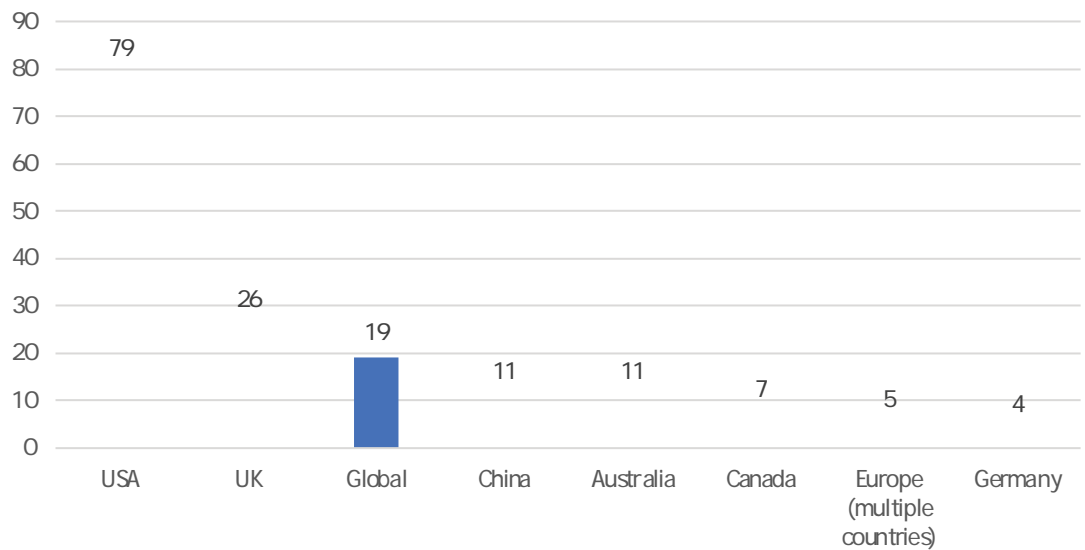
Part I: Scale and Scope of Literature

In this section, we examine the scope of the literature on COVID-19's impacts on internationalization activities. We specifically comment on publication types and their geographic focus, internationalization domain, and key themes.

We cast a wide net to incorporate academic and non-academic publications into our sample, including magazines, academic journals, newspapers, and profes-

sional reports. displays the total number of publications in our review by type. Of the 158 articles, more than half were non-academic (N = 107, primarily from magazines and periodicals). Only 30% (N = 45) were peer-reviewed academic articles. This pattern contrasts the higher education community's desire to reflect on a quickly changing dynamic with the protracted nature of academic publishing.

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As depicted in the initial literature overwhelmingly focused on a small set of countries, specifically the United States and the United Kingdom. Articles about these two countries collectively represented almost 55% of sources in our sample. These countries are major destinations for international stu-

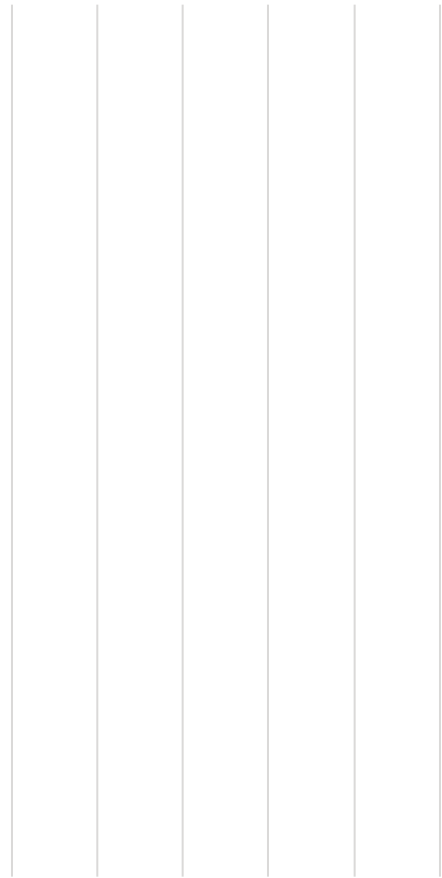
dents. The literature thus seemed to reflect current trends in international student mobility. Both countries are major English-speaking. Therefore, the emphasis in our sample may be partly attributable to our inclusion criteria regarding English-language articles.

We disaggregated the total number of publications by type, specifically academic (i.e., journal articles) and non-academic (i.e., magazine articles, newspaper articles, and reports). Figure 4 illustrates sources' geographic (country) focus by publication type. Much of the initial information on COVID-19's impact on internationalization appeared in non-academic pieces focusing on the United States and the United Kingdom ($n = 84$ collectively). Figure 4 also indicates the absence of academic articles from the United Kingdom; publications in this category mostly revolved around the pandemic's impact on the U.S. higher education system.

focus was coded from publications and corresponded to the domains and sub-domains in our conceptual framework. Table 3 shows the number of publications by domain. People mobility attracted the most attention ($n = 139$), with 99 articles on inbound mobility and 40 on outbound mobility.

As discussed in our conceptual framework, we mostly differentiated between inbound and outbound people mobility. This decision was partly practical; we could often readily discern which type of people mobility authors were addressing. Our choice contrasts the more typical emphases on degree mobility and credit mobility. Definitions of internationalization usually distinguish degree-seeking and credit-seeking students when discussing international mobility. This distinction is important because degree- and credit-seeking students typically have unique goals, and their durations at host institutions vary substantially. However, we found that academic studies on international students were much less likely to clarify the population of focus. For example, many articles referenced "international students" or "international mobility" in general. Articles on inbound international student mobility most commonly probed degree-seeking students, whereas those on outbound mobility examined credit-seeking students (i.e., those studying abroad). As Table 3 shows, these generalizations are quite broad, and many articles concentrating on inbound international students did not state whether students were degree-seeking or credit-seeking. Articles on outbound mobility tended to be much clearer regarding their population of interest. In our review, 13% of studies examining outbound mobility were addressing degree-seeking preferences. Most of these studies concerned Chinese students' preferences for international degree mobility in the wake of COVID-19.

After mobility, the most mentioned internationalization domain was IaH ($n = 29$), which focused on collaborative online international learning (COIL)/virtual education ($n = 22$). Other internationalization domains received less interest, in line with a traditional view of internationalization as centering on student mobility. However, a disproportionate number of studies in our sample were from the United States, where research was heavily trained on international



The distribution of publication types based on focal themes presents a distinction between the most common topics in academic journals versus in non-academic publications. The latter outlets seemed more interested in easily quantifiable and timely themes, such as funding and/or revenue (95% of pieces on these topics were published in non-academic sources) and student enrollment/recruitment (91% in non-academic sources). Program suspension/cancellation also attracted disproportionate scrutiny in non-academic outlets (89% of all pieces regarding this theme were published in magazines and newspapers), as did student support services (81% of all pieces). On the con-

trary, academic journals principally revolved around topics related to the “new normal” in internationalization. Calls to rethink internationalization were more common in the academic literature (totaling 69% of all sources on this theme) along with intercultural understanding (83%) and language education (75%). Lastly, academic and non-academic publications both covered students’ experiences/attitudes and the shift to online and virtual communications.

This also indicates that most studies pertained to student-related topics (i.e., students’ experiences and enrollment). This trend coincides with our domain-specific findings, where inbound and outbound

student mobility were the most popular codes. Students

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this country group. In comparison, only around 15% of publications on this theme featured non-Anglophone countries. Approximately 28% of publications about these countries focused on students' experiences and attitudes, whereas about 22% of the articles from core Anglophone countries did so. These statistics corroborate trends in student mobility in that core Anglophone countries receive the most international students worldwide and have therefore been substantially affected by the pandemic and are concerned about student enrollment and recruitment.

Core Anglophone countries usually stress funding

Non-Anglophone countries underlined this theme more (12%) than core Anglophone countries (5%).

tional student enrollment/recruitment. At first, in the absence of official enrollment data, information was

events and webinars and implementing technology-as-

virtual reality cannot replace full cultural immersion.

The authors further suggested that, after the pandemic, hybrid study abroad programs can be created that harness the advantages of both teaching modes (i.e., in-person and virtual).

Researchers also pointed out the need for effective emergency responses and outlined issues that arose during or because of the transition to online services (e.g., lower quality of online experiences, negative effects on recruitment due to limited interaction during online visits, inclusiveness). Alternatives included continuing study abroad programs via online tools, allowing deferrals, and designing fully remote outbound mobility programs. These options enabled HEIs to ac-

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In terms of studies on branch campuses, topics included the move to online or virtual communications, faculty members' perspectives, and international student mobility. One aspect of this limited literature involved the merits of branch campuses. Publications examined how branch campuses could help students affected by border closures, thereby limiting disruption to students' study plans. For instance, Bothwell (2021) found that Malaysian branch campuses of UK and Australian HEIs enrolled students who could not travel due

spending on health care in the wake of COVID-19. These funding cuts could influence UK universities' partnerships with low- and middle-income countries, as the cuts mainly affected foreign aid projects through which UK universities collaborate with these nations (Grove, 2021). Another mentioned how reduced research funding, coupled with Brexit's impact on UK universities' access to research funding in the European Union, have prompted UK universities to seek research collaboration with countries such as China and the United States (Morgan, 2020). An article on IaH in the United States mentioned that research collaboration at the institutional level and the faculty level has managed to move online without major disruptions (Rogers, 2020).

Overall, COVID-19 did not appear to have major negative effects on research collaboration, although

internationalization domains. Although this initial analysis appeared to reflect a lack of focus on this topic, a closer review of the literature suggested that *perhaps the focus has likely been too narrow to capture key areas of knowledge dissemination.*

Our review of the grey literature from professional associations revealed several insights. First, despite disruptions, the perceived importance of partnerships and research collaboration did not decrease due to the pandemic. By contrast, partnerships were considered highly important (CBIE, 2022; CIHE, 2021; IAU, 2020). Collaboration became critical not only when searching for solutions but also in strategizing a way forward for the internationalization of higher education. Publications highlighted how people working in internationalization offices swiftly moved usual practices into virtual spaces and ultimately "adapted to stay the same." Although few published articles addressed these areas, our supplementary review of online material (i.e., webinars and publications from professional associations) reflected international partners' transition from physical to virtual activities, ranging from visiting delegations to research colloquia to partnership agreements (Jacobs et al, 2021, p. 362).

Second, even though standard mobility programs and in-person delegations ground to a halt due to international travel restrictions, virtual collaboration expanded into a digital space in unprecedented ways.

This form of cooperation served as a tool for promoting diplomacy and sustaining crucial academic relationships (CBIE, 2021). The literature accentuated how key relationship-building teams and units—often within international offices—were vital in fostering, maintaining, and evaluating partnerships and research collaboration with external partners and stakeholders, even amid the ever-changing pandemic.

Of the 158 articles in our analysis, 29 were coded as pertaining to IaH. We defined this topic area as concentrating on internationalization of the curriculum (n = 10), co-curricular or student services (n = 4), and COIL (n = 26). Some sources referred to multiple sub-themes. More widely, IaH research concerned two primary topics: 1) curricular and co-curricular internationalization; and 2) virtual learning, including

line due to the pandemic. The authors advised that when creating virtual exchange programs, universities should find appropriate partners in their institutions, create programs that accommodate different academic calendars, limit student groups to seven students or fewer, train facilitators, and use alumni as facilitators (Seran & Reinhard, 2021).

Part III: The Roles of Policies and Supports in Moderating the Impact of COVID-19

We theorized that policies and supports at numerous levels (e.g., national policies and institutional practices) would have differential pandemic-related effects on internationalization activities at the institutional level.

This section highlights three moderating factors: 1) national policies, which can support or hinder internationalization activities; 2) institutional practices; and 3) professional associations.

Government policies could alleviate or aggravate the pandemic's effects on internationalization. Of the 158 articles in our review, 36 were coded as mentioning "government policy and responses." These sources often appeared in magazines and periodicals, newspapers, reports, and conference documents. The majority focused on international student enrollment and international student tuition and fees, particularly in English-speaking countries. Some articles mentioned foreign faculty members' circumstances in non-English-speaking countries, especially in the United States.

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enter the country in other ways, such as by obtaining a visa to Singapore or another third country and staying for 14 days before entering the United States, these workarounds were costly and inconvenient.

Some governments provided international students financial assistance. Germany adopted a no-fee policy and allocated aid grants (\$125–\$600) to international students facing a financial emergency due to the pandemic (Language Magazine Staff, 2020a). The UK House of Commons (2020) stated that higher education providers could draw from existing student premium funding—worth around £23 million per month—for student hardship funds, including mental health support. The Education Ministry of Great Britain appointed Sir Steve Smith as International Education Champion to support international students and the higher education sector during the pandemic (Education Journal Staff, 2020). Although other countries such as Japan have provided aid to international students as well, these cases did not appear in our sample, reflecting another limitation of our review. This practice was also uncommon; for instance, guidance from the U.S. Department of Education excluded international students from the Coronavirus Aid, Relief, and Economic Security Act (Majorana, 2021).

The roles of national policies were also addressed in articles on online learning, especially in terms of the links between online education and visa eligibility. Publications from the United States commented on the Trump administration's policy preventing international students from maintaining their student visa status when taking online courses (Castiello-Gutiérrez & Li, 2020; Specia & Abi-Habib, 2020). This mandate was reversed after several HEIs filed lawsuits: the policy was critiqued for being discriminatory and for dehumanizing international students. By contrast, an article on Indian policy described how Kerala State Higher Education Council launched a series of initiatives to support international students' online learning.



in this category were cross-coded with the domain of inbound degree- and credit-seeking students, implying institutional decision making and policy planning were highly associated with incoming international students

cal realities that are altering the internationalization landscape; and 5) calls to rethink the status quo.

The suspension of in-person classes and activities led to virtual and online international learning and collaboration throughout HEIs. The advantages and disadvantages of this shift represented a recurring theme across many domains of internationalization (e.g., international student mobility, course delivery, and partner-

students, and Chinese international students were mentioned most often (Anandavalli et al., 2020; Blake et al., 2021; Gao, 2021; Ge, 2021; McKie, 2020). Most pieces pertained to North America regardless of publication type.

These articles collectively indicated that international students have met unique obstacles affecting their physical health, mental health, and well-being. International and domestic travel restrictions, financial consequences (in terms of scholarships, tuition fees, and income), socio-political events, and communal hate crimes have put these students in vulnerable positions, especially in the top international student recipient countries. Such circumstances have influenced students' general well-being. Associated problems have been magnified in the North American context because former President Trump first referred to COVID-19 as the "China virus," which aggravated COVID-19-related racial discrimination in addition to deep-rooted systemic racism (Anandavalli et al., 2020; Blake et al., 2021). One article indicated that "xenophobic actions [threaten] international students' safety and presence ... and these rates were higher among students from East Asian and Southeast Asian countries such as Japan, China, and Vietnam (22%–30%), given increasing Sinophobia (anti-Chinese sentiment) in the country" (Anandavalli et al., 2020, p. 366). Racism, "double unbelonging," and social disapproval of political criticism were common struggles for Chinese students (McKie, 2020).

national students conveyed that such supports were inadequate in meeting students' needs. COVID-19 has impeded students' access to and sense of connection with the university community and resources; overall campus and departmental support has declined as well (Blake et al., 2021). In a survey of 600 Omani students studying abroad, fewer than 50% of respondents stated they had received adequate psychosocial support from the universities (Hayes & Al'Abri, 2020). A few articles written by university counselors and psychologists offered concrete recommendations in this regard but acknowledged that limited research has addressed international students' mental health needs (Anandavalli et al., 2020). Suggestions for supporting these students include using culturally sensitive tools to address xenophobic experiences of COVID-19-related racial discrimination. Counselors could also "empower international students by framing their concerns as part of a larger systemic issue to minimize self-blame" (Anandavalli et al., 2020, p. 369). Other suitable strategies include therapy, wellness activities, and peer counseling (Gallagher, 2021). Blake et al. (2021) advocated for promoting international students' development in the following ways: by assigning graduate students to academic mentors who share and are familiar with diverse cultures; by implementing a diverse course curriculum; by instituting university childcare and virtual education assistance strategies; and by supporting efforts towards a collective university policy that protects these students.

Voids nevertheless exist in this stream of literature. No articles mentioned the physical and mental health issues facing faculty and staff in higher education. None of the sources were authored by institutional administrators who offered strategies to support members of the higher education community. One article that broached related topics underscored worries about visa issues for international students and administrators' concerns about student com

nals. A sizeable set of papers documented the pandem-

cruitment may naturally highlight competition within a cutthroat global landscape over the more collaborative aspects of internationalization (e.g., partnership development). The focal points of international students and students' experiences imply more intense interest in how internationalization maps onto curricula and student learning than research. This trend reinforces the notion that students, rather than faculty and staff, are the primary actors in internationalization.

This conception is evident in, for example, the study abroad domain. Articles in this area generally revolved around students and described how institutions sought to support student mobility during the pandemic. This perspective aligns with attempts to unravel students' mobility decisions during the first COVID-19 wave and to predict their future choices. The associated literature—predominantly non-academic sources on outbound mobility—therefore tended to interpret internationalization as directly connected to individual-level mobility. Researchers further examined this topic through several lenses outside education (e.g., economic, political, geographic) that affect national higher education systems.

In terms of the COVID-19 pandemic influenced internationalization, as discussed in the conceptual framework, we postulated that two major policy responses were at play: 1) border closures that halted travel and 2) the suspension of in-person activities, which limited physical presence on campuses and in-person teaching and learning. As anticipated, both elements directly affected internationalization activities, albeit in different ways. We observed that border closures had impacts on internationalization activities involving physical mobility (i.e., inbound and outbound). The same trend applied in other domains featuring people mobility, such as students' and faculty members' physical movement for research purposes.

Studies unveiled how sudden border closures brought on by COVID-19 left many students and faculty physically unable to travel, often stranding them far from home or their destination countries. Students faced urgent practical needs (e.g., arranging flights to their home countries or institutions). Over the longer term, many students reported being and feeling far from home due to being prohibited from crossing national borders. The logistics of flights, quarantine rules,

and visas were recurrent concerns.

The second mechanism of impact we identified was the suspension of in-person activities and the simultaneous shift to online and virtual teaching and collaboration. The suspension of in-person activities was tied to general isolation. Mental isolation was also a theme in many studies: being physically far from home without access to in-person activities left many students lonely. A large body of work has unearthed the adverse mental health effects of social distancing and isolation. Articles in our sample detailed how the broader impact of social isolation layered onto international students' individual circumstances such as time zone differences and the inability to obtain flights or secure housing.

The move to online learning and internationalization activities brought fresh opportunities along with disadvantages. This shift facilitated more accessible forms of engagement. It also enabled various types of international connections and activities that were previously contingent on physical mobility. Transitioning to online learning was a potential equalizer in some ways. Even so, new inequities emerged: many international students attended classes in inconvenient time zones, and some students were subjected to stringent internet control.

Finally, we determined that international partnerships and research have seen benefits and drawbacks from COVID-19. Despite bans on international travel and border closures, partnership-building processes were quickly adapted. These adjustments helped to sustain collaborative activities. The logistics of in-person international collaboration have certainly become more complicated since the pandemic; however, opportunities for connection are more frequent, thereby fostering innovative ideas around partnership. Heavier reliance on technology has led digital literacy to play a pivotal part in the delivery of academic courses and resources, in how research collaboration transpires, and in how partnerships are forged.

Key findings from the literature are summarized in

$f_{COV} = \frac{p_{COV}}{p_{COV} + f_{COV}}$

many countries. Researchers should continue to monitor long-term impacts on student enrollment, study destinations, and potentially distinct effects across countries and institution types. Our review also frames the pandemic as more than a crisis: in some cases, it has ushered in fresh opportunities for internationalization (e.g., in the use of technology and a greater desire for research collaboration). Scholars should examine new strategies as well as the extent to which these tactics reflect tangible changes in internationalization. Research in this vein could focus more explicitly on equity, social justice, and collaboration instead of competition and revenue. Core Anglophone countries seem less inclined than non-Anglophone countries to rethink internationalization based on our review. Yet if HEIs' interest in tracking enrollment and revenue is any indication, maintaining the status quo is a priority. If COVID-19 is to be taken as an opportunity for transformation (vs. simply a disruption to the status quo), then Anglophone countries should contribute along this line as well.

Finally, we noticed that although professional organizations (e.g., IAU and others) have performed rapid-response research on the pandemic's impact on internationalization, their part in supporting internationalization under these circumstances is largely absent from the literature. These organizations' roles in translating and disseminating discourses deserve closer scrutiny. The development and implementation of sound internationalization practices, along with their outcomes, could carry meaningful practical implications.

Lastly, internationalization activities and international mobility have been largely affected by government policies, especially on visas, international travel restrictions, and student subsidies. The future of internationalization warrants careful deliberation. Scholars have made various predictions about international student and researcher mobility after the pandemic. Even so, current publications are not comprehensive enough to cover all major receiving and sending countries. A systematic examination of how governments have supported or prohibited international mobility, and how available mobility (t)6 t fana4 (h)4 (-5 (a)9 3, (o)5 (b(io)12)3 (a)15
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consideration as well. It would be interesting to monitor academic approaches as they become available to verify whether conclusions hold when data are evaluated via more rigorous methods.

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Venezuela (Boli- varian Republic of)	1						1
Yemen	1						1
Costa Rica					1		1
Tanzania, United Republic of					1		1

* According to Education Sources categories, Education Reports are mainly published by governments, such as the U.S. Department of Education. Reports are mainly published by non-pro t organizations in education.

is the complete Boolean string we used in our journal literature search for this study. The string includes all keywords used for each internationalization domain (see Table 1).

Summary: (((Mobility Key Terms) OR (IPPM Key Terms) OR (Research Key Terms) OR (Partnerships Key Terms) OR (Internationalization at Home Key Terms)) AND (Higher Education Key Terms) AND (COVID-19 Key Terms))

Complete Boolean String: (((“international student*” or “international facult*” or “international scholar*” or “student* mobil*” or “mobile student*” or “academic* mobil*” or “people mobil*” or “mobile scholar*” or “mobile sta ” or “mobile academic*” or “sta mobil*” “faculty mobil*” or “mobil* of student*” or “mobil* of scholar*” or “mobil* of sta ” or “mobil* of faculty” or “mobil* of academic*” or “talent mobility” or “study abroad” or “student* exchange*” or “exchange student*” or “foreign student*” or “foreign academic*” or “foreign scholar*” or “foreign sta ” or “faculty exchange*” or “sta exchange*” or “exchange facult*” or “exchange sta ” or “inbound” or “outbound” or “inward” or “outward” or “student* migration*” or “scholar* migration*” or “faculty migration*” or “sta migration*” or “ ow* of student*” or “student* ow*” or “faculty ow*” or “academic* ow*” or “ ow* of faculty” or “international mobil*” or “overseas”) OR (“Transnational higher education” OR “cross-border higher education” OR “borderless higher education” OR “international program and provider mobility” OR “branch campus” OR “o shore campus” OR “satellite campus” OR “o shore campus” OR “portal campus” OR “joint program” OR “franchise program” OR “international private program” OR “joint degree” OR “double degree” OR “multiple degree” OR “twinning program” OR “twinning programme” OR “joint programme” OR “partnership programme” OR “distance education” OR “MOOC” OR “open university” OR “online education” OR “joint university” OR “international university” OR “joint venture university”) OR (“international research” OR “international research collaboration” OR “international research network” OR “international research hub” OR “global research” OR “research partnership” OR “research collaboration” OR “joint research collaboration”) OR (SU “higher education” AND AB (and/ or) SU “partnership” OR “collaboration” OR “international partnership” OR “international collaboration” OR “global partnership” OR “global collaboration” OR “international network” OR “international hub”) OR (“Internationalization at Home” or “Internationalization of the Curriculum” or “virtual mobility” or “virtual learning” or “Collaborative Online International Learning” or “COIL” or “faculty support” or “student support”

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