LISBON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS & MANAGEMENT
UNIVERSIDADE DE LISBOA

MESTRADO

ECONOMIA E GESTÃO DE CIÊNCIA, TECNOLOGIA E INOVAÇÃO

TRABALHO FINAL DE MESTRADO

DISSERTAÇÃO

WHAT DO EDITORIAL BOARDS INDICATE ABOUT THE NATURE, STRUCTURE AND DIRECTIONS OF SCHOLARLY RESEARCH?

JOÃO PEDRO MODERNO NEVES PEREIRA

OUTUBRO - 2017

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OUTUBRO - 2017

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Abstract

Research output regarding publications is relatively polarized in a few regions. The majority of the published articles are written in English, but developed countries comprise an astounding difference when compared to developing ones. In this case, bibliometric indicators are used to measure these statistics, and asymmetries have been found through the time. Journals are the most common method of publication, and their importance to the dissemination of knowledge is undeniable since submitted articles are subjected to scrutiny and selection by their own internal governance. This dissertation focuses on the editorial boards' structure of leading journals covering development studies in three regions: Africa, Asia and Latin America, and in order to compare outlets covering studies in these regions with more impactful journals, leading ones from the development economics' subject field were also analysed. This study explores a relatively unknown area since although the interest about the journals' internal governance has been increasing, there are no significant findings on patterns and characteristics in the intermediation of studies focused on regions or countries.

Gathering the editorial boards, several variables were studied: gender, geography, affiliation and research relevance. Native regions are found to be less represented in the respective studies' journals than expected, principally Africa and Latin America. Women editors are a minority, representing little over a quarter of the editorial population. A positive relation between the editors' relevance and impact of the journal was also found. Providing a scientometric analysis, patterns are discussed.

Keywords:
Editorial governance – Research intermediaries; Academic journals; Regional studies

Resumo

O output científico no que diz respeito às publicações está relativamente restrito a determinadas regiões. Países cientificamente desenvolvidos representam uma maioria significativa no que toca ao número de publicações, aquando comparados com países em desenvolvimento. Neste caso, indicadores bibliométricos são ferramentas úteis para efetuar comparações e identificar assimetrias. Revistas académicas são o método mais comum de publicação de artigos científicos e a sua importância para a disseminação de conhecimento é inquestionável. Os artigos submetidos são sujeitos a escrutínio e seleção, sendo essa função praticada pelos conselhos editoriais. Esta dissertação tem como foco o estudo dos conselhos editoriais de revistas académicas na área da economia do desenvolvimento em três regiões: África, Ásia e América Latina. Com o intuito de comparar as revistas destas três regiões com mais reputadas, revistas líder na área da economia do desenvolvimento foram igualmente analisadas. Este estudo explora uma área pouco investigada, pois embora o interesse pelas estruturas dos conselhos editoriais tenha vindo a aumentar, não foram encontrados resultados sobre revistas focadas em estudos de regiões ou países.

Agrupando os editores, várias variáveis foram estudadas: género, proveniência geográfica, afiliação institucional e relevância científica, no sentido de identificar características na intermediação científica. Regiões nativas ao foco das revistas são pouco representadas, especialmente África e América Latina. A representação feminina está em minoria, representando apenas pouco mais de um quarto da população editorial. Finalmente, foi calculada uma relação positiva entre o impacto das revistas e a performance dos editores.

Palavras-chave:
Conselhos editoriais – Intermediários científicos – Revistas académicas – Estudos de região

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List of Abbreviations

A&HCI – Arts & Humanities Citation Index

C – Total Number of Citations

CPP – Number of citations per publication

IF – Impact Factor

ISI – Institute for Science Information

MNCS – Field normalized citation score

NGO – Non-governmental organization

NSB – National Science Board

NSF – National Science Foundation

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

P – Total number of publications

P_{TJ} – Number of publications in top-ranked journals

R&D – Research & Development

S&T – Science & Technology

SCI – Science Citation Index

SJR – Scimago Journal Rank

SSCI – Social Sciences Citation Index

UK – United Kingdom

UN – United Nations

UNDP – United Nations Development Program

UNESCO – United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural and Organization

USA – United States of America

WoS – Web of Science

1. Introduction

Science has been one of the main catalyzers shaping the modern society (Caraça et al., 2009). The diffusion of the Internet and the increased access to higher education across the population have fueled knowledge creation and dissemination, leading to the intensification of research and published articles.

In this case, universities play a significant role. Aside from granting academic degrees, they are seen as vital centres of research and knowledge creation, from *blue sky research* to applied research. The results of these processes in the academic work are disseminated in the format of academic journal articles and books, or unpublished theses.

Academic journals are one of the oldest forms of knowledge sharing. Although they were initially unpopular, after some years, scholarly journals became the most common way of publishing, prevailing until the present. Journals are important pillars of the modern scientific enterprise, which try to explain the world while installing solid intellectual foundations to reshape it. Hence, these institutions are responsible for the acceptation and dissemination of the knowledge produced.

In this case, internal governance plays an important role, since they decide the content of a journal, defining its aims and scopes. Composed by a group of individuals commonly known as editorial boards and advisory boards, they are usually specialized in the subject area of a specific journal, working almost like their administration: between other functions, they decide which subject an issue should focus and which submitted articles they consider appropriate for publishing.

Even though the editorial boards' importance to the academic value chain is undeniable, studies about the governance of peer-reviewed research journals are still fragmented in the sense that these actors have not been subject to systematic scrutiny.

Thus, to scan into the internal governance of these major vehicles of the contemporary research, this dissertation focuses on the leading academic journals' editorial boards of Africa, Asia and Latin America studies in the field of development. These geographical areas, which encompass the majority of developing countries, broadly do not have highly reputed universities. Even though there are talent and capabilities, in most of the cases researchers from there look for opportunities in developed countries or high ranked universities, simply because there are not, among other problems, suitable research programs to entice them. To establish a comparison between these journals and most reputed ones, top outlets in the field of development economics were also analyzed. At an exploratory level, several variables about the editorial boards' were studied, such as gender, institutional affiliation, geography and research relevance. This scientometric perspective can be a useful tool to understand some of the journals' characteristics.

Two interrelated research questions were posed to outline the objectives of this dissertation: 1) What do editorial boards indicate about the structure of the scholarly research? 2) How do editorial boards are related to the impact of a journal?

As objectives, three goals are outlined: (1) to provide a scientometric perspective about the editorial boards; (2) to identify patterns in the analysed editorship; and (3) to understand if the editorial's team scientific relevance or team diversity are related to the journal impact.

This dissertation is organised as follows. Chapter 2 will focus on the core literature about scientometrics, bibliometrics and journals' editorial boards. Chapter 3 outlines the methodology and sources used in this dissertation. Chapter 4 presents the results obtained from the analysed journals' editorial boards. The fifth and last chapter outlines the main conclusions, the limitations and possible future research lines.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The scientometric research program

2.1.1. Historical perspective

One of the definitions of scientometrics is "the quantitative study of science, communication in science and science policy" (Hess, 1997, p. 75) being its research devoted to the quantitative studies of science and technology. According to van Raan (1997, p. 206), the core interests of scientometric research fall in four interrelated areas:

> *"(1) the development of methods and techniques for the design, construction and application of quantitative indicators on science and technology; (2) development of information systems on science and technology; (3) the study of interaction between science and technology; and (4) the study of cognitive and socio-organizational structures of scientific fields and development processes in relation to societal factors."*

Scientometrics, originally a Russian word (*naukometriya*), was proposed for the first time in 1966 by the mathematician-philosopher-polymath Vasily Nalimov and his co-author Z. M. Mulchenko (Garfield, 2009) in their paper called "Quantitative methods of research of scientific evolution*"* (Research Trends Editorial Board, 2009).[1] Even though the term was coined for the first time in 1966, there were earlier contributions in this area from other authors (Kinouchi, 2014).[2] However, in the second half of the 20th century a huge development was made – the quantitative study of research patterns by citation analysis, which is the quantitative analysis of research patterns and productivity based on research referenced in publications (Hess, 1997) – by the two pioneers of scientometrics as we know it today: Eugene Garfield, in his 1955 paper "Citation Indexes for Science" and Derek de Solla Price, in his 1963 book *Little Science, Big Science* (Hess, 1997).

The first idea about an interdisciplinary index to improve information retrieval came from Eugene Garfield in the early 1960s, known as citation indexing (Leydesdorff & Milojevic,

[1]Original title: *Kolichestvennye metody issledovaniya protsessa razvitiya nauki*.
[2]See Alfred Lotka's paper (1926), which focuses on the frequency distribution of chemists and physicians' scientific production (1926), Bradford's law (1934), Bernal's "The Social Function of Science (1939) or Wells's (1939) work proposing the establishment of a world information center are some of the examples.

2015), although it was proposed for the first time in *Science* (1955) by the same author (Garfield, 2007). Citation index is described as "an ordered list of cited articles each of which is accompanied by a list of citing articles," in which "the citing article is described as a source while the cited article is described as a reference." (Garfield, 1964, p. 652). The idea in the creation of this bibliographic system was, according to Garfield (1955, p. 108), "for science literature that can eliminate the uncritical citation of fraudulent, incomplete or obsolete data by making it possible for the conscientious scholar to be aware of criticisms of earlier papers."

2.1.2. The institutionalization of science measure

In the 1950s, several factors that led to the development of citation indexing were identified. After the WWII several socio-economic changes occurred (Jesus & Mendonça, 2018), which led the US to make an enormous investment into R&D. Consequently, the number of scientific publications increased significantly, creating the need for a more efficient method of indexing and retrieval than the then-current model of manual indexing of materials for subject-specific indexes. The importance of that step comes from the weak capacity of the used index which was not enough to satisfy the researchers' needs, due to excessive lag times, in the addition of materials and limitations to the subject indexing concerning retrieval. Following the emerging interest and investment in computer science, automatic indexing was expected to overcome difficulties from previous methods, creating hope that automation would be a useful tool to prevail over the problems of manual indexing.[3]

The project proposed by Garfield became politically desirable and gained some cultural credibility (de Bellis, 2009). Hence, some years after, in 1964, the SCI was launched by ISI[4], a company founded by Garfield himself. At that time, the SCI was the only regularly

[3] See: https://clarivate.com/essays/history-citation-indexing/
[4] Currently owned by Clarivate Analytics.

published citation index in science (Malin, 1968). Using as primary input papers from selected journals covering all the major and disciplines and sub-disciplines, the bibliographic references link documents and its authors, simplifying the literature research and providing an essential measure of documents and authors' impact (de Bellis, 2009).

In 1966, all the major sub-disciplines of mathematics, life, physical and chemical sciences and engineering were covered to a large degree. In 1972 the SCI was followed by the SSCI and in 1978 by the A&HCI (de Bellis, 2009). Initially, the ISI Citation Indexes were divulgated only in printed versions, but from 1980 the company started to publish all the indexes available on CD-ROM (Baysinger, 1998). In addition to the three citation indexes available at that time (SCI, SSCI and A&HCI), in 1991 ISI also added a five specialty CD-ROM, covering Biochemistry, Biotechnology, Neurosciences, Mathematics and Computer Sciences (Moed, 2006).

In 1997, a web-based integration of SCI, SSCI and A&HCI was launched, marking the basis of the future WoS – which appeared in 2005 as an integrated web platform (Beira, 2010). Available online, the database became widely accessible (Hicks et al., 2015). That basic continuity redefined the relationships between the nodes of the scientific communication network, turning citations into the keystone to research analysis and evaluation (de Bellis, 2009).

2.2. Bibliometrics

2.2.1. History and evolution

After publication, the research outputs are used by other researchers in their works, resulting in citations on their subsequent articles. These citations can be used statistically and mathematically to measure patterns. Those methods are known as bibliometrics (Durieux & Genevois, 2010).

The term *bibliometrics* was coined for the first time by Alan Pritchard's article "Statistical bibliography or bibliometrics?" (1969, pp. 348-349), defined there as "the application of mathematics and statistical methods to books and other media documentation" to "shed light on the processes of written communication and of the nature and course of development of a discipline." Succinctly, bibliometrics can be described as the quantitative and statistical analysis to publications and authors (OECD, 2002).

Although both scientometrics and bibliometrics focus on quantitative analysis, being used almost as synonyms (Lundberg, 2006), it is important to note that bibliometrics is not restrained only to scientific documentation and scientometrics is not restricted to bibliometric measures (Hess, 1997).

Bibliometrics has evolved. Erstwhile, bibliometrics indicators for academic research were more straightforward, being limited to the collection of data based on the number of publications. The data was classified by author, country, affiliation, field of science, etc. Afterwards, in part due to the evolution of technology, the techniques became more sophisticated, which enabled a more conscious measure of the research quality, evolution and development of fields of science. Nowadays, bibliometric indicators are seen as a useful tool in order to gauge the impact of a work, author, research group, department or university/institute in the eyes of the research community, allowing the identification of national and international networks (OECD, 2002).

2.2.2. Bibliometric indicators

The origin of S&T indicators is from the US (1973), where the NSB, the policymaking board of the NSF was requested by the US Congress to publish a Science Indicators report twice each year. These reports aimed to measure science and research funding based on them. Although there were some scientists against this idea, the US Science Report evolved into a valuable tool to measure the US S&T and to compare it with other countries

(Grupp & Mogee, 2004). Nowadays, bibliometric and patent indicators are one of the most frequently used indicators to measure R&D outputs (UNESCO, 2005).

Broadly, and according to the *Oxford English Dictionary*[5], an indicator can be defined as "a thing that indicates the state or level of something." A more accurate definition of the word regarding how it is used in bibliometrics is given in the "Handbook on Monitoring and Evaluating for Results" (2002, p. 101), from the UNDP Evaluation Office. It is defined as a "*signal* that reveals progress (or lack thereof) towards objectives; means measuring what actually happens against what has been planned in terms of quantity, quality or timeliness. An indicator is a quantitative or qualitative variable that provides a simple and reliable basis for assessing achievement, change or performance". The term *bibliometric indicator* is often used for the results of a bibliometric analysis (Rehn et al., 2014a) and its use has been increasing in the recent years (Confraria & Godinho, 2014).

According to van Raan (2004, p. 21), an indicator is "the result of a simple mathematical operation (often simple arithmetic) with data." Hence, it becomes important to understand the term *data*, which is, in this case, the number of citations of one publication in a determined period. The same author argues that working as instruments in the study of science, "indicators must be problem driven, otherwise they are useless." (idem, p. 22). Another point of view is given by Holton (1978, p. 203): indicators "can rationalize the allocation and use of resources", since they allow the understanding of the features associated with them. He also states that "indicators must not be thought of as given from 'above,'" but instead "they should preferably be developed in response to and as aids in the solution of interesting questions and problems." (idem, p. 219)

According to Peter Vinkler (2010, p. 82), the study of publications in different scientometric systems englobes an appropriate selection of indicators: "(1) the function

[5] See https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/indicator

of the indicators applied should be determined; (2) the method of the calculation should be given; and (3) applicability and validity should be studied within the conditions of the corresponding item". There are innumerous indicators, and it is important to note that they are cyclically under criticism, meaning that new indicators are being developed all the time, while existent ones are always being evolved (OULU, 2017).

2.2.3. Types of Indicators

There are multiple types of bibliometric indicators aimed to measure the scientific productivity or its dissemination. The consulted bibliography did not present a consensus related to its grouping since two major ways of clustering were identified. However, the majority of it argues that there are three types of indicators: (1) quantity, (2) performance and (3) structural indicators. In this dissertation, only the first two will be described.[6] To achieve a more comprehensive analysis, multiple indicators should be combined due to the simplification of the bibliometric methods (Rehn et al., 2014a).

2.2.3.1. Quantity indicators

Quantity indicators focus on the productivity of a researcher or group of researchers, department, university or country (Durieux & Genevois, 2010), measuring the number of publications and citations (Rehn et al., 2014a). It is important to note that quantity indicators only focus on the published works' output, not measuring its impact (Lundberg, 2006). The two most used quantity indicators are the total number of publications (P), which describes the full number of outputs produced by the analyzed author or unit during a specified period and the number of publications in top-ranked journals (P_{TJ})[7]. Apart

[6] There is an alternative way to group the indicators in three different types: basic, advanced and structural indicators. Basic indicators are simple mathematical operations in order to measure the same subject areas; advanced indicators are normalized, allowing to compare different subject areas, while structural indicators are used to find publication patterns (see: http://www.slu.se/en/site/library/publish-and-analyse/bibliometrics/indicators-and-h-index/).

[7] Describes the full number of publications a unit has published in a selected number of journals, according to a suitable criterion.

from the number of publications or citations by an author or unit, the world share of publications, the number of publications in citation indexes such as Thomson Reuters or Google Scholar or the number of publications in top ranked journals are other examples (Rehn et al., 2014a).[8]

2.2.3.2. Performance indicators

Performance indicators focus on the quality or impact of a work, an author or a group, measuring the respective reputation in the scientific community. While *quantity indicators* only express the number of citations, *performance indicators* identify how often others cite a work, an author or a group in a particular period (Durieux & Genevois, 2010). This type of indicators is divided into two sections: researcher performance indicators (A) and journal performance indicators (B) (Joshi, 2014).

A. Researcher performance indicators

This type of indicators evaluates the quality or impact of researchers/units. However, although there are multiple researcher performance indicators, the scientists' measurement is problematic, due to two major reasons: (a) statistically reliable indicators are dependent on a high number of publications produced in a short period and (b) research productivity and citation impact are not necessarily correlated variables (Glänzel, 2006).

Basic researcher performance indicators represent the basis of the more sophisticated indicators posteriorly proposed to make comparisons between researchers (Durieux & Genevois, 2010), trying to overcome the problems outlined in the previous paragraph. A primary indication of performance is the number of times an article is cited – the higher the citations, the higher the performance. Dividing C by a concrete number of years, the

[8] See Appendix 1.

average citations per year indicator is generated; dividing C by the number of total published articles, CPP is produced (Rehn et al., 2014a).

In 2005, Jorge E. Hirsch suggested a basic but very well received indicator, known as h-index. Proposed to evaluate the scientific output of an individual researcher (Joshi, 2014), Hirsch (2005, p. 16569) defined it as: "A scientist has index h if h of his/her N_p papers have at least h citations each, and the other (N_p – h) papers have no more than h citations each". To calculate the index, the researcher outputs are sorted in descending order by number of citations, being the articles counted from the top to the bottom of the list; when the number of an article rises above the number of citations for that article, the number of the preceding article is the h-index[9]. In other words, h-index corresponds to the number of publications (h) that have at least *h* citations (Rehn et al., 2014a). Even though the h-index is considered robust in several ways (Batista et al., 2006)[10], several shortcomings were identified, since (i) the h-index is based on long-term observations, which have as a consequence the disadvantage of newcomer researchers; (ii) h-index is not independent of subject-specific communication behavior and cannot be normalized in the same way other indicators can; (iii) h-index cannot exceed the number of publications; and (iv) despite being useful to the identification of outstanding performances, it fails in assessing fair and good performances (Glänzel, 2006).

Moreover, more sophisticated indicators have been developed, such as normalized indicators[11] that control citation rates based on document type, research field and year of

[9] i.e., a researcher has 150 published articles during an analyzed time span; the article number 30 has 32 citations and number 31 has 27. The h-index will be 32. Three levels were proposed for interpreting the h-index: 20 years after of scientific activities, h-index at 20 characterizes a "successful" researcher; at 40 an "outstanding"; at 60 a "truly unique individual" one (Hirsch, 2005).

[10] "(i) it combines productivity with impact, (ii) the necessary data is easy to access in Thomson ISI Web of Science database, (iii) it is not sensitive to extreme values, (iv) it is hard to inflate, (v) automatically samples the most relevant papers concerning citations" (Batista et al. 2006, p. 179).

[11] Normalized indicators overcome differences between subjects by measuring the weighted average of the relative performance in each subject area. (see http://ipscience-help.thomsonreuters.com/inCites2Live/indicatorsGroup/aboutHandbook/appendix/indicatorsGlossaryOnePage.html).

publication (Lundberg, 2006). Examples of frequently used normalized indicators are the crown indicator or the MNCS.[12]

B. Journal performance indicators

Journal performance indicators measure the quality or impact of a journal. The evaluation can be made using different methods and those various methods can offer different results (OULU, 2017). Probably, the most used indicator to measure journals' impact is the IF (Joshi, 2014), which is a basic and old indicator, since was proposed in 1955 and developed in the early 1960s[13]. It corresponds to the average number of citations received in the previous year by articles published in the analyzed journal in the last two or five years (Mingers et al., 2012). Even though the IF is easy to calculate and independent of the journals' size, several associated disadvantages were identified[14], being stated that a high IF does not reflect the quality of the published articles (Durieux & Genevois, 2010). In order to try to overcome some of the IF's disadvantages, it was proposed that the h-index could be used to measure the journals' quality. Its calculation method is the same as the outlined for researchers[15], being suggested that it would be a more useful metric to calculate the journals' quality and impact. Although all of the h-index's disadvantages outlined above are the same, some of them are considered less prominent when the indicator is used to measure journals, since the time span can be selected to provide an appropriate analysis (Mingers et al., 2012).

[12] See Appendix 2.
[13] Proposed by Garfield and developed by himself and I.H. Sher, being the citations collected in WoS.
[14] (a) Since it is a basic indicator, it is not sensible to the subject specialty of the journal, i.e. multidisciplinary journals tend to have a higher IF than a specialized journal; (b) the number of authors in an article tend to cite their works frequently, increasing the IF of the journal; (c) review articles or technical reports tend to have many more citations than an original research paper, meaning that a journal that publishes a lot of review articles is likely to have a higher IF than a journal that publishes primarily original articles; (d) number of articles published per year by a journal, i.e. a journal with more willingness to accept articles or with more issues is more likely to have a higher IF (Joshi, 2006).
[15] Succinctly, according to Hodge and Lacasse (2011, p. 583): "An entity has an h-index value of *y* if the entity has *y* publications that have all been cited at least *y* times."

Since those outlined indicators are not normalized, they do not overcome differences between subjects. Hence, to provide a complete evaluation, new metrics to measure scientific impact as a combination of quantity and quality were developed (González-Pereira et al., 2009), such as the normalized journal impact, the source normalized impact per paper or the SJR. In this dissertation, the used indicator to rank the journals is the SJR[16], which corresponds to the average number of weighted citations received in a determined year by the journal's published documents in the three previous years[17]. SJR diverges from the IF in the way that different weights to citations are attributed[18], depending on the impact of the citing journal without the self-citations. The prestige is calculated with the PageRank algorithm[19] (Falagas et al., 2008). Based on eigenvector centrality[20], several strengths associated with this indicator were identified, such as (a) the use of Scopus[21] as the data source for its development, (b) the multidimensionality, (c) the limitation of the number of self-citations and (d) the international collaboration in order to measure ratios of outputs produced between institutions from different countries. However, weaknesses were also found: (a) the SJR does not generate metric considering trade journals[22] or other non-peer reviewed articles and (b) citations are only counted if they are made to an item published in the three previous years (Godana, 2011).

[16] Appendix 3 tabulates brief definitions of the previously mentioned journal indicators.
[17] See http://www.scimagojr.com/SCImagoJournalRank.pdf
[18] The weight is based on the importance of the citing journals, meaning that more important journals will provide more valuable citations when compared to less important ones (González-Pereira et al., 2012).
[19] Calculation proposed by Google's CEO Lawrence Page and his team, "in order to measure the relative importance of web pages", in which is "a method for computing a ranking for every web page based on the graph of the web" (Page et al., 1999, p. 2).
[20] Based on the idea that there is a connection between "central actors" and "the centrality of each vertex is proportional to the sum of the centralities of its neighbors. See http://www.stat.washington.edu/people/pdhoff/courses/567/Notes/l6_centrality.pdf (slide 29).
[21] Database of peer-reviewed literature and authors, owned by Elsevier. Considered as the world's largest scientific database, since it covers data from more than 17.000 journals, covering the full range of scholarly research. See: https://www.elsevier.com/solutions/scopus
[22] Non peer-reviewed publication, which aims to cover fields of interest to a specific trade, business or industry (Collins Dictionary)

2.3. Editorial boards – Gatekeepers of academic journals

Academic journals are responsible for the acceptance and dissemination of the knowledge produced by the scientific community. According to Braun (2004, p. 95), "the present system of basic research in the sciences and scientific communication depends almost entirely on the primary journal literature." Since editorial boards are the groups of individuals responsible for several decisions at a journal (Holland et al., 2014), editors occupy strategic positions in the social hierarchy in their respective fields (Zsindely et al., 1982). Working as research intermediaries (Borysewicz, 1977), "editors maintain the integrity of the editorial peer review process" (Gaston, 1979, p. 789) and must serve the readers, researchers and owners (Angell, 1991). Hence, a good editorial governance is an important part of the integrity and independence of academic journals, in which having the duty of ensuring the scientific quality of publications (Peterson et al., 2017), its members work as gatekeepers of science, once the information accepted to circulate is selected by them (Crane, 1967). Thus, editorial boards act as "opinion formers, gatekeepers and arbiters of disciplinary values" (Burgess & Shaw, 2010, p. 629), determining which topics are relevant for the journal, the current techniques and methods and how thorough or speculative researchers should be about data interpretations.

Editors' experience and scientific expertise in their respective subject fields are one of the most important factors in the members' assignment (Burgess & Shaw, 2010), to emphasize its impact (Konrad, 2008) and the potential increase in ranking of a journal. The rationale is quite simple: more recognized editors may attract more talented authors to submit their scientific work, as well as expand the journal's appeal to a wider audience (Metz et al., 2015; Zedeck, 2008).

Thus, even if editorial boards can be seen as a quality indicator of an outlet (Nisonger, 2002), empirical studies related to editorial governance and journal impact are limited, since most of the researchers in this discipline consider only few editor characteristics,

focusing more on the broader editorial boards rather than on the editorial team (Petersen et al., 2017).

Two of the pioneers of journal gatekeeping indicators were suggested in the early eighties, by Zsindely et al. (1982, p. 57), who found significant correlations "between the number of science journal editors from different countries, on the one hand, and the number of scientists, the number of science journals and the number of science papers produced by these countries on the other." In the same sense, Braun & Budjosó (1983, p. 161) analysed the nationalities of the editorial boards' members of analytical chemistry journals, and concluded that "correlations were sought between their number and citation rates and between their number and number of analytical papers published by scientists from the country in question." In 1985, a large-scale study was made, in which Bakker & Rigter inspected the editorial boards of more than 1.000 medical journals to determine "if international appointments originated from countries with large research programs." (Weller, 2002, p. 90). In the last years, a growing interest in editorial boards' structure has been noted (Burgess & Shaw, 2010), since more studies focused on this area have been published – i.e., Baccini & Barabesi's (2009), which found that 90% of economics journals in their study were linked "via overlapping editorial boards" (Peterson et al., 2017, p. 1597); or Burguess & Shaw's (2010), concluding that editors on duty in more impactful journals tend to be affiliated with more renowned institutions (Petersen et al., 2017).

Hence, a basic premise can be assumed: editorship is a structured process. Outlined works show that there is lack of focus and conclusions about the structure of the editorships, but is undeniable that it is a useful tool to measure journals.

2.4. Preliminary conclusions

The huge investment made by the US government into R&D created the need for an automated index in order to overcome the difficulties caused by the substantial increase of scientific outputs. Both from political and scientifically point of view, the project proposed by Eugene Garfield became desirable, which led to its launch and development, redefining the measuring of science, the relationships between subject fields and turning the citations' analysis into the most useful form of evaluating the research impact.

To measure citation patterns, its statistical and mathematical use needed to follow the index citation analysis's evolution. Once again, the US government played a major role in this case, since Science Indicators reports were requisitioned, with the aim of measuring science and research funding based on them. Through the time, bibliometrics indicators' evolution was always continuous, becoming one of the most useful tools to measure works, researchers, research groups, journals, departments or institutes, as well as the countries' S&T outputs.

Since journals' documents are published after scrutiny and selection, editorial boards play an important role in knowledge dissemination, once they act as the gatekeepers of science. Working as a structured process, they can be seen as a quality indicator of a journal. Thus, to understand the academic journals' governance, it is useful to analyze the editorial boards to understand possible trends and the relation between an outlet's impact and the editorial team scientific relevance.

3. Methodology and Sources

3.1. Journal Selection

The first approach step in this study was to identify five key development academic journals specialized in three different geographical areas – Africa, Latin America and Asia – and compare them to five key top development general journals. Since there is not one single way to establish rank orders of journals (Adkisson, 2014), the identification was made resorting to Scimago, which ranks the journals using the SJR indicator.

The objective was to identify journals both in the Social Sciences and Economics, Econometrics and Finance subject fields (ranked for 2016), in which contain 5327 and 919 journals in total, respectively. Even though there can be differences in publication and citation behavior across disciplines (Dorta-González & Dorta-González, 2013), economics and social sciences are a case of cross-disciplinary approach, since economics has a strong position in studies of international development (Harriss, 2001).

Journals extracted from the Scimago's list were selected by their title: only journals containing "Africa" in their title were considered for African journals; "Latin American" for Latin American journals; "Asia" for Asian and "Developing" or "Development" for the top development ones. This first screening was made in order to be sure that the selected journals were focused on the previously outlined regions.

From all the journals selected, a second method was adopted: a research in the respective websites was made to analyse the aims and scopes and some of the published articles, concerning to identify the ones contemplating fields with interest for this study.

The five-journal selection for each area is arbitrary. However, this methodology has been a rule of thumb in academic journal analysis (Card & DellaVigna, 2013). Hence, 20

journals were selected. Table 1 shows the selected journals for the three geographic areas and the control group analysed in this dissertation.[23]

Table 1: Tabulation of the 20 journals, separated by the four study cases

Area of study	Leading journals (and acronyms used in this study)
Africa	1. *African Affairs* (AA) 2. *Review of African Political Economy* (ROAPE) *3. Africa* 4. *Journal of Modern African Studies* (JMAS) 5. *Journal of Southern African Studies* (JSAS)
Asia	1. *International Relations of the Asia Pacific* (IRAP) 2. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint* (APV) 3. *Journal of Asian Economics* (JAE) 4. *Modern Asian Studies* (MAS) 5. *Asian Economic Papers* (AEP)
Latin America	1. *Latin American Politics and Society* (LAPS) 2. *Latin American Perspectives* (LAP) 3. *Bulletin of Latin American Research* (BLAR) 4. *Latin American Research Review* (LARR) 5. *Journal of Latin American Studies* (JLAS)
Development general journals	1. *Journal of Development Economies* (JDE) 2. *World Development* (WD) 3. *Economic Development & Cultural Change* (ED&CC) 4. *Environment and Development Economics* (EDE) 5. *Economic Development Quarterly* (EDQ)

3.2. Editor identification and characterization

In order to inspect into the journals' editorial teams, the names contained in each journal website were gathered, in which were hand-collected from the outlets' editorial lists. Due to an existence of outdated data in some journals' websites, electronic versions of issues from 2017 were consulted. Most of the journals publish the names of their editors and their affiliations, but even though boards are structured bodies, the labeling of the job function and its responsibilities are not homogeneous.[24] Thus, the lack of standardization in the editorial labels leads to a difficulty in job functions' comparison between journals. From all of the journals analysed, a total of 908 editorships were gathered: 204 in Asian journals, 263 in African ones, 243 in Latin Americans' and 198 in development general

[23] The inspected fields in this study are alphabetically ordered, while the journals themselves are ranked in decreasing order of their respective SJR. For further information about the journals see Boxes 1 to 4 in Appendix.
[24] See Appendixes 8 to 11.

outlets. It is important to keep in mind that there is a difference from editorships to editors: even though all journals have 908 editorships, some editors are performing the role of editors in more than one journal at the same time.

To understand the editorship structure of the journals outlined above, further information was analysed. Since the websites only supplied information about the editors' name and their affiliation and job titles, alternative sources were needed to complement the data and to fulfill the objectives of this dissertation. Table 2 shows the editorships considered information and respective sources.

Table 2: List of the considered information and respective sources

Variable	Source(s)
Qualitative variables	
Gender	Coded in the base of the first and middle names; When names did not clearly indicate the gender, researches in an online database of names[25] or Google were made, in order to obtain information about the editor.
Institutional affiliation	Journals' website and double check in Scopus; In case of different information between sources, editors' page was consulted; If more than one affiliation were given, only the institution with the highest score was measured (source used: World University Rankings 2016)
Geographical position	Coded in the base of the editors' affiliation, since the affiliations represent the editors' geographical position.
Job Function	Journals' Website
Quantitative variables	
H-Index	Scopus – Last update on August 1st, 2017.
Number of Documents	Scopus – Last update on August 1st, 2017.
Number of Citations	Scopus – Last update on August 1st, 2017.

3.3. Measurement

Apart of the SJR, H-Index, total documents, citations and references were also included and collected from 2016's Scimago Ranks with the aim to provide a more detailed analysis about the journals (See Appendix 12 to 15). In order to provide an analysis about the gathered editorial boards' information, the following variables were calculated (see Table 3).

[25] See genderchecker.com/

Table 3: List of the editors' variables and respective measurement

Variable	Characteristic(s)
Number of editors	Raw count of editors affiliated to each journal.
Repeated editors	Proportion of editors on duty in more than one journal at the same time in the total number of editors.
Gender diversity	Proportion between male and female editors for each journal.
Academic editors	Proportion between editors affiliated to universities or institutes in the total number of editors.
Geographical distribution	Geographical position, coded in the base of the institutional affiliation. Proportion between the countries and continents in the total number of editors.
H-Index	Coded on the basis of Scopus in each editor's page.
Number of citations	Coded on the basis of Scopus in each editor's page.
Number of documents	Coded on the basis of Scopus in each editor's page.

4. Results

4.1. General outline

4.1.1. Editorship count

As outlined in Chapter 3, there are 20 journals, 5 in each of the four study cases. Overall, 908 editorships were gathered: 263 from journals related to African studies, 204 from Asian studies, 243 from Latin American studies' journals and 198 from general development. However, 34 editors are working in more than one journal simultaneously, meaning that only 873 are unique individuals. African studies' journals comprise 17 repeated editors among its editorial teams[26], Latin American studies contain 8 among the five journals[27] and generalist top journals only 6.[28] It was also stated that there are 3 editors on duty in journals from different studies, in which 2 of them are working in African outlets and generalist top journals and 1 in Latin American studies and generalists. Only journals related to Asian studies do not comprise any repeated editors (Figure 1).

[26] In which one is on duty in three outlets at the same time (AA, ROAPE and JSAS). ROAPE encompass 11 repeated editors, JSAS 10, AA 6, Africa 2 and JMAS 2.
[27] LARR has 5 repeated editors, LAPS 4, BLAR and JLAS comprise 3 and LAP 1, in which they are only working in two journals at the same time.
[28] Only between JDE and ED&CC.

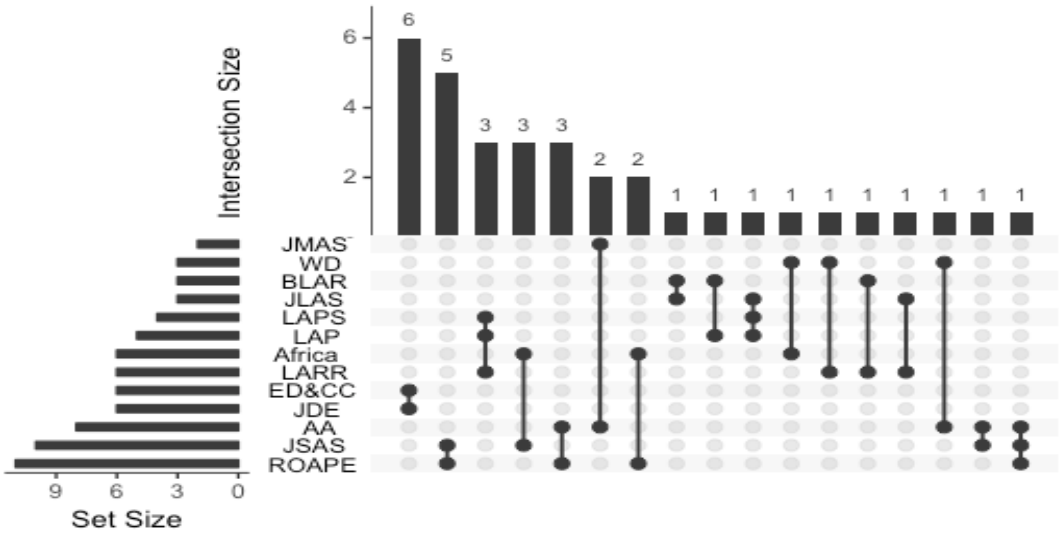

Figure 1: Repeated editors' distribution by journals. "Set Size" is related to the number of repeated editors each journal comprises, while "Intersection Size" measures the number of editors on duty between the journals. R.

4.1.2. Journal outline

All of the five journals related to Africa are focused on African studies. All these are based in the UK and three of them are published by academic publishing houses.[29]

On Asian studies' outlets, IRAP and APV areas of focus outreach any other countries bathed by the Pacific Ocean, which may include the Americas and Oceania, while JAE tries to facilitate engagement between the American and Asian economists. Thus, only AEP and MAS focus totally on Asian studies. From the five journals, only JAE is not directly linked to a university.[30]

All of the Latin American studies' journals are entirely focused on Latin American studies. Only LAPS is directly linked to an academic institution[31] and three of them (LAPS, LAP and LARR) are from the US, while BLAR and JLAS are from the UK. Finally, on development journals, four of the five outlets are related to global studies in the development economics, since only EDQ "is geared to North American economic development and revitalization."[32] Two journals are directly linked to academic

[29] AA is published by Oxford University Press, while Africa and JMAS by Cambridge University Press.
[30] IRAP is published by Oxford University Press, APV on behalf of Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand), MAS by Cambridge University Press, while AEP is distributed by the MIT Press.
[31] University of Miami, US.
[32] See https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/economic-development-quarterly/journal200762

institutes[33]. About the journals' nationality, only ED&CC and EDQ are from the US, while JDE (Netherlands), WD and EDE are European (UK).[34]

4.1.3. Editorial boards and paper output distribution

As outlined in Chapter 3, the labelling of the job function and its responsibilities is not homogeneous, showing that there is not a standard way to organise the editorial teams. Regarding the board size, Figure 2 shows a considerable variability of editors across journals, existing a range from 19 (JMAS and ED&CC) to 96 editors (LAP).

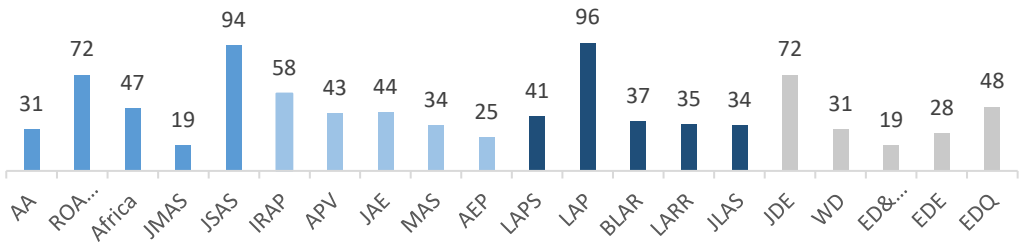

Figure 2: Number of editors by journal for the four study cases

The paper output also varies across journals. A correlation was made to understand if the number of editors and the number of documents published are related. However, calculating separately the same correlation for the four samples, it was noted that some differences occurred (See Table 4). However, it is important to understand that there are other variables, such as the ratio of papers accepted and the publication frequency of the journals, in which differences across the outlets were found. All of African studies' journals are published quarterly. The same does not happen in the rest of the studies: on Asian studies' journals, IRAP, APV and AEP are published three times a year, while JAE and MAS are bimonthly outlets; in Latin American studies' outlets, all of the journals have quarterly issues, excepting LAP, which is published bimonthly; in general development journals the differences are more significant: WD is published monthly, JDE

[33] ED&CC published by the University of Chicago Press and EDE by the Cambridge University Press.
[34] Appendixes 4 to 7 provide further information about the journals in study

and EDE are published bimonthly, while ED&CC and EDQ have quarterly issues.[35] Thus, analyzing the few variables available, no patterns were found.

Table 4: Correlations between the number of editors and the number of documents by journal across theme areas

Theme areas of journals	ρ	p-value
African studies	0.97	0.004
Asian studies	-0.96	0.009
Latin American studies	0.95	0.012
General development	0.17	0.78
Overall analysis	0.47	0.03

4.2. Geographic analysis

4.2.1. Distribution by region

To understand the patterns of scholarly research focused on the four study cases, the editors' geographical position was analyzed. The countries were grouped into the following regions: Asia, Europe, Latin America, North America and Oceania. The partition between Latin America and North America allows to understand the difference of influence between the English-speaking countries (US and Canada) and Spanish/Portuguese-speaking countries in the Americas, comprised by all the nations of Central/South America plus Mexico and the Caribbean.

Overall, the majority of the editors are based in North America (361) and Europe (262), corresponding to 71.4% of the editorial population, showing a huge influence of the most developed regions in the scholarly research. Asian studies' journals are the only group in which no proportion dominance was observed between the regions. On African studies' journals, Africa-based editors represent only little over a quarter of that segment's population (27.3%), showing that Europe has a major influence in the top academic African studies, since this region is represented by 53.9% of the editorial population from that segment. Latin American studies' journals comprise less than a quarter Latin America-based editors (23.4%), lower than a half of the North America-based editors

[35] See Appendixes 4 to 7.

(50.6%). This result is clear enough to conclude that English-speaking countries have a higher influence in this study case than the Spanish/Portuguese-speaking nations in the Americas. On general development outlets, the most developed regions show up with an outstanding representation, since North America and Europe-based editors comprise 89.7% of the study's population (69.9% and 19.9%, respectively). The other regions represent a combined proportion of 10.3%, demonstrating a smaller importance when compared to the most scientifically developed countries. Figure 3 comprises the number of editors by region for the four samples.

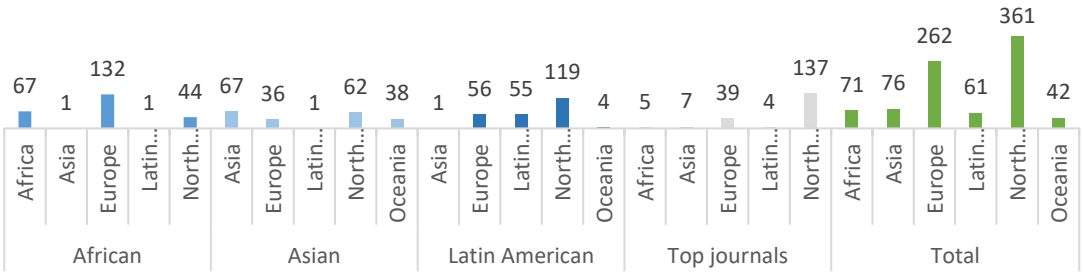

Figure 3: Editors by region for the four study cases

4.2.2. Distribution by country

Overall, 62 countries were mapped, representing 32.3% of the 195 nations recognized by the UN[36]. Results of the designated countries by region are shown in Appendix (See Appendix 12).

Analyzing the number of countries represented in the four study cases, was noted that African studies' journals comprise 30 nations, Asian studies 24, Latin American studies 25 and general development journals 25.[37] Figure 4 maps the editors' distribution by country.

[36] See http://www.un.org/en/member-states/

[37] African studies: 16 African, 1 Asian, 10 European, 1 Latin and 2 North American; Asian studies: 10 Asian, 8 European, 1 Latin, 2 North American and 3 from Oceania; Latin American studies: 1 Asian, 9 European, 12 Latin, 2 North American and 1 from Oceania; General development journals: 4 African, 4 Asian, 11 European, 4 Latin and 2 North American.

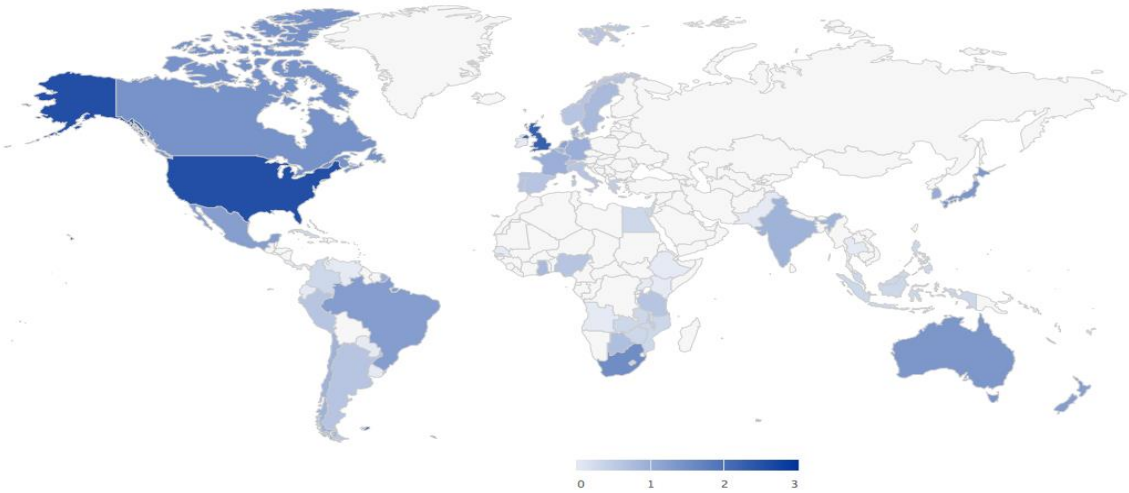

Figure 4: Map of the editors' geographical position. Darker blue means a higher representation, while white means that there is not any representation; Values are shown in a logarithmic scale with the aim to overcome the differences in countries' representation. R.

Only Canada, France, Germany, the UK and US are represented in the four areas, reflecting the worldwide relevance of these most developed nations. US shows up with an astounding representation, comprising alone 38.3% of the editorial population (334 editors), followed at a great distance by the UK (21.1%, or 184 editors).

Analyzing the five most represented countries, it is noted that English-speaking countries have a huge influence in these studies as they comprise the top-5. Although there is a significant gap between the US's representation and the rest of the countries, 69% of the editorial population is comprised in the list. See Figure 5.

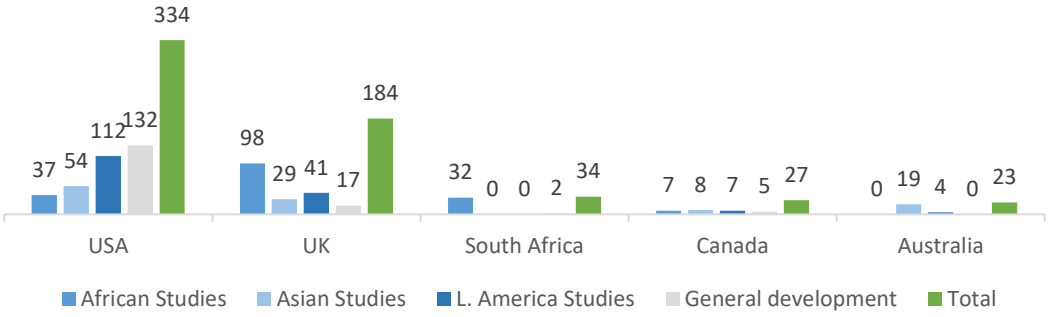

Figure 5: Distribution of the five most represented countries for the four groups of journals in study and for the whole editorial population

Looking at the countries by the geographic sample, results show that the majority of the UK-based editors are on duty on African studies' journals, representing 40% (98 editors) of that segment's population. This result is not a surprise since all of the five outlets are

based there. However, if a language perspective is taken, countries where English is an official language, constitute the three most represented nations, comprising an absolute majority in the editorials' seats: gatekeepers from the UK, US and South Africa take 68.2% of the positions in the African studies' journals. Even in the rest of the African countries, English language has an astounding representation, since from the 16 African represented nations, only Angola, Egypt, Mozambique and Senegal do not have English as an official language. Further, it was noted that only a half of the 16 African countries are represented by two or more editors. This fact helps to highlight that African countries' representation becomes substantially lower without South Africa since this nation alone represents almost a half of the total Africa-based editors' population (47.8%).

On journals related to Asian studies, the distribution between regions and countries is the most equally distributed if compared to the other cases, which might be due to the fact that three of the five journals are not entirely focused on Asia. However, the most represented countries are the US (26.5% of the total segment's population) and the UK (14.2%). 10 Asian countries are represented on the boards (the highest number in the segment) and the highest proportion of editors (32%). The three most represented Asian countries are Japan, Singapore and South Korea, in which are three of the most scientifically developed nations in that region. The high New Zealand representation is due to the fact that APV is published on behalf of the Victoria University of Wellington since all of the editors based in that country are on the APV's editorial team.

On Latin American studies, even though the outlets are entirely focused on that region, only 3 Latin countries comprise more than 5 editors in the editorial population for that segment (Mexico (17), Brazil (16), and Chile (6)). The US alone represents almost one-half of the population (47.7%, 112 editors), demonstrating the enormous influence of the country in this geographical area. Another element that helps to corroborate the previous sentence is the fact that three of the five journals are from that nation.

Finally, on development general journals' boards, the top-3 most represented countries are the US, the UK and Canada, comprising 80.2% of the editorial population for that segment. The US's representation is overwhelming (68.8%) when compared to the rest of the countries: the UK, which is the second most represented nation, only comprises 8.8% of the editorial population. Even though 25 countries were mapped in this segment, only the top-3 comprise 5 editors or more. This result shows the huge influence of the developed English-speaking countries (and principally the US) have in the top scholarly journals.

4.3. Gender analysis

Benedek (1976) studied psychiatry journals' editorial board and found a dominance of male members. In this dissertation the results are similar since only 233 editors are women, representing little over than a quarter of the editorial population (26.7%). Journals focused on Latin American studies have the highest absolute number and proportion of women on the boards (83 women editors, 35.3%), followed by African studies journals (72 women, 29.4%) and general development outlets (42 women, 21.9%). The less diversified boards regarding gender are Asian studies' journals (37 women editors, 18.1%). Thus, it shows that in the four cases, male editors dominate the editorial boards' seats.

Taking the whole sample, the distribution on a gender perspective by region shows that Latin America-based editors have the highest percentage of women (31.1%), followed by Europe-based (29.8%). Asia-based editors comprise the lowest proportion in this case (19.7%) (See Table 5).

Table 5: Gender analysis by region for the whole editorial population

Regions	Female	Male	% Female
Africa	19	52	26.8%
Asia	15	61	19.7%
Europe	78	184	29.8%
Latin America	19	42	31.1%
North America	90	271	24.9%
Oceania	12	30	28.6%

4.4. Institutional analysis

4.4.1. Academic vs. non-academic editors

Taking the institutional affiliations, the majority of the editorial population belongs to universities, since 774 of the 873 editors come from academia (88.7%). Non-academic gatekeepers are distributed along institutions such as governmental agencies, NGOs, libraries, museums, banks, think-tanks, etc.

There are no significant differences in boards' diversification between the cases since the non-academic editors ratio vary from 10.3% to 13.5%.[38]

4.4.2. Institutional affiliations

Overall, concerning represented institutions, a total of 403 were mapped, of which 325 are universities. Analyzing the top-10 of the most represented affiliations, all of them are universities. Among the institutions with most representation, a total dominance by English-speaking countries, primarily by the UK and the US was found, since only one university represented in the top-10 is not based in these two nations. The results are depicted in Table 6.

[38] Analyzing only the first three studies, values only vary between 10.3% (Asian studies) and 10.6% (Latin American studies), while African studies outlets have 10.9% on non-academic gatekeepers.

Table 6: List of the most represented affiliations for the four study cases

Affiliation	Editors	Country	Region
University of London	50	UK	Europe
University of California	38	US	North America
University of Cambridge	25	UK	Europe
University of Oxford	22	UK	Europe
Harvard University	11	US	North America
University of Leeds	11	UK	Europe
Victoria University of Wellington	11	New Zealand	Oceania
California State University	10	US	North America
University of Manchester	10	UK	Europe
Duke University	9	US	North America

In order to provide a further analysis, the most represented institutions were analysed by study cases.[39] All of the four study cases comprise a proportion of academic institutes greater than 80%.[40] From the most represented affiliations, an astounding representation of academic institutes were found since only on general development journals non-academic institutions were found: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment (an NGO, in which all of the editors from there are on duty in EDQ) and World Bank (an international financial institution, in which editors from there are on duty in the most impactful journals: JDE and WD).

Further, it was noted that British and American top universities are well represented since in all of the cases the majority of the tabulated institutions are from there. On African studies' journals, the list is totally comprised of universities from English-speaking countries, in which 6 of the 8 are from the UK. However, it was noted that even though some are the same institutions that dominate three of the five journals[41], in those outlets the respective dominating universities are not the most represented. Sub-Saharan African universities represent the remaining two: one is South African and the other one is Botswanan. On Asian studies' journals, only two Asian universities were tabulated:

[39] To group the affiliations by study, only institutions represented by five or more editors were tabulated, due to a high repetition of frequency between lower numbers of occurrences.

[40] African studies' journals comprise 111 academic institutions out of 137 in total (81%), Asian studies 98 of 115 (85.2%), Latin American studies 127 of 144 (88.2%) and general development outlets 96 of 113 (85%).

[41] AA – University of Oxford, Africa and JMAS – University of Cambridge

National University of Singapore (Singapore) and the University of Tokyo (Japan). Nonetheless, two universities from the Oceania were included, which corroborates the fact that three of the five journals are focused on the Pacific as well: Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand), which is on the top of the list – although this affiliation is only observed in APV, which is the institution that directs the journal – Australian National University (Australia). On Latin American studies' outlets, from the 8 most represented universities, only one is Latin (Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Mexico). The UK and the US completely dominate the list, showing up with 7 of the 8 universities tabulated. Finally, in general development journals, 6 of the 8 most represented institutions are universities, in which all of them are from the US with exception to University of London (UK).[42]

4.5. Scientific performance

4.5.1. Introduction

This section is dedicated to the measuring of the editors' scientific performance, in which three indicators were analyzed: (1) h-index, (2) number of citations (performance indicators) and (3) number of documents (quantity indicator). In order to try to remove outliers, instead of the average, the respective medians were calculated. Thus, for the 873 editors in study, the respective medians for the three indicators are 6, 127 and 15.

To understand the patterns of the editors' expertise and journals' performance, a correlation between those variables was calculated. A strong positive association between the average h-index of the editorial board of a given journal and the journals' own impact was found (ρ=0.709, p-value=0.0004), meaning that highest-standing journals tend to have more impactful editors. However, no relations between the editorial diversity

[42] Appendixes 13 to 16 tabulate the most represented affiliations by study case.

regarding gender and academic/non-academic institutions and the journals' impact were found.

4.5.2. Region Analysis

Comprising the results by region, more conclusions can be drawn. Oceania-based editors show up with the highest values (even though with fewer editors), followed by North America-based and Europe-based, while Latin America, Africa and Asia-based editors have the lowest medians. These results help to demonstrate that researchers based in more developed areas tend to have higher impact and possibility to publish when compared to the developing regions. It is important to note that top journals always publish their articles in English, which may give an advantage to these developed areas, due to easier access to education and more people with a high formation. Results appear in Table 7.

Table 7: Indicators' medians by region

Region	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors
Africa	4	46	9	2	71
Asia	4	47.5	10	8	76
Europe	6	135.5	17	2	262
Latin America	2	20	6	5	61
North America	7	224	18	14	361
Oceania	9	342	28	0	42
Total	6	127	15	31	873

4.5.3. Analysis by geographic case

A huge gap between development general journals and the rest of the areas was found (see Table 8). Latin American studies' outlets show up with the lowest median for the three indicators. An analysis by region stressed that this poor result is not only due to the Latin America-based editors, but also due to the North America and Europe-based editors (see Appendix 19), since their medians are much lower than the ones depicted in Table 7. Another reason to this result could be the high number of editors in which no data was available in Scopus (15). Analyzing African studies' journals, in which show up with the second lowest medians, it was realized that Africa-based editors comprise the lowest medians in the analysis by region. It was also stated that editors based in Europe comprise

lower medians than the ones showed in Table 8 (see Appendix 17). About Asian studies, even though the editorial population for that segment has the same number of documents as the development general journals, the number of citations are much lower, which may affect the h-index. A valid reason for this difference could be the impact of the journals where the editors publish, since most impactful journals' articles tend to be more cited.[43]

Table 8: Indicators' medians for the four study cases[44]

	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors
African studies	5	79	13	3	245
Asian studies	7	180,5	25	8	204
Latin American studies	4	47	9	15	235
Generalist journals	11	628,5	25	5	192

4.5.4. Research excellence

To understand which are the best performing countries and institutions, as well as if there is a significant gap between male and female editors, the upper decile (top-87) of the editors' distribution in terms of h-index was scrutinized. The medians for this segment are 23, 2648 and 83 (h-index, number of citations and number of documents, respectively). General development journals are the most represented since there are 51 editors on the list (58.6%). Asian studies' journals show up in the second position with 23 editors, while African (7 editors) and Latin American studies' journals (6) complete the sample.

The most represented countries are the same as the ones found in the whole editorial population, since UK and US comprise 77% of the segment (57 editors based in US and 10 in UK), proving that the countries with most representation have the most scientific relevant editors as well. It was also found that there are not any Africa or Latin America-based editors on duty in journals covering these respective areas in this top-decile cut-off, and only 3 Asia-based editors are represented in Asian studies' journals, showing that the

[43] Appendix 17 to 20 tabulate the editors' medians by region in the respective case of study.
[44] Editors on duty in journals from different areas in study were not retired.

highest impactful editors from the study cases are not based on regions in which the journals are on focus.

In this segment, proportions for the diversity of the editorial teams in terms of gender and academic/non-academic are lower than the ones present in the whole editorial population, since 12 editors are women (13.8%) and only 5 are non-academic (5.7%), showing that most impactful editors are male and from the academia. Further, it was stated that 23 repeated editors were found in this cut-off, 67.6% of the 34 present in the whole editorial population. This result shows that more impactful editors tend to work in more than one journal at the same time.

4.6. Discussion

Findings indicate that editors based in the peripheries of the academic system are a minority, and the most developed countries (especially English-speaking nations) represent the majority of the editorial population. Although there are more than one-third of the worldwide nations represented in the editorial population, the UK and the US comprise more than one-half of the editors, showing that there is a major influence in the acceptance and dissemination of the knowledge produced by the scientific community. It was also found that these two countries comprise the most reputed and the highest number of repeated editors. Findings also indicate that even though non-academic and women editors represent a minority, the team diversity in terms of these two variables is not related to the journals' impact, corroborating the study of Peterson et al. (2017).

Assuming that editors are nominated by its expertise and experience (Burgess & Shaw, 2010), a relation between the editors' scientific relevance and journal impact was found. In fact, general development journals' editors comprise higher indicators when compared to the other study cases, since the top-decile cut-off showed that more than one-half of

the population from that segment is on duty in those outlets. Further, it was stated that editorial affiliations with most reputed institutions might be related to journals' impact, once the top-decile cut-off helped to find that only relevant and worldwide known institutions were mapped. It was also found that from the most impactful editors, more than a half of repeated editors are present, showing that the "elite within an elite" (Burguess & Shaw, 2010, p. 635) of research scholars on duty in the studied journals have a higher possibility to work in more than one journal at the same time, supporting the studies of Petersen et al. (2017).

5. Conclusions

With the aim to explore the editorial structure of scholarly research journals, editors were analyzed by region, country, gender, institutional affiliation and research performance. The application of this approach to area studies with a socio-economic focus shows several patterns.

Editorial boards play a major role in the dissemination of knowledge since they are responsible for the acceptance or rejection of articles produced by the scientific community and for the journal's governance. Seen as a journal's quality indicator, evidences seem to corroborate that statement, once they are in fact positively related with the journal's impact. The extant literature refers that editors are chosen by their expertise and experience in a determined field, nonetheless patterns highlight that the boards' activities are polarized in a few regions, outside from the academic system's peripheries. Hence, an effort in order to close these gaps and to promote the inclusion of native editors as equivalents could be considered since they would certainly have experience and knowledge about their respective regions once they were born and raised there.

Even though there is variability in terms of represented nations, Africa and Latin America remain underrepresented both in terms of editors' representation and scientific relevance. Further researches about this phenomenon should be made in order to understand the lack of S&T progress in these regions. As stated above, a minority of gatekeepers are based in the respective areas of study, and even fewer are women. Editors based in English-speaking countries encompass the majority of the editorials' positions and are the most impactful as well.

Interest in the structure of the scholarly research has been increasing. This dissertation was able to identify patterns in journals related to studies in three different geographic areas, offering a comparison to a control group comprising five of the most reputed outlets in the development economics field. However, it is needed to admit that the 20 journals sample is small and more statistical analysis should be made in order to achieve a supplementary understanding of the scholarly research structures. Moreover, it is important to note that the boards' database only contains information about the editorial teams in 2017, disabling the possibility to provide a time-wise analysis. In short, more studies should be conducted since little is known about the editorial boards' structure and evolution in journals related to studies on a certain region or continent.

Appendixes

Appendix 1: Brief definition of five of the most popular quantity indicators

Quantity indicators	
Total Number of publications (P)	Corresponds to the full number of scientific outputs by an analyzed unit during a determined time. Even though it is easy to get, it does not take the size of the unit into account.
Number of publications in top journals (P_{TJ})	Corresponds to the full number of scientific outputs an analyzed unit published in journals selected according to an appropriate criterion. Reflects the potential impact of the published outputs, but does not take the size of the unit into account.
World Share of Publications	Corresponds to the analyzed unit's number of outputs in relation to the world production.
Relative Activity Index (RAI)	Corresponds to the relative effort a unit dedicates to a specific subject field. It is calculated by the unit's world share of publications in a given subject field divided by the unit's world share of publications overall.
Relative Specialization Index (RSI)	Determines how active a unit is in a certain field. A value of -1 indicates there are no publications in a certain subject field, while a value of 1 shows that all of the unit's publications are in one field. It is calculated by the division of RAI-1 with RAI+1.

Adapted from: Rehn et al. (2014b), pp. 3-6.

Appendix 2: Definitions of six of the most popular researcher performance indicators

A. Researcher Performance Indicators	
Number of citations (C)	Corresponds to the total number of citations to articles published by a unit during a determined time, giving an indication of the unit's scientific impact.
Citations per publication (CPP)	Corresponds to the average number of citations to articles published by the analyzed unit.
Crown indicator	Corresponds to the number of average number of citations to publications by a unit during a period, compared to the world average of citations to publications of the same type, year and subject field. Shows the relation to the normalized world (in which 1 is the average) as a decimal number.
H-index (h)	Corresponds to the number of publications (h) that have at least *h* citations in a certain period.
Uncitedness	Corresponds to the unit's share of publications that remain uncited after a determined period. Self-citation should be removed.
Self citedness	Corresponds to the unit's share of publications that received citations from the own author(s).

Adapted from: Rehn et al (2014b), p. 4-16.

Appendix 3: Brief definition of five of the most popular journal performance indicators

A. Journal Performance Indicators	
IF	Number that corresponds to the average number of citations articles from a journal have received in the two preceding years.
Normalized journal impact	Corresponds to the relative number of citations to publications in a determined journal, compared to the world average of citations to publications of the same document type, year and subject field.
SNIP	Corresponds to the average number of citations per paper in a journal divided by the average number of references per publication in the journal's subject field; calculated in order to measure the relative impact of scientific journals.
SJR	Corresponds to the average number of weighted citations received in a determined year by the published documents in the journal in the three previous years. See: http://www.scimagojr.com/SCImagoJournalRank.pdf
H-index (h)	Calculated in the same way as for a researcher. Since it is not normalized, it does not take into account different citation practices between fields. "**An entity has an h-index value of *y* if the entity has *y* publications that have all been cited at least *y* times**". (Hodge & Lacasse 2011, p. 583)

Adapted from: Rehn et al (2014b), pp. 4-16.

Appendix 4: African studies' journals, brief outline of the samples

African Affairs (AA) – Founded in 1901 after the death of Mary Kingsley, a scientist and explorer, it is the oldest journal of venue for African studies papers. Known as Journal of the Royal African Society until 1944, it is published today by Oxford University Press. It describes itself as "the top ranked journal in African Studies". This is an inter-disciplinary journal, and focuses on the politics and international relations of sub-Saharan matters.

Review of African Political Economy **(ROAPE)** – Established in 1974 by a group of scholars and activists in the UK and Africa, being published by Taylor and Francis. Offers a "radical analysis of trends, issues and social processes in Africa, adopting a broadly materialist interpretation of change", focusing on the political economy of the inequality, exploitation and oppression. The journal is committed to understanding projects of radical transformation.

Africa **(Africa)** – Printed by Cambridge University Press, its first volume was published in 1928. The journal describes itself as the "the premier journal devoted to the study of African societies and culture." It is open to interdisciplinary research, including the humanities, social sciences, and environmental sciences. It purports to give attention to the "African production of knowledge, highlighting the work of local African thinkers and writers".

Journal of Modern African Studies **(JMAS)** – Established in 1963, the journal provides a coverage of African politics, economies, societies and international relations. It positions itself for students and academics, but also for general readers and practitioners "living and working both inside and outside the continent." It commits to stand neutral on political and ideological grounds, but engages with "controversial issues in order to promote a deeper understanding of what is happening in Africa today." It is published by Cambridge University Press.

Journal of Southern African Studies **(JSAS)** – Established in 1974, it is published by Taylor and Francis. The publication pursues issues of interest for the region of Southern Africa, being open to inter-disciplinary research from the fields of history, economics, sociology, demography, anthropology, geography, development studies, administration, law, political science, political economy, international relations, etc. It periodically organises and supports conferences to this end, sometimes in the region.

Note: All of the journals are published quarterly. Adapted from the journals' websites.

Appendix 5: Asian studies' journals, brief outline of the samples

International Relations of the Asia-Pacific **(IRAP) –** Established in 2001, the journal is published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Japan Association of International Relations. Published three times a year, the journal focusses are "on the relations between the countries in the Asia-Pacific region and general issues and theories of international relations that a bearing on one or more countries in the Asia-Pacific.".

Asia Pacific Viewpoint **(APV)** – Published by Wiley-Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand) and John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd., it is on coverage since 1996, with three publications per year. Considered a journal of international scope in the fields of geography, gives particular attention to "the interplay between development and the environment and to the growing interconnections between the countries in the region".

Journal of Asian Economics **(JAE) –** Founded in 1990 by the American Committee on Asian Economic Studies (ACAES), "the journal serves the ACAES mission to promote economic research on Asia and facilitate engagement between American and Asian economists". Published six times a year by Elsevier, it focuses on "special studies in adaptive innovation paradigms in Asian economic regimes, studies relative to unique dimensions of Asian economic development paradigm, as they are investigated by researchers, comparative studies of development paradigms in other developing continents, Latin America and Africa the emerging new pattern of comparative advantages between Asian countries and the United States and North America".

Modern Asian Studies **(MAS)** – Established in 1967 and published 6 times per year by the Cambridge University Press, the journal "promotes original, innovative and rigorous research on the history, sociology, anthropology and economics of modern Asia", being specialized in essays based on path-breaking new research, new books and carrying "substantial synoptic essays which illuminate the state of the broad field in fresh ways".

Asian Economic Papers **(AEP) –** Published by the MIT Press, the journal was founded in 2000 and is published three times per year. It is sponsored by the Center for Sustainable Development (Columbia University; US), the Korea Institute for International Economic Policy (South Korea), the Jeffrey Cheah Institute on Southeast Asia (Sunway University, Malaysia) the Economic Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia (Indonesia), the Centre for International Governance Innovation (Canada) and Antai College of Economics and Management (Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China). The journal focuses on "high-quality, objective analysis of key economic issues of a particular Asian economy or of the broader Asian region, and offer creative solutions to these Asian economic issues"

Adapted from the journals' websites.

Appendix 6: Latin American studies' journals, brief outline of the samples

Latin American Politics and Society **(LAPS) –** Established in 2001, the journal is published four times per year by Wiley-Blackwell Publishing on behalf of University of Miami (US). The journal considers itself as "the highest-quality original social science scholarship on Latin America", and is dedicated to "challenge prevailing orthodoxies and to promote innovative theoretical and methodological perspectives on the states, societies, economies and intellectual relations of the Americas in a globalizing world".

Latin American Perspectives **(LAP) –** Established in 1974, and published by SAGE Publications bimonthly, the journal considers itself as a "theoretical and scholarly journal for discussion and debate on the political economy of capitalism, imperialism, and socialism in the Americas". LAP offers a multidisciplinary view, covering the disciplines of economics and political economy, international relations, history, sociology and social movements, anthropology, geography and ecology, etc.

***Bulletin of Latin American Research* (BLAR)** – Published quarterly by Wiley-Blackwell Publishing on behalf of Society for Latin American Studies, the journal publishes "original research of current interest on Latin America, the Caribbean, inter-American relations and the Latin American Diaspora from all academic disciplines within the Social Sciences and Humanities. The first edition was published in 1982.

***Latin American Research Review* (LARR)** – Founded in 1965, LARR is an interdisciplinary journal that publishes original research and surveys focused on Latin America and the Caribbean. Published four times a year by Panoramas, hosted by the Center for Latin American Studies at the University of Pittsburgh, US, the journal covers "the social sciences and the humanities, including the fields of anthropology, economics, history, literature and cultural studies, political science and sociology".

***Journal of Latin American Studies* (JLAS)** – Provided by the Institute of Latin American Studies, JLAS is published quarterly by the Cambridge University Press. The journal focuses in the field of "Latin American studies in development studies, economics, geography, history, politics and international relations, public policy, sociology and social anthropology". Even though the first publication occurred in 1973, the journal only had regular coverage since 1980.

Adapted from the journals' websites.

Appendix 7: General development journals, brief outline of the samples

***Journal of Development Economics* (JDE) –** Established in 1974 and published bimonthly by Elsevier, JDE is considered the top field journal in development economics. Papers are related "to all aspects of economic development – from immediate policy concerns to structural problems of underdevelopment". There are not book reviews articles and the emphasis is on quantitative or analytical work.

***World Development* (WD) –** Published monthly by Elsevier, the journal describes itself as "the Multi-Disciplinary international journal devoted to the study and promotion of world development". The journal seeks "to explore ways of improving standards of living, and the human condition generally", by the examination of potential solutions to several problems, such as poverty, unemployment, diseases, etc. The first publication is from 1973.

***Economic Development and Cultural Change* (ED&CC) –** Published quarterly by the University of Chicago Press, ED&CC is a multidisciplinary journal of development economics, with the aim to publish studies "using modern theoretical and empirical approaches that examine both determinants and effects of various dimensions of economic development and cultural change", with regard to explore policy impacts related to the field of economic development. The journal established in 1952.

***Environment and Development Economics* (EDE) –** Published by the Cambridge University Press in association with the Beijer Institute of Ecological Economics (Sweden), EDE is a multi-disciplinary journal "positioned at the intersection of environmental, resource and development economics". It aims articles in both developed and developing countries and is divided in two main sections: theory and applications, "which includes regular academic papers that may be of interest to the wider policy community. It was established in 1996 and is published bimonthly.

***Economic Development Quarterly* (EDQ) –** EDQ has as mission "the promotion of research supporting the formulation of evidence-based economic development and workforce development policy, programs, and practice in the US". Taking a broad view of economic development policy and practice by the encompassment of both labor supply and demand-side research perspectives, the journal "is geared to North American economic development and revitalization", even though international perspectives are equally encouraged, if they have relevance to the US context. EDQ is published quarterly by SAGE Publications in cooperation

with the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, and was founded in partnership with the Levin College of Urban Affairs (Cleveland State University, US) in 1996.

Adapted from the journals' websites.

Appendix 8: List of the editorial boards' job functions by journal (African studies)

African Journals (22 different job functions)	
AA • Co-Editor; • Editorial Assistant; • Book Reviews; • Editorial Advisory Board	**ROAPE** • Editorial Working Group; - Editor; - Book Reviews Editor; - Deputy Chair of Editorial Working Group; - Chair of Editorial Working Group; - Affiliate; - Production Editor; - Hon. Treasurer; - Briefings and Debates Editor; • International Advisory Board; • Africa Editor; • Contributing Editor
Africa • Co-Editor; • Editorial Advisory Board; • Reviews Editor; • Local Intellectuals Editor	
JMAS • Editor; • Assistant Editor; • Editorial Advisory Board; • Contributing Editor	**JSAS** • Chair; • Senior Editor; • Editor; • Editorial Co-Ordinator; • Book Review Editor; • Editorial Board; • Editorial Advisory Board

Appendix 9: List of the editorial boards' job functions by journal (Asian studies)

Asian Journals (15 different job functions)	
IRAP • Editor in Chief; • Vice Editor in Chief; • Senior Executive Editor; • Executive Editor; • Regional Editor; • Editorial Board	**APV** • Editor in Chief; • Editor; • Book Review Editor; • Editorial Advisory Board; • International Advisory Board
JAE • Editor in Chief Emeritus; • Editor; • Executive Editor; • Associate Editor	**MAS** • Editor; • Executive Committee; • Editorial Board; • Associate Editor
AEP • Steering Committee; - Editor in Chief; - Editor • Associate Editor; • Advisory Board	

Appendix 10: List of the editorial boards' job functions by journal (Latin American studies)

Latin American Journals (11 different job functions)	
LAPS • Editor Emeritus; • Editor; • Board of Editors; • Associate Editor	**LAP** • Coordinating Editor; • Managing Editor; • Associate Editor; • Participating Editor
BLAR • Editor; • Editorial Board; • Editorial Advisory Board	**LARR** • Editor in Chief; • Editorial Board; • Associate Editor
JLAS • Editor; • Editorial Board; • International Advisory Board	

Appendix 11: List of the editorial boards' job functions by journal (general development)

General Development (9 different job functions)	
JDE • Editor in Chief; • Co-Editor; • Associate Editor	**WD** • Founding Editor; • Editor in Chief; • Editorial Board; • Associate Editor
EDQ • Editor; • Book Review Editor; • Corresponding Editor; • Managing Editor • Editorial Board; • Associate Editor	**EDE** • Editor; • Editorial Board; • Associate Editor
	ED&CC • Editor in Chief; • Associate Editor

Appendix 12: African journals' information (adapted from Scimago ranks from 2016)

African Journals					
	AA	**ROAPE**	**Africa**	**JMAS**	**JSAS**
SJR	2,267	0,993	0,78	0,741	0,456
H-Index	52	35	31	41	37
Quartile	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q2
Total Docs (2016)	37	62	35	24	78
Total Docs (3 years)	101	146	101	73	229
Total Refs	2759	2584	1510	1310	5343
Total cits. (3 years)	225	156	92	78	134
Citable Docs (2016)	92	127	98	71	206
Country	UK	UK	UK	UK	UK

Appendix 13: Asian journals' information (adapted from Scimago ranks from 2016)

Asian Journals					
	IRAP	**APV**	**JAE**	**MAS**	**AEP**
SJR	0,942	0,654	0,508	0,337	0,273
H-Index	17	29	35	29	10
Quartile	Q1	Q1	Q2	Q2	Q3
Total Docs (2016)	15	29	30	58	65
Total Docs (3 years)	52	89	134	189	132
Total Refs	1377	1612	1041	5607	680
Total cits. (3 years)	45	124	143	80	33
Citable Docs (2016)	52	85	130	183	50
Country	UK	UK	Netherlands	UK	USA

Appendix 14: Latin American journals' information (adapted from Scimago ranks from 2016)

Latin American Journals					
	LAPS	**LAP**	**BLAR**	**LARR**	**JLAS**
SJR	1,147	0,7	0,376	0,342	0,269
H-Index	31	30	26	36	33
Quartile	Q1	Q1	Q2	Q2	Q2
Total Docs (2016)	30	75	30	34	40
Total Docs (3 years)	94	204	87	148	67
Total Refs	1523	2693	767	1670	1537
Total cits. (3 years)	87	138	60	58	55
Citable Docs (2016)	93	186	85	133	66
Country	USA	USA	UK	USA	UK

Appendix 15: General development journals' information (adapted from Scimago ranks from 2016)

General development journals					
	JDE	**WD**	**ED&CC**	**EDE**	**EDQ**
SJR	4,008	2,205	1,148	0,698	0,628
H-Index	106	133	55	48	36
Quartile	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q2	Q2
Total Docs (2016)	87	239	24	36	21
Total Docs (3 years)	308	728	76	143	91
Total Refs	4055	13504	1246	1509	916
Total cits. (3 years)	895	2273	109	139	90
Citable Docs (2016)	298	692	75	135	86
Country	Netherlands	UK	USA	UK	USA

Appendix 16: List of the editors' geographical position by region

Africa (17 countries; 31.4% of all 54 African nations)	Angola; Botswana; Egypt; Ethiopia; Ghana; Kenya; Lesotho; Malawi; Mauritius; Mozambique; Nigeria; Senegal; South Africa; Tanzania; Uganda; Zambia; Zimbabwe
Asia (12 countries; 24% of all Asian 50 nations)	China; India; Indonesia; Israel; Japan; Lebanon; Malaysia; Pakistan; Philippines; Singapore; South Korea; Thailand
Europe (15 countries; 30% of all 50 European nations)	Belgium; Denmark; France; Germany; Greece; Ireland; Italy; Malta; Netherlands; Norway; Portugal; Spain; Sweden; Switzerland; UK
Latin America (13 countries; 65% of all Latin American nations)	Argentina; Brazil; Chile; Colombia; Costa Rica; Cuba; Ecuador; Mexico; Panama; Paraguay; Peru; Uruguay; Venezuela
North America (2 countries; 100% of all English-speaking American countries)	Canada; US
Oceania (3 countries; 21.4% of all Oceanian nations)	Australia; Fiji; New Zealand

Appendix 17: List of the most represented affiliations on journals related to African studies. Only affiliations with more than 5 editors were considered. Own calculations.

Affiliation	Editorships	Country	Continent
University of London	26	UK	Europe
University of Oxford	10	UK	Europe
University of Cambridge	9	UK	Europe
University of Witwatersrand	9	South Africa	Sub-Saharan Africa
University of Birmingham	7	UK	Europe
University of Leeds	7	UK	Europe
University of Botswana	5	Botswana	Sub-Saharan Africa
University of Manchester	5	UK	Europe

Appendix 18: List of the most represented affiliations on journals related to Asian studies. Only affiliations with more than 5 editors were considered. Own calculations.

Affiliation	Editors	Country	Continent
Victoria University of Wellington	11	New Zealand	Oceania
University of Cambridge	10	UK	Europe
Australian National University	8	Australia	Oceania
National University of Singapore	8	Singapore	Asia
University of California	6	US	North America
University of London	6	UK	Europe
University of Tokyo	5	Japan	Asia

Appendix 19: List of the most represented affiliations on journals related to Latin American studies. Only affiliations with more than 5 editors were considered. Own calculations

Affiliation	Editors	Country	Country
University of California	14	US	North America
University of London	13	UK	Europe
California State University	9	US	North America

Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Mexico	5	Mexico	Latin
University of Cambridge	5	UK	Europe
University of North Carolina	5	US	North America
University of Oxford	5	UK	Europe
University of Texas	5	US	North America

Appendix 20: List of the most represented affiliations on generalist development journals. Only affiliations with more than 5 editors were considered. Own calculations

Affiliation	Editors	Country	Region
University of California	17	US	North America
University of London	7	UK	Europe
Harvard University	6	US	North America
W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research	6	US	North America
Yale University	6	US	North America
Duke University	5	US	North America
University of Michigan	5	US	North America
World Bank	5	US	North America

Appendix 21: Editors' medians by region (African studies' journals)

	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors	Repeated
Asia	3	18	7	0	1	0
Africa	3	37	9	2	67	4
Europe	5	80	13	1	132	10
Latin America	3	39	7	0	1	0
North America	7	187.5	18	0	44	3

Appendix 22: Editors' median by regions (Asian studies' journals)

	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors	Repeated
Asia	3,5	47	9,5	8	67	0
Europe	8	222.5	24.5	0	36	0
Latin America	11	329	35	0	1	0
North America	9.5	435.5	32.5	0	62	0
Oceania	9.5	360.5	28.5	0	38	0

Appendix 23: Editors' medians by region (Latin American studies' journals)

	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors	Repeated
Asia	7	245	34	0	1	0
Europe	5	73	12	1	56	3
Latin America	2	17	6	5	55	1
North America	3	45,5	8,5	9	119	5
Oceania	4	50,5	10	0	4	0

Appendix 24: Editors' medians by region (general development journals)

	H-Index	Citations	Documents	No Data	Editors	Repeated
Asia	10	349	25	0	7	0
Africa	7	135	22	0	5	1
Europe	15	1117	37,5	0	38	2
Latin America	3	349	3	0	4	0
North America	10	548,5	21	5	138	6

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