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DIVERSITY AND DOMINANCE IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS SCHOLARSHIP

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III. List of abbreviations

APSA	American Political Science Association
APSR	American Political Science Review
BIGSSS	Bremen International Graduate School for Social Sciences
BJPoLS	British Journal of Political Science
BTS	Berlin Graduate School for Transnational Studies
Colmex	Colegio de México
DFG	Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft
DVPW	Deutsche Vereinigung für Politikwissenschaft
ECPR	European Consortium for Political Research
EI	Estudios Internacionales (journal)
EISA	European International Studies Association
EJIR	European Journal of International Relations
EU	European Union
FI	Foro Internacional
FLAEI	Latin American Federation of International Studies Association
FU Berlin	Freie Universität Berlin
GIGA	German Institute for Global and Area Studies
IO	International Organization (journal)
IPE	International Political Economy
IR	International Relations (discipline)
ISA	International Studies Association
ISQ	International Studies Quarterly
ISR	International Studies Review
LASA	Latin American Studies Association
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
PRIF	Peace Research Institute Frankfurt
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSCI	Social Sciences Citation Index
TRIP	Teaching, Research and International Policy project
US	United States (of America)
WoS	Web of Science
WZB	Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin für Sozialforschung
ZIB	Zeitschrift für Internationale Beziehungen

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VI. Preface

The following study builds heavily on two sets of data: the 2014 Teaching, Research, and International Policy (TRIP) survey of International Relations (IR) distributed to faculty in 32 countries, and two related journal datasets. The first of these two journal datasets is also a product of the TRIP project, which is based at the College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia. The project was founded in the early 2000s. The surveys ask questions concerning IR scholars' research and teaching practices, as well as their perceptions of both the discipline and issues related to international policy. This survey was initially conducted among American IR scholars but was later expanded to include more countries, which required that the questionnaire be translated into a variety of languages. This dissertation focuses on the fourth round of the survey conducted in 2014, which was the first round to include Germany. Parallel to the survey, the TRIP project undertook the largest effort that had been made up to that date to analyze the contents of 12 highly cited IR journals. The dataset has subsequently grown and now covers all of the issues of these journals published between the years 1980 and 2015. I use only a fraction of this dataset to provide insights into patterns of diversity and dominance in IR scholarship published in North America, Latin America, and Europe.

I joined the TRIP project as an associate in 2013, with the aim of expanding the analysis of journals by coding articles published in Chinese and Latin American periodicals. The coding of non-U.S. journals proved to be a popular task for students at William and Mary; after some time, the endeavor grew and what was to become known as the Global Pathways project became an entity largely independent of the TRIP project. In this context, I handled the first alterations to the codebook to render it more suitable for the project's tasks. For example, I introduced a variable for the identification of articles adopting theoretical approaches rooted in local Latin American or Chinese thought. The outcomes of this first round of analyzing non-English, non-core journals can be found in Chapter 4 of this dissertation, in the form of a case study on the Chilean IR journal *Estudios Internacionales* (EI) and the Mexican *Foro Internacional* (FI). The data for the other two case studies discussed in Chapter 4, which focus on North America and Europe, was obtained from the original TRIP journal dataset.

After several years of working with the project from my home base at Freie Universität (FU) Berlin, my supervisor Thomas Risse and I successfully applied for a grant from the German Science Foundation (DFG) to expand the Global Pathways project, and we eventually shifted its logistics from Williamsburg to Berlin in 2017. After the move, we reworked the codebook much more extensively than had been the case during the first iteration of Global Pathways in Williamsburg and started covering seven additional cases. Consequentially, the study on German IR that I present in Chapter 5 of this dissertation is largely a product of the Global Pathways project that was conducted at FU. The data, therefore, was collected on the basis of the revised codebook, while the studies in Chapter 4 employ the original TRIP

codebook or the slightly revised first version of the Global Pathways codebook. Due to these circumstances, this dissertation can also be read as a proof of concept for the revised codebook in comparison to the original one. The analyses of the Global Pathways project, however, go into much greater detail than what I present in this thesis, as its primary focus is on the study of the processes by which knowledge is diffused globally, using IR as a case study.

All of this indicates that, while I use the datasets as secondary data (i.e., I did not collect them with the main purpose of using them in my dissertation), I have been significantly involved with the two projects that are the core of this data collection effort. In addition to my involvement with Global Pathways and with the collection of journal data at TRIP, Thomas Risse and I served as country partners for the German-speaking countries for the 2014 and 2017/18 TRIP surveys. As a result, we were in a position to suggest a number of questions for the global questionnaire and a number of country-specific questions for the survey for the German community. Last, but not least, I cooperated closely with a partner from a Latin American country, Arlene B. Tickner, and partners from other countries, including Peter Marcus Kristensen, in order to obtain additional insights into perceptions of dominance on the part of IR researchers. I present the outcomes of these efforts in Chapter 4.

This previous work resulted in a number of publications on the topic of this dissertation. These include the following:

- Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke; Risse, Thomas (2018): International Relations Scholars in Germany: Young, Internationalised, and Non-Paradigmatic. In *German Politics* 27 (1), pp. 89–112.
- Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke; Bell, Nicholas; Navarrete Morales, Mariana; Tierney, Michael J. (2016): The IR of the Beholder. Examining Global IR Using the 2014 TRIP Survey. In *International Studies Review* 18 (1), pp. 16–32.
- Peters, Ingo; Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke (2016) (Eds.): *Globalizing International Relations: Scholarship Amidst Divides and Diversity*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Thanks to my co-authors' consent, I was able to incorporate sections of these previous publications into this dissertation. In particular, these include a case study on German IR that I previously published with Thomas Risse (we published a German version of this article in *Zeitschrift für Internationale Beziehungen* [ZIB] in 2016) and that is now incorporated into this thesis as Chapter 5. However, while the publications only built upon the survey outcomes that we generated as country partners for the 2014 survey round, the chapter contains unpublished journal data from the content analysis of ZIB, which we recently collected in the framework of the Global Pathways project at FU. Another substantial chunk of previous work that has found its way into this dissertation, namely the evaluation of the survey questions on perceived dominance in IR, was previously published in an article I co-authored with Nicky Bell,

Marianna Navarrete Morales, and Mike Tierney. This paper was part of the 2016 special issue of *International Studies Review* (ISR), edited by the former president of the International Studies Association (ISA), Amitav Acharya. The ISR paper deals with the core topic of Acharya's presidency, global IR. Additional elements of this dissertation concerning this topic originate from an unpublished conference paper that I presented together with Nicky Bell at the fifth meeting of the World International Studies Committee in Taiwan in April 2017. In addition, I discussed previous drafts of the same paper and other sections of this dissertation at various ISA conferences between the years 2013 and 2015. Last, but not least, limited portions of the literature review presented in Chapter 2 originate from the introductory chapter of a book on globalizing IR that I edited with Ingo Peters. I thank all of my co-authors for consenting to the integration of parts of our common works into this dissertation.

1. Introduction

In an age in which terms such as "post-factual" and "alternative facts" are part of everyday public discourse, the question of what academia can do to fulfill its role of guiding decision-makers and identifying relevant actions has become more urgent than ever. While the burden of distinguishing between science and fiction and translating academic findings into meaningful actions falls on politicians, academia has a degree of responsibility to question and improve itself so that it can provide an ideal foundation for such actions.

The discipline of IR is certainly no exception in this regard. This field has traditionally dealt with problems of a large scope, including the balance between war and peace, the behavior of world leaders, transnational issues such as climate change, the influences of borders on the emergence of conflicts, and many more. Given the potential that this discipline has in terms of offering answers to humankind's most pressing questions, the responsibility to do so falls on the shoulders of those involved in IR. Furthermore, at the international level, the world is witnessing potentially massive power shifts from the dominance of Europe and the United States towards a post-Western (Lizée 2011) or, more generally, a post-liberal international order (Friedman et al. 2013). Consequently, it is of the highest importance that the questions asked in the field and the answers produced are rooted in as broad a knowledge base as possible.

This raises questions concerning whether the current circumstances of knowledge production in the field are suited to ensure that this can occur. With my dissertation, I make a small contribution by investigating the current state of the diversity of the individuals involved in the production of knowledge in IR and the diversity of the knowledge that they produce. Such a study is relevant, as recent studies have challenged the self-evident universality of knowledge production, arguing that it matters who produces knowledge, under what circumstances, and for what purposes (Acharya 2014; Tickner 2013; Agnew 2007). Simultaneously, IR is frequently characterized as an American social science (Crawford and Jarvis 2001; Hoffmann 1977) that is dominated by scholars based in the US and a specific – yet paradoxically often undefined – type of research.

1.1 Research question and design

I contribute to the growing literature on this topic by empirically addressing the following question: "How diverse is the IR discipline, and what patterns of dominance are shaping it?" To answer this broad question, I have conducted two studies that form the main body of this dissertation: an in-depth

comparative case study of the patterns of diversity and dominance found in seven journals based in North America, Latin America, and Europe and a single case study on German IR. The two studies complement each other in their thematic foci and methodological approaches. The comparative case study provides a broad but detailed picture of the seven journals under investigation, while the German case study focuses on the research practices of one of the largest non-U.S. communities in the field. Methodologically, my analysis relies on two major sources of data:

1. The integrated journal content datasets of the TRIP (North America and Europe) and Global Pathways (Latin America and Germany) projects, and
2. the 2014 TRIP faculty survey of IR scholars.

The survey data serves as a measurement of the subjective perceptions of IR scholars; it demonstrates what scholars think they are doing. The journal data that I use for both studies delivers an impression of the state of contemporary practices in published research. Both perspectives are necessary to understand the discipline to the fullest degree.

The case study on German IR combines insights from the TRIP survey with a content analysis of Germany's flagship IR journal, ZIB, to provide as complete a picture as possible of this large European community and its ties to the global discipline. For this study, the survey data is central, while the data on ZIB serves as a window into whether the research practices preferred by German survey respondents are actually reflected in the community's most prestigious publication. For the comparative case study, which forms the core empirical section of this dissertation, the journal data is central, while the survey findings serve as benchmark values that provide context for this research.

The journal data on diversity and dominance presented in the framework of this larger study serves as a proof-of-concept for a threefold definition of diversity, which, based on examples from the sociology of science (Gläser and Aman 2017; Stirling 2007; Mitesser et al. 2008), has the potential to address important gaps in the literature on global IR, above all the lack of any clear definition of diversity. Its three components are as follows (based on Stirling 2007, p.709):

Variety is defined as the number of categories into which system elements are apportioned; in the case of this study, it refers to the number of types of regions, theories, and topics studied in a journal, as well as the number of countries of affiliation in which its authors are based. If all else is equal, the higher the variety, the higher the overall level of diversity per journal.

Evenness is defined as a function of the pattern of apportionment of elements across categories and, in this case, concerns the relative number of articles per region, theory, and topic under study, as well as

the relative number of authors per country of affiliation represented in the journal. All else being equal, the more even the distribution is, the higher the overall level of diversity per journal.

Dissimilarity refers to the manner in which and the degree to which the elements identified above may be distinguished. For this study, this term refers to a mix of articles that cover a variety of distinguished regions, theories, and topics, as well as a mix of authors based in various countries and regions. The criterion for difference in the case of this study is, broadly speaking, coverage of elements related to the global South and North in accordance with the global IR debate. All else being equal, the more dissimilar the represented elements are, the higher the overall level of diversity in a journal.

I apply this conceptualization to four central dimensions of the IR scholarship published in academic journals:

1. Geographical authorship diversity (i.e., countries of affiliation)
2. Geographical content diversity (i.e., regions under study)
3. Thematic diversity (i.e., topics under study)
4. Theoretical diversity (i.e., theoretical approaches advanced)

In addition, I add a new understanding of dominance to this literature by defining it as referring to cases of low evenness and/or dissimilarity. In other words, these are cases with either an extreme imbalance towards one category, such as country of affiliation and/or a lack of disparate categories, especially among the most strongly present categories. For example, in a journal with low geographical authorship evenness, scholars based in one country could account for a disproportionately large share of the journal's authorship, creating an imbalance between that group of authors and the rest. A low level of geographical authorship dissimilarity would suggest a disproportionately strong presence of several groups of authors sharing a common characteristic; for example, they could all be based at institutions located in the global South. If such an aggregated presence is not balanced by an equally strong share of authors based in an opposite region of the world, the journal could be dominated by global South authors. This threefold conceptualization fills the gap that exists in terms of a definition that relies on more than variety, which is commonly used as a synonym for diversity in IR literature on the topic and elsewhere (see, e.g., Maliniak et al. 2018; Turton 2015).

This study covers seven journals in total, of which three are edited in North America, two in Latin America, and two in Europe. The study covers a time period ranging from 2005 to 2014. The North American journals in the study are International Organization (IO), International Studies Quarterly (ISQ), and the American Political Science Review (APSR). All three journals selected for the North America case study are top ranked in terms of citations and the manner in which they are perceived by scholars in the discipline according to the TRIP surveys. I selected IO and ISQ because they were the two highest ranked

North American journals in the 2014 TRIP survey, with a broad coverage of IR topics. The IR articles published in APSR represent a valuable addition to these two journals because this journal is characterized by an explicit reference to the American academic community.

The case study on Latin America covers the Chilean EI and the Mexican FI. The two journals are also ranked highly in the two TRIP surveys that were conducted in 2011 and 2014 among Latin American scholars. The two journals complement each other because both have Spanish as their lead language. However, while EI is published in one of the smallest IR communities according to the sample used for the 2014 TRIP survey, FI is published in one of the largest IR communities in Latin America. The two countries also differ in terms of their geographical locations and their resulting geo-political ties to the US and the West at large. Both journals are published by IR institutions (EI by the IR institute at the University of Santiago de Chile and FI by the Colegio de México). There is no regional IR publication or any IR association with a journal publication as large as these two journals. Estudios Internacionales is marketed as an IR journal, while FI publishes a mix of IR, comparative politics, and public policy articles, of which only the IR articles are included in this study.

The European case study covers the European Journal of International Relations (EJIR), which is explicitly European but has a global outlook, and the IR articles published in the British Journal of Political Science (BJPolS), which serves as an equivalent to APSR in the US and, to a lesser degree, FI in Latin America. The European Journal of International Relations started out as the official journal of the Standing Group on International Relations of the European Consortium for Political Research (ECPR) and has been linked to the European International Studies Association (EISA) since its foundation. This journal scored an impact factor of 2.277 in 2016, making it the 11th most cited journal in the field of IR. The British Journal of Political Science is not backed up by any professional association but is nonetheless impactful enough to have been included in the original TRIP dataset of the top 12 journals in the field.

1.2 Core findings

Based on these studies, I conclude that the level of diversity of IR scholarship as presented in my case studies is no more than medium. Having considered all of the above factors, I found the following trends:

1. The three case studies on journals edited in North America, Latin America, and Europe demonstrate that scholarship in these journals reflects a high level of content variety; that is, these publications feature a high number of regions, theories, and topics. Their respective evenness and dissimilarity measurements, in contrast, yielded medium values at best.
2. While the varying degrees of evenness with regard to theories and topics reflect some patterns of specialization in each journal, the dissimilarity values and the evenness values with regard to the regional dimension indicate a number of strong patterns of dominance. The first of these is the

strong focus of articles published in EI and FI on these journals' host region, Latin America. Almost all of these articles deal with Latin America in some form. However, IR scholarship at large is dominated by a focus on the West, as not only the European and North American journals but also EI and FI pay a great deal of attention to Europe, North America, and the rest of the Western world.

3. The strongest pattern with regard to geographical authorship diversity is the dominance of US-based authors in IO, ISQ, APSR, and BJPoIS, which is accompanied by a strong presence of US-based authors in FI and EJIR. The dominance of US-based authors in the three North American journals indicates high insularity, confirming the findings of a number of earlier studies on this subject. Overall, authors based at Western institutions dominate the field, as they demonstrate a relatively strong presence in all of the journals under study, even those in Latin American EI and FI. The latter two journals are also strongly characterized by local authorship, but there is an important difference in terms of authorship insularity between these two journals and those edited in North America. Despite the large number of Latin American authors in the Latin American journal, they also include many articles by authors based in Europe and North America, while the opposite cannot be said for the rest of the journals. The stream of authors based in the West, especially the US, to other regions of the world seems to be one-way. However, it is this strong presence of authors based in the West that leads to the formation of likely unintended islands of diversity at EI and FI. The relatively high level of authorship dissimilarity that these journals display does not seem to occur in any of the other regions and journals under study.
4. An exception might be EJIR, which has the most diverse profile of all journals under study. Although US-based scholars constitute the largest group of authors even in this pan-European journal, this at first sight uneven authorship is balanced by a strong continental European and UK-based authorship. This is not the case for the second European journal under study, BJPoIS, which seems to be an extension of a U.S. publishing space more than anything else.
5. EJIR is also the journal with the largest share of non-Western IR theorizing. Articles that base their theoretical approaches on non-Western sources of knowledge are nearly absent from the North American journals and BJPoIS and have a much weaker presence in FI and, in particular, EI than may have been expected.
6. The findings concerning Western dominance with regard to geographical authorship and content dissimilarity are in line with the perceptions of the majority of IR scholars according to the 2014 TRIP survey. The low share of non-Western theorizing found in the two Latin American journals, in contrast, indicates a discrepancy between what is published in EI and FI and what the majority of Latin American respondents prefer. The majority of these respondents not only agree that it is

important to counter Western dominance in IR but also believe that it is important to develop local IR theories.

7. The case study on German IR demonstrated that this IR community has a distinct profile characterized by a strong preference for theoretical pluralism and empirical diversity, which is visible in both the 2014 TRIP survey data and the ZIB analysis. The case study confirmed that the German IR community is strongly internationalized and comfortable in its position as a strong national research community with firm ties to both the U.S. and global communities. This is in line with the relatively strong presence of Germany-based authors in almost all of the journals included in the analyses in Chapter 4. In addition, the German profile is relatively close to that which is published in EJIR. The German IR community is strongly engaged in the development of theory and displays a high level of theoretical variety; however, it also demonstrates a strong preference for Constructivist/sociological institutionalist approaches.
8. A language experiment included in the 2014 TRIP survey exclusively for German respondents provided an initial indication that the profiles of those members of the German IR community are closer to those displayed by authors published in ZIB and EJIR, while those who seem more internationalized have higher preferences for rationalist work and quantitative methods.
9. Finally, both studies in this dissertation indicate that a geographical approach to categorization of this discipline has limits. While it was sensible to organize my case studies around journals with similar editorial bases, my analyses in Chapter 4 demonstrated that, for many aspects, there is at least as much variation within regions as across them. For example, FI is geographically more strongly linked to the US community than to the rest of Latin America. Furthermore, it transpired that BJPoS is closer to the North American journals, especially APSR, than to EJIR in almost all aspects. Last, but not least, ISQ displayed a more geographically diverse profile than the other two North American journals. This finding was confirmed to a lesser degree by the variety demonstrated within the German IR community.

1.3 Limitations

Due to the exploratory character of my study, all of these findings need to be supported by more intensive follow-up studies. Above all, this study represents a plausibility test for an empirical approach to the study of diversity and dominance. One of its main goals is to provide a proof-of-concept for the threefold definition of diversity, as first suggested by Stirling in the sociology of science. I also expand on the definition of dominance to conceptualize it as low evenness and/or dissimilarity. Consequentially, this dissertation neither seeks to test any fixed hypotheses concerning global IR nor attempts to formulate a new theory of diversity or international relations. What it does contribute is a plausibility

test of alternative conceptualizations of diversity and dominance that have the potential to bring the discussion of global IR to a new level. Furthermore, with the inclusion of non-English-language journal data and the application of a coherent methodological framework, I seek to raise the study of the discipline of IR to a more inclusive and comparative level.

The exploratory character of my study, however, results in a number of clear limitations: First, while this study while this study offers the possibility of insights into Latin American and German IR, it does not cover other communities that would be equally relevant. Examples of journals that would have been relevant to consider in the comparative case study include those based in East Asia, such as the Japanese *Kokuseiseiji* and *International Relations of the Asia Pacific*, which are both published by the Japanese Association for International Relations, and the *Chinese Journal of International Politics*, as well as *Mandarin World Economics and Politics*. The case study on Germany would have benefitted from a counter-example, such as one drawn from French IR. Furthermore, the diversity of the German IR community was not investigated using the same framework as that applied to the others, which limits my ability to draw broader conclusions.

Second, since my dissertation does not test any hypothesis but instead places emphasis on the qualitative deployment of my conceptual framework, I also do not apply any advanced statistical methods for hypothesis testing and remain at the descriptive level for the majority of the study. A more significant drawback of my research design is its strong reliance on secondary data, which has its own weaknesses. This brings with it the problem that the use of fixed response options, as defined in the codebooks I used for the analysis, also leads to a fixed number of values, which means that there is a limit to the possible level of variety. More generally, any of these values are social constructions that were created with a specific type of scholarship in mind. In the case of the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook, which I use for the comparative case study, this was the scholarship of the “top” IR journals. As a consequence, the codebook follows a specific ideal of theory-driven empirical research that might create blind spots when it comes to radically different types of IR scholarship. Furthermore, the codebook was written by US-based scholars for use at a U.S. university. Consequently, some of the categories for theoretical approaches display more relevance to the U.S. community than to others. For example, the codebook includes a broad definition of Liberalism without making a distinction between this concept and institutionalism, which is potentially stronger in Europe. The original codebook also did not include an option for the identification of non-Western IR theories. I added a corresponding variable to the codebook when adapting it for the analysis of EI and FI and use a revised version of the codebook that specifies sociological and rational-choice institutionalism as separate values for the case study on German IR in Chapter 5.

Third, the second secondary data source is the 2014 TRIP survey, on which I had some degree of impact (see Preface) but which also restricted the scope of my analysis due to the selection of questions and response options it features. Furthermore, the survey provides perception data which is subject to the risk of miscommunication between the producers of the survey and the respondents. While I took the survey for what it is, disregarding all of its potential weaknesses, it still offers a unique window for observing IR scholars around the globe. Chapter 5 employs a heavily revised version of the codebook that is better suited to an analysis of European IR and has more flexibility in general than the original codebook, which is used for the analysis in Chapter 4. A negative result of this change is that the German data is not directly comparable to the data used for the comparative case study for most of the variables under study.

Finally, this study has a limited thematic scope. While my four dimensions, geographical authorship, geographical content, thematic, and theoretical diversity, already cover a great deal theme-wise, some logical additional dimensions are missing. For example, I did not measure either methodological or epistemological diversity because the secondary data used for this study is inadequate for measuring these dimensions. More importantly, I do not look into institutional diversity, meaning that I treat scholars affiliated with any institutions that are in the same country as a homogenous group. I accepted this limitation based on the grounds of feasibility, but I am aware that this creates a bias and a lack of nuance that need to be accounted for in future iterations of this study.

1.4 Overview of this dissertation

This dissertation can be broadly divided into three sections: First, in Chapter 2, I review the most recent literature on global IR, a concept that was introduced by Amitav Acharya (2014; 2016) but was relevant before he named it and can be applied to literature independent of his work. I discuss the most recent contributions to the field of IR, focusing on either patterns of dominance and/or diversity and emphasizing how some of these patterns have defined and operationalized these two concepts in the context of IR scholarship. Based on this review, I identify four gaps in literature, which I address through the development of a conceptual and methodological framework in Chapter 3. In that chapter, I focus on the threefold conceptualization of diversity and dominance, and I operationalize this definition with the help of a journal content analysis and benchmark values taken from the 2014 TRIP survey. I introduce the survey in detail and discuss my choice of questions from the survey questionnaire and the TRIP/Global Pathways Codebook. I introduce the methodology used for the German case study separately in Chapter 5.

Chapters 4 and 5 form the empirical core of this dissertation. In Chapter 4, I present the individual outcomes of my content analysis of seven journals based in North America (Chapter 4.1), Latin America

(4.2), and Europe (4.3). In a final sub-chapter (Chapter 4.4), I bring these individual findings together to draw more general conclusions about the diversity of the discipline and to identify some patterns of dominance. I contextualize these findings with some additional outcomes from the 2014 TRIP survey, which I did not use in any of the previous sub-chapters. In Chapter 5, I present the findings from my analyses of the German IR community based on the 2014 TRIP survey and of the flagship German IR journal.

In Chapter 6, I summarize and synthesize the findings of both of the empirical chapters and discuss them in the context of the global IR debate. Based on this discussion, I draw general conclusions and provide recommendations for further research.

2. The Global IR debate on diversity and dominance^{1,2}

Throughout the past decades, a debate over disciplinary Western- and American-centrism has developed in the field of IR. Long before the first major claims concerning Western-centrism in IR were made in the early 2000s, a debate about the overwhelming number of U.S. authors, theories, and epistemologies emerged following the publication of Stanley Hoffmann's (1977) seminal article, in which he depicted IR as an "American social science." In his piece, Hoffman argued that the discipline could not have evolved as it did anywhere but in the United States. For him, "intellectual predispositions" explain why the study of IR materialized in the US after World War II. This included a general strengthening of the social sciences, their modeling after the natural sciences, and the influx of scholars from Europe, whose philosophical training and personal experiences provided them with a sense of history that prompted them to pose important questions. The U.S. academy was the place to ask these questions. Hoffman thus linked the history of IR to the rise of the US as a superpower.

The first reactions to Hoffmann focused on European and other primarily Western counter-examples to prove that IR was not as American as his conclusions suggested (see Goldmann 1995; Crawford and Jarvis 2001; Holsti 1985). The key message of this first wave of responses was clear: There was also meaningful engagement with IR in Europe and Canada. Most prominently, Ole Wæver's (1998) "The Sociology of a Not So International Discipline: American and European Developments in International Relations" opened the debate for a more distinguished national interpretation of IR that went beyond asserting American superiority. In his analysis of four high-ranking IR journals, Wæver provided evidence of the vivid diversity of IR scholarship in Europe but simultaneously demonstrated that US-based scholars publish globally, while European scholars are much less present in U.S. journals, and non-Western scholars are almost entirely absent (see also Jørgensen and Knudsen 2006; Friedrichs 2004a). He argued that every country develops its distinct approach towards IR by interacting with national policy-making processes and scientific traditions. However, according to Wæver, at the time of the study, the U.S. "way of doing IR," driven by positivist epistemologies and realist theories, could still be regarded as the discipline's leading narrative (see also Crawford and Jarvis 2001). This focus on U.S. dominance in Wæver's work even led Maliniak et al. to refer to the "American social science" claims as the "Hoffmann/Wæver hypothesis" (Maliniak et al. 2018, p.2).

Compelling literature concerning the field's composition and modes of operation has emerged since these classical contributions to IR's self-reflective literature. I discuss these more recent contributions,

¹ Some parts of this literature discussion have previously been published in Wemheuer-Vogelaar and Peters 2016.

² Although this dissertation is inspired by the sociology of science, my focus for this section is to illustrate how other IR scholars have approached these concepts and create a space for my own contribution. That space is located within IR, not the sociology of science.

focusing on patterns of dominance and/or diversity in the following section and placing emphasis on how some of them defined and operationalized these two concepts in the context of IR scholarship.

2.1 Dominance³

The majority of studies on disciplinary dominance in IR have found that the U.S. academy and, more generally, scholars based in the West and their products are pervasive in terms of volume (i.e., they publish the most articles in the most relevant journals) and in terms of their contributions to the development of IR theory. The patterns of dominance seem to be the clearest when comparing Western scholars to their counterparts located in and ideas originating from the global East and South. However, in direct comparisons, the US also seems to dominate IR in comparison to Western Europe and the rest of the Anglo-sphere, while the UK plays a special role within the Anglo-sphere as well as vis-a-vis Western Europe.

While there is abundant literature on this topic (e.g. Tickner 2013; Hobson 2012; Wæver and Tickner 2009; Smith 2002; Mathews and Aydinli 2000), I focus the discussion of the literature in the following section on three recent publications, that of Maliniak et al. (2018), Turton (2015), and Kristensen (2015a). These three contributions stand out in the largely normative discussion of IR due to their empirical approaches. They shed light on three different aspects of U.S. dominance (or hegemony, as Turton and Maliniak et al. put it). Turton conducted a triangulation study, combining a content analysis of 12 English-language IR journals and the programs of four international conferences with in-depth interviews with some of the journals' editors. Kristensen visualized the network of authorship data retrieved from the Web of Science (WoS), while Maliniak et al. analyzed the 2014 TRIP survey data for patterns of U.S. hegemony and insularity.⁴

Turton (2015) tested the degree of American dominance in five dimensions of academic knowledge production: agenda-setting, theoretical, methodological, institutional, and gatekeeping (see Table 1 for definitions). Turton was thus the first to unpack the concept of disciplinary dominance and to test it empirically instead of discussing dominance from a normative perspective alone. Turton's conclusion can be summarized as follows: There is an institutional preponderance of US-based scholars, especially in the realm of theory production, but, due to an overall theoretical, ontological, methodological, and epistemological pluralism and journal editors' positive intentions, one cannot speak of American dominance.

³ Minor sections of this literature review have previously been published in Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016 or have been discussed as part of a conference paper (Bell and Wemheuer-Vogelaar 2017).

⁴ A third part of Maliniak et al.'s 2018 article deals with diversity; I discuss that section separately below.

Table 1 Five dimensions of American dominance in IR according to Turton 2015⁵

DIMENSION OF DOMINANCE	HYPOTHESIS	OUTCOMES
AGENDA SETTING	America's ability to set the disciplinary agenda and align the discipline's concerns with those of the US' foreign policy.	No evidence
THEORETICAL DOMINANCE	The preponderance of either "American theories" and/or a certain "American" theory that operates as the discipline's orthodoxy.	Mixed outcomes
EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL DOMINANCE	The majority of IR academics are working under the auspices of an empiricist epistemology and demonstrate a methodological proclivity towards quantitative methods, especially the use of rational choice approaches.	No evidence
INSTITUTIONAL PREPONDERANCE	The majority of work published is written by American scholars and/or scholars situated in American institutions.	Evidence for dominance
GATE-KEEPING	Gate-keeping strategies are employed by predominantly American journal editors to exclude certain forms of scholarship and scholars.	No evidence

Following a Gramscian theoretical concept, Turton conceptualized disciplinary hegemony as the result of a "mutually constituting relationship between IR structures and academic agency" (ibid., p.12). More specifically, she regards "hegemony (...) as a form of dominance" in that the former draws on processes of consent and the latter draws on processes of coercion (ibid., p.7). Both, however, "are used to capture the same power relations in which the [US] is in a primary position in relation to other IR communities and other IR academics" (ibid.). As a consequence, Turton's design mixes elements of coercive dominance and consensual hegemony, which has consequences for her conclusions, as it remains unclear whether IR scholars in positions of power, such as editors, are acting intentionally in supporting or suppressing tendencies towards American dominance in the discipline.⁶ The thin line between hegemony and dominance therefore vanishes over the course of her study.

Turton found clear American dominance in only one of her five dimensions: institutional preponderance. She found that "the majority of work published [in IR] is written by American scholars and/or scholars situated in American institutions" (see Table 1). That is, there are indeed more US-based

⁵ This table is based on Turton's summary of her expectations (pp. 11-12). The assumptions and definitions in the table, therefore, are not my own. The table includes direct quotes, but for the sake of readability, I abstain from using quotation marks to indicate every single one.

⁶ The sociology of science would argue that neither is possible and that scientific communities are generally blind and incapable of intentional action ("handlungsunfähig") (Gläser 2006). I acknowledge this perspective, but do not give it a central place in this dissertation.

scholars in the discipline's main organs of scholarly communication (journal publications, editorial boards, and conferences) than scholars of other academies (p. 114). In addition, she attributes to U.S. academia a high degree of parochialism, confirming earlier findings that suggest that U.S. scholars primarily talk among themselves (Gläser and Aman 2017; Biersteker 2009; Wæver 1998). In other words, members of the U.S. academy are everywhere, and their home-market is exceptionally inward-looking. This finding of U.S. insularity also holds when considering citation data. In an earlier study (Wemheuer-Vogelaar 2013), I found that Constructivist IR scholars tend to almost exclusively cite U.S. Constructivists. Gläser and Aman (2017) recently confirmed this finding with a broader study on communication flows in and across journals. Both studies, however, also found that while other communities may not be as insular, that is largely because they cite local and Anglo-American sources (or almost exclusively Anglo-American sources in the case of Asian Constructivists).

Maliniak et al. (2018) found further proof of this pattern of U.S. insularity and worldwide hegemony. First, with regard to U.S. hegemony, they conclude that "scholars employed by US universities constitute just over a third of all IR professors in the thirty-two countries in our sample. US universities train a disproportionately high percentage of IR scholars worldwide, and US scholars and journals command significant respect" (2018, p.12). The authors operationalized "commanding respect" in this regard as respondents from all communities naming US-based authors, journals, and schools being as the top and most influential in the field.⁷ In addition to this direct measurement of U.S. influence, Maliniak et al. also provide data on community identities, demonstrating that allegiance to a global IR community is on average stronger than to both a regional or national community (ibid., p.18). However, some communities in Latin America, particularly Chile, and Asia, particularly China, also strongly relate to a national or regional community.⁸ Furthermore, the TRIP team found that respondents based in Latin America (especially Argentina, Mexico, and Colombia) and Asia (especially India and China) demonstrated higher levels of protectionism when asked whether they agreed that citizens and permanent residents of their own country should be given priority when universities fill academic positions (ibid. p. 19). That is, some communities in Asian and Latin America, according to the authors, display a higher level of insularity than the US. The impression holds, however, that when it comes to identifying influential authors and institutions, the US is the leading force in the field, be it consciously or not.

Kristensen (2015a) agrees that scholars based in the US continue to dominate IR journals (included in the WoS), but found, by mapping author affiliations on the city level, that "stratification structures

⁷ Whether this perception data that depends on respondents' memory for names is a reliable operationalization for that concept is a question that goes beyond the scope of this review.

⁸ For more fine-grained findings about this, see Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016.

within the American discipline” are as consequential for the discipline as the observation that it is American dominated (2015, p.1); that is, a relatively small number of elite institutions in the US contribute most of the articles published in the global top journals. Kristensen’s analysis demonstrated that “[t]he seven states of California, DC, New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, and New Jersey [-- in other words, the homes of US Ivy league schools --] account for more than 50% of US-based articles” (ibid., p.17). Furthermore, Kristensen also found that this stratification also exists in Europe, where the production of IR articles is also concentrated at a handful of institutions located in the northwest. Furthermore, Kristensen provides evidence that the most productive institutions in the US and Europe are connected through co-authorship networks and should be regarded as belonging to the same bloc of dominant contributors to IR.

What Kristensen could not test with his authorship data, however, was whether the dominance of these actors has consequences for IR content. Turton, who content-coded the English-language IR journals listed in the WoS, also assigns the U.S. academy a dominance in theory production, at least with regard to the volume of theoretical research produced by US-based scholars (ibid., p.141). She defines American theoretical dominance as “the preponderance of either ‘American theories’ and/or a certain ‘American’ theory which operates as the discipline’s orthodoxy” (see Table 1). Complete theoretical dominance, according to Turton, is inhibited by “global theoretical pluralism due to the emergence of non-Western IR theory” (ibid.). Turton thus argues that there cannot be dominance in the face of pluralism or that the presence of alternatives somehow neutralizes the otherwise extant dominance (cp. Eun 2016). Similarly, Maliniak et al. (2018, p.12) argue that “US hegemony is far from complete, however; US epistemological, methodological, and theoretical preferences do not appear to flow unidirectionally from the US to the rest of the world.” I discuss this line of reasoning at greater length when presenting my own research design for the comparative case study later in this chapter.

Turton found no evidence for dominance/hegemony in any of the remaining three dimensions (i.e., agenda-setting, epistemological and methodological dominance, and gate-keeping). For agenda-setting, she found no direct link between academia and the world of policy, and as a result, IR research is “[independent] from American foreign policy-making elites” (ibid., p.42). This concerns the aspect of agenda-setting, which Turton defines as “[aligning] the discipline’s concerns with those of the United States foreign policy ones” (see Table 1). This is an aspect that has been uttered repeatedly in normative IR literature on U.S. dominance (e.g., Smith 2002, 2000), but, according to Turton, there is no proof of it. The same goes for her second, quite different, observation concerning agenda-setting dominance: “America’s ability to set the disciplinary agenda” (see Table 1). Here, again, she found a “global ontological pluralism,” which she interprets as the inability of the US to dominate the discipline by setting its intellectual agenda.

Turton defined U.S. dominance in this context as a situation in which “[t]he majority of IR academics are working under the auspices of an empiricist epistemology and demonstrate a methodological proclivity towards quantitative methods especially the use of rational choice approaches” (see Table 1). For this dimension, more so than for any other, Turton constructs a clear picture of what she regards as *American* epistemology and methodology, but she does not find proof thereof (see p. 90f.). She concluded that there is not only “methodological pluralism” but also “differing national methodological preferences” (ibid, p.141). Whether these different national methodological communities – or, for that matter, the theoretical communities that she identified – communicate with each other, overlap, or are isolated remains unclear. She did find American parochialism, however, and concluded that it is particularly strong in the context of epistemology and methodology. Maliniak et al. identify similar patterns, demonstrating that the relatively high degree of respondents based in the US who describe their work as rationalist and the otherwise mixed picture suggest that “there is evidence... of significant epistemological differences among IR scholars across regions; this pattern may suggest more insularity than diversity” (2018, p.27).

Finally, Turton concluded that there is no evidence of American dominance in the form of gate-keeping. She described gate-keeping strategies as being “...employed by predominantly American journal editors to exclude certain forms of scholarship and scholars” (see Table 1). The journal editors whom she interviewed about these strategies refuted any accusations of gate-keeping in favor of American scholarship and instead reported their struggles to increase the discipline’s internationality and diversity. As Turton put it, “the aim to internationalize the field coexists with the practical considerations of what gets submitted. Even though the editors interviewed appeared to be expressing their desire to actively seek and encourage submissions from a broader array of scholars – and in some cases the editors actually went out and elicited certain pieces – they could only purposefully increase the geographical reach of the discipline if such scholarship was sent in.” This interpretation of the situation is in line with Turton’s Gramscian framework but contradicts her conclusions that there are no direct gate-keeping mechanisms at play.

Maliniak et al. found other proof of Americans in positions of power. As mentioned previously, these are US-based scholars, schools, and journals regarded as most influential in the field by most respondents, independent of the latter’s own location. This alone suggests a pattern of influence that must, to some degree, lead to (unintentional) gate-keeping. Furthermore, the TRIP team presents evidence from their 2011 survey, in which U.S. respondents reported that 71% of the assigned readings in their introductory courses are written by U.S. authors. Again, this is a sign of insularity. The authors conclude from the data for other countries that “[t]he geographic distribution of assigned authors, in short, reinforces the notion that the United States is hegemonic in the discipline, that the flow of ideas

is largely outward from an insular United States, and that some national communities are more heavily influenced than others by the IR community in the United States” (2018: 15). This confirms the conclusions of other studies on IR teaching (Colgan 2016; Hagemann and Biersteker 2014) that found U.S. literature to have major influence in IR classrooms across the globe. Turton’s study overlooked this indirect influence on the IR community, proof for which is provided in Maliniak et al.’s other data on the respect shown to US-based authors.

Furthermore, Turton’s study only touched upon the aspect of the perception of dominance, that is, whether, independent of the patterns she identified, scholars regard the discipline as being dominated (see Turton 2015, p. 69f.). In the IR literature, Jörg Friedrichs (2004b) was the first to suggest that dominance in IR is, above all, a matter of self-perception, particularly since European scholars perceive the discipline to be dominated by the U.S. community. He argues that, through the perception of operating in a dominated discipline, scholars are (unconsciously) reproducing this very dominance (see also Schneider 2014). See Seng Tan refers to a similar phenomenon when describing his Southeast Asian IR colleagues as being trapped in a state of *self-orientalism*, meaning that even those who do engage in general IR theorizing “continue to do so based upon the norms and parameters of Western discourse” (2009, p. 128). Perception of dominance, therefore, matters for IR scholars around the world, even if it manifests itself in different forms in different regions. Thus, if scholars perceive the discipline to be dominated, then that dominance becomes part of the discipline’s identity, independent of whether it is “real” in the sense of a verifiable trend.

With this hypothesis in mind, researchers from the College of William and Mary and I designed and evaluated a set of survey questions, including an experiment designed for the 2014 TRIP survey, that aimed at identifying the degree to which IR scholars based in different countries perceive the discipline to be Western/American-dominated and whether they consider it important to counter this dominance.⁹ Maliniak et al. (2018) report the responses to parts of these questions in their paper, finding “that respondents overwhelmingly agreed that the IR discipline is dominated by the US academy [except for respondents based in China, Brazil, and Taiwan] (...) Furthermore, majorities in nearly every country say that US dominance should be opposed” (ibid., p.17). This evaluation indicates that scholars perceive the factors of dominance, which can be empirically proven. I present a more extensive evaluation of these concepts and the related survey data on the perception of dominance in the comparative sub-chapter at the end of Chapter 4.

⁹ My co-authors for the paper reviewed in the following section were Nicholas J. Bell, Michael J. Tierney, and Marianna Navarrete Morales. The paper was published in 2016 as part of the ISA Presidential Issue of *International Studies Review* about Global IR (edited by Amitav Acharya, Pinar Bilgin, and L.H.M. Ling).

2.2. Diversity

The concept of diversity, sometimes referred to in the IR literature as pluralism or plurality,¹⁰ refers to the presence of people, ideas, or other factors with a multitude of characteristics and the degree to which they interact. While literature concerning IR as a global or non-global discipline seems to be more concerned with biases and various *centrisms* at first sight, there are actually a growing number of initiatives and studies either calling for more diversity in IR or demonstrating how diverse the field already is. While some scholars “[interpret] plurality in terms of incommensurability, relativism, or as an obstacle to progress in the field” (van der Ree 2014, p. 221), others regard the diversification of the discipline as a natural goal in and of itself. There are also others who argue that, while the US is the dominant force in the field, this does not have negative consequences. The leading voice among those who argue along these lines is that of Mearsheimer (2016), who applies the term “benign hegemony” to the US. However, whether diversity can – or should – grow under this hegemony remains unclear from his argumentation.

The contribution to the recent debate on global diversification as a means of countering (Western) dominance in IR that has received the most attention is Amitav Acharya’s global IR agenda (Acharya 2016, 2014). Acharya (2016, p. 4) suggests that “[t]he idea of Global international relations (IR) urges the IR community to look past the American and Western dominance of the field and embrace greater diversity, especially by recognizing the places, roles, and contributions of “non-Western” peoples and societies.” Like the West, non-Western cultures have experienced wars, the rise and fall of empires, and periods of colonization (as both colonizers and colonized). They have built institutions of international cooperation in matters of trade, security, and peace. These cultures had historians who have documented these experiences and political, religious, philosophical, and economic elites who have left their intellectual legacies. Acharya (see also Acharya and Buzan 2007) regards the inclusion of this variety of sources of knowledge as a way forward for the discipline. As global history is a reinvention or branch of historiography that emphasizes global contexts, global IR is intended to create a more inclusive understanding of international politics.

Acharya argues that “[f]or Global IR, true universalism is one that recognizes the diversity of human interactions, rather than one that legitimizes the imposition of a temporally dominant Western civilization” (Acharya 2016b, p. 344). Some authors have done exactly that. For example, Kosuke Shimizu (2011) introduced the thinking of Japanese philosopher Nishida Kitaro to the IR canon. Nishida

¹⁰ These three terms do not necessarily mean the same thing in every context. I abstain from going into detail about possible differences in the context of IR. I use all three terms interchangeably in the following sections because that is how the individual contributions on the review refer to matters of diversity, unless noted otherwise.

developed a theory of world history as a counter approach to the colonial society of inter-war Japan. In his article, Shimizu links Nishida's culture-based theory to mainstream Constructivism, highlighting its focus on a "subjectivity of contradiction." Shani (2008) suggested two concepts from Islam and Sikhism – Umma and Khalsa Panth, respectively – as bases for "post-Western" theorizing. Both terms refer to a deterritorialized, transnational community of believers, which Shani suggest could be used to transcend Western IR's universalist notion of international relations among sovereign nation states.

Another reoccurring example of a non-Western source for IR theorizing is East Asia's historical experience with the so-called tribute (or tributary) system (*chaogong tizhi*), which refers to the ideas and institutions of traditional Chinese foreign relations of the pre-Qing era. This system describes the relationships of the various Chinese empires with both their direct neighbors and early European trade partners such as the Dutch (Fairbank 1968). According to a more Sino-centric interpretation of the system, all bordering nations paid tribute to their overpowering neighbor at the center, gaining its protection in return (Kang 2010). Whereas the tribute system was previously the subject of historians, in recent decades, several IR scholars have used the concept as an example of international cooperation "before the rise of capitalism and the expansion of Europe and the imposition of the Westphalian model" (Zhang and Buzan 2012, p.3; see also Zhang and Chang 2016). Yuen Foong Khong (2013) has even applied it to the US. This is a rare case of a scholar using non-Western sources of knowledge to explain Western foreign policy.

In addition to the discussion of indigenous or "non-Western" IR theory, there is a second trend in the literature that relates directly to the issue of diversity: the proclamation of national or regional schools of IR. Famous examples such as the English, the Welsh, or the Copenhagen schools are, in reality, theoretical approaches that are (falsely) associated with their institutional origins. In contrast, more recent examples tend to be no more than catchphrases that describe the IR practices of a country or region (Cervera 2013; Cotton 2013). The proclamation of national schools also serves as a vehicle for counter-dominance. As Cho (2013, p.6) notes, "...the development of a Korean school of IR is a way of securing scholarly independence to overcome intellectual colonialism." Kim and Cho (2009, p. 403; cited in Cho 2013; emphasis added) even go as far as to refer to it "as a matter of *dignity* for Korean IR scholars."

No exception to this is the Chinese school (Song 2001), which has received the most attention due to its relative prominence. According to some authors, the Chinese school summarizes all types of IR theorizing in China, including the application of Western IR theory to Chinese cases (Qin 2009). For others, it stands for the production of IRT with "Chinese characteristics" – analogous to Deng Xiaoping's "capitalism with Chinese characteristics" (Noesselt 2012). The most organized attempt of those contributions to the Chinese school is the Tsinghua approach, which was coined by Yan Xuetong and his

colleagues at Tsinghua University. Yan et al. (2011; Yan 2008) advocate a merging of ancient Chinese thought, such as the philosophy of Xun Zi and the pre-Qin tribute system introduced above, with Western positivism (Zhang 2012).

While some regard the strengthening of national schools through increased recognition (through studies on the sociology of IR) as a means of increasing diversity, others interpret it as a contradicting trend of fragmentation (Behera 2016; Makarychev and Morozov 2013). Others criticize the development of such national approaches in general and the Chinese school in particular as a move intended to secure political, rather than academic, power (Acharya 2014; Callahan 2004). Callahan (2008), for example, criticized the rising popularity of the use of the concept of “tianxia” (“all-under-heaven”) in IR (Zhao 2006; Zhao and Strotmann 2008) as a means of justifying Chinese hegemony in the international system. Chen (2011, p. 13) suggests that “...rather than rushing to the conclusion that the Tianxia system (or at least the understanding of it popularized by Zhao Tingyang) encourages a violent conversion of difference and thus ‘presents a new hegemony that reproduces China’s hierarchical empire for the twenty-first century,’ it would be more prudent for us to recognize what appears to be Chinese activism as more a consequence of Western dominance in social sciences than an update of imperial China’s hierarchical governance.”

On a different note, Kristensen and Nielsen (2013) interviewed leading figures of the Chinese school about their motivation to contribute to such a wave of literature and found that local theorizing is first and foremost a strategic career move (see also Kristensen 2015b). This stands in stark contrast to the decolonizing and decentering tones of the more normative strand of literature on diversity in IR. Makarychev and Morozov (2013) use the example of Russian IR to illustrate that pluralism in the form of national schools is not only not the ideal approach to achieving a reform of IR but is even counterproductive to the ideals of global IR, as it implies that the creation of a universalist theory of any kind is altogether impossible. Vasilaki (2012, p. 7) shares this point of view, arguing that national or regional schools are “often the mirror-image of the logic underpinning Western dominance: based on the idea of uniqueness of a ‘special’ civilization, culture or nation, its ‘special’ place in the world and its ‘special’ mission.” This interpretation undermines the findings of Turton (2015) and Maliniak et al. (2018) that diversity in terms of national or regional specializations, is a guarantee against dominance because, even in the face of diversity across the globe, there may be a lack of exchange of views across community borders (cf. Gläser and Aman 2017).

Chen (2012; Chen and Cho 2016) argues against non-Western IR for a more categorical reason, stating that indigenous theorizing is simply impossible in a discipline that is hegemonic. He uses Japanese conceptions of international society to illustrate that all of all of the existing approaches accept not only the Westphalian notion that underlies the English school but also its wider epistemology. For Chen, this

means that those conceptions are not sufficiently innovative and “non-Western” to represent a viable alternative to the existing theoretical canon. On the other end of this spectrum stand Bilgin (2008) and Shilliam (2011), who warn against the expectation of finding the absolute “new” and “innovative” in non-Western IR theory (see also Turton and Freire 2015). For these authors, the exotification of local approaches is a greater danger than an epistemology that is closer to the large paradigms. One way or another, views concerning the appropriate approach towards diversity in IR, as well as its current state, diverge.

Acharya’s vision for a future global IR – a field capable of transcending its current disciplinary and geo-epistemological borders – and related concepts rests on the assumption that scholars beyond the Anglo-American core are willing and able (i.e., have the capabilities and resources necessary) to reshape IR (Acharya 2016, 2014). Kristensen (2015a, p.10), however, found in a study on the representation of scholars from emerging powers and their ideas that “the few articles that access the infrastructure of global/Western IR discourse tend to speak in one of three voices: first, as theorizers within established Western theoretical traditions such as realism, constructivism or the English School. Second, as native informants presenting empirical material from their own country. Third, as quasi-officials representing a perspective from their country.” That is, the IR literature generated by non-Western scholars – at least IR published in Anglo-American journals – does not deliver the radically different IR theories that Acharya and others discuss. Instead, non-Western scholars serve to educate the global IR audience about their respective regions (see also Mathews and Aydinli 2000). Whether there is more non-Western IR theorizing to be found beyond the Anglo-American journals remains unclear, as no study has thus far investigated any of these journals with regard to that particular question.

Other scholars are more generally pessimistic about this strategy of democratic pluralism and particularism. Aydinli and Mathews, for example, ask “even if one accepts the assumption that IR studies are flourishing outside of the United States, does this automatically signify an internationalization of the IR discipline? What does it actually bring to the question of dialogue between scholars from the core and periphery?” (Aydinli, Mathews 2000, p. 291). This communicative perspective on diversity is shared by Albert and Zürn (2013, p. 146), who add that “those who want to maintain a plurality of perspectives must also protect plural discourse spaces.”¹¹ One of the crucial requirements of the global diversification of IR is thus that academics from around the globe should communicate with each other in the form of citations and other forms of *mutual* recognition. The word “mutual” is essential in this context because there cannot be any doubt that scholars in the periphery adopt and discuss ideas from the center (Aydinli and Mathews 2000; Turton and Freire 2015). If there is no two-way recognition and

¹¹ Translated by the author; the original sentence reads as follows: “Wer eine Pluralität der Perspektiven aufrechterhalten möchte, muss auch plurale Diskursräume schützen.”

a global exchange of views in the form of shared communicative spaces, diversity beyond pluralism and particularism cannot emerge.

Beyond the questions of whether diversification is desirable and how it might be achieved, the TRIP team at William and Mary discussed the issue of diversity in its most recent publication (Maliniak et al. 2018). In addition to confirming the long-standing hypotheses concerning U.S. hegemony and insularity, Maliniak et al. analyzed the responses given by survey respondents based in 32 countries and found that “with the important exception of the US IR community, IR scholars at institutions outside the United States are relatively open to scholars and ideas from other countries and regions” (Maliniak et al. 2018, p.4), which they read as a sign of diversity.¹² Furthermore, they find that “IR scholars around the world study a broad spectrum of topics and regions, and they exhibit a diverse set of theoretical and methodological commitments in their research” (ibid., p.5). According to the findings of this study, the degree of diversity, measured by the effective number of topics and regions under study as well as theoretical approaches and epistemologies applied, varies across countries. In this regard, the diversity of topics is highest in Mexico (13 topics), Japan, and Colombia, but it is lowest in New Zealand, Hong Kong, and Austria (four topics) (ibid., p. 24). Based on this observation, Maliniak et al. deduce that “[t]he picture of an IR discipline (especially in the United States) focused overwhelmingly on interstate war and the use of force is not reflected in the 2014 survey results” (ibid., p. 24).

These authors’ analysis of the regions under study indicated a slightly lower overall level of diversity, as well as stronger variations, across their 32 cases. China was found to have the highest number of regions studied (seven regions), followed by Australia and Finland. The fewest regions under study were found among scholars based in Chile, Argentina, and South Africa. Most European countries achieved a medium score in terms of regional diversity, while the US was among the top four; however, it was in the middle of the field when it comes to the effective number of theoretical approaches applied. According to the 2014 findings presented in the paper, New Zealand, South Africa, and Brazil were found to have the highest degree of theoretical diversity, while Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore had the lowest (see p. 26). Mexico also ranked high for this measurement, while Chile was located in the lowest third, together with many Western European countries. According to the study, the US had a medium level of theoretical diversity,. Last but not least, Maliniak et al. investigated the discipline’s epistemological and methodological diversity and found that both aspects were overall lower than the other three, but that there was still substantial variation across countries. Since I am not engaging with any of these two aspects, I do not discuss them in detail.

¹² That most of the “scholars and ideas from other countries and region” are actually directly related to the US or the UK is overlooked in their discussion of their findings.

The findings thus suggest that, based on scholars' perceptions, the discipline is relatively diverse and that the level of diversity varies across countries. The countries belonging to the three regions I study in my own case studies (North America, Latin America, and Europe) also demonstrate that degrees of variation differ across regional boundaries since, for most measurements of diversity, individual countries displayed diverging levels of diversity. While these are valuable insights that help me to put my own outcomes into perspective, the most intriguing feature of the 2018 TRIP paper is that the first group of IR scholars defined and operationalized diversity in the context of IR scholarship. Accordingly, they argue that, "in a field defined by diversity, [they] would expect to see: 1) scholars studying a wide range of issues and places; and 2) scholars employing a wide range of theoretical, methodological, and epistemological approaches within and across countries" (Maliniak et al. 2018, p.8). That is, for Maliniak et al., diversity means the presence of a variety of certain aspects in IR scholarship. For example, if many regions are studied by IR scholars in and across countries, the field is diverse. The same applies for the authors' other thematic aspects. All of the findings discussed above are in agreement with this definition and its operationalization through the TRIP survey and an inverse Herfindahl index (*ibid.*, p. 23) in order to calculate the effective number of regions, theories, and so forth.

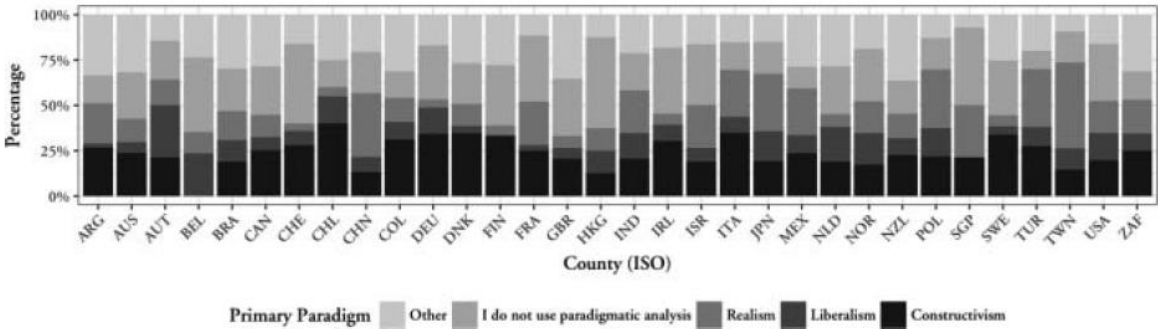
The metric and the clean-cut definition that Maliniak et al. apply to the topic is a novelty in the study of diversity in IR and sets their study apart from all other single and comparative case studies using the TRIP survey (e.g., Rickard and Doyle 2012; Aydin and Yazgan 2013; Hundley, Kenzer, and Peterson 2013; Lipson et al. 2007) and the normative literature on the topic discussed above. However, there are some flaws in the approach adopted by Maliniak et al. to discuss diversity in IR: First, while every study must have its limitations, especially if it has to fit a research article format, it is noticeable that Maliniak et al. focused almost exclusively on their survey data. Although they note the use of their journal analysis data (*ibid.*, p. 4), they do not use it systematically to contrast scholars' perceptions and diversity in actual research output. Second, their study is restricted to thematic aspects of diversity, neglecting the diversity of people. The TRIP survey data could have allowed for a study of ethnic as well as gender diversity in IR. For example, the paper could have included a comparison of countries based on the effective number of nationalities working in their respective IR communities. Whether covering such an aspect of diversity would have exceeded the scope of their paper or required a different definition of diversity was not addressed.

Third, and most importantly for the context of this dissertation, the authors' definition and operationalization of diversity in IR rests solely on the measurement of variety; that is, it equates diversity with the presence of a large number of regions, theories, etc. What it does not take into account are the factors that I refer to as evenness and dissimilarity. Evenness in this context would mean

questioning not only how many theoretical approaches are being applied in a particular country but also how intensely each of these approaches are applied.

For gender equality, one could state that full diversity is achieved by having both male and female authors contributing to a journal, but that would disregard the fact that 90% of the articles were authored by men and only 10% by women. While the degree of variety is high in this case, the evenness is not. Disregarding this aspect means losing descriptive and analytical power. Figure 1 presents a copy of the research data used by Maliniak et al. (ibid., p. 27), in which evenness is depicted (the relative shares per theoretical approach per country are visible); however, the authors do not discuss these distributions as a separate aspect of diversity. The same pattern can be found in Turton’s study on dominance (2015). She also presented a graph displaying the proportional shares of theoretical approaches in IR journals but did not discuss evenness as an aspect of diversity. Both Turton and Maliniak et al. also disregard the issue of dissimilarity. Turton did so, for example, when she concluded that the presence of any non-Western IR theorizing would be sufficient to discuss diversity, not taking into account the fact that there are only a limited number of articles that feature this distinct type of theorizing, which is discussed as fundamentally different.

Figure 1 Theoretical paradigms by country (source: Maliniak et al. 2018, p. 27)



The TRIP article discussed epistemology as a separate aspect of IR scholarship but did not discuss the dissimilarity of the theoretical approaches applied, such as ontology (be it Constructivist or not). This measure would, for example, have demonstrated that, while Germany scores relatively low for variety (the effective number of theoretical approaches employed by scholars based in Germany), it is more diverse than many other communities due to the fact that it has a large share of respondents who work with a Constructivist ontology. China, which scored a medium level of variety in this regard, displays low levels of evenness and dissimilarity because a large proportion of its scholars conduct their work using a realist approach (low evenness) while few approach their work using a Constructivist ontology (low dissimilarity).

Gläser and Aman (2017), in contrast, demonstrated that it is both possible and useful to take evenness and dissimilarity into account when studying IR scholarship. In their study on journals as communication

channels, these two sociologists of science defined diversity as "the heterogeneity produced by the disparity of its elements" (p. 5). This definition goes beyond the aspect of variety and focuses on dissimilarity, which Gläser and Aman (following other sociologists of science, for example Stirling 2007) refer to as disparity. Gläser and Aman use variety, evenness, and disparity to illustrate that "the supposedly 'leading international journals' [IO first and foremost] are in fact closer to being domestic US-journals, while European and Asian journals show a much higher diversity of authors, audiences and editorial boards" (2017, p.1477). They conclude that "[i]t might well be that the field of IR looks completely different to US and non-US scholars" (ibds., p.1487) and that this is primarily due to the insularity of the U.S. community with regard to how its authors almost exclusively consume articles produced in the US (cp. Maliniak et al. 2018; Kristensen 2015).

As mentioned previously, Gläser and Aman adopt their definition of diversity from other sociologists of science, particularly the work of Stirling (2007). Stirling used a slightly different terminology from that of Gläser and Aman and in a manner that differs from that which I adopt in this dissertation, arguing that "[i]n short, diversity concepts employed across the full range of sciences (...) display some combination of just three basic properties 'variety', 'balance' and 'disparity'. Each is a necessary but insufficient property of diversity. (...) Despite the multiple disciplines and divergent contexts, there seems no other obvious candidate for a fourth important general property of diversity beyond these three" (Stirling 2007, p.709). In other words, when taking these three properties into account, one can obtain a full picture of diversity. This in turn means that approaches to measuring diversity such as those employed by Maliniak et al. and Turton are incomplete.

Since I use these three properties in my own research design below, I now turn to a detailed examination of how Stirling and others define and use each of the properties, although this somewhat diverges from the original discussion of diversity in IR. Stirling (2007: p.709) defines the three properties as follows:

Variety is the number of categories into which system elements are apportioned. It is the answer to the question: 'how many types of things do we have?' (...) All else being equal, the greater the variety, the greater the diversity.

Balance [what others refer to as evenness or concentration, see Rousseau et al. 2018, p. 312] is a function of the pattern of apportionment of elements across categories. It is the answer to the question: 'how much of each type of things do we have?' (...) All else being equal, the more even is the balance, the greater the diversity.

Disparity [what I refer to as dissimilarity] refers to the manner and degree in which the elements may be distinguished. It is the answer to the question: 'how different from each other are the

types of things that we have?' (...) All else being equal, the more disparate are the represented elements, the greater the diversity."

Stirling stresses that these properties are used to measure diversity in a broad range of disciplines, giving the examples of economics (Finkelstein & Friedman 1967) and ecology (Pielou 1969). Like Stirling, others working in the sociology of science (Zhang, Rousseau, and Glänzel 2016; Mitesser et al. 2008) have used indices to summarize and combine findings for two or more of the properties. Stirling refers to the Gini coefficient, which is one of the most prominent measures of disparity and is most famously used in economics to illustrate the disparity and evenness of the income structures of national economies. He also refers to the Herfindahl–Hirschman index, the latter half of which is used in the US to regulate market shares. Maliniak et al. (2018) also use an inverse Herfindahl index to calculate the effective number (variety) of regions under study reported by scholars in different IR communities. A discussion of how these two approaches to using these indices relate to each other would be beyond the scope of this dissertation, but what needs to be kept in mind is that, despite the use of a related index, Maliniak et al. did not address the threefold definition of diversity presented by Stirling and others. Gläser and Aman used the most popular index for entropy, the Shannon index (which some refer to as the Shannon–Wiener index), which Stirling also mentions. Using this index, Gläser and Aman calculated a metric that combines variety and evenness to provide a quantified judgment concerning the internationality of journals, which allows them to rank journals by several aspects. This has the advantage of providing clear conclusions, but it comes with some significant drawbacks: First, the index mixes variety and evenness and thus does not allow one to highlight cases in which variety is low but evenness is high or vice versa. Second, using an index in general requires a severe simplification of complex situations and constellations, which, while it has its advantages, also risks cutting evaluations short. Third, Gläser and Aman use WoS data for their study, which, while it has its own flaws, has the advantage of being relatively reliable. If one works with data that is not of the same quality (as is the case for my exploratory study), the standardization of findings with the use of an index can lead to false and simplified conclusions.

There is one aspect of data reliability that distinguishes my study (and also those of Maliniak et al. and Turton) from that of Gläser and Aman, which I will discuss in more detail. While Gläser and Aman's study on journal internationality covers the international composition of a set of authors, the selection processes and their impact on the international composition of the set of authors, the international composition of the journal's audience, and knowledge flows between authors and audiences – and thus many more aspects than either the study conducted Maliniak et al. or my own – it neglects the aspect of theoretical or thematic diversity. As Gläser and Aman note in their conclusion (p. 1487), this oversight was not intentional and actually constitutes a relevant gap. The reason for not including content

diversity in their study is simple: a lack of data. These two sociologists of science did not have the expertise required to analyze the theories and other content aspects of IR journals. Thus, while the WoS data and information on editors are readily available to these authors and indeed constitute two of the most commonly used data formats in the quantitative sociology of science, content data beyond key words is beyond their methodological reach. This is not the case for the TRIP team, which, to this date, owns the largest journal data set on IR journal publications, covering the top 12 journals of the field for the years 1980 to 2014. Despite this access, their 2018 study focused primarily on their survey dataset. Both data sources, however, have in common the fact that much of their data is the production of interpretation. The survey data is an accumulation of scholars' perceptions, which undergo two rounds of interpretation – one by the respondents and one by the researchers working with the data. The journal dataset is also the product of interpretative content analysis. While this analysis follows strict codebook rules, it is still only an advanced attempt to capture the reality of IR journal communication.

To conclude this review of the contributions that have been made to diversity with another observation concerning the available data, I turn to a number of the shortcomings of the TRIP team's journal analysis dataset for questions concerning global IR. As discussed above, Maliniak et al. based their study on the diversity of the discipline primarily on their survey data and did not compare their findings to the journal data in depth. There is a simple explanation for this: Most of the countries covered by the survey are not part of the journal data set. The journal dataset comprises the top 12 journals of the field, of which nine are based in the US and the other three in Western Europe, as Maliniak et al. themselves note (2018: 14). The authors in these journals, as my analysis demonstrates, are primarily based in the same two geographical locations to a varying degree, while authors from other countries covered by the survey (Mexico, Chile, China, Japan, South Africa, Turkey, etc.) are almost completely absent. Therefore, it is impossible to compare the TRIP journal data to, for example, a study on the diversity of the Japanese IR community because the journal publications in the dataset have little to do with that community's structure and output. What is required for a more comprehensive study on the diversity of the discipline, therefore, is journal data from journals not included in the original TRIP dataset.

To summarize, in the course of this discussion on global IR literature, I have identified the following gaps, which I address with my own research design in the framework of this dissertation:

1. Few contributions work with definitions of diversity and/or dominance that lend themselves to operationalization.
2. The few exceptions in IR (Maliniak et al. 2018; Turton 2015; Kristensen 2015a) focus on variety as only one out of the three concepts used by Stirling (2007) and others; they neglect the properties of evenness and dissimilarity.

3. Gläser and Aman, who do work with this threefold definition in an empirical context, neglect the content dimension of journal communication due to a lack of data.
4. The data available for such a study (the TRIP journal analysis dataset) lacks journal data that goes beyond the most cited English-language IR journals based in the US and Western Europe.

In the following chapter, in order to illustrate how the case studies discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 fill these gaps, I present my research design. While my extensive case studies on North American, Latin American, and European IR journals in Chapter 4 address all four gaps, the case study on German IR is first and foremost an attempt to study a Western non-core community in detail, using both the perception data provided by the 2014 TRIP survey and a unique dataset on the German-language ZIB. Both studies are exploratory and serve as conversation-openers for more advanced studies addressing the four gaps outlined above.

3. Conceptual and methodological framework

3.1 Main concepts

As discussed in Chapter 2, the concept of diversity plays a central role in the literature on global IR. The core issue is that the word diversity is frequently used without being properly defined. With the following framework, I aim to rectify this void by adapting the threefold-conceptualization of diversity used by Gläser and Aman (2017), which I briefly introduced above, for my own case studies. In this section, I present the adapted form of this threefold conceptualization in detail. Thereafter, I discuss how dominance stands in relation to diversity. All in all, this section of the chapter serves the purpose of introducing the conceptual framework that I use in Chapter 4; however, this framework could also be used beyond the boundaries of this study.

3.1.1 The threefold conceptualization of diversity

In their sociological piece on journal communication, Gläser and Aman (2017) defined diversity as a combination of variety, evenness, and dissimilarity and thereby created a perspective on the discipline that is without precedent in its clarity and richness. I consequentially follow Gläser and Aman (2017) and identify variety, evenness, and dissimilarity¹³ as the three central aspects of diversity. In the following chapters, I explain what each of these properties covers and why they are required to create a nuanced picture of diversity in IR.

Variety refers to the number of types of a certain aspect that a journal features. Variety, therefore, is often treated as a synonym for diversity. With regard to academic rank, to give a simple example, high variety is achieved if tenured researchers of all ranks are present as authors of a journal. Whether the involvement of junior scholars in all journals is desirable or not is of no concern at this point.

Table 2¹⁴ presents two examples of rank variety – one low and one high – in which the fixed maximum for possible categories is six. Journal A, the example of high variety, features five out of the six possible categories, while Journal B, the example of low variety, only features authors with two out of the six possible ranks. While it is possible to quantify the degree of variety in this context (83% and 33%, respectively), doing so is not always useful. It is impossible to say that 33% is *always* low and that 83% is *always* high because much depends on the number of categories set for the assessment. If only six

¹³ In the original literature, the third element is not dissimilarity but disparity. Disparity is usually quantified in order to be used in a formula or index. As a result, only groups with quantifiable differences can be used for this measurement. The differences I use for this study, however, are not quantifiable, which is the reason that I have substituted disparity with dissimilarity as a qualitative equivalent.

¹⁴ Journals A and B displayed in Table 2, and Figures 2 and 3 are fictional, and the numbers and distributions displayed are not based on empirical observation.

categories are available, 100% is more easily achieved than if 20 or 100 categories are available. This makes variety as a standalone factor a weak measurement of diversity.

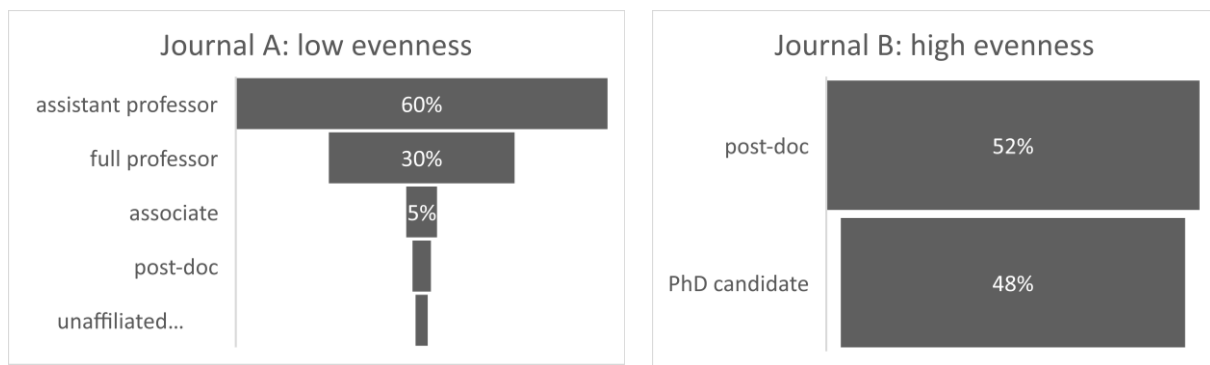
Table 2 Example of variety as a property of diversity

	Journal A: high variety	Journal B: low variety
Full professor		✓
Associate professor	✓	✓
Assistant professor	✓	
Post-doctoral researcher	✓	
PhD candidate	✓	
Unaffiliated researcher	✓	
Quantified level of variety	83%	33%

This is why it is useful to use evenness as a second parameter to put the values for variety into perspective. **Evenness** concerns the number of items, aspects, or people that a journal features per type, as well as the gap between these types in terms of their relative presence. For the example of academic ranks, this would refer to how many authors there are per rank and the relative size of these groups. This relative size also refers to the size of the gaps between the largest and the smallest group and between the largest and second largest group. The larger these gaps are, the lower the value of evenness. One possible pattern of low evenness would be if there is one large group and many considerably smaller ones. Another possible pattern would be a small number of large groups and a large gap between these and the remaining groups.

Figure 2 illustrates this: Journal A, the example of low variety, demonstrates a proportion in which 60% of all authors belong to the same category, 30% to another, and 10% to the remaining three categories. In addition, the gaps between the first and the second category (30%) and between the second and the third (15%) are both considerably large. Journal B, the example for high evenness, demonstrates an almost perfectly even distribution of authors across the two available categories. This illustrates that a journal can have a high value for variety but a low one for evenness – that is, these two measures are independent of each other. Taking both values into consideration makes it possible to assess a journal’s diversity. This example would result in the conclusion that, while authors of a larger variety of ranks are represented in journal A, 90% of all authors belong to only two types of rank. Journal B, in comparison, is much less diverse in the composition of its authorship, but those two types of rank are almost equally represented. This does not mean that evenness by definition trumps the value of variety, but it is necessary to consider both properties in order to be able to make meaningful observations about the overall level of diversity.

Figure 2 Example for evenness as a parameter of diversity

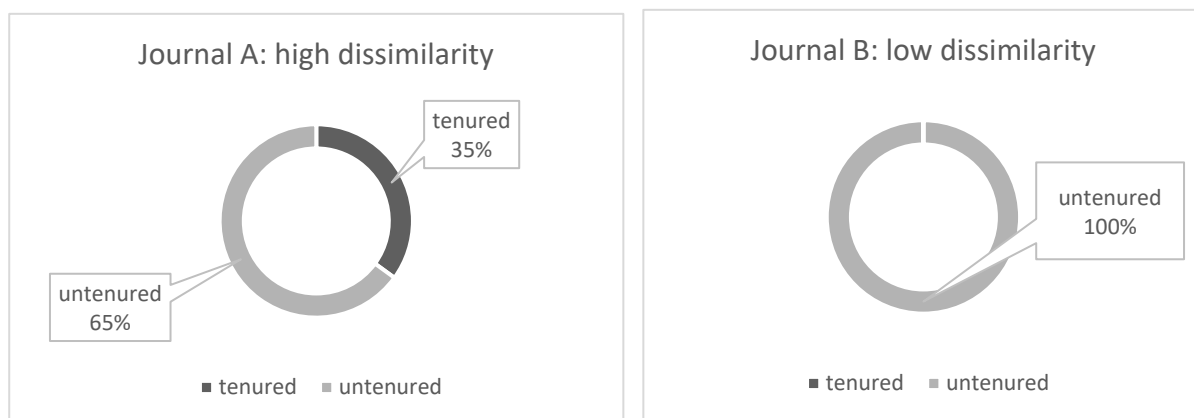


Furthermore, this example is a reminder that all values of evenness need to be put into perspective through comparison to a standard value. For this example, the standard value would be the general evenness of ranks in IR. A comparison would indicate whether the journals' values are unusually high or low or whether their low or high values are no more than an equal representation of the discipline at large. Consequentially, the choice of a standard value for the comparison has direct consequences for the interpretation of the findings, which is why this standard value should be chosen with care. Additionally, there is occasionally no standard value available. Nevertheless, whenever a meaningful standard is available, it should be taken into consideration to strengthen a study's validity.

Dissimilarity is an additional parameter of diversity that allows one to zoom in on the relative presence of an aspect that is of interest for one's research question. It is intended to assess how many of the items, aspects, or people identified for the evenness and variety measurements belong to a larger category. For the example of rank, these larger categories could be tenured and untenured authors, if one is investigating the representation of senior scholars in IR journals. A journal would then have high similarity if it features articles from both tenured and untenured authors. Dissimilarity has its own evenness aspect because how evenly the authors are distributed across the additional categories is also of interest. The presence of all values is the first sign of high dissimilarity (comparable to the measurement of variety). The second sign of high dissimilarity would be that not only are all categories present, but the category with the highest relevance to the research question is represented to a significant degree (comparable to the measurement of evenness).

Figure 3 illustrates this point. Journal A demonstrates a high degree of dissimilarity in this context because it features both tenured and untenured authors. Journal B, in contrast, features only post-doctoral researchers and PhD candidates and thus has no tenured authors at all. Furthermore, one can assess that the ratio of untenured to tenured authors is 65% to 35% for Journal A, which is not an equal distribution but is possibly an adequate distribution in comparison to a standard value. Finally, the two largest groups of authors – assistant and full professors – each belong to one of the two types, which is another indicator of high dissimilarity. The reason why a chosen distinction may prove useful and meaningful largely depends on a study’s topic and research question. Consequently, it sometimes makes no sense to add this parameter because there are no meaningfully dissimilar categories. All in all, the parameter dissimilarity adds another layer of research context to the evaluation of diversity and allows one to zoom in on aspects that are of particular relevance to the argumentation of individual research projects.

Figure 3 Example of dissimilarity as a parameter of diversity



To summarize, the threefold conceptualization of diversity presented above allows one to assess a journal’s diversity according to the following three questions:

Variety: How many types of a certain aspect does a journal feature (for example, number of academic ranks)?

Evenness: How many items or people per type does a journal feature, and how large are the gaps between types in terms of their relative presence (for example, the number of authors featured per academic rank and the relative presence of each rank)?

Dissimilarity: How many of the items or people belong to a larger category based on their types (for example, academic ranks with tenure)?

Taken together, these properties allow for an individual assessment of a journal's diversity. Given the fact that each assessment is linked to a distinct standard value and relates to a distinct context, it is undesirable to quantify the influence of each parameter based on the total degree of diversity per journal; that is, the relative influence of each parameter varies across cases and is a qualitative assessment of a total picture rather than the sum of a calculation.

As indicated above, the literature on global IR commonly regards variety (therein described as plurality) as the most central aspect of diversity; thus, the argument is that the mere presence of a broad range of alternatives creates diversity. The other two aspects of diversity – evenness and dissimilarity – are generally only discussed under normative considerations. For example, it is argued that certain groups of authors (typically US-based or Western authors) dominate the discipline due to their sheer size. This argument is a consideration of evenness in that it points to the imbalance in group sizes with regard to authors. Using the term dominance prevents the possibility of conceptualizing and eventually measuring the situation at some distance from the normative debate surrounding the term dominance. The same applies to the concept of dissimilarity, as discussed above: Authors in the global IR debate criticize the field, stating that Western authors dominate it, but they fail to show how the contributions of authors from outside the West would enrich it. The concept of dissimilarity provides a dimension that can be used for the assessment of the status quo in IR journals without the need to answer this question. In brief, the threefold conceptualization allows me to assess the field's diversity without the normative baggage of other concepts and in a manner that allows for clear operationalization.

3.1.2 Dominance

Although dominance is one of the most frequently occurring terms in the literature on global IR, a clear definition of what authors mean when using the term is absent, with some minor exceptions, as I have discussed above. Based on my threefold conceptualization of diversity, I expect dominance to be linked to low levels of evenness and/or dissimilarity. For example, low geographical authorship evenness could be a sign of the dominance of authors affiliated with institutions in a single country or a small number of countries. If such a single country happens to be the journal's host country, one could even speak of insularity (cp. Maliniak et al. 2018). The same applies to a journal with a low geographical content evenness due to a strong focus on its host region. In order to qualify as dominance, a country of affiliation would need to be among the top countries in journals based in a variety of regions (e.g., all three of the regions under study in this dissertation). Similarly, a journal with low geographical authorship dissimilarity could be regarded as dominated by authors based in the global North, meaning that there might be a number of countries of affiliation that are relatively well represented in that journal but that they belong to a similar group of countries, which reduces its overall diversity.

I argue that variety does not actually play a role in the identification of patterns of dominance, although other contributors to global IR literature have used low variety almost as a synonym for dominance. This logic fails, however, for the example at hand, since many countries of affiliation could be represented by only one or two authors, while one or several others are represented by hundreds (low evenness). Furthermore, all well-presented countries could belong to the same larger category of global North/South (low dissimilarity).

The same reasoning applies to all other aspects of diversity. Since this thesis is exploratory in character, and it is the first time that this conceptualization is applied, I abstain from any judgments concerning dominance in the context of individual case studies. However, to complete the overall picture, I discuss possible patterns of dominance based on these constellations of low evenness/dissimilarity in the comparative chapter (Chapter 4.4).

3.2 Areas of investigation

The threefold conceptualization can be applied to any aspect of diversity that is relevant to journal communication and, in an adapted form, to any investigation into diversity. I restrict my analysis to three aspects of diversity: geographic, thematic, and theoretical diversity. These three aspects fit this study because they are reoccurring topics in the literature on global IR, to which my dissertation contributes. This is best reflected by the most recent TRIP publication, in which Maliniak et al. (2018) also investigate the discipline using a similar approach. As also discussed in the literature review, Gläser and Aman (2017) have previously investigated geographic diversity on a small scale for the case of IR. I adopt the approach used in their investigation into geographic authorship diversity, which I, like Gläser and Aman, operationalize as the countries in which authors are located.¹⁵ In addition, I broaden their approach, which was restricted to the meta-elements of journal communication, by also investigating the content dimension of geography, which I operationalize as the regions under study in a journal's articles. In addition to these geographic aspects, my study covers journals' thematic content diversity, which I operationalize as the issue areas under study in articles, and theoretical content diversity, which I operationalize as the theoretical approaches that authors advance and discuss.

In brief, my study covers the following four aspects of diversity:

1. Geographical authorship diversity,
2. Geographical content diversity,
3. Thematic content diversity, and

¹⁵ Gläser and Aman (2017) also looked at journals' audiences, editorship, and citation patterns. I am leaving these three elements aside to focus my attention on authorship and audience because these three elements require an additional data collection strategy, which would go beyond the scope of this dissertation.

4. Theoretical content diversity.

Geographical authorship diversity refers to the countries where the institutions with which the authors of a journal were affiliated at the time of writing are located. To put it simply, it covers where the authors of a journal come from.¹⁶ This location is a central motif in the global IR debate. On the one hand, it is claimed that authors from specific locations are underrepresented. On the other hand, regional and national schools are a reoccurring theme in this literature. With regard to the latter, it is relevant to investigate whether journals feature authors located in the same country or region more frequently than others. It is also relevant to assess whether authors in the US really publish extremely broadly, as has been intensely debated in the past. Finally, it is relevant to investigate not only whether single countries and regions are more or less represented in journals but also whether authors from “non-Western” countries are part of the authorship, as their engagement in the discipline is presented as a condition for global IR.

Geographical content diversity refers to the regions studied in a journal. This aspect is relevant since global IR literature is also concerned with the claim that evidence for IR publication is often drawn from Western Europe and North America but seldom from the global South. This claim is particularly directed at the large journal published in these regions. Publications located in the global South, in contrast, are often regarded as outlets for local scholarship on the region. My study investigates these claims. The study of this aspect suggests, on the one hand, that empirical evidence is not sufficiently drawn from all world regions. On the other hand, it allows an investigation into whether articles in journals pay more attention to the regions in which the journals are located. If so, this suggests a high degree of introspection (i.e., looking inward).

Thematic content diversity refers to the issue areas – or, broadly speaking, topics – featured in a journal. The largest relevance of this aspect for the global IR debate is whether global South journals cover the same number of topics and whether they study them with the same relative emphasis as journals located in the US or Western Europe. This question is relevant due to claims that this is not the case and that journals located in the latter two regions tend to be more generalist. Since no meaningful broader categorization of dissimilar topics is possible, this aspect is only measured with regard to the properties variety and evenness.

Finally, **theoretical content diversity** refers to the theoretical approaches, advanced or otherwise, discussed in a journal. This aspect relates directly to debates on global theoretical pluralism and “non-Western” IR theories. Global theoretical pluralism involves the questions of what theoretical approaches

¹⁶ “Come from” in the context of this dissertation always refers to the location of professional activity, not the place of birth.

are most commonly used where and whether there are hubs for specific approaches. It is a common assumption, both within and beyond the global IR debate, that theorizing in general is of little concern in global South communities. My study investigates whether that is the case for the global South journals under investigation. The debate on “non-Western” IR relates to questions of whether there exists something like non-Western IR theorizing in global South journals, and, if so, where it is published. My study can only illustrate the latter and makes no claims about the general existence of non-Western IR theories. It would be expected, however, that non-Western IR theories are more common in global South journals than in those published in the United States and Western Europe.

Based on these four aspects and the three properties, I develop a detailed picture of each journal’s diversity. Table 3 provides a summary of all of these definitions.

Table 3 Summary of the conceptual framework for the study of journal diversity

	Variety	Evenness	Dissimilarity
Definition	The number of types of items, aspects, or people of a certain aspect featured by a journal.	The relative presence of a type of people in a journal or the relative intensity with which items or aspects are being studied.	The presence and relative intensity/presence of dissimilar items, aspects, or people in a journal.

3.3 Operationalization

3.3.1 The 2014 TRIP faculty survey¹⁷

I make use of the 2014 TRIP survey distributed among IR scholars to obtain benchmark values for what to expect from the journals based on the reported research practices of global and local response groups (i.e., home country or region of journals).¹⁸ The survey is not an ideal representation of the discipline, but it is the most useful measurement available in IR and overall provides a rather unique dataset on the sociology of this discipline. The TRIP project conducts a periodic survey among IR scholars concerning their teaching and research practices, as well as their views on the discipline and foreign policy issues. Beginning with just one country (the US) in 2004 and expanding to 20 countries in 2011, the TRIP project further broadened its outreach in 2014 by surveying scholars in 32 countries¹⁹ and in 10 different languages. In 2014, the survey was sent to 12,222 scholars, of which 5,148 responded, for a response rate of 42.1% and a margin of error of +/- 1.0%. Scholars were identified either by the TRIP

¹⁷ The description of the TRIP survey that follows has previously been published in Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016 (pp. 4-5).

¹⁸ A large selection of responses to the 2014 TRIP survey can be found at: <https://trip.wm.edu/charts/>.

¹⁹ Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Mexico, Poland, Singapore, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

principal investigators or local partners, using systematic web searches, emails, and communications with academic departments and individual faculty members. To qualify for the survey, a scholar must either teach or research topics that cross international borders and have an active affiliation with a college or university in a political science department, international relations program, research unit, policy school, or the closest local equivalent. Scholars of economics, sociology, law, or other disciplines were not included unless their research explicitly addressed questions concerning international politics. In certain cases, scholars employed in the government, the private sector, or think tanks were included based on the recommendation of local country partners if those institutions were deemed integral to the academic discipline of IR as defined in that national context. Local partners also provided guidance on the cultural and institutional practices of IR within different national/regional contexts and were consulted on the exclusion or reformulation of culturally and/or politically sensitive questions (for example, questions about age, political orientation, and gender identity may be socially appropriate in some local contexts but not in others).

In total, the survey included more than 100 questions, divided into five sections: two concerned respondents' teaching and research practices, a third focused on opinions about the discipline, and a fourth section covered contemporary foreign policy issues. For this dissertation, I only use the questions about respondents' research practices and their opinions of the discipline. While respondents in all countries received the same questions in sections one to four, a fifth section was dedicated to country-specific questions and varied considerably across countries. While the first four sections were curated by the principal TRIP investigators at the College of William and Mary, individual country partners were in charge of their respective fifth sections. The global questions were selected for inclusion based on several criteria, including whether they had been used in previous surveys or whether they addressed emerging practices or debates in the discipline. Additionally, country partners and researchers with relevant projects were invited to suggest questions. A more detailed explanation of the methodology can be found in Maliniak et al. (2011).²⁰

3.3.2 Journal content analysis and benchmark values

The data on diversity and dominance presented in this chapter needs to be understood as an exploratory study. The study is intended as a proof of concept of the threefold definition of diversity presented in Chapter 2, as well as a conversation-opener about the broader topic on an empirical level. It aims to answer the following question: "How geographically, thematically, and theoretically diverse are IR journal publications?" I approach this question by means of a content analysis of IR articles

²⁰ For a critique of TRIP's survey methodology, see Goldgeier 2012. Goldgeier's main critique concerns the survey's lack of interdisciplinarity based on the observation that it primarily covers the views of political scientists while asking questions that cannot be answered by political scientists alone.

published in journals edited in North America (IO, ISQ, and APSR), Latin America (FI and EI), and Europe (EJIR and BJPOLS). The 2014 TRIP survey and WoS data on authorship diversity serve as benchmarks for the findings of this content analysis. Furthermore, in the comparative chapter (Chapter 4.4), I relate my findings on diversity to potential patterns of dominance and related questions on the perception of dominance based on the 2014 TRIP survey.

The study can only be exploratory because the entire field has only been vaguely studied thus far, as normative contributions to the topic are more common. Furthermore, the data sources used for this study and the manner in which I use them give rise to some problems, which result in the exploratory character of the study. First, the survey data relies on the perception of scholars, which typically come with methodological problems. A first risk is that the respondents did not understand the questions in the way in which the researchers intended them, and the second risk that the researcher (myself, in this case) did not interpret the responses in the way in which the respondents intended them. The survey data, therefore, needs to be treated with care. Second, the journal content data, which I use for this study, was collected based on a codebook that was not originally designed for this study. While I designed some of the variables (see below), most of the definitions date back to the early 2000s, when the TRIP team at William and Mary started the project. This is particularly problematic when it comes to the measurement of theoretical diversity. The categories for this variable are actually excessively vague for a measurement of theoretical diversity, as I discuss in more detail below and throughout the entirety of Chapter 4. Therefore, any conclusions that I draw in this regard need to be checked with the help of an improved codebook in the future. The measurement of geographical content diversity is also problematic in light of pre-constructed regions that might overshadow finer or overlapping geographical patterns.

Third, this study only investigates seven journals and lacks a more varied geographical selection of journals. While this is the first study on this topic that includes several non-English-language journals (two in this chapter and another one in Chapter 5) and compares them directly to findings concerning some of the leading journals of the field, it also lacks many such journals, for example those from Asia, North Africa, the Middle East, or Eastern Europe. The study is therefore also considered exploratory because it is restricted in its scope. Finally, this study is only exploratory because it solely relies on descriptive statistics. More advanced quantitative analyses and qualitative interviews would be necessary to exploit and enrich the presented data to a greater degree. Nevertheless, this research has the potential to provide insights compelling enough to spark further and more detailed research on the topic.

I operationalize²¹ my threefold conceptualization of diversity by measuring the *variety*, *evenness*, and *dissimilarity* of each of the seven journals' authorship and content based on the TRIP article dataset (version 3.0) and the Global Pathways dataset (version 1.0).²² The data for both datasets was collected by research assistants under the guidance of TRIP and Global Pathways principal investigators and project managers. The research assistants were intensively trained before starting the coding and followed the rules specified in the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook.²³ Each of the articles was coded by two independent research assistants and arbitrated by a senior coder.

I evaluate each of the three properties of diversity using a scale with the values high, medium, and low. I do not use fixed parameters or set percentage values for the measurement of each of these values; rather, I regard them as summaries of a qualitative interpretation of each individual aspect of diversity. Nevertheless, I hold the values stable for all three case studies in order to compare them in Sub-chapter 4.4. As a means of increasing the reliability of my interpretations, I compare the journal content data for each of the properties and areas of investigation to one or several benchmark values. For all areas of investigation, I compare the journal data to TRIP survey questions about the same topic area. For the measurement of geographical authorship diversity, I also compare my findings concerning the size of author groups from specific countries to their estimated community sizes based on the samples created for the 2014 TRIP survey. Finally, I compare the geographical authorship data to the authorship distributions displayed by all of the IR journals included in the WoS. By doing so, I gain a greater appreciation of how off or relative the distributions of authors across countries are in comparison to the wider (indexed) discipline. I use all benchmark values to judge whether a journal is relatively more or less diverse, also taking into account the fact that the benchmark values can display high, medium, or low levels of diversity. For each case study, I discuss the average values of all journals under study for both the respective case and the individual journals. The values may differ across journals to such a degree that I distinguish their high-medium-low levels from each other in the final evaluation.

I do not study patterns of dominance separately for any of the single case studies, but I turn to this topic in the comparative Sub-chapter (4.4); that is, only when broader patterns of dominance can be observed do I comment on them and embed them into larger conclusions. For all patterns of dominance, low

²¹ Much of the following section borrows original text from the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook, which is attached to this dissertation (see pages 212f.). Most of the original language from this codebook is not mine, but was written by the TRIP principal investigators Daniel Maliniak, Ryan Powers, Susan Peterson, and Michael Tierney. In favor of readability and with the express permission of the codebook's authors, I do not use quotation marks whenever I quote from the codebook.

²² While the analysis of the two Latin American journals technically belong to the Global Pathways dataset, they were coded following the rules of a codebook that was only slightly adapted from the original TRIP codebook. The Global Pathways data on German IR used in Chapter 5 was collected with the already reworked Global Pathways codebook (see Preface).

²³ Find the complete codebook text for the variables presented here on pages 212ff. in the appendix.

evenness usually in combination with low dissimilarity but also each of them separately is taken as a sign of dominance. This may not prove to be correct in all cases.

Geographic authorship diversity²⁴

I measure a journal's geographical authorship *variety* as the number of countries of affiliation it publishes. For this purpose, I use the "author affiliation country" variable from the TRIP/Global Pathways journal article dataset. For this variable, the countries of all institutional affiliations (e.g., universities and colleges) were coded. I count every country equally; that is, I do not make any distinction with regard to whether an article is co-authored or not. For example, an article authored by two scholars based at a Danish institution and one based at a Brazilian institution would mean two counts for Denmark and one for Brazil. Information on author affiliations is typically noted on a journal article's front page. Coders could therefore extract this information directly from the article and enter it into a database. Whenever the data was not available through an article, the coders searched for the respective biographical information on the Internet, for example on authors' institutional or professional websites. The greater the number of countries of affiliation present in a journal, the higher its geographical authorship variety.

As discussed in Chapter 2, geographical *evenness* is the relative presence of authors affiliated with institutions based in different countries in a journal. By measuring this second property of diversity, I avoid a pitfall of several earlier studies on this topic, which, from my perspective, mistook a large number of countries of affiliation as actual diversity, while many of the present countries were only represented by one or two authors and the largest countries were represented by hundreds of them. In order to capture this, I calculate the "author affiliation_country" data for the relative number (in percentage) of authors per country of affiliation. This demonstrates how balanced the distribution of authors across the countries of affiliation is. The gaps between the sizes of countries of affiliation are important measures for the value of geographical authorship evenness. I also assess how many authors belong to the same three, and sometimes five, most represented countries. The smaller the gaps and the smaller the size of these top groups – thus, the more evenly distributed the authors – the higher the geographical authorship evenness.

Since this dissertation is embedded into a discussion of global IR, I measure the geographical *dissimilarity* with reference to countries of affiliations as belonging to the global North (i.e., member countries of the Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD]) and the global South. I do so because scholars based at global South universities are generally regarded as being underrepresented in IR (see Tickner 2013; Acharya 2014). An interesting fact about my case selection

²⁴ Find a list of all original survey question referred to in this and the following sections on pages 243ff. in the appendix.

in this regard is that Latin America counts as the global South and that the two Latin American journals are therefore likely to have a great number of global South scholars in the form of affiliates of Latin American universities and colleges. The important aspect in this regard is to determine whether these journals have a high level of dissimilarity due to the high portion of global North scholars, thus creating a mix of scholars from both world regions. My measurement of dissimilarity also takes into account categorizations within these world regions. An example would be a differentiation between UK-based scholars and those affiliated with universities in continental Europe or between scholars of Latin America and the rest of the global South. In short, the more mixed a journal's authorship is in terms of global South and North, as well as the variety of countries within each of these world regions, the higher its geographical authorship dissimilarity.

Table 4 Operationalization of geographical authorship diversity

Variety	Number of countries of affiliation
Evenness	Proportion of articles per country of affiliation ²⁵
Dissimilarity	The relative mix of authors located in both the global South and North

As benchmark values for this measurement, I use the sizes of the country samples collected for the 2014 TRIP survey and authorship data of all IR journals in the WoS for the same period of investigation as the content analysis (2005-2014). Although there is always a power dynamic in who can publish where, these community sizes matter because they are helpful in putting the relative presence of certain communities into perspective and demonstrating how many scholars per country could potentially have contributed to the journals. The sample comprises 32 countries based in almost all world regions. A greater number of IR scholars exists worldwide than that included in this sample. However, for those countries in the sample, the respective number should include all IR scholars active per country.

Since the number of countries in the TRIP sample (variety) was fixed and could be larger or smaller, it does not serve as a useful benchmark for geographical authorship variety. Instead, I have created a benchmark dataset of all countries of affiliation represented in all research articles published in IR journals listed in the WoS' *Social Science Citations Index* (SSCI) for the period of investigation. In total, the dataset includes 23,759 articles and an even greater number of authors published in 86 journals.²⁶ The variety of countries of affiliation is naturally high due to the large number of different journals

²⁵ For example: the percentage of articles authored by authors from the top-three countries

²⁶ I relied on the WoS category "International Relations" to identify the journals but excluded some journals because of their specific specialization. These include: *Marine Policy*, *Washington Quarterly*, *Bulletin of Atomic Scientists*, *Communist and post-communist studies*, *Latin American Politics and Society*, *Space Policy*, *Korea Observer*, and *North Korean Review*.

included in the dataset. That also means that it does not serve as an absolute comparison for the journals under study because any single journal would not appear diverse in comparison to such a large selection. Nevertheless, it serves as an illustration of how varied the discipline can be. I express the relative likeness of a journal to the WoS benchmark as the journal's number of countries of affiliation divided by the number of countries represented by the benchmark.²⁷

Geographic content diversity

In addition to where authors are located, I measure which regions are being studied. I base the measurement of this aspect on the variable "region under study" from the TRIP/Global Pathways journal article dataset. The variable captures whether an article specifically employs evidence from a particular region or country/countries within that region. If more than one region is mentioned, each region is coded. If the study concerns all regions of the world (such as an article about total IMF lending) and does not make references to particular regions/countries, it is coded as global. If an article is coded as "global" because it features a large study that includes a large number of regions, contains a case study, or otherwise focuses on regions in greater depth, particular regions are still coded. If an article's theory claims to explain all global phenomena but only selects evidence for specific countries/regions, the values for the variables pertaining to those specific regions are coded. However, if an article claims to explain all cases of human rights regimes and gathers data on the entire population of human rights regimes, we code this as "global," even if there has never been a human rights regime in East Asia or Antarctica. Similarly, if the study intends to be global in nature but data limitations restrict the number of regions covered (e.g., there is no reliable data on infant mortality in Oceania), it is still coded as "global." The goal here is not to arbitrarily limit the designation "global" based on the distribution of data over certain topics. If a researcher's sample is indeed global and he or she selects cases for analysis from all regions if they are available, the article is coded as "global." If an article focuses on the foreign policy behavior of actor X in country Y, the regions of both countries are coded. If an article does not refer to any region or country – usually because it deals with a topic at a theoretical level – then the variable is coded as none/hypothetical.

The variable captures the following regions:²⁸

²⁷ Gläser and Aman (2017) used a similar benchmark value and found that no journal had a variety level higher than 22% in comparison to their WoS value.

²⁸ The categorization of any of these regions is based on a social construction of what a region is, and which countries belong together. Leaving aside that the US is not a region but a country, there are two especially problematic categorizations embedded into this classification: The decision to categorize Canada together with Western Europe and the historically difficult category FSU/Eastern Europe. The authors of the TRIP codebook decided to combine Canada and Western Europe in one category after they consulted an expert in geography who argued that these two were closer in their geo-political approaches than, for example, the US and Canada (source: conversation with Michael Tierney). Even so, for this study it is problematic to have these two together because of the way my case studies are structured: North America with journals edited in the US and Canada and Europe with journals edited in Europe. When looking at whether authors published in a regional journal study the journal's

- US
- Canada and Western Europe
- Latin America (including Mexico)
- Sub-Saharan Africa
- FSU/Soviet Union/Eastern Europe, including Central Asian states, with the exception of Afghanistan
- Middle East/North Africa
- East Asia (including China)
- South Asia (including Afghanistan)
- Southeast Asia
- Oceania
- Global
- None/purely hypothetical
- Antarctica

Geographical content *variety* is measured as the number of regions under study per journal. As with countries of affiliation, I count every region with equal weight, regardless of whether an article studies one or several regions. The more regions covered, the higher the geographical content variety. The *evenness* for areas of investigation is measured as the relative distribution of articles per region under study per journal. Again, how balanced the most studied regions are in comparison to the rest and the size of the gaps between measures of the single regions are important. The smaller these gaps and the fewer the number of articles that are concentrated on the most studied regions, the higher the geographical content evenness. I measure the geographical content dissimilarity of journals in the same way as for countries of affiliation (i.e., global North vs. South, as well as some smaller groupings within these world regions); that is, the more mixed the journals are in terms of studying both global South and North regions, and potentially a variety of countries within these world regions, the higher their geographical content dissimilarity.

Table 5 Operationalization of geographical content diversity

Variety	Number of regions under study
Evenness	Portion of number of articles per region under study
Dissimilarity	The relative mix of regions under study located in the Global South and North

region becomes difficult in this case because the coding is not split up in single countries i.e., it is impossible to say whether an article is about Canada or any Western European countries. A similar problem arises in the context of the FSU/Eastern Europe category: countries that now belong to the European Union (Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary etc.) are lumped together with today's Russia. Consequentially, it is impossible to say when the article is looking at core European countries and when it is not. Nevertheless, this variable provides valuable insights into journals' geographical diversity on the content dimension which is why I am using the data regardless of these flaws and will instead discuss any specific issues that arise from using it in the respective situation. See the respective sections of the codebook in the appendix (pp. 222ff.) for the information about which region contains which countries according to the codebook.

I use two related values as benchmarks for this area of investigation: 1) the global average of all responses to the 2014 TRIP survey, and 2) the locally appropriate (North American, Latin American, and European) survey averages for questions about the main and additional regions studied by respondents. While the first question allows for only one response, the second allows for multiple responses. I counted all responses together since this method comes closest to the way in which the regions were coded and counted for the journal analysis. The original construction of the regions for the survey was slightly different than that used for the journal, which is why I have aggregated them to fit the journal codebook as well as was possible.²⁹ What was impossible, for example, was aggregating the survey regions in a way that reconstructs the codebook value “Western Europe/Canada,” as the survey asked respondents about “North America” and “Western Europe”. I comment on this whenever this divergence becomes problematic for the comparison of the benchmark and journal data. Furthermore, the survey data includes a value for “transnational actors/international organizations/international non-governmental organizations,” which did not fit any of the codebook values. For this reason, I excluded the corresponding percentages from the analysis.

Thematic content diversity³⁰

The measurement for thematic diversity is based on the two TRIP/Global Pathways variables “issue area” and “substantive focus.” Issue area is a nominal variable and includes the following sub-fields of IR: international security, international political economy (IPE), human rights, the environment, health, IR theory, US foreign policy, comparative foreign policy, history of the IR discipline, philosophy of science, and international law. In addition to values for issue areas within IR, the codebook lists values for other sub-fields of political science in order to make it possible to track non-IR articles in IR journals. The value of this variable reflects the primary issue area to which an article contributes and is primarily determined by its dependent variable. If more than one issue area is specifically addressed in a substantive manner, the coders choose the most prominent issue area.

²⁹ See the original and the aggregated list of regions under study on pages 250ff. in the appendix.

³⁰ There are some variables that are part of the TRIP/Global Pathways dataset that I chose not to use. The most pertinent of them are epistemology and methodology. The epistemology variable in the TRIP dataset has the following values: positivist and non-positivist/post-positivist. From my experience with supervising and training coders, I know how hard it is for them to code this variable, especially for the two Latin American journals. This is not so much the coders' fault as it is caused by a misfit between the intention of what the variable was set up for and the reality of academic journal articles, which are more often than not a mix of positivist/empiricist and non-positivist/empiricist elements. The classification of positivist and non-positivist/post-positivist is already problematic in and of itself because positivism is something other than what is being measured with this variable (cf. Wemheuer-Vogelaar and Risse 2018). The results that come out of coding this variable are thus not reliable due to this uncertainty. A valid judgment about the epistemological diversity of journal articles with this data is therefore impossible. The new Global Pathways codebook (see appendix and Chapter 5) does not list this variable anymore.

The codebook for this variable contains the following values:

- International Security
- International political economy
- Human rights
- Environment
- Health
- IR theory
- US foreign policy
- Comparative foreign policy
- History of the IR discipline
- Philosophy of science
- International law
- Other
- General (or non-specific)
- International organization
- Methodology
- Comparative politics
- American politics
- Political theory
- Local foreign policy (i.e., the foreign policy of a Latin American country)
- Local domestic politics (i.e., the domestic politics of a Latin American country)³¹

Since “issue area” is a nominal measure and can therefore have only one value, it is not sufficient to provide a detailed impression of an article’s theme due to the fact that there is much more to an article than its main object of explanation or description. For this reason, the TRIP codebook contains the variable “substantive focus,” which I use as my second measurement of thematic diversity. This variable covers all of the topics discussed in a substantive manner in an article on both the sides of the independent and the dependent variable(s). Substantive foci can therefore cover aspects in addition to issue areas; for example, a study of the World Health Organization would be coded as “international organization” for issue area and as “public health/infectious disease” for substantive focus. There is no

³¹ The last two values were only coded for the two Latin American journals. I added these two values to the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook in 2013. This extension was made necessary by the fact that the original codebook defines “Comparative Foreign Policy” as referring to articles which compare the foreign policy processes of different states (i.e., the classical definition of the term), but also to articles which analyze the foreign policies of any state other than the US. Consequentially, every article coded as “Comparative Foreign Policy” was also coded for an additional binary variable deciding whether it is really about comparative foreign policy (i.e., even if regarding two Latin American countries) or whether it is about the foreign policy of one Latin American country. If the value for this additional variable was ‘yes’, the value “Comparative Foreign Policy” was overwritten in the final integrated TRIP/Global Pathways dataset. Similarly, “Comparative Politics” can refer to articles which compare the domestic phenomena of different states (i.e., the classical definition of the term), but could also refer to articles which analyze the domestic politics of any state other than the US. The procedure should the latter be the case and that the other state lies in Latin America is the same as for “Comparative Foreign Policy.”

fixed rule concerning how many substantive foci should be coded per article, but the standard guideline communicated in coders' trainings is three to five. For my measurement, I counted all substantive foci equally, disregarding how many were coded per article (i.e., the journal is the unit of analysis). Since there are a great many substantive foci, I aggregated them into broader themes, which in turn fall under the following list of issue areas:

- **Security/peace and war:** interstate war, interstate conflict, interstate crisis, balance of power, humanitarian Intervention or peace-keeping, terrorism, alliances, bargaining/deterrence strategy, WMD proliferation, and weapon systems
- **Global governance/international organization:** international governmental organizations, international regimes, regional integration, international law, and environment
- **International Political Economy:** trade, economic interdependence, development, foreign aid, and sanctions
- **Foreign Policy:** foreign policy and diplomacy
- **Domestic politics:** domestic politics, regime type, public opinion, non-governmental organizations, and ethnicity
- **Other:** study of the IR discipline, migration, gender, and other

The thematic *variety* of a journal depends on the number of issue areas and substantive foci its articles cover. The more of each they cover, the higher the thematic variety. Since there a fixed number of possible issue areas and substantive foci are specified in the codebook and it is less likely that each journal should cover each value at least once than for a region under study, I provide the percentage of issue areas and substantive foci cover as an additional indicator. The higher this percentage, the higher the thematic variety. Thematic *evenness* is measured in the same way as the other two values of evenness; that is, it is based on the sizes of the gaps between issues areas/substantive foci and the concentration of the most studied topics. The smaller the gaps and the lower the concentration at the top, the higher the thematic evenness.

As with most values in this dissertation, it is difficult to say what makes subjects so distinct from each other in terms of dissimilarity. In this case, I look at how balanced the articles are in terms of distribution across the aggregated groups of substantive foci because they represent broad specializations within and beyond IR; that is, the more mixed the articles are based on their adherence to these aggregated groups and the more intensely dissimilar issue areas are covered by the journals, the higher their thematic dissimilarity.

Table 6 Operationalization of thematic content diversity

Variety	Number of issue areas; number of individual substantive foci
Evenness	Proportion of number of articles per issue area; proportion of number of articles per aggregated group of substantive foci
Dissimilarity	The presence of and relative intensity with which topics belonging to different aggregated groups are being studied

The benchmark values for the thematic diversity of journals are the local and global averages for the TRIP survey question about respondents' main research area within IR. As for issue areas, more values were included on the survey than in the codebook, so I aggregated the values accordingly.³² Since a relatively large number of main research areas did not fit the issue areas in the codebook (including European integration), the category "other" was found to be disproportionately large. I comment on this in the analysis of the data whenever necessary.

Theoretical content diversity

The third aspect of content diversity that I consider in this study is theoretical diversity. Its central measurement is based on the variable "paradigm advanced," specified in the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook. This variable contains the following values:³³

- Realist
- Liberal
- Marxist
- Constructivist
- Non-paradigmatic
- Atheoretical/none

Since "paradigm advanced" is a nominal variable, I also consider the coding outcomes for the variable "paradigm taken seriously." This variable captures the theoretical approaches that are discussed in a serious manner in an article – that is, which of them are treated as alternative explanations, used to derive testable hypotheses, or used to frame the research question. The values are the same as those listed above, with the difference that the value "atheoretical" is substituted by "nothing taken seriously." This variable can have as many values as apply, but with one exception: The variables "advanced" and "taken seriously" (as an alternative) cannot both be coded simultaneously. This also means that variations of and debates within one approach (e.g., a debate between neoliberal and sociological institutionalism, with both being coded Liberal) cannot be expressed by this variable. The exception is non-paradigmatic, meaning that different non-paradigmatic approaches can be coded as being

³² See p.263 the appendix for a table comparing the original and the aggregated values.

³³ See p.262 of the appendix for the coding rules for each of these values.

discussed in one article. I use this additional variable to present a broader picture of which theories are recognized as influential in the journals under study and to determine which journals typically take several approaches into account and which do not.

Since the values for both variables cover so many different types and levels of theoretical reasoning – ranging from the IR theory realism to the ontology Constructivism – I refer to these values more generally as theoretical approaches instead of using TRIP’s original wording, “paradigm.”³⁴ However, it is necessary to consider this original term due to the value “non-paradigmatic,” which contains all of the theoretical approaches that do not fall under any of the four main approaches based on how IR theory is commonly taught (i.e., Realism, Liberalism, Constructivism, and Marxism). Constructivism *can* be an approach in and of itself in IR *if* scholars pursue the development of *a* Constructivist theory of IR. According to most scholars and approaches, however, Constructivism is simply an aspect that forms the ontological basis for another theoretical approach. Sociological institutionalism and securitization are two approaches that could fall under Constructivism, but they also touch upon Liberalism or could fall under non-paradigmatic. Whether these fine lines between approaches, especially in the case of institutionalism, were detected by coders may be doubtful, as the codebook does not directly address this issue.³⁵ The codebook does specify that another institutionalist approach, neoliberal institutionalism, falls under the category Liberalism (see footnote 87 in the codebook, p. 223 in the appendix).

Regardless, the values for theoretical approaches in the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook are broad, which becomes problematic for the measurement of variety – the number of theoretical approaches covered by a journal – for three reasons: First, a journal with at least one article under “the big four” and “non-paradigmatic” would already score a perfect degree of variety since this is the maximum that can be reached based on the available values. Second, it cannot be stated how many approaches per journal are concealed behind the catch-all category “non-paradigmatic.” Theoretically, all non-paradigmatic articles in a journal could follow the same additional approach, or each could have a different one. As a non-ideal solution for this problem, I take a large portion of articles that have been coded as non-paradigmatic as an additional sign of high variety. Third, when coding the Latin American

³⁴ The TRIP survey also did not consider these values to be paradigms in the Kuhnian sense but admitted that “some scholars might refer to these categories more narrowly as theories or more broadly as approaches, but we adopt the term most commonly used in the literature to refer to these four major schools of thought.”

³⁵ The codebook does note that “unlike Realism, Liberalism, and Marxism, Constructivism does not suggest any particular substantive model of politics or human behavior. As Adler (2002) explains, constructivism is not “yet another IR ‘ism’, paradigm, or fashion.” Instead, constructivism is a “meta-physical stance, a social theory, and an IR theoretical and empirical perspective.” Hence, constructivism may be less a paradigm or theory of politics than a meta-theoretical approach within which a variety of specific theories could be built. This leaves open the possibility of a “liberal-constructivist” or a “realist-constructivist approach to IR.” (appendix selection of codebook, p. 225. footnote 91)

journals, it was often difficult for coders to distinguish between non-paradigmatic and atheoretical articles because the non-paradigmatic “approaches” in these journals were sometimes unrelated sets of hypotheses, rather than clear-cut approaches, that simply do not fall under any of the “big four,” as was more often the case in the core TRIP journals. These difficulties can only be redeemed by making radical changes to the codebook and adding the possibility of describing “non-paradigmatic”/other theoretical approaches.³⁶

Furthermore, once the Global Pathways project started to apply the TRIP codebook to Latin American journals, it faced the danger of imposing variables and categories tailored to the analysis of “core” journals on a potentially different academic context. However, during the project’s initial trial phase, it was discovered that the theoretical approaches used by TRIP fit the Latin American journals well. In many cases, authors do not call their research Constructivist, for example, but do work under the assumption that the identity of agents and the reality of institutions are socially constructed. Likewise, many authors conceptualize international relations through a Liberalist lens, for example by focusing their attention on the actions of individuals and private groups that organize and exchange goods to promote their own interests, without explicitly engaging with a Liberal paradigm. Perhaps a greater weakness of the codebook than the possibility of being unfit for global South scholarship is the lack of a value for institutionalism, which may prove to be a problem for the interpretation of European scholarship.

Regardless of these weaknesses in the coding scheme, for now, I operationalize theoretical *variety* as the number of theoretical approaches covered by a journal. The more theoretical approaches a journal covers, the higher its theoretical variety. A high number of non-paradigmatic articles can be regarded as an additional sign of variety because this broad category likely contains many more unspecified theoretical approaches. *Evenness* in the context of theoretical diversity refers to the distribution of articles across theoretical approaches, including atheoretic and non-paradigmatic; that is, the smaller the gaps between the different approaches and the lower the concentration of articles in the top approaches, the higher the theoretical evenness.

The measurement of dissimilarity for theories is somewhat challenging, and I solved this in the following two ways: First, as a link to the global IR Debate, I regard articles with non-Western IR theories – that is, theoretical approaches building upon non-Western sources of knowledge – as dissimilar to articles without them. For this purpose, all articles have been coded for the binary variable “local paradigm,” which demonstrates whether the theoretical approach advanced in an article makes use of non-

³⁶ The new Global Pathways codebook used for the analysis of IR in Germany in Chapter 5 does have this possibility, but the data for the comparative case study was collected based on the rules and categories specified in the original codebook, and I used them to produce preliminary findings in the most effective way.

Western sources of knowledge. This variable was not coded for all journals and was also not coded in a homogenous manner. For EI and FI, only local sources with a Latin American context were coded, and, for ISQ, EJIR, and IO, sources with any “non-Western” context (i.e., everything that goes beyond Western European and North American history and culture; cp. Acharya and Buzan 2007) were coded. The variable was not coded at all for either APSR nor BJPoS. An article is coded as “yes” for this variable if its authors either directly refer to their theoretical approach as having such characteristics (e.g., in the approach’s name) or if they do not consciously advocate a new approach but instead base the majority of their theoretical framework on local history, politics, philosophy, culture, religion, and more generally think about international politics with reference to a locally led academic discourse. An empirical example of the application of a mainstream theory does not qualify as an approach with local characteristics. Articles with a completely new non-Western theory are coded as “yes” for this variable and as non-paradigmatic for “paradigm advanced.” If the authors combine non-Western sources with one of the four major approaches, the article is coded as “yes,” and the respective approach is coded for “paradigm advanced.” For this thesis, I do not go into detail concerning which sources of knowledge are relied upon in these journals, as I only take their presence into account. The more articles featuring non-Western theoretical approaches a journal has published, the higher its theoretical dissimilarity.

Since the literature on global IR has indicated that one can expect the overall level of non-Western IR theories to be low, I measure theoretical dissimilarity with an additional measurement: the presence of critical approaches. While the codebook is overly ambiguous when it comes to critical theory – there is no separate value for it – an exploratory investigation into the issue suffices. I regard the presence of a) Marxist and b) Constructivist articles as indicators of critical theorizing. The first category is more straightforward, as all Marxist approaches are explicitly part of the canon of critical IR. This cannot be said of Constructivist articles since these can range from mainstream to radical Constructivism (Checkel 1998), and only the latter can be considered a critical theory. Nevertheless, all Constructivist articles apply an ontology that is radically different from the other approaches in that their authors reject the rationality of actors and instead assume that all norms, values, and identities in IR are socially constructed and the product of inter-actor communication; that is, while not all Constructivist articles are critical, they still constitute as an indicator of dissimilarity due to this radical difference in ontology. To summarize, the higher the relative number of Marxist and Constructivist articles in a journal, the higher its theoretical dissimilarity.

Table 7 Operationalization of theoretical content diversity

Variety	Number of theoretical approaches advanced
Evenness	Relatively number of articles per theoretical approach advanced
Dissimilarity	The relative presence of articles with a) non-Western IR, b) Marxist, and c) Constructivist approaches

Analogous to the last two areas of investigation, I use the local and global survey averages as benchmarks for my findings on theoretical variety and evenness. The survey listed a higher number of theoretical approaches than the codebook; I thus aggregated the survey outcomes to fit the codebook values.³⁷ The only value that was missing entirely from the survey was an equivalent for “atheoretic”; that is, while respondents could say that they do not work with paradigmatic theories, they could not say that they do not use any theories whatsoever. It is logical to assume that the respondents who fall under this category either replied that they do not work with paradigmatic theories or skipped the question. In any case, there is no benchmark value for atheoretic articles.

Both Constructivism and Marxism are covered by the TRIP survey, which means that I can use their relative presence as a benchmark for theoretical dissimilarity as well. There is, however, no question about non-Western theorizing on the survey, and I therefore cannot use it as a benchmark for this aspect of dissimilarity. Based on the anecdotal evidence in global IR literature, I expect to find few non-Western IR theories. In theory, despite this, much more non-Western IR theorizing than expected could exist, since there is enough “raw material” available to construct it (cp. Acharya and Buzan 2010). My standards for this measurement are consequentially lower than for the others due to the expectations established by the literature, but it is still not unrealistic to expect that some non-Western sources may be present in the journals, particularly the two Latin American ones.

3.3.3 Additional survey questions

In the comparative chapter (4.4), I contrast the findings from the individual case studies with an additional set of 2014 TRIP survey questions.³⁸ All of the questions used are operationalizations of Friedrichs’ (2004a) anecdotal evidence about the reproduction of dominance through perception, as discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2. To repeat, Friedrich and others (e.g., Kristensen 2015a) suggest that there is a gap between empirical evidence for dominance in the discipline and IR scholars’ own perception thereof. By bridging the findings from the survey on the perception of scholars and those from my journal content analysis, I can potentially provide an initial impression of how large the gap between journal diversity and perceived dominance is.

The first set of questions that I directly connect to my comparative study on diversity includes a question concerning whether scholars perceive their regional/national scholarship to differ from that of (US) American IR. A second question of this type asks whether scholars consider (US) American IR to be more sophisticated than their regional/national scholarship. Incorporating this aspect into the comparative chapter allows me to put the findings, particularly those concerning the Latin American journals, into

³⁷ See p. 252 in the appendix for a table comparing the original survey and the aggregated values.

³⁸ I previously evaluated this data for the already mentioned article Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016, and an unpublished conference paper co-authored with Nicholas J. Bell for the 2017 WISC conference in Taiwan.

perspective. Regardless of the potential similarity between the types of scholarship published in these journals, it could be the case that Latin American scholars perceive the *quality* of their work differently than others. The third question asks about whether scholars regard it as important to produce local (i.e., regional or national) IR theories. I link these insights to my new findings concerning theoretical content dissimilarity (i.e., the presence and intensity of non-Western IR theorizing in the different journals).

A second set of survey questions deal directly with the perception of dominance. The survey asked respondents how much, on five-point Likert scale, they agreed with the statement “IR is a Western-/American-dominated discipline.” Half of the sample was asked whether IR was a Western-dominated discipline, while the other half was asked about American dominance. In a first comparative step, I conflate the findings for both variations to determine what the general level of perception of IR as a dominated discipline is. In a second step, I distinguish between the two variations in a survey experiment in which respondents were subjected to two different treatments (using Western or American dominance as trigger words). Furthermore, the experiment was designed to test whether IR scholars react differently to the terms “Western” and “American” in the context of dominance. This distinction was motivated by the fact that most studies focus on American dominance alone, and Western dominance is often conflated with it. For example, Turton concludes that IR theory is not suffering from American dominance because of a measurable rise of non-Western IR theories. However, if non-Western theories were the cure for American dominance, what of all of the European influences on IR theorizing? Furthermore, this distinction matters precisely because (Western) Europe is among the dominated in one scenario (American dominance) and perceived as part of the dominating in the other (Western dominance). This aspect is not trivial because (Western) Europe and other non-U.S. IR communities occupy completely different positions of power. What might be perceived as dominance by European scholars could be seen as a desirable position by scholars in Latin American or Asia, who, due to larger language barriers and worse economic and political circumstances in the field of academia, have encountered more problems in participating in the global discipline, especially in the discipline’s core arenas (e.g., highly ranked journals). Their perception of their position in the discipline might thus differ.

3.4 Case selection

The three cases that I compare are organized around three geographical regions based on the journals’ respective locations of editorship (i.e., the university affiliation(s) of the editor(s) in chief during the period of investigation): North America, Latin America, and Europe. North America is an interesting case study for this dissertation because it is North American scholars, more specifically U.S. scholars, who are characterized as the dominant players in the field of international relations. Furthermore, previous

studies have found that the U.S. community is particularly inward looking, even parochial, and thus a low level of diversity can be expected. For this region, I selected the journals IO, ISQ and the IR articles published in the APSR. I selected the first two journals because IO and ISQ were the two most highly ranked North American journals in the 2014 TRIP survey, with a broad coverage of IR topics. The IR articles published in APSR are a valuable addition to these two journals because this journal is characterized by an explicit reference to the American academic community.

Furthermore, ISQ and APSR are the flagship journals of two influential professional associations in the field: the ISA and the American Political Science Association (APSA), respectively. While APSR has an international membership, it is still an explicitly American/US-based organization. The ISA, in contrast, was founded in the US and still has strong institutional ties to the U.S. academy, but it has been reaching out to scholars from other countries and regions. This process of shifting from being a national organization with an international-sounding name to actually becoming an international organization started with the stronger participation of European scholars. Over the past decade, the organization has started to directly target IR scholars based in the global South.³⁹ Amitav Acharya's ISA presidency in 2014/15, along with his focus on global IR, is only one indication of this trend. While the possible changes that may have occurred as results of Acharya's presidency fall outside this study's period of investigation (2005 to 2014), it can nevertheless be expected that ISQ will show a higher level of diversity than either IO, which is not bound to any membership organization, and APSR, with its clear anchorage in the U.S. academy.

The inclusion of Europe as a case study is relevant for three reasons: First, Europe is, second to North America, regarded as the most active area for IR studies (Friedrichs and Wæver 2009; Jørgensen and Knudsen 2004; Jørgensen 2000). In fact, even though the discipline may primarily have reached its current shape in the US after World War II (Guilhot 2011; Hoffmann 1977), it was originally founded as a field of studies in Wales after World War I (Osiander 1998). Furthermore, many of IR's leading scholars during all of the phases of its existence were born and/or educated in Europe (Roesch 2014). Investigating how diverse IR appears to be its "homeland" is therefore a necessity. Second, despite the large number of active IR academies in Europe, a great deal of U.S./American influence has been detected, and the results of my previous study demonstrate that scholars in Europe do perceive the field to be American dominated.

Third, Europe itself may potentially feature imbalances since it hosts the UK community, which is also prominent. The question, therefore, is whether, within Europe, UK-based scholars play the role that is assigned to US-based scholars on a global scale. Furthermore, the U.S. and UK communities have

³⁹ Source: email correspondence with Amitav Acharya, 2014.

traditionally had strong ties (as do their host countries), not least because of their shared language and the fact that the elite universities on both sides of the Atlantic produce a major share of leading IR scholars (Kristensen 2015a). Due to this third consideration in particular, I decided to study the EJIR, as a pan-European journal, and the IR articles published in the BJPoIS, as a journal with explicit ties to the UK community. The BJPoIS is included in this study primarily because it is the only Europe-based journal in the TRIP dataset besides EJIR. However, it is a useful choice because its political science character matches that of APSR in North America and, to a lesser degree, that of FI in the Latin American case study.

The largest contribution of this dissertation in terms of case selection, however, is the inclusion of the two Latin American journals, as my dissertation is the first study to systematically compare Spanish-language journals from Latin America to English-language journals from Europe and North America. While Latin American IR has been at the center of some previous studies on IR as a discipline (e.g., Taylor 2012; Tickner and Herz 2012; Tickner 2009, 2003), the region has never been compared to another in a systematic fashion. The use of the TRIP codebook⁴⁰ for the investigation of Latin American journals, therefore, represents a novel approach that allows for a direct comparison between English- and Spanish-language journals. The case study on Latin America covers two journals, the Chilean EI and the Mexican FI, which are a subset of the Spanish-speaking journals that Arlene Tickner used in her study on Latin American IR (Tickner, 2009). Tickner's study included the six major journals in the region, of which I chose the two largest Spanish-language ones.⁴¹ In the following section, I introduce both journals in some detail before turning to the analysis of geographic and thematic diversity.

Neither of these journals is a membership journal; instead, both are published by a university institute, the Colegio de Mexico (ColMex) in the case of FI and the Institute for International Relations at the Universidad de Chile in Santiago in the case of EI. Both have long publication traditions (both were founded in 1960) and are considered important publication outlets by scholars in the region according to the 2014 TRIP survey. Due to their language profile (mostly Spanish, with some articles being published in Portuguese) and their status as lesser known "periphery" journals, it can be expected that these journals are relatively insular and focused on Latin America.

As a means of reducing the effort required in data collection, the original Global Pathways project only coded issues one and three of every volume of EI and FI. The issues were randomly selected. In order to render the samples comparable, the integrated dataset contains only issues one and three of the

⁴⁰ To be precise, I adapted the codebook slightly for the analysis of the two Latin American journals, which were part of the first wave of Global Pathways before its institutional move to FU Berlin and the radical alteration of the codebook (see Preface).

⁴¹ Foro Internacional was a recommendation by Jorge Shiavon, the founding president of the Latin American Federation of International Studies Association (FLAEI) whom I interviewed in 2013.

other journals as well, although data for all four respective issues per year was available. This decision primarily has consequences for the measurement of variety: the total number of countries of affiliations of the authors published in these two issues, and to a lesser degree, the regions under study, theories applied, and topics covered, could be lower than in four issues per year. The degree for authorship affiliations is higher than the others because there are more possible values for this aspect than those defined in the codebook for the other aspects. The strength of my conceptual framework, however, rests on its measurement of evenness and dissimilarity, which are largely independent of the measurement for variety. Therefore, although the restriction of the dataset was a necessary step in the realization of the data collection process, it has few consequences for the results.

Table 8 Case selection

Title	Abbreviation	Country of editorship	Region	Language	Scope	No. of articles in dataset ⁴²
American Political Science Review	APSR	USA	North America	English	Political Science	116
International Organization	IO	USA/Canada	North America	English	Full IR	183
International Studies Quarterly	ISQ	USA	North America	English	Full IR	254
Foro Internacional	FI	Mexico	Latin America	Spanish	Political Science	88
Estudios Internacionales	EI	Chile	Latin America	Spanish	Full IR	121
European Journal of International Relations	EJIR	UK/Denmark	Europe	English	Full IR	142
British Journal of Political Science	BJPoS	UK	Europe	English	Political Science	105

3.4.1 Journal profiles

International Organization

The International Organization was founded in 1947 under the chairmanship of the World Peace Foundation and is now edited by the International Organization Foundation: “International Organization is a leading peer-reviewed journal that covers the entire field of international affairs.⁴³ Subject areas include: foreign policies, international relations, international and comparative political economy,

⁴² The numbers of articles vary so much because of the numbers of articles published per issue in each journal.

⁴³ See <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/international-organization/issue/E475E72DA010BB0ABF6E5EE633BB3FB5>

security policies, environmental disputes and resolutions, European integration, alliance patterns and war, bargaining and conflict resolution, economic development and adjustment, and international capital movements.” The journal thus covers a broad range of topics in IR, specifically IPE (cp. Adler and Pauly, 2007, p. 1). The editors from 2007 to 2012, Emanuel Adler and Louis Pauly, stated in their introductory editorial note that “IO will continue to favor no particular research tradition, theoretical school, or methodological approach. Rather, its hallmark is the theoretical and methodological diversity (...) [and] pluralism will remain evident in the journal” (Adler and Pauly, 2007, p. 1). Despite this broad coverage, the journal prefers to publish both theory-driven and pure theory articles over purely empirical ones (cp. *ibid.*).

This journal’s editor or editorial team has been located at an American university ever since its foundation, with the exception of an intermediate period from 2006 to 2011, when it was edited by two scholars located in Canada.⁴⁴ Furthermore, 74% of the current board members are based in the US. The rest of the board members are located either in Western Europe (the UK, Germany, and Switzerland) or in Canada. The group of senior advisors has no European members; in addition to an otherwise American group, only two scholars based in Canada are part of this organ. Nevertheless, after IO’s offices were moved out of the US for the first time in 2006, the new editors wrote in their introductory editorial that they hoped the relocation would “strengthen the journal’s longstanding commitment to academic globalization” (Adler and Pauly, 2007, p. 3; *emphasis added*). Furthermore, they regarded the journal’s (temporary) move across the border to Canada as “consistent with seeking new opportunities for scholars from around the world to publish in IO” (*ibid.*; *emphasis added*). Thus, while the editorial board has been in the hands of U.S. and Anglo-based scholars, IO has displayed a willingness – even an urgent need – to promote the journal as an outlet that is open to global authorship.

One last observation about IO is that it places itself at the center of the discipline. On its website, IO informs potential contributors that it “seeks to publish the best and most innovative scholarly manuscripts available on international political and economic relations” and that “[f]or seventy years, International Organization (IO) has been at the forefront of scholarship in international relations.”⁴⁵ The discipline seems to agree with this evaluation: In the years since TRIP conducted its surveys, IO has topped the rankings as the journal with greatest impact on the way IR scholars think about international relations (cf. Maliniak et al. 2014). Furthermore, the journal’s impact factor in 2015 was 3.213, making it the second most cited journal in the field of IR, right behind *World Politics*. With such a reputation, the editors and reviewers of IO can hand-pick what their journal publishes.

⁴⁴ See <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/international-organization/information/editorial-board>

⁴⁵ See <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/international-organization/information>

International Studies Quarterly

International Studies Quarterly is the flagship journal of the US-based ISA and was founded in 1967 as the successor to *Background*, which was founded in 1957 (Van Dyke, 1967; Poe 2007). Its mission is “to publish leading scholarship that engages with significant theoretical, empirical, and normative subjects in international studies.”⁴⁶ More specifically, articles published in ISQ should “provide an answer to an explanatory puzzle, present original research, explore topics in international theory, or otherwise intervene in disciplinary debates.” From the time of its foundation on, ISQ set out to publish “articles from various disciplines and perspectives bearing on international relations” (Van Dyke 1967). All in all, ISQ has a broadly defined editorial policy.

While ISQ’s host institution, the ISA, has become a professional organization with a highly varied membership from more than 80 countries, the journal has always been edited by editorial teams based at U.S. universities. Its current editorial board consists of four US-based scholars and one based in Australia. All editors in chief during the period of investigation for this study were US-based. However, the current group of associate editors is relatively diverse, as only 50% of its members are US-based; the rest are located in the UK, Australia, Denmark, Sweden, and Turkey. The editorial board is also mixed. Furthermore, despite its editorial location, ISQ makes no references to being a U.S. or North American journal but instead ties itself to the increasingly diverse ISA as a sign of internationalization. In addition, in his note on ISQ’s 50th anniversary, then departing editor Steven C. Poe (2007, p. 1-2) wrote the following: “...the international studies discipline itself has become more international. Faced with this increasing diversity in the discipline, some analysts have observed that the international studies community is becoming more fragmented” and “[International Studies] Quarterly can play an important part in limiting [this] tendency toward fragmentation in our discipline....” The past editor thus assumed that, through the inclusion of a diverse authorship due to internationalization, thematic diversity would follow.

American Political Science Review

American Political Science Review is the APSA’s flagship journal and has been published continuously since 1906. Unlike IO and ISQ, APSR is not dedicated to topics relevant to IR alone; rather, it is a political science journal that covers many subfields in addition to IR. While IR articles published in APSR were examined for this study, the character of a political science journal should become visible in comparison to the other two journals as a complementing view on the discipline. In its mission statement, the journal refers to itself as “political science’s premier scholarly research journal.”⁴⁷ With an impact factor of 3.444, APSR was the fourth most cited political science journal worldwide and even topped that ranking

⁴⁶ See <https://academic.oup.com/isq/pages/About>

⁴⁷ See <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/american-political-science-review/information>

for many years during the period of investigation. It was also ranked as one of the journals with the greatest impact on the way IR scholars think about international relations by respondents of the TRIP survey, despite the fact that it is not a pure IR journal (e.g. Maliniak et al. 2014).

With its long legacy and strong institutional ties to the American Political Science Association, APSR should be regarded as the most local journal under study for the North America case study. However, the journal is aware of its “diverse audience” and the role it plays for political scientists worldwide. Ironically, the only explicitly American journal in this case study is the only one that has been edited outside of North America – although not during the years under investigation for this study. Indeed, as new lead editor Thomas König and his German-British editorial team remark in their first notes from the editors, “the decision to transfer the editorship of the [American Political Science] Review to Europe has caused some astonishment on both sides of the Atlantic,” and this move “seems to contrast the recent political events that herald scattered regionalism instead of global competition.” (König et al. 2017) However, even with this European team of editors, the editorial board still consists of 83% of scholars based in the US. In addition, before this increase in its internationalization, APSR was edited in the US and served, and continues to serve, as an outlet for the APSA, which continues to be more institutionalized in the US compared to the ISA. The ISA, in turn, seeks to become an organization that appeals to IR scholars globally.

Estudios Internacionales

Estudios Internacionales was founded in 1960 and has belonged to the Institute for International Relations at the Universidad de Chile in Santiago ever since. According to its mission statement, the journal is “a platform for multidisciplinary academic publications in the field of international relations.”⁴⁸ The journal thus has a broad setup and is not tied to the notion of IR as a subfield of political science. Furthermore, articles published in EI should “cover current topics of academic interest.” The journal’s mission statement explicitly states that EI “covers issues of different world regions, making *special emphasis on topics related to Latin America*” (emphasis added). Unlike the North American journals, which do not touch on the topic of a regional focus, EI positions itself as an outlet for research with a regional focus.

While the journal is uncommonly clear about its regional coverage, it says nothing about its targeted audience, with the exception of stating that it combines “contributions from renowned authors with articles from young writers starting their academic careers” (ibid.). This statement gives no direct indication of the journal’s intended geographical diversity in terms of authorship. However, the facts that the mission statement is published exclusively in Spanish, that junior scholars are invited to publish

⁴⁸ See <https://revistaei.uchile.cl/>

in EI, and that the journal (almost) exclusively publishes Spanish-language articles can be interpreted as an orientation towards Latin American authors, or at least Hispanophone researchers.

Nevertheless, an editorial note from 2015 stresses that the journal “[...] will reaffirm its level of editorial excellence in the diffusion of multidisciplinary research and relevant opinions on an *international* level, on a *global* scale as well as in *Latin America*” (Editorial Note, 2015, p. 7; emphasis added; translated from Spanish). In addition, five of the 19 editorial board members in 2017 are located in the US, two in the UK, and three more in other countries outside of Latin America. Besides the editor in chief, who is traditionally based at Universidad de Chile, less than half of the editorial board members of this Latin American journal are affiliated with institutions in Latin America. Furthermore, of those nine Latin American board members, eight are affiliated with Universidad de Chile and one with an institution in Argentina. On the whole, despite its explicitly regional focus, the journal has an editorial setup with strong international ties.

Foro Internacional

Foro Internacional was founded in 1960 at the Colegio de México (ColMex) and has been published there ever since. Colegio de México is one of the most prestigious research institutions in Mexico and a strong center for IR in the country. The journal does not have a formal mission statement in either Spanish or in English. Consequently, it is relatively difficult to say anything about its self-declared thematic or geographic diversity. However, in an editorial note from 2015, the editors underline FI’s international orientation in terms of authorship diversity, writing that the journal “has continuously published research articles by Mexican and foreign academics that attempt to capture the complex national and international political reality” (Editorial Note, 2015, p.382; emphasis added; translation from Spanish). The fact that the journal’s website is available in both English and Spanish also speaks to a degree of internationalization that was absent from EI’s online presentation. The current editorial board, in contrast, is very much in the hand of scholars based in Mexico, with only 3 out of the 11 members being located in Europe (Russia, Spain, and the UK) and none in the US.⁴⁹

Unlike EI, FI does not position itself as a journal with a regional focus on Latin America, but it does have a clear national focus on Mexico. This is, among other ways, reflected in the fact that FI publishes a special issue on the analysis and evaluation of Mexican foreign policy every six years (Editorial Note 2013; 2015, p. 447). Another editorial statement from 2015 is more explicit in this regard: It states that the journal’s aim is “[...] to study systematically the fundamental topics that shape the international system and increasingly exert influence on *our country*” (2015, p.390; emphasis added; translated from

⁴⁹ See <http://forointernacional.colmex.mx/index.php/fi/pages/view/comiteeditorial>

Spanish). The journal is thus presented as a medium for research with the goal of generating insights that are relevant to Mexico.

European Journal of International Relations

The European Journal of International Relations was founded in 1995 as the official journal of the Standing Group on International Relations of the ECPR and is published by Sage in cooperation with the ECPR Standing Group. Since its foundation, the European International Studies Association (EISA) has become another sponsor and the host organization of the journal.⁵⁰ The journal has become “one of the major global publications in International Relations” according to its own estimations (Wight et al. 2009, p.5) as well as its impact factor, which was 2.277 in 2016, making it the 11th most cited journal in the field of IR.

Prior to the foundation of EJIR, “there was no natural way (...) to interact on a regular basis as European academic,” as editor Walter Carlsnaes wrote in the journal’s founding editorial (Carlsnaes 1995: 5). Nevertheless, while the journal was created with an explicit “European provenance,” its aim from the outset was to be “a truly international journal in its intellectual scope and geographic reach” (ibid., p.6; emphasis in the original). Furthermore, as Carlsnaes writes “[the journal] should (...) in no way be constructed to be mainly a journal for European writing about Europe” (ibid.). According to the founding editor, the journal was designed as an international publication in order to avoid the “ethnocentric anchorage and bias” and to resist the “parochialism” that many nationally based IR journals demonstrated at that time (ibid., p.6). The journal is thereby explicitly open to contributions from around the world and emphasizes that “the quality of the argument being presented [matters], not the intellectual domicile of the author(s)” (ibid., p.6-7). In 2006, the editors went even further, stating that “[the journal] must be global in the sense that [it] needs to be open not only to authors from the Atlanticist heartland of the field, but also to contributions from under-represented academic communities which enrich IR by challenging its prevailing assumptions” (Wight et al. 2009, p.7; emphasis added). To this end, the 2013 editorial team added that “[they] particularly encourage the submission of articles from scholars in the Global South, (...)” (Jahn et al. 2013: 1) It is therefore clear that EJIR has explicitly aimed for high geo-diversity in the dimension of authorship from the beginning and continues to communicate this as one of the journal’s core missions.

Still, the journal’s editorial structure has been in the hands of European academics ever since its foundation (cf. Carlsnaes 1995, p.6). The current editorial board, for example, is led by four UK-based scholars and steered by an editorial committee that is one-quarter UK-based as well. Interestingly, the same share of members is based in the US, while another quarter is located in a variety of Western

⁵⁰ See <https://uk.sagepub.com/en-gb/eur/journal/european-journal-international-relations#aims-and-scope>

European countries (Sweden, Germany, Denmark, and Switzerland), with the last quarter being outside of Europe (Australia, Argentina, and India). The variety of academies represented in the international advisory board is much higher, representing IR communities from around the world. Nevertheless, it is also composed of a majority of UK- and US-based authors. Therefore, while EJIR's editorial setup is uncommonly diverse, the influence of the UK-U.S. front is still highly visible. An editorial aspect that makes EJIR more unique is its awareness of and transparency about its political potential. When the editorial team became transnational (in that it consisted of British and Danish staff members) for the first time in 2009, the editors celebrated this as "a symbol of the closer union that is taking place between the different national IR communities within Europe" (Wight et al. 2009, p.5). The journal – at least in the eyes of the editors – is not simply intended to be a publication outlet but also a medium for regional integration in the domain of academia.

The journal was not only founded to serve as an international forum for European academics but also has a mission of achieving thematic diversity. The founding editorial team referred to the issue of theoretical diversity by stating that the journal "has the explicit aim of fostering a wide and ecumenical awareness of epistemological, normative and methodological questions in the study of international relations, and of doing this without favoring any particular school or approach, or restricting itself to any given philosophy of science" (Carlsnaes 1995, p.6; emphasis added; cp. Jahn et al. 2013, p.1; see also mission statement). Furthermore, the journal states that it is open to both mainstream work and work that "emanate[s] from the more critical or dissident margins of International Relations" (ibid.). Furthermore, the journal notes that it "will give priority to issues of general theoretical concern over issues with a narrow empirical or policy import" (Carlsnaes 1995, p.7; cf. Wight et al. 2009, p.6). The journal's official mission statement also stresses that it is interested in publishing "cutting edge theory debates" – the meaning of this bold statement, however, is less clear in practice.

British Journal of Political Science

The British Journal of Political Science is a publication of Cambridge University and has been published by its university press since its foundation in 1971. Since the journal neither had a founding editorial nor has published any subsequent editorials, it is much more difficult to evaluate its anticipated diversity than was the case for EJIR and some of the other journals investigated in this study. However, based on its mission statement, the journal has a broad set-up and aims "to cover developments across a wide range of countries specialisms." Furthermore, BJPoLS is not a pure IR journal and consequently does not have a specific specialization within the field. Instead, its contributions "...draw from all fields of political science (...), and articles from scholars in related disciplines (....) appear frequently." Taking into account the journal's focus on political science-related IR as well as its openness to various types of social science research, these statements suggest a medium level of thematic diversity

Despite the national reference in its title, there is no indication that BJPoIS has a special interest in publishing British authors or topics related to Great Britain or the UK. The current editorial team consists of an equal mix of two UK- and two US-based scholars, with the associate editors all being located in the UK. Furthermore, 43% of the current editorial board members are based at institutions in the US, and 36% are based in the UK.⁵¹ The rest of the board members are primarily spread throughout Western Europe. The British Journal may have been founded as a national research outlet – though even that remains unclear – but it definitely has strong connections to the U.S. academy.

3.5 Roadmap for the case studies

The following three sub-chapters (4.1 to 4.3) constitute the main empirical corpus of this dissertation. In the first three, I present the detailed descriptive findings of my three case studies, North America (Sub-chapter 4.1), Latin America (4.2), and Europe (4.3). In Sub-chapter 4.4, I first compare the findings and come to a cross-case conclusion regarding the diversity of IR scholarship based on these case studies. Thereafter, I integrate the findings concerning patterns of dominance with responses to the TRIP survey questions discussed above.

⁵¹ See <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/british-journal-of-political-science/information/editorial-board>

4. Case Studies

4.1 Case study on North American journals

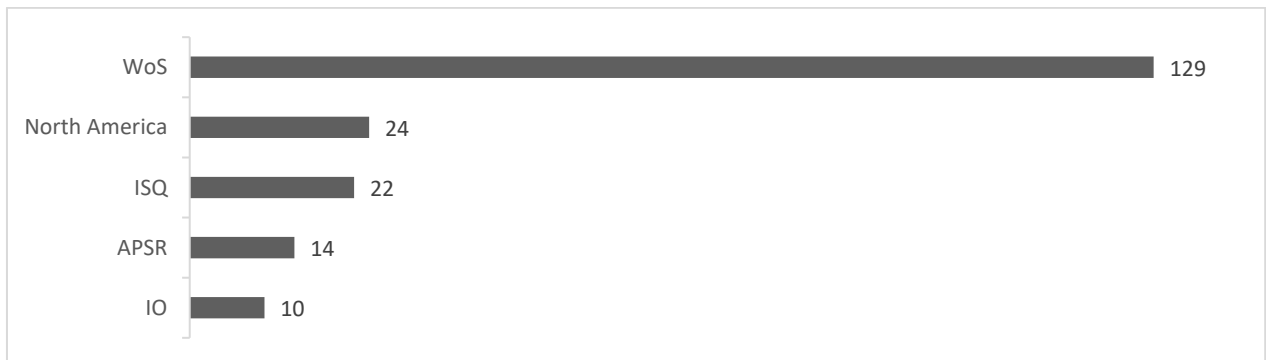
4.1.1 Descriptive results: geographical diversity

Geographical authorship diversity

Combined, all three North American journals published authors affiliated with institutions in 24 countries between 2005 and 2014. These countries form 18.6% of the 129 countries of affiliation represented in all IR publications listed in the WoS between 2005 and 2014. Slightly less than 19% may not seem significant, but, given the fact that the WoS benchmark is based on a much larger sample, this counts as a medium value of variety.

There are large differences among the North American journals with regard to their geographic authorship variety. *International Studies Quarterly* confirms its position as the most internationalized of the three North American journals with 22 different countries of affiliation (17% in comparison to the 86 journals). The explicitly American *APSR* published authors from only 14 different countries between 2005 and 2014 (11%). *International Organization* displays an even lower level of authorship variety with only 10 countries of affiliation during the time of investigation, which corresponds to 7% in comparison to the WoS benchmark. All in all, IO and APSR have a low level of geographical authorship variety, while ISQ is relatively diverse and achieves a medium level of variety.

Figure 4 Geographical authorship variety, North America per journal



While the total number of authors published in the three North American journals is relatively high, the authors are unevenly distributed across their countries of affiliation. Of all of the 1,183 authors published in the three North American journals under study during the period between 2005 and 2014, 78% were affiliated with an institution in the US at the time of publication. The second largest group of authors is affiliated with institutions located in the UK and comprises only 9% of the total authorship in the three North American journals. This is a considerable gap of almost 70%. Furthermore, authors from only four more countries of affiliation comprised more than 1% of the data set: Canada (2.9%), Norway (1.9%), Germany (1.5%), and Australia (1.1%). As illustrated in Figure 4, the level of evenness for WoS

publications is much closer to a normal distribution. Of the IR publications in the WoS, only 32% of were authored by US-based scholars, while 18% were the works of UK-based scholars. That means that not only is the presence of US-based authors much weaker but that the gap between the first and second largest groups of authors is also much smaller (only 14%). The rest of the distribution for WoS publications is also uneven – only 7 of the 129 countries of affiliation contribute more than 2% of authors. Despite the fact that the WoS data suggests an overall uneven distribution, it is safe to conclude that the North American journals on average also have a low level of geographic authorship evenness.

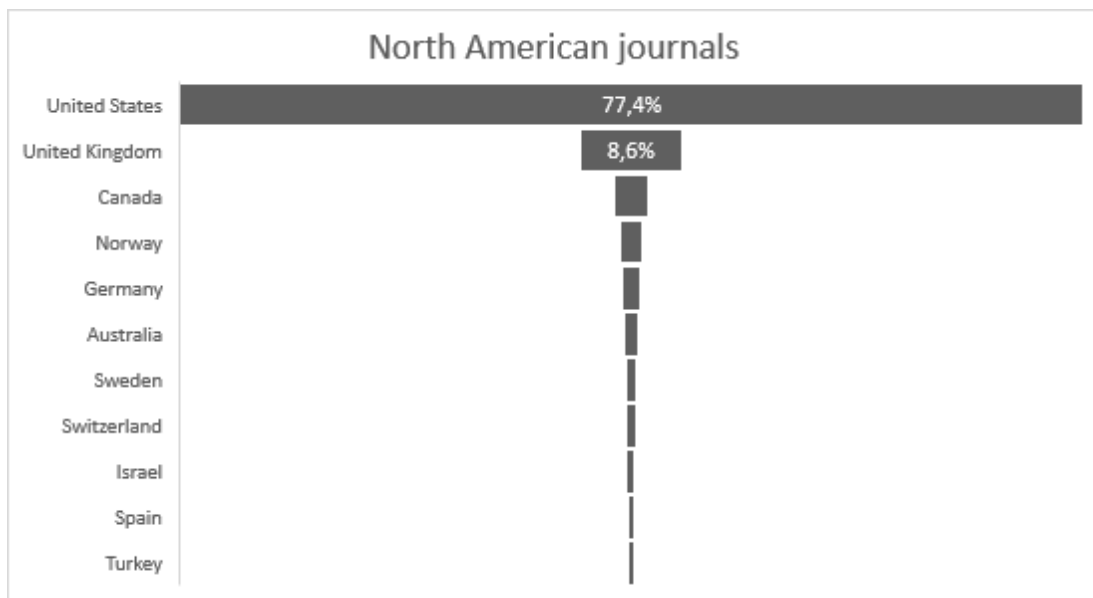
While the level of evenness is low for all three individual journals, there is some variation among them with regard to how extreme this variation is. The uneven distribution of authors is most extreme for the articles published in APSR. Of all authors published between 2004 and 2015 in APSR, 85% were affiliated with institutions in the United States, compared to 32% in the WoS publications. The second and third most represented countries in APSR – as for all North American journals – are the UK and Canada. The gap between those countries and the United States is even more extreme for APSR than for the three journals on average: 4% of scholars published in APSR are affiliated with institutions in the United Kingdom, and 3% are affiliated with institutions in Canada. That means that there is a gap of more than 80% between the first and the second most represented country for this journal. Furthermore, authors from only five countries authored or co-authored more than one IR article in APSR during the time of investigation.

While one could easily argue that these values are simply a reflection of APSR's target group (i.e., American political scientists), the picture does not look much different for the other two North American journals, which serve a more diverse clientele. Of all authors in IO, 79% are affiliated with American institutions, while it is 74% for ISQ. What is different - although not significantly - is the size of the gap between the first and the second strongest country (the UK for both journals). For IO, the gap is a little more than 70%, while, for ISQ, it is approximately 65%. As already indicated by its relatively high level of variety, ISQ has published articles by authors located in a far greater number of countries than the other two North American journals. Accordingly, authors from five countries other than the United States (United Kingdom, Canada, Norway, Australia, and Germany) contributed more than 10 articles to ISQ during the period of investigation. Thus, while there are small differences among the three journals, these numbers make it easy to conclude that all three North American journals have a low level of geographic authorship evenness.

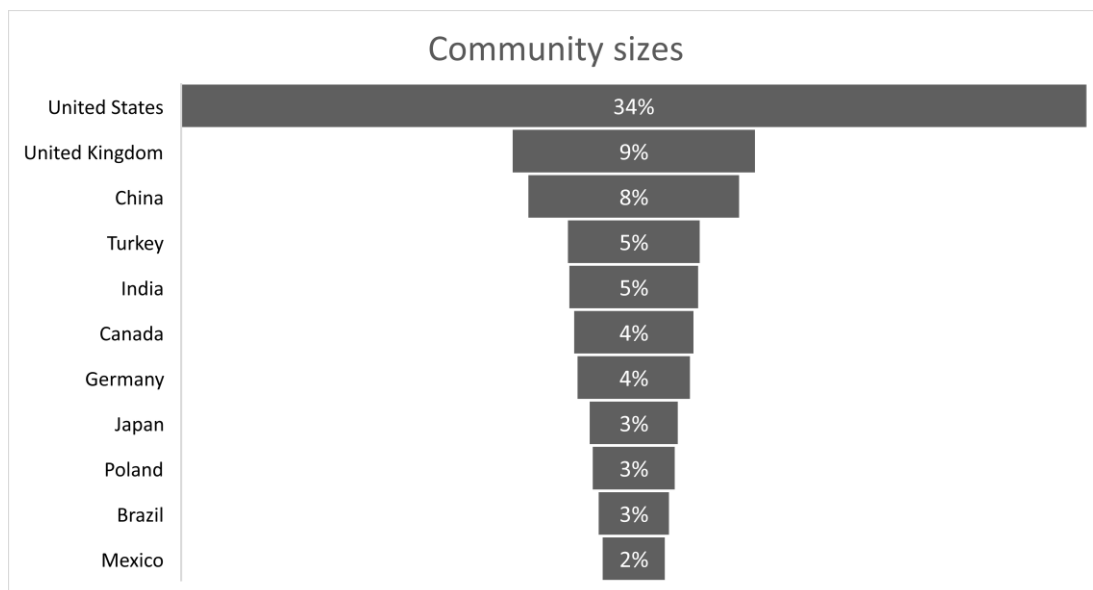
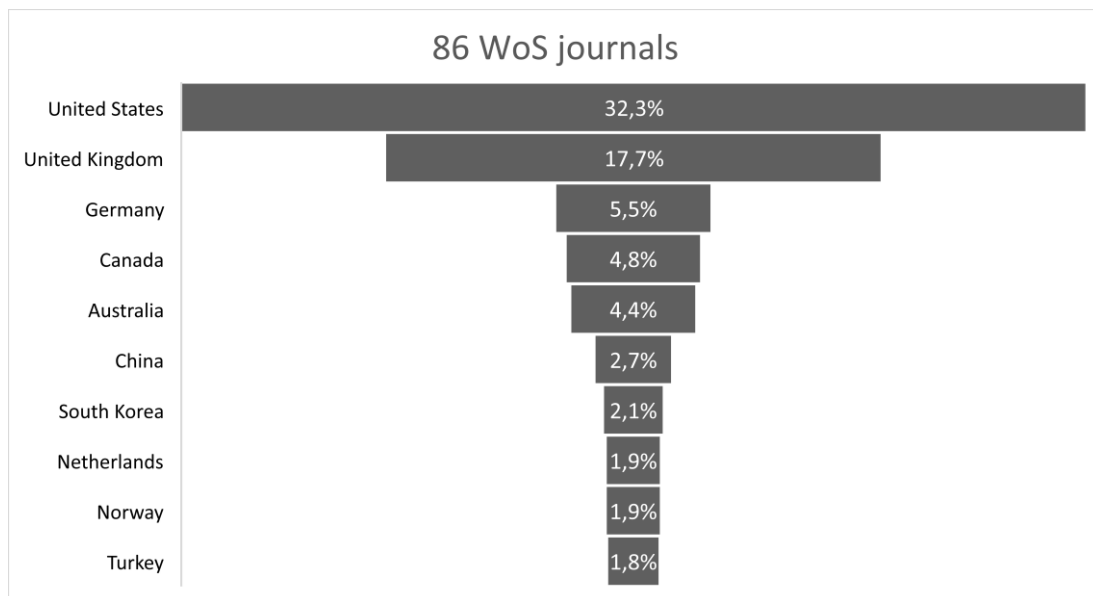
The second benchmark, which I use for the evaluation of geographic authorship evenness, is drawn from the TRIP 2014 survey samples. As discussed in the methodology section, these samples serve as a proxy for community sizes and are helpful in gaining a better appreciation of how many scholars are located in a country and could theoretically have contributed to the journals, in addition to how well their sizes

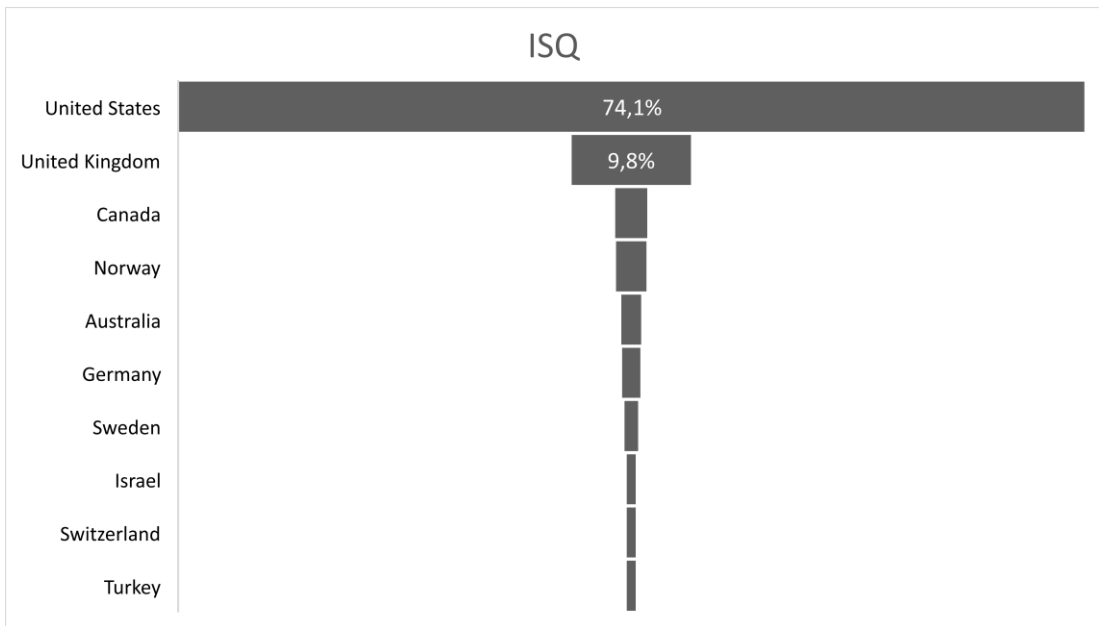
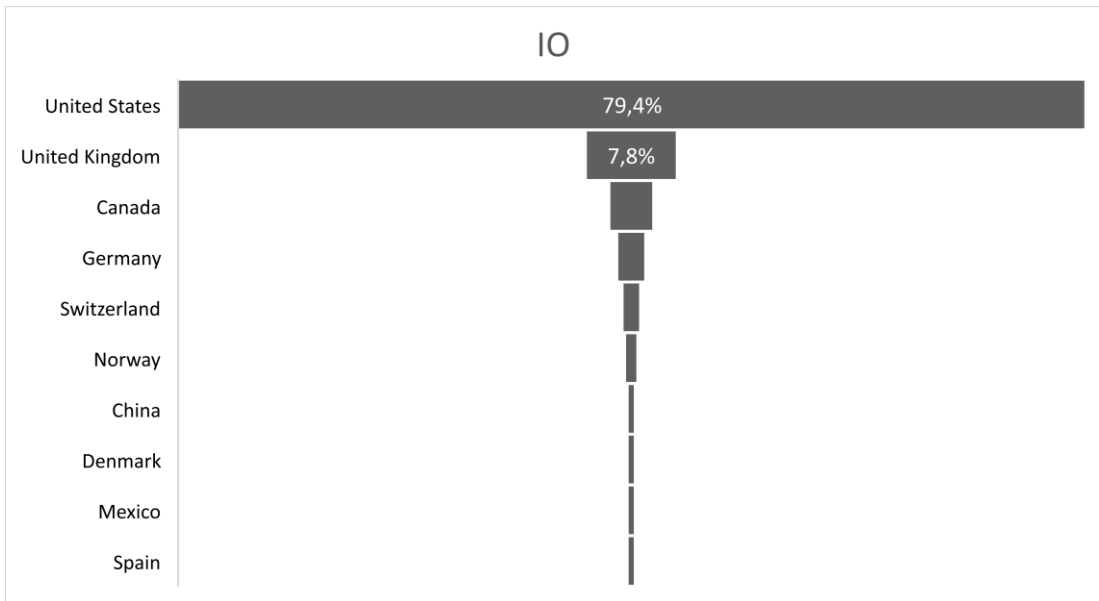
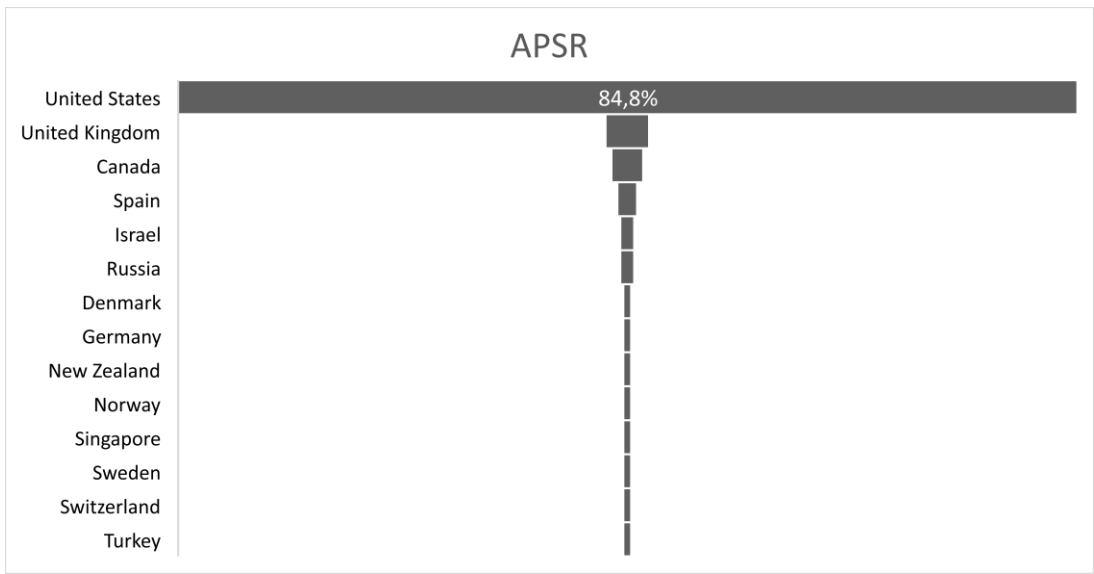
are represented in the journals. This comparison brings to light a number of interesting findings: First, as **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.** indicates, US-based authors are actually proportionally represented in WoS journals, but they are vastly overrepresented in each of the three North American journals under study. While US-based authors constitute 77.4% of North American journals, only 33.6% of the global IR community is located in the United States. This is a considerable gap and counters the logic that many U.S. scholars are published in top journals because they simply outnumber those in other communities. This is not incorrect in essence, but there is a degree of overrepresentation that goes beyond this quantitative predominance. This is definitely a sign of the intense insularity of the U.S. community.

Second, the number of scholars affiliated with UK institutions that have published in one of the North American journals is almost perfectly representative of the size of the IR community in the United Kingdom. It may even be the case that, based on these metrics, UK scholars are overrepresented in WoS publications. Third, a considerably greater number of scholars from Canadian, German, Australian, and Turkish IR, as well as the Mexican and Brazilian communities, are underrepresented in the three North American journals compared to their respective community sizes (see Table App 3 in the appendix). In contrast, Germany, Turkey, and Australia are relatively well represented by the WoS benchmark. Thus, it is not the case that scholars in these countries do not publish as many IR contributions in general but rather that they either choose to publish them somewhere else or that they are somehow excluded from being published in the North American journals under investigation. However, which of the two possibilities is the case cannot be determined based on the data at hand.



*Figure 5
Geographical
authorship
evenness, North
America (top 10)*





In terms of dissimilarity, there are several trends indicative of a low level: First, there is almost a complete absence of authors affiliated with Latin American institutions. Only two authors affiliated with Mexican institutions contributed to one of the three North American journals, namely ISQ, between 2005 and 2014. Authors from any other Latin American country are absent. Second, with the exception of a single author from China, there are also no other authors based in the global South. There are, however, individual authors based in Israel, Turkey, Russia, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore, which lie outside Western Europe and North America but do not fall under the constructed category of the global South. African countries of affiliation are completely absent. Third, the one China-based author was published in IO, the two Mexico-based authors in ISQ, with none being published in APSR. All in all, the representation of global South scholars in the three North American journals can be regarded as low. However, disregarding the relative overrepresentation of US-based authors, the 24 countries of affiliation represented in the three North American journals constitute a fairly accurate reflection of the top 24 countries in the WoS (see Table App 1 in the appendix for a comparison). Only Hong Kong, as a separate country, and New Zealand are absent from the WoS short list, while authors based in Brazil and India are missing from the North American journals, even though they are among the 24 largest contributing countries for the WoS.

Overall, the WoS sample is more dissimilar due to a stronger presence of authors from all over the global South, and it includes several countries from outside Europe and the United States in the top 10 (China, South Korea, and Turkey). This higher dissimilarity, however, is in part due to the inclusion of journals from these countries in the WoS sample (see list Table App 1 in the appendix). Based on these comparisons, the dissimilarity value for the three North American journals is still at a low level.

To summarize, taken together, the authors published in all three North American journals come from 24 countries of affiliation. While this is a medium level of variety, their articles are distributed extremely unevenly across those 24 countries. This uneven distribution is most extreme for the IR articles in APSR. However, those IR journals that are wholly focused on IR and are not explicitly American are not that different in this regard, as authors affiliated with U.S. institutions dominate all three journals to an impressive extent. This predominance is much stronger than in the 86 WoS journals, which I used as a comparison. This domination becomes even more apparent in comparison to the respective sizes of the IR communities. The share of U.S.-affiliated authors in the North American journals is more than double the size of the share of U.S.-affiliated authors in the global IR community. All findings concerning evenness for the North American journals, therefore, indicate a deep parochialism, that is, domination by US-based authors of U.S.-American journals, which is disproportionately strong.

Although it does not seem uncommon that journals from a specific region publish authors affiliated with institutions in that region, this practice clashes with IO and ISQ's ambitions of being global journals, as both happen to be published in the United States. Furthermore, no Latin American countries are to be found among the top 10 highly published countries of affiliation. In contrast, with the exceptions of Turkey and Israel, all countries are either part of the Anglo-sphere (the US, the UK, Canada, and Australia) or are located in Western Europe (Norway, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, and Spain). Global South scholars are absent from the North American journals. All of these findings imply a low level of dissimilarity for the geo-diversity of the North American journals. When put into perspective with the benchmark values, it becomes clear that the North American journals are not far off the average values. Still, the geographical authorship dissimilarity for the US is so low that it needs to be categorized as such.

Table 9 Overview geographical authorship diversity and dominance, North America

Variety	Low (IO, ASPR) to medium (ISQ)
Evenness	Low
Dissimilarity	Low

Geographical content diversity

The coding scheme for the journal analysis listed 11 individual regions and two additional categories. The first additional category, called "global," indicates whether a study in an article is primarily positioned on the international level. The other indicates whether no region in particular was studied, which, in most cases, is a sign of purely theoretical argumentation ("none/purely theoretical"). All three North American journals published articles covering all individual regions, with the exception of Antarctica, as well as articles with a global scope, without any region. This indicates a perfectly high value of variety for all journals.

However, the articles published in the North American journals are relatively unevenly distributed across these regions and categories. As **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.** indicates, the largest share of articles by far investigate global phenomena (42%). The second largest focus of authors published in the Northern American journals is on the US itself (22%), and the third is dedicated to Western Europe/Canada (20%). The values of these top three categories display an interesting pattern: While there is a large gap of 20% between the first and the second category, which would usually indicate a low level of evenness, this is a special case because the largest category is global (i.e., the category that encompasses all regions and stands for a focus on the international level of world politics). The gap between the two most studied individual regions, in contrast, is only two percentage points large and thus marginal. Articles without a regional focus, that is, purely theoretical articles, are on average also relatively common in the North American journals (15%) and indeed are more common than articles on "smaller" regions. What makes the regional distribution of the articles published in the

North American journals uneven, therefore, is the large gap between the top four publications/two regions and the rest of the list. The first three weaker individual regions (East Asia, FSU/Eastern Europe, and MENA) are studied in no more than 9% of the articles.

There are some small differences with regard to the aspect of geographical content evenness across the three North American journals. APSR has almost the same relative distribution as the average of the three journals, with the difference that it has published fewer IR articles with a focus on the global level (32%). Almost half of the articles published in ISQ, in contrast, have a global focus, while fewer deal with the two largest individual regions, the US (19%) and Western Europe/Canada (16%). Therefore, ISQ has even more articles that potentially encompass all regions but fewer on the two North American core regions under study. In addition, the difference in the individual sizes of these two regions and the “smaller” regions under study is much smaller than the difference in sizes in the other two journals individually and all three journals taken together. The gap between “global” articles and articles on the first individual region is, at 29%, extremely large. In this regard, ISQ is an interesting case because its medium level of unevenness stems even more from this large presence of global articles than does the North American average, while the rest of the regions receive almost an equal share of attention. International Organization is found to have the least even distribution of articles among regions under study of all three North American journals. It has a large share of articles with a global scope (42%) and the two most frequently studied regions, the US (26%) and Western Europe/Canada (23%), lie close to each other. The rest of the distribution, however, is closer to APSR, with many unfrequently studied regions, and it is thus less evenly distributed than ISQ. All in all, the three journals are relatively close to each other at a medium level of evenness, and all of them differ considerably more from the global survey average than from each other.

In comparison, the distribution for the global survey average is much less extreme than for these three journals (see **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**). First, the gap between the first and the second category (FSU/Eastern Europe and Western Europe⁵²) is only 3%. Second, there are no extreme gaps between the individual regions. With the exception of Antarctica (4%) and Oceania (3%), all regions are studied by more than 10% of respondents. Furthermore, the five most studied individual regions (i.e., excluding global) are separated by only 15%. All of this creates a picture of a relatively well balanced regional focus among IR scholars at large, which is not reflected in the three North American journals under study. The evenness of

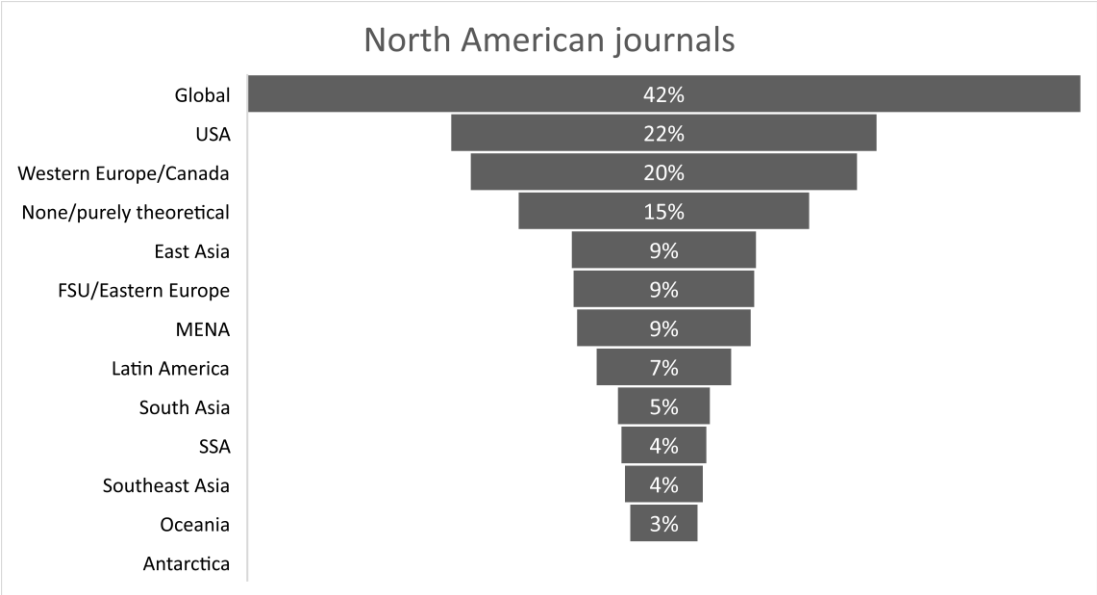
⁵² As outlined in the methodology section for this chapter, the survey categories are structured slightly differently than is the case for the journal analysis codebook because here, Canada is categorized together with the US as North America while Western Europe has its own category and the opposite is true for the codebook. This is problematic theoretically, but practically, it does not make much of a difference since articles on Canada are rather uncommon in IR.

regions under study reported by U.S. scholars is close to that of the global survey average and actually more even in comparison (see **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**). The three journals, particularly IO and ISQ, thus also do not reflect what the broader U.S. community reports as the regions that it investigates. For all three journals, but particularly for ISQ, this low evenness is primarily caused by a substantial focus on the global aspect. Given this comparison, the data on regions under study for the North American journals still gives an impression of an overall medium geographical content evenness, as most of its unevenness results from the fact that so many authors study the global level.

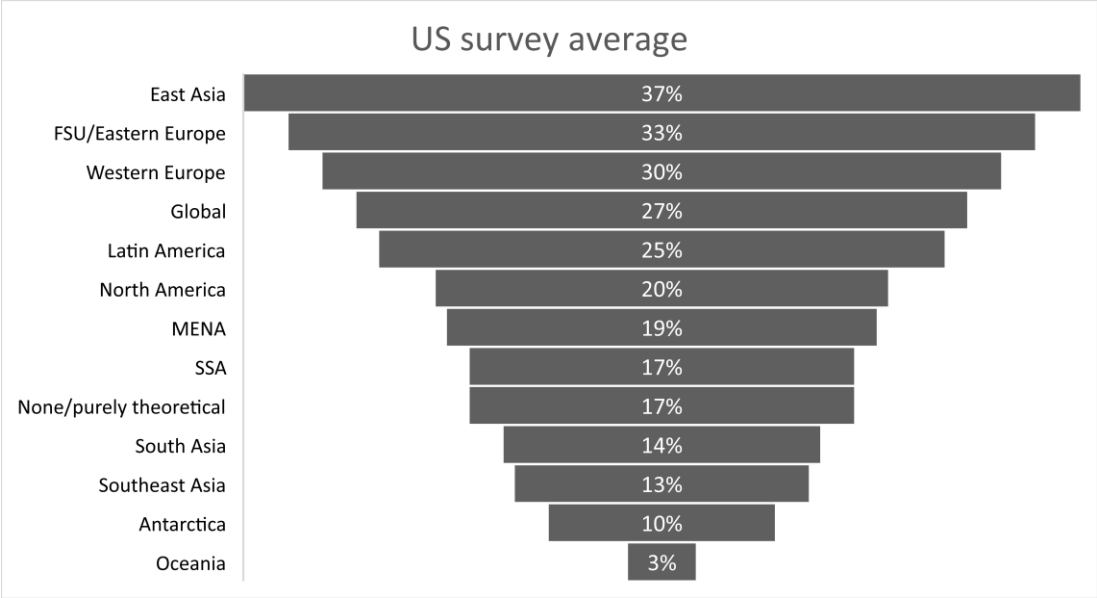
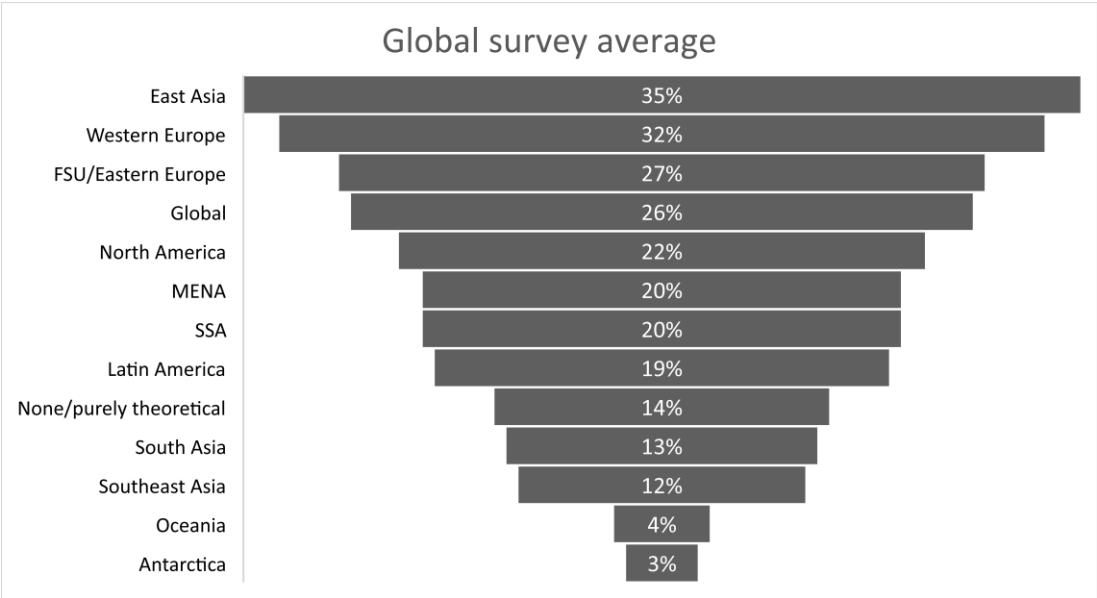
This medium level of evenness is paired with a low level of dissimilarity for the regions under study in the North American journals. The two individual regions studied most frequently in the North American journals are the US and Western Europe/Canada – basically, “the West.” The portion of these individual regions, as is displayed in **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**, is not that different from what survey respondents around the globe have reported. Two factors, however, lead to a low level of geographical content dissimilarity for the three North American journals: First, all of the strongly represented regions are in the West, while all of the weaker regions lie outside of it. Second, IR scholars actually seem to study these “weaker” regions much more actively than the numbers for the journals suggest. East Asia tops the lists of both the global and the U.S. survey averages with 35% and 37%, respectively. In comparison, only 9% of all articles in the three journals explicitly study this region. This is an extreme contrast, even when considering that some of the global articles also cover East Asian countries. There are many more of these extreme gaps. Two of these are particularly striking: While 19% of all U.S. survey respondents reported studying the Middle East and Northern Africa, only 9% of the articles do so explicitly. Furthermore, 25% of all U.S. respondents report studying Latin America, while only 7% of the articles focus on that region.

These gaps, in relation to the strong focus on the West, and another focus on global and purely theoretical articles, indicate low dissimilarity. One final aspect needs to be addressed in the context of geographical content diversity: The US might be the most studied individual region in the North American journals, but it is actually not more intensely studied than the two comparative benchmark values suggest; that is, the three journals do not look inwards at their local region, but simply study the US as intensely as makes sense given its role in international relations. Even APSR has not published many more articles focused on the US (18%) than the benchmark value indicates (26%) and it has published even less than IO (29%). International Studies Quarterly is the North American journal with the smallest focus on US-related studies (22%). For the other regions, the three journals do not differ much from each other. In fact, APSR is the journal with the highest geographical content diversity, since both its level of evenness and dissimilarity are caused by a relatively strong focus on the MENA region (in comparison to the sizes of the foci on other regions).

To summarize, all three North American journals cover a perfectly high variety of regions. The distribution of articles across these regions, however, is at a medium level of evenness. What causes this medium level of evenness is not the focus on one individual region but the comparatively extremely high number of articles with a global scope and the fact that there is an extreme gap between this category and the two most covered individual regions, especially in ISQ. The US is not being studied disproportionately more than other regions; that is, the journals are not inward-looking regarding their local region, despite their primarily US-based authorship. However, there is another factor of dominance that leads to a low level of dissimilarity for these three journals, which is the clear focus on the “West.” The global and the U.S. survey averages would suggest a much stronger focus on East Asia, MENA, Latin America, and other global South regions than is covered in the three journals. This contrast is what causes the low level of geographical content dissimilarity for the three North American journals.



*Figure 6
Geographical
content
evenness,
North America*



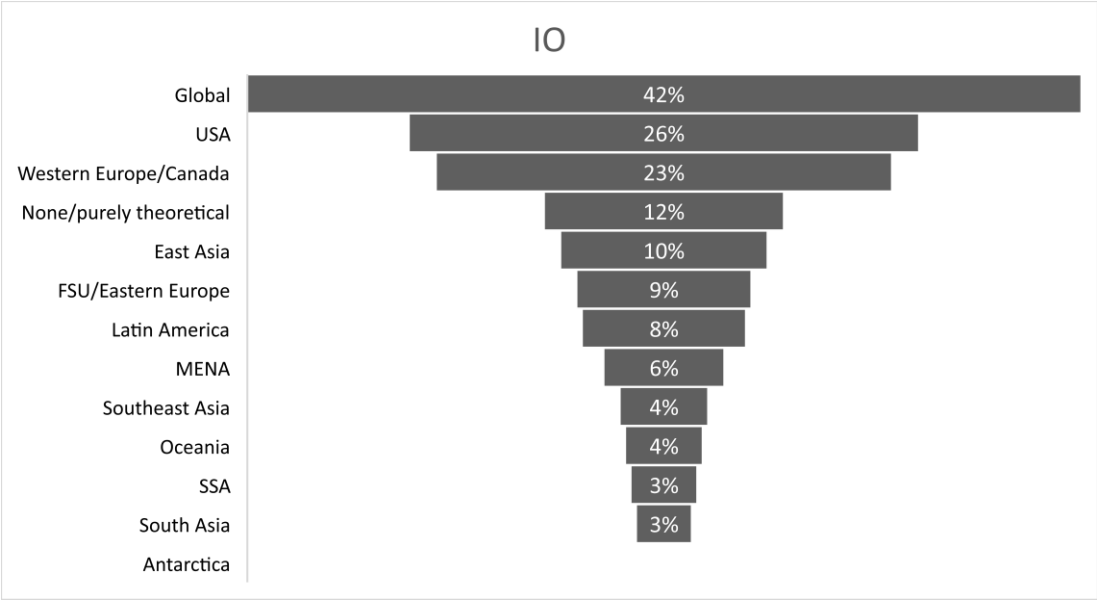
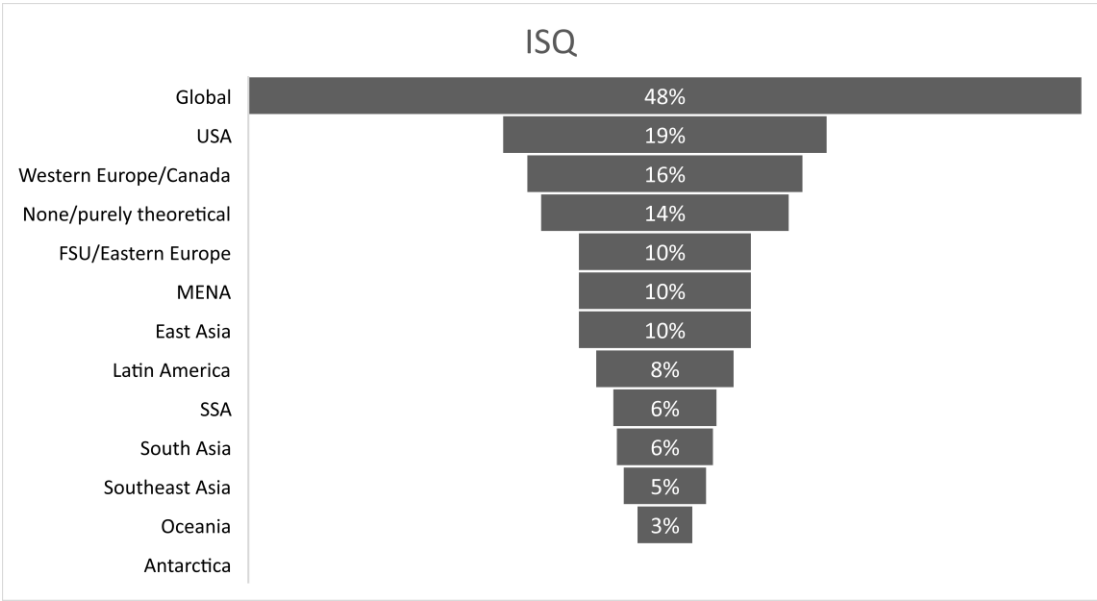
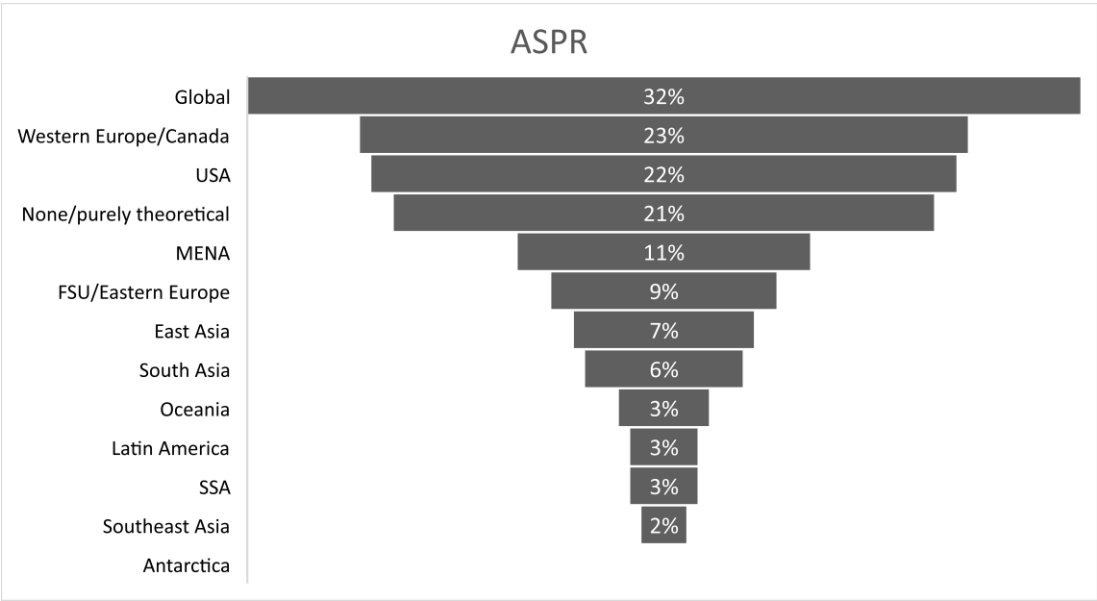


Table 10 Overview geographical content diversity, North America

Variety	High
Evenness	Medium
Dissimilarity	Low

4.1.2 Descriptive results: thematic and theoretical diversity

Thematic diversity

Taken together, the three North American journals cover all 15 issue areas listed in the codebook (including “other”) and almost all 34 substantive foci (including “other”), with the exception of health. Since health is not covered as a substantive focus by any of the journals under study, taken together, the North American journals score a perfectly high level of thematic variety.

Table 11 Thematic variety, North America

Issue Area	APSR	IO	ISQ
International security	✓	✓	✓
International political economy	✓	✓	✓
International organization	✓	✓	✓
Comparative politics	✓	✓	✓
IR theory	✓	✓	✓
Human rights	✓	✓	✓
Comparative foreign policy	✓	✓	✓
International law	✓	✓	✓
US foreign policy	✓	✓	✓
Political theory	✓	✓	
Methodology	✓	✓	✓
Environment		✓	✓
History of the IR discipline	✓		✓
American politics	✓		
Health			✓
General (or non-specific)	✓		✓
Philosophy of science	✓		✓
Other		✓	✓
Variety	83%	72%	89%

However, the three journals’ individual values vary largely for this aspect. International Studies Quarterly is thematically the most varied of the North American journals because it covers all issue areas, with the notable exception of American politics, and almost all substantive foci, with the exceptions of health and bargaining/deterrence. This translates into 89% coverage of the 15 possible issue areas and 94% coverage of the 34 substantive foci. International Studies Quarterly thus has a high level of thematic variety. International Organization scores only a medium level, as it covers only 72% of the issue areas listed in the codebook but as many substantive foci as ISQ. American Political Science Review takes a middle position with coverage of 83% of the issue areas but only 91% of the substantive foci. All in all,

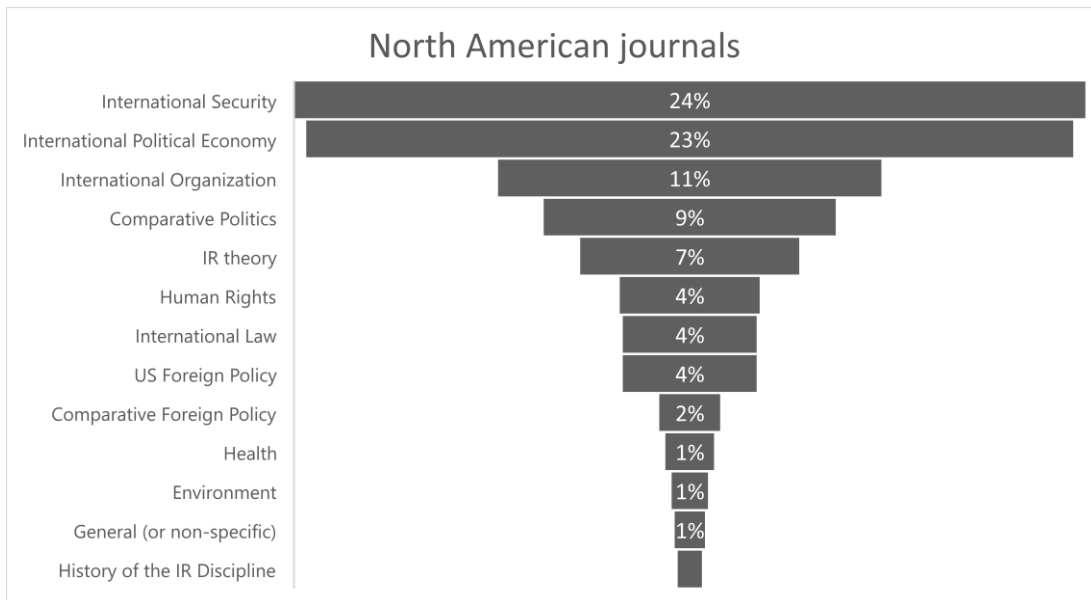
none of the journals have a low level of thematic variety, but IO's coverage in particular leans towards a medium level. Although 72% may seem like a high level, given the fact that the journal would need only one article per issue area to achieve 100% coverage, the medium level for IO is justified.

The evenness level for the North American journals is medium. While half of all articles deal with one of two issue areas (international security and IPE), this is a fairly accurate reflection of both the global and the U.S. level of evenness based on the respective survey averages; that is, while neither the journals nor the survey results display a high level of evenness, there is no large gap between these two measures that would indicate an imbalance between perception and practice, as was the case for the region under study. The value is still only at a medium level because the distribution has a very strong base and a relatively small tail towards the weaker issue areas.

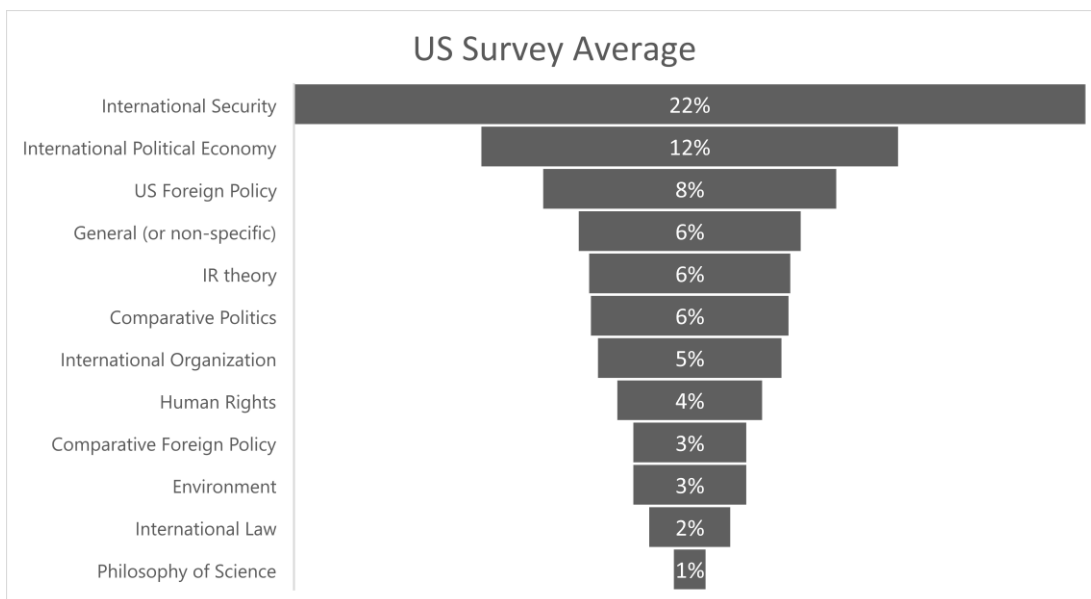
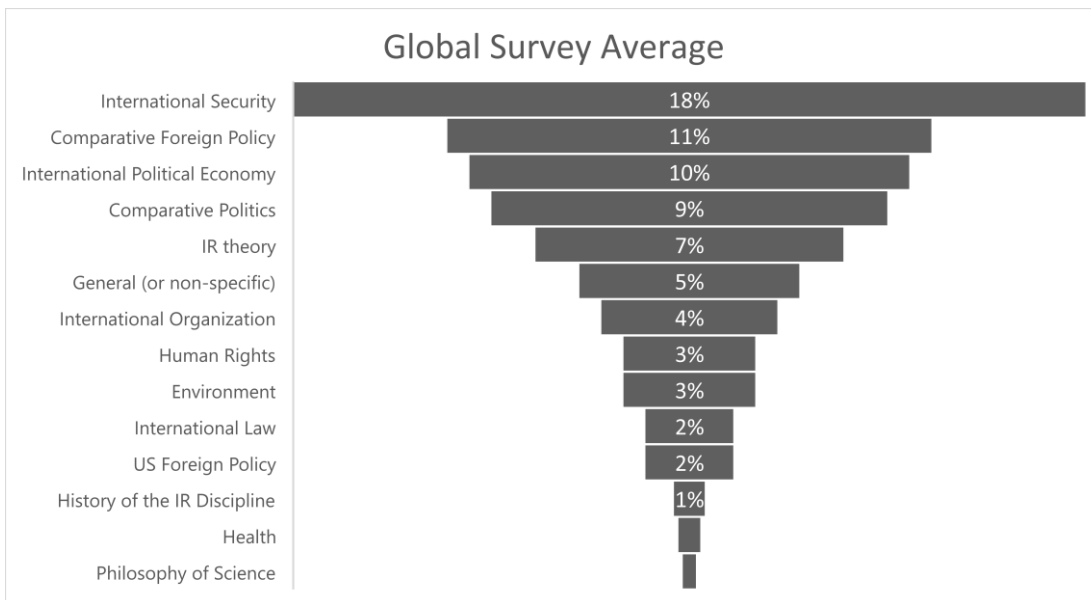
However, while the three journals on average are an accurate reflection of both the community that they are based in and the global community, this is less the case when one considers these publications individually. This means that, first, the three journals complement each other thematically and have an even greater coverage together than they do on their own. *International Studies Quarterly* demonstrates the highest level of evenness, as it did with variety. While almost half of all articles published in ISQ deal with one of two issue areas (international security and IPE), the other half are relatively evenly distributed across the remaining issue areas. For APSR, the picture looks relatively similar; both journals have a medium level of thematic evenness. *International Organization*, however, leans towards the lower end of the spectrum, as was the case for variety. *International Organization* has the largest single category of all comparative benchmarks. Thirty-four percent of all of its articles deal with IPE. Another 35% deal with the other two major IR topics, international security and international organization; that is, almost 70% of articles deal with the same three topics, while the rest are split across the remaining categories. *International Organization* thus only scores a low level of thematic evenness in comparison to the rest.

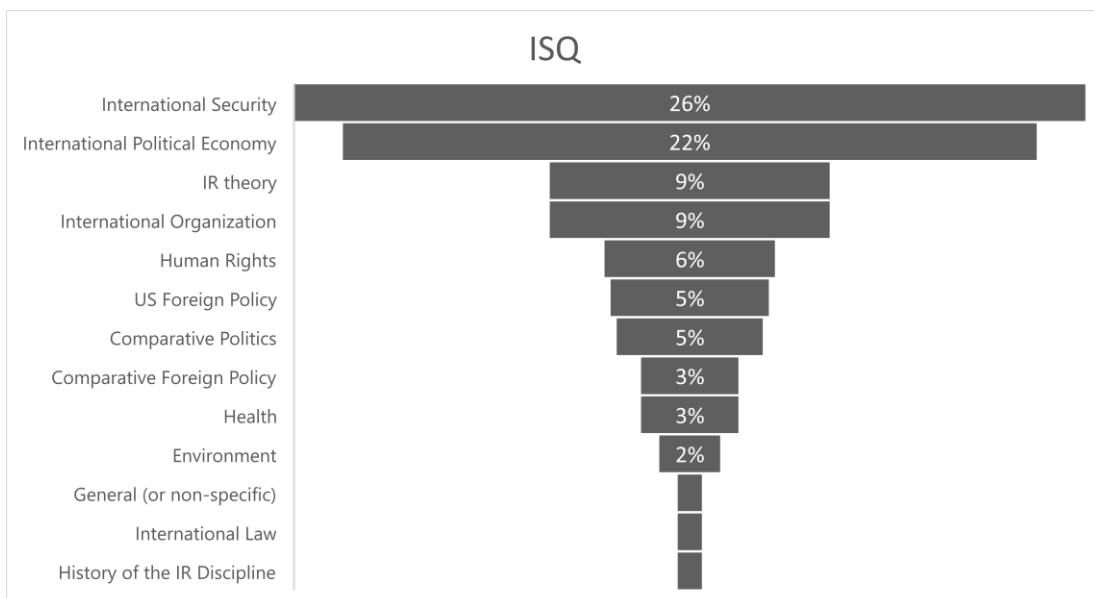
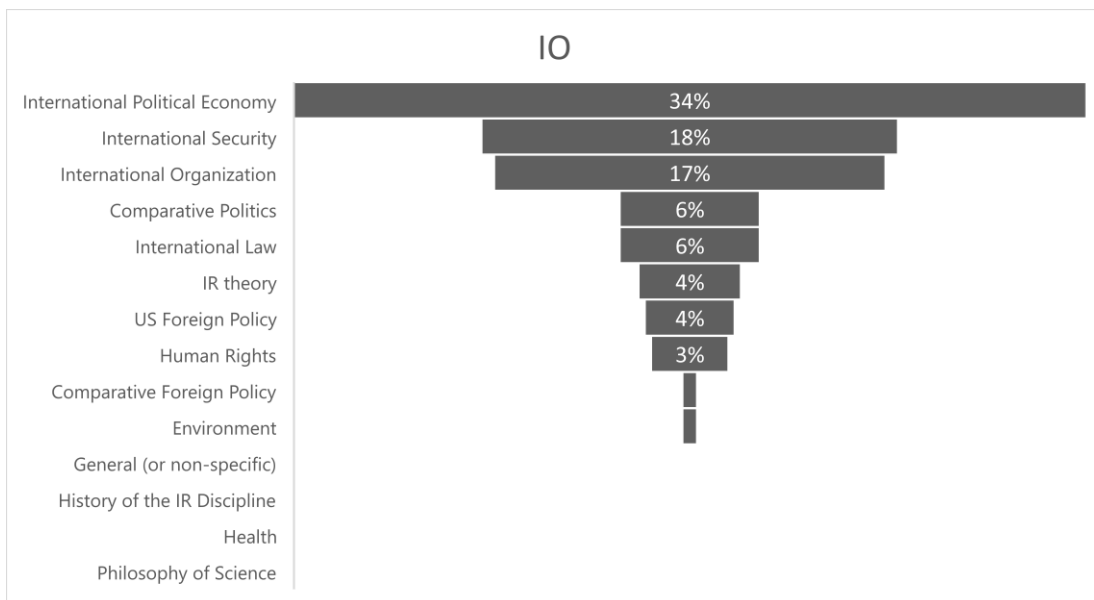
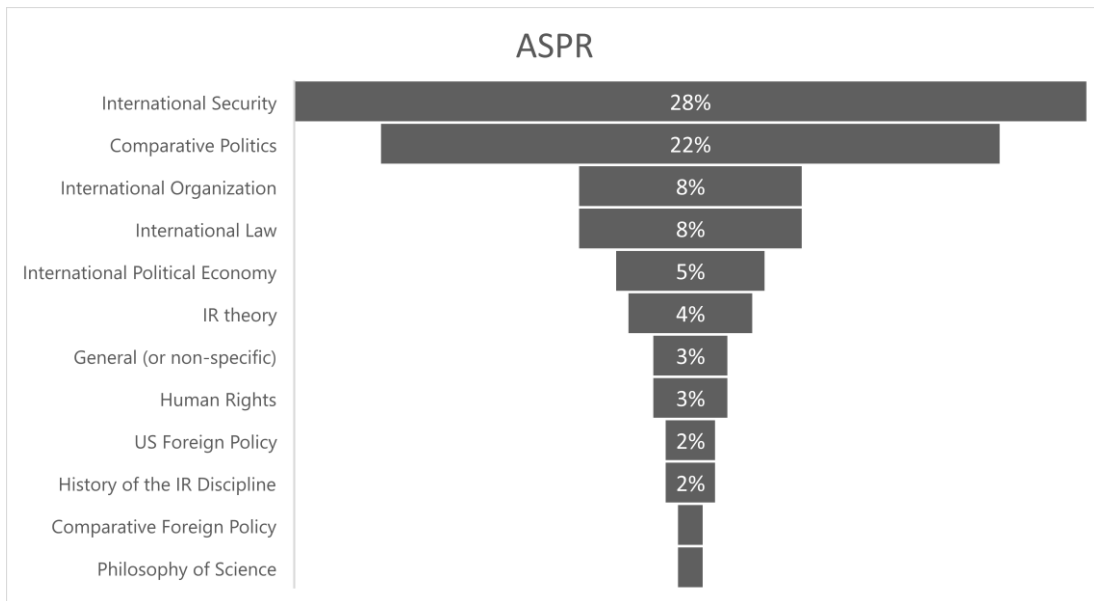
Thematic diversity is an aspect that makes it challenging to state anything substantial about dissimilarity as such. One observation that suggests a medium rather than a high level of dissimilarity is the fact that the three journals on average pay most attention to only three topics: international security, IPE, and international organization. In addition, at least two of these are also among each journal's individual top three topics. However, given the fact that these are the three core topics of IR, it does not seem unusual that these are featured the most. In this regard, the differences and commonalities between the three journals and the survey averages are more relevant. International security tops all rankings; the three individual journals feature only slightly more articles on international security than the benchmark values suggest.

A notable difference is that the second largest share of the global survey respondents reported their main area in IR as comparative foreign policy (11%), while this issue area is almost absent from any of the three journals. The same applies for the U.S. survey respondents. In this regard, therefore, the three journals are much closer to the U.S. community than to the global average. Studies on U.S. foreign policy, in contrast, were reported 8% more by U.S. survey respondents than such articles are reported on average in the three journals. Intriguingly, it is APSR that has the lowest level of U.S. foreign policy articles, which is noteworthy due to its explicit ties to the U.S. community. What is also notable is that international organization is much stronger in the three journals than the global and the U.S. survey averages. Pure IR theory articles, however, are as uncommon among the three journals as they were among the survey respondents. The only minor exception to this is ISQ, which publishes a higher share of IR theory articles than the other two journals.



*Figure 7
Thematic evenness, North America*





The three journals thus all show a high (ISQ, APSR) or medium (IO) level of thematic dissimilarity because they cover many different aspects of the discipline; however, they do focus more on the three core topics than both the global and the U.S. surveys suggest.

To summarize, the variety of topics covered by the three North American journals is almost perfectly high on average. Only IO demonstrates a medium level of variety in comparison to the other two journals. The articles in IO are also less evenly distributed among the topics covered since almost 70% of them deal with the same three topics. This uneven distribution is less severe in the other two journals, which are more in line with the level of unevenness indicated by the TRIP survey, both on the global and the U.S. levels. All journals have a medium level of dissimilarity in comparison to the survey values. All topic areas are covered, but the three main IR topics – international security, IPE, and international organization – constitute a notably higher total share in the journals than the survey values would suggest. International organization plays a particularly stronger role in the journals. All in all, the journals are slightly closer to the U.S. average than they are to the global survey average.

Table 12 Overview of thematic diversity, North America

Variety	Medium (IO) to high (ISQ, APSR)
Evenness	Low (IO) to medium (ISQ, APSR)
Dissimilarity	Medium

Theoretical diversity

The codebook for the journal analysis encompasses four theoretical approaches (Realism, Liberalism, Constructivism, and Marxism), one “catch-all” category for other theoretical approaches (“non-paradigmatic”), and one category for atheoretical articles. On average, the North American journals capture this variation to the full 100%; however, APSR and IO have published articles with only three out of the four main theoretical approaches. There were no articles with a Marxist explanatory framework. Although this is only one aspect fewer, this results in a medium level of variety for these two journals, as it is a large omission.

Theoretical evenness is on average at a low level for the three North American journals. This low level is the outcome of two observations: First, more than half of all articles (52%, see **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**) are non-paradigmatic, and there is a gap of 20% between the first and second categories (Liberalist) and another gap of the same size between the second and the third largest categories (Constructivist). Second, while non-paradigmatic is also the largest category for the global and the U.S. survey averages, its share is smaller than it is for the journal average. Additionally, the gap between the values for the first two individual theoretical approaches is much smaller for the survey values than for the journals. The U.S. survey values are actually roughly evenly distributed. While almost

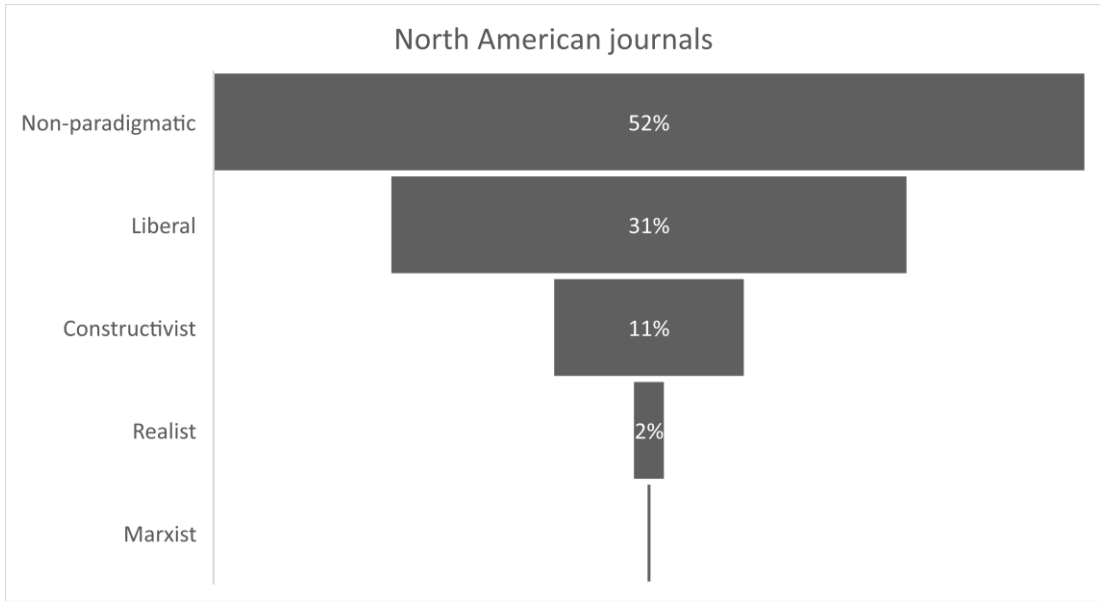
half of the respondents reported not working with any of the paradigms (“non-paradigmatic”), the measurements of three of the four individual theoretical approaches (with the exception of Marxism) are almost evenly sized. This is not at all the case for the North American journals, neither on average nor for the journals individually.

In fact, the distribution of articles across the four main theoretical approaches is even less even. To start with, APSR has an extremely large share of non-paradigmatic articles (71%), which suggests that the theoretical approaches used even for the IR articles in this political science journal are closer to other disciplines than to IR. Thirty percent of articles are distributed unequally across the four main approaches, with Realism having the largest value of 18% and the smallest of 3%; Marxism is completely absent. The distribution for IO appears a little more even; however, when only considering the four IR approaches – thus disregarding the 38% of non-paradigmatic articles – one can see how uneven the 44% share of Liberalist articles is in comparison to the second largest of approaches, which is Constructivism with 15%, while the rest have marginal shares. International Organization is thus the North American journal with the highest concentration of a single theoretical approach. In this comparison, ISQ is the journal with the highest evenness because the gaps between the measures of its individual theoretical approaches are smaller than those of the other two journals. Still, in comparison to the survey values, ISQ shows a low level of evenness. Thus, even if the catch-all category, non-paradigmatic, were to contain many more approaches and more detailed coding could lead to a higher level of evenness, what is visible at the moment for the distribution of the full IR approaches for all three journals indicates a case of low evenness.

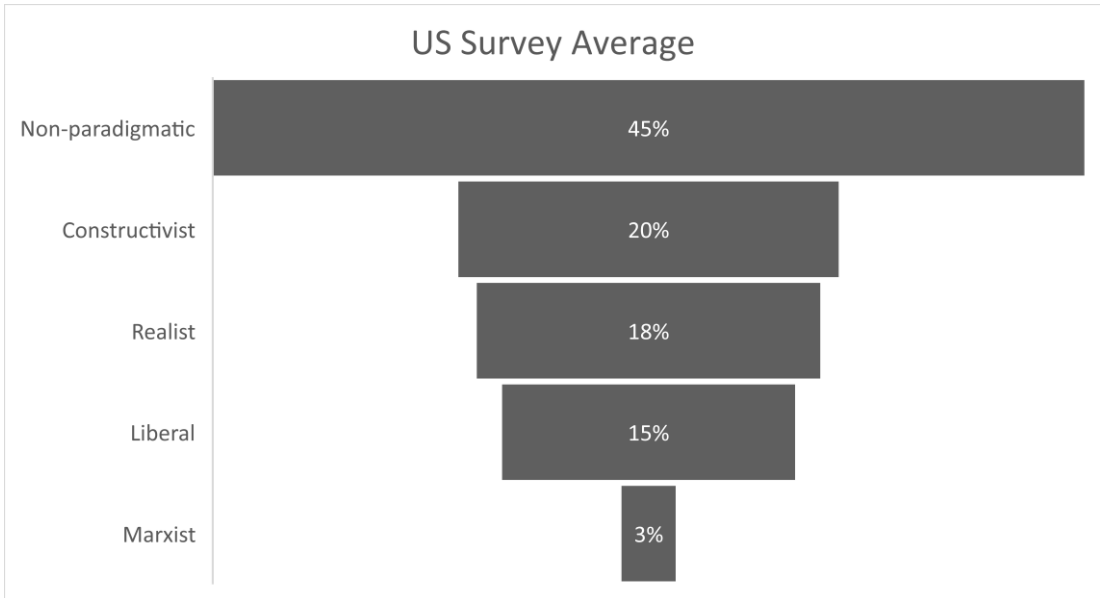
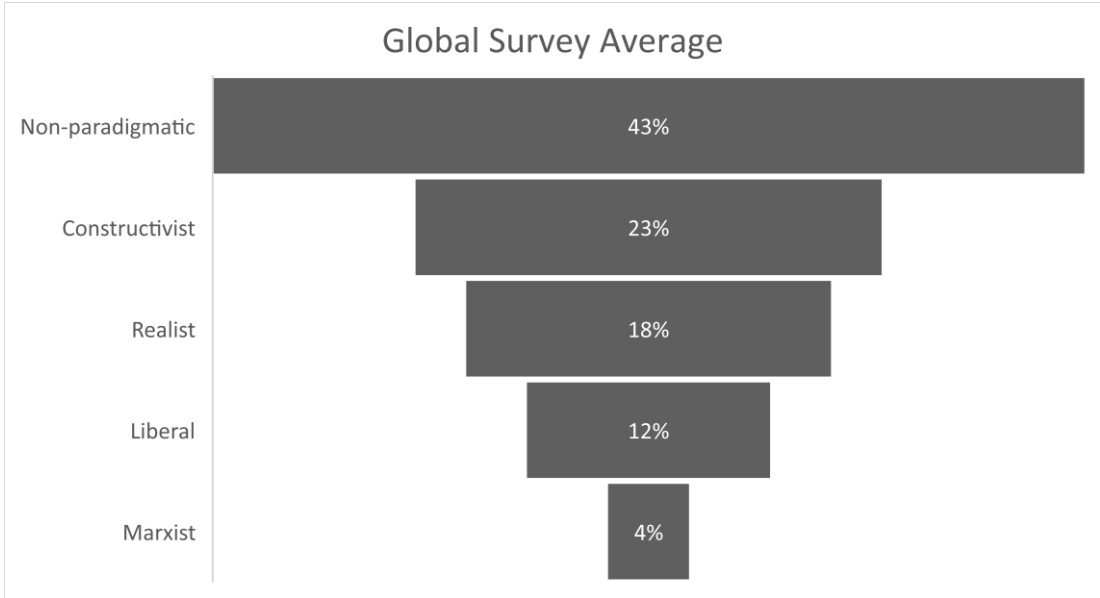
In terms of dissimilarity, given the codebook rules, it is difficult to make any judgment on the general differences between the approaches used in the North American journals. However, it is possible to make some observations: First, it is unclear whether any, and if so, how many, critical approaches are concealed under the non-paradigmatic label. There seems to be little of it published in any of the three journals under study. The low percentage of Marxist articles – in two of the three North American journals there are no Marxist articles at all, and in one of them there is only a single article – gives an indication of how low the overall percentage of critical approaches must be. This impression is supported by the fact that many of the articles that feature critical approaches, particularly post-structuralism and feminism, would likely have been coded as Constructivist, since Constructivism is an ontology that is shared by many critical theorists and not a theoretical approach by definition. This makes it especially relevant that many more survey respondents reported working with a Constructivist approach in comparison to its relatively small share among the three journals. Twenty-three percent of all global respondents and 20% of all U.S. survey respondents – that is, the second strongest category after non-paradigmatic for both global and US – identified Constructivism as the main theoretical

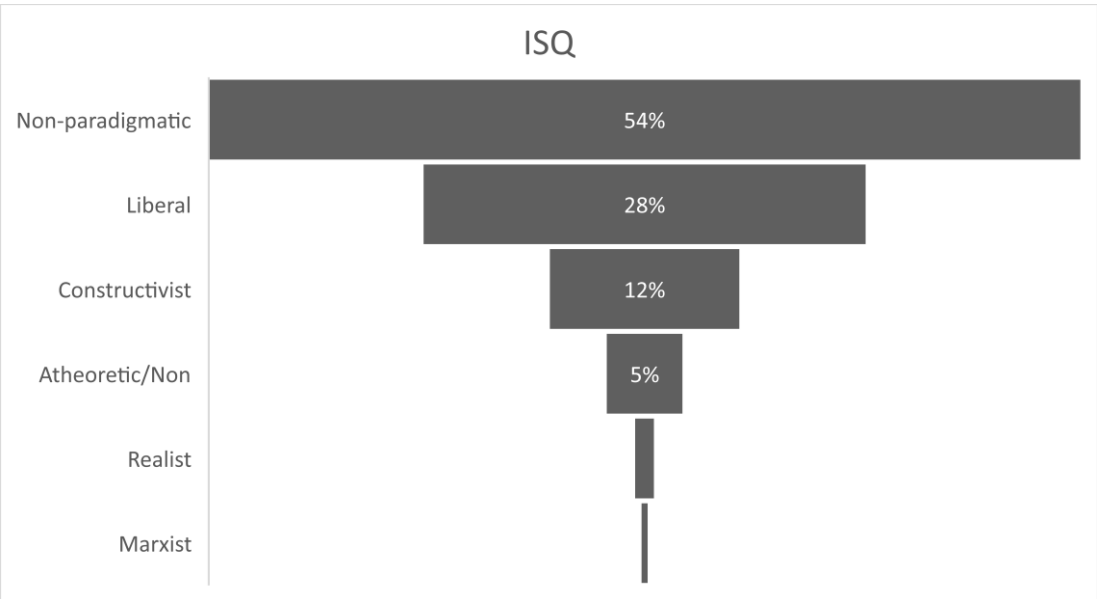
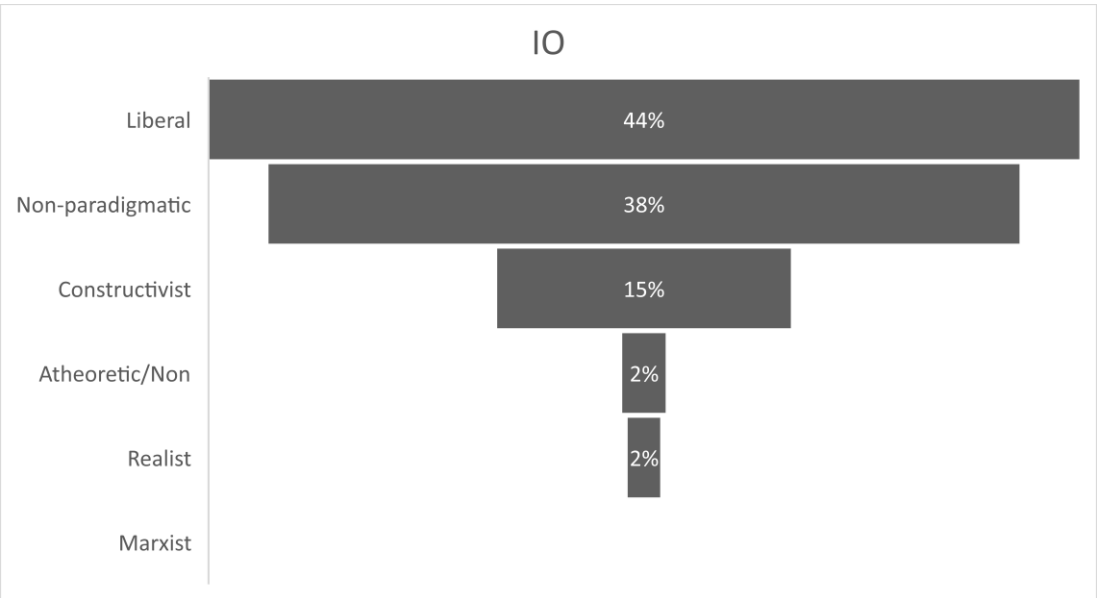
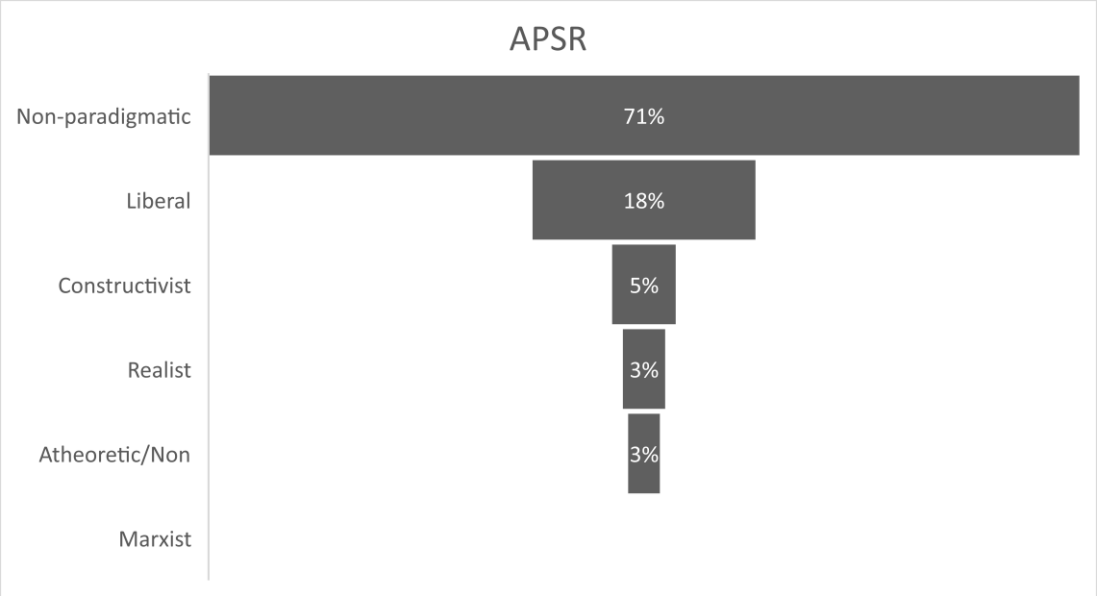
approach. However, Constructivism accounts for only 5% of articles in APSR, 12% in ISQ, and 15% in IO. There is thus a large gap in the perception of scholars and what is published in these three journals. In terms of dissimilarity, the low value for Constructivism, with its explicitly dissimilar ontology, suggests a low level of theoretical dissimilarity.

Second, the consideration of an additional variable, which was only coded for IO and ISQ and was not part of the TRIP survey, captured the presence of “non-Western” sources of knowledge in the theoretical approaches used in the articles. These sources could be embedded in a non-paradigmatic approach but could also be combined with any of the main IR approaches. Six percent of the articles in IO (i.e., 11 articles) and 4% in ISQ (i.e., five articles) indeed did have such sources embedded in their theoretical approaches. Although these values cannot be compared to global or local survey values, they indicate low dissimilarity.



*Figure 8
Geographical
thematic
evenness,
North America*





To summarize, among the three North American journals, the variety of theoretical approaches is high for ISQ and at a medium level for IO and APSR due to a lack of articles featuring a Marxist approach. The largest share of articles for the three-journal average adopt a non-paradigmatic approach, which means that many more approaches, and thus an even higher variety, is likely concealed under this catch-all label. The articles in all three journals are unevenly distributed among the four identified approaches. For ISQ and APSR, the largest share of articles are non-paradigmatic, while it is 71% in the case of IO. Both journals have a higher share of these articles than the global and the U.S. survey average suggests. The value for APSR suggests that even IR articles published in this political science journal adopt approaches that originate from disciplines other than IR. The articles that employ IR theoretical approaches in both APSR and IO are more unevenly distributed than suggested in the survey responses, leading to a low level of evenness. This pattern of distribution is even stronger in IO than in the other two journals; in IO, the strongest category is Liberalism, at 44%, which creates an even larger gap when compared to the remaining three main approaches.

The dissimilarity of theoretical approaches is also low for all three journals. The overall share of explicitly critical approaches (Marxism) is low; Marxism is even completely absent from two of the three journals. While the survey values do not suggest the presence of a large Marxist camp in IR, either in the US or elsewhere, the values for the journals are still considerably lower than what the perception data suggests. The strength of the category Constructivism, which summarizes approaches with the same ontology rather than representing a unified theoretical approach, is a second relevant indicator of theoretical dissimilarity, and it supports the impression of low dissimilarity. While Constructivist articles are present in all three journals, these shares are considerably smaller than what both the global and the U.S. survey averages suggest. In other words, articles with this dissimilar ontology are underrepresented in all three North American journals under study.

Finally, only a small number of articles make use of non-Western sources of knowledge, which may combine traditional IR theories with insights from Latin American, Asian, Middle Eastern, or African knowledge or build complete non-Western theories of IR. The North American journals do not stand out as a result of this low value, but it is low nonetheless. The North American journals are therefore characterized by the use of a mainstream set of theoretical approaches with tendencies towards Liberalism and a strong influence of smaller approaches from other disciplines or IR itself (non-paradigmatic). None of the values of the approaches, however, are strong enough to justify the use of the term dominance with regard to thematic diversity in the North American journals based on the theories applied by the authors of the articles that they publish.

Table 13 Overview of theoretical diversity, North America per journal

Variety	Medium (IO, APSR) to high (ISQ)
Evenness	Low
Dissimilarity	Low

4.1.3 Conclusions about North American journals

Geo-diversity

The data on geographical diversity that I presented for the North American case study demonstrated that geographic authorship diversity is low for all three journals with regard to almost all three properties. The only exception is that the variety of author locations is slightly higher for ISQ than for the other two journals (see Table 14). What is interesting in this context is that the level of evenness for ISQ is as low as the level for the other two journals, which means that, while authors from many different countries contribute to ISQ, as was expected, the journal still primarily publishes articles by authors based in the US. Furthermore, the level of geographical authorship dissimilarity for all three journals is low because the handful of authors who are published in the North American journals but are not based in the US are almost exclusively affiliated with institutions that are either part of the Anglo-sphere or otherwise located in Western Europe. On the whole, the outcomes for the three North American journals speak to a clear U.S. insularity and support the already US-centric impression of these journals suggested elsewhere (Gläser and Aman 2017; Wæver 1998; Kristensen 2015a).

Table 14 Geographic diversity for North American journals

	Authorship	Content
Variety	Low (IO, APSR), medium (ISQ)	High
Evenness	Low	Medium
Dissimilarity	Low	Low

Based on the outcomes for geographical content diversity, the threefold definition of diversity plays out fully. The variety of regions under study in the three journals is high, while the evenness is at a medium level and the dissimilarity is low (see Table 14). That means that, while all three journals cover a wide range of regions, they focus intensely on a relatively smaller number of them, and, of this small number of regions, most belong to the same geopolitical realm, in this case “the West.” Like the dominance of US-based authors, this becomes a problem, particularly for IO and ISQ, in terms of what the effects may be if two of the leading “global” IR journals pay little attention to the global South. Even regions with strategic importance to the “the West” and the US in particular, such as East Asia and MENA, are almost absent from these journals. That there is indeed an underrepresentation in the journals finds confirmation in a comparison with the survey benchmarks: East Asia tops both the global and the U.S. respondents’ rankings of most studied regions but is studied in, on average, only 9% of the articles

published in the North American journals. The Middle East and North Africa and Latin America are evenly understudied in the three journals under investigation.

However, while these journals feature disproportionately few individual studies on these regions, they are characterized by an above average number of studies at the global level that draw data from all regions relevant to authors’ analyses. In fact, the largest share of articles, particularly in ISQ and even APSR, cover phenomena on a global scale. This creates an impression of internationality, but with special attention being paid to the West. The three journals are therefore far removed from the constructed border of area studies, as they focus on the world stage of international politics and political economy, which might be regarded as the main stage observed by the IR discipline.

Thematic and theoretical diversity

The most striking feature with regard to thematic diversity of the three North American journals under study is that IO is characterized by a lower level of thematic diversity than the other two journals. My analysis demonstrates that IO has a lower degree of thematic variety and an even lower degree of thematic evenness than ISQ and APSR (see Table 15). This lower level of diversity can be explained with reference to IO’s specialization in topics related to international organization and IPE in particular. On the whole, the North American journals display interesting patterns for the three properties: medium/high variety, low/medium evenness, and medium dissimilarity. In other words, despite a focus on a limited number of topics, these few topics fall under the three not-so-similar categories, namely international security, IPE, and international organization. Furthermore, none of these topics, even those that are clearly more studied than others, overwhelmingly characterize the journals, not even the high share of IPE articles in IO. This particular constellation of medium dissimilarity and low (IO) to medium (ISQ, APSR) evenness might be characteristic of the North American journals. These journals thus feature a wide range of topics with clear foci but do not place a strong emphasis on any of them.

Table 15 Thematic diversity in North American journals

	Topics	Theories
Variety	Medium (IO) to high (ISQ, ASPR)	Medium (IO, ASPR) to high (ISQ)
Evenness	Low (IO) to medium (ISQ, ASPR)	Low
Dissimilarity	Medium	Low

The situation seems slightly different in terms of theoretical diversity. The analysis of theoretical variety again demonstrated that a balanced approach to measuring diversity needs to go beyond the parameter of variety. While all three journals covered almost all of the main theoretical approaches specified in the codebook and also a high number of non-paradigmatic (“other”) approaches, the low levels for evenness and dissimilarity indicate a less straightforward situation when it comes to theoretical diversity.

International Organization is particularly characterized by a high share of 44% of “Liberalist” approaches; this percentage most likely includes a great deal of institutionalist approaches that were not separately specified in the TRIP codebook. It seems that IO’s mild specialization in topics brings with it a focus on specific theoretical approaches. Nevertheless, the articles in both IO and ISQ are still slightly more evenly distributed than those in APSR. Given the fact that the uneven distribution for APSR is caused by a high share of non-paradigmatic articles, the journal still lives up to its goal of theoretical pluralism because many different approaches could be concealed behind this label, meaning that this high share does not constitute a case of dominance. On a methodological note, this analysis demonstrates that the TRIP codebook used for this analysis would need to be much more fine-grained to capture these journals’ theoretical diversity beyond the major “paradigms” already featured.

The low level of theoretical dissimilarity is caused by the almost complete lack of articles with critical approaches or approaches that work with non-Western sources of knowledge. Even articles with a Constructivist ontology are far less prevalent in the three North American journals under study than the global and the U.S. survey benchmarks would suggest. While the survey data presents a strong counterexample of how many U.S. scholars and scholars around the world claim to work using Constructivist approaches, this comparison is less compelling for Marxist approaches and without a comparison for non-Western IR theories. Furthermore, critical theories and, to an even greater degree, non-Western IR theories are so uncommon in IR in general that it would be absolutely remarkable were the three North American journals to publish more articles featuring these types of theorizing. In addition, all journals publish a high number of articles with smaller, “non-paradigmatic” approaches and thus actually serve as potential translators of these approaches, which often originate in other disciplines, for a large IR audience. It is not impossible that some of these smaller approaches are actually rooted in critical theorizing. It seems that the mix of theories, even with the slight preferences of single journals for some approaches, is what characterizes all three journals.

To conclude, this first case study on the three North American journals is special because it covers three globally known and likewise consumed and praised journals. International Organization, and to a lesser degree ISQ, can be considered the backbones of scholarly communication in IR when it comes to reputation and measurements such as citation counts. This global influence, however, as this chapter has illustrated, is not directly reflected in either the journals’ geographical or thematic diversity. Tendencies of dominance in the context of IR in North American journals only apply to the aspect of authorship geography, not to their subject matter; in other words, what is published in the North American journals is primarily produced by US-based scholars, but it is not homogenous to a degree that allows one to speak in general terms of the type of research that is being published in North American journals in terms of either topics or theories.

4.2 Case study on Latin American journals

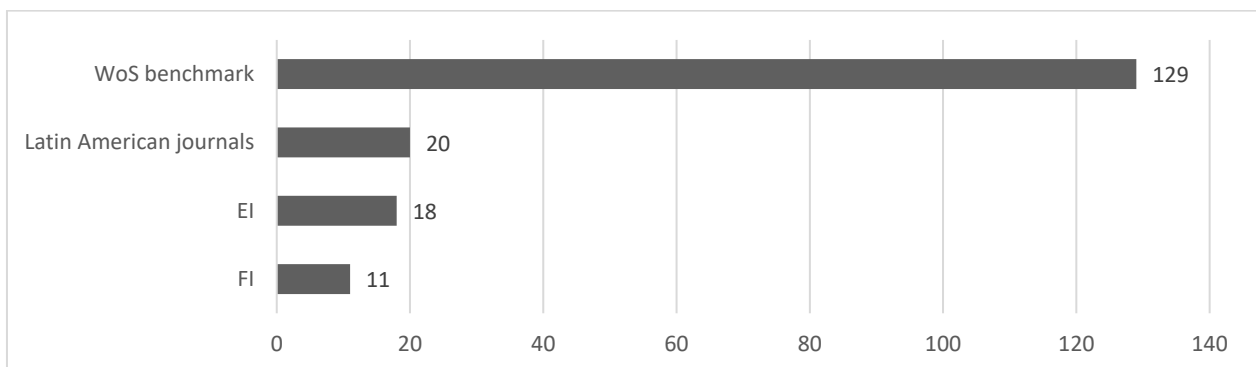
4.2.1 Descriptive results: geographical diversity

Geographical authorship diversity

The variety of authorship in Latin American journals is at a medium level. Authors located in 20 different countries published in FI and EI between 2005 and 2014, which amounts to 15.5% of the WoS benchmark. This is a relatively high number of countries given the fact that the primary language of those journals is Spanish; however, it is only a low medium level in comparison to the other journals with regard to the benchmark value.

The variety of countries is higher in the Chilean EI than in the Mexican FI, and the two journals together cover more countries of affiliation than any of the two journals individually. Authors affiliated with institutions in 18 different countries have published in EI, which amounts to 14% of the WoS benchmark. Authors from only 11 countries published articles in FI during the time period under investigation. This is a low degree of variety and equals only 8.5% of the benchmark value. Foro Internacional is thus one of the least varied journals under investigation in this study.

Figure 9 Geographical authorship variety, Latin America

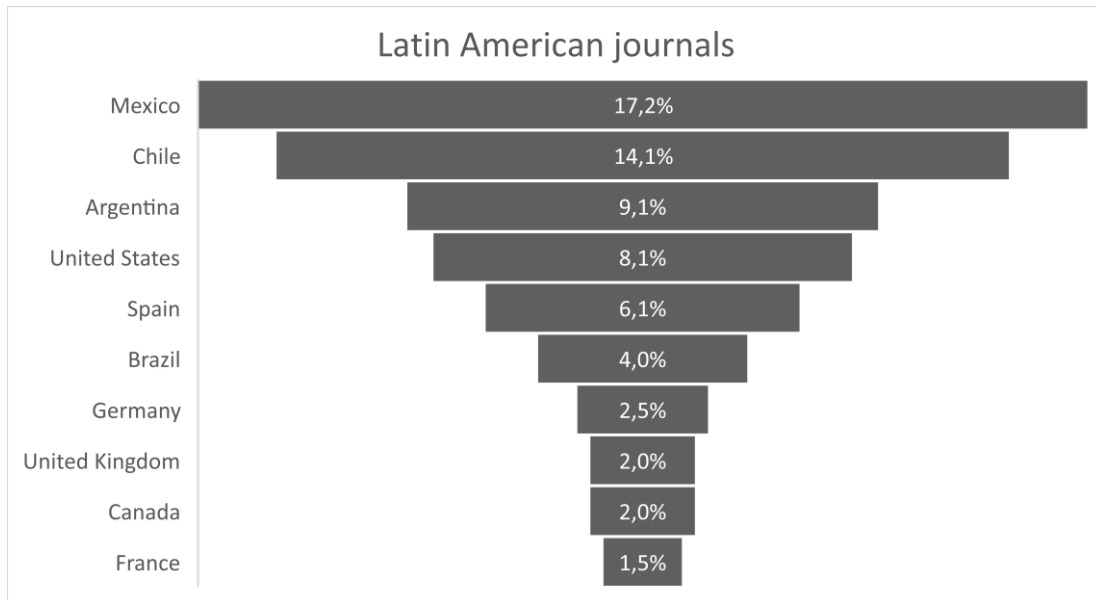


The average distribution of authors who published their work in EI or FI during the time of investigation is relatively even, also when compared to the WoS and the survey sample benchmarks. The two most represented countries of affiliation, Mexico and Chile, have a share of approximately only 17% and 14%, respectively. Furthermore, there are five countries among the top 10 with more than 10 articles published between 2005 and 2014, and another five countries with more than one article. All in all, there are large gaps between the top ten countries of affiliation. This indicates high evenness for authorship in the two journals when looking at them as a unit.

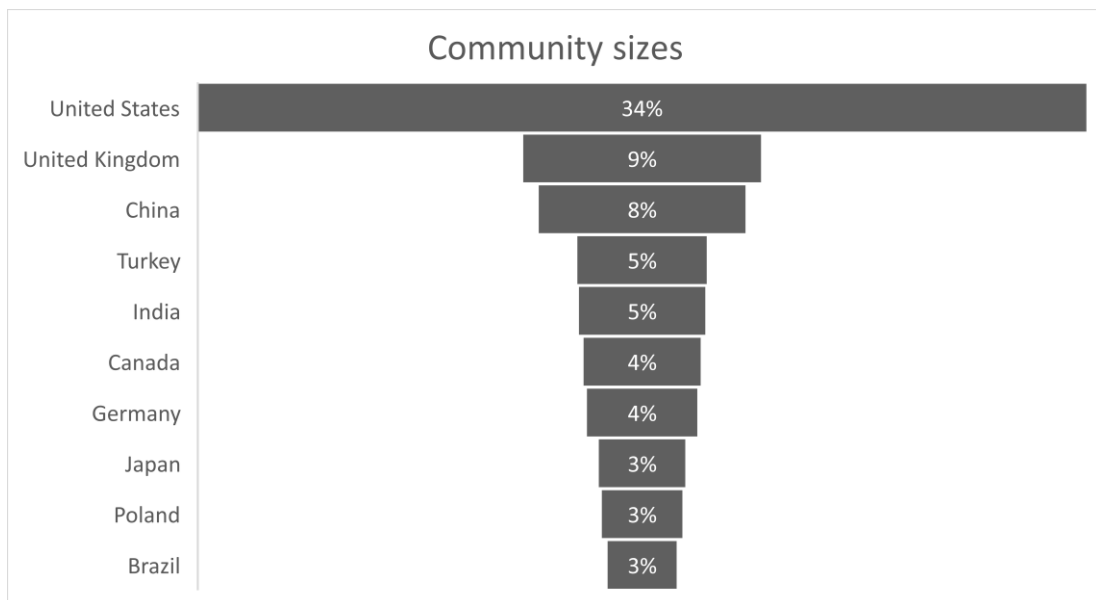
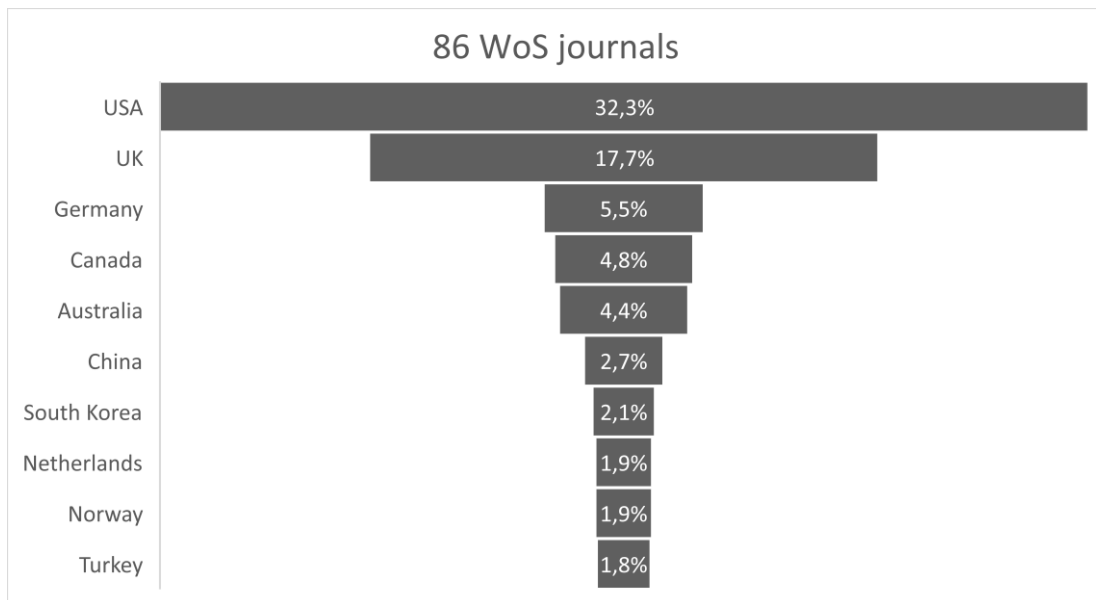
However, the two journals present individual pictures of evenness, and the value for each, taken separately, is less even than the average. Of all articles published in EI, 33% come from authors based in the journal's home country, Chile. For FI, the equivalent share of Mexico-based authors is 48%. These numbers are fairly close to the sizes of the strongest categories for both benchmark values but are

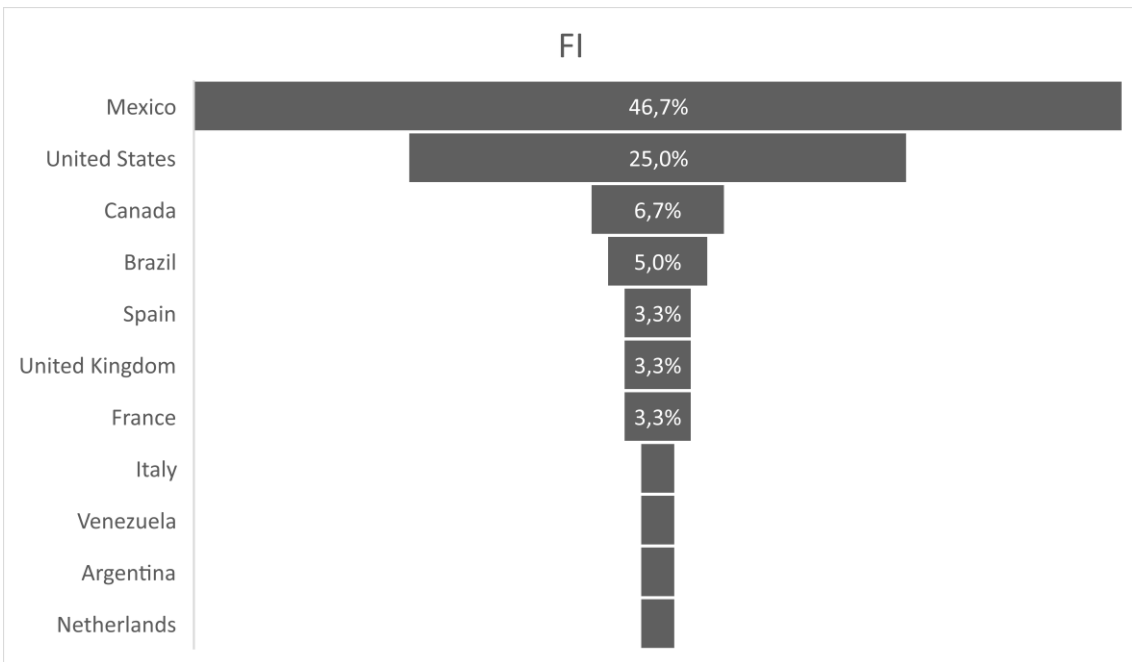
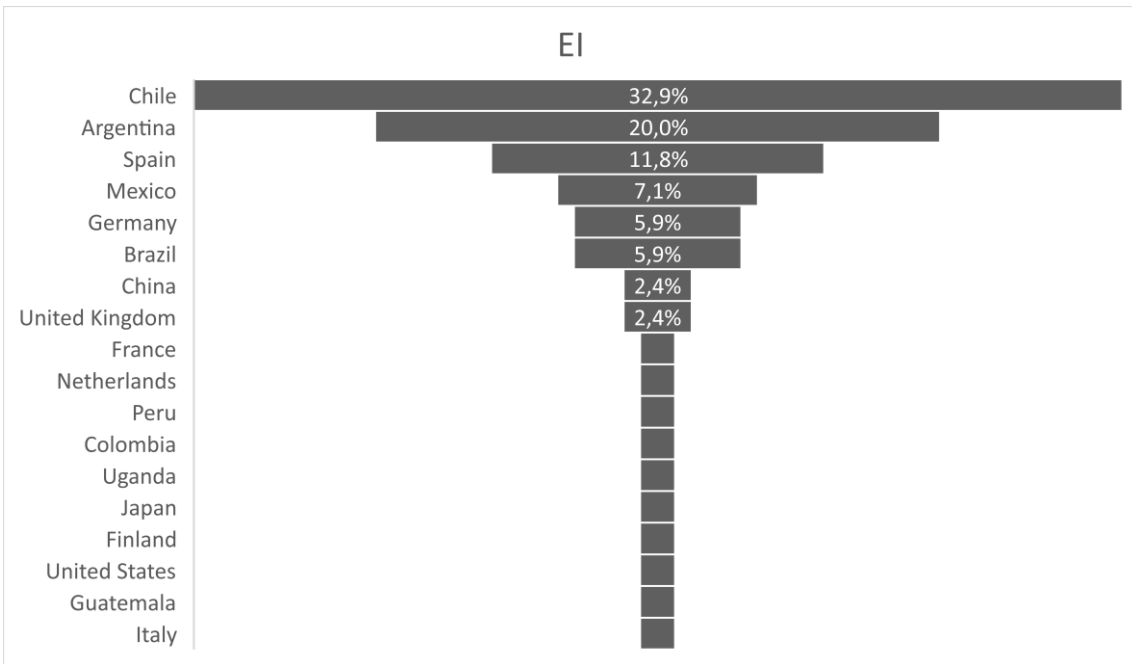
completely out of proportion when comparing the respective community sizes (2% for Mexico and 0.3% for Chile) to these representations. The same applies for the representations of all other Latin American countries that were part of the 2014 survey sample, with the exception of Brazil, which is only slightly overrepresented. Still, there are relatively small gaps between these relatively strongest and second strongest countries in both journals, with Argentina having 20% in the case of EI and the US having 25% in the case of FI. The larger gaps appear after the second strongest country in both cases, although the drop is much higher for FI than for EI (see Figure 10). What lowers EI's evenness even further is its distribution's "long tail," which is caused by the 10 countries of affiliation that each have only one article. Foro Internacional's authorship is even less evenly composed since only the two strongest countries of affiliation contributed more than three articles each, while most of the others contributed only one or two. In other words, more than 70% of all articles published in FI are the contributions of authors based in only one of two countries. This is clearly above the value of around 50% for the WoS benchmark. Therefore, both journals have low levels of geographical authorship evenness due to their strong overrepresentation of their host countries in comparison to the sample sizes and the relatively large number of countries of affiliation with only a few articles each.

Among the countries of affiliation for the two journals are the more obvious given their language and/or regional proximity: Mexico, Chile, Argentina, Spain, Brazil, Peru, Guatemala, Colombia, and Venezuela. In comparison to the community sizes identified based on the 2014 TRIP samples, these countries are overrepresented. However, this makes sense given these journals' language profile and the underrepresentation of these countries in the other journals. Despite their regional profiles, the two Latin American journals also published articles by authors affiliated with institutions based in the US, Germany, the UK, Canada, France, the Netherlands, Italy, Finland, and even China and Japan. All in all, this indicates a strong mix of countries from almost all corners of the world, global North and South alike. In fact, 66% of the authors published in the two Latin American journals are based in the global South (although primarily in Latin America), while 34% are based in the global North. This speaks to a more balanced representation of authors from both parts of the world, indicating a medium level of geographical authorship dissimilarity for both journals.



*Figure 10
Geographical
authorship
evenness, Latin
America (top 10)*





The US holds a special place in Latin American IR, particularly when considering the two journals under investigation individually. Scholars based in the US constitute the second largest group of authors in Mexican FI. In EI, in contrast, only one article has an author or co-author who was affiliated with a US institution at the time of publication. This makes EI the only journal in the sample that lies outside of the sphere of influence of US-based authors. Foro Internacional, in contrast, is characterized by strong U.S. authorship. Whether these US-based authors are part of a Hispanic academic diaspora in the US or whether authors without native links to Latin America have published in these two journals is unfortunately not clear from the dataset used for this dissertation. It is certain, however, that FI must be an attractive publication outlet for the Latin American studies community in the US. Also notable is the fact that there are three times as many US-based authors in FI than there are authors based in South America. The picture is the complete opposite for EI: Only one article was authored by a US-based scholar, while 59 of its authors (69%) were based at Latin American institutions at the time of writing.

To summarize, the geographical authorship variety of the two Latin American journals differs. Estudios Internacionales has a medium level of variety with 18 countries of affiliation, and FI has a low level with only 11 countries. The level of evenness is low for both journals. Foro Internacional primarily publishes articles by authors based in its host country, Mexico, or in the US. While EI also publishes a great deal of articles by authors based in its host country, Chile, its authorship is, overall, more balanced, with authors from many South American and European countries. Still, both host countries, as well as the Spanish-speaking Latin American countries at large, are significantly overrepresented in comparison to their share of the 2014 TRIP samples. Still, the two journals do attract scholars based in countries far beyond their host region, in spite of the fact that the language of these publications is not English but Spanish (and, in a few cases, Portuguese). While both journals have an unusual mix of global South and North authors due to the strong presence of Latin American authors, the Latin American portion in FI is primarily composed of authors based in Mexico, while the global North portion of authors is based in the US. This is not the case for EI, which publishes the works of a larger variety of Latin American and European authors. All in all, both journals have a medium level of geographical author dissimilarity due to their above average mixed focus on the global South and the North, with the obvious caveat that the global South authors are almost exclusively based in Latin America (and especially the journals' respective host countries), while the global North authors featured in FI are primarily based in the US.

If one takes all factors into account, two findings concerning the authorship diversity of the two Latin American journals stand out: First, scholars from Latin America constitute large shares of the authors in both journals, and this indicates insularity. Second, both journals feature both global South and North authors. Third, the two journals differ from each other in that the Mexican FI seems to be more closely

connected to North America and Europe than to Latin America, while the Chilean EI is characterized by a high share of authors from all parts of South America.

Table 16 Overview of geographical authorship diversity, Latin America

Variety	Low (FI) to medium (EI)
Evenness	Low
Dissimilarity	Medium

Geographical content diversity

As for the North American journals, the variety of regions studied in EI and FI is almost perfectly high. The only region listed in the codebook that is not studied at all in these two journals is Antarctica. All other 11 individual regions under study in these journals, as well as articles with a global scale and articles without a region, were published in both journals between 2005 and 2014.

The articles published in the Latin American journals are significantly less evenly distributed across the individual regions than articles in the North American journals and also less than the global survey average suggests. The largest share of articles in both journals combined focuses on Latin America itself (68%), with the United States as the second largest category (32%). This means that there is a gap between these two categories of almost 40%, which is a clear sign of unevenness. The third most studied region in the North American journals is Western Europe/Canada (23%). While the gap between the second and third category is smaller than that between the first and the second, it is still large (9%). After these top three, there is another gap of almost 10% between a group of regions that are almost equally studied and some regions that have received 5% or less attention.

The combined distribution of EI and FI, as well as their individual values, are close to that of the Latin American survey average.⁵³ The survey respondents demonstrate a dominant focus on Latin America (here split into South and Central America and the Caribbean). The global survey average, in contrast, displays a much higher degree of evenness. All in all, EI is slightly less focused on Latin America than FI and demonstrates a more equally distributed interest in other regions, but the distribution is nevertheless unbalanced. Both journals thus display a low level of evenness due to their extreme focus on Latin America, which is in line with local survey results but contrasts with the global distribution of interest in individual regions.

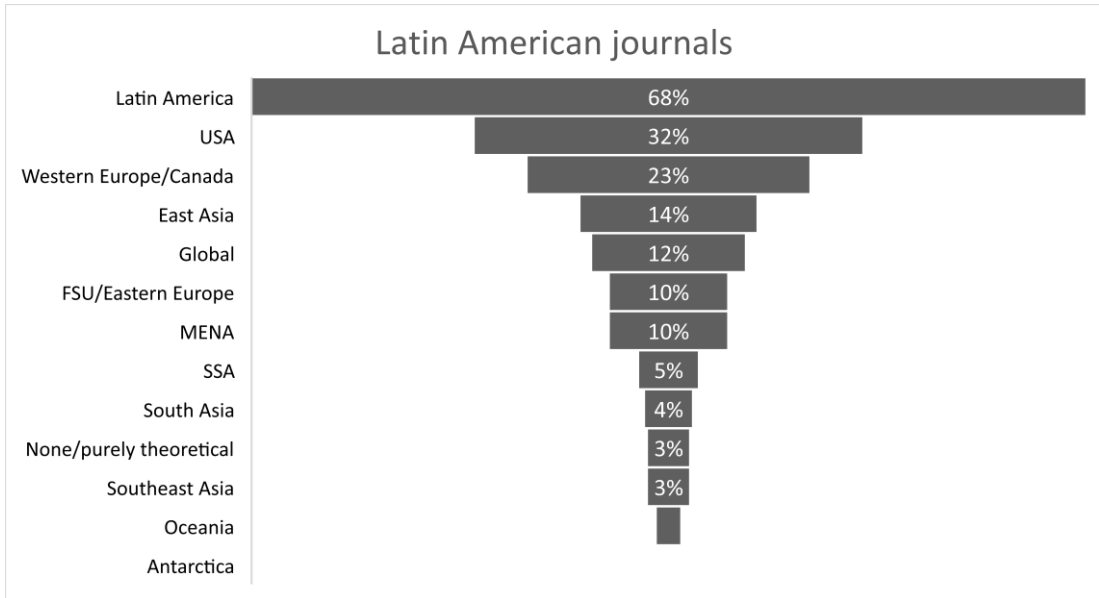
The journals’ strong focus on their local region is accompanied by a low level of articles with a global scope (12%), which are much less common in the Latin American journals than both the global survey average (26%) and the Latin American survey average (24%) suggest. This combination of an uneven focus on Latin America and a neglect of the international level is even more pronounced in the Mexican

⁵³ This average combines the 2014 TRIP survey data of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Mexico.

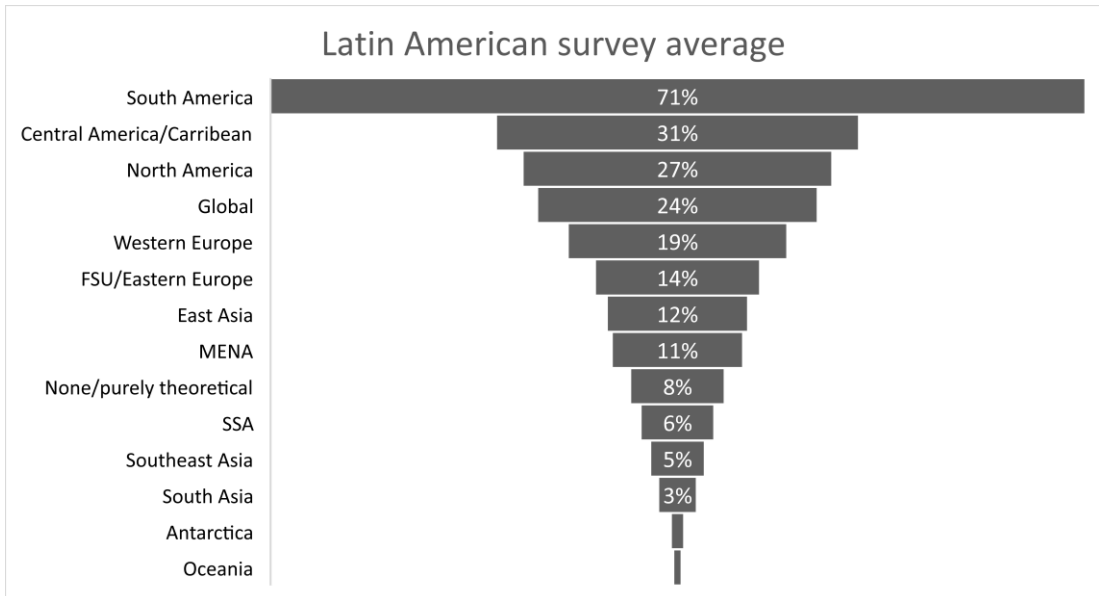
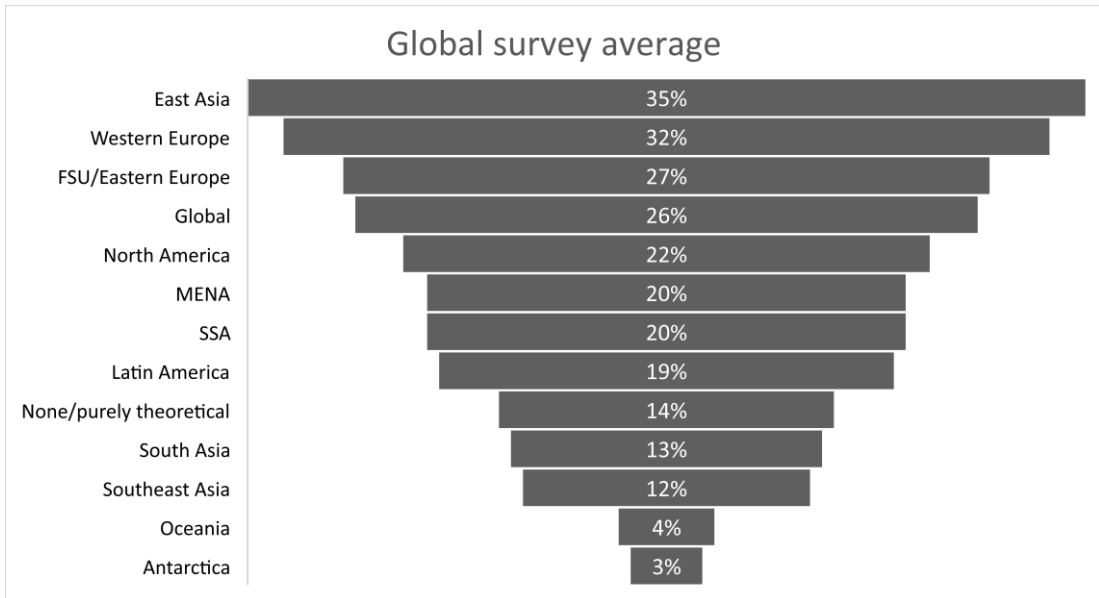
FI than in the Chilean EI. Only 10% of the articles in FI have a global scope, while 76% thereof focus on issues related to Latin America. In EI, this gap is a slightly smaller: 14% of its articles have a global scope, and 62% focus on Latin America. The level of dissimilarity, however, is relatively high for Latin America, although the journals display some interesting disparities. While the primary focus on Latin America as the journals' local region and the low interest in global studies initially creates an impression of journals that are severely inward-looking, this intense focus on Latin America is balanced by an almost equally large interest in "the West." The top three regions under study in the Latin American journals are Latin America (70%), the US (33%), and Western Europe/Canada (24%). Beyond their inward-looking focus, the journals thus demonstrate the tendency to focus on "the West" suggested by the survey benchmarks.

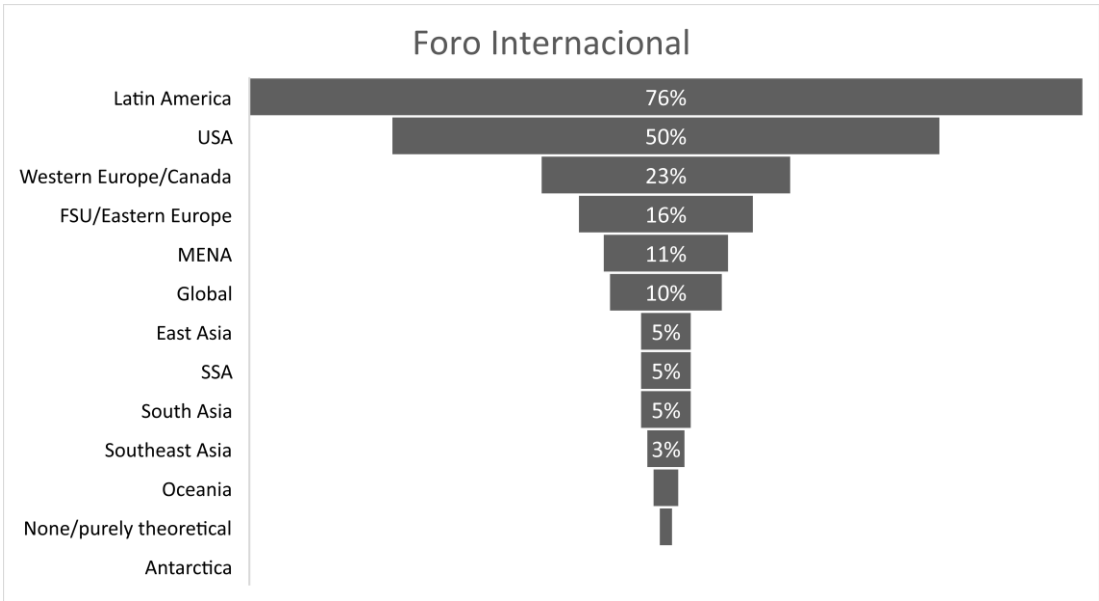
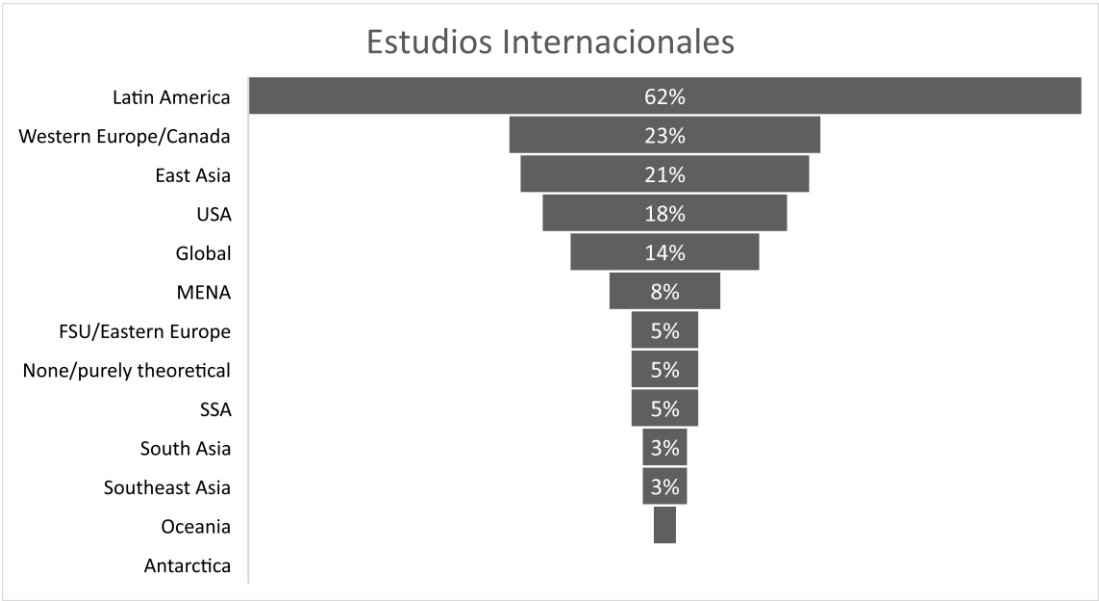
The relative number of articles on the US, however, varies extremely across the two journals. Half of all of the articles published in the Mexican FI focus solely or partially on the US, while this is only the case for 18% of articles published in Chilean EI. The level for FI is thus much higher than the global survey average (22%) and the Latin American survey average (27%), while EI's focus is less intense than these benchmark values would suggest. Thus, despite the US' generally dominant role on the international level, it seems to be of much greater relevance to Mexican IR and of rather little relevance to Chilean IR. As large as this gap may seem, however, this discrepancy makes sense in light of the two countries' geographical and geo-political positions. Many of the articles in FI that concern both the US and Latin America are most likely about Mexico-US relations. In this regard, the authorship patterns are reflected in the journal's geographical content diversity.

Less intuitively logical in this context is the relatively high share of articles published in EI that focus on East Asia (23% in comparison to the 5% in FI). In fact, more articles in EI focus on East Asia than on the US. With regard to this aspect, EI is more diverse in terms of a global South/East and North/West mixture of regions under study than FI. Nevertheless, the two journals are less mixed than the global benchmark value, which indicates a much greater concern for East Asia (35%), the Middle East and North Africa, Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union/Russia, and global issues. This observation relates to the low level of articles with global coverage, which I have previously discussed. All in all, the two journals are in line with the Latin American survey average but fall short of the evenness displayed by the global benchmark. Due to their interest in both their own region and the West, however, I conclude that the geographical content dissimilarity of both Latin American journals is at a medium level.



*Figure 11
Geographical
content evenness,
Latin America*





To summarize, the regional scope of the Latin American journals under study, in terms of variety, is at an almost perfectly high level, as it is only Antarctica that is not among the regions studied. Nothing about these values, therefore, suggests that EI and FI have a less-than-global scope in terms of regions under study. In terms of evenness, however, the two Latin American journals are at a low level for several reasons: First, almost 70% of all articles study the same region – Latin America itself – while the second largest region – the US – is studied in 33% of the articles. This large gap between the highest value and the others indicates relatively low evenness, as well as an inward-looking focus on the local region. This inward-looking focus is further intensified by relatively low attention paid to the global level. Nevertheless, this strong focus on Latin America also contributes to a picture of medium dissimilarity. The two journals publish articles on both the global South and North regions. In fact, the attention that these two journals pay to the US and Western Europe/Canada is perfectly in line with the global benchmark and in one case even higher (the focus on the US displayed by FI). This creates a much more mixed picture than is the case for the North American journals. Nevertheless, the two journals lie below the global survey average when it comes to paying attention to other non-Western regions, such as the East and the Middle East. Their strong focus on their own region, the low level of global studies, and the strong attention paid to the West – especially the US, in the case of FI – are the aspects that characterize these journals in terms of geographical content diversity.

Table 17 Overview of geographical content diversity, Latin America

Variety	High
Evenness	Low
Dissimilarity	Medium

4.2.2 Descriptive results: thematic and theoretical diversity

Thematic diversity

The thematic variety of the two Latin American journals is lower than that of the North American journals. Together, these journals cover only 17 out of the 20 possible issue areas specified in the codebook. The coverage of substantive foci, in contrast, is relatively high at 91% (bargaining/deterrence strategy, weapon systems, and public health are not covered). The overall thematic diversity of the Latin American journals in terms of variety is thus at a medium level. As for the North American journals, there is substantial variation across the two journals when it comes to the coverage of issue areas. The Chilean EI covers 80% of the issue areas, while the Mexican FI covers only 65%, which is the lowest value for all journals under study. Both the global and the Latin American survey respondents covered all possible issue areas. Consequentially, the level of thematic variety in FI is low, while that of EI is at a medium level.

Table 18 Thematic variety, Latin America

Issue Area	EI	FI
International Security	✓	✓
International Political Economy	✓	✓
International Organization	✓	✓
Comparative Politics	✓	✓
IR Theory	✓	
Human Rights	✓	✓
Comparative Foreign Policy	✓	✓
International Law	✓	
Local Foreign Policy	✓	✓
US Foreign Policy	✓	✓
Political Theory	✓	✓
Methodology		
Environment	✓	
History of the IR Discipline	✓	
American Politics		✓
Local Domestic Policy	✓	✓
Health		
General (or non-specific)		
Philosophy of Science	✓	
Other	✓	✓
Variety	80%	65%

Despite these relatively low levels of variety, the articles in both journals are relatively evenly distributed across the present categories. The three leading topics – IPE, local foreign policy, and international security – are covered by 46% of the articles, which is below both the global (53%) and the Latin American survey average (50%). Looked at individually, FI lies above these two benchmark levels with 55%. It fits these values with the size of its largest category (24% in comparison to 25% and 24%). The issue areas in EI, however, are more evenly distributed across the issue areas with only 42% of articles studying the same three issue areas. In addition, the remaining share of articles in EI are more evenly distributed in EI in comparison to the benchmarks as well as to FI. It demonstrates a strong middle group of articles and only a relatively small number of seldom studied issue areas. All in all, EI has an above average, and thus high level, of thematic evenness, while FI fits the medium level displayed by both survey values.

The two journals publish considerably more articles of one type -- foreign policy analysis -- than the global survey benchmark suggests. Combined, almost one third of the articles in the two journals focus either on the foreign policies of Latin American countries (“local foreign policy”; 17%), comparative foreign policy (10%) or US-foreign policy (1%). This compares to a value of 2% U.S. foreign policy, 3% comparative foreign policy, and 8% local foreign policy for the survey on the global level. The Latin American survey values, on the other hand, are rather similar to the two Latin American journals (23%

of all articles deal with foreign policy). The value for local foreign policy is double as high for Mexican FI (24%) than for Chilean EI (12%). Additionally, FI has another 8% of articles dealing with local domestic issues. All in all, the Mexican journal is more concerned with its host country's politics than EI is. These findings support the inward-looking impression of the scholarship published in the Latin American journals that emerged from the analysis of regions under study. This regional focus is reflected in the Latin American survey outcomes and therefore seems to go beyond the two journals under study.

Yet, as the data on substantive foci demonstrate, the articles in the Latin American journals are not only dedicated to domestic and foreign policy issues, and have an overall medium level of thematic dissimilarity. While 95% of articles in FI indeed have a domestic politics component, and 40% of them have a foreign policy component, as shown by this additional variable, the journal also publishes a considerable share of articles dealing with issues of global governance/international organization (73%) and IPE (63%). Estudios Internacionales published even more articles covering issues of global governance (90%) and IPE (72%). Topics like economic interdependence, development, North-South relations but also regional integration are being intensely discussed in the Latin American journals, more so than anywhere else (see Table App 36 in the appendix for details). Given the region's colonial history, its (neo-colonial) ties to the US, and its recent history of intense regional integration, these topics are high on the agendas of IR scholars' with intellectual ties to Latin America and among the topics that the journals like to publish. The picture of thematic diversity in the two Latin American journals, consequently, is one of medium dissimilarity because the journals cover a wide range of topics despite their clear focus on the politics of the region.

Latin American journals

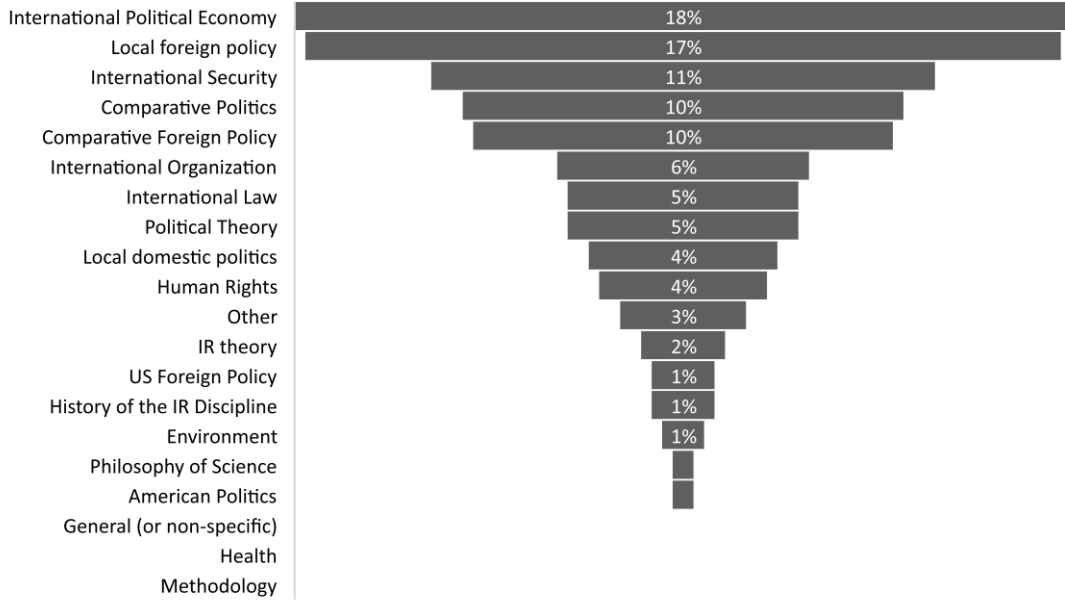
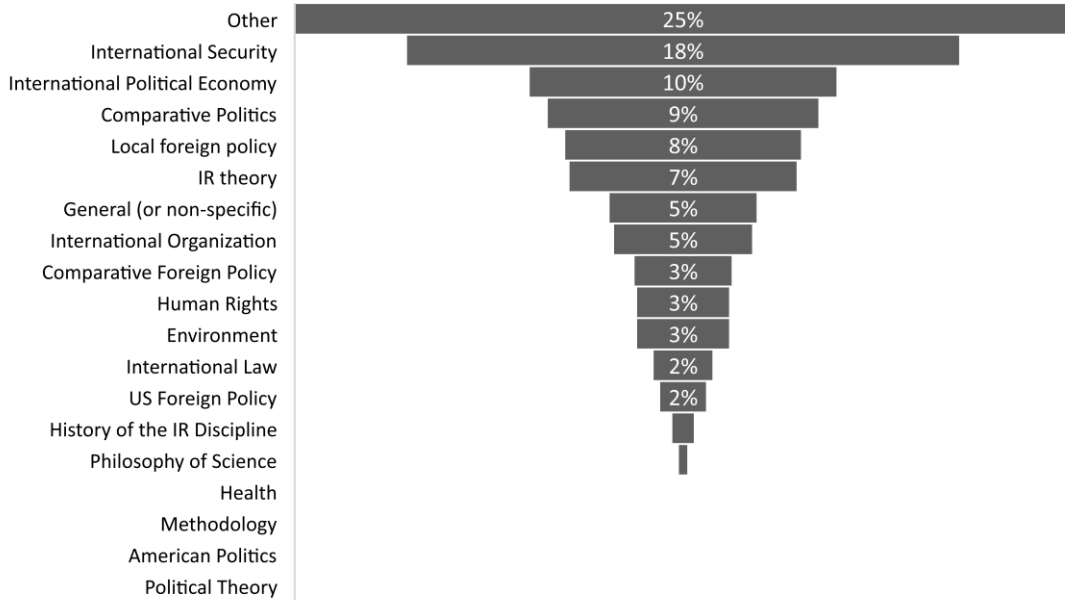
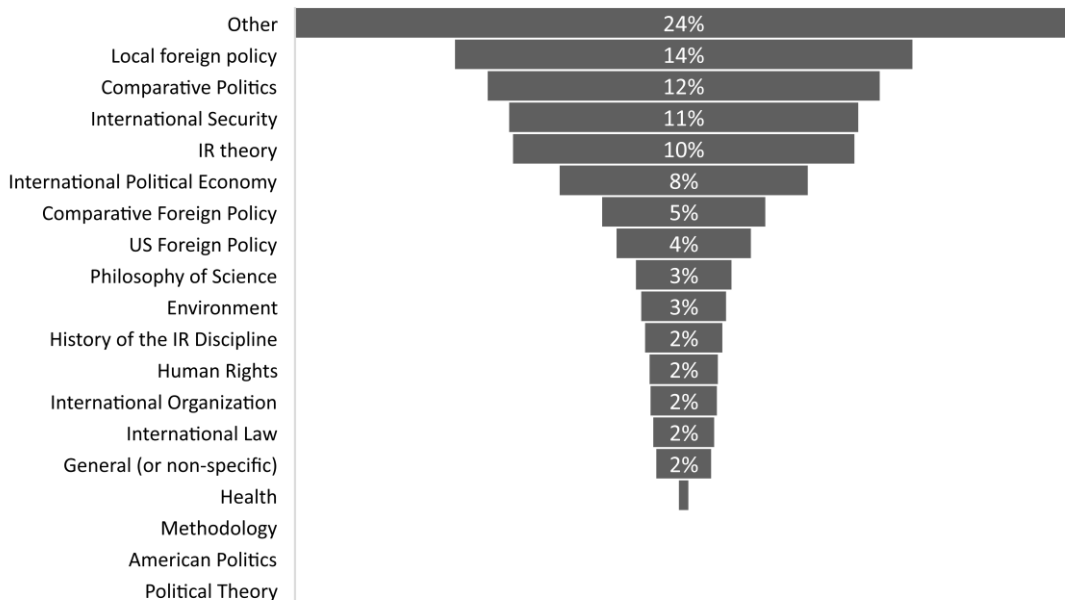


Figure 12 Thematic evenness, Latin America

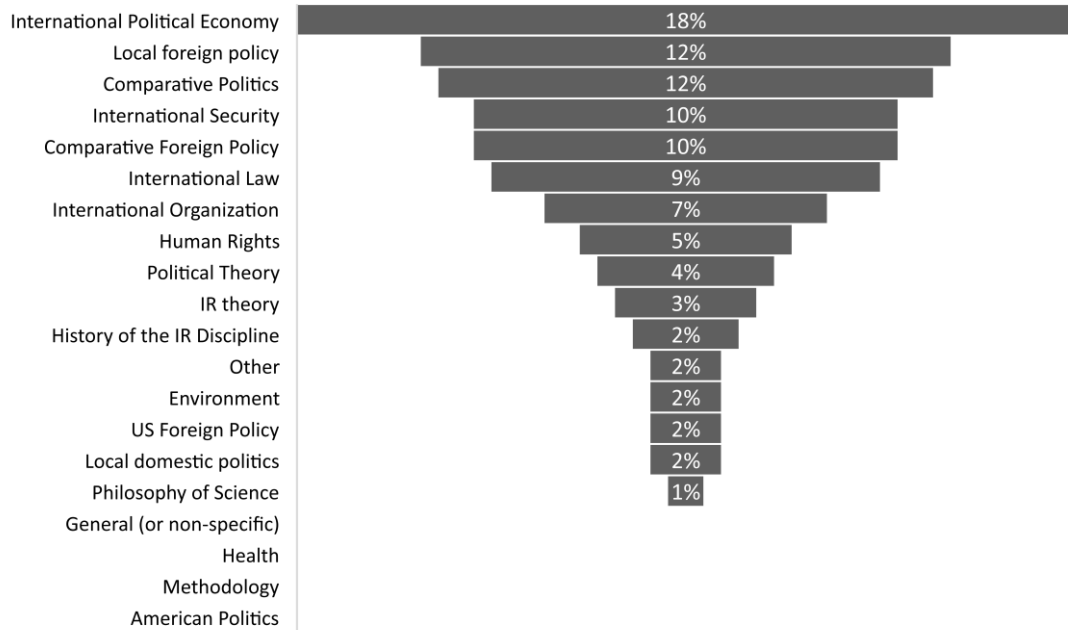
Global survey average



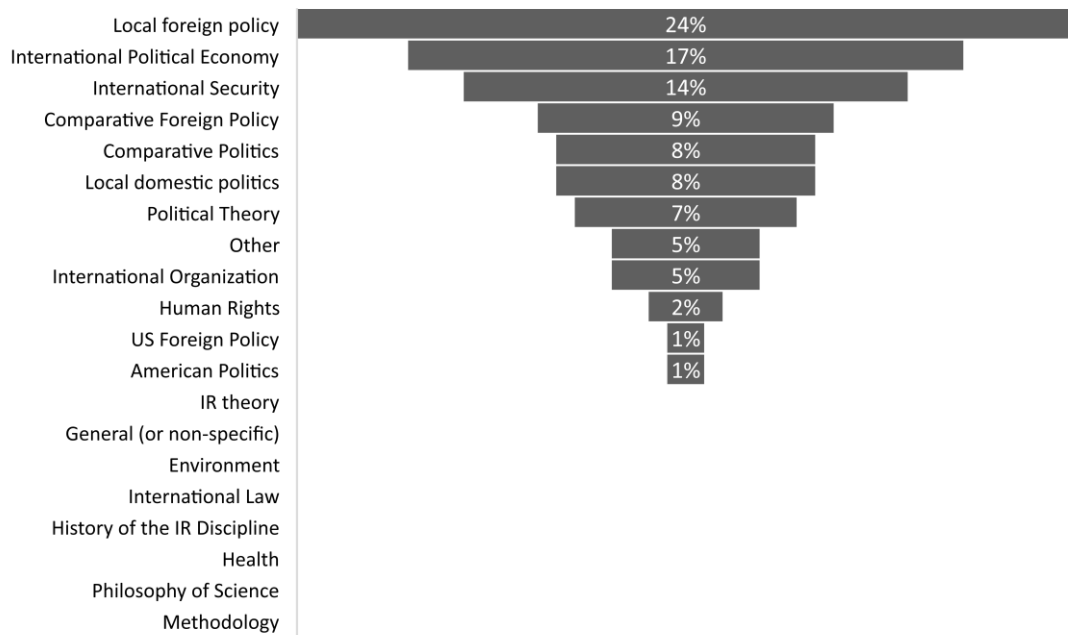
Latin American survey average



Estudios Internacionales



Foro Internacional



To summarize, the overall thematic diversity in terms of issues covered is at a medium level in the two Latin American journals. In contrast to many other measurements in this comparative case study, the measured level of variety in this case is not higher than any of the other properties. Foro Internacional covers only 65% of the issue areas specified in the codebook and EI only 80%. Nevertheless, both journals publish articles with a wide range of smaller topics (substantive foci), which adds up to a medium level of variety for EI and a low level for FI. The articles are also relatively evenly distributed across the issue areas. The top three topics studied in the two journals -- IPE, local foreign policy, and international security – are covered by “only” 46% of articles, which is still slightly below the global (53%) and the Latin American (50%) survey averages. Nevertheless, when combining some of the categories, a clear focus on foreign policy issues emerges – especially for FI, which publishes a number of articles on the foreign policy of Latin American countries, most likely Mexico itself. This focus is clearly stronger than the global survey average suggests, but is in line with the Latin American survey values. Additionally, despite this apparent focus, articles published in FI do cover a great deal of topics related to IPE and global governance/international organization. This trend is even stronger in EI than in FI. All in all, both journals cover issues that are of particular importance to the region (regional integration, North-South relations, economic dependence), but from a diverse angle, ranging from domestic and foreign policy to the inter- and sub-state level.

Table 19 Overview of topic diversity, Latin America

Variety	Low (FI) to medium (EI)
Evenness	Medium (FI) to high (EI)
Dissimilarity	Medium

Theoretical diversity

The theoretical variety in the Latin American journals is similar to that of the North American journals. On average, all four main approaches from the codebook are covered as well as atheoretical articles and those with a non-paradigmatic approach. However, Chilean EI features no Marxist articles and therefore features only three of the four main approaches. Consequentially, the theoretical variety in EI is at a medium and that of FI is at a high level.

Despite this medium-to-high variety, the articles in the two Latin American journals are less evenly distributed across the theoretical approaches than any of the benchmark values suggest. Half of the articles have a non-paradigmatic approach; another 18% have no theoretical approach at all. That is, on average, only a third of the articles deal with any of the main IR approaches. In EI, this balance is even more off, with only 22% of the articles being neither non-paradigmatic (55%) nor atheoretic (23%). The ratio in FI is more balanced. Whether this distribution means that many of the Latin American journals have a completely different type of approach or are simply dedicated to different well-known approaches is unclear due to the already discussed blank spot in the TRIP coding rules on this matter. In any case, this high number of non-paradigmatic approaches supports the impression of high variety but leaves a great deal to be interpreted in terms of evenness, since it is unknown how many different approaches hide in this catch-all category. This trend of working with (relatively) small or unknown approaches is stronger in Chilean EI (55% non-paradigmatic) than in Mexican FI (43%). Looking at the rest of the categories and their relative share of articles, however, one can see that the impression of an uneven distribution holds. Almost one quarter of the articles work with a liberal framework, and 18% have no theoretical framework at all. That means that less than 10% of the articles follow any of the other large IR approaches (Constructivist [5%], Realist [3%], or Marxist [1%]).

What is notable is that the share of non-paradigmatic articles in the journal is higher than the Latin American survey values suggest (50% vs. 39%). More respondents, when asked, seemed to identify one of the main IR theories than authors actually applying them in their articles in FI and especially in EI. What is more, the survey respondents did not have the option to say that they do not use any theoretical approach at all, so it is likely that the 39% of non-paradigmatic respondents already includes those who would have identified atheoretical if given this option. The journals, in contrast, publish a relatively high share of atheoretical articles. In EI, every fourth article has no theoretical framework at all. All in all, the average distribution for the two Latin American journals is in line with the two survey benchmark values, but both journals fall short of these values when looked at individually. As for the North American journals, one can take into account that the catch-all category “non-paradigmatic,” which might contain many more approaches and more detailed coding, could lead to a higher level of evenness. However,

what is visible right now for the distribution of full IR approaches for both Latin American journals is a case of low theoretical evenness.⁵⁴

However, three aspects stand out. First, the two journals on average have a higher share of Liberalist articles than the two benchmark values. Looking at the journal level, one sees that EI's share (13%) lies close to the benchmarks, while FI's lies above them with 36%. Second, the two Latin American journals have a much higher share of atheoretic articles (18%). This trend is in turn due to a high share of atheoretic articles in EI, where one quarter of the articles do not have any theoretical framework. This explains, in part, why the relative share of Liberalist articles is so low for this journal, meaning that all theoretical approaches score relatively low in this journal in comparison to the atheoretic ones, especially the established IR approaches of Liberalism, Realism (2%), Marxism (0%) and the IR ontology of Constructivism (6%). The share of atheoretic IR articles published in FI (8%), on the other hand, is much lower than that of EI.

In terms of dissimilarity, in comparison to both the global (23%) and even more so the Latin American (28%) survey benchmark, the Latin American journals have a much low number of articles with a Constructivist framework (5%). That is, either Latin American respondents in the TRIP survey overidentified Constructivism or this approach does not appear in the two publications under study. In regard to other approaches, it is notable that FI has a higher share of both Marxist (3%) and Realist (6%) articles than EI, but these values still fall short of the survey benchmarks. Just like Constructivism, Realism is clearly underrepresented in the two Latin American journals in comparison to both the global (18%) and regional (16%) survey benchmarks. The perception and reality of theory-driven research seem to be widely different in Latin America. Furthermore, while critical approaches could have been coded as non-paradigmatic – a category with a high value in both Latin American journals – the remaining numbers suggest that this is unlikely. The trend in the two Latin American journals seems to lie somewhere between atheoretic and non-paradigmatic (especially EI), with a touch of Liberalism and more closeness to the large IR approaches, in the case of FI.

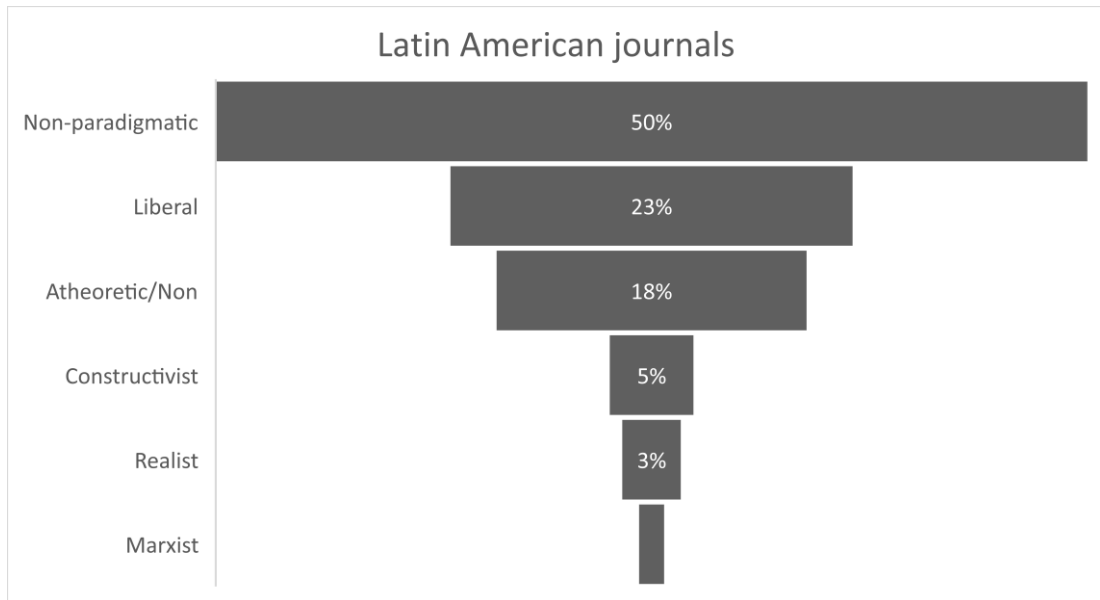
Estudios Internacionales and FI were coded with a variable that was especially designed for them (and two Chinese journals): local sources of knowledge. While some of the North American and European journals were analyzed for the presence of non-Western IR theories, the two Latin American journals were analyzed for the presence of particularly Latin American influences in theorizing. The purpose of

⁵⁴ At this point, it is also relevant to mention that coders who worked with EI articles often had a hard time distinguishing between non-paradigmatic and atheoretic articles, which means that there actually might be even more atheoretic articles eventually coded as non-paradigmatic.

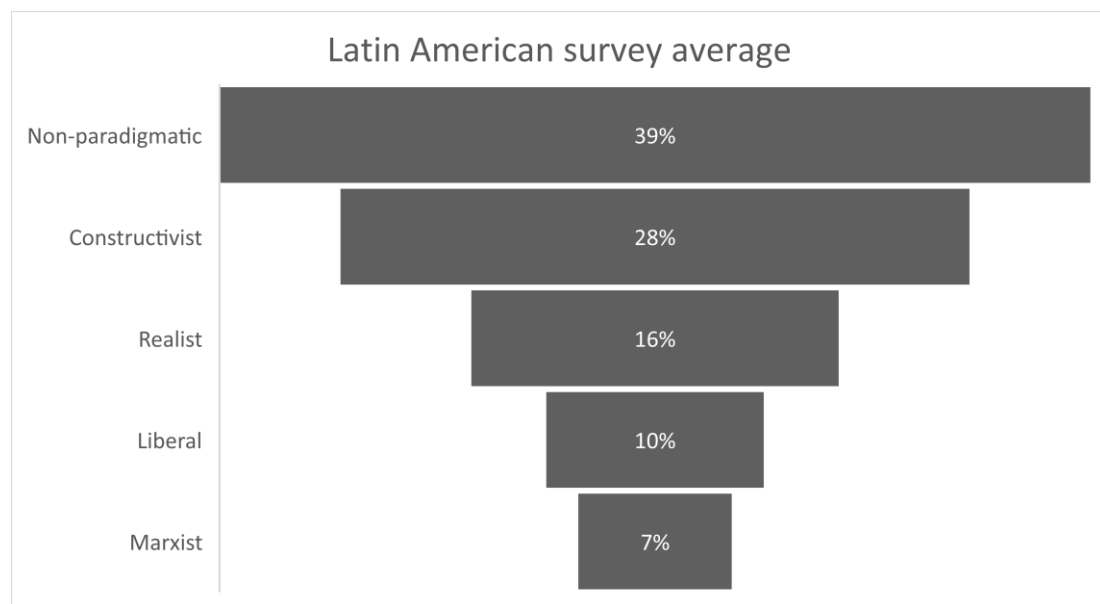
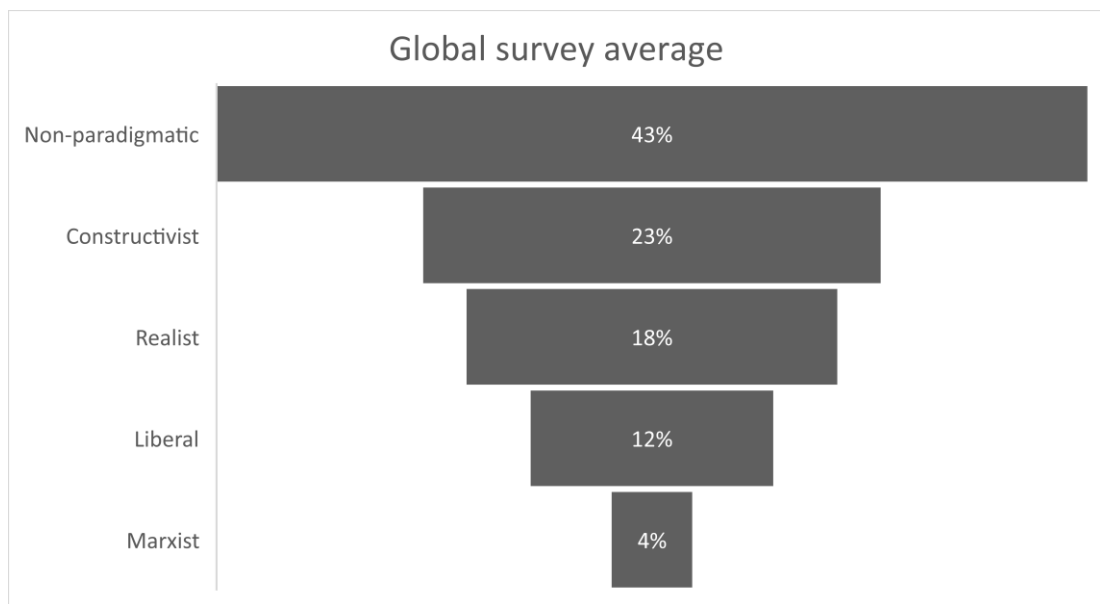
this variable was to see whether there is a regional touch to be found in the Latin American articles – be it in the form of references to local historical events, culture, philosophy, or political thinking. As long as those types of sources were used as an element of theorizing, they were coded as present and described by the coders in an open-text section.⁵⁵ The expectation was that there should be quite a great deal of those articles in the Latin American journals, bringing a degree of dissimilarity that the other journals might be missing.

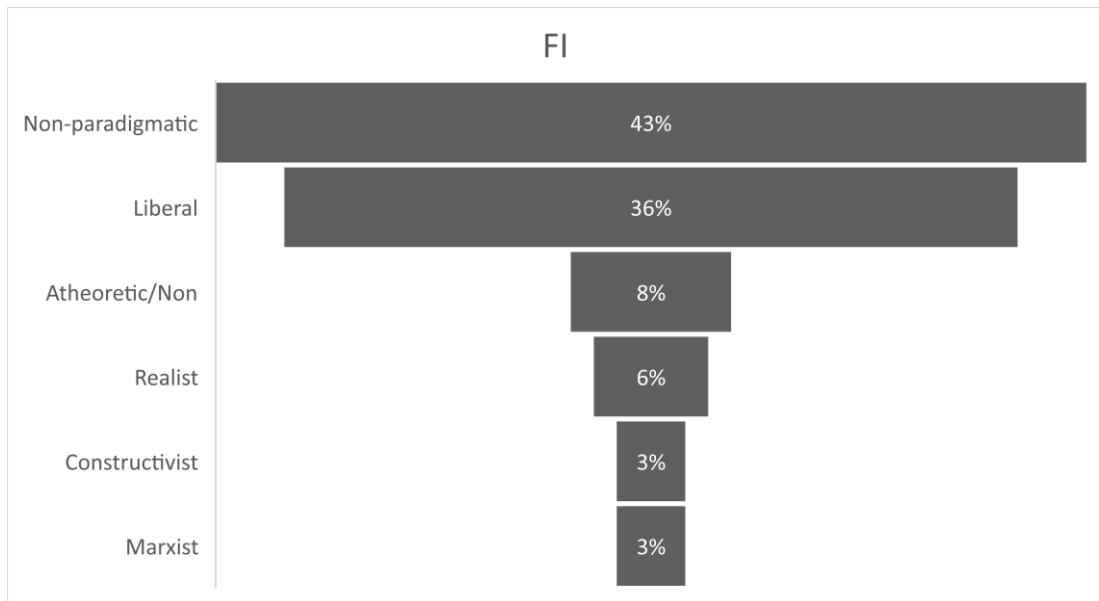
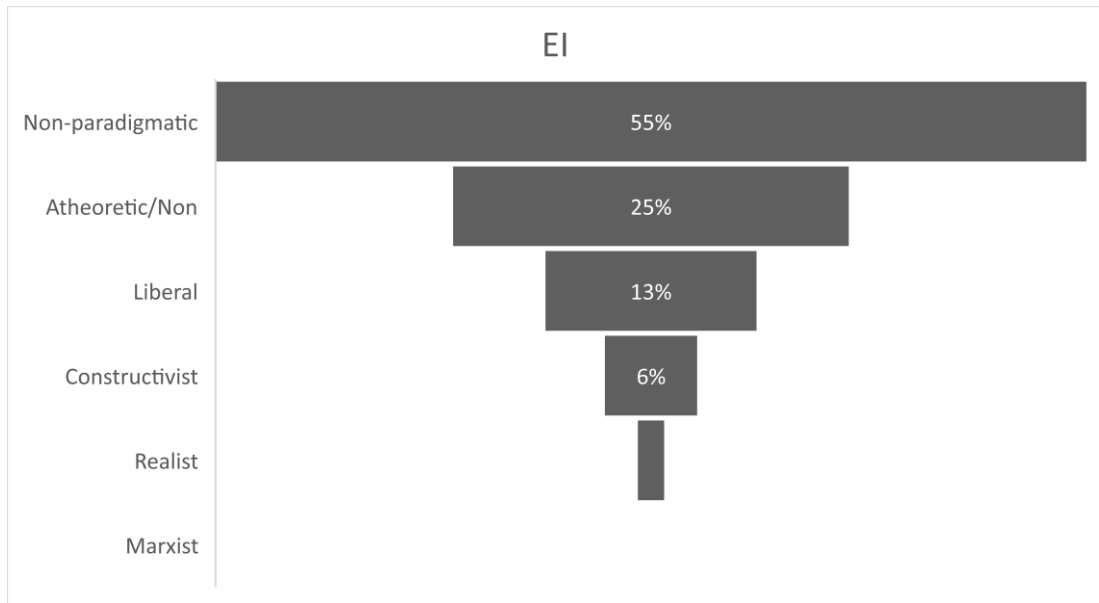
This expectation was partially met. While there are articles using Latin American sources of knowledge in their theorizing, the numbers on average are still only at a medium level in comparison to the North American journals (9%). A considerably larger share of IR articles using local variations of theory was published in the Mexican FI (13%) than in the Chilean EI (7%). However, FI published more articles with a general theoretical framework than did EI. It is therefore only logical that it publishes more local theory as well. It is nevertheless surprising that the journal with more mainstream theories and less non-paradigmatic articles published more articles with a local touch. All in all, EI demonstrates a lower level of theoretical dissimilarity than FI. While FI has disproportionately few articles with a Constructivist ontology, it does feature relatively more articles with regional sources of knowledge and also Marxist articles than EI. Estudios Internacionales has a low level of Constructivism, no Marxist (i.e. explicitly critical) articles, and a lower level of articles built upon regional sources of knowledge.

⁵⁵ I have not evaluated the exact sources of knowledge used in these journals for this draft. I could add a section about this for the final draft, if you (the supervisors) regard this as useful or necessary.



*Figure 13
Theoretical
evenness, Latin
America*





To summarize, the two Latin American journals have a medium-to-high level of theoretical variety. All four distinctive IR approaches are featured in both journals with the notable exception of Marxism, which is missing from EI. Furthermore, both journals, but especially EI, have a high share of articles with a non-paradigmatic theoretical approach, which indicates an even higher variety but is also a diversion from main IR approaches. Overall, the theoretical diversity in the Latin American journals is lower when measured as evenness. There is a small number of large categories, and the typical IR theories only have a small share in both journals. This is less the case for FI than for EI. EI features fewer articles with a Marxist and thus explicitly critical approach than FI, which speaks to its lower level of dissimilarity. Both journals have low proportions of articles with a Constructivist ontology – indeed, much lower than the benchmark values suggest. Still, they do have a higher share of non-Western, in this case only Latin American, variations of IR theories than the North American journals, especially FI. While the overall number of articles with a regional touch is lower than expected given that these journals publish so many articles by local authors, it is relatively strong in FI which leads to its medium level of theoretical dissimilarity.

Table 20 Overview of theoretical diversity, Latin America

Variety	Medium (EI) to high (FI)
Evenness	Low
Dissimilarity	Low (EI) to medium (FI)

4.2.3 Conclusions about Latin American journals

Geographical diversity

The geographical authorship variety is low for FI and at a medium level for EI (see Table 21). The two additional properties provide additional nuances for these findings. For FI, not only is the geographical authorship variety low, but so is its level of geographical authorship evenness. That is, while FI is already publishing authors based in a small number of countries, the authors are also unevenly distributed across these few countries. A vast majority of authors are either based in the journal's host country, Mexico, or the US. That is, the journal is clearly characterized by this cross-border mix of authors. It can, furthermore, be assumed that the authors based in the US are actually Latin Americanists with a special interest in the region. Due to the presence of those US authors and some based in Europe, FI's geographical authorship dissimilarity is at a slightly higher (medium) level. Based on the definition I have used for this study, Mexico and the US are dissimilar because one belongs to the global South and the other to the global North. The level of dissimilarity is not high, however, because there are no authors from global South countries located outside of Latin America – and even the diversity across Latin

American countries is relatively low in FI. In fact, basically mirroring real-world politics, Mexican FI seems to be connected more closely to North America and Europe than to Latin America.

Chilean EI, on the other hand, is characterized by a higher share of authors from all parts of South America. While authors based in Chile constitute the largest group of authors in EI, they constitute less than 1% of the TRIP sample size and are thus much overrepresented in EI, which can probably be related to the fact that the journal is published by a university in Chile’s capital. However, given this fact, it is actually rather surprising how many authors come from other countries, which contributes to Chile’s medium levels of variety and evenness. Estudios Internacional’s geographical authorship dissimilarity is at a medium level because it is a publication hub for authors from many Latin American and European countries but also features some – although few – authors based in Asian countries. Although the vast majority of authors in both journals are based in the journals’ region, there are also authors based in other regions, creating a relative mix of authors from the global South and global North. Despite the focus on Latin America, that is unusual for IR journals and thus contributes to the discipline’s diversity in a special manner.

Table 21 Outcomes for geographical diversity for Latin America

	Authorship	Content
Variety	Low (FI) to medium (EI)	High
Evenness	Low	Low
Dissimilarity	Medium	Medium

Thematic diversity

The overall thematic diversity is relatively high in the two Latin American journals. Despite the journals’ clear focus on Latin America and a slight inward-looking impression of the scholarship published in the two Latin American journals, no theme or cluster of themes dominates their content. That is, both journals cover issues that are of particular importance to the region (regional integration, North-South relations, economic dependence), but they do so from a diverse and balanced angle, ranging from domestic and foreign policy to the inter- and sub-state level.

Table 22 Outcomes for thematic diversity for Latin America

	Topics	Theories
Variety	Low (FI) to medium (EI)	Medium (EI) to high (FI)

Evenness	Medium (FI) to high (EI)	Low
Dissimilarity	Medium	Low (EI) to medium (FI)

Both journals have a high level of theoretical variety, since all large IR approaches are featured in both journals, with the exception of Marxism for EI. What is characteristic about both journals, especially EI, is the high share of non-paradigmatic articles. These are articles with a theoretical framework that is not tied to any of the four approaches specified in the codebook. Since all kinds of theoretical approaches could be hidden in this category, it would be inappropriate to conclude that the journals do not work with theories only because the typical IR approaches are almost completely absent. These types of articles are accompanied by another large share of atheoretic articles, which is far above benchmark values. Often, the difference between these two categories can be small, which leads me to the assumption that the non-paradigmatic articles in EI are also rather vaguely theoretical instead of indicating the application of non-IR theoretical approaches. Last but not least, there is a relatively high share of non-Western theorizing – for these two journals, Latin American theorizing, to be correct – to be found in EI and especially FI. However, the number of such articles is far from being high enough to argue that this type of local theorizing is typical of them or makes these journals an outlet for these types of articles.

To conclude, the two Latin American journals are characterized by a geographical and thematic focus on their host region that is most visible in the region under study and a choice of topics with high relevance for the Latin American region. *Estudios Internacionales*, in particular, however, is characterized by a mix of South American and European authors. *Fore Internacional*, on the other hand, publishes a large number of articles by US-based authors, making it a journal with a mixed global South/North authorship. Neither of the journals is particularly active in channeling research with theoretical frameworks based on local sources of knowledge, although FI stands out with a relatively high level of such articles. On the whole, FI is a journal with strong Mexican authorship and strong ties to the global North and the U.S. academy in particular, while EI can be characterized more easily as an outlet for regionally produced scholarship.

4.3 Case study on European journals

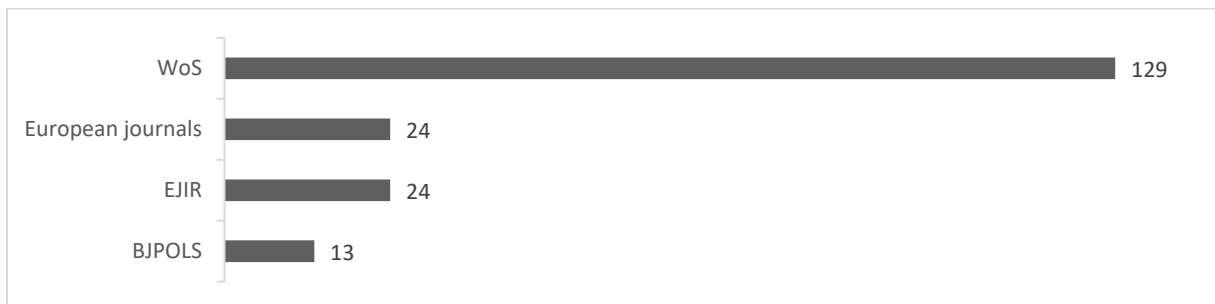
4.3.1 Descriptive results: geographical diversity

Geographical authorship diversity

The variety of countries of affiliation in the two European journals combined is at a medium level. Authors affiliated with 24 different countries were published in the EJIR and the BJPoIS (IR articles only) combined between 2005 and 2014. This is equal to 19% of the WoS benchmark.

The difference between BJPoIS and EJIR in this regard is considerable. While EJIR has published articles by authors affiliated with 24 countries, BJPoIS published authors from only a small subset of these countries during the period of investigation, namely 13. This low level of variety makes up 10% of the countries of affiliation published in the WoS journals. A collective judgment of variety in the European journals would thus underestimate the low geographical variety of authors published in BJPoIS. All in all, therefore, the level for BJPoIS is low, and for EJIR, it is at a medium level.

Figure 14 Geographical authorship variety, Europe, per journal

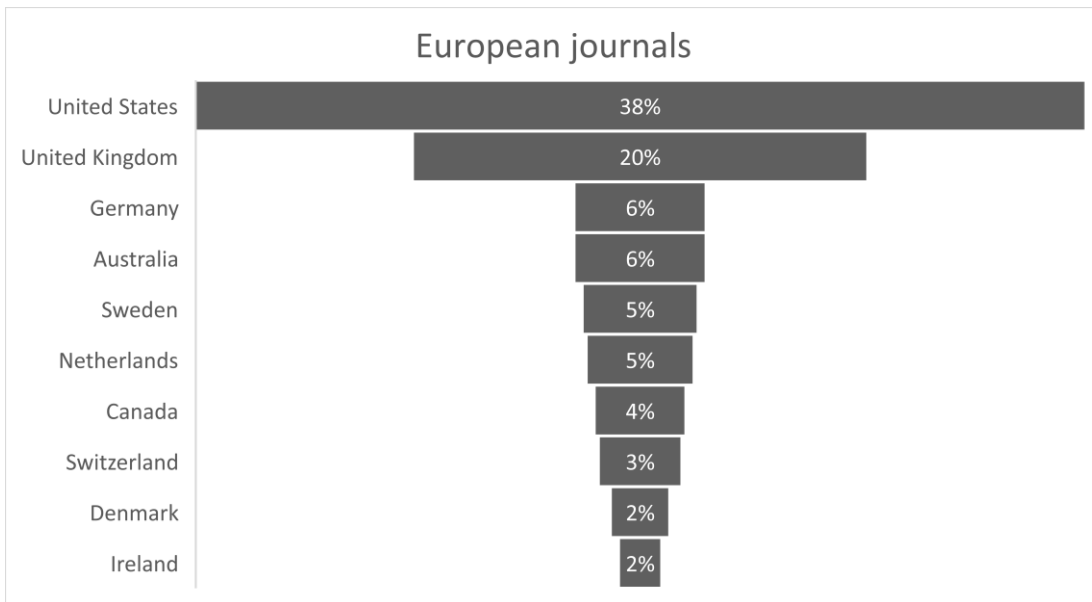


A similar trend applies to the two journals' levels of evenness. While overall evenness is at a medium level, it is higher for EJIR than for BJPoIS. What both journals have in common is that the US tops their lists of highly published countries of affiliation, followed by the UK. Yet, the gap between the measurements for these two most frequently published countries is much larger for BJPoIS than for EJIR. In fact, in the explicitly British journal, more than 50% of all authors of IR articles are affiliated with US-based institutions, while as few as 12% are based in the UK. That is far beyond the relative distribution of these two countries, according to the WoS benchmark and the TRIP sample sizes. All thoughts of U.S. dominance aside, this points to a low value of evenness for BJPoIS because of the large leading group and the large gap between the first and the second country of affiliation, which is 41%. This value is much higher than the gap between the community sizes (25%) and especially the WoS benchmark (14%), which has a much higher share of authors based in the UK. The distribution of the rest of the countries of affiliation in BJPoIS is not as uneven but has relatively equally low values. Still, there are only five countries with more than five articles published between 2005 and 2014. The overall geographical

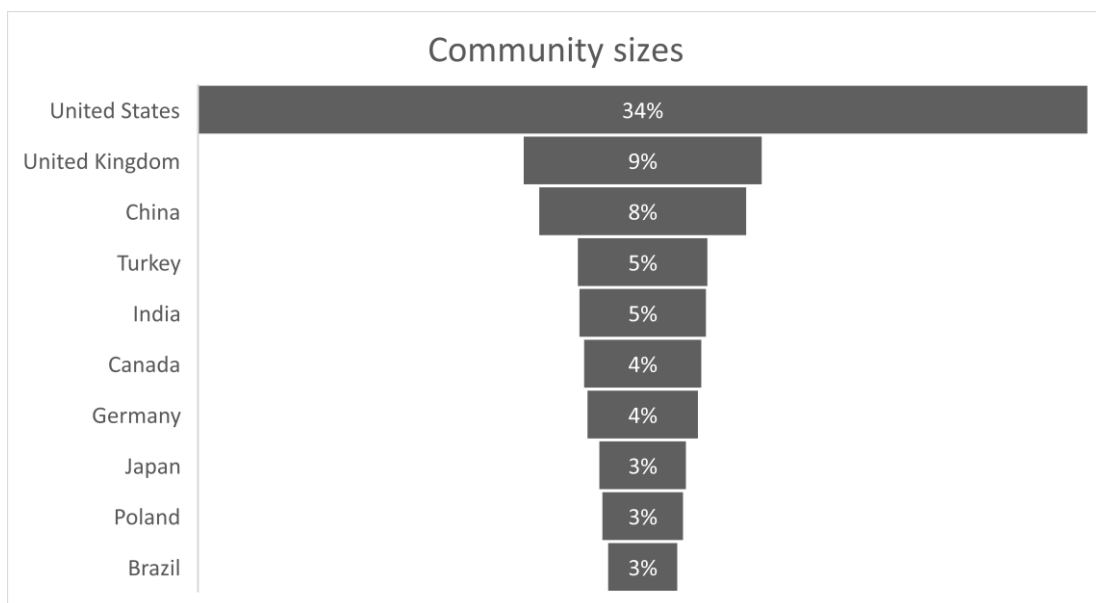
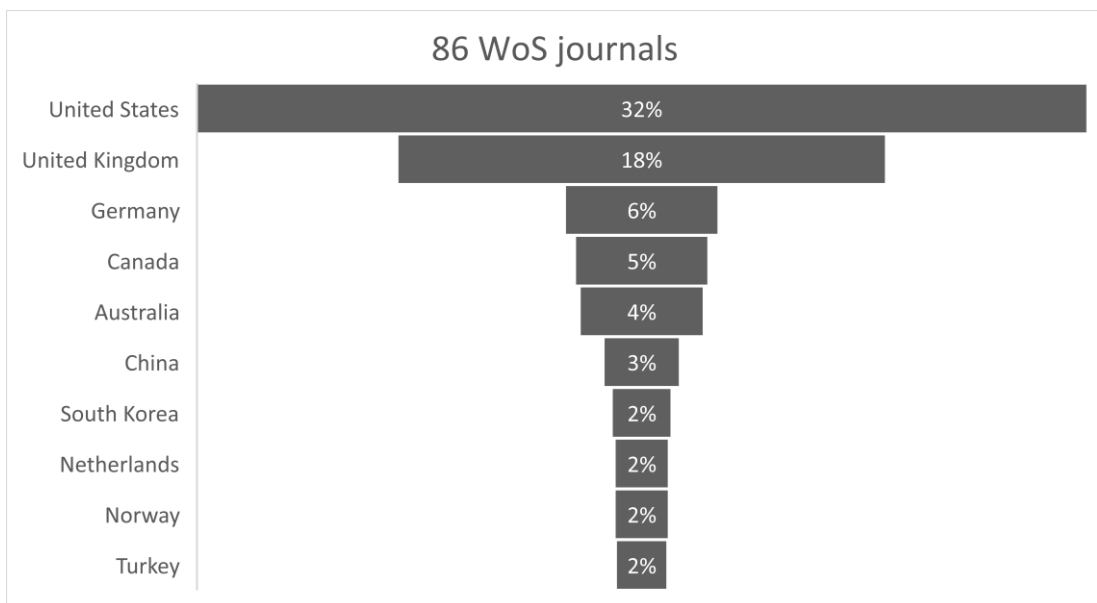
authorship evenness for BJPoLS, therefore, is low. The U.S. authors hold a dominant position in this British journal.

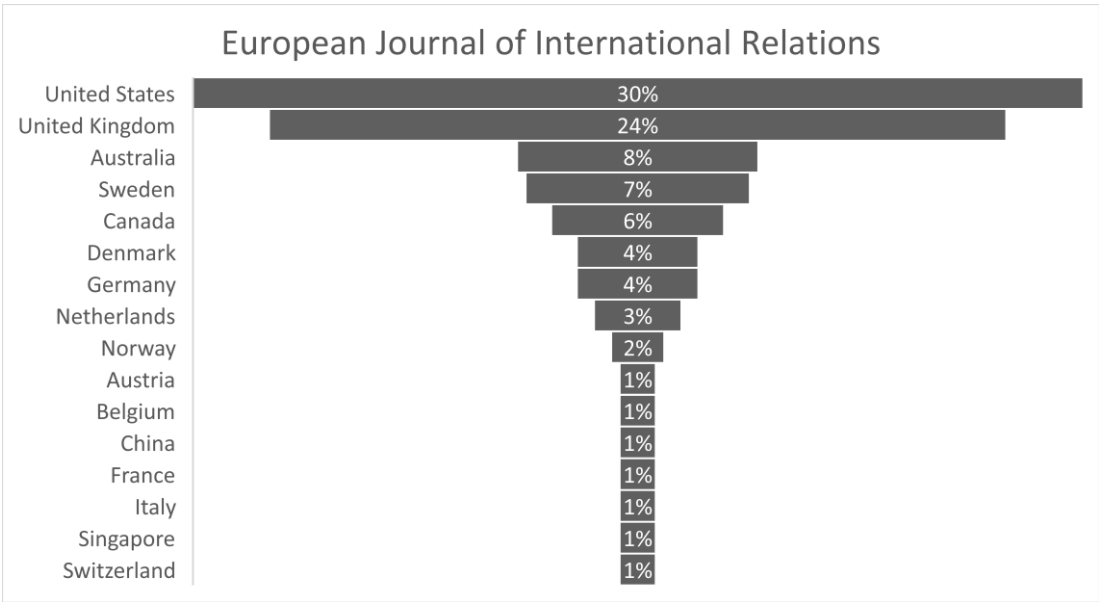
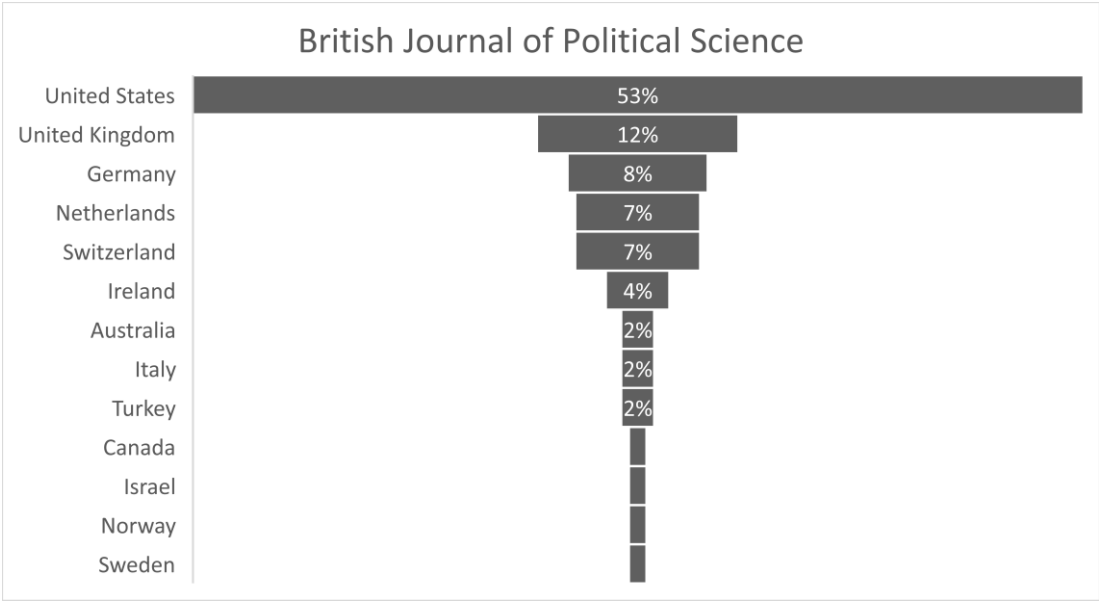
The picture looks a little different for EJIR. As already stated, US-based authors constitute the largest group of authors in EJIR as well. However, with a share of 30% they are not as predominant. Indeed, the 30% value is almost perfectly in line with the WoS and the sample size benchmarks. What is more, authors from the UK make up 25% of the authorship in EJIR, which strongly balances the U.S. authors. The gap between those countries' authorships is much smaller than it is for BJPoLS and is actually smaller than that of the two benchmarks. Nevertheless, despite the more balanced top of the distribution, the majority of countries represented in EJIR only contributed a small number of articles – visible in the “tail” in Figure 15. All in all, EJIR's value for geographical authorship evenness is at a medium level.

The dissimilarity for the two journals is mixed. The most obvious clustering of EJIR's authors shows a predominance of authors based in Anglophone countries. The strong presence of US- and UK-based authors is further supported by another 8% of authors who are based in Australia and yet another 6% in Canada. Next to this, however, EJIR is also characterized by authors based in a wide variety of (Western) European countries. While BJPoLS only features articles by authors based in the largest European communities, EJIR also has authors from smaller communities like Austria and Belgium. Still, while there are authors published in both journals from a wide variety of European and more generally global North countries, authors from the global South are almost completely absent. In fact, even if authors published in BJPoLS are affiliated with institutions located all over the world (Israel, Turkey, Australia, Sweden, etc.), 100% of the countries of affiliation are characterized as belonging to the global North. Almost the same is true for EJIR, although it published work by two scholars based in China and one in Colombia between 2005 and 2014. Nevertheless, disregarding the global North/South nomenclature, authors in EJIR are located in much more dissimilar academic communities than those in BJPoLS, which seems to be almost completely in the hands of the Anglo-American core and a small number of strong European communities, like Germany and France. Additionally surprising, yet again, is that scholars based in Latin America are as good as absent from both journals. All in all, the dissimilarity for BJPoLS is at a low level, while the variety of European countries leads to a medium level for EJIR.



*Figure 15
Geographical
authorship
evenness,
Europe (top-10)*





To summarize, the geographic authorship diversity of the European journals is at a low-to-medium level – where BJPoIS has a low and EJIR a medium level. In fact, BJPoIS scores lower than EJIR on all fronts. Most characteristic is the strong presence of US-based authors. More than half of the IR articles in BJPoIS between 2005 and 2014 were authored or co-authored by US-based scholars. This is a clear overrepresentation in comparison to the size of the U.S. community (33%) and lies above the WoS benchmark (32%). What is more, the group of UK-based scholars, which is the second largest in BJPoIS, is more than 40% smaller than the strongest group of U.S. authors. The rest of the journal’s authorship is characterized by a small number of unevenly represented authors who are all affiliated with institutions in the global North. The British Journal of Political Science, therefore, is characterized by low levels of variety, evenness, and dissimilarity.

The European Journal of International Relations is a little more diverse than BJPoIS across all properties. It publishes articles by authors based in a relatively high number of countries, 24. The articles in EJIR are also more evenly distributed across these countries than they are in BJPoIS. Most noteworthy is the much smaller share of US-based authors in EJIR (30%) and the relatively stronger share of UK-based authors (25%). The gap between the two strongest countries, therefore, is considerably smaller, which indicates a higher level of evenness. Nevertheless, the journal’s authorship is strongly characterized by the high numbers of authors from the Anglo-American core/Anglophone countries. Yet, EJIR stands out in terms of dissimilarity because it publishes articles by authors based in a wide variety of European countries. All strong European IR communities, but also many of the smaller ones, are represented in EJIR, which does some justice to its name. It also publishes authors based in many other countries scattered around the world. Nevertheless, with the exception of less than a handful of authors based in China and Colombia, all of these countries are located in the global North, which, in the end, adds up to no more than a medium level of dissimilarity.

Table 23 Overview of geographical authorship diversity, Europe

Variety	Low (BJPoIS), medium (EJIR)
Evenness	Low (BJPoIS), medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low (BJPoIS), medium (EJIR)

Geographic content diversity

The variety of regions under study in the two European journals is as high as in the other two cases. Both journals cover all regions listed in the codebook except for Antarctica. Both journals individually cover almost all regions, and both have articles with no regional focus and with a global scope. This adds up to a high level of variety of regions under study.

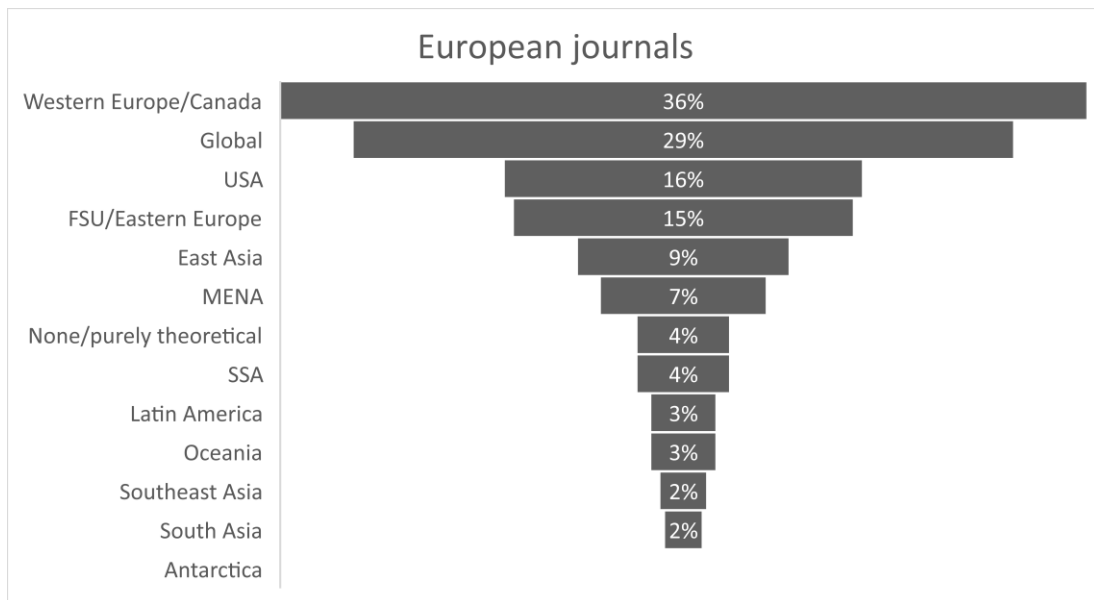
The three most studied regions in the European journals are Western Europe/Canada (36%), global (29%), and the US (16%). The third largest individual region is the FSU/Eastern Europe (15%). The gap between the two most studied regions – Western Europe/Canada and the US – is as large as 20%. While this is a less extreme unevenness than was the case for the Latin American journals, it is still significantly large. This low-to-medium level of evenness is positively balanced by the relative intensity with which the other regions are studied. Furthermore, the European journals have a strong, although not above-average, focus on the global level, which technically encompasses all regions. Nevertheless, half of the regions are not studied in more than 10% of the articles. Additionally, in comparison to the global survey benchmark, the evenness of the two European journals is rather low. The European survey values are more in line with the European journals but still show a more even distribution in comparison. At the journal level, EJIR shows a more even distribution than BJPoIS. For example, the “smaller” regions are more intensely studied in EJIR, which makes the gap between the most and least intensely studied regions smaller in comparison to BJPoIS but still too far away from the even distribution displayed by the global survey benchmark to call it a high evenness. All of this results in a weak medium level of geographical content evenness for EJIR and a low level for BJPoIS.

The two European journals are characterized by a large but not dominant share of articles that deal exclusively or partially with Europe and publish an average number of articles on the other regions. Some are also represented as the benchmark values suggests, but most of them are represented less than that. This includes the large number of articles with a global scope (32% as compared to 39% for the global benchmark). The European Journal of International Relations has a large share of articles with no regional focus that are purely theoretical (28%), especially in comparison to the global (14%) and the European (16%) survey benchmark values as well as to BJPoIS (11%). This indicates a large share of abstract articles on a scale that overrepresents this type of research in comparison to the broader scholarly community or the perception of scholars, respectively. The British Journal of Political Science, on the other hand, seems to have a more global outlook than the articles published in EJIR. Thirty-nine percent of all articles in BJPoIS focus solely or partially on issues in a global context, which is actually above the global (26%) and the European (27%) survey averages.

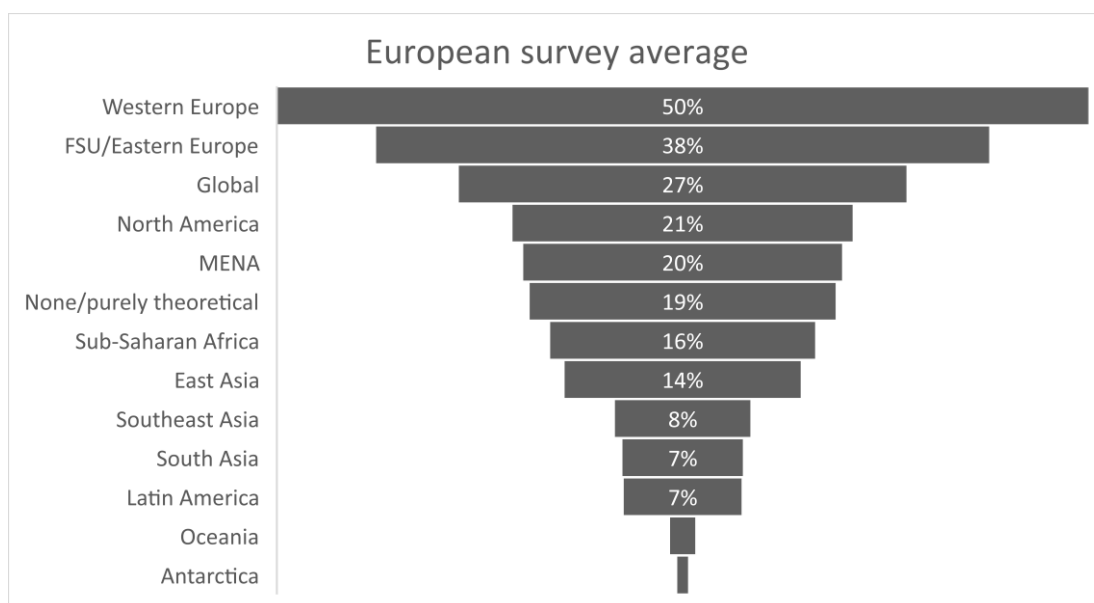
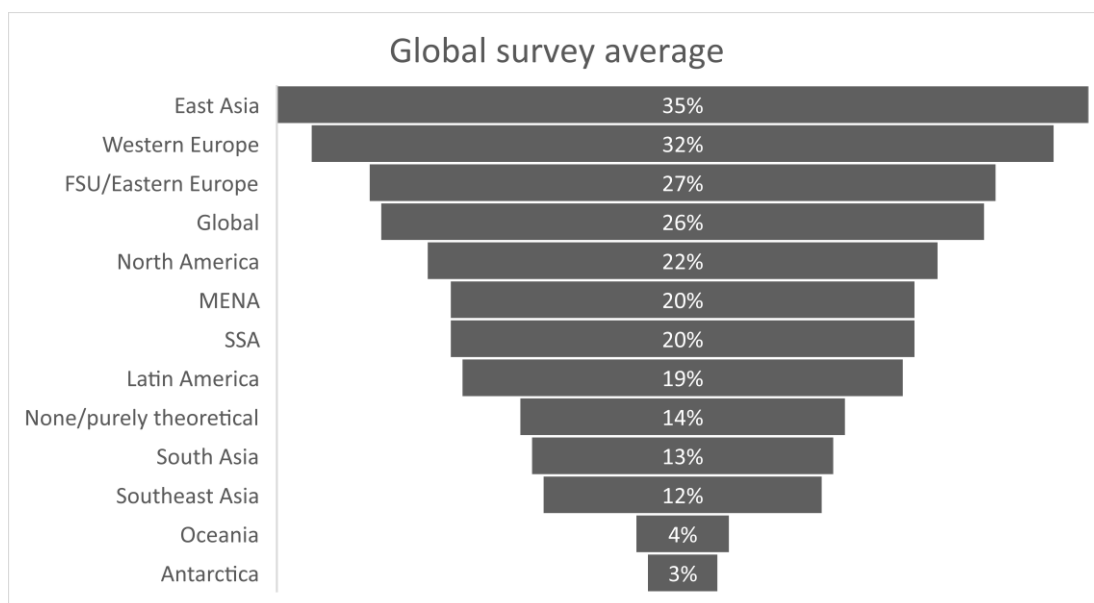
Another difference between these two journals in terms of which regions are covered and how intensely they are covered is how much attention they pay to the US as a region of study. Only 11% of articles in BJPoIS focus solely or partially on the US, while 19% of articles in EJIR do so. That is, the British journal’s level of attention is below the survey benchmarks (global 22%, European 21%), while EJIR’s (19%) is more or less in line with it. The relatively large focus of EJIR articles on the “smaller” regions translates into a positive factor in terms of dissimilarity, since almost all of them (the exception is Oceania) are

global South regions. However, except for a slightly larger interest in East Asian cases (EJIR only), nothing in this regard stands out in comparison to the level of dissimilarity of the global survey benchmark. The values for the two journals are more in line but still lower than the European survey benchmark. It is telling that studies on Latin America are almost completely absent from both European journals with values (2% and 3%) that are even below the European survey values (7%).

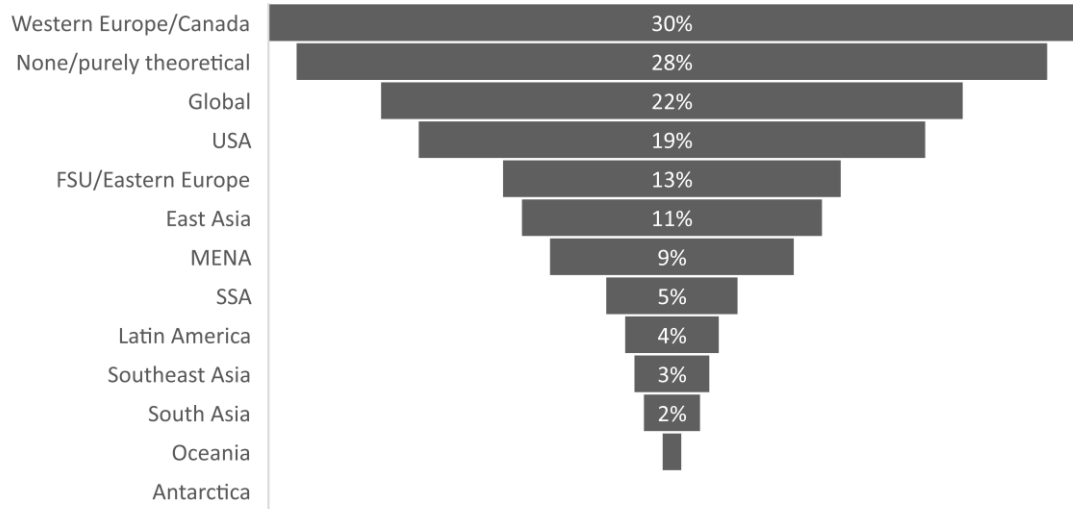
All in all, the European journals are characterized by a pronounced focus on the global North that goes beyond the values for the North American journals. The global South, on the other hand, is understudied in both journals – especially in BJPoLS. The gaps between the intensity with which these global regions are studied is extremely large, which is a safe indicator of a low level of dissimilarity. Furthermore, the high share of global North articles is, to a large extent, caused by the intense focus on Western Europe/Canada, but it is an above-average focus on FSU/Eastern Europe that really completes it. In stark contrast to the global survey benchmark, FSU/Eastern Europe (15% in comparison to 27%) has been studied more intensely than the global South region of East Asia (9% in comparison to 35%) –especially in BJPoLS (7% for East Asia and 18% for FSU/Eastern Europe). This relatively intense focus on FSU/Eastern Europe makes sense given the geographical closeness and historical ties between FSU/Russia/Eastern Europe and Western Europe. However, there is also a methodological particularity that causes this strong focus on this category. The coding scheme does not differentiate when categorizing countries in their pre-Soviet, post-Soviet, or Soviet bloc times. That means that Poland and the Czech Republic, for example, would be coded as FSU/Eastern Europe, even if they appear in an article that deals with them as EU member states, which must have happened a great deal, since this study evaluates articles published between 2004 and 2015, after the EU's east extension. This category, therefore, must be seen as an additional local region. All in all, the strong focus on global North cases leads to a low level of geographical content dissimilarity for both journals.



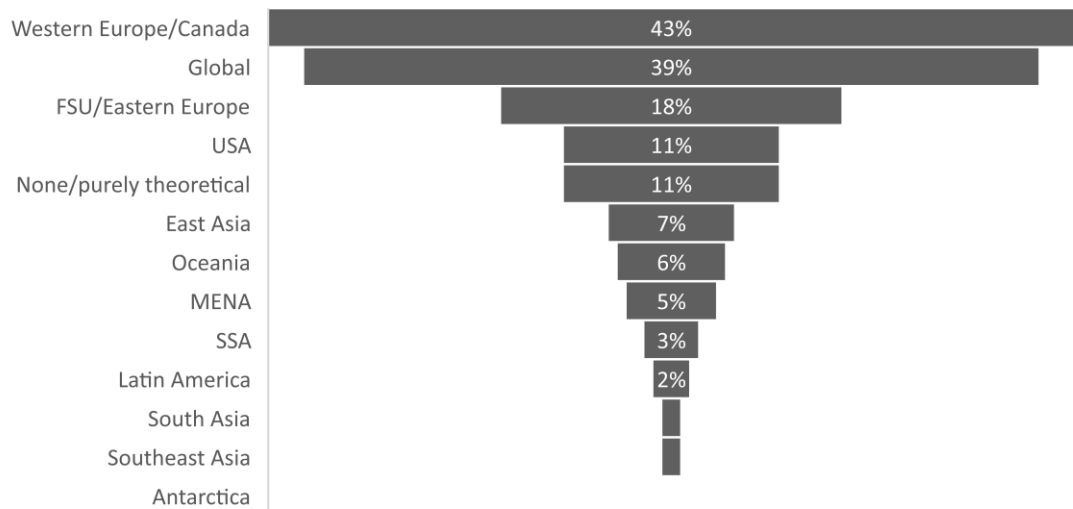
*Figure 16
Geographical
content
evenness,
Europe*



European Journal of International Relations



British Journal of Political Science



To summarize, the variety of regions under study in the European journals is just as high as for the other two cases and perfectly in line with the benchmark values. The two journals cover 10 out of the 11 individual regions, and both feature a considerable number of articles with a global scope as well as articles without a regional focus. The articles published in these two journals, however, are relatively unevenly distributed across the regions under study. The most uneven feature of the European journals is the large gap between the most intensely studied region (Western Europe/Canada) and the second most intensely studied individual region (US). The gap is as large as 20%. Furthermore, more than half of the regions are studied by less than 10% of the articles, which stands in stark contrast to the global survey benchmark. Still, these uneven features are balanced out by a relatively large and even “middle field,” i.e., the gaps between the regions studied less than Western Europe/Canada are relatively balanced, and the gap between those and the “smaller” regions is not too extreme either. Overall, the geographical content evenness of regions under study in EJIR is at a medium level, and for BJPoIS, it is at a low level. The strong focus on Western Europe/Canada and the US and an above-average focus on FSU/Eastern Europe add up to a strong focus on the global North, which is so large that it leads to a low level of geographical content dissimilarity for both journals.

Table 24 Overview of geographical content diversity, Europe

Variety	High
Evenness	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low

4.3.2 Descriptive results: thematic and theoretical diversity

Thematic diversity

The two European journals cover a varied range of topics. Together, they publish articles that cover 94% of the issue areas specified in the codebook – only health is a topic that neither of the two covered between 2005 and 2014. The journals’ individual variety is lower. The British Journal of Political Science published articles that only dealt with 14 out of the 18 possible themes, which equals a coverage of 78%. The European Journal of International Relations displays broader coverage but also only covers one more theme and, thus, demonstrates a coverage of 83% of the topics specified in the codebook. All in all, both journals have a medium level of thematic variety, although EJIR is stronger than BJPoIS in this respect.

The thematic evenness of both journals is low. More than 60% of all articles for both journals deal with the same three topics, which is more than the medium level of 53% of global survey respondents who also study the same three subjects. The European survey benchmark, on the other hand, is almost perfectly in line with the journal average (60% in comparison to 59%). After the largest three subjects,

there is a gap of 9% for EJIR and a relatively small one of 3% for BJPoS. This advantage for BJPoS is outweighed by its long and small “tail” of almost or completely uncovered subjects. All in all, both journals have medium thematic evenness.

Table 25 Thematic variety, Europe, per journal

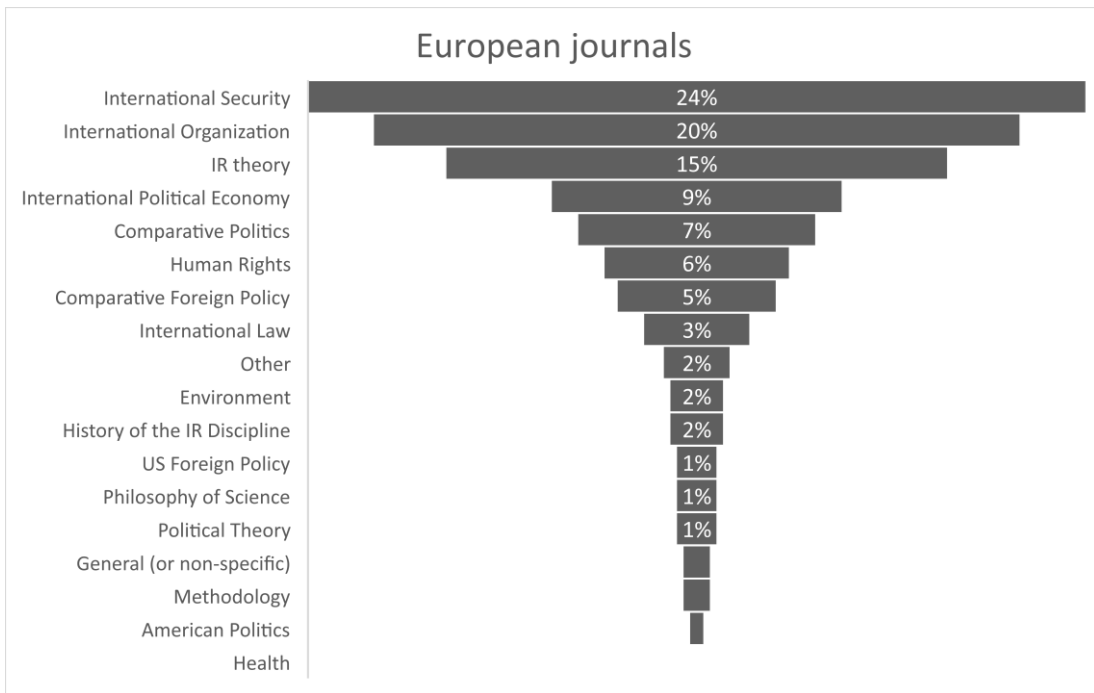
Issue Area	BJPoS	EJIR
International Security	✓	✓
International Political Economy	✓	✓
International Organization	✓	✓
Comparative Politics	✓	
IR Theory	✓	✓
Human Rights	✓	✓
Comparative Foreign Policy	✓	✓
International Law	✓	✓
U.S. Foreign Policy		✓
Political Theory	✓	✓
Methodology	✓	✓
Environment	✓	✓
History of the IR Discipline		✓
American Politics	✓	
Health		
General (or non-specific)	✓	✓
Philosophy of Science		✓
Other	✓	✓
Variety	78%	83%

Both journals have a low level of thematic dissimilarity. This is especially true for the IR articles published in BJPoS. The evenness of this journal is consequently only at a low/medium level. Sixty percent of the IR articles published in BJPoS were written about the same three core topics – international security, IPE, and international organization – and another 17% are comparative politics articles. The smaller topics with more relevance to IR than comparative politics are all covered by only 3% (which means three articles in the case of BJPoS) or less. The only marginal exception is human rights, with 6%. The numbers for substantive foci for BJPoS are similarly unevenly structured. Almost every single article (94%) has a part on domestic politics, more than half on global governance and/or security issues (65% and 66%), but only 26% cover any of the smaller “other” topics or issues related to foreign policy (5%). What BJPoS publishes on IR, therefore, is not highly diverse according to the properties of variety and evenness.

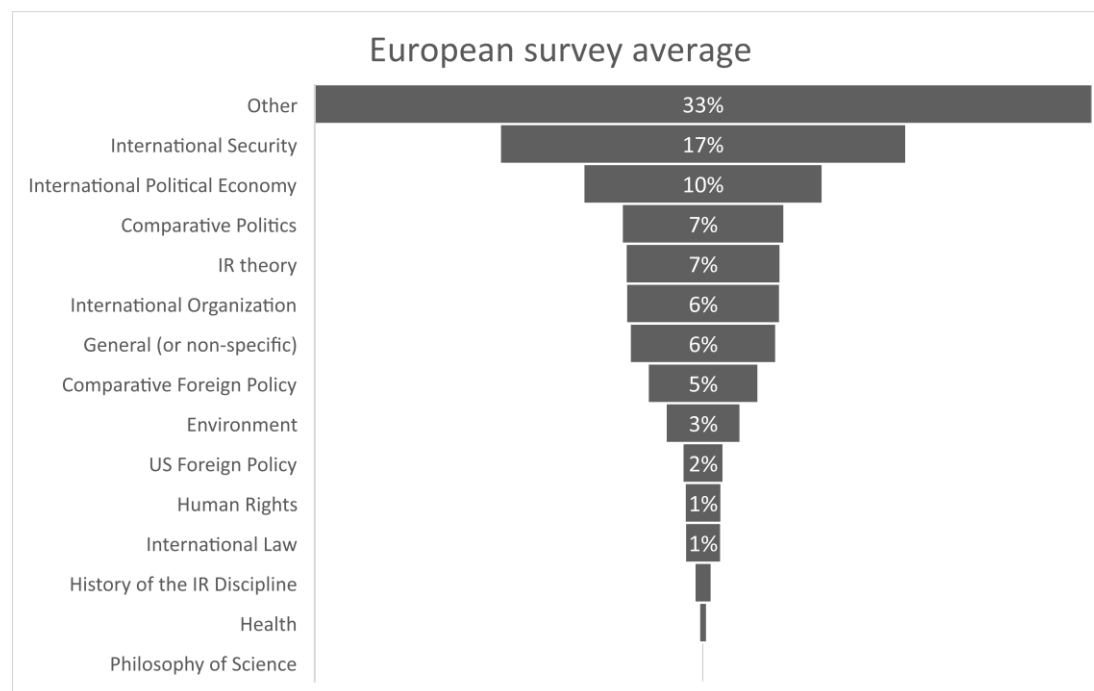
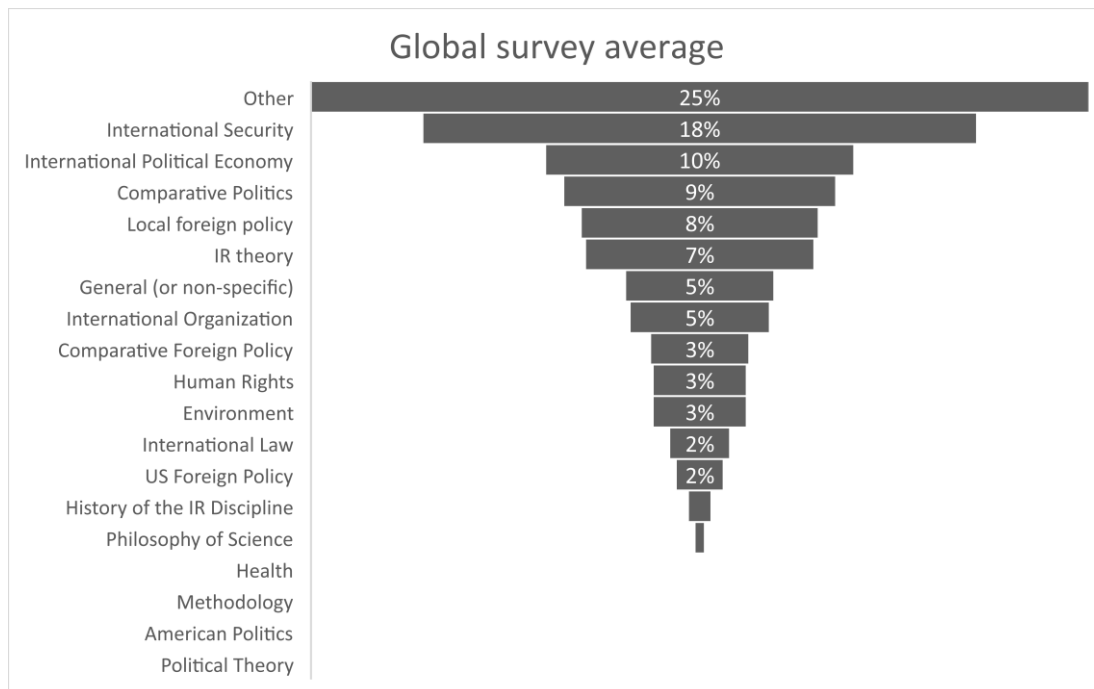
While the IR journal EJIR did not publish one single comparative politics article between 2005 and 2014, its coverage is still relatively uneven. The European Journal for International Relations also has a strong focus on international security (26%) and international organization (15%) but published only a few IPE

articles (6%). The journal's third pillar, rather than IPE, includes theory articles. One quarter of all articles in EJIR fall under the category of IR theory. That means that those articles' main purpose is the discussion or construction of theory, without a (substantial) empirical component. This value is by far the highest of all journals (25%) and marks EJIR as *the* IR theory journal, not only in Europe (BJPoIS has only 3%) but also on a global scale. It is unclear which topics the theories are about, but it is likely that they cover even more issues related to international organization and international security, hence the journal's other two large thematic foci.

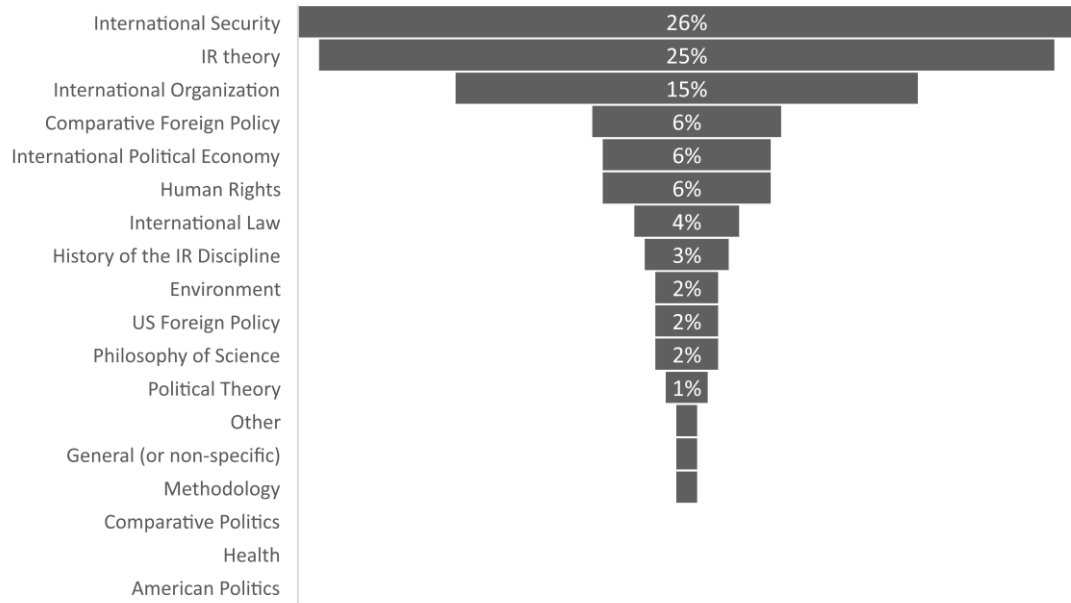
Almost none of the smaller (IR) topics receive above-average attention from authors published in EJIR – not even regional integration, which one would expect to be high on the agenda of a European IR journal. There is one notable exception though. The journal publishes more articles about the history/sociology of the IR discipline than the other journals and certainly more than BJPoIS does. Although only 3% of the articles have the history of the IR discipline coded as their main issue area, 35% of all articles have a substantive focus on studying the discipline, which is a large number in comparison to the 1% of articles in BJPoIS that do so. The only meta-category that EJIR does not serve is pure methodology articles. However, these are scarce across all journals. This high level of self-reflection together with the high number of theory articles together paint a picture of a journal that is thematically inward-looking, as it seems to be focused on the advancement of the discipline first and foremost or at least in addition to covering issues related to global governance/international organization and security (see Table App 36). This type of reflexive research, with the goal of bringing forward the discipline, can be regarded as dominant in EJIR. On the whole, both journals have a clear thematic focus and pay relatively little attention to other topics. The analysis of aggregated substantive foci supports a picture of relatively low thematic dissimilarity.



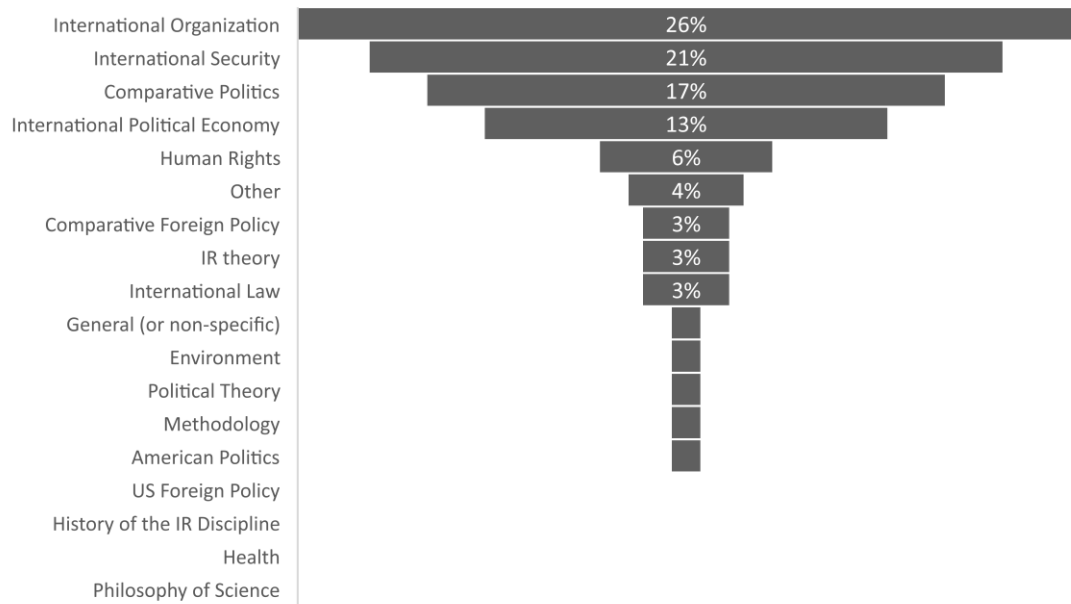
*Figure 17
Thematic
evenness,
Europe*



European Journal of International Relations



British Journal of Political Science



To summarize, both European journals are characterized by a high degree of thematic specialization and thus a low level of diversity. The variety of articles published in BJPoIS is especially low in comparison to the other journals because it covers only a relatively small number of issue areas. Its main specialization, even for IR articles, seems to be comparative politics,⁵⁶ in addition to more traditional IR topics like security, international organization, and IPE. The European Journal of International Relations is not much more varied, but it does cover more issue areas than BJPoIS. Furthermore, EJIR places an extraordinary focus on the study and advancement of the discipline, demonstrated by far-above-average values for IR theory articles as well as articles that study the discipline. The coverage of other topics only slightly balances this inward-looking character of the journal. The British Journal of Political Science also covers relatively few topics that are different from its core themes. Both journals, therefore, have low levels of both thematic evenness and dissimilarity.

Table 26 Overview of topic diversity, Europe

Variety	Medium
Evenness	Medium
Dissimilarity	Low

Theoretical diversity

The two European journals have the highest degree of theoretical variety, since both journals cover all four traditional IR approaches – even Marxism.

Just as the others, the two journals look less diverse when one looks at how the published articles are distributed across the theoretical approaches. While the high number of articles with a non-paradigmatic approach (48% on average) supports the impression of high variety, another 42% of articles use one of only two approaches for their main theoretical framework: Liberalism or Constructivism (21% each). This is interesting because the latter is not a theory but an ontology that would often intersect with a Liberalist approach in the form of sociological or historical institutionalism – two approaches not listed in the codebook. The other traditional IR theories, Marxism (2%) and Realism (6%), are used in less than 10% of the articles. The British Journal of Political Science has a low level of theoretical evenness, not so much because 62% of the articles are non-paradigmatic but because almost all paradigmatic articles use the approach (Liberalism). The European Journal of

⁵⁶ Given the ambiguous rules in the TRIP codebook for this category, the articles coded as comparative politics could also be domestic politics articles on any country other than the US. It is, therefore, unclear whether the authors of these articles actually work comparatively or focus on one country, such as the UK. The high share of domestic UK articles under this category points to the fact that, after all, the articles were categorized as IR since they would not be part of the dataset otherwise.

International Relations is closer to the distribution displayed by the European survey respondents but falls short of the global survey benchmark due to its disproportionately large share of Constructivist articles (34%). All in all, EJIR has a medium level of theoretical evenness.

In terms of dissimilarity, it is interesting that BJPoS publishes more IR articles with non-paradigmatic approaches (62%) than EJIR (38%). The British Journal of Political Science lies high above the benchmark values – something it has in common with the American political science journal under study, APSR. The European Journal for International Relations, on the other hand, has fewer non-paradigmatic articles than the two benchmark values suggest, and a larger share of its articles are actually dedicated to one of the large IR approaches. This dedication to the larger IR approaches is supported by the low number of atheoretical approaches in EJIR and its relatively high share of Marxist (4%) and Realist (8%) articles – two categories that are low for all other journals, including BJPoS.

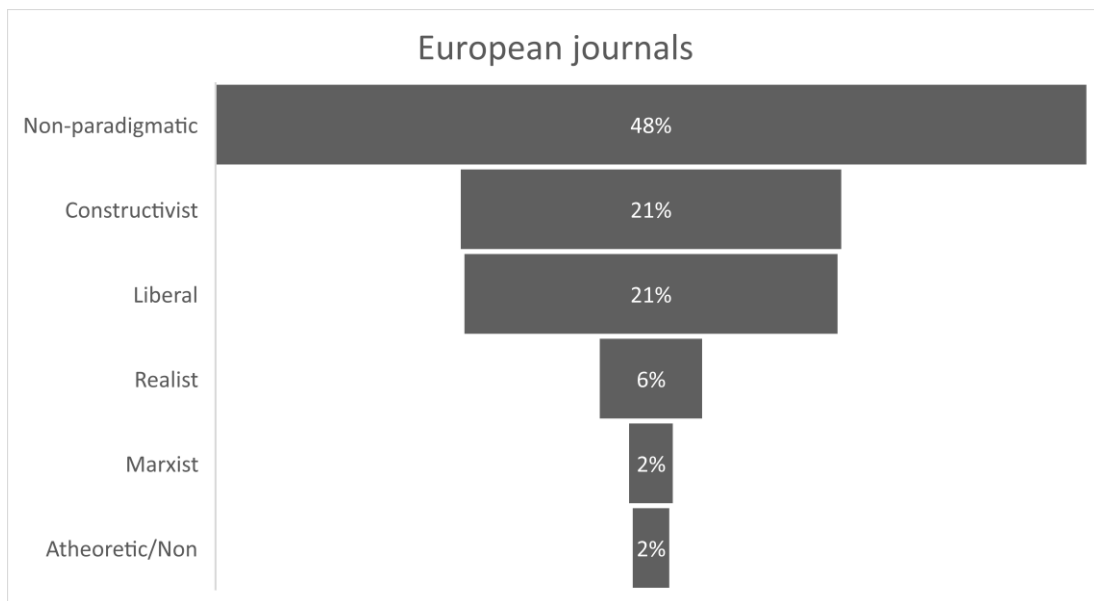
Even more interesting is that EJIR does not only publish a relatively high number of Realist articles, it also has a high share of articles that take Realism seriously without using it. Twenty-three percent of articles do this, which is much higher than the value for BJPoS (4%). All in all, the numbers for EJIR and BJPoS (see Table App 44) support the impression that the practice of discussing alternative or competing approaches is much more typical of IR journals than of political science journals – even when looking at only the IR articles in them. Many EJIR articles take Liberalism (20%) and Constructivism (15%) seriously without using them. That means that even those articles either use one of the theoretical approaches and take the other seriously or take one or both seriously when using a third approach. This supports the impression of theoretical monotony and the low level of evenness for the European journals, especially EJIR.

Since the journal is characterized by two heavily intersecting approaches – Constructivism and Liberalism – it also has a relatively low level of dissimilarity. However, the high share of articles using Constructivism in EJIR and its relative share of articles using Marxism can also be read as signs of a larger influence of critical approaches. The same cannot be said of BJPoS. The picture of EJIR as an outlet for a relatively diverse mix of articles is supported by the fact that it has the largest share of non-Western IR theorizing articles of all journals under study. Sixteen percent of all articles use non-Western sources of knowledge in their theorizing. That is even higher than the value for Mexican FI. It seems curious at first sight that this European journal is the largest outlet among the studied journals for non-Western IR. Overall, BJPoS has a low level of theoretical dissimilarity – although it could be that there are many dissimilar approaches hidden in the 62% of non-paradigmatic articles. The European Journal for International Relations has a strong/medium level with its relatively high share of articles with non-Western IR theories and the large share of potentially critical Constructivist and explicitly Marxist articles.

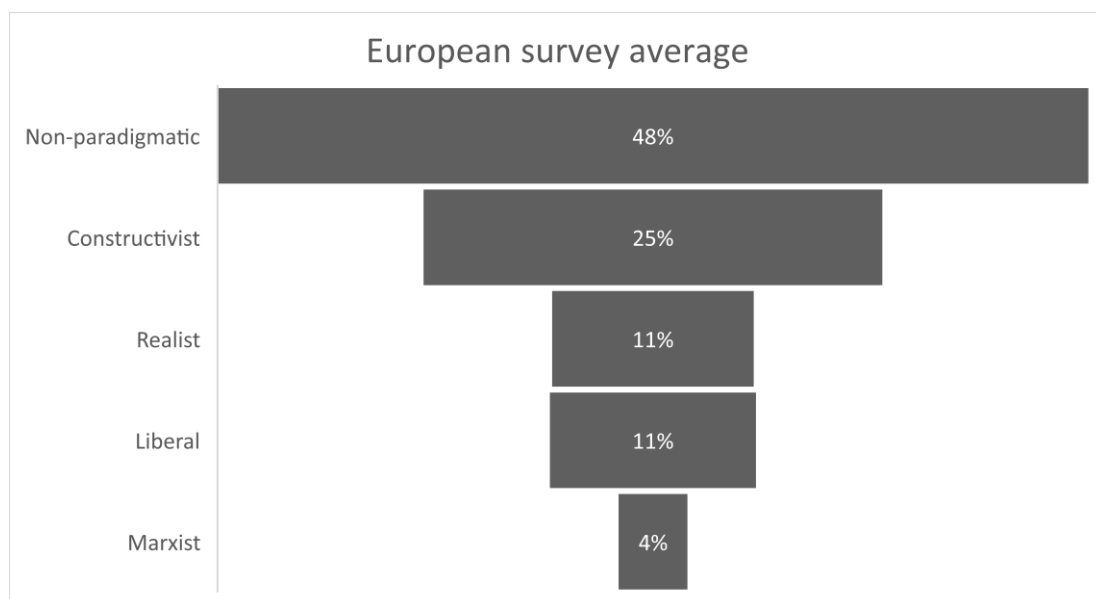
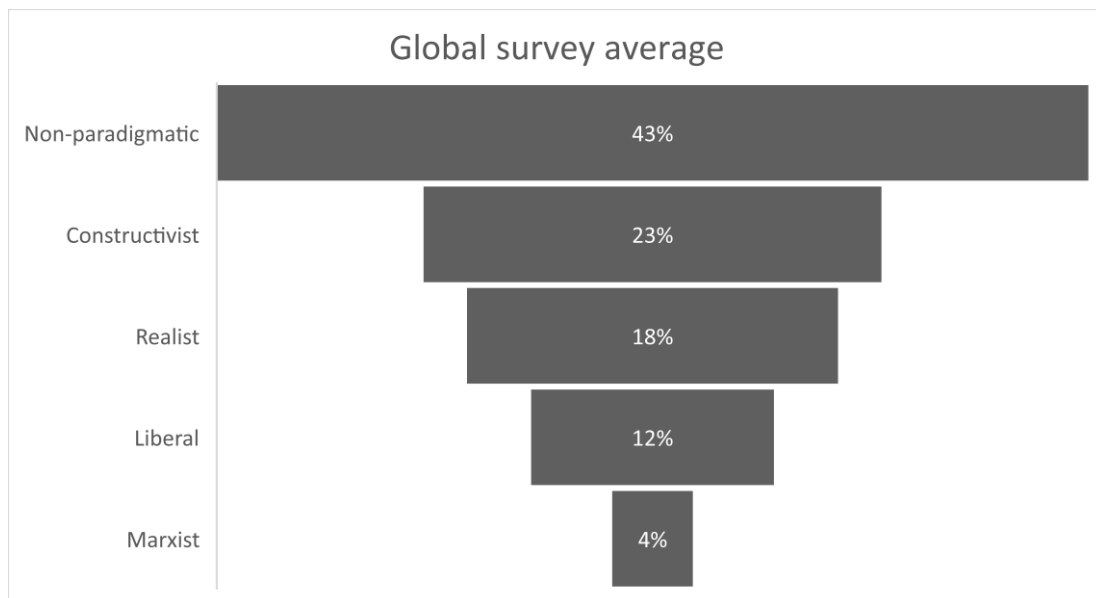
To summarize, the European journals have the highest degree of theoretical variety of all cases studied. While most journals cover three of the four main IR approaches as well as atheoretic articles and articles with non-paradigmatic approaches, both European journals also published the approach that was missing from the others: Marxist articles. This perfect degree of variety in terms of coverage is supported by a high degree of non-paradigmatic approaches, which indicates variety beyond the main IR approaches. This high level of small or less well-known approaches is especially high in the political science journal *BJPoIS*. The articles in both journals, however, are unevenly distributed across the approaches. In *BJPoIS*, almost all articles either follow a Liberalist approach or are non-paradigmatic. The *European Journal of International Relations* has published a number of Constructivist articles that goes far beyond the two benchmark values and leaves little room for any of the other main IR approaches except for Liberalism. This journal has the highest share of articles following Constructivism, at a value of 34%, and lies clearly above the already high survey averages. It also has an above-average share of Realist and Marxist articles – especially as approaches that are taken seriously but not applied by the authors. The latter is a tendency that is far less common for the political science journal, an observation that I already made for the North American case.

Additionally, the two European journals are different in their degree of theoretical dissimilarity. The *British Journal of Political Science* publishes articles primarily with non-IR or small approaches (non-paradigmatic), which automatically brings a degree of dissimilarity, since this category catches so many different approaches. Nevertheless, it otherwise publishes primarily Liberalist articles and thus leaves little room for other IR approaches, including critical ones.

Despite the dominant status of Constructivism/Liberalism in *EJIR*, the journal also leaves room for small Realist and Marxist articles – the latter still underrepresented in comparison to the survey values and the former a perfect fit with them. The Marxist articles are especially interesting in the context of dissimilarity because they indicate an openness toward critical approaches on the side of the journal. This impression is supported by the high number of Constructivist articles because among them could be critical approaches with a Constructivist ontology, including feminism and post-structuralism. Last but certainly not least, *EJIR* stands out with the highest share of articles using non-Western sources of knowledge in their theorizing. This fits the overall picture of the “non-Western IR” debate but is still remarkable given the fact that this study also covers two Latin American journals, *EI* and *FI*.



*Figure 18
Theoretical
evenness,
Europe*



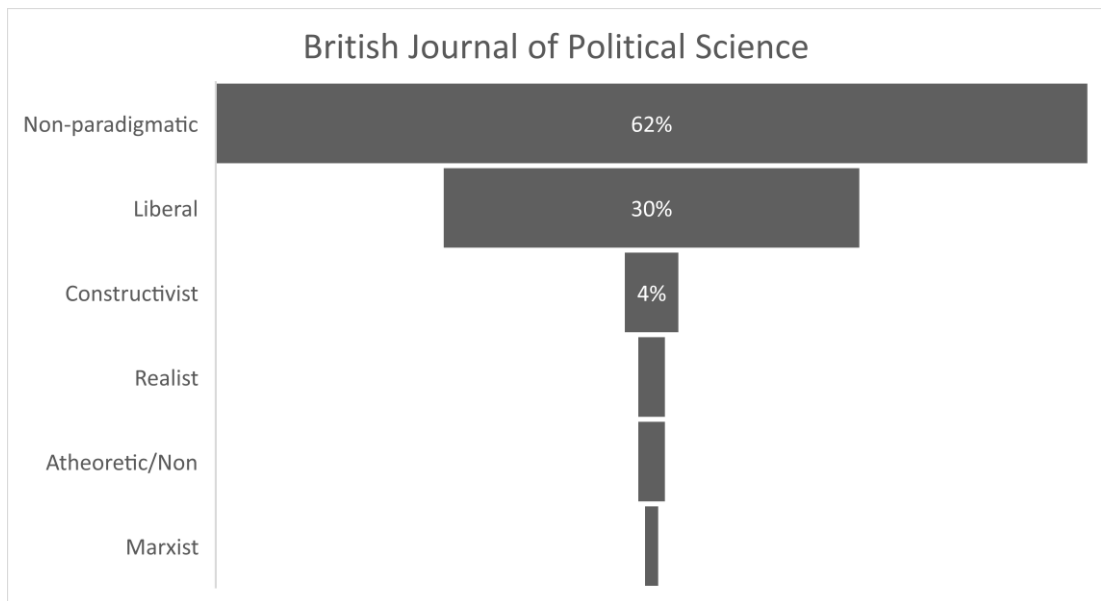
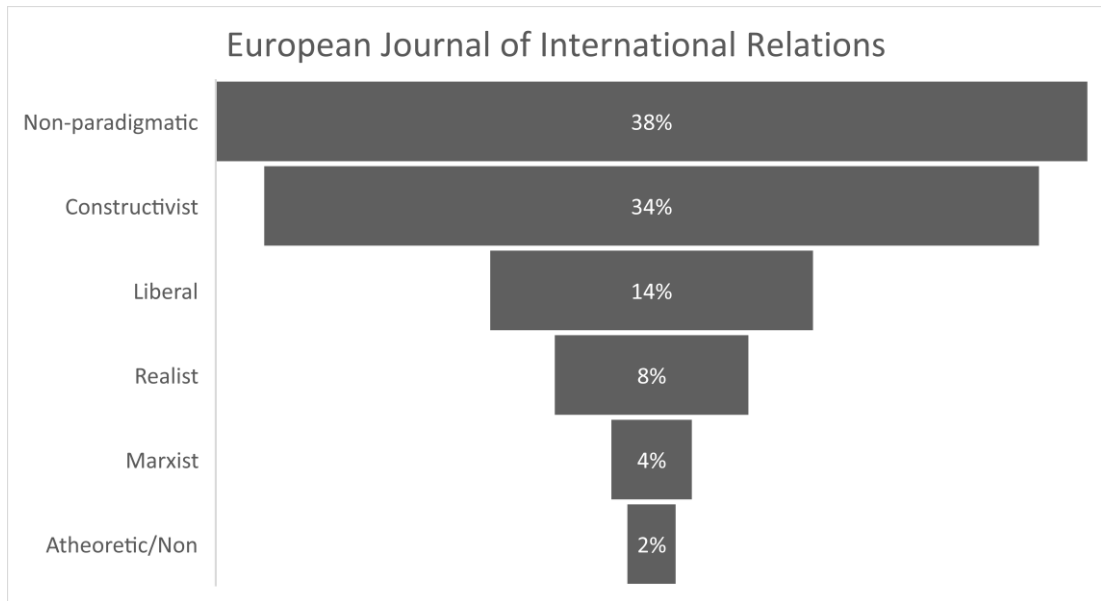


Table 27 Overview of theoretical diversity, Europe

Variety	High
Evenness	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)

4.3.3 Conclusions about European journals

Geo-diversity

The British Journal of Political Science’s geographical authorship diversity is low, and it is low across all three properties (see Table 28). Based on this aspect of diversity alone, it is a national journal. What is remarkable is that it is a national journal dominated by US-based, and not British, authors. The European Journal of International Relations is just as balanced across the properties but shows a higher overall level of diversity (medium), even for the critical parameter dissimilarity. Nevertheless, while the relative share of U.S. authors in EJIR is not as high as in BJOLS, U.S. authors still constitute the largest group in this explicitly European journal. This is clearly the most revealing finding in terms of geographic authorship diversity for the European case—that even here, on European scholars’ home turf, US-based scholars play such a strong role. Unlike BJPoIS, however, EJIR is at the same time characterized by a relatively high number of UK-based and generally Anglophone authors. What makes it most different from BJPoIS is that it also serves as a platform for a wide range of continental European authors from a variety of countries. The outspokenly European journal, therefore, at least partially serves as a transnational platform for European scholars’ research. On the whole, BJPoIS seems to serve as an American island in the midst of the European research landscape. Global South authors, however, are almost completely absent from both journals.

Table 28 Geo-diversity for European journals

	Authorship	Content
Variety	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)	High
Evenness	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)	Low

While the levels of geographical authorship diversity for both journals are stable across the three properties, variety, evenness, and dissimilarity, the findings for the geographical content dimension are not. The outcome for EJIR justifies the use of such a complex conceptualization of diversity in this study. The variety of regions is high due to a broad coverage of regions. This would suggest a high level of

diversity at first sight, but the distribution of articles across these regions is only at a medium level, and the dissimilarity is at a low level. The British Journal of Political Science also has high geographical content variety but low levels of evenness and dissimilarity. That means that while both journals cover a great deal of regions, they focus on a small number of similar cases. For the two European journals, these heavily studied regions are Western Europe/Canada and the US as well as FSU/Eastern Europe. That is, the journals are characterized by studies on the global North and are, at the same time, relatively inward-looking. The British journal seems to be focused on Europe, which indicates, even without the relative cross-tabs, that US-based scholars focus on Europe when publishing in European journals, or better said, US-based scholars who write about Europe publish their work in European journals rather than in the US.

Thematic and theoretical diversity

Based on my analysis, neither of the two European journals under study has a high level of thematic diversity in any of the three properties. Both journals have medium levels of variety and evenness and a low level of thematic dissimilarity. That is, neither journal covers the entire range of topics specified in the codebook. While the focus of BJPoIS on topics related to comparative politics is easily explained by the fact that it is a political science journal, it is still surprising, since the study only included those articles that qualified as IR overall. The more interesting of the two cases is EJIR, which demonstrates a specialization of articles on the development of the discipline, i.e., theory articles but also articles on the history or sociology of IR. While this means that EJIR has a unique selling point in this regard, it also means that there is little room for more general and less reflexive articles. The European Journal of International Relations can thus be regarded as a platform for meta-analyses.

Table 29 Thematic diversity for European journals

	Topics	Theories
Variety	Medium	High
Evenness	Medium	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low	Low (BJPoIS) to medium (EJIR)

A similar specialization is visible for EJIR’s theoretical diversity. While the journal covers a high number of larger and smaller approaches, it is clearly characterized by Constructivist and Liberalist articles. If the codebook were written differently, I would conclude that it is characterized by sociological institutionalism. For EJIR, there emerges an interesting diversity constellation at this point. While its

theoretical evenness is low, it has a medium-to-high level of dissimilarity. This medium level is caused by its above-average number of Marxist articles and the potential for even more critical approaches. Furthermore, EJIR turns out to be a platform for growing literature on non-Western IR. That this platform is anchored to the European rather than any other community is fascinating but fits the general picture of EJIR. The British Journal of Political Science has no comparable profile. Its only dramatic feature is its high share of non-paradigmatic articles, which suggests that IR scholars who publish in this political science journal locate themselves outside of the traditional IR theoretical profile.

To conclude, both journals for this Europe case study feature large groups of scholars based in Anglophone countries, especially the US. The European Journal of International Relations also has a great deal of authors based all over continental Europe. Authors based outside the global North are basically absent, thus giving the impression that while EJIR tries to at least be inclusive, the journals are not more globally situated than the other journals under study. On the contrary, these journals are the real backbones of trans-Atlantic scholarship, while the U.S. journals are too US-oriented to function as such. None of the journals is inward-looking in terms of the regions it studies, but they all do have an expected focus on the global North, i.e., North America and Western and Eastern Europe. In terms of theories, EJIR is thus basically what European IR is assumed to be: Constructivist, reflexive, above-average critical, and open to alternative thinking. The British Journal of Political Science is closer to the American journals, especially APSR.

4.4 Comparative chapter with main conclusions about geographical and thematic diversity in IR journals

4.4.1 Comparison of geographical diversity

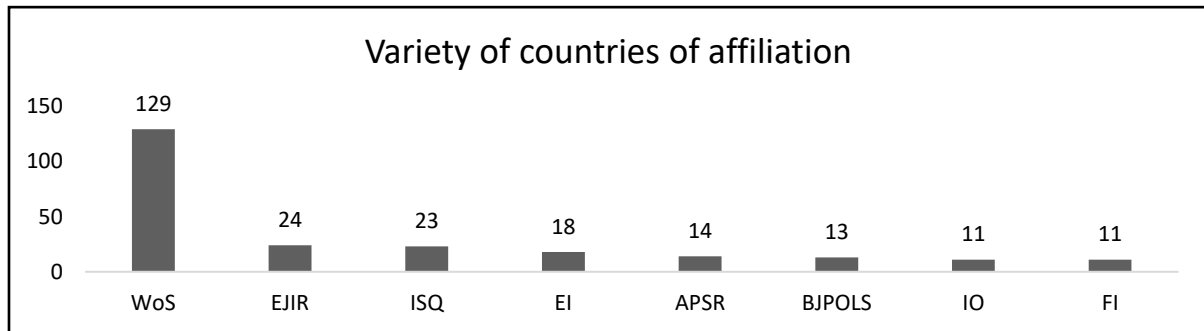
Two things stand out when comparing the values for geographic authorship diversity across the three regions in terms of variety. First, none of the regions has a high variety level, and second, there is a great deal of variation across the journals within the regions. European EJIR is the journal with the highest overall level of variety, closely followed by North American ISQ (see Figure 19). The other journals in the same regions fall short of these relatively high levels: APSR, BJPoLS, and IO all publish authors from considerably fewer countries. A similar trend is visible for the two Latin American journals. Estudios Internacionales’ level of variety is actually closer to that of ISQ and EJIR than to that of FI, which together with IO, has the lowest level across all regions. This is a first indication of a general trend for this study. For many aspects, there is at least as much variation within the regions as there is across them.

Table 30 Cross-case comparison geographical authorship diversity

	North America	Latin America	Europe
Variety	Low (IO, ASPR), medium (ISQ)	Low (FI), medium (EI)	Low (BJPOLs), medium (EJIR)
Evenness	Low	Low (FI), medium (EI)	Low (BJPOLs), medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low	Medium (EI), high (FI)	Low (BJPOLs), medium (EJIR)

This trend also applies to the evenness and dissimilarity values for geographic authorship diversity, with the notable exception of North America, where all three journals have the same values for both properties (see Table 30). Chilean EI and EJIR are the two journals with the most even distribution of articles across countries of affiliation. Estudios Internacionales is also the only one without either the US or the UK under the top five countries of affiliation. All other journals have the US with either the largest or second largest (FI) group of authors. Indeed, with the exception of FI, in which U.S. authors still have a strong presence but UK authors do not as much, all journals have a double-pole position of US- and UK-based authors. What is more, those countries with the strongest U.S. influence are also those with the lowest levels of evenness and dissimilarity.

Figure 19 Number of countries of affiliation per journal (variety; geographic diversity)



This is most visible in the three North American journals and BJPOLS, which has more US- than UK-based authors despite its title. For this journal but also for the rest of them, it seems that the ties between the British and the American academies are so strong that they basically serve the same markets since so many authors from both sides of the Atlantic publish on the other side. However, the difference between these two groups of authors is that US-based authors have a very strong presence in Europe, while this is less the case the other way around. On the whole, the North American journals have the lowest overall geographical authorship diversity.

Table 31 Top 10 countries of affiliation per region (evenness; geographic diversity)

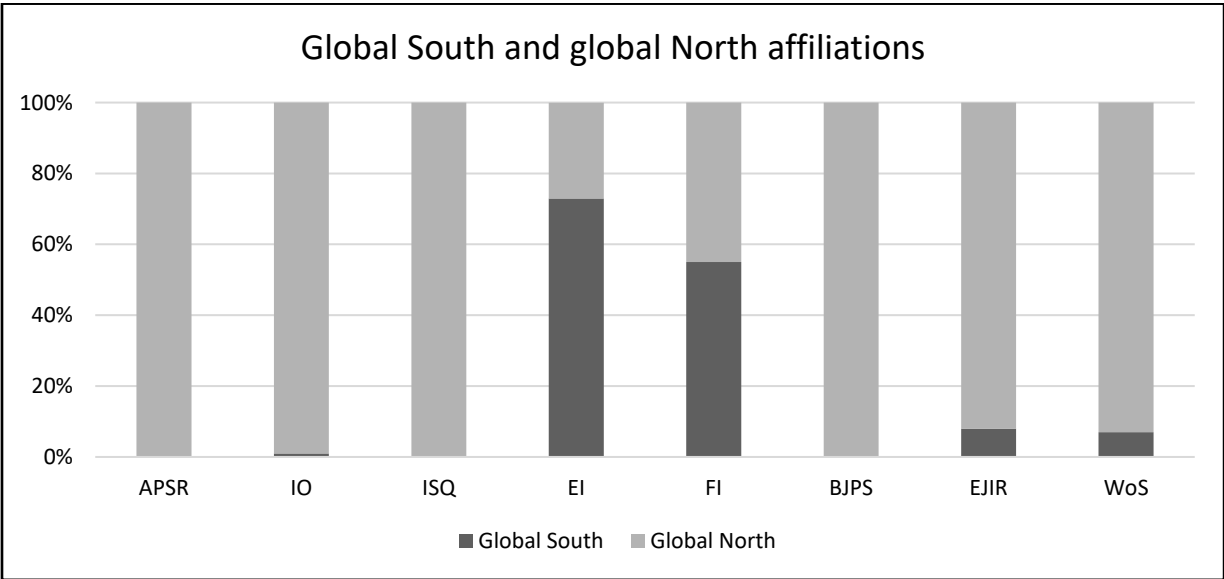
	NA %	LA %	EU %	WoS %	Community size %
USA	77,4%	Mexico 17,2%	USA 38,5%	USA 32,3%	USA 33,9%
UK	8,6%	Chile 14,1%	UK 19,6%	UK 17,7%	UK 9,1%
Canada	2,9%	Argentina 9,1%	Germany 5,6%	Germany 5,5%	China 7,9%
Norway	1,9%	USA 8,1%	Australia 5,6%	Canada 4,8%	Turkey 4,9%
Germany	1,5%	Spain 6,1%	Sweden 4,9%	Australia 4,4%	India 4,8%
Australia	1,1%	Brazil 4,0%	Netherlands 4,5%	China 2,7%	Canada 4,5%
Sweden	0,8%	Germany 2,5%	Canada 3,8%	South Korea 2,1%	Germany 4,2%
Switzerland	0,8%	UK 2,0%	Switzerland 3,5%	Netherlands 1,9%	Japan 3,3%
Israel	0,7%	Canada 2,0%	Denmark 2,4%	Norway 1,9%	Poland 3,1%
Spain	0,6%	France 1,5%	Ireland 1,7%	Turkey 1,8%	Brazil 2,6%
Turkey	0,6%				

How homogenous the geographical authorship diversity is in IR is powerfully illustrated when one compares the roles that global South and global North authors play in the journals under study (see Figure 20).⁵⁷ The two political science journals have a 100% authorship based in the global North. That is, there is not a single author or co-author based in Latin America, the Middle East, North or Sub-Saharan Africa, India, China, or Southeast Asia published in these journals. The same is true for ISQ, which is even more surprising, considering that this is the flagship journal of ISA, an organization that

⁵⁷ Due to a lack of data, I cannot say anything about authors' countries of origin to take into account the overall, more globalized U.S. job market in comparison to that of Europe and Latin America, for example.

increasingly claims to be an institution for scholars from around the world. International Organization has a single article with an author who was affiliated with a Mexican institution at the time of writing. For the rest, it is just as homogenously global North as ISQ and the two political science journals. The European Journal of International Relations is the one-eyed queen among the blind, with 8% of its authors based in the global South. This journal, therefore, is slightly above the WoS-benchmark distribution of 6% global South authors.

Figure 20 Author affiliations in terms of global South and North distribution (dissimilarity; geographic diversity)



While there are few to no global South authors at all represented in the European and North American journals, there are European and North American authors represented in the two Latin American journals. The authorship in Chilean EI is primarily based in the global South (i.e., Latin America in this case), but a little less than 30% of the authors are nevertheless based in the global North. Mexican FI is by far the most balanced journal in this regard and thus has the potential to play the role of a hub where scholars from dissimilar regions publish their work. There are, however, two caveats to this impression of larger diversity/dissimilarity for the two Latin American journals. First, the global South authors published here are almost exclusively based in Latin America, especially in the case of FI. Authors based in the Middle East, Asia, and North and Sub-Saharan Africa are thus just as absent from these journals as from the European and North American ones. Second, one must not forget that the evenness for FI was at a relatively low level and that most global South authors did not come from anywhere but are based almost exclusively in Mexico, while the vast majority of global North authors are based in the US. The journal thus might not be so much a hub for global South and North authors to mix but more of an outlet for Mexico/Latin America experts from both sides of the border.

Chilean EI is the only island of diversity in which U.S. authors do not play a leading role. Instead, EI's relatively high diversity comes primarily from the fact that it has an exceptionally even authorship, with Latin American scholars holding the largest shares. However, in addition to these Latin American scholars, there are others who are based in Western Europe (especially Spain) as well as Africa and Asia. While it would be a stretch to call this journal global, it has enough scholars from countries outside of Latin America that it is not dominated by Latin American scholars. It is not unlikely that the absence of more US-based authors might be caused by EI's potentially low reputation outside of the region and, consequentially, its low attractiveness to US-based scholars rather than by some kind of editorial policy of diversity.

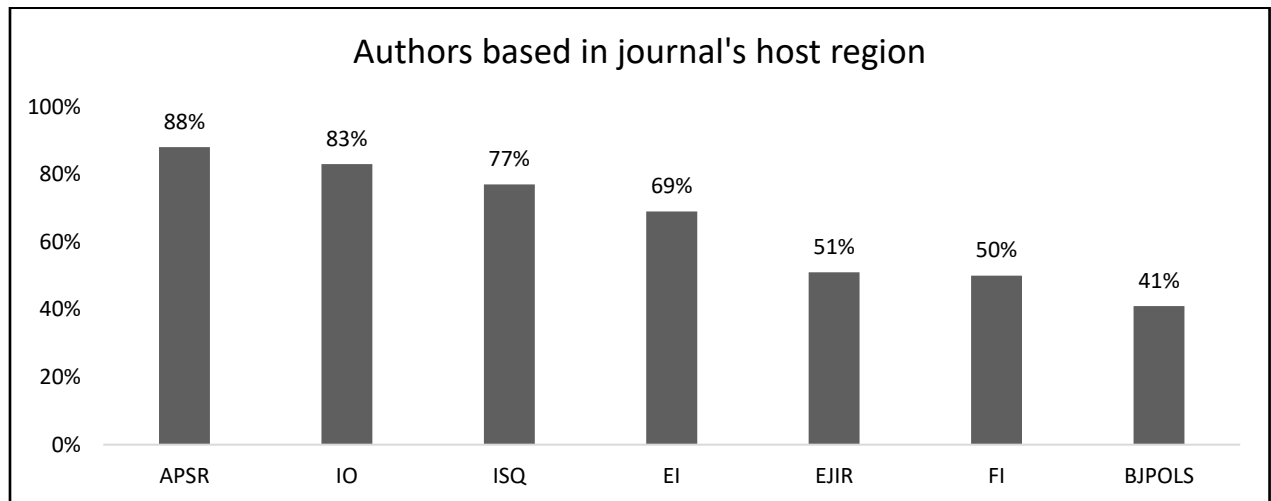
Foro Internacional does not seem to suffer from this unattractiveness to the same degree as EI. In fact, 25% of all authors in FI are based in the US despite the fact that the journal is a) published in Spanish and b) can be considered a periphery journal. This proportion, however, is not strong enough to qualify as a case of dominance. Indeed, what leads to dominance in other cases – a strong presence of US-based authors – is actually a sign of medium dissimilarity in the case of FI. It appears as a bridge between the global South and the global North—or possibly better expressed, between a small periphery and a large core community.

Despite all of these nuances, one finding stands out: while scholarship produced in Western Europe and North America is published in Latin America, scholarship produced in Latin America is not published in either Western Europe or North America. While EJIR has values for Latin American scholars that are a little higher than the three North American journals, Latin American scholars are, bluntly said, actors of the periphery with no access to the core. That means that while US-based authors who are able to publish in Spanish can easily spread their research in Latin America, the opposite is not the case. However, it may well be that many of the authors coded as US-based in this study are actually part of the Hispanic diaspora and/or are not directly members of the IR community but would self-identify as Latin Americanists. Whether this is the case needs to be explored in a follow-up study that takes scholars' migration patterns into account.

All in all, 50% of all authors in FI and 69% in EI are based in Latin America (see Figure 21). This is only slightly more than Europe-based authors in the European journals (EJIR: 51%; BJPoS: 41%) and indeed less than North America-based authors in the three North American journals (IO: 83%; ISQ: 77%; APSR: 88%). Thus, while there are indeed many Latin American authors in the Latin American journals and there is a comparatively high share of global South authors, the share is not disproportionately high in comparison to the other regions and journals. It is only logical that there are more European and US-based scholars in the other journals because their communities are larger, especially the U.S.

community. Nevertheless, the numbers displayed in Figure 21 demonstrate that the North American journals still display the clearest pattern of insularity due to low authorship evenness and dissimilarity.

Figure 21 Authors based in journal's host region by journal



What is more, US-based authors publish everywhere (except in EI), but the North American journals are especially characterized by a strong presence of US-based authors, which also becomes visible when one compares the TRIP samples for 2014. United States-based scholars are virtually everywhere and quantitatively overrepresented in an impressive manner. They constitute the largest group of authors in five of the seven journals. In fact, US-based authors constitute the largest group of authors in both European journals on a national level. However, while BJPOLS shows the impressively uneven balance of 53% US- and only 12% UK-based scholars, the relative influence is less severe in EJIR, in which the 29% of US-based authors are balanced out by more than 50% of scholars based in the UK and other large European IR communities (foremost Scandinavia, Germany, and the Netherlands).

This distribution is a little different when one looks at the data on the regions under study, i.e., the content dimension of geographical diversity, since in this case, it is Latin America that is the most inward-looking. What is similar is that while Western Europe/Canada and the US are studied intensely in all journals, studies on Latin America are scarce in the European and North American journals. Nevertheless, unlike in the case of geographic authorship diversity, the variety of regions under study is high for the seven journals covered in this study (see Table 32).

Table 32 Cross-case comparison of geographical content diversity

	North America	Latin America	Europe
Variety	High	High	High
Evenness	Low	Low	Low (BJPOLS), medium (EJIR)
Dissimilarity	Low	Medium	Low

The overall picture of geographic content diversity displays again how important it is to distinguish between the three properties of variety, evenness, and dissimilarity to come to a nuanced understanding of diversity. Based on high variety levels only, one would conclude that all journals are characterized by high diversity in terms of the regions they study. However, the evenness and dissimilarity values for almost all journals are at a low level. The European Journal of International Relations and the North American journals have a medium level of evenness, but it is important to note that the three North American journals are at the lower end of this value while EJIR is at its higher end. Only comparison to the extremely even distribution displayed by the survey benchmarks keeps EJIR from attaining a high evenness value. Still, all four journals distribute their attention relatively evenly across the regional spectrum. In EJIR, this is because of relatively high attention to even the “smaller” regions, and for the North American journals, this is because of a strong attention at the global level paired with evenly distributed, relatively low attention to individual regions. None of the journals focus disproportionately on their host region, the North American journals less so than the Europeans ones.

The Latin American journals, on the other hand, both have low evenness levels due to a strong focus on Latin America as a region under study. Unlike the North American journals and EJIR, those journals demonstrate a high degree of insularity in their geographical content diversity. Nevertheless, EI and especially FI have relatively high levels of dissimilarity in this regard, especially in comparison to the other journals. Table 33 illustrates that more than two-thirds of articles in EI and more than three-quarters of articles in FI study Latin America either exclusively or in combination with one or several other regions. For North America and Europe, there is still an imbalance between the most- and second-most-studied individual regions for all journals, but the imbalance between them is not as severe as for EI or FI. However, this strong focus on Latin America automatically leads to an above-average portion of global South regions under study—even if it is only this one global South region—and thus results in a higher level of dissimilarity for the Latin American journals. In addition, both journals also study global North regions. While EI focuses more on Western Europe/Canada, more than half of all articles in FI study the US (see Table 33). In brief, while the European and the North American journals focus almost exclusively on the western/global North, EI and FI feature articles on both the global South and the global North.

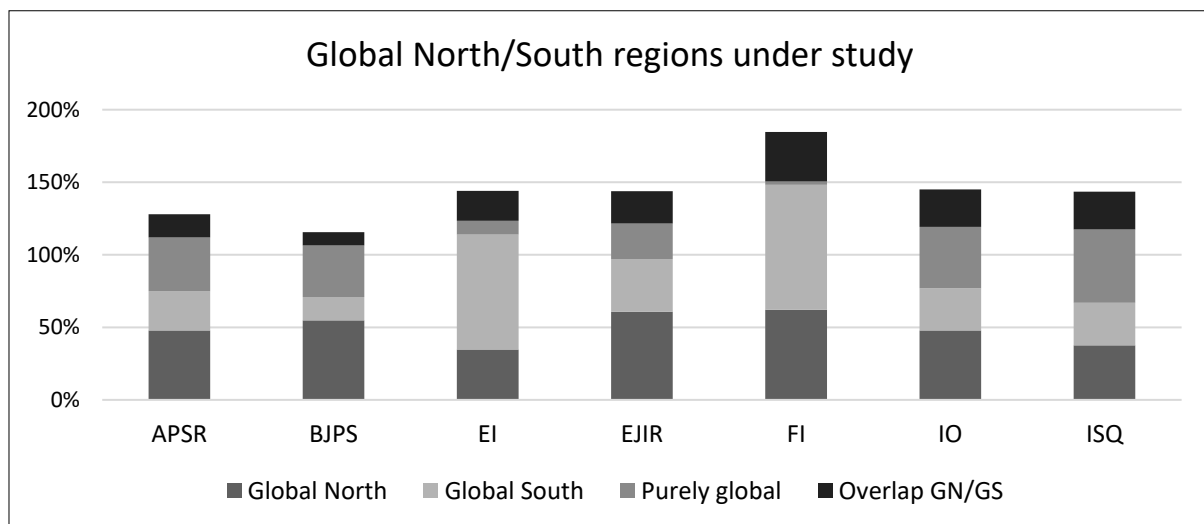
*Table 33 Regions under study per journal (evenness, geographic diversity) **

Region under study	APSR	IO	ISQ	EI	FI	BJPoIS	EJIR	Survey
Global	40%	48%	56%	15%	10%	44%	30%	15%
Western Europe/Canada	28%	29%	22%	24%	23%	48%	42%	19%
USA/North America	29%	26%	18%	19%	51%	13%	26%	15%
Latin America	14%	7%	11%	65%	77%	2%	5%	11%

FSU/Eastern Europe	11%	10%	11%	5%	16%	20%	18%	26%
East Asia	3%	9%	9%	23%	5%	8%	16%	14%
MENA	9%	12%	11%	9%	11%	5%	13%	16%
SSA	8%	3%	6%	5%	5%	3%	7%	8%
South Asia	3%	4%	7%	3%	5%	1%	3%	8%
Southeast Asia	2%	5%	6%	3%	3%	1%	4%	9%
Oceania	4%	4%	4%	2%	2%	6%	1%	2%
Antarctica	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%

As can be seen in Figure 22, FI is the journal with the largest relative share of articles that combine global South and global North regions in one study. It is likely that these are articles about Mexico-US relations. What becomes visible as well from this figure is that these bridge-building articles play only a minor role for the two Latin American journals compared to the overall high number of articles that cover the global South. The European and North American journals, on the other hand, have almost no articles that are exclusively about the global South. However, in the majority of cases, articles combine insights on any of the related regions with insights on global North regions, or better said, with coverage of the *relations* of global North regions *with* global South regions but not coverage of the global South as an independent entity.

Figure 22 Geographical content dissimilarity by journal



What is also observable in the same figure is the large variation across journals with regard to “global” articles. The values displayed in Figure 22 only show those articles that were coded as exclusively global, i.e., without being coded for another region. A typical article like this would be a statistical analysis of all possible cases without a subsequent case study. This type of article is rare in EI and almost absent from FI. That means that studies on the international level without attention to individual regions or countries are atypical of Latin American IR scholarship. They are, on the other hand, typical of North

American IR, since all three journals, ASPR, IO, and ISQ, are characterized by a large relative portion of these articles. However, these articles are almost absent from the Latin American journals. This indicates that the articles in FI and EI hardly ever deal with global politics as a unit instead of zooming in on single countries or comparing them. The European journals are in the middle ground in this regard, though BJPoS looks much more like the North American journals than EJIR does.

4.4.2 Comparison of thematic and theoretical diversity

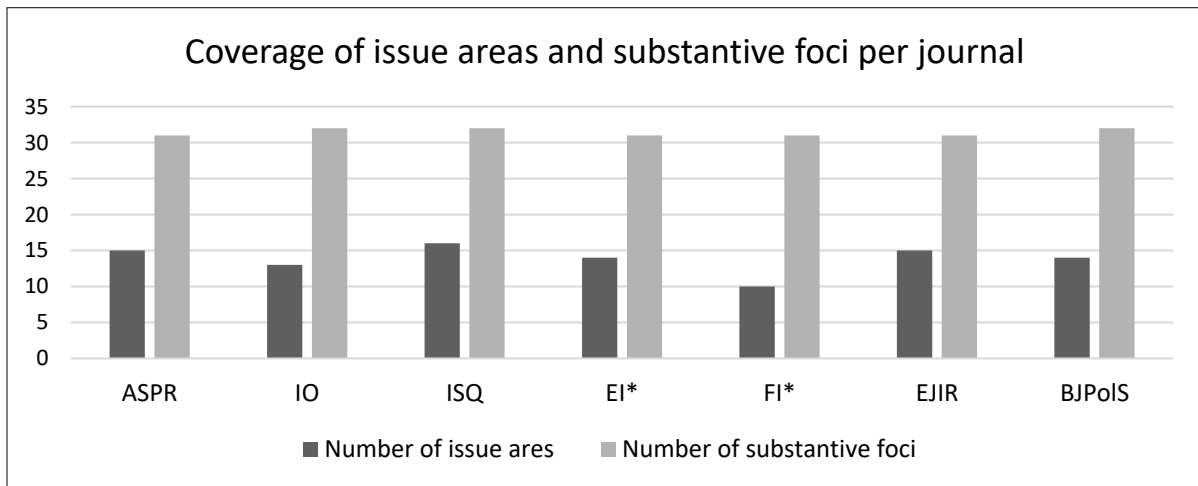
Table 34 displays the levels of thematic diversity in terms of topics covered. The variation across cases and properties is a little higher than it is for the values for geographic authorship and content diversity. First of all, for some of the journals, the values are stable across variety, evenness, and dissimilarity. The number of topics varies little across the seven journals under study, mostly in terms of issue areas and less so in terms of substantive focus. All journals have covered almost all 33 possible substantive foci. The one outlier among the otherwise medium-to-high scores based on issue area is FI. The Mexican journal covered only 10 out of 18 possible issue areas.⁵⁸ Otherwise, the variety score actually says little about the thematic diversity of these journals and cases.

Table 34 Cross-case comparison of thematic diversity, content (topics)

	North America	Latin America	Europe
Variety	Medium (IO), high (ASPR, ISQ)	Low (FI), medium (EI)	Medium
Evenness	Low (IO), medium (ISQ, ASPR)	Medium (FI), high (EI)	Medium
Dissimilarity	Medium	Medium	Low

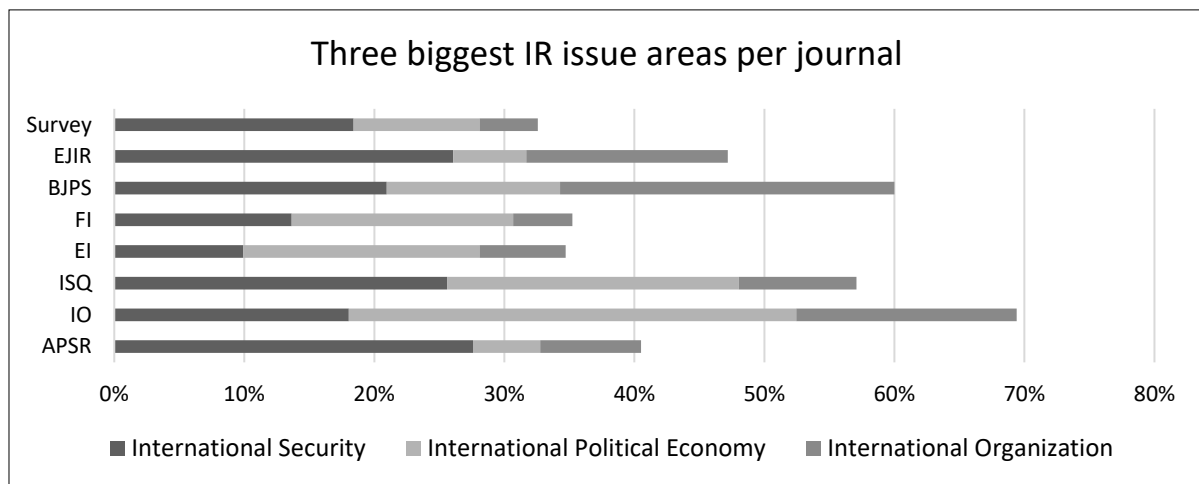
⁵⁸ Strictly speaking, it covered 12 out of 20 possible issue areas since EI and FI had the two additional variables of “local foreign policy” and “local domestic politics,” indicating a focus on Latin American politics.

Figure 23 Number of issue areas and substantive foci covered per journal (variety; thematic diversity)



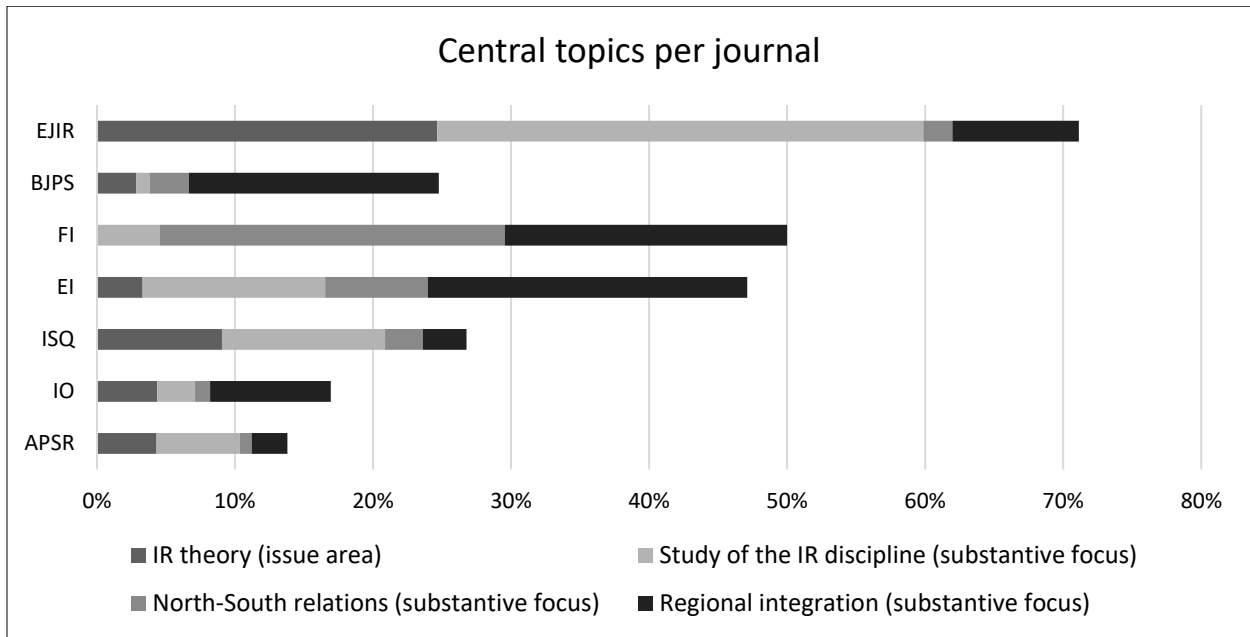
The same relative homogeneity across cases applies to the evenness scores. With the exception of IO, which has an exceptionally strong focus on IPE, all European and North American journals are characterized by the same medium level of evenness caused by a focus on the three large IR issue areas of international security, IPE, and international organization and little regard for topics that fall beyond this IR trinity (see Figure 24). The evenness value for the two Latin American journals is not, in fact, lower than it is for the other two cases, and it is indeed higher in the case of EI. However, these medium and high values have different causes than the values for North America and Europe. Estudios Internacionales and FI both pay rather little attention to the three large issue areas, but they have such a clear focus on issue areas related to foreign policy that the presence of other topics, including the large three, fades in comparison. Estudios Internacionales offers balanced coverage of topics and comes closest to the survey benchmark value.

Figure 24 Evenness of core issue areas, cross-case comparison per journal



Judged by their coverage of topics, the seven journals and three cases show an interesting degree of thematic specialization. The two Latin American journals are characterized by an inward perspective on topics of high relevance to the region, including regional integration and North-South relations—two substantive foci that are less present in the other journals, especially the latter. The journals study these topics from a variety of perspectives, but this does not lead to a low level of dissimilarity. What these two journals barely cover at all are pure theory (see Figure 25) and methodology articles (not displayed in the figures). Almost the opposite is true for EJIR, which is characterized to a point of dominance by theory articles and articles on the IR discipline. That is, this European journal stands out from all the others under investigation due to its inward perspective, not on issues that are relevant to Europe (articles on regional integration, for example, are almost completely absent) but on the discipline itself. The other European journal, BJPoIS, is different and not only this regard. The two journals cover different issue areas, and BJPoIS demonstrates its identity as a political science journal with a focus on comparative politics—even in the articles identified as IR.

Figure 25 Evenness of central topics, cross-case comparison per journal



The three North American journals are actually most strongly characterized by the core IR issue areas as displayed in Figure 24. The IR articles in APSR are primarily about security issues and not comparative politics, as is the case for the other political science journal BJPoS. International Organization is characterized by its strong focus on IPE, and ISQ displays a balanced array of articles on security, IPE, and international organization with a little more attention paid to pure theory articles than the other two North American journals offer. That is, while these three topics are most relevant to authors who are published in North American and European journals, they seem to be of less concern to those who are published in the Latin American journals. Such a regional focus for topic diversity is nowhere as strong as in Latin America. The journals' regional outlook in terms of region under study is reflected in the journals' exceptional attention to topics of special relevance to Latin America (North-South relations, regional integration, and economic interdependence). Due to this focus, it is likely that the two Latin American journals primarily attract scholars with a focus on Latin America – no matter their country of affiliation.

In terms of theoretical diversity, the three cases are not as far apart as one might expect. Based on the measured properties, all journals have a medium or high variety and low evenness and dissimilarity (with the exception of EJIR; see Table 35).

Table 35 Cross-case comparison theoretical diversity

	North America	Latin America	Europe
Variety	Medium (IO, ASPR), high (ISQ)	Medium (EI), high (FI)	High
Evenness	Low	Low	Low
Dissimilarity	Low	Low	Low (BJPOLS), medium (EJIR)

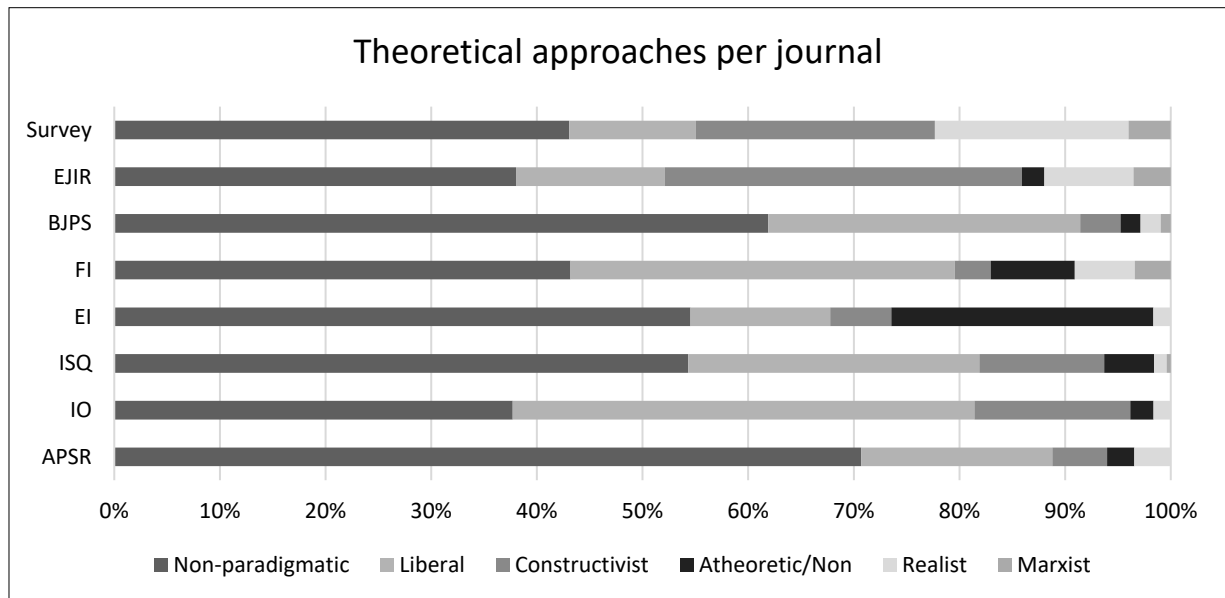
As can be seen in Figure 26, this nearly complete level of evenness is almost exclusively caused by large shares of non-paradigmatic articles, but it is also due to the comparison of the journal data to the survey benchmarks. While some part of the low level of evenness can be explained by the catch-all character of the non-paradigmatic category and thus waved away as an artifact of the coding scheme, there is more to it than that. All distributions stand out as low because the global survey values are actually relatively even. This is especially the case for IO, ISQ, and APSR since the theoretical evenness for the U.S. survey is more even than for the global one. Except for Marxism, the main approaches are studied to an almost equal degree. This equal distribution is not mirrored in the journal data.

The European Journal of International Relations and IO constitute exceptions to the phenomenon of low evenness due to a large share of non-paradigmatic articles. Neither of these journals is imbalanced because of a high share of non-paradigmatic articles but rather due to their high combined share of Liberalist and Constructivist articles. These two approaches can be regarded as linked because their coding rules overlap, since Constructivism is an ontology (not a theory) that frequently co-occurs with approaches that fall under Liberalism. In other words, in combination, these two approaches are most likely cases of institutionalism. The difference between IO and EJIR is that the former has a higher proportion of articles with a Liberalist approach (44%, and 15% Constructivism), while the latter has a higher share of Constructivist articles (34%, and 14% Liberalism). These numbers suggest that IO is more in the hands of rational-choice institutionalists, while EJIR is the main publishing ground for followers of sociological/historical institutionalism. Furthermore, EJIR's profile is supported by a large portion of articles that take Constructivism seriously, which is not the case to the same degree for IO, or for Constructivism or Liberalism.

The two Latin American journals are not much different than the North American and European journals. The only two notable differences are the relatively high share of atheoretic articles, especially in EI, and the below-average share of Constructivist articles. Foro Internacional, in particular, demonstrates a preference for structuralist approaches, as it has the largest (yet still small) shares of articles with Marxist and Realist approaches. Without knowledge of what is "hidden" underneath the non-

paradigmatic category, it is basically impossible to say anything about the more nuanced differences across cases and journals.

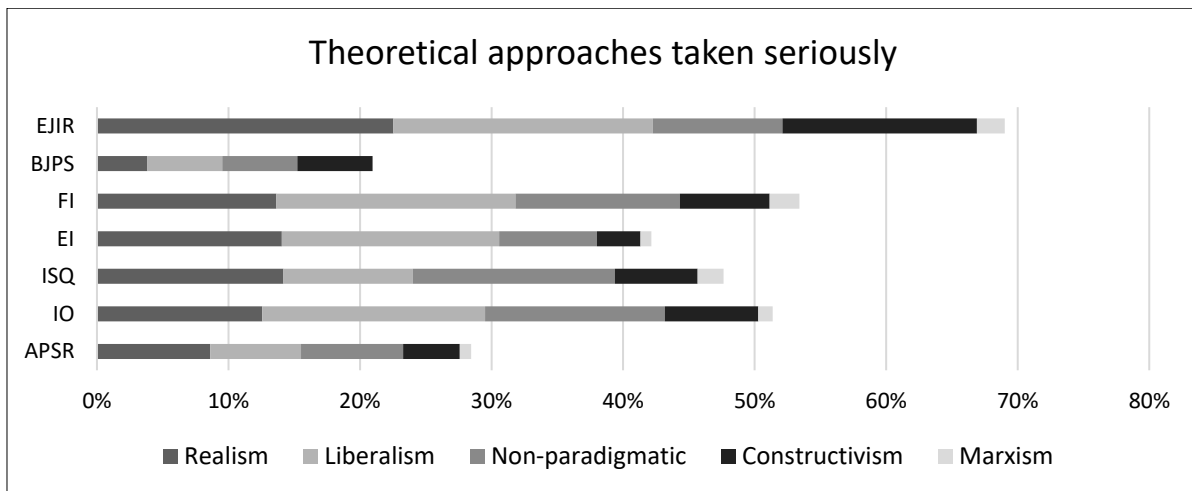
Figure 26 Evenness of theoretical approaches, cross-case comparison per journal



One grouping becomes visible among this data across journals' geographical locations; the two political science journals, APSR and BJPS, have two things in common that distinguish them from full-blown IR journals.⁵⁹ First, these two journals each have a share of non-paradigmatic approaches that lies above 60% (see Figure 26). That is, although these are only the IR articles published in the political science journals, authors who publish outside of the core IR journals potentially use radically different theoretical approaches. Both journals, however, also have a large share of articles that fall under what was coded as Liberalism according to the TRIP codebook and what could range from domestic explanations of IR to various institutionalisms. Second, while the authors of articles in the full-blown IR journals, including EI and FI, frequently take other approaches seriously or use several approaches in one article, those in political science journals do so to a much lesser degree (see Figure 27). This habit of referring to another approach to introduce one's own—or more generally embedding one's own work in an ongoing theoretical debate—seems to be something more typical of articles in IR journals than in IR articles published outside of these journals.

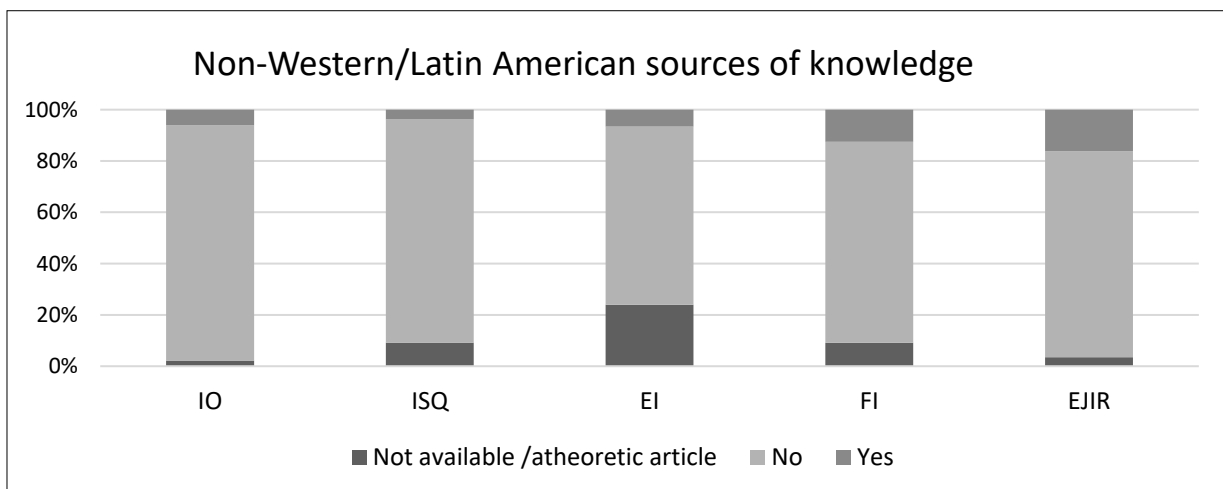
⁵⁹ Foro Internacional technically also speaks more about political science than an IR journal. However, the two trends identified above do not hold for FI.

Figure 27 Evenness of theoretical approaches taken seriously, cross-case comparison per journal



Finally, dissimilarity was defined along two lines for this study: critical versus non-critical approaches and the number of articles with non-Western sources of knowledge or Latin American sources of knowledge. The low values for the only distinctively critical approach specified in the TRIP codebook, Marxism, can be seen in Figure 28. More than half of the journals did not publish a single Marxist article between 2005 and 2014. Foro Internacional and EJIR stand out as the most “Marxist” journals, but even those two published fewer than 10 articles, each in a period of 10 years. More critical approaches might be hidden in the large numbers of non-paradigmatic articles, but given the extremely low levels for Marxism, this is unlikely. It is more likely, however, that there are critical approaches hidden under the label of Constructivism, since many critical approaches in IR are based on a Constructivist ontology, such as feminism and post-structuralism. Again, this indicates that the highest potential for critical approaches lies in EJIR.

Figure 28 Dissimilarity of theoretical approaches (non-Western IR theories), cross-case comparison per journal



The European Journal of International Relations is also the journal with the highest number of articles that build their theoretical approaches upon non-Western sources of knowledge (see Figure 28). That is, it published more of these articles between 2005 and 2014 than the two Latin American journals, EI and FI. Nevertheless, there are some articles in FI and EI with Latin American sources of knowledge (not non-Western in general due to a difference in the coding strategy).

On a more general comparative level, without a detailed cross-examination, my data displays some patterns that suggest a strong correlation between geo-content and geo-authorship. First of all, each of the three cases shows a similar profile for content and authorship diversity. Latin American scholars are the primary authors in Latin America, and Latin America is the primary region under study in EI and FI. European, especially UK-based, authors make up a large group of the authors in EJIR and BJPoIS, and both journals study European regions in great detail. The North American journals are special cases, however, since they are dominated by US-based authors but do not focus on the US or North America as such. Rather, the three North American journals are characterized by studies about Western countries as well as global studies on the international level. While this is a different type of potential correlation between authors and regions under study, it is still a correlation—one between US-based authors and a global outlook.

Second, one of the two Latin American journals, EI, publishes considerably fewer articles on the US than the other, FI. Indeed, EI has a strong regional profile that is visible both in its authorship and regions under study. On the other hand, FI publishes a number of studies on US–Latin America/Mexico relations and has a lot of US-based authors. This suggests that FI is a legitimate outlet for this type of research for authors from both sides of the border. A case against this hypothesis is that many US-based authors publish in BJPoIS but that this journal does not publish a great number of articles on the US. To a lesser degree, due to a lower proportion of U.S. authors, this is also true for EJIR. My expectation for these cases is that US-based scholars with a focus on the EU, in particular, publish their work in European journals. This is possibly because this is a logical place for such research but could also be because this type of work would not be published by IO, ISQ, or ASPR.

Third, a correlation between content and authorship can also be read from the strong presence of Latin American authors and articles on Latin America in the Latin American journals and the almost complete absence of Latin American authors or content in any of the other journals. Earlier studies have demonstrated that authors from the global South are often invited to global North journals to write something about “their region” (e.g., Aydinli and Mathews 2000). Following this logic and findings from my own study, it is logical to expect that more Latin American authors—and other global South

authors—in European and North American/international journals would facilitate the spread of knowledge on Latin America and its relations to the global North considerably.

4.4.3 Comparison of journal analysis to additional survey findings⁶⁰

The particular questions on the 2014 TRIP survey showed that when asked about differences between American and other IR scholarship, the majority of scholars perceive an existing difference.⁶¹ This finding, first of all, suggests that scholars perceive regional/national particularities in IR and do not regard the discipline as homogenous. The findings from the journal analysis largely confirm this. What is highly relevant about the survey findings is that despite a shared perception of difference by American IR scholars, it is Latin American scholars who are most likely to believe that their local scholarship is not as sophisticated as American IR scholarship (see Figure 29). Scholars in European countries as well as other parts of the Western world, on the other hand, tended to strongly disagree with the perspective that American IR is more sophisticated than their scholarship.

This finding is not directly reflected in the journal analysis. In terms of diversity, the two Latin American journals do not fall short of the American or the European journals. Two observations, however, emerge from these survey findings. First, in comparison to the other journals, EI has a high level of atheoretical articles (25%). This would be even more so the case if the atheoretical articles were primarily produced by authors based in Latin America and if more theoretical works were contributed by authors based elsewhere, as hypothesized above. Often, atheoretical work is regarded as superior in IR (cp. van der Ree), which could explain this self-reflection on the part of Latin American scholars. The other Latin American journal, FI, has a level of atheoretical work (8%) that is closer to the average. This difference is also reflected in the percentages of respondents based in Chile and Mexico – the two respective host countries of EI and FI. More Chilean than Mexican respondents agree that there is a difference between Latin American and American IR and that American IR is more sophisticated (see Figure 29). In European journals, atheoretic work is uncommon (2% on average), which correlates with European respondents' perception of European IR in comparison to American IR.

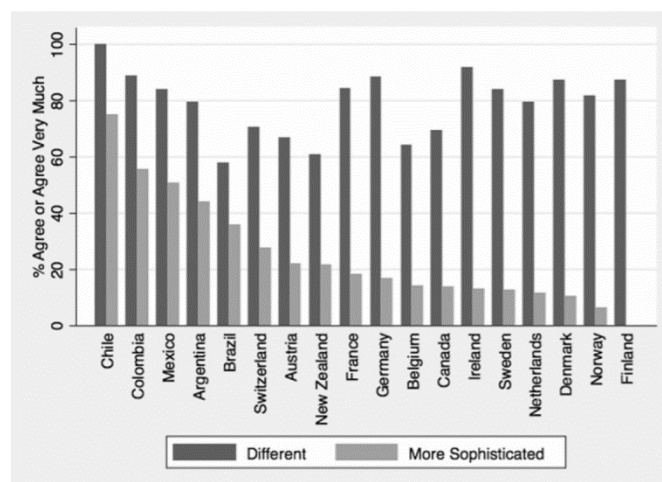
Second, it is within the line of reasoning to say that global level analyses have a higher standing in IR than case studies because the latter are closer to similar area studies (cp. Teti 2007). In line with the survey findings, North American journals – and more generally those with the highest share of US-based

⁶⁰ Much of the following text about the survey outcomes has previously been published in Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016.

⁶¹ The questions discussed in this section were only included in surveys sent to Argentina, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. Scholars in Canada and New Zealand were asked about their national, rather than their regional, IR scholarship.

authors – have an above-average proportion of articles with empirical analyses positioned at the global level, while the Latin American journals have published almost no articles with this type of analysis. Latin American journals, instead, have the highest proportion of articles dealing with the Latin American region and also with issue areas related to the region. This positions them further away from what is regarded as the most sophisticated IR work by some and closer to the realm of area studies. This is further supported by the observation that many US-based scholars who publish in FI and EI are probably Latin Americanists (see above). Thus, while the data presented in the journal analysis does not project a gap in diversity between the Latin American journals and the others, it demonstrates that these journals are less theoretical (especially EI) and focused on Latin American issues (especially FI), which can be regarded – at least by Latin American survey respondents – as less sophisticated IR in the traditional sense of the discipline.

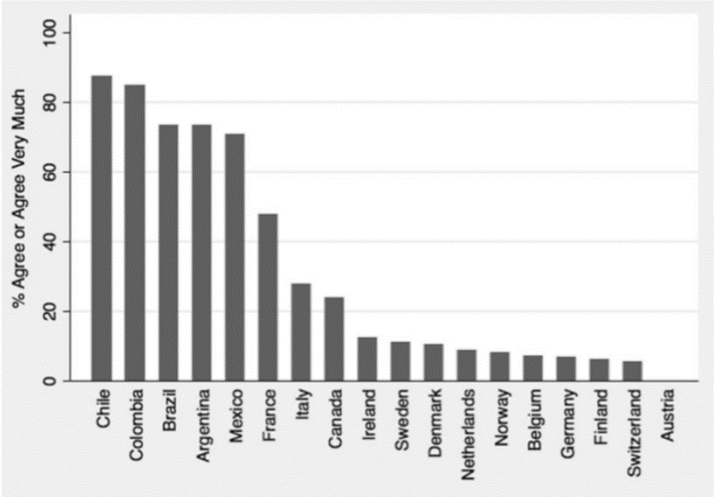
Figure 29 Proportion of scholars that believe American IR is different/more sophisticated than their own regional/national IR (source: Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016, p. 6)



Furthermore, the 2014 TRIP survey asked scholars in the same countries mentioned above about the importance of developing local (i.e., region-specific) IR theories to check whether the trend for diversity through indigenous IR theorizing, as propagated in global IR literature, is rooted in practical driving forces among scholars. The survey illustrated that in Latin America, a vast majority of respondents (75%) agreed or agreed strongly that such efforts are important. In Canada and Europe—with the notable exception of France, where isolation from the global IR community has already been well documented (Cornut and Battistella 2012)—scholars’ overall opinion is that the development of regional theories is not important. This contrast suggests that scholars in Western countries are more satisfied with the status quo of IR theorizing than their colleagues in Latin America, who seem to be striving for change and seeking a break from the dominant discourse. While I did not code the European and North American journals for local theorizing, these findings help put the low level of Latin American IR topics

in EI and FI into perspective. While 75% of Latin American respondents say that it is important to develop regional IR theories, only 7% (EI) and 13% (FI) of articles work with local sources of knowledge in their theorizing, which is less than in EJIR (16%). However, these percentages for FI and EI might be the start of a rising trend.

Figure 30 *Proportion of scholars who believe it is important to develop local IR theories (source: Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2016, p. 13)*



The low level of agreement about the importance of developing regional theories for Europe is easily explained. Most IR theories are rooted in European sources of knowledge. Developing more theories must not seem necessary, or European scholars seem to feel less alienated from the existing theoretical canon. Given the finding that scholars in Latin America also perceive their own work to be less sophisticated than American IR, it can be concluded that local theorizing counts as one way of bridging this perceived gap. Since European scholars do not perceive their work as less sophisticated, they also do not see the need to invest in local IR theorizing. The gap between a desire for regional theorizing, as perceived by the Latin American respondents, and the reality of the two Latin American journals under study are indicators of what scholars want as well as of what is produced and published in the end.

4.4.4 Discussion about patterns of dominance

My comparative study on journal diversity has demonstrated that, on the whole, the journals are relatively non-diverse when compared to the 2014 TRIP survey. This is especially the case when one looks beyond the standard parameter variety. In fact, none of the journals scored a high level of evenness or dissimilarity for any of the 56 relevant measurements. That is, while some of the journals cover a wide range of theories (FI, ISQ, and EJIR), topics (APSR and ISQ), and regions (all journals), all journals suffer from a lack of evenness and dissimilarity. As introduced in Chapter 2, such low levels of evenness and dissimilarity can be signs of dominance because they suggest that a journal covers one

aspect substantially more intensely than others and that those aspects that are most covered are similar to each other in some characteristics. In the following section, I look into these potential cases of dominance in more detail and then discuss them in the light of a number of survey questions on dominance in IR, which were part of the 2014 TRIP survey.

Observations about dominance

Table 36 illustrates the cases with patterns with the highest potential for dominance in the form of low evenness and low dissimilarity. First, the four journals with the highest shares of US-based authors are also those that demonstrate the most signs of dominance for geographical authorship. All four journals’ authors are almost exclusively based in the global North. Since U.S. authors dominate the North American journals, it would actually be more accurate to speak of insularity than of dominance in these cases. However, these journals are not just North American. International Organization and ISQ are marketed and perceived as global journals with a global readership and a strong impact on the discipline. That these journals have so many US-based authors is not just a sign of the insularity of the U.S. academy, but this could be reflective of the discipline at large. This impression is supported by the fact that U.S. authors also form the strongest group of authors in EJIR and the second strongest in Mexican FI. To talk of U.S. dominance in the area of geographical authorship, therefore, is justified.

Table 36 Cases with patterns of low evenness and low dissimilarity

Geographical authorship diversity	Geographical content diversity	Thematic diversity	Theoretical diversity
British Journal of Political Science	–	–	British Journal of Political Science
International Organization			International Organization
International Studies Quarterly			International Studies Quarterly
American Political Science Review			American Political Science Review
			Estudios Internacionales

Second, all journals but FI and EJIR demonstrate levels of both theoretical evenness and theoretical dissimilarity. While the categorization of low evenness for these journals is disputable because of the way the coding scheme is structured, it is backed up by the comparison to the more even distributions displayed by the survey respondents. Still, it would be unreasonable to mark this as a form of dominance or insularity. What is not disputable is that all three North American journals and BJPoIS have low to non-existent shares of non-Western and critical theorizing in their articles. While the remaining approaches still differ from each other, these two types of distinctly dissimilar ways of theorizing in IR

are absent, leaving a noticeable gap. Estudios Internacionales also features relatively few articles with local theorizing but relatively more than the other four journals.

This low level of non-Western IR theorizing means that the field is dominated by Western IR theories. The data clearly demonstrates that this is the case. The problem with calling this a pattern of dominance is that it is less clear whether alternatives – non-Western IR approaches – constitute suitable options for IR. As Acharya and Buzan (2009) argued, there is no lack of non-Western sources of knowledge, but few individuals have used these sources in theorizing so far, so others cannot easily use already existing theories. It could also well be that non-Western sources are incompatible with the basic premises of (IR) theorizing, and thus, to expect non-Western IR theorizing is to expect something that is epistemologically impossible or at least unlikely. To cut it short, my data clearly demonstrates that there is little non-Western IR theorizing to be found in the journals under study – even in the two Latin American journals. To speak of dominance, however, would mean to ignore the general lack of such theorizing in the discipline.

In addition to this clear case of insularity and the dominance of US-based scholars visible through low evenness and low dissimilarity, there are other cases that demonstrate low levels for only one of the two properties (see Table 37). To start with, FI and EI are the only two journals with medium levels of geographical authorship dissimilarity but low levels of evenness for the same area of investigation. As discussed above, this low level of evenness is mainly due to the disproportionately strong presence of authors based in the journals’ respective host countries and some few additional countries. Other countries of affiliation are represented by only one or two articles. This points to a certain degree of insularity but cannot be regarded as dominance, since this distribution is restricted to these two host countries – Latin American authors hardly dominate the discipline. In addition, this is not a case of such strong insularity, as is the case for the North American journals, because of the medium level of dissimilarity, which indicates that there is a mixture of authors from both the global South (even if primarily Latin America) and the global North (in FI, primarily the US). This mixture makes these journals stand out from the others under investigation.

Table 37 Cases with patterns of low evenness or low dissimilarity

	Geographical authorship diversity	Geographical content diversity	Thematic diversity	Theoretical diversity
Low evenness	Foro Internacional	Foro Internacional	International Organization	European Journal of International Relations
	Estudios Internacionales	Estudios Internacionales		Foro Internacional

Low dissimilarity	–	European Journal of International Relations	–	
		International Organization		
		International Studies Quarterly		
		British Journal of Political Science		
		American Political Science Review		

Things look similar for the two Latin American journals when it comes to geographical content evenness. While the attention paid to Latin America matches the number of Latin American survey respondents that study the region, it is much higher than the global survey average. The strong focus on the host regions is much stronger than the focus of the North American or the European journals on their respective local regions. Since this low level of evenness is not combined with a low level of dissimilarity, however, I cannot speak of dominance in this case because there is still some degree of diversity to be found in the journals that is absent from the others. Similar to geographical authorship diversity, even if the focus lies on Latin America, there is at least a mix of attention paid to both world regions, which is missing from the other journals. Still, the Latin American journals demonstrate clear signs of insularity in that they look inward toward their own host region in a way that none of the other journals does.

Second, the three North American and two European journals are closest to displaying a tendency for dominance in the area of geographical content diversity due to their low levels of dissimilarity. The journals BJPoLS and EJIR both have clear focuses on the global North, including Russia and Eastern Europe, while they pay little attention to Latin American, Asia, Africa, and the Middle East. The three North American journals address Western Europe and North America a great deal as well, but they do not deal with Russia/Eastern Europe as much as the European journals do. They are similar to EJIR and BJPoLS in that they do deal with global South regions but to a much smaller degree than they deal with the global North. What distinguishes them from the European journals is their above-average focus on the global category. However, since this is not uncommon for IR journals, I conclude that these types of articles, even in a strong concentration, do not qualify as cases of dominance. These journals' strong overall focus on the global North is a case of dominance, especially when one takes into account that the survey respondents demonstrated a much more even distribution of their regional focus and a much higher interest in regions such as East Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East.

International Organization is the only one of the seven journals under study that displays any signs of dominance in the context of thematic diversity. In comparison to the other North American journals and

the benchmark values, IO has a relatively strong focus on IPE. However, given the journal’s explicit focus on that topic and the still broadly defined range of sub-topics within IPE, this is not a case of dominance. Similar reasoning applies to EJIR in terms of theoretical dominance. This journal has a strong focus on Constructivist theorizing as well as a strong focus on Liberalism as well as sociological institutionalism. Indeed, with more than a third of its articles falling under this ontological category, EJIR has a stronger focus on any specific type of theorizing (i.e., other than non-paradigmatic) than any of the other journals have on any of the types. Still, this focus constitutes a theoretical specialization rather than a case of dominance. Foro Internacional has a strong focus on non-paradigmatic and Liberalist approaches but also lacks a larger pattern that would constitute this as a case of dominance. While there are signs of specialization for IO in terms of themes and specialization for EJIR in terms of theories, FI demonstrates an uneven pattern that does not seem to point in any specific direction.

Table 38 Overview of patterns of dominance

	Geographical authorship	Geographical content	Thematic	Theoretical
North American journals	insularity	insular focus on Western regions of study	specialization of IO on IPE	
Latin American journals	strong presence of Latin American authors	strong focus on Latin America		
European journals	dominance of US-based authors in BJPoIS	insular focus on Western regions of study		specialization of EJIR on Constructivism (sociology institutionalism)
Overall	strong presence of scholars based in Western countries	strong focus on Western regions		lack of non-Western IR theorizing

To summarize, there are two cases of dominance (see Table 38). First, the strong presence of US-based authors in IO, ISQ, APSR, and BJPoIS reflects the dominance of a specific IR community in and beyond their host country. With the possible exception of APSR, it is unreasonable and non-proportional that so many authors are based in the US. This dominance is supported by the fact that the US constitutes the largest national group of authors in EJIR and the second largest in FI as well. Second, the West/the global North is the dominant aggregated region under study. It dominates all five Western journals and is clearly present in the Latin American journals as well. The Latin American journals constitute a unique case for both geographic authorship and content diversity. While authors based in Latin America form the largest group of authors by far, therefore resulting in a clear degree of insularity, the journals are

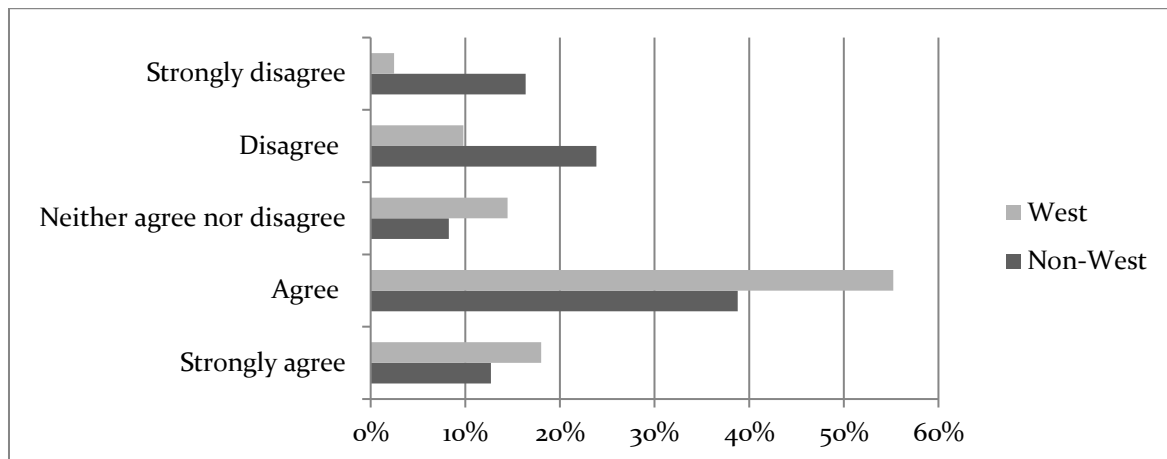
also hubs for authors based in the global North and global South (even if “only” Latin America) to come together, unlike other journals. The same applies to their levels of geographical content diversity. While it is indisputable that the two journals focus disproportionately on their home region and come across more as area studies than IR journals, they also study the global North intensely, while the opposite cannot be said of the European and North American journals. The medium level of dissimilarity distinguishes the two Latin American journals from the other journals, which means that despite their strong focus on Latin America and their strongly Latin American authorship, they are less insular than the Western journals, which have strong US-based authorship and an insular focus on Western regions. There are no patterns of dominance visible on either the thematic or the theoretical levels.

Comparison of findings on dominance with respective survey questions

Respondents to the TRIP survey were asked about their perceptions of dominance. The survey demonstrated that the majority of respondents across all regions agreed or strongly agreed (67%) with the statement that “IR is a Western/American dominated discipline” (see Figure 31). Remarkably, the agreement in the West with this statement was considerably higher (73%) than among respondents in non-Western regions (52%). In Spanish-speaking Latin America, however, agreement was also 70%, thus more in line with the European and North American respondents.⁶² Furthermore, while more scholars in (Western) Europe and North America perceive the discipline as being dominated, a smaller share of them want to counter this dominance than the portion of those based in Latin American and Asia. In fact, only about 60% of scholars based at Western universities agree that it is important to counter the dominance in IR, whereas 72% of their colleagues at non-Western institutions agree. Latin America falls exactly in that percentage of 72%. That is, those scholars who potentially benefit most from a power imbalance through dominance are the ones who are most resistant to change.

⁶² Fifty-eight percent on average when one takes Brazil into account, which has an individual level of 12%.

Figure 31 Scholars' perception of dominance in the discipline, by West and non-West



Furthermore, a built-in survey experiment demonstrated that respondents across all countries were 15% more likely to agree or strongly agree that the discipline is “Western dominated” compared to “American dominated.” Furthermore, when split into Western and non-Western response groups, the treatment effect remains, but the effect is much larger for respondents located in the West than for those located outside the West. Scholars located in the West were 18% more likely to believe that there is Western dominance compared to American dominance, while respondents located at non-Western institutions were 10% more likely to believe this.

These survey findings correspond with two points of observation from the journal analysis in divergent ways. First, the only clear pattern of dominance that came out of the journal analysis was that US-based authors publish everywhere and are the largest or second largest group of authors in all journals under study with the notable exception of Chilean EI. These authors dominate all three North American journals and the British journal. Thus, the perception of the majority of respondents fits in this regard. What is more, when looking at Western rather than only US-based authors, it is clear that Western authors indeed are everywhere – even in EI. European and US-based authors together form the largest group by far, and the dissimilarity levels of all but the two Latin American journals are low because of this relative homogeneity. Of course, there are differences between the Canadian, the Norwegian, the U.S., and the French IR communities, but it is undeniable that they dominate the journals quantitatively. This is visible in the Latin American journals, which feature quite a large number of Western authors, while Latin American authors are almost completely absent from the North American and European journals.

Second, this perceived domination and the reluctance/willingness to counter also relates to theoretical diversity as studied in this dissertation. On the one hand, it is clear that theories rooted in Western sources of knowledge make up the vast majority of theories applied in all journals – although it is less

clear in the case of all the non-paradigmatic articles that form the majority of all seven journals. The core IR theories are present in all journals, even the two Latin American journals. This indicates another way of understanding dominance. On the other hand, non-Western IR theorizing can be understood as one possible measure for countering Western dominance. It is even more surprising that the portion of non-Western theorizing is much smaller than the portion of respondents who agree that it is important to counter dominance in IR. However, it is easier to respond to this in a survey than to actually do something in the context of one’s own research, and respondents might regard countering dominance to be important but have other means in mind than working with non-Western IR theories. In any case, the percentage of non-Western IR theorizing is lowest in the four journals with the highest share of US-based authors and is highest in European and Latin American (FI more than EI) journals. This fits the general perception of the importance of countering dominance – although on a much more scaled-down level (Table 39).

Table 39 *Scholars’ support for countering “American” and “Western” domination of IR (source: Wemheuer-Vogelaar et al. 2018, p. 7)*

		“American dominated” (%)	“Western dominated” (%)
All respondents	Yes	63.68	61.86
	No	25.93	24.42
	Do not know	10.39	13.72
Non-US Western respondents	Yes	67.22	62.39
	No	22.41	23.80
	Do not know	10.37	13.80
US respondents	Yes	53.16	55.39
	No	33.76	28.69
	Do not know	13.08	15.92

The remaining two areas of diversity studied in this thesis – thematic and geographic content diversity – also confirm the perception of American/Western dominance, although in a slightly different way than the other two areas. For thematic diversity, there are no patterns of dominance, only a trend that Latin American journals tend to focus on the region. Nothing further can be read from this data. The data on geographic content diversity, on the other hand, offers a clearer picture: all North American and European journals focus on the global North/West and study the global South regions to a much lesser degree than the survey benchmarks – or the role these regions play in world politics – would suggest. Furthermore, while studies on Latin America are underrepresented among the five North American and European journals, FI and EI still study the West intensely. In FI, studies on Latin America–US relations are omnipresent, which indicates that the region is also often interpreted based on the relationship it has to the West. That is, while the data is ambiguous about this point, there is a point to be made that Western/American dominance in IR can also be understood as dominance of the West providing the cases under study in IR journals – in the West and beyond.

All in all, the journal data demonstrates that there are some parallels but that Western/American dominance is perceived more strongly than it is visible in the journal data – at least in the seven journals under study.

4.4.5 Conclusions of the comparative case study

This chapter presented the findings of an exploratory study on patterns of diversity and dominance in IR journal publications. I applied a threefold conceptualization of diversity that covers the three properties of variety, evenness, and dissimilarity to create a nuanced picture of the authorship and content of the seven IR journals based in North America (IO, ISQ, ASPR), Latin America (EI, FI), and Europe (EJIR, BJPoIS). On the whole, it can be concluded that the journals are least diverse regarding regions under study. While all journals have a high level of variety (they cover a lot of regions), they are in the end all characterized by inward-looking studies on Europe and North America (IO, ISQ, ASPR, BJPoIS, and EJIR) or Latin America (EI and FI). The American journals and BJPoIS—the journals with the most US-based authors—demonstrate an additional particularity: they publish a significantly higher share of articles with a purely global scope than EJIR and especially more than EI and FI. These articles do not go in depth on any specific region or country, but they aim to capture the international level in its entirety. This type of explanation of the world at large, therefore, seems to be typical of US-based authors.

These types of studies with a global perspective, on the other hand, are almost completely absent from the Latin American journals. In these journals, studies on Latin America are most characteristic of the journals' content in terms of geographic coverage. This is especially strong in the case of EI, which has the most regionally tailored profile of any of the journals in terms of both authorship and content. *Foro Internacional*, on the other hand, is the journal with the largest relative share of articles that discuss global South and global North regions together, which is probably because of the strong focus on Mexico-US relations. To speak of a dominance of any of these regional foci, including on global studies, would mean to overlook the journals' and the discipline's context.

While all journals do publish articles on the global South countries and regions, either as independent actors or in combination with global North regions or countries, the focus of all North American and European journals is on the global North. This finding is a reason to worry, since many of the most acute problems in international relations of today concern global South regions like the Middle East, North Africa, and East Asia. A neglect of these regions in core IR journals, especially IO, ISQ, APSR, and EJIR, is a sign that the discipline has lost touch with current world events. The strong focus on the global North/West in empirical studies, together with a strong preference for theories with roots in Western sources of knowledge (i.e., all major IR theories), is a sign of what the vast majority of respondents of

the 2014 TRIP survey may perceive as dominance. In addition, the fact that US-based authors make up the largest or second largest group of authors in every journal (except for EI) is a manifest expression of geographical dominance that goes beyond perception.

All properties considered, EJIR is overall the most diverse journal, despite its low level of geographical content dissimilarity and theoretical evenness. The first parameter indicates that the journal has a strong focus on the global North – as do all other global North journals. However, the focus of the Latin American journals on a particular region is much stronger than that of EJIR on Europe. The low theoretical evenness is due to EJIR's focus on Constructivism, which in turn may mean a great deal of hidden diversity, since this is not an approach but an ontology. *International Studies Quarterly* is the most diverse North American journal, while IO and BJPoS together are at the bottom of the overall ranking. All North American journals as well as BJPoS are dominated by US-based authors and demonstrate low theoretical dissimilarity and evenness. The latter is caused by a neglect of non-Western sources of knowledge and a generally low representation of Realism and Marxism. Based on the focus on global IR as a red wire in this dissertation, the two Latin American journals actually display a relatively high level of overall diversity because they have a mix of studies on Latin America and the West as well as a mix of authors from Latin America, Europe, and North America. Nevertheless, the level of diversity of these journals is dampened when one takes into account that they focus a great deal on their own region and neglect other global South regions as well as non-Western sources of knowledge from places other than Latin America. Nevertheless, the most prestigious and influential of all journals in this dataset, IO, is among the least diverse, while EI and FI—two “periphery journals”— demonstrate a higher level.

On a broader level, the findings on geographical authorship diversity demonstrated that the categorization of journals as North American, Latin American, and European needs to be questioned. While the decision to categorize journals based on their location of editorship was a logical and necessary first step to facilitate this study, it is just as logical and necessary to rethink them now. Several aspects stand out here. First, the two journals with the strongest *regional* authorship profiles, Chilean EI and EJIR, displayed some interesting trends. *Estudios Internacionales* publishes authors primarily from South America but also from many other regions in both the global North and the global South. However, EJIR publishes many articles by US- and UK-based authors but is also the one journal that has published authors based in a variety of continental European communities. Based on geographical authorship diversity alone, therefore, it makes more sense to qualify both journals as transregional.

Second, Mexican FI can also be regarded as a transregional hub but with a clear focus. Based on its journal profile and the findings from this study, FI is more of a national journal than a regional one. It

has a strong focus on Mexico and publishes a large share of Mexican authors. What makes this journal so interesting, though, is that it also publishes so many US-based authors in spite of its leading publication language being Spanish. United States–based scholars are, on the other hand, almost completely absent from EI. Foro Internacional, therefore, plays a unique role as a transregional hub for US–Latin American/Mexican scholarship. This role is confirmed by the journal’s geographical content diversity, which demonstrates a clear profile for studies on the global North and/or the global South, compared to other journals that focus more on one or the other and generally more on the former (with the exception of EI).

Third, BJPoS is characterized by strong UK-US authorship—serving as an indication of the existence of an (at least partially) integrated community of US- and UK-based authors. In fact, there are by far more US authors published in BJPoS than there are UK-based authors and authors based in any other European country. Not unlike EJIR, it serves as a transregional hub. However, BJPoS is tilted toward a purely transatlantic relationship balanced by continental European authorship. While the otherwise US-dominated journals IO, ISQ, and APSR have a *relatively* large share of UK-based authorship (the relative share of UK authors in IO, ISQ, and APSR is not much lower than in BJPoS), it would be incorrect to call them transatlantic as well because fewer non-UK European authors are published in these journals than in BJPoS, and the presence of US-based authors is much stronger. It does make sense, however, to regard the U.S. and the UK communities as connected by strong transatlantic academic trade. However, this trade seems to be biased in favor of US-based scholars.

Fourth, regardless of this relationship, the North American journals are actually just U.S. journals. I decided against categorizing them as such from the beginning because IO was published in Canada for several years between 2005 and 2014. However, the analysis of geographic diversity displayed more than clearly that these journals are the publishing ground for US-based scholars. Only a few other scholars from the UK and even fewer from large European communities, like Germany, are published in these journals. What the “North American” journals actually say of such strong U.S. insularity is that my findings confirm already US-centered impressions of them uttered elsewhere (e.g., Gläser and Aman 2017). This is problematic, especially for IO and ISQ, two journals that do not have an explicitly North American authorship. It seems that the journals’ high editorial standards can, in practice, only be met by scholars based at U.S. institutions. What is more, while ISQ has a much higher variety of authorship affiliations than IO and APSR, meaning that authors from many different countries contribute to ISQ, the findings on evenness demonstrated that ISA’s flagship journal still primarily publishes articles by authors based in one country— and that country is the US. Canadian scholars are present in all three

journals, but to such a small degree in all three of them, including in Canadian-edited IO, that it makes no sense to categorize these journals as anything but US-based.

What is most interesting about these clusters is that FI does not actively market itself as a transregional hub and BJPS does not market itself as a transatlantic hub, although the profiles are so clear. This may be because both journals do not intend to attract so many US-based authors. The same could be true for the clearly American journals IO and ISQ. The reason that these journals attract so many US-based authors and leave so little room for others needs to be answered with more qualitative means than those applied in this dissertation. Estudios Internacionales and EJIR, on the other hand, do target the authorship market, which they eventually serve. According to its founding editorials and its current mission statement, EJIR set out to be a journal based in Europe for Europeans about European topics, but always with an outlook toward global authorship and impact. Estudios Internacionales positions itself as a regional research outlet—a role that it clearly fills. Nevertheless, it is diverse because it also attracts scholars from many dissimilar places, resulting in a South American journal with strong external influences.

To conclude, there are few patterns of dominance to be found in the seven journals under study and indeed fewer with regard to Western/American dominance than the responses to the 2014 TRIP survey suggested. All in all, the seven journals are relatively diverse when one grants them a degree of specialization in their own regions and some topics that are closer to regional concerns. It is relevant for the discipline, however, to realize that the journals held in the highest regard are those that are clearly dominated by US-based authors, and these journals do not demonstrate more diversity with regard to other properties as a result.

5. Under the microscope: The German IR community⁶³

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter 4, I presented insights about the diversity of IR journals on a broad regional level. The second empirical study in this dissertation adds to this study by zooming in on one of the largest IR communities in Western Europe to answer the following questions: Is there a typically German style of IR, and if so, what does it look like? How closely and how much is it linked to the global discipline? The case study reports the main results from the 2014 TRIP survey for the respondents based in Germany and brings them together with data from a content analysis of the IR caucus of the German Political Science Foundation's (DVPW) flagship IR journal ZIB. The main argument is that IR in Germany is rooted in a relatively homogenous community with a strong preference for theoretical pluralism and empirical diversity. In a way, such pluralism and diversity have achieved hegemonic status in Germany over those who favor paradigm-driven research. At the same time, German IR scholars overwhelmingly share a methodological orientation toward qualitative case studies. Strangely enough, they perceive methodology as a major divide in IR, even though the German IR community seems to be rather monolithic in this regard. The findings from the ZIB analysis support these impressions. Moreover, the survey results point toward strong links between German IR and the American-dominated global community. Overall, our findings suggest that the German IR community is rather comfortable in its position as a strong national research community with firm connections to the global and American-dominated discipline.

5.2 Methodology

The case study on German IR is based on two data sources: the 2014 TRIP survey, which I introduced in Chapter 3, and a content analysis of Germany's flagship publication on IR, ZIB. As mentioned in Chapter 4, these two sources of data complement each other since the survey data covers the perceptions of a wide range of scholars, while the journal data provides an impression of the research actually published, which is naturally produced by a much smaller subset of the community under study. This chapter brings these two data types together in a way that goes beyond what I presented in Chapter 4 and serves as

⁶³ This chapter on German IR relies heavily on a previously published article titled "International Relations Scholars in Germany: Young, Internationalized, and Non-Paradigmatic" that I co-authored with Thomas Risse and that was published in *German Politics* in 2016. This article, in its published version, contained only the findings from the TRIP survey. The data from the content analysis of ZIB was only collected in the fall of 2017. The language experiment was also not part of the original publication although the data was available by the time we wrote the article.

an example of what more studies could look like once more local journals are content analyzed. In this chapter, the two data sources serve as a triangulation of the measurement instead of a main source and benchmark. That is, both serve equally to shed light on the German community but from different angles. Some of the measurements were thereby only possible through the survey and others were only possible through the content analysis. In the following section, I present both data sources before presenting the findings.

5.2.1 The 2014 TRIP survey

The chapter builds upon the fourth iteration of the TRIP faculty survey launched in 2014. While the survey started in the US, it covered 32 countries and 10 different languages by 2014, including Germany for this first time. Following standard TRIP rules, the survey was sent to all scholars employed at German universities (including universities of applied sciences, *Fachhochschulen*) who either research and/or teach IR. The population also included a small number of individuals who are employed by political think tanks but teach at universities. All scholars without any teaching responsibilities in the past two years had to have a doctorate in order to be included in the sample, while instructors of IR courses were included regardless of their academic rank. As a result, we sent the survey to a relatively high number of young (post-)doctoral researchers (*wissenschaftliche Mitarbeiter*innen*), who make up 63% of the survey population. The survey was sent out by the main TRIP team in the US together with an email explaining the survey's structure and purpose written by us and endorsed by the IR section of the German Political Science Association.

Altogether, the questionnaire was sent to 518 individuals in Germany, it received responses from 234 scholars for a response rate of 45%. This figure is above the average global response rate of 42%. All things considered, the response group is a fairly balanced representation of the German IR population. In terms of rank, tenured professors are slightly overrepresented, making up 25% of the population but 27% of our respondents. Young doctoral and post-doctoral researchers account for 63% of the population and 61% of the respondents. When it comes to gender, we can report perfect representation of the sample composition: 39% of the population and of the respondents are female.

One possible bias with regard to institutions emerged. Larger research universities with an above-average group of IR scholars are slightly overrepresented in the sample. For example, the response rates from Freie Universität Berlin,⁶⁴ University of Frankfurt, Peace Research Institute Frankfurt, University of Konstanz, and Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich are all at or above 50%. Each of these universities or institutes employs more than 20 IR scholars each. Thus, what I described in the chapter as

⁶⁴ Freie Universität is Thomas Risse's and my home institution.

mainstream IR in Germany could partially result from this bias toward larger research universities and institutions.

The study covers a large number of questions from the 2014 TRIP survey in order to create as complete of a picture as possible. The chapter focuses on research practices and the perception of the discipline, leaving out all questions related to teaching practices and the perception of international policies. The questions used for this chapter can be divided into five blocs, which also serve as the basic structure for this chapter:⁶⁵

- 1. Demographics**

Questions about respondents' age, gender, status/rank, and country of origin

- 2. Language**

Questions about respondents' language skills and preferences when conducting research

- 3. Research practices**

Questions about respondents' main research areas within IR, their preferred methods, theoretical approaches, ontology, and epistemology

- 4. Rankings**

Questions about respondents' perception of the most influential scholars in the field, local and international journals, colleges, and PhD programs

- 5. Community identities**

Questions about respondents' perceptions of community divisions, their own community allegiances, and their perception of the boundaries of the German IR community

In addition, the chapter covers a unique language experiment that was built into the survey. Of the 32 participating countries, only Germany received an online presentation of the questionnaire that was designed in a way that allowed respondents to choose between answering the question in English or German.⁶⁶ Since the online presentation was randomly displayed in German or English, this feature allowed us to trace which of the respondents actively changed their language and which did not.⁶⁷ As a consequence, this experiment serves as a proxy measurement of internationality (i.e., those who prefer to think about their profession in English in contrast to those who prefer German). This experiment

⁶⁵ The complete original questions with all response options can be found on pages 243ff. in the appendix.

⁶⁶ All other country questionnaires were either in English by default, even if English is not the country's official language (e.g., Scandinavia), or were translated into the local language without the option to switch to English.

⁶⁷ I discussed my idea for this language experiment with Prof. Daniel Maliniak, one of the TRIP principal investigators, whom I thank for valuable input on this matter.

delivered relevant insights into the different response behaviors of scholars who can be regarded as more international compared to those who can be regarded as less so.

5.2.2. Content analysis of ZIB

The dataset for the content analysis of ZIB contains 68 articles published between 2011 in 2015. The majority of those articles were published as forum (31) or symposium (11) articles. Only 26 articles are part of the journal's main body. This does not, however, mean that there are no full-fledged research articles published in the forums. The forums are usually a mix of research articles on a specific topic, reflections on the discipline, or a chain of reactions and counter-reactions to previously published research articles. The two symposiums that were published within the period of investigation are the 2014 birthday issue of ZIB, celebrating its 20-year anniversary, and a 2012 special issue on "Forschungsperspektiven in der Friedens- und Konfliktforschung," meaning peace and conflict studies.

The codebook for the content analysis of ZIB is different than the one for the analysis in Chapter 4. Between the data collection for the seven journals presented there and the data collection for this chapter, the codebook was adapted to a broader range of theoretical approaches and a more detailed measurement of methodology, among other things. The chapter, therefore, is also a proof of concept for this renewed codebook. As a start, I decided to restrict the selection of variables for this chapter to theoretical approaches, issue areas, and methodology to fit the questions selected from the TRIP survey.⁶⁸ In more detail, the analysis covers the following aspects:⁶⁹

- **Theoretical approach(es) addressed:** The theoretical approach or approaches the author deals with substantially and in a positive manner
- **Main theoretical approach(es):** Indicates an article's theoretical focus (a subset of theoretical approach[es] addressed)
- **Theoretical approaches synthesized:** Indicates whether and which two or more of the main approaches are combined by the author; the result can be a new approach or an explanation based on the main assumptions or hypotheses drawn from at least two distinct approaches

⁶⁸ The renewed codebook does not include a question on epistemology, which is why there cannot be a comparison for this aspect between survey and journal data.

⁶⁹ All variables from the Global Pathways codebook included in this dissertation can be found on pages 221ff. in the appendix.

- **Theoretical approach(es) rejected:** Captures theoretical approaches that are discussed substantially by the author of an article but are rejected by him/her for theoretical or ontological reasons (must be an explicit rejection)
- **Issue area:** Reflects the primary issue area to which the article contributes; in general, an article's dependent variable determines the issue area⁷⁰
- **Nature of argument:** Describes the fundamental structure of the argument the authors want to make, i.e., the kind of new knowledge they are offering in the article and the foundations for this new knowledge
- **Empirical strategy:** Describes the approach to collecting and analyzing empirical data to support the argument made by the article; selection correlates with the article's nature of argument
- **Policy prescription:** Captures whether the author makes an explicit policy recommendation in the article

All articles were coded by at least one intensely trained research assistant (25% of them by two coders). I arbitrated all articles after the one/two coding rounds were completed by the research assistants.

All findings in this chapter are discussed on the level of descriptive statistics and thus are exploratory in character.

5.3. Outcomes

5.3.1 Demographics

Female junior scholars, male professors

The German IR community has on average both more females and younger individuals than the global average suggests (see Figures 32 and 33).⁷¹ The high proportion of junior scholars is due to the prevalence of non-tenured (post-)doctoral positions with fixed-term contracts in German academia (so-called *wissenschaftliche Mitarbeiter*innen*). In addition, most assistant professorships (W1 or "junior professorships"), which have only been introduced into German universities over the past decade or so,

⁷⁰ This variable is coded the same way issues are according to the TRIP/Global Pathways codebook.

⁷¹ The gender proportion is representative. The sample of all IR scholars in Germany was made up of 38.61% women (39.92% of respondents) and 61.39% men (57.26% of the respondents).

are also non-tenured. In contrast, almost all associate (W2) and full (W3) professors are tenured and have one or more (post-)doctoral positions attached to their professorships.

Figure 32 Gender of German IR community in comparison to global average (in percentage; N = 234)

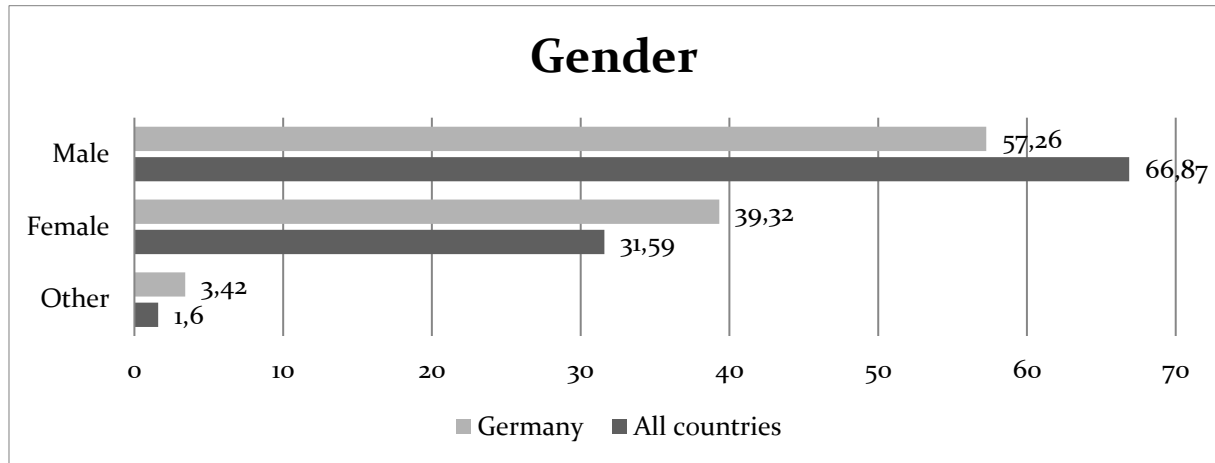
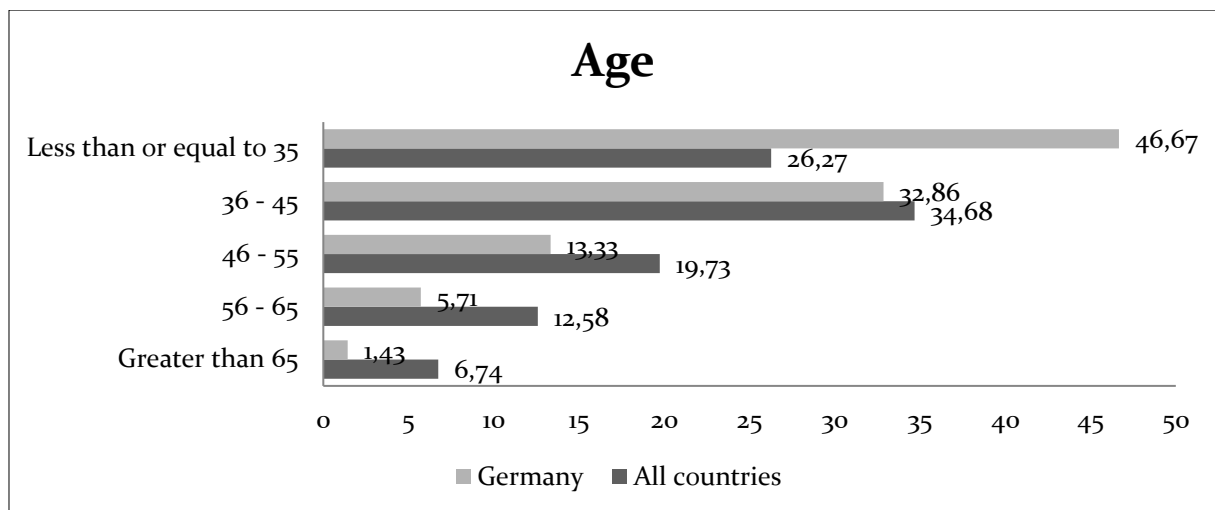
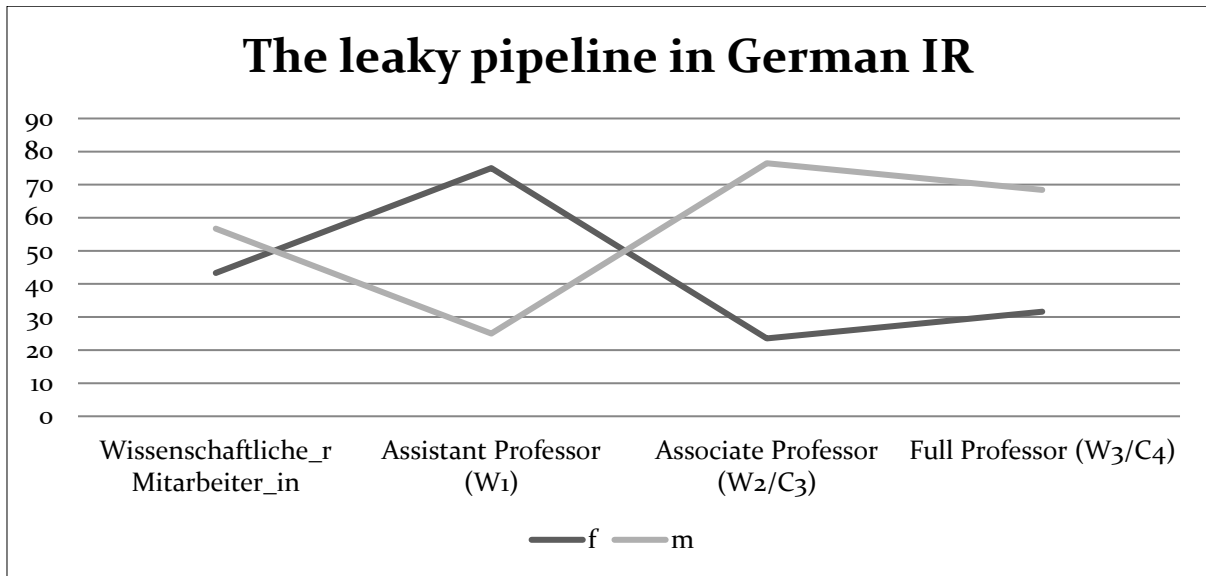


Figure 33 Age of German IR community in comparison to global average (in percentage; N = 234)



The gender balance in German IR appears to be a function of age and junior status (see Figure 34). Forty-four percent of (post-)doctoral researchers and (non-tenured) assistant professors are female, but 71 percent of tenured associate and full professors are male. International relations in Germany is, therefore, suffering from the “leaky pipeline” syndrome, i.e., IR is losing women somewhere between late graduate training and gaining tenure. This phenomenon is typically associated with STEM disciplines (European Commission 2016), but according to the TRIP survey, it seems to be just as pressing of an issue in IR. By comparing the gender balance among German IR scholars with other countries’ scholars represented in the survey (such as the US, the UK, or Scandinavia), one can see that it is especially pronounced at the (tenured) associate professor level. With regards to the full professor level, however, the situation in the US or Scandinavia is equally unbalanced.

Figure 34 Academic positions of female and male members of the German IR community (in percentage; N = 187)



Moreover, while disproportionately young and female, the German IR community is rather German. About 86% of the respondents report Germany as their country of origin. This compares to 70% of all TRIP survey respondents teaching and/or researching in their country of origin. Despite the large Turkish minority in Germany, there was not a single respondent in the survey of Turkish background.⁷² With regard to the German academic diaspora, Austria and Switzerland are the leading destinations for German scholars. Around one-third of all Austrian and Swiss survey respondents are from Germany (as well as 12% of the respondents in the Dutch TRIP survey and 8% in the UK TRIP survey; see Table App 46).

5.3.2 Language Matters

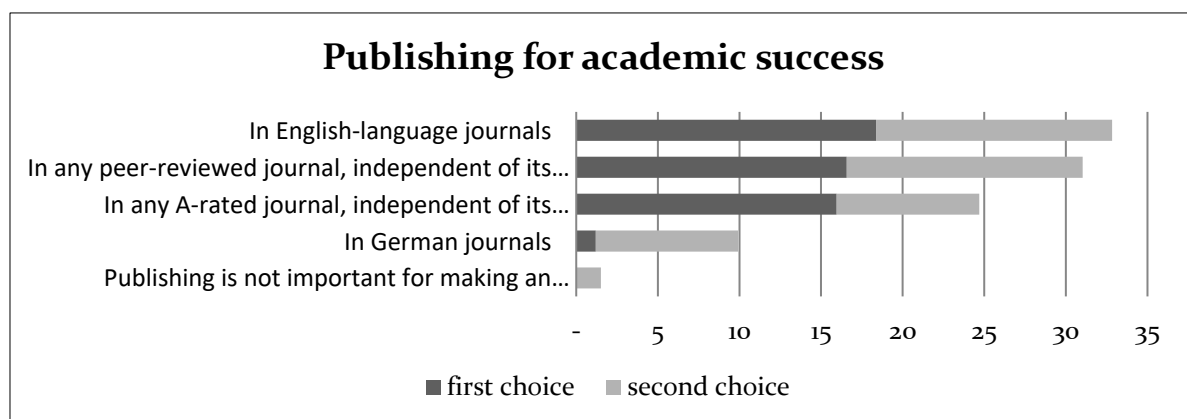
German IR: A bilingual community

Germany hosts one of the largest non-native English-language IR communities in the world. However, IR research in Germany has become an English-language affair. Graduate schools offer curricula in English, most doctoral theses are written in English, master's programs are offered fully or partially in English, and of course, Anglo-American journals are widely considered required reading. This has led to serious concerns about the role of German as a language of IR in Germany (Albert and Zürn 2013; Zürn 1994).

⁷² There is no data available on how many scholars in Germany in general have a Turkish background. However, according to a recent report published by the Federal Statistical Office, there is a small gap between people with and without migration history concerning their highest educational degree. As an example, 1.4% of all men and 0.6% of all women without a migration background in Germany have earned a doctoral degree compared to 0.9% and 0.5% of the respective genders with migration backgrounds. See Statistisches Bundesamt, „Bevölkerung und Erwerbstätigkeit: Bevölkerung mit Migrationshintergrund, Ergebnisse des Mikrozensus. Fachserie 1 Reihe 2.2,“ (Wiesbaden: Statistisches Bundesamt, 2015).

The majority of respondents regard the English language as well as peer-reviewed (plus A-rated) journals as the most important research outlets for academic success in Germany (see Figure 35). In contrast, only 1.2% (first choice) of respondents believe that it is most important to publish in German journals in order to pursue an academic career in Germany. These numbers reflect a professionalization of the German IR community. The younger generation in particular seems to have internalized that publishing in English and/or in peer-reviewed journals is key for academic success.

Figure 35 Publishing venues and their importance for making an academic career in Germany (in percentage; N = 173/159)



The survey outcomes also show that if publishing in English is essential for building an academic career in Germany, German IR scholars are well equipped for it. The German IR community is bilingual. *All* respondents to the survey claimed to be able to conduct research in either one (46%), two (39%), or even three (15%) languages *other* than German. This compares to a global average of almost 16% of respondents who report being able to do research *only* in their native language (30% of surveyed U.S. scholars). English is the language of choice. Almost two-thirds of German respondents stated that they have written more than 50% of their work over the past three years in English. In comparison, only one-fourth of them report writing more than half of their work in German. Almost everybody (92%) regularly relies on non-German-language sources to conduct research. This is significantly higher than the global average of 52% (European average: 73%). Scholars cite the desire to reach a larger audience and the recognition of English as the discipline’s lingua franca when asked to explain their preference for publishing in English.

A set of questions on citation habits also yields interesting results in this context. One quarter of the respondents claim to regularly cite German sources in their English-language publications, while 70% only do so occasionally. The reason for the latter reflects concerns that readers and reviewers without knowledge of their language might not be able to trace back the reference if it is in languages other than English (62%) and that peer reviewers *assign* lower academic credibility to non-English sources (almost one quarter), rather than a perceived inferiority complex.

In summary, publishing in non-German journals is regarded as essential for academic success in Germany, and most German scholars regularly publish their work in English. Consequently, one can conclude that the German IR community is fully bilingual and internationalized when it comes to language use.

5.3.3 Research Practices

Fields of study: International institutions in the spotlight

The TRIP survey asked all respondents to characterize their work in two ways: 1) their primary sub-field within politics/political science and 2) their area of specialization within IR. Figure 36 presents the German results, while Figure 37 depicts some comparisons with the global average and the US.

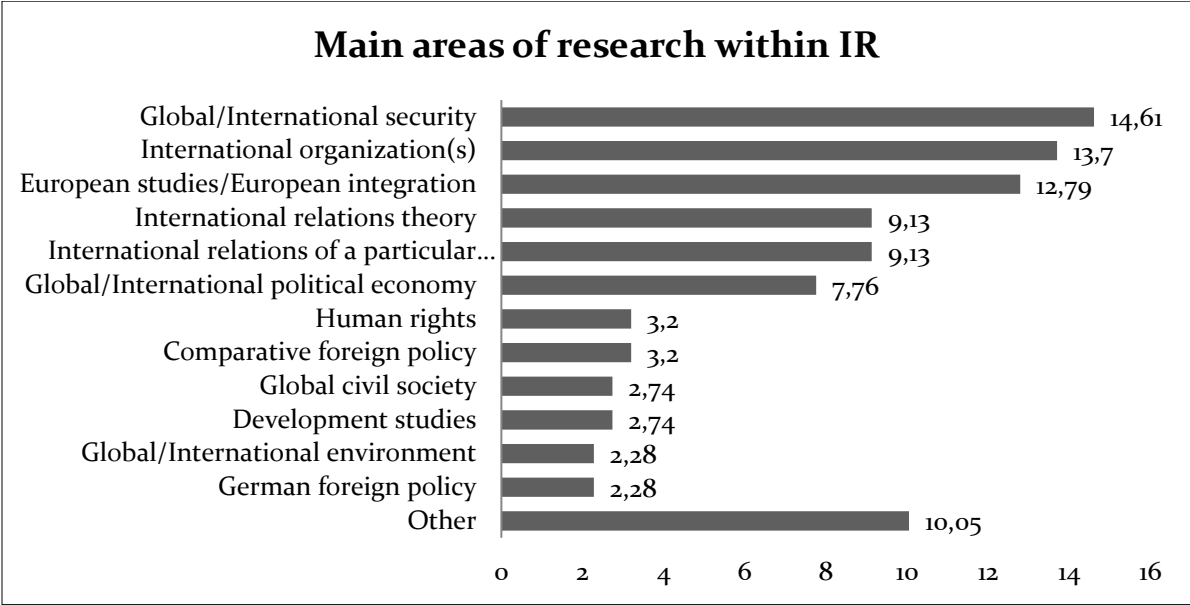
Almost 15% of German respondents claim international security as their main field of study, a figure slightly below the global average and considerably below the percentage of U.S. scholars in security studies. There has been a strong tradition of peace and conflict research in German IR dating back to the 1970s and the Cold War, which has resulted in the creation of various specialized research institutes such as the Peace Research Institute Frankfurt (PRIF), the Institute for Peace Research and Security Policy (IFSH) in Hamburg, the Peace Research Unit at the University of Tübingen, and the SWP German Institute for Foreign and Security Policy in Berlin. However, the post-Cold War era seems characterized by a loss of interest in international security questions among the majority of German IR scholars.

In contrast, more than 40% of German IR scholars claim global (and European) governance issues such as international organization(s), global economy, human rights, global environment, civil society, or development studies as their main field of inquiry. The field of international organization(s) is researched more in Germany than anywhere else in the world (Figure 37; almost 15% claim this to be their first field of study, while an additional 21% research IOs as a secondary field).

It seems like these numbers reflect the traditionally strong focus on international institutions and cooperation in German IR (Hellmann et al. 2003; Rittberger 1993, 1990), and the focus on global governance and international cooperation coincides with Germany's foreign policy identity, which emphasizes an orientation toward multilateralism and international institution building. Moreover, one could argue that institutionalism and its rationalist or sociological variants have long been the prevailing theoretical orientation of those one can regard to be the most established German IR scholars (such as Ernst-Otto Czempiel, Helga Haftendorn, Beate Kohler, and the late Volker Rittberger but also Nicole Deitelhoff, Harald Müller, Thomas Risse, Klaus Dieter Wolf, Bernhard Zangl, or Michael Zürn, to name just a few).

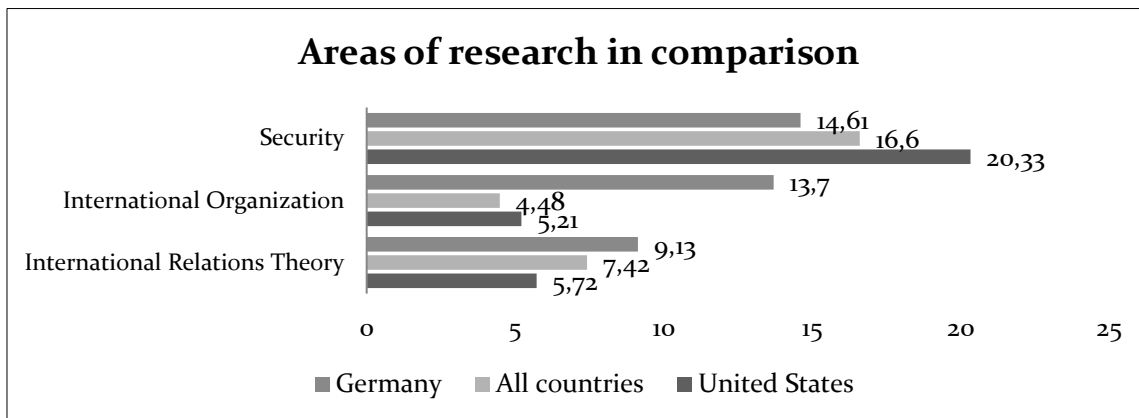
International relations scholars in Germany also seem to be more preoccupied with theory than their colleagues in other countries (see Figure 37). This could be a generational phenomenon, as the German IR community is relatively young (see above), and PhD training traditionally consists of a heavy dose of IR theory.

Figure 36 Main areas of research of German IR scholars within IR (in percentage; N = 219)



In contrast, it is surprising that German foreign policy as a subfield of IR has all but disappeared. Only 2% of the respondents see it as their primary area of research within IR, compared to about 8% of all respondents to the TRIP survey. There was a resurgence of interest in theory-guided empirical research on German foreign policy in the immediate aftermath of the Cold War (Schmidt et al. 2007; Harnisch 2003; Harnisch and Maull 2001; Rittberger 2001). However, this focus has apparently vanished at a time when German hegemony in Europe is widely discussed (see Bulmer and Paterson 2013; Paterson 2011). Once again, these low numbers may reflect the teaching and research interests of the established German IR scholars who also train most PhD candidates. Scholars such as Hanns Maull or Helga Haftendorn who kept German foreign policy as a field of study alive have long since retired, and their successors engage in other IR issues.

Figure 37 Main areas of research: international security, international organization and IR theory, in comparison (in percentage)



In summary, the TRIP survey demonstrates that the majority of German IR scholars study international institutions and global governance (including the EU), followed by a sizeable group of security specialists, while German foreign policy is severely understudied when compared to the global average.

These findings are also reflected by what has been published in the ZIB between 2011 to 2015. Looking at all articles published in the ZIB during these years (see Table 40), one could think that the German IR community is primarily occupied with itself, as a third of all articles fall under the category of “History of the IR discipline.” However, all but one of these self-reflective articles were published in the journal’s “forum” or “symposium” sections. Even when the forum and symposium articles are taken into account, however, the role that topics related to international organization play in the ZIB is immediately visible. Twenty-one percent of all articles cover this issue area. When looking at only the main articles in ZIB (Table 40), one can see that international organization is still at the top of the ranking of issue areas. Combined with issues related to global governance – i.e., human rights and international law – the share of such articles in ZIB (46%) is even higher than the share of scholars who identified with these topics in the TRIP survey.

Table 40 Issue areas of ZIB articles (percentages rounded)

	TOTAL (N=64)	MAIN ARTICLES (N=26)
History of the IR Discipline	31%	4%
International Organization	21%	35%
IR Theory	9%	12%
Methodology	9%	
Domestic Politics	7%	8%
International Security	6%	15%
Foreign Policy	4%	12%
Democratization	4%	4%
Human Rights	3%	8%
Other	3%	0%
Philosophy of Science	1%	0%
International Law	1%	4%

Total	100%	100%
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The survey data demonstrates that German IR seems to be characterized by a loss of interest in international security questions. On the one hand, the *ZIB* data confirms this observation, since the same relatively low share of articles (15%) dealing with topics related to international security was reported by the TRIP respondents. However, this number has to be put into perspective by two points. First, many of the *ZIB* articles (like all coded articles in the project, for that matter) are on the line between international organization and international security. An article about UN peacekeeping could be the first or the latter. Despite the detailed codebook and skilled coders, this sometimes ends up as a matter of interpretation. That is, some of the articles coded as international organization also deal with security issues. The same might actually be true for TRIP respondents who work at the intersection of international organization and security. Second, one of the two *ZIB* symposiums published between 2011 and 2015 dealt exclusively with the status quo and future of security studies in (German) IR. These articles are coded as History of the IR Discipline because disciplinary concerns and developments lie at the center of their analysis. However, the existence of such a symposium already suggests that the German IR community is aware of the critical and possibly declining role of this research topic.

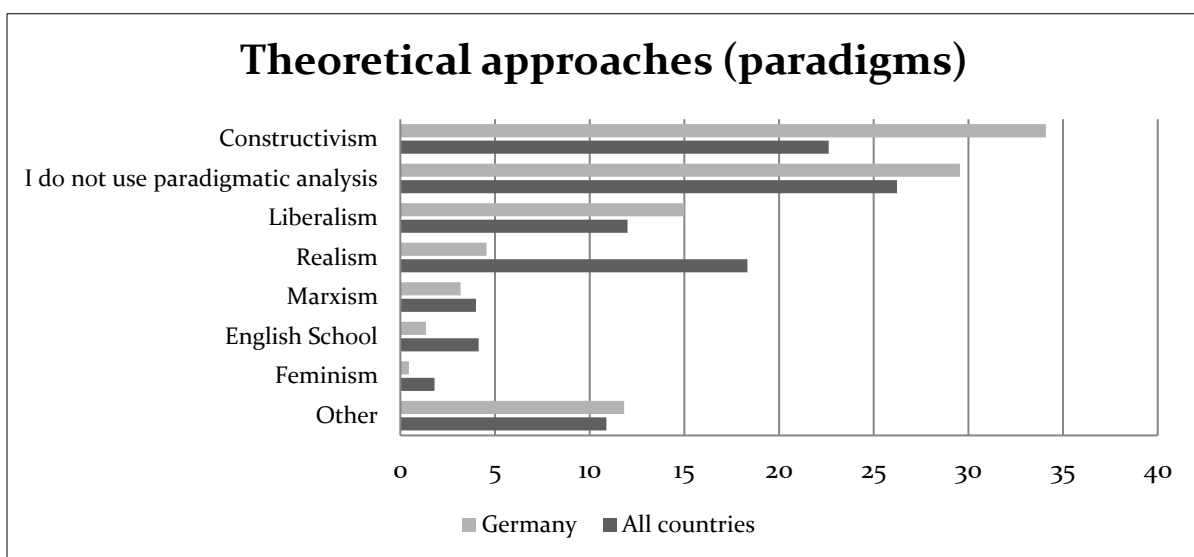
Two more trends from the TRIP survey can be confirmed by findings from the analysis of *ZIB*. First, a considerable share of articles – 9% of all articles and 12% of the journal’s main section – are contributions to IR theory. In addition, some of the self-reflective articles (History of the IR Discipline) deal with theory debates first and foremost. The finding that theorizing is still a popular occupation among German IR scholars is thus confirmed by what is published in their flagship journal, *ZIB*. Second, the finding that German IR scholars seem to have lost interest in topics related to German foreign policy can be confirmed as well. There are only three articles dealing with foreign policy issues (all in the journal’s main part), and of those three, only two deal with German foreign policy. The third article deals with a common European foreign policy. This trend reflects the reality of German foreign policy making, but is also indicative of the type of research German IR scholars seem to prefer. The large picture of global governance seems to be more important than the analysis of a single country’s behavior on the international stage.

All in all, the comparison between TRIP and *ZIB* data demonstrates that the picture that German IR scholars have of themselves and their preferences is pretty accurately reflected by – or is a reflection of – what is published in their flagship journal.

Theories: A (slightly) Constructivist and eclectic mainstream

At first glance, Germany, along with Italy and South America, appears to be social constructivism’s global stronghold. It is the most popular theoretical approach among German IR scholars: almost 34% of all respondents report social constructivism as their favorite approach to the study of IR (see Figure 38). This compares to 23% of all TRIP respondents. Other theoretical approaches, according to the survey, are less prevalent in the German IR community. Liberalism receives 15%, Realism no more than 5%, Marxism even less (3%), and only one respondent seems to be devoted to feminism. Low adherence to Realism is unsurprising, as this approach has never had much traction in the German IR community.⁷³ Given the history of German IR, however, it is astonishing that Marxism has all but disappeared (however, “critical theory” was not a response option in the questionnaire). The almost complete absence of feminist approaches to IR in the survey is surprising given the high proportion of women in German IR and the general perception of an increasing popularity of such approaches among female as well as male representatives of the German IR community.

Figure 38 Paradigm that best describes scholars’ work, Germany and all countries (in percentage; N = 220/4659)



This picture of the theoretical landscape of German IR painted by the TRIP survey data becomes even more strongly visible in the articles published in the Germans’ flagship journal, ZIB. Table 41⁷⁴ demonstrates that the vast majority of articles either have a sociological/historical institutionalist (15%

⁷³ For exceptions, see Gunther Hellmann, “Für eine problemorientierte Grundlagenforschung: Kritik und Perspektiven der Disziplin ‘Internationale Beziehungen’ in Deutschland,” *Zeitschrift für Internationale Beziehungen* 1/1 (1994), pp. 65-90; Gottfried-Karl Kindermann, *Grundelemente der Weltpolitik. Eine Einführung* (München, Zürich: Piper, 1977).

⁷⁴ Articles without a main approach were excluded from this table and the calculations it displays. The vast majority of those articles deal with the history of the IR discipline, and therefore there are no IR research articles in the conservative sense.

overall and 30% of the main articles) or a social constructivist approach (15% overall and 17% of the main articles). The latter are articles with an explicitly social constructivist framework/ontology, while the former are articles that work with either a sociological or historical institutionalist approach without being explicitly socially constructivist. However, these two categories naturally blend into each other. Institutionalism was not a response option in the TRIP survey, and scholars who work with this approach likely identified with either social constructivism or Liberalism in the survey. These were, after all, the first and second largest categories in the survey for German respondents. The fact that Rational Choice Institutionalism (RCI) is the third most popular approach after the other two institutionalisms in *ZIB* proves once and for all how important it is to have institutionalism as a separate analytical category when trying to map German IR scholars' theoretical preferences. Nine percent of all articles in the journal work with an RCI framework and 13% in the main part. Five and 10 percent of articles in *ZIB* work with a Liberalist approach – that is, Liberalism in the sense of the domestic IR tradition of, among others, Andrew Moravcsik (1997), Robert Putnam (1988), and Ernst Otto Czempiel (1986). Not a single article in the journal's main part works with a Realist approach,⁷⁵ and only one of them is in the forum/symposium section. The same is true for Marxist articles. Furthermore, there is not a single article in *ZIB* with a feminist approach. On the other hand, when combined, 15% of articles work with a somehow critical approach, i.e., Marxism, securitization, poststructuralism, or post-colonialism -- approaches that likely ended up as "Other" in the TRIP survey. German IR has thus not lost its traditionally critical edge completely, even if it no longer has a strong Marxist branch and it mainly plays itself out in world of forums and symposia rather than on the main stage.

Table 41 Main theoretical approaches in ZIB (multiple approaches per article possible; article N = 64)

MAIN THEORETICAL APPROACHES	MAIN SECTION (N=30)	FORUM/SYMPOSIUM (N=49)	ALL SECTIONS (N=79)
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	30%	6%	15%
Social Constructivism	17%	14%	15%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	13%	6%	9%
Liberalism (domestic IR)	10%	2%	5%
Other	10%	6%	8%
No main approach(es)	7%	51%	34%
Copenhagen School/Securitization	7%	0%	3%
English School/International Society	3%	2%	3%
Post-structuralism	3%	2%	3%
Marxism/Post-Marxism	0%	4%	3%
Postcolonialism	0%	4%	3%
Realism	0%	2%	1%
Total	100%	100%	100%

⁷⁵ However, there are more articles that address Realism but do not actively use it or make a main object of the article, as can be seen in Table App 61 in the appendix, which shows all theoretical approaches addressed.

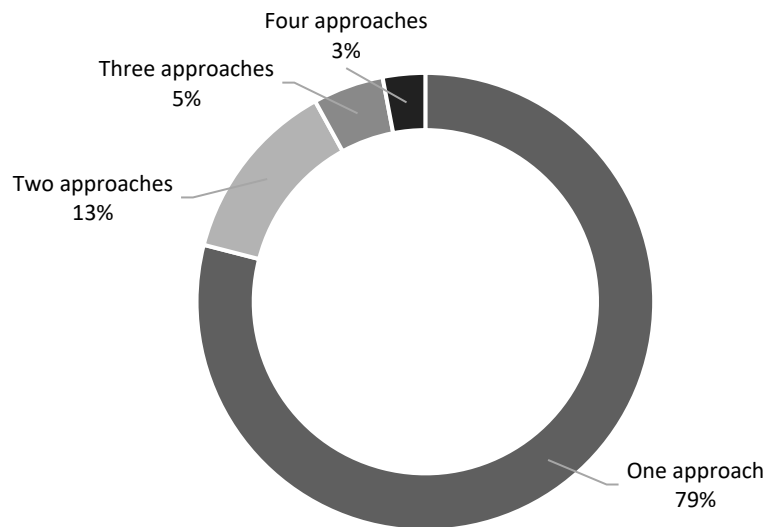
The preferences of German IR scholars seem to be pretty clear based on what has been discussed so far. A closer look at the TRIP survey data, however, already reveals a more complex picture. Thirty percent of German IR scholars (the second highest percentage within Germany) do not use any paradigmatic analysis, and almost two-thirds claim that their approach to IR is based in more than one paradigm or school of thought.

First of all, it is not surprising that about one-third of German IR scholars self-identify as constructivists given the prevalence of this approach at major locations and universities represented in the survey, such as Berlin/Potsdam or Frankfurt, which are potentially overrepresented in this survey (see above). It does not seem astonishing that many Germans claim to use non-paradigmatic analysis. This likely reflects the German mainstream and its mantra of “theory-guided empirical research,” which is not wedded to a particular theoretical approach but recommends using hypotheses and assumptions from various theories.

However, these two findings from the TRIP survey cannot be clearly confirmed by the ZIB data. First of all, although a considerable number of articles under investigation do not have a main theoretical approach (see Table App 64 in the appendix), the vast majority of those atheoretical articles deals with the history of the discipline or methodological issues. Only three articles in ZIB without a main theoretical approach deal with core themes of IR research: one with foreign policy, one with international organization, and one with international security. Second, almost half of the articles (43%) published between 2011 and 2015 address more than one theoretical approach without rejecting any of them for severe ontological or similarly finite considerations (see Figure 39).⁷⁶ This confirms the interpretation of German IR as a stronghold for “theory-guided empirical research.” However, only 20% of the articles have more than one *main* approach. This means that although German IR scholars do discuss/address a variety of theoretical approaches in their articles, they do not always apply them or focus their work on them to the same degree that the TRIP survey data suggested. On the other hand, half of those articles with more than one main approach attempt to bridge these approaches to build a theoretical synthesis. Given the low number of articles that have more than the main approach in the first place, however, this finding should not be overrated.

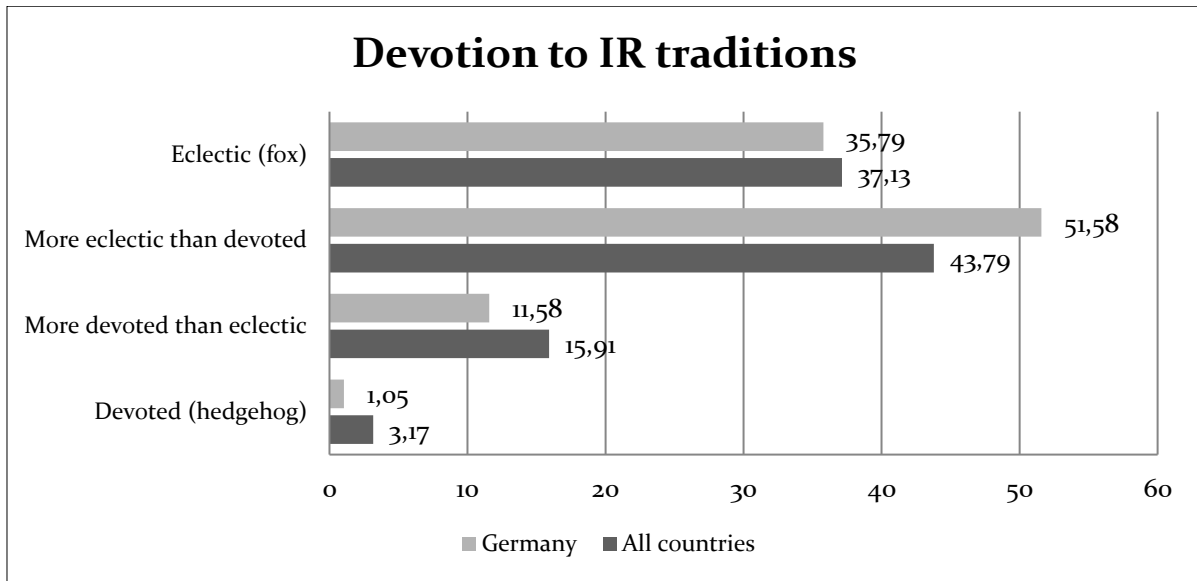
⁷⁶ The rejection of entire theoretical approaches was coded as a separate variable, and it turned out that only three out of the 68 articles under investigation, less than 4% of them, actually rejected one or several approaches. For more on this, see Table App 65 in the appendix.

Figure 39 Number of main approaches per articles in ZIB



A stronger indicator of German IR scholars' preference for non-paradigmatic research is their responses to the "Tetlock Question" on the survey (Figure 40): *Philip Tetlock, borrowing from Isaiah Berlin, distinguishes between foxes who 'draw from an eclectic array of traditions' and hedgehogs, who work 'devotedly within one tradition.'* How would you classify your own approach? International relations scholars in Germany overwhelmingly claim to be foxes – even more so than the global IR community. Most German IR scholars appear to strongly disagree with the observation by Marsh and Furlong that "ontology is a skin, not a sweater" (Marsh and Furlong 2010). While social constructivism has a slight edge among Germans, most German-speaking IR scholars enthusiastically embrace non-paradigmatic research or research encompassing various paradigms. Even two-thirds of all German IR *theorists* (according to their main area of research within IR) declare themselves to be more fox than hedgehog, i.e., *not* devoted to a single paradigm. In other words, they seem to understand theory-building as moving across paradigms and reject theoretical purism.

Figure 40 Devotion to IR traditions; "Philip-Tetlock Question"; Germany (in percentage; N = 95)



Ontology: Between soft-rational choice and the middle of the road

The interpretation concerning theoretical orientations is corroborated by the answers to the survey questions pertaining to ontological or meta-theoretical orientations. More than half of the respondents reported that their “work draws on both rationalist approaches and alternative approaches that do not assume the rationality of actors,” while almost 18% do not “assume the rationality of actors,” and about 24% claim to operate within a broadly defined rational choice framework. In other words, the ontological controversy between rational choice and social constructivism, which characterized the field throughout much of the 1990s (see Katzenstein et al. 1998; Keohane 1989), has definitely run its course in German IR (if it ever took place here, see below). The majority of IR scholars “seize the middle ground,” to quote a famous article by Emanuel Adler (1997). Interestingly enough, 68% of self-identified German constructivists claim to draw on both rationalist and alternative ontologies (see Table 42), while the non-paradigmatic are also the middle of the road (51%) or identify with a softer version of rational choice (31%). In a global comparison, more German IR scholars than those from any other country claim the middle ground between rational choice and other meta-theories. The difference is even more pronounced as compared to U.S. scholars who self-identify much more strongly with [soft] rational choice.

Table 42 Ontology by paradigm (in percentages; N = 218)

	RATIONAL CHOICE	SOFT RATIONAL CHOICE	MIDDLE OF THE ROAD	NO RATIONALITY OF ACTORS	TOTAL
Constructivism	1.33%	2.67%	68%	28%	100%
Non-paradigmatic	3.08%	30.77%	50.77%	15.38%	100%
Liberalism	9.38%	50%	40.63%	0%	100%
Realism	0%	50%	40%	10%	100%
Other	0%	25%	55.56%	19.44%	100%

Some might call this analytical eclecticism (Sil and Katzenstein 2010). Others might conclude that German IR scholars are at least implicitly grounded in the philosophical tradition of pragmatism (Bauer and Brighi 2009; Hellmann 2010). Be that as it may, there is also a more historical interpretation, given German social science's strong roots in Max Weber's art of sociological theorizing (see Risse 2003). In contemporary terms, "Economy and Society" (Weber 1921/1980) is non-paradigmatic as it combines rational choice institutionalism and its logic of consequentialism with both historical and sociological institutionalism and its logic of appropriateness (March and Olsen 1998). In this sense, the majority of German IR scholars can still be regarded as Weberian. In addition, Germany never experienced the kind of paradigmatic warfare between rationalism and constructivism that characterized Anglo-American IR. Even the so-called *ZIB* debate of the 1990s on communicative action and arguing quickly reached a middle ground.⁷⁷ Last but not least, if one looks at PhD training at the various (and newly established) graduate schools that also cover IR (Berlin, Hamburg, Bremen, Frankfurt, Bamberg, etc.), there seems to exist a strong preference for puzzle-driven theoretical and empirical research rather than scholarship that deductively tests a particular paradigmatic approach.

The codebook for the *ZIB* analysis did not contain a separate variable for ontology. However, the theoretical approaches for which the articles were coded can be roughly divided into those with a

⁷⁷ The *ZIB* debate started with Harald Müller, 'Internationale Beziehungen als kommunikatives Handeln. Zur Kritik der utilitaristischen Handlungstheorien', *Zeitschrift für Internationale Beziehungen* 1/1 (1994), pp. 15-44. See also Gerald Schneider, 'Rational Choice und kommunikatives Handeln. Eine Replik auf Harald Müller', *ibid.* 1/2 (1994), pp. 357-366.; Otto Keck, 'Rationales kommunikatives Handeln in den internationalen Beziehungen. Ist eine Verbindung von Rational-Choice-Theorie und Habermas Theorie des kommunikativen Handelns möglich?' *ibid.* 2/1 (1995), pp. 5-48; Bernhard Zangl and Michael Zürn, 'Argumentatives Handeln bei internationalen Verhandlungen. Moderate Anmerkungen zur post-realistischen Debatte', *ibid.* 3/2 (1996), pp. 341-366.

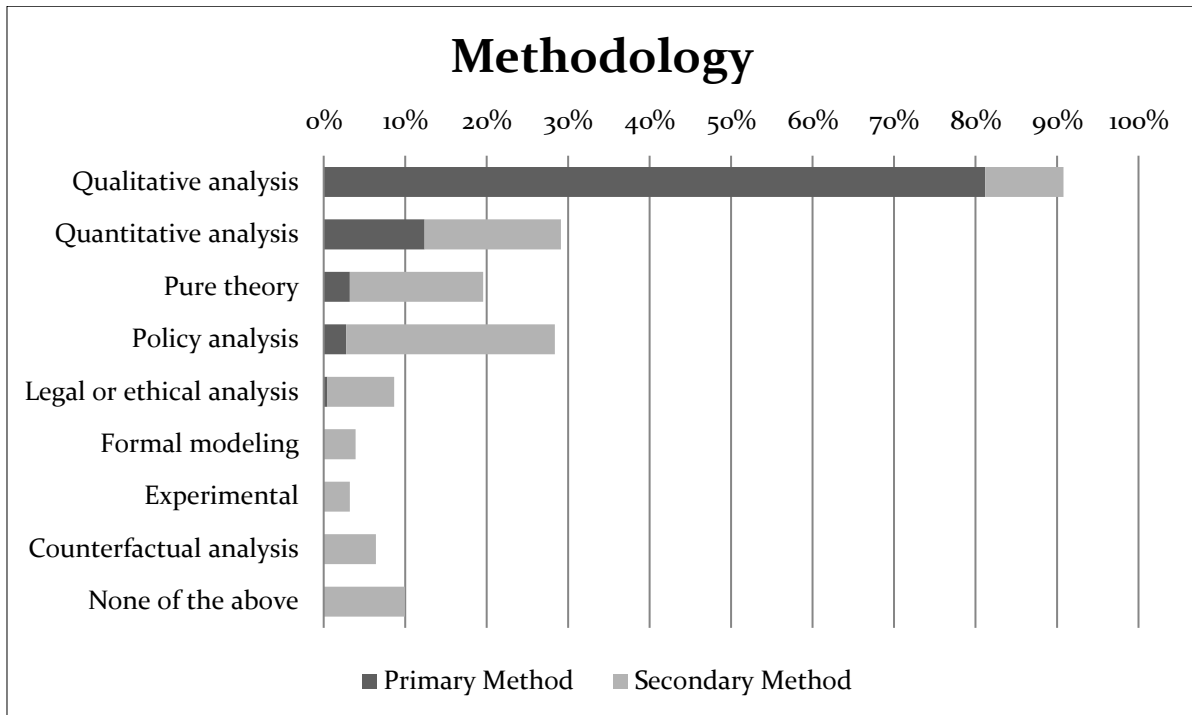
(primarily) rational choice logic and those which (primarily) reject it.⁷⁸ A clear picture emerges. Slightly less than two-thirds of approaches used in the main theoretical framework of all *ZIB* articles belong to the non-rational choice category. The majority of the rational choice articles come in the form of RCI. The non-rational choice articles are divided between social constructivism and the non-RC institutionalisms. This confirms the TRIP data since it is likely that institutionalists may be eclectic in their choices for rational choice or non-rational choice approaches. There is a small number of articles that combine rational choice and non-rational choice approaches in their main theoretical arguments. However, it seems that the majority of the TRIP survey respondents who identified with a “middle of the road” approach switch back and forth between ontologies across their research projects rather than combining them in one explanatory approach – at least when publishing in *ZIB*.

Methods: mainly qualitative

German IR scholars primarily employ qualitative methods in their research (see Figure 41), even more so than scholars from other countries (81% Germany; 61% of all respondents). Quantitative research comes at a distant second, with less than 30% using it as their primary or secondary method. Moreover, “qualitative methods” overwhelmingly refers to case studies, since 79% of all respondents who reported qualitative as their primary method conduct comparative case studies and 57% conduct single case studies. Another 56% prefer content analysis, 48% prefer discourse analysis, and almost two-thirds favor process tracing (question with several possible answers). The low rate of German scholars who conduct policy analysis in comparison to the global average is also noteworthy. Only 2.75% of German respondents name it as their primary method, while 15.95% of all TRIP respondents do so. Last but not least, not a single German IR scholar in the survey uses formal modeling or experimental design as a primary method, although at least a few employ these as secondary methods. However, this last finding reflects the global trend in the TRIP survey. Using formal modeling and experimental design is still exceptional in the global IR community.

⁷⁸ This estimate excludes articles without a main approach and those with approaches with unclear or mixed leanings (English School and all articles coded as “other”).

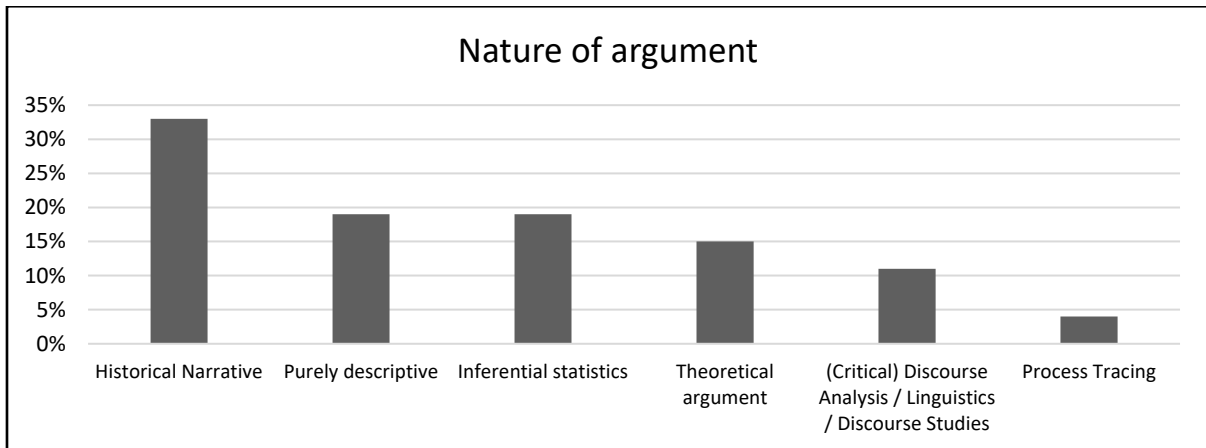
Figure 41 Methods of IR scholars in Germany (in percentage; primary: N = 218, secondary: N = 210)



The same trends are visible in the ZIB data. The journal analysis codebook contains two methodological variables that were conflated in the TRIP survey: nature of argument and empirical strategy. The nature of argument that characterizes one-third of the articles published in the journal’s main section (see Figure 42) is historical narrative. “Thick descriptions” are typical of this nature of argument, which is used to make a causal argument by reconstructing a case in detail. It is a qualitative approach that goes beyond pure description – and thus is a perfect fit for the German IR community as it is described in this chapter. Another third of articles follow other qualitative strategies: non-causal description⁷⁹ and (critical) discourse analysis. Nineteen percent of the main research articles are theoretical arguments. Despite the popularity of theoretical arguments, however, none of the articles worked with a formal modeling approach. This seems to be a more “American” way of theory-building.

⁷⁹ Descriptions could technically be quantitative, but only one out of the 62 articles in the dataset is quantitative and descriptive (see Table App 67 in the appendix for a crosstab between nature of argument and empirical strategy).

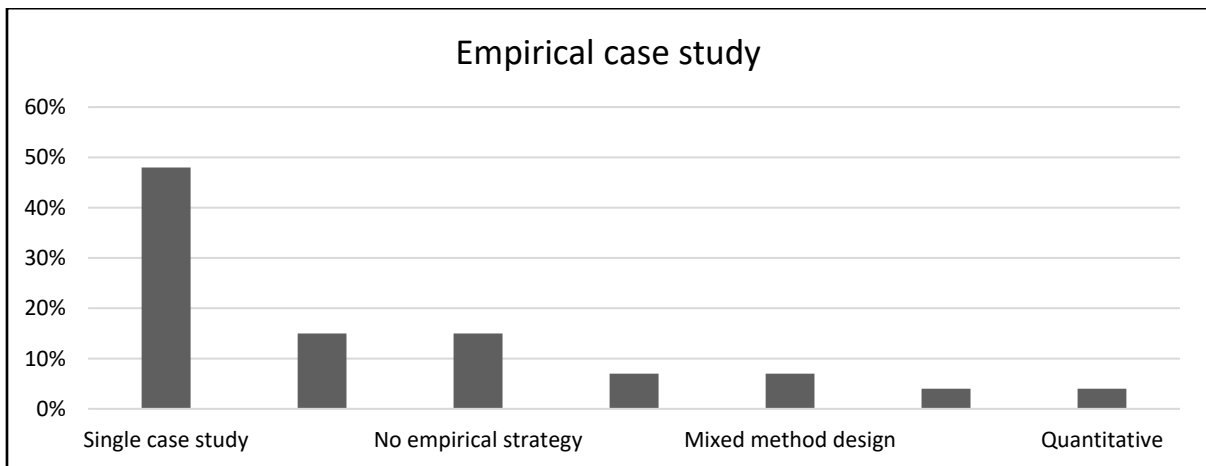
Figure 42 Nature of argument in ZIB



In terms of empirical strategy, these qualitative frameworks are realized as case studies in the majority of articles (see Figure 43). More than two-thirds of all qualitative articles are either a single (67%) or a comparative case study (10 percent). The other 24% are descriptive articles without any (identifiable) empirical strategy. Those articles are typically reflections of the discipline. These findings reflect almost perfectly what the respondents of the TRIP survey reported about their methodological preferences.

Process tracing as a nature of argument, on the other hand, is much more popular with German IR scholars in theory than in practice. Only one out of 62 articles published in the *ZIB* between 2011 and 2015 is a case of process tracing. It may be that some scholars who were coded as using historical narrative think they are doing process tracing, but they do not fulfill the minimum standard for coding it, i.e., they do not aim to identify mechanisms but instead just talk about analyzing processes and then continue with a thick description/historical narrative. This is, therefore, a point where the self-perception of German IR scholars (and most likely IR scholars in general) and the reality of published research are two different things.

Figure 43 Empirical strategy in ZIB



Not so divergent are the self-perception of German IR scholars and their publishing practices in terms of quantitative methods. Five of the main articles and seven in total (which is 19% and 10%, respectively) are built upon arguments of inferential statistics. Of those seven articles, three combine a quantitative approach (in this particular case regression and a quasi-experimental survey design) with a qualitative case study using interviews in a so-called mixed-method design. However, two of those articles were replies to the first and thus replications of the same study. Nevertheless, the fact that a mixed-method design was at the center of a methodological dispute played out in the *ZIB* can be regarded as a small indication of its growing popularity.

All in all, the ZIB data confirms that quantitative research has a weak stance in German IR and that qualitative case studies dominate the field.

5.3.4 Rankings and Community Allegiances

Rankings: IR - still an American social science?

The TRIP survey also asked scholars for their view of the wider field in terms of top PhD programs, journals, and scholars. As for the “beauty contest” of the field’s most influential scholars, there are similarities and differences between German IR scholars and IR in the rest of the world (see Table 43). Wendt tops the list everywhere, but particularly so in Germany (64%), with Keohane as a distant second. In addition, Waltz, Mearsheimer, and Finnemore were also highly ranked by multiple countries’ scholars. Interestingly enough, Moravcsik and Sikkink are among the top 10 scholars in Germany, but neither can be found on either the global or the U.S. top-10 lists. Finally, there are only three Europeans on the German top-10 list, namely Risse, Wæver, and Buzan (in that order).

Table 43 Most influential scholars in international comparison (each respondent could list up to four names)

RANK	COUNTRY		
	<u>All countries</u>	<u>Germany</u>	<u>USA</u>
1	Alexander Wendt (47.10)	Alexander Wendt (63.64)	Alexander Wendt (39.39)
2	Robert O. Keohane (32.13)	Robert O. Keohane (40.15)	Robert O. Keohane (33.06)
3	Kenneth Waltz (27.55)	Andrew Moravcsik (23.48)	John J. Mearsheimer (31.63)
4	John J. Mearsheimer (24.05)	Kenneth Waltz (15.91)	James Fearon (23.98)
5	Joseph S. Nye Jr. (21.97)	Thomas Risse (13.64)	Kenneth Waltz (22.45)
6	Samuel Huntington (14.45)	Martha Finnemore (12.88)	Joseph S. Nye Jr. (16.48)
7	Barry Buzan (13.51)	Ole Wæver (11.36)	Bruce Bueno de Mesquita (12.65)
8	James Fearon (11.88)	Kathryn Sikkink (9.85)	Samuel Huntington (11.12)
9	Stephen M. Walt (8.49)	Barry Buzan (9.85)	Martha Finnemore (10.82)
10	Martha Finnemore (7.82)	John J. Mearsheimer (9.85)	Robert Jervis (10.71)

Based on theoretical approaches, six of the German top 10 are usually identified as social constructivists (Wendt, Risse, Finnemore, Wæver, Sikkink, Buzan), followed by equal numbers of realists (Waltz, Mearsheimer) and neoliberal institutionalists (Keohane, Moravcsik). In comparison, the global list is dominated by institutionalists (Keohane, Nye, Huntington, Fearon), followed by realists (Waltz, Mearsheimer, Walt) and constructivists (Wendt, Buzan, Finnemore), with the U.S. list even more tilted toward institutionalism (Keohane, Fearon, Nye, Bueno de Mesquita, Huntington, Jervis). More importantly, IR appears to remain an “American social science” (Hoffmann 1977), given that only Barry Buzan made it on the top-10 list worldwide and only three Europeans can be found among the German top 10.

Yet, one should take these findings with a grain of salt. They likely reflect IR teaching and the syllabi of PhD courses more than anything else. This would explain how Waltz and Mearsheimer are on the German top-10 list even though few Germans self-identify as Realists and Realism is all but absent from the leading journal.

The survey section exclusively shown to the German sample included a second “beauty contest” question in order to remove bias toward the US. IR: “What are the four scholars employed in your part of the world who have had the greatest influence on the field of IR in the past 20 years ?” (see Table

44). The question was consciously written in a way that left it up to the respondents to define the meaning of “their part of the world.” This question yielded some surprising results. First, German IR scholars are more divided about who has influenced the field in their part of the world than they are about the global ranking of scholars. None of the top 10 “in your region of the world” received more than 10% of the votes (except for Risse).⁸⁰ Second, six constructivists (Risse, Wæver, Buzan, Kratochwil, Müller, Neumann) dominated the ranking, followed by three institutionalists (Zürn, Rittberger, Schimmelfennig). Interestingly enough, the famous German social philosopher, Jürgen Habermas, made the top-10 list as well. This might be reminiscent of the *ZIB* debate of the early 1990s, which centered around the use of Habermas’ theory of communicative action in IR. Third, not a single woman made the top-10 list. Of all 32 scholars who received more than one vote, only six are female (Börzel, Deitelhoff, Finnemore [!], Haftendorn, Kaldor, and Wiener). Finally, the most senior generation of German IR scholars is missing from the top-10 list – except for Rittberger. Neither Czempiel nor Haftendorn, Kohler, or Senghaas are among the top 10 “in your part of the world,” even though they arguably have had a strong influence on the field in Germany “over the past 20 years” (see question wording). It almost seems that all of them have been forgotten.

It can be assumed, once again, that these rankings reflect reading lists on IR syllabi more than anything else (Colgan 2016). First, the internationalization of German IR over the past 20 years might have led to an “Americanization” of IR in the syllabi at the expense of the most senior generation of German scholars. Secondly, one might speculate that female scholars do not make it onto reading lists, and consequently, they are not in the German top 10 because a) they are younger on average than their male colleagues and b) German tenured professors are still predominantly male and more likely to quote their male colleagues (Maliniak, Powers, and Walter 2013).

⁸⁰ This high ranking of Risse might have to do with the fact that Berlin- and Potsdam-based universities and research institutes at which Risse is involved in teaching and research are somewhat overrepresented among the respondents.

Table 44 Scholars in German scholars' "part of the world" who have had the greatest influence on the field of IR in the past 20 years (in percentage; N = 324 votes, all respondents could list up to four scholars)

RANK	NAME	VOTE
1	Thomas Risse (D)	16.96
2	Michael Zürn (D)	7.89
3	Volker Rittberger (D, † 2011)	6.73
4	Ole Wæver (DK)	6.43
5	Barry Buzan (UK)	6.43
6	Friedrich Kratochwil (D)	3.22
7	Jürgen Habermas (D)	2.92
8	Harald Müller (D)	2.63
9	Frank Schimmelfennig (D)	2.34
10	Iver Neumann (NOR)	1.75

With regard to journal rankings, the German IR community again confirms Hoffmann's verdict of an American social science (see Table 45). Six of the top 10 are American journals, and only four are based in Europe. *International Organization* is considered by far the most important IR journal with 83% of the vote (the same is true for the global average; IO tops that list with 57%). The European Journal of International Relations received the second highest number of votes, followed by five U.S. journals. UK-based journals – *Millennium* and *Review of International Studies* – take less prominent places behind the American journals. Germany's own *ZfE* fell just outside the top 10, but is clearly outranked by English-language publications. This latter point also reflects the perceived need to publish in English journals, reported above. However, when asked whether they used *ZfE* in their research and/or teaching, 95% of German respondents answered affirmatively (51% for research and 44% for teaching), and 85% use *Politische Vierteljahresschrift*, the flagship journal of the German Political Science Association.

Table 45 Journal ranking (every respondent could list up to four journal titles) (N = 700/150)

RANK	COUNTRY
	<u>All countries</u>
	<u>Germany</u>
1	International Organization (57.71)
2	Foreign Affairs (41.43)
3	International Security (36)
4	International Studies Quarterly (27.43)
5	World Politics (22.43)
6	European Journal of International Relations (20.43)
7	American Political Science Review (14.29)
8	Foreign Policy (13.71)
9	Millennium (11.86)
10	Review of International Studies (9.86)

A similar picture emerges with regard to the top-ranked PhD programs. German scholars – as well as their colleagues all over the world – favor American and British schools such as Harvard, Princeton, Stanford, Columbia, UC Berkeley, Yale Oxford, LSE, and Cambridge (see Table 46). The only exception to this Anglo-American dominated list is the European University Institute in Florence, the largest PhD program in Europe in the social sciences. Interestingly enough, few IR scholars in Germany actually received their PhD at these highly ranked places. In other words, these rankings reflect not personal experience but reputation.

The TRIP survey also asked scholars for their evaluation of German PhD programs (see Table 46).⁸¹ Here, Freie Universität Berlin and the Berlin Graduate School for Transnational Studies (BTS) – a joint PhD program of Freie Universität, WZB Social Science Center Berlin, and the Hertie School of Governance – the University of Bremen and its graduate school BIGSSS,⁸² and Frankfurt University and its PhD program rank highest. In other words, the new German graduate schools offering structured PhD training in IR (mostly in English) top the list. This ranking, however, has to be taken with a grain of salt since many of the respondents are located at those institutions and may have engaged in institutional patriotism rather than objective evaluation. Still, 52% of respondents stated in a separate question that the

⁸¹ The reference to PhD programs at this point is a matter of convenience. However, most German universities do not offer specific programs to graduate students but rather the opportunity to work with a tenured professor in bilateral supervising relationships.

⁸² Bremen International Graduate School of Social Sciences.

introduction of graduate schools has had a positive impact on the situation of young IR scholars in Germany. In summary, German IR scholars approve of the introduction of graduate schools at various universities, representing a new development in a country where completing a PhD has long been a bilateral affair between doctoral researchers and their supervisors.

Table 46 Ranking of universities based on the quality of their PhD programs in the field of IR (in percentage; N = 147)

RANK	BEST PHD PROGRAM WORLDWIDE	BEST PHD PROGRAM IN GERMANY
1	Harvard University (72.92)	Freie Universität Berlin + BTS (23.88)
2	Princeton University (50.00)	Universität Bremen + BIGSSS (20.90)
3	University of Oxford (37.50)	Goethe Universität Frankfurt (17.16)
4	Stanford University (29.17)	Universität Konstanz (7.46)
5	London School of Economics and Political Science (27.08)	Universität Mannheim (5.22)
6	Columbia University (18.75)	Eberhard Karls Universität Tübingen (4.48) and
7	University of California - Berkeley (16.67)	Ludwigs-Maximilian-Universität München (4.48)
8	Yale University (14.58)	Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin (2.99)
9	European University Institute (14.58)	Jacobs University Bremen (1.49)
10	University of Cambridge (14.58)	Universität Bielefeld (1.49)

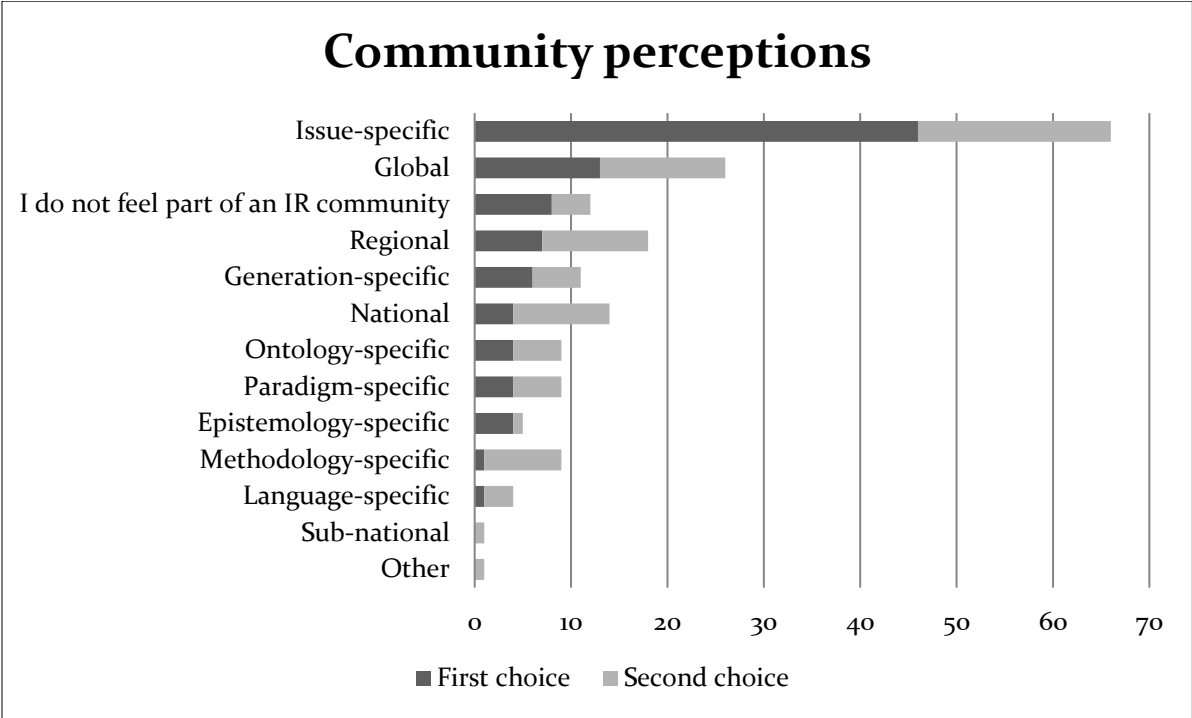
Communities and major divides in IR

The TRIP survey also asked whether IR scholars see themselves as part of larger IR communities and where they perceived the major divisions in the field. By far, the largest group of German IR scholars identified with an issue-specific community (66%; 20% more than the average of all TRIP surveys, see Figure 44), followed by 26% who feel part of a global community and 18% who identify with a regional community. When asked about a German IR community, 83% agreed that something resembling a national IR community exists in Germany. Yet, only 14% of IR scholars in Germany indicated this national community as their first or second choice of allegiance. Other possible communities received equally low levels of attachment (e.g., epistemology, methods, ontology).

It seems that these low levels of identification with a paradigmatically or methodologically defined IR community again reflect the “middle ground” and cross-paradigmatic attitudes of most German IR scholars (discussed above). At the same time, if one’s research is mainly puzzle-driven and empirical, it

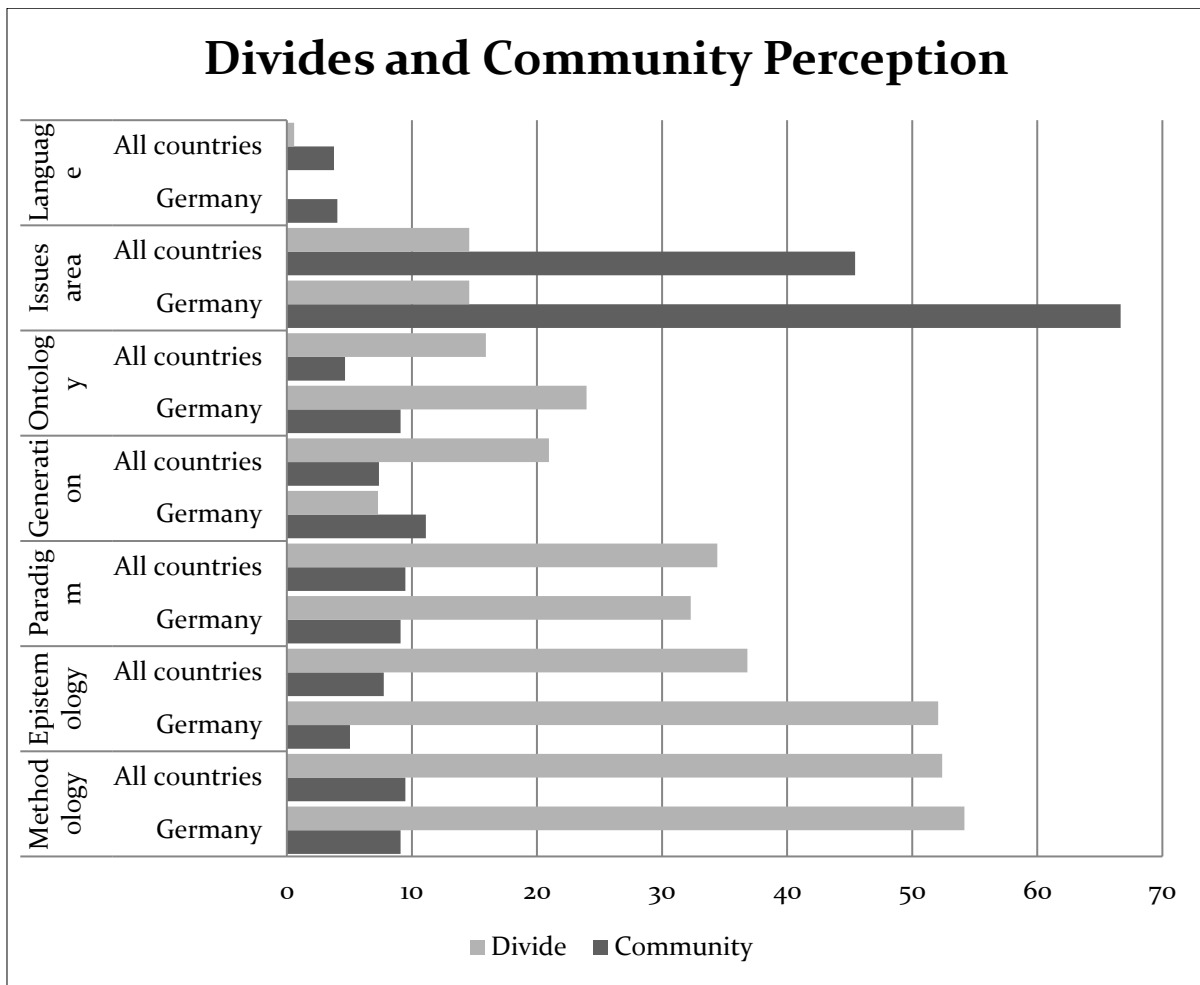
is equally understandable that one would identify mainly with an issue-specific community, given the skill level necessary to engage in, say, security studies or IPE. Last but not least, the international orientation of German IR scholars (see above) may also explain why many identify with a global or regional IR community.

Figure 44 Community perceptions of German IR scholars (in percentage; N = 98/86)



The TRIP survey also asked scholars to identify major divisions in the field. At first glance, these numbers stand in sharp contrast to community perceptions. The German IR community reported three types of divides (Figure 45): 1) epistemology and methods (52% / 54%), 2) ontology and paradigm (24% / 32%), and 3) a theory-policy divide (34%). The numbers are similar to those in the rest of the world and the US – except for the strong perception among Germans that epistemological differences are significant. However, only 15% of Germans see major issue-specific divides. Figure 45 compares the perception of major divides in the field with the self-identification of IR scholars in Germany and worldwide.

Figure 45 Perception of major divides and community membership in comparison (in percentages)



The data disconfirms what is known based on research on collective identification processes, namely that “in-group/out-group” divisions drive a sense of community (Turner 1987; Tajfel 1981, 1974). If perceived “self/other” differences drive identification processes within specific IR communities, a strong correlation between the perception of major divides and a sense of attachment to exactly the same communities should become visible. The opposite is the case. The more IR scholars – whether in Germany or worldwide – perceive divisions with regard to particular questions, the less they perceive a sense of community concerning these questions. International relations scholars mostly identify with a community without internal divisions. I might feel strongly that there is a quantitative-qualitative divide in IR, but I do not identify with my particular methods’ community.

Moreover, we should consider how to interpret the perceptions of divisions in IR. It is curious that so many German scholars see a methods divide in IR even though an overwhelming majority use qualitative methods. More than 30% see major paradigmatic divisions as well, even though most scholars see themselves working across paradigms. In this context, one must not forget that the TRIP survey asks for

perceptions of IR rather than actual practices of research and publishing. Secondly, the data about theoretical and methodological orientations of German IR scholars reveals that the majority forms a rather homogeneous group that is rather pragmatic about theory, ontology, and methods. Moreover, the rankings of top schools, publication outlets, and influential scholars display a strong orientation toward an Anglo-American core in IR. This data is consistent with the expressed sense of community among German IR scholars.

As a result, it seems to us that the perceived divides in the field of IR only partially reflect major controversies in the daily practices of German IR research and writing, let alone indicate different and separate communities. Most German IR scholars see themselves as part of issue-specific communities, but they do not perceive these communities as creating major divisions in the field.

Findings regarding the theory/policy debate are different, with an increasing gap between those engaging in policy research (e.g., those at think tanks) and those researching and teaching at universities. While the German TRIP sample did not include all scholars working at German think tanks (only those also teaching at a university), the theory-policy divide appears to be real. If one does policy consulting with the government, one cannot write a peer-reviewed article at the same time – and vice versa.⁸³ This finding is confirmed by the *ZIB* data. Only six out of the 62 articles published between 2011 and 2015 contained a policy prescription, i.e., an explicit recommendation of action toward decision makers. Even more characteristic of the (published) German IR community is that only one of these six prescriptions deals with actual policy. One article deals with international organization and the other five with the history of the IR discipline. The recommendations are thus directed at the discipline and how it should be reformed – rather than at policy makers and reforms of the international world order.

German IR scholars see epistemological and methodological differences as particularly strong. As shown above, methodological choices and epistemological orientations appear to correlate, indicating that the quantitative-qualitative gap is a result of perceived differences about basic ways of doing science. Whether this makes sense or not is irrelevant here. What matters is that scholars perceive these differences as salient. These divisions could reflect increasing differences in German political science as a whole rather than in the subfield of IR. Methods issues typically become salient in hiring decisions as quantitative research becomes more and more relevant in German political science. Table 47 reveals that age is a strong predictor for the perception of methodological divides in the field. One possible interpretation of this finding is that the younger generations, who have yet to make their way in the

⁸³ There are two German institutes in IR trying to bridge the gap between basic research and policy consulting, namely the German Institute for Global and Area Studies (GIGA) in Hamburg and the Peace Research Institute Frankfurt (PRIF).

academic job market, are most aware of this increased pressure to obtain ever more methodological skills in order to succeed in German academia (but note the small N with regard to this question).

Table 47 Age and methodology as dividing factor (in percentage; N = 51)

	≤35	35 - 45	46 - 55	56 - 65	> 65	Total
Methods create the most division in IR	47.06	31.37	17.65	1.96	1.96	100.00

Last but not least, many German IR scholars see major divides with regard to ontology and paradigms, even though they a) do not self-identify with such a community and b) are rather pragmatic in their choices of theoretical approaches. It seems, therefore, that this particular divide reflects a social construction of IR that is reminiscent of the 1980s and 1990s when paradigmatic warfare in IR still prevailed. This social construction could linger on in teaching and training practices at universities. While IR scholars do their research across theoretical orientations, ontological paradigms, and epistemological divisions, they seem to teach these questions as if the various divisions still existed. The community orientations of IR scholars might reflect their research practices, while their perception of divides in the field reflects what they learned or are teaching in graduate school. Table 47 also corroborates this interpretation, since the perception of major divides is particularly widespread among younger scholars.

The language experiment: A lingual divide in German IR

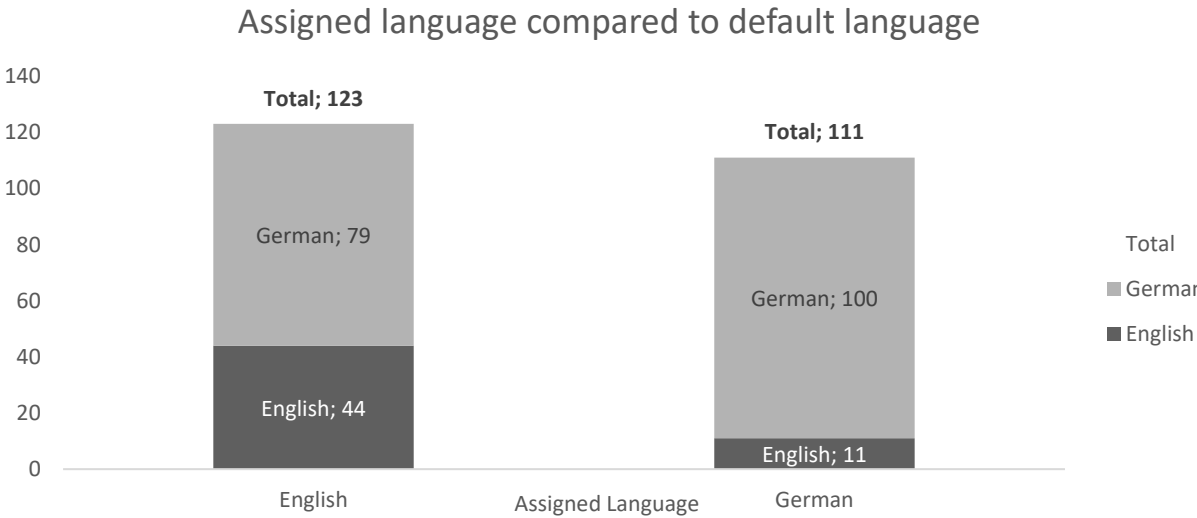
The analysis so far has shown that publishing in non-German journals is regarded as essential for academic success in Germany and that most German scholars regularly publish their work in English. Consequently, it can be concluded that the German IR community is fully bilingual and internationalized. Additionally, at least a large part of the German IR community seems to be looking up to the Anglo-American core. A question that follows from these observations is whether there is a divide between scholars in Germany who prefer to work in English and those who prefer to work in German – that is, those who are essentially closer to the American core and those who seem to have stronger ties to the German community. In order to approach an answer to this question, the German TRIP survey was set up as a language experiment. While almost all other countries’ surveys outside of the Anglosphere were presented to their respondents in the respective country’s language, German respondents were the only ones allowed to choose between taking the survey in English or in German.

The language of the survey’s starting page was randomly displayed in either English or German so that half of the sample had the opportunity to switch from German to English and the other from English to German. This set-up helped to test two things: first, whether German IR scholars would actively prefer

doing this exercise related to their profession in English rather than German, thus testing their degree of internationalization, and second, whether responses given by those who responded in English differed from those given by the scholars who answered in German.

Figure 46 shows the results for the first question. On average, 62% of respondents kept their assigned language. Only 10% of those who were assigned to the German starting page switched from German to English, while 90% preferred to remain with German. On the other hand, 64% of those who saw the English starting page switched to German, while 34% decided to take the survey in English despite the option to switch. It can therefore be concluded that although the remaining data demonstrated that the German IR community is perfectly bilingual, the majority of German IR scholars preferred to answer questions about their profession in German. Only 10% - that means only 11 respondents in this case - actively preferred English over German for this task. Whether those 11 respondents are native German speakers or not is unclear. A control displayed that there is no significant variation of this trend across age and gender, although it might have been expected that Anglophone education in IR would lead more young people to switch from German to English. After all, they must have spent more time thinking and writing about their subjects in English than in German – whether it be their native language or not.

Figure 46 Overview language experiment, TRIP Germany



The second question was as follows: Do respondents who took the survey in English show a different profile than their colleagues who responded in German? The following sections discuss this question for the areas of theoretical approach, methods, ontology, and community allegiances.⁸⁴ Table App 49 (appendix) demonstrates that there are only small differences in the responses regarding theoretical

⁸⁴ All data tables related to the subject can be found in the appendix on pages 274ff.

approach between those respondents who took the survey in English and German. The clearest differences can be found among those who selected Constructivism or Liberalism⁸⁵ as their main theoretical approach and among those who selected Other. Thirty-six percent of scholars who responded in German said that their main theoretical approach is social constructivism compared to only 30% of those who responded in English. This trend applies to those who were assigned to a German starting page and did not change their language as well as to those who switched from English to German (see Table App 49). This is yet another indication of the relatively strong stance of social constructivism in *German IR*, since it seems that those who feel most comfortable in German seem to have an even stronger preference for this approach than others.

Furthermore, the percentage of respondents who identified with a liberalist approach is more than twice as high among those who responded in German than among those who responded in English. This trend is even stronger among those who did not switch languages and a little weaker among those who switched from English to German. Last but not least, almost twice as many English-language respondents chose the response option “Other” than did their German-language colleagues. This trend is stable across those who remained with their assigned language and those who changed it to English. This could be an indication of greater dissatisfaction with the given categories among the more internationalized scholars. However, given the relatively small N-value for each individual response category, and even more so among those who changed from German to English and answered the question about their theoretical approach (only 10 in total), none of these findings should be overrated.

In the context of methods, the average difference between those who responded in German and those who did so in English is insignificant. However, there are some interesting trends to be found in a comparison between those who switched away from their assigned language and those who did not (see Table 48). Of those respondents who did not switch away from their assigned language of English, including those who did not bother to do so, 88% selected qualitative analysis as their main method, while only 56% of those who actively switched to English did. On the other hand, of those who remained with their assigned German survey questionnaire, 77% selected qualitative analysis, while of those who actively changed to German, 85% did. For quantitative analysis, this trend is the exact opposite. Of those who remained with English, only 9% selected quantitative analysis, while 33% of those who actively chose English selected quantitative analysis. Again, given the small N values for this test, not too much

⁸⁵ It has to be noted yet again that the category of Liberalism, as it is used in the 2014 TRIP survey, is not congruent with how most German IR scholars would probably define it, that is, as the influence of domestic characteristics of states on their international relations. Many scholars who are likely to work with a sociological or historical institutionalist approach are probably spread across Constructivism, Liberalism, and Other.

should be read into these numbers, but there is indication of a trend. Those scholars who seem to be most internationalized, those who actively chose English as their language of operation, have a preference for quantitative methods, and those who have the strongest preferences for the German language have a stronger preference for qualitative methods.

Table 48 Language change and primary method, ZIB

	Did not change from assigned language				Changed from assigned language to			
	English		German		English		German	
Method	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Legal or Ethical Analysis	0	0%	0	0%	1	11%	0	0%
Policy Analysis	1	2%	5	5%	0	0%	0	0%
Qualitative Analysis	38	88%	70	77%	5	56%	63	85%
Quantitative Analysis	4	9%	12	13%	3	33%	8	11%
Pure Theory	0	0%	4	4%	0	0%	3	4%
TOTAL:	43	100%	91	100%	9	100%	74	100%

A supporting, although weaker trend, can be read from the data on language assignment and ontology. While 21% of respondents who did not switch away from their assigned language of English reported working with a “soft rational choice” approach, 30% of those who actively switched to English did so. However, more respondents who actively changed to German identified with this approach than those who did not switch their assigned language. On the other hand, only 11% of those who remained with German as their assigned language reported that their “work does not assume the rationality of actors,” while 23% of those who actively changed to German did. For English, the opposite trend is visible for this response category but with only a marginal difference in percentage points.

In terms of community allegiances, the comparison between English-language and German-language respondents, independent of their originally assigned language, demonstrates the largest differences in geographically defined response categories. A larger share of those respondents who took the survey in German (9%) said that they felt part of a national IR community than those who took the survey in English (2%). On the other hand, more scholars who took the survey in English identified with a regional IR community (14%) than those who took it in German (8%). An equally large share of respondents said that they feel they are members of a global IR community independent of the response language (14%). Given the large amount of response options for this question and the relatively low N-value, it becomes impossible to draw any conclusions from the numbers across those who changed their assigned language and those who did not. Only for the largest group, those who said that they feel part of an issue-specific IR community, is there a small trend visible. A larger share of respondents who did not

change their language felt part of such a community than those who did change their language, independent of the language originally assigned to them. However, there is no logical explanation for this trend since switching languages as such is not an indicator of being either more or less internationalized.

In summary, the language experiment showed that although the German IR community seems to be fully bilingual and internationalized, when given the choice, most IR scholars in Germany prefer to answer questions about the profession in German. Those who did actively change their assigned language to English and even those who remained with English as their assigned language, thus those who did not bother switching, show a slight tendency toward quantitative methods, a liberalist approach, and a rationalist ontology. Those respondents who either remained with German as their assigned language or actively changed it to German show a slight preference for Constructivism and qualitative methods and do not assume the rationality of actors. These findings are in line with the other trends identified over the course of this chapter.

5.3 Conclusions about IR in Germany

This chapter described the German IR community, its members' preferences for research and writing, and their perceptions of community allegiances and disciplinary divides. This was based on data from the 2014 TRIP faculty survey and a content analysis of all articles published in German flagship journal *ZfA* between 2011 and 2015. The analysis shows that Germany has a relatively young IR community with a large share of women compared to other IR communities. Unfortunately, the survey also showed that German IR suffers from a "leaky pipeline" problem and that the relative gender equality observed in early career ranks evaporates once scholars reach permanent professorships.

Furthermore, the analysis showed that German IR scholars are more oriented toward IR theory and the study of international organization(s) than the global average. However, the overall picture is one of paradigmatic as well as theoretical pluralism and a rejection of ontological warfare – despite the fact that more IR scholars in Germany than anywhere else in the world self-identify as social constructivists. Their methodological orientations are overwhelmingly qualitative – again, above average as compared to other IR communities. Interestingly enough, however, German IR scholars perceive methodology and epistemology as the most salient divides in the field, followed by theoretical divisions.

The analysis of *ZfA* articles supported this image of the German IR community. The vast majority of articles have a social constructivist or sociological/historical institutionalist framework. The second largest category was rational-choice institutionalism, which once again proves that an analysis of

German IR research practices that omits institutionalism as a separate response category (as was the case with the TRIP surveys from the beginning) ignores a large part of the community's identity. Realism is almost completely absent from the *ZIB* – as are Marxism and Feminism. Other critical approaches, i.e., post-structuralism, post-colonialism, and securitization (Copenhagen School), have a role to play in the *ZIB*, but they appear in the discussion section rather than in the main research articles. The picture of theoretical pluralism that emerged from the TRIP survey also shone through the journal data. Most articles in the *ZIB* address several theoretical approaches, although fewer actually apply more than one.

The *ZIB* data also confirms the picture of Germany as a methodologically homogenous community. A vast majority work with a qualitative nature of argument and design their research based on a single or (less often) a comparative case study. The only point where survey and journal data point to opposite directions is in regards to how often German scholars conduct process tracing. While two-thirds of all qualitatively oriented TRIP respondents in Germany claim to use this approach, only one out of 62 articles published in the *ZIB* between 2011 and 2015 qualifies as process tracing.

Another major finding is that the German IR community is fully internationalized with regard to its publication strategies and use of language for research and writing. English is regarded as the discipline's lingua franca and almost two-thirds of scholars report having published more than half of their work in English-language peer-reviewed publications in order to reach the global IR community and advance their careers. At the same time, however, the majority of German IR scholars do not consider English versus German an "either/or" proposition. Rather, they are fully bilingual, and a majority believe in retaining German-language publications and quoting German-language sources to keep a communicative space alive.

Furthermore, German IR scholars overwhelmingly self-identify with an issue-specific community, while they also feel they are part of a global and regional IR community. The survey's various "beauty contests" demonstrate the dominance of (constructivist) U.S. scholars, of U.S. and British graduate programs for PhD training, and of Anglo-American IR journals. Compared to the Anglo-American dominance, European and German scholars, IR journals, and PhD programs are appreciated but are at a distant second.

Based on a language experiment that was built into the survey, it became clear that the majority of German IR scholars – despite being bilingual and seemingly internationalized – prefer to answer questions about their profession in German. Only 10% of respondents actively changed the randomly assigned language of their questionnaire from German to English. Those 10%, who can be considered the most internationalized members of the German IR community, together with those who kept English

as their originally assigned language, display a slightly higher preference for quantitative methods, Liberalist approaches, and a “soft rational choice” ontology. Those who either remained with German as their assigned language or actively switched from English to German, on the other hand, demonstrate a slightly higher preference for qualitative methods, Constructivism, and a rejection of rational choice. It seems, therefore, that those respondents who can be assumed to be least internationalized match the German IR profile that emerged from the survey and the analysis of *ZIB* articles the most, while those who are considered most internationalized in their language use are closer to a profile that is more characteristic of the Anglo-American core.

It can be concluded, therefore, that while the German IR community seems relatively homogenous in its research preferences, there are also some tensions. First, despite its relative homogeneity and clear research profile, many German IR scholars demonstrate an admiration for Anglo-American scholars and institutions that seems to be incongruent with the typical German IR profile. Second, while German IR on average looks homogenous, there is a gap between more and less internationalized scholars as identified by their preferred language use. Those respondents who took the survey in German, interestingly enough, align most closely with the type of research that is published in the German flagship journal *ZIB*.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

6.1 Summary and synthesis of findings

This dissertation has revolved around questions of how diverse the IR discipline is and what patterns of dominance are shaping it. I approached these questions through an in-depth study of IR scholarship in eight IR journals published in North America, Latin America, and Europe and used findings from the 2014 TRIP survey as a point of reference. I based my study of the journals' geographical, thematic, and theoretical diversity on a threefold definition of the term that distinguishes between the three properties of variety, evenness, and dissimilarity. The first refers to the number of regions, theories, and topics studied by a journal and the number of countries of affiliation in which its authorship is based. Evenness refers to the relative intensity with which each of the present regions, theories, and topics are studied and the relative presence of each of the countries of affiliation in the journal. In the context of this dissertation, dissimilarity refers to the relative mix of critical and non-critical theories, the mix of regions under study, and the authors based in the global South and the global North. The latter has special relevance to the debate on global IR to which this dissertation contributes.

On the whole, the level of diversity is at a medium level for the journals under study. The published scholarship is rather diverse due to a relatively broad variation of theory and themes as well as regions across the journals under study, but the values do not match the numbers displayed by the survey respondents across the globe that suggest a higher degree of diversity. The values tend to be lower for the individual journals. This is especially the case when looking beyond the standard parameter variety. In fact, while some of the journals cover a wide range of theories (FI, ISQ, and EJIR), topics (APSR and ISQ), and regions (all journals), none of the journals scored a high level of evenness or dissimilarity for any of the areas of investigation. Following my definition of dominance as low evenness and/or dissimilarity, I can conclude that there are a number of cases of dominance with an impact on the discipline at large. The clearest of these cases is the dominant presence of US-based scholars, who constitute the largest group of authors in five of the seven journals and the second largest in yet another one. Indeed, with the exception of in Chilean EI, US-based scholars are found virtually everywhere.

Authors based in the US unsurprisingly form the strongest group of authors in the North American journals and do so with an immense margin, resulting in an extremely uneven geographical authorship distribution. The fact that US-based authors constitute up to 85% of all authors in the three North American journals also means that there is little room for others. This little room is taken by authors based in the UK, Canada, and Australia and by a few authors based in one of the large IR communities of continental Europe, such as Germany. That is, all three journals demonstrate a low level of

dissimilarity in their authorship that prevents them from acting as a global publishing ground in spite of their indisputable global impact.

Additionally, while US-based authors can disseminate their work broadly, and US-based authors who are able to publish in Spanish (or have a good translator at hand) can easily spread their research to Latin America, the opposite is not the case. There is less than a handful of authors based in any Latin American country among the authors published in IO, ISQ, or APSR. Consequently, the wide-open passageway for U.S. scholars to IR communities all over the globe is a one-way street. This is also true for Latin American and other global South authors who want to be published in Europe. While there are quite a number of Europe-based scholars who are published in FI and especially EI, there are close to no Latin America-based authors published in the otherwise diverse EJIR and none in BJPoS. The European Journal of International Relations and BJPoS also have a low level of dissimilarity, and they primarily publish works of Western scholars based in either Europe, North America, or any other part of the Anglo world.

Paradoxically, the omnipresence of Western scholars leads to a situation in which the Latin American journals, despite their relatively strong local authorship (50% in FI and 69% in EI), are less insular than the North American journals because authors from Latin America and the global North mix uniquely in these journals, compared to the other journals in this study. This is probably the case for many more journals published outside of Europe or North America. Even if most of the US- and Europe-based scholars would be Latin Americanists with a special interest in the region, this still brings together scholars with more dissimilar backgrounds than is thinkable for the rest of the journals, creating an island of relatively high diversity.

The focus on Western regions is strongest in the three North American and two European journals, giving them an insular view of the world. In the North American journals, this focus is accompanied by a strong focus on international analysis. In EI and FI, the two Latin American journals, the focus is placed much more on Latin America itself, mixed with some studies on the West, especially Latin America–West relations. In parallel to Western authors who are published anywhere, Western regions are also studied everywhere and to a strong degree, while global South regions are almost absent from all journals, with the exception of EI and FI, which focus on their host regions. This overall stronger focus on the West fits the majority of IR scholars' perceptions that the discipline is Western dominated, as shown by the 2014 TRIP survey.

The absence of non-Western IR theorizing, which the data demonstrated, fits into this picture as well. This trend is strongest in the four journals with the highest share of US-based authors: IO, ISQ, APSR,

and BJPOLS. However, U.S. authors are in a group in which the fewest members regard the discipline as dominated. Whether this is just a correlation or if there are larger reasons is yet unclear. An important finding of this dissertation is that there is not much non-Western theorizing in the Latin American journals either. While the journals are strongly focused on the region and are characterized by a strong presence of Latin American authors, this local focus does not seem to translate into a higher amount of local theorizing. This is again interesting in light of the survey outcomes on this thematic complex, since a strong majority of authors based in Latin America regard the development of local IR theories as important. Another majority sees non-Western theorizing as important to counter the perceived Western dominance of the discipline. There is therefore a gap between the perceptions reflected in the survey and the wishes of authors and what is actually published in the local journals. While the support for countering Western IR is stronger in Latin America than in Europe, the presence of non-Western IR theorizing is actually strongest in EJIR. This trend fits the journal's overall focus on the development of the discipline and its reflectivist profile.

This profile is, to a large degree, shared by one of the larger contributing groups to EJIR, the German IR community. My case study has demonstrated that German IR is characterized by a strong preference for theoretical pluralism and empirical diversity. This echoes EJIR's focus on Constructivism and its relatively high levels of theoretical evenness and dissimilarity, which set it apart from the other journals. This pluralism and diversity has achieved somewhat of a hegemonic status in Germany, meaning that the majority of the community follows this type of eclectic research, according to the survey data and the analysis of ZIB. The survey data also demonstrated that the German IR community is strongly internationalized and rather comfortable in its position as a strong national research community, with firm connections to the global and U.S. communities, which is also visible in the fact that Germany is among the top contributors to EJIR and the North American journals after the US and the UK.

The chapter on Germany, furthermore, displayed that the perception of scholars and the research published in the journal closest to their community match, at least in this case. What is remarkable in this regard is that those survey respondents who chose to take the survey in German rather than English were closest to the profile confirmed by ZIB, while those who did the opposite, changing from German to English, demonstrated a more rationalist profile with weaker preferences for the journal's sociological institutionalist profile. Scholars' perceptions of Western dominance in the discipline were also largely confirmed by the journal data presented in this thesis. With regard to regions under study, the Latin American scholars were also much closer to their local survey benchmarks than to the global average. On the whole, however there were greater discrepancies between the local journal data in EI and FI and the Latin American survey data than between the German survey data and ZIB.

In addition, there are some clear patterns that suggest that there must be strong correlations across multiple dimensions of diversity. Most of the journals have a similar profile for geographical content and authorship diversity. Latin American scholars are the primary authors in Latin America, and Latin America is the primary region under study in EI and FI. Continental European and UK-based authors make up a large group of authors in EJIR and BJPoS, and both journals study European regions in great detail. However, the North American journals are insularly dominated by US-based authors but do not focus on the US or North America as such. The journals with the highest shares of US-based authors (IO, ISQ, ASPR, BJPoS) have the strongest focus on the international level (i.e., highest share of articles coded as solely global for region under study), indicating a correlation between authorship and scholarship. This is supported by the fact that this type of study with a global perspective is almost completely absent from the Latin American journals.

Furthermore, EI, with its more regional profile, publishes considerably fewer articles on the US than FI, which is characterized by its strong focus on US–Latin America/Mexico relations. A correlation between geographic content and authorship diversity can also be read from the strong presence of Latin American authors and articles on Latin America in the Latin American journals in general and the almost complete absence of both Latin American authors and content in any of the other journals. Last but not least, the language experiment for the German IR community demonstrated that those members of the German IR community who are least internationalized in terms of their language preferences match the German IR profile that emerged from the survey. The analysis of ZIB articles also matched the European profile, most reflected by EJIR. Those survey respondents who seem most internationalized based on their language use, on the other hand, are closer to a profile that is more characteristic of the Anglo-American core.

These potential correlations suggest that an increase in global South scholars in the other journals should lead to an increase in the number of studies on global South regions, or at least on the authors' exact regions of affiliation (i.e., there was almost no research on any global South region except for Latin America in EI and FI). The data does not suggest as strongly that a change in authorship would lead to a change in topics or theories, despite the strong focus on foreign policy studies in the Latin American journals. Additionally, the language experiment provides reason to doubt that an increased geographical diversity in terms of authorship would lead to an increase in content diversity, since the experiment suggests that those scholars who are most internationalized have a different profile than those related most closely to their home market. If this preliminary finding proves to be stable over the course of future studies, it can be expected that Latin American scholars who publish in English and outside of their region would also assimilate to their respective journal's profile instead of increasing its diversity.

6.2 Discussion of findings and implications

The next step is to consider how these findings relate to wider literature on diversity and dominance in IR. First of all, Acharya (2016) conceptualized global IR to mean, among other things, “[embracing] greater diversity by recognizing the places, roles, and contributions of ‘non-Western’ peoples and societies” (p. 1). My findings offer a mixed picture of the realization of global IR as envisioned by Acharya. First, one needs to distinguish between those cases in which “places, roles, and contribution of ‘non-Western’ peoples and societies” are discussed empirically and those in which they serve as the basis of IR theorizing. For the first variation, I find evidence for what Vasilaki (2012) called “parallel stories.” Latin American journals, considered non-Western by both Acharya and myself in this dissertation, focus strongly on Latin America as a region under study. The other journals, however, are almost silent about this region. This means that there is no global exchange about Latin American experiences but rather a local specialization on the home region of journals. This observation is supported by the finding that the other journals also focus on their broadly defined home regions. In this context, it is interesting that the “home region” of US-based authors seems to be the international stage, since those journals with the highest share of US-based authors published the highest number of studies with a global reach. Based on these observations, global IR is far from being realized. What is more, Latin American journals, on average, do not pay more attention, but rather less attention, to non-Western countries and regions outside of Latin America than the other journals.

My findings on the second aspect of global IR – non-Western theorizing – demonstrate that the Latin American journals are only slightly more committed to locally informed theorizing than the North American journals and BJPoLS, and they are less committed than EJIR. The relatively strong presence of non-Western theorizing in EJIR might be a sign of a general rise of this type of theorizing or might be a particularity of the reflectivist and inward-looking type of scholarship published in EJIR. In any case, global IR based on knowledge sources “beyond Greco-Roman and North American” sources is not yet a reality. This might change in the future, or this might have already increased after ISA’s focus on global IR from 2015 onward but is just not visible in my data.

A large part of the literature on diversity and dominance in IR revolves directly or indirectly around the concept of national and regional schools. This makes one consider if EI and FI can be considered expressions of a Latin American school of IR. My findings delivered a mixed picture again. Many Latin American scholars publish in these journals, but that alone cannot qualify as a regional school of IR. What does speak for something typically Latin American about the research that has been published in these journals is the clear focus on Latin American politics. The strong focus on foreign policy analysis mixed with a unique consideration of topics like regional integration, North-South relations, and

economic interdependence form a characteristic research profile. What is more, this profile and focus on Latin America is nowhere to be found outside of EI and FI. Nevertheless, two related aspects work against a regional school narrative. First, the general theoretical profile of neither FI nor EI is particularly different from what is published elsewhere. If anything, EI stands out with its large proportion of atheoretical articles. This confirms earlier findings by Wæver and Tickner (2009) about intellectual monotony across regions and normative considerations against the existence of indigenous IR theorizing expressed by Chen and Cho (2016), Makarychev and Morozov (2013), and Vasilaki (2012). While both journals display a trend of non-paradigmatic theorizing (EI more so than FI), the levels are not out of the ordinary and actually less gravid than in APSR or BJPoS. The levels lie perfectly within the margins of the survey benchmark values. Although it is possible that the approaches summarized in this category differ strongly from those summarized for IO or ISQ, the low level of localized theorizing counters the idea of radically different approaches with Latin American characteristics.

Given the strong critique against particularism as a way of establishing more diversity in general (Albert und Zürn 2013; Vasilaki 2012) and the critique about national schools and local/indigenous theorizing more specifically (Shilliam 2011; Bilgin 2008), it is not clear whether a strengthening of this local type of IR should be desirable for Latin America scholars. What became clear from my comparison of my journal findings to the canon of survey questions on the perception of IR, however, is that scholars based in Latin America *do* perceive this strengthening as desirable. In strong contrast to their European colleagues and the published reality in EI and FI, survey respondents based in Mexico, Argentina, and Chile demonstrated that they a) regard their regional scholarship to be less sophisticated than American IR and b) regard the development of local IR theories as important. An investment into local theorizing could, therefore, be expected for EI and FI, but this is not (yet) mirrored in the reality of what is published in these journals.

Another question is whether such a development *within* Latin American IR would help strengthen the diversity of IR on a global scale. As Cho (2013, p. 9) noted for the case of a Korean school of IR, “making [it] marketable globally is necessary” to ensure universality. To paraphrase Aydinli and Mathews (2000), IR studies flourishing outside the US do not automatically signify an internationalization of the IR discipline if this internationalization does not create dialogue. Consequentially, locally informed Latin American theorizing must not only be discussed on a global scale, but it must be picked up by scholars and in journals of diverse origins—just as large IR theories developed in Europe and the US are accepted outside of the West. While one might be tempted to argue that the US-based scholars all over the world function like a connection between all communities and communicative spaces, this can be doubted based on the findings of Gläser and Aman (2017) who found that U.S. authors tend to cite each other

almost exclusively, independent of the journal they publish in. *Mutual recognition* (Aydinli and Mathews 2000) and globally integrated communicative structures are necessary to achieve diversity that goes beyond particularism and pluralism, as envisioned by Acharya (cf. Vasilaki 2012; Albert and Zürn 2013). This mutual recognition, based on the authorship and thematic diversity of IR in Latin America, Europe, and North America, as studied in this dissertation, does not exist.

On a broader level, my findings support Turton's (2015) conclusions about an American institutional preponderance in the discipline. However, while I also found that U.S. scholars are (almost, see EI) everywhere, they do not dominate all journals. This finding was supported by the fact that I did not look at variety alone but also at evenness *and* dissimilarity. For example, while U.S. scholars constitute the largest group of authors in EJIR, they do not dominate the journal because almost as many authors are based in the UK, and the journal publishes a great number of scholars based in different communities in continental Europe. This makes EJIR a transregional hub, which is – unlike insular IO, ISQ, and APSR – open to scholars from across the (Western) world. In addition, while US-based scholars are present in FI, I do not regard this strong presence as a sign of dominance but rather as one of high dissimilarity. In this sense, FI is a bridge between the periphery and the core community, an intellectual hub at the border between the global South and the global North. Whether this and other signs of diversity constitute internationalized communication flows as operationalized by Gläser and Aman (2017) needs to be demonstrated in future research. Furthermore, my findings confirm what Wæver already concluded in 1998, namely that US-based scholars publish all over the world, while European scholars are much less present in U.S. journals and non-Western scholars are almost absent.

I agree with Turton that American dominance is not the largest problem in IR. There are, however, some strong patterns that show Western dominance in IR is real. While Turton touched upon this point only when she discussed the rise of non-Western IR theory as a sign of diversity and a cure against theoretical dominance, I regard this as a different type of dominance that is not congruous with American dominance. The outcomes of the experiment on Western/American dominance presented in Chapter 4.4 demonstrated that Western dominance is perceived significantly more strongly than American dominance by scholars in all regions, while this treatment effect was stronger for scholars in Europe and the US than for other respondents. The most obvious sign of this Western dominance is that non-Western IR theory plays no major role in any of the journals under investigation, even the two Latin American ones. Whether this is because there is not much non-Western IR theorizing to be published to start with or whether such articles do not make their way into the journals is unclear – although much speaks for the former. In any case, the findings definitely mean that the rest of the theoretical

approaches published *are* rooted in Western history, thinking, and probably a kind of epistemology, which reflects low theoretical dissimilarity.

However, it is not the theorizing alone that leads me to the suggestion that it is Western dominance, not American dominance, that characterizes the discipline. First, all journals except for FI and EI are dominated by a regional focus on the West (i.e., Western Europe and North America). Second, many articles, even in FI and EI, cover Western Europe/Canada and the US even though these two journals are otherwise dominated by research on Latin America. Third, even if U.S. scholars are more dominant, scholars from other Western countries are also represented in all journals, including EI and FI. Scholars based in the global South are clearly underrepresented in all journals. While the two Latin American journals seem to be an exception, this is only in the sense that many scholars based in Latin America (i.e., part of the global South) are published in these journals. Scholars from other corners of the global South, unlike scholars based in the global North/West, are underrepresented in these journals as well.

Then, there are patterns of low diversity that go beyond American and Western dominance altogether. The European Journal of International Relations is a journal with a strongly inward-looking perspective in the sense that so many of the articles published in EJIR deal with the study of the discipline and/or theory development. Not least because of the relatively high proportion of non-Western articles, it would be wrong to classify EJIR as displaying Western or American dominance. The same is true for IO and EJIR's strong focus on what are most likely institutionalist approaches (i.e., a combination of Liberalist and Constructivist).

Furthermore, while these are patterns of dominance in the sense of low evenness, this does not mean that such foci need to be something negative. This applies to almost all other findings in this dissertation. Although there are clear signs for dominance, quantitative predominance based on the uneven presence of topics, authors, and theories does not necessarily entail oppression or "American agenda-setting," as Turton conceptualized it. In addition, this does not automatically reflect "benign hegemony" as suggested by Mearsheimer (2016). Regarding my findings as results of conscious agenda-setting would suggest that authors do not have their own personal agendas and interests but that they are puppets in a game played by "American IR"—whether in a benevolent fashion or not.

Two things are important to remember in this context. First, while there is some degree of geographical authorship diversity to be found across cases, it is US-based authors who dominate the most influential journals in the field. The reason for this could be that these journals are tailored for the skills and interests of the largest market, the US. People who are trained in and for the U.S. market, and to a lesser degree in and for the UK market, learn how to write an article for IO or equivalent journals. These people

need these articles to have a career at U.S./UK universities. Second, this dominance would not be problematic if the discipline would deal with it more consciously and transparently and stop fixating as much on these journals as it does. If the audience for these journals were as insular as its authorship, there would not be a problem. However, the entire discipline is encouraged to listen to what US-based authors write. That can lead to discrepancies in what is perceived as cutting-edge and what scholars around the world are actually engaged in.

What is most important is that authors have agency. Although there may not be consciously malicious editors deciding what is published where, authors from some communities do not want their work to be published in certain journals because it does not fit their research profiles or ambitions. It may not be as necessary for a scholar based in Latin America to publish in IO as it is for a US-based post-doc who wants to achieve tenure. The high bar IO sets in terms of theoretical work may not be unreachable because of different trainings in different countries, but this may also be something that some scholars do not regard as worth investing in (cp. Wæver and Tickner 2009). Another possibility is that, in line with Friedrichs (2004b) and much of my observations from the 2014 TRIP survey experiment, scholars from outside of the US and more broadly the West regard their chances in a dominated discipline to be so low that they do not even try to be published in any of these prestigious journals. On the other hand, it might well be necessary for IR scholars in the US with an interest in Latin America to publish in Spanish in order to keep in touch with their sub-community. The Latin American Studies Association (LASA) based in the US is larger than even the ISA, and it seems that FI is a preferred outlet for its members. The TRIP survey suggests that on average, IR scholars identify most with issue-specific communities (see Figure 45), and the vivid mix of US-based and Latin American/Mexican scholars in FI could be a direct result of this preference. What speaks to this in a different manner is Maliniak et al.'s (2018) finding that scholars based in some Latin American countries – notably Chile and Mexico – identify more with their regional and national communities than with a global IR community.

My findings from the German language experiment, although weakened by the low N-values, suggest a trend that there are more and less internationalized types of scholars in any community and that the research preferences of these two types diverge. A German scholar with a research profile that fits the German mainstream might actually be better served by a well-received publication in ZIB than outreach to the profiles of more quantitative journals abroad. The TRIP survey results demonstrate that the majority of scholars in Germany regard it as important to sustain a German academic discursive space. This is not necessarily because it is a last resort when other, more internationally impactful journals keep their work out, but possibly because it is a space in which ideas and approaches that would wilt in other places can bloom. It may be better to stop worrying so much about whether the “top journals”

are keeping their gates open and start appreciating more diverse journals like German ZIB and Chilean EI or transregional hubs like Mexican FI and EJIR for what they are, leaving IO, ASPR, ISQ, BJPoIS and their like to be what they are: proliferation grounds for US-based scholars. It may be better to let these scholars talk to themselves and draw from their conversations what one needs, without thinking that research published outside of these spaces is in any way worth less.

What this all comes down to is a discussion about the agency behind dominance. For example, scholars might rely on Western/U.S. theory not because they mean to reinforce its superior position in the discipline, but because they simply do not know any alternatives. This may be because of their own (parochial) training or missing language skills. They may also genuinely regard certain theories as the most useful tools for their research, not caring about their geographical or intellectual origin. In addition, Western/U.S. theory might be dominant due to a lack of alternatives in the sense that non-Western sources of knowledge and a Western understanding of theory are simply incompatible. Dominance, therefore, could be existent in terms of pervasiveness without anyone ever having intended it to be like this.

6.3 Avenues for future research

Since this has been an exploratory study with a limited methodology and limited geographical scope, there are many opportunities to build upon my findings in future research. What needs to be done first to increase the reliability and validity of this research is a major revision of the TRIP codebook, especially in the area of theoretical approaches. With only the “large” four approaches spelled out, one of them being almost absent from the journals (Marxism) and another being an ontology (Constructivism), it is impossible to learn much about the theoretical diversity of journals. What is more, the catch-all category “non-paradigmatic” needs to be replaced by an “other” category with an open field for different approaches. This is not least necessary because not only the journal analysis but also the TRIP survey have demonstrated that “non-paradigmatic” tends to be the largest category across cases and response countries. The journal data presented in Chapter 5, which especially contrasts with the survey outcomes, demonstrated that a more nuanced codebook is worth the effort since without it, it would have been impossible to understand the core of German IR’s theoretical preferences for institutionalism. It might not be that institutionalism is the missing block in all journals and countries, but the chapter illustrated that there is more to IR than is currently covered by either the survey or the TRIP codebook. It is also not unreasonable to say that Turton (2015) found such a high degree of theoretical variety with her study due to her open coding scheme, which she developed alongside her analysis.

Second, the existing data needs to be approached with more advanced methodological approaches. As a start, cross-tabulations across dimensions are necessary in order to test my hypotheses about the correlations between geographical and thematic diversity as well as those between authorship and content levels. For example, so far, I have only found that US-based scholars and Europe-based scholars are the two primary groups of authors in EJIR and that EJIR has a strong focus on theory development. A next step would be investigating whether there is a difference between what US-based scholars publish in EJIR and what Europe-based scholars publish. Furthermore, it could be of value to find out who is the driving force behind the journal's strong theory profile or whether there actually is a single driving force at all. Additionally, it would be worth it to gain a better understanding of what type of research is published by US-based scholars in the Latin American journals and whether my hypothesis about the outreach of issue-area-specific sub-communities across countries holds.

Even more relevant to the question of global IR would be to find out whether there is something distinguishable about what Latin American and other underrepresented groups of authors publish in English-language journals. As Jones (2003, p. 108) put it in one of the first special issues on geographical diversity in IR, "It is not often the case that these voices [of highly visible IR scholars in 'India or postwar Japan'] have been permitted into the global discourse on IR because of the heterodox or anti-hegemonic wisdom that accompanies them; rather, these voices have been accepted in the mainstream because they have learnt the orthodoxy." The question would thus be whether these scholars indeed assimilate to the broader journal context or whether they publish different kinds of research. This kind of analysis could be realized with the already existing dataset.

Third, while I argue that intention does not matter for a quantitative study on diversity and dominance, this does not mean that it should not be investigated. Intentional dominance could be in existence as a means of gate-keeping, whereby actors actively exclude scholars and types of knowledge from the mainstream discourse in order to secure the power dominance. The findings from my survey experiment suggest as much as to say that respondents located in Europe and North America are less in favor of countering American/Western dominance than those located in Asia and Latin America. On the individual level, there could be scholars who actively and consciously decide against citing non-U.S./Western sources. Therefore, in addition to the more sophisticated quantitative studies, I suggest that further research pursue complementary qualitative studies in order to find out more about scholars' and editors' intentions in the context of journal communication in IR.

Fourth, geographical, theoretical, and thematic diversity need to be complemented by an analysis on institutional diversity to identify patterns within national IR communities. At the moment, US-based authors and those based in any other country are treated as a homogenous group, while it might well

be that different journals are dominated by scholars affiliated with or trained at certain schools. Kristensen found that American dominance is largely driven by a few elite institutions in the northeast of the United States, with a similar stratification visible in Europe (Kristensen 2015a). Including this dimension in future iterations of this study would help to, for example, understand what type of US-based scholar publishes in Europe and Latin America. As another example, it would be insightful to know whether those US-based scholars who do publish in FI and EI are indeed Latin Americanists or if they are broader IR scholars. The same is true for the question of who the few non-U.S. scholars who get published in IO, ISQ, and ASPR are, as well as the few global South scholars who get published at all outside of their home regions.

Information on authors' CVs could support this additional line of analysis and help in identifying correlations between authors' backgrounds, their academic migration patterns, and their publication profiles. This would be a valuable addition to the current study. This would, for example, help to track authors trained and socialized in Germany in other communities and demonstrate whether their publications in English really differ from what is published in ZIB, as the language experiment suggested. Data on authors' CVs would also allow for a consideration of authors' ranks (e.g., full professor, PhD student). Hamati-Ataya (2012, p. 636) suggests that "in IR, theorizing the different positions regarding plurality is related to the social positions of the scholars involved in the debate (...). And indeed...strong attacks on plurality generally correspond with relatively 'dominant' positions in the field, while outright defense seems to come from the more 'heretic' perspectives" (cp. van der Ree 2014). Following this logic, it would be interesting to see whether those authors who correspond most with the journals' profiles are those with the highest status. In addition, an investigation like this could show whether it is primarily researchers in their early careers and/or "non-dominant" groups in the field who engage in non-Western IR theorizing.

Fifth, another valuable next step should be to apply the framework presented in this dissertation to a broader set of cases. This is especially necessary, since most of my findings have been obtained through largely explorative case studies. Journals edited in Asia qualify as a logical expansion of this study. International relations is growing in this region and the tension between strong home markets that are partially isolated from the Anglo-American core and the simultaneous effort to attain internationalization that characterizes many Asian IR communities, especially China and Taiwan but also Japan (Alagappa 2011) constitutes an ideal foundation for further testing, expanding on the preliminary findings about diversity and dominance developed in the course of this dissertation. Brazil, on the other hand, with its large but linguistically distinct academy would be a logical extension of the Latin America case study. Similar logic applies to the extension of the Europe case study to encompass journals edited

in Scandinavia or France. A first step in this direction would be to study German IR in the same way as the journals in Chapter 4 were studied. Furthermore, while the inclusion of two Spanish-language journals—EI and FI—in the comparative case study constitutes a milestone in the study of the discipline in and of itself, more such case studies on non-English-language journals are necessary to grasp the spectrum of geographical and thematic diversity and dominance in IR.

Sixth, neither of the two studies presented in this dissertation included any citation data (i.e., data on the bibliographies of articles published in the eight journals). Data on citations would be used in two ways in the context of the study. First, it can be used as the basis for an analysis of intellectual rooting (cp. Wemheuer-Vogelaar 2013). This would require analyzing the geographic (and institutional, see above) diversity of authors and the thematic diversity of the works cited by the articles under investigation. An analysis like this could bring to light some deeper findings about the discipline's intellectual structure. For example, it would be fascinating to see whether the predominantly Latin American authors in EI and FI also cite the works of Latin American scholars. It would be even more interesting to see whether I could support Gläser and Aman's (2017) findings that US-based authors almost exclusively cite US-based authors even when they publish in non-U.S. journals, for example EI and FI. The second use for the citation data would be to study audiences, and thus works and their characteristics, that cite my eight journals under study, as Gläser and Aman did in their study. A special challenge for both lines of investigation would be to cover the citation data for EI, FI, and ZIB, which are all not listed in the WoS, the database used by Gläser and Aman.

Seven, the findings about German IR have to be checked through an analysis of what German IR scholars publish outside of Germany. It is necessary to check whether those scholars and publications demonstrate a different profile than the scholars in German-language ZIB. Additionally, a (anonymized) comparison between different works of the same author would help us check whether German IR scholars are as eclectic as the "Tetlock" question on the survey suggested, for example, and possibly whether one and the same author publish differently in German than in English or whether an author publishes differently in a European journal than in a North American journal.

Last but not least, my research framework based on the threefold diversity concept and dominance as a potential manifestation of low evenness and/or dissimilarity could be transferred to other areas of research in IR and the sociology of science. My study proves that it is necessary to go beyond the measurement of variety in order to really understand diversity. Diversity is more than the presence of many different types of any one thing. It is about the possibility of a dialogue between ideas and people with different characteristics (Albert and Zürn 2013), and such a dialogue cannot take place without a certain level of balance and a mixture of fundamentally different ideas and actors.

Appendix

TRIP journal content analysis codebook

Codebook and User's Guide for TRIP Journal Article Database

Revised February 2015, by Wiebke Wemheuer-Vogelaar

Original version: Daniel Maliniak, Michael J. Tierney, Susan Peterson, and Ryan Powers

Coding Process

This TRIP sub-project on international relations (IR) in Latin America is in the process of coding the population of articles published in two Mexican IR journals. These two journals are *Revista de Relaciones Internacionales de UNAM* (RRI) and *Foro Internacional* of the Colegio de México (FI). In the first round of coding we included articles published between 2000 and 2014.

Author's name (A#Last_Name, A#First_Name, A#Middle_Name). We enter the first, middle, and last name of all authors listed.

Paradigm advanced/advocated by author or used to guide analysis (Paradigm). Here, we measure the paradigm used to frame the research question and answer.

This variable can take one of six nominal values. Some scholars might refer to these categories more narrowly as theories or more broadly as approaches, but we adopt the term most commonly used in the literature to refer to these four major schools of thought.⁸⁶ One might divide the literature in other ways (in terms of levels of analysis, issue area, or epistemology); hence, we attempt to capture such variation in the literature with additional variables specified below. If an article combines or synthesizes two or more paradigms, rather than advancing one in particular, this variable is coded to reflect the paradigm that appears more prominently. If these paradigms are equally prominent in the article, then the coder chooses the paradigm that is mentioned first. We do not code articles based on the publicly stated preferences of the author. Instead, we read the article to determine which paradigm is advanced in this particular piece of research. So, if Alexander Wendt writes an article that argues that the distribution of power influences the probability of war, that article is coded as "realist," even though nobody in the discipline would consider Wendt a realist. The unit of analysis is the article. The six values for "Paradigm" are listed below:⁸⁷

⁸⁶ Katzenstein, Keohane and Krasner refer to these four categories as "general theoretical orientations" and distinguish them from "specific research programs" (Katzenstein et al 1998).

⁸⁷ We include within each school all the variants. For example, neorealism, structural realism, offensive realism, and classical realism are all included in our "realist" paradigm. Neo-marxist and neoliberal approaches similarly fall under the broader paradigmatic categories because they share core assumptions with Marxism and liberalism, respectively. For a narrower (and more conceptually coherent) definition of liberalism see Moravcsik (2003). We include neoliberal institutionalism under the liberal category because this choice is consistent with discourse in the field of IR, not because we believe it is analytically the cleanest choice. Further, excluding neo-liberal institutionalism from the liberal paradigm would inhibit comparisons to other work in the field that has attempted to catalog trends in IR.

- Realist
- Liberal
- Marxist
- Constructivist
- Non-paradigmatic
- Atheoretic/None

Authors drawing upon a particular paradigm tend to focus on certain dependent variables, but **paradigms are defined primarily by their core assumptions and secondarily by the independent variables they emphasize.** Paradigms are not defined by their dependent variables.⁸⁸ Hence, there are both realist theories of war and liberal theories of war. They differ not in their attempt to explain why wars occur but in their core assumptions and in the explanatory variables they privilege in empirical research.

Realist articles frequently employ the following assumptions: (1) states are the dominant actors in international politics; (2) states are unitary, rational actors; (3) states pursue their interests, which are defined in terms of power; and (4) the international system is anarchic. To be considered a realist article, it is necessary for the role of power or anarchy to be *the* key explanatory variable.⁸⁹ Other explanatory variables that are frequently employed in realist analyses include hegemony, polarity, offense-defense balance, or relative and absolute power.

We code an article as liberal if it is consistent with the following assumptions: (1) the primary actors in IR are individuals and private groups who organize and exchange to promote their own interests; (2) states represent some subset of (domestic and, sometimes, foreign) societal actors through domestic political institutions, which transmit demands to government officials authorized to act in the name of the state;⁹⁰ (3) the nature of the international system (including state behavior and patterns of conflict and cooperation) is defined by the configuration of state preferences rather than the distribution of power or the dominant system of economic production; (4) as a result of shifting patterns of preferences states may develop shared norms and institutions, which serve some of the functions typical of institutions within domestic polities (see Moravcsik 2003; Doyle 1983; Keohane 1984; and Keohane and Nye 1977). Liberals often highlight the importance of the following causal variables (and at least one should appear for any article to be coded as “liberal”): domestic institutions, the preferences of societal actors and transnational actors, the relative competitiveness of economic producers in the international market, economic interdependence, international law, regimes, international institutions, ideas, and beliefs.

We code an article as Marxist if it is based on the following assumptions: (1) economic actors are the dominant unit of analysis in international politics; (2) the international system is hierarchic; and (3) mechanisms of domination perpetuate underdevelopment. Marxist approaches tend to focus on class structure, the global capitalist system, and the role of elites within that system as the primary causal

⁸⁸ For an alternative approach that includes the DV as part of the coding criteria for paradigm, see Vasquez, *The Power of Power Politics*.

⁸⁹ For the first systematic empirical study along these lines see Vasquez, *The Power of Power Politics*.

⁹⁰ Hence, both the underlying structure of preferences among potential governing coalitions, and the specific domestic rules that structure political bargaining and transmit demands are crucial to determining the preferences of a state in IR.

variables in their explanations. Some Marxist approaches do invoke the role of “cultural hegemony,” but these ideas reflect the interests of the dominant economic class within society.

We code an article as constructivist if its authors assume that the identity of agents and the reality of institutions are socially constructed. Constructivists employ many IVs that are typical of Liberalism—such as regimes, norms, identities, and institutions—and even sometimes of realism or Marxism. In addition to the causal variables they share with other paradigms, constructivists frequently examine organizational culture, discursive processes, and principled beliefs as explanatory variables. Constructivists certainly are associated with the “ideational turn” in IR research, but they have no monopoly on ideational explanations and many articles that invoke the importance of ideas do not fit within the constructivist paradigm. We include constructivism as the fourth major research paradigm in IR not because it is perfectly analogous to the other three paradigms⁹¹ but because it has become the fourth major category for organizing research by IR scholars (Katzenstein et al 1998; Nye 2003). While the term “constructivism” did not enter the IR lexicon until the 1990s, articles that share the features described above published prior to the use of the term “constructivist” can still be coded as “constructivist.” For example, Wendt’s work in the late 1980s is coded as constructivist even when he and others are giving it different names.

We also employ a “non-paradigmatic” category, which captures articles that do advance or test a coherent theory, but do not fit comfortably within one of the four major paradigms outlined above. We do not imply by this choice that the previous four paradigms are superior to alternatives in the IR literature—such as feminism, English School, post-modernism, cognitive psychology, or a host of other potential rivals—but only recognize the fact that the first four paradigms are the most prominent and frequently discussed in the IR literature. Theoretical approaches that build upon local sources of knowledge (see below) but do not fit any of the four main paradigms are also coded as non-paradigmatic. All other approaches with local characteristics that do fit one of the descriptions above must be coded as realist, liberalist, Marxist or constructivist. The fact that these articles employ local sources of knowledge should then be coded in #9.

Those articles that do not employ any theory at all are coded as “atheoretic.” Generally, these atheoretic articles are purely descriptive or test inductively derived hypotheses that are not related to any theory or paradigm.

Special reference to local sources of knowledge (Local_paradigm*)

This variable measures whether the theoretical approach of the article employs sources of knowledge with local, that is national (e.g., Mexican) or regional (e.g., Latin American), characteristics. Whether the theoretical approach is paradigmatic (realist, liberalist, Marxist, or Constructivist) or non-paradigmatic

⁹¹ In fact, unlike Realism, Liberalism, and Marxism, Constructivism does not suggest any particular substantive model of politics or human behavior. As Adler (2002) explains, constructivism is not “yet another IR ‘ism’, paradigm, or fashion.” Instead, constructivism is a “meta-physical stance, a social theory, and an IR theoretical and empirical perspective.” Hence, constructivism may be less a paradigm or theory of politics than a meta-theoretical approach within which a variety of specific theories could be built. This leaves open the possibility of a “liberal-constructivist” or a “realist-constructivist approach to IR.

is of no consequence. Sources of knowledge include history, politics, philosophy, culture, religion, and more generally thinking about international politics that refers to an academic discourse within the country/region that is not or only loosely related to mainstream IR.

- No
- Yes
- N/A

We code this variable as “Yes” if the authors either directly refer to their theoretical approach as having local characteristics (e.g., in the approach’s name) or if the author is not consciously pushing a new approach but is building the majority of his/her theoretical framework on local sources of knowledge (see above) and/or uses empirical examples that directly refer to events in local history *in constructing the theoretical framework*. An empirical example for the *application* of a mainstream theory does not qualify for an approach with local characteristics (for this case see #19 of this codebook). Also throwaway lines like “American IRT is not capable of explaining this phenomenon” without any attempt of an alternative approach are coded as “No.”

It is not necessary for the article to be written by a local author (citizenship, country of birth) or even an author who is affiliated with a Latin American university or research institution for the article to be coded “Yes” for #9.

We code this variable as “No” if the article does not contain any substantial reference to local sources of knowledge. This could mean that the authors are applying pre-existing, mainstream paradigms/approaches without amending them or that the non-paradigmatic approach applied draws from other sources of knowledge, including Western history, philosophy, etc., but also other “non-Western/mainstream” approaches (e.g., from India). Should the latter be the case, this should be remarked on in the note section at the bottom of the coding scheme.

We code this variable as “N/A” if the article does not bring forward any kind of theory and was coded as “Atheoretical/None” in #8.

Paradigms taken seriously by author or used as alternative explanation (Paradigm_Taken_Seriously_*)

This variable captures which paradigms are discussed in a serious way—that is, treated as alternative explanations, used to derive testable hypotheses, or used to frame the research question. A simple “straw-man” depiction of an alternative paradigm does not qualify as “taken seriously.” Instead, the reader needs to learn something about the utility, internal logic, or scope conditions of the alternative paradigm (or a specific model following from some alternative paradigm) in order to be categorized as “taken seriously.” The fact that a particular model or theory has implications for a given paradigm does not mean that the article takes that paradigm seriously. With one exception, we DO NOT allow the same value to be entered for #10 as for #8. For example, if an author is advancing a “defensive realist” approach and he/she tests an alternative “offensive realist” approach, then the coder would enter

“realist” for #8 but not for #10.⁹² The one exception in which we DO allow the same value to be entered for #8 and #10 is when the value selected in both cases is “non-paradigmatic,” and the paradigm or non-paradigmatic explanation advanced (#8) and the paradigm or non-paradigmatic explanation taken seriously (#10) are different. We employ the same values as in variable #8 above. If no other paradigms are taken seriously in an article, then the coder should click on “Atheoretic/None.”

Issue Area (Issue_Area). This nominal measure includes sub-fields of IR: International Security, International Political Economy, Human Rights, the Environment, Health, IR Theory, U.S. Foreign Policy, Comparative Foreign Policy, History of IR Discipline, Philosophy of Science, and International Law. In addition to issue areas within IR, we have values for other sub-fields of political science so that we can track non-IR articles in IR journals. The value of this variable reflects the primary issue area to which the article contributes. For “Comparative Foreign Policy” we include articles that actually compare the foreign policy processes of different states but also include articles that analyze the foreign policies of any state other than the US. So, an article on the foreign policy of Italy is coded as #7, Comparative Foreign Policy. But an article on U.S. decision-making on foreign policy issues is #6, U.S. Foreign Policy. If the article is about Domestic/Mexican foreign policy, select “Comparative Foreign Policy” for this variable (#22) and “Yes” for “Domestic/Mexican Foreign Policy” in the next question (#23). If it deals with domestic (in the case of RRI and FI, this would be Mexican) politics (as equivalent to “American Politics”) select “Comparative/Mexican Politics” for this variable (#22) and “Yes” for “Domestic Politics” in #23. The value 12 refers to an article that makes a “general” argument about IR that could apply to more than one of the issue areas (yet it does not specify whether it is International Security, International Political Economy, Health, etc.). If more than one issue area is specifically addressed in a substantive manner, the most prominent issue area or one listed first is coded (assuming the article is not “general”). **In general, the dependent variable determines the issue area.** So, an article that explains how war influences trade patterns is an IPE article. An article that explains how trade patterns influence the probability of war is coded as an International Security article. Note that we capture more specific information that is often closely related to issue area in variable #28, “Substantive Focus.” Variable #28 allows multiple substantive areas to be selected. So, in the examples offered above both articles would be tagged as addressing both “inter-state war” and “international trade.” Users of the database can thus sort articles either based on the broad “issue area” variable or on the more specific “substantive focus” variable.

- International Security
- International Political Economy
- Human Rights
- Environment
- Health
- IR Theory
- U.S. Foreign Policy
- Comparative Foreign Policy

⁹² While there is certainly some value to measuring the amount of intra-paradigmatic debate, our purpose is to measure the degree to which scholars advancing one paradigm are simultaneously engaging or taking seriously arguments from alternative paradigms. Of course, “Non-Paradigmatic” theories can be “taken seriously” or synthesized with one or more of the big four and we capture this in our coding.

- History of the IR Discipline
- Philosophy of Science
- International Law
- Other
- General (or non-specific)
- International Organization
- Methodology
- Comparative Politics
- American Politics
- Political Theory

Issue Area extended. This variable substitutes issue areas with a U.S. reference with their Latin American equivalents and specifies the value “comparative foreign politics” and “comparative politics” respectively.

- **Local domestic politics.** The coder coded “Comparative Politics” for the previous variable and the article deals with domestic Latin American (Mexican) politics.
- **Local foreign policy.** The coder coded “Comparative Foreign Politics” for the previous variable and the article deals with domestic Latin American (Mexican) foreign politics.
- **N/A.** The coder coded anything but “Comparative Foreign Politics” or “Comparative Politics” for the previous variable

Substantive Focus (Substantive_Focus_*). This variable captures the substantive focus of the article, often measured as the DV used. There may be multiple values in this column—that is, an article may have more than one substantive focus. Unlike all other variables in this codebook, the values of these variables for coder #1 and #2 do not have to match in order for the data to be sunk into the database.⁹³ So, this variable captures the substantive focus of the article broadly conceived. Hence, some articles will have as many as three to four different values selected for this variable. Values are selected from the following list:

- Environment
- WMD proliferation and arms control
- Inter-state war
- Economic interdependence
- Regional integration
- International (intergovernmental) organization(s)
- Terrorism
- Trade
- Balance of power
- International law
- North-South relations

⁹³ This policy for substantive focus was modified slightly on September 10th, 2012. The previous policy did not allow senior coders to correct against incorrect codes for substantive focus. The new policy allows senior coders this privilege.

- Development
- Alliances
- Transnational actors/ NGOs
- International regimes/International norms
- Regime type
- Foreign policy
- Weapon systems, defense spending and arms races
- Bargaining, deterrence, and strategy
- Sanctions
- Diplomacy
- Foreign aid, lending, and debt
- Monetary policy
- Domestic politics
- Intra-state conflict/civil war
- Interstate crisis (international conflict short of war)
- Public opinion
- Migration/immigration
- Public health/infectious disease
- The study of the IR discipline
- Military/humanitarian Intervention or peace-keeping
- Ethnicity and/or religion⁹⁴
- Other: _____

Region under study. If an article *specifically* employs evidence from a particular region or country/countries within that region, we list the region. If more than one region is mentioned, we list each region. If the study concerns all regions of the world (such as an article about total IMF lending) and *does not make references to particular regions/countries*, we code it as global. If an article is coded as “global” because of a large n study that includes a large number of regions, we still select particular regions if the article also contains a case study or otherwise focuses on those regions in greater depth. If an article’s theory claims to explain *all* global phenomena, but only selects evidence for specific countries/regions, we only enter values for the variables pertaining to those specific regions. For instance, an article claims that all states balance power within the international system and has two case studies—one case study examines US-Soviet relations during the Cold War and the other examines India, Pakistan and China. We code this article with the following values: 0, 4, 6, and 7. However, if an article claims to explain all cases of human rights regimes and gathers data on the entire population of human rights regimes, we code this as “global” even if there has never been a human rights regime in East Asia or Antarctica. Similarly, if the study intends to be global in nature but data limitations restrict the number of regions covered (there is no good data on infant mortality in Oceania), it is still coded as “global.” The idea here is not to arbitrarily limit the designation of “global” based on the distribution of data on certain topics. If the sample of the researcher is indeed global and would select cases for analysis from all regions if they were available, then we code the article as “global.” If an article focuses on the foreign policy behavior of actor X in country Y, we click the boxes for the regions of both

⁹⁴ This value was added in June 2009. So, it was not an option for articles reconciled before that date. If users want to use this variable they should only analyze articles from volumes 2 and 4 from 1980-2006.

countries. So, if an article analyzes the U.S. military surge in Iraq, we click both “US” and “Middle East/North Africa.” These categories contain the following countries:

United States of America (Region_under_Study_US).

Canada and Western Europe (Region_under_Study_Canada_and_We)

Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Canary Islands (Spain), Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Vatican City

Latin America and Carribean (Region_under_Study_Latin_America)

Antigua, Argentina, Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Cayman Islands, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, French Guiana, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Martinique, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Suriname, St. Kitts & Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad & Tobago, Uruguay, Venezuela [all possessions, ex. St. Barts, Guadeloupe, Bermuda, Puerto Rico]

Sub-Saharan Africa (Region_under_Study_Sub_Saharan_A)

Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros Islands, Cote d’Ivoire (Ivory Coast), Democratic Republic of Congo (Kinshasa), Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Republic of Congo (Brazzaville), Rwanda, Sao Tome & Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe

FSU/Soviet Union/Eastern Europe, including Central Asian states except Afghanistan (Region_under_Study_FSU_Soviet_Un)

Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, East Germany (German Democratic Republic) from 1949 to 1990, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan

Middle East/North Africa (Region_under_Study_Middle_East_N)

Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco (incl. Western Sahara), Bahrain, Gaza & West Bank, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey (incl. Turkish Cyprus), United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, etc.), Yemen

East Asia (Region_under_Study_East_Asia__in)

China, Hong Kong, Japan, Mongolia, North Korea, South Korea, Taiwan, Tibet

South Asia (Region_under_Study_South_Asia__i)

Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka

Southeast Asia (Region_under_Study_Southeast_Asi)

Brunei, Cambodia, East Timor, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar/Burma, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam

Oceania (Region_under_Study_Oceania)

Australia, Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji, French Polynesia, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Nauru, New Zealand, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu

Antarctica. (Region_under_Study_Antarctica)

Global (Region_under_Study_Global)

None (Region_under_Study_None_purely_h)

Global Pathways journal analysis codebook

CODING PROCEDURE

Every article is coded by one coder, and every fourth article is coded by two. All articles are reviewed by senior coders (also referred to as arbitrators).

All variables are coded exclusively on the basis of the article text. If coders (based on the codebook) disagree with what the author claims s/he is doing, they nevertheless code what the author says s/he is doing without second-guessing it. That is, we want to identify community structures based on self-identification. Authors can self-identify with a theoretical approach or a methodology by calling the approach/method by its name, by using characteristic key terms, or by citing famous reference works.

Coders first read the article's title, introduction, and conclusion and code as much as possible based on these elements. The reasoning behind this is that we code what the authors say they do (see above) and one would expect that any author identifies all of her/his central elements and arguments in these sections. If some variables can still not be coded based on these sections of the article, the coders start reading the other sections. Using the search function of the PDF reader helps find relevant information. If an article does not have an abstract and/or introduction and/or conclusion, the coder skims the entire article.

The value "cannot identify" is listed for many of the variables in this codebook. Coders should select this value whenever they are unsure about the response for the variable in question. Whenever they do so, coders are asked to leave a note in the comment section describing why they selected this value and what they think the right response option could be. Coders should also include page number references to the respective sections of the article.

Self-formulated text for open text fields (other:.....; describe:.....; specify:.....comments:...) should always be in English. Coders add key terms in the original language in parentheses.

THEORETICAL APPROACH(ES) ADDRESSED

With this variable, we indicate the theoretical approach or approaches the author deals with substantially and in a positive manner (for theoretical approaches rejected by the author, see Theoretical Approaches Rejected).

We only code theoretical approach(es) that play an active role in the article. Mere hints or throwaway lines do not count as approach(es) addressed. We consequently select approaches for this variable if the author a) employs them to frame the article's question and answer, b) describes them in detail as the article's object (for example, in a historiographic description of the discipline), or c) mentions them as sources for competing explanations without rejection the approach at large. This variable can take one or several of 12 values.

A simple "straw man" or "one line" depiction of an approach ("The time for Realist explanations has passed") does not qualify as a substantial discussion of it. Instead, an article's reader needs to learn something about the utility, internal logic, or scope conditions of the approach.

Whenever an author takes variables from other theoretical approaches to serve in their statistical or qualitative explanatory model as control variables then these approaches have to be coded as “addressed.”

We do not code articles based on the publicly stated preferences of the author. Instead, the unit of analysis is the article. So, if Alexander Wendt writes an article that argues that the distribution of power influences the probability of war, that article is coded as “realist,” even though nobody in the discipline would consider Wendt a realist.

Authors drawing upon a particular theoretical approach tend to focus on certain dependent variables, but theoretical approaches are defined primarily by their core assumptions and secondarily by the independent variables they emphasize. Theoretical approaches are not defined by their dependent variables. Hence, there are both realist theories of war and liberal theories of war. They differ not in their attempt to explain why wars occur, but in their core assumptions and in the explanatory variables they privilege in empirical research.

Some of the values for this variable overlap. For example, we list English School as a separate value although most English School articles could easily fit in one of the other categories. However, since we attempt to identify communities and their boundaries, we are interested in self-images of authors. Hence, if an article makes an explicit reference to the English School (or international society more broadly) he or she self-identifies with this school. The assumption then is that this school intersects with a community in the discipline. This logic of self-identification applies to the identification of all theoretical approaches. Self-identification takes place whenever an author explicitly names the theoretical approach in question, cites authors listed under “famous references works,” or makes use of the terms listed under any approach’s “characteristic key words” when discussing an approach in a positive manner.

- Realism
- Liberalism (domestic IR)
- Rational Choice Institutionalism
- Norms/Sociological Institutionalism/Historical Institutionalism
- Social Constructivism
- English School/International Society
- Copenhagen School/Securitization
- Feminism
- Postcolonialism
- Marxism/post-Marxism
- Other
- No theoretical framework
- Cannot identify

□ Realism

Realist articles frequently employ the following assumptions: (1) states are the dominant actors in international politics; (2) states are unitary actors; (3) states pursue their interests, which are defined in terms of material power; and (4) the international system is anarchic. To be considered a realist article it is necessary that the role of power or anarchy is the key explanatory variable. Other explanatory

variables that are frequently employed in realist analyses include hegemony, polarity, offense/defense balance, or relative and absolute power.

We do not distinguish between variations of realism, for example, classical realism, neorealism, or defensive or offensive realism.

Characteristic key words:

- unitary actors
- material power
- anarchy
- power distribution/balance of power
- unipolar/multipolar/bipolar
- great power politics
- global/regional hegemony
- offensive vs. defensive realism
- balance of threats
- classical realism: statesmen, pessimistic view on human nature
- security dilemma
- zero-sum games
- relative gains
- rational actors

Famous reference works:

- Waltz, Kenneth (1979). *Theory of International Politics*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Grieco, Joseph M. 1988. *Anarchy and the limits of cooperation: a realist critique of the newest liberal institutionalism*. *International*
- Morgenthau, Hans. "Politics Among Nations: The Struggle for Power and Peace" (1948) New York NY: Alfred A. Knopf. *Organization* 42 (3): 485-507.
- Mearsheimer, John J. (1994). "The False Promise of International Institutions". *International Security*. 19 (3): 5–49.

□ Liberalism (domestic IR)

We code an article as liberal if it follows the assumption that domestic characteristics of individual states matter for their international relations. Central actors in IR according to Liberalism are not states as unitary actors but individuals and private groups who organize and exchange to promote their own interests. According to Liberalism, states represent some dominant subset of domestic society whose interests they serve. The configuration of these interests or preferences across the international system determines state behavior, while governmental decisions are the product of internal deliberation/compromise-forming processes. Moreover, liberalism in IR also emphasizes domestic institutions and regime types, such as democracy/autocracy, or market economy. Consequently, the foci of Liberalist articles are (1) domestic processes of preference formation; (2) the relationship of democracies (and less often autocracies) to peace and war; and/or (3) attempts to theorize international politics "inside out" or "from the bottom up."

Typical explanatory variables include regime type, preferences (including commercial interests and ideological beliefs) of societal actors and transnational actors, the relative competitiveness of economic producers in the international market, and economic interdependence.

Characteristic key words:

- democratic peace
- domestic politics
- domestic level
- regime type
- (domestic) interests and preferences
- non-state actors, interest groups
- market actors
- two-level game; politics “inside out” or “from the bottom up”
- rational actors

Famous reference works:

- Moravcsik (1997): *Taking Preferences Seriously*
- Kant (1795): *Zum ewigen Frieden*
- Allison/Zelikow (1971): *Essence of Decision*
- Doyle (1983): *Kant, Liberal Legacies, and Foreign Affairs*
- Czempel (1986): *Friedensstrategien*
- Putnam (1988): *The Logic of Two-Level Games*

□ Rational Choice Institutionalism/Neoliberalism

The focus of analysis for Rational Choice Institutionalism work is the cooperation between states under anarchy. Institutionalists, therefore, share many of Realism’s assumptions about the international system—that it is anarchic; that states are self-interested, rational actors seeking to survive while increasing their material conditions; and that uncertainty pervades relations between countries. However, Rational Choice Institutionalism (RCI) reaches a radically different conclusion than Realism, namely that cooperation between countries is possible. The central insight is that cooperation may be a rational, self-interested strategy for countries to pursue under certain conditions (see Keohane 1984).

Central actors in RCI are states/governments, transnational societal (often economic) actors, and international organizations. Central problems/topics include (1) a microeconomic perspective, i.e., creating institutions to overcome the uncertainty that undermines cooperation and to solve collective action problems; (2) the rational design of international institutions as the answer to functional cooperation problems; and (3) the nature and extent of variation in legal arrangements on the international level.

Typical variables of RCI include absolute gains to be maximized through competition (e.g., in trade); uncertainty to be reduced through iterated games (time horizon), reputation, and punishment; information and (non-)compliance; efficiency through reducing transaction costs (centralized forum); and interdependence, sensitivity, and vulnerability. A central focus of RCI work is the rational design of international organizations. Variables belonging to this focus include membership rules (inclusive vs. restrictive); scope (single- vs. multi-purpose); centralization of tasks; and the flexibility of arrangements (adaptive/transformativ).

A specific branch of RCI is the so-called legalization literature, which builds its analyses of institutions around three core elements of obligation (degree of “bindingness”), precision (of legal rules), and delegation (e.g., of dispute settlement bodies to third parties) (see Abbott et al. 2000: 401).

Characteristic key words:

- iterated games (time horizon); tit-for-tat
- reputation and punishment, reciprocity
- “shadow of the future”
- absolute gains
- regimes
- Neoliberalism/Neoliberalist
- collective action problems; tragedy of the commons
- interdependence, sensitivity, vulnerability
- transaction costs
- (non)compliance, cheating
- game theory, prisoner’s dilemma, situation structural approach
- legalization, judicialization
- (Global Governance)

Famous reference works:

- Keohane/Nye (1977): Power and Interdependence
- Keohane (1984): After Hegemony
- Axelrod (1984): The Evolution of Cooperation
- Oye (1986): Cooperation under Anarchy
- Simmons (2002): Capacity, commitment, and compliance: International institutions and territorial disputes
- Rittberger et al. (1993): Regime Theory and International Relations
- Goldstein et al. (2000): Introduction: Legalization and World Politics
- Abbott et al. (2000): The Concept of Legalization
- Koremenos et al. (2001): The Rational Design of International Institutions

□ Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism

This value has a broader scope than Realism, Liberalism, and Rational Choice Institutionalism. We code this value for articles that deal with norms and institutions but do not assume the rationality of actors or advance an explicit reference to □ the English School or any of the other theoretical approaches specified in this codebook. Articles that fall under this value often operate explicitly or implicitly with a Constructivist ontology, meaning that they assume that the world (and with it the international system) is socially constructed. In that case, coders should choose both values, □ Social Constructivism and □ Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism.

The two primary theoretical approaches of this category are □ Sociological Institutionalism and □ Historical Institutionalism, and we assume that they form one theoretical community within IR. It is therefore not necessary to distinguish between them when choosing this value.

SOCIOLOGICAL INSTITUTIONALISM

While Rational Choice Institutionalism assumes that actors seek to maximize expected utilities, if need be by creating and using institutions, Sociological Institutionalism focuses on socially embedded actors

enacting norms of appropriate behavior. It seeks explanations for why organizations take on specific sets of institutional forms, procedures, or symbols. Another focus of analysis of Sociological Institutionalism is the question of how such practices are diffused through organizational fields or across nations. The more heavily constructivist branch of Sociological Institutionalism focuses on the highly interactive and mutually constitutive character of the relationship between institutions and individual action.

Central actors are individuals, social groups, and networks. Studies with a Sociological Institutional approach often inquire how these actors are socially embedded. Norms play a central role in Sociological Institutionalism: norms and rules, not merely interests, constitute states. Institutions have the role to embed norms and socially acceptable practices and to exert regulative and constitutive functions. Often working with a Constructivist ontology, Sociological Institutionalism assumes that actors are not irrational, but what an individual will see as “rational action” is itself socially constituted.

Central problems/topics include: (1) institutions defined as the symbol systems, cognitive scripts, and moral templates that provide the “frames of meaning” guiding human action; (2) socialization defined as “process of inducing individuals into norms and practices of a given society” (Checkel 2005); and (3) norms defined as “standards of appropriate behavior for actors with a given identity” (Finnemore/Sikkink 1998: 891).

Key variables of Sociological Institutionalism include strategic calculations of individuals; preferences; self-images and identities of social actors; and institutional forms, images, and signs provided by social life.

Characteristic key words:

- regulative and constitutive norms
- logic of appropriateness vs. logic of consequences (March/Olsen)
- socialization
- (world) cultural scripts (Stanford School)
- norm life cycle; isomorphism
- identities
- diffusion
- symbol systems
- bureaucratic culture
- (Global Governance)

Famous reference works:

- Hall/Taylor (1996): Political Science and the Three New Institutionalisms.
- Meyer et al. (1997): World Society and the Nation-State.
- Bulmer (1998): New Institutionalism and the Governance of the Single European Market.
- Finnemore/Sikkink (1998): International Norm Dynamics and Political Change.
- March/Olsen (1998): The Institutional Dynamics of International Political Orders.
- Checkel (2005): International Institutions and Socialization in Europe.

HISTORICAL INSTITUTIONALISM

As the name suggests, this version of institutionalism states that “history matters.” Paths chosen or designed early on in the existence of an institution tend to be followed throughout the institution's

development. Institutions will have an inherent agenda based on the pattern of development, both informal (the way things are generally done) and formal (laws, rule sets, and institutional interaction). Its main differentiation from Rational Choice Institutionalism is that it assumes bounded rationality of actors, which regards individuals as satisfiers rather than utility maximizers. It is close to Sociological Institutionalism in the way it emphasizes the degree to which the choice of a course of action depends on the interpretation of a situation rather than on purely instrumental calculation.

Its focus of analysis lies on the relationship between individuals and groups on the one hand and institutions on the other. Social actors are thereby seen as an entity deeply embedded in a world of institutions, composed of symbols, scripts, and routines, which provide the filters for interpretation of both the situation and the actor itself. Out of this a course of action is constructed. Not only do institutions provide strategically useful information (Rational Choice Institutionalism), they also affect the very identities, self-images, and preferences of actors (Sociological Institutionalism). States hardly ever play an independent role in Historical Institutionalism.

The most important variables in Historical Institutionalism include: (1) institutions defined as formal or informal procedures, routines, norms, and conventions embedded in the organizational structure of the polity or political economy; (2) historical processes and their effects on current behavior; (3) path dependencies (institutions develop along particular paths; emphasis on unintended consequences); and (4) institutional change (slow moving/gradual or “critical junctures” [in times of crisis]).

Characteristic key words:

- cultural approach, bounded rationality
- scripts; routines
- institutions as “ideas frozen in time”
- “inefficient” history (March/Olsen): path dependency and unintended consequences
- critical junctures, institutional change
- routines and habits; role playing

Famous reference works:

- Steinmo et al. (1992): Structuring Politics: Historical Institutionalism in Comparative Analysis.
- Pierson (1996): The Path to European Integration: A Historical Institutional Analysis.
- Pollack (1996): The New Institutionalism and EC Governance: The Promise and Limits of Institutional Analysis.
- Hall/Taylor (1996): Political Science and the Three New Institutionalisms.
- March/Olsen (1998): The Institutional Dynamics of International Political Orders.

□ Social Constructivism/Reflectivism

Social Constructivism is often communicated as one of the main theoretical approaches (or even “paradigms”) in IR. However, strictly speaking, it is an ontology, not a theory. It is a set of assumptions about the world, human motivation, and agency. Its counterpart is neither Realism nor Liberalism nor Institutionalism as such but rather Rationalism. By challenging the rationalist framework that undergirds many theories of IR, Constructivists create constructivist alternatives in each of these approaches. The value of Social Constructivism, therefore, gets typically selected in combination with one of the other

approaches. The most likely combinations are Social Constructivism plus Norms/Sociological Institutionalism/Historical Institutionalism, Copenhagen School/Securitization, or English School/International Society. However, it may be combined with any of the values. The decisive criterion for coding Social Constructivism is whether the authors self-identifies with it by either calling Social Constructivism by this name or by its synonym “reflectivism” or by using the verb “to construct” in the context of norm/identity formation, etc. Constructionism can also be a signifier for Social Constructivism but not in all cases.

Constructivists go beyond objective facts and assign categories of interest—e.g., military power, trade relations, international institutions, or domestic preferences— to IR social meanings. These meanings are constructed from a complex and specific mix of history, ideas, norms, and beliefs by giving these categories their form by ongoing processes of social practice and interaction. Alexander Wendt, one of the leading figures of Social Constructivism in IR, calls two increasingly accepted basic tenets of Constructivism "that the structures of human association are determined primarily by shared ideas rather than material forces, and that the identities and interests of purposive actors are constructed by these shared ideas rather than given by nature" (Wendt 1999: 1). For example, Constructivists argue that the nuclear arsenals of the UK and China, though comparably destructive, have very different meanings to the US that translate into very different patterns of interaction.

A focus on the social context in which international relations occur leads Constructivists to emphasize issues of identity and belief. The perception of friends and enemies, in-groups and out-groups, fairness, and justice all become key determinants of a state’s behavior. While some Constructivists would accept that states are self-interested, rational actors, they would stress that varying identities and beliefs belie the simplistic notions of rationality under which states pursue simply survival, power, or wealth. Moreover, social constructivists argue that structure and agency constitute each other, i.e., agents are shaped by the structures surrounding them while their actions shape those structures in turn.

Characteristic key words:

- Social construction of reality
- Constructing, constructed, etc.
- Reflectivist, reflectivism
- Social meaning
- Mutual constitutiveness of agency and structure
- Structuration
- Endogenizing interests and preferences
- Social norms and collective understandings/identities
- Soft power

Famous reference works:

- Checkel (2005): International Institutions and Socialization in Europe.
- Wendt, Alexander. 1992. *Anarchy Is What States Make of It*.
- Wendt (1999): *Social Theory of International Politics*.
- Onuf (1989/2012): *World of our making: rules and rule in social theory and international relations*.

- Kratochwil (1991): Rules, norms, and decisions: on the conditions of practical and legal reasoning in international relations and domestic affairs.
- Kratochwil/Ruggie (1986): International Organization: A State of the Art on an Art of the State.
- Berger/Luckmann (1991): The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge
- Risse, Thomas. 2000. 'Let's Argue!' Communicative Action in International Relations.
- Guzzini, Stefano 2000. A Reconstruction of Constructivism in International Relations.

□ English School/International Society

The English School shares many key features with a number of theoretical approaches specified in this codebook, most prominently □ Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism and □ Liberalism (domestic IR) but also □ Realism. It rejects rational choice explanations of IR and instead emphasizes the centrality of international society and the social meanings of the study of world politics. The English School's goals are more similar to those of a historian: detailed observation and rich interpretations, often with a normative component.

States have agency under the English School, but the real actors are diplomats and leaders acting on behalf of their states and their institutions. Ideals and norms transform the international system of states into an international society. The recognition of the other is key to forming international society, e.g., membership in institutions only for states who keep their sovereignty.

We assume that the English School community is characterized by the use of common language (key terms, self-identification with the school). We, therefore, only code an article as English School if it explicitly associates itself with it by referring to it by name or by prominently using its key concept, "international society."

Characteristic key words:

- English School
- international society
- recognition of the other
- anarchical society
- international law, norms, ideologies, rules
- historical understandings
- solidarity
- justice

Famous reference works:

- Bull, Hedley (1966). International Theory: The Case for a Classical Approach.
- Bull, Hedley (2012) [1977]. The Anarchical Society: A Study of Order
- Butterfield, Herbert and Martin Wight (ed.) (1966). Diplomatic Investigations: Essays in the Theory of International Politics
- Wight, Martin (1991). International Theory: The Three Traditions. Leicester
- Buzan, Barry (1993). From international system to international society: structural realism and regime theory meet the English school

□ Copenhagen School/Securitization

The Copenhagen School has evolved around its main concept, Securitization. It emphasizes the role of speech acts in the creation of threats. Material reasons for the development of threats are considered irrelevant, and what is perceived as a security threat becomes one. The Copenhagen School, therefore, advances a critical social-constructivist perspective that regards security threats as a consequence of a process of framing: problems are referred to and accepted as existential threats and demand emergency measures (without offering alternatives). Referent objects (traditionally states or nations) are thereby said to be existential dangers. Securitizing actors include political leaders, bureaucracies, governments, lobbyists, and pressure groups. The process of securitization is considered successful if the audience (the entity targeted in the securitizing move) endorses the securitizing act, e.g., military actions. The reversed process is referred to as desecuritization.

The Copenhagen School's central contribution is to have widened the concept of security to non-military issues, thus including topics apart from war and war on terrorism, for example, migration, environment, climate change, public health, and religion. It favors an ex-post explanation of international relations by depicting change in the perception of security threats and thus explaining the process, not its underlying reasons. The idea behind securitization is compatible with a variety of approaches specified in this codebook. We therefore only code articles as Copenhagen School/Securitization if the author self-identifies with this theoretical approach by referring to the school or explicitly using the term "securitization."

Characteristic key words:

- Copenhagen School
- securitization; desecuritization
- speech acts
- non-military issues
- referent objects, securitizing actor, audience
- securitizing move, security act
- framing
- construction of threats
- emergency measures

Famous reference works:

- Wæver, Ole (1995). "Securitization and Desecuritization
- Buzan, Barry and Ole Wæver, Jaap De Wilde (1998). *Security: A New Framework for Analysis*.
- Huysmans, Jef (1998). "Revisiting Copenhagen: Or, On the Creative Development of a Security Studies Agenda in Europe."
- McDonald, Matt (2008). "Securitization and the Construction of Security." *European Journal of International Relations* 14.4: 563–587.
- Hansen, Lene (2013). *Security as practice: discourse analysis and the Bosnian war*
- Hansen, Lene (1997). *A case for seduction? Evaluating the poststructuralist conceptualization of security*

□ Feminism

Feminism in IR focuses on the situation and meaning of women in world politics. Feminist theory is closely linked to social movements, in particular, women movements. Rather than understanding

international politics as rational states' behaviors in an anarchic system, feminism focuses on social relations with an emphasis on the uneven distribution of power and value between men and women, or male and female. Central concepts include (1) gender (socially constructed sex); (2) patriarchy; (3) emancipation; and (4) androcentrism.

Feminist IR comes in many variations: Liberal feminism (positivist framework to examine gender subordination, and removing legal barriers is seen as the way to achieve equality), critical feminism (ideas are taken into account, revealing the power relation to change them), constructivist feminism (agent and structure are co-constitutive, ranges from a positivist to post-positivist focus on language), Feminist Poststructuralism (relationship between knowledge and power, language focus, exposition, and deconstruction of hierarchies), and postcolonial feminism (Western women's claims to universality are criticized). Many of these variations overlap with one of the other theoretical approaches specified in this codebook, and gender issues can be discussed from a variety of perspectives. We therefore only code articles as feminist if the author self-identifies with this theoretical approach.

Characteristic key words:

- Feminism; feminist
- emancipation
- androcentrism
- patriarchy
- gender subordination; gender (in)equality
- women's rights
- marginalized individuals
- power, domination

Famous reference works:

- Enloe, Cynthia (1989). *Bananas, Beaches and Bases: Making Feminist Sense of International Politics*.
- Sylvester, Christine (1994). *Feminist Theory and International Relations in a Postmodern Era*.
- Tickner, J. Ann (1992). *Gender in International Relations. Feminist Perspectives on Achieving Global Security*.

□ Postcolonialism

Postcolonialist IR theory sees current international relations as a normative world order that is shaped by colonial rule. According to these approaches, colonialism has not been overcome and its thinking and structures live on today. Even in places where colonial rule belongs to the past, colonially derived perceptions still legitimize the oppressive practices toward others.

Postcolonialists emphasize that political and military forms of colonial rule always co-occur with rule over concepts of how to see the world (e.g. the construct of Orient in contrast to the concept of Occident). They thereby seek to deconstruct dichotomies like center/periphery and civilized/uncivilized. They typically do not distinguish between the domestic, national, and international spheres.

More often than other theoretical approaches, Postcolonialism relies on, among other more traditional sources, fiction, art, and personal testimonies as sources of knowledge about colonial and post-colonial people and situations relevant to international relations. It contests rationalist, humanist, and other universalist views to create “truth” that advances justice, peace, and political pluralism.

Key words:

- Postcolonialism; post-colonial
- Decolonialism; de-colonial
- (European) imperialism
- colonial structures and identities
- border thinking and border crossing
- orient and occident
- power, domination

Famous reference works:

- Said, Edward W. (2003) [1979]. *Orientalism*.
- Spivak, Gayatri Chakravorty (2006) [1987]. In *Other Worlds: Essays in Cultural Politics*.
- Ngugi, Wa Thiong'o (1986). *Decolonising the Mind (Studies in African Literature)*.
- Bhabha, Homi K. (2004) [1994]. *The Location of Culture*.
- Mignolo, Walter (2012) *Local histories/global designs: Coloniality, subaltern knowledges, and border thinking*

□ Marxism/post-Marxism

We code an article as Marxist if it is based on the following assumptions: (1) economic actors are the dominant unit of analysis in international politics; (2) the international system is hierarchical; and (3) mechanisms of domination perpetuate underdevelopment. Marxist approaches tend to focus on class structure, the global capitalist system, and the role of elites within that system as the primary causal variables in their explanations.

We code all variations of Marxism under this value (classical Marxism, post-Marxism, neo- Gramscianism, etc.). Neo-Gramscian articles should be coded as “Marxist/post-Marxist” and ☐ “Social Constructivist.”

Characteristic key words:

- Classical Marxism: economic actors; domination; class; capitalist system
- (Post-)Marxism: dependency theory; world systems; core vs. (semi-)periphery; rule and exploitation
- Neo-Gramscianism: (cycles of) cultural hegemony; historical blocs

Famous reference works:

- Linklater (1990): *Beyond Realism and Marxism*.
- Cox/Sinclair (1996): *Approaches to World Order*.
- Wallerstein (between 1974 and 2011): *The Modern World System, Vol. I – IV*.
- Gramsci, Antonio (1982). *Selections from the Prison Books*. Lawrence and Wishart.

Other

We code articles that employ a clearly theoretical framework, which does not fall under any of the approaches specified, as "Other." Those articles typically employ one or several approaches imported from other disciplines, for example, cognitive psychology or microeconomics. Sometimes such seemingly imported approaches still fit the descriptions of one of the theoretical approaches specified and should be coded accordingly. "Other" approaches can also be approaches well known in IR that are not otherwise spelled out in this codebook, for example post-structuralism.

An article can contain one or several "other approaches." Whenever a coder selects this value, they should name the approach or approaches in the text field in the coding scheme dedicated to this purpose (if several, separate with a semicolon). Coders write this description in English but state the key terms in their original language in parentheses.

No theoretical framework

We code articles that do not employ any theory at all as having "no theoretical framework." Generally, these articles are purely descriptive or test inductively derived hypotheses that are not related to any theoretical approach.

Cannot identify

Coders choose this value whenever they are uncertain about which theoretical approach they should select. This can affect one or several of the approaches employed in the article. A senior coder will review articles within this category extensively and try to figure out which theoretical approach specified in this codebook (including "Other" and "No theoretical framework") applies best. Whenever a coder selects "Cannot identify" they should describe the problem they have identifying the approach or approaches in the open text field on the coding scheme that is dedicated to this purpose.

MAIN THEORETICAL APPROACH(ES)

This variable captures a sub-set of Theoretical Approach(es) Addressed. While we use the previous variable to indicate all approach(es) that are being substantially dealt with by the author, Main Theoretical Approach(es) indicates what the article's theoretical focus is. This could be approaches that are either employed to frame the article's question and answer or are described in detail as the article's object (for example, in a historiographic description of the discipline).

- No main theoretical approach
- Realism
- Liberalism (domestic IR)
- Rational Choice Institutionalism
- Norms/Sociological Institutionalism/Historical Institutionalism
- Social Constructivism
- English School/International Society
- Copenhagen School/Securitization
- Feminism
- Postcolonialism
- Marxism/post-Marxism
- Other

- Cannot identify

THEORETICAL APPROACHES SYNTHESIZED

With this variable, we indicate whether two or more of the approaches employed in the article are combined by the author. The result can be a new approach or an explanation based on the main assumptions or hypotheses drawn from at least two distinct approaches.

To be coded as a synthesis article, the author needs to be explicit about his/her intentions to do so. A synthesis, therefore, implies a conscious bridge-building effort between/among distinct theoretical approaches undertaken by the author. In most cases a synthesis will involve taking the explanatory variables from different paradigms and integrating them as part of a single explanation.

Cases in which an author tests two or more approaches against each other without eventually merging them, i.e., using variables from alternative approaches as control variables, do not qualify as synthesis.

Coders select all values for approaches combined in the article. All values for this variable must also have been coded under Theoretical Approach(es) Addressed and must not be coded under Approach(es) Rejected.

- No synthesis
- Realism
- Liberalism (domestic IR)
- Rational Choice Institutionalism
- Norms/Sociological Institutionalism/Historical Institutionalism
- Social Constructivism
- English School/International Society
- Copenhagen School/Securitization
- Feminism
- Postcolonialism
- Marxism/post-Marxism
- Other
- Cannot identify

THEORETICAL APPROACH(ES) REJECTED

With this variable, we capture theoretical approaches that are discussed substantially by the author of an article but are rejected by him/her for theoretical/ontological reasons. The author must explicitly reject the approach in order for it to be coded under this variable.

Approaches are rejected if the author a) rejects the entire approach and not just a subset of hypotheses derived from it and b) if this rejection plays a substantive part in the article. The rejection should play a central part in the article (mention it from the start; no throw-away lines).

Control variables from competing theoretical approaches that are rejected as an explanation for the article's subject matter do not count as a rejection. That is, we code rejections based on theoretical/ontological, not empirical, reasons.

- No approach rejected
- Realism
- Liberalism (domestic IR)

- Rational Choice Institutionalism
- Norms/Sociological Institutionalism/Historical Institutionalism
- Social Constructivism
- English School/International Society
- Copenhagen School/Securitization
- Feminism
- Postcolonialism
- Marxism/post-Marxism
- Other
- Cannot identify

ISSUE AREA

This nominal measure includes subfields of IR. In addition to issue areas within IR, we have values for other sub-fields of political science so that we can track non-IR articles in IR journals. The value of this variable reflects the primary issue area to which the article contributes. If more than one issue area is specifically addressed in a substantive manner, the most prominent issue area or the one listed first is coded (assuming the article is not “general”). In general, the DV determines the issue area. For example, an article that explains how trade patterns influence the probability of war is coded as an international security article.

Note that we capture more specific information that is often closely related to issue area in the variable “Substantive Focus.” “Substantive Focus” allows multiple substantive areas to be selected, allowing users of the database to sort by the broader “issue area” variable or the more specific “substantive focus” variable.

This variable can take on the following values:

- International Security

Refers to articles that deal with international conflict or interstate war, including international peace-keeping. This does not include civil war or other forms of intra-state conflict.

- International Political Economy

Refers to articles that describe international economic phenomena including trade, development, and global markets. IPE includes the effects of international issues on domestic economies, and these would not be coded as domestic or comparative politics.

- Human Rights

Refers to articles that discuss international human rights issues. This includes topics like the rights of disadvantaged groups, as well as studies on human rights offenses, including genocide.

- Environment

Refers to articles that describe causes on environmental and ecological change, including international cooperation to limit human causes of climate change or damage to plant and animal populations.

- Health

Refers to articles that describe global health issues, such as international cooperation to combat pandemics, to eradicate diseases, or to improve maternal and infant health.

□ IR Theory

Refers to articles that primarily discuss and debate the theories and paradigms of international relations. These articles may discuss other issue areas, but their main concern is to advance more general theories.

□ International Organization

Refers to articles that describe the functioning of international organizations such as the UN, World Bank, or IMF. These articles may mention how IOs have effects on other issue areas, but are primarily concerned with how IOs reach decisions and function.

□ Methodology

Refers to articles that discuss how best to use particular methodologies within IR research. They sometimes argue for or against qualitative or quantitative analysis or suggest ways to improve data collection. These articles may test these methodologies on another issue area, but are not primarily concerned with describing non-methodological phenomena.

□ Comparative Politics

Refers to articles that compare the domestic phenomena of different states.

□ Domestic Politics

Refers to articles that focus on domestic aspects of politics (i.e. elections). If the DV refers to policy that exists outside the domestic political sphere, this should be coded as "Foreign Policy."

□ Foreign Policy

Refers to articles that discuss an individual country's decision-making on foreign policy issues. Articles that discuss purely domestic policy should be coded as "Domestic Politics."

□ Comparative Foreign Policy

We include articles that compare the foreign policy processes of different states.

□ History of the IR Discipline

Refers to articles that discuss the current state or history of the IR discipline. This includes the history of paradigm shifts as well as current patterns in IR research (i.e., gender citation gap, TRIP, academia-policy gap).

□ Philosophy of Science

Refers to articles that primarily discuss the foundations and purpose of science. These articles may discuss epistemology or how scientific IR is or should be. Articles that focus on arguing for or against positivism in IR will be coded as philosophy of science.

□ International Law

Refers to articles that describe the creation and enforcement of international laws and the function of international legal bodies, such as the ICJ or the ECJ.

□ Political Theory

Refers to articles that discuss topics including the philosophical foundations of political ideals, the duties of citizens, and government legitimacy. This includes authors like Machiavelli, Locke, Plato, Aristotle, and Kant.

□ Other

Refers to articles that describe a specific issue area that is not listed here. Coders describe the “other” contribution in English, adding key terms in the original language in parentheses.

General (or non-specific)

Refers to an article that makes an argument or develops a model about IR that could then be applied to more than one of the issues areas (yet it does not specify whether it is International Security, International Political Economy, Health, etc.). This includes articles that employ pure game theory without describing another issue area.

Cannot identify

The coder leaves the decision about “issue area” to the arbitrator.

NATURE OF ARGUMENT

This variable describes the fundamental structure of the argument the authors want to make, i.e., the kind of new knowledge they are offering in the article and the foundations of this new knowledge. Essentially, there are three kinds of arguments, namely causal arguments, descriptive arguments, and theoretical arguments. Causal arguments provide explanations for empirical phenomena. This can be done quantitatively (using inferential statistics to draw conclusions from observations or experiments) or qualitatively (process tracing for explaining a class of events through mechanisms or historical narrative to explain the genesis of a single event). Descriptive arguments refer to patterns in the empirical data, which can be done by (critical) discourse analysis or any other qualitative method. Theoretical arguments can be just verbal or take the form of formal modeling.

Coders can select only one value for this variable. In case of a mixed-method design (inferential statistics plus qualitative analysis), coders should choose the value “ inferential statistics” for Nature of Argument.

This variable has the following values:

Inferential statistics ("Prüfstatistik")

We code this value if the article seeks to establish conclusions about a population based on observations collected for a sample. More generally, “inferential statistics” is used to test how likely it is that the conclusions drawn from analyzing the sample data are not produced by the sampling process but are properties of the population. The conclusions drawn by inferential statistics thus always extend beyond the analyzed data. Most of the major inferential statistics come from a general family of statistical models known as the General Linear Model. This includes the t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), regression analysis, and many of the multivariate methods like factor analysis, multidimensional scaling, cluster analysis, discriminant function analysis, and so on.

Typical areas of application:

- Testing hypotheses about causal relationships between variables
- Testing whether the difference between groups means anything or is just random

Characteristic keywords:

- correlation

- level of significance alpha: 0.05 or 0.01
- P-value: $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.001$
- sample vs. population
- regression; regression equation
- values in tables with* or** or*** (indicating p-value below significance level)
- hypothesis

□ Process tracing

The main goal of process tracing is to identify causal mechanisms "in action." It is a qualitative method to make inferences about causal explanations of a case by using evidence from within that case.

Typical area of application:

- Testing and refining hypotheses about causal mechanisms to clarify the scope conditions under which a hypothesis is generalizable.

Characteristic key words:

- Process tracing
- Causal mechanism or social mechanism (needs to be mentioned to qualify as process tracing)
- "Smoking gun"
- Scope conditions

Famous reference works:

- Bennett/Checkel (2015): Process tracing: from metaphor to analytic tool
- George, Alexander L. (1979): Case Studies and Theory Development: The Method of Structured, Focused Comparison
- Beach/Pedersen (2013) Process-Tracing Methods: Foundations and Guidelines

□ Historical Narrative

Historical narratives use historical data in a "thick description" that makes a causal argument by reconstructing a case in detail. The aim of this approach is to explain why the case happened the way it did – in other words, it is used to answer a "why?" question. Sometimes, historical narrative includes a generalization in the conclusion by suggesting the same causal pattern operated in other cases.

Characteristic key words:

- Historical narrative
- Historical institutionalism

Famous reference works:

- Thelen, K. Historical institutionalism in comparative politics

□ (Critical) Discourse Analysis – also "Critical Linguistics" and "Critical Discourse Studies"

Studies based on (Critical) Discourse Analysis (CDA) are theoretically embedded in critical approaches and typically work with a constructivist understanding of the world and of science. (C)DA studies have in common: (1) an interest in the properties of “naturally occurring” language used by real language users; (2) a focus on units larger than isolated words or sentences (units include texts [also films], discourses, speech acts, or communicative events); (3) the extension of linguistics beyond sentence grammar toward a study of action and interaction; and (4) the study of the functions of (social, cultural, situative, and cognitive) contexts of language use.

Typical area of application:

- Critical Discourse Analysis is often used to identify patterns of dominance or discrimination in texts.
- More generally: deconstructing texts and other objects embedded in their social or political context.

Characteristic key words:

- Context
- Speech act
- Deconstruction
- Critical
- Dominance (CDA)
- Situativity

Famous reference works:

- Foucault, Michel (1982): *The subject and power*
- van Dijk, Teun (1985): *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*
- van Dijk, Teun (1993): *Principles of critical discourse analysis*
- Wodak & Meyer (eds, 2008): *Methods for Critical Discourse Analysis*
- Habermas, J. (2014): *Faktizität und Geltung*

□ Purely descriptive

We code articles as “purely descriptive” if they use data to describe a phenomenon or process. Descriptive articles can employ qualitative data (interviews, texts produced by the field), quantitative data, or a mix of both and can be combined with a variety of empirical strategies. The difference between descriptive statistics and inferential statistics is that the former just makes statements about the data (doesn’t try to generalize beyond the data). Qualitative descriptive approaches reconstruct processes by describing what happened (what actors said and did). For this value to be coded no attempt to test a hypothesis or develop broader theoretical generalizations must be undertaken by the article.

Characteristic key words:

- /

Famous reference works:

- Books by Denzin, Norman K. and Lincoln, Yvonna S. Patton, Michael Quinn (2002 [1990]). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. Newbury Park: Sage.

□ Theoretical argument

We code this value if an article makes a purely theoretical argument. An article like this does not use any data and does not test any hypotheses. Instead it consists of a continuous text at the end of which there should be a suggestion for a newly developed or adapted theoretical approach. A theoretical argument may involve empirical data (either from a third-party or newly collected), which the author employs to illustrate the operationalization of his/her argument.

Characteristic key words:

- see characteristics listed under Theoretical Approaches

Famous reference works:

- see famous references works listed under Theoretical Approaches

□ Formal modeling

Formal modeling is a distinct kind of theoretical argument. The logic of this argument may take either or both of two forms: (1) formal, derived mathematical equations or (2) use of diagrams such as game theoretic decision trees and spatial models. A simple arrow diagram does not count as formal modeling, nor does a regression equation (≠ inferential statistics). The use of brief examples to illustrate the empirical implications of a formal model does not count as a separate logic of argument. Authors employing “formal modeling” create something new by constructing a theoretical argument based on mathematical studies. They may use empirical data in their models but only to illustrate their usefulness, not to draw conclusions about the data as such.

Characteristic key words:

- mathematical equations
- spatial models
- game theoretical decision trees

Famous reference works:

- Morrow, James D. (1994): *Game theory for political scientists*
- Snidal, Duncan (1985): *The Game Theory of International Relations*

□ Cannot identify

Coders choose this value if they are unsure about which value applies for the article in question. A senior coder will try to identify the right value in a second (sometimes third) round of coding. Note: there is no “other” category for Logic of Argument.

EMPIRICAL STRATEGY

“Empirical strategy” describes the approach to collecting and analyzing empirical data to support the argument made by the article. The empirical strategy does not vary independently from the argument.

The (quasi-)experimental or another quantitative approach is necessary to do ☐ inferential statistics. Single case studies or comparative case studies can support ☐ Process tracing, ☐ Historical narrative, ☐ (Critical) discourse analysis or any other descriptive strategy. Sometimes authors do not collect their own (quantitative or qualitative) data but use secondary sources. Since there is a wide range of empirical methods and their combinations, the field “other” is intended to catch what is outside our categorization.

Coders can select only one value for this variable. In case of a mixed-method design (inferential statistics plus qualitative analysis), coders should choose ☐ “Other” and name the two strategies being used in parentheses (for example, mixed-method [quantitative and single case study]).

The values for this variable are:

(Quasi-)Experimental

This category includes articles which use experimental research designs or simulations to test or defend their claims. Coders should select this value only if one of the following key words is mentioned by the author: experimental, quasi-experimental, natural experiment, or survey experiment. Another key word for this type of research is “random assignment.”

Quantitative

We code articles as “quantitative” if they discuss a large number of cases, which are described by numbers (often in tables). Inferential statistics and descriptive statistics both fall under this category. Experimental designs, although quantitative in nature, are coded as ☐ (Quasi-)Experimental.

Single case study

We code articles as “single case study” if they analyze one case. Such articles employ qualitative data, sometimes in combination with quantitative data in descriptive statistics, and discuss a number of characteristics of that case.

NOTE: We define a case as an empirical object. This can be a country, a region, a community, an event, an age group or any similar type of aggregation.

Comparative case study

We code articles as “comparative case study” if they systematically compare two or more cases in detail. Such articles employ qualitative data, sometimes in combination with quantitative data in descriptive statistics, and compare characteristics of the cases for similarities and differences.

NOTE: We define a case as an empirical object. This can be a country, a region, a community, an event, an age group, or any similar type of aggregation.

Third-party empirical data

We code this value whenever authors reuse empirical data collected by other researchers from the field of IR (for example, from AidData, Armed Conflict Database, Correlates of War Project, TRIP, or the Manifesto Project). Datasets offered by large research institutions like Freedom House or Polity IV or public organizations like the World Bank or the OECD do not qualify as “third-party empirical data” but should be coded under ☐ “Quantitative.”

In the vast majority of cases, “third-party empirical data” is quantitative in nature. However, should coders encounter qualitative “third-party empirical data,” this should be coded as and specified under ☐ “Other.”

Other

We code articles as “other” if none of the other empirical strategies apply to it. “Other” approaches include counterfactual analysis and discourse analysis. Whenever coders choose this value, they name or describe the “other” empirical strategy in the open text field dedicated to this purpose.

No empirical strategy

We code articles without an empirical data as “no empirical strategy.” Such articles include pure theory articles.

Cannot identify

Coders choose this value if they are unsure about which value applies for the article in question. A senior coder will try to identify the right value in a second (sometimes third) round of coding.

POLICY PRESCRIPTION

With this variable we capture whether the author makes explicit policy prescriptions in the article.

Yes

We only record a value of “yes” if the article explicitly aims its prescriptions at policymakers. If the author does prescribe policy options, these prescriptions do not have to be limited solely to members of the government. Prescriptions can be recommended to members of governments as well as IGOs, NGOs, etc., in order to fulfill the requirement for this variable. A prescription that the government ought to change its foreign policy or increase funding for certain types of research does qualify and should be coded as “yes.”

No

A prescription for further research on the topic does not qualify as a policy prescription and should be coded as “no.” The fact that a model has implications that are relevant for policymakers does not count as a policy prescription. A throwaway line in the conclusion does not qualify as a policy prescription.

Cannot identify

2014 TRIP survey questions

Chapter 4

Which of the following best describes your approach to the study of IR?

- Constructivism
- Realism
- English school
- Liberalism
- Feminism
- Marxism
- Other
- I do not use paradigmatic analysis

What is your main area of research within IR?

- International/Global Security
- International/Global Political Economy
- Human Rights
- Comparative Foreign Policy
- Philosophy of Science
- International Law
- International/Global Ethics
- (Country X) Foreign Policy
- International/Global Health
- Global Civil Society
- History of the international relations discipline
- Development studies
- International/Global Environment
- U.S. Foreign Policy
- International Organization(s)
- Human Security
- International/Global History
- European Studies/European Integration
- International Relations of a particular region/country
- International Relations Theory
- Chinese Foreign Policy v. Gender in IR
- Other
- I am not an IR scholar

What are your secondary areas of research within IR?

same response options as for the previous question but with the option to select as many of them as apply

In your research, what is the main region of the world that you study, if any?

- Central Asia (not including Afghanistan)
- Latin America (including Mexico and the Caribbean)

- Middle East and North Africa (including Turkey)
- North America (not including Mexico)
- Oceania
- Russia/Former Soviet Union (excluding Baltic states)
- South Asia (including Afghanistan)
- Sub-Saharan Africa
- Western Europe
- Transnational actors/International Organizations/International NGOs
- Global/Use cross-regional data
- Southeast Asia
- Central and Eastern Europe (including the Baltic states)
- East Asia (including China)
- Turkey [not displayed for all respondents]
- Israel [not displayed for all respondents]
- Arctic
- Antarctic
- China
- Middle East and North Africa
- Taiwan [not displayed for all respondents]
- Caribbean [not displayed for all respondents]
- Central America (including Mexico) [not displayed for all respondents]
- South America [not displayed for all respondents]

In your research, what other regions of the world do you study, if any?

same response options as for the previous question but with the option to select as many of them as apply

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement: "The discipline of international relations is an American-dominated discipline."

- strongly disagree
- disagree
- neither agree nor disagree
- strongly agree
- strongly agree

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement: "The discipline of international relations is a Western-dominated discipline."

- strongly disagree
- disagree
- neither agree nor disagree
- strongly agree
- strongly agree

Do you think it is important to counter American dominance in the discipline of international relations?

- yes
- no

- don't know

Do you think it is important to counter Western dominance in the discipline of international relations?

- yes
- no
- don't know

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement: "American IR is different than [regional/national] IR."

- strongly disagree
- disagree
- neither agree nor disagree
- strongly agree
- strongly agree

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement: "American IR is more sophisticated than [regional/national] IR."

- strongly disagree
- disagree
- neither agree nor disagree
- strongly agree
- strongly agree

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement: "It is important to develop [regional/national] IR theories."

- strongly disagree
- disagree
- neither agree nor disagree
- strongly agree
- strongly agree

Chapter 5

Are you:

- male
- female
- transgender
- prefer not to answer

What is your country of origin?

open response field

How old are you?

- 35 or less
- 36-45
- 46-55
- 56-65

- older than 65

What is your current status within your home department?

- Full Professor (W3/C4)
- Associate Professor (W2)
- Assistant Professor (W1)
- Privatdozent_in
- Instructor or lecturer
- Lehrbeauftragte_r
- Honorarprofessor_in
- Wissenschaftliche_r Mitarbeiter_in
- Emeritus
- Other

Which of the following statements best characterizes your work?

- I employ a rational choice framework
- My work does not assume the rationality of actors
- My work is broadly rationalist, or what sometimes is referred to as "soft rational choice," and it relies on a general assumption of utility-maximizing actors
- My work draws on both rationalist approaches and alternative approaches that do not assume the rationality of actors

How would you characterize your work in epistemological terms?

- Positivist
- Non-positivist
- Post-positivist

In your research, what method do you primarily employ?

- Quantitative analysis
- Qualitative analysis
- Formal modeling
- Experimental
- Counterfactual analysis
- Pure Theory
- Legal or ethical analysis
- Policy Analysis
- Other

In your research, what other methods do you employ, not including your primary methodology?

same response options as for the previous question but with the option to select as many of them as apply

Which of the following qualitative methods do you use? Please select all that apply

- Single case study
- Comparative case study
- Narrative analysis/traditional history
- Discourse analysis

- Ethnography
- Process tracing
- Thick description
- Analytic induction
- Dialectical research
- Hermeneutics
- Ethical Inquiry
- Analytic narrative
- Content analysis
- Critical Theory
- Narrative analysis
- Other

Philip Tetlock, borrowing from Isaiah Berlin, distinguishes between foxes who "draw from an eclectic array of traditions," and hedgehogs, who work "devotedly within one tradition." How would you classify your own approach?

- I draw exclusively from an eclectic array of traditions
- I draw from an eclectic array of traditions more than work devotedly within one tradition
- I work devotedly within one tradition more than draw from an eclectic array of traditions
- I work exclusively devoted within one tradition

Which of the following do you believe generates the most division among IR scholars today?

- Epistemology
- Generation
- Issue area
- Methods
- Ontology
- Paradigm
- Region of study
- Theory vs. policy divide
- Other

What applies to you? I feel part of a

- issue-specific IR community
- global IR community
- generation-specific IR community
- national IR community
- ontology-specific IR community
- paradigm-specific IR community
- epistemology-specific IR community
- methodology-specific IR community
- language IR community
- sub-national IR community
- other

List four scholars whose work has had the greatest influence on the field of IR in the past 20 years. Please provide both first and last names.

List 4 scholars

Who are the four scholars employed in your part of the world who have had the greatest influence on the field of IR in the past 20 years?

List 4 scholars

List the four journals that publish articles with the greatest influence on the way IR scholars think about international relations. These can include IR journals, general political science journals, and/or non-political science journals.

List 4 journals

List the four presses that publish books with the greatest influence on the way IR scholars think about international relations.

List 4 presses

What are the five best PhD programs in the world for a student who wants to pursue an academic career in IR?

List 5 options

What are the three best PhD programs in Germany for a student who wants to pursue an academic career in IR?

List 3 options

Where should one publish to succeed academically in Germany? (up to two responses)

- Publishing is not important for making an academic career in Germany
- In German journals
- In any A-rated journal, independent of its language
- In any peer-reviewed journal, independent of its language
- In English-language journals

Based on which criteria would you define members of the German IR community? (up to two responses)

- He/she publishes in German journals.
- He/she teaches at a German university.
- He/she participates in Germany's communicative space.
- He/she is a citizen of Germany.
- He/she works on problems defined by German scholars.
- He/she is attending conferences of the German IR or political science association.
- There is no German IR community.

How frequently do you cite literature written in languages other than English when you are writing an English-language publication?

- never
- occasionally

- frequently
- always (in all my publications)
- I do not write English-language publications

What keeps you from citing literature written in languages other than English in your English-language publications? [if chosen never or occasionally in the previous question] (up to two responses)

- Readers and reviewers without knowledge of this language might not be able to trace back the reference
- Citing sources in a language other than English would give away part of my identity in the peer-review process
- There is always an equally good or better English-language source that I can cite instead
- I fear that peer-reviewers will assign lower academic credibility to non-English sources
- I do not use any literature written in languages other than English in my research, which is why I cannot cite them
- Other

Why do you publish in German? (up to two responses)

- I don't publish in German
- To keep a German communication on IR alive
- To appeal to a public audience
- I consider it a moral duty
- I don't know any other language well enough to write a publication in it
- To increase my chances in the academic job market
- To increase my chances in the policy job market
- To increase my impact on policy makers
- Writing in German allows for the expression of thoughts that I could not formulate as well in English
- To increase the audience of texts I have written in other languages
- Other

Why do you publish primarily in English? (up to two responses)

- I don't publish in English
- The discipline is better off if all research is produced in one tongue
- By using English, I reach a bigger audience
- I don't know any other language well enough to write a publication in it
- To increase my chances in the academic job market
- To increase my chances in the policy job market
- To increase my impact on policy makers
- All major IR literature is written in English, which makes it hard to express thoughts in another language
- To increase the audience of texts I have written in other languages
- Other

Aggregation of survey data

Region under study

Aggregated regions	Original survey values
Middle East/North Africa	Israel Middle East/North Africa Turkey
Latin America (including Mexico)	Latin America Caribbean [displayed to Latin American sample only] Central America [displayed to Latin American sample only] South America [displayed to Latin American sample only]
Southeast Asia	Southeast Asia
USA	North America
Global	Global/Use cross-regional data
East Asia (incl. China)	China [only displayed to US sample] East Asia Northeast Asia Taiwan
FSU/Soviet Union/Eastern Europe, including Central Asian states, except for Afghanistan	Central and Eastern Europe (including the Baltic states) Central Asia (not including Afghanistan) Russia/Formal Soviet Union (excluding Baltic states)
Oceania	Oceania
Sub-Saharan Africa	Sub-Saharan Africa
South Asia (including Afghanistan)	South Asia (including Afghanistan)
Canada and Western Europe	Western Europe
Antarctica	Antarctic Arctic
None/purely theoretical excluded	- Transnational actors/International organizations/International non-governmental organizations

Theoretical approaches

Aggregated theoretical approaches	Original survey values
Non-paradigmatic	I do not use paradigmatic analysis English School Feminism Other
Liberal	Liberalism
Constructivist	Constructivism
Atheoretic/Non	-
Realist	Realism
Marxist	Marxism

Issues areas

Aggregated issue areas	Original survey values
International Security	Human security Global/international security
International Political Economy	Global/International political economy
Human Rights	Human rights
Environment	Global/International environment
Health	Global/International health
IR theory	International relations theory
U.S. Foreign Policy	U.S. foreign policy [for European and Latin American respondents]
Comparative Foreign Policy	Comparative foreign policy Chinese foreign policy
History of the IR Discipline	History of the international relations discipline
Philosophy of Science	Philosophy of science
International Law	International law
Other	Development studies European studies/European integration Gender Global civil society Global/international ethics Global/international history
General (or non-specific)	I am not an IR scholar
International Organization	International organization(s)
Methodology	-
Comparative Politics	International relations of a particular region/country
American Politics	-
Political Theory	-
Local foreign policy	U.S. foreign policy [for US respondents] [[RESPONDENT DEMONYM]] foreign policy

Data

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Chapter 4

Geographical authorship diversity

Table App 1 WoS benchmark, countries of affiliation

Country of affiliation	%	N	Global South/Global North
UNITED STATES	32.36%	7,682	GLOBAL NORTH
UNITED KINGDOM	17.52%	4,159	GLOBAL NORTH
GERMANY	5.51%	1,309	GLOBAL NORTH
CANADA	4.77%	1,133	GLOBAL NORTH
AUSTRALIA	4.44%	1,053	GLOBAL NORTH
CHINA	2.67%	633	GLOBAL SOUTH
SOUTH KOREA	2.09%	496	GLOBAL NORTH
NETHERLANDS	1.95%	462	GLOBAL NORTH
NORWAY	1.86%	441	GLOBAL NORTH
TURKEY	1.78%	423	GLOBAL NORTH
SWITZERLAND	1.74%	412	GLOBAL NORTH
SWEDEN	1.72%	408	GLOBAL NORTH
FRANCE	1.69%	400	GLOBAL NORTH
JAPAN	1.66%	394	GLOBAL NORTH
ITALY	1.59%	378	GLOBAL NORTH
BELGIUM	1.52%	361	GLOBAL NORTH
SPAIN	1.41%	335	GLOBAL NORTH

TAIWAN	1.39%	330	GLOBAL NORTH
ISRAEL	1.34%	317	GLOBAL NORTH
DENMARK	1.25%	297	GLOBAL NORTH
SINGAPORE	0.98%	232	GLOBAL NORTH
BRAZIL	0.78%	184	GLOBAL SOUTH
IRELAND	0.74%	175	GLOBAL NORTH
NEW ZEALAND	0.59%	139	GLOBAL NORTH
FINLAND	0.58%	138	GLOBAL NORTH
AUSTRIA	0.53%	125	GLOBAL NORTH
INDIA	0.46%	110	GLOBAL SOUTH
SOUTH AFRICA	0.39%	93	GLOBAL SOUTH
PORTUGAL	0.28%	67	GLOBAL NORTH
RUSSIA	0.26%	61	GLOBAL NORTH
CZECH REPUBLIC	0.25%	60	GLOBAL NORTH
MALAYSIA	0.24%	56	GLOBAL SOUTH
GREECE	0.23%	54	GLOBAL NORTH
HUNGARY	0.22%	53	GLOBAL NORTH
POLAND	0.22%	51	GLOBAL NORTH
CHILE	0.18%	43	GLOBAL SOUTH
PHILIPPINES	0.18%	43	GLOBAL SOUTH
MEXICO	0.17%	41	GLOBAL SOUTH
EGYPT	0.14%	33	GLOBAL NORTH
ESTONIA	0.14%	32	GLOBAL SOUTH
ARGENTINA	0.13%	30	GLOBAL SOUTH
COLOMBIA	0.10%	24	GLOBAL SOUTH
U ARAB EMIRATES	0.10%	23	GLOBAL SOUTH
SLOVENIA	0.09%	22	GLOBAL NORTH
THAILAND	0.09%	22	GLOBAL SOUTH
INDONESIA	0.08%	20	GLOBAL SOUTH
LEBANON	0.08%	19	GLOBAL NORTH
LUXEMBOURG	0.08%	19	GLOBAL NORTH
CYPRUS	0.07%	17	GLOBAL NORTH
IRAN	0.07%	17	GLOBAL SOUTH
VIETNAM	0.07%	17	GLOBAL SOUTH
NIGERIA	0.06%	15	GLOBAL SOUTH
PAKISTAN	0.06%	14	GLOBAL SOUTH
ROMANIA	0.06%	14	GLOBAL NORTH
ETHIOPIA	0.05%	12	GLOBAL SOUTH
ICELAND	0.05%	11	GLOBAL NORTH
BANGLADESH	0.04%	10	GLOBAL SOUTH
KAZAKHSTAN	0.04%	9	GLOBAL NORTH
KENYA	0.04%	9	GLOBAL SOUTH
PERU	0.03%	8	GLOBAL SOUTH
QATAR	0.03%	8	GLOBAL SOUTH
SERBIA	0.03%	8	GLOBAL NORTH

CROATIA	0.03%	7	GLOBAL NORTH
JORDAN	0.03%	7	GLOBAL SOUTH
SAUDI ARABIA	0.03%	7	GLOBAL SOUTH
SLOVAKIA	0.03%	7	GLOBAL NORTH
BAHRAIN	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
CAMBODIA	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
LATVIA	0.03%	6	GLOBAL NORTH
LITHUANIA	0.03%	6	GLOBAL NORTH
MOROCCO	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
TRINID TOBAGO	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
UGANDA	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
VENEZUELA	0.03%	6	GLOBAL SOUTH
AFGHANISTAN	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
ECUADOR	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
GHANA	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
IRAQ	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
KUWAIT	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
REP OF GEORGIA	0.02%	4	GLOBAL NORTH
SRI LANKA	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
TANZANIA	0.02%	4	GLOBAL SOUTH
FIJI	0.01%	3	GLOBAL SOUTH
MALTA	0.01%	3	GLOBAL NORTH
RWANDA	0.01%	3	GLOBAL SOUTH
SAN MARINO	0.01%	3	GLOBAL NORTH
UKRAINE	0.01%	3	GLOBAL NORTH
AZERBAIJAN	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
BOSNIA HERCEG	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
BOTSWANA	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
BULGARIA	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
GUATEMALA	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
KYRGYZSTAN	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
MACEDONIA	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
MOZAMBIQUE	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
SERBIA MONTENEG	0.01%	2	GLOBAL NORTH
SUDAN	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
URUGUAY	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
ZAIRE	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
ZAMBIA	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
ZIMBABWE	0.01%	2	GLOBAL SOUTH
ALBANIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL NORTH
ALGERIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
ARMENIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL NORTH
BARBADOS	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
BOLIVIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
BRUNEI	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH

CENT AFR REPUB	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
CONGO	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
COSTA RICA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
GAMBIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
JAMAICA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
KOSOVO	0.004%	1	GLOBAL NORTH
LIBERIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
MOLDOVA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL NORTH
MONGOL PEO REP	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
MYANMAR	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
NEPAL	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
NICARAGUA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
OMAN	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
SENEGAL	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
SIERRA LEONE	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
SOLOMON ISLANDS	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
SOMALIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
TUNISIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
UZBEKISTAN	0.004%	1	GLOBAL NORTH
WESTERN SAHARA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
YEMEN	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH
YUGOSLAVIA	0.004%	1	GLOBAL SOUTH

Table App 2 WoS benchmark, geographical authorship dissimilarity

	%
Global North	93%
Global South	7%
Total	100%

Table App 3 Geographical authorship diversity, North America

Country	%	N
United States	33.9%	4123
United Kingdom	9.1%	1104
China	7.9%	960
Turkey	4.9%	601
India	4.8%	587
Canada	4.5%	544
Germany	4.2%	513
Japan	3.3%	402
Poland	3.1%	374
Brazil	2,6%	321
Mexico	2%	284
France	2%	282
Australia	2%	275
Sweden	2%	219

Norway	2%	194
Taiwan	1%	164
Denmark	1%	151
Israel	1%	150
Italy	1%	148
Colombia	1%	115
Netherlands	1%	104
Argentina	1%	82
Switzerland	1%	69
South Africa	1%	64
Singapore	1%	62
Ireland	0%	54
Belgium	0%	52
Finland	0%	45
New Zealand	0%	41
Chile	0.3%	33
Austria	0%	32
Hong Kong	0%	26
Total	100%	12175

Table App 4 North America, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	916	77.4%
United Kingdom	102	8.6%
Canada	34	2.9%
Norway	23	1.9%
Germany	18	1.5%
Australia	13	1.1%
Sweden	10	0.8%
Switzerland	10	0.8%
Israel	8	0.7%
Spain	7	0.6%
Turkey	7	0.6%
Denmark	6	0.5%
New Zealand	5	0.42%
Netherlands	5	0.42%
Ireland	4	0.34%
Russia	4	0.34%
Korea	2	0.17%
Hong Kong, China	2	0.17%
Mexico	2	0.17%
China	1	0.08%
Italy	1	0.08%
Austria	1	0.08%
Taiwan	1	0.08%

Singapore	1	0.08%
Total	1183	100.00%

Table App 5 North America, APSR, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	151	84.8%
United Kingdom	7	3.9%
Canada	5	2.8%
Spain	3	1.7%
Israel	2	1.1%
Russia	2	1.1%
Denmark	1	0.6%
Germany	1	0.6%
New Zealand	1	0.6%
Norway	1	0.6%
Singapore	1	0.6%
Sweden	1	0.6%
Switzerland	1	0.6%
Turkey	1	0.6%
Total	178	100.0%

Table App 6 North America, IO, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	173	79.4%
United Kingdom	17	7.8%
Canada	8	3.7%
Unknown	6	2,8%
Germany	5	2,3%
Switzerland	3	1,4%
Norway	2	0,9%
China	1	0,5%
Denmark	1	0,5%
Mexico	1	0,5%
Spain	1	0,5%
Total	218	100,0%

Table App 7 North America, ISQ, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	592	74.1%
United Kingdom	78	9.8%
Canada	21	2.6%
Norway	20	2.5%
Australia	13	1.6%
Germany	12	1.5%

Sweden	9	1.1%
Israel	6	0.8%
Switzerland	6	0.8%
Unknown	6	0.8%
Turkey	6	0.8%
Netherlands	5	0.6%
Denmark	4	0.5%
Ireland	4	0.5%
New Zealand	4	0.5%
Spain	3	0.4%
Hong Kong, China	2	0.3%
Korea	2	0.3%
Russia	2	0.3%
Austria	1	0.1%
Italy	1	0.1%
Mexico	1	0.1%
Taiwan	1	0.1%
Total	799	100.00%

Table App 8 North American Authorship Variety by Journal

Journal	No. of countries	% of WoS benchmark (129)
APSR	14	11%
IO	10	8%
ISQ	22	17%
North America	24	19%

Table App 9 North American Dissimilarity by Journal

	APSR	IO	ISQ
Global South	0%	1%	0%
Global North	100%	99%	100%

Table App 10 Latin American Geographic authorship Diversity all Journals

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
Mexico	34	17.2%
Chile	28	14.1%
Argentina	18	9.1%
United States	16	8.1%
Spain	12	6.1%
Brazil	8	4.0%
Germany	5	2.5%
United Kingdom	4	2.0%
Canada	4	2.0%
France	3	1.5%

China	2	1.0%
Netherlands	2	1.0%
Italy	2	1.0%
Peru	1	0.5%
Guatemala	1	0.5%
Finland	1	0.5%
Colombia	1	0.5%
Venezuela	1	0.5%
Uganda	1	0.5%
Japan	1	0.5%
Total	145	73.2%
Unknown	53	26.77%
Total	198	100%

Table App 11 FI, Geographic Diversity

Country	Count of Country	Share of Total
Mexico	28	46.7%
United States	15	25.0%
Canada	4	6.7%
Brazil	3	5.0%
Spain	2	3.3%
France	2	3.3%
United Kingdom	2	3.3%
Venezuela	1	1.7%
Italy	1	1.7%
Netherlands	1	1.7%
Argentina	1	1.7%
Total	60	100.00%

Table App 12 EI, Geographic Diversity

Country	Count of Country	Share of Total
Chile	28	32.9%
Argentina	17	20.0%
Spain	10	11.8%
Mexico	6	7.1%
Brazil	5	5.9%
Germany	5	5.9%
China	2	2.4%
United Kingdom	2	2.4%
Uganda	1	1.2%
Peru	1	1.2%
Netherlands	1	1.2%
Finland	1	1.2%

Colombia	1	1.2%
Japan	1	1.2%
France	1	1.2%
United States	1	1.2%
Italy	1	1.18%
Guatemala	1	1.2%
Total	85	100.00%

Table App 13 Latin American Authorship Variety by Journal

Journal	No. of countries	% of WoS journal benchmark (129)
EI	18	14%
FI	11	8%
Latin America	20	22%

Table App 14 Latin American Dissimilarity by Journal

	Estudios Internacionales	Foro Internacional
Global South	73%	55%
Global North	26%	45%

Table App 15 Latin American Trinity Focus by Journal

Issue Area	EI	FI
International Security	10%	14%
International Political Economy	18%	17%
International Organization	7%	5%

Table App 16 Europe, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	110	38.5%
United Kingdom	56	19.6%
Germany	16	5.6%
Australia	16	5.6%
Sweden	14	4.9%
Netherlands	13	4.5%
Canada	11	3.8%
Switzerland	10	3.5%
Denmark	7	2.4%
Ireland	5	1.7%
Norway	4	1.4%
Italy	4	1.4%
Turkey	3	1.0%
China	2	0.7%
Belgium	2	0.7%
Singapore	2	0.7%

Israel	2	0.7%
Austria	2	0.7%
France	2	0.7%
Finland	1	0.3%
Korea	1	0.3%
Colombia	1	0.3%
Hong Kong, China	1	0.3%
New Zealand	1	0.3%
Total	286	100.0%

Table App 17 Europe, BJPoIS, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country of affiliations	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	58	52.7%
United Kingdom	13	11.8%
Germany	9	8.2%
Netherlands	8	7.3%
Switzerland	8	7.3%
Ireland	4	3.6%
Australia	2	1.8%
Italy	2	1.8%
Turkey	2	1.8%
Canada	1	0.9%
Israel	1	0.9%
Norway	1	0.9%
Sweden	1	0.9%
Total	110	100.0%

Table App 18 Europe, EJR, Geographical Authorship Diversity

Country of affiliations	No. of authors (N)	No. of authors (%)
United States	52	29.5%
United Kingdom	43	24.4%
Australia	14	8.0%
Sweden	13	7.4%
Canada	10	5.7%
Denmark	7	4.0%
Germany	7	4.0%
Netherlands	5	2.8%
Norway	3	1.7%
Austria	2	1.1%
Belgium	2	1.1%
China	2	1.1%
France	2	1.1%
Italy	2	1.1%

Singapore	2	1.1%
Switzerland	2	1.1%
Colombia	1	0.6%
Finland	1	0.6%
Hong Kong, China	1	0.6%
Ireland	1	0.6%
Israel	1	0.6%
Korea	1	0.6%
New Zealand	1	0.6%
Turkey	1	0.6%
Total	176	100.0%

Table App 19 European Authorship Variety by Journal

Journal	No. of countries	% WoS benchmark (129)
BJPS	13	10%
EJIR	24	19%
Europe	24	19%

Table App 20 European Dissimilarity by Journal

	BJPS	EJIR
Global North	100%	92%
Global South	0%	8%

Table App 21 European Trinity Focus by Journal

Issue Area	BJPS	EJIR
International Security	21%	26%
International Political Economy	13%	6%
International Organization	26%	15%

Geographical content diversity

Table App 22 Survey benchmark, regions under study

Aggregated	Global	USA	Latin America	Europe
FSU/Soviet Union/Eastern Europe, including Central Asian states, except for Afghanistan	27%	33%	14%	38%
Western Europe and Canada	32%	30%	19%	50%
Global	26%	27%	24%	27%
Middle East/North Africa	20%	19%	11%	20%
East Asia (incl. China)	35%	37%	12%	14%
Latin America (including Mexico)	19%	25%	102%*	7%
North America	22%	20%	27%	21%
None/purely theoretical	14%	17%	8%	19%
Sub-Saharan Africa	20%	17%	6%	16%

South Asia (including Afghanistan)	13%	14%	3%	7%
Southeast Asia	12%	13%	5%	8%
Antarctica	3%	10%	1%	1%
Oceania	4%	3%	1%	2%

* Latin American respondents could choose between South America, Central America, and the Caribbean

Table App 23 Geographical Content by Region

Region under study	North America	Latin America	Europe
Global	235	26	72
Western Europe/Canada	109	48	88
USA	120	66	39
Latin America	38	142	7
FSU/Eastern Europe	51	20	37
East Asia	52	30	23
MENA	49	20	18
SSA	24	10	10
South Asia	26	8	4
Southeast Asia	22	7	5
Oceania	19	4	7
Antarctica	0	0	0
Total number of articles	471	202	195

Table App 24 Geographical Content by Journal

Region under study	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Global	37	41	17	31	9	77	121
Western Europe/Canada	27	45	28	43	20	42	40
USA	26	12	22	27	44	47	47
Latin America	3	2	75	5	67	15	20
FSU/Eastern Europe	10	19	6	18	14	16	25
East Asia	8	7	26	16	4	19	25
MENA	13	5	10	13	10	11	25
SSA	3	3	6	7	4	6	15
South Asia	7	1	4	3	4	5	14
Southeast Asia	2	1	4	4	3	8	12
Oceania	4	6	2	1	2	7	8
Antarctica	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total number of articles	92	93	115	102	87	161	218

Table App 25 Global South vs. Global North Balance per Journal

Global focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Global North	44	51	40	62	54	77	82
Global South	25	15	91	37	75	47	64
Purely global	34	33	11	25	2	68	110

Overlap Global North/Global South	11	6	27	22	44	32	38
Number of articles	92	93	115	102	87	161	218

Table App 26 Global South vs. Global North balance, in percentage of number of articles

Global focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Global North	48%	55%	35%	61%	62%	48%	38%
Global South	27%	16%	79%	36%	86%	29%	29%
Purely global	37%	35%	10%	25%	2%	42%	50%
Overlap Global South/Global North	16%	9%	21%	22%	34%	26%	26%

Table App 27 Global South vs. Global North balance per case

Global focus	North America	Latin America	Europe
Global North	203	94	113
Global South	136	166	52
Purely global	212	13	58
Overlap Global South/Global North	81	71	28
Number of articles*	471	202	195

Thematic diversity

Table App 28 Survey benchmark, thematic diversity

Aggregated issue areas	Global	USA	Latin America	Europe
Other	25%	27%	24%	33%
International Security	18%	22%	11%	17%
Comparative Foreign Policy	3%	3%	5%	5%
International Political Economy	10%	12%	8%	10%
Comparative Politics	9%	6%	12%	7%
IR theory	7%	6%	10%	7%
General (or non-specific)	5%	6%	2%	6%
International Organization	5%	5%	2%	6%
Human Rights	3%	4%	2%	1%
Environment	3%	3%	3%	3%
International Law	2%	2%	2%	1%
US Foreign Policy	2%	8%	4%	2%
History of the IR Discipline	1%	0%	2%	1%
Philosophy of Science	0%	0%	3%	0%
Health	0%	1%	0%	0%
Methodology	-	-	-	-
American Politics	-	-	-	-

Political Theory	-	-	-	-
Local foreign policy	8%	0%	14%	0%

Table App 29 Issue area per journal

Issue area	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
International Security	32	22	12	37	12	33	65
International Political Economy	6	14	22	8	15	63	57
International Organization	9	27	8	22	4	31	23
Comparative Politics	25	18	14		7	11	12
IR theory	5	3	4	35		8	23
Human Rights	3	6	6	8	2	6	14
Comparative Foreign Global North Policy	1	3	12	9	8	1	8
International Law	9	3	11	5		11	2
Local foreign Global North policy			15		21		
Other		4	2	1	4	7	10
U.S. Foreign Global North Policy	2		2	3	1	7	13
Political Theory	7	1	5	2	6	1	
Methodology	4	1		1		3	9
Environment		1	2	3		1	5
History of the IR Discipline	2		3	4			2
American Politics	7	1			1		
Local domestic politics			2		7		
Health							8
General (or non-specific)	3	1		1			2
Philosophy of Science	1		1	3			1
Total	116	105	121	142	88	183	254

Table App 30 Issue area per journal (in percentage)

Issue area	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
International Security	28%	21%	10%	26%	14%	18%	26%
International Political Economy	5%	13%	18%	6%	17%	34%	22%
International Organization	8%	26%	7%	15%	5%	17%	9%
Comparative Politics	22%	17%	12%	0%	8%	6%	5%
IR theory	4%	3%	3%	25%	0%	4%	9%
Human Rights	3%	6%	5%	6%	2%	3%	6%
Comparative Foreign Global North Policy	1%	3%	10%	6%	9%	1%	3%
International Law	8%	3%	9%	4%	0%	6%	1%
Local foreign Global North policy	0%	0%	12%	0%	24%	0%	0%
Other	0%	4%	2%	1%	5%	4%	4%
U.S. Foreign Global North Policy	2%	0%	2%	2%	1%	4%	5%
Political Theory	6%	1%	4%	1%	7%	1%	0%
Methodology	3%	1%	0%	1%	0%	2%	4%
Environment	0%	1%	2%	2%	0%	1%	2%
History of the IR Discipline	2%	0%	2%	3%	0%	0%	1%
American Politics	6%	1%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%

Local domestic politics	0%	0%	2%	0%	8%	0%	0%
Health	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%
General (or non-specific)	3%	1%	0%	1%	0%	0%	1%
Philosophy of Science	1%	0%	1%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 31 Issue area per case

Issue area	North America	North America %	Latin America	Latin America %	Europe	Europe %
International Security	130	24%	24	11%	59	24%
International Political Economy	126	23%	37	18%	22	9%
International Organization	63	11%	12	6%	49	20%
Comparative Politics	48	9%	21	10%	18	7%
IR theory	36	7%	4	2%	38	15%
Human Rights	23	4%	8	4%	14	6%
Comparative Foreign Global North Policy	10	2%	20	10%	12	5%
International Law	22	4%	11	5%	8	3%
Local foreign Global North policy	0	0%	36	17%	0	0%
Other	17	3%	6	3%	5	2%
U.S. Foreign Global North Policy	22	4%	3	1%	3	1%
Political Theory	8	1%	11	5%	3	1%
Methodology	16	3%	0	0%	2	1%
Environment	6	1%	2	1%	4	2%
History of the IR Discipline	4	1%	3	1%	4	2%
American Politics	7	1%	1	0%	1	0%
Local domestic politics	0	0%	9	4%	0	0%
Health	8	1%	0	0%	0	0%
General (or non-specific)	5	1%	0	0%	2	1%
Philosophy of Science	2	0%	1	0%	3	1%
Total	553	100%	209	100%	247	100%

Table App 32 Substantive focus per journal

Substantive focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Domestic politics	50	42	37	25	45	71	80
International governmental organizations	19	27	39	38	23	59	48
International regimes	23	13	17	61	9	46	42
Other	15	16	9	13	3	42	88
Regime type	27	25	18	18	15	33	47
Interstate war	28	15	6	21	7	27	51
Trade	9	13	29	8	16	47	28
Foreign Global North Policy	12	5	29	30	22	14	24
Economic interdependence	8	13	27	9	17	24	31
Study of the IR discipline	7	1	16	50	4	5	30
Regional integration	3	19	28	13	18	16	8

Interstate conflict	14	7	8	13	10	17	33
Public opinion	16	19	11	9	15	13	16
NGOs	6	9	17	13	6	19	21
International law	17	5	18	12	4	26	7
Development	8	5	26	5	13	8	18
Interstate crisis	7	8	5	7	3	12	26
Balance of power	9	5	9	12	5	6	11
Diplomacy	7		13	4	13	9	10
Humanitarian Intervention	2	2	9	8	9	7	15
Foreign Global North Aid	7	5	4		6	10	18
Monetary policy	4	4	6	1	6	19	8
North-South relations	1	3	9	3	22	2	7
Terrorism	11	10	2	7	4	6	7
Ethnicity	15	4	7	5	3	3	8
Alliances	1	7	4	9	8	3	12
Environment		4	7	10	10	3	9
Migration	5	9	6	1	13	2	6
Bargaining/Deterrence Strategy	14	11					
Gender	5	1	2	1	1	1	3
Sanctions			1		3	4	6
WMD proliferation	3	3	2	2	1	1	2
Weapon systems	3	1		1		3	3
Public health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total number of articles	116	105	121	142	88	183	254

Table App 33 Substantive focus per journal (in percentage)

Substantive focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Domestic politics	43%	40%	31%	18%	51%	39%	31%
International governmental organizations	16%	26%	32%	27%	26%	32%	19%
International regimes	20%	12%	14%	43%	10%	25%	17%
Other	13%	15%	7%	9%	3%	23%	35%
Regime type	23%	24%	15%	13%	17%	18%	19%
Interstate war	24%	14%	5%	15%	8%	15%	20%
Trade	8%	12%	24%	6%	18%	26%	11%
Foreign Global North Policy	10%	5%	24%	21%	25%	8%	9%
Economic interdependence	7%	12%	22%	6%	19%	13%	12%
Study of the IR discipline	6%	1%	13%	35%	5%	3%	12%
Regional integration	3%	18%	23%	9%	20%	9%	3%
Interstate conflict	12%	7%	7%	9%	11%	9%	13%
Public opinion	14%	18%	9%	6%	17%	7%	6%
NGOs	5%	9%	14%	9%	7%	10%	8%
International law	15%	5%	15%	8%	5%	14%	3%
Development	7%	5%	21%	4%	15%	4%	7%
Interstate crisis	6%	8%	4%	5%	3%	7%	10%
Balance of power	8%	5%	7%	8%	6%	3%	4%
Diplomacy	6%	0%	11%	3%	15%	5%	4%
Humanitarian Intervention	2%	2%	7%	6%	10%	4%	6%
Foreign Global North Aid	6%	5%	3%	0%	7%	5%	7%
Monetary policy	3%	4%	5%	1%	7%	10%	3%
North-South relations	1%	3%	7%	2%	25%	1%	3%
Terrorism	9%	10%	2%	5%	5%	3%	3%
Ethnicity	13%	4%	6%	4%	3%	2%	3%

Alliances	1%	7%	3%	6%	9%	2%	5%
Environment	0%	4%	6%	7%	11%	2%	4%
Migration	4%	9%	5%	1%	15%	1%	2%
Bargaining/Deterrence Strategy	12%	10%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Gender	4%	1%	2%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Sanctions	0%	0%	1%	0%	3%	2%	2%
WMD proliferation	3%	3%	2%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Weapon systems	3%	1%	0%	1%	0%	2%	1%
Public health	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total number of articles	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 34 Substantive focus per case

Substantive focus	North America	North America %	Latin America	Latin America %	Europe	Europe %
Domestic politics	201	36%	82	39%	67	27%
International governmental organizations	126	23%	62	30%	65	26%
International regimes	111	20%	26	12%	74	30%
Other	145	26%	12	6%	29	12%
Regime type	107	19%	33	16%	43	17%
Interstate war	106	19%	13	6%	36	15%
Trade	84	15%	45	22%	21	9%
Foreign Global North Policy	50	9%	51	24%	35	14%
Economic interdependence	63	11%	44	21%	22	9%
Study of the IR discipline	42	8%	20	10%	51	21%
Regional integration	27	5%	46	22%	32	13%
Interstate conflict	64	12%	18	9%	20	8%
Public opinion	45	8%	26	12%	28	11%
NGOs	46	8%	23	11%	22	9%
International law	50	9%	22	11%	17	7%
Development	34	6%	39	19%	10	4%
Interstate crisis	45	8%	8	4%	15	6%
Balance of power	26	5%	14	7%	17	7%
Diplomacy	26	5%	26	12%	4	2%
Humanitarian Intervention	24	4%	18	9%	10	4%
Foreign Global North Aid	35	6%	10	5%	5	2%
Monetary policy	31	6%	12	6%	5	2%
North-South relations	10	2%	31	15%	6	2%
Terrorism	24	4%	6	3%	17	7%
Ethnicity	26	5%	10	5%	9	4%
Alliances	16	3%	12	6%	16	6%
Environment	12	2%	17	8%	14	6%
Migration	13	2%	19	9%	10	4%
Bargaining/Deterrence Strategy	14	3%	0	0%	11	4%
Gender	9	2%	3	1%	2	1%
Sanctions	10	2%	4	2%	0	0%
WMD proliferation	6	1%	3	1%	5	2%
Weapon systems	9	2%	0	0%	2	1%
Public health	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Total number of articles	553	100%	209	100%	247	100%

Table App 35 Substantive foci, aggregated

Substantive focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Security/war and peace	92	69	45	80	47	82	160
Global Governance/IO	62	68	109	134	64	150	114
IPE	32	36	87	22	55	93	101
Foreign Global North Policy	19	5	42	34	35	23	34
Domestic	114	99	90	70	84	139	172
Other	32	27	33	65	21	50	127
Total number of articles	116	105	121	142	88	183	254

Table App 36 Substantive foci, aggregated by journal (in percentage of total number of articles)

Substantive focus	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Security/war and peace	79%	66%	37%	56%	53%	45%	63%
Global Governance/IO	53%	65%	90%	94%	73%	82%	45%
IPE	28%	34%	72%	15%	63%	51%	40%
Foreign Global North Policy	16%	5%	35%	24%	40%	13%	13%
Domestic	98%	94%	74%	49%	95%	76%	68%
Other	28%	26%	27%	46%	24%	27%	50%

Table App 37 Substantive foci, aggregated by case (in percentage of total number of articles)

Substantive focus	North America	North America %	Latin America	Latin America %	Europe	Europe %
Domestic	334	60%	92	44%	149	60%
Global Governance/IO	326	59%	173	83%	202	82%
Security/war and peace	226	41%	142	68%	58	23%
IPE	76	14%	77	37%	39	16%
Other	425	77%	174	83%	169	68%
Foreign Global North Policy	209	38%	54	26%	92	37%
Total number of articles	553	100%	209	100%	247	100%

Table App 38 North American Trinity Focus by Journal

Issue Area	APSR	IO	ISQ
International Security	28%	18%	26%
International Political Economy	5%	34%	22%
International Organization	8%	17%	9%

Theoretical diversity

Table App 39 Survey benchmark, theoretical diversity

Aggregated theoretical approaches	Global	USA	Latin America	Europe
Non-paradigmatic	43%	45%	39%	48%
Constructivist	23%	20%	28%	25%
Realist	18%	18%	16%	11%

Liberal	12%	15%	10%	11%
Marxist	4%	3%	7%	4%
Atheoretic/Non	-	-	-	-

Table App 40 Theoretical Approach by Journal

Theoretical approach	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Non-paradigmatic	82	65	66	54	38	69	138
Liberal	21	31	16	20	32	80	70
Constructivist	6	4	7	48	3	27	30
Atheoretic/Non	3	2	30	3	7	4	12
Realist	4	2	2	12	5	3	3
Marxist		1		5	3		1
Total	116	105	121	142	88	183	254

Table App 41 Theoretical Approach by Journal in percentage share

Theoretical approach	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Non-paradigmatic	71%	62%	55%	38%	43%	38%	54%
Liberal	18%	30%	13%	14%	36%	44%	28%
Constructivist	5%	4%	6%	34%	3%	15%	12%
Atheoretic/Non	3%	2%	25%	2%	8%	2%	5%
Realist	3%	2%	2%	8%	6%	2%	1%
Marxist	0%	1%	0%	4%	3%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 42 Theoretical Approach by Region

Theoretical approach	North America	North America %	Latin America	Latin America %	Europe	Europe %
Non-paradigmatic	289	52%	104	50%	119	48%
Liberal	171	31%	48	23%	51	21%
Constructivist	63	11%	10	5%	52	21%
Atheoretic/Non	19	3%	37	18%	5	2%
Realist	10	2%	7	3%	14	6%
Marxist	1	0%	3	1%	6	2%
Total	553	100%	209	100%	247	100%

Table App 43 Theoretical Approach taken Seriously by Journal

Theoretical approach taken seriously	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Realism	10	4	17	32	12	23	36
Liberalism	8	6	20	28	16	31	25
Non-paradigmatic	9	6	9	14	11	25	39
Constructivism	5	6	4	21	6	13	16
Marxism	1		1	3	2	2	5
Total number of articles	116	105	121	142	88	183	254

Table App 44 Theoretical Approach taken Seriously by Journal in Percentages

Theoretical approach taken seriously	APSR	BJPS	EI	EJIR	FI	IO	ISQ
Realism	9%	4%	14%	23%	14%	13%	14%
Liberalism	7%	6%	17%	20%	18%	17%	10%
Non-paradigmatic	8%	6%	7%	10%	13%	14%	15%
Constructivism	4%	6%	3%	15%	7%	7%	6%
Marxism	1%	0%	1%	2%	2%	1%	2%

Table App 45 Theoretical Approach taken Seriously by Region

Theoretical approach taken seriously	North America	North America %	Latin America	Latin America %	Europe	Europe %
Realism	69	12%	29	14%	36	15%
Liberalism	64	12%	36	17%	34	14%
Non-paradigmatic	73	13%	20	10%	20	8%
Constructivism	34	6%	10	5%	27	11%
Marxism	8	1%	3	1%	3	1%
Total number of articles	553	100%	209	100%	247	100%

Chapter 5

TRIP survey

Table App 46 Composition of IR academies per country based on scholars' country of origin

Country	From same country	Largest diasporas (≥5%)	German diaspora	N
All countries	-	-	2% ⁹⁵	4614
Argentina	93%	-	0%	46
Australia	44%	United Kingdom (18%), United States (10%)	3%	146
Austria	57%	Germany (29%)	29%	14
Belgium	This question was not asked in Belgium.			
Brazil	93%	-	0.5%	204
Canada	59%	United States (12%)	3%	264
Chile	95%	-	0%	19
China	98%	-	0%	175
Colombia	70%	France (7%)	3%	60
Denmark	81%	-	4%	73
Finland	89%	-	6%	18
France	This question was not asked in France.			

⁹⁵ This value is calculated as follows: all scholars originally from Germany but being affiliated with an institution outside Germany divided by the total number of respondents to this question excluding those affiliated with German institutions. The largest diaspora worldwide are U.S. scholars (4%) whereas Germany and the United Kingdom (2% each) share the second place.

Germany	86%	-	-	210
Hong Kong	67%	China (17%), United Kingdom (17%)	0%	6
India	99%	-	0%	280
Ireland	67%	United States (12%), United Kingdom (6%)	0%	33
Israel	67%	United States (16%)	1%	67
Italy	98%	-	1%	112
Japan	97%	-	0%	185
Mexico	83%	-	0%	98
New Zealand	18%	United Kingdom (27%), Australia (9%), India (9%)	0%	22
Norway	80%	United States (6%)	3%	69
Poland	98%	-	0%	175
Singapore	33%	United States (26%), India (7%), Taiwan (7%), United Kingdom (7%)	4%	27
South Africa	68%	Ghana (6%), Nigeria (6%), United Kingdom (6%)	0%	31
Sweden	74%	United States (5%)	3%	80
Switzerland	33%	Germany (33%), United States (12%)	33%	24
Taiwan	95%	-	1%	73
Turkey	96%	-	1%	230
the Netherlands	68%	Germany (12%)	12%	40
the United Kingdom	45%	United States (11%), Germany (8%)	8%	322
the United States	78%	-	2%	1511

Table App 47 Language experiment, TRIP survey

Did respondents switch?	N	% of Total
No	144	62%
Yes	90	38%
Total	234	100%

Table App 48 Language movement, TRIP survey

Paradigm	English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Constructivism	16	30%	59	36%
English School	2	4%	1	1%
Feminism	0	0%	1	1%
Non-Paradigmatic	17	32%	48	29%
Liberalism	4	8%	28	17%
Marxism	2	4%	5	3%
Other	10	19%	16	10%
Realism	2	4%	8	5%

Total	53	100%	166	100%
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Table App 49 Language movement and theoretical approach, ZIB

Paradigm	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to:			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Constructivism	13	30%	32	35%	3	30%	27	36%
English School	2	5%	1	1%	0	0%	0	0%
Feminism	0	0%	1	1%	0	0%	0	0%
Non-Paradigmatic	13	30%	26	28%	4	40%	22	30%
Liberalism	4	9%	19	21%	0	0%	9	12%
Marxism	2	5%	1	1%	0	0%	4	5%
Other	8	19%	7	8%	2	20%	9	12%
Realism	1	2%	5	5%	1	10%	3	4%
TOTAL:	43	100%	92	100%	10	100%	74	100%

Table App 50 Language movement and methodology, TRIP survey

Primary Method	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to:			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Legal or ethical analysis	0	0%	0	0%	1	11%	0	0%
Policy Analysis	1	2%	5	5%	0	0%	0	0%
Qualitative Analysis	38	88%	70	77%	5	56%	63	85%
Quantitative Analysis	4	9%	12	13%	3	33%	8	11%
Pure Theory	0	0%	4	4%	0	0%	3	4%
TOTAL:	43	100%	91	100%	9	100%	74	100%

Table App 51 Language movement and selected methods, TRIP survey

Primary Method	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to:			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Process Tracing	22	50%	45	48%	7	58%	51	57%
Content Analysis	22	50%	48	52%	5	42%	39	43%
TOTAL:	44	100%	93	100%	12	100%	90	100%

Table App 52 Language movement and issue area, TRIP survey

Community Identification	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to:			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Epistemology Specific	0	0%	1	2%	2	6%	2	2%

Generation Specific	1	13%	4	6%	2	6%	4	5%
Global	1	13%	6	10%	5	15%	14	17%
Issue-Specific	3	38%	25	40%	11	32%	27	33%
Language Specific	0	0%	1	2%	1	3%	2	2%
Methodology-Specific	1	13%	4	6%	2	6%	2	2%
National	0	0%	6	10%	1	3%	7	9%
None	0	0%	4	6%	1	3%	7	9%
Ontology Specific	1	13%	1	2%	1	3%	6	7%
Other	0	0%	1	2%	0	0%	0	0%
Paradigm-Specific	0	0%	3	5%	2	6%	4	5%
Regional	1	13%	6	10%	5	15%	6	7%
Sub-National	0	0%	0	0%	1	3%	0	0%
TOTAL:	8	100%	62	100%	34	100%	81	100%

Table App 53 Language movement and epistemology, TRIP survey

Epistemology	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Positivist	22	51%	36	41%	5	50%	32	44%
Non/Post Positivist	21	49%	52	59%	5	50%	40	56%
TOTAL:	43	100%	88	100%	10	100%	72	100%

Table App 54 Language movement and ontology, TRIP survey

Ontology	Did not change from Assigned language						Changed from Assigned language to		
	English			German			English		German
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	
I employ rational choice framework	0	0%	5	5%	0	0%	1	1%	
My work is broadly rational/ "soft rational choice"	9	21%	20	22%	3	30%	20	27%	
Uses both rational and alternative approaches	24	56%	56	62%	5	50%	36	49%	
My work does not assume the rationality of actors	10	23%	10	11%	2	20%	17	23%	
TOTAL:	43	100%	91	100%	10	100%	74	100%	

Table App 55 Language movement and gender

Gender	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
Male	22	54%	51	57%	5	50%	45	62%
Female	17	41%	36	40%	5	50%	26	36%

Prefer not to Answer	2	5%	2	2%	0	0%	2	3%
Transgender	0	0%	1	1%	0	0%	0	0%
TOTAL:	41	100%	90	100%	10	100%	73	100%

Table App 56 Language movement and age

Age	Did not change from Assigned language				Changed from Assigned language to			
	English		German		English		German	
	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total	N	% of Total
20-35	13	33%	45	52%	5	50%	35	49%
36-45	15	38%	24	28%	4	40%	26	36%
46-55	8	20%	11	13%	1	10%	7	10%
56-65	3	8%	5	6%	0	0%	4	6%
66+	1	3%	2	2%	0	0%	0	0%
TOTAL:	40	100%	87	100%	10	100%	72	100%

Content analysis of ZIB

Table App 57 Main theoretical approaches, ZIB

Main theoretical approach	N	% of total (rounded)
Social Constructivism	12	23%
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	12	23%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	7	13%
Other	6	12%
Liberalism(domestic IR)	4	8%
Marxism/Post-Marxism	2	4%
Copenhagen School/Securitization	2	4%
Post-structuralism	2	4%
Postcolonialism	2	4%
English School/International Society	2	4%
Realism	1	2%
Total	52	100%

Table App 58 Main theoretical approaches in forum and symposium, ZIB

Main theoretical approach	N	% of total
No main approach(es)	25	50%
Social Constructivism	8	16%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	3	6%
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	3	6%
Other	3	6%
Marxism/Post-Marxism	2	4%
Postcolonialism	2	4%
Liberalism(domestic IR)	1	2%
Realism	1	2%
English School/International Society	1	2%
Post-structuralism	1	2%
Total	50	100%

Table App 59 Main theoretical approaches in main part, ZIB

Main theoretical approach	N	% of total
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	9	27%
Social Constructivism	8	24%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	4	12%
Other	3	9%
Liberalism(domestic IR)	3	9%
No main approach(es)	2	6%
Copenhagen School/Securitization	2	6%
Post-structuralism	1	3%
English School/International Society	1	3%
Total	33	100%

Table App 60 Number of main approaches per article, ZIB

Number of main approaches	N	%
One approach	30	79%
Two approaches	5	13%
Three approaches	2	5%
Four approaches	1	3%
Total	38	100%

Table App 61 Theoretical approaches addressed, ZIB

Theoretical Approach	N	% of Total
No theoretical approach(es) addressed	20	19%
Social Constructivism	16	15%
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	16	15%
Other	10	9%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	10	9%
Postcolonialism	7	7%
Liberalism(domestic IR)	6	6%
Copenhagen School/Securitization	5	5%
Realism	5	5%
Post-structuralism	4	4%
Marxism/Post-Marxism	3	3%
English School/International Society	3	3%
Feminism	1	1%
Total	106	100%

Table App 62 Theoretical synthesis for articles with more than one main approach, ZIB

Synthesized approaches	No synthesis	Total
Liberalism(domestic IR); Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1
Liberalism(domestic IR); Social Constructivism	1	1
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Postcolonialism; Marxism/Post-Marxism	1	1
Postcolonialism; Other: Post-structuralism	1	1

Total	4	4
Total N: 8	50%	Without synthesis

Table App 63 Theoretical synthesis for articles that address more than one theoretical approach, ZIB

Synthesized approaches	No synthesis	Total
English School/International Society; Copenhagen School/Securitization; Postcolonialism; Other: Chinese School of IR/pluralist Chinese approaches	1	1
Liberalism(domestic IR); Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1
Liberalism(domestic IR); Social Constructivism	1	1
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; English School/International Society	1	1
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Postcolonialism; Marxism/Post-Marxism	1	1
Postcolonialism; Marxism/Post-Marxism; Other: ethnographic empiricism (Latour), structuralism (Foucault)	1	1
Postcolonialism; Other: Post-structuralism	1	1
Rational Choice Institutionalism; Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; English School/International Society; Cannot identify	1	1
Realism; Liberalism(domestic IR); Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1
Realism; Liberalism(domestic IR); Rational Choice Institutionalism; Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism; Other: Pragmatism; Cannot identify	1	1
Realism; Rational Choice Institutionalism; Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1
Realism; Social Constructivism	1	1
Social Constructivism; Copenhagen School/Securitization; Other: Figurational sociology/process sociology (Norbert Elias)	1	1
Social Constructivism; Copenhagen School/Securitization; Other: Post-structuralism (Foucaultian governmentality approach)	1	1
Social Constructivism; Feminism; Postcolonialism	1	1
Social Constructivism; Postcolonialism	1	1
Social Constructivism; Postcolonialism; Other: post-structuralism	1	1
Total	17	17
Total N: 21	81%	without synthesis

Table App 64 Articles without a main approach by issue area, ZIB

Issue Area	No main approach(es)	%-Share
Domestic Politics	1	4%
ForeiGlobal North Policy	1	4%
History of the IR discipline	16	59%
International Organization	1	4%
International Security	1	4%
Methodology	5	19%
Other	1	4%
Democratization	1	4%
Total	27	100%

Table App 65 Theoretical approaches rejected, ZIB

Theoretical approach rejected	N	% of total
No theoretical approach(es) rejected	65	96%
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	1	1%
Realism; Rational Choice Institutionalism; Social Constructivism	1	1%
Total	68	1

Table App 66 Empirical strategy, ZIB

Empirical Strategy	Number	%-Share
Single case study	28	44%
No empirical strategy	27	43%
Comparative case study	4	6%
Third-party empirical data	2	3%
(Quasi)Experimental	1	2%
Quantitative	1	2%
Total	63	100%

Table App 67 Nature of argument by empirical strategy, ZIB

Empirical strategy	Historical Narrative	Inferential statistics	Purely descriptive	Theoretical argument	Total
No empirical strategy	0%	0%	38%	100%	44%
Single case study	75%	0%	54%	0%	37%
Comparative case study	25%	0%	0%	0%	5%
Mixed method desiGlobal North	0%	43%	0%	0%	5%
Third-party empirical data	0%	14%	4%	0%	3%
Other	0%	14%	4%	0%	3%
Quantitative	0%	14%	0%	0%	2%
(Quasi)Experimental	0%	14%	0%	0%	2%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 68 Nature of argument by type of case study, ZIB

Empirical strategy	(Critical) Discourse Analysis/Linguistics/Discourse Studies	Historical Narrative	Process Tracing	Purely descriptive	Total
Single case study	80%	75%	100%	58%	67%
No empirical strategy	0%	0%	0%	42%	24%
Comparative case study	20%	25%	0%	0%	10%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 69 Articles with inferential statistics by empirical strategy, ZIB

Empirical strategy	Inferential statistics	%-Share
Mixed method desiGlobal North	3	43%
Third-party empirical data	1	14%
Quantitative	1	14%
(Quasi)Experimental	1	14%
Other	1	14%
Total	7	100%

Table App 70 Empirical strategy by sections of the journal, ZIB

Empirical Strategy	Forum		Main part		Symposium		Total	
	Number	%-Share	Number	%-Share	Number	%-Share	Number	%-Share
Single case study	9	30%	13	48%	6	55%	28	41%
Comparative case study		0%	4	15%		0%	4	6%
No empirical strategy	18	60%	4	15%	5	45%	27	40%
Third-party empirical data		0%	2	7%		0%	2	3%
Mixed method desiGlobal North	1	3%	2	7%		0%	3	4%
(Quasi)Experimental		0%	1	4%		0%	1	1%
Quantitative		0%	1	4%		0%	1	1%
Other	2	7%		0%		0%	2	3%
Total	30	100%	27	100%	11	100%	68	100%

Table App 71 Nature of argument, ZIB

Nature of argument	N	% of total
Purely descriptive	26	38%
Theoretical argument	17	25%
Historical Narrative	12	18%
Inferential statistics	7	10%
(Critical) Discourse Analysis/Linguistics/Discourse Studies	5	7%
Process Tracing	1	1%
Total	68	100%

Table App 72 Nature of argument by journal section, ZIB

Argument	Forum		Main part		Symposium		Total	
	N	%-Share	N	%-Share	N	%-Share	N	%-Share
Historical Narrative	3	10%	9	33%		0%	12	18%
Purely descriptive	11	37%	5	19%	10	91%	26	38%
Inferential statistics	2	7%	5	19%		0%	7	10%
Theoretical argument	12	40%	4	15%	1	9%	17	25%
(Critical) Discourse Analysis/Linguistics/ Discourse Studies	2	7%	3	11%		0%	5	7%
Process Tracing		0%	1	4%		0%	1	1%
Total	30	100%	27	100%	11	100%	68	100%

Table App 73 Articles with theoretical argument by nature of argument, ZIB

Nature of argument	Theoretical argument
History of the IR discipline	5
International Organization	2
IR Theory	6
Methodology	2
Other	1
Philosophy of Science	1
Total	17

Table App 74 Articles with policy prescription, ZIB

Policy prescription	N	% of total
No	62	91%
Yes	6	9%
Total	68	100%

Table App 75 Policy prescription by journal section, ZIB

Policy Prescription?	Forum	Main part	Symposium	Total
No	90%	100%	73%	91%
Yes	10%	0%	27%	9%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table App 76 Issue area, ZIB

Issue Area	N	% of total
History of the IR discipline	21	31%
International Organization	14	21%
IR Theory	6	9%
Methodology	6	9%
Domestic Politics	5	7%
International Security	4	6%
ForeiGlobal North Policy	3	4%
Democratization	3	4%
Human Rights	2	3%
Other	2	3%
Philosophy of Science	1	1%
International Law	1	1%
Total	68	100%

Table App 77 Issue areas in main articles, ZIB

Issue Area	N	% of total
International Organization	9	35%
International Security	4	15%
IR Theory	3	12%
ForeiGlobal North Policy	3	12%
Domestic Politics	2	8%
Human Rights	2	8%

Other: Democratization	1	4%
History of the IR discipline	1	4%
International Law	1	4%
Total	26	100%

Table App 78 Ontology, ZIB

Ontology	N	% of Total
Non-rational choice	30	68%
Rational choice	14	32%
Total	44	100%

Table App 79 Ontology by theoretical approach, ZIB

Theoretical Approach	Non-rational choice	Rational choice	Total
Copenhagen School/Securitization	7%	0%	5%
Liberalism(domestic IR)	0%	29%	9%
Marxism/Post-Marxism	0%	14%	5%
Norms/Sociological and Historical Institutionalism	40%	0%	27%
Postcolonialism	7%	0%	5%
Post-structuralism	7%	0%	5%
Rational Choice Institutionalism	0%	50%	16%
Realism	0%	7%	2%
Social Constructivism	40%	0%	27%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Summary

This dissertation revolves around questions of how diverse the International Relations (IR) discipline is and what patterns of dominance are shaping it. I approached these questions through an in-depth study of IR scholarship in eight IR journals published in North America, Latin America, and Europe, and findings from the 2014 TRIP faculty survey as a point of reference. I based my study of the journals' geographical, thematic, and theoretical diversity on a threefold definition of the term, which distinguishes between the three properties variety, evenness, and dissimilarity. The first refers to the number of regions, theories, and topics studied by a journal and the number of countries of affiliation on which its authorship is based. Evenness refers to the relative intensity with which each of the present regions, theories, and topics are studied and the relative presence of each of the countries of affiliations in the journal. In the context of this dissertation, dissimilarity refers to the relative mix of critical and non-critical theories, the mix of regions under study and the authors based in the Global South and the Global North. The latter has special relevance to the debate on Global IR to which this dissertation contributes.

On the whole, the level of diversity is at a medium level for the journals under study. The published scholarship is rather diverse due to a relatively broad variation of theory and themes as well as regions across the journals under study, but the values do not match the numbers displayed by the survey respondents across the globe which suggest a higher degree of diversity. The values tend to be lower for the individual journals. This is especially the case when looking beyond the standard property variety. In fact, while some of the journals cover a wide range of theories (FI, ISQ, and EJIR), topics (APSR and ISQ), and regions (all journals), none of the journals scored a high level of evenness or dissimilarity for any of the areas of investigation. Following my definition of dominance as low evenness and/or dissimilarity, I can conclude that there are a number of cases of dominance with a potential impact on the discipline at large.

The strongest pattern in regard to geographical authorship diversity is the dominance of US-based authors in IO, ISQ, APSR, and BJPoIS that is accompanied by a strong presence of US-based authors in FI and EJIR. The dominance of US-based authors in the three North American journals speaks of high insularity, confirming a number of earlier studies on this subject. Overall, authors based at Western institutions dominate the field as they demonstrate a relatively strong presence in all journals under study, even in Latin American EI and FI. These two journals are also strongly characterized by a local authorship but there is an important difference in terms of authorship insularity between these two journals and those edited in North America. Despite the large number of Latin American authors in the Latin American journal, there are also many articles by authors based in Europe and North America,

while the opposite cannot be said for the rest of the journals. The stream of authors based in the West, and especially the US, to other regions of the world seems to be a one-way street. On the other hand, it is this strong presence of authors based in the West that leads to the formation of a probably unintended island of diversity at EI and FI. The relatively high level of authorship dissimilarity they display seems impossible to create in any of the other regions and journals under study. The findings on Western dominance in regard to geographical authorship and content dissimilarity are in line with the perceptions of a majority of IR scholars according to the 2014 TRIP survey.

The case study on German IR demonstrated that the German IR community has a distinct profile characterized by a strong preference for theoretical pluralism and empirical diversity, which is visible in both the 2014 TRIP survey data and the analysis of ZIB. The case study confirmed that the German IR community is strongly internationalized and rather comfortable in its position as a strong national research community with firm connections to the global and the U.S. community. This is in line with the relatively strong presence of Germany-based authors in almost all of the journals under study included the comparative case study. In addition, the German profile is relatively close to what is published in EJIR.

Zusammenfassung

Diese Dissertation dreht sich um Fragen, wie vielfältig die Disziplin Internationale Beziehungen (IB) ist und welche Dominanzmuster sie prägen. Ich ging diesen Fragen in Form einer vergleichenden Fallstudie von acht IB-Zeitschriften, die in Nordamerika, Lateinamerika und Europa veröffentlicht wurden, nach und verglich die Ergebnisse mit denen der TRIP-Umfrage unter IB-WissenschaftlerInnen 2014. Ich habe meine Studie über die geografische, thematische und theoretische Vielfalt der Zeitschriften auf eine dreifache Definition des Begriffs gestützt, die zwischen den drei Eigenschaften Vielfalt, Gleichmäßigkeit und Unähnlichkeit unterscheidet. Vielfalt bezieht sich auf die Anzahl der Regionen, Theorien und Themen, die in einer Zeitschrift untersucht werden, und die Anzahl der Länder, in denen die Autorenschaft ansässig ist. Gleichmäßigkeit bezieht sich auf die relative Intensität, mit der jede der untersuchten Regionen, Theorien und Themen untersucht wird, und auf die relative Präsenz jedes Herkunftslandes. Im Kontext dieser Dissertation bezieht sich Unähnlichkeit auf die relative Mischung aus kritischen und unkritischen Theorien, die Mischung der untersuchten Regionen und die Autoren aus dem Globalen Süden und dem Globalen Norden. Letzteres hat eine besondere Relevanz für die Debatte zur Globalen IR, zu der diese Dissertation beiträgt.

Insgesamt liegt das Niveau der Diversität für die untersuchten Zeitschriften auf einem mittleren Niveau. Die veröffentlichte Forschung ist aufgrund einer relativ breiten Variation von Theorie und Themen sowie

von Regionen in den untersuchten Zeitschriften recht divers, aber die Werte stimmen nicht mit den Eindrücken und Angaben von TRIP-UmfrageteilnehmerInnen auf der ganzen Welt überein, da diese auf ein höheres Maß an Diversität schließen lassen. Dies ist insbesondere dann der Fall, wenn man über den Standardparameter Vielfalt hinausgeht. Während einige der Zeitschriften eine breite Palette von Theorien (FI, ISQ und EJIR), Themen (APSR und ISQ) und Regionen (alle Zeitschriften) abdecken, erzielte keine der Zeitschriften ein hohes Maß an Gleichmäßigkeit oder Unähnlichkeit in keinem der untersuchten Bereiche. Nach meiner Definition von Dominanz als geringe Gleichmäßigkeit und/oder Unähnlichkeit kann ich folgern, dass es eine Reihe von Dominanzmuster gibt, die sich auf die gesamte Disziplin auswirken könnten.

Das stärkste dieser Muster ist die Dominanz der in den USA ansässigen AutorInnen in IO, ISQ, APSR und BJPoS, die von einer starken Präsenz in FI und EJIR begleitet wird. Die Dominanz von US-amerikanischen AutorInnen in den drei nordamerikanischen Zeitschriften spricht von hoher Isolation der amerikanischen IB und bestätigt eine Reihe früherer Studien zu diesem Thema. Insgesamt dominieren AutorInnen, die an westlichen Institutionen angesiedelt sind, da sie in allen untersuchten Zeitschriften eine relativ starke Präsenz aufweisen, sogar in den lateinamerikanischen Zeitschriften EI und FI. Diese beiden Zeitschriften sind wie die amerikanischen stark von einer lokalen Autorschaft gekennzeichnet, dabei gibt es aber einen wichtigen Unterschied im Vergleich den in Nordamerika herausgegebenen Zeitschriften. Neben der großen Anzahl von lateinamerikanischen AutorInnen in der lateinamerikanischen Zeitschrift gibt es auch viele Artikel von AutorInnen aus Europa und Nordamerika, während das Gegenteil für den Rest der Zeitschriften nicht der Fall ist. Der Strom von AutorInnen, die im Westen, und besonders in den USA, ansässig sind, scheint eine Einbahnstraße zu sein. Auf der anderen Seite führt diese starke Präsenz von AutorInnen, die im Westen angesiedelt sind, zur Bildung einer wahrscheinlich unbeabsichtigten Insel der Vielfalt in EI und FI. Das relativ hohe Niveau der Unähnlichkeit der Autorschaft, das diese beiden Zeitschriften aufweisen, scheint in keiner der anderen untersuchten Regionen und Zeitschriften entstehen zu können. Die Ergebnisse der westlichen Dominanz in Bezug auf die geografische Autorschaft und die inhaltliche Unähnlichkeit stimmen mit den Wahrnehmungen einer Mehrheit von IB-WissenschaftlerInnen gemäß der TRIP-Studie von 2014 überein.

Die Fallstudie zur deutschen IB zeigte, dass die deutsche IB-Community ein ausgeprägtes Profil aufweist, das sich durch eine starke Präferenz für theoretischen Pluralismus und empirische Vielfalt auszeichnet, was sowohl in den TRIP-Umfragedaten 2014 als auch in der Analyse des ZIB sichtbar ist. Die Fallstudie bestätigte, dass die deutsche IB-Community stark internationalisiert ist und sich in ihrer Position als starke nationale Forschungsgemeinschaft mit festen Verbindungen zur globalen und zur US-

amerikanischen Gemeinschaft wohl fühlt. Dies steht im Einklang mit der relativ starken Präsenz von in Deutschland ansässigen AutorInnen in fast allen anderen untersuchten Zeitschriften. Zudem ist das deutsche Profil relativ ähnlich dem, was im EJIR veröffentlicht wird.

Erklärung gemäß § 7 (4) der Promotionsordnung

Ich versichere hiermit, dass ich die Dissertation selbständig auf der Grundlage von Hilfsmitteln und Hilfen verfasst habe, die sämtlich in der Dissertation angegeben sind.

Ich versichere, dass die Dissertation nicht schon einmal in einem früheren Promotionsverfahren angenommen oder als ungenügend beurteilt worden ist. Ich erkläre mich bereit, dem Promotionsausschuss auf Anfrage die Arbeiten aus früheren Promotionsverfahren vorzulegen.

Berlin, den 04.06.2018

Wiebke Wemheuer-Vogelaar

List of previously published works related to the thesis

- Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke; Risse, Thomas (2018): International Relations Scholars in Germany: Young, Internationalised, and Non-Paradigmatic. In *German Politics* 27 (1), pp. 89–112.
- Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke; Bell, Nicholas; Navarrete Morales, Mariana; Tierney, Michael J. (2016): The IR of the Beholder. Examining Global IR Using the 2014 TRIP Survey. In *International Studies Review* 18 (1), pp. 16–32.
- Wemheuer-Vogelaar, Wiebke; Peters, Ingo (2016): Introduction: Global(izing) International Relations: Studying Geo-Epistemological Divides and Diversity. In Ingo Peters, Wiebke Wemheuer-Vogelaar (Eds.): *Globalizing International Relations. Scholarship Amidst Divides and Diversity*. London: Palgrave Macmillan UK (Palgrave studies in international relations), pp. 1–27.

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