

ARTICLE

European Journals in the Social Sciences and Humanities¹

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Abstract

After a period of slow growth (1960–1985), journals in the social sciences and humanities which call themselves “European” have expanded rapidly. This process, which is related to the expansive European research and science policy, is shown to have occurred primarily in well-established (sub-)disciplines, and, secondarily, in more applied “studies” (educational sciences, management, urban studies, European studies) or in thematic domains (crime and security, health). Remarkably few “European” journals, however, have a multidisciplinary and innovative intellectual program; most are oriented toward mainstream approaches or have an ecumenical profile. European journals are published most frequently by Anglo-American publishers and edited by scholars from these countries. Countries of similar size and intellectual density like Germany and France lag very much behind the UK in this respect

Keywords

History of the Social Sciences, Scientific Journals, European Research Area, Europeanization.

To assure their stability over time, scientific fields require periodicals. More than monographs, treatises and textbooks, journals assure the continuous publication and evaluation of research results, and thus contribute to stabilizing the production and reproduction of knowledge in specific research areas. Because of their serial character, journals are not merely publication outlets or communication channels, they are instrumental in setting standards, policing boundaries, and establishing hierarchies of problems, procedures and producers. Although there is some variation in their significance across disciplines, journals are an essential feature of the institutional structure of modern science and scholarship.² Major changes in research domains tend to be accompanied by the founding of new

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² Although journals have become the standard periodical, several other forms have existed (proceedings, yearbooks, annals, almanacs). On the relative importance of journal articles as compared to books and its variation across disciplines, see Larivière et al. (2006).

journals, and by changes in the balance of power between existing ones. Studying journals can therefore be an appropriate way to examine the dynamics of scientific fields.

While the historical development of journals has typically been a process of growth and differentiation, it is too often ignored that this has taken place within the framework of national systems of higher learning. More than many other pursuits science is an international enterprise, but its practice has been institutionalized in national structures of training, funding, and publishing. Scientific periodicals are no exception. Emerging during the period of the “scientific revolution” they were related to newly established national academies, which switched from Latin to the vernacular; the most prominent ones being the *Philosophical Transactions* (1665) of the Royal Society (1660) and the *Mémoires* of the French Academy of Sciences (1666). More than a century later, during what is sometimes called the second scientific revolution, academies and other learned societies were outpaced by more research oriented universities and new professional schools. With the differentiation of the scientific field, and the declining control of academies, general periodicals gave way to more specialized ones. The *Journal de Physique* (1771), which has been described as the first specialized scientific journal, was followed by a wave of similarly more ‘disciplinary’ journals like the *Annales de chimie* (1789), *Journal de l’École polytechnique* (1794), *Annales du Muséum d’histoire naturelle* (1802), and the *Annales de mathématiques* (1810).³ The multiplication of scientific journals since the years around 1800 was an integral part of the process of discipline formation, but these journals were, by and large, national undertakings; journals in mathematics and physics were no exception (Gispert 2001).

In the social sciences journals have played a similar role. Establishing continuity and stabilizing the production and reproduction of research fields was to a significant extent achieved through journals. For nearly half a century, for example, sociological treatises and monographs had been published, but when at the end of the nineteenth century sociology became an academic discipline, scholarship was to a large degree published in journals like the *American Journal of Sociology* (1895), the *Revista Italiana di Sociologia* (1897), and the *Année sociologique* (1898).

Three Modes of Transnational Exchange

While training, research and publishing were organized in national systems of higher learning, rivalries between the more advanced nation states were regulated through international collaboration and exchange. The institutional form through which this was achieved was the *international organization*, and notable among them were scientific associations and conferences (Boli and Thomas 1990; Boncourt 2016, 2017; Jeanpierre and Boncourt 2015; Drori et al. 2003; Rasmussen 1995). International scientific organizations developed from the mid-nineteenth century onwards. In sociology, for example, alongside local chairs and national journals and associations, an *Institut international de sociologie* and the *Revue internationale de sociologie* were founded in 1893 (Fleck 2011: 27–29). International organizations expanded further after the Second World War, when UNESCO initiated and funded international disciplinary associations (Boncourt 2016, 2017; Jeanpierre and Boncourt 2015). Organizing international congresses, these associations published international journals as well. The International Sociological Association (1948), for example, publishes *Current sociology* (since 1952) and *International Sociology* (since 1986). Compared to national journals, that is journals where at least the vast majority of editors’ works in one country,

³ On the history of scientific periodicals, see Gascoigne (1985), Gross et al. (2002) and Tesnière and Bouquin (2015); on the related process of discipline formation see Heilbron (2004).

international journals are relatively few in number. In spite of ongoing transnationalization, scholarly journals are still far more often national than international, and so-called “international” journals are hardly ever at the top of the citation hierarchies (Heilbron 2009; Gingras and Heilbron 2009; Heilbron and Bokobza 2015).

The accelerated trend of cross-border mobilities during the last part of the twentieth century, facilitated by technological innovation and driven by neoliberal policies of liberalization and the collapse of communism, produced new forms of transnational exchange as well. To grasp their significance it is useful to distinguish between three modes of transnational exchange. *Internationalization*, carried out by international organizations, can be seen as the predominant trend of transnational exchange since the mid-nineteenth century. It concerned a relatively small number of agents, who were assumed to represent their country. In the latter part of the twentieth century two relatively new forms emerged. The most widely discussed is *globalization*, the process through which transnational activities become incorporated into global fields. These global fields include a significantly larger number of actors, countries and regions than the previous forms of internationalization. Far less attention, however, has been paid to a third mode of cross-border exchanges, *transnational regionalization*, that is the process through which transnational regional fields are established (Heilbron 2014a). The European Union can be considered to be the most advanced case of the latter process, but similar developments are taking place in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

The Emerging European Research Field

One of the more salient changes in international social science since the 1980s is that Europe has improved its position within the global field, mainly by instituting a transnational regional field. This incipient European field effectively transcends the various national fields on which it is based, and has obtained a transnational dynamic of its own. In terms of SSH output, Europe currently occupies a position that seems to have become comparable to that of the U.S. (Mosbah-Natanson and Gingras 2014). The share of social science articles in the database of the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) that are produced in Europe (European member states plus countries like Norway and Switzerland) has risen sharply (see [Table 1](#)). The only other region with a substantial increase is Asia, but its production is much smaller than that of Europe. As a consequence of the growth of the European production and to a lesser extent Asia, the proportion of articles produced in North America has decreased. Although this growth is partly the result of the Social Sciences Citation Index’s (SSCI) policy to include more European journals in the database, growth is not a statistical artefact, because most of the European journals added to the database were created recently and thus reflect a genuine growth of European social science output (Mosbah-Natanson and Gingras 2014: 630–632).

Table 1: Geographical origins of social science journals included in the WoS / SSCI database

Journals	1980–1989		1990–1999		2000–2009	
North America	375	49.7%	399	48.5%	398	36.5%
Europe	308	40.8%	365	44.4%	561	51.5%
Asia	31	4.1%	21	2.6%	46	4.2%
Oceania	17	2.3%	17	2.1%	27	2.5%
International	12	1.6%	10	1.2%	11	1.0%
Latin America	8	1.1%	5	0.6%	31	2.8%
Africa	3	0.4%	4	0.5%	12	1.1%
Oceania and CIS	1	0.1%	1	0.1%	3	0.3%

Data based on the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). The geographical origin of a journal is identified through the location of its publisher using the ISSN database.

Source: Mosbah-Natanson and Gingras 2014.

Part of the growth in SSH journals produced in Europe comes from periodicals that specifically use the adjective “European” in their title. Although they represent a small proportion of the total number of SSH journals, “European” journals have become a substantial category of journals and a significant dimension of the European field of SSH research. In this article we present preliminary results of the analysis of a database that we put together of 165 fully or partially English language journals in the social sciences and the humanities, that use the adjective ‘European’ in their title.⁴ Although there are obviously “European” journals that do not explicitly use the adjective “European,” just as there are “European” journals in other languages than English, the selection we have made represents a sufficiently large subset of European SSH journals to be of analytical interest. We will successively analyze the pattern of ‘European’ journal creation, the profile of these journals, their geographical location (based on the publisher and editors) and briefly their intellectual orientation (what is meant by the adjective “European,” do they promote distinctly European conceptions or, on the contrary, adhere to the Anglo-American mainstream).

European Journals Evolving

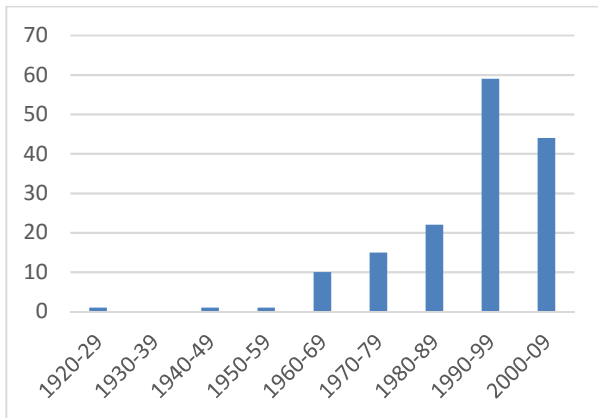
The development of European SSH journals during the twentieth century is almost entirely concentrated in the decades after 1960. Prior to that year hardly any “European” journals existed. The only “European” SSH journals founded before 1960 concerned “Slavic and East European” studies.⁵ The founding of European SSH journals took off in the early 1960s, and their development indicates two phases of expansion (see [Figures 1](#) and [2](#)). The first phase was between 1960 and 1985 with a relatively low level of growth, the second phase was during the latter half of the 1980s and the

⁴ The database contains all English language SSH journals with the adjective ‘European’ in the title or subtitle, which we were able to identify. The database was initially prepared by Camelia Runceanu using internet search engines, which was complemented through consultation of the library catalogues of the London School of Economics, the Library of Congress as well as the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Maison des sciences de l’homme, both in Paris. This database was subsequently updated, supplemented and corrected by searching the online library catalogues of Northwestern University, the University of Chicago, Columbia University (CLIO), and WorldCat.

⁵ The *Slavonic and East European Review* (1922), the *American Slavonic and East European Review* (1945–60), and the *Slavic and East European Journal* (1956). According to a preliminary search there was one more journal the *Revue européenne de psychologie appliqué / European Reviews in Applied Psychology*, but this journal was founded as the *Revue de psychologie appliqué* (1941) and got its European renaming only in 1991, and was incorporated in the database as being founded in 1991.

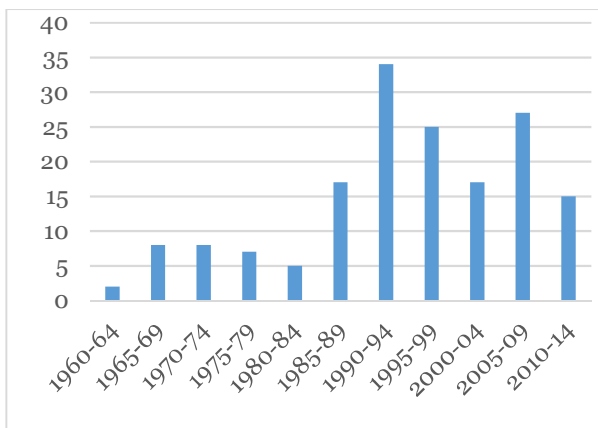
1990s when the level of growth was much higher. During the first 25 years, 1960–85, on average five to six European SSH journals were created during every five-year period, about one per year, but there is no temporal trend. Journal creation accelerated during the latter half of the 1980s, when 17 journals were created (1985–89), reaching a peak in the 1990s with 34 (1990–94) and 26 new journals (1995–99). Although the rate of newly created European SSH journals slowed after 2000, it remained well above the level of the first phase (1960–85), oscillating between 16 (2000–2004 and 2010–2014) and 26 new journals (2005–2009).

Figure 1: Newly created 'European' journals in the social and human sciences (1920-2010)



Database Bedecarré-Heilbron

Figure 2: Newly created 'European' journals in the social sciences and humanities (1960-2014)



Database Bedecarré-Heilbron

It is likely that the first phase of growth, with the creation of about one “European” journal per year was an increase in absolute terms, but given the general expansion of the social sciences, not in relative terms. The second period, however, with the creation of three to seven “European” journals

per year probably represented a relative increase as well.⁶ This particular temporal pattern clearly suggests a link with the more general process of European integration. The first phase of journal expansion coincides with the period following the establishment of the European Economic Community (1957), which led to a slow growth of European institutions and, since 1973, to a gradual extension of its member states. The second phase of journal expansion coincides with the accelerated European integration that was provoked by the Fall of the Berlin wall (1989) and the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe. This phase was marked by the Maastricht Treaty (1992), which formally established the European Union, an intensification of European policy making, also in the domain of science policy, and a continuously growing number of member states until the current crisis.

Directly relevant for the social sciences and humanities was the European science and research policy. A coherent European science policy came into being only in the beginning of the 1980s. Against the background of the deepest economic recession since the Second World War and in the face of mounting international economic competition, European funding for research and development became concentrated in multi-annual 'Framework Programmes'. Their overall objective was to strengthen the scientific and technological bases of the European economy and improve its competitiveness. The first was launched in 1984, and over the years Research funds increased from 640 million Euros in 1984 to 10 billion Euros per year in the seventh and last framework programme (2007–2013) (Schögler and König 2017).

While the first Framework Programmes contained hardly any provisions for the social sciences and humanities, the Fourth Framework Programme (1994–98) included a full-fledged SSH research program, and continued throughout subsequent Programmes. Merely one to two percent of the total funding went to the social sciences and humanities, but the size of these programs was considerable. Between 1994 and 2006 some 580 SSH projects were funded. Each one of them ran for approximately three years, had an average of ten partners, and could include well over a hundred individual participants. With an estimated output between five to ten thousand books and 20,000 to 32,000 journal articles, European funding and output had become quite significant (Heilbron 2014b). Since every Framework Programme project had to include researchers from several European countries, they functioned not only as tools for allocating funds, but also as an incentive for furthering transnational collaboration. In a fairly short period of time a transitional field of research in the social and human sciences emerged, which was made possible through European funding schemes, and was structured by a growing number of European programmes, organisations and networks. With the launch of the European Research Council in 2007, European research funds increased further still.

European associations, research networks, and journals have thus become an integral part of the institutional infrastructure in the social sciences. The tendency is weaker in the humanities, but nonetheless present there as well. In order to properly understand the role of European journals in this emerging transnational field we will take a closer look at these "European" journals.

⁶ We have not been able to test this hypothesis, but given the growth of universities in general, and the development of the social sciences in particular, it seems quite plausible.

Disciplines, Studies and Themes

Scholarly journals are first and foremost related to the division of academic labor and to the principles of differentiation of the academic field. In this respect, four broad categories of journals may be distinguished from one another: disciplinary journals, multi-disciplinary journals, journals in newer domains or ‘studies’, and thematic journals.

The first category pertains to journals in the oldest and most established SSH *disciplines* (philosophy, history, literature, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, psychology, geography, and demography) as well as in their most important research specializations and sub-disciplines. Sub-disciplinary journals in economics, for example, are typically journals in finance and banking, in international trade, or in agricultural economics. By far most European SSH journals are disciplinary or sub-disciplinary journals (n = 93, see [Table 2](#)). The main European journals in the traditional disciplines are typically published by European associations (Boncourt 2016, 2017).

In addition to journals in the ‘classical’ (sub)disciplines, one may add the category of more recently formed domains of study, which have equally become well-established university departments. Most of these domains emerged after 1968, in opposition to the traditional academic division of labor and in alliance with groups outside of the academy. For these domains of inquiry, the object of study had priority over the particular academic approach. In these newer fields or rather ‘studies’, as they are often called, a significant number of “European” journals exists as well. Most of them are in the educational sciences or studies, followed by management, European Studies, and Planning and Urban studies. The third category of journals identified covers *thematic journals*, which tend to be smaller, more specialized and academically less established than classical disciplines. They concern particular geographical “areas” (American studies, Eastern and Central European studies, Turkish Studies, etc.) and particular themes (security and crime, public health, and a variety of other topics).

Table 2: Newly created ‘European’ journals by type of journal and year of founding

	Disciplinary journals (classical)	Multi-disciplinary journals	Studies & new disciplines	Thematic journals	Total
1960–64	2	0	0	0	2
1965–69	4	0	2	2	8
1970–74	5	0	1	2	8
1975–79	3	0	2	2	7
1980–84	1	0	4	0	5
1985–89	9	2	4	2	17
1990–94	21	0	7	6	34
1995–99	13	2	4	6	25
2000–04	13	0	0	4	17
2005–09	13	3	4	7	27
2010–14	9	0	3	3	15
Total	93	7	31	34	165

The fourth and final category includes multi-disciplinary journals. These are journals, which explicitly combine different academic perspectives, not for extra-academic purposes, whether political or professional (as in most transdisciplinary ‘studies’), but to go beyond the academic division of labor and foster scientifically innovative perspectives. Despite the prominence of ‘interdisciplinarity’ in science policy and scholarly discourse, remarkably few European journals are multidisciplinary. Unlike disciplinary arrangements, innovative, multi- or interdisciplinarity work tends to vary greatly across national and local contexts and is under-represented on the European level.

Outside of France, for example—one can say outside of Paris—there are no equivalents for journals like the historical journal the *Annales* (1929), the journal *L’Homme* (1961), founded by Claude Lévi-Strauss with a geographer (Pierre Gourou) and a linguist (Emile Benveniste), or Pierre Bourdieu’s *Actes de la recherche en sciences sociales* (1975). Despite their scholarly prestige and the renown of their founders, none of these journals have been emulated abroad, although certain elements of their intellectual programs have been incorporated by some periodicals outside of France. Historical journals inspired by the social sciences were created in different countries well after Lucien Febvre and Marc Bloch launched the *Annales*, but neither *Past and Present* (1952) nor *Geschichte und Gesellschaft* (1975) or *Social Science History* (1977) are really comparable to the French journal that served as one of their primary examples. Pierre Bourdieu may be the most cited social scientist in the world, yet there is still no equivalent to *Actes de la recherche en sciences sociales*.

Innovative, multi-disciplinary journals are not only often dependent on charismatic individuals, but also on local, informal networks, specific support structures, and tacit understandings of their intellectual programs. The primary difference with mainstream journals, whether disciplinary or thematic, is their lower degree of standardization. The greater the standardization and formalization of knowledge, the easier it travels across borders and other boundaries. While the most innovative ventures may eventually obtain the highest recognition, by defying the established order with “new combinations,” they do not easily cross the boundaries of their local and national context. Their recognition takes time and they are very hard, if not impossible to emulate.

Disciplinary Journals

The largest number of European journals is in disciplines like economics (n = 21) and law (n = 19), followed by political science (14) and psychology (13) (see [Table 3](#)). As compared to disciplines with a lower number of ‘European’ journals (history, philosophy, sociology, literature), these disciplines distinguish themselves not only by larger numbers of staff and students, but also by a higher level of standardization in research output. Because of its formal or experimental character, the dominant research style in economics, psychology and political science is less bound to the context in which it is produced than the more varied and pluralistic research in history, philosophy and sociology.⁷ Mainstream economics is more international in style, writing and referencing than most research in sociology and anthropology, and these are probably again more international than literature or history. Law is a particular case, because it is a discipline strongly bound to the legal context, traditionally that of nation-states, but increasingly that of European institutions as well. Quite typical

⁷ A bibliometric analysis of French SSH journals shows that the level of foreign references is highest in economics, followed by political science, anthropology and history, and is lowest in sociology and law, see Heilbron and Bokobza (2015) and Heilbron (2015: 152–180).

in that respect is that virtually all ‘European’ law journals (17 out of 19) were created rather recently, since 1990.

Table 3: Newly created ‘European’ journals by discipline and year of founding

	Econom business account	Law	Political science	Psycho	History	Philo	Socio	Literature	Anthrop	Geography	Demogr	Total
1960-64	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
1965-69	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4
1970-74	1	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
1975-79	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
1980-84	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1985-89	1	0	1	4	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	9
1990-94	4	6	2	2	3	2	0	0	1	0	1	21
1995-99	2	5	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	13
2000-04	4	3	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	13
2005-09	2	3	3	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	13
2010-14	4	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	9
Total	21	19	14	13	8	6	5	3	2	1	1	93

European disciplinary journals tend to reproduce the main oppositions of the larger national fields. The five European journals in sociology, for example, include both a comparative and historically oriented journal like the *European Journal of Sociology/Archives européennes de sociologie* (1960) and a mainstream journal based on survey research such as the *European Sociological Review* (1985). The first was founded by Raymond Aron, in conjunction with Ralf Dahrendorf (then still in Germany) and Tom Bottomore (at the LSE) and the title alluded to Max Weber’s broadly conceived *Archiv für Sozialwissenschaft und Sozialpolitik*. Aron’s journal was trilingual, edited in Paris, published by the French publisher Plon, and supported by the Ford Foundation. Although officially still trilingual, it has been published by Cambridge University Press since 1977, and articles in French and German have become increasingly rare. The two other major sociology journals are published by the European Sociological Association (1995): *European Societies* (1999) and the *European Journal of Cultural and Political Sociology* (2014).⁸

As the example of sociology journals illustrates, the adjective “European” has very different meanings. It can refer to an empirical object (in the case of *European Societies*), but it can also indicate opposing conceptions of social science. The *European Journal of Sociology/Archives européennes de sociologie* (1960) alluded to the specifically “European” tradition of sociology, whereas the *European Sociological Review* (1985) was conceived as the European equivalent of the mainstream, quantitative survey research orientation that had developed in the US. Some of these journals developed in close association with professional organizations, like the journal of the European Sociological Association (ESA) *European societies*. The *European Sociological Review* (1985), on the other hand, was the first step towards the creation of an association, the European Consortium for Sociological Research (ECSR), which, like the journal, had a similarly mainstream orientation (Boncourt 2016, 2017).

⁸ The fifth sociology journal, the *European Journal of Applied Sociology* (2008), is more peripheral with a majority of editors from Romania and published by a German publisher De Gruyter. One could consider the *European Journal of Social Theory* (1998) as a sociology journal, but in its orientation it also draws on theoretical traditions from other disciplines. On European sociology, see Fleck and Hönig (2014) and Heilbron (2009).

‘Studies’ and Thematic Journals

Rather than proposing a derivation from the greek *nomos* (economics), *logos* (psychology, anthropology, sociology, etc.) or *graphos* (geography, sociography), many of the recent domains of inquiry that acquired academic status use the term “studies.” This preference for a more common sense notion and the avoidance of a learned label is typical of their academic position. Many of them emerged and became institutionalized after the university crisis of 1968. Following earlier examples such as “area studies,” the use of the term studies expressed a critique of scientific disciplines’ academic status and the division of labor between them. The common denominator was the primacy attributed to the object of inquiry over the specific academic perspective with which it was treated. This goes for politically motivated projects (women’s studies, black studies, gay studies, etc.) as well as for more professionally oriented projects (business studies, communication studies, translation studies). To speak of ‘studies’ indicates a twofold opposition to the academic order of classical disciplines. It implies, first, that the academic or scientific perspective as such is biased and insufficient, because it excludes, legitimate extra-academic considerations, whether political or professional. Proponents of many ‘studies’ are critical of ‘value-free,’ ‘objective’ and ‘scientific’ ambitions privileging ‘critical,’ ‘professional’ or ‘artistic’ views. The plural of the word ‘studies’ indicates, secondly, that the object in question needs to be approached from multiple perspectives (ethical, historical, psychological, professional); disciplinary monopolies are misplaced, pretentious or fundamentally erroneous. The proponents of ‘studies’ wish to leave the ‘ivory tower’, promote ‘interdisciplinarity,’ and align research and higher education with extra-academic, either political or professional interests.

In this group of “studies” and relatively new disciplines the largest number of recently created disciplines is in the “educational sciences” (n = 13) – overtaking classical pedagogy –, management studies (n = 6), European studies (n = 4), and Planning and Urban studies (n = 4). Other studies (women’s studies, cultural studies, communication studies, information sciences) have only one “European” journal (see [Table 4](#)).

Table 4: Newly created ‘European’ journals in ‘studies’ and new disciplines

	Educational sciences	Management	European Studies	Planning & urban studies	Women's studies	Cultural studies	Communication	Information science	Total
1960–64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1965–69	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
1970–74	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
1975–79	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
1980–84	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	4
1985–89	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	4
1990–94	1	0	1	3	1	0	0	1	7
1995–99	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	4
2000–04	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2005–09	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
2010–14	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total	13	6	4	4	1	1	1	1	31

Table 5: Newly created ‘European’ journals in thematic areas of study

	Area studies	Crime & security	Health	Other	Total
1960–64	0	0	0	0	0
1965–69	1	0	0	1	2
1970–74	1	0	0	1	2
1975–79	1	0	1	0	2
1980–84	0	0	0	0	0
1985–89	1	0	0	1	2
1990–94	1	3	1	1	6
1995–99	1	0	1	4	6
2000–04	3	0	0	1	4
2005–09	2	1	1	3	7
2010–14	0	0	0	3	3
Total	11	4	4	15	34

The last category of “thematic journals” includes relatively small domains of inquiry (see [Table 5](#)). The largest category is concerned with specific geographical areas ($n = 11$), other themes are crime and security ($n = 4$) and health (4). The category “other” is residual and very heterogeneous. It includes European journals for industrial relations, music, European cinema, social work, social security, Jewish studies, homelessness, church and state research, language policy, and migration.

The Dominant Position of the UK and Anglo-American Publishing

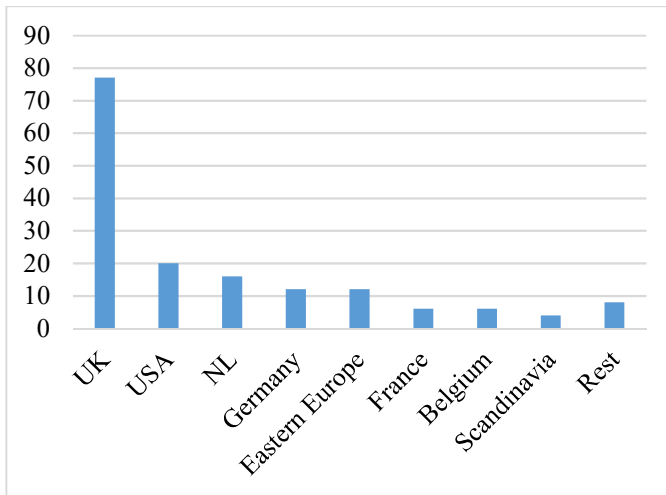
When considering publishers and editors, another pattern clearly emerges: the domination of British publishing houses and editors who work in Great Britain.⁹ By far the largest number of “European” SSH journals is published in the UK (77), followed at a distance, curiously enough, by the US (20) and the Netherlands (16) (see [Figure 3](#)).¹⁰ Similar indications of Anglo-American domination are obtained when looking at chief editors. For the total selection of 161 journals, a sizeable minority of the journals (56, or 35%) had at least one chief editor based in the UK. In 33 cases (20%) UK-based editors were the majority among the chief editors, while 27 journals (17%) exclusively had chief editor(s) based in the UK (and, therefore, no chief editors based in other countries). Overall, chief editors based in the UK account for 25% of the 293 editors, with the second largest group formed by US based editors (11%; see [Table 6](#)). In fact, 26 (16%) out of the 161 journals had at least one U.S.-

⁹ For the journals in our database, we have determined the publisher for the year 2015. By then, four journals had ceased to exist; the analysis that follows is therefore based on 161 journals. For 32 of these journals we could establish that they were published in cooperation with, or on behalf of, an association, council, learned society, faculty etc., the vast majority of which (26, or 81%) had a ‘European’ designation.

¹⁰ The field of publishing has gone through some profound changes during the last 20 years, most notably the emergence (through transnational mergers, especially between UK and US firms) of large, internationally operating publishing houses. For most companies we were still able to identify the country where the core activities were located, which is the reason why we were able to avoid creating a ‘mixed category’ (e.g. UK/USA) to identify the country of origin. Thus, we have identified Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press, Palgrave Macmillan and Sage Publications (which together account for 31 publications) as British, while John Wiley & Sons/Wiley Blackwell, Sage USA and Springer New York (11 publications) have been categorized as American. Finally, we have identified Elsevier as a British publisher (5 publications) and Springer (3 publications) as German.

based chief editor. For 10 journals (6%), there were no other countries represented amongst the chief editor(s): they exclusively worked from the U.S.

Figure 3: Country of origin of the publishers of European SSH journals in 2015 (n = 161)



The dominance of the UK is also apparent when the journals are classified by the composition of the editorial board. The UK is situated at the top of the list of journals with 1, 2 or 3 chief editors (Table 7). For journals with 1 chief editor, the differences are especially pronounced: 30% of these journals have a chief editor based in the UK, while the next most frequent country of origin is Germany (11%). For the journals with 2 or 3 chief editors the differences become smaller, but the UK still heads the list in all of these categories.

Table 6: Country in which the chief editor(s) of European SSH journals were based in 2016 (n = 161)

When an editor was associated with multiple institutes, the institute mentioned first was recorded.

Country where editor(s) is (are) based	Number of editors	Percentage
UK	73	24.9%
USA	31	10.6%
Germany	28	9.6%
Netherlands	25	8.5%
France	17	5.8%
Belgium	16	5.5%
Italy	11	3.7%
Other (27 countries)	92 (of which 73 from European countries)	31.4% (24.9%)
Total	293	

Table 7: Country in which the chief editor(s) of 140 (out of 161 journals) journals with 3 or less chief editors were based (2016)

When an editor was associated with multiple institutes, the institute mentioned first was recorded.

Country where editor(s) is (are) based	Journals with 1 chief editor (n = 89)	Country where editor(s) is (are) based	Journals with 2 chief editors (n = 36)	Country where editor(s) is (are) based	Journals with 3 chief editors (n = 15)
UK	27	UK	15	UK	8
Germany	10	USA	12	Netherlands	7
USA	8	Netherlands	7	Germany	6
France	6	Belgium, Germany, France	4	France	5
Romania	5	Italy, Spain	3		
Belgium, Czech Republic, Switzerland	4				
Other	21	Other	31	Other	19
Total number of chief editors	89		72		45

A more selective view of European SSH journals is obtained when considering European SSH journals with the highest impact score in the Thomson Reuters Web of Science database (Jantzen 2016).¹¹ These journals (n = 22) can be compared according to the country where the publishers are incorporated, the country where the chief editors and editors work, as well as the country where the article authors are localized. In this far more selective sample the dominant position of the UK is even more explicit. For the location of the publishers 45 % are located in Britain, with the US in second place (23 %). Here the combined linguistic and business advantages of the UK and the US play out very clearly. With regard to the chief editors, the pattern is the same. Chief editors from the UK make up 34% of the total, with the U.S. in second place as well (see Table 8). The UK also tops the list as far as editors are concerned, solely for the number of authors is the pattern slightly different. Authors from the UK rank second (after Germany). Germany and the U.S. are in the top 3 for all the categories, while the only other country that is present in all 4 categories is the Netherlands.

¹¹ For the ‘disciplinary’ category, journals were selected with the highest impact scores for each of the eight SSH disciplines. The complete list of journals is as follows (ranked according to impact factor in the Thomson Reuters InCites Journal Citation Reports): the *European Journal of Personality*, the *Journal of the European Economic Association*, the *European Journal of Political Research*, the *European Review of Social Psychology*, the *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, the *European Journal of International Relations*, the *Journal of European Public Policy*, the *European Journal of Health Economics*, the *European Sociological Review*, the *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *European Urban and Regional Studies*, the *European Journal of Population*, the *European Journal of Political Economy*, the *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*, the *European Journal of Ageing*, *European Planning Studies*, the *European Management Journal*, the *European Journal for Philosophy of Science*, *European Financial Management*, the *European Journal of Communication*, *South European Society and Politics*, and the *European Journal of Industrial Relations* (Jantzen 2016).

Table 8: Countries ranked according to number of publishers, chief editors, editors and authors for the 22 most cited European SSH journals (2014)

Country	Publishers	Chief editors	Editors	Authors
UK	13 (45%)	12 (34%)	103 (19%)	110 (12%)
USA	5 (23%)	4 (11%)	57 (11%)	93 (10%)
Germany	4 (18%)	3 (9%)	64 (12%)	142 (16%)
Netherlands	–	2 (6%)	33 (6%)	72 (8%)
Italy	–	3 (9%)	26 (5%)	48 (5%)
Spain	–	2 (6%)	25 (5%)	62 (7%)
Belgium	–	2 (6%)	10 (2%)	27 (3%)
Switzerland	–	2 (6%)	18 (3%)	37 (4%)
France	–	–	33 (6%)	29 (3%)
Sweden	–	–	19 (4%)	38 (4%)
Other countries	–	5 (14%)	152 (28%)	224 (25%)
Total	22	35	540	882

Clearly, the analysis presented in this paper relies chiefly on indicators of institutionalization. To obtain a more complete picture of the European scientific field it should be complemented by an analysis of the content of the European journals. Although a comprehensive content analysis is beyond the scope of the current paper, some preliminary observations can be added. Jantzen (2016) also studied the abstracts of 882 articles published in 2015 in the most cited journals he selected. He found that 26% of these abstracts referred to ‘Europe’ in some way. The percentage of abstracts referring to Europe was the highest for the *Journal of European Public Policy* (93%), the *European Journal of Political Research* (61%), the *European Journal of Industrial Relations* (59%), the *European Journal of Population* (57%) and the journal *South European Society and Politics* (54%). The focus of these journals is either on cross-border comparative research or on research specifically relating to the transnational European field.

Based on these findings and on the historical analysis presented in the first part of this paper, “European journals” seem to consist of three types of journals. The first category consists of journals that encourage authors to use a genuine European approach in their research (as distinct from, for example, an “American” approach). This is the strongest form of a European intellectual program of which the *European Journal of Sociology/Archives européennes de sociologie* is a good example. It was founded by Raymond Aron in 1960 and advocated a distinctly European, historical and comparative approach. A second category of European journals favors contributions with a European research object. This can relate specifically to either the transnational European field (with a central place for EU institutions and their practices, such as law making or policy making), or to intra-European comparative analysis (e.g., comparisons between European nation states). Finally, the reference to Europe can entail a geographical denomination without any specific content, neither an approach nor a specifically European object of study, but merely the location of the journal. This can refer to the European version of an internationally mainstream type of social science or to the association sponsoring the journal. In this case the “European” label does not affect the content of the articles in a meaningful way, and represents the weakest form of a European intellectual program.

Concluding Remarks

The rise of “European” journals in the social sciences and humanities is a historically recent phenomenon, which roughly corresponds to the process of European integration and policy making on the European level. With the exception of a few journals specializing in a specific area of Europe (*Slavic and East European Studies*), there were no SSH journals which used the label “European” before 1960. A first phase of expansion took place in the years from 1960 until the mid-1980s during the period following the establishment of the European Economic Community (1957). These were years of a slow growth of European institution building. A second phase of accelerated expansion started in the latter half of the 1980s, following the deep economic crisis of the years around 1980 and the Fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989. Both contributed to a further extension and acceleration of European integration which were marked by the Maastricht treaty (1992). Of particular significance for this second phase were the European Framework Programs, which funded transnational research and since 1994 included provisions for the social sciences and humanities. Reaching its peak in the 1990s, the creation of European journals slowed down during the years after that, while remaining on a level that was well above that of the first period of growth.

Distinguishing between different types of journals, European journals are mostly disciplinary or subdisciplinary journals (n = 93) in well-established classical disciplines (economics, sociology, political science, anthropology, history, philosophy). The only other significant types of journals were either thematic (n = 34) or more applied and professional ‘studies’ in the areas of education, management, urban studies and the like (n = 31). Perhaps the most remarkable feature of European journals is the extremely small number of multi-disciplinary journals with a strong and innovative scientific program. For renowned French journals like the *Annales* (1929), Bourdieu’s *Actes de la recherche en sciences sociales* (1975), or more recently *Politix* (1988) and *Genèses* (1990), there are no equivalents on the European level, although they all embody a broad and in that sense more “European” conception of the social and historical sciences. What the European SSH probably need most, is apparently the most difficult to achieve.

Regarding publishers and editors there is a marked domination of the UK, a characteristic which has also been observed for European funding and European networks of co-authorship (Fleck and Hönig 2014; Gingras and Heilbron 2009; Mosbah-Natason and Gingras 2014; Heilbron 2014b), but in the case of journals with the USA in an important secondary position. The only other country which comes close to the USA is the Netherlands, which also hosts a number of large, English language publishing companies (Elsevier, Kluwer). European journals are thus largely published and edited in Anglo-American countries. Only very rarely are European journals published and edited in countries with strong intellectual traditions of their own like Germany, France or Italy, where the mastery of English is less widespread. When a more selective sample of European journals is considered, regarding only the most cited SSH journals, the domination of the UK, or more broadly Anglo-American countries, is reinforced.

The European research space as it has emerged through “European” journals is firmly dominated academically by (sub)disciplinary academic journals and, secondarily, by thematic and more professionally or applied journals. Very few have a strong, multidisciplinary and innovative profile. They are published primarily by Anglo-American publishers and edited by editors from these countries. Countries like Germany, France or Italy are in these respects very much behind the UK and even the U.S. If Brexit provokes a more active role of continental European scholars, that would be an unintended but beneficial effect of rising anti-European sentiments.

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