

## Ethical Publication at the Nexus of Law, Language and Discourse

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### Abstract

The research area for law, language and discourse, an academic field with few dedicated scholarly journals (each interpreting the field differently) is overviewed. Ethical practices in research article publication, and the manuscript management and editorial process within the newly re-activated *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* are discussed and compared to various historic and contemporary practices in scholarly publication, including editorial and peer review, publisher duties, commercial journals, and publication strategies. “Predatory” journals are distinguished from reader-driven editorial practices.

**Keywords:** ethics, editorial review, peer review, manuscript management, desk rejection, predatory journals

### Introducing the *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse*

After a two-year hiatus, this journal is returning to semi-annual publication (twice yearly: summer and winter). The reasons for recent non-publication are related to the scope of this introductory article, hence its inclusion in the re-launch issue. *The International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* will ethically publish articles relevant to its topic area, which could be described as the nexus of law, language, and discourse. To understand the Journal’s scope more properly, we must explore these terms more closely. First, however, we should point out that we treat these terms loosely, that our definitions are less prescriptive, more descriptive and inclusive: road signs rather than fences. Additionally, this article discusses the much-critiqued process of peer-review and publishing ethics in scholarly journals, and summarizes the practices in the relaunched journal. The Journal’s manuscript management process is outlined, as the prevalent “desk rejection” has become an ethical concern for many researchers.

## Surveying the Territory

### Defining “Law” (for the purposes of this journal)

Law may be define rather broadly or narrowly, and as explained above, this journal will interpret the term expansively. “All the rules of conduct established and enforced by the authority, legislation, or custom of a given community, state or other group” is the first definition offered by World Publishing Co (1978). However, the ninth offering within the World Publishing entry is perhaps more appropriate for this journal: “any rule or principle expected to be observed.” In fact, the effect of this ninth definition is not so different the first offering from *Black’s Law Dictionary* (West Publishing Co, 1968), “That which is laid down, ordained, or established.” These definitions encompass issues such as contract terms and safety notices, for example, and allow for inclusion of scholarly and social norms, such as citation and ethical practices which may not appear in enforceable written rules across academia. We also include practices which have become norms, and which could conceivably be enforced by the courts as community standards even where no written law exists. In this Covid-era, “social distancing” could be considered a social norm which rarely has any specific legal basis.

### Defining “Language & Discourse” (for the purposes of this journal)

“Language” in this journal is inclusive of all human and machine forms of communication. While the articles in this journal are written in the English language, the content under investigation may be drawn from other languages. While “discourse” may be defined differently across various fields of (social) science, under a Piercean model it might be broadly construed as “representation” (Boholm, 2016), i.e., a sign or symbol which conveys meaning, and is interpreted (e.g., smoke in the forest interpreted by a ranger as a fire). More generally, however, “discourse normally refers to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews... also the meanings and values embedded in talk” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 160-161). For our purposes, we understand “language and discourse” as “language in use” in its application to law, legal issues, and the teaching of law and legal interpretation, among other fields.

### Topics of Interest to the Journal

The intersection of law, language and discourse offers a wide and fertile field for investigation. Analysis of “legal language” (e.g., Chovanec, 2013; Gozdz-Roszkowski, 2013; Goźdź-Roszkowski & Pontrandolfo, 2013) is just a start. Legal semiotics, forensic law, legal translation and interpretation, and the language of the courts (particularly in plurilingual communities) are prominent areas of interest for the *Journal*. Linguistic analysis of language commonly used to address legal requirements (e.g., caution notices in consumer goods) is also

understood to be within our focus area. The teaching of Legal English and development of materials for such courses is included. On the other hand, the “nexus” of law, language and discourse should be not construed as the “union” of these disparate fields. The *Journal* is not open to “law review” type articles that do not address concerns of language or discourse, nor will it publish articles on language teaching, linguistics, translation, semiotics, discourse analysis, et cetera without reference to law or legal matters (as outlined above), legal education, or legal systems. This re-launch issue provides some examples of the diversity of topics in our field.

## **Scholarly Review and Publication – Standards in Scholarship**

### **Ethics in scholarly publication**

Ethics can be included under the definition of law stated above – “any rule or principle expected to be observed.” As a broad principle, we can agree that research and publication should be ethical. A key concern in ethics is fairness (equity) and its antithesis, bias, though we may face challenges defining specifics (Dickey, 2006). Bias in the publication process can take many forms, including bias in authorship and bias in standards. Benos et al (2007), Jukola (2017) and Souder (2011) overview various forms of manuscript review bias, including gender bias and bias against unconventional ideas. Furthermore, standards for publication with some publishers may be lax: they may be motivated to publish as many submissions as possible under an “author pays” revenue model. These pseudo-journals, so-called “predatory journals,” are typically decried as being unethical “pay-to-play” publications, a sort of “vanity-press” where authors claim scholarly credit for articles that have not undergone critical peer-review. However, payment of publication fees should not be a primary indicator of scholarly ethics.

### **Publisher’s Duty**

While much has written across the past 40 years about the responsibilities of researchers in conducting and publishing their studies, far less has been said of publishers’ duties—and here we should include the full scholarly review process under publishers’ duties, along with other concerns more often mentioned in the current century (e.g., predatory publications). Who defines these duties of publishers? Most widely adopted (in whole or part) are the guidelines proposed by the Committee on Publication Ethics; their Core Practices have replaced their previous Code of Conduct (COPE, n.d.). Those guidelines are foundational principles for the *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* (see the journal’s “Ethics” page on the website – <https://www.ijlld.com/publication-ethics-and-malpractice-statement/>).

Of immediate concern to scholars is the review of manuscripts. A formal reviews process for scholarly publication, the hallmark of scholarly literature (Allen et al., 2019) is a relatively recent phenomenon (Horbach & Halffman, 2019), although it has existed in less formalized forms for several centuries (Benos et al., 2007; Jefferson et al, 2002; Johnson & Hermanowicz, 2017; Rowland, 2002). It would seem the process has been as severely critiqued from the onset as it is today (Csiszar, 2016) and it's not clear that the peer review process works as well as hoped, or even if we can agree on its aims (Jefferson, Wager, & Davidoff, 2002; Johnson & Hermanowicz, 2017; Manske, 1997). Anonymous peer-review was designed to eliminate the "old-boys network" of support for colleagues' papers (Ferreira et al., 2016). Yet still today, in many research communities leading scholars know most of the others, thus it can be difficult to maintain anonymity even under double-blind review systems. The review process is simply overloaded (Riisgård et al., 2003).

Some of the choices made in design of an editorial review process may have been based on administrative issues as well as scholarly concerns, and one concern by many researchers is that managerial convenience or efficiency might outweigh good scholarship or the rights of the scholars who submit to review. Scholars sometimes ask whether (or "how often") the dreaded "desk rejection" is simply a means of thinning the pile of submissions without due consideration of the scholarly merits within. And with desk rejections as high as 50%, 70%, or even 90% (Astruc et al., 2016; Byrnes, 2010; Clark, Floyd, & Wright, 2006), this is a fair concern. From time to time one reads on the internet or hears at conferences about desk-editors who are arbitrary, capricious, or unknowledgeable. Clearly such malfeasance is unacceptable: allegations of bias (favoritism or corruption) should be promptly investigated; formalized channels for submission and tracking of submissions are critical as one means of addressing these concerns. On the other hand, if all communications go through corrupted channels there seems little recourse for manuscript authors. Who polices the police?

Journal editors have offered a number of conditions that lead to desk rejection (Ashkanasy, 2020; Billsberry, 2014; Craig, 2010; Hourneaux Jr, 2020; Jiang & Tsai, 2019; Klerkx, 2020; Ogbuabor & Eigbiremolen, 2016). In general, "outside the journal scope," "no new knowledge is presented," and "poorly presented" are perhaps the most frequent causes of desk rejections. Some journals dive deeper into the text on the initial (desk) review, and may include multiple editors and consider issues such as "timing" (Teixeira da Silva et al., 2018) before sending on to referees (or rejecting). Editors have a duty to inform the manuscript author why a paper has been rejected, and to do so in a timely manner.

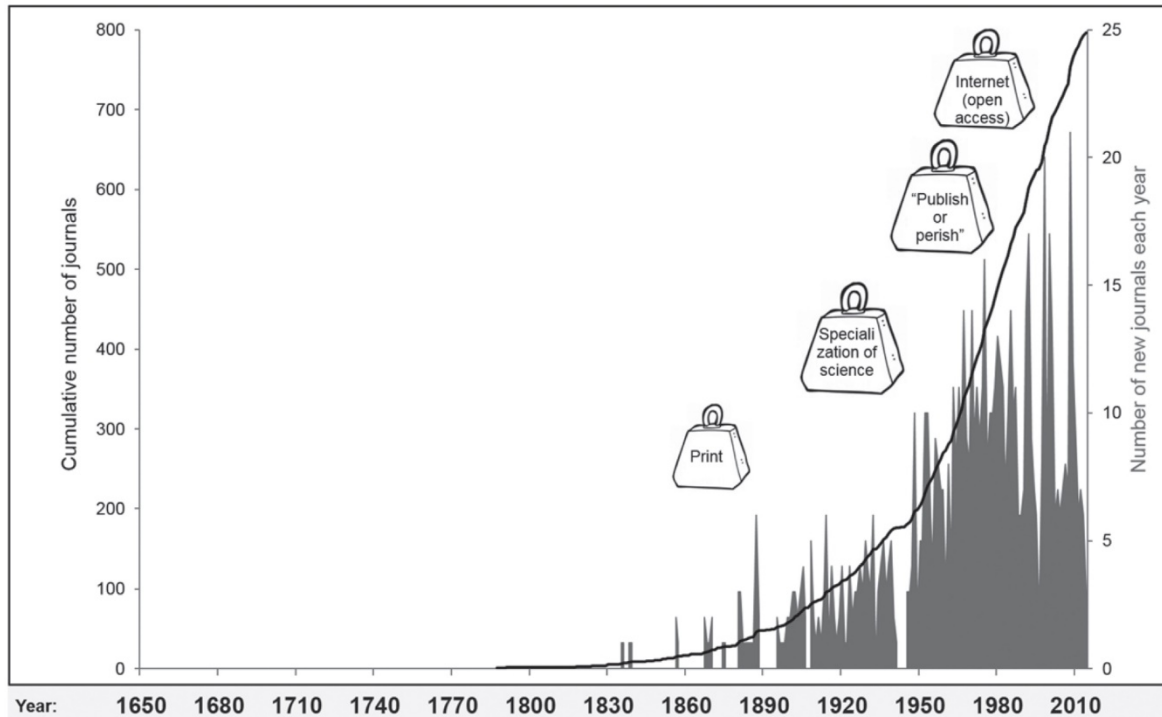
Turn-around time for initial desk review at IJLLD should be approximately seven calendar days. On the other hand, peer-review may take a number of months.

### **Other factors in publication ethics**

Not only is the review process under scrutiny, but the very purpose of scholarly publication faces economic pressures (Ferreira et al., 2016). Governments and educational administrators have increased demands for publication (Beall, 2015; Ching, 2012; Li, 2012; Ziman, 2000), including “publish or perish” conditions for those who traditionally were not expected to publish (e.g., Koolsriroj & Prapinwong, 2017); as well as through designation of preferred and non-recognized avenues for publication, and rewards or penalties based on these designations (Lee, 2014). The governments of China (Leydesdorff & Bihui, 2005), Colombia (Cárdenas, 2016), India (Gautam & Mishra, 2015), Indonesia (Muriyatmoko & Setyaningrum, 2018), Italy (Bonaccorsi, Cicero, Ferrara, & Malgarini, 2015; Lanzillo, 2015), Russia (Gorin, Koroleva, & Ovcharenko, 2016), and South Korea (Ko & Park, 2013), for example, have created their own citations index systems to complement the better-known global Scopus and ISI (Web of Science) systems and to provide space for journals not publishing in English. “Approved” publication streams are therefore receiving vastly more submissions than even three years ago, resulting in more demand on editors and reviewers (who are generally not compensated for their labors) and longer queues for publication once accepted. The number of journals in circulation has increased exponentially in the past four decades in an attempt to meet the demand. Here we can use Ferreira et al.’s (2016) schematic for journals in ecology and evolutionary biology as an example of the general trend in scholarly publication (see Figure 1).

Along with the time required from submission to publication, measures such as “acceptance rate” (also known as “rejection rate”) along with anticipated publication timelines may weigh heavily in terms of where papers are submitted. Acceptance rates for credible scholarly journals vary widely, partly based on field of study, but are often loosely correlated with relative ranking – more prestigious journals are, in general, more competitive. Aarssen et al. (2008) pointed out the risk/reward consideration in measuring a journal’s impact factor versus risk of rejection, where rejection means delay in ultimate publication (repeating the review process when subsequently submitting to a lower-ranked journal). Björk’s (2018) survey of journal acceptance rates suggest that between 10-65% of journal submissions are accepted in the typical scholarly journal, though a median of 20-40% was more common in the social sciences, whereas Egbert (2007) indicated that ultimate acceptances might fall as low as 10% or 20% in the field of applied linguistics and language teaching. *Journal of Writing Research* (n.d.) claims “a high rejection rate (above 90% in 2018).” It is certainly unclear

whether announcing rejection rates promote good scholarship (defining the acceptance rate would at least put a kinder spin on things). In some respects, then, a prompt desk-rejection is preferable to a multi-month delay prior to a review-rejection.



**FIGURE 1. Growth in the number of journals publishing in ecology and evolutionary biology from 1650 to 2014.** (from Ferreira et al., 2016)

One technique used by many researchers to improve their odds of acceptance is to include references from high-impact articles (Paine & Fox 2018). Similarly, most journals hope that manuscripts include plentiful citations of the journal’s own previously published articles. Such calculations by the manuscript authors are not directed primarily towards research quality, but publishability. The ethical considerations of customizing citations for the journal is an ethical consideration not generally discussed.

### **Finance and Commercialization in Scholarly Publication**

Commercialization of scholarly publications has long been lamented. Where should we draw the line? Journals published by scholarly societies often include advertising. Journals founded by such societies may be sold or licensed to commercial publishers, with the editorial process perhaps remaining under the authority of the society. Other scholarly journals were started by for-profit publishers. A cursory survey revealed that 90% of the 50 top-ranked journals in the current Scimago Language and Linguistics SJR table are published by for-profit

entities (see Table 1 in Appendix). Furthermore, the ratio of for-profit publishers may vary as journals not included in this “top 50” Scimago list are added to calculations. In contrast, only 42% of the listings in the Scimago Law SJR top 50 journals table are nonprofit, if we construe law school management of the journal as not-for-profit (see Table 2 in Appendix). In a nutshell, scholarly publication is dominated by for-profit publishers, and editorial independence is unclear in these.

Whether owned/operated by commercial interests or nonprofit scholarly societies, the traditional subscription model is based on individual or organizational subscriptions (library, personal) and electronic journals collection subscription, either/both print and electronic media. Jeffrey Beall (2015, 2016) contrasted traditional subscription-model journals, where the publisher’s aim is to satisfy the reader-customer, with his “author-pays” “gold model” of open-access publishing which identifies the author as the customer, rather than the reader/subscriber. This does not equate the open-access (OA) model of publication with predatory journals! There are many open-access journals with minimal or no author fees, journals supported by scholarly societies, school, or other resources, such as IJLLD, which we may identify as reader-driven models of publishing.

While an increasing number of traditional-model journals do offer options for author-pay open-access publication, the primary sources of revenues, and the chief concern of the scholarly review process in the traditional model is maintaining reader satisfaction (hence, subscriptions) through quality content. Nevertheless, publication fees are increasingly common, particularly for open-access article release. Open-access publication can be very costly for authors, yet not always optional – both the U.K. and Australia require open access for most government-funded research (Tate, 2015; and Kennan, 2007; respectively, see also Fitzgerald et al., 2009, for a broader review of other countries, including the E.U., the United States, and Canada). In this environment, defining “predatory” must consider more than merely charging fees, instead we must distinguish between modest submission fees (also known as “reviewer fees,” generally less than US\$100 per article) and, page surcharges (color printing in a hardcopy journal, or exceeding the length standards) from mysterious article processing charges (APCs). APC fees are not unique to open-access journals, many top-ranked and well-established print journals have included such charges for numerous years (AOASG, 2014). The various types of fees defined by various journals may include

- submission fees
- review fees

- copy-editing charges (internal or select external services)
- publication fees
- excess-pages charges or color image fees
- open-access surcharges

This is not to suggest that all charges are unreasonable, or that costs beyond some certain amount are inappropriate, only that costs should be considered alongside various other factors. Predatory journals prey upon those who need a quick acceptance and prompt publication while offering minimal or no peer review or copy-editing. On the other hand, some highly regarded traditional subscription-based journals may have quite high fees: Oxford University Press charges \$4,400 plus any additional color or page charges in their journals ([https://academic.oup.com/eltj/pages/General\\_Instructions](https://academic.oup.com/eltj/pages/General_Instructions)), and MIT Press charges \$1,350 for an article in *Linguistic Inquiry* to cover “the costs associated with preparing an article for open publication” (<https://www.mitpressjournals.org/journals/ling/oa>).

The *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* is an open-access journal for scholars and thoughtful professionals that charges no fees to authors for submission, review, editing or publishing.

## **The Review Process**

### **Mechanisms – Theory and Practice**

Electronic Journal Management Systems are now prevalent. These may range from simple “upload your file here” where all the remaining activity takes place offline and through email to complex online manuscript management systems that determine the reviewer through keywords, review activity takes place entirely online, and all revisions and ultimately, the publisher’s copy-editing, page-layout, proofing, and final publication take place: Initial article submission may require use of a particular formatting or file system (MSWord and LaTeX are popular choices), may require use of a specific template, or may allow any readable format (including PDF), and might require that the journal publishing style (e.g., APA 7<sup>th</sup>) be observed. The *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* has no strict requirements for initial submission, but does expect the initial submission through the website submission portal (<https://www.ijlld.com/submissions/>). All submissions are recorded upon receipt and tracked through the reviews process in a spreadsheet so that the publisher can track the editorial process.

Despite variations in the peer review process between journals and disciplines (Manske, 1997), manuscript flow through the editorial process has become rather standardized for peer-



reviewed journals; Estrada, Kalet, Smith and Chin (2006) offer a comprehensive schematic. IJLLD uses a somewhat simplified yet complete process, which is described below. The addition of specialty editors (e.g., book reviews, special issues) is envisioned for the future. In any case, the three major components of the manuscript review process could be construed as (1) initial (editorial) review; (2) peer review; and (3) revision and acceptance. The final step in publication follows acceptance: copy-editing, page-layout, and compilation into “book” form (hardcopy or electronic), and is beyond the scope of this discussion.

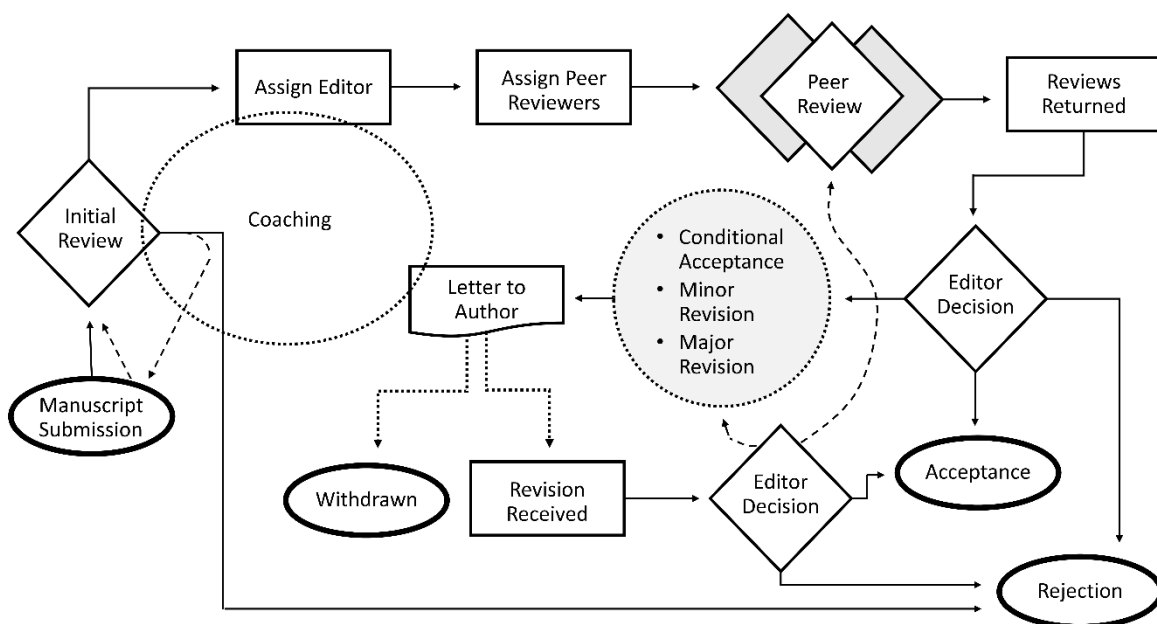
### **Manuscript Review Process in IJLLD**

The process of manuscript review in the *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* includes several “decision trees” which are depicted in Figure 2 through a diamond shape. Administrative processes are shown with rectangles, submission and outcomes with ovals. The remainder are clearly labeled.

1. Initial manuscript submission is received and assigned a tracking number. This work includes a quick review to confirm it meets and scope of the journal and ensuring anonymity of the submission. Some editorial “coaching” may take place here. Three possible outcomes from this step: (a) send to the editorial team; (b) return to author for significant changes before proceeding (coaching process); or (c) reject the submission (also known as “desk rejection”). This step may be handled by a managing editor, the Editor-in-Chief, or a designate.
2. An editor is assigned. This could be the Editor-in-Chief, an Associate Editor, or a Guest Editor. This editor will manage the paper throughout the process. The assigned editor may also provide coaching to improve a submission prior to being sent to referees (the “blind peer review” process).
3. In the peer-review process, two scholars are asked to evaluate the anonymized submission based on the journal’s review rubric. Extensive comments are requested. One or both of the reviewers may be members of the editorial team. Where there are significant differences in evaluation, a third reviewer may be added. The final rating from each reviewer will be (a) accept with no changes; (b) accept with minor revision; (c) major changes required, return to peer review process recommended; or (d) reject the submission. Reviewers are generally asked to complete a review in less than three weeks, and that, as Kundzewicz and Koutsoyiannis (2005) have observed, “reviewing journal papers is probably the least (directly) profitable scientific activity” (578). Lajtha and Baveye’s (2010)

slightly whimsical “carrots and sticks” for reviewers won’t get it done. Let’s pay respect to the unpaid reviewers!

4. The assigned editor, faces a decision, based on reviewer comments: (a) accept the submission (end of review process, forward the submission to the copy-editing, layout, and book-compilation team); (b) reject the submission (and inform the author); or (c) inform the author that additional work is required, under the framework of [i] Conditional Acceptance (very minor changes required in presentation); [ii] Minor Revision (non-significant changes required in the scholarship of the paper; or [iii] Major Revisions required. This response to the author (email letter) returns to a “coaching” environment where every effort is made to encourage the author and facilitate an upgrade in the manuscript in order to complete the publication process with the journal, or to advise how future studies should be conducted.
5. In the case where revision is expected, the author then may choose to revise the manuscript and return it to the assigned editor, or withdraw the submission.
6. Upon receipt of the revision, the assigned editor then either (a) accepts the paper for publication with no further changes; (b) rejects the submission (and informs the author); (c) returns the manuscript to peer review; or (d) informs the author that additional work is required.



**FIGURE 2. IJLLD’s article acceptance flow chart.**

Unlike those journals that trumpet their high rejection rates, the aim of the *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* is not to claim “quality” through a low acceptance rate. Neither is IJLLD a predatory journal that accepts nearly every submission ready to pay fees. The aim of the journal’s editorial process is to foster quality scholarship that benefits the broader academic and professional community at the nexus of law and language. The standard IJLLD peer-review rubric is available upon request (Email: [editor@ijlld.com](mailto:editor@ijlld.com)).

### Conclusion

With increasing demand for publication in academia, an increasing number of journals have become available, yet many of those persons now required to publish lack awareness of the process and expectations of ethical scholarly publication. After a two-year hiatus, the *International Journal of Law, Language & Discourse* has returned to meet the demand for more scholarship opportunities for those working at the nexus of law and language.

It is important, as Paine and Fox (2018) observe, for authors to recognize the relative strengths and weaknesses of their research and the resulting manuscript, and thereby “reduce publication delays by choosing journals appropriate to the significance of their research” (9566). There are many valuable studies conducted that may not find room in the most highly ranked journals, yet there is still demand for ethical journals that publish new knowledge for the scholarly community at the nexus of law and language.

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## Appendix

TABLE 1.

## Ownership of Top 50 Scimago Journal Rank for Language and Linguistics

Journal Title	(For-profit) management
<i>Annual Review of Applied Linguistics</i>	F Cambridge University Press
<i>Journal of Memory and Language</i>	F Elsevier Inc.
<i>Applied Linguistics</i>	F Oxford University Press
<i>Communication Theory</i>	F Wiley-Blackwell
<i>Modern Language Journal</i>	F Wiley-Blackwell
<i>Cognition</i>	F Elsevier BV
<i>Journal of Communication</i>	F Wiley-Blackwell
<i>Journal of Second Language Writing</i>	F Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory and Cognition</i>	American Psychological Ass'n
<i>TESOL Quarterly</i>	F Wiley-Blackwell <i>Language</i>
<i>Teaching Research</i>	F SAGE Publications
<i>Studies in Second Language Acquisition</i>	F Cambridge University Press
<i>Language, Culture and Curriculum</i>	F Taylor & Francis
<i>Communication Research</i>	F SAGE Publications
<i>Research in the Teaching of English</i>	National Council of Teachers of English
<i>Language Learning</i>	F Blackwell Publishing Inc.
<i>Brain and Language</i>	F Elsevier Inc.
<i>Annual Review of Linguistics</i>	F Annual Reviews Inc.
<i>Language, Cognition and Neuroscience</i>	F Taylor & Francis
<i>Language Policy</i>	F Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Attention, Perception &amp; Psychophysics</i>	F Springer New York LLC
<i>Bilingualism</i>	F Cambridge University Press
<i>Computer Assisted Language Learning</i>	F Taylor & Francis
<i>Journal of Literacy Research</i>	F SAGE Publications
<i>Syntax</i>	F Blackwell Publishing Inc.
<i>Journal of Phonetics</i>	F Elsevier Inc.
<i>System</i>	F Elsevier Inc.
<i>European Journal of Communication</i>	F SAGE Publications
<i>Language Learning and Technology</i>	University of Hawaii Press <sup>(1)</sup>
<i>Communication Monographs</i>	F Routledge
<i>International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism</i>	F Taylor & Francis
<i>Journal of Child Language</i>	F Cambridge University Press
<i>International Multilingual Research Journal</i>	F Routledge

<i>Discourse Studies</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>ReCALL</i>	F	Cambridge University Press
<i>Language Learning and Development</i>	F	Taylor & Francis
<i>Poetics</i>	F	Elsevier BV
<i>Linguistic Inquiry</i>		MIT Press <sup>(2)</sup>
<i>Interpreting</i>	F	John Benjamins Publishing Co.
<i>Cognitive Linguistics</i>	F	De Gruyter Mouton
<i>International Journal of the Sociology of Language</i>	F	De Gruyter Mouton
<i>Artificial Intelligence Review</i>	F	Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Journal of English for Academic Purposes</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Language Learning Journal</i>	F	Taylor & Francis
<i>Journal of Sociolinguistics</i>	F	Blackwell Publishing Inc.
<i>Journal of Writing Research</i>		University of Antwerp <sup>(3)</sup>
<i>ELT Journal</i>	F	Oxford University Press
<i>English for Specific Purposes</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Artificial Intelligence</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Language Testing</i>	F	SAGE Publications

Notes:

1. Nonprofit University Press? According to each university's press website,
  - (1) University of Hawaii Press... "a self-supporting, nonprofit operation"
  - (2) "MIT Press is a mission-driven, not-for-profit scholarly publisher"
  - (3) University of Antwerp - no info provided
2. Data from the Sciamgo website April 3, 2020:  
<https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php?category=1203>

**TABLE 2.**  
**Ownership of Top 50 Scimago Journal Rank for Law**

Journal Title	(For-profit) management
<i>International Organization</i>	F Cambridge University Press
<i>International Security</i>	MIT Press <sup>(1)</sup>
<i>Criminology</i>	F Wiley-Blackwell
<i>Stanford Law Review</i>	Stanford Law Review <sup>(2)</sup>
<i>Journal of Quantitative Criminology</i>	F Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Yale Law Journal</i>	Yale Journal Co., Inc. <sup>(3)</sup>
<i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i>	F Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Justice Quarterly</i>	F Taylor & Francis

<i>Journal of Experimental Criminology</i>	F	Springer Verlag
<i>Police Quarterly</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>University of Pennsylvania Law Review</i>		Univ. of Pennsylvania Law Review <sup>(4)</sup>
<i>Columbia Law Review</i>		Columbia Law Review Ass'n <sup>(5)</sup>
<i>University of Chicago Law Review</i>		Univ. of Chicago Press <sup>(6)</sup>
<i>Virginia Law Review</i>		Virginia Law Review Ass'n <sup>(7)</sup>
<i>Georgetown Law Journal</i>		Georgetown Univ. Law Center <sup>(8)</sup>
<i>Journal of Law, Economics, and Organization</i>	F	Oxford University Press
<i>Law and Human Behavior</i>		American Psychological Ass'n
<i>Journal of Business Ethics</i>	F	Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Journal of Law and Economics</i>		Univ. of Chicago Press <sup>(6)</sup>
<i>Crime and Delinquency</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>European Law Journal</i>	F	Blackwell Publishing Inc.
<i>Regulation and Governance</i>	F	Blackwell Publishing Inc.
<i>New York University Law Review</i>		New York Univ. School of Law <sup>(9)</sup>
<i>Journal of Legal Studies</i>		Univ. of Chicago Press <sup>(6)</sup>
<i>California Law Review</i>		Univ. of California Press <sup>(10)</sup>
<i>Michigan Law Review</i>		Michigan Law Review Ass'n <sup>(11)</sup>
<i>Higher Education</i>	F	Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Criminal Justice and Behavior</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>Common Market Law Review</i>	F	Kluwer Academic Publishers
<i>Texas Law Review</i>		Univ. of Texas at Austin <sup>(12)</sup>
<i>Transport Policy</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Antitrust Law Journal</i>		American Bar Ass'n
<i>Accident Analysis and Prevention</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Critical Military Studies</i>	F	Taylor & Francis Ltd.
<i>British Journal of Criminology</i>	F	Oxford University Press
<i>Social Science Computer Review</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>Government Information Quarterly</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Duke Law Journal</i>		Duke Univ. Press
<i>Parliamentary Affairs</i>	F	Oxford University Press
<i>European Competition Journal</i>	F	Taylor & Francis Ltd.
<i>Crime Science</i>	F	Springer Open
<i>Journal of Intervention and Statebuilding</i>	F	Routledge
<i>Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice</i>	F	SAGE Publications
<i>Harvard International Law Journal</i>		Harvard University <sup>(13)</sup>
<i>Harvard Law Review</i>		Harvard Law Review Ass'n <sup>(14)</sup>
<i>Marine Policy</i>	F	Elsevier Ltd.
<i>Psychology, Public Policy, and Law</i>		American Psychological Ass'n
<i>UCLA Law Review</i>		Univ. of California at Los Angeles <sup>(15)</sup>
<i>International Theory: A Journal of International Politics, Law and Philosophy</i>	F	Cambridge University Press

Notes:

1. Nonprofit University Press? According to each university's press website,
  - (1) "MIT Press is a mission-driven, not-for-profit scholarly publisher"
  - (2) "SLR operated entirely by Stanford Law School students and is fully independent of faculty and administration review or supervision."
  - (3) unclear, appears to be incorporated yet owned by school, all archives available free online
  - (4) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (5) "the Review is an independent nonprofit corporation"
  - (6) "a non-profit publisher"
  - (7) "Virginia Law Review Association, an independent publishing institution staffed and directed solely by law students at the University of Virginia School of Law"
  - (8) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (9) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (10) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (11) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (12) "edited and published entirely by students at the University of Texas School of Law" (although there appears to be a "corporation" in its founding, with shareholders who appoint directors)
  - (13) unclear, appears to be owned by the school
  - (14) student-run organization
  - (15) unclear, appears to be owned by the school

2. Data from the Sciamgo website April 3, 2020:

<https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php?category=3308>