

Mapping Academic Institutions According to Their Journal Publication Profile: Spanish Universities as a Case Study

J.A. García, Rosa Rodríguez-Sánchez, and J. Fdez-Valdivia

*Departamento de Ciencias de la Computación e I. A., Universidad de Granada, 18071 Granada, Spain.
E-mail: {jags, rosa, jfv}@decsai.ugr.es*

N. Robinson-García

EC3: Evaluación de la Ciencia y la Comunicación Científica, Departamento de Biblioteconomía y Documentación, Universidad de Granada, 18071 Granada, Spain. E-mail: elrobin@ugr.es

D. Torres-Salinas

EC3: Evaluación de la Ciencia y la Comunicación Científica, Centro de Investigación Médica Aplicada, Universidad de Navarra, 31008, Pamplona, Navarra, Spain. E-mail: torressalinas@gmail.com

We introduce a novel methodology for mapping academic institutions based on their journal publication profiles. We believe that journals in which researchers from academic institutions publish their works can be considered as useful identifiers for representing the relationships between these institutions and establishing comparisons. However, when academic journals are used for research output representation, distinctions must be introduced between them, based on their value as institution descriptors. This leads us to the use of journal weights attached to the institution identifiers. Since a journal in which researchers from a large proportion of institutions published their papers may be a bad indicator of similarity between two academic institutions, it seems reasonable to weight it in accordance with how frequently researchers from different institutions published their papers in this journal. Cluster analysis can then be applied to group the academic institutions, and dendrograms can be provided to illustrate groups of institutions following agglomerative hierarchical clustering. In order to test this methodology, we use a sample of Spanish universities as a case study. We first map the study sample according to an institution's overall research output, then we use it for two scientific fields (Information and Communication Technologies, as well as Medicine and Pharmacology) as a means to demonstrate how our methodology can be applied, not only for analyzing institutions as a whole, but also in different disciplinary contexts.

Introduction

Over the last decade a great deal of interest has been focused on scientific mapping and visualization. Although first conceived as tools for displaying the structure and dynamics of research activity, they have now been fully integrated into research evaluation (Noyons, Moed, & Luwel, 1999) and combine structural and performance information that enables them to serve as easy-to-read tools for research policy makers (Torres-Salinas, 2009). According to Klavans and Boyack (2009), a map of science can be defined as a set of elements and the existing relationships between them, considering as an element any unit of representation of science such as scientific fields, publications, or researchers. They commonly represent these elements in a two- or three-dimensional space, and by matching pairs of elements according to their common characteristics. Science maps are commonly visualized as node-edge diagrams similar to those used in network science, and they aim at analyzing the structure of science based mainly on research publications. The first attempts to mapping science by applying bibliometric techniques can be traced to Small and colleagues (Griffith, Small, Stonehill, & Dey, 1974; Small, 1999; Small & Garfield, 1985). These techniques vary from each other depending on the methodological choices and on the unit of analysis used.

Although the first efforts involved generating maps based on scientific papers, journals have also been used as a basic unit for mapping science for some 35 years, starting with the

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pioneering map by Narin, Carpenter, and Berlt (1972). These maps are normally generated in two steps. First, a clustering method is used to divide journals into a number of clusters. The decision made on how these clusters are formed will determine the validity of the whole process, as it will define the criteria followed for considering the elements as similar or dissimilar (Gmür, 2003). Second, a visualization algorithm is developed to generate a layout of the clusters previously formed. In a different approach, Moya-Anegón et al. (2004, 2007) introduced discipline-based maps using the Thomson Reuters subject categories system, aiming at the rather ambitious goal of representing the world's research output. Also, Leydesdorff and Rafols (2009) used the Thomson Reuters subject categories for representing science in order to analyze the structure of the *Science Citation Index* database. Despite initial technological limitations, since the mid-1990s the emergence of new visualization tools and the availability of large amounts of data on scientific publications have made possible further development of this type of map (Noyons, 2004). Regarding mapping institutions or universities, the main efforts have focused on using research collaboration as a means for establishing networks between them (Leydesdorff & Persson, 2010; Rorissa & Yuan, 2012) or web links (Ortega, Aguillo, Cothey, & Scharnhorst, 2008), but no other technique has been used. This kind of technique allows readers to rapidly learn the scientific, geographical, or social connections between different institutions, emphasizing relations that may be crucial in determinant and controversial topics such as the merging of universities (Moed, Moya-Anegón, López-Illescas, & Visser, 2011), monitoring collaborations and research changes over time (Rafols, Porter, & Leydesdorff, 2010), or by extension, any other matter regarding research policy and management at an institutional level (Noyons, 2004).

In this article we propose a novel methodology for representing universities according to their journal publication profile in an attempt to visually synthesize the complex relationships these institutions have with each other. We hypothesize that academic institutions that publish their research output in the same scientific journals should not only have similar research interests but also similar impact and, therefore, should have similar profiles. These last few years have seen great interest in developing measures and thresholds for monitoring and benchmarking universities. The great impact that international rankings have had has not only influenced higher education (Hazelkorn, 2011), but has also raised many questions about the methodologies employed when analyzing academic institutions' research output (van Raan, 2005; Torres-Salinas, Moreno-Torres, Robinson-García, Delgado-López-Cózar, & Herrera, 2011a). Universities are subject to numerous influences that differentiate them from other units of analysis such as journals or words. Not only do pure research interests drive their relations; geographical and social context, among other variables, must also be taken into account (Gómez, Bordons, Fernández, & Morillo, 2010). In this sense, the application of scientific mapping techniques

may be the answer to understanding and reflecting such influences.

This study is structured as follows. In Data and Methods we present the proposed methodology for mapping academic institutions. The next section describes a sample of 56 Spanish universities used as a case study and tests this novel methodology, applying it over the total scientific output and also focusing only on two areas (Information and Communication Technologies, as well as Medicine and Pharmacology). The final section concludes with a discussion of the obtained results.

Data and Methods

The basic idea of the proposed approach is as follows. For each academic institution we record the scientific journals in which researchers at this institution published their papers during a certain time period. No distinction is made between coauthored papers and papers published in the same journal by two different institutions, as we aim at relating universities not only according to their disciplinary focus but also other external aspects that may influence their similarities, such as collaboration or geographical proximity. From this list of scientific journals we construct a journal-by-institution matrix where a given row contains the weights of the corresponding journal across the academic institutions. Here we use the inverse frequency approach (Salton & Buckley, 1988) for generating journal weights, since a journal in which researchers from a large proportion of institutions published their papers should normally be a bad indicator of similarity between two academic institutions. Following a document–document similarity approach (Ahlgren & Colliander, 2009), the behavior of the institution–institution similarity can then be inferred under two types of similarities: first order and second order. First-order similarities are obtained by measuring the similarity between columns in a journal-by-institution matrix. However, one may go a step further and obtain them by measuring the similarity between columns in this first-order institution-by-institution similarity matrix. This operation yields a new institution-by-institution matrix, populated with second-order similarities.

In the first-order approach, one focuses on the direct similarity between two academic institutions. The second-order approach determines that, for instance, two universities are similar by detecting that there are other academic institutions such that the two universities are both similar to each of these other institutions. Cluster analysis can then be applied to group the academic institutions in a given set, using second-order institution–institution dissimilarity values. For the cluster analysis here we follow the complete linkage method (Everitt, Landau, & Leese, 2001).

Institution–Institution Similarities

Let $U = \{u_i\}$ be a given set of academic institutions under consideration. Here we suggest that the relationships between research output of institutions in U could be

represented based on a comparison of academic journals in which researchers from the institutions in U published their manuscripts.

Let $J = \{j_m\}$ be the set of academic journals in which researchers from the institutions in U published their manuscripts during the study time period. Also, let J_{u_i} be the research output of academic institution u_i .

With the set of academic journals $J = \{j_m\}$ we construct a journal-by-institution matrix $W = \{w_{mi}\}$ where a given row contains the weights of the corresponding journal across the academic institutions, in particular, w_{mi} denotes the weight of journal j_m for representing research output of institution u_i .

Following Salton and Buckley (1988), a formal representation of the research output of institution u_i can be obtained by including in J_{u_i} all possible academic journals in J and adding journal weight assignments to provide distinctions among the journals.

Thus if w_{mi} denotes the weight of journal j_m for representing the research output of institution u_i , and a number of M academic journals are available for research output representation, the journal vector for institution u_i can be written as follows:

$$J_{u_i} = (j_1, w_{1,i}; j_2, w_{2,i}; \dots; j_M, w_{M,i}) \quad (1)$$

In the following, the basic assumption is that w_{mi} is equal to 0 when journal j_m is not assigned to institution u_i , since researchers of u_i have not published in j_m . In order to provide a greater degree of discrimination among journals assigned for research output representation, we also assume that journal weights in decreasing journal importance order could be assigned. Hence, the journal weights w_{mi} could be allowed to vary continuously between 0 and a maximum allowed value, with the higher weight assignments (near the maximum allowed value) being used for the most important journals regarding research output identification, whereas lower weights near 0 would characterize the less important journals for identification.

Given the journal vector representations in Equation 1, an institution–institution similarity value (that is, an indicator of similarity between two academic institutions u_i and u_j in U) may be obtained by comparing the corresponding journal vectors using the vector product formula. But the individual journal weights should depend to some extent on the weights of other journals in the same vector. To this end, it is useful to use normalized journal weight assignments. Using a length normalized journal-weighting system, the institution–institution similarity value reduces to the cosine measure (Baeza-Yates & Ribeiro-Neto, 1999, chapter 2), which gives the cosine of the angle between the two vectors which represent the academic institutions u_i and u_j :

$$B(u_i, u_j) = \frac{\sum_m w_{m,i} \times w_{m,j}}{\sqrt{\sum_m (w_{m,i})^2} \sqrt{\sum_m (w_{m,j})^2}} \quad (2)$$

where w_{mj} is the weight of journal j_m for research output of institution u_i (u_j); and sums are over all journals in the set $J = \{j_m\}$.

Of course, this is a first-order approach for measuring institution–institution similarities, but the behavior of the institution–institution similarity can be inferred under two types of similarities, first order and second order. First-order similarities were obtained in Equation 2 by measuring the similarity between columns in a journal-by-institution matrix $\{w_{mi}\}$, where w_{mi} denotes the weight of journal j_m for institution u_i ; an operation that yields an institution-by-institution similarity matrix. However, one may go a step further and obtain the similarities by measuring the similarity between columns in this first-order institution-by-institution similarity matrix. This operation yields a new institution-by-institution similarity matrix, populated with second-order similarities. Ahlgren and Colliander (2012) observed good performance of the second-order strategy for measuring similarities in a scientometric context.

From Equation 2, a second-order similarity matrix can be defined as follows (Ahlgren & Colliander, 2009):

$$S(u_i, u_j) = \frac{\sum_k B(u_k, u_i) \times B(u_k, u_j)}{\sqrt{\sum_k (B(u_k, u_i))^2} \sqrt{\sum_k (B(u_k, u_j))^2}} \quad (3)$$

where sums are over all academic institutions in the set U .

In designing an automatic institution clustering system, two main questions must be answered. First, what appropriate research output units are to be included in the institution representations? Second, is the determination of the journal weights capable of distinguishing the important journals from those less crucial for research output identification?

Concerning the first question, that is, the choice of research output units, various possibilities may be considered. In this article, academic journals alone were used for research output representation, given the availability of large amounts of data on scientific publications. However, sets of journals cannot provide complete identification of research output. But the judicious use of academic journals for institution representation is preferable when incorporating more complex entities, since the following problems would appear when producing complex identifiers (Salton & Buckley, 1988): (1) Few new identifiers are likely to become available when stringent conditions are used for the construction of complex identifiers; and (2) many marginal institution identifiers that do not prove useful are obtained when the construction criteria for the complex entities are relaxed. Because the construction and identification of complex institution representations can be inordinately difficult, publication in academic journals was used for research output identification. In order to do so, distinctions must be introduced between individual journals, based on their value as institution descriptors. This leads to the use of journal weights attached to the institution identifiers.

In the next section we consider the generation of effective journal weighting factors.

A journal-weighting system should increase the effectiveness of institution descriptors. In particular, journals in which researchers from an individual institution frequently published their works appear to be useful as institution identifiers. This suggests that a journal frequency factor can be used as part of the journal-weighting system measuring the frequency of publication in academic journals for a particular institution: $freq_{mi}$, which denotes the number of papers published in journal j_m by researchers at the university u_i during the study time period.

But journal frequency factors alone cannot ensure acceptable institution representation. Specifically, if highly frequent journals are not concentrated in a few particular institutions, but they are prevalent in the whole set U , all academic institutions tend to be represented by these same high-frequency journals and it affects the representation precision. Hence, a new set-dependent factor must be introduced that favors journals concentrated in a few institutions of the given set U . The well-known inverse frequency factor (Salton & Buckley, 1988) can be used to perform this function as follows.

Since a journal in which researchers from a large proportion of institutions published their papers should normally be a bad indicator of similarity between two academic institutions, it is reasonable to weight a journal j_m in accordance with how frequently researchers from different institutions in U published their papers in this journal, for example, by using

$$\log\left(\frac{N}{n_m}\right) \quad (4)$$

with N being the number of academic institutions in the set $U = \{u_i\}$, and n_m being the number of institutions at which researchers published their work in academic journal j_m .

To sum up, the best journals for research-output description are those able to distinguish certain individual institutions from the rest in the given set U . This implies that the best journals j_m for representing research output of institution u_i should have high journal frequencies, $freq_{mi}$, but low overall frequencies across institutions in U . Following the approach of Salton and Buckley (1988) and Ahlgren and Colliander (2009), a reasonable measure of journal importance may then be obtained by using the product of the journal frequency and the inverse frequency factor. Let j_m be the m -th considered academic journal in J . We now define the weight of journal j_m for representing research output of institution u_i as

$$w_{m,i} = freq_{mi} \times \log\left(\frac{N}{n_m}\right) \quad (5)$$

where $freq_{mi}$ is the number of papers published in journal j_m by researchers at the university u_i during the time period under consideration; and the inverse frequency factor $\log(N/n_m)$ varies inversely with the number of institutions at which researchers published their work in the same journal j_m .

Cluster analysis can then be applied in order to group the academic institutions in U . To this aim, similarity values obtained by Equation 3 are first converted to corresponding dissimilarity values by subtracting a given similarity value from 1. For the cluster analysis, we follow the complete linkage method (Everitt et al., 2001). In cluster analysis, complete linkage or furthest neighbor is a method for calculating distances between clusters in agglomerative hierarchical clustering. In complete linkage, the distance between two clusters is computed as the maximum distance between a pair of objects, one in one cluster and one in the other (Everitt et al., 2001). Thus, the distance between two clusters of academic institutions, $C1$ and $C2$, is defined as the maximum dissimilarity between two institutions u and v , where $u \in C1$ and $v \in C2$:

$$D(C1, C2) = \max_{u \in C1; v \in C2} (d(u, v))$$

For example, complete linkage clustering, based on the generated dissimilarity matrices, can be performed following MathWorks (Natick, MA, 2012).

In agglomerative hierarchical clustering, the clusters are initially the single-member clusters. At each stage the academic institutions or groups of institutions that are closest according to the linkage criterion are joined to form a new, larger cluster. At the last stage, a single group consisting of all academic institutions is formed. This avoids the problem of determining the number of clusters, which is often ambiguous, with interpretations depending on the shape and scale of the distribution of points in a data set and the desired clustering resolution of the user. The components at each iterative step are always a subset of other structures. Hence, the subsets can be represented using a tree diagram, or dendrogram. Horizontal slices of the tree at a given level indicate the clusters that exist above and below a value of the weight. Maps of academic institutions are node-edge diagrams, locating each institution in a two- or three-dimensional space and with the explicit linking of pairs of institutions by virtue of the relationships between them, that is, institution-institution similarities. In addition, dendrograms can be provided to illustrate the clustering of institutions or groups of institutions following agglomerative hierarchical clustering (MathWorks, 2012). Table 1 summarizes the methodological approach for construction of maps of academic institutions and the corresponding dendrograms.

Data Source and Processing

Considering that the aim was to visualize the relationships between universities based on their scientific production, the Thomson Reuters Web of Science database was selected as the data source. This decision is based on the great regard research policy makers have for this database, as it is deemed to store the most relevant scientific literature

TABLE 1. Outline of the proposed methodology for mapping universities according to their journal publication profile.

Algorithm 1. Methodological procedure
1. Obtain list of journals on which each institution has published for the study time period.
2. Apply weights to journals for each institution according to Equation 5.
3. Construct a journal-by-institution matrix.
4. Extract values from an institution-institution matrix derived from Equation 1.
5. Apply a second-order approach to emphasize similarities among institutions.
6. Perform a complete linkage clustering method in order to set the institutions groups according to their journal publication profile.
7. Construct a dendrogram with all university groups.
8. Map the universities network according to their similarity.

in the world. Then a set of academic institutions selected according to their research output and a study time period were chosen. We manually performed a search query for each university in order to download their research output data. For this, we used the “Address” filter taking into account all possible names for each institution. Then we downloaded all records assigned to each institution. We only considered as scientific publications those belonging to journals indexed in one of the Thomson Reuters *Journal Citation Reports* (hereafter JCR). These lists of journals are divided per subject categories and contain several bibliometric indicators. One of them is the impact factor, which is used as a ranking indicator for ordering journals according to their impact in the scientific literature. The editions of the JCR for the study time period were downloaded in September 2011. We also calculated the percentage of papers indexed in first-quartile journals (hereafter Q1 journals). Despite not being necessary to reproduce the suggested methodology, we considered that introducing a color range depending on the percentage of publications in Q1 journals would enrich the maps and ease our discussion of the results when demonstrating how our method not only groups universities according to their disciplinary focus but also their capability to publish in top journals. This should not be interpreted as meaning that certain universities publish papers of higher impact than others (García et al., 2012a), but rather seen as a competitive advantage of its researchers in terms of visibility.

Case Study: Map of Spanish Universities Based on Institution–Institution Similarities

Global Map of Spanish Universities

As a means of validating and applying the proposed methodology for mapping universities (see Table 1), we selected a set of Spanish universities with at least 50 citable documents (articles, reviews, notes, or letters) published in JCR journals, resulting in 56 universities (Table 2), and downloaded their production for the 2008–2010 time period.

The timeframe chosen aims at portraying as accurately as possible the current Spanish higher education landscape in terms of its research performance. For each university we retrieved all scientific journals in which researchers from each institution published their papers during the time period studied. We then used the cosine measure to compute a first-order and second-order similarity between universities. The map of Spanish universities will be a node-edge diagram, locating each university in a two-dimensional space and with the explicit linking of pairs of universities by virtue of the relationships between them, that is, university–university similarity values. For this, the software program Pajek (Networks/Pajek, 2011) was used and universities’ positioning was determined in accord with the Kamada-Kawai (1998) algorithm, which is commonly used in this kind of representation. Next, we used the complete linkage method for clustering the 56 Spanish universities, using second-order dissimilarities.

Here we used the cosine measure to compute the first-order and second-order similarity between universities as given above (see Equations 2 and 3). The second-order similarity matrix S contains many cells with very low similarities. From a computational point of view, it is problematic to keep all such similarities in the matrix. Moreover, to take them into account in the computations might have a negative impact on the visualization quality. We handled this problem by establishing minimum similarity values (e.g., 0.6 in Figure 1).

Figure 1 shows the resulting map for Spanish universities. Four distinct groups of universities can be inferred according to similarities in their research profile. First, we have a group formed by the five universities that could be considered as the most important ones (Barcelona, Autónoma de Madrid, Autónoma de Barcelona, Valencia, and Complutense Madrid), as these occupy the highest positions (for Spanish universities) in well-known international rankings such as the Shanghai Ranking (Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 2011) or the Performance Ranking of Scientific Papers for World Universities (Higher Education Evaluation & Accreditation Council of Taiwan, 2011). These universities have the highest production and more links with the rest of the universities that seem to surround them. The high number of links may suggest that they are not just highly productive universities, but also generalist universities covering different disciplines. It is also noticeable that, except for Valencia, all universities are located in either Madrid or Barcelona, the two main cities in Spain. They are similar universities not only in their disciplinary orientation, but also in their size and scientific impact according to the percentage of documents in Q1 journals. The second group (Granada, Santiago, Zaragoza, País Vasco, Sevilla) is formed by a set of universities also generalist and surrounded by a dense network but of smaller size. Oddly enough, these universities usually occupy positions between 400–500 in the Shanghai Ranking, dropping out some years and appearing in others, which also reinforces their similarity. However, some distinctions can be made when relating their Q1 production and their positions

TABLE 2. Set of Spanish universities used as sample for mapping institutions according its scientific research output during 2008–2010.

University	NDOCS	%Q1	University	NDOCS	%Q1	University	NDOCS	%Q1
BARCELONA	11,168	56%	ALICANTE	2,349	50%	LLEIDA	1,124	51%
AUTÓNOMA DE BARCELONA	8,428	56%	CÓRDOBA	2,334	57%	ALMERIA	1,085	46%
COMPLUTENSE MADRID	7,629	51%	ROVIRA I VIRGILI	2,302	55%	PUBLICA DE NAVARRA	1,016	44%
VALENCIA	6,764	54%	VALLADOLID	2,187	43%	PALMAS (LAS)	1,016	43%
AUTÓNOMA DE MADRID	6,386	56%	LAGUNA, LA	2,176	52%	UNED	929	41%
GRANADA	5,380	49%	MALAGA	2,076	48%	LEON	917	48%
POLITÉCNICA DE CATALUÑA	4,992	49%	POMPEU FABRA	1,972	59%	POLITÉCNICA CARTAGENA	908	46%
PAIS VASCO	4,827	52%	CANTABRIA	1,826	51%	HUELVA	748	52%
ZARAGOZA	4,487	53%	EXTREMADURA	1,816	49%	PABLO OLAVIDE	656	51%
SEVILLA	4,484	50%	ALCALA DE HENARES	1,809	46%	BURGOS	478	52%
POLITECNICA DE VALENCIA	4,445	49%	CARLOS III	1,805	43%	RIOJA (LA)	446	50%
SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA	4,400	50%	ISLAS BALEARES	1,565	56%	RAMON LLUL	366	38%
POLITÉCNICA DE MADRID	4,065	43%	GIRONA	1,520	53%	EUROPEA DE MADRID	190	45%
OVIEDO	3,232	49%	MIGUEL HERNANDEZ	1,519	48%	CARDENAL HERRERA-CEU	189	34%
VIGO	2,983	49%	REY JUAN CARLOS	1,512	49%	SAN PABLO CEU	171	49%
CASTILLA LA MANCHA	2,829	50%	CORUÑA, A	1,439	41%	PONTIFICIA COMILLAS	144	45%
MURCIA	2,663	45%	JAEN	1,355	43%	MONDRAGON	80	39%
SALAMANCA	2,510	48%	CADIZ	1,261	48%	DEUSTO	55	22%
NAVARRA	2,469	47%	JAUME I	1,225	54%			

Indicators: NDOCS: number of citable documents (articles, reviews, notes, or letters) indexed in JCR journals (Thomson Reuters). %Q1: number of citable documents (articles, reviews, notes, or letters) indexed in Q1 JCR journals (Thomson Reuters).

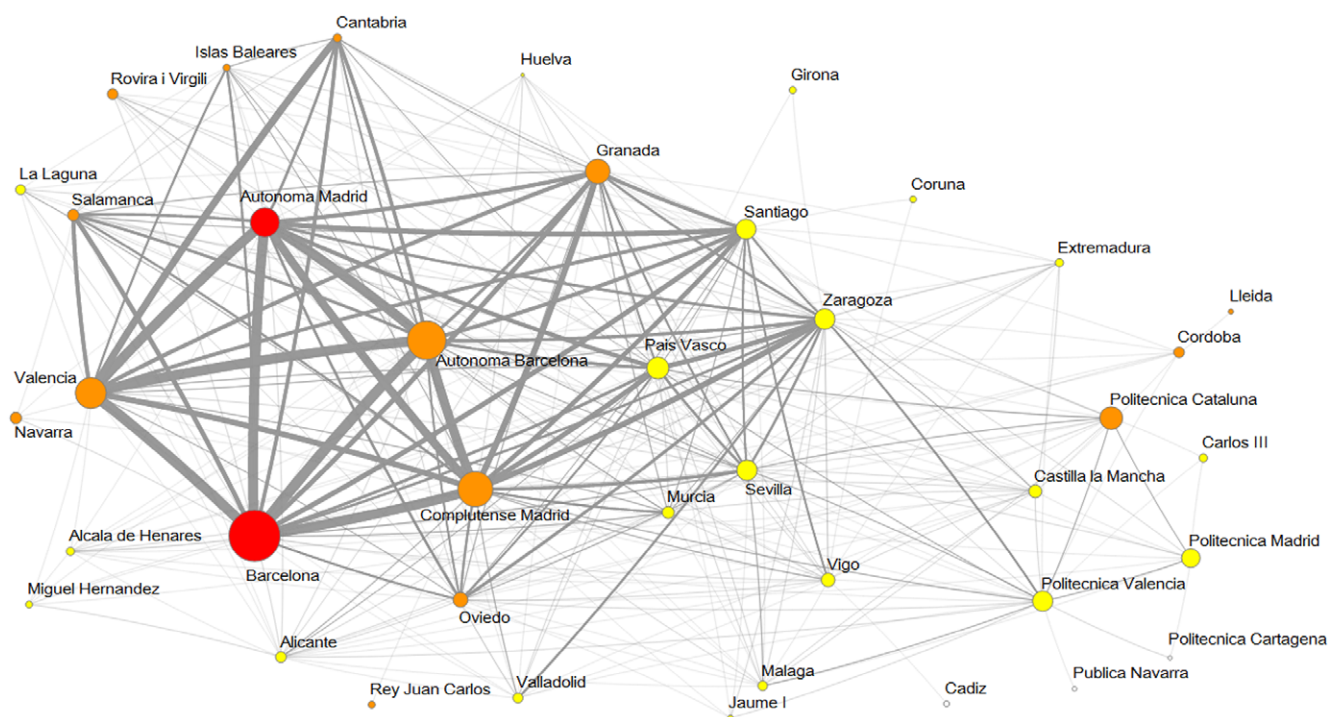


FIG. 1. Map of main Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile. Map characteristic: Lines > minimum similarity value 0.60; maximum similarity value 0.98. Isolated university nodes have been removed. From 0.75 line-width is emphasized. Colors: red: >50% production belongs to Q1 journals; orange: 40–50% production belongs to Q1 journals; yellow: 30–40% production belongs to Q1 journals; white: <30% production belongs to Q1 journals. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

in the Shanghai Ranking; while Granada appears in all editions of the ranking, the others drop in some editions, possibly related to the proportion of Q1 production each university has. In this sense, it seems that this university is somewhere between these two groups.

There is a third group of smaller, less productive universities that has strong links only with those universities belonging to the first group, showing similarities in certain fields of endeavor. Universities belonging to this group are Cantabria, Islas Baleares, or Oviedo, for instance. The

fourth group is composed of small universities with weak links to universities belonging to the first or second group. These weak links are due to a high level of specialization in certain fields also common to the other universities (Torres-Salinas, Delgado-López-Cózar, Moreno-Torres, & Herrera, 2011). An example of this is Navarra (Medicine and Pharmacology), Rovira i Virgili (Chemistry), or Murcia (Biological Sciences). The last group consists mainly of polytechnics (Politécnica de Madrid, Politécnica de Valencia, Politécnica de Cataluña, etc.). Although these universities are linked to other universities, they are also linked to one another. The reason for showing such weak links is due to their specialization in certain scientific fields belonging to Engineering and Applied Sciences. In fact, surrounding them we also find other universities that show a tendency towards this “technological” profile, such as Zaragoza (which shares a strong link to Politécnica de Valencia), Carlos III, Pública de Navarra, or Castilla La Mancha.

The high minimum values established in Figure 1 seem to eliminate most reflections of the geographical or regional relations among universities, emphasizing purely research similarities. But we can still trace this kind of relationship between three universities: Santiago de Compostela, Vigo, and Coruña. In this case, the interpretation seems to be quite reasonable. The two latter universities were formed in 1990 and 1989, respectively, both from campuses belonging to the former university, which is a historical university founded in the 15th century.

In this map we find that one important university is missing, the University of Pompeu Fabra. This Catalan university has experienced a meteoric growth in recent years. A relatively new university (founded in 1990), in the last two years it has appeared in the most renowned international rankings: between the 300 and 500 top class universities according to the Shanghai Ranking since 2009 or between the 150 and 200 top universities in the last two years according to the *Times Higher Education* World University Rankings (<http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/>), for instance. Its absence in Figure 1 indicates that its publication patterns differ from the rest of the Spanish universities, suggesting that perhaps its journal publication profile may be oriented in such a way that can explain such a rise. As we indicated before, by using common journals as a means for mapping universities we not only group them by their research profile, but also by their research impact (understood as the impact factor of journals in which their output is published). This university serves as a good example of this second characteristic, as 59% of its production is published in Q1 journals (Table 2), which is the highest proportion for the sample used. This way we can see how its absence may not have to do so much with its disciplinary profile as with the journals in which it publishes. Figure 2 shows a dendrogram of Spanish universities or groups of universities following agglomerative hierarchical clustering. From this figure, we observe a group formed by Barcelona, Autónoma de Barcelona, Valencia, and Autónoma de Madrid,

which belong to the core of the map of Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile as given in Figure 1. We also see that Granada and Complutense de Madrid form a very strong grouping. Another relatively natural grouping is formed by Politécnica de Valencia, Politécnica de Cataluña, and Politécnica de Madrid, all of which are universities with a tendency toward a technological profile. From Figure 2, we see that Sevilla, Zaragoza, and País Vasco belong to another group of universities based on their journal publication profile.

Specific Maps of Spanish Universities for the Fields of Information and Communication Technologies, as Well as Medicine and Pharmacology

After testing our methodology for the total production of universities, we went a step further and tested it for different scientific fields in the belief that, in order to have a clear and more precise picture of universities’ similarities, it is necessary to deepen the specific fields so that we can better understand their relations. For this, we focus on two different areas: Information and Communication Technologies (hereafter ICT) and Medicine and Pharmacology (hereafter MED). We construct these fields by thematically aggregating the Thomson Reuters subject categories, following the same criteria we used in a previous study¹ (Torres-Salinas, Moreno-Torres, Delgado-López-Cózar, & Herrera, 2011b). We use the same set of 56 Spanish universities (Table 2) and the same study time period (2008–2010).

In Figure 3 we map Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile in ICT. In this case, disciplines are crucial in shaping universities’ similarities. We find that Politécnica de Valencia shows a much more diversified profile in this scientific field, occupying a central place in the representation. That is, it is similar to a greater number of universities, signifying its lesser specialization in certain disciplines. Oviedo, Politécnica de Madrid, and Carlos III show greater similarities among themselves and, also, each of them is the core for grouping other universities.

But the most interesting patterns are those followed by Granada and Politécnica de Cataluña. According to their research impact and output, these two universities are the top ones in this scientific field (Torres-Salinas et al., 2011) but they are not the core of the representation one would have thought. Instead, they seem to follow different patterns than the rest of the universities, suggesting a highly specialized profile in both cases. While Politécnica de Cataluña shows stronger similarities with other universities such as Málaga, Carlos III, Politécnica de Madrid, and Politécnica de Valencia, Granada shows strong similarity with Jaén and weaker similarity with the rest. The reason for this dissimilarity may

¹For a better understanding of how these broad scientific fields were formed, the reader is referred to http://www.ugr.es/~elrobin/rankingsISI_2011.pdf where we show the correspondence followed between the ISI subject categories and 12 scientific fields, including the two used in this study.

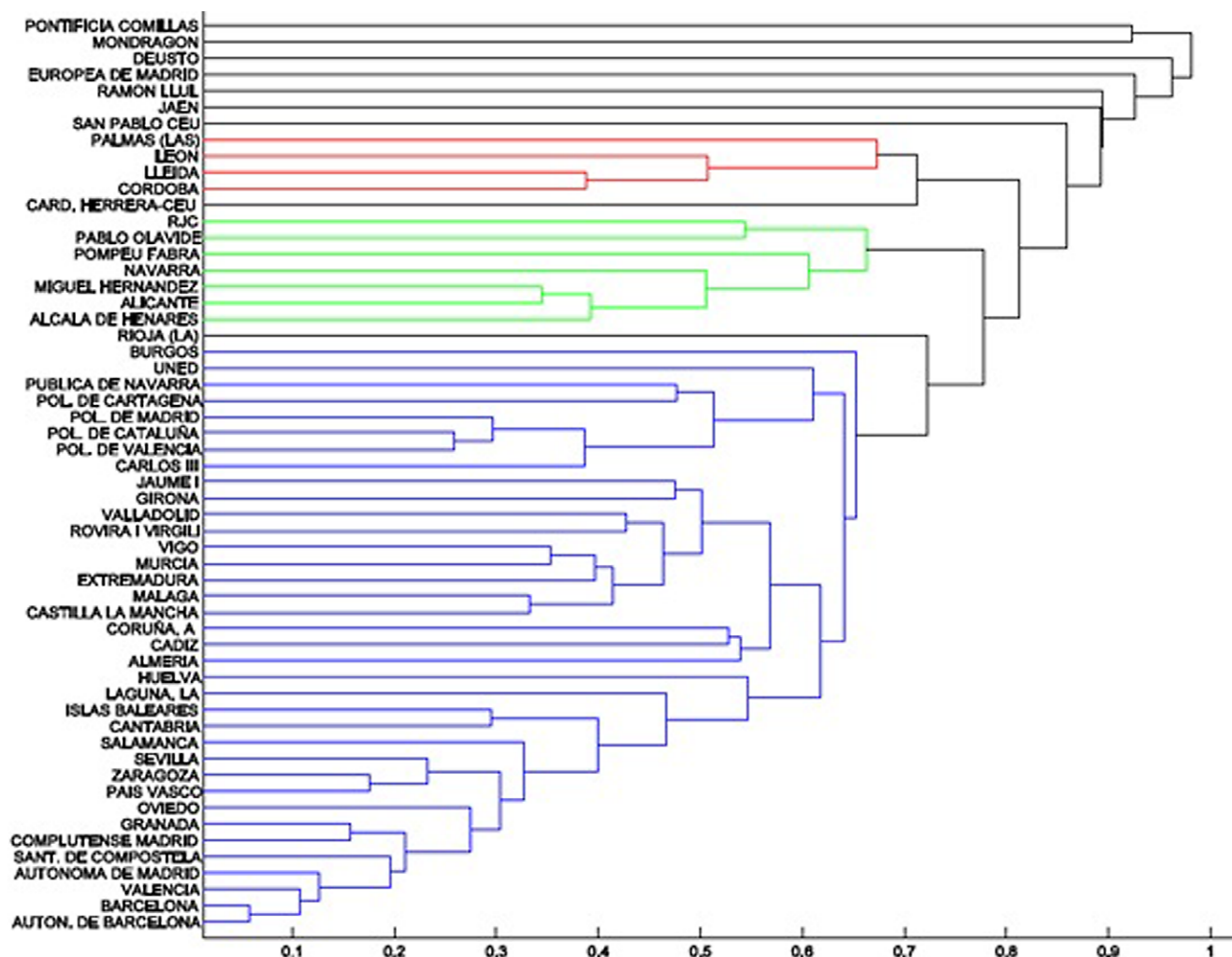


FIG. 2. Dendrogram of Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

reflect differences in specialization. Also, there are geographical and social factors that influence the strong similarity with Jaén among those related with research. As occurred with Santiago de Compostela, Vigo, and Coruña before, Jaén is a relatively new university (founded in 1993) which used to be a campus belonging to the University of Granada. This social context may explain their similarity, as there are probably still strong collaboration links between researchers in ICT belonging to both universities.

This hypothesis is reinforced by Figure 4, in which we see the distribution of research output according to the Thomson Reuters subject categories for three universities: Granada, Jaén, and Politécnica de Cataluña. As we focus on each category, we can observe the similarities between the two former and dissimilarities with the latter. In this way, we can see how high levels of similarity correspond with similar publication profiles: Jaén's and Granada's research distribution per categories is very similar and highly focused in two main categories (Artificial Intelligence and Interdisciplinary

Applications) which contain more than half of the total production for both universities. On the other hand, Politécnica de Cataluña shows a more diversified profile, never reaching 20% of its production in a single category. It is also interesting to see how the proposed methodology is not influenced by size. Despite Granada having more journals in common with Politécnica de Cataluña, the proportion of publications in the same journals with Jaén is higher, which explains their similar profile.

When focusing on MED, a different picture emerges (Figure 5), signifying how necessary a disciplinary approach becomes to universities when establishing research profiles. In this case we find four distinct groups of universities. The main one is composed of Barcelona, Autónoma de Barcelona, and Autónoma de Madrid, which have strong similarities among them. They are characterized by their large production and by publishing in Q1 journals (only Autónoma de Barcelona has less than half of its output published in Q1 journals). They are also the most generalist universities in this field of endeavor, as they represent the core of the map. Then we find

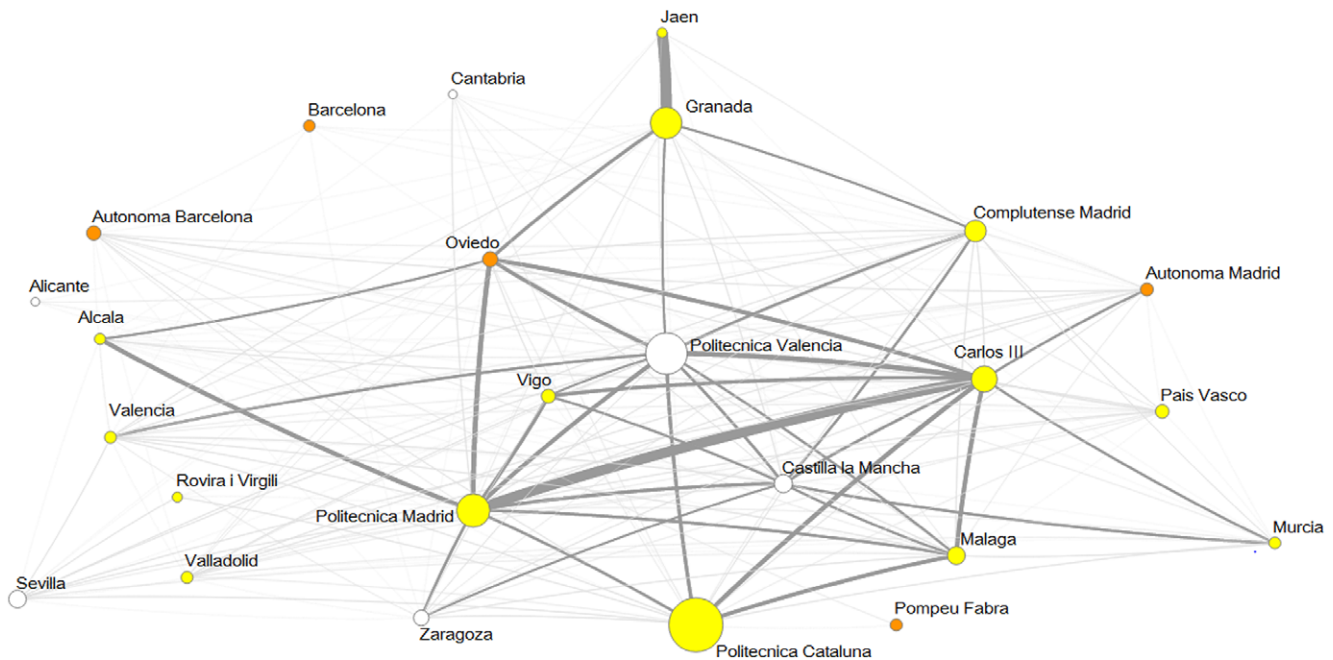


FIG. 3. Map of Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile in ICT. Map characteristic: Lines > minimum similarity value 0.60; maximum similarity value 0.875. Isolated university nodes have been removed. From 0.75 line-width is emphasized. Colors: red: >50% production belongs to Q1 journals; orange: 40–50% production belongs to Q1 journals; yellow: 30–40% production belongs to Q1 journals; white: <30% production belongs to Q1 journals. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

				Number of Docs. in common Journals	
				Jaén	Granada
Total commons journals 39					
similarity 0.875					
JAÉN					
	Docs	%			
ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE	51	38%		50	106
INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS	32	24%		26	68
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	20	15%		14	17
SOFTWARE ENGINEERING	15	11%		10	28
THEORY & METHODS	12	9%		12	32
TELECOMMUNICATIONS	3	2%		2	2
HARDWARE & ARCHITECTURE	2	1%		2	4
CYBERNETICS	1	1%		0	0
POLITÉCNICA DE CATALUÑA				Catal.	Granada
INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS	154	19%		60	40
TELECOMMUNICATIONS	142	18%		49	11
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	122	15%		53	29
THEORY & METHODS	111	14%		21	18
HARDWARE & ARCHITECTURE	87	11%		25	10
SOFTWARE ENGINEERING	87	11%		16	21
ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE	84	11%		31	91
CYBERNETICS	11	1%		4	6
Total commons journals 59					
similarity 0.620					
GRANADA					
	Docs	%			
ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE	152	34%			
INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS	106	24%			
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	62	14%			
THEORY & METHODS	47	10%			
SOFTWARE ENGINEERING	43	10%			
HARDWARE & ARCHITECTURE	14	3%			
TELECOMMUNICATIONS	13	3%			
CYBERNETICS	11	2%			

FIG. 4. Detail of disciplinary differences in ICT among Granada, Jaén, and Polit cnica de Catalu a according to the Thomson Reuters subject categories.

a second group of universities with high outputs that surround this core (Complutense de Madrid, Navarra, Valencia). In the case of Navarra and comparing with Figure 1, it is plausible to suggest that it is a highly specialized university in MED with a very similar profile to Aut noma de Madrid, Barcelona, Aut noma de Barcelona, and Valencia. The third group is formed of universities with weak links with universities

belonging to the other two groups, for instance, Alcal  de Henares, Granada, or Pa  Vasco.

It is worth mentioning a fourth group formed by just two universities and completely separated from the rest. This is the one formed by Polit cnica de Valencia and Polit cnica de Catalu a. As can be seen throughout this section, the polytechnics are quite similar in research profile.

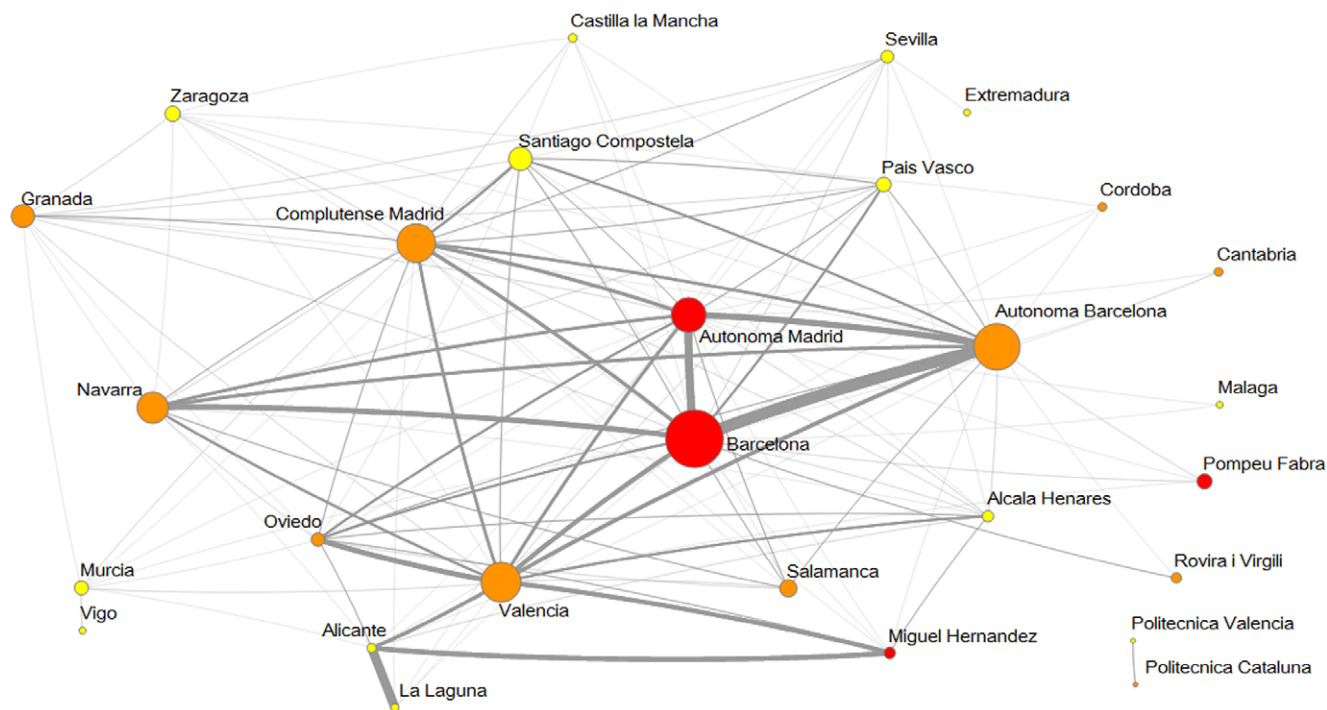


FIG. 5. Map of Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile in MED. Map characteristic: Lines > minimum similarity value 0.60; maximum similarity value 0.93. Isolated university nodes have been removed. From 0.75 line-width is emphasized. Colors: red: >50% production belongs to Q1 journals; orange: 40–50% production belongs to Q1 journals; yellow: 30–40% production belongs to Q1 journals; white: <30% production belongs to Q1 journals. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

In this case, this similarity between them, on the one hand, and dissimilarity from the rest of the universities, on the other, is due to a research interest focused on the Engineering, Biomedical JCR subject category, which would explain why there is no connection with the other universities. In fact, their production in this category represents 30% of their total output in MED, that is, 61 documents published by Politècnica de Catalunya and 66 documents published by Politècnica de Valencia.

In Figure 6 we emphasize, as we did with ICT (Figure 4), the capability of the proposed methodology to group similar universities and separate dissimilar universities according to their journal publication profile in MED. In this case, we compare the distribution of research output according to the Thomson Reuters subject categories of Autònoma de Barcelona with Barcelona and Alcalá de Henares—that is, with its most similar university and a less similar one. In the first case, we observe a similarity of 0.930, which stresses how alike the profile of these two universities is in this scientific field. In fact, the eight categories in which they produce more documents are the exact same for both institutions. On the other hand, when comparing Autònoma de Barcelona with Alcalá de Henares we see that, despite publishing an important proportion of their total output in the same four categories, mainly those related to Neurosciences, they also focus on different specialties that make them quite different (in the case of Alcalá de Henares, for instance, Ophthalmology, Oncology, or Surgery). Thereby we can see once more

how the methodology employed groups universities according to their research and publication similarities.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

The present study aims at proposing a novel methodology for mapping academic institutions according to their research profile. Based on the assumption that similar universities should publish in the same scientific journals, we present an algorithm for measuring similarities between universities and their journal publication profile and we represent them in a dendrogram and a network map. In order to test this methodology we used a sample of 56 Spanish universities and a 3-year study time period (2008–2010). Then we applied this methodology in three different scenarios: a representation of universities according to their total output, a representation according to their output in ICT, and a representation according to their output in MED.

This way we first analyzed its potential for grouping institutions in a competitive context deeply influenced by league tables and rankings in which it has repeatedly been noted that only similar institutions can be compared in order to proceed properly when ranking (van der Wende & Westerheijden, 2009). This can be seen in Figure 1, where we observe how the proportion of publications in Q1 journals for universities is similar for each of the previously discussed groups. Although some attempts have been made when classifying universities according to their research

Total commons journals 613					Number of Docs. in common Journals	
similarity 0.930					Barc.	Aut Barc.
			BARCELONA	Docs %		
			PSYCHIATRY	440 9%	242	125
			NEUROSCIENCES	431 9%	334	241
			CLINICAL NEUROLOGY	320 7%	261	193
			PHARMACOLOGY & PHARMACY	316 6%	240	198
			IMMUNOLOGY	246 5%	222	156
			INFECTIOUS DISEASES	240 5%	227	164
			SURGERY	194 4%	143	100
			ENDOCRINOLOGY & METABOLISM	189 4%	146	103
			ALCALA HENARES		Alcalá	Aut Barc
			PHARMACOLOGY & PHARMACY	53 9%	31	99
			NEUROSCIENCES	52 9%	39	83
			OPHTHALMOLOGY	48 8%	35	29
			PSYCHIATRY	41 7%	28	48
			CLINICAL NEUROLOGY	40 7%	28	70
			ONCOLOGY	32 5%	18	34
			SURGERY	29 5%	22	30
			DERMATOLOGY	26 4%	22	24
similarity 0.690						
Total commons journals 179						
			AUTONOMA BARCELONA	Docs %		
			NEUROSCIENCES	258 8%		
			PHARMACOLOGY & PHARMACY	221 7%		
			CLINICAL NEUROLOGY	211 7%		
			PSYCHIATRY	192 6%		
			INFECTIOUS DISEASES	169 5%		
			IMMUNOLOGY	168 5%		
			SURGERY	115 4%		
			ENDOCRINOLOGY & METABOLISM	114 4%		

FIG. 6. Detail of disciplinary differences in MED among Aut6noma de Barcelona, Barcelona, and Alcal6 de Henares according to the Thomson Reuters subject categories.

performance (Shin, 2009), this approach focuses on mapping universities according to their journal publication profiles, in the belief that this perspective overcomes the limitations derived from a rigid classification system subjected to a fixed set of criteria. Also, it allows grouping universities taking into account their disciplinary similarities (Lopez-Illescas, Moya-Aneg6n, & Moed, 2011) and their research impact or quality (considering as such publications in Q1 journals). This way we address not only vertical diversity between universities, which is the one that rankings emphasize, but also horizontal diversity.

In this vein the other two tests are presented. By applying the methodology in two different scientific fields, we intend to demonstrate how our approach can not just group similar universities, but also detect similarities between institutions that are centered in the same disciplines and specialties. Also, we have noted that, having previous knowledge about the specific higher education system on which the procedure is performed, we can also discover geographical, social, and/or historical relationships between academic institutions, as we have seen in the case of Santiago de Compostela, Vigo, and Coru6a in Figure 1 or Granada and Ja6n in Figure 3.

To validate the results illustrated in Figure 1, a different method with similar results needs to be presented. We used that of Garc6a et al. (2012b), where a summary measure of multidimensional prestige of influential fields was introduced to assess the comparative performance of Spanish universities during the period 2006–2010.

To this end, a field of study at a given university is considered as having dimension-specific prestige when its score based on a given ranking model (e.g., %Q1) exceeds a threshold value. Then, it can be defined which fields at a given university are considered prestigious in a multidimensional setting. Thus, a field of study at this university

has multidimensional prestige only if it is an influential field with respect to a number of dimensions. Finally, after having identified the multidimensional influential fields at a particular university, we aggregated their prestige scores to a summary measure of multidimensional prestige. The summary measure is not only sensitive to the number of dimensions but also takes into account changes in the ranking scores of influential fields of study at the university.

Garc6a et al. (2012b) show the ranking of research output of Spanish universities during the period 2006–2010 (see their table 5). To this end the multidimensional prestige of influential fields of study was computed at each institution using a multivariate indicator space. Six variables were used in this analysis: (a) raw number of citable papers (articles, reviews, notes, or letters) published in scientific journals (NDOCS); (b) number of citations received by all citable papers (NCIT); (c) H-index (H); (d) ratio of papers published in journals in the top JCR quartile (%Q1); (e) average number of citations received by all citable papers (ACIT); and (f) ratio of papers that belong to the top 10% most cited (TOPCIT). The data are available at <http://www.rankinguniversidades.es>. Fifty-six main universities in Spain were considered in this experiment.

From the results shown in Garc6a et al. (2012b), the top eight Spanish universities during the period 2006–2010 were Barcelona, Aut6noma de Barcelona, Aut6noma de Madrid, Valencia, Complutense de Madrid, Granada, Santiago de Compostela, and Zaragoza. Also, it follows that Pa6s Vasco and Sevilla are very similar according to their multidimensional prestige in influential fields. This also happens with two other technological universities, Polit6cnica de Valencia and Polit6cnica de Catalu6a, which are similar according to their multidimensional prestige (see their table 5).

The interesting point is that all these results are congruent with those from the present study (as given by Figures 1 and 2) where we analyze the main Spanish universities according to their journal publication profile.

This type of representation offers a new model for visualizing universities' relationships that can show more clearly than other types of mapping (such as collaboration or web-link maps) the multidimensional similarities and dissimilarities between academic institutions. Likewise, this tool serves as a perfect complement for interpreting universities' performance in rankings as a means for understanding them, not as isolated entities, but as interrelated elements of a national higher education system. At a research policy level, this mapping technique may be of use in identifying and selecting universities with similar profiles, as it helps us to determine which universities can be compared and which not, not just at a national level, as described throughout this article, but also at a transnational or international level. Finally, in the national context it may be of special interest for research policy managers when analyzing potential mergers of universities or concentration of research. This last idea is in consonance with recent developments in Spain regarding its research policy and the "International Excellence Campus" [Campus de Excelencia Internacional] program which aims at encouraging universities' collaboration.

However, some limitations have also been noted. Using the journal publication approach we find too many links between universities, which makes it difficult to visualize universities under at certain levels of similarity, blurring similarities between low-performance universities. This limits the analysis when mapping a whole national higher education system, as some universities must inevitably drop out. In this sense, it also understandable that applying this type of methodology under a certain threshold is not advisable. Also, it would be of interest to introduce other document types (monographs, for instance) that would allow better coverage of certain fields, such as the social sciences and humanities, and develop methodologies that would accommodate these document types.

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