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ARTICLE

Personalised vs. Non-Personalised Peer Review Requests

Preliminary Data for Calculating Effects on Response Rate, Quality and Completion

János József Tóth*

* Department of Social Communication, Ludovika University of Public Service, Hungary
Office for Science Strategy, Ludovika University of Public Service, Hungary
E-mail: toth.janos.jozsef@uni-nke.hu

Peer review is and will remain the cornerstone of research publishing, but finding the right candidate to write an evaluation report for submitted manuscripts can be a challenge for academic publishers. Reaching out to peer reviewers always leaves a written trail (both for reasons of editorial accountability and quality control) and generally starts with an email inquiry from the editors. The content and style of these emails can influence how the recipient responds to the request, and analysing them could offer publishers valuable insights on how to design such initial contacts for optimal efficacy. This article is aimed at presenting a database and preliminary results for such analysis, consisting of 854 anonymised peer review requests sent out through traditional email, academia.edu and researchgate.net private messages between 2018 and 2022. It was found that personalised peer review requests had a higher response rate and higher ratio of submitted reports than non-personalised ones, and personalisation has the best results with peers of low academic seniority. Requests sent through academic social media had a response rate comparable to personalised email messages but received significantly fewer refusals and resulted in more completed evaluation reports, especially when female academics were targeted.

Keywords: editorial process, peer review, response rate, email personalisation, quality control

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Introduction

Although most commercial academic publishers use semi-automated solutions linked to subscription-based manuscript submission systems to recruit suitable peer reviewers, a number of society publishers, non-profit operations and standalone academic journals cannot afford to use such services. Editors without access to Clarivate's Reviewer Locator, Elsevier's Editorial Manager (the former relies on Web of Science, the latter on SCOPUS) or other smaller proprietary services are required to find, screen, and connect with potential reviewers in other ways. They may reach out to specific peers within their existing academic networks, scan through the list of references in a particular submission or use search tools in various academic databases to find other scholars working on similar topics. If not using their existing social capital, they are essentially constrained to cold-contacting potential reviewers with requests for reviews, their main channels being email and social media, in the hope of receiving a favourable answer, and using design and rhetorical techniques in order to increase the probability of success.

A variety of opportunities are provided by different channels to design these initial contacts. For example, it is easier to contact multiple reviewers simultaneously through emails with identical generic requests, the official email address of the journal, a pre-built reviewer pool, email signature and clickable links to the journal's website that all serve as signs of legitimacy to the recipient. In contrast, in social media communications the journal's official or the editor's personal profile can be accessed instantly by the potential reviewer, with content on these accounts (including altmetrics, affiliation data and personal recognition) being the main factors by which the sender's legitimacy can be confirmed, and decisions about cooperation with the sender be made.

In this article, we argue that due to the similarity of the medium, the outreach process, and the desired results, peer review requests originating both within and outside of the framework of semi-automated solutions linked to manuscript submission systems can be conceived and studied as specific cases of email and direct message marketing. This study also aims at reporting exploratory data for measuring how general use of personalisation techniques in this field can increase the likelihood of a potential reviewer accepting a request from an editor.

Personalisation of peer review requests: the editor's perspective

The Internet and, most importantly, online social media platforms have offered a new paradigm in customer focused marketing that operates through micro level customisation. Among marketing channels, email has retained its relevance among the proliferation of social media marketing and is still widely used mainly because of its cost efficiency. According to studies conducted by the Data & Marketing Association (2018, 2020), while businesses are making an average of 2.0 Return on Advertising Spend (RoAS) on paid advertising, email marketing consistently performs better with RoAS figures of 25.0 in 2017, 28.0 in 2018, and 35.4 in 2020, respectively.

One of the elements contributing to this success is the personalisation of messages sent by email. Personalisation is normally defined in the literature using a combination of profile, content and timing. Tailoring relevant content for customers based on the needs and preferences derived from their profile data, and sending it to them at specific times can make them more receptive to a delivered message if it consists of this basic framework for personalisation (Salonen & Karjaluoto, 2016; Huang & Zhou, 2018; Rhee & Choi, 2020). From the customer's viewpoint, a personalised message can enhance their awareness of their importance and personalised offers may serve their actual needs better than generic campaign messages (Goic et al., 2021). Although most customers are not terribly happy about the large number of emails that businesses send them and complain about it (Zhang et al., 2017), there is meanwhile an observable trend in increasing consumer demand for personalised marketing messages (Wilson, 2019).

Personalisation in email marketing is a commonly accepted and cost-effective practice, and only a small minority of marketers do not tailor messages to specific groups or even individuals based on information gathered about them. Thus, with almost every agent using personalisation in their marketing strategies aiming to optimise cost and relevance, algorithmic personalisation increased its share in the U.S.A. from 26% in 2018 to 46% in 2020 (Evergage, 2020). Personalisation holds benefits and challenges for both marketers and customers. Marketers have higher response rates to personalised emails, which generate greater customer loyalty and satisfaction when compared to generic ones. However, they must also take into account that customers may view these mails as an invasion of their private sphere, and extra measures must also be taken during the profile building process in order not to violate regional data protection laws. Academic publishers, just like any other businesses, have a variety of specific laws to adhere to. In the European Union, the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) poses many limitations on processing personal data. Publishers either have to acquire specific consent from the data subject (i.e. the potential peer reviewer) or claim another legal basis for sending out peer review requests. This basis could be to preserve the legitimate interest of the publisher because the workflow and maintenance of an academic journal is not possible without peer reviewing research before acceptance and publication. However, this only applies to the first contact, and sending further communications requires the other party's explicit consent. Due to its emphasis on affirmative action, pre-checked boxes are not considered to amount to consent in the EU, while in contrast, legal practice in the U.S.A. offers the right and opportunity to opt out or unsubscribe from receiving emails from any given business, which is articulated through the Controlling the Assault of Non-Solicited Pornography and Marketing Act (CAN-SPAM Act).

The basic principles of how profiling, timing and content tailoring apply to emailed peer review requests is not immediately evident. For example, in preference to biographical date, profiling for email marketing involves gathering behavioural data such as the time range of service usage (Telang et al., 2004), length of a browsing session (Bucklin & Sismeiro, 2003) or the attention a reader pays to certain parts of the visible screen (Kósa et al., 2020). However, this type of data is either not available to editors or not taken into account when deciding whom to ask to review a given paper. If an editor uses Clarivate's Reviewer Locator or Elsevier's Editorial Manager they can receive algorithmic

Table 1:
Algorithmic options offered by Clarivate and Elsevier

Profile data displayed after filtering	Reviewer Locator (Clarivate Analytics)	Editorial Manager (Elsevier)
Name	✓	✓
Affiliation	✓ (full affiliation history)	✓ (current affiliation only)
Matching keywords between manuscript and author areas	✓	✓
Contact email	✓	✓
Relevant publications	✓	✓
Citations received to relevant publications	✓	✓
Total number of indexed publications	✓	
Total number of reviews completed	✓	
Name and number of reviews completed for journals with keywords matching with those of the manuscript	✓	
Publons profile	✓	
ORCID	✓	
H-index		✓
Connections to the author, journal, author's institution or country		✓

Source: Compiled by the author.

recommendations for suitable reviewers (see Table 1), but they can also manually define a set of profile data based on which a list of suitable reviewers will be compiled by the software. This data includes institutional affiliation, country/region and relevant indexed publications from the recent years or their subject areas.

In addition, these services also display decision-supportive information on potential reviewers (see Table 2), such as their affiliation history, total number of indexed publications, citations received, journals they reviewed for and the number of reviews they have completed, and editors have one-click access to their publication data and email address.

As can be seen, the profile data based on which a reviewer is contacted is barely connected to the biological or professional age of the person. It is rather a combination of relevant expertise, publication behaviour, and impact, with the potential for further screening by other, more exalted prestige factors derived from the scientific rank/reputation of their country, their institution, and the journals they have published in/reviewed for so far. Editors using manuscript processing systems with in-built reviewer search functions profit not only from the aggregated data based on which suitable reviewers can easily

Table 2:
Decision-supportive information on potential reviewers

	Reviewer Locator (Clarivate Analytics)	**Editorial Manager (Elsevier)**
Filtering possible by...		
Country/region	✓	✓
Name	✓	
Email address	✓	
Institutional affiliation	✓	
Indexed publications in the past 3-5 years	✓	
Journal name	✓	
Manuscript title	✓	
Manuscript abstract	✓	
Areas of expertise		✓
H-index		✓
Connections to the journal/ publisher		✓
Interested reviewers		✓

Source: Compiled by the author.

be found and contacted, but also from being able to signal a level of professionalism and credibility that editors who do not have access to such systems are unable to. Emails sent through manuscript processing systems usually contain information about their parent company and the Domain Keys Identified Mail (DKIM) signature in the email metadata, which helps the request to get through institutional spam filters. Moreover, as something coming from a widely known and trusted source among academics, such information may better motivate recipients to open and respond to the email because, as has been repeatedly demonstrated, the trustworthiness of the sender positively influences response rates to invitational emails (Trouteaud, 2004; Porter & Whitcomb, 2005).

On the other hand, editors at journals who are not subscribed to manuscript processing systems still have access to a variety of profile data through their institutional subscription to abstracting and indexing services. They may not be able to immediately identify reviewers who might have connections that make them more liable to accept a review request, but the results of a manual search by topic or field of interest can be further refined or ordered by using the same variables as manuscript processing systems, although they will not be able to profit from the credentials provided by the parent companies of these services, they will have other channels where they can use their own personal/institutional reputation to strengthen the recipient's trust in the sender, such as using an institutional e-mail address, or academic social media (most notably researchgate.com and academia.edu) where their full profile can be checked and verified.

Finally, editors can personalise the text of the review request based on the information automatically aggregated from abstracting and indexing services or that found during

manual searches. Certain proven personalisation techniques used in email marketing, such as using the recipient's name in the subject line (Sahni et al., 2018) or the main text of the email (Munz et al., 2020) can be adapted to peer review requests without much modification. Knowledge about an individual recipient, gathered while looking for suitable reviewers, can be further used by an editor to personalise a general peer review request email template, using specific formulas referring to academic data tied to the specific person. They can also use a review request to build trust and legitimacy for later contact emails such as asking for recommendations if the contacted person either does not have the time or does not feel well-positioned enough to evaluate the manuscript in question. If the original recipient recommends names or groups to contact, the email later sent to them can include a mention that they were recommended by X of Y University, providing a reference to a person the recipient is probably going to be more familiar with.

Other techniques such as the use of incentives would depend both on the characteristics of the academic field, the needs of the contacted academic, and the resources editors have at their disposal. One could certainly target a demographic that would view non-pecuniary rewards, such as giving recognition to the name of the reviewer on the journal's website or issuing a certificate of review as an adequate and useful compensation of their work, for example, lower level-academics who still need to "prove their worth" to the system, women – who are structurally disadvantaged in academia and need more symbolic capital to be recognised as being equal in status to their male colleagues – or academics in certain countries or institutions where extra points or recognition for completed peer reviews are given at their yearly performance evaluations. Based on previous findings, however, offering these types of certificates can discourage intrinsically motivated and scientifically productive reviewers (Zaharie & Seebert, 2018). Motivation through rewards that come not from editorial offerings but simply from the role and authority such reports on editorial decisions about publication have should not be neglected either. As the number of citations received are counted in most countries for academic career advancement purposes, a recipient may be motivated to participate in the review process if they can anticipate opportunities to recommend results/insights from their already published work for use in the author's manuscript to be incorporated into the list of references.

Some journals are experimenting with pecuniary rewards; however, there seems to be agreement in the literature that such measures are similarly harmful to intrinsic motivation and the sense that writing a peer review evaluation is a form of service academics provide to their community by voluntarily evaluating each other's work when asked to do so (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Squazzoni et al., 2013; Zaharie & Osoian, 2016). Moreover, smaller journals without a strong commercial or major scholarly society background do not necessarily have funding for such rewards, and a monetary incentive can also raise suspicion if coming from less-respected or lesser-known journals. Global wealth inequality also means that a lump sum of X would be more appealing for academics from lower income countries, and less appealing to their higher income peers, which could strongly affect the regional distribution of reviewers completing reports for the journal which, taking into account the fact that high income countries are generally more successful in knowledge production than low income ones, could result in a drop in the perceived quality of the peer review process. Academic rank could also influence the effectiveness of monetary rewards because

early career academics with less income might be more strongly motivated by a given fee than their more highly ranked and better paid colleagues.

Tailoring rewards (whether pecuniary or not) to specific people based on seniority, gender or country of origin could also raise serious ethical issues and increase injustice and discrimination in academia, for example, by female academics being targeted with requests promising reviewer recognition – because their constant struggle against gender bias in academia would mean they would be more likely to accept that, or offering them a lower fee than their male peers on the assumption that that is just "how the system works" – would be highly cynical, and could potentially cause a range of PR issues, reputation loss, or even cancellation of the journal or the editor responsible if such stories were to gain traction across social media.

In consequence, it was decided that in this study we would discuss the effect of personalisation rather than offering rewards on the effectiveness of peer review requests.

Methods

We complied a database from peer review requests sent and delivered from the official email address of the Hungarian journal *KOME – An International Journal of Pure Communication Inquiry* (ISSN 2063-7330), and from the Researchgate.net and Academia.edu accounts of the journal's editor-in-chief between 1 January 2018 and 31 April 2022. A total of 854 requests were identified; 691 via email and 163 via academic social media.

The requests for reviews had not been designed specifically for the current study, instead we worked with pre-existing message threads in email and academic social media. The journal used different templates with different levels of personalisation for both email and academic social media requests, depending on the topic of the paper and the availability of external experts. After a manuscript had passed a preliminary editorial evaluation (ending in a decision on whether the editors would like the paper to be externally reviewed, or desk rejected), the editor-in-chief assigned papers to different editors and editorial board members to handle the external peer evaluation process. As part of their editorial duties, the editor-in-chief personally handled such processes.

Data extraction was done manually. Emails or social media messages were deselected and not included in the analysis if they were sent out but could not be delivered to the intended recipient either because their mailbox was full, or the address was no longer in use, or an institutional server/spam filter blocked the delivery. Individual editor-reviewer interactions (message threads) from the designated time period were first anonymised through number assignment, categorised by variables, and then analysed to gain an overview of recipient behaviour to personalised and non-personalised peer review requests. According to the type of reply (or lack of one) received, message threads provided the following results:

- *No Reply:* When the initial peer review request was sent out and delivered, but the editor received no human reply from the recipient within 30 days. Automatic replies triggered by incoming messages, notifying the sender about academic or parental leave, illness or other reasons for unavailability were not counted as

genuine replies. If a human answer did not follow these messages or a reply was received more than 30 days later, we categorised the thread as ending with No Reply)

- *Refused:* When the initial peer review request was sent out and delivered and the editor received a negative reply within 30 days, we categorised the thread as ending with Refusal.
- *Accepted:* When the recipient replied within 30 days and accepted the offer to review, this was followed by a second message from the editor, sending instructions for the completion of the review, together with the anonymised manuscript and any supplementary materials in file attachments with a deadline of approximately 2 months. If the report was not submitted by 5 days before the deadline, a notification about the approaching deadline was sent out. If the editor received no reply and the report was not submitted by the deadline, they received another reminder about the report being past deadline. If no further communication was received from the expert, or they communicated that they would not be able to complete the review at all or requested a deadline extension that did not meet the current needs of the journal, the thread was still categorised as ending with Acceptance.
- *Completed:* Since for variety of reasons not all reviewers finished their agreed tasks, we had to discern between accepted requests to review and those that were actually completed and the reports submitted to the editors. We categorised threads as Completed where the recipient accepted, finished and submitted a detailed evaluation report of sufficient quality to the editor either by the requested deadline or to an extended one.

For both email and social media requests, the journal used a template text. Email requests, according to the degree of personalisation their text went through before being sent out, were variations of this main template, and were categorised in 4 subgroups, numbered from 0 to 3 for the analytic goals of the present study.

- *Group zero* requests had no personalisation at all; they were sent to clusters of 5 to 16 academics, hand-picked by the editor based on their expertise and knowledge about the topic of the manuscript. They started with a general salutation and no mention of the recipient's name in either the text or in the subject line of the email.
- *Group 1* requests (lvl1 personalisation) were personalised by name, where the salutation in the first line of the main text contained the full name of the recipient. These emails were personally dispatched to the addressed recipient only. Group 1 requests were used only when the editor was unable to find at least two external experts for the given manuscript in ~1 week with group zero requests. 95% of peer review requests sent out through email were either Group zero or Group 1 requests.

- *Group 2 requests* signalled familiarity with the recipient's recent professional activity in addition to the salutation by name,[1] and were only used when Group 1 requests had also failed to acquire external experts.
- *Group 3 requests* were only sent out in cases when a recipient had turned down a Group 0, 1 or 2 email request but had recommended other academics to approach instead of them. In such cases, the text of Group 1 emails was modified by adding the text: "[...] XY (University of Z) recommended you as a potential expert who might be interested", adding a further layer of personalisation to the contact email.

All peer review requests were sent out with GDPR protocols attached and communication was continued only in cases when the recipient explicitly expressed their intention to participate in the peer review process.

Besides the types of requests we sent them, we also took the recipient's gender into account, as well as their academic rank and region. When we received an email reply, we first checked the email signatures for pronouns, affiliation and academic rank. If none were present, we conducted a simple Google search, identified the recipient's ORCID and matched their affiliation history and academic rank with the email date. If any of these were not found, a further search identified the recipient's CV and the data was manually extracted from these documents. In the case of multiple affiliations, we always looked at the main affiliation of the recipient. If multiple academic ranks (for example at different universities or research institutions) were present simultaneously, we registered the highest one only. Gender was first identified from the pronouns used in the email signatures, if not present, then from the biographical statement at their main affiliation. In cases when an institutional biography was not available, or was not written in English, French, German or Spanish, we made the categorisation based on the recipient's name and profile picture.

When we received a reply through academic social media, academic rank, institutional affiliation and gender were mostly accessible from profile data. When not, we extracted the data from ORCID and the institutional biography by following the same protocol as with email requests.

Academic ranks were further categorised into 4 main categories. We treated individuals who were external professionals or independent researchers separately and deselected them from the total. The remaining academics were categorised, based on their positions, into *low-*, *mid-*, and *high-level* groups, and an *entry-level* group was also constructed for those who were in various stages of completing their PhDs. We mainly followed the U.S. system, with non-tenure track positions and assistant professors ranked as low, associate professors ranked mid-level and full professors ranked as high-level academics. In this way we created four groups to work with during the analysis, labelled from 0 (entry-level) to 3 (high-level). During the coding process we accounted for regional differences in the

1 This was done by adding a few lines to the appropriate parts of the text, such as "Since the author used your critical concept of the 'misfit' and relies on narratives you are certainly familiar with, [...]", or "I thought that you might be interested based on two of your publications I've recently read (one was about science communication during COVID and the other about whitelists/blacklists addressing the issue of predatory publishing)."

content of similarly named academic ranks; so, for example a Hungarian senior lecturer was categorised in the low-ranked (1) group, while those from the Commonwealth countries were mid-ranked (2).

The region of the recipient was measured at country-level according to the location of their main affiliation. Country-level data was further grouped into seven regions defined by cultural, geographical and economic boundaries: U.S., $n = 257$ (Region 1), U.K., $n = 74$ (Region 2), Australia, Canada and New Zealand, $n = 57$ (Region 3), Europe top half per capita GDP, $n = 167$ (Region 4), Europe bottom half per capita GDP, $n = 54$ (Region 5), Asia, $n = 59$ (Region 6) and Other, $n = 23$ (Region 7).

Results

The data (see Table 3) shows that only a minority of peer review requests sent out by the journal were answered; most commonly they were not engaged at all. Personalised peer review requests had a higher response rate and higher ratio of submitted reports than non-personalised messages. Requests sent through academic social media had a response rate comparable to personalised email messages but received significantly fewer refusals and resulted in more completed evaluation reports. Academic social media also stands out in the sense that these requests, while receiving fewer direct refusals then emails, had a relatively high ratio of unfulfilled promises: On researchgate.net and academia.edu, only 33 out of 42 academics (79%) who promised to submit an evaluation report did manage to complete the task. Those who were contacted by email managed better: 43 out of 50 those academics (86%) who were contacted through non-personalised emails and 29 out of 33 (88%) those contacted through personalised emails who promised to write a report actually submitted it to the editorial office. However, when asked, 65% of replies to non-personalised emails and 62% to personalised emails contained a clear refusal while the answers received through academic social media were initially more favourable, only 32% (academia.edu) and 37% (researchgate.net) declined the request.

Although the number of cases was low, further personalisation (in the cases of lvl2 and lvl3 emails) of peer review requests resulted in higher response and completion rates.

Table 3:
Responses to email and academic social media requests

	No. of requests	No answer (%)	Refused (%)	Accepted (%)	Completed (%)
email lvl0	444	300 (67.6)	94 (21.2)	7 (1.6)	43 (9.7)
email lvl1	214	127 (59.35)	54 (25.23)	4 (1.87)	29 (13.60)
email lvl2	8	1 (12.5)	5 (62.5)	0 (0)	2 (25)
email lvl3	25	7 (28)	4 (16)	0 (0)	14 (56)
academia.edu	83	47 (56.63)	11 (13.25)	5 (6.02)	18 (21.69)
researchgate.net	80	49 (61.25)	11 (13.75)	4 (5)	15 (18.75)

Source: Compiled by the author.

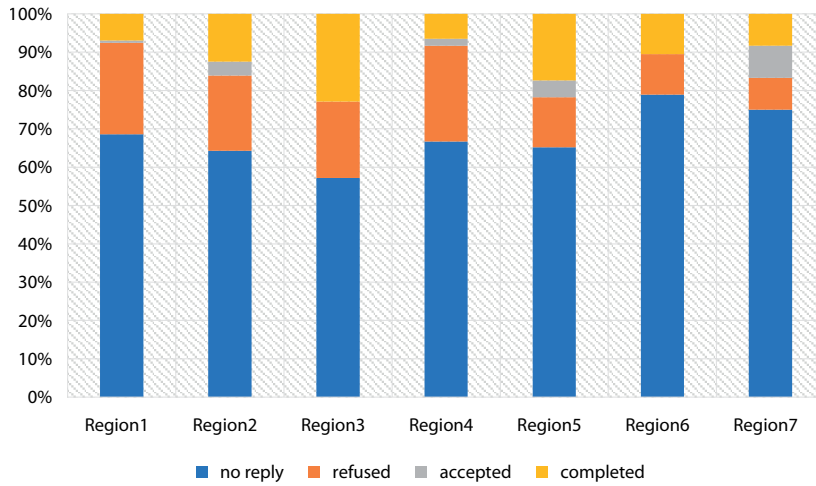

Figure 1:
Engagement with non-personalised (lvl0) email requests
Source: Compiled by the author.

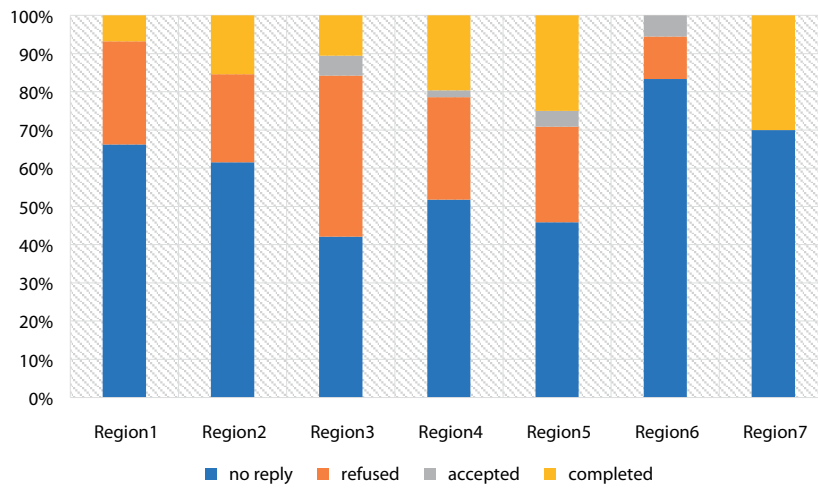

Figure 2:
Engagement with personalised (lvl1) email requests
Source: Compiled by the author.

If we look at regional differences in the data, we can see that a personalised peer review (Figure 2) request was, on average, more successful in acquiring evaluation reports from scholars from Europe and from the developing world, while scholars from the U.S.A. and the U.K. did not seem to respond more positively to personalised requests than to generic ones. In fact, the ratio of responses we got from these two countries are very similar in each category to those we got for non-personalised requests (Figure 1). In the cases of

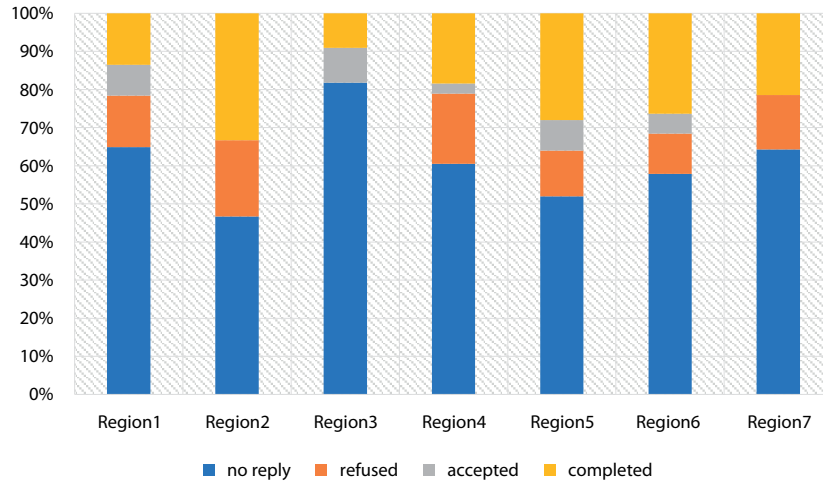

Figure 3:
Engagement with academic social media requests
Source: Compiled by the author.

Asia, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, in percentage terms we experienced that even fewer reports were submitted to personalised requests. Not counting Asia, this negativity strengthened when the request went through academic social media, resulting in even fewer completed reports and more unanswered requests.

Response rates and the types of response received to requests sent through academic social media (Figure 3) are generally higher and more successful than personalised emails when addressed towards U.S., U.K. and Asian academics. It is also evident that, on the other hand, academics in the Anglophone countries of Region 3 react to social media requests less favourably; these resulted in fewer completed reports and more than 80% of requests being left without any reply. A smaller but still noticeable decline can be seen for academics affiliated with institutions in the *Other* category, not only in the ratio of completed reports, but also their being the only cluster investigated where reaching out through academic social media resulted in an increase of straightforward refusals (in all other categories, communication through social media resulted in fewer refusals than in the case of email requests).

Looking at the types of replies received to non-personalised and personalised requests, we see that personalised requests are ignored slightly less often by both male and female academics than non-personalised ones (Figure 4), and result in relatively more completed reports when received by male academics. The ratio for completed reports does not seem to differ for female academics for email personalisation, however 23.9% of them submitted a report if asked via social media compared to just 9% when asked by email. With male academics, the difference was more subtle. Academic social media requests, while outperforming general emails, remained slightly less efficient than personalised emails.

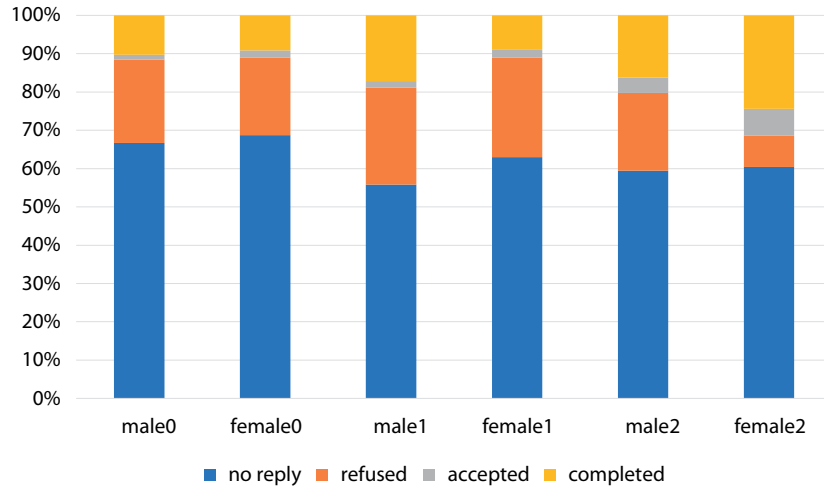

Figure 4:
Reply types per gender for personalised (0) and non-personalised (1) email, and academic social media (2) requests
Source: Compiled by the author.

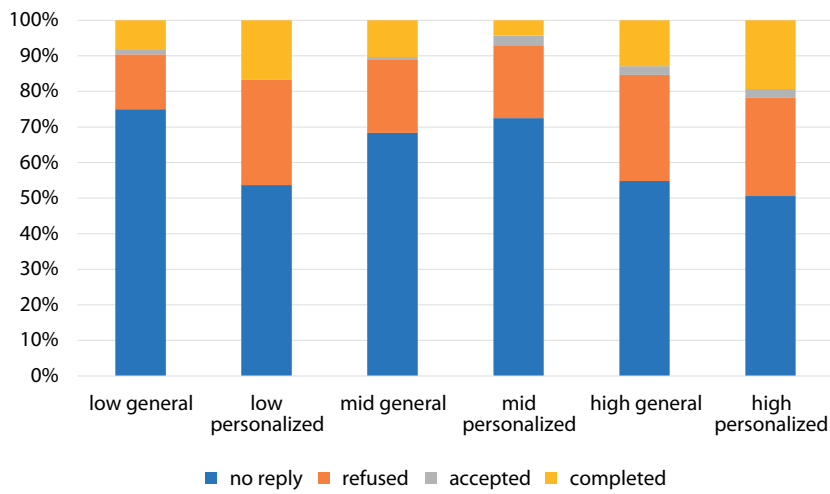

Figure 5:
Engagement with peer review requests by academic rank
Source: Compiled by the author.

When we looked at how academics of different ranks (Figure 5) engaged with peer review requests received by email, we found that among the four groups, it was high-ranking academics who were the most likely to react to our email and, moreover, had the highest ratio of completed evaluation reports as well. However, they also ranked highest on refusal to participate in the peer evaluation process, and accepted review requests had a lower

chance of resulting in a completed report compared to other groups, with the exception of very early career academics without a PhD.

When we compared personalised and non-personalised email requests, we could see personalisation had the best results with the low seniority group; as we experienced a significantly increased ratio in both answered requests and completed reports. The positive effects of personalising requests were more subtle with the high seniority group, while mid-level academics reacted negatively: those who received personalised requests were less likely to complete the evaluation report and more likely to not answer at all.

Conclusion

The data shows that there are at least three areas where research focusing on personalising peer review requests could yield promising results: First, there may be statistically significant differences between the reactions of peers from various regions of the world to such requests, since academics from the Global North might respond less favourably if the academic venue reaching out to them is associated with Global South or semi-peripheral countries. Second, academic rank or the differences between the performance measurement systems academics are subjected to at their workplaces may have an effect on their responses, as there can be a variety (or absence) of incentives to participate in the peer review process of a journal that is not ranked among the traditional elite/prestigious agents of academic science production. Third, gender characteristics can also affect responsiveness and report submission percentages. Further studies in scientometrics are proposed, using and interpreting empirical data from academic publishers to research the above topics, which, in agreement with a recent suggestion for narrative literaturemetrics (Romero, 2024), could include (empirically underpinned) qualitative analysis within a theoretical framework that considers field-theoretic and world-systemic attributes.

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