

Authorship Ethics in the Age of AI: A Bibliometric Analysis

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ABSTRACT

Who should be credited when an AI system contributes to a manuscript or creative work depends partly on the setting. Academic publishing focuses on who verified the evidence and accepted responsibility for the text. Meanwhile, copyright scholarship concerns originality and legally recognised human contribution. We examine how these questions appear in Scopus-indexed research rather than assuming that authorship has one meaning across disciplines. The dataset contains 263 publications from 2005-2025, including articles, reviews, conference papers, books and book chapters. No language filter was applied. We analysed publication and citation metadata and used VOSviewer to examine keyword co-occurrence, average publication years and author co-citation. Research output was concentrated in 2023-2025 (218 records, 82.9%), with 119 publications solely in 2025. India contributed 38 affiliation-linked records, followed by the United States with 36. In the original Scopus subject-area chart, Social Sciences accounted for 40.2% of the displayed distribution, Computer Science for 20.8% and Arts and Humanities for 11.3%. The most common unmerged author keywords were 'artificial intelligence', 'authorship' and 'copyright'. Keyword networks place publishing integrity alongside copyright and creative ownership, while co-citation connections are dominated by legal and philosophical scholarships. These patterns document the expansion of research across related but distinct problems. Nevertheless, they cannot establish whether specific legal arguments are sound or AI policies effective.

1. INTRODUCTION

A completed manuscript gives little indication of how its sentences were produced. With generative artificial intelligence (GenAI), a researcher may determine the argument and evidence while a system contributes to the wording. Yet, readers still need to know who checked the sources and stands behind the claims. Hosseini et al. (2023) link disclosure of AI assistance to that responsibility. Disclosure conveys some information to the readers about the writing process. However, it does not necessarily confirm that the paper has been validated. Creative works pose a related issue in an entirely different set of rules that asks who can claim authorship or legal rights if the machine has contributed to the outcome.

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Copyright scholarship approaches this question from the perspective of originality and human creative control. While Bonadio et al. (2022) discuss work generated using varying levels of machine assistance and Mešević (2023) explores the challenges such work creates for established intellectual-property concepts, Naithani (2025) argues that some results from ChatGPT may be entitled to protection under Indian law. The three views are in many ways at odds with one another. Their disagreement is, in fact, a significant reason why, for this study, it is useful to consider creative authorship alongside academic authorship without conflating the two.

A journal editor has a more pressing issue ahead. A manuscript can contain fabricated citations, unsubstantiated statements or unnoticed AI assistance, whether or not any passage qualifies for copyright protection (Hosseini et al., 2023). Requirements also vary among publishers. Baminiwatta et al. (2025), for instance, found variation in AI-use policies among the psychiatry and mental-health journals they examined. Such findings inform particular editorial settings. They do not show how scholarship on integrity relates to the wider literature on creative rights and technical attribution.

Two reviews help locate the present inquiry. Litvinova et al. (2024) mapped 1,629 Scopus publications on large language models and writing, covering subjects from plagiarism to language learning. Such findings identify particular editorial settings. Raitskaya and Tikhonova (2025) surveyed 56 publications on GenAI in scholarly writing and publishing from 2025. Their aims were different from ours. Neither of them traced back the combined history of AI, ethical responsibility, authorship and intellectual property across different publication types.

We therefore analyse 263 Scopus records published between 2005 and 2025. Our search encompasses journal articles, reviews, conference papers, books and book chapters, with no language restrictions. The number of publications per type is described by publication statistics, and VOSviewer maps highlight recurring terms and co-cited scholars. We aim to understand what the indexed literature really encompasses, and how its strands are interrelated, without attempting to pronounce on the law or rank journal policies. The analysis addresses eight questions:

- RQ1.** How has annual publication output changed across the 2005-2025 search period?
- RQ2.** Who are the most prolific authors, and which publications receive the greatest citation attention?
- RQ3.** Which institutions contribute the largest numbers of publications?
- RQ4.** Which journals and other publication sources contribute most frequently?
- RQ5.** Which countries or territories contribute the largest affiliation-based publication counts?
- RQ6.** Which Scopus subject areas are most prominently represented in the corpus?
- RQ7.** Which author keywords are most common and what thematic and temporal associations are observable?
- RQ8.** Which cited scholars form the main author co-citation groups?

These questions distinguish between evidence of scholarship and quite distinct issues of accountability and legal ownership.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. *Authorship, Intellectual Contribution and Accountability*

Academic authorship entails both intellectual credit and an obligation to account for the finished work. A polished AI-generated paragraph does not show who checked the citations or decided what the evidence

could support. Hosseini et al. (2023) locate disclosure in that wider obligation. Claiming that a tool was employed does not replace the author's own assessment of the allegations.

The distinction finds its ground in Bianchi et al. (2025). Forty-eight participants assessed variants of a medical case report prepared by humans, an AI, or a combination of the two. While certain aspects of the AI-assisted text were positively evaluated, experts raised concerns about the references in the AI-generated version. The case report is, after all, a highly specific context, and the results should not be generalised to all forms of academic writing. However, the suspicion about the reliability of sources is directly applicable to the practice of preparing manuscripts, as fluent prose can conceal claims that have not been subjected to verification.

2.2. Creative authorship, copyright and intellectual property

Copyright scholarship begins with the idea of originality and ownership of the expression. Publication ethics, conversely, focuses on who is answerable for a study's evidence and conclusions. Bonadio et al. (2022) discuss the implications of various levels of AI assistance in legal terms, while Mešević (2023) highlights the issues with the concepts of author and inventor. Both meanings of the word 'authorship' are present in the retrieved sources. At the same time, the two notions have to be kept apart, as the responsibility for the accuracy of the manuscript's contents is not equal to distinguishing between the contributions of different authors to the text.

The legal questions also vary depending on the jurisdiction and the type of human contribution under consideration. Naithani (2025) argues for the copyright protection of particular outputs of ChatGPT under Indian law, while Cetina Presuel (2024) explores the differences between the approaches of the USA and the European Union to the problem. Al-Busaidi et al. (2024), in turn, address the issue of governance of intellectual property rights concerning works produced with AI in a more comprehensive manner. Although all three articles claim that human input should be considered when evaluating copyrights, each one focuses on a separate aspect of this issue, which is why they complement each other and provide a complete understanding of the topic.

2.3. Integrity, Disclosure and Governance across Publishing Contexts

For a publisher, the practical questions relate to what authors must disclose and what they have checked. Editors need assurance that researchers have evaluated their quotations, citations and substantive claims. Hosseini et al. (2023) suggest disclosure and continuing human accountability as alternatives to a general prohibition on AI-assisted drafting. Legal protection for a passage would not be resolved by whether the manuscript meets those editorial requirements.

Journal policies do not arrive at one uniform answer. Baminiwatta et al. (2025) find, in their sample of psychiatry and mental-health journals, an uneven adoption of AI policies. What a disclosure statement must include could therefore vary depending on the journal that receives the work. That concern would fit into a study of AI authorship, though it is different from the questions raised by copyright or technical attribution.

2.4. Existing Mapping Studies and the Remaining Analytical Need

The relevant research could be mapped in several ways. Using bibliometrix and VOSviewer, Litvinova et al. (2024) analysed 1,629 Scopus publications on language models and writing. Their search encompassed language learning, plagiarism, automated assessment, authorship and creative writing. It is a useful overview of writing research, but the intersection of authorship, ethical obligation and intellectual property was not its organising question.

Raitskaya and Tikhonova (2025) used a scoping-review approach to examine 56 publications from 2025. Their close attention to content quality, research integrity and publishing governance provides details that bibliometric counts cannot supply. It does not, however, trace earlier publication activity or the

affiliation and co-citation patterns considered here. Our analysis is intended to complement these reviews by comparing related debates across a longer period.

2.5. Research Gap and Rationale for the Bibliometric Analysis

What remains difficult to see is how these areas sit alongside one another in the indexed literature. Studies of creative ownership and copyright are often considered apart from discussions of academic integrity and editorial governance. We examine their publication outlets, disciplinary distribution, terminology and citation relationships within one dataset. Books and book chapters matter here because legal arguments are not confined to journal articles. The absence of a language filter broadens eligibility, although an English-language query and the Scopus database still determine which records can be found.

The method also sets limits on the conclusions. Many publications about a question do not make one legal argument more persuasive than another. Two keywords occurring together in a paper indicate that the paper treats both, but not necessarily that it takes a position on their compatibility. Co-citation can connect opponents in a network. The maps are thus to be used to identify connections deserving of further investigation, and not as a replacement for reading legal arguments or evaluating editorial practice.

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Design and Observation Window

We analysed bibliographic metadata using descriptive measures and VOSviewer mapping (Donthu et al., 2021; van Eck & Waltman, 2010). Counts of publications, citations and affiliations reflect different aspects of the retrieved material. Keyword and author co-citation maps provide further insight into recurring terms and shared references. The study is therefore bibliometric, with interpretation informed by the cited literature and not an evaluation of AI governance.

The observation window is 2005-2025 inclusive of 21 calendar years. It enables earlier research on automated attribution and computer-assisted creation to be considered alongside the publications which have appeared since 2022. Should the results show no records for a given year, this indicates that no indexed item met this search's criteria. It does not mean that the subject was not the focus of scholarly attention elsewhere.

3.2. Data Source and Search Strategy

Scopus provided the bibliographic data. The TITLE-ABS-KEY query used three sets of terms which cover those related to authorship and attribution, those related to AI and generative systems, and those related to ethics, integrity, copyright and intellectual property. Sets were connected by AND, while alternatives within a set were connected by OR. The rights-related terms were retained to ensure that legal and creative-work questions were not excluded in the first place.

TITLE-ABS-KEY("authorship" OR "authorship attribution" OR "academic authorship" OR "author responsibility" OR "author attribution" OR "authorship criteria") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY("artificial intelligence" OR "generative AI" OR "generative artificial intelligence" OR ChatGPT OR "large language model*" OR "AI-assisted writing" OR "AI-generated text") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY("academic integrity" OR "research ethics" OR "research integrity" OR "publication ethics" OR "ethical considerations" OR "ethical implications" OR "AI ethics" OR plagiarism OR copyright OR "intellectual property")

3.3. Eligibility Criteria, Filtering and Final Dataset Selection

In the search, records published between 2005 and 2025 could be included. The eligible types of publications were articles, reviews, conference papers, books, and book chapters. The language of the search was not limited, despite the dominance of English-language terms in the Scopus search. Such an

approach made it possible to include both books and book chapters in the dataset, thus representing legal and conceptual issues of AI-assisted creation and specific issues of academic authorship.

The first search on Scopus resulted in 1067 records. After applying the two restrictions (year and document type), they decreased to 263, which is a difference of 804. Since the search history does not include separate numbers for the application of each restriction, Figure 1 below represents them together. The records that were exported for further analysis totalled 263, and no other exclusions were made.

Further examination of the abstracts and titles revealed that several records included only tangential information about authorship. The data were not excluded from further consideration since an interdisciplinary approach was used to search for information, and maps were constructed based on this export. This fact was considered when interpreting the results.

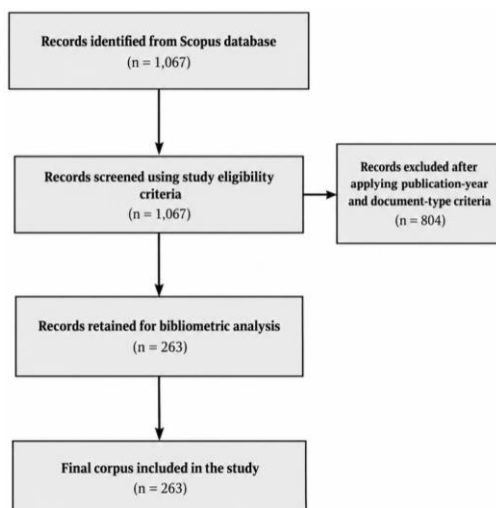


Fig. 1. PRISMA-style flow of record identification and selection of 263-document corpus

Figure 1 below represents the results of the search process that included screening 1,067 records and excluding 804 results. The search history could not identify the reasons for the exclusion of 804 records with a high degree of reliability.

3.4. Data Extraction and Preparation

The resulting 263 records were exported to Excel for descriptive analyses and VOSviewer software analysis. The following variables were considered during the analysis: publication year, document type, author IDs, sources, affiliation, country, number of citations, language, and keywords. The provided maps below represent the same coding with separate nodes for ‘AI’, ‘artificial intelligence (AI)’, and ‘artificial intelligence’. For consistency, these terms were merged as a single term in the VOSviewer thesaurus. However, other terms such as ‘authorship’ and ‘authorship attribution’ seem to represent different concepts and were not merged.

3.5. Descriptive Statistics of the Bibliometric Dataset

The descriptive statistics consist of the year of publication, document type, author(s), affiliation, citations, source, country, subject area, and language. The authors’ productivity was identified based on the Scopus ID. In the current analysis, full counting was used to evaluate co-authored documents, as each author and country accounted for a point for each publication. Thus, the number of records retrieved may not coincide with the number of countries identified.

For the current study, the term ‘publication source’ was included as a category for ‘journals,’ ‘proceedings,’ and ‘books.’ The percentage distribution of subject areas was extracted from the original chart presented by Scopus. The language distribution was identified based on the column ‘Language of Original Document.’

3.6. Keyword Co-occurrence and Temporal Overlay

In VOSviewer, a minimum keyword occurrence of five was used (van Eck & Waltman, 2010). Larger nodes stand for terms occurring more frequently as mapped terms, and links stand for terms occurring in the same publication. The colours in the clusters represent network groups, but this is replaced by an average publication year in the overlay map. The frequencies extracted from the CSV are shown separately, because the map could have used different fields or counting rules. The threshold also excludes terms that appear in fewer than five records.

3.7. Author Co-citation Analysis

The author co-citation analysis tool counts the number of times two named researchers appear in reference lists of the same publication. It is not a measure of collaboration or intellectual cross-fertilisation, but rather of shared citation. In this map, two clusters have formed predominantly around copyright, intellectual property, and information-ethics issues. No distinct cluster includes classroom integrity or journal policies.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results below summarise the 263 records according to publication statistics and the maps available from VOSviewer. The measures are not directly comparable; a citation count, an affiliation total and a keyword link each answer a different question. The search covers legal, educational, technical and creative work, and some publications are only indirectly concerned with scholarly publishing.

4.1 Publication Trends

Few records were found for the early years. Specifically, there were publications in 2005, 2006, and 2008, and a few more in 2011-2014. There was a surge of articles starting in 2019: 3, 12, 5, and 13 records were found for 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022, respectively. The number grew further, reaching 23, 76, and 119 in 2023, 2024, and 2025 (Figure 2). The last three years accounted for 218 (82.9%) of all records.

This rise falls in line with bibliometric analyses of GenAI research. Farhat et al. (2024) report on 533 Scopus publications related to ChatGPT during its first six months of existence. Meanwhile, Koo (2025) discovers 3,231 Web of Science articles on the topic published in January 2023 to June 2024. Both studies include no commentary on the subject of this research, but they nevertheless demonstrate an increase in attention to GenAI research in recent years. The earlier-mentioned studies confirm the presence of research on authorship issues before ChatGPT appeared, but the number of such articles skyrocketed after 2022.

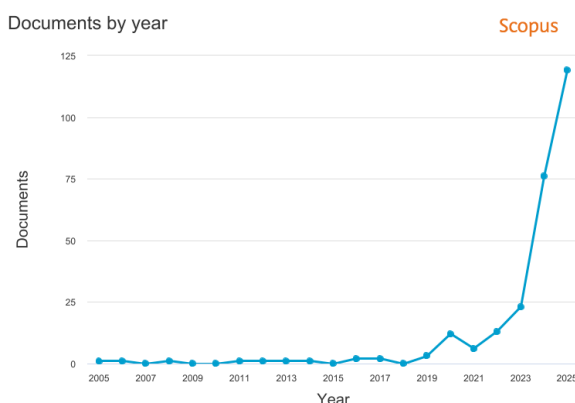


Fig. 2. Number of publications per year in the 263-record corpus, 2005-2025 (original Scopus chart)

By document type, the corpus comprises 177 articles, 32 conference papers, 29 book chapters, 19 reviews and six books. The broader selection permits legal and conceptual contributions to be considered with empirical and technical papers.

4.2 Author Productivity and Citation Impact

There are multiple authors per paper; each of them appears on the list of authors for each of their papers. For instance, there are three papers with Nicola Lucchi, S. M. A. Ali and A. Ghose each, and two papers with J. Crawford, M. Cowling and B. D. Lund, among others (Table 1). When fully accounted for, each co-author receives credit for the shared publications. None of the researchers dominates the corpus.

Table 1. Leading author-productivity counts from the final Scopus export

Author (Scopus display name)	Publications
Lucchi, N.	3
Ali, S. M. A.	3
Ghose, A.	3
Cowling, M.	2
Crawford, J.	2
Lund, B. D.	2
Lim, D.	2
Kuai, J.	2

Citation rankings vary. For instance, Hosseini et al. (2023) had 217 citations, against 211 and 178 for Crawford et al. (2024) and Alier et al. (2024), respectively (Table 2). Hosseini et al. investigate the role of disclosure in manuscripts, while Crawford et al. explore the implications of artificial intelligence substituting human interaction in higher education, both of which have distinct focal points that explain their prominence in the literature.

Table 2. Six most highly cited publications based on citation counts recorded at the time of the Scopus data export.

Lead author(s), year	Shortened title	Scopus citations
Hosseini et al. (2023)	AI-use disclosure	217
Crawford et al. (2024)	AI substituting humans in higher education	211
Alier et al. (2024)	GenAI in education	178
Lucchi (2024)	Copyright challenges for GenAI	143
Yeo (2023)	Integrity and AI authoring apps	143
Nam & Bai (2023)	Ethical implications in STEM research	107

The number of citations depends on many factors, including the field of study, the age of the work, and methods of citation counting (Waltman, 2016). Therefore, it should not be used as an indicator of the quality of the paper. For example, based on Table 1, the authors with the highest number of published works have three articles each in this corpus, while Table 2 lists individual papers cited more than 100 times. Thus, it can imply that the most frequently cited works are not necessarily those published by authors with a high number of publications. Moreover, based on the ranking, the most cited papers do not certainly dominate any particular theory or do better research than the less cited ones.

4.3 Top Contributing Institutions

Figure 3 reports seven publications each for O. P. Jindal Global University and Chitkara University, Himachal Pradesh. Chitkara University, Punjab, follows with six. Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Symbiosis International (Deemed University) and Noida International University each have five. RUDN University, Siksha O Anusandhan, Symbiosis Law School Pune and Dr Vishwanath Karad MIT World Peace University also appear in the chart.

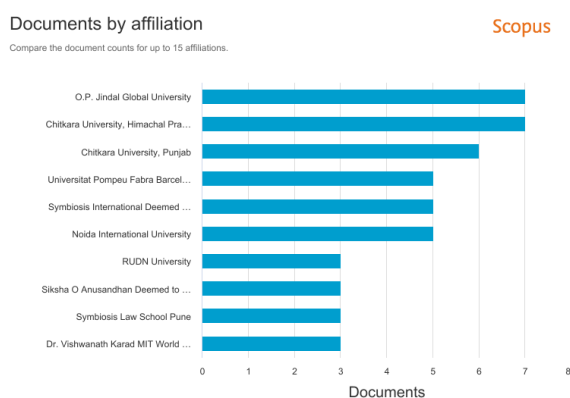


Fig. 3. Leading affiliations represented in the Scopus corpus (original Scopus chart)

The number of Indian universities in the list matches the leading affiliation-based country indicator. There is also a notable contribution from Spain and Russia. The list ranks the universities according to their research and policy excellence in AI, but it may vary due to different affiliations and authors who list more than one university.

The prevalence of Indian organisations among the leading affiliations may be associated with India being the largest country contributor, whose representatives reported completing 38 publications in the dataset. The affiliation distribution can be explained by the fact that Indian institutions play an important role in research regarding AI-related authorship, intellectual property and ethical issues. However, it must be remembered that publication numbers are only relevant in the context of the analysed database, institutional affiliation, and search criteria (Mongeon & Paul-Hus, 2016). Thus, these figures should not be used when comparing the quality of research or the effectiveness of various policies related to AI.

4.4 Leading Publication Sources

The publications have been distributed in specialised and multidisciplinary sources, including edited collections. Indeed, the Journal of Intellectual Property Law and Practice contains eight records, ShodhKosh: Journal of Visual and Performing Arts has seven, and the Journal of Intellectual Property Rights has six. Meanwhile, there are four records each in the Journal of Digital Technologies and Law, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, and IIC – International Review of Intellectual Property and Competition Law. Figure 4 below represents the number of articles for the selected sources on a yearly basis, rather than for the entire period of research.

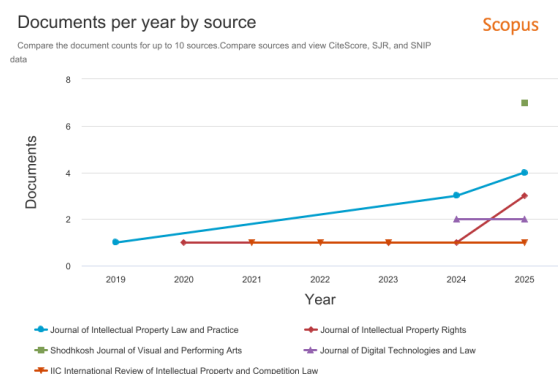


Fig. 4. Annual output in selected publication sources (original Scopus chart)

The prevalence of intellectual property outlets correlates with the abundance of copyright terms in the keyword outputs. The visual-arts and computer-science sources act as a reminder that the retrieved work deals with more than just academic manuscript authorship. For that reason, the category is called ‘publication sources’ instead of simply ‘journals’.

The focus of the records found in intellectual-property outlets matches the copyright questions revolving around AI-assisted creation that were considered by Bonadio et al. (2022) and Lucchi (2024). At the same time, the inclusion of visual arts and computing sources indicates that the found literature also tackles creative practice and technical applications. This area of research intersects with writing-related issues addressed by Litvinova et al. (2024). Copyright, therefore, is clearly a dominant topic in this corpus of research, but the distribution of sources does not allow for considering this field exclusively legal.

4.5 Contributing Countries and Territories

India has the largest affiliation-based total (38), followed by the United States (36), Spain (20), Australia (17), China (15) and the United Kingdom (13). Germany has 10 records; Brazil, Canada and the Russian Federation each have nine (Figure 5). Internationally co-authored work was credited to every country represented, so the totals are not mutually exclusive.

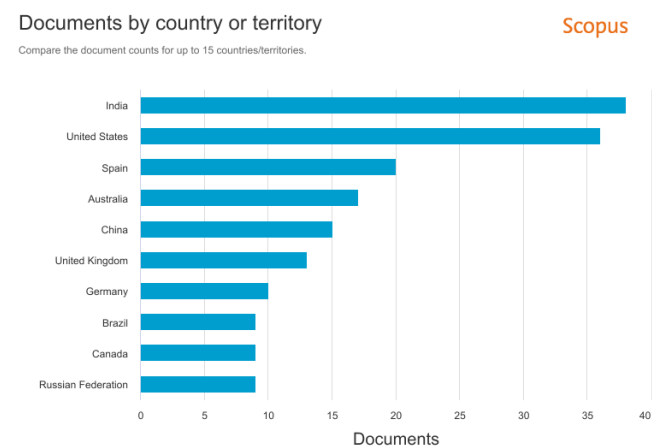


Fig. 5. Ten countries or territories with the highest publication counts, based on the original Scopus chart.

Farhat et al. (2024) also acknowledge the significance of the United States and India to early ChatGPT research, although the former is apparently more influential than the latter. The cited article and our corpus

explore different questions because it provides findings on the initial studies about ChatGPT, while we address AI-related authorship, its ethics, and intellectual property over an extended period. Therefore, the discrepancy between the affiliation rankings should not be interpreted as changes in the national competitiveness in research. Both manuscripts also demonstrate that these countries participate actively in the discussed field(s). However, the presence of specific articles in the chosen databases does not necessarily mean that they are beneficial for evaluating the efficiency of national policies in AI development (Mongeon & Paul-Hus, 2016; Waltman, 2016).

4.6 Subject Areas and Language Distribution

The original Scopus chart assigns 40.2% of its subject-area distribution to Social Sciences, 20.8% to Computer Science and 11.3% to Arts and Humanities. Business, Management and Accounting accounts for 6.1%, Engineering 4.3% and Medicine 3.4% (Figure 6). Farhat et al. (2024) have also identified contributions from medicine, social sciences, computer science, and engineering to their work. This may indicate that AI and authorship are being discussed in both social, technical and humanities-oriented research contexts, but do not necessarily reflect that every discipline tackles authorship in the same way.

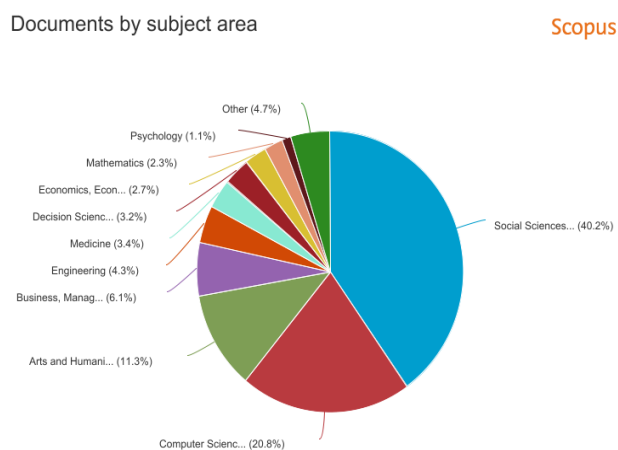


Fig. 6. Distribution of Scopus subject-area categories (original Scopus chart)

4.7 Keyword Co-occurrence and Temporal Overlay

The exported author keywords are dominated by ‘artificial intelligence’ (118), ‘authorship’ (53) and ‘copyright’ (47), followed by ‘intellectual property’ (27) and ‘ChatGPT’ (26) (Table 3). These numbers represent the number of items in which the term appeared, excluding group-related terms. As a result, it should not be compared directly to the numbers in the VOSviewer output, which may have used different criteria in building their nodes and networks.

Table 3. Ten most frequently occurring author keywords in the dataset, based on the number of documents containing each term.

Author keyword (export label)	Records
artificial intelligence	118
authorship	53
copyright	47
intellectual property	27
chatgpt	26
generative ai	16
copyright law	16
ethics	16
academic integrity	15
generative artificial intelligence	14

The term ‘artificial intelligence’ appears in Figure 7 with a connection to ‘authorship’, ‘copyright’, ‘intellectual property’, and academic integrity-related terms. Other related terms regard disclosure, infringement, academic writing and AI-generated creative work. These connections suggest that the subjects co-occur in the retrieved records. However, they do not specify whether a paper addresses authorship as a legal right, an editorial responsibility or any other issue.

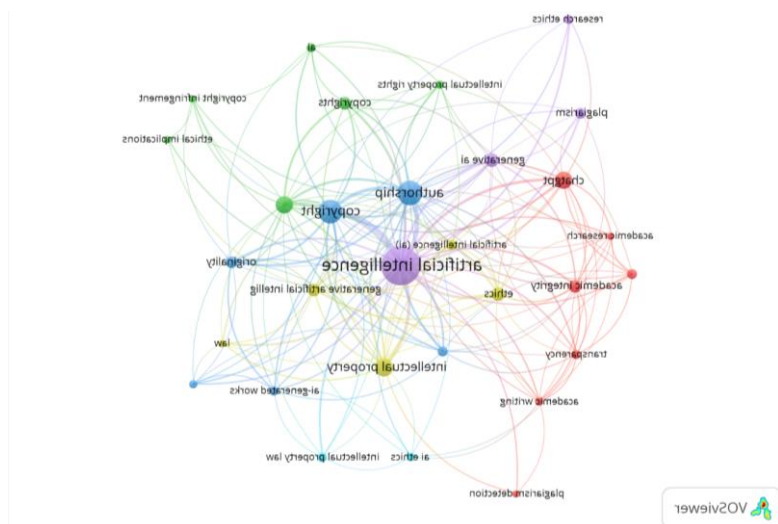


Fig. 7. Keyword co-occurrence network for the retained corpus

In Figure 8, however, the colour of a keyword represents the mean publication year of the records which contain it, and many records’ means fall between 2023 and 2025. ‘Authorship’, ‘copyrights’ and ‘plagiarism detection’ are somewhat earlier, while ‘AI-generated works’, ‘intellectual property law’ and ‘ethical implications’ are towards the latter end. It is therefore a reflection of a different concentration of topics within the retrieved works, and is not an indication of when the concepts in question were first addressed.

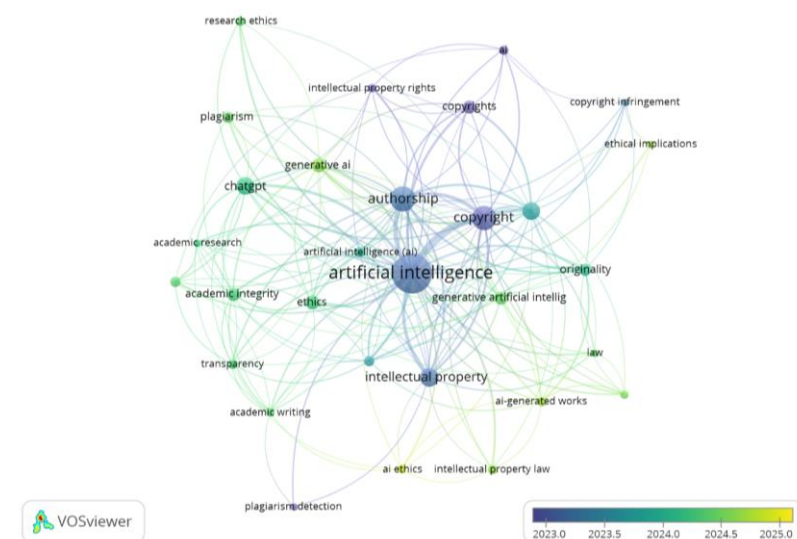


Fig. 8. Keyword temporal overlay map illustrating the average publication year associated with each term in the network.

The two maps draw separate questions into the joint field of view. Bonadio et al. (2022) and Al-Busaidi et al. (2024) examine notions of ownership, originality and human decisions in the context of AI-assisted creations, while Hosseini et al. (2023) tackle the questions of what the researchers are obliged to report and verify when using AI in manuscript preparation. Some keywords overlap, but the responsibility for the scientific statement cannot be viewed the same as ownership of a creative work.

4.8 Author Co-citation Network

Figure 9 actually represents a map of cited scholars, not the authors of the 263 records produced. One cluster contains Samuelson, Guadamuz, Bridy, Grimmelmann and Abbott, whose cited work deals with machine-generated expression and intellectual-property rights. The other cluster contains Ginsburg, Ramalho, Hristov and Floridi, who are associated with originality, human authorship and information ethics. Later authors may well cite both clusters to compare contradictory arguments. Hence, these authors should not be regarded as agreeing with each other in a co-citation network.

White and Griffith (1981) utilised author co-citation to assess the intellectual structure based on patterns of common references. Therefore, co-citation suggests that certain scholars were referred to together, but it does not necessarily mean that their positions were compatible. Thus, in Figure 9, the prevalence of cited scholars associated with copyrights and intellectual property aligns with legal issues discussed by Bonadio et al. (2022) and Lucchi (2024).

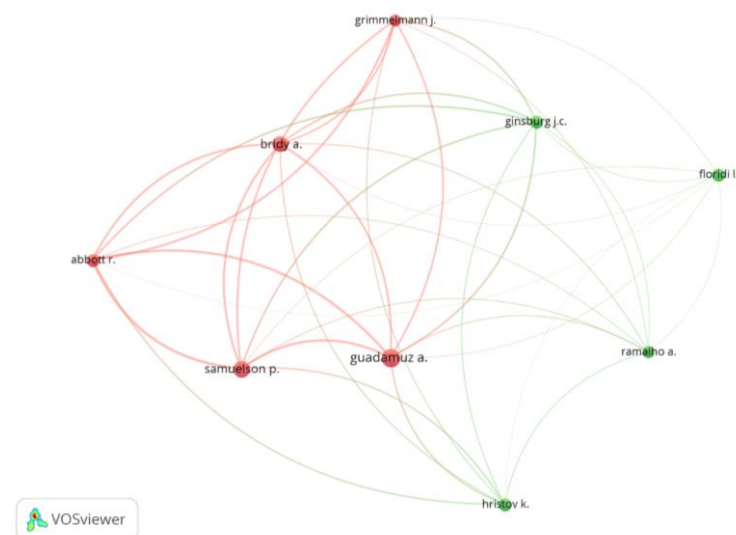


Fig. 9. Author co-citation network illustrating the two main clusters identified in the analysis.

4.9 Integrative Discussion

The findings indicate that the output of publications increased significantly after 2022. The corpus combines a few different questions under the term 'authorship'. Intellectual-property journals and the co-citation map highlight originality and ownership, although highly-cited studies on disclosure and higher education raise questions about manuscript accountability and the impact of AI in the educational setting. The co-existence of these strands in the retrieved literature does not demonstrate that scholars have reached, or rejected, a common definition of authorship.

Bonadio et al. (2022) explore the legal implications of AI-assisted creative expressions, while Hosseini et al. (2023) consider the disclosure and verification responsibilities of the researchers using AI in manuscripts. The legal focus of Figure 9 and the prevalence of disclosure-related work in Table 2 demonstrate how these conversations meet within the same corpus without tackling the same question. The

similar terminology should not be assumed to be shared criteria. Establishing intellectual-property rights is different from assigning responsibility for scholarly claims.

The corpus, therefore, defines a connected but unresolved literature, in which intellectual credit, legal ownership and responsibility for scholarly claims are distinct. The results cannot determine how rights or obligations should be allocated. The comparison of authorship definitions, editorial policies and legal decisions is the next necessary step since bibliometric connections highlight where that inquiry should commence.

5. CONCLUSION

The 263 records identified for 2005-2025 demonstrate the emergence of literature wherein ‘authorship’ connotes varied responsibilities. Academic publishing highlights liability for evidence and claims, while copyright scholarship focuses on originality and rights, and research on creative technologies contemplates human direction. Their convergence is evident, but the criteria are not interchangeable.

Of the records, 218 (82.9%) were published in 2023-2025. India and the United States dominate the affiliation counts. Social Sciences, Computer Science, and Arts and Humanities are the fields that contribute most to the retrieved Scopus records. The source, keyword, and co-citation analysis highlight the close link between copyright discourse and emerging writing, disclosure, and education practices.

While disclosing the use of AI and examining the manuscript’s evidence are significant factors in the discussed issue, neither determines who can own the copyrights to an AI-assisted creation. The following step in the authors’ reasoning would be comparing the journals’ instructions about using AI and the responsibilities of the authors with the jurisdiction-specific legal tests for originality and human creative input. Such a comparison would highlight the points of overlap and the areas where the two perspectives diverge.

The conclusion is limited by the records found in the Scopus database, the use of English keywords, and the possibility of peripheral concepts found in the co-citation and keyword maps. It does not consider the distinctions of policymaking and the practical implications of judicial practices, which prompt the need for additional studies using qualitative, doctrinal, and quantitative methods.

6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS/FUNDING

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7. CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The author declares no financial, commercial or other conflicts of interest related to this study.

8. AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The sole author designed the study, selected and analysed the bibliographic records, interpreted the findings, reviewed the manuscript and approved the submitted version. The drafting and editing assistance described below does not transfer responsibility for the work's accuracy or integrity.

9. DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES

Google Gemini was used to prepare a first draft based on bibliographic resources and data provided by the researcher. ChatGPT was used for initial screening of sources, selected reference checks, and copy editing. Grammarly was used to check language accuracy. The author has reviewed the deliverables and is fully responsible for the research methodology, data, analysis, references, and interpretations presented.

10. DATA AVAILABILITY/SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

11. ETHICS STATEMENT

Not applicable.

12. REFERENCES

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