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Appendix A: Web of Science Search Terms

Table A1. Adjacent Contingent Search Terms

Search term	Hit ratio in top 10	Number of results	Decision
Union*	100%	347	Include
Grassroots	100%	155	Include
Worker*	100%	92	Include
"Social movement*"	100%	44	Include
Immigrant*	100%	26	Include
Protest*	100%	25	Include
"Direct action"	100%	7	Include
"Social action"	100%	4	Include
Transformational	100%	1	Include
Community	90%	1071	Include
Labor	90%	230	Include
Campaign*	90%	87	Include
Feminist	90%	69	Include
Neighborhood	90%	31	Include
Faith-based	90%	15	Include
Political	80%	133	Include
"For change"	80%	40	Include
Radical	80%	14	Include
Relational	70%	16	Include
Democratic	70%	15	Include
Civic	70%	12	Include
Electoral	66%	3	Exclude
Progressive	55%	9	Exclude
Native	50%	2	Exclude
Bottom-up	42%	7	Exclude
"Collective action"	40%	25	Exclude
Online	30%	63	Exclude
Community-based	30%	17	Exclude
Non-electoral	NA	0	Exclude

Resulting Boolean search term used for the Web of Science search:

TS=("Organizing" Near/0 (Community OR Neighborhood OR Labor OR Worker* OR Immigrant* OR Civic OR Democratic OR Radical OR Grassroots OR Union* OR "Social movement*" OR Faith-based OR Campaign* OR Feminist OR "Social action" OR Protest* OR "Direct action" OR Political OR "For change" OR Relational OR Transformational))

Appendix B: Vetting Instructions

<u>I. Coding categories: 0=No, 1=Yes</u>

1. The main decision in the vetting process is whether the term "organizing" is applied in the title, abstract or keywords of a study with the general meaning associated with politics and democracy.
2. Consistent with established methodologies, coding is carried out at the *term* level (Kiritchenko, Zhu, and Mohammad 2014; Weeg et al. 2015). For the current study, this means that the coding is conducted in relation to how the term "organizing" is used in the text relevant for coding (i.e., the title, abstract, or keyword).
3. Coding Step 1: In preparation for coding, coders should read a definition sheet (Appendix H) containing classic examples from the literature of the use of organizing in its intended context.
4. Coding Step 2: For each record in the dataset, coders are asked to answer the following question: "in your judgment, does the use of the term 'organizing' that flagged the record's retrieval refer to a meaning of the term that is within the general context of politics and democracy?" (question adapted from Weeg et al. 2015).
5. Coding Step 3: If the answer is no, code 0; if the answer is yes, code 1.

**Appendix C: Dataset Characterization**

Document Types

The finalized vetted dataset of 2,156 records contained 1,545 journal articles, 284 book reviews, 149 book chapters, 80 proceedings papers, 59 items of editorial material, and 31 records of other document types. The earliest record was from 1967 and the most recent from 2023.

Publications Timeline

By analyzing the timeline of these publications, we found that scholarly interest in organizing has grown significantly over the years (figure C1).

Figure C1. Published Records on Organizing by Year
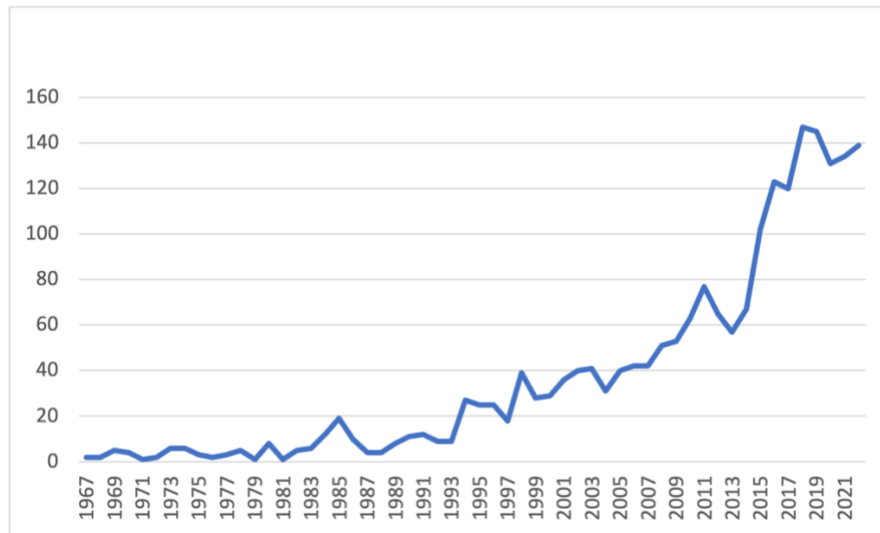
Note: n=2,156. Source: Web of Science, using the Boolean search term documented in Appendix A.

In table C2, we present parallel trend data for publications on organizing, and for all the political science subject category, for the same time period of 1965 to 2022. We do so to assess whether this increase in publications on organizing can be explained by the overall rise in global scientific output or in WoS's coverage. Three distinct time periods can be discerned in the trend data in terms of the scope of scholarly output on organizing: between 1965-1993, an average of six studies on organizing were published each year, whereas between 1994-2014, the annual average increased to 90, and peaked at an average of 149 per year between 2015-2022. The data presented in table C2 show that between 1994-2022, the growth in average annual output on organizing was substantially higher than the equivalent growth in output across all publications in political science during the same period.

Table C2. Comparison of Yearly Average Output on Political Science vs. Organizing

Years	Political science	Organizing	Change political science	Change organizing
1965-1993	10,271	6	—	—
1994-2014	29,837	90	+190%	+1400%
2015-2022	29,426	149	-1%	+66%

Note: The dataset on "political science" includes 791,948 records extracted from the Web of Science between 1965 and 2022. The parallel dataset on "organizing" includes 2,097 records (this number is reduced from our total sample of 2,156, which extends to 2023).

Disciplinary Breakdown

We analyzed the range of disciplines involved in the study of organizing based on WoS subject categories. Table C3 shows the most active disciplines, each with more than 100 records. The distribution demonstrates the diversity of disciplines in the dataset and highlights the prominence of studies in the context of labor organizing. Nevertheless, it is important to note that this disciplinary analysis is limited by the structure of the subject categories data in WoS. First, subject categories are assigned to journals, not to individual records, thus creating some distortion in disciplinary affiliation. Second, subject categories only approximate disciplines, and may generate incomplete information regarding a discipline's prominence. For example, some disciplines, such as political science, are grouped under one subject category, while others, such as psychology, are divided into ten or more subject categories. Grouped together, studies in psychology total 148, accounting for 4.5 percent of the dataset. However, aggregating the data in this way requires researchers to make subjective judgments, since some disciplines are distributed across several subject categories. For example, despite their disciplinary proximity, the journal *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* is categorized under Social Issues, whereas the journal *Nonprofit Management and Leadership* is categorized under Public Administration and Management.

Table C3. Distribution of Most Active Subject Categories

Subject category	Percentage of dataset
Industrial Relations & Labor	10.7
Sociology	9.2
Public Environmental & Occupational Health	5.6
History	5.5
Social Work	5.5
Political Science	5.0
Education & Educational Research	4.0
Interdisciplinary Social Sciences	3.5
Urban Studies	3.3

Note: Table shows the nine most active categories with >100 records out of a total of 115 categories in the dataset.

Appendix D: Detailed Guide for Literature Mapping

This guide for mapping and analyzing research fields was prepared by the authors. It provides additional information and guidance on the three stages involved in literature mapping depicted in figure 1 in the article.

D1. Step-by-Step Flowchart (fig 1), Detailed Description

1. Search Strategy
    1.1. Choosing the database: scholarly databases vary in their coverage and accuracy. A comparison of the five major scholarly databases is available in Visser, van Eck, and Waltman (2021). Ideally, scholars would combine datasets from all five databases. However, merging metadata files from different databases and eliminating duplicates is not a trivial task, although some examples of these mergers exist in the literature (e.g., Patra, Pandey, and Sudarsan 2023). In addition, exported files from different datasets do not all integrate smoothly into mapping and visualization software. Based on the literature, we found the Web of Science to contain the widest coverage with the highest accuracy, as well as the smoothest integration into VOSviewer (van Eck and Waltman 2023). However, Web of Science also suffers from some shortcomings, which it shares with some of the other databases. These shortcomings are described in the "Limitations" sub-section in the continuation of this Appendix.
    1.2. Developing the search term: many literature review studies that use scholarly databases employ a basic search string composed of a few key terms determined by the authors (e.g., Boulianne, Oser, and Hoffmann 2023). However, bibliometric experts have found that such basic search, termed "lexical search," often omits important related terms and therefore may miss relevant literature, especially in relation to emerging fields of research, such as evolving technologies (Huang et al. 2015). For studies on terms that have a well-defined meaning, the ideal search strategy is outlined in Huang et al.'s (2015) paper, and includes a core lexical search, expanded lexical search, a specialized journal search, and a cited reference analysis. However, for versatile terms like "organizing," with a variety of applications with different semantic meanings, it is impossible to apply these techniques since a core dataset does not exist. Hence, the "targeted lexical search" developed in the current study is well-suited to obtain optimal results.
    1.3. Retrieve dataset: the technique to retrieve the dataset files depends on the chosen database and mapping software. When using Web of Science for VOSviewer, users should download files using the "Tab Delimited File" format, and select "Full Record and Cited References." In addition, WoS permits downloading only 500 records at a time. Additional records can be downloaded in batches by entering 1-500, 501-1000 etc.
    1.4. Screen dataset: the search strategy presented in Huang et al. (2015) is designed to avoid manual vetting by balancing coverage and accuracy and accepting some level of noise, or false positive results, in the process. Since we significantly adapted the strategy to fit our needs, we applied a manual vetting by two independent coders to the entire dataset, to test its robustness. Our results indicate that the "targeted lexical search" approach can be used without manual vetting, as its noise ratio was lower than the one accepted by Huang et al. (2015).
2. Maps Creation

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2.1. Choose visualization tool: we have reviewed some alternatives to VOSviewer and presented its advantages in the "Comparison to Prevalent Techniques" section in the main text. As political scientists, we found that the flexibility of map settings, clustering parameter, and viewing options afforded by VOSviewer were particularly useful in generating clear maps and gaining scholarly insights.

2.2. Choose types of maps: VOSviewer supports five principal types of maps with variations for each type depending on the unit of analysis. For more information on the types of maps and variations enabled by the software, as well as examples of maps, see McAllister, Lennertz, and Atencio Mojica (2022). Choosing the maps and the units of analysis depends entirely on the research objectives. However, reviewing studies that have used VOSviewer, we found that citation maps (i.e., direct citations between records) are less common since they often contain many records with no ties to the network. To answer the research questions posed in our case study of "organizing," we used co-occurrence and co-citation maps.

2.3. Prepare supplementary files: the use of thesaurus files is recommended to clean the data, avoid different spellings and formatting of duplicate values, and create a uniform format for nodes on the map. Thesaurus files are especially relevant for co-citation maps, where bibliographic data from source files may be disorganized. But they are useful on many other maps. The thesaurus tables that we used are available in Appendix E. The list of Resources, Webinars and Manuals at the end of this appendix (Section D4) provides additional resources for creating thesaurus files.

2.4. Choose map preferences and create maps: A basic walkthrough for using the software is included in this appendix (Section D3). When creating maps on VOSviewer, the software prompts the user to select several setting preferences. In addition, some important settings can be adjusted after the map is created. In our experience, these are the important preferences that users should pay attention to:

2.4.1. Counting Method: users can choose between full counting (the default option) and fractional counting. For a discussion of the differences between the methods, see van Eck and Waltman (2023, p. 34). Generally, fractional counting is useful mainly for maps analyzing co-authorship networks. In this analysis, fractional counting reduces the influence of documents with many authors, by taking into account not only the number of co-authored papers of two authors, but also how many co-authors each of the papers had. In other maps, such as co-occurrence and co-citation, the default setting of full counting should be used.

2.4.2. Threshold: the threshold determines the minimum number of occurrences of an item in order to be included in the map. This feature helps reduce the number of nodes on a map to a visually comprehensible number. Existing studies tend to use a threshold between 5-20, with 15 being a popular option. Nevertheless, scholars are encouraged to use the option most appropriate for their research needs.

2.4.3. Resolution Parameter: This parameter determines the level of detail of the clustering. The higher the value of the parameter, the larger the number of clusters. When this parameter is set to the default setting of 1.0, then the clustering equation reduces to the popular and well-known modularity function introduced by Newman and Girvan (2004). However, users can adjust the resolution parameter to obtain the level of cluster resolution most useful for their research needs. Several studies have shown how adjusting the resolution parameter can yield useful scholarly insights

(Fils and van Eck 2018; Waltman, van Eck, and Noyons 2010). VOS's manual also recommends that scholars try out different values for the resolution parameter (van Eck and Waltman 2023, p. 23). This parameter is adjusted after a map is created, in the "Analysis" tab on the left side of the interface, in the "Clustering" rubric, under "Resolution."

2.5. Maps Analysis

    2.5.1. Label Clusters: the most common way to label clusters is manually, based on expert knowledge, by observing the list of items associated with each cluster (e.g., McAllister, Lennertz, and Mojica 2022; Ralph and Arora 2024). Nevertheless, in cases where word groupings' thematic analysis is not straightforward, scholars can use additional technical methods such as LDAvis (Sievert and Shirley 2014) to separate out common terms that have strong ties to many clusters and may obscure thematic distinctions (e.g., Ambrosino et al. 2018).

    2.5.2. Leverage Mapping Tools to Obtain Relevant Insights: This level of analysis requires the most creative intellectual work and offers numerous possibilities for scholars. To give the interested reader some ideas beyond the scope of the present study of how mapping tools can be leveraged to obtain relevant insights, we refer to some recent examples in the literature:

        2.5.2.1. Temporal analysis of a field's evolution using co-occurrence maps (Fils and van Eck 2018)

        2.5.2.2. Identifying gaps in the literature using co-occurrence maps (Park et al. 2020)

        2.5.2.3. Extracting research hypotheses by themes using co-occurrence maps (Ralph and Arora 2024)

D2. Limitations of the Approach Presented in the Paper

1. Database
   1.1. Coverage

       WoS's coverage of books is limited. Hence, for a study in fields that rely heavily on books, this database may not be suitable.

   1.2. Search Options

       The "Topic" search field on WoS, which is the relevant field for content-related searches, performs the search only in the title, abstract, author keywords, and "keywords plus" (i.e., the list of key terms automatically generated by WoS's algorithm for each record). If a study does not contain one of the search terms in any of these fields, it would not be retrieved. This search limitation is shared across major databases.

2. Search Strategy
   2.1. Recall

       The "targeted lexical search" approach necessitates enhancing the search's precision, which may result in reducing recall. This method may therefore miss relevant results (false negatives). However, due to the versatile nature of terms like "organizing," which is shared by many other terms in political science, the adaptations meant to enhance the search's precision are necessary.

   2.2. Vetting

The main limitation currently of eliminating false positives is the time-intensive task of vetting, especially for large datasets. AI tools may help to expedite this task in the future (Wagner, Lukyanenko, and Paré 2022). Nevertheless, the comprehensive search strategy outlined in Huang et al. (2015), which suits terms with a well-defined meaning, does not require manual vetting. Moreover, our results suggest that our method, too, does not require manual vetting as the hit ratio was very high.

3. Maps Analysis

   3.1. Citation bias

   Maps of research fields have various limitations that stem from their basic features, and which may be relevant or not depending on a study's objectives and disciplines. For example, in medicine, citation mapping may underestimate the impact of clinical studies in comparison to basic research (van Eck et al. 2013).

   3.2. Direct citations

   In our research on "organizing," we found that direct citation maps (maps showing citation relationships between records) were unhelpful because of the magnitude of the corpus and the fact that many records were not cited by any other record in the map. However, some political scientists have found these maps to be valuable (e.g., Booth-Tobin et al. 2021).

   3.3. Co-occurrence maps

   Another limitation that stems from this is that the mapping of themes in the co-occurrence maps, based on keywords, does not allow for an easy identification of records that are associated with each theme. Identifying such records requires additional work involving search of different keyword combinations in the dataset.

D3. Basic walkthrough for using VOSviewer

1. Install VOSviewer on your computer https://www.vosviewer.com/download
2. Launch VOSviewer.
3. Click Create…
4. Select "Create a Map" based on bibliographical data.
5. Select Read Data from bibliographical database files.
6. Upload files downloaded from WoS or other source (several files can be uploaded simultaneously).
7. In the following stages of selecting map settings, document your selections in a separate file. This is important since VOSviewer does not let you view the choices you have made after the map is produced.
8. Select the type of analysis and units you want to analyze and the counting method, and upload a thesaurus file if needed.
9. Set threshold.
10. Choose the number of units on the map. VOSviewer prompts you to choose whether you want to see all units or only those that are connected to each other. You can try both options to select the one that is most useful for you.
11. Select finish. VOSviewer will show you a list of all items and their frequencies. For further analysis of the data, we recommend downloading this list by right-clicking on one of its items and selecting the desirable download option.
12. After the map is created, you can:

12.1.   Save print screens in different image formats.

12.2.   Save the map files for future upload. There are two file types - a map file and a network file. Make sure you save each of these files with a different name; otherwise, one will be lost.

D4. Resources, Webinars and Manuals

1. Using VOSVIEWER: A Tool for Literature Review Analysis and Bibliometrics. 2020. Queensland, Australia: Centre for Behavioural Economics, Society and Technology, Queensland University of Technology. Retrieved May 21, 2023. (https://research.qut.edu.au/best/events/using-vosviewer-a-tool-for-literature-review-analysis-and-bibliometrics/).

2. Van Eck, Nees Jan, and Ludo Waltman. 2023. *Manual for VOSviewer Version 1.6.20*. Leiden: Univeristeit Leiden. https://www.vosviewer.com/documentation/Manual_VOSviewer_1.6.20.pdf.

3. McAllister, James T., Lora Lennertz, and Zayuris A. Mojica. 2022. "Mapping a Discipline: A Guide to Using VOSviewer for Bibliometric and Visual Analysis." *Science & Technology Libraries* 41(3): 319-348.

4. Creating a Thesaurus File in VOSviewer (a co-citation example). 2021. Mineiro de Dados. Retrieved May 21, 2023 (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kUxk81TEgPg).

Appendix E: Thesaurus Files

Thesaurus files are used to eliminate duplicate records and to create uniform formatting for records with distinct formats. Resources for creating Thesaurus files:

1. Van Eck, Nees Jan, and Ludo Waltman. 2018. *Manual for VOSviewer Version 1.6.8.* Leiden: Univeristeit Leiden.
2. McAllister, James T., Lora Lennertz, and Zayuris A. Mojica. 2022. "Mapping a Discipline: A Guide to Using VOSviewer for Bibliometric and Visual Analysis." *Science & Technology Libraries* 41(3): 319-348.
3. Creating a Thesaurus File in VOSviewer (a co-citation example). 2021. Mineiro de Dados. Retrieved May 21, 2023 (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kUxk81TEgPg).

Table E1. Thesaurus File, Co-Occurrence Map

Label	Replace by
Cities	City
Social-movements	Social movements
Trade-unions	Trade unions
Organizations	Organization

Table E2. Thesaurus File, Co-Citation Map

Label	Replace by
[anonymous], communication	
[no title captured]	
alinsky s., 1971, rules radicals pract	Alinsky 1971
alinsky s., 1971, rules radicals pragm	Alinsky 1971
alinsky saul., 1971, rules radicals pragm	Alinsky 1971
alinsky, 1946, reveille radicals	Alinsky 1946
arnstein sr, 1969, j am i planners, v35, p216, doi 10.1080/01944366908977225	Arnstein 1969
benford rd, 2000, annu rev sociol, v26, p611, doi 10.1146/annurev.soc.26.1.611	Benford & Snow 2000
bennett wl, 2012, inform commun soc, v15, p739, doi 10.1080/1369118x.2012.670661	Bennett & Segerberg 2012
brady, 1995, voice equality civic, v4	Verba et al. 1995
bronfenbrenner k, 1997, ind labor relat rev, v50, p195, doi 10.2307/2525082	Bronfenbrenner 1997
bronfenbrenner k, 2004, rebuilding labor: organizing and organizers in the new union movement, p17	Bronfenbrenner & Hickey 2004

bronfenbrenner kate, 1998, org win new res unio	Bronfenbrenner et al. 1998
bronfenbrenner kate, 1998, org win new res unio, p19	Bronfenbrenner & Juravich 1998
brown w, 2015, near futures, p1	Brown 2015
castells m., 1983, city grassroots	Castells 1983
castells manuel, 2012, networks outrage hop	Castells 2012
christens bd, 2010, j community psychol, v38, p886, doi 10.1002/jcop.20403	Christens 2010
christens bd, 2015, soc iss policy rev, v9, p193, doi 10.1111/sipr.12014	Christens & Speer 2015
clawson dan., 2003, next upsurge labor n	Clawson 2003
cloward richard a., 1977, poor peoples movemen	Piven & Cloward 1977
coleman js, 1988, am j sociol, v94, ps95, doi 10.1086/228943	Coleman 1988
collins p.h., 2002, black feminist thoug	Collins 2002
crenshaw k., 1991, stanford law rev, v43, p1241, doi [10.2307/1229039, doi 10.2307/1229039]	Crenshaw 1991
defilippis j., 2010, contesting community	Defilippis et al. 2010
eaton ae, 2001, ind labor relat rev, v55, p42, doi 10.2307/2696185	Eaton & Kriesky 2001
fantasia r., 2004, hard work remaking a	Fantasia & Voss 2004
fine j, 2005, polit soc, v33, p153, doi 10.1177/0032329204272553	Fine 2005
fine j, 2007, brit j ind relat, v45, p335, doi 10.1111/j.1467-8543.2007.00617.x	Fine 2007
fine janice, 2006, worker ctr org commu	Fine 2006
fisher r., 1994, let people decide ne	Fisher 1994
freeman r., 1984, what do unions do	Freeman & Medoff 1984
freeman rb, 1990, ind labor relat rev, v43, p351, doi 10.2307/2524126	Freeman & Kleiner 1990
freire p., 1970, pedagogy oppressed	Freire 1970
freire p., 1973, ed critical consciou, v1	Freire 1973
freire paulo., 1970, pedagogy oppressed	Freire 1970
ganz m, 2000, am j sociol, v105, p1003, doi 10.1086/210398	Ganz 2000
ganz m., 2009, why david sometimes	Ganz 2009
gittell r., 1998, community org buildi	Gittell & Vidal 1998
glaser b., 1978, theoretical sensitiv	Glaser 1978
granovetter ms, 1973, am j sociol, v78, p1360, doi 10.1086/225469	Granovetter 1973
han h., 2014, org dev activists ci	Han 2014
hart stephen, 2001, cultural dilemmas pr	Hart 2001
harvey david., 2005, brief hist neolibera	Harvey 2005
keck, 1998, activists borders ad	Keck & Sikkink 1998

kelly j., 1998, rethinking ind relat	Kelly 1998
lopez, 2004, reorganizing rust be	Lopez 2004
lukes s., 2005, power radical view, v2nd ed., doi 10.1007/978-0-230-80257-5_2	Lukes 1974
maton ki, 2008, am j commun psychol, v41, p4, doi 10.1007/s10464-007-9148-6	Maton 2008
mcadam d., 1982, political process de	Mcadam 1982
mcadam d., 2001, soc movement stud	Mcadam et al. 2001
mcalevey j., 2016, no shortcuts org pow	Mcalevey 2016
mccallum jamie k., 2013, global unions local	Mccallum 2013
mccarthy jd, 1977, am j sociol, v82, p1212, doi 10.1086/226464	Mccarthy & Zald 1977
mediratta k., 2009, community org strong	Mediratta et al. 2009
miles mb, 2019, qualitative data ana, v4	Miles et al. 2020
milkman r, 2004, rebuilding labor: organizing and organizers in the new union movement, p1	Milkman & Voss 2004
milkman r., 2006, la story immigrant w	Milkman 2006
minkler m., 2012, community org commun, v3rd	Minkler 2012
mondros j., 1994, org power empowermen	Mondros & Wilson 1994
morris aldon, 1984, origins civil rights	Morris 1986
oakes j., 2006, learning power org e	Oakes & Rogers 2006
piven frances fox, 1979, poor peoples movemen	Piven & Cloward 1977
polletta f, 2001, annu rev sociol, v27, p283, doi 10.1146/annurev.soc.27.1.283	Polletta & Jasper 2001
polletta f, 2002, freedom is endless m	Polletta 2002
putnam r. d., 1994, making democracy wor, doi 10.1515/9781400820740	Putnam et al. 1993
putnam r. d., 2000, bowling alone collap	Putnam 2000
putnam rd, 1995, j democracy, v0006	Putnam 1995
rappaport j, 1987, am j commun psychol, v15, p121, doi 10.1007/bf00919275	Rappaport 1987
seidman e., 2000, hdb community psycho, doi 10.1007/978-1-4615-4193-6_2	Rappaport & Seidman 2000
sen r, 2003, stir it lessons comm	Sen 2003
shirley d, 1997, community org urban	Shirley 1997
silver, 2003, forces labor workers	Silver 2003
skocpol, 2003, diminished democracy	Skocpol 2003
smock k., 2004, democracy action com	Smock 2004
snow da, 1986, am sociol rev, v51, p464, doi 10.2307/2095581	Snow et al. 1986
speer pw, 1995, am j commun psychol, v23, p729, doi 10.1007/bf02506989	Speer & Hughey 1995

stall s, 1998, gender soc, v12, p729, doi 10.1177/089124398012006008	Stall & Stoecker 1998
stoecker r, 1997, j urban aff, v19, p1, doi 10.1111/j.1467-9906.1997.tb00392.x	Stoecker 1997
swarts hj., 2008, org urban am secular	Swarts 2008
tarrow sidney, 1994, power movement socia	Tarrow 1994
tilly charles, 1978, mobilization revolut	Tilly 1978
voss k, 2000, am j sociol, v106, p303, doi 10.1086/316963	Voss & Sherman 2000
waldinger r, 1998, org win new res unio, p102	Waldinger et al. 1998
warren mark r., 2011, match dry grass comm	Warren & Mapp 2011
warren markr., 2001, dry bones rattling c	Warren 2001
warren mr, 2005, harvard educ rev, v75, p133, doi 10.17763/haer.75.2.m718151032167438	Warren 2005
watts rj, 2003, am j commun psychol, v31, p185, doi 10.1023/a:1023091024140	Watts et al. 2003
watts rj, 2011, new dir child adoles, v134, p43, doi 10.1002/cd.310	Watts et al. 2011
weiler p, 1983, harvard law rev, v96, p1769, doi 10.2307/1340809	Weiler 1982
wood r. l., 2002, faith action relig r	Wood 2002
wood r. l., 2015, shared future faith	Wood & Fulton 2015
wood richard, 2001, faith based communit	Warren & Wood 2001
yin r.k., 2011, qualitative res star	Yin 2011
zimmerman ma, 1995, am j commun psychol, v23, p581, doi 10.1007/bf02506983	Zimmerman 1995

Note: Records written by three authors or more were replaced by the "first author et al." abbreviation to improve map visualization output.

Appendix F: Frequent Keywords

Table F1. List of Keywords with At Least 15 Occurrences

Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
community organizing	291	560
politics	124	331
social movements	94	283
community	81	233
participation	75	230
labor	74	175
power	74	233
activism	67	222
organization	65	192
race	65	187
gender	64	164
health	64	179
empowerment	59	194
women	53	156
union organizing	49	86
trade unions	46	103
united-states	46	132
policy	43	122
mobilization	42	171
identity	40	108
movement	40	120
workers	39	96
democracy	38	104
work	37	89
city	36	96
collective action	36	140
education	36	82
impact	34	91
prevention	34	70
model	31	92
organizing	31	78
unions	30	44
civic engagement	29	110
justice	29	74
neoliberalism	29	71

social justice	28	82
youth	28	65
social media	27	72
law	26	65
culture	25	78
grassroots organizing	25	28
leadership	25	95
strategies	24	64
unionization	24	60
feminism	23	57
intersectionality	23	90
labor unions	23	68
media	23	64
networks	23	62
state	23	78
determinants	22	46
advocacy	21	74
decline	21	37
globalization	21	56
religion	21	63
rights	21	69
environmental justice	20	54
intervention	20	51
management	20	38
care	19	29
racism	18	48
social-work	18	53
community development	17	46
disparities	17	53
engagement	17	38
immigration	17	49
inequality	17	49
migration	17	47
poverty	17	49
social change	17	42
agency	16	37
children	16	38
citizenship	16	39
coalitions	16	42
discrimination	16	46

employment	16	32
governance	16	44
program	16	30
protest	16	56
social capital	16	50
space	16	38
diversity	15	56
lessons	15	39
migrant workers	15	52
participatory research	15	46

Note: The total link strength represents the overall number of co-occurrences of a keyword with other keywords in the dataset's records.

Appendix G: References by Thematic Cluster

Table G1 was created by extracting all references included in the co-citation map (figure 4) and ordering them by clusters. We manually assigned the title of each cluster as part of our thematic analysis. Complete reference information is available in the "References for Appendices" section.

Table G1. Highly Cited References by Thematic Cluster

Cited reference	Citations	Total link strength	Cluster	Sub-cluster
alinsky 1971	89	387	community organizing	
freire 1970	70	115	community organizing	
fisher 1994	33	132	community organizing	
crenshaw 1991	28	31	community organizing	
swarts 2008	28	185	community organizing	
stall and stoecker 1998	25	96	community organizing	
arnstein 1969	23	55	community organizing	
sen 2003	22	120	community organizing	
smock 2004	22	107	community organizing	
defilippis et al. 2010	21	98	community organizing	
freire 1973	18	44	community organizing	
polletta 2002	18	85	community organizing	
collins 2002	16	24	community organizing	
lukes 1974	15	77	community organizing	
minkler 2012	15	40	community organizing	
speer & hughey 1995	33	204	community organizing	community psychology
christens & speer 2015	23	103	community organizing	community psychology
christens 2010	22	138	community organizing	community psychology

maton 2008	19	110	community organizing	community psychology
zimmerman 1995	19	120	community organizing	community psychology
mondros & wilson 1994	17	89	community organizing	community psychology
rappaport 1987	16	62	community organizing	community psychology
rappaport & seidman 2000	15	75	community organizing	community psychology
watts et al. 2003	15	57	community organizing	community psychology
watts et al. 2011	15	54	community organizing	community psychology
voss & sherman 2000	44	168	labor	
kelly 1998	43	85	labor	
fine 2006	39	95	labor	
silver 2003	29	59	labor	
bronfenbrenner 1997	28	95	labor	
clawson 2003	28	124	labor	
milkman 2006	28	106	labor	
weiler 1982	26	28	labor	
mcalevey 2016	27	98	labor	
freeman & kleiner 1990	24	66	labor	
freeman & medoff 1984	24	37	labor	
bronfenbrenner & hickey 2004	23	93	labor	
bronfenbrenner & juravich 1998	23	58	labor	
ganz 2000	23	154	labor	
milkman & voss 2004	20	59	labor	
bronfenbrenner et al. 1998	19	72	labor	
lopez 2004	19	92	labor	
fantasia & voss 2004	17	70	labor	
fine 2005	17	58	labor	
mccallum 2013	17	12	labor	
fine 2007	16	42	labor	

waldinger et al. 1998	16	94	labor	
eaton & kriesky 2001	15	58	labor	
warren 2001	71	394	civic associations	
putnam 2000	39	150	civic associations	
stoecker 1997	20	61	civic associations	
glaser 1978	18	56	civic associations	
miles et al. 2020	18	50	civic associations	
putnam 1995	18	77	civic associations	
alinsky 1946	17	53	civic associations	
coleman 1988	16	75	civic associations	
granovetter 1973	16	70	civic associations	
putnam et al. 1993	16	61	civic associations	
yin 2011	16	77	civic associations	
gittell & vidal 1998	15	46	civic associations	
warren & mapp 2011	37	115	civic associations	education
shirley 1997	29	140	civic associations	education
mediratta et al. 2009	22	98	civic associations	education
oakes & rogers 2006	20	67	civic associations	education
warren 2005	18	73	civic associations	education
piven & cloward 1977	45	192	social movements	
mccarthy & zald 1977	39	145	social movements	
benford & snow 2000	30	123	social movements	
harvey 2005	27	56	social movements	
mcadam et al. 2001	27	98	social movements	
tarrow 1994	27	126	social movements	
tilly 1978	25	75	social movements	
mcadam 1982	24	105	social movements	
snow et al. 1986	24	110	social movements	
polletta & jasper 2001	22	91	social movements	
keck & sikkink 1998	19	33	social movements	
castells 1983	17	36	social movements	

han 2014	17	116	social movements
bennett & segerberg 2012	16	29	social movements
brown 2015	16	67	social movements
castells 2012	15	35	social movements
wood 2002	41	243	American democracy
morris 1986	36	200	American democracy
skocpol 2003	25	171	American democracy
verba et al. 1995	23	123	American democracy
wood & fulton 2015	22	95	American democracy
hart 2001	16	95	American democracy
warren & wood 2001	16	96	American democracy
ganz 2009	15	78	American democracy

Note: The total link strength represents the overall number of co-occurrences of a reference with other references in the dataset's records. Records written by three authors or more were replaced by the "first author et al." abbreviation to improve map visualization output.

Appendix H: Organizing Definitions

We prepared Table H1 to inform the coders performing the vetting process about the context of organizing on which the current paper is focused. We selected the quotes in table H1 with the assistance of Hahrie Han and Matthew Baggetta. Complete reference information is available in the "References for Appendices" section.

Table H1. Organizing Definitions

Source	Definition
Christens 2010, 887	The missions of most organizing groups explicitly involve instrumental goals such as local and societal change. However, community-organizing processes also facilitate changes in individual participants and their relationships. Indeed, evidence points to higher levels of psychological empowerment (Speer & Hughey, 1996), self-efficacy and collective efficacy (Ohmer, 2007), and sense of community (Peterson & Reid, 2003) among participants in community organizing. Although such transformations are important for building the capacity of organizing groups to make systems change, practitioners often consider them as ends in themselves. Perhaps paradoxically, practitioners of community organizing insist that efforts to achieve systems change must treat the interpersonal relationships between participants as ends and not means. Understanding this model for relationship building brings community organizing into focus as a multilevel—or transactional—intervention (Altman & Rogoff, 1987; Schensul & Trickett, 2009).
Christens and Speer 2015, 193	Community organizing is an umbrella term for a field of practice in which residents collaboratively investigate and take collective action regarding social issues of mutual concern. Most often, the intent of organizing is to change policies regarding local issues, which have included, for instance: improvements in public safety (Speer et al., 2003), housing (Speer & Christens, 2012), employment conditions (Osterman, 2006), transportation (Speer, Tesdahl, & Ayers, 2014), public education (Mediratta, Shah, & McAllister, 2009), and public health and environmental issues (Brown et al., 2003). Although the term is often used in the context of shorter-term initiatives (e.g., electoral campaigns) and issue-based advocacy efforts (e.g., grassroots lobbying, direct action, civil disobedience), this review restricts the definition of community organizing to only those efforts whose issues and strategies for action are selected by local resident-leaders, and whose goal is to build power and sustain their organizing initiative over time and across multiple issues.

Ganz 2004, 1134	The democratic promise of equity, inclusion, and accountability requires an organized citizenry with the power to articulate and assert its interests effectively. In the United States, the concerns of many citizens remain muted because of unequal and declining citizen participation. Elsewhere in the world, many new democracies struggle to create institutions to make effective citizen participation possible. Organizing confronts these challenges by revitalizing old democratic institutions and creating new ones; it involves learning how to mobilize people for effective collective action. For people to turn shared values into action, they must learn how to identify, recruit, and develop leadership; they must learn to build community around that leadership; and they must learn to draw power from that community. Organizers challenge people to act on behalf of shared values and interests. They draw people together into new relationships that enable people to gain new understanding of their interests, and they help people develop new resources and new capacity to use these resources for the collective benefit. These relationship-building activities lead to new networks of relationship wide and deep enough to provide a foundation for a new community in action. A second result is a new story about who this community is, where it has been, where it is going, and how it will get there. A third result is action, as the community mobilizes and deploys its resources on behalf of its interests.
Ganz 2009, 8	In this book, I will argue that UFW succeeded, while the rival AFL-CIO and Teamsters failed, because the UFW's leadership devised more effective strategy, in fact a stream of effective strategy. The UFW was able to do this because the motivation of its leaders was greater than that of their rivals; they had better access to salient knowledge; and their deliberations became venues for learning. These are the three elements of what I call strategic capacity—the ability to devise good strategy. While I do not claim that strategic capacity guarantees success, I do argue that it makes success more probable. The greater an organization's strategic capacity, the more informed, creative, and responsive its strategic choices can be and the better able it is to take advantage of moments of unique opportunity to reconfigure itself for effective action. An organization's strategic capacity, I argue further, is a function of who its leaders are—their identities, networks, and tactical experiences—and how they structure their interactions with each other and their environment with respect to resource flows, accountability, and deliberation.
Ganz 2009, 14	I argue that the likelihood that a leadership team will devise effective strategy depends on the depth of its motivation, the breadth of its salient knowledge, and the robustness of its reflective practice—on the extent, that is, of its strategic capacity. Differences in strategic capacity can explain not just why one tactic is more effective than

	another, but why one organization is more likely than another to develop a whole stream of effective tactics.
Ganz 2009, 14	A leadership team's strategic capacity derives from two sources: biographical and organizational... the biographical sources lie in the identities, social networks, and tactical repertoires of team members. The organizational sources are deliberative processes, resource flows, and accountability mechanisms.
Han, McKenna and Oyakawa 2021, 21	In public and scholarly discourse, however, the word "organizing" has been commonly used to refer to any effort that organizations make to engage ordinary people in public life. Everyone, from those working in the tradition of Saul Alinsky to marketing-based social entrepreneurs, from union organizers to get-out-the-vote canvassers, has used the term "organizing" to describe what they do. It often seems like anyone seeking to engage the mass public in any sort of activity adopts the label of "organizer," rendering the term too vague for our purposes. We thus use the term "prisms" instead, to emphasize our focus on a particular kind of collective power building.
McAlevey 2016, 39	The third approach, organizing, places the agency for success with a continually expanding base of ordinary people, a mass of people never previously involved, who don't consider themselves activists at all—that's the point of organizing. In the organizing approach, specific injustice and outrage are the immediate motivation, but the primary goal is to transfer power from the elite to the majority, from the 1 percent to the 99 percent. Individual campaigns matter in themselves, but they are primarily a mechanism for bringing new people into the change process and keeping them involved. The organizing approach relies on mass negotiations to win, rather than the closed-door deal making typical of both advocacy and mobilizing. Ordinary people help make the power analysis, design the strategy, and achieve the outcome. They are essential and they know it.
Mizrahi 2007, 40	Feminist organizing is based on values and actions carried out in a democratic, humanistic framework. Its central imperative defines its unique character. Feminist organizing must affect the conditions of women while empowering them. It is based on women's contributions, functions, roles, and experiences and is derived from their strengths while recognizing the limitations of their socially ascribed roles and the nature of their oppression. A women's perspective affects which issues are selected and worked on, how a problem is defined, what needs will be met, what tactics and strategies are used, and how success or victory is defined.
Morris 1986, xii	The assumption is that mass protest is a product of the organizing efforts of activists functioning through a well-developed indigenous base. A well-developed indigenous base includes the institutions,

	organizations, leaders, communication networks, money, and organized masses within a dominated group. Such a base also encompasses cultural elements music, oratory, and so on-of a dominated group that play a direct role in the organization and mobilization of protest. I argue here that it is within this indigenous base that the basic funding patterns, social resources, and organized masses are concentrated and activated for protest. A central concern of the indigenous perspective is to examine the ways in which organizers transform indigenous resources into power resources and marshals them in conflict situations to accomplish political ends.
Petitjean and Talpin 2022, 1276	We define [the community organizing] tradition as the institutionalized practice of fostering the active participation of groups that are marginalized or excluded from civic life through carefully planned campaigns to improve their living conditions. Campaign issues can include demanding increased resources for schools or healthcare facilities in poor neighborhoods, fighting against gentrification, or standing up against mass incarceration. Usually located in the impoverished and racialized neighborhoods of large urban areas, the community-based organizations using these practices often build up on residents' everyday community ties (Warren 2001; Marwell 2007). While they belong to a broader milieu of community-based organizations operating at the local level in urban areas (Sites, Chaskin and Parks 2007), community organizing groups focus less on social service provision or institutional advocacy than on improving people's living conditions through contentious tactics. They practice a form of "blended social action," a combination of civic participation and contentious collective claims-making (Sampson et al. 2005). Although community organizing overlaps with the space of social movements (Mathieu 2021), it exists as a semi-autonomous social entity. One characteristic feature of the approach is the pivotal role played by professional organizers: as paid staff, they develop campaigns and train volunteer leaders to empower themselves while remaining in the background and refusing to speak for the groups they mobilize. Although the organizer's role draws from Saul Alinsky's legacy, which refused to address racial domination head on, since the 1980s commitments to fighting for racial justice have been incorporated as core components of organizers' concerns and worldviews (Sen 2003).
Tattersall 2015, 382-3	Community organizing, as taught by the IAF, focuses on a few key practices and concepts. The key features are: (i) Relational meetings (ii) Focus on power (iii) Focus on institutions (iv) Focus on leadership

	(v) The community organizing life cycle (vi) The habit of education and training
Tattersall 2015, 384	In contrast to social movements that erupt and collapse, organizing across and inside local institutions anchors a more sustained capacity for longer term social change – meaning that a community organizing Alliance can shift between issues, transition between different leaders and be sustained overtime (Gecan, 2004).
Warren 2001, 31	While most political organizing can be characterized as issue mobilization, the IAF has developed an alternative strategy to build cooperative action, called relational organizing. As opposed to mobilizing around a set of predetermined issues, the IAF brings residents together first to discuss the needs of their community and to find a common ground for action. Conversation and relationship building lead to the identification of issues around which participants are prepared to act together. Rather than starting from the top with the most important issues, IAF organizations build their political capacity over time, through patient base building rooted in the issues as they have meaning in the lives of participants and their families. The IAF works to develop the leadership ability of its participants through the issue campaigns that emerge from relational organizing. Leadership development includes skills building (like research, public speaking, mobilization of followers) but encompasses the broader arts of political leadership, like relationship building, negotiation, and compromise. The IAF, in fact, places the highest priority on leadership development.
Wood and Fulton 2015, 10	Contemporary community organizing in the United States draws from a variety of figures in the history of grassroots American democracy, including Jane Addams, Saul Alinsky, Cezar Chavez, and Marin Luther King Jr., as well as from union organizing and the movements for civil rights of African Americans, women, and Hispanics. Out of the broad tradition, Ed Chambers and the Industrial Areas Foundation (IAF) pioneered early elements of a model of organizing based more explicitly in community institutions -- primarily but not exclusively religious congregations -- a model that has been adopted and reworked by a variety of organizations.
Woodly 2021, 127-8	In other words, organizing is not primarily about assembling a mass of people for a political cause (mobilization), nor "turning up" in defiance of authorities though protest (activism). Instead, organizing is fundamentally the process that allows people to be "transformed in the service of the work" as Mary Hooks (2016), a lead organizer in Southerners on New Ground, puts it. I argue that Hooks's refrain gives us a framework to understand the understudied yet unique and politically powerful phenomenon that is political organizing—an activity that is distinct from either mobilization or activism in that its result is not to do a thing but to become the kind of person who does

what is to be done. In this way, organizing is of critical import to democracy itself, because it is a process through which people learn what membership in a democratic polity must entail and reminds them that they have both power and responsibility in the undertaking that is self-governance.

Appendix I: Description of Canon Clusters

Community Organizing

The community organizing cluster (green) is the largest in the co-citation map, consisting of 25 cited references (out of 89). It is located closest to the civic associations (gray) and the American democracy clusters (orange), suggesting significant dialogue between scholarship in the community organizing stream and scholarship in these two other streams. The community organizing cluster is furthest away from the labor cluster (red), indicating that scholarship in the community organizing stream rarely enters into dialogue with studies in the labor organizing stream.

Prominent studies in the community organizing cluster include Alinsky's seminal work *Rules for Radicals* (1971), which provides practical lessons for organizers based on Alinsky's experience as an organizer in Chicago from the late 1930s through the 1970s. The book has shaped subsequent generations of organizers' understanding of oppression, collective power, grassroots leadership, and radical tactics. However, it has also been criticized for overlooking racial and gender structures of subjugation (Fisher 1994; Post 2018).

Alongside Alinksy's American classic and published around the same time, Paulo Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) draws upon his experience as a radical educator in Brazil to theorize a pedagogy of emancipation that aims to "awaken in the oppressed the knowledge, creativity, and constant critical reflective capacities" necessary to liberate themselves (Macedo 2018, 2). These publications by Alinsky and Freire are the two most cited references across the entire global literature on organizing, underscoring their prominence in the field.

In addition to the center of the community organizing cluster that revolves around Alinsky and Freire, the co-citation map shows a peripheral "tail" of the green cluster that is situated further from the rest of the map. This area of canonical literature on community organizing consists of more recent research in the field of community psychology and empowerment theory (Christens 2010; Christens and Speer 2015; Speer and Hughey 1995). The focus in this strand of research has been on the psychological underpinnings of community organizing at the individual and group levels, including behavioral, relational, affective, attitudinal, cognitive, and developmental processes, and on the outcomes of empowerment in organizing contexts (Christens and Speer 2015).

Overall, the canonical community organizing cluster contains practice-based, praxis-oriented texts concerned with building the power of oppressed groups through grassroots organizing and empowerment of local leadership. These works have contributed to an extensive research stream on community organizing among underserved populations, especially in applied fields, such as social work, healthcare, psychology, and education.

Labor Organizing

The labor organizing (red) is the second largest in the co-citation map, consisting of 23 cited references (out of 89). It is located furthest away from the rest of the clusters, and its references are positioned in close proximity to each other, indicating that it is coherent, self-referential, and less frequently engaged in dialogue with other research streams, compared to the other four clusters. Specifically, it is furthest

from the civic associations and the community organizing clusters, indicating that scholarship in the labor organizing stream is the least related to studies in these areas, although it has some relation with studies in the social movements stream.

Prominent studies in the labor cluster were published around the end of the twentieth century. These studies are mainly focused on how labor organizations have coped with the changing conditions of politics and the economy between the first half of the twentieth century, when the traditional unions evolved, and the second half of the twentieth century, marked by the advent of globalization and neo-liberalism worldwide. While exploring similar questions, highly cited studies in the labor cluster have addressed them in significantly different ways. For example, focusing on the United Kingdom, Kelly (1998) argued that the notions of union decline in the late twentieth century are misleading, and that the traditional collectivist model of unionizing remained just as relevant as it had been decades ago. In contrast, in the U.S., Voss and Sherman (2000) argued that the labor movement's future largely depends on unions' ability to adapt, especially by dismantling hierarchical frameworks and endorsing grassroots engagement and participation. Similarly, Fine (2006) and Milkman (2006) demonstrated how organizing among America's growing low-wage immigrant workforce can be accomplished successfully today. These studies have contributed to a body of literature concerned with the conditions, prospects, and outcomes of organizing workers in today's transnational and precarious labor market.

Interestingly, the co-citation map allows us to identify core works that serve as bridges between two research streams. This is the case for Ganz (2000), which is categorized in the labor cluster yet is positioned closer to the social movements cluster. Engaging with classic social movements theories such as resource mobilization and opportunity structure, Ganz's study of how unions are able to overcome deficits in resources through the cultivation of strategic capacity among leaders, has informed subsequent research in both the labor and the social movements streams.

Civic Associations

The civic associations cluster (gray) is the third largest in the co-citation map, consisting of 17 cited references (out of 89). It is located at the edge of the map, closest to the community organizing and American democracy clusters and furthest away from the labor cluster, indicating that scholarship in the civic associations stream is engaged in the least dialogue with studies on labor organizing.

The two most prominent studies in this cluster (Putnam 2000; Warren 2001) are engaged in direct dialogue with each other. Drawing upon an earlier seminal study on social capital and democracy in Italy (Putnam, Leonardi and Nanetti 1993), Putnam's (2000) later book depicts the perils for American democracy caused by a sharp decline in Americans' participation in civic associations. In contrast to Putnam's focus on these dangers, Warren (2001) offers an encouraging perspective in his study of the Industrial Area Foundation in Texas, showing how community and faith-based organizing can strengthen individuals' social capital and revitalize democracy by cultivating political engagement among racially and economically marginalized communities.

Putnam's work and the scholarship on civic associations that has arisen from it are concerned with the relationship between individual participation and democratic institutions. In this sense, the research stream that emerged out of Putnam's work is explicitly engaged in the study of democracy. However, because this body of research examines participation in all kinds of civic associations, including golf

clubs and knitting groups, it is not exclusively focused on the ways in which organizing initiatives contribute to classic democratic institutions and processes. Consequently, it is through the work of Warren (2001) and others that the particular relationship between organizing initiatives and democracy have been articulated.

Along with the center of the civic associations cluster that revolves around Putnam and Warren, the co-citation map displays a peripheral "tail" of the gray cluster that is further away from the rest of the map. This area of canonical literature on civic associations consists of literature about community organizing in the context of education and school reform. The most cited references in this sub-group (Mediratta, Shah and McAlister 2009; Shirley 1997; Warren and Mapp 2011) build upon the concepts of social capital developed in civic associations to demonstrate how local organizing initiatives lead to educational change in low-income and underserved communities.

Social Movements

The social movements cluster (blue) is the fourth largest in the co-citation map, consisting of 16 cited references (out of 89). Its location in the center of the map indicates that it is the stream of research that is the best connected to all other research streams. It is also closest to the American democracy cluster, indicating that it is most engaged in dialogue with this research stream. However, unlike the other clusters, it is located between the labor cluster and the rest of the clusters, indicating that it plays a bridging role between labor organizing studies and the rest of the canonical literature.

The social movements cluster contains studies concerned with when, why, and how social movements emerge, sustain action, and achieve their objectives. The answers provided by studies in this cluster have evolved from resource mobilization theory (McCarthy and Zald 1977), through opportunity structure (McAdam 1982; Tarrow 1994; Tilly 1978) and onto cultural explanations, including framing processes (Benford and Snow 2000) and collective identity (Polletta and Jasper 2001). While the empirical field of social movements reflected in these studies overlaps significantly with that of organizing, this congruence is not comprehensive. Indeed, all social movements are oriented towards achieving social and political change, and, like organizing, are therefore examples of political engagement of citizens. However, the study of social movements includes forms of participation other than organizing, such as one-time participation in a mass protest. Conversely, some organizing initiatives, such as a local community organizing group or a health prevention program with a community organizing component, are not necessarily part of a social movement. Hence, while the fields of social movements and organizing overlap, they each extend beyond the scope of the other.

Lastly, the relationship of the social movements cluster to the study of democracy is revealing. Canonical studies in the social movements cluster are concerned with the impact of social movements, including on issues such as democratization and democratic renewal, as well as the internal democratic practices of social movements on the organizational level. However, they are less concerned with how participation in social movements cultivates democratic proclivities and agency in individuals.

American Democracy

The American democracy cluster (orange) is the smallest in the co-citation map, consisting of 8 cited references (out of 89). Unlike the other clusters, this body of research does not study a particular kind

of context, such as labor organizing or community organizing. Instead, the studies in this cluster cover a wide range of forms of participation, including faith-based organizing (Warren and Wood 2001; Wood 2002; Wood and Fulton 2015), labor organizing (Ganz 2009), social movements organizing (Morris 1986), and civic and volunteer associations (Skocpol 2003; Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995). However, all these studies share a common interest in the contribution of these forms of collective action to democracy in the United States.

Rooted in the American context, these studies add a unique perspective on issues that are central to American history and politics, such as the role of race in organizing for democracy and the struggle for civil rights. These studies also introduce significant research on faith-based organizing—a type of organizing that is not covered by any of the other clusters, indicating its prominence in the American context.

Viewed as a whole, studies in this cluster most directly address the question that motivated the present research: how does organizing, as a distinct form of collective action, contribute to strengthening democracy? The studies in this cluster do this by explaining how the praxis of organizing in a variety of empirical contexts shapes individuals' leadership and agentic capacities (Ganz 2009), organizational inclusivity and internal democracy (Ganz 2009; Morris 1986; Wood 2002; Wood and Fulton 2015), and society's collective norms, power distribution, and institutions (Skocpol 2003; Verba, Schlozman and Brady 1995). However, because these studies are confined to the American context, they provide limited insights for scholars seeking to explore these phenomena in other geographic regions with different trajectories of democratic consolidation and decline.

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