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Agency and Institutions: A Review of Institutional Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the literature that has been published on institutional entrepreneurship since Paul DiMaggio introduced the notion in 1988. Based on a systematic selection and analysis of articles, the paper outlines an emerging consensus on the definition and process of institutional entrepreneurship. It also presents the previously identified enabling conditions for, and reviews the research methods that have been applied to the study of, institutional entrepreneurship. Finally, the paper highlights future directions for research on this topic. Researchers are encouraged to use this paper to build sophisticated, targeted research designs that will add value to the growing body of literature on institutional entrepreneurship.

Keywords: Institutional Entrepreneur – Institutional Change - Paradox of Embedded Agency

INTRODUCTION

Over the past couple of decades, institutional theory has become one of the most prominent theories in organizational analysis (Walsh, Meyer, and Schoonhoven, 2006). Focused in the 1980s on the mimetic process whereby organizations eventually adopt the same kind of behavior within a field of activity, its emphasis has shifted over the past decade to issues of institutional change and agency (e.g., Dacin, Goodstein, and Scott, 2002). Central to this line of research is the notion of institutional entrepreneurship initially introduced by DiMaggio (1988) as a way to reintroduce actors' agency to institutional analysis. Whereas early institutional studies (Selznick, 1949; 1957) did account for actors' agency, subsequent institutional studies tended to overlook the role of actors in institutional change. According to these latter studies, institutional change was caused by exogenous shocks that challenged existing institutions in a field of activity. The notion of institutional entrepreneurship emerged as a possible new research avenue to provide endogenous explanations for institutional change.

Eisenstadt (1980) was the first to use the notion of institutional entrepreneurship to characterize actors who serve as catalysts for structural change and take the lead in being the impetus for, and giving direction to, change (Colomy and Rhoades, 1994: 554). DiMaggio, building on Eisenstadt, introduced the notion of institutional entrepreneurship in institutional analysis to characterize organized actors with sufficient resources to contribute to the genesis of new institutions in which they see "an opportunity to realize interest that they value highly" (1980: 14). He aimed to explain thereby how actors can shape institutions despite pressures towards stasis (Holm, 1995; Seo and Creed, 2002).

Whereas early institutional studies considered mainly the constraints under which actors operate, works on institutional entrepreneurship aimed to build a theory of action based on the tenets of institutional theory (Fligstein, 1997: 397). In the introduction to their widely known book, *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis*, DiMaggio and Powell (1991) explicitly called for the development of a coherent theory of action, the lack of which was institutional theory's core weakness when it came to explaining change, as the role of actors and action in the creation, diffusion, and stabilization of institutions was not made clear (Christensen et al., 1997).

Since publication of DiMaggio's (1988) book chapter, the literature on institutional entrepreneurship has grown exponentially. Over the past decade, more than 60 papers have been published in peer-reviewed journals in North America and Europe. With the first mapping of the field of institutional entrepreneurship, proposed by Hardy and Maguire (forthcoming 2008,), the literature on institutional entrepreneurship became recognized as an identifiable stream of research.

Although it seems to be a powerful way to account for the role of actors in institutional change, the notion of institutional entrepreneurship is problematic because it alludes to the classical debate on structure versus agency, which implies that actors are somehow able to disengage from their social context and act to change it. This relates to the "paradox of embedded agency" (Holm, 1995; Seo and Creed, 2002), which alludes to the tension between institutional determinism and agency: How can organizations or individuals innovate if their beliefs and actions are determined by the institutional environment they wish to change? Resolving this paradox is a key challenge to the formulation of theoretical foundations for the study of institutional entrepreneurship.

Recent critics of the literature have emphasized that studies of institutional entrepreneurship have not been able to resolve the paradox of embedded agency. In particular, such studies have been criticized for relying on a disembedded view of agency that ignores the influence of institutional pressure on actors' behaviors (Cooper, Ezzamel, and Willmott, forthcoming 2008). Following this line of reasoning, the notion of institutional entrepreneurship has been presented as a "Deus Ex Machina" (Delmestri, 2006: 1536-1537) that unskillfully reintroduces actors to institutional change. Much in the same vein, Meyer (2006: 732) suggested that the notion of institutional entrepreneurship was not a viable endogenous explanation of institutional change within the tenets of institutional theory.

To assess the relevance of these critics, and thereby the viability of research on institutional entrepreneurship, we undertake a systematic review of the relevant literature that examines whether and how it accounts for the interactions between actors and their institutional environments. This analysis enables us not only to assess whether and how studies of institutional entrepreneurship address the paradox of embedded agency, but also to highlight directions for future research.

The remainder of the paper presents the method we used to review the literature on institutional entrepreneurship and we report the results of our analysis. In particular we examine the enabling conditions for institutional entrepreneurship and the process by which institutional entrepreneurship unfolds. This review provides several insights. First, while critical appraisals (e.g., Cooper, Ezzamel and Willmott, forthcoming 2008; Delmestri, 2006; Meyer, 2006) of the literature on institutional entrepreneurship suggested that institutional entrepreneurs were viewed as heroes who were disembbeded from their institutional environment, this review suggests that recent research on institutional entrepreneurship accounts for actors' institutional embeddedness and acknowledges the institutions' role as both enablers of and constraints on action. Our review also shows that recent research uses a rich blend of methods among which discourse analysis, a relevant and widely used method for studying institutional entrepreneurship, appears to be but one among several dimensions including analysis of practices (e.g., Lounsbury and Crumley, 2007). Finally, our review of the literature surfaced new emerging avenues of research on institutional entrepreneurship that we present here.

DATA AND METHOD

We examined research on institutional entrepreneurship from 1988, the year DiMaggio's book chapter brought the notion of institutional entrepreneurship into organizational analysis, onward. We searched the EBSCHOT Business Source Premier and JSTOR databases for entries in peer-reviewed journals that contained at least one of the following keyword phrases in the title, abstract, keywords, or full text: institutional entrepreneur, or institutional entrepreneurship. This procedure generated more than 100 articles. We excluded from this pool book reviews, editorials, and calls for papers as well as all articles that made reference to the terms only in passing, or that referred to other meanings or theories (e.g., economic approaches such as transaction cost analysis). This left us with 61 articles published in refereed publications. Publication frequency has increased significantly over time. Figure 1 shows a remarkable relative increase in the number of new articles published each year since 1988, indicating growing attention to the subject of institutional entrepreneurship. We added to this list book chapters devoted to the topic (Battilana and Leca, 2008; DiMaggio, 1988, 1991; Hardy and Maguire, 2008; Hwang and Powell, 2005). Examining the reference lists of the selected articles to identify recurrent and apparently

important references published in journals not included in the database yielded the following: Fligstein (1997), Rao et al. (2000). The final list of 67 articles is presented as Appendix 1.

Although first published mainly in American outlets (e.g., *Academy of Management Journal* (7), *Academy of Management Review* (6), and *Administrative Science Quarterly* (5)), articles dealing with institutional entrepreneurship gained significant visibility as well in European outlets over the past 10 years. *Organization Studies*, for example, published a Special Issue on the topic in 2007. Beyond the internationalization of the topic, there is also growing cross-disciplinary interest in institutional entrepreneurship. Although many papers have been published in management journals, a number of sociological outlets have also published papers that address the issue of institutional entrepreneurship (e.g., *American Journal of Sociology* (3), *Sociological Perspectives* (2), *Annual Review of Sociology* (1), and *Sociological Theory* (1)).

FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

We identified from our reading of the papers two broad questions that appear to be central in the ongoing research on institutional entrepreneurship: (1) Under what conditions is an actor likely to become an institutional entrepreneur? (2) How does the process of institutional entrepreneurship unfold? The text passages that pertained to each question were coded, as were the research methods that were used. We then coded the content of this manageable text database separately for each of the three areas of interest: conditions that enable institutional entrepreneurship; process by which institutional entrepreneurship unfolds; and research methods used to investigate institutional entrepreneurship. Inspired by Locke and Golden-Biddle (1997) and Strauss and Corbin (1990), we developed open codes through iteration, that is, by moving back and forth between the data in the table and our pre-existing knowledge of the literature. The results of the coding are reported in a table in Appendix 1.

ENABLING CONDITIONS FOR INSTITUTIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

A number of studies that attempt to explain how actors can become institutional entrepreneurs despite institutional pressures, and thereby resolve the paradox of embedded agency, suggest that institutional entrepreneurs are often ushered onto the stage by enabling conditions (Strang and Sine, 2002). Two categories of enabling conditions that have so far received a great deal of attention are field-level conditions and actors' position in the organizational field.

The enabling role of field-level conditions

The different types of field-level conditions that have been identified, far from being mutually exclusive, are often interrelated. Precipitating jolts or crises are identified by Child, Lua and Sai (2007), Greenwood et al. (2002), Fligstein (1997, 2001), and Holm (1995) as field-level enabling conditions for institutional entrepreneurship. Drawing on the literature on institutional change, Greenwood et al. (2002) propose that jolts in the form of social upheaval, technological disruption, competitive discontinuities, or regulatory changes might enable institutional entrepreneurship by disturbing the socially constructed field-level consensus and contributing to the introduction of new ideas. Fligstein and Mara-Drita's (1996) study of the creation of the single market in the European Union, for example, found the economic and political crisis that characterized the European Union in the early 1980s to have facilitated the European Commission's pivotal role as a collective institutional entrepreneur in the creation of the Single Market.

Phillips et al. (2000), Fligstein and Mara-Drita (1996), and Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002) identified as a second type of field-level enabling condition the presence of acute, field-level problems that might precipitate crises. Phillips et al. (2000) suggest that complex, multi-faceted problems such as environmental issues enable participants in an inter-organizational collaboration to act as institutional entrepreneurs, and Durand and McGuire (2005) show that problems related to the scarcity of resources can lead actors to migrate and operate as institutional entrepreneurs in other fields.

Organizational field characteristics are a third type of field-level enabling condition. Among other organizational field characteristics, scholars have emphasized particularly the enabling role of an organizational field's degrees of heterogeneity and institutionalization. Sewell (1992) and Clemens and Cook (1999) state that the presence of multiple institutional orders or alternatives constitutes an opportunity for agency, and thereby for institutional

entrepreneurship. They also emphasize that the less mandatory and more optional an institution, the easier it is to deinstitutionalize. The heterogeneity of institutional arrangements, that is, the variance in the characteristics of different institutional arrangements, might facilitate the occurrence of institutional entrepreneurship. Heterogeneous institutional arrangements in an organizational field are likely to give rise to institutional incompatibilities, which become a source of internal contradiction. A contradiction can be defined as a pair of features that together produce an unstable tension in a given system (Blackburn, 1994). Seo and Creed (2002), like other scholars (Clemens and Cook, 1999; Dorado, 2005; Levy and Egan, 2003; Rao, Morrill and Zald, 2000; Rao 1998; Haveman and Rao, 1997; Leblebici et al., 1991), highlight the enabling role of institutional contradictions in institutional entrepreneurship, but go a step further by trying to explain the mechanism by which these contradictions lead embedded agents to act as institutional entrepreneurs. Specifically, they suggest that the ongoing experience of contradictory institutional arrangements enables a shift in collective consciousness that can transform actors from passive participants in the reproduction of existing institutional arrangements into institutional entrepreneurs.

The degree of institutionalization of organizational fields has also been shown to affect actors' agency (Tolbert and Zucker, 1996) and thereby institutional entrepreneurship. But there seems to be debate regarding the impact of degree of institutionalization of organizational fields on institutional entrepreneurship. Beckert (1999) suggests that strategic action is more likely to occur in relatively highly institutionalized organizational fields. Citing Oliver's (1992) argument, he proposes that, because in relatively highly institutionalized organizational fields uncertainty is lower and the need for the persistence of secure, stable, predictable institutionalized rules and norms thus reduced, actors are more likely to engage in strategic action. Building on Beckert's (1999) work, Dorado (2005) proposes that substantial institutionalization, as opposed to minimal and extreme institutionalization, creates room for strategic agency and thereby for institutional entrepreneurship. Researchers such as DiMaggio (1988) and Fligstein (1997), on the other hand, suggest that uncertainty in the institutional order might provide opportunity for strategic action. Fligstein (1997: 401) proposes that "the possibilities for strategic action are the greatest" when the organizational field has no structure, that is, when its degree of institutionalization is quite low. Phillips et al. (2000) also suggest that unstructured or under-organized contexts provide opportunities for institutional entrepreneurship. It is noteworthy that, thus far, the majority of empirical studies of

institutional entrepreneurship have been conducted in emerging fields that are less structured and consequently characterized by higher levels of uncertainty (Maguire et al., 2004; Lawrence and Phillips, 2004; Déjean et al., 2004; Garud, Jain, and Kumaraswamy, 2002; Lawrence, 1999; Rao and Sivakumar, 1999; Rao, 1994, 1998).

Dorado (2005) developed a typology that takes into account both degree of heterogeneity and degree of institutionalization in attempting to determine the extent to which fields are likely to offer opportunities for action, that is, for institutional entrepreneurship. She suggests that organizational fields can adopt one of three dominant forms. Fields highly institutionalized and/or isolated from the potential influence of other fields and, consequently, of new ideas, are "opportunity opaque," meaning that their characteristics do not provide any opportunity for action. "Opportunity transparent" fields that offer a lot of opportunity for action are characterized by the co-existence of heterogeneous institutional arrangements and a substantial level of institutionalization. "Opportunity hazy" fields, characterized by minimal institutionalization and many heterogeneous models of practices, offer opportunities for action that are difficult to grasp because agents must deal with a highly unpredictable environment.

The enabling role of actors' social position

Studies of institutional entrepreneurship have highlighted as well as field-level enabling conditions the enabling role of actors' social position (DiMaggio, 1988; Dorado, 2005; Leblebici et al., 1991; Haveman and Rao, 1997; Garud et al., 2002; Rao et al., 2000; Levy and Egan, 2003; Battilana, 2006). Actors' social position is a key factor in that it might have an impact both on actors' perception of the field (Dorado, 2005) and on their access to the resources needed to engage in institutional entrepreneurship (Lawrence, 1999). It has been shown that actors at the margins of an organizational field (Leblebici et al., 1991; Haveman and Rao, 1997; Garud et al., 2002) or the interstices of different organizational fields (Boxenbaum & Battilana, 2005; Phillips et al., 2000; Rao et al., 2000) are more likely to act as institutional entrepreneurs. Yet, dissenting opinions can be found; institutional entrepreneurs might be found, according to some research, not only be at the periphery but also at the center of fields (Sherer and Lee, 2002; Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006; Zilber, 2002).

Whereas most studies that have taken into account the enabling role of actors' social

position have used organizations as the unit of analysis, some studies (Dorado, 2005; Maguire et al., 2004) have begun to analyze the enabling role of individuals' social position. Dorado (2005: 397) proposes that actors' "social position," that is, "their position in the structure of social networks," which corresponds to the set of persons with whom they are directly linked (Aldrich 1999), affects their perception of their organizational field and, thereby, the likelihood that they will act as institutional entrepreneurs. Studying institutional entrepreneurship in the field of HIV/AIDS treatment advocacy in Canada, Maguire et al. (2004) suggest that institutional entrepreneurs in emerging organizational fields tend to be actors whose "subject positions" (Bourdieu, 1990; Foucault, 1972) provide them with both legitimacy in the eyes of diverse stakeholders and the ability to bridge those stakeholders, enabling them to access dispersed sets of resources. In their study, the notion of "subject position" refers to formal position as well as all socially constructed and legitimated identities available in a field.

The enabling role of actors' specific characteristics

Although social position is the individual-level enabling condition for institutional entrepreneurship that has received the most attention thus far, a few studies (e.g., Dorado, 2005; Fligstein, 1997, 2001; Maguire et al., 2004; Seo and Creed, 2002) have noted the impact of other individual-level enabling conditions. Mutch (2007) suggest that institutional entrepreneurs are able to abstract from the concerns of others and to take an autonomous reflexive stance. Fligstein (1997, 2001) considers institutional entrepreneurs to be socially skilled actors. Whereas "skilled social action revolves around finding and maintaining a collective identity of a set of social groups and the effort to shape and meet the interests of those groups" (Fligstein, 1997: 398), social skills revolve around empathy. Institutional entrepreneurs are able to relate to the situations of other actors and, in doing so, to provide them with reasons to cooperate. Fligstein (1997, 2001) considers these social skills to distinguish institutional entrepreneurs. Combining those characteristics, institutional entrepreneurs are able to develop institutional projects that are more or less ambitious in scope (Colomy, 1998; Colomy and Rhoades, 1994; Perkmann and Spicer, 2007).

Other authors suggest that institutional entrepreneurs link their projects to their characteristics. Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002) cite the example of members of activist groups who connect the values of their cause to their personal identities, creating a value congruence that is a potent force for social change when they act as institutional entrepreneurs. Maguire et

al. (2004), in the case of HIV/AIDS treatment advocacy in Canada, found HIV positive, gay volunteers with a history within the movement to have considerable legitimacy.

THE PROCESS OF INSTITUTIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The first challenge institutional entrepreneurs face is to impose the institutional change they promote, as existing institutional arrangements that favor the maintenance of established privileges are likely to be defended by those who benefit from the current situation (e.g., DiMaggio, 1988; Levy and Scully, 2007). Institutional entrepreneurs can sometimes impose institutional change on dissenting actors without having to win them over (Battilana and Leca, forthcoming 2008; Dorado, 2005: 389). Dorado (2005: 389) takes the example of Rockfeller as developed by Chernov (1998) to illustrate this point. As he controlled most of the oil refineries in the USA, John D. Rockfeller could change the way the oil market worked by controlling prices while other actors could not oppose this change. But such situations are rare as dominant players who benefit from an existing institution are usually keener to support its maintenance than to promote changes to it (DiMaggio, 1988).

Because they can seldom change institutions alone, institutional entrepreneurs must typically mobilize allies (e.g. Boxenbaum and Battilana, 2005; Fligstein, 1997; Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings, 2002), develop alliances and cooperation (Fligstein, 2001; Lawrence, Hardy and Phillips, 2002; Rao, 1998). In particular they must mobilize key constituents such as highly embedded agents (Lawrence, Hardy, and Phillips, 2002), professionals and experts (Hwang and Powell, 2005). Hence, institutional entrepreneurship is a complex political and cultural process (DiMaggio, 1988; Fligstein, 1997; Rao, 1998) where institutional entrepreneurs must mobilize diverse social skills depending on the kind of institutional project they intend to impose (Perkmann and spicer, 2007). Researchers have investigated how institutional entrepreneurs develop discursive strategies and use resources to develop those strategies. More recently, they have begun to investigate how institutional entrepreneurs design specific institutional arrangements to support their projects and stabilize their implementation.

Using discursive strategies

The discursive dimension is crucial in the literature on the institutional entrepreneurship process (e.g., Creed, Scully and Austin, 2002; de Holan and Phillips, 2002; Dorado, 2005; Fligstein, 1997, 2001; Maguire et al., 2004; Rao, 1998; Rao et al., 2000; Seo and Creed, 2002). Some researchers even state that institutional entrepreneurship is mainly a discursive strategy whereby institutional entrepreneurs generate discourse and texts aimed at affecting the processes of social constructions that underlie institutions (e.g., Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005; Munir and Phillips, 2005; Phillips, Lawrence and Hardy, 2004).

According to Rao et al. (2000: 244): "Institutional entrepreneurs can mobilize legitimacy, finances, and personnel only when they are able to frame the grievances and interests of aggrieved constituencies, diagnose causes, assign blames, provide solutions, and enable collective attribution processes to operate (Snow and Benford, 1992: 150)." This implies to theorize the institutional project in such a way that it will resonate with the interests and values, and problems of potential allies (Boxenbaum and Battilana, 2005; Fligstein, 2001; Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005).

Such discursive frames include two major dimensions (Dacin et al., 2002; Greenwood et al., 2002; Maguire et al., 2004; Tolbert and Zucker, 1996). The first, *specification* through framing of the existing organizational failing, includes diagnosis of the failure and assignment of blame for it. This includes the creation of institutional vocabularies –i.e., the use of identifying words and referential texts to expose contradictory institutional logics embedded in existing institutional arrangements (Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005). The second, *justification* of the promoted project as superior to the previous arrangement, involves the institutional entrepreneur de-legitimating existing institutional arrangements and those supported by opponents (e.g., Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005; Creed et al., 2002) and legitimating the project at hand to stakeholders and other potential allies (e.g., Déjean et al., 2004; Demil and Bensédrine, 2005).

Institutional entrepreneurs thus select frames according to their mobilization potential, which is a function of the degree to which they (1) are endowed with some level of legitimacy in the same social system and have some resonance with the target audience, and (2) are able to generate tension around the legitimacy of a particular institutional arrangement (Creed et al., 2002; Seo and Creed, 2002). The aim is to emphasize the failings of the existing institutionalized practices and norms and demonstrate that the institutionalization project will assure superior results in order to coalesce allies and reduce inherent contradictions in the

coalition while exacerbating contradictions among opponents (e.g., Boxenbaum and Battilana, 2005; Fligstein, 1997; Haveman and Rao, 1997; Holm, 1995; Rao, 1998; Seo and Creed, 2002; Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005). Legitimating accounts can transform listeners' identities by successfully framing what it means when a person supports or opposes a cause (Creed et al., 2002). Rao et al. (2000) suggest that defining and redefining identity is central to building a sustainable coalition. Presenting a sponsored norm or pattern of behavior as altruistic (Fligstein, 1997) or nesting it in impersonal institution-based trust through standard structures and stable rules (Haveman and Rao, 1997) also favor diffusion.

But even as they must develop projects that are sufficiently incompatible to generate a fundamental departure from existing institutional arrangements, institutional entrepreneurs must avoid presenting their projects as too radical to avoid reactions of fear that might discourage some potential allies. Institutional entrepreneurs must thus present their projects as sufficiently redundant with the most resonant frames available, those with the highest mobilizing potential at the time, in order to attract support and new members, mobilize adherents, and acquire resources (Maguire and Hardy, 2006; Seo and Creed, 2002).

To frame skillfully implies a high level of empathy with potential allies. Institutional entrepreneurs must be able to imaginatively identify with the states, and relate to the interests, of others (Fligstein, 1997). They must possess sufficient social skills, including the ability to analyze and secure cooperation, to assess the configuration of the field and act according to their position and the positions of other agents in this field (Fligstein, 1999). Socially skilled institutional entrepreneurs who use empathy to convince allies that their project will be mutually beneficial act as brokers, introducing themselves as neutral and acting on behalf of the common good (Fligstein, 1997).

Institutional entrepreneurs elaborate from pre-existing frames that are either specific to an organizational field (Déjean et al., 2004) or part of wider societal frames (de Holan and Phillips, 2002; Hardy and Phillips, 1999; King and Soule, 2007; Lawrence and Phillips, 2004). Each existing frame is a source of constraints on and resources for actors' strategies (Hardy and Phillips, 1999). Thus, institutional entrepreneurs combine multiple frames and use rhetorical strategies to alter those frames, justify the project, and maximize its resonance (Creed et al., 2002; Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005).

Context has a significant impact on the discursive strategies developed and framed by institutional entrepreneurs. Studies suggest that institutional entrepreneurs operating in mature fields frame discourses so that they resonate with the interests and values of the dominant coalition's members (Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings, 2002; Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005). This is relevant when the coalition is unified. But when the field is populated not by one coalition but by fragmented groups of diverse dominant field members, the institutional entrepreneur needs to find a common ground and elaborate an encompassing discourse that resonates with the interests and values of those different actors (e.g. Fligstein, 1997; Hsu, 2006). Fligstein and Mara-Drita (1996) and Fligstein (1997) offer a remarkable example of this. They document how Delors managed to impose the notion of a common market on the governments of the European Union at a time where those governments could not agree on a common purpose. In 1983, national leaders were caught in a bargaining trap; there being no program on which all could agree, any initiative would be blocked. Delors developed an institutionalization project around the vague idea of the completion of the single market. The content of the project "was left unspecified and actors could read anything into it," which favored the aggregation of multiple actors with interests likely eventually to diverge (Fligstein and Mara-Drita 1996: 12).

The foregoing example differs from situations in which institutional entrepreneurs intend to develop emerging fields, in which case they formulate a specific discourse aimed at establishing a common identity specific to the actors who will be part of the new field (Markowitz, 2007: Rao et al., 2000). The two strategies are combined when institutional entrepreneurs intend to promote new emerging organizational fields, in which case they need to both legitimize the field to the major stakeholders on whom the field's members are likely to depend, and build an identity specific to the field members (Déjean et al., 2004; DiMaggio, 1991; Koene, 2006). Zimmerman and Zeitz (2002) suggest that emerging fields favor the use of rhetorical strategies by institutional entrepreneurs, exploiting the fascination with novel practices and styles present in any social group to become "fashion setters" in creating institutions that can interest and attract decision makers.

Mobilizing resources

The success of institutional entrepreneurs depends to a significant extent on their access to, and skills in leveraging, scarce and critical resources (Fligstein, 1997; Lawrence, Mauws, Dyck, and Kleysen, 2005) needed to mount political action (Seo and Creed, 2002).

We review below the different types of resources that have been examined in the institutional entrepreneurship literature.

Tangible resources

Tangible resources such as financial assets can be used during early stages of the process to bypass the sanctions likely to be imposed on the institutional entrepreneur who questions the existing institution by opponents of the proposed change (Greenwood et al., 2002) as well as to ride out the negative costs of the transitional period during which the new ideas are likely to be unpopular (Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006). They can also be used to build a coalition with other players. Garud et al. (2002) show how Sun was able to convince systems assemblers, software firms, and computer manufacturers to contribute to the network-centric approach to computing that it proposed to oppose Microsoft's Windows. Sun provided free access to Java instead of charging for that resource to encourage support for its project among systems assemblers, software firms and computer manufacturers.

Institutional entrepreneurs can also use financial resources to pressure important stakeholders to favor a project (Demil and Bensédrine, 2005), which might suggest that larger players are more likely to be successful institutional entrepreneurs (Greenwood, Suddaby, and Hinings, 2002).

Intangible resources

Institutional theory insists on the importance of cultural and symbolic dimensions (e.g., Meyer and Rowan, 1977; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983), and research on institutional entrepreneurship on the ways actors can use intangible resources to impose their institutional projects. Existing research distinguishes three such resources—social capital, legitimacy, and formal authority—that can enable institutional entrepreneurs to be taken seriously by stakeholders and thereby influence relations between themselves and other actors.

Fligstein (1997: 398) suggests that successful institutional entrepreneurs are likely to be actors with high levels of *social capital*. Citing Coleman (1988), he defines social capital as one's position in a web of social relations that provide information and political support, and considers the concurrent ability to draw on that standing to influence others' actions. Institutional entrepreneurs can use position to sever the links between some groups—which they can then enlist as allies—and the rest of the field. Institutional entrepreneurs central to a

field can establish alliances with more isolated agents who are unable to act on their own but can support a project (Fligstein, 1997). Phillips et al. (2004) suggest that being central to a field helps to ensure that the texts created by the institutional entrepreneur will be acknowledged and consumed. Institutional entrepreneurs must thus strive to attain positions that enable them to bring together diverse stakeholders among whom they can champion and orchestrate collective action (Maguire et al., 2004), or to be sufficiently powerful to impose institutional change by controlling access to resources (Dorado, 2005).

Authors also consider previously earned *legitimacy*—the extent to which an entrepreneur's actions and values are viewed as consistently congruent with the values and expectations of the larger environment—to be a central asset. To benefit from it, institutional entrepreneurs must build on the established legitimacy and identity (Durand and McGuire, 2005; Rao, Monin and Durand, 2003, 2005) that enable them to be taken seriously by the stakeholders to whom a project must be articulated. Maguire et al. (2004) maintain that institutional entrepreneurs in emerging fields, because support will need to be gathered from various constituencies rather than a few, yet to be identified prominent field members, need to possess legitimacy with a broad, diverse constituency rather than a narrow group. Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002), as noted earlier, suggest that members of activist groups connect the values of their cause to their personal identities to build on their legitimacy and thereby cultivate the value congruence that makes them a potent force for social change. In more mature fields, what matters is to achieve legitimacy with the dominant coalition members (Greenwood et al., 2002) with whose support a project is likely to diffuse.

Although less studied, *formal authority* is also considered a useful resource for institutional entrepreneurs. Fligstein (1997, 2001) and Phillips et al. (2000, 2004) investigate the influence of this resource on the construction and diffusion of entrepreneurs' discourses. Formal authority refers to an actor's legitimately recognized right to make decisions (Phillips et al., 2000: 33). The authority of the state (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) and authority conferred by official positions are formal authorities. Such authority can help in framing stories (Fligstein, 2001) and be used by institutional entrepreneurs to promote acknowledgment and "consumption" of their discourse by other actors (Phillips et al., 2004). Maguire et al. (2004) relate formal authority to subject position, considering such authority to be a feature of an entrepreneur's position in the field.

Which kinds of intangible resources are more useful seems to depend on context. For example, Maguire et al. (2004) suggest that in emerging fields legitimacy with multiple stakeholders contributes to institutional entrepreneurs' success. For institutional entrepreneurs who have well-established positions or reputations, this can be both enabling and constraining. We've already acknowledged Wade-Benzoni et al.'s (2002) observation that members of activist groups connect the values of their cause to their personal identities and achieve, by building on their enhanced legitimacy, value congruence that makes them a more potent force for social change, and Durand and McGuire (2005) show that in entering the new field of Europe as an institutional entrepreneur, AACSB had to build on, in order to benefit from, its established legitimacy and identity (see also Svejenova, Mazza and Plkanellas, 2007).

Designing institutional arrangements

The role of discursive strategies and resources in political and cultural struggles that are likely to develop around institutional change has attracted much attention. But these political and cultural struggles always account for institution building *in flux*, that is, institutions are constantly designed and redesigned and changed due to the interactions of the different actors involved in the process.

A less studied dimension is how institutional entrepreneurs design possible alternative institutional arrangements to support their projects (Hwang and Powell, 2005; Jain and George, 2007; Wijen and Ansari, 2007). According to Zilber (2002), that all actors might be or become active participants in the process of interpreting institutions—refining, sustaining, or rejecting institutional meaning—makes the institutionalization process highly uncertain. Hence, more recently, researchers have begun to consider how institutional entrepreneurs can stabilize interactions to ensure that institutions, once diffused, will be maintained. To this end, institutional entrepreneurs develop institutional arrangements. Such arrangements can be set during the institutionalization process in order to favor collaboration (Wijen and Ansari, 2007). They can also be set to ensure the sustainability of the promoted institutions, once they are diffused. In so doing, institutional entrepreneurs shape the carriers of institutionalization, which include regulative and normative elements.

Regulative carriers relate to legal provisions that establish and render mandatory new practices. Maguire and Hardy (2006) show how institutional entrepreneurs contributed to the

passage of a global environmental regulation, the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants, and engaged in a struggle that eventually led to the passage of mandatory propositions.

Normative carriers, which contribute to the structuring and professionalization of a field, include the development of specific measures (Déjean et al., 2004), professionalization (DiMaggio, 1991), and the definition of a professional identity (Hughes, 2003), membership strategies (Lawrence, 1999), certification contests (Rao 1994), tournament rituals (Anand and Watson, 2004) and the establishment of standards (Garud et al. 2002). They are prominent in emerging fields in which boundaries need to be set and a common identity is yet to emerge. These carriers are necessary and less likely to encounter resistance in such environments than in more structured settings. In mature fields, researchers have found institutional entrepreneurs to use primarily existing arrangements such as established professional associations to implement the institutional change they support (Greenwood et al., 2002).

DISCUSSION AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Our review reveals the existing literature on institutional entrepreneurship to be a vivid area of work in constant evolution. It is interesting to contrast it with recent critical appraisals of research on institutional entrepreneurship (e.g., Cooper, Willmott, and Ezzamel, forthcoming, 2008; Garud, Hardy, and Maguire, 2007; Hardy and Maguire, forthcoming 2008). Although the concerns raised by those authors growing out of the groundswell of interest in institutional entrepreneurship—notably, promulgation of the view of institutional entrepreneurs as "heroes" and overemphasis on agency at the expense of accounting for the constraining effect of institutions—is warranted, our review shows recent studies on institutional entrepreneurship to be progressively moving away from such views in favor of construing institutional entrepreneurs to be individual or collective actors embedded in and trying to navigate specific social contexts, activists who can't succeed alone (e.g. Dorado, 2005, Levy and Egan, 2003), and even anti-heroes whose actions eventually occasion unintended consequences (Khan, Munir and Willmott, 2007). The present review also suggests that most of the empirical work on institutional entrepreneurs accounts for the importance of context as both an enabler of and constraint on actors. Finally, drawing on the

emerging research, our review of the literature on institutional entrepreneurship enabled us to identify promising new avenues for research.

Accounting for embeddedness

Research on institutional entrepreneurs has been instrumental in bringing agency back into institutional theory and imparting some theoretical and empirical understanding of how embedded actors can shape institutions. Embeddedness is thus central, and all the reviewed research insists that institutional entrepreneurs always act "in context." Position within the social environment is crucial (Battilana, 2006), as is awareness of other fields (Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006) and diverse institutional logics (Leca and Naccache, 2006). All of which implies that to move beyond monographs and engage in more systematic research, clear typologies of variables and contexts are needed.

Variables related to enabling conditions and institutionalization processes have been identified and are accounted for here. Although other variables are likely to be identified, these provide a basis for comparison. Our review of the literature also identified two frequently-referenced types of context, emerging and mature fields that might constitute a first step towards a typology. This sole distinction might not be entirely satisfactory, however, as authors insist on the importance of fragmentation, which institutional entrepreneurs can also use to promote their projects (e.g., Fligstein and Mara-Drita, 1996; Levy and Egan, 2003; Levy and Scully, 2007). A consistent typology of organizational fields thus remains to be developed and would be an important contribution to more systematic research on institutional entrepreneurship.

Accounting for agency

Our review also revealed that certain directions are currently being sketched out and can be productively developed to obtain a broader, more realistic picture of institutional entrepreneurship. Although research has already moved away from a view of the institutional entrepreneur as hero, it might nevertheless be interesting to question further the issue of agency on several dimensions including the issue of institutional entrepreneurs' intentionality. Institutional entrepreneurs have traditionally been viewed as developing institutional projects (Colomy, 1998; Colomy and Rhoades, 1994) and purposively developing strategies to implement them. This is increasingly being discussed, with Fligstein and his colleagues (Fligstein, 1997; Fligstein and Mara-Drita, 1996) insisting that institutional entrepreneurs

must be able to review their expectations and intentions dependent on the evolution of the political struggle, and Child et al. (2007) suggesting that institutional entrepreneurs' intentions can evolve at different steps of the change process. Lounsbury and Crumley (2007) suggest that institutional entrepreneurs might simply be agents, without any grand plan for altering their institutions, whose practices bring about change incrementally (also on this issue, see Holm, 1995), and Khan et al. (2007) posit that the change promoted by institutional entrepreneurs might lead to unintended consequences that contradict the entrepreneurs' initial intentions.

Thus, future research might usefully be directed at exploring the intentionality and agency of institutional entrepreneurs, the extent to which it affects the institutional change that is eventually achieved, and how this plays out over time. Although institutional change might be occasioned by unintended actions of ordinary actors who break with institutionalized practices without being aware of doing so, because the institutionalization process most often remains a political one, certain practices might not become institutionalized absent the intervention of actors acting strategically (DiMaggio, 1988; DiMaggio and Powell, 1991; Friedland and Alford, 1991; Brint and Karabel, 1991; Zilber, 2002; Hargrave and Van de Ven, 2006). In fact, different phases of the institutionalization process might require different degrees of agency.

There is also the issue of collective institutional entrepreneurs (Dorado, 2005), distributed agency, and how to account for the coalescence of multiple agents as institutional entrepreneurs. If social movements can act as institutional entrepreneurs (e.g., Rao et al., 2000), an in-depth analysis of the diverse motivations, values, and interests of those who coalesce around an institutional project needs to be made. Also associated with distributed agency are Lounsbury and Crumley's (2007: 993) suggestion that "spatially dispersed, heterogeneous activity by actors with various kinds and levels of resources" will eventually change institutions, and with the need to account for "institutional work" (Lawrence and Suddaby, 2006), being purposive actions taken not only to create, but also to maintain and disrupt, institutions. Empirical research on institutional entrepreneurs clearly must encompass a larger number of actors and actions to account for the strategic actions not only of institutional entrepreneurs, but also of the actors who support or oppose them.

Future avenues for research

Enlarging the analysis of institutional entrepreneurs' strategies

Current research tends to overemphasize a discursive approach to institutional entrepreneurship that has yielded valuable insights at the expense of neglecting to analyze other dimensions. Recent studies much in line with the traditional institutional approach (e.g., Powell and DiMaggio, 1983; Tolbert and Zucker, 1983) suggest that the institutionalization process might not be only discursive but include other dimensions as well. For example, Lounsbury and Crumley (2007) call for closer attention to practices beyond discourses. How institutional entrepreneurs use material and immaterial resources is another dimension that warrants further analysis (Battilana and Leca, forthcoming 2008; Wijen and Ansari, 2007). The present review also suggests an emerging interest in the way institutional entrepreneurs use stable social structures and "institutional pillars" to shape institutional arrangements so as to maintain institutional change (Scott, 2001).

Expanding the levels of analysis

Although most research has essentially been concentrated at the organizational field and inter-organizational levels, this cannot be considered a requirement of institutional theory. Some researchers have begun to account for institutional entrepreneurship at the intra organizational level (e.g., Battilana, 2006; Rothenberg, 2007; Zilber, 2002), but research at this level of analysis remains limited. Further, more systematic efforts might discover new variables and investigate whether they are specific to the individual, or can be transposed to the organizational level.

Because institutional entrepreneurship is a complex process involving different types of actors (e.g., individuals, groups of inidviduals, and organizations), more multi-level studies are needed to account for the field and organization as well as individual level of analysis. Such multi-level research has been suggested as a promising avenue of research within the framework of neo-institutional theory (Friedland and Alford, 1991; Ocasio, 2002; Palmer and Biggart, 2002; Strang and Sine, 2002; Reay, Golden-Biddle and GermAnn, 2006).

Finally, there is a need for more studies that account for actors' (whether organizations or individuals) embeddedness in multiple fields. Currently, analysis of embeddedness is often limited to the boundaries of the field, few studies addressing multi field embeddedness (e.g. Durand and McGuire, 2005; Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006).

Expanding the methods

Overall, there is a need to expand the methods used to study institutional entrepreneurship. Current research privileges discourse analysis in its various forms including critical discourse analysis (Munir and Phillips, 2005), narrative analysis (Zilber, 2007), framing analysis (Creed et al., 2002; Rothenberg, 2007), and rhetoric (Suddaby and Greenwood, 2006). To consider other dimensions such as practices (Lounsbury and Crumley, 2007), social status (Battilana, 2006), and material resources (Wijen and Ansari, 2007) will call for new methods, complementary to those that consider actors' discourse, that focus on actors' actions and, potentially, cognition.

Another important methodological issue is the need for comparison. Empirical research done thus far has been largely through monographs of successful institutional entrepreneurs in organizational fields. Most are process analyses of institutional entrepreneurship based on single, in-depth, longitudinal case-studies (e.g., de Holan and Phillips, 2002; Garud et al., 2002; Munir and Phillips, 2005). This has yielded valuable insights, within limits. To assess these insights and develop others, we need to move beyond idiosyncratic research. Yet, multi-case, comparative research remains rare (for exceptions, see Lawrence et al., 2002; Rothenberg, 2007). Although much could be learned by comparing successful institutional entrepreneurs with failed ones, research thus far has focused almost exclusively on the former, which introduces a strong bias. A method such as qualitative comparative analysis (Fiss, 2007; Ragin, 2000) seems well suited to examining which combinations of variables lead to specific outcomes in the emergence of institutional entrepreneurs or in the diffusion process to which they contribute.

Finally, it seems important to develop a more fine grained analysis that will account for the actions and values of all the agents involved in the process of shaping institutions. To the extent that this is a complex political process, it is necessary to document the actions of those who oppose them as well as of the institutional entrepreneurs (DiMaggio, 1988; Lawrence and Suddaby, 2006).

Potential contributions

It became clear as research on institutional entrepreneurship was developing that contributions could be expected in several domains, the most obvious being institutional

theory, which has become a prominent stream of research in organizational theory. Research on institutional entrepreneurs has been instrumental in restoring agency as a central issue in, and to some extent shaping the evolutionary path of, institutional theory. This is consistent with DiMaggio's (1988) insistence, in his seminal article on the subject, on the importance of interest and agency in institutional theory. Research on institutional entrepreneurship contributed to the further discussion of and development of diverse options for analyzing the somehow paradoxical circumstance of "embedded agency" whereby institutionally embedded agents contribute to the shaping of their institutional environments (e.g., Barley and Tolbert, 1998; Battilana, 2006; Leca and Naccache, 2006; Seo and Creed, 2002).

Research on institutional entrepreneurship has been instrumental in nurturing emerging streams of research in institutional theory such as Lawrence and Suddaby's (2006) "institutional work," which attempts to account for actors' purposive actions intended to create, maintain, and disrupt institutions, or the "practical turn" in the social sciences (Lounsbury and Crumley, 2007). The reviewed research suggests that institutional entrepreneurship remains central to accounting for the interactions between actors and their institutional environments, unintended consequences of their actions, the way institutions are stabilized, and many other dimensions of institutional entrepreneurship that remain to be explored and might make important contributions to institutional theory.

A second, less discussed dimension is the articulation between institutional entrepreneurship and research on entrepreneurship. Phillips and Tracey (2007) recently argued that more dialogue is needed between these two traditions, and prominent researchers in entrepreneurship view this approach as a promising stream in the domain (Ireland, Reutzel, and Webb, 2005). With interest in how existing institutional arrangements shape entrepreneurship growing, research into how entrepreneurs can shape those arrangements seems quite promising. More research is thus needed at the intersection of these two streams.

Finally, practical relevance appears to be an increasing concern. Research on institutional entrepreneurship is contributing to the practical relevance of institutional theory by showing how, under certain conditions, embedded actors can strategically mobilize legitimacy (Suchman, 1995) or shape their markets (e.g., Anand and Watson, 2004; Rao, 1994). Research on institutional entrepreneurship can also help to address concerns of organizational research related to improving social welfare and contributing to the training of

actors for positive change. Authors have already documented cases of institutional entrepreneurs operating to improve social welfare (Rao, 1998) and advocating for HIV/AIDS treatment (Maguire et al., 2004). More recently, Mair and Marti (2006) have used institutional theory to analyze the actions of social entrepreneurs in Bangladesh suggesting that social entrepreneurs should be regarded as institutional entrepreneurs.

CONCLUSION

Our analysis of the literature on institutional entrepreneurship suggests that it constitutes a fairly coherent body of work, and shows that our understanding of institutional entrepreneurship has increased considerably since publication of DiMaggio's seminal paper in 1988. In particular, researchers have managed to establish foundations for a theory of institutional entrepreneurship by identifying a number of enabling conditions and thereby overcoming the paradox of embedded agency. They have also largely captured the process of institutional entrepreneurship.

This paper not only analyzes existing work, but also proposes an ambitious research agenda that calls for a more systematic investigation of institutional entrepreneurship. Many directions for future work remain open. Whereas certain phenomena associated with institutional entrepreneurship have been studied extensively, others have received scant attention. In particular, more comparative studies, studies in mature or stable fields, studies of failing or failed institutional entrepreneurs, and studies of individuals acting as institutional entrepreneurs are needed. These are all promising research directions that would complement the existing body of research on institutional entrepreneurship.

Institutional entrepreneurship has already contributed to the introduction and development of agency within institutional theory. Further insight into institutional entrepreneurship could help to articulate a more complex and extended view of the new institutionalism (Hoffman and Ventresca, 2002), which views actors as both embedded in institutional arrangements and developing creative activities. This intersection between agency and structure remains one of the major challenges to contemporary research in institutional theory.

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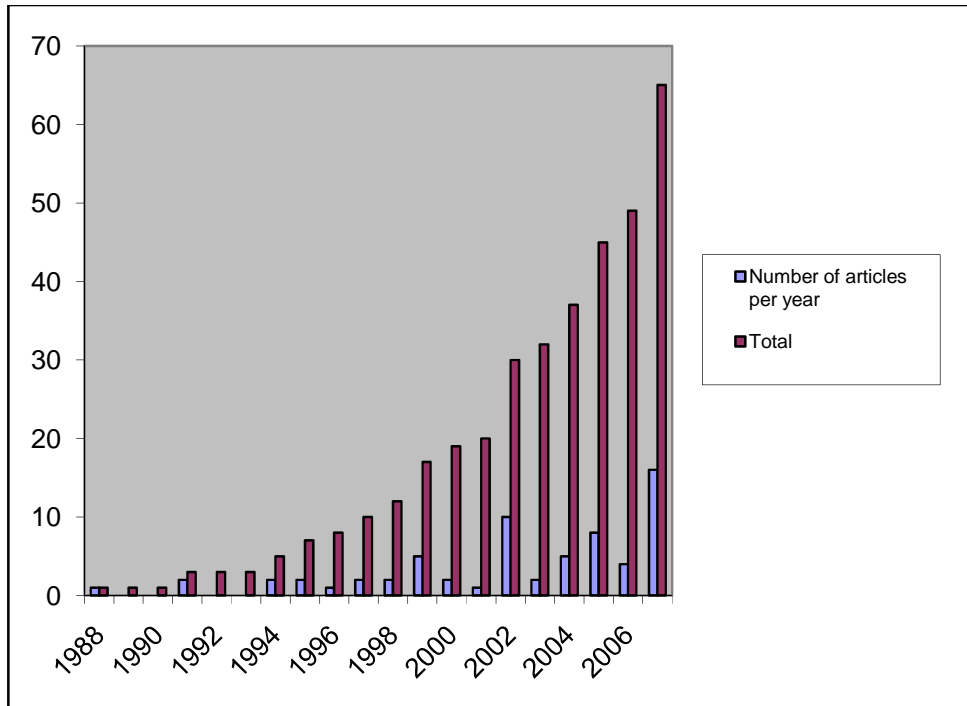
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Figure 1: Evolution of the number of articles on institutional entrepreneurship from 1988-2007

APPENDIX 1

	Reference	Unit of analysis	Enabling conditions	Process	Method and Setting
1	Hardy and Maguire, 2008	NA	Importance of the social position and field conditions.	Importance of interpretive struggles Institutional entrepreneurs use resources, discursive strategies and establish new inter-actor relations	**Theoretical paper** Call for process-centric narratives
2	Battilana and Leca, 2008	NA	The perceived inadequacy of the resources in relation to the institutional environment can lead agents to become institutional entrepreneurs	Tangible resources such as employees and financial and material assets, and intangible resources such as knowledge, reputation, and social capital are used by institutional entrepreneurs when developing their strategies	**Theoretical paper**
3	King and Soule, 2007	Social movement		Development of discursive strategies. Social movements: - Change the discussion and debate around the targeted corporation. - Reconstruct meaning within the organizational environment. - Use broader institutional logics to destabilize institutionalized corporate interests.	**Method:** Quantitative analysis (event analysis) based on secondary sources **Setting:** Financial market
4	Wang and Swanson, 2007	Individuals and organizations		Legitimation through discourse. - Success story. - Coherent vision. - Community mobilization. - Member focus.	**Method:** Multiple sources of data (primary and secondary), inductive coding **Setting:** Emerging field (launching of professional services automation)
5	Child, Lu, and Tsai, 2007	Organizations (state and regulatory agencies)	Institutional entrepreneurs act after critical events that influence the path of institutional development.	Institutional entrepreneurs engage in trajectory activities (i.e., activities that reinforce a regular path of institutional development between two critical events).	**Method:** Longitudinal and historical study, cross-period analysis **Setting:** Emerging field (development of China's

environmental protection system (EPS) over a period of almost 30 years)

#	Author, Year	Level			Method / Setting
6	Lounsbury and Crumley, 2007	Organizations		A process model of new practice creation involving different actors who perform activities in a multitude of ways, thereby giving rise to innovation, is developed. A key condition for practice creation is whether innovations generated by practice become socially recognized as anomalies by field-level actors. If so, field-level negotiations will likely ensue.	**Method**: Field analytic approach **Setting**: Emerging field (creation of active money management practice in the US mutual fund industry)
7	Levy and Scully, 2007	NA		The view of the Modern Prince as a catalyst for auto-emancipation locates the kernel of change within an internal process of organizing and education rather than external shocks or the importation of foreign discourses.	**Theoretical paper** Uses the example of struggles over treatment availability and accessibility within North America and internationally in the field of HIV/AIDS drugs of as an illustrative example
8	Garud, Hardy, and Maguire, 2007	NA	Agency is distributed within the structures actors have created. Consequently, embedding structures do not simply generate constraints on agency, but also provide a platform for the unfolding of entrepreneurial activities.	Mobilization of existing cultural and linguistic materials. Institutional entrepreneurs break with existing institutions to help institutionalize alternative rules, practices, or logics. Institutional entrepreneurs must be skilled actors who can draw on existing cultural and linguistic materials to narrate and theorize change in ways that give other social groups reason to cooperate, as by using strategic framing to justify and building coalitions to help institutionalize new practices.	**Theoretical paper**
9	Zilber, 2007	Individuals		Stories (that link past events to form a plot, position some actors as key to the future of the industry, define heroes and villains, and/or refer to meta narratives) are discursive resources used to affect the institutional order. Shared stories are presented openly; counter narratives are more implicit.	**Method:** Ethnography (field work in a one-day conference, field notes, recording of talks, PowerPoint presentations,

			handouts and observations). **Setting:** Field in crisis (professional conference among nine Israeli high tech industries)
10	Khan, Munir, and Willmott, 2007	Organizations and social movements	A narrative by a coalition of powerful actors (e.g., TV channels, NGOs) is intended to deinstitutionalize involvement of children in the practice of stitching soccer balls in Pakistan. The "dark side" and unintended consequences are considered. **Method:** Qualitative process analysis (field works, interviews, and documents) **Setting:** Transnational field (Siakhot, Pakistan's sportswear industry and western stakeholders)
11	Wijen and Ansari, 2007	Organizations and governments	Use of discourse, material resources, and specifically designed institutional arrangements enable institutional entrepreneurs to solve a collective action problem by: - Achieving power concentration. - Establishing a common ground through framing. - Mobilizing bandwagons. - Designing institutional arrangements that encourage collaboration. - Devising appropriate incentives structures. - Referring to ethics. - Developing implementation mechanisms. **Method:** Secondary data and in-depth interviews with experts, coding of interviews using Atlas/ti to develop a coherent narrative **Setting:** Emerging field (negotiation on climate change and setting of the Kyoto Protocol)
12	Perkmann and Spicer, 2007	Organizations (public bodies)	Theorization of projects, networking, resources mobilization, and discourse move beyond the all encompassing notion of "social skills" to distinguish three kinds of institutional projects that require three different kinds of required skills, which are likely to follow in time: - Interactional (coalition building and bargaining), networking, resource mobilization, organization building (implies political skills). - Technical (theorization through identification of abstract categories), study, analysis, design (implies analytical **Method:** Qualitative process analysis (interviews and archival data) **Setting:** Multiple fields (institutional entrepreneurs shift when fields become mature; e.g., the

#	Reference	Unit of analysis			Method / Setting
				skills). - Cultural (making projects appeal to larger audiences), framing, propagating, advising, teaching (implies cultural skills).	process of creating and institutionalizing the "Euroregion")
13	Mutch, 2007	Individuals	Institutional entrepreneurs are "autonomous reflexive" in Archer's sense (i.e., they complete their own internal conversation in relative isolation from the concerns of others).		**Method:** Historical case study (archival data) **Setting:** Emerging field (action of Andrew Barclay Walker who first hired salaried managers for pubs)
14	Rothenberg, 2007	Individuals	Boundary spanners can change existing institutions by acting as institutional interpreters (who translate and communicate institutional pressures) or institutional entrepreneurs.	Framing the capacities and means used to effect change depends on context: - Institutional entrepreneurs operate under both institutional and technical pressures. - The higher stakeholder salience, the more institutional entrepreneurs can influence the organization and exert power in it. - The more resource slack, the more likely an institutional change will be accepted. - When institutional pressures are perceived to be low, institutional entrepreneurs frame them to present environmental improvements as operational efficiencies.	**Method:** Comparative analysis (interviews, secondary data) **Setting:** Two automobile plants with different configurations of pressures
15	Svejenova, Mazza, and Planellas, 2007	Individuals	Innovation is linked to creativity and theorization.	Reputation (recognition, renown) and dissemination (publications, presentations) help to spread ideas.	**Method:** Qualitative longitudinal analysis, (secondary data such as newspapers and accounts, interviews, advertising, documentation, and visits). **Setting:** Emerging field of the *nueva* cuisine
16	Jain and George, 2007	Organizations		Political actions (lobbying, negotiating, litigating) and dissemination (education) are among a host of political and socio-cognitive strategies used by institutional entrepreneurs to protect, propagate and influence. They first protect the technology form a hostile institutional	**Unit of analysis:** Longitudinal qualitative research (media coverage, internal archival

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#	Author, year	Finding	Level	Method / Setting
		environment, next undertake actions aimed at disseminating it (education, training), then create a supportive institutional environment (through lobbying, negotiation, and litigation). Serendipity is Important to the process.		documents, interviews) **Setting**: Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation and the institutionalization of human embryonic stem cells
17	Markowitz, 2007	Institutional entrepreneurs use framing to develop a specific identity. Based on Benford and Snow's works, Markowitz distinguishes among diagnostic, prognostic, and motivational framing.	Organizations	**Method**: Qualitative analysis (Web sites, company presentations, secondary data) **Setting:** Emerging field (socially responsible fund companies)
18	Phillips and Tracey, 2007	As entrepreneurs, institutional entrepreneurs possess entrepreneurial capabilities and engage in cultural bricolage.	NA — As entrepreneurs, institutional entrepreneurs are involved in opportunity recognition.	**Theoretical paper**
19	Hsu, 2006	Under unstable conditions and contradictory moral logics, institutional entrepreneurs can increase ambiguity (i.e., simultaneously adopt contradictory organizational elements) in order to comply with those logics.	Organizations	**Method**:Ethnography (interviews, participating in the daily activities of the organization) **Setting**: Field with contradictory logics (China in transition)
20	Koene, 2006	Evaluate the influence of the institutional context on the dynamics of institutional change and possibilities for human agency in the process. There are three elements of institutional context: - High/low pressures on the emergence of a field. - Societal confidence in existing institutions. - Power and discretion of the emerging industry (availability of a well developed institutional logic and a vocabulary of legitimation to drive institutional change).	Individuals and organizations	**Method:** Case study **Setting**: Emerging field (temporary work agencies in Nederland)

#	Author / Year	Level			Method / Setting
21	Maguire and Hardy, 2006	Organizations (NGOs, corporations) and states	Institutional entrepreneurs need to be cognizant of and sensitive to the discursive context in which they operate (especially with regard to the relationship between new and legacy discourses).		**Method**: Discourse analysis **Setting**: The emergence of the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs)
22	Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006	Organizations (professional firms, professional associations)		Actors are more likely to act as institutional entrepreneurs when they face adverse performance and/or have connections outside the field supported by, for example: - Boundary misalignment (discrepancy between the scale of operations of an actor and regulatory boundaries). - Boundary bridging (access to actors outside the field). - Resource asymmetry (between the institutional entrepreneur and others in the field).	**Method**: Qualitative and longitudinal **Setting**: Mature field (accounting profession in Alberta)
23	Hwang and Powell, 2005	NA	Create change in institutional arrangements: expansion of rofessional jurisdictions, creation of standards, rule making, theorization and elaboration of new institutional - logics and identities - transpose institutional logics from one setting to another	Often outsiders able to serve as bridges between different spheres Professional and experts are likely to be key institutional entrepreneurs	**Theoretical paper**
24	Munir and Phillips, 2005	Organization		Discursive strategies in an emerging field. Framing.	**Method**: Historical (discourse analysis) **Setting**: Emerging and structuring field (personal photography)
25	Boxenbaum and Battilana, 2005	Individuals	Transposition of a foreign practice to the focal field: - Framing of the transposed entity as a solution to a recognized societal problem. - Timing (transposing when a problem is seen as acute). - Mobilizing organizational collaboration and financial support.	Individuals were enabled by multiple embeddedness, prior knowledge about the transposed entity (diversity management), and a personal interest in diffusing diversity management in Denmark.	**Method**: Real-time data from case study (discourse analysis) **Setting**: Mature field (human resource management in large Danish firms)

26	Demil and Bensédrine, 2005	Organizations	Double strategy. - Legitimation through conformity. - Pressures through financial power over the public agency.	**Method** Qualitative longitudinal case study **Setting** Regulatory process for managing industrial wastes
27	Suddaby and Greenwood, 2005	Organizations	Discursive strategies: - 'institutional vocabularies' – i.e. use of identifying words and referential texts to expose contradictory institutional logics embedded in existing institutional arrangements - Articulation of new institutions within existing arrangements - Theorization of change.	**Method**: Qualitative and longitudinal (using transcripts of testimony before commissions, data analysis including qualitative content analysis, NUD*IST) **Setting**: Mature field (accounting profession in Alberta)
28	Dorado, 2005	NA	- Cognitive, social, and material resource mobilization by framing. - Interpersonal trust. - Collaboration. - Three processes—leveraging (one institutional entrepreneur and backers), accumulating (running in packs), convening (reorganizing the field)—the efficiency of which depends on the type of field. - Distinguishes three kinds of fields: opportunity transparent, opportunity opaque, and hazy. - Temporal orientation towards the future. - Network position.	**Theoretical paper**
29	Durand and McGuire, 2005.	Organization	- Scarcity of resources and challenges in the existing domain. - Opportunities in the new domain in which there is a need for ambiguity reduction. - Builds on the established legitimacy and identity, then adapts to the new domain specificity.	**Method**: Qualitative (interviews, triangulation with earlier study of the same issue) **Setting**: Mature field (business school certification in Europe)

					Theoretical paper
30	Lawrence, Mauws, Dyck, and Kleysen, 2005	NA		Access to the right resources and skills in leveraging these resources. Domination exerted through this access.	Theoretical paper
31	Maguire, Hardy, and Lawrence, 2004	Individuals and organizations		Political struggle in emerging fields: - Subject position (with wide legitimacy and bridging different stakeholders). - Theorization (framing and justification). - Individual characteristics.	**Method:** Qualitative discourse analysis **Setting:** Emerging field (movement against HIV/AIDS in Canada)
32	Phillips, Lawrence, and Hardy, 2004	NA		Discursive activity: legitimacy, resources, formal authority, and centrality support the acknowledgement and consumption of texts.	Theoretical paper
33	Lawrence and Phillips, 2004.	Individuals	Actors, drawing from multiple pre-existing institutional fields and ambiguous and contested macro-cultural discourse, and adapt and modify these institutions to fit their purposes.	- New networks of relationships (cooperation, associations) are formed. - Strategies of the institutional entrepreneur are likely to be more emergent than intended in emerging fields. - In emerging fields, institutional entrepreneurship is likely to be associated with rapid imitation and relatively little conflict.	**Method:** Qualitative (interviews taped, transcribed, and entered into NUD*IST, broader analysis of regulatory discourse, anti-whaling discourse, popular culture discourse) **Setting:** Emerging field (whale watching in British Columbia)
34	Déjean, Gond, and Leca, 2004	Individuals and organizations	Emerging field provides opportunities (need to reduce uncertainty, assure external stakeholders of legitimacy).	Align on the established field's frames.	**Method:** Qualitative (interviews taped, transcribed, and entered into NVivo software program, secondary sources) **Setting:** Emerging field (socially responsible investment in France)

35	Anand and Watson, 2004	Organizations	- Mobilize collective resources. - Frame claim-making efforts. - Delegitimize or assimilate into existing institutions. - Create self-serving logics and categories.	**Method**: Qualitative and quantitative (historical and longitudinal study) **Setting**: Emerging and structuring field (Grammy Awards in the U.S. music industry)
36	Hughes, 2003	Organizations and individuals	Three steps: - Emergence of institutional entrepreneurs (journalists) who hold values that oppose maintenance of the existing regime and become change agents. - Dispersion through macro events (economic and political liberalization) expands the network of civic journalists. - Civic consolidation through maintenance of professional identity despite opposing pressures.	**Method**: Ethnography (in-depth interviews, survey and secondary sources) **Setting**: Mature field (Mexican journalism)
37	Levy and Egan, 2003	Organizations	Institutional entrepreneurs can be positioned at the margins and interstices (facilitated by fragmented and overlapping institutional fields). - Power lies in the alignment of field forces capable of reproducing the field. - Institutional entrepreneurs must provoke shifts in this block. - "War of positions" with incumbents to coordinate sources of power and build alliances.	**Method**: Qualitative research (semi-structured interviews and secondary sources, narrative) **Setting**: Emerging and structuring field (negotiations to control greenhouse gas emissions)
38	Creed, Scully, and Austin, 2002	Social movements	- Framing process using multiple cultural accounts selected for their resonance and the way they alter each other. - Legitimating accounts frame what it means when a person supports or opposes a cause. - These accounts frame identities.	**Method:** Texts and interviews analyzed via framing analysis **Setting:** Debate over workplace non-discrimination on the basis of sexual

					orientation
39	Zimmerman and Zeitz, 2002	NA		Strategies: - Decoupling (limit institutional entrepreneurship to one area and comply in the other areas with established rules). - Institutional entrepreneurs can use social groups' fascination with novel practices and styles.	**Theoretical paper** **Setting**: Emerging fields
40	Seo and Creed, 2002	NA	Contradictions among institutional logics (i.e., ruptures and inconsistencies both among and within established social arrangements) are the fundamental driving force of institutional change. Praxis is a both a reflexive moment, involving the critique of existing patterns and search for alternatives, and an active moment involving mobilization and collective action.	Institutional entrepreneurs must: - Develop alternative models of social arrangements. - Develop frames that are incompatible with the existing arrangement and resonate with maximize mobilization. - Mobilize resources for political action.	**Theoretical paper**
41	de Holan and Phillips, 2002	Individuals and organizations		- Legitimating narratives build on existing societal frames. - Internally, new approaches to human resources management are formulated to attract and reward workers in ways compatible with the dominant ideology.	**Method:** In-depth and longitudinal case study (interviews, visits, notes, and informal conversations) **Setting**: Mature field (Cuban tobacco industry)
42	Dacin, Goodstein, and Scott, 2002	NA	Pressures to change, whether functional, political, or social (Oliver, 1992), operate as a starter.	Change goes through a critical stage of theorization and legitimation by actors. Actors' interpretation is important.	**Theoretical paper** Authors recommend combining qualitative and quantitative methods, intensive interviews, archival records, and participant observation

#	Author	Level	Findings	Method/Setting
43	Greenwood, Suddaby, and Hinings, 2002	Organizations	- Social, technological and regulatory jolts bring about deinstitutionalization. - Institutional entrepreneurs are less captured by prevailing routines. - Being at the interstices of different fields favors awareness of emerging opportunities.	Several stages of institutional change (institutional entrepreneurs operate mainly during deinstitutionalization and theorization): - Theorization involves both specification of the failings of existing norms and practices and justification of new norms and practices. - Resources help institutional entrepreneurs resist opposition. - Powerful established allies (such as professional associations) play an important role in theorizing change.	**Method:** Archival data analysis supplemented by interviews (a chronology of events was constructed and textual analysis performed) **Setting:** Mature field (auditing profession in Alberta)
44	Garud, Jain, and Kumaraswamy, 2002	Organizations	New technologies favor institutional entrepreneurship.	Discursive strategies create a new system of meaning that ties the functioning of disparate sets of institutions together. They do not exacerbate the contradictions inherent in institutions, but rather provide synthesis. Political strategies define, legitimize, combat, or co-opt rivals, and energize efforts towards collective action. Strategies for establishing stable sequences of interaction with other organizations are devised.	**Method:** Naturalistic inquiry (trace historical roots using inductive logic, iterative process that uses publicly available document to bridge data and theory) **Setting:** U.S. software industry
45	Zilber, 2002	Individuals	Institutional entrepreneurs are likely to be central actors.	Institutionalization is a political process imbued with power and individual interests (p. 236). Institutional practices and symbols are used by different actors to gain political power. Institutionalization is an interpretation process with political outcomes. People have the power to decide to become active participants in the process of interpreting institutions.	**Method:** Interpretive research (ethnographic, participant observation, interviews, administrative texts) **Setting:** Israeli rape crisis center
46	Lawrence, Hardy, and Phillips, 2002	Collaboration between organizations		Collaboration can play a role in the production of new emerging institutions (proto institutions) by facilitating their creation and making them available inter-organizationally. Collaborations that enjoy high levels of involvement among partners and are highly embedded in their institutional fields will be positively associated with the creation of new proto-institutions.	**Method:** Qualitative, multi-case, comparative research design **Setting:** Small NGO in Palestine

					Uncertainty favors collaboration.
47	Fligstein, 2001	NA	Crises and external jolts favor institutional entrepreneurs.	- To help induce cooperation, frame stories that appeal to identity and interest. - Acting emphatically is central. - Direct authority favors the diffusion of messages. - To appear hard to read and without values oriented towards personal gain helps institutional entrepreneurs to appear more open to others' needs	**Theoretical paper** Call for longitudinal studies
48	Wade-Benzoni, Hoffman, Thompson, Moore, Gillespie, and Bazerman, 2002	Organizations and groups	Activist groups connect the values of their cause with their personal identities to create a value congruence that is a potent force for social change. They have little material stake in organizational output, but will influence it ideologically.		**Theoretical paper**
49	Rao, Morrill, and Zald, 2000	Organizations	Opportunities arise from market failures: - Failure of trade associations. - Inadequacy of "normal" incentives. - Failure of market mechanisms to reduce social costs. - Exclusion of actors from traditional channels.	- New organizational forms entail an institutionalization project. - Grievances need to be framed and mobilization structures established to obtain support. - Defining and redefining identity is central to building a sustainable coalition. - Opponents to institutional change include reactive politics against social movements such as "spin-off movements," "counter movements," and "boundary truces."	**Theoretical paper**

#	Authors, year	Level			Method / Setting
50	Phillips, Lawrence, and Hardy, 2000	Organizations	- Complex and multi-faceted problems not previously addressed. - Collaboration with actors from other fields enables translation of institutions.	- Institutional entrepreneurs draw from existing institutional structures used as resources in their negotiations. - Innovations are more likely to emerge from collaboration. - Control of scarce and critical resources in the field by institutional entrepreneurs favors institutionalization. - Institutional entrepreneurs' involvement in collective arrangements in the field favors institutionalization.	**Theoretical paper**
51	Beckert, 1999	NA	Institutional stability is the basis for action by institutional entrepreneurs.	Institutional entrepreneurs destroy existing institutions to create the need for certainty, and control the institutional re-embeddedness process.	**Theoretical paper**
52	Lawrence, 1999	Organizations and individuals	The potential for organizational actors to manage institutional structures depends on the nature of the institutional context and the resources held by the interested actors.	Two types of documented institutional strategies: - Membership strategies. - Standardization strategies.	**Method:** Qualitative study (purposive sampling, semi-structured interviews) **Setting:** Emerging field (forensic accounting in Canada)
55	Rao and Sivakumar, 1999	Organizations and social movements		Complementarity between two kinds of institutional entrepreneurs: - Activists (investor rights activists). - Professionals (financial analysts).	**Method:** Qualitative and quantitative study **Setting:** Investor relations departments in the Fortune 500 industrials
54	Hardy and Phillips, 1999	NA	Institutional entrepreneurs develop discursive strategies based on discursive material available in the field and at the societal level.	Discourse at the societal level provides constraints and resources for actors' strategies in the field.	**Method:** Qualitative discourse analysis **Setting:** Editorial cartoons as an indicator of broader societal discourse on refugees in Canada
55	Clemens and Cook, 1999	NA	Three conditions facilitate institutional entrepreneurship: - Mutability of the rules (optional rules	- Institutional entrepreneurs might mobilize by deploying familiar models of social organization in unfamiliar ways. - They might also propose new models when new political	**Theoretical paper**

#	Reference			Method & Setting
		facilitate more change than mandatory ones). - Internal contradictions of institutional arrangements. - Multiplicity of competing institutions constitutes an opportunity for agency. Exogenous events might play a key role in initiating institutional change.	events or arrangements must be interpreted for and legitimated to multiple audiences.	**Method:** Historical case study (mostly qualitative analysis of primary data, such as facts and raw numbers, from archival sources supplemented with secondary sources and theoretical texts) **Setting:** Emerging field (nonprofit consumer watchdog organizations)
56	Rao, 1998	Organizations and social movements	- Institutional entrepreneurs recombine prevalent cultural materials to frame the new form as necessary, valid, and appropriate. - They assemble resources to legitimate the new form and integrate it with the prevalent institutional order. - They must also identify sources of resources, forge alliances, and deal with antagonists and competitors. Political support from states, professions, key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organizations that produce similar goods and services.	
57	Colomy, 1998	NA	Institutional entrepreneurs develop institutionalization projects that condemn existing institutions as evil, and develop alternatives with various scopes. - Importance of conflicts and coalitions. - Importance of accounts, narratives, and cultural dimensions.	**Theoretical paper**
58	Haveman and Rao, 1997	Organizations and social movements	Ideological conflict between two models: - Political strategies (lobbying, public attacks on the opposite model). - Framing (model associated with positive cultural elements). The institutionalized model was a practical solution to a widely experienced problem and was nested in impersonal, institution-based trust (standard structures, stable rules, and legitimate cultural elements). Growing demands by consumers constitute an opportunity for institutional entrepreneurs.	**Method:** Historical analysis (quantitative and qualitative analysis) **Setting:** Emerging field (early thrift industry)

				Theoretical paper
59	Fligstein, 1997	NA	"When the organizational field has no structure, the possibilities for strategic action are the greatest" (p. 401).	The process is one of using selective tactics in response to other actors. The institutional entrepreneur must consider the current condition of the organizational field, the places of the various groups in that field, and the types of strategic action that "make sense" given the objective conditions before choosing a tactic. Many tactics are possible.
60	Fligstein and Mara-Drita, 1996	Individuals and public authorities	An external jolt that cannot be fixed generates a political opportunity for institutional entrepreneurs.	Institutional entrepreneurs must perceive a crisis and recognize their interdependence. They must convince potential allies that the proposal for a new arrangement is in their interest, then negotiate and trade off the interests of surrounding actors. **Method:** Quantitative analysis (the authors use secondary sources to develop hypotheses together with primary archival data) **Setting:** Mature field (European Union in the mid 1980s)
61	Holm, 1995	Organizations	Enabling conditions included a market crisis, relative bargaining position of actor groups, conditions for collective action, and the access structure of the political system.	- Mobilization of allies. - Construction of accounts that makes sense of the proposed institutional project and discredits alternatives. - Use of changing institutional logics. - Construction and politicization of the problem that becomes so important that it merits a place on the political agenda. - Institutional entrepreneurs ensure that the solution survives the various stages of the decision-making process and that votes are cast in their favor. **Method:** Historical case study (qualitative analysis of facts and raw numbers obtained from archival and secondary sources) **Setting:** Mature field (Norwegian fisheries)
62	Suchman, 1995	NA	A weak technical or institutional environment facilitates the task of institutional entrepreneurs.	Institutional entrepreneurs must legitimize their institutional project using pragmatic legitimacy (organizational and personal reputation with respect to reliability and performance), moral legitimacy (embedding new structures and practices in networks of already legitimate institutions), and cognitive legitimacy (conforming to established models or standards). **Theoretical paper**

				Theoretical paper
63	Colomy and Rhoades, 1994	NA		- Institutional entrepreneurs carve a free space by formulating and attempting to institutionalize an innovative project. - Projects are elaborated and legitimated through prototyping (look to the past or present to define the project). - Institutional entrepreneurs frame projects to maximize support and defuse resistance.
64	Rao, 1994	Organizations and associations	Ambiguity, field emergence, lack of standards in a field.	Institutional entrepreneurs engage in a legitimation process when pursuing repeated certification of their organization. - Define, legitimate, combat, or co-opt rivals to succeed in their institutional projects. - Skillfully use culture to legitimate their organizational innovations.	**Method/** Archival data (quantitative paper on the causal relationship between certification (independent variable) and (a) reputation, (b) organizational survival) **Setting:** Emerging field (U.S. automobile industry)
65	DiMaggio, 1991	Organizations and individuals	Increased municipal support for the sector and ideological fit between institutional entrepreneurs and strategically positioned groups in the sector increased the ideological, human, and financial resources that were available.	The process is one of interest-driven conflict and professionalization. The formation of formal associations and emergence of a disciplinary voice (i.e., professionalization) led to the establishment of a new field defined by informal and associational activities among institutional entrepreneurs. The emergent field attracted additional resources for development. The process consisted of the creation of a body of knowledge, organization of professional associations, consolidation of a professional elite, increases in the organizational salience of professional expertise, density of organizational contacts, and flow of information, and the emergence of center-periphery structure and collective definition of a field.	**Method:** Historical case study (qualitative analysis of archival data and secondary sources) **Setting:** U.S. Art Museums, 1920-1940

66	Leblebici, Salancik, Copay, and King, 1991	**Unit of analysis:** Organizations	The social order exhibited inconsistency or conflict at the macro and micro levels.	Institutional entrepreneurs act from the fringe to the center, developing agreements with identifiable parties, diffusing to key constituents, and thereby eroding the centrality of the established players.	**Method:** Qualitative analysis of raw data and events from archival and secondary sources **Setting:** Emerging field (U.S. radio broadcasting industry)
67	DiMaggio, 1988	Individuals	**Recognition of individual interests beyond the universal human interests in certainty and survival, both of which are already acknowledged in institutional theory.**	Institutional effects occur because actors engage in structural politics. Institutional reproduction, creation of institutions and de-institutionalization all require political action, e.g., legitimating accounts of an institutionalization project, and mobilization of constituents and financial support.	**Theoretical paper**