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Institutional Theory in Sport: A Scoping Review

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1 **Institutional Theory in Sport: A Scoping Review**

2 Institutional theory has generated considerable insight into fundamental issues within sport.

3 This study seeks to advance Washington and Patterson's (2011) review by providing an

4 empirical review of institutional theory in sport. We follow Arksey and O'Malley's (2005)

5 scoping review protocol to identify 188 sport related institutional studies between 1979 and

6 2019. Our review provides evidence regarding the state of institutional scholarship within sport

7 via an analysis of authorship; year; journal; methodology; method; study population; and use

8 of institutional constructs (legitimacy, isomorphism, change, logics, fields, and work). Rather

9 than a hostile takeover or a joint venture proposed in Washington and Patterson's (2011)

10 review, the relationship between fields is more aptly described as a diffusion of ideas. By

11 developing an empirical review of institutional studies in sport, we hope to expedite the

12 diffusion of ideas between the two fields and work toward realising the collective benefits any

13 future joint venture may bring.

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15 *Keywords*: legitimacy, isomorphism, change, fields, logics, work

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Introduction

We can state, without hyperbole, that concepts from the institutional theory perspective have become institutionalized in the sport management literature. Concepts such as isomorphism, institutionalization, legitimacy, and organizational fields dominate subsequent research in that area. Around the same time that Powell and DiMaggio's (1991) 'orange book' was released, early sport management scholars, led by Trevor Slack, started applying the concepts of institutional theory to the sport context. Since then, the neo-institutional approach (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991) has generated considerable insights into sport and has sought to explain fundamental issues within the field. These include what makes (sport) organizations so similar? Why do they adopt practices that are seemingly irrational? And how can we explain organizational change within sport organizations? Early institutional studies examined how institutional arrangements influence structure, design, and behavior of sport organizations (e.g., Kikulis, et al., 1992). This included explaining the shift from amateurism to professionalism within sport organizations and systems (e.g., O'Brien & Slack, 1999). These studies addressed how sport organizations can navigate their institutional environments to survive. Emphasis here included how and in what ways sport organizations respond to institutional pressures (e.g., Slack & Hinings, 1994).

More contemporary institutional research has challenged the underlying assumptions of neo-institutionalism and the deterministic viewpoint that actors are "cultural dopes" subject to the "iron cage" of institutional forces (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991). Instead, institutional scholars, including some sport management researchers, have turned their attention to how actors are able to influence (i.e., create, maintain, and disrupt) institutional arrangements (e.g., Agyemang et al., 2018). This re-orientation towards agency has produced a raft of new institutional-related research in sport which has sought to examine how

44   individuals and sport organizations are able to change or adapt their institutional

45   environments (e.g., Nite & Edwards, 2021).

46   Despite the continued contribution of institutional theory to sport, there remains

47   definitional ambiguities surrounding the central concept of what constitutes an "institution".

48   The term institution is homonymous. Ranging from narrow definitions of organizational

49   types such as prisons or universities (i.e., equating institutions to organizations), to broader

50   definitions such as "self-reproducing social order" which involves "cognitive, normative and

51   regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behavior"

52   (Scott, 1995, p. 33). We adopted Greenwood et al. (2017) definition of institutions as "more-

53   or-less taken for granted repetitive social behavior that is underpinned by normative systems

54   and cognitive understandings that give meaning to social exchange and thus self-reproducing

55   social order" (pp. 4-5). This broader view ensured our review encapsulated as much of the

56   institutional-related sport literature as possible whilst delimiting it to organizational

57   institutionalism (Greenwood et al., 2017). In adopting this definition, the purpose of the

58   present study is to empirically review the use of institutional theory in sport literature. In

59   doing so, we seek to review scholarship that has utilized institutional approaches to

60   investigate phenomena in the empirical context of sport and provide recommendations for

61   future research.

62   Periodically, institutional theorists have taken stock of the field to stimulate

63   discussion and advance knowledge. In the mainstream literature this has often occurred in the

64   form of key texts such as DiMaggio and Powell's (1991) 'orange book' or more recently

65   Greenwood et al's (2008; 2017) 'green books'. Within sport management these discussions

66   have taken the form of narrative reviews of institutional theory and sport management

67   research (Washington & Patterson, 2011), and more specific discussions based on the

68   development of specific constructs such as institutional work (Nite & Edwards, 2021). Our

69   scoping review complements these studies by offering the first empirical review of the

70   institutional theory in sport literature. By reviewing the insights of 188 institutional theory

71   studies in the context of sport since 1979, we hope to add to this literature via an exploration

72   of the growth, breadth, and development of institutional theory in sport.

Methods

74   Scoping reviews enable researchers to review knowledge in a field by adopting a

75   "systematic approach to map evidence, identify main concepts, theories, sources, and

76   knowledge gaps" (Tricco et al., 2018, p. 467). More specifically, they allow researchers to

77   determine the extent, nature, and range of evidence on a topic, and are particularly useful for

78   summarizing findings within research domains characterized by a heterogenous body of

79   knowledge (Tricco et al., 2018). Relative to other types of reviews such as meta-research

80   (i.e., syntheses of existing reviews) and systematic reviews (i.e., exhaustive reviews of

81   narrow content domains based on pre-established inclusion and exclusion criteria), scoping

82   review protocols are particularly appropriate for developing a structured approach to mapping

83   the broad field of institutional studies in the sport domain (Dowling et al., 2020) and were

84   therefore selected for this study. This study adopted Arksey and O'Malley's (2005) scoping

85   review protocol. Arksey and O'Malley outline a five-stage protocol (i) identification of

86   research question, (ii) determination of relevant studies, (iii) study selection, (iv) charting the

87   data, and (v) collating, summarizing, and reporting the results. We also adopted the Preferred

88   Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Review

89   (PRISMA-SCR) (Tricco et al., 2018) which provided a 20-point checklist for presenting

90   scoping reviews.

91   **Identification of Research Question**

92   Our review sought to answer the following research question: How has institutional

93   theory been employed within sport related studies? In particular, the project had three aims:

94   (i) to investigate what is known about institutional theory within the empirical context of

95   sport; (ii) to investigate how the use of different institutional constructs (i.e., institutional

96   theory) within sport related literature has changed over time; and (iii) to identify potential

97   future directions of research within institutional theory and sport related literature.

98   **Determination of Relevant Studies**

99   In August 2019, three electronic databases were searched (Scopus, Web of Science,

100   SPORTDiscus) to ensure a comprehensive coverage of institutional studies in sport. The

101   electronic database search terms "Institution*" AND "Sport*" (All-Fields) yielded a total of

102   3091 hits (Scopus n=1302, Web of Science n=1515, SPORTDiscus n=274). We further

103   refined our search by focusing on peer-reviewed and English-language journal articles only.

104   We also deliberately chose not to delimit our timeframe to ensure complete coverage of the

105   literature. Consequently, all articles prior to August 2019, and those "in press" at this time,

106   were included in our review. Through this process of refinement and once duplicates were

107   removed, a total of 1995 articles were identified for further analysis.

108   **Study Selection**

109   To eliminate irrelevant studies, the research team developed explicit inclusion and

110   exclusion criteria. Consistent with Arksey and O'Malley's (2005) protocol, these inclusion

111   and exclusion criterion were developed post-hoc through an iterative process. In addition to

112   the journal article and English language delimiters outlined above, an article was included if

113   it utilized or engaged with concepts derived from organizational institutionalism (per Hall &

114   Taylor, 1996) or referred to new institutionalism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991) as opposed to

115   alternate schools of institutionalism such as institutional economics and rational choice. This

116   included any study which utilized core (e.g., isomorphism, legitimacy, logics, institutional/

117   organizational change, fields) or secondary (e.g., decoupling, deinstitutionalization,

118   entrepreneur, hybridity, social movements, pluralism, materiality, leadership) institutional

119   concepts identified within the SAGE Handbook of Organizational Institutionalism

120   (Greenwood et al. 2017). Delimiting studies in this way ensured that our final data set

121   included studies which utilized the theoretical, rather than normative use of the term

122   institution, which often describes organizational contexts (e.g., university, school, or

123   hospital), subsets of these contexts (e.g., institutional review board), or descriptions of

124   institutionalized persons (e.g., prisoners, mental health patients, aged care residents).

125   To ensure the reliability of the selection process, the first and second author

126   conducted an inter-coder reliability test on 100 articles from the SPORTDiscus database (first

127   100 automatically sorted by relevance according to EBSCO Host's algorithm). This process

128   returned an initial result of 96% agreement, with only minor differences between reviewers

129   on the remaining 4% of citations that were rectified upon discussion. Following this, the first

130   four authors, then independently conducted a title and abstract review of citations to ensure

131   that they met the inclusion criteria. Through this process a total of 209 studies were selected

132   for full-text analysis. A further 50 studies were excluded upon an analysis of their full text,

133   leaving 159 studies in our database. We conducted a manual search of all reference lists of

134   these 159 studies identified in the database search to identify any additional citations that

135   were not captured in the initial search. This extra step identified 29 additional relevant studies

136   and took our final database to 188 studies.

137   **Charting the Data**

138   The next stage of the process involved charting and data extraction from the 188

139   citations identified from the search process. Data extraction was carried out using Microsoft

140   Excel and involved collecting the following information on all citations: author, publication

141   year, title, journal, journal type (i.e., sport or non-sport journal), abstract, study purpose,

142   research questions, study location, article type (i.e., empirical/non-empirical), methodology,

143   method, study population (e.g., national sport organizations), sport (e.g., football), use of

144   theory (specific/general), core constructs (e.g., isomorphism), dynamics and processes (e.g.,

145   coercive pressures). The selection of these variables was based upon the research question

146   and overall aims. All articles were then randomly divided across the research team to extract

147   the relevant data. The research team also met regularly throughout this stage to ensure

148   accuracy and consistency of the data extraction process.

149   **Collating, Summarizing and Reporting Results**

150   A frequency and thematic analysis of the final database was then conducted.

151   Frequency analysis is a descriptive statistical method that shows the number of occurrences

152   for each variable. This analysis primarily focused on publication frequency by year,

153   publication by journal, and geographical distribution of studies. We ran frequency analyses

154   for publication by authors, study population, type of sport, article types and methods. We

155   were also particularly interested in how institutional concepts had been adopted and utilized

156   within the sport literature, so we ran frequency analyses of constructs over time. For our

157   thematic analysis, we structured our review around the five core constructs (or tenets)

158   identified by Washington and Patterson (2011): legitimacy, isomorphism, fields,

159   organizational change, and logics. This enabled us to make direct comparisons about how the

160   use of institutional theory in sport had changed over time. Additionally, the research team

161   were also conscious of ensuring that we fully captured the use of any new concepts or recent

162   developments that emerged within mainstream management and sport literature. For this

163   reason, we added a sixth construct (institutional work and entrepreneurship), which emerged

164   as an increasingly influential area of research both within the mainstream and sport

165   management literature (Nite & Edwards, 2021). The next section presents the frequency and

166   thematic analyses in full.

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169   **Findings and Discussion**

170   **Descriptive Analysis**

171   The analysis yielded a comprehensive framework from which to describe the state of

172   institutional theory in sport. The findings indicated that 229 researchers had (co)authored 188

173   studies since 1979. Indicative of the growth of the field, and institutional theory itself, over

174   half (54%) of these studies have been published since 2013. Three in four studies (76%) were

175   located within sport journals, with the *Journal of Sport Management* (31, 17%); *Sport*

176   *Management Review* (24, 13%); *European Sport Management Quarterly* (15, 8%); and

177   *International Review of the Sociology of Sport* (12, 6%) the most prominent. The remaining

178   studies mainly appeared in mainstream management literature with the most common

179   journals identified as *Academy of Management Journal* (4), *Organization Studies* (3); and

180   *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences* (3). The most prolific researchers were

181   identified as Trevor Slack (19), Marvin Washington (11), Eivind Skille (10), and Bob

182   Hinings (10).

183   Nine in ten studies that utilized institutional theories were empirical (168, 89%),

184   rather than conceptual or non-empirical (20, 11%). Qualitative methodologies were the most

185   prominent within empirical studies (128, 76%); followed by quantitative (21, 13%); and

186   mixed methods (19, 11%). Document analysis (41%), interviews (36%), observations (9%)

187   and questionnaire/survey (6%) were the most frequently employed qualitative methodologies.

188   Institutional theories were applied relatively evenly across a range of organizational contexts

189   including national sport organizations (33, 18%); clubs (30, 16%); universities (primarily in

190   the United States; 25, 13%); international federations (18, 10%); and leagues (15, 8%). A

191   propensity for researchers to investigate multiple organizational contexts (32, 17%) within a

192   single study was also noteworthy, in part due to the investigation of underlying social

193   structures common within the institutional perspective.

194   **Institutional Constructs**

195   Three-hundred-and-six institutional constructs were utilized within the 188 studies

196   identified in our population, averaging 1.6 constructs per study. Building on the work of

197   Washington and Patterson (2011), the most applied constructs were *change* (77);

198   *legitimization* (including [de]institutionalization) (73); *isomorphism* (49); *logics* (46); *work*

199   (including entrepreneurship) (26); *fields* (27); and *other* (i.e., translation, leadership,

200   decoupling) (8). Figure 1 outlines the relative usage of constructs over time (i.e., the

201   percentage of studies that used a construct to that point in time).

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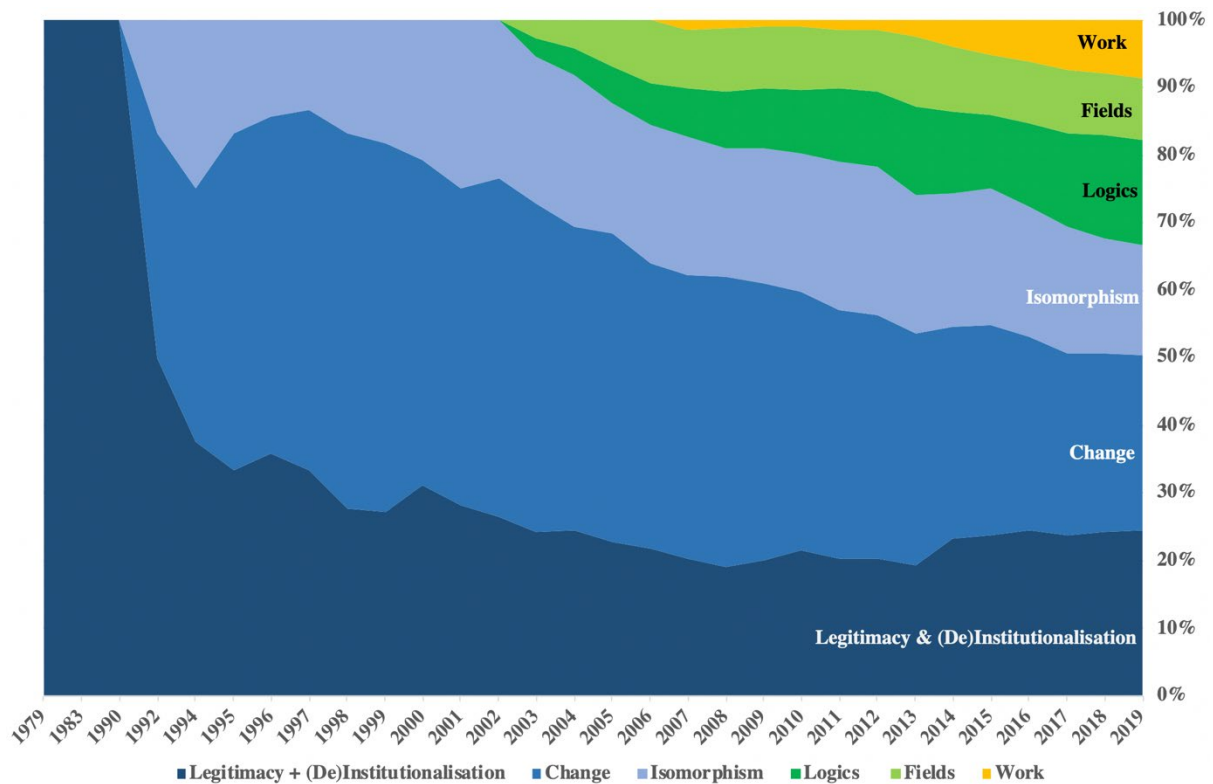
203   The first generation of constructs in blue consisted of legitimization, change and

204   isomorphism and were the foundational constructs upon which neo-institutionalism

205   developed in mainstream management and sociological discourses from the late 1970s to the

206   mid-1990s (e.g., DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). This group of

207   constructs accounted for all studies in our analysis until the mid-2000s. The second

208   generation of constructs consisted of logics and fields (e.g., Friedland & Alford, 1991;

209   Thornton & Ocasio, 1999). These views came to prominence within the sport management

210   literature in the mid-2000s to explain issues of competing logics within predefined areas of

211   organizational life. They also spawned several sub-domains including complexity, pluralism

212   and hybridity that are becoming more common in the literature. The third and final

213   generation picks up on the agency turn in institutional scholarship that broadly encompasses

214   notions of institutional work and entrepreneurship (DiMaggio, 1988; Lawrence & Suddaby,

215   2006). These constructs focus more on the links between institutional structures and agency

216   to better understand how agents (e.g., individuals, organizations) can influence the creation,

217   maintenance, and disruption of institutions.

218   Figure 2 presents the six constructs of institutional theory developed by Washington

219   and Patterson (2011) and Greenwood et al. (2008). In addition, we extend on their work by

220   incorporating contemporary reviews and sub-classifications of each construct to help us, and

221   the field, conceptualize the broad domain of institutional theory in sport (e.g., Durand &

222   Thornton, 2018; Micelotta et al., 2017; Suddaby et al., 2017). We do not claim or assert the

223   relative propriety of these frameworks in comparison to the multitude of others available,

224   however, we look to these works as effective conceptual tools to organize our thinking and to

225   demonstrate the scope of the field. Each construct will be discussed below.

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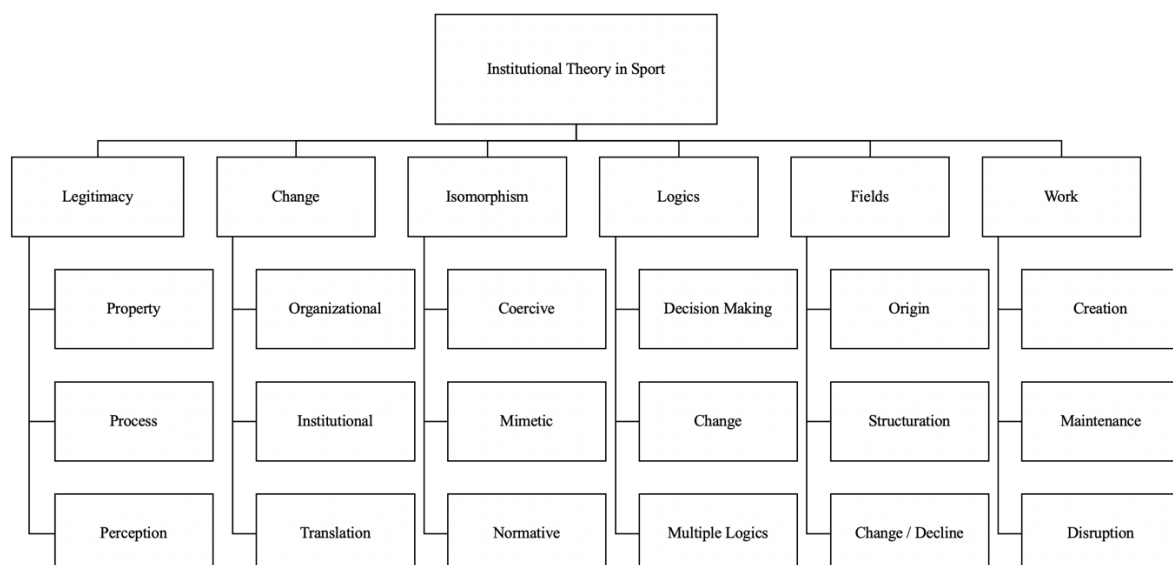
227   **Legitimacy and Institutionalization**

228   Our analysis revealed forty-one studies that investigated legitimacy. Organizational

229   legitimacy can be defined as "the perceived appropriateness of an organization to a social

230   system in terms of rules, values, norms, and definitions" (Deephouse et al., 2017, p. 32).

231   Whilst the literature has identified many types of legitimacy (e.g., pragmatic, moral,

232   cognitive), we draw from the legitimacy review study conducted by Suddaby et al. (2017)

233   that identified three sub-research domains: legitimacy-as-property (i.e., as something an

234   organization owns); legitimacy-as-process (i.e., socially constructed via interactions between

235   actors); and legitimacy-as-perception (i.e., a collective social judgement or evaluation).

236   The concept of legitimacy as a property that an organization owns has been utilized to

237   explain a wide range of settings including the regulatory legitimacy of new lifestyle sports

238   (e.g., Batuev & Robinson, 2018) and the utility of legitimacy to attract funding, support

239   policy goals, and to provide governance oversight (e.g., Stenling & Sam, 2017). When

240   viewed as a process, legitimacy studies have investigated the legitimation processes of

241   various sport leagues, associations, and regulatory bodies (e.g., Read et al., 2019). Finally, a

242   small but promising area of research has investigated perceptions of legitimacy. Particularly

243   noteworthy here is the development of a framework that identified six themes that influenced

244   how stakeholders perceive the legitimacy of a sport organization: role in community, staff

245   and organizational behavior, valuing community, development approach, local players, and

246   trialling procedures (Lock et al., 2015).

247   Institutionalization and legitimacy often work in a symbiotic manner (e.g., Meyer &

248   Rowan, 1977). From this perspective, institutionalization can be thought of as a "specified

249   process of the social construction of value and the attainment of legitimacy… where certain

250   practices can be seen as the only natural way of action" (Washington & Patterson, 2011, p.

251   5). Our analysis identified twenty-one studies that specifically investigated a form of

252   institutionalization. For example, the institutionalization of governance and control structures

253   (Kikulis, 2000); or anti-ambush marketing legislation within the Olympic movement (Ellis et

254   al., 2016). Eleven further studies investigated deinstitutionalization (i.e., the reversal of

255   institutionalization processes) and were particularly prevalent in early institutional change

256   studies (e.g., O'Brien & Slack, 1999). An inherent difficulty in institutionalization studies is

257   the description of a program or structure that has, or is becoming, taken for granted or the

258   natural way of action. Consequently, many studies couple institutionalization as a point of

259   reference for historical activity that has subsequently been challenged or changed.

260   **Change**

261   Seventy-seven studies were identified in our review that broadly related to change.

262   Although we recognize their overlap, studies were categorized into three indicative areas:

263   *organizational change* (n=26); *institutional change* (n=44), and *translation* (n=7).

264   ***Organizational change***

265   The first generation of change research grew out of an attempt to understand how the

266   institutional environment influenced the structure, design, and values of sport organizations

267   (e.g., Amis et al., 2004) (n=19). This body of research utilized design archetypes as

268   representations of organizations (e.g., Kikulis et al., 1992), and plotted these archetypes

269   against change tracks to determine the "incidence, nature and cause of movements and the

270   absence of movement *between* archetypes" (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988, p. 303). The

271   cumulation of this work was a more nuanced theoretical understanding of differences in the

272   pace (initially quick, then slower), sequence (initially high-impact areas such as the board),

273   and linearity (or more accurately non-linearity of change involving "oscillations and

274   reversals") of organizational change (Amis et al., 2004). A second group of studies utilized

275   Pettigrew's (1987) contextualist approach to understand change based on content, context,

276   and process (n=4). This viewpoint offered a strong grounding in the external conditions for

277   change to help explain organizational change in transforming societies, or broad shifts in

278   national sport systems (e.g., Girginov & Sandanski, 2008). The final subset of studies built on

279   Laughlin's (1991) models of rebuttal, reorientation, colonization, and evolution to explain

280   organizational change (n=3), drawing from more critical forms of inquiry to surface internal

281   complexities and tensions in the change process (e.g., Zakus & Skinner, 2008).

282   ***Institutional Change***

283   Institutional change is broadly understood as differences in the "form, quality, or state

284   over time in an institution… [between] two or more points in time on a set of dimensions

285   (e.g., frames, norms, or rules)" (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006, p. 866). We adopt the

286   typology developed by Micelotta et al. (2017) that consists of: displacement, alignment,

287   accommodation, and accretion, to classify the institutional change literature. Displacement

288   studies investigate how institutions change when one set of institutional frames, norms, rules,

289   or logics, are displaced by another (n=7). Within sport, this included how professionalism

290   displaced amateurism in English cricket organizations (e.g., Wright & Zammuto, 2013), or

291   how cultures of similarity were challenged by diversity initiatives (e.g., Cunningham, 2009).

292   Alignment research (n=19) has investigated how "institutional entrepreneurs embed

293   changes into existing institutions and how macro-environmental evolutions can entail gradual

294   and piecemeal institutional transitions" (Micelotta et al., 2017, p. 1901). For example, as

295   societal norms and expectations changed toward concussion (e.g., Heinze & Lu, 2017); pay

296   (e.g., Wright & Zammuto, 2013); and intercollegiate sport (e.g., Nite et al., 2019); powerful

297   organizational actors worked to align their institutional fields with these changes to preserve

298   the prevailing institutional structure. In fragmented and contested domains, forms of

299   accommodation may occur between challengers seeking "to profoundly reconfigure the

300   redistribution of material and symbolic resources" and incumbents who benefit from the

301   existing arrangements and seek to protect their position (Micelotta et al., 2017, p. 1902)

302   (n=6). Studies have demonstrated the complex stakeholder environments in sport necessitate

303   accommodation (e.g., Pedras et al., 2020) and can turn to innovative ideas such as the

304   development of a separate shareholding company to accommodate competing logics within a

305   single organization (Skirstad & Chelladurai, 2011). Finally, an emerging area of institutional

306   research investigates the accretion of "bottom-up", "uncoordinated", or the "amplification of

307   micro-level interactions" that can lead to transformational institutional change (n=3). For

308   example, changes in sport participation (Borgers et al., 2019); discursive practices between

309   institutional entrepreneurs and defenders (Lakshman & Akhter, 2015); and the "unintentional

310   coproduction" embedded in the everyday organizational life of sport organizations (Fahlén &

311   Stenling, 2019) can all, over time, lead to substantive institutional change.

312   ***Translation***

313   Translation primarily investigates how ideas travel (n=8). The concept is broadly

314   defined as when "new ideas are combined with already existing institutional practices and …

315   involves the combination of new externally given elements received through diffusion as well

316   as old locally given ones inherited from the past" (Campbell, 2004, p. 80). The concept of

317   translation has been used in a relatively specific manner in sport studies. Predominately by

318   Scandinavian scholars to investigate how sport policies and programmes from central

319   formulators are translated and applied by implementors in local contexts (e.g., Skille, 2011).

320   **Isomorphism**

321   Generally, isomorphism refers to the notion that institutionalized ideas can influence

322   organizations to embrace structures and forms that resemble other organizations in the field

323   and as a result become increasingly similar (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). More specifically, it

324   has been argued that "organizations increasingly become isomorphic [i.e., similar] over time

325   as they collectively incorporate templates for organizing from their institutional environment

326   in search of legitimacy" (Heugens & Lander, 2009, p. 61). However, this process assumes

327   that adopting these specific practices will help provide a competitive advantage for the

328   organization (i.e., adoption = survival) when in reality this notion is a myth (Meyer &

329   Rowan, 1977). Forty-nine studies in this analysis considered isomorphism in their research.

330   Several moderating field level influences on isomorphic processes have been

331   identified. For example, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) detailed three generic isomorphic

332   pressures that can lead organizations to become increasingly similar (mimetic processes,

333   normative pressures, and coercive isomorphism). Mimetic processes are often caused by

334   uncertainty (ambiguous goals or environmental) and during these times, organizations will

335   try to copy or imitate others who are seen as successful or legitimate (DiMaggio & Powell,

336   1983). Normative pressures on the other hand are associated with the adoption of practices or

337   structures concerning what is generally considered to be a proper course of action within a

338   particular field (e.g., professionalization) (Greenwood et al., 2008). Finally, coercive

339   isomorphism is the product of power relationships and politics. Often, it results from "both

340   formal and informal pressures exerted on organizations by other organizations upon which

341   they are dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organizations

342   function" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). Many of the studies in this review (n=31) that

343   applied isomorphism as a main construct also discussed the impacts of all three pressures. For

344   example, Slack and Hinings (1994) used the concept of isomorphism and related institutional

345   pressures to explore the emergence of professional and bureaucratic organisational structures

346   in Canadian national sport organizations. On the other hand, some studies referred to the

347   generic isomorphic pressures without specifically discussing isomorphism as a core construct

348   (n=4). Leopkey and Parent (2012) for example, used DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) three

349   generic pressures to describe how the concept of event legacy became institutionalized within

350   the Olympic Movement. Twelve studies utilized isomorphism as a core construct but did not

351   detail the isomorphic processes involved.

352   **Logics**

353   The concept of institutional logics emerged and evolved in response to common

354   concerns within organization studies generally, and neo institutionalism specifically (e.g.,

355   agency, bounded rationality, and disproportionate attention on both mimetic isomorphism

356   and the structural influence of organizational fields) (Durand & Thornton, 2018). Thornton

357   and Ocasio (1999) defined institutional logics as "the socially constructed historical patterns

358   of cultural symbols and material practices, assumptions, values, and beliefs by which

359   individuals produce and reproduce their material subsistence, organize time and space, and

360   provide meaning to their daily activity" (p. 804). Ultimately, logics are understood as guiding

361   principles that are both influenced by, and have an influence on, the behavior of actors and

362   organizations within social and institutional contexts. It is this (i.e., Thornton & Ocasio,

363   1999) approach to logics, alongside that of Friedland and Alford (1991), that guided the

364   majority of the forty-six studies in this review.

365   We structure our review of logic studies in sport by combining areas of focus

366   identified in Durand and Thornton's (2018) review and those of Lounsbury et al., (2017).

367   Together these studies observe that research on logics tends to cover three key areas: logics

368   and decision-making, changing logics, and dealing with multiple institutional logics.

369   *Logics and Decision-making*

370   Fundamentally, logics are understood as a frame for organizational decision-making

371   and action. While some studies have specifically examined this relationship, fewer have

372   focused here compared to the other two areas. Those that have, largely concentrated on the

373   differing impact of multiple logics. For instance, Southall et al. (2008) examined how the

374   dual logics of education and commercialism impacted the television representation of the

375   National Collegiate Athletic Association's (NCAA) "March Madness" basketball event. In

376   doing so, they found that the education logic had very little influence on related strategic

377 decision-making, while the dominant commercial logic directly impacted strategic choices

378 related to television production. They argued this supports the contention that even when

379 multiple logics were present, a dominant logic held a greater influence on decision-making,

380 while other logics may exist purely for "ceremonial conformity" (p. 694) in aid of legitimacy.

381 ***Changing Logics***

382   Despite the stability often associated with institutions, the idea that logics emerge and

383 evolve over time in response to various social and institutional pressures is central to our

384 understanding of logics (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008). As such, changing logics is among the

385 most prominent and enduring elements of logics research in both mainstream- and sport-

386 management literatures. Researchers have centred their examinations on the antecedents of,

387 and organizational responses to, changing logics and the consequences of those changes on

388 organizations. With respect to antecedents, studies have identified a variety of internal and

389 external, actions, forces and pressures that have influenced change (e.g., Borgers et al., 2018).

390 Organizational responses to, and consequences from changing logics have also received

391 attention. Nite (2017) for instance examined how the NCAA used media message framing to

392 undertake the institutional maintenance work to protect existing logics in response to external

393 pressures for change. Finally, some studies in this area have specifically addressed a call for

394 research by Washington and Patterson (2011) on the dynamics of creating and changing

395 logics in field level institutions. Hemme and Morais (2021), for example, identified and

396 described five rhetorical strategies used by the National Parks and Recreation Association to

397 develop and promote the field-level logic of public recreation in the United States.

398 ***Dealing with Multiple Institutional Logics***

399   Greenwood et al. (2017) argue that "understanding how organizations cope with

400 multiple logics is a priority in institutional research because scholars acknowledge that such

401 plurality is rather the norm than the exception" (p. 11). The importance and pervasiveness of

402   multiple logics is reflected in the fact that many logic studies identified here considered

403   multiple logics. Organization can exist within more than one institutional sphere

404   simultaneously, and are consequently faced with negotiating multiple, pluralistic logics.

405   Institutional complexity subsequently arises out of the existence of pluralism and generates

406   varied responses to coping with conflicting and competing logics, such as hybrid forms of

407   organizing (e.g., Svensson, 2017). The exploration of responses to institutional complexity

408   was found to be central to the sport literature (e.g., Pedras et al., 2020). In particular, the

409   strategies of structural differentiation, or compartmentalization and effective leadership,

410   cultural buy-in, and stakeholder management were noted (e.g., Skirstad & Chelladurai, 2011).

411   Finally, researchers in sport have taken a closer look at the impact (real or hypothetical) of

412   specific sets of circumstances on the tensions between multiple logics at both the

413   organizational and field level. For example, Pedras et al. (2020) found that the threat of

414   insolvency "coalesced tension and compatibility between logics" (p. 494) at Triathlon

415   Australia, whilst Agyemang et al. (2018) found that tensions between competing logics were

416   eased by the perception of having to maintain an institution in response to a threat.

417   **Fields**

418   Fields are arguably the central organizing concept of institutional theory, Scott (2014)

419   suggests their understanding and use continues to be both "widely accepted and hotly

420   contested" (p. 219). The conceptual focus in sport studies seemingly revolves around the

421   formative definition of fields put forward by DiMaggio and Powell (1983) and supported by

422   Bourdieu's (1990) foundational notion of field. Of the 27 studies identified as directly

423   engaging with the concept of fields, 18 provided a clear definition of fields and of those, 16

424   utilized DiMaggio and Powell's conceptualization to guide their understanding, while seven

425   of those also explicitly engaged with Bourdieu's concept of field. Kitchin and Howe (2013)

426   provided a review of how elements of Bourdieu's practice theory (namely habitus, capital,

427   and most importantly field) could be integrated into sport management research.

428   DiMaggio and Powell (1983) define organizational fields as "those organizations that,

429   in the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of life: key suppliers, resource and product

430   consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organizations that produce similar services or

431   products" (p. 148). Washington and Patterson (2011) argued that "research in the

432   organizational field tradition is one of the places where the research in institutional theory has

433   moved faster than the research in the sport related institutional theory tradition" (p. 7). In the

434   years since their seminal study, we have seen more sport studies focusing on fields. But with

435   only 16 studies having been published since 2011 the increase has not been substantial. Scott

436   (2014) argued that "some of the most important organizational scholarship of the past four

437   decades has examined the origin, structuration, and change and/or decline of organization

438   fields" (p. 223). With this in mind we used these categories to frame our discussion of sport

439   studies that have utilized fields as their focal unit of analysis.

440   ***Origin***

441   Consideration of the origins of institutional fields was found to be an area of research

442   that is underrepresented in sport studies. While this could be related to conceptual overlap

443   between origin, structuration, and change, with the focus of more studies falling under the

444   latter two, this is nevertheless a gap in the research. This gap is important as empirical

445   examinations of field origins could arguably provide a foundational depth of understanding

446   that would contribute to other institutional work in that field as well as offering practical

447   insights (Washington & Ventresca, 2008). In this review, only three studies were notable for

448   a clear focus on understanding how, why, and/or under what conditions a field comes to exist

449   in a way that is definable. For example, Washington and Ventresca (2008) explored the

450   origin of the field of US college athletics, whilst Hoibian (2006) adopted a historical narrative

451   approach to examine both the genesis and institutionalization of the field of mountaineering

452   by "analyzing the origin and developmental conditions of [the] social setting" (p. 341).

453   ***Structuration***

454   DiMaggio and Powell (1983) emphasize that "fields only exist to the extent that they

455   are institutionally defined" (p. 148) and it is this process of definition that we understand as

456   structuration. Scott (2014) further notes that in organizational fields structuration can be

457   referred to as "the extent of interaction and the nature of the inter-organizational structure

458   that arises at the field level" and more broadly, the activities that produce and reproduce these

459   social structures (p. 235). Within sport we see studies that examine many elements of field

460   structuration. For example, Wright (2009) introduced the notion of fields as "nested" within

461   one another, like a Russian Babushka doll, scrutinizing institutional change and formation via

462   the interplay of societal, field, and organizational mechanisms. This same mechanism was

463   then also adopted to examine multilevel (i.e., field) institutional change in the International

464   Paralympic Committee (Gérard et al., 2017), finding that field level logics are simultaneously

465   shaped by pressures coming from the top-down (i.e., from society to field) and from the

466   bottom-up (i.e., organizations influencing the broader field).

467   Research that focused on the influence of central powerful actors on field

468   structuration was also identified. Wright and Zammuto (2013) also added a horizontal

469   element to field structuration by investigating social positions relative to a central value

470   system (or logic) identifying central, middle status, and peripheral actors' roles in multilevel

471   institutional change in English county cricket. Similarly, Washington (2004) considered how

472   the NCAA, as a powerful interest association central within the field of US collegiate

473   athletics, challenged the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics to maintain

474   dominance and control over field structuration.

475

476		***Change and Decline***

477			Change in institutional fields was found to be the most widely adopted area of field

478		research within sport studies. In addition, as has been noted, there is broad overlap between

479		examining change and structuration, meaning that many of the studies discussed in the

480		previous section could also be discussed here and vice versa. Alternatively, no studies were

481		identified as focusing on the decline of a field, signalling a key future research opportunity.

482			Principally, studies that considered field change looked at the process of change, the

483		nature and extent of change, and/or influences affecting change, although like the broader

484		categories many studies cover more than one of these areas. Among the most broadly cited

485		sport studies on the nature and extent of field change comes from Cousens and Slack's (2005)

486		analysis of the field of North American major league professional sport. They investigated

487		changes in four facets of the field over time, specifically: "communities of actors, their

488		exchange processes, their governance structures, and their beliefs and institutional logics of

489		action" (p. 13). They found that a shift in dominant logics from embracing sport specific

490		qualities, to stressing the entertainment value of major league sport, resulted from changing

491		governance models brought about primarily by the deregulation of cable television.

492			A final group of studies on field change bring attention to the influences that can

493		affect organizational change. Batuev and Robinson (2018) for instance identified three

494		influences that framed the evolution of the field of skateboarding: the symbolic importance

495		traditional non-competitive values, expanding commercial opportunities for professionalism

496		and sponsorship, and the perceived impacts (both positive and negative) of entrance into the

497		Olympic movement. In looking at field level change in English Rugby Union, O'Brien and

498		Slack (2003) concluded that "a shift in the field's dominant logic is promoted, and indeed

499		was prompted by a widespread change in its other components; notably, its communities of

500		actors, exchange processes, forms of capital, and regulatory structure" (p. 443).

501   **Institutional Work and Entrepreneurship**

502   One concept which has gained notable traction within institutional scholarship in the

503   last decade is institutional work. The perspective emerged from two broader literature bases

504   that emphasized the ability of individuals to shape institutional arrangements (DiMaggio,

505   1988), and the sociology of practice tradition which examines how individuals manage and

506   influence day-to-day activities (Bourdieu, 1977). Institutional work challenges the traditional

507   neo-institutional assumptions of structural determinism, and the notion that actors are

508   'cultural dopes' at the whim of institutional arrangements. In their seminal work, Lawrence

509   and Suddaby (2006) define institutional work as "the purposive action of individuals or

510   organizations aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting institutions" (p. 215) and outline

511   various forms of institutional work. Since then, the perspective has "evolved from a concept

512   introduced to capture a set of actions described in institutional research, to a perspective on

513   the relationship between institutions and actors associated with a distinctive set of questions,

514   assumptions, findings and theoretical claims" (Hampel et al., 2017, p. 558). This shift is

515   apparent from the notable scholarly attention that has been dedicated to institutional work

516   within sport management over the past decade (Nite & Edwards, 2021).

517   Our analysis identified 16 studies which explicitly adopted the institutional work

518   perspective. Consistent with the mainstream management literature, these studies have

519   predominantly focused on organizational and field-level institutional arrangements and have

520   explored various research contexts including governing agencies (Dowling & Smith, 2016),

521   sport clubs (Lok & de Rond, 2013), sexual abuse (Nite & Nauright, 2020), and mixed martial

522   arts (MMA) organizations (Helms & Patterson, 2014; Woolf et al., 2016). We structure our

523   review of this body of works by utilizing Lawrence and Suddaby's original categorizations:

524   creation, maintenance, and disruption.

525

526   ***Creation***

527   Institutional work represents a fundamental departure from traditional institutional

528   sport scholarship that predominantly emphasized the influence of changing institutional

529   pressures on sport organizations (e.g., Slack & Hinings, 1994). More recent studies have

530   begun to focus on how actors are able to create institutional arrangements. For example,

531   Helms and Patterson (2014) analysis of MMA organizations demonstrated how actors were

532   able to utilize stigma, negative labels, and narratives created by others to attract audiences

533   and increase the popularity of the sport. Similarly, Woolf et al. (2016) provided a micro-level

534   account of how the sport of MMA developed within a training facility in Canada. Their

535   analysis extended on Lawrence and Suddaby's original framework by identifying *refinement*

536   and *barrier work* which Woolf et al. (2016) suggest both simultaneously helped grow, and

537   hinder, the development of the sport. Both studies revealed the paradoxical role that

538   institutional entrepreneurs – actors who create or transform institutional arrangements – can

539   play in disrupting the very institutions they have sought to create.

540   ***Maintenance***

541   Maintenance work refers to how institutions are maintained by actors to ensure

542   institutional stability. Both Lawrence and Suddaby's original review of institutional work and

543   Washington and Patterson's (2011) review of institutional theory in sport highlighted the

544   need for more studies specifically within the area of maintenance. Our review suggests that

545   much work has now been done within this area. Lok and de Rond (2013) explained how

546   highly institutionalized practices are maintained by micro-level processes. Employing a year-

547   long ethnographic case study of one of the oldest sporting institutions, the Oxford-Cambridge

548   University Boat Race, the authors demonstrated that institutions contain a degree "plasticity"

549   whereby institutional scripts "are stretched to accommodate ever-changing practice

550   performance" (p. 186). Other studies have focused on how key sporting agencies maintain

551   their dominance within organizational fields. For example, the historical and longitudinal

552   analysis conducted by Nite et al. (2019) revealed how the NCAA maintained its dominance

553   through boundary work, adjustment of its own practices, and control of cognition (i.e., how

554   other actors understood collegiate sport).

Disruption

556   Our analysis indicated that there were few studies that explicitly focused on actors'

557   attempts to disrupt institutions within sport. This finding is consistent with Lawrence and

558   Suddaby's (2006) assertions that empirical studies of institutional disruption and

559   deinstitutionalization are rare. A recent exception was the study of Agyemang et al. (2018)

560   that examined how actors employed maintenance work to respond to attempts to disrupt

561   institutional arrangements in the case of Tommie Smith and John Carlos' silent protest at the

562   1968 Olympic Games. Although strictly speaking not a disruptive study, the analysis

563   demonstrates how actors at the micro-level respond to other actors' attempts to disrupt an

564   institution. Of note, the authors highlight the institutional complexity and the inter-play

565   between several competing logics which can be temporarily produce what they described as

566   an "institutional cease-fire" (p. 576).

567   We suggest that more work is needed within this specific area to understand how

568   actors attempt to disrupt institutions. Agyemang et al. (2018) recognized this in their

569   conclusionary remarks, "despite their role within change, we know very little about those

570   who defy institutional rules and norms in an attempt to highlight a given cause" (p. 578). This

571   is particularly surprising given that sport provides a rich context in which there are many

572   highly visible attempts to disrupt arrangements. Recent examples include Colin Kaepernick's

573   kneeling to the national anthem in response to racial prejudices and injustices, national

574   boycotts of mega-events, and individual athlete and state-sponsored doping violations. We

575   suggest that institutional theory has much more to offer in terms of being able to explain both

576   the processes and outcomes of these recent events. Further empirical examination of these

577   disruptive acts will offer unique opportunities to contribute to theory in general and explore

578   the interplay between actors, institutions, and logics specifically.

579   *Entrepreneurship*

580   A concept closely linked to institutional work is institutional entrepreneurship

581   (Maguire et al., 2004). Institutional entrepreneurship refers to "the activities of actors who

582   have an interest in particular institutional arrangements and who leverage resources to create

583   institutions or transform existing ones" (Maguire et al., 2004, p. 657). This research domain

584   emerged, in part, in response to the "paradox of embedded agency" problem which questions

585   how it may be possible to be embedded within an institutional field whilst simultaneously

586   able to shape it. Institutional entrepreneurs typically operate at micro-foundational level,

587   "work" on the periphery as boundary-spanners and can leverage their unique political and

588   social skills to enable institutional change.

589   Only a handful of studies (n=10) have adopted the institutional entrepreneurship

590   perspective. Researchers have utilized the sport context to provide more detailed analysis of

591   the micro-foundational level of how entrepreneurs operate. This includes the antecedents,

592   mechanisms, and outcomes of change (Lakshman & Akhter, 2015) and how entrepreneurs

593   can work to disrupt socially and ethically undesirable institutional practices (Khan et al.,

594   2007). Collectively, the above studies have contributed to an agency-focused approach that

595   helps explain how institutions can be created, maintained, and disrupted.

596   **Future Directions and Research Agenda**

597   This study sought to empirically review research that utilized institutional perspectives within

598   the sport context. In reviewing the literature, our analysis identified 188 studies, revealing

599   that sport, as an endeavor, is ripe to examine institutional phenomena. To work toward a joint

600   venture between institutional theory more broadly, and sport management literature

601   specifically, this section sets out to achieve two goals. Firstly, we identify gaps in our current

602   understanding based on our review of sport related institutional studies. Secondly, we attempt

603   to align these gaps in our knowledge with the current movements of institutional theory in

604   mainstream management to provide directions for future research.

605   With regards to our findings more generally, it seems to be that the sport management

606   literature is following the movements of institutional theory more broadly. Thus, when the

607   institutional theory literature was dominated by concepts of legitimacy, isomorphism, and

608   change, so too was the sport management literature. However, once concepts such as logics

609   and work were introduced to the institutional theory lexicon, so too did these concepts begin

610   emerging in the sport management literature. In this way, building on Washington and

611   Patterson (2011), the relationship between sport and institutional theory does not appear to be

612   a joint venture or a hostile takeover, but instead a sort of diffusion of ideas. Like how a store

613   gets a cult following in one location and then expands into other locations, so too has

614   institutional theory developed a following in mainstream management's literature prior to

615   expanding into sport management.

616   We would like to advance the conversation from a diffusion of ideas, toward a joint

617   venture in which both mainstream- and sport- management "share in the costs and share in

618   the benefits" of institutional analysis in sport (Washington & Patterson, 2011, p. 2). In Table

619   1 we identify sites of shared value to act as foundations for such a joint venture. The first

620   column (left) summarizes the sport related institutional knowledge based on our review of the

621   extant literature. The second column (middle) encapsulates the main thrust of future research

622   directions proposed by leading institutional scholars in recent reviews of specific institutional

623   constructs. Finally, the third column combines gaps in our sport-related knowledge with

624   future research directions of institutional theory more broadly for the purpose of laying the

625   foundation for a stronger joint venture between institutional theory and sport in future. Sites

626   of shared value should enable the pursuit of both derivate and sport-focussed models of

627   research (Chalip, 2006). The former locates sport as an empirical context to affirm, apply,

628   and advance mainstream theories (e.g., Lok & de Rond, 2013). The latter creates or adapts

629   existing theory grounded in the phenomena of sport (e.g., Lock et al., 2015). We expand on

630   these sites of shared value below.

631   Table 1 – Summary of findings, future research directions and potential sites of shared value
632   for a joint venture
633

Summary of findings	Future research directions	Potential sites of shared value
Legitimacy & Institutionalization Researchers' have primarily employed pragmatic questions to examine the utility of legitimacy as a property for sport organizations. The process of gaining or losing legitimacy, and in particular the perception or social evaluation of sport organizations legitimacy are less understood.	Derived from Deephouse et al (2017). (1) Critically review, integrate, and consolidate different approaches to verbal legitimation tactics. (2) Investigate how both symbolic and substantive management approaches influence legitimacy judgements (3) How do new governance mechanisms develop and maintain legitimacy? (4) How does digital technology affect legitimation?	• How are verbal legitimation tactics used to justify transgressive behavior in sport? • How are social judgements (i.e., perceptions) regarding the legitimacy of sport organizations formed between different stakeholder groups? • What processes of legitimation and institutionalization have led international sport organizations to develop and maintain degrees of self-governance?
Change Change was present within and across all our institutional constructs. Our analysis indicated a shift away from organizational change towards institutional change in recent years. Revolutionary top-down changes in which logics have either displaced or come to co-exist with	Derived from Micelotta et al (2017). (5) How is transformative change influenced by field pluralism? (6) How is balance between multiple logics negotiated and maintained in complex organizations? (7) How do institutional entrepreneurs craft legitimation strategies and articulate frames that resonate	• How do national sport organizations operating simultaneously in multiple fields, institutionalize transformative change? • How can institutional change help us understand social change in sport? • In what ways can micro-social practices

other logics have dominated the change literature (e.g., the professionalization of amateur sports). Less understood is evolutionary, bottom-up change in which individuals and micro-processes change institutions over time.	with culturally heterogeneous audiences? (8) Under what conditions do micro-level acts of improvisations stimulate broader field-level transformations?	(e.g., kneeling) lead to institutional change in sport? • How are sport policies translated between national, regional, and local levels?
Isomorphism Isomorphism studies have become relatively less frequent in the last decade. Most studies conducted utilized DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) three isomorphic pressures: mimetic processes, normative pressures, and coercive isomorphism and in line with mainstream literature found that organizations became increasingly similar within the same field.	Derived from Heugens and Lander (2009). • Through what processes do organizations experience, interpret, and manage isomorphic pressures? • What field level mechanisms accelerate and coordinate collective organizational action? • How do micro sociological processes (i.e., agency) interact with isomorphic pressures?	• How does symbolic isomorphism to the sport ethic influence the substantive performance of sport organizations? • What field level mechanisms lead to 'breaking the iron cage' and the adoption of non-conforming organizational templates in sport organizations? • Does field structuration of a sport influence isomorphic mechanisms?
Logics Many studies examined binary logics that contrasted forms of commercial sport logics (i.e., professionalization, elite, business ideals) with forms of voluntary sport logics (i.e., play, participation, amateurism ideals). Logic studies primarily focused on how a once dominant logic came to accommodate a new logic into their organizational meaning systems and decision-making processes.	Derived from Ocasio et al (2017). • How do actors influence the micro foundations of institutional logics? • How do organizations assess and activate logics from the multiple logic systems that are available to them? • Under what conditions are actors able to invoke or combine different logics, and with what effects?	• By what processes do sport organizations assess and activate logics within complex stakeholder environments? • Do different logic systems exist between similar sports? If so, why? • How has the combination of logics over time influenced the field structures and individual agency within given sports? • Do athlete behaviors, over time, transform institutional logics?

| Fields

Many studies used fields as a conceptual boundary condition, rather than as a focal unit of analysis. A paucity of research on the origin and structuration of fields was identified. Sport has advanced our understanding of nested fields and provides a useful basis for the examination of multilevel institutional change | Derived from Zietsma et al., (2017).

• What is the pace, sequence, and linearity of field changes?
• How do organizations manage connections to multiple fields (i.e., those organizations in interstitial positions)?
• What are the effects of field-to-field interactions on the structuration of respective fields?
• How can issue fields influence the creation of institutional infrastructure to address societal problems? | • By what mechanisms and processes does multilevel change occur within nested fields in sport?
• How do social activists influence field dynamics in sport?
• What is the role of proto institutions in field development in sport?
• How has the pace, sequence and linearity of sport policy adoption differed between sports? |
| Institutional Work & Entrepreneurship

The main findings indicated that preliminary work had been completed in the areas of creation and maintenance, however there was yet to be any studies completed in the area of institutional disruption. This may be because of sport's rigid institutional arrangements and the difficulties actors within sport can have in disrupting institutional arrangements. | Derived from Hampel et al. (2017).

• How does institutional work influence 'big' societal institutions (i.e., those beyond organizations and fields)?
• When, why, and how do networks of heterogeneous actors work together to shape institutions?
• How does institutional work relate to material objects such as new technologies?
• How does institutional work shape policy and practice to address the world's grand challenges? | • Given the mass media distribution of sport, how can high profile athletes and sport organizations influence societal institutions?
• How has new technology influenced the institutional work performed by sport managers?
• To what extent do microsocial behaviors (e.g., passion, emotion) influence institutional work in the context of sport? |

634

635   Legitimacy and institutionalization are central to institutional analysis. Most of the

636   work on legitimacy has focussed on legitimacy as an organizational property, a resource or

637   asset that sport organizations gain or lose. Less research has investigated the process of how

638   legitimacy is constructed, or the way the legitimacy of sport organizations is perceived or

639   evaluated by their constituents. Regarding the process of legitimation, sport seems a good site

640   to integrate and consolidate different types of verbal legitimation tactics due to the highly

641   publicized and chronicled audio-visual content (e.g., sport commentary, press conferences,

642   government debates) and legitimacy struggles (e.g., doping, violence, match-fixing, race, and

643   gender issues). Analysing such content over a period of time could yield new theoretical

644   insights into the tactics used by institutional entrepreneurs to legitimate actions within the

645   field of sport. A second avenue for future research in the legitimacy domain, may be to

646   further the work of Lock et al. (2015) who developed the *Capture Perceptions of (Sport)*

647   *Organizations Legitimacy* framework to examine social judgements of an Australian

648   community sport organization. Expanding and testing this tool in new contexts could inform

649   the strategic legitimation efforts of sport organizations more broadly. Given that legitimacy

650   has 'a clear effect on social and economic exchanges' (Deephouse et al., 2017, p. 34) and the

651   social judgements of constituent groups are socially constructed and context dependent, the

652   expansion of this type of work to different types of sport organizations (e.g., international

653   federations, professional teams, sponsors, national sport organizations) could open up a range

654   of future research opportunities.

655   Change was omnipresent within the sport related institutional literature and within our

656   institutional constructs. Our findings indicated a shift away from focusing on the narrow

657   concept of organizational change, toward the broader concept of institutional change.

658   Building upon the observation that sport often leads discussions of societal change,

659   institutional scholars in sport could engage in the grand challenges research program as a way

660   of investigating the influence of sport on social change in broader societal institutions. As

661   institutional studies on race (e.g., Agyemang et al,, 2018), inclusion (e.g., Robertson et al.,

662   2019), diversity (e.g., Cunningham, 2009), concussion (e.g., Heinze & Lu, 2017), sexual

663   abuse (e.g., Nite & Nauright, 2020), child labor (Khan et al., 2007), and doping (Read et al,

664   2019) all indicate, institutional theory can be a powerful lens from which to investigate some

665   of sport, management, and society's grandest challenges.

666   Like the construct itself, research in sport studies using isomorphism were found to be

667   relatively similar and generally aligned with forms of testing DiMaggio and Powell's (1983)

668   original hypotheses. Heugens and Lander's (2009, p. 78) meta-analysis of 144 isomorphism

669   studies concluded conformity with isomorphic pressures increased the symbolic performance

670   of organizations. However small average effect sizes (0.07 for coercive and normative

671   pressures and 0.09 for mimetic pressures) indicated relatively weak isomorphic forces and

672   hardly the inescapable iron cage that early structural determinists presented as a stylized fact

673   of organizational life. Consequently, whilst there is some theoretical meat left on proverbial

674   isomorphism bone, scholars need to be careful not to replicate what is known. One area of

675   promise, highlighted by Greenwood and Meyer (2008) is the investigation of power and

676   politics, and the degree of heterogeneity between organizations. They suggest that given

677   variance in 'field structuration,' 'complex institutional arrangements,' and 'multiple

678   institutional prescriptions' a more nuanced and multidimensional exploration of the degree of

679   similarity may be warranted (p. 263). One way this may be approached within sport studies is

680   to treat isomorphic mechanisms as "categories of mechanisms, not variables with specific

681   effects, and focus on how these mechanisms operate" (Washington & Ventresca, 2004, p.

682   93). Linking isomorphic mechanisms to agents (e.g., powerful elites) or historical field

683   structuring events (e.g., broadcast rights deals) could inform a more structural view of

684   institutional change that has been relegated in institutional scholarship following the agency

685   turn with its associated focus on actors, actions, and micro-social processes.

686   Logic studies generally investigated versions of the binary logics that contrasted

687   forms of commercial sport logics (i.e., professionalization, elite, business ideals) with forms

688   of voluntary sport logics (i.e., play, participation, amateurism ideals). These studies often

689   discussed two types of logic multiplicity, (1) where two logics lacked compatibility within a

690   single organization, and hence existed in a state of tension or conflict, or (2) how an existing

691   logic was displaced by a new logic. Rarely did logic studies investigate other types of logic

692   multiplicity such as the relationships between peripheral and dominant logics, or where

693   central logics were highly compatible (c.f. Besharov & Smith, 2014). Additionally, with few

694   exceptions (c.f., Borgers et al., 2019; Fahlen & Stenling, 2019), institutional logics and

695   change have been investigated from a top-down perspective in which changing logics at

696   societal, field, or organizational level influence forms of alignment and accommodation of

697   logics at lower levels. What is less well understood is how these changes can occur from a

698   bottom-up perspective, or how existing institutional arrangements can be slowly transformed

699   by the aggregation of micro-social processes. Given sports relative rigid institutional logic

700   systems, a view toward how micro-social processes transform field level logics over time

701   may be a beneficial future research avenue.

702   Our research aligned with Washington and Patterson's (2011) observation that the

703   organizational (or institutional) field construct, seems to be the one construct that has not

704   diffused as much as the others (less than 8% of all studies, but having been around since

705   2000). Potentially this could be attributed to the fact that most published sport studies only

706   examine one sport (or one organization, association, etc.) at a time. Whereas organizational

707   field studies tend to study movements of broader activities that are nested across multiple

708   organizations. A particular limitation of many field studies we observed was the use of fields

709   as a tool for delimiting the contextual boundary for studies focussing on other institutional

710   constructs (e.g., logics or isomorphism), as opposed to 'saying something' about the field

711   itself. Within those studies that have been undertaken, our analysis specifically revealed a

712   lack of research on the origin and structuration of fields. This has implications in three ways.

713   Firstly, how field formation relates to institutionalization and legitimation of fields/sports at

714   inception. Secondly, as Washington (2004) demonstrated, fields merge, split, grow, and

715   decline over time. Many major sport institutions around the world formed based on

716   combining fields. Third, the structuration of fields can influence how symbolic and material

717   resources are distributed, how norms are formed, and what type of actors have power relative

718   to the accepted norms and values of the field. Better understanding the historical

719   development of, and structuration processes within fields, could help us more accurately

720   develop an understanding of how modern sport came to be, and why certain groups hold

721   decision making power.

722   Our final call for future research is a call for a continued divergence between

723   institutional work and other notions of institutional change. Our findings broadly align with

724   Nite and Edwards (2021) review of institutional work literature in sport management, in

725   particular their call for a stronger integration of institutional work with other core institutional

726   constructs (particularly fields, legitimacy, and logics). As institutional scholarship

727   increasingly focusses on agency, there is a heightened need to bring micro sociological

728   approaches back into institutional theory, and in doing so link these with existing institutional

729   constructs which better explain macro sociological phenomena. Given the applied focus of

730   sport management, it is hardly surprising that sport scholars have gravitated to institutional

731   work to explain the changing arrangements within sport. We feel there are opportunities for

732   investigating how individuals in sport can influence society. If 2020 has taught us anything, it

733   is that sport might be the first place where societal institutions are de-institutionalized or

734   disrupted. Sport leagues were one of the first professions to shut down during the onset of

735   COVID-19 and empty stadia became one of the iconic symbols of changed societal

736   institutions impacted by COVID-19. The Black Lives Matter protests not only almost

737   disrupted the restart of those leagues, but it also reverberated across the globe. In addition,

738   delving deeper into the psychological mechanisms (e.g., passion, emotion) and field location

739   (e.g., central, middle status, and peripheral) of actors may also help advance institutional

740   theory in the sport context. Moreover, this line of research has the potential to further develop

741   concepts of institutional entrepreneurship and institutional leadership.

742   Building upon the idea of sport management and institutional theory as a diffusion

743   process, it is encouraging to see the introduction of new ideas into sport management journals

744   (e.g., leadership, emotions, perceptions of legitimacy etc.). This suggests that just like

745   institutions change, so too will the institutional theory studies that are published in sport

746   management (albeit with lots of work and slowly). We only hope that with the maturation of

747   institutional theory in the sport management literature that there are enough gatekeepers

748   (editors and reviewers) that are equally aware of these newer concepts and do not constrain

749   contemporary institutional scholarship to the 1980s version of institutional theory.

750   Recognizing institutional theory's explanatory potential, it is incumbent on scholars to see

751   beyond the theory's historical beginnings and utilize the wide variety of perspectives that

752   contemporary institutional scholarship offers.

753   **Conclusion**

754   Scoping reviews possess several limitations, particularly in comparison to other

755   review types such as systematic reviews or meta-analyses. Firstly, scoping reviews do not

756   assess the quality of the studies included in the review, nor are they as exhaustive as

757   traditional systematic reviews. Secondly, the homonymous nature of the term institution (and

758   its derivatives) in combination with multiple types of institutionalism (i.e., political,

759   economic – see Hall & Taylor, 1996) make the conceptual boundaries of any search, at best,

760   porous. Whilst we included an additional evaluation stage that involved an ancestry search of

761   all citations in our analysis to identify any boundary spanners to minimize this limitation, we

762   do not claim that our review is an exhaustive representation of studies that have utilized

763   institutional theory in sport. Finally, common limitations in scoping reviews were also

764   apparent in our study. For example, whilst we have made efforts to include the seminal books

765   of the field in general, such as the orange (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991) and green books

766   (Greenwood et al., 2008; 2017), our search only included journal articles written in English.

767   Institutional theory has become one of the central theoretical perspectives in sport

768   studies. Contemporary institutional theory now covers a vast territory, from individual

769   agency to world society. Despite this, no structured empirical review of this literature had

770   been attempted. This is an important oversight for a discipline wishing to theoretically

771   advance as an academic field, and practically influence the provision of sport. By providing

772   an empirical review of institutional theory in sport we hope to expedite the diffusion of ideas

773   between mainstream- and sport- management in the hopes of realising the collective benefits

774   of a joint venture in the future.

775   This scoping review has advanced Washington and Patterson's (2011) study by

776   systematically reviewing and consolidating sport related institutional studies. Institutional

777   theory can be a daunting theoretical landscape for new (and experienced) scholars to enter.

778   By reviewing the literature (see appendix 1) we hope to have contributed in a small way to

779   advancing the accessibility of contemporary institutional theories as they relate to sport. Our

780   second contribution looked to map the extant literature into conceptual groups. By outlining

781   and classifying the notable features of the theoretical landscape (Figure 2), our hope is that

782   scholars are more able to easily navigate their way through the institutional terrain.

783   Our third contribution was to demonstrate the growth, breadth, and development of

784   institutional theory in sport (Figure 1). Institutional theory is not singular, but rather a

785   composite of theoretical viewpoints, the major constructs of which were analyzed in this

786   study. Our final contribution was the development of a road map for future research (Table

787   1). In the decade since Washington and Patterson's (2011) study, the number of studies that

788   have used institutional theory in sport have more than doubled. Consequently, the theoretical

789   landscape is substantively different now, then it was then. By providing a clear road map for

790   future research, with signposts to contemporary reviews, we hope to expediate diffusion of

791   ideas between mainstream- and sport- management.

792
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