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Understanding how the Army's Informal Leader Bonds Formal Leadership and the Complex Environment

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Abstract

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by

Keith L. White

M.A., Webster University, 2007

B.A., Trinity Bible College 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Bullying and toxic leadership in the U. S. Army disrupt bonding processes between leaders and subordinates, which may jeopardize military operations, threaten resiliency initiatives, inhibit leader development, and stifle innovation. Little research, however, has looked at the role of informal leaders who operate outside the formal power structure in military environments. Using social exchange theory as the foundation, the purpose of this case study was to explore the activities of informal leaders who mediated the normal and disrupted leadership bonding processes in an Illinois Army National Guard Infantry Brigade. The research questions explored the informal leaders' influence and behaviors to gain a greater understanding of the bonding processes. A maximum variation purposeful sampling was used to select 25 informal leaders from 8 company size units in an Illinois Army National Guard Infantry Brigade. Publicly available archival data were also considered. All data were coded inductively and then subjected to Braun and Clark's thematic analysis procedure, revealing the perception that informal leaders improved bonding between soldiers and leaders and reduced stress associated with military service. The implications for positive social change include recommendations to the Illinois National Guard to provide support for using informal leaders as a mechanism to promote more cohesive relationships between leaders and subordinates and to explore the use of informal leadership to reduce stress.

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Dedication

To my wife, Teresa, and children Olivia, Zachary, and Alexander for your unconditional love, care, and selfless sacrifices, I offer a heartfelt thank you. Your gifts of love, encouragement, and time were my true reward. I hope to honor each of you in ways well beyond your sacrifices.

To the Almighty God, I offer my humblest of thanks for the knowledge, wisdom and guidance you provided when mine was insufficient to the task. I am most thankful for your answers to my prayers in time of need and stress throughout this long journey. I am truly grateful to you.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The presence of unmitigated stressors leading to workplace bullying and its sibling, toxic leadership, challenged the organizing function of U.S. Army leadership by interfering or degrading the competencies and attributes deemed essential for the successful influencing of others and improving the organization (Doty & Fenlason, 2013). These stressors when unmitigated threatened the bonding process exemplified in trust relationships of the formal function and influence of U.S. Army leadership as codified in U.S. Army policy, doctrine, and tradition by creating toxic leaders (Ulmer, 2012). The bonding function was also under stress from the collective effects of complexity dynamics in the form of powerful change and U.S. Army leaders failing to meditate these stressors properly often used workplace bullying or toxic leadership as their means to meet this change (Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014). U.S. Army leaders engaged in workplace bullying and toxic leadership when the bonding processes of complexity leadership theory (CLT) entanglement was used insufficiently or improperly. CLT deemed these bonding processes essential to mediate or ameliorate the powerful stressors created by formal leadership and complexity dynamics as each sought to influence change. The inability of U.S. Army leadership to adjudicate these stressors through entanglement sets the conditions for extreme stressors of workplace bullying or toxic leadership to emerge. The presence of extreme stressors in complex adaptive systems (CAS) created conditions that led to ineffective bonding and impediments to change (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Failure of U.S. Army leadership through a faulty bonding process posed additional pressing threats to the development of agile and

adaptive leaders required by the U.S. Army of the future (Ulmer, 2012). An ineffective

bonding process sets command climate and organizational conditions that prevent the

U.S. Army leader from creating an enduring values-based organization, meeting the

demands of unified land operations, or functioning as the institutional mediator for other

stressors impacting units, soldiers, their families (Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014).

According to Vane and Toguchi (2010), it is relationships that matter, and

building relationships that matters most. The U.S. Army relied on relationships as the

conduit of influence that led to trust. Failed trust led to failures in influence. In CLT,

building relationships came from the successful bonding process between the

administrative leadership function and, via complexity dynamics, through the adaptive

leadership function. Bonding was the leading cause of change or emergence in CAS

(Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009). CLT recognized there existed a natural void between the

bureaucratic functions of formal hierarchical leadership and the dynamic complexity

function, for example, change that required an adaptive or enabling function to mediate

or ameliorate the two (Marion, 2013; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). A core CLT tenet

predicated that the successful function of the administrative and complexity dynamics

was a proportionally successful set of adaptive or informal leadership processes (Uhl-

Bien & Marion, 2009, p. 634). CLT viewed this informal leadership as embedded within

this bonding process and labeled this action as *entanglement,* which is, the enabling

function of complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). CLT modeled this

informal leader and this enabling function as a prime mediator or ameliorator for the

normal sociation processes between formal leadership intent and the demands of

complexity dynamics that led to change outcomes (Marion, 2012; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

In CLT, successful change in CAS was the result of effective entanglement by the adaptive function or informal leadership process (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). As a CAS, the U.S. Army recognized the need for effective entanglement and the adaptive function to reconcile the intent of commanders and formal leaders with the operational demands of the complexity dynamics or change function. This entanglement or enabling activity between the two functions in the U.S. Army was critical to bonding the common need into a collective dynamic of combat power (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c). Therefore, the U.S. Army recognized a need for an enabling function or the entanglement process in its operational and warfighting function, mission command (Training and Doctrine Command, 2014). However, the U.S. Army limited this function within the doctrinal actions of all leaders and soldiers as a process of influence in its leadership requirements model and formal definition of leadership (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The downside to this limitation was the creation of a significant gap in understanding and modeling the process of entanglement fostered by an adaptive leader in an organization such as the U.S. Army. Instead, the U.S. Army employed the concept of influence and mission orders through actions of spontaneity and innovation to cope with the conditions of complexity and uncertainty as opposed to formal role models (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). When pressed by the demands for change, this limitation imposed by influence and mission orders created significant disconnections between administrative leadership and the complex dynamics that led to limited

innovation and spontaneity, poor integration, and unhealthy bonding (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

This chapter explored the background of workplace bullying and toxic leadership and failed entanglement as a threat to U.S. Army leadership and organizational outcomes. Workplace bullying or toxic leadership and leadership roles were a major U.S. Army social and policy problem across the organization (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014b). A primary aim of this study was the exploration of the informal leader, also known as the adaptive leader in CLT, in a U.S. Army Infantry Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) to identify a rich set of actions currently identified as suppressed by CLT (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). An enhanced understanding of these informal leadership processes embodied through the informal or enabling function served to improve the understanding of the bonding necessary for influence and led to improved emergence and response to complexity.

Background

Workplace bullying and CLT literature scholarship both suggested there were an agent and action occurring within the leadership and organizational domain that influenced the dynamics between the demands for change and formal leadership's intent to meet those demands in a unique and significant way. Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2011) suggested that this agent and action existed as an "organizational inhibitor" (p. 30) whose agency can either mediated or ameliorated workplace bullying at both the individual and organizational levels. CLT also suggested this agent and agency existed at a mesolevel within the "fuzzy boundaries" of creativity and adaptability in complex adaptive systems (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009, p. 633). Both sets of research consummated

a larger set of research suggesting there was an interplay between the formal demands of complex dynamics as emergence or adaptive change and formal leadership with an informal agent and agency that sought to blend the needs and demands of the two polar organizing leadership functions.

Other research (Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010) viewed this linkage as a distinct relationship, finding "high inter-correlations" between leadership and organizational outcomes (p. 462) and corroborating Northouse (2012) position that leaders adapted their styles to meet fluctuations in organizational demands and stress. Northouse (2012) also suggested a relationship existed between the mediating social agent and agency that was essential to the functions of the normative social and organizational frameworks by defining successful leadership as an interactive transactional process between leader and follower. Workplace bullying literature also recognized a meditating agent or agency that anteceded and can intercede in the phenomenon of workplace bullying to effect successful leadership (Einarsen et al., 2011; McKay & Fratzl, 2011; Samnani & Singh, 2012).

Social literature also aimed toward a common idea called sociation in which social agents and agency ameliorated and mediated between a triad of agents. Formal or administrative leadership, enabling or informal leadership, and complexity dynamics all functioned to deliver required change in the organization (Heider, 1958; Homans and Merton, 1974; Simmel, 1971; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). In social theory, leadership acted as an agent of social exchange where the relationships between leader and follower occurred in a set of processes (Homans and Merton, 1974). In this process of social exchange, a bonding process occurred between the agents to guarantee the exchange

holds in the form of agency or bonding (Heider, 1958; Homans and Merton, 1974). While social theory saw this as sociation, CLT called this an entanglement process performed by an enabling function or agent. The process of change must occur without interference whether as emergence in a CAS or sociation in society.

Recent U.S. Army reviews found leadership was "out of balance" (U.S. Army Combined Arms Center, 2009, p. 2), plagued by interference from workplace bullying or toxic leadership (Steele, 2011a). This recognition suggested a functional gap existed in the actions of social exchange and entanglement within the U.S. Army leadership processes. In U.S. Army small units, this functional gap in leadership processes forced formal leadership to rely upon more coercive leadership methods to meet the demands of change. Coercive leadership further threatened unit morale, cohesion, soldier and family welfare, and unit performance (Reed & Bullis, 2009; Reed, 2004; Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014). For the U.S. Army to mediate or ameliorate the stressors leading to workplace bullying and toxic leadership in an IBCT the U.S. Army required a means to keep the interrelational space or social gateways necessary for entanglement and sociation open and functioning.

Problem Statement

Failed leadership and workplace bullying or toxic leadership were inextricably linked; failed leadership led to workplace bullying (Leymann, 1996). Leymann (1996) postulated that understanding the processes of leadership led to the development of interventions for workplace bullying or toxic leadership. Unmitigated stressors negatively affected the CLT leadership enabling function and when improperly mediated led to extremes such as workplace bullying and toxic leadership. These unmitigated stressors

disrupted or overwhelmed entanglement and interfered with the bonding process between bureaucratic leadership roles and the demands from the complexity dynamics function, that is, emergence (WBI, 2012; Einarsen et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). This threat to the enabling process seriously degraded current operations, affected future operations, inhibited leader development, stifled innovation and derailed both formal leadership and change or positive complexity dynamics (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Van Velsor, 2008). U.S. Army literature and research suggested that U.S. Army formations struggled with toxic leaders and these formal leaders used toxic leadership as a substitute or bypass for normal and ethical leadership roles. These actions endangered the entanglement dynamics in response to the pressures of complexity dynamics (Reed & Olsen, 2010; Steele, 2011a; Steele, 2011b). These U.S. Army research confirmed a causal relationship between this form of failed leadership and ineffective or inefficient entanglement. This set leadership and command climate conditions further inhibited or even prohibited innovative change creating disastrous human and organizational consequences for the U.S. Army (Ulmer, 2012). Failed entanglement processes directly undermined the integrity of command (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014). In its most serious form, this failure led to catastrophic results such as sexual assaults (Felsman, 2014), mutiny, fratricide, and suicide (Steele, 2011b).

The literature identified informal or enabling leadership as both occupying and functioning as a critical social gateway for mediating or ameliorating the stressors. Leadership failed to understand this critical social gateway, for example, in leadership bonding. This failure exacerbated the stressors leading to social conflict, unbalanced groups, and exemplified as workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011; Heider, 1958;

Simmel, 1971; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). U.S. Army policy, doctrine, and leadership

literature did not address this enabling informal leader function in detail. Overall, the

scholarly leadership literature shared a common deficit for lack of understanding the

informal leader scripts and peculiar or specialized social roles (Uhl-Bien & Marion,

2009). Historically, a CAS organization typically suppressed or at a minimum ignored

these scripts (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Understanding how the informal leader used a

rich specialized set of individual, social, and organizational scripts in a U.S. Army unit

offered insights to policy and social remedies for U.S. Army senior leadership goals to

use the informal leader agency to reducing workplace bullying or toxic leadership.

Understanding and employing the informal leadership in a specific role offered another

solution to the conceptual disconnect in the U.S. Army's concept of influence as the

means to change in the organization. The informal leader actions to enable or re-enable

entanglement gained the scholarly literature specific individual, social, and organizational

actions of a previously suppressed and unexplored organizational function. The U.S.

Army gained by sheer numbers already serving the organization policy and leadership

agents by widening the leadership aperture. The informal leader agency demonstrated

greater leadership accountability and skill sets toward mitigating the known stressors of

workplace bullying and toxic leadership.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative single case study with embedded sub-units was to

explore for the individual, social, and organizational behavioral scripts informal leaders

use to orchestrate entanglement of the stressors occurring in the bonding between the

administrative and complexity dynamics functions. The identification of the informal

leader entanglement and bonding scripts or patterns served the aim of mitigation or significant reductions in effects these harmful and catastrophic effects created, such as workplace bullying, toxic leadership, poor performance, and suicide.

Given Leymann (1996) position that failed leadership was a cause of workplace bullying and CLT postulation that entanglement was essential to emergence or change (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009), understanding the entanglement dynamics orchestrated by the enabling or informal leader offered important insights to workplace bullying and toxic leadership mitigation. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) and Einarsen et al. (2011) suggested this entanglement framework consisted of mediating or ameliorating scripts or inhibitors in response to these stressors and acted as a primary means of understanding or mitigating a reduction in workplace bullying or toxic leadership. These entanglement scripts also served to reconcile gaps in the U.S. Army's conceptual and doctrinal understanding of leadership as a function of influence.

The U.S. Army concept of change or winning in complex environments required the successful bonding between the leadership functions. Without this bonding to bond, the demands between formal leadership and the demands of change U.S. Army units failed. The exploration of the informal leader or CLT enabling function and processes required to *entangle* the intent of formal leadership to the demands of complexity dynamics served to understand ways the informal leader mediated and ameliorated stressors leading to workplace bullying or toxic leadership. Under these conditions, the informal or CLT enabling leader as an agentic function of successful or failed leadership was in a relationship with workplace bullying or toxic leadership.

The premise for this study held these scripts resided within the CLT adaptive function in the form of the informal leadership processes and consisted of an interactive dynamic process of entanglement enabled or managed by the informal leader (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). These typically suppressed dynamics in organizations were the necessary engagement of formal leadership and complexity dynamics function in the change process (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009 p. 644). The exploration and discovery of the internal interactive entanglement dynamics in their form of individual, social, and organizational behavioral scripts explained in part how informal leaders could mediate or ameliorate workplace bullying.

The primary proposition was that the U.S. Army could model the informal leader scripts to effectively leverage agility and adaptability in complex operations under differing or increasingly difficult stressors. By discovery and exploration of these rich set of scripts and the informal leader in a U.S. Army IBCT this new information sought to improve U.S. Army leadership outcomes and inform U.S. Army command policies for workplace bullying and toxic leadership for winning in the complex environment. The results from this study offered a way to update the U.S. Army by closing definitional and conceptual gaps in U.S. Army leadership definition and function and offered additional competencies or attributes to the U.S. Army LRM.

To gather a rich and relevant data set semi-structured interviews were conducted with a U.S. Army IBCT platoons or sections consisting of their informal leaders represented as informal team leader, and other commissioned, noncommissioned, and enlisted members serving in staff and any non-supervisory positions. These interviews served to concentrate data collection on the nature of the informal leader and informal

networks and the stressors represented in the work environment. The interviews served to examine informal leader and networks in relationship to formal leadership actions (O'Moore & Lynch, 2007; Zhang, Waldman, & Wang, 2012) through the exploration of enabling conditions and complexity dynamics that exist within the platoon or section. This method yielded a rich data set designed to expand our understanding of the informal leader role during entanglement impeded by a threat. The end state was a series of stressor antecedents, entanglement and bonding scripts, and mediating and ameliorating actions. These findings led to recommended contribution to improvements in U.S. Army leadership outcomes with new meanings to the larger leadership context and the routine function of leadership overall as a social agency with the U.S. Army.

Social exchange theory and CLT framed the study and offered both conceptual and contextual means to understand sociation between the administrative leader, the enabling leader, and the dynamic complexity functions within the interrelational space of CLT and the nature of interactive complexity dynamics. Social exchange and CLT guided the study toward the discovery of a rich set of individual, social, and organizational behavioral scripts used when stressors were present. These scripts previously identified as suppressed in CLT liberated in this study to a richer description of the CLT (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009) and represented new means for communicable social patterns and actions within both the U.S. Army and CLT.

Research Questions

The research questions in this study related directly to the discovery of a rich group of individual, social, and organizational behavioral scripts informal leaders used to perform their two primary CLT enabling leadership functions of moderating or mediating

conditions. These functions facilitated change emergence and mediated or ameliorated

the relationships between administrative leadership and the complexity dynamics

function through entanglement. These questions served a social and policy function by

creating an additional contributory discussion that can inform and develop leadership and

regulatory agenda-setting for U.S. Army policy makers. The principal social and policy

gain was a reconciliation between a dynamic leadership expectation in mission command

and a formal expectation in U.S. Army doctrine that can lead to improved leadership

modeling and additional protections to soldier welfare.

The central research question was as follows:

RQ: How does the informal leader engage the entanglement process to mediate or

ameliorate enabling conditions and bonding processes in the U.S. Army squad or

section?

To further expand support for this exploration and generate responses the following sub-

questions offered exploration to elicit further discussion:

SQ1: How does the informal leader create enabling conditions between

administrative or adaptive contexts to support entanglement?

SQ2: How does the formal and adaptive leader manipulate the bonding

process through social entanglement?

SQ3: How does the informal leader create alternate enabling pockets when

regular entanglement is dysfunctional during periods of duress or stressors?

Theoretical Foundation

The research relied on two separate but interrelated theories, Homans and Merton

(1974) social exchange, that is, social agents and their agency, or sociation, and Uhl-

Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2011) CLT, that is, leadership in complex adaptive systems. The social literature provided the essential role leaders occupy as a social force to regulate social exchange and their leadership actions as a social structure to manage change (Hopen, 2010; Maner & Mead, 2010; Mathenge, 2013; Ospina & Foldy, 2010). The CLT literature acknowledged leaders engaged in the essential functions of social exchange. The social exchange functions were often present when leading. The literature depicted leaders using social agency to frame and understand leadership as a social structure (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Marion, 2013; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Vallacher & Nowak, 2013). The goal in using these two theoretical frameworks mutually together served to facilitate two important aspects of this study namely, the design of the case study (Anfara & Mertz, 2015), contribution toward transferability (Yin, 2014). The intent was to "map" (Ravitch & Riggan, 2011, p. 9), and structure the study in a way to arrive at the means driving informal leaders to enable emergence under the stress of workplace bullying as social agents using a social agency in an environment of complex dynamics. Together, these two concepts framed the social construction for workplace bullying and with the social constructions between the informal leader and workplace bullying, and formal leadership.

The social framework served a suitable outline to structure an answer to "why" social agents act and to build a description of the means to answer the follow-on question, "how" social agents act. Secondly, social theory according to the scholarly community fundamentally underpinned much of leadership theory and research. Complex adaptive system (CAS) theory also underpinned CLT (Bass & Bass, 2009; Burns, 1978; Carsten et

al., 2010; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Osborn & Marion, 2009; Senge, 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011). A social exchange framework laid a representative foundation to understand and frame informal leadership and workplace bullying within social contexts.

Einarsen et al. (2011) contributed a workplace bullying theoretical framework based on sociation intended to spur future studies exploring workplace bullying within an open system characterized by multiple levels of symmetric and asymmetrical inputs (p.29). This framework made an important contribution by opening a theoretical placeholder for a leadership role in a complex system. More specifically Einarsen et al. (2011) recognized the existence of an agentic function that was potentially inhibitory or prohibitory of bullying behavior as the system adapted to change.

Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) also contributed further research for the enabling function or informal leader as justified because their evidence suggested this agentic social function contributed to understanding the context of CLT as it related to the "art of leadership" (p. 646). Uhl-Bien and Marion suggested organizations suppressed this agentic function or dynamic (p.644). According to Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) this "art of leadership" or suppressed dynamics occurred contextually within the interrelational space between the leadership structures of CLT and was an act of agency that may be performed uniquely by the enabling (informal) leader.

On the one hand, there was the agency of the social force, antecedent stressors of workplace bullying, occurring in the U.S. Army. On the other hand, there was also the agent of social structure, for example, informal leadership, found in U.S. Army units as mediating or ameliorating workplace bullying. The modern research derived its conclusions about the interactions and interrelations of social forces and social structures,

for example, the agents and their agency, on the antecedents of workplace bullying (Yoon, Thye, & Lawler, 2013). Understanding the interplay between social forces and social structures justified the use of a theoretical framework (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). A theoretical framework also permitted an appropriate construction or ideation of the informal leaders' actions while operating in the emergence-oriented environment under the duress of these negative workplace conditions.

A paradigm aiding in the understanding of the use of these two overarching theories and the access to the rich data set was social constructivism. Workplace bullying was contextual; society understood the bullying concept solely through self-reports of those involved (Nielsen, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2011). Therefore, in this study, the reviewed literature presented bullying as socially constructed through shared group meaning. As such, the reviewed literature's compendium of workplace bullying was a collection of scholarship depicting in one way or another a form of social exchange in sociation between an agent and agency.

The use of a dual framework offered a means to build common criteria for the actions of the informal leader within the group and team in a complex adaptive system. To construct the mediating or ameliorating role between informal leadership and workplace bullying in the IBCT squad and team required a multidimensional theoretical approach. This theoretical framework served to guide efforts to elicit perceptions from squad members about both their conceptual understanding of workplace bullying or toxic leadership, their perception and acts of sociation within the U.S. Army units, perceptions and acts of sociation that influence U.S. Army organizational culture, leadership, and perceptions of change. The framework also served the development and use of the case

study methodology in a way that framed the data collection and coding to give an in-depth analysis of informal leadership and its operation in a complex adaptive system. In this way, the theoretical framework best framed the study to both accounts for the informal leader's relationship within the group as well as the pathways of agentic action and future pathways to act. Chapter 2 provided a more detailed deconstruction and discussion of the social forces of leadership and the social structures of workplace bullying and toxic leadership.

Nature of the Study

This qualitative study used a single case study with embedded sub-units design proposed by Baxter and Jack (2008) and Yin (2011). This design permitted the exploration of informal leadership scripts during CLT enabling function while mediating workplace bullying within a U.S. Army IBCT team during organizational periods that required an emergent change in complex operations. A qualitative case study design proved appropriate because agents and agency acted with unique distinction, key evidence originated from multiple entities, triangulation served best for data convergence, and theoretical proposition drove data collection and analysis (Yin, 2014, p. 17). Workplace bullying and informal leadership in the complex adaptive system each derived agencies and agents from multiple levels, multiple technically distinctive antecedents, multiple entities, is often unpredictable and were the result of interrelational and integrative processes (cf. Einarsen et al., 2011 and Uhl-Bien, 2011).

The analytical aim followed Yin (2014) analytical generalization and served to connect new situations of informal leader scripts that emerged from the data collection to the phenomenon of emergence through a reenabling of entanglement. Purposeful

sampling was the method used to recruit approximately 34 individuals from six to ten

company level units across the 33rd IBCT. This recruitment represented individuals in

units typical of those found in standard U.S. Army modified table of organizational

equipment (MTOE) IBCT organization. This level of recruitment provided enough cases

to achieve saturation.

To generate the data, semi-structured interviews, documents, archival data, and

direct observations served as the primary sources. Results were transcribed from the data

for qualitative content and thematic analysis, and emergent themes were identified as

causal social mechanisms of entanglement. A coding frame based on both inductive and

deductive codes drawn from the literature review and compared to those generated from

the data collection served to inform the development of adaptive or new scripts.

Maximum variation allowed for the widest perspective possible from this sample of cases

or conditions of entanglement ranging from typical to extreme disruptions of enabling

leadership as found in the IBCT. The maximum variation technique allowed the capture

of unique IBCT case qualities, experiences, attributes, unit morale, and climate.

Using a single case with embedded subunits based on the IBCT organization

ensured the results did not reflect perceptions of pre-selection of cases to support

researcher or case preconceptions, and that collected data accurately reflected either a

literal or a contrasting prediction of results (Yin, 2014). This strategy formed the basis of

a replication logic (Yin, 2014) designed to support the study discovery goals to discover

as the informal leader mediated (literal) or ameliorated (contrasting) complexity

dynamics. These actions and scripts occurred in an environment driven by the stressors of

complexity dynamics or change and the stressors of formal leadership normal reaction to

bonding or extreme reaction in the form of workplace bullying or toxic leadership. The

case replication design sought to inform the study with correlations between the informal

leader's relationship to mediate or ameliorate reductions of stressors.

Definition of Terms

For this study, the terms workplace bullying and toxic leadership were

interchangeable and each equally represented bullying. Both terms described the same

end state as to the intent and means. For this study, workplace bullying was the primary

and governing term. However, when the research and analysis required a differentiation

for clarity, distinction, or understanding the term toxic leadership was appropriate and

substitutable.

Table 1 defined the common terms essential to aid understanding the nature of

this study and understanding the phenomenon.

Table 1

Definition of Terms

Term	Definition	Source
Antecedent	They are events or actions of a physical, psychological, or physiological nature that precede or set the conditions for a response. In behavioral terms, they are a stimulus, situation, or circumstance preceding an operant response.	(What is antecedent?, n.d.; Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009)
Behavioral Scripts	Behavioral scripts are observable behavioral actions, means, or method to convey knowledge structures and act as the antecedents for individual or behavioral modeling. Behavioral scripts acted to train and adapt new skills to become routine.	(Avery, Richeson, Hebl, & Ambady, 2009; Barnett et al., 2007; Lord & Kernan, 1987; Reagon & Higbee, 2009; Verplanken, Aarts, Ad van Knippenberg, & Moonen, 1998; Verplanken, 2006)

(*table continues*)

Term	Definition	Source
Complexity Dynamics	It is an informal but intentional and interdependent nonagentic social activity driving, generating, or facilitating the change forces in the organization.	(Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009, p. 631)
Deritualization	The breakdown of accepted or known social rituals due to disruptive stressors or antecedents	(Knottnerus, 2005)
Dyad	It is the basic unit of social order or the group in which the relationship of social exchange occurs between two social agents. It is the first structure in which sociation is measurable	(Simmel & Wolff, 1950)
Entanglement	Entanglement is the recursive process of structural coevolution that catalyzes the relationships between the formal top-down, administrative, and complexly dynamics within the social structure driving informal social forces within a social structure.	(Giddens, 1984; Giddens, 1991; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009)
Informal Leadership	A type of leadership without formal power where the individual adapts or enables their performance to the group need and makes itself relevant by demonstrating knowledge, technical expertise, and experience. Informal leaders act as a catalyst for change through interfacing between administrative leadership and complexity dynamics in CLT. An informal leader may function temporarily as a formal leader.	(Bass & Bass, 2009; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).
Organizational Culture	The communal embodiment of the organization's values, philosophy, traditions, language, and rules in relationship amongst its members to give meaning to the organization	(Bass & Bass, 2009; Schein, 2010)
Organizational Scripts	Organizational scripts are observable organizational actions, means, or method to convey knowledge structures and are the antecedents for organizational behavioral modeling	(Avery et al., 2009; Lord & Kernan, 1987)
Social Ritual	Social or individual behaviors, customs or actions used to reinforce social bonds	(Bell, 1997; Turner, 1969)
Sociation	The act (agent) or occasion (agency) of an exchange of social objects usually recognized as a reward or punishment (Homans and Merton, 1974) between social agents due to an occasion or stimulus that sets free the object.	(Mead, 1963; Simmel & Wolff, 1950)
Squad	It is the lowest echelon of U.S. Army combat capability consisting of approximately 8 to 13 individuals operating together as a unit. Tactical operations occur at the basic squad unit. Note: Squad and team are synonymous terms in this study. An infantry squad is a combination of two fire teams and a squad leader	(U.S. Department of the Army, 2007)

(*table continues*)

Term	Definition	Source
Scripts	Scripts are the series of logic constructs recalled from memory. They serve selectively or autonomously to interpret familiar and usual social settings or knowledge structures. A script is used by an individual or an organization to explain or describe social surrounding or events in either a sequentially structured manner or in an entirely unstructured manner to give meaning and action to present or future social or behavioral actions. Scripts are useful social tools used to predict usual and expected behavioral, social, organizational actions. They serve to save time, energy, and conflict by streamlining social exchange to present or future social or behavioral actions. Note: The over habituating scripts with an overreliance on social norms such as in the U.S. Army have been shown to create toxic social situations.	(Berniker & McNabb, 2006; Gioia & Manz, 1985; Lord & Kernan, 1987; Sternberg, 2008; Verplanken & Aarts, 1999)
Social Scripts	A social script is an observable social action, means, or method to convey a social and cultural meaning that are used by society to develop patterns for identifying, analyzing, and understanding actions to compare to acceptable norms. Social scripts serve as a means for learning, emulating behaviors, and ritualization.	(Avery et al., 2009; Drori, Honig, & Sheaffer, 2009)
Toxic Leadership or Destructive Leadership	A form of workplace bullying more focused on the quality or scale of quality as in the form of a dose rate. A collection of destructive or negative leadership actions associated with a nature of quality and amount that similarly destroys an individual or an organization.	(Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Reed & Olsen, 2010; Steele, 2011b)
Triad	The lowest social group comprised of three social agents where individual survival in the group is measurable. It is the lowest level where a hierarchical dependency is essential or detrimental to that survival. Note: The triad is the first social level at which independence of sociation does not extinguish the social order	(Heider, 1958; Simmel & Wolff, 1950)
Workplace Bullying	It is the repeated act of bullying actions and practices directed at co-workers, superiors, or subordinates victims occurring within the workplace or within the context of a working relationship.	(Einarsen et al., 2011; Giorgi, 2010)

Assumptions

There were three primary assumptions for this study. First, the study assumed

IBCT CLT bureaucratic forms of formal, informal, and complexity functions of

leadership had a working legacy predating the study. It was critical that these

bureaucratic forms were in place or historically represented and they aligned with the

archival and historical information and the unit documents to form a recognizable pattern.

Physical access was not critical; however, access via participant firsthand knowledge was

critical. Second, the study assumed participants within the IBCT had historical

experience observing real world examples of the stressors originating from the interaction

between formal leadership, informal leaders, and complexity dynamics to achieve or

force change and that these interactions were like workplace bullying conceptual

descriptions of perpetrator, victim, and witness. Third, the command climate was

sufficiently positive so all study participants felt free to speak, respond truthfully to the

questions, and could accurately reflect on their experiences and roles of themselves and

fellow soldiers within the IBCT.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study examined the mediating and ameliorating role of the

informal leader within a U.S. Army IBCT squad in their capacity to enable or re-enable

entanglement during mission command operations impeded or disrupted by the stressors

in entanglement. The U.S. Army IBCT squad, team, or section organizational level was

appropriate for this study because it best represented the first unit level at which the U.S.

Army conducts tactical combat (Brown, 2011; Foley, 2011; U.S. Department of the

Army, 2016). The squad, team, or section level was considered the foundational element

where the U.S. Army develops its combat capabilities (Training and Doctrine Command

& Cone, 2011; Brown, 2011; Center for Army Leadership (U.S.), 2008; U.S. Department

of the Army, 2012b). Second, the squad, team, or section level was considered one of two

official cradles and first of two crucibles for development and recognition of formal and

informal U.S. Army Leadership (Center for Army Leadership (U.S.), 2008; U.S.

Department of the Army, 2012b). The U.S. Army has another cradle and crucible for

leadership development in the formal selection as an officer candidate (Pierce, 2010).

This squad, team, or section crucible served the practical interest of the study because it

offered an organizationally recognized portal at which to initiate the study; leadership is

formally conferred and more importantly it is assessed, evaluated, and promoted at this

point (Training and Doctrine Command & Cone, 2011). It is also within this delimitation

that these soldiers lived within a cohort and often socialized and associated outside of

their official roles with other individuals of like rank, position, or units.

The scope of this study did not examine the social construct of illness and

sickness as it related to post-traumatic stress disorder. There are two schools of thought

about illness and sickness; one viewed it as organic dysfunctions within the human body,

and the other viewed it as the result of a moral or spiritual failure (Barker, 2010; Brown,

1995; Conrad & Barker, 2010). These two schools do not preclude the facts that stressors

leading to workplace bullying or toxic leadership caused illness or illnesses related to

post-traumatic syndrome it simply delimited the exploration to contextual events.

Limitations

Case studies are by nature precise and limited (Andrade, 2009; Yin, 2014). The

use of the IBCT as a single case with a small number of 6-10 embedded sub-units limited

the study of informal leaders to those command climates and organizational missions

unique to the IBCT. This one view of informal leaders in action offered limited examples

of the self-sensing of the organization, which proved unique to the single case of the

IBCT as well as to each of the embedded sub-units. Each commander as the formally appointed leader from the IBCT commander and the commander within each of the embedded sub-units had in place unique command relationship with subordinates based on their implementation of U.S. Army policies, doctrine, tactics, regulations, and tradition. Each U.S. military service component is unique in doctrine, leadership, tactics, regulation, and tradition; therefore, agents and agency may not necessarily generalize across service components. The demands of the Army Forces Generation Model (ARFORGEN) in use at the time of this study placed a limitation on the case study by preparing leaders to execute directed training as opposed to leaders prepared to lead without the luxury of direction (Foster, 2016). "*ARGORGEN is a resourcing model and process that produces "trained, ready, and cohesive units prepared for operational deployment"* (Campbell, 2009; U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a). Because ARFORGEN was a resource model individuals rotated to new units and locations based on the needs of the U.S. Army; this limited and delimited the focus of the evaluation and the development of workplace bullying scripts and access to group cohorts.

Other limitation included the exclusion of data from individuals identified as having post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Their brains and bodies were physically damaged which can result in an organic dysfunction, but still, they are considered capable of military service (Shen, Arkes, & Pilgrim, 2009; Yu-Chu Shen, Arkes, Boon, Lai, & Williams, 2010). PTSD can skew the data collection and complicate analysis. Socially, we may construct artifacts and processes to deal with disabilities of the mind and body. Nevertheless, it is important to keep in perspective that we know and understand these disabilities not because we constructed them, but that we can physically measure them

(Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Conrad & Barker, 2010; Jutel, 2009). As a researcher, PTSD previously existed in other settings, but none emerged in this study to contextualize or report.

Social constructionism was also limited describing PTSD. Social constructionism was just one method of systemizing ontological and epistemological discourse researchers use to understand and develop constructs of our realities. The literature was limited to explain some stressors or antecedents of workplace bullying sociation or social actions and outcomes that resulted from organic dysfunctions of the human body and mind originating from traumatic brain injury, physical, and chemical changes in the human brain. For example, from the ethnomethodologist perspective the constructs of social order and sociation for those without their senses, for example, blind and deaf cannot as easily explained by the social constructivist methodology (Goode, 2010). There is a social construct to our framework of illness and disease and this result from common language and similar realities; these informed the study (Barker, 2010; Jutel, 2009). However, this medical sociology from the social constructionist perspective and for this study retained a limited focus on the context of actions toward any health issues contributing or arising out of workplace bullying (Brown, 1995). There was a limit at present to our understanding of workplace bullying that resulted from organic dysfunctions that at present those so afflicted do not have means to relate (Goode, 2010).

Significance

This study benefited the U.S. Army in two ways. First, it added a richer description and understanding of the informal leader and informal leadership than the limited recognition current U.S. Army leadership definition, model, and operational

manuals depict (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b; cf., U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c). Second, a more precise description of the informal leader's roles and action in CLT emergent forces can lead to the development of specific interventions based on a clearer application of those forces to mitigate significantly or eliminate workplace bullying and toxic leadership.

The significance of this study emanated from a purpose to understand how amelioration or elimination of the negative impact workplace bullying or toxic leadership in U.S. Army units occurred through the informal leader. First, it served to expand the body of knowledge about the actions and terms used by the informal leader while entangling in the enabling function to gain greater insights to interventions at the individual, social, and organizational antecedent level. Second, it is important for CLT and complex adaptive systems to have clearer insights of the specific or peculiar terms needed by the U.S. Army leadership model to successfully change and win in the complex environment. Finally, the collection, analysis, and synthesis of collected data aimed to expose previously undocumented roles and actions of both ethical and unethical leadership practices leading to improved organizational interventions and outcomes. The potential for contributions toward a more specified formal construct of the informal leader's role by increasing awareness of their peculiar scripts supports the one principal of unit effectiveness the U.S. Army depends on most for success, 'relationships matter; building relationships matter most' (Vane & Toguchi, 2010). A positive and well-documented application of the informal leader stands to contribute prescriptive actions that mitigate the individual and organizational threats from low morale, poor team performance, and poor reintegration into family life, mutiny, fratricides, and suicides.

Summary

Understanding the informal leader as an agent and their agency as an element of successful or failed leadership served to expand our knowledge of their agency mediating or ameliorating the multiple stressors in emanating from the formal leadership and complexity dynamics functions. Understanding how the informal leader acted in a U.S. Army units offered potential reductions to threats to the institution's gold standard, leadership. Second, the findings offered a richer description of how the informal leader provided a cogent set of scripts to the other leadership functions in without threatening their formal function. A hallmark of CAS organizations is the ability to adapt to ever-changing demands coming from internal and external nonagentic social dynamic sources through the CLT bonding process. To achieve the former and the latter both required a functioning and effective interplay of agents and agency between formal leadership and the complexity dynamics functions. CLT has held the enabling function to act in this capacity (Uhl-Bien et al., 2011) and social exchange (SE) theory has viewed social interaction or enablement (Homans and Merton, 1974) to move the group toward the successful exchange. U.S. Army studies demonstrated that there were failures in leadership over the last decade and these studies reflected toxic leadership and bullying were contributors to the result. The lack for an understanding of the enabling function could lead to ineffective entanglement and ineffective bonding or failed leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). The logical linkage between failed enabling leaders in a U.S. Army unit is no less important to workplace bullying or toxic leadership behavior than Leymann (1996) statement about leadership. The result is the same. Breaking the bond of leadership and social trust caused serious degradations in soldier and unit performance.

Chapter 1 provided purpose through well-reasoned and targeted research questions that sought insights into the informal leader's role mediating or ameliorating the stressors of CLT bonding and how inefficient or improper entanglement contributed to workplace bullying or toxic leadership. Capturing insights into the informal leader agency offered meaningful insight and vital information U.S. Army leaders need for developing policies and effective models to mitigate workplace bullying and its toxic effects. The one overarching research question, how did an informal leader use behavioral, social, and organizational scripts to create new pockets of enabling conditions when administrative or adaptive contexts do not support entanglement was key to identify building blocks for future model and policy. Answering this primary question aimed to offer the U.S. Army a significant improvement to their operational leadership model with the additional insights gained with the informal leader role. New insight can offer a significant improvement for leadership dynamics through gained access to an additional resource. This resource offers new means to combat the role of stress and unpredictably of the complex operating environment. Finally, chapter one set appropriate conditions that explored the current literature's understanding of bullying, leadership, and the social exchange and adaptive leader activities that framed the problem with a thorough review, analysis, and synthesis of the relevant scholarship in Chapter 2.

Chapter 2 examined the relevant scholarly research and literature framing CLT leadership and social agency viewed as essential to understanding the contextual interplay between leadership conditions and workplace bullying as a contemporary issue for the U.S. Army. Using a two-part approach to the theoretical framework of SE theory

and CLT the literature review established the literature's context of leadership, workplace

bullying, and the interplay between these that eventually led to the problem in this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In Chapter 2, the research and literature provided for the examination, analysis, and synthesis of the phenomenon of workplace bullying, leadership, and complexity leadership theory and the impact this phenomenon imposed on the U.S. Army IBCT. This review examined the bureaucratic form of leadership and its role in a CAS and some of the social context and antecedents the current scholarship recognized as contributing to the incidents of workplace bullying. One of the challenges that have faced previous researchers was a lack of information about CLT entanglement in a CAS organization and how this could lead to further reliance by formal leadership on workplace bullying or toxic leadership to achieve required demands driven by organizational change. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to reconcile and close those gaps in U.S. Army and CLT literature about the enabling or informal leader as the primary bonding agent in entanglement and mediator of workplace bullying. Failed leadership at both the individual and organizational levels in part drives and antecedes the phenomenon of workplace bullying and toxic leadership. The current extant literature examined identified a multitude of individual or organizational elements or antecedents both declaratory and descriptive of leadership and workplace bullying as codependent social forms and structures but understanding how leadership practitioners manipulated the entanglement process was relatively unknown before this study (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). More importantly to U.S. Army leadership, practitioners needed to understand how to use the informal leader could be used in new and updated roles to combat bullying and toxic leadership as well support adaptive change. The literature review followed an

interweaving pattern examining relationships among the contexts and antecedents that constituted much of the agents and agency in a workplace bullying context. Conceptually, the review looked at leadership structured and embedded within social action as a mediator of sociation and the several critical antecedents to workplace bullying as part of an entropic process in a complex system. The goal of this literature review was to present a review and synthesis that is both inclusive and exclusive of a scholarly community's multifaceted perspectives of the informal leader, workplace bullying, and emergence.

To accomplish a productive review in ways to inform this qualitative study and supported the research, the select interdependencies from several interdisciplinary and cross-domain phenomena required a robust synthesis. Properly synthesized, the literature evidence demonstrated the impactful and influential way the informal leader operated. The informal leader functioned as an antecedent to both workplace bullying and entanglement (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2011; Neuman et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). With this goal, this literature review provided a coherent weave of both social theory and workplace bullying concepts to demonstrate that there are relationships and interdependencies across multiple disciplines. The many researchers across the literature implied that sociology, psychology, and systems science, as well as the literature's theoretical frameworks of social exchange and leadership theory, informed conceptual frameworks depicting roles and place for antecedents or inhibitors (Einarsen et al., 2011). The intended synthesis for a new understanding built on this framework of social exchange and leadership theory and that led to an expanded understanding that workplace bullying was a product of sociation governed by leadership.

Literature Review Documentation

In the review of the literature, a select group of major foundational theorists across the domains of social theory, leadership theory, and organizational, theory provided the study's underpinning. Social theorists and their works include Simmel, Lewin, Heider, Homans, Coleman, Mead, and Giddens. The social theorists contributed fundamental literature that framed the social constructs and context in which leaders and leadership exited. Foundational theorists for leadership focused on the transforming leader as proposed by Burns and extended to the transformational leader by Bass. Further foundational leadership discussion included literature and research material for complex adaptive systems by Goldstein and Hazy and CLT by Uhl-Bien, Marion, Lichtenstein, and Plowman. Key organizational theory and discussion by Burke, Schein, and Senge were included because of their seminal works on organizational change resulting from an open system and the similarities and reliance of this discussion with complex adaptive systems and complexity leadership. In sum, these theorists and their published contributions were chosen because of an established recognition of them as major contributors to their given fields, recognition by other scholarship that their contributions have broad and cross-domain appeal and application, and because their contributions represented major advancements to knowledge within their respective domains as well as across domains.

This review of the current literature for this study examined the scholarly primary and secondary research on workplace bullying, leadership, communication, organizational behavior, psychology, armed forces, and social structures. The works were published from 2007 to the present and ranging from primary and secondary research

conducted in advanced and industrialized societies and organizations across the globe and in multiple cultures. In certain cases, studies, research, and literature older than 2007 were used because these documents provided substantial contributions in consideration that their absence would negatively affect analysis and synthesis. Google Scholar was the Internet search engine of choice. Basic and thematic searches used text strings and terms about the bullying, leadership, and organizational literature. Refined searches by reviewing the Google Scholar abstracts for additional or related terms returned relevant documents to the study. Linking Google Scholar to the Walden University Library, U.S. Army Combined Arms Research Library (CARL) at Fort Leavenworth, KS, and the Library of Congress literary databases, directly returned a wide variety of relevant and potential unformed resource locators.

The following databases provided additional resources to locate authors, research themes, and specific studies identified in Google Scholar search returns: ABI/INFORM Complete, Academic Search Complete, CINAHL Plus with Full Text, Emerald Management Journals, IEEE Xplore Digital Library, LexisNexis Academic, MEDLINE with Full Text, Military & Government Collection, Ovid Nursing Journals Full Text, ProQuest Central, SAGE Premier, ScienceDirect, SocINDEX with Full Test, and Taylor and Francis Online databases through Walden University Library and U.S. Army Combined Arms Research Library (CARL) at Fort Leavenworth, KS services. A common and successful practice was to use single line search terms associated with the phenomenon along with a Boolean logic operator or an author's name to search these databases above.

Additionally, to validate the contents of the literature, each relevant journal and published reference's bibliography yielded cited scholarly works meeting the base date and domain criteria. Using the bibliographic references of relevant studies and research proved invaluable to the literature search. Key search terms used were *workplace bullying, other bullying terms related to social, organizational, the military, and leadership subjects. Some key major bullying themes used included the following: workplace bullying, military bullying, victims and perpetrators, dyad, triad, group bullying antecedents, formal and informal leadership and bullying. Some major organizational and military organization themes used were the following: group and team dynamics, open systems, mission command, commander's intent, complex adaptive systems, toxic leadership, sociation, social exchange, group balance, organizational antecedents, power, conflict, and behavioral, social,* and *organizational scripts*. The net result of searches conducted during the literature review yielded a minimum of 1,500 multidisciplinary peer-reviewed journal articles and published major works meeting search criteria. From this collection, 980 peer-reviewed journal articles and 17 major scholarly works, and multiple U.S. Army doctrinal publications contributed to the proposal's bibliography as well as to the literature review and study.

To understand the content and processes of stressors in the squad, team, or section workplace bullying was an appropriate and socially contextual start point. Socially, workplace bullying represented a pathway to contextualize conflict and group dynamics. Contextually for the CLT bonding process workplace bullying represented the negative extreme or absolute failure of the process. By contextual, the literature meant it was completely constrained, and our understanding of it was solely determined by the self-

reporting of victims and perpetrators. We can understand how it works through our knowledge of perpetrator and victim actions, but there was little if any information in the extant to identify its underlying principles. There was no workplace bullying theory available from the literature to frame it. Rather, contrary positions within the literature represented a variable range of currently acceptable explanations that described its agents and agencies instead of purely sided oppositional or controversial views. For example, there is agreement as to the fact, but the literature lacks an underlying framework to understand motive and means. In the social context, workplace bullying synthesized a default range of individual, organizational, and sociocultural roles individuals in groups exercised through social exchange and therefore offered an excellent social gateway to explore the study phenomenon.

Literature Synthesis

The underlying intent for a literature synthesis was to guide this research in a direction that moved beyond the general frustration with the facts of workplace bullying to advancing efforts for an operant solution in a synthesis of agents and agency through a leadership lens. Other issues researched are as follows: the enigma and evolution of workplace bullying, a theoretical foundation to frame the social and leadership structures, the types of bullying, the antecedents, social status, leadership, and scripts as agent, agency. The current literature organized along three broad lines of the following: (a) prevalence, (b) antecedents, and (c) effects (Samnani & Singh, 2012). Studies emphasizing prevalence defined the empirical nature of workplace bullying as a measurable common workplace and organizational phenomenon (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011; Nielsen et al., 2011; Escartín et al., 2011). Other studies examining the antecedents

of workplace bullying followed a general pattern of empirical research exploring the individual, organizational, and social personality factors and behaviors of perpetrators and victims (Lewis et al., 2011; Neuman et al., 2011; Salin & Hoel, 2011). In its widest aperture, previous researchers explored the effects of workplace bullying outcomes. The previous research included both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies on social forms and structures (Almost, Doran, Hall, & Laschinger, 2010; Bender & Lösel, 2011; Escartín, Ullrich, Zapf, Schlüter, & van Dick, 2013; Yildirim, 2009). All three of these broad lines were equally applicable to the concept of workplace bullying. However, the overall literature was missing information that defined a true taxonomy for the root antecedents and their role in workplace bullying despite a considerable amount of empirical inquiries examining its prevalence. Complicating this deficit was also a body of literature representative of a consensus of definitions highly based on recorded perceptions as opposed to a theoretical standard definition to frame further research of both phenomenon and context (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Goldsmid & Howie, 2013). Researchers in Europe and North American walked the phenomenon and their approach back to the early work of Brodsky and Leymann, 1976 and 1996, respectively. The early works followed along two general explanatory and exploratory psychosocial and socio-cultural paths consisting of primarily quantitative studies that examined a level of either individualized or organizational prevalence or antecedents (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). Within these two lines of study, the consistent research goal was to measure by survey the perpetrator, victim, and witness perceptions. The challenge for this survey methodology was the variance that occurred due to shifts in individual victim and perpetrator conceptual understanding of bullying events. The methodology placed limits

on the scope and scale of surveys; there was overlap, but no unity; there was behavior, but incomplete relationships; there was perception, but the lack of holistic understanding.

Presently, there was considerable emphasis on related studies for employing statistical sampling that measured these perceptions of individuals or groups involved or witnessing the bullying behavior (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). In these quantitative inquiries and based on the data and analysis, researchers most typically concluded with statements identifying relationships between reports of negative individual and organizational antecedents and a perceived scale and impact workplace bullying has on individuals and organizations (Alexander, MacLaren, O'Gorman, & Taheri, 2012). Therefore, the typical conclusion often ended with a statement to the effect all bullying behavior is negative and incompatible with organizational goals to produce goods and services responsibly. While quantitative methodologies have led to statistical generalization, qualitative researchers suggested this might miss the possibility that workplace bullying was a necessary activity both expected and demanded by leadership (Alexander et al., 2012). While no current researcher of workplace bullying would have considered any methodology that led to this conclusion as either ideal or acceptable, it did open the door to an atheoretical possibility (Easton, 2010). In other words, the interpretist researcher considered data and information in relationships beyond the standard quid pro quo of positivist research (Sayer, 2010). Secondly, statistical inference, which appeared in workplace bullying research, did not necessarily mean causal relationship but simply represented the measurement at a point in time (Easton, 2010; Sayer, 2010).

The workplace bullying qualitative research, on the other hand, demonstrated attempts to seek an interpretist view involving the social agents and activity acting as complex agents in complex ways. The nursing profession provided many of the qualitative studies. This representation was in part due to the fact nurses were disproportionately plagued by the workplace bullying and a toxic leader problem. and highly dependent upon social interactions for outcomes (Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson, & Wilkes, 2010). However, this qualitative research suffered from a few defects of its making.

Much of the quantitative research characterized workplace bullying as anti-social behaviors but missed the holistic symbolic interactions of relationships of normal social relationships that account for the complex processes of sociation (Andrade, 2009). The qualitative studies focused similarly toward the defining of relationships among individual antecedents, perceptions, and the actions of perpetrator and victim. However, the qualitative studies like their quantitative sibling explored a process involving characteristics but missed embedding the processes of workplace bullying or toxic leadership within a process of processes CAS studies previously suggested as a system of systems problem. A system of systems approach is problematic because antisocial behavior represented the extreme of the sociation process embedded within a larger one of normal sociation. Social conflict was a normal and expected social activity (Heider, 1958; Simmel & Wolff, 1950); change was normal and expected (Burke, 2011; Giddens, 1984; Heider, 1958); sociation had normal and expected defects (Homans and Merton, 1974).

Qualitative research suffers its own "truth" complex because by nature it relies on small data samples that are often characteristically unrepresentative of the phenomenon (Easton, 2010). The representation of the truth for the range of sociation becomes more important when the researcher considered sociation emblematic of generalized social processes or a process of processes. Sociation did not take away from the value of the qualitative inquiry but merely further drove the need and support for a qualitative case study inquiry that would explore for the behavioral, organizational, and social scripts that could serve, define, and frame the informal leaders mediating or ameliorating role in the adaptive environment.

Although new scholarship continues to emerge, inconsistencies remained that could interpret properly the current knowledge arising out of the multiple social structures and forces and the social processes involved in workplace bullying (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). Some of this shift was due in part to public outcry and social interest in tackling a growing crisis in public education over concerns about bullying (Olweus, 2013). First, there was an indication that the earlier scholars prematurely overlooked Leymann (1996) evidence organizational behavior such as failed leadership were the antecedents (Samnani & Singh, 2012) for personal antecedents studies that found individual behavior was responsible for school bullying (Olweus, 2013). By doing so, the literature bifurcated the research between psychological constructs and ethical or social constructs (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Sercombe & Donnelly, 2013). These researchers further bifurcated between European and North American views of social constructs (Einarsen et al., 2011; Namie, 2003; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2011). In Europe, research framed bullying as a group action, mobbing anteceded by conflicts of worker

stresses between the classes, (Saam, 2010; Zapf et al., 2011), and failures by

organizations and governments policy makers (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Beale, 2011;

Parzefall & Salin, 2010). Researchers in the U.S. and Canada, framed workplace bullying

in psychosocial terms such as anger and aggression, workplace deviance,

counterproductive work behavior, and gender discrimination (Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

Bifurcation has clearly led to definitional dilemmas of the phenomenon. Some

researchers having advocated a time sensitive definition (see Einarsen et al., 2011), others

who discounted time and advocated a simple perceptional definition (see Yhan, 2012),

and others who advocated a definition based on an escalation of events (see Namie,

2003).

Second, the concept of workplace bullying from the literature represented a series

of complex and multi-causal actors and agencies who operated across multiple levels

(Hutchinson et al., 2010; Saam, 2010). This previous research and literature captured

bullying as it occurred within a "range of factors found at many explanatory levels"

(Einarsen et al., 2011, p. 29). One approach the literature took was to reconcile and join

the complexities of psychological and organizational antecedents with SE theory

(Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

Third, researchers consistently portrayed workplace bullying as contextual. It was

seen and recorded through the eyes of those victimized or epistemological. In the

epistemological sense it was caused by the interaction and relationship of variables at

three primary levels, the socio-cultural, the organizational, and the individual or

ontological sense (Agervold, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Monks et al., 2009; Sercombe

& Donnelly, 2013). Therefore, constructs for the phenomenon within the literature were

conceptual. The literature provided significant information and examples to demonstrate workplace bullying was a concept constructed primarily from these self-reported cases. Therefore, the complexity of the relationship contributed to understanding it. Workplace bullying was first a dyadic relationship between perpetrator and victim followed. Second, it was a triadic relationship between perpetrator, victim, and bystander. In no case does workplace bullying occur outside of a social relationship (Baughman, Dearing, Giammarco, & Vernon, 2012; Einarsen et al., 2011; Rhodes, Pullen, Vickers, Clegg, & Pitsis, 2010). Workplace bullying was also a social phenomenon bound within a variety of behavioral and psychological elements or scripts. These occurred within social settings between dyads and triads (Baughman et al., 2012; Einarsen et al., 2011; Rhodes, et.al, 2010).

Fourth, it was a phenomenon seen and reported as asymmetrical. It was asymmetrical due to the differentials of equality reported in the forms of power and resources between perpetrator and victim. Additionally, it is asymmetrical due to the unpredictability for the negative psycho-social scripts, demeaning and humiliating behaviors, unethical leadership, and organizationally sanctioned actions occurring and directed at victims (Johnson, 2009; MacIntosh, O'Donnell, Wuest, & Merritt-Gray, 2011; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). Perpetrators often exploited opportunities of inequality (weakness) between agents. These perpetrators often used power and resources, and a victim's inability to marshal counter-power or resources at undesignated times and often across multiple levels (Eriksen, Nielsen, & Simonsen, 2012; Nikiforakis, Normann, & Wallace, 2010; Simmel & Wolff, 1950).

Some researchers disputed the dyadic foundation (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010; Rhodes et al., 2010) for triadic agency and exchange where "[B]ullying was clearly an organizational, not an individual, problem" (Lutgen-Sandvik, Namie, & Namie, 2009, p. 43). For example, when violence and workplace bullying bred ethical violations between individuals and went unchecked by the organization the greater fault lay with the organization and above (Rhodes et al., 2010). Some researchers suggested that societal power was causal where the roles of societal norms, injustice, and justice anteceded the behavior (Carbo & Hughes, 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Misawa, 2009; Neuman et al., 2011). There was corroboration in part by researchers who found that workplace bullies used social power as both context and pretext to act (Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009, p. 1580). Workplace bullying also consisted of dyadic actors and agency correlated to resources (Pan, Wang, & Tsai, 2011). However, there were also conceptual overlaps in the operant manifestation of workplace bullying namely in the form of conflict and stress, but these were distinguishable from normal organizational behavior by isolation of three distinct forms of negative workplace behavior namely verbal, physical, and power abuse (Hutchinson et al., 2010). There were also significant factors that differentiated it from normal social conflict and stressors (Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009). Some of these factors were duration, frequency, imbalances in power, and post-traumatic stress (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009).

However, much of the current of researchers tilted toward conceptual interventionist models focused at the dyadic level with two actors, an action, and agency or sociation. This conceptual acuity found the principal focal point was on a dyadic level between the victim and perpetrator (Einarsen et al., 2011; Jenkins, Winefield, & Sarris,

2011; Keashly et al., 2011; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). While this foundation of

individual antecedents consumed most of the research, again, it was not the only

proposition. Select case studies showed the organization also contributed by becoming

the workplace bully (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Rhodes et al., 2010). Overall, the

missing piece appeared in the form of development strategies to guide present research to

the organizational and socio-cultural levels. Development strategies could have built the

wider construct that understood the acts of sociation between three actors and models

(Homans and Merton, 1974). It can be done in a way that the wider body of scholars

could have depicted as social exchange across groups and alliances (Monks et al., 2009;

Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

Some statistical models such as the Leymann model and Glasl dispute-related

model (DRM) suggested workplace bullying was situational in nature with organizational

factors as the primary antecedents (Einarsen et al., 2011; Lester, 2009; Nielsen,

Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2010). Other case study researchers saw it differently suggesting

the problem was simply situational in nature, for example, every reported instance was

completely subjective, and the nature and means of intent were not fully understood

(Parzefall & Salin, 2010). A situational condition could explain the over focus on using

statistical methods to study and relate the individual context. Other researchers have

shown a socio-ecological holistic model could be successfully predictive of bullying, for

example where such a model predicted school bullying (Swearer, Espelage, Vaillancourt,

& Hymel, 2010).

Nonetheless, the advantage of Swearer et al. (2010) study was its similarity to

Einarsen et al. (2011) framework in that it accounted for simultaneous interdependencies

between social, organizational, and individual antecedents. On a tangential note, the

Swearer et al. (2010) model nested well with social cognitive theory by framing bullying

behaviors as learned behaviors. This latter relationship was otherwise relatively

unexplored by the current workplace bullying scholarship. In other research the complex

adaptive system (CAS) and the multi-agent system (MAS) models placed workplace

bullying above the normal dyadic interaction to the group level (Einarsen et al., 2011;

Fevre, Robinson, Jones, & Lewis, 2010; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010; Parzefall &

Salin, 2010). CAS and MAS researchers depicted the bully as an innate unavoidable

biosocial function of the balance between actors operating in environments demanding

change (Gutierrez & García-Magariño, 2011; Kinicki, Jacobson, Galvin, & Prussia,

2011).

　　　All this complexity and multiversity within the literature still bore the common

theme that came full circle back to Einarsen et al. (2011) multidimensional framework as

appropriate to explore the phenomenon. Nevertheless, it was important to keep similar

frameworks such as Hutchinson et al. (2010) multidimensional model and Saam (2010)

propositions of a very similar multilevel model as better accounts for workplace bully

agents and agency. Hutchinson et al. (2010, p. 177) and Saam (2010) found a positive

relationship between organizational mechanisms and socialization of workplace. The

variety in models created some difficulty finding original attribution for bullying

behavior at either individual, organizational, sociocultural levels (Parzefall & Salin,

2010). However, there remained additional room for the inclusion of all three individuals,

organizational, and organizational antecedents as explanatory in both dyadic and triadic

relationships (Van de Rijt, 2011) when the research factored the informal leader as agent and agency.

Einarsen et al. (2011) framework and to a lesser degree Hutchinson et al. (2010, p. 177), and Saam (2010) addressed multilevel arguments missing from some of the literature. They addressed these arguments by opening a new role of entanglement relationships with the introduction of organization, cultural, and socioeconomic variables (pp. 29-31), and better defining the dyadic roles. These entangling roles were precisely a nature of a "true exchange" (Homans and Merton, 1974, p. 30). Einarsen et al. (2011) established a conceptual stage to research into organizational behavioral and psychosocial scripts, for example, the small group and team (Saam, 2010). Einarsen et al. (2011, pp. 29-31), Hutchinson et al. (2010, p. 177), and Saam (2010) had essentially allowed for the exploratory research of workplace bullying consistent with social theory's view of dyads and triads. The research explored dyads and triads as moderators of the system's behavioral and organizational scripts (Saam, 2010; Simmel & Wolff, 1950; Yoon et al., 2013). In this view, the literature supported a natural codependency (Saam, 2010; Yoon et al., 2013) between Simmel and Wolff (1950) and Einarsen et al. (2011) where the survival of the system was dependent upon the continued interaction within the environment wherein it existed. Therefore, for change to occur, it must have been open and selective to its inputs and outputs (Burke, 2011).

Einarsen et al. (2011), Hutchinson et al. (2010, p. 177), and Saam (2010) frameworks offered a unifying higher model representation of earlier social theory frameworks. They each provide a context to observe and record the dynamics and nature of the complex interactions between lower level agents and the higher-level system

within a social system. The one major limitation imposed by studies on the Einarsen et al. (2011) framework was that much of the instrumentation for understanding workplace bullying relied on perpetrator-victim self-assessment as opposed to socially constructed interpretation. Unfortunately, the current bullying research missed entanglement or the interrelationships between actors and the organization, that is, the process similarly described for structuration.

Structuration placed the social actor into a codependent relationship with the social organization to deliver change (Giddens, 1984). In turn, studies underpinned by structuration showed attribution could explain behavioral and organizational scripts (Grgecic, 2011). Actions of actors were attributable to either personal antecedents or organizational antecedents within a context of interrelationships driven by social exchange and change to create the social balance sheet (Homans & Merton, 1974). The dyadic role and the feedback imparted by the actors and the organization were the critical elements stimulating organizational change (Burke, 2011; Giddens, 1984). Einarsen et al. (2011) framework was a natural extension of a Lewin (1997) framework. Einarsen et al. (2011) capturing these same dynamics and tension by positing that the properties of the group were empirically different from the properties of those individual members comprising it; the group can be wholly symmetrical while its individual agents acted asymmetrically (Lewin, 1997, p. 73).

The state of current research focused entirely on understanding the scope of workplace bullying "at the expense of construct research and research on methodologies" designed to find causation (Nielsen et al., 2011, p. 149). Einarsen et al. (2011) assessed and recognized that changing our perception of this phenomenon needed to occur through

a sociation framework made up social exchanges proposed earlier by preeminent social theorists (see Homans & Merton, 1974; Heider, 1958; Simmel & Wolff, 1950; Lewin, 1997). The extant majority of bullying researchers did support a view that workplace bullying was conceptual seen and recorded through the eyes of those victimized. Researchers agreed workplace bullying was contextual; it was caused by the interaction and relationship of variables at three primary levels, the socio-cultural, the organizational, and the individual (Agervold, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011). Researchers also reduced workplace bullying to a single ontological argument of two actors, their actions, and an epistemological one that sociation between actors yielded change.

At the same time, social theorists and thereby social constructivists did offer an adequate address to both these arguments through the concept of sociation. Bullying researchers overall did not. However, in the bullying argumentative equation, these ontological and epistemological arguments could be successfully concatenated one after each other if the focus moved to interrelationships and entanglement. The bifurcation among the researchers exemplified on the one hand as codependence, for example, a governance of actions joining the individuals to each other—recursive (see Giddens, 1984). While on another hand the work of complexity leadership in the small triadic group first suggested by (Simmel & Wolff, 1950) must be joined together in a holistic framework. This study offered a directional shift for the literature by contributing additional knowledge about change management as the enabling function or the social structure that can press upon the social forces like administrative and adaptive leaders.

Leadership as a Social Mediator

Leadership as a social mediator emphasizes influence or the ability to accomplish a mission or goal with and without power (Cohen & Bradford, 2007). Therefore, in this context, it was a concept of influence. This concept of influence was critical for this study to understand how military leaders understand, envision, and employ the leadership medium. Leadership styles such as tyrannical and laissez-faire have influenced individuals or the organization to produce negative environments such as workplace bullying or toxic leadership (Salin & Hoel, 2011). Leadership types like weak, passive, or uninvolved served to antecede and increase workplace tensions. These poor leader types led to increased workplace conflict (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). As a social process, this agent and agency were currently recognized as a failure of the formal leader (Keller-Glaze et al., 2010; Leymann, 1996; Riley, Hatfield, Paddock, & Fallesen, 2013; Steele, 2011b; Ulmer, 2012). The U.S. Army has previously acknowledged these former antecedents of leadership style and type as inconsistent with the current demands of organizational variables and the social situation with the U.S. Army. These antecedents violate leadership tenets of character, ethos, and virtue within the Leadership Requirements Model (LRM), be, know, and do (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b).

Conflict and conflicting roles influence leadership styles (Notelaers, De Witte, & Einarsen, 2010). Leadership is a consumer of conflict and power, and these two are common in the research to mediate workplace bullying (Thomas, 1974). Leadership as a consumer of conflict uses power to mediate workplace bullying (Heider, 1958; Lewin, 1997; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Simmel, 1969). Both formal and informal leaders used bullying as a tactic to relate among peers, and control subordinates as well as

insulate their job security namely in the form of controlling job demands and job resources (Tuckey, Chrisopoulos, & Dollard, 2012). Researchers reported nearly all bullies were bosses (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010) supported in part by consistent examples that victims rarely felt empowered to face-off or repel the bully, for example, the power disparity factor (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). There was a consistent managerial or supervisory component in all types of workplace bullying (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Bulutlar & Öz, 2009). A finding of supervisory complicity led to a conclusion that supervisory bullying carried far more negative consequences than did other types (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Researchers suggested the roles and factors of formal leadership were a leading contributor to conflict and bullying and informal leadership as the "unofficial institution of spontaneous leadership" created greater organizational effects upon the problem (Einarsen et al., 2011, p. 177). Corroborating Einarsen et al. (2011) was the idea that connecting ethical behavior with moral reasoning negatively related ethical leadership to bullying (Stouten et al., 2010). There was also a strong direct relationship between the leadership characteristics of role modeling and significant influence on all types of misconduct with especially strong influences on favoritism and types of ill-treatment against employees (Hoel et al., 2010).

U.S. Army Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) researchers reported this strong correlation or linkages between stress, failed leadership, and perceptions of workplace toxicity in the IBCT (Steele, 2011a). Other studies showed strong correlations existed between leadership and team performance when job-specific stressors such as workplace bullying acted as negative antecedents

(Lars, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2007). U.S. Army unit success and soldier performance in the complex environment depended on healthy CLT entanglement processes between a functioning ethical leadership and small unit operators (U.S. Department of the Army, 2008; U.S. Department of the Army, 2007). Failed leadership was a major antecedent to both negative individual and organizational outcomes (Hoel et al., 2011). The presence of toxic leadership exemplified failed bonding as well as a lack of informal leadership processes. This form of workplace bullying threatened the U.S. Army's ability to effectively confront and adapt to regular and irregular contemporary threats (Steele, 2011a).

In every bullying situation, there was a hierarchical component both actual and perceived, for example, formal or informal agents and agency operated and worked on a continuous basis that truly influenced bullying outcomes (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Neuman & Keashly, 2010). There was a similar relationship when the interests of the organization conflicted with the interest of the individual—the organization was the bully (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). From the literature, the hierarchical component was an interaction and a power differential that existed between actors in the dyads and was historically the process of formal leadership (Bass & Bass, 2009; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2012). Some studies reported certain leadership styles to be indicators of bullying; other researchers had identified "unofficial leaders" as being reportedly significant mechanisms in mediating within the organizational dyad (Leymann, 1996; Salin & Hoel, 2011, p. 233; Yammarino, 1995).

Other research noted "high inter-correlations," for example, a distinctive relationship of structural balance consistent with contingency theory of leadership when

leaders adapted their styles to meet fluctuations in organizational demands vis-à-vis

creating perceptions of punishment and workplace bullying (Hoel et al., 2010, p. 462).

While contingency leadership theory was designed to describe the relationship of

leadership to the demands of situational variables (Northouse, 2012), there was also a

potential linkage to both Hiederian and Simmelian propositions. Therefore, a social

exchange resulted from actions of social agency to gain a resource during leader-member

relations (Hoel et al., 2010).

Formal Leadership

The U.S. Army assigned individuals to leadership positions based one's ability to

apply the art and science of leadership successfully as a skill competency and ability to

execute leadership qualities (U.S. Department of the Army, 2005). U.S. Army leadership

doctrine and regulation did not use a leadership classification system that described

formal leadership as self-emergence, shared-leadership, or self-organizing as CAS

suggested for modern leadership (U.S. Department of the Army, 2005; U.S. Department

of the Army, 2013a). Despite this discrepancy, the U.S. Army recognized a similar

concept of team leadership as contributory to Army goals. The U.S. Army formally states

formal leaders positively influence their group networks through the display of ethical

leadership roles and behavior, which leads to increased task proficiency, job satisfaction,

group retention, and a reduction in work-related stressors (Piccolo, et al., 2010; U.S.

Department of the Army, 2012c). Complex adaptive systems organized around a

bureaucratic leadership function depend upon effective mediation processes of stressors

between the formal and informal leadership through entanglement to achieve emergent

leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

Leadership networks and leaders were uniquely positioned to establish an organization's persona. These leaders and networks created this persona by defining the norms and values in the form of scripts that influenced small unit and team dynamics (Avery et al., 2009; Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Drori et al., 2009; Klöckner & Matthies, 2012; Schank & Abelson, 2013; Van Fleet & Griffin, 2006). Leadership networks and leaders positively influenced their small unit or team through the display of ethically normal behavior, which led to increased task proficiency, job satisfaction, group retention, and a reduction in work-related stressors (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Piccolo et al., 2010). Within the organizational dyad dyadic leadership, for example, structural leadership created artifacts that gave a qualitative structure to the working environment and affected the efficiencies, attitudes, and well-being of the workforce (Stouten et al., 2010). A qualitative structure led to potentially observable stability or a structural equilibrium in the organization dyad. However, understanding how the informal leader contributed to structural balance and acted upon the creation or dissolution of social networks as a mediator in this triadic relationship, for example, when observing, participating, or intervening in the perpetrator/victim-organizational dyad remained an enigma (Pielstick, 2000) and the solution. In other words, leadership whether formal or informal and the leader was a structural component acted in a way that created or rearranged social arrangements (mediate) and that reduced overall tensions so to that balance was restored to the organizational dyad (Hummon & Doreian, 2003).

Einarsen et al. (2011, p. 23) also conceptualized leadership as an organizational inhibitor calling it an influential contributor to workplace bullying and one in symbiotic relationship occurring at the dyadic organizational level in both and peculiar ways. He

saw leadership a major factor that mediated workplace bullying and conflict through the formal and informal process mechanisms of leadership. He is supported in part by Hiederian social structure theory and Simmelian tie theory. Their propositions state that formal social agency in this case leadership operated or facilitated the movement of social members and themselves in and out of groups based on a desire to maintain social balance or equilibrium (Hummon & Doreian, 2003; Krackhardt & Handcock, 2007; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004). This concept suggested in part that a prescription begins with the formal leadership quality (Leymann, 1996). For some, it was the dynamic basis of the organizational dyadic relationship (Neuman & Keashly, 2010; Neuman et al., 2011). At the minimum, researchers suggest there needs a deeper understanding of this formal leadership quality and its mediation between workplace bullying and the organization (Salin & Hoel, 2011; Stouten et al., 2010).

Informal Leadership

One of the very interesting facts in the modern leadership literature was that the wide aperture scholars have created for the informal leader. On one extreme, Bass and Bass (2009) devoted a scant few lines describing the term informal leader and no further significant discussion beyond a description that explained the concept within the context of mobbing (p.11) or one of four possible types leader (p.28). On the other hand, an entire industry of nurse practitioners recognized depended on and employed the informal leader to provide a range of individual and organizational acute care (Downey, Parslow, & Smart, 2011). In between these extremes, the remaining scholarly literature in both conceptual and contextual terms.

Informal leadership went by many different terms but began with the term informal views of leadership (Yammarino, 1995). Therefore, it was considered a unique and a lesser researched type of leadership structure. Nevertheless, as researchers expanded the literature it was specifically adapted to the dyadic organizational levels between the victim, perpetrator, the peer/group and other bystanders or actors at the dyadic organizational level (Pescosolido, 2001; Pielstick, 2000; & Yammarino, 1995). This expanded research pointed to the informal leader as the foci of influence in all group and team matters (Pescosolido, 2001). This early research found significantly greater perception among co-workers of informal leaders' leadership prowess than for formal leaders and offered formative insights to expand the research (Pielstick, 2000). More importantly, Other researchers described the informal leader as more competent than appointed leaders and one that gained greater influence within the organization over time (Yammarino, 1995; Yammarino, Dionne, Schriesheim, & Dansereau, 2008).

The U.S. Army concept of the informal leader reported a similar but slower development in its doctrinal literature. Iterative versions of the U.S. Army's principal leadership manual for leadership including it most current version give just a few lines of recognition (cf in *ADP 6-22, Army Leadership*). However, development of the U.S. Army's description and the concept of informal leaders followed a different trajectory of recognition and development in its scholarly leadership material. For example, there were open-ended implications that this leader was essential to operations and a recognized leader in literature premised on operations in complex and adaptive environments (Training and Doctrine Command, 2010; Training and Doctrine Command, 2012; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). This development or recognition of a different set of

leadership dynamics in operations seemed to parallel other researcher's leadership scholarly literature development for leadership models in complex systems. Nevertheless, within this broad range, some common characteristics emerged from the literature.

First, the term informal leader was not codified and from a strict literature review. The term represented a kaleidoscope of variants for a leadership model or style of those who displayed variables, patterns, and factors that led to successful organizational change outside of conventional formal leadership, for example, the study of emergent leadership (Balthazard, Waldman, & Warren, 2009; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). These variants were problematic, but if accepted the premise of Balthazard et al. (2009) that any form of leadership that facilitated or drove organizational change outside of the theoretical, formal leader became a point of understanding the varied contexts and explanations from the majority of the literature.

From the practitioner's standpoint, expertise coupled with a common organizational trait that others within the organizational dyad or triad tended to rally toward them influeced the common theme for an informal leader qualities. The other common theme was that the literature placed this type of leader in organizations undergoing significant change, organizations in competitive overdrive, operations or entities specifically organized to be adaptive. Some researcher suggested CLT offered a conceptual basis for the informal leader to emerge (Balthazard et al., 2009; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). However, others suggested that a conceptual basis leaned more toward established theory of organizational change (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). The single common caveat emerged that an informal leader was in either a centralized or decentralized decision-making hierarchy.

Aside from the wide aperture there developed from the research that this form of leader it was more applicable and important to discern the impact than to define it. Defining the informal leader was outside the scope of this research even if this leader was a subset of traditional leadership in the form of the charismatic, transformational, authentic, and distributive leadership or that their quality emerged from the evolutionary dynamics of complexity theory. Pielstick (2000) viewed informal leaders as moral, inspiring, and interactive than their formal counterparts were. This comparative analysis to Pielstick corresponded significantly with the premise that leadership dyads were central to the perception, reactions, and outcomes associated with workplace bullying (Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Stouten et al., 2010; Stouten, Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012). Stouten et al. (2010) and Parzefall et al. (2010).

However, Pielstick (2000) made an important contribution to the literature and especially applicable to this study by identifying an essential cluster of six major themes that described a potential "leadership profile" (p. 2) for the entanglement or adaptive process. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) also identified a meso set of leadership actions in their propositions, but not necessarily delineated into a finite set of attributes or profiles as Pielstick. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) considered these meso functions to produce results based on individually contextualized interactions and phased functions as an opposed to a simple "scientific" (p. 637) set of cause and effects variables. Therefore, these six themes, shared vision, character, relationships, community, guidance, and communication together formed a clustered set of profiles that at least open an aperture for this study to explore how informal leadership entangles. Pielstick (2000) study demonstrated that these six themes or leadership profiles were sufficient findings, "there

is a significant difference between formal and informal leaders overall and for each of the six clusters, with informal leaders scoring higher in each category" (p. 7).

These informal networks and leaders were the Army organizational dyadic mainstay to share information and lessons learned within the group network structures (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). Informal leaders also formed a pool of leadership development candidates from which superiors looked to build future formal leaders (Pierce, 2010). Strong or effective informal leaders scored higher marks for formal promotion than those of just average leadership skills; therefore, leveraging the informal networks and informal leadership in an IBCT organization contributed a vital function toward task proficiency and mission accomplishment (Pierce, 2010).

Military Leadership—the Profession of Arms

The military leadership was a unique form of leadership specifically tailored to the military institution and the profession of arms (Halpin, 2011; Laurence, 2011; Morath, Leonard, & Zaccaro, 2011). From the practical and historical perspectives, social and civil institutions since ancient times studied military leadership while other militaries emulate other military having strong professional leaders (Laurence, 2011). The factors making military leadership so unique and desirable was that without it nations lose wars and militaries become wholesale ineffective (Halpin, 2011). Specifically, it was the extreme context of warfighting in which the military normally operates (Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta, 2009; Wong, Bliese, & McGurk, 2003). It is also the institutional commitment to a primacy of authority (Wong & Lovelace, 2008) which set it uniquely apart from any other form of leadership except perhaps ecclesiastical.

The U.S. Army defined leadership conceptually as "the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012ba). Contextually it is defined by "a complex mix of organizational, situational, and mission demands" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b), that required leaders to make "choices and establish unifying direction for the organization" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The second unique aspect of military leadership was that context drove changes to the concept (Morath et al., 2011). The military was in a constant state of leadership adaptation to the demands of the past, the present, and the future operational environments (Training and Doctrine Command, 2010). However, military leadership maintained a strong bond between the statutory and institutional deference to authority that arose (context) both in garrison and in the operational environment. This deference to authority bound and drove military members to perform actions in total contravention to their well-being or conceptual understanding at times (Wong & Lovelace, 2008). Toxic leaders often exploited this aspect to an extreme, but often with an ever-increasing risk of insubordination of subordinate leadership failure and potential military defeat.

To understand this concept the following excerpts offered a typical benign example of military deference to blind authority:

A group of senior leaders snapped to attention and "present arms" at a bugle call *To the Color* at a midday outdoor event. Typically, all soldiers know this bugle call occurs in the morning and the afternoon when the national ensign is either raised or lowered for the day. The senior leaders cognitively knew this was out of place, but because an anonymous individual issued the command "Attention,"

everyone within the group complied and rendered honors at the Attention and with "present arms" as a precaution that their tacit sense of right and wrong might be untrustworthy. At a midway point in the bugle call, the notes abruptly stopped without completing the rendition. Naturally, these leaders simply went to "order arms" and carried on with their event as though out of the ordinary occurred (Wong & Lovelace, 2008, pp. 278-279).

Most likely, an individual had mainly put the bugle call on the loudspeaker system. Such a scenario illustrated how military leadership was also contextual despite the conceptual basis for the event. The impact of this contextual nature drove leadership across the Army especially when leaders became toxic, and other leaders or individuals did not speak up directly to align the contextual setting with the known conceptual underpinnings. Therefore, the act of not speaking up is a cause for concern. Some researchers had suggested that the status quo and personal agendas justified this misalignment of context with concept further complicating failures in leadership (Fallesen, Keller-Glaze, & Curnow, 2011; Riley, Hatfield, Nicely, Keller-Glaze, & Steele, 2011; Riley, Conrad, & Keller-Glaze, 2012; Riley et al., 2013; Riley, Hatfield, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2014; Steele, 2011a; Steele, 2011b).

The profession of arms was a distinct and unique culture (Rubin, Weiss, & Coll, 2012). Many scholars presented the military profession as a cultural identity creating an enduring worldview that subdued individualism for collectivism and one that completely governed self-identity (Rubin et al., 2012). U.S. Army members who work in the small unit and team did so within a social context of the profession of arms on and within self-contained based clusters and training centers large and small across the globe and this

study (Training and Doctrine Command & Cone, 2011; Training and Doctrine

Command, 2012). Wholly comprised of an all-volunteer force dedicated to serving the

nation, win its wars, and secure its peace (Training and Doctrine Command, 2012) like

many workers they were psychologically invested in the workplace and derived

important stimulus from it (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Tepper et al., 2009). Within the

confines of the social context was a profession that was highly qualified and considered

racially and ethnically diverse (Fisher v. University of Texas at austin. 2011). Socially,

status and position were fixed. There was a predefined social order of two classes, officer

and enlisted, established by statute and governed by regulation, but also reinforced by

ethos, tradition, and pomp (Grutter v. bollinger.2003; Rubin et al., 2012).

Two classes suggested there are two binding factors at work creating the unique

context of the profession of arms. The first factor was the organizational ethos or ethic.

The ethos or ethic provided a common means to control and direct the social actions of

members to a common goal in the presence of chaos (Snider, Oh, & Toner, 2009). The

U.S. Army considered their ethic or ethos essential to their combat effectiveness and trust

relationship with the civilian sector vis-à-vis it acted as a principal multiplier to the

development of both their individual and collective lethality (Snider et al., 2009; U.S.

Department of the Army, 2012b). The second factor was the concept of a social duality,

for example, of being both on-duty and off-duty simultaneously every day in any locale

(Lomsky-Feder, Gazit, & Ben-Ari, 2008). This duality was important. It represented a

continuous cycle of social, intellectual, and emotional juxtapositions of the U.S. Army's

ethos in the lethal environment of perpetual combat by individuals normally living in

society at peace or within a locale under the profession's protection to ensure peace

(Snider et al., 2009). Soldiers were in a constant state of professional deployment and redeployment from lethal or chaotic environments to social integration and reintegration into peaceful surroundings with their families and society from these deployments (Kline et al., 2010; Lomsky-Feder et al., 2008; Stanley, Schaldach, Kiyonaga, & Jha, 2011). Central to this study was the context of the profession of arms and this combination of ethos and duality. This duality cast a wide net over the dynamics of social status and position within U.S. Army squads, teams, and sections studied.

Threats to the profession of arms come from both within and from without, but the most serious threat comes from within as a form of leadership that degraded subordinates and formally known as *toxic leadership* (Steele, 2011a). Toxic leadership was the U.S. Army's form of workplace bullying. Toxic leadership included a similar range of behaviors such as selfishness, demeaning and aggressive behavior directed to subordinates, overbearing, harassing, and otherwise defined as those behaviors that created the perception of an intolerant climate that stymied innovation and silenced criticism (Steele, 2011a). One of leadership's primary ethical role was to mitigate these external and internal threats that degraded trust, confidence, and team cohesion and led to counterproductive work or organizational behaviors and outcomes (Magerøy, Lau, Riise, & Moen, 2009; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007; Shamas-ur-Rehman Toor & Ogunlana, 2009; Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007).

U.S. Army Leadership

The U.S. Army's model to contextualize the social construct properly and the embedded nature of leadership in this problem and research were essential to this study. The U.S. Army defined leadership as a procedural concept of influencing people and at

the same time a contextual one of an individual formally and informally leading people

through inspiration, motivation toward organizational goals. In this context, there was an

overlap and bifurcation of the concept of influence based on formal and informal roles

through either assumed roles or a strictly formal one from an assigned role leadership

(Sewell, 2009; Sewell, 2011; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b).

In overlap and bifurcation, the assigned responsibility for leadership is based on

Army Regulation 600-20, *Army Command Policy* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014b)

and the assumed role of leadership is based on both the LRM (U.S. Department of the

Army, 2012b). It is also based on the mission command (MC) concept (Training and

Doctrine Command, 2014; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c). In both references,

leadership was capable of influencing producing an adaptive change in response to

operational environmental or situational demands. The difference was how each used a

dynamical process to mediate or ameliorate adaptive change. In the assigned view the

process leading to change followed CLT bureaucratic leader and the U.S. Army's formal

leader as a formal top-down, hierarchal, less interactive, and linear one-way methodology

(Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b; U.S. Department of

the Army, 2012c;). In the assumed view the leadership model closely follows CLT

enabling function for adaptive change and the LRM and MC. The LRM and MC

accomplished this by utilizing and depending on an enabling function to influence change

through shared vision and intent, that is, to bond in entanglement between the formal and

adaptive functions (Training and Doctrine Command, 2014; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

Another factor of U.S. Army leadership was the recognition there was influence

by leaders and influence of leadership in the literature, or a formal and an informal leader

(Johnson & Andersen, 2010; Knight, 2011; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). Current leadership literature similarly recognized the two types as formal and informal (Cope, Eys, Beauchamp, Schinke, & Bosselut, 2011; Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, & Mumford, 2009; Holmes, McNeil, & Adorna, 2010; Luria & Berson, 2013; McDermott & Archibald, 2010; Morgan & Carley, 2012; Pielstick, 2000; Roberts et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012). The literature parallels CLT where outcomes to mediate or ameliorate the forces of change occurred. The outcome was due to the primary interactions and influence of two principal agent types, the administrative leader (formal), and the enabling leader (informal) (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien; 2011; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011;).

The formal leader or the CLT equivalent of the administrative leader (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009) referred to those who are assigned to a formal position. For example, an administrative leader is a type of leadership formally recognized, authorized, and assigned by society, organizations or the U.S. Army to lead or manage (Bass & Bass, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The adaptation to change rested squarely with the formal leader's ability to manage and synchronize the contextual settings that contributed to achieving change (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). This formal leader was the stereotype depicted in the CASAL studies (Steele, 2011a).

Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) described the informal leader or CLT enabling leader as a type of leadership where the individual adapted their influence on the group's need. This leader type made itself relevant by demonstrated knowledge of the subject and technical expertise, and experience through reconciliation of change between formal leaders and adaptive change forces (Holmes et al., 2010; McDermott & Archibald, 2010;

Uhl-Bien et al., 2011). Uhl-Bien et al. (2011) further defined the enabling or informal

leader type as the catalyst for change, and the manager for the process of entanglement

found CAS.

Leadership researchers and CLT researchers placed the informal leader as a

critical multiplier and synchronizing agent who facilitated emergence. The informal

leader enabled the flow of information and knowledge between the formal leader and

adaptive leader functions. The informal or enabling leadership function was an essential

mediator. The informal leader provided meaning and understanding between the

administrative and the dynamic change function during change or innovation (Cope et al.,

2011; Downey et al., 2011; Friedrich et al., 2009; Hannah et al., 2009; McDermott &

Archibald, 2010; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012).

The informal leaders was a conciliator between formal leaders, the regular

members, and the adaptive leadership function to mollify stressors (Fry & Kriger, 2009;

Hannah, Walumbwa, & Fry, 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Informal leaders mollified

stressors by building social capital between team members and among the functions

leading to increased leadership efficiencies and performance (Kilduff & Balkundi, 2011).

Studies of team athletes showed informal leaders closely aligned with ethical leadership

regarding communication, behavior, and personal characteristics (Holmes et al., 2010).

Another study demonstrated an ethical leader catalysts improved job performance, pride

in one's work, and improved worker ideology through improved meaning in roles and

boundaries (Piccolo et al., 2010). Likewise, other studies found leaders in positions of

mid and senior level for example; executives, production, and line managers who foster

unethical environments create environments of high absenteeism, low morale, low

production, and high turnover (Stouten et al., 2010; Stouten et al., 2012). This behavior was found detrimental to small groups and teams and was a leading cause of workplace bullying, (Cangarli, 2009; Neuman, 2012; Salin & Hoel, 2011). The informal leader's adjudicating role is not only organizationally practical for production outputs researchers showed it was socially practical for workforce climate and behavior.

Entanglement described informal leadership dynamics as occurring between the administrative and adaptive leadership functions (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). It is the social process for realized change. Its net results come from of a set of dynamics that must occur between the administrative and the adaptive leadership functions (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Entanglement is also a series of actions or interrelationships in which the exchange between individual and organizational knowledge scripts influenced change (Marion & Gonzales, 2013). Homans and Merton (1974) described the concept of sociation in normal social settings as the net result of agents engaged in an exchange through communication of social behaviors and scripts that led to rewarding. In this capacity, the informal leader took the task of catalyst for this entanglement process to operate and succeed.

In the U.S. Army LRM and MC models, informal leaders occupied a similar function to the CLT concept of enabling leaders although less formally defined or framed (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The literature framed the informal leader poorly and ill defined (Bass & Bass, 2009; Downey et al., 2011). Nevertheless, in both settings the informal leader epitomized a U.S. Army leadership mantra: relationships matter, building relationships matters most (Vane & Toguchi, 2010) and the concept of influence with or without power (Cohen and Bradford, 2007; U.S. Department of the Army 2012b).

The U.S. Army squad and team recognized this mediating or ameliorating role of the informal leader was vital toward achieving agility and adaptation on the battlefield (Training and Doctrine Command, 2010; U.S. Department of the Army, 2007; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The U.S. Army *ADP 6-22 Army Leadershi*p acknowledged and deemed the informal leader essential to the leadership model (p.4); however, there was no explicit model. As stated earlier in this Chapter, studies link failed formal military leadership to workplace bullying or toxic leadership (Laurence, 2011; Webb & Hewett, 2010). Nevertheless, other studies offered views that failed informal leadership was linked to a negative workplace environment, catastrophic squad or section failure, and other U.S. Army organizational failures in mission and personnel readiness (Campbell, Hannah, & Matthews, 2010; Training and Doctrine Command & Cone, 2011; Training and Doctrine Command, 2012; U.S. Department of the Army, 2005).

Having two distinct but parallel leadership models currently recognized as producing toxic leadership and workplace bullying is a challenge if the U.S. Army wants to distil the problem to its point(s) of failure. The U.S. Army recognized that it had toxic leaders who bullied subordinates and considered those who acted this way a failed leader (Steele, 2011a, United States, 2014). However, the U.S. Army struggled to find the point of failure in its leadership model that either mediated or ameliorated this phenomenon (Steele, 2011b). Having an unknown point(s) of failure created a gap in the U.S. Army's effort to solve the problem. The U.S. Army senior leadership was profoundly concerned about this gap (Keller-Glaze et al., 2010; Riley, Conrad, Hatfield, Keller-Glaze, & Fallesen, 2012; Steele, 2011a; Steele, 2011b).

Theoretical Foundation Part I: Social Constructivism

No framework was perfect, and no single theory or concept adequately depicted the nature of a phenomenon (Maxwell, 2012a; Maxwell, 2012b; Ravitch & Riggan, 2011). The concept of workplace bullying was a complex and multi-level one representing a complex interplay of individuals responding to multiple stimuli across a broad range of contexts (Einarsen et al., 2011). No less complex was the study of leadership, as Northouse (2012) stated, "there are more than 65 separate classification systems for the concept of leadership" (p. 4). According to Bass and Bass (2009), leadership was one of the most studied subjects in the social and organizational domains. Despite the complexity and considerable scholarship, both phenomena were reducible to very similar and simpler components, agent or influence, agency or process, and reward or goals (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Neuman et al., 2011; Northouse, 2012). The two phenomena reducible were not only reducible, but both are also inter-related, co-dependent, and inter-dependent by established research linking workplace bullying and leadership (Einarsen et al., 2011; Glasø, Vie, & Hoel, 2010; Hoel et al., 2010; Leymann, 1996; Salin & Hoel, 2011).

Social Constructivism was an epistemological paradigm used by social researchers to define social or normative meaning as the sum of shared experience of a group or triad to give meaning to social forms. Participants built shared meaning through a shared social process of agent and agency (Onuf, 2013). It became evident through continued examination that social constructivism dominated the building of the social context and constructivist research constructed the social concept of workplace bullying and leadership from those contexts that lead to change. As such, social constructivism

framed workplace bullying and leadership as social artifacts of agent and agency.

Workplace bullying was a reality known only by the self-described perceptions of victims

and the analysis of those descriptions within the literature.

At this point, it was important to distinguish how society created meaning besides

the constructivist philosophy. There was also social constructionism, and there existed

some tension within the bullying and leadership literature to follow a constructionist

track. Social constructionism is an ontological paradigm. The social constructionist

paradigm constructed social meaning from an objective body of truth through empirical

discovery seeing social realities as the sum of cognitive interactions within an

individual's experiences (Burger & Luckman, 1966). Social constructionism differed

slightly from social constructivism based simply on the construction of reality. Under a

social constructionist paradigm, individually based social and normative meaning on

cognitive understanding—everyone an island—mean realities and the social artifacts

were the expressive additive sum the individual mind constructed out of interaction with

life (Burger & Luckman, 1966). The primary difference between these two paradigms

was the origin of the additive factors in the social equation that equaled a social construct

or summation. Constructionism viewed this origin originating out of human expression

and acts of "habitualization" (Burger & Luckman, 1966, p.51). Constructivism held that

our social constructs were the additive sum of the many group realities through the social

exchange that included the cognitive realities of individuals and this created social and

normative meaning as well as social constructs (Onuf, 2013). The latter described the

predominant methodology workplace bullying and leadership researchers employed to

build our concepts from these contexts.

Researchers suggested we derive meanings in workplace bullying interactions from the social relational processes between the perpetrator and victim in parallel. These interactions gave meaning to the incident (Brannick et al., 2009; Galanaki & Papalexandris, 2014a; Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2008; Oluyinka, 2009; Persson et al., 2009; Spector & Fox, 2010). The Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Charilaos et al., 2015; Einarsen et al., 2009; Nam, Kim, Kim, Koo, & Park, 2010) was a primary example of a constructivist approach because it assessed shared meaning between agent and agency. Einarsen et al. (2011) who developed the NAQ-R also suggested a constructionist approach as do some others. The constructionist approach opens the possibilities that workplace bullying derived from casual meaning and its existence from a collective group reality or belief (Galanaki & Papalexandris, 2013a; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2009; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2011; Hauge et al., 2011; Skogstad, Torsheim, Einarsen, & Hauge, 2011). In one respect, this appeared contradictory because this latter research suggested an ontological origin based on a collective cognitive process found in social constructionism. An ontological origin seemed in contradiction to Einarsen et al. (2009) work as summed with the NAQ-R as an expressive origin based on agency.

Social constructivism studied any social relation (Onuf, 2013). Workplace bullying and leadership were a social relations phenomenon. According to Einarsen et al. (2011) workplace bullying, is a perpetrator repeatedly imposing or performing negative and harmful emotional or verbal behaviors on a victim that leads to negative consequences for the victim while in the workplace. This definition suggested workplace bullying was a social problem, but it also offered a contradiction in realities. On the one

hand, researchers socially constructed and understood the workplace bullying phenomenon based on cognitive recollections and individual perceptions. Therefore, the definition of the phenomenon was not necessarily a shared group contextual meaning but the sum of a shared cognition between perpetrator and victim.

The literature divided into two separate camps regarding the construction of the workplace bullying argument: one ontological, and the other epistemological (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). This dualism was consistent with the struggle by researchers to frame the problem with a constructionist philosophy or a constructivist one. In a Kantian tradition, constructionism would posit that workplace bullying resulted from independent antecedents that existed before any encounter between a perpetrator and victim. A fair amount of the bullying literature focused research and methodologies on analyzing these antecedents as objects for a contextual and conceptual understanding of workplace bullying. This a priori resulted from studies suggesting behavioral antecedents such as personality disorders (Neuman et al., 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). There is the recognition that organizational dysfunction such as failed management, isolated camps, and inherent knowledge stovepipes also contributed (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011; Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013; Spector & Fox, 2010). The latter were the objects that caused workplace bullying. A constructionist would posit that these examples of antecedents predetermined whether workplace bullying will occur.

Although the relationship between these two paradigms was very close, the bullying literature favored a social constructivist approach. Newer multilevel studies bore out that we constructed our understanding of bullying from shared group epistemological paradigms (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Hogh, Hoel, & Carneiro, 2011; Huitsing et al.,

2012; Simons, Stark, & Demarco, 2011; Timm & Eskell-Blokland, 2011). We knew the phenomenon through shared experience on multiple levels and not as a cognitive expression of everyday life (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Nielsen et al., 2011). Within the literature, this undergirds one of the literature's bigger challenges, that is; constructing theoretical frameworks to explain or interpret workplace bullying was difficult due to a constructivist foundation. The constructivist approach posed a challenge to future constructs of a theoretical framework. This challenge exists because bullying researchers suggested a group of causes. These causes range across a social continuum of the individual, organizational, and social-emotive or behavioral antecedents—it led to a constructivist foundation (Hauge et al., 2009; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Neuman et al., 2011; Zapf et al., 2011).

In Husserlian tradition, constructivists would posit that we knew workplace bullying occurred because we knew how it affected individuals and organization based on the reported harm from witnesses and victims. Workplace bullying was a social function and originated through two actors and an action who took part in sociation to change their environment (Giddens, 1984; Lewin, 1997; Simmel, 1971; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). In this view, researchers had the description of how it works. Epistemologically, then, it was a sociation between actors' that led to change—change measurement (Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Yoon et al., 2013).

Finally, social constructivism allows future research to record and interpret changes in the meaning of workplace bullying found in current research due to the institutionalization of bullying by organizations and society (Liefooghe & Mac Davey, 2001; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). In many ways, these changes have elevated the

polemical from the simple individual-on-individual to the organization-on-individual to create an enigma (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010).

Social Exchange Foundation

Social exchange framework establishes and frames two essential elements that drive human behavior and organized the human effort. Regardless of any simplicity or complexity model, the question, "why," and the means, "how" were most important (Homans and Merton, 1974; Lewin, 1997; Simmel, 1971; Simmel & Wolff, 1950; Yoon et al., 2013). As a constructivist, answering the "why" and the "how" established the basis for shared meaning. Secondly, a social exchange framework aligned with Northouse (2012) basic conceptualization of leadership as a social process and an organizational antecedent. The alignment to a social process also sets the context in the U.S. Army's doctrinal definition and embraces its informal leadership model; it is essentially a social construct. The basic construct of the informal leader consisted of process and goals framed by contexts, institutions, and hierarchical bureaucracy. An eclectic collection of influence like position, traits, skills, charisma, motivation, and institutional symbolisms supported these contexts (Boies & Howell, 2009; Hargrove & Sitkin, 2011; Rondeau, 2011; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). This latter concept informally existed alongside the U.S. Army's recognition that formal and informal leadership both operated together in the complex adaptive system (Hargrove & Sitkin, 2011; Training and Doctrine Command, 2010; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c).

The processes of the social exchange framework were not a perfect one. It did not offer a holistic and full accounting of spontaneous actions spontaneity emic to complexity in a complex adaptive system like the U.S. Army and the complex environment.

However, social exchange more closely aligned to the biological and ecological reasons of a social need for the emergence of leadership (King, Johnson, & Van Vugt, 2009). Social exchange framework recognized social agents use an agency to reconcile the inter-relational spaces between agents as sociation, (Homans and Merton, 1974). However, social exchange lacked a full description of the rich and significant details that comprised these acts of agents and agency that can occur within this inter-relational space. In this space, leadership acts imposed communication and exchanges of reward and punishment on the group that enabled change (King et al., 2009).

Using social exchange as the outer framework allowed for a theoretical structural support facilitated efforts to explore the informal leader's work among the CLT triadic groups of administrative, enabling, and adaptive leadership. The social exchange framework stated that basic acts of social agents occur as the fundamental activity of dyadic sociation (Homans and Merton, 1974). Sociation was the act (agent) or occasion (agency) of an exchange of social objects usually recognized as a reward or punishment between social agents due to an occasion or stimulus that sets free the object (Homans and Merton, 1974; Mead, 1963; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). Paraphrased, two agents separated by space and time. To cause change, these agents crossed the other's space and time. To do so required a form of social reconciliation by the two agents through either agreement or conflict (Simmel, Wolff, & Bendix, 1964). This fundamental social activity resulted from two basic but interrelated needs, an agent needs or wants something another agent possessed or both agents need or want something neither possessed but must work in the act of agency to obtain either (Homans and Merton, 1974). The primary driver for this sociation was the rewards and punishment contingency, for example, the agents

desired end state be to obtain a net benefit and avoid a net loss (Homans and Merton, 1974).

However, this basic dyadic relationship of sociation was an incomplete one. A dyad is fundamentally unable to form a majority, which was a key component in the development of social structures and behavioral norms to govern it and setting the social conditions for change (Krackhardt & Handcock, 2007; Simmel, 1969; Yoon et al., 2013). Simmel and Wolff (1950) and Simmel et al. (1964) proposed that the triadic relationship was the essential social unit because the triad introduced the majority factor or the third agent to act with another agent. According to Simmel and Wolff (1950) and Simmel et al. (1964), the presence of a third agent created demands that produced the social dynamics leading to change. The third agent contrasts with the workplace bullying literature, which focuses the simple relationship between two agents in a dyad. The focus on social dynamics and change shifted to a combination of dyadic relationship in the constant shift to find triadic or group relationships. These acts further conceptualized a concept that triadic structures formed the basic unit or context for sociation as theorized by Simmel and Wolff (1950).

The social exchange framework based on sociation of triads and Heider (1958) balance theory amplified each other. The balance theory concept recognized that individual sentiment and comfort levels with other agents in the group have a positive or negative value to guide or create further sociation. Heider (1958) proposed that balance created equilibrium in the group and was the individual's preferred state. The balance was a combination of sentiment and perception for an individual's comfort level as represented by a positive or negative value in their preference to acts of sociation among

members of a triad or group (Heider, 1958; Krackhardt & Handcock, 2007; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004). The group is balanced (equilibrium) or in a positive state if the following occurs: (a) two members agree and are comfortable and the third agent disagrees and is uncomfortable or in disagreement; or (b) all members are in agreement with each other whether they are comfortable or uncomfortable with each other (Heider, 1958; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004).

It is within triadic relationships individuals reacted and produced meaning through social interaction that created the agencies of leadership, conflict, and power (Mead, 1963). These, in turn, became an agency of equilibrium to protect the triadic relationships (Simmel, 1969). The agency created social purpose and an exchange medium that was foundational for society (Homans and Merton, 1974). The U.S. Army labels this as good order and discipline and is its social foundation.

This dynamic of equilibrium or better the lack of social dynamics led to group status quo or stability, and longevity but not necessarily a genuine force for change (Heider, 1958; Hummon & Doreian, 2003; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004). A group was out of balance (disequilibrium) or in a negative state if all members were uncomfortable with each (Heider, 1958; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004). The disequilibrium led members to leave the group to find balance in another group. In this, imbalanced state the instability and uncertainty experienced or perceived by members led to the extinguishment of the group as the outcome. This group extinguishment led the formation of new groups, innovation, and change (Heider, 1958; Hummon & Doreian, 2003; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004).

This social tendency toward balance proposed by Heider (1958) provided one contextual structure for the actions of the emergent forces Uhl & Marion (2009) and Lichtenstein et al. (2007) identified as agentic in CLT that drove emergence or adaptive change. Research by Krackhardt & Handock (2007) confirmed a complimentary relationship existed between Hieder and Simmel (1971) although one is a psychological the other is a sociological one where the balance was the key to change dynamics. The central key was that agents drove change by both a desire to achieve and maintain balance and majority consensus. Dyads are by nature imbalanced because neither party can reach change without a majority consensus. Heider (1958) contribution established value to the sociation process by demonstrating the reward and punishment contingency was key to the conceptualization that balance drove the dynamics of change. Balance was a critical tenet and an essential section of this framework considering that imbalance in the form of uncertainty, stressors, or in the need for new ideas and innovation motivated the complex environment to change (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c; Krackhardt & Handcock, 2007; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

At this point, the social exchange framework recognized two distinct social structures, social forces and social structures, for example, agents, and agency. Giddens (1984) labeled this dualism as functionalism versus structuralism. Nevertheless, this recognition did need additional substance and clarity to open the complexity process of emergence to further amplification. The basic issue requiring this substance and clarity was the mediating and ameliorating actions of these social structures within the inter-relational space to account for the change. One bridge across this dualism is Gardens (1984) and Giddiness (1991) structuration theory.

Structuration theory acted as a conciliatory social theory in that it both recognized the duality that is inherent within sociation, for example, reconciling the behavioral actions of agents between the social structures and that emergence was the result of "recursive" (Giddens, 1984, p. 2) activities. Recursive according to Giddens (1984) meant that actors or agents did not just act out of simple purpose, pure more, or means. It was sociation for the purpose of reward or punishment contingency, but are socially self-reflexive; they did so because the context of social structures was inherently unpredictable and often imbalanced. Social actors acted to monitor this context and in turn, both shifted to balance through change caused both social structures to change or remain unchanged (Giddens, 1984, p. 3). The differentiation from the other three theorists and a major contribution to the latter CLT was his stratification model framework. It was that emergence an innately embedded process of sociation and agents and agency was captive to it. Giddens (1984) end state was the same as the CLT (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, 2011; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011) end state; it was the actions or process of moving from captive to captor by taking control of the inter-relational space. The bullying and leadership research consistently came back to Homans and Merton (1974) and Lewin's (1997) observation of social behavior. Their observation stated that once the initial act or behavior occurred with reinforcement one is no longer interested in how the first occurred but rather in the variables that created future actions or behaviors to occur (Homans and Merton, 1974, p. 19), for example, previously discussed as structuration. Structuration was an excellent position necessary to understand the social actions of the informal leader to mediate or ameliorate between the social force of administrative leadership and the social structure of workplace bullying.

Complexity Leadership Foundation

CLT is a "change model of leadership" (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009, p.632). CLT proposed to fill a gap in the literature for a leadership model that fitted the needs of today's change driven, networked, knowledge-based economy (Uhl-Bien et al., 2011). CLT's contribution served a need within the literature to account for the actions of leadership as it managed the emergence of change for complex adaptive systems (Marion, 2013). These CAS existed and operated typically in an environment influenced and dominated by an array of interdependent and interactive internal and external inputs that were not necessarily reliant upon predictability (Marion, 2013). CLT updated the paradigms of leadership development and leadership outcomes to represent better the actions of leadership within modern social forces and social structures characterized by uncertainty and complexity (Uhl-Bien et al., 2011).

The U.S. Army embraced complexity theory as the framework for the strategic, operational, and tactical development of the future force as well as the employment of that force in the complex environment (Training and Doctrine Command, 2012). The U.S. Army employed the concepts and functions of adaptive change articulated in CLT as its framework for leadership across the warfighting domains and the war-fighting function of mission command (Training and Doctrine Command, 2010; Training and Doctrine Command, 2012). The U.S. Army concepts of the adaptive leader networked across the war-fighting functions and for making quick decisions based on unpredictable asymmetrical inputs and outputs is an example of the CLT adaptive leader being capable of faster and more accurate responses to ill-structured problems.

The first contribution CLT offered was its complexity modeling of leadership as a group of "interactive dynamics" consisting of the administrative, enabling, and adaptive leadership functions (Hull-Bien & Marion, 2009; p. 632). This modeling of leadership set the parameters for leadership function within complex adaptive systems (CAS) (Marion, 2013). CLT moved away from the traditional setting of leadership within bureaucratic models operating in a two-way linear horizontal fashion (Hull-Bien & Marion, 2009). With this model, leadership was constructed of enabling leaders who functioned to create change based their ability to set the conditions for change but do not necessarily control the way these conditions matured into change (Marion, 2013). In other words, the enabling leader set the conditions. They created the social structures and social forces to govern change by means rules, norms, and behaviors as well as set the conditions of tension, culture, bureaucracy, and levels of social interactions to contain change (Marion, 2013). Not only could enabling leaders to create the communication and knowledge flow critical to adaptive change but this also allowed for the creation and format of the initiative. The concept of *disciplined* initiative was also a critical principle found within the U.S. Army mission command construct and functions to harness the informal leader's ability to critically assess and act quickly for ill-structured problems (Daniels, Huhtanen, & Poole, 2012). This similarity synchronized with the social exchange framework that also recognized the element of initiative although named differently. Two foundational social theorists aligned initiative with the social structures of conflict (Simmel, 1969) and imbalance (Heider, 1958) which often led the group or triad into change. CLT advanced this concept by placing the social structure onto a social force namely the enabling or informal leader (Hull-Bien & Marion, 2009).

CLT occurred within complex adaptive systems (CAS) (Marion, 2013). CLT presence was a significant factor because CAS recognized complexity was an embedded and essential function of social forces and social structures (Hannah et al., 2009; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Vallacher & Nowak, 2013). CLT presence also was consistent with structuration theory and synchronized Giddens (1984) stratification model that also viewed the complexity dynamics as embedded and innately driving change. CLT and structuration work off similar constructs in that the social forces placed tension on the social structures, for example, leadership, to react because the forces are unable to meet current needs. In turn, these social structures reacted to inputs by managing these force dynamics across and within other internal social structures to reframe the social structure so that it met the need (Giddens, 1984). Giddens referred to this process as recursive or co-evolutionary, that is, the need for change on one social level created a demand for change on the next level that drove agents to create change at the originating level.

CLT depended on social exchange and a constructivist application of shared context to place agents and agency into their psychological and sociological conditions, structures, and roles (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). However, CLT added to this social exchange and constructivist application an explanation for emergence in social settings by modeling the "how" to act, the "why' to act, and the "who" acts in a complex adaptive system (Vallacher & Nowak, 2013). This model represented a means for social leadership structures to manage change through shared meaning of an integration of three bureaucratic functions, administrative, adaptive, and an enabling function. According to Uhl-Bien & Marion (2009), it was the

dynamics and influence of a series of enabling conditions fostered by the following set of

emergent forces: (a) dynamic interaction, (b) interdependence, (c) heterogeneity, and (d)

adaptive tension. It also included the complexity dynamics: (a) nonlinearity, (b) bonding,

and (c) attractors with each acting on the bureaucratic structure of leadership that

produced change. This dynamic or sociation and exchange formed the fundamental

skeleton of CLT. However, deeper are the embedded nature of shared meanings for

change driving the actor and actions that occurred in adaptive leadership to constitute an

exchange relationship with reward variables, as well the organizational and behavioral

scripts informal leaders used while mediating workplace bullying during entanglement

(Marion, 2013).

Social Policy Construct

The November 6, 2014, update to *Army Regulation 600-20 Army Command*

Policy made an important U.S. Army policy contribution toward social change by setting

the policy agenda toward mitigation of bullying within the ranks (United States, 2014).

This case study of the problem facing U.S. Army leadership to mediate workplace

bullying supported that agenda setting by examining the informal leader's role and

offering an opening in a policy window for change in U.S. Army leadership and

organizational outcomes. Like the Problem Statement for this research, a policy problem

and social change represented similar requirements of unrealized need, values, and

opportunity to improve (Dunn, 2009). Structuring a policy problem served to guide social

change, much the same as the problem statement did for research (Anderson, 2014;

Dunn, 2009). One of the major challenges facing the U.S. Army was to set the

phenomenon within a command policy construct that mitigated the problem without

sacrificing a commander's ability to exercise command authority properly. The U.S. Army has specifically attempted to structure social change that defined and prohibited certain bullying behaviors (United States, 2014). This tension between structuralism and structural method with the update and the bullying literature, research methodologies are all examples of the Kingdon (2014) agenda-setting model.

The goal in agenda setting was one of simplification, and it achieved this goal in certain ways. Among those goals were ways to turn a complex issue into a simple statement. This typically gets accomplished when a policy maker's attention to the problem generated concepts and proposals for change that are appealing, reasonable, feasible, and representative of a political desire within U.S. Army leadership for policy and conceptual updates that represented change (Harvard Family Research Project, 2007; Kingdon, 2014). An agenda-setting model policy window opened when two of three requirements to make the agenda, and the alternative appears (Kingdon, 2014). Kingdon (2014) labeled these requirements as a framed and pressing social problem, assessments and gathering the sets of perspectives and application of a consensus. Bullying research for the last two decades from Brodsky (1976), Olweus (1993) and Leymann (1996) to Namie (2003), Einarsen et al. (2011), and Olweus (2013) shared these common agenda-setting features in their qualitative methodologies. These authors represented a framed, assessed, and applied consensus among the research to capture alternatives to the present problem. In the U.S. Army's case, the application of consensus appeared in the policy update.

The social policy goal of this research study was to frame the research review, analysis, and conclusions within the agenda-setting framework with an intended outcome

of a social policy proposition that the collected data created a simplified statement of the informal leader's conceptual model for current and future U.S. Army leaders. This simplified statement served U.S. Army leaders with a new set of individual, organizational, and social behaviors that informed the U.S. Army's current regulation on command by clarifying how informal leaders can mitigate bullying in those times the current regulation allows bullying.

Clarifying U.S. Army policy in this way offered an opportunity to use the Kingdon (2014) model by further framing a pressing social issue into a policy opportunity through exploration of a leader type who operated at the leading edge of change. Informal leaders performed critical functions at the center of Army life in garrison, the operational environments, and in the off-duty lifestyle (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). Advancements in understanding the nature of informal leaders from this study served U.S. Army leadership holder efforts to refine their agenda setting by providing critical data and analysis for closing definitional gaps in the regulation and leadership models, and specifically align a leader function to the soldiers' quality of life into the near future.

Theoretical Foundation Part II: Evolution of Workplace Bullying

The evolution of the workplace bullying phenomenon and literature was a storyboard of both the social constructivist and agenda setting philosophies working unknowingly in tandem action. Over the course of three decades, this storyboard has given a basic construct as a series of common scripts and types of bullying, contexts, and antecedents. Situations involving workplace bullying were constantly evolving. Workplace bullying was an ever broadening range of behavioral, organizational, and

social scripts, antecedents and constructs (Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2011; Einarsen et al., 2011; Hauge et al., 2009; Keashly et al., 2011; Osborne, 2009; Sloan, Matyók, Schmitz, & Short, 2010). It was pervasive, prevalent, and ubiquitous across the world in many organizations and social relationships (Saam, 2010). It was as old as human social relationships (Einarsen et al., 2011) possessed of many labels and constructs conceptualized through a variety of overlaps (Verdasca, 2011). However, as a phenomenon set in a social constructivist framework and an agenda-setting policy window it fundamentally remained new for the modern workplace. Workplace bullying begged for exploration, research, authentication, interventions, and policy prescriptions (Balducci et al., 2011; Gholipour, Setare, Seyede, Mahdieh, & Samira, 2011; Osborne, 2009; Saam, 2010, p. 53).

The research was done to understand bullying activities through some conceptual models that placed victims, perpetrators, and antecedents within time and space that provided order, sequence, and ultimately shared meaning to the experience. Every reviewed study was a contextualization. Contextualization has proved adequate, and researchers have derived conceptual models to arrive at shared meaning. For example, the Glasl nine-stage conflict escalation model viewed conflict situationally driven with interventions arising out of awareness (Einarsen et al., 2011). Karasek's Job Demand Control Model otherwise known as High Demand-Low Control Model links stressed at work to a combination of demands and controls occurring between victim and perpetrator (Baillien, De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2011). The global model for negative acts modeled a relationship between negative acts at work to job, team, and organization factors (Baillien, Neyens, & De Witte, 2008). This latter model identified the key job, team, and

organizational factors that contributed to workplace bullying with potential pathways to interventions at multiple levels (Baillien et al., 2008). Hutchinson et al. (2010) found a satisfactory model emerging from their qualitative study of nurses that placed organizational factors such as informal alliances, organizational tolerance of bullying, and misuse of organizational resources as explanatory of bullying behavior (Hutchinson et al., 2010). A conceptual difference from other models noted by Hutchinson et al. (2010) was their model allowed explanation for the normalization of bullying behavior into the workplace social fabric. A final consideration is the Balducci et al. (2011) integrated model that suggested job demands and the psychosocial aspects of job-related activities contributed most to workplace bullying. One notable aspect of this model was the limited antecedent role personality factors the study found contributed to workplace bullying. According to Balducci et al. (2011), personality factors demonstrated an independent contribution to bullying but not necessarily a statistically sufficient manner directly correlating to workplace bullying.

For the social constructivist having the victim's record served as a primary source of meaning and knowledge about workplace bullying (Saam, 2010). On the surface, this seemed adequate and appropriate to satisfy basic epistemological needs. However, understanding the cause proved to be the research challenge as the models above addressed 'who,' 'what,' 'when,' and 'how,' but they do not adequately address the 'why' (Saam, 2010). Of all the research, the latter multilevel, integrated, and multidimensional methodologies addressed the agency vis-à-vis the former conflict models that addressed the agent but not both. Nevertheless, these integrated type models set a better path toward a social constructivist ideal showing workplace bullying caused at multiple levels. It

occurs through the interaction and relationship of variables at three primary levels, the socio-cultural, the organizational, and the individual (Agervold, 2009; Balducci et al., 2011; see Einarsen et al., 2011; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Saam, 2010). The goal was to synthesize the scholarly research to find a lowest common denominator to answer why required a multilevel explanatory approach (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010). At the lowest common denominator workplace bullying resulted from inter-related social actions. These social actions occurring within the range of relationships at the dyadic and triadic levels (Agervold, 2009; Balducci et al., 2011; Cangarli, 2009; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Saam, 2010) and individual perceptions highly dependent upon context and experience (Lester, 2009).

This review captured and demonstrated a substantial capacity to include multiple disciplines from social theories such as tie, balance, change as well as the inter-disciplines of social psychology and structuration, and CAS contributing to understanding the problem (Fevre et al., 2010; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Monks et al., 2009) and to CLT (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Surprisingly, the literature did not demonstrate remarkable movement of the workplace bullying beyond it the basic dyadic structure of a perpetrator-to-victim sociation (Jenkins et al., 2011).

Early bullying research focused on the European workplace used the term mobbing. The term originated from a phenomenon largely seen as group behavior directed against a victim; its focus was on the group or collective action (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009). The term bullying was popular with researchers in the Scandinavia, U.K. and the United States. In the 1990s research turned to public schools to explore bullying (see Olweus, 2013) and workplace settings

(Einarsen et al., 2011), but by this time U.K. and U.S. research dominated the field

exploring variances with a focus at work and on the individual relationships and

antecedents (Johnson, 2009). The terms mobbing and workplace bullying were

interchangeable, but only reflected a slight difference due to the research focus on the

perpetrator and target (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011). This slight difference

saw mobbing as a group or collective action attacking an individual, while workplace

bullying involved action and agency generally between a single perpetrator and a single

targeted victim (Beale & Hoel, 2010) and normally viewed as nonsexual (Sperry, 2009).

Namie (2003) claims credit for the introduction of the term *workplace bullying* to the

U.S. in 1998, although, he credits British journalist Andrea Adams for introducing the

term in 1992 (Namie, 2003). He defined workplace bullying as "status-blind" (p.1)

repeated deliberate interpersonal hostility designed to cause severe psychological,

physical, or social trauma (Namie, 2003).One distinguishing feature differentiating

Namie (2003) from the Einarsen et al. (2011) definitions was Namie's implication of a

psychopathic component in the perpetrator motive and intent.

Toward the end of the Twentieth century, the body literature and research into

work-related bullying shifted focus toward research into organizational related bullying

and antecedents. The shift posed an interesting dichotomy within the current literature.

This latter research had again embraced workplace bullying as an organizational and

management dysfunction (Einarsen et al., 2011) a concept Leymann (1996) put forth

nearly twenty years earlier but overshadowed by the interest in school bullying proffered

by Olweus (2013). This scholarly split left a void in the workplace bullying literature that

went underdeveloped. Nevertheless, the research made available other scripts of socio-

cultural and behavioral types in the form of antecedents and variables operating at multiple levels (Fevre et al., 2010; Notelaers et al., 2010). Some researchers directed focus toward antecedents the perpetrator, and the victim brought to the dyad finding that the outcome of bullying came from a collision between these two sets of antecedents (Einarsen et al., 2011; Notelaers et al., 2010). The most recent research shifted the near focus to interrelation and agent-based adaptive dynamics between and among social networks. For example, the research focused on dyads and triads at both formal and informal levels; these adapted from control theory and a complex systems construct (Avolio et al., 2009; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Much of this shift was due in part to explain the phenomenon of low-level networking and system order in organizations and social groups that resulted from changes to knowledge and global based societies, for example, globalization (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). This latter concept and shift represented an area of new research that set important conditions for this study by focusing the literature's attention toward the processes of sociation and small groups.

Insidious Workplace Behavior or IWB is another line of research found in the literature. This research examined bullying as the following: "a form of intentionally harmful behavior that is legal, subtle, and low level (rather than severe), repeated over time and directed at individuals or organizations" (Edwards & Greenberg, 2010). IWB was not a bifurcation of the bullying research into a parallel track, but a narrowing of the scope of the bullying concept to an organizational antecedent that accounted for the subtle but equally damaging scripts (Edwards & Greenberg, 2010). The introduction of IWB was important within the literature because it introduced a form of deviant behavior

that was just as harmful. However, IWB did not necessarily need to meet the escalation

tests introduced by other researchers to define workplace bullying (Edwards &

Greenberg, 2010; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011). This low level of behavior

that often occurred between dyads without public notice situated precisely within the

research of the informal leader (Cope et al., 2011; Edwards & Greenberg, 2010; Flodgren

et al., 2011; Hutchinson et al., 2010). Within this study, the term workplace bullying

included IWB, but when necessary, the IWB research acted to clarify deviant behavior.

Nonetheless, the current exploration continued to rely upon conceptual models

and research to explain anteceded behavioral, organizational, and social scripts occurring

within the perpetrator-victim dyad or the perpetrator-victim-bystander triad relationships.

However, this gap was closing given the recent emphasis on leadership models based on

complex adaptive systems (CAS) (Uhl-Bien, 2011) and multi-agent systems (MAS)

(Fevre et al., 2010). Workplace bullying from both a dyadic and triadic perspectives

represented an improved understanding. The improvement resulted from CAS and MAS

research development of newer concepts for shared meaning (Agervold, 2007; Beale &

Hoel, 2010; D'Cruz & Noronha, 2010; Einarsen et al., 2011; Monks et al., 2009; Parzefall

& Salin, 2010). The inclusion of the CAS and MAS models was intended to expand a

reconciliation of the relationship of normal workplace conflict and workplace bullying

(Broeck, Baillien, & Witte, 2011; Nielsen et al., 2010). However, one of the many new

challenges for the field was a realization workplace bullying may be a new norm and a

new normal organizational function, for example, a normal expectation in a competitive

or complex adaptive environment (Davies, 2011; Neuman & Keashly, 2013). A new

normal can be especially difficult to discern in the U.S. Army where bullying was specifically sanctioned in the regulation (see United States, 2014).

This evolutionary process has produced several conceptual models exploring workplace bullying beyond formal power brokers simply targeting weaker subordinates. The evolution has expanded to negative behaviors existing in multiple relationships across the organization and within the workplace. The behaviors include romantic ones, for example, domestic violence, equal peers within teams, for example, hazing, and the health services, for example, elder abuse and patient abuse, and organizational abuse (Hogh, Mikkelsen, & Hansen, 2011; Monks et al., 2009). From this latter perspective, the range for refining and defining functional roles and agency for a workplace bullying framework showed it could be as simple as the leader-member or as complex as the group-organization-social networks (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Monks et al., 2009, p. 154).

Workplace Bullying Typologies

Typologies perform a function like medical diagnoses in that they are a tool used to segment, order, and set aside manifestations of a phenomenon (Jutel, 2009). In social research, typology played a significant role and important role. Typologies for workplace bullying served both important conceptual and constructionist purpose of ordering the context. With order come the prospects of discovery and eventual predictions for outcomes (Conrad & Barker, 2010). As in medicine, creating a typology for workplace bullying afforded a social understanding and perspective. The typology helped define the artifacts and manifestations of this sociation accepted as normal and those things, which are abnormal, and positioned for action (Barker, 2010; Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Conrad & Barker, 2010; Jutel, 2009).

Within the literature, there were some bullying types from which to organize our understanding (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). Some researchers organized it by context. Some examples of the contextual organization employed by some researchers included school bullying, cyber bullying, and workplace bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Schneider, O'Donnell, Stueve, & Coulter, 2012). However there are the researchers who have organized it by modality, for example physical, verbal, relational, and behavioral (Cheng & Seeger, 2012). Some researchers have organized it by social outcomes. In the social case, these researchers organized it by graphing negative behavior on a continuum beginning with a low of 1 for incivility and ending with a 10 for physical violence (Namie, 2003; Trudel & Reio, 2011). Others, for example organized or typed it based on social status, for example race, gender, and sexuality (Vieno, Gini, & Santinello, 2011). Bartlett and Bartlett (2011) noted the range of typologies in their integrative review of the workplace bullying literature and the lack of consensus challenged our common understanding. Their solution was a simplified typology of three types, work related, personal, and physical/threatening (p.72).

There was also the military bully or toxic leader. There were strong similarities from a decade of the U.S. Army's own research and analysis to conclude that the U.S. Army Toxic leadership problem was a workplace bullying problem (Keller-Glaze et al., 2010; Reed & Bullis, 2009; Reed & Olsen, 2010; Reed, 2004; Riley et al., 2012; Riley et al., 2013; Steele, 2011a; Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014). In the private sector two decades of research also suggested a close relationships between workplace bullying and toxic leadership (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Beale, 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Glasø et al., 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Leymann,

1996; Namie & Namie, 2009; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010; Namie et al., 2011; Salin & Hoel, 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). The similarities in character and assessment between the two bullying types suggested the U.S. Army had a similarly common organizational problem. Further discussion among researcher as reviewed beyond the definitions further showed workplace bullying and toxic leadership related to leadership dysfunction or failure.

Although all the noted variations except the Namie continuum (Namie, 2003) were contextual none appeared to simplify the character of the context to its lowest common denominators Olweus suggested two decades ago, direct and indirect based on studies of school bullied victims (Carbone-Lopez, Esbensen, & Brick, 2010). According to Carbone-Lopez et al. (2010), separating bullying into these two types allowed their research to gain a more discreet description and correlation of victimization from multiple data points (p.333). This simplified format offered a significant advantage for contextualizing the problem structured from a perpetrator-victim format (Carbone-Lopez et al., 2010). The only exception to the direct and indirect model was the addition of the military bully as a unique typology.

Direct Bullying

The literature defined direct bullying as the repeated harassment, intimidation, and unethical treatment. It must have repeatedly occurred over time in ways that emotionally tore down another individual's self-esteem, self-worth, and self-concept through humiliating acts of negative verbal or physical behavior (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Monks et al., 2009; Salmivalli, 2010). Although direct bullying was more often verbal and emotional in nature and outcome, it also included personal

physical attacks such as vandalism, sabotage, or genuine physical contact. Direct bullying was the archetype-bullying situation where one individual perpetrated a bullying act upon another using an interpersonal modality (Einarsen et al., 2009). In other words, to occur direct bullying did not require any other actors than those in the dyad and did not necessarily require physical contact.

In situations of direct bullying, the perpetrator did not need a catalyst to initiate bullying. Perpetrators can self-initiate due to either personality or psychosocial disorders or both. However, in most instances, direct bullying resulted from external factors. Some of these factors are a catalytic antecedent, triggered by simply the mere presence of an individual in the wrong place at the wrong time, external events transposed into the present situation, or internal squad or organizational demands (De Cuyper, Baillien, & De Witte, 2009). Direct bullying was also characterized as being a deliberate act by the perpetrator on the victim provoked by the victim's status, demeanor, or other emotional, physical, or spatial characteristic (Einarsen et al., 2011).

Direct bullying did not need a power or social component to increase the scale and scope of the bullying event (Gordon, Kornberger, & Clegg, 2009; Hutchinson et al., 2010). Although power, gender, and social status were antecedents to workplace bullying and bullying in general, those individuals of similar or same social, power, or gender status may perpetrate bullying acts in peer-to-peer relationships (Yildirim, 2009). In certain settings, direct bullying might take a proxy form for organizational bullying when a perpetrator occupied a position of authority and employed bullying tactics to motivate a victim to some organizational goal or simply to leave the organization voluntarily. Direct bullying also took the opposite proxy form under the subtlety of whistleblower where a

disgruntled individual used whistleblower protections to bully another individual (Jackson et al., 2010; Jackson et al., 2011).

Direct bullying operated on a continuum that ranged from the demonstrative to the very subtle (Carbone-Lopez et al., 2010). Consequently, personal bullies often masked their behavior as some other trait or simply dismissed their victims with phrases like: "that is just their personality," they are always that way," or "they are just a difficult person" to avoid detection (Zapf et al., 2011). Therefore, it appeared that in its subtlest form it could go unrecognized as workplace bullying by both victims and the organization.

Indirect Bullying

Indirect bullying was not necessarily the opposite of personal bullying but rather a variation in scope (Basile, Espelage, Rivers, McMahon, & Simon, 2009). Whereas direct bullying was a direct one-on-one relationship, impersonal bullying directed its activities at the general populace or the larger class of individuals. Indirect bullying took the form of general harassment or discrimination of classes of people based on socio-economic status, gender status, sexual orientation, belief systems, or race and ethnicity. Although it targeted classes of individuals, it still was very personal in nature due to the negative outcomes that came from bullying. Bullying at this level in the organization was highly unusual at least in its public form due to strict laws at all levels of government that prohibited it as well as organizational policies that had a zero tolerance for it. Organizationally sanctioned or individually the result of actions bullying of an impersonal nature met the first legal bar for successful tort prosecution (Yamada, 2011; Yamada, 2013).

One of the more distinguishing characteristics of indirect bullying was its linkage to other forms of violence, harassment, and discrimination, for example, antisocial or psychopathological behaviors (Basile et al., 2009). In its relationship to antisocial or psychopathological (delinquent) tendencies, impersonal bullies shared a common lack of empathy or had an impersonal orientation toward their victim (Basile et al., 2009). One theme that was very distinct and clear throughout all the bullying literature was the emotional co-dependency between perpetrator and victim. In all its forms, the empathetic or personal connection appeared as an a priori to every construct and every context except for indirect bullying. Where personal bullying shared a connection and required an emotional co-dependency between perpetrator and victim, impersonal bullying represented disconnected emotional ties between perpetrator and victim. It was this lack of emotional connection or empathy, which made impersonal bullying highly inflammable, for example, hate speech and the like.

Another aspect of indirect bullying was the organizational one (Wallis, 2011) While most individuals reportedly considered their relationship with co-workers and supervisors at least superficially relational few reported the same about how the organization felt about them. It was reasonable to personify the organization with personality, for example, empathetic feelings or assign to it a constitutional right normally reserved for individuals (Colombo, 2014). However, organizations were indirect and or impersonal by the nature of their structure. They had structures such as policies, programs, organizational charts, lines of communication, hierarchies, and internal and external communications (Okhuysen & Bechky, 2009).

Military Bullying

If workplace bullying lacked a definitional consensus, then there is even less consensus for the more for a unique form and focus of this study, military workplace bullying (Owoyemi, 2011). The military culture was a separate and unique one in ways that it presented its unique typologies (Rubin et al., 2012), but they are not separatists nor isolated (Kucera, 2012). Like any culture, the military was a shared system of values, beliefs, behaviors, scripts, and norms (Coll et al., 2012). It is culturally and religiously diverse but universally unified to seize and hold to its primary mission (Hall, 2011). Typological the military culture and organization was unique. The unique nature is justified because of the socially embedded sanctions and permissions to kill other human beings or seize territories and resources in defense of society. This uniqueness sets the nature of the context and with it a group of unique ethos (Coll et al., 2012; Kucera, 2012; K. T. Thomas & Walker, 2010). However, there was also a structural caveat concerning the social exchange processes. There was a context within a context, military units conduct and accomplish the mission or conflict within the culture of an enemy (Davis, 2011; Snider et al., 2009). Members of the armed forces must act and apply their culture within the culture of the fight (Caligiuri, Noe, Nolan, Ryan, & Drasgow, 2011; Coll et al., 2012).

Previously mentioned was that context was essential to understanding the workplace bully phenomenon, but more so for the U.S. Army military context (Hall, 2011). A challenge in a review of the literature was to define the military bully or more specifically a U.S. Army uniformed bully and to understand the unique context in which this type of bully existed. This definitional problem exists because there were some

structural differences in U.S. Army military personnel and group relationships that created a more specialized context. Units such as special operations units hold a specialized context different from those who work in a human resources office. Unlike normal workplace contexts, the U.S. Army military environment was unique among organizational and social peers in the formal relationships bound within the confines of command authority, for example, the superior-to-subordinate role and the demand for unwavering obedience to lawful orders and regulations (Ashley, 2013). In the normal dyad and triadic sociation social exchange, theory suggests reward manipulates the relationship with the implication that such an exchange system is entrepreneurial (Homans and Merton, 1974; Lewin, 1997).

Senior U.S. Army leadership took a hard policy line on toxic leaders and bullies once found often removing them from their command or leadership position and retiring them from the service (Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014). Bullying and toxic leadership were such serious threat to the U.S. Army's ethos and mission that in the last ten years senior leadership had moved quickly to remove the most blatant offenders (Reed & Bullis, 2009; Reed, 2004; Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014). To reinforce the seriousness of this threat, the U.S. Army imposed one of its more severe organizational and leadership punishments, a suspension of favorable actions in the form of a relief of command and relief for cause action (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014b). The U.S. Army took this action to stop the repeated harm directed at both its soldiers and the institution. Nevertheless, the demands of multiple deployments and the constant reintegration back and forth from battlefield complexities back to regular garrison dynamics have left the

U.S. Army vulnerable to the acts of workplace bullying and toxic leadership (Ulmer, 2012).

The U.S. Army viewed both bullying and toxic leadership as dysfunction of its leadership function; it represented failed leadership and a threat to the integrity of military command and good order and discipline (Reed & Olsen, 2010; Ulmer, 2012; United States, 2014). In a reciprocal manner, U.S. Army literature places failed organizational outcomes squarely on leadership (Reed & Olsen, 2010; Reed, 2004; Ulmer, 2012). It is only recently with the updated publication of *ADP 6-22 Army Leadership* and *Army Regulation 600-20 Army Command Policy* that the U.S. Army raises bullying and toxic leadership to a level of policy and a doctrinal concern (Reed, 2015; United States, 2014). A raised command policy bar positions the U.S. Army toxic leader or bully a threat and an abuser of the leadership office who created an atmosphere of fear through intimidation and harassment (Heppell, 2011; Pelletier, 2012; Steele, 2011b). These abusive behaviors adversely affected the motivations and outcomes of a subordinate individual's performance and career and the organization's ability to function as a combined arms team mandated by demands of both statute and U.S. military doctrine (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b; Ulmer, 2012).

However, in the U.S. Army military context, this poor outcome was different slightly because of the unique statutory relationships between superior and subordinate. In their case, the social exchange reward was measured as protection and insulation of the status quo and seen through the elements of the U.S. Army ethos, and values, for example, loyalty, courage, obedience, and compliance. Second, in applying the concept of reward the reward was very personal or highly impersonal, for example, the sacrificial

act of giving one's life or forcing the same upon the enemy (Campbell et al., 2010; S. Hannah et al., 2009). Third, the U.S. Army military environment was structurally unique. The structural uniqueness comes from the scripts, norms, values, and ethos characterized by the constant threat or stress of fatality; the daily operational tempo carried the ever present effects of lethality (Coll et al., 2012; Green, Emslie, O'Neill, Hunt, & Walker, 2010).

Finding a bully within a construct of rigid command and control and under the constant stress of lethal consequences was challenging. Although there were some research to define this context as unique (Tannock, Burgess, & Moles, 2013; K. T. Thomas & Walker, 2010), the unanswered question centered on a context served only by a construct (Giddens, 1984), a justification (Homans and Merton, 1974; Lewin, 1997), or in the military case, both (Clark & Kiper, 2012)? Antecedents to workplace bullying already existed as stress, toxic leadership and supervision, competition among peers and the negative results (Balducci et al., 2011; Giorgi, 2010; Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006; Keashly et al., 2011; Leymann, 1996; Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

The military workplace environment offered a unique opportunity to view a phenomenon as a kaleidoscope. In every respect, this environment was egalitarian (Ashley, 2013). Nevertheless, at the same time, the military context considered the team or group ethos prima facie (Yammarino, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010) and workplace ostracism was its principal enforcer (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013). Characteristics of the U.S. Army squad, section or team were aggression and work engagement. Work engagement as an attribute of the organizational dyad was as an attribute of the small army unit and team (Ashley, 2013; Leung, Wu, Chen, & Young,

2011). Aggression was a common factor in the small Army team and group environment; it is a normal expectation. Conflict type behaviors such as aggression were simply mediation methods used to influence group or team behavior (Hutchinson, Vickers, Wilkes, & Jackson, 2009). As in nursing, conflict regulation was a principle coping strategy of the group or team (Hutchinson et al., 2009).

The U.S. Army premises normal and ethical leadership on the proper functioning of three distinct factors: character, ethos, and virtue (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The CASAL (Steele, 2011a) survey showed a breakdown in these factors. The research corroborated other bullying research that showed workplace bullying seriously degraded the normal, ethical, and mediating roles expected of leadership in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2011; Hoel et al., 2011; Lewis et al., 2011; Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Zapf et al., 2011). The responses in the CASAL survey also identified a strong link between leadership toxicity and unethical individual and organizational behavioral scripts (Steele, 2011a). CASAL (Steele, 2011a; Steele, 2011b) respondents linked the overall perception of leadership toxicity with negative behavior such as "over-controlling," a norm of a negative working environment with inhibitive behaviors holding back innovative thinking. The same research found that some issues offered a bleak look at leadership. For example, the CASAL surveys found one in five soldiers view formal leaders as negative, leadership intolerant of individual or unit failure (30 %), leaders were self-promoting (61%), and Army leaders both commissioned and non-commissioned (83%) report observing toxic leadership (Riley et al., 2011; Steele, 2011a). Steele (2011a) reported that 100% of surveyed leaders from a 2008 military senior service college class had experienced a toxic leader in their career.

All victims who reported workplace bullying viewed it as a negligent act (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Lueders, 2008). The CASAL study showed the U.S. Army reported similar views from the effects of workplace bullying to its groups and small teams (Steele, 2011b). The CASAL demonstrated that U.S. Army personnel and their units were just as susceptible to the same negative organizational outcomes when workplace bullying occurred, but whereas this type of behavior had the added potential severest of consequences or outcomes that can lead to mutiny and death either by fratricide or by suicide (Steele, 2011a). This observed linkage presented a major U.S. Army organizational and institutional concern at the most senior leadership levels (Zwerdling, 2014). The survey results demonstrated serious leadership shortfalls and constituted a major failure of those individuals duly assigned and positioned to the role of leader and a failure of the acts of leadership (Riley et al., 2012).

Toxic Leadership. Toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Pelletier, 2010; Pelletier, 2012; Reed & Olsen, 2010) or destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2009; Shaw, Erickson, & Nassirzadeh, 2014; Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011) was a current example of the literature shifting the focus to socially constructed definitions and scope. Toxic leadership was a similar form of workplace bullying in that it possessed similar destructive characteristics of intent and means. Some authors exclude intent believing that destructive or toxic leadership had more to do with outcomes than with purpose, for example, prosocial actions versus antisocial motivations (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010; Hoel et al., 2010). Other researchers compared behaviors often associated with intent such as demeaning, narcissism, demoralizing, intimidating, and disenfranchising with the toxic leader (Doty & Gelineau, 2008; Lipman-Blumen,

2005; Pelletier, 2010; Pelletier, 2012; Steele, 2011a; Steele, 2011b). It seemed more appropriate at least from the literature perspective that intent was just as essential as means. Bullies and leaders were not purposeless actors with the purposeful aim, therefore; this lack of intent offered by some seemed somewhat counterintuitive.

Researchers within the reviewed literature supported the position to equate toxic leadership within the U.S. Army workplace as workplace bullying in the same vain as the scholarly literature described workplace bullying for the private sector and other public sectors. The U.S. Army definition of bullying was comparable to Einarsen et al. (2011) definition using similar terms such as humiliating, demeaning, harmful behavior, and loss of dignity (United States, 2014, p. 30). Reed (2004, p. 67) and Steele (2011, p. 2-4) reported workplace bullying separately and toxic leadership is extremely comparable destructive intentional acts. Both Reed (2004) and Steele (2011) framed and described toxic leadership in similar terms to Krasikova et al. (2013) based on specific organizational, behavioral, social, and psychological natures and the extremely negative impact on subordinates and the organization. Likewise, Einarsen et al. (2011) and Hoel et al. (2011) in their studies of workplace bullying used a similar mix of toxic, dysfunctional behaviors and actions used by managers and leaders to define and describe workplace bullying. Additionally, both toxic leadership and workplace bullying definitions included organizational forms such as counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013).

There was a slight notable difference between toxic leadership and bullying that was important and critical to this study, but the difference did not create a conflict. The U.S. Army deemed toxic leadership a leadership dysfunction (Ulmer, 2012; U.S.

Department of the Army, 2014b; Zwerdling, 2014) of its leadership requirements model

(U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). However, the U.S. Army regulation makes the

distinction that bullying was not leadership dependent (U.S. Department of the Army,

2014b). Whereas in the scholarly leadership discussion and studies of workplace bullying

the dysfunction was not limited to just position as anyone within the organization to

include the organization itself can be considered a bully if displaying bullying actions

(Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Neuman et al., 2011). Another small notable

difference was the recognition and punishment of the offender in the private sector.

European and U.S. employers and organizations rarely punished workplace-bullying

offenders, and the practice remains legal for the private sector in all U.S. jurisdictions

(Beale & Hoel, 2010; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Lueders, 2008). Commanders and U.S.

Army senior leaders held identified offenders accountable through the regulation and

statute (United States, 2014). Commanders and U.S. Army senior leaders made deliberate

attempts to purge toxic leaders when known (Ulmer, 2012; Zwerdling, 2014) or will

punish an entire U.S. Army organization with a complete stand-down until bullying or

toxic leadership deficiencies are corrected. *U.S. Army Regulation 600-20 Army Command

Policy* specifically prohibited bullying and hazing (United States, 2014, p. 30).

Toxicity, in general, was more about the effectual damages that emerged from the

degree and dosage of exposure, for example, damage relates to the quality, and quantity

of the toxin received than it is with the intent to do damage (Wennig, 2009).

Nevertheless, with the literature's use and the introduction of the term toxic or destructive

leadership, our conceptual frameworks had now evolved to a rating system for bullying.

It was acceptable to speak of a leader as being highly toxic or destructive versus one

being slightly or just somewhat toxic or not toxic at all. Again, this represented an excellent example of those within the bullying scholarship as being socially reflexive in our social construction of a concept.

Some characteristics described toxic leaders or an organization's behaviors; it made no difference whether military or civilian (Einarsen et al., 2007; Lipman-Blumen, 2006). The literature at least provided some commonality by characterizing this form. The distinction was the calculated use of emotions, events (physical or temporal), sense or need of belonging, and noble goals either from the bully's perspective or by the usurpation of the victim's to achieve the bully's end state (Pelletier, 2012). The toxic leader was practicing the art of a bully to a stated perfection whereas the workplace bully was simply performing the cold science of bullying.

Basic Construct of Workplace Bullying

The workplace bullying literature demonstrated a basic consensus to define the genre of workplace bullying generally as the repeated act of bullying actions and practices (Einarsen et al., 2011; Samnani & Singh, 2012). Workplace bullying was those actions that harassed, intimidated, fear mongered, demeaned, harmed, or put down a coworker through verbal, emotional, or physical actions (Einarsen et al., 2011). These actions were typically directed at co-workers or subordinate victims (Namie & Namie, 2009) occurring in the workplace or within the context of a working relationship (Namie et al., 2011; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). The typical workplace bullying environment was an atmosphere of fear and trepidation (Giorgi, 2012) that adversely affected individual and organizational performance and outcomes and often led to post traumatic stress conditions (Hoel et al., 2011). Within this consensus and

characterization, there lay the variant of toxic leadership. Toxic leadership was a form of bullying, but focused on the quality or scale of quality, for example, as in the form of a dosage rate (Reed & Olsen, 2010; Steele, 2011). Some scholars recognized the toxic workplace as a set of destructive qualities as opposed to a set of ineffective qualities (Krasikova et al., 2013). Therefore, the toxic workplace was as a collection of destructive or negative leadership actions or behaviors associated with a nature of quality and amount that similarly destroyed an individual or an organization like workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2007; Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Steele, 2011b). Toxic leadership is not poor, passive, or incompetent leadership but it is a near twin to workplace bullying as a destructive intentional act of deliberate or reckless harm to others (Krasikova et al., 2013).

Workplace bullying was viewed as an enigma of enormous complexity and scope (Giorgi, 2010; Saam, 2010; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). On a scale, it affected nearly every U.S. worker and a significant number worldwide. Workplace Bullying Institute (WBI) findings reported that office workplace bullying is four times more prevalent than all other forms of harassment (WBI, 2014; WBI, 2010). At least one-quarter of U.S. workers reported being bullied in the past or are currently bullied at work while an additional 15% (WBI, 2010) to 21% (WBI, 2014) of those U.S. workers reported being a witness to bullying. The remaining 50% (WBI, 2010) to 72% (WBI 2014) are fully aware of bullying around them and negatively affected in some way. Less than one-third reported no knowledge of the phenomenon at work (WBI, 2014; WBI, 2010) which means those who witnessed and were aware of it constituted an additional "silent majority," no less equally impacted (Namie, 2010). European research found similar

results placing the impact of worker exposure to direct workplace bullying at between 10% and 15% of the entire European workforce (Zapf et al., 2011). Other researchers reported a figure as high as 20% of employees across the globe were exposed to some level of Insidious workplace behavior or negative social acts (Lewis, Sheehan, & Davies, 2008; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007; Nielsen et al., 2009; Notelaers, Vermunt, Baillien, Einarsen, & De Witte, 2011).

Workplace bullying is a challenging and multifaceted phenomenon characterized by complex relationships (Agervold, 2009; Goldsmid & Howie, 2013) among many variables on multiple levels (Einarsen et al., 2011). Unlike its deviant social siblings, sexual harassment and discrimination, workplace violence, and racism no U.S. laws prohibited workplace bullying and there were few European legislative acts currently addressing it. It is nearly universally legal and an implicit practice in the modern workforce (Lueders, 2008; Namie & Namie, 2009; Namie et al., 2011; Yamada, 2011) . Although the literature implied the phenomenon met the social qualities and tests of harm under the civil rights and violence canopy, legislatures have yet to nullify it in the U.S. or Europe; it is legally regarded as an employment issue where redress of an injustice favor the accused (Namie & Namie, 2009; Yamada, 2011). Studies by the Workplace Bullying Institute showed more than a third of U.S. workers bullied or directly exposed to workplace bullying at some point in their career (WBI, 2010). However, the phenomenon was highly localized, and this fact complicated the complexity and practices to reduce or eliminate it (Einarsen et al., 2011; Gholipour, Setare, Seyede, Mahdieh, & Samira, 2011).

Workplace bullying degrades individuals and organizations through a breakdown of the mediating roles found in normal and ethical leadership (Einarsen et al., 2011;

Einarsen et al., 2007; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010). These are also linked activities of workplace bullying to failed leadership. Normal leadership structures have been shown degraded by the collateral damage caused by the character, ethos, and virtue of current leaders and the organization through either forced collaboration or deliberate inaction (Hannah & Avolio, 2011; Leymann, 1996; Quick & Wright, 2011; Wright & Quick, 2011). Workplace bullying often degraded a leader's responsibility for ethical supervision of subordinates, and the development of ethical behavior of groups and teams through certain destructive behavioral actions like verbal and emotional abuse in the form of aggressive behavior (Einarsen et al., 2011). It does this by disrupting the essential healthy climate and relationship in the adaptive leadership function through impediment of the adaptive function's role to serve the administrative leadership function's goals and missions (Hannah et al., 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Vane & Toguchi, 2010). Therefore, poor management leads to poor outcomes, but more significantly failed leadership leads to failed emergence just as the U.S. Army (Steele, 2011a) and CLT (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009) suggest. The U.S. Army identified the abhorrent behavior of toxic leadership a likely cause (Steele, 2011a) and complexity leadership literature suggested organizations suppress the enabling leadership scripts that mitigate such behavior as the likely agent (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009).

Workplace bullying was not formally defined. However, the generally accepted paraphrased definition was a negative activity or action of exchange in antecedents using behavioral, organizational, or social scripts between two or more actors (Einarsen et al., 2009; Giorgi, 2010; Hauge et al., 2009; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Neuman et al., 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). Lacking a formal definition did not prevent common ground

among the bullying research to describe the phenomenon under a canopy of behavioral,

organizational, and socio-cultural or psychosocial terms to give it a conceptual

framework (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013; Pearson, 2010). However, the researchers within

the literature struggled to coherently synchronize these terms because their concept was

derived from studies measuring the context from self-reports of victims, observers, and

perpetrators (Nielsen et al., 2011).

This common foundation was a substantive start point, but it did not negate the

true problem of constructing a bullying framework. The definitional dilemma within the

field of bullying research inhibited the building of this framework (Liefooghe & Davey,

2010; Nielsen et al., 2010). The canopy definitions were individually contextual because

they were solely based on data from self-reports by victims (Gholipour, Setare, Seyede,

Mahdieh, & Samira, 2011; MacIntosh, Wuest, Gray, & Aldous, 2010). Socially

contextual agencies of social power (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013, pp.13-14; Hershcovis &

Barling, 2010), gender, and status imbalance (Huitsing et al., 2012; Vargas, 2011)

between the perpetrator and victim (Lester, 2009; Salin & Hoel, 2011) hindered a

framework due to past research predicated on self-reliant and self-reporting

methodologies.

The lack of definitional acuity also led to research challenges for creating a

definitive workplace bullying construct due in part to differences in society, cultures,

epic, and related sociocultural and socioeconomic imbalances (Nielsen et al., 2009;

Tsuno, Kawakami, Inoue, & Abe, 2010). Einarsen et al. (2011) recognized creating a

construct would be hindered because our current understanding was still generally driven

by studies of victimization based on victim perception and that there was an overall lack

of studies with empirical data that showed true causality (pp.22-32). Challenges existed

due to methodological differences, too, between research design and measurements as

well as disparities in the use of instrumentation to measure bullying (Nam et al., 2010;

Nielsen et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 2011). Many studies, for example, instrumentation and

designs will measure and study workplace bullying based on slightly different definitions

(Nielsen et al., 2009). The different definitions did not negate previous research but rather

reinforced it. The reliable construct based workplace bullying research on research results

from surveys of exposure and perceptions, that is, agent and agency (Nielsen et al., 2009)

as opposed to results from empirically based instrumentation and design (Nielsen et al.,

2011).

There were also problems conceptualizing and operationalizing the behaviors into

a single term labeled workplace bullying. The inability was due in part because of these

issues in the measurement methods were self-reporting (Fevre et al., 2010; Zapf et al.,

2011; Zapf et al., 2011). There was also evidence of confusion in distinguishing

behaviors that represented normal social tension within dyads, triads, and those that

genuinely crossed a line to become repetitive harmful negative behavioral actions (Fevre

et al., 2010; Parzefall & Salin, 2010). Therefore, the scope of the overall problem lacked

clarity and depth because the scale was inefficiently measurable by instruments

congenitally deficient due to inherent unreliability in self-reporting (Einarsen et al., 2009;

Johnson, 2009). The one notable exception was the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revived

(NAQ-R) which demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha of .90 indicating strong reliability as a

test instrument as well as validity in showing causality among certain variables based on

Pearson product-moment correlations (Einarsen et al., 2009). Namie and Namie (2009)

found an exception to this type of measurement of self-reporting surveys. They can be ineffective—perceptions are a reality, therefore empirically based—the discrepancy occurring between overestimation by the victim and underestimation by the researcher as an offset in self-reporting.

Because the literature depicted a conceptual construct of workplace bullying, there were limitations in exposure and perception where the resolution and evolution toward causality begged a genuine foundation. However, there was evidence within the literature that may already have identified one to exist in the form of social exchange or sociation (Einarsen et al., 2011; Mead, 1963). Social exchange and sociation can take the commonalities of behavioral, organizational, and socio-cultural or psychosocial terms and link them to causality based on measures of interrelationships among agents (Neuman et al., 2011; Parzefall & Salin, 2010). For example, Parzefall and Salin (2010) concluded that using a test of "reasonableness" by an independent agent might provide a better basis to ascertain causality because this independent agent relied on other qualitative and quantitative measures to judge social concept and social context (p.772). One review of research on workplace bullying victimization from 1990-2009 suggested that theoretical "under specification" and understudy of the processes of victimization was leading to conceptual overlaps (Aquino & Thau, 2009). This conceptual overlap was at the expense of a lack of research dedicated to empirical assessments leading the research groping for theory (pp. 732-734). Because researchers struggled with theorizing causes, it was more logical as this point to link this conceptual understanding to a theoretical framework. Such a framework would assess context among social agents based on a theorized process of exchange.

The basic construct of workplace bullying research was one built on social acts that occurred within a social setting made up an agent and agency (Einarsen et al., 2011). Further, Einarsen et al. (2011) justified this connection to the social exchange framework as an intellectual basis for agency in the form of social space and resources modeled in their framework through which individuals process the social exchange system and lead to facilitating Aquino and Thau (2009) call for greater theoretical specificity in the research.

The same held for leadership (Crevani, Lindgren, & Packendorff, 2010; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). Like workplace bullying the concept of leadership currently existed at the event and perception levels—it was measurable, but as a quality, it represented something much deeper—it was less observable, but just as real (Kempster & Parry, 2011). When leadership was the sum of traits, characteristics, and skills of the leader, the conceptual meaning was missing the addend of the social contextual equation (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010). The concept of the leadership equation included meaning or context of the leader plus meaning and context from the follower. The meaning corresponded to a test of reasonableness suggested by Parzefall and Salin (2010). In other words, Fairhurst and Grant (2010) research called for a meaning of leadership based on interrelationships between two objects, the meaning or reality of the leader and the meaning or reality of the leader by the follower. This social construct for a contextual view of leadership was the research level CLT had. CLT provided a theoretical framework to contextualize and explore perceptions and exposure to toxic leadership through the shared meaning of another object (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). It was also the view least explored within the leadership discipline (Kempster & Parry, 2011).

Social members construct frameworks to structure roles and guide the control of roles (Morgeson et al., 2010). These frameworks were the *object* of formal leadership, but the observable framework for expectations of leadership came as a quality in the form of scripts (Sternberg, 2008). As an *object*, the formal leader emerged with distinct characteristics (Crevani et al., 2010), but as a quality, leadership emerged from scripts; it was a social exchange (Yoon et al., 2013). Secondly, this less observable leadership quality informed the group and created the environment for conflict or conflict resolution (Roberto, 2013) that led to change. Complex adaptive systems called this adaptation (Khalil, 2014) and complexity leadership labeled it emergence (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

First, Heider (1958) suggested the social balance process facilitated creation of social qualities through social equilibrium. Such processes led to relationships to sustain balance (Cvencek, Greenwald, & Meltzoff, 2012). Second, Huitsing et al. (2012) study of bullying victimization suggested that this was part of an essential configuring force in social network development through an association of victims to find strength in numbers. Huitsing et al. (2012) finding was consistent with Mead (1963) that the observable quality drove our understanding of the observable object. The understanding placed the concept of sociality and self with social roles based on a system of scripts (Mead, 1963). We may get our meaning of workplace bullying from toxic leadership as an example, but the conceptual understanding of workplace bullying as a quality comes from a system of anteceded social scripts (Mead, 1963).

Common Scripts of Workplace Bullying

Behavioral, organizational, and social scripts are known to contribute to bullying. The scripts contribute to this by amplifying negative behaviors through escalation, negatively affecting change by altering scripts designed to foster positive change, and cause a psychological impact on third-party witnesses (Avery et al., 2009; Friedkin, 2010; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Saleem, Anderson, & Gentile, 2012). There was agreement among the literature on common criteria of workplace bullying. The literature suggested that it must meet a standard defined as repeated and prolonged acts of harmful behavior and directed by a perpetrator at a target, for example, we understood the "who" and the "what" (Einarsen et al., 2011; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Namie & Namie, 2009). The repeated and prolonged acts were as far as the commonality went for a common definition of workplace bullying. From this point, many authors expanded the definition to include a multitude of variations on the nature of workplace bullying to a point where there was something to describe its inputs and outputs for nearly every victim or perpetrator encountered—in true social reflexivity fashion (Giddens, 1984). However, first, there was a referential point at which all the literature seemed to rally, and this was Einarsen et al. (2011) common definition of workplace bullying (Namie & Namie, 2009).

The challenge to limiting or delimiting the scripts of the workplace was primarily due to social tensions between a subtle and overt manifestation of its activity, and the seemingly infinite places within the workplace where it occurred (Alexander et al., 2012). The line between normal human conflict and workplace bullying was difficult to draw (Keashly et al., 2011). The literature made standardization complicated in terms with

construct overlaps. These overlaps consisted of hostile workplace behavior by lamenting

undue specificity, for example., sexual harassment, workplace violence, mobbing,

emotional abuse, and other tyrannies (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Keashly

et al., 2011). There was adequate literature for each of these examples to describe their

separate but equal constructs (see Zapf et al., 2011). Table 2 shows a sample of terms.

However, Namie and Namie (2009) believed there were enough consensuses among the

literature to capture a common script as a non-lethal, unwanted, repeated, and non-

physical form of abuse. These terms will become more relevant when they are cross-

walked with the collected data to reveal significant schema relationships.

Table 2

Bullying Typologies

Descriptor	Typology	Source
Premeditated malice; demonstrative antagonism	Personal, Cyber	(Hendricks, Lumadue, & Waller, 2012)
Negative behaviors—harassing, offending, socially excluding or negatively affecting work tasks	Cyber, Impersonal	(Escartín, Salin, & Rodríguez-Carballeira, 2011; Namie & Namie, 2009)
Stressors that have negative consequences	Personal, Cyber, Military	(Aquino & Thau, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010)
Verbal and non-verbal negative behavior	Personal	(Namie, 2009)
An evolving process of negative social acts where perpetrators can easily become victims and vice a versa	Personal, Impersonal	(Hauge et al., 2009, p. 350)
Creates or contributes to organizational injustice	Personal, Impersonal	(Namie, 2009)
Workplace Bullying is systematic and persistent Descriptor	Personal, Cyber	(Jenkins et al., 2011)
Prevents job or organizational accomplishment	Toxic, Personal	(Namie, 2009)
Interpersonal aggression	Personal, Toxic	(Lester, 2009)

(table continues)

Descriptor	Typology	Source
Requires an inequality in power to manifest	Toxic, Personal,	(Einarsen et al., 2011; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010)
Dirty looks, rumor spreading, belittlement	Cyber, Impersonal	(DeCuyper et al., 2009)
Verbal abuse, constant and consistent criticism, undermining and backstabbing, exclusion, marginalization, taunting, and work overload	Personal, Impersonal, Cyber, Toxic	(Lester, 2009)
Workplace bullying is a pattern of hostile messages and abusive behaviors persistently targeted at one or more persons in work settings that can involve work obstruction, public humiliation, verbal abuse, threatening behavior, and multiple forms of intimidation	Toxic leadership	(Namie, 2010; Namie, 2007a)
Individuals with job stressors are more likely to be targets	Impersonal	(Notelaers, DeWitte, & Einarsen, 2010)
Threatens and interferes with a victim's psychological stability	Personal, Cyber, Toxic	(Namie, 2009)
Toxic leadership	Personal, Military	(Riley et al., 2011; Steele, 2011b)
Transactional and laissez faire leadership	Personal, Toxic	(Bass & Bass, 2009)

Classifications of Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying is contextual (Einarsen et al., 2011). There was also common ground among the reviewed research that viewed the phenomena as an evolving construction of complex relationships, social and organizational contexts, and complex individual and group behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2011). Workplace bullying behavior or scheme showed a social contextualization by type to the following antecedent relationships: psychological (Cuhadar & Dayton, 2011; Nieuwenhuijsen, Bruinvels, & Frings-Dresen, 2010), organizational (Hauge et al., 2011; Ramsay, Troth, & Branch, 2011), social (del Barrio Martínez et al., 2008; Parzefall & Salin, 2010). This research suggested a simple bifurcation it into psychological and social bullying contexts (Boulton, Smith, & Cowie, 2010; Sercombe & Donnelly, 2013). Psychological bullying

was difficult to identify and often went undetectable (Bourke & Burgman, 2010). Social

bullies were easier to identify, as they were less subtle and are rooted in social status and

hierarchies (Fitzpatrick & Bussey, 2011; Law, Shapka, Hymel, Olson, & Waterhouse,

2012). However, other researchers had shown that bullying is not a simplified dualism

(Wang, Iannotti, Luk, & Nansel, 2010). The value in the construction of workplace

bullying to their antecedent relationship proved valuable with other researchers who

aligned bullying to typologies.

There was support for another context, organizational bullying (Hutchinson et al.,

2010; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). This context viewed shared social identities as

mediating workplace bullying (see Einarsen et al., 2011; Escartín et al., 2011). Having

this additional context opened the possibility for alignment and conceptualization with

Einarsen et al. (2011) organizational inhibitor, and potentially the suppressed factor Uhl-

Bien and Marion (2009) identified in their research, which is the enabling function.

Escartin et al., (2011) demonstrated that conceptualization of workplace bullying with an

organizational level antecedent was appropriate, too. Linking social identities at work

with workplace bullying opened a new opportunity for diagnosis and intervention.

Organizational contexts were also effective to elucidate the subtle nature of workplace

bullying especially in the nursing field (Hutchinson et al., 2010). Therefore, this context

could accurately identify workplace bullying as more than just interpersonal conflict;

organizational factors and behaviors showed to be empirically significant (Hutchinson et

al., 2010). There were other contexts mentioned by the literature. These contexts

included: indirect, direct, physical, and verbal (Kirves & Sajaniemi, 2012) and as were

prevalence, antecedents, and outcomes (Samnani & Singh, 2012). However, the latter

were more sub-contexts aligned to typologies as they served more of the function of

bullying rather than a separate context (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Psychological Bullying

The literature defined psychological bullying as those negative behaviors that

threatened, thwarted, or damaged a fundamental psychological or physiological need

(Aquino & Thau, 2009; Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2012). Psychological

bullying overlapped with other forms of bullying in that all bullying contained

psychological factors (Einarsen et al., 2011). It differed because the literature had

institutionalized the language and discourse (Hansen, Steenberg, Palic, & Elklit, 2012;

Harlow & Roberts, 2010; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010; Kowalski, Morgan, & Limber,

2012) to justify creation of a distinctive category (Coyne, 2011; Liefooghe & Davey,

2010). A psychological typology was appropriate as some studies showed it to be a

common factor emerging from the bullying data (Alexander et al., 2012; see Boulton,

2013, p. 308; see Kirves & Sajaniemi, 2012, p. 393; MacIntosh et al., 2010)

Psychological bullying was perpetrator centric (Zapf et al., 2011), and

psychological events were often subtle as subtlety was a significant cloaking technique

used by bullies to mask their behavior (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Sakellariou, Carroll, &

Houghton, 2012). Psychological bullies typically moderated their actions through

transposition and or transfer of their personal external conflicts and psychosocial

disruptions onto victims (Sourander et al., 2010). Psychological bullying was among the

severest form of bullying (Iglesias & Vallejo, Ricardo Becerro de Bengoa, 2012). It is

distinctive in form from outcomes that placed limits on the victim's ability to "predict

and cognitively control" (Nielsen et al., 2012, p. 38) their surroundings—a loss of cognitive and emotional autonomy.

Organizational Bullying

The concept of an organization as the bully was a major bullying theme in the current literature although not as thoroughly studied as other contexts (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2010; D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013; Salin & Hoel, 2011). Researchers shifted focus because studies suggested other relationships exists. There are relationships between bullying poor work environment (Salin & Hoel, 2011), poor interpersonal group relationships and bullying (Skogstad et al., 2011), and perceived organizational support (POS) linking poor leadership relations with bullying (Chullen, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss, & Boss, 2010).

Organizational bullying was the institutionalization or agent/agency shift of the workplace bullying discourse and outcomes from the individual and dyadic collective functions and culture to the organization function and culture (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2010; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Salin & Hoel, 2011). It differed in concept from workplace bullying in that bullying was elevated to a permissive state (Salin & Hoel, 2011) where employees cannot separate targeted bullying from the leadership that allowed it (Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011). It took its genesis from the same acts of harassment, offense, exclusion and negativity as workplace bullying in the dyadic sense (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010), but with the added sanction of a governing structure normally designed to protect from injustices (Neuman et al., 2011). Organizations became the agent when the organizational climate or culture became perceived as

bullying (Cowan, 2014; Mathisen et al., 2011), for example, the institutionalization of negative acts directed to the group members (Salin & Hoel, 2011).

The organizational context both embodied and administered the group mindset (Georgakopoulos, Wilkin, & Kent, 2011) and offered insight into informal influences as one antecedent factor that may mediate bullying (Hutchinson et al., 2010). Hutchinson et al. (2010) could model informal alliances as a primary social mechanism that mediates organizational bullying by controlling other member's access to bullying opportunities (p.177). This finding for an informal leader factor offered further opportunity to inform Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) modeling of the informal leader during entanglement.

Social Bullying

Social bullying was the elevation of workplace bullying to the social level where society executed harmful intent through bullying behavior directed at groups or individuals to achieve social isolation (Yahn, 2012). It was a form of direct or indirect aggression intended to diminish or deprive an individual of their social status (Fitzpatrick & Bussey, 2011). Common forms of social bullying included hate speech, discrimination in the form of refugee, slander, racism, sexism, gender, social exclusion, and sexual orientation. With the advent of economic, communication globalization, and the Internet, the current leadership and bullying literature viewed societal bullying like the mythical Lernaean Hydra—toxic and virulent.

Social bullying did not receive full recognition as a social ill. This blame laid in part because western culture defined social power as a social dichotomy and used terms where social status and action reflected terms such as white/black, majority/minority, heterosexual/transsexual, liberal/conservative, abled/disabled, and justice/injustice

(Misawa, 2009). Although the dichotomy was a source of human aggression employed by bullies on their victims, western culture learned it early in child development where it became a group norm as opposed to a social aberration (Misawa, 2009, p. 51). Some social researchers corroborated this in part when studies showed counter-retaliation partially linked to cultural factors and norms of revenge behavior offering a wider explanation why some retaliate, and others do not (Samnani, 2013). Likewise, social antecedents played a leading role in the workplace and demonstrated a stronger relationship between the levels of human aggression and hostile work environment (Neuman & Baron, 2011).

In the perpetrator's mindset, societal power often justified the act of harmful behavior as exemplified in the television reality show, Big Brother (Riggs & Due, 2010). In the case of Big Brother, societal power in the form of the head of household became the crutch the bully used to limp along as they abused their victim. In the organization, typically the bully accomplished this within the framework of formal power in the form of abusive or unethical leadership, for example, in a supervisory role (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Roscigno et al., 2009). The supervisory role was an abuse of societal power through the exploitation of the natural imbalance in power between a supervisor and subordinate; it is a major contributing strategy (Roscigno et al., 2009).

Social inclusion is highly correlated with well-being; social status and health are related (Correa-Velez, Gifford, & Barnett, 2010). Two of the most important predictors of both inclusion/exclusion and well-being was bullying and discrimination (Correa-Velez et al., 2010, p. 1404). Social status served social hierarchies, for example, equality/inequality and class (Correa-Velez et al., 2010; Riggs & Due, 2010). When

social status was low whether actual or perceived, it can create a co-dependency in the power broker to remain complicit in their effort to retain status quo (Riggs & Due, 2010). The power broker continues to enjoy social status because of a social reward (exchange)—retention of power and hierarchy.

Context of Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying contexts conveniently organize into a triadic series of nested three characteristics. First, the current definition offered by Einarsen et al., 2011 was acknowledged by most researchers as agreed on three common major characteristics. These significant characteristics were the following: (a) an imbalance in power, (b) intent to harm, and (c) repetition of the harm (Law et al., 2012). Second, three major sociation levels of actors and alliances were the major contributors to workplace bullying event: (a) bully, (b) victim, and (c) witness (Einarsen et al., 2011; Law et al., 2012; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010). Third, workplace bullying operated vertically across three principal contextual levels. These contextual levels included the following: (a) individual, (b) organizational, and (c) sociocultural (Einarsen et al., 2011; Giorgi, 2010; Goldsmid & Howie, 2013; Johnson, 2009; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; MacIntosh et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2010; O'Donnell, MacIntosh, & Wuest, 2010; Saam, 2010; Sloan et al., 2010). Within this context of triads the bullying actors and alliances operated both vertically and horizontally displaying variants of negative psycho-social scripts, demeaning and humiliating behaviors, unethical leadership, and organizationally sanctioned negative actions to achieve their goals (Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009; MacIntosh et al., 2010; Namie et al., 2011).

Complexity leadership followed a similar triadic pattern by identifying three *bureaucratic* levels that accommodated complexity dynamics and adaptive change (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2011). These three bureaucratic levels, administrative leadership, enabling leadership, and adaptive leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009) served to organize the adaptive leadership function by providing a contextual setting for the enabling function to successfully negotiate the entanglement process (Marion, 2009). These three levels typically served to organize an organization around a series of linear functions of line work, middle management, and executive functions (Uhl-Bien et al., 2011).

As a phenomenon, the definition and contexts have evolved since Olweus (Olweus, 2013), Brodsky, and Leymann first published research between the late 1970's to early 1980s (Einarsen et al., 2011; Keashly et al., 2011; Nielsen et al., 2011; Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Zapf et al., 2011). There was general agreement these group relationships were highly interrelated, multilevel and multidimensional (Einarsen et al., 2011). Capitalizing on these interrelations served to explore further explanations of workplace bullying: (a) individual context, (b) social context; and (c) organizational context (Agervold, 2007; Balducci et al., 2011; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010; Salin & Hoel, 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). Rarely, if ever, was workplace bullying the result of unrelated activities; it was the result of multiple accomplices across multiple levels (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). There were conceptual constructs to understand these three interrelated contexts and the dysfunctional nature of the phenomenon among the triadic social relationships at all three of these explanatory levels, individual, organizational, and socio-cultural.

The Individual Context

There was evidence of a debate about the role the individual (either bully, victim, or bystander) contributed to causing workplace bullying (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Zapf et al., 2011). There were two general fault lines identified in the literature regarding individual antecedents. The first occurred between those in the literature who viewed individual antecedents as a causal agent and those who saw a larger holistic context that included organization or society as causal (Ireland, 2011). This tension was due in part to two landmark works, *Bullying at School: What We Know and What We Can Do*, (Olweus, 1993) and *The Content and Development of Mobbing at Work*, Leymann (1996). Each work set a direction for research into the bullying phenomenon and the literature's focus on antecedents. The focus for Olweus (1993) understood school bullying and building of intervention programs for it (Olweus, 2013). A fundamental position from forty years of research was that individual antecedents were responsible for school bullying and that this bullying was primarily a dyadic event.

The second fault line occurred between those researchers who held either the perpetrator's or the victim's antecedents as more contributory to the act, or the perception of the act (Samnani & Singh, 2012). Leymann (1996) saw it differently and went so far as to say, "in all these cases, extremely poorly organized production and working methods, and an almost helpless uninterested management was found (p.177) research so far has not revealed any importance of personality traits…at workplaces or children at school (p.178)." Nonetheless, bullying research focused on a group of individual antecedents such as personality characteristics, social status, social incompetence, poor or low self-esteem (Zapf et al., 2011). Other researchers narrowed the grouping to an individual

belief system, and emotional intelligence, and poor coping skills (Ireland, 2011). A limiting factor some researchers considered when applying the individual context was the concept of blame (in its antecedent form) as it applied both to bully and to the victim equally (Ireland, 2011). This dilemma was amplified more so because much of the research relied on self-reporting of these individual antecedents (Olweus, 2013).

Two studies originating from the nursing field represented other examples of the dilemma. Hutchinson et al. (2010) proposed and tested a multidimensional model among bullied nurses that demonstrated shifts away from individual antecedents to organizational antecedents and shifts from individual context to organizational context. A cross-sectional study of nurses came to a slightly different understanding demonstrating the importance of high levels of individual psychological capital among new nurses mitigates workplace bullying as opposed to group level psychological capital (Laschinger & Fida, 2012).

However, since Leymann (1996) published his landmark work on workplace bullying, the focus shifted for an Olweus view of individual antecedents as principally responsible for bullying behaviors and outcomes (Olweus, 2013; Samnani & Singh, 2012). Some of this shift resulted from a greater public interest in school violence over workplace bullying and violence in general over the last twenty years. One need not go too far into the recent news cycle to see a public preoccupied with antecedents to school shootings and violence.

From the individual context point of view, SE theory already predicted individual antecedents come first and antecede any group or organizational ones. Simmel (1971, p. 43), Heider (1958, p. 20), Lewin (1948, p. 43), and Coleman (1990, p. 39) hold that

society derived its basic essence for meaning from individual antecedents through a system of exchanges between social forces and social structures (agent and agency). Each pursued (antecedent) their survival interest and did not waiver in this task (Simmel & Wolff, 1950, p. 27) to control or desire to control resources (Coleman, 1990, pp. 37-38). This process gave meaning to these social structures (agency), for example, leadership, as they pressed on social forces like leaders to change or adapt, a process of structural change (Giddens, 1984). These structures were the basic measure of a society and the fundamental principle of the social contract—the dyad (Simmel, 1969). The individual level antecedent was critical and was vitally central to our understanding of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011, p.28).

Within the basic dyadic relationship, individuals sought both an advantage to acquire more resources and the protection and control of those resources already acquired (Simmel, 1969; Coleman, 1990). Because this basic exchange resulted in the sense of satisfaction for both parties, the relationships was in a state of equilibrium (Coleman, 1990, p. 39; Heider, 1958). In the dyad, a change occurred when agents reach a zero-sum result because consumption or catastrophe produced a loss of resource and this led to a loss of identity (Coleman, 1990; Lewin, 1997; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). Individual identity was the sum of the individual survival drive (Mead, 1963; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). When identity was lost, an individual sought to restore it (Coleman, 1990; Simmel & Wolff, 1950) through inputs as antecedents to change.

The Organizational Context

The organizational context was the collection of individuals who worked together in common purpose and goal but achieved this common end through a division of labor

(Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborn, & Uhl-bien, 2011). All organizations existed as *open systems* in that each actor, agency, and variable was dependent upon the surrounding environment for meaning; the organization achieved meaning through interaction among the members (Burke, 2011). This interdependence operated from the constant throughput of inputs and outputs or antecedents and succedents that together constituted the organization's internal environment or context (Burke, 2011).

The organizational context was seen as a principal mediating or regulatory inhibitor to workplace bullying (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Montero-Simó, & Araque-Padilla, 2013; Einarsen et al., 2011; Preis, 2010). Within the organization, the elements interacted by a shared understanding of peculiar values, practices, and policies (Berniker & McNabb, 2006). Collectively it was a set of behaviors principally saved as tacit knowledge (Berniker & McNabb, 2006). In the U.S. Army squad, these elements also interacted by shared knowledge via the informal leader through tradition, ethos, commander's intent, and lessons learned. Understanding the organizational context of the IBCT squad was critical for any implementation of bullying interventions since U.S. Army units operated as a system of systems.

The individual context workplace bullying was overwhelming viewed by researchers as an individual phenomenon. The context created a substantive gap in explanatory factors that arose from the organizational bandwidth, but it takes place within the confines of the organization, for example, at work (Preis, 2010; Rhodes et al., 2010). Much of the challenge in understanding the explanatory factors from an organizational aperture was the result of management misdiagnoses and mismanagement (Magerøy et al., 2009; Preis, 2010). Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) suggested management suppressed

these explanatory factors leading to misdiagnosis and this was contributory to workplace bullying in the organization (Magerøy et al., 2009).

The Socio-Cultural Context

The acts of individuals represented as interactions with each other within a framework of impulses of drives and motivations counted as a society (Simmel, 1971). Making sense of the interactions and interrelationships or elements is the nature of context. It is the sum of these elements or "content" (Simmel, 1971, p. 24) that creates diversity (Lewin, 1997) within a framework that imparts a quality and quantity to the whole we call social context (Simmel, 1971). Therefore, it was the context of this sociation which mediated and moderated both the individual's and the group's sense of reality.

Social context was part of a triad of factors contributing to workplace bullying (Mathisen, Øgaard, & Einarsen, 2012). Most working individuals work within a codependency of two or more actors in a structured environment known simply as the workplace (Dzurec & Bromley, 2012; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). This interaction between each member is an emotional and psychosocial attachment to each other gives each dyad and triad a unique reality in the form of individual and organizational commitments, for example, a codependency (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009). Both Homans and Merton (1974) and Lewin 1948 agreed wherein the perception of commitment socially monetized the exchange to create the framework for norms. Therefore, within the social context, social exchanges occurred both naturally and artificially under a canopy of organizational formal and informal norms (Homans and Merton, 1974; Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010). These exchanges ranged from simple to complex

(Dzurec & Bromley, 2012; Simmel, 1969; Stoetzer U., Ahlberg G., Bergman P., Hallsten, Lundberg, 2009).

Within the social context, there were three social factors contributory to workplace bullying: (a) acts that violate norms; (b) acts that produce frustration and stress; and (c) acts that force negative affect (Keashly & Neuman, 2010). For example, some researchers showed actors use workplace bullying for selfish gain (Johnson, 2009; Kelloway et al., 2010). In other cases, the victims became conduits or the equivalent of a social actor hosting a behavioral or organizational script parasite, for example, deviant or counterproductive work behavior (Letiche, 2010). Other examples showed the victim became psychological and organizationally codependent on workplace bullying. Similar results were found where targets of supervisory bullying used deviant behavior to moderate the negative effects of bullying—a mechanism of revenge toward the organization (Tepper et al., 2009). This latter confirming in part Bulutlar & Öz (2009) premise that emotional and psychosocial attachment form a necessary reality to cope.

Other researchers supported this assertion finding that exposition, understanding, and remediation of workplace bullying was set within the social relationships of the workplace domain (Agervold, 2009; Balducci et al., 2011; Cangarli, 2009). Within the workplace domain, social relationships occurred at the three primary levels of the following: (a) individual, (b) organizational, and (c) social (Balducci et al., 2011; Giorgi, 2010; Hodson et al., 2006; Keashly et al., 2011; Leymann, 1996; Parzefall & Salin, 2010). The consequences included a broad range of physical, behavioral, psychological, and social disorders manifesting in the perpetrators, victims, and organizations exposed to it (Balducci et al., 2011; Giorgi, 2010; Hodson et al., 2006; Keashly et al., 2011;

Parzefall & Salin, 2010). At the individual level studies showed negative consequences

ranging from physical and psychological stress leading to major health failures as well as

post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) which can lead to major individual mental

disabilities (Balducci et al., 2011; Gallaway, Millikan, & Bell, 2011; Shen et al., 2009).

At the organizational levels, it led to losses in production efficiencies, increased

absenteeism, higher employee turnover, and lower job satisfaction (Magerøy et al., 2009).

At the socio-cultural level, there was increased risk of social disabilities resulting from

lethal workplace violence, physical abuse and domestic abuse to suicides (Bartone &

Pastel, 2010; Griffith, 2012; Meltzer, Vostanis, Ford, Bebbington, & Dennis, 2011).

Therefore, workplace bullying anteceded the following three contexts: (a) individual, (b)

organizational, and (c) social.

Individual Antecedents

If at any point along the workplace bullying continuum where an entrenched

dualism existed within the literature it occurs at the antecedent level. It was now

researchers bifurcated in that there was a separation of arguments where the results from

those researchers strictly focused on individual level responsibility and those whose focus

was everything beyond the individual's control and these laid claims to a prima facie

group of antecedents (Zapf et al., 2011). Emphasizing this bifurcation was a recognition

those two distinct frameworks one a collective based (European research) and the other

an individualized typology (North American) were used to understand how antecedents

led to workplace bullying (Parzefall & Salin, 2010). The consistent theme formed both

sides and followed Zapf et al. (2011) conclusion that individual personality heavily

influenced the perceptions and outcomes of all bullying situations, but at best all

antecedents overlapped (Baillien et al., 2011; Samnani & Singh, 2012; Zapf et al., 2011). This line of reasoning was consistent with the earlier proposition that the literature represented workplace bullying as interpreted contextually and reasoned through a perpetrator-victim dyad (see Einarsen et al., 2011).

The contextual interpretation did not negate commonalities or overlaps within the body of literature albeit implied between social theory and the conceptual realities of bullying. However, this situation was primarily evident at the individual antecedent level where the concept of agent and agency moderated the present literature's myopic predisposition to label perpetrator and victim with a character flaw and personality disorder or some other form of anti-social pathology. By moderating, the more important issue was to move away from a specific focus on specific flaws, for example, antecedents either agent brought to this dyad and focused instead on the agency of these agents. Within social theory, social agents were going to use whatever means or tools at hand to spur agency in any sociation, for example, social exchange. The workplace bullying literature represented a deficit from a myopic view of agent and agency by labeling the perpetrator or victim with certain personality deficits that led to bullying. The way forward was through a social exchange construct (Parzefall & Salin, 2010).

The current research was moving in this direction by looking at the social process as opposed to the social processor (Hauge et al., 2011; Neuman & Keashly, 2010; Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2008; Zapf et al., 2011). For example, Neuman and Keashly (2011) with their Means, Motive, and Opportunity (MMO) framework and Zapf et al. (2011) premised that a perpetrator's actions resulted from social exchange demonstrated a break in ranks from current literature focused on dyads. On the other

hand, it was important not to negate the aspect that other factors impacted individual actions to play an antecedent role. There was also research supporting correlations between bullying, personality flaws and environmental factors (Baillien et al., 2011; Samnani & Singh, 2012) and subsequent anti-social, criminal, and violent behavior (Farrington & Ttofi, 2011; Renda, Vassallo, & Edwards, 2011; Sperry, 2009).

At the individual level, the literature agreed on several antecedents associated as primal individual antecedents to bullying behavior. These antecedents were namely environmental stressors such as poor working conditions (Skogstad et al., 2011), job security and job satisfaction (Parzefall & Salin, 2010), general anxieties (Baillien et al., 2011)4), low self-esteem (Samnani & Singh, 2012), extrovert and introvert personality (Samnani & Singh, 2012), and neuroticisms and anti-social attributes (Aquino & Thau, 2009). The individual's emotional and mental nature could also predict a target's vulnerability to workplace bullying as well as possible reactions, but these did not predict the individual outcomes (Glasø, Vie, Holmdal, & Einarsen et al., 2011).

It is important to link this latter connection between the contextual nature (individual antecedents) and conceptual outcome (MMO) to research that demonstrated a social exchange framework for all these individual antecedents. The relationship between status and any power associated with their status were common links (Hauge et al., 2009). This relationship between power and status gave a dimensional social effect and attributed to incidences of bullying (Hauge et al., 2009; Olweus, 2013). These two variables alone accounted for the majority of bullying incidents in both the volume (in terms of impact) and in the frequency (count) (Caravita, Di Blasio, & Salmivalli, 2009; Demakakos, Nazroo, Breeze, & Marmot, 2008; Hodson et al., 2006; Olthof, Goossens,

Vermande, Aleva, & van der Meulen, 2011; Roscigno et al., 2009). The literature did

agree that anyone could impose power and status in a bullying manner. However, there

were struggles to identify how informal social agents used these variables whether by

formal, informal or by deception and that formal assignment of power and status always

leave an open path to bullying (Hutchinson et al., 2010).

Organizational Antecedents

Organizations possessed a unique capacity to create hierarchical or imbalanced

power structures by their inherent or appointed authority (Kotter, 2010). Power

imbalance was one of the defining characteristics of workplace bullying and nowhere else

was this characteristic observable than in the work environment (Einarsen et al., 2011).

Over the last two decades, a significant number of European and North American studies

and research placed the source for workplace bullying at the organizational level (Beale

& Hoel, 2010; Samnani & Singh, 2012). A standout survey of over a million employees

from more than 70 organizations recognized 80 percent of employees reported a pattern

of organizational complicity associated with negative behavior (Beale & Hoel, 2010).

According to Beale & Hoel (2010), employee experiences and perceptions of

organizational contributions to a negative workplace recalled 75 percent of workers

surveyed point to abusive managers as the source of the negative behavior.

Organizational climate and culture played a large and potentially inhibitive role in

workplace bullying through the mediation of hostile and negative individual or

organizational behavior (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009; Preis, 2010). Unethical workplace

climates caused most psychological injury and contributed more to incidents of

workplace bullying through the violation of group norms and values than one-on-one unethical behavior (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009, p. 276; Magerøy et al., 2009)

Deviant or unethical behavior sanctioned by the organization in the form of organizational norms can serve to create or contribute to increased individual level antecedents (Bryne, 2010; Bulutlar et al., 2009). Organizational climates that supported poor or weak leadership styles are themselves associated with increased incidents of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011; Bulutlar and Oz, 2009; Mageroy, 2009). However, Bulutlar and Oz (2009) found that organizational climates characterized as caring reported higher associations with workplace bullying positively predicting physical assaults (p. 289).

There are competing models albeit somewhat complimentary models as to how workplace bullying related to the organization (Owoyemi, 2011). On one side, are Zapf and Einarsen et al. (2011), and Neumann and Baron (2011) who held that individual and or personality antecedents played a major role imparting the bully spin to the organizational body. On the other side are those such as Salin (2003) and Salin and Hoel (2011), Cohen (2011) and Cohen (2010) who held it as a psychosocial phenomenon arising out of dysfunctional organizational factors poisoning the organizational climate and breaking faith with the psychological contract.

Salin (2003) modeled organizational antecedents as falling within three major categories: (a) enabling factors (e.g., power imbalance) which increase the likelihood of bullying; (b) motivating factors (e.g., social rewards) that give the perpetrator reason to bully; and (c) triggering factors (e.g., organizational change) which can catalyze bullying. Salin and Hoel (2011) revised the Salin (2003) model in a separate study identifying five

categories of antecedents: (a) work organization and job design (e.g., job conflict); (b) organizational culture and climate (e.g., shared corporate scripts); (c) leadership (e.g., unethical leadership); (d) reward systems and competition (e.g., competition for salary); and (e) organizational change (e.g., downsizing). This latter study was evolution and acknowledgment that organizational level antecedents especially the added dimension of reward and competition represented a dependency clause more in line with a systems framework, for example, the social exchange framework as a gateway to intervention. There was little substantive difference between Salin (2003) and the Salin and Hoel (2011) models. The major caveat to Salin (2003) earlier work was a shift from these factors to a revised model that now saw gender bias, for example, a socio-cultural antecedent, as significant (see Salin and Hoel, 2013).

Another model for organizational antecedents fell within the range of situational factors. These factors comprised the formal and informal moral and ethical commitment of employees and employers to one another in the organization also known as the psychological contract (Galanaki and Papalexandris, 2013b; Cohen, 2011; Cohen, 2010) or affective organizational commitment (AOC) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Enforcement of these psychological contracts correlated to a variety of measures of affective organizational commitment (AOC) (Morrow, 2010). These measures of AOC could be psychological, social, and organizational (Briscoe and Finkelstein, 2009). Morrow (2010) documented these established relationships between positive organizational outcomes and AOC in a review of 58 AOC longitudinal studies. From the review, Morrow (2010) listed five categories of organizational antecedents related to positive AOC: (a) socialization, (b) organizational changes, (c) human resource practices, (d) interpersonal relations, (e)

employee/organizational relations, and (f) other (p.21). A separate study (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013) corroborated Morrow (2010) by showing organizational initiatives could ameliorate bullying but add contextual, organizational behavioral measures as antecedents such as lack of leadership to AOC (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013). Cooper-Thomas et al. (2013) and Cohen (2010) extended the research to show that personal values and implied organizational behavior correlated to the psychological contract.

These contextual factors demonstrated that positive or proactive organizational commitment in the form of antecedent behavior positively buffered against bullying (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013). All contracts though are two sides of the same coin. On one side, there was contract compliance and on the other was a breach of contract. In the case of a breach, this was wholly detrimental to organizational dyads and triads (Nadin and Williams, 2012). In Nadin and Williams (2012) study breaches were damaging to trust relationships prompting a shift from informal models of leadership to more formalized models. Nadin and Williams (2012, p. 120) suggested this shift was the result of a breach of trust leading to feelings of anger and betrayal. This finding of an attribution role was consistent with Samnani, Singh, and Ezzedeen (2013) who proposed an integrated attributional model that placed the role of attribution in line with a meaningful impact on outcomes, that is, leadership. From a theoretical perspective, this latter psychological contract model nested with SE theory where the role of agent and agency was to obtain a reward in the form of salary increase, continued tenure, or bonuses.

Social Antecedents

In the social exchange model antecedents were artifacts from the exchange process occurring when variant individuals and groups reconciled their shared values in a unified way, for example, norms, across the social space (Homans and Merton, 1974; Lewin, 1997). As the process progressed, it created new behaviors or actions that became an exchange medium for future exchanges, for example, antecedents that became inputs or entropy for future group actions, such as behavior. Social antecedents did not govern behavior but rather created a group response or unity of value that did govern future actions. It was the level of governance and the scale of enforcement that formed the major difference between social and other antecedents.

Another model saw social antecedents for workplace bullying arise from social factors that condoned or reinforced endemic forms of aggression within the social context, for example, an interactionist approach (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010; Neuman et al., 2011). The interactionist model saw social antecedents originating within the domain and function of the human communication of ideas and objects (quantity and quality factor). As opposed to the SE theory where the reward was both quality and quantity, social interactionist saw identity formed by culture as the nature of quality and quantity. In other words, one acted because of a situational perception targeting or reinforcing their cultural position or identity. In the case of workplace bullying a situational perception usually negative drove a situational reaction.

Within the social interactionist model, there were more specific aggression models such as the General Affective Aggression Model (GAAM) popularized by Bushman & Anderson (2002). This seminal study of violent video games held individuals

acted out socially (aggression) in reaction to internal or external negative stimuli (Neuman et al., 2011). There was some vacillation evident between these two concepts of SE and GAAM. The vacillation could seem a contrary position to the social exchange model where The Golden Rule exemplified this framework. Some studies considered social antecedents to originate when antecedents at the social level are present, and this is often the first modality toward violence (Rhodes et al., 2010). Social antecedents arose from the behaviors and norms that preexisted in the workgroup or small team environment (Mathisen et al., 2012).

Social antecedents were contextual (Giddens, 1991; Keashly & Neuman, 2010; Mathisen et al., 2012). The presence of social antecedents was indicative of a much larger problem; it may show institutionalization of bullying has already occurred (Rhodes et al., 2010). Social antecedents included incivility and aggression, sexual harassment, race, gender, and ethnic discrimination, injustice, intolerance, and revenge. In one study, universal norms or universal codes of conduct found in religion and professional associations effectively mediated workplace bullying to negligible outcomes (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009). A differentiating feature of the social antecedent aggression was the influence societal norms impose to regulate this behavior—society showed a stronger intolerance for aggression against the weak than for example, humiliation (Neuman et al., 2011). On the other hand, social antecedents leading to workplace bullying were a social regulating act to the right a social violation (Baillien et al., 2009). Honor killing, for example, was an abhorrent antisocial behavior to the West, but in Pashtun, culture *Pashtunwali* permits it as an antecedent to reconcile and resolve injustice; it was a social regulator (Dolan, 2010; Ginsburg, 2011; Roe, 2011; Tarzi & Lamb, 2011).

Covert racism and sexual harassment are strong correlates of workplace bullying (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Rospenda, Richman, & Shannon, 2009). A large U.S. representative sample found that over half of the U.S. workforce experiences harassment and discrimination at work (Rospenda et al., 2009). Other studies linked poor social relationships, lack of social support with a negative work-related stressor, and have established strong links to other physical and mental health disorders (Rydstedt, Head, Stansfeld, & Woodley-Jones, 2012). Recent studies showed that workplace bullying correlated to gender rooted more in the social contract than in the organizational structure or personality makeup (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013; Salin & Hoel, 2013). Gender was a significant factor when reporting, investigating, and interpreting workplace bullying perpetrator to target actions (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013; Salin & Hoel, 2013).

Socialization of Dyads and Triads

Interpersonal relationships at both the one-to-one and the workgroup levels affected the outcomes of the workplace environment (Stoetzer et al., 2009). Problematic outcomes in job efficiency, health, job satisfaction, and work stressors was first ontological—causal (Einarsen et al., 2011; Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). The conceptual research models suggested that it was within the organizational dyad where the most critical responses and patterns will occur. Second, there was a need to identify the organizational "inhibitor" (Einarsen et al., 2011, p. 30) within the organizational dyad creating, exacerbating, or limiting bullying behavior (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). The socio-psychological factor of conformity to a group suggested Einarsen et al. (2011) were correct to suggest group formation was a means to conceptualize meaning and ensure survival (Perkins, Craig, & Perkins, 2011). It is at this same organizational dyadic level

where a social agent, for example, an informal leader may model these inhibiting

mechanisms and processes of workplace bullying between the victim, perpetrator, the

peer/group or other bystanders and actors exposed to workplace bullying (Einarsen et al.,

2011, pp. 30-31; Parzefall et al., 2010; Stoetzer et al., 2009). Beale et al. (2010) and

Stoetzer et al. (2009) also found a similar linkage between organizational contexts and

organizational scripts, but insufficient research to claim causality.

There was a literature gap for a conceptual framework to describe how the

informal leaders may mediate (agent or agency) between workplace bullying and the

organization (WBI, 2011; Parzefall et al., 2010; Saams, 2010). This gap was important to

the study because the informal leader was also a recognized intervention to deliver the net

benefits and produce the development of significant proactive approaches. In some cases,

the intervention was in net organizational losses such as loss of productivity,

absenteeism, and theft and cases of demands for justice such as work stoppages, strikes,

and counterproductive work behavior (Beale et al., 2010; Kelloway et al., 2010). One of

the challenges for the development of interventions at the organizational level was

breaking through the organization's hold on the scale and scope of the organization

(Namie, 2009). For interventions to be effective with the dyad and triad, the focus on

culture and environment rested with leadership (Namie, 2009). It is best to view Einarsen

et al. (2011) prohibitive inhibitor from an exchange perspective—something in the

system was a causal agent creating an exchange. Second, structural or cultural quality

mediated change that produced behavior in organizations (Burke, 2011; Schein, 2010;

Senge, 2006).

Workers can act as accomplices with the bully against the target, but often the agent or agency for change to stop the bullying was not present or at a minimum not active (Namie et al., 2010; Bulutlar and Oz, 2009). One of the qualities within the organizational dyad that were both commons across the literature as an organizational inhibitor was the relationship between an ethical organizational climate and the ethical outcomes it elicits from its members (Bulutlar and Oz, 2009; Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2009). This inhibitor can act a safety net or prescription by creating norms of a safety-oriented climate where a violation of the norm is an obvious threat to all management as well as the line (Bulutar et al., 2009).

Bullies often acted alone, but their actions often occurred within a domain of a collective organizational nature, for example, they do so with a range of perceived support from other bullies or the organization (Namie et al., 2010; Lewin, 1997). Either study showed that organizational response by complicity or policy could have a mediating effect on workplace bullying and the organizational climate (Namie et al., 2010; Notelaers et al., 2010). Role clarification was a mediator during exchanges within the dyad and triad (Notelaers et al., 2010) as is an ethical rules-based organizational climate (Bulutlar et al., 2009).

Today, workplace bullying is a network of actors and agency both active and passive ever more effective in an era of social networking and social engineering. Organizations that undergo turbulence, leadership changes and lack of strong leadership, and financial difficulties or have toxic or divisive leadership are often another progenitor of workplace bullying (Lester, 2009). A lack of leadership or constant organizational change can create climates of uncertainty, factionalism, and fear leading to power

vacuums easily filled by both formal and informal leaders (Lester, 2009). Society often

disregards victims because of their emotional reaction and responses to bullying (Namie

et al., 2010).

Organizational commitment was the foundational strength of the small group and

team. However, in the highly competitive environments misinterpretation of

organizational commitment as egotism and selfish ambition can occur (Bulutlar and Oz,

2009). Organizations build strong groups and teams when supervisory support is well

documented (Leung et al., 2011). This support positively activated team member

motivation and skill mastery (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009). Also, successful

organizations that employed some form of emotional regulation have shown positive

mediation for workplace bullying, but when self-ambitious behavior from outside the

dyad or triad directed toward an employee has factored the outcome on the employee is

always negative (Niven et al., 2012).

Social Status

Social status was the one measure by which a society can group (Lewin, 1997;

Simmel & Wolff, 1950). The role of social status was critical to the establishment and

use of scripts within the group or small unit context. Once established this engendered

social familiarity. In this regard, strangers do not enjoy status or benefit from scripts

(Avery et al., 2009). Social status was the most important of elements constituting a

person's sense of well-being or worth (Lewin, 1997). The variable of social status or

simply status within the bullying context played a critical role in the bullying process

(Berger & Rodkin, 2009; Caravita et al., 2009; Cerezo & Ato, 2010; Hauge et al., 2010;

Roscigno et al., 2009; Salmivalli, 2010). It also affected the processes of collective action

by cohorts in response to a social injustice (Rivers, Poteat, Noret, & Ashurst, 2009; Roscigno et al., 2009).

This role of status within the dyad and triad acted as the social underpinning of workplace bullying, and it was an essential variable to decoding the elements of workplace bullying. Berger et al. (2009) linked the risks to bullying with the quality of interpersonal relationships among peers finding that those whose social status was lower tended to suffer greater internal and external victimization. While Berger et al. (2009) primarily studied gender roles in peer victimization, a unique finding was the relationship between of self-reporting, social status, and victimization. Self-reporting and the application of a victimization label critically and intrinsically linked social status. Those with a lower social status, for example, having fewer friends, correlated negatively with stronger effects of victimization (Berger & Rodkin, 2009). Berger et al. (2009) findings suggested serious flaws may exist in self-reporting as also suggested in other research (Fevre et al., 2010; Zapf et al., 2011) and are in direct contradiction to the validity and strong emphasis of self-reporting as suggested by Namie & Namie (2009).

Status also shaped the behavioral and organizational scripts actors will use in social reconciliation (Avery et al., 2009; Lewin, 1997). Reconciliation of members to each other in the form of status or worth were moot in the dyadic mode, for example, each was simply trying to survive and did the necessary minimum to preserve their existence regardless of others (Lewin, 1997; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). However, in the triadic mode or group, the reconciliation of members became a necessity for the group's survival and this reconciliation process required status as its catalyst (Lewin, 1997).

Power

Bullies typically used their formal power to leverage the power imbalance. They accomplished this by coercing and intimidating their subordinates or peers, for example, giving character, emotional, or physical labels to individuals to intimidate them from acting aggressive (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Monks et al., 2009; Namie & Namie, 2009). In some cases, bullies used a form of social collectivism to remove individual advocacy (Lester, 2009). For example, there were instances of correlations of forced power imbalance between formal power, bullying, gender, and race vis-à-vis sexism and racism among faculty in a community college as one way to enforce social collectivism (Lester, 2009, p. 451).

Power imbalances were a component of workplace bullying, but some suggested it is not an antecedent (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Lester, 2009, p. 458; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). However, there must be a power differential between the actors to classify the actions as workplace bullying (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Saam, 2010). Findings in the U.S. workplace showed nearly three-quarter (72%) of all perpetrators were supervisory and more than half (55%) of the targeted individuals were subordinate (Namie & Namie, 2009; WBI, 2010).

Not all power imbalances were negative. In some cases, imbalances in power were the progenitor for organizational change, for example, counterproductive work behavior, strikes, and work stoppages (Beale & Hoel, 2010; Kelloway et al., 2010). To the contrary, in a study using the Victimization and Bullying Inventory (VBI), an instrument, which can examine both behaviors and contexts, showed power imbalance or

inequity as uncorrelated to workplace bullying, but that bullying occurred more often between power equals (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013).

<div align="center">**Conflict**</div>

Workplace bullying was not identified as a conflict if there was equality among the actors (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013; Saam, 2010) and different from simple conflict based on duration and frequency (Johnson, 2009). Conflict was a central theme in workplace bullying situations, but often in ways that were more than just those captured in the outbursts of the bully toward their victim (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010; Notelaers et al., 2010; Stoetzer, Ahlberg, Bergman, Hallsten, & Lundberg, 2009).

On the one hand, workplace bullying was an output form of rising levels of conflict (Einarsen et al., 2011; Saam, 2010). On the other hand, the conflict was also a primary means by which groups achieved an acceptable level of socialization (Heider, 1958, p. 211) and formed the elements of social interactions (Lewin, 1997). It was a means by which society measured both love and hatred (Simmel, 1969; Simmel, 2011) as well as our frequency to interact (Heider, 1958; Lewin, 1997).

This attempt to discuss the literature's reflection on relationships between conflict and workplace bullying did not synthesize or weave conflict theory represented by Durkheim (1933), Weber (Amable, 2011) and Dahrendorf (1959) into the phenomena. Such an undertaking was outside the scope of this research. The primary purpose was to synthesize the role between conflict and the group. On the one side, the workplace bullying researchers perpetuated a traditional schismatic view of order and conflict. On the other side are the researcher's views of conflict as the result of everyday life in that the dynamics that brought groups together were also the same dynamics that set actions

to tear it apart (Giddens, 1984). The latter was an important distinction and departure from the traditional views of workplace bullying as evidenced in its generic definition popularized by Einarsen et al. (2011). In this defacto-standardized definition were the elements of the order versus conflict schism along with most literature.

Conflict forms one of the most basic means to modify dyadic and group interests (Simmel, 1969); for every I, there is me (Mead, 1963). Indeed, from Simmel and Mead perspective there existed an enmeshed and dynamic if not essential living dualism between harmony and disharmony that gave the empirical shape to society and its social structures; conflict was not necessarily wholly negative or to be avoided. Early theorists held conflict as essential to the social fabric giving it form and features. Moving forward to Lewin (1997) case study of conflict in the industry a similar perspective existed where Lewin presented that the optimum social structure within the organization remained dependent upon a dynamic of conflict; conflict imparts dimension to social relationships. In the case of Homan's and Merton (1974), he regarded conflict more as an output of the social exchange dynamic; it was necessary to the establishment of conformity or social norming. Giddens (1984) proposed recognition of a different nature for conflict. Giddens suggested that conflict not follow a determinant functionalism as outlined by Durkheim and others and represented necessarily in the current workplace bullying scholarly body where social change can only follow one path toward harmony as a structural necessity. Instead, conflict underlined a more constant stream of contradictions of interests between individuals or groups. Giddens like Simmel and Lewin found that conflict was the result of the general social enterprise; it was structural and occurred because the individual or

group attempts to change. This ongoing structural process simply created new fault lines that required new mitigations (Giddens, 1984).

Between the two divergent bodies of literature the current researchers adjudicating conflict reported it to be potentially prescriptive for mediating workplace bullying. This was true especially where unresolved conflict was shown to be an antecedent wherein the presence of organizational power conflict took an attributive role (Notelaers et al., 2010; Stoetzer, Ahlberg, Bergman, Hallsten, Lundberg, 2009). Workplace bullying typically occurred in a negative manner and the empirical analysis typically assigned the parties into one of the two dualisms, perpetrator or victim (order/conflict). The dualism presented a serious gap in the investigation of the phenomenon because there was a body of social theory and research that did not see a dualism. This other body of research culminated in Giddens (1984) structuration theory. Giddens held no one party was strictly guilty, and no one party was strictly innocent, for example, we simply maintained a dynamic position, for example, a perspective, to affect and influence change rather than sit on a strict foundation or fixed social location from which to make change. The perspective was an important distinction to make about sociation in groups between structuration and social dualism; the current workplace bullying researchers created or exacerbated this strict dualism rather than recognize it as structural. The strict dualism led to a research proposition, which sought to examine the phenomenon and informal leader by exploring where these social fault lines were regarding behaviors.

Communication

Communication was essential to forming human behavior, and without it, behavior cannot be understood (Blumer, 2009; Simmel & Wolff, 1950; Worth & Gross, 2009). Likewise, in the group or organization communication was essential to the development, scale, and impact of group behavior (Kleinnijenhuis, van den Hooff, Utz, Vermeulen, & Huysman, 2011; Matin, Jandaghi, Karimi, & Hamidizadeh, 2010). In the bullying literature, there was general agreement with the Simmel and Wolff (1950) prima facie proposition that human communication was essential for understanding or perception of our environment, our relationships, and ourselves about others. We cannot generate shared group meaning without shared group communication. We construct communication to act as a social bridge across the natural social space existing between dyadic and triadic actors giving both meaning and expression (Barnlund, 2009; Blumer, 2009; Heider, 1958; Lewin, 1997; Simmel & Wolff, 1950).

The concept of communication with the workplace bullying was connected in part because of the established relationships between healthy communication skills and social interaction at both the individual and organizational levels and the outcomes between these variables (Matin et al., 2010). Communication as a mediator of conflict between actors was one of the most recognized and studied means to reconcile parties in conflict (Cheng & Seeger, 2012).

We can neither meditate nor convey the agency of social exchange without the medium of communication (Lupyan, 2009; Weaver, 2009). It is the studied relationship of conflict mediation together with the nature of conflict as as embraced through Einarsen et al. (2011) default definition there existed both a synthesis and nexus between human

social exchanges of information coded verbally or non-verbally and behavioral and

organizational scripts (Klöckner & Matthies, 2012). Conversely, a review of the

workplace bullying literature found the relationship between communication and

workplace bullying as one of the least studied.

The Impacts—Psychosocial and Physiological Scripts

A script is a predetermined stereotyped sequence of actions that defined a well-

known situation and provided meaning to recurring situations; scripts differ from habits,

as they are deliberate and not necessarily autonomous (Schank & Abelson, 2013). They

can be both verbal and non-verbal (Tracy & Rivera, 2010) and in the workplace setting,

these were social, and behavioral blueprint individuals used to contextualize sociation at

work (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013). In the social setting, scripts dictated or determined an

expected interpersonal action (Avery et al., 2009). A script allowed for the introduction

of new information for objects while maintaining consistency with the previous objects

(Drori et al., 2009; Schank & Abelson, 2013). Social, organizational, and behavioral

scripts reduced uncertainty in dyadic and triadic relationships acting as both filter and

interpreter for actions between actors (Everly, Shih, & Ho, 2012; Saleem et al., 2012;

Tracy & Rivera, 2010). Avery et al. (2009) showed scripting had a positive impact on

both dyadic and triadic relationships and contributed to overall organizational health.

One of the challenges to deciphering scripts within the workplace was separating

negative behavior that fell within a narrow definitional band from other behavior simply

perceived as bullying (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010, p. 73). Second, scripts became

confused with norms and values. It was neither. Norms were a collective element

generated by the shared prescriptive scripts of the group to mediate prohibited behavior

while values drove the desire of individual want (Morris, 1956). Not all scripts should be "institutionalized" as bullying, but all scripts ran the risk (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). However, all scripts once established shaped the environment and the future behavior of those who held responsible roles (Avery et al., 2009). The downside was that scripts could also become the foundation for unethical acts (Avery et al., 2009).

Behavioral, organizational, and psychosocial or sociocultural scripts were the artifacts of sociation (Coleman, 1990; Heider, 1958; Lewin, 1997; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). Within the framework of scripts, the situation at hand contextualized scripts to create both identity and legitimacy within the organization (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013; Drori et al., 2009). In some cases, social actors borrowed institutionalized scripts to make sense and materially adjust to unfamiliar contexts (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013). This epistemic (Boxenbaum & Rouleau, 2011, p. 273) process according to Drori et al. (2009) offered an individual or individuals a locus of control to "persuade" (p. 719) or move other social actors to a preferred or predetermined outcome. More significantly, however, are Drori et al. (2009) findings that scripts played a crucial role mediating organizational risk by creating a unique institutional language. The language is as Giddens (1984) proposed exactly in structuration where the agent was the cause of one's agency (Bryant & Jary, 1991) and as Amit and Bar-Lev (2013) concluded that workplace scripts drove motivation to lead. Therefore, scripts set conditions for the creation of metaphoric templates that empowered the framework of the formal communication between social actors or "tacit scripts" (Tracy & Rivera, 2010, p. 6). This served more like an organizational lingua franca, for example, a climate (Boxenbaum & Rouleau, 2011; Tracy & Rivera, 2010).

Similar and Dissimilar Behaviors of Workplace Bullying

Interpersonal workplace bullying (Lester, 2009; Loh, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2010) was more crippling and devastating than the effects of other workplace stressors (Hauge et al., 2011). Interpersonal workplace bullying also created far greater damage as opposed to other distinctive forms of workplace aggression such as incivility, sexual harassment, psychological aggression, and violence (Lester, 2009; Nielsen et al., 2009) even though are antisocial behavior. A distinguishing feature of workplace incivility from bullying was the ambiguity of intent and the social undermining by the perpetrator (Escartín et al., 2011). Though workplace bullying terms and outcomes were similar, the perspectives varied between the European and the American concepts (Saam, 2010). There was also variance between lines of research where some saw it as an escalation of conflict (Einarsen et al., 2011), but other researchers viewed it as an affair of positional static conflict, for example, supervisor to subordinate (Saam, 2010). There is also dissimilarity when gender is a factor.

Gender matters and was a significant antecedent in workplace bullying namely because females were considered less assertive or aggressive (Lester, 2009; Monks et al., 2009; Zapf et al., 2011). However, the nature or quality of workplace bullies varied by gender with a female on female bullying producing more harmful attacks (Monks et al., 2009). Researchers reported that women were less likely to bully men whereas men were almost exclusively bullied women (Namie et al., 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). Zapf et al. (2011) suggested that these roles existed because of power roles within an organization (p. 81). Similarly, some researchers reported both male and female bullies tended to possess the intent to harm and intimidate over repeated and long periods (Monks et al.,

2009). Men avoided confrontations of workplace bullying behavior as an intervention while women wanted to mend fences (Saam, 2010).

All bullying was physical, verbal, or emotional in action and or a response, and was either direct or indirect (Lester, 2009; Monks et al., 2009). However, to qualify as bullying, it had to show a repetitive pattern of these latter hostile actions and abuse (Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009; Namie et al., 2011). Workplace bullying was harassment, abusive supervision, and emotional abuse (Monks et al., 2009; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). Again, there were disagreements among the researchers about which behaviors were genuinely workplace bullying (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010; Parzefall & Salin, 2010; Zapf et al., 2011).

Behaviors associated with misuse of positional power were common, but there were subtle differences in the misuse between mobbing and workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). Likewise, scripts at the organizational level such as job ambiguity or uncertainty tended to be attributable to workplace bullying when the conflict was introduced (Notelaers et al., 2010) leaving the former as simple normal human conflict. There were qualitative differences in the associated behavior because of the self-reporting nature in the bulk of the research. Similarity and dissimilarity were often perceptual where one may have termed himself or herself a victim of workplace bullying another saw it as office politics (Beale & Hoel, 2010). However, the literature described workplace bullying differed from basic conflict when in the presence of time, persistence (Johnson, 2009) and multiple escalated negative behaviors (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). It also differed from workplace ostracism which though related was a passive form of mistreatment (Leung et al., 2011). Whereas

workplace bullying behaviors were typically active in the form of verbal and physical abuse or the misuses of power used to amplify this abuse.

A Summary of the Literature

Chapter 2 discussed the literature and scholarship to support the proposition that the informal leader would mediate workplace bullying through CLT entanglement. There was also discussion about the literature and research that supported the conceptualization of this leadership agent by identifying gaps in the literature where further research would add greater agency to the informal leader. In Chapter 2, the leadership and social literature provided an excellent foundation for this qualitative single case study and supported the central research question that focused on how informal leaders entangle. However, there were gaps in the literature to create and identify data points within entanglement as to 'why' and 'where' the informal leader acted, for example, was it through a set of scripts. This gap contributed to the overall problem understanding ineffective or inefficient entanglement that was inhibiting or prohibiting innovative change creating disastrous human and organizational consequences for the U.S. Army. The purpose of the literature review was to find holistically both 'how' the informal leader could conduct their actions to enable or re-enable entanglement given the relationship to current bullying constructs. This gap was a major issue and the point of departure for this literature review and understanding how these sociation scripts impeded or interrupted leadership entanglement because of workplace bullying. The literature had room for the informal leader's bureaucratic formality and would be free to move as an agent of formal leadership imposing and reconciling the intent of formal leaders and the demand elements of change even when the formal leader as toxic or a

bully. This review explored the informal leader's ability to interrelate among the asymmetric CAS elements or networks. In this way, the informal leader was as an agent who created balance (ethical outcomes) or imbalance (unethical outcomes) and whose quality was currently unknown.

Chapter 3 offered a more detailed description of the methodology and design for the collection, analysis, and synthesis of data and information. Chapter 3, discussed the procedures, research design, and rationale, and role as a researcher. Also, the methodology that included participant selection logic, instrumentation, data collection and analysis plans, and issues in trustworthiness served this study's aims to demonstrate the informal leader had a critical role to mediate or ameliorate workplace bullying.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The research purpose of this qualitative single case study design with embedded sub-units explored the behavioral, social, and organizational scripts that informal leaders used to entangle the administrative and adaptive leadership functions while mediating or ameliorating antecedents that led to workplace bullying in a U.S. Army IBCT squad or section. The premise of this research was these scripts resided within the CLT interactive dynamic process of entanglement enabled or managed by the informal leader (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). The goal was to investigate how informal leaders used and modified these individual behavioral, social, and organizational scripts within the IBCT. The objective was to explore how the informal leader mitigated the antecedent stressors that lead to workplace bullying. The end state was the identification of actions or scripts giving meaning to the social surroundings, addressing conflict, contributing to group balance, and rehabituating the group during dysfunction.

An important characteristic of this qualitative study was the capacity to observe and report on a phenomenon in a constant state of social change and team evolution within its natural setting (Yin, 2014). As noted earlier, workplace bullying was contextual and subjective; it was deeply personal; it was continuously evolving as social, cultural and individual interpretations expanded (Einarsen et al., 2011; Namie & Namie, 2009). A second major rationale for using the qualitative study was the primary or emic role of the researcher as the primary instrument for data gathering and the subjective role to evaluate and interpret U.S. Army bounded group and individual contexts that occurred in these small unit teams. The researcher's subjective role measured and filtered the multiple

meanings of this rich and deep data set. A qualitative study approach provided the means to integrate a multilevel and multidimensional patchwork of episodes and perceptions into a single body of knowledge.

This chapter presented a set of procedures in the following sections that served the study's aims to demonstrate the informal leader's critical role in the adaptive change function. The sections are research design and rationale, emic role as a researcher, participant selection logic, instrumentation, data collection and analysis plans, and issues in trustworthiness that included credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. A thorough Internal Review Board (IRB) process ensured ethical issues were resolved through approved procedures necessary to gain access to and protect the proposed cases, their confidentiality, and the collected data. All participation was through informed consent and was voluntary, and all material collected was considered personally confidential information.

Research and Design Rationale

The chosen research rationale for this study was a qualitative single case study design with embedded sub-units consisting of in-depth analysis of a U.S. Army IBCT bounded group. The study designed facilitated the examination of informal leaders' interactions within this IBCT. This examination was all set in a social context using a social constructivist paradigm and the Kingdon (2014) model for policy agenda setting to guide the methodological design. According to Onuf (2013), constructivism is an appropriate paradigm underpinning a study that examined realities, meanings, and constructs of the group. The research represented an exploration of social situations and contexts through the paradigm of a social constructivist (Burger & Luckman, 1966).

Likewise, Kingdon (2014) viewed the agenda-setting model as an appropriate research framework to decipher and build consensus from collected data.

A critical outcome of this study was a deeper understanding of the context of complexity leadership dynamics of IBCT leaders and members in their natural military group occupational settings. Since an IBCT was a primary U.S. Army combat capability, its organizational and social structure contained an excellent representation of the formal and informal leadership structures modeled in U.S. Army leadership doctrine, CLT, and social exchange. Studying the informal leader in their IBCT occupational social context represented a prime opportunity to identify informal leader complexity leadership dynamical scripts and transfer those results to other IBCT settings.

A qualitative study in a constructivist and agenda-setting tradition offered a unique means to illuminate an understanding of a "real world" social and leadership problem that threatened the team's cohesion and safety and to lead to social change. In the same vein, this qualitative rationale and design specifically suited the goal of understanding the holistic context and nature of workplace bullying within a complex adaptive system in which the sum of the parts to achieve change were greater than to the whole (Yin, 2014). The workplace bullying literature created a sanctioned paradox through the victim-perpetrator paradigm (see Einarsen et al., 2011), and the CLT literature suggested unknown organizational paradigms at work (see Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009); these were limitations to understanding and created ambiguities that justified a qualitative inquiry into this social setting.

The two major challenges in this qualitative research were choosing a design and logic that best represented a sample of the target population and the synthesis that

aggregated the observed evidence into an informed conclusion (Hoon, 2013; Yin, 2014). To meet these challenges, a methodology that addressed them with an increased sample size and thereby spoke to the need for maximum variation helped to satisfy concerns by gaining access to a representative sample of the cases and helped ensure that the target population represented an adequate saturation of the data.

Research Questions

To address the explanatory gap, a set of research questions designed to explore the informal leader's agentic function of entanglement. This case study investigated how the informal leader managed or created enabling conditions of entanglement in a manner void of controlling the behavioral events contributing to workplace bullying. The rationale for explanatory knowledge about how the entanglement mediated or ameliorated the effects of workplace bullying drove the problem and purpose statements. This research aim satisfied a primary condition or rationale for a research methodology that sought to know "how" the informal leader could enable or re-enable entanglement (Yin, 2014). The following central research question served as the primary driver for the overall inductive data analysis process:

RQ: How does the informal leader engage the entanglement process to mediate or ameliorate enabling conditions and bonding processes in the U.S. Army squad or section?

The sub-questions guided this qualitative study and these sub-questions served to further explore and assess the informal leader role. The sub-questions asked the following:

SQ1: How does the informal leader create enabling conditions between administrative or adaptive contexts to support entanglement?

SQ2: How does the formal and adaptive leader manipulate the bonding process through social entanglement?

SQ3: How does the informal leader create alternate enabling pockets when regular entanglement is dysfunctional during periods of duress or stressors?

The data analysis plan presented the connection and relationship of each research question to collected data. The goal of this research and design rationale was to observe, capture, and analyze the informal leader's interrelations between complexity dynamics and administrative and adaptive leadership functions to achieve understanding for change (Vallacher & Nowak, 2013). Actions and events directed or driven by the complexity dynamical change process must pass through the informal leader.

The principal objective was to gain new information about the U.S. Army's informal or enabling leadership role of creating new pockets of enabling conditions when toxic leadership or workplace bullying interrupted the fostering of emergence or change and adaptive leadership and its mediating relationship between administrative or formal leadership, emergence, and adaptive leadership.

Role of the Researcher

In this qualitative study, the researcher assumed the role of the primary instrument. Exploration was dependent on human interaction; this is not a flaw, but otherwise, it was a necessary reality (Stake, 2010). In the case study design, the researcher's role was essential because it contributed to the credibility of both the research and researcher (Stake, 2010). An emic role was present in this research on

several levels. As a retired U.S. Army Sergeant Major, unique and formal insider roles were due to intimate knowledge of U.S. Army unit and organizational operations and composition. This emic role afforded the unique position of the practitioner and institutionally learned subject matter expert for the unit and organizational performance especially at the squad, team, and section level. There was also an emic role from implicit knowledge gained as a mentor for soldier leadership, development, and performance. In this leader and mentor role, there existed considerable personal insight and experience with toxic leadership and workplace bullying from the lowest tactical levels up through U.S. Army Corps level as both a victim and a perpetrator.

This emic role also afforded access to a contemporary group not open to study by academic researchers who lacked prior military service. This access provided a deeper exposition of the contextual and phenomenological content as well as a deeper understanding of the participant's tacit knowledge. This understanding added to the wider research field's explicit knowledge (Kennedy-Lewis, 2012). Therefore, the ability to interview military peers about leadership and change provided a rare opportunity to inform the scholarly community about military leadership.

There were some advantages with an emic role. Some have suggested these advantages include the following: (a) a natural understanding of the institution and its members; (b) the ability to build instant rapport that leads to enhanced social responses; and (c) ability to judge and discern the quality of a participant's response (Unluer, 2012). There were also disadvantages such as the following: (a) finding the proper balance between perspectives, (b) the potential access to personally sensitive information not part of the research, and (c) the possible breach in anonymity occurring because of a previous

encounter with individuals (Unluer, 2012). As an emic researcher, there also arose certain

bias stemming from service in leadership and staff positions within military units over a

30-year period that was unavoidable and could have influenced the study. The emic role

presented possible ethical challenges and potential conflicts of interest. The study design

included measures to mitigate researcher bias thereby ensuring validity and

trustworthiness of the data and findings in a latter part of this chapter.

In an etic role, observations and actions were recorded of informal leadership and

descriptions of workplace bullying within the social context an IBCT. This etic role of a

critical researcher ensured a higher order view and bias-free orientation to the

phenomenon that yielded both a descriptive and interpretive balance between intimate

knowledge of the context and the search for new content. The etic or critical researcher

role placed checks and balance on the research by keeping the macro, meso, and micro

perspectives oriented properly (Qu & Dumay, 2011).

Methodology

The primary qualitative study methodology was chosen that met the needs of the

study was the single case study with embedded sub-units. This methodology offered an

advantage over Baxter and Jack (2008) and Stake (2014) definition of the multiple case

study in that the single case study with embedded units was more adept at finding richer

relationships and constructs especially among multiple levels (Baxter & Jack, 2008;

Hoon, 2013; Yin, 2011). The case study design proved appropriate from among several

qualitative methods based on two criteria suggested by both (Stake, 2010) and Yin (2014)

and third criteria suggested by Yin (2014). These criteria call for a type of research that

asserted a) the primary role of researcher as an instrument but lacks control of the events

and b) the search for understanding as opposed to explanation. The third criteria centers on the type of research questions asked in case studies, the "how" and "why" question (Yin, 2014, p. 9). The researcher in this study was simply an unobtrusive observer recording the perceptions and experiences of individual cases. There is also a strong social and U.S. Army leadership need for research seeking to understand the complexities of leadership interactions and interrelationships as opposed to research simply reinforcing or confirming a known problem. Finally, in this single case study with embedded sub-units, the research questions served to explore "why" and "how" informal leaders used their position to mediate or ameliorate enabling conditions in a toxic leadership environment.

To study the enabling leadership function, select embedded sub-units defined and bounded the context in sub-units the U.S. Army recognized for holding the enabling role as most active or intrinsic, a U.S. Army IBCT platoon, staff section, war-fighting function, team, squad, or section function. The purpose for selection of this unit of analysis and boundary was to gain access to a set of relatively unknown scripts through the one type of context recognized as critical to fostering command goals, command climate, U.S. Army ethos, and socializing the latter across organizational boundaries (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). This bounding of the embedded sub-unit below the company level served to set the phenomenon within a realistic context U.S. Army leadership and soldiers can understand, relate, and potentially transfer to other larger organizational contexts.

Sampling Strategy

One of the many challenges in this qualitative research was a sampling strategy that was representative of the whole, but due to time and circumstances allowed only for examination of a small portion of that whole (Yin, 2014). Three primary issues arose for this qualitative research, sampling strategy, size, and saturation (Baker & Edwards, 2012; Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). All three of these were interrelated and interdependent in qualitative research where the choice of a sampling strategy drove and satisfied both size and saturation requirements (Mason, 2010).

A single case study with embedded sub-units design served to give the study a purposeful level of social and leadership heterogeneity that matched a social and leadership heterogeneity found in a U.S. Army organization. This designed served to satisfy any issues of sample strategy and size. Choosing the single case study with embedded sub-units design afforded the study a matching sampling strategy that purposely set out to maximize the richness of data from both the right participants and a valid representative size that contributed competency and transferability to theoretical development. A purposeful sampling strategy served a critical goal by maximizing access to a specified and selected group of well-placed participants within an Army National Guard (ARNG) Infantry Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) who had unique explicit and tacit knowledge of the phenomenon and whose actions typified those in any U.S. Army organization.

The size and number of selected cases from across separate and distinct units within the ARNG IBCT to provide a maximum variation technique were the best

methods to achieve saturation and capture a wide range of perspectives. Mitigations to weakness in purposeful sampling included maximizing diversity over a wide range of extremes in sociation, command climates, complexity leadership function, complex operations, and mission command. Using a maximum variation technique helped mitigate possibilities of bias, gave a good representation of subgroups, and insured the observed processes came from both the full spectrum of multiple small teams and at the same time accounted for the modeling of scripts that occurred within complexity leadership functions.

The use of maximum variation also served to achieve the goal of sampling saturation. Saturation answered the question, was this enough data? Although sampling saturation in qualitative research was a key to research credibility (Mason, 2010), there was disagreement among qualitative researchers as to how and when saturation is achieved (Baker & Edwards, 2012; Marshall et al., 2013). Unfortunately, for qualitative research, there were no standards or well-documented guidelines to inform or enforce sampling saturation (Marshall et al., 2013). There were also qualitative researchers who held that saturation was an inappropriate concept and if it did occur, it is observed when the sample no longer provided new information (Mason, 2010). Nevertheless, credibility relied upon a level of saturation from a sample size sufficient to document holistically the informal leader's enabling functions and actions. This saturation occurred when the prevalence of mediation or amelioration of workplace bullying occurred across at least six of the ten embedded sub-units.

Synthesis Strategy

The challenge for this case study researcher had an analytical plan that wove together often disparate multiple streams of interpreted data from across broad dyadic and triadic group spectrums into a predictive holistic potential (Hoon, 2013; Yin, 2014). A newer and robust analytical method increasingly chosen by some qualitative researchers was meta-synthesis (Aguinis, Dalton, Bosco, Pierce, & Dalton, 2010; Classen, Winter, & Lopez, 2009; Hoon, 2013; Towgood, Meuwese, Gilbert, Turner, & Burgess, 2009; Urquhart, 2011). The primary role of meta-synthesis in this study was to aggregate the findings of single cases into more general constructs (Urquhart, 2011). Although the general definition of meta-synthesis was, "an exploratory, inductive research design to synthesize primary qualitative case studies for the purpose of making contributions beyond those achieved in the original studies (Hoon, 2013, p. 527)", this definition was also extended and implied to use meta-synthesis when "empirical consolidation" or the "consolidation of a body of research" was sought (p. 527). This extension and implied use were supported by other research demonstrating meta-synthesis' broad appeal as a useful and substantive tool for theory building and testing (Aguinis et al., 2010).

Therefore, the use of meta-synthesis was not incompatible or incomparable when used it in a complementary or supplemental role to replicate logic and to find new conclusions through synthesis (Hoon, 2013, p. 527). In the same way, a single case study with embedded sub-units as a methodology extended the understanding from the empirical observations across the individual contexts to the more general context the meta-synthesis model adapted to the individual 33rd IBCT cases. As a result, this yielded new information about the roles of informal leaders as similarly demonstrated in Aguinis

et al. (2010). There was no distinct violation of the meta-synthesis method when adapted to this single case study with embedded sub-units research.

Data Collection

A selected review of workplace bullying, social and leadership theorists, and U.S. Army and leadership literature preceded the collection of data. This review produced additional contribution from Pielstick (2000), and Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) that drove the identification of a set of clustered themes to develop a leadership profile. These six clusters or themes: (a) shared values, (b) communication, (c) guidance, (d) relationships, (e) character, and (f) community formed an initial agentic framework supporting the initial data collection methodology. Multiple sources of evidence, a case study database, a chain of evidence, and care with data from electronic sources facilitated good data collection (Yin, 2014). To obtain a rich data set, soldiers assigned to six of ten squad or sections within multiple company level units of the 33rd IBCT, an Army National Guard (ARNG) organization organized to the Illinois Army National Guard (ILARNG) constituted the minimum data set. Selection criteria for data followed three main criteria: (a) the case data was relevant to the quintain; (b) the case data provided diversity across multiple contexts; (c) the case data provided opportunities to expand information about complexity and contexts for U.S. Army leadership (Stake, 2010; Stake, 2013). Appendix J illustrated the range of cases matching the selection criteria as documented in the organization's formal authorization for assigned positions of leadership and subordination according to the 33rd IBCT Modified Tables of Organization and Equipment (MTOE). The proposed data collection method and steps followed four of six

sources recommend by Yin (2014): documentation, archival records, semi-structured interviews, and direct observations.

Documents

The 33rd IBCT and the ILARNG both published unclassified calendars and used social media such as Facebook to communicate command information and other organizationally relevant information to the members on a regular basis. Select documentation of leader or member diaries, social media, calendars, administrative documents, news clippings, and other relevant mass media material were available at *https://www.facebook.com/33rdIBCT* and https://www.facebook.com/illinoisnationalguard. Participants in the study had access to facsimile copies or access via the Internet during the semi-structured interview for document validation and acknowledgment. References to actual names or PII of interviewed participants within the documentation did not appear in the data.

Archival Data

The 33rd IBCT and the ILARNG maintained published archival records such as unclassified training records, lessons learned, command policies command climate surveys, after action reviews, unit or soldier service records, maps and charts from deployments, and other unclassified public domain statistical data as required by U.S. Army record management protocols. The purpose of archival data was to provide insights into leadership roles and member perceptions of actions taken during operational, training, or contingency events archival data provided essential information. The archival data acted as a corroborating data set during first and second cycle coding.

Interviews

The primary data collection method was semi-structured interviews of individual soldiers collected via an HIPPA compliant an Internet video teleconferencing venue and phone interviews when participants could not use video teleconferencing. Participants participated in their off-duty time, and no interviews occurred using government assets or government time. These interviews specifically focused on individuals in the select cases shown in Appendix J. Initial access and researcher link up to participants initially occurred through email contact generated from a potential roster provided by the 33rd IBCT and through the organization's monthly newsletter. The researcher followed up this initial link up with access to a research website where the participant could find the research documentation, disclosures and other relevant documentation for the study. Follow up individual interviews were set aside via Internet video teleconferencing for select cases when emergent themes suggested a need for clarification or amplification of the data. The interviews were available to those informal leaders who strongly identified or expressed interest in the research because they were victims or observed workplace bullying and wished to provide an expanded storyline, documentation, or field notes. The in-depth qualitative semi-structured interviewing questions and probes are in Appendix E.

Direct Observations

Direct observations of IBCT unit activities revealed insights into the real life of command climate and interrelationships between administrative, enabling, and adaptive leadership functions (Yin, 2014). This type of fieldwork offered direct insight into the institutional social stratification based on the hierarchical positions of the administrative,

enabling, and adaptive leadership. Direct observation offered significant access to data directly related to the execution of policy and command authority as it happened. An important contribution to the study included data collection designed to address this stratification in social systems.

Data Generation Methodology

Case study data can be difficult to analyze due to the unpredictable nature of forthcoming information (Yin, 2014). The methodology for data generation was specifically suited to this type of study and the researcher's preferences and drive to answer the research questions (Maxwell, 2012a). Data collection occurred over a two-month period in the late fall of 2015 and early winter of 2016 using Internet-based technologies (see Appendix F). The study achieved data saturation using Maxwell's (2012a) model and criteria through purposeful selection. First, there was a representation of informal leadership mediating entanglement in at least six cases of the ten cases. Second, there was a full representation of the IBCT when the squad context demonstrated sociation through the recognized CLT process of emergence across at least six cases. Third, data saturation also occurred when the emergent data demonstrated specific examples of workplace bullying or toxic leadership in one of the studied cases. Maxwell's (2012a), fourth criteria of explicit comparison with other cases of workplace bullying outside the 33rd IBCT context, was excluded because of the potential to skew the analysis with evidence unrelated to the local context.

Ethical Issues

Ethical issues have occurred when studies involve human subject. In the instance of case study research, semi-structured and unstructured interviews have exposed the

participant's real-life contexts to the researcher and possibly other participants (Stake, 2013). This exposition was critical to shaping a case study's collection, analysis, and interpretation of collected data (Stake, 2013). Interviewing members of a squad or section in interviews and focus groups did not expose a participant's opinions, experiences, and perceptions of fellow members or organizational leadership to negative assessments. Protection of individual privacy and the prevention of exposure of personal information was essential to the study. Safeguard procedures of data prevented any exposure risks to the following four significant areas: protection from harm, informed consent, privacy rights, and honesty with professional colleagues.

Protection from Harm

As a researcher of human subjects' institutional provisions that permit, collect, and protect the individual subject and their information, required institutional approval and oversight. Appendix A of this study contains the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) number for permission to research of human subjects. The IRB approval requirement occurred before any data collection and research communication with participants.

The second protection from harm was necessary for case studies in military organizations to ensure the protection of individuals admitting to negative perceptions of leadership and organizational policies. Appendix C contains the requirement for permissions from the Illinois Army National Guard's Office of the Adjutant General (TAG) for ILARNG member participation in the study to include interviews and other researcher communications with members of the 33rd IBCT. There was an additional layer of protection for participants provided by the U.S. Army Research Ethics &

Compliance Officer, Army Human Research Protections Office approval to conduct research of Department of Army personnel.

Military members and those interacting with military organizations remained cognizant of statutory requirements for protection of classified information regarded as critical to the security of the United States. The study had an additional ethical requirement to ensure the collected data, and all participant responses conformed to the statutory and regulatory requirements for protection of data collected or attempted to collect data in this study. The material and research body for this study collected and contained only unclassified data and information that was gained through open sources and participant interviews. There was no requirement for any other type of classified information. There were no violations of Executive Order 13526.

Informed Consent

Before participation study, all participants received full documentation outlining a clear appreciation and understanding of the study, implications for their participation, and any noted consequences for participation. Each participant gave informed consent by the procedures as well as full disclosure, acknowledgment of understanding full disclosure, and the right to freely volunteer for the study and the freedom to freely withdrawal at any time.

Privacy Rights

Respect for participant's privacy was a primal concern for this researcher. Appendix D contains the appropriate declarations for nondisclosure statements of Personal Identifying Information (PII) and Personal Health Information (PHI) and a privacy policy.

Honesty with Professional Colleagues

There was no breach of a commitment to complete academic integrity for this study and the findings, which arose from it. The efforts made to ensure integrity was a continuous, conscious, and deliberate effort to give proper and appropriate attribution of other's works or ideas during the entirety of this study. There was also a deliberate effort to properly inform, interpret, and represent the information and data in this study to the scholarly community without fabrication. If conditions or instances were found questioning this commitment or necessitate clarification the expectation of professional colleagues was to inquire and provide the opportunity to respond.

Data Security

Preserving anonymity of participant's confidentiality was essential, it was a condition of the IRB approval, and the law required it. There were no provision or purpose to disclose any PII or PHI given the protections and limitations declared in Appendix D. No PII was collected or retained beyond job title, Military Occupational Specialty (MOS), rank, and type of unit or that reported during the interviews. Participants did not self-disclose PHI during the interviews. Encoding occurred with each participant providing a unique six-digit participant code instead of his or her actual name. The encoding insured personally identifying information and all documentation viewed by the participants, other reviewers, and 33rd IBCT leadership eliminated any opportunity for improper disclosure.

Participant Selection

Squad, team, and section level units were the U.S. Army's first tactical capability for use against the decentralized and networked competitor in today's modern battlefield

(Salmoni, Hart, McPherson, & Winn, 2010; Vane & Toguchi, 2010). A typical infantry squad consists of a combination of two fire teams with four infantrymen each led by a squad leader. The 33rd IBCT organization's Modified Table of Organization and Equipment (MTOE) guided the research selection for positions chosen. Each position identified for participation in the case study relied on the current MTOE and individuals currently assigned to those positions and further identified as a position subordinate to the formal leadership position. The review of the 33rd IBCT MTOE revealed 72 total positions were eligible for participation. From this initial pool, 36 positions across the 33rd IBCT MTOE emerged as the best representative of purposeful sampling (See Appendix L).

Participant selection occurred based on matching their MTOE duty position within the organization to the proposed criteria and listed in Appendix J. Participation was strictly voluntary. Individual participant eligibility matched five specific requirements. First, a participant's military record was free of pending non-judicial punishment or Courts Martial proceedings. Second, each participant ranged in enlisted pay grades E1 to E6 and officer pay grades O-1 to O-4. Third, each participant had completed Advanced Individual Training (AIT) or the Officer Basic Course (OBC). Fourth, each participant had active membership within the 33rd IBCT. Fifth, each participant was in a non-leadership MOTE position. Sixth, each participant had 33rd IBCT and Illinois Army National Guard command approval by Appendix B.

Participants received initial notification of their selection for the study through one of the several means, for example, official government email and through their personal email if made available by the 33rd IBCT command. Appendix E contained a

copy of the sample e-mail. Once Illinois National Guard approved the Memorandum of

Cooperation (see Appendix C) and granted approval for access, the researcher requested

from the unit a by name roster with an email address and contact information for each

surveyed MTOE paragraph and line numbered position. Notification to the participant

followed through email channels along with a copy of the official copy of the approved

Letter of Cooperation (see Appendix C) command permission to contact participants and

conduct the study. Appendix I outlined the participant selection eligibility based on the

10 cases, the type of squad, team, or section, and the number of participants. Appendix L

provided a participant review and validation of transcribed information obtained through

any one of the data collection procedures.

Data Analysis

The overall approach to the data analysis used both inductive and deductive

strategies, explored the agentic actions, and further profiled the informal leader. This

approach allowed the data to speak for itself through induction with the emergence of

conceptual categories and descriptive themes (Flick, 2014) specifically during first and

second cycle coding (Saldaña, 2013). This inductive and deductive strategy also

maximized the recursive and iterative characteristics of qualitative research analysis

(Burian, Rogerson, & Maffei III, 2010). The deductive strategy served to reveal insightful

meaning and constructive analysis of concepts and themes that emerged from first and

second cycle coding to build new concepts.

The data analysis plan used a combination of thematic analysis (TA) (Braun &

Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2013) and qualitative content analysis (Gläser & Laudel,

2013) to identify, analyze, and report patterns from the collected data. The advantage of

thematic analysis for this study was twofold: (a) it allowed for the active role of the emic

researcher as the primary instrument when identifying themes and patterns, (b) thematic

analysis was also useful when a variety of theoretical frameworks are used (Braun &

Clark, 2006). The advantages of qualitative content analysis were that it used pattern

matching to identify causal social mechanisms as opposed to causal social relationships

(Gläser & Laudel, 2013). Within a TA and content analysis framework a researcher

modified meta-synthesis approach employed Braun and Clarke (2006) six phase guide

(p.87) on three meta-synthesis levels and used an inductive approach (see Appendix I)

and Glaser and Laudel four-step model (p. 5). Since the research questions drove this

study, these two methods took advantage of linking the raw data to the questions to

identify patterns and integrate those patterns to answer each question (Gläser & Laudel,

2013). The aim of these two methods was to deconstruct the data and uncover regularities

(Hoon, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008. This first level served to facilitate construct

validity among the data (Hoon, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Level 2 included

Braun and Clarke (2006) phase three, four, and five which searched, reviewed, and

Glaser and Laudel (2013) for defined themes. This level of meta-synthesis or

interpretation synthesis served the inductive approach to compare patterns and categories

across the transcripts (Sargent, 2012). This second level looked for linkages and

developed conceptual underpinnings through queries of the code (Hoon, 2013). At this

second level, the search for mechanisms of event sequences served to build the storyline

(Braun & Clark, 2006). Level 2 also used both Structural Coding and Causation Coding

(Saldaña, 2013) as a deductive approach to amplify level one codes and to understand or

interpret the storyline. Level three of meta-synthesis or reconstruction incorporated Braun

and Clark phase six, which defined the themes and reported the results and Glaser integration of patterns (p.9) to create a synthesis or integration of level one and level two codes and themes. This third level served to merge relationships across the cases to find generalized patterns that led to a new informal leader concept (Classen et al., 2009; Hoon, 2013). Level three used interpretive and mechanistic explanation to develop a "contingent generalization" (Glaser & Laudel, 2013, p. 9).

The interview data were principal sources for both first and second cycle coding, and it provided the in-depth access to experiences and process of informal leadership and workplace bullying (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). All the research questions relied upon the interview process to open the initial dialogue. This technique provided access to a rich data set from which the concepts and themes emerged. The interviews provided critical data points and insights into the central and sub-research questions. The cluster of basic leadership themes or profiles validated by Pielstick (2000) along with Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) similar acknowledgment formed an agentic and contextualized basis for the development of the interview questions.

Unit documents such as unclassified calendars, social media, and select documentation of leader or member diaries, photos, calendars, administrative documents, news clippings, and other relevant mass media material best served to provide data for all research questions. These documents were a principal resource for data describing the internal mindset and perceptions of members amongst peers and leaders alike. The research sub-questions specifically sought to open discussion on intent and means of informal leaders and served to provide a factual basis for learning about the collective *Mens rea.*

Research sub-questions one, two, and three connected unclassified archival data to leadership roles and member perceptions of actions taken during operational, training, or contingency events. Archival data provided key data points of past performances and actions that served to inform current informal, administrative, and adaptive leadership functions.

Direct observation data represented real life and present day actions within the U.S. Army unit. The use of direct observation used research sub-questions three and five to gain access to the exercise of command and control and the use of hierarchical social stratification to connect the informal leader's actions directly to that of workplace bullying mediation.

To support, implement, and achieve this data analysis strategy and the meta-synthesis technique coding was the principal method of data analysis for the collected data (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013). This method included the coding of data for the category, pattern, and theme development using the processes of first and second cycle coding (Saldaña, 2013), and post-coding consisting of jotting, analytical memoing, and assertions and propositions (Miles et al., 2013). A robust audit trail supported the analysis process and further contributed transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1995). This audit trail served and acted as a logical backtrack from the interpretation back to the raw data.

A negative case and discrepant evidence appeared during the research. Maxwell (2012) technique for employment of research logic and establishment of validity mitigated this negative case and discrepant evidence. The chosen method for recording was a modified form of participant review using video and audio recordings. The

modified form supported one approach to compare the validity and logic of both the supporting and discrepant evidence to ascertain which evidence was more persuasive (Maxwell, 2012). Second, the negative case and discrepant evidence were included in the final interpretation to allow the reader the option of drawing their conclusions (Maxwell, 2012).

Validity and Trustworthiness

It is said, not all researchers are neutral; all research is bias (Ravitch & Riggan, 2011). This qualitative social research involved the researcher at many levels, and at each level, there was ever present bias, assumptions, and presuppositions whether social, political, or individual (Ravitch & Riggan, 2011). The challenge for this social researcher was to properly uncover these threats and offer a pathway in the study that allowed for critical engagement of all the evidence. The study met validity and trustworthiness criteria and the evidence gathered demonstrated the emic researcher role did not bias or contaminate the research (Maxwell, 2012a).

Creating parallels to the concept of validity and reliability was especially critical for this qualitative research (National Center for Dissemination of Disability Research, 2007). Lincoln and Guba (1994) recommendation provided the basic guidelines for trustworthiness and based on four parallel criteria, (a) creditability, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, (d) confirmability. This rigor or trustworthiness as the qualitative form in this study represented the sum collection and analysis of a body of evidence (Golafshani, 2003). Therefore, it was best described as a collection of best intentions, processes, and evidence that will prove initially and subsequently reliable long after this study (Golafshani, 2003; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2008).

The goal in seeking validity and trustworthiness went beyond truth to representing and validating the realities of the participants (Nelson, 2008). Applying the four criteria to this study were critical to methodically protecting and preserving the gathered evidence. Philosophically, for this qualitative researcher, it was the concept of protecting the evidence more than protecting the methods to gather it (Morse et al., 2008). As for this study, there were a special set of bias, presuppositions, and assumptions as well as a measure of acquired social status, so additional protocols kept the primary instrument unobtrusive within the interviews and neutral with the data analysis and meta-synthesis to achieve a common sense of trustworthiness. The intent was to remain sensitive to the context and content of the study while not interfering with it (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013; Tufford & Newman, 2012). The process of bracketing served to improve trustworthiness by ensuring rigor and negating bias by the researcher (Chenail, 2011). Journaling of thoughts, feelings, and impressions before and after the interview with the interviewee served as a check and balance for bias and facilitated the perspectives of the interviewee (Chenail, 2011).

In this study, the validity or measure of trustworthiness was the establishment in a level of confidence about the informal leader modeling of behavioral, organizational, and social scripts within the IBCT squad to operationalize to a more general modeling of this type of agent and their agency across all types of U.S. Army units. Reliability in the form of trustworthiness represented the means to which the organization and protocols for collection and analysis of the body of evidence was trusted to represent the perceptions, experience accurately, and words of the participants that inform future leadership outcomes (Brod, Tesler, & Christensen, 2009; Golafshani, 2003; Krefting, 1991).

Credibility

One of the bigger threats to qualitative research and most profound means to create a lack of trust in the evidence was the improper perspective and unmitigated bias of the primary instrument, for example, the researcher (Denzin, 2009). As a properly designed study, the quality of truth was present, and value added, for example, creditability (Krefting, 1991). There was also a strategy of documented recurrence (Krefting, 1991) to achieve a function of creditability. The overall strategies to set the conditions for credibility were the following: (a) observation and prolonged engagement with participants; (b) a read and re-read of the data and interview texts; (c) reflexivity to ensure researcher neutrality with the observed; (d) use of a field journal; and (e) query for alternative explanations.

Transferability

Within qualitative research, the concept of generalization was more about how things could happen as opposed to the quantitative concept that things predictively happen (Delmar, 2010). The variance between these two concepts led this qualitative researcher to speak regarding how things were expected fit together again given similar contexts and experiences, for example, how they transferred to other settings (Delmar, 2010; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Krefting, 1991).

In the U.S. Army design of the modular force, transferability of capability, ethos, and workforce was an intrinsic and deliberate function of the modular design. The findings from this single case study demonstrated replication occurred with the results reported in Chapter 4. Therefore, this replication was an excellent example of replication logic necessary to support a case for transferability (Yin, 2014). For example, replication

logic from the embedded sub-units occurred with the reported in Chapter 4 as specific scripts informal leaders used to enable or re-enable new pockets of enabling conditions, and foster emergence. These findings for informal leadership offered application across any U.S. Army unit through future updates in U.S. Army policy and regulations or modifications to its leadership model.

Dependability

Like transferability, dependability was a form of trustworthiness showing the achieved results of similar outcomes or findings through replicated protocols. Protocols designed to protect dependability centered on the evidence collected and the "chain of evidence" (Yin, 2014, p. 128) protocols, used to protect the collected data from corruption. Threats to dependability included the possibilities of imprecise replication of context and content as real life is not static (Riege, 2003). Three strategies served to ensure dependability: (a) audit trail, (b) reflexivity, (c) thematic coding. An audit trail will serve to outline the decisions and processes used to achieve the findings (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2016).

The audit trail allows others to confirm the internal consistency and alignment of data in the findings (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2016). Development of a thematic codebook and a case study database was a primary means to develop and maintain an audit trail. Reflexivity served as a recorded accounting of the researcher's perspective and responses. Since the researcher was the primary instrument, accurate documentation of self-reflection was an essential protocol (Houghton et al., 2013). Accurate field notes, a researcher's diary, and analytical memos served to facilitate this protocol. A thematic codebook and a case study database served to provide an accurate audit trail of data

queries and serve to emphasize the analytical decisions based on coding to prevent

reliance on rare occurrences (Houghton et al., 2013). Three types of queries suggested by

Houghton et al. (2013) generated the thematic coding: (a) text search, (b) coding, and (c)

matrix search.

Confirmability

The primary instrument set contributing to the study's accuracy in collected

evidence was the interview protocol (Appendix H) and semi-structured interview

questions and probes (Appendix E). Triangulation served to provide a methodological

level of confidence in the collected data and ensure that a sufficient level of accuracy of

the evidence occurred (Guion, Diehl, & McDonald, 2011). The three levels of analysis in

Appendix served to protect the study's validity from inherent bias and to address threats

to trustworthiness. This approach was preferred as it assumed the potential for error

existed in any one of the data collection methods and mitigated the potential for systemic

risk (Maxwell, 2012a). A cross-case synthesis facilitated the operationalization and

analysis to identify patterns and themes common across all the qualitative data in the

cases (Yin, 2011). Appendix J illustrated the characteristic of validity and trustworthiness

and the protocols used to ensure it (Denzin, 2009; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

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Ethical Procedures

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The study implemented several actions to ensure all participants and their

responses remained protected and to eliminate compromise of their personally protected

information (PII). The first and primary step to protect the participants and the data was

the Institutional Review Board approval for this human subject research case study. The

IRB formal application and approval process served to satisfy all aspects of international

law and established protocols with a detailed description and plan for the protection of

human subjects subjected to this research. Appendix A contained the Walden IRB

number. Additionally, the following internal steps provided an ethical framework for this

study. Appendices B contained formal requirements by the U.S. Army Human Research

Protections Office (AHRPO) declaring the types of information collected and who could

view it. Each participant received a code instead of his or her name. The code

identification provided a first line defense to protect the anonymity of all participants.

Appendices E and L provided for participant informed consent and a statement of

informed consent to satisfy the voluntary nature of individual participation. The final step

in the ethical process was the use of participant review and validation (Appendix L). This

last step ensured the participant has the final say in the use of their information and data.

Summary

Chapter 3 outlined this study's principal research design and rationale to use a

qualitative study framed by a social constructivist paradigm and Kingdon (2014) model

for policy agenda setting; these were the guide to the methodological design. The

research questions aligned with the primary purpose of this case study, which sought to

understand entanglement and the enabling leader function. The single case study with

embedded sub-units methodology was an appropriate choice because it first supported

Kingdon (2014) where consensus occurred from multiple sources of data and second

because the research was searching for understanding. The single case study with

embedded sub-units design also served to drive the sampling strategy of purposeful

sampling. This sampling strategy was a good fit for an organization like the U.S. Army

where social and leadership heterogeneity dominates. The primary data source came from

U.S. Army documents, archival data, semi-structured interviews of IBCT personnel, and direct observations of complex leadership in action.

An important consideration discussed was the role of validity and trustworthiness for the study. This chapter discussed the researcher as the primary instrument and actions in an emic role along with the protocols in place to protect the participants and manage for researcher bias. Four parallel criteria, (a) creditability, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, (d) confirmability recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1994) set the conditions for trustworthiness. One of the major challenges to validity and trustworthiness was accounting and managing the special set of biases, presuppositions, assumptions, and a measure of acquired social status present in the military organization. Additional protocols served to keep the primary instrument unobtrusive within the interviews and the data collection settings neutral so that the data analysis and meta-synthesis demonstrated a common sense of trustworthiness. Finally, the intent of chapter 3 was a process that remained sensitive to the context and content of the study and prepared the data collection for analysis in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this qualitative single case study with embedded sub-units was to explore for the behavioral, social, or organizational scripts the informal leader used in entanglement between the administrative and adaptive leadership functions while mediating or ameliorating workplace bullying in a U.S. Army IBCT squad or section. Workplace bullying explored during the data collection was premised on the concept that bullying occurs at any one of three levels, (a) an individual context, (b) social context, and (c) organizational context, and that each level had unique antecedents. At the individual level, identity drives survival, and when it is lost, individuals seek to restore it through inputs as antecedents (Coleman, 1990; Simmel & Wolff, 1950). Furthermore, scripts are a series of logical constructs used to interpret and understand familiar and usual social settings and knowledge structures (Berniker & McNabb, 2006; Gioia & Manz, 1985; Lord & Kernan, 1987; Sternberg, 2008; Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). Scripts used in this study represented a social tool used by individuals, organizations, and society to predict expected behavioral or social actions. In other words, scripts help interpret antecedents.

The overarching premise of this research was to discover these scripts as they reside in the dynamic process of entanglement and were enabled or managed by the enabling function or informal leader (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Central to understanding entanglement were the research questions that sought to elucidate the informal leader's behavioral, social, and organizational actions within the IBCT to mitigate or ameliorate workplace bullying to give meaning. Understanding antecedents were the basis for understanding all bullying scenarios (Einarsen et al., 2011). Therefore,

those who effectively used antecedents can influence future antecedents and can control

and influence workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011).

The central research question framed the exploration to collect the data through

semi-structured interview questions, archival data, and unit documentation in the

following query:

RQ: How does the informal leader engage the entanglement process to mediate or

ameliorate enabling conditions and bonding processes in the U.S. Army squad or

section?

The interviews, unit documentation and unit archival data served as the principal sources

for answering the main research question. Each participant was an informal leader of the

organization; therefore, the use of the word participant and informal leader are the same.

The following sub-questions guided this qualitative study to explore and discover

the bonding processes as scripts used by informal leaders:

SQ1: How does the informal leader create enabling conditions between

administrative or adaptive contexts to support entanglement?

SQ2: How does the formal and adaptive leader manipulate the bonding process

through social entanglement?

SQ3: How does the informal leader create alternate enabling pockets when

regular entanglement is dysfunctional during periods of duress or stressors?

The findings of this study are in the following sections: (a) the setting and demographic

information unique to the studied cases; (b) the specifics of the data collection including

the number of informal leaders, number of cases, location, frequency, and duration of

data collection; and (c) how the the researcher recorded data, variations from the plan,

and unusual circumstances. This chapter further describes the process of identifying, locating, and structuring the raw data, searching for patterns in the data, and integrating these patterns into socially mechanistic themes (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). This chapter concludes with a thorough description of the results and a summary.

Setting

A research setting can serve a significant function to moderate the impact of the results (Poitras, 2012). The natural setting was a primary and central tenet of qualitative research, and this served to frame the understanding of social relationships within their everyday context (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). This research setting served the critical function to understand the informal leader in the role of a soldier through one-on-one interviews during their preparation period before a unit training assembly. My aim was to gather data as the participants interacted with fellow team members via formal and adaptive leadership within the IBCT unit squads or sections from their perspective and in their domain (Gray, 2013).

The general setting for a study is the most basic consideration in qualitative research as this set the conditions for both the quantity and quality of the data (Ritchie et al., 2013). The general setting for this study was at the squad or section level of a U.S. Army National Guard (ARNG) IBCT. An IBCT is a primary U.S. Army combat capability; its organizational and social structure possessed the requisite setting and representation of both the formal and informal leadership structures modeled in U.S. Army leadership doctrine, CLT, and social exchange.

The study was conducted in the informal leader's local, natural setting that was typical for an informal leader operating in the Army's complex environment (Gray, 2013;

Poitras, 2012). In the natural setting, this satisfied the criteria for "real world research . . . the lived-in reality" (Robson & McCartan, 2016). This specific research setting of just one IBCT moderated the impact of the results due to the limited number of informal leaders across a limited scope of cases and because the interviews were strictly limited to those soldiers, not in formal leadership.

The specific informal leader and case setting were standard for each interview. The researcher conducted and recorded each interview via tele video conferencing, teleconferencing, or by telephone when the informal leaders were off duty and in the comfort of their homes. The interviews occurred during no training periods per the guidelines established in the approval letter from the Adjutant General's (TAG) for the ILARNG. The specific informal leader setting with the lack of onsite one-on-one interviews was necessary to comply with TAG ILARNG stipulation prohibiting the use of federal or state facility resources such as classrooms or computers and that interviews and a prohibition from interference with unit operations or training (see Appendix C). Nevertheless, there were no negative connotations resulting from this moderating factor. Each informal leader provided acknowledgment the specific setting was acceptable, and all positively affirmed their concurrence and preference for the specific circumstances.

Demographics

The informal leaders were soldiers currently assigned to the 33rd IBCT ILARNG and who had no adverse administrative or Uniformed Military Code of Justice actions pending. Either each soldier was from a squad, section, or team within a subordinate unit of the parent headquarters depending on the unit or case type and matching the basic informal leader selection criteria identified in Chapter 3. Thirty-four soldiers volunteered

for the study with two soldiers withdrawing for personal reasons and seven soldiers failing to complete the initial participation process. As a result, 25 informal leader soldiers successfully volunteered for the study.

The informal leaders represented a range of time in grade from less than 1 year to a maximum of 9 years and military service from less than 1 year to 23 years. Nine informal leaders reported experience in a combat theater of operations in Iraq or Afghanistan. This latter detail added a dimension of heightened ethos to the informal leader experience with leadership and branded these individuals within the unit as more experienced (Snider et al., 2009). Two informal leaders were interservice transfers into the 33rd IBCT from the U.S. Army. The 33rd IBCT recruited and enlisted the remaining 23 informal leaders directly. These participants spent their entire military careers in the organization. Four participants were Active Guard Reservists (AGR) working fulltime in an administrative capacity at the local unit.

Additional demographics such as age, race, or gender were not applicable to the study or data. These demographics if used would have comprised the study with possible violations of The Civil Rights Act (1964). Additionally, the U.S. Army does not use these demographics as prerequisites for leadership assignment or military performance. Therefore, the lack of these demographics did not affect the study or results. The primary factors related to demographics important to this study were rank or grade, time in grade and time in service. These served a more useful purpose for understanding or interpreting leadership potential. They are also primary factors for promotion board consideration. Table 3 depicted the 25 informal leaders by grade, time in grade, and time in service and provided data for this study.

Table 3

Participation by Grade, Time in Grade and Time in Service

Rank/Grade	Time in grade (years)*	Time in service (years)*
1LT/O2	3	8
1LT/O2	3	3
1LT/O2	1	6
1LT/O2	3	7
2LT/O1	2	4
SFC/E7	3	15
SFC/E7	3	23
SFC/E7	8	20
SSG/E6	5	16
SSG/E6	6	17
SSG/E6	1	14
SGT/E5	4	7
SGT/E5	0	5
SGT/E5	2	10
SGT/E5	3	6
SPC/E4	9	13
SPC/E4	6	8
SPC/E4	3	5
SPC/E4	3	4
SPC/E4	2	5
SPC/E4	3	3
SPC/E4	4	6
SPC/E4	6	8
PFC/E3	1	2
PFC/E3	2	2

*Years are rounded to the nearest whole number

The study involved eight separate cases or separate unit organizations from the 33rd IBCT. Each case was diverse and unique in its command climate and readiness for operations. Table 4 shows the participation by case.

Table 4

Participation by Case

Unit type/Case type	Number of informal leaders
Brigade Headquarters Unit/C2 HQ Case 1	2
Battalion Headquarters Unit/C2 HQ Case 3	4
Battalion Support Unit/SPT Case 2	4
Battalion Maneuver Headquarters Unit/C2 HQ Case 2	1
Battalion Maneuver Unit/MAN Case 1	5
Battalion Maneuver Unit/MAN Case 2	7
Battalion Support Unit Headquarters/C2 HQ Case 4	1
Battalion Support Unit/SPT Case 1	1

Informal leader recruitment began January 1, 2016, and ended February 15, 2016, with a phone call to the 33rd IBCT personnel officer. He directly assisted the study and facilitated the effort with a full contact list of the full-time personnel for all the embedded sub-units or IBCT subordinate units. The personnel officer provided a list of subordinate unit level full-time personnel to contact. Further coordination followed by phone and email to begin a volunteer notification to unit membership. Full-time unit level personnel made notification to all unit members about the study through normal command information channels, which included an announcement at their opening or closing Inactive Duty Training (IDT) assemblies in January and February 2016, the unit drill letter for those assemblies, and at their monthly January and February leader meeting. This recruitment and coordination process generated a list of soldiers who agreed to volunteer their personal information back through these channels for further contact. Upon receipt of this information from the brigade personnel officer, any one of three methods of a cell phone, email, and text messaging worked to make direct contact with

the volunteers to verify their interest in participation in this study. This overall effort

yielded 34 interested soldiers who initially agreed to volunteer for participation.

Data Collection

Data were collected from 25 informal leaders from February through March 2016.

Due to geographical dispersion across two states and the IL ARNG restrictions (see

Appendix C) limiting informal leader access to no training periods and prohibiting the

use of government or state-owned assets or facilities, the decision to collect the data

through a cell phone, and tele video conferencing with Skype was the choice. Each

informal leader acknowledged the interview setting as appropriate and comfortable.

Skype interviews used the software Pamela for Skype as a pairing to record a video and

audio track to a .mpv and .mp3 file format. The iPhone App TapeACall Pro served the

need to record all cellular phone calls to a .mp3 file format. The data collection method

included four of six sources recommend by Yin (2014): documentation, archival records,

semi-structured interviews, and direct observations. The semi-structured interviews

provided most of the data collected.

A slight variation to the plan in Chapter 3 was necessary due to the geographically

dispersed data and IL ARNG limitations (see Appendix C). Limited access to the

ILARNG at the off-duty time prevented physical access or viewing of documents and

archival data. As such, this condition prevented a review of first-hand originals or copies

of unit documents or archival data. As a result, an alternate means to collect this data

came from informal leader firsthand knowledge and a personal and professional

experience to collect this information from the informal leaders. The lack of actual

documents to review did not prove detrimental to the data collection. Informal leaders

provided verbal information from current and previous training schedules, after action reviews, operations orders, drill letters, and policy memorandum documents available to them first hand from prior training events as well as current information pertinent to their upcoming March drill. My 30 years of firsthand knowledge, personal review, and professional experience of these types of documents in the past from the 33rd IBCT proved beneficial and effective for triangulation. As a former U.S. Army Sergeant Major with significant experience reviewing and evaluating, and submitting for review similar type documents from similar organizations for over 20 years is a substantial mitigation to researcher bias. The verbal information about unit documents and archival information provided in the interviews did not deviate in structure or basic content from a personal recollection of such past similar documents and their contents. For interviews conducted by cell phone or with a video link, direct observation occurred in a similar manner using the art of active listening and the observation of nonverbal signals and voice tone, volume, and intonation to facilitate understanding (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

The interviews lasted an average of 70 minutes. The longest interview was 90 minutes, and the shortest was 42 minutes. No follow-up interviews occurred since the initial session audio and or video recording provided all the data needed to answer each interview question satisfactorily.

Recorded interviews provided the data set and consisted of recorded interviews transcribed using Dragon Naturally Speaking Professional (2014) software. Dragon Naturally Speaking Professional (2014) provided the means to import the recorded transcript files as .mp3 directly into the program for generation of a transcript conversation. This process yielded a transcript file with an approximate 70% accuracy

overall. Each transcript file received a review against the actual recording to correct the initial file to a 100% accurately transcribed file. Once transcribed, a clean MS Word document containing the text emerged as the basis for further analysis. The results were an MS Word "clean read" and coherent text representing the original wording and grammatical structure of 25 informal leader interview transcripts. The total number of individually complete responses to the interview questions was 1191.

A subsequent organization of the transcript files yielded three sets of transcripts, group A, and group B, and group C. Group A transcript represented the individual interview question and the informal leader response to the 55 semi-structured interview questions. The organization process produced 25 separate MS Word documents and represented the individual level responses. Group B set represented the whole of all responses by interview question ending with 55 questions each having 25 responses. A second subset emerged from group B by ordering the individual informal leader responses by embedded sub-unit into eight embedded sub-units beginning with the MAN Case 2, followed in order by MAN Case 1, SPT C2, SPT C1, C2 HQ Case 1, C2 HQ Case 2, C2 HQ Case 3, and C2 HQ Case 4. Together Group B represented the social level or group level of response. The ordering concatenated all the informal leaders by case into a large transcript file. Group C represented each research question and included the interview questions. Group C consisted of four separate MS Windows 10 file folders with each folder containing a set of interview questions aligned with the research question. Group C responses represented the organizational level response. Group B and group C transcripts set the analytical conditions for cross-case synthesis and triangulation of the data between the social or team level and the organizational level. All transcripts

remained in an MS Word .docx format and individual MS Windows folder. This step permitted the ability to search semantically or by phrase searches using the Windows 10 Explorer search function. This organizing function allowed exploration at the individual level, the research question level, and separately across the level of the case. Despite having 1191 separate data units, this overall arrangement facilitated for a richer exploration of the data.

<div align="center">**Data Analysis**</div>

Chapter 3 outlined a "theory-laden" (Gläser & Laudel, 2013) process to initially frame and align the raw data. The overall approach to the collection and data analysis relied on the theoretical contribution of social agents and agency and the dynamical process of CLT entanglement discussed in Chapter 2 of this study. In Chapter 3, a set of six clustered themes based on Pielstick (2000) represented a description of informal leadership ethical actions. The initial clustered themes were shared vision (SV), character (CH), communication (COMM), guidance (GUID), relationship (RELA), and community (COMU). This basic ethical framework and alignment with the research questions and the semi-structured interview questions aided initial coding of the data from the raw data. This theoretical sensitivity according to Glaser & Laudel (2013) served as an initial link to the "relevant data" (p. 11) of the study. This process proved useful to begin deconstruction of the data into its initial codes and eventual patterns.

Both inductive and deductive strategy served to explore the informal leader role in mediating or ameliorating the stressors emanating from in the U.S. Army squad or section/team. The objective was to understand and to explore the informal leader handling and processing the degradation from the reported stressors and test the nature of

social exchange and role of conflict in groups. The research questions served as the lens

to explore and understand the data. Since both inductive and deductive approaches were

part of the design, a hybrid process employing both thematic analysis (TA) (Braun &

Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2013) and qualitative content analysis (Gläser & Laudel,

2013) served to amplify or clarify the emergent data into a thematic process. According

to Braun and Clarke (2006), amplifying, complimenting, or clarifying thematic analysis

with the qualitative content analysis is an acceptable methodology. The data analysis

methodology consisted of the following three steps: (a) deconstruction, (b) interpretation,

and (c) integration. Table 5 described these steps. Level 1, the exploration centered on

finding the antecedents or the stressors catalyzing the entanglement process, for example,

creating the context.

Table 5

Level 1Data Analysis Process

Level	Goal	Action	Method	Outcome
Level 1 (Deconstruction)	It consists of deconstructing the data by breaking its various categories and topics (Sargeant, 2012). Uncovered regularities and demonstrated construct validity (Hoon, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Linked raw data to the research question (Glaser & Laudel, 2013)	It is achieved by pattern matching between the single cases using in-depth qualitative interviewing semi-structured interviews. Transcribe the data (Braun, & Clarke, 2006) to: (a) locate the raw data in the text (Glaser & Laudel, 2013), (b) structured raw data (Glaser & Laudel, 2013), (c) generate initial process codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Saldaña, 2013). Identified and labeled a set of initial codes that were relevant to answering the research questions. Exploration of the data at a latent level, that is, an exploration of the text at the latent level explores for underlying ideas, concepts, or ideologies that shape the semantic content within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006).	It is accomplished through verbatim transcriptions using Dragon Naturally Speaking Professional (2014) software. Structured by indexing themes (short strings of categories) with codes, indexed the content into statements, and extracted content into states of categories. The familiarization started immediately after production of the transcripts by making initial hand-written notes on each printed transcript. A printed a copy made of each group transcript with the intent to use these hard copies for manual coding.	It occurs when there is deep immersion into the textual content. It identifies broad topics and basis for more in-depth analysis and mapping (Hoon, 2013; (Sargeant, 2012). Recognized text-containing information and checked for relevance. The next step creates the initial links between data and the research questions. Indexed text, statements that describe categories, states of categories—initial patterns. In the first read and reread of group A, and B transcript sets super categories emerged for organizing the codes, for example, functional and intellectual, individual and team levels. The textual noise was overwhelming, this method proved useful keeping an alignment to the underlying artifacts theory of social exchange, and CLT suggested as present in the IBCT.

Note. Meta-synthesis model adapted from "*Meta-Synthesis of Qualitative Studies: An Approach to Theory Building*" by Hoon, 2013; "*Qualitative Research Part II: Participants, Analysis, and Quality Assurance*", by Sargeant, 2012; "*Meta-synthesis of Qualitative Studies on Older Driver Safety and Mobility*" by Classen, Winter and Lopez, 2009; and "*The Research Methods Knowledge Base*" by Trochim and Donnelly, 2008; "*Life With and Without Coding: Two Methods for Early Stage Data Analysis in Qualitative Research Aiming at Causal Explanations*" by Glaser and Laudel, 2013; "*Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology*" by Braun and Clarke, 2006.

Level 2 explored to understand the entanglement scripts creating the agency for

entanglement. Table 6 listed level 2 analysis.

Table 6

Level 2 Data Analysis Process

Level	Goal	Action	Method	Outcome
Level 2 (Interpretation)	This occurs by Interpreting the data through comparing patterns and categories across transcripts (Sargeant, 2012). Discover linkages and developed the conceptual underpinnings through queries of the patterns (Hoon, 2013). Searched for patterns in the data	The action occurs when using cross-case synthesis across the single cases and replication logic across the cases. Matrixed query (Houghton et al., 2013). This is followed by a search for patterns and typologies. Themed the typologies (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). Searched, reviewed, and defined for themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Saldaña, 2013). Note: See Appendix E Thematic Code Book.	The method is a search for the mechanism of event sequences and built typologies (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). This is followed by refocusing on broader themes. Reviewed themes in individual cases for coherent patterns followed by similar review across the cases. (Braun & Clarke, 2006).	The outcome is analytical memos, causal explanations, variables and relationships, and replication (Hoon, 2013; Houghton et al., 2013).

(*table continues*)

Level	Goal	Action	Method	Outcome
Level 2 (Interpretation)			Wrote analytical memos. Identified or differentiated a cause and effect or mechanism in group A and B transcripts. The method additionally identified repeating patterns or significant differences among group B and C transcripts (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). Asking, how or why these actions (codes) occurred facilitated this process.	Combined into overarching candidate themes, mapped or described patterns to a storyline, identified themes from nonthemes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Mapping on a sheet of paper listing all the codes, grouping, and organizing these into theme files provided a means to reduce and performed this the number of piles between five and eight. Once created these theme files provided the basis for a hand-written descriptive statement for theme unit and grouped these statements. Categories and typologies emerged. These provided a way to organize the theme files into typological statements representing a mechanistic action.

Note. Meta-synthesis model adapted from "*Meta-Synthesis of Qualitative Studies: An Approach to Theory Building*" by Hoon, 2013; "*Qualitative Research Part II: Participants, Analysis, and Quality Assurance"*, by Sargeant, 2012; "*Meta-synthesis of Qualitative Studies on Older Driver Safety and Mobility*" by Classen, Winter and Lopez, 2009; and "*The Research Methods Knowledge Base*" by Trochim and Donnelly, 2008; *"Life With and Without Coding: Two Methods for Early Stage Data Analysis in Qualitative Research Aiming at Causal Explanations"* by Glaser and Laudel, 2013; *"Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology"* by Braun and Clarke, 2006.

Level 3 analysis explored to understand the intent of agent for entanglement and
bonding. Table 7 listed the steps in level 3 analysis.

Table 7

Level 3Data Analysis Process

Level	Goal	Action	Method	Outcome
Level 3 (Reconstruction)	The goal was reconstructed data through a placement of the patterns and categories into relationships and contextualized the findings (Sargeant, 2012). Gained the understanding to answer the research questions "how" and the interpretations of the research questions "why" (Saldaña, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). This was followed by integration of the patterns (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). Produced the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006).	The action consisted of code weaving of the interviews, documents, archival, direct observations to integrate into the narrative (Saldaña, 2013).	This method provided for explanations and a combination of data. This method also developed a category of categories diagram. Merged the categories of categories diagram and analytical memos into generalizations (Glaser & Laudel, 2013; Saldaña, 2013).	The outcome consisted of interpretive explanation and understanding. It was the formation of an informed construction (Saldaña, 2013). The mechanistic explanation is leading to generalization (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). The result was a working thematic map. This final step created the themes that contextualized the findings (Sargeant, 2012).

(*table continues*)

Level	Goal	Action	Method	Outcome
Level 3 (Reconstruction)	Reconstructed the data by placing the patterns and categories into relationships and contextualized the findings (Sargeant, 2012). Gained the understanding to answer the research questions "how" and the interpretations of the research questions "why" (Saldaña, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). It was integrated the patterns (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). Produced the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006).	The action consisted of Conducting code weaving of the interviews, documents, archival, direct observations to integrate into the narrative (Saldaña, 2013).	A review of the data set from phase 1 and two across the cases in the group C transcripts resulting in a draft thematic map. Second, a review of the themes across all the cases to validate the themes accurately represented the meanings found in the group A, B, & C transcript sets. In this step, exploration for any discrepant cases or data that did not fall into the categories to show accountability for all the data (Glaser & Braun, 2013) by reviewing the data sets to determine if any new coding emerged.	The aim of integration was to reconstruct the patterns to understand and answer the how each research question and the interpretations of the research questions' why (Saldaña, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). This final step produced the contextualized the relationships that became the narrative for Chapter 5 (Glaser & Straus, 2013; Saldaña, 2013).

Note. Meta-synthesis model adapted from "*Meta-Synthesis of Qualitative Studies: An Approach to Theory Building*" by Hoon, 2013; "*Qualitative Research Part II: Participants, Analysis, and Quality Assurance*", by Sargeant, 2012; "*Meta-synthesis of Qualitative Studies on Older Driver Safety and Mobility*" by Classen, Winter and Lopez, 2009; and "*The Research Methods Knowledge Base*" by Trochim and Donnelly, 2008; *"Life With and Without Coding: Two Methods for Early Stage Data Analysis in Qualitative Research Aiming at Causal Explanations"* by Glaser and Laudel, 2013; *"Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology"* by Braun and Clarke, 2006.

One of the challenges facing the qualitative researcher involved the unique

relationship between the arguments made for causality and the method of analysis ending

in causality (Gläser & Laudel, 2013). Glaser and Laudel (2013) suggest the premise for

this search becomes more ambiguous when the theory is structuring our data collection and the data. In Chapter 1 of this study, Leymann (1986) stated failed leadership is the cause of workplace bullying and toxic leadership. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) stated that organizationally suppressed scripts of the enabling function led to failed entanglement and therefore failed leadership. Einarsen et al. (2011) suggested that an enabling organizational agent was the key to unleashing prescriptions across multiple social levels and dimensions and that understanding this agent's role was the first step toward mitigation of workplace bullying. Therefore, there is a theoretical and conceptual linkage between failed leadership and workplace bullying or toxic leadership in the form of both social agent and social structure. There is also a theoretical and conceptual linkage describing and ascribing specialized roles between perpetrator, victim, and witness of workplace bullying in the form of antecedents and scripts. From Leymann (1986) and from Einarsen et al. (2011) as well as Homans and Merton (1974) and Mead (1963) the typical dyadic roles of bullying perpetrator and victim and the associated relationships of their antecedents to bullying is well documented as for specific negative behaviors and social dysfunctions. Nevertheless, these dysfunctions typically focus on bullying antecedents as attributes, that is, the characteristics and qualities of an individual perpetrator or victim, team, or organization. The focus is peculiarly the social agent and not the social structure.

However, the CLT leadership concept focuses on scripts as part of organizational structures and these did not appear consistently in the literature. Although, Pielstick (2000); Bass and Bass (2009); Avolio (2009); Piccolo (2010); and the U.S. Army (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b) well describe normal and ethical leadership attributes

and competencies these and the literature, in general, all lacked descriptions of those

series of behaviors, actions, and consequences that are expected as building blocks that

are the informal leader. Identifying these building blocks of antecedents, agents and

agency, scripts or day-to-day actions, and the bonding actions and linking them to the

informal leader was the critical first link in understanding how consequential leadership

acts to mitigate bullying. Leymann (1986) suggested that the social structures, for

example, scripts and not the individual attributes or competencies were the link to solving

the bullying problem. Therefore, data and theory both drove the data analysis in this

study.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Qualitative research takes a different approach to demonstrate its quality of

dependability and the necessary rigor to justify this quality (Houghton et al., 2013).

Because the approach to qualitative research is naturalistic, there must follow a process

that is both authentic and systematic to achieve the deeper understanding of the context

and the complexity of human social interactions if the scholarly community can accept

the results as trustworthy (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Qualitative research focuses on

perspectives and dialogue as opposed to causality and generalizations among and

between the cases (Yin, 2014). This study paid peculiar attention to researcher's

experiences and role to understand and interpret the content and the environment

(Alvesson, 2009; Alvesson, 2010). This section discussed the strategies employed in this

study to assess and justify a satisfactory level of trustworthiness.

The two strategies employed during this study were the four criteria of credibility,

transferability, dependability, and confirmability proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1994)

and triangulation or use of multiple sources of evidence to corroborate the data findings across the phenomenon (Yin, 2014). The use of triangulation followed Bekhet and Zauszniewski (2012), Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007), and (2014) recommendations of using a combination of inquiries to include the following: direct observations, documents, archival data, purposeful sampling, multiple cases, and competing for theoretical perspectives to inform the analysis.

Credibility

Credibility begins with an accurate identification and description of those participating in the research and to the degree; this study captured the similarities and differences among the data generated by the informal leaders (Elo et al., 2014). A study is credible when individuals in similar contexts recognize the content and can be reflexive in that context (Cope, 2014). The following select criteria demonstrated credibility and promoted confidence in this study (Shenton, 2004): (a) using a well-established research method; (b) development of a relationship with the 33rd IBCT prior to data collection; (c) purposeful sampling; (d) triangulation; (e) iterative questioning; (f) negative case analysis; (g) actions of an emic researcher with substantive background, qualifications and experience with the case types; and (h) member checks. Member checking was the original method to validate the data; however, the process of using the software and crosschecking verification replaced member-checking validation. This process proved useful and efficient given that the number of questions asked at 55 and the number of informal leader interviews at 25 yielded 1375 potential separate lines of data.

The use of a single case study with embedded sub-units, methodology provided one single case consisting of eight separate and distinct embedded sub-units to generate

data (See Table 4). The eight cases captured a wide range of perspectives across separate and distinct units within the 33rd IBCT providing for maximum variation. Collecting and analyzing data across these eight different units served to offset any potential weaknesses in purposeful sampling by maximizing diversity over a wide range of extremes in sociation, command climates, complexity leadership function, complex operations, and mission command.

Before data collection, the 33rd IBCT Personnel Officer requested a phone conversation to discuss the roles and relationships between the informal leader, the researcher, and the command. The process for development of a data collection plan was simple in part because of past prior positive relationships with the 33rd IBCT and its command staff. This prior relationship helped generate early and lasting commitment by all members within the subordinate units and the researcher. The organizational staff and subordinate unit staff proved highly cooperative and enthusiastic toward the study. This positive relationship contributed to a strong success in generating the 34 informal leader volunteers.

Purposeful sampling of the eight select cases gave this study the desired level of social and leadership heterogeneity. The purposeful sampling matched the social and leadership heterogeneity described as essential in the in other U.S. Army LRM (United States, 2012). Purposeful sampling served to give a good representation of subgroups, and ensure the observed processes came from both the full spectrum of multiple small teams and at the same time accounting for the modeling of scripts occurring within complexity leadership functions.

Triangulation criteria co-occurred as a component of credibility with the overall strategy of trustworthiness. For this study triangulation as a successful procedure, best represented the view that the data came from multiple perspectives or points of origin. In this way, the entirety of the data formed a complete set (Houghton et al., 2013). Triangulation in this study followed Elo et al. (2014) through the combination of the following: (a) purposeful sampling, (b) the use of eight separate cases, (c) the use of previous research to formulate the framework for the semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix D), (d) semi-structured interviews, (e) unit training schedules, (f) unit operation orders, (g) after action reviews, (h) direct observation, and (i) the use of both SE theory and CLT to analyze and interpret the data (Shenton, 2004).

During the informal leader interviews, base questions with the use of probes and iterative questions served to bring out additional data. During the interviews of junior enlisted and junior noncommissioned officers (grades E1 to E6), iterative questions in the form of rephrasing were necessary. Specifically, junior enlisted (grades E1-E4) lacked overall years of experience to answer questions 12, 19, 21, 35-36, 39, 44, 48, 53-54 without rephrasing or probes (see Appendix D). This intermittent rephrasing and probes improved their understanding of the questions, but two informal leaders in MAN Case 1 and MAN Case 2 could not answer these questions above even with probes and rephrasing. The poor understanding was likely due to their short time in service of 2 years or less. The senior noncommissioned officers (grade E7) and the commissioned officers responded positively to iterative questioning and provided significantly amplified responses. No one in these latter grades required rephrasing. This entire process occurred by asking questions using the universal intellectual standards. This action helped

eliminate potential suspect data from the collected data. Probes with all personnel in grades E6 to O3 served to draw out additional related data.

Negative case or discrepant case analysis yielded no contradictory cases. During the data collection and analysis phase, comparison of the identified topics and concepts as they developed within the embedded sub-units provided opportunities to identify potential negative case data. Additionally, the use of triangulation of the various data sources to corroborate the data allowed another opportunity to examine discrepant evidence beyond the first impressions. Two set of informal leader data (participant 122394 and participant 031990) within the eight cases were discrepant data. In the case of #122394, the informal leader simply had not been in the U.S. Army long enough to have concrete experiences that could generate a rich enough narrative. In the case of #031990, this informal leader experienced a toxic leadership environment within the embedded sub-unit, and their responses reflected this bias. Two other informal leaders were associated with this case, but a reread of their experiences and responses with peers in similar cases and across the other cases suggested no additional bias was found.

The only other consideration for possible discrepant data was the presence of a greater range of antecedents, mediating and ameliorating actions, and scripts with the maneuver units than the support units. However, on a closer examination this was due in part to the nature of the maneuver, and the unit mission set. The maneuver unit mission set placed a premium upon the successful actions and employment of the small team. There was always a sense of urgency observed in the response of maneuver unit informal leaders when self-describing their actions to mediate or ameliorate antecedents.

As an emic researcher, there were necessary qualifications to interpret the meanings properly within both the content and the context of the phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2012). In this study, the emic role originated from more than 30 years of military service. This service included time as an Active Guard Reservist for the U.S. Army National Guard serving at the lowest level of a Fire Team Leader to a Senior Enlisted Advisor for a U.S. Army Corps command (a three-star general officer command). This broad range of service assignments provided substantial experience. Additional emic researcher experience included supervision and the creation of or production of similar documents and archival data reviewed in this study. This data included yearly training plans, monthly training schedules and monthly newsletters, after action reviews (AARs), operation orders (OPORDs) to policy memorandum and standard operation procedure (SOP) documents in both peacetime and war. The broad base of experience provided for a richer and deeper interview process with each informal leader.

Member checking was originally part of the Chapter 3 plan. However, it did not occur post interview with the informal leader as planned. The only planned member checking will be a pre-publication review by each informal leader and the IL ARNG Adjutant General of the study findings. The IL ARNG Adjutant General specifically requested this review. The following three primary reasons explain the absence of member checking as originally planned: (a) the interviews were recorded for both the interviewer and interviewee audio tracks in a .mp3 file format, and five interviews were also recorded via Pamela for Skype (2014) in both a .mp3 and .wav file formats; (b) Dragon Naturally Speaking Pro (2014) was used to directly import the audio tracks for a verbatim transcription of the interview; and (c) a natural rapport was immediately built

between the interviewer and the interviewees at the onset of the interviews due to the role

as an emic researcher. This latter reason was largely responsible for a deep honesty and

candor from every informal leader.

Dependability

Dependability in qualitative research concerns the reliability of the study and the

ability of others to achieve similar results given the same protocols and methodology

(Denzin & Lincoln, 2012). Three primary elements in this study contribute to reliability,

an audit trail, the data collection method, and the data analysis methodology. First, there

is a reliable audit trail for the methodology, the data collection, and the data analysis in

the form of recorded interviews and digitally generated transcripts (Yin, 2014). Second,

as the primary instrument, there was an accurate accounting and reflection of researcher

thoughts and notes in the form of field notes and the analytical memos available to

document any reflexive relationship between the researcher and the data (Houghton et al.,

2013). Third, the adaptation from Pielstick (2000) of six a priori clustered themes to

frame the initial coding and development of a codebook.

Transferability

The concept of transferability for this study concerns how things did happen as

opposed to how things could occur (Delmar, 2010; 2010). Finding new scripts, the

informal leader use fills an important gap in CLT and confirms the informal leader's role

of social exchange in dyads and triads. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) identified a gap in

our understanding of who is performing entanglement and the scripts used, that is, the

"how" and "who." Einarsen et al. (2011) predicted an unknown organizational

"inhibitor" (p.30) within the organizational dyad who creates, exacerbates, or limits

bullying behavior (Liefooghe & Davey, 2010). The findings of this study identify

informal leaders in eight cases of U.S. Army small units as performing entanglement as

well as acting as an organizational inhibitor either mediating or ameliorating certain

antecedents within the unit. These results have application to other U.S. Army units either

by direct application of the informal leader behaviors or a modification to the U.S. Army

LRM in the form of additional leadership competencies or attributes.

Confirmability

Confirmability presents the data through a set of methodologies that produce an

acceptable level of neutrality and accuracy in the data (Houghton et al., 2013). Positive

evidence of confirmability came primarily through a robust audit trail, triangulation of

the interview data, field notes, unit documents, and archival data (Houghton et al., 2013).

There was a consistent representation of the collected data through the three-level

analysis (see Appendix I) and the use of digital audio recording software and interview

and transcript generation using Dragon Naturally Speaking Professional version 10

(2015). Confirmability served to protect the study from researcher bias so that the

findings accurately represented the studied phenomenon through the informal leader's

responses (Cope, 2014). Further evidence of confirmability appeared in the results

section of this chapter with informal leader quotes depicting emergent themes.

<div align="center">

Results

</div>

This study represented a large amount of data from 25 informal leaders using

semi-structured interviews, field notes, observations, and documentation including

training schedules, after action reviews, and policy memorandums. The results were the

analysis of 1191 data units. To produce the results, Braun & Clarke (2006) thematic

analysis and select elements of Glaser & Laudel (2013) qualitative content analysis

provided the basic framework for analysis and amplified in the steps through a phased

process. This method proved valuable deconstructing, interpreting, and integrating the

data for each research question. Together these building blocks formed an integrated

pattern that linked each activity to the informal leader. The results section presents the

analysis by organizing this section by research questions and applying the phases of

thematic analysis to each question. This analysis further followed the analytical

framework shown in Figure 3 and worked the data through analysis for each research

question. At the end of the chapter, a summary of the analysis and the initial frame for the

narrative segued into Chapter 5.
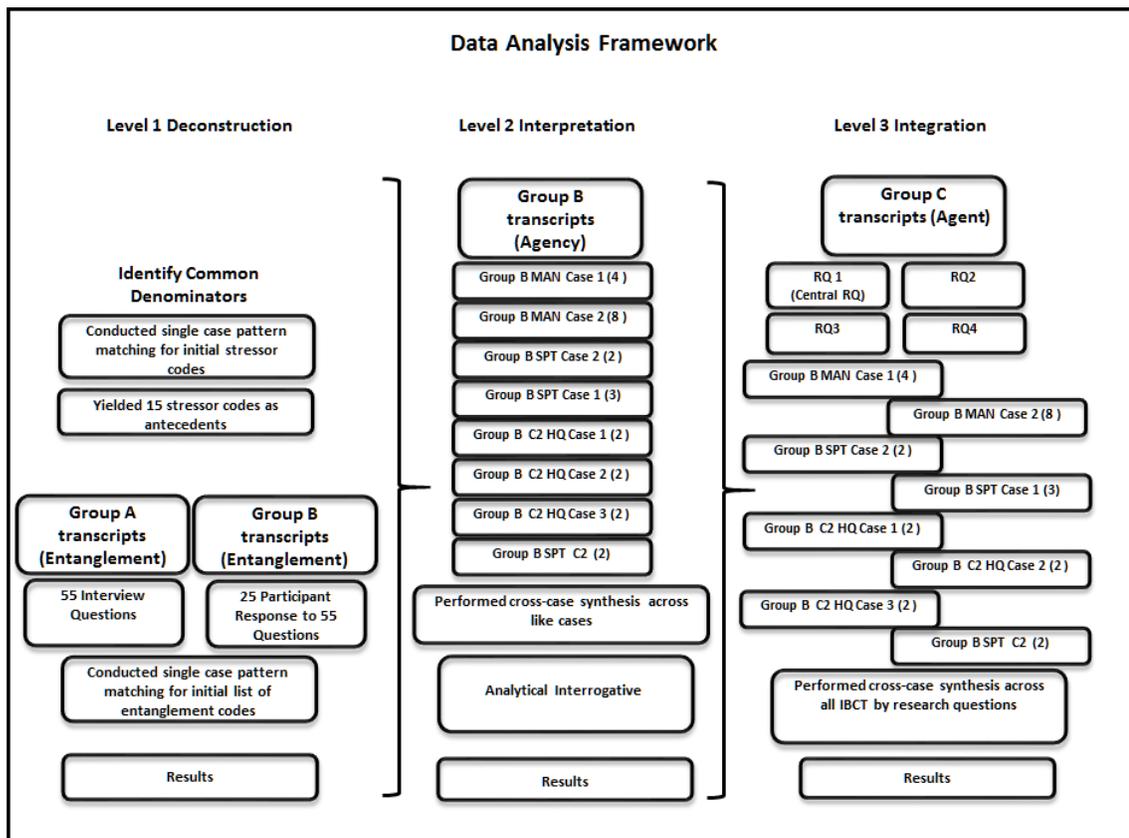
Figure 1. Analytical framework.

Level 1 Deconstruction.

Level 1 deconstruction was a search to decode the data for the informal leadership context in the 33rd IBCT cases. Homans and Merton (1974), Lewin (1997), Uhl-Bien & Marion (2009) identified leadership as an agent who acted in a central role for group or team social behavior by providing meaning. The intent of analysis was twofold. First, there was a deconstruction of the raw data into any action, event, or activity viewed as setting the conditions of leadership and placing the leadership functions in motion. Field Marshall von Moltke famously said, "no plan of operations extends with any certainty beyond the first contact with the main hostile force (Hughes & Bell, 1993). There are certain unknown factors in any leadership context that will place new demands on leadership functions to meet this unknown. The object in this level of analysis is to search for the social scripts that functioned as the antecedent to leadership entanglement. Previous experience as an emic researcher taught me that these antecedent scripts came in many forms and were used to explain the 'what' was happening in the leadership domains in response to our surrounding or events that affected training, organizational, administrative, or contingency operation plan. They occurred typically as aids to help leadership predict how the organization should consistently act when these antecedents reappeared. These antecedent scripts facilitated leadership and catalyzed leadership functions in motion. Therefore, these scripts were the logical start point for level 1 analysis and exploration of the informal leader's role in workplace bullying and toxic leadership.

Einarsen et al. (2011) suggested these antecedent scripts as the critical first step in understanding workplace bullying dynamics. CLT and SE theory also theorized that these social and organizational scripts were essential antecedents to the development of group relationships. Previous CLT research suggested these antecedent actions are the essential components of enabling leader interrelational and integrative processes in entanglement (Uhl-Bien, 2011) and understanding these types of antecedents was one step forward toward workplace bullying interventions (Einarsen et al., 2011).

Central research question results. At level 1 analysis, the central research question yielded a wealth of coded data in 153 common one or two-word codes across 25 transcripts that represented some form or type of action defined as an antecedent. The phased approach provided a differentiation of these codes into either a mediating or ameliorating role wherever the code appeared in the transcript. The first step was to analyze group A and B transcripts for any catalyst that was in any way a cause for the antecedent codes. A reread of each code occurrence for context allowed for the development of a thematic statement describing the situation regarding a problem or negative event that affected the objective end and caused a response. In every interview, the informal leaders referred or used at least one of these stressor events as a catalyst that drove their response. Einarsen et al. (2009) used a similar method with the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R), a psychometric instrument that measures exposure to workplace bullying antecedents or stressors to "tap the direct and indirect aspects of bullying" (p. 27). Identifying these antecedents and served the reasonable and logic purpose to "tap the direct and indirect aspects" of entanglement and have a direct linkage between a leadership function and workplace bullying. The results were a list of 17

stressor codes that represented a lowest common denominator of problems or negative events across all the interviews and cases. Table 8 listed these17 antecedent stressors.

Table 8

Antecedent Stressor Codes

Antecedent stressor code	Antecedent stressor code
Lack of information	Wrong information
Changes to the schedule	Poor relationships
Changes in mission	Forced collaboration
Lack of supplies	Deliberate inaction
Poor communication	Aggressive behavior
Synchronization between training elements	Poor time management
Inquiries or questions	Feedback
Demands for clarity	

Sub-question 1 results. The purpose of sub-question 1 at level 1 analysis was to analyze the data for any style of basic leadership scripts the informal leader displayed that acted to guide their initial response to the antecedents reported in the central research question results. There were established relationships between leadership scripts and workplace bullying where scripts of the leader such as passive or involved and concerned influenced the health of the organization (Gholamzadeh & Khazeneh, 2012). Also, there are strong correlations reported between the implementation of leadership scripts in the work environment and workplace bullying outcomes, for example, laissez-faire scripts are a leading cause of bullying in the office (Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010). The U.S. Army reported that a failure in the leadership script related to the development of others especially the junior ranks was a major threat to positive leadership outcomes in the 2013 CASAL survey (Riley, Hatfield, Freeman, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2014).

The role of the leadership script was an essential element to leadership bonding within the sub-unit regular members. As previously stated in Chapter 1, relationships matter, building relationships matters most (Vane & Toguchi, 2010) for the U.S. Army squad. As a script of interplay or interconnection between a leadership script and a leadership outcome, a search for patterns in the transcript group A of virtuous behavior and any indicators of moral identified possible antecedents to building relationships. In the current literature, research demonstrated there were strong correlations between healthy moral identity and ethical leadership and that a poor moral identity leads to relationship conflicts and unethical behaviors (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012). Every informal leader interviewed made some type of reference their moral identity and virtuosity. One hundred and fifty-three codes for indicators of a behavior or morally based action emerged, and after further analysis, these codes produced 42 instances of a behavioral or moral response. Further reduction of these 42 codes produced a theming scheme into a group of the following eight leadership scripts that anchored the informal leader. The informal leader acted in four behavioral patterns and four moral patterns of (a) a belief in balance, (b) a belief in ownership, (c) a belief in involvement, (d) a belief in the organization, (e) a commitment to innovation, (f) a commitment to others, (g) a commitment to quality, (h) a commitment to sustainability. Table 9 listed these leadership scripts.

Table 9

Leadership Scripts

Leadership scripts
a belief in balance

Leadership scripts
a belief in ownership
a belief in involvement
a belief in the organization
a commitment to innovation
a commitment to others
a commitment to quality
a commitment to sustainability

Sub-question 2 results. The aim of analysis for sub-question 2 was to analyze for the bonding context and identify for scripts used by the leadership functions to manipulate the bonding process that led entanglement. Bonding was the catalyst for change, but it is also the point at which paired aggregates of teams forced apart which leads to mission failure (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). The 153 instances of the informal leader antecedent actions in Groups A and B transcripts provided a point to understand and pass along their version of visualization, description, and direction to the squad, team, or section. Additionally, a review of transcript group A provided additional data for discussion about training schedules, operations orders, and drill letters. My experience taught that this type of archival information is used to aggregate for interdependencies and mission accomplishment between the leadership functions and the regular members. After analysis, 40 actions related to an activity of bonding or linking the commander's intent to create an aggregated group response to change appeared. It was noted that this activity to bond created a level of additional stress because it pushed demands for the execution of formal power within the team by the informal leader in response to formal leader's use of formal power to get the mission accomplished. A commonly paraphrased response of their use of power from the informal leader was, "I just told them that this is the way we are going to do it" or "this is how it is done."

Table 10 listed the scripts used to manipulate bonding.

Table 10

Bonding Scripts

Bonding scripts	Bonding scripts
Cautious or careful	Confident
Decisive	Toxic
Hands-on	Cooperative
Empathetic	Accountable
Listens	Adaptive
Pragmatic	Advocate
Open-minded	Ambitious
Accepting	Assertive
Vocal	Flexible
Persuasive	Judgmental
Good natured	Sincere
Active ethos	Self-aware
Caring	Respectful
Collaborative	Impulsive
Self-awareness	Peaceable
Accepted feedback	Inclusive (multiple perspectives)
Negative	Thoughtless
Accepting	Trustworthy
Collaborative	Indiscriminate
Pushes or pulls for clarity, information, and relevance	Risky

Sub-question 3 Results. The aim of analysis of sub-question 3 was to find for scripts that the informal leader used when interruption of enabling conditions occurred due to failures in training and operations or poor performance in the training formula and thereby preventing the enablement of emergence. The U.S. Army uses the formula of task, conditions, and standards to train and measure mission proficiency in U.S. Army units (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d). Formal leader evaluation reports include performance metrics that evaluate their ability to train soldiers and achieve mission; therefore, these leaders can display a range of behavior both ethical and unethical when

training or operational performance is poor. In Chapter 2 poor job performance, poor

training, and poor task management (Salin & Hoel, 2011; Skogstad et al., 2011) act as

individual, social, and organizational dysfunctions that lead to workplace bullying.

One of the key conditions of the enabling function are the interventions used by

the leadership functions to achieve performance success across the range of mission task,

condition, and standard in the form of interdependencies (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009).

Interdependencies are relationship oriented actions that condition emergence not along

the lines of shared goals or needs, but focused on "me" needs and desires (Uhl-Bien and

Marion, 2009). Interventions within the task, condition, standards formula at critical

junctures became a start point to review the data for alternate enabling pockets.

The method used to find intervention script in the transcripts was a review for

failure to meet a task standard of performance, a failure to meet a training or mission

objective, or a failure to implement the formal leader's intent for a given mission,

operation, any task assignment or the context creating any of the stressors in Table 5.

Additionally, analysis of the informal leader intervention responses to stressors of the

mission variables of mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops, time available and civil

considerations (METT-TC) as inputs of change or complexity dynamics demands on the

squad, team, or section provided more data on interventions. Military leaders use METT-

TC mission variables to guide their decision-making processes (United States, 2012).

These variables assist military leaders to develop concepts about their operational

environment as well as develop and frame problems within those environments (United

States, 2016).

The results yielded responses in group A and B transcripts to METT-TC variables for criteria and context related to alternate courses of action, leader interventions to influence poor performance or individual failures of performance and responsibility, and responses to training or tasks that were described as "useless", a "waste of time" or "stupid". Every informal leader described no matter the time in service or rank reported at least one experience matching the criteria or context. Group A transcripts provided data related to criteria and context that described or reported the informal leader's assumption of responsibility for thwarted goals that led or initiated alternate courses of action, addressed poor performance with "on the spot corrections", mentorship or admonishment of a peer, subordinate, and in two cases a superior for alleged failed leadership or influence. A minor discrepancy in higher motivation levels reported by informal leaders appeared in MAN case 1, MAN case 2, and MAN case 3 to re-enable entanglement when training or tasks seemed "useless" or a "waste of time." One of the informal leaders responded with the mantra, "mission first, troops second." The other two examples also reported "mission" as most important.

The data revealed intervention type acts meeting the criteria and context occurred 96 times within the data. A reduction of the redundant occurrences across the transcripts to 15 distinct words or short phrase that represented an intervention script proved useful. The ability of the squad, team, or section to adapt or pivot in response to these dysfunctions was a critical component of their mission command philosophy and mission success in the face of change. A discrepancy in the cases became possible because the mission command philosophy in doctrine and practice conditioned U.S. Army leaders to refocus on shared goals and need to fix poor performance (United States, 2016). This

process varied across MTOE units based on factors of unit climate, ethos, and leadership

style as already stated elsewhere in this study. Second, there is the military mantra of

"mission first, people always" strategy for leadership (nd). Combined all together this

was an accepted meaning for building relationships. The emic researcher role proved

useful to discern when the context was shared either goals or "me" goals. Table 11 listed

the 15 intervention scripts.

Table 11

Intervention scripts

Intervention scripts
Deferred to personal competencies
Disciplinarian
Emphasis on development
Enforcer of standards
Humor
Leadership engagement
Focus on failure
Focus on success
Intervention scripts
Leveraged open door policies
Looked for new talent
Peer engagement
Social hopping
Stern
Technology hopping
Went directly to superiors

Level 2 Interpretation

Level 2 analysis further decoded the data for patterns of a social agent in the form

of a storyline that depicted mechanistic actions or how the informal leader acted as a

response to the scripts identified in level 1 (Braun & Clark, 2006). At this level

interpreted the data provided for comparisons of patterns and categories across transcripts

(Sargeant, 2012). Finally, at this level, it was important to explore for linkages and development of any conceptual underpinnings through queries of the patterns (Hoon, 2013).

   Central research question results. At level 2 analysis, the entanglement process occurred in response to the stressors listed in Table 5. Transcript groups A and B along with the list of stressors and six clustered themes provided the initial data. Six basic themes served to identify for specific normal or an appropriate leadership behavioral responses or reactions in a group setting. Pielstick (2000) identified these six themes as representative of normal and appropriate mediating and ameliorating roles for leadership in a group activity. Each occurrence where the informal leader responded to a stressor was subject to review, and the results were a one or two-word summary description of the text that represented either a normal and appropriate reaction or an abnormal and inappropriate reaction. The emic research role facilitated deciphering the differences in abnormal or inappropriate reactions. The analytical process revealed 53 common one or two-word codes across 25 transcripts as an initial list of entanglement process codes. The emic role served well to facilitate an understanding of appropriate and inappropriate reactions. This emic role further facilitated the coding, which revealed either a mediating or an ameliorating role wherever the code appeared in the transcript. Either for a code to be considered mediating, it satisfied two components. First, the code was an inappropriate response violated any of the attributes or competencies in the LRM. Second, the code was an action that represented a minimal demonstration of the LRM attributes and competencies. Ameliorating codes were those exceeding the LRM or were appropriately aligned with it. This process yielded 18 mediating codes and 35

ameliorating codes that represented a set of individual antecedent appropriate and
inappropriate behavior and character actions the informal leader displayed or used to
entangle when reacting or responding to stressors created by the formal and dynamic
complexity functions. Table 12 listed the mediating entanglement codes and Table 13
listed the ameliorating entanglement codes.

Table 12

Mediating Entanglement Actions

Initial process code	Initial process code	Initial process code
Conveying selfishness	Manipulating the team	Informing
Distracting or deflecting	Lacking clarity	Organizing
Criticizing	Conveying reservation	Delegating
Conveying conceit	Depending or involving rank	Synchronizing
Over controlling	Asserting	Following
Disorganizing	Acted impulsively	
Respecting chain of command		

Table 13

Ameliorating Entanglement Actions

Initial process code	Initial process code
Inspiring	Leading
Motivating	Sharing experiences
Interacting	Emotional intelligence
Receiving	Telling the truth
Giving meaning	Giving back
Sharing ideas	Centering the group
Staying on track	Thinking outside the box
Balancing needs	Included the whole team
Showing good judgment	Digs for deeper meaning
Always positive	Expert
Distributing tasks fairly	Giving back
Problem solver	Listening
Bottom line up front approach	Trusting
Fearless	Believing

(*table continues*)

Initial process code	Initial process code
Explaining the common good	Quick decider
Thinking straight	Unafraid
Leading at the front	Open door
Accepting new information	

Sub-question 1 results. The actions in the central research question directly affected the content and context of sub-question 1. At this level, the purpose of sub-question 1 was to analyze the data for informal leader agentic actions that facilitated or set conditions conducive to leadership entanglement in the environment affected by stressors and antecedents. Given that the interviewed participants described antecedent stressors present in the squad, team, and section-training environment and that these informal leaders verbalized their awareness of these stressors, it was necessary to explore the data for ways they were setting or resetting conditions for relationships to bond through entanglement.

The central research question was a search for the parts of entanglement; this question was a search for the actions that assembled those parts into a recognizable structure. As previously stated in this study, relationships matter, building relationships matters most (Vane & Toguchi, 2010) for the U.S. Army squad. Every individual interviewed made the statement that their self-recognized or self-appointed duty was to ensure the sustainment of working relationships between formal leadership and the demands of the dynamic complexity function for their squad, team, or section. Further, every informal leader interviewed viewed agency and agents whether their own or by others to build or maintain relationships as a principal step toward reducing the negative effects of stressors or antecedents.

In a next step, the Group A transcript provided information specifically targeted at interview data representative of a dynamic action or condition related to the building or enhancing the relationship. Building relationships for mitigating stressors and antecedents of bullying or toxic leadership is an acceptable strategy. Research into school bullying supported building relationships through friendship and empathy and these relationships were significant mitigation agencies in school bullying (Şahin, 2012; Ttofi & Farrington, 2011). In a similar search for data, the question asked, what interplay or interaction was present that was like friendship and empathy and from their responses. This query created a series of 43 words for refinement into an action type statement describing either mediating or ameliorating entanglement statements. The results were a list of 43 actions representing entanglement. Table 14 listed the mediating entanglement statements. Table 15 listed the ameliorating entanglement statements.

Table 14

Mediating Entanglement Statements

Mediating entanglement statement	Mediating entanglement statement
Acted thoughtless	Protected the group from crisis
Aggregated the team	Protected from stifling control
Built the team	Rationalized thinking
Catalyzed or tags individuals	Referred to roles
Collective purpose	Reserved judgment
Compartmentalized solutions	Respected boundaries
Conducted excessive planning	Removed barriers
Created value in self and others	Sensed of one's place (hierarchy)
Deferred to multitasking	Shared identity
Fought complacency	Shifted to coping strategies
Opened too many issues	Sorted out unproductive work
Over supervised	Sought plug and play solutions
Pooled resources	Talked out tough issues
Projects professionalism	Used beliefs in the team
Projected reasonable solutions	Worked around issue without consulting others

Table 15

Ameliorating Entanglement statements

Ameliorating entanglement statement
Anticipated actions
Builds on relationships
Championed ideas
Coordinated unpredictable outcomes
Emotionally aware of team
Facilitated probability
Ameliorating entanglement statement
Managed innovation
Questioned the "what ifs" to identify solutions
Recognized critical needs
Shifted thinking and behavior
Sought plug and play solutions

Sub-question 2 results. The purpose of sub-question 2 was to analyze the data

for a manipulating agentic action in the form of a statement that facilitated, set

conditions, or reduced conditions conducive to leadership bonding in the presence of the

reported stressors and antecedents. At level 2 analysis the analysis explored for any

evidence of the formal leader or complexity dynamics function giving voice to the

informal leader as a manipulative action or event to influence outcomes. This

manipulative action has shown to be a crucial role in determining either ethical or

unethical outcome and acts as an organizing function for other attitudes within the

organization (Hoogervorst, De Cremer, & Van Dijke, 2013).

To further develop the data a review of the 153 initial codes and the stressor codes

from the transcript group A and B was necessary followed with a comparison of these

codes with the 8 leadership scripts from level 1 analysis. The goal was to find evidence of

facilitation based on Hoda, Noble and Marshall, (2010) and Hoda, Noble and Marshall,

(2012) findings for self-organizing by the informal leader. Hoda et al. (2010) identified

six major roles of informal leader facilitation: (a) mentor, (b) coordinator, (c) translator

(d) promoter, (e) champion, and (f) terminator. Thirty-two instances matching the latter

criteria appeared. A crosswalk of these data produced matches between the 153 codes and

the 8 level 1 leadership scripts. The goal was to narrow these matches based on Hoda et

al. (2010) definition of the six roles. Further refinement to meet Hoda et al. resulted in 3

action based functional themes representative of the informal leader activity. These three

actions represented a facilitative voice the informal leader embraced as their own to

affect attitudes and outcomes to bond leadership despite the stressors in the following

ways: (a) create or sustain a self-organizing environment; (b) create or sustain a feedback

rich climate and culture; and (c) create or sustain protection for the culture and climate.

Table 16 listed the three categories of agentic bonding action.

Table 16

Agentic Bonding Actions

Agentic bonding action
Created or sustained a self-organizing environment
Created or sustained a feedback rich climate and culture
Created or sustained protection for the culture and climate

Sub-question 3 results. At this level, there was a need to find indicators of

initiative that arose from the mission command function of decentralized execution. The

initiative is the appropriate condition for leadership re-entanglement and restoration of

the bonding function (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). Initiative related to the

squad, team, or section execution of decentralized operations serves important critical

functions in response to stressors or antecedents, that is, provides timely updates from

complexity dynamics, freedom to concentrate leadership at decisive points, extend the power of leadership across the operational environment, and execute complicated tactical operations at the small unit level (Bissell & Olvera, 2015). The Iraqi army fighting ISIS demonstrated how dysfunctional leadership and failed re-entanglement caused catastrophic failure (Bissell & Olvera, 2015). Since disciplined initiative was a U.S. Army centerpiece to its mission command philosophy and function (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012), it was the primary means observed during the interviews to manage and constantly adapt operations to the ever-changing demands from complexity dynamics. The initiative is also a leadership action designed to staunch the uncontrolled effects of the dynamic complexity function, and in turn, it catalyzes the re-entanglement of the leadership functions by creating the workaround.

At this phase, it was a search for incentive to drive initiative. Transcript group, B, read C provided data to facilitate the understanding of the data for intervention scripts related to socially constructed incentives and the U.S. Army construct of leadership initiative. The question, what would have incentivized the informal leader to take the initiative above that already expected when stressors or antecedents affected outcomes for operations or training served to open the exploration. In a manner, consistent with Bissell and Olvera (2015) use of initiative as a shift at decisive points five themed patterns of re-entanglement based incentive scripts related to shifting away from the dysfunctional stressor or antecedent to a workable solution that would bond leadership emerged. The one common word most often used by all the informal leaders interviewed was "workaround." This "work around" concept used by the informal leader depicted

their reaction and their desire to show initiative was supported by their incentive to intervene when current solutions did not work.

The interviewed informal leaders understood this concept of pivoting or demonstrated initiative to act when the situation required action very well. The institutional and operational use of initiative by all soldiers as a formal social and organizational artifact was fundamental to every training or administrative activity reported by the interviews. Therefore, this pivoting was as natural as it was expected. Pivoting was the one element every informal leader referred to as their first response to any stressors. The use of the phrase, "I took the initiative," underpinned every statement that described actions to re-enable or pivot to an intervention. Table 17 listed the incentives scripts.

Table 17

Incentive Scripts

Initiative scripts
Ability to handle more complex tasks
Responding to concerns
Incentivizing success
Creating intrinsic motivation
Saying something right at the right moment

Level 3 Integration

The goal at this stage was the exploration of the data across the embedded sub-units for evidence as to how the informal leader responded to stressors and functioned as a generalized practice across the cases. Glaser and Laudel (2013) called this development a search for mechanisms that lead to typologies. Knottnerus (1996) called this a ritualized symbolic practice (RSP). Therefore, an RSP as a mechanism within the squad, team, or

section influenced the social structure across the IBCT enterprise that could lead to

typologies. Knottnerus (1996) identified RSP as a form of social behavior or social action

grounded in the social agency and that the social agent used acted as a recognizable

habitual or transmittable function to frame group outcomes socially. Second, RSP is not

static; they are dynamic; therefore, RSP can emerge as a product of altered contexts that

naturally occur in complex adaptive systems (Knottnerus, 2005; Lichtenstein &

Plowman, 2009).

Second to further analyze and develop the data explored group B and C provided

information to understand how the entanglement and bonding actions formed into social

patterns of meaning transmitted socially in the form of an RSP. Examples of RSP

preexisted in the IBCT because of MTOE type of units such as the maneuver unit,

support units, and the headquarters units and in their associated warfighting functions of

maneuver, fires, intelligence, mission command, sustainment, and protection. The U.S.

Army ethos, values, beliefs, leadership attributes and competencies, and esprit de corps

are also examples of a localized RSP, but also as generalized across the organization.

RSP served to frame socially the U.S. Army unit leadership typology and climate in the

embedded sub-units. For example, socially ritualized theory (SRT) stated that intense

type of work focused on specialized processes created unique ritualized symbolic

practices (RSP) (Knottnerus, 1996). Military organizations by nature engage in many

activities both in garrison and in contingency operations that are highly specialized and

dependent upon unique processes. Therefore, SRT predicted very distinguishable RSP

occurring within the IBCT units that were socialized or generalized across the whole

organization. In this study, the bonding and entanglement actions created RSP criteria

and represented reproducible or transmittable actions, for example, the informal leader mediated or ameliorated stressors.

Central research question results. At the IBCT level, the RSP were impacted by demands or variables that emanated from unique IBCT MTOE composition (Hind & Steele, 2012; Boermans, Kamhuis, Delahaij, Korteling & Euwema, 2013). The IBCT MTOE organization possessed a unique OPTEMPO, climate, and unit ethos. Because MTOE represented the differentiation or uniqueness variable of RSP, the OPTEMPO, climate and unit ethos of an infantry unit versus a support unit or a command headquarters unit all placed different demands upon each leadership function. To develop the concept of OPTEMPO a review of transcript group B and C provided the primary data for OPTEMPO, climate, or ethos activity associated with the stressors. The interview data reflected 27 instances across the eight IBCT cases where OPTEMPO, unit climate, and ethos activity drove the need, intensity and the immediacy for entanglement and social agency by the informal leader. These instances such as, "I feel like each, and every player is the cornerstone not necessarily just another brick, but we were a very close-knit team and you have to be in this unit to understand", "The pace never quits we keep driving on", "Grab them, "hey come on man", "we're here", "let's just get it done, let's get it done". "I just say if we don't do this we are not going to get out of here, and I am paid to do it ", "we're working with fewer soldiers but still the same mission", "We're really close, but there is a certain climate we have different from others", and "but more so fostering a positive climate because if you have a negative climate no one wants to do anything" were consistent with Weick (1995) concept of sensemaking, that is, the search for understanding based on the peer's view. Weick (1995) focuses his sensemaking

concept at the group level and as a result, requires a triadic construction to decipher meaning. The concept was consistent with the reviewed literature in Chapter 2 where the triadic agency and agent were seminal to workplace bullying meanings and interventions.

The end results were a consolidation of these instances into three sensemaking actions the informal leader used to: (a) instilled responsibility for sharing of experiences, (b) leveraged intellectual skills to improve the squad, team, or section, and (c) captured and reused past experiences. This activity was consistent with previous CLT work that leadership was a dynamic process comprised of multiple individual behaviors and organizational contexts (Lichenstein & Plowman, 2009). The workplace bullying literature in Chapter 2 of this study described a similar RSP type effect when the triadic agent or witness responded to the events between a perpetrator and victim (Einarsen et al., 2011; Law et al., 2012; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010). This social agency in the form of the witness actions to mediate or ameliorate to a bullying situation led to an RSP of organizationally sanctioned bullying behaviors, for example, hazing (Einarsen et al., 2011). Chapter 5 provided additional discussion and explanation for the meaning of these sensemaking RSP actions. Table 18 listed the three-sensemaking RSP actions.

Table 18

Sensemaking RSP Actions

Sensemaking RSP actions
Rational: Leveraged intellectual skills to improve the squad, team, or section
Reflective: Captured and reused past experiences
Performance: Instilled responsibility for sharing of experiences

Sub-question 1 results. For sub-question 1 level 3 analysis RSP provided a basis to explore for a contingent based on a need to promote, adjudicate, or improve the

condition of a training event or a team process as the informal leader's practical means to circumvent the antecedent stressors. Again, transcript groups B & C provided the data along with the 42 codes of a behavioral or moral response to the stressors in level 2. The primary aim was analysis for indicators of a behavior, organizational conduct, or morally based action with a specific exploration for examples of Kotter (2012) concept that change that represented leadership as opposed to a management response to stressors. The secondary aim was an exploration for CLT actions seen as challenging the traditional leadership change model of top-down and control, planning, and structuralized actions in response to the changes. CLT challenged traditional leadership assumptions of predictable outcomes, logical relationships, and linear cause and effect (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

Comparing each of the 42 codes against each other codes for context-differentiating qualities emerged in the form of 13 differences. Further comparison with Kotter (2012) eight-stage process for adaptive change resulted in the emergence of 13 categories. The Kotter change model was important because it provided a comparable leadership view of change that vision, motivation, and direction drove leadership change. The Kotter model was also consistent with U.S. Army mission command and training philosophies that state adaptive change was driven by vision, direction, description, and motivation. The development of a thematic map was necessary to explore interdependencies. A thematic map emerged identifying these interdependencies among the actions and categories. The end results was a group of six organizationally based themes: (a) belief in balance, (b) belief in ownership, (c) visualized, directed, and described, (d) commitment to sustainability, € commitment to quality, and (f)

commitment to innovation. To reach the goal of finding for actions the themed these six categories served to develop for an action of influence best describing a relationship between complexity dynamics demand production, the formal leadership desire for efficiency and productivity, and the informal leader drive to promote, adjudicate, or improve the environment pressed by stressors. The results yielded the following three adaptive type actions of influence consistent with a ritualized symbolic practice: (a) facilitator, (b) arbitrator, and (c) reformer. Chapter 5 further discussed these three adaptive type actions of influence. Table 19 listed the influence RSP actions.

Table 19

Influence RSP Actions

Influence RSP actions
Facilitate
Arbitrate
Reform

Sub-question 2 results. Sub question 2 served to explore the conditions that manipulated bonding given imposition of stressors into entanglement by the formal and complexity dynamic leadership functions. At level 3 the analysis focused on understanding for organizing functions that linked the stressors, the facilitation actions from level 2, and an amelioration action stronger than the stressors into an enterprise RSP script. Previous experience from training and contingency environments provided a forcing function reliant on or offered as an enterprise-guiding principal. This principal was a necessary catalyst to unify multi-level leaders to lead. Secondly, a reread of transcript groups B and C to explore for an existing RSP demonstrated a linkage existed across three of the eight embedded sub-units. The results from the transcript yielded data

demonstrating the informal leader defaulted consistently to the U.S. Army training

mantra, "Train as you fight, and fight as you trained."

"Train, as you fight", is the U.S. Army's primary guiding principal for all

planning, execution, and assessment of training and operations in both garrison and

contingency environments (United States, 2008). It is also the U.S. Army primary driver

for conceptual learning and learning application; it was the single most important element

to the soldier and team survival (United States, 2008). Therefore, at an integrating level,

RSP as the social agent "train as you fight" corroborated previous emic researcher

experience to unify multi-level leadership and this experience served to interpret the

effectiveness of the manipulation of bonding actions that occurred in the cases. Further

data analysis used the "train as you fight" principal to filter the transcript groups B and C

data and this analysis yielded two organizing agents emergent from the data supporting

the manipulation of bonding: (a) creating team meaning and identity; (b) enforcing

feedback.

The informal leader used the concept of meaning and identity as an entanglement

response to improve performance. Some common phrases that occurred in response to

change demands were:

- "It is about my team, I do it for them," "My team," or "We do things as a
  team."

- "We just get together and solve it, now."

- "There is no I in our team."

Other examples in the transcripts occurred when an informal leader compared squads

among other squads within the case. The informal leader used team identity to foster

competition to drive performance, for example, squad weapons qualification scores or the physical fitness scores, or crew level gunnery scores. Other examples where team meaning and identity were evident and used to drive behavior occurred with references to a warfighting function as better than another, that is, leaders assigned in combat maneuver units held themselves as superior in warfighting skill sets than their sustainment or mission command peers. For example, common phrases in the infantry units were:

- "But I will often ask would you think about this in a different way, and they are usually pretty receptive with that. I think the team prefers speaking out because they think like other infantry guys."

- "It is just a light infantry company, I felt like we really are dialed in and we knew our jobs our equipment better than other units."

- "They love doing the infantry things that we do."

One informal leader captured this team identifies best with the following:

"The intelligence collectors are useless without the signal guys, and you know that HUMIT (human intelligence) guys are useless without the support units. We all play a certain part, so we realize, and we recognize that, and we attempt not to be clique-heavy. I have been in units where if you are not whatever this or a Bradley mechanic there then you are nobody and in my previous MOS (military occupational specialty) as a mechanic; this was huge. There were many cliques between MOSs'. There was much segregation based on MOS or based many different skill things. Actually, within this unit again all those cogs mesh because they have to do it."

Prvious emic role experience suggested that an example of a clique based on skill sets existed and this type of unit was a common experience. It was acceptable across the enterprise and in some cases a source of great pride. Informal leaders assigned to the maneuver and fires warfighting function expressed they were tougher and better trained in their individual, team, and unit level tasks. Across the cases, some informal leaders self-identified as better skilled in the 33rd IBCT organization than those like units in another IBCT organization did. The self-identity was an example of the contribution of unit climate and unit ethos imparted on meaning and identity. Team identity and meaning characterized by exploiting pride in one's skill sets and unit served an important esprit de corps function, but uncontrolled, experience showed it could place unachievable demands on soldier performance.

Enforcing feedback from the RSP of "train as you fight" was the one action informal leaders reported most obliged and most passionate to perform. There were 63 references to the use of feedback in the transcripts, and they distributed equally across all eight embedded sub-units. Every participant made at least one reference in preference for feedback and the majority made at least 2. Some examples are the following:

- "I will put my two cents in and give my expectations I am always in contact to give and get feedback."

- "I know I can go to him and get good feedback."

- "There's usually immediate and direct feedback on how to fix things we do not really have a problem with it when things are being done poorly."

- "People are more open to communicating anger more than any other emotion, and we were more apt to discuss anger because our feedback is passionate."

Table 20 listed the organizing agents.

Table 20

Organizing Agents

Organizing agents
Referring to team meaning and identity
Enforcing feedback

Sub-question 3 results. Level 3 analysis for sub-question 3 explored the data for that showed that the informal leader's organizing function could theme to a temporal focus. At level 3 analysis, group B and C transcripts provided data to explore for a synchronization action that acted or affected the incentivization and intervention scripts, that is, time. The awareness of time and temporal models have long been critical components to military operations (Thunholm, 2005; Neustadt, 2011). Time was an essential component to military operations and decision-making. Time served to systematically understand and control a response to chaos (Thunholm, 2005). The concept of time, therefore, becomes a critical prescriptive to mitigating defects from the stressors that lead to breakdowns in sound decision-making (Thunholm, 2005; Neustadt, 2011).

In the transcripts, the informal leader made frequent statements reference to time and about the limited time available to accomplish everything listed on a schedule or expected to occur in a training weekend or a specialized mission. For example, a time element was associated with synchronization 204 times across all the transcript data, and

the concept of a gatekeeper occurred 96 times within the transcript data. These two

themes together a co-occurred 21 times across all the eight IBCT embedded sub-units.

The informal leader systematically synchronized or organized their actions in a temporal

model to critical times and needs of the squad, section, or team. A common phrase was,

"I only have a weekend to get it all done" and "we are shorthanded." The typical informal

leader had just 16 hours of available training time for any given Saturday to Sunday

weekend training assembly. Some training assemblies were 20 hours long. This occurred

with four hours on Friday night followed by 16 hours for the remainder of the weekend,

but this was the exception. A second exception involved the four informal leaders who

were AGR and worked in a full-time status on call 24/7 and 365 days a year. The four

AGR individuals one each in MAN case 1, C2 HQ case 4, SPT Case 1, C2 HQ case 1,

and SPT case 2 did not represent discrepant data, but rather they provided more data

related to time due to their constant and consistent exposure to the entanglement and

bonding processes in the squad, team, or section. This temporality served to direct effects

on perceptions of team performance. The informal leader's skillful management of

stressors with three RSP temporal related functions, that is, created this perception of

managing the stressors through time.

The emergent pattern generated a concurrent pattern that the informal leader was

sensitive to time all the while organizing or synchronizing a "workaround" to re-entangle.

Three broad cyclic temporal themes emerged from the organizing function in sub-

question 2: (a) a preemptive action, one that occurred from examples before the training

where the informal leader created and enforced accountability, feedback, and leadership

actions; (b) a proactive action, one that occurred from examples during the training where

the informal leader actively sought information and leadership gaps to fill by opening

feedback and leadership accountability loops; and (c) a postscript action, one that

occurred from examples after the training event bound the informal leaders where the

informal leader used resiliency to close feedback and leadership loops. Chapter 5

provided further discussion about the nature of this temporal model and its incorporation

into the concept of organizing. Table 21 listed the three temporal themes.

Table 21

Temporal Themes

Temporal themes
Preemptive action
Proactive action
Postscript action

Summary

In this chapter, a substantive and robust analysis of this qualitative single case

study with embedded sub-units explored and analyzed the nature of the informal leader

response to mediate or ameliorate mission variables and personal stressors the formal and

complexity dynamics leadership function imposed on the squad, team, or section. A

purposeful sampling of 25 soldiers across eight cases or company size U.S. Army IBCT

units participated in this study. Chapter 3 provided a plan for data collection procedures

used in Chapter 4. Chapter 4 described the specific aspects of setting, demographics, and

the data collection relevant to the study. All the data collected in this study were coded,

patterned for themes, categorized and cross-synthesized into thematic relationships, and

notations made for discrepant cases. The study research questions focused on the

informal leader's multi capacitive role for entanglement and bonding under the impact of stressors on the squad, team, or section military and leadership capacities.

Level 1 analysis was predicated on identification of stressors the informal leader experienced in their unique position and role within the squad, team, or section. These stressors emerged as events that catalyzed a disruption in the social and organizational bonds of leadership and catalyzed a response to entangle, bond and re-enable entanglement. The stressor identification led to a level 2 analysis identification of entanglement scripts as responses to the stressors in the form of mediating or ameliorating entanglement actions. These entanglement actions if ritualized by mediation scripts or antecedents within the squad, team, or section may lead to workplace bullying or toxic leadership results. However, if remediated by amelioration scripts or antecedents within the squad, section, or team workplace bullying and toxic leadership may not occur. When the informal leader executed these scripts, they demonstrated a mediating or ameliorating preference for their action. Level 3 analysis identified three-time related domains the informal leader used to re-entangle when entanglement became dysfunctional. These time domains were represented across the IBCT enterprise and represented common actions to ensure the entanglement process functioned throughout the IBCT. These responses as a social agency and social agentic actions can be either ritualized or diritualized to improve or threaten entanglement and bonding of leadership in a U.S. Army Infantry Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) squad, team, or section.

Chapter 5 discussed the findings in more detail to explain the context of bonding as influenced by the content of entanglement. The findings yielded a deeper understanding of how the informal leader represents a significant agency mediate or

ameliorate entanglement and bonding in the squad, section, and team. In this capacity, the

informal leader demonstrated a larger organizational capacity to facilitate the leadership

function in the IBCT team without alienating either the formal or the adaptive function.

These findings offered an example of the informal leader role in either mediating or

ameliorating the impacts of workplace bullying or toxic leadership.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this qualitative single case study with embedded sub-units focused on the gaps in both the U.S. Army's doctrinal leadership and CLT entanglement model to understand how the informal leader mediates workplace bullying in a U.S. Army unit. Both the U.S. Army and CLT leadership models had gaps for an explanation of the actions needed to unleash the enabling or informal leader function to mediate the stressors that could lead to workplace bullying and other disastrous human and organizational consequences.

Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to explore for these proposed scripts operating in a U.S. Army small unit to fill in the literature gap that suggested U.S. Army small units substituted normal and ethical leadership functions with workplace bullying and toxic leadership. A secondary aim was to identify how the informal leader responded to these stressors using CLT entanglement and bonding to support innovative change thereby mediating or ameliorating theses stressors to avoid workplace bullying and toxic leadership outcomes such as insubordination, lack of integrity in the command, sexual assaults, mutiny, fratricide, and suicide. Finally, a tertiary aim was an exploration of the informal leader's use of specialized scripts to influence complexity dynamics without the formal power of leadership while not disrupting the normal hierarchical leadership functions. The study met its purpose and aimed with findings that the informal leaders employ four major scripts to mediate or ameliorate stressors in the unit.

This chapter consisted of five key sections that included the interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for capitalization on the informal leader scripts, implications for social change and policy recommendations, and a

conclusion. As previously noted in Chapter 2, Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) identified the enabling function as critical to leadership bonding and called their actions "suppressed" (p. 644) scripts in the organization. Einarsen et al. (2011) also suggested a placeholder within the workplace bullying framework for unknown mediating agencies. The results outlined in Chapter 4 of this study confirmed these theoretical concepts about the informal leader function.

Interpretation of Findings

The regular members depended on the informal leader engagement and their power of resilience. In this study, informal leaders used their engagement skills and resilience in a unique manner that held the formal and complexity leadership functions accountable throughout the planning, execution, and assessment of squad, team, or section operations. Although stressors emerged for analysis in all the embedded sub-units throughout their training and operational cycles, the informal leaders' ability to hold the other leadership functions accountable through a respectful inhibition was evident at a wholesale level in the IBCT. The regular members and the other CLT leadership functions were not limited to just one informal leader. If one informal leader's efforts were unsatisfactory, there were others within the unit to further associate, facilitate, arbitrate, or reform. Although each informal leader occupied a unique social space with a social field of view, rarely was an informal leader working outside this space. Despite this social boundary, there were no lone wolf types found in any of the cases. Each informal leader worked as a collective social group. There was one discrepant case where an informal leader was purposefully usurping formal leadership authority because of a perceived failure of the formal leader. In this one case, the informal leader's actions

represented a form of workplace bullying and toxic leadership. This single incident did not affect the data or the unit because there were other informal leaders within this case who operated within the established social norm and boundaries.

Respectful inhibition was the entanglement and bonding function script this study sought to explain the informal leader actions that reduced the impact of poor workplace behavior. The key findings that emerged from this study were a set of four core scripts that demonstrated the informal leader mediated or ameliorated not at a content level but a process level. At the process level, their entanglement and bonding focused on a set of social processes as opposed to the content level where the focus of formal and complexity leadership functions was on a single discipline of task or tasks accomplishment, for example, core individual task proficiency and mission essential task proficiency. This dependability and resilience by the informal leader to influence the individual, organizational, and social, affective zones rather than the cognitive zones with these scripts to achieve mission success was a far-ranging finding for the impact and reach of the informal leader. This outcome was consistent with other research that portrayed that adaptive change was driven by individual, social, and organizational behavioral changes (Kotter, 2012; Morris & Shashkin, 1976; Schutz, 1994; Senge, 2006). The primary findings from this research yielded a set of four unique scripts organized as two leadership attributes (sensemaking and conscience) and two leadership competencies (cocreation and organizing). The informal leader used these following four scripts to mediate and ameliorate for stressors in the squad, team, or section:

- Sensemaking script: The informal leader is a central actor in sensemaking during periods of stress and uncertainty.

- Conscience script: The informal leader acted to synchronize the development and sustainment of leadership conscience within the squad, team, or section.

- Organizing script: The informal leader exemplified the amplitude and aptitude of the intermediary by organizing a capacity of leadership through synchronized change in the squad, team, or section.

- Cocreation script: The informal leader acted as a cocreator within the squad, team, or section by synchronizing entanglement and re-entanglement across multiple domains of skill, time, and process.

The arrangement of Chapter 5 included the interpretation of the findings, the relationship of the findings to each research question, and the relationship between the findings of general workplace bullying, social theory, and leadership scholarship.

Research Question

The central RQ for this study was:

RQ: How does the informal leader engage the entanglement process to mediate or ameliorate enabling conditions and bonding processes in the U.S. Army squad or section?

Sensemaking script. One of the challenges facing the U.S. Army leadership asks the question, why formal leaders carry out unethical conduct when so many resources are made available to prevent it (Ulmer, 2012). In today's global environment, the dynamic nature of change may be hitting leadership's cognitive limitations (Thiel, Bagdasarov, Harkrider, Johnson &, Mumford, 2012). Given that, there were stressors present that disrupted or had the capacity to disrupt the squad, team, or section performance; other research showed there was a demand from the team on leadership for some form of

sensemaking (Morgeson et al., 2011). The principal goal of the central research question was to understand what environmental complexities were occurring within the squad, team, or section that the informal leader was experiencing or leveraging to rationalize their efforts to bond the leadership functions within their cognitive limitations. This central question was an exploration for the "what" was mediating or ameliorating the stressors in a manner that satisfied the team's needs as complexity was approaching leadership limitations.

The informal leader was taking structured and ill-structured inputs (stressors) and reflecting these inputs back to peers and leadership a more ordered understanding. Collectively, these all met a script that Weick et al. (2005) termed a retrospective "consensually constructed, coordinated system of action" (p. 409). Weick (1988; 1995), Weick, Sutcliffe, and Obstfeld (2005), and Sonnenshien (2007) also labeled this as the concept of sensemaking. This concept of sensemaking emerged in the analysis in the form of a script of informal leaders' sensemaking role for recognizing the stressors and taking rationalized but consensual actions within the squad, team, or section to make sense of them as the first step to entanglement. Therefore, sensemaking in the IBCT was a rational reaction to make sense of the stressors and give meaning to them for decision-making purposes and was consistent with Morgeson et al., (2011). Some examples of the sensemaking responses emerged from the informal leader quotes listed in the following statements:

- "I am the gatekeeper . . . I gate-keep anything that is important."
- "I have a handle on the team's pulse."

- "They expect me to understand it, and I am going to make sure they understand it."

- "I disseminate a lot from the top down, so as I get information, I relate it to my peers as quick as possible."

- "I am a little older and have a little more life experience, so I can help my soldiers understand."

- "I put together an email that's very descriptive and very detailed about the information pushed out in the training schedule."

- "I have a little bit more knowledge than about some stuff, so I push it out."

- "I think it is more about my role as a gatekeeper than about a management tool."

Sensemaking is the task leadership takes to organize the thinking processes as a first step toward understanding a crisis and being ethical in the response (Boin and Renaud, 2013; Weick, 1988). Sensemaking is a preferred perspective to make sense of ethical dilemmas created by complexity (Thiel et al., 2012). The organizational literature previously identified sensemaking as a principal social agent to achieve emergent change in other organizational change models (Burke, 2011; Schein, 2010). Boin and Renaud (2013) both called sensemaking the leadership first responder in acts of crisis providing key stability to the team. Therefore, as a first responder in leadership, a sensemaking role seemed an important and justifiable informal leader script.

Sub-question 1

The following sub-question is first:

SQ1: How does the informal leader create enabling conditions between administrative or adaptive contexts to support entanglement?

Conscience script. Green (1987) asks, "[B]y which virtue turns into vice and care is changed to neglect?" This question of moral perspective is the fulcrum for the sensemaking script in the central research question, and its answer lies in the purposes of making sense. Bass and Bass (2009) suggested that the leadership discourse for this question centered on the analysis of the moral agent and analysis on their actions, for example, leadership conscience. Orrung, Jakobsson, and Edberg (2013) suggested that negative personal and organizational outcomes occurred from the strains of wanting to do well but unable to do it, that is, strains of conscience.

Both Simmel (1969) and Mead (1963) proposed that conscience as a form of self-awareness was essential to a social agency's healthy orientation to the larger group and that any social agent resulting from this self-conscience awareness is the means of creating a positive culture (Ritzer and Goodman, 2004). Collectively level 1 through 3 findings demonstrated the informal leader exhibited a consciousness of a moral obligation to inspire or advance meaning to mission accomplishment. This action supports Pielstick (2000) findings that informal leaders are more likely to "include a moral and inspiring purpose, provide for the common good, and create meaning" (p. 111) over their formal counterparts. By acting as a sensemaking agent, the informal leader acted as information gatekeeper and as a consequently exercised a vast level of control over information movement within the squad, team, or section. Under a strain of

conscience, they used this control to advance mission purpose and create or perpetuate levels of squad conscience across the team.

The concept of a U.S. Army leadership conscience is not wholly new. The emergent concept of conscience is already present and embedded in the U.S. Army Leadership *Field Manual (FM) 6-22 Leader Development* (Department of the U.S. Army, 2015). However, it is on a closer examination in Chapter 3 of FM 6-22 framed this concept of conscience principally around a formal leader's self-serving role. This U.S Army doctrinal role of conscience in FM 6-22 centers on formal leader development and the development of self, made up of self-assessment, self-awareness, and personal responsibility with the implication that this leads to readiness and selection to serve in positions of greater responsibility. The leadership development focus was not on conscience as a component of leadership but was on a self-awareness aimed at bettering competencies and attributes leading to a better individual leader. In part this conscience is an element of the U.S. Army leadership concept developing others or more formally leader development (Riley et al., 2014).

This concept of leadership conscience aligned with Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) in their description of the adaptive and enabling function agentic behaviors of "storytelling" (p. 639) and "patterning of attention" (p. 640). The implication from their study is that bonding is conceived under the strain of conscience by connecting the past, present, and future to guide adaptation. The informal leader in their self-assumed role of subject matter expert and enforcer of lessons learned fit conveniently in this CLT role of storyteller and attention magnate. These informal leaders clearly viewed their role as the organization's conscience.

This data demonstrated that the informal leader operated in the mode Einarsen et al. (2011) suggested to positively influence bullying and stressors in the form of the "organizational inhibitor" (p. 30). Einarsen et al. (2011) presented a strong and reasonable argument that this third dimension or this inhibitor was envisioned as a "propensity" (p.30) and "responsive set of patterns" (p.30) and those strategies for change would be the result of improved or new capacities. By the same argument, Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) made a similar case in the CLT model that understanding the "suppressed" (p. 644) scripts of the enabling function were as much and more about the conscience of entanglement as opposed to an attribute or competency of it. This conscience was tied to specific antecedent spheres of activity where the informal leader focused their social capital and authenticity to entangle when given a stressor within the squad, team, or section. This type of activity is similar to previous research of Merat & Bo (2013, p.5) where leadership was conceptualized as a composition of domains of conscience rather than an amplitude of influence.

Sub-question 2

The second research sub-question was as follows:

SQ2: How does the formal and adaptive leader manipulate the bonding process through social entanglement?

Organizing script. Sub question 2 was less about the success of either the formal leader or complexity dynamics to achieve their aims, but more deeply focused on the manipulation process used in entanglement to bond the two opposing dyads of leadership at the mesolevel. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) hypothesized that interdependent actions were used, but at this level with the additional stressor of formal power imbalances, for

example, the actions of the informal leader. This organizing action represented the informal leader's exploitation of the bonding role under the train as you fight umbrella. These were events where informal leader actions reconciled actions of squad, team, and section with attempted synchronization of skills interdependencies to respond to these stressor antecedents and demands. In this action, the informal leader organized team meaning and identity to team performance. Team meaning and identity have also been identified as organizational elements that directly impacted workplace bullying (Hauge et al., 2009; Hoel et al., 2010; Hoel et al., 2011; Salin & Hoel, 2011) and toxic leadership (Steele, 2011b). According to Lisak and Erez (2009), this impact originated because a team member's social identity and desire for affiliation in the team affected their emotional state and drove behavior.

As part of the organizing function, understanding for the tools and agency informal leaders used to mitigate or rebalance formal power was intrinsic to the organizing script. Formal power imbalances lead to group dissolution and disruptions of teams and are a primary antecedent and contributor to workplace bullying and toxic leadership (Heider, 1958; Hummon & Doreian, 2003; Situngkir & Khanafiah, 2004). For example, in the literature review, CASAL studies reported formal leaders using toxic leadership to impose their formal power (Steele, 2011b). This study's literature review identified a collective set of actions related to use of formal power as social scripts (Einarsen et al., 2011; Heider, 1958; Simmel, 1971). The literature further identified these scripts as critical social gateways used in entanglement or response to bullying and rebalancing the group (Einarsen et al., 2011; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009).

This organizing script represented the type of socially constructed mechanism strong enough to move the informal leader toward engagement of other specific scripts. In SE theory, conflict is another such script strong enough to force an organized action and thereby affect the nature of other scripts (Simmel, 1971; Smith & Lewis, 2011). In leadership theory, feedback acted in a similar capacity (U.S Department of the Army, 2015). It is strong enough to facilitate learning by interpreting meaning to reestablish the locus of control from the antecedent back to the individual, team, or organization.

Feedback as an action of the organizing script previously existed in all the cases based on the application of the tenets of U.S. Army leadership (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015) that are intrinsic to U.S. Army organizations; therefore, its presence as a manipulating action was expected. Its use by the informal leader was unexpected. Although the informal leader is not formally exposed to leadership tenets in their military career until attendance at professional military education (PME) Field Manual 6-22 states that feedback already exists in a variety of ritualized symbolic practices such as coaching, mentoring, and performance monitoring. In this study, the primary feedback RSP occurred through coaching, mentoring, and the after-action review (a form of performance monitoring). The use of feedback is also an indicator of trust (Chen & Bruda, 2010; Carless, 2012; U.S. Department of the Army, 2015) and this can be other evidence of the organizing script.

Just as in this study Smith and Lewis (2011) found this organizing function emerged in complex systems as a response to demands for reconciliation between forces of collaboration and forces of competition, for example, or the forces of formal leadership and those of complexity dynamics to meet the mission. In another study, the

organizational leadership function used organizing scripts to structure the climate and culture to meet mission (Day, Griffin, & Louw, 2014). Zhang et al. (2012) found that when an organizing function was present, it was specifically associated with the emergence and activity of the informal leader within the team. This study's finding of an organizing activity present in the squad, team, and section was consistent with previous research.

Sub-question 3

The third research sub-question was as follows:

SQ3: How does the informal leader create alternate enabling pockets when regular entanglement is dysfunctional during periods of duress or stressors?

Co-creation script. This ability to co-create alternate intervention pockets of entanglement was a key tenet of the CLT model (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009) and was a theorized intervention strategy for improving social relationships (Heider, 1958). Pielstick (2000) and Uhl-Bien (2011) suggested the informal leader created means and ways to entangle between the demands of formal and complexity dynamics during bonding dysfunctions to keep innovation moving through the leadership functions and achieve emergent change. This ability to react to threats was well understood in business organizations who use leadership capacity to drive business and to address threats to their competitiveness (Weiss & Molinaro, 2005). It was also well understood in the armed forces where creativity was used in response to unforeseen circumstances and threats (Training and Doctrine Command, 2014; U.S. Department of the Army, 2005). The business community also identifies a leadership co-creativity and its development as

essential to meeting the challenges and stressors created by change (Weiss & Molinaro, 2005).

The business community previously recognized this cocreation concept as a process to bring customers and management together to solve for mutually shared interests without threatening power balances (Prahalad, & Ramaswamy, 2004). In the LRM and the U.S. Army leadership doctrine, this concept was closely related to an older concept of shared leadership (Lindsay, Day, & Halpin, 2011). The end state for both was the same, a disciplined initiative to meet the demands of formal and complexity leadership functions. However, the term shared leadership was rescinded in U.S. Army leadership doctrine. It was replaced with a general concept of "shared" in its many forms, for example, understanding, expectations, assumptions, information, values, experiences, attitudes, goals, practices, effort, trust, and mutual respect (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012). The concept of "shared" did not resonate or arise as a theme from the data. The lack of this emergent data can not be blamed for any lack of reconciliation between the doctrinal revision or threats from concepts of shared leadership with formal leadership (Lindsay et al., 2011). In fact, the older definition of shared leadership did resonate in the data in the form of a "shared" right or responsibility to create change when needed.

Before the publication of *ADRP 6-22 Army Leadership* in 2012, the concept of shared leadership was based on the 2006 publication of *FM 6-22 Army Leadership* and defined it as a process of sharing authority and responsibility for planning, execution, and decision-making. The contrast between the two was important enough to warrant a change due to conflicts between official policy and operational practice. This difference did not imply a disrespect for formal leadership, but rather a circumvention. It was in this

concept of a right to circumvent that the concept of cocreation emerged. Disrespect of the

chain of command was not evident or recorded. Every informal leader made consistent

reference to their respect, understanding, and support for the chain of command.

However, the informal leader made consistent reference to their sense of accountability

and responsibility and their right to influence to create leadership capacity and actions to

operate along any of Lindsay et al. (2011) axis of control. For Lindsay et al. this

cocreation was "leadership in teams from the leadership of teams" (p. 528). Similarly, the

U.S. Army vested this accountability and responsibility component as the formally

appointed leader (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c).

Lindsay et al. (2011) found the ability to move along any given power axis

(horizontally or vertically) anywhere within group meant that formal and informal power

could pass transparently from one member to another in a dynamic manner without

threatening either. The recognition of this power axis did not sidestep or minimize the

intent or dynamic of influence in the squad. Instead, this cocreation amplified influence

and the "shared" concept by sensemaking of the one barrier that impedes full emergence,

the intent of the commander or formal leader (Dempsey & Chavous, 2013; Flynn &

Schrankel, 2013; Lemay, Leblanc, & De Jesus, 2015). This controlling measure provided

by the informal leader increased the capacity in the IBCT for the full enablement of

disciplined initiative and mission command orders overall.

The ability of the informal leader to use a cocreation script in response to stressors

offered a much broader and strategic application of power in the unit than disciplined

initiative. The concept of disciplined initiative is an authorized action or prerogative to

act in the absence of orders when existing orders no longer frame the situation or when

unforeseen opportunities or threat arise (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c; U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d). The concept of disciplined initiative requires a formal order to act, but in cocreation, the informal leader needed no such order to act just broad guidelines.

Two prominent social agents that emerged and drove this cocreation concept was the informal leader recognition that one was a gatekeeper of actions through time and the ability to recognize shift or pivot at the opportune time when tension from stressors threatened current performance or task accomplishment or the demand for the achievement of a future state. The informal leader sensemaking script and these agents were the criteria used to filter other data that led to a cocreation script. The filtering occurred with their identification or recognition that the stressor demanded a knowledge or skills gatekeeper, that is, a subject matter expert, and secondly, the informal leader's recognition and sensitivity to the operational variable of time. In other studies, this organizing capacity within the team was as a key to long-term sustainability and top performance in teams (Hoda et al., 2012; Smith & Lewis, 2011). It is this responsiveness or gatekeeping conforming to a temporal cycle that presented the measurable way to ameliorate a dysfunction such as poor performance or poor communication. Informal leaders stated that immediacy was key to their bonding between the command and the constant changes placing demands on existing plans. Informal leaders saw themselves as the principal subject matter expert and gatekeeper to the unit knowledge repository.

The cyclic temporal pattern and the capacity to pivot in response to time resulted from a specific action or activity where the informal leader interceded to correct a training problem or close critical gaps in understanding or knowledge of training task or

mission. Morgenson et al. (2011) also found this concept of a temporal model as essential to understanding and interpreting team performance cycles and was a hallmark of effective team participation.

Collectively, the common word to describe this temporal and pivot function was 'workaround''. The concept of the workaround informal leaders used was not an act of desperation, but an act by the informal leader to think in bigger terms or systems thinking in order solve a problem or current dysfunction within the squad or section. During the interviews, informal leaders discussed their experiences when entanglement was dysfunctional in the squad or section because of a total lack of information, communication breakdowns, lack of updated information for training events, and events of individual or team poor task performance. In all these experiences, the informal leader maintained and provided key linkages between formal and complexity dynamic leadership functions and regular members. They did this by leveraging self-awareness as a subject matter expert for task and performance, an information gatekeeper or node, and a spontaneous desire to forge new entanglement relationships under the stress of immediacy or time.

Finally, the informal leader used the co-creation script to demonstrate their temporal understanding by synchronizing their actions along three temporal axis, a preemptive axis, a prescriptive axis, and a postscript axis. Under the demands of stressor antecedents, the informal leader enabled or re-enabled entanglement. The re-enabling process facilitated the movement of innovation in the form of adaptive change through the leadership functions and re-entangled the formal and complexity dynamics function

as predicted by CLT (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2006; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, 2011).

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations influence the study that is typical of a single case study with embedded sub-units design. However, regarding trustworthiness, this study maintained trustworthiness as discussed in Chapters 1, 3, and 4. These typical examples included the small number of cases examined, the limited number of informal leaders, the limits imposed by on qualitative data analysis and generalization (, 2013; Yin, 2014). The number of cases was limited to those within a single U.S. Army IBCT. Additionally, the geographical dispersion of the IBCT units within the Illinois ARNG limited timely access to a larger data pool.

A major limitation of the study was the lack of "hard" archival data in the form of copies of training schedules, after action review notes, and unit policy memoranda. These did not emerge as planned in Chapter 3. This limitation was in part due to the lack of consistent record keeping by the units, a lack of access to the information by the participants at the unit level, and the government's desire to protect controlled unclassified information or CUI. In the limitation of access due to security all, the requested documentation had a handling instruction of "For Official Use Only" (FOUO). Given the lengthy requirements for freedom of information access (FOIA) or that the unit's CUI was exempt from release under FOIA exemptions two through nine (Halstuk & Chamberlin, 2006). Therefore, attempts to secure hard copy CUI documents was not feasible. In all cases where hard copy archival data was unavailable or inaccessible, the informal leader oral history substituted to provide information about organizational

policies and practices. Emic researcher experience and the participant understanding to respond without violating CUI contributed to no known violations of CUI policy and procedure. This overall strategy did not threaten trustworthiness so long as the methodological strategies and the emic role were already explicit for this study (Thompson, 2000; Haynes, 2010; Leavy, 2011; Yin, 2014). Chapter 3 of this study outlined a set of methodological strategies and the emic researcher role that satisfy explicitness.

The deciphering between a mediating and ameliorating stressors proved a challenge given the absence of mission failure in any of the cases. Some individual or organizational failure is a leading antecedent to workplace bullying events (Einarsen et al., 2011). In an environment characterized by a single measure, mission first, soldiers always; measuring any impact of these stressors leading to workplace bullying was not possible given the lack of reported mission failure. Mission success in the U.S. Army is the true measure of leadership (Thiel et al., 2012). At the end of the day, if the mission is accomplished, how leadership accomplished it becomes a secondary issue so long as the process of influence did not lead to catastrophic results. From experience deconstructing the U.S. Army definition of leadership as an outcome of a process of influence into its negative and positive components is rarely done except for formal investigations of events that led to the loss of life, equipment, or unit cohesion and performance. Therefore, the lack of actual events of formal investigations, for example, bullying situations, to compare against cases and the lack of comparative data to demonstrate the application of the four scripts in a truly hostile work environment posed a threat to the study's trustworthiness and generalization of the findings.

Another limitation was the command climate or the organization self-sensing which is unique to each single case of the IBCT. Each commander and formally appointed leader established a unique command relationship with subordinates based on their implementation of U.S. Army policies, doctrine, tactics, regulations, and tradition. While the cases shared a common culture, doctrine, leadership definition, tactics, regulation, and tradition the agents and agency may not necessarily generalize across all the cases in the same way due to variations in command climate. Because command climates vary based on the local unit, this presented a limitation understanding the general development and use of the informal leader of the IBCT organization. Experience as an emic researcher mitigated for this limitation to discern the impacts and nature of command climate on the data.

A final limitation was the self-observation by most informal leaders that experience gained from contingency operations, for example, actual combat experience, was more highly desirable. Most informal leaders had limited contingency or combat related operational experience as opposed to non-contingency or the typical garrison-training environment. In the non-contingency environment or the training environment, the demands for change and adaptation may not have the same force of urgency or finality as they do in combat or contingency environment. This expression of self-awareness contradicted a prima facie U.S. Army tenet of "train as you fight." The lack of urgency was an unexamined contradiction or phenomenon explored more deeply. Many informal leaders expressed that their present actions as an informal leader would be better informed and likely different with contingency or combat operations in their background. The experience of combat was confirmed in part in the notable difference in the

responses of the several individuals who reported recent combat-related experience. In these informal leaders with combat-related experience, their reported timing as for when to pivot from an arbiter, facilitator, or reformer was notably shorter than those who did not have this experience. They spent reported less time in arbitration mode and quickly moved to a reformer role and remained more often in this latter role in the unit. Cross-synthesis and triangulation of the data and use of the emic researcher role mitigated for this limitation.

The informal leader functioned as an inhibitor to workplace bullying and utilized a specific or unique set of scripts when acting as such in the non-combatant or non-contingency environment. However, the data analysis did not reflect or demonstrate how this role of the informal leader changed under stress in an actual operational or contingency operations environment. The confidences required to perform under the demands of threatening operations may introduce a set of conditions not present in the current study or non-threatening environment. In the threatening environment, autonomy and initiative are preferred over managerial or administrative skills (Yeakey, 2002).

Recommendations

This study led to the identification of four major scripts informal leaders actively used to mediate or ameliorate stressors that threatened mission accomplishment and normal and ethical leadership functions. This study also confirmed the U.S. Army informal leader functioned with distinct self-awareness and a clear set of attributes and competencies. The analysis and the findings also indicated there is one area of informal leadership that justifies additional study beyond the scope of this study. This area is the exploration for an instrument to measure the level of activity for the entanglement and

bonding scripts in the presence of the antecedent stressors as a relationship to the quality or performance impact of the informal leader on organizational outcomes.

The study occurred during a period of great transition for the IBCT and its leadership. The members of the IBCT had recently returned from the deployed and wartime service at just over one year before this study. Although two-thirds of the participants did not have wartime service the effects of such service on the mid-level and senior leadership from their service was evident in the training focus and the command climate. To support the U.S. Army during change a large amount of data in behavioral domains and at social levels offer the opportunity to create future instruments designed to measure leadership functions and organizational leadership climate. This collective data offered an excellent baseline to create future instruments to measure the impacts of informal leadership from stressor codes as behavior outcomes in a similar methodology Einarsen et al. (2009) accomplished with the NAQ-R. Second, the entanglement scripts and bonding action scripts offer a set of data to validate aspects of organizational change models such as the Burke-Litwin (Burke, 2011, p. 214.

From the emic researcher role, a sensing of the warrior ethos pervaded the substance of every interview. The warrior ethos was essential to prepare, train, and lead soldiers into combat, but this is only one side of the two-sided coin of leading. A near decade-long war in both Iraq and Afghanistan generated a different type of leader than those in the garrison-based Army of the Cold War and post-Cold War periods (Morath et al., 2011). Secondly, this transition period in the past was characterized by misunderstood strains on soldiers and their families as they came to grips with PTSD, traumatic brain injuries, and wounded warriors (Laurence, 2011; Morath et al., 2011). A follow-on focus

for research interest should involve the role of informal leadership as an agent of resilience in the unit and a moderator of individual stress across both soldier and soldier families in the garrison-based force. Informal leaders in this study demonstrated the ability to mediate and ameliorate stressor antecedents affecting team performance. This capacity underscores the importance, significance, and importance any employment of informal leaders for resilience and anti-bullying programs will have to improve overall U.S. Army leadership capabilities.

Implications

This study revealed the significance of the role the informal leader contributed to the IBCT squad and section operations and the U.S. Army's leadership requirements model. The informal leader presented a prescriptive agent to stressor antecedents commonly associated with workplace bullying and toxic leadership. The findings of this study contributed additional understanding to our knowledge base of how informal leader functioned under stress to enable the bonding between the formal leader's vision and intent with the demands of change emergent in the complex environment. This section discusses how organizations can use the informal leader to create positive social change.

The study demonstrated that entanglement occurred at the meso level previously researched by Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) and that entanglement acted in a recursive process SE theory suggested within the social exchange domain. This recursion within complexity leadership and social exchange manifested itself in forms of knowledge, information, and conflict management. The actions at the meso level that catalyzed the relationships between formal or the bureaucratic leader and complexity's adaptive or dynamic leadership function forced a meeting engagement to the demands of change as

predicted by previous research (Giddens, 1984; Giddens, 1991; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). The actions highlighted the informal leaders' roles to negotiate the bonding process without threatening the unit command climate. In the literature review, conflict and conflict roles influenced leadership styles (Notelaers, De Witte, & Einarsen, 2010). Specifically, in this study, stressors represented a response to forms of conflict between formal and the adaptive leadership functions over squad or section operations. These influenced informal leaders' styles as evidenced by the emergence of the four major scripts.

The informal leader used existing conflict within the team to justify their actions to intercede and used the need for power as confirmation of their role to entangle. As result of the relationship of conflict and leadership or the leadership process, the enabling or informal leader operated within the social framework of conflict and power to bond leadership agents through entanglement. The informal leader demonstrated their mastery as a master negotiator of the conflict or stressors within the squad or section.

Impact of Social Change

The purpose of this study was to explore for the behavioral, social, and organizational scripts informal leaders used to entangle the formal and complexity dynamics function while mediating or ameliorating for stressors in a U.S. Army IBCT squad, team, or section. Discovery of these four scripts offered an additional benefit to the U.S. Army's IBCT leadership function. It does so by identifying two additional attributes, sensemaking and conscience, and two additional competencies, co-creation, and organizing. The study showed these scripts were being used to limit the negative impact of stressors during administrative and training periods, and the informal leader

used the stressors as an opportunity to create or improve the squad, team, or section

performance and capacity.

The U.S. Army change model for winning in a complex world is dependent upon

successful entanglement for the bonding between its leadership functions if the U.S.

Army is to achieve the demands of the complex environment. The emergence of these

internal interactive bonding dynamics of entanglement in their form of scripts explained

in part how informal leaders mediate or ameliorate workplace bullying. These scripts are

not typically suppressed in a U.S. Army organization as suggested by Uhl-Bien and

Marion (2009). Instead, these are the necessary engagement of administrative and

adaptive leadership in the change process.

However, the informal leader occupied a more prominent role in this study and

demonstrated a form of corporate social responsibility by purposely intervening into the

lives of soldiers and training with one single purpose, the good of all. While an ethos and

values-based system dominate in the U.S. Army leadership, there is no explanation or fix

within the leadership domain for social and financial damage formal leadership has

caused. In the U.S. Army from 2012 through first quarter 2015, 923 U.S. Army soldiers

including U.S. Army Reserve and U.S. Army National Guard died by suicide (Franklin,

2015). From 2003 through 2014 the U.S. Army has relieved from command 129

battalion, and brigade commanders and 98 and the U.S. Army has administered non-

judicial punishment (Article 15) to 1472 officers since 2008 (Tan, 2015). It has

conducted courts-martial of 41 lieutenant colonels and higher to include two flag officers

since 2009 (Tan, 2015). These suicides above should be cost enough (Reed & Olsen,

2010; Zwerdling, 2014), but in financial terms, these costs are likely like those of the

private sector. In the private sector, bad leadership costs more than half of all their human potential, a 10 percent loss in productivity, 7 percent of total annual sales, and as much as 32 per cent of voluntary turnover (Spence, 2015).

In this study, the informal leader demonstrated their social significance as mediator or ameliorator of the stressors or antecedents in the organization. The social impact of the U.S. Army organizations and leadership model is the recognition of an existing agent and agency readily available and capable of diffusing, suppressing, or eliminating the negative social effects of workplace bullying or toxic leadership. In Chapter 2 of this study, the literature continually demonstrated a social shortfall to understand a way ahead eliminating bullying environments through the typical dyadic approach of perpetrator and victim or the formal leader and the led. The emergence of a triadic agent in the form of the complexity-enabling leader significantly expands the resource options to apply toward eliminating bullying and toxic leadership environments without creating demands for additional social and financial resources; informal leaders are already present in the organization's teams and groups. Instead, these social agents need further activation and a fuller utilization to make a greater difference. Finally, the implications for social change include U.S. Army policy options to expand the use of informal leaders to reduce the negative effects of toxic leadership, improve morale, facilitate greater soldier resilience, improve soldier family readiness, and suicide prevention.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

The results from this study consistently showed that all the informal leaders held their role as a sacred trust and that this role whether recognized by formal leadership

influenced the outcomes within the squad, team, and section. Both Einarsen et al. (2011) and Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) in their research expected this agent to be impactful and the workplace bullying research suggested a triadic model was adequate to explain the full dimension of the mediation or amelioration during bullying episodes. Additionally, the U.S. Army possess a significant capability by the sheer numbers of assigned personnel occupying an informal leadership role. To realize the full application of the U.S. Army leadership construct of influence the following recommendations served the interest of this study:

- The U.S. Army seek changes to USC Title X legislation to modify archetypical leadership (10 U.S.C. §§ 101 to 2926) to include authorities for other leadership forms.

- Assign all informal leaders as master resiliency trainers.

Despite the recognition of informal leadership by the U.S. Army, the challenge and barrier to changing the U.S. Army concept of leadership are the leadership stovepipe of formal or positional leadership. These recommendations offer a social and policy tool for U.S. Army policy makers to improve soldier and unit readiness for operations through the usage of informal leader actions.

Change the law. This stovepipe within the law and further refined in Army Regulation 600-20 *Army Command Policy* (United States, 2014) permits the formal leader to delegate certain positional power and authorities but prohibits the delegation of a formal leaders' responsibilities. While the U.S. Army doctrinal definition of leadership centers on the process of influence (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c) the concept of U.S. Army leadership historically and presently rests in a formal position, authority, and

responsibility of the Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) archetypical bureaucratic leader. The findings of this study demonstrated the informal leader already freely operates and employs implied delegated authorities and invokes implied positional power. It follows that changes in the law should be explored to grant more formal authorities at the regulatory level.

In practice granting the informal leader additional authorities presents the same opportunities and advantages to the U.S. Arm as did the recognition of the U.S Army Warrant Officer (WO) Corps for formal commissioning and the authorities in the Department of Defense Authorization Act of 1986 (Civic Impulse, 2017). On a policy basis, the rationale for the act was to equalize the status of a U.S. Army WO to those WO's in the sea services, which were previously functioning as formally commissioned officers. The practical basis, however, was the rationale of additional command authorities without the need to request additional workforce from policy makers. The impact was the addition of commissioned officers from those already in the ranks to exercise command authority and to administer the oath of enlistment (Civic Impulse, 2017). This act for the WO was a model of efficiency that further expanded and defined leadership to shape and improve the organization without breaking the organization.

Second, the U.S. Army challenged and upended conventional leadership practices by moving leadership above the tactical and operational levels into the strategic level with the publication of Training and Doctrine Command Pamphlet (TP) 525-2-1, *The U.S. Army Operating Concept (AOC): Win in a Complex World* (Training and Doctrine Command, 2015). With this change, the emphasis for commanders and all formal leaders was profound because it created an entirely new class of strategic leader with a demand

for leaders to visualize, describe, direct, lead, and assess at the strategic level. In practice, such a demand challenges the cognitive limitations of formal leaders. Decentralizing some of the command administrative and accounting responsibilities to the informal leader could reduce the cognitive load on the formal leader.

Master resilience trainer. An informal leader is a leadership tool that can contribute to the U.S. Army's efforts to reduce the cumulative stresses of combat and contingency operations on soldiers and their families. The informal leader is the ideal candidate for the selection as a master resilience trainer (MRT) in the Comprehensive Soldier and Family Fitness (CSF2) program. Currently, the U.S. Army selection criteria for MRT are limited to NCOs in leadership positions and grades E-6 through E-8, Warrant Officer WO-1 to CW-4, and commissioned grades O-1 to O-4 (Casey Jr., 2011; Reivich, Seligman, & McBride, 2011; U.S. Department of the Army, 2014a). The informal leader occupies a unique position to be the Resilience Training Assistant (RTA) if MRT training allocations are low. The findings of this study support both Einarsen et al. (2011) and Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) propositions and assertions for a modality of influence in the form of an aptitude or conscience that can link what the U.S. Army expects of a leader and how that leader should perform. The MRT and RTA are capabilities positioned currently as modalities of influence and aptitude within the ranks. The use of the informal leader to support and augment these capabilities is one more way to extend resiliency enterprise-wide, open other paths to assisting soldier family readiness, strengthen formal leadership, and facilitate the success of change and adaptation to the complex environment.

Finally, in one aspect the study offered supporting evidence to Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) supposition that enabling leadership possessed unique scripts and these functioned at a meso level, but this agency previously remained elusive. The second significance was an application of Einarsen et al. (2011) suggestion that an agentic function previously existed within the organization to mediate or ameliorate the effects of workplace bullying, but remained unidentified. By identifying the informal leader as this agent and as having an agentic function in the form of four unique scripts suggests organizations can target organizational and leadership development plans to increase their informal leadership capacities and find opportunities to create RSP for the four scripts.

Conclusion

The U.S. Army is changing its organization and leadership functions in response to the demands of complexity and uncertainty (Training and Doctrine Command, 2015). The U.S. Army is required to change in a resource challenged environment being asked to do more with less continually. Added to this new dimension is the transition from a deployed/combat force to a garrison-based Army. In this new environment, the U.S. Army's greatest resource remains the soldier and its capstone capability to protect the soldier is its leadership. However, leaders and leadership in the U.S. Army face multi-level challenges and those in the U.S. Army National Guard face even greater challenges due to limits in training, the citizen-soldier, and assembly time. The premise for this study held that understanding informal leader scripts as a distinctive set of agency and agent were the essential first step toward effective engagement of the stressor antecedents that lead to workplace bullying and toxic leadership.

The search for this distinction was driven in part to identify a set of enabling scripts Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) asserted were suppressed by organizations which ultimately leads to the potential irrelevance of the informal leader. This study's findings of four distinct informal or enabling leader scripts was a critical validation of Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) CLT meso model since this formed one of the two theoretical frameworks for this study. The purpose of this study was to place the informal leader as a distinctive triadic member and a key partner in a social exchange process of the soldier and the soldier's life. The informal leader proved a distinct contributor to other social conflict models such as Thomas-Kilmann Conflict (Thomas, 1974) and FIRO (Schutz, 1994; 1998).

The significance of the findings meant that given a set of disparate antecedents, originating across multiple training, organizational and occupational levels the informal leader actions or collective capacity organized, modeled, and in turn became ritualized symbolic practice for the unit. This study offered the beginning of a modeled collection of actions unique to the informal leader. Further recommendations warrant expanded exploration to observe the informal leader acting in the conciliatory or authentic role Hannah et al. (2011) identified for the military leader to address the current stressors, but also the unforeseen stressors yet to come. Within this context, the study confirmed previous scholarship that the informal leaders enabled or positioned themselves as a change agent and a modifier for the realities of conflict originating from the other leadership function relationships (Marion, 2013). The study confirmed the U.S. Army definition of a leader was accurately descriptive with the concepts of influence and improvement. Hannah et al. stated that ethical leaders are the catalyst for change. This

study expanded Hannah et al. demonstrating informal leaders were both organizationally practical for production outputs and informal leaders were socially practical for modifying workforce climate and behavior.

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Appendix A: Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

Walden University's Institutional Review Board approval number for this study is 10-23-15-0133773.

Appendix B: Research Ethics & Compliance Officer, Army Human Research Protections

Office Approval

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY OFFICE OF THE SURGEON GENERAL 7700 ARLINGTON BOULEVARD FALLS CHURCH, VA 22042 REPLY TO ATTENTION OF

DASG-HRPO 23 December 2015
MEMORANDUM FOR Keith L. White, 100 Washington Avenue South, Minneapolis, MD 55401,
SUBJECT: Research Protections Administrative Review (RPAR)
Protocol/Title: Understanding How the Army's Informal Leader Mediates Workplace Bullying
Principal Investigator: Keith L. White
Protocol Number: 10-23-15-0133773

1. Review Outcomes
The Army Human Research Protections Office (AHRPO) RPAR of the above referenced protocol is complete. RPAR review is required to ensure Department of Defense (DOD) supported research involving human subjects is compliant with the DODI 3216.02. DOD supports human subjects' research by providing some of the resources including but not limited to funding, facilities, equipment, personnel, access to or information about DOD personnel for recruitment, or identifiable data or specimens from living individuals). DOD is supporting the above referenced activity by providing access to DOD personal for recruitment.

2. Requirements
Substantive Changes to the Protocol: The AHRPO must review and accept the IRB's determination when substantive modifications are made to this research protocol, and any modifications that could potentially increase risk to subjects, before the changes are implemented to ensure compliance with the DODI 3216.02. Substantive modifications include a change in principal investigator, change or addition of an institution, elimination or alteration of the consent process, change to the study population that has regulatory implications (e.g., adding children, adding active duty population, etc.), significant change in study design (i.e., would prompt additional scientific review), or a change that could increase risks to subjects.

Continuing Review: The AHRPO must ensure an appropriate continuing review occurred within the required timeframe. Submit communication from the IRB regarding any lapse in IRB approval.

Study Closure: The AHRPO should be informed of the date and reason for study closure (i.e., study completed, insufficient enrollment to sustain the research, etc.). The AHRPO must receive the final study report submitted to the IRB, including a copy of any acknowledgement documentation and any supporting documents, as soon as all documents become available.

DASG-HRPO SUBJECT: Research Protections Administrative Review (RPAR) Review Protocol Number: 10-23-15-0133773
2

Notification: The investigator should immediately notify the AHRPO of the occurrence of any of the following:

- When the IRB used to review, and approve the research changes to a different IRB;
- The knowledge of any pending compliance inspection/visit by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), Office for Human Research Protections, or other government agency concerning this research; the issuance of inspection reports, FDA Form 483, warning letters, or actions taken by any regulatory agencies including legal or medical actions;
- Suspension or termination of this research study by the IRB, the institution, the sponsor, or regulatory agency;
- Confirmed unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others related to this research study; and
- Confirmed serious or continuing noncompliance related to this research study.

3. Caution

Do not construe this as IRB approval, DOD Institutional approval, or other DOD support agreement. This review confirms the above reference project is compliant with the requirements identified in the DODI 3216.02 only.

4. Point of Contact

The AHRPO Research Ethics and Compliance Officer for and POC for technical questions regarding this report, is Ms. Sandy Hyde, at 703-681-8782 or Sandra.l.hyde5.civ@mail.mil.

Sandra L. Hyde

Appendix C: ILARNG Command Approval

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY AND AIR FORCE
ILLINOIS ARMY AND AIR NATIONAL GUARD
1301 N. MACARTHUR BOULEVARD
SPRINGFIELD IL 62702-2317

October 8, 2015
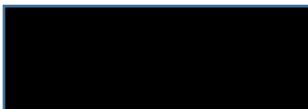
Dear Mr. White:

I have reviewed your proposal to conduct research involving 33rd BCT personnel in partial fulfillment of your Ph.D., as outlined in your draft Memorandum of Cooperation that you sent me.

As I would for any similarly situated individual, I grant you permission to have access to 33rd BCT personnel at unit armories, such as an unused classroom, for this purpose with the following restrictions:

1. Your activities will have no impact on individual or collective training.

2. Your access to Soldiers is limited to their off-duty time, i.e., before, after or between (lunch) unit training assemblies.

3. You will not have access to or use any government resources, i.e., phones, copy machines, etc., in this project.

4. All Soldier participation will be strictly voluntary.

5. You will not state or imply that your activities or research is endorsed by the Department of the Army or the Illinois National Guard.

6. You will share your findings in advance of publishing.

I reserve the right to further restrict or withdraw your access as needed in the best interests of the Illinois National Guard.

Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions.

Sincerely,
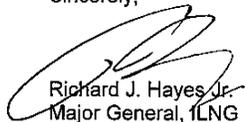
Richard J. Hayes Jr.
Major General, ILNG
The Adjutant General

September 9, 2015

Subject: Request for Approval to Conduct Research of Members in the 33rd IBCT, Illinois Army National Guard (IL ARNG)

Dear Major General Hayes,

My name is Keith White, a Ph.D. candidate attending Walden University. I am requesting your approval through a memorandum of cooperation allowing me to conduct a qualitative case study research of the informal leader's mediating and ameliorating role within the 33rd IBCT. There are significant gaps in the military and scholarly literature articulating this leader's role; this research seeks to improve the U.S. Army's, and the scholarly understanding of the informal leader.

I selected the 33rd IBCT because its structure and mission represent the team and organizational environment where the U.S. Army informal leader would likely be present, active, and observable and my previous positive experiences with the organization and its leadership while assigned to the 35th Infantry Division Headquarters as the G3 Sergeant Major, Chief Operations NCO.

I appreciate your careful consideration of my request and look forward to working with your staff advancing our understanding of the informal leader. I have enclosed an Executive Summary to assist that further outlines the research intent, timeline and methodology parameters, and protocols and a proposed Memorandum of Cooperation. I want to thank-you in advance for your consideration and assistance with this request. I can be reached at 816-654-5084 or email.

Keith L White
Ph.D. Candidate
Walden University

Enclosures:
Executive Summary with Appendices
Memorandum of Cooperation

Appendix D: Semi-structured Interview Questions and Probes

Researcher Capture Demographics:

Gender: Male   Female   Transgendered
Military Bearing: Excellent,   Average   Poor
General Appearance:
(Meets Army Standards/does not meet Army Standards)
General Affect (non-psychometrically measured):
Excited, *alert*, *determined upset*, *guilty*, and *jittery, positive or negative mood appeared motivated or unmotivated, facial expressions showed anger, sadness, happiness, or glee. Used right or left hand gesturing during interviews.*

Guiding Definitions:
***Workplace Bullying**. It is the repeated act of bullying actions and practices that are directed at co-workers, superiors, or subordinate victims occurring within the workplace or within the context of a working relationship. Workplace bullying is characterized as a negative activity or action of exchange in antecedents using behavioral and organizational scripts between two actors or more.*
***Toxic leadership**. It is a form of workplace bullying more focused on the quality or scale of quality as in the form of a dose rate. A collection of destructive or negative leadership actions associated with a nature of quality and amount that similarly destroys an individual or an organization the same way that workplace bullying can do.*
***Informal Leader**. "In contrast to the designated leadership role in teams, informal leader emergence occurs when a member achieves influence over other team members regarding direction, motivation, and task behavior."(Zhang et al., 2012, p. 50)*
***Organizational Bullying**:*
Organizational bullying is the institutionalization or agent/agency shift of the workplace bullying discourse and outcomes into the collective functions and culture of the organization and its culture. Key descriptors: organizational boundary issues, culture, camaraderie, morale, ethics, training.
Psychological Bullying:
Psychological bullying is defined as those negative behaviors that threaten, thwart, or damage a fundamental psychological or physiological need. Listen for key descriptors: no control or lack of control, flat affect attachment disorder (to friends and the unit), anxiety, and individual boundary issues.

The interview questions are matrixed to the thematic codebook in Appendix F.
Central Research Question:
How does the informal leader engage the entanglement process to mediate or ameliorate enabling conditions and bonding processes in the U.S. Army squad or section?

Sub-questions:
1. How does the informal leader create enabling conditions between administrative or adaptive contexts to support entanglement?

2. How does the formal and adaptive leader manipulate the bonding process through social entanglement?
3. How does the informal leader create alternate enabling pockets when regular entanglement is dysfunctional during periods of duress or stressors?

Semi-structured Interview Questions and Probes

1. (RQ1, RQ2) What techniques do you use to control information sharing within the team? (COMMUNICATION)
   Probe: Hubbing (connecting with others)
   Probe: Gatekeeper (moving information between hubs)
   Probe: Pulse taker (influencing how other members perceive or understand the information)
2. (RQ1) How do you learn and understand the "heartbeat or pulse" within the team? (COMMUNICATION)
   Probe: What ways do you express your interest in making the unit better?
   Probe: When does it feel strongest? Weakest?
3. (RQ1) Tell me how you make your opinion heard, e.g., stand up, speak out, and actively listen in with your peers? (COMMUNICATION)
   Probe: Which quality is most often seen?
   Probe: Which quality do you prefer?
   Probe: Which quality do you believe your team peers prefer?
   Probe: With your superiors?
   Probe: Which quality do you believe your superior prefers?
4. (RQ1) How do you view yourself in the team? (COMMUNITY)
   Probe: How do you conduct yourself during training, meetings, "down time" or off duty?
5. (RQ1) Tell me what you believe how others see you? (COMMUNITY)
6. (RQ1) How do you motivate or mobilize yourself to perform a mission or a task? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNICATION)
   Probe: How do you demonstrate your motivation?
7. (RQ1, RQ2) Tell me what motivates your peers to perform a mission or a task? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNICATION)
   Probe: How is that done?
8. (RQ1) How do you make things run more smoothly or more efficiently in the team during a mission? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNICATION)
9. (RQ1) Tell me about some of the key phrases or clichés you use in the team? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNICATION)
   During on-spot corrections?
   During operations and mission?
   During routine tasks such as a "police call" or cleaning?
   When reporting information to a superior?
10. (RQ2) What are some of the key phrases or clichés your peers use that are different? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNICATION)
    During on-spot corrections?
    During operations and mission?

During routine tasks such as a "police call" or cleaning?
When reporting information to a superior?

11. (RQ1) How do you build trust among your peers?
(RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE)

12. (RQ2, RQ3) How do you want your superior and peers to build trust with you?
(RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE)

13. (RQ3, RQ4) When a superior ignores or downplays your input what do you do?
(RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION)

14. (RQ2, RQ4) When a peer or peers ignore or downplay your input what do you do? (RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION)

15. (RQ4) Tell me what you would do also if you truly believe your information will save or protect life and equipment when others ignore you?
(GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION)
Probe: With your superior
Probe: With your team peers

16. (RQ2, RQ4) How do you communicate this information or input with your peers when your superior ignores or downplays it?
(GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION)

17. (RQ1) How do you give your input, understanding, or assessment during a mission or task event? (Not during the AAR)
(GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION)

18. (RQ2, RQ3, RQ4) Tell me how you communicate with your superior and/or your team peers under the stresses of failure or when events are not achieving their fullest fulfillment? (GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY)
Probe: What phrases or words do you recall using or hearing as feedback?

19. (RQ2, RQ4) Tell me about your observations and actions among your peers in this situation that works or doesn't work to overcome the failure points or poor performance? (GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY)
Probe: What phrases or words can you recall?

20. (RQ1, RQ2) Tell me how you communicate between you and your peers when the team is working well together and you enjoy your work.
(GUIDANCE/COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY)
Probe: What phrases or words can you recall?

21. (RQ1, RQ2) Tell me how you generate commitment and keep going among your peers? (SHARED VISION/CHARACTER//COMMUNICATION/RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE/COMMUNITY)

22. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) Tell me how the team initiates attitudes of respect. How do you keep it alive and ongoing? (SHARED VISION/CHARACTER//COMMUNICATION/RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE/COMMUNITY)

23. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) Tell me about your experience confiding in your peers and leaders about personal issues? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION)

24. (RQ1, RQ4) Tell me about the processes of communicating negative feelings and frustrations about the mission, your assignment, superiors, peers, among your peers? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION)

25. (RQ2, RQ3) How do you discuss job-specific issues or problems? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION)

26. (RQ2, RQ3) With whom do you discuss job-specific issues or problems? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION)

27. (RQ1, RQ2) Which theme do you see as most important among your peers? (CHARACTER)
> Good Leadership
> Fostering a positive climate
> Achieving results
> Preparing oneself
> Demonstrating one's own knowledge
> Enforcing standards and discipline

28. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3, RQ4) What situations or events do you see this theme most often displayed? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY)

29. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) When enforcing standards and discipline which action do you view as most important? (CHARACTER/GUIDANCE)
> Positive leadership behaviors
> Enforcement of existing standards
> Engagement and involvement among peers
> Having more individuals with higher rank in the team as opposed to a higher level of lower ranking individuals in the team
> Professionalism and maturity
> Counseling, corrective action, and on-the-spot corrections
> Esprit de corps and high morale
> Accountability for one's actions

30. (RQ1, RQ4) Which action do you associate with poor discipline and standards? (CHARACTER/GUIDANCE)
> Lack of experience
> Inappropriate relationships (e.g., wanting to be friends, individual making efforts to noticed by superiors)
> Lack of attention paid to peers or superiors
> Acting inappropriately on purpose (e.g., purposely ignoring or violating a standing order or instructions)

31. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) Which characteristic of leadership development do you view as most important and why? (GUIDNACE/COMMUNICATION)
> Operational experience (e.g., deployments, real world experience)
> Self-development (e.g., college, additional training on one's own time)
> Institutional education (e.g., Army schools)
> Development of your peers
> Outside organization experience (e.g., skills learned or gained from civilian sector)

32. (RQ1, RQ4) How do you reduce your stress or emotional pressures in the team during mission or task assignment? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE)
33. (RQ1, RQ4) How do you assist peers in handling their stress or emotional pressures? (RELATIONSHIPS/COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE)
34. (RQ1) How do you engage and work with others? (COMMUNICATION/CHARACTER/SHARED VISIONS)
35. (RQ2) How do your peers teach you? (e.g., observation, collaboration, feedback) (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION)
36. (RQ1, RQ3) How do your superiors teach you? (e.g., shadowing, observing, feedback) (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION)
37. (RQ1, RQ2) How do you influence peers to do something? (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
38. (RQ1, RQ2) How do your peers influence you to do something? (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
39. (RQ1) How do you influence others outside your team to do something? (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
40. (RQ1) What skills have you observed outsiders use to influence you or your peers? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY)
41. (RQ1, RQ2) How do you put the needs of the unit and mission ahead of your needs or your peer's needs? (SHARED VISION/COMMUNITY/COMMUNICATION)
42. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) What do you see as important toward developing good working relationships? (RELATIONSHIPS/GUIDANCE)
43. (RQ1, RQ2) How do you engage your peers to perform the mission or assignments when you feel it is a waste of time or an unproductive task? (COMMUNICATION/SHARED VISION)
44. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) What are some of the characteristics or events that you employ to head in the right direction? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
45. (RQ1, RQ4) What do you do when you feel things are headed in the wrong direction? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
46. (RQ3, RQ4) What do you do when you see leaders or peers focus on the wrong priorities? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
47. (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3, RQ4) How do you demonstrate resilience? (CHARACTER/COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE)
    Probe: How do your peers handle you to be resilient?
48. (RQ1, RQ4) How do you contribute to a zero-defect mentality or requirement? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE)
    Probe: How do your peers interact with you when there is a zero-defects mentality or requirement?
    Probe: How does your superior interact with you when there is a zero-defects mentality or requirement?

49. (RQ1, RQ4) How do you communicate a good idea? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP)
50. (RQ2) How do you inform your peers of a decision or event that may affect their mission or task assignment? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION)
51. (RQ3) How do you inform a superior of a peer's actions that may affect a decision or event-affecting mission or task assignment? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION)
52. (RQ1, RQ2) How do you apply what you have learned within your team? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION)
   Probe: Of these what is the most effective item that helps with your learning?
   Probe: Of these what is the most effective item that helps with your peer's learning?
53. (RQ4) How do you identify an actual root cause as opposed to using the quick fix? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION)
54. (RQ4) How do you decide what is more important, the root cause or the quick fix? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION)
   Probe: How do you communicate this to your peers?
   Probe: How do you communicate this to your superior?

55. (RQ4) How do you handle stress from the mission or task workload? (COMMUNICATION/GUIDANCE/RELATIONSHIP/SHARED VISION/CHARACTER)
   Probe: How do your peers handle your stress?
   Probe: What efforts or actions do you take to balance the mission or task workload with your stress?

Note: These research questions were adapted from "*2011 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Main Findings"* by Riley, R., Conrad, T., Hatfield, J., Keller-Glaze, H., & Fallesen, J. J.,2012; "*2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Volume 2, Main Findings* by Riley, R., Hatfield, J., Nicely, K., Keller-Glaze, H., & Steele, J. P., 2011; *2012 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Main Findings* by Riley, R., Hatfield, J., Paddock, A., & Fallesen, J. J., 2013; *2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Volume 1, Executive Summary* (No. TR-2011-1-VOL-1)" by Steele, J. P. 2011; "*Antecedents and consequences of toxic leadership in the U.S. army: A two year review and recommended solutions.* (Technical No. 2011-3)" by Steele, J. P., 2011; and from "*Formal vs. Informal Leading: A Comparative Analysis*" by C. Dean Pielstick, 2000.

Appendix E: Sample E-mail/Letter for Participant Notification

To: "Potential Participant."

Your name and email were provided to me by "Command/Organization/Point of Contact" as a nominee participant in a case study research designed to explore and understand how the informal leader can model leadership behaviors while mediating workplace bullying or toxic leadership in an Infantry Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) squad or section. Although you were nominated, your participation is voluntary and if you agree you may opt out at any time.

However, I strongly encourage your full participation in this research because your knowledge of squad and team leadership and their activities is both welcome and vital to the study's success. The information and data collected from this study are designed to inform U.S. Army leadership outcomes and improve the quality of leadership across all domains within the U.S. Army and Army National Guard.

The need for this study came from gaps in the literature about informal leaders and their roles in workplace bullying or toxic leadership at the squad level. Recent Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) surveys identifies toxic leadership (a.k.a. workplace bullying) as a very real and potentially crippling activity occurring across the U.S. Army to include the Army National Guard (ARNG). I believe that the informal leader is key to understanding and dealing with this problem. As a retiree of 30 years of Active Guard Reserve (AGR) service in the ARNG, I believe the CASAL surveys have identified a very real and pressing problem that needs this study's attention.

All the information you provide is confidential and will not be shared with anyone within your unit, the entire chain of command or any others in the private sector. Please email me at the following email address to let me know whether you agree to participate.

Once I receive your response, I will provide you with additional instructions about the study. Again, I thank you for your consideration, and I look forward to hearing from you.

Best Regards

Keith White
Candidate for Ph.D.
Walden University

Appendix F: Research Website

The following Internet website and domain is available:

www.teresawhitetherapy.com to facilitate the use of technology in the management of

this research. The website will run from May 2015 to February 2016.

Appendix G: Demographic Matrix

Name	Date/Time	Rank	Time in Service (TIS)
MTOE/Duty Position	MOS	Date Assigned	Time in Grade (TIG)
Informal Leader (Y/N)			
Unit			
Participant Code:			
Situation/Setting Context			
Have you been deployed?			

Appendix H: Interview Protocol

Participant Code	Date/Time	Rank	Time in Service (TIS)
MTOE/Duty Position	**MOS**	**Date Assigned**	**Time in Grade (TIG)**
Formal/Informal Leader (Y/N)			
Unit			
Situation/Setting Context			
Have you been deployed?			

Code:

☐Signed Consent

☐Signed Non-disclosure

☐Received Privacy Policy

☐Recording device turned on and tested

Introduction

"Thank you for taking the time to interview. This session is Unclassified (U). The recorded session for transcription is for data collection purposes only. During the session, I will also be taking field notes. Personally, Identifying Information (PII) and Personal Health Information (PHI) voluntarily obtained during the interview is considered confidential and will be protected. No disclosure of PII or PHI associated with your name or identifying information will be disclosed at any time. Your identity in the study is a six-digit code known only to the study's author."

"The purpose of this case study is to expand the scholarly research into the nature of informal leader and informal networks and workplace bullying by examining their leadership actions. The informal leader functions primarily in the IBCT through their modeling of organizational and behavioral scripts that exist within the squad or section. Relieving IBCT squad or section stressors such as leadership dysfunctions like toxic leadership and workplace bullying through unethical behavioral and organizational scripts can improve U.S. Army leadership outcomes and remove the greater stressors that lead to personal and unit failures. By expanding our understanding of the informal leader's role in workplace bullying and toxic leadership this research will contribute to improvement in U.S. Army leadership outcomes. Understanding the informal leader's role to mediate workplace bullying or toxic leadership will also open new meanings to the larger leadership context and the routine function of the informal leadership's overall social agency."

"I want you to be candid in your responses and to feel free to express your opinion as well as your experiences with informal leaders, toxic leadership, and bullying or times you may have observed these events during any time of your assignment to this unit or assignment to any

Army or ARNG unit. This study and these questions do not infer that there are issues of toxic leadership, failed leadership, or workplace bullying occurring now in this unit or that it has ever been reported. My purpose and my intent are to understand your perspective regarding informal leadership. It is my goal to understand your perspective, so please feel free to be as detailed as possible in your answers. I may ask a few follow-up questions as we proceed to help me understand your responses. Are you ready to begin?"

I am retired from the U.S. Army and as a Reserve of the U.S. Army since September 30, 2009. I enlisted 27 January 1979 into the United States Marine and served two years. I transferred to the U.S. ARNG and retired after 30 years of service, 26 of which was active duty. I retired at the rank of Sergeant Major. I have served at every level of leadership both tactical and operational from team leader to Senior Enlisted Advisor for the Reserve Components to III and V U.S. Army Corps." I have served in U.S. Army National Guard units in North Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas. I provide this background so that you are aware of both my level of understanding and that I do hold a bias about the study. However, my goal is to be neutral and completely unobtrusive during the interview. I will not filter in any way nor add or take away from your experiences or descriptions of those experiences."

Interview Questions and Probes

Closing and Conclusion
"I want to thank-you for your time and contribution to this study. Before I analyze any of your information, you may request a copy of the transcription for review to assure accuracy in the recording. Once the study is completed, I will provide you information on where to obtain a copy of the findings if you desire a copy.
.

Appendix I: Characteristics and Protocols of Validity and Trustworthiness

Characteristic	Criteria	Protocol
Credibility (internal validity)	It is transparency in methods. It allows for open exploration and consideration for the alternatives. It occurs because of reflexivity and field journaling, a read and re-read of the data and interview texts, an application of the code template to the raw data, and observation and prolonged engagement (Krefting, 1991).	*Inductive and deductive thematic analysis and triangulation; Semi-structured and unstructured interviews; Testing rival explanations and Examining negative cases (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Krefting, 1991).*
Transferability (external validity)	It includes a thick description (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Nelson, 2008). It represents an accurate description of the conceptual framework (Nelson, 2008; Riege, 2003). Participant selection and representation (Krefting, 1991).	*Triangulation, replication logic from multiple cases, instrumentation, member checking (Nelson, 2008; Riege, 2003).*
Dependability (reliability)	Audit trail using field notes and memoing. Clarity in the researcher's theoretical basis and accounting for bias (Nelson, 2008; Riege, 2003).	*Thematic code book. Stepwise replication through a field diary and field notes. Case study database. Peer review. (Nelson, 2008; Riege, 2003).Reflexive engagement (Houghton et al., 2013)*
Confirmability (objectivity)	Member checks, analytical memos. Each level of analysis represents collected and analyzed data from a unique line of inquiry into the phenomena and by converging these every effort is made to ensure internal and external confirmation (Maxwell, 2012a; Yin, 2014) and assurance that interpretation of data is accurate and reflects the meaning of the gathered data (Stake 2010; 2013).	*Triangulation, Cross-case synthesis, Thematic code book (Nelson, 2008; Riege, 2003).*

Note. Adapted from "*Competing paradigms in qualitative research*" by E.G. Guba & Y.S. Lincoln, 1994 and "*Rigor in qualitative research: the assessment of trustworthiness*" by Laura Krefting, 1991.

Appendix J: Participant Individual Positions by Modified Table of Organization

and Equipment (MTOE)

Organization	Duty Position Description	Number Required	Location	Date
HHC/33rd STB	Ops Assistant	2	Machesney Park, IL	October 2015
D/2-106th CAV	Scout	2	Dixon, IL	October 2015
A/2-122 FA	Cannoneer	2	Sycamore, IL	October 2015
D/1-178 IN	Ammo Handler	2	Woodstock, IL	October 2015
B/1-178 IN	Rifleman	2	Elgin, IL	October 2015
C/1-178 IN	Asst Machine Gunner	2	Kankakee, IL	October 2015
A/2-106th CAV	Scout	2	Pontiac, IL	October 2015
HHT/2-106 CAV	Ops Assistant	2	Kewanee, IL	October 2015
HHT/2-106 CAV	Plans Officer	1	Kewanee, IL	October 2015
HHT/2-106 CAV	Asst Ops NCO	1	Kewanee, IL	October 2015
D/634 BSB	Mechanic	2	Galva, IL	October 2015
A/1-178 IN	Rifleman	2	Bartonville, IL	October 2015
B/33rd STB	Intel Analyst	2	Bloomington, IL	October 2015
HHC 33rd IBCT	NBC/CBRNE NCO	1	Champaign/Urbana, IL	November 2015
HHC 33rd IBCT	Human Resource Assistant	1	Champaign/Urbana, IL	November 2015
HHC/634 BSB	Supply Specialist	1	Sullivan, IL	November 2015
HHC/634 BSB	Spt Ops NCO	1	Sullivan, IL	November 2015
A/634 BSB	Mechanic	2	Mattoon, IL	November 2015
A/634 BSB	Parts/Records Clerk	2	Mattoon, IL	November 2015
B/2-130 IN	Fire Tm Leader	2	Effingham, IL	November 2015
D/2-130 IN	Machine Gunner	2	Mount Vernon, IL	November 2015

Appendix K: Timeline and Location for Data Collection
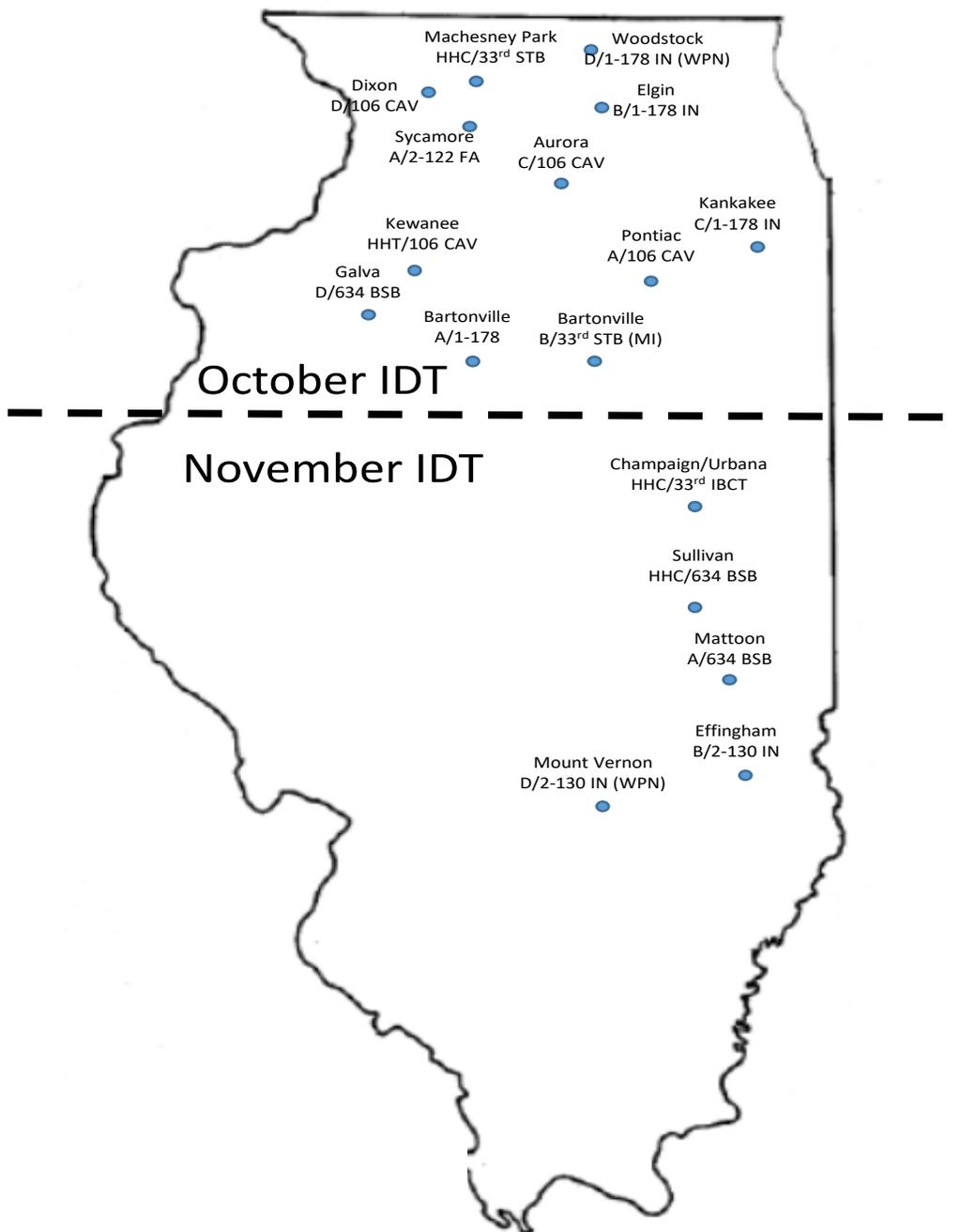
Appendix L: Participant Review and Validation

Name of the Study: Understanding how the Army's Informal Leader Bonds Formal
Leadership and the Complex Environment

Name: Date:

Email:

To: "**Participant's Name.**"

Enclosed is the transcript of our interview session(s) recently conducted as part of this study on informal leadership and workplace bullying in the Infantry Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) squad. Please review the transcript for accuracy and make a note of any statements, words, or phrases you felt were inaccurate or did not properly represent you. Please, feel free to make comments in those areas where you feel need correction. After you have made your comments or if you feel the material is accurate and a true representation of our session, please indicate by placing your initials (typed or printed) on the appropriate line.

You may return this document to me in any electronic form with a signature. You may use a fax at: with an attention line: "Research" or as a scanned image or .pdf file attached in an email to: You may also return it to me with a digital signature by completing the information at the bottom of this email with your, printed name, today's date, and your typed name and participant code number in the signature block along with today's date. Your code number was sent to you by a separate email.

Please initial the correct statement below:

_____ I approve the interview transcript(s) as transcribed and printed. I elect not to review it.

_____ I approve of the interview transcript(s) as transcribed and printed with changes as noted. (Please attach your comments or notes or list them in your email reply)

_____ I disapprove of the interview transcript(s) in their entirety and do not want them included in the study.

_____
Printed Name   Date

_____
Signature of Participant/code   Date

_____
Researcher Signature   Date