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ENTRE CONFLITOS E COOPERAÇÃO: EXPLORANDO O PAPEL DAS EMOÇÕES POSITIVAS, CONFIANÇA E LIDERANÇA EM UMA INSTITUIÇÃO PÚBLICA FEDERAL

BETWEEN CONFLICTS AND COOPERATION: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF POSITIVE EMOTIONS, TRUST, AND LEADERSHIP IN A FEDERAL PUBLIC INSTITUTION

[TRADUÇÃO INGLESA]

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CASCAVEL/PR

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Dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Administration in the Department of Administration, Western Paraná State University.
Dissertation Supervisor: Dr Ivano Ribeiro

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Administração (PPGAdm) – Mestrado Profissional da Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná, como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de Mestre em Administração.
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I dedicate this research to the people who give my life meaning: to my parents, Simone and Nerli, for their tireless effort and support in my educational trajectory. You have been my foundation, and each achievement of mine is, in large part, the fruit of the love and dedication that you have always deposited in me. To my sister, Laura, for her friendship and constant support. To Luciano, my boyfriend, for his patience and understanding throughout this journey.

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RESUMO

Rottava, A. (2025). *Entre Conflitos e Cooperação: Explorando o Papel das Emoções Positivas, Confiança e Liderança em uma Instituição Pública Federal*. Dissertação de Mestrado, Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná, Cascavel, PR, Brasil.

Este estudo investigou as relações entre conflitos e cooperação em uma instituição pública federal, explorando variáveis como emoções, liderança e confiança influenciam essa dinâmica. Por meio de uma abordagem quantitativa, foram testadas seis hipóteses elaboradas com alicerce em uma revisão da literatura existente. A amostra foi composta por servidores de uma autarquia federal que exerce, em todo o território nacional, a prevenção e a repressão às infrações contra a ordem econômica. Para a coleta de dados, foram utilizados instrumentos validados que possibilitaram uma mensuração mais precisa dos construtos investigados. A avaliação do conflito intragrupo foi realizada através da escala de Jehn (1995). A mensuração da liderança compartilhada baseou-se na ferramenta proposta por Carson *et al*. (2007). A confiança e cooperação foram avaliadas usando a escala de Costa *et al*. (2017). Por fim, empregou-se o instrumento *Work-Related Affective Feelings* (WORAF) para medição da variável emoção. As análises foram conduzidas por meio da Modelagem de Equações Estruturais, utilizando o método dos Mínimos Quadrados Parciais e o Software SmartPLS® 4.0. Os resultados indicaram que o conflito de tarefa não apresenta associação significativa com emoções positivas, enquanto o conflito afetivo possui uma associação negativa. Ambas hipóteses de que a liderança compartilhada modera a relação entre conflitos (de tarefa e afetivo) e emoções não foram confirmadas. Por outro lado, foi sustentada a relação positiva entre emoções positivas e confiança, assim como entre confiança e cooperação. O estudo destacou a complexidade das interações entre conflitos, cooperação, emoções, liderança e confiança. Como contribuição teórica, aprofunda a compreensão sobre a dinâmica de conflitos e cooperação em organizações; como colaboração prática, oferece subsídios para líderes desenvolverem estratégias eficazes de gestão de conflitos.

Palavras-chave: Cooperação; Conflito de tarefa; Conflito afetivo; Instituição pública.

ABSTRACT

Rottava, A. (2025). *Between Conflict and Cooperation: Exploring the Role of Positive Emotions, Trust and Leadership in a Federal Public Institution*. Professional Master's Degree, Universidade do Oeste do Paraná, Cascavel, PR, Brazil.

This study investigated the relationships between conflicts and cooperation in a federal public institution, exploring variables such as emotions, leadership, and trust that influence these dynamics. Using a quantitative approach, six hypotheses developed based on a review of the existing literature were tested. The sample consisted of employees of a federal agency that exercises, throughout the national territory, the prevention and repression of infractions against the economic order. Validated instruments were used to collect data, which allowed for a more precise measurement of the constructs investigated. The assessment of intragroup conflict was carried out using the Jehn scale (1995). The measurement of shared leadership was based on the tool proposed by Carson et al. (2007). Trust and cooperation were assessed using the Costa et al. (2017) scale. Finally, the Work-Related Affective Feelings (WORAF) instrument was used to measure the emotion variable. The analyses were conducted using Structural Equation Modeling, using the Partial Least Squares method and the SmartPLS® 4.0 software. The results indicated that task conflict does not have a significant association with positive emotions, while affective conflict has a negative association. Both hypotheses that shared leadership moderates the relationship between conflict (task and affective) and emotions were not confirmed. On the other hand, the positive relationship between positive emotions and trust, as well as between trust and cooperation, was supported. The study highlighted the complexity of the interactions between conflict, cooperation, emotions, leadership and trust. As a theoretical contribution, it deepens the understanding of the dynamics of conflict and cooperation in organizations; as a practical contribution, it offers support for leaders to develop effective conflict management strategies.

Keywords: Cooperation; Task conflict; Affective conflict; Public institution.

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SUMMARY

1 INTRODUCTION

Conflict, categorized as task (related to activities) or affective (involving emotions), is inherent to organizations (Jehn, 1995; Ullah, 2022). Guetzkow and Gyr (1954) were pioneers in categorizing conflicts into teams, distinguishing between task conflicts and affective conflicts. The first is related to the activities performed and the second involves personal emotions and tensions (Silva & Puente-Palacios, 2010). This categorization allowed subsequent research to analyze the multifaceted impact of conflicts in the workplace, both on personal interactions and organizational performance (Jehn, 1995, 1997). From a psychoanalytic perspective, conflicts emerge from unconscious projections, identifications, and resistances, in which desires, frustrations and unresolved rivalries are manifested in everyday interactions (Freud, 1921; Kets de Vries, 2011).

On the other hand, cooperation emerges as a factor for the success of teams, recognized as the willingness of members to coordinate their activities in favor of collective objectives (Stern & Gorman, 1969); a tool for increasing organizational effectiveness (Campion et al., 1993; Fleishman & Zaccaro, 1992). Cooperation is not only about the absence of conflicts, but about an active and positive interaction between members, in which decisions are made together to achieve common goals (Sinclair, 2003). This practice is especially crucial in organizational environments that rely on high functional interdependence to achieve high performance (Tyler, 2002). In this regard, cooperation is seen as a process that depends on the ability of individuals to recognize and elaborate these emotional aspects, allowing the construction of bonds based on trust and empathy (Bion, 1961).

In this scenario, shared leadership plays a fundamental role in providing the necessary balance between team conflicts and cooperation. Instead of centralizing decisions in a single figure, this model involves the active participation of several members in leadership, creating a collaborative decision-making environment (Hoch, 2013). Team members are encouraged to take collective responsibility and share challenges and opportunities, facilitating conflict resolution and promoting cooperation (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Leadership, in this sense, is understood as a function that transcends formal authority, involving the ability to contain collective anxieties and mediate conflicts in order to transform them into opportunities for institutional growth (Laplanche & Pontalis, 1967).

Emotions, especially positive ones, influence cooperation and conflict management (Barsade, 2002; Nair, 2007). These states have an impact on actions and interactions within teams, shaping work dynamics and the way individuals deal with challenges and conflicts (Nair,

2007). Thus, positive emotions arise when there is space for the symbolic expression of affections, facilitating the resolution of tensions and group integration (Winnicott, 1971).

Trust, by mediating the relationship between conflicts and cooperation, is a factor for team effectiveness (Lewicki *et al.*, 1998; Simons & Peterson, 2000). When trust is insufficient, conflicts can intensify, compromising work results (Lewicki *et al.*, 2006; Tidd *et al.*, 2004). However, in environments where trust is promoted, it becomes an effective mechanism for managing conflicts and improving team performance (Simons & Peterson, 2000).

Given this complexity, this study investigates the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a federal public institution, focusing on the variables shared leadership, emotions, and trust. This theme is particularly relevant, as public organizations face high levels of interdependence between teams, social, and political pressures. This increases demands for efficiency and transparency. It also leads to an environment characterized by high bureaucracy. Exploring the dynamics between conflicts and cooperation, in this scenario, provides effective strategies to optimize internal processes, improve the delivery of services to society, and deal with the complexities inherent in the sector. In this direction, an investigation was proposed to analyze the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a federal public institution.

1.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Studying the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in teams is important to understand the dynamics that influence the organizational context. Conflict plays a key role in the effectiveness of teams, directly affecting their performance and cohesion (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). In addition, conflict serves as an undeniable fact in many organizations. It is necessary to recognize and manage it properly to avoid negative impacts on performance (Amason, 1996).

The relationship between conflicts and cooperation is complex and interdependent, making it necessary to analyze variables such as leadership, emotions, and trust. Although cooperation can coexist with conflict, the mere absence of one does not imply the presence of the other (Stern & Reve, 1980). Cooperation, joint decisions to achieve team goals, is associated with organizational effectiveness and directly depends on the quality of interactions between its members (Sinclair, 2003). Variables influence the ability of teams to transform conflicts into productive cooperation (Barsade, 2002).

Shared leadership distributes responsibilities among team members, helps mediate the effects of conflict, and promotes a more collaborative environment (Bligh *et al.*, 2006). Literature points out that teams with shared leadership present a greater capacity to deal with

conflicts, as their members are more involved in decision-making and feel responsible for collective success (Pearce & Conger, 2003). This allows task conflicts to be directed productively, promoting improvements in the work processes (Menguc & Auh, 2008).

Emotions, in turn, occupy an important place in the relationship between conflicts and cooperation. Task conflicts can generate positive emotions, such as enthusiasm and excitement, stimulating prosocial behaviors and improving cooperation (Barsade, 2002). However, affective conflicts, which involve interpersonal tensions, tend to generate negative emotions, such as anger and frustration, impairing team cohesion and productivity (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). Effective management of these emotions can transform conflict situations into opportunities to strengthen cooperation and creativity within the team (De Dreu, 2006).

Trust is another variable in this association. The presence of conflicts, especially affective ones, can reduce trust levels among team members, impairing cooperation (Chen & Ayoko, 2012). Studies indicate that negative emotions are inversely related to trust, which, in turn, directly affects collaboration within teams (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005). In contrast, positive emotions, such as enthusiasm and excitement, increase the perception of trust and facilitate cooperative behavior, which is essential for the effectiveness of teams (Lewicki et al., 1998).

Conflicts are inevitable in any organization and context. However, effective management is imperative to avoid impairments to performance. Task conflict, in particular, can be beneficial in encouraging debates and exchanges of ideas, as long as it is properly managed (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). However, affective conflicts often have negative consequences, affecting job satisfaction and increasing staff turnover (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). A potential resolution to minimize the negative impacts and maximize the benefits of conflicts lies in the good management of variables such as leadership and emotions (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005).

Despite the importance of these factors, few studies have explored the relationship between conflicts and cooperation, especially in the public context, in an integrated way (Rainey, 2014; Chen *et al.*., 2012). In public institutions, where teams face high levels of bureaucracy and organizational complexity, understanding how conflicts and cooperation interact is crucial to improve collective performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Tjosvold *et al.*, 2014).

The present study aims to contribute to the existing literature by investigating the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a federal public institution. The research seeks to provide practical findings for conflict management. Thus, we hope that the results will help

to develop more effective strategies to improve organizational performance through effective conflict management.

1.1.1 Research question

What is the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a public institution at the federal level?

1.2 OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 General

To analyze the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a public institution at the federal level.

1.2.2 Specific

A) To identify the level of cooperation between members of work teams of a public institution of the federal level;

B) To check the level and nature of conflicts in work teams of a public institution of the federal level;

C) To measure positive emotions and trust in work teams of a public institution at the federal level;

D) To evaluate the moderating effect of leadership on the relationship between antecedent variables and cooperation in work teams of a public institution at the federal level;

E) To analyze the relationship between cooperation and its antecedent variables in work teams of a public institution at the federal level.

1.3 JUSTIFICATION AND CONTRIBUTION OF TECHNICAL PRODUCTION

There is a vast compilation of literature that illustrates the dynamics associated with conflict, in which individual and organizational traits have the power to raise or lower levels of friction in a team. Conflict is a multifaceted and constantly evolving phenomenon, spanning several dimensions at different levels, widely analyzed by experienced researchers. Jehn (1995)

highlighted the complex nature of the conflict, while Mannix and Jehn (2004) and Jehn *et al.*(2008) highlighted the relevance of recognizing the ever-changing essence of conflict, emphasizing its progression over time. In the public context, these traits are amplified by rigid hierarchical structures and political pressures, which can exacerbate conflicts or suppress their open expression (Vigoda-Gadot, 2002).

Conflict poses a challenge to effective teamwork (Jehn, 1995; Medina *et al.*, 2005), as it can prevent cooperation and, subsequently, impact performance (Jehn *et al.*, 2008; Swann *et al.*, 2004). In public organizations, where accountability is a priority, badly managed conflicts can lead to delays in service delivery, as demonstrated in studies on health and education (Rainey, 2014). Several theories stress cooperation as a key mechanism for managing or responding to conflict (Alper *et al.*, 2000; Deutsch, 1990), portraying it as a subsequent behavioral process. Research by Pearson and Monoky (1976) and Stern and Reve (1980) highlight the connection between cooperation and conflict, suggesting that these concepts are not totally opposite. Some studies debate the mediating role of cooperation (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Sinclair, 2003).

The link between conflicts and cooperation must be analyzed taking into account other primary variables to understand this connection: shared leadership, emotions, and trust. Shared leadership has the potential to play a role in mediating conflict and promoting cooperation within teams (Bligh *et al.*, 2006). When leadership is distributed among members, there is greater collective participation and responsibility, facilitating conflict resolution and progress toward common goals (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Emotions are also important for the understanding of conflict and cooperation. The different natures of conflicts can generate diverse emotions. Task conflicts can generate positive emotions, such as enthusiasm, that stimulate cooperation and promote creative engagement (Barsade, 2002). However, affective conflicts, which involve interpersonal tensions, tend to generate negative emotions, such as anger and frustration, impairing team cohesion and productivity (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). Moreover, these emotions directly influence trust among members. When trust is undermined, cooperation becomes more difficult (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005).

There are gaps in the literature on the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in teams, especially in the panorama of public organizations. These can be understood as organizations created and maintained by the state in order to meet collective demands and promote social welfare (Oliveira, 2017). They operate under the principles of legality, impersonality, morality, publicity, and efficiency, as stipulated by Article 37 of the Federal

Constitution of 1988. The public administration that regulates these institutions includes a series of agents, bodies, and services organized to meet the needs of society in an equitable and transparent way (Bachtold, 2008).

Ferreira (2018) observed that, in public organizations, conflicts can be both a positive and negative force, depending on how they are managed. However, there are few studies on the efficient management of these conflicts by public managers. Another work analyzed conflicts and strategic alliances in the public sector, highlighting that the focus is usually on the analysis of power and control structures, neglecting the interaction between cooperation and conflict management in the sector (Almeida, 2012).

Although there is evidence that the type of conflict influences management, studies show that task conflicts tend to stimulate the search for information, problem solving, concessions, and commitment, thus promoting greater cooperation (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). On the other hand, affective conflicts generate negative emotions, such as frustration, which can weaken cooperation in the team (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). In addition, there is a shortage of research that integrates mediators to understand how these variables can enhance or mitigate the effects of conflicts on cooperation (Ullah, 2022). Therefore, the present research is justified by the need to help fill these gaps by analyzing more comprehensively how the interactions between conflicts and cooperation occur in public organizational environments.

This study is justified both in practical and theoretical terms. Practically, it offers knowledge so that leaders know how to deal with conflicts, especially in the public context. The ability to manage conflict efficiently can foster a more collaborative environment, allowing leaders and team members to transform situations of tension into opportunities for dialog and organizational growth (Bligh *et al.*, 2006).

The institution target of this research has been characterized, since 2020, as one of the best places to work, with a general organizational climate index of 89 points, recognized by the Fundação Instituto de Administração (FIA) research. By competing with 422 companies, including public, private, and state organizations, it outperformed, reaching second place in the category of public bodies. The objective of this study is to help the institution better understand how to manage internal conflicts through strategic data and thus maintain its position of relevance in the ranking of satisfaction and work environment. This focus on conflict management becomes important for managing the positive organizational climate, contributing to the long-term stability of the institution.

Theoretically, this study offers a contribution by deepening the understanding about organizational conflict, by integrating variables such as shared leadership and positive

emotions, essential elements for effective team management. By investigating how these factors influence the dynamics of conflict resolution, the research proposes an integrated approach to conflict management, bringing new *insights* to the theory. This holistic approach can broaden the understanding of how to create more collaborative and productive organizational environments.

1.4 DISSERTATION STRUCTURE

The present study was divided into six chapters. In Chapter 1, there is the introduction, followed by the research problem, the general objective, and the specific objectives. It is finalized by the justification and contribution of the research.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical framework, which supports the development of the research through a literature review. The review identifies the antecedents of the phenomenon of cooperation and its relationship with conflicts. They serve as the basis for the formulation of the research hypotheses. It is subdivided into seven subsections: conflicts and cooperation; task conflict and positive emotions; affective conflict and positive emotions; affective conflict, emotions, and shared leadership; task conflict, emotions, and shared leadership; emotions and trust; and trust and cooperation.

Chapter 3 describes the methodological aspects, as well as the data collection and analysis techniques used in the study. Chapter 4 presents the results of the research, while Chapter 5 presents the discussion on the results. And, finally, Chapter 6 highlights the final considerations.

2 THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL REFERENCES

2.1 CONFLICTS AND COOPERATION

Conflict can be understood as a state of disagreement between individuals, manifesting itself in different dimensions, such as task, process, and affective conflicts (Ullah, 2022). Conflict is an inherent characteristic of work environments, playing a central role in the dynamics of various organizations (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). Bion (1961) would argue that these conflicts reflect the basic anxieties present in any human group, manifesting themselves both in tasks and in affective relationships. In this context, it is considered a natural part of interactions between members (Amason, 1996). Its multiple manifestations become a common occurrence, with an inevitable impact on the performance and overall effectiveness of the groups (Atalho, 2016).

Conflict reflects a process of compiling interwoven individual differences, states, behaviors, and creation of meaning; interpersonal panoramas, interactions, and creation of meaning; and team-level scenarios, interactions, and creation of collective bias (Greer & Dannals, 2017). In other words, conflicts arise from interactions originated by individual differences and distinct behaviors among team members (Korsgaard *et al.*, 2008).

Conflicts and cooperation are interdependent phenomena in organizations, but they do not necessarily occur simultaneously or automatically in response to the absence of the other (Stern and Reve, 1980). Cooperation can coexist with the presence of conflicts, just as the absence of conflicts does not in itself guarantee the existence of cooperation (Todorova et al., 2022). Collaboration involves joint decisions to achieve team goals. However, this does not mean that the process is free from disagreements (Sinclair, 2003).

Cooperation can be described as "decisions made by teammates on how to advance team goals" (Sinclair, 2003, p. 75) and is a crucial mechanism for increasing organizational effectiveness (Campion *et al.*, 1993; Fleishman & Zaccaro, 1992). It is evident in the literature that collaboration and conflict are intrinsically linked, since the conflict of tasks can generate intense debates, which, if not properly managed, can evolve into affective conflicts, directly impacting the dynamics of cooperation (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

Cooperation can be defined as "a state or condition characterized by the willingness of members to coordinate their activities in a joint effort to assist all involved in achieving higher goals" (Stern & Gorman, 1969, p.156). It arises, essentially, when the participants share common objectives (Stern & Gorman, 1969), becoming an indispensable function for the

execution of the tasks required by the institutions in their functional interdependence (Tyler, 2002).

Cooperative behavior is potentially relevant to the viability of teams, with the encouragement of positive actions and a decrease in negative actions (Tyler, 2002). Engaging in collaborative behavior involves performing tasks that contribute to the shared goals of the team (Tyler, 2002). In contrast, Stern and Reve (1980) point out that conflicts can prevent assistance between teams. Cooperation and conflict are not complete opposites. However, the mere absence of conflict does not automatically guarantee collaboration (Pearson & Monoky, 1976).

Evidence on the positive and negative ramifications of conflict and its relationship to cooperation is a source of disagreement and uncertainty for managers and academics (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). In 1994, Jehn proposed a measure that addresses intragroup conflict in two distinct dimensions: affective conflict and task conflict. This approach continued to be discussed and refined in subsequent years (Jehn, 1994, 1997). According to the author, affective conflict encompasses emotional and affective indicators, such as friction, tension, or anger between group members. On the other hand, task conflict encompasses cognitive indicators, such as different points of view and opinions about the planning and execution of group activities (Jehn, 1994, 1997).

Task conflict refers to the exchange of ideas and opinions regarding tasks in an organization. On the other hand, affective conflict arises from interpersonal incompatibilities that result from personal differences (Ullah, 2022). It is important to note that task and affective conflicts produce distinct effects in conflict management (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005).

In addition, the potentially favorable results associated with the conflict of tasks are highlighted, precipitously when it promotes constructive debates and the search for effective solutions (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005). However, it is important to recognize that task conflict can also lead to unwanted effects in less healthy organizational frameworks. These adverse effects vary according to contextual factors, such as the emotions present in the interactions and the leadership style adopted, which can mediate or moderate their impact (Ullah, 2022). Thus, the effects of task conflict are not uniformly positive or negative, but depend on the specific dynamics of each group.

In this way, a paradox is installed, since the conflict seems to be relevant to some aspects of the institution. At the same time, it seems to demonstrate an impediment to consensus and affective acceptance (Amason, 1996). When it represents the negative side, it can impede

cooperation and subsequently impact performance (Jehn et al., 2008). Winnicott (1971) mentioned the need for the transitional object for the child to elaborate his or her internal and external world. Organizations need mechanisms that allow the transformation of conflicts into cooperation.

Research conducted by Pearson and Monoky (1976), as well as Stern and Reve (1980), highlight the intricate relationship between cooperation and conflict, indicating that these two notions are not contradictory in themselves. Several theories point to the relevance of cooperation as a tool to manage or address conflicts effectively (Alper *et al.*, 2000; Deutsch, 1990).

2.2 TASK CONFLICT AND POSITIVE EMOTIONS

Task conflict, also known as cognitive conflict, refers to differences between group members regarding the content and goals of what they are conducting (Amason, 1996). This involves variations in perspectives, ideas, and approaches relative to the task at hand (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). These differences arise from disparities in ideas or opinions about the content and outcomes of different assignments (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). It is associated with “what to do” and encompasses variations in goals, objectives, or goal approaches (Pan *et al.*, 2020).

The cognitive nature of this conflict makes it particularly relevant to the creative processes. According to De Dreu (2006), when team members perceive task conflict as an intellectual exchange – and not as a personal threat – an activation of positive emotions, such as curiosity and interest, occurs. This emotional state facilitates the assimilation of diverse perspectives, creating a virtuous cycle in which conflict fuels innovation (Barsade, 2002).

Task conflict can manifest itself when individuals have different points of view, preferences, or strategies to achieve a common goal (Ullah, 2022). It is considered an inherent phenomenon, which manifests itself in teams due to the reality that different positions have different environmental views, resulting in a variety of perceptions (Amason, 1996). Therefore, these differences end up culminating in task conflicts (Amason, 1996).

Emotions, on the other hand, are subjective states of feeling that arise from the individual interpretation of employees in relation to a given situation (Bryant & Cox, 2006). These emotional states, in turn, influence the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Nair, 2007). Positive emotions indicate a person's level of enthusiasm, activity, and alertness (Watson *et al.*, 1988) and are directly linked to greater job satisfaction, the promotion of cooperation (Barsade, 2002), and the stimulation of pro-social behaviors and performances (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2002).

A critical aspect in this dynamic is the concept of "positive team affect" (Barsade, 2002). When a group shares positive emotions, it creates an environment where disagreements are interpreted as valid contributions, not personal attacks. This positive emotional atmosphere acts as a buffer, preventing task conflicts from turning into relational conflicts (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

The literature has extensively investigated the effects of positive emotions on the results of work groups, emphasizing the importance of these emotions for collective performance and collaboration between members (Barsade, 2002). In complex tasks, individuals who experience task conflict, however challenging it may be, may also feel enthusiasm, driving the proposal of new prisms and promoting a deeper and more reflective analysis of the available information (De Dreu, 2006).

Task conflict has potential benefits for group performance when managed effectively (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). The main reasoning is that it provides diverse perspectives and ideas, improving problem-solving and decision-making processes (Todorova *et al.*, 2014). In addition, it facilitates a deeper understanding of the task at hand, encouraging group members to participate in open and constructive discussions (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). These findings suggest that task conflict, when it occurs in a positive emotional context, can function as a stimulus for collective excellence, transforming differences of opinion into innovation (Amason, 1996; De Dreu, 2006).

However, the task conflict also originates intense debates, which, if not properly managed, can trigger personal conflicts, affecting the dynamics of the group and its performance (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). In these cases, task conflict is experienced as an aversive event, which is often interpreted with hostility, impairing interaction and collaboration among team members (Fritz & Dreisbach, 2014).

This complex interaction between task conflicts and emotions requires further investigation to better understand its implications in the organizational landscape. Therefore, it is essential to explore how emotions, especially positive ones, can influence the way individuals deal with these conflicts, seeking to optimize interactions in the work environment and, consequently, team results. With this, the need to further investigate this relationship emerges, leading to the formulation of the following hypothesis: *H1* - task conflict is positively associated with positive emotions.

2.3 AFFECTIVE CONFLICT AND POSITIVE EMOTIONS

Affective conflict, characterized by interpersonal tensions between members of a team, is widely recognized as harmful to organizations (Amason, 1996). It arises when differences of opinion are seen as personal attacks (Amason, 1996) or when conflicts are due to personal values and perceptions between individuals (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Incompatibility is triggered by differing opinions on diverse issues, which may or may not be linked to the task (Jehn *et al.*, 2008).

Unlike task conflict, which can be cognitively stimulating, affective conflict is rooted in emotional disagreements, usually associated with feelings of hostility, distrust, or frustration (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). This interpersonal nature makes it particularly damaging to group cohesion, as it undermines trust and willingness to collaborate (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). However, in specific scenarios, such as healthy competitions or structured debates, even affective conflicts can paradoxically arouse positive emotions, such as excitement and determination (Chen & Ayoko, 2012).

Studies on affective conflicts often show a strong correlation with negative emotions and outcomes that impair productivity (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Specifically, the presence of affective conflict is associated with the experience of negative emotions such as anger and frustration (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). Additionally, they can lead to decreased job satisfaction and increased staff turnover, negatively affecting group cohesion and stability (Van Kleef & Côté, 2007).

The literature on emotions at the workplace suggests that affective conflicts activate the psychological threat system, triggering defensive responses (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2002). When individuals feel personally attacked, their ability to process information objectively decreases and negative emotions dominate the environment (Fritz & Dreisbach, 2014). However, in teams with high emotional resilience, even affective conflicts can be reinterpreted as collective challenges, reducing their negative impact (Todorova *et al.*, 2022).

Emotions play a substantial role in conflict resolution. The literature suggests that negative emotions may be effective in task and affective conflict resolution, while positive emotions may hinder affective conflict resolution (Zinchenko *et al.*, 2015; Zinchenko *et al.*, 2017). In that regard, Fritz and Dreisbach (2014) highlight that, in the detection phase of affective conflict, its relationship with the emotional process tends to be negative. During the resolution phase, however, these conflicts can facilitate the processing of positive stimuli, enabling a more receptive environment for emotional recovery (Fritz & Dreisbach, 2014).

A frequently overlooked aspect is the role of time in the emotional dynamics of affective conflicts. Research indicates that, immediately after a dispute, negative emotions predominate. Nevertheless, with the passage of time and proper mediation, it is possible to observe an "emotional recovery", in which positive emotions gradually replace negative ones (Zinchenko *et al.*, 2017). This process is more likely in teams with a high level of collective emotional intelligence (Barsade, 2002).

When considering affective conflict, which constantly involves power dynamics and emotional engagement, it is understood that it offers individuals the opportunity to affirm their positions and interests explicitly (Jehn, 1997). In this scenario, the exchanges caused by this type of conflict can intensify competition and, above all, stimulate positive emotions, such as enthusiasm, among those involved (Jehn, 1997). Therefore, the competitive nature of interpersonal interactions generates a boost for enthusiasm and motivation (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008).

Although affective conflicts have the potential to trigger positive emotions, for example enthusiasm and excitement, depending on how they are perceived by participants (Chen & Ayoko, 2012), the vast majority of literature emphasizes their negative consequences. The relationship between conflict resolution and the processing of positive stimuli has not yet been fully clarified. This signals the need for further investigations into how affective conflict, in certain contexts, fosters constructive interaction and promotes positive emotions (Pan *et al.*, 2020). Given this predominant focus on the adverse effects of these conflicts, this study focuses specifically on the negative relationship associated with positive emotions. Based on the evidence discussed in this section, the study proposes the following hypothesis: *H2* – affective conflict is negatively associated with positive emotions.

2.4 TASK CONFLICT, EMOTIONS, AND SHARED LEADERSHIP

Shared leadership refers to mutual influence within a team. Leadership activities are distributed among members, allowing everyone to participate in the decision-making process and in fulfilling tasks that would traditionally be reserved for a hierarchical leader (Cohen *et al.*, 1997; Pearce & Conger, 2003). This distribution of responsibilities creates an environment in which task conflict, when it appears, tends to be interpreted as an opportunity for collective learning rather than a threat to authority (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). It is understood that shared leadership can help develop a climate of social support and co-participation of goals among team members (Hoch, 2013).

The dynamics of shared leadership changes how task conflicts are experienced. When authority is distributed, members tend to perceive disagreements concerning tasks as legitimate contributions rather than challenges to hierarchy (Pearce & Conger, 2003). This shared perception reduces the anxiety normally associated with conflict and promotes positive emotions, such as engagement and intellectual curiosity (Barsade, 2002).

Carson *et al.*(2007) show that shared leadership enables a dynamics in which members mutually influence each other, creating an environment of interdependence that facilitates cooperation. This interdependent environment is particularly effective for transforming task conflicts into innovation, encouraging critical examination from multiple perspectives (De Dreu, 2006). When leadership is distributed, team members feel more engaged and responsible for their role, which fosters greater collaboration and information exchange (Cox, Pearce, & Sims, 2003). Shared leadership is most effective if team members share a common purpose, facilitated by cooperation (Carson *et al.*, 2007).

A crucial mechanism in this dynamic is what Pearce and Conger (2003) call "shared emotional responsibility." In teams with distributed leadership, members not only share leadership tasks, but also share responsibility for maintaining a positive emotional mood. This emotional co-ownership creates a natural buffer against the negative effects of task conflict (Barsade, 2002).

Shared leadership, singularly, involves a distribution of leadership functions among several individuals, rather than being centralized in a single person (Bligh *et al.*, 2006). This scenario enables different team members to participate in leadership activities, allowing joint decision-making and collective responsibility for results (Hoch, 2013).

Task conflict arises when team members have different expectations or perceptions of work responsibilities, resulting in overlapping roles and the need for close collaboration (Blizzard, 1956). This type of conflict, especially in shared leadership environments, can lead to an increase in role ambiguity. In these circumstances, members lack clarity about their functions and goals, increasing stress and decreasing job satisfaction (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Wolverton *et al.*, 1999).

However, the literature proposes that shared leadership offers natural mechanisms to resolve this ambiguity. Since all members participate in the decision-making process, there is greater transparency in the allocation of tasks and expectations (Pearce & Conger, 2003). This transparency reduces the uncertainty that typically fuels negative emotions during task conflicts (Jehn *et al.*, 2008).

In this regard, when the conflict of tasks is present, there is a lack of clarity and predictability in the work processes, causing negative emotions among team members, impairing cooperation and the effectiveness of shared leadership (Fields, 2002). On the other hand, shared leadership can also mediate the negative effects of task conflict and of negative emotions, providing greater communication, collaboration, and mutual support among team members (Porter-O'grady & Wilson, 1995; Spooner, 1996). In this sense, team members can be encouraged to solve problems related to their tasks more proactively and autonomously, reducing the impact of task conflict and improving the emotional climate of the team (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 2003; Seers *et al.*, 2003).

Shared leadership can act directly on task conflicts, intervening in the way that emotions are managed (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Studies show that teams with shared leadership experience task conflicts as productive "waves" – with peaks of intense debate followed by phases of emotional consolidation (Todorova *et al.*, 2022). By being implemented according to the principles discussed in the literature (Blizzard, 1956; George et al., 2002), it favors the balanced distribution of responsibilities, the clarity in roles, and the emotional support among members – factors that contribute to the reduction of conflicts and the strengthening of group cohesion (Blizzard, 1956; George *et al.*, 2002). Thus, this research seeks to assist the literature in this investigation by proposing the following research hypothesis: *H3* - shared leadership positively moderates the relationship between task conflicts and emotions.

2.5 AFFECTIVE CONFLICT, EMOTIONS, AND SHARED LEADERSHIP

Conflict resolution requires the mastery of special skills, one of which is leadership (Eling, 2024). In situations of affective conflict, team members tend to feel less inclined to collaborate or trust each other, compromising the distribution of leadership responsibilities (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Wright & Barker, 2000). In environments of affective conflict, shared leadership presents a distinct advantage: by distributing responsibility for the emotional management among several members, it prevents emotional overload from a single leader (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Conflict resolution, as far as it is concerned, requires the mastery of specific skills, leadership being one of them (Eling, 2024). In this context, shared leadership emerges as a phenomenon in which actions are carried out by several individuals, as opposed to being concentrated only on people in formal leadership roles (Bligh *et al.*, 2006).

The distributed nature of shared leadership creates multiple points of emotional contact in the team. When one member is involved in an affective conflict, others may temporarily

assume mediation functions, preventing the escalation of this divergence (Bligh *et al.*, 2006). Emotions are essential in shared leadership. In teams with consolidated shared leadership, what Hoch (2013) calls “shared emotional capital” is observed – a collective reservoir of positive emotions that can be mobilized during conflicts. Positive emotions, such as trust and mutual respect, facilitate lateral influence and cooperation among team members (Kennerly, 1996; Spooner, 1996).

However, in situations of intense affective conflict, even shared leadership can face challenges. When negative emotions reach a critical threshold, they overload the distributed emotional regulation mechanisms of the team (Fields & Blum, 1997). On the other hand, negative emotions, often associated with affective conflict situations, can intensify work stress, increase role ambiguity, and aggravate role conflict, impairing the harmonious functioning of shared leadership (Fields & Blum, 1997; Fletcher & Kaßufer, 2003).

Shared leadership requires team members to hold each other accountable and act autonomously to achieve common goals (Coluccio & Havlick, 1998; Porter-O'grady & Wilson, 1995). This positive interdependence acts against the negative effects of affective conflict, since it creates natural incentives for reconciliation (Pearce & Conger, 2003). However, when affective conflict and negative emotions prevail, members may face greater ambiguity and role conflict, leading to elevated stress levels and reduced job satisfaction (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Wolverton *et al.*, 1999). This increase in stress can result in a decrease in the effectiveness of shared leadership, as cooperation and mutual influence are affected (Barker, 1993; Seers *et al.*, 2003).

Shared leadership is characterized by a scenario in which several team members actively participate in leadership activities, engaging in joint decision-making and taking collective responsibility for the results (Hoch, 2013). This way, team members are motivated to exchange opportunities and challenges with their colleagues (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

By adopting a shared leadership approach, it is possible to quickly identify sources of tension and work to resolve them before they escalate (Menguc & Auh, 2008). This process is enhanced by what Bligh *et al.* (2006) call “collective emotional intelligence” – the ability of the team, as a whole, to process and regulate emotional information. This assists in reconciling conflicting ideas, promoting accurate communication, information sharing, and open dialog (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; De Dreu & West, 2001).

In this context, when shared leadership is present, it is expected that team members who have already experienced affective conflicts will be able to work towards common goals, despite the differences that may arise between them (Klein *et al.*, 2011). This framework

becomes viable to the extent that a strong presence of shared leadership tends to reduce the impact caused by affective conflict. This form of leadership is particularly valuable, since it provides a climate of cooperation focused on team goals (Hoch, 2013) and reinforces the sense of collectivity (Kuhn & Poole, 2000).

Pearce and Conger (2003) emphasize that shared leadership involves dynamic influence processes that can harmonize the differences among team members. In teams where there is diversity of traits such as extroversion and emotional stability, shared leadership can help align efforts and foster a collaborative environment (Hollenbeck *et al.*, 2002).

The affective conflict and emotions of team members are directly linked to the effectiveness of shared leadership. When successful, shared leadership converts the emotional challenges of affective conflicts into opportunities to strengthen collective resilience (Hoch, 2013). While positive emotions can strengthen this leadership approach, negative emotions and affective conflicts hinder team dynamics, increasing stress and reducing job satisfaction (Cohen *et al.*, 1997; George *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, managing emotions and affective conflicts maintains the effectiveness of shared leadership in achieving desired results (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Given these results, it becomes evident the importance of investigating the mediating role that leadership can play between affective conflicts and emotions. Shared leadership offers a particularly effective model for this mediation, transforming an individual challenge (dealing with conflict) into a collective competence (Hoch, 2013). Understanding how leadership affects conflict dynamics and, consequently, influences team performance is critical to developing effective strategies. Thus, based on the arguments discussed in this section, this study proposes the following hypothesis: *H4* - shared leadership positively moderates the relationship between affective conflicts and emotions.

2.6 EMOTIONS AND TRUST

Lewicki *et al.* (1998) define trust as a positive belief in the conduct of another individual. This perception, however, is not static, it is continuously shaped by the emotional interactions among team members (McAllister, 1995), creating a complex dynamic between affection and social bonds. Trust has been the subject of interest in several studies, such as Olson *et al.* (2007) and Parayitam & Dooley (2009), who examined trust as a mediator in conflicts.

Some studies see conflict as a consequence of insufficient interpersonal trust (Lewicki *et al.*, 2006; Tidd *et al.*, 2004). However, trust can also be seen as a mechanism to manage

conflict effectively and improve work-related outcomes (Simons & Peterson, 2000). The relationship between emotions and trust is dynamic. Positive emotions, such as enthusiasm and satisfaction, reinforce interpersonal trust, creating a virtuous cycle of reciprocity and openness (Jones & George, 1998). Negative emotions, such as frustration and distrust, erode trust, making collaboration difficult and exacerbating conflict (Chen & Ayoko, 2012).

Theoretically, it is believed that trust judgments are complex and have an affective nature (McAllister, 1995). Thus, emotions play an important role in the formation of trust, given that they impact an individual's perceptions, experiences, opinions, and evaluations of the trustworthiness of others (Jones & George, 1998). This role of emotions in trust is pertinent in organizational settings, where interpersonal trust can influence team collaboration. Positive emotions amplify the willingness to trust, even in uncertain situations (Jones & George, 1998), while negative emotions lead to more skeptical and defensive evaluations (Chen & Ayoko, 2012). This dynamics becomes especially relevant in conflict settings, given that interpretations of events can vary significantly between individuals, generating different emotional responses that, in turn, shape perceptions of trust (Chen & Ayoko, 2012).

Consequently, conflicts can provoke emotions among group members, subsequently influencing their perceptions of trust (Chen & Ayoko, 2012). In this direction, negative emotions are inversely related to trust (Chen & Ayoko, 2012), just as the causes of conflicts are often pointed out due to a lack of trust (Tidd *et al.*, 2004). Trust acts as a mediator in conflict situations (Olson *et al.*, 2007), functioning as a neutralizer that allows disagreements without deteriorating relationships. In teams with a high level of trust, conflicts are less likely to trigger intense negative emotions (Simons & Peterson, 2000), demonstrating the protective role of this variable. However, when trust is broken, situation more likely in contexts where negative emotions predominate (Lewicki *et al.*, 2006), conflict tends to intensify, creating a vicious circle of mistrust and negative emotions.

Conflicts directly impact emotions, which are fundamental in the formation of trust (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005). Trust, in this way, seems to act as a guide in conflict situations (Olson *et al.*, 2007). It is believed that conflicts directly impact emotions, playing a significant role in the formation of trust (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005).

That said, positive emotions, such as excitement and enthusiasm, are necessary to increase the perception of trust (Chen & Ayoko, 2012). However, it is important to note that this finding presents a limitation, since it was applied exclusively to graduate students, which may restrict its generalization to work teams in organizational environments. In view of this, it is assumed that the impact of conflict on trust depends, in part, on the emotions induced by the

conflict experienced by individuals. By this logic, the penultimate research hypothesis is presented: *H5* - positive emotions are positively associated to the level of trust.

2.7 TRUST AND COOPERATION

Cooperation involves the establishment of interdependent relationships aiming to achieve mutual or singular outcomes, emphasizing expected reciprocity that develops over a period of time (Anderson & Narus, 1990). This interdependence creates a system of social exchanges in which the actions of one member directly affect the outcomes of others, laying the foundation for relationships of trust (Madhok, 1995). It is a constructive approach that can be effective in resolving conflicts, as it believes that its goals are congruent with those of the other party (Zhang *et al.*, 2023).

Similarly, trust can be described as the willingness to trust an exchange partner who is trusted (Moorman *et al.*, 1993). This willingness involves a mediator to calculated vulnerability, in which individuals accept risks based on the expectation of positive behavior from the other (Doney *et al.*, 1998). Trust can be categorized into goodwill and competence. The first concerns “a partner's ability to comply with agreements” and the second involves “their intentions to do so "(Zhang *et al.*, 2023).

This statement finds support in the work of Doney *et al.*(1998), which reiterates that trust can be delineated as the readiness to trust another party and take actions in situations where such decisions make an individual vulnerable to the actions of the other party. This vulnerability is only possible in circumstances in which there is an expectation of reciprocity, a fundamental characteristic of cooperation (Anderson & Narus, 1990). It is relevant to recognize that trust facilitates cooperative processes (Schurr & Ozanne, 1985).

Cooperation and trust are interdependent components, which play essential roles in shaping successful relationships and in the achievement of mutual results (Madhok, 1995; Schurr & Ozanne, 1985). Madhok (1995) highlights the importance of fostering trustworthiness through facilitating efficient and effective cooperation. Each successful cooperative act strengthens trust stocks, which facilitate new cooperative initiatives (Zhang *et al.*, 2023). In this way, cooperation assumes an elementary task in the ability to increase or decrease trust between the parties (Madhok, 1995).

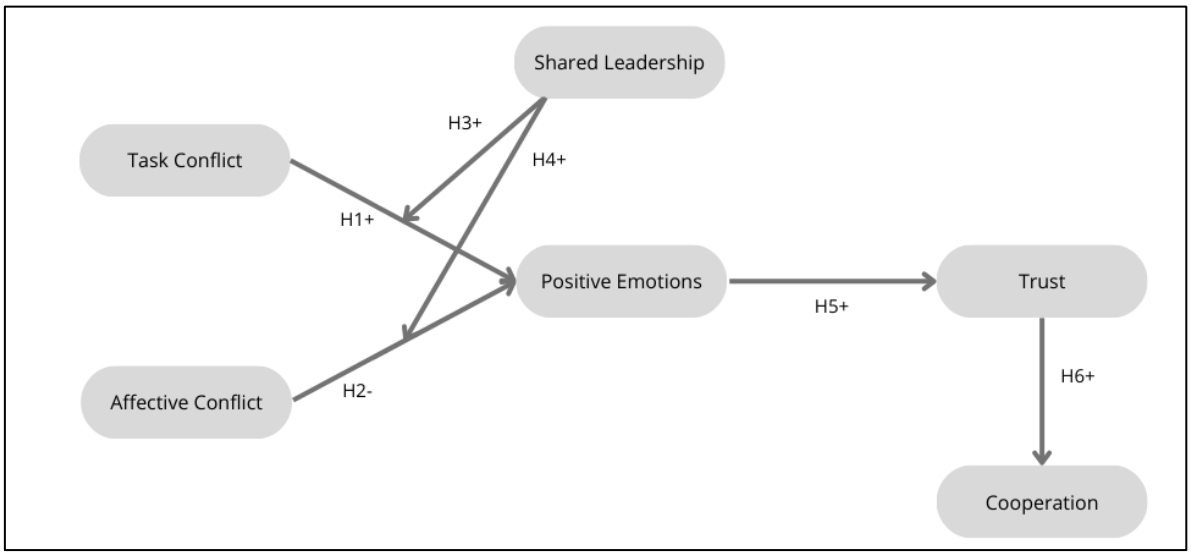
Cooperation can promote trustworthiness. However, it is reduced when conflict events occur (Zhang *et al.*, 2023). This reduction occurs because conflicts negatively affect the two pillars of trust: the perception of competence and goodwill (Zhang *et al.*, 2023). In view of this,

it can be understood that, by enabling higher levels of trust among team members, there is an incentive for a more collaborative work environment (Stern & Gorman, 1969). This positive relationship operates through three main mechanisms: (1) reduction of uncertainty in interactions, (2) decrease in the need for formal control, and (3) increase in the willingness to take interpersonal risks (Doney *et al.*, 1998). This emphasis on trust can ultimately lead to an increase in cooperative behavior and better overall team performance. This association reflects the complementary nature of these two constructs: trust reduces the costs of cooperation, and cooperation strengthens bonds of trust, creating a virtuous cycle that improves organizational performance (Madhok, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2023). In this regard, this study proposes its last hypothesis: *H6* - trust is positively with cooperation.

In this sense, based on the formulated hypotheses, originating from the proposed objectives and the studies carried out in the relevant literature, the model presented in Figure 1 was constructed. The hypotheses derived from an analysis of the objectives established for the research, aligning with the findings and theories present in academic and scientific publications relevant to the topic.

Figure 1

Proposed research model



Source: Research data (2025).

The next chapter details the method used for the practical execution of the study, aiming to clarify the steps taken and facilitating possible reproductions of the work. This chapter

focuses on the proposed scheme, the methodological structure considered, and the techniques used to obtain and evaluate the data.

3 RESEARCH METHOD AND TECHNIQUES OF TECHNICAL PRODUCTION

The research delineation deals precisely with the contrast between theory and facts. Its form is that of a strategy or general plan that determines the necessary operations to put it into action (Gil, 2008). Thus, this item acts as a methodological guide, establishing the structure used for data collection and analysis, ensuring that the operations performed are aligned with the objectives of the study and allowing possible replications.

3.1 RESEARCH OUTLINE

In terms of approaching the problem, the research methodology employed is quantitative, focusing on the analysis of multiple variables. Techniques like this follow a research model in which the researcher formulates hypotheses about the phenomena and situations under study (Creswell, 2007). The emphasis during data collection was on information that could be converted into numbers to verify the occurrence of these consequences (Creswell, 2007). Subsequently, the hypotheses were accepted or rejected, albeit provisionally (Creswell, 2007).

The classification regarding the objectives of the study is exploratory in nature, as it allows the researcher to reveal perceptions about the methods and reasons for the research, promoting a deeper understanding of the subject (Malhotra, 2012). The data were analyzed with the aid of statistics, including multivariate analysis or other mathematical techniques (Popper, 1972). This method is commonly used in exploratory studies aiming to identify and categorize relationships between variables. These studies seek to discover “what it is”, revealing the characteristics of a phenomenon (Richardson, 1989).

This approach facilitates the characterization of these hypotheses, examining their frequencies, means, and relationships, as well as assisting in the quantification of the dependent variable (cooperation). Through the use of this methodology, it is possible to examine the theoretical assumptions about the existing connections, with the aim of offering an accurate and well-founded assessment of the results (Creswell, 2007).

The research also made use of a theoretical framework, through which works by seminal authors were referenced to explore and advance investigations within the chosen field of study. The literature review offered a critical assessment of the methodologies and findings of previous studies. This evaluation was paramount for the researcher to verify the reliability and

importance of previously conducted studies, while taking into account the constraints and developments of previous research (Creswell, 2010).

3.2 VARIABLES AND DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The present study sought information through two main methods: theoretical research and data collection. Theoretical investigation is necessary to develop the hypotheses and organize a conceptual framework. The research was conducted mainly in the international database *Web of Science*, in addition to reference articles in the *International Journal of Conflict Management.* This procedure was designed to establish a robust theoretical foundation to enhance the analysis and understanding of the phenomena under investigation.

Subsequently, the research instrument was created, with the aim of collecting empirical data, as specified in Appendix A. The instrument contained 37 questions, structured to achieve the objective of the study. They were divided into six sections, which examined the variables.

For the variables involving cognitive conflict and affective conflict, the intragroup Conflict Scale of Jehn (1995) was used. The Conflict Scale has good internal reliability indices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). It consists of eight items and two dimensions. This scale has been widely validated in previous research, including in the Brazilian context, through the research of Silva and Puente-Palacios (2010), ensuring its reliability and relevance in the scenario of team conflicts.

The scale used to measure shared leadership in this study was developed by Carson *et al.* (2007). The scale assessed shared leadership through three dimensions: shared purpose, social support, and voice. This study is considered seminal, having been cited more than three thousand times. Its use gives methodological consistency to the study, providing comparisons with previous studies that used the same scale.

To assess trust, the scale of Costa *et al.* (2017) was applied, exploring a multifaceted measure of trust in the workplace and specifically in the framework of work teams. It is divided into four dimensions (propensity to trust, perceived trust, cooperative behaviors, and behavior monitoring). For this investigation, the second dimension was used.

To assess the variable cooperation, the same scale by Costa *et al.* (2017) was used, in the dimension of cooperation behaviors. Cooperation was measured according to commitment within the team and cooperative actions within the team. This choice of measures ensures that both trust and cooperation are accurately and reliably assessed.

Finally, for the variable emotion, the *Work-Related Affective Feelings* (WORAF) scale, proposed by Jaworek *et al.*(2020), was used. This measure assesses work-related feelings associated with four emotions: happiness, fear, anger, and sadness. For the study in question, the dimension happiness was chosen, which is associated with emotions such as joy, excitement, enthusiasm, and contentment. The scale was validated in the Brazilian context through the study of Gomes *et al.* (2014).

In all the constructs used in this research, the five-point Likert scale was standardized. The response options for this scale are: *strongly disagree, partially disagree, neutral, partially agree, and fully agree*. This choice aimed to ensure consistency in the evaluation of the perceptions of participants throughout the different topics investigated.

Table 1

Description of variables

Constructs	Questions	Sources
Cognitive Conflict	There is a lot of disagreement about opinions regarding the work being done in my work team.	Jehn (1995)
	There are many conflicts of ideas in my work team.	
	There is a lot of conflict regarding the work I do in my work team.	
	There are many conflicts of ideas in my work team.	
Affective conflict	There is a lot of friction among members of my work team.	Jehn (1995)
	Personality conflicts are evident in my work team.	
	There is a lot of tension among the members of my work team.	
	There is a lot of emotional conflict among members of my work team.	

Table 1 (continued)

Constructs	Questions	Sources
Leadership	Team members spend time discussing our team's purpose, goals, and expectations for a project.	Carson *et al.* (2007)
	Team members discuss the main tasks and goals of our team to ensure that we have a fair understanding.	
	Team members have developed action plans and timelines that allow us to achieve our team's goals.	
	My team members talk enthusiastically about our team's progress.	
	Team members recognize each other's accomplishments and hard work.	
	Team members offer encouragement to team members who seem frustrated.	
	People on the team are encouraged to express themselves to test their ideas during discussions.	
	As a member of this team, I have a voice in decisions on how the team performs its work.	
	Everyone on this team has a chance to participate and express their opinions.	
	My team supports everyone's active participation in decision-making.	
Cooperation	In this team, we work in a climate of cooperation.	Costa *et al.*(2017)
	In this team, we discuss and deal with issues or problems openly.	
	When making a decision, we take into account each other's opinion.	
	Some people in the team hide important information.	
	In this team, people avoid talking too much about themselves.	
	Most people on this team are open to helping others.	
Trust	In this team, people can trust each other.	Costa *et al.*(2017)
	We have full trust in each other's ability to perform their tasks.	
	In this team, people deliver what they promise.	
	There are members in the team who pursue goals that are not clearly communicated.	
	Some people in this team often try to escape from commitments already made.	
	In this team, people act with honesty when considering each other's interests.	

Table 1 (continued)

Constructs	Questions	Source
Emotions	My team finds the work enjoyable.	Jaworek *et al.* (2020)
	My team is satisfied with what they do.	
	My work team feels that work offers a sense of accomplishment.	
	My work team finds contentment in work.	
	Overall, my work team feels relaxed and free.	
	My work team is happy with the relationships they have with their superiors.	
	My work team has a positive attitude towards the tasks and problems they face at work.	

Source: Research data (2025).

3.3 RESEARCH UNIVERSE

The research universe consisted of a group of public servants, interns and outsourced workers, working in a public institution of federal level, with approximately 500 employees in Brazil, who work both in face-to-face work teams and in remote teams. The organization is a federal autarchy that exercises, throughout the national territory, the prevention and repression of infractions against the economic order, guided by the constitutional dictates of freedom of initiative, free competition, the social function of property, consumer protection, and repression of the abuse of economic power (Brazil, 2011).

The sample was defined as including all positions working in the institution, composed of: lawyers, economists, specialists in public policies and government management, pedagogues, psychologists, administrators, journalists, administrative technicians, teachers, and accountants. The criterion for participation is the willingness to participate. The sample that the research reached is important due to its variety of professions, providing a comprehensive and diverse view on the topic studied.

The sample power was calculated from the G*Power v. 3.1 software, which performs accurate sample size calculations, ensuring high reliability in the results. The use of G* Power allowed the research to present the statistical robustness necessary to validate the conclusions of the study, ensuring that the sample is representative and sufficient to test the hypotheses formulated. Considering the desired statistical power of at least 0.85 and significance level 0.05, by means of the a priori test of sampling power, a minimum sample for the research of 102 observations was defined.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data collection took place during the month of October 2024. Participants were invited to fill out the structured form available via institutional email, through Google Forms. This platform facilitated the dissemination and access to the questionnaire, functioning as a secure means of storing the data collected. In the form, questions were included to collect profile information from the participants, such as gender and age, for a more detailed demographic analysis.

For the data analysis, a total of 133 respondents were obtained. With this, the *post hoc* sample power test was performed, which demonstrated a statistical power of 0.94, above what was defined, demonstrating the possibility of analysis through structural equation modeling. The research included the participation of individuals of different employment relationships, ages, and positions within the organizational teams, providing a comprehensive overview of the analyzed environment. The majority of respondents stated that they were effective public servants, representing 50.4% of the sample, followed by outsourced employees, who made up 38.3% of the participants. Interns completed the group, with 11.3% of the total, as shown in Table 2.

Regarding gender, 62.4% of the participants identified themselves as female, while 37.6% as male. The ages of the respondents with the highest concentration were in the ranges of 28 to 32 years (19.5%) and 38 to 42 years (16.5%), according to Table 2.

Table 2

Employment Relationship and Sex Frequency

What is your employment relationship:	Count	% of total	cumulative %
Outsourced employee	51	38.3%	38.3%
Intern	15	11.3%	49.6%
Public servant	67	50.4%	100.0%
What is your birth gender:	Count	% of total	cumulative %
Female	83	62.4%	62.4%
Male	50	37.6%	100.0%

Source: Research data (2025).

In terms of hierarchical position, the vast majority of participants (91.0%) acted as team members, while 9.0% identified themselves as leaders, according to Table 3.

Table 3

Hierarchical Position

What is your position in the team:	Count	% of total	cumulative %
Leader	12	9.0%	9.0%
Member	121	91.0%	100.0%

Source: Research data (2025).

The team sizes of the respondents varied, with emphasis on teams of six to ten people, who represented 38.3% of the sample, and those of 11 to 15 people, with 24.8%, according to Table 4. Regarding training time, more than a third of the analyzed teams were formed a year ago (31.4%), evidencing an organizational environment focused on new work dynamics. The 4.2% who answered “zero” corresponded to the participants who chose to leave this question blank, in line with Table 4.

Table 4

Team size and training

How many people are on your team, including yourself:	Count	% of total	cumulative %
23 or more	16	12.0%	12.0%
5 or fewer	27	20.3%	32.3%
Between 11 to 15	33	24.8%	57.1%
Between 16 to 22	6	4.5%	61.7%
Between 6 to 10	51	38.3%	100.0%
How long has your team existed? (In full years)	**Count**	**% of total**	**cumulative %**
0	5	4.2%	4.2%
1	37	31.4%	35.6%
2	25	21.2%	56.8%
3	12	10.2%	66.9%
4	10	8.5%	75.4%
5	3	2.5%	78.0%
6	5	4.2%	82.2%
8	3	2.5%	84.7%
10	5	4.2%	89.0%
12	3	2.5%	91.5%
13	4	3.4%	94.9%
15	2	1.7%	96.6%
20	3	2.5%	99.2%
23	1	0.8%	100.0%

Source: Research data (2025).

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) by Partial Least Squares method (PLS-SEM), in its 4.0 version, was used to evaluate the theoretical model. This method minimizes the error associated with endogenous variables by analyzing the latent variables individually (Hair *et al.*, 2017). It is precipitously used in business and management research (Hair, Hult *et al.*, 2014). PLS-SEM solves several problems associated with modeling covariance-based structural equations.

First, PLS-SEM offers accurate model estimates even for small samples (Hair, Hult *et al.*, 2014). This approach allows the analysis of the adjustment of the theory to the data, that is, the comparison between reality and the proposed theoretical model (Hair *et al.*., 2017), allowing the confirmation or refutation of research hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The *Partial Least Squares* approach (PLS-SEMt or PLS *path modeling*) was adopted in this research due to its flexibility and suitability for analysis of complex models in Applied Social Sciences. It makes it possible to work with latent variables and measurement errors, frequent characteristics in studies of related areas (Hair, Gabriel, & Patel, 2014).

In addition, this technique is recommended when the available data do not meet the assumptions required by traditional multivariate methods, such as normality and large sample sizes, with PLS-SEM being a robust interpolation based on partial least squares (Ringle *et al.*, 2014). The consolidated literature highlights its ability to generate reliable results in exploratory and predictive analyses, according to the works of Anderson and Gerbing (1988), Fornell and Larcker (1981), Hair, Hult *et al.* (2014), and Hair *et al.* (2017).

Analysis in the structural model takes place in two stages. First, the measurement model is evaluated, which involves the relationships between the indicators (questionnaire questions) and their respective constructs, observing the convergent and discriminant validities, in addition to the composite reliability of the model (Hair *et al.*, 2017). Then, the structural model is analyzed, which describes the relationships between the constructs, providing the comparison between the theoretical model and reality (Hair *et al.*, 2017), making it possible to confirm or refute research hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

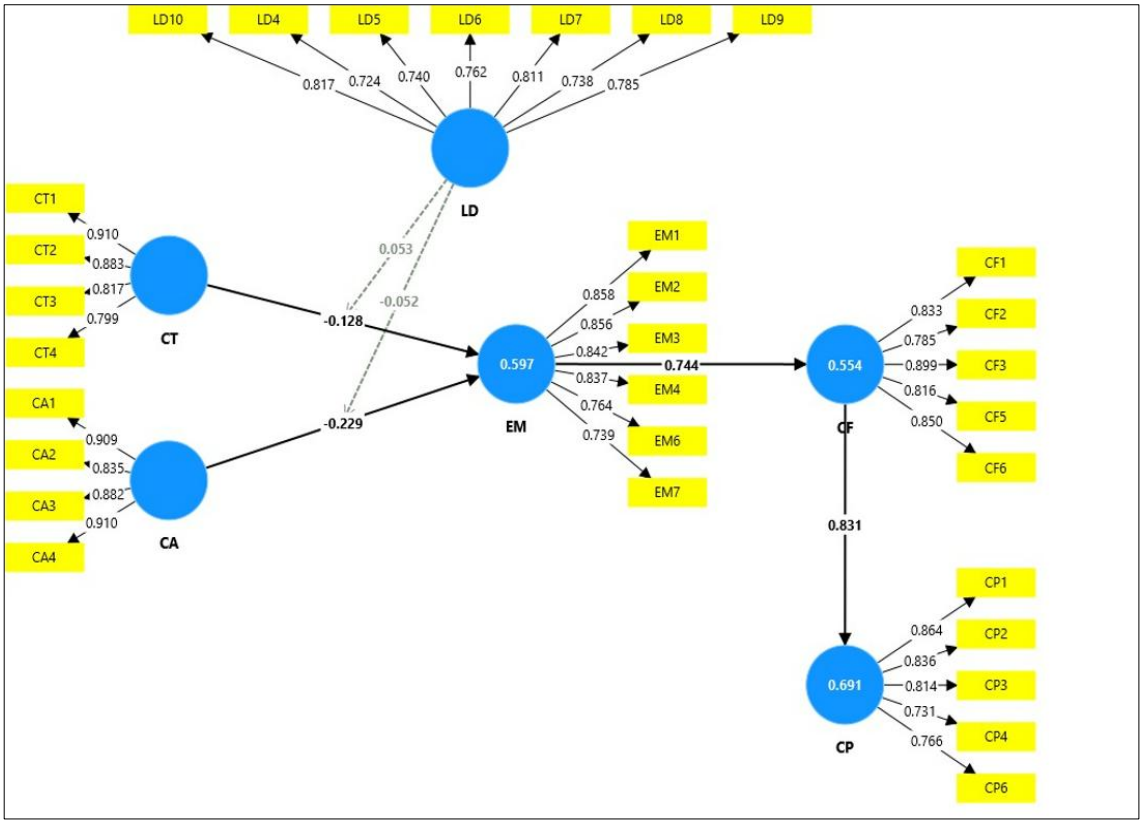
4 RESULTS

In the Confirmatory Factor Analysis, six assertions (EM5, CF4, CP5, LD1, LD2, and LD3) were excluded due to the factor loading below 0.70. Three assertions (CP4, CF4, and CF5) were inverted due to the factor loading. Assertions with factor loading below 0.70 or with inverted load are usually discarded or adjusted to ensure the quality of the analysis results (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

Factor loading is a measure that reflects the correlation between an observed variable, such as the assertive one, and the latent factor that it aims to measure (Field, 2002). When the factor loading is low, this indicates that the assertion is not contributing to the measurement model, which can compromise the reliability and validity of the analysis (Brown, 2015). Similarly, assertions with inverted factor loading indicate an unexpected negative relationship between the observed variable and the factor, which can be corrected by inverting the assertive score or reformulating it (Hair *et al.*, 2017). The final adjusted model is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Final Adjusted Model



Source: Research data (2025).

Figure 2 presents the correlations between each pair of variables that make up the model. As can be seen, the correlations between all variables are significant, indicating substantial relationships between them. The validation of the measurement model was performed based on the following criteria: reliability and validity of the construct and discriminant validity. To evaluate the reliability and validity of the construct, Cronbach's Alpha indices, Composite Reliability (- CR) and AVE (*Average Variance Extracted*) were calculated.

For the research, Alpha was estimated at 0.862 to 0.907. Regarding Reliability, the estimated values were from 0.861 to 0.911, well above the minimum acceptable value of 0.70. As for the average variance extracted (AVE), the estimated values were from 0.646 to 0.783, all above the limit of 0.50 (Cohen, 1988). These values are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables

	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (rho_a)	Composite reliability (rho_c)	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CA	0.907	0.911	0.935	0.783
CF	0.893	0.896	0.921	0.701
CP	0.862	0.861	0.901	0.646
CT	0.876	0.889	0.915	0.729
EM	0.900	0.900	0.923	0.668
LD	0.884	0.887	0.910	0.591

Source: Research data (2025).

To verify discriminant validity, we used the criterion proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), according to which discriminant validity refers to the extent that a specific variable of the model uniquely represents a single construct, being distinct from the other constructs present in the model. The results, shown in Table 6, confirm the discriminant validity of the model. It is observed that the AVE square roots values are higher than the correlations between the constructs, evidencing the adequacy of the discriminant validity, as below.

Table 6

Correlation and square root of AVE

	CA	CF	CP	CT	EM	LD
Affective conflict	0.885					
Trust	-0.717	0.838				
Cooperation	-0.734	0.831	0.804			
Task conflict	0.666	-0.660	-0.584	0.854		
Emotions	-0.635	0.744	0.756	-0.560	0.817	
Leadership	-0.637	0.681	0.786	-0.525	0.731	0.769

Source: Research data (2025).

4.1 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The first hypothesis (H1) aimed to verify whether task conflict was positively associated with positive emotions. According to the results, no significant association was observed between task conflict and positive emotions (*p-value = 0.139 > 0.05*). Regarding the second hypothesis (H2), which sought to identify whether affective conflict was negatively associated with positive emotions, the results confirmed this association (*p-value = 0.016*).

Hypotheses H3 and H4, which aimed to investigate whether shared leadership positively moderated the relationship between task conflicts and emotions, and between affective conflicts and emotions, respectively, were not confirmed (*p-value = 0.470* and *p-value = 0.501*). Finally, hypothesis H5, which aimed to analyze whether positive emotions were positively associated with the level of trust, was confirmed (*p-value = 0.000*). Hypothesis H6, which investigated the positive association between trust and cooperation (*p-value = 0.000*), was also confirmed. The results of the hypothesis tests are described in Table 7.

Table 7

Hypothesis test result

	Path	P values	Conclusion
Task Conflict > Emotions	-0.128	0.139	Not sustained
Affective Conflict > Emotions	-0.229	0.016	Sustained
Leadership x Affective conflict> Emotions	-0.052	0.501	Not sustained
Leadership x Affective conflict > emotions	0.053	0.470	Not sustained
Emotions> Trust	0.744	0.000	Sustained
Trust> Cooperation	0.831	0.000	Sustained

Source: Research data (2025).

5 RESULTS DISCUSSION

The results obtained did not indicate an expressive association between task conflict and positive emotions, contrary to the initial hypothesis (H1). Although the p-value obtained (0.139) does not support the proposed relationship, it is clear that the conflict of tasks can have an important role in improving the quality of decisions. Amason (1996) argues that the confrontation between different perspectives allows the synthesis of ideas, resulting in better-founded decisions.

Task conflict, resulting from functional diversity and distinct experiences of members, is a common phenomenon in teams. Pelled *et al.*(1999) emphasize that the manifestation of these differences occurs when there is an exchange of ideas and open debates. This type of interaction, despite not directly evoking positive emotions, creates an environment in which alternatives can be explored and evaluated (Schweiger & Sandberg, 1989). Therefore, the absence of positive emotions may not necessarily be an indicator of negative impact, but of focusing on rational and constructive aspects.

Furthermore, task conflict promotes a dynamic that allows team members to feel more committed to the decisions made (Amason, 1996). This commitment is amplified when participants perceive conflict as constructive (Parayitam & Dooley, 2009). Olson *et al.*(2007) suggest that, when team members have the opportunity to debate their ideas freely, the resulting decisions are more reasoned and accepted.

The diversity of positions, functions, and employment relationships among respondents directly reflects the concept of functional diversity. This diversity provides a wide range of cognitive perspectives, contributing to the emergence of task conflicts (Lovelace *et al.*, 2001; Mooney *et al.*, 2007). In addition, the functional diversity, as discussed by Pelled *et al.* (1999), stimulates debate and the exchange of ideas due to the different interpretations that each group may have about organizational challenges.

This plurality of views optimizes task conflict and strengthens the team's ability to synthesize distinct perspectives into more informed decisions. Thus, diversity among respondents, including their different backgrounds and employment relationships, can be a crucial factor in fostering innovation, organizational learning, and more effective decision-making.

The fact that 58.6% of respondents integrate teams with 10 people or fewer is directly related to the influence of team size on dynamics and performance. Smaller teams have greater potential to develop more efficient and cohesive communication, since coordination is less

challenging and members have more opportunities to interact directly (Korsgaard *et al.*., 2008). This structural configuration facilitates the recognition of individual expertise within the team, reducing the chances of misunderstandings and affective conflicts, which can positively impact collective performance (Amason & Sapienza, 1997).

However, even in smaller teams, task conflict can arise, as more frequent interaction tends to reveal differences in perspectives and approaches among members (Brewer & Kramer 1986; Mooney *et al.*, 2007). These teams, by having a limited number of members, can potentially exchange information more quickly and promote a greater diversity of ideas, without the structural and social challenges that often affect larger teams (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2004).

In this regard, the predominant configuration observed among respondents may be advantageous, since it combines the benefits of a smaller structure with the possibility of resolving task conflicts in a constructive manner, aligned with organizational objectives.

The research results confirmed the second hypothesis (H2), showing that affective conflict is negatively associated with positive emotions (*p-value = 0.016*). These findings are in line with the existing literature, which points out that affective conflicts tend to evoke negative emotions and impair team performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1997). There is a significant negative association between affective conflicts and performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

A mean corrected correlation of -0.22 was found between affective conflict and performance, reinforcing that these disputes impair collaboration and the quality of interactions in teams (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). This is because the negative emotions associated with affective conflict interfere with the quality of decision-making and knowledge exchange (Amason, 1996; Yusoff et al., 2013).

In addition, affective conflicts can divert team's attention from the main tasks, leading them to focus on interpersonal disputes and power struggles (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). This harmful dynamic was also observed in larger teams, where coordination becomes more difficult and exacerbated social categorization increases the likelihood of relational conflicts (Katzenbach & Smith 1993; Mooney *et al.*, 2007). Thus, affective conflict, even in smaller teams, as in the case of research, can still inhibit collaborative interactions.

Functional diversity, although beneficial for creativity and innovation, can also contribute to the emergence of affective conflicts (Kallarackal *et al.*, 2013). Even if diversity broadens the range of perspectives and potentially improves the quality of solutions (Hoever *et*

al., 2018), it can also create barriers to cooperation and strategic consensus, especially in teams in which functional diversity is misused or poorly understood (Knight *et al.*, 1999).

Finally, although the research was developed with smaller teams, it was found that affective conflicts can emerge as a result of individual differences and interpersonal tensions. These conflicts not only affect positive emotions, but also compromise the effectiveness of processes and team morale. Thus, the research results corroborate the existing literature, demonstrating that affective conflict represents a relevant challenge to team cohesion.

The negative emotions derived from these conflicts compromise the quality of decision-making and the exchange of knowledge (Yuni *et al.*, 2020; Yusoff *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, interpersonal disputes divert the focus from core tasks to issues of power, resulting in diversion of resources such as time and effort (Haur *et al.*, 2017). In this context, these dynamics contribute to the deterioration of team morale and cohesion (Barki & Hartwick, 2004).

In some circumstances, these conflicts may have neutral or less intensely negative associations with team performance (Jehn & Greer, 2012). However, the prevalence of evidence on negative effects highlights the importance of minimizing affective conflicts in teams to preserve both positive emotions and work efficiency (Dewi *et al.*, 2019).

The research result becomes relevant mainly in teams characterized by great functional diversity, such as the study respondents. Although this diversity is normally associated with benefits, such as creativity and innovation (camel-Ordaz *et al.*, 2005; Hoever *et al.*, 2018), it can also increase the propensity for affective conflicts (Kallarackal *et al.*, 2013; Pelled *et al.*, 1999). These conflicts, by generating negative emotions, can hinder the search for agreements and strategic consensus (Knight *et al.*, 1999), compromising internal processes and team effectiveness.

Interactions tend to be more intense and personal, reducing barriers to communication and amplifying relational conflicts given the greater proximity between members (Brewer & Kramer, 1986). Although they face fewer coordination challenges compared to larger teams (Mooney *et al.*, 2007), smaller teams may be more vulnerable to personal disagreements that intensify affective conflicts (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). Taking into account that affective conflicts are negatively associated with positive emotions, it is essential that managers be aware of this aspect, adopting strategies to minimize negative emotional impacts.

The hypothesis of positive moderation by shared leadership was not confirmed when it comes to task conflicts and emotions. Previous research indicates that task conflicts, unlike affective conflicts, have the potential to contribute to team performance, provided they are properly managed (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Todorova *et al.*, 2014, 2022). Task conflicts,

although related to disagreements about work, can generate significant emotional demands, which, when they exceed the available resources, frequently result in emotional exhaustion (Dijkstra, 2009; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This state of burnout can impair engagement, particularly in environments where task conflicts are intense (Carnevale & Probst, 1998).

This result contradicts, in part, the existing literature, which often associates shared leadership with better conflict management and emotional regulation (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Todorova *et al.*, 2022). The theory assumes that, when leadership is distributed, task conflicts tend to be perceived as learning opportunities rather than threats, thus reducing negative emotions and promoting a collaborative climate (Barsade, 2002; Hoch, 2013). However, the data from this research indicate that, in the context studied, shared leadership did not exert this significant moderating effect.

In this regard, the level of intensity of the task conflict plays a considerable role in its effects. When at low or moderate levels, task conflicts can stimulate critical thinking and the exchange of perspectives without straining the emotional and cognitive resources of individuals (De Dreu, 2006; Shaw *et al.*, 2011). However, as the intensity of conflict increases, there is a concomitant increase in excitement and tension, making it difficult to process information and make decisions (Carnevale & Probst, 1998; Galbraith, 1974).

Positive emotions can amplify productivity, while negative emotions result in adverse motivational states and decreased collective effort (Seo *et al.*, 2004; Staw *et al.*, 1981). Even if these conflicts can be less stressful than affective conflicts (Meier *et al.*, 2013), particular care is required to avoid emotional burnout.

A possible explanation for this finding lies in the nature and intensity of the conflicts experienced by the analyzed teams. Task conflicts at moderate levels stimulate innovation and critical thinking (De Dreu, 2006). However, more intense conflicts can overload the emotional resources of individuals, particularly in teams with little maturity or clarity of roles (Carnevale & Probst, 1998). The sample of this research included a significant number of newly formed teams (31.4% with less than a year of existence), which may have limited the ability of these groups to manage conflicts productively. In addition, the predominance of effective public servants (50.4%) and outsourced employees (38.3%) in the sample may have introduced different power dynamics and perceptions of psychological security, affecting the way conflicts were experienced.

Another relevant factor was the hierarchical composition of the teams. The vast majority of respondents (91%) were team members, while only 9% identified themselves as formal leaders. While shared leadership does not necessarily require the presence of traditional leaders,

the absence of mediating figures in highly ambiguous scenarios may have hindered effective conflict resolution (Bligh *et al.*, 2006).

Despite the non-confirmation of H3, this finding paves the way for future investigations. In practical terms, organizations wishing to implement shared leadership should invest not only in the distribution of responsibilities, but also in the development of emotional regulation skills and the construction of safe psychological environments (Edmondson, 1999). In summary, shared leadership is a promising approach to conflict management. However, the results indicate that the mere distribution of leadership does not guarantee, in itself, an emotionally positive environment.

Regarding the moderating hypothesis of shared leadership with affective conflicts and emotions – it was not supported. Affective conflicts, commonly associated with interpersonal tensions, have profound impacts on emotional exhaustion and engagement at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Spector & Bruk-Lee, 2008). Affective conflicts are among the most damaging stressors in the workplace, often associated with increased tension and reduced well-being (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2011). These conflicts often create social and psychological discomfort within teams, impairing cohesion and collaboration (Seo *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, at high levels, these conflicts exacerbate the sense of interpersonal threat, hindering the productive resolution of disagreements and leading to emotional exhaustion (Benitez *et al.*, 2018; Esbati & Korunka, 2020).

The effectiveness of shared leadership depends on its ability to integrate practices that encourage dialog and empathy, basic elements to minimize negative emotional impacts (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). A viable approach to dealing with affective conflicts is the reformulation of disagreements, which allows the reinterpretation on emotionally charged situations in a more neutral way (Sheppes *et al.*, 2014). When leaders, together with their teams, adopt this perspective, there is a reduction in cognitive and emotional demands, promoting greater resilience and engagement at work (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2009).

The research results did not confirm hypothesis H4, which predicted a positive moderating effect of shared leadership on the relationship between affective conflicts and emotions. This finding is particularly interesting when contrasted with the existing literature, since it repeatedly stresses the ability of shared leadership to mitigate the negative effects of interpersonal conflicts (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Hoch, 2013). The theory suggests that the distributed nature of this form of leadership would create multiple points of emotional mediation, preventing overloading of any individual and facilitating collective regulation of emotions (Bligh *et al.*, 2006).

A possible explanation for this divergence may lie in the specific characteristics of the sample. The predominance of effective public servants (50.4%) in conjunction with a considerable proportion of outsourced employees (38.3%) may have created asymmetric power dynamics that limited the effectiveness of shared leadership. As noted by Fields and Blum (1997), in junctures where there are significant differences in status and job security, distributed mechanisms of emotional regulation may become less effective. Furthermore, the fact that 91% of the respondents were team members may have reduced the perception of legitimacy for intervention in affective conflicts, even in a supposedly shared structure.

The average age of the participants (with concentration in the ranges of 28-32 and 38-42 years) and the time of formation of the teams (31.4% with less than one year) also offer important inputs. As suggested by Hollenbeck *et al.*(2002), younger teams with less time together may not yet have developed the "shared emotional capital" necessary to effectively deal with affective conflicts. This lack of collective maturity may have overwhelmed the mechanisms of shared leadership, especially in medium and large teams (6-15 people), where the complexity of coordination is greater.

In conclusion, shared leadership remains a promising approach to conflict management. However, the results highlight the importance of considering contextual factors and preconditions for its effective implementation.

Hypothesis H5, which aimed to investigate the association between positive emotions and trust level, was confirmed. These findings are in line with the literature. Positive emotions favor the construction of a solid foundation of trust, while negative emotions, such as anger or sadness, which Winnicott (1971) would classify as the result of unresolved frustration experiences, tend to weaken this relationship (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005).

The theory of the circumplex model of affect offers a useful basis for understanding the nature of emotions in relation to trust. This model distinguishes emotions along two dimensions: valence and arousal (Posner *et al.*, 2005). Valence characterizes emotions on a scale from pleasant to unpleasant, whereas arousal measures the intensity of emotions, from calming to activating (Posner *et al.*, 2005). Positive emotions, associated with a higher valence, were distinguished as facilitators in the establishment of trust (Posner *et al.*, 2005). Thus, positive emotions can generate a more conducive environment for the construction of interpersonal bonds of trust (Posner *et al.*, 2005).

When people experience positive valence emotions, they tend to trust others more. This phenomenon can be understood as a mode of positive transference, where past relational experiences influence current expectations (Kets de Vries, 2011), to the extent that emotions of

negative valence generate distrust (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). For example, betrayal, a negative emotional event, substantially reduces trust in interpersonal relationships (Lee & Selart, 2015).

The emotional state of the confident highlights the relevance of the emotional state in the process of trust (Mayer *et al.*, 1995). Managing emotions is necessary for genuine trust building, especially in collaborative environments (Williams, 2007). This evidence corroborates hypothesis H5 and offers a deeper understanding about the role of emotions in the dynamics of interpersonal trust. Organizational trust is a conscious and rational phenomenon, but it is deeply rooted in unconscious emotional processes and in transferential dynamics that reproduce previous relational patterns (Freud, 1921; Kets de Vries, 2011).

Hypothesis H6, which investigated the positive association between trust and cooperation, was confirmed, with the results suggesting that a cooperative style of conflict management can promote trust. Studies point out that members who deal with conflicts cooperatively are more likely to engage in constructive communication, a process that Bion (1961) would describe as characteristic of the “working group” in contrast to “basic assumption groups”, leading to a better understanding of personal disagreements and a greater understanding of the perspectives of others (Dijkstra et al., 2011).

In contrast, a competitive style of conflict management tends to generate threats, bluffing, and intimidation, leading to turbulent debates and conflict escalation (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005). The competitive style undermines the functioning and effectiveness of the group, weakening trust between members (Behfar *et al.*, 2008). In this regard, the literature indicates that a cooperative style of conflict management is effective, mainly in affective conflicts, especially when the level of conflict is high (Andrews & Tjosvold, 1983).

By adopting a cooperative style, group members are able to discuss their differences openly and actively, a "potential space" for the creative transformation of conflicts (Winnicott, 1971), considering both their own concerns and those of others to resolve discrepancies (Tekleab *et al.*, 2009). The use of a cooperative style of conflict management contributes to the reduction of emotional exhaustion and increases engagement at work (Benitez *et al.*, 2011; Tekleab *et al.*, 2009).

Research also reveals that this approach helps mitigate the adverse effects of task conflict by improving the engagement and well-being of group members (Jiang *et al.*, 2013). This validates the importance of a cooperative style for conflict resolution and for building a culture of trust and cooperation in the workplace.

5.1 LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study presented relevant contributions when exploring the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a public institution, especially considering the variables of shared leadership, emotions, and trust. However, some limitations should be highlighted. First, data collection was carried out through a specific sample of public servants from a single federal autarchy, which may limit the generalization of the results to other public or private organizations.

The results of this study, obtained in a specific organizational environment, may not be directly generalizable to other organizations with different cultures or structures, requiring caution in the interpretation and application of the conclusions. It is suggested that future studies expand the sample to include different types of organizations, both public and private, in order to verify whether the observed patterns are maintained in different contexts. In addition, it is interesting to conduct comparative studies between sectors and different organizational cultures, to identify possible variations in results.

In addition, data collection through structured questionnaires is subject to self-report bias, with participants being able to provide socially desirable answers. To mitigate this, future research could adopt mixed methods, combining questionnaires with interviews or direct observation, allowing a more robust understanding of the phenomena studied.

In this regard, the cross-sectional nature of the study makes it impossible to analyze how these relationships develop over time. Future studies may take a longitudinal approach to capture these dynamics. Another limitation is the inclusion of only major variables, such as task and affective conflicts, shared leadership, emotions, and trust. Future research could integrate variables such as organizational culture or organizational climate, which are critical factors in the organizational environment.

6 CONCLUSION

This research aimed to analyze the relationship between conflicts and cooperation in a public institution at the federal level. For this, the research adopted a quantitative and exploratory approach, using a structured questionnaire to collect data from public servants, interns, and outsourced employees of the institution. Variables such as cognitive and affective conflicts, shared leadership, trust, cooperation, and emotions were evaluated with validated scales. The use of statistical techniques, such as structural equation modeling, made it possible to examine relationships between variables.

The results of this study reinforce the complexity of interactions between conflict, cooperation, emotions, shared leadership, and trust in the organizational environment. Although not all hypotheses have been confirmed, the findings contribute to the understanding of team dynamics, especially in public institutions characterized by high functional diversity and bureaucracy.

It was evidenced that affective conflict is negatively associated with positive emotions, highlighting the need to manage interpersonal conflicts carefully to preserve team cohesion. In addition, positive emotions were strongly associated with trust, which, in turn, plays an elementary role in promoting cooperation. These results underscore the importance of creating an environment of trust to facilitate collaboration across teams.

The study presents as main novelty the systematization and integrated analysis of key variables, such as cognitive and affective conflicts, shared leadership, emotions, trust ,and cooperation, in a specific context of federal public institutions. The practical implications for organizations and managers are significant. First of all, the study highlights the relevance of managing interpersonal conflicts proactively, especially those of an affective nature, to prevent them from negatively impacting positive emotions and team cohesion. Secondly, it reinforces the need to promote an environment of trust, since trust has proven to be a central element in facilitating cooperation and collaboration among team members.

For managers, this means investing in practices that strengthen trust, such as transparency in communication, recognition of contributions, and encouraging the active participation of all. Finally, the study suggests that positive emotions at work should be encouraged, as they are directly linked to trust and cooperation. This can be achieved through wellness policies, leadership development programs, and actions that promote a healthy organizational climate.

This study sought to contribute theoretically to the academic literature by deepening the understanding of the dynamics of conflicts and cooperation in organizational frameworks, expanding the knowledge of the area. Thus, the study paves the way for future research and practices aimed at improving team dynamics in diverse organizational scenarios.

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APPENDIX A - APPLIED RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Hello, my name Is Amanda Rottava.

Thank you for dedicating your time to participate in this study, which is part of my Master's research in the Graduate Program in Administration at Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná - Unioeste. This research aims to investigate cooperation in the work environment. The questionnaire contains 37 questions and will take between 10-15 minutes to answer. Your answers are extremely important for the development of the research. There is no need to identify yourself and we guarantee that all information will be treated with complete confidentiality.

We count on your cooperation.

I declare that I have read and agree to the terms and conditions described above.

() Yes

Initial questions - Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents

1. What is your employment relationship?
    - () Public servant
    - () Outsourced employee
    - () Intern
2. What is your gender?
    - () Female
    - () Male
    - ( ) I would rather not say
3. How old are you? (in full years)
   [space for answer]
4. What is your position in the team?
    - () Leader
    - () Member
5. How many people are on your team, including yourself?
    - () Fewer than 5
    - () Between 5 to 10
    - () Between 10 and 15
    - () Between 16 and 22
    - () Above 23
6. How long has your team existed? (in full years)
   [space for answer]

Constructs, questions and cale used in the questionnaire

Constructs	Questions	Scale	Caption
Cognitive Conflict	There is a lot of disagreement about opinions regarding the work being done in my work team. There are many conflicts of ideas in my work team. There is a lot of conflict regarding the work I do in my work team. There are many conflicts of ideas in my work team.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree
Affective conflict	There is a lot of friction among members of my work team. Personality conflicts are evident in my work team. There is a lot of tension among the members of my work team. There is a lot of emotional conflict among members of my work team.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree
Leadership	Team members spend time discussing our team's purpose, goals, and expectations for a project. Team members discuss the main tasks and goals of our team to ensure that we have a fair understanding. Team members have developed action plans and timelines that allow us to achieve our team's goals. The members of my team talk enthusiastically about our team's progress. Team members recognize each other's accomplishments and hard work. Team members offer encouragement to team members who seem frustrated. People on the team are encouraged to express themselves to test their ideas during discussions. As a member of this team, I have a voice in decisions on how the team performs its work. Everyone on this team has a chance to participate and express their opinions. My team supports everyone's active participation in decision-making.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree

Constructs, questions and scale used in the questionnaire (continuation)

Constructs	Questions	Scale	Caption
Cooperation	In this team, we work in a climate of cooperation. In this team, we discuss and deal with issues or problems openly. When making a decision, we take into account each other's opinion. Some people in the team hide important information. In this team, people avoid talking too much about themselves. Most people on this team are open to helping others.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree
Trust	In this team, people can trust each other. We have full trust in each other's ability to perform their tasks. In this team, people deliver what they promise. There are members in the team who pursue goals that are not clearly communicated. Some people in this team often try to escape from commitments already made. In this team, people act with honesty when considering each other's interests.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree
Emotions	My team finds the work enjoyable. My team is satisfied with what they do. My work team feels that work offers a sense of accomplishment. My work team finds contentment in work. Overall, my work team feels relaxed and free. My work team is happy with the relationships they have with their superiors. My work team has a positive attitude towards the tasks and problems they face at work.	1- 2 - 3 - 4 – 5	1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree