UNDERSTANDING NON-COOPERATIVE BEHAVIOR: PSYCHOLOGICAL INSIGHTS AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

BY

Subrahmaniyam Kokkonda, M.E (Engg Mgmt)

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Swiss School of Business and Management Geneva

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements

For the Degree

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

SWISS SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT GENEVA

March, 2025

UNDERSTANDING NON-COOPERATIVE BEHAVIOR: PSYCHOLOGICAL INSIGHTS AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

BY

Subrahmaniyam Kokkonda, M.E (Engg Mgmt)

Supervised by

Dr Minja Bolesnikov, PhD

APPROVED BY

Anna Provodnikova, PhD

Dissertation chair

RECEIVED/APPROVED BY:

Admissions Director

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is profoundly thankful to his advisor, Dr Minja Bolesnikov, for his invaluable insights, continuous support and guidance throughout this research. His expertise and commitment have been pivotal in shaping the direction of this research work.

Author would like to extend his appreciation to his ex-boss Dr L.S.Patil, Chairman, Patil Group, whose collaboration and intellectual discussions have played a crucial role in the development of the ideas which has led to this research work.

Special thanks with a debt of gratitude goes to his family for their unwavering support, encouragement, and understanding throughout this challenging journey. Their love has been the anchor throughout.

Author would also like to thank one and all who provided encouragement, humor, and a sense of perspective during the highs and lows of his PhD.

Author acknowledges that the completion of this research work would not have been possible without the support of all these remarkable individuals.

The Author trusts in God and would profusely thank Almighty God for keeping him intact in the path of the KARMA.

ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING NON-COOPERATIVE BEHAVIOR: PSYCHOLOGICAL INSIGHTS AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

Subrahmaniyam Kokkonda

2025

Dissertation Chair: < "Chair's Name" >

Co-Chair: < "If applicable. Co-Chair's Name" >

Non-cooperative behavior is a major problem in many organizational, social, and economic contexts, impacting teamwork, productivity, and decision-making. This research investigates the psychological underpinnings of non-cooperative behavior, considering cognitive biases, personality, and socio-environmental factors that lead to resistance, conflict, and disengagement. Based on behavioral psychology, game theory, and organizational behavior, the research identifies major drivers of non-cooperation as lack of trust, perceived unfairness, and misaligned incentives. In addition, this research examines the function of transformational leadership in countering non-cooperative tendencies and developing a culture of cooperation. Through vision, stimulation, and individualized consideration, transformational leaders can transform behavioral patterns, build trust, and stimulate shared goals. By combining psychological knowledge with leadership approaches, this study suggests a model for understanding and resolving non-cooperative behavior in teams, organizations, and general societal settings. The results provide practical applications for managers, policymakers, and educators in advocating cooperation and collective achievement.

Keywords: Non-cooperative behavior, psychological insights, transformational leadership, cognitive biases, trust, collaboration, game theory, organizational behavior, leadership strategies, conflict resolution.

Table of Contents

Lists of Tables

Lists of Figures

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

Non-cooperative behavior, characterized by resistance, disengagement, or lack of collaboration, poses significant challenges in organizational and group settings. This behavior often stems from psychological factors such as lack of trust, fear of failure, or perceived inequity. Addressing non-cooperative behavior is crucial for organizational success and team cohesion. Transformational leadership, with its focus on inspiring and motivating followers, has emerged as a promising approach to foster cooperation and mitigate such challenges.

The challenge of addressing non-cooperative behavior is further exacerbated in today's rapidly changing and increasingly diverse workplace environments. Modern organizations require a high degree of collaboration and adaptability to respond to evolving challenges effectively. Leaders, therefore, must possess not only managerial skills but also the ability to inspire and transform their teams. This is where transformational leadership plays a pivotal role. In contrast to "transactional leadership," which prioritizes incentives and penalties to ensure compliance, "transformational leadership" focuses on inspiring and encouraging individuals to surpass expectations and align with collective objectives (Avolio et al., 2009).

By fostering trust, providing a clear and compelling vision, and addressing individual needs, transformational leaders can create an environment where cooperation thrives. The transformational leadership approach goes beyond merely managing non-cooperative behavior; it seeks to understand and transform the underlying causes of such behavior. Through strategies that combine emotional intelligence, motivational techniques, and inclusive practices, transformational leaders can turn potential sources of conflict into opportunities for growth and collaboration.

The dynamics of non-cooperative behavior and its resolution through transformational leadership explores the psychological insights that underpin such behavior, the traits and mechanisms of transformational leadership, and practical strategies for fostering cooperation. By

examining the intersection of psychology and leadership, this study highlights the transformative potential of leadership approaches in addressing one of the most persistent challenges in organizational dynamics.

Non-cooperative behavior can manifest in various forms, including passive resistance, overt defiance, or reduced productivity. Psychological theories suggest that such behavior often arises from unmet needs, unclear expectations, or strained interpersonal relationships (Robbins & Judge, 2019). "Social identity theory" highlights that individuals are more probable to cooperate when they identify strongly with a group or leader. However, in the absence of effective leadership, non-cooperation can erode team dynamics and hinder goal achievement.

Transformational leadership offers a pathway to address these issues by focusing on emotional connections, shared vision, and individual empowerment. Leaders who embody transformational traits can influence attitudes and behaviors, encouraging cooperation through trust and mutual respect. To begin with, non-cooperation can be defined as the failure of individuals or firms to adhere to collective behavioral codes as may be agreed upon by the group. These behaviors normally ratify the psychologically and sociologically defined selfishness of individuals in that economies of most societies have the majority of their workings being altered by individual selfishness usually causing disputes, inefficiencies, or disruptions. The decision to abstain from cooperating in a task or activity such as at work could be noted as a non-cooperative behavior. Some of the examples include withholding one's help when asked by someone, not keeping promises made to others, and engaging in healthy actions that are not meant to be beneficial for the group.

Another example of non-networked behavior is the behavior of people in organizations where they pursue interests that are personally beneficial regardless of the impact such behavior has on the overall efficiency of the system. This action is shown in different ways throughout different types and protocol layers of the network. The omission of commission conceives a more depressing picture than the commission of a partner's non-cooperative behavior in interfirm commission. In the large-scale group decision process, bribery, passivity, and the threat of conflict, which are known to be the effects of non-cooperation, have been ameliorated through the confidence trust-based consensus-reaching process (Yang et al., 2023).

Non-cooperative behavior may come in wireless networks while doing resource management, for instance in co-located sensor network scenarios, pilot power control in cellular networks, and coexistence along borders. According to game theory, such interactions could be modeled and analyzed for non-cooperative settings. Strategies to solve this problem of non-cooperative interaction include incentives to encourage cooperation, clear communication, and mechanisms to resolve conflicts that might emerge between the group members' objectives and the individuals' actions.

Cooperative organizations are not inherently less effective than non-cooperative capitalist firms that require additional oversight to prevent shirking. For example, organizational behavior, such as individual and group dynamics, affects corporate effectiveness. Panja (2022). Positive emotions at work create cooperation and facilitate organizational change through the mechanisms of transformation (Simone, 2014). Transformational leadership can be used as a moderator of deviant workplace behavior to affect job performance negatively (Howladar, Rahman & Jewel, 2018). Predicting over and above personality traits counterproductive work behaviors directed toward organizations and individuals, the model directly models transformational leadership (Scholarworks & His, 2021). Some of these transformational leadership behaviors, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation create group cooperation in organizational settings where work is highly formalized, so very little formal management is required. Transformational leadership often best aligns the interests of individuals and organizations when compared to transactional leadership (AL-Syaidh et al., 2016). Organizational behavior and employees' performance are reviewed in transformational leadership.

Applying Transformational Leadership to Non-Cooperative Behavior

Transformational leadership can directly address non-cooperative behavior through tailored interventions. Leaders can identify the root causes of resistance—such as lack of trust or unclear roles—and implement strategies that promote collaboration. For example, setting clear expectations, providing constructive feedback, and celebrating small wins can gradually shift behavior toward cooperation.

Empirical studies support the effectiveness of transformational leadership in managing diverse teams. A study by Wang et al. (2011) found that teams led by transformational leaders exhibited higher levels of cohesion and reduced instances of interpersonal conflict. This aligns with the idea that transformational leadership fosters an inclusive and motivating environment where non-cooperative behavior is less likely to thrive.

The Psychological Insights: Addressing the Root Causes

Psychological insights play a crucial role in understanding and addressing non-cooperative behavior. Transformational leaders leverage emotional intelligence to recognize and respond to followers' emotions, fostering a sense of belonging and purpose. By addressing psychological barriers such as fear of failure or lack of recognition, leaders can transform resistance into engagement.

For instance, "Maslow's hierarchy" of needs suggests that addressing basic needs for belonging and esteem can lead to elevated levels of motivation and collaboration (Maslow, 1943). Transformational leaders create environments where followers feel psychologically safe, enabling them to participate actively and collaboratively.

Employee engagement has been identified as a distinct factor apart from "transformational leadership and job performance" (Bakker, et.al., 2009). No research has investigated the potential mediating role of employee engagement between "transformational leadership and employee performance", despite evidence indicating that engaged employees exhibit superior performance and that "transformational leaders" foster employee engagement. Transformational leaders strive to improve their employees' work environments. The fluid condition that results from an employee's positive perceptions of their environment is known as employee engagement. Bass (1990). Therefore, it is possible that the perceptions of transformational leadership exhibited by employees can influence the way positively they perceive their environment, thereby influencing Individual commitment at work and leading to a difference in how well they perform.

According to Tims et al. (2011), there is conjecture that engagement might be a significant factor in understanding the connection between transformative leadership and follower performance. However, it is among the first to examine the validity of this theory. Employee

performance outcomes and transformative leadership have been linked in studies, with employees' trust in their supervisor serving as a mediating element.

Psychological Perspectives

According to studies, non-cooperative behavior shows an intense psychological influence. The academic field of business and economics affects cooperation because these types of students tend to be uncooperative. It is due to psychological features like the Theory of Mind and Big Five Personality which free-riding influences directly and intensifies the prior strategic moves good contribution link (DeAngelo, Lang & McCannon, 2016). These kinds of transactions appear to be propelled by evolutionary and cognitive processes toward manifesting irrational tendencies such as reciprocity and punishment of freeloaders. At the individual level, temperament, character, and hormonal state influence social interaction behavior. Neuroimaging studies have recorded that regions like the temporoparietal junction and striatum get activated with the cooperation subjects, and non-cooperation tends to activate the insula, according to Strang & Park (2016). This element of psychology helps explain the reason for a variation in cooperating among various individuals and at different stages, culminating in a final understanding of human nature.

Transformational leadership

By encouraging workers to confront stresses, transformational leadership may help them identify difficult job needs including workload, complexity, and task urgency. Employees frequently find themselves in a more passive role during interactions between leaders and their team members, adjusting to flexible positions that are favorably impacted by their leaders and may need to put aside their interests. Leaders are an important source of social information in the workplace, impacting how staff members perceive, assess, and react to stress, in line with the theories of stress cognition interaction and social information processing (Lazarus and Folkman, 1986). A worker's experience of flourishing at work may be directly impacted by how they perceive different stresses, which can result in varying behaviors and psychological satisfaction levels. Thus, it is evident that both transformational leadership and employees' perceptions of work stress can motivate and inspire employees to thrive in their roles. Transformational leadership consists of four key components:

(1) Idealised influence, in which transformative leaders set an example for their followers and uphold the highest moral standards at work, winning their respect and trust.

(2) Inspiring motivation: This describes how frequently transformational leaders motivate their followers by articulating their principles and providing a clear picture of the objectives to be met.

(3) intellectual stimulation, which entails motivating followers to think freely and imaginatively; and

(4) individualized consideration, in which leaders care about the needs of their followers by paying attention to their goals and challenges in the workplace as well as outside of it.

Adherents of "transformational leaders" often cultivate a more positive perspective towards their leader and their responsibilities, along with the heightened intrinsic drive to fulfill their duties, because these Positive behaviors are exhibited by leaders that enhance intellectual engagement, foster relationships, and promote skill development. Furthermore, followers' general well-being may be enhanced when they have favorable opinions on work-related results. On the other hand, followers may develop unfavorable opinions of the leader and the workplace, which might be detrimental to their well-being, if leaders fail to exhibit transformational traits and followers notice this. The following four key traits of a transformative leader are presented.

The following four key traits of a transformational leader are presented:

- **Inspiration and a shared vision:** Transformational leaders have an eye toward the future and believe that organizational dedication and cooperation can achieve the impossible and open the organization to new opportunities.
- **Challenging the process:** Transformational leaders innovate and experiment with new work processes and technologies, constantly searching for new possibilities and willing to alter the current situation.
- **Setting an example:** Transformational leaders create an environment where company values are evident.
- **Enabling others to act:** Transformational leaders support employees' involvement in all aspects of the workplace, empowering them to take initiative and contribute effectively.

- **Encouraging:** Transformational leaders provide the material and ethical support needed to help others succeed and grow within the organization.

In addition, Bass and Avolio (1994) devised the "Four I's," or the four components of transformative leadership (Stew Art, 2006). Idealized Power. By upholding moral principles, abstaining from violence, and bullying, and encouraging others to work towards the organization's goals, followers might eventually emulate their leader's conduct. Motivation, inspiration, or inspiring motivation by encouraging employees to take on new challenges, fostering their values of enthusiasm and drive, encouraging teamwork, and including them in creating the organization's future vision. Intellectual stimulation by promoting innovative thinking among employees (making suggestions, resolving issues, and analyzing the organization's procedures and frameworks). Personalized attention, by encouraging creative thinking among workers (making fresh suggestions, resolving issues, and examining the organization's procedures and frameworks). Individualized attention is achieved by the transformational leader's understanding of the unique characteristics of each subordinate, managing each one to his unique situation, and establishing an efficient channel of communication between them.

In addition to helping their team members overcome obstacles, transformational leaders also assist them in honing their problem-solving abilities by offering intellectual stimulation, they motivate team members to challenge the status quo and provide their ideas or alternatives. Which may boost output and save resources (like energy). Transformational leaders achieve this by encouraging team members to apply their knowledge and expertise, approach issues from several angles, become proficient in "the problem-solving process", and find the best solutions to increase productivity (Bass, 1985; House & Shamir, 1993). This indicates that leaders can provide team members with enough resources, whether psychological, emotional, or physical, to enable people to try out new methods for solving difficulties.

This can therefore promote psychological openness and enhance team members' involvement at work. Behaviors that improve workers' comprehension of the importance and values connected to task results are the main emphasis of transformational leadership. This is accomplished by outlining a clear future vision, presenting a workable plan of action to accomplish key objectives, and offering each team member individualized assistance. By doing this, managers

may influence workers' attitudes, values, and beliefs, allowing them to perform above and above the minimum requirements specified in their employment contracts. The idea of transformational leadership is still widely used in both the workplace and medical study.

According to this study, transformational leaders assist their followers in understanding the importance of their goals by setting holistic, group-oriented goals for them. Additionally, they allay members' fears about expressing who they are at work by providing tailored assistance. Additionally, members are more motivated to be mentally present in their responsibilities when both material and intangible resources are available. In conclusion, this study expects transformational leaders to motivate their team members to become more involved in their work by exhibiting these four behaviors. Through these four aspects, transformational leaders increase members' job engagement, according to prior research (e.g., Chua & Ayoko, 2019).

Since situational variables contain the service industry as a moderating factor, prior research on the relationship of transformational leadership to well-being did not examine this potential. Sivanathan et al. (2004). Propose that organizational or occupational identity is a variable that may serve as a moderator of the transformational leadership—wellness relationship. They argued that leaders with the traits of transformational leadership could influence an identification level or perceptions of belonging of the person toward the profession or organization. The identity of the organization is defined as the level of perceived cohesion that an employee has with his or her organization while occupational identity is defined as a sense of cohesion that an individual has with his or her occupational group. While transformational leaders may positively influence employees' well-being, this effect may vary with the nature of the service sector that the employees are working in because the level of identification employees have and the degree to which leaders engage with their followers can have an impact on their profession or organization.

Studies on employee engagement have frequently adopted a broad approach that ignores its moment-to-moment dynamics, much like the literature on transformative leadership. Practical research is hampered by this focus on overall engagement results rather than the procedures and contextual elements that influence engagement. Researchers should concentrate on engagement as it was originally described, which was a personal commitment to certain task behaviors, to maximize the performance benefits of employee engagement inside an organization (Kahn, 1990).

Organizations and their leaders may learn more about how to build a feeling of engagement from the bottom up by looking at involvement and the reasons for it and outcomes at the task level as opposed to the more general job level. By taking smaller, easier actions, the issue of developing a more engaged staff may be addressed by executives. The question of whether transformative leaders can increase their followers' involvement in certain activities so remains. Do these increased levels of involvement result in improved performance in those activities if they can?

Cooperative Behavior and Non-Cooperative Behavior

Study on interacting behaviors indicates that, at least in the near term, many actors benefit more from suboptimal behavior than from cooperative behavior (see the Prisoner Dilemma, Kuhn, 2003). Actors are assumed to have a "next opportunity" in several of these studies. There may be less chance of a "next opportunity" if there is significant volatility. When individuals are reassured that no group "comes out on top" at the expense of others, cooperative behavior patterns work best.

The development of cooperative behavior patterns that adjust to the global ecology is a problem for society. As a passive actor engaging with civilization, the ecology can only respond to its usage. Ironically, though, civilization will fail if the ecology fails. Rigid social theories are associated with competing sociopolitical and religious ideas. To promote doctrinal accommodation, discussions of human survival should highlight characteristics of competing systems that are flexible.

Non-cooperative behavior in the workplace involves behavior that places individual interests above those of a group. Non-cooperative behavior in workplace collaborations may be either a commission or omission in interfirm collaborations, with the impact of the commission being significantly more profound on the behaviors of partners (Estrada, Martin-Cruz, & Martin-Pérez, 2022). Non-cooperative behaviors associated with bribery, passive engagement, and possible conflict can emerge in massive group decision-making. These behaviors can be effectively managed by implementing trust-based consensus-reaching mechanisms. Contrary to popular assumption, cooperative businesses are not always inefficient, however, non-cooperative capitalist businesses could be less effective since they require more oversight.

Non-cooperative behavior at the workplace greatly impacts the dynamics and effectiveness of organizations. The literature suggests that a firm's actions in interfirm partnerships are strongly influenced by the impressions of a partner's uncooperative behavior, particularly regarding commission. All antisocial actions and workplace assistance depend on social preferences, personality traits, workforce trust, and people abilities in managers (Haylock et al., 2023).

Difference between Psychological insight and Transformational leadership

Psychological insight

It is a development and spontaneous awareness through one's inner thoughts and interaction with him or herself. It is because it is brought about by personal characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors of the individual and those interacting with them. Transformational leadership is a good fit for psychological resilience. If we want to be a transformative leader who inspires and encourages others, we must be committed to developing resilience. As leaders and those who deal with leaders have long instinctively realized, psychological resilience and leadership are strongly intertwined. Since research now backs up this theory, there is a demand for a new strategy in transformational leadership development. To create the ability for transformative leadership, organizations need to redirect their strategy toward bolstering resilience.

Resilient leaders do not make it extremely far. Like a car without petrol, a leader cannot succeed without resilience, regardless of how many talents they have learned or how skillful they are. Since resilience is the cornerstone of good leadership, its significance in the field cannot be understated.

The current study is conspicuously lacking in its analysis and synthesis of the relationship between transformative "leadership and psychological resilience". Despite being studied independently, these concepts' intricate relationships have not been thoroughly investigated. To fill this knowledge vacuum, this study seeks to provide thorough knowledge of the potential effects of transformational leadership on psychological resilience and reciprocal influence.

Transformational Leadership and Performance

When transformational leadership first emerged, one of its most exciting aspects was the proposed link between this leadership style and employee performance (Bass, 1985). Over thirty years of research, this connection has been consistently supported, with several recent meta-analyses providing convincing evidence that employees under transformational leaders tend to perform at higher levels (Wang et al., 2011). However, as research in this area has expanded, there has been a growing interest in understanding the reasons behind the enhanced performance associated with transformational leadership.

Several recurring themes have surfaced in the literature, even though many theories try to explain how transformational leaders motivate their people to perform better than average. One important result is that by encouraging personal development and change, Followers of transformative leaders are more motivated. For instance, Bass argues that by presenting their work as important (intellectual stimulation) and treating their followers as unique individuals (individualized care), these leaders increase the self-worth of their followers. This fostered a feeling of self-worth is an essential motivator that inspires followers to dedicate themselves to certain performance objectives. Additionally, Transformational leaders, according to Bass, boost followers' motivation and self-efficacy by clearly and succinctly communicating high-performance expectations (idealized influence) and by making inspiring appeals (inspirational motivation).

By establishing organizational norms that support initiative, purposeful behavior, and goal accomplishment, these behaviors eventually contribute to the development of an employee-empowered culture (Masi & Cooke, 2000). Prior studies on transformational leadership have mostly focused on how followers fulfill different responsibilities over time. Fundamental work duties are sometimes referred to as "task performance." However, this differs from performance on a specific task, which disregards variability across time (Wang, Law, Chen, Hackett, & Wang, 2005). This distinction is crucial because the way a leader communicates the task may affect a follower's performance. Consequently, while transformational leaders may motivate their followers to achieve extraordinary results, little is known about how well these leaders can guide their followers to accomplish routine duties. Cooperation, a fundamental human trait, is often

observed across many cultures and is integral to fostering success in both extraordinary and routine tasks.

The study of cooperation has attracted attention from multiple fields, including psychology, economics, sociology, biology, and anthropology, each proposing different motives that may drive cooperative actions. Recently, significant advancements have been made in understanding the neural mechanisms that support cooperation. Both psychological and economic theories have been examined for their validity through neuroscientific approaches. For instance, methods from behavioral economics have been modified for testing in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scanners. Additionally, trans-magnetic brain stimulation (TMS) was used to modulate related brain functions. Cooperative behavior is frequently connected to "positive emotions", while "noncooperative behavior" tends to be associated with "negative emotions". On a neural level, cooperation has been linked to activation in the "temporoparietal junction (TPJ), the striatum, and other areas of the brain related to reward," whereas non-cooperation is primarily associated with activity in the insula.

Transformational leaders inspire others, communicate, show passion, encourage positive change, and lead people toward common goals that improve nurses' well-being. To achieve outstanding organizational performance and efficiency, transformational leadership is essential. Additionally, by offering encouragement and support, empowering people, promoting constructive criticism, encouraging open communication, and exhibiting respect, transformational leaders may increase employee happiness. Additionally, transformational leaders understand the value of empowering their people via accountability, authority delegation, and employee participation in decision-making. This recognizes the growing need to support OCB to optimize the effective use of scarce resources.

A Micro Level of Focus

Several studies have proposed despite the enormous body of evidence demonstrating a link between transformative leaders and performance at the individual level, the relationship between "transformational leadership and performance" is not only established at the group and organizational levels. Several meta-analyses that looked at the relationship between

"transformational leadership and team and organizational performance" have supported these opinions. However, other contextual factors might affect how transformational leaders affect both organizational and team performance.

For example, "Howell and Avolio" found that the connection between transformative leadership and the leader's efficacy team or unit was mitigated by organizational support for innovation. According to Lim and Ployhart (2004), team performance was impacted differently by transformational leadership depending on whether it was facilitated in a normal or maximum performance setting. As a component of his landmark research into transformational leadership, hypothesized that transformational leaders had less of an effect on performance in organizations experiencing "routine, stable external environments compared to more fluid, changing work environments." Thus, a key component of transforming organizations is an understanding of the connection between organizational performance and transformative leadership. Organizational leaders have been and still are overly concerned with the elements that govern how to employ people and, consequently, the organization as efficiently as possible.

With the shift toward a service-based, knowledge economy, firms are moving away from older, production-oriented models of management and will instead require more diverse and adaptive arrays of leadership skills and styles. With globalization and attendant trends becoming even more pronounced, changes could even be dramatic; firms now struggle to compete that, just did not even exist a few decades prior. The most valuable assets of the company are often described as people, including CEOs, in some of the more promising leadership paradigms. However, one of the primary responsibilities of CEOs is to inspire employees to perform at an elevated level to ensure the success of the company, which was one of the primary motivations for this study. To inspire followers to strive for transcendental objectives and to become more resolute, transformational leaders inspire people to go beyond what they had previously expected of themselves.

Relationship to Psychological Meaningfulness

At work, transformational leaders help their subordinates feel challenged. Transformational leaders may convert boring, uninteresting occupations into exciting ones that offer employees a

stronger sense of purpose by empowering their employees to be creative and initiative-taking (Sparks & Schenk, 2001). It is one of the key components of transformative leadership and calls for pushing staff members to view issues differently. There are several benefits to intellectual stimulation.

For instance, Bolkan and Goodboy (2010) discovered that when students thought their professors were intellectually fascinating, they showed elevated levels of drive, happiness, and empowerment. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that the sense of control and importance that subordinates have at work is correlated with intellectual stimulation (Judge Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). It is assumed that the sense of worth, utility, and value—all of which are associated with intense emotions of significance and control—is the foundation for psychological meaningfulness. Therefore, by giving workers a greater sense of purpose, transformational leaders promote engagement. Bandura's social learning theory from 1977 should be used now to describe how followers of transformational leaders find meaning in their work and grow more engaged as a result. SLT was created to explain how people alter their behavior in response to the actions of other people. Nonetheless, SLT has also been employed as a method for leaders to impart abstract ideas like attitudes, values, and beliefs to their followers because their followers see leaders as the organization's agents or representations, they are often seen as social referents that should be imitated (Weiss, 2009). As a result, leaders tend to instill this transference of ideas.

Although expressing values and beliefs is far more difficult than expressing behaviors, transformational leaders may be able to do so by using inspirational motivation, where they "develop and articulate a shared vision and high expectations that are motivating, inspiring, and challenging." Together with the personalized attention and encouragement that transformational leaders provide, this clarity of expectations and goals helps their followers feel purposeful and confident in their ability to achieve wonderful things (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Accordingly, followers of SLT should embrace values to be like the transformational leader, who establishes a value system that involves recognizing leaders and providing a purpose for work and is seen as a social referent.

Availability of the Mind

Availability of the Mind may be viewed as a measure of an individual's confidence or preparedness to do their job (May et al., 2004) Because transformational leaders raise followers' "levels of personal resources"—individual facets of the self that are often linked to resilience—they foster psychological availability (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003). "Transformational leadership" has been linked to several traits, including optimism "(Tims, Bakker, and Derks 2011)", "self-esteem (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, and Ilardi 2007), intrinsic motivation (Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001), well-being (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007), empowerment (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), good affect (Erez et al., 2008), and more."

Self-sufficiency is highly compatible with performance (Chen, Casper, & Cortina, 2001), engagement "(Xanthopoulou et al., 2007)", and transformative leadership (Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011). It may also be a key component of the mechanism that "transformational leaders use to access higher levels of engagement and performance". In terms of the "Galatea", the effect may help one understand personal resources, workforce engagement, and performance such as self-efficacy. The Galatea effect is defined in the literature as a process by which a person converts optimistic expectations about performance results into observable performance results. Stated differently, "one's self-expectations about one's performance and positive beliefs and expectations about one's ability can significantly determine one's real performance or success" "(Zhu et al., 2009)". As was previously said, "transformational leaders" influence their followers' self-efficacy, which has been linked to improved performance and increased engagement at work (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1999).

Through encouraging participation in a particular activity, transformational leaders can have a unique impact on their followers' performance because self-efficacy is particularly significant for short-term success. In situations involving "large-scale group decision-making (LSGDM)," non-cooperative behavior is common. Furthermore, decision-makers in LSGDM frequently use a variety of preferred forms to convey their thoughts, which are impacted by their experiences, education, and expertise. Significant obstacles to LSGDM are presented by the existence of non-cooperative behaviors and a variety of preference information. With an emphasis on its use in financial inclusion, this paper presents a "consensus-reaching approach" intended to

overcome "non-cooperative behaviors" and varied LSGDM. An indicator of distance for various preference structures is developed using a cosine similarity degree. In LSGDM, "Clustering analysis" is used to separate large groups and control "non-cooperative behavior".

To lessen the effects of "non-cooperative behaviors" and improve the agreement a weighing mechanism, a consensus degree, and a reaching process. The convergence of the suggested method is validated by the "theoretical and simulation investigations". The performance of the suggested approach is compared to that of current methods through experimental investigations. Lastly, an actual case study from China's "targeted poverty reduction project" is shown to support the suggested methodology. The absence of a credit history, the substantial number of participants, and the varying perspectives among them make it difficult to choose beneficiaries for "financial inclusion". The results show that the suggested "consensus model" efficiently reaches agreement while integrating the opinions of participants with different preference formats. When people see their job as unclear, uncertain, and dangerous, their feeling of psychological safety may be compromised (May et al., 2004). By acknowledging each subordinate as an individual with distinct needs and assisting them in their professional development, transformational leaders increase sentiments of safety and trust (Bass, 2017). The research by Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011), which looked at transformative leadership and team performance, provides an example of this. The researchers found that the team's effect and cognition-based trust levels were significantly impacted by transformational leaders, which in turn enhanced the team's psychological safety. Furthermore, additional research has emphasized the function that supervisor trust plays as a mediator in the connections between "transformational leadership" and the constructive attitudes and behaviors of followers.

Social Exchange Theory offers a potential explanation for how transformational leaders create a trusting atmosphere that encourages employee participation (Blau, 1964). Blau distinguished between trade in goods and services, which are characterized by precise and social interactions, as well as contractual reciprocities, which are based on trust and entail broad commitments taking place in an "open-ended stream of transactions." The idea that followers "repay" supporting leaders by displaying positive dispositions and actions that benefit the company, such as increased performance, dedication, and work satisfaction, is a cornerstone of leadership about social exchange theory. As a result of these constructive exchange connections,

Saks (2006) also mentioned involvement, stating that: "Putting oneself more completely into one's job tasks and investing higher quantities of cognitive, emotional, and A very profound way for people to react to an organization's actions is to fully immerse themselves in their work roles and devote more cognitive, emotional, and physical resources to them." By fostering an environment of trust, transformational leaders can motivate staff members in an analogous way (Bass, 1985).

Leadership in Organizations

The basic definition of organizational leadership is the deliberate and focused use of influence on those who are actively participating in the organization. To put it another way, it describes interactions where executives inspire and encourage staff members to execute meaningful tasks that are often derived from the stated or higher-level objectives of the company being observed (see Rosenstiel & Wegge 2004 and Rosenstiel 2014). Value contributed, performance, productivity, and efficiency are referred to as "important organizational goals" in academic publications. The ability of employees to accomplish their goals is recognized, activated, and channeled by leadership (Wunderer 2009).

Leaders can foster psychological safety by establishing a supportive climate, encouraging the right mindsets, and promoting positive behaviors within their teams. From our observations, the most effective leaders serve as catalysts, empowering and enabling fellow leaders—even those without formal authority—to nurture psychological safety by exemplifying and reinforcing the behaviors they wish to see in the rest of the team.

In this way, a leader's actions should benefit the company and advance its success in real life. This definition states that an organization is successful if it meets or surpasses its goals or important metrics (for instance, growth numbers, earnings, and market shares in a business corporation and, therefore, in a bank). In this way, managers should contribute to the accomplishment of these objectives alongside their staff. They must ensure that the workers provide (at least) what is required to meet the goals that have been set. Therefore, one may argue that employee performance serves as a gauge of leadership effectiveness (Nerdinger, 2014). However, defining leadership in organizations only based on economic business reasons falls short. Beyond the concerns, the contemporary understanding of leadership encompasses

employee performance, economic and business objectives, as well as employee happiness and well-being (in part, this two-tier approach corresponds with the management's so-called "task and employee focus"). Additionally of significance are the leadership's attitudes, processing stages, and level of satisfaction.

Behaviorism and Behavior Theories

Following the first notion that psychology was solely concerned involves internal mental operations, behavior analysis was first conducted under the umbrella of psychology. Early psychologists investigated mental processes to link feelings and thoughts to specific brain states "(Wilson and Keil Citation 1999)". "John B. Watson's" groundbreaking book, "Psychology" as the Behaviourist Views It, was published in 1913. This meant that rather than being confined to the confines of introspection, psychology should be founded on observable behaviors and attempting to understand that which the human eye cannot see – mental processes. Watson was promoting moving away from the earlier ways and doctorate of the science of analyzing what one observes and perceives within one's mind rather than obvious behavior. This mark of behaviorism is felt until the present with the idea that complex behaviors have their distilled basic forms of stimulus and response. To put it another way, behaviorism, in its broadest sense, holds that experiences about the relationship between environmental stimuli and reactions to those stimuli are the source of all elements of behavior (Tomporowski Citation 2003). Cognitive components, intangible mental processes, and decisions that reinforce the individual's behavior may all be included in these reactions.

Though there was some work previously in behaviorism, including Ivan Pavlov's work in classical conditioning and the instrumental learning research of Edward Thorndike, Watson's work remains the first to define it. Watson established a field of study grounded in the natural scientific traditions of "logical positivism" with this "first Ph.D. in psychology in the United States" (Reber and Reber 2001). He pursued the search for legitimate connections between behavior and the observed "social and physical" surroundings because of this epistemological framework (Jensen 2006). These opinions were crucial in separating the work of psychologists who had focused on psychotherapy, such as Freud and Jung. Behaviorism initially mainly examined certain glandular

and muscle reactions. Despite being a classic behaviorist, Skinner broadened his focus to include how actions affect the environment.

An interest in what the behavior did to the environment spawned a subsidiary branch of neo-behavior-is- m, which researchers Hull and Spence championed. Non-behaviorism focuses on a series of mediating events that occur between an individual's conduct and their surroundings. Discussions of non-behaviorism, also known as "logical behaviorism, informal behaviorism (liberal stimulus-response theory), and radical behaviorism" (Roeckelein 2002), lend credence to the general idea that anything that cannot be observed and quantified is either nonexistent or not worth researching, as in the case of extreme behaviorism.

Restricting behaviorism to Skinner's limited and unsophisticated philosophy does a great injustice to behaviorism, as there are branches of behaviorism that are significantly larger than both neo-behaviorist schools of thinking as well as traditional behaviorist philosophy (Staddon 2004). The idea that not all behaviors are obvious is the foundation of some behaviorism variations. Such as the learned, practiced, and perfectible cognitive and affective skills. For instance, according to neo-cognitive behaviorism, there are two levels of awareness: characteristics that establish whether an individual is acting at one of those levels of "perception, affect, and behavior at any particular time". These levels are conditioned (negative) and unconditioned.

Relational Frame Theory, a behavioral and cognitive study of intricate human behavior, is another example. Based on behaviorism, Tolman developed a comprehensive model of learning that incorporates internal psychological processes like purpose, expectancy, and cognition that influence the link between stimulus and response. As a result, behaviorism's expanded branches have produced significant advancements in the development of observable and quantifiable components from emotional and cognitive processes. Of course, they also rejected the division of "mind from body, world, and action," among other dichotomies. In his dedication to "immediate empiricism," he vehemently advocated the significance of lived experience. Since many of his theories later influenced "social behaviorism", which emphasizes the importance of attitudes about behavior, his emphasis on experience and the role that past experiences play in predicting and influencing future behaviors has been well-received in the field of environmental education. Dewey made the case that the "stimulus-response model of behavior" was an oversimplification

and predicated on a faulty mind/body "dichotomy" in his seminal work, "The Reflex Arc Concept in Psychology."

The conventional wisdom was that if anything happened, the body would react through certain nerve pathways. However, Dewey described a "reflex circuit," which is initiated when an organism seeks a stimulus (initiation), interprets that stimulus, and produces a reaction. Instead of waiting for stimulus activation to occur, organisms initiate the process by seeking a stimulus that elicits a response. Interpretation then occurs somewhere according to Dewey, between the stimulus and the reaction. Therefore, behavior is better represented as a circuit rather than as an arc with two separate endpoints. Despite being remarkably fascinating and pertinent to environmental education, because it was confused with the principles of "functional psychology," which gave way to the new "behaviorist movement", the idea has been lost in "psychology in general and environmental psychology in particular".

Second-order conditioning is another hypothesis used in environmental education. In this type of conditioning, a conditioned response is first elicited by pairing one stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus. The second is then paired with the first once the desired response is obtained. The unconditioned response will weaken or even disappear if the conditioned response is not constantly reinforced. This illustrates the necessity of precisely targeting desirable behaviors and pairing them with educational opportunities. The lesson is more likely to be forgotten over time the further the Intended behavior is from the learning event. If someone is being taught to recycle, for instance, an environmental educator can urge them to do so and show them how to use the container to separate recyclables like plastics, papers, and glassware. Through such teaching behavior, the individual will recycle worn objects; but, if the individual becomes dependent on the bin instead of being dedicated to recycling behavior, this desirable behavior may not be maintained. If the recycling bin is not present in the circumstance involving that individual, Since the first-order behavior of separating waste into bins is not being followed, the individual may choose to dispose of recyclables in the trash.

In more recent times, the educational practice has used both overt (visible) and covert (hidden, like thoughts and feelings) behaviors. New understandings of behavior maintenance have also been obtained from the study of "behavioral antecedents and consequences (Spiegler and

Guevremont 2003)". The process by which a response deteriorates when the stimulus is removed, and its reinforcement is withheld is known as extinction. Another is the inhibitory scenario, which occurs when the conditioned or desired stimuli are confused by the unconditioned stimuli and the conditioned stimuli have a negative association. The behavioral response to the conditioned stimuli therefore diminishes. Even if psychological terminologies are less common and most educators are not even familiar with the fundamentals of the study, all these ideas have been employed in the classroom regularly (Reber and Reber 2001).

Transformational Leadership and Psychological Ownership

A condition known as psychological ownership occurs when people believe they own the object of their possession, which includes both tangible and intangible assets. Like the idea itself, the literature's focus on psychological ownership expanded beyond issues of property and possession to those that were especially concerned with organizational psychological ownership (Dawkins, Tian, Newman, & Martin, 2017). One aspect of the human being—a psychological component that alters behavior, emotion, and psychological state—is the sense of ownership, which extends down to an organization. Furthermore, possessiveness and merging with the thing—whether material or immaterial—are fundamental to psychological ownership because they allow the person to make the object a part of who he is. One may argue that psychological ownership in an organizational setting refers to the psychologically experienced circumstances in which workers grow to feel possessive of an organization. There is not a "universally accepted definition of psychological insight". Insight-related issues are over-diagnosed due to broad and ambiguous criteria' susceptibility to subjective judgment, poor inter-rater reliability, and large frequency of false positives. Narrower criteria run the danger of producing false negative rates that are too high. This might result in the incorrect conclusion that a patient has sufficient insight to benefit from a variety of treatment alternatives, as well as an underdiagnosis of the degree and severity of impaired insight.

Psychological ownership, a characteristic of POB, is characterized by a positive outlook, a drive for achievement, and an openness to change and development. Additionally, it has been linked to how workers behave at work, with higher psychological ownership levels linked to better job performance and lower intentions for deviance (Kim & Beehr, 2017). Employees who have

stronger psychological ownership also report better "levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational-based self-esteem". Furthermore, empowerment and ownership sentiments are related since empowered employees typically acknowledge and comprehend that they oversee their company (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Then, it is entirely reasonable for a leader who empowers others to look for psychological ownership among their Then it is quite plausible for an empowering leader to seek psychological ownership among his or her employees to result in positive results for his or her organization (Kim & Beehr, 2017).

Transformational leadership theory was initially introduced by Burns in 1978, with Bass further enhancing the concept in 1985. Unlike transactional leaders, who focus on what employees must do to meet their own and the organization's goals, transformational leaders inspire their team members to exceed their expectations. They emphasize the significance and value of tasks, encouraging individuals to prioritize the team's, organization's, or policy's interests over their own. This theory has become a crucial area of study in management research (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014). Transformational leadership fosters an environment where members can achieve exceptional performance, especially during times of significant innovation and change. Leaders in this style ensure that the group understands and embraces its purpose and mission, motivating employees to consider the collective good rather than just their personal needs. These leaders instill a sense of purpose that transcends mere transactional exchanges of effort for rewards. They are initiative-taking, focusing on developing their associates to enhance organizational growth, not just individual performance. This managerial approach prioritizes employee advancement, their needs, the cultivation of a value system, and skill development. (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

 The four main pillars of transformative leadership are idealized "influence, intellectual stimulation, inspiring motivation, and individualized consideration". Each of these factors has a favorable correlation with performance, both at the individual and organizational levels.

Key qualities of transformational leadership include:

1) Vision, which encompasses a clear sense of direction and effective communication.
2) Charisma, which inspires enthusiasm, pride, loyalty, and trust in others.

3) Symbolism, the ability to recognize heroes, provide special rewards, and celebrate achievements through both spontaneous and planned events.

4) Advancement, which involves supporting others in their development and sharing accountability.

5) Intellectual stimulation, encouraging team members to engage in problem-solving and innovation.

6) Integrity, characterized by credibility and honesty.

Needs of the Mind in Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory is a thorough model of motivation that may be applied to encourage employee involvement and motivation at work, claim Gagne, Deci, and Rian (2017). Self-determination theory clearly shows how its motivational "laws" forecast important organizational outcomes, such as financial success (Decide et al., 2017). Work dedication (Becker et al., 2015) and enhances worker satisfaction (Gagne & Deci, 2005). According to Deci and Ryan (2008), self-determination theory makes a distinction between two forms of motivation that interact in a complicated way: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation.

The authors' hypothesis aims to clarify the nature of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as how they relate to one another. They adopt the stance that internal and extrinsic motivation are inseparable. This theory's fundamental assumption is that there is a spectrum of motivational self-regulation. "Motivation" is at the left end of the continuum, followed by varying degrees of extrinsic motivation, and at the right end comes fully developed intrinsic motivation. The degree of autonomous or intrinsic motivation increases with the degree of internalization of external control, which is described by the continuum.

The Insight Process Psychology

Psychological Insight refers to the understanding of the human mind and behavior, often delving into emotions, motivations, and mental processes. A solution to a problem that is suddenly recalled yet never thought of before. It usually occurs by a process of trial and error and, in most cases, is much more accurate.

Personal development insights:

- People tend to learn and register experiences.
- Independence is the strength to make and conduct sound decisions.
- Ability to listen to what someone is saying and give something back that is constructive psychological insights that can help build products.
- Some of the psychological insights that may come in handy when building such products include:
- Emotions are strong motivators and predictors of behavior and attitudes.
- Social identity can be an invisible force that shapes how we think and what we do.
- Too much choice is bad, though we do want some choice.
- Psychological insights for content marketing

Some of the psychological insights that help in content marketing include social proof is the reasoning that people act based on what other people do.

At the extreme of the self-determination spectrum lies intrinsic motivation. It happens when someone does an action because it is a reward. An individual's social and cognitive growth depends on intrinsic motivation, which also serves as the main source of fulfilling, independent, and essential experiences throughout life (Grant, 2008).

Proven Psychological Insights

Psychological Insight refers to the understanding of the human mind and behavior, often delving into emotions, motivations, and mental processes. In the context of 19th-century culture and arts, it highlights how artists and writers began to explore complex psychological themes, focusing on individual experiences, inner conflicts, and the subconscious. This movement marked a shift towards realism and impressionism, where understanding human nature became central to artistic expression.

The right use of psychology in business will enhance the relationship of a brand with its customers and generate sales. That means if you, being a business leader, use psychology effectively, then you can do more related to organizational goals. Moreover, you can easily develop

a good working relationship with your subordinates and create a healthy work atmosphere through psychological insights. Behavioral insights are based on the idea that people's behavior can change and that surprising things can affect their decisions. They draw on research and methods from various fields, including psychology, economics, sociology, neuroscience, and decision sciences.

Insight in psychology refers to the sudden finding or realization of a solution to a problem after several futile attempts. It also refers to the act of attaining conscious knowledge of a solution that is insightful. Insightful solutions are more authentic than those solutions that are not insightful. Insight is an overly complex concept and subject to many factors, both from within as well as without. Impaired insight also varies between psychiatric disorders.

Psychological insight laid the "groundwork for modern art movements in the 20th century" by introducing concepts that prioritized personal experience and subconscious exploration. Movements such as Surrealism drew directly from psychoanalytic theories, using dream imagery and irrational juxtapositions to delve into deeper layers of consciousness. As artists increasingly sought to represent psychological states rather than physical reality, this focus on inner life led to radical shifts in how art was created and understood.

Grouping

Human organizational psychology is one field that has studied group size about group collaboration to a higher degree. As a study of the human workplace, organizational or industrial psychology is specifically focused on how people interact in groups—how they reach decisions by consensus; what the ideal size and makeup of a group are for effective cooperation; and the methods for resolving intragroup violence and conflicts of interest. Since both fields seem to center their research on the advantages and disadvantages of behavior, they may be compared to behavioral ecology, one of their rivals. But where they differ from one another is in how the costs and benefits are calculated:

While behavioral ecology focuses on the successful results of the group or enterprise, this discipline places greater attention on individual fitness. The effect of group size, composition, and leadership on the effectiveness and caliber of decision-making is extensively covered in the extensive literature on "human group dynamics in the workplace" (Laughlin et al., 2006).

Primatologists who focus on the closest living relatives of humans may be missing the human literature since these methods can improve our comprehension of group dynamics in the "workplace" of non-humans.

There are undoubtedly some similarities between the collaborative actions of the other primates and the office setting of humans, despite their extreme differences. Acquiring resources is the business of both people and animals. To enhance outcomes for everyone in the network and curb free-riding inclinations, both may need cooperation, strategic thinking, suppression of competitive impulses, and managing social issues. The following problems may be addressed by using techniques and theories from human psychology research to the study of social behavior in groups bigger than the dyad: Does a certain group size make collaboration impossible or too cognitively taxing for individuals, as in this case because of issues with motivation, coordination, or communication? How big of a group is best for outcomes that benefit both parties? What kind of group composition is most effective? This review will look at how these issues have been managed in human beings and what we may discover if they were applied to "non-human primates" in the same way.

Group dynamics leadership and decision-making have been far more thoroughly examined in human literature. There is a lot of research on leaders and the qualities they have in the literature on human organizational psychology. It is important to remember, though, that leadership may signify various things in different fields, making it difficult to compare leadership research in "humans and non-human primates". For instance, leadership might be passive or aggressive, instinctive, or deliberate. We see that even among the smallest subset of knowledgeable people, leadership is simple to assign in collective actions of the type covered above.

Like self-organizing systems, it can be founded on straightforward guidelines for local interactions and function even in the absence of clear signals or group members being aware of the identity of the knowledgeable persons, the caliber of their information, or even whether they belong to the majority or the minority. These knowledgeable people may lead a whole group by only using local interaction norms to persuade others. For instance, "Dyer et al. (2009)" showed that when they instructed a group of 200 people to move about according to the single guideline of "stay within an arm's length of each other" without speaking to one another, just a small number

of "informed" people who were given a particular objective had to guide the gullible group there. In the same way, although initiators in the Tonkean macaque study are referred to as leaders by Sueur et al. (2010), their method of switching between patches may follow the broad guidelines of self-organized group decision-making; individuals respond to local signals and their isn't any direct communication, no centralized information processing, and no centralized control. Human organizations also exhibit this kind of passive leadership.

On the other hand, leadership may also be deliberate, purposeful, and even a goal. In many cases, it is not possible to distinguish clearly these two kinds of leadership, and it may prove unprofitable to assume that principles that suffice to describe leadership in one species automatically apply across distinct species. Nevertheless, a review of the human organizational literature could throw into relief the features of leadership that are common among humans, as well as the methods and approaches that have proven promising in this context, and potentially apply to non-human primates as well.

Faria et al. (2013) Showed in an experiment conducted in 2010 that social information, in this case, information acquired through observation of or interaction with others, plays a crucial role in human collective behavior. In the pedestrian context, This suggested that if a neighbor had already begun crossing the street, others were more inclined to do the same. Interestingly, this frequently seemed to lead to bad decisions (where pedestrians once more had to move to the curb to avoid the car). This shows how powerful leader-follower behavior is in humans, and even though social information can be deceptive, it is still used, even at the expense of personal safety.

In addition to intelligence (whether acquired through age, experience, or simply different access to information), leadership can also come from other sources, including power, gender, age, experience, and even personality traits like ambition (Van Vugt, 2006), extraversion (Judge and Bono, 2000), or a psychological need for power (Fehr et al., 2004). The leader is not constrained by these realities to possess greater information. It may also arise because of interest heterogeneity brought on by physiological characteristics such as age, sex, or reproductive state, which result in disparities in reward. For instance, an animal in oestrus will have a bigger body because it will be hungrier. They will become leaders if they are inspired to travel in search of food (King et al.,

2009). Therefore, those who are most in need may end up taking the lead, and it is thought that humans, like other animals, possess this motivating aspect of leadership.

As was previously said, leaders can also be self-appointed or unintentionally chosen. For instance, both contextual elements—like a person's position within the fours—and individual factors—like distinctive locomotor behavior—were important determinants of the development of a leadership role when people were told how to cross the room while remaining together in fours. For instance, those who happened to be seated in the front row in a setting where those in the back might be able to look directly at them became leaders more often than others (Lombardi et al., 2020). But more curiously, they found that one member of the group tended to take on that role more than 60% of the time and did so both first to change the direction and independently of where they happened to be sitting in the group.

As a result, they became self-proclaimed leaders by taking advantage of the trend and forcing others to follow them. The behavior of leaders and followers may be demonstrated by this study. Originate from a blend of basic geometric principles and personal characteristics, such as personality.

1.2   Research Problem

Transformational leadership (TL) emerges as a very important of the elements used in approaches to solving workplace problems and employee behaviors. Transforming leadership transforms the otherwise negative effects that deviant workplace behaviors will have on job performance. It is a style of leading characterized by "individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence". TL has a powerful effect on the actualization of basic psychological needs- relatedness, competence, and autonomy of employees and, in this way, on positive organizational outcomes like trust, job satisfaction, and work (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020).

Transformational leaders ignite motivation toward stimulating high work performance in subordinates on dimensions related to the psychological needs and values of the employee (AL-Syaidh et al., 2016). It is only the practices of Transformational Leadership and psychology integrated that would be able to promise any form of change for better organizational behavior,

team dynamics, and overall business health in adopting a more cooperative and productive work environment.

The issues of transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness are interrelated and affect most workers at some point in their lives. Today's Supervisors and Managers are quite different from those of the past. They realize that they need to become responsible for their transformational leadership development; they must take responsibility for their careers. Transformational Leadership is a learning and development program designed for high-potential managers and executives at all levels. You will learn about appropriate use of styles of leadership and discover your dominant leadership style.

Develop your ability to communicate and inspire with purpose and vision. Find out how to develop other leaders, hire great personnel, and foster cooperation. The evolution of transformative leadership as assessed in Pune's biggest public corporations is the study's main issue. Our capacity to appraise transformational leadership and its significance for organizational growth and engagement is hampered by the lack of current expertise on this topic and among these variables.

For an entrepreneur to grow their company past the early stage and see long-term success, transformational leadership abilities are essential. It is difficult to persuade the owner that investing in them would have a bigger effect on the firms' performance than many of the more conventional investments in marketing or production. If Indian businesses want to be competitive in the fiercely competitive, global, and quickly evolving world of today, they must ensure that leaders are created throughout the organization. Many studies in the fields of "biology, psychology, sociology, and economics" have investigated the causes of cooperative behavior. Cooperation facilitation is a crucial topic to comprehend.

1.3   Purpose of Research

There is evidence that has proven transformational leadership accords a lot of significant payoffs on team outcomes as well as cooperative behavior promotion. Transformational leadership research indicates it enhances coordination in teams besides performance through collaborative methods in managing conflict (Mina & Dagnino, 2021). The interaction is also moderated by the transforming leaders in cross-functional teams towards the relationship between team performance

and diversity, creating favorable outcomes through more appropriate elaboration of task-relevant information as well as collective identification through the team (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). This research aims to combine transformational leadership practices with psychological insights to address this issue of the noncooperative behavior of employees.

Furthermore, transformational leader behaviors positively relate to work-group cooperation perception, especially as regards individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. Besides the autocratic models for police leadership, it also promotes styles of transformational & collaborative leadership apart from the traditional transactional ones (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2016). This goes on to prove how transformational leadership can be adopted across organizations of varying natures to foster teamwork and enhance group performance.

The purpose of this study is to understand the role of a leader during change and effectiveness, to study transformational leadership trends in the 21st century and their effectiveness in today's workforce, and to understand why people resist change and apply skills to overcome resistance. The required data for the proposed research would be extracted from primary and secondary sources.

1.4   Significance of the Study

The integration of economic and business education into academic learning may lead to non-cooperative tendencies among students, making them ask whether these behaviors are due to self-selection or learned during their academic careers. (Dzionek-Kozłowska & Rehman, 2017). Contrary to earlier assumptions, it is important to note that cooperative groups, like income-sharing corporations, are not necessarily inefficient. However, capitalist enterprises that do not cooperate may be less efficient due to the need for greater worker surveillance to prevent slacking.

The concept of transformational leadership emphasizes encouraging and inspiring subordinates to higher moral and performance standards. It is in stark contrast to transactional leadership, which focuses on awarding specific behaviors. Transformative leaders communicate compelling visions well, show energy and confidence, and are ethical in their principles and values. This is how they aim to change their behavior, organizational culture, and themselves too (Quiros,

2020). The defined leadership style is, in this case, considered crucial for the implementation of organizational change.

The findings indicate a strong favorable correlation between "transformative leadership and mediator intrinsic drive". Furthermore, it is determined that transformative leadership and job performance have an indirect but substantial link. The association between transformative leadership social loafing and job burnout is marginal. Since a transformational leader may inspire others to strive for expected or important outcomes, it would be reasonable to argue that organizational leaders should instill transformational attributes by properly learning about their staff. It provides workers confidence in their work rather than allowing them to make decisions on their own after training.

Transactional leadership focuses more on external rewards for fulfilling specific job tasks, but "transformational leadership" motivates employees to go beyond the call of duty to achieve a shared objective. Learning to strike a balance between these strategies can help leaders reach their full potential. According to the study's findings, transformational leadership significantly affects employees' trust in leadership and their willingness to support organizational change. This study also shows that trust in leadership acts as a mediator between transformational leadership and employee-championing conduct during organizational transition. Transformational leaders are exemplary in their ethical conduct.

They get the respect and trust they need because of their "moral behavior". Leaders may use this to guide decisions that will benefit the entire company. A scientific and psychological approach to leadership, transformational leadership theory encourages individuals to surpass expectations and realize their full potential. Transformational leadership affects individual performance because it is predicated on the idea that leaders have the power to influence the values, beliefs, and objectives of their followers and their involvement in organizational change.

1.5   Research Purpose and Questions

The main purpose of the research project set out as follows:

- "To examine the impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."
- "To assess the influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."
- "To investigate the impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."
- "To analyze the effects of transactional leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."
- "To develop recommendations for organizational interventions aimed at reducing non-cooperative behavior through psychological and leadership approaches."

This leadership style inspires and motivates employees toward common goals, encourages creativity, and fosters a positive work environment. Research has shown that transformational leadership can positively impact employee satisfaction, commitment, self-efficacy, and trust. This leadership style is on structured tasks with clear guidelines to keep the employees on task. "Transactional leaders" often use this style to prevent employees from losing motivation. One study discovered that "transactional leadership" has an insignificant effect on job satisfaction. This measures how much the employees care about the workplace and are willing to work well for the organization. Increased levels of organizational commitment can help boost productivity.

Research questions to be addressed include the following:

a. How do psychological factors affect non-cooperative behavior?
b. How do demographic factors affect non-cooperative behavior in teams?
c. How does transformational leadership influence the occurrence of non-cooperative behavior within teams?
d. How does transactional leadership affect team performance in organizational settings?
e. What are effective psychological interventions for mitigating non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Theoretical Framework

Non-cooperative behavior refers to actions taken by individuals or entities, which may not observe group norms, agreements, or cooperative strategies. Such actions are usually characterized by individuals pursuing personal interests at the expense of collective goals, which in most cases result in conflicts, inefficiencies, or disruptions. Refusal to cooperate can be considered a non-cooperative behavior that is observed in various dimensions such as economics, game theory, or organizational settings (Stogdill, 1974). These include refusal to collaborate with others, breaking agreements, and competitive actions that damage group success.

Non-collaborative behavior in networking can be described as the actions taken by participants to maximize their benefits to the detriment of the overall system efficiency. This action is shown in diverse ways throughout different network types and protocol layers. In interfirm collaborations, a partner's perceived non-cooperative behavior through commission has a greater impact on the firm's behavior than non-cooperation through omission. A consensus-reaching procedure based on confidence and trust may be used to handle non-cooperative behaviors including bribery, passive participation, and possible conflict in extensive collective decision-making (Yang et al., 2023).

Non-cooperative behavior can arise in wireless networks during resource management such as in co-located sensor network scenarios, pilot power control in cellular networks, and network coexistence along borders. In game theory, these non-cooperative interactions may be modeled and analyzed (Robbins & Judge, 2013). To solve the non-cooperative problem, strategies that involve incentives for cooperation, clear communication, and conflict resolution mechanisms should be adopted to ensure individual actions are aligned with group objectives.

Factors Contributing to Non-Cooperative Behavior

Multiple factors influence non-cooperative behavior in various contexts. Gender and course success affect the cooperative tendencies of students in classroom settings (Tetik, 2020, pp.205-214). In interfirm collaborations, a firm's non-cooperation by commission is more strongly influenced by its partner's perceived non-cooperative behavior. Bribery, passive participation, and potential conflicts are among the things that can affect large-scale group decision-making, and this can be solved through trust relationships and confidence levels. Economic incentives also have a role to play although how effective they are varying from one group to another. Non-cooperation in diverse communities is caused by opportunistic behavior, socio-cultural issues, perceived inequality, and individual preferences (Mussi, Catapan & Tortato, 2023). This understanding of contextual factors helps build effective policies that foster cooperation and sustain public goods beyond inspection-based mechanisms of reward and punishment only.

Perceptive studies are crucial since people's behavior is influenced by their perceptions. It is commonly recognized that an "individual's behavior" is impacted by the activation of characteristics such as stereotypes; leaders' and entrepreneurs' behavior is no different. Entrepreneurs' conduct as organizational leaders is greatly influenced by their leadership role perceptions (Veerappa & Goud, 2015). Entrepreneurs' dispute-resolution styles are among their key behavioral markers. There is a dearth of empirical research on entrepreneurs' perspectives on leadership roles and dispute-resolution techniques.

By examining "the relationship between two leadership role perspectives—benevolent and benevolent-authoritative—and the conflict resolution styles" of entrepreneurs managing "small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs)—cooperative, competitive, and avoidance style—the study sought to close this research gap". The 238 SME owners in Karnataka make up the study's population. The convenience judgmental sampling approach is used to choose the sample (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Self-administered online questionnaires were used for collecting data. The data was analyzed using "structural equation modeling, confirmatory factor analysis, and descriptive statistics". Perspectives on leadership roles and conflict resolution techniques were taken out and assessed for validity and reliability using factor analysis. The findings indicate that conflict resolution styles are influenced by the leaders' perceived roles. It is applicable today

because it is a paramount concern regarding the conflict resolution style of entrepreneurs/leaders in SMEs because of the importance of problem-solving along with motivating and retaining employees.

Impact of Non-Cooperative Behavior on Organizations

Collaborative efforts and decision-making processes can be significantly affected by non-cooperative behavior in organizations. The firm's perception of its partner's non-cooperative behaviors such as commission rather than omission strongly influences their behavior in inter-firm ventures. On the other hand, cooperative firms are now seen as more efficient than non-cooperatives, as contradicted by earlier assumptions about income-sharing cooperatives. For some time now, research has studied how to manage large-scale group decision-making that is characterized by non-cooperative behaviors. Consensus-building methods based on trust and confidence were introduced by Yang et al (2023) to deal with new forms of non-cooperative behaviors such as bribery and passive participation. On the other hand, Zhang et al (2018) presented a model for addressing "non-cooperative behavior" in "multi-criteria group decision-making" through a social network approach that involves trust propagation and dynamic updating of expert weights. They both seek to build consensus and alleviate the negative consequences of non-cooperative behavior in organizations.

Role of Transformational Leadership in Addressing Non-Cooperative Behavior

Organizations have found that "transformational leadership" has a significant effect on how employees behave. Although it cannot directly influence the ethical conduct of cooperative managers, public organizations' deviant workplace behavior has been affected negatively by transformational leadership (Baharom, Sharfuddin & Iqbal, 2017). Moreover, in administrative staff members, this leadership style is associated with increasing organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), such as altruism, courtesy, and conscience (Ahmad, 2012, pp.150-158). It is interesting to note that transformational leadership can also motivate Machiavellian followers who are known for their manipulative tendencies to engage in challenging OCB. This may be partly due to increased job autonomy and intrinsic motivation linked with transformational leadership (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Kalshoven, 2015). These findings indicate that transformational

leadership could be an effective way to manage uncooperative behaviors and create positive organizational outcomes even across different contexts and employee characteristics.

Transformational Leadership Approaches to Enhance Cooperation

Numerous processes through which transformational leadership leads to improved team performance and collaboration have been identified. This fosters a cooperative method in conflict management, facilitating better team coordination and performance (Zhang Cao & Tjosvold, 2011, pp.1586-1611). In highly formalized work environments, Transformational leadership traits like thoughtfulness and intelligence stimulation are influential in fostering cooperation among members of a workgroup. All these attributes of transformational leadership Intellectual stimulation, inspiring drive, idealized influence, and individual consideration are all crucial in enhancing collaborative endeavors by empowering followers, promoting innovation, motivating change, and exemplifying the right behavior (Yuan, Zhang & Zhu, 2020). These are relational practices that help develop connections between individuals while reducing isolation and eventually connecting individual interests with collective goals (Sayyadi & Provitera, 2022). Transformational leadership has been demonstrated as supporting better financial measures of organizational performance such as product quality improvement, customer satisfaction increment, and return on assets.

Psychological Interventions for Promoting Cooperative Behavior

Psychological treatments can be applied effectively to foster cooperative behavior in the young, particularly in kids and social settings. Consistently, field experiments that tried observability- and descriptive norm-based social interventions eventually succeeded (Kraft-Todd et al., 2015, pp.96-101). Both home and school modeling by preschoolers for adults improved their cooperation. This approach is less aggressive, attacking, or anti-social among children aged 10-11 who participated in a teamwork program than that which has been observed in other programs. Nonetheless, it is necessary to stress that cooperation behavior are not always good for everyone. In certain instances, such behavior may backfire whereas sometimes conflict may breed positive implications such as increased creativity, moral behavior, and social change (Cikara & Paluck, 2013, pp.559-571). From these discoveries, it can be inferred that any intervention must be tailored in a well-

thought manner and based on the peculiarities of the context to enhance loyalty between individuals avoiding disadvantages.

Gaps and Future Study Directions

Lack of cooperation at the workplace reduces productivity, distorts team dynamics, and undermines business wellbeing. This leads to distrust and conflict through actions like withholding information and refusal to work together thus bringing about poor communication as well as inefficiency. Morale drops, teams break up and outputs diminish. These people may quit out of a non-supportive social environment in search of more convivial employment surroundings, impacting on the company's reputation as well as its success. Accordingly, therefore this current study seeks to combine transformational leadership practices with psychological insights to solve this problem (Wright et al., 2012). Meaning that past research on the two fields has been separated thus ignoring their interdependence. Here it examines how leaders can motivate and inspire workers via individualized guidance, provide clarity for vision, and communicate collective purposefulness. Therefore, it is an integrative approach that lowers instances of uncooperative behavior between employees by fostering performance enhancement and organizational unity thereby offering effective solutions to such cases.

2.2. Social Identity Theory

In 1979, Tajfel and Turner established the Social Identity Theory which gives an outline for understanding non-cooperative conduct when observed in terms of group dynamics and identity. The theory further argues that people's behavior is influenced by their belonging to groups, as they derive part of their identities and self-esteem from these groups, which affects their perception towards members of in-group and out-group. This knowledge is fundamental in discussing non-cooperative behaviors and how transformational leadership can deal with or change them in organizational contexts (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

The core principles of Social Identity Theory consist of social classification, social identity, and comparison. Social classification involves dividing people into groups, a process that eases the complexity encountered within a society while simultaneously creating demarcations. On the other hand, the adoption of group identity by members is known as social identification

which influences one's behavior to conform with the norms established by the group. In addition, social comparison involves an individual's rating of his or her group to others; this usually brings about in-group favoritism and discrimination against out-groups. Therefore, these concepts are important for comprehending the origins of non-cooperative behavior since they reveal inherent biases along with group dynamics underlying such deeds (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

It is an important modern organizational context to understand non-cooperative behavior through Social Identity Theory. There are three main reasons why non-cooperative behavior can emerge, namely intergroup tensions, identity threats, and perceived inequalities. Employees' psychological backgrounds that result in such behaviors can be spotted from this approach of approach by leaders and work towards reducing them. In the transformational leadership perspective, this knowledge is especially useful for leaders who desire to motivate and inspire their workforce to a common objective deed (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

The fact that it is widely agreed upon makes Social Identity Theory invaluable to understanding group behavior. However, opinions differ as to whether this theory is universally applicable to various cultures and organizational structures. Detractors of the theory posit that it might over-simplify issues related to human behavior while leaving out other motivational traits. Nonetheless, many researchers consider this as one of its strengths in explaining why people are fewer cooperative deeds (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

Non-cooperation can be explained with the help of Social Identity Theory (SIT), whereby posits that such conducts are rooted in group-based identity and perceived intergroup competition. Transformative leadership, which accentuates vision, inspiration, and individual consideration, can quell these conducts by advancing a coherent organizational identity and addressing the resultant animosities. Through promoting a robust, all-inclusive organizational culture, transformational leaders can mollify between-group tensions as well as increase cooperation deeds (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

A powerful tool for understanding non-cooperative behavior in organizations is "the Social Identity Theory". The processes of "social categorization, identification, and comparison explain" why people behave this way. These problems may be solved by using transformational leadership

because it creates a common identity that includes everyone thus increasing collaboration among members and promoting organizational achievement deeds (Tajfel, & Turner, 2003, pp.73-98).

2.3. Theory of Planned Behavior

Icek Ajzen created "The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)" which provides a broad model for understanding human actions, particularly from the perspective of non-cooperative conduct. TPB contends that acts of individuals are motivated by intentions that are shaped by "attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324)". It is this theory that gives us some insight into the psychological aspects that underline uncooperative behavior as well as how such behaviors can be managed within an organizational setup through transformational leadership.

The TPB consists of three central constructs: attitudes to the "behavior, perceived behavioral control, and subjective standards". A person's attitudes reveal their favorable or negative appraisal of participation in some given form of behavior. "Subjective norms" involve the felt social pressure to engage or not engage in a certain act which is influenced by how significant others feel about that matter. Perceived behavioral control is when a person evaluates their capability to execute some tasks given both internal and external factors. The latter collectively determines intentions to behave, which further predict actual acts. About non-cooperative actions, one can understand why co-operators might abstain from doing so using these ingredients (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324).

The TPB is a well-suited approach to dealing with organizational non-cooperation. This involves leaders identifying the key factors that can impact people's intentions, thus enabling them to produce specific strategies for enhancing cooperative behavior. TPB offers insights that when assimilated into transformational leadership can enhance cooperation in an organization. It helps leaders to effectively deal with the true causes of non-cooperative behavior by understanding its psychological mechanisms and consequently fostering a more collaborative corporate culture (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324).

Most people agree that TPB is useful for predicting and explaining behavior. Conversely, a few people argue against this view by saying that TPB does not consider spontaneous or habitual

behavior exhaustively. In addition to this, they believe the theory often oversimplifies the complexity of human motivation. There is also the assumption that self-reports are infallible in measuring attitudes, norms, and perceived control hence leading to biases. Nevertheless, despite its criticisms, TPB remains one of the most popular models for studying behavior, especially in formal organizations (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324).

By using TPB in explaining the non-cooperative behavior then, the attitudes and opinions of others as well as perceived control should all be addressed. The factors can however be transformed by influential leaders who can generate a cheerful outlook towards cooperation within individuals and create environments that support and develop a person's confidence and abilities to cooperate with others. Hence a leader can institute this process through recognizing and rewarding those employees who cooperate, hence changing the organization's norms into one where people work together. Attaining a collaborative culture is very possible especially if behavioral control is enhanced through giving necessary resources as well as support (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324).

"The Theory of Planned Behavior" serves as an important structure in the understanding and management of non-cooperative behavior in organizations. Behavioral intentions matter because they are shaped by variables that affect them; hence leaders can develop effective plans for collaboration. To make a more collaborative and productive organization with a focus on vision, inspiration, and support, transformational leadership can draw from TPB's suggestions. By targeting attitudes, norms, and perceived control through specific intervention programs, organizational leaders will be able to convert uncooperative behaviors which boost overall productivity (Ajzen, 2020, pp.314-324).

2.4. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Leon Festinger pioneered the notion of cognitive dissonance and explains why people feel psychological incongruity when their cognitions conflict with each other (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488). It is this discomfort that usually makes individuals minimize the differences in their behaviors, opinions, and beliefs. Regarding non-cooperative conduct, Cognitive Dissonance

Theory helps explain why people may be reluctant to cooperate and how transactional leadership can change this position.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory's main ideas consist of cognitive dissonance, consonance, and strategies for reducing dissonance. When two or more beliefs, values, or attitudes contradict each other and one person is holding them, cognitive dissonance occurs in that person. However, consonance is another name for this concept since it is the harmony between cognitions. Diverse ways such as changing attitudes or beliefs, getting added information, or reducing the focus on conflicting cognition are applied by individuals to alleviate these discomforts. It is important to understand these conceptions to recognize non-cooperative behavior and design policies that encourage cooperation (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488).

Cognitive dissonance theory provides a useful perspective on understanding non-cooperative behavior in an organization. Such behavior is usually due to inconsistency between what an individual values and the expectations of the team or the company. Equally, by using this theory, transformational leaders can realize where the dissonance comes from as well as find ways to reduce it thus fostering a more cooperative environment at work. This insight is vital for establishing a culture in organizations that facilitate teamwork and collaboration among members (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488).

Behavior change and attitude adjustment can be well explained by cognitive dissonance theory; this is a consensus. Nevertheless, it has been argued by some scholars that the theory does not fully account for the intricacies involved in human motivation and how behavior could be influenced by external factors. Again, measuring cognitive dissonance itself and its reduction is sometimes said to be imprecise in its methods. The theory is still important when it comes to understanding psychological processes underlying behavior such as non-cooperative action despite these critical opinions (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488).

Applying Cognitive Dissonance Theory explains non-cooperative behavior by emphasizing how psychological discomfort can spur behavioral change. This makes transformational leaders identify and address dissonance sources within their teams. Leaders can realign these for instance when employees experience a mismatch between personal values and

organizational goals through enhanced communication, vision sharing, and participation in decision-making. The employee resources must therefore be availed to the employees as much as possible and the employees themselves given some say in how they choose to deal with such a situation. By decreasing cognitive dissonance, leaders can create an engaged workforce that is more cooperative (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488).

The Cognitive Dissonance Theory serves as a valuable framework for understanding and addressing non-cooperative behavior in organizations. In addition, the concepts of dissonance and consonance in this theory as well as dissonance reduction strategies explain underlying psychological processes that drive behavior. A change agent who has a grasp on this insight can utilize transformational leadership to identify and deal with causes of dissonance, thereby leading to a more cooperative and collaborative organizational culture. Leaders can change non-cooperative behavior by designing targeted interventions that fit both individual and organizational values, thus enhancing overall organizational effectiveness (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020, pp.480-488)

2.5. Game Theory

The mathematical framework of Game Theory was developed by "John Nash, John von Neumann, and Oskar Morgenstern" for analyzing strategic interactions among "rational decision-makers". The prisoner's dilemma is a term from game theory that helps to explain the contradiction between individual and collective rationality. From this perspective, it is easy to understand non-cooperative ways of being within companies and the effects such as transformational leadership on such behaviors (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26)

Rationality, strategic planning, outcomes, and balance are the key aspects of Game Theory. The concept of rationality supposes that decisions for individuals are made based on their maximizing self-interests. Strategy is defined as a plan of actions taken by persons to other choices available. Payoffs, therefore, are results obtained from a selection of different combinations of strategies. Nash Equilibrium is an important concept introduced by John Nash that involves people selecting strategies where no one can change his/her strategy without benefiting themselves further. This is exactly what happens in a Prisoner's Dilemma which represents a non-cooperative

situation between two individuals aiming to achieve maximum personal gain rather than collective interest (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26).

The Prisoner's Dilemma and Game Theory are especially important in analyzing the non-cooperative attitudes of people in organizations. These concepts show why somebody can go against collaboration even when all of them should work together. To this end, transformational leadership exploits these insights to develop approaches that result in cooperative behavior and align personal incentives with organizational objectives. In this way, leaders can promote a culture of cooperation through strategic considerations (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26).

There is a broad consensus on the utility of Game Theory in explaining strategic decision-making and non-cooperative behavior. However, some critics argue that the assumptions of rationality and self-interest may not fully capture the complexities of human behavior, which can be influenced by emotions, ethics, and social norms. Additionally, real-world situations often involve more complexity than the simplified models of Game Theory. Despite these criticisms, the theoretical framework remains a powerful tool for analyzing and predicting behavior in competitive and cooperative contexts (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26).

By using game theory and the prisoner's dilemma on non-cooperative behavior, it is possible to identify some of the hurdles in achieving cooperation in competitive environments. These problems can be addressed by transformational leadership through creating structures and incentives that will make individual actions confirm with collective goals. Examples of such measures may include the introduction of collective rewards within work teams, fostering a trustful organizational environment, and highlighting the benefits of long-term cooperation as compared to short-term gains. Through understanding the strategic dynamics involved, leaders can be capable of designing measures aimed at encouraging cooperative behavior thereby increasing overall organizational performance (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26)

Valuable frameworks for understanding non-cooperative behavior exist within game theory and the prisoner's dilemma. Rationality, strategy, payoffs, and equilibrium are concepts that shed light on strategic considerations behind behaviors. The role of transformational leadership is to use these understandings effectively thereby promoting cooperation by aligning individual incentives

with collective goals and fostering a supportive organizational culture. Targeted interventions that deal with the underlying strategic dynamics can help leaders transform non-cooperative behavior resulting in enhanced organizational effectiveness (Hanappi, 2013, pp.3-26).

2.6. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

"Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs" is one of the widely known motivation theories. It explains five ranks of wants that vary from fundamental body requirements to self-actualization needs. This framework can also be used to understand non-cooperative behavior, and what unmet needs might motivate them to do so. **Alternatively**, transformational leadership can address these unsatisfied wants therefore enhancing cooperation and motivation among workers (Gawel, 2019, p.11).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is divided into three stages: "self-actualization, esteem, safety, love and belonging, and physiological requirements". Necessities for survival, such as food and shelter, are known as physiological needs. Security includes physical and financial security. Love and belonging entail relationships with others around you, whether it is family or friends. Esteem is concerned with self-respect and admiration from others in society (Gawel, 2019, p.11). Self-actualization refers to the achievement of personal growth and fulfillment of potential. Maslow believes that people must satisfy lower-order necessities before they meet higher-order ones otherwise unfulfilled wants at any level can affect behavior.

In the world of business, when individuals do not cooperate, it is important to refer to "Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs". Where non-cooperativeness is concerned, this usually stems from unmet needs at various levels in this hierarchy. Having a deeper understanding regarding which specific need goes unmet should enable transformational leaders to put strategies in place towards rectifying these shortages and improving cooperation as well as harmony within an organization. To make a working environment supportive and motivating, employers need to identify and satisfy their subordinates' wants (Gawel, 2019, p.11).

Everyone accepts the intuitive argument, and it has been rightly said that Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs can be applied broadly. Nevertheless, some people think that the hierarchy is too strict and does not consider cultural and personal disparities in prioritizing needs. Furthermore,

the support for moving through each level of the model strictly one after another has been controversial so far. Notwithstanding these attacks on it, however, its model is still useful to understand human motivation and behavior and to analyze non-cooperative behavior in organizations (Gawel, 2019, p.11).

However, in the context of non-cooperative conduct, it is possible to examine "Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs" which could give rise to such behaviors when the basic or psychological needs of employees remain unsatisfied. These needs can be addressed by transformational leaders who can guarantee fair compensation (physiological), a safe and secure working environment (safety), a sense of community and belonging (love and belonging), acknowledge and reward accomplishments (esteem), as well as offering personal and professional advancement opportunities (self-actualization). By addressing unmet needs, leaders can reduce non-cooperative behavior resulting in a more collaborative organizational culture (Gawel, 2019, p.11)

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a significant framework for comprehending and managing uncooperative conduct in organizations. With this, transformational leaders can identify unfilled needs at various levels of the hierarchy which will enable them to put in place intervention measures to meet these requirements thus promoting cooperation and motivation within the workforce. Attending to "staff's physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization" needs is crucial for creating a workplace that is helpful enough to encourage cooperation while discouraging non-cooperative behavior. In doing so, top management can improve overall effectiveness and harmony across the organizational system (Gawel, 2019, p.11)

2.7. Trait theory

The search for universal leadership traits has persisted for aeons since civilizations usually employ heroes to symbolize their accomplishments and justify their shortcomings. "Thomas Carlyle" articulated this idea in 1847 when he said that "the history of the great men who have worked here is at the bottom of the history of universal history, the history of what man has accomplished in this world." "Carlyle's great man theory posited that leaders are born, suggesting that only those with inherent heroic qualities can rise to leadership." He believed that great men are not made but rather come into the world with their potential already established. By making a distinction

between the eventful man and the event-producing man, "American philosopher Sidney Hook developed Carlyle's theories (Dobbins & Platz, 1986)."

Hook argued "that while the eventful man exists within a historical context, he does not truly shape its direction." In contrast, the man who organizes events actively influences the course of events, which could have unfolded differently without his involvement. The man who organizes events' significance lies in "the consequences of outstanding capacities of intelligence, will, and character rather than the actions of distinction." However, historical examples like Hitler and Napoleon revealed the moral shortcomings of this leadership concept, compromising the Great Man theory's legitimacy. These figures became less relevant, leading to stagnation in organizational growth (MacGregor, 2003). Over time, it became clear that the notion of a great man wielding dictatorial power could hinder democratization in the workplace. Leadership theory originated with the notion that leaders are either born or destined for their roles. Which focuses on characteristics that suggest leadership potential.

The early theorists assumed that a born leader has certain physical features and personality traits separating them from the non-leaders. The trait theories of leadership did not clarify such assumptions on whether the identified leadership traits were innate or learned. Jenkins discovered emergent traits relying very much on heritability-height, intelligence, and good looks, considered a crucial part of the leadership process, Experience or learning charisma are the foundations of effectiveness and self-confidence "(Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991)".

"According to Max Weber", charisma is "the greatest revolutionary force, capable of producing a completely new orientation through followers and complete personal devotion to leaders they perceived as endowed with almost magical supernatural, superhuman qualities and powers." Research that still maintains that there are only negligible distinctions between followers and leaders was predicted by this initial focus on the "intellectual, physical, and psychological traits" that set followers apart from leaders (Burns, 2003). The discrediting of trait theory resulted from its inability to identify the characteristics that all successful leaders shared. In the late 1940s, researchers looked at the characteristics of leaders in the "military and non-military sectors" to see which characteristics were linked to particular eras.

2.8. Contingency Theories

Situational theories say no leadership style is definitive alone because the choice of a leadership style depends upon many other factors, like followers' quality or situation or on various additional factors. This idea holds that there is no one right way to lead. Since a leader must adjust to both internal and external environmental circumstances. Instead of changing the organization's dynamics and atmosphere, leaders frequently change its members. According to common sense, A subclass of behavioral theories known as theories of contingency challenge the idea believe there is only one optimal way to "lead or organize, and that a leadership strategy that is effective in one circumstance may not be in another" "(Greenleaf, 1977)".

Even so, situational leadership emphasizes mostly the leader, it creates the significance of the focus on group dynamics. "These studies of the relationships between groups and their leaders have led to some of our modern theories of group dynamics and leadership. According to the notion of situational leadership, the leadership style needs to be adjusted to the level of maturity of the followers. In line with Bass (1997), The situational leadership model, first introduced in 1969, theorized that there was an unsurpassed way to lead and those leaders, to be effective, must be able to adapt to the situation and transform their leadership style between task-oriented and relationship-oriented.".

2.9. Theory of Behavior and Style

The style theory recognizes the presence of fundamental leadership competencies that a leader might employ to enhance an action, while contrasting that action with a previous leadership position. Furthermore, it suggests that each individual have a certain leadership style with which they are most comfortable. No one style is suitable for every situation, just as no one size accommodates all skulls. Yuki (1989) recognized three kinds of leadership. Unlike authoritarian leaders who emphasized increased productivity, democratic leadership fostered elevated levels of employee passion, inventiveness, and contentment. They exerted considerable effort and concentration regardless of the leader's presence, resulting in enhanced relations with the leader. Laissez-faire leadership is suitable just for a group of proactive, skilled individuals with a proven history of success.

Two further leadership theories that underscore leadership effectiveness and identified by Fiedler and House (1994). These investigations revealed the two essential components were concern (regarding individuals and relational behaviors) and initial structure (about production and task behaviors). The degree of trust and rapport a leader cultivates with their following is considered. Initiating structure, however, illustrates the extent to which the leader delineates, directs, and molds their responsibilities and those of subordinates about the success, profitability, and realization of the organization's objective. Multiple scholars suggested three distinct types of leaders: democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire. Laissez-faire leaders seek input from their subordinates before decision-making, and democratic leaders also consult their subordinates before making choices, but authoritarian leaders make unilateral decisions without consultation and do not embody genuine leadership, since they permit their subordinates to make decisions. Furthermore, he claimed that all leaders may be categorized into three distinct kinds.

2.10. Process Leadership Theory

Principal-centered leadership, learning organizations, charismatic leadership, and servant leadership are further philosophies of process-oriented leadership. Many more seem to spring up every year. The concept of servant leadership was coined early in the 1970s by Greenleaf. Servant leadership became a hot topic again in the early 1990s. It was suggested that servant leaders listen to the worries of their followers and demonstrate empathy by taking care of and supporting them. Leadership qualities were imparted to someone who was naturally a servant. "The servant leader prioritizes the followers' needs and assists them in becoming more independent, liberated, and knowledgeable." Furthermore, the servant leader is more concerned with the "have-nots" and recognizes them as equals "(Greenleaf, 1996)". Leaders should act as stewards (servants) of the organization's mission rather than as servants to its members. The leader cultivates and clarifies the vision and transcends themselves. In learning organizations, leaders link their vision or themselves with others inside the organization or community.

These and more recent theories of process leadership, which place a strong focus on social responsibility, usually suggest that leaders must make a positive impact on the lives of others. But evolution is at play here. From relational to situational leadership styles, from innate qualities and rights to learned qualities and styles, from the role of groups and group processes,

and from current group dynamics that emphasize the moral growth of individuals and organizations (Yammarino, 1999).

2.11. Transactional Theory

The specific perspectives of the leader, the leadership environment, and the follower had started to give way to approaches that were more interaction-focused by the "late 1970s and early 1980s." Between followers and leaders. "According to House and Shamir (1993), transactional leadership is characterized by relationships between leaders and followers that are based on several agreements between the two parties." Reciprocity served as the cornerstone of the transactional theory. Which holds that followers both influence and are impacted by leaders. Transactional leadership, according to certain studies, shows a difference between the "leaders' actions" and the kind of connection they have with their followers.

"According to Bass and Avolio (1994)", "transactional leadership" is "a type of contingent-reward leadership that had active and positive exchange between leaders and followers whereby followers were rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed-upon objectives". These awards might be an expression of gratitude from the boss for "job accomplishments, bonuses, and merit raise". Merit compensation for promotions, collaboration for collegiality, and "positive encouragement might all be traded for good work. Instead, the leaders may concentrate on mistakes, refrain from reacting, and delay passing judgment. This kind of thinking is called management by exception" and falls into one of two categories: active or passive. "The leaders' involvement time determines how these two transaction kinds differ from one another. In the active type, the leader closely monitors the situation." Proactive intervention performance and efforts "(Avolio & Bass, 1997)."

2.12. Transformational Theory

Considering that "it involves followers in procedures or activities related to personal aspects" of the organization and a path that would provide a particular higher social dividend, transformational leadership differs from other theories of leadership from the past and present in that it is aligned with the larger good. "Transformational leaders" boost the motivation and morale of their people, claim House and Shamir (1993). "Transformational leaders" are seen as "engaging in interactions

with followers based on common values, beliefs, and goals." This affects the performance that results in the objective being achieved. "Tries to make the followers reorder their needs by going beyond self-interests and striving for higher order needs," says Bass, a transformational leader. "Maslow's higher order needs the theory" from 1954 serves as the foundation for this approach. Transformational leadership is a program that "emphasizes attitudes, values, and beliefs" that shed light on leaders' actions and their capacity to drive change.

According to the literature, both leaders and followers put the demands of the group above their own. This forces the leader to concentrate on the needs and suggestions of followers to empower and inspire them to become leaders "(House & Aditya, 1997)". Transformational leadership is further distinguished by the moral dimensions of leadership, which are highlighted in the earlier leadership theories. These kinds of transformational leaders accept an identification of the need to bring change, gain the acceptance or commitment of others create the guidance for change, and install that change (MacGregor Bums, 2003). This kind of leadership has treated subordinates separately with challenges to develop their conscience morality and skills based upon infusing significance in his works or tasks. "These leaders produce the illusion of a convincing and inspired vision for the future. They are visionary leaders who look to appeal to their follower's better nature and move them toward higher and more universal needs and purposes (MacGregor Bums, 2003)."

This study explored "transformational leaders" empowering influence and the variation of its impact across different mechanistic-organic organizational contexts. (Scott & Christian, 2014) Theoretically, psychological empowerment is a complete motivating system that supports the connections between transformational leadership and employee behavior connected to their jobs. Additionally, it was hypothesized that organizations with organic structures would have better relationships compared to businesses with mechanical structures, between transformative leadership and the job-related behaviors and psychological empowerment of employees. Results from a cross-sectional sample of workers and their direct supervisors were found to be in line with the hypothesized correlations. The connection between worker task performance and transformative leadership as well as organizational citizenship behaviors was mediated by psychological empowerment. In mechanistic-organic circumstances, psychological empowerment's mediating function was then conditional. More precisely, transformational

leaders' empowering effect was limited by mechanical frameworks but amplified by organic ones. The indirect effects ceased to be statistically significant in highly mechanistic circumstances. The consequences for theory, research, and organizational management are discussed.

This study examines the effects of a sustainable corporate culture on several aspects of business conduct and performance results. Based on a matched sample of 180 businesses, we identify High Sustainability companies as those who have been voluntarily implementing social and environmental policies for many years (Loynou and Eccles, 2012). These businesses vary from a matched sample of businesses that have implemented nearly none of those policies group we dubbed Low Sustainability businesses—in every essential way. We discover that these businesses' boards of directors are more likely to oversee sustainability and that sustainability measures are more likely to influence senior management incentives. Additionally, they are more likely to be long-term focused, have structured processes for engaging stakeholders, and measure and disclose nonfinancial information more often. Lastly, we present proof that businesses with high sustainability do better over the long run than their counterparts in the stock market and accounting. In industries where corporations compete based on their brands and reputations, where goods heavily rely on the extraction of abundant natural resources, and where customers are private consumers rather than businesses, outperformance is considerably greater.

Zalata & Roberts, (2016) Although strong internal corporate governance has been shown to improve oversight of managerial discretion over accounting decisions, the majority of studies that examined this function were conducted in environments where accounting standards, such as accruals treatment, were strictly enforced. Whether internal governance replaces or enhances stringent accounting standards is not well established. Thus, this study investigates whether boards and audit committees protect "shareholders' interests" in industries where "generally accepted accounting principles, or GAAP," are less strict. The use of nonrecurring items to deceive investors—that is, labeling some recurring expenditures as nonrecurring—is a growing problem. Nonrecurring items are not strictly controlled under "International Accounting Standard 1, or IAS 1." In light of This study looks into whether categorization shifting is prevented by internal firm governance. We show that effective internal governance reduces categorization shifting using a sample of "713 U.K. firm-year data" as measured by the general caliber of board and audit committees. This suggests that tight accounting rules are often replaced by good internal

governance. Independence and lengthy tenure help categories shift away, whereas more CEO directors and joint ownership may alternatively result in poorer quality monitoring.

Liu & Yang (2022) analyzed scholars think that psychological factors and personality traits shape the moral judgments of human beings. Nevertheless, a few have discussed the psychological factors and personalities that bring about such impacts. Based on social identity theory and self-efficacy theory, From the standpoint of social cognition, this study proposed that the ethical decision-making of the younger workforce process was influenced by trust between people and the moderating effect of communication. To perform a qualitative and experimental analysis of the younger workforce and to investigate the features of psychological processes, "this study developed a red-blue experiment based on the full static information model in the non-cooperative game theory to assess the experimental population's self-efficacy and moral decision-making."

Following an analysis of the experiment's 138 data sources, it was determined that moral decision-making was positively impacted by emotional self-efficacy, with a value of less than 0.01. Similarly, there was a positive association between emotional "self-efficacy and interpersonal trust ($r = 0.560$; $p < 0.01$)." With a correlation "value of $r = 0.290$ and a p-value of less than 0.01," it was discovered that interpersonal trust also emerged as having a favorable impact on "the moral decision-making" process. The value of the mediating variable was 0.163. Interpersonal trust was significantly impacted negatively by "the interaction factors of communication effect and emotional regulation self-efficacy ($r = -0.221$ $p < 0.01$)." The experimental results substantiating each of the hypotheses presented in this study demonstrate the psychological process underlying "moral decision-making" in the "younger generation of employees". Additionally, it demonstrates that moral education for the next generation of workers focuses on enhancing interpersonal trust, self-efficacy, and emotional regulation. This provides theoretical support for approaches and pathways in moral education for the next generation of workers.

Due to their varying areas of expertise and potential competing interests, it is not uncommon for certain experts to exhibit behaviors that are not cooperative in MAGDM "(consensus-based multiple attribute group decision-making)" tasks. The overall effectiveness of the "consensus-reaching process" may suffer as a result, particularly if some expert behaviors

become uncooperative. A new paradigm for consensus based on the SNA is offered to regulate "the non-cooperative behaviors in the proposed SNA-based consensus framework" (Zhang & Palomares, 2018). This paper proposes "a trust propagation and aggregation" approach to determine the weights of experts from the trusted network of social connections. Following collection, the weights are incorporated into the MAGDM structure, which is based on consensus.

Additionally, there is the "non-cooperative behavior analysis module", which deduces expert behavior. Each expert in the social network of trust can then declare and change their trust levels about other experts based on the results of the analyses conducted during the consensus process. Therefore, the weights of the experts derived from the "social trust network" and the social trust network itself are updated concurrently with the dynamic update. It demonstrates that the SNA-based consensus paradigm could work well for monitoring non-cooperative behavior through simulation and comparison (Kabalak & Smirnova, 2015).

One fundamental characteristic that sets humans apart from other animals, particularly big apes, is our readiness for spontaneous collaboration and our presumption that others share this cooperative nature. However, because non-cooperators do better in a cooperative group, cooperation poses an evolutionary conundrum. An examination of the process that leads to cooperation is then developed using principles from game theory, epistemic logic, and rationality. Reconstructing a real evolutionary process is not what we do here. To explain why cooperation could occur and what kinds of thinking and beliefs might result in cooperative decision-making, we provide the logical framework for cooperation. The premise of a shared conviction in the players' non-cooperative rationality is necessary for a significant application of game theory. Likewise, a shared conviction in cooperative reason can serve as the foundation for cooperativity. Our idea of rational decision-making in games is far weaker and can include both types of decision-making. We gradually increase this, starting with basic optimization, moving on to anticipating other people's reactions, reflexive reasoning, and cooperative reasonability. Crucially, even though each step is more difficult than the one before it, we also find that the application at higher levels adds complexity when used consistently.

In the field of GDM, using expert trust connections in social networks to reach a consensus has lately gained a lot of attention. Nevertheless, in the linguistic domain, it is often believed that

words are different in meaning to different people, which indicates that there is a need to model experts' PISs. Sometimes, experts may not behave cohesively during the CRP due to their interests (Gao & Zhang 2021). Therefore, the primary objective of this research is to develop an algorithm that reaches an agreement using "non-cooperative behavior management for PIS-based social network GDM problems." To obtain the experts' weight vector in the first case, the PIS model first converts the linguistic preference connection into a fuzzy preference relation before applying social network analysis techniques. Later, a feedback adjustment mechanism is suggested to increase experts' desire to adapt. This mechanism uses expert PISs and trust connections to provide adjustment suggestions for experts. Furthermore, a social network's trust levels are dynamically developed through a system for controlling non-cooperative behaviors. The suggested approach is then explained with a numerical example. The detailed simulation results demonstrate the validity of the suggested approach and the impact of various parameters on CRPs.

When faced with a consensus-based group decision-making challenge, DMs will engage in "non-cooperative behaviors" such as departing from the advice or making only a little alteration. Low consensus efficiency and a strikingly high intra-group conflict will result from non-cooperative behaviors. The proposed budget-constrained framework according to social network analysis of minimum group conflict aims at mitigating the issue of "non-cooperative behavior" by the DMs involved in the process. "The asymmetric 2-tuple linguistic trust values and opinion differences" are utilized to measure the degree of conflicts between the opinions of the DMs. The weights of the DMs are calculated by introducing degree centrality and node strength indices into the proposed conflict network (Yuan, Wang & Cheng, 2023) Nonlinear optimization models take into consideration "non-cooperative behaviors", which lead to the possible budget constraint of the achieved consensus, are developed in this study. Additionally, two types of least "conflict consensus models" are developed to meet the "general and non-cooperative DMs", respectively. It is demonstrated that these consensus models have optimum solutions, and that the consensus-reaching process converges. Lastly, a negotiation of the sewage discharge rules is used as an example to demonstrate the suggested consensus models. The suggested consensus models can produce greater consensus and less group conflict when compared to the minimal adjustment and cost-consensus models.

Literature related to implicit leadership suggests that the fitness of actor-national culture is necessary for one to be considered a leader. However, the studies relating to implicit "leadership theory and national culture" do have a few contrasting results. On reviewing all the studies systemically, it is noted that the participants could receive high scores for contradictory implicit leadership values, and until now, a theoretical justification for this result has not been given. It argues that demonstrating total alignment with the "cultural expectations" of followers is not something that necessarily makes one a leader (Öztürk, Varoglu,2017). Actors may also be considered leaders if they can bridge the cultural divide by embracing their diverse cultural beliefs. This study claims that leaders are more likely to be organizational actors whose cultural values diverge from those of followers with certain cultural orientations. Individuals from individualistic civilizations may be more likely to choose the "collaborative leadership" feature as an exceptional leadership model, whereas those from masculine societies could identify "humane-oriented leadership" as an exceptional leadership model.

The study conducted on examining the type of leadership behaviors adopted in addressing conflict resolutions within the production mining teams within the Carletonville gold mines. The objectives of the present study were to find out whether leadership behaviors are indeed relevant in the process of addressing conflicts within the teams. In addition, the study established the most prevailing leadership behaviors adopted within the production mining teams. Last, the study revealed why there is a problem concerning the conflicts within the mining production teams (Mathole, 2021). This was qualitative applied research which was adopted to address the stated objectives. Eleven interviewees at a chosen Carletonville gold mine were given semi-structured interviews. The study's findings demonstrate that management's responses to employee conflict at Carletonville Gold Mining Production are influenced by the presence or absence of senior management. Additionally, the findings demonstrated that several leadership philosophies have been used to resolve disputes among workers in Carletonville's gold mining production teams. Autocratic, laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership are among the leadership styles used in dispute resolution inside employees' workplaces. According to the study's findings, a greater proportion of workers at the mine favor transformational leadership when it comes to resolving conflicts. Lastly, the study discovered that the main causes of conflict among gold mining production teams are disagreements over bonuses, a lack of drive, transactional leadership,

authoritarian leadership, and unfavorable ground conditions. As a result, the research advised against authoritarian leadership in teams involved in the manufacture of gold. In gold mining production teams, transformational leadership behavior should be promoted, and transactional leadership behavior should be avoided. The report also recommends that managers take part in webinars and seminars that emphasize skills like motivating staff, discussing the organization's goals with them, and emotional intelligence.

Bioengineered cell lines producing insulin have proved instrumental in giving insight into sites and mechanisms of the large numbers of physiological and pharmacological agents that modulate insulin secretion and pancreatic ß-cell function. There has been an innovative application of an electrofusion methodology towards creating new glucose-responsive cells, like the now-famous ß-cells of BRIN-BD11. An outline of the development and essential traits of the BRIN-BD11 B-cells produced by clonal electrofusion is provided in this review (Neville, 2007). As previously mentioned, BRIN-BD11 cells have helped researchers clarify some of the key mechanisms through which nutrients and other bioactive substances have been shown to alter the complex systems governing insulin secretion.

They have also emphasized the potential for a potential insulin replacement treatment for diabetes based on cells, utilizing a range of innovative bioengineering approaches. Characterizing the nutrient activities that are reliant on and independent of KATP channels, developing new insulinotropic antidiabetic medications, and comprehending drug-induced ß-cell desensitization have all benefited greatly from the use of clonal BRIN-BD11 κ-cells. (b) Monitoring novel κ-cell secretory and metabolic processes, such as using state-of-the-art NMR techniques to gain new insights into how glucose and amino acids are handled and how they relate to insulin secretion; and (c) describing the long-term negative effects of diet Regarding the effects of diabetes on pancreatic κ-cells, including recent data suggesting that homocysteine, a risk factor for metabolic syndrome, may affect the progressive loss of insulin production and pancreatic κ-cell function associated with diabetes.

Change, adaptability, and development. Humans were able to escape the constraints of their immediate surroundings because of the evolutionary development of a superior symbolic capacity, which also gave them a unique ability to shape their own lives and their situations. People

in this situation are not only the results of their life situations but also actively contribute to them. A dichotomy between social structure and human agency is rejected by social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2006). Social systems are made by humans, and these systems in turn shape and organize people's lives. The fundamental characteristics of human agency, its various manifestations, its ontological and epistemological standing, its evolution and function in causal frameworks, its increasing importance in the process of coevolution, and its impact on various aspects of life and cultural systems at both the individual and collective levels are all covered in this article.

Many beneficial results for both individuals and organizations are linked to an active flow of life at work, which has been defined as a joyful condition of optimum challenge. In this research, the study investigates "how leaders impact subordinates' flow experiences by examining their work-related self-concept." According to our self-conceptualization, these four "sub-facets—competence, self-determination, and influence—mean being psychologically empowered". We hypothesize that "transformational leaders" influence followers' "work-related self-concept." This is based on "the self-concept theory" (Schermuly, Meyer, 2020). Finally, we suggested that having a flow experience at work is favorably correlated with psychological empowerment. Therefore, we postulate that transformational leadership influences workers' flow experiences through psychological reinforcement. It is suggested that this indirect impact is tempered since it is more pronounced for workers in official leadership roles. Two two-wave questionnaire studies of workers from various organizations were used to assess the model; in "Study 1, N = 307 at Time 1; N = 60 at Time 2; in Study 2, N = 611 at Time 1; N = 271 at Time 2." We demonstrated using route models that while evidence for both mediation hypotheses is obtained, the moderated mediation hypothesis is not.

It is commonly known that "different leadership ideologies and the mental health of followers" are connected. The relative strength of the association between followers' mental health and various leadership philosophies, however, is not well understood. There is currently no meta-analysis examining the possibly harmful proliferation of constructions and evaluating the incremental contributions of various leadership styles on mental health. "This analysis included studies that looked at least two styles, evaluated their relationship to followers' mental health, and directly calculated the relative contributions of seven distinct styles to followers' mental health." For "53 studies with a total of 217 effect sizes involving 93,470 participants", the study employed

"meta-analytical regression models" to compare the strength of relationships between followers' overall mental health and leadership styles and the positive-aspect well-being and functioning and the negative aspects, such as affective "symptoms, stress, and health complaints (Montano, Schleu & Hüffmeier, 2023)."

The most significant determinants of followers are Transformational and destructive in general, leadership styles were linked to worse mental health. Nonetheless, "relationship-oriented and task-oriented leadership", followed by "transformational leadership", were the best indicators of favorable mental health outcomes for followers. Overall, our findings show that different leadership philosophies contribute differently to the explanation of followers' "mental health" and that, in this field of leadership research, building proliferations is often not a problem when the goal is to anticipate pertinent consequences. Our findings have implications for future organizational leadership models and the substance of leadership development programs.

Although transformational leaders are effective in helping their followers move from self-centered to challenging and comprehensive aims, this process is not without its challenges. Challenging and holistic goals signify an elevated risk for the followers; therefore, failures might occur suddenly in work role performance. This unsafe feeling and uncertainty of outcomes undermine the drive of members to achieve such goals unless the leaders foster a safe environment that offers support for their members, in which they can give themselves freely without any dread of negative outcomes. When a member is upset about their job, the transformational leader listens to them, tries to understand their needs, and comforts them. The members' sense of security is increased by these encouraging actions, which also encourage them to perform at their highest level while finishing tasks. For example, it has been proposed that transformational leadership might increase supervisors' perception of support (Liaw et al., 2010). Therefore, individualized care may offer psychological safety. which will increase the possibility that members will be completely engaged at work and express themselves.

Over the past few decades, one of the most significant ideas in the field of organizational behavior has been transformational leadership (Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012). Followers of transformational leaders are motivated to go above and beyond the call of duty. In contrast to transactional leaders who usually encourage followers to execute appropriately and as anticipated

(Kark, Van Dijk, & Vashdi, 2018). By doing this, transformational leaders raise their staff members' knowledge of how crucial it is to meet company goals. Aligning employee requirements with those of the company and its stakeholders is a good method to achieve that.

Styles of Leadership

A leader must actively investigate their knowledge in numerous ways and adjust their style according to the circumstances to be effective with their followers. Task and relationship behavior is essential to the concept of a leader's leadership style, and the way they use their styles in a given circumstance determines how effective they are (Bruno, Leo. 2013). An organization's success or failure is largely determined by its leadership style, which is the way a leader acts to inspire and guide his followers A. S. Sajuyigbe, T. A. Odetayo, and R. M. Ojokuku (2012). Psychologists identified "three main leadership styles: democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire (Ikram, A., Su, Q., Fiaz, M., and Saqib, A., 2017)". as the most significant factors influencing employee motivation following the development of behavioral theory. Leadership styles in organizations may have both good (reward) and negative (punishment) effects on workers. They can have an impact on employee behavior in terms of motivation and attitude, which in turn affects the performance of the organization. Laissez-faire leaders let followers make decisions without involving them, autocratic leaders make decisions without consulting their followers, and democratic leaders consult their followers before making a choice. It is also one of the elements that increase people's dedication to the company (Obiwuru et al., 2011).

Autocratic leaders are strong-willed, controlling, and even hostile. Generally speaking, if someone has a different perspective, don't listen to their thoughts and recommendations. Because authoritarian leaders exert total authority and influence, their followers are not happy at work (Afshinpour, 2014). They view followers and team members as merely functionaries and exercise their power in their ways. To replace the leader, their supporters are waiting for the inevitable failure to occur. Although there is a common goal and minimal incentive outside of coercion, authoritarian leaders' task-oriented mindset prevents them from inspiring a sense of altruism (Malik et al., 2016).

Decentralized decision-making occurs in this model when the leader involves his followers in the planning and execution stages of the decision-making process. To keep the group functioning effectively, the leader encourages members to share their ideas for completing tasks. Although democratic leadership seems like a wonderful idea in principle, it is frequently hampered by its lengthy process, and practical outcomes typically demand a great deal of labor (Ojokuku, R. et.al 2012). According to Malik et al. (2016), a democratic leadership style encourages more organizational citizenship behavior from the workforce. Leaders in bureaucracies have faith in the rules and procedures. They are motivated to complete the work by the policies and procedures of the organization. They hold their followers to the same standards of commitment to protocols and processes. Bureaucratic leaders overlook some facets of leadership, such as inspiring and developing others (Michael, 2010 & Ojokuku R.Et. al).

The art of delegation is practiced by these leaders, who take a backseat and let the other members decide. According to Samad et al. (2015), followers and leaders seldom interfere, avoid accountability, lack a feedback system and put off making decisions. This way of operating doesn't entail any significant transactions and has no impact on the behavior results of the follower. They often let events unfold and refrain from participating in decision-making or work progress (Chowdhury 2014). Have no connection to the behavior of organizational citizenship (Malik et al., 2016).

Leadership research began to focus on the interactions between leaders and followers in "the late 1970s and early 1980s", moving away from the specific viewpoints of the leader, followers, and leadership environment. Transactional leadership theory looks at how leaders and followers trade desires. The foundation of this approach is the performance-based incentive exchange (Avolio et al., 2009). By adhering to management by exception, transactional leaders exhibit positive and remedial behaviors like contingent reward and corrective dimensions. Close observation and prompt remedial action are key components of this approach (Obiwuru et al., 2011).

Afshinpour (2014) According to Bass (1997) and Samad et al. (2015), transactional leadership is typically described as being crucial to the follower's goal accomplishment through the use of the carrot and stick strategy. Transactional leaders demand specific work behaviors from

their followers or team members, and they reward these behaviors with both monetary and non-monetary incentives. Power and influence, which are more suited to the corporate management style of operation, are also components of the transactional leadership style. When a leader has more control over their followers in terms of staff input into management choices, it can occasionally be likened to the autocratic leadership style (Samad et al., 2015).

For thousands of years, people have understood that exercise is good for the heart. There is little doubt that regular exercise benefits the cardiovascular system in both healthy and sick people. Regardless of age (Moreira, Wohlwend, 2020). Physical activity has therefore been advised globally for the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease for the reasons mentioned. Although the practical advantages of exercise are obvious, little is known about how the body converts these benefits to cellular mechanisms at the molecular level, despite considerable efforts over the past several years to shed light on this. With origins in the brief history of cardiovascular medicine's use of exercise and leading into groundbreaking research on the physiological effects of exercise on the healthy, sick, and elderly heart, this article attempts to provide a thorough summary of the cardiac consequences of physical activity. The study wraps off our return to ground-breaking research on the molecular pathways behind the cardiac benefits of exercise by discussing the translational potential of this information as a powerful platform for the identification of medications for cardiovascular disease.

2.13. Summary

Non-cooperative behavior refers to those actions that do not align with the norms of a group or cooperative strategies, thus leading to conflicts and inefficiencies. These can be observed in various situations like economics, game theory, and organizational settings. For instance, participants in networking may aim at gaining more for themselves at the expense of overall system efficiency. Interfirm collaborations are affected when one partner is perceived as engaging in non-cooperative acts. Trust-based consensus processes could be used to manage large-scale group decision-making that suffers from bribery or passive participation. Some resources such as those used in wireless networks have their management affected by non-cooperative behavior, a role that game theory can play as a modeling tool for such interactions. Effective strategies to address non-cooperative behavior should include cooperation incentives, clear communication, and conflict

resolution mechanisms targeting harmonizing individual operations with group objectives. It is important to understand what underlies and results from non-cooperative behavior to develop sound policies and leadership approaches to improve cooperation and the organization's performance.

According to several ideas, the main barrier to collaboration is selfishness and a lack of concern for others. We present yet another explanation for noncooperative behavior: desires that are other regarding but do not bite. We present a game-theoretic, attribution-based model in which individuals may choose to defect rather than cooperate even if they acknowledge that they have been treated well, place a high value on reciprocating others, and place minimal value on self-interest. According to the concept, individuals frequently see two main choices while considering the intentions of others. Either out of strategic self-interest or out of pure altruism, someone may treat another person well in the hopes of receiving a favorable response in return. According to the paradigm, people's caring is dormant, and they do not return favors when they interpret the favorable treatment they receive as "just business"—that is, driven by strategic self-interest. Their altruism is sparked, may be significant, and they may counterattack when they see favorable treatment they get as truly nice. We refer to non-reciprocity that is fueled by strategic motivation attributions as "principled defection," and we provide experimental evidence for its widespread occurrence. According to our research, the existing body of literature overestimates people's preference for reciprocity. It provides fresh perspectives on unraveling in finitely repeated encounters and generosity in ultimatum games. A combination of our data and associated theorizing on the norm of self-interest, reactive egoism, and sophisticated social inference provides an alternative explanation for findings claimed as evidence for social heuristics, even though it contradicts the concept of the influential social heuristic.

Many specialists with a wide range of professional backgrounds and interests typically participate in emergency decision-making difficulties, which typically results in non-cooperative behaviors throughout the consensus-reaching process (Jiang, 2023). Numerous studies on the management of noncooperative behavior have assumed that the highest degree of cooperation from experts was to fully accept all of the moderator's suggested modifications. This has limited the ability of those with altruistic behaviors to contribute further to the process of reaching an agreement. Furthermore, all prior research on subgroups created using the clustering approach

when the group size is big is predicated on the experts' similarity in assessment value or trust relationship with one another, but not simultaneously. For the first time, a novel clustering method that takes into account both the experts' trust relationship and assessment value similarity is presented in this study. Consequently, this research also develops a consensus model in which experts behave selfishly. Then we cluster the experts into different clusters using a constrained K-means clustering algorithm based on their similarity in opinion and the trust relationship among the experts. After that, the weights of experts and clusters are computed from their self-centrality degrees. To improve the quality of consensus reaching, we also introduce three kinds of "non-cooperative behavior" and feedback mechanisms that are based on the altruistic behavior of experts. A numerical example is given to show that the proposed method is applicable and effective in emergency decision-making. The results of this study show that if altruistic behavior analysis is considered while performing group decision-making, the interests of experts are protected, and the information content of the decision-making is guaranteed to be valid.

The findings of the thorough Investigation demonstrate that the result of making moral choices can be influenced by individual emotional control, variations in "self-efficacy, interpersonal trust, and communication impact." According to "the internal psychological mechanism, the younger generation of employees" makes conservative and self-centered moral choices when they are in unfamiliar situations with new people. Additionally, new hires of all generations will base their decisions on the differing "emotional regulation self-efficacy and interpersonal trust" of different age groups, as per the numerous influencing elements, such as mental state changes and winning games. According to the moral choice theory, cognitive and affective elements are not fully explored in empirical research (Chen, 2020). The newest generation of employees Making moral decisions will be viewed through the lens of this new research model and methodology, which will open up a field of psychology to investigate the mechanism and advance related research on moral decision-making. In addition, it would provide business managers with a fresh perspective on how to address the ethical education of this new generation of workers, foster their social and cognitive skills, and establish a more positive and trustworthy work environment.

The study must first turn away from conventional leadership theories, which frequently emphasize innate qualities like charisma or intellect, to fully understand the Behavioral Theory of

Leadership. Behavioral Theory, on the other hand, focuses on the visible acts, behaviors, and reactions of leaders in many contexts. This concept posits that leadership comprises a set of acquired actions rather than an inherent trait. It suggests that everyone can attain successful leadership with appropriate guidance and adaptability. Behavioral theory posits that leadership is a skill that can be developed and enhanced through practice. on contrast to other theories that primarily rely on abstract concepts, "the Behavioral Theory of Leadership" is grounded in realism and practicality. It compels leaders to assess their conduct and adapt it to suit diverse circumstances and the needs of their team.

A key element of this concept is that a leader's performance is shaped by both their actions and their personality. It pertains to your actions, decisions, and communication with you. By implying that anybody may develop their leadership skills via intentional practice and self-awareness, a thesis democratizes leadership in this way. As we continue our investigation, we will learn more about the theory's beginnings and the research that served as its cornerstone, illuminating how it has influenced our perception of leadership in many settings.

According to a recent study, psychological ownership influences job engagement by interacting with another component (i.e., promotion emphasis) (Dai et al., 2021). This suggests that there are circumstances in which the association between psychological ownership and work engagement is moderated by other factors. We contend that the connection is moderated by faith in a just world. According to the just world theory, individuals can view the world as stable and orderly because they think that people generally receive what they deserve and that the world is just (Lerner & Miller, 1978). For instance, those who have engaged in constructive behavior are entitled to favorable results, whereas those who have engaged in destructive behavior are entitled to unfavorable results (Hafer & Rubel, 2015). A review of the literature has shown that leadership is a crucial topic in organizational behavior. One of the most dynamic impacts on interactions between individuals and organizations is leadership. Stated differently, management's ability to carry out a "collaborated effort depends on leadership capability. "There isn't a single, widely recognized definition of leadership, according to the study even though defining leadership and its style is a challenging task. The effect that leaders have on their followers is the focus of leadership, which is viewed as dynamic and complicated. It is becoming more holistic, and academics are paying greater attention to how leadership may be taught and how it affects results causally. There

is no such thing as the perfect leadership style or practice, even though scholars have long examined and put out several hypotheses on leadership behavior, qualities, and style.

However, Bass emphasizes the importance of transactional behavior and talks of leaders who "were born, not made." But because of the way things turned out, the idea of leadership was faulty (Hitler, Napoleon, etc.), which called into question the validity of the Great Man thesis. Through studies that revealed very slight differences between followers and leaders, this early emphasis on "intellectual, physical, and psychological attributes" helped to distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Compared to theories that emphasize emotional or cognitive transformation, leadership theories that have placed a larger emphasis on behavioral change may have a higher influence on behavior. Only to propose that to achieve the intended results, future research on leadership development should take into account how participants are implementing the models of leadership. We must connect the leadership models to particular results and give participants the confidence they need to become more effective leaders to show how effective leadership intervention was. For leadership development programs to affect the organization, they must be backed by continuous, introspective practices that include goal setting and review that are connected to the leadership role and organizational strategy. The literature highlights the dearth of comprehensive, universal assessments of leadership development programs. Particularly those that do not determine the impact of long-term results on the investment. In today's global environment, inspiring, motivating, empowering, and guiding followers and group members while demonstrating empathy to accomplish organizational goals through visionary, big-picture thinking, flexibility, and change-initiating behavior are crucial components of a leadership style and leadership development.

One of the main issues that most businesses deal with is organizational silos, which make it difficult to coordinate, communicate, and use resources effectively. Successful negotiation is necessary to overcome these obstacles, yet multi-level team negotiation is not well-researched as a field. The dynamics of two-level negotiation, including interactions between teams inside the organization and between people looking for an agreement, are studied in this work using a computational simulation model (Choi & Yang, 2024). The model introduces individuals and teams of people who have diverse opinions toward topics of shared concern. While negotiating within a team, the model integrates opinion concession for loyalty-based incentives as well as the

influence that individual team members' opinions make on the decisions of their respective teams. On the other hand, inter-team negotiation involves parameters that illustrate the teams' capacities for negotiation and bargaining with other teams as if to typify their flexibility and amenability to opinion change. Our research focuses on the importance of team desire to negotiate, leader acceptance ratio, and individual loyalty in reaching a successful negotiation. We clarified the processes that are involved in two-level conversations between and within teams. The contribution enhances team dynamics in the context of organizational conflict and the literature on organizational negotiation. Additionally, it develops a computer simulation model that might aid academics in better understanding the multi-level negotiating processes in future studies. The study's conclusions can assist managers in developing strategies that will enhance the development of a win-win mentality for team collaboration.

Health and attitudes of social service workers setting may benefit from transformational leadership, as seen by the favorable correlations found between role clarity, dedication, and well-being. The findings also demonstrate favorable associations in the public sector, which lends external legitimacy to the transformational leadership paradigm. This contributes to the body of understanding of public sector leadership, where transformational leadership theory implementation is still rare and controversial. The results show how transformative leadership is beneficial. One factor that has been discovered to be significant in employee attitudes throughout organizational transformation is maintaining employees' commitment and clarity regarding their tasks (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006). Given the significant amount of change that is expected in the future and the significant changes that social service organizations have already undergone, it will be essential for leaders to be able to increase commitment and role clarity. One leadership approach that could help them do this is transformational leadership.

Managers are also critical in achieving a compassionate workplace. By presenting a realistic action plan, offering individualized assistance, and defining a vision for the future, "transformational leadership" seeks to identify and educate workers about "leadership behaviors" that raise their knowledge of the significance and values of task results. In several contexts, transformational leadership has previously been linked to workers' psychological health. Others could not establish this kind of association, though. Regarding research based on longitudinal data, evidence is scarce so "this study relies on longitudinal data from two employee surveys conducted

in 2015 and 2018 within a medium-sized German company." In this study, "psychological well-being, social capital, and age" were not significant in "transformational leadership" while "transformational leadership" and gender were the most significant predictors of "transformational leadership". Psychological well-being and social capital were significant predictors for psychological well-being, "transformational leadership, age, and gender" did not impact psychological well-being. Thus, companies are highly recommended to invest in building social capital and develop a focus on gender issues in workplaces. It means that every organization should, therefore, conduct its mental risk assessment to detect such "red flags" to set corresponding measures.

Because the leaders interviewed in the third study found it difficult to practice transformational leadership when a large portion of their time was spent on hiring, recruiting, accounting, and reporting, this thesis supports Alvessons' (2001) assertion that public leaders are too overwhelmed with administrative responsibilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Furthermore, according to Dobell (1989), transformational leadership behavior—such as taking chances, sacrificing something personal, and setting an example—was hindered by public sector leaders' inability to get recognition for their achievements. The results of this research, which demonstrated that the absence of an organizational incentive for exceptional performance hindered inspirational motivation, also lend some credence to this. Furthermore, the leaders' lack of authority and hierarchical decision-making also hindered intellectual stimulation and role-modeling behaviors. Because support, workload, and level of influence all had an impact on the respondents' chances to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. This thesis also recognized the leaders' workplace as a crucial element of the transformational leadership process.

Overall, the results of this thesis provide empirical evidence in favor of some of the previously proposed explanations for the challenges of administrative responsibilities, bureaucratic structure, and the lack of incentives for outstanding performance in the public sector's transformative leadership process (Alvessons, 2001; Dobell, 1989; Wright & Pandey, 2009). The findings further highlight the significance of additional important factors, including the advantages of solid relationships, the financial status of the public sector, the leader's workplace, and continuous organizational transformation.

What conditions make transformative leadership successful, and what factors mediate the relationship between "transformational leadership" and its results? To increase the body of knowledge in this area, coworker support, leader continuity, and an innovative atmosphere were investigated. Because they embody the role of followers in the transformational "leadership process" and the continuity of connections at work, the results suggest that having the same leader for an extended period and receiving support from colleagues may enhance the beneficial impact of transformational leaders. To mediate the role of transformational leadership that impacts well-being, a culture that encourages employees to grow and allows them to take initiative and communicate effectively was also established, demonstrating that climate models could be used to increase process knowledge.

Recently hired leaders were observed and interviewed throughout their first year of employment in a social service organization to shed light on the situational and contextual factors that influence the growth of transformational leadership. A content analysis indicates that transformational leadership behavior was seen to be constrained by organizational elements including financial hardship, ongoing change, and organizational structure. They were also quite concerned about their working circumstances, which included the effect of workload support and several administrative duties. The deterrents appeared to have repercussions, including the leaders' retreat and ineffective leadership. In addition to giving organizations insight into the factors that may prevent their leaders from demonstrating transformational leadership behavior, the results seem to hold promise for advancing theory and research on organizational antecedents of transformational leadership.

All things considered, This thesis has shown the value of transformational leadership in social services about its association with the positive attitudes and general well-being of employees. It has also highlighted variables that might affect the process's effectiveness in this particular setting. The influence of transformational leaders may be enhanced by coworker support and leader continuity, and an innovative environment links transformational leadership to results. Additionally, organizational and working environments may prevent leaders from exhibiting both ineffective and transformational leadership behaviors. All things considered, these results point to areas that require more investigation to pinpoint antecedents and moderating factors and get a deeper comprehension of the transformative leadership process in the public sector. Addressing

the numerous issues of the future would assist social service organizations in cultivating an environment that is conducive to healthy and successful leadership.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview

Research methodology denotes the systematic approach of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting quantitative or qualitative data to answer research questions or examine hypotheses. Research methodology serves as a road map for researchers to follow, dictating how the study will be conducted and what questions will be asked. While deciding on a research methodology, it is important to think about several factors, including the scope of your study, any ethical considerations, and any restrictions in your research. "The research methodology" portion of a scientific publication explains the various methodological decisions made, including the methods used for data collecting and analysis, and the reasoning behind these choices. One should give explanations for why the methods you picked are the best fit for answering your research topic. For research results to be credible and valid, a solid research methodology is essential. Research objectives dictate the specific methodology to be used; quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-method approaches are all viable options (Flick, 2015).

Techniques and procedures used to identify and analyze information regarding a certain study topic are described in a research methodology. The study design is the methodology via which researchers strategize to achieve their objectives utilizing selected research instruments. The study include the design, data collection and analysis procedures, and the overarching framework guiding the research, along with other essential components (Wilson, 2001).

3.2. Research Problem

A concise summary of the specific issues that this academic study will investigate is provided by the problem statement. To emphasize the significance of addressing the issue highlighted by experts and academic publications, this study will proceed to outline the disparity between the present condition and the ideal state, which drives the necessity of this research. Finally, this investigation's study questions will be shaped by the stated academic necessity.

A well-defined issue or subject is what a researcher means when they say they want to study something through research. It determines the study's aim, scope, and direction and serves as the foundation of any research effort (Elis & Levy, 2008).

In this investigation, non-cooperative behavior is a major issue that compromises team dynamics, group outputs, and the organization's general well-being. Such behavior could take the form of withholding information, outright refusing to cooperate, or actively acting against the team's goals. Coworkers become distrustful and hostile towards one another because of these individuals, which leads to a breakdown in communication and increased inefficiency.

When team members' morale plummets, they are less likely to work together, which in turn reduces output. Workers may seek out more favorable working conditions, leading to increased job turnover, if uncooperative behavior persists. The necessity for effective strategies to handle and prevent non-cooperative inclinations is highlighted by the fact that these difficulties when added together, can harm an enterprise's long-term success and reputation.

3.3. Operationalization Of Theoretical Constructs

- **Non-Cooperative Behavior**

Managerial and employee attitudes and actions that impede cooperation, teamwork, and the accomplishment of organizational goals are known as non-cooperative behavior. Workers' lack of cooperation has the potential to drastically reduce morale, output, and the organization's chances of success. Creating an inclusive and supportive work atmosphere, communicating expectations clearly, and establishing effective methods for resolving conflicts are common approaches to dealing with these behaviors.

When managers conduct or think in a way that makes it harder for their employees to work together towards a common objective, they are exhibiting non-cooperative behavior. This might show up as a lack of responsibility, disrespect, poor communication, a negative attitude, a lack of cooperation, a reluctance to change, and a lack of compliance. A hostile work atmosphere, low morale, and poor productivity might result from such behavior. The best way to deal with

employees who refuse to cooperate is to establish ground rules, encourage open dialogue, and cultivate a welcoming environment for all employees (Jiang, 2023).

- **Psychological Insights**

Being able to comprehend and make sense of other people's mental processes, emotions, and actions is what we mean when we talk about psychological insight. Understanding the mysterious motivations and behaviors of those around us, as well as our own, is like possessing a secret decoder ring for the human mind. Gaining knowledge of human behavior, mental processes, emotions, and motives via the study and application of psychological concepts is what is referred to as psychological insights. This knowledge is useful for predicting and shaping people's actions since it sheds light on the reasons behind people's thoughts, feelings, and actions. Cognitive, behavioral, developmental, social, and clinical psychology are some of the subfields that contribute to our understanding of the mind. Marketing, management, education, therapy, and self-improvement are just a few of the many areas that make use of them to boost mental health, strengthen relationships, and make better decisions (Lin & Rauschnabel, 2016).

- **Transformational Leadership**

"Transformational leadership" is that which: "… *facilitates a redefinition of a people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment. It is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. Hence, transformational leadership must be grounded in moral foundations* (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000)." A more personal investment in the organization's goals and a greater emphasis on developing "followers'" abilities are hallmarks of transformational leadership.

Specifically, "transformational leadership" "occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir employees to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group (Bass, 1990)." It is believed that increased effort and output might result from a combination of enhanced capability and dedication (Barbuto, 2005).

- **Psychological Perspectives**

According to studies, psychological factors have a substantial impact on non-cooperative behavior. Research shows that academic courses can influence teamwork. The likelihood of students becoming disagreeable increases when they major in business and economics. Behavioral and mental traits, including the Big Five and Theory of Mind.

According to DeAngelo et al. (2016), personality types enhance the connection between past strategic acts and contributions to the public good and have a direct impact on free-riding behavior (DeAngelo et. al., 2016). The cognitive and evolutionary mechanisms that shape social transactions can give rise to seemingly irrational behaviors like punishing freeloaders and engaging in reciprocity. Personal differences in character, hormone levels, and temperament also impact on how people perform in social situations. Furthermore, neuropsychiatric disorders may impact game theory models. A better grasp of human nature and the factors that influence cooperation can be gained by delving into these psychological aspects (Jeung, 2016).

- **Transformational Leadership**

Numerous studies have demonstrated the beneficial effects of TL on worker conduct and productivity, particularly in decreasing anti-social conduct. According to Howladar et al. (2018), talent leadership (TL) is a powerful tool for enhancing workplace efficiency and addressing undesirable behaviors (Howladar et. al., 2018). Belschak et al. (2015) found that when employees have more control over their jobs and a stronger desire to succeed, even Machiavellian followers—who are often associated with deceptive acts—are more likely to exhibit positive organizational citizenship behaviors (Belschak et, al., 2015). On the other hand, the consequences for TL are not always so obvious. It may have a subtle but positive effect on ethical behavior in some contexts. Furthermore, TL has the potential to unintentionally cause numerous emotional team disputes, which in turn reduce team performance (Morrissey, 2016, pp.03-29). These results indicate that while TL helps deal with disruptive behavior, it should be used with care in some workplaces.

3.4. Research Purpose

The following are the purpose of this study:

- "The purpose of this study is to understand non-cooperative behavior: psychological insights and transformational leadership approaches."

- "To examine the impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."

- "To assess the influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."

- "To investigate the impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."

- "To analyze the effects of transactional leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."

- "To develop recommendations for organizational interventions aimed at reducing non-cooperative behavior through psychological and leadership approaches."

3.5. Research Questions

- How do psychological factors affect non-cooperative behavior?

- How do demographic factors affect non-cooperative behavior in teams?

- How does transformational leadership influence the occurrence of non-cooperative behavior within teams?

- How does transactional leadership affect team performance in organizational settings?

- What are effective psychological interventions for mitigating non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings?

3.6.   Research Design

To put it simply, "a research design" is a blueprint for how a study will be carried out. An important part of any research project is laying out the groundwork for the study by outlining the procedures that will be followed to gather and analyze data. To achieve the research goals and get valid and trustworthy results, a well-designed study is necessary. The overarching strategy or plan for carrying out a research study is known as the "research design". It describes the study's aims and objectives and the processes and methods that will be used to gather and analyze data. A well-designed study will be methodical and thorough since it will have a road map for carrying out the research.

A cross-sectional survey, which gathers information from many people at a single point in time, is the research approach used in this study. As far as capturing the status of non-cooperative behavior in organizations and understanding the demographic, psychological, and leadership aspects that contribute to it is concerned, this would be adequate. In addition, a survey is a way to go because it allows for the gathering of massive amounts of data and the generalization of results to any pertinent organizational setting across populations (Wright et. al., 2016).

3.7.   Research Design Methods

- **Experimental Method**

In a controlled experiment, researchers consider potential confounding factors and alter one or more independent variables to see how they affect the dependent variable.

- **Observational Method**

Scientists use naturalistic observation when they don't interfere with the subject's behavior but instead watch it unfold in its native environment. The fields of anthropology and psychology frequently employ this technique. The term "structured observation" refers to the practice of making observations by a set of established rules or protocols.

- **Survey Method Questionnaires**

Researchers gather information from participants by giving them standardized questionnaires. Quantitative research data is frequently gathered using this strategy. Researchers can get more detailed answers from participants in interviews because they address questions directly to them. Structured, semi-structured, and unstructured formats are all possible for interviews.

- **Case Study Approach**

An individual or entity is the center of attention in a single-case study, which delves deeply into that instance. A multiple-case study looks at several examples at once to see whether there are any similarities or differences.

- **Analysis of Content**

To discover trends, themes, and patterns, researchers examine data that is either visual or auditory. Media studies and the social sciences frequently employ this approach.

- **Looking Back in Time**

To gain a better understanding of what happened, where things stood, and why, historians scour archives, records, and artifacts.

- **Research based on action**

When researchers and practitioners work together, they can solve real-world problems and put treatments into action.

- **Research Based on Ethnography**

Scientists study people by living among them for an extended period to learn their customs, beliefs, and habits.

- **Surveys with Both Short-Term and Long-Term Goals**

Data is collected from a sample of people at a specific point in time in cross-sectional surveys. To track changes over time, longitudinal surveys keep track of the same people for a long time.

- **Review of Studies**

For a more in-depth picture of a topic's research, researchers may often perform a quantitative synthesis of data from many studies (Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019).

- **A mix of approaches**

Research Integrates qualitative and quantitative approaches to better comprehend a research problem.

- **A Belief System**

In qualitative research, this approach seeks to build explanations or theories from the data that is gathered.

- **Creating Models and Simulations**

Mathematical or computational models allow researchers to investigate potential outcomes by simulating real-world events.

- **Tests of Surveys**

Brings together surveying and experimental methods so that researchers can control factors while still conducting surveys.

- **Research Methods: Case-control and Cohort Studies**

Diseases and health consequences can be better understood by applying these epidemiological research methodologies to the problem. A cross-sectional design combines aspects of both

longitudinal and cross-sectional research to look at how people change with age and how different cohorts are.

3.8.   Population And Sample

Every single employee from every single company will make up the research population. By doing so, we can guarantee that the demographic characteristics of different groups are well reflected. A sample size of 385 will be determined using the Cochran formula. The study's sample size will be determined using stratified sampling. To provide a better picture of how demographic characteristics like these affect team performance and non-cooperative behavior, this strategy makes sure that the sample is representative of different parts of the population.

3.9.   Participant Selection

To conclude with a bigger group or population, researchers often use a technique called sampling. Obtaining a sample that faithfully depicts the essential characteristics, variances, and proportions present in the population is the aim of sampling. Research technique relies on populations, which are groups of persons with shared characteristics within a specific geographic or institutional area "(Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016)". This idea is foundational to research projects since it provides the general structure for coming up with research questions and theories. Researchers can gain a thorough insight into the studied group from the community, which helps them investigate different occurrences "(Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016)".

In contrast, the research inquiry's "target population" is a subset of the larger population that is being studied. This subset is defined by specific qualities or criteria (Alvi, 2016). According to Asiamah et al. (2017), researchers can narrow their focus to specific subsets of the population by using parameters that are in line with the study's objectives and scope. Researchers can better match their research objectives and sample procedures with the study's goals and objectives by identifying the target group (Alvi, 2016). The ability to differentiate between diverse populations is essential in research techniques because it allows researchers to better understand and meet the requirements of the people they are studying, which in turn makes their findings more relevant and applicable.

Martínez-Mesa et al. (2016) stated that a population is an essential part of the research technique since it represents a group of people who share certain traits inside a specific area or organization. This idea is foundational to research projects since it provides the • general structure for coming up with research questions and theories. Researchers can gain a thorough insight into the studied group from the community, which helps them investigate different occurrences (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016; Willie, 2024).

3.10. Instrumentation

The reliability and validity of study findings depend on the methods and instruments used to gather, quantify, and evaluate data. Research instruments are the name given to these tools. Choosing the right research tool is critical to getting meaningful and trustworthy data whether you are doing quantitative or qualitative research for your PhD. Tools, devices, or methods used to gather, measure, and analyze data are referred to as research instruments. The research questions, data type, and methodology all have a role in determining the specific instruments used for the study. Research instruments, in their simplest form, are the tools used to collect data to resolve research issues (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003).

3.11. Research Tools Categorised

Whether your study is qualitative or quantitative will determine the primary factors influencing your choice of research tool. Because of the differences between the two methodologies, separate tools are needed for data collecting.

- **Tools For Qualitative Research**

The primary goal of qualitative research is to delve deeply into ideas, experiences, or social phenomena by collecting detailed, subjective data. Rather than numerical data, qualitative research instruments are made to capture detailed, descriptive information. The use of focus groups, observations, interviews, and document or content analysis.

- **Tools For Quantitative Studies**

The purpose of quantitative research is to find patterns, correlations, or trends by collecting numerical data that can be statistically examined. Larger samples are typically used in quantitative research because of the instruments' ability to assess variables objectively. Research Methods: Surveys, Questionnaires, Experiments, and Structured Observation.

3.12. Research Approaches Scientific Tools

What is known as mixed methods research occurs when researchers utilize a mix of quantitative and qualitative tools. Researchers can delve into the complexities of a research problem and collect measurable data using this method. A variety of research tools, such as interviews, surveys, observations, and experiments, are utilized in mixed methods studies (Nayak & Singh, 2021).

Any device that can collect, measure, and analyze information about a study's subjects is considered a research instrument. Whether your study is quantitative, qualitative, or a hybrid of the two will dictate the tool you choose. For a qualitative study, you might opt to utilize a scale, whereas a questionnaire would be more appropriate for a quantitative study. Using a well-established instrument is preferable because of the confidence people have in its results, but you are free to try something new or even make your own if you feel the need (Silverman, 1971).

3.13. Data Collection Procedures

"Data collection" is the act of systematically amassing information using observations and measurements. Collecting data enables you to acquire "first-hand expertise and unique insights" into your study challenge, regardless of whether you are conducting research for academic, governmental, or business interests.

To analyze and make educated decisions based on the data gathered, "data collection" is the act of acquiring and collecting information from many sources. A variety of approaches, including interviews, surveys, experiments, and careful observation, might be employed for this purpose.

- **Primary Data Collection**

Original, first-hand information gathered from the source or target population is known as primary data collection. Data that has not been documented, published, or previously collected is what this form of data collection is all about. "Questions posed via surveys, interviews, observations, experiments, and focus groups are all examples of primary data collection procedures." In most cases, "primary data sources are unable to match the depth and breadth of secondary data sources when it comes to answering research questions and achieving objectives." Researchers in the fields of science, market research, and sociology frequently employ primary data collection methods.

- **Secondary data collection**

As an alternative to performing original research, secondary data collection involves scouring pre-existing sources for material that has already been compiled and evaluated. The term "secondary data" refers to information gathered from previously published materials such as books, journals, newspapers, websites, and official government documents.

- **Qualitative Data**

"Interviews, focus groups, observations, and document analysis" are some of the methods used in qualitative data gathering, which aims to collect information that is not quantifiable, such as opinions, experiences, viewpoints, and emotions. It is commonly employed in the humanities, social sciences, and psychology to delve into the underlying meaning and context of a given phenomenon or circumstance. For a more complete picture of human behavior and experience, as well as a deeper dive into research questions, qualitative data-gathering techniques are the way to go.

- **Quantitative data**

Gathering numerical data amenable to statistical analysis is the goal of quantitative data collecting. Surveys, experiments, and other forms of systematic data collection are common ways to gather this information. Systematically and objectively, quantitative data gathering aims to assess and quantify variables including behaviors, attitudes, and views. Common uses for this data include

hypothesis testing, pattern recognition, and the establishment of correlations between variables. It is possible to measure things precisely and extrapolate results to a bigger population when using quantitative data collection methods. It finds widespread use in domains like the natural sciences, psychology, and economics.

Formal surveys will be administered to the chosen population to collect data. The following will be measured using standardized scales: psychological aspects, non-cooperative behavior, team performance, employee satisfaction, and leadership styles and perceptions. The responders in the sample were subsequently sent the surveys. The respondents' preferences and ease of use dictated the method of data collection, which included both online and paper questionnaires (Phillips & Stawarski, 2008).

3.14. Data Analysis

Data collection is the act of systematically amassing information using observations and measurements. Collecting data enables you to acquire "first-hand expertise and unique insights" into your study challenge, regardless of whether you are conducting research for academic, governmental, or business interests. To analyze and make educated decisions based on the data gathered, data collection is the act of acquiring and collecting information from many sources. A variety of approaches, including interviews, surveys, experiments, and careful observation, might be employed for this purpose.

Researchers employ research data analysis to distill data into a narrative and draw conclusions, as stated by LeCompte and Schensul. It seems to reason that data analysis would be useful in breaking down massive amounts of data into more manageable pieces. There are three main steps to data analysis, the first of which is organizing the data. When combined, classification and summarization become the second recognized technique for data reduction. It facilitates the discovery of commonalities in the data, which facilitates their further association. Finally, there are two approaches to data analysis that academics use: top-down and bottom-up. In contrast, data analysis is defined by "Marshall and Rossman" as an arduous, creative, and intriguing process that involves organizing, structuring, and making sense of a deluge of collected data, while being untidy, ambiguous, and time-consuming (Sinkovics et. al., 2005).

To analyze the data collected from respondents, a combination of **descriptive and inferential statistical techniques** was employed. These techniques were chosen to summarize the data effectively and test the relationships between key variables such as non-cooperative behavior, psychological factors, and transformational leadership. The data analysis was performed using **Microsoft Excel** for data entry and preliminary summaries, and **SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)** for advanced statistical analysis.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were used to provide a general overview of the responses and to describe the basic features of the data. The following measures were used:

- **Frequencies and Percentages**: To understand the distribution of categorical responses across variables such as gender, organizational role, and industry type.

- **Measures of Central Tendency (Mean)**: To determine the average response on the Likert scale for items measuring leadership attributes, psychological aspects, and behavioral tendencies.

- **Measures of Dispersion (Standard Deviation)**: To assess the variability or spread in the responses, indicating how consistently participants answered each item.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was used to examine the strength and direction of linear relationships between variables. This technique helped assess:

- The relationship between psychological factors (e.g., stress, job satisfaction) and non-cooperative behavior.

- The association between transformational leadership traits and the incidence of non-cooperative behavior in organizations.

Regression Analysis

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to identify the predictive effect of independent variables (psychological factors and transformational leadership traits) on the dependent variable (non-cooperative behavior). This technique allowed the researcher to:

- Quantify the degree to which leadership and psychological insights explain changes in non-cooperative behavior.

- Determine the statistical significance of each predictor in the model.

The regression model was assessed based on:

- R^2 (Coefficient of Determination): To indicate the proportion of variance in non-cooperative behavior explained by the model.

- F-statistic: To test the overall significance of the regression model.

- Beta coefficients (β): To evaluate the contribution of each independent variable to the dependent variable.

- p-values: To determine the statistical significance of the relationships.

- **Data analysis of the Theory of Planned Behavior**

By analyzing the non-cooperative behavior through the lens of TPB, it becomes clear that leaders have the power to shape followers' attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of control into a more positive outlook and an environment that fosters confidence and the ability to work together. Consequently, a leader might initiate this process by praising and compensating cooperative staff, thus altering and imparting the norms of the organization to one in which people collaborate. By providing the essential resources and encouragement, it is much easier to achieve behavioral control and, by extension, a collaborative culture. (Ajzen, 2020).

- **Data analysis of the Cognitive Dissonance Theory**

Cognitive dissonance theory, which sheds light on non-cooperative behavior, highlights how psychological distress can lead to a change in behavior. Because of this, a transformational leader must be able to pinpoint where their teams are experiencing discord and work to resolve it. Through improved vision communication and sharing and participation in decision-making, they can modify them, for instance, if an employee discovers a conflict between personal principles and organizational objectives. Consequently, workers should have access to resources tailored to their own needs and circumstances, and they should have a say in how they cope with the reality of their situation. By implementing this strategy, executives can cultivate a workforce that is more cooperative and invested, thereby mitigating cognitive dissonance. (Yahya & Sukmayadi, 2020).

- **Data analysis of the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

When thinking about the theoretical underpinnings of non-cooperative behavior, one could look at Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. If employees' fundamental or psychological needs are unfulfilled, these behaviors could emerge. All these needs, including those for fair compensation, a safe workplace, a sense of community, belonging, and love, recognition of accomplishments and rewards, and chances for professional and personal growth, can be satisfied by transformational leaders. Leaders can foster a more cooperative culture by addressing unmet needs, which in turn reduces instances of non-cooperation. (Gawel, 2019).

3.15. Research Design Limitations

- The study failed to investigate the efficacy of various gamification strategies; it merely evaluated one.

- User engagement was measured using self-reports, which could have measurement flaws or social desirability bias.

- The study might not apply to other people with different tastes or requirements because it only addressed a certain demographic (like young adults).

Dynamic Nature of Behavior:

- A wide range of internal and external influences can cause people's behavior to evolve and alter throughout time. To capture these changes, longitudinal studies are needed, but they can be difficult to execute and take a lot of resources.

- Theoretically and methodologically, drawing parallels between the fields of psychology and leadership studies can be difficult owing to the different research traditions and paradigms that each discipline employs.

- Unrepresentative samples can result from non-random sampling methods, which limit the generalizability of the findings. This is known as sampling bias. As an example, it's possible that insights gained by researching a single industry or kind of organization won't be transferable to others.

- Researchers are more likely to make Type II errors (missing an impact that exists) and struggle to identify statistically significant effects when their sample sizes are too small.

3.16. Conclusion

When it comes to understanding and controlling employees' lack of cooperation on the job, the "Theory of Planned Behavior" is a crucial framework. Because leaders can influence the elements that affect behavioral intentions, they can create plans that foster productive collaboration. A more visionary, inspiring, and supportive organization can be the result of this transformative leadership taking cues from TPB. By focusing intervention programs on changing attitudes, norms, and perceived control, organizational leaders can turn disagreeable behaviors into productive ones. When trying to comprehend and address issues related to employees' lack of cooperation in the workplace, the Cognitive Dissonance Theory provides a helpful foundation.

In addition, this theory's ideas of consonance and dissonance, as well as methods to lessen dissonance, shed light on the underlying psychological processes of behavior. A catalyst for change that grasps this realization may utilize transformational leadership to zero in one and eliminate

sources of discord while simultaneously fostering a culture of cooperation and collaboration throughout the organization.

Leaders can improve organizational effectiveness by modifying non-cooperative behavior through interventions that target individual and organizational values. An important paradigm for comprehending and controlling disruptive behavior in the workplace is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The transformational leader might use this framework to find out what the employees need at each level of the pyramid, and then he could implement interventions to meet those requirements, which would increase employee engagement and productivity. The workplace's attention to "employees' physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization" needs is sufficient to promote cooperation and discourage non-cooperation.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1   Introduction

Non-cooperative behavior within organizational settings poses significant challenges to team cohesion, productivity, and overall workplace morale. Rooted in psychological constructs, such behavior often stems from individual differences, interpersonal conflicts, or organizational dynamics that fail to foster mutual respect and collaboration. Psychological insights reveal that factors such as emotional intelligence, personality traits, perceived inequities, and unresolved conflicts play a crucial role in shaping such behaviors. These insights are pivotal for identifying triggers of non-cooperation and understanding how they can be addressed effectively within a professional context.

Transformational leadership, as a leadership style, has proven effective in mitigating non-cooperative tendencies. By inspiring employees through vision, motivation, and empathy, transformational leaders foster an environment where trust and collaboration thrive. This approach not only addresses the psychological underpinnings of non-cooperative behavior but also promotes a culture of inclusion and mutual respect. Leaders who adopt transformational practices can model desired behaviors, encourage open communication, and align individual goals with organizational objectives, thereby reducing the likelihood of conflict and enhancing overall team performance.

In this Chapter, we delve into the practical exploration of "non-cooperative behavior" and the implementation of transformational leadership strategies to address it. This chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of case studies and real-world scenarios where such behaviors have been observed, highlighting the psychological factors at play. Using "quantitative and qualitative data," we evaluate the effectiveness of transformational leadership techniques in fostering cooperation and improving team dynamics. Additionally, this chapter outlines actionable strategies for leaders to identify, understand, and transform non-cooperative behaviors into constructive engagement, ensuring a cohesive and productive work environment.

4.1.1 Model Development and Hypothesis

Non-cooperative behavior is a common challenge in various organizational and social settings. It manifests as resistance to teamwork, refusal to share resources, and disengagement from collective goals. **Understanding** its psychological underpinnings and employing transformational leadership strategies can foster a more collaborative environment. Through the incorporation of four distinct sets of confirmed questions and scales into the current study, the researchers were able to investigate each of the elements that are being investigated in the thesis. A set of questions and scales about **psychological factors, non-cooperative behavior, team performance, transformational leadership and employee satisfaction.** Studying non-cooperative behavior is the objective of the questions that are included in the first half of the second portion of the questionnaire.

The hypothesis is created in the next part, which is based on the variables that were discussed earlier:

4.1.2 Hypotheses of the Study

H1: "There is a significant impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."

H2: "There is a significant influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."

H3: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior.

H4: "There is a moderation effect of Psychological Traits between transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior."

H5: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."
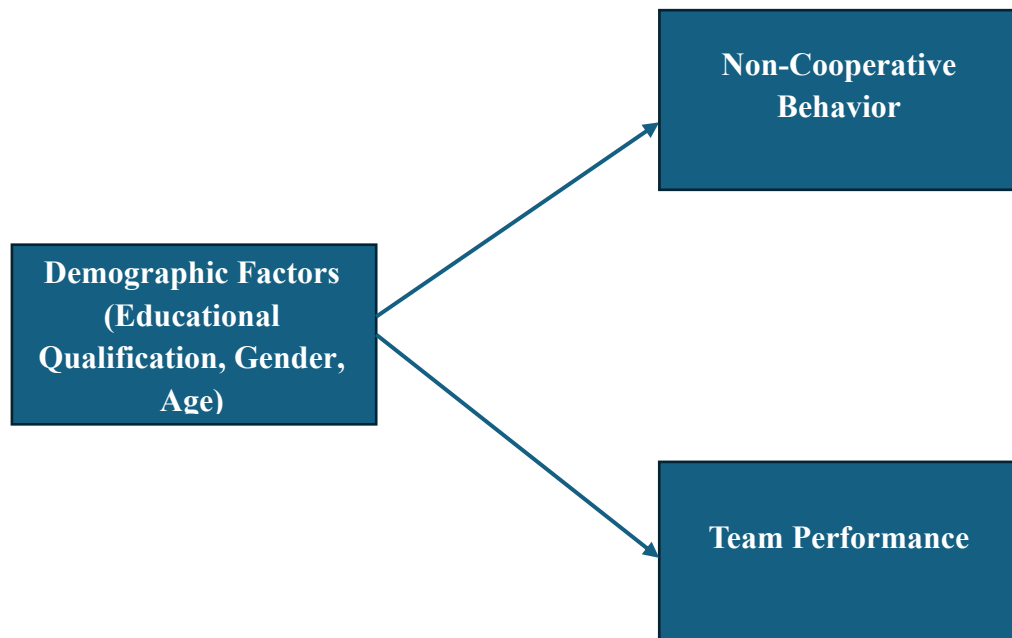
Figure 4.1 Research Model for evaluating the influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance
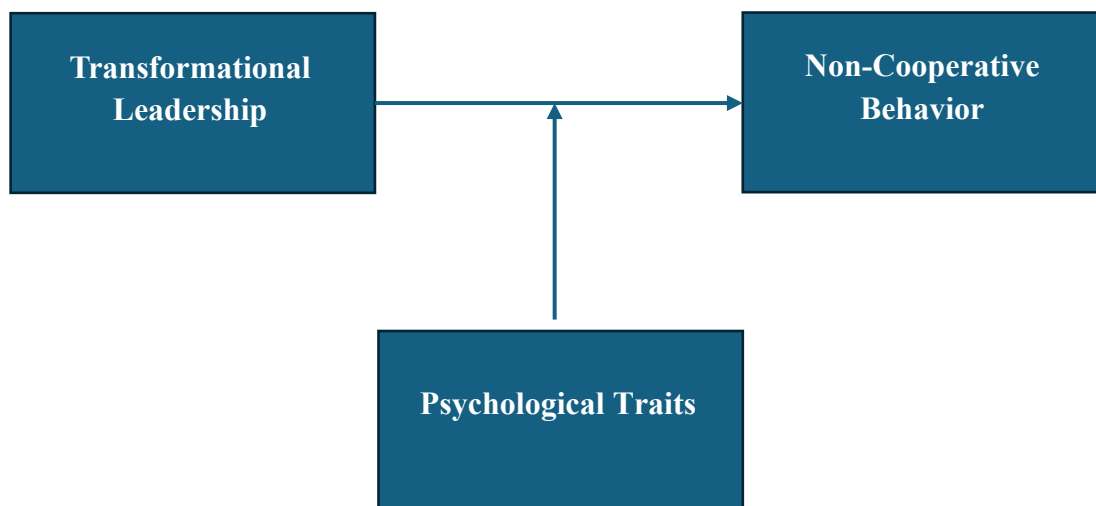
Figure 4.2 Research Model for evaluating the impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior with the moderation effect of Psychological Factors

4.2   Demographics Profile of the Respondents

Table 4.1: "Gender of the Respondents"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender					
Valid	Female	194	50.4	50.4	50.4
	Male	191	49.6	49.6	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.1 shows the gender of the respondents." "The data includes two categories: "Female" and "Male." Out of 385 respondents, 194 are female, representing 50.4% of the respondents and 191 respondents are classified as male, constituting 49.6% of the respondents." "Most of the respondents are male i.e. 49.6%."

Table 4.2: "Age of the Respondents"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age					
Valid	18-25 years	88	22.9	22.9	22.9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	26-35 years	112	29.1	29.1	51.9
	36-45 years	93	24.2	24.2	76.1
	More than 45 years	92	23.9	23.9	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.2 shows the Ages of the respondents. Out of 385 respondents, the largest group falls within the 26-35 years age range, accounting for 29.1% of the sample." "This is followed by the 36-45-year-old age group, which represents 24.2% of the respondents." "The 18-25 years age group constitutes 22.9%, while respondents aged more than 45 years make up 23.9% of the sample."

Table 4.3: Educational Qualification of the Respondents

Educational Qualification					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor's Degree	98	25.5	25.5	25.5
	High School Diploma	105	27.3	27.3	52.7

104

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Master's Degree	88	22.9	22.9	75.6
	Others	94	24.4	24.4	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.3 shows the Educational Qualification of the respondents." "Out of 385 respondents, the largest group consists of individuals with a High School Diploma, accounting for 27.3% of the total sample." "This is followed by respondents with a bachelor's degree at 25.5% and those with qualifications in the "Others" category at 24.4%." "Respondents with a master's degree make up 22.9% of the sample."

Table 4.4: Marital Status of the Respondents

Marital Status					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Divorced	89	23.1	23.1	23.1
	Married	98	25.5	25.5	48.6
	Single	102	26.5	26.5	75.1
	Widowed	96	24.9	24.9	100.0

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.4 shows the Marital Status of the respondents." "Out of 385 respondents, the largest group consists of Single individuals, accounting for 26.5% of the total sample." This is followed by those who are Married, making up 25.5%, and those who are Widowed, comprising 24.9%. Respondents who are Divorced represent 23.1% of the sample.

Table 4.5: Professional Work Experience in Years

How many years of professional work experience do you have?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 years	68	17.7	17.7	17.7
	4-6 years	79	20.5	20.5	38.2
	7-10 years	79	20.5	20.5	58.7
	Less than 1 year	73	19.0	19.0	77.7
	More than 10 years	86	22.3	22.3	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.5 shows the Professional Work Experience in Years of the respondents." "Out of 385 respondents, the largest group consists of individuals with more than 10 years of work experience, accounting for 22.3% of the sample." This is followed by those with 7-10 years and 4-6 years of experience, each comprising 20.5%. Respondents with less than 1 year of experience represent 19.0%, while those with 1-3 years make up 17.7% of the sample.

Table 4.6: Current Leadership or Managerial Position

Do you currently hold a leadership or managerial position?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	128	33.2	33.2	33.2
	Yes	257	66.8	66.8	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.6 shows the Current Leadership or Managerial Position of the respondents." "Out of 385 respondents, the majority, 66.8% (257 individuals), reported holding a leadership or managerial position. Conversely, 33.2% (128 individuals) indicated that they do not hold such a role."

Table 4.7: Description of Work Environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
How would you describe the work environment in your organization?					
Valid	Competitive	91	23.6	23.6	23.6
	Highly collaborative	79	20.5	20.5	44.2
	Independent	103	26.8	26.8	70.9
	Moderately collaborative	112	29.1	29.1	100.0
	Total	385	100.0	100.0	

"The above table 4.7 shows the Description of the Work Environment of the respondents." "Out of 385 respondents," the largest group, 29.1% (112 individuals), described their work environment as Moderately collaborative. This is followed by 26.8% (103 individuals) who characterized it as Independent, and 23.6% (91 individuals) who described it as Competitive. Additionally, 20.5% (79 individuals) reported their work environment to be Highly collaborative.

4.3   Hypothesis Testing Results

4.3.1   H1: "There is a significant impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."

Table 4.8: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.360[a]	.130	.127	7.06384
a. Predictors: (Constant), Psychological Factors				

"Table 4.8 shows the R-value, which represents the simple correlation, and is 0.360, which indicates a high degree of correlation." "The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable, "Non-Cooperative Behavior," can be explained by the independent variable."

Table 4.9: ANOVA

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2849.108	1	2849.108	57.099	.000[b]
	Residual	19110.881	383	49.898		

	Total	21959.990	384			

a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Psychological Factors

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of Psychological Factors (independent variable) on Non-Cooperative Behavior (dependent variable)." "The provided ANOVA table 4.9 reports how well the regression equation fits the data and predicts the dependent variable." "The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of 0.000, which is less than 0.05." "This means that the regression model is statistically significant and provides a good fit for the data."

Based on the results, psychological factors show a positive impact on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings, as indicated by the significant value being smaller than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.10: Coefficients[a]

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	21.410	2.641		8.108	.000

Psychological Factors	.287	.038	.360	7.556	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior

"The Coefficients Table 4.10" provides the necessary information to predict the effect of the "Psychological Factors" and determine whether the "Non-Cooperative Behavior" is statistically significant to the model.

4.3.2 **Hypothesis 2: "There is a significant influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."**

- **Non-Cooperative Behavior**

Table 4.11: Model Summary

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.183ª	.034	.026	7.46326	1.960

a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualification, Gender & Age

The impact of the demographic details such as Educational Qualification, Gender and Age, is evaluated and shown in Table 4.11. The calculated phase 1 multivariate multiple linear regression 'r' value is 0.183, and the 'R square' value is 0.034, which states that about 3% of the changes in

the demographic factors can influence **non-cooperative behavior**. The results of Durbin Watson's test reveal (1.960) a positive correlation between the dependent and independent variables. Table 10 depicts the regression values of the dependent variable – productivity. "Table 4.11 shows the R-value," which represents the simple "correlation," and is "0.183," which indicates a "high degree of correlation". The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in the "dependent variable," "Non-Cooperative Behavior," can be explained by the independent variable.

Table 4.12: ANOVA

ANOVA						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	738.209	3	246.070	4.418	.005[b]
	Residual	21221.780	381	55.700		
	Total	21959.990	384			
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior						
b. Predictors: (Constant), (Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age						

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of (Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, and Age (independent variable) on Non-Cooperative Behavior (dependent variable)." "The provided ANOVA table 4.12 reports how well the regression equation fits the data

and predicts the dependent variable." "The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of 0.005, which is less than 0.05." "This means that the regression model is statistically significant and provides a good fit for the data."

Based on the results, demographic factors have a statistically significant impact on non-cooperative behavior and team performance, as indicated by the significant value being smaller than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

4.3.3 Hypotheses Testing Results – Non-cooperative Behaviour

Table 4.13: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	38.807	1.693		22.923	.000	2.851	3.794
	Gender	1.538	.761	.102	2.021	.044	-.363	.232
	Age	.722	.350	.104	2.064	.040	-0.049	0.224
	Educational Qualification	.713	.336	.107	-2.120	.035	-0.116	0.147

a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior

In the table that can be seen below (Table 4.13), the results of the phase 1 multivariate regressions are shown for your perusal. The following is a list of the outcomes of the regression model:

113

- The demographic detail Gender significantly influence the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = 0.102).
- The demographic detail age significantly influences the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = 0.104).
- The demographic detail Educational Qualification significantly influences the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = 0.107).

The null hypothesis rejected. "The Coefficients Table 4.13" provides the necessary information to predict the effect of the "(Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age" and determine whether the "Non-Cooperative Behavior" is statistically significant to the model. Figure 4.10 represents the regression results.
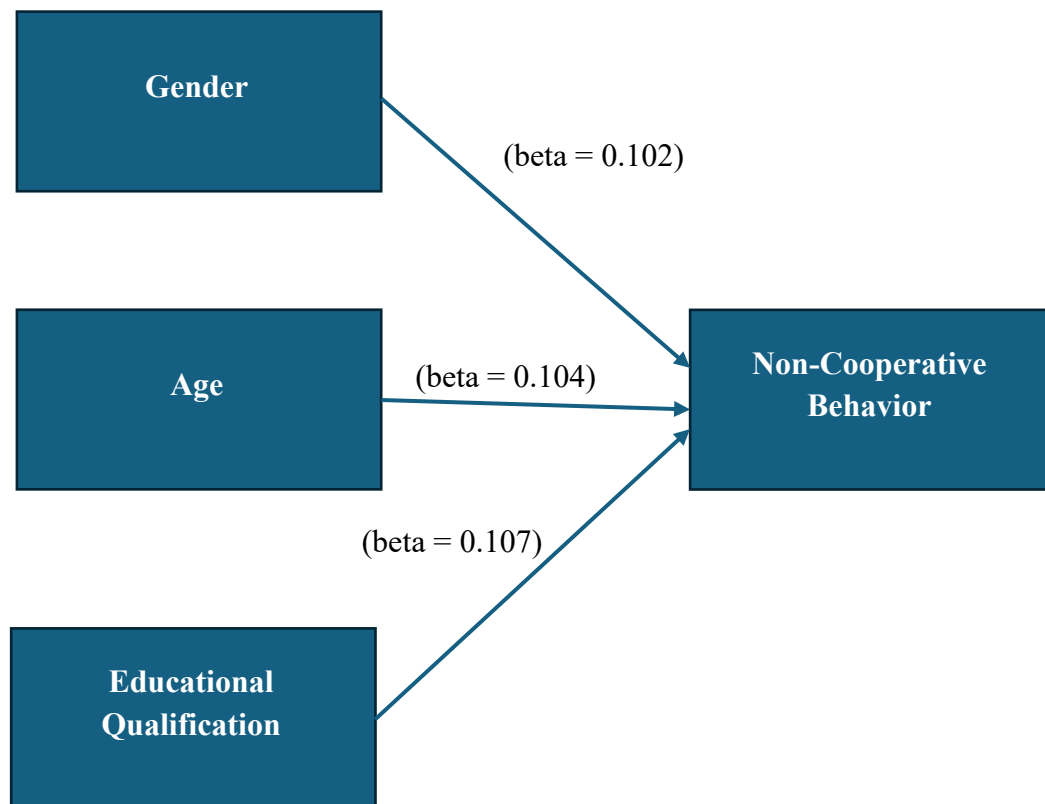
Figure 4.10 Regression Model – Results (Non-Cooperative Behavior)

- **Team Performance**

Table 4.14: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.149a	.022	.015	3.99394
a. Predictors: (Constant), (Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age				

The impact of the demographic details such as Educational Qualification, Gender and Age, is evaluated and shown in Table 4.11. The calculated phase 1 multivariate multiple linear regression 'r' value is 0.183, and the 'R square' value is 0.034, which states that about 3% of the changes in the demographic factors can influence **non-cooperative behavior**. The results of Durbin Watson's test reveal (1.960) a positive correlation between the dependent and independent variables. Table 10 depicts the regression values of the dependent variable – productivity. "Table 4.14 shows the R-value," which represents the simple "correlation," and is "0.149," which indicates a high degree of correlation. The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable, "Team Performance," can be explained by the independent variable.

Table 4.15: ANOVA

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	137.990	3	45.997	2.884	.036[b]
	Residual	6077.553	381	15.952		
	Total	6215.543	384			
a. Dependent Variable: Team Performance						
b. Predictors: (Constant), "(Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age						

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of (Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, and Age (independent variable) on Team Performance (dependent variable)." "The provided ANOVA table 4.15 reports how well the regression equation fits the data and predicts the dependent variable". The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of "0.036," which is less than "0.05." This means that the regression model is statistically significant and provides a good fit for the data.

Based on the results, (Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age have a statistically significant impact on the Team Performance, as indicated by the significant value being smaller than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.16: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	29.664	.906		32.743	.000	3.043	3.952
	Gender	-1.134	.407	-.141	-2.784	.006	-.350	.223
	Age	-.148	.187	-.040	-.792	.429	-0.125	0.138
	Educational Qualification	.062	.180	.018	.347	.729	-0.151	0.103
a. Dependent Variable: Team Performance								

In the table that can be seen below (Table 4.13), the results of the phase 1 multivariate regressions are shown for your perusal. The following is a list of the outcomes of the regression model:

- The demographic detail Gender significantly influence the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = -0.141).
- The demographic detail age significantly influences the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = -0.040).
- The demographic detail Educational Qualification significantly influences the changes to the Non-Cooperative Behavior with a p-value less than 0.05 (beta = 0.018).

The null hypothesis rejected. "The Coefficients table 4.16 provides the necessary information to predict the effect of the "(Demographic Factors) Educational Qualification, Gender, Age" and determine whether the "Team Performance" is statistically significant to the model." Figure 4.11 represents the regression results.
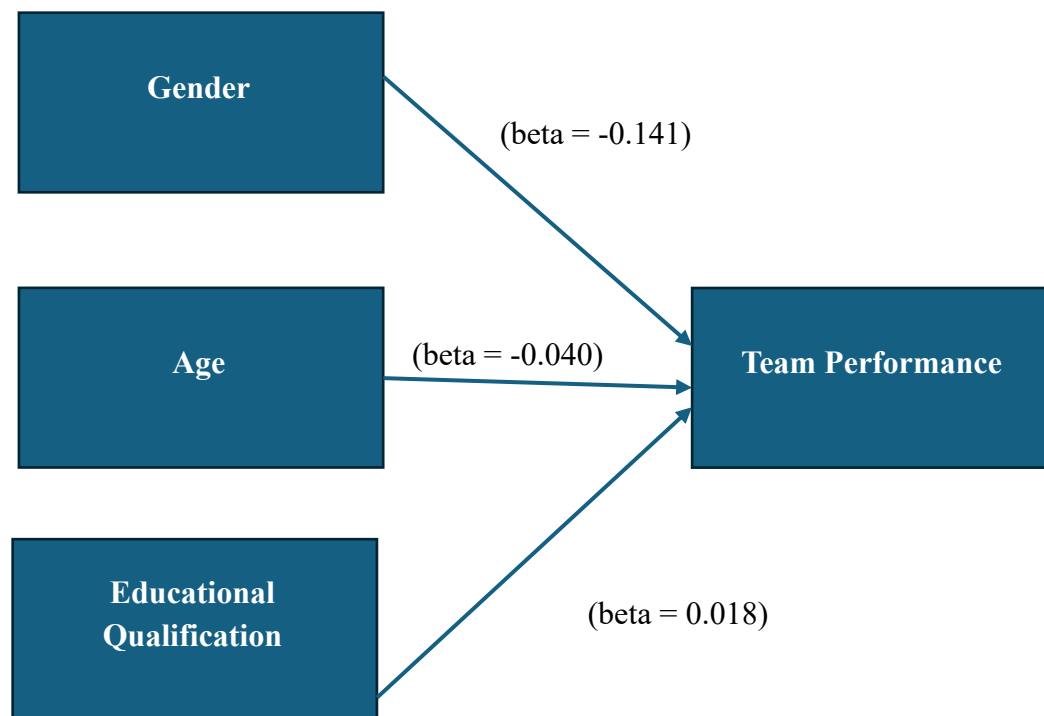
**Figure 4.11 Regression Model – Results (Team Performance)**

4.4.3   Structural Equation Modelling

H3: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior.

H4: "There is a moderation effect of Psychological Factors between transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior."

Every one of the hypotheses that were examined was statistically significant, and the data provided statistical support for each of them. In accordance with the model estimates (for an illustration of the estimated standardised path coefficients, please refer to Figure 4.5), the data demonstrated that each and every association was statistically significant. There are a number of criteria that were established in order to evaluate the fit of the model. These criteria include the comparative fit index

(CFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). In spite of the fact that the range for acceptance of CMIN/df varies from research to research, a value of less than 5 is considered to reflect a fair fit between the hypothetical model and sample data (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). The CMIN/df that was obtained was 3.233, which indicates the minimum discrepancy divided by its degrees of freedom. In addition, Hoyle (1995) suggests that a GFI value that is lower than 0.90 is considered to be acceptable. This is because it implies that the reproduced correlation matrix based on the suggested model accounts for the original sample correlation matrix to a significant degree. Because of this, the GFI value that was achieved, which was 0.930, was able to show a satisfactory fit. In addition, the CFI value that was acquired (0.973) was deemed to be satisfactory since it was in accordance with the value that was recommended by Hair et al. (2010), which was a CFI that was equal to or greater than 0.90. Last but not least, the RMSEA measure revealed a decent fit (0.052), which is based on Byrne (2008)'s proposal that an RMSEA between 0.05 and 0.08 is deemed to be fair. This is commonly believed to represent a suitable error of approximation for this absolute measure of fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Table 4.17 gives the model fit summary.

Table 4.17. Model Fit Summary

Key Statistics	Value
Goodness of Fit Indices (GFI)	0.930
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	0.887
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.963
Incremental Fit index (IFI)	0.974
Relative Fit index (RFI)	0.776
Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI)	0.836
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.052
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.973
Chi-Square/Degree of freedom (CMIN/DF)	3.888

Table 4.18 gives the regression weight. The results confirmed that transformational leadership significantly influence non-cooperative behaviour (H3). Personality traits play a significant moderating role between transformational leadership and non-cooperative behaviour. Therefore, hypothesis 4 and 5 alternative hypothesis is accepted and null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore,

the model considered in Figure 3 shows the definitive research model with the estimate values. Table 4.12 displays the estimated regression weights and the corresponding p-values for the tested hypotheses.

Table 4.18. Regression Weight Estimates of SEM

Hypotheses	Items	Estimate	P	Label
Hypothesis 3	Transformational Leadership ⇨ Non-Cooperative Behaviour	.248	***	Supported
Hypothesis 4	Personality traits ⇔ Transformational Leadership Non-Cooperative Behaviour	.208	***	Supported
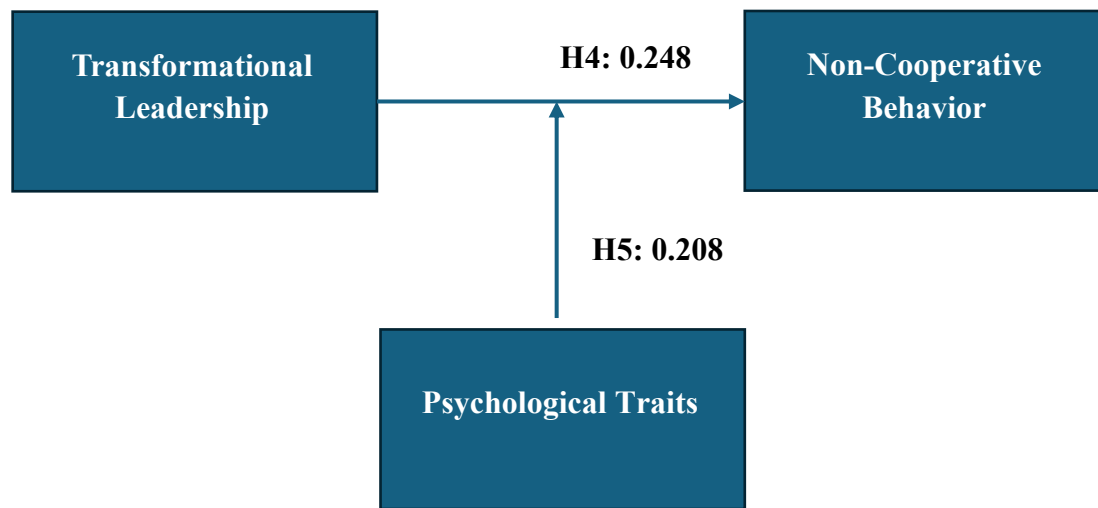
Figure 4.12 Structural Model Fit– Regression Weight Results
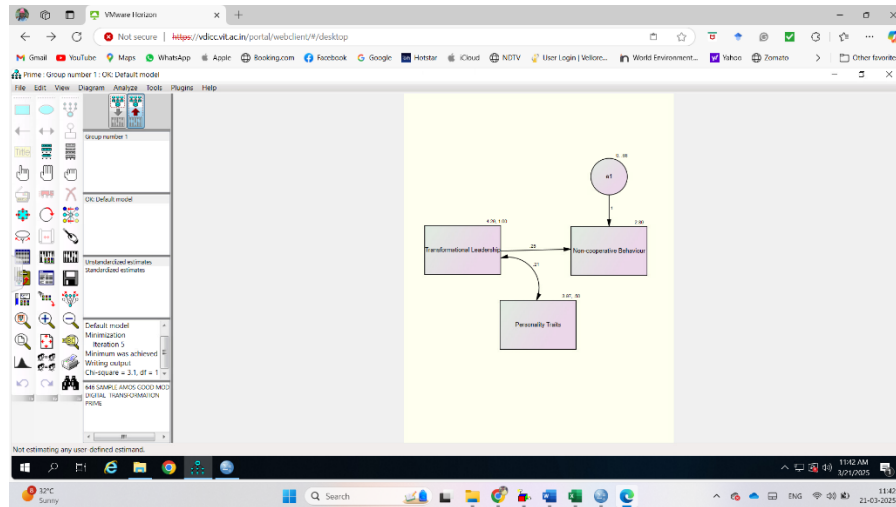
Figure 4.13 AMOS SEM Analysis Results

4.4.5   Hypothesis 5: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction."

- **Non-Cooperative Behavior**

Table 4.19: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.068ª	.005	.002	7.55461
a. Predictors: (Constant), Transformational leadership				

"Table 4.19 shows the R-value, which represents the simple correlation, and is 0.068, which indicates a high degree of correlation." "The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in

the dependent variable, "Non-Cooperative Behavior," can be explained by the independent variable."

Table 4.20: ANOVA

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	101.344	1	101.344	1.776	.183[b]
	Residual	21858.646	383	57.072		
	Total	21959.990	384			
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Transformational leadership						

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of Transformational leadership (independent variable) on Non-Cooperative Behavior (dependent variable)." "The provided ANOVA table 4.18 reports how well the regression equation fits the data and predicts the dependent variable." "The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of 0.183, which is more than 0.05." "This means that the model does not provide a good fit for the data and fails to significantly predict the dependent variable."

Based on the results, Transformational Leadership has no statistically significant impact on Non-Cooperative Behavior, as indicated by the significant value being more than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.21: Coefficients

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	44.858	2.790		16.081	.000
	Transformational leadership	-.072	.054	-.068	-1.333	.183
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior						

"The Coefficients table 4.21" provides the necessary information to predict the effect of the "Transformational leadership" and determine whether the "Non-Cooperative Behavior" is statistically significant to the model.

- **Team Performance**

Table 4.22: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.073[a]	.005	.003	7.55182
a. Predictors: (Constant), Team Performance				

"Table 4.22 shows the R-value, which represents the simple correlation, and is 0.073, which indicates a high degree of correlation." The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable, "Non-Cooperative Behavior," can be explained by the independent variable.

Table 4.23: ANOVA

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	117.479	1	117.479	2.060	.152[b]

124

Residual	21842.511	383	57.030		
Total	21959.990	384			

a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Team Performance

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of Team Performance (independent variable) on Non-Cooperative Behavior (dependent variable)." "The provided ANOVA table 4.23 reports how well the regression equation fits the data and predicts the dependent variable." "The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of 0.152, which is more than 0.05." "This means that the model does not provide a good fit for the data and fails to significantly predict the dependent variable."

Based on the results, Team Performance has no statistically significant impact on Non-Cooperative Behavior, as indicated by the significant value being more than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.24: Coefficients

	Coefficients				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.

1	(Constant)	44.991	2.685			16.755	.000
	Team Performance	-.137	.096	-.073		-1.435	.152
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior							

"The Coefficients table 4.24" provides the necessary information to predict the effect of the "Team Performance" and determine whether the "Non-Cooperative Behavior" is statistically significant to the model.

- **Employee Satisfaction**

Table 4.25: Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.102[a]	.010	.008	7.53261
a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Satisfaction				

"Table 4.25 shows the R-value," which represents the simple "correlation," and is "0.102," which indicates a "high degree of correlation." The R2 value indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable, "Non-Cooperative Behavior," can be explained by the independent variable.

Table 4.26: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ANOVA						
1	Regression	228.507	1	228.507	4.027	.045[b]
	Residual	21731.482	383	56.740		
	Total	21959.990	384			
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Satisfaction						

"A regression test was conducted to assess the impact of Employee Satisfaction (independent variable) on Non-Cooperative Behavior (dependent variable)." The provided ANOVA table 4.26 reports how well the regression equation fits the data and predicts the dependent variable. The results indicate that the regression model significantly predicts the dependent variable, with a significant value of 0.045, which is less than 0.05. This means that the regression model is statistically significant and provides a good fit for the data.

Based on the results, Transformational leadership has a statistically significant impact on Employee Satisfaction, as indicated by the significant value being smaller than 0.05. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.27: Coefficients

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	36.575	2.325		15.730	.000
	Employee Satisfaction	.168	.084	.102	2.007	.045
a. Dependent Variable: Non-Cooperative Behavior						

"The Coefficients Table 4.27" provides the necessary information to predict the effect of "Employee Satisfaction" and determine whether the "Non-Cooperative Behavior" is statistically significant to the model.

4.4   Responses of the Respondents

4.4.1   Psychological Factors
a)   **Stress**

Table 4.28: Stress

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I often feel overwhelmed by my workload in the organization.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2234	1.48323
The pressure to meet deadlines negatively affects my work performance.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4026	1.42941
I feel stressed due to unclear roles and responsibilities at work.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5065	1.35615
Stress in my job environment influences my ability to cooperate with my team members.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2208	1.45258
My organization provides adequate resources to manage work-related stress.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3792	1.43490
Valid N (listwise)	385				
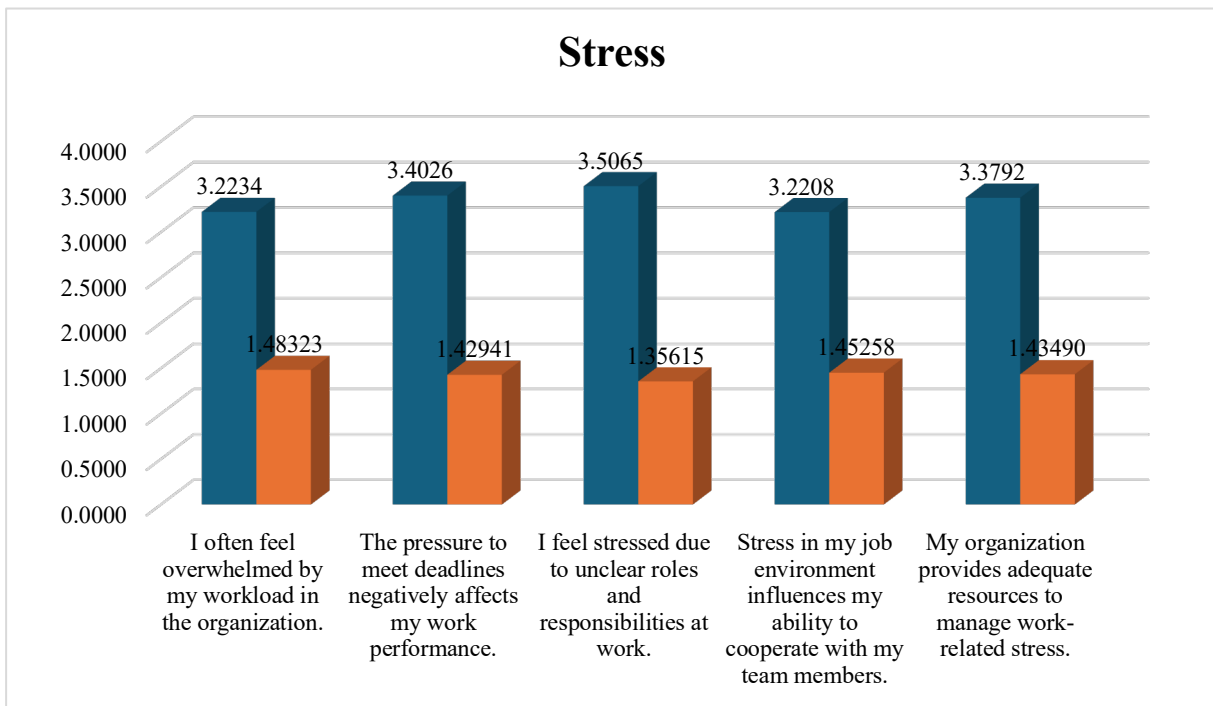
Figure 4.14: Stress

"The responses from 385 respondents" have been gathered in respect to the variable "Stress". The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I often feel overwhelmed by my workload in the organization" are "3.2234 and 1.4832," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "The pressure to meet deadlines negatively affects my work performance" are "3.4026 and 1.4294," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I feel stressed due to unclear roles and responsibilities at work" are "3.5065 and 1.3562," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "Stress in my job environment influences my ability to cooperate with my team members" are "3.2208 and 1.4526," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "My organization provides adequate resources to manage work-related stress" are "3.3792 and 1.4349," respectively.

b)   Motivation

Table 4.29: Motivation

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel motivated to contribute to achieving organizational goals.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2078	1.45181
My job provides opportunities for professional growth and self-improvement.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3740	1.43627
Recognition and rewards in the organization enhance my motivation.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5221	1.37506
A positive work environment increases my drive to perform well.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4571	1.43573

I am motivated to engage in team activities and collaborative efforts.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4701	1.39372
Valid N (listwise)	385				
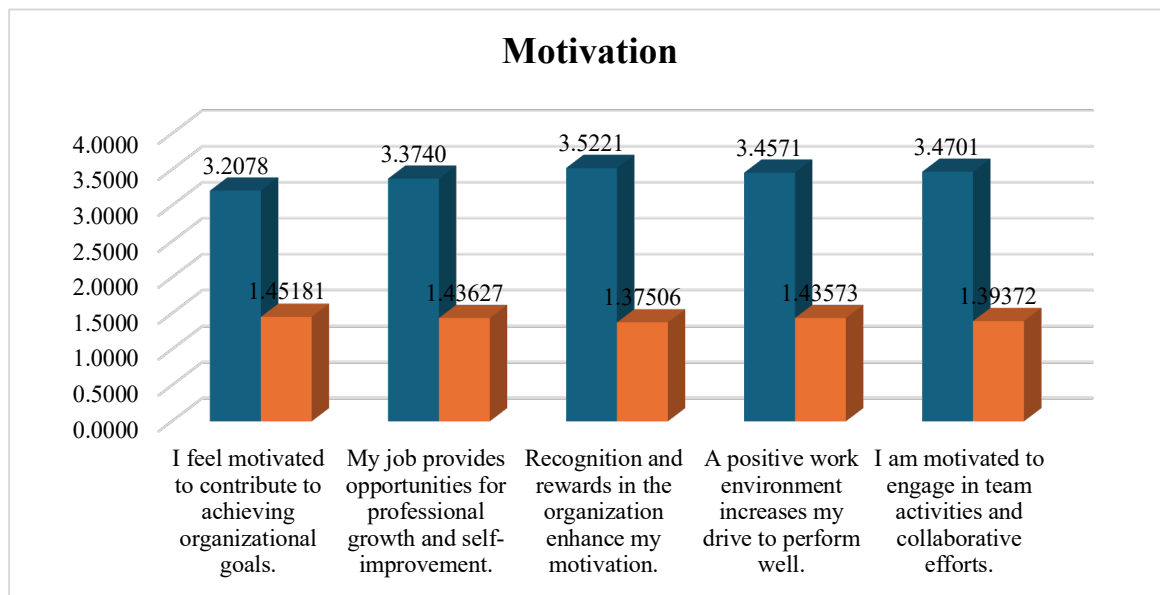
Figure 4.15: Motivation

"The responses from 385 respondents" have been gathered concerning the variable "Employee Motivation". "The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I feel motivated to contribute to achieving organizational goals" are "3.2078 and 1.4518," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "My job provides opportunities for professional growth and self-improvement" are 3.3740 and 1.4363, respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "Recognition and rewards in the organization enhance my motivation" are "3.5221 and 1.3751," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "A positive work environment increases my drive to perform well" are "3.4571 and 1.4357," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I am motivated to engage in team activities and collaborative efforts" are "3.4701 and 1.3937," respectively.

c) **Emotional Intelligence**

Table 4.30: Emotional Intelligence

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I can effectively manage my emotions in stressful work situations.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5714	1.41999
I can empathize with my team members when they face challenges.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4571	1.41379
I am confident in resolving conflicts in a way that benefits everyone involved.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4208	1.32271

My ability to understand others' perspectives improves team collaboration.	385	1.00	5.00	3.6052	1.37309
Emotional self-control helps me maintain professionalism in the workplace.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4779	1.37127
Valid N (listwise)	385				
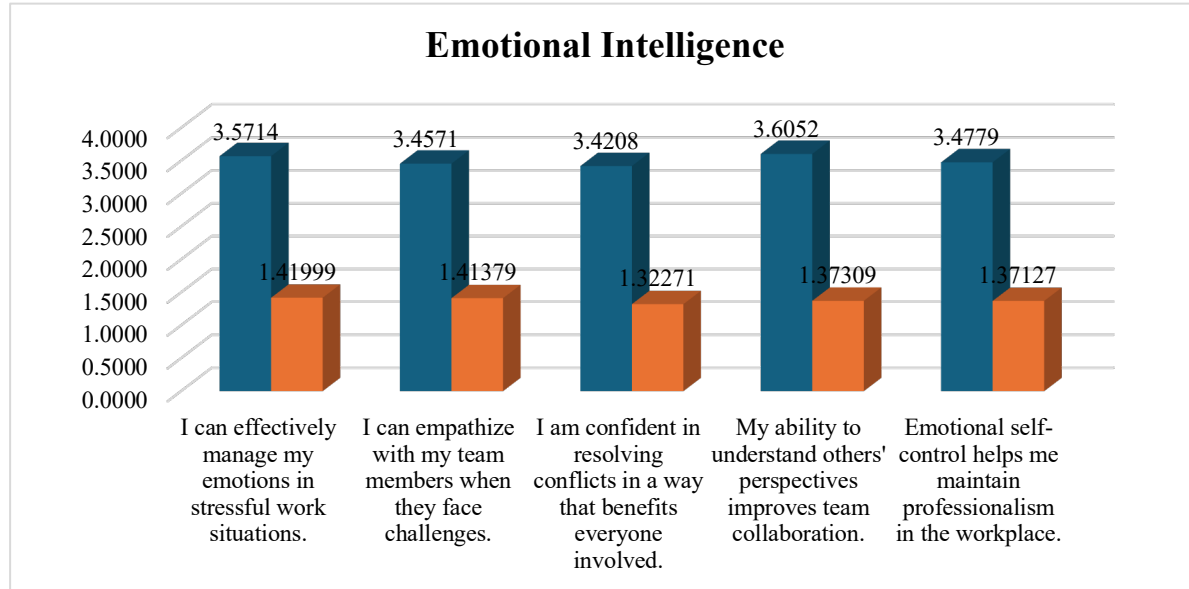
Figure 4.16: Emotional Intelligence

"The responses from 385 respondents" have been gathered with respect to the variable "Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace". "The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I can

134

effectively manage my emotions in stressful work situations" are "3.5714 and 1.4200," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I can empathize with my team members when they face challenges" are "3.4571 and 1.4138," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I am confident in resolving conflicts in a way that benefits everyone involved" are "3.4208 and 1.3227," respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "My ability to understand others' perspectives improves team collaboration" are 3.6052 and 1.3731, respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "Emotional self-control helps me maintain professionalism in the workplace" are 3.4779 and 1.3713, respectively.

d)   Personality Traits

Table 4.31: Personality Traits

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am open to feedback and new ideas in the workplace.	385	1.00	5.00	3.6104	1.37458
My conscientiousness helps me stay organized and meet deadlines.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4857	1.36566

I am comfortable taking initiative in challenging work situations.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5377	1.36331
My extraversion helps me build positive relationships with team members.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4390	1.44231
I maintain a positive attitude, even during challenging times at work.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3974	1.45970
Valid N (listwise)	385				
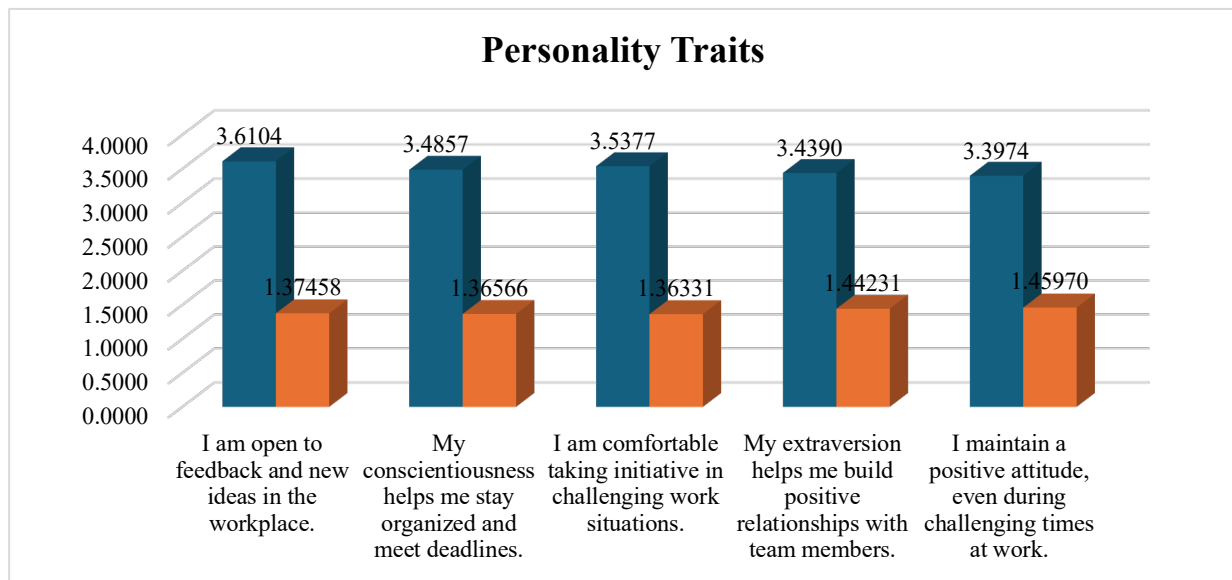
Figure 4.17: Personality Traits

"The responses from 385 respondents" have been gathered with respect to the variable "Personality Traits in the Workplace". "The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I am open to feedback and new ideas in the workplace" are 3.6104 and 1.3746, respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "My conscientiousness helps me stay organized and meet deadlines" are 3.4857 and 1.3657, respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "I am comfortable taking initiative in challenging work situations" are 3.5377 and 1.3633, respectively.

"The mean and standard deviation" values for the statement "My extraversion helps me build positive relationships with team members" are 3.4390 and 1.4423, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I maintain a positive attitude, even during challenging times at work" are 3.3974 and 1.4597, respectively.

4.4.2 Non-Cooperative Behavior

Table 4.32: Non-Cooperative Behavior

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I often find it challenging to collaborate effectively with my team members.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4000	1.42558
I prefer to work independently rather than participating in team activities.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3974	1.47567

I avoid sharing knowledge or resources with my colleagues.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4805	1.36750
I feel reluctant to support team decisions that do not align with my preferences.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5377	1.36331
Conflicts in the workplace often hinder my willingness to cooperate with others.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4156	1.40822
I rarely contribute to group discussions or problem-solving initiatives.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4182	1.46101
I tend to resist changes suggested by team members or management.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3922	1.35571
Differences in opinions with my team members often lead to non-cooperative behavior.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4545	1.38016
I feel neglected and unable to cooperate because my manager supports my teammate who is very selfish.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4545	1.43019

I feel frustrated due to the biases shown by my manager and so unable to cooperate and contribute towards team deliverables.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4156	1.40822
I feel neglected and unimportant by my teammates so unable to collaborate towards team deliverables.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4182	1.46101
I have a problem with down the line employees resorting to corrupt practices which are not addressed properly by my manager so my engagement in the teamwork and deliverables is passive.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3922	1.35571
Valid N (listwise)	385				
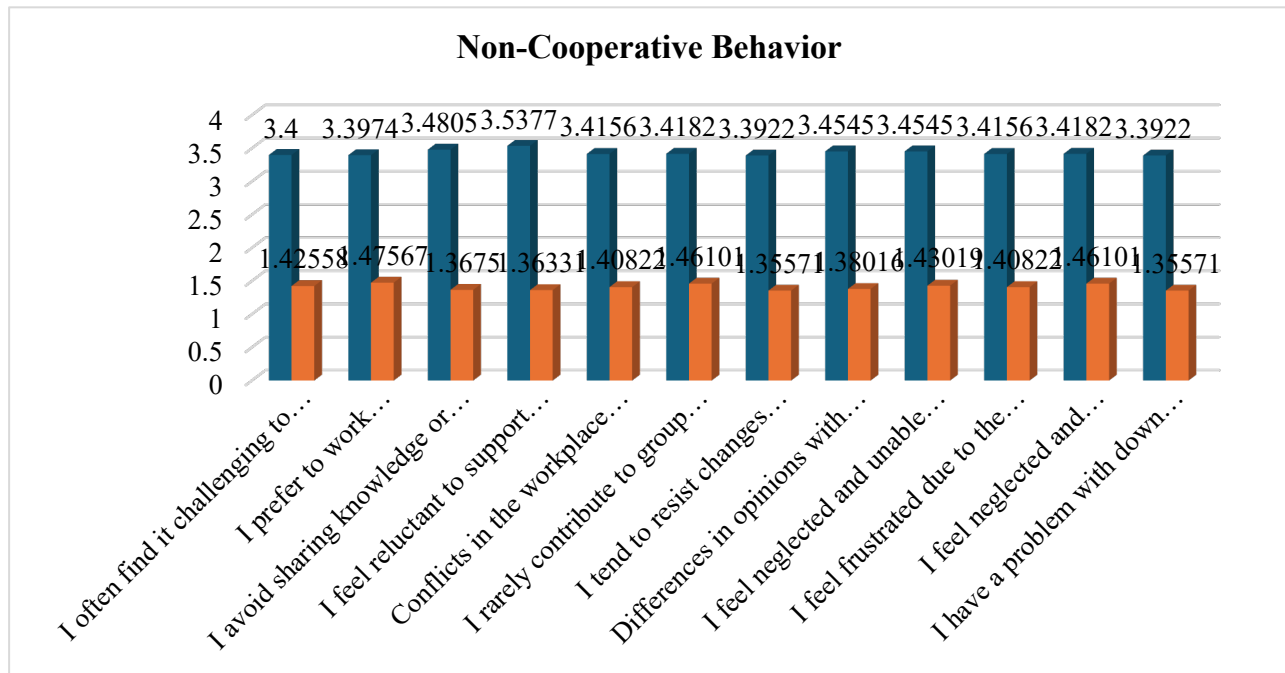
Figure 4.18: Non-Cooperative Behavior

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered in respect to the variable "Non-Cooperative Behavior in the Workplace". The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I often find it challenging to collaborate effectively with my team members" are 3.4000 and 1.4256, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I prefer to work independently rather than participating in team activities" are 3.3974 and 1.4757, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I avoid sharing knowledge or resources with my colleagues" are 3.4805 and 1.3675, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel reluctant to support team decisions that do not align with my preferences" are 3.5377 and 1.3633, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "Conflicts in the workplace often hinder my willingness to cooperate with others" are 3.4156 and 1.4082, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I rarely contribute to group discussions or problem-solving initiatives" are 3.4182 and 1.4610, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I tend to resist changes suggested by team members or management" are 3.3922 and 1.3557, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Differences in opinions with my team members often lead to non-cooperative behavior" are 3.4545 and 1.3802, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel neglected and unable to cooperate because my manager supports my teammate who is very selfish" are 3.4545 and 1.4302, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel frustrated due to the biases shown by my manager and so unable to cooperate and contribute towards team deliverables" are 3.4156 and 1.4082, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel neglected and unimportant by my teammates so unable to collaborate towards team deliverables" are 3.4182 and 1.4610, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I have a problem with down-the-line employees resorting to corrupt practices which are not addressed properly by my manager so my engagement in the teamwork and deliverables is passive" are 3.3922 and 1.3557, respectively.

4.4.3 Team Performance

Table 4.33: Team Performance

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Our team consistently meets deadlines and achieves project goals effectively.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4234	1.35207
Team members collaborate efficiently to resolve challenges and conflicts.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4468	1.32990
The quality of work delivered by our team meets organizational standards.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4519	1.37629
Our team maintains clear and open communication during projects.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5091	1.37521
The team effectively utilizes available resources to achieve desired outcomes.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5714	1.37148
Team members are highly committed to achieving shared objectives.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4571	1.36506

|					
Our team demonstrates adaptability when faced with unexpected changes.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5169	1.33672
Our team successfully balances individual contributions with collective efforts.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3662	1.46252
Valid N (listwise)	385				
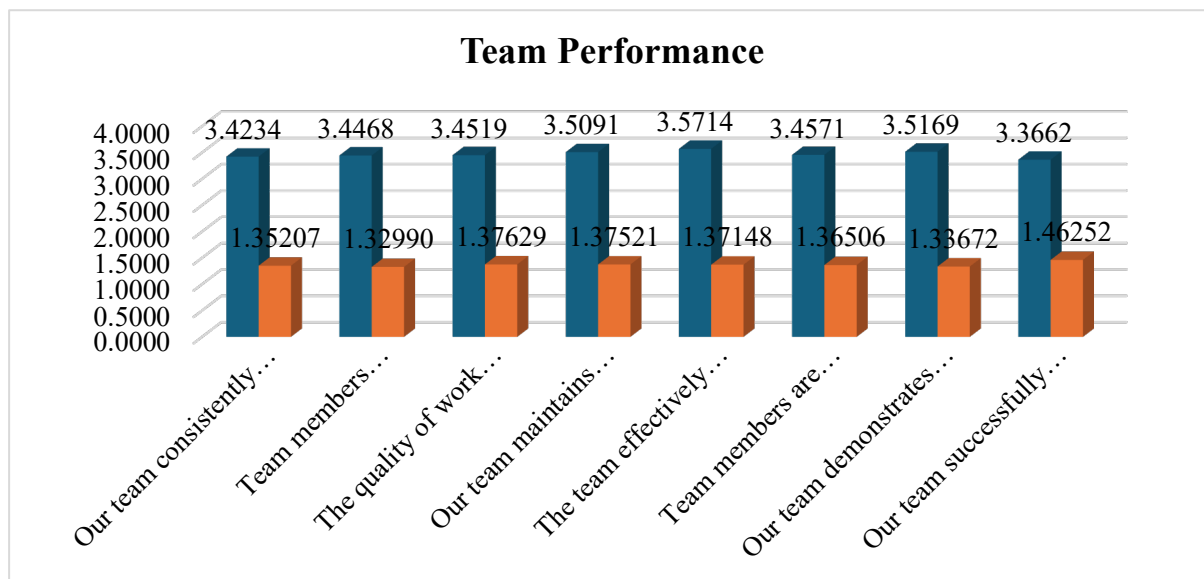
Figure 4.19: Team Performance

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered concerning the variable "Team Effectiveness". The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Our team consistently meets deadlines and achieves project goals effectively" are 3.4234 and 1.3521, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Team members collaborate efficiently to resolve challenges and conflicts" are 3.4468 and 1.3299, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "The quality of work delivered by our team meets organizational standards" are 3.4519 and 1.3763, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Our team maintains clear and open communication during projects" are 3.5091 and 1.3752, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "The team effectively utilizes available resources to achieve desired outcomes" are 3.5714 and 1.3715, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Team members are highly committed to achieving shared objectives" are 3.4571 and 1.3651, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Our team demonstrates adaptability when faced with unexpected changes" are 3.5169 and 1.3367, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "Our team successfully balances individual contributions with collective efforts" are 3.3662 and 1.4625, respectively.

4.4.4   Transformational leadership

a)   Inspirational Motivation

Table 4.34: Inspirational Motivation

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation

My leader inspires me to achieve challenging goals and objectives.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4286	1.35428
The leader communicates a clear vision that motivates me to work harder.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4442	1.32784
I feel motivated to contribute my best efforts toward the organization's mission.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4519	1.37629
My leader fosters a sense of enthusiasm and commitment within the team.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5065	1.37333
My leader encourages a shared sense of purpose and direction within the team.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5688	1.36971
Valid N (listwise)	385				
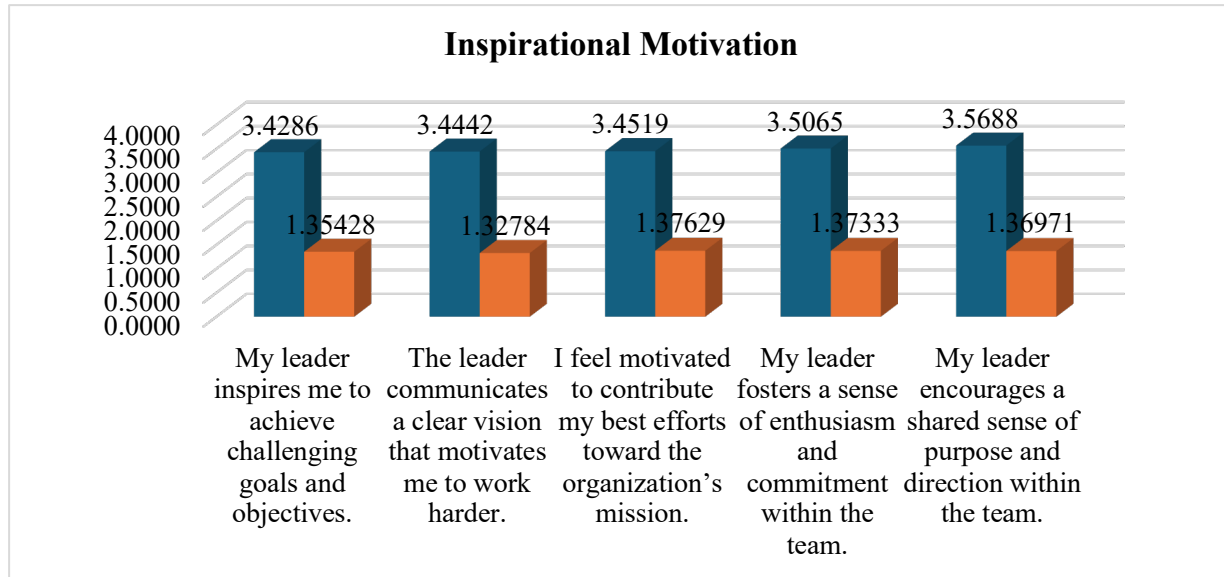
Figure 4.20: Inspirational Motivation

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered concerning the variable "Transformational Leadership". The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader inspires me to achieve challenging goals and objectives" are 3.4286 and 1.3543, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "The leader communicates a clear vision that motivates me to work harder" are 3.4442 and 1.3278, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel motivated to contribute my best efforts toward the organization's mission" are 3.4519 and 1.3763, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader fosters a sense of enthusiasm and commitment within the team" are 3.5065 and 1.3733, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader encourages a shared sense of purpose and direction within the team" are 3.5688 and 1.3697, respectively.

b) Intellectual Stimulation

Table 4.35: Intellectual Stimulation

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
My leader encourages me to think creatively and look at problems from different perspectives.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4961	1.39963
I am encouraged to question the status quo and suggest new ideas or solutions.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5117	1.34455
My leader promotes a culture of continuous learning and improvement.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2000	1.43759
My leader values innovative thinking and supports experimentation in problem-solving.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4234	1.35975

I feel empowered to make decisions and contribute my ideas to the organization's strategy.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2701	1.48947
Valid N (listwise)	385				
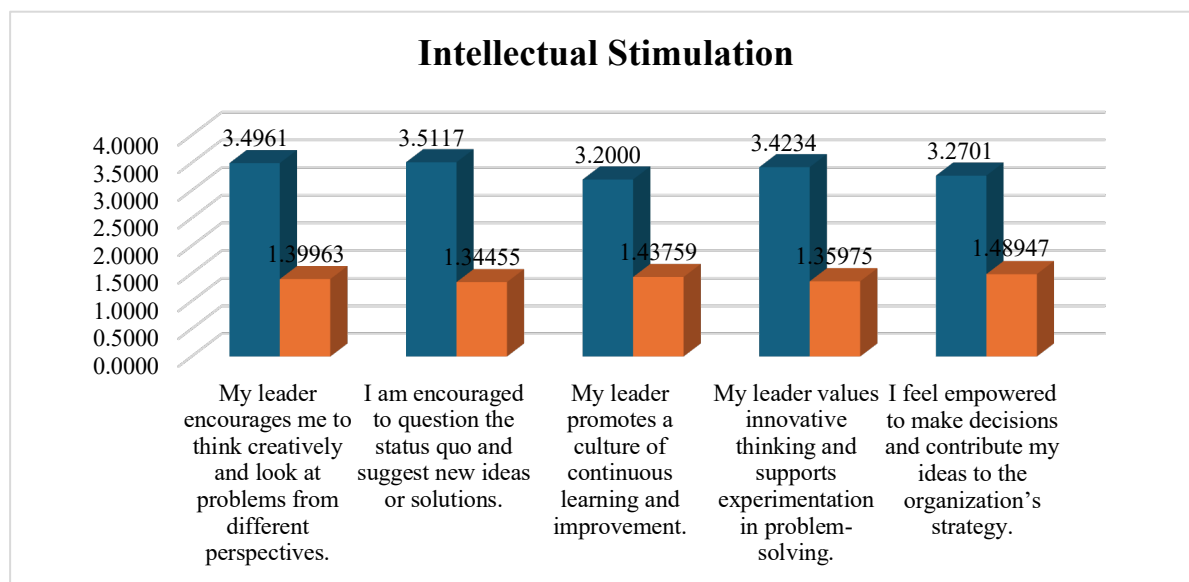
Figure 4.21: Intellectual Stimulation

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered concerning the variable "Innovative Leadership Practices". The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader encourages me to think creatively and look at problems from different perspectives" are 3.4961 and 1.3996, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I am encouraged to question the status quo and suggest new ideas or solutions" are 3.5117 and 1.3446, respectively.

148

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader promotes a culture of continuous learning and improvement" are 3.2000 and 1.4376, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "My leader values innovative thinking and supports experimentation in problem-solving" are 3.4234 and 1.3598, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "I feel empowered to make decisions and contribute my ideas to the organization's strategy" are 3.2701 and 1.4895, respectively.

c) **Individualized Consideration**

Table 4.36: Individualized Consideration

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
My leader shows genuine concern for my personal and professional development.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4883	1.40516
My leader provides individualized support to help me achieve my career goals.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5117	1.34455

I receive constructive feedback from my leader that helps me improve my performance.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2000	1.43759
My leader takes the time to understand my strengths and areas for development.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4286	1.36004
My leader provides mentoring and guidance to help me grow in my career.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2649	1.48690
Valid N (listwise)	385				
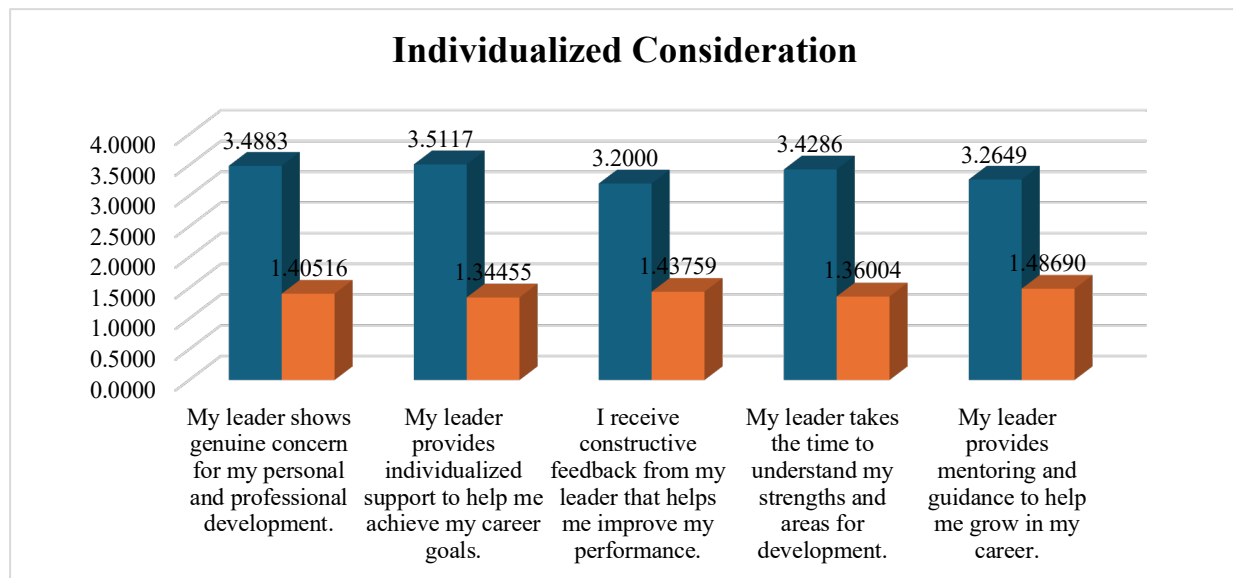
Figure 4.22: Individualized Consideration

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered in respect to the variable "Supportive Leadership Practices". The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "My leader shows genuine concern for my personal and professional development" are 3.4883 and 1.4052, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "My leader provides individualized support to help me achieve my career goals" are 3.5117 and 1.3446, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I receive constructive feedback from my leader that helps me improve my performance" are 3.2000 and 1.4376, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "My leader takes the time to understand my strengths and areas for development" are 3.4286 and 1.3600, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "My leader provides mentoring and guidance to help me grow in my career" are 3.2649 and 1.4869, respectively.

4.4.5 Employee Satisfaction

Table 4.37: Employee Satisfaction

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am satisfied with the opportunities for career growth and development in my organization.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2026	1.43087

The recognition and rewards I receive for my work are fair and motivating.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4234	1.35592
I feel valued and appreciated by my colleagues and management.	385	1.00	5.00	3.2753	1.49026
My work-life balance is adequately supported by the organization.	385	1.00	5.00	3.3948	1.42704
I am satisfied with the communication and feedback processes in my workplace.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5091	1.35422
The resources and tools provided by the organization help me perform my job effectively.	385	1.00	5.00	3.4727	1.41049
I feel a sense of job security and stability in my current role.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5429	1.36506

The organizational culture aligns with my personal values and expectations.	385	1.00	5.00	3.5221	1.42528
Valid N (listwise)	385				
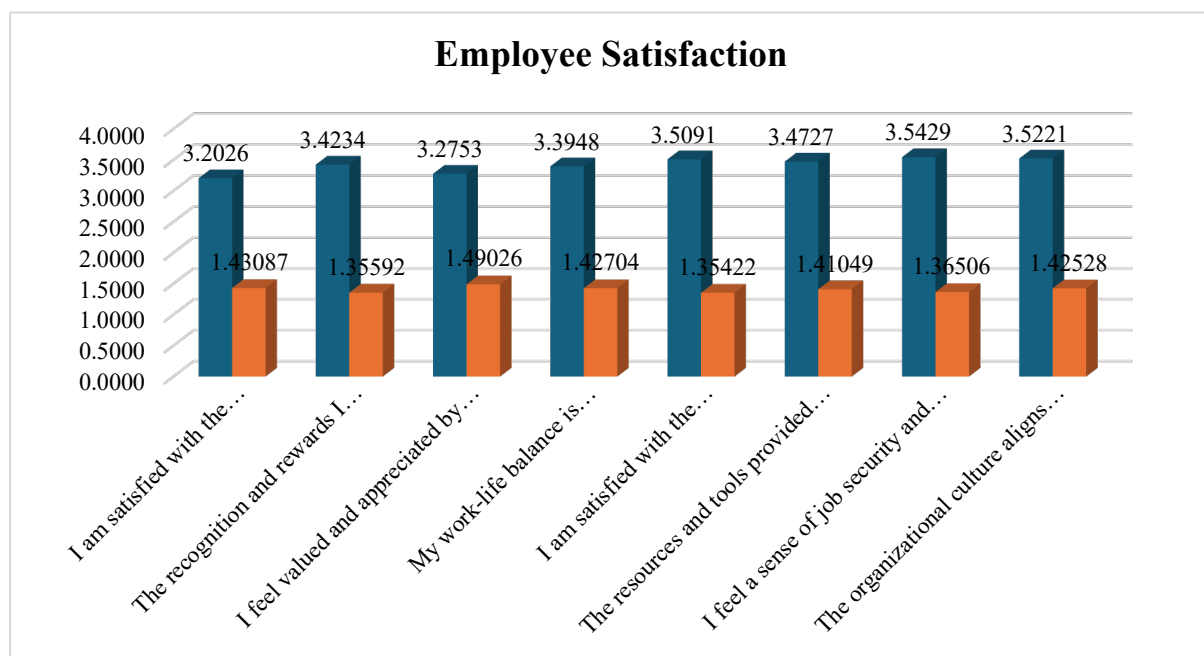
Figure 4.23: Employee Satisfaction

The responses from 385 respondents have been gathered in respect to the variable "Employee Satisfaction". The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I am satisfied with the opportunities for career growth and development in my organization" are 3.2026 and 1.4309, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation values for the statement "The recognition and rewards I receive for my work are fair and motivating" are 3.4234 and 1.3559, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I feel valued and appreciated by my colleagues and management" are 3.2753 and 1.4903, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "My work-life balance is adequately supported by the organization" are 3.3948 and 1.4270, respectively.

The mean and standard devi

9ation value for the statement "I am satisfied with the communication and feedback processes in my workplace" are 3.5091 and 1.3542, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "The resources and tools provided by the organization help me perform my job effectively" are 3.4727 and 1.4105, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "I feel a sense of job security and stability in my current role" are 3.5429 and 1.3651, respectively.

The mean and standard deviation value for the statement "The organizational culture aligns with my personal values and expectations" are 3.5221 and 1.4253, respectively.

Table 4.38 Key Regression Statistics

Hypothesis	Test Used	p-value	Label
H1: "There is a significant impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."	Regression	0.00	Supported
H2: "There is a significant influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."	Regression	0.00	Supported
H3: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior.	SEM (Direct effect)	***	Supported

H4: "There is a moderation effect of Psychological Traits between transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior."	SEM (Direct effect)	***	Supported

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Discussion of Results

The contents of this chapter present a detailed elaboration of the findings derived from Chapter Four statistical analyses of the research study "Understanding Non-Cooperative Behavior: Psychological Insights and Transformational Leadership Approaches". The primary aim of this research was to investigate the underlying factors contributing to non-cooperative behavior in organizational setups and to evaluate the role of transformational leadership in mitigating such behaviors while enhancing team performance and employee satisfaction.

Non-cooperative behavior in organizational setups can significantly reduce productivity, disrupt team dynamics, and damage the overall work environment. Understanding the factors causing such behavior is significant for developing proper management strategies. This research study focused on three key facets: psychological, demographic, and transformational leadership approaches and examined their direct and indirect effects on team performance and satisfaction within work teams in the organizational context of non-cooperation.

The subsequent discussion has been built around the three hypotheses of this study, with each hypothesis being examined concerning the statistical results, such as the correlation coefficients, R^2, ANOVA results, and the various regression analyses. The significance of the findings was interpreted in the light of existing literature, theoretical frameworks, and practical implications.

Non-cooperative behavior in organizations is a complex phenomenon influenced by multiple factors, which include individual-shared psychological characteristics, workplace dynamics, leadership styles, and wider organizational culture. Such behaviors could appear in numerous ways, by way of unclear or poor communication to active disruption of collaborative team efforts, or simple things such as lack of participation in team events like meetings: on the passive style: resistance. Knowledge of the root causes of non-cooperation in organizations is one

of the key steps for creating a favorable work environment that helps to boost team performance and productivity.

This research is intended to examine the psychological roots of non-cooperative conduct and to study the effects of transformational leadership approaches upon the reduction of these behaviors. Other factors such as stress, emotional intelligence, motivation, cognitive biases, and personality traits were considered important variables in this regard. Further, this study assessed how demographic factors and leadership styles influenced cooperation in the workplace.

We will now go through the results of the Hypothesis in detail.

5.2 Discussion of Hypothesis One

H1: "There is a significant impact of psychological factors on non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings."

Psychological factors are of utmost importance in determining the behavior of individuals within the organizational context. They include stress and anxiety, emotional intelligence, motivation levels, cognitive biases, and personality. High work stress leads to burnout, frustration, and withdrawal, which contribute to non-cooperative behavior. Similarly, individuals with low emotional intelligence may not manage their emotions nor come to terms with the interpretation of other people's emotions, thus promoting conflicts with their coworkers and reducing collaboration. Motivation plays a key role in one's value system and one's overall engagement levels or otherwise.

Low motivation, for example, from inadequate recognition, unclear goals, or repetitiveness of tasks will lead to disengagement and passive resistance. Cognitive biases further determine how other individuals perceive their coworkers and leaders leading to miscommunications and reluctance to cooperate. Other identified personality traits that promote withdrawal from team activity include high neuroticism, low agreeableness, or introversion. Oftentimes organizations ignore the traveling influence of the cumulative effects of these psychological factors, as they trigger poisons in the workplace such as poor communication, distrust, and low productivity.

Statistical analysis performed in this study shows a strong confirmation of Hypothesis 1 with a moderate to strong positive correlation between psychological factors and non-cooperative behavior in organizational settings. In looking at the correlation, we note that the "R-value" stands for 0.360. This signifies significant positive correlations- indicating that as negative psychological factors work their way up, so does the level of non-cooperation behavior. The R-squared measure indicates that the psychological factors account for a very large proportion of that variance in non-cooperative intentions, thus becoming very instrumental in assigning the dynamics of workplace behavior. Also, ANOVA provided a "p-value of 0.000," which suggests that the relationship between psychological factors and non-cooperative behaviors is statistically significant because of is five times less than the chosen threshold point of 0.05. Thus, with this evidence, the "alternative hypothesis (H1)" is confirmed to be accepted, while the "null hypothesis" is rejected, thus declaring psychological factors to be one of the significant influencing agents in organizational non-cooperative behaviors.

Such a positive correlation provides substantial evidence to uphold the prior assertion that these two-way links from employees' mental and emotional states considerably influence the extent to which employees will eventually be willing to engage in collaborative processes. High levels of anxiety, emotional exhaustion, and feelings of disengagement may leave an employee withdrawn from team discussions, actively resisting organizational changes, or displaying passive-aggressive behaviors. Findings were particularly supportive of established theories in organizational psychology such as that of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) that postulate chronic stress exposure without proper coping promotes the early development of burnout and withdrawal; Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Framework (1995) indicates that low emotional intelligence hinders teamwork and conflict resolution; and that of "Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of self-determination," which holds that unmet psychological needs lead to decreased motivation and hence to non-cooperative behaviors.

The implications of this study are actionable for organizational leaders and HR professionals. Organizations should undertake mental health support programs such as workshops for stress management and counseling services to promote psychological well-being. The investment in emotional intelligence training for interpersonal skills, conflict resolution, and team-building cohesion could greatly benefit organizations. Motivational techniques involving the

recognition of employee contribution, providing opportunities for skills development, and creating purpose in work should prove helpful in minimizing non-cooperative tendencies. Properly managing workloads, granting autonomy, and promoting work-life balance to moderate stress levels will foster considerations for improved collaborative behaviors. Leadership development programs in training managers to observe signs of psychological distress and provide compassionate and supportive styles of management are equally important. In conclusion, the study results undoubtedly demonstrate that psychological factors significantly and meaningfully impact non-cooperative behavior within organizational settings. Addressing these factors through targeted intervention can create a culture of collaboration, productivity, and mental wellness in the workplace.

According to the findings of a research by Ercan Ergun, et al., (2025) human resource professionals frequently encounter toxic or disrespectful behaviour from their colleagues, which results in high levels of psychological strain to maintain calm. This non-cooperative behaviour towards human resources can be detrimental to the efficient operation of the organisation as well as the employee support systems.

The research that was featured in Expert Systems with Applications investigated the difficulties that non-cooperative behaviours provide when it comes to the process of reaching high-quality, consensus-based solutions during group decision-making procedures. The study emphasised how important it is to detect and mitigate these behaviours in order to enhance the results of cooperation and decision-making. A case study was carried out at a retail store in Colombia to investigate the ways in which the actions of employees, which were influenced by changes in the surrounding environment, impacted the outcomes of the organisation. For the purpose of fostering collaboration and adaptation within teams, the research highlighted the need of understanding individual psychological responses to change from a psychological perspective. Theft, sabotage, aggressiveness in the job, and incivility are examples of counterproductive standards that are frequently connected to psychological elements such as the perception of unfairness, stress, and personality characteristics. Behaviours like these have the potential to dramatically undermine the cohesiveness and effectiveness of an organisation. The research conducted by Hawthorne indicated that the behaviours of workers are impacted by their knowledge of being observed. These findings emphasise the psychological impact that

observation has on collaboration and productivity. According to Jia Luo et al. (2025), this result highlights how important it is to take into consideration psychological elements while applying management tactics to create an environment that encourages collaboration.

According to Robbins and Judge (2019), non-cooperative behaviour in organisations is a well-documented problem that has the potential to be detrimental to the performance of teams, productivity, and the culture of the workplace. Personality characteristics, cognitive biases, stress, and motivation are all examples of psychological elements that play a significant influence in the formation of such behaviour. The purpose of this literature review is to investigate the leading psychological elements that contribute to non-cooperative behaviour and the consequences these factors have for the management of organisations. Characteristics of personality have a considerable impact on interactions in the job. People who are high in narcissism and Machiavellianism are more likely to engage in behaviours that are manipulative and self-serving, which ultimately results in a reduction in collaboration (O'Boyle et al., 2012). Costa and McCrae (1992) found that workers who exhibited low agreeableness and high neuroticism were less likely to collaborate with one another and were more likely to engage in conflict.

Prior research has shown that people who have an external locus of control are more prone to place blame on others for their shortcomings, which contributes to the development of a culture that emphasises being blamed rather than working together (Rotter, 1966). When it comes to organisations, cognitive biases have an impact on both decision-making and interpersonal interactions. According to Ross (1977), the basic attribution mistake is a component that contributes to misunderstandings and animosity. This error occurs when individuals ascribe the unfavourable behaviours of others to personality rather than to elements that are related to the context. As individuals seek for information that corresponds with their prior ideas, their confirmation bias can also support non-cooperative behaviours (Nickerson, 1998). This occurs because individuals ignore alternate perspectives in their search for knowledge. According to Janis (1982), the phenomenon known as groupthink, in which individuals conceal conflicting viewpoints in order to maintain peace, can result in dysfunctional decision-making and decreased collaboration when it occurs.

Stress is a crucial component that contributes to behaviour that is not cooperative. According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), employees experienced emotional weariness as a result of high

job expectations and stress connected to their work. This resulted in a decreased willingness to participate in collaborative efforts. According to research conducted by Lazarus and Folkman in 1984, persons who are enduring chronic stress typically exhibit greater irritability and defensiveness, which ultimately leads to an increase in the number of disputes that occur in the workplace. Additionally, according to Andersson and Pearson (1999), incivility in the workplace, which is a result of stress, generates a loop of negative encounters that perpetuate behaviour that is not consistent with cooperation. Cooperative behaviour among members of a team is directly influenced by perceived fairness and motivation. It has been shown that employees who perceive unfairness in the allocation of their task or incentives are less likely to cooperate with their employers (Adams, 1965). The self-determination hypothesis proposes that intrinsic drive is responsible for fostering engagement, but extrinsic incentive, if regarded as controlling, can result in disengagement and non-cooperation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to Greenberg (1987), the notion of organisational justice emphasises that when employees think that they have been treated unfairly in terms of procedures and distributions, they end up exhibiting behaviours that are retaliatory towards their coworkers and management.

In order to accurately forecast cooperative behaviour, emotional intelligence (EI) is an essential factor. According to Goleman (1995), employees who have a high interpersonal intelligence (EI) have stronger self-awareness, empathy, and interpersonal abilities, all of which enhance cooperation. Research conducted by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 found that teams with individuals who have a high level of emotional intelligence (EI) suffer fewer disputes and display greater problem-solving ability. Individuals who have a poor emotional intelligence, on the other hand, have difficulty controlling their feelings and frequently react negatively or avoidantly to stressful situations in the workplace (Jordan & Troth, 2004). Personality characteristics, cognitive biases, stress, motivation, and emotional intelligence are all examples of psychological elements that play a key part in deciding whether or not employees in an organisation would behave cooperatively or non-cooperatively. By addressing these issues through focused interventions, such as programs for stress management, leadership development, and the promotion of a culture of justice, it is possible to improve overall performance and collaboration in the workplace.

Personality characteristics, cognitive biases, stress, motivation, and emotional intelligence are all examples of psychological elements that play a key part in deciding whether or not employees

in an organisation would behave cooperatively or non-cooperatively. By addressing these issues through focused interventions, such as programs for stress management, leadership development, and the promotion of a culture of justice, it is possible to improve overall performance and collaboration in the workplace.

5.3 Discussion of Hypothesis Two

H2: "There is a significant influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance."

Demographic factors such as "age, sex, qualifications, and work experience" play a prominent role in determining how the behaviors of individuals and relationships function in the organization. Such factors go a long way in shaping how an employee perceives a role, the manner of interaction with colleagues, and their attitude toward organizational challenges. Age can influence adaptability to change, styles of communication, and conflict resolution approaches.

Specific to these very cases of younger employees, one could argue that they seem to have an upper hand in terms of creativity but fall behind when it comes to experience-gathering, thereby facing challenges in dealing with workplace stress, while older employees are more into the conventional way of getting things done and, thereby, may resist the novel ideas. Gender dynamics also affect workplace interaction, where societal norms and expectations strongly influence styles of leading, assertion, and collaboration. Educational background also shapes the way a person tackles problems, critical thinking, and professional attitudes that are ultimately put before the team one forms. Knowledge of how such demographic variables would play their roles proves beneficial for the organization while attempting to raise cohesive, high-performance teams and reduce non-cooperative behavior.

The hypothesis was proven in two segments: the influence of demographic factors on non-cooperative behavior and team performance. For non-cooperative behavior, regression analysis, shown by R-value, obtained to be 0.183, indicates that there exists a weak but statistically significant positive correlation. That shoot-up means demographic factors have some amount of influence over the non-cooperative tendencies of one while being lower than psychological factors.

162

The R² value states that these variables account for an insignificant amount of variance in non-cooperative behavior since very few variances may be due to group membership.

Lastly, it provided an ANOVA calculation that returned to a p-value of 0.005, which proves conclusive concerning the link in question. This might mean that demographic characteristics use a given amount of room to shape "non-cooperative" behaviors. More specifically, younger employees or those with limited professional experience might display different coping mechanisms when compared to older and more experienced counterparts. The latter also pretends to affect the intercommunication with them and the procedure of conflict resolution, or rather how easy they would integrate.

For team performance, an "R-value of 0.149" indicates only a weak "correlation" between demographic factors and team performance. Despite the weak correlation, the "p-value of 0.036" supports the statistical significance of this relationship. This indicates that although demographic factors don't exert the most important influence, they do however provide a meaningful contribution to team effectiveness. Diverse teams made up of people from different ages, sexes, and educational backgrounds can share different viewpoints and innovative ideas and solutions. However, if diversity is not efficiently managed, these differences can cause misunderstandings, and communication snafus, and even lead to conflict-a loss of performance for the team. This was similar to the literature covering Roberson's (2006) study whereby this concludes a twofold aspect of diverse potential in inducing innovation versus its chances of stalling friction within a group if not managed well.

The acceptance of the alternative hypothesis for non-cooperative behavior and team performance highlights the importance of demographic consideration in organizational development and human resource practices. Organizations need to understand that demographic diversity can be both a strength and a challenge. To attain the positive outcomes of diversity and prevent conflicts, enabling practices of inclusive leadership, developing cultural competence, and designing culture-based team development should be initiated. Among these are education on diversity, encouragement toward open communication, and allowing space for employees to feel that they are identified and valued, irrespective of their background. This way, organizations will

create more cohesive and resilient teams that leverage their divergent strengths to effectively deliver a high level of performance whilst reducing non-cooperative behavior.

When it comes to helpful behaviour among team members, research that was published in Information & Management investigated how demographic diversity within teams influences the behaviour of team members. According to the findings of the research, varied teams frequently have difficulties in encouraging cooperative behaviours owing to disparities in communication styles and viewpoints. This variety, however, has the potential to contribute to increased problem-solving capacities, which in turn can lead to improved team performance when such diversity is managed correctly. The influence of demographic characteristics on performance was investigated through research. The research was done on personnel working in the banking industry. A substantial association between employee performance and factors such as age, gender, and educational background was found to exist, according to the findings of the study mentioned above. The findings, which are particularly noteworthy, suggested that different demographic compositions might lead to disparities in performance outcomes. This highlights the necessity of tailoring management tactics to address non-cooperative behaviours that arise as a result of such variety. Team learning and efficacy were shown to have a moderating role in the link between team diversity and performance, according to the findings of an inquiry into the relationship. According to the findings of the study, the presence of demographic diversity on a team might potentially improve its performance if it is supported by robust team learning behaviours and collective efficacy (Lukas Wallrich, 2024).

In contrast, if these mediating elements are not present, demographic variety may result in an increase in behaviours that are not cooperative, which would have a detrimental influence on the outcomes of the team endeavour. A team that went from being underperforming to high-performing as a result of targeted team-building activities was the subject of a case study that was reported in the book "From Worst to First: A Case Study of Effective Team Building." The team had difficulties that were associated with the demographic variety of its members, which initially resulted in behaviours that were not cooperative and poor performance. The team was able to achieve greater collaboration and performance as a result of the implementation of organised team-building tactics that addressed the demographic inequalities that were present. The dynamics of teams, which are impacted by demographic characteristics, were investigated in research by Van

164

Knippenberg, D. (2024) looked at how these dynamics affect employee productivity and performance. Based on the findings of the study, it was shown that demographic factors including culture, status, and religious views might have an effect on the behaviour of a team, which could possibly result in interactions that are not cooperative if they are not controlled effectively. The research emphasised how important it is to understand and deal with these dynamics in order to improve the performance of the organisation.

According to Williams and O'Reilly (1998), demographic parameters such as age, gender, educational background, cultural variety, and job experience have a substantial influence on the dynamics of teams, the degree of collaboration among their members, and the overall success of organisations. According to Harrison et al. (2002), variety has the potential to make creativity and problem-solving more successful; yet, if it is not handled correctly, it may also result in disputes and behaviours that are not cooperative. Within the scope of this literature review, the link between demographic characteristics and non-cooperative behaviour is investigated, with a particular emphasis on important ideas and empirical research. In teams, the presence of people of different ages may bring about generational disparities in terms of work ideals, communication methods, and flexibility to change. According to research conducted by Joshi and Roh (2009), members of intergenerational teams may have difficulty cooperating with one another owing to the fact that they have different expectations and approaches to dispute resolution. According to Ng and Feldman (2010), older workers have a tendency to depend on expertise and rigid techniques, while younger workers may prioritise creativity and flexibility, which may result in misconceptions. Based on the findings of studies, gender composition has an effect on the relationships and collaboration within a team. Women are often seen to be more collaborative and team-oriented, while males may display competitive behaviours in some settings (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Additionally, women tend to be more team-oriented. According to Bear and Woolley (2011), gender diversity may help contribute to more balanced decision-making, but it can also result in biases and power dynamics that hinder the ability of a team to work together.

When it comes to communication techniques, approaches to conflict resolution, and views of authority, cultural variations have a significant role. The cultural dimensions hypothesis developed by Hofstede in 1980 stresses the fact that people who come from collectivist cultures place a higher value on social cohesion, while those who come from individualist cultures place a greater emphasis on personal accomplishment. Misalignment in cultural expectations may result in

behaviours that are not cooperative, particularly in teams that are comprised of members from many countries (Taras et al., 2010). Nevertheless, according to Stahl et al. (2010), cultural variety may boost creativity and decision-making when it is handled in an appropriate manner. Different educational levels and areas of study may have an impact on how members of a team communicate with one another. According to Simons et al. (1999), employees who come from a variety of educational backgrounds bring a variety of viewpoints to the table, but they may have difficulty aligning their approaches to problem-solving. Disengagement and decreased collaboration are two other outcomes that might result from overqualification or skill mismatches, according to Finegold et al. (2002). The Social Identity Theory developed by Tajfel and Turner in 1979 provides an explanation for the ways in which demographic considerations contribute to the dynamics of in-group and out-group roles within teams. Chatman and Flynn (2001) found that employees who shared demographic characteristics were more likely to create subgroups, which in turn led to behaviours that excluded others and decreased collaboration. Strong leadership and organisational culture may help offset the impact of these factors and promote an environment that is inclusive. Both the level of collaboration and performance of a team are substantially impacted by demographic characteristics. Despite the fact that diversity has the potential to boost creativity, it also creates difficulties in terms of communication, dispute resolution, and prejudices. It is essential to have effective diversity management, inclusive leadership, and team-building efforts in order to maximise the dynamics of the team and reduce the amount of behaviour that is inconsistent with cooperation.

5.4 Discussion of Hypothesis Three & Four

H3: "There is a significant impact of transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior.

H4: "There is a moderation effect of Psychological Traits between transformational leadership on non-cooperative behavior."

The results confirmed that transformational leadership significantly influence non-cooperative behaviour (H3). Personality traits play a significant moderating role between transformational leadership and non-cooperative behaviour. Therefore, hypothesis 4 and 5 alternative hypothesis is accepted and null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, the model considered in Figure 3 shows the definitive research model with the estimate values. It is generally agreed upon that transformational

leadership is a type of leadership that encourages levels of enthusiasm and commitment within a group or organisation, as well as the development of a shared vision. It is possible, however, that its influence on non-cooperative behaviour, such as resistance, disengagement, or conflict, might be complicated and reliant on the circumstances. Motivating others to share a vision leader who are capable of transformation generate a powerful sense of purpose, which has the potential to lessen opposition and foster collaboration.

Specialized attention to each individual when transformational leaders meet the needs of their people, they establish trust, which in turn reduces the likelihood that employees would participate in behaviors that are not cooperative. Providing stimulation to the mind helping to lessen passive resistance or disengagement can be accomplished by encouraging creative expression and open discourse. charming and influential power the likelihood of employees aligning themselves with the aims of the team and avoiding non-cooperation is increased when they appreciate their boss.

How effectively transformational leadership interacts with the expectations of workers, the culture of the business, and the nature of the change that is being done is a critical factor in determining whether or not it is successful in reducing non-cooperative conduct. Transformational leadership, in general, fosters an environment that is conducive to cooperation and engagement. Increasing the general performance of the team while simultaneously decreasing the number of incidents of non-cooperation may be accomplished by the use of a balanced approach that incorporates factors such as inspiration, empathy, and flexibility.

It is generally agreed upon that transformational leadership is a type of leadership that encourages levels of enthusiasm and commitment within a group or organisation, as well as the development of a shared vision. It is possible, however, that its influence on non-cooperative behaviour, such as resistance, disengagement, or conflict, might be complicated and reliant on the circumstances.

Attributes that help reduce behaviour that is not cooperative certain psychological characteristics amplify the beneficial benefits of transformational leadership, making individuals more responsive to such leadership and reducing the likelihood that they would participate in behaviour that is not cooperative:

- **A Capacity for Gaining Experience**

It is more probable that employees that are open-minded and adaptable would embrace the vision of a transformational leader, which will result in a reduction in resistance or resistance to change. They do not participate in passive or aggressive non-cooperation; rather, they engage in finding solutions to problems.

- **A superior level of emotional intelligence (EI)**

Employees that are emotionally intelligent are able to comprehend and control their feelings, which gives them the ability to respond more effectively to inspiring leadership. They are less prone to participate in conflict, cynicism, or opposition than other people may be.

- **Extreme attention to detail**

Employees that are self-disciplined and goal-oriented are a good fit for transformational leaders, which results in increased collaboration throughout the organisation. Rather of focussing on disruptive behaviour, they prioritise performance overall.

Leaders are required to tailor leadership approaches such as transformational leadership since the influence of transformational leadership is moderated by psychological factors. Consideration should be given to employees who have a high level of neuroticism or a demand for autonomy on an individual basis. Make sure that employees that are open-minded have access to intellectual stimulation. Emotional intelligence should be developed in teams, and self-awareness and emotional control should be encouraged, in order to reduce the number of negative reactions. Adaptability may be strengthened through the use of coaching or mentoring programs. Taking a proactive approach to resistance employees that exhibit high resistance features should be identified early on and given opportunities to participate in decision-making. Be sure to make use of feedback systems in order to prevent the perception of transformational leadership as being excessively controlling.

It is not possible to establish a direct connection between transformative leadership and non-cooperative behaviour; rather, this connection is strongly influenced by psychological characteristics. The employees who are most likely to embrace transformational leadership are

those who have high levels of openness, emotional intelligence, and conscientiousness. On the other hand, employees who have high levels of neuroticism, a strong demand for autonomy, or poor agreeableness may resist, which can lead to behaviour that is not cooperative. Leaders are required to use adaptable methods in order to maximise collaboration and minimise resistance depending on the psychological variances that exist among individuals.

According to Judge and Piccolo (2004), transformational leadership is often believed to be connected with the reduction of workplace deviance and the promotion of collaboration. According to Breevaart et al. (2014), leaders who exhibit high levels of individualised concern and inspiring motivation have a tendency to improve team cohesiveness and trust, hence reducing the likelihood of participants engaging in behaviour that is not cooperative. Research conducted by Carmeli et al. (2010) demonstrates that transformational leaders are able to establish an atmosphere of psychological safety, hence minimising the occurrence of interpersonal conflicts that might result in disengagement and a lack of collaboration. "Social Identity Theory" was developed by Tajfel and Turner in 1979. This theory proposes that when people strongly identify with their teams, they tend to align their behaviours with the norms of the group. According to Walumbwa et al. (2008), transformational leaders encourage cooperation by prohibiting non-cooperative behaviours such as concealing information or refusing to engage in team duties. These leaders also promote the collective identity and shared objectives of the organisation. Furthermore, according to Dirks and Ferrin (2002), trust is an essential component that acts as a mediator in the connection between transformative leadership and collaboration. According to Mo and Shi (2017), whenever workers have the perception that leadership techniques are fair and honest, they are less likely to participate in behaviours that are unproductive in the workplace.

According to Gumusluoglu et al. (2013), workers may engage in behaviours that are retaliatory and non-cooperative if transformational leaders fail to preserve openness or fairness in the workplace during times of conflict. certain studies suggest that transformative leadership may have certain potential downsides, despite the fact that it is often associated with beneficial results. According to Kark et al. (2003), an excessive reliance on charismatic influence may result in worker dependency on their leaders, a reduction in employee autonomy, and the development of passive resistance among workers. Furthermore, when workers view transformational leadership as being deceptive or disingenuous, they may withdraw from the organisational culture, which

may result in either passive or active behaviour that is not cooperative (Tourish, 2013). It has been suggested in the current body of research that transformational leadership may dramatically cut down on non-cooperative behaviour by establishing trust, shared identity, and psychological safety. However, its efficacy is contingent upon the authenticity of the leader, the fairness of the organisation, and the culture of the organisation. It is important for future study to investigate the role that contextual element, such as the kind of company, the membership of the team, and cultural differences, have in developing this connection.

According to Bass (1990), transformational leadership is a type of leadership that is characterised by its ability to inspire personnel via methods such as vision, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualised attention. Despite the fact that transformational leadership is often linked to favourable results such as greater employee engagement, work satisfaction, and collaboration (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), the efficacy of this style of leadership might vary depending on the psychological characteristics of the person. Personality traits, emotional intelligence, and cognitive styles are all examples of psychological factors that have the potential to modulate the link between transformational leadership and non-cooperative behaviour. Using this literature review, we investigate how these characteristics have an effect on this association. In the context of organisations, the term "non-cooperative behaviour" refers to activities that impede cooperation, diminish collaboration, or promote interpersonal conflict (Organ, 1997). According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leaders often diminish non-cooperative behaviours by emphasising the need of building a feeling of purpose and commitment among their teams. According to research conducted by Podsakoff et al. in 1996, transformational leadership has been shown to promote trust and psychological safety in the workplace, hence lowering the likelihood of incivility and disengagement in the workplace.

The findings of the study, on the other hand, indicate that the effects of transformational leadership are not consistent across all personnel. According to Eisenbeiss et al. (2008), some people may be resistant to transformational leadership owing to psychological predispositions, which may result in varying degrees of collaboration. According to research conducted by Judge et al. in 2002, employees who have high levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness are more likely to identify themselves with transformational leaders and exhibit cooperative behaviours. On the other hand, persons who seem to be lacking in these characteristics may display resistance,

scepticism, or non-cooperation (Bono & Judge, 2004). According to Antonakis et al. (2012), employees that have a high level of neuroticism may have the perception that transformational leadership is either overpowering or unrealistic, which may result in higher stress and a tendency to be uncooperative.

According to Wang et al. (2013), individuals who have an internal locus of control are more likely to have a favourable reaction to transformational leadership because they see their achievement to be linked with the advice they get from leadership. According to Ng et al. (2006), employees who have an external locus of control may experience feelings of disempowerment or disengagement, which may lead them to demonstrate resistance to transformative efforts and participate in behaviours that are not cooperative. According to Kirton (2003), the way in which workers react to transformational leadership is influenced by cognitive styles, such as the difference between inventive and adaptive thinking. According to Oreg (2006), employees who have inflexible cognitive styles may see transformational leadership as disruptive and thus engage in non-cooperative behaviour as a form of resistance. Personality qualities, notably agreeableness and conscientiousness, were shown to considerably modify the impact of transformational leadership on employee collaboration and performance, according to the findings of Bono and Judge (2004). The findings of Eisenbeiss et al. (2008) indicated that people with high levels of neuroticism displayed more non-cooperative behaviours and were less likely to react favourably to transformational leaders. According to Wang et al. (2013), workers who had an external locus of control exhibited resistance to transformational leadership attempts, which resulted in conflicts in the workplace.

According to the findings of Ng et al. (2006), individuals who had poor emotional intelligence were less inclined to align themselves with transformational leadership, which resulted in increased characteristics of disengagement and non-cooperation. It is not universally true that there is a connection between transformative leadership and non-cooperative behaviour; rather, this connection is greatly tempered by psychological characteristics. However, the efficacy of transformational leadership is contingent on the personality characteristics, emotional intelligence, cognitive styles, and locus of control of the employees. In general, transformational leadership motivates employees to work together. For the purpose of maximising collaboration and

minimising resistance within teams, leaders are required to customise their transformative approach by taking into consideration the individual distinctions that exist.

Based on these data, it seems that psychological characteristics play a significant part in predicting whether or not transformative leadership would result in increased collaboration or opposition. The efficacy of transformational leadership is contingent on the psychological characteristics of the workers, despite the fact that it typically encourages collaboration. The beneficial impacts of transformational leadership are enhanced by characteristics like as agreeableness, emotional intelligence, and cognitive flexibility. On the other hand, neuroticism, poor emotional intelligence, and an external locus of control are associated with an increased chance of non-cooperative behaviour. Organisations have a responsibility to acknowledge these individual variances and adapt their leadership techniques appropriately in order to guarantee the highest possible level of team performance.

5.5 Discussion of Hypothesis Five

H5: "Impact of Transformational Leadership on Non-Cooperative Behaviour, Team Performance, and Employee Satisfaction"

"Transformational leadership is a style of leadership" epitomized by the ability to inspire, motivate, and influence the organization's employees to transcend their personal and professional growth limits. Leaders using this style focus on a shared vision, on innovation, and on developing strong emotional ties with their team members. Some fundamentals of transformational leadership are;

Idealized influence: Leaders are role models. They set high ethical standards to earn the trust and respect of their teams.

Inspirational motivation: They elucidate a vision that inspires and motivates employees to achieve collective goals.

Intellectual stimulation: "Transformational leaders" will encourage employees to think creatively and critically and challenge them to think of new ideas and solutions that are way out of the box.

Individualized consideration: Leaders give individualized support, coaching, and mentoring to meet each employee's sensitive needs and aspirations.

Although transformational leadership is widely recognized for its remarkable effects on employee engagement, job satisfaction, and firm performance, the influence of transformational leadership on these outcomes would vary in genres such as non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction.

According to Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006), the term "team performance" describes the capacity of a group to accomplish set objectives in an effective manner while simultaneously preserving healthy interpersonal connections. According to Shin and Zhou (2007), transformational leaders are able to increase the cohesiveness of their teams by fostering a feeling of shared purpose and reciprocal responsibility. The research conducted by Wang et al. (2011) revealed that transformational leadership has a favourable correlation with the creativity and efficiency of teams working in knowledge-based businesses. According to Sosik et al. (1997), transformational leaders provoke new thinking among their workers by posing intellectual challenges to them. This ultimately results in higher-quality outputs from the team. It was established by Carmeli et al. (2010) that transformational leadership significantly improves the collective problem-solving abilities of an organisation, especially in situations that are dynamic. In their study from 2006, Bass and Riggio discovered that transformational leadership increases the responsibility of teams, which ultimately results in greater performance outcomes. According to Judge and Bono (2000), teams that are led by transformational leaders exhibit better levels of resilience and flexibility, especially in sectors that are undergoing rapid change. Research reveals that an excessive dependence on transformational leadership without clear structure might lead to inefficiencies (Pieterse et al., 2010). This is despite the fact that the majority of studies have shown that there is a favourable association between transformational leadership and the performance of teams. According to Deci and Ryan (2000), transformational leaders assist individuals in discovering their own intrinsic drive in their work, which ultimately results in increased job satisfaction. According to the findings of Judge and Piccolo (2004), transformational leadership is one of the most powerful predictors of work satisfaction across all sectors of the economy.

According to Hetland et al. (2007), employees who find themselves receiving individualised assistance and recognition from transformational leaders report greater levels of happiness in their working relationship. According to the findings of Breevaart et al. (2014), transformational leadership works to alleviate stress on the job by encouraging pleasant relationships in the workplace. According to Epitropaki and Martin (2005), transformational leaders make investments in the professional growth of their employees, which results in increased job satisfaction. According to Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), when employees see them as having possibilities for advancement under transformational leadership, they are more likely to remain engaged and dedicated to the organisation. According to Ehrhart (2004), some workers favour transactional leadership because it gives clearer job structures and incentives. This is despite the fact that transformational leadership is often associated with better levels of employee satisfaction on average.

Several empirical research have shed light on the influence that transformational leadership has on non-cooperative behaviour, the performance of teams, and the level of pleasure experienced by employees. Based on the findings of a meta-analysis that Judge and Piccolo (2004) did on 87 different research, they discovered that there is a significant beneficial connection between transformational leadership and employee engagement, work satisfaction, and team cohesiveness. The research conducted by Wang et al. (2011) indicated that transformational leadership enhances the creative output and collaborative activities of teams, especially in knowledge-intensive sectors. It was discovered by Eisenbeiss and colleagues (2008) that transformational leadership is effective in reducing conflict and non-cooperative behaviours in the workplace, particularly in multicultural teams. According to the findings of Breevaart et al. (2014), transformational leadership has the ability to reduce the levels of stress experienced by employees and to increase job satisfaction by fostering a dynamic and welcoming environment in the workplace.

There is a considerable relationship between transformational leadership and non-cooperative behaviour, as well as the performance of teams and the pleasure of employees. Transformational leaders improve the cohesiveness of their teams and the individual job satisfaction of their workers by establishing trust, motivating their workforce, and cultivating an atmosphere that encourages collaboration. It is possible, however, for these effects to be moderated by individual psychological characteristics and organisational circumstances. The use of

transformational leadership methods may lead to sustained success and improved employee well-being for organisations that have the goal of reducing behaviours that are inconsistent with cooperation and improving the performance of teams.

5.5.1. Discussion of Results (Empirical Findings)

Impact on Non-Cooperative Behavior: The regression analysis shows that of all the independent variables studied, "transformational leadership" does not have a significant impact on non-cooperative behavior within an organization. The "R-value of 0.068" means that the correlation between transformational leadership and non-cooperation behaviors is extremely weak. Therefore, the two variables have a minimal association with one another. The R^2 value shows only a small portion of the variance in non-cooperative behavior is explained by transformational leadership. The ANOVA test (refer to Table 4.17) yields a p-value of 0.183, which exceeds the 0.05 statistical significance value. This shows that this relationship is not statistically significant, therefore it can be extended and concluded that this relationship may happen by random chance.

Thus, while transformational leadership is arguably enhancing the work environment, the opportunity for other factors to affect cooperative and non-cooperative behaviors is rather more likely in the foreground. Those other factors could be psychological, individual attitudes, or organizational culture rather than exclusive leadership style effects. Hence, the alternative hypothesis (3): transformational leadership has plenty to do stuff-and-things-non-cooperative actions is rejected as far as this variable is concerned.

Effect on Team Performance: Apart from the previous two abovementioned points, it might be wise to note that the results of the present investigation show that "transformational leadership" does not significantly impact team performance: R? 0.073 is too small and suggests that transformational leadership explains a merged amount of variance in team performance. The ANOVA reflected a 0.152 for the p-value from Table 4.20, which is higher than the cutoff point at 0.05; thus, once again endorsing that the regression model is not significant.

This implies that whereas some transformational leaders may influence some antecedents of team functionality, other variables such as team composition, task complexity, availability of

resources, and organizational support matter much more than leadership style alone. Hence, the alternative hypothesis (H3) is rejected for this variable too.

Effect on Employee Satisfaction: By contrast, transformational leadership positively and significantly affects employee satisfaction. The R-value of 0.102 alludes to a substantial correlation, reflecting that transformational leadership techniques are indeed seriously related to employee satisfaction ratings. Yet again, the R^2 value expresses that transformational leadership accounts for quite a large portion of the variance of employee satisfaction in the sample.

In short, from the regression seen in Table 4.23 of the ANOVA, the p-value was derived at 0.045 before the cutoff point of 0.05 and was thus deemed statistically significant. Thus, it implies that transformational leadership-inspiring employees, offering individualized support, and providing a supportive working environment greatly advances employee satisfaction scores. Further evidence from the Coefficients Table (4.24) confirms this relationship, emphasizing transformation.

Here, contrasted components of transformational leadership in organizations could give a better overall understanding of the transformational leadership dynamics: It seems transformational leadership, in the absence of cooperative behaviors, does not produce a positively significant impact on team performance. The findings may well have considerable influence from a broader set of factors, linking individual psychological traits with team dynamics, organizational policies, and external pressures. Transformational leadership is also fundamental to employee satisfaction. When leaders inspire, support, and recognize the contributions of their followers, employees begin to feel more a part of the process and are, thus, more valued, engaged, and motivated to produce results. This finding supports earlier research that indicates that transformational leaders might create psychological safety for personal development and purposive motivation in their organizations.

Leadership Development Programs: Organizations must integrate transformational leadership development into leadership training to heighten employee satisfaction. Fighting Non-Cooperative Behaviour: Transformational leadership may not address non-cooperative behaviors. Organizations should thus look for other interventions: conflict resolution training, diversity and

inclusion initiatives, and mental health work programs. With Team Performance: Leadership is necessary, yet team performance may also derive from goal-setting procedures, resource distribution, team activities, and performance management systems.

The findings indicate that transformational leadership has markedly increased employee satisfaction, while there is little effect found on non-cooperative behavior and team performance. This gives credence to a holistic approach towards design in organizational health, whereby the practices of leadership are complemented by other strategies to ensure the promotion of collaboration, performance, and overall workplace wellness.

The discussion spotlights several key takeaways concerning the dynamics of non-cooperative behavior in organizations. Psychological factors are a great deal heavily and significantly responsible for non-cooperative behaviors.

In addition to psychological factors, demographic factors also play a role, albeit with moderate effects, influencing both non-cooperative behavior and team performance. This points to the importance of diversity management and the implementation of inclusive policies inside organizations. Leaders should adopt tailored approaches that consider demographic variables such as age, gender, cultural background, and professional experience. Such approaches enrich team dynamics and minimize conflict through better understanding. Recognition and valuing of such differences contribute to the building of a cohesive and, thus, productive workforce.

Lastly, the role of transformational leadership was examined, revealing that while it significantly enhances employee satisfaction, it does not have a notable impact on reducing non-cooperative behavior or directly improving team performance. This suggests that transformational leadership may not suffice alone concerning deeper behavioral issues that are to be solved inside teams, for which reason it must be coupled with other management practices like conflict resolution strategies, performance management systems, and structures for feedback in achieving holistic organizational effectiveness.

Implications for practice following this discussion shed significant insights into how organizations could act to improve team dynamics, reduce non-cooperation, and enhance performance. In the view of HR and leadership development, organizations should consider

investing in comprehensive leadership development programs that extend beyond the traditional notion of transformational leadership. If transformational leadership inspires and motivates the employees, it is equally important that conflict-resolution skills, emotional intelligence, and diversity management training be included to prepare leaders for more intricate interpersonal dynamics, underlying tensions, and forging an inclusive workplace for collaboration and respect among each other.

Second, programs promoting mental health and well-being are shown to be essential to the success of organizations. The close connection between psychological variables and uncooperative conduct emphasizes the need for preventative mental health measures. Organizations must put in place mental health initiatives that offer access to employee assistance programs (EAPs), stress management seminars, counseling services, and resilience-building exercises. Such programs not only aid in the reduction of stress-related problems but also foster an environment where workers feel appreciated, supported, and more involved, which lowers the probability of uncooperative behavior and improves workplace harmony.

Finally, customized team strategies are required, especially in various organizational environments. Age, gender, cultural background, and work experience are examples of demographic variables that influence behavior and team performance. As a result, managers ought to implement adaptable, flexible tactics that cater to the distinct requirements of different personnel groupings. This could entail inclusive decision-making procedures, mentorship programs, varied team-building exercises, and individualized coaching. Organizations may cultivate a workforce that is more innovative, collaborative, and productive by recognizing and utilizing the advantages that come with demographic diversity. In the end, these procedures will support the development of a vibrant workplace where each worker feels empowered to make valuable contributions.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary

The research, titled "Understanding Non-Cooperative Behavior: Psychological Insights and Transformational Leadership Approaches," discusses the many different facets of non-cooperation within the organization. This type of behavior is tactically characterized by any action that stifles teamwork, communication, or productivity, ranging from covert to overt passive resistance or deliberate information withholding to outright refusal or abstaining altogether from team activities. The understanding of this behavior among organization leaders is considered crucial as they navigate toward an interactive, productively thriving, and mentally sound work environment in contemporary, ever-evolving workplaces.

One of the parts of the study worth mentioning is the influence of psychological mechanisms on non-cooperative behavior. It is made clear in the research that employee psychology largely mediates teammates' behaviors and responses to the organization's demands. Such aspects correlate with stress, anxiety, emotional intelligence, motivation, cognitive biases, and personality traits. High levels of stress or anxiety most likely occur because of heavy workloads, unrealistic deadlines, or a poor work-life balance.

Thus, burnout comes into play, causing withdrawal from team activities, less communication, and fundamental changes in cooperative behavior. Low emotional intelligence may result in an employee's unregulated emotions not only getting in the way of perception of emotions in close others but leading to a smoother path for ongoing interpersonal conflicts that are unable to be addressed constructively. The findings from this study correspond closely to the "Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)," which emphasizes how prolonged exposure to stress without adequate coping approaches may trigger non-cooperative or other types of maladaptive behaviors.

Moreover, motivation is noted as an important psychological factor affecting behavior. Self-determination theory posits that intrinsic motivation through a sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness becomes essential for supporting proactive and collaborative behaviors. When these psychological needs are thwarted, employees may tend to disengage themselves from their colleagues and instead show passive resistance and low commitment to the team's objectives. Cognitive biases, like confirmation bias or in-group favoritism, can affect the views one takes of colleagues and leaders and lead to misunderstandings and reluctance to cooperate. Studies have reported that traits such as a high level of neuroticism or low agreeableness tendencies correspond to non-upholding behavior, owing to these individuals being prone to conflict, emotional instability, or introverted and, therefore, unwilling to participate in group interactions.

While psychological factors have a huge dent in how team behavior practices evolve, the study also investigates how demographic forms of age, gender, educational background, and work experience can shape non-cooperation or contribute to team performance. The findings tell us that, although demographic considerations might not yield some profound results, they form an intricate and significant part of the bigger picture. Younger employees or those with lesser professional experience may react differently from older and more experienced ones regarding the development of coping strategies to cope with stressful events.

For instance, younger employees might find it harder to adapt to working hierarchically. Gender dynamics also play a role, whereby men and women differ in their communication styles, conflict management approaches, and team integration processes. In addition, educational backgrounds translate into different problem-solving skills, adaptation, and openness to teamwork. These conclusions draw support from diversity management theory wherein it was hypothesized that demographic diversity catalyzes innovation through pluralistic perspectives yet cultivates conflict if not controlled well (Roberson, 2006).

Behavior and team performance were quite limited. This indicates that a leader may inspire and motivate employees on a wide scale; however, such influence is likely not enough to elicit much change in deeply entrenched behavioral patterns of non-cooperation. If one considers the fact that the correlations were weak and insignificant, this might signify that other antecedents,

most likely intrinsic or within the organizational culture, exert greater influence on non-cooperative behavior than leadership style per se.

Nonetheless, the study does offer transformational leadership very much inclined to positively affect employee satisfaction. Besides having a leader who is regarded as supportive, inspiring, and caring for the individual's particular needs, the employee will feel satisfied with the work and the team. This fits right in with the research that extols the emotional and psychological benefits of transformational leadership via belonging, purpose, and recognition in the workplace. Besides, such satisfied employees tend to be more engaged and motivated. This motivation may be toward the organizational objectives; though, employee satisfaction does not seem to have a very large effect on either team performance or non-cooperative behavior.

The empirical outcomes support these theoretical insights. The regression analyses demonstrate a strong association between psychological variables and non-cooperative behavior, along with significant p-values demonstrating the strength of these relationships. In contrast, other demographic variables were shown to have a moderately weak yet significant contribution to non-cooperative behavior and, at the very least, team performance. Quite interestingly, transformational leadership does improve employee satisfaction, whereas there is no direct effect on either team performance or non-cooperative behavior.

Collectively, such findings have clear implications and relevance for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners alike. Organizations should adopt more holistic approaches to tackle non-cooperative behavior, which cannot be done only through leadership intervention. Programs for mental health assistance, stress management workshops, and counseling services are ways to mitigate the factors causing non-cooperation psychologically. Training in emotional intelligence develops interpersonal skills in employees, thereby facilitating communication and resolving conflicts within teams. The implementation of strategies that include diversity management through inclusive leadership practices and tailored team expert development activities enables organizations to leverage the advantages of demographic diversity while minimizing the tendency toward developing conflicts. Although transformational leadership by itself may not curb non-cooperative behavior, it is undoubtedly useful in enhancing employee satisfaction, thereby indirectly encouraging a positive organizational climate.

To conclude, the study emphasizes the complexities and lurking factors of "non-cooperative behavior" in the context of organizations. The results show that while transformational leadership adds to employee satisfaction, psychological factors such as stress, motivation, and emotional intelligence are the foremost drivers for non-cooperative tendencies. Demographic factors play a role but are less substantial. These insights call for a multifaceted approach to managing organizational behavior: developing leadership competency, psychological support, and diversity management should combine to create a more collaborative, performance-oriented, and mentally healthy workplace.

6.2 Implications

The findings entail meaningful insights for organizations, leaders, human resource (HR) practitioners, and policymakers. Their practical implications encompass those to manage non-cooperative behavior, promote team effectiveness, and enhance employee satisfaction. The study reveals a multiple interplay between psychological, and demographic variables, and leadership styles and suggests that a multidimensional driver's approach is needed to promote cooperation in a productive work environment.

- **Implications for Organizational Leadership and Management**

One of the essential findings from this study recognizes that transformational leadership, on its own, is insufficient in reducing non-cooperative behavior or improving team performance. Despite being widely believed to be a powerful tool for the motivation of employees, the study's results indicate flimsy growth under the direct influence to achieve behavioral growth; it follows that leaders must embrace a more explicit manner of integrating transformational with other styles, such as transactional or situational, depending on the context. Leaders should equip themselves with adaptive leadership skills through training to respond effectively to the various dynamics of the teams, individual employee needs, and challenges based on the situation.

Further, the research magnifies the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership. Leaders with heightened emotional intelligence are better at viewing the ways and means of accessing the different psychological states of their team members. They will be able to see signs of stress or disengagement among team members and thus allow an early stage for interventions. This includes

much more than just inspirational communication and transitions to include active listening, empathy, resolution of conflict, and individualized support. Often recommended are those leadership training programs that focus heavily on educating a manager in emotional intelligence, since training managers in such a way equips them to go to the root cause of non-cooperative behavior happening.

- **Implications for Human Resource Management-**

Such findings could also have implications for HR practices like recruitment, training, and employee development. HR people must certainly keep the psychological aspects influencing non-cooperative behavior, motivation, and emotional intelligence in mind, to design employee engagement strategies. For a clear instance, organizations may lay a good emphasis on psychometric evaluation of recruits' emotional intelligence, tolerance to stress, and managerial conflict on the part of candidate selection during recruitment. Such an approach culminates in adopting people who are not very technically sound but could still have better psychological stamina along with their ability to thrive in team dynamics.

In addition, it suggests that there is a need for organizations to have holistic employee development programs beyond technical training. Organizations should introduce mental health support initiatives to help their employees cope with the workplace pressures arising from stress management workshops, mindfulness programs, and counseling services. Arrangement of regular team-building activities promoting trust, enhanced communication, and resolution of conflicts would also set a mark for a collaborative and respectful culture. The guidelines from HR should also be made in a direction to have a work-life balance, as prolonged stress and burnout facilitate non-cooperative behavior. "Flexible working arrangements, wellness programs, and employee assistance programs (EAPs)" can play a very vital role in taking care of the psychological well-being of employees.

- **Diversity and Inclusion Strategy Implications**

The study contends that "demographic factors such as age, gender, and educational background" have significant, albeit nuanced, consequences for non-cooperative behavior and team performance. This narrows an important area of concern in any diversity and inclusion initiative

in the organization. While the diversity of demographics could help diversify perspectives, promote creativity, and engender innovation, such differences must be correctly addressed. If organizational diversity is not managed well, it could lead to misunderstandings, communication problems, and conflicts among the workforces. Organizations should not just focus on attire; instead, they should work toward creating inclusive working environments where diversity is embraced, valued, and leveraged for the team's collective success.

Incorporating diversity training programs should be aware of unconscious biases, cultural sensitivity, and inclusive communication. Activities such as pairing employees from diverse backgrounds into mentorship programs would help build awareness for mutual understanding and, hence, activate the elimination of gaps created by generational, cultural, and experiential differences, which promote conflict. Certain practices of leadership focused on encouraging inclusive teams, wherein the leader actively tries to engage all team members and creates or supports psychological safety within the team, can serve to further build cohesion in the team and possibly combat non-cooperative behavior.

- **Implications for Organizational Culture and Climate**

The findings of the current study indicate the need for organizations to put a premium on organizational culture to enhance employee conduct. A culture that fosters openness, trust, psychological safety, and collaboration would go a long way in minimizing noncooperative behavior. Such an environment allows employees to express their opinions, ideas, and concerns without the fear of negative consequences. They must create conditions under which employees feel heard, valued, and respected. This includes an environment with open communication, where feedback is encouraged, and addressing conflicts constructively instead of avoiding or suppressing them.

In addition to this, the concept of psychological safety, introduced by Amy Edmondson (1999), is critical in this context. Employees engage in cooperative behavior when they believe they can express their "thoughts, ideas, and concerns" without fear of negative consequences. Encouraging open dialogue and constructive feedback, as well as rule-setting that focuses on the team, can support psychological safety. Celebrating team achievements rather than just the

achievements of individual members can help develop norms of cooperation among team members.

- **Implications for Employee Well-being and Mental Health-**

With the significant correlational pattern between psychological factors and noncooperative behavior, it has become ingrained in probably every possible heart to carve the route toward promoting employee well-being as a key organizational goal. Employee well-being is beyond physical health; it caters to mental, emotional, and social aspects of health. Wish list: capable, trained managers to administrate a well-being program that includes "stress management, work-life balance, mental health awareness, and emotional resilience."

One can prevent the escalation of mental health challenges to behavioral problems by taking proactive measures such as well-being surveys conducted at regular intervals, facilitating mental health days, offering screening for problems, counseling, and access to peer support. Furthermore, an enabling environment is essential for employees to candidly express concerns about mental health. For this to happen, managers must be educated to recognize signs of distress and respond seriously to deal with them effectively.

- **Policy Development and Implications for Organizational Governance**

Implications broader and out on policy development for governance within organizations. Policies about performance management, conflict resolution, and employee involvement ought to spring forth from the realities of psychological and demographic issues lurking beneath the surface of behavior. For example, performance appraisal systems should not merely focus on individual accomplishments but also evaluate teamwork and other collaborative and interpersonal skills.

Moreover, clear protocols should be set for dealing with non-cooperative behavior including conflict mediation, grievance processes, and so on. Involvement of leadership in accountability is critical: leaders should be made answerable for the creation of inclusive, supportive, and high-performing team environments. Governance structures tied to action, transparency, and accountability will add to the reduction of organizational stressors that contribute to the prevalence of non-cooperative behaviors among employees.

- **Implications for Future Research**

Finally, the study opens arenas of future research in organizational behavior and leadership studies. While the study endeavors great insights into the impacts of psychological, demographic variables, and transformational leadership, further research could provide further consideration into the other moderating or mediating factors. For instance, future studies could examine such factors as organizational justice and how psychological contract fulfillment or work environmental characteristics can influence non-cooperative behavior. Longitudinal studies could offer effective ways of tracking the changes raised by the larger sociolinguistic context, notably under the influence of organizational change, changes in leadership, or influences from external forces such as economic crises.

In summary, the implications of this study are very strong and provide a fundamental platform on which to build multi-faceted, multi-level strategy interventions, which would be a response towards combating non-cooperative behaviors, team performance improvement, and employee satisfaction. Organizations that weave the findings gathered from this paper into their leadership practices, HR policies, and cultural scaffolding might well create a resilient, collaborative, and high-performing work environment.

6.2.1 Theoretical Implications

The results gained from this research contribute immensely to the existing literature on organizational behavior, leadership theories, and team dynamics, providing nuanced perspectives of non-cooperative behavior correlation with demographic factors, psychological variables, and transformational leadership. One of the major theoretical implications is that it questions an ever-accepted tenet of transformational leadership effectiveness worldwide. While transformational leadership is generally lauded for its motivating effect on employees, the study shows that the leadership's ability to influence team performance and non-cooperative behavior is not as strong as has commonly been assumed. This implies the potential need for leadership development theories to expand frameworks that incorporate the contextual limits affecting effective leadership effectiveness that help launch integrated models considering situational, demographic, and psychological factors.

In addition, the study implicates psychological insights in explaining workplace behavior. Most existing organizational behavior models focus on structural and leadership-related aspects, but this research specifically highlights how stress levels, emotional intelligence, and cognitive biases about individuals shape non-cooperating tendencies. This becomes in consonance with the emerging perspectives in affirming organizational psychology, requiring the integration of mental health and well-being constructs into traditional behavior models. Furthermore, the fact that "demographic variables, such as age, gender, and educational background," come into play illustrates the applicability of social identity theory and diversity management theories in explaining team dynamics. The limited but meaningful influences of these variables fortify that any future variations in the theoretical model must treat diversity as a moderator of behavior and performance outcomes.

Another theoretical contribution concerns the expansion of the discourse surrounding team performance. Traditional theories often assume that leadership styles essentially enhance team outcomes. This research shows, however, that team performance is influenced by a web of leadership behaviors, individual psychological factors, and team diversity. This aligns with the increasing body of literature on contingency and systems theories, calling for a holistic understanding of the interplay of multiplicity of variables within the ambit of organizational systems. The findings further hold open avenues toward cross-disciplinary models drawing on insights from psychology, sociology, and studies of management to provide more comprehensive action frameworks for comprehending organizational behavior.

6.2.2 Practical Implications

The practical implications: the practical implications of this study are highly relevant for organizational leaders, HR professionals, team managers, and policymakers in search of effective strategies to counteract non-cooperative behavior and to improve teamwork performance and general employee satisfaction. The study brings out, in no uncertain terms, that the transformational leadership model useful yesterday is not a cure-all. Organizations should review their monopoly on transformational leadership techniques to manage teams. Leaders could be trained to be more flexible in their leadership approach, incorporating situational, transactional, and servant leadership styles as befits the team's particular needs. Leadership development

programs must emphasize emotional intelligence, conflict resolution, and adaptive leadership skills, giving managers tools for effective team management with a variety of variable and dynamic working environments.

The study also underscores that psychological elements are vital in affecting workplace behavior, with organizations thus needing to prioritize employee mental health and well-being as strategic goals. These could take the form of, among others, stress management programs and campaigns to raise the consciousness of mental health possibilities for professional counseling services at the workplace. Further selection surveys can assist in showing early signs of disengagement or stress, so that required intervention takes place. Finally, integrating psychological assessments within recruitment and development through potential employees in terms of growth within organizations can assist those struggling with similar problems.

The research highlights that diversity management matters. Because demographic characteristics are such a notable contributor to both non-cooperative behavior and team performance, diversity must be managed carefully in organizations to reap the benefits that are possible while minimizing latent conflicts. Such management involves training on diversity and inclusion (D&I) topics, engaging in inclusive leadership practices, and creating mentorship initiatives aimed at reducing differences among employees from various demographic backgrounds. It is equally important for organizations to create policies that promote equity and psychological safety, thus ensuring that employees are treated with care and dignity regardless of their demographic dimensions.

The findings, therefore, create a demand for HR policy to develop comprehensive schemes for improving employee engagement through means surpassing conventional performance management constructs. Above all, developing clear communication channels, feedback loops, and avenues for professional and personal development are paramount. Team-building initiatives that target improvements in collaboration, trust, and mutual respect can be quite effective at mitigating non-cooperative tendencies. Most importantly, organizations must formulate clear regulations for conflict resolution and grievance redressal to resolve issues constructively and quickly.

In conclusion, this research has practical ramifications, emphasizing the necessity for a holistic approach to organizational management. This takes place through the amalgamation of leadership development, psychological well-being, diversity management, and solid HR practices, enabling organizations to develop resilient, high-performing teams that build resistance amid constant change and complexity.

6.3 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the study findings and limitations, directions for future research on non-cooperative behavior, transformational leadership, team performance, and employee satisfaction in organizational contexts can be recommended. Such recommendations aim to fill identified gaps in current research, develop theoretical frameworks, and shed more light on the complicated, inner workings of workplace behavior.

1. Wider Perspectives on Leadership Styles: This study only concentrated on transformational leadership. The research shows that it does not have a direct bearing on "non-cooperative behavior and team performance". Other leadership styles, such as transactional, servant, authentic, and situational leadership, should be tested in future studies to determine if they would exert greater influence on these dependent variables. Comparative research analyzing which leadership styles work better in different types of organizations will help develop a more nuanced perspective of leadership in handling non-cooperative behavior.

2. Longitudinal Research Designs: This study used a "cross-sectional design"; it captured responses at a specific point in time. Future research needs to use longitudinal research designs to gather data about how psychological factors, demographic variables, and leadership styles influence non-cooperative behavior and team performance over time. Longitudinal studies help identify causal relationships and changes in employee behavior as organizations experience change, a new leader arrives, and external pressures such as economic crises or technological disruptions emerge.

3. Moving into "Mediating and Moderating Variables": The relationship between leadership, psychological factors, and non-cooperative behavior may be influenced by mediating and moderating variables, and this needs to be an area for future research. For example, organizational culture, job satisfaction, employee engagement, psychological safety, and trust could all be mediators or moderators, explaining the mechanism of driving workplace behavior, in this case, helping create an understanding hampering transformational leadership.

4. Studies Expanding Cross-Cultural and Industry Contexts: Since organizational behaviors change across cultural and industry lines, research in the future could investigate how cultural norms and values influence non-cooperative acts and leadership effectiveness via cross-cultural study tailoring. Industry-based cross-sectional studies combining industries exposed to greater stress positioned within healthcare, IT, education, or finance would give tailored insights into how those other industry dynamics affect team performance and employee satisfaction. This will enable the development of leadership models and management strategies in context.

5. Qualitative and Mixed-Methods Approaches: Although the current study involves primarily quantitative data, in the future, the incorporation of qualitative or mixed-methods approaches could yield deeper, arguably richer insight into employee experience and perceptions. Pathways through qualitative data, such as interviews, focus groups, and further analyses, can bring into plain view things like motivation, emotional reactions, or interpersonal dynamics which may not come through surveys. Interest in "mixed-methods design" allows for the triangulation of data and thus able to enhance the findings' validity and reliability.

6. Explore the Psychological Constructs: Since much behavior, whether cooperative or otherwise, has been influenced significantly by psychological factors, studies in the future should delve deeper into specific constructs, including emotional intelligence, resilience, coping styles, burnout, and cognitive dissonance. They can study how all of these interact with leadership styles and demographic variables to offer types of behavior in the workplace. It would also be interesting to look into how mental health interventions such as mindfulness programs or stress management workshops might provide real-world insights into counteracting non-cooperative tendencies.

7. Broader Demographic Considerations: While the basic demographic factors of age, sex, and educational history were considered in this study, future studies should engage more demographic variables including cultural background, socio-economic background, work experience, personality traits, and even differences across generations. The program would include an understanding of how these will act on the behavior of diverse payable workplaces, which could render the input towards HR policies of inclusion and diversity management strategies to inspire cooperation and cohesion in teams.

8. Study of Remote and Hybrid Working Models: In the backdrop of post-pandemic hybrid and remote working settings, future research should encompass a comprehensive exploration of how these alternative working arrangements impact seemingly non-cooperative behavior, teamwork performance, and leadership effectiveness. The working of virtual teams is a fertile ground for research on matters such as communication difficulties, building trust, and employee engagement. Further research can investigate the impacts of virtual leadership styles on methods to increase collaboration in a digital workspace.

9. How are technological advancements? Technological advances will continue to take shape with more widespread organizational adoption of artificial intelligence and automation along with digital collaboration tools, and thus future studies would do well to explore the impact of technology-induced changes on workplace behavior. Research could also examine how technostress, digital fatigue, and the digital divide contribute to non-cooperative tendencies and how leaders can adapt their management styles to reinforce employees working within such technology-laden environments.

10. Research would also do well to evaluate the structural interventions that organizations should adopt to reduce non-cooperative behavior and enhance team performance. Such include conflict-resolving programs, team-building activities, leadership training, and diversity and inclusion programming. Studies on observed outcomes are another means through which researchers can give evidence-based recommendations to human resource practitioners and organizational leadership for creating healthier and more productive work environments.

To conclude, future research should adopt a multi-dimensional, interdisciplinary approach, combining leadership theories, psychological framework(s), diversity management, and technological considerations.

6.4 Conclusion

The research was on the interplay between demographic factors, psychological variables, and transformational leadership in influencing non-cooperative behavior, team performance, and employee satisfaction. The findings show that demographic factors play an important role in shaping the performance of the non-cooperative behavior and the team. Even though "transformational leadership" does not have a very big effect on these two variables, it does have a very positive effect on employee satisfaction. This research highlights the complex dynamics in workplace behavior and calls for inclusive leadership and diversity management coupled with constructive organizational strategies directed toward promoting team cohesion and employee well-being.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

Your assistance in completing this survey would be greatly appreciated as your views can help me to complete my research work more appropriately. If you have any suggestions, please feel free to mail on ………………………………………………….

Please express the degree to which you feel the following emotions using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1-5, where 1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A), and 5=Strongly Agree (SA).

Your participation in this study will be highly appreciated, and the information you provide will be used for academic purposes only.

- Demographics

1. Gender:

   a) Male

   b) Female

2. Age:

   a) 18-25 years

   b) 26-35 years

   c) 36-45 years

   d) More than 45 years

3. Educational Qualification:

   a) High School Diploma

   b) Bachelor's Degree

   c) Master's Degree

   d) Others

4. Marital Status

   a) Single

   b) Married

   c) Divorced

   d) Widowed

5. How many years of professional work experience do you have?

   a) Less than 1 year

   b) 1-3 years

   c) 4-6 years

   d) 7-10 years

   e) More than 10 years

6. Do you currently hold a leadership or managerial position?

   a) Yes

   b) No

7. How would you describe the work environment in your organization?

   a) Highly collaborative

   b) Moderately collaborative

   c) Competitive

   d) Independent

- Psychological Factors

Please give a response regarding Psychological Factors

S.no	Psychological Factors	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Stress					
1.	I often feel overwhelmed by my workload in the organization.					
2.	The pressure to meet deadlines negatively affects my work performance.					
3.	I feel stressed due to unclear roles and responsibilities at work.					
4.	Stress in my job environment influences my ability to cooperate with my team members.					

5.	My organization provides adequate resources to manage work-related stress.					
Motivation						
6.	I feel motivated to contribute to achieving organizational goals.					
7.	My job provides opportunities for professional growth and self-improvement.					
8.	Recognition and rewards in the organization enhance my motivation.					
9.	A positive work environment increases my drive to perform well.					
10.	I am motivated to engage in team activities and collaborative efforts.					
Emotional Intelligence						
11.	I can effectively manage my emotions in stressful work situations.					

12.	I can empathize with my team members when they face challenges.					
133	I am confident in resolving conflicts in a way that benefits everyone involved.					
14.	My ability to understand others' perspectives improves team collaboration.					
15.	Emotional self-control helps me maintain professionalism in the workplace.					
Personality Traits						
16.	I am open to feedback and new ideas in the workplace.					
17.	My conscientiousness helps me stay organized and meet deadlines.					
18.	I am comfortable taking initiative in challenging work situations.					
19.	My extraversion helps me build positive relationships with team members.					

		SD	D	N	A	SA
20.	I maintain a positive attitude, even during challenging times at work.					

- Non-Cooperative Behaviour

Please give a response regarding Non-Cooperative Behavior

S.no	Non-Cooperative Behavior	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I often find it challenging to collaborate effectively with my team members.					
2.	I prefer to work independently rather than participating in team activities.					
3.	I avoid sharing knowledge or resources with my colleagues.					
4.	I feel reluctant to support team decisions that do not align with my preferences.					
5.	Conflicts in the workplace often hinder my willingness to cooperate with others.					
6.	I rarely contribute to group discussions or problem-solving initiatives.					

7.	I tend to resist changes suggested by team members or management.				
8.	Differences in opinions with my team members often lead to non-cooperative behavior.				
9.	I feel neglected and unable to cooperate because my manager supports my teammate who is very selfish.				
10.	I feel frustrated due to the biases shown by my manager and so unable to cooperate and contribute towards team deliverables.				
11.	I feel neglected and unimportant by my teammates so unable to collaborate towards team deliverables.				
12.	I have a problem with down the line employees resorting to corrupt practices which are not addressed properly by my manager so my engagement in the teamwork and deliverables is passive.				

- Team Performance

Please give a response regarding Team Performance

S.no	Team Performance	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	Our team consistently meets deadlines and achieves project goals effectively.					
2.	Team members collaborate efficiently to resolve challenges and conflicts.					
3.	The quality of work delivered by our team meets organizational standards.					
4.	Our team maintains clear and open communication during projects.					
5.	The team effectively utilizes available resources to achieve desired outcomes.					
6.	Team members are highly committed to achieving shared objectives.					
7.	Our team demonstrates adaptability when faced with unexpected changes.					
8.	Our team successfully balances individual contributions with collective efforts.					

- Transformational leadership

Please give a response regarding Transformational leadership

S.no	Transformational leadership	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Inspirational Motivation					
1.	My leader inspires me to achieve challenging goals and objectives.					
2.	The leader communicates a clear vision that motivates me to work harder.					
3.	I feel motivated to contribute my best efforts toward the organization's mission.					
4.	My leader fosters a sense of enthusiasm and commitment within the team.					
5.	My leader encourages a shared sense of purpose and direction within the team.					
	Intellectual Stimulation					
6.	My leader encourages me to think creatively and look at problems from different perspectives.					

7.	I am encouraged to question the status quo and suggest new ideas or solutions.					
8.	My leader promotes a culture of continuous learning and improvement.					
9.	My leader values innovative thinking and supports experimentation in problem-solving.					
10.	I feel empowered to make decisions and contribute my ideas to the organization's strategy.					
	Individualized Consideration					
11.	My leader shows genuine concern for my personal and professional development.					
12.	My leader provides individualized support to help me achieve my career goals.					
13.	I receive constructive feedback from my leader that helps me improve my performance.					
14.	My leader takes the time to understand my strengths and areas for development.					

15.	My leader provides mentoring and guidance to help me grow in my career.					

- Employee Satisfaction

Please give a response regarding Employee Satisfaction

S.no	Employee Satisfaction	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I am satisfied with the opportunities for career growth and development in my organization.					
2.	The recognition and rewards I receive for my work are fair and motivating.					
3.	I feel valued and appreciated by my colleagues and management.					
4.	My work-life balance is adequately supported by the organization.					
5.	I am satisfied with the communication and feedback processes in my workplace.					
6.	The resources and tools provided by the organization help me perform my job effectively.					

7.	I feel a sense of job security and stability in my current role.					
8.	The organizational culture aligns with my personal values and expectations.					

I sincerely appreciate your time and cooperation.

Please check to make sure that all the questions are answered.

Thank you so much for your contribution.

REFERENCES

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 267-299.

Afshinpour, Saeid (2014). Leadership Styles and Employee Satisfaction, International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences Online: 2014-05-04 ISSN: 2300-2697, Vol. 27, pp 156-169.

Ahmad, A. S. S. (2012) 'Perceived transformational leadership style and organizational citizenship behavior: a case study of the administrative staff of University of the Punjab', *European Journal of Business and Management*, *4*(21), pp.150-158.

Ajzen, I. (2020) 'The theory of planned behavior: Frequently asked questions', Human behavior and emerging technologies, 2(4), pp.314-324.

Alaa Zalata, Clare Roberts. (2016) 'Internal corporate governance and classification shifting practices: An analysis of UK corporate behavior', *Journal of Accounting, Auditing & Finance*, 31 (1), 51-78.

Albert, Bandura. (2006), 'Toward a psychology of human agency', Perspectives on psychological science 1 (2), 164- 180.

Alihan Kabalak, Elena Smirnova, Jürgen Jost. (2015) 'Non-cooperative game theory in biology and cooperative reasoning in humans', Theory in Biosciences 134, 17-46.

Alperen, Öztürk., M, Abdülkadir Varoğlu., Demet, Varoglu. (2017) 'A critical review of implicit leadership theory on the validity of organizational actor-national culture fitness', *International Journal of Organizational Leadership* 6, 456-469.

Alvesson, M. (2001). Organisationskultur och ledning [Organizational culture and management). Malmö: Liber AB.

Alvesson, M., & Sveningsson, S. (2003). The Great Disappearing Act: Difficulties in doing "leadership." *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 359-381.

Alvi, M. H. (2016). A manual for selecting sampling techniques in research. Pakistan: University of Karachi, Iqra University.

Amold, K. A., Turner, N., Barling, J., Kelloway. E., & McKee, M. C. (2007). Transformational leadership and psychological well-being: The mediating role of meaningful work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 193-203.

Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(3), 452-471.

Antonakis, J., House, R. J., & Simonton, D. K. (2012). The full-range leadership theory: The way forward. The Oxford Handbook of Leadership, 23(1), 1-27.

Asiamah, N., Mensah, H. K., & Oteng-Abayie, E. F. (2017). General, Target, and Accessible Population: Demystifying the Concepts for Effective Sampling. The Qualitative Report, 22(6), 1607-1622. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2017.2674

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Mind Garden, Inc.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 18(3), 19-31.

B.M. BASS, R.E. RIGGIO. Transformational leadership (Second ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. (2006).

Baharom, D. M. N., Sharfuddin, D. M. D. K. B., & Iqbal, J. (2017) 'Impact of transformational leadership on deviant workplace behavior in Pakistani public organizations', *American Based Research Journal*, 6(8).

Ballantyne, P.F. 1996. Dewey's muffled call for a larger unit of psychological analysis. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association meeting, Toronto, Canada.

Barbuto, J.E. (Jnr) (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: a test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 11(4), 26-40.

Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21(3), 157-161.

Bass B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations (1" ed.). Free Press.

Bass B. M. And Avolio B.J. (1994), Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *The International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 17, No. 3-1 pp. 541-554.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 18(3), 19-31.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994), Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997) Full range leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Mindgarden, Palo Alto, Calif.

Bass, B.M. (1990b). From transactional to transformational leadership: learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 13, pp. 26-40.

Bear, J. B., & Woolley, A. W. (2011). The role of gender in team collaboration and performance. *Small Group Research, 42*(6), 695-720.

Begley. T., & Czajka, J. (1993). Panel analysis of the moderating effects of commitment on job satisfaction, intent to quit, and health following organizational change. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 552- 556.

Belschak, F. D., Den Hartog, D. N., & Kalshoven, K. (2015) 'Leading Machiavellians: How to translate Machiavellians' selfishness into pro-organizational behavior. *Journal of Management*, *41*(7), pp.1934-1956.

Birmingham, P., & Wilkinson, D. (2003). Using research instruments: A guide for researchers. Routledge.

Blau, P. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. New York: Wiley.

Bloomfield, J., & Fisher, M. J. (2019). Quantitative research design. *Journal of the Australasian Rehabilitation Nurses Association*, *22*(2), 27-30.

Bo, Liu., Taishan, Yang., & Wei, Xie. (2022) 'Emotional regulation self-efficacy influences moral decision making: a non-cooperative Game study of the new generation of employees, *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 19 (23), 16360.

Bolkan, S., & Goodboy, A. K. (2010). Transformational leadership in the classroom: The development and validation of the Student Intellectual Stimulation Scale. Communication Reports, 23,91-105.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 901-910.

Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & van den Heuvel, M. (2014). Leader-member exchange, work engagement, and job performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 29*(3), 306-321.

Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., Demerouti, E., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2014). Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(1), 138-157.

Browne, M.W. and Cudeck, R. (1993), "Alternative ways of assessing model fit", in Bollen, K.A. and Long, J.S. (Eds), Testing Structural Equation Models, Beverly Hills, CA, pp. 136-162.

Bruno. Leo. (2013), Longitudinal Assessment of the Impact of Leadership on Organizational-Leader Slovenia 2013.

Bums, C., & West, M. A. (2003). Individual, climate, and group interaction processes as predictors of work team innovation. Small Group Research, 26, 106-117.

Byrne, B.M. (2008), Structural Equation Modeling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming, Psychology Press, Hove, East Sussex.

Carmeli, A., Brueller, D., & Dutton, J. E. (2010). Learning behaviors in the workplace: The role of high-quality interpersonal relationships and psychological safety. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science, 27*(3), 81-98.

Carsten, C Schermuly., Bertolt, Meyer. (2020), 'Transformational leadership, psychological empowerment, and flow at work.', *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 29 (5), 740-752.

Charbonneau, D., Barling. J., & Kelloway, E. (2001). Transformational leadership and sports performance: The mediating role of intrinsic motivation. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 31, 1521-1534

Chatman, J. A., & Flynn, F. J. (2001). The influence of demographic heterogeneity on the emergence and consequences of cooperative norms in work teams. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*(5), 956-974.

Chen, A.; Treviño, L.K. Humphrey, S.E. Ethical. (2020), 'Champions, emotions, framing, and team ethical decision making.' J. Appl. Psychol, 105, 245-273.

Chen, G., Casper, W. J., & Cortina, M. (2001) The roles of self-efficacy and task complexity in the relationships among cognitive ability, conscientiousness, and work-related Performance: A meta-analytic examination. Human Performance, 14, 209-230.

Chowdhury, G. R.(2014). A Study on The Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation and Commitment, doctoral dissertation, Padmashree Dr. D.Y. Patil University.

Chua J., Ayoko O. B. (2019). Employees' self-determined motivation, transformational leadership, and work engagement. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 1-21.

Cikara, M., & Paluck, E.L. (2013) 'When Going Along Gets You Nowhere and the Upside of Conflict Behaviors', *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 7*, pp.559-571.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R). Psychological Assessment Resources.

Culbertson S. S., Fullagar C. J., Mills M. J. (2010). Feeling good and doing great: the relationship between psychological capital and wellbeing. J. Occup. Health Psychol. 15 421-433.

Dai, Y.-D., Altinay, L., Zhuang, W.-L., & Chen, K.-T. (2021). Work engagement and job burnout? Roles of regulatory foci, supervisors' organizational embodiment, and psychological ownership. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 46, 114-122.

Dawkins, S., Tian, A. W., Newman, A., & Martin, A. (2017). Psychological ownership: a review and Research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 38(2), 163-183.

DeAngelo, G., Lang, H., & McCannon, B. (2016). Do Psychological Traits Explain Differences in Free Riding? (No. 16-08).

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. Springer.

Dewey, J. 1905. The postulate of immediate empiricism. *Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods* 2, no. 15: 393-399.

Dewey, J.1896. Reflexes are a concept in psychology. *Psychological Review* 3: 357-370

Diego, Montano., Joyce, Elena Schleu., Joachim, Hüffmeier. (2023), 'A meta-analysis of the relative contribution of leadership styles to followers' mental health.', *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* 30 (1), 90-107.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 611-628.

Dobbins, G. H., & Platz, S. J. (1986). Sex differences in leadership: How real are they? *Academy of Management Review*, 1, 118-127.

Dobell, A., (1989). The public administrator: God? Or entrepreneur? Or are they the same in the public service? *American Review of Public Administration* 19(1): 1-10.

Dyer, J. R. G., Johansson, A., Helbing, D., Couzin, 1. D., and Krause, J. (2009). Leadership. Consensus decision-making, and collective behavior in humans. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. 364,781-789

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review, 109*(3), 573-598.

E.L. DECI, R.M. RYAN, Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological wellbeing across life's domain. Canadian Psychology, Vol. 49, No. 1, 14-23(2008).

Eisenbeiss, S. A., van Knippenberg, D., & Boerner, S. (2008). Transformational leadership and team innovation: Integrating team climate principles. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1438-1446.

Ekvall, G., & Arvonen, K. (1991). Change-centered leadership: An extension of the two-dimensional Model. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 7*, 17-26

EL. DECI, A.H. OLAFSEN, R.M. RYAN, Self-determination theory in work organizations: The state of science. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 19- 43. (2017)

Ellis, T. J., & Levy, Y. (2008). Framework of problem-based research: A guide for novice researchers on the development of a research-worthy problem. *Informing Science*, *11*, 17.

Erez, A., Misangyi, V. F., Johnson, D. E., LePine, M. A., & Halverson, K. C. (2008). Stirring the hearts of followers: Charismatic leadership as the transferal of effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 602-616

Faria, J. J., Krause, S., and Krause, J. (2010), Collective behavior in road crossing pedestrians; the role of social information. Behav. Ecol. 21. 1236-1242.

Fehr, E., and Fischbacher, U. (2004), Social norms and human cooperation. Trends Cogn. Sci. 8, 185-190

Feidler, F., & House, R. (Eds.). (1994), Leadership theory and research: A report of progress

Finegold, D., Mohrman, S. A., & Spreitzer, G. M. (2002). Age effects on the predictors of technical workers' commitment and willingness to turn over. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(5), 655-674.

Flick, U. (2015). *Introducing research methodology: A beginner's guide to doing a research project*. Sage.

Gallupe, R. R., Dennis, A. R., Cooper, W. H., Valacich, J. S., Bastianutti, I. M., and Nunamaker, J. F. (1992). *Electronic brain Acad*. 35,350-369.

Gawel, J. E. (2019) 'Herzberg's theory of motivation and Maslow's hierarchy of needs', *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*, 5(1), p.11.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence. Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6), 93-102.

GRANT, A. Does intrinsic motivation fuel the prosocial fire? Motivational synergy in predicting persistence, performance, and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 48-58. (2008)

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(1), 9-22.

Greenleaf, R. (1996). On becoming a servant-leader. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Greenleaf, R.K. (1977) Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power & greamess. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.

Gumusluoglu, L., Karakitapoglu-Aygun, Z., & Scandura, T. A. (2013). Transformational leadership and organizational innovation: The roles of internal and external support for innovation. *Journal of Product Innovation Management, 30*(4), 777-794.

Hafer, C. L. & Rubel, A. N. (2015). The why and how of defending belief in a just world. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 51, pp. 41-96. Elsevier.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. and Anderson, R.E. (2010), *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 7th ed., Pearson, New York.

Hanappi, H. (2013) 'The neumann-morgenstern project—Game theory as a formal language for the social sciences', *Game theory relaunched*, pp.3-26.

Harrison, D. A., Price, K. H., & Bell, M. P. (2002). Beyond relational demography: Time and the effects of surface- and deep-level diversity on work group cohesion. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(5), 1026-1035.

Hengjie, Zhang., Iván, Palomares., & Yucheng, Dong., Weiwei, Wang. (2018) 'Managing non-cooperative behaviors in consensus-based multiple attribute group decision making: An approach based on social network analysis', Knowledge-Based Systems 162, 29-45.

Hincline, P.N. 1992. A self-interpretive behavior analysis. American Psychologist 47, no. 11: 1274- 1286

Hobfoll, S. E., Johnson, R. J., Ennis, N. E., & Jackson, A. P. (2003). Resource loss, resource gain, and emotional outcomes among inner-city women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84,632-643

Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. Sage Publications.

House R. J., Shamir B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. In Chemers M. M., Ayman R. (Eds.), Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions (pp. 167-188).

House, R. J & Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds), Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and direction, (pp. 81-107). San Diego, *CA: Academic Press*.

House, R., & Aditya, R. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management,* 23, 409-474

Howladar, M.H., Rahman, S.M., & Jewel, M. (2018) 'Deviant Workplace Behavior and Job Performance: The Moderating Effect of Transformational Leadership', *ERN: Personnel Policies (Topic)*.

Ikram, A., Su, Q., Fiaz, M., and Saqib., A.(2017), Leadership styles and employees "motivation: a perspective from an emerging economy. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, volume 51 no.4 (2017).

Jeung, H., Schwieren, C., & Herpertz, S. C. (2016) 'Rationality and self-interest as economic-exchange strategy in borderline personality disorder: Game theory, social preferences, and interpersonal behavior', *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, *71*, pp. 849-864.

Janis, I. L. (1982). Groupthink: Psychological studies of policy decisions and fiascoes. Houghton Mifflin.

Jiang, M. (2023). Non-Cooperative Behavior Management in Large-Scale Group Decision-Making Considering the Altruistic Behaviors of Experts and Its Application in Emergency Alternative Selection. *CMES-Computer Modeling in Engineering & Sciences*, *136*(1), 487-515.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2004). Managing emotions during team problem-solving. *Human Performance*, 17(2), 195-218.

Jose, BN Moreira., Martin, Wohlwend., Ulrik, Wisløff . (2020), ' Exercise and cardiac health: physiological and molecular insights.' Nature Metabolism 2 (9), 829-839.

Joshi, A., & Roh, H. (2009). The role of context in work team diversity research: A meta-analytic review. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(3), 599-627.

Judge, T. A., and Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. J. Appl. Psychol. 85, 751-765

Judge, T. A., Parker, S., Colbert, A. E., Heller, D., Ilies, R., (2001), Job satisfaction: A cross-cultural review. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial, Work and Organizational Psychology (pp. 25-52).

Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(5), 755-768.

K.H. MHATRE, RE. RIGGIO, Handbooks, O. Charismatic and transformational leadership: Past, present, and future. In The Oxford Handbook of Leadership and Organizations, Oxford University Press: Oxford, UK, pp. 221-224. (2014).

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 692-724.

Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The two faces of transformational leadership are empowerment and dependency. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 246-255

Kark, R., Van Dijk, D., & Vashdi, D. R. (2018). Motivated or demotivated to be creative: the role of self-regulatory focus in transformational and transactional leadership processes. Applied Psychology, 67(1), 186-224.

Kelley, T.M. 1993. Neo-cognitive learning theory: Implications for prevention and early intervention strategies with at-risk youth. Adolescence 20, no. 110: 439-461.

Kim, M. & Beehr, T. A. (2017) Self-efficacy and psychological ownership mediate the effects of empowering leadership on both good and bad employee behaviors. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 24(4), 466-478.

King, A. J., and Cowlishaw, G. (2009). All together now: behavioral synchrony in baboons. Anim. Behav. 78, 1381-1387

Kirkpatrick S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81. 36- 51

Kraft-Todd, G.T., Yoeli, E., Bhanot, S.P., & Rand, D.G. (2015) 'Promoting cooperation in the field', *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences, 3*, pp.96-101.

Laughlin, P. R., Hatch, E. C., Silver, J. S., and Boh, L. (2006). Groups perform better than the best individuals on letters-to-numbers problems: effects of group Size. J. Pers. Soc. Psychol. 90, 644- 651.

Lawler, J. (2007). Leadership in social work: A case of caveat emptor? *British Journal of Social Work*, 37, 123-41.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer.

Lazarus R. S., Folkman S. (1986). Cognitive Theories of Stress and the Issue of Circularity Dynamics of Stress. Berlin: Springer, 63-80.

Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), p. 112.

Lerner, M. J. & Miller, D. T. (1978). Just world research and the attribution process: Looking back and ahead. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85(5), 1030.

Liaw, Y. J., Chi N. W., Chuang A. (2010). 'Examining the mechanisms linking transformational leadership, employee customer orientation, and service performance: The mediating roles of perceived supervisor and coworker support, *Journal of Business Psychology*, 25(3), 477- 492.

Lim, B. C., & Ployhart, R. E. (2004). Transformational leadership: Relations to the five-factor model and team performance in typical and maximum contexts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89,610-621.

Lin, C. A., & Rauschnabel, P. A. (2016). Social media marketing: Psychological insights, managerial implications, and future research directions. In *Encyclopedia of e-commerce development, implementation, and management* (pp. 2144-2158). IGI Global.

Lombardi, M., Warren, W. H., and di Bernardo, M. (2020). Nonverbal leadership emergence in walking groups. Sci. Rep. 10, 18948-18910

M. GAGNE, EL. DECI& R.M. RYAN (2017). Self-determination theory applied to work [Motivation and organizational behavior. In D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, C. Viswesvaran, & Anderson, N. Handbook of Industrial, Work & Organizational Psychology Volume 2: Organizational Psychology.

M.GAGNE & EL DECL. Self-determination theory and work motivation, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362 (2005).

Macey, W. H., Schneider, B., Barbera, K. M., & Young, S. A. (2009). Employee engagement: Tools for analysis, practice, and competitive advantage. Malden, WA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Malik, S. Z. Saleem, M., and Naeem. R (2016). Effect of leadership styles on organizational citizenship behavior in employees of telecom sector in Pakistan. Pakistan Economic and Social Review Volume 54, No. 2, pp. 385-406.

Manz, C. C. & Sims, H. P. Jr. (1981). Vicarious learning: The influence of modeling on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 6, 105-113

Martínez-Mesa, J., González-Chica, D. A., Duquia, R. P., Bonamigo, R. R., & Bastos, J. L. (2016). Sampling: How do I select participants for my research study? Anais brasileiros de dermatologia, 91(3), 326–330.

Masi, R. J., & Cooke, R. A. (2000), Effects of transformational leadership on subordinate motivation, empowering norms, and organizational productivity. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 8, 16-47

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 2(2), 99-113.

Maslow, A. H. (1954). Moτívation and personality. New York: *Harper and Row*.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety availability, and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 11-37

McGregor, D. M. (2003). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mingjun, Jiang., (2023) 'Non-Cooperative Behavior Management in Large-Scale Group Decision-Making Considering the Altruistic Behaviors of Experts and Its Application in Emergency Alternative Selection, CMES-Computer Modeling in Engineering & Sciences 136 (1), 487-515.

Minyoung, Choi., Jae-Suk, Yang . (2024), 'Exploring the Complexities of Negotiation: Strategies for Successful Intra-and Inter-Team Negotiation in Organizations,' *Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation* 27 (3), pp. 247- 267.

Mo, S., & Shi, J. (2017). Linking ethical leadership to employees' organizational citizenship behavior: Testing the multilevel mediation role of organizational concern. *Journal of Business Ethics, 141*(1), 151-162.

Morrissey, H. (2016 'The Challenge of Managing Diverse Teams', Challenge, 2016, pp. 03-29.

Mortier A. V., Vlerick P., Clays E. (2016). Authentic leadership and thriving among nurses: The mediating role of empathy. J. Nurs. Manag. 3 357-365. 10.1111/jonm.12329

Mukherjee, A., & Malhotra, N. (2006). Does role clarity explain employee-perceived service quality? *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17, 444-73.

Mussi, F.B., Catapan, A., & Tortato, U. (2023) 'Why Do not People Cooperate? Exploring the Lack of Cooperation Through the Use of Experiments,' *Revista de Gestão Social e Ambiental*.

Nayak, J. K., & Singh, P. (2021). *Fundamentals of research methodology problems and prospects*. SSDN Publishers & Distributors.

Neetha, Veerappa Karadakal., Nagalingappa, Goud., & Princy, Thomas. (2015), Impact of leadership role perspective on conflict resolution styles-a study on small and medium-sized entrepreneurs of Karnataka State in India, *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research* 5, 1-20.

Nerdinger, F.W. (2014). Personnel Management, in: Nerdinger, F.W., Blickle, G. & Schaper, N. (ed.) (in German). Occupational and Organisational Psychology. 3rd edition, Berlin, Springer, pp. 83-102.

Neville, H McClenaghan. (2007), 'Physiological regulation of the pancreatic ß-cell: functional insights for understanding and therapy of diabetes.' Experimental Physiology 92 (3), 481-496.

Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2006). The impact of perceived fairness on organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 205-215.

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 63*(3), 677-718.

Nickerson, R. S. (1998). Confirmation bias: A ubiquitous phenomenon in many guises. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(2), 175-220.

Obiwurn, T. C., Okwn, A. T., Akpa, V. O., Nwankwere. 1. A. (2011). Effects of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance, *Australian Journal of Business and Management* Research Vol.1 No.7 [100-111]| October 2011.

O'Boyle, E. H., Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2012). A meta-analysis of the dark triad and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 557-579.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 15(1), 73-101.

Palomares, L. Martinez, F. Herrera Cheir A consensus model to detect and Cepta manage non-cooperative behaviors in K-Co large-scale group decision making IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems, 22 (3) 1, (2014), pp. 516-530.

Phillips, P. P., & Stawarski, C. A. (2008). *Data collection: Planning for and collecting all types of data*. John Wiley & Sons.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107-142.

R. M. Ojokuku., T. A. Odetayo, & A, S. Sajuyighe. (2012) Impact of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance, *American Journal of Business and Management* Vol. 1, No. 4, 2012.

Reber, A.S., and E. Reber 2001. The Penguin dictionary of psychology, London: Penguin.

Robbins, S.P., & Judge, T.A. (2013). Organizational Behavior (15th ed.). New Jersey: *Prentice Hall*.

Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2019). Organizational behavior (18th ed.). Pearson.

Robert, G Eccles., loannis, loannou., & George, Serafeim. (2012) The impact of a corporate culture of sustainability on corporate behavior and performance, *National Bureau of Economic Research* 17950 (1), 2835-2857.

Roeckelein, J.E. 1998. Dictionary of theories, laws, and concepts in psychology. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Rogers, E.M. 1962. Diffusion of innovations. New York: *Free Press of Glencoe*.

Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 10, 173-220.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, 80(1), 1-28.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* 21, 600-619.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185-211.

Samad, Ataus, Reaburn, Peter Davis, Heather, Ahmed. Ezaz. (2015). 'An Empirical Study on The Effect of Leadership Styles Employee Wellbeing and Organizational Outcomes within an Australian Regional University.', *The Journal Of Developing Areas*, ISBN 978-0-9925622-1-2(2015).

Sayyadi, M., & Provitera, M.J. (2022) 'The Art of Transformational Leadership: A Key to High-Performance Company', *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership*.

Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. K., & Peng. A. (2011). Cognition-based and affect-based trust as Mediators of leader behavior influences team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96, 863-871.

Schumacker, R.E. and Lomax, R.G. (2004), A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling, 2nd ed., Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, Mahwah, NJ.

Scott, B. Dust., Christian, J Resick., & Mary, Bardes Mawritz. (2014) Transformational leadership, psychological empowerment, and the moderating role of mechanistic-organic contexts, Journal of Organizational Behavior 35 (3), 413-433.

Sendjaya, S., & Sarros, J.C. (2002). Servant Leadership: Its Origin, Development, and Application in Organizations. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9(2), 57-65.

Shalley, C.E.; Zhou, J.; Oldham, G.R. The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here? J. Manag. 2004, 30, 933-958.

Shalley, Zhou, J., et al. (2004) The Effects of Personal and Contextual Characteristics on Creativity: Where Should We Go from Here? Journal of Management, 6, 933-958.

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept-based theory. Organization Science, 4.577-594

Silverman, D. (1973). Interview talk: Bringing off a research instrument. Sociology, 7(1), 31-48.

Simons, T., Pelled, L. H., & Smith, K. A. (1999). Making use of difference: Diversity, debate, and decision comprehensiveness in top management teams. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(6), 662-673.

Sinkovics, R. R., Penz, E., & Ghauri, P. N. (2005). Analyzing textual data in international marketing research. Qualitative Market Research: *An International Journal*, 8(1), 9-38.

Sivanathan N., Arnold K.A., Turner N., Barling J. Leading Well: Transformational Leadership and Well-Being. In: Linley P.A., Joseph S., editors. Positive Psychology in Practice. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; Hoboken, NJ, USA: 2004. Pp. 241-255.

Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: A new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 518-528.

Sonnentag, S., Dormann, C., & Demerouti, E. (2010). Not all days are created equal: The concept of state work engagement. In A. B. Bakker & M. Leiter (Eds.), Work engagement: The essential in theory and research (pp. 25-38). New York: *Psychology Press*.

Sparks, J. R., & Schenk, J. A. (2001). Explaining the effects of transformational leadership: An investigation of the effects of higher-order motives in multilevel marketing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 849-869

Spiegler, M.D., and D.C. Guevremont. (2003). Contemporary Behavior Therapy, 4 Edition. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Staddon, J. 2004. The future. Behavior and Philosophy 32: 243-245

Stahl, G. K., Maznevski, M. L., Voigt, A., & Jonsen, K. (2010). Unraveling the effects of cultural diversity in teams: A meta-analysis of research on multicultural work groups. *Journal of International Business Studies, 41*(4), 690-709.

Stewart J. (2006), Transformational leadership. An evolving concept examined through the works of Burns Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood, *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, Vol. 54

Stogdill, R.M. (1974). Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of the Literature. New York: *Free Press*.

Sueur, C., Deneubourg, J., and Petit, O. (2010). The sequence of quorums during collective decision-making in macaques. Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. 64, 1875-1885

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Brooks/Cole.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2003) 'The social identity theory of intergroup behavior', *Social psychology,* 4, pp.73-98.

Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of Culture's Consequences: A three-decade, multi-level, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(3), 405-439.

TE. BECKER, M.C. KERNAN, K.D. CLARK, H.J. KLEIN, Dual commitments to organizations and professions: Different motivational pathways to productivity. *Journal of Management*, 7, 137- 178 (2015)

Tetik, M. (2020) 'Investigating factors affecting cooperative and non-cooperative behavior: An experimental game in the classroom', *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, *27*(2 (623), Summer), pp.205-214.

Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2011). Do transformational leaders enhance their follower's daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 121-131

TM, Mathole., (2021). 'Investigating leadership behaviors adopted on conflict resolutions: a case of gold mining production teams in Carletonville,' North-West University (South Africa), pp. 470- 480.

Tomporowski, P.D. 2003. The psychology of skill: A life-span approach. Westport, CT: *Praeger*.

Tourish D. (2013). The Dark Side of Transformational Leadership: A Critical Perspective. New York, NY: *Routledge*, 252.

V. Rosenstiel, L. & Wegge, J. (2004). Leadership, in: Schuler, H. (ed.). Organisational Psychology Groups and Organisation. Göttingen, Hogrefe, pp. 494-558.

V. Rosenstiel, L. (2014). Basics of Leadership, in v. Rosenstiel, L., Regnet, E. & Domsch, M.E. (ed.). Leadership. Guide to Successful Personnel Management. 7th edition, Stuttgart, Schäffer Poeschel, pp. 3-28

Van Dyne, L. & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(4), 439-459,

Walumbwa F. O., Muchiri M. K., Misati E., Wu C., Meiliani M. (2018). Inspired to perform: a multilevel investigation of antecedents and consequences of thriving at work. J. Organ. Behav. 3 249-261.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*(1), 89-126.

Walumbwa, F. O., & Hartnell, C. A. (2011). Understanding transformational leadership-employee performance links: The role of relational identification and self-efficacy. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84, 153-172.

Wang, G., Oh, I., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. Group & Organization Management, 36, 223-270.

Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 420-432.

Weiss, H. M. (1977). Subordinate imitation of supervisor behavior: The role of modeling in organizational socialization. Organizational Behavior & Human Performance, 19, 89-105

Williams, K. Y., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1998). Demography and diversity in organizations: A review of 40 years of research. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 20*, 77-140.

Willie, M. M. (2024). Population and Target Population in Research Methodology. *Golden Ratio of Social Science and Education*, *4*(1), 75-79.

Wilson, R.A., and F.C. Keil, (eds.). 1999. The MIT encyclopedia of the cognitive sciences. London: MIT Press.

Wilson, S. (2001). What is an indigenous research methodology? *Canadian journal of native education*, *25*(2).

Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2010). Transformational leadership in the public sector: Does structure matter? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory,* 20(1), 75-89.

Wright, B. E., Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). 'Pulling the levers: Transformational leadership, public service motivation, and mission valence.', *Public Administration Review*, 72(2), 206-215.

Wright, S., O'Brien, B. C., Nimmon, L., Law, M., & Mylopoulos, M. (2016). Research design considerations. *Journal of graduate medical education*, *8*(1), 97-98.

Wunderer, R. (2009). Leadership and Collaboration: An Entrepreneurial Leadership Guide. 8th edition, Cologne, Luchterhand (in German).

X.H. Xu, Z.J. Du, X.H. Chen Nsen Consensus model for multi-criteria Heng large-group emergency decision making considering non-cooperative behaviors and minority opinions Decision Support Systems, 79 (2015), pp. 150-160.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal relationships between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74, 235-244.

Y. Dong, H. Zhang, E. Herrera-Viedma Integrating experts weights generated dynamically into the consensus reaching process and its applications-cool in managing non-cooperative behaviors Decision Support Systems, 84 (2016), pp. 1-15.

Yahya, A. H., & Sukmayadi, V. (2020) 'A review of cognitive dissonance theory and its relevance to current social issues', MIMBAR: *Journals Sosial Dan Pembangunan*, 36(2), pp.480-488.

Yammarino, F. J. (1999) CEO charismatic leadership: Levels-of-management and levels-of analysis effects. Academy of Management Review, 24, 266-286.

Yang, G., Wang, X., Ding, R., Lin, S., Lou, Q., & Herrera-Viedma, E.E. (2023) 'Managing non-cooperative behaviors in large-scale group decision making based on trust relationships and confidence levels of decision makers', *Inf. Fusion, 97*, p.101820.

Yuan Gao, Zhen Zhang. (2021). 'Consensus reaching with non-cooperative behavior management for personalized individual semantics-based social network group decision making,' *Journal of the Operational Research Society* 73 (11), 2518-2535.

Yuan, S., Zhang, X., & Zhu, S. (2020). How Could Transformational Leadership Influence Collaboration?

Yuki, G. (2001). Leadership in organizations. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hal

Yuxiang, Yuan., Chaofa, Wang., Dong, Cheng. (2023). 'Minimum conflict consensus models for group decision-making based on social network analysis considering non-cooperative behaviors,' *Information Fusion 99*, 101855.

Zhang, H., Palomares, I., Dong, Y., & Wang, W. (2018) 'Managing non-cooperative behaviors in consensus-based multiple attribute group decision making: An approach based on social network analysis', *Knowledge-Based Systems*, *162*, pp. 29-45.

Zhang, X. A., Cao, Q., & Tjosvold, D. (2011) Linking transformational leadership and team performance: A conflict management approach', *Journal of Management Studies*, *48*(7), pp.1586-1611.j

Zhu, W., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. Group & Organization Management, 34, 590-619