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-RESEARCH ARTICLE-

DO ASPECTS OF PRIDE PROMOTE ATHLETES' PROSOCIAL AND ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOUR? UNFOLDING THE ROLE OF MORAL DISENGAGEMENT AS AN UNDERLYING MECHANISM IN SPORTS

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─Abstract─

There is a dearth of study in sports on the relationship between hubristic pride (HP), authentic pride (AP), and moral conduct (MB) toward teammates and opponents. This study aimed to establish the extent to which hubristic and authentic pride are connected with prosocial and antisocial behaviour (PSB and ASB) in sports, both directly and indirectly via moral disengagement (MD). 290 athletes from various team sports completed pride, PSB, ASB, and MD questionnaires. The data were analysed using partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) to test hypotheses. HP was found to be positively associated with ASB both directly and indirectly via MD, whereas AP was found to be both directly and favourably associated with PSB. Additionally, HP was indirectly connected to PSB toward adversaries via MD. Additionally, the research findings suggest that policies that support AP while discouraging HP may help to promote ethical behaviour in competitive sports.

Keywords: Hubristic pride, Authentic pride, Antisocial behaviour, Prosocial behaviour, Team sport, Malaysia

1. INTRODUCTION

In social, developmental, and clinical psychology, morality study has a long history (Prentice et al., 2019). Ancient philosophers believed that morality was an essential condition for happiness. Numerous researchers have attempted to ascertain why people behave unethically. According to Aristotle, immoral behaviour is damaging to one's

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psyche. Eudaemonia is the greatest pleasure attainable through morally good behaviour (Hartman, 2006). For instance, Plato stated that morality is the primary source of mental health (Seeskin, 2008). According to Buddhism, pain is caused by greed and want, and fostering moral characteristics such as wisdom, generosity, compassion, lovingkindness, and kindness can finally result in happiness (Brown et al., 2003). Confucius felt that practising virtue and sticking to ethical principles automatically may result in true happiness (Lu, 2001). However, immoral behaviour is prevalent throughout society (Seeskin, 2008). Sports provide a social context for players to exhibit a range of PSB, described as actions taken to benefit or assist others (Fabes, 1998), such as raising players off the ground and congratulating other competitors. Simultaneously, players may engage in ASB, which is defined as actions to disadvantage or damage others (Sage et al., 2006), such as verbally abusing teammates or intentionally fouling opponents. Given the negative consequences of PSB and ASB on others and their proclivity to influence sports outcomes (M. Kavussanu et al., 2021), sports professionals such as coaches and sports psychologists may seek to enhance PSB and discourage ASB in their athletes. Additionally, extensive research has been conducted to advance our understanding of the antecedents of MB in sports (M. Kavussanu, & Stanger, N., 2017; M. Kavussanu et al., 2021).

A recent study has concentrated on the function of self-conscious emotions in MB control, including pride, shame, and guilt (Han et al., 2021). These emotions arise due to self-evaluative mechanisms in which one's attention is drawn to one's actions and oneself. Additionally, events about one's identity (for example, how others view us) and self-presentation goals are evaluated (Jessica L. Tracy et al., 2004). For instance, when individuals act following identity goals or an actual or ideal self-representation, they experience excellent and negative self-conscious emotions, such as pleasure at completing something and guilt at acting poorly (Jessica L. Tracy et al., 2004). At the same time, scholars have extensively studied the critical function of negative self-conscious emotions such as guilt regarding moral behaviours in sports (Stanger et al., 2013). The association between positive emotional self-conscious feelings and MB, on the other hand, has been primarily disregarded (Conejero et al., 2021). By examining the relationship between pride, a positive self-conscious emotional attitude, and MB in sports, this research attempted to fill a hole in the existing body of knowledge.

1.1 Pride and Moral Behavior

Pride is a feeling experienced when events and oneself are recognised as meaningful and consistent with one's aims and identity (Jessica L. Tracy et al., 2004). Additionally, pride is a self-conscious emotion typically seen in contexts of achievement (Robins et al., 2007). It is composed of two different qualities derived from distinct internal characteristics and associated with MB in varying degrees. While both traits and states of pride can be researched, this research concentrated on trait pride, representing the attitudinal proclivity to perceive each facet of pride (Robins et al., 2007). Genuine pride

is one aspect. It is based on one's accomplishments, demonstrates genuine feelings of self-worth, and is the outcome of controllable and dynamic characteristics ("I was successful because I worked hard"). Thus, success is task-oriented (e.g., through efforts), and adoption of success-related behaviours and feelings of fulfilment and confidence are more prominent during AP (Robins et al., 2007).

Additionally, it has been suggested that AP is connected with achievement because it is relationship-oriented (e.g., "getting along with others"), promoting PSB behaviours such as supporting and assisting others in their pursuit of success. By contrast, ASB may contradict AP because it is incompatible with connection orientation, and success attained through ASB may not reflect one's genuine efforts or abilities (Robins et al., 2007). According to these assumptions, AP was strongly and positively associated with PSB among university and high school students (Bureau et al., 2013) and respect for opponents and sporting laws (Bureau et al., 2013) (Vallerand, Bureau. Additionally, AP was negatively associated with ASB (Robins et al., 2007) and student hostility (Carver et al., 2010). Nonetheless, AP was found to be modestly linked with paintball cheating and unethical sports behaviour (as measured by ASB toward opponents, game persona, and cheating activities) (Bureau et al., 2013).

Additionally, hubristic pride is the second type of pride; these are emotional values based on one's abilities that emerge from persistent and unpredictable global attributions (e.g., "I am successful because I am inherently skilled") and represent superiority over another (Robins et al., 2007). On the other side, failure or defeat in gaining supremacy over another person may damage one's global value viewpoint. On the other hand, HP can be induced by egocentric arrogance or sentiments (Robins et al., 2007), which are indicative of negative characteristics such as selfishness (Jessica L. Tracy et al., 2009). When one strives to assert control and superiority over another, mainly when one's dignity is at risk, it has been stated that hubristic pride contributes to ASB (Robins et al., 2007). HP is strongly and positively associated with ASB (Robins et al., 2007), daily violence (Carver et al., 2010), athletic cheating and unethical behaviour (Bureau et al., 2013). Additionally, it was associated with PSB in daily life (Robins et al., 2007) and was adversely correlated with officials and opponents in sports (Bureau et al., 2013). According to the research thus far, the two manifestations of pride are distinct in terms of their origins and emotional, cognitive, and behavioural consequences (Robins et al., 2007). Self-assessment of "doing" (i.e., process-oriented) motivates AP, whereas self-assessment of "being" (i.e., global capacities) motivates HP (Carver et al., 2010). Additionally, AP and HP are associated with MB (Bureau et al., 2013). Only a few studies have examined the association between various dimensions of pride and MB in sports, most notably antisocial or unethical behaviour toward authorities or opponents (Bureau et al., 2013). To our knowledge, no research has been undertaken on the relationship between various components of pride and ASB (i.e., mistreatment of teammates) and PSB (i.e., supporting and encouraging teammates) toward teammates in

sports. A previous study discovered that PSB toward teammates and opponents is significantly and positively connected to medium to large effect sizes (Graupensperger, Jensen, et al., 2018).

However, according to social identity theory (Tajfel et al., 1979), the combative nature of sports may drive players to acquire a strong identity toward their in-groups (e.g., team members), resulting in athletes responding differently toward their out-groups (opposite players) (Graupensperger, Benson, et al., 2018; Stanger et al., 2013) . However, research has demonstrated that athletes' socialisation with teammates is associated with increased PSB and ASB toward teammates and lower PSB toward rivals (Benson et al., 2017; Bruner et al., 2014) . Given that these affiliations, self-representation, and goals (which indicate social influence) all contribute to the extraction of pride (Robins et al., 2007), it is necessary to analyse the relationship between the various components of pride and PSB and ASB toward team members and opponents.

1.2 Moral Disengagement in Sports

Sports and physical activities are critical contexts for morality studies (Danioni et al., 2021; Weiss et al., 2008). However, due to its "social aspect," sports present opportunities for PSB and ASB, such as aiding injured opponents or fooling them (M. Kavussanu et al., 2020). As Kavussanu and Boardley (2007) note, "players are frequently evaluated based on the outcomes of their acts rather than how they accomplish them," highlighting the need of assessing players' moral disengagement from their sports activities. Numerous quantitative (Hodge et al., 2011) and qualitative (Corrion et al., 2009) approaches have been used to depict the intricacies of moral disengagement in sports. Additionally, to our knowledge, few studies have examined processes that could account for the link between characteristics of pride and PSB and ASB in sports. However, moral disengagement may be a probable underlying mechanism. It is defined as a collection of distinct psychosocial mechanisms that rationalise or justify ASB by preventing perpetrators from experiencing negative self-identity emotional experiences (guilt), which typically control such activities (Bandura, 2014). Some of the underlying processes are attributing blame, dehumanisation, distortion of consequences, shift of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, euphemism labelling, favourable comparison, and moral justification (Bandura, 1999). According to studies, moral disengagement is more prevalent among younger and male athletes, and it is connected with both positive and negative PSB and ASB toward teammates and opponents, respectively (Ian D. Boardley et al., 2009; Stanger et al., 2018; Stanger et al., 2013). On the other hand, moral disengagement is weakly connected to or unrelated to PSB, primarily toward teammates (Hodge et al., 2011; Stanger et al., 2018), but it has been found to correlate negatively with PSB in sports, most notably with opponents (Hodge et al., 2015). These correlations, however, were not as substantially connected as those associated with ASB. Thus, the discrepancies in correlations between AP and HP and PSB and ASB may be explained by their distinct linkages with moral disengagement. As a result, no

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1.3 The Present Study

To summarise, these two unique dimensions of pride can affect how MB is perceived in sports. To our knowledge, only a few research studies have examined the relationship between two components of pride and MB toward opponents in sports (Bureau et al., 2013). We are uncertain whether their findings apply to MB's treatment of team members. Additionally, little research has addressed the processes and mechanisms via which distinct components of pride are associated with MB in athletics. We sought to fill this gap in the literature with this study, which had two objectives. First, we evaluated the relationship between AP and HP and PSB and ASB toward opponents and teammates in sports. Second, we determined if pride is connected with PSB and ASB via moral disengagement. As was the case with conceptual frameworks such as MD (Hodge et al., 2015), this research examined the relationship between MD and PSB and ASB toward teammates and opponents. As a result, we concluded that moral disengagement acts as

a mediator between the two dimensions of pride and PSB and ASB toward opponents and teammates.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Participants and Procedure

Between April and May 2021, this study collected data from 290 Malaysian university team sports players via a questionnaire survey utilising a random selection technique. They participated in various sports, including basketball, volleyball, soccer, and field hockey. They practised with their team several times a week on average. Respondents were chosen for the study by notifying them of its principal aims through contact with their respective sports teams' managers or coaches. The study's primary goal and participation would be purely voluntary were told participants via mail. Participants who volunteered to participate completed anonymous and self-report questionnaires before and during a typical training session in the presence of a study staff member and a coach. After completing a consent form, respondents completed survey questions that comprised the measures mentioned above. After completing the questionnaires, respondents returned them directly to the researcher, who expressed gratitude for their cooperation.

3. MEASURES

3.1 Participants Demographic profile

The study's respondents were questioned about their characteristics (age and gender) and their athletic activities, such as the number of training sessions per week and the types of sports they participated. The demographic profile of the responders is shown in Table 1.

3.2 Pride

Robins et al. (2007)developed a fourteen-item scale measuring AP (seven items) and HP (seven items) to assess pride in sports. We adapted the scale to assess how athletes feel about their sports in general, which is consonant with prior studies (Fontena et al., 2017). The items were measured on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 ("not at all") to 5 ("extremely"). For measuring pride, alpha coefficients for both the AP (α .88) and HP (α .90) subscales were satisfactory (M. Kavussanu et al., 2008).

3.3 Moral Disengagement

The MD in sports was evaluated using an eight-item sports short-scale developed by M. Kavussanu et al. (2008). The items were measured on a seven-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The scale provides empirical support with an alpha coefficient of .85 (M. Kavussanu et al., 2008).

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Table 1. Participants Profile

Description	Frequency	Percentage	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Gender					
Male	192	66.20	Female	98	33.80
Age					
Less than 20 years	50	17.24	20-25 years	129	44.48
26-30 years	73	25.17	Above 30 years	38	13.10
Training sessions per week					
Less than 2	90	31.03	2-3 sessions	152	52.41
4-6 sessions	31	10.69	Above 6 sessions	17	5.86
Type of Sports					
Football	99	34.14	Volleyball	52	17.93
Soccer	27	9.31	Field hockey	65	22.41
Cricket	47	16.21			

Note: (n = 290)

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3.4 Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior

In sports, Ian D. Boardley et al. (2009) developed the PSB and ASB twenty-item scale (PABSS) to assess players' PSB and ASB toward opponents and teammates. The PABSS is broken into four subscales that assess PSB toward teammates (4 items), PSB toward opponents (3 items), ASB toward teammates (5 items), and ASB toward opponents (8 things). The scale's items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("never") to 5 ("always") ("very often"). The validity of the PABSS has been established through research, with all subscale scores demonstrating an adequate level of internal consistency (e.g., alpha values ranging from.73 to.86) (Stanger et al., 2013).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Data Analysis

This study conducted a descriptive analysis using SPSS 21.0, and hypothesis testing was conducted using Smart PLS 3.0. However, PLS-SEM is frequently employed to investigate datasets that are not normally distributed. The measurement and structural models were developed using PLS-SEM (J. Hair et al., 2017). PLS-SEM is suitable for a variety of reasons. To begin, when there is a dearth of theory or information regarding structural relationships, or when the research is exploratory in nature, PLS-SEM is preferable (Henseler et al., 2009). Thus, when expanding an established structural theory, predicting significant target variables, or discovering significant "driving" factors, as in this work, PLS-SEM is appropriate (Hair Jr et al., 2021). As a result, PLS-SEM is deemed more appropriate for this investigation. Additionally, our research relies on PLS-SEM since it offers more effective control of sample size, factor indeterminacy, normalcy distributions, model identification, and model difficulties (Joseph F. Hair et al., 2019). The data were initially evaluated for missing values, outliers, and normality following Joseph F Hair et al. (2010), Hair Jr et al. (2021), and Tabachnick (2007). Our data had no missing values. We examined outliers, skewness, and kurtosis to determine the data's normalcy. No severe outliers were detected in our investigation, and the kurtosis and skewness values indicated that normalcy was not significantly deviated. The mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients for each latent construct are shown in Table 2.

4.2 Assessment of Measurement Model

Our research assessed the quality of the outer model to assure the reliability and validity of the analysis. This was accomplished by using the PLS method and the PLS Algorithm. To begin, we evaluated the convergent validity of the measurement model using validity and reliability measures, such as alpha, item loadings, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) (Joseph F. Hair et al., 2019). However, because alpha is a conservative measure of internal consistency, it is less valued than composite dependability. The item loadings of the constructs ranged between 0.709 and 0.889,

exceeding the cutoff value of 0.708. (Hair Jr et al., 2021). Similarly, the overall variation in items due to a variable (AVE) was more significant than the 0.5 cutoff limit (Hair Jr et al., 2021). Hair Jr et al. (2021)proposed using variance inflation factors (VIF) to discover collinearity among a collection of predictors, with a maximum value of five. The data indicate that all VIF values are less than 5, indicating no collinearity exists between the variables. The results of item loadings, CR, and AVE are summarised in Table 3. Joseph F. Hair et al. (2019)claimed that discriminant validity might be evaluated using the Forner-Lacker criteria (Fornell et al., 1981), cross-loadings, and the Hethrotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio. The discriminant validity of this study was determined using the HTMT method (Henseler et al., 2015). This method measures the correlation between two constructs, and the HTMT threshold value should not exceed 0.9. (Henseler et al., 2015). However, any number greater than this cutoff value indicates a lack of discriminant validity. Our PLS model satisfies the HTMT requirement, as shown in Table 4. (see Table 4).

4.3 Assessment of Structural Model

In the inner model, coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated for the model's goodness of fit and collinearity, slope coefficients (beta values), t-values, and p-values for path coefficient using a bootstrapping method with a 5000 resample (Joseph F Hair et al., 2021). The value of R^2 indicates the percentage of variance explained by all exogenous variables for endogenous variables (Cohen, 2013). He distinguished three types of R^2 values for endogenous variables. He proposed that an R^2 value of 0.02 be regarded as insignificant. An R^2 value of 0.13 is moderate, and an R^2 value of 0.26 is significant. Furthermore, the model's overall predictive accuracy or effect size (R^2) is shown in Figure 1. Likewise, R^2 34.3, 35.2, 29.4, and 28.7 values demonstrate how AP, HP, and moral disengagement account for PSBT, PSBO, ASBT, and ASBO variation in overall moral behaviour. According to our study's findings, R^2 values are considered moderate (Cohen, 2013). Following the evaluation of the R-square value, another essential step in the structural model evaluation procedure is the evaluation of Effect size (f^2). Furthermore, Joseph F. Hair et al. (2019) recommended reporting the model's predictive relevance (Q2). The Q^2 metric, calculated using the blindfolding procedure, quantifies the quality of the path model's dependent variables (Chin et al., 2008). The value of Q^2 can be obtained in Smart PLS 3.0 by cross-validated redundancy analysis. A Q^2 value higher than zero shows that the model is predictive, whereas a value of Q^2 less than zero shows a lack of predictive relevance in the model. To confirm the latent construct's quality in the structural path model, the estimated Q^2 value should be higher than zero. The Q^2 results indicate that our latent dependent constructs have significant predictive relevance (Chin et al., 2008). As indicated in Table 5, the Q^2 for latent variables was measured and found to be 0.153 for moral disengagement, and 0.150 for ASB toward teammates, 0.114 for ASB toward opponents, 0.355 for ASB toward teammates, and 0.237 for ASB toward opponents, which is above zero indicating a high predictive relevance (Chin et al., 2008).

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Table 2. The Values of Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation, and Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	Mean(Hodge et al.)	AP	HP	MD	PSBT	PSBO	ASBT	ASBO	Skewnes	Kurtosis
AP	4.06(.520)	**1**							-.994	1.324
HP	2.12 (.495)	-.251	**1**						.913	1.959
MD	2.40 (.512)	-.602	.462	**1**					1.297	1.516
PSBT	4.03 (.648)	.469	-.537	-.557	**1**				-1.219	1.421
PSBO	4.00(.547)	.572	-.495	-.592	.537	**1**			-1.572	1.442
ASBT	2.14(.566)	-.428	.399	.360	-.650	-.440	**1**		1.476	.976
ASBO	2.06(.499)	-.415	.397	.301	-.358	-.544	.456	**1**	1.708	1.100

Note(s): ** Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3. Measurement Model Results

Construct	Item	Loading	Alpha	Composite Reliability (CR)	AVE	Collinearity
Authentic pride						
	AP1	0.739	0.847	0.898	0.624	2.436
	AP2	0.802				2.933
	AP3	0.831				1.424
	AP4	0.761				1.549
	AP5	0.808				1.367
	AP6	0.714				1.282
	AP7	0.729				1.497
Hubristic pride						
	HP1	0.774	0.855	0.887	0.600	1.730
	HP2	0.864				1.612
	HP3	0.812				2.790
	HP4	0.792				2.936
	HP5	0.740				1.665
	HP6	0.834				1.197
	HP7	0.777				1.961
Moral Disengagement						

Table 3. Continued

	MD1	0.729	0.873	0.897	0.612	1.728
	MD2	0.839				1.773
	MD3	0.833				1.609
	MD4	0.709				1.777
	MD5	0.783				1.767
	MD6	0.803				2.679
	MD7	0.871				1.349
	MD8	0.778				2.666
Prosocial behaviour (teammates)						
	PSBT1	0.857	0.852	0.875	0.674	1.540
	PSBT2	0.850				1.219
	PSBT3	0.889				1.484
	PSBT4	0.842				1.239
						1.204
Prosocial behaviour (Opponents)						
	PSBO1	0.873	0.870	0.908	0.721	1.287
	PSBO2	0.826				1.321
	PSBO3	0.802				1.624
Antisocial behaviour (teammates)						
	ASBT1	0.854	0.882	0.913	0.679	2.330
	ASBT2	0.779				1.935
	ASBT3	0.841				2.290
	ASBT4	0.774				2.639
	ASBT5	0.867				1.958
Antisocial behaviour (Opponents)						
	ASBO1	0.843	0.872	0.890	0.679	1.998
	ASBO2	0.728				1.822
	ASBO3	0.807				1.092
	ASBO4	0.776				1.675
	ASBO5	0.724				2.087
	ASBO6	0.720				1.542
	ASBO7	0.769				1.058
	ASBO8	0.801				1.504

Note: AP = Authentic pride, HP = Hubristic pride, MD = Moral Disengagement, PSBT = Prosocial behavior (Teammates), PSBO = Prosocial Behavior (Opponents), ASBT = Antisocial Behavior (Teammates), ASBO = Antisocial Behavior (Opponents).

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Table 4. Hetrotrait-Monotrait Ratio

Variables	ASBO	ASBT	AP	HP	MD	PSBO	PSBT
ASBO							
ASBT	0.191						
AP	0.447	0.486					
HP	0.525	0.455	0.284				
MD	0.384	0.405	0.658	0.525			
PSBO	0.559	0.49	0.633	0.551	0.654		
PSBT	0.229	0.713	0.507	0.587	0.602	0.578	

1.92

Note: AP = Authentic pride, HP = Hubristic pride, MD = Moral Disengagement, PSBT = Prosocial behavior (Teammates), PSBO = Prosocial Behavior (Opponents), ASBT = Antisocial Behavior (Teammates), ASBO = Antisocial Behavior (Opponents).

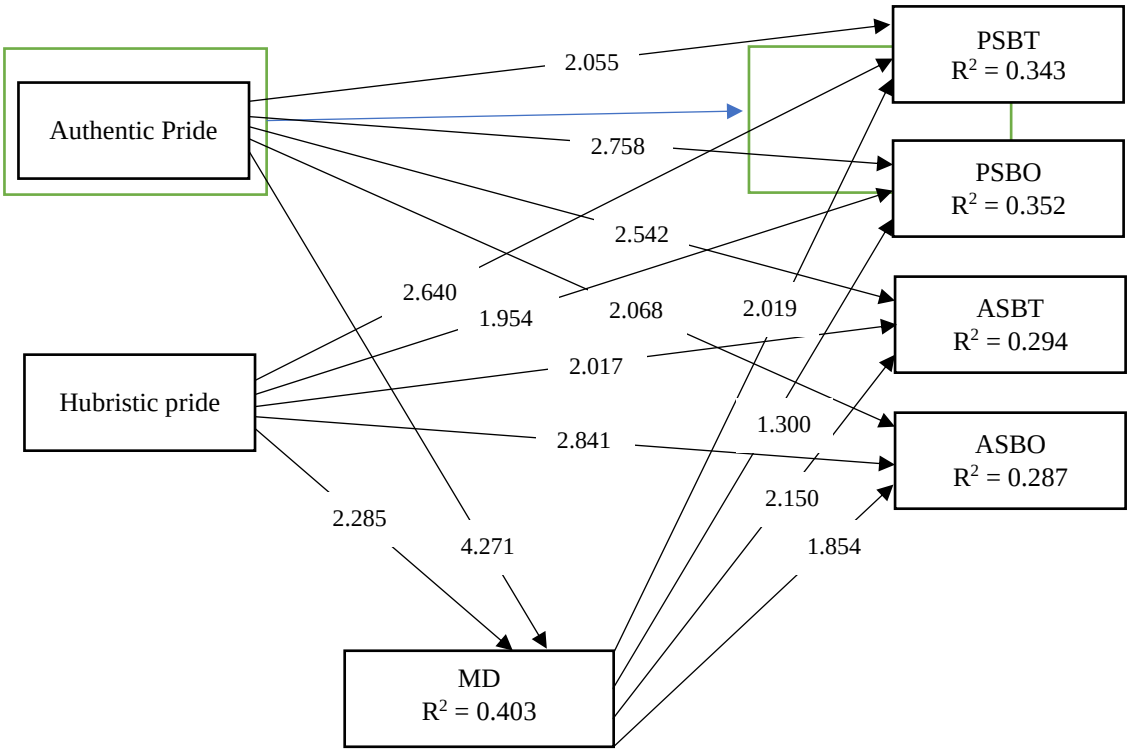

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

Table 5. Coefficient of determination (R^2), Predictive relevance (Q^2), and Effect sizes (f^2) of R^2

Constructs	Variance explained (R^2)	Predictive relevance (Q^2)	Degree of effect
Prosocial behavior (Teammates)	34.3	0.355	Moderate
Prosocial Behavior (Opponents)	35.2	0.237	Moderate
Moral Disengagement	40.3	0.150	Moderate
Antisocial Behavior (Teammates)	29.4	0.114	Moderate
Antisocial Behavior (Opponents)	28.7		Moderate
	Effect sizes (f^2) of R^2		
In the case of Prosocial Behavior (Teammates)			
Authentic pride	0.052		Small
Hubristic pride	0.169		Medium
Moral Disengagement	0.070		Small
In the case of Prosocial Behavior (Opponents)			
Authentic pride	0.150		Medium
Hubristic pride	0.171		Medium
Moral Disengagement	0.064		Small
In the case of Antisocial Behavior (Opponents)			
Authentic pride	0.111		Medium
Hubristic pride	0.117		Medium
Moral Disengagement	0.046		Small
In the case of Antisocial Behavior (Opponents)			
Authentic pride	0.085		Small
Hubristic pride	0.180		Medium
Moral Disengagement	0.009		Small
In case of Moral Disengagement			
Authentic pride	0.457		Large
Hubristic pride	0.212		Medium

Nonetheless, bootstrapping analysis was used to determine the direct and indirect consequences. Positive and strong correlations between AP and PSB toward teammates and opponents were observed in the path model, suggesting support for H1 and H2. Similarly, the path model results suggested that AP and ASB had negative and

substantial relationships with teammates and opponents, indicating support for H3 and H4. Additionally, HP was connected with negative PSB toward teammates in H5 but not with negative PSB toward opponents in H6, meaning that H6 was rejected. On the other side, HP was linked to ASB toward teammates and adversaries. This demonstrates that H7 and H8 are supported.

Additionally, as shown in Table 6, the indirect effect of MD was significant for the connections between AP and PSB toward opponents H10, as well as the two ASB H11 and H12. Similarly, MD had a significant and negative indirect effect on the correlations between HP and PSB toward opponents H14. Simultaneously, MD acts as a positive mediator of the relationship between HP and ASB toward adversaries and teammates. This demonstrates that H15 and H16 were both significant and positive. The direct and indirect impacts are summarised in Table 6.

5. DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to fill a void in the literature regarding the relationship between pride and MB towards opponents and teammates in sports. Specifically, we examined whether AP and HP were connected with PSB and ASB toward teammates and opponents in sports, both directly and indirectly via MD. Positive correlations were discovered between AP and PSB toward opponents and teammates. However, no negative association was observed between AP and ASB or MD. Additionally, the findings on PSB were consistent with a previous study indicating a favourable correlation between AP and PSB in everyday situations (Kretteneuer & Casiy, 2015) and regard for opponents, authorities, and rules in sports (Bureau et al., 2013).

Nonetheless, the absence of a link between AP and ASB contradicts our assertions and those of other previous researchers (Kretteneuer & Casiy, 2015). By contrast, these findings are consistent with a study conducted in the sports setting, in which AP was found to be unrelated to or only mildly connected to unethical behaviour and cheating on opponents (Bureau et al., 2013). These findings support the hypothesis that AP is designed to assist PSB by emphasising goal attainment through initiative and relationship-oriented behaviour (Jessica L. Tracy et al., 2004). As expected, HP was strongly and positively connected with ASB toward adversaries and teammates, both directly and indirectly via MD.

Furthermore, these findings corroborate theoretical claims that such characteristics of pride are associated with less adaptive behaviour (Lewis, 2008; Jessica L Tracy et al., 2007). However, prior research has established a substantial and positive correlation between HP and ASB in university and high school students (Kretteneuer & Casiy, 2015) as well as deceptive and immoral behaviour toward an opponent in athletics (Kretteneuer & Casiy, 2015).

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Table 6. Path Model Results

Hyp	Relationships	Beta	Std.Dev	t-values	p-values	CI (2.5%; 97.5%)	Decision
H1	AP -> PSBT	0.213	0.102	2.087	0.037	(0.015; 0.416)	Accepted
H2	AP -> PSBO	0.342	0.123	2.781	0.005	(0.095; 0.568)	Accepted
H3	AP -> ASBT	-0.350	0.143	2.454	0.014	(-0.613; -0.069)	Accepted
H4	AP -> ASBO	-0.307	0.151	2.030	0.042	(-0.575; 0.035)	Accepted
H5	HP -> PSBT	-0.350	0.134	2.608	0.009	(-0.576; -0.038)	Accepted
H6	HP -> PSBO	-0.308	0.159	1.934	0.053	(-0.308; 0.046)	Rejected
H7	HP -> ASBT	0.328	0.165	1.982	0.047	(-0.001; 0.616)	Accepted
H8	HP -> ASBO	0.407	0.141	2.877	0.004	(0.016; 0.616)	Accepted
H9	AP -> MD -> PSBT	0.138	0.131	1.887	0.059	(-0.019; 0.272)	Rejected
H10	AP -> MD -> PSBO	0.235	0.113	2.071	0.031	(-0.022; 0.345)	Accepted
H11	AP -> MD -> ASBT	-0.304	0.142	2.200	0.026	(-0.214; 0.205)	Accepted
H12	AP -> MD -> ASBO	-0.125	0.094	1.452	0.120	(-0.163; 0.215)	Rejected
H13	HP -> MD -> PSBO	-0.349	0.173	2.014	0.033	((-0.245; 0.012)	Accepted
H14	HP -> MD -> PSBT	-0.099	0.074	1.402	0.153	(-0.251; 0.037)	Rejected
H15	HP -> MD -> ASBT	0.298	0.139	2.406	0.012	(-0.152; 0.156)	Accepted
H16	HP -> MD -> ASBO	0.377	0.139	2.480	0.007	(-0.175; 0.111)	Accepted

Note: AP = Authentic pride, HP = Hubristic pride, MD = Moral Disengagement, PSBT = Prosocial behavior (Teammates), PSBO = Prosocial Behavior (Opponents), ASBT = Antisocial Behavior (Teammates), ASBO = Antisocial Behavior (Opponents).

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This study establishes a high association between HP and ASB toward opponents and teammates and MD's indirect involvement in these relationships. Because HP is characterised by an excessive sense of superiority over others, arrogance, and low self-esteem (Robins et al., 2007), it may enhance individuals' proclivity to disconnect from a sense of discipline (Worsley et al., 2018) and rationalise or explain ASB (through MD). As a result, the impulse to participate in ASB toward opponents and teammates may develop to assert supremacy over others. HP was shown to be only weakly linked with PSB in this investigation.

Nonetheless, the connection was inversely proportional to PSB for teammates but positive concerning PSB toward adversaries. Additionally, HP was found to be connected with PSB toward opponents indirectly via favourable connections with MD, which was strongly associated with PSB against opponents. By and large, the higher link between HP and more frequent ASB strengthens the case that HP is associated with considerably less adaptive activities (Robins et al., 2007).

Surprisingly, the minor direct link between HP and PSB was beneficial toward the opponent. These findings contrast with a previous study, which discovered an inverse relationship between HP and respect for sports regulations, authorities, and opponents (Bureau et al., 2013). Nonetheless, some study has discovered a similar slight positive correlation in the other direction in the student population (Kretteneuer & Casiy, 2015). It is critical to remember that PSB is not necessarily motivated by altruism; it can be motivated by self-representation (e.g., a desire to be regarded well by others by being a prosocial and fair person) (Eisenberg, 2010). Thus, one explanation for these findings is that HP is linked to PSB toward adversaries via two separate pathways. In rare situations, HP might cause players to lose their ethical compass, decreasing their chance of being pro-socially toward their opponent. Whereas, in other instances, HP may be weakly associated with a considerably higher frequency of PSB toward an opponent during the fight, potentially for self-representational purposes, such as favourably asserting control over others. Additional study is required to validate these arguments and conclusions. The two dimensions of pride were shown to be only slightly linked in this study. This link was weaker than that discovered in most previous research, which reported coefficients of varying degrees of statistical significance (Bureau et al., 2013; Robins et al., 2007) Nonetheless, the findings of this and other studies support the independence of these components of pride by revealing that they are not highly associated, and each has a distinct association with affective, cognitive, and behavioural outcomes (Robins et al., 2007).

The greater the relationships between AP and PSB and between HP, MD, and ASB, the more research on accomplishment goals orientation and MB is available. More precisely, as self-conscious feelings connected with accomplishment, pride appears to share certain conceptual connections with goal orientation toward completion, which may help explain these findings. For example, similar to the findings for AP in our research, task

goal orientations, defined as success and examining professionalism through self-referenced criteria (mastery of skills, efforts, and self-improvements) (Nicholls, 1989), are positively associated with PSB (Ian D. Boardley et al., 2009), but are only weakly related to MD and ASB (Stanger et al., 2013). In comparison to the findings in this study for HP, ego goal orientations, which refer to defining success in terms of other referenced criteria such as outperforming or superiority over others (Nicholls, 1989), be positively and significantly associated with ASB (Stanger et al., 2013)and MD (Ian David Boardley et al., 2010). In comparison, it has a tenuous or non-existent relationship with PSB (Stanger et al., 2013). While specific dimensions of achievement goal orientation and pride appeared to be conceptually related, these variables are theoretically and conceptually distinct. Because pride is an emotion experienced when one's attention is focused on identity objectives and self-representation (Robins et al., 2007), goal orientation indicates the criteria used to evaluate talents (Nicholls, 1989).

6. IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE

Some theoretical and practical consequences may be drawn from this research's findings. The outcomes of this study contribute to our knowledge of how pride and MB interact in sports. In future research, scholars may like to examine the ongoing functioning of aspects of pride and achieving goals in MB. Additionally, educators, coaches, and other sports professionals would be prudent to place a premium on AP over HP. Two suggestions can be given to aid in this endeavour. To begin, prior research has established that a caring and task-oriented motivational milieu, as opposed to an ego-centred one, is associated with increased AP and decreased HP (Fontena et al., 2017). As a result, cultivating a climate that values effort and commitment (such as a task-related environment), mutual respect and cares for one another (a caring environment), and ignoring an overemphasis on the social comparison (such as an ego-related environment) may encourage the pursuit of AP, resulting in positive MB. Second, because pride is the outcome of inferences, practitioners of applied sport may employ cognitive strategies such as identifying parts of training to aid MB management (Försterling et al., 1988). To oppose HP and promote AP, management should shift away from attributions that emphasise dominance and capability and toward attributions that place a premium on hard work, effort, and practice. Research supports the use of attribution support programmes to prevent teenage aggressiveness (Hudley et al., 1998) .As a result, these approaches may assist in regulating MB in sports.

7. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS OF THE STUDY

While the current research produced some exciting findings, they must be weighed against the study's limitations. We cannot make causal inferences about the direction of the observed correlations due to the cross-sectional nature of the research. While conceptual and empirical correlations were sequenced (Bandura, 2014; Robins et al., 2007), future research may benefit from experimental and longitudinal methodologies.

Furthermore, the current conclusions are supported by survey data. However, additional studies, particularly in MB, could use self-reporting and observational data (M. Kavussanu et al., 2009). Scholars should also look at alternative explanations for the observed connections. For instance, HP, which is associated with demonstrating dominance over others (Robins et al., 2007), may impair one's ability to accept and understand the perspectives of others, particularly in stressful situations.

Thus, empathy may be considered a possible underlying mechanism in future research. Scholars may, however, aim to examine the role of pride as a mediator in the connection between other possible variables and MB. Based on evidence linking self-aggrandising aspects of narcissism to HP (Lewis, 2008; Jessica L Tracy et al., 2007), scholars may examine whether HP moderates the relationship between narcissism and MB in sports. Previous research has demonstrated that narcissism positively correlates with ASB in sports (Jones et al., 2017). Additional research addressing initiatives that build a caring climate and competence and the effectiveness of strategies (e.g., attribute retention) for managing MB in sports via fluctuations in AP and HP would considerably add to the body of knowledge.

8. CONCLUSION

To summarise, the current research discovered that AP and HP exhibited distinct associations with PSB and ASB in athletics and that MD had a crucial role in the association between HP and MB. Further research may include developing and evaluating broader conceptual models that incorporate additional variables to better understand and explain the critical role of pride in MB in sports and developing and evaluating whether initiatives that promote AP and discourage HP can promote more responsive MB in sports.

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