Sports orientation is one of the important factors for improving an athlete’s performance in achieving sports achievements. This study aims to determine the effect of parental social support and gender on athlete’s sports orientation. Quantitative approach was used as the research method of this study with a correlational research design. The subjects of study were 86 athletes (53.49 % women) at the Students Sports Training Center (SSTC) of DKI Jakarta Province who were selected through convenience sampling technique. Demographic data questionnaires, Parents Social Support Scale and Sport Orientation Questionnaires were used as the measuring instruments. Data analysis uses linear regression (simple and multiple) techniques show results as follows: (1) Parental social support has a significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation ($t_{\text{count}} = 4.396 > t_{\text{table}} = 1.988$); (2) Gender does not have a significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation ($t_{\text{count}} = 1.891 < t_{\text{table}} = 1.988$); (3) Parental social support and gender can simultaneously predict athletes’ sports orientation ($F_{\text{count}} = 12.93 > F_{\text{table}} = 2.49$). The effective contribution of parental social support and gender simultaneously toward athletes’ sports orientation is 21.9 % and the rest is influenced by other factors outside the study. The role of parental social support (17.75 %) is more dominant than gender (4.14 %).

Keywords: Parental Social Support; Gender; Sports Orientation

INTRODUCTION

The quality of competitive individuals can be developed and improved through competitive sports activities. The quality of coaching conditions, the level of development, and the status of successful development in the field of sports can be identified through the graph of sports achievement (Handayani, Susilo, Chamami, Setiawan, & Nugroho, 2014) as a form of actualization of the accumulated results of the training process displayed according to the abilities by athletes (Sukadiyanto & Muluk, 2011). The Students Sports Training Center (SSTC) of DKI Jakarta Province is one of sports coaching programs in Indonesia. The quality of the performance of SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province in preparing junior athletes can be reviewed based on the achievements in a national sporting event for students namely Pekan Olahraga Pelajar Nasional (POPNAS) in 2011-2019 periods (Table 1). Data in Table 1 shows that SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province has not been able to move from runner-up position since POPNAS XIII/2015 to POPNAS XV/2019. Although this position is relatively satisfying, but SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province has not yet been able to achieve its target, namely returning to be a barometer of competitive sports coaching in the national scope.
Table 1. POPNAS Data for DKI Jakarta Province according to The Year of Championship, Champions, and Medal Achievements

| POPNAS | Champion | Gold | Silver | Bronze | Total |
|--------|----------|------|--------|--------|-------|
| XI/2011| 2        | 31   | 31     | 27     | 89    |
| XII/2013| 1       | 64   | 49     | 41     | 154   |
| XIII/2015| 2      | 57   | 40     | 39     | 136   |
| XIV/2017| 2       | 56   | 46     | 43     | 145   |
| XV/2019| 2        | 36   | 30     | 27     | 93    |

Psychological condition is one of the important factors that need to be taken into account in improving athletes’ performance, apart from relying on coaching in talent, endurance, strength, speed, and physical training (Sukadiyanto & Muluk, 2011; Shahbazi, Rahimizadeh, Rajabi, & Abdolmaleki, 2011). The research by Shahbazi et al. (2011) shows that high psychological preparedness can bring an athlete to win a silver medal at the Asian Games championship in 2010, even though the athlete’s physical fitness level was low. SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province has been trying to optimize the implementation of a psychological skills training program for athletes centered at Ragunan Sports School. The research by Hanif (2011) shows that the determinants of sports achievement for athletes of Ragunan Sports School from national level to international level are discipline, sportsmanship, a strong drive to achievement, be productive, and be professional. Based on interviews with 10 world class athletes (10 Olympic gold medalists) from Canada which were conducted by Durand-Bush and Salmela (in Baron-Thiene & Alfermann, 2015), it was concluded that orientation on competitiveness and motivation are prerequisites for achieving success in a career. Gould, Dieffenbach, and Moffet (in Baron-Thiene & Alfermann, 2015) found that strong drives for success (such as setting and achieving goals, possessing a strong work ethic) are important personal qualities of 10 Olympic gold medalists. Maksum (in Algani, Yuniardi, & Masturah, 2018) stated that one of the personality traits supporting sports achievement is the achievement ambition, which means a strong desire to achieve success.

An individual’s driving force that directs his or her behaviors oriented towards achieving of a success is generally called the achievement motivation (Schilling & Hyashi in Mili, 2016). Mc.Cleland formulated a theory of achievement motivation that can be applied in business and educational fields (Singh, 2011; Andersen, 2018; Susanto & Lestari, 2018). Several studies in the national scope have applied the concept of achievement motivation as suggested by Mc.Cleland in the field of sports (Mulyana, 2013; Muriawijaya, 2016; Setyaningrum, 2018; Basriyanto, Putra, & Thahroni, 2019). In fact, the concept of achievement motivation that specifically applied in the field of competitive sports was developed by Gill and Deeter in 1988, which was known as sports orientation (Chiu, Mahat, Marzuki, & Hua, 2014). The review of sports orientation aims to assess individual competence and evaluate the success achieved in sports (Gill & Deeter in Jamshidi, Hossier, Sajadi, Safari, & Zare, 2011). Based on that fact, this study explores athletes’ achievement motivation using the concept of sports orientation.

Sports orientation is formulated as three separate but interrelated traits, including: (1) Competitiveness orientation, namely the need that refers to the enjoyment of and desire to strive for success in competition; (2) Win orientation, namely the need that refers to an athlete’s feeling towards attaining ideal success in competition and focus on interpersonal comparison and winning; (3) Goal orientation, namely the need to focus on personal
performance standard and the desire to achieve predetermined goals (Gill, Kelley, Martin, & Caruso in Monacis, De Palo, & Sinatra, 2014).

Several sports psychologists have paid particular attention to the research of achievement orientation. Duda and Nicholls (in Sarmento, Peralta, Harper, Vaz, & Marques, 2018) developed an achievement goal theory in the field of sports to compile The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) as a measure of goal orientation, while Vealey (in Monacis et al., 2014) developed a Competitive Orientation Inventory (COI) to measure competitive orientation. Gill and Deeter (in Tojari, Manoucheri, & Manoucheri, 2013) managed to combine the three sports orientation traits in a measuring tool, namely the Sport Orientation Questionnaire, consisting of 25 items (13 competitiveness orientation items (α = 0.94), 6 win orientation items (α = 0.86), and 6 goal orientation items (α = 0.80)).

Based on the findings of previous studies, it can be seen that the determinants of sports orientation are emotional intelligence (Boroujerdi, Navkhasi, Akbar, Nejad, & Shasavari, 2015; Nezhad, Boroujerdi, & Shahbazi, 2018), self-esteem (Matmask & Ozrudi, 2019), type of sports (individual sports or team sports) (Singh & Singh, 2012; Monacis, Estrada, Sinatra, Tanucci, & De Palo, 2013), gender (Gill in Deaner, Balish, & Lombardo, 2016), coach competence (Chiu et al., 2014), sport education model (Ginanjar, 2018), and social support (Keegan, Spray, Harwood, & Lavallee, 2010; Chan, Lonsdale, & Fung, 2011). The literatures related to sports orientation in terms of athletes’ gender shows that female athletes are more goal oriented. While male athletes tend to be more competitive and winning oriented (Jamshidi et al., 2011; Findlay & Bowker in Deaner et al., 2016). The majority of female athletes prefer sports for recreational purposes because they do not like to compete in more competitive situations (Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher in Woodson, 2014), except for individuals who believe in their skills or work as professional athletes (Garret, Weinberger, & Johnson in Woodson, 2014; Houston, Carter, & Smither in Deaner et al., 2016). However, research done by Woodson (2014) shows conflicting results, namely there is no difference in the level of exercise orientation between male and female athletes. Thus, the role of gender factor in determining athletes’ sports orientation is still inconsistent, and as a result, it needs further investigation.

Another factor that was found to influence athletes’ sports orientation is social support which is defined as comfort, attention, appreciation or help that is felt by individuals from other persons (Cobb in Maslijah, 2011). Weiss (in Musabiq, Karimah, Geshica, & Mulyaningrum, 2017) formulated social support into six components, namely: (1) Guidance or information support in the form of suggestions (advice) for solving problems; (2) Instrumental support (reliable alliance) in the form of money, energy, time, and prizes; (3) Emotional support in the form of empathy, caring, and emotional closeness; (4) Reassurance of worth which is recognition of one’s competence, skills, and value by others; (5) Social integration, namely a sense of belonging in a group; (6) Opportunity for nurture which is a sense of responsibility for the welfare (well-being) of others. The review of the role of parental social support on athletes’ sports orientation has so far not been widely studied. Interestingly, parental achievement orientation has been explored in relation to athletes’ sports motivation (Gutiérrez, Caus, & Ruis, 2011). Previous researches have found that parents who are overly enthusiastic in providing support for athletes can actually damage the athletes’ careers because overly directing behavior can be understood as the source of stress and pressure (O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2011; Rodis, 2013; Knight, Dorsch, Osai, Haderlie, & Sellars, 2016). The
research was done by Sánchez-Miguel, Leo, Sanchez-Olivia, Amado, and Garcia-Calvo (2013) shows that pressure exerted by parents is associated with lower level of motivation and loss of athlete’s enthusiasm or commitment to perform sporting practice. The role of parental social support for athletes’ sports orientation is still unknown. Previous research has shown that parental behavior has an important influence on the development of self-potential and career advancement of talented young athletes (Lauer, Gould, Roman, & Pierce, 2010; Siekańska, 2012; Ross, Mallett, & Parkes, 2015; Knight, Little, Harwood, & Goodger, 2016), therefore, it is appropriate for parents to be involved in mental coaching programs. Parents play an important role as supporters of gifted athletes from childhood to adolescence in competitive sports (Harwood & Knight, 2014; Danioni, Barni, & Rosnati, 2017) starting from the initial stage of coaching to specialization (selection of priority sports) according to characteristics of individual development and physical growth which is recommended at the age of 6-18 years (Bompa in Jamalong, 2014). This study pioneered the initial measurement of the role of parental social support for sports orientation based on the perspective of adolescent athletes in SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province. Various theoretical reviews in the field of sports psychology can be used by professionals to improve athletes’ performance and achievement (Bennett & Maynard, 2016), including measurements of sports orientation which can be said to be relatively rare in Indonesia. So far, three studies have been found that measure athletes’ sports orientation in the field of sports education (Ginanjar, 2018 & 2019; Ginanjar, Suherman, Julianinte, & Hidayat, 2019).

Starting from the description above, the purpose of this study is to test empirically, among others: (1) The effect of parental social support on athletes’ sports orientation; (2) The effect of gender on athletes’ sports orientation; (3) The effect of parental social support and gender simultaneously on the athletes’ sports orientation.

METHODS
This study uses a quantitative approach with a correlative design. This study population was 271 (160 men and 111 women) SSTC athletes in DKI Jakarta Province who studied at Ragunan Sports School. The data collection process (distribution of measurement instruments) was carried out in two stages, namely: (1) The scale try out stage (try out research) involving 32 athletes (17 men and 15 women); (2) The hypothesis testing stage involving a sample of 86 athletes (40 men and 46 women) obtained from 6 categories of sports, namely: (1) Aquatic: Swimming; (2) Weightlifting; (3) Athletics: Short-distance running, relay running; (4) Archery; (5) Games: Basketball, indoor volleyball, sand volleyball, badminton, soccer, table tennis; (6) Martial art: Judo, karate, pencak silat, taekwondo. The determination of the sample size of 35 % of the total population refers to Arikunto’s (2013) recommendation which states that sampling needs to be balanced with accuracy in the data analysis process. The samples were taken using convenience sampling technique because the schedule of sports activities (training and competition) of athletes tends to vary in each sport so that it is difficult to find them simultaneously. The sampling technique was adjusted to the ability of the researcher in terms of time, effort, and funds. The selection of research samples was based on the following provisions: (1) Athletes were students of Ragunan Sports School with 12-18 years of age (mean = 15.10; standard deviation = 1.329); (2) Athletes lived in dormitories provided by SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province; (3) The athletes’ parents were still alive.
The measuring instruments used are the demographic data questionnaire, the Parental Social Support Scale, and the Sport Orientation Questionnaire which were presented sequentially in the form of a book which was packed with attractive pictures and colors, a neat layout, and clear writing (Times New Roman font with size 12), which each scale was accompanied by working instructions and working examples. Demographic data questionnaires were used to obtain information about athletes (name, gender, age, sports category, sports achievements, and aspirations) and parents’ personal data (age, occupation, and condition of parents whether they were alive or dead). Assessment on Parental Social Support Scale and Sport Orientation Questionnaire uses the Likert summated rating method. There are five response options (very appropriate, appropriate, doubtful, inappropriate, and very inappropriate) with scores 1 to 5 based on the type of item (favorable or unfavorable). Classification of the parental social support score and athlete’s sports orientation was divided into three categories (high, moderate, and low). The item quality testing procedure is empirically reviewed based on item analysis by calculating the total item correlation coefficient ($r_{tx} \geq 0.30$) using Pearson’s Product-moment correlation technique and estimating the internal consistency reliability coefficient ($r_{xx} \geq 0.80$) with the Cronbach’s Alpha formulation (Azwar, 2012).

The Parental Social Support Scale was used to reveal athletes’ perception of parental social support. The scale was modified from the Social Provision Scale compiled by Cutrona and Russel (in Nicholson, Brown, & Hoye, 2013; Musabiq, Assyahidah, Sari, Dewi, & Erdiaputri, 2018) which was conditioned for competitive sports. The higher the score obtained the better or more positive the social support received by athletes from their parents. The scale trial stage resulted 34 good quality items (27 favorable items and 7 unfavorable items). The total item correlation coefficient value moved from 0.330 to 0.750 and the reliability coefficient value was 0.929 (Table 2). Next, the item analysis stage and reliability test for hypothesis testing resulted good quality 23 items (22 favorable items and 1 unfavorable item). The total item correlation coefficient value moved from 0.302 to 0.640 and the reliability coefficient value was 0.874 (Table 2). The number of items and sample items of the six components of the Parental Social Support Scale can be seen in Table 3.

| Table 2. Results of Item Analysis and Scale Reliability Test of Parental Social Support |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Total Item Correlation Coefficient ($r_{tx} \geq 0.30$) | Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficient ($r_{xx} \geq 0.80$) |
| Try Out Stage | 0.330 – 0.750 | 0.929 |
| Hypothesis Testing Stage | 0.302 – 0.640 | 0.874 |
| Coefficient Categories | The value of item discrimination power is high | The reliability of the scale is very high |
Table 3. Components, Number of Items, and Sample Items of The Parental Social Support Scale

| Components                  | Number of Items | Sample Items                                                                 |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Information support         | 2               | “Parents are my best discussion partner for finding solutions”                |
| Instrumental support        | 3               | “My parents provide my need of sports equipment”                             |
| Emotional support           | 8               | “My parents calm me down when I feel nervous nearing competition”             |
|                             |                 | “My parents ask me on how much I prepare for the match day”                  |
| Reassurance of worth        | 3               | “My parents assure me that I have the potential to be superior”              |
| Social integration          | 6               | “My parents are one of my sources of inspiration while pursuing my profession as an athlete” |
|                             |                 | “I get excited when my parents are there when I compete”                    |
| Opportunity for nurturance  | 1               | “My parents consider that the athlete profession is a job to be proud of”    |

Total Number of Items 23

The Sport Orientation Questionnaire compiled by Gill and Deeter (in Tojari et al., 2013) was used to measure of athletes’ sports orientation. The scale adaptation process refers to the procedure proposed by Ramdhani (2012). The higher the score obtained indicates the stronger impetus possessed by an athlete to achieve his or her sports achievement. The scale trial stage produced 25 favorable items of good quality as evidenced by the absence of items that were dropped at this stage. The total item correlation coefficient value moved from 0.319 to 0.704 and the reliability coefficient value was 0.906 (Table 4). The stage of item analysis and reliability test for hypothesis testing produced 22 favorable items of good quality. The correlation coefficient value of total item moved from 0.355 to 0.703 and the reliability coefficient value was 0.896 (Table 4). The number of items and item examples from traits Sport Orientation Questionnaires are presented in Table 5.

Table 4. Results of Item Analysis and Reliability Test of Sport Orientation Questionnaire

| Coefficient Categories | Total Item Correlation Coefficient \((r_{ix} \geq 0.30)\) | Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficient \((r_{xx} \geq 0.80)\) |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| Try Out Stage          | 0.319 – 0.704                                           | 0.906                                                         |
| Hypothesis Testing     | 0.355 – 0.703                                           | 0.896                                                         |
| Coefficient Categories | The value of item discrimination power is high          | The reliability of the scale is very high                     |
Table 5. Traits, Number of Items, and Sample Items of Sport Orientation Questionnaire

| Traits                  | Number of Items | Sample Items                        |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------|
| Competitiveness         | 12              | "I am a competitive person"         |
| orientation             |                 |                                     |
| Win orientation         | 4               | "I hate to lose"                    |
| Goal orientation        | 6               | "Performing to the best of my ability is very important to me" |
| **Total Number of Items** | **22**         |                                     |

Descriptive statistics, independent sample t-test, and linear regression (simple and multiple) were used for data analysis technique. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions version 25 application was used for research data processing. Based on the results of the classical assumption test, it can be concluded that the regression model can be applied because it has been able to meet the requirements of the Best Linear Unbiased Estimator, namely: (1) Residual data is normally distributed (p = 0.596; p > 0.05); (2) There is no multicollinearity between independent variables (X₁ = parental social support; X₂ = gender) because the value of the Variance of Inflation Factor (VIF) is 1.022 (VIF < 10) and the tolerance value is 0.979 (tolerance > 0.1); (3) There is a linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables (Y = athletes’ sports orientation) (p = 0.000; p < 0.05); (4) The research model is free from heteroscedasticity problems because the data do not form a certain pattern or data are scattered irregularly (Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Heteroscedasticity Test Scatter Diagram](image)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of descriptive statistical analysis of sports orientation scores based on the gender of athletes include: (1) All male athletes (40 people = 100 %) had sports orientation scores in the high category. The majority of female athletes (45 people = 97.83 %) had sports orientation scores in the high category and only 1 person (2.17 %) had a sports orientation score in the moderate category; (2) The average score (mean) of athletes’ sports orientation (male and female) belongs to the high category. This means that, on average, athletes had a strong impetus to achieve sports performance (Table 7). The frequency distribution of the athletes’ sports orientation can be seen in table 6.
Table 6. The Frequency Distribution of the Level of Athletes’ Sports Orientation

| Category of Sports Orientation Scores | Interval Class | Gender          |          |          |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|----------|----------|
|                                      |                | Man (Percentage) | Women (Percentage) |
| High                                 | 80.66 ≤ x ≤ 110| 40 (100 %)      | 45 (97.83 %)  |
| Moderate                              | 51.33 ≤ x < 80.66 | -              | 1 (2.17 %)   |
| Low                                  | 22 ≤ x < 51.33  | -               | -         |

Table 7. Results of the Descriptive Statistical Analysis of Athletes’ Sports Orientation Scores

| Gender | Min | Max | Mean | Mean’s Category | Standard Deviation |
|--------|-----|-----|------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Man    | 82  | 110 | 100.23 | High            | 8.204             |
| Women  | 75  |     | 96.20 |                 | 7.904             |

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis above are in line with the observations of SSTC sports psychologists of DKI Jakarta Province who concluded that the level of athletes’ (male and female) sports orientation was high, which is indicated by characteristics: (1) Having the courage to compete; (2) Having targets and strategies for achievement; (3) Being able to maintain the work quality and diligently developing personal skills through training programs provided by trainers; (4) Being able to complete challenging tasks and being able to manage social and physical environments by following recommendations given by a team of experts (coach, psychologists, nutritionists, therapists). These characteristics are in line with the views of previous sports researchers (Gill & Deeter in Jamshidi et al., 2011; Gould et al., in Baron-Thiene & Alfermann, 2015).

Referring to the results of the analysis of independent sample t-test, it can be concluded that there is a difference in the level of sports orientation between male and female athletes ($t_{count} = 2.317 > t_{table} = 1.988; p = 0.023 < 0.05; Table 8$). Male athletes’ sport orientation average score (mean = 100.23) is higher than that of female (mean = 96.20) (Table 7). The results of the study contradict Woodson (2014), but are in line with Kazak’s (2012) findings. The difference in the level of sports orientation in this study is predominantly influenced by athletes’ competitiveness orientation ($t_{count} = 2.673 > t_{table} = 1.988; p = 0.009 < 0.05$). The average score of male athletes’ competitiveness orientation (mean = 54.63) is higher than that of female athletes (mean = 52). This finding can be supported by previous literature studies which concluded that male athletes tend to be more competitive than female athletes (Frick, 2011; Jamshidi et al., 2011; Sutter & Rutzler in Woodson, 2014) which is influenced by differences in physical conditions (hormones) (Handelsman, 2017) and gender issues (Ballantyne, Kayser, & Grootegoed, 2011), sports motivation (Deaner et al., 2016), and competition opportunities (Deaner, Geary, Puts, Ham, Kruger, Fles, Winegard, & Grandis, 2012).

Table 8. Analysis Results of Independent Sample T-test of Sports Orientation Viewed from Gender

| Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | T-test for Equality of Means |
|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| F                                      | Sig. | T      | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| .008                                   | .930 | 2.317  | 84 | .023            |
The simple linear regression analysis shows that gender partially has a significant effect on the orientation of athletes’ competitiveness ($t_{\text{count}} = 2.279 > t_{\text{table}} = 1.988; p = 0.025 < 0.05$). However, gender is found to have no significant effect on the three traits of athletes’ sports orientation ($t_{\text{count}} = 1.891 < t_{\text{table}} = 1.988; p = 0.062 > 0.05$; Table 11). This finding is in accordance with Woodson’s (2014) investigation and the results of interviews with SSTC sports psychologists of DKI Jakarta Province on July 17, 2018 and December 18, 2018 which concluded that in general there is no difference in sports orientation between male and female athletes because each athlete has targets and strategies to develop their self-potential (goal orientation), to believe in the skills that they possess to achieve achievement (win orientation), and are ready to compete in national to international scopes (competitiveness orientation).

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis of the parental social support scores show that the majority of athletes (83 people = 96.51 %) gained parental social support scores in the high category and 3 people (3.49 %) gained parental social support scores in the moderate category. The standard deviation score is 9.073. The average athletes (male and female) (mean = 98.92) assessed that their parents had been able to take good responsibility in supporting sports activities. The frequency distribution of the level of parental social support and the results of descriptive statistical analysis of the parental social support scores can be seen in table 9.

### Table 9. The Results of Descriptive Statistical Analysis and the Frequency Distribution of The Level of Parental Social Support

| Category of Parental Social Support Scores | Interval Class | Frequency (Percentage) | Min | Max | Mean | Mean’s Category |
|-------------------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-----|-----|------|----------------|
| High                                      | $84.34 \leq x \leq 115$ | 83 (96.51 %) | 79 | 115 | 98.92 | High           |
| Moderate                                  | $53.67 \leq x < 84.34$ | 3 (3.49 %) | 79 | 115 | 98.92 | Low            |
| Low                                       | $23 \leq x < 53.67$ | - | 79 | 115 | 98.92 | Low            |

The simple linear regression analysis shows that parental social support can partially be the significant predictor of athletes’ sport orientation ($t_{\text{count}} = 4.396 > t_{\text{table}} = 1.988; p = 0.000 < 0.05$; Table 11). Teques, Serpa, Rosado, Silva, and Calmeiro (2018) stated that the effective parental social support pattern can be reviewed through parental involvement in an athlete’s sports activities as role model, development monitor, and motivator. Based on the results of previous researches (Harwood & Knight, 2014; Teques et al., 2018) and the results of interviews with SSTC psychologists of DKI Jakarta Province, it can be concluded that parents were considered to have been involved effectively as monitors of athletes’ development and motivators shown through the following parenting style characteristics: (1) Parents are able to see the right sports opportunities and provide the type of support needed by athletes (for example: recognizing athletes’ talents and interests from their early age and supporting appropriate sports specialties so that athletes can optimize themselves and contribute to other parties, and giving praise for their performance and their achievements). This parenting is component forms of opportunity
for nurture and reassurance of worth; (2) Parents are able to develop healthy relationships with other parties that contribute to the development of a significant athlete’s self-quality (coaches, medical teams, and boarding officers). Parents are willing to work with coaches and medical teams to monitor an athlete’s activity when out of reach of a coach or when leaving boarding house and returning to live with parents (for example: supervising an athlete’s routines to conform to a diet or physical exercise program established by the coach and medical team, supervise an athlete’s leisure or playing activities so as not to affect rest time, strive to provide nutritional support (food, drinks, and supplements) for an athlete according to their available funds, and attend training sessions or competitions if needed). Parents are able to manage emotional demands of a competition (for example: not showing behavior that tends to suppress or intimidate an athlete according to their expectations as parents) (Nunomura & Oliveira, 2013; Teques et al., 2019). This parenting is component forms of social integration, instrumental support, information support, and emotional support.

The component of parental social support that gives the largest effective contribution is the opportunity for nurture (9.16%). This is presumably because the level of social status of the majority of athletes belongs to middle to lower class which is influenced by profession of the parents (such as farmers, laborers, entrepreneurs, teachers, and housewives). Educational scholarships in academics and sports for athletes if they can win competitions and maintain their achievements (the availability of advanced coaching programs for senior athletes), adequate sports supporting facilities (dormitories and sports equipment), and salary obtained from the athlete profession are considered as factors of easing the family’s financial burdens. Information support is the component of parental social support that has the smallest contribution (-0.84%). Even if the value is minus, effective contribution uses absolute value. The low effective contribution of information support is allegedly caused by athletes that frequently make coordination more with coaches or medical teams (psychologists, doctors, nutritionists, therapists) when they encounter problems in sports during training and competition processes, and athletes tend to seek information independently through print media (Muhaimin, 2011) and various new internet-based media (Ababil, Adi, & Fadhli, 2019; Adityawan, Hendriana, & Destian, 2019). The psychologists of DKI Jakarta Province stated that all parties who support the sports organization (coaches, sports psychologists, and boarding officers) have played their effective role as substitute figures for parents in providing support during the training and competition processes. This is considered to be the trigger for the greater role of social support from sports organizations towards athletes’ sports orientation than parental social support. When experiencing physical injury or feeling tired and bored with the training process, athletes are always advised to focus on the goals that have been set and continue to strive to achieve those goals until they become winners. Athletes have trusted coaches and sports psychologists as discussion partners to find solutions to their problems. The effective contribution of each component of parental social support can be seen in table 10.
Table 10. The Effective Contribution of the Components of Parental Social Support Towards Sports Orientation

| Components             | Standardized Regression Coefficient (Beta) | Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient | Regression Determination Coefficient ($R^2$) | Effective Contribution (%) |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Information support    | -0.024                                     | 0.352                                  | 0.2522                                      | -8.45                     |
| Instrumental support   | 0.023                                      | 0.261                                  | 0.18                                         | 0.67                      |
| Emotional support      | 0.05                                       | 0.37                                   | 1.85                                         | 1.85                      |
| Reassurance of worth   | 0.158                                      | 0.401                                  | 0.04                                         | 6.33                      |
| Social integration     | 0.211                                      | 0.385                                  | 1.16                                         | 8.12                      |
| Opportunity for nurture| 0.253                                      | 0.362                                  | 1.30                                         | 9.16                      |
| **Total Effective Contribution (%)** |                                      |                                        |                                              | **25.22**               |

The linear regression model equation for this study can be formulated as follows: $Y = 58.367 + 0.387 X_1 + 3.011 X_2$. This means that every increase in the amount of one unit of parental social support for female athletes then the sports orientation will increase by 0.387, and for each increase in the amount of one unit of parental social support for male athletes then the sports orientation will increase by $0.387 + 3.011$ (Table 11). Based on multiple linear regression analysis, it can be concluded that parental social support and gender simultaneously have a significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation ($F_{count} = 12.933 > F_{table} = 2.49; p = 0.000 < 0.05$; Table 11). The effective contribution of parental social support and gender factors simultaneously in predicting athletes’ sports orientation is 21.9 % (adjusted $R^2$ value = 0.219; Table 11), while the rest is influenced by other factors outside this study (coach competence (Chiu et al., 2014), peer social support (Keegan et al., 2010; Chan et al., 2011), and emotional intelligence (Boroujerdi et al., 2015; Nezhad et al., 2018).

Research by Chan et al. (2011) concluded that athletes’ age appears to be a moderating variable that significantly influences social environment on the sports experience of young athletes. The coach social support was found to be more influential for increasing athletes’ efforts and enjoyment in their childhood, as well as the development of their competence in adolescence compared to social support from parents and peers. Soyer, Sari, and Talaghir (2014) found that the democratic leadership style and social support of a coach were positively related to athletes’ attitude of avoiding failure and desire to strive for success (sports achievement). The effective contribution of parental social support factor (17.75 %) is more dominant than that of athletes (4.14 %) as shown in Table 11. An effective parental social support is needed as a supporting factor for strengthening athletes’ sports motivation (Gutiérrez et al., 2011; Harwood & Knight, 2014; Lienhart, Nicaise, Martinent, Guillet-Descas, & Bois, 2019; Lisinskiene, May, & Lochbaum, 2019) to complete a coach’s coaching competency.
| Model                  | Unstandardized Coefficients | T     | Sig. |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------|------|
| (Constant)            |                            |       |      |
| Parental Social Support (X₁) | 0.387                     | 4.396 | 0.000|
| Gender (X₂)           | 3.011                      | 1.891 | 0.062|

Simultaneous Significance Test Results

| Regression (X₁ + X₂) | Sum of Squares | F   | Sig. | Adjusted R² | Effective Contribution (%) |
|----------------------|----------------|-----|------|-------------|---------------------------|
| Parental Social Support and Gender | 1374.177       | 12.933 | 0.000⁹ | 0.219       | 17.75                    |
|                      |                |      |      |             | 4.14                      |

**CONCLUSION**

Based on the results of the analysis and discussion, it can be concluded that: (1) Parental social support has a partially significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation; (2) Gender does not have a partial significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation. The difference is found in the level of competitiveness orientation which male athletes have a higher level of sports orientation than that of women; (3) Parental social support and gender simultaneously have a significant effect on athletes’ sports orientation. The effective contribution of parental social support and gender factors simultaneously in determining athletes’ sports orientation is 21.9%. The influence of parental social support is more dominant (17.75%) than that of gender (4.14%).

The results of this study can be used as a theoretical basis and a comparison material for professionals involved in the development program of athletes at SSTC of DKI Jakarta Province in conducting the performance evaluation process and performance of athletes because the concepts and measuring instruments have been adapted to the field of sports to be able to explore every factor specifically. Further investigations hopefully can test and/or compare the levels of athletes’ sports orientation that are reviewed based on social support of other parties (coaches, organizational managements, peers), age category (adolescent and adult), comparison in certain sports categories (contact sports: martial art; semi-contact sports: basketball, football; non-contact sports: aquatic, archery, athletics, badminton, volleyball, weightlifting), experience of competing according to championship levels (regional, national and international), and comparing the level of three sports orientation traits. Prior monitoring of the schedule of athletes’ academic calendar and athletes’ sports schedule are needed to facilitate the process of research data collection.

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