

NATIONAL SPORTS ACADEMY “VASIL LEVSKI”

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY, PEDAGOGY AND SOCIOLOGY

VASILENA PAVLOVA MATAKIEVA

A B S T R A C T

of a dissertation

for the award of the educational and scientific degree “Doctor”

**TV COVERAGE OF OLYMPIC GAMES –
PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS**

Advisor:

Prof. Tatiana Stancheva Yancheva, PhD

Reviewers:

Prof. Rositsa Tsarova, PhD

Assoc. Prof. Ina Vladova, PhD

S o f i a , 2023

The dissertation was discussed at internal defense before the enlarged scientific board of Department “Psychology, Pedagogy and Sociology” on 21.12.2022 and was scheduled for official defense.

The work contains a total of 144 standard pages (including bibliography), illustrated with 21 tables and 15 figures. The bibliography contains 150 references, including 45 in Cyrillic and 105 in Latin.

Scientific jury for the public defence procedure

Internal members:

1. Prof. Mikhail Zhivkov Georgiev, PhD
 2. Assoc. Prof. Ina Georgieva Vladova, PhD
- Reserve member. Prof. Boriana Angelova Igova, PhD

External members:

1. Prof. Rositsa Tsarova, PhD, NSA
2. Prof. Tsvetko Tsvetkov, PhD, NSA
3. Prof. Julia Mutafova, PhD, NSA

The public defense of the dissertation will take place on March 15, 2023 at 14.00 in Hall A3 of the NSA "Vasil Levski" (Studentski Grad) at a meeting of the specialized scientific jury. The dissertation defense materials are available in the library of NSA Vasil Levski.

INTRODUCTION

From a healthy mind in a healthy body and the completely altruistic ideas of the father of modern Olympic Games, Baron de Coubertin, through cosmic gains and hyper-interest, to the closed-door Olympic Games and 89 percent dissent of the host city residents to receive the biggest sports forum on the planet. Where is the Olympics model going and what will that entail?

Today, the Olympic Games are what they are thanks to the media, mainly the electronic ones – the television and the internet heralds of the new time. But how long can media fuel interest with viewers becoming more and more apathetic to the show. Barely 17 million in the United States watched the opening ceremony of the latest Olympics, Tokyo 2020. Five years ago, at the Rio launch, overseas TV viewers were 26.7 million, and nine years ago in London – a staggering 40 million. What do the media do – they sell a show and try to make it unique, marvelous, amazing. They show the athletes, the venues, take pictures of the stars, their relatives and friends, their training, their preparation, tell stories about their lives, their loves and their sufferings, make essays, documentaries and historical films and all the formats they need to secure the audience's loyalty. And they try to do it in their own style, to be inimitable and unique.

And when it is time for the competitions per se – the media are there. Long before the athletes and long after it's all over.

They scout, plan, pay for the best remote studios, for their own territories at the address of the games, for their own commentator positions and off tubes. They assemble their program, subject, of course, to "His Majesty the Viewer." The media have whole armies of journalists, reporters, cameramen, directors, sound engineers, producers, IT specialists, video editors and all sorts of other units that deliver the picture to the input of television receivers. The rules of the media Olympics during the sports Olympics are the same for everyone. Both the big and the small, the rich and the poor among the media are doing the best they can to hold viewers and “sell” their product in an attempt to recoup some of the money paid for the OG rights, but mostly to strengthen the interest in their TV channel and secure the loyalty of the television audience.

What is the "price" paid by those involved in the production of the show? The return on the capital invested tends to zero and very often it is even in the negative numbers range. It is a universal truth, as regards the territory of Bulgaria, that there is no profit in broadcasting the Olympic Games, on the contrary. This is the only reason why the market is focused only on the public television, which over the years

has been engaged in an unequal battle in the global market, where the financial parameters for acquiring the rights to the Olympic Games are quite different.

What are the implications for the human resource that presses the "Olympic mode" button and spends in this universe its always scarce time of nearly a calendar month? This dissertation analyses research data from the last time BNT had an Olympic Games broadcast - Rio de Janeiro, 2016.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE PROBLEM

The theoretical baseline of the research is presented in several paragraphs. The first one: **I.1., Historical overview of the television coverage of the Olympic Games**, examines the relationship and partnership between the media and the Olympic Games, divided conventionally into 5 periods.

The first four are according to John Slater (1998), and we add a fifth. Slater calls the first period ***Pre-Television***, or it is the time from the rebirth of the Olympic movement up to 1932. This movement, new for its time, needed public awareness, attention, and support. That was achieved through reporting of the activities in the mass media – newspapers and magazines. Coubertin and his associates hoped that the media would spread and promote the message of Olympism. The Olympic movement needed the media's support. At the same time, the media themselves needed current events that can be presented in an attractive way to intrigue their readers.

The second period was called ***"Television before satellites"*** (1936-1964). Typical of the time, the Olympic movement lacked sufficient financial resources and its leaders turned to television to provide revenue. The interest was mutual. Television paid fees for the right to broadcast the Games for the sole purpose of attracting more television viewers. Bigger viewership also increased the broadcaster's revenue. The Olympic Games and Television first met in Berlin on August 1, 1936. The games of the XI Olympics were turned into a propaganda tool by the Nazi government. The idea was to highlight Germany's technological advances. The cameras already created by Russian engineer Vladimir Zworykin and Philco Farnsworth were adapted for the purpose. Zworykin invented the television transmitting and receiving system and in 1929 he created the kinescope, which is part of all television sets (Britannica.com; Rajchman, 2006) (Official Report, 1936).

The TV broadcast was carried out jointly with the German Posts and the companies Telefunken and Fernseh. A team of 6 people worked at the Olympic Stadium with Fernseh's Farnsworth camera. The Berlin and Potsdam cinemas showcased 138 hours viewed by a total of 162,228 people who bought tickets and

were privileged to be the first TV, Olympic viewers. The next television broadcast came 12 years later, because of World War II. In 1948, the relationship along the sports-media axis was radically different. Selected sports events were first broadcast with more than one camera in London. Viewers were within a modest 50-mile radius outside the English capital. However, their number was epic for the revolutionary marvel of technology – 500 thousand people watched the 64 hours of television program shown.

In Rome in 1960 we had the first broadcast in Europe - 18 countries received a live signal. The races were shown on record in the USA, Canada, and Japan.

In 1964, in Tokyo, 104 broadcasting organisations broadcast in 45 countries around the world. Colour TV and headsets appeared.

The third period according to Slater (1998) is "*Satellite television before the Internet*" – 1968-1988. The early 1960s saw the advent of satellite communications and that was a turning point in the relationship between the Olympic movement and Television. It is this connection that made the great transformation of the Games. Advanced satellite connections enabled television broadcasting across the ocean and thus expanded the real-time distribution of the Games around the world (Wenn, 1995; Downing, 1996; Slater, 1998).

In Mexico in 1968 we had Worldwide Distribution of Television, 720 hours broadcast directly through Eutelsat, 600 million viewers, and 4,377 journalists in the field.

The fourth period is characterized by *complete television dominance*, and is so named by Slater (Slater, 1998). Computers and the Internet were changing the media environment, becoming a threat to the classical media. At the same time, the IOC decided to stop holding winter and summer OG in the same year.

In Barcelona, there were almost 13,000 journalists, there was a press center in every facility, the Amis computer system was introduced – a digital database with terminals at all key positions where it could be used by journalists. The system offered: Calendar; Results; News; Biographies of athletes; Program of events; Information about the rules in individual sports, etc. Sponsorship revenues already exceeded those from TV rights.

In Atlanta, 1996, Sydney, 2000, and Athens, 2004, the refinement of television broadcasting continued. The number of specialized cameras increased, robotic cameras and digitized broadcasts emerged.

The fifth period began in Beijing with the production of the TV signal in high resolution and complete digitalization. Ninety-one channels in the Chinese capital were broadcast in HD and 5.1 surround sound. Super-Slow-Motion cameras now

shot 5,000 frames per second. There was a 24-hour Olympic news channel in support of electronic media, TV production exceeded 5,000 hours in HD quality and reached 357,000 hours. The period is associated with Internet streaming and the so-called VOD /video on demand/. The 3D picture preceded the 4K one. 237 territories worldwide had direct television access. The content of the Olympic Games was available anytime on any device.

Parallel to the rise in the license price, the number of TV viewers also increased. Another trend is the increasing number of accredited journalists and media staff. From Barcelona in 1992 to London in 2012, the number almost doubled to over 24,000 (Chappelet, 2014). This makes more than two media representatives per participating athlete.

Television innovation has been helping more than 3 billion viewers feel the emotion of the Olympic Games for more than 80 years. In every edition of the Games, ever higher standards are pursued and new techniques and technologies are developed to enable audiences to empathise and feel the greatest sporting achievement of humanity.

Paragraph **I.2.** of the dissertation discusses the **specific features of sports journalism**. It describes the socially significant activity of collecting, processing, and disseminating up-to-date sports information, which is carried out by sports journalists through the mass communication channels. The requirements for media representatives are discussed, including: working with statistics and statistical analysis, covering more than one job position, good training and being well informed, general and specialized knowledge, good language skills, widely cultured, good vocabulary range, correct diction, good communication skills and teamwork. The specifics of the working environment as well as the factors influencing the activities of sports journalists are analyzed.

Paragraph **I.3** addresses **Workplace Stress** which occurs when the demands of a person's job are not matched to their abilities, aptitudes or skills and challenge their ability to cope with the challenges presented. These demands can be of different nature: quantitative demands (amount of work done, time constraints), cognitive demands (complexity of the work) or emotional demands (requirement to show empathy or requirement to refrain from showing emotions at work). Stress and its level depend on various factors, which can be divided into two groups: internal and external. The internal ones include heredity, habits, coping techniques, emotional stability, experience.

Paragraph, **I.4. Psychological aspects of media coverage of the Olympic Games**, analyzes the psychological factors influencing the activities and behaviour of journalists who cover the Olympic Games. The extreme working and living conditions in which they are, albeit for a short period of time, the constantly changing situations and the need for prompt and adequate decisions and actions require a number of mental skills - maintaining mental stability, gathering one's strength, coping with stress, behaviour control and regulation, etc.

The next paragraph, **I.4.1. Coping strategies**, discusses the strategies applied to cope with stress, to adapt or change behavior in order to better manage the situation. These are conscious psychological efforts to improve coping. Problem-focused strategies aimed at active coping (cognitive and behavioural efforts) and emotion-focused strategies related to passive coping (regulating emotional response and reducing emotional damage) are analysed.

I.4.2. Anxiety, examines the impact of anxiety on the whole person and its manifestation as physiological, behavioural, and psychological responses. At the physiological level, somatic manifestations are reported - rapid pulse, nausea, sweating, dry mouth, muscle tension. At the behavioral level, anxiety can block the abilities to act and handle the situation. On a psychological level, anxiety is associated with feelings of restlessness, which may give rise to a variety of fears.

In the field of sports, there is a lot of research on competitive state anxiety. Based on the analysis of anxiety and competitive state anxiety in sports, similar characteristics of "on-air state anxiety" are derived. In the field of sports journalism, no similar studies have been found in the literature available to us. "On-air state anxiety" is a concept that has become necessary in the work of television journalists. It is characterized by the tension during preparation and during the waiting time before going on air. Television journalists have different manifestations of "on-air state anxiety," which we can equate as parameters to competitive state anxiety. It is a state of the organism in which there is a tendency to perceive the on-air situation as threatening and the response is situational anxiety.

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH DESIGN

II.1. Hypotheses

The theoretical analysis made, as well as our own long experience in covering the Olympic Games, give us grounds to formulate the following hypotheses:

- We assume that there are specific stressors that affect the behavior of journalist teams who cover the Olympic Games.

- We hypothesize that journalists' stress associated with direct coverage of Olympic Games affects preferred coping strategies.
- We suggest that the confidence experienced by members of the journalist team covering the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro affects stress management strategies.

II.2. PURPOSE and OBJECTIVES of the research

The purpose of this study is to examine the main stressors, anxiety levels and preferred stress management strategies of journalist teams covering the Olympic Games.

In order to achieve the purpose and test the formulated hypotheses, we set the following Research **Objectives**:

- ✓ Study and periodize the television coverage of the Olympic Games.
- ✓ Outline the main stress factors in Olympics coverage.
- ✓ Investigate journalists' anxiety and preferred coping strategies, revealing their specifics according to gender, age, profession, journalist length of service and experience in Olympic Games coverage.
- ✓ Explore the relationships between the examined variables.

II.3. Subject and object of research

The subject of this research study are stressors, anxiety and preferred coping strategies of journalists covering OG.

The object of research are 36 members of the journalist team covering the XXXI Summer Olympic Games, Rio de Janeiro, 2016 – journalists, operators, technicians. The sample is exhaustive.

For the purposes of the study, the respondents were divided into two groups according to their involvement in the coverage of the Games: sports journalists (n=18), who are the "face" of television and the identifiable individuals for the TV audience, and the group of people directly involved in the technical coverage, the people behind the scenes - cameramen, editors, technicians (n=18). Of these, 12 were women and 24 men.

The respondents were divided into 3 age groups: 20-40 years (n=17); 41-50 years (n=11); 51+ years (n=8). In this research, the representatives of the first age group make up the highest relative share.

There are also 3 groups depending on the length of service:

- length of service up to 10 years (n=12);
- length of service 11-20 years (n=9);
- length of service 21-40 years (n=15).

The representatives of the group with the highest length of service 21-40 years make up the largest relative share (41.7%, n=15). The respondents with the lowest length of service (up to 10 years) are 12 (33.3%), and the group with length of service 11-20 years account for the lowest relative share (25%).

II.4. Research methodology

In order to achieve the research purpose and objectives, a complex methodology has been applied, which includes:

1. Analysis of Literary Sources

150 literary sources in Cyrillic and Latin on the topic of the dissertation were studied. Specialized literature on Olympic Games, their television coverage, specifics of the journalism profession, specifics of stress and its accumulation in journalists, etc., has been analyzed.

2. Questionnaire on occupational and demographic characteristics.

The questionnaire was used to outline the occupational and demographic profile of the respondents - gender, age, length of service, position held, previous experience in covering summer and winter Olympics.

3. Methodology of research on the sources of stress for journalists covering major sports events:

A specially developed methodology was used to study the sources of stress for journalists covering major sports events.

The methodology includes 24 items related to potential sources of occupational stress for sports journalists. Respondents rated each attribute using a 5-point Likert-type scale as follows: 1 - does not affect me at all; 2 - rather does not affect me; 3 - I don't know; 4 - rather affects me and 5 - very much affects me.

4. Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2, (CSAI-2):

The anxiety inventory is one of the most common anxiety evaluation tools in sports psychology (Martens, Vealey & Burton, 1990). The inventory was adapted to the Bulgarian conditions by G. Domuschieva-Rogleva (2007).

The inventory contains 26 items grouped into three subscales: cognitive anxiety (CA), somatic anxiety (SA), and self-confidence (SC).

Cognitive anxiety includes negative expectations and possible consequences of failure, lack of concentration before and during performance.

Somatic anxiety is related to the physiological effects of the stressful event and is associated with increased agitation and tension and the corresponding physiological effects – palpitations, rapid breathing, sweating, muscle tension, etc.

Self-confidence reflects the degree of certainty and confidence in one's own qualities and abilities to achieve success.

According to Domuschieva-Rogleva (2009), CSAI-2 is an appropriate and theoretically sound tool for measuring competitive state anxiety in sports. Given that this test measures competitive state anxiety in athletes, some of the items were edited for the needs of this study because the respondents are not current athletes.

Edited items:

ITEM # 1:

"I'm worried about the outcome of this sporting event" was edited to "I'm worried about the upcoming Olympic Games".

Item #10: in Domuschieva-Rogleva's test (2007) is "I worry that I may lose", and in this study it is edited to: "I worry that I may embarrass myself".

The first study was conducted just before the team's departure for Rio de Janeiro.

Anxiety among sports journalists and the technical team was also examined after the Games. In the second study, we edited the items – the statements are in the past tense.

A four-point Likert-type scale is used for assessment – from 1 – not at all relevant to me now to 4 – totally relevant to me.

5. Questionnaire on the preferred coping strategies (Coping Orientation to Problems Experienced scale – COPE-1, (Carver, Weintraub, Scheier, 1989).

The scale was developed on the theoretical fundamentals of Lazarus' stress management model and Carver and Shearer's behaviour self-regulation model. The test evaluates the preferred stress management strategies used by people. The questionnaire was adapted to the Bulgarian conditions by Rusinova-Christova, Karastoyanov (2000) and was optimized for sports practice by Georgiev et al., 2003.

It includes 53 items organized into 14 subsets defining coping strategies:

- active coping – targeted actions and efforts to solve the problem;
- planning – considering a system of actions and their arrangement to cope with stress;
- suppression of competing activities – attention is focused on the current stressor, anything else that leads to distraction is rejected;
- restraint – avoid hasty action and wait for the right moment;
- seeking instrumental support – advice, information, help;
- seeking emotional support – sympathy, understanding, moral support;
- positive rethinking and development – when faced with a stressor, trying to break the situation down into positive terms;

- coming to terms with or acceptance of what has happened – without attempts to change;
- turning to religion;
- focusing on emotions and their expression – the attention of the individual focuses on the stress factor, giving expression to the feelings that have arisen;
- denial or non-acceptance – occurs in the primary assessment and is expressed in individual's disbelief;
- behavioral withdrawal, disengagement – refusing to make efforts to cope with the stress factor;
- mental disengagement – purposeful disengagement from the problem and focus on a wide range of topics;
- use of alcohol or drugs.

These fourteen strategies, after further factor analysis, have been reduced to three generalized secondary factors:

- cognitive engagement (CE);
- emotional engagement (EE)
- cognitive and emotional disengagement (CED) (Georgiev et al., 2009).

Cognitive engagement includes the strategies: active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, positive rethinking and development, and restraint. It is associated with activity, focused actions to cope with stress, thinking and planning the necessary actions and ways to cope, disregarding the causes that make coping difficult.

The second factor, emotional engagement, involves strategies related to the need for emotional response, seeking support and advice from others, sympathy and empathy.

The third factor includes the strategies of denial or non-acceptance, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, alcohol, and drug use, coming to terms with or acceptance of what has happened, and turning to religion.

The questionnaire explores people's behavior and coping strategies when confronted with difficult and stressful events in their lives. Individuals respond differently when faced with difficulties and unpleasant events. Before completing the questionnaire, the respondents were instructed that there were no right and wrong answers, and they had to specify what they usually do under severe stress. Each of the statements is evaluated using a 4-step Likert scale as follows: 1 – I never do it; 2 – I do it rarely; 3 – I do it often; 4 – I do it very often or almost always.

6. Mathematical and statistical methods for processing and analysis of the results.

The empirical data from the study were entered and processed using the statistical data processing software SPSS Statistics 25.0. The following statistical methods were used to process the data:

- Analysis of the reliability of the tools used (Cronbach's α to measure the internal consistency of the scales and establish their validity);
- Frequency analysis;
- Variance analysis;
- Correlation analysis;
- Stepwise regression analysis;
- Comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis) for independent variables and comparative analysis (Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test) for dependent and related samples;

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

III.1. Occupational and demographic characteristics of the respondents

Based on the examined characteristics, we can summarize that the team that covered the Games of the XXXI Olympics has extensive experience in the field of sports journalism and coverage of major sports events and competitions of different magnitude, including Olympic Games (summer and winter).

III.2. Analysis of the results of a study on the sources of stress for journalists

The results of the variance analysis of the data from the preliminary study – before the start of the OG - revealed that despite a wealth of previous professional experience, the respondents were experiencing Games-coverage-related stress.

Table 1: Results of the variance analysis of the sources of stress before the start of the Games

Item	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Lack of private time	36	1.00	5.00	3.19	1.31
Prompt response to force majeure	36	1.00	5.00	2.50	1.25
Insomnia	36	1.00	5.00	3.33	1.53
Lack of time to rest	36	1.00	5.00	3.28	1.19
Change of time zone	36	1.00	5.00	2.33	1.20
Weather conditions	36	1.00	4.00	2.14	1.07
Tension of direct coverage	36	1.00	5.00	2.67	1.07
Interpersonal relationships	36	1.00	5.00	3.19	1.26
Sudden change in the usual living and working environment	36	1.00	4.00	2.31	1.06
Absence of family, friends and loved ones	36	1.00	5.00	3.50	1.18
Teamwork	36	1.00	5.00	2.94	1.49
External factors (fans' comments, criticism)	36	1.00	5.00	2.69	1.12
Lack of financial resources	36	1.00	5.00	3.31	1.37
Sudden change in living habits	36	1.00	5.00	2.69	1.21
Encounter with different culture	36	1.00	5.00	2.06	1.04
On-air state anxiety	36	1.00	4.00	2.14	1.05
Lack of experience in covering OG	36	1.00	5.00	2.11	1.17
Rapid switching of functions	36	1.00	4.00	1.77	89.

12-16 hours in the studio	36	1.00	5.00	2.67	1.35
Tension of coverage	35	1.00	4.00	2.31	1.13
Trips to the venues (keeping to schedule)	35	1.00	5.00	2.71	1.43
Lack of sleep	35	1.00	5.00	3.63	1.42
Pattern of work	36	1.00	5.00	2.75	1.23
Personality traits	36	1.00	5.00	2.61	1.18

Lack of sleep has the highest values as a potential stress factor ($M=3.63$; $SD=1.42$). Next ranks the absence of family, friends and loved ones ($M=3.50$; $SD=1.18$), insomnia ($M=3.33$; $SD=1.53$), lack of financial resources ($M=3.31$; $SD=1.37$), lack of time to rest ($M=3.28$; $SD=1.19$), lack of time ($M=3.19$; $SD=1.31$), interpersonal relationships ($M=3.19$; $SD=1.26$). Obviously difficult working conditions, busy schedule, and lack of opportunities for recovery, absence of loved ones, are among the most stressful factors when covering Olympic Games.

Rapid switching of functions has the lowest values – from commentator – reporter – program editor – studio editor – news anchor – studio presenter ($M=1.77$; $SD=.89$). Next ranks encounter with different culture ($M=2.06$; $SD=1.04$). These results, including the values of the remaining items relevant to the specifics of the profession – on-air state anxiety, tension of coverage, prompt response to force majeure, show that the factors related to the strictly professional profile of journalists have relatively low values.

Encounter with different culture ($M=2.06$; $SD=1.04$), natural factors such as weather conditions ($M=2.14$; $SD=1.07$) and time zone change ($M=2.33$; $SD=1.20$) were not initially assessed as strong stressors.

Immediately after the Olympic Games, a second study was conducted, applying the same methodology.

Table 2: Results of stress sources survey data variance analysis (after OG)

#	Item	n	Min.	Max.	M	SD
1.	Lack of private time	36	1.00	5.00	3.25	1.27
2.	Prompt response to force majeure	36	1.00	5.00	2.69	1.35
3.	Insomnia	36	1.00	5.00	3.42	1.54
4.	Lack of time to rest	36	1.00	5.00	3.47	1.23
5.	Change of time zone	36	1.00	5.00	2.36	1.22
6.	Weather conditions	36	1.00	4.00	2.17	1.08
7.	Tension of direct coverage	36	1.00	5.00	3.11	1.06
8.	Interpersonal relationships	36	1.00	5.00	3.56	1.30

9.	Sudden change in the usual living and working environment	36	1.00	4.00	2.44	1.13
10.	Absence of family, friends and loved ones	36	1.00	5.00	3.67	1.20
11.	Teamwork	36	1.00	5.00	3.22	1.50
12.	External factors (fans' comments, criticism)	36	1.00	5.00	3.11	1.10.
13.	Lack of financial resources	36	1.00	5.00	3.33	1.33
14.	Sudden change in living habits	36	1.00	5.00	2.86	1.27
15.	Encounter with different culture	36	1.00	5.00	2.08	1.08
16.	On-air state anxiety	36	1.00	5.00	2.47	1.25
17.	Lack of experience in covering OG	36	1.00	5.00	2.14	1.25
18.	Rapid switching of functions	36	1.00	4.00	2.11	1.14
19.	12-16 hours in the studio	36	1.00	5.00	2.92	1.36
20.	Tension of coverage	35	1.00	4.00	2.63	1.11
21.	Trips to the venues (keeping to schedule)	35	1.00	5.00	3.06	1.35
22.	Lack of sleep	36	1.00	5.00	3.72	1.43
23.	Patern of work	36	1.00	5.00	3.08	1.44
24.	Personality traits	36	1.00	5.00	2.72	1.21

This study also showed that lack of sleep ($M=3.72$; $SD=1.43$) and absence of relatives and friends ($M=3.67$; $SD=1.20$) were assessed as the main sources of stress for the respondents. Insomnia ($M=3.42$; $SD=1.54$) and lack of time to rest ($M=3.47$; $SD=1.23$) were also strong stressors for the respondents. Values of interpersonal relationships as a stressor are high ($M=3.56$; $SD=1.30$). The results of our study reveal that the lack of experience in covering OG does not prove to be a significant stressor. In general, the respondents showed stress resistance and no significant and alarming values were found.

The most significant source of stress for them proved to be fatigue from the specifics of the activity which requires more commitment and therefore less time to rest: lack of sleep ($M=3.72$; $SD=1.43$); lack of time to rest ($M=3.47$; $SD=1.23$), subsequent insomnia ($M=3.42$; $SD=1.54$) and lack of private time ($M=3.25$; $SD=1.27$). Interestingly, the absence of loved ones also shows higher values ($M=3.67$; $SD=1.20$), although the specific nature of the business of covering major sporting events requires frequent absences from home and it is expected that this should be accepted as a routine commitment. Interpersonal relationships as a source of stress also register higher values ($M=3.56$; $SD=1.30$) and this is not just specific to sports journalists.

The data from the study gives us reason to conclude that the BNT team covering the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro were aware in advance of where they were going and were prepared for that – different time zone and climate belt, and this circumstance does not have a significant impact on stress. The source that had the lowest values is “Encounter with different culture” (M=2.08; SD=1.08). Sports journalists have extensive experience working in a multicultural environment and, in this sense, they easily adapt to different cultures.

The comparative analysis of the results of the study conducted before the start of the Games reveals some statistically significant differences.

Table 3: Comparative analysis by gender

	insomnia	interpersonal relationships	external factors	change in living habits	lack of sleep	work pattern
Mann-Whitney U	63,000	58,000	58,000	80,000	79,000	78,000
Wilcoxon W	363,000	358,000	358,000	380 000	355,000	378,000
Z	- 2,818	-3.026	-2,989	-2 234	-2.160	-2.300
p	.005	.002	.003	.025	.031	.021

- **Insomnia** – U=63.000, p=0.005. Women are more likely to think that insomnia would affect them (Min=2, M=4.25; SD=1.14) than men (Min=1, M=2.88; SD=1.51). Differences in answers are observed not only in the average values, but also in the minimums.

- **Interpersonal relationships** – U=58.000, p=0.002. Women are more likely to believe that interpersonal relationships can induce stress (M=4.08; SD=.90) than men (M=2.80; SD=1.19).

- **External factors (fans' comments, criticism, etc.)** - U=58.000, p=0.003. On this indicator, women (M=3.50; SD=1.00) are also more sensitive than men (M=2.29; SD=1.19), and they believe that these factors would affect their stress resistance.

- **Sudden change in living habits** – U=80.000, p=0.025. As expected, the change in living habits is more pronounced as a stressor among women (M=3.33; SD=1.54). The values for men are M=2.38; SD=1.13, respectively.

- **Lack of sleep** – U=79.000, p=0.03. Lack of sleep is a greater source of stress for women (M=4.33; SD=.89) than for men (M=3.26; SD=1.54). These replies confirm the replies to Item # 3 of the questionnaire (insomnia).

- **Work pattern** – U=78.000, p=0.021. Women (M=3.42; SD=1.16), compared to men (M=2.42; SD=1.14), rated the work schedule as a more significant potential source of stress.

Statistically significant **gender** differences were also found in the second study – immediately after the end of the Olympic Games.

Comparative analysis by gender (post-OG)

	insomnia	interpersonal relationships	external factors	lack of sleep	work pattern
Mann-Whitney U	70,500	61,000	61,000	69,000	81,000
Wilcoxon W	370.500	361,000	361,000	369,000	381,000
Z	-2,564	-2,869	-2,930	-2.667	-2.162
p	.010	.004	.003	.008	.031

The Mann-Whitney test revealed the following differences:

- **Insomnia** – U=70.500, p=0.010. Insomnia was found to be a greater source of stress for women (M=4.25; SD=1.14) than for men (M=3.00; SD=1.56). It is noteworthy that the baseline data on this indicator and the data from the second study are identical for women. This is also confirmed by the Wilcoxon comparative analysis showing that no statistically significant differences on this parameter were observed.

- **Interpersonal relationships** – U=61.000, p=0.004. This indicator is also a stronger source of stress for women (M=4.42; SD=.79) than for men (M=3.13; SD=1.30).

- **External factors (fans' comments, criticism, etc.)** - U=61.000, p=0.003. On this indicator, women (M=3.83; SD=.72) also tend to be more sensitive to external factors than men (M=2.75; SD=1.07). They note that external factors such as fans' comments, criticism of the coverage, have stronger impact on their stress resistance.

- **Lack of sleep** – U=69.000, p=0.008. In this study, the estimate of insomnia as a source of stress for women was also higher (M=4.50; SD=.90) than for men (M=3.33; SD=1.49).

- **Work pattern** – U=81.000, p=0.031. For women, the work pattern is a more significant source of stress (M=3.83; SD=1.27) than for men (M=2.71; SD=1.40).

In the second study, as in the first, there were differences in the responses of women and men not only in terms of mean values, which are clearly visible in Figure 2, but also in terms of the minimum and maximum values of the responses. These differences are observed for interpersonal relationships and for external factors that

are more stressful for women also in terms of minimum values – Min=3. Lack of sleep is also a stronger stressor for women in terms of minimum values, Min=2, against Min=1 for men.

The second study also failed to establish statistically significant differences in terms of the position held. Such differences are observed in terms of respondents' *age* and *length of service*.

The Kruskal Wallis test showed that there was a statistically significant difference in terms of respondents' *age* (at the time of the first test) with respect to the following sources of stress (Table 8):

- tension of direct coverage (H=6.223, p=0.043) and
- 12-16 hours in the studio (H=6.205, p=0.045).

Before leaving for Rio de Janeiro, the television crew members were worried about the long stay in the studio and the live stand-up from the Olympic competitions. Different sources of stress are identified for the different age groups on this indicator, compared to the comparative analysis by gender, and they are specifically related to respondent journalists' work commitments and the specifics of the activity.

Table 8. Results of the comparative analysis results by age (Mann-Whitney)

		up to 40/41-50	up to 40/51+	41-50/ 51+
1.	Tension of direct coverage	(U=57,000, p=.050)	-	(U=20,000, p=.030)
2.	12-16 hours in the studio	-	(U=38,000, p=.049)	(U=18,000, p=.027)

For the statistically significant differences found, the direction of the difference is also of research interest.

- *Tension of direct coverage:*

Differences were found between the group of youngest team members and the second age group (U=57.000, p=.050). Mean rank values show that for younger team members, direct coverage is a stronger stressor – Mean Rank = 16.65. The value for 41–50-year-olds is 11.18. The variance analysis also showed that for younger

respondents it was a stronger stressor ($M=2.82$; $SD=1.13$) than for 41–50-year-olds ($M=2.09$; $SD=.83$)

Regarding this stress factor, differences were also observed between the 41-50 age group and the team members over 51 years of age ($U=20.000$, $p=.030$). The differences are also observed in the Mean Rank ($7.82 - 13.00$) and in the variance analysis. The representatives of the second age group (41–50-year-olds) appear to be least worried about direct broadcasting ($M=2.09$; $SD=.83$), while for the elderly this is a stronger stressor ($M=3.13$; $SD=.99$).

- 12-16 hours in the studio

Statistically significant differences in terms of the long stay in the studio were found between the age groups up to 40 years and 51+ years ($U=38.000$, $p=.049$) and between 41-50 years and 51+ years ($U=18.000$, $p=.027$). No significant differences were found between the first and the second group.

The data from the variance analysis shows that the long stay in the studio has the highest stressor values for the age group 41-50. ($M=3.00$; $SD=1.18$). The mean values for the youngest are $M=2.82$ ($SD=1.13$) and for the elderly they are $M=1.75$ ($SD=1.04$).

Mean values for the different age groups are presented in Figure 3.

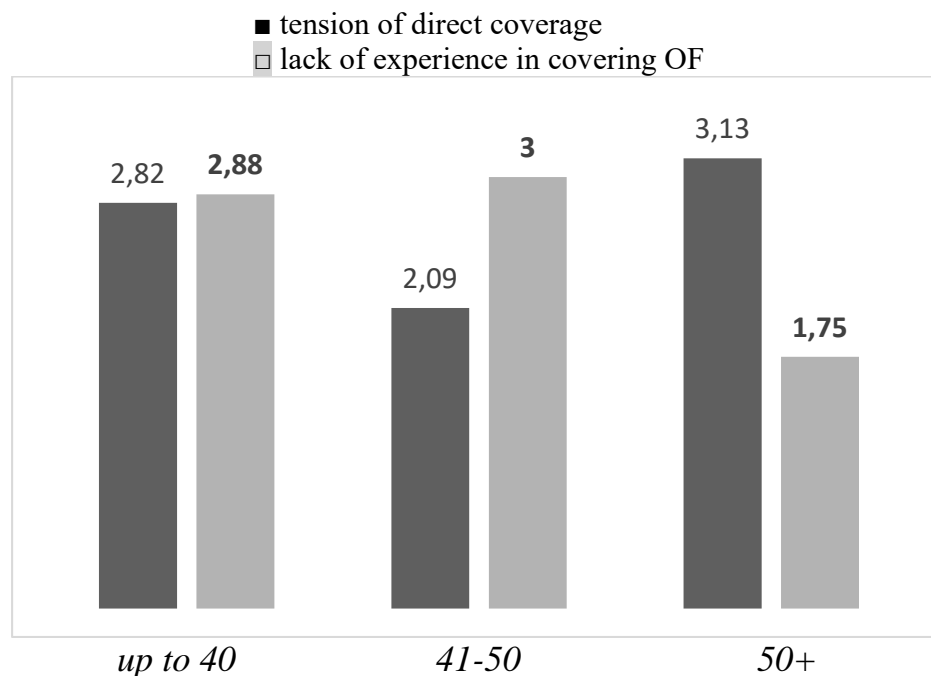


Figure 3. Variance analysis results

Older age is also associated with more experience. The tension of direct coverage appears to be strongest for the oldest members of the TV crew.

Statistically significant differences were also found in the second study on the sources of stress in television coverage of the Olympic Games.

After the Games were over, the tension of direct coverage was also perceived differently by the different age groups. The results of the Kruskal Wallis comparative analysis showed that statistically significant differences were found ($H=6.412$, $p=0.041$). Differences on the indicator "age" were also found for the stress factor "Lack of experience in covering Olympic Games" ($H=9.201$, $p=.010$).

- *Tension of direct coverage:*

Mean Rank values guide us to look for differences between the groups of the youngest and the oldest (they have almost the same values) and the group of team members aged 41-50 (Table 9).

Table 9. Total mean rank values by age group

Stress factor	age	N	Mean Rank
<i>Tension of direct coverage</i>	up to 40	17	21.32
	41-50	11	12.05
	51+	8	21.38
	total	36	
<i>Lack of experience in covering OG</i>	up to 40	17	21.71
	41-50	11	20.41
	51+	8	9.06
	total	36	

The pairwise comparison showed that there were statistically significant differences between the first and the second age group ($U=46.000$, $p=.020$) and between the second and the third group ($U=20.500$, $p=.041$).

It appears from the variance analysis and the direction of the differences that the youngest ($M=3.41$; $SD=1.12$) and the oldest ($M=3.38$; $SD=.92$) experienced more tension during direct coverage. The mean values ($M=2.45$; $SD=.82$) for the individuals aged 41-50 in the second study were also lower than the mean values of the other groups (Fig. 4).

-*Lack of experience in covering Olympic Games*

It appears that lack of experience in covering the biggest sporting forum on the planet is perceived as a stress factor differently by the different age groups. Pairwise

comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney) showed that there were statistically significant differences on this stressor between respondents' age groups 41-50 and 51+ ($U=12.000$, $p=.004$). The results of the variance analysis are presented in Figure 4.

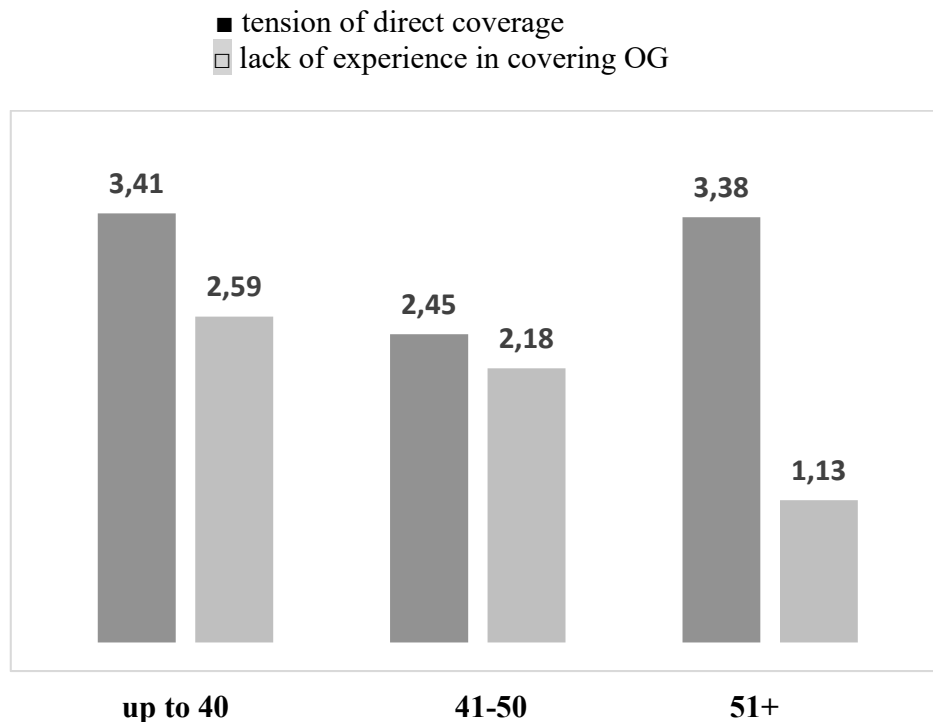


Figure 4. Results of second study data variance analysis

This stressor was least significant for the age group of 51+, which is also logical because almost all of them had extensive previous experience in covering both summer and winter OG: summer OG (Min=1, Max=7, $M=4.86$; $SD=2.04$) and winter OG (Min=3, Max=6, $M=4.25$; $SD=1.50$) (Fig. 5).

Based on the *length of service* of the respondents (3 groups), statistically significant differences (Kruskal Wallis Test) were found in both studies (before the start of the Games and after their completion) on two indicators. Both stress factors, where differences in the work experience of the respondents were observed, were the same in the two conducted studies – “*encounter with different culture*” and “*on-air state anxiety*” (Table 10).

Table 10. Comparative analysis results (length of service)

		First study	Second study
1.	Encounter with different culture	H=7.621, p=.022	H=7.700, p=.021
3.	On-air state anxiety	H=7.149, p=.021	H=5.665, p=.049

Mean Rank values guide us between which groups to look for statistically significant differences (Table 11):

Table 11. Mean Rank values in both studies

Stress factor	Length of service	N	First study Mean Rank	Second study Mean Rank
<i>Encounter with different culture</i>	up to 10	12	21.58	21.46
	11-20	9	10.61	10.56
	21-40	15	20.77	20.90
<i>On-air state anxiety</i>	up to 10	12	24.83	24.08
	11-20	9	15.94	14.22
	21-40	15	14.97	16.60

Pairwise comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney) shows that in the first study there are statistically significant differences between the respondents with the shortest length of experience and those with length of service 11-20 years on both analysed indicators: *encounter with different culture* (U=21.500, p=.014) and *on-air state anxiety* (U=29.000, p=.047). According to the TV crew representatives with longer work experience (11-20 years), encountering a different culture (M=1.33; SD=.71) and on-air state anxiety (M=1.89; SD=1.05) would not be a challenge and sources of stress for them (Fig. 6). Logically, on-air state anxiety had the lowest mean values for the most experienced TV crew members (M=1.73; SD=.70).

■ encounter with different culture

□ on-air state anxiety

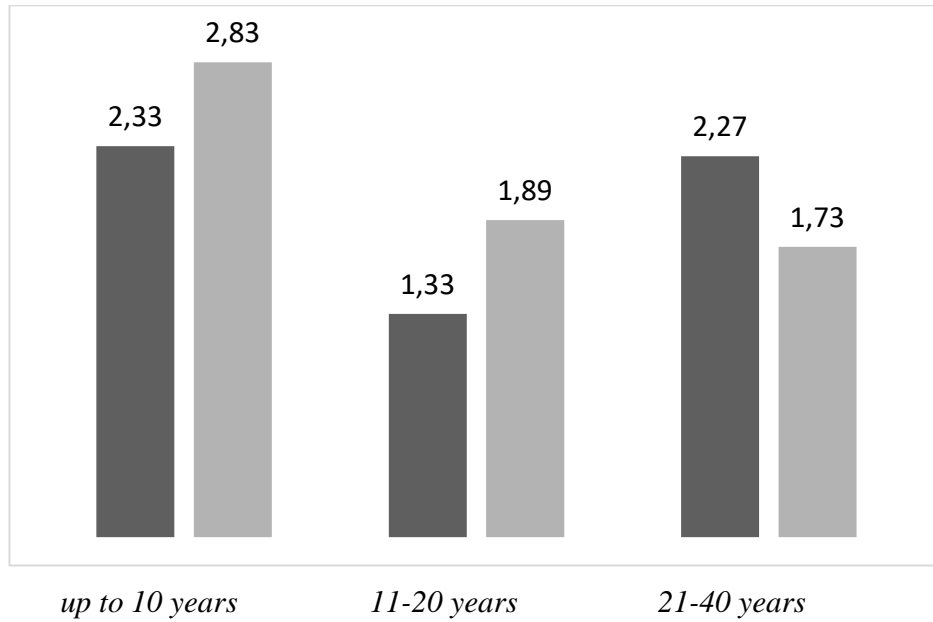


Figure 6. Results of first study data variance analysis (by respondents' length of service)

The statistically significant differences between the groups are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Results of the comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney) from the study conducted before the start of OG

		up to 10/11-20	up to 10/21-40	11-20/21-40
1.	<i>Encounter with different culture</i>	(U=21.500, p=.014)	-	(U=29.000, p=.014)
2.	<i>On-air state anxiety</i>	(U=29.000, p=.047)	(U=39.000, p=.010)	-

The post-OG comparative analysis results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Comparative analysis results (Mann-Whitney) from the post-OG study

		up to 10/11-20	up to 10/21-40	11-20/21-40
1.	<i>Encounter with different culture</i>	(U=21.500, p=.014)	-	(U=28.500, p=.013)
2.	<i>On-air state anxiety</i>	(U=27.500, p=.049)	(U=49.500, p=.042)	-

It is notable from Tables 12 and 13 and Figure 7 that the results of the two studies are almost identical. On the one hand, this shows that the respondents know each other well and are aware what can

It is notable from Tables 12 and 13 and Figure 7 that the results of the two studies are almost identical. On the one hand, this shows that the respondents know each other well and are aware what can be a source of stress for them.

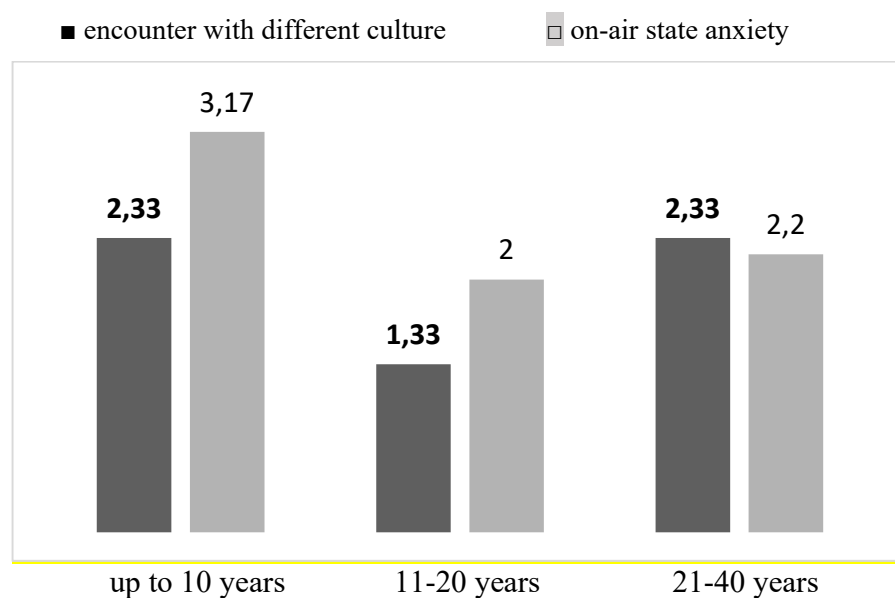


Figure 7. Results of second study data variance analysis (by respondents' length of service)

Another interesting finding was that there was no overlap in the sources of stress on the two indicators (age and work experience), which did not confirm our initial expectations that age and work experience were interdependent.

One of the objectives of our study was to compare the estimates of sources of stress in the first and in the second study. Our aim was to determine whether differences were observed between initial attitudes and expectations and the assessment of stressors for team members after the end of OG. The comparative analysis of the data revealed statistically significant differences for 15 of the sources of stress (Wilcoxon test) (Tab. 14 and Fig. 8).

Table 14. Results of the comparative analysis of the outcomes from the first and the second study (Wilcoxon)

Item	Z	p
Prompt response to force majeure	-2,333	0,02
Lack of time to rest	-2,646	0,008
Tension of direct coverage	-3,557	0,000
Interpersonal relationship	-3,153	0,002
Sudden change in the usual living and working environment	-2,236	0,025
Absence of family, friends and loved ones	-2,449	0,014
Teamwork	-2,456	0,014
External factors (fans' comments, criticism)	-3,638	0,000
Sudden change in living habits	-2,121	0,034
On-air state anxiety	-3,464	0,001
Rapid switching of functions	-2,714	0,007
12-16 hours in the studio	-3,000	0,003
Tension of coverage	-3,051	0,002
Trips to venues (keeping to schedule)	-3,051	0,002
Pattern of work	-3,464	0,001

The results of the study before and after the coverage of the XXXI Summer Olympics revealed that the initial attitudes or expectations of the respondents were associated with less pronounced expectations of stress, while the same sources of stress after the Olympic Games were evaluated significantly higher (Fig. 8).

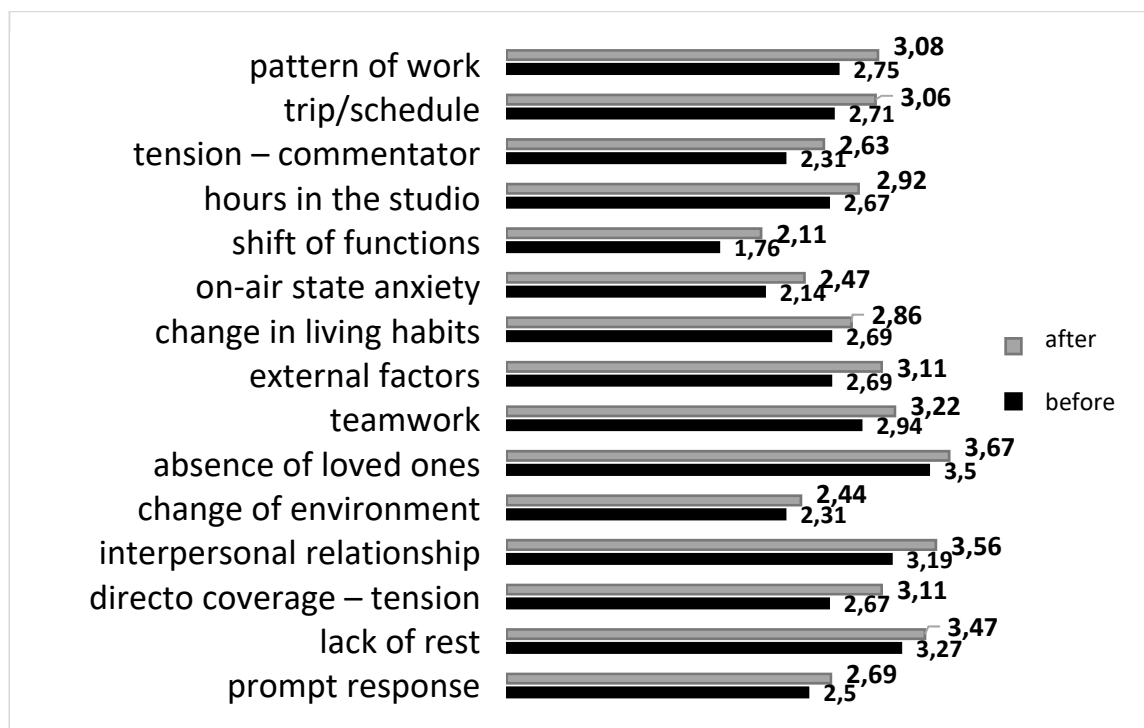


Figure 8. Variance analysis results (before and after the Olympics)

Variance analysis of the data on the stressors found to be statistically significant before and after the Games showed that absence of family and friends was the strongest stressor for the team. Interpersonal relationships and lack of rest were the next strongest stressors. Again, in these comparisons, the factors that were directly linked to the activity (both before and after the Games) proved to have low values:

It is noteworthy that the sources that stand out as the strongest stressors for the sports journalists covering the Olympic Games, whom we studied, are those that are not strictly specific to doing this work. Lack of private time, no rest and less sleep are stressors that are also typical for all other occupational fields.

The impact of stressors on a person is determined by the levels of "perceived stress", i.e., stressors are subjective in nature and work differently on different individuals. In the case of our study, some of the inferred stressors did not actually strongly affect the stress levels of the respondents. An explanation of these results can be sought in individuals' previous experience in covering mega sporting events, which reduces the effect of stress factors related to the uncertainty over the upcoming event. However, despite experience, factors related to meeting individuals' social needs (interpersonal relationships, family and friends) were rated as highly

stressogenic. Lack of sleep and rest also has a strong impact on stress levels, but it should be borne in mind that their effect could itself increase the levels of stress arising from the first group of factors.

III.3. Analysis of the results of a study on coping strategies

Cultivating Optimal Personal Experiences (cope-1)

Preferred coping strategies are an issue has attracted considerable interest among sports psychology researchers. Through coping, emotions are regulated and behavior is modified in order to successfully manage certain situations. On the other hand, coping is a kind of response to how threats are perceived, a manifestation of efforts to cope with stressful events or to reduce the pressure they exert on the individual. The awareness of the situation/event as problematic is also important (Jancheva, 2018).

The results of the study on the preferred coping strategies applied by the television crew covering the Rio de Janeiro Olympics are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Results of preferred coping strategies (COPE-1) data variance analysis

	min	max	M	SD
Cognitive engagement (CE)	2.10	3.70	2.84	.42
Emotional engagement (EE)	1.20	3.30	2.46	.44
Cognitive and emotional disengagement (CED)	1.00	2.60	1.88	.34

The results revealed that the scale with the highest mean values was cognitive engagement (M=2.84; SD=.42), related to activity aimed at coping with stress - positive reframing, planning coping options, suppressing or rejecting and abstracting from actions and tasks that make coping difficult.

Second is the emotional engagement strategy (M=2.46; SD=.44) – seeking advice and help from others, need for emotional response, sympathy, and empathy.

The least preferred strategy was cognitive and emotional disengagement (M=1.88; SD=.34) – denial or non-acceptance, behavioural and psychological disengagement, alcohol and drug use as preferred coping strategies, coming to terms with what has happened or turning to religion. It is often associated with denial,

refusal to be active and try to cope, engaging in other tasks as an attempt to cope with stress.

The results indicate a good trend that respondents do not tend to and do not demonstrate destructive behavior. Their behaviour is focused on positive, active, and adaptive coping strategies. They are proactive, trying to solve problems in a direct positive way.

Figure 9 presents the mean values from the study on preferred coping strategies of journalists and technicians. Evident is the absence of differences between the two groups.

We can conclude that the study on coping strategies did not reveal any statistically significant differences on the indicators ‘position held’ (journalist/technician (Fig. 9), ‘age’ and ‘work experience’.

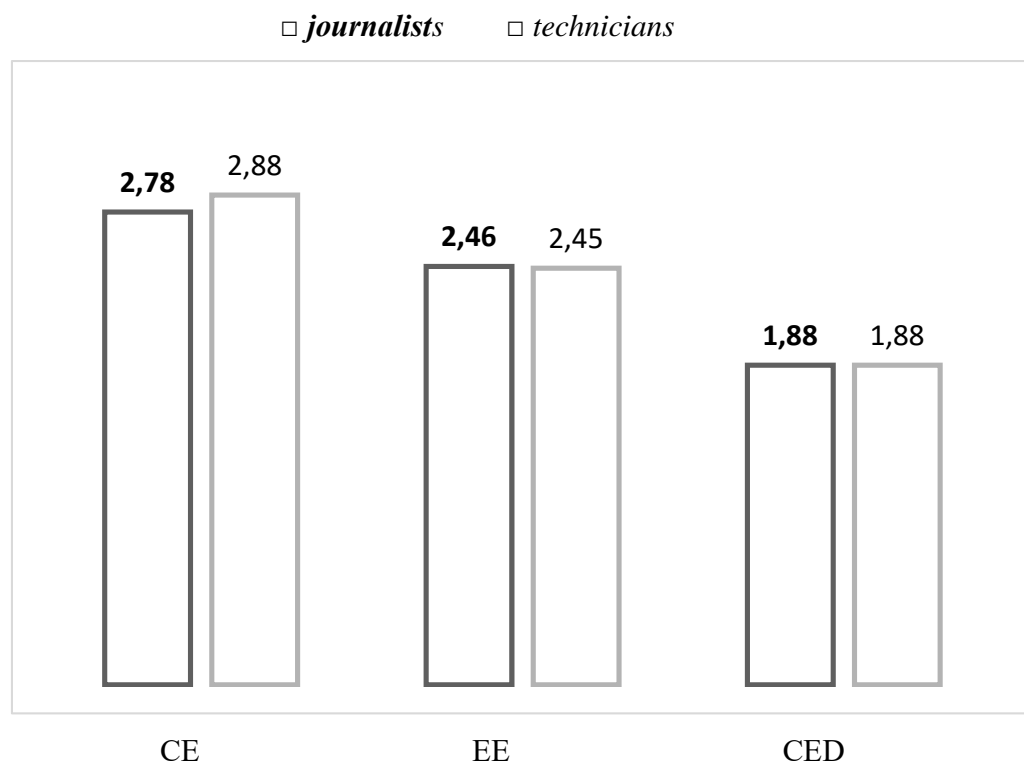


Figure 9. Preferred coping strategies of journalists and technicians

To study and analyze the impact of Olympics coverage experience, we divided the respondents into 3 groups: those with little Olympics coverage experience (the sum of SOG and WOG participation was up to 2); medium Olympics coverage experience (the sum of SOG and WOG participation was up to 4); and high experience (the sum of SOG and WOG participation was ≥ 5). The results suggest that experience, specifically in Games coverage, does not affect preferred coping strategies.

The results of the comparative analysis *by gender* revealed statistically significant differences on the “Emotional engagement” scale ($U=71.500$, $p=0.050$). No such differences were observed on the other two scales.

Significantly higher values ($M=2.73$) were found in females (Figure 10) compared to males ($M=2.30$). Women are more likely to seek help and advice to cope with stressful situations, and are distinguished by a stronger need for emotional response, sympathy, and empathy.

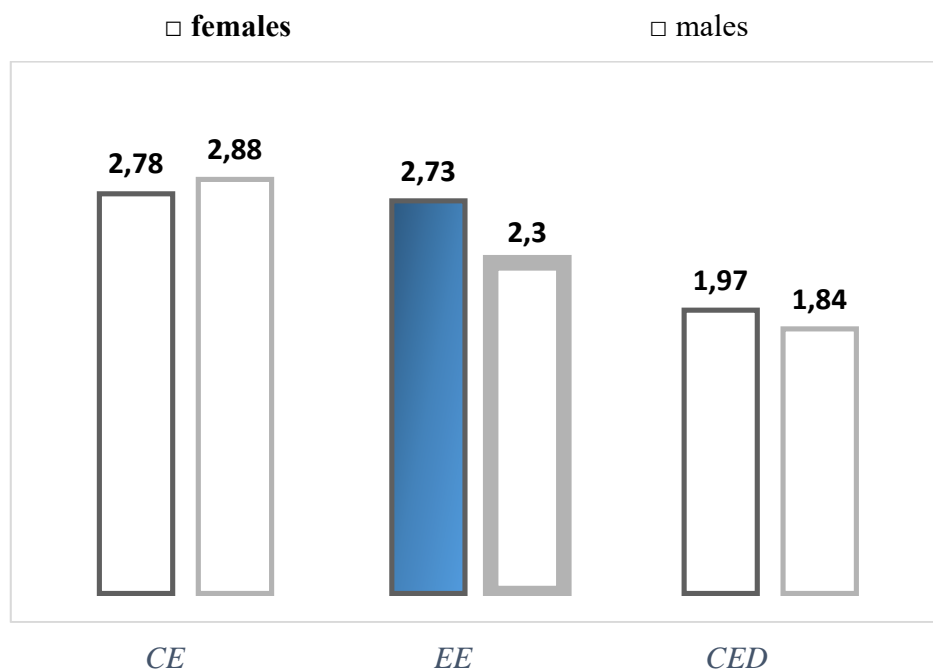


Figure 10. Comparative analysis results

III.4. Analysis of anxiety study results

Table 16. Results of anxiety study data variance analysis (before and after OG)

	min	max	M	SD
Cognitive anxiety (CA) before OG	1.00	2.90	1.83	.46
Somatic anxiety (SA) before OG	1.00	2.70	1.51	.47
Self-confidence (SC) before OG	1.60	4.10	2.70	.69
Cognitive anxiety (CA) after OG	1.00	3.10	2.14	.54
Somatic anxiety (SA) after OG	1.00	3.10	1.63	.49
Self-confidence (SC) after OG	1.60	4.10	2.71	.63

The mean values of the indicators ‘cognitive anxiety’ (CA), ‘somatic anxiety’ (SA) and ‘self-confidence’ (SC) from the two studies are presented in Figure 11.

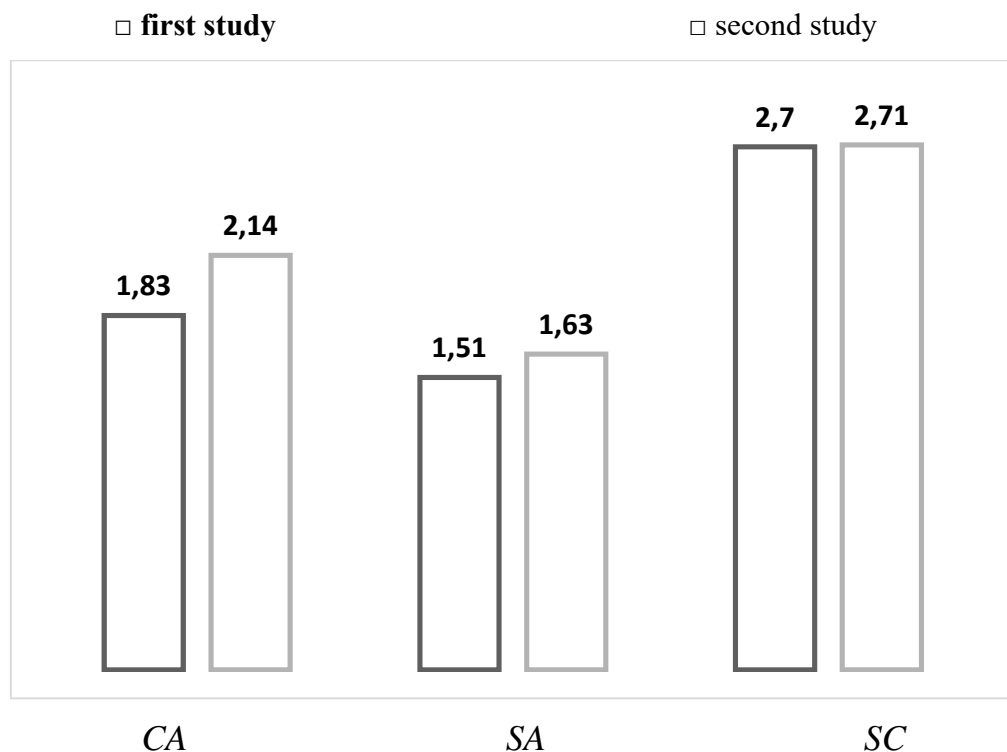


Figure 11. Results of anxiety study data variance analysis (before and after OG)

The results reveal (Table 16 and Figure 11) that the Self-confidence scale has the highest values in both studies - before (M=2.70) and after (M=2.71). This outcome is logical, given that the respondents are established professionals in the field of sports journalism, with experience in sports in general and in covering major sporting events. Having confidence and professional self-esteem is an expected outcome.

The Cognitive Anxiety Scale followed in both studies (before M=1.83 and after M=2.14). It is related to cognitive interpretation of the outcome, or assumed outcome, negative performance expectations, lack of concentration, and it thus affects performance. Research in sports has shown that successful athletes are able to interpret competitive state anxiety in a positive way (Domuschieva-Rogleva, 2009; Savcheva et al., 2020). We can assume that this also applies to sports journalists.

Somatic anxiety had the lowest values (before M=1.51; after M=1.63). Somatic anxiety is associated with some physiological effects of the stressful experience such as high level of agitation, palpitations, muscle tension, rapid breathing, sweating, etc.

Competitive state anxiety is one of the most frequently studied problems in competitive sports. In respect of journalist teams, it manifests itself in the form of so-called "on-air state anxiety". Cognitive and somatic anxiety can significantly affect the behaviour and actions of journalists, and thus their performance when covering major sporting events, in this case the Olympic Games, especially when it comes to live broadcast.

The comparative analysis (Wilcoxon) of the results of the first (before the Olympic Games) and the second (after the Olympic Games) study revealed statistically significant differences between the scales "Cognitive anxiety" (after) and "Cognitive anxiety" (before) ($Z=-3.568$, $p=.000$), and between "Somatic anxiety" (after) and "Somatic anxiety" (before) ($Z=-2.893$, $p=.004$)

Table 17. Comparative analysis results (Wilcoxon)

	CA_before – CA after	SA before – SA after
Z	-3.568	-2.893
p	.000	.004

The results revealed that the values of both scales were higher in the second study (Fig. 12), i.e., the baseline levels of on-air state anxiety were significantly lower than the secondary levels. The experienced tension and stress and their subsequent cognitive appraisal obviously had an impact on the levels of cognitive and somatic anxiety and their post-Olympics evaluation.

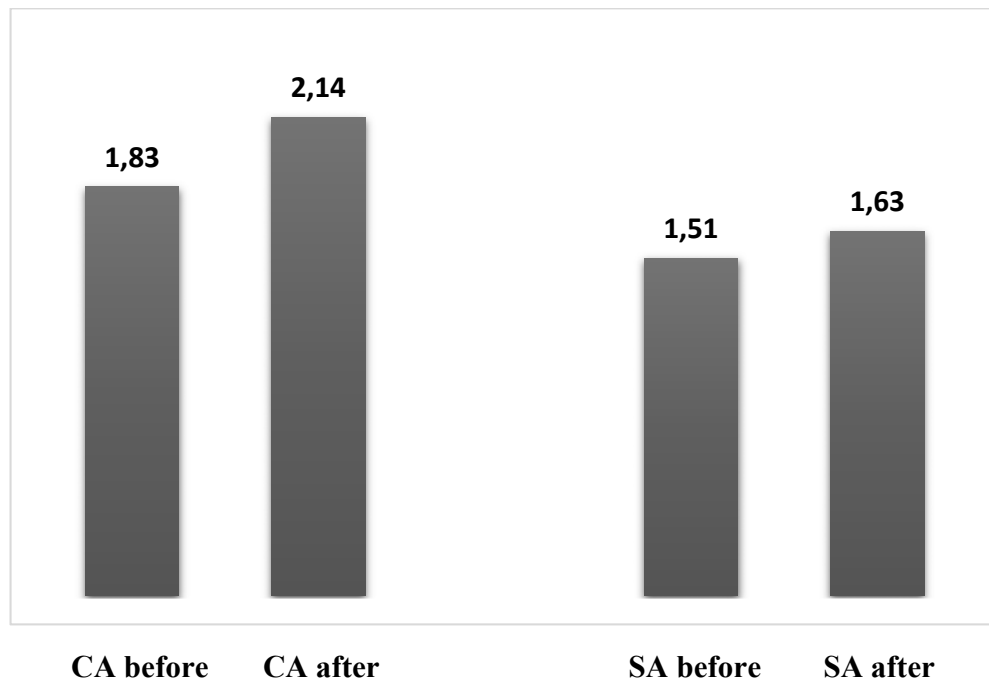


Figure 12. Results of the variance analysis before and after OG

III.5. Results of the data correlation analysis

In order to establish any possible relationships between the indicators examined, the data from the anxiety and coping strategies study were subjected to correlation analysis. The results revealed certain relationships between coping strategies and the different scales from the anxiety questionnaire.

The results of the correlation analysis of data from the first study are presented in Table 18 and Figure 13.

Table 18. First study data correlation analysis results

		CE	EE	CED	CA	SA	SC
CE	Pearson Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	32					
EE	Pearson Correlation	,141					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,441					
	N	32	32				
CED	Pearson Correlation	,158	,274				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,389	,129				
	N	32	32	32			
CA	Pearson Correlation	,456*	,472*	,142			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,015	,011	,470			
	N	32	32	32	32		
SA	Pearson Correlation	,102	,341	,514**	,509**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,607	,076	,005	,004		
	N	32	32	32	32	32	
SC	Pearson Correlation	,093	-,465*	-,167	-,503**	-,537**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,638	,013	,396	,005	,002	
	N	32	32	32	32	32	32

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There was moderate correlation between cognitive anxiety (CA) and cognitive engagement (CE) as a coping strategy ($r=.456$; $p=.05$), and between cognitive anxiety (CA) and emotionally engaged (EE) coping strategies ($r=.472$; $p=.05$). There was a moderate negative correlation between the self-confidence (SC) subscale and the emotional engagement (EE) strategy ($r = -.465$; $p=.05$).

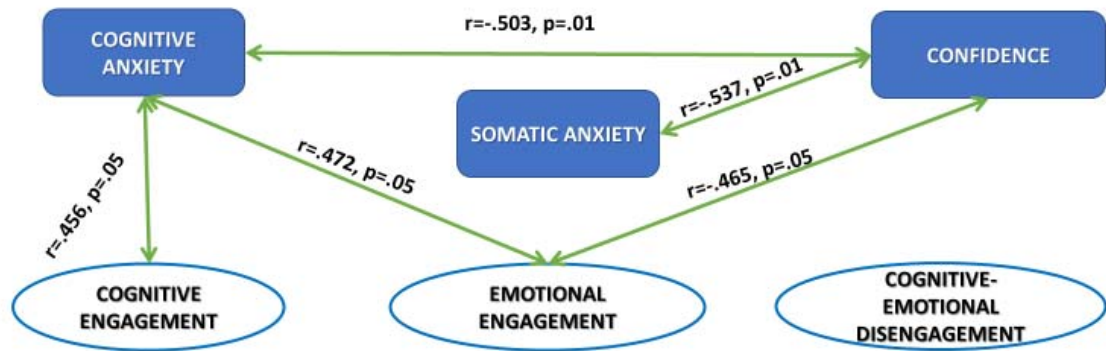


Figure 13. Data correlation analysis results (anxiety – coping strategies) – first study

The correlation is logical, insofar as more insecure people are more likely to seek advice and help in difficult and stressful situations, they feel more often a need for emotional response, sympathy and empathy. Conversely, high levels of self-confidence stimulate active coping with emerging stressogenic situations (Table. 18).

A moderate relationship was also found between cognitive anxiety (CA) before OG, cognitively engaged (CE) ($r = .456; p = .05$) and emotionally engaged strategies (EE) ($r = .472; p = .05$).

There were significant negative correlations between self-confidence, cognitive ($r = -.503; p = .01$) and somatic anxiety ($r = -.537; p = .01$), i.e. the more confident the respondent journalists were in their qualities and professional abilities, the less anxious they were.

The results of the correlation analysis of data from the second study are presented in Table 19 and Figure 14.

Table 19. Second study data correlation analysis results

		CE	EE	CED	CA	SA	SC
CE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N						
		32					
EE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,141 ,441 32					
			32				
CED	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,158 ,389 32	,274 ,129 32				
				32			
CA	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,485** ,009 32	,466* ,012 32	,268 ,167 32			
					32		
SA	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,165 ,401 32	,362 ,059 32	,506** ,006 32	,630** ,000 32		
						32	
SC	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-,039 ,847 32	-,390* ,045 32	-,278 ,161 32	-,535** ,003 32	-,655** ,000 32	
							32

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant correlations between the tested parameters were found in the second study as well. There was a significant correlation between cognitive anxiety (CA) and cognitively engaged coping strategies (CE) ($r=.485$; $p=.01$), a moderate correlation between cognitive anxiety (CA) and emotionally engaged strategies (EE) ($r=.466$; $p=.05$).

There is a significant correlation between situational anxiety (SA) and cognitive and emotional disengagement (CED) as a coping strategy ($r=.506$; $p=.01$).

Again, the negative relationship between self-confidence (SC) and emotionally engaged strategies (EE) ($r=.390$; $p=.05$) was confirmed in the second study, as

was the high negative correlation between self-confidence, cognitive ($r = -.535$; $p = .01$), and somatic anxiety ($r = -.655$; $p = .01$) (Fig.14).

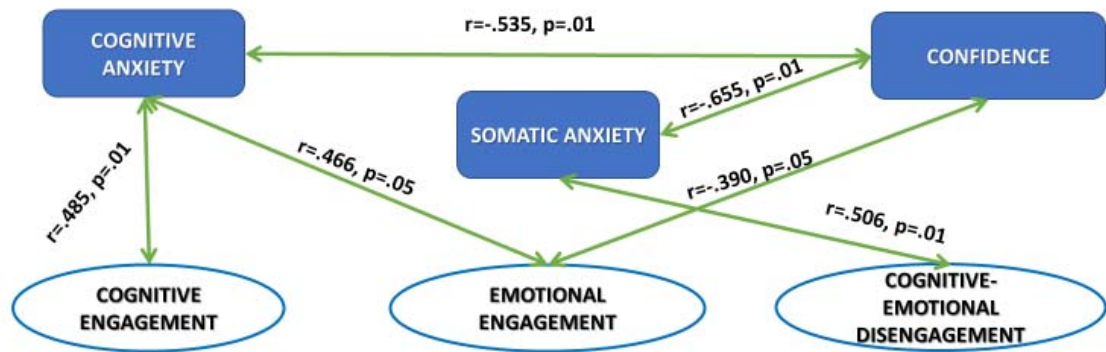


Figure 14. Data correlation analysis results (anxiety – coping strategies) – SECOND study, post-OG

The correlation analysis of the data from the study on sources of stress, anxiety and preferred coping strategies revealed certain correlations between the variables examined (Table 20 and Figure 15). There was moderate negative correlation between lack of time to rest and self-confidence ($r = -.399$; $p = .05$), i.e., the respondent journalists with higher self-confidence were less likely to rate lack of time to rest as a stressor.

Significant correlation was found between cognitive anxiety and weather conditions ($r = .480$; $p = .01$), absence of family, friends, loved ones ($r = .584$; $p = .01$), and moderate correlation was found with teamwork ($r = .419$; $p = .05$).

Somatic anxiety is significantly correlated with absence of family, friends, loved ones ($r = .531$; $p = .01$).

The results revealed high correlation between cognitively engaged coping strategies and the tension associated with direct coverage ($r = .528$; $p = .01$), and moderate negative correlation with rapid shift of functions - from commentator - reporter - programme editor - studio editor - news anchor - studio presenter ($r = -.371$; $p = .05$).

Moderate correlation was found between the tension associated with direct coverage and cognitive and emotional disengagement as the preferred coping strategy ($r = .370$; $p = .05$).

Table 20¹. Results of the correlation analysis of data from the study on sources of stress, anxiety, and preferred coping strategies

		CE	CED	CA	SA	SC	SS 4	SS 6	SS 7	SS 10	SS 11	SS 18
CE	Pearson Correlation								,528**			-,371*
	Sig. (2-tailed)								,002			,040
	N								32			32
CED	Pearson Correlation								,370*			
	Sig. (2-tailed)								,037			
	N								32			
CA	Pearson Correlation							,480**		,584**	,419*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)							,007		,001	,021	
	N							32		32	32	
SA	Pearson Correlation									,531**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)									,003		
	N									32		
C	Pearson Correlation						,399*					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						,029					
	N						32					

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Legend: SS – source of stress

SS_4: Lack of time to rest

SS_6: Weather conditions

¹ We present the table in this way given its large size and impossibility to be presented in its entirety

SS_7: Tension of direct coverage
 SS_10: Absence of family, friends and loved ones
 SS_11: Teamwork SS_18: Rapid shifting of functions

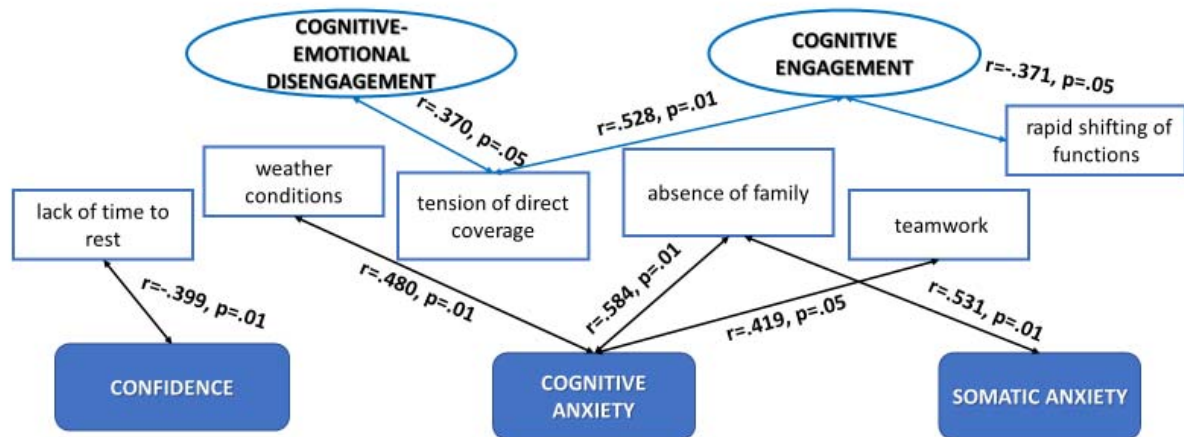


Figure 15. Results of the correlation analysis of data from the study on sources of stress, anxiety, and preferred coping strategies

To examine the direction of the influence of self-confidence on coping strategies we applied stepwise regression analysis. The results revealed that self-confidence significantly affected emotionally engaged strategies (Table 21).

Table 21. Data regression analysis results

	Self-confidence			
	β	t	Sig.	ΔR^2
Emotionally engaged strategies	-.465	-2.681	.013	.217

Lower levels of self-confidence stimulate the recourse to emotional solutions and coping strategies, seeking help and empathy.

III.6. Conclusion

The results of the study highlight the following trends:

The study found women to be more sensitive and more susceptible to stress than men and insomnia, interpersonal relationship, external factors such as criticism and comments, sudden change in living habits and work routines were potentially stronger sources of stress for them. These findings are confirmed by the two studies on sources of stress, before and after the Olympic Games. The position held is obviously not relevant in terms of stress. That depended on the gender and the experience of the respondents.

Overall, the team covering the Games of the XXXI Olympics has a wealth of experience in Olympics coverage, which, however, does not protect against stress build up.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the study give us reason to draw the following **CONCLUSIONS**:

1.The most significant sources of stress in Olympics television coverage are factors related to some kind of deprivation: insomnia and lack of sleep; absence of family, friends and loved ones; lack of financial resources; lack of time to rest and lack of opportunity to recover.

2.The journalism-specific on-air state anxiety, the tension accumulated in covering the events; the need to promptly respond to force majeure and to rapidly shift functions are not strong stressors for the respondent TV crew.

3.The most preferred coping strategy is cognitive engagement (TV crew members prefer coping actions of positive rethinking, planning coping options, rejecting tasks that make coping difficult. The emotional engagement strategy (seeking advice and help from others, sympathy, and empathy) is the next preferred one. The least preferred strategy is cognitive and emotional disengagement, which involves denial, refusal to be active and try to cope, engaging in other tasks as an attempt to cope with stress.

Statistically significant differences in the assessment of sources of stress by gender and age have been found.

4.Significant correlations were found between the components of anxiety, coping strategies and sources of stress with regard to respondent journalists.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1.When building up a team of sports journalists to cover mega sports events, including Olympic Games, mental training should be included to improve stress resistance.

2.Conduct trainings on building self-regulatory skills and coping with anxiety for teams involved in Olympic Games coverage.

3.Consider gender and age differences when building up teams for Olympic Games coverage.

SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE DISSERTATION PAPER

1. An extensive study of the history of TV coverage of the Olympic Games has been carried out, covering the period from the rebirth of the Olympic

Movement in 1896 up to the Games of the XXXI Olympics in Rio de Janeiro in 2016.

2. For the first time, the leading stress factors and psychological problems related to the live coverage of the Olympic Games were studied.
3. For the first time, anxiety and stress in the work of a television crew covering the Olympic Games were studied.

PUBLICATIONS ON THE DISSERTATION TOPIC

1. Matakeva, V. (2020). Sources of stress in television coverage of Olympic Games. Yearbook of NSA "Vasil Levski", 2020, Vol. 1, ISSN 2682-9908 (Print), pp. 329-339

2. Matakeva, V. (2022). Television coverage of Olympic Games - origin and development (1936-1964). Yearbook of NSA "Vasil Levski", 2022, Vol. 1, ISSN 2682-9908 (Print), pp. 112-121