The influence of media, personal and cultural factors on the migration intentions of young people in Serbia and Greece

By

Antonina Kostic

A dissertation submitted to the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in accordance with the requirements of the MA in Digital Media, Communication and Journalism in the School of Journalism and Mass Communications

Supervisor: Antonis Gardikiotis

September 2016
**Synopsis**

Findings in the literature suggest that personal factors, such as personal values or interdependence, can significantly affect the way a person acts or decides about his future. Additionally, the cultural dependence is identified as very important. Studies in the field of media psychology present the far-reaching media effects on the life of every individual. The present study used a quantitative method with an online questionnaire and examined the impact of all mentioned factors in connection with the intention to migrate of young people in Serbia and Greece. No significant correlations of the intention to migrate with media involvement and uncertainty or credibility were found, but interesting differences between the two countries were presented. Different types of media content as well as beliefs and motives of individuals were found to have significant correlations with the intention to migrate. Personal values showed a significant correlation with the intention to migrate, and showed differences for both nations and sexes. Few differences were discovered in the perceptions about media credibility, while no significant differences were found in the intention to migrate or in the interdependence. Both countries were found very interdependent, with similar effects of beliefs and some differences in media effects.

*Keywords: migration, media, culture, personal values*
## Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction ............................................................................................................ 5  
1.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................... 5  
1.2 Literature Review ............................................................................................................ 6  
  1.2.1 Brain drain ................................................................................................................... 6  
  1.2.2 Career decision making ............................................................................................... 11  
  1.2.3 Personal values ........................................................................................................... 13  
  1.2.4 Uncertainty .................................................................................................................. 14  
  1.2.5 Optimism .................................................................................................................... 16  
  1.2.6 Interdependence .......................................................................................................... 17  
  1.2.7 Culture ....................................................................................................................... 20  
  1.2.8 Media and their effects ............................................................................................... 21  
  1.2.9 Media bias .................................................................................................................. 24  
1.3 Rationale and aims of the study ...................................................................................... 25  
Chapter 2: Research Methods ............................................................................................... 27  
  2.1 Method ............................................................................................................................ 27  
  2.2 Participants ..................................................................................................................... 28  
  2.3 Process of data collection ............................................................................................... 29  
  2.4 Questionnaire description .............................................................................................. 29  
    2.4.1 General information ................................................................................................. 30  
    2.4.2 Personal values ........................................................................................................ 31  
    2.4.3 Interdependence ....................................................................................................... 31  
    2.4.4 Intention to migrate ................................................................................................. 32  
    2.4.5 Media usage ............................................................................................................ 33  
    2.4.6 Media and uncertainty ............................................................................................ 34  
    2.4.7 Media credibility ..................................................................................................... 34  
Chapter 3: Data Analysis ....................................................................................................... 35  
  3.1 Construction of new variables ....................................................................................... 35  
  3.2 Sample characteristics ................................................................................................. 38  
  3.3 Correlations .................................................................................................................. 39  
  3.4 Comparisons between Greeks and Serbs ....................................................................... 42  
    3.4.1 Direct comparisons between Greeks and Serbs ......................................................... 46
List of appendices
Appendix – Questionnaire

List of tables
Table 1 – Value structures
Table 2 - Correlations between intention to migrate and media involvement
Table 3 - Correlations between intention to migrate and media credibility
Table 4 - Correlations between intention to migrate and types of media content
Table 5 - Correlations between intention to migrate and beliefs and motives
Table 6 - Correlations between intention to migrate and personal values
Table 7 - Correlation differences in values
Table 8 - Correlation differences in beliefs and motives
Table 9 - Correlation differences in media involvement
Table 10 - Correlation differences in media credibility
Table 11 - Correlation differences in types of media content
Table 12 - Comparisons between Greek and Serbian participants
Table 13 - Comparisons between male and female participants
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The phenomenon of “brain drain”, illustrating the migration of young educated individuals abroad is gradually growing and it is threatening the development of countries which are losing their perspective youths (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). Numerous factors have a fundamental significance for the way and the scale on which this phenomenon is illustrated. It is crucial to understand the magnitude of the effects of factors like personal values or optimism. Personal values and factors characterize every individual and motivate behavior towards the fulfilling of important goals (Schwartz, 1992), while optimism significantly affects the way people perceive their lives and make decisions (Carver, Scheier & Segestrom, 2010). Family relations, socialization and other social and cultural factors can also have an impact on the decision making and thus on the decision about career building abroad (Osland & Bird, 2000; Tsuda, 1999).

The crucial frame of our time, within which the changes are extensively happening, generated a new level of uncertainty in modern societies (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003). This uncertainty can vary depending on its length, the circumstances, its causes, as well as on the geographical and cultural background (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003).

Media, functioning as an important link between the society and the occurrences in it can influence people’s views and actions, both social and political (McCullagh, 2002). Additionally, the level of trust in media can affect the possibility of relying on them for important decisions assessment (Kohring & Matthes, 2007) and consequently on the intentions of young individuals to migrate for professional reasons.
1.2 Literature Review

In a world constantly changing and being affected by various factors, the move of young people and their seeking of employment are developing on numerous levels and include many causes and consequences. When researching this phenomenon in Greece and Serbia, two countries which are geographically close, cultural frames as well as the optimism and the level of interdependence its members possess should also be taken into consideration. Additionally, on individual level, the personal values and beliefs of every person need to be examined in correlation with the accelerated migration of educated youth. The uncertainty of our fast-changing world is also an important motivation and it can have its roots in every segment constituting our society, including media, whose role is to be the important link between people and occurrences.

1.2.1 Brain drain

Young people in today’s world need to face the numerous changes and choose amongst a great number of possibilities for their future. They can be motivated either by their ambitions and inner characteristics or by some external factors, such as the economic and political situation in their country. Many of them are deciding to move abroad and try to build their career in a foreign country, something which is leading to “brain drain”.

The term “brain drain” illustrates a phenomenon in which people who have high level of skills, competences and qualifications leave their country and emigrate abroad (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2007), on such a great scale that it is becoming a threat for the national development of a country in the long term (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). Although this phenomenon is not new, it gained additional attention over the last decade due to accelerated globalization, as well as political, economic, technological and sociological factors, and its scope is gradually extending (Carrington, 1999; Mahroum, 2000).

Early studies investigated the issue from the perspective of “centre-periphery theory”, which can be illustrated by the following definition: “brain drain [implies] losses in the intellectual potential of developing countries, owing to the fact that students studying abroad do not come home once
they graduate” (Das, 1978, p. 145). The mobility which is constantly increasing can be characterized as an important manifestation of the internationalization of professions as well as labor markets (Iredale, 2001). In that manner, Carr, Inkson and Thom (2005) proposed the term “talent flow” as a more fair illustration of the phenomenon of people movement across borders and Tung and Lazarova (2006) contrast the term by suggesting “brain gain”.

Brain gain is a relatively new term, coined in the 1990s to describe generally the efforts, projects and programs whose target was drawing scientists to a certain country (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). Brain drain is used to describe spontaneous phenomena associated with the decisions of scientist where to live and work, while brain gain is connected with efforts of institutions to influence these decisions and attract to a given country or organization (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004).

Another word used to describe this phenomenon is escape, referring more to migrant individuals who leave their country because of difficult living conditions or insufficient professional outlooks for future, and this term is thought of as more descriptive and not completely adequate to characterize the specific outflow (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). The notion of mobility can be the most objective, circumscribing both migration abroad and transfers between jobs (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004).

It is important to note that brain drain can lower the competitiveness of developing countries by increasing the human capital of developed countries (Geesen, 1998). Western societies are the ones gaining from this process, both short and long term, through the money spent in their country as well as the human capital they gain (Rajagopalan, 2004). On the other hand, the developing countries face great problems, described with the term “brain drain” (Davenport, 2004).

A number of studies argued that under certain conditions brain drain can be beneficial also for the home country (Docquier & Rapoport, 2012; Güngör & Tansel, 2014; Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015). This is the case when we speak about migration of students from developing to scientifically developed countries (Li, Findlay, Jowett, & Skeldon, 1996; Salt, 1997) which give the opportunity to educate children abroad with the prospect of returning and developing their home country, presenting a positive side of skilled migration (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015).
The factors affecting the brain drain phenomenon can be consolidated in two categories—‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors. The ‘push–pull’ model was created by Lewin (1951) and it is relevant for cross-border movements (Baruch, 1995) and specifically for students’ global movement (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Baruch proposed numerous factors at national, organizational and individual level explaining the nature of the mentioned forces; factors such as economic, social or legal can push people to either leave or return in their country (Baruch et al., 2007).

In spite of that, in many cases, even when moving abroad is concerned, the individual choice plays the biggest role in the decision. Self-directed expatriation is more often present as a career choice (Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2001) and this concept can be connected to the so-called “boundaryless career” approach (Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002), lowering the rigidness of borders and boundaries (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) in career development.

Something that can also have a strong impact are family relations, socialization and other social and cultural factors, crucial in the process of students’ moving in another country and becoming a part of another culture (Osland & Bird, 2000; Tsuda, 1999). It is interesting that both for Chinese brain drain at the period of Tiananmen Square incident as well as for Greek (according to a recent study about young people studying abroad and returning to Greece after their studies) and Turkish young people (the study found that 74 percent of respondents indicated that their family was very supportive in their decision to move abroad), the most important factor affecting the staying abroad was family advice (Chang & Deng, 1992; Lianos, Asteriou & Agiomirgianakis, 2004; Tansel & Gungor, 2003, respectively).

It is witnessed that the adjustment process as well as the university environment are playing the most important role in students’ decisions (Baruch et al., 2007) and the adjustment is additionally important for the performance and the effectiveness of the person (Shay & Baack, 2004). Strongly influencing the choice to stay abroad are also the opportunities to find a job (Rauch, 1991) and the value of international experience (Tung & Lazarova, 2006). The prospects of finding a job in either country are likely to influence foreign students’ choice, especially if career goals are very important to them and when international experience is valued (Tung & Lazarova, 2006). Issues in the system, like a deficient educational system of the country, created separately from the national development goals, as well as an incompetent labor management,
can also be major determinants in the migration of specialists and researchers (Jałowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004).

Making this kind of decision also depends on the personality of the person; for example, people who believe they are the ones who are the most important for controlling their careers (Hall, 1976, 2002, 2004) will follow their path and be less affected by loyalty to their country (Baruch et al., 2007). An important factor can also be the cultural distance between host and home country - the culture theory at a national level (Hofstede, 1984; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Shenkar, 2004) proposes that people from the Far-East feel a stronger cultural gap to the Western host countries in comparison with people coming from more Western oriented cultures (Giacobbe-Miller, Mille, Zhang & Victorov, 2003), resulting in a smaller inclination to stay.

If many skilled individuals decide to leave their country, for one of the many mentioned reasons and look for a job elsewhere, this can probably result in the worsening of the economic situation and in a great difficulty of making changes in order to overcome the crisis. It is clear that this kind of migration can lower the possibilities for the country to recover from the economic crisis and it is threatening to deepen the recession through losing human resources when young people who emigrated do not return to their country (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015).

In the case of Greece, the results of a study conducted by Labrianidis and Sykas (2015) suggest that potential emigrants from the country are ambitious, have a clear plan and high educational and professional ambitions; they represent the most powerful part of Greek youths. The economic crisis lasting for almost 7 years in Greece is motivating young people to migrate and stay permanently abroad in order to secure employment (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015).

Young people in Greece and Serbia face many hardships – in finding a job and planning their future. This is leading to an unprecedented migration of skilled individuals in order to build their career and have better living conditions (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015). Labrianidis (2014) estimated that 119,000-139,000 individuals migrated from Greece by the end of 2010. According to OECD (2013) in 2010/11 the number of Greek immigrants was 655,000 of which 143,000 were highly educated.
Even though many young people migrate in more developed countries initially to study, their aim is to stay there permanently (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015). Hawthorne (2014) named this type of migration “two steps migration” and it is being witnessed that many foreign students, especially the successful ones, stay in the country where they studied after graduating (Findlay 2011; Labrianidis 2014; Straubhaar 2000; Tansel & Güngör 2003). There is a high reciprocity between movements for study and work also because student migration is a form reflecting the internationalization of knowledge (Salt, 1997).

One of the biggest limitations of high skilled migration researches is the deficiency in secondary data (Constant & D’Agosto, 2010; Pellegrino, 2001), largely from the home countries (Bhorat, Meyer & Mlatseni, 2002), including lack of socio-economic data and social classification characteristics (i.e. Labrianidis 2014; Mazzarol & Soutar 2002; Tansel & Güngör 2003; West et al. 2000).

In Labrianidis and Sykas (2015) research, certain push and pull factors were classified and used in order to determine what motivates the emigration of young people. This research was specifically focusing on young people migrating in order to study abroad. Some pull factors were: economic reasons, such as high wages (Baláz et al. 2004; Bhati, Lee & Kairon 2014; Güngör & Tansel 2014; OECD 2002), reasons related to employment like the working environment or job prospects (Baláz et al. 2004; Baruch et al. 2007; Gökbayrak 2012; Tansel & Güngör 2003; West et al. 2000;), scientific reasons, quality of studies (Baláz et al. 2004; D’Arca 1994; Gökbayrak 2012; Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; OECD 2002; Tansel and Güngör 2003; West et al. 2000), socio-political reasons such as the legal system and organization (Baruch et al. 2007; Bhorat et al. 2002; Mazzarol & Soutar 2002;) as well as cultural reasons and gaining knowledge about a different culture (Baláz et al. 2004; Baruch et al. 2007; Khoo 2014; Li et al. 1996; Mazzarol & Soutar 2002; Parey & Waldinger 2008; West et al. 2000;).

On the other hand, some mentioned pull factors contributing to the decision to move abroad or stay in the home country are: high socio-economic position gained (Tansel & Güngör 2003), economic conditions in home country (Baláz et al. 2004; Delicado 2010; Golub 1996; Gökbayrak 2012; Güngör & Tansel 2014; Khoo et al. 2014; Tansel & Güngör 2003), limitations of the educational system (Baruch et al. 2007; Becker et al. 2004; Constant & D’Agosto 2010; Delicado 2010; Golub 1996; Li et al. 1996; Tansel and Güngör 2003), and
general problems like corruption (Baláz et al. 2004; Baruch et al. 2007; Delicado 2010; Golub 1996; Güngör & Tansel 2014).

1.2.2 Career decision making

In order to understand the need to leave and build a career elsewhere, we need to also understand which factors are influencing the decisions of a young person about his career and how the decision-making process functions.

Baruch (2004) and Hart & Barratt (2009) explain that the process of graduate career decision-making is unpredictable and instable, while the factors influencing it are very complex. The main reason most students aim to pursue university degree is to find a satisfying career (Docherty & Fernandez, 2014; Fidgeon 2010), yet the complicatedness of the labor market can create a great challenge after graduation (Connor & Shaw, 2008; Docherty et al., 2014; Green, Hammer & Star, 2009).

Harren (1979:119) defines career decision-making as a psychological process in which “one organizes information, deliberates among alternatives, and makes a commitment to a course of actions”, thus it can be concluded that career decisions are established on the collecting and combining of information based on individual preferences (Gati & Asher, 2001). The self-efficacy beliefs, associated with one’s ability to be effective and well-organized in the achievement of career goals can also significantly affect this process (Mayrhofer, Stevrer, Mayer, Strunk, Schiffinger & Iellatchitch, 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001), because self-efficacy assists the development of interests which lead to decisions and then actions (Feltz & Payment, 2005) while strengthening commitment to career choices (Germeijs, Verschueren & Soenens, 2006). Career decisions are connected with personal characteristics (Nachmias, Walmsley, 2015) and the approach to career decisions must be considered when analyzing this process.

In today’s job market, the importance of soft-skills development, including leadership, teamwork, creativity and problem-solving, is becoming more and more important and crucial in succeeding in the work world, more than occupational titles (Carnevale & Desrochers, 2003). This is pushing young people to try and gain some experience in different
work environments in their country or abroad.

From the teen years to adulthood, the dominant factors for occupation preference are self-factors, like talents, personal needs and interests, compatible with the person’s self-concept (Greene, 2006). A career choice has a large impact on individual’s life and lifestyle, considering the fact that averagely a person spends 30 to 35 years in a chosen career (Greene, 2006).

Young people making decisions about their career should take into consideration both personal desires and beliefs and certain lifestyles and roles. Additionally, they must recognize the fact that their current beliefs and preferences may change in the future; transition and change play an important role in career development (Greene, 2003). Wang and Staver (2001) argue that student career aspiration has been found to be the most significant variable impacting students' future work experiences, and this aspiration can also be treated as a psychological outcome coming from school (Raelin, 1980).

Walberg (1981, 1986) proposed a theory of educational productivity to present the nine significant factors influencing student achievement. These factors were later grouped by Reynolds and Walberg (1992) into three sets. The first one is student aptitudes (motivation, ability and age), the second is instruction (instructional quantity and quality) and the third one is the social-psychological environment, including home, educational and peer environment as well as exposure to mass media outside of school. Wang et al. (2001) found in their research that mass media exposure is not influencing in a great degree the students’ aspiration, in the domain of connectedness with science education. The socio-economic status as well as the influence of parent’s opinion had a greater impact.

Perrone (1997) presents the idea that career-decision making is a lifelong process and not just a one-time preference of profession. Green (2006) argues that today’s young people will probably not relate to the opinions of teachers or parents in their career decision making, but will rather express through it their identity and values (Davis & Rimm, 1998).
1.2.3 Personal values

Personal values can be one of the important motivators of human behavior, leading to decisions according to one’s desires and creating additional significance for the achievement of goals. These goals, for instance, can be about the career of young people and their choices about the techniques and roads to success they are going to choose, which they believe are right.

Personal values can be described as “cognitive representations of desirable, abstract goals”, like security or justice (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992) and they motivate actions in the same way like needs, goals and motives (Rohan, 2000; Seligman, Olson, & Zanna, 1996). On the other hand, they differ from motives and needs (Bilsky, 1994; McClelland, 1985) because they are intrinsically desirable and they need to be presented in forms that allow people to communicate about them (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz & Knafo, 2002). Values are an important part of every life segment and play a role in the development of the future.

The theory developed by Schwartz (1992) defines values as transsituational, desirable goals that can differ in how important they are as directing principles for people’s lives and whose crucial content aspect is the kind of a motivational goal they signify. Schwartz determined 10 types of values, with each one expressing a different motivational goal: self-direction, tradition, conformity, power, hedonism, universalism, achievement, benevolence, security and stimulation.

Values express “what people consider important” and the goals they want to achieve (Roccas et al., 2002). Schwartz (1992) proposes that three ubiquitous requisites of human experience constitute and create the ten different motivational goals: the elementary need of the person as a biological organism, the necessities for successful interaction among individuals, and the necessities for the survival of groups and societies. He discusses that in order for the pursuit of the goals to be controlled, they need to be expressed as values.

Value's loose definition and different names used by authors have led to the use of the term value correspondently with other terms (Ledden et al., 2007) such as quality or satisfaction (Day and Crask, 2000; Payne and Holt, 2001; Woodall, 2003) and values, especially the personal values that lead human behavior, like the beliefs of right and wrong (Flint, Woodruff & Gardial, 2002).

There are individual differences in significance of a certain value, which depends from the
person’s unique combination of social experiences, biological legacy and apprehension of cultural definitions of the desirable (Roccas et al., 2002). The priorities people have in their values express strategies to fulfil these universal requirements (Rohan, 2000; Schwartz, 1992).

Additionally, it is being argued that value is perceived in the frame of an overall social or cultural environment which forms and defines personal values (Ledden, Kalafatis & Samouel, 2007).

1.2.4 Uncertainty

In the process of brain drain, as already mentioned, there are many factors influencing the leaving of country and making decisions to build a career elsewhere. One of the important factors, generally influencing decision-making about someone’s life, is uncertainty.

It has been noted that young people in industrialized countries have experienced great changes in their process of transition to adulthood, affected by globalization, internationalization of markets and increased competition (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003) though the decades. These extensive changes together generated a new level of structural uncertainty in modern societies (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003).

According to Mills and Blossfeld (2003), there are three types of uncertainty: temporal, economic, and employment related. Bernardi (2000) argues that economic uncertainty can be described as the level of economic instability of one’s educational and employment circumstances. According to Breen (1997: 477) “Temporal uncertainty reduces the attractiveness of long-term commitment and increases that of ‘contingent asymmetric commitment’ which means that young people are less able to make long-term binding engagements.

The notion of the uncertainty motivating human behavior exists in many studies. Lopes (1987) and Sorrentino and Roney (1986) present evidence that uncertainty about beliefs, feelings, attitudes, perceptions, and uncertainty about oneself, as well as other people, is unpleasant. As Pollack (2003) argues, absolute certainty does not exist, but people only strive to reduce uncertainty in the greater possible level.
As Hogg (2007) notes, the feeling of uncertainty can differ widely, depending on what it is connected to. For example, the uncertainty connected with one’s future is a particularly diffuse one, compared with other, more concrete cases. Additionally, the feeling of uncertainty can have different causes. Hogg’s (2007) uncertainty-identity theory is focusing on context-generated uncertainty about self or things that matter - while certain context causing uncertainty, like an economic crisis, lasts, uncertainty and attempts to reduce it will also continue. What also needs to be mentioned is that variations in uncertainty exist in different periods in life, and they can reflect factors such as adolescence, retirement, etc. (Hogg, 2007).

Taking into consideration the specific phase of life, it can be argued that the young people being introduced to the labor market experience the global growth of uncertainty more directly; they still do not possess experience and do not have strong ties to work organizations and environments (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003). Depending on the country a young person is living, it can be more or less hard for someone to get established in the labor market, relying on legislation, regulations, systems and work councils (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003).

Hofstede (1984) used uncertainty as one of the four dimensions in the differentiation between cultures. As Schwartz (1992) mentions, for example, Eastern cultures are the ones less open for change, they are avoiding uncertainty more and they are collectivist in a bigger degree (Hofstede, 1984).

Even though it can be argued that uncertainty reduction can motivate the keeping of prior beliefs, the justification of a system or illusion of control (Hogg, 2007), the needs to reduce uncertainty and threats can be characterized as primary needs, connected with the ideological justification of status quo (Jost, Glaser & Kruglanski, 2003) and closely linked to conservative thoughts (Jost, Fitsimons & Kay, 2004). Generally, people need to feel certain about the world and their place in it, making certainty important and offering confidence in behavior and expectations in life (Hogg, 2000).

People do not strive to avoid uncertainty in every field in their lives - according to cognitive miser and cognitive tactician models of social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) it is expected to continue the effort of reducing uncertainty only when its reduction is truly important.

There is evidence that people differ in their urge for structure or closure and their fear of
invalidity; people that seek for structure or closure care more for reducing uncertainty quickly than to be correct, while people who are afraid of invalidity are capable of tolerating uncertainty whilst they are searching for validity (Kruglanski & Webster, 1996).

Individual differences in the uncertainty feeling exist, but they can be understood as consequences of lasting social contexts, producing uncertain people (Hogg, 2000). Self-assessment theories suggest that people aim to decrease uncertainty about their self-concept, regardless of the fact of whether this is going to result in a favorable outcome (Sedikides & Strube, 1995).

It is important for people to be sure about their behaviors, feelings, or their place in the society, as well as to feel good about themselves; uncertainty and self-esteem are very powerful motivations in contexts of social identity and uncertainty is even more important when these two are compared (Hogg, 2000).

1.2.5 Optimism

It is generally argued that optimism can assist in a sense of well-being and it can alternate the way a person thinks about the achievable goals and prospects for the future. In the frame of the decisions about moving abroad it can probably motivate the thinking about the conditions in a country in a more encouraging way.

It is suggested that the different views on life pessimists and optimists have can significantly impact their lives (Carver, Scheier & Segestrom, 2010). They differ in problem confronting, in coping with difficult situations as well as in social and socioeconomic resources (Carver et al, 2010). Optimism, besides being inversely related to despair, which is leading to depressive disorders (Alloy, Abramson, Whitehouse, Hogan, Panzarella & Rose, 2006), can bring resilience in stressful situations in life (Ellicott, Hammen, Gitlin, Brown, & Jamison, 1990; Finlay-Jones & Brown, 1981). Generally, optimism can provide cognitive and contextual resources promoting mental health (Carver et al, 2010).

It is argued that optimists cope more efficiently with their stressors than pessimists (Scheier,
Brisette & Carver, 2002); there is important evidence that optimists use different strategies in coping and that these differences assist the positive association created between optimism and better adaptation (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Stanton & Snider, 1993).

However, some other studies display that differences in coping can be applicable for only part of this association (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Carver et al., 1993; Scheier et al., 1989; Segerstrom et al., 1998). This raises questions about other psychological and behavioral pathways that may underlie the relationships that have been observed.

1.2.6 Interdependence

Interdependence and the perception of the person about himself in connection to his relationships with others can also affect the ways a person sees his future. Persons with interdependent self-construal may be strongly influenced by wishes and needs of others and can possibly make different decisions under this influence.

Many differences in self-construals for social relationships, emotion and cognition are reviewed by Cross and Madson (1997), while Cross, Morris and Gore (2002) examined the relationship between scores on the Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal (RISC) Scale and the person’s description of their close relationships. In case these relationships are self-defining, the person should have the aspiration of developing and maintaining close and supportive ties. Hence, it is likely that these individuals will develop a bigger number of significant relationships, compared to the ones who have not created an interdependent self-construal (Cross et al., 2002).

Aron and his colleagues (Aron, Aron, & Smollen, 1992; Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991) discussed that individuals often include parts of very close relationships in their mental representations of themselves. They argue that individuals that include in their representation a specific partner are more likely to share characteristics, perspectives or resources of the other (Aron et al., 1991). Cross at al. (2000) agree that most individuals include concrete relationships but they note that there is a remarkable difference in the degree to which relationships such as friendships are self-defining. Additionally, they mention that they are not making an assumption that individuals who do not perceive themselves as interdependent have necessarily created a
largely independent self-view (Cross et al., 2000).

In the process of decision-making for persons with an interdependent self-construal, opinions and wishes of close partners may be taken into consideration. For example, going out of state for a summer job or school may be affected by a romantic relationship or family opinion (Cross et al., 2000). In the same manner, more serious decisions about migration can probably be affected too. On the other hand, an individual’s low level of interdependence is less likely to be affected by other people’s reactions or wishes and he is less likely to ask for an advice (Cross et al., 2000).

Individuals with a highly interdependent self-construal report a larger number of very meaningful relationships for them as well as stronger social support. These high scores were also related with commitment in the relationship, great level of self-disclosure and perceived closeness (Cross et al., 2002).

Cross-cultural psychologists have recognized a basic dimension differentiating how people think about themselves — the level of inclusion of elements of the social world in the self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Shweder & Bourne, 1982; Triandis, 1989). Generally, distinction is made between cultures on the individualism or collectivism dimension, while men and women are separated on the dimension of relatedness (Cross et al., 2000). It is argued that members of collectivist cultures (like Japan or India), are likely to think of themselves as interdependent with other close individuals and as defined by significant roles or situations. On the other hand, members of Western cultures (like the United States), are likely to think of themselves as independent of relationships, separated from others and autonomous (Cross, Bacon & Morris, 2000).

Cultural differences between individualist and collectivist cultures can affect the form of interdependent self-construal being developed by their members. In the case of collectivism-based interdependence, the person’s position in a situation or a group dictates behavior, thus the group needs and the behavior according to a role are the most important in shaping the self-construal (Cross et al., 2000). Kashima et al. (1995) argued the concepts of relatedness and of collectivist-oriented self-construals are not the same and they created a scale focusing on the emotional connectedness of individuals with others.
Two different principles exist, shaping the independent and the interdependent self-construal. In the case of the independent, the person is thought of as essentially separate from others with focus on components such as individual interests, abilities, goals, experiences and traits, different from any social context or membership in a group (Cross et al., 2000). In order to keep and raise this view, one must preserve a sense of autonomy and be true to their preferences, convictions, goals and rights (Markus & Kitayama, 1994).

On the other hand, the principle shaping the interdependent self-construal is the assumption that an individual is connected with others and the self is, at least partly, defined by group memberships, roles or relationships. For persons with this kind of self-construal, important relationships and roles are equally important and, in order to keep and enhance this view, they tend to act in ways emphasizing the connectedness to others and strengthening their relationships (Cross et al., 2000).

Cross et al. (2000) argue that motivational processes can also be different, in the case of different self-construals. It is generally estimated that the tendency of enhancing and promoting the self is a key motivator of behavior, but this will depend also on the nature of the self-construal. For persons with independent self-construal, self-esteem is being enhanced by standing out, being better than others and having successes (Blaine & Crocker, 1993; Harter, 1993; Tesser, 1988), while for persons having an interdependent self-construal, positive feelings about the self partly derive from creating and keeping close relationships.

For an individual with a highly interdependent self-construal, the general well-being can depend, at least partially on the welfare of close relationships, and the person can suffer if his relationships are threatened, more than an individual who is not basing his self-concept on close relationships (Cross et al., 2000). In a study conducted by Cross et al. (2000), highly interdependent individuals were more likely to consider opinions of friend and family in important decision-making, while considering needs and wishes of others nearly as important as their own.
1.2.7 Culture

Culture can be understood as an ambience or a frame creating specific behaviors and distinguishing features of the societies it has influence on. Thus, it is legitimate to assume that individuals with the same personal characteristics but coming from distinct cultures may not perceive goals and make plans in the same manner.

Through their research, Markus and Kitayama (2003) discovered a new significance of culture in the creation of self and described sociocultural, sociohistorical and sociostructural situations varied by the cultural context. They argued that if the self is affected by most psychological phenomena, these phenomena should be dependent of culture and they considered the discovery of the reaching culture dependence as very important.

More and more researches are conducted in the field of cultural variation and its processes associated with the self, the choices, the emotions, the motivation, the creativity etc. (Markus & Kitayama, 2003). Additionally, an effort to discover the practices of language, media, legal system and schooling, as well as social interactions which maintain these tendencies, is apparent (Markus & Kitayama, 2003).

People from different cultures have significantly disparate construals of the self, of others, as well as the interdependence of the aforementioned. These construals can influence, and frequently determine, the types of the individual experience, including emotion, cognition and motivation (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In order to explain the possibility of distinct self-construals, it can be firstly noted that people are generally likely to develop an understanding of themselves as distinct individuals (Hallowell, 1955). Allport (1937) claimed that an aspect of personality which allows a person to be sure he is the person he is must exist, while Neisser (1988) referred to an ecological self, which is perceived in connection with the physical environment.

Apart from the mentioned, a person is probably aware of inner activities, like dreams, which can lead him to a sense of an inner self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Some inner aspects of the self may be universal and others specific for certain cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Markus and Kitayama (1991) support Durkheim’s (1912/1968) notion that the self is principally a
product of social factors. They additionally suggest that the inner self, as well as the public self, that derives from the relations with others, can also vary depending of the culture. They have not succeeded in total to replicate certain findings in various cultural contexts, which they believe must not lead to immediate conclusions about differences. Instead, they find it necessary to identify theoretical processes and elements, which can explain these differences.

When it comes to Greek and Serbian culture, it can be argued that they are geographically and historically close and somehow similar. In our time, both nations have been going through crisis, especially Greece in the last seven years (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015), whereas in Serbia there is currently instability and a rise in violence noted in the domestic environment, indicating that there is a great struggle for survival welcoming any options for resolving the situation (Milić, 2007). The culture and the way it affects the self-construal, in combination with the current situation in the two countries might possibly be connected to the tendencies of young people living in them.

1.2.8 Media and their effects

Starting from 1609, when the first newspaper was published (Giles, 2010) and continuing with the emergence of other media, like radio, television as well as social media, media have become an integral part of our everyday life and a factor influencing the way we see the world around us and the way we act. In the case of migration of young professionals, media can have an influence on the way opportunities abroad and inside the country are perceived.

It is considered important to have an insight of the occurrences around the world, in order to function as competent citizens. If we want to know more about what is happening in geographically distant places our tool are the media, which hold the role of information delivery (McCullagh, 2002). It is being argued that media can bring two types of information: about events outside of our society and about events in our own society we do not have access to (McCullagh, 2002), like official institutions, whose visibility is being increased through media coverage (Thompson, 1990).

One of the characteristics of today’s media presence is the overwhelming number of information,
creating the “information overload” (Giles, 2010) and making it harder to preserve a level of media literacy and choose between everything offered. Maybe we cannot be aware of the general influence media have on our lives but media psychology tries to understand how our behavior is affected by the media and the intrinsic human characteristics (Giles, 2010). Two terms are being used to express the relationship between people and media: effect and influence (Giles, 2003). All media psychology researches contain this dimension; for example, texts such as the ones by Bryant and Zillmann (1994) show a range of various approaches under the term “effects”. On the other hand, David Gauntlett (1995) argued that “influences” are a more appropriate term, pointing at the complex social and environmental factors like media, which are influencing behavior.

There are two different views of how media function. One of them is the so-called “window on the world” by which media show us a clear, objective picture of the world (McCullagh, 2002). According to Zhu (1992) media have a limited capacity and it is inevitable to make some kind of a selection. Herman (1985) points out that the selected issues must be the ones that are important to be known by the public. The second view is the one of the “fractured glass”, created by media sociologists, and it suggests that media bring to our attention some events, that may not necessarily be the most significant, leading to partial and selective image of the world (McCullagh, 2002). In conclusion, the media have the power to constitute our sense of the social reality through controlling the information they present (McCullagh, 2002).

On the other hand, the important question for media studies is not the presence of selectivity or media bias but the perspective from which media describe and interpret the world (McCullagh, 2002). This is expressed through the idea of framing, which can be defined as the providing of not only information, but perspectives too. The frames enable audiences to “locate, perceive, identify and label” the information that they receive (Goffman, 1974: 21).

Media framing is a process inviting audience to draw conclusions while presenting the topic from a certain angle (Giles, 2010). While message framing has been popular for some time (Ferguson & Gallagher, 2007), media framing was slowly developing. As Robert Entman says, “frames introduce or raise the salience or apparent importance of certain ideas, activating schemas that encourage target audiences to think, feel, and decide in a particular way” (Entman, 2007: 165). The basic idea is that frames consist of a combination of various media elements
If the media influence the view of the social world and if people’s behavior is related to their social understanding, then it can be concluded that media have the potential to shape action, both social and political (McCullagh, 2002). On the other hand, Bennett (1982) argues that in order for media power to be translated into reality, the audience must believe and accept the knowledge media is presenting.

Opposing perspectives exist in the field of media audience. For example, Gitlin (1978) argued that watching media is addictive and that audiences can be particularly vulnerable, becoming “prisoners” of media. Contrastingly, the “uses and gratifications” theory sees audiences as the masters of media, using and controlling them (McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972). Katz (1987) noted that media studies change from the first to the second view about every ten years and there is a constant rediscovery of issues and retrieving of solutions. Therefore, a need to combine these two views into a new model exists (McCullagh, 2002).

When it comes to new media, research is still small-scale in the field of media psychology. These phenomena are interesting to psychologists because through our media use the human nature is revealed (Giles, 2010). A functionalist approach was taken by several researchers, to discover what the Internet was used for. Ferguson and Perse (2000) studied the Internet from uses and gratifications perspective, as an alternative for television, and found that television was preferred as a way for relaxing and passing time; their results do not apply completely today, because the use of media is quickly changing.

Social psychologists are increasingly considering the importance of cultural, social and historical context of behavior and are steadily shifting from examining the viewer to examining audiences (Giles, 2003). Giles (2010) argues that “peer influence” has been for many years a misleading concept, based on the idea that knowledge is being dispersed between social groups, without taking into consideration cultural influences, the most important of which is the media.

Whichever media we prefer, it is certain that they all play an essential part in everyday life (Giles, 2003). For example, many viewers organize their television viewing and their routines according to news bulletins; this is particularly important for people with restricted mobility, who are staying in touch with the outside world through media (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).
1.2.9 Media bias

The level of trust in media is significant because if it is not measured it is hard to truly understand and to be certain about their influence and the power they have in constructing people’s opinion about events and occurrences impacting their life.

Trust in media is consisted of four other lower factors: trust in the selectivity of topics, the selectivity of facts, the accuracy of depictions and journalistic assessment (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). A scale developed by Kohring and Matthes (2007) is the first validated one measuring the trust in media in a communication research and it includes the previously mentioned factors. In communication research, trust can be evaluated as the most important variable for media effects (Tsfati, 2003) because it provides information about perceptions and evaluation of news media by individuals (Kohring & Matthes, 2007).

There are different approaches measuring the credibility of news media, on which research is concentrating – studies on source credibility, comparative credibility of different media and the one identifying the dimensions of credibility in factor analytical studies (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1959) differentiated two elements of credibility: trustworthiness and expertness. The first one indicates the absence of persuasion and partiality and the second how intelligent and well-informed the communicator appears. Up to today, these two elements were crucial in media credibility research. The newspaper was initially perceived as the most credible medium, while later statistics showed the advantage of television (Roper, 1985).

An individual does not have the power of controlling and supervising the efficiency of different state systems, because of the lack of knowledge, time or money. This leads to the news media, understood as the critical source of information considering political and social life. News media have a role to collect and transmit information about dependences of modern society and, in that manner, to enable people to orientate and adjust their social expectations (Kohring & Matthes, 2007).

Luhmann (1979) argues that trust compensates the risk of transferring control to someone else and it reduces the complexity of future, perceiving it as something that holds certain possibilities.
Only where something is at stake trust is needed (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). Therefore, trust in news media is crucial for trusting other social actors. Nevertheless, it is not feasible for journalists to provide all information, so the informing is selective and this selectivity makes relying on the news media very risky (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). According to this, the term selectivity can be recognized as the key term for the theoretical base for trust analysis (Kohring & Matthes, 2007).

A model developed by Kohring (2004b) assumes that news media are aware of the potential consequences of certain events in other areas of society and that they communicate solely events that can be meaningful at the same time above the sphere of the society where they happen (Kohring, 2004a, 2006).

The trust in media is a very important concept because it affects the way they are perceived and the level of relying on them when making important decisions.

1.3 Rationale and aims of the study

In every period in history, young people have faced certain obstacles and difficulties when finishing their education and making the next step of entering the job market. Now more than ever, the challenges are growing, but so are the possibilities of easier movement, because of the accelerated internationalization and globalization (Iredale, 2001).

Our interests have always been in the field of professional development and empowerment of young individuals, and our path led us to thoroughly explore two particular countries and their youths: Serbia and Greece. Additionally, our fascination with the field of media psychology grew over time and this was an ideal opportunity to bring together all these interests and conduct a research about a topic which is, in our opinion, very current and significant.

The present study used a quantitative method with an online questionnaire consisted of 100 questions and organized in seven sections according to the thematic units reviewed through literature.
Through our study, one research hypothesis was created: Young people in Greece and Serbia are influenced by the bad economic situation in the country and its media presentation, and are more likely to migrate abroad in order to find a job.

Additionally, the study tried to answer the following research questions:

- Which are the most important values for young people considering moving abroad?
- Is the feeling of uncertainty having an influence on the decision of seeking for a job abroad?
- Are more interdependent persons less likely to leave their country to work?
- Is the general optimistic feeling about the situation in the country motivating people to stay?
- Are the possible cultural differences between Greece and Serbia resulting in different thinking about moving abroad?
- Are media in Greece and Serbia making young people feel uncertain about their future?
- Do young people consider media as reliable and objective?
- Are the levels of media use and trust in them related with the decision to move abroad?

Our study attempted to cover the broad area of factors affecting the migration intention of young people in the two aforementioned countries.
Chapter 2: Research Methods

2.1 Method

This study employed a quantitative approach, which was considered the most appropriate since the aim of the study was to gather information from both Serbia and Greece in a short period of time and from a satisfactory number of participants. The research tool was an online questionnaire, consisted of 100 questions of different types, separated in seven sections and organized in distinct units, tables and presented in various forms (see in Appendix, page 77).

The questionnaire was chosen because it could include a number of questions of different types, measuring different aspects. The scales incorporated were needed in order to determine personal characteristics of the individual that could be affecting the decision to move abroad. A general opinion was researched, thus a bigger number of participants needed to be involved, something not so easily accomplished with a focus group or through individual interviews.

Some authors have argued that online surveys using the Web and electronic mail have some methodological issues, related to low response rates, bias and access (Couper, Traugott & Lamias, 2001; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998), but the Google Forms used for the creation of this study’s questionnaire have fairly overcome them. The response rates were high, the bias was checked and relatively supervised by controlling the sample and the access which was possible only once to each user, with Google blocking any attempt of accessing the form from the same IP address.

The questions were separated in the following thematic sections: Demographic data, Personal values, Interdependence, Intention to migrate, Media usage, Media and uncertainty and Media credibility. Each one of the sections was an important part of the creation of a whole picture and of reaching the goal of the research - understanding the way personal, cultural factors and media influence young people’s decision to build their career in their country or move abroad, thus their general intention to migrate.
2.2 Participants

The final sample consisted of 240 participants: 79 females from Serbia, 75 females from Greece, 45 males from Serbia and 41 males from Greece (124 participants from Serbia and 116 from Greece). After this sample was gathered, some participants needed to be excluded, because they were not part of the target group (8 individuals were above the age limit, 14 individuals finished their studies more than 4 years ago, 17 individuals were not living in their country, while some were not compatible for more than one reason). Consequently, the examined sample constituted of 210 participants: 110 from Serbia and 100 from Greece; 141 female and 69 male; and more concretely: 74 females from Serbia, 67 females from Greece, 36 males from Serbia and 33 males from Greece.

We considered important to ask the participant to fill in his age from the beginning of the questionnaire, in order to have an average age result, as well as to be certain the participants were within the boundaries of the target group (18 to 30 years old). The average age of the participants was 23.12 years. It was decided to include people of the mentioned age, because the age of 18 is generally the one when a young person finishes High School and makes more important decisions about their life. In Greece, the average age for entering University is 18 (The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development - OECD) and in Serbia 19 (http://www.mpn.gov.rs/). After entering the University, we assumed that a person is thinking more seriously about his future prospects and opportunities offered in their country.

The age of 30 was chosen as an age signifying the entering of a more serious life period. The studies in Greece and Serbia generally last four years and many students finish them later or decide to continue to master or doctoral studies. Then, a period of job search and the gaining of the first working experiences begin. Our decision about the target group was based on an empirical research and a general discussion with young people, where it was concluded that this is the most critical period for making a career decision and moving abroad in order to find a job. Later, people tend to settle, follow a certain career path and start a family.

It was also requested from the participants to fill out the country of origin (Greece or Serbia) so as to separate and to compare the answers from the two countries; no information existed about whether some participants had one Greek and one Serbian parent. Additionally, we estimated
that a question about whether the participant is living or not in his country of origin would be a significant one, in order to exclude the participants already living abroad; our target group was exclusively the young people still living in their country of origin (Greece or Serbia).

The 4 years after the completion of studies were chosen as a period in which, in our opinion, a person is generally exploring his interests, possibilities and is gradually becoming an active member of the labor market.

2.3 Process of data collection

The collection of data lasted 23 days, from 27/06/2016 until 19/07/2016. The questionnaire was initially designed in a Microsoft Word format and then was transferred to Google Forms. Piloting test involved one participant and some changes were made after their feedback. This participant was not included in the final sample.

The questionnaire was shared in various social media groups, amongst acquaintances and in specific social media groups which are close to the thematic area of the questionnaire and where possible participants could be found (student groups, faculty groups, media and culture groups etc.).

The results were automatically gathered in a Google spreadsheet, after the completion of every questionnaire. In the end, the spreadsheet was downloaded, and a distinction was made between males, females, Serbians and Greeks, in order to immediately have information about the participants. The results were later analyzed with the SPSS program.

2.4 Questionnaire description

Before the beginning of the questions, every participant was informed about the purpose of this study, the target group and information about the researcher, as well as about the possibility of contacting her through an e-mail address provided, in the case of questions regarding the study and its results.
According to Babbie (2012), it has been suggested that if the questions about demographic data are situated in the beginning of a questionnaire, this can influence the way a person perceives himself and the way he will answer the questions that follow. He will characterize himself by his sex, nationality, occupation etc., which can affect his answers. We decided to put these questions first, since we were aiming to target people in a certain age, facing similar difficulties in paving their career path and being influenced by media in a certain manner.

The question considering the education and the current occupation was included in order to better understand the thoughts of people with different backgrounds and different occupations about the media influence and moving abroad.

In the last phase of designing the questionnaire, a question was added in this section, focusing the attention on whether the participant has already lived in another country or not. We felt that would be an interesting addition, in order to explore how individuals who have already lived abroad and returned to their country think about moving again, in comparison to the ones that lived their whole life in their country of origin.

The last question of the section was considering the studies and the time when a person finished them; it was also used in order to control the target group, having in mind the fact that the study is focusing on people who are still studying or have finished their studies 4 years ago maximum.

2.4.1 General information

The first section included 8 questions, and its purpose was to obtain some general information about the participant. The questionnaire was anonymous, thus no name was requested, only information about age, sex, education, occupation, and country of origin.
2.4.2 Personal values

For the measuring of personal values the Personal Attitudes Scale created by Schwartz (1994) was used. The scale contains 27 sentences connected with the importance of certain concepts, through which values and principles are expressed.

Schwartz (1994) defined three universal requirements for every individual and society: “needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups”. From these requirements, he derived ten types of values, motivationally distinct: power, hedonism, achievement, stimulation, universalism, self-direction, tradition, benevolence, security and conformity. Under the types of values, he mentioned certain exemplary values, referring to every type. The questions posed in our questionnaire were connected to these values, and the mark given by every person to a certain statement was resulting in the level of the perceived significance of the value.

The original Likert scale had end points of -1 to 5, with -1 meaning “Contrary to my values” and 5 “Absolutely important”. Google Forms do not allow all features, hence the scale had to be adjusted and modified to begin from 0 and end in 6.

2.4.3 Interdependence

Interdependence was measured with the Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal (RISC) Scale taken from a study by Cross, Bacon & Morris (2000). The scale was constructed in the mentioned study and we chose 10 questions to include in our research, in order to measure the level of interdependence and independence of each participant.

When developing the scale, Cross et al. (2000) included numerous measures. They argued that when a person characterizes his relationships as self-defining, he will likely desire to maintain and develop a higher number of close ties with others. Consequently, they included measures of closeness in order to evaluate the concept broadly. It was hypothesized that persons with a higher interdependent construal would be more likely to protect their relationships, would view the
relationships as more self-defining and would consequently receive greater social support. Additionally, it was proposed that more interdependent persons would allow their relationships to influence their life more. Considering these facts, we decided to include the scale in order to explore whether interdependence is defining and affecting the decisions in the field we investigated.

For all the measures in the scale used in our study, participants responded using a 7-point Likert-type scale - starting from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Indexes created by Cross et al. (2000) were designed so that high scores indicate high levels of the construct (high scores on the RISC scale signify greater levels of the interdependent self-construal).

The modification of the questions created by Cross et al. (2000) and taken for the study usually included the change of focus from the relationship with people generally, or with a group, to the relationship with a close friend or family members. When completing the scale, the participants were asked to “indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements”, which were expressing the feeling of interdependence.

2.4.4 Intention to migrate

This section included few different subsections, examining the same matter in a different way and aiming to gain insight in the future plans of the participant. The first two questions were based on the fact that participants had already answered whether they are students, employees or unemployed. In this section, a question was posted, trying to discover where the students, the unemployed participants and the employees who stated that they want to change their work placement, plan to look for a job – the questions were not required to be filled since every participant was to answer according to his occupation.

Next, a scale was used to identify the level of the intention of the person to migrate, ranging from 1 (no intention) to 5 (very strong). Following this, 5 different statements were incorporated in order to discover the level of the agreement or disagreement with them and in that way identify
the level of optimism of the participant, his opinion about the opportunities and the general situation in the country.

The next subsection explored the main reasons a person would decide to move abroad or stay in his country. It consisted of 8 statements, taken from a study conducted by Labrianidis and Sykas (2015). Not all questions from this study were used in our research, since some of them were concentrating only on the target group of High School students and they could not be used for the target group of our study. Some of the statements were: *Finding a job in my field of study, Having access to better working conditions, The economic situation in my country, The political situation in my country, My love for my country, Losing my friends and family* etc. and the participants were grading each one according to the perceived importance for them, as a factor affecting their decision.

2.4.5 Media usage

In this section, two different goals were established: to determine in what extent and how many hours young people spend consuming certain media types and to discover in what degree they pay attention to their content. We considered this segment valuable since the usage only is not indicating the real effect of media on the mindset of a person if he is not paying attention to what is being published and said.

There was a question integrated for every medium separately: the Newspapers, the Television, the Radio and the Internet – specifically about the hours spent in a week on reading/watching etc. a certain medium and the level of attention given to the news encountered there.

In the second part, when asking about genres, some general types were used: politics, economy, entertainment, latest news (for someone who gets informed about the latest, considered the most important by media, happenings) as well as national and international news, which can show whether a person is relying more on what he saw/read about his country or about what is published about other countries and topics. We aimed to discover which are the most viewed types and consequently the ones that are affecting public the most. The scale used is a Likert-type one, ranging from 1 to 5.
The first scale, discovering the time and attention to media was taken from a study conducted by Shrum (2001), while the second was created by us, with the goal of focusing on some of the most present categories of media content.

### 2.4.6 Media and uncertainty

This section was consisted of four statements, aiming to explore the level of uncertainty media cause. The section was taken from Gardikiotis, Belavadi & Hogg (in preparation) and the number of the existing sentences was reduced, in order to be connected with the current study. Some existing questions, concentrating more on politics, were not estimated as important for this study. The questions were of the following type: *Generally, how uncertain are media making you feel? How uncertain are media making you feel about the future of your country? How uncertain are media making you feel about yourself as Greek / Serbian?*

The questions were changed in order to be more general as they were focusing only on Greece, while we aimed to make them suitable for participants from both Greece and Serbia. The participants were selecting the level of the uncertainty caused by media on a Likert-type 7-grade scale.

### 2.4.7 Media credibility

The items included in the scale for the measurement of perceived media credibility were taken from a study conducted by Abdulla, Garrison, Salwen, Driscoll, & Casey (2002). The questionnaire in our study was a quite thorough one, with many scales and thematic areas, so the last part needed to be focused and limited on few items, in order not to tire the participant.

The items chosen were considered the most important ones for the present study. Additionally, some of the so-called dimensions proposed by some researches were already examined by other scales, such as the one of media use. The five different factors chosen were: *Honesty, Accuracy, Objectivity, Trustworthiness* and *Fairness*. The Likert-type scale in the study by Abdulla et al. (2002) proposed a total of 12 items, of which 5 were chosen.
Chapter 3: Data Analysis

3.1 Construction of new variables

Certain questions of the questionnaire were combined, in order to create new variables measuring different concepts which were used for analysis.

Regarding personal values, a factor analysis revealed a six factor solution, and essentially six value structures on which participants differ: the self-enhancement value (Cronbach Alpha .806), the openness to change value (Cronbach Alpha.748), the universalism value (Cronbach Alpha .871), the benevolence value (Cronbach Alpha .741), the conformity-tradition value (Cronbach Alpha .750), and the conformity – security value (Cronbach Alpha .677). The Cronbach Alpha was measured in order to determine the reliability of every factor; the score above .7 is considered credible (Cronbach, 1951), and most of our results were proven credible, except from the last one, conformity – security value, which is considered acceptable.

Each one of the value structures was derived from the responses given to the following items of the questionnaire (Table 1): the self-enhancement value (Social power, control over others, dominance; Authority, the right to guide or command; Wealth, material goods, money; Influence, influencing people and events), the openness to change value (Enjoy life, food, sex, leisure, etc.; A life with variety, full of challenges, innovation and change; An exciting life with rejuvenating experiences, Curiosity, interest in everything, exploring), the universalism value (Equality, equal opportunities for all; Peace, a world without wars and conflicts; Respect of the earth, living in harmony with other species; Protection and preservation of the environment; Social justice, injustice correction, care for the weak; Assistance, working for the good of others; Giving forgiveness, with the intention to forgive others), the benevolence value (Honesty, authenticity, honor; True friendship, close friends who support me; Mature love, deep intellectual and spiritual closeness; Loyalty to friends; Sense of belonging, a sense that others care about me), the conformity-tradition value (Obedience, consistently performing my duty; Self-discipline, self-control, resistance to temptation; Living with humility; Living with moderation) and the conformity – security value (Honoring parents and elders, respect; Family safety, security for loved ones; Showing respect for tradition).
### Table 1: Value structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value structures</th>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-enhancement value</strong></td>
<td>• Social power, control over others, dominance;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Authority, the right to guide or command;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Wealth, material goods, money;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Influence, influencing people and events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness to change value</strong></td>
<td>• Enjoy life, food, sex, leisure, etc.;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• A life with variety, full of challenges, innovation and change;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• An exciting life with rejuvenating experiences;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Curiosity, interest in everything, exploring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Universalism value</strong></td>
<td>• Equality, equal opportunities for all;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Peace, a world without wars and conflicts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Respect of the earth, living in harmony with other species;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Protection and preservation of the environment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Social justice, injustice correction, care for the weak;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Assistance, working for the good of others;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Giving forgiveness, the intention to forgive others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benevolence value</strong></td>
<td>• Honesty, authenticity, honor;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• True friendship, close friends who support me;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mature love, deep intellectual and spiritual closeness;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Loyalty to friends;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sense of belonging, a sense that others care about me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conformity-tradition value</strong></td>
<td>• Obedience, consistently performing my duty;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Self-discipline, self-control, resistance to temptation;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Living with humility;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Living with moderation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conformity-security value</strong></td>
<td>• Honoring parents and elders, respect;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Family safety, security for loved ones;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Showing respect for tradition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A new variable of interdependence was computed by the mean of the ten items of which the scale in the questionnaire was consisted (Cronbach Alpha .811). The media involvement variables were calculated by multiplying the frequency of the exposure to the medium by the attention devoted to it.

Four credibility variables were established, for each medium separately (Press, Television, Radio and Internet), as a mean of the five relative questions evaluated by the participants for every medium (honesty, accuracy, objectivity, trustworthiness and fairness).

The variable of media uncertainty was computed as the mean of the relative five items (Cronbach Alpha .915) used in the questionnaire to measure the general feeling and the level of uncertainty caused by the media in different fields and aspects (Generally, how uncertain are media making you feel?; How uncertain are media making you feel about the future of your country?; How uncertain are media making you feel about yourself as Greek / Serbian?; How uncertain are media making you feel about your future?; How uncertain are media making you feel about your future career in your country?).

From the scale where participants were identifying the level of agreement with statements considering leaving, staying or general feeling about opportunities in their country, the first two items were used (I believe I can live my whole life in my country and be satisfied; I am optimistic about the future situation in my country) and a mean was calculated to create the variable of the belief to stay (r= .652). The remaining three items (The only way to be satisfied is to leave abroad; There are no opportunities in my country for young people; I find it easy to leave my country in order to work somewhere else) were taken and a mean was derived to create the variable of the belief to leave (Cronbach Alpha .694).

The intention to migrate was measured with the scale ranging from 1 to 5 and the two questions about preferences for finding a job (abroad or in the country of origin).

The next scale in the questionnaire was asking the participant to choose the level of significance of certain factors in the decision to move abroad. Eight statements were expressing different factors, of which the first two (Finding a job in my field of study; Having access to better working conditions) were taken and their mean was used to signify the individual motive (r= .764). The mean of the next two items (The economic situation in my country; The political
situation in my country) was taken to create the variable of the economic-political motive \((r= .733)\), and the remaining four \((My \ love \ for \ my \ country; \ The \ probability \ of \ not \ returning \ in \ my \ country; \ Losing \ my \ friends \ and \ family; \ Losing \ the \ lifestyle \ I \ have \ in \ my \ country)\) were measuring the created lose-country motive (Cronbach Alpha .711).

### 3.2 Sample characteristics

As already mentioned, the final number of the participants was 210 and starting from 18 (minimum age) until 30 (maximum age), with the mean age being 23.12. Females were over-represented, but not so markedly as to present serious problems in sample representativeness. There were 141 female participants (67.1%) and 69 male (32.9%). As far as ethnicity is concerned, 110 persons were Serbians (52.4%) and 100 Greek (47.6%).

Considering the education, most of the participants were highly educated, having a bachelor degree or having graduated from a technological educational institute (46.7%). Next were individuals that have finished secondary education (19.5%), then participants having a master’s or PhD degree (18.6%), participants with a diploma from a vocational training institute or post-secondary school (14.8%) and people with primary education (0.5%).

The majority of the participants were students (54.3%), 24.3% of them were both students and employees, 14.3% were just employees and 7.1% were unemployed. Most of the participants have never lived in another country than their country of origin (80%), some of them indicated that they have studied abroad (9%), have worked (4.8%), or have studied and worked (2.9%), while few were born abroad (1.9%), or reported that they lived abroad just for a few months (1%) or that they will move abroad soon (0.5%). The three last responses were derived from the answers on the last option available (other), giving the possibility of filling in something different than the offered. This does not mean that some other participants could not possibly be born, have spent a few moths abroad or have a plan of migrating soon.
3.3 Correlations

In order to assess the factors that are correlated with participants’ intention to migrate, a number of correlational analyses were run in the whole sample. The Pearson Correlation (r) was used in order to discover the linear dependence between two variables, of which the most common one was the intention to migrate.

The correlations between the intention to migrate and media involvement (paper, TV, radio and internet) were not significant (Table 2).

Non-significant results were also found in the correlations between intention to migrate and media uncertainty (Table 2), as well as media credibility (Table 3). Some interesting findings were discovered in the field of media exposure connected with perceived media credibility (for example, the TV involvement was found positively correlated with TV credibility; as expected, the more a person watches TV, the more he or she believes in its credibility) but those findings were not in the scope of our study.

The following tables usefully illustrate the most significant general findings in correlations as well as in comparisons between the two nationalities and sexes.

Table 2: Correlations between intention to migrate and media involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Paper Involvement</th>
<th>TV Involvement</th>
<th>Radio Involvement</th>
<th>Internet Involvement</th>
<th>Media Uncertainty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3: Correlations between intention to migrate and media credibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Press Credibility</th>
<th>TV Credibility</th>
<th>Radio Credibility</th>
<th>Internet Credibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>.983</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interesting observations had been made about the correlation between the intention to migrate and different media contents. Amongst six types of content, the most significantly correlated were politics and economy. Political news were negatively correlated with the intention to migrate ($r = -.144; p = .036$), meaning that the more a person follows this type of content, the less he or she is likely to intend to move abroad. A similar pattern was indicated in economic news content, which was also significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.138; p = .046$) - the more a person follows it, the less he or she is likely to migrate (however, see below how these correlations differ between Serbs and Greeks). The other four categories (latest news, entertainment, national news and international news) were not found to be significantly correlated with the participants’ intention to migrate (Table 4).

### Table 4: Correlations between intention to migrate and types of media content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Political Content</th>
<th>Economic Content</th>
<th>Latest News</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>National News</th>
<th>International News</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>-.144*</td>
<td>-.138*</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>-.088</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.449</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All correlations between the intention to migrate and the beliefs and motivations about migration were found to be significant. The belief to stay was, as expected, negatively correlated with the
intention to migrate \( (r = -.577; p < .001) \), as well as the motive of losing the country, the friends, family and lifestyle \( (r = -.206; p = .003) \). The more a person has developed his belief about staying, the less he or she is likely to intent to migrate abroad, and the more is motivated by keeping the lifestyle of the country of origin he or she is less likely to leave (Table 5).

Contrastingly, the belief about leaving the country was positively correlated with the intention to migrate \( (r = .652; p < .001) \), thus the more a person believes it is better to migrate, the greater his intention is. Additionally, individual motives, like a better career and opportunities, expressed as the individual motive were also positively correlated and leading to a greater possibility of migration \( (r = .325; p < .001) \). The economic and political situation in the country has been also positively correlated with intention to migrate; the more they consider the economic and political situation as important, the more possible it is that they intent to migrate (Table 5). Additionally, as expected, the belief to stay was positively correlated with the lose country motive, while the belief to leave was positively correlated with the individual and economic-political motive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Belief to Stay</th>
<th>Belief to Leave</th>
<th>Individual Motive</th>
<th>Economic and Political Situation Motive</th>
<th>Lose country Motive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>( -.577^{**} )</td>
<td>( .652^{**} )</td>
<td>( .325^{**} )</td>
<td>( .212^{**} )</td>
<td>( -.206^{**} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When it comes to correlations between the intention to migrate and personal values, positive correlation was found between the intention to migrate and self enhancement \( (r = .148; p = .032) \) and openness to change values \( (r = .262; p < .001) \). The more a person gives attention to self-enhancement and is open for changes in his life, the possibility of his migration increases.

Negative correlation was discovered between the intention to migrate and the conformity security motive \( (r = -.162; p = .019) \). The more a person values his conformity and security, the
less he is likely to intent to migrate abroad. The other values that were measured in relation with the intention to leave were: the benevolence value, the conformity-tradition value, the conformity-security value as well as interdependence. None of those was found to have a significant correlation with the intention to migrate (Table 6).

Table 6: Correlations between intention to migrate and personal values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Self-Enhancement</th>
<th>Openness</th>
<th>Universalism</th>
<th>Benevolence</th>
<th>Conformity-Tradition</th>
<th>Conformity-Security</th>
<th>Interdependence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.148*</td>
<td>.262**</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>-.162*</td>
<td>-.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.954</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Comparisons between Greeks and Serbs

In order to assess the different factors related to intention to migrate separately for Serbs and Greeks, a number of correlational analyses were run within each national sample and visual inspection of the correlation coefficients between the two ethnic groups was made.

In the comparison between results obtained from Greek and Serbian participants separately, both groups were found to have a significant and positive correlation between the openness value and the intention to migrate (r = .207, p = .039 and r = .315, p = .001 for Greek and Serbian participants accordingly). On the other hand, the results considering conformity and security value were not the same; in the case of the Greek sample, the results were not found significant, while for Serbsians they are significant and negatively correlated (r = -.198; p = .038). The conformity value was found to be a powerful motivator for Serbian individuals to stay in the country, lowering their intention to migrate. Results considering the correlation between
universalism value, benevolence value, conformity-tradition value and interdependence with the intention to migrate were not significant neither for Greek or Serbian participants (Table 7).

Table 7: Correlation differences in values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Self-Enhancement</th>
<th>Openness</th>
<th>Universalism</th>
<th>Benevolence</th>
<th>Conformity-Tradition</th>
<th>Conformity-Security</th>
<th>Interdependence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GREEKS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>.207*</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>-.131</td>
<td>-.149</td>
<td>-.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.804</td>
<td>.961</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERBIANS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.315**</td>
<td>-.023</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>-.198*</td>
<td>-.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison was made between the motivations and beliefs of the two nationalities, in connection with their intention to leave. The belief of staying was found significant and negatively correlated for both groups (Greeks: $r = -.520; p < .001$ and Serbs: $r = -.644; p < .001$). Besides this, the belief connected to leaving the country, as well as the individual motive of finding a better job placement were for both groups positively and significantly correlated. For Greeks the belief to leave had the following results in correlation with the intention to migrate: $r = .610$ and $p < .001$, while Serbians had: $r = .692$ and $p < .001$. The individual motive for Greeks resulted in: $r = .371$ and $p < .001$ and for Serbians: $r = .297$ and $p = .002$ (Table 8).

Interestingly, the economic-political motive was found important and positively correlated only in the case of the Serbian participants ($r = .253; p = .008$), meaning the more they are concerned about the economic and political situation in the country, the more likely they are to migrate, something not indicated in the case of Greeks ($r = .171; p = .090$). The motive of losing the country, the lifestyle and the friends and family in it was found to be a strong motivator for Greek participants only. This motive was found significant and negatively correlated with the
intention to migrate: \( r = -0.284 \) and \( p = .004 \), while this was not the case for Serbian participants: \( r = -0.140 \) and \( p = .145 \) (Table 8).

Table 8: Correlation differences in beliefs and motives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Belief to Stay</th>
<th>Belief to Leave</th>
<th>Individual Motive</th>
<th>Economic and Political Situation Motive</th>
<th>Lose country Motive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GREEKS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pearson</strong></td>
<td>-.520**</td>
<td>.610**</td>
<td>.371**</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>-.284**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERBIANS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pearson</strong></td>
<td>-.644**</td>
<td>.692**</td>
<td>.297**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
<td>-.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No significant correlation or differences were found between exposure to certain types of media, their credibility and media uncertainty, neither for Serbian nor Greek participants (Tables 9 and 10).

Table 9: Correlation differences in media involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Paper Involvement</th>
<th>TV Involvement</th>
<th>Radio Involvement</th>
<th>Internet Involvement</th>
<th>Media Uncertainty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GREEKS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pearson</strong></td>
<td>-.123</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>.990</td>
<td>.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERBIANS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pearson</strong></td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.654</td>
<td>.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interesting differences were found between the correlation in intention and media content for Greek and Serbian participants. It was shown that watching international news, by Greek participants, is significantly and positively correlated with the intention to migrate - the more a person is following international news, the greater is his intention to migrate. This does not seem to be the case with the Serbian participants. On the other hand, political, economic and national news were, for Serbian participants, significant and negatively correlated with the intention to migrate, showing that following these media content types is related with decreased likelihood of migration. The same was not shown for Greek participants. Latest news and entertainment have not appeared to be significantly correlated with the intention to leave neither in the case of Greek neither in the case of Serbian participants (Table 11).

Table 10: Correlation differences in media credibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Press Credibility</th>
<th>TV Credibility</th>
<th>Radio Credibility</th>
<th>Internet Credibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GREEKS</td>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>-.148</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>-.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>.967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERBIANS</td>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>-.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td>.498</td>
<td>.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Correlation differences in types of media content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Political Content</th>
<th>Economic Content</th>
<th>Latest News</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>National News</th>
<th>International News</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GREEKS</td>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.245*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.489</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>.898</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4.1 Direct comparisons between Greeks and Serbs

After doing the t-Test, the study resulted in some more interesting findings, considering the values driving certain groups, Greeks or Serbs, males and females. It was found that Greeks (N=100) are significantly more characterized by the value of self-enhancement ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 3.45$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 3.13$), as compared to the Serbs (N=110), while Serbs are more driven by the value of benevolence than Greeks ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 5.22$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 5.44$). Furthermore, it was detected that Serbs were considerably more characterized by the conformity-security value ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 4.54$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 4.91$). The scale measuring the level of values was ranging from 0 to 6, and the values marked as the most important for both groups were benevolence ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 5.22$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 5.44$) and universalism ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 5.17$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 5.07$), while self-enhancement was ranked as the lowest by its importance ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 3.45$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 3.13$). In the case of Greek participants, openness was third by its importance and conformity-security fourth, while Serbian participants stated the opposite. The last two values were the same: conformity-tradition and self-enhancement (Table 12).

A great difference was shown in the levels of media uncertainty, when Greeks and Serbs are compared. Greeks were found to report greater uncertainty deriving from the media: $M_{\text{Greeks}} = 5.29$, whilst Serbs had a lower score: $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 4.35$. As far as credibility of media is concerned, significant differences were found in the area of press credibility – Greeks rated press as more credible than Serbs ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 2.79$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 2.04$). Contrarily, Serbians rated TV as more credible than Greeks did: $M_{\text{Greeks}} = 1.81$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 2.07$. A significant difference was found in Radio credibility too, where Greeks evaluated it as more credible: $M_{\text{Greeks}} = 2.87$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 2.57$. No significant differences were found in the evaluation of Internet credibility, which was by both groups indicated as the most credible ($M_{\text{Greeks}} = 2.88$; $M_{\text{Serbs}} = 2.69$ – scale from 1 to 5). From all

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERBIANS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>-.332**</td>
<td>-.302**</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>-.203*</td>
<td>-.078</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
media, Greeks rated Television as the least credible medium (M\textsubscript{Greeks}=1.81) and Serbians Press (M\textsubscript{Serbs}=2.03) (Table 12).

No significant differences were found between the means for the intention to leave, other values, interdependence, beliefs or other media involvement. Both groups demonstrated a significant level of intention to migrate: on the scale ranging from 1 to 5, both groups showed an intention above 3.5 (M\textsubscript{Greeks}=3.58; M\textsubscript{Serbs}=3.67). Interdependence was also apparent for both Greek and Serbian participants, who ranked it on the scale from 1 to 7 above 4 (M\textsubscript{Greeks}=4.70; M\textsubscript{Serbs}=4.80). The belief to leave was stronger than the belief to stay (on the scale from 1 to 7: M\textsubscript{Greeks}=3.99; M\textsubscript{Serbs}=4.05; M\textsubscript{Greeks}=3.21; M\textsubscript{Serbs}=3.50 respectively). Between the motives for migration, the individual motive proved to be the most important for both groups (M\textsubscript{Greeks}=5.87; M\textsubscript{Serbs}=5.70 – scale from 1 to 7). Both groups expressed the greatest engagement with Internet, while Radio, Television and Press were next.

Table 12: Comparisons between Greek and Serbian participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to migrate</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Enhancement Value</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism Value</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity-Security</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief to stay</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief to leave</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Uncertainty</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serbian</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press Credibility</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Comparisons between females and males

The second comparison was made between the female (N=141) and the male (N=69) participants. Even though the female group was represented in a greater level, some conclusions and assumptions were driven from the results of the study.

The intention to migrate was significantly characterizing the male participants in a greater extent: $M_{\text{Females}} = 3.511; M_{\text{Males}} = 3.870$, but it was supported in a great level for both groups (on the scale from 1 to 5). Significant differences had been noted in the values field; while male participants were more characterized by the self-enhancement value ($M_{\text{Females}} = 3.12; M_{\text{Males}} = 3.62$), female participants were more driven by the value of universalism ($M_{\text{Females}} = 5.2320; M_{\text{Males}} = 4.8903$). The value of benevolence was the most important for both groups but indicated as more important by the female participants ($M_{\text{Females}} = 5.45; M_{\text{Males}} = 5.11$). The conformity – security value was also marked as more important for female participants ($M_{\text{Females}} = 4.87; M_{\text{Males}} = 4.45$).

Both sexes rated values in the same manner: benevolence was the highest, then universalism, openness, conformity-security, conformity-tradition and self-enhancement (Table 13).

Interdependence was expressed stronger through the answers of the female population participating in the study ($M_{\text{Females}} = 4.95; M_{\text{Males}} = 4.35$) but was found high for both groups. A marginal difference has also been noted in the levels of media uncertainty: female participants declared more uncertain about the media ($M_{\text{Females}} = 4.93; M_{\text{Males}} = 4.53$).

No significant differences were found in the means of other values, beliefs, media involvement or media credibility. The belief to leave was more expressed than the belief to stay, by both sexes ($M_{\text{Females}} = 4.01; M_{\text{Males}} = 4.04; M_{\text{Females}} = 3.39; M_{\text{Males}} = 3.31$ respectively). The individual motive proved to be the most important for both groups in the case of sexes too ($M_{\text{Females}} = 5.80; M_{\text{Males}} = 5.79$).
= 5.75 – scale from 1 to 7). The most credible medium for both groups was Internet (M_{Females} = 2.74; M_{Males} = 2.85 – scale from 1 to 5) and least credible television (M_{Females} = 2.00; M_{Males} = 1.82). Both groups expressed the greatest engagement with Internet, while Radio, Television and Press were following with lower numbers.

Table 13: Comparisons between male and female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to migrate</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Enhancement Value</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism Value</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolence Value</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity-Security Value</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief to stay</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief to leave</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual motive</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Uncertainty</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV Credibility</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Credibility</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 4: Discussion

4.1 Discussion

4.1.1 The research area of “brain drain”

The concept of brain drain is a complex one, affected by various variables and not fully predictable by the research made on this topic. Yet, there are some notions usually mentioned by theory as influencing the movement of young educated people from developing countries, including economic reasons or personal ambitions (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015). It can be argued that Greece and Serbia are in some concepts similar countries – their geographical proximity and certain mutual historical aspects, as well as the present crisis they are going through (Labrianidis & Sykas, 2015; Milić, 2007) can create a sense of closeness and resemblance between the two nations. On the other hand, this cannot be taken as a solid proof of the same practices and behaviors in any area, neither in the area of brain drain.

Numerous researches have been conducted in the area of brain drain, attempting to discover the factors influencing this general move, which has become even more complex with the globalization and the valuation of an international experience as very important for the career path of every young professional (Carrington, 1999; Mahroum, 2000).

The present study investigated differences in motives, values and cultural influences on the migration of young Greek and Serbian educated individuals, as well as the media and the uncertainty they create, concerning the decision to move abroad to seek for employment after the end of studies.

4.1.2 Motivation for the migration of high-skilled individuals

As mentioned in literature, the self-directed expatriation is one of the most common motivations for immigration abroad (Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2001); our study, which included around 200 individuals, of whom most were highly educated (46.7% having a
bachelor degree, 18.6% Master’s or PhD), found that the individual motives are very significant and positively correlated with the intention to migrate. Finding a better job placement and the access to better working conditions (the individual motive) proved to be very important for young people in Greece and Serbia. Apart from this, no significant difference was found between the two groups, or between the two sexes, indicating the existence of equal importance of this motive and strengthening its significance for the research of the topic.

Through the investigation of the main scope of this study the intention was to discover the differences and motives for migration. No significant difference was found in the intention to migrate between the groups of Greek and Serbian people, while for both groups it can be characterized as genuinely high. On the other hand, it was interesting to note a greater intention within the male group of participants. This could be possibly related to the fact that the conformity-security value was found significantly more represented for the female participants. In our study it was evidenced that a negative correlation exists between the intention to migrate and the conformity-security motive, indicating a lower intention to migrate with the raise of this value – something possibly leading to the former conclusion.

As expected, the beliefs about leaving or staying had a significant impact on the participants’ expressed intention to move abroad and they were significantly correlated with different motives – individual, economic-political and the motive of losing the country of origin. For Serbians and Greeks, as well as female and male participants, the belief of leaving was more evident than the belief of staying. Considering the fact these beliefs were important in correlation with the intention to leave, the noticeably high level of migration intention can be explained in connection to this agent.

The optimism about the situation and the outlooks for future in the country of origin investigated through a questionnaire’s scale measuring the beliefs of staying or leaving, was correlated with a lower intention to leave. This could be used as evidence that optimism can be related to instigating certain decisions (Carver, Scheier & Segestrom, 2010), such as the ones about career, and serves as a good example of difference between optimistic and pessimistic people in problem confronting and coping with situation in social and socioeconomic areas.
The second important group of factors indicated by literature includes family and friend relations, family advice and several other social and cultural factors (Cross, Morris & Gore, 2002). In our study, a negative correlation was found between lose-country motive, which was comprised of the statements about losing the family and friends as well as the lifestyle one had in their own country, the love for the country and the probability of not returning to it. It is interesting to observe that, when comparing the two nationalities, this motive was found significant only for the Greek participants. On the contrary, Serbians were more motivated by the economic and political situation, which has proven not to be significantly correlated with the intention to leave for the Greek participants.

The factor of economic and political situation was found to be significantly correlated with the intention to migrate, motivating the moving of young professionals abroad. Even though both countries face certain difficulties in the entrance of young people in the job market, it seems that Serbians pay greater attention to these economic hardships and are thinking less about the country and the people close to them that they would be leaving behind. As Hogg (2007) argues, the lasting economic crisis brings with it a lasting uncertainty and our study determined the importance of the economic and political factor. However, the uncertainty cultivated by the media has not been found to be correlated to participants’ intention to migrate in any of the two countries.

Studies argue that the decision to move can be influenced by the person’s easiness at the adjustment process as well as by their values (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2007). Our results depict that the value of openness to change can be a significant influencer for the migration decision. Participants who ranked a life full of variety, innovation and new experiences as very important, proved to be more open to move abroad to seek for employment, something we formerly expected. The openness to change was positively correlated for both groups, with no significant differences, as well as for men and women. It is clear that young persons with mainly open attitude want to explore many possibilities before settling down, which can lead to greater tendency to either continue their studies abroad or move after they finish them.

Furthermore, it was interesting to note the significance of the personal factors and values of every individual for a decision concerning their career. As various authors discuss, people who consider their own opinions crucial for their career-planning will be less affected by loyalty to
their family or country (Baruch et al., 2007; Hall, 1976, 2002, 2004). The self-enhancement value, linked with social power, control over others, dominance, authority, wealth and influence on people and events was identified in our study as positively affecting the intention to migrate. Thus, it can be discussed that individuals who are aiming to gain control, be significant agents in decision making, and be successful and wealthy, tend to pursue their career goals and are ready to more easily make a decision and move abroad in order to feel accomplished. It is interesting to note that Greek participants were more defined by this value and have marked it as more important than Serbians. Furthermore, male participants ranked this value as a more important, in comparison with females.

Having in mind that Serbians evaluated their security as more important than the value of openness, it can be suggested that Greeks are striving more to pursue their goals and are more risk-takers, if that implies their ambitions will be fulfilled. The cultural distance between the country of origin and the target country can also create a difference in the migration decision (Hofstede, 1984; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Shenkar, 2004). Thus, even though both nationalities ranked the openness to change as very important, the difference in self-enhancement can indicate that Greeks are maybe more ready to overcome the cultural differences, while Serbians are more bound by their value of conformity and security. It can be hypothesized that the fact Greece is a part of the European Union created the feeling of a greater closeness for Greeks with the possible countries in which they can migrate, while Serbians feel that a greater obstacle exists in building a career abroad.

It is significant to remark that despite these differences, the value of self-enhancement was marked as the least important by all groups of participants, in contrast to benevolence and universalism, which proved to be the most important for Serbians, Greeks, female and male participants. This indicates that although some strivings between the nationalities and sexes can differ, they are in their base similar, and allowing us to speak about certain cultural closeness.

Researchers explain that values can be important motivators of behavior, representing the desirable goals and the directing principles of life (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). People make their priority to fulfill their goals which can be affected by their values, making them very important in the process of decision-making (Rohan, 2000; Schwartz, 1992).
In our study, few values were shown significantly correlated with the intention to leave. It was observed that the value of benevolence, the feeling of connectedness with friends, of love and loyalty is not considerably associated with the intention of a person to leave. The general feeling of a person about spiritual connection and mature relationships is seemingly not affecting his decisions about his own career building in the country or abroad. The value of benevolence was found to characterize the Serbs more than the Greeks and the female population more than the males participating in the study.

Additionally, the value of universalism was not found in significant correlation with migration intention, separating the feelings of the importance of peace and social justice from the personal life decisions. The value of universalism was also represented in a higher level as relevant for the female participants, meaning that they consider equality, peace and social justice as more important, compared to men.

The literature review has shown that interdependence can affect some processes of the decision-making for more interdependent persons, taking into consideration the wishes and opinions of people close to them and changing their motivational techniques (Cross et al., 2000). Even though interdependence was expected to be related to the intention to migrate, no significant correlation was found in our study. No great differences in the level of interdependence between the countries were found either, indicating they are quite similar, in contrast to some other more independent or interdependent cultures. In this case interdependence was shown as fairly high but not significant, while personal values had a greater impact. In conclusion, both nationalities expressed a considerable level of interdependence, but this could not lead to any significant correlations or other important findings.

It has been suggested that individuals coming from different cultural backgrounds can have distinct construals of self or others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Besides the similar levels of interdependence or values’ importance, some differences were noticed in the way the two nations perceive the conditions in their country and the probabilities for the future. However, some further conclusions about the effect of the cultural surrounding could not be drawn.
4.1.3 Media influence

The great changes happening in the transition to adulthood, as well as with the entering in the job market are additionally intensified because of globalization, market internationalization and the accelerated competition (Mills & Blossfeld, 2003). Uncertainty can be created by numerous factors, including the phase of life somebody is in, for example the time period examined by our study, between the age of 18 and 30, when a person is planning his future career steps.

We attempted to investigate the level of uncertainty caused by the media and the news they publish, amongst young people in Greece and Serbia. The uncertainty included the uncertainty media can cause about future, about belonging to a nationality or about building a career in the country of origin. Unexpectedly, the media uncertainty was not found significantly correlated with the intention to leave, opposing the hypothesis that this caused uncertainty can change the way young people make decisions about their future career steps in the country or abroad. On the other hand, an interesting observation can be made about the difference in the levels of media uncertainty between the two nations: Greeks stated to be significantly more media uncertain, leading to some assumptions about the quality and type of information provided by the media in the two countries. It can be speculated that media in Greece exhibit types of content and news which are displaying the world situation as more unfavorable, causing an intensification of uncertainty in individuals engaging with their subjects.

Surprisingly, the political and economic media content was significantly negatively correlated with the intention to migrate, increasing the possibility of staying in the country with the raise of watching and paying attention to it. While the economic and political situation showed a significant correlation and had a great role as a motivator of the participants’ decisions to migrate, it seems that we cannot assume the same for the impact of the way this situation is presented in the media, through the political and economic content.

Our study found that when comparing the two nations, Serbian participants were significantly more influenced by three media content types: political, economic and national news. It was found that the more a Serbian person watches and pays attention to this type of content, the more his intention to stay increases, something not initially expected to be concluded from the research. Contrastingly, Greek participants were significantly more influenced by international
news, but inversely; the more they watch and pay attention to this type of content, their intention to migrate shows a growth. These findings could possibly indicate that Serbian participants are more focused on the content displayed about their own country, while Greeks consider very significant to follow international occurrences, which influence their perceptions.

It can be assumed that the three types of content influencing Serbian participants are negatively correlated with the intention to migrate because with the raise of the interest of the individual about these news, his interest about his country raises too, meaning he will be more likely to stay and make an effort to contribute to the development of his country. Contrastingly, the greater interest about international news, expressed by Greek individuals, is increasing their intention to leave.

The remaining categories included in the questionnaire (latest news and entertainment) did not show significant results neither generally neither for a specific group, indicating that these types of content are followed by more casual readers and possibly not transmitting messages of high importance which could affect decision making in the examined field.

After taking these variables into consideration it can be suggested that Greeks are more affected by the media in the case of migration intention, even though the levels of this effect were not proven to be enough to motive certain patterns of behavior in the case of leaving the country for career reasons.

In the open-end question included in the questionnaire it was asked from the participants to state the time spent on following a certain medium and then to additionally rank the level of importance given to them. It was shown that both nationalities, as well as the two sexes, expressed the greatest level of engagement with Internet, while the three other categories were following with markedly lower numbers (the second was Radio, then Television and Press).

Many study findings support that media can be powerful and shape social and political actions through the “framing” which is providing not only news but also perspectives (Goffman, 1974; McCullagh, 2002). Today’s society media play an important role in presenting the most important news about significant occurrences, so as to allow the residents of a country to have a picture about their prospects and everything that can influence them, because they need to orientate and adjust their social expectations (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). When it comes to
media bias, it has been argued that the selectivity of media makes the relying on them very risky (Kohring & Matthes, 2007) and this raises questions about their reliability and influence.

Our study included a section in which media bias has been investigated, for four media separately as well as a general estimation about media credibility. The level of the perceived media bias was seemingly not associated with the individuals’ intention to leave, suggesting that the perception about how credible media are and the opinion about the news they choose to present to the audiences cannot affect in a significant degree the decision of these audiences about moving abroad.

According to some former researches, the Press was initially perceived as the most credible medium, with later tendencies of evaluating Television in a favored position when credibility was examined (Roper, 1985). When analyzed separately, the results of our study about media bias of four media between the two countries showed some interesting differences. It was concluded that Greek participants thought of Press and Radio as more credible media, in contrast to the Serbian individuals who rated significantly higher the credibility of Television. Both nationalities ranked the Internet first and then Radio as the most credible ones; for the Greeks the third one was Press and last was Television, while Serbians stated the opposite. This finding confirms the greater level of trust in Television and lower level of trust in Press Serbians have. In the case of the two sexes the results were same as for the Greek individuals.

Some connections could be ascertained between the exposure to a certain kind of medium of the two groups and their perceived credibility: Internet and Radio were ranked as the most credible media types and they were at the same time the types to which the participants were most exposed. Some declinations can be noted in the two other media, because of the differences between the results of the two groups in the area of credibility.

Our study shows an evident difference in the perceptions that exist in the two countries and probably also in the level in which nationals of the two countries choose to rely on each medium. It is very interesting to notice the different opinions about these “traditional” media, which are still an important part of everyone’s life. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in the case of Internet credibility marked by the contestants, something that could possibly suggest that Internet is a more universal medium, harder to be affected by the media culture or the media
companies of a certain country and is being trusted at a similar degree in Greece and Serbia. Newspapers, Radio and Television are affected to a greater extent by some practices and their quality can vary, changing the way people perceive them too.

4.2 Implications and limitations of research findings

As already mentioned, the scales used in the questionnaire were not all taken from existing studies. Some of them were modified in order to fulfil the scope of our study and others were created as a mixture of different features from the literature and some our suggestions. This implies that the validity and reliability of certain scales cannot be confirmed because no repetitive usage in various studies existed. In the process of the questionnaire’s construction many changes were made and advices were taken from students and professors, in order to reach the optimal number of questions which can bring results, whilst not tiring the participant. The number of questions as well as their type was completely our decision, which was taken after reviewing the literature and having in mind the target group for the study.

The number of participants included in the study was quite satisfactory. On the other hand, the possible drawback is the non-balanced sample in the case of the two sexes. We considered it more important to have a similar number of participants from the two countries, which was successfully gathered (110 Serbians and 100 Greeks), but male participants were harder to find. The main reason we believe that male participants were limited is that the questionnaire was shared amongst students of faculties with larger number of female students – the School of Journalism and Mass Communications as well as the Faculty of Philology. For this reason, we could not make any stronger assumptions about the differences between the sexes, whereas we focussed more on the differences between the two nationalities, which was our primary goal either way.

Due to time limitations, the number of participants needed to be restricted to the ones that answered before the 19th of July, when the planned analysis began. This excluded some participants that answered shortly after. Additionally, participants not meeting the criteria of the
target group were also excluded, resulting in the number of 210 from the initial 244 answers; four answers were belated and 30 more did not meet the requisites.

An additional fact causing some difficulties was the section of media usage. This was the only section of the questionnaire required to be filled in the form of a written answer (hours or minutes spent on following a certain type of media); this lead to some non-acceptable answers, simple digits or words not answering the asked question, which needed to be excluded. Thus, the number of answers varied in the case of different media: for Press 206 participants answered validly, for Television 204, for Radio 201 and for the Internet 187. This, however, was not present in such a great level so as to create changes or difficulties for the later analysis of data.

A fact that we can also identify as a possible problem is the language of the questionnaire. The initial plan was to translate it in Greek and Serbian, in order to be more understandable for all participants. However, the process of translating all questions before and all the answers from mother tongue to English after, for the analysis, would take a lot of time and the time limits were not allowing it. We can assume that a number of individuals decided not to participate in the study when they encountered the language barrier and we need to be more cautious about the results we acquired because probably not all participants have the same level of knowledge of English language and some possible false understanding of questions or statements could lead to inaccurate answers and conclusions. All conclusions should be taken with a dose of circumspection but we can be satisfied by the general participation and gathered answers.

Besides the language barrier, we need to take into consideration that maybe not all participants are familiar with the terms used in the questionnaire and might define notions such as uncertainty or trustworthiness in a different way. This, however, cannot affect the results of the study in a significant degree.

Something that can additionally be identified as a complication is the lack of significant results in the area of the correlations between the interdependence of participants and their intention to migrate. It can be assumed that the used scale was not suitable for our research and could not result in presenting relations with the migration intention, something we initially expected.

The investigated uncertainty, as already mentioned, showed a tendency to be correlated with the intention to migrate but did not demonstrate significant findings. Although some other results
suggested a connection could exist, we could not draw conclusions in this area. In our opinion, it is possible that certain statements affected the responses and led the results to non-significant, while not offering enough space for the participants to express their opinion. This issue can be examined by changing some statements and reinvestigating the connectedness with the intention to migrate.

4.3 Suggestions for future research

This study attempted to discover the general correlations between various factors and the intention to migrate. Having in mind the complexity of this topic, there are many more angles that can be researched, discovering interconnections between the intention to migrate and other sociological and cultural factors, as well as personal characteristics. Further investigations are needed in order to validate the proposed instrument and discover possible adaptations needed, while ensuring the results’ validity.

The topic on which the study is concentrating, the “brain drain” and aspects motivating it, was very interesting and timely. We are all witnessing the size of the impact of this phenomenon and the changes it brings in the structure and prospects of a country. For that reason, in the future it would be interesting to investigate the impact of this phenomenon and its causes in other countries, both developing and developed and make a comparison between the results.

Additionally, a greater sample from the two countries included in our study would offer more information and confirm the results we acquired, something not possible in the current study due to time limitations. A good idea would be to include more faculties and make a comparison between students and graduates of different directions of study, in order to identify possible differences between professions and the number of people migrating because of the lack of opportunities in their professional area. This kind of a research would offer valuable information for the work related agencies, offering a direction in which places for employment should be opened and more opportunities should be offered in order to motivate young educated individuals to stay in their country and contribute to the growth of its economy. After the
development of economy, new possibilities for employment would be available and that would consequently lead to a lesser intention for migration.

In a future investigation it would be very important to include a greater number of male participants and have a more balanced sample. Our research found interesting correlations and comparisons between the two sexes, indicating that this is an area in which there is potential for further investigation. Some results were found important when the two sexes were compared, which was not the case in other comparisons. It would be significant to discover the genuine impact the sex of a person has on his or her identity as well as the process of decision making and moving abroad to seek for employment.

Furthermore, it would be interesting to use, besides the questionnaire, individual interviews and focus groups, to discover the specific opinions and true motivations for the behaviour of young people. The questionnaire proved to be a useful tool for gathering a large number of answers, but an investigation through interviews would be significant in order to have some valuable guidelines for taking this research on a greater level. The discussion between people of different ages (again ranging from 18 to 30), from different educational branches and from different countries would give an insight about the differences emerging and would allow a better understanding of the problems young people face when deciding about their career. As Bulsara (2015) notes, a mixed method of this type would be useful for examining the topic from different perspectives and for ensuring the validity of the collected data.

In the case of a new questionnaire, conducted in a longer period of time, it would be beneficial to conduct the same study with a different sample and in the mother language of the participants. The results could be compared in order to discover whether the language barrier created some difficulties and modified the findings of the first study. In the case of a new questionnaire, as already mentioned, it would also be useful to modify the scales for measuring interdependence and uncertainty, in order to discover the possible correlations missing from the current study.

Another idea is to include in the future a broader target group – High School students. It would be interesting to discover how this group of young people think about their future before entering university, in contrast with students or graduates, and thus follow the changes in the values and aspects motivating people in different periods of life, in the case of migration.
Something that could also be included and might offer insightful information is the socio-economic status of the participant; for our study it was not considered crucial but it could probably reveal some differences existing between young people being in a different economic situation, as well as the ones supported by their family and others having to work to support themselves during their studies. Additionally, a comparison could be made between the ones that had already worked in their country and the ones having no experience, inspecting their opinions about moving abroad and the impact of a former employment in the country of origin on the decision to migrate.

One of the initial goals of our study was to discover the differences between the opinions of individuals who already lived abroad and returned to their country, in comparison with the ones that lived their whole life in their country of origin. Subsequently we decided to focus more on some other aspects and comparisons, while this result was only statistically measured. In a future study this feature can be explored more and the results could lead to some interesting assumptions.

Having in mind that the scope of this investigation was broad, we could not significantly focus on the sector of media. Therefore, in a future research it would be important to concentrate more on the relation with media and incorporate specific questions considering the usage, attention, media content etc. Not many significant relations were found in this area showing that further investigation is needed, including the modification of questions which could probably lead to more concrete results about media’s effect on the migration intention. The present study offers some guidelines, indicating the significance of exploring the impact of political and economic content, as well as the reasons for their negative impact on the intention to leave.

In the case of the target group, a similar study could be conducted with individuals who have already migrated abroad for professional reasons, and adjust the questions to find the most present motivations that affected people to make this decision, compared to the ones who stated that they intent to move in the future. Additionally, the motivations for staying abroad could be discovered, as well as the probability of returning in the home country.

Besides examining the side of the students and employees, it would be interesting to conduct interviews with employers in the country and abroad, to discover the objective advantages and
disadvantages of the work place and the validity of the perception people have about their job prospects in the two cases. The results of this study could help young people in their career path as well as the employers to better understand the difficulties and drawbacks people face and what leads them to seek for employment elsewhere. The findings of a study of this type would offer a good base for further, more concrete researches.

What could also prove useful is the analysis of media content in the two countries. It would be interesting to compare the results about credibility and media content exposure with the actual content provided in media, and in that way discover why there is such a great difference between Serbians and Greeks in certain areas and the way they perceive media in their country.

In the case of conducting a new study considering this topic in Greece and Serbia, some further cultural connections could be discovered through an historical overview of the two nations and their common experiences through time. In that way, some different or similar results acquired from participants of the two nations could be explained and better interpreted.

After acquiring and analyzing the results of the study, some new questions appeared – like the question about the connection between the values of a person and his or her self-perception, and the differences existing between their correlations with the intention to migrate. In that manner, it would be very important to investigate separately the values and the self-perceptions of people, as well as their interdependence. By discovering the relations between these complex personal factors it would be easier to further speculate and investigate the way they gradually lead to increased or decreased migration intention.

4.4 Final conclusion and reflection

This study had the scope of creating an insight in all the motives and factors affecting young people in their decision to migrate. Additionally, it attempted to discover all similar and different segments constituting the making of the migration decision, between the Greek and Serbian young people. Even though media effect was one of the main research areas, it did not show many significant correlations, with the exception of media content types. On the other hand, many interesting differences were discovered in this field, as well as in the fields of beliefs and
values. Both nations showed a genuinely high intention to migrate and both were proven very interdependent; however, interdependence has not showed important correlation with the intention to migrate. Significant correlations as well as differences were found in the most present motives for migration, as well as in the values driving the young people of the two nations and two sexes.

The overall value of the study, even though it did not have significant results in every researched area, lays in the discovery of different practices, motivations and perceptions about media which exist in Greece and Serbia and are affecting the phenomenon of “brain drain”. The study offers valuable guidelines for future research of this topic and a base for the cultural research of the two nations.

The overall experience of creating a questionnaire by combining different measurement tools and conducting a study in a new area, in which no previous experience existed, presented a great challenge and offered vast knowledge. The wide-range information and results that needed to be understood and analyzed developed our research abilities and opened a new field of interest for the future.
References / Bibliography


OECD. Diagram of Greek education system, OECD - Using 1997 ISCED classification of programmes and typical ages.


Appendix

Questionnaire

ATTITUDE RESEARCH

Thank you for participating in this research. It is focusing on people aged between 18 and 30, currently living in their country of origin, studying or have finished their studies in the past four years. Its purpose is to explore the ways media influence decision-making processes about career building in your country or abroad. It is done for scientific purposes and your answers will be anonymous and confidential. Please answer all questions using the appropriate scales. Completing the questionnaire takes about 10-15 minutes. If you have any questions or want to find out about the results of the research please send an e-mail on antonina.irini@gmail.com.

Department of Journalism and Mass Communication
Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

1. Demographic data
   Please fill the gap or choose one answer.
   1. Age ______
   2. Sex   F /   M
   3. Education
      1) Primary education
      2) Secondary education
      3) Vocational Training Institute (IEK) Post-secondary School
      4) Bachelor degree / Technological Educational Institute
      5) Master/PhD
   4. Current occupation
      1) Student
      2) Employee
      3) Student and employee
      4) Unemployed
   5. Where are you from?
      1) Greece
      2) Serbia
   6. Are you currently living in your country of origin?   YES   /   NO
   7. Have you ever lived in another country?
      1) Yes, I have studied.
      2) Yes, I have worked
3) Yes, I have studied and worked.
4) No.
5) Other (please specify) ________________

8. If you are not a student, when did you finish your studies?
   1) Less than 4 years ago
   2) Approximately 4 years ago
   3) More than 4 years ago
   4) I am still a student

2. Personal values

⇒ Please evaluate how important are for your personal life as principles and values the concepts presented below, using the following scale. There are no wrong answers and you can use each number as many times as you want.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrary to my values</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>A little important</td>
<td>Fairly important</td>
<td>Much important</td>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>Absolutely important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Social power, control over others, dominance
- Authority, the right to guide or command
- Wealth, material goods, money
- Influence, influencing people and events
- Enjoy life, food, sex, leisure, etc.
- A life with variety, full of challenges, innovation and change
- An exciting life with rejuvenating experiences
- Curiosity, interest in everything, exploring
- Equality, equal opportunities for all
- Peace, a world without wars and conflicts
- Respect of the earth, living in harmony with other species
- Protection and preservation of the environment
- Honesty, authenticity, honor
3. **Interdependence**

    Listed below are a number of statements about various attitudes and feelings. There are no right or wrong answers; we are simply interested in how you think about yourself. Please choose the number that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree, using the following scale:

    Please circle the number that best represents your response.

    |   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
    |---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
    |   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Disagree Somewhat | Neutral | Agree Somewhat | Agree | Strongly Agree |

| 1. | When I think of myself, I often think of my close friends or family also. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. | When I feel very close to someone, it often feels to me like that person is an important part of who I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. | Overall, my close relationships have very little to do with how I feel about myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. | I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my close friends and understanding who they are. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. | When I establish a close friendship with someone, I usually develop a strong sense of identification with that person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. | If a person hurts someone close to me, I feel hurt as well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
7. My close relationships are unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.

8. My sense of pride comes from knowing who I have as close friends.

9. In general, my close relationships are an important part of my self-image.

10. I usually feel a strong sense of pride when someone close to me has an important accomplishment.

4. Intention to migrate

1. If you are a student in your country of origin, where do you plan to look for a job?
   1. In my country
   2. Abroad
   3. Both but I prefer in my country
   4. Both but I prefer abroad

2. If you are working and you are not very satisfied or you are unemployed, where would you like to find a new job?
   1) In my country
   2) Abroad
   3) Both but I prefer in my country
   4) Both but I prefer abroad
   5) I am satisfied.

3. What is generally the level of your intention to migrate in the future?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No intention</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please choose the level of your agreement with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree Somewhat</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree Somewhat</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I believe I can live my whole life in my country and be satisfied.
I am optimistic about the future situation in my country.
The only way to be satisfied is to leave abroad.
There are no opportunities in my country for young people.
I find it easy to leave my country in order to work somewhere else.

Please choose the level of importance of the following factors for your decision to move abroad:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finding a job in my field of study</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Having access to better working conditions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The economic situation in my country 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The political situation in my country 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My love for my country 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The probability of not returning in my country 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Losing my friends and family 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Losing the lifestyle I have in my country 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Media usage

Please indicate how often you follow the news and to what extent you rely on them for being informed. (Please use for each medium the following two scales)

During a week, how much time do you approximately spend reading a newspaper? ____ (hours) ____ (minutes)
During a week, how much time do you approximately spend watching TV? ____ (hours) ____ (minutes)
During a week, how much time do you approximately spend listening to the radio? ____ (hours) ____ (minutes)
During a week, how much time do you approximately spend using the Internet? ____ (hours) ____ (minutes)

Using the scale (1 = Not at all to 7 = Completely) answer the following questions by putting the appropriate number.

To what extent do you pay attention to the news in the newspapers? ______
To what extent do you pay attention to the news on TV? ______
To what extent do you pay attention to the news on the radio? ______
To what extent do you pay attention to the news on the Internet? ______

In what degree do you follow these types of media content?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Politics 1 2 3 4 5
Economy 1 2 3 4 5
Latest news 1 2 3 4 5
Entertainment 1 2 3 4 5
National news 1 2 3 4 5
International news 1 2 3 4 5
6. Media and uncertainty

The following questions relate to how you feel in general about media - television, newspapers, magazines, radio, the internet, please use the scale above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>Very little</td>
<td>Little</td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>Fairly</td>
<td>Much</td>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Generally, how uncertain are media making you feel? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. How uncertain are media making you feel about the future of your country? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. How uncertain are media making you feel about yourself as Greek / Serbian? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. How uncertain are media making you feel about your future? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. How uncertain are media making you feel about your future career in your country? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Media credibility

Please evaluate the degree to which the media are characterized by the following criteria of media credibility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>Little</td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>Fairly</td>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th>Internet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!