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WORKING PAPER

What Explains Immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States?

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History of African Migration

To understand immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, it is important and beneficial to understand the history of African Migration. Around 2011, “Africans [made] up a small (3.9 percent) but growing share of the country’s 38.5 million immigrants” (McCabe, 2011, 1), but these numbers continue to grow today. In the United States, “the African community has been steadily and rapidly increasing” (Diouf). To explain just how much immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States has increased, Thomas explains, “the majority of the African population in the US arrived within the past two decades” (Thomas, 3). Furthermore, Kassa (2013) suggests, “immigration to the US from Africa has grown rapidly in recent years. In 2010, an estimated 1.5 million US residents were born in Africa, 40 times as many as in 1960 and four times as many as in 1980. 1.26 million Americans were born in sub-Saharan Africa. Changes in US immigration law along with economic and social change on the African continent have driven the rapid growth of the African immigrant diaspora” (Kassa, 5, 2013). In light of Zolberg’s (1989; 1999) work, which states “migration flows are a product of the immigration laws of states” (Thomas, 8), this paper seeks to explain the history of African migration in terms of things such as: the slave trade, Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965, and the US Diversity Visa (DV) Program.

The trans-Atlantic slave trade brought the first Africans to the United States, and is said to have lasted from 1519 to 1867. Between the 16th and 19th Centuries, forced Migration from Africa to the United States occurred, and it is expected that 360,000 Africans were forced to migrate to the United States. While African captives came to the United States between 1700 and 1807, by the mid-1800s, in the United States, “people of African descent were craftsman, teamsters, porters,” domestics, and plantation workers (Eissa, 2005, 2). On January 1, 1808,

there was a prohibition of trade in African slaves, but the practice was carried out in the United States past the mid-19th century.

In 1857 Dred Scott decided Africans did not have any rights from the constitution, and by 1863 the Emancipation Proclamation ended the transatlantic slave trade. Around 1865, with the legal end of slavery, the amount of Africans coming to the US declined. In 1868, the “fourteenth amendment to the Constitution overturned the Dred Scott decision and guaranteed citizenship, due process, and equal protection under the law for people of African descent” (Eissa, 2005, 2).

Pre-1965 brought about US immigration restrictions and a decline in immigration, but the 1965 Hart-Cellar Immigration Act was created, and by 1970, legal African immigrants nearly tripled. During this time period, European immigration laws also tightened, in which many Africans sought movement to the United States instead. In the late 1970s, when Africa’s colonial powers such as Great Britain, France, and Portugal froze immigration due to economic declines, Africans began to look more at the possibility of immigrating to the United States. After 1970 economic struggles to Africa became drastic and repetitive, which led to soaring unemployment.

In 1980, voluntary migration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States began to occur, as “the Refugee Act of 1980 amended the definition of refugee, raised regional refugee ceilings, and offered new arrivals permanent residence after one year” (Eissa, 2005, 2). The Immigration Reform and Control Act (1986) granted legalization of status to 31,000 Africans living in the United States since 1982. According to Sylviane Diouf, “tens of thousands of political refugees from Ethiopia and Eritrea, living under a Marxist regime, were allowed entry in the mid-1980s, and when the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 legalized the status of eligible illegal aliens, more than 31,000 Africans applied” (Diouf).

In the 1990s, currency devaluation amongst Africans only worsened the economic situation, and those Africans that could, migrated to the United States for a better life (Eissa, 2005, 2). The Immigration Act of 1990 brought many policies to life, including the Diversity Visa Lottery and the Temporary Protected Status. According to Diouf, “The Immigration Act of 1990 established a lottery system that favors underrepresented nations, a category that includes all the African countries. Since 1995, an average of 40,000 African immigrants have entered the country legally every year, but the number increased to more than 60,000 in 2002” (Diouf). The Diversity Visa Lottery (also known as the primary method for African immigration) allowed high school graduate Africans from nations underrepresented in the United States to immigrate. Kristen McCabe (2011) gives a brief explanation of the Diversity Visa Lottery by stating, “established by the Immigration Act of 1990, the US Diversity Immigrant Visa program offers certain persons from countries with low rates of immigration to the United States the opportunity enter a "green card lottery" administered by the US Department of State” (McCabe, 2011, 5). According to Amaha Kassa (2013), the Diversity Visa (DV) “admits immigrants from countries that historically sent few immigrants to the United States; expansion of “family reunification” provisions in immigration law; and liberalization of US refugee policy which expanded humanitarian admissions beyond those how “push factors,” including stagnant economic growth and displacement of refugees, have spurred emigration from Africa; “pull factors,” including the emigration of close relatives, have made the US a more attractive destination; and “enabling factors,” including urbanization in Africa and the development of telecommunications and transportation technology, have greatly increased transnational mobility” (Kassa, 13, 2013). Also under the Immigration Act of 1990, the Temporary Protected Status (TPS) provides “temporary refuge to foreign nationals present in the United States who would be subject to

either violence due to armed conflict or environmental disaster if repatriated” (Eissa, 2005, 2). Due to civil strife or armed conflict, the U.S. Attorney General determined the following countries eligible for the TPS program in and around the years of 2005: Sudan, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Somalia, and Burundi.

From 1980 to 2013, Sub-Saharan Africa immigration to the United States rose from 130,000 to 1.5 million. McCabe explains, “From 2001 to 2010, African nationals accounted for 28.4 percent of refugee arrivals and 21.2 percent of persons granted asylum” (McCabe, 2011, 2). In 2010, 48 percent of 49,763 people who obtained legal permanent resident through the diversity visa lottery program were born in Africa. In fact, the diversity visa is the main method for Congolese immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to Kirksville, Missouri.

Importance to the Community—Congo Case Study

African immigrants to the United States settle all across the country. While New York and Washington, D.C. hold the highest population of immigrants, examining immigration patterns from the past few years may explain Congolese immigration in Kirksville, Missouri.

John Holmes, Pierre Jacquemot, Bernard Lututala, Pierre Sossou, Boanerges M’Paty, and Fulgence Buzika (2010) explain, “as of 31 July 2010, an estimated 1.9 million people were internally displaced in North and South Kivu, Orientale, Katanga and Equateur provinces of DRC” (Holmes, 2010, 4). Holmes, Jacquemot, Lututala, Sossou, M’Paty, and Buzika (2010) argue that as villages and communities are routinely burned, looted, and uprooted, a demand for humanitarian assistance becomes prevalent. However, rather than just being in need of humanitarian assistance, this may also shed light to a need for immigration. According to Lutuala (2010), “millions of Congolese have been repeatedly forced to leave their homes to flee the sound of marching boots, or because some catastrophe has stripped them of everything, or

simply because they have no choice other than to leave” (Lututala, 2010, 8). Civilian populations in the Congo flee from killings, sexual violence, and other cruelties. Women and children flee due to horrific sexual violence. The borders of Angola and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) have been prevalent spots for forced migration. Migration in the Bandundu province has been due to: “the border situation with Angola during and in the aftermath of the civil war there, and the insecurity surrounding diamond mining on the Angolan side of the border” (Sossou, M’Paty, and Buzika, 2010, 32).

Although there will be limitations to this study, the paper seeks to provide history of immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, while providing insight on Congolese immigration to the United States. Lututala (2010) explains limitations to explaining immigration from the DRC to the United States, including: limited financing for research, limited scientific review or conferences to discuss the conflict in the Congo, little to no national scale studies to obtain national level, tend, and characteristics of migration statistics, and “research in general and research on migration in particular seems to suffer from a kind of embargo on the part of the Congolese government” (Lututala, 2010, 9). However, Lututala (2010) suggests, “a similar lack of interest in supporting Congolese research seems to be present in the wider international community as well” (Lututala, 2010, 9).

With the international community increasing in Kirksville, Missouri, the city has changed and adapted. Due to state grants, English as a Second Language (ESL) classes are available at Kirksville Technical Center for free to help immigrants not only learn English, but to also integrate cultures. According to Tom DeBlauw, Director of Adult Education and Literacy, people in Kirksville, Missouri are “here from all over the world and from many different situations. Some of them are not welcome in their home country because of religious

reasons. Some have wound up here as refugees. Some have decided to find a better life in this country because there weren't any opportunities with education. They've really come here for a variety of reasons” (Moling, 2014). While taking ESL classes allow immigrants to learn English and adapt to the America culture, they often spend long hours at local factories trying to make a living in Kirksville, Missouri.

Who Immigrants?

Factors explaining immigration can be, but are not limited to: political, economic, social, ethnic, and environmental issues. While the variables determining immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States are diverse, so are the people that immigrant. According to McCabe (2011), “classes of admission for African immigrants who gained lawful permanent residence in 2010 were also diverse, with 48 percent having done so through family relationships, 24 percent through the diversity visa program, 22 percent as refugees and asylees, 5 percent through employment, and the rest through other means” (McCabe, 2011, 1). People are also able to immigrant to the United States based on a number of humanitarian grounds, including: voluntary immigration, refugee, American citizen family member, and Employment-based visas for skilled immigrants. In fact, “the United States has provided refuge to hundreds of thousands of Africans fleeing persecution” (Eissa, 2005, 1). According to Jie Zong and Jeanne Batalova (2014), “most sub-Saharan Africa immigrants who obtain lawful permanent residence in the United States arrive as immediate relatives of U.S. citizens, refugees, or through the Diversity Visa Lottery” (Zong and Batalova, 2014).

Zong and Batalova (2014) state, “the contemporary wave of sub-Saharan migration is diverse and includes both skilled professionals and less-educated refugees” (Zong and Batalova, 2014). According to Diouf, “African immigrants have established themselves as one of the most

dynamic entrepreneurial groups in the country” (Diouf). Eissa Salih (2005) further explains, “today’s African immigrants tend to be upwardly mobile professionals. Most come to the United States by way of the Diversity Lottery visa” (Eissa, 2005, 1). According to Kassa (2005), “African immigrant educational attainment is exceptionally high. Nearly 65% of African immigrants have one or more years of college education, more than any other ethnic group except Asian Americans” (Kassa, 5, 2013).

Immigration may seem like a good idea when people from sub-Saharan Africa are faced with conflicts, sexual violence, war-torn areas, and more, but the struggles do not always stop when people come to the United States. While “African immigrants are culturally, economically, and socially diverse” (Kassa, 54, 2013), they may face several economic and legal challenges, including: immigration status, employment, education and skills, access to services and public benefits (public education), social and cultural integration, voluntary immigrants, refugees, and social, psychological, health, and behavior challenges (mental health, domestic violence and conflict over gender roles, and intergenerational conflict). Once immigrants come to the United States, they are faced with challenges involving: education, mutual aid networks, entrepreneurship, and identity problems and connections to cultural heritage. To meet the needs of immigrants, places in the United States must have resources, responsiveness, commitment, and cultural competency. Types of organizational institutions exist to help immigrants, including: Multiracial services providers (MSPs), African-focused service providers (ASPs), Ethnic specific associations (ESAs), and Multiracial advocacy organizations (MAOs). Immigrants also have access to civic engagement and political influence, such as: domestic policy advocacy, international policy advocacy, constituent education, and grassroots policy campaign. Some challenges that arise with immigrants that are most likely relevant in

Kirksville, Missouri, including: funding, research and needs assessment, and local and regional challenges.

To explain just how complicated it is to explain immigration patterns from Sub-Saharan to the United States, Kevin Thomas' study suggests his findings "provide an empirical basis for concluding that the dynamics of African migration to the US are becoming increasingly more complex" (Thomas, 2). In summary, Aderanti Adepoju (2000) suggests, "the demographic, economic and political situations in the region signal the possibility of increased migration in the years ahead in response to worsening unemployment, inequality, and poverty" (Adepoju, 2000, 393). Diouf suggests "Africans represent a new breed of immigrant: they are transnationals, people who choose to maintain their distinctive qualities in the host country, and retain tight links to their community of origin" (Diouf). According to Diouf, "[Africans] bring to the United States their robust work ethic, dynamism, and strong attachment to family, culture, and religion, just as other Africans did several centuries ago" (Diouf).

Literature Review

Because of the recent increase of Africans in the United States, many researchers have set out to recognize factors that may increase or decrease sub-Saharan African immigration in the United States. There is a vast amount of research on this topic, but it is plagued with questions, numerous intervening variables, and criticism pertaining to unreliable data. So far, research on this topic has been revolved around several variables, but the most common factors consist of: poverty, education, professional experience, culture and ideology, language, conflict, culture and ideology, language, conflict, and gender. Research on these types of variables has led to the identification of some trends between these variables and sub-Saharan African immigration rates

into the United States. Efforts of political scientists have led to a number of identified variables that affect immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States.

Several studies provide insight into poverty causing Africans to migrate to the United States. Thomas relates immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States in terms of the neo-classical migration theory, which suggests, “international migration occurs as a result of desire of migrants from low-wage or labor surplus countries to move to high-wage or labor scarce countries (Massey et al 1998)” (Thomas, 7). “The demographic momentum, unstable political landscape, escalating ethnic conflicts, persistent economic decline, severe poverty and worsening ecological conditions have strongly influenced the trends and patterns of international migration in the region” (Adepoju, 2000, 384). Diouf’s research shows, “Low salaries, lack of adequate equipment and research facilities, and the need to provide for their extended families are the reasons for their emigration, not individualistic motivations” (Diouf).

Throughout the past three decades, the World Bank has tried to improve literacy rates by means of plans, numerous programs, and dramatic increases in education. However, due to rapid population growth in places such as Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of illiterates has increased. As the population of Africa keeps growing, programs need to be suited for the correct amount of people. Even though the literacy rate in Africa has not been constantly improving, scholars suggest highly skilled Africans dominant the African migration to the United States.

In relation to education and immigration, Kassa’s (2013) research indicates that the higher the education, higher the immigration to the United States, and “Nearly 65% of African immigrants have one or more years of college education” (Kassa, 22-23, 2013). However, Kassa (2013) does find one limitation or outlier to the statement of education and immigration correlating. The outlier is Somalia. In regards to Somalia, “Thirty-one percent (31%) of Somalis

in the US have no more than an 8th grade education, and fewer than 28% have any college education” (Kassa, 23, 2013). Diouf suggests that African immigrants are the most educated group in the nation; “Almost half have bachelor’s or advanced degrees, compared to 23 percent of native-born Americans. Contrary to popular belief, the most substantial part of African emigration is thus directly linked to the “brain drain,” not to poverty. Actually, 98 percent are high school graduates” (Diouf).

Culture and ideology have also been analyzed as factors that may affect the levels of sub-Saharan African immigration to the United States. Thomas explains immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States in terms of the World Systems theory. “As wealthy multinational corporations penetrate poorer countries they create mobile populations through processes of labor displacement” (Thomas, 9). “Emigration from Africa to the West is driven by cultural and ideological linkages created by the latter during the period of colonial rule in Africa (Castles and Miller 2009; Fronseca 2000; Thierry 2004)” (Thomas, 9). The World Systems theory suggests that in terms of “contemporary African migration to the US will be driven by emigration flows from English than non-English speaking Africans” (Thomas, 9). Communications infrastructure improvements have made communication between Africa and the rest of the world easier. Kant (2007) explains that improved phone services in Africa may positively affect emigration to the US since these services facilitate the transmission of information on US job opportunities” (Thomas, 10).

The role of conflict in a nation has also been identified as an important possible factor regarding immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. Lututala (2010) stresses two factors that force migration from Sub-Saharan Africa: political crisis and war. He recognizes that forced migration is often unforeseeable, and caused by political, economic, and

environmental reasons. Explaining immigration in a somewhat three-fold way, Adepoju (2010) says, “conflicts between ethnic groups with respect to access to political power and resources have resulted in a variety of responses including emigration, internal displacements and exile” (Adepoju, 2000, 384).

One specific author, Kassa (2013), has indicated gender as a variable that might affect immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. Kassa (2013) finds that there are slightly more men (as opposed to women) migrating from Africa to the United States. This finding may be due to gender inequality within the region of sub-Saharan Africa.

Throughout the collection of articles and journals noted here, there are relatively few solid conclusions. While some trends and variables have been identified among countries as increasing immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, every trend seems to have multiple exceptions or intervening variables influencing the trend. According to past research, political scientists have seen firsthand that development, education, gross domestic product per capita (GDP), gender inequality, freedom, and population growth rates either have or do not have an impact on immigration levels from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, but there have been disagreements on the effects of these factors. However, much more research needs to be done to measure the full explanation of immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States.

Hypothesis

Based on established relationships from prior research, this study further analyzes the effect that freedom, gross domestic product (GDP), gender, population growth, colonization, human development index (HDI), poverty, and literacy variables have on immigration rates from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. I predict that countries with high levels of education,

development, gender equality, and freedom will have higher levels of immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, while countries with high levels of population growth will have lower levels of immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. Because countries with higher levels of gender parity indexes are more likely to project equality among individuals in Sub-Saharan Africa, they may be more likely to maintain their stay in sub-Saharan Africa.

List of Variables

- My dependent variable is the percentage of immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States in 2010.
- My independent variables are public expenditure on education as a percentage of gross domestic product, poverty, gender inequality, HDI, freedom, population growth rates, literacy rates, and colonization in terms of where each country in Sub-Saharan Africa gained its independence.

Operationalization

The sample selected for this study looks at forty-three nations in sub-Saharan Africa as of 2010. This year was selected due to readily available data on immigration rates, poverty rates, and other independent variables. Additionally, the gap between previous years and 2010 allows time for effects of the Millennium Goals in most of the Sub-Saharan Africa countries.

Sample Countries:

Angola	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	Liberia	Senegal
Benin	Cote d'Ivoire	Madagascar	Seychelles
Botswana	Djibouti	Malawi	Sierra Leone
Burkina Faso	Ethiopia	Mali	South Africa

Burundi	Gabon	Mauritania	Sudan
Cameroon	The Gambia	Mozambique	Swaziland
Cape Verde	Ghana	Namibia	Tanzania
Central African Rep.	Guinea	Niger	Togo
Chad	Guinea-Bissau	Nigeria	Uganda
Comoros	Kenya	Rwanda	Zambia
Republic of the Congo	Lesotho	Sao Tome and Principe	

Data for one of the independent variables, the percent of GDP that represents public spending on education, has been collected from The World Bank database, which is provided with statistics from UNESCO. The data supplied by The World Bank represents “the total public expenditure on education expressed as a percentage of the GDP in a given year” (“Public Spending on Education”). Transfers for private entities, education administration, and government spending on educational institutions are all part of public expenditure on education. Data for the dependent variable is taken from the Department of Homeland Security’s (DHS) database, through the “Yearbook of Immigration Statistics” put together by the Office of Immigration Statistics. The amount of persons obtaining lawful permanent resident status in 2010 by country of birth in the forty-three nations this study samples is the independent variable.

Dummy variables were used to control for the impact of colonization. The country in which each individual country gained independence from was looked up using the Central Intelligence Agency’s World Fact Book and was recorded using a series of dichotomous variables. To record colonization, a country was coded with a 1 for gaining independence from France and a 0 for gaining independence from any other country besides France in SPSS.

To measure countries' population growth rate, data was obtained from The World Bank. Population growth is "the exponential rate of growth of midyear population" from each year ("Population Growth"). It is expressed as a percentage. Population growth rate is ratio-interval data, and the data taken from The World Bank was the population growth of various Su-Saharan African countries in the year of 2010.

The economic status of the sample countries was controlled using interval data. Each country's Gross Domestic Product per capita, in standardized 2010 United States dollars, was retrieved from the International Monetary Fund.

A countries' freedom score was taken from Freedom House data for the year of 2010. Interval data was used on a scale from 1 to 7; 1 is the highest degree of freedom, and 7 is the lowest degree of freedom. Freedom House defines countries as free, partly free, or not free at all.

To examine gender inequality in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2010, data was taken from United Nations Data: Millennium Development Goals Database. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization state that the gender parity index can be used to show and measure gender disparities in literacy. The gender parity index determines the relative access to education of males and females. Data for gender parity indexes from the United Nations are measured as the quotient of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in primary education.

To measure Gross Domestic Product spending on education, 2010 data was taken from The World Bank. Public expenditure on education in terms of the percentage of GDP is "the total public expenditure (current and capital) on education expressed as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) in a given year" ("Gross Domestic Product per Capita"). According to

The World Bank, transfers and subsidies for private entities, education administration, and educational institutions (public and private) are included as public expenditure on education.

Multivariate regression analysis is used to test the data on the explanation of literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa through SPSS software and determine if a relationship exists between the dependent and the independent variables. Throughout analysis tests for collinearity were used to assure the relationship between the dependent and independent variable was accurate.

Analysis

The regression model proved to be fairly sound. Table 2 shows the model has an R value of 0.730, which is the overall Pearson correlation showing that there is a 73.0 percent chance the model will be able to accurately predict the mean of future models. This model also holds an adjusted R squared value of 0.532, which means there is a 53.2 percent variance explained. According to Table 3, the model has an overall significance of 0.001 placing it within the desired 95 percent confidence level, at a 99.9 percent confidence interval. One variable has a score higher than 4, which shows that there may be a sign of multicollinearity within this study. The results of the linear regression model, which can be seen in table 4, show that for every 1 unit change in the independent variable there is a beta unit change in the dependent variable. The regression line for explaining immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States in this study is written as:

$$\hat{Y} = -5365.477 - 42.159x_1 - 0.500x_2 + 26.295x_3 - 27.346x_4 + 284.080x_5 + 24793.904x_6 + 116.918x_7 - 71.009x_8$$

The affect between my dependent variable, the amount of immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa in the United States in 2010 and how free a country is according to Freedom House is seen in Table 4. It is very weak with a standardized beta value of -.019 and a significance level of 0.887. This is below the 0.05 confidence level and therefore is not considered significant. According to unstandardized beta, 1 unit change in a freedom house score equals a -42.159

change in the percent of people over the percent of literate people in Sub-Saharan Africa. In table 1, immigration and freedom house scores have a N of 43, which means that 43 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa were included in this test. Pearson's R measured between literacy and freedom equaled -0.024, which concludes that there is a weak correlation between literacy rates and freedom scores. According to Table 4, in this study there are no signs of multicollinearity because freedom house scores hold a VIF much lower than 4, measuring at 1.233. To be significant, a T-test must be above 1.96, however, in the relationship between immigration and freedom, T was -0.144.

The variable for gender inequality, the gender parity index, showed little influence on literacy rates. Table 1 shows that there were 42 cases present while testing the correlation between immigration and gender parity. The 2-Tailed test, equaling 0.881 showed that there is no statistically significant correlation between gender parity and immigration rates. According to Table 4, the gender parity variable had a weak standardized beta value of 0.001 at a significance level of 0.992. 0.992 is below the 0.05 confidence level and is therefore considered not significant. Unstandardized beta shows that a 1 unit change in the quotient of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in primary school (gender inequality index) leads to a 26.295 unit change in the percent of literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa. Table 4 also shows that according to a T-test where data must be greater than 1.96 to be significant, gender inequality in immigration was yet another variable that did not show significance with a T of .010. Again VIF in the correlation between gender inequality and literacy rates was under 4, so no multicollinearity exists between the two variables.

Population growth rates demonstrate a weak negative standardized beta value of -0.006 at a significance level of 0.968. The t-test showed that there is no significance because -0.040 is

lower than 1.96. When looking at Table 4, unstandardized beta represents a 1 unit change in the percentage of exponential rate of growth per year (population growth rate) equals a -27.346 unit change in the percentage of immigration to the United States in Sub-Saharan Africa. The relationship between population growth rates and immigration was lower than 4 (VIF equals 1.774), representing no multicollinearity in the study.

The dichotomous variable for colonization showed little influence on immigration. Table 1 shows that there were 43 cases present while testing the correlation between immigration and colonization. The 2-Tailed test, equaling 0.808 showed that there is no statistically significant correlation between colonization and immigration rates. According to Table 4, the colonization variable had a weak standardized beta value of 0.089 at a significance level of 0.494. 0.494 is below the 0.05 confidence level and is therefore considered not significant. Unstandardized beta shows that a 1 unit change in the colonization leads to a 284.080 unit change in immigration rates in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, Table 4 shows that according to a T-test where data must be greater than 1.96 to be significant colonization in immigration was yet another variable that did not show significance with a T of 0.692. Again VIF in the correlation between colonization and immigration rates was under 4, so no multicollinearity exists between the two variables.

Table 4 shows that the human development index demonstrated a strong standardized beta value of 0.821 and a significance of 0.008, over the 95 percent confidence level and within the 99 percent confidence level. Unstandardized beta, measured at 24793.904, means that a 1 unit change in HDI leads to a 24793.904 unit change in the percentage of people immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. The T-test for HDI is greater than 1.96, which means that the effect between HDI and immigration is significant. According to Table 1, N equals 43, which shows that all the cases were represented in this specific test. However, the

VIF is higher than 4, measuring at 5.867, which means there may be multicollinearity between HDI and immigration, and Pearson's R of 0.026 represents a weak relationship between HDI and immigration rates.

Table 4 shows that gross domestic product per capita demonstrated a moderately strong standardized beta value of -0.445 and a significance of 0.044, over the 95 percent confidence level. The VIF is also lower than 4, measuring at 3.199, which means there seems to be no multicollinearity between GDP and immigration. Unstandardized beta, measured at -0.500, means that a 1 unit change in GDP leads to a -0.500 unit change in the percentage of people immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. The T-test for GDP is greater than 1.96, which means that the effect between GDP and immigration is significant. According to table 1, N equals 43, which shows that all the cases were represented in this specific test. However, Pearson's R of -0.118 represents a weak relationship between GDP and immigration rates.

Table 4 shows that poverty demonstrated a strong standardized beta value of 0.658 and a significance of 0.000, over the 95 percent confidence level and within the 99 percent confidence level. Unstandardized beta, measured at 116.918, means that a 1 unit change in poverty leads to a 116.918 unit change in the percentage of people immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. The T-test for poverty is greater than 1.96, which means that the effect between poverty and immigration is significant. According to Table 1, N equals 43, which shows that all the cases were represented in this specific test. Pearson's R of 0.624 represents a moderately strong relationship between poverty and immigration rates. The VIF is lower than 4, measuring at 1.065, which means there is no multicollinearity between poverty and immigration.

The variable for literacy rates showed influence on immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. Table 1 shows that there were 47 cases present while testing the correlation between immigration and poverty. The 2-tailed test showed that there is no significance (2-tailed test equals 0.446) between literacy rates and immigration rates. According to table 4, the literacy rate variable had a weak standardized beta value of -0.422 at a significance level of 0.030. 0.030 is within the 95 percent confidence level and is therefore considered significant. Unstandardized beta shows that a 1 unit change in the quotient of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in primary school (gender inequality index) leads to a -71.009 unit change in the percent of literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa. Table 4 also shows that according to a T-test where data must be greater than 1.96 to be significant, gender inequality in immigration was yet another variable showed significance with a t of -2.263. Again VIF in the correlation between poverty and immigration was under 4, so no multicollinearity exists between the two variables.

While several variables did not prove to be significant, it is important to note the limited time span that this study covered. Additionally, the lack of a relationship between literacy rates and gender parity may be explained by missing data for Sudan. This country did not have available gender parity index information.

Conclusion

Because of the weak and insignificant relationships between the independent variables and immigration from Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, we reject our null hypothesis in this case. Although the hypothesis was not accepted in this study, there remains much more potential for study in this area. If a larger span of years, the results may have been much different.

This study encourages more widespread studies of the effects of HDI, poverty, GDP, and literacy rates on immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. These variables seem to impact immigration in the region of sub-Saharan Africa, but the question of how much the variables matter and why they matter remains unclear.

Limitations

Although some limitations to studying the immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States have been discussed throughout the paper, it is important to know the limitations, and find out how future studies can be benefited. Adepoju (2000) suggests immigration data for Sub-Saharan Africa is “fragmentary and incomplete” (Adepoju, 2000, 384). Furthermore, Diouf suggests that Census department estimates of immigrants are traditionally unreliable. Several more limitations exist in studying immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, including: no finance for research, no scientific reviews or conferences to discuss the conflict in the Congo, no national scale studies to obtain national level, trend, and characteristics of migration statistics, and research in general and research on migration in particular seems to suffer from a kind of embargo on the part of the Congolese government” (Lututala, 2010, 9). Thomas suggests, “Data limitations on the number of migrants departing African-origin countries for the US have traditionally constrained the analysis of Africa-US migration flows” (Thomas, 4). Limited information exists in regards to specific reasons for emigration, and Thomas explains, “Diverse social and economic transformations occurring within African countries complicate our understanding of ways in which domestic African contexts affect emigration trends” (Thomas, 4). By conducting further research on what explains immigration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States, more questions will be answered and data may become less distorted.

Appendix

Table 1

Correlations

		Immigration	Freedom House	Gross Domestic Product Per Capita	Gender Parity Index	Population Growth Rate	Gained Independence From What Country	Human Development Index	People Living Under \$1.25	Literacy Rate
Immigration	Pearson Correlation	1	-.024	-.118	.024	.077	-.038	.026	.624**	-.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.878	.449	.881	.622	.808	.870	.000	.446
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Freedom House	Pearson Correlation	-.024	1	-.122	-.236	.185	.063	-.322*	.124	-.207
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.878		.437	.133	.236	.687	.036	.428	.183
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Gross Domestic Product Per Capita	Pearson Correlation	-.118	-.122	1	.122	-.526**	-.155	.805**	-.151	.539**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.449	.437		.442	.000	.322	.000	.334	.000
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Gender Parity Index	Pearson Correlation	.024	-.236	.122	1	-.005	-.081	.224	.023	.284
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.881	.133	.442		.976	.612	.153	.887	.069
	N	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42
Population Growth Rate	Pearson Correlation	.077	.185	-.526**	-.005	1	.241	-.615**	.198	-.512**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.622	.236	.000	.976		.120	.000	.203	.000
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Gained Independence From What Country	Pearson Correlation	-.038	.063	-.155	-.081	.241	1	-.279	-.009	-.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.808	.687	.322	.612	.120		.070	.953	.366
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Human Development Index	Pearson Correlation	.026	-.322*	.805**	.224	-.615**	-.279	1	-.162	.734**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.870	.036	.000	.153	.000	.070		.299	.000
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
People Living Under \$1.25	Pearson Correlation	.624**	.124	-.151	.023	.198	-.009	-.162	1	-.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.428	.334	.887	.203	.953	.299		.551
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43
Literacy Rate	Pearson Correlation	-.119	-.207	.539**	.284	-.512**	-.141	.734**	-.093	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.446	.183	.000	.069	.000	.366	.000	.551	
	N	43	43	43	42	43	43	43	43	43

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

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

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.730 ^a	.532	.419	2490.07079

a. Predictors: (Constant), Literacy Rate, People Living Under \$1.25, Gained Independence From What Country, Freedom House, Gender Parity Index, Gross Domestic Product Per Capita, Population Growth Rate, Human Development Index

b. Dependent Variable: Immigration

Table 2

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	233048450.6	8	29131056.32	4.698	.001 ^b
	Residual	204614934.4	33	6200452.558		
	Total	437663385.0	41			

a. Dependent Variable: Immigration

b. Predictors: (Constant), Literacy Rate, People Living Under \$1.25, Gained Independence From What Country, Freedom House, Gender Parity Index, Gross Domestic Product Per Capita, Population Growth Rate, Human Development Index

Table 3

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-5365.477	4786.000		-1.121	.270		
	Freedom House	-42.159	293.271	-.019	-.144	.887	.811	1.233
	Gross Domestic Product Per Capita	-.500	.239	-.445	-2.091	.044	.313	3.199
	Gender Parity Index	26.295	2758.463	.001	.010	.992	.847	1.181
	Population Growth Rate	-27.346	678.897	-.006	-.040	.968	.564	1.774
	Gained Independence From What Country	284.080	410.283	.089	.692	.494	.861	1.162
	Human Development Index	24793.904	8711.431	.821	2.846	.008	.170	5.867
	People Living Under \$1.25	116.918	21.832	.658	5.355	.000	.939	1.065
	Literacy Rate	-71.009	31.377	-.422	-2.263	.030	.408	2.449

a. Dependent Variable: Immigration

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